Cruise report 64PE374 on RV Pelagia

MedBlack GEOTRACES leg 3

Istanbul (Turkey) 25-07-2013 to Lisbon (Portugal) 11-08-2013

Micha J.A. Rijkenberg

With contributions of participants
Acknowledgements
We would like to thank the Master of the RV *Pelagia* Pieter Kuijt and his crew for their excellent support during our cruise. The post-cruise data management by Hendrik van Aken and the data management group was excellent as usual. We thank NIOZ Marine Research facilities for their support. We also want to thank chief bottle washer Rachel Davidson who came especially from New Zealand (University of Otago) to help us cleaning the myriads of bottles in preparation of our cruises. We acknowledge NWO (project number: 822.01.015) and Royal NIOZ for financing of the ship time and part of the cruise support.
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Cruise summary

Research cruise
The MedBlack GEOTRACES leg 3 (64PE374) on RV Pelagia departed 25 July 2013 from Istanbul (Turkey) and arrived in Lisbon (Portugal) on 11 August 2013 with Micha Rijkenberg and Loes Gerrings (Royal NIOZ) as chief scientists.

Stations
During cruise 64PE374 we occupied a total of 19 full depth stations (Figure 1). Typically at each station we would have two casts to the bottom starting with the ultraclean CTD (UCC) followed by the high volume CTD (12L standard CTD). Details like the date, time and position of the actual deployments at each station can be found in Appendix 1.

During this cruise we encountered communication problems with the CTD’s. However, under the professional guidance of Ruud Groenewegen we managed to complete almost all planned stations. Only one station (number 16) was not sampled by the UCC. In addition, at some casts of the 12L standard CTD some bottles did not close or closed at the same depth as another bottle. For reference, what follows here is an explanation where and when problems occurred. Bottle 12 of station 4 cast 2 with the 12L standard CTD came open on deck. Replacement of the top lid solved the problem. Station 8 had three casts. Due to a communication problem with the UCC CTD the first UCC cast was stopped. The second UCC cast called 1a was successful and sampled. At station 9, cast 2, 12L standard CTD, bottles 2-4 were closed at the same depth (500 m). Also at station 10 there was a problem with the communication with the UCC CTD. At station 10 the 12L standard CTD was used for the first cast and the UCC CTD for the second cast. Communication problems at station 11 resulted in the closure of two 12L standard CTD bottles at the same depth (bottle 1 and 2 at ~ 2540 m). At station 13 cast 1, UCC CTD, the bottles 15 – 19 did not close. Instead the bottles 20 - 24 sampled those depths (ucc_b20 = 250m, ucc_b21 = 205m, ucc_b22 = 150m, ucc_b23 = 125m, ucc_b24 = 100m). An extra cast 3 at station 13 sampled the 5 depths in the upper water column that were not sampled during cast 1. At station 14, bottle 13 of cast 1 with the UCC CTD was not sampled because the tap of this bottle was left open. Several UCC casts at station 16 failed due to communication problems resulting in not having any ultraclean samples taken at station 16. The 12L standard CTD came on deck with bottle 9 still open and also bottle 14 appeared to have deeper water in it. At the stations 17 and 19 bottle 9 of cast 2 with the 12L standard CTD was still open coming back on deck. Station 17 was a hyper station and the cross over station with the Spanish lead GEOTRACES cruise on the B/O Ángeles Alvariño (PI’s: Patrizia Ziveri and Jordi Garcia-Orellana). Note that the actual station numbering is different from the original planned station numbering.
Figure 1. Cruise track of research cruise 64PE374 on the RV Pelagia in July/August 2013. Red dots represent normal stations with typically one full depth UCC cast and a full depth 12L standard CTD. Blue dots represent hyper stations with 2 to 3 full depth UCC casts and 1 full depth 12L standard CTD cast.

Cruise narrative
Originally 25 stations were planned for leg 3 of the MedBlack GEOTRACES cruises. However, because we did not get permission to sample in French waters we could only sample 19 stations. As a consequence we did not sample in the Ligurian Sea.

The participants boarded the RV Pelagia at 10:00 am on 25 July 2013. The Pelagia left Istanbul early in the afternoon for leg 3 of the MedBlack GEOTRACES cruises. The first station was on 27 July. All CTD’s worked well at station 1. However, from station 8 onwards the CTD casts were plagued by communication problems between the CTD and the computer in the CTD control room. Due to this problems we missed 1 UCC CTD cast at station 16. All other stations and casts were nevertheless successfully sampled.

A cubic meter container was filled with ultraclean 0.2 µm filtered surface seawater for Hans Slagter and Loes Gerringa on 7 August 2013 between 05:55 am UTC (after station 18) and 18:40 UTC before station 19.

The weather conditions stayed good throughout the expedition. We arrived in Lisbon (Portugal) in the morning of 11 August.

Ship’s clock
The ship left the harbour of Istanbul on 25 July 2013 with the ship’s time set on Turkish local time (UTC+3). The clock was changed in the night from 6 on 7 August from UTC+3 to UTC+2. The clock stayed on UTC+2 until arrival in Lisbon (Portugal).

Weather
The weather conditions were excellent during most of the expedition (Figure 2). Some windforce 6-7 winds were encountered between station 6 and 9.
General preliminary results
This paragraph shows the section plots (Figure 3) of some of the parameters which were measured on board. There are 4 sections A, B, C and D and each section is graphed against section distance in km where the section distance of 0 occurs at the tail end of the arrows in the below Figure 3.

Parameters measured on board were salinity and oxygen (from the CTD sensor, Figure 4 and 5), the nutrients (phosphate, silicate, nitrate and nitrite Figure 6-9) and fluorescence (Figure 10).

Figure 3. The cruise track of cruise 64PE374 is divided in 4 sections A, B, C and D. The section plots are based on section distance (km) where 0 km starts at the tail of each arrow in this section map.
During 64PE374 the salinity varied between 17 and 36.5 and was on average 20. The salinity section plots are used to give a strongly simplified indication of the water masses that we encountered during 64PE374. For the Ionian Sea (Figure 4A and B) information on water masses was used from Malanotte-Rizzoli et al. (1997). Figure 4A shows the eastern Ionian Sea transect with the highest salinities occurring in the surface waters (upper 200m) consisting of Modified Atlantic Waters (MAW) and Ionian Surface Waters (ISW). The surface waters on the western side of the Ionian Sea (Figure 4B) are less saline due to mixing of MAW/ISW with Adriatic Surface Waters (ASW). ASW originates in the northern Adriatic through mixing of coastal river outflows and denser interior waters. ASW flows out from the Otranto Strait as a current confined to the Italian coastline. The Levantine Intermediate Waters (LIW) lay below the surface waters between ~ 200-600m which mixes with the Adriatic Deep Water (ADW, 700-1600 m) above the ADW below 1600m which forms the bulk of the Eastern Mediterranean Deep Water (EMDW).

For the Tyrrhenian Sea information on water masses was used from Send et al. (1999) (Figure 4C). The Tyrrhenian Sea is located east of Sardinia (Figure 3). It is a basin that is nearly totally enclosed below about 400m depth. Its only deep connection is via the narrow Tyrrhenian Trough (1900 m depth) in the Sardinia Channel. Tyrrhenian Deep Water (TDW) is warmer and more saline than Western Mediterranean Deep Water (WMDW) and is formed by inflowing WMDW (along the bottom) mixing with overlying warmer and more saline LIW possibly mixed with some Atlantic Intermediate Water (AIW). The surface waters in the upper 200m of the Tyrrhenian Sea consists of MAW (Millot, 1999). Similar water masses are found in the Balearic Sea (Millot, 1999) (Figure 4D).

high oxygen concentrations between 1000-2000 m depth in the Ionian Sea may indicate dense water formed in the Adriatic Sea (Manca et al. 2002). A similar signature of differences in the macro-nutrient concentrations compared to surrounding waters confirm this oxygen feature (Figures 6A-9A). High surface oxygen concentrations in the western Mediterranean coinciding with low salinities indicate the North Balearic Front (Figures 4C and D).

Figure 5. Section plots of preliminary oxygen data (UCC sensor data) for cruise 64PE374 in the northern Mediterranean Sea. Note that the color scale may change between graphs. Data: Ruud van Groenewegen and Mark Eveleens

Phosphate concentrations varied from below the detection limit up to 8.5 µmol/L. Nitrate varied from below the detection limit up to 6 µmol/L. Nitrite varied from below the detection limit up to 0.25 µmol/L and silicate varied from 0.1 to 330 µmol/L. In general, surface nutrient concentrations were lower in the eastern than in the western Ionian Sea (Figure 6A,B – 9A,B) but increased with depth. Nutrient uptake, as indicated by higher fluorescence in the eastern compared to the western Ionian Sea may explain this discrepancy in nutrient concentrations (Figures 10A and B). Except for nitrite, generally low nutrient concentrations were found in the surface waters compared to the deep waters of the western Mediterranean Sea (Figures 6C,D – 9C,D).
Figure 6. Preliminary phosphate data from the UCC for cruise 64PE374 in the northern Mediterranean Sea. Note that the color scale may change between graphs. Data: Karel Bakker

Figure 7. Preliminary silicate data from the UCC for cruise 64PE374 in the northern Mediterranean Sea. Note that the color scale may change between graphs. Data: Karel Bakker
Figure 8. Preliminary nitrate data from the UCC for cruise 64PE374 in the northern Mediterranean Sea. Note that the color scale may change between graphs. Data: Karel Bakker

Figure 9. Preliminary nitrite data from the UCC for cruise 64PE374 in the northern Mediterranean Sea. Note that the color scale may change between graphs. Data: Karel Bakker
Figure 10. Preliminary fluorescence data for the upper 250 m of the water column from the UCC for cruise 64PE373 in the Black. Note that the color scale may change between graphs. Data: Sven Ober and Frank van Maarseveen

Underway surface data
Figure 11, 12 and 13 show the underway surface seawater data as measured by the ship’s Aqua flow system (Chelsea Instruments). The sea surface temperature ranges between 18-30°C with the highest temperatures in the Tyrrhenian Sea (Figure 11). The sea surface salinity varied between 20 and 40 (Figure 12) and the fluorescence varied between 0 and 0.19 (Figure 13).

Figure 11. The preliminary sea surface temperature data as measured with the ship’s underway system during 64PE374.
Figure 12. The preliminary sea surface salinity data as measured with the ship’s underway system during 64PE374.

Figure 13. The preliminary sea surface fluorescence data as measured with the ship’s underway system during 64PE374.

Description of sample equipment and deployment
We used a system for ultra clean trace metal sampling consisting of an all-titanium frame with 24 sample bottles of 27 L each made of PVDF plastic (abbreviated UCC), see Figure 14. A Kley France winch was used to deploy the UCC to deep Mediterranean waters by a 17.7 mm diameter Kevlar hydrowire with seven independent internal signal/conductor cables (Cousin Trestec S.A.). Sampling of the UCC occurred in a class 100 clean-room container (de Baar et
Filtered samples were directly filtered from the UCC sample bottles under nitrogen pressure using 0.2 µm Sartobran 300 cartridges (Sartorius).

To collect non trace metal clean samples a standard CTD frame of stainless steel was used equipped with 24 water samplers each with a volume of 12 liter manufactured by Ocean Test Equipment. More details about the CTD frames used can be found at page 23.

To collect low Fe surface seawater for use in the laboratory we pumped seawater into a trace metal clean laboratory container using a Teflon diaphragm pump (Almatec A-15, Germany) connected by a braided PVC tubing to a towed fish positioned at approximately 3 m depth alongside the ship. This surface seawater from the fish was filtered in-line using a Sartobran 300 filter capsule (Sartorius) with a 0.2 µm cut-off and subsequently stored in a cubic meter vessel.

Figure 14. The sample equipment used to take trace metal clean and non-trace metal clean water samples and particles during 64PE374.
Concluding
With 19 full depth stations we have completed the third and final leg of the Dutch part of the MedBlack GEOTRACES project aiming to determine the distribution of important trace elements and isotopes throughout the Mediterranean and Black Seas. The objective is to elucidate important biogeochemical processes, sources and sinks that determine the distribution of bio-essential and other trace elements in the Mediterranean Sea and Black Sea. We sampled an extensive set of parameters with direct on board measurement of the trace metals Fe and Al, the CO₂ system, nutrients and the organic speciation of Fe. We also sampled a large set of parameters for the international community including labile Fe, Co and Co speciation, Ag, Cu, Zn, Cd, Mn, Ba, U, Mo, the rare earth elements, the isotopes of Fe, Cu, Zn, Cd, Pb, Cr, Ni, Nd, Si, ¹⁵N, ¹⁸O, D, coccoliths, POC, particulates and other elements.

References
Send, U., J. Font, G. Krahmann, C. Millot, M. Rhein, and J. Tintoré (1999), Recent advances in observing the physical oceanography of the western Mediterranean Sea, Progress in Oceanography, 44(1-3), 37-64.
2. General introduction of the Dutch GEOTRACES project in the Mediterranean and Black Sea

Many trace elements and especially iron (Fe), are critical for marine life and as a consequence influence the functioning of ocean ecosystems. Some trace elements are essential, others are toxic pollutants, while some, together with a diverse array of isotopes, are used to assess modern-ocean processes and the role of the ocean in past climate change. Until recently fragmentary data of trace elements and isotopes in the oceans restricted our knowledge of their biogeochemical cycles. GEOTRACES aims to improve our understanding of biogeochemical cycles and large-scale distribution of trace elements and isotopes in the marine environment and establish the sensitivity of these distributions to changing environmental conditions. The objective is to elucidate important biogeochemical processes, sources and sinks that determine the distribution of bio-essential and other trace elements in the Mediterranean Sea and Black Sea. As dust is a main transport pathway of bio-essential trace elements to the surface of the open ocean the heavy Saharan dust impact on the Mediterranean Sea is ideal to investigate the effect of dust on the biogeochemical cycles of trace elements and isotopes. The Black Sea is the largest anoxic basin of the world and forms an ideal natural laboratory to unravel the microbial driven reduction and oxidation reactions of trace elements and isotopes. For example, here results will have major implications for the isotope systematics of Fe and sulphur in ancient deposits such as the Banded Iron Formations that are studied to unravel the redox conditions of the ancient Earth.

GEOTRACES Mediterranean Sea and Black Sea

The Mediterranean Sea is the source of the warm and saline Mediterranean Outflow Water (MOW) which is a significant water mass to the North Atlantic Ocean (van Aken, 2000a; van Aken, 2000b) increasing the salinity of its deep waters (Reid, 1994). The MOW has enhanced concentrations of for example Fe, Al and Ni and may therefore act as a source of trace metals to surrounding North Atlantic water masses (Hydes, 1983; Boyle et al., 1985; Thuroczy et al., 2010; Middag et al., 2012). The Mediterranean Sea is also an ideal environment to study the strong link between the ocean, the atmosphere and the continent (http://www.cybaes.org/gtmed/) and is suspected to be very sensitive to climate change (de Madron et al., 2011). The Mediterranean Sea is one of the greatest receivers of continental dust input in the contemporary ocean and is in the last decade used as a natural laboratory to study the effects of dust deposition on the surface ocean (Quétel et al., 1993; Guerzoni et al., 1999; Bonnet and Guieu, 2006; Wagener et al., 2010; Ternon et al., 2011). This aspect is especially important as dust is the main external source of biological essential elements to the surface waters of the open ocean worldwide (Jickells et al. 2005). In the Mediterranean Sea, the eastern basin is a truly oligotrophic marine ecosystem limited by phosphorus deficiency, and Fe was suggested to stimulate primary production (Krom et al., 1991; Saydam, 1996). In the western basin, low residual concentrations of Fe after biological Fe removal from the water column may lead to changes in species succession or even growth limitation (Sarthou and Jaendel, 2001; Bonnet and Guieu, 2006). In the east and west basins, input of Saharan dust is the main source of Fe and phosphorus to the surface ocean, although in the eastern basin the Nile river may also contribute (Krom et al., 1999; Sarthou and Jaendel, 2001; Markaki et al., 2003). To really understand the coupling between the ocean and the
atmosphere it is necessary to also understand the distribution of TEIs with respect to other natural and anthropogenic sources, cycling and the Mediterranean hydrography.

The Black Sea is a meromictic sea with a strong vertical stratification (permanent halocline) determined by the strong vertical salinity gradient. The corresponding strong density stratification limits the supply of oxygen to the deep waters, making the Black Sea the world’s largest anoxic basin and is therefore the reducing end-member of the spectrum of oceanic redox environments. The Black Sea is an ideal natural laboratory to unravel the microbial driven reduction and oxidation reactions of trace metals Fe, Zn, Cu, Cd, Mn and others, and the associated redox cycling of sulfur (S). The classical sequence of redox reactions for oxidation of organic matter exists worldwide in marine sediments and all anoxic basins including the brine basins in the deep East Mediterranean Sea. Yet here in the Black Sea, the complete redox sequence from oxic, to suboxic to anoxic-sulfidic waters can be found and sampled with a unique high vertical resolution over the first ~140 meters depth range (Murray, 1991). This allows sophisticated high resolution sampling of all redox gradients and their intrinsic major changes of concentrations and stable isotope ratios. The cycling of Mn and Fe in the water column is related to the biogeochemical dynamics of oxygen, nitrogen, sulfur, metals, and organic particles (Lewis and Landing, 1991; Yemenicioglu et al., 2006). The scavenging behavior of manganese and iron in combination with their redox cycling determine the concentrations and distributions of these and possibly other metals like Co, Ni, Cd and Zn in the water column (Tankere et al., 2001). Oxidation of upward diffusing reduced Mn and Fe into the oxic zone leads to precipitation with potentially net incorporation and adsorption of other metals. The distribution of trace metals in the oxic surface layer of the Black Sea may therefore depend on the physical factors leading to upward mixing of reduced Fe and Mn, and further on other sources of TEIs like atmospheric input, rivers e.g. the Danube (Guieu et al., 1998), and the Black Sea hydrography. The Black Sea is also an ideal environment to investigate the expected strong isotope fractionations of notably $^{56}\text{Fe}/^{54}\text{Fe}$ due to microbial redox reactions but also Zn, Cu and Cd which precipitate as sulphides, likely resulting in isotope fractionation. We intend to do detailed vertical sampling for $^{56}\text{Fe}/^{54}\text{Fe}$, $^{66}\text{Zn}/^{64}\text{Zn}$, $^{65}\text{Cu}/^{63}\text{Cu}$ and $^{112}\text{Cd}/^{110}\text{Cd}$ and will invite an expert to also sample for sulfur isotopes. Results will have major implications for the isotope systematics of Fe and S in ancient deposits such as the Banded Iron Formations (BIF) that are studied to unravel the redox conditions of the ancient Earth (Johnson and Beard, 2006; Johnson et al., 2008). In addition, the understanding of all aspects involved in the fractionation of the stable isotopes of bio-essential metals Fe, Cu, Zn and Cd may be crucial in elucidating and quantifying the sources, cycling, fate and impact of those trace metals on marine ecosystems. The hypersaline (salinity up to tenfold regular compared to seawater) anoxic brines in depressions of the seafloor of the East Mediterranean are small features compared to the Black Sea. Yet these Bannock and Tyro Basins are very interesting to unravel the redox chemistry of trace metals (Saager et al., 1993; Schijf et al., 1993) and are awaiting the assessment of stable isotope fractionations at the anoxic brines interface of Fe, Cu, Cd, Zn and Mo (Reitz et al., 2007). At the moment we don’t have a complete picture of the biogeochemical cycles that determine the distribution of TEIs in the Mediterranean Sea and Black Sea as for most TEIs data are extremely scarce and fragmentary in both seas, this making interpretation often difficult and speculative (Boyle et al., 1985; Saager et al., 1993; Saydam, 1996; de Baar et al., 2001; Zeri and Voutsinou-Taliadouri, 2003; Statham and Hart, 2005; Bonnet and Guieu, 2006). Increasing the very small available data sets with high resolution full depth transects throughout the Mediterranean Sea and Black Sea would provide
us with the overview to determine for the first time the important sources and processes explaining the distribution of TEIs.

References


3. Participants and parameters

3.1. List of participants

1. Micha Rijkenberg PI NIOZ; Biological Oceanography
2. Loes Gerrina PI NIOZ; Biological Oceanography
3. Karel Bakker NIOZ; MRF
4. Barry Boersen NIOZ; MTEC
5. Johann Bown NIOZ; Biological Oceanography
6. Marie Boyé LEMAR IUEM
7. Damien Cardinal UPMC
8. Nikki Clargo NIOZ; Biological Oceanography
9. Mark Eveleens NIOZ; MRF
10. Raja Ganeshram University of Edinburgh
11. Ejin George University of Otago
12. Ruud Groenewegen NIOZ; MRF
13. Paolo Montagna ISMAR, Bologna
14. Matt Patey NOC, Southampton
15. John Rolison University of Otago
16. Simona Retelletti Brogi Istituto di Biofisica, Pisa
17. Lesley Salt NIOZ; Biological Oceanography
18. Leon Wuis NIOZ; MTEC
19. Eyal Wurgaft Hebrew University of Jerusalem

For complete addresses and email see Appendix 2

Figure 15. Scientists and crew during 64PE374 on the RV Pelagia in the Mediterranean Sea.
3.2. UCC Sample Team

The following people have been part of the general UCC sampling team in the ultraclean container:

1) Simona Brogi  
2) Eyal Wurgaft  
3) Damien Cardinal  
4) Paolo Montagna  
5) Raja Ganeshram  
6) Marie Boyé  
7) Micha Rijkenberg

Figure 16. a) Eyal and Simona, b) Raja, c) Paolo and Micha in the ultra clean container (Pictures Damien Cardinal and Micha Rijkenberg).
### 3.3. List of parameters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Samples</th>
<th>collected by</th>
<th>responsible for analysis and data</th>
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<td></td>
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<td>Library metals totals</td>
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<td>P. Laan/M. Rijkenberg/H. de Baar R. Middag/P. Laan/M. Rijkenberg/H. de Baar</td>
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<tr>
<td>Library metals dissolved</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Phosphate/Silicate (µM)</td>
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<td>K. Bakker</td>
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<td>M. Patey/E. Achterberg M. Patey/E. Achterberg</td>
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<td>J. Bown/M. Rijkenberg</td>
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<td>L. Gerringa</td>
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<td>Dissolved Cu</td>
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<td>E. Achterberg G. Dulaquais/M. Boyé G. Dulaquais/M. Boyé</td>
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<td>G. Dulaquais/M. Boyé</td>
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<td>R. Ganeshram J.-B. Stuut</td>
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<td>O. Rouxel J. Rolison/C. Stirlinger</td>
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<td>Parameter</td>
<td>Team/Principal Investigator(s)</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Dissolved Si isotopes</td>
<td>D. Cardinal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissolved Nd isotopes</td>
<td>P. Montagna</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>REE</td>
<td>P. Montagna</td>
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<td>Humic acids</td>
<td>M. Boyé</td>
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<td>Coccoliths</td>
<td>M. Boyé</td>
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<td>Coccolith taxonomy</td>
<td>M. Boyé</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POC</td>
<td>M. Boyé</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Particulate Co (other metals, CTD)</td>
<td>M. Boyé</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DOC/CDOM</td>
<td>S. Brogi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta^{14}$CO$_2$ and DOCA$^{14}$C</td>
<td>S. Brogi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salinity</td>
<td>R. Groenewegen/M. Eveleens</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**12L standard CTD**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Team/Principal Investigator(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DIC &amp; Alkalinity</td>
<td>N. Clargo/L. Salt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oxygen</td>
<td>N. Clargo/L. Salt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Rob Middag will use the chelating resin Nobias-chelate PA1 in an off-line pre-concentration manifold with magnetic sector inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) detection for analysis of Y, Cd, La, Pb, Sc, Ti, V, Mn, Fe, Ni, Zn and Ga.
4. Sampling and analyses

4.1. General parameters

4.1.1. The CTD systems

Ruud Groenewegen and Marks Eveleens

Royal Netherlands Institute for Sea Research, Texel, the Netherlands

During the cruise 2 different CTD-systems were deployed.
- An Ultra Clean CTD-system for ultra clean trace metal sampling (23 casts).
- A standard Volume CTD for almost all the other sampling like CO₂, dissolved oxygen (DO) and phytoplankton (19 casts)

These systems are briefly described below.

The Ultra Clean CTD-system (UCC)
The system consists of 3 major modules:
- A box-shaped titanium CTD frame with 24 sampling bottles made of PVDF and titanium (Figure 17)
- A clean air container for contamination-free (sub)sampling
- A special deep sea winch with an iron-free Super Aramid CTD-cable

To avoid contamination, the frame of the UCC-system is made of titanium and all the electronic pressure housings and other parts are made of titanium or clean plastics like Teflon, PVDF or POM. The frame can be parked and ‘seasave’ secured inside the clean air container. Prior to a cast the frame is prepared inside that container and transported to the CTD-launching spot using a custom made aluminium pallet and a longbedded forklift. After the cast the frame can be returned to the clean air container within minutes avoiding contamination of the equipment with grease, rust or smoke particles from the ship. After closing of the container the air treatment system starts to clean the air using HEPA-filters, meeting class 100 clean-room specifications after 15 minutes, upon which sampling can start.

The electronic system consists of a SBE9plus underwater unit, a SBE11plusV2 deckunit, a NIOZ developed multivalve bottle-controller, a SBE3plus thermometer, a SBE4 conductivity sensor, a SBE5T underwater pump, a SBE43 dissolved oxygen sensor, a Chelsea Aquatracka MKIII fluorometer, a Wetlabs C-Star transmissiometer (25 cm, deep, red) and a Satlantic PAR-sensor for underwater-PAR.

For Ultra Clean watersampling 24 samplers (24 liter each) are applied. These samplers are produced by NIOZ and are made of PVDF and titanium. Due to the butterfly-type closure on both ends of the sampler the flow-through is excellent. The samplers are controlled with a hydraulic system. The heart of the sampling system is the NIOZ developed Multivalve.

For bottom-detection 2 devices are installed: A Benthos PSA-916 altimeter and a bottom switch with a weight on a 10 meter rope. The SBE11+ has a NMEA interface for navigational data and a voltage input for a surface-PAR sensor which is mounted on the foredeck. On the logging computer Seasoft for Windows is installed (Seasave V7.20 and SBE Data Processing V7.20).
The standard CTD-system (ST-CTD)
The CTD-system consists of a SBE9plus underwater unit, a SBE11plusV2 deckunit, a SBE32 caroussel, a SBE3plus thermometer, a SBE4 conductivity sensor, a SBE5T underwater pump, a SBE43 dissolved oxygen sensor, a Chelsea Aquatracka MKIII fluorometer, a Wetlabs C-Star transmissiometer (25 cm, deep, red), a Satlantic logarithmic PAR-sensor for underwater PAR and a Satlantic linear PAR-sensor for deck reference.

For watersampling 24 watersamplers each with a volume of 12 liters manufactured by Ocean Test Equipment are applied. These 12-liter samplers are equipped with an internal stainless steel spring (Figure 18).

For bottom detection 2 devices are installed: A Benthos PSA-916 altimeter and a bottom switch with a weight on a 10 meter rope. The SBE11+ has a NMEA interface for navigational data. On the logging computer Seasoft for Windows is installed (Seasave V7.20 and SBE Data Processing V7.20).

For in situ calibration of the profiling thermometer (SBE3) a high-accuracy reference-thermometer (SBE35) was installed for all of the casts.

Figure 18. Deployment of the standard CTD (Picture Damien Cardinal).
**Results**

A total of 42 casts on were carried out and in spite of frequent communication problems with the watersampler on the UCC frame, all samplers got filled and verified at their appropriate depths time and again, with one exception only and that cast was rejected in total (UCC cast station 16). During the cruise, while trying to diagnose the communication problem, a few items were swapped. The problem appeared to have multiple causes and only got fully solved 2 stations before finishing the cruise. Meanwhile other problems had developed in both thermometer and conductivity read-out of the UCC-CTD, leading to pressure related drop-out. For all stations an uncorrupted CTD-profile from the standard CTD is always available.

For in situ calibrations of the profiling CTD-thermometers (type SBE-3) a Seabird reference-thermometer (type SBE35) was used. For the calibration of the C-sensor of the standard-CTD, salinity-samples were tapped on board for analysis back home. After that, the now preliminary postprocessing of the data will be corrected. Most of the casts of the standard-CTD, samples were tapped for Winkler titrations in order to calibrate the DO-sensors. With the titration results the DO-sensors of both CTD-systems will be calibrated as good as possible.
4.1.2. Dissolved oxygen

Lesley Salt and Nikki Clargo

Royal Netherlands Institute for Sea Research, Texel, the Netherlands

Dissolved oxygen was measured from three depths from all 19 of the regular 12L CTD casts to check the calibration of the oxygen sensor fixed to the CTD frame itself. A refined protocol of the spectrophotometric Winkler approach was conducted, where a continuous-flow analyzer is coupled with a custom-made autosampler holding up to 30 oxygen bottles (Reinthaler et al. 2006). The time required for analysis is 2 min per sample, and the precision is 0.05% at ~200 mmol O₂ m⁻³. Dissolved oxygen was analysed in a thermostated lab container equipped with a Traacs 880 auto-analyser spectrophotometer measuring the intense yellow colour of the samples produced from the formation of iodine after the addition of acid. All measurements were calibrated with standards diluted in oxygen saturated surface sea water in the salinity range of the Atlantic Ocean stations.

Theory and Method

For the measurement of dissolved oxygen in the water column a refined protocol of the spectrophotometric Winkler approach (Winkler, 1888) was conducted in combination with a Traacs auto-analyser spectrophotometer. This method is based on the following redox-reactions:

\[
\begin{align*}
2 \text{Mn}^{2+} + 4 \text{OH}^- &\rightarrow 2 \text{Mn(OH)}_2 \\
2 \text{Mn(OH)}_2 + \text{O}_2 &\rightarrow 2 \text{MnO(OH)}_2 \\
2 \text{MnO(OH)}_2 + 8 \text{H}^+ + 6 \Gamma^- &\rightarrow 2 \text{Mn}^{2+} + 2 I_3^- + 6 \text{H}_2\text{O} \\
2 I_3^- + 2 \text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-} &\rightarrow 6 \Gamma^- + \text{S}_4\text{O}_6^{2-}
\end{align*}
\]

In the Winkler method, manganese chloride is added to a known amount of seawater, followed by the addition of an alkaline sodium hydroxide-potassium iodide solution. The Mn²⁺ is oxidized by the dissolved oxygen to higher oxidation states resulting in a manganous hydroxide (MnO(OH)₂) precipitate in the water and forms a hydrated tetravalent oxide of manganese. Upon acidification, the manganese hydroxides dissolve to reduce the manganese back to the Mn²⁺ form and the tetravalent manganese acts as an oxidizing agent, which liberates iodine in the form of I₃⁻ ions from the iodide ions, which has an intense yellow colour. The iodine is equivalent to the dissolved oxygen in seawater and present as free iodine (I₂) and tri-iodide (I₃⁻). The color of the sample is determined by the light transmission through the sample-bottle with a spectrophotometer and is based on measuring the absorbance of the colored I₂ and I₃⁻. The concentration of oxygen is then calculated by comparing the absorbance in a sample against standards of known oxygen content made from potassium iodate (KIO₃) solutions.

Equipment

For the dissolved oxygen analysis, a custom-made autosampler was used in combination with a standard Technicon TRAAACS 800 autoanalyzer (Bran + Luebbe, Germany). The
The autosampler consists of an electric motor, a pneumatic sampling arm driven by compressed air at ~5 bar, and a magnetic stirrer. The parameters were adjusted to 30-s flushing with wash solution, followed by 3 picks of a sample and 90-s aspiration of the sample. The platform holds up to 30 bottles, and the autosampler is completely independent from the TRAACS analyzer and its software. The TRAACS analyzer was equipped with a standard tungsten filament lamp and a fixed band pass filter of 460 ± 10 nm. The flow cell had a volume of 7.85 mm³, and the flow rate was set to ~1 cm³·min⁻¹ via the internal peristaltic pump. To maintain a stable temperature in the flow cell, a heat exchange element was installed in front of the cuvette. The analyzer was controlled via the commercial TRAACS analysis software (AACE version 5.40 for Windows).

**Chemicals**

The common Winkler reagents were used to determine oxygen concentrations:

- Reagent (A): MnCl₂; Manganese Chloride (MnCl₂·4H₂O; 600 g dm⁻³; 3 mol L⁻¹)
- Reagent (B): KI/NaOH; Alkaline iodide reagent (NaOH; 250 g dm⁻³; 6 mol L⁻¹ + KI; 350 g dm⁻³; 2 mol L⁻¹)
- Reagent (C): 5NH₂SO₄; Sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄; 10 mol L⁻¹)

After preparation, the reagent-grade chemicals were filtered through Whatman GF/F filters and subsequently stored in polycarbonate bottles at ~20°C in the dark. The standard stock solution was prepared with Potassium Iodate (KIO₃) (Malinckrodt Baker; primary standard). KIO₃ was dried at 180°C for 6 h, and 2.5g KIO₃ was dissolved in 250ml ultrapure Milli-Q water. Thus, 1ml KIO₃ stock solution is equivalent to 75.30 mmol O₂ L⁻¹. The prepared stock solution was divided into small 50 ml polycarbonate bottles and stored in a chamber with 100% humidity to prevent evaporation of water and therefore an increase in the concentration of the stock solution over long storage periods.

**Glass bottles**

Custom-made oxygen bottles made from borosilicate glass with a nominal volume in the range of 116 to 122ml were calibrated to the mm³ level. Each borosilicate glass bottle and the corresponding ground-glass stopper were engraved with a unique number for later identification of the exact volume. A set of these bottles was used to prepare the calibration standards. In the analysis software of the instrument, we apply a single volume-correction factor calculated from the mean of the volume class, resulting in the automatic output of final oxygen concentrations.

**Sampling**

Samples of seawater were obtained in duplicate from the CTD sampler from only three depths as a calibration for the oxygen sensor fixed to the CTD frame itself (Figure 19). Seawater was siphoned into the 120 ml oxygen bottles with Tygon tubing overflowing each bottle by at least 3 times its volume and the first samples to be sampled from the CTD. The oxygen content in the bottle was fixed as quickly as possible with 1 ml reagent A (MnCl₂), followed by 2 ml reagent B (KI/NaOH), both added under the shoulder of the bottle with high-precision dispensers (Fortuna Optifix basic; precision ± 0.1%). After adding the reagents, the bottles were stoppered and shaken vigorously for approximately 20 sec. to mix the chemicals. The stoppering of the bottles were done as quickly as possible to prevent contamination of undersaturated samples by atmospheric oxygen and an elastic band ensured that the stopper remained well in place. The bottles were stored immersed in water baths (kept at in situ
container temperature) to avoid drying of the stopper seal. After approximately 20 mins, the fixed bottles were shaken again to ensure complete reaction of the chemicals. Samples need to be stored under water for at least 2 hours before measuring. Before starting the measurements on the TRAACS system, 1ml of reagent (C) (5NHCl) was added to the fixed samples. Subsequently, a small magnetic stirring flea was introduced carefully, and the bottle openings were covered with parafilm to avoid loss of volatile compounds. The bottles were immediately covered with dark plastic cylinders shielding ambient light as iodine is light sensitive. The samples were gently stirred for a few seconds with an external magnetic stirrer (Metrohm) until the precipitate in the bottles was dissolved. Finally, the bottles were placed on the autosampler. Before aspiration of the sample into the flow-through analyzer, the sample was agitated again with the built-in magnetic stirrer of the auto-sampler to ensure complete mixing of the solution, thereby preventing chemical stratification.

**Calibration and Measuring Procedure**

Instrument calibration involves the measurement of the baseline or wash solution, a primer, instrument calibration standards, and sensitivity drift standards. For the wash solution and standards used during work at sea, particle-poor oxygen saturated seawater was collected into an 20L polycarbonate carboy and acclimatized at 20°C. For the instrument calibration standards and the primer, seawater was poured into oxygen bottles with known volume. Subsequently, reagents A (1 ml), B (2 ml), and C (1 ml) were added in reverse order with the high-precision dispensers. After the addition of each reagent, the bottles were stoppered and vigorously shaken. Finally, the KIO₃ standard solution was added with highly accurate adjustable volume electronic pipettes. After a magnetic stirring flea was inserted into a bottle, the bottle was immediately covered with parafilm and a dark plastic cylinder. The correlation coefficient of the calibration line was never less than 1.000. The primer is equal to the highest standard and is used to adjust the baseline and gain setting of the photomultiplier to prevent the sample peaks from going off scale. Generally, calibration was done in the range of expected oxygen concentrations. For flow-through systems, it is necessary to provide a low concentration marker or baseline to separate consecutive peaks. To minimize carryover effects between the baseline and the samples, the wash solution was adjusted to an oxygen concentration slightly lower than the expected lowest value in the samples. The baseline is measured at the start and the end of an analytical run to correct for baseline drift if necessary. To correct for changes in the sensitivity of the photomultiplier (e.g., due to slight temperature variations), sensitivity drift standards were prepared with an O₂ concentration between the highest and lowest sample in the batch. The drift standards were placed after the instrument calibration standards, and at the end of the run. Both wash solution and sensitivity drift standards were prepared similarly to the calibration standards. A conventional blank is not required for calibration because standards and references include all the chemicals also used for regular samples. All preparations and measurements were done in the temperature controlled container set at 20°C. The calibration standards were diluted from the 71.320 mmol L⁻¹ stock solution and were freshly prepared. Duplicate samples were measured from each station to control both the sampling procedure and the reproducibility of the spectrophotometer. The standard deviation of differences between duplicate samples was 0.33 μmol L⁻¹.
References

Figure 19. Karel and Nikki taking oxygen samples from the standard 12L CTD (Pictures Damien Cardinal).
4.1.3. Nutrients

Karel Bakker\(^1\) and Matthew Patey\(^2\)

\(^1\)Royal Netherlands Institute for Sea Research, Texel, The Netherlands
\(^2\)National Oceanography Centre Southampton, United Kingdom

Introduction
Nutrient measurements were made on board by two separate systems and operators (Figure 20).

1) A Seal QuAAtro, gas-segmented continuous flow auto analyser was operated in an air-conditioned lab-container by Karel Bakker (NIOZ). Four channels were measured simultaneously: phosphate, silicate, nitrate and nitrite together, and nitrite separately. Samples were taken from all bottles from both the Ultra Clean CTD (UCC) and normal CTD rosette at each station. The sample rate was set at 60 samples per hour, measuring 950 samples during the cruise.

2) An in-house built gas-segmented continuous flow auto analyser, operated by Matt Patey (NOCS) in the chemistry laboratory. This system was used to measure surface samples (typically down to 500 m depth) from the UCC rosette. Two channels were measured simultaneously: nitrate and nitrite together, and phosphate. This system was adapted with a long path-length (2 metres) liquid waveguide capillary flow cell (LWCC) to enable very low detection limits (ca 0.5 nmol /L). Samples were measured at a rate of 15 per hour, with a total of approximately 270 samples measured during the cruise (Patey et al. 2008, 2010).

Figure 20. Karel measuring micromolar nutrients in the nutrient container and Matt measuring nanomolar nutrients in the chemistry lab on RV Pelagia (Pictures Damien Cardinal).
Equipment and Methods
From this point onwards, the QuAAtro four-channel analyser will be referred to as the micromolar system and the customised two-channel analyser with LWCC flow cells will be referred to as the nanomolar system.

The colorimetric methods used:
**Phosphate:**
Ortho-phosphate is measured by formation of a blue reduced Molybdophosphate-complex at pH 0.9-1.1. Potassium Antimonyltartrate used as the catalyst and ascorbic acid as a reducing agent. The absorbency is measured at 880nm (micromolar) and 700 nm (nanomolar system). Described by J.Murphy and J.Riley, 1962. Analytica Chim.Acta

**Silicate:**
Measured as a blue reduced Silicomolybdenium-complex at 800nm. Ascorbic acid is used as reducing agent and oxalic acid is used to prevent interference of phosphate. Described by Strickland and Parsons, 1972. A practical handbook of sea water analysis.

**Nitrite:**
Diazotation of nitrite with sulfanylamide and N-(1-naphtyl)-ethylene diammonium dichloride to form a pink dye measured at 550nm.

**Nitrate and Nitrite:**
Nitrate is first reduced in a copperized cadmium-coil using imidazole as buffer and is then measured as nitrite at 550nm (micromolar) and 540 nm with reference correction at 700 nm (nanomolar). Described by Grasshof, 1983. Seawater M methods practical handbook Weinheimverlag.

Sample handling
For the micro system, the samples were collected in 100ml high-density polyethylene sample bottles, taken directly from the CTD-rosette bottles. The samples were kept cool and dark stored in a refrigerator and analysed typically within 8 hours and 12 hours as a maximum. Analyses were carried out using high-density polyethylene "pony-vials" with a volume of 6 ml as sample cups. For duplicate analysis purposes in-between runs, the deepest sample at every CTD-station was capped in a pony-vial to be measured for a second time in the next run.

With the nano system, samples were collected in 60 ml low-density polyethylene bottles, taken directly from the UCC rosette bottles. Prior to sampling, bottles were acidified with 1 mL concentrated HCl (analytical reagent grade) to prevent bacterial activity. Samples were stored in the dark in a refrigerator and analysed within 12 hours.

Calibration and Standards
**Micromolar system:**
Nutrient primary stock standards were prepared at the lab home by weighing nutrient salts p.a. in de-ionised water. All standards are kept in a so-called 100% humidity box at lab temperature to prevent any concentration change by evaporation.

The calibration standards were prepared daily by diluting the separate stock standards, using three electronic pipettes, into four volumetric 100ml PP flasks (pre-calibrated at the lab) filled with low nutrient sea water LNSW. The background values of the LNSW were measured on board and added to the calibration values.
Nanomolar system:
Stock standards (ca. 1 mmol/L) were prepared on the ship from pre-weighed dried (60°C for 3 hours) NaNO2, KNO3 and KH2PO4. Calibration standards were prepared daily by diluting the separate stock standards into seven 100 ml volumetric flasks filled with low nutrient sea water. Background values of the LNSW were measured every day and added to the calibration values.

Cross-check of stock standards:
Both sets of stock standards were compared on both machines. Measured values were in agreement to within +/- 1%.

Cocktail standard:
This standard acts as a lab reference and its use is described under "quality control". It is made in the lab containing a mixture of phosphate, silicate and nitrate in demineralised water containing 40mg Hg2Cl2 per litre as a preservative. Every time it was used it was diluted 500 times (micromolar) or 10,000 times (nanomolar) with the same pipette, and the same volumetric flask. And measured as an internal control on the performance of the measurements and its number for the different components monitored over the runs.

Quality Control
Our standards have already be proven by inter calibration exercises like ICES and Quasimeme, and last years the RMNS exercise organised from Michio Aoyama MRI/Japan, to be within the best obtainable limits to the mean of the better laboratories. To gain some accuracy the Cocktail standard is monitored now since 1997, showing in-between runs reproducibility better than 1.0 % (Table 1).

Table 1) Measurements of the cocktails standard during cruise 64PE373. Reported are the values as measured after a 500 x dilution (micromolar measurements) and a 10,000 x dilution (nanomolar measurements).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>average uM/l</th>
<th>S.D. uM/l</th>
<th>C.v.(%)</th>
<th>n</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>micromolar (500x dilution):</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PO4</td>
<td>0.457</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SiO2</td>
<td>7.18</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO3</td>
<td>6.91</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nanomolar (10000x dilution):</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PO4</td>
<td>0.0214</td>
<td>0.0010</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO3+NO2</td>
<td>0.3538</td>
<td>0.0073</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The advantage of a cocktail standard is like using a reference standard with three nutrients mixed in one bulk, giving each run a good overview of the machine’s output. It also gives you a tool to normalise data from run to run for oceanographic purpose from station to station to produce transect plots.

Others have reported the use of a real reference sample supplied from deep water (2000m) but this might not be stable over a period longer than two weeks.
Statistics
The tables 2 and 3 give the mean detection limits for the micromolar and nanomolar systems and table 4 gives the precision of a single run for the micromolar system.

Table 2) Mean Detection Limits calculated (EPA norm) as 2.82 x S.D. of 2% (from the full range) spiked samples (n=10) for the micromolar system.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M.D.L uM/l</th>
<th>Used ranges uM/l</th>
<th>Added to LNSW</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PO4</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.02 uM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SiO2</td>
<td>0.008</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>0.40 uM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO3+NO2</td>
<td>0.017</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>0.31 uM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO2</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.01 uM</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3) Mean detection limits calculated as 2.82 x S.D of repeated sampling of LNSW (n=10) for the nanomolar system.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M.D.L (nmol/l)</th>
<th>Measured LNSW concentration (nmol/l)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PO4</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO3+NO2</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4) Precision of a single run: 5 sample bottles at two depth levels with coefficient of variation for the micromolar system.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>level I</th>
<th>SD dev.</th>
<th>C.v.</th>
<th>level II</th>
<th>SD dev.</th>
<th>C.v.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>uM/l</td>
<td>uM/l</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>uM/l</td>
<td>uM/l</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PO4</td>
<td>0.033</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>0.260</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SiO2</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO3+NO2</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>6.31</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO2</td>
<td>0.020</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>0.037</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cross-runs statistics
To obtain cross-run statistical values, analyses were carried out twice on the same sample from the bottle closed at the bottom layer in the first run, and in the consecutive run. This gave the possibility to estimate the precision from station to station in a horizontal way (Bottom bottle #1 from the two CTD casts at 18 Stations were analysed again in the next run). It's well known that the reproducibility in one calibrated run for an auto analyser is much better than measurements made across several runs, with each run having its own calibration settings. Analysis of these (cross runs) duplicate samples shows that the absolute differences for 35 cross run duplicates (Table 5).

Table 5) The absolute differences for 35 cross-run duplicates measured with the micromolar system.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SD uM/l</th>
<th>at average level uM/l</th>
<th>C.V. %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PO4</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>(0.237)</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SiO2</td>
<td>0.013</td>
<td>(7.29)</td>
<td>0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO3+NO2</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>(5.81)</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO2</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>(0.030)</td>
<td>8.54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Accuracy
To gain accuracy this cruise, reference material for nutrients were measured parallel to the CTD samples all at 22°C containing stable values for PO4, SiO2 and NO3 and NO2. Reference Material for Nutrients in Seawater (RMNS) produced by KANSO lot BY (low nutrient concentrations) (Table 6) and lot BU (comparable deep Med waters) (Table 7 and 8) were used.

Table 6) Results for the measurement of RMNS lot BY (low nutrient concentrations) with the micromolar system.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RMNS BY</th>
<th>uM/l</th>
<th>SD uM/l</th>
<th>(n=20)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PO4</td>
<td>0.041</td>
<td>0.008</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SiO2</td>
<td>1.698</td>
<td>0.014</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO3+NO2</td>
<td>0.087</td>
<td>0.009</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO2</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7) Results for the measurement of RMNS lot BU (high nutrient concentrations) with the micromolar system.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RMNS BU</th>
<th>uM/l</th>
<th>SD uM/l</th>
<th>(n=22)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PO4</td>
<td>0.359</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SiO2</td>
<td>20.817</td>
<td>0.084</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO3+NO2</td>
<td>4.169</td>
<td>0.020</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO2</td>
<td>0.089</td>
<td>0.003</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table 8) Results for the measurement of RMNS lot BY (low nutrient concentrations) with the nanomolar system.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RMNS BY</th>
<th>nmol/l</th>
<th>SD nmol/l</th>
<th>(n=20)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PO4</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO3+NO2</td>
<td>59.9</td>
<td>3.4</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 21. The concentrations PO4 and NO3+NO2 measured in RMNS lot BY (low nutrient concentrations) throughout the cruise with the nanomolar system.
**Problems during the cruise**
Looking at the (micromolar) cross run duplicates precision no corrections are necessary to be made except for one run with data for the CTD casts on station 10 where some drops in baseline on the NO2 channel could not be automatic corrected with the software. Correction for NO2 on this Station 10 will be done manually at NIOZ afterwards from a printed chart containing all peaks involved.

**Post-cruise evaluation**
For the nanomolar system further recalibration of the data is required to obtain the final dataset. Furthermore, using the repeated measurements of the reference material it may be possible to correct for shifts in the baseline, particularly for nitrate+nitrite.

**References**
4.2. Sampling and analysis of key parameters

A. Metals and isotopes

4.2.A.1. Dissolved Fe

J. Bown, M. Rijkenberg, H. de Baar

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Introduction
The Mediterranean Sea is an oligotrophic semi-enclosed sea which is characterized by a strong stratification during summer. Therefore, at this time of the year, nutrients and trace nutrients supply to surface waters might come from the atmosphere, riverine inputs, and lateral advection from the continental slope or islands shelves. Previous studies showed that atmospheric deposition is the predominant source for trace elements for surface Mediterranean waters (Guieu et al., 2010 and 2013) and that riverine inputs can be locally significant but are not thought to impact offshore sites such as the Levantine Sea. Iron can limit phytoplankton growth in HNLC (High Nutrient Low Chlorophyll) areas (Fitzwater and Martin, 1988) and can also acts as a nutrient co-factor for the nitrogenase enzyme in diazotrophic microorganisms and may influence nitrogen fixation in oligotrophic oceans (Falkowski, 1997; Gruber and Sarmiento, 1997). Investigation of the iron biogeochemical cycle in the Mediterranean Sea might bring new insights to our understanding of iron sources and sinks in different Mediterranean Sea basins and will also help to assess iron impacts on photosynthetic organisms in one of the most oligotrophic oceanic area in the world.

Work at sea
For 18 stations (24 depths from surface to bottom), dissolved iron (DFe) concentrations were measured directly on board by an automated Flow Injection Analysis (FIA) after a modified method of De Jong et al. 1998 (Figure 22). Additionally, for some selected stations, Fe filtered through 0.02μm size fraction (Sartorius, Virosart CPV capsule) was also determined on board using FIA. Unfiltered samples (12 depths from surface to bottom) from all stations were acidified and stored to determine the total dissolvable Fe concentrations at the NIOZ laboratory after 12 months of dissolution.

Method
Filtered (0.2μm Sartobran 300 filter (Sartorius)) and acidified (pH 1.8, 2ml/L 12M Baseline grade Seastar HCl) seawater samples were concentrated on a column containing aminodiacetic acid (IDA). This material binds only transition metals and not the interfering salts. After washing the column with ultrapure water, the column is eluted with diluted hydrochloric acid and injected in a reaction loop where it is mixed with luminol, peroxide and ammonium. The oxidation of luminol with peroxide is catalyzed by iron and a blue light is produced and detected with a photon counter. The amount of iron is calculated using a standard calibration line, where a known amount of iron is added to low iron containing seawater. Using this calibration line a number of counts per nM iron is obtained. Samples were analyzed in duplicate and average DFe concentrations and standard deviations are given.
The standard deviation varied between 0% and 31% (the latter being exceptional), but was on average 1.3% and generally < 5% in samples with DFe concentrations higher than 0.1nM. Since samples containing less than 0.06nM DFe values are near the detection limit of the system; the standard deviation of these measurements were higher than the average value. The average blank was determined at 0.017nM and was defined as the intercept of a low iron sample loaded for 5, 10 and 20 seconds and measured daily. The average limit of detection was determined at 4.4 pM and was defined as the mean of the daily defined 3*standard deviation of the blank sample loaded for 10 seconds. To better understand the day to day variation a sample was measured at least 24h later. The differences between these measurements were in the order of 1-20%, while the largest differences were measured in samples with low DFe concentrations.

To apply a correction for day to day variation a so-called lab standard (sample acidified for more than 6 months) was measured daily. All data will be corrected for the mean average of this value after the cruise and all data presented so far is uncorrected for this day to day variation. The consistency of the FIA system over the course of the day was verified using a drift standard. Drift has been observed and seemed to be variable from day to day and in the order of 1-15%. All data will be corrected for this daily drift after the cruise and all results so far are not corrected.

Figure 22) Johann in front of the flow injection analysis system for measuring DFe (Picture Damien Cardinal).

Results
Concentrations of DFe measured during the 64PE374 cruise ranged from 0.191 ± 0.003 nM close to the bottom of station 13 (Tyrrhenian Sea) up to 12.37 ± 0.086 nM the surface waters of station 5 in the Ionian Sea. Figure 23 shows an example of a depth profile of DFe.
Figure 23. DFe depth profile at station 17 during 64PE374.

References


4.2.A.2. Organic speciation of Fe

Loes J.A. Gerringa, M. Rijkenberg, J. Bown, H. Slagter

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Objectives

The low concentration of iron (Fe) in the oceans limits growth of phytoplankton (de Baar et al, 1990, 1995; 2005; Johnson et al, 1997). Dissolved organic molecules, called ligands, bind Fe. In this way the ligands increase the solubility of Fe, retard the precipitation of Fe (hydr)oxides and hence increase Fe availability for biological uptake in the upper parts of the ocean. Since 1994 it is known that around 99% of dissolved Fe in seawater is bound to organic molecules (ligands) that strongly bind Fe (Gledhill and van den Berg, 1994). The binding by dissolved organic ligands, prevents or at least retards precipitation of Fe as insoluble oxides and may play an important role in the dissolution of Fe from dust, and in keeping Fe from glacier melt water and hydrothermal sources in the dissolved phase. Organic complexation influences the photochemistry and bioavailability of Fe. To allow biological uptake of Fe, part of the organically complexed Fe pool must be biological available for phytoplankton and it is still not clear which part of the organically complexed Fe pool is available and how it is taken up.

Our objective is to measure organic speciation of Fe in the Mediterranean Sea to complete the research started during leg 1 (PPE64370, Geotraces Mediterranean leg1). The only data existing about organic Fe speciation in the Mediterranean are from Van den Berg (1995) in the western Mediterranean. We measure on-board using competing ligand exchange cathodic stripping voltammetry. During leg 1 DHN was used as the measuring ligand (van den Berg 2006, Laglera et al., 2013). Normally we use the measuring ligand TAC, however it was discovered that this chemical contained too much Fe. However, during leg 1 it was discovered that also the chemical DHN was not as clean as needed. Between legs 1 and 2 Gerringa and Slagter (scientist doing these measurements during leg 1) were able to obtain a clean batch of TAC. Therefore now again TAC was used as added ligand (Croot and Johanssen, 2000) as was used during leg 2 in the Black Sea.

During this cruise a cubic meter vessel was filled with filtered surface water for culture experiments at NIOZ for Hans Slagter. This filling took place during transit by means of a towed fish near station 19.

Table 9) Samples taken for Organic Fe complexation (FeL) during 64PE374.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Stations</th>
<th>Bottles per station</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FeL</td>
<td>8,13,17</td>
<td>24,22,20,18,16,14,12,10,8,6,4,2; including Chl max and just below Chl max</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Methods and equipment

~900 mL FeL samples were taken from the ultra clean CTD (UCC) (Table 9). The samples were filtered over a 0.2 µm Sartobran 300 filter (Sartorius) using N₂ overpressure and measured immediately.

The competing ligand ‘TAC’ (2-(2-Thiazolylazo)-p-cresol) with a final concentration of 10 µM is used and the complex (TAC)₂-Fe is measured after equilibration (> 6 h) by cathodic stripping voltammetry (CSV) (Croot and Johanssson, 2000). The electrical signal recorded with this method (nA) is converted as a concentration (nM), then the ligand concentration and
the binding strength is estimated using the non-linear regression of the Langmuir isotherm (Gerringa and al., 1995).

Competing ligand exchange cathodic stripping voltammetry (CLE-CSV) was performed using two setups consisting of a µAutolab potentionstat (Metrohm Autolab B.V., formerly Ecochemie, The Netherlands), a 663 VA stand with a Hg drop electrode (Metrohm) and a 778 sample processor with ancillary pumps and dosimats (Metrohm), all controlled using a consumer laptop running Nova 1.9 (Metrohm Autolab B.V.) (Figure 24). The VA stands were mounted on elastic-suspended wooden platforms in aluminium frames developed at the NIOZ to minimize motion-induced noise while electrical noise and backup power was provided by Fortress 750 UPS systems for spike suppression and line noise filtering (Best Power). Sample manipulations were performed in laminar flow cabinets (Interflow B.V., The Netherlands).

Dissolved Fe necessary for the data interpretation was measured in separated samples taken from the bottles sampled for Fe complexation, with Flow Injection Analysis (FIA) on board by Johann Bown.

Results
Although the interpretation of the analyses was not finished at the end of the cruise, a pattern could be distinguished from the so far obtained results. In the surface layer (samples taken from bottle 24/22) the ligands were saturated with Fe. In this layer dissolved Fe concentrations were high, by external input, saturating the dissolved organic ligands. This was also the case in intermediate deep waters, where oxygen and nutrients were relatively low. These characteristics of relative high Fe, low oxygen and low nutrients, indicate relatively young water masses brought to larger depths by deep water formation during winter (Malanotte-Rozzoli, et al., 1997; Millot, 1999).
References

4.2.A.3. Colloidal and truly soluble Fe

Micha Rijkenberg, Johann Bown and Marie Boyé

Royal Netherlands Institute for Sea Research, Texel, the Netherlands

Introduction

Iron (Fe) is a critical nutrient for oceanic primary productivity. It’s an important element in many proteins, enzymes and pigments. Due to its low solubility, Fe limits phytoplankton growth in large parts of the ocean (Martin and Fitzwater, 1988; de Baar et al. 1990). The trace metal Fe is therefore one of the 6 key elements in the GEOTRACES Science plan. For GEOTRACES we took samples for DFe, total dissolvable Fe (unfiltered acidified seawater samples) and organic Fe complexation at 5 full depth stations. These stations were positioned to fill up gaps in our transect of cruise 64PE319.

Notwithstanding its low solubility concentrations of dissolved Fe (DFe, < 0.2 µm) are higher than predicted by its solubility product alone and vary widely over the water column and across the surface ocean. This variation in DFe concentrations can be explained by i) the chemistry of Fe in the dissolved phase, ii) the proximity of Fe sources, and iii) biological processes (e.g. high DFe at the oxygen minimum).

DFe consists of several distinguishable and measurable fractions such as a truly soluble Fe fraction (Fe(III) and Fe(II)), a truly soluble organically complexed Fe fraction and a colloidal Fe fraction. The distribution of these different chemical forms of Fe may depend on biological factors and the physical oceanography.

We used size fractionation (filters with 0.02 µm pore size) to investigate the distribution of the different size fractions of Fe over the upper water column (0-280 m depth). With this research we are especially interested in the interplay between these different Fe fractions and their relation to changes in environmental conditions.

Work at sea

Samples were taken with the NIOZ high volume ultraclean CTD: 24 novel PRISTINE® ultraclean water samplers of large 24L volume each placed on the titanium sampling frame. The novel samplers with butterfly valves at both ends, are constructed of ultraclean plastic (PVDF; manufactured ultraclean (www.georgfischer.at) for the semi-conductor industry) and some pivotal parts of titanium. The ultraclean CTD was deployed with kevlar hydrowire having internal signal cables.

After recovery, the ultraclean CTD was immediately placed in a clean room container (within the ISO Class 6 clean room requirements) (de Baar et al. 2008). In the clean room, CTD bottles were pressurized (~1 bar) using filtered N₂ and samples for dissolved metals were filtered over a < 0.2 µm Sartobran 300 cartridge (Sartorius).

For ultrafiltration (< 0.02 µm) samples were directly filtered from the UCC CTD bottles under N₂ pressure. The seawater was firstly filtered over a 0.2 µm Sartobran 300 cartridge and subsequently inline ultrafiltered using a Virosart CPV MidiCaps cartridge (Sartorius) with a double membrane of polyethersulfone, and the remainder parts made of polypropylene (Figure 25). For each UCC CTD bottle the 0.2 µm Sartobran 300 cartridge was firstly rinsed with 700 ml sample to replace the previous sample from the cartridge. The < 0.02 µm Virosart CPV MidiCaps cartridge was first emptied from its previous seawater sample and rinsed with 500 ml of the new sample before a final sample was taken.
Samples for DFe, total dissolvable Fe, and sizefractionated Fe concentrations were acidified within 24 hrs after sampling using ultrapure HCl (pH 1.8, 2ml/L 12M Baseline grade Seastar HC).

The samples were measured on board using FIA with detection based on luminol chemiluminescence according to an improved chemiluminescence flow injection method (Klunder et al. 2011). At least 12h prior to analysis, 60 μL of 10 mM H$_2$O$_2$ (Suprapure, Merck 30%) was added to ensure the oxidation of any Fe(II) in the sample (Lohan and Bruland, 2006). The acidified sample was pre-concentrated for 120 s on a Toyopearl AF-Chelate-650M (TosoHaas, Germany) column. Hereafter the column was rinsed for 60 s with MQ water to remove interfering salts. The Fe was subsequently eluted from the column with 0.4 M HCl (Suprapure, Merck 30%) during 120 s. The eluted Fe/HCl mixture subsequently mixed with a 0.96 M ammonium hydroxide (Suprapur, 25% Merck), 0.3M hydrogen peroxide (Suprapure, Merck 30%) and luminol/TETA solution (3 ml luminol stock solution and 60 μL TETA 1 L ultrapure water). The luminol stock solution was prepared by dissolving 270 mg luminol (3-aminophtal-hydrazide, Aldrich) and 500 mg potassiumhydroxide in 15 ml ultra pure type 1 water (18.2 MΩ). Sample and reaction solution passed a 1.5 m length mixing coil placed in a 35°C water bath. The chemiluminescence was detected with a Hamamatsu HC135 Photon counter. Concentrations of dissolved Fe were calculated in nanomol/liter (nM) from the photon emission peak height.

The system was calibrated using standard additions from a 895 nM Fe stock solution (Fluka) to filtered acidified seawater of low Fe concentration that was collected in the sampling area. A five-point calibration and blank determination were made daily. The blank was determined as the intercept of the signals of increasing pre-concentration times (5, 10, 15 seconds) of the calibration water. A certified SAFe standard (Johnson et al. 2007) for the long term consistency and absolute accuracy was measured on a regular basis.
Preliminary results

At station 19 the colloidal fraction is highest in the surface waters and appears to become similar to the DFe fraction with depth (Figure 26).

Figure 26. Depth profiles of size fractionated iron (0.2μm and 0.002μm) versus depth from station 19.

References
4.2.A.4. The biogeochemical cycles of cobalt, and copper in the northern Mediterranean Sea (Leg 3)

Marie Boyé

On the behalf of the research group:
Gabriel Dulaquais, Matthieu Waeles, Benoit Pernet-Coudrier, Hélène Planquette, LEMAR UMR6539 - Brest, France, and Olivier Rouxel, CII IFREMER- Brest, France.

Summary

Our research group at Brest proposes to constrain sources and biogeochemical cycling of key bioessential trace metals (copper and cobalt) in the Mediterranean Sea along the GEOTRACES-A04N section, using novel approaches, combining concentrations and speciation measurements with stable isotope ratios (for copper only, cobalt being monoisotopic). In addition, we aim to calibrate for the first time proxies of Sea Surface Temperature (Sr/Ca and Li/Mg) and pH (B/Ca) as recorded in coccoliths. Samples have been collected during the LEG3 in the Northern Mediterranean Sea, in the water-column (in the dissolved, particulate and soluble fractions) and in the superficial sediment.

Objectives

Many trace elements are critical for marine life and as a consequence influence the functioning of ocean ecosystems. Some trace elements are essential like cobalt (Co) and copper (Cu), others are toxic pollutants like Cu at high concentrations, while some, together with a diverse array of isotope tracers, are used to assess modern-ocean processes and the role of the ocean in past climate change.

Until recently fragmentary data of trace elements and isotopes in the oceans restricted our knowledge of their biogeochemical cycles. The International GEOTRACES program aims to improve our understanding of biogeochemical cycles and large-scale distribution of trace elements and isotopes (TEIs) in the marine environment and establish the sensitivity of these distributions to changing environmental conditions. The third objective of GEOTRACES focus on the development of proxies for past change, yet it is still an uncovered theme. Our main objectives are thus i) to elucidate important biogeochemical processes, sources and sinks that determine the distribution of the bio-essential trace elements Co and Cu along the section in the Mediterranean Sea; ii) to calibrate new proxies of environmental conditions sensitive to the climate change in the Mediterranean Sea (sea-surface temperature SST and pH); and iii) evaluate if copper flux in the ocean derived from atmospheric copper sources has characteristic isotope signatures that is distinct from benthic diagenesis and/or hydrothermal sources.

The Mediterranean Sea is the source of the warm and saline Mediterranean Outflow Water (MOW) which may act as a source of trace metals to surrounding North Atlantic water masses (Boyle et al., 1985; Boye et al., 2006). The Mediterranean Sea is also an ideal environment to study the strong link between the ocean, the atmosphere and the continent. It is one of the greatest receivers of continental dust input in the contemporary ocean and is in the last decade used as a natural laboratory to study the effects of dust deposition on the surface ocean (Wagener et al., 2010; Quétel et al., 1993). Dust is the main external source of biological essential elements to the surface waters of the open ocean worldwide (Jickells et al., 2005). The Nile river may also contribute as a significant source of trace elements in the
eastern basin (Krom et al., 1999). Furthermore other sources have been characterized in the Mediterranean Sea, such as submarine volcano, hydrothermal vents, advective inputs from continental margins (Achterberg and van den Berg, 1997; Riso et al., 2004), and urban and industrial discharges (Michel and Averty, 1999). The eastern basin is a truly oligotrophic marine ecosystem limited by phosphorus deficiency, and probably by Fe (Krom et al., 1991; Saydam, 1996). In the western basin, low residual concentrations of Fe after biological removal may lead to changes in species succession or even growth limitation (Bonnet and Guieu, 2006). Associated with these biogeochemical features, contrasting internal cycles of TEIs are expected. Yet both the internal cycle and the impact on the primary production of other bio-essential trace elements such as Co and Cu are still unknown in the Mediterranean Sea.

At the moment there is no complete picture of the biogeochemical cycles that determine the distribution of TEIs in the Mediterranean Sea as for most TEIs data are extremely scarce and fragmentary in this sea, this making interpretation often difficult and speculative. Hence by studying the cycle of the two understudied micro-nutrients Co and Cu, and the processes involved in the fractionation of the stable isotopes of Cu, it will undoubtedly increase the very small available data sets with high resolution full depth transects throughout the Mediterranean Sea, and provide an overview to determine for the first time the important sources and processes explaining the distribution of these elements.

Studying the biogeochemical cycle of those elements includes their physical (dissolved, particulate, soluble, small colloids) and chemical (organic speciation) speciation, which is critical in understanding their bioavailability and geochemical dynamics. Although recognised for important properties like metal complexation or growth stimulation of planktonic species (Doblin et al., 1999), humic substances (HS), an important fraction of dissolved organic carbon, have been very poorly quantified in marine environments. Here we will examine HS with the aim to describe for the first time their distribution in seawater and to assess their relation with Cu and Co complexation.

In addition the Mediterranean Sea experiences the climate change with the highest sensitivity worldwide, notably in increasing SST and decreasing pH (IPCC, 2007). Proxies of such environmental changes, notably Sr/Ca and Li/Mg ratios in biominerals like corals and forams as tracer of SST, and B/Ca for pH, have been used to reconstruct the past climate variability and sometimes to improve the prediction of the futur climate (Smith et al., 1979; Hendy et al., 2002; Douville et al., 2010; Montagna et al., 2009). Yet the use of those proxies in the major producer of calcite the most widely distributed in the global ocean, the coccolithophorids (Archer et al., 2000), is paradoxally still in his infancy. The modalities of transfer of the SST- and pH-signals from the euphotic layer into the top sediment will be assessed in the coccoliths for the first time. These in-situ calibrations will help to further record and reconstruct the climate in the Mediterranean Sea.

**Sampling**

Samples have been collected in the seawater column with the Titanium-Frame (de Baar et al., 2008) (Table 10).

Different size-fractions have been collected for analyses of Co and to a later extend of Cu (total, particulate, dissolved, soluble) and those samples were acidified on board for later home-lab. measurements. The organic speciation of Co and Cu will be studied in the dissolved and frozen samples. The Cu-isotopes will be analyzed in the dissolved samples kept at room temperature until acidification at the home-laboratories. Proxies will be analyzed in
settling inorganic material and in the surficial sediment. Additional samples have been collected for taxonomy analyses and particulate carbon measurements.

Table 10) Inventory of the samples collected in the northern Mediterranean Sea

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl.#</th>
<th>DCo</th>
<th>DCu</th>
<th>TCo</th>
<th>TCu</th>
<th>Soluble Co</th>
<th>Organic Co</th>
<th>Organic Cu</th>
<th>Particulate trace metals</th>
<th>Cu-isotopes</th>
<th>POC/PI C</th>
<th>Proxies in coccoliths</th>
<th>Taxonomy</th>
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</table>

Analyses
The analyses will be performed in the home-labs at Brest. The analyses of Co will be performed by Flow-Injection-Analyses and Chemiluminescence detection according to the method we developed (Bown et al., 2011; Dulaquais et al., 2013), apart for the organic speciation of Co that will be analysed by Voltammetry (Bown et al., 2012). Particulate trace metals analyses will be performed by HR-ICPMS using Element II (Pôle Spectrométrie Océan, IUEM), following published method (Planquett and Sherrell, 2012). Total dissolved Cu will be analyzed by Anodic Stripping Voltammetry at a vibrating gold microwire electrode after UV-irradiation (Salaün et al., 2006). Humic substances will be analysed by Adsorptive Square-Wave Cathodic Stripping Voltammetry at a static mercury drop electrode (Quentel et al., 1986). Total dissolved Cu-isotopes will be analyzed by multi-collector ICPMS (Pôle Spectrométrie Océan, IFREMER) after preconcentration onto a new Cu selective resin (Bacconais & Rouxel, in prep) and/or chelating resin with nitrilotriacetic acid functional groups (Rouxel and Auro, 2010). Analyses of Sr/Ca, Li/Mg, Mg/Ca and B/Ca will be performed by HR-ICPMS using Element II (Pôle Spectrométrie Océan, IUEM), following or adapting published methods (Stoll et al., 2002; Montagna et al., 2009; Douville et al., 2010). Analyses of the taxonomy will be achieved using inverted microscopy (B. Beker, LEMAR). Analyses of particulate stocks of carbon (POC, PIC) and nitrogen (PON, PIN) will be performed at LEMAR using a CHN-analyzer (Le Moigne et al., 2013).

Thanks-
After being for almost 1 month on board of the RV Pelagia I would like to address special and warm thanks to the Captain, Officers, Crew Members and the Cook of the Research Vessel for their wonderful work at sea, their professionalism, and the excellent atmosphere on board. A big thanks to Micha, Loes and Hein who bring us-Brest people- to sample in the Mediterranean and earlier in the Black Sea. The LABEX-Mer is acknowledged for partly supporting our researches here.
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4.2.A.5. Aluminium

Ejin George, John Rolison and Rob Middag

University of Otago, New Zealand

Introduction
Dissolved Al is a trace metal with a scavenged-type distribution and an extreme difference between the extremely low concentrations in the North Pacific and the elevated concentrations in the North Atlantic; varying by greater than two orders-of-magnitude (Orians and Bruland, 1985). The distribution of dissolved Al in surface waters of the open ocean is influenced by atmospheric dust inputs (Measures et al., 2008) and variations in the intensity of removal by scavenging. The surface distribution of dissolved Al can potentially be a tracer of atmospheric Fe inputs. For Al there is no known biological function within the cell, but it has been shown Al is built into the siliceous frustules of diatoms (Gehlen et al., 2002). The incorporation of Al in the frustules decreases the solubility of the frustule (e.g. Van Bennekom et al., 1991, Gehlen et al., 2002), making the frustule more durable. Al is known to co-vary with Si, but this co-variance disappears with aging of the water masses and depends on the sources and sinks of both Al and Si (Middag et al., 2011).

Work at sea
Dissolved Al was measured directly from all samples collected with the ultra-clean CTD using shipboard FIA measurements. In a continuous FIA system, the acidified pH 1.8, filtered (0.2 μm) seawater is buffered to pH 5.5. The metal is concentrated on a column which contains the chelating material aminodiacetid acid (IDA). This material binds only transition metals and not the interfering salts. After washing of the column with ultra pure water (MQ) the column is eluted with diluted acid (0.1 M HCl). The Al is determined using lumogallion after Brown and Bruland (2008). Lumogallion is a fluorometric agent and reacts with aluminum. The change in the fluorescence detected by a fluorometer is used as a measure for the dissolved Al concentration. In order to verify the consistency of the analysis, every day a sample was measured from a check sample that was taken in the beginning of the cruise. Also a duplicate sample was taken every cast and this sample was analysed with the samples of the next cast to further check for inter daily variation. Furthermore, a GEOTRACES seawater reference sample was analysed regularly and the values are consistent with those found previously.

Preliminary results
The aluminium concentration in the surface waters of the northern Mediterranean Sea showed considerable variability with concentrations ranging from <30 nM in the western basin to >75 nM in more eastern portions of the sea. The deep water generally showed an increase in Al concentrations up to ~ 160 nM. These high values are thought to be due to high dust inputs. As a check of our day to day reproducibility of our Al measurements, an internal standard is analysed during every run. The values recorded for our internal standard measured during Leg 3 are presented in Figure 27.
Figure 27. Repeated analysis of our internal standard during the MedBlack GEOTRACES Leg 3 cruise. Solid line represents the average of all 18 measurements ([Al] = 34.2 nM ± 1.5 nM) and the dashed line is the best fit line for the data which illustrates the lack of any trend in our day to day measurements. Error bars represent the standard deviation of the daily triplicate measurements.

References
4.2.A.6. Multi-elements

John Rolison and Rob Middag

University of Otago, New Zealand

Introduction
Considerable progress has been made in the development of new multi-element methods (e.g. Sohrin et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2011; Milne et al., 2010; Biller and Bruland 2012) using chelating resins for off-line extraction, with subsequent detection with a high-resolution, magnetic sector, inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (ICP-MS). Samples will be processed using a modified version of the Biller and Bruland (2012) method. This current method includes the analysis of yttrium (Y), lanthanum (La), titanium (Ti) and gallium (Ga), in addition to manganese (Mn), iron (Fe), nickel (Ni), zinc (Zn), cadmium (Cd) and lead (Pb) that were determined in the original method. Moreover, a new ‘element dilution’ approach was used for extractions performed at sea that is less labor intensive than the gravimetrical method described by Biller and Bruland (2012) as the weighing of the samples (which cannot be done at sea) has been excluded. The extraction of the samples is the process where the trace metals of interest are separated from the original seawater matrix to remove interfering ions, as well as concentrating the samples via the use of a chelating column (Nobias-chelate PA1 resin in this method). The pre-concentration is necessary due to the low concentrations of trace metals in the open ocean in the high background salt matrix of seawater.

Work at sea
A multi-element stock standard with natural isotopic abundances of Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, Cd, Y, La, Ti, Ga and Pb, was made in 0.024 M HNO₃ from dilutions of 1000 ppm SPEX individual element standards. This mixed element standard was then used to make standard additions to natural seawater with low concentrations of metals for calibration. Five standards were used for calibration in this method. Besides this multi-element stock standard, also a stock of Lu and In was made in 0.024 M HNO₃ from dilutions of the respective 1000 ppm SPEX standards. This stock had a concentration of 2000 nM for both elements and every sample and standard was spiked with this solution to obtain a concentration of 5 nM. In addition to the seawater standard additions, also 5 standards were made up in the elution solution (elution acid standards). These standards (also spiked with Lu-In) as well as the extracted seawater standards will be analyzed on the ICP-MS. Comparison of the extracted seawater standards with the elution acid standards provides evidence for the extraction efficiency or recovery of each of the metals on the resin. The recovery of all elements with the exception of Ga and Ti are quantitative. All samples from the ultra-clean CTD are extracted at sea and the eluents will be run on the ICP-MS after the cruises (Figure 28).

References


Figure 28) Ejin and John extracting multi-elements and measuring DAl.
4.2.A.7. Neodymium isotopes

Paolo Montagna

Istituto di Scienze Marine (ISMAR), Bologna (Italy)

Neodymium isotopes as water mass circulation tracers in the past

The neodymium (Nd) isotopes, often reported as $\varepsilon_{\text{Nd}}$, represent an important tracer capable to “fingerprint” water mass as isotopically distinct entities. The $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$ ratios vary in the Earth as a result of $\alpha$ decay of $^{147}\text{Sm}$, and in the ocean the values reflect the age of the continental sources of dissolved Nd. In the modern ocean the different water masses ultimately derive their $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$ value through continental weathering, erosion and particle-seawater interactions. Neodymium isotopes behave like a quasi-conservative tracer and the isotopic variations are generally consistent with water mass mixing.

The landmasses bordering the Mediterranean Sea have a distinct Nd-isotopic composition and this makes it possible to distinguish between different regional inputs (Tackikawa et al., 2004; Scrivner et al., 2004; Jeandel et al., 2007; Montagna et al., 2010). Generally speaking, the water masses in the Western Mediterranean Sea have lower $\varepsilon_{\text{Nd}}$ values, a fingerprint of the Atlantic water entering the Mediterranean Sea through the Strait of Gibraltar, whereas the Eastern basin displays more radiogenic values reflecting the contribution of partially dissolved Nile River particles (Scrivner et al., 2004).

However, the quasi-conservative behaviour of $\varepsilon_{\text{Nd}}$ has yet to be fully investigated and there are several processes, such as the interaction of sediments deposited on the continental margin (Boundary Exchange) that can negatively affect the simple quasi-conservative scenario.

Differently to most of the other geochemical tracers used in paleoceanography the neodymium isotopes are not fractionated by biological processes in the water column and during the uptake process into marine carbonates. This proxy has been successfully applied on sediment cores, in the dispersed authigenic ferromanganese oxide precipitates in sediments (Rutberg et al. 2000; Piotrowski et al., 2005), on foraminiferal shells (Vance et al., 2004) and on fossil fish teeth (Martin and Scher, 2004). Very recently, cold-water corals have been shown to record the neodymium isotopic composition of ambient seawater (Colin et al., 2010; van de Flierdt et al., 2010; Montagna et al., 2010), opening new possibilities to obtain water mass signals and quantify mixing of water masses via paired neodymium isotopes and radiocarbon analyses of absolutely dated (U/Th) fossil corals.

Specific Objectives and Sampling strategy

The possibility to reliably track the water masses in the past through the Nd isotopic composition of the carbonate skeleton of cold-water corals rely, as first step, on the careful comparison between the isotopes of living corals and the ambient seawater radiogenic signature. Therefore, one of the objects during the cruise was to isotopically characterize the seawater masses that bath the modern corals (collected during previous cruises) in order to provide robust evidence that the corals preserve the seawater Nd isotope composition. In addition, due to the peculiar physico-chemical features of the Mediterranean Sea, the study of the Nd isotopes of the different water masses flowing within this semi-enclosed basin will shed new light on the processes affecting the Nd budget of the Mediterranean.

To achieve these goals 24 seawater samples from 9 profiles were collected along the major Mediterranean sub-basins (Aegean, Ionian Sea, Adriatic and Tyrrhenian Sea) (Table
11). These sampling locations and depths were chosen based either on the sites where modern corals have been previously collected or the presence of the principal water masses flowing in the Eastern and Western Mediterranean Sea.

For the analysis of Nd isotopes the seawater samples were collected in 4L acid-cleaned (0.5M HCl) cubitainers (Fisher Scientific) from the Ultraclean titanium CTD system. Seawater was filtered (Sartorius Sartobran® 300 0.2 µm) before being collected into the cubitainers.

For station 17, seawater samples were also collected for the analysis of the Rare Earth Element (REE) concentration in 125ml acid-cleaned (1M HCl) bottles, acidified to pH ~ 2, sealed with parafilm and stored with double-bags.

**Sample processing on board**
The samples for Nd isotopes were immediately acidified with trace metal grade HCl to pH = 2 and mixed with ~ 18mg of Fe in preparation for pre-concentration of the lanthanide and actinide elements (Figure 29). After one day of equilibration the samples were treated with Optima grade ammonium hydroxide to force the precipitation of ferric hydroxide by adjusting the pH to ~ 8. After the precipitation of Fe/REEs the cubitainers were sealed with parafilm and stored in double-bags.

![Figure 29. Paolo adds ammonium hydroxide to his Nd samples.](image)

**Geochemical analysis**
The Rare Earth Elements co-precipitated with Fe will be processed and analysed at the Laboratoire des Sciences du Climat et de l’Environnement (LSCE) in Gif-sur-Yvette. Neodymium will be isolated from the other REEs through column chemistry and Nd isotopes will be analysed by multi-collector ICPMS (Neptune®). The REEs concentration will be analysed by a X-series II CCT (Thermo Fisher Scientific) ICPQMS following a standard addition technique.
Acknowledgements
I would like to thank the chief scientists of Leg 3 (Micha Rijkenberg and Loes Gerringa), Hein de Baar, the captain Pieter Kuijt, and the crew as well as the scientific parties for the successful cruise. Sampling for Nd isotopes during Leg 3 was partly supported by the MISTRALS/PALEOMEX/COFIMED project, funded by the French CNRS and CEA.

Table 11) Locations and depths of the seawater samples collected for Neodymium isotopes during Leg 3 (Geotraces Mediterranean and Black Sea)

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(*) Seawater sample for inter-comparison

References


Montagna P., Goldstein S., Taviani M., Frank N., McCulloch M. Neodymium isotopes in biogenic carbonates: reliable archive of $\varepsilon_{Nd}$. AGU Fall Meeting, 13-17 December 2010, San Francisco, USA.


4.2.A.8. Silicon isotopic composition in the Mediterranean and Black Seas

Damien Cardinal

Université Pierre & Marie Curie, Paris, France

Objectives

Silicon (in the form of silicic acid in seawater, \( H_4SiO_4 \)) is a macronutrient required for the growth of aquatic photosynthetic organisms siliceous organisms, dominated by diatoms in the ocean. This group of phytoplankton is actively involved in the marine biological carbon pump, which is participating to the oceanic anthropogenic carbon storage. Silicon has three stable isotopes (\(^{28}\)Si, \(^{29}\)Si, \(^{30}\)Si) and diatoms fractionate Si isotopes preferentially taking up light isotopes (De La Rocha et al., 1997). Consequently, in a similar way as for C and N isotopic systems, both the Si isotopic compositions of seawater in the euphotic zone and of diatoms reflect the extent of the Si nutrient reservoir use since the beginning of the growth season (Cardinal et al., 2005, 2007). The Si isotopic composition of seawater can also be used to quantify silicic acid supply to the mixed layer and to identify mixing processes (e.g. Fripiat et al., 2011). This proxy is increasingly used in paleoceanographic studies and is particularly powerful when compared with N and C isotopic compositions (Pichevin et al., 2009). There exists so far no published data on the Si isotopic signatures in the Mediterranean and Black Seas. In this project we aim more specifically at:

- Quantifying the degree of Si utilisation in surface by diatoms;
- Identifying the source of Si to the mixed layer (e.g. from which depth it has been supplied);
- Quantifying deep mixing and tracking recently formed deep waters;
- Better constraining the remineralisation of silica at depth;
- Comparing with other proxies from the same cruise (e.g. \( \delta^{15}\)NO\(_3\) data by R. Ganeshram and \( \varepsilon^{Nd}\) by P. Montagna);
- Overall improving the understanding of silicon cycle in the Med. Sea and contributes to the calibration of Si isotopes as paleo-proxy in this region.

Materials & methods

Sampling

More than 240 dissolved silicon samples have been collected throughout the water column at 12 stations of Leg 3 using 0.2 \( \mu \)m filtered seawater (0.2 \( \mu \)m Sartobran 300 filter (Sartorius)) with variable volumes (Table 12). Samples are stored unacidified in the dark at 20\(^\circ\)C in PP bottles pre-cleaned with dilute Suprapur grade HCl.

In addition, at each of these 12 stations, particles were collected at two depths (Figure 30):
- surface using the underway ship’s seawater supply,
- deep chla-max using the normal Niskin CTD sampling rosette.

Between 1 and 6 litres of seawater were filtered in the wet lab on polycarbonate membranes (\( \Theta \) 47mm, 0.4 \( \mu \)m porosity) within 12h of sampling (samples were stored in the fridge meanwhile) with a filtration time of max. 3h. Filtration was done under pressure using ship compressed air system at \(~1.2\) psi (Figure 31).
Filtration blanks were done twice by filtration of mQ water and twice by filtration of pre-filtered seawater. Station 16 was also sampled similarly for particles. Since UCC samples were not available at this station, 4 L of surface seawater (underway system) was filtered and stored as the other seawater samples.

Figure 30. Damien sampling seawater from the 12L CTD for particles.

Figure 31. Filtration system used for the collection of particles at surface and deep chl-a maximum to measure Si isotopic signatures of biogenic silica during Leg 3 of MedBlack GEOTRACES cruise.
Table 12) Volume of filtered UCC seawater collected for Si isotopic signature of silicic acid during Leg 3 of MedBlack GEOTRACES cruise.

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Planned methods and analyses
On the shore-based lab, samples will be processed as follows:
- Seawater samples will be processed following Hendry et al. (2010) modification of Georg et al. (2006) purification method. Briefly, silicic acid will be pre-concentrated by brucite (Mn(OH)₂) scavenging at high pH (Cardinal et al., 2005). After dissolution in HCl, cationic exchange chromatography will be implemented to remove all cationic species. Anions will be monitored and, when necessary, normalisation of standard and samples will be done by addition of sulphate to prevent matrix effect during isotopic measurements (Hughes et al., 2011).
- Biogenic silica on particles’ samples will be digested by hot NaOH 0.2M leaching; the lithogenic silica contamination will be monitored by Al analysis of the leachate (Ragueneau et al., 2005). If the amount of biogenic silica is sufficient (0.5 µmol Si needed) and if the lithogenic silica contribution is negligible (<5%), samples will be processed for chemical purification before isotopic analyses (Georg et al., 2006).
- Si isotopic analyses will be measured by sample – standard bracketing on a Multi Collector – Inductively Coupled Plasma – Mass Spectrometer (MC-ICP-MS) with Mg doping to correct for the mass bias (Cardinal et al., 2003). Results will be presented in the form of δ³⁰Si and δ²⁹Si relative to NBS 28 reference material. Accuracy will be monitored by repeat analyses of the Diatomite secondary reference material (Reynolds et al., 2007). Depending on success in funding for a post-doc or a Ph. D., it is expected to process and analyse the samples within 2-4 years from now.

Acknowledgements
D.C. wishes to warmly thank for their help and support on-board: captain and crew of R.V. Pelagia, M. Rijkenberg, L. Gerrina, K. Bakker, UCC sampling and CTD teams, M. Boyé and R. Ganeshram. I. Closset and V. Klein are thanked for their help in preparing the material before the cruise at LOCEAN. Funding has been provided for this project to D.C. by the FP7
– Marie Curie Career Integration Grant ‘MuSiCC’ (Multi-proxy approach of the Silicon and Carbon Cycles).

References
4.2.A.9. Sample collection for stable N isotope analysis

Dr. Raja Ganeshram

University of Edinburgh

Introduction
The objective of the sampling programme Mediterranean-Black Sea GEOTRACES LEG 3 is to collect seawater and suspended particulate samples for stable nitrogen and oxygen analysis of dissolved nitrate and stable carbon and nitrogen analysis of suspended particulate organic matter at the Wolfson’s Mass Spectrometer Laboratory at the University of Edinburgh. The specific objectives are as follows: (1) To delineate various water masses in terms of their stable N and O isotopic composition; (2) To estimate relative nitrate utilisation in surface waters by biota using stable N isotope systematics; (3) To identify nitrate contributions from atmospheric and terrestrial sources with respect to various water masses; (4) To investigate the magnitude of nitrogen fixation and its “new nitrate” contributions; and (5) To compare macronutrient and micronutrient sources and cycling in the Mediterranean Sea.

Filtered seawater was collected using online filtration (0.2 µm Sartobran 300 cartridge filter (Sartorius)) from the UCC roughly at alternate depths at stations 1, 3, 5, 8, 9, 11, 13, 15, 17, 18 and 19. The samples were stored frozen in HCl cleaned 250 ml Nalgene Polypropelene bottles.

Samples for suspended particles were collected from the standard 12L CTD from bottles corresponding to the depth of the Chlorophyll Maximum as deduced from the CTD’s fluorometer (Figure 32). Near surface samples were also collected from the ships underway pump system. Seawater is forced through 25 mm diameter ~0.7 µm pore size GF/F filters, previously muffle-furnaced at 400 °C for 4 hours using ships compressed air system from Nalgene HDPE carboys (Fig. 1). Filters with suspended matter were frozen and stored for analysis. Suspended particulate samples were collected from stations 1, 3, 5, 8, 9, 11, 13, 15, 16, 17, 18 and 19.

Analytical Protocols to be used for stable isotope analysis are as follows:

\[ \delta^{15}N_{\text{NO}_3} \text{analysis} \]

Isotopic signatures of nitrate nitrogen were determined using the denitrifier method and subsequent analysis by isotope ratio mass spectrometry (Sigman et al., 1999).

The denitrifier method utilises denitrifying bacteria that lack N₂O reductase activity, *Pseudomonas aureofaciens*, to convert dissolved inorganic nitrate in seawater samples into nitrous oxide gas of identical nitrogen isotopic composition. Samples are prepared for mass spectrometry using a custom-modified Analytical Precision gas-prep interface and purge-and-trap cryogenic focusing system. The cryogenically-focused sample is separated into distinct N₂O and CO₂ pulses by gas chromatography and then analysed on a VG Prism III isotope ratio mass spectrometer. Raw sample data are corrected to atmospheric N₂ using isotopic reference standards USGS-32, USGS-34 and USGS-35, with an analytical precision (1σ) of around 0.2 ‰. All \[ \delta^{15}N \] data are presented in the delta per mil notation compared to atmospheric N₂ (\[ \delta^{15}N \%_\text{AIR} \]).

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POC, PN, $\delta^{13}$C$_{POC}$ and $\delta^{15}$N$_{PN}$ analysis

Bulk POC, PN and corresponding isotopic analyses were conducted using a method similar to Ganeshram et al. (2000). GF/F filters were kept for particulate organic carbon and nitrogen measurements, dried at 50°C overnight, and stored frozen at -20°C until analysis. Prior to analysis, the filters were decarbonated by wetting with Milli-Q water and fuming with HCl for 48 h and then drying at 50 °C. Filters were analysed for elemental POC, PN, $\delta^{13}$C$_{POC}$ and $\delta^{15}$N$_{PN}$ using a Carlo Erba NA 2500 elemental analyser in-line with a VG PRISM III isotope ratio mass spectrometer in helium carrier gas and corrected to PACS and acetanilide isotopic standards covering the full range of CN concentrations. All $\delta^{13}$C data are presented in the delta per mil notation versus Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite ($\delta^{13}$C ‰ VPDB) and all $\delta^{15}$N data are presented in the delta per mil notation versus N$_2$ gas in air ($\delta^{15}$N ‰ AIR).

References


Figure 32. Raja sampling seawater from the standard 12L CTD to collect particles.
4.2.A.10. Oxygen isotopes

Eyal Wurgaft

The Hebrew University of Jerusalem, Israel.

Introduction
The triple isotopic composition of dissolved O$_2$ ($^{16}$O,$^{17}$O and $^{18}$O) is unique tracer for aquatic processes. Since it was first introduced by Luz and Barkan (2000), it was extensively used by several research groups for estimating the rates of photosynthetic O$_2$ production in the mixed-layer of many regions of the ocean (e.g. Hendricks et al., 2004; Juranek and Quay 2005; Sarma et al., 2005). This application is made possible because the isotopic composition of atmospheric O$_2$ carries a small, yet measurable, signature of photochemical processes which take place in the stratosphere (Thiemens, 2001). Photosynthetic O$_2$ production tends to diminish this stratospheric signature, and therefore, provided that the rate of air-sea gas exchange is known, the rate of photosynthetic O$_2$ production can be estimated by measuring the triple isotopic composition of O$_2$. Respiration affects the isotopic composition of dissolved O$_2$, by preferentially consuming the lighter isotopologues. This means that in a closed parcel of water in which O$_2$ is consumed by respiration, the relative abundance of the heavier isotopologues (conventionally expressed in $\delta$ notation) will increase. However, the ratio of the increase in $\delta^{17}$O to $\delta^{18}$O has been experimentally determined for the major respiratory mechanisms (Angert et al., 2003; Luz and Barkan, 2005). This ratio (0.518) can be used in a simple equation, which describes the $^{17}$O-excess ($^{17}\Delta$) over the expected value for a given $\delta^{18}$O, in a system in which O$_2$ is removed by respiration:

$$^{17}\Delta = \ln(\delta^{17}\text{O}/1000+1) - 0.518 \ln(\delta^{18}\text{O}/1000+1)$$  (5)

Since respiration increases the first term of the right-hand side of the equation on a slope of 0.518 relative to the second term, respiration alone would not result in a change in $^{17}\Delta$. Consequently, once a water parcel sinks below the photic zone, where neither air-sea gas exchange nor photosynthesis take place, $^{17}\Delta$ can only be changed by mixing with water of different $^{17}\Delta$. In this sense, it can be applied as a conservative tracer for mixing processes. Such application was recently demonstrated by Wurgaft et al., 2013.

Objectives
Recent measurements (unpublished data) have shown that in many parts of the deep (> 1000 m) ocean, the photosynthetic fraction of the dissolved O$_2$ is surprisingly high. In particular, such observations were made in the Atlantic Ocean. Since this photosynthetic O$_2$ had to come from the photic zone, tracing the origins of this signature may shed new light on the present global mixing regime of the ocean. If no feasible source will be found, the photosynthetic signature in the deep ocean will have to be explained by ecological and physical conditions which prevailed when the deep water was formed, and may therefore provide interesting insights on past climate, in the time-scale of the oceanic turnover.

In addition, we recently demonstrated how $^{17}\Delta$ can be used as a tracer for physical mixing process (Wurgaft et al., 2013). Our measurements, which were conducted in the Gulf of Aqaba, Israel, showed that rapid boundary mixing processes “inject” surface O$_2$ into the deep (>500 m) parts of the gulf, on a seasonal time scale.
Our objectives for sampling during the 3rd leg of the Geotracer Mediterranean and Black Sea cruise were twofold:
1) Obtain preliminary data of the isotopic composition of O2 in the deep parts of the Mediterranean. In particular, we wanted to check whether the outflow through the Straits of Gibraltar can be a source to the photosynthetic O2 we observed in the Atlantic Ocean.
2) Obtain preliminary data around the Adriatic Sea, in order to see if signatures of rapid O2 injections exist in this area.

**Sampling**

In order to achieve the objectives mentioned above, seawater samples were taken from three stations along the route of the NIOZ RV-Pelagia (Figure 33). The first two stations were in the Adriatic Sea, and the third was the station nearest to the strait of Gibraltar. A table consisting the exact location and depths sampled is enclosed (Table 13).

Table 13) The locations and depths were samples for oxygen isotopes were taken.

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**Analysis**
The water sampling procedure is thoroughly described in Luz et al. (2002). In brief, duplicate seawater samples (~150 mL) were transferred from Niskin bottles into pre-evacuated 300 mL gas extraction flasks with Louwers Hapert® O-ring stopcocks, using Tygon® tubing. Prior to their evacuation, 1 mL of HgCl2 saturated solution was added to the flasks to arrest biological activity after sampling. Seawater was withdrawn from the Niskin bottles immediately after
the recovery of the rosette of water samples. No other samples were collected from the Niskin bottles prior to those of the isotopic composition of dissolved $\text{O}_2$.

No analysis or further processing of the samples was conducted on-board of the Pelagia. Sample preparation and mass-spectrometry measurements will be carried out in the home laboratory in Jerusalem, according to Luz et al. (2002) and Barkan and Luz (2003). Upon arrival to Jerusalem, the samples will be equilibrated for 24 h at room temperature. Each flask will be inverted, and the water will be drawn out into a suction bottle, with the valve slightly open, until only the headspace gases and a small volume ($<1$ mL) of water remained in the flask. The flasks will then be stored at room temperature until analysis of the gases will take place. An automated preparation line will be used to extract the gases and purify $\text{O}_2$ and Ar out of the gas mixture, as described in Barkan and Luz (2003). This preparation will include drying, $\text{CO}_2$ removal and chromatographic separation of N$_2$. The ratios $^{18}\text{O}:/^{16}\text{O}$ and $^{17}\text{O}:/^{16}\text{O}$ in the purified $\text{O}_2$-Ar mixture were determined by dual inlet mass spectrometry on a multi-collector instrument ($\text{DELTA}^{\text{plus}}\text{XL}$ mass spectrometer, Thermo Scientific).

Figure 33. Eyal taking samples form the standard 12L CTD for oxygen isotopes.

Acknowledgments
The captain and the crew of the RV Pelagia was helpful, kind and hospitable at all times during the cruise, making it an efficient and enjoyable experience. Micha Rijkenberg kindly assisted in all aspects of the logistics involved in my participation in the cruise, and I am thankful for that.

References
Barkan, E., and B. Luz. 2003. High-precision measurements of $17\text{O}/16\text{O}$ and $18\text{O}/16\text{O}$ of $\text{O}_2$


4.2.B. CO₂ and DOC

4.2.B.1. Dissolved Inorganic Carbon, Total Alkalinity

Lesley Salt and Nikki Clargo

Royal Netherlands Institute for Sea Research, Texel, the Netherlands

Methodology

Sampling and analysis for carbonate system parameters broadly followed the standard operating procedures outlined by Dickson et al., 2007. Water samples of 0.6 L were collected from the Large Volume CTD at one cast of every station, at all 24 depths, into borosilicate sample bottles with plastic caps, using tygon tubing. In each profile, a minimum of two duplicate samples were collected at shallow and deep parts of the profile. Sample analysis commenced immediately after collection and analysis of profiles was in all cases completed within 12 hours after sampling (Figure 34). All analyses were performed on two VINDTA 3C (Versatile INstrument for the Determination of Total Alkalinity, designed and built by Dr. L. Mintrop, Marine Analytics and Data, Kiel, Germany). Samples were measured simultaneously on the two instruments (VINDTA #14 and #17, respectively). These instruments were slightly modified: the peristaltic sample pump was replaced with an overpressure system (~0.5 bar overpressure) and a 1 m long (though coiled) 1/8" stainless steel counter-flow heat exchanger that was placed between the sampling line and the circulation circuit. This setup allows for the rapid, convenient and bubble-free loading of the pipettes with sample of 25 °C (± 0.1 °C), irrespective of the samples' initial temperature.

Duplicate samples were analyzed first followed by the depth profile. The use of two machines increases our confidence in final results, and allows demonstration and quantification of measurement errors of the machines that would otherwise go unnoticed. No formal analysis and correction of the result have been performed yet.

Dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC)

Dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) was determined by coulometric titration. An automated extraction line takes a 20 mL subsample which is subsequently purged of CO₂ in a stripping chamber containing ~1 mL of ~8.5% phosphoric acid (H₃PO₄). A stream of nitrogen carries the CO₂ gas into a coulometric titration cell via a condenser and acid trap, to strip the gas flow of any water. The CO₂ reacts with the cathode solution in the cell to form hydroxyethylcarbamic acid, which is then titrated with hydroxide ions (OH⁻) generated by the coulometer. The current of the coulometer is then integrated over the duration of the titration to obtain the total amount of carbon titrated.

Total Alkalinity (TA)

Determinations of total alkalinity (TA) were performed by acid titration that combines aspects from both the commonly used ‘closed cell' method and the ‘open cell’ method, following the VINDTAs standard settings. A single 20 L batch of acid of ~0.1M and salinity 35 was prepared to be used by both VINDTAs. This acid was stirred for 2 minutes prior to the beginning of each run of analyses to ensure it was thoroughly homogenized. Potential drift in acid strength due to HCl-gas loss to acid vessel headspace is not accounted for.

Certified reference material (CRM, Batch #127) obtained from Dr. Andrew Dickson at Scripps Institute of Oceanography (San Diego, California) was used for calibration purposes.
and quality control for both DIC and TA.

References

Figure 34. Lesley measuring DIC and alkalinity in the dedicated CO₂ container.
4.2.B.2. Dissolved organic carbon (DOC)

Simona Retelletti Brogi1, Dennis Hansell2 and Chiara Santinelli1

1Istituto di Biofisica, Pisa, Italia
2University of Miami, USA

Introduction
Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) in the oceans plays a key role in the global carbon cycle. It contains an amount of carbon \((662 \times 10^{15} \, \text{g C})\) (Hansell et al., 2009) comparable to that occurring in the atmosphere and is the main substrate for the growth of heterotrophic prokaryotes (Carlson, 2002). It can interact with metals modifying their bioavailability and toxicity and undergoes condensation reactions leading the formation of transparent exopolimeric particles (TEP), that represent the starting point for the bio-film formation.

DOC concentration is the result of all the biological processes of production and consumption occurring in the sea and it is strongly affected by external inputs (river and atmosphere). Physical processes, such as deep water formation, thermohaline circulation, vertical stratification and mesoscale activities are the main drivers of its distribution (Hansell 2002; 2009; Carlson et al., 2010). Recently, a link between DOC distribution and circulation of the main water masses in the Mediterranean Sea has been detected and the role of DOC in C export and sequestration has been highlighted (Santinelli et al. 2010, 2012; 2013).

The DOC data collected during the GEOTRACES cruise represent a unique opportunity to (i) assess the DOC distribution in the different areas and water masses of the Mediterranean Sea and to investigate long-term variation in its distribution; (ii) confirm the role of DOC in C export and sequestration in the Mediterranean Sea; (iv) investigate the difference in DOC cycling between the Western and Eastern Mediterranean Sea.

Sample collection and analysis

Work at sea
Filtered seawater samples (0.2 µm, Sartobran 300 cartridges (Sartorius)) were collected from the ultraclean titanium CTD into 60 ml plastic (HDPE) bottles acid washed (Figure 35). Samples were stored at -20° and in the dark until the analysis. Samples were collected in all the stations at the following depths: 10, 25, 50, 75, 150, 200, 250, 300, 400, 500 m and every 250 m until the bottom.

In the Ionian Sea (St. 4), samples for \(\Delta^{14}\text{CO}_2\) and DOC\(\Delta^{14}\text{C}\) were collected at 10, 400, 2000 and 2920 m. Daniel Repeta (WHOI) is responsible for these analysis and data. Samples will be analyzed at the National Ocean Sciences Accelerator Mass Spectrometry (NOSAMS).

DOC measurements
DOC measurements will be carried out with a Shimadzu Total Organic Carbon analyzer (TOC-Vcsn), by high temperature catalytic oxidation. Samples are acidified with HCl 2N and sparged for 3 minutes with CO2-free pure air, in order to remove inorganic carbon. One hundred and fifty µl of sample is injected in the furnace (680°C) after rinsing with the sample three times. From 3 to 5 replicate injections are performed until the analytical precision is lower than 1% (± 1µM). A four-point calibration curve is done by injecting standard solutions of potassium hydrogen phthalate in the concentration range between 20 and 150 µM. At the beginning and end of each analytical day the system blank is measured using
low carbon water produced by a MilliQ system, the measurement reliability is assessed twice daily by comparison of data with DOC Consensus Reference Waters (CRM) (Hansell, 2005).

References

Figure 35. Simona preparing sample bottles for DOC, sampling in the UCC container and changing aerosol filters together with Eyal.
4.2.B.3. Chromophoric dissolved organic matter (CDOM)

Simona Retelletti Brogi and Chiara Santinelli
Istituto di Biofisica, Pisa, Italia

Introduction
Chromophoric dissolved organic matter (CDOM) is the fraction of DOM that absorbs light over a broad range of ultraviolet (UV) and visible wavelengths; it determines the underwater light availability in open and coastal regions with important implication on primary production and biological activity. Though terrestrial inputs (rivers and atmosphere) represent an important source of CDOM, it is also produced in-situ by biological activity and it is mainly removed by photochemical degradation and microbial consumption. Deep ocean circulation drives its distribution (Siegel et al., 2002; Nelson et al., 2007). CDOM is the major factor controlling the attenuation of UV radiation in the ocean, it is highly photo-reactive and it easily undergoes photodegradation processes upon exposure to solar radiation. Through this process, CDOM is degraded into smaller compounds with lower molecular weight, lower internal energy, and different optical properties (Mopper and Kieber, 2000, 2002).

In the last years, the measurement of fluorescence excitation/emission matrices (EEMs) combined with the parallel factorial analysis (PARAFAC) allowed the identification of different fluorescent compounds in the CDOM pool, that can be mainly identified as humic-like and protein-like substances (Stedmon and Bro 2008, Para et al., 2010, Kowalczuk et al., 2009, Yamashita et al., 2011).

The CDOM data collected during the GEOTRACES cruise represent the first data for the open-sea waters of the Mediterranean Sea on a basin scale and will be useful to:
1. Gain the first information about CDOM distribution in the surface, intermediate and deep waters for the whole basin
2. Investigate if CDOM shows different optical properties (absorption and fluorescence) in the surface waters of the Western and Eastern Mediterranean Sea and how they are related to the different trophic conditions
3. Study the relationship between DOC and CDOM in the different water masses of the Mediterranean Sea.

Sample collection and analysis
Work at sea
Filtered seawater samples (0.2 µm, Sartobran 300 cartridges) were collected from the ultraclean titanium CTD into 60 ml plastic (HDPE) bottles acid washed. Samples were stored at -20° and in the dark until the analysis. Samples were collected in all the stations at the following depths: 10, 25, 50, 75, 150, 200, 250, 300, 400, 500 m and every 250 m until the bottom.

CDOM
Absorption measurements
Absorbance spectra will be measured throughout the UV and visible spectral domains (230–700 nm) using a spectrophotometer UV-visible (Jasco Mod-7850), with a 10 cm quartz cell. Milli-Q water is used as reference and its spectrum is subtracted from each sample. The absorbance (A) is converted into absorption coefficients (a) as follows:
\[ a(\lambda) = 2.303 \frac{A(\lambda)}{l} \]  

(6)

where \( A(\lambda) \) is the absorbance at wavelength \( \lambda \) and \( l \) is the pathway expressed in meters. Absorption coefficient at 280 nm (\( a_{280} \)) and 355 nm (\( a_{355} \)) are calculated in order to gain information on protein-like (\( a_{280} \)) and humic-like (\( a_{355} \)) substances.

The spectral slope (\( S \)), is calculated in the range 275-295 nm (Fichot and Benner, 2012), using the following fitting equation:

\[ y = a_{\lambda_0} e^{-S (\lambda - \lambda_0)} \]  

(7)

where \( a_{\lambda_0} \) is the absorption coefficient at \( \lambda_0 \).

**Fluorescence measurements**

Fluorescence excitation-emission matrixes (EEMs) will be measured by using the Aqualog fluorometer (Horiba), with a 10 × 10 mm² quartz cuvette. Excitation wavelength ranges between 250 and 450 nm at 5 nm increment, while emission spectra are measured between 212 and 619 nm at 3 nm increment. Each EEM is corrected for any inner-filter effect (Stedmon and Bro 2008) and for instrument bias in excitation and emission. EEMs are subtracted by the blank EEM measured by using Milli-Q water. Rayleigh and Raman scatters are removed by interpolating the data using a monotone cubic interpolation (shape-preserving) (Carlson and Fritsch 1989). Finally, the fluorescence intensity value is normalized by the integrated Raman band of Milli-Q water (\( \lambda_{ex} = 350 \text{ nm}, \lambda_{em} = 371-428 \text{ nm} \)), measured at the same day of the analysis (Lawaetz and Stedmon, 2009).

**References**


## Appendix 1. Station list & devices deployment

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Appendix 2.

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