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Biogeochemical cycling of zinc and its isotopes in
the Southern Ocean
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32 ABSTRACT

We report Zn concentration and isotope data for seawater samples from the Atlantic sector of the Southern Ocean, collected during the IPY/GEOTRACES ANT-XXIV/III cruise along the Greenwich Zero Meridian. Data are reported for the full depth range of the water column at three stations, as well as a transect of surface samples, using a new analytical approach that is presented in detail here.

38 Zn concentrations increase with depth, though due to proximity to upwelling sites, surface 39 concentrations are not as low as in some parts of the ocean such as further northward into the 40 sub-Antarctic zone. For two depth profiles south of the Polar Front Zone, the physical 41 stratification of the upper water column is reflected in sudden near-surface changes in Zn 42 concentration with depth. In contrast, beneath 100-300m Zn concentrations barely change 43 with depth. Zn isotopic data beneath 1000m, for the Southern Ocean data presented here as 44 well as published data from the North Atlantic and North Pacific, are strikingly homogeneous, with an average δ^{66} Zn = +0.53±0.14‰ (2SD, 2SE = 0.03, n = 21). The surface Southern 45 Ocean is more variable, with δ^{66} Zn ranging from 0.07-0.80‰. Between the two is a thin 46 47 horizon at 40-80m which, in the Southern Ocean as well as the North Atlantic and North Pacific, is characterized by distinctly light isotopic signatures, with δ^{66} Zn about 0.3‰ lower 48 49 than surface waters.

50 Strong correlations between Si and Zn concentrations seen here and elsewhere, coupled to the 51 lack of any systematic relationship between Si and Zn isotopes in the Southern Ocean, 52 suggest that the removal of Zn associated with diatom opal involves little or no isotopic 53 fractionation. Regeneration of this Zn also explains the homogeneous Zn isotopic composition 54 of the global deep ocean so far sampled. However, the low Zn content of opal requires that 55 deep ocean Zn does not directly come from the opal phase itself, but rather from associated 56 organic material external to the diatom frustule during growth. Experimental data are consistent with little or no fractionation during incorporation of Zn into this material. On the 57 58 other hand, the light zinc at 40-80m is most consistent with the regeneration of an intra-59 cellular pool that both culturing experiments and field data suggest will be isotopically light. 60 The data thus imply two processes by which Zn is taken up in the surface ocean, that these 61 pools have very different regeneration lengthscales, and that physical mixing of the oceans cannot eradicate their isotopic signatures. Finally, the deep δ^{66} Zn ocean value is significantly 62 63 higher than the current best estimate of the input to the oceans. The most obvious candidate for the required light sink is the survival of some of the cellular Zn to be buried in sediment. 64

66 **1. INTRODUCTION**

67 Zinc (Zn) is involved in a number of biological processes in marine micro-organisms (see recent review by Sinoir et al., 2012), such as the important role as a cofactor in the enzyme 68 69 carbonic anhydrase (Lippard and Berg, 1994) that promotes CO₂ uptake in marine algae (Morel et al., 1994). Moreover, Zn displays nutrient-like depth profiles in the oceans 70 71 (Bruland, 1980; Martin et al., 1989). For example, in the open Pacific, surface water 72 concentrations of Zn are up to a factor of 250 times lower than those of deep waters, 73 reflecting intense removal of Zn into phytoplankton at the surface and regeneration at depth (e.g. Lohan et al., 2002). In the surface ocean ~98% of total dissolved Zn is chelated with 74 75 strong Zn-binding organic ligands (Bruland, 1989; Donat and Bruland, 1990; Ellwood and 76 van den Berg, 2000; Lohan et al., 2002; Bruland and Lohan, 2003), so that the concentration of bio-available Zn^{2+} (Sunda and Huntsman, 1992) is typically only 2 – 14 pM in the photic 77 zone of the open Pacific Ocean (Donat and Bruland, 1990). It has been suggested based on 78 79 laboratory studies that, at this level, Zn could limit phytoplankton growth (Brand et al., 1983; 80 Buitenhuis et al., 2003; Shaked et al., 2006; Sunda and Huntsman, 1992; Sunda and Huntsman, 1995; Sunda and Huntsman, 2005), though other evidence for such limitation is 81 equivocal (e.g. Crawford et al., 2003; see recent review by Sinoir et al., 2012). 82

83 It is well known that photosynthetic uptake of carbon and the major nutrients (e.g. Altabet and 84 Francois, 1994; Kroopnick, 1985; De La Rocha et al., 1998) involves a kinetic isotope fractionation such that, for example, phytoplankton preferentially take up ¹²C over ¹³C, 85 leading to enrichment in ¹³C in surface waters. If the depletion of Zn in ocean waters is 86 87 associated with a similar isotopic fractionation, then Zn isotopes could potentially be used to probe the mechanisms for Zn uptake and export from the surface ocean and, moreover, be 88 used as a paleoceaonographic tracer in similar ways to foraminiferal $\delta^{13}C$ (e.g. Andersen et 89 90 al., 2011). Precise isotopic analysis of Zn (Maréchal et al., 1999) has only become possible 91 since the development of multiple collector inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry 92 (MC-ICPMS). Significant isotopic fractionation of Zn in marine and environmental systems (roughly 2.5% total variation in δ^{66} Zn, see data compiled in Cloquet et al., 2006), resulting 93 94 from equilibrium and kinetic reactions during both biological and abiotic processes, have 95 since then been found in a number of studies, highlighting the potential of Zn stable isotopes 96 as tracers (e.g. Maréchal et al., 1999, 2000; Weiss et al., 2005; Bermin et al., 2006).

97 In this paper we present, for the first time, depth profiles of Zn concentrations and isotopic 98 compositions covering the entire water column, specifically from the Atlantic Sector of the 99 Southern Ocean. The Southern Ocean is a key region for many global oceanic processes 100 (Marinov et al., 2006), with water from all three oceans coalescing and mixing at depth. It is 101 also an extensive High Nutrient-Low Chlorophyll (HNLC) region (Minas et al., 1986), where 102 trace metals (e.g. Fe) are often cited as the limiting factor for primary productivity (e.g. Boyd 103 and Ellwood, 2010). The aim of this contribution is therefore to assess the extent to which Zn 104 isotope data can clarify the cycling of Zn in a region of the ocean where trace metals are 105 biogeochemically important.

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2. OCEANOGRAPHIC SETTING

108 The study region, at or near the Greenwich or Zero Meridian (Fig. 1), encompasses the 109 eastward flowing Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC), which extends to its southern 110 boundary (SB-ACC) from the Sub-Tropical Front (STF), and the Weddell Gyre, which 111 extends from the SB-ACC to near the Antarctic continent. Within the ACC there are two 112 more distinct fronts, the Sub-Antarctic Front (SAF) and the Antarctic Polar Front (APF). 113 Within these latter frontal zones, which are narrow at any one time but meander through time, 114 the ACC flows eastwards about 3-4 times more rapidly than outside them (Orsi et al. 1995).

The positions of the fronts during the cruise is shown in Fig. 1. Between the fronts are three wide zones of slower eastward flow (Orsi et al. 1995), the Sub-Antarctic Zone (SAZ) between the STF and SAF, the Polar Frontal Zone (PFZ) between the SAF and APF, and the Antarctic Zone between the APF and SB-ACC. The Weddell Gyre comprises an eastward branch in the ~58 to 65°S region, and a westward return flow in the ~65 to 69°S region, the latter separated from the Antarctic continent by the narrow, eastward flowing, Antarctic Coastal Current.

121 The Southern Ocean comprises all waters south of the STF. The APF is a boundary that is 122 very significant for this study, as follows. Briefly the hydrography of the Southern Ocean is 123 dominated by upwelling along the important frontal regions (Orsi et al., 1995, Fig. 1). 124 Upwelling of Circumpolar Deep Water (CDW) brings waters rich in major nutrients (nitrate, 125 phosphate and silicate) to the surface (Fig. 2). Part of these waters flows northwards where at 126 the APF two processes take place. Firstly some portion of the northward flowing water is 127 subducted at and beyond the APF to become Antarctic Intermediate Water (AAIW), relatively 128 rich in N, P and Si, flowing northwards at typically ~1000m depths far into the Atlantic, 129 Pacific and Indian Ocean basins. Another portion of the northward-flowing water remains at 130 the surface so that, at the APF, very intense summer blooms of large size classes of highly 131 silicified diatoms (Si/N_{diatom} >3) utilize all available silicate (Queguiner et al., 1997). As a 132 result, north of the APF, dissolved silicate is depleted in surface waters, while nitrate and 133 phosphate decrease more gradually until final depletion at the Sub-Antarctic Front (SAF). 134 Another portion of the upwelled nutrient-rich waters flows southwards where eventually, due 135 to intense winter cooling and sea-ice formation in austral winter in the Weddell Sea, the water 136 sinks to form Weddell Sea Bottom Water (WSBW), which eventually flows northward as 137 nutrient-rich (N, P and Si) Antarctic Bottom Water (AABW).

138 The general summer depletion of all three major nutrients in surface waters north of the SAF 139 implies that the northernmost Sub-Antarctic Zone (the SAZ, between the SAF and STF) of 140 the Southern Ocean can actually become macronutrient-depleted. In other words traveling 141 from north to south the surface waters of the Southern Ocean have three distinct regimes of 142 major nutrients: (i) the SAZ that in summer can become depleted in all three major nutrients 143 N, P and Si; (ii) the PFZ that is HNLC for two major nutrients N and P, but depleted in Si; 144 (iii) the Antarctic Ocean south of the APF, comprising the AAZ and Weddell Gyre, that is 145 truly HNLC. In other words, the SAZ is in fact non-HNLC and limiting for all phytoplankton 146 species, the PFZ is Si-limited for diatoms but has ample N and P for other phytoplankton 147 species, and only the Antarctic Ocean is fully HNLC for all three major nutrients i.e. there is 148 an adequate supply for growth of diatoms and all other phytoplankton such that, here, other 149 limitation(s) must exist. These distinctions are important here because in the other major 150 oceans the vertical distribution of dissolved Zn has been shown to correlate strongly with 151 dissolved silicate (e.g. Bruland, 1980). Therefore in this study of Zn and its isotopic 152 composition, the APF is the distinct boundary between true HNLC conditions south of the APF, as opposed to Si-limitation north of the APF. Accordingly, in terms of the major 153 154 nutrients and potential relationships with Zn and its isotopes, we focus here on Si rather than 155 N and P.

Possible limiting factors for productivity in the HNLC zone include iron (Martin et al., 1990; de Baar et al., 1990; Buma et al., 1991; de Baar et al., 1995), light (Mitchell et al., 1991; Sunda and Huntsman, 1997; de Baar et al., 2005), and zooplankton grazing (Cullen, 1991). Initial Fe fertilization experiments generally showed a much stronger response than those with addition of other bio-essential trace metals, such as Mn, Co, Cu, Zn, or combinations thereof (Buma et al., 1991; Scharek et al., 1997). Since then most studies of the role of trace metals in the Southern Ocean (Boyd et al., 2000) have focused on iron (see recent review in Boyd and Ellwood 2010). More recently the covariance of dissolved Mn and phosphate in upper waters of the same Greenwich meridian suggests some co-limitation of Mn and Fe at some times and places in the Antarctic Ocean (Middag et al., 2011a). Also it has been suggested that suboptimal Zn concentrations in the Southern Ocean may influence Si and N uptake rates by phytoplankton (Hassler et al., 2012). Previous water column work (Coale et al., 2005) has revealed that Zn concentrations, like the major nutrients, are high near the upwelling zone in the Antarctic Ocean and decline sharply northwards.

170 Andersen et al. (2011) have measured Southern Ocean core-top diatomopal samples extracted from marine sediments and reported systematic changes in δ^{66} Zn associated with surface 171 172 water Zn concentrations. These systematic changes were found to be coupled to changes in 173 Zn/Si ratios of the diatom_{opal}, which had been suggested previously (e.g. Ellwood and Hunter, 174 2000; Andersen et al., 2011) to reflect the concentrations of bio-available Zn in the ambient surface seawater where the diatom_{opal} was formed. The δ^{66} Zn and Zn/Si of diatom opal, 175 176 therefore, have the potential to be used for investigating Zn cycling and primary productivity 177 in the past Southern Ocean.

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179 **3. SAMPLES**

The seawater samples used in this study, were collected during cruise ANT-XXIV/3 (Feb-April 2008) in the Atlantic sector of the Southern Ocean as part of the International GEOTRACES program and a contribution to the International Polar Year (IPY). Seven vertical profiles were taken, of which 3 were available for study here (Fig. 1, 2). These are at station 104 in the Si-depleted PFZ of the ACC, station 113 in the Si-N-P-rich HNLC AAZ region of the ACC, and station 163 in the Si-N-P-rich HNLC southernmost westward flowing branch of the Weddell Gyre. In addition, large (20 litres) surface water samples (2-5m) were obtained along the Greenwich Zero Meridian from 47°S to 68°S (Fig. 1), some of which were also available for study here. These are at station 105 in Si-depleted waters of the PFZ, stations 109, 111, 114, 117, 120 in the Si-N-P-rich HNLC AAZ region of the ACC, and stations 123, 126, 129, 133, 136, 139 in the Si-N-P-rich HNLC of the northernmost eastward flowing branch of the Weddell Gyre. Unfortunately, the surface samples that are likely to be the most Zn-depleted, around and northward of the Sub-Antarctic Front, were exhausted by other analyses and not available to us for study.

194 The TITAN trace metal clean rosette system from the Royal Netherlands Institute for Sea 195 Research (NIOZ) was used for seawater sampling (de Baar et al., 2008). The system consisted 196 of a titanium frame fitted with a standard Seabird CTD in a titanium housing, and 24 modified 197 12 litre Teflon coated GO-FLO bottles deployed with a kevlar wire with internal signal cables 198 (de Baar et al., 2008). Sample bottles were tripped on the upcast using standard Seabird CTD 199 software. Upon recovery, the complete rosette was carefully moved into its dedicated NIOZ 200 Class-100 clean room container specially built for sub-sampling, where filtration and sub-201 sampling were performed on the seawater samples using established protocols (Middag et al., 202 2011b). All seawater samples collected were acidified for storage to pH of around 2 using 203 Seastar HCl. Bottles for sample collection were pre-cleaned with hot acid in the clean labs at 204 MPI. High density polyethylene (HDPE) containers of variable sizes for samples from 205 different water depths (20 litre for surface, 10 litre for intermediate, 5 litre and 1 litre for 206 deep) were subjected to a hot cleaning procedure consisting of successive treatment in 207 alkaline detergent and 6 M HCl, followed by several ultra-pure MQ water rinses to remove 208 trace metal impurities. Sub-sampling for Zn isotopic analysis was done in the clean lab of 209 MPI. Bottles for sub-sampling were supplied by Bristol and pre-cleaned in 20% HCl for 2 210 weeks, then rinsed 4 times with MQ before packing.

Major nutrients were analyzed onboard by NIOZ using a Bran & Luebbe Traacs 800 Auto-211 212 analyser by standard methods described in Grasshoff et al. (1999). Samples for nutrient 213 measurement were obtained from a CTD rosette sampler (an ultraclean CTD) in a 214 polyethylene vial, stored in the dark at 4°C and analyzed within 12 hours of sampling 215 (Fahrbach & de Baar, 2010). A vertical section of measured silicate is plotted along the 216 Greenwich Zero Meridian in Fig. 2. As discussed above, the low Si concentration in SAZ and 217 PFZ in Fig. 2 is the result of the northward transport of upwelled Si-rich CDW water (south of 218 49°S), with the strong removal of silicate at the APF.

219

220 **4. METHODS**

221 In order to extract Zn, present at nanomolar (nM) levels or lower, from up to several litres of 222 seawater, an initial pre-concentration is required before purification for isotopic analysis. 223 Preliminary data from this laboratory (Bermin et al., 2006) used both Chelex-100 (Kingston et 224 al., 1978) and co-precipitation with Mg(OH)₂ (Wu and Boyle, 1998). Extraction with Chelex-225 100 is adequate for high Zn concentration deep ocean samples, but for Zn-poor surface samples the blank contribution from the Chelex column is unacceptably high (Bermin et al., 226 227 2006). Co-precipitation with Mg is achieved by adding ammonia to acidifed samples until the 228 seawater's own inventory of dissolved Mg precipitates at pH~10 as Mg(OH)₂, bringing 229 virtually all of the Zn with it. Again, this procedure performs adequately for Zn-rich deep 230 ocean samples where relatively small volumes (<500 mL) of seawater can be used. However, 231 for the large samples required to obtain enough Zn from depleted surface samples (in some 232 case >2 litres in this study), the Mg precipitate is so large that it causes difficulties during the 233 subsequent separation and purification of Zn.

Here, a new pre-concentration approach has been used, involving the addition of a Zn-free

aluminium solution to the seawater sample. The pH is then raised with ammonia, but in this 235 236 case only to about 8.5-9.0 so that Al(OH)₃ precipitate is produced but no Mg(OH)₂. Since the 237 amount of aluminium added can be controlled, subsequent handling of the precipitate during 238 the chromatographic purification of Zn is much easier. Since these are the first data we report 239 using this approach, we describe it in some detail in this section, including the tests we have 240 undertaken to establish its success. We also take the opportunity to compare the Zn 241 concentrations obtained here with those published previously for the same or similar locations 242 (Löscher, 1999; Croot et al., 2011).

All lab work was carried out under clean laboratory conditions in Class-100 laminar flow clean hoods, using only Savillex (Minnetonka, MN, USA) PFA labware. All labware was cleaned on the hotplate, firstly with 6 M HCl, subsequently with 50% HNO₃ for two days, then with 1% once distilled HNO₃ for another day, rinsing thoroughly between each step and at the end. 18.2 M Ω MQ water was obtained from a Millipore Q-Gard[®] B1 system. All acids used were distilled twice.

249 4.1 Pre-concentration by co-precipitation

250 The initial step of co-precipitation was either done in large pre-cleaned Teflon beakers (up to 251 1 litre), or in a clean 4 litre LDPE bottle (for samples > 1 litre). Samples were weighed, and 252 Zn double spike and 1.2 ml 10000 ppm Al standard solution were added. The commercial Al 253 solution was pre-cleaned of Zn on an anion column and subsequently re-dissolved in 1M HCl. 254 The ratio between sample and double spike Zn is ideally 1 (Bermin et al., 2006), but there is a 255 lot of leeway in this (see below). Beakers were left to equilibrate overnight, whereupon an 256 ultra-clean ~11M Romil ammonia solution was added to reach a desired pH. White precipitate 257 began to form and the beakers were left for a few more days for the precipitate to develop. 258 After this, as much supernatant as possible was poured off. Then the precipitate and remaining water was transferred to a smaller pre-cleaned Teflon beaker to settle again. The precipitate was then separated from the remaining supernatant by centrifugation. The centrifuged precipitate was washed with pH = 10 MQ (MQ to which a small amount of ammonia was added) and centrifuged again. The final "clean" precipitate was dissolved in 2 ml 7 M HCl, dried down, taken up in 1 ml 7 M HCl and dried down twice. The sample was finally dissolved in 1ml (or more, depending on the amount of precipitate obtained) 1 M HCl, before passing through the anion exchange column for further purification.

266 The aluminium solution, despite being pre-cleaned on a column, was a significant contributor 267 to the total blank. In addition, co-precipitation at too high a pH causes precipitation of unwanted Mg hydroxide from seawater in addition to aluminium hydroxide. Tests were 268 269 therefore conducted to ascertain the smallest amount of Al solution that could be used, as well 270 as the minimum pH for co-precipitation, while maintaining high Zn yields. Because of the 271 double spike approach, high Zn yields are not essential for accuracy, but they are desirable to 272 maximize the final analyte signal during mass spectrometry. Based upon the results of these 273 tests (see Electronic Supplementary Material (ESM), Fig. 1), it was decided to add 1.2 ml of 274 Al solution (12 mg) and to raise the pH to 8.5-8.8 during co-precipitation. In both cases this 275 procedure produced yields in excess of 90% (Tables 1-3) for sample sizes ≤ 1 litre, and 276 greater than 70% for sample sizes > 1 litre, where quantitative recovery of the precipitate 277 from 4 litre bottles was difficult.

278 **4.2 Column Chemistry**

The column procedure described by Maréchal et al. (1999), modified by Archer and Vance (2004), has been adopted, with some further minor modifications. Primarily, 1 M HCl has been used instead of 7 M HCl to dissolve precipitate and eliminate seawater matrix. There were two reasons for this: 1) 1 M HCl would contribute less blank than 7 M HCl; 2) it was easier to dissolve Al(OH)₃ in 1 M HCl than in 7 M HCl. Samples were loaded to the column
in 1 ml (or 2 ml, depending on the amount of precipitate to be dissolved) 1 M HCl. Most
metals were washed off in 12 ml 1 M HCl before Zn was collected in 4 ml 2% HNO₃. A
column calibration was performed with Zn JMC standard and the result suggested that no Zn
was eluted until 2% HNO₃ was put through the column. The measured column blank of this
procedure was 0.2 ng for Zn.

289 4.3 Procedural Blanks

290 Quantifying the blank for a co-precipitation procedure is difficult because in order to re-291 produce the entire procedure a seawater sample that contains a finite amount of Zn must be 292 used, so that all measured blanks will be maxima. Ultrapure water can be used as the 293 "seawater" sample but, again, the large quantities of this that must be used to simulate the 294 measured seawater sample will contain finite amounts of Zn. Here we quantified the 295 maximum blank by extracting Zn from different volumes of MQ water, adding the same 296 amount of Al solution as for samples to each, as well as an amount of ammonia appropriate 297 for an acidified 1 litre seawater sample (the ammonia blank was insignificant relative to other 298 sources at 7 pg/ml). Duplicate sets of results for these MQ "samples" (Figure 2 in the ESM), 299 suggest a procedural blank for real samples of ~2 ng. A further constraint derives from 300 analyses performed on extremely Zn-depleted surface samples from the Equatorial Atlantic, 301 samples that turned out to contain as little as 0.01 nM Zn, as determined by isotope dilution. 302 For these 4 litre samples this implies a total amount of Zn found of about 2.5 ng.

All of the above suggests a blank contribution of 2-3 ng, though better quantification could reveal it to be substantially lower. Sample volumes analysed here ranged from 0.1 - 2.2 L, yielding total amounts of Zn analyzed of 34 - 219 ng. With the above absolute maximum procedural blank of 3 ng, the Zn blank contribution to the smallest sample analyzed was less 307 than 9%. Previous measurements of the isotopic composition of (larger) blanks in this laboratory gave $\delta^{66}Zn = 0.17 \pm 0.18\%$ (Bermin et al., 2006; $\delta^{66}Zn_{IMC-Lyons}$ 308 = $\left[\left(\frac{66}{2}n\right)^{64}Zn_{sample}\right)^{66}Zn^{64}Zn_{IMC-Lyons}\right]$ +1]x1000, where JMC-Lyons refers to the Johnson Matthey 309 310 zinc standard JMC batch 3-0749, obtained from the lab of Francis Albarède; Maréchal et al., 311 1999). All samples measured here were corrected for the contribution of a 3 ng blank with an 312 isotopic composition of +0.2%, but the size of these corrections is insignificant for all 313 measured isotopic compositions compared to other sources of analytical uncertainty. In other 314 words, if the blank contribution was really close to zero, the data reported in the paper would 315 not change by more than about 0.03%.

316 4.4 Mass Spectrometry

317 Isotopic analysis of Zn was performed on a Thermo Finnigan Neptune MC-ICPMS at Bristol 318 at low mass resolution. Samples were introduced into the mass spectrometer in 2% (v/v) nitric 319 acid via an Aridus desolvating nebuliser system (Cetac, Omaha, NE, USA) and desolvating 320 spray chamber. The spray chamber was held at 105°C and the desolvator at 160°C. Typical 321 Ar sweep gas settings were 4.25 - 4.75 L/min with little day-to-day variation in the sweep gas 322 required to obtain the optimum Zn signal. No N2 was used as ArN2 would result in interference on ⁶⁸Zn. All stable isotopes of Zn, as well as ⁶²Ni, ⁶³Cu, ⁶⁵Cu were collected 323 324 simultaneously in static mode using a multiple Faraday collector array. Data collection 325 consisted of 30x4s integrations and each measurement was preceded by a blank measurement 326 (15x4s integrations) of the 2% HNO₃ used to make the analyte solutions and followed by a 327 wash or two in clean 2% HNO₃. The blank signal was subtracted from the sample signal and 328 normally amounted to no more than 0.02% of total analyte 64 ion beam.

All Zn isotopic data are reported relative to the Johnson Matthey Zinc standard JMC 3-0749,
obtained from the lab of Francis Albarède (Maréchal et al., 1999). The standard delta per mil

331 notation is used and is defined as:

332
$$\delta^{66}Zn = \left[\frac{\left(\frac{^{66}Zn}{^{64}Zn}\right)_{sample}}{\left(\frac{^{66}Zn}{^{64}Zn}\right)_{JMC}} - 1\right] \times 1000$$

Mass discrimination artefacts, that may be introduced at any stage in the chemical and mass spectrometric procedure, were corrected using the double spike method as detailed in Bermin et al. (2006). All uncertainties cited are 2SE of 30 4 second integrations propagated through the full double spike reduction procedure unless specified. To test the robustness of the double spike approach, JMC standard and double spike were mixed at various ratios and analyzed during every analytical session (see Fig. 3 in ESM for data).

4.5 Tests on real seawater samples

340 Zn isotopic data for samples from the GEOTRACES IC1 intercalibration project (BATS 341 station, 31°40'N 64°10'W) have already been reported by this laboratory (Boyle et al. 2012). 342 No other Zn data were reported for these samples so that we cannot demonstrate inter-343 laboratory consistency at this stage. However, the duplicates analysed by us and reported in 344 Boyle et al. (2012) are all consistent with each other. Furthermore, analyses of deep ocean 345 samples by S. John and T. Conway (pers. comm. September 2012) are yielding the same 346 results as we obtain here and in Boyle et al. (2012). There are a number of other laboratories 347 now pursuing Zn isotopic measurement of seawater so that we hope that this situation 348 improves soon. With this in mind Table 1 reports data obtained here for other samples from 349 recent intercalibration efforts.

Though no isotopic data have been reported yet for these samples from other laboratories, the concentrations obtained here are consistent with those measured elsewhere with completely independent approaches. Thus the consensus values for Zn in SAFe D1 and D2 are 7.1 ± 0.6

and 7.2 ± 0.5 nmol kg⁻¹ while that for the SAFe surface sample is also identical to those 353 kg^{-1} 354 obtained 0.064 ± 0.019 here at nmol 355 (http://es.ucsc.edu/~kbruland/GeotracesSaFe/kwbGeotracesSaFe.html). The Bruland laboratory at Santa Cruz has measured 1.42 nmol kg⁻¹ for Zn in the Santa Barbara sample, 356 whereas we obtain 1.35 and 1.37 nmol kg⁻¹ for two duplicate aliquots from two different 357 358 bottles.

359 4.6 Standard-addition tests

360 Another test of our procedure involves the addition of standard to seawater samples from 361 which Zn has been removed, to seawater samples with very small natural Zn concentrations, and to MQ water, all followed by pre-concentration, column purification and mass 362 363 spectrometric analysis. Fig. 3 shows results obtained for addition of variable amounts of JMC 364 standard to seawater samples from which Zn had been removed (supernatant poured off from 365 a previous Al co-precipitation, retained and treated as a new "sample") and MQ. The result for the seawater samples was δ^{66} Zn = +0.08 ± 0.03‰ (n = 12), and for MQ δ^{66} Zn = -0.01 ± 366 0.02% (n = 8). Although the value for the seawater supernatant samples was close to zero, the 367 368 data indicate that a small amount of seawater Zn was left in the supernatant after coprecipitation, resulting in the slightly elevated δ^{66} Zn. Evidence for this came from the 369 370 comparison of seawater supernatant samples with different amounts of JMC standard added. For those with only 30 ng of standard Zn added, the δ^{66} Zn was more elevated from the 371 expected 0‰ (and also closer to the seawater δ^{66} Zn) than those to which 200 ng of standard 372 Zn was added, due to a larger relative contribution of the residual seawater Zn. A sample 373 374 calculation illustrates how this is possible. For example, for 30 ng of standard Zn added, the typical shift away from 0‰ at the limits of uncertainty is about 0.1‰ towards the original 375 376 seawater sample value of +0.46‰. Thus the shift is of the order of 20% of the total difference

between the predicted 0‰ and the original seawater sample. This would require an amount of residual seawater Zn of 8 ng. If the yield from the original co-precipitation is 90 – 95%, and given an original amount of Zn in the seawater sample of around 100ng for these samples, then a residual amount of seawater Zn of around 5 – 10 ng is plausible. Data for the MQ samples, which had negligible amounts of Zn originally, all fell within the error of the expected 0‰ (Fig. 3).

Another test was performed by adding different amounts of standard JMC Zn to a set of 4 litre samples obtained from the surface Equatorial Atlantic, which through previous analysis by isotope dilution had been found to contain only 0.01-0.03 nmol kg⁻¹ sample Zn. The data are illustrated in Figure 4. The good fit of the data to a straight line might be taken to indicate simple mixing between standard Zn (δ^{66} Zn = 0, low 1/Zn) and sample Zn.

388 4.7 Intercomparison of Zn concentrations with previous data from the Southern Ocean

389 Seawater samples from locations close to those analysed in this paper have been the subject of 390 two other studies for Zn concentrations (Löscher, 1999; Croot et al., 2011). Direct 391 intercomparison between these studies and ours is made difficult by the fact that the previous 392 studies are not often from precisely the same location, depths etc. Figure 5 shows a depth 393 profile from our Station PS71-113-2 along with data from exactly the same location for 394 samples collected on the same cruise with the same sampling equipment and filtration (Croot 395 et al., 2011), and data from a composite depth profile made up of samples from other nearby 396 sites in the Southern ACC collected in 1992 (Löscher, 1999). The latter dataset is from a time 397 when contamination control during sample collection was a lot more difficult than now, and 398 has some outliers, but it is also clear that the agreement between these data and ours at depths 399 \geq 1000m is essentially perfect. The data from Croot et al. (2011), on the other hand, are about 400 25-50% lower than both our data, and the Löscher (1999) data beneath 1000m where a

401 meaningful comparison can be made. The Croot et al. (2011) data were obtained using 402 simultaneous dithiocarbamate-freon extraction followed by graphite furnace atomic 403 absorption spectroscopy. Since the publication of the Croot et al. (2011) data, it has become 404 apparent that this approach, when performed on samples that have been acidified with HCl, 405 yields Cd concentrations that are up to about 50% lower than by isotope dilution (O. Baars 406 and W. Abouchami, unpublished data). It seems likely that this problem applies also to the 407 Croot et al. (2011) Zn data. It may be related to incomplete stripping of the metals from 408 organic complexes during the pre-concentration step. The problem is particularly apparent in 409 samples that had been acidified with HCl and analysed shortly after acidification, while it can 410 be eliminated for samples that are acidified using oxidizing acids like HNO₃ (P.L. Croot, pers. 411 comm.).

412

413 **5. RESULTS**

414 **5.1** Three vertical profiles along Greenwich Zero Meridian

Data for the three vertical profiles PS71-104-2, PS71-113-2, PS71-163-1 (Fig. 1) analysed in
this study for dissolved Zn concentrations and isotopic compositions are presented in Table 2.
The data are shown as depth profiles, with other key oceanographic parameters, in Fig. 6-8.

The water column at the most southerly station, **PS71-163-1** (Fig. 6), in the Weddell Gyre, is extremely stratified at the surface, with temperature and salinity increasing quickly from surface minima of -0.8°C and 34, to about 0.9°C and 34.7 at the AASW (Antarctic surface water) - CIW (Central Intermediate Water) boundary at 200m. This stratification must be driven by the low surface salinity, given the sharp 1.7°C decrease in temperature in the surface layer. The AASW-CIW boundary also corresponds to an O₂ minimum. Si is relatively high at the surface (60 μ mol/kg) and also increases sharply with depth, but the AASW-CIW boundary is not as sharp as for the physical parameters or O₂. Though there is an inflexion in
the Si depth profile at this depth, concentrations continue to increase relatively smoothly
through it.

The Zn concentration profile looks more like salinity than Si. Zn concentrations are not 428 429 particularly low at the surface (2.5 nM), and increase quickly to about 7 nM at 74m. Beneath 430 this boundary, salinity, oxygen and Zn are very homogeneous with depth, with Zn 431 concentrations between 7.1 and 7.8 nM. There is a slight maximum (7.8 nM) at 1000 -432 1500m, close to the CIW-WSDW (Weddell Sea Deep Water) boundary. Si concentrations, by 433 contrast, continue to increase beneath the AASW-CIW boundary and only reach their maximum in the bottom-most sample measured. The δ^{66} Zn profile shows a maximum of 434 435 +0.67% at the surface, in contrast to guite an extreme minimum of +0.27% within AASW at 45m. Beneath this, from 170 – 4000m, δ^{66} Zn is extremely homogeneous at +0.53±0.10‰ 436 437 (2sd). There is a very slight minimum (+0.44% to +0.49%) at the AASW-CIW boundary, and a very slight, broad, maximum (+0.64‰ at 1000 - 2000m, decreasing to +0.53‰ at 438 439 4000m), but these features are barely analytically significant. The bottom-most sample shows very anomalous δ^{66} Zn at +0.97‰. 440

441 Station PS71-113-2 (Fig. 7) is within the ACC, in the Antarctic Zone to the south of the Polar 442 Front. The major physical oceanographic difference between this station and PS71-163-1 is 443 slightly less extreme stratification, though it is still significant. The upper 100m of the water 444 column has the low salinity that is characteristic of AASW, and is also characterized by homogeneously high dissolved O_2 and moderately low, Si (at 35 μ mol kg⁻¹). Potential 445 446 temperature is more variable at 1.2 - 1.4°C. The core of UCDW (Upper Circumpolar Deep 447 Water) beneath AASW is characterized by a temperature maximum (~1.6°C at 400m) and a slight O_2 minimum (185 µmol kg⁻¹ at 400m). Salinity shows a very slight maximum in 448

UCDW. Beneath the core of UCDW, salinity and O₂ remain relatively constant to the bottom.
Si in contrast increases sharply at first in UCDW, down to the core of UCDW, and then more
slowly but monotonically to the bottom.

The pattern of the Zn concentration profile, as with Station PS71-163-1, looks more like salinity and inverse O_2 than Si. AASW at 0 - 100m is characterized by the lowest Zn concentrations, but still relatively high for surface water, at 2.6 - 3.1 nM. There is then a step change into UCDW, resembling the sharp increase in salinity and drop in O_2 . UCDW Zn concentrations are homogeneously high at around 6.3 - 6.6 nM. In LCDW (Lower Circumpolar Deep Water), Zn concentrations increase slightly to 6.8 - 7.1 nM, but relative to Si, for example, are relatively homogeneous from 100m to the bottom of the water column.

The δ^{66} Zn profile at PS71-113-2 exhibits a clearer structure than that at PS71-163-1. As with 459 PS71-163-1, the δ^{66} Zn profile at PS71-113-2 has a pronounced surface maximum (+0.8‰), 460 461 and again there is a sharp drop in the sub-surface, to +0.47 to +0.54% at 74 - 101m, still within AASW. Note that no sample has been measured at 40-50m in this profile (c.f. more 462 463 pronounced minima at 40 - 50m at both stations 163-1 and 104-2; Table 2). Uppermost LCDW has a δ^{66} Zn value of +0.70‰ at 1000m. Between AASW and uppermost LCDW, 464 UCDW appears to have a lower δ^{66} Zn, at +0.39‰ to +0.48‰, a minimum that is just about 465 466 analytically significant relative to the values immediately above and below. Below 1000m, and for the remainder of LCDW down to the bottom at 2351m, the δ^{66} Zn value decreases 467 gradually and monotonically, from the high of +0.70% at 1000m to +0.43% at the bottom. 468 469 As noted above, Zn concentrations change very little through this isotopic structure in the 470 lower water column beneath AASW.

471 Station PS71-104-2 (Fig. 8) is also within the ACC, in the low-Si PFZ, between the APF and
472 the SAF. The upper water column at this station is significantly less stratified than the other

473 two. This station is in the Polar Frontal Zone formation region of AAIW, and surface salinity 474 is marked by the minimum (33.73) that is characteristic of that water mass. Salinity then 475 increases to a slight maximum (34.78) at 2000m, in the upper levels of NADW (North Atlantic Deep Water, see Fig. 3 of Middag et al., 2011a). The core of UCDW is characterized 476 477 by the same minimum in dissolved oxygen seen at Station PS71-113-2. Temperature 478 decreases monotonically downward from a surface maximum of 6.5°C, though with inflection 479 points near the boundaries of the main water masses. Surface Si concentrations are much 480 lower than the other two stations – at ~1.9 μ M here in contrast to 63 and 35 μ M at the other 481 two stations. Si increases monotonically downward, though again with inflection points at the 482 boundaries of the water masses, notably at the UCDW-NADW boundary, above which Si is relatively constant with depth but below which there is a renewed increase. 483

484 The Zn concentration profile, in contrast to those at the other two stations studied, looks much 485 more like Si than salinity. Surface Zn concentration is much lower at this station, at 0.32 nM -486 a feature that mirrors the Si contrast between the three stations. Zn concentrations then 487 increase steeply through AAIW to reach a maximum of ~5.35 nM at 1000 - 1500m in the core of UCDW. This maximum occurs at the same depth as the homogeneous Si 488 489 concentrations above the UCDW-NADW boundary. Zn concentrations then undergo a 490 renewed increase through NADW and into LCDW, reaching 8.04 nM at 4006m. The bottom-491 most point has distinctly lower Zn concentration at 7.03 nM.

As with the other two profiles δ^{66} Zn shows a clear change from a higher value right at the surface (+0.47‰) to a minimum at 50m (+0.25‰). Through the remainder of AAIW and UCDW, δ^{66} Zn returns to homogeneously heavier values (at +0.44±0.06‰ at 100 – 2000m), consistent with the values for UCDW seen at Station PS71-113-2 (+0.39‰ to +0.48‰). NADW and LCDW appear to be characterized by slightly heavier values, with two 497 measurements at +0.60‰ and 0.61‰. Again, this is consistent with the heavier values seen in 498 LCDW – up to +0.70‰ – relative to UCDW at Station PS71-113-2. A slightly lower δ^{66} Zn is 499 found in the bottom-most sample than directly above, paired with the distinctly lower Zn 500 concentration in this sample relative to the measurement directly above.

501 5.2 Surface transect along Greenwich Zero Meridian

In addition to the above depth profiles, samples from 11 surface transect stations PS105,
PS109, PS114, PS117, PS120, PS123, PS126, PS129, PS133, PS136, PS139 were also
analysed for dissolved Zn concentrations and isotopic compositions. Data are presented in
Table 3. The Zn data, with other key oceanographic parameters, are plotted against latitude in
Fig. 9.

Note that though the Zn concentration reproduces across duplicate analyses of two separate aliquots from the same 20 litre MPI container, the data for Station PS111 (52.17°S) are highly anomalous. We suspect that the original 20 litre MPI bottle must have been contaminated before or during original sampling, and these data are not plotted, nor considered further in the results and discussion sections below. Relatively smooth transitions between the other samples across the latitudinal transect suggest no such problems.

513 The surface transect sampling stations covered, from north to south, the PFZ, the Antarctic 514 Zone (AAZ) of the ACC and the northern end of the Weddell Gyre. The highest Si values are 515 in the Weddell Gyre and the region of strong upwelling in the AAZ of the Southern ACC (c.f. 516 Fig. 2). The peak in surface Zn concentrations also occurs here, but is sharper and centered on 517 58°S, near the boundary between the Weddell Gyre and the Antarctic Circumpolar Current. In 518 fact, as with the depth profiles, the pattern of Zn concentrations in the southern regions of the 519 surface transect most closely matches salinity. Both salinity and Zn have a sharp peak near the 520 boundary between the Weddell Gyre and the Antarctic Circumpolar Current, and more rapidly declining values north of this as far as about 53°S. Thereafter, further north, the pattern in Zn
concentrations begin to look more like that of Si.

523 δ^{66} Zn is relatively constant at +0.45‰ to +0.6‰ across the Weddell Gyre and into the 524 southern ACC as far as about 53°S (Fig. 9). The only datum that is significantly different 525 along the entire transect is at 48°S (+0.10 ‰).

526

527 **6. DISCUSSION**

528 6.1 Controls on Zn isotope systematics in surface waters

529 Overall, the Zn isotope data reported here display a total variation in δ^{66} Zn of about 0.9‰, 530 representing about 40% of the total variation yet reported for Zn isotopes on Earth (see 531 compilation in Cloquet et al., 2006). However, perhaps the most striking aspect of the 532 Southern Ocean depth profiles is their relative homogeneity. Thus, apart from one outlier, the 533 datum for the deepest sample at location PS-71-163-1 (at +0.96‰), the variation in the entire 534 dataset beneath 50m is only at about the 4 sigma level (mean and 2SD = 0.51±0.15‰). There 535 is more variation above 50m, with δ^{66} Zn values as high as +0.8 ‰ and as low as 0.07‰.

536 Zn depletion in the surface ocean is generally attributed to biological uptake, and enrichments 537 at depth as due to return of Zn to the dissolved pool from particulate material that is biologically-packaged in the photic zone (e.g. Bruland and Lohan, 2003 and Sinoir et al., 538 539 2012). If biological uptake of Zn in the surface ocean is associated with even a small isotope 540 fractionation there should be a clear impact on the isotopic composition of the small residual 541 surface pool. Though upwelling of nutrient-rich waters means that surface Zn concentrations 542 are not nearly as low in our study area as in many parts of the ocean (e.g. Bruland, 1980; 543 Lohan et al., 2002; Boyle et al., 2012), it is still the case that Zn concentrations at 5-15m are 544 up to 20 times lower than those of the deep Southern Ocean. Even if the kinetic fractionation associated with cellular uptake of Zn is as small as +0.2‰ (δ^{66} Zn_{dissolved} - δ^{66} Zn_{cell}), a residual dissolved pool of 5% should be 0.6‰ heavier than the Zn upwelled from the deep ocean, assuming Rayleigh fractionation in a closed system. The implied heavy dissolved phase δ^{66} Zn are not seen in the surface waters analysed here.

549 One obvious potential reason for the lack of an imprint on isotopic compositions of strong 550 apparent vertical Zn cycling is that biological uptake is associated with negligible isotopic 551 fractionation of Zn isotopes. Experimental data that quantifies fractionation of Zn isotopes 552 upon biological uptake are scarce. The single relevant culturing experiment performed thus 553 far (John et al., 2007) suggests that the cellular quota of Zn in an oceanic diatom is 0.2-0.8‰ lighter, depending on ambient free Zn^{2+} concentrations that are thought to drive different 554 555 uptake mechanisms, than the culture medium. This finding is consistent with a single study in 556 a Swiss lake (Peel et al., 2009), where organic-carbon-rich particulates produced during the 557 spring bloom are preferentially enriched in the light isotopes of Zn, by an amount close to the 558 upper end of the isotopic separation implied by the culture experiments.

559 It is also theoretically possible that the intense vertical cycling of Zn in the oceans is 560 dominated by an abiotic process, such as scavenging onto particulate material in surface 561 waters and release back to the dissolved phase in the deep. Such a process has been invoked 562 to explain the vertical distributions of many other trace metals (for example aluminium, 563 thorium, see Bruland and Lohan., 2003 for a review). However, none of these metals show the 564 extreme surface to depth fractionation (up to 200 times lower concentrations in the photic 565 zone than the deep) that Zn does. Moreover, adsorption onto particulate surfaces is also 566 associated with isotopic fractionations that should also lead to deviations in the residual 567 dissolved pool (e.g. Pokrovsky et al., 2005; Gélabert et al., 2006; Balistrieri et al., 2008; 568 Juillot et al., 2008).

569 Perhaps the strongest evidence for the biological cycling of Zn in the oceans is the well-570 established close correlation between its depth distribution in the oceans and that of silica 571 (Bruland et al., 1980). The generally close association of Si and Zn has led to the suggestion 572 that both are regenerated together through the dissolution of diatom opal in the deep ocean. 573 However, culture experiments have shown that Zn contents of the opal phase of diatom cells 574 are very small, and that 97-99% of the Zn in diatoms is in organic material (Ellwood and 575 Hunter, 2000). Moreover, the Zn/Si ratio of diatom opal is 1-2 orders of magnitude smaller 576 than in the deep Pacific (Bruland, 1980; Ellwood and Hunter, 2000; Lohan et al., 2002), also 577 arguing against the importance of the opal phase as the source of deep ocean Zn. One way to 578 explain the close correspondence of the deep regeneration profiles of Si and Zn, that is also 579 consistent with the lack of Zn in the opal phase, is to invoke a Zn-rich organic phase that is 580 intimately associated with the diatom frustule (c.f. Lohan et al., 2002). Thus, regenerated Zn 581 does not derive from the opal phase itself, but it is only exposed to oxidation in the deep 582 ocean when the opal dissolves. It is well established that polysaccharides and proteins coat the 583 silica frustule of diatoms, and that these bear functional groups (e.g. amino, carboxyl) that 584 have a strong affinity for metal ions, including Zn (e.g. Gélabert et al., 2006).

585 These considerations have two obvious implications for the interpretation of the dissolved 586 phase Zn concentration and isotope data presented here. Firstly, they imply that there is more 587 than one biologically-controlled pathway by which Zn is removed from the surface ocean -588 into proteins and enzymes within phytoplankton cells in all phytoplankton groups, and into an 589 organic phase that is, physically, intimately associated with the opal frustule of diatoms. 590 These two uptake mechanisms may be associated with different isotopic fractionations and 591 their relative importance will depend on local phytoplankton ecology, thus complicating 592 oceanic Zn isotopic data. Secondly, the regeneration of these two different pools, one at 593 shallower depths in association with intra-cellular organic matter, and one at greater depths coupled to opal dissolution, could lead to a partial decoupling, both between depth profiles ofZn isotopes and those of Zn (and Si) concentrations, and between the upper and deep ocean.

In the ensuing sections we discuss each of these implications, first for surface data and thenfor the sub-surface and deep ocean.

598 6.2 Controls on Zn in surface waters: relationships between Zn isotopes and Si and Zn 599 concentrations

600 The association between Zn and Si concentrations discussed in the previous section is seen in 601 the Southern Ocean data (Fig. 10a), but there is systematic structure in this relationship. 602 Moreover, Zn isotopes show no relationship at all with either Si (Fig. 10b) or Zn 603 concentrations. We suggest that the structure apparent in the surface water Zn-Si relationship 604 in Fig. 10a, as well as the lack of any coherent relationship with Zn isotopes (Fig. 10b), may 605 both be a consequence of the multiple controls discussed in the previous section. For example, 606 on the Zn-Si plot (Fig. 10a) the upper ocean data (the surface (2-5m) samples with the filled 607 symbols, all profile data from depths above 100m, but down about 300m at 104-2) clearly 608 separate into two arrays with different slopes, corresponding geographically to the Weddell 609 Gyre and the ACC (c,f a similar geographic split for Cd isotope data for these samples; 610 Abouchami et al., 2011). In most of the ACC zone, Zn-Si data for the upper water column 611 follow a tight linear correlation that comes close to going through the origin. In contrast, 612 surface data to the south of about 56°S, within the Weddell Gyre, fall on a much steeper trend. 613 There is a transition zone in the southernmost ACC (53-55°S), where Zn concentrations flatten out at 2.7-2.8 nmol kg⁻¹ while Si is variable (Fig. 10a, see also Fig. 9). Data for the 614 615 deeper levels (all data beneath about 300m) at all stations are at the high concentration end of 616 both trends. Geographically the top ends of both the surface trends, those closest in chemistry 617 to deep waters, are for surface waters in the upwelling zone centered on 58°S.

618 In terms of the ideas discussed in Section 6.1, it is noteworthy that diatoms peak in abundance 619 at 52-56°S, just north of the upwelling zone (Alderkamp et al., 2010). Their proportion of the 620 phytoplankton assemblage then decreases steadily and monotonically northward as the Si 621 supply via horizontal advection from the upwelling zone decreases. The concomitant decrease 622 in Zn along the ACC trend might suggest that Zn concentrations are subject to the same 623 control. In the portion of the Weddell Gyre for which we present surface data, diatoms also 624 decrease in relative importance southwards to be replaced by a peak in haptophytes (60% of 625 total phytoplankton at 62°S; Alderkamp et al., 2010). Though the requirement of haptophytes 626 for Zn is not clear, the lesser importance of diatoms in this region, as well as lower 627 productivity overall, could explain both the high surface Si concentrations in the WG (Fig. 9) 628 and the steep slope of the Zn/Si relationship in Figure 10a.

629 The impact of these changes in microbial ecology are hard to pinpoint at this early stage in the 630 development of oceanic Zn isotopes. But, for example, it may be that the relative lack of 631 correlation between Zn isotopes and Si concentrations (Fig. 10b) is a result of the dominance 632 of Zn removal into an organic phase, such as external polysaccharides that are ultimately 633 associated with the opal frustule, and that does not involve a strong isotopic fractionation. 634 Alternatively, any associated isotope fractionation would need to be more or less balanced by 635 uptake of Zn into the actual cell, with the preference for light isotopes that is expected for this 636 process, that has been observed in culture, and that has been inferred in lakes. It is noteworthy that Zn attached to the external surfaces of diatoms in culture experiments (John et al., 2007) 637 is either unfractionated with respect to Zn in the medium (low free Zn^{2+} concentrations) or 638 slightly enriched in heavy isotopes (high free Zn^{2+} concentrations). Note that we do not 639 640 suggest that uptake of Zn into cells does not occur – rather that it may not be the dominant 641 mode of Zn removal from these Southern Ocean surface waters. Indeed, the next section will 642 argue for the regeneration of such an intra-cellular pool to explain the shallow sub-surface 643 data.

644 6.3 Sub-surface Zn isotopic minima: the signature of regenerated intra-cellular Zn

645 The clearest and most consistent feature of the Zn isotopic data in the three depth profiles 646 (Fig. 6-8) is seen at the near surface, where data at around 50-70m are distinctly lighter than 647 the datum for the uppermost samples from the same depth profiles. Thus at PS71-163-1, the 9m analysis gives δ^{66} Zn = +0.63‰, while the analysis at 40m gives +0.27‰. At PS71-113-2 648 δ^{66} Zn at 10m is +0.80‰ while at 74m it is +0.46‰. At PS71-104-2 δ^{66} Zn = +0.46‰ at 15m 649 650 and is +0.25% at 50m. Thus there is a fairly consistent $0.31\pm0.09\%$ shift to lighter values in 651 the immediate sub-surface from the uppermost level measured. A similar shift is seen at the 652 only other relatively complete depth profile yet published. At the BATS station in the tropical 653 North Atlantic (Boyle et al. 2012), the surface datum is 0.28‰ heavier than that at 75m. Zn 654 isotope data for the upper water column in the NE Pacific (Bermin et al., 2006) show a similar 655 pattern: the datum at 75m is 0.2 per mil lighter than at the surface. At both BATS and the NE 656 Pacific there is then a more gradual move towards a heavier deep ocean value with depth. In the depth profiles presented here this sub-surface minimum in δ^{66} Zn is often quite abrupt, 657 658 which appears consistent with similarly abrupt changes in physical oceanographic parameters 659 to values that then characterize much of the deeper water column (e.g. Figure 6).

Thus, at this early stage, the shift from heavy Zn at the surface to lighter Zn in the immediate sub-surface is developing into a consistent feature of oceanic Zn isotopes. In four out of the five cases outlined above (BATS, NE Pacific, three Southern Ocean profiles), the horizon with the isotopically-light Zn also has higher Zn concentrations than the surface datum. Scavenging of Zn via adsorption onto particulate surfaces preferentially removes the heavy isotope from solution (Maréchal et al., 2000; Pokrovsky et al., 2005; Gélabert et al., 2006; Balistrieri et al., 2008; Juillot et al., 2008) and would thus leave an isotopically-light residual 667 dissolved pool. Though the situation is complicated by the fact that upwelling advects Zn into 668 the upper ocean, the increasing Zn concentrations with depth do not appear to be consistent 669 with scavenging. Moreover, a scavenging origin for the light isotopes at around 50m leaves 670 open the cause, in two of the three depth profiles investigated in the Southern Ocean (PS71-671 113-2 at +0.8‰ and PS71-163-1 at +0.67‰), of the distinctly heavy isotopic composition of 672 dissolved Zn right at the surface, heavier, for example, than any likely continental source 673 (Little et al., 2013), with nothing to date suggesting that such an input would be heavier than 674 about +0.4‰. Thus, it seems probable that the enrichment of the light isotopes at 50-75m are 675 coupled to a corresponding depletion at the surface. It is most likely then that this isotopic 676 fractionation is driven by a kinetic fractionation (John et al., 2007; Peel et al., 2009) 677 associated with uptake into a cellular pool (surface) and regeneration of that same pool in the 678 very shallow sub-surface.

679 Following the discussion in the sections 6.1 and 6.2, we stress again that uptake of Zn into the 680 cells of phytoplankton for metabolic use is likely to be only one of the processes by which Zn 681 is removed from the surface ocean. In the view presented here, a second process by which Zn 682 is associated with organic material within diatom frustules may often drive the bulk of the Zn 683 depletion in surface water, and we suggest that the lack of correlation between Zn isotopes 684 and Si concentrations (Fig. 10b) implies that this must occur with minimal isotopic 685 fractionation. Thus surface waters in the Southern Ocean do not develop the extremely heavy 686 residual Zn isotopic compositions that would be expected if the observed Zn depletion arose 687 purely from uptake into the interiors of cells with a kinetic isotopic fractionation. The crucial 688 point, however, is that the pool of Zn associated with the opal is regenerated only in the deep 689 ocean, when the opal itself dissolves. Thus, the much shallower regeneration of the light intra-690 cellular pool shows up as a distinctive feature of the water column at 50-75m, even though the 691 impact of it in the surface ocean is obscured by another process.

692 We acknowledge that this interpretation of the Zn isotopic data is speculative at present, that 693 these qualitative ideas need to be tested experimentally and with further field data, and 694 particularly with at least a one-dimensional numerical model that parameterizes the key 695 processes. Such a model would also have to take account of vertical transport of Zn by 696 advection and diffusion, which would dampen the signature of the biological processes we 697 invoke. Such a one-dimensional model is beyond the scope of the present contribution, but is 698 something that is being actively pursued. As we show in the next section, however, the idea of 699 two broad mechanisms behind the depletion of Zn in surface waters, and different 700 lengthscales for the regeneration of the two resultant pools of Zn in the near surface and deep 701 ocean, also explain some otherwise puzzling features of deep Southern Ocean zinc 702 distributions, and the emerging pattern of Zn isotopes in the deep ocean more generally.

703 6.4 The Zn isotopic composition of the deep ocean: regeneration of a distinct pool of Zn

704 As already stated, a striking feature of the Southern Ocean Zn isotope dataset is the 705 homogeneity of the deep ocean. Thus, apart from one outlying datum for the bottom sample at 706 PS71-163 (which may be affected by a sedimentary source), the 17 samples from ≥ 1000 m yield δ^{66} Zn = 0.54±0.04 (2 SE). Fig. 11 presents a summary of Zn isotopic composition data 707 708 from different parts of the world's deep oceans, from this study and from Boyle et al. (2012). 709 The datum plotted on Figure 11 for the deep Pacific is for the SAFE deep sample, one of the 710 intercalibration samples tabulated here (Table 1). Though data are admittedly still scarce, the 711 striking feature of Fig. 11 is the overall homogeneity of Zn isotopes in the deep ocean. Beneath 1000m, the δ^{66} Zn in three geographically widespread locations is essentially 712 713 identical, with an average and 2sd of $+0.53\pm0.14\%$ (2SE = 0.03, n = 21).

In common with many oceanographic parameters, it is expected that the greatest variation in
Zn isotopic compositions will be found in the upper ocean – it is here that the biogeochemical

716 processes that impart the largest isotopic fractionations are expected to occur. The deep ocean, 717 on the other hand, is where Zn that is cycled between different phases (dissolved, biological 718 and inorganic particulates) in the upper ocean is largely returned to the dissolved phase (e.g. 719 Bruland, 1980). Thus it is perhaps no surprise that the deep ocean is relatively homogeneous. 720 It is more surprising that the deep North Atlantic and the deep North Pacific exhibit no 721 difference in δ^{66} Zn (c.f. δ^{13} C, for example; Kroopnick, 1985) despite the rough factor of 4–5 722 difference in total Zn concentrations between these two water masses.

723 It is very difficult to see how the drawdown of Zn in the surface ocean via cellular uptake 724 with a kinetic isotope fractionation similar to that implied by published culturing and field 725 studies (John et al., 2007; Peel et al., 2009) would not result in a significant isotopic 726 difference between the deep Atlantic and deep Pacific. On the other hand, the homogeneity of 727 deep ocean Zn isotope compositions is perfectly explicable if: (a) intra-cellular Zn is 728 regenerated in the shallow sub-surface as suggested in the previous section; (b) the dominant 729 process by which Zn is removed from the surface ocean is not via such intra-cellular uptake 730 but rather via a process that leads to its ultimate association with the opal frustules of diatoms, 731 one which is not associated with a significant isotopic fractionation; (c) these processes are 732 fast enough that mixing cannot eliminate the isotopic gradients. Such an explanation is, as 733 noted earlier, completely consistent with the similar patterns of Si and Zn regeneration in the 734 deep ocean, while accommodating the two additional observations deriving from culturing 735 studies and the water column data presented here: that Zn in diatoms is predominantly in an 736 organic phase (Ellwood and Hunter, 2000), and that intra-cellular uptake involves a significant isotopic fractionation (John et al., 2007), one that is not consistent with the lack of 737 738 heavy Zn isotope signatures in the very Zn-depleted surface ocean.

6.5 Zn isotopic composition of the oceans and its relationship to input and output fluxes

741 In terms of the Zn isotopic cycle of the ocean as a whole, the relationship of oceanic dissolved 742 Zn isotope compositions to those of the inputs is clearly important. Thus the second feature 743 illustrated in Fig. 11 is the fact that the average deep ocean dissolved Zn isotopic composition 744 appears to be slightly heavier than the likely continental input (Little et al., 2013). Given the 745 higher Zn concentrations in the deep ocean relative to the surface, and the fact that 75% of the 746 volume of the oceans is also beneath 1000m, the deep ocean value must be very close to the 747 whole ocean average. For example, for the depth profiles in Table 2, as well as for that from 748 the North Atlantic in Boyle et al. (2012), the average of all the data, weighted by 749 concentration, is only 0.04 per mil less than the average of the data beneath 1000m, given 750 earlier as 0.53 ± 0.03 (2SE, n = 21).

751 The input flux to the oceans appears to be dominated by the dissolved riverine flux, with a 752 small but significant source from atmospheric aerosols (Little et al., 2013). A significant 753 hydrothermal input to the oceans has never been identified for Zn in depth profiles measured 754 close to ocean ridges (e.g. Bermin, 2006) in contrast to some other elements (e.g. German et 755 al., 1991 and Middag et al., 2011a for Mn; Klunder et al., 2011 for Fe). It appears that all the 756 (considerable) Zn emanating from hydrothermal systems is very quickly precipitated in 757 sulphides (German et al., 1991) near the source. The hydrothermal fluids that have been measured (John et al., 2008) have a δ^{66} Zn at +0.24‰, slightly lighter than other inputs. 758

Thus an isotopically light sink from the dissolved pool appears to be required by the fact that the dissolved pool is slightly heavier than the inputs. Light sinks from the ocean are wellknown for some other transition metals, such as Mo and Cu (e.g. Siebert et al., 2003; Barling and Anbar, 2004; Little et al., 2013) but none of these help with the Zn issue. For example, Zn isotopes in Fe-Mn crusts and nodules are universally heavier than deep seawater (Maréchal et al., 2000; Little et al. 2013), implying not only that this output does not represent the required 765 light sink, but also that if this is a significant output the requirement for a light sink is 766 increased. The single study available of oceanic carbonate (Pichat et al., 2003) suggests that 767 this small sink is also isotopically heavy. The ideas presented in earlier sections suggest that 768 the diatom opal sink of Zn probably closely reflects surface seawater itself and will also be 769 heavier than the inputs (c.f. Andersen et al., 2011), while Zn sorption to organic material 770 should also be either the same as seawater or slightly isotopically heavy (Gélabert et al. 2006; 771 John et al., 2007).

772 The only important removal pathway from the dissolved pool in the oceans that is likely to be 773 isotopically light is the pool of Zn that is taken up intra-cellularly by phytoplankton. As noted 774 in previous sections, a single culturing study (John et al., 2007) has demonstrated that diatoms 775 take up the light isotopes of Zn such that $\Delta_{\text{seawater-diatom cell}} = +0.2$ to +0.8, with the fractionation varying systematically with the free Zn^{2+} concentration of the medium. A study 776 of a Swiss lake (Peel et al. 2009) has demonstrated that sinking particulates associated with 777 the summer algal bloom have a δ^{66} Zn 0.8‰ lighter than the water column. Moreover, 778 779 Andersen et al. (2011) invoked the same uptake of light Zn isotopes into phytoplankton 780 organic material to explain the progressively heavier isotopic signature of diatom opal, which 781 these authors interpreted to be recording surface seawater, as upwelled Zn is progressively 782 depleted in the surface waters of the Pacific Sub-Antarctic zone of the Southern Ocean. We 783 have suggested earlier that it is regeneration of this pool that yields the light Zn isotopic 784 composition of the shallow sub-surface in the Southern Ocean and elsewhere.

785 It thus seems likely that the portion of the isotopically light cellular Zn that survives 786 regeneration and is buried in sediments could represent the sink that seems to be required by 787 the oceanic Zn cycle as we understand it thus far. Zn isotopic analysis of organic-rich 788 sediments may provide a means of testing this suggestion. Though fraught with uncertainty, a

789 simple calculation can provide a preliminary assessment of its feasibility. Little et al. (2013) suggest that the magnitude of a missing light sink must be around $3\pm 2x10^8$ mol yr⁻¹, 790 791 depending on its isotopic composition. Data on the Zn/C ratio of marine phytoplankton are 792 scarce but those in Ho et al. (2003) for a variety of cultured organisms suggest that it is of the order of 0.6x10⁻⁶ mol/mol. Field data for plankton tows in the same paper show Zn/P ratios up 793 794 to 5 times greater than the cultured organisms. These data would imply a carbon burial rate to achieve the required Zn sink of 0.3-8x10¹³ mol yr⁻¹. Unfortunately large uncertainties on this 795 796 estimate derive from the input parameters, but the range does span published estimates of carbon burial rates at $1-2\times10^{13}$ mol yr⁻¹ (e.g. Hedges and Keil., 1995). 797

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799 7. CONCLUDING REMARKS

800 We have reported the first full depth profiles for dissolved Zn isotopes in the ocean, as well as 801 data for a surface transect along the zero meridian in the Atlantic sector of the Southern 802 Ocean. The new isotopic data, taken together with data for the deep North Pacific and 803 published data for the North Atlantic, exhibit three principal features. The first is the 804 homogeneity of the deep ocean, such that the data presented here for beneath 1000m, in combination with more limited data from the North Pacific and North Atlantic, have a δ^{66} Zn = 805 $+0.53\pm0.14\%$ (2SE = 0.03, n = 21). Secondly, and though there are both heavy and light 806 isotopic values in the surface Southern Ocean, there is no systematic shift towards heavy 807 808 isotopic compositions as would be expected (John et al., 2007; Peel et al., 2009) if the well-809 established Zn drawdown in the surface ocean is achieved dominantly through intra-cellular 810 uptake of Zn. Thirdly, surface values are always heavier than data for the shallow sub-surface 811 (40-80m), both in the dataset presented here and in two published partial depth profiles from 812 the North Atlantic and North Pacific (Bermin et al., 2006; Boyle et al., 2012).

These new Zn isotope data are consistent with a scenario whereby Zn removal from the 813 814 surface ocean occurs via two processes, a dominant one that does not involve an isotopic 815 fractionation and a lesser one that preferentially removes the light isotope. We suggest that the 816 dominant process is the incorporation of Zn into organic matter associated with diatom 817 frustules, while the second is the metabolic uptake of Zn into the cells of all phytoplankton. 818 Such a hypothesis is consistent with the data presented here, as well as some key observations 819 that have been made about the oceanic Zn cycle in previous work. Firstly, dissolved Zn 820 concentrations in this study and elsewhere are closely tied to Si, but structure in the 821 correlations for surface water (Fig. 10a) suggests a dependence on microbial ecology, in 822 particular the dominance or not of opal-building organisms in the phytoplankton assemblage. 823 The well-established observation of strong Si-Zn concentration correlations is coupled to the 824 fact that there is no systematic relationship at all between Si and Zn isotopes (Fig. 10b), 825 implying that the removal of Zn coupled to Si removal involves little or no isotopic 826 fractionation. On the other hand, increases in Zn concentration with depth down to 80m are 827 associated with distinctly lighter isotopic compositions than the rest of the water column, 828 including the overlying photic zone. We suggest that this is the signature of the regeneration 829 of intra-cellular zinc, while the main increase in Zn concentrations in the deep ocean, closely 830 tied to Si, is the result of the regeneration of organic material intimately associated with 831 diatom frustules, that is only re-mobilised when the opal itself dissolves (c.f. Lohan et al., 832 2002).

The scenario outlined above is consistent with what we know about the interactions between Zn and its isotopes, Si and biology from experiments and field studies. For example, culture studies have demonstrated that the Zn content in the opal phase of frustules is very small (Ellwood and Hunter, 2000), about 1-3% of the total Zn in diatoms with the rest associated with one or more organic phases. In addition, the Zn/Si ratio of the deep ocean is 1-2 orders of

838 magnitude greater than in diatom opal (e.g. Bruland, 1980; Lohan et al., 2002). Both of these 839 constraints have rendered the close association between Si and Zn concentrations in the deep 840 ocean a real conundrum. A solution to this puzzle is provided by the fact that polysaccharides 841 and proteins coat the silica frustule of diatoms, and that these bear functional groups (e.g. 842 amino, carboxyl) that have a strong affinity for metal ions, including Zn (e.g. Gélabert et al., 843 2006). Culture experiments have also shown that the Zn associated with these organic 844 substances (Gélabert et al., 2006) is isotopically identical to Zn in the culture medium at free Zn^{2+} concentrations equivalent to those found in the surface ocean (John et al., 2007). In our 845 846 proposed scenario, it is this Zn that is regenerated with Si, but only when the opal frustule 847 itself dissolves, in the deep ocean. The fact that the uptake of this pool of Zn involves little 848 isotope fractionation explains the lack of a relationship between Si concentrations and Zn 849 isotopes in the portion of the Southern Ocean studied here, where diatoms are an important 850 part of the phytoplankton population. The relative dominance of this process would also 851 explain the fact that the deep Atlantic, the deep Southern Ocean and the deep Pacific are 852 isotopically identical for Zn (Boyle et al., 2012; this study). On the other hand, both culture 853 experiments and field data demonstrate that uptake of Zn into the interiors of cells for 854 metabolic purposes shows the expected preference for the light isotopes (John et al., 2007; Peel et al., 2009). We further suggest, therefore, that this represents a different process, a pool 855 856 that is regenerated at much shallower levels, and one that explains the light isotopic signature 857 seen at 40-80m in the Southern Ocean, the North Atlantic and the NE Pacific.

Clearly these qualitative ideas, though for the first time yielding a wholly consistent picture of the oceanic Zn cycle, need to be tested. They imply, in particular, a decoupling of the shallow and deep ocean for Zn, with the isotopic characteristics of the two being determined by different processes. A quantitative 1D model is required to ascertain, for example, whether the light signal in the shallow sub-surface can be maintained against upward advection of deep waters in the Southern Ocean. A prediction of these ideas would be that the vertical
component of the oceanic cycle of Zn and its isotopes would differ in regions where diatoms
dominate, as opposed to where non-silica-building organisms are the main contributors to the
phytoplankton assemblage.

867 In addition, we have addressed the mass balance of the whole ocean, using the data in this 868 paper, published data for Zn isotopes in other parts of the ocean, and data on the inputs and 869 outputs (Little et al., 2013). The large and homogeneous deep ocean Zn reservoir is about 0.2 870 ‰ heavier than our current best estimate of the inputs of Zn to the ocean, so that an 871 isotopically light sink is required for the whole ocean isotopic mass balance. The sinks that 872 have been characterised, in contrast, are all heavier than the inputs. We advance the working 873 hypothesis that it is the burial of isotopically light Zn in cellular organic matter that represents 874 the light sink from the oceanic dissolved pool. This idea can also be tested through the isotopic analysis of organic-rich sediments. 875

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- 1063

Sample ID	Depth	[Zn]	δ^{66} Zn	2 sigma	Total Zn from ID	Yield
	(m)	(nmol/kg)	(‰)		(ng)	(%)
SAFe D2 ^a	1000	7.66	0.52	0.03	103	91
SAFe D1	1000	7.68	0.56	0.03	85	91
SAFe D2	1000	7.40	0.52	0.03	76	96
SAFe D2	1000	7.38	0.50	0.04	74	95
SAFe S ^b	Surface	0.051			17	85
SAFe S	Surface	0.052			17	91
SAFe S	Surface	0.050			17	59
SAFe S	Surface	0.049			16	60
GSC32 ^c	Surface	1.35	0.08	0.04	48	99
GSC303 ^c	Surface	1.37	0.18	0.06	47	97
050505	Surface	1.57	0.10	0.00	17	71

1064 Table 1: Zn isotopic and concentration analyses of intercalibration samples obtained from the1065 Bruland laboratory at Santa Cruz.

^a SAFe deep samples (central North Pacific) obtained from Geoffrey Smith (University of California, Santa Cruz). Each line on the table is for a separate analysis from two different bottles (D1 or D2).

^b SAFe surface samples (central North Pacific) obtained from Geoffrey Smith (University of California, Santa Cruz). Each line is for a separate analysis from four different 4 litre bottles. These analyses were done at a stage when we had not developed the methodology fully for small samples and isotopic data were not obtained.

^c Samples from the Santa Barbara Basin (eastern North Pacific) obtained from Geoffrey Smith (University of California, Santa Cruz). Each line is a separate analysis of different 1 litre bottles.

IPY ID	Depth	[Zn]	δ^{66} Zn	2 sigma ¹	Total Zn^2 in	Yield	[Si] ³
	(m)	(nmol/kg)	(‰)		analysis (ng)	(%)	(µmol/kg)
Station PS71-10	4-2 (47°39.3	36'S, 4°15.7'E)					
PS71-104-2-24	15	0.32	0.47	0.07	51	72	1.86
PS71-104-2-22	50	0.62	0.25	0.05	86	80	1.86
PS71-104-2-20	101	0.71	0.43	0.05	103	77	5.66
PS71-104-2-18	202	1.03	0.41	0.04	129	74	10.2
PS71-104-2-16	301	2.10	0.47	0.04	68	95	20.4
PS71-104-2-14	399	2.45	0.44	0.05	79	99	28.1
PS71-104-2-11	998	5.35	0.44	0.06	79	99	65.1
PS71-104-2-9	1500	5.33	0.43	0.05	78	105	68.7
PS71-104-2-8	1748	4.88	0.48	0.05	53	98	70.7
PS71-104-2-7	1997	4.88	0.50	0.07	49	101	72.0
PS71-104-2-6	2499	5.83	0.51	0.05	54	97	89.1
PS71-104-2-5	3002	6.16	0.60	0.06	56	96	101
PS71-104-2-3	4006	8.04	0.61	0.05	83	99	118
PS71-104-2-2	4202	7.03	0.54	0.06	70	92	119
Station PS71-11	3-2 (52°59.8	828'S. 0.2°0.05'	W)				
PS71-113-2-24	10	3.06	0.80	0.06	83	92	35.4
PS71-113-2-22	74	2.59	0.47	0.03	72	111	35.6
PS71-113-2-19	101	2.69	0.54	0.04	76	108	35.8
PS71-113-2-14	298	6.25	0.39	0.03	68	95	83.5
PS71-113-2-12	401	6.56	0.48	0.04	51	93	87.8
PS71-113-2-10	500	6.27	0.40	0.04	51	95	90.8
PS71-113-2-7	1000	6.30	0.70	0.05	49	95	103
PS71-113-2-5	1501	7.07	0.58	0.04	55	92	115
PS71-113-2-3	1997	6.82	0.50	0.03	52	93	123
PS71-113-2-1	2351	6.84	0.43	0.06	49	93	128
Station PS71-16	3-1 (67°S, 0	°E)					
PS71-163-1-24	9	2.57	0.67	0.04	34	94	62.6
PS71-163-1-22	45	4.42	0.27	0.05	203	86	64.8
PS71-163-1-20	74	7.03	0.53	0.03	99	89	89.8
PS71-163-1-18	171	7.08	0.49	0.03	98	85	95.6
PS71-163-1-16	250	7.18	0.44	0.03	99	86	98.6
PS71-163-1-14	401	7.14	0.57	0.03	98	92	104
PS71-163-1-13	748	7.56	0.53	0.03	99	91	113
PS71-163-1-11	1001	7.73	0.64	0.03	91	88	118
PS71-163-1-9	1501	7.79	0.55	0.03	90	90	123
PS71-163-1-7	2000	7.62	0.59	0.03	104	78	124
PS71-163-1-5	3000	7.60	0.55	0.02	104	86	123
PS71-163-1-3	4002	7.30	0.53	0.02	98	86	124

Table 2: Zn concentration (nmol/kg) and δ^{66} Zn for three vertical profiles in the Atlantic sector of the Southern Ocean.

 $\frac{124}{1 \text{ PS71-163-1-1}} \frac{4601}{4601} \frac{7.35}{7.35} \frac{0.96}{0.04} \frac{0.04}{78} \frac{92}{92} \frac{129}{129}$ $\frac{1}{1 \text{ Internal uncertainty, with all measurement uncertainties propagated through the double spike reduction procedure. Long-term standard reproducibility is greater at 0.08‰ (see text).$ $\frac{2}{2} \text{ Total Zn analyses as obtained from the isotope dilution analysis. Total procedural blanks were 2-3 ng and the reported concentrations (in nmol/kg) are corrected for this blank.$ $\frac{2}{2} \text{ Si data here and in Table 3 from Middag et al. (2011a).}$

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IPY ID	Longitude (°F)	Latitude (°S)	[Zn]	δ^{66} Zn	2 sigma ¹	Total Zn^2	Yield	[Si] (umol/kg)	
	(1)	(5)	(innoi/kg)	(700)		(115)	(70)	(µmoi/kg)	
PS71-105	3.82	48.04	0.63	0.14	0.06	88	75	1.89	
PS71-105	3.82	48.04	0.65	0.07	0.04	42	99		
PS71-105	3.82	48.04	0.65	0.11	0.03	41	98		
PS71-109	0.00	51.67	1.27	0.60	0.04	85	90	15.7	
PS71-111³	-0.54	52.17	6.44	0.48	0.05	219	93	23.3	
PS71-111	-0.54	52.17	6.55	0.46	0.04	86	101		
PS71-111	-0.54	52.17	6.53	0.42	0.03	106	97		
PS71-111	-0.54	52.17	6.32	0.49	0.03	82	90		
PS71-111	-0.54	52.17	6.55	0.45	0.04	88	89		
PS71-114	0.00	53.18	2.69	0.45	0.04	90	95	34.3	
PS71-117	0.02	54.32	2.76	0.58	0.04	96	92	44.3	
PS71-120	0.00	55.24	2.81	0.58	0.03	95	98	50.3	
PS71-123	0.00	56.30	3.25	0.50	0.03	88	106	63.8	
PS71-126	0.00	57.21	3.47	0.51	0.04	96	93	64.8	
PS71-129	0.00	58.20	3.69	0.50	0.04	102	96	67.1	
PS71-133	0.00	59.00	3.02	0.45	0.03	84	102	62.7	
PS71-136	0.00	60.24	2.72	0.52	0.04	76	105	62.1	
PS71-139	0.00	61.15	2.26	0.50	0.04	62	101	57.6	

1082 **Table 3**: Zn concentration (nmol/kg) and δ^{66} Zn for 11 surface (2-5m depth) transect stations 1083 in the Atlantic sector of the Southern Ocean.

1085 ¹ Internal uncertainty, with all measurement uncertainties propagated through the double spike reduction 1086 procedure. Long-term standard reproducibility is greater at 0.08‰ (see text).

1087 ² Total Zn analyses as obtained from the isotope dilution analysis. Total procedural blanks were 2-3 ng and the reported concentrations (in nmol/kg) are corrected for this blank.

³ Zn concentrations for sample PS111 reproduce across duplicate analyses of separate aliquots from the same 20 litre MPI container, but the data are highly anomalous. We suspect that the original 20 litre MPI bottle must have been contaminated before or during original sampling, and these data are not considered further.

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1095 Figure Captions

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1097 Fig. 1: A portion of the IPY ANT-XXIV/3 cruise track with sampling stations, positions of 1098 the Antarctic fronts and oceanographic regimes (see Orsi et al., 1995). AAZ = Antarctic Zone, 1099 PFZ = Polar Frontal Zone, SAZ = Subantarctic Zone, WG = Weddell Gyre, ACC = Antarctic 1100 Circumpolar Current, STF = Subtropical Front, SAF = Subantarctic Front, APF = Antarctic Polar Front, SB-ACC = Southern Boundary of ACC. Grey arrows and associated labels show 1101 1102 schematic surface flow directions. The Bristol lab received 3 depth profiles (see red boxes) 1103 and a subset of large surface samples (all surface samples collected are indicated by filled 1104 black circles). Asterisks mark stations sampled with ultraclean Titan frame (de Baar et al., 1105 2008), which includes all three depth profiles analysed here for Zn.

Fig. 2: N-S vertical section for dissolved silicate (μmol/kg) along the Greenwich Zero
Meridian. The line at the top shows the major fronts (green) and oceanic regimes (black)
discussed in the text. Abbreviations are as in Figure 1. The depth profiles studied for Zn
isotopes and concentrations are marked in white. Silicate data plotted using the ODV software
(Schlitzer, 2002).

Fig. 3: Isotopic data for pre-co-precipitated seawater supernatant samples and MQ samples to which Zn JMC standard has been added. "Seawater 30 ng", "Seawater 200 ng" represent the supernatant samples to which 30 ng and 200 ng standard Zn were added respectively. The result obtained for the supernatant samples was δ^{66} Zn = +0.08 ± 0.03‰ (n=12). The slightly elevated δ^{66} Zn suggests that a small amount of Zn was left in these samples after coprecipitation. The result for MQ samples was δ^{66} Zn = -0.01 ± 0.02‰ (n=8), all falling within the error of the expected 0‰, demonstrating the robustness of the double spike approach.

1118 Fig. 4: Plot of measured Zn isotopic data for 4L surface Equatorial Atlantic samples to which1119 various amounts of JMC standard and double spike have been added, versus the reciprocal Zn

amounts. In this case the original sample Zn was not removed, previous isotope dilution
analysis having indicated that sample Zn concentrations were very small, at 0.01-0.04 nmol
kg⁻¹.

Fig. 5: Plot of measured Zn concentration data for Station PS71-113-2 (red squares) compared with data for the same location in Croot et al. (2011) (green triangles) and with data for a composite of nearby stations (895, 897, 947, 949) published in Löscher (1999). The latter data are plotted as blue diamonds, with obvious outliers in this older dataset highlighted by the open symbols. Beneath 1000m the data obtained here are in very good agreement with Löscher (1999) while the data of Croot et al. (2011) are displaced towards lower values.

Fig. 6: Depth profiles of potential temperature (°C), salinity, oxygen concentration (μmol/kg),
silicon (μmol/kg), dissolved Zn concentration (nmol/kg), Zn isotopic composition (‰) of
samples collected at station PS71-163-1 (67°S, 0°E). Salinities are reported on the Practical
Salinity Scale (PSS78). Water mass abbreviations: AASW = Antarctic Surface Water; CIW =
Central Intermediate Water; WSDW = Weddell Sea Deep Water; WSBW = Weddell Sea
Bottom Water.

Fig. 7: Depth profiles of potential temperature (°C), salinity, oxygen concentration (μmol/kg),
silicon (μmol/kg), dissolved Zn concentration (nmol/kg), Zn isotopic composition (‰) of
samples collected at station PS71-113-2 (52°59.828'S, 0.2°0.05'W). Water mass
abbreviations as in Figure 6 plus: AAIW = Antarctic Intermediate Water; UCDW = Upper
Circumpolar Deep Water; LCDW = Lower Circumpolar Deep Water; WSBW = Weddell Sea
Bottom Water.

Fig. 8: Depth profiles of potential temperature (°C), salinity, oxygen concentration (μmol/kg),
silicon (μmol/kg), dissolved Zn concentration (nmol/kg), Zn isotopic composition (‰) of

samples collected at station PS71-104-2 (47°39.36'S, 4°15.7'E). Water mass abbreviations as
in Figure 6,7 plus: NADW = North Atlantic Deep Water.

Fig. 9: Plots of measured salinity, Si concentration (μ mol/kg), dissolved Zn concentration (nmol/kg), Zn isotopic composition δ^{66} Zn (‰) of surface transect samples (filled diamonds) and near surface samples (open diamonds) collected at vertical profiles PS71-104-2, PS71-1148 113-2, PS71-163-1 against latitude. Abbreviations for surface oceanographic regimes as in Fig. 1.

Fig. 10: Cross-plots of Si concentrations versus (a) the new Zn concentration and (b) isotopic data. Data from the ACC (north of 56°S) are plotted as red squares and data from the Weddell Gyre (WG, south of 56°S) as blue circles. Solid symbols are for surface samples (collected at 2-5m and presented in Table 3), and open symbols for sub-surface (from depths \geq 10m, as presented in Table 2) and deep samples.

1155 Fig. 11: A summary of Zn isotopic data thus far available for different parts of the world's 1156 deep oceans (≤ 1000 m), compared to estimates of the likely inputs to the ocean (Little et al., 2013). The solid vertical line shows the δ^{66} Zn of rivers, the dashed line that for Atlantic 1157 1158 aerosols, and the dot-dash line that for silicate rocks and sediments of the continental crust (all 1159 compiled in Little et al., 2013). Blue filled diamonds represent the deep North Atlantic 1160 (BATS; Boyle et al. 2012), red filled squares the deep North Pacific (SAFe; this study), and 1161 green filled triangles the deep Southern Ocean (Atlantic sector, this study, arranged by depth 1162 (green arrow), and omitting the bottom-most sample from Station PS71-163). Data plotted for 1163 Southern Ocean samples are single analyses and their associated analytical uncertainties (±0.08‰). Data for the Atlantic and Pacific are averages and 2SEs of multiple analyses of the 1164 1165 same sample. The shaded green band shows 2SE either side of the mean for all the deep ocean 1166 data.























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PS71-104-2









