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Isotopic Constraints on Biogeochemical Cycling of Copper in the Ocean

12	Trace elements and their isotopes are being actively studied as powerful
13	tracers in the modern ocean and as proxies for the palaeocean. Although
14	distributions and fractionations have been reported for stable isotopes of dissolved
15	Fe, Cu, Zn, and Cd in the ocean, the data remain limited and only preliminary
16	explanations have been given. Copper is of great interest because it is either
17	essential or toxic to organisms and because its distribution reflects both biological
18	recycling and scavenging. Here, we present new data of isotopic compositions of
19	dissolved Cu ( $\delta^{65}$ Cu) in seawater and rainwater. The Cu isotopic composition in
20	surface seawater is explained by the mixing of rain, river, and deep water. In deep
21	seawater, $\delta^{65}$ Cu becomes heavier along oceanic circulation because of preferential
22	scavenging of the lighter isotope ( <sup>63</sup> Cu). Additionally, we constrain the marine
23	biogeochemical cycling of Cu using a new box model based on Cu concentration
24	and δ <sup>65</sup> Cu.

Copper plays an important role as a micronutrient for organisms in the ocean, but high concentrations of the free  $Cu^{2+}$  ion are toxic<sup>1</sup>. Dissolved Cu has concentrations of 0.5–6 nmol kg<sup>-1</sup> in seawater and mostly complexes with organic ligands, which results in very low concentrations (fmol kg<sup>-1</sup> to pmol kg<sup>-1</sup>) of the free  $Cu^{2+}$  ion<sup>2</sup>.

Vertical distributions of dissolved Cu are of the nutrient-scavenging hybrid type<sup>3</sup>. 30 Generally, the concentrations of nutrient-type trace metals (e.g., Zn, Ni, and Cd) are low 31in the surface layer of the ocean because of biological uptake. However, the 32concentrations increase with depth, showing a mid-depth maximum because of 33remineralisation from settling particles. By contrast, the concentration of dissolved Cu 34gradually increases with depth towards the bottom. Such distributions have been 35interpreted to be caused by a combination of scavenging throughout the water column 36 and a supply from the uppermost layer of benthic sediments, where scavenged Cu is 37recycled to overlying seawater via early diagenesis<sup>4, 5</sup>. Copper has two stable isotopes, 38 $^{63}$ Cu and  $^{65}$ Cu, and its isotopic composition is reported as  $\delta^{65}$ Cu(‰) = 39 $[({}^{65}Cu/{}^{63}Cu)_{sample}/({}^{65}Cu/{}^{63}Cu)_{NIST SRM 976}-1]\times 10^3$ . To date, only a few vertical profiles of 40 dissolved  $\delta^{65}$ Cu in the ocean have been reported<sup>6, 7, 8, 9</sup>. The reported  $\delta^{65}$ Cu values 41 (0.44-1.44%) were substantially heavier than typical values for the solid Earth (~0%)<sup>10</sup>, 42<sup>11</sup>. However, as there were relatively large uncertainties in the reported data, it has been 43difficult to elucidate intra-ocean distributions. This is partly due to analytical difficulties 44in the determination of  $\delta^{65}$ Cu caused by the interference of matrices and the 4546inapplicability of the so-called double-spike technique.



Recently, we developed a simple and precise analytical method for  $\delta^{65}$ Cu based

on a chelating resin extraction technique<sup>12</sup>. Here, we use this method to present new 48data of isotopic compositions of dissolved Cu ( $\delta^{65}$ Cu) in seawater from the North/South 49Atlantic, South Indian, and North Pacific. We also present new data of rainwater 50samples collected from urban and rural regions. Using these data, the Cu isotopic 51composition in surface seawater is explained in an oceanographic context. In deep 52seawater,  $\delta^{65}$ Cu values show a liner correlation with apparent oxygen utilisation (AOU), 53which suggests  $\delta^{65}$ Cu becomes heavier along oceanic circulation because of preferential 54scavenging of the lighter isotope (i.e., <sup>63</sup>Cu). These are the first data showing that the 55stable isotopic composition of trace metals changes systematically with the age of deep 56water. Additionally, we propose a new box model for Cu in the ocean based on the 57combination of Cu concentration and  $\delta^{65}$ Cu, which successfully constrains the marine 58biological cycling of Cu. 59

60

# 61 **Results**

#### 62 Seawater analyses

63 The observed oceanic stations are shown in Fig. 1. All seawater data are 64 summarised in Supplementary Table 1. The vertical profiles of dissolved Cu 65 concentration and  $\delta^{65}$ Cu for each station are presented in Supplementary Fig. 1, and

66	representative profiles are shown in Fig. 2. The Cu concentrations were in the range of
67	0.6–4.6 nmol kg <sup><math>-1</math></sup> , and the profile at station ER10 agreed well with that determined in
68	separate samples collected at the same station in our previous research (Supplementary
69	Fig. 2) <sup>14</sup> . The $\delta^{65}$ Cu values ranged from +0.41‰ to +0.85‰, which were smaller than
70	values determined by a Mg(OH) <sub>2</sub> co-precipitation technique $(+0.50-1.44\%)^{7,8}$ at other
71	stations and similar to values determined by a solvent extraction technique
72	(+0.44–0.78‰) <sup>6,9</sup> at other stations (Supplementary Fig. 3). The vertical samples from
73	BATS have been analysed using a solvent extraction technique by Thompson et al. <sup>9</sup> . The
74	reported $\delta^{65}$ Cu value (0.56±0.09‰) for a 2000 m depth sample was higher than our
75	value (0.41±0.05‰). Unfortunately, we are not able to investigate the causes because
76	the BATS samples have been exhausted. Recently, we performed intercalibration of
77	$\delta^{65}$ Cu with a group from ETH, Zurich (see Acknowledgements section for details) using
78	seawater collected at a station near the Japan Trench, of which the details are described
79	in Supplementary Methods. The ETH group used a new method based on $Al(OH)_3$
80	co-precipitation <sup>15</sup> , which gave results consistent to ours (Supplementary Fig. 4).
81	The vertical profiles of $\delta^{65}$ Cu in this work showed a common feature: $\delta^{65}$ Cu
82	was ~0.5‰ in the surface layer and became heavier at depth. Station BD21 above the

<sup>83</sup> Juan de Fuca Ridge had a minimum Cu concentration at a depth of 2300 m, reflecting

84 the effect of a hydrothermal plume<sup>16</sup>. There were, however, no significant variations in 85  $\delta^{65}$ Cu.

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#### 87 Rainwater analyses

We also determined  $\delta^{65}$ Cu in rainwater for the first time (Table 1). Rainwater 88 was sampled from rural and urban regions in Japan. The dissolved  $\delta^{65}$ Cu values were in 89 the narrow range of -0.12-+0.03‰ and did not show significant differences depending 90 on location and time, whereas the Cu concentrations varied largely (1.1-23.5 nmol 91kg<sup>-1</sup>), which may reflect various contributions of anthropogenic input. It has been 92reported that  $\delta^{65}$ Cu values were ~0 ‰ for leachable fractions of marine aerosols<sup>11</sup> and 93 bulk loess<sup>17</sup>. Rainwater would scavenge both atmospheric dusts and anthropogenic 94aerosols during precipitation. Therefore, it seems reasonable to presume the  $\delta^{65}$ Cu value 95for atmospheric input to be zero. 96

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## 98 **Copper isotopes in surface seawater**

In Fig. 3, the  $\delta^{65}$ Cu in surface seawater is plotted against the reciprocal Cu concentration together with the ranges and averages of deep seawater, rural rainwater, and river water<sup>8</sup>. Assuming that average surface seawater is a mixture of average rural

rainwater, average river water, and average deep seawater, the plot would be located in 102the magenta triangle. Evaporation that is another important factor to control salinity; it 103 would increase the Cu concentration but not change the  $\delta^{65}$ Cu. However, the surface 104 105water data are shifted to the right of the triangles, indicating there must be other processes that decrease the dissolved Cu concentration (up to one tenths) while keeping 106 the  $\delta^{65}$ Cu values constant. The most likely process is phytoplankton uptake and 107 108 adsorption of Cu onto the phytoplankton surface. It is well known that these processes 109 produce biogenic sinking particles in the surface layer and they transport trace metals to 110 the deep layer. Our data suggest that uptake and adsorption by phytoplankton in the 111 open ocean does not cause significant fractionation of Cu isotopes. To clarify mechanisms controlling the Cu concentration and  $\delta^{65}$ Cu, it is informative to compare 112Cu and Cd in the ocean. For vertical profiles of dissolved Cd, the isotopic ratio ( $\epsilon^{114}$ Cd) 113 correspondingly increases with a decrease in the concentration in the surface layer and 114 115decreases with an increase in the concentration from the surface to the intermediate layer, because biological uptake causes isotopic fractionation of Cd<sup>18, 19, 20</sup>. Therefore, 116 the profile of  $\epsilon^{114}$ Cd from the surface to the intermediate layer becomes a mirror image 117of the concentration, and  $\varepsilon^{114}$ Cd linearly correlates with the logarithm concentration in 118 the surface layer because of Rayleigh fractionation during biological uptake<sup>18, 19, 20, 21</sup>. 119

120	However, $\delta^{05}$ Cu does not change uniformly with respect to the Cu concentration from
121	the surface to the intermediate layer (Fig. 2 and Supplementary Fig. 1), and does not
122	correlate with the logarithmic concentration in the surface layer (Supplementary Fig. 5).
123	These facts also indicate biological processes cause insignificant fractionation of the Cu
124	isotopes.

## 126 **Copper isotopes in deep seawater**

Given that uptake and adsorption of Cu by phytoplankton does not cause 127fractionation of Cu isotopes, biogenic sinking particles would have the same  $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ 128value as surface seawater. Copper regenerated through decomposition of the biogenic 129sinking particles should produce  $\delta^{65}$ Cu values in deep seawater, which are the same as 130 those in surface seawater under this assumption. However, observed  $\delta^{65}$ Cu in deep 131seawater is heavier than that in surface seawater. In addition, the profiles of  $\delta^{65}$ Cu are 132similar to those of apparent oxygen utilisation (AOU; Fig. 2 and Supplementary Fig. 1). 133All  $\delta^{65}$ Cu values are plotted against AOU, revealing a positive correlation ( $R^2 = 0.60$ , n 134= 77; Fig. 4a). In the layer deeper than 2000 m,  $\delta^{65}$ Cu vs. AOU shows a stronger 135correlation ( $R^2 = 0.70$ , n = 25; Fig. 4b). Because AOU is a measure of the age of deep 136water, these data imply that  $\delta^{65}$ Cu increases through deep water circulation. When the 137

138 Cu concentration is plotted against AOU, there is also a weak correlation ( $R^2 = 0.31$ , n =139 77, Fig. 5).

In the case of Cd, the dissolved concentration is very low (~0.001 nmol kg<sup>-1</sup>) in 140 the surface layer because of biological uptake, and it is high in the deep layer (~1 nmol 141  $kg^{-1}$ ) because of remineralisation from biogenic particles; it also increases along the 142global deep circulation<sup>3</sup>. Because there is a significant correlation between Cd and 143phosphate, the distribution of Cd is dominated by biogeochemical recycling. The 144isotopic composition of Cd is heavier in surface seawater ( $\epsilon^{114/110}$ Cd = 10–40 with 145respect to a JMC Cd Münster solution) than in deep seawater ( $\epsilon^{114/110}$ Cd = ~3) that is 146 almost uniform in the world ocean<sup>18, 19, 20</sup>. Biological uptake depletes the Cd 147concentration and preferentially leaves isotopically heavy Cd in surface seawater. It is 148 suggested that Cd in a replenished surface seawater reservoir is originally characterised 149by  $\epsilon^{114/110}$ Cd = ~3 and that this Cd is almost quantitatively transported by biogenic 150sinking particles from the surface to depth and remineralised in deep water; thus, the Cd 151isotopic composition of deep water is homogeneous, whereas the Cd concentration 152increases along with deep water circulation. 153

154 The  $\delta^{65}$ Cu in deep seawater appears to be controlled by a ubiquitous effect 155 throughout the water column and deep water pathway because  $\delta^{65}$ Cu correlates with

AOU. Copper is more strongly scavenged than other recycled-type trace metals such as 156 $Cd^{3, 5}$ . The scavenging is likely the reason that  $\delta^{65}Cu$  is heavy in the deep layer and 157becomes heavier with the age of deep seawater. If this is true, <sup>63</sup>Cu would be 158preferentially adsorbed to sinking particles and preserved in sinks. The low linearity of 159Cu concentration against AOU (Fig. 5) would be due to the combination of scavenging 160 throughout the water column and supply from sediments through decomposition of the 161 162organic fraction of sinking particles. The Cu released from sediments most likely has a  $\delta^{65}$ Cu value similar to that in seawater near the bottom, resulting in the linearity of 163 $\delta^{65}$ Cu vs. AOU. 164

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## 166 **Box model for Cu in the modern ocean**

We present a new box model for Cu based on both concentration and isotopic composition (Fig. 6 and Supplementary Table 2). This model assumes a steady-state for the modern ocean. In this model, the global ocean is divided simply into a euphotic layer and a deep layer at a depth of 100 m. A thin layer on the sediment surface is considered as the box of the 'scavenged layer', where organic matter is decomposed during early diagenesis<sup>22</sup>. In Fig. 6, the black figures are observed or previously published values, as described below. Magenta figures are values calculated using the 174 following equations<sup>11</sup>, which assumes a steady-state for each box:

175 
$$\Sigma F_{in} = \Sigma F_{out}$$

177

176 
$$\Sigma F_{in} \delta_{in} = \Sigma F_{out} \delta_{out}$$

where  $F_{in}$  and  $F_{out}$  represent an input and output flux for the box, and  $\delta_{in}$  and  $\delta_{out}$ 178represent  $\delta^{65}$ Cu values of F<sub>in</sub> and F<sub>out</sub>, respectively. Based on this work, the 179depth-weighted averages of Cu concentration and  $\delta^{65}$ Cu are 1.1 nmol kg<sup>-1</sup> and 0.49‰ in 180 surface seawater and 2.5 nmol  $kg^{-1}$  and 0.60% in deep seawater, respectively. The 181 water mixing rate between the upper box and lower box is assumed to be  $1.2 \times 10^{15}$  m<sup>3</sup> 182year<sup>-1</sup>, which has been determined from <sup>14</sup>C data<sup>23</sup>. We assumed that the main inputs of 183 184 dissolved Cu to the ocean are riverine and atmospheric inputs. The reported riverine input of dissolved Cu to the ocean among four studies<sup>4, 8, 24, 25</sup> was in the range of 185 $6-9\times10^8$  mol year<sup>-1</sup>, and the average value of  $7.6\times10^8$  mol year<sup>-1</sup> was applied to our 186model. The removal rate of dissolved Cu from the ocean was estimated to be ~4.0 nmol 187 kg<sup>-1</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> by using a vertical advection diffusion model<sup>4, 5</sup>. By multiplying this value 188 by the total ocean volume  $(1.35 \times 10^{21} \text{ kg})$ , the scavenging flux of Cu in the ocean was 189estimated to be  $5.4 \times 10^9$  mol year<sup>-1</sup>. Riverine input  $\delta^{65}$ Cu was determined in rivers 190 worldwide; the rivers account for approximately one-quarter of all riverine discharge to 191 the ocean<sup>8</sup>. The discharge-weighted average of 0.68‰ of these rivers was used in our 192

model. The  $\delta^{65}$ Cu of atmospheric input was assumed to be 0% because  $\delta^{65}$ Cu values are 193  $\sim 0\%$  for rainwater, leachable fractions of marine aerosols<sup>11</sup>, and loess<sup>17</sup>. It was assumed 194 that the  $\delta^{65}$ Cu of sinking particles (of mainly biogenic origin) from surface water was 195the same as the  $\delta^{65}$ Cu of ambient surface seawater (i.e., 0.49‰), because isotopic 196 fractionation during phytoplankton uptake and adsorption onto phytoplankton surface is 197 expected to be insignificant, as described above. The  $\delta^{65}$ Cu of the benthic flux from the 198 scavenged layer to deep seawater was assumed to be the global average of 0.58‰. This 199 value is the average of  $\delta^{65}$ Cu in seawater samples nearest the bottom of the ocean. The 200201unknown Cu fluxes that were calculated by this model are those of supply from the 202atmosphere, transport by sinking particles from the surface, preservation in sediments, and return from the scavenged layer to deep water. The unknown  $\delta^{65}$ Cu values 203calculated by this model are those of the transporting flux by sinking particles in deep 204water and the preserved flux into sediments. 205

206

## 207 **Discussion**

From our data we infer that the  $\delta^{65}$ Cu values in surface seawater are mainly controlled by supply from rivers, atmosphere, and deep seawater. Biological uptake does not cause significant isotopic fractionation of Cu in the open ocean.  $\delta^{65}$ Cu values in deep seawater are heavier than those in surface seawater and become heavier with the age of deep seawater because of preferential scavenging for the light isotope (<sup>63</sup>Cu).

Biological fractionation of Cu isotopes has not yet been sufficiently clarified in 213the literature. There are only a few studies concerning isotopic fractionation of Cu by 214phytoplankton. Laboratory experiments have shown that uptake by several diatoms 215caused no significant fractionation or slight enrichment of the heavy Cu isotope (<sup>65</sup>Cu) 216 when the initial Cu concentration was ~200 nmol  $L^{-1}$  (ref. 26). However, a geochemical 217study in the Garonne River suggested that diatom species prefer the light Cu isotope 218 $(^{63}Cu)^{27}$ . Thus, it is necessary to determine the  $\delta^{65}Cu$  of natural phytoplankton in the 219open ocean in future work. 220

We suggest that Fe-Mn oxides may be a major sink of Cu in the oxic ocean. 221 $\delta^{65}$ Cu values of Fe-Mn nodules are 0.33±0.23‰ (ave±2-sd, n = 14) in the Pacific, 222 $0.25 \pm 0.26\%$  (n = 8) in the Atlantic, and  $0.31 \pm 0.23\%$  (n = 31) in the world ocean<sup>10</sup>; the 223 $\delta^{65}$ Cu values of Fe-Mn crusts are 0.54±0.07‰ (n = 8) in the Pacific, 0.33±0.15‰ (n = 2248) in the Atlantic, and 0.44±0.23‰ (n = 16) in the world ocean<sup>11</sup>. Thus,  $\delta^{65}$ Cu of Fe-Mn 225crusts and nodules is lighter than that of dissolved Cu in the ocean. Furthermore, the 226227 $\delta^{65}$ Cu of Fe-Mn crusts is significantly heavier in the Pacific than in the Atlantic (p = (0.01). These data are consistent with preferential scavenging of  $^{63}$ Cu and gradual 228

229	accumulation of <sup>65</sup> Cu in seawater through the global ocean circulation. This view,
230	however, seems contrary to experimental results on adsorption of Cu isotopes on Fe
231	oxyhydroxides <sup>26, 28</sup> , which indicate enrichment of the heavy Cu isotope onto oxide
232	surfaces in NaNO3 solutions or mixtures of acidic drainage and river water. The
233	discrepancy may be caused by differences in conditions, such as pH, Cu concentration,
234	and organic ligands concentration, between experimental solutions and natural seawater.
235	Additionally, it was found that Cu is associated with Mn and not Fe in Fe-Mn crusts <sup>29</sup> .
236	Isotopic fractionation between free Cu and organic ligand-bound Cu would also be
237	important for Cu isotopes in seawater, because Cu is mostly complexed with organic
238	ligands. In a laboratory experiment, humic acid preferentially complexes with the heavy
239	Cu isotope <sup>30</sup> . Therefore, it is likely that the complexation of Cu with dissolved organic
240	ligands in seawater also causes mass fractionation of Cu, because the organic ligands
241	and humic acid most likely have the same functional groups. Furthermore, Cu is
242	contained not only in the Fe-Mn oxide fraction but also in the organic fraction of
243	sinking particles <sup>31, 32</sup> . Thus, understanding isotopic fractionation during scavenging of
244	dissolved Cu from seawater is not straightforward. It was originally proposed in a
245	previous field study of rivers and oceans that there is equilibrium partitioning of
246	isotopes between heavy Cu bound to organic ligands in the dissolved phase and light Cu

adsorbed to particles<sup>8</sup>. This hypothesis is consistent with our explanation of light Cu
scavenging.

In the box model using both the Cu concentration and  $\delta^{65}$ Cu (Fig. 6), we 249constrained the transporting flux of Cu from surface to deep water by sinking particles 250to be  $3.4 \times 10^9$  mol year<sup>-1</sup>. The residence time for dissolved Cu in surface water (<100 m) 251is ~9 years, which is consistent with previous estimates of 3.2-11.7 years<sup>5, 33</sup>. The 252calculated preservation flux of Cu into sediments is  $1.7 \times 10^8$  mol year<sup>-1</sup>. The overall 253residence time of Cu in the ocean is calculated by dividing the average concentration by 254the preservation flux. Our estimate of the overall residence time of Cu is 2000 years, 255which is within the range of literature values (1700-6400 years)<sup>4, 11</sup>. The calculated 256 $\delta^{65}$ Cu of preserved Cu in sediments is +0.30‰, which is quite similar to the averages 257reported for Fe-Mn oxides<sup>10, 11</sup>. 258

We also constrained the atmospheric input of dissolved Cu to be  $9.6 \times 10^8$  mol year<sup>-1</sup>. Our model suggests that the present atmospheric input of Cu is comparable to the riverine input. A significant correlation was found between Cu and <sup>210</sup>Pb in surface seawater, implying a strong atmospheric supply of Cu because <sup>210</sup>Pb is a tracer for atmospheric input<sup>4</sup>. These authors estimated both the atmospheric and riverine Cu input to be  $6.0 \times 10^8$  mol year<sup>-1</sup>, which is similar to our results. However, our value is significantly larger than the natural atmospheric input previously estimated at  $5.4 \times 10^7$ mol year<sup>-1</sup>, which was obtained by multiplying the total dust flux by the mean crustal Cu concentration and solubility<sup>11</sup>.

Two possible explanations are given to rationalise this difference. First, it is 268possible that the Cu concentration and solubility in marine aerosols would be different 269from those in the continental crust. The enrichment factor of Cu relative to Al in marine 270aerosols varies over a large range of 1-200 compared with the continental crust<sup>25</sup>. The 271solubility of Cu in aerosols has a wide range of  $15-86\%^{34}$ . It was suggested that the 272enriched and soluble Cu in aerosols is from anthropogenic sources<sup>34, 35, 36</sup>. However, 273274Maring et al. evaluated the source of Cu enrichment in aerosols near Enewetak in the 275North Pacific, suggesting that atmospheric soluble Cu is from primary natural origins and that soil organic matter enriched in Cu could be a significant source of soluble Cu<sup>37</sup>. 276If anthropogenic Cu has significantly affected atmospheric input as we estimated, then 277the steady-state assumption is imperfect for the modern ocean, because anthropogenic 278inputs would have substantially increased in the recent ~100 years, whereas the overall 279oceanic residence time of Cu is approximately 1000 years. Second, other fluxes to open 280281ocean surface may be suggested. One possible flux is from the continental shelf sediment, where a portion of Cu is derived from the reduction of primary terrigenous 282

284	(0‰) and lighter than that of surface seawater. If these fluxes are included in our box
285	model, then our estimate of atmospheric input may decrease. As described above, some
286	uncertainties remain in our box model. Our results, however, confirm possibilities of
287	this new box model based on both concentration and isotopic composition of trace
288	metals.
289	
290	Methods
291	Seawater samples
292	The South Indian and North Pacific seawater samples were collected during the
293	R/V Hakuho-maru voyages KH 09-4, KH 10-2, KH 11-7, and KH 12-4 using a clean
294	sampling system <sup>14</sup> . In a clean booth, seawater was filtered through a 0.2 $\mu$ m cartridge
295	(Acro pak, Poll), acidified with HCl to pH 1.7-2.2, and stored in 2 L or 4 L LDPE

metal oxides<sup>38</sup>. The  $\delta^{65}$ Cu value of this flux would also be close to the crustal value

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bottles (Nalge Nunc) or 6 L LDPE cubic bags (Lontainer, Sekisui Seikei), which were

297 pre-cleaned by overnight treatment with 4 M HCl followed by rinsing with deionised

298 water. The North Atlantic sample was a GEOTRACES reference material collected at

- 299 BATS during the US-GEOTRACES KN193-5 voyage of the R/V Knorr. The South
- 300 Atlantic sample was collected at Station 3 during the UK-GEOTRACES D357 voyage

303	Rainwater samples
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304	Rainwater was collected from two sites using pre-cleaned polyethylene funnels
305	and cubic bags (Lontainer) or 2 L LDPE bottles. One site was on the roof of the main
306	building of the Institute for Chemical Research, which is located in an urban area of the
307	Main Island, Japan. The other site was on top of Mt. Kajigamori, which is located in a
308	rural area of Sikoku Island. Rainwater samples were filtered through a 0.22 $\mu$ m filter
309	(Millipore) and acidified with HCl to pH 1.7–2.1.

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# 311 Analytical procedure of $\delta^{65}$ Cu and Cu

Copper concentration and isotopic composition were determined as described in a previous paper<sup>12</sup>. Briefly, Cu in seawater or rainwater was collected using a column of Nobias chelate PA-1 resin (Hitachi High Technologies) followed by elution with 1 M HNO<sub>3</sub>. The eluate was evaporated to dryness, and the residue was re-dissolved with 10 M HCl. The sample was passed through a column of anion exchange resin (AG MP-1, Bio-Rad); additional 10 M HCl was then passed through the column to remove co-existing elements, followed by the elution of Cu with 5 M HCl. This eluate was

evaporated to dryness and the residue was re-dissolved with 1 M HNO<sub>3</sub>. Finally, the 1 319 M HNO<sub>3</sub> solution was re-evaporated and the residue was re-dissolved with 0.4 M HNO<sub>3</sub>, 320 yielding the pre-concentrated sample. One hundred micrograms of the pre-concentrated 321sample was diluted with 0.4 M HNO<sub>3</sub> by a factor of ~10 and used for measurement of 322Cu concentration. Co-existing Na, Mg, Ba, Ni, Zn, Cr, and Ti were also measured to 323ascertain whether these interfering elements possessed concentrations sufficiently low 324to permit accurate Cu isotopic measurements. When the Na (ppb)/Cu (ppb) ratio in the 325pre-concentrated sample was higher than 1, the solution was not used for discussion. 326 327For the Cu isotopic measurement, which used a multicollector ICP-MS (Thermo Finnigan Neptune or Neptune Plus), the final solution was diluted to adjust the Cu 328concentration to 50 ppb and Zn was added to give a solution of 100 ppb for external 329normalisation. The precision of this method was evaluated previously by repeated 330 analyses of coastal seawater to be  $\pm 0.07\%$  ( $\pm 2$ -sd, n = 6)<sup>12</sup>. In this study, 34 samples 331were each divided into two aliquots and analysed in duplicate, resulting in an average 3322-sd of 0.045 ‰ (n = 34) for  $\delta^{65}$ Cu and 0.11 nmol kg<sup>-1</sup> (n = 34) for Cu concentration. 333 These values are shown as error bars in the figures. 334

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490

# 491 **Author contributions**

492 S.T. and Y.S. designed the research. S.T. determined the concentration of Cu and  $\delta^{65}$ Cu. 493 M.T. contributed to measurements with MC-ICP-MS. T.H helped with the development 494 of the analytical method and supplied the standard reference material of Cu (NIST SRM 495 976). All authors contributed to the interpretation of the data and preparation of the 496 manuscript.

497

# 498 **Competing financial interests**

499 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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# 502 Figure legends

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Figure 1 Station locations. Samples for the analysis of  $\delta^{65}$ Cu were collected at these stations during R/V *Hakuho-maru* voyages. The numbers of samples are 10 at TR7, 10 at TR15, 10 at CR27, 14 at BD17, 12 at BD21, and 18 at ER10. This figure was produced with Ocean Data View<sup>13</sup>.

508



516 Figure 3  $\delta^{65}$ Cu versus reciprocal Cu concentration for surface seawater (<100 m). The

517 error bars of the magenta circles are 2-sd of  $\pm 0.045\%$ . The blue, black, and orange

shaded areas indicate the ranges of the data for deep seawater, river water, and rural rain,
respectively. The magenta triangle indicates the possible range of mixtures of average
deep seawater, river water, and rainwater. The surface water data shifted to the right of
the triangle indicate that other processes decrease the dissolved Cu concentration in the
surface seawater.

523

Figure 4  $\delta^{65}$ Cu versus AOU for seawater. The error bars for  $\delta^{65}$ Cu are 2-sd of ±0.045‰. (a) All  $\delta^{65}$ Cu values were plotted against AOU. The solid line was determined by a regression analysis of all plots:  $\delta^{65}$ Cu = 0.00067 × AOU + 0.50,  $R^2$  = 0.60, n = 77, p < 0.001. (b)  $\delta^{65}$ Cu values were plotted against AOU in deep seawater (>2000 m). The solid line was determined by a regression analysis of all plots:  $\delta^{65}$ Cu = 0.0016 × AOU + 0.32,  $R^2$  = 0.70, n = 25, p < 0.001.

530

Figure 5 Cu concentration versus AOU in the ocean. The error bars are 2-sd of  $\pm 0.11$ nmol kg<sup>-1</sup>. The solid line was defined as: [Cu] =  $0.0046 \times AOU + 1.5$ ,  $R^2 = 0.31$ , n = 77, p < 0.001.

535	Figure 6 Box model for Cu cycling in the ocean based on both elemental concentration
536	and isotopic ratio. The Roman and italic values below the process names represent Cu
537	flux in units of 10 <sup>9</sup> mol year <sup>-1</sup> and $\delta^{65}$ Cu values, respectively. Black figures indicate
538	observed values and magenta figures indicate values calculated based on mass balance.

# 539 **Table**

# 540

L	Table 1 Rainwate	r analysis result	S		
	Sample <sup>a</sup>	Date	Cu [nmol kg <sup>-1</sup> ]	$\delta^{65}Cu$	_
	Urban-1	3 Jul 2013	23.46	-0.12	-
	Urban-2	20 Jun 2013	1.51	-0.08	
	Urban-3	26 Jun 2013	1.84	0.03	
	Rural-1	16 Jun 2013	1.12	-0.03	
	Rural-1	16 Jun 2013	1.14	-0.01	
	Rural-2	8 Jul 2013	2.60	0.03	

541 Table 1 Rainwater analysis results

542 <sup>a</sup> 'Urban' samples were collected on the roof of the main building on the Uji campus

543  $\,$  on Main Island, Japan. 'Rural' samples were collected at the top of Mt. Kajigamori

544 on Sikoku Island, Japan.



Supplementary Figure 1 Vertical profiles of Cu concentration,  $\delta^{65}$ Cu, apparent oxygen utilisation (AOU), and fluorescence or chlorophyll a (Chl. a) in the ocean. Magenta triangles indicate Cu concentration. Blue squares and black circles indicate  $\delta^{65}$ Cu and AOU, respectively. Black diamonds indicate Chl. a or fluorescence.



Supplementary Figure 1 (continued)



Supplementary Figure 1 (continued)



Supplementary Figure 2 Comparison of Cu concentration profiles at ER10 from a previous paper<sup>1</sup> and from this work. Blue squares and orange triangles represent data in the previous and present study, respectively.



Supplementary Figure 3 Comparison of dissolved  $\delta^{65}$ Cu ranges in seawater. Orange and yellow bars indicate the ranges reported by British (ETH at present)<sup>2, 3</sup> and Australian groups<sup>4, 5</sup>, respectively. Blue bars indicate those in this study.



Supplementary Figure 4 Intercalibration of  $\delta^{65}$ Cu in seawater between the method of the ETH group (black circles) and our method (blue squares). Uncertainties for the ETH methodology are based on repeated (n = 29) analyses of a secondary Cu standard over a period of 6 months. The seawater sample collected at a 7145 m depth near the Japan Trench was divided into 4 aliquots and analysed in duplicate with each method. The results were found to be consistent within uncertainties.



Supplementary Figure 5 The correlation between  $\delta^{65}$ Cu and Cu concentration in the surface seawater (<100 m). Note that the horizontal axis is a logarithmic scale.

	First analysis Second analysis		Average		2 s.d.			
Depth [m]	δ <sup>65</sup> Cu	Cu	δ <sup>65</sup> Cu	Cu	δ <sup>65</sup> Cu	Cu	δ <sup>65</sup> Cu	Cu
	[‰]	[nmol kg <sup>-1</sup> ]	[‰]	[nmol kg <sup>-1</sup> ]	[‰]	[nmol kg <sup>-1</sup> ]	[‰]	[nmol kg <sup>-1</sup> ]
KH 11-7, T	R7, 29.99N	, 165.01E, deptl	h 5883 m, 1	9 June 2011				
21	0.48	0.68			0.48	0.68		
100	0.49	0.63	0.53	0.66	0.51	0.64	0.05	0.04
299	0.48	0.77	0.43	0.77	0.45	0.77	0.07	0.00
595	0.48	1.47	0.51	1.50	0.49	1.48	0.03	0.05
991	0.67	1.94	0.58	1.92	0.62	1.93	0.12	0.02
1484	0.60	2.35			0.60	2.35		
1979	0.63	2.68	0.62	2.59	0.63	2.64	0.02	0.12
2958	0.67	3.19	0.61	3.22	0.64	3.21	0.09	0.05
3938	0.62	3.66	0.61	3.54	0.62	3.60	0.01	0.18
5882	0.54	3.95	0.50	3.87	0.52	3.91	0.06	0.11
KH11-7, TR	215, 165.01	°E, 51.00°N, de	pth 4802 m	1,27 June 2011				
20	0.46	1.59	0.50	1.61	0.48	1.60	0.06	0.03
99	0.46	1.90	0.46	1.93	0.46	1.91	0.00	0.04
296	0.61	2.03			0.61	2.03		
593	0.62	2.24	0.60	2.43	0.61	2.34	0.03	0.27
989	0.62	2.27	0.54	2.37	0.58	2.32	0.11	0.15
1482	0.70	2.25	0.62	2.02	0.66	2.14	0.12	0.32
1974	0.62	2.67			0.62	2.67		
2953	0.70	3.06	0.69	3.11	0.70	3.08	0.02	0.07
3929	0.65	3.51	0.67	3.90	0.66	3.70	0.04	0.54
4781	0.62	4.31	0.64	4.83	0.63	4.57	0.03	0.74
KH11-7, TR	817, 143.87	"E, 37.81°N, de	pth 7150 m	n, 30 June 2011				
7145	0.49	4.22	0.46	4.20	0.48	4.21	0.04	0.03

Supplementary Table 1 Seawater analysis results.

#### First analysis Second analysis Average 2 s.d. Depth [m] $\delta^{65}Cu$ Cu δ<sup>65</sup>Cu $\delta^{65}Cu$ Cu δ<sup>65</sup>Cu Cu Cu [‰] [nmol kg<sup>-1</sup>] [‰] [nmol kg<sup>-1</sup>] [‰] [nmol kg<sup>-1</sup>] [‰] [nmol kg<sup>-1</sup>] KH-10-2, CR27, 159.99°E, 46.97°N, depth 5114 m, 29 June 2010 0.46 0.45 0.45 2.17 0.00 0.11 10 2.21 2.13 21 0.45 1.780.47 1.68 0.46 1.73 0.03 0.15 50 0.46 1.71 0.50 1.68 0.48 1.69 0.05 0.04 99 0.52 1.92 0.54 1.77 0.53 1.84 0.04 0.21 1.90 0.05 0.05 199 0.63 0.59 1.87 0.61 1.88990 2.10 2.09 2.09 0.03 0.02 0.60 0.58 0.59 0.07 1483 0.62 2.41 0.58 2.46 0.60 2.43 0.06 1974 0.60 2.57 0.60 2.48 0.60 2.52 0.01 0.12 2464 0.70 0.01 0.01 2.72 0.71 2.72 0.71 2.72 2954 0.72 2.99 0.68 2.95 0.70 2.97 0.07 0.06 KH-12-4, BD17, 132.40°W, 43.00°N, depth 3732 m, 27–28 September 2012 11 0.41 1.20 0.41 1.20 25 0.53 1.00 0.53 1.00 0.98 0.48 0.98 50 0.48 0.47 0.47 55 1.16 1.16 99 0.54 1.29 0.54 1.29 199 0.53 0.98 0.53 0.98 396 1.59 0.62 1.59 0.62 792 0.85 0.85 1.64 1.64 989 0.781.75 0.781.75 1975 0.74 2.74 0.74 2.74 2466 0.80 2.84 0.802.842956 0.76 3.17 0.76 3.17 3445 0.66 3.57 0.66 3.57 3695 0.66 4.24 0.66 4.24

## Supplementary Table 1 (continued)

# Supplementary Table 1 (continued)

	First analysis		Second analysis		Average		2 s.d.	
Depth [m]	δ <sup>65</sup> Cu	Cu						
	[‰]	[nmol kg <sup>-1</sup> ]						
KH-12-4, BD21, 128.43°W, 48.45°N, depth 2438 m, 30 September–1 October								
11	0.44	2.09			0.44	2.09		
100	0.59	1.36			0.59	1.36		
298	0.66	1.71			0.66	1.71		
594	0.68	1.89			0.68	1.89		
1186	0.78	2.06			0.78	2.06		
1777	0.75	2.63			0.75	2.63		
1974	0.74	2.94			0.74	2.94		
2071	0.74	2.96			0.74	2.96		
2170	0.71	2.97			0.71	2.97		
2268	0.70	2.60			0.70	2.60		
2366	0.71	3.17			0.71	3.17		
2399	0.69	3.06			0.69	3.06		

	First analysis Second analysis		Average		2 s.d.			
Depth [m]	δ <sup>65</sup> Cu	Cu	δ <sup>65</sup> Cu	Cu	δ <sup>65</sup> Cu	Cu	δ <sup>65</sup> Cu	Cu
	[‰]	[nmol kg <sup>-1</sup> ]	[‰]	[nmol kg <sup>-1</sup> ]	[‰]	[nmol kg <sup>-1</sup> ]	[‰]	[nmol kg <sup>-1</sup> ]
KH-09-5, E	R10, 72.55	°E , 20.00°S , de	epth 4343 n	n, 11 December	2009			
11	0.48	1.13	0.48	1.14	0.48	1.13	0.01	0.02
25	0.51	1.07	0.52	1.09	0.52	1.08	0.02	0.03
51	0.50	1.01	0.46	1.01	0.48	1.01	0.05	0.01
99	0.50	0.90	0.55	0.90	0.53	0.90	0.07	0.01
150	0.58	0.90	0.55	0.89	0.57	0.90	0.05	0.01
199	0.61	0.79	0.57	0.77	0.59	0.78	0.06	0.02
400	0.61	0.78			0.61	0.78		
597	0.63	0.81			0.63	0.81		
795	0.59	1.25			0.59	1.25		
993	0.64	1.60			0.64	1.60		
1240	0.66	1.70			0.66	1.70		
1486	0.69	1.86			0.69	1.86		
1979	0.70	2.45			0.70	2.45		
2470	0.65	2.81			0.65	2.81		
2962	0.62	3.15			0.62	3.15		
3452	0.60	3.68			0.60	3.68		
3941	0.63	3.76			0.63	3.76		
4306	0.63	3.85			0.63	3.85		
BATS, 64.10	О°Е, 31.40°	N, depth 4500 r	n					
2000	0.41	1.70			0.41	1.59		
D357, #163	D357, #163, 13.39°E , 36.46°S, depth 4894 m							
4723	0.44	2.87	0.42	2.89	0.43	2.88	0.03	0.01
				Average	0.60	2.20	0.045	0.11
				n	77	77	34	34

# Supplementary Table 1 (continued)

			$\delta^{65}Cu$	Cu flux $[10^9 \text{ mol y}^{-1}]$
Surface seawater	Input	Atmospheric	0.00	0.96
		Riverine	0.68	0.76
$[Cu] = 1.1 \text{ nmol kg}^{-1}$		Upwelling	0.60	3.0
$\delta^{65}Cu = 0.49$	Output	Downwelling	0.49	1.3
		Particulate	0.49	3.4
Deep seawater	Input	Downwelling	0.49	1.3
		Benthic	0.58	3.7
$[Cu] = 2.5 \text{ nmol kg}^{-1}$		Particulate	0.49	3.4
$\delta^{65}Cu = 0.60$	Output	Upwelling	0.60	3.0
		Particulate	0.49	5.4
Scavenged Layer	Input	Particulate	0.49	5.4
	Output	Benthic	0.58	3.7
		Preserved	0.30	1.7

Supplementary Table 2 Box model for Cu cycling in the ocean<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Black and magenta figures are the observed and calculated values, respectively.

#### **Supplementary Methods**

## Intercalibration of seawater δ<sup>65</sup>Cu

We performed the intercalibration of  $\delta^{65}$ Cu with the ETH group using a seawater sample collected at a depth of 7145 m near the Japan Trench (TR17, 143.87°E, 37.81°N, bottom depth 7150 m). This sample was divided into 4 aliquots and analysed twice with both the methodology of the ETH group and our method. The obtained  $\delta^{65}$ Cu values were consistent between the ETH group and us, as shown in Supplementary Fig. 4.

The ETH group pre-concentrated Cu from seawater using a co-precipitation technique with Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>. The detail of this technique is described in Zhao et al.  $(2014)^6$ . The pre-concentrated metal fraction was purified twice using anion exchange chromatography, as described in Archer and Vance  $(2004)^7$ . The purified sample was oxidised by refluxing in HNO<sub>3</sub>+H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (ref. 8). After evaporating the sample to dryness, the residue was re-dissolved with 2% nitric acid for isotopic measurements on a multi-collector ICP-MS. The setting of the multi-collector ICP-MS is detailed in Little et al.  $(2014)^8$ .

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