



Research papers

Time-series measurements of settling particulate matter in Alfonso Basin, La Paz Bay, southwestern Gulf of California



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ABSTRACT

More than 200 sediment trap samples were collected at 310 or 360 m depth during 2002–2009 from the center of the 410 m-deep Alfonso Basin in La Paz Bay, an arid, subtropical embayment of the southern Gulf of California. Sample splits were analyzed for total mass flux (TMF), particulate organic carbon (POC), inorganic carbon (CaCO₃) and opal (biogenic silica BioSi). The lithogenic (Litho) and biogenic fluxes (Biogen), but especially the particulate organic matter (POM) and CaCO₃, fluxes are relatively high compared with those recorded in a number of other coastal basins at depths less than ~500 m. The average yearly Litho fluxes (mean of $133 \pm 158 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) are well correlated with the frequency of strong wind gusts and reflect the relative proximity of the mooring to shore and the importance of eolian transport. The sedimentation patterns are influenced by monsoonal shifts—cool temperatures and strong northerly winds in late fall and winter sustain a well-mixed deep surface layer and high lithogenic fluxes, whereas progressive heating and relatively weak southerlies in summer and fall lead to a shallower, more-stratified surface layer with lower nutrient levels, limited productivity and generally low particulate fluxes. There is considerable interannual variability in the size of the various fluxes. This is likely related to a number of regional and internal factors whose timing, intensity and interactions remain to be resolved.

Although there is an inverse relationship between SST and satellite-derived net primary production (NPP) estimates, no correlation was found between NPP and the POC, CaCO₃ and BioSi fluxes ($r^2 < 0.05$ and $p > 0.05$). Significant correlations ($p < 0.001$) do exist, however, between the POC flux and the total mineral flux as well as with the CaCO₃, Litho and BioSi fluxes ($r = 0.86, 0.82, 0.79$ and 0.69 , respectively). As suggested by the ballast ratio hypothesis, the strength of these correlations follows the relative density of the individual ballast components. Among the ballast minerals, the Litho fraction correlates strongly with CaCO₃ ($r = 0.84$), both fluxes being important during the windy cool season. The lithogenic fraction accounts for almost half of the total mass flux and is clearly a significant ballasting agent in this continental margin basin.

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1. Introduction

La Paz Bay is a pristine environment of great biodiversity and productivity that supports an abundant variety of megafauna, including at least 16 cetacean species of temperate, tropical, and subtropical affinities, a growing colony of California sea lions and is visited by whale sharks and spine-tail devil rays (Pardo et al., 2013; Kahru et al., 2004; Reyes-Salinas et al., 2003; Lluch-Cota and Teniza-Guillén, 2000; Rodríguez Castañeda, 2008). The bay was designated as part of the “Área de Protección de Flora y Fauna Islas

del Golfo de California” by the government of Mexico in 1978, was recognized as a UNESCO World Heritage site in 2005 and since 2007 includes the Parque Nacional del Archipelago de Espíritu Santo.

Despite the importance of the ecotourism industry it attracts, very limited monitoring of the environmental conditions in the bay has been carried out. To supplement the short-term studies undertaken to date of the oceanographic conditions (e.g. Jiménez-Illescas et al., 1997; Salinas-González et al., 2003; Obeso-Nieblas et al., 2004; Monreal-Gómez et al., 2001) and ecology of the bay (e.g. Martínez-López et al., 2001; Reyes-Salinas et al., 2003), a sediment trap was deployed to measure the flux and composition of sinking particles in the bay.

The deepest portion of Alfonso Basin, the structural depression that occupies most of the northern portion of La Paz Bay (Fig. 1),

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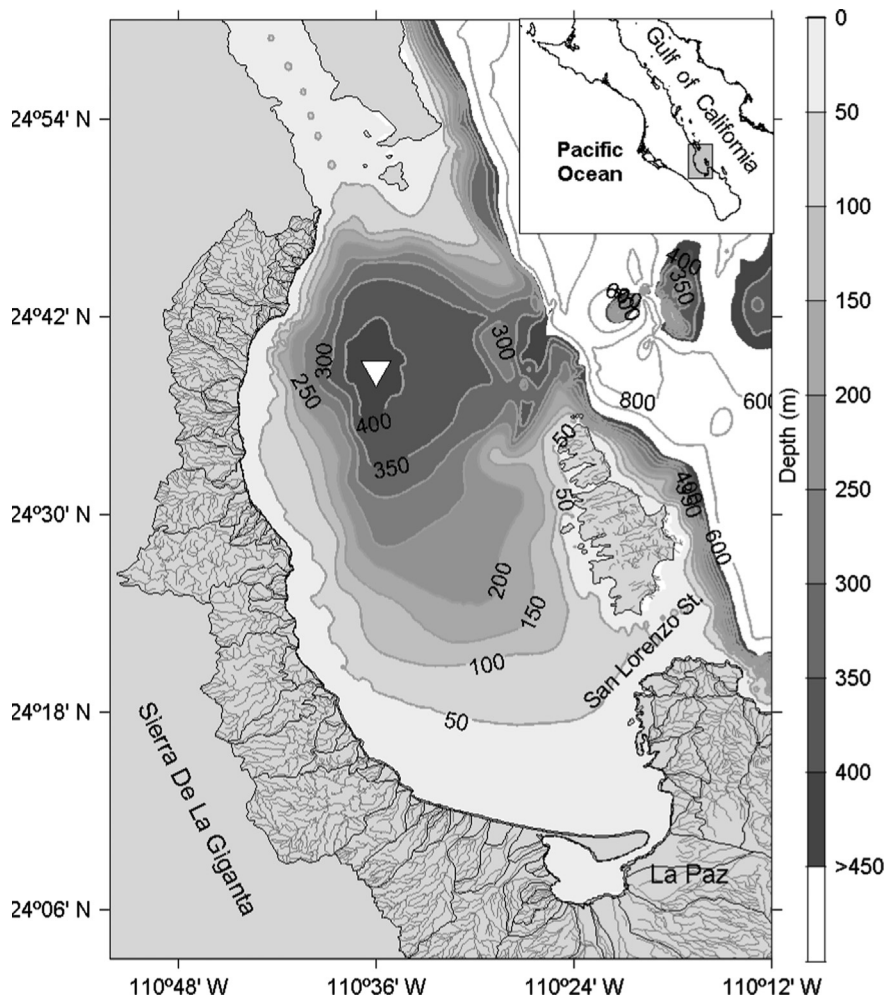


Fig. 1. Map showing the bathymetry of Bahía de La Paz, its limited drainage basin and the location of the sediment trap mooring (white triangle).

was chosen as the site of the sediment trap mooring because: (a) it is a natural focus for sedimentation, (b) water movements are weak in the subsurface, (c) the dissolved oxygen concentration in the deep water is very low ($< 0.5\text{--}1.0\text{ mL L}^{-1}$) so that the occurrence of “swimmers” is limited, (d) the site is close to the land-based laboratories in La Paz and can be readily visited for periodic complimentary studies of the water column and servicing of the mooring, and (e) the data complements the time-series of sedimentation flux measurements carried out in Guaymas Basin between 1991 and 1997 in the central Gulf of California (Thunell, 1998).

Dugdale and Goering (1967) first formulated the concept of “new” primary production, further developed by Eppley and Peterson (1979), and that of the “nutrient pump” (Emerson et al., 2001), representing the net flux of biologically produced organic matter from the surface to the interior of the oceans. Concerns about global warming led to research on how such “export” production, estimated with the aid of sediment trap data, might modulate the increase in atmospheric CO_2 . A number of studies linked the variability in sediment trap fluxes to seasonal and interannual changes in hydrographic conditions and productivity in surface waters of the open ocean (e.g. Honjo et al., 1999; Thunell, 1997; Deuser et al., 1995; Deuser, 1986). Newer work (e.g. Karl et al., 1996; Lampitt and Anita, 1997; Elskens et al., 2008), however, revealed an uncoupling between primary production and the flux of particulate organic carbon (POC) below the surface layer, indicating that other factors control the transfer of organic matter to deeper waters and the seafloor. Some of the ecosystem structure complexity affecting the transfer was discussed by Lutz

et al. (2002, 2007). Consequently, although production in the surface ocean must provide for the biogenic particulate matter fluxes at depth, using sediment trap information to infer changes in the ecology of plankton in the photic zone is not straightforward.

Although it has long been known that the rate of organic carbon decay decreases as a power function with depth (e.g. Martin et al., 1987), Armstrong et al. (2002) showed that asymptotic models using the ratios of ballast particle fluxes to the POC flux lead to better predictions of organic carbon losses in the bathypelagic zone. “Ballast” particles are solid inorganic particles (CaCO_3 and opal biogenic tests, clay- or sand-sized particles) to which organic matter (OM) can be adsorbed and whose greater density augments the settling velocity of POM. Whereas POC: ballast flux ratios were found to be high and variable in the surface ocean, they converge to narrow ranges of values in the deep (below 1500–2000 m) ocean (Armstrong et al., 2002, 2009; Klaas and Archer, 2002). Thunell et al. (2007) showed that a similar convergence affects the POC flux at much shallower depths (200–1200 m) in the Cariaco Basin. In this context, the role of ballast components, particularly the lithogenic flux, in Alfonso Basin needs to be addressed.

The underlying scientific objectives of the present study were to examine processes related to export production and biogeochemical cycles in a subtropical, arid continental margin basin. To this end, the fluxes of the principal components of the settling particulate matter are examined over an 8-year period and compared with changes in satellite-derived estimates of sea surface temperature (SST) and primary productivity (PPN), wind

regime, and available information on the structure of the phytoplankton community.

1.1. Study area

The southern half of La Paz Bay consists of a broad, shallow, sand-covered shelf that narrows along the coast to the north and the islands forming the eastern margin of the bay. Bottom sediments become muddier as the shelf gradually deepens and then plunges to form the Alfonso Basin, which occupies most of the northern half of the bay (Cruz-Orozco et al., 1996; Nava-Sánchez, 1997). The drainage basin of La Paz Bay is restricted to a narrow band (6–17 km wide) between the Sierra de la Giganta mountains and the Gulf of California (Fig. 1). Lithogenic source material in the south of the bay consists mainly of granitic rocks and alluvium; andesitic volcanic and volcanoclastic rocks of the Comondo Formation form the bulk of the Sierra de La Gargantua to the north and west, while mostly clastic sedimentary rocks of the El Cien Formation are exposed in a small area of the west central margin of the bay (Hausback, 1984; Choumiline, 2011).

The climate (wind and rainfall data from the CIBNOR Comitán meteorological station on the southwest shore of La Paz Bay are available at <http://intranet.cibnor.mx/meteo/ecibmet.html>) is hot, semi-arid and influenced by monsoon-like seasonal winds (Fig. 2a). Northwesterly winds dominate in the winter and spring when rainfall is slight, whereas milder southerly winds occur in the late spring, summer and early fall (Badan-Dangon et al., 1991;

Parés-Sierra et al., 2003; Marinone et al., 2004). During the latter period, intense heating of the surface layer induces strong stratification in the Gulf and pulses of land runoff occur with the advent of tropical storms (Monreal-Gómez et al., 2001; Obeso-Nieblas et al., 2004; Salinas-González et al., 2003). Except for hurricanes, measurable rainfall is limited to a few days each year (Fig. 2b).

The bay is influenced by regional atmospheric and oceanographic forcings, such as the North Pacific Gyre Oscillation (NPGO) and internal phenomena, such as isopycnal shoaling, intra-annual mesoscale gyres and the timing of shifts in wind direction and sea surface temperature (SST).

The water masses in La Paz Bay consist of Gulf of California Water (GCW), below which lies Subtropical Subsurface Water (StSsW) (Lavin and Marinone, 2003). Dissolved oxygen concentrations decrease rapidly below 50 m depth, with concentrations < 1 mL L⁻¹ by 100 m and < 0.5 mL L⁻¹ by 300 m (Monreal-Gómez et al., 2001). This reflects the free connection across the 275 m-deep sill at the northern mouth of the bay with the strong oxygen minimum in the subsurface water of adjacent southern Gulf of California (Alvarez-Borrego and Lara-Lara, 1991; Seibel, 2011). The very low O₂ concentrations below this depth suggest that the deepest water is not frequently replaced. Exchange through the much shallower San Lorenzo Strait at the southern mouth of the bay is limited to surface waters. The circulation pattern in the bay is still poorly documented but there is evidence, including drifter records, of a periodic cyclonic gyre centered over the deepest portion of the bay. This may be replaced episodically

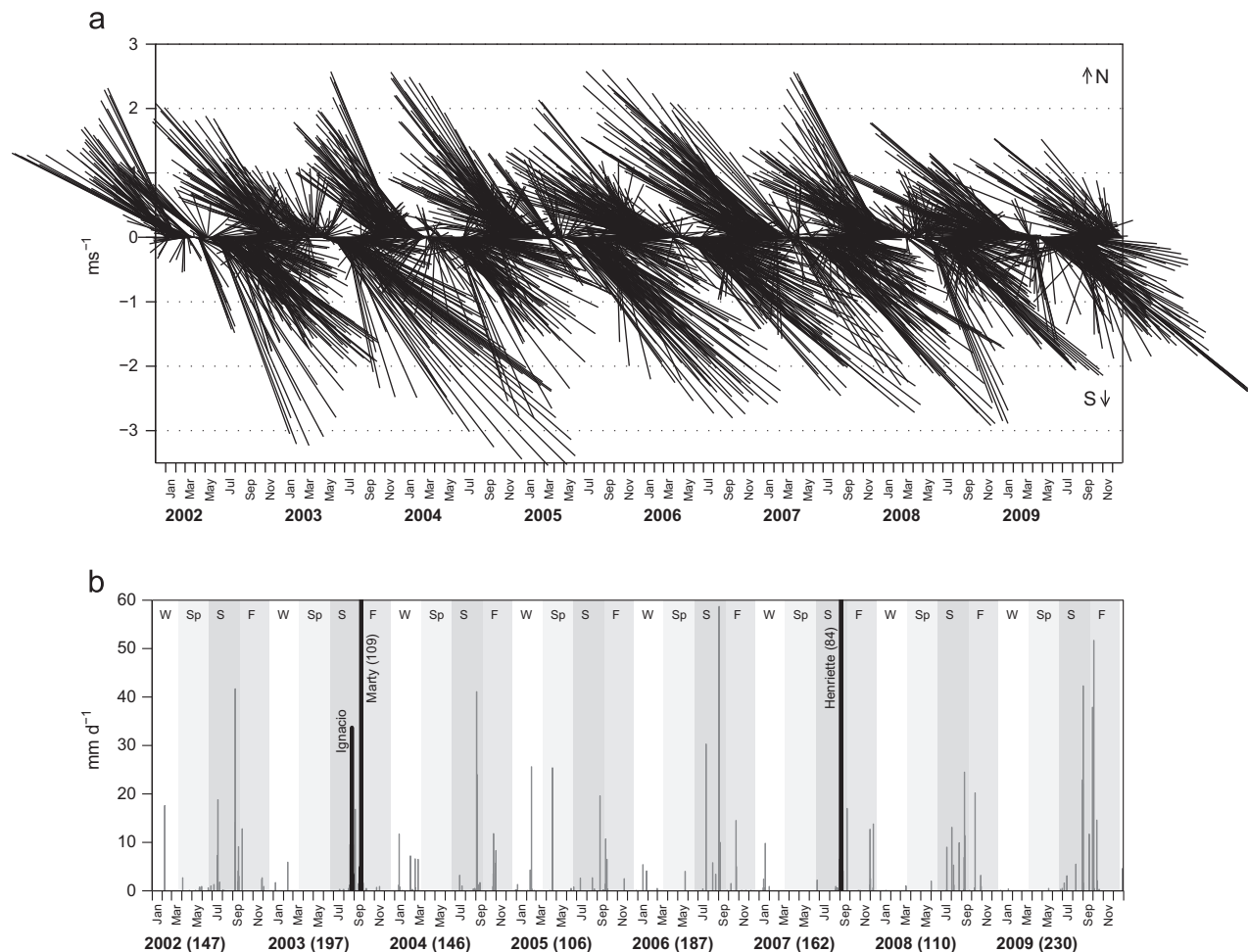


Fig. 2. Record of variations in (a) wind direction and intensity; (b) daily precipitation (mm) along with the total rainfall (in parentheses) for each year between 2002 and 2009.

by a roughly northern circulation or an anticyclonic gyre (Sánchez-Velasco et al., 2006; Monreal-Gómez et al., 2001; Villegas-Aguilera, 2009).

In winter, the southern Gulf of California is enriched in nutrients by upwelling along the eastern coast, associated with strong NW winds. The drift of these nutrient-rich waters towards the east contributes to the high primary production in the central Gulf. The deeper mixed layer in winter, as much as 90 m compared to as little as 10 m in summer (Villegas-Aguilera, 2009; Pardo et al., 2013), also sustains high Chl-a concentrations over much of the southern Gulf during winter, whereas the summer months are characterized by low Chl-a, weaker southerly winds with little indication of upwelling along the western margin, and the intrusion of warm, oligotrophic Tropical Surface Water and Subsurface Subtropical Water into the southern Gulf (Alvarez-Borrego and Schwartzlose, 1979; Merrifield and Winant, 1989; Santamaría-del-Angel et al., 1994).

Limited direct primary productivity data exist for La Paz Bay. In general, primary production is high during winter and low during summer (Signoret and Santoyo, 1980; Reyes-Salinas et al., 2003; Cervantes-Duarte et al., 2005). Using a model integrating natural fluorescence, light penetration (1% of surface irradiance, critical depth between 40 and 80 m) and nutrient concentrations, Cervantes-Duarte et al. (2005) reported euphotic zone integrated primary production estimates ranging from $0.26 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in November 2001 to $2.3 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in June 2000. Likewise, using a similar modelling approach, Verdugo-Díaz et al. (2008) reported extremes in primary production of $0.55 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ for November 1997 and $0.76 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ for November 2000.

2. Methods

Settling particles were collected with a Technicap model PPS-3/3 sediment trap with a 0.125 m^2 (unbaffled) opening and a programmable, motor-driven carousel containing twelve 250-mL bottles. The instrument was installed close to $24^{\circ}39'N$, $110^{\circ}36'W$, 100 m above the seafloor at 310 m depth. Given navigational constraints in approaching the mooring position and lowering of the anchor weight, there may be as much as 5 m variation in the actual anchor depth. The height above the bottom was chosen to avoid possible contamination by resuspended material. Two suspended particulate matter concentration (0.1 to 1.4 mg L^{-1}) profiles obtained in 2002 from discrete depth samplings using 5-L Niskin bottles revealed no evidence of a deep nepheloid layer and, after learning that currents below the sill depth were very weak (Zaytzev et al., 2009), the trap was lowered to 50 m above the bottom (360 m depth) in November 2007. The mooring was anchored by 500 kg of cement blocks and supported by floats providing 160 kg of buoyancy. The mooring was serviced at 3 to 12-month intervals, providing, except for the technical glitches noted in the first paragraph of the Results section, continuous sampling with a 7 to 17-day resolution between 2002 and 2009.

The sample bottles contained a 4% formaldehyde solution of filtered ($0.45 \mu\text{m}$) seawater to which high purity NaCl was added to a practical salinity of 40, dense enough to limit exchange with the ambient seawater. Initially, the solution was pH-buffered using sodium phosphate, but some deterioration of foraminifera shells was noted in splits preserved for several months. The pH measured in these splits had decreased from 8.1 to 6.1–6.9. Therefore, beginning in August 2003, the buffer was changed to sodium tetraborate, which maintained a stable pH of about 8.

Once in the laboratory, a 1-mL aliquot of the recovered suspension was removed to a clean Petri dish and observed under a dissecting microscope equipped with a digital video recorder to document the general character of the material and identify the

most conspicuous particles. After the aliquot was returned to the bulk sample, the latter was sieved through a $1000\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ Nylon screen to remove “swimmers” and large aggregates. This coarse fraction was stored in 20-mL vials for later examination. After sieving, the samples were subdivided into 10 equal subsamples (“splits”) using a rotary splitter and transferred to 50-mL acid-washed plastic centrifuge tubes. Four of the tubes were pre-weighed, and these splits were centrifuged and the preservative solution decanted. The solid residue was rinsed with demineralized water to remove sea salts, centrifuged, decanted once again, and allowed to dry in a $\sim 50^{\circ}\text{C}$ oven for at least 48 h. After cooling in a desiccator, the tubes were re-weighed and the split weight determined, (after 2007, the dried split was recovered from the tubes and weighed directly) from which the total mass flux (TMF) was estimated. The analytical error, determined from the standard deviation of the split weights, ranged from 0.001 to $0.213 \text{ g}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ and averaged 4.4% of the TMF.

2.1. Bulk biogenic component analyses

Initially, carbon analyses on splits and replicas from a total of 111 trap samples covering the period of 15 January, 2002 through 29 November, 2005 (Sample IDs I-1 through XI-2: See full Table 1 in Appendix A) were performed at the Laboratory of Ocean Chemistry, Shirsov Institute of Oceanology, Moscow, using the coulometric and dry combustion method of Ljutsarev (1987). Inorganic carbon (C_{inorg}) was determined as the difference between total carbon (C_{tot}) and organic carbon (C_{org}). Direct coulometric analyses of C_{inorg} on replicates of seven of our samples, (J. Murillo, personal com.), however, yielded absolute CaCO_3 concentrations that were on average 3% lower than those obtained by the difference method of Ljutsarev. For this reason, 84 previously analyzed samples (15 January 2002 through 29 November, 2005) for which there was still sufficient material available, as well as splits from 71 new samples (02 December, 2005 through 28 May, 2008, IDs XII-2 to XVIII-12) were analyzed coulometrically (UIC, Inc; Joliet, IL, USA) for C_{inorg} at the Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences, McGill University, following acidification with 2 N HCl and CO_2 extraction, using both pure CaCO_3 and Na_2CO_3 standard solutions for control. Replicate analyses yielded a relative precision of better than 3%. The total carbon (C_{tot}) and nitrogen (N_{tot}) content of splits of these same 155 samples was determined using the Carlo-Erba NC 2500 elemental analyzer at the GEOTOP facility of the Université du Québec à Montréal. The absolute instrumental reproducibility of these analyses, as determined from replicate measurements of Organic Analytical Standard substances (acetanilide, atropine, cyclohexanone-2,4-dinitrophenyl-hydrazone and urea), was estimated at $\pm 0.1\%$ for C_{org} and $\pm 0.3\%$ for N_{tot} and the relative analytical reproducibility was better than 2%. C_{org} was then determined by difference ($C_{\text{org}} = C_{\text{tot}} - C_{\text{inorg}}$). To complete the series, results of the 27 original samples (flagged by an * in Table 1) that were too small to be reanalyzed ($< 15 \text{ mg}$) were adjusted from the original Shirsov laboratory results, based upon the linear correlation ($r^2 = 0.863$) between all of the samples run at both the Moscow and Montreal laboratories. Between 29 May 2008 and 26 September 2009, 25 trap samples with sufficient mass for complete carbon analysis were recovered. Results for these samples, including replicates, were obtained from the laboratory of Dr. Juan Carlos Huergera, CICESE, Ensenada, using methods similar to those applied at McGill and GEOTOP. Relative analytical reproducibility was better than 3%. Analysis of a number of blind replicates successfully reproduced values for splits previously analyzed at McGill and GEOTOP. Finally, 6 samples of series XXII were analyzed for C_{org} at the Stable Isotope Facility, University of California at Davis and results are included in Table 1 to complete year 2009. Although the splits used for the analysis of

Table 1

Short: Summary results showing only the overall weighted means, raw standard deviations and the maximum and minimum values recorded.

	Total						Fluxes					
	Mass flux (g m ⁻² d ⁻¹)	Corg (%)	N (%)	Corg:N (molar)	CaCO ₃ (%)	BioSi (%)	Corg	CaCO ₃	BioSi (g m ⁻² d ⁻¹)	Biogen	Litho	Litho (%)
Overall Wtd. mean	0.675	8.08	1.12	9.0	12.1	26.2	0.049	0.087	0.173	0.388	0.342	42
St. dev'n (unWtd.)	0.663	2.45	0.43	1.1	4.3	14.6	0.029	0.086	0.154	0.280	0.433	12
Max	4.54	16.82	2.79	11.56	25.74	99.0	24.44	0.678	0.831	1.95	2.95	76
Min	0.043	1.03	0.14	0.35	2.58	6.03	0.001	0.004	0.009	0.050	0.011	6

inorganic carbon had been rinsed and dried soon after collection, because of the inadequate pH buffer used at the time, the results for samples taken between Jan 2002 and July 2003, are considered to be underestimates, and are flagged as such (*small italics*) in Table 1.

The biogenic silicon content (mole/g dry weight) was determined on a wet split using the sequential extraction method of DeMaster (1981). The weight fraction of biogenic silica (BioSi or opal) was then calculated by multiplying the silicon concentrations by a factor of 2.4, following Mortlock and Froelich (1989). The precision varied between 5 and 12%. The lithogenic fraction was estimated by subtracting the biogenic fraction (opal+particulate organic matter ([POM=2.5 × C_{org}] following Thunell et al., 2007)+CaCO₃) from the TMF. Additional details about the analytical methodologies can be found in Aguirre-Bahena (2007).

3. Results

A compilation of the sediment trap sampling dates, as well as the computed total and major component fluxes are presented in Table 1 (See full table in Appendix A) and graphically according to year in Figs. 3 and 4. The yearly and overall means in Table 1 were calculated by weighting each parameter by the number of sampling days and dividing by the total number of days of collection. The weighted means minimize the effects of the variable sampling intervals dictated by the availability of shiptime to service the traps, the lack of sufficient material for certain analyses, and occasional failures in bottle rotation due to battery failure (e.g. 08 Jan–23 Feb 2003; 09 Jun–23 Sep 2004; 07 Nov 2006–17 Feb 2007) when all the material was collected in a single bottle. The corresponding standard deviations, however, refer to the raw data from each individual sample bottle.

Gaps in the record occurred on several occasions when the floating rope between the two GPS-positioned mooring-anchor weights was cut, apparently by fishing boats, and the instrument had to be recovered by pulling on a dragline run around the vertical portion of the mooring. These events (which fortunately have not recurred since 2006) led to delays in redeployment of the trap and, the loss of the last 5 bottles (04 Oct–13 Nov 2003), and, on one occasion (24 Feb–19 Sep 2006), the loss of an entire set of 12 samples. The zero values in the 2008 series were not due to any evident malfunction of the Technicap PPS3/3 instrument (which recorded the correctly sequenced programmed rotation of the carousel), and appear to reflect periods of very limited sedimentation, as occurred in July 2002. Some material was recovered from these bottles, but not enough for analysis.

3.1. General composition of the settling particulate matter

Lithogenic material was often the most abundant component, making up between < 1 and 76% of the mass of the samples, with an overall mean of 42% (Table 1). Its contribution, variably diluted by marine biogenic detritus, was commonly > 50% between late fall and winter when northerly winds are strongest. Biogenic silica

(fragments of diatoms, silicoflagellates and other siliceous microorganisms) was the most abundant biogenic component, accounting, on average, for 27% (range 6–99%) of the total mass. Its contribution was generally minimal in March, increased to a maximum in June and July when total mass fluxes were often minimal. The 99% value, for example, occurred in late June, 2002, when the TMF was only 0.065 g⁻² d⁻¹ and consisted solely of numerous diatom chains. Values then decreased progressively through October, and increased again through late fall and early winter. CaCO₃ made up from 2.6 to 26% of the trap material, averaging 12.1%. There are very few sedimentary carbonate rocks among the mainly volcanic formations of the adjacent Baja Peninsula and factor analysis of the elemental composition of Alfonso Basin trap material indicates that the Ca is of biogenic origin (Rodríguez Castañeda, 2008; Choumiline, 2011), including fragments of foraminifera, coccoliths and other calcareous plankton. CaCO₃ concentrations were generally more abundant in late fall, whereas below average concentrations were typically recorded between May and July when the BioSi content was highest. Particulate organic matter (POM=2.5 POC) made up between 2.6 and 42% of the weight of the sedimenting particulates. Averaging 20.3%, it was often more abundant than CaCO₃, particularly in spring and summer. Aguiñiga et al. (2010) reported that the δ¹³C of Alfonso Basin trap material was between –19 and –23‰, close to that of marine phytoplankton (–18 to –22‰). The C_{org}:N_{tot} ratio of the trap samples for which data are available (Table 1) ranged between 5.7 and 11.6, with an overall mean of 8.9. The yearly means show a slight decrease between 2003 (10.0 ± 0.8) to 2007 (9.0 ± 0.4), whereas means of 7.7 ± 0.9 and 7.1 ± 0.5 were recorded for 2008 and 2009, respectively.

3.2. Particulate matter fluxes

3.2.1. Total mass, lithogenic and biogenic fraction fluxes

Dry weight total mass flux (TMF) determinations covering the period between January 18, 2002 and the end of 2009 were obtained from a total of 224 trap samples. The overall TMF weighted mean (Table 1) was 0.675 g m⁻² d⁻¹.

²³⁴Th disequilibrium measurements in the water column and of settling particulates, typically used to validate particle settling rates (Buesseler et al., 2007), were not available for this study. The overall mean TMF is equivalent to a sedimentation rate of 0.35 mm yr⁻¹, assuming an asymptotic water content of 50% by weight below 40–50 cm depth in the sediment. This compares well with independent, excess ²¹⁰Pb estimates of the accumulation rates from sediment cores recovered in the basin by Nava-Sánchez (1997), Pérez-Cruz (2000) and Rodríguez Castañeda (2008), of 0.5, 0.4 and 0.63 mm yr⁻¹, respectively; and 0.30 mm yr⁻¹ based upon ¹⁴C dating (Pérez-Cruz, 2006). Hence, turbulence at the mouth of the trap did not appear to compromise the sediment trap capture efficiency in this environment of very weak deep currents (Zaytzev et al., 2009).

Our sediment trap data reveal temporal variations in the particulate flux, with total mass fluxes varying over two orders of magnitude (0.043 to 4.54 g m⁻² d⁻¹), over the 8-year study

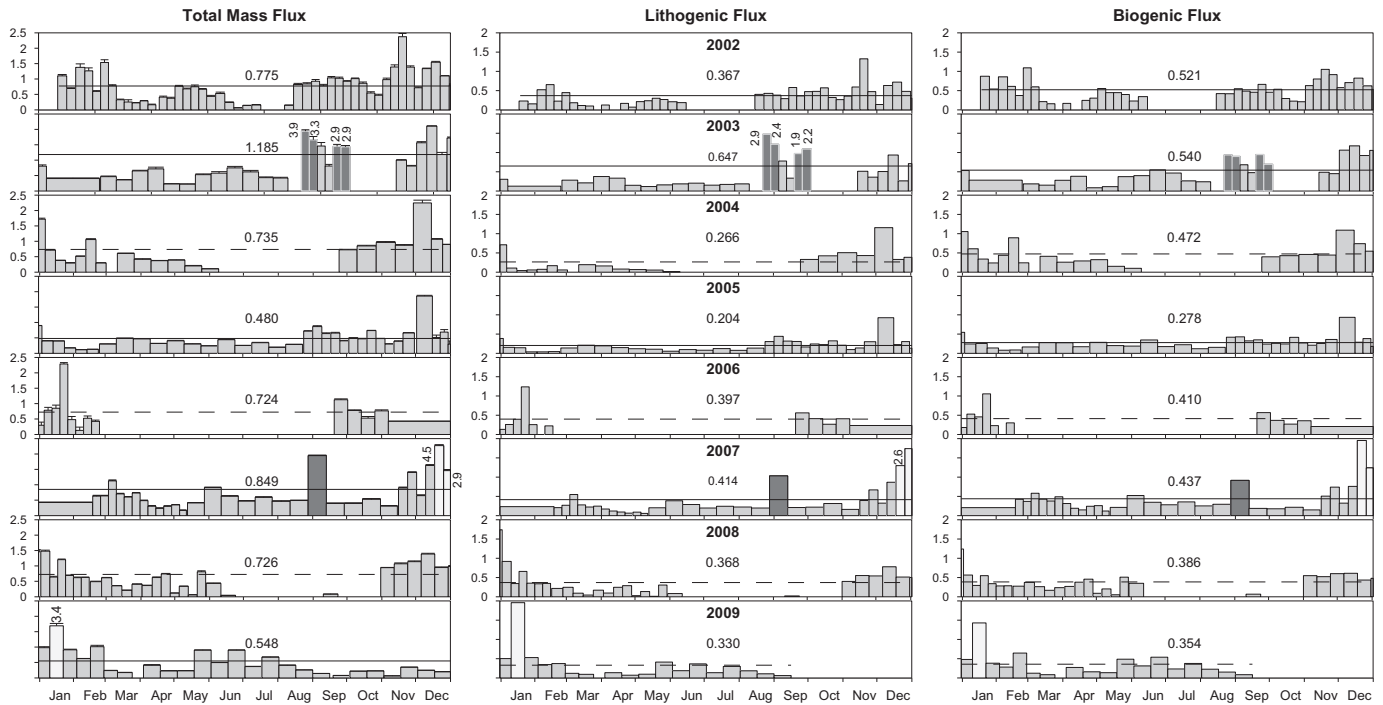


Fig. 3. The sediment trap record of the total mass, lithogenic and biogenic fluxes ($\text{g m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) between 2002 and 2009 in Alfonso Basin. Error bars shown for TMF represent the standard deviations of several splits from each trap. The number in the center and the horizontal lines (dashed when large gaps occurred) represent the raw annual mean. Black bars highlight the traps influenced by hurricanes Marty, Ignacio and Henriette, while white bars represent high fluxes associated with strong wind gusts, independent of hurricanes.

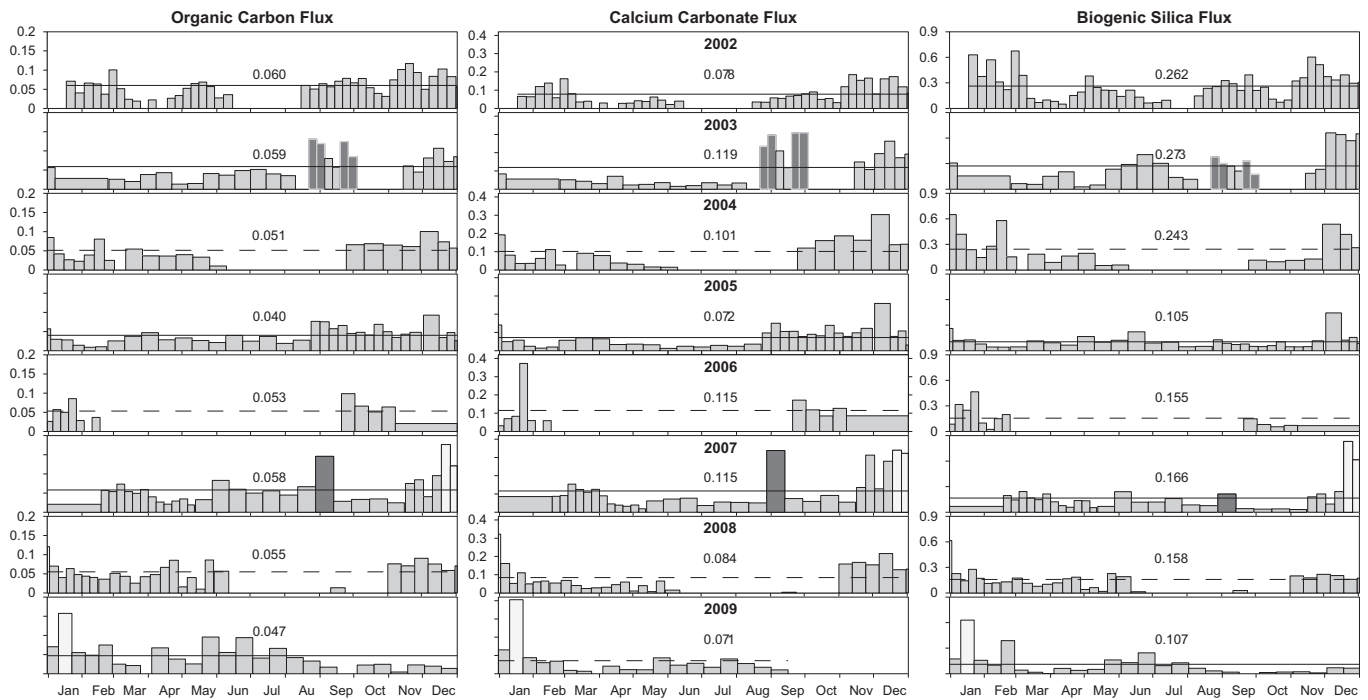


Fig. 4. The sediment trap record of the fluxes of biogenic silica (BioSi), calcium carbonate (CaCO_3), particulate organic matter (POM). The number in the center and the horizontal lines (dashed when large gaps occurred) represent the raw annual mean. Black bars highlight the traps influenced by hurricanes Marty, Ignacio and Henriette, while white bars represent high fluxes associated with strong wind gusts, independent of hurricanes. All units in $\text{g m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$.

period. Likewise, the mean annual weighted TMFs display considerable year-to-year variability. The highest yearly-averaged TMF ($0.91 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in 2003) can be partially accounted for by the four weekly samples recording the successive passage of hurricanes Marty and Ignacio (Silverberg et al., 2007). If these samples are excluded, the mean 2003 TMF drops to $0.69 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$, very

close to the overall mean of $0.68 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$. The mean TMF in 2005 and 2009, (0.46 and $0.52 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$, respectively) are substantially lower than those of all other sampled years.

A year-to-year comparison of the raw, unweighted, Total Mass, Lithogenic and Biogenic Fraction fluxes is presented graphically in Fig. 3. Higher than average fluxes frequently occurred during late

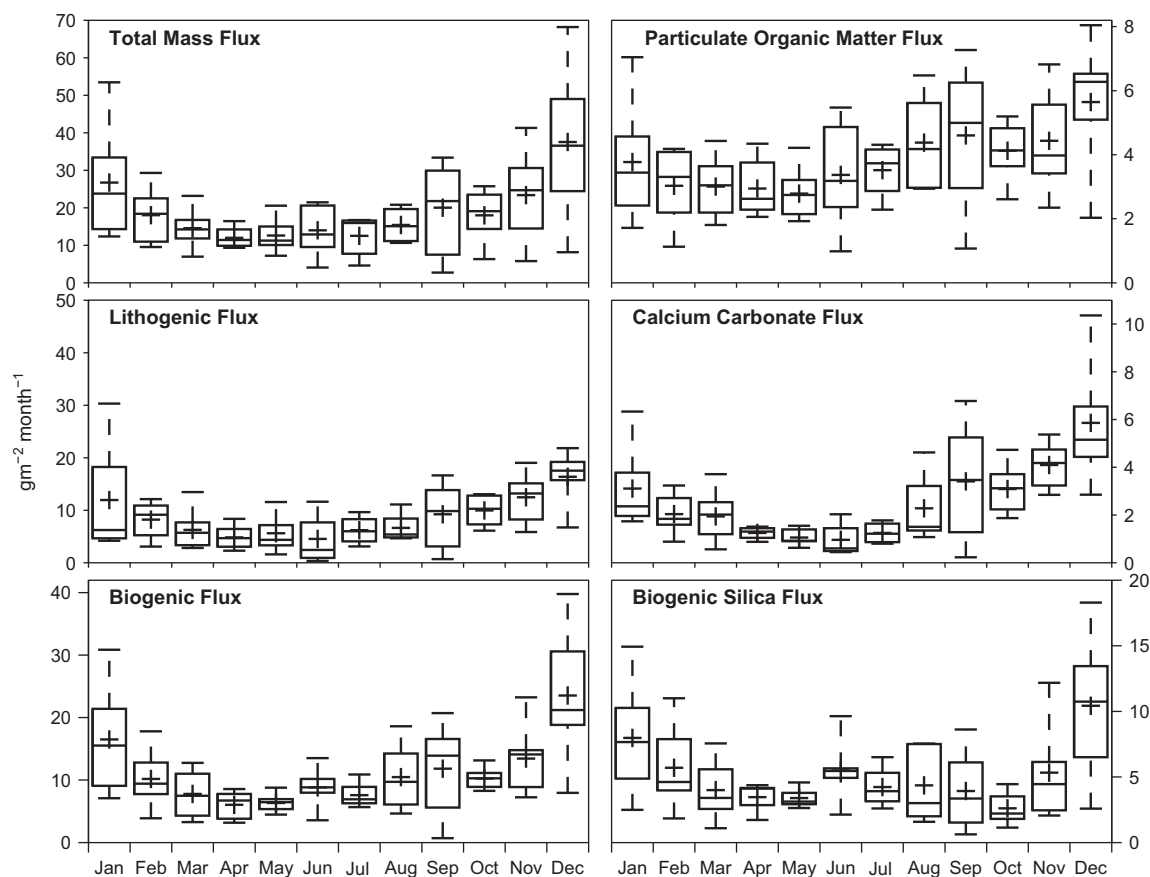


Fig. 5. Box and whisker diagrams showing the variation in the mean monthly fluxes of total mass, lithogenic and biogenic material, particulate organic matter, CaCO_3 and biogenic silica. '+' represent the average, horizontal lines the median, the rectangular box encloses 25–75% of the data, while the "whiskers" enclose 9–91% of the data.

fall and early winter (November to February), and sometimes during August, September and October. Samples collected during and immediately following hurricanes (black bars in Fig. 3) recorded very high fluxes, but extreme fluxes (white bars in Fig. 3) also occurred during periods of high winds but no rain. Lower than average fluxes were typically recorded during spring and early summer. Nevertheless, the patterns are not consistent from year to year.

Similar patterns are observed among the biogenic components (Fig. 4). All show minimal yearly-averaged values for 2005 and 2009. Yearly-averaged BioSi fluxes were high from 2002 to 2004, but close to the overall mean ($0.173 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, Table 1) from 2006 to 2008. The mean annual CaCO_3 fluxes oscillated between 0.07 and $0.11 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$. The POC fluxes displayed relatively small changes, means between years ranging from 0.040 to $0.060 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$.

3.2.2. Mean monthly fluxes

To better visualize the flux patterns over the year, the fluxes from the individual trap samples were recalculated on a monthly basis, using the cumulative mass that would have been intercepted by a single sample bottle from the beginning to the end of each month. This reduces the effect of occasional large sample-to-sample variations and samples that included overlapping months. When some days were unsampled, the value was extrapolated from the weighted daily mean and multiplied by the number of days in the month. No values were calculated for October 2003, because only the first 3 days were represented; the 1-day record for October 2008 was also not used.

Fig. 5 shows the resulting distribution of the weighted monthly fluxes between 2002 and 2009. The box and whiskers diagrams

display a broad seasonality of the fluxes, with the lowest for each occurring during the spring and summer and the highest being observed in late fall and winter. The TMF also shows a secondary maximum in June, mostly accountable by BioSi and POM. There are some large spreads within the monthly fluxes, emphasizing the great interannual variability. The extreme spreads during August and September are mostly attributable to the passage of hurricanes Marty and Ignacio in 2003 whereas those of December are associated with a remarkable flux of both lithogenic and biogenic material at the end of that month in 2007.

4. Discussion

Despite a few large gaps in the sediment trap time-series, analyses of the samples recovered over the 8-year period provide valuable information about the nature and fluxes of settling particulate matter within Alfonso Basin. The data display much temporal variability, even on a weekly basis when such a resolution was available. Compared to Guaymas Basin, approximately 300 km to the north, seasonal patterns are less obvious and inconsistent between years. This probably reflects a greater variability in the physical environment of the southern Gulf of California, including occasional intrusions of warmer and less productive equatorial waters, northerly currents at the entrance to the Gulf (Lavin and Marinone, 2003) and the development of seasonal gyres in the southern Gulf that may affect La Paz Bay (Figueroa et al., 2003; Castro et al., 2006). Within the bay, there are periodic mesoscale gyres (Sánchez-Velasco et al., 2006), probably related to the shoaling of isopycnals (Villegas-Aguilera, 2009; Pardo et al., 2013). The ecological response within the upper water

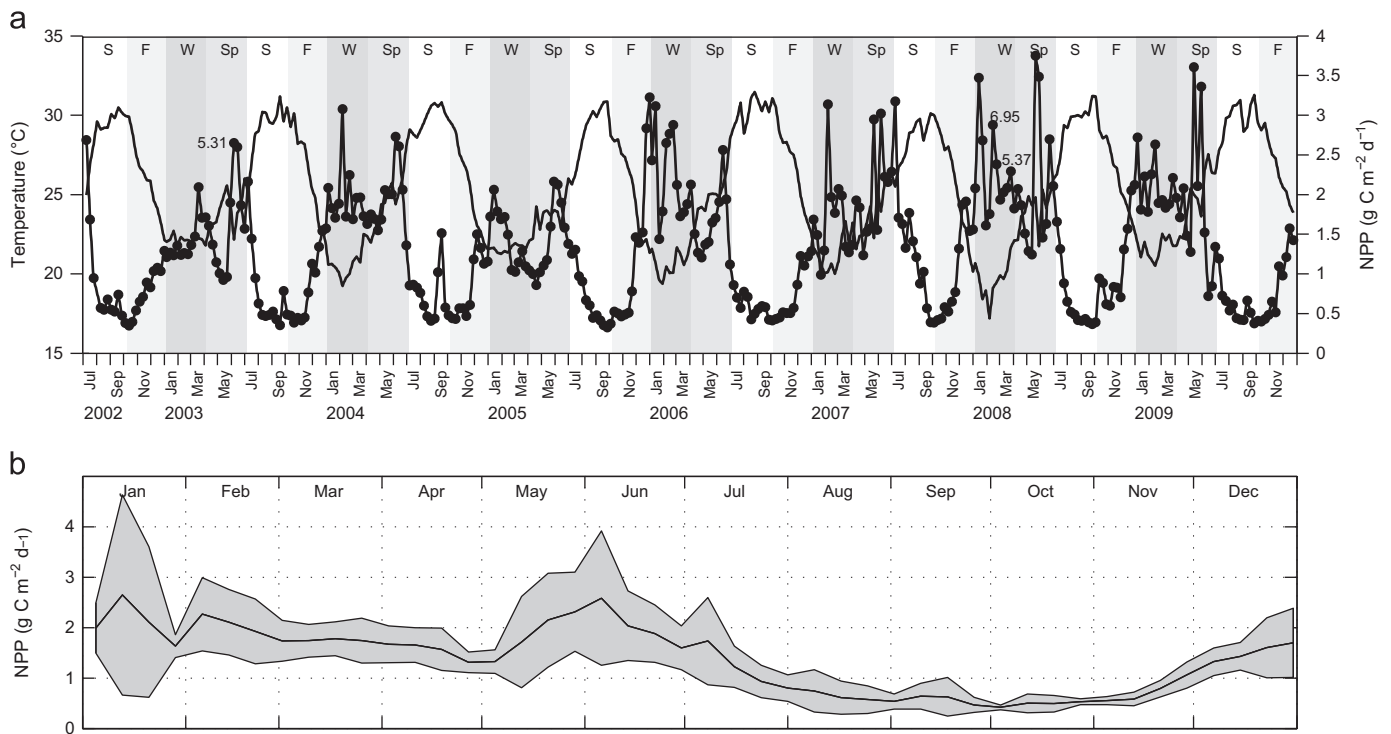


Fig. 6. (a) Record of 8-day satellite imagery derived data for the sea-surface temperature (SST, grey line) and the net primary production (NPP, black line with circles) for a 20×20 km grid, centered on Alfonso Basin. Note the association of higher NPP with low SST values. This relationship has a linear correlation (not shown) with $r = -0.77$. (b) Mean and range of the 8-day NPP data between 2002 and 2009.

column to such physical forcings, in turn, results in variations of plankton composition and the biologically-induced production of the aggregate particles that dominate the vertical flux (Silver and Gowing, 1991; Gonzalez et al., 2000; Roy et al., 2000). Martínez-López et al. (2012) reported that abundances of different silico-flagellate assemblages reflect alternations of subtropical, equatorial and subarctic influences and that the flux patterns show reasonable correlations with the Pacific decadal oscillation (PDO), North Pacific Gyre oscillation (NPGO), and El Niño Modoki indices. It remains to be seen if other ecosystem components, such as coccolithophores and foraminifera are affected by these broad variables within the southern Gulf of California.

The sediment trap time-series data reflect the influence of monsoonal shifts between northerly winds during the cool season in winter-spring and southerly winds during the hot season of summer-fall, but seasonal patterns in the sediment trap record are not predictable from year to year (Figs. 3 and 4). When the bulk sediment trap data are simplified by averaging monthly values for all years, the resulting box and whiskers diagrams (Fig. 5) highlight the low fluxes in summer compared to winter, but the spread of the data clearly reflects the large annual variability. The spread is influenced by episodic events, such as the irregular occurrence of secondary BioSi flux maxima in June, short-term phenomena, such as the impact of hurricanes Ignacio and Marty in Aug–Sep 2003, and the extraordinarily high flux of biogenic and lithogenic fluxes observed in December 2007.

4.1. Relationship of the fluxes to temperature and primary production

Unlike Guaymas Basin, where upwelling along the eastern margin of the Gulf of California during the northerly monsoon and strong temperature stratification in summer induce sharp seasonality in primary production as reflected in sediment trap records (Thunell, 1998), the southwestern margin of the Gulf is

little influenced by upwelling, even during the southerly monsoon (Santamaría-del-Angel et al., 1994; Lluch-Cota et al., 2010). Nevertheless, as shown in Fig. 6a, there is significant seasonality in the satellite-derived net primary production (NPP) in La Paz Bay, higher productivity occurring mostly during periods of low SST. The data, using a 20×20 km grid centered on Alfonso Basin, are 8-day composites of Modis Aqua satellite Level 3, 4×4 km SST records available from <http://oceancolor.gsfc.nasa.gov/cgi/l3>, whereas the NPP estimates are derived from the standard Vertically Generalized Production Model (vgpm; Behrenfeld and Falkowski, 1997) algorithm, available at <http://orca.science.oregonstate.edu/1080.by.2160.8day.hdf.vgpm.m.chl.m.sst4.php>. Fig. 6b displays the mean and range of monthly NPP over the 8-year period. Note that the more productive months (between December and June, often with bimodal maxima) display greater inter-annual variability than those with low NPP (between July and November). Productivity is influenced by shifts in surface temperature, shoaling of the isopycnals and the depth of the surface mixed layer (Villegas-Aguilera, 2009; Pardo et al., 2013). There is some evidence that the shoaling phenomenon, accompanied by high Chl- α levels at the surface, is a yearly-recurrent intra-seasonal event that sustains greater diatom productivity (Pardo et al., 2013).

The moderate seasonality in NPP does not correlate ($r^2 = 0.018$, $p = 0.25$) with the flux of POC (nor with that of BioSi or CaCO_3) recorded in the sediment trap during equivalent monthly collection periods (Fig. 7, left). The same is true of the SST (Fig. 7, right). Given that Chl- α concentrations typically display subsurface maxima and phytoplankton adapted to low-light conditions are abundant in Alfonso Basin (Villegas-Aguilera, 2009; Sidón-Ceseña, 2012), the integrated primary production derived from sea-surface satellite observations may not provide accurate estimates of the local productivity. The lack of coupling between production in the photic zone and POC export below the photic zone has been noted at a number of open ocean sites (Karl et al., 1996; Lampitt

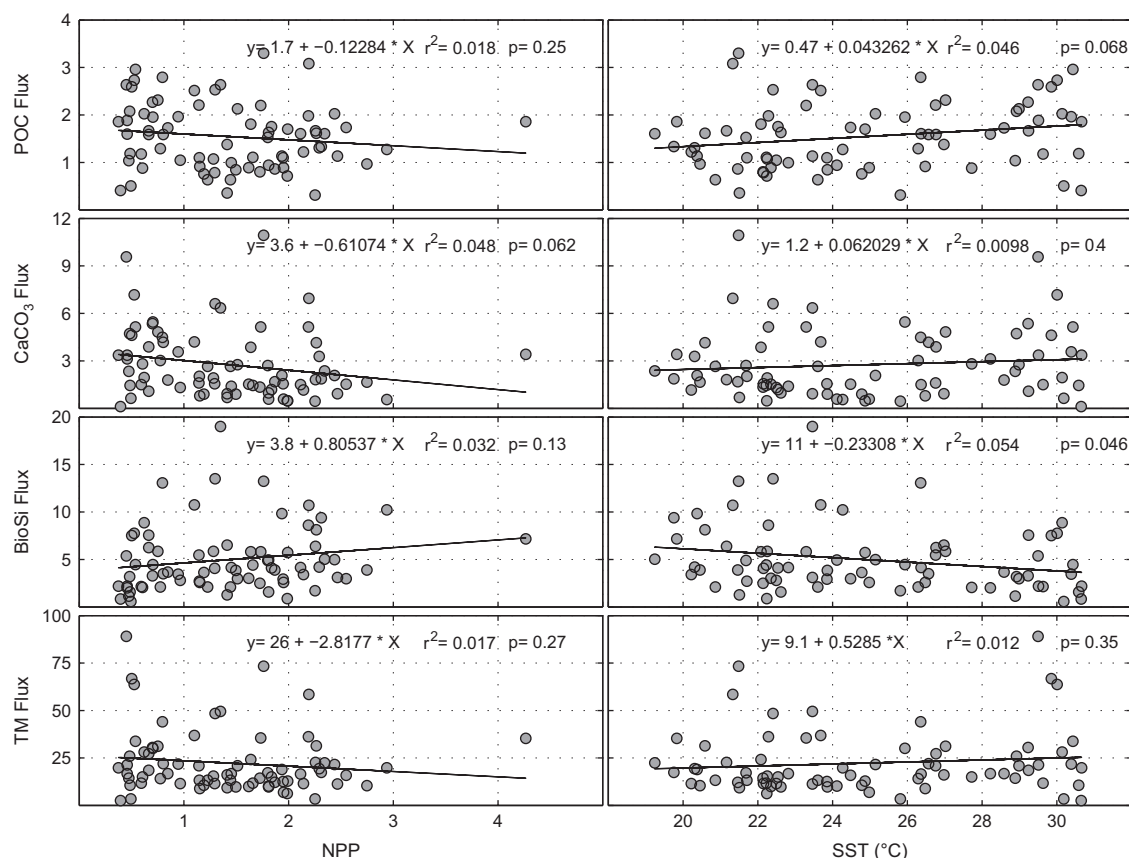


Fig. 7. (left) Linear regression fit of the satellite-derived mean monthly NPP versus the mean monthly POC, CaCO₃ and BioSi fluxes in corresponding sediment trap samples. (right). The same comparisons using SST. All units in $g\ m^{-2}\ d^{-1}$.

and Anita, 1997; Elskens et al., 2008; Stukel et al., 2011). This implies a high degree of remineralization of fresh organic matter and dissolution of biominerals within the photic zone and in the underlying mesopelagic “twilight zone”, as well as variable efficiency of “packaging” of organic matter into larger, rapidly settling aggregates, such as marine snow and fecal pellets (Silver and Gowing, 1991). Dunne et al. (2005) modeled the complex interaction between primary production, temperature, phytoplankton size structure and zooplankton grazing and POC export for a variety of open ocean provinces. They concluded that particle export is ultimately regulated by particle production and to a lesser degree by the ability to generate sinking material, the latter being dependent on phytoplankton size composition and temperature, with abundant large phytoplankton and relatively cold regions leading to more efficient POC export. Low POC export efficiencies in warm compared to cold environments have also been noted by Laws et al. (2000).

4.2. The relationship between ballast mineral and POC fluxes

In the open ocean, POC fluxes decrease exponentially with depth (e.g. Martin et al., 1987). Modelling of this phenomenon has led to the proposal that two classes of POC may exist: one consisting of free falling organic matter and the other associated with ballast particles, lithogenic mineral grains and the biominerals CaCO₃ and opal (Armstrong et al., 2002, 2009; Klaas and Archer, 2002; Lee et al., 2009). These studies showed that whereas POC:ballast ratios are high and variable in the surface ocean, they converge to a nearly constant value at depths > 1800 m. Above this depth much of the POC is considered to be unprotected “unballasted” material with low settling velocity, and, thus efficiently remineralized (rapid exponential decay) in the upper water

column. The greater density of the lithogenic and biogenic ‘mineral’ components increases the settling velocity of the aggregated organic matter. The latter is also thought to provide some form of mutual protection, i.e., reducing the rate of POC decay and mineral dissolution with depth. Accordingly, the “ballast ratio hypothesis” is that the fluxes of the ballast particles are good predictors of the POC flux in the bathypelagic zone of the open ocean (Armstrong et al., 2002, 2009; Klaas and Archer, 2002; Francois et al., 2002; Fischer et al., 2003).

The poor correlation between the POC flux at depth and primary productivity in the photic zone has also been noted in the Cariaco Basin on the continental margin of Venezuela (Thunell et al., 2007). Montes et al. (2012) showed that, for sediment traps located at 50 and 100 m depth within the photic zone of the Cariaco Basin, the POC flux was still significantly correlated with surface Chl-a, but that by 200 m depth, the biogenic fluxes had decreased by one order of magnitude and the correlation was lost. Furthermore, Thunell et al. (2007) also showed that the ballast flux was a good predictor of POC flux, not only for the multi-depth sediment trap arrays in Cariaco Basin, but also to the single-depth trap records for two other “upwelling-dominated” continental margin areas, Guaymas Basin in the central Gulf of California and Santa Barbara Basin off the California borderland.

Fig. 8a shows the linear regression correlations between the flux of various ballast components and POC for Alfonso Basin. The correlation coefficients obtained in Alfonso Basin, all significant with $p < 0.001$, are very similar (Table 2) to those obtained for the three continental margin basins included in Thunell et al. (2007). Clearly, the ballast-ratio hypothesis, including the strong association with CaCO₃ (Klaas and Archer, 2002; Francois et al., 2002), accounts for much of the variability in the POC flux in continental

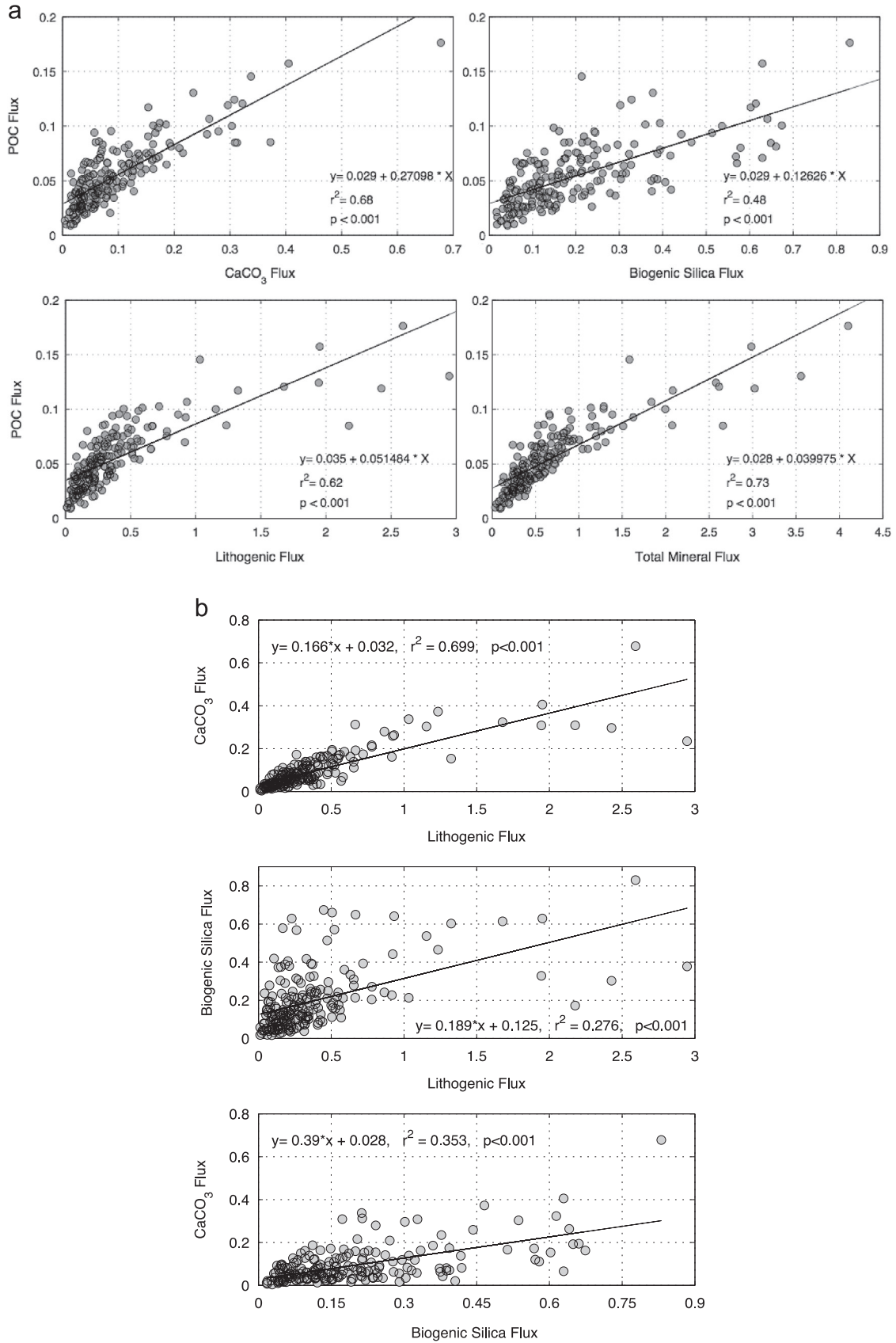


Fig. 8. (a) Linear least-squares regression between mean monthly fluxes of POC and total mineral ballast; lithogenic material, CaCO_3 and BioSi flux in sediment traps from Alfonso Basin. All units in $\text{g m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$. (b) Linear least-squares regression between mean monthly fluxes of lithogenic, CaCO_3 and BioSi flux in sediment traps from Alfonso Basin. All units in $\text{g m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$.

Table 2

Linear correlation coefficients between the POC flux versus that of and among the various ballast components in Alfonso Basin and the three seasonally-upwelling continental margin basins described in Thunell et al. (2007).

Basin	Linear correlation coefficient <i>r</i>							
	POC vs. ballast minerals					Between minerals		
	Trap depth	Total Mineral	CaCO ₃	Lithogenic	BioSi	CaCO ₃ :Litho	CaCO ₃ :BioSi	BioSi:Litho
Alfonso	310, 360 (After Thunell et al., 2007 Table 2)	0.86	0.82	0.79	0.69	0.84	0.59	0.53
Guaymas	475	0.81	0.69	0.75	0.44			
Santa Barbara	500	0.81	0.84	0.69	0.78			
Cariaco	230	0.80	0.82	0.73	0.84			
	410	0.81	0.86	0.73	0.87			
	All depths	0.82	0.83	0.77	0.84			
All sites		0.79	0.84	0.65	0.75			

margin basins that are much shallower than the bathypelagic zone of the open ocean.

The correlation between the POC and BioSi fluxes in the various basins is highly variable (Table 2), which Thunell et al. (2007) ascribed to different diatom ecosystems. In Alfonso Basin, the BioSi:POC correlation coefficient is intermediate between that of Cariaco Basin, where "...diatoms dominate the phytoplankton during the winter-spring upwelling period..." and that of Guaymas Basin, where "...the late fall-early winter period of high opal fluxes is dominated by *Coscinodiscus* and *Rhizosolenia*, two genera with large cell volumes...". In Alfonso Basin, the siliceous phytoplankton assemblage is composed of varying abundances of relatively small-sized cells of *Chaetoceros*, *Pseudo-nitzschia*, *Pseudo-guinaridi* and *Dactyliosolen* diatoms and a lesser number of silico-flagellate cells such as *Octactis pulcra* (Villegas-Aguilera, 2009).

Among the ballast minerals themselves, (Fig. 8b) there is a strong correlation ($r=0.84$, $p < 0.001$) between the CaCO₃ and Litho fluxes. Correlation coefficients are much lower for CaCO₃ vs. BioSi (0.59, $p < 0.001$) and BioSi vs. Litho (0.53, $p < 0.001$). Hence, the BioSi fluxes appear to be decoupled from the other ballast minerals. They are modulated by the nature and succession of diatom assemblages and their relative efficiency in transporting POC varies among marginal basins, possibly related to size structure (Thunell et al., 2007), and perhaps the manner by which BioSi becomes associated with POC (protection, adsorption, fecal pellets, marine snow). In Alfonso Basin, both lithogenic and CaCO₃ fluxes tend to be strongest during the fall and early winter (Fig. 5) as well as during strong hurricane events, coccolith production and fluxes apparently being stimulated by deep mixing of the water column at those times (Urcádiz-Cázares, 2005).

The two biominerals are generated during primary productivity (although CaCO₃ is also secreted by foraminifera and pteropods), so why should POC co-sediment preferentially with carbonate? Klaas and Archer (2002) attribute their relative transport efficiency to their relative density: calcium carbonate (2.71 g cm⁻³), lithogenic material (e.g. quartz 2.65 g cm⁻³), and opal (2.1 g cm⁻³). Furthermore, Engel et al. (2009b) suggested that biogenic calcite helps in the preservation of particulate organic matter (POM) by offering structural support for organic molecules. Nevertheless, other laboratory investigations of the association of POC with aggregate material (e.g. Iversen and Ploug, 2010; De La Rocha et al., 2008; Engel et al., 2009a) permit a variety of interpretations, and much of the work on marine snow aggregate formation and sinking (Aldredge and Silver, 1988; Passow et al., 2001) indicates that POM production and the aggregation phenomena modulate the mineral flux, rather than the opposite (Passow, 2004; Passow and De La Rocha, 2006). Trull et al. (2008) shared this opinion but suggested that whereas POM may control mineral fluxes in the upper ocean, the process grades to mineral control of the POM flux at depth. Continental margins are typically

richer in both organic matter production and particle-aggregating organisms and receive much greater input of terrigenous minerals than the open ocean. More information on the mechanisms that govern POM degradation processes and mineral dissolution in the twilight zone are needed to better understand the role of such environments in global geochemical cycles.

4.3. The importance of the lithogenic flux in Alfonso Basin

On average, the lithogenic fraction accounts for almost half of the TMF in Alfonso Basin, and clearly plays an important role in the transfer of POC to the deep water and sediments of this continental margin basin. Since Fe does not limit primary production close to the continent, primary productivity is independent of lithogenic material input in Alfonso Basin, although mechanisms (wind stress) that bring lithogenic components to Alfonso Basin may promote productivity by increasing the surface mixed layer depth. In contrast, one cannot readily dissociate the CaCO₃ and BioSi fluxes from primary productivity since they may be produced by the same organisms. With the exception of the very high fluxes associated with the infrequent passage of hurricanes over the narrow local drainage basin, lithogenic material is likely exported to the bay by eolian transport. Ternon et al. (2010) showed that in the Ligurian Sea the strongest POC fluxes were concomitant with large increases of the lithogenic marine flux, which had originated from recent and stored Saharan dust fallout events, as well as some riverine input. Rain gauges are few and far between in Baja California Sur and while the records from CIBNOR may not properly reflect precipitation further north along the bay, there is little correlation between the measured rainfall (Fig. 2b) and lithogenic fluxes.

The wind rose diagram (Fig. 9a) shows that the wind direction azimuths are constrained, particularly those associated with gusts strong enough to initiate erosion during the northern and southern monsoons. To evaluate the impact of wind transport, we calculated the number of wind gusts $> 4.5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ at 9 m height, the approximate threshold velocity for erosion of fine-sand modal desert soil (Helm and Breed, 1999; following Bagnold, 1941). The number of wind gusts was then summed over each year, excluding times influenced by hurricanes Ignacio, Marty and Henrietta. Although there is a significant correlation ($r=0.74$, $p=0.035$) between the total number of strong gusts in each year and the mean annual lithogenic flux to the sediment traps, most of this can be ascribed to northerly (WNW-N) gusts ($r=0.82$, Fig. 9b) rather than those from the south ($r=0.25$, $p \hat{=} 0.05$). This suggests that most of the windblown material originates from the coastal alluvium and the volcanic mountains to the N-WNW, rather than the alluvial deposits of the coastal plain and the granitic massif to the south of the bay, and even less to the fluvial drainage basin to

the west. Over the period of investigation, the number of intense wind gusts was lowest in 2005, as were both the lithogenic and biogenic fluxes. Periods of strong wind gusts, without rainfall, occurred just prior to the extreme TMFs of December 2007 and January 2009.

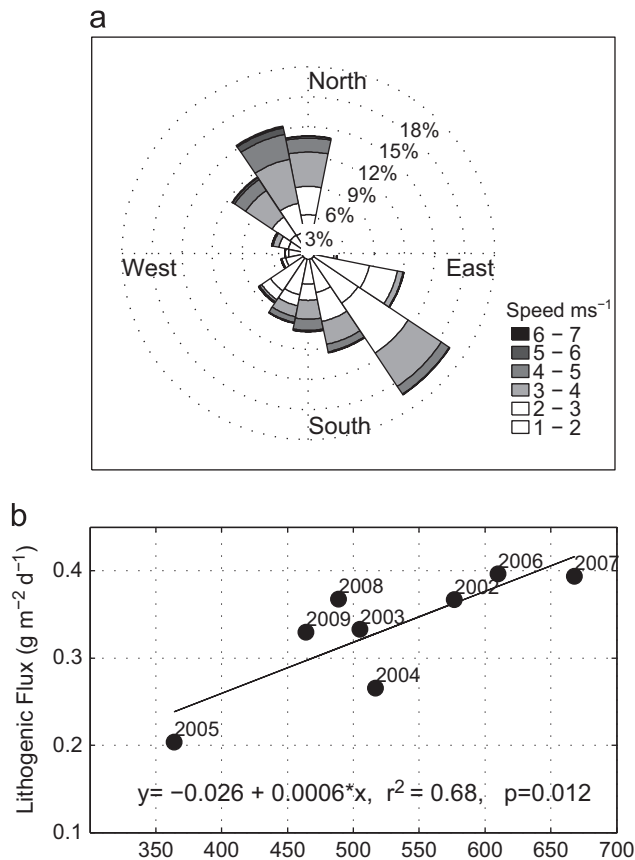


Fig. 9. (a) Windrose diagram showing the frequency (concentric rings), intensity and direction of winds recorded every 30 min between 2002 and 2009 at the CIBNOR meteorological station, La Paz Bay. (b) Linear least-squares regression (exclusive of hurricanes) between the annual mean lithogenic flux and the total number of wind gusts $> 4.5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ with the azimuth constrained to WNW-N, to include the greatest frequency of strong winds from the north (a).

Table 3

Mean annual total mass and other sediment trap component fluxes in a number of continental margin basins. The POC flux, extrapolated to the base of the photic zone (100 m) using the Martin curve (Martin et al., 1987) is included to aid comparison of organic carbon export.

Mean annual Flux ($\text{g m}^{-2} \text{y}^{-1}$)	Hidaka Basin (520 m) ^a Japan Margin	Laurentian trough (150 m) ^b Gulf of St. Lawrence	Cariaco Basin (230 m) ^c Caribbean Sea	Santa Barbara Basin (500 m) ^c California Margin	San Lázaro Basin (330 m) ^d Baja Margin	Gulf of Tehuantepec (350 m) ^e Southern Mexican Pacific	Guaymas Basin (475 m) ^e Gulf of California	Alfonso Basin (310;350 m) ^f Gulf of California
Total mass	105	174	327	818	89	107	152	269
Lithogenic	43	134*	187	529			52	133
BioSi	29	–	32	135			63	67
CaCO ₃	12	5	42	66		10	18	34
POM	8	35	68	88	19	18	19	44
POC @ 100 m	22	20	55	139	21	21	29	53

After:

* Litho + BioSi.

^a Otosaka and Noriki (2005).

^b Silverberg et al. (2000).

^c Thunell et al. (2007).

^d Silverberg et al. (2004).

^e Machain-Castillo et al. (2009).

^f This study.

4.4. Comparisons with other marginal basins

Table 3 shows that marginal basins can exhibit large differences in the fluxes and composition of the settling particulate matter. Despite the very limited land runoff, lithogenic matter fluxes account for almost half of the relatively high total mass flux in Alfonso Basin. They are almost three times greater than the mainly eolian input measured in Guaymas Basin (Thunell, 1998), but the Guaymas Basin trap was moored about 55 km from the Sonora coastline, whereas our trap sat only 12 km from shore. The biogenic component fluxes in Alfonso Basin are greater or equal to those in the basins listed in Table 3, except for the Santa Barbara Basin. Particulate fluxes in the Santa Barbara Basin display very strong seasonality, with high primary production in the spring and early summer and high river runoff in the fall and winter, enough to form annual varves in the underlying anoxic sediments. Despite the inverse seasonal relationship between the Litho and POC fluxes, the latter are sufficient even during the winter to yield a very high mean annual POM flux in Santa Barbara Basin. Because the various trap depths from the sites listed in Table 3 lie within the twilight zone of exponential POC flux decay, direct comparisons may be somewhat misleading. To better compare the export production in these coastal basins, values for the POC fluxes extrapolated to a common (photic zone) depth of 100 m are included in Table 3. The extrapolations were carried out according to the Martin POC-flux decay curve (Martin et al., 1987) that Montes et al. (2012) believe applicable to the POC fluxes in Cariaco Basin. Despite the lack of strong seasonal upwelling, the mean POC flux out of the photic zone in Alfonso Basin, $53 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, is similar to the Cariaco Basin and is larger than in the Guaymas Basin and several other marginal basins. In order to maintain such a large mean POC flux, despite the lack of the marked seasonality that commonly occurs in cooler climates and seasonal wind-generated upwelling areas, requires sustained moderate productivity throughout the year.

5. Conclusions

Fluxes of both lithogenic and biogenic components of settling particulate matter in Alfonso Basin are moderately high compared to other continental margin basins. The seasonally-alternating northerly and southerly wind regime influences the sedimentation pattern with fluxes, on average, being highest during the late fall and winter and

lowest in summer, but there is much variability from year to year. Extreme fluxes are associated with hurricanes that impact the area in some years during late summer, whereas others follow periods of strong gusts but no rainfall. The exact causes of the interannual variability remain unknown, but are probably the result of interactions of both local and regional forcings.

Primary production estimates derived from satellite imagery are poor predictors of the fluxes of the biogenic components, POC, CaCO₃ and BioSi, below the photic zone. As in other continental margin basins, the fluxes of CaCO₃, lithogenic material and BioSi, in that order (save for the Cariaco Basin, where BioSi is the dominant ballast mineral), correlate with the POC flux. Among these ballast components, there is significant correlation between the lithogenic and CaCO₃ fluxes, but both are more poorly correlated with the BioSi flux. The sedimenting lithogenic material appears to be of eolian origin, the source being mostly constrained to the N-WNW during winter, when winds are strongest. It makes up almost half of the total mass flux and is clearly an important ballasting agent in Alfonso Basin. Lithogenic

fluxes may perhaps be more useful paleoceanographic indicators of POC sedimentation than the more labile biogenic fluxes, particularly in areas close to the continents.

Acknowledgements

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Appendix A

Table 1

Results of the analyses of sediment trap samples collected between 2002 and 2009 in Alfonso Basin, SW Gulf of California.

Sample	Sample ID	No. Days	Total						Fluxes					
			Mass Flux g/m ² /d	Corg %	N %	Corg:N (molar)	CaCO ₃ %	BioSi %	Corg g/m ² /d	CaCO ₃	BioSi	Biogen	Litho	Litho %
2002														
1–17 Jan		17	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	
18–25 Jan ^a	I-1	8	1.102	6.44	0.69	10.8	6.00	57.1	0.071	0.066	0.629	0.873	0.229	21
26 Jan–2 Feb	I-2	8	0.692	5.83	0.66	10.3	9.17	54.1	0.040	0.063	0.375	0.539	0.153	22
3–10 Feb	I-3	8	1.378	4.79	nd	nd	8.68	41.4	0.066	0.120	0.571	0.856	0.522	38
11–17 Feb	I-4	7	1.263	5.04	0.61	9.7	11.0	24.6	0.064	0.139	0.310	0.608	0.655	52
18–24 Feb	I-5	7	0.597	6.20	0.79	9.2	9.74	36.8	0.037	0.058	0.220	0.370	0.227	38
25 Feb–3 Mar	I-6	7	1.535	6.55	0.81	9.4	10.6	43.9	0.101	0.162	0.674	1.088	0.447	29
3–10 Mar	I-7	7	0.780	6.58	0.79	9.7	10.3	49.7	0.051	0.081	0.388	0.597	0.183	23
11–17 Mar ^a	I-8	7	0.326	7.31	nd	nd	10.8	36.1	0.024	0.035	0.118	0.213	0.114	35
18–24 Mar ^a	I-9	7	0.255	7.51	nd	nd	15.4	27.2	0.019	0.039	0.069	0.156	0.098	39
25–31 Mar	I-10	7	0.227	nd	nd	nd	nd	43.6	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	
1–7 Apr ^a	I-11	7	0.291	7.63	nd	nd	10.2	28.3	0.022	0.030	0.082	0.168	0.124	42
7–14 Apr	I-12	7	0.166	nd	nd	nd	nd	30.0	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	
15–17 Apr		3	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	
18–24 Apr ^a	II-1	7	0.413	6.41	nd	nd	6.63	36.5	0.026	0.027	0.151	0.244	0.169	41
25 Apr–1 May ^a	II-2	7	0.374	9.00	nd	nd	7.76	51.2	0.034	0.029	0.192	0.305	0.070	19
2–8 May ^a	II-3	7	0.764	6.85	nd	nd	5.46	49.8	0.052	0.042	0.380	0.553	0.211	28
9–15 May	II-4	7	0.682	9.52	1.16	9.6	5.58	36.1	0.065	0.038	0.246	0.447	0.235	34
16–22 May	II-5	7	0.747	9.21	1.21	8.9	8.35	28.6	0.069	0.062	0.214	0.448	0.299	40
23–29 May	II-6	7	0.667	8.52	1.01	9.8	6.75	31.7	0.057	0.045	0.211	0.398	0.268	40
30 May–6 Jun ^a	II-7	8	0.438	6.23	nd	nd	4.84	32.0	0.027	0.021	0.140	0.230	0.208	48
7–14 Jun ^a	II-8	8	0.529	6.77	nd	nd	7.48	40.4	0.036	0.040	0.214	0.343	0.186	35
15–22 Jun	II-9	8	0.236	nd	nd	nd	nd	55.8	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	
23–30 Jun	II-10	8	0.065	nd	nd	nd	nd	99.0	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	
1–8 Jul	II-11	8	0.138	nd	nd	nd	nd	50.5	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	
9–16 Jul	II-12	8	0.157	nd	nd	nd	nd	61.1	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	
17 Jul–6 Aug		21	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	
7–14 Aug	III-1	8	0.149	nd	nd	nd	nd	99.0	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	
15–22 Aug	III-2	8	0.823	7.27	0.81	10.4	4.25	28.7	0.060	0.035	0.236	0.421	0.402	49
23–30 Aug	III-3	8	0.843	5.98	0.68	10.3	4.00	30.5	0.050	0.034	0.257	0.417	0.427	51
31 Aug–6 Sep	III-4	7	0.926	6.97	0.76	10.7	6.25	35.3	0.065	0.058	0.327	0.546	0.380	41
7–13 Sep	III-5	7	0.777	7.24	0.90	8.9	7.10	37.4	0.056	0.055	0.290	0.486	0.291	37
14–20 Sep	III-6	7	1.038	6.84	0.74	10.7	6.50	20.4	0.071	0.067	0.212	0.457	0.581	56
21–27 Sep ^a	III-7	7	1.023	7.66	nd	nd	6.92	38.5	0.078	0.071	0.394	0.660	0.363	35

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