

1 **Production of methanol, acetaldehyde and acetone in the Atlantic Ocean**

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9

10 **Abstract**

11 The biogeochemistry of oxygenated volatile organic compounds (OVOCs) like methanol,
12 acetaldehyde and acetone in marine waters is poorly understood. We report the first in situ
13 gross production rates for methanol, acetaldehyde and acetone of 49-103, 25-98 and 2-26
14 $\text{nmol L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$ over contrasting areas of marine productivity, including oligotrophic gyres and
15 eutrophic upwellings. Photochemical production estimates are mostly negligible for
16 methanol, up to 68% for acetaldehyde and up to 100% of gross production rates for acetone.
17 Microbial surface OVOC oxidation to CO_2 accounts for between 10-50% and 0.5-13% of the
18 methanol and acetone losses respectively, but largely control acetaldehyde concentrations
19 (49-100%). Biological lifetimes in a coastal upwelling vary between ≤ 1 day for
20 acetaldehyde, to approximately 7 days for methanol and up to ~ 80 days for acetone. In open
21 oceanic environments the lifetime of acetaldehyde ranges between 2-5 hours, compared to
22 10-26 days for methanol and 5-55 days for acetone.

23

24 **1. Introduction**

25 Oxygenated volatile organic compounds (OVOCs) including methanol, acetaldehyde and
26 acetone are ubiquitous in the atmosphere [e.g. Lewis et al., 2005; Singh et al., 1995, 2003]
27 where they affect the tropospheric ozone budget, are precursors to peroxy acetyl nitrate
28 (PAN) and, in the remote marine environment, represent a significant sink of the hydroxyl
29 radical and thus the oxidising capacity of the lower atmosphere [Folkins and Chatfield, 2000;
30 Lewis et al., 2005]. In remote marine air, oceanic sources and sinks of OVOCs are assumed
31 to be significant in controlling air concentrations [Read et al., 2012], although the magnitude
32 and direction of the OVOC air-sea fluxes are a matter of debate [Beale et al., 2013; Carpenter
33 et al., 2004; Heikes et al., 2002; Marandino et al., 2005; Taddei et al., 2009; Williams et al.,
34 2004] largely as a consequence of extremely limited OVOC measurements in oceanic surface
35 waters. Knowledge of OVOC production and loss rates, and an appreciation of the
36 mechanisms involved in our oceans are also lacking.

37

38 The carbonyl compounds acetaldehyde and acetone are thought to be produced in surface
39 waters by the photodegradation of coloured dissolved organic matter (CDOM) [de Bruyn et
40 al., 2011; Kieber et al., 1990; Zhou and Mopper, 1997]. Modelling studies have suggested
41 that there must be a large marine in situ source of methanol in the ocean mixed layer [Millet
42 et al., 2008], which is speculated to be biological in nature. For example, methanol has been
43 observed in the gaseous headspace above laboratory phytoplankton cultures and in water
44 surrounding intact macroalgal cells [Nightingale, 1991, Riemer, 1998]. Bacterial consortia
45 are also thought able to transform algal carbohydrates to methanol in the upper aerobic ocean
46 [Sieburth and Keller, 1989].

47

48 In this paper we present results of incubation experiments conducted on seawater samples
49 collected from contrasting regions of the Atlantic Ocean; from oligotrophic gyres to
50 productive upwelling locations. This work was conducted to test our hypothesis that
51 biological activity plays a significant role in controlling measured seawater concentrations
52 and production rates of OVOCs in marine waters.

53

54 **2. Experiments and Techniques**

55 Seawater samples were collected from the Atlantic Ocean (Table 1) during two research
56 cruises (a) SOLAS ICON (Surface Ocean Lower Atmosphere Study, UK ‘The Impact of
57 Coastal upwellings ON the production of climate active gases’) aboard the RRS Discovery
58 (D338, 15 April – 27 May 2009) and (b) AMT19 (Atlantic Meridonal Transect cruise number
59 19) aboard RRS James Cook (JC039, 13 October – 1 December 2009). Samples were
60 collected with 20 L Niskin bottles deployed on a rosette equipped with a Seabird
61 conductivity, temperature and depth sensors. The seawater was immediately transferred using
62 Tygon tubing into acid washed quartz incubation vessels (internal diameter 20 mm, length
63 300 mm) with Teflon screw caps (~300 ml).

64

65 The first incubation experiment (Table 1 and Figures 1& 2a) was carried out using surface
66 seawater and water collected from 200m depth, with parallel incubation vessels incubated
67 under in situ light and dark conditions. The subsequent 5 photochemical incubation
68 experiments (Table 1 and Figure 1 & 2b-d) were carried out with surface seawater only at in
69 situ temperatures starting pre-dawn and ending after sunset. Typically each experiment had 4-
70 6 time points from which net change in concentrations were derived. Quartz incubation
71 vessels were placed in on deck incubators with flowing surface seawater during the natural
72 light incubations and for dark experiments the quartz vessels were placed in temperature
73 controlled ThermoTote incubators. Seawater concentrations of methanol, acetaldehyde and

74 acetone were determined at each time point using a membrane inlet system coupled to a
75 proton transfer reaction mass spectrometer [Beale et al., 2011]. In situ initial (T_0)
76 concentrations of OVOCs were also determined using the same analytical system (Table 1).

77

78 Microbial oxidation rates of methanol, acetaldehyde and acetone were determined using ^{14}C -
79 labelled low nano-molar additions (<10% of in situ concentrations) and incubations of
80 typically 1 hour either in quartz micro tubes placed in the light incubators, or in the dark
81 [Dixon et al., 2011a]. OVOC uptake rates in $\text{nmol L}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ were calculated by multiplying the
82 sample counts ($\text{nCi mL}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$) by the specific activity of the ^{14}C compound (methanol 57.1
83 mCi mmol^{-1} , acetaldehyde 50 mCi mmol^{-1} , acetone 30 Ci mmol^{-1}). In order to calculate the
84 total loss of OVOCs over 24 hours due to microbial oxidation, rates were integrated over 12
85 hours in light and dark experiments and combined (Table 1). Microbial oxidation was
86 assumed to be the dominant biological removal pathway [Dixon et al., 2011b] and OVOC
87 uptake into microbial biomass was not determined during the experiments. Microbial loss
88 rates calculated for methanol (as methanol oxidation rates) in the coastal upwelling station
89 should be considered minimum values, as up to 57% of methanol can be assimilated into
90 microbial biomass (rates are not known for acetaldehyde and acetone) [Dixon et al., 2012].

91

92 **3. Results**

93 Results from experiment 1 in the Mauritanian coastal upwelling region (U1) are shown in
94 Figure 2a. Methanol showed a net production of 44 nmol L^{-1} in surface waters over 12 hours
95 incubation in the light, but zero change under dark incubations conditions giving a daily net
96 production of $44 \text{ nmol L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$. Methanol showed no overall change in concentration in 200 m
97 samples under light and dark conditions i.e. $0 \text{ nmol L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$. Surface acetaldehyde showed net
98 production of 7.6 in the light, but a loss of 2.7 nmol L^{-1} in the dark, giving a daily net
99 production rate of $4.9 \text{ nmol L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$. Acetaldehyde from 200 m when exposed to the light for

100 12 hours showed a net increase of 9.4 nmol L^{-1} , with no overall change in concentration in
101 the dark resulting in a daily net production rates of $9.4 \text{ nmol L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$. However, water sampled
102 from 200 m would not receive any natural light, thus in situ acetaldehyde production rates are
103 assumed to be $\sim 0 \text{ nmol L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$. Acetone always showed net production in surface waters of
104 18.5 and 7.5 nmol L^{-1} in light and dark incubations respectively, resulting in daily net
105 production rates of $26 \text{ nmol L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$. Acetone production in 200 m water was 12.8 and 3.5
106 nmol L^{-1} in light and dark incubations respectively, resulting in a daily net production rate of
107 $7.0 \text{ nmol L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ i.e. twice the 200 m dark rate. The difference in production rates between
108 200m water incubated in light and dark conditions of 9.4 and 9.3 nmol L^{-1} for acetaldehyde
109 and acetone respectively suggests that these deeper upwelling waters contain acetaldehyde
110 and acetone pre-cursors; possibly from sinking phytoplankton detritus derived from the above
111 highly productive waters. Integrated microbial OVOC oxidation rates were not determined
112 during experiment 1.

113

114 OVOC net production rates from experiments 2-6 are shown in Figure 2b-d. In the low
115 chlorophyll a ($<0.1 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) surface waters of the Atlantic gyres and equatorial upwelling (EU,
116 Experiments 3-5, Figure 1 and Table s1) methanol shows net daily losses of between 22 - 428
117 $\text{nmol L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$. For higher chlorophyll stations ($>1.0 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) of the southern temperate region
118 (ST) and Mauritanian coastal upwelling (U2) methanol shows net daily production rates of 89
119 and $93 \text{ nmol L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ respectively. Acetaldehyde net production rates ranged between 13 - 35
120 $\text{nmol L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in all regions sampled, except the North Atlantic gyre (NAG), which showed no
121 overall change in concentration over 24 hours. Acetone net daily production rates were
122 relatively modest compared to acetaldehyde, and ranged between 2 - $4 \text{ nmol L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in open
123 ocean low chlorophyll a regions (Experiments 3-5, Table 1). In higher chlorophyll a waters of
124 coastal upwellings, net acetone production rates up to $26 \text{ nmol L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ were found (Figure 2).

125 Daily integrated methanol loss rates due to microbial oxidation ranged between 10-18 nmol
126 L⁻¹ d⁻¹ for experiments 3-6 (Table 1) and were highest in NAG. Microbial acetaldehyde
127 oxidation rates were relatively higher at 36-65 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ with highest loss rates in South
128 Atlantic gyre water (SAG, Table 1). In contrast, microbial acetone oxidation rates were
129 modest at 0.2-0.5 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹.

130

131 **4. Discussion**

132 Methanol showed a daily net production of 44 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ in surface waters of U1 (Figure
133 2a). We do not have concurrent rates of microbial methanol oxidation, but estimate that rates
134 were ~5 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ (based on surface water rates on 9th May 2009). Surface methanol gross
135 production rates were therefore estimated at ~49 nmol L⁻¹ day, with microbial loss processes
136 accounting for ~10% reduction in methanol production rates at U1. Methanol production and
137 consumption rates balanced in seawater samples from 200 m (dark and below the mixed
138 layer). Microbial methanol oxidation rates of ~20 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ from a day later at 200m were
139 much larger than surface values, which suggests that gross methanol production was ~20
140 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ (~ 41% of surface rates). The ICON experiment was conducted in a Lagrangian
141 framework with SF₆ and ³He measurements confirming that we sampled the same water mass
142 on the 8th and 9th May 2009. The biological lifetime of methanol in seawater was 7 days in
143 surface waters, and ~3 days in 200 m water from U1 (Table 1, calculated by comparing in
144 situ concentrations (T₀) with daily integrated microbial oxidation rates).

145

146 Microbial acetaldehyde oxidation rates were much higher than for methanol at 60 and 44
147 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ in surface and 200 m waters respectively (on 9th May 2009). Assuming these
148 rates are comparable to those of experiment 1 (8th May 2009), we estimate gross surface
149 acetaldehyde production rates of approximately 65 and 54 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ for surface and 200 m

150 water respectively, with microbial oxidation largely controlling acetaldehyde concentrations.

151 The biological lifetime of acetaldehyde in U1 is ~6 hours in surface and 200 m water.

152

153 Microbial acetone oxidation rates (also determined on 9th May 2009) were comparatively low

154 at 0.11 and 0.05 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ in surface and 200m water respectively. We therefore estimate

155 gross surface acetone production rates to be very similar to net rates, at fractionally over 26

156 and 7 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹, for surface and 200 m respectively. Thus for acetone, microbial losses due

157 to oxidation are minor. The biological lifetime of acetone at U1 is >80 days in surface waters

158 and ~20 days at 200 m, where in situ acetone concentrations were relatively low at 9 and 1

159 nM respectively (Table 1). The microbial acetone loss rates reported in this study are

160 substantially lower than those of a coastal station in the Pacific Ocean, where biotic losses

161 were estimated at ~2.7 d⁻¹ [de Bruyn et al., 2013], which if multiplied by our in situ acetone

162 concentrations (Table 1) suggest biologically driven loss rates between 2.7-24 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹.

163 This large difference could represent differences in location. Alternatively, the large spike of

164 fully deuterated (d-6) acetone (4-26 nM or 44-288% of our in situ acetone surface

165 concentrations determined at station 1, Table 1) used by de Bruyn et al. [2013] may

166 overestimate losses of acetone at in situ concentrations.

167

168 The large net losses of methanol found in surface waters of NAG and EU cannot be fully

169 explained (Figure 2b). Microbial methanol oxidation accounts for 3-4% of the total daily loss

170 of methanol at these stations (Table 1). This suggests other removal mechanisms, perhaps via

171 microbial uptake of methanol (given the high surface concentrations of 272-304 nM, Table 1)

172 and subsequent excretion of overflow metabolites as other organic intermediates. However in

173 the SAG, where surface methanol concentrations are approximately 3 fold lower, measured

174 microbial losses account for ~50% of methanol loss. There is net production of methanol in

175 higher chlorophyll regions of the ST and U2. For ST waters integrated microbial oxidation
176 rates were $14 \text{ nmol L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ (Table 1). Thus gross methanol production in this biologically
177 active region is estimated at $103 \text{ nmol L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$, with a biological lifetime more similar to the
178 coastal upwelling regions of 10 days. Methanol production rates in U2 can also be corrected
179 for microbial oxidation estimated at $9.8 \text{ nmol L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ (from 21st May 2009 in the same
180 upwelling water mass) resulting also in methanol gross production rates of $103 \text{ nmol L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$,
181 which is over double the previous surface rate estimate in U1, but the biological lifetime is
182 the same at ~ 7 days (Table 1). This increase in methanol production rates between U1 and U2
183 could be due to an increase in rates of primary and bacterial productivity of over 80% (Table
184 s1), if the main source of methanol is either from phytoplankton cells [Nightingale, 1991,
185 Riemer, 1998] or from bacterial breakdown of algal products [Sieburth and Keller, 1989]. It
186 is also interesting that net production of methanol negatively correlates with surface
187 temperature ($r=-0.854$, $P>0.05$).

188

189 Acetaldehyde net production rates can be corrected for microbial losses due to oxidation
190 giving estimated gross production rates (assuming microbial oxidation is the major loss
191 mechanism in seawater) of 41, 50, 98 and $87 \text{ nmol L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ for the NAG, EU, SAG and ST
192 waters respectively. Estimated microbial oxidation rates of acetaldehyde for U2 of 12 nmol
193 $\text{L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ (on 21st May 2009) result in a relatively lower gross production of $25 \text{ nmol L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$.
194 This is lower than observed for acetaldehyde in U1, principally due to a higher microbial
195 acetaldehyde oxidation rate of $60 \text{ nmol L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$. This trend between the 2 upwelling filaments
196 i.e. U1 and U2 for acetaldehyde is opposite to that found for methanol, and could reflect
197 decreasing microbial requirement for acetaldehyde as a preferential energy source in U2,
198 perhaps due to an elevated range or quantity of organic sources from enhanced microbial

199 activity. Overall the biological acetaldehyde lifetimes in open oceanic waters are 2-5 h
200 (experiments 3-6 Table 1), but up to 24 h in upwelling filaments.

201

202 Microbial acetaldehyde oxidation rates in surface waters are always equal to, or significantly
203 greater than net production rates, implying strong microbial control of acetaldehyde
204 concentrations in seawater (Table 1). High atmospheric acetaldehyde at Cape Verde in the
205 Atlantic Ocean [Read et al., 2012] compared to the Indian [Wisthaler et al., 2002] and Pacific
206 Oceans [Singh et al., 2003] have been attributed to high photoproduction of acetaldehyde in
207 the biologically active upwelling regions of the West African coast. The fraction of
208 acetaldehyde gross production attributed to photochemical production ranges between 16-
209 68% for the coastal upwelling and NAG locations, closest to the Cape Verde (Table s2). Our
210 results also demonstrate the significance of surface ocean microbes in reducing and
211 controlling oceanic acetaldehyde concentrations, and could account for a lower global
212 oceanic source of 17 Tg y^{-1} based on in situ seawater concentrations [Beale et al., 2013],
213 compared to estimates of $57\text{-}175 \text{ Tg y}^{-1}$ based largely on modelled air data [Millet et al.,
214 2010, Singh et al., 2004].

215

216 In the open ocean acetone losses due to microbial oxidation (Table 1) are relatively small
217 resulting in gross production rates approximately 9-13% higher than net rates (Table 1,
218 assuming microbial oxidation is the dominant loss pathway). Although microbial acetone
219 oxidation rates from U2 (on 21st May 2009) were higher at $1.2 \text{ nmol L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ (gross production
220 of $15.9 \text{ nmol L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$), elevated net production rates suggest a reduced role for bacteria in
221 removing acetone from surface seawater. Our results contrast with those from coastal Pacific
222 experiments [de Bruyn et al., 2013] as discussed previously. Comparison of in situ acetone
223 concentrations (T_0 , Table 1) with microbial oxidation rates suggests that acetone has a

224 biological lifetime of ~41-55 days in the oligotrophic gyres, ~23 days in EU water, ~5 days in
225 ST waters and 3-82 days in the highly productive coastal upwelling waters. Acetone
226 production is always greater when exposed to light compared to dark conditions (Figure 2d)
227 and photochemical production is estimated at 48-100% of gross production (Table s2), except
228 in the NAG where production in the dark is approximately equal to that in the light. This
229 could be due to elevated microbial acetone oxidation rates in the light (Table 1). Acetone
230 oxidation rates correlate with bacterial production ($r=0.856$, $P>0.05$) and Beale et al. [2013]
231 report a negative relationship between acetone seawater concentrations and bacterial
232 production. Thus although acetone oxidation rates are low, these relationships suggest that as
233 bacterial production increases so does the rate of microbial acetone oxidation, leading to a
234 reduction in the in situ concentration of acetone. Net acetone production rates also correlate
235 with the numbers of picoeukaryotic cells ($r=0.926$, $P>0.05$), whilst gross production rates
236 normalised to CDOM (α_{350} , Table 1) explain approximately 67% of the observed spatial
237 variability (reducing it from 9 to 3 fold). Thus we suggest that acetone production is mainly
238 photochemical [de Bruyn et al., 2011; Kieber et al., 1990; Zhou and Mopper, 1997], and
239 seems to be related to the UV breakdown of CDOM originating from the number of pico-
240 eukaryotic cells.

241

242 Spatial differences in the daily UV dose, CDOM (α_{350}) and the diffuse light attenuation
243 coefficient K_d (340 nm) are shown in Table 1. However for methanol and acetaldehyde
244 normalising the gross production rates by any of the aforementioned parameters in isolation
245 or combination does not help explain the spatial variability.

246

247 Microbial oxidation rates (integrated to 1m) are compared to air-sea flux estimates from the
248 same cruises [Beale et al.,2013: Beale, 2011] (Table s3). Comparisons suggest that for

249 methanol, microbial oxidation (loss) is of the same order of magnitude as the air-sea flux. For
250 acetaldehyde the biological loss is an order of magnitude higher than the air-sea flux, and for
251 acetone biological losses due to oxidation are an order of magnitude lower than the air-sea
252 flux.

253

254 We conclude that in productive coastal upwelling filaments the gross production of methanol,
255 acetaldehyde and acetone is 49-103, 25-65 and 16-26 $\text{nmol L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$ respectively. Microbial
256 oxidation reduces net surface production rates by 10%, 50-92% and 0.5-8% for methanol,
257 acetaldehyde and acetone respectively. Biological lifetimes vary between ≤ 1 day for
258 acetaldehyde, to approximately 7 days for methanol and up to ~ 80 days for acetone.

259

260 In oceanic regions methanol largely showed a net loss in the incubations, of which only 3-4%
261 could be attributed to microbial oxidation rates in the NAG and EU regions, although this
262 increased to 50% for the SAG. Gross methanol production of $103 \text{ nmol L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$ in the ST
263 eutrophic region (methanol biological lifetime ~ 10 days) was highly comparable to higher
264 chlorophyll a waters of the Mauritanian upwelling filaments. Acetaldehyde gross production
265 rates in open ocean environs varied between $41\text{-}98 \text{ nmol L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$ and were highest in the SAG.
266 In agreement with coastal upwelling experiments, surface concentrations were controlled by
267 microbial loss processes (60-100%) with a biological lifetime of 2-5 h. In contrast, acetone
268 gross production rates were relatively low between $2.2\text{-}4.5 \text{ nmol L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$, with microbial
269 oxidation reducing production rates by 8-13% (Table 1). The biological lifetime of surface
270 acetone in remote low chlorophyll a ($< 0.1 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) regions was 23-55 days, which reduced to
271 a minimum of 3-5 days in productive waters (chlorophyll a $> 0.5 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$).

272

273 Our results suggest that methanol photochemical production is relatively insignificant and
274 concentrations are controlled by microbial oxidation and overflow metabolism, surface
275 seawater acetaldehyde concentrations are largely controlled by microbial losses and
276 photochemical production, and acetone production is mainly photochemical with relatively
277 low microbial loss rates. We have thus highlighted the importance of the ocean in both the
278 production and consumption of these atmospherically important OVOC compounds and have
279 highlighted significant compound and spatial differences.

280

281 **Acknowledgements**

282 We thank all the scientists, officers and crew of the RRS Discovery and James Cook during
283 D338 and JC029. We also thank C. Widdicombe for primary production rates and
284 chlorophyll a concentrations, S Sargeant for bacterial production rates (for experiments 3-6),
285 T. Smyth for UV and K_d (AMT) data, V. Kitidis for K_d and CDOM data (ICON) and G,
286 Tilstone for CDOM (AMT) data. This study was supported by the UK Natural
287 Environmental Research Council (NERC) via UK SOLAS and Oceans 2025 funding for
288 Plymouth Marine Laboratory. This is contribution number 239 of the AMT programme.

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