

S1. Schematic of the circulation in the Western Pacific

 $\begin{array}{c} 21 \\ 22 \end{array}$ **Figure S1.** *Schematic map of the western tropical Pacific Ocean circulation. The currents are the North Equatorial Current (NEC), South Equatorial Current (SEC), St Georges Undercurrent (SGU), Mindanao Current (MC), New Guinea Coastal Undercurrent (NGCU), New Ireland Coastal Undercurrent (NICU), and Equatorial Undercurrent (EUC). The Mindanao Eddy (ME), the Halmahera Eddy (HE), and the New Guinea Eddy (NGE) are also shown. Modified from Grenier et al. [2011].*

S2. OFAM3 validation

 As detailed in *Qin et al.* [2015], the characteristics of the EUC are simulated relatively well in OFAM3. In particular, the variability of the EUC is reproduced successfully but some biases exist in the mean EUC transport. Here we focus on evaluating the characteristics of the NGCU and particularly interannual variability in NGCU transport and zonally averaged 35 velocities for El Niño and neutral years at 142^0E (Figure S2). The mean NGCU transport in 36 OFAM3 is consistent with the observed moored ADCP transport at $2.5^{\circ}S$ 142⁰E (*Ueki et al.*) [2003], Figure S2a) at the 95 % confidence level, with very similar variability (standard deviations of 4.8 vs. 5 Sv for simulated and observed current transports, respectively).

 Figure S2. *NGCU variability. Time series of OFAM3 NGCU transport at the meridional section at 3°S-0.5°S, 142°E compared with a) Ueki et al. [2003] (red) as monthly means (black) and b) OFAM3 Nino3.4 index (green) as 3-day series smoothed with a 6 month running average (blue). The transport and Nino3.4 index in b) are smoothed with a 6 month running average. The time averaged zonal velocity of the NGCU at 142°E during c) July-September 1995 (neutral year) and d) July-September 1998 (El Niño year).*

47 The simulated NGCU transport is anti-correlated $(r = -0.47)$ with the model Nino3.4 index (Figure S2b), consistent with previous studies, such that NGCU transport is greatest during El Niño events and lowest during La Niña events. The zonal velocity in the core of the NGCU intensifies during El Niño years compared to neutral years (Figures S2c-d), in agreement with observations [*Ryan et al.*, 2006; *Ueki et al.*, 2003]. In addition, the core of the NGCU in 52 OFAM3 is at \sim 200 m with a mean speed of 0.4 ms⁻¹ which is in good agreement with 53 observations [*Johnson et al.*, 2002; *Ueki et al.*, 2003]. The maximum speed of $\sim 0.7 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ is 54 only marginally lower than the observed 0.8 ms⁻¹ described in *Mackey et al.* [2002].

56 As for the NICU, the net Eulerian transport in OFAM3 at the section 5.1° S, 152.1° E-155.4^oE in the upper 300 m is 6 Sv with an annual range of 4.4-8.8 Sv. These values are at the high end but still comparable to the observations of 4-5 Sv [*Butt and Lindstrom*, 1994; *Cravatte et al.*, 2011]. As such, the NGCU and NICU are reproduced with considerable fidelity in OFAM3.

 Next, we consider how well OFAM3 simulates equatorial productivity, as this affects iron remineralisations and phytoplankton uptake of iron (see Equations A1-A10). The fidelity of Chlorophyll-a (Chl-a) in OFAM3 is examined by comparison with observed Chl-a from SeaWIFS (http://oceandata.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/SeaWiFS/). The tropical Pacific SeaWiFS mean Chl-a field (Figure S3b) is highest along the equator, extending from the coast of South 67 America to about 150^0 E – 160^0 E. These features are evident in the model estimates but the Chl-a values are overestimated off the Equator in the Central Pacific, while being underestimated in the Eastern Equatorial Pacific.

 Observed Chl-a variance is high along the equator associated with variability in wind driven upwelling (Figure S3d). There are also two zonal bands of high Chl-a variability in the central and eastern tropical Pacific, at about 5°N and 10°N that are associated with the North Equatorial Current and the North Equatorial Counter Current respectively [*Oke et al.*, 2012]. Compared to SeaWiFS, OFAM3 variability (Figure S3c) is relatively lower along the equator, while variability off the equator is much higher. As remineralisation of organic matter at depth increases the iron concentration, an underestimated export production in the EEP at 110°W could lead to less sinking of organic matter and an underestimation of the simulated iron content in the EUC. However, as mentioned in previous studies [*Gorgues et al.*, 2010], and diagnosed in our iron budget calculations the contribution of biological

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85 *a from a) OFAM3 and b) SeaWIFS and Chl-a standard deviation from c) OFAM3 and d) SeaWIFS.*

90 **S3. Model Description**

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92 In Lagrangian form, the equation for the evolution of iron along a Lagrangian particle

93 trajectory is given by:

94

$$
\frac{DFe}{Dt} = Fe_{src} + Fe_{reg} - Fe_{phy} - Fe_{scav}
$$
 (A1)

95 in which iron change DFe/Dt in nM day⁻¹.

96

97 The biological terms, remineralization (Fe_{reg}) and uptake by phytoplankton (Fe_{phy}), are calculated according to the parameterisations used in Whole Ocean Model with Biogeochemistry and Trophic-dynamics (WOMBAT) biogeochemical model which is coupled to OFAM3 [*Oke et al.*, 2012].

101

$$
Fe_{reg} = 0.02 \times (\mu_D Det + \gamma_2 Z + \mu_P P) \tag{A1}
$$

$$
Fe_{phy} = 0.02 \times \bar{J}(z, t, T, N, \text{Fe})P)
$$
 (A2)

102 *Fe_{reg}* is a combination of organic matter remineralised from detritus (*Det*), zooplankton (*Z*) 103 excretion, and phytoplankton (P) mortality. Fe_{phy} is the uptake of iron for phytoplankton 104 growth, which is a function of temperature (*T*), light (*I*) and nutrient concentration (nitrate (*N)* 105 and *Fe*). A factor of 0.02 in Equations A1 and A2 is used to relate changes in iron to nitrate 106 using a Redfield molar ratio for Fe:N of 2.0×10^{-5} :1. *P, Z and Det* are expressed in units of 107 mmol N m⁻³ and **Fe** is in μ mol.m⁻³ (nM).

109 *Fe* is the only prognostic variable in the iron model and is indicated in bold while all other

110 variables (*T*, *N*, *P*, *Z*, *Det*) are taken from OFAM3. In OFAM3, changes in *P, Z* and *D* are 111 calculated as described in *Oke et al.* [2012]:

112

$$
\frac{DP}{Dt} = \bar{J}(z, t, T, N, \mathbf{Fe})P - G(P, Z) - \mu_P P
$$
\n(A3)

$$
\bar{J}(z, t, T, N, \mathbf{Fe}) = J_{max}(T) \times min\left[\frac{J(z, t, T)}{J_{max}(T)}, \frac{N}{N + k_N}, \frac{\mathbf{Fe}}{\mathbf{Fe} + k_{Fe}}\right]
$$
(A4)

$$
J(z, t, T) = J_{max}(T)(1 - e^{-\alpha I(z, t)/J_{max}(T)})
$$
\n
$$
I(z, t) = PAR \times I(0, t) \times Frac
$$
\n(A6)

$$
J_{max}(T) = ab^{cT} \tag{A7}
$$

$$
\frac{DZ}{Dt} = \gamma_1 G(P, Z) - \gamma_2 Z - \mu_Z Z^2
$$
 (A8)

$$
G(P, Z) = \frac{g \varepsilon P^2}{g + \varepsilon P^2} Z
$$
 (A9)

$$
\frac{DDet}{Dt} = (1 - \gamma_1)G(P, Z) + \mu_Z Z^2 - \mu_D Det - w_D \frac{dDet}{dz}
$$
 (A10)

DP/Dt, DZ/Dt and *DDet/Dt* are calculated as a local effect rather than evolved along the trajectory as with *Fe* in Equation 1. That is, the *P*, *Z* and *Det* values to be used in Equations A1 and A2 are updated at each point along the Lagrangian trajectory from solving Equations A3, A9 and A10 using the previous *Fe* calculated along the Lagrangian trajectory but using the local Eulerian WOMBAT *P*, *Z* and *Det* values from the previous time step. In this way, the concentration of iron along the trajectory still has some impact on the biological effect. The implications of having a local biological effect not evolved along the trajectory are discussed in Text S7.

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122 Changes in phytoplankton (DP/Dt) depends on the growth term $\bar{J}(z, t, T, N, \mathbf{Fe})P$, grazing 123 by zooplankton $G(P, Z)$ and mortality $(\mu_P P)$. $\overline{f}(z, t, T, N, \overline{F}e)$ governs the phytoplankton 124 growth rate and is a function of temperature (*T*), light (*I*) and nutrient concentration (*N* and 125 *Fe*). The growth rate \bar{J} is given by Equations A4-A7 where J_{max} is the maximum 126 phytoplankton growth at a given *T*, assuming no light or nutrient limitation; $J(z, t, T)$ is the 127 impact of light on growth rate. Equation A8 describes the zooplankton, represented as the 128 balance between growth due to phytoplankton grazing $G(P, Z)$ and losses due to zooplankton 129 excretions $(\gamma_2 Z)$ and mortality $(\mu_Z Z^2)$. Grazing of phytoplankton $(G(P, Z))$, Equation A9) 130 depends on the efficiency of zooplankton grazing on phytoplankton. Equation A10 describes 131 the detritus changes and includes input from zooplankton grazing and mortality, as well as 132 terms for detrital decomposition ($\mu_D Det$) and sinking ($w_D \times dDet/dz$). See Table S1 for 133 parameter values and descriptions.

134

135 **Table S1.** *Biological parameters of the iron model and their values taken from Oke et al. [2012].* 136

137 **S4. Lagrangian iron model validation**

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139 We performed some initial experiments to test the efficacy of the Lagrangian iron model 140 (main text: Equation 1) against simulated iron fields in OFAM3 (i.e. not using any 141 observational constraints). The Lagrangian particle iron concentrations at the source sections,

 Fesrc, were derived from the corresponding simulated OFAM3 iron values. The iron concentration of each particle was then calculated along its trajectory using Equation 1. The Lagrangian iron concentration calculated was then compared to the local Eulerian OFAM3 iron values once the particles reach 170°W.

 The correlation between Lagrangian model and OFAM3 6-day iron concentration time series averaged spatially over all particles that reach the EUC core (as defined when particles are 149 initialised) at 170°W is high ($r = 0.97$) and the time series means were not statistically different (Figure S4a). The spatial distributions on meridional sections were also similar (Figure S4b,c) although the concentration for the Lagrangian model is slightly higher at the core by 0.05 nM compared to OFAM3. The good agreement between the Lagrangian field and OFAM3 indicates that the Lagrangian iron model is largely performing as required. The comparison also demonstrates that vertical diffusion and iron deposition from atmospheric dust, which are not accounted for in the Lagrangian model, must be relatively small terms compared to the biological activity and scavenging terms. As such, neglecting vertical diffusion and iron deposition from atmospheric dust should not significantly impact the results.

160
161 **Figure S4.** *Lagrangian model validation against OFAM3. A) Comparison of iron concentration* 162 *between 1997 and 2000 at the EUC section 170⁰W between the Lagrangian model iron (black) and OFAM3 (red) with a 6-day times series. A meridional slice of the time-averaged iron (1997 – 2000) at ⁰W in b) OFAM3 and c) Lagrangian model overlaid with OFAM3 zonal velocities contours (cm s -).*

S5. Optimizing scavenging

169 The scavenging parameters k_{Fe}^{org} and k_{Fe}^{inorg} in Equation 2 are adjusted to minimize the difference between Lagrangian iron estimates and the observations along the EUC through a systematic testing of different parameter values. Detritus taken from OFAM3 is converted to units of nM Fe from mmol N by using the Redfield ratio of 0.02. As in *Galbraith et al.* 173 [2010], the sinking speed (w_{sink}) is 16 m day⁻¹ over the top 80 m, increasing linearly below 174 that depth at a rate of 0.05 (m day⁻¹) m⁻¹.

 In order to optimise the scavenging parameterisation, particle pathways are first identified by 177 backtracking particles from 4 EUC sections 165° E, 170° W, 140° W, and 110° W to the EUC 178 section at $156^{\circ}E$ for our examination of dissolved iron concentrations (and from 4 EUC 179 sections from 156⁰E, 165⁰E, 170⁰W and 140⁰W to the EUC section 149⁰E for our examination of total dissolved iron concentrations; as observations were available at different locations). See the dashed black line in Figure 1 for the boundaries. Subsequently, we assign 182 observed DFe at $156^{\circ}E$ (149^oE for TDFe) as Fe_{src} to all particles and integrate the iron model forward in time until the Lagrangian particles reach their EUC release sections. Initial source concentrations for off-equatorial interior section boundaries (horizontal black dashed lines in Figure 1d at 2.655°S and 2.655°N) are spatially interpolated between the start (149°E/156°E) and end EUC section iron profiles. We do not calculate iron concentrations backward in time from the EUC because the effect of dilution of different water masses cannot be determined backwards in time.

 The comparison between our optimized simulated iron concentrations along the equator and 191 observations is shown in Figure S5. The values are averaged between 0.25^0 S -0.25^0 N for comparison against the equatorial observations.

 Figure S5. *Scavenging parameterisation comparison. Fitting the optimal scavenging constants for DFe iron and b) TDFe using the constants specified in the main text and Equation 2 against equatorial iron observations (black dashed).*

 Another uncertainty is that the observed profile at 149°E is upstream of a great portion of the NICU waters (see Figure S2 and Figure 2 in *Qin et al*. [2015]). Assuming that additional iron is sourced from the NICU between 149°E and 156°E, using the observed profile at 149°E might result in an underestimate of the scavenging. However, as mentioned previously both the TDFe and DFe concentrations from the off-equatorial boundaries where a possible NICU source is likely to enter were tested with varying concentrations and only resulted in a systematic reduction in iron values.

S6. Backtracking Experiment Setup

 Lagrangian particles are released at the core of the EUC along meridional sections ('release' 210 sections) every 6 days. Here, we examine 5 sections at 156° E, 165° E, 170° W, 140° W, and

 110^0 W in order to cover the whole EUC from the western basin to the upwelling regions 212 eastwards of 140^0 W. The particles are backtracked in the OFAM3 velocity fields until they reach one of eight predefined *source* locations shown in Figure 1: (i) New Guinea Coastal Undercurrent, (ii) New Ireland Coastal Undercurrent, (iii) Mindanao Current, (iv) North Interior, (v) South Interior, (vi) North of EUC, (vii) South of EUC, and (viii) recirculation within the EUC. Note that because particles are assigned to the first section they cross, the NGCU section includes some water that would have eventually intersected with the NICU section. However, this effect turns out to be small, affecting only 2 - 4 % of NICU particles. This definition is to ensure the maximum NGCU transport and thus an upper bound on the iron provided by the NGCU.

S7. Placing bounds on iron processes

 In our Lagrangian treatment of iron, there are four processes affecting iron concentration. These are the biological activity (phytoplankton uptake and remineralisation), scavenging and mixing of water masses with differing amounts of iron. While scavenging has been optimised to fit the observed equatorial EUC concentrations, uncertainties may remain in the other terms.

 Biology can act to both decrease iron through phytoplankton uptake and increase iron through organic matter remineralisation. The combined effect of these two biological terms results in a Fe increase of 0.03 nM from their source sections in the Western Pacific to the Eastern equatorial Pacific at 110°W. This 0.03 nM represents a 20 % increase in the mean EUC iron concentration in the experiments with the lowest concentrations (*BACK*) and only a 6 % increase in mean iron content for an experiment with relatively higher concentrations of

 iron, (*NGCU-HIGH*). Thus even though there are substantial biases in the OFAM3 phytoplankton distribution (Text S2), this likely has only a small impact on the simulated iron distribution in the Lagrangian model. This is also supported by previous iron sensitivity studies of the EUC such as [*Gorgues et al.* 2010; *Slemons et al.* 2009] where even at higher iron concentrations (9 nM), biological terms had a relatively minor impact on iron compared to enhanced scavenging.

 Uncertainty in the iron concentration for the interior sources away from the LLWBCs may also be a factor in the underestimated iron values for *NGCU-LOW* and *NGCU-HIGH*. The sparse open ocean measurements in the Pacific Ocean make assigning accurate iron concentrations to interior waters problematic. As such, the same averaged profile is used for 247 all interior sources (except recirculation where equatorial EUC profiles are available) for the sensitivity experiments. However this background iron profile may be too low. Based on available observations we expect both DFe and TDFe open-ocean iron concentrations from surface to depth to be well below 1.0 nM even in regions of high dust deposition [*Moore and Braucher*, 2008]. In a modification of the *NGCU-LOW* and *NGCU-HIGH* experiments, this upper bound of 1.0 nM is set to all the interior iron sources at all depths except for recirculation from the EUC, which are imposed with the EUC observations. Even with this large increase in interior concentration, an elevated NGCU concentration on its own is still well below the observed value with 1.0 vs 1.5 nM for DFe and 1.8 vs 2.6 nM for TDFe at 256 156⁰E (not shown). Moreover, as interior sources make up an increasing fraction of the EUC to the east, the zonal gradient becomes too weaker with elevated background iron concentrations. Thus uncertainties in the open ocean iron sources are unlikely to explain the underestimated EUC iron concentrations resulting from a sole NGCU source.

 With regards to the mixing of water masses or dilution of the higher iron concentrations from the LLWBCs by the lower concentrations in the interior water masses, it has been shown in previous studies of *Grenier et al.* [2011] and *Qin et al.* [2015] that the proportion of water from interior circulation increases going eastward thus reducing the high concentration of iron derived from the LLWBC sources by dilution. The amount of dilution is dependent on the proportion of water masses from each source. In our Lagrangian experiments this dilution is set by the physical circulation in OFAM3 and the results in *Qin et al.* [2015] as well as validation of the NGCU in Text S2 suggest that OFAM3 has a reasonable representation of 269 the contribution of water from each source to the EUC.

 The final uncertainty is in the imposed NGCU iron concentration given the sparsity of available observations. Two supplementary experiments are performed in which the NGCU source concentrations are elevated so that equatorial iron concentrations more closely match 274 observations. The NGCU source concentration has to be increased by 2.5 times (from 0.5 – 275 2.0 nM to $1.3 - 5.0$ nM) and 2.2 times (from $8 - 9$ nM to $17.6 - 19.8$ nM) for DFe and for TDFe, respectively. However the total dissolved iron concentrations would then be larger than the upper limit of iron observations of 15.5 nM along similar continental shelf regions [*Bruland et al.*, 2005]. As such, these levels of iron in the NGCU iron are unlikely.

S8. Iron Observation Sources

 The observed open ocean dissolved iron profiles that were used to construct the background iron profile in Figure 1a are shown by the red dots in Figure S6. These are specified to be 284 within $156^{\circ}E - 110^{\circ}W$, $10^{\circ}S - 10^{\circ}N$ and 500 km away from the coastline. The average of these measurements is used as a typical background concentration in our experiments.

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 Figure S6*. Iron measurements. Location of iron measurements made during Tropical Pacific cruises (all symbols). Off-equatorial, DFe measurement away from the coasts used to construct the background iron profile in Figure 1a are shown as magenta circles. Black circles and stars indicate location of equatorial DFe measurements; TDFe measurements are only available at the black stars. These profiles are used for comparison in Figure 1. DFe measurements are from Blain et al, [2008], Coale et al, [1996], DiTullio et al, [1993], Fitzwater et al, [1996], Kaupp et al, [2011], Kondo et al, [2012], Mackey et al, [2002], Slemons et al, [2010], Takeda and Obata, [1995] and Wu et al. [2011]. TDFe observations are taken from Mackey et al, [2002] and Slemons et al, [2010]. Going from east to west, the red data circles indicate locations for the DFe MC source [Kondo et al., 2007], the TDFe and DFe NGCU sources [Slemons et al., 2010] and the DFe NICU source [Slemons et al., 2010].*

 Observations of TDFe in the open ocean are very sparse (*Bruland et al.* [1994], *Hansard et al.* [2009], *Jong et al.* [1998], *Martin et al.* [1990] and *Wu and Luther* [1994]) with only the study of *Hansard et al.* [2009] in the Pacific Ocean. These TDFe profiles are shown in Figure S7.

306
307 **Figure S7.** *Vertical profiles of open ocean TDFe measurements.*

 Except for the profile from *Wu and Luther* [1994] which is taken from the North Atlantic, the open ocean TDFe measurements are generally below 0.5 nM. For the study of *Wu and Luther* [1994], which displays the highest values, only 3 measurements exceed 1 nM. Given the similarity of the open ocean TDFe profiles to the open ocean DFe profile in Figure 1a (excluding *Wu and Luther* [1994] observations), and the large uncertainties associated with the TDFe profiles, in our experiments we assume that the TDFe follows the DFe background profile. To check the sensitivity of our results to this assumption we perform sensitivity tests described in Text S7 where open ocean concentrations are elevated to 1 nM, (approximately the average of the high *Wu and Luther* [1994] measurements; Figure S7).

Table S2. *Maximum lagged correlation between NGCU (2nd row) and NGCI+NICU (5th row)*

source iron concentration and iron concentration at the various release sections (only correlations

significant at 95% level are shown). Also shown are lag associated with the maximum (3rd and 6th

327 *rows) and the interquartile particle transit time and the (4th and 7th rows; in days). 8th row: The time*

 difference between the observed NGCUC shoaling and peak intensification compared to equatorial bloom start for three El Niño events from Ryan et al. (2006).

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