1	Carbon geochemistry of plankton-dominated samples in the Laptev and East Siberian
2	shelves: contrasts in suspended particle composition
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26 Abstract

Recent Arctic studies suggest that sea-ice decline and permafrost thawing will affect 27 phytoplankton dynamics and stimulate heterotrophic communities. However, in what way the 28 plankton composition will change as the warming proceeds remains elusive. Here we 29 investigate the chemical signature of the plankton-dominated fraction of particulate organic 30 matter (POM, >10µm) collected along the Siberian shelf. POM (>10µm) samples were 31 analysed using molecular biomarkers (CuO oxidation and IP25) and dual-carbon isotopes 32 (δ^{13} C and Δ^{14} C). In addition, surface water chemical properties were integrated with the POM 33 (>10um) dataset to understand the link between plankton composition and environmental 34 conditions. 35

 δ^{13} C and Δ^{14} C exhibited a large variability in the POM (>10µm) distribution while 36 terrestrial biomarkers showed a negligible input from terrestrial sources. In the Laptev Sea 37 (LS) open-waters, $\delta^{13}C$ and $\Delta^{14}C$ fingerprint of POM (>10µm) suggested that dissolved 38 organic carbon (DOC) from the Lena river was the primary source of metab able carbon 39 indicating, thus, a heterotrophic environment. Moving eastwards toward the sea-ice 40 dominated East Siberian Sea (ESS), the system became progressively more autotrophic. 41 Comparison between δ^{13} C of POM (>10µm) samples and CO₂aq concentrations revealed that 42 the carbon isotope fractionation increased moving toward the easternmost and most 43 productive stations. 44

In a warming scenario characterized by enhanced terrestrial DOC release (thawing permafrost) and progressive sea-ice decline, heterotrophic conditions might persist in the LS while the nutrient-rich Pacific inflow will likely stimulate greater ESS primary productivity in the ESS. The contrasting trophic conditions will result in a sharp gradient in δ^{13} C between the LS and ESS similar to what documented in our semi-synoptic study.

51 **1. Introduction**

The progressive reduction of sea-ice extent in the Arctic Ocean is indisputable 52 evidence of modern global warming (Comiso et al., 2008; Ding et al., 2017; Kwok and 53 Rothrock, 2009). The unprecedented decline of sea-ice is expected to alter several aspects of 54 the Arctic marine ecology such as plankton abundance and its temporal distribution (Arrigo et 55 al., 2008). For instance, recent studies suggest that the increase of solar irradiance will 56 stimulate greater primary productivity in summer while the prolonged ice-free conditions will 57 develop a second algal bloom in early fall, which is a distinctive feature of only lower 58 latitudes (Ardyna et al., 2014; Lalande et al., 2009; Lalande et al., 2014). The phytoplankton 59 communities are expected to profoundly change towards a higher contribution from open 60 water phytoplankton at the expense of sea-ice assemblages (Fujiwara et al., 2014). Taken 61 together, a greater productivity in the ice-free or marginal ice zone compare to the multi-year 62 ice system, is also expected to lead to greater carbon uptake and settling export of organic 63 carbon from the surface to deeper strata of the Arctic Ocean (Gustafsson and Andersson, 64 65 2012).

Sea-ice decline will also affect the water-air gas exchange, currents and river plume 66 dispersion which, in turn, exert large control on the surface water chemical/physical 67 properties (Aagaard and Carmack, 1989; Ardyna et al., 2014; Lalande et al., 2014). On top of 68 this, destabilization of permafrost soils and the terrestrial cryosphere will result in enhanced 69 particulate and dissolved carbon input to the Arctic Ocean (Frey and Smith, 2005; Vonk et al., 70 2012). As a result, the geochemical signature of both autotrophic and heterotrophic plankton 71 72 communities is also expected to change as the warming proceeds. However, how the warming will ultimately affect the marine geochemical signal is poorly understood. This study seeks a 73 74 better understanding of the chemical composition of plankton that dominates regions of the Arctic Ocean characterized by different sea-ice coverages, nutrient availability and riverine 75

influence. In particular, we focus on the carbon isotope fingerprint (i.e. $\delta^{13}C$ and $\Delta^{14}C$) of 76 plankton that grows in ice-covered and ice-free Marginal Ice Zone (MIZ) regimes on the 77 78 Siberian margin. The motivation behind investigating the chemical fingerprint of plankton from different regimes is to provide a better understanding of the carbon signature for direct 79 applications to carbon studies of both modern systems and paleo-reconstructions. In 80 81 particular, the isotope composition of marine OC finds several applications in climate, 82 ecology and carbon source apportionment studies. For example, stable carbon isotopes of marine phytoplankton are used for paleo- pCO_2 reconstructions over geological time scales 83 (Hoins et al., 2015; Pagani et al., 1999; Popp et al., 1999; Rau, 1994). The δ^{13} C signature also 84 provides a solid tool for marine food web and ecosystem structure investigations (Dunton et 85 al., 2006; Iken et al., 2005; Kohlbach et al., 2016). Furthermore, dual-carbon isotope mixing 86 models (δ^{13} C and Δ^{14} C) are commonly used to quantify the relative proportion of marine and 87 various allochtonous sources (e.g., permafrost soil) in both contemporary and paleo-88 reconstructed carbon cycling of the Arctic (Karlsson et al., 2016; Tesi et al., 2016; Vonk et 89 al., 2012; Vonk et al., 2014). 90

With this overarching goal in mind, here we investigate the >10 µm fraction of 91 particulate organic matter (POM) in ice-covered and ice-free MIZ regimes of the Siberian 92 Arctic Shelf during the SWERUS-C3 expedition (July-August 2014) (Fig. 1). The plankton-93 dominated POM samples collected throughout the ca. 4,500 km long cruise track were 94 characterized using bulk parameters (OC, δ^{13} C and Δ^{14} C) and biomarkers (highly branched 95 isoprenoids, IP25; CuO oxidation products). In addition, continuous measurements of 96 dissolved CO₂ (CO_{2aq}) and its stable carbon isotope composition ($\delta^{13}C_{CO2}$) were performed 97 during the campaign (Humborg et al., 2017) and used for a direct comparison with the 98 99 chemical composition of the POM fraction.

101 **2. Study region**

The Laptev Sea and the East Siberian Sea are shallow epicontinental seas in the 102 Russian Arctic separated by the New Siberian Islands (Fig. 1). Sea-ice cover lasts for most 103 104 part of the year over the shelf. Late spring/summer is characterized by the seasonal sea-ice retreat coupled with river freshet which supplies large amount of terrestrial carbon in the form 105 of particulate and dissolved matters (Karlsson et al., 2016; Salvadó et al., 2016; Sánchez-106 García et al., 2011). The Lena (523 km3/y), Indigirka (54 km3/y), and Kolyma (48 km3/y) are 107 the major rivers (Gordeev, 2006). During the ice-free season, the Lena plume can be traced in 108 the outer-shelf of the Laptev Sea (Fichot et al., 2013; Salvadó et al., 2016; Sánchez-García et 109 al., 2011) while Pacific inflow from the Bering strait affects further east the East Siberia 110 margin (Semiletov et al., 2005). The Pacific inflow exerts control on the nutrient balance as it 111 supplies nitrates and nitrates to an otherwise nutrient-depleted region (Anderson et al., 2011; 112 Semiletov et al., 2005). Another important source of particulate material to the continental 113 margin is the Pleistocene Ice Complex Deposit (ICD) entering the ocean via coastal erosion 114 (Lantuit et al., 2011; Vonk et al., 2012) which is the dominant carbon source between the 115 Kolyma river and the Lena river (Vonk et al., 2012). 116

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118 **3. Methods**

119 **3.1 POM** (<**10** μm) sampling

Seawater was pumped from a stainless steel inlet on the hull of the icebreaker *Oden* positioned at 8 m below the sea surface. The inlet system is tested and further described in Sobek and Gustafsson (2004) and Gustafsson et al. (2005). Figure 1a and 1b show the regions covered to harvest each POM (>10 μ m) sample with their location shown as time-averaged position. The particulate material was retained via a large volume filtration apparatus using a 10- μ m Nitex® (nylon) mesh placed in a 29.3 cm filter holder. After collection, filtered particulate material was transferred in pre-clean HDPE tubes by rinsing the Nitex® filters with MilliQ water. Samples were kept frozen throughout the expedition. In the lab, samples were transferred in pre-cleaned Falcon® tubes (rinsed with 0.1M HCl) and gently centrifuged to remove the supernatant. The residual particulate material was frozen and subsequently freeze-dried prior to biogeochemical analyses.

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132 3.2 Bulk carbon isotopes and biomarker analyses

Organic carbon (OC) and stable carbon isotope (δ^{13} C) analyses were carried out on 133 134 acidified samples (Ag capsules, HCl, 1.5M) to remove the carbonate fraction (Nieuwenhuize et al., 1994). Analyses were performed using a Thermo Electron mass spectrometer directly 135 coupled to a Carlo Erba NC2500 Elemental Analyzer via a Conflo III (Department of 136 Geological Sciences, Stockholm University). OC values are reported as weight percent 137 (%d.w.) whereas stable isotope data are reported in the conventional δ^{13} C notation (%). The 138 analytical error for δ^{13} C was lower than ±0.1‰ based on replicates. Acidified (HCl, 1.5 M) 139 140 samples for radiocarbon abundance were analysed at the US-NSF National Ocean Science 141 Accelerator Mass Spectrometry (NOSAMS) facility (Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution, Woods Hole, USA). Radiocarbon data are reported in the standard Δ^{14} C notation (‰). 142

Alkaline CuO oxidations were carried out using an UltraWAVE Milestone microwave 143 as described in Tesi et al. (2014). Briefly, about 2 mg of OC was oxidised using CuO under 144 alkaline (2N NaOH) and oxygen-free conditions at 150 °C for 90 min in teflon tubes. After 145 the oxidation, known amounts of recovery standards (trans-cinnamic acid and ethylvanillin) 146 147 were added to the solution. The NaOH solutions were then acidified to pH 1 with concentrated HCl and extracted with ethyl acetate. Extracts were dried and redissolved in 148 pyridine. CuO oxidation products were quantified by GC-MS in full scan mode (50-650 m/z). 149 150 Before GC analyses, the CuO oxidation products were derivatized with bis(trimethylsilyl)

trifluoroacetamide+1% trimethylchlorosilane at 60°C for 30 min. The compounds were 151 separated chromatographically in a 30m×250 µm DB5ms (0.25 µm thick film) capillary GC 152 column, using an initial temperature of 100°C, a temperature ramp of 4°C/min and a final 153 temperature of 300°C. Lignin phenols (terrestrial biomarkers) were quantified using the 154 response factors of commercially available standards (Sigma-Aldrich) whereas the rest of the 155 CuO oxidation products were quantified by comparing the response factor of trans-cinnamic 156 157 acid. Lignin-derived reaction products include vanillyl phenols (V=vanillin, acetovanillone, vanillic acid), syringyl phenols (S=syringealdehyde, acetosyringone, syringic acid) and 158 cinnamyl phenols (C=p-coumaric acid, ferulic acid). In addition to lignin, cutin-derived 159 160 products (hydroxyl fatty acids) were used to trace the land-derived input (Goñi and Hedges, 1990; Tesi et al., 2010). Other CuO oxidation products include para-hydroxybenzene 161 monomers (P-series), benzoic acids (B-series) and short-chain fatty acids (FA-series) which 162 can have both terrestrial and marine origin (Goñi and Hedges, 1995; Tesi et al., 2010). 163

The sea-ice proxy IP_{25} (mono-unsaturated highly branched isoprenoid (HBI) alkene) 164 was quantified according to Belt et al. (2012). IP₂₅ producers are a minor (<5%) fraction of 165 the total sea-ice taxa which are, however, ubiquitous in pan-Arctic sea-ice. Species include 166 Pleurosigma stuxbergii var. rhomboide, Haslea crucigeroides (and/or Haslea spicula) and 167 168 Haslea kjellmanii (Brown et al., 2014a). Briefly, lipids were extracted via sonication using a dichloromethane/methanol solution (2:1 v/v \times 3). Prior to the extraction, two internal 169 standards (7-hexylnonadecane, 7-HND and 9- octylheptadecene, 9-OHD) were added to 170 permit quantification of IP₂₅ (monounsaturated highly branched isoprenoid) following 171 analysis via GC-MS. Total lipid extracts (TLEs) were dried under N2 after removing the water 172 excess with anhydrous NaSO₄. Dry TLEs were redissolved in dichloromethane and the non-173 polar hydrocarbon fraction was purified using open column chromatography (deactivated 174

SiO₂) and hexane as eluent. Saturated and unsaturated n-alkanes were further separated using
10% AgNO₃ coated silica gel using hexane and dichloromethane, respectively.

177 Quantification of IP₂₅ was carried out in SIM mode (m/z 350.3) as described in Belt et 178 al. (2012). The GC was fitted with a 30m×250 µm DB5ms (0.25 µm thick film) capillary GC 179 column. Initial GC oven temperature was set to 60°C followed by a 10°C/min ramp until a 180 final temperature of 310°C (hold time 10 min).

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182 **3.3. Microscope images of plankton**

High resolution digital images were taken with an Environmental Scanning Electron Microscope (ESEM) Philips XL30 FEG in high voltage (15kV) and magnification 250X. Samples were further studied for identification of diatoms and dinoflagellates using a transmitted light microscope (Leitz Laborlux 12 Pol) equipped with differential interference contrast optics at 1000X magnification. Microscope slides were prepared using settling chambers to achieve an even distribution of particles on the cover glass, regardless of size and shape Warnock and Sherer (2014).

190 **3.4 Sea-ice data**

Daily AMSR2 sea-ice extent and concentration maps were provided by the Institute of Environmental Physics, University of Bremen, Germany (Spreen et al., 2008) as GeoTIFF files (ftp://seaice.uni-bremen.de).

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3.5 StatisticsWe used two-tailed T-test (homoscedasticity) and Welch T-test
(heteroskedasticity) to assess whether the differences between open waters and sea-ice
dominated waters were statistically significant. For this study, significance level (alpha) was
set at 0.01.

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201 4. Surface water conditions during the SWERUS-C3 expedition

Before discussing the chemical composition of the POM (>10 μ m), here we briefly 202 introduce the different environmental conditions encountered throughout the cruise track. The 203 surface water data presented in this section were pulled together from previous studies which 204 provide an in-depth analysis of the surface water properties during the SWERUS-C3 205 expedition in 2014 (Humborg et al., 2017; Salvadó et al., 2016) (Table 2). For this study, 206 continuous CO_2 and $\delta^{13}C_{CO2}$ data (Humborg et al., 2017) were averaged to match the water 207 sampling stations allowing for a direct comparison with DOC and salinity data (Fi Ω) 208 (Supplementary Material). 209

Summer 2014 was consistent with the long-term downward trend in Arctic sea-ice 210 extent. The strongest anomalies were observed in the LS which experienced the most 211 212 northerly sea-ice shift since satellite observations began in 1979 (National Snow and Sea Ice Data Center, NSIDC. http://nsidc.org/data). Unpublished data). In general, sea-ice displayed a 213 strong gradient over the study region going from ice-free conditions in the outer LS to ice-214 dominated waters in the outer ESS (Fig.1.) Three snapshots of the sea-ice extent and 215 concentrations (.i.e. at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of the sampling) is shown in 216 217 Fig.1. Furthermore, Table 1 reports the averaged sea-ice concentrations encountered during the collection of each sample. 218

The surface water salinity exhibited a longitudinal trend characterized by low values in the outer LS while the sea-ice dominated ESS waters showed relatively higher values (Fig. 2a; Table 2). However, the highest salinity values were measured in the westernmost stations resulting in a sharp gradient in the LS. The low surface water salinities in the outer LS are most likely the result of both Lena river input and sea-ice thawing (Humborg et al., 2017) that started in late May (Janout et al., 2016). The highest DOC concentrations were measured in the mid-outer LS in the surface water plume affected by Lena River runoff (Fig.2b; Table 2). Overall, DOC concentrations followed the plume dispersion with high DOC concentrations corresponding to low salinities (Fig. 2). Carbon stable isotopes (δ^{13} C) and terrestrial biomarkers (of the solid-phase extracted DOC fraction; Salvado et al., 2016) further confirmed the influence of terrestrial DOC in the outer LS, while the land-derived input progressively decreased moving eastward.

CO₂aq concentrations exhibited a typical estuarine pattern over the study region (Humborg et al., 2017) (Fig. 2d; Table 2). Low salinity waters in the outer LS showed above atmospheric CO₂ concentrations (i.e., oversaturation) while surface waters below sea-ice exhibited undersaturated concentrations. The most depleted $\delta^{13}C_{CO2}$ values were measured off the Lena river mouth (Fig. 2e; Table 2). Being relatively rich in land-derived material, it is likely that respired terrestrial OC within the Lena river plume exerted control on the CO₂ isotopic signature and concentration (Humborg et al., 2017).

Finally, nutrient distribution revealed nitrate (NO₃) and revealed (NO₂) depletion in 238 surface waters throughout the cruise track (Humborg et al., 2017) in comparison with the 239 Arctic Ocean gateways such as the Bering strait. Here, nutrient concentrations in surface 240 waters are two-order of magnitude higher compared the our study region (Torres-Valdés et 241 242 al., 2013). Phosphate (PO₄) exhibited rather low concentrations in the outer LS and relatively higher concentrations below the sea-ice in the outer ESS (Humborg et al., 2017) likely 243 reflecting the inflow of nutrient-rich Pacific waters (Anderson et al., 2011; Semiletov et al., 244 245 2005; Torres-Valdés et al., 2013).

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247 5. Results and discussion

248 5.1 Source of the POM (>10 μ m) fraction

The Arctic Ocean off northern Siberia receives large quantities of dissolved and 249 250 particulate terrestrial organic carbon via continental runoff and coastal erosion (Alling et al., 2010; Dittmar and Kattner, 2003; McClelland et al., 2016; Sánchez-García et al., 2011; 251 Semiletov et al., 2013; Vonk et al., 2012). The land-derived material that does not settle in the 252 coastal zone further travels across the continental margin reaching out to the outer-shelf 253 region resuspended within the benthic nepheloid layer or in suspension within the surface 254 river plume (Fichot et al., 2013; Sánchez-García et al., 2011; Wegner et al., 2003). Another 255 fraction of terrestrial material can travel across the Siberian margin trapped in fast ice 256 257 (Dethleff, 2005). Considering the potential allochthonous contribution, we addressed to what extent terrestrial organic material affects the POM (>10µm) fraction by quantifying the 258 259 concentration of lignin phenols and C16-18 hydroxy fatty acids (cutin-derived products). These biomarkers are exclusively formed by terrestrial vegetation and, thus, serve as tracers 260 of land-derived material in the marine environment (Amon et al., 2012; Bröder et al., 2016b; 261 Feng et al., 2015). 262

Upon CuO alkaline oxidation the POM (>10µm) samples yielded only traces of lignin 263 phenols while the cutin-derived products were not detected (Fig. 3). Other oxidation products 264 in high abundance included saturated and mono-unsaturated short chain fatty acids (C12-265 266 18FA), para-hydroxy phenols, benzoic acids and dicarboxylic acids. These other reaction products are ubiquitous in both marine and terrestrial environments but they are predominant 267 in plankton-derived material, especially short-chain fatty acids (Goñi and Hedges, 1995). 268 269 When compared with active-layer permafrost soils and ice-complex deposits (Tesi et al., 270 2014), POM (>10µm) samples displayed a distinct CuO fingerprint dominated by short chain fatty acids (Fig. 3), consistent with the typical CuO products yields by phytoplankton batch 271 cultures upon CuO alkaline oxidation (Goñi and Hedges, 1995). SEM images further 272

corroborated the abundance of marine plankton detritus in the POM (>10µm) fraction while
lithogenic particles (clastic material) appeared to be sporadic in all samples.

275 The OC content (% d.w.) of the POM (>10um) fraction decreased eastwards showing high concentrations in the LS and relatively low values in the ESS (Table 1; p<0.01 T-test). 276 However, in terms of absolute concentration in the water column (μ C/l), the highest levels 277 were generally observed in the sea-ice covered region (Table 1; Fig. 4a; p < 0.01 T-test). 278 Qualitative analyses by SEM and transmitted-light microscopy highlight important 279 differences in plankton assemblages which reflect different timing of the plankton blooms 280 which can explain these differences in concentration. Specifically, the open-water LS stations 281 282 exhibited a low degree of plankton diversity and were largely dominated by a bloom of heterotrophic dinoflagellate cysts (Protoperidinium spp) (Fig. 5a; Table 3). Moving towards 283 284 the ice-dominated regions, diatoms become the prevailing species. Dominant diatom genera 285 include Chaetoceros spp. (dominant diatom in several stations), Thalassiosira spp., Rhizosolenia spp., Coscinodiscus spp., Asteromphalus spp., Navicula spp. as well as sea-ice 286 species such as Fragilariopsis cylindrus and Fragilariopsis oceanica (Fig. 5b,c; Table 3). 287

Moored optical sensors deployed in the LS shelf recorded the sea-ice retreat in 2014 288 and found no sign of pelagic under-ice blooms despite available nutrients while high 289 290 chlorophyll concentrations were detected immediately after the ice retreated in late May (Janout et al., 2016). The ice-edge blooms lasted for about 2 weeks according to the high 291 resolution chlorophyll time-series (Janout et al., 2016). Thus, our post-bloom sampling in the 292 LS essentially captured an oligotrophic environment dominated by heterotrophic 293 294 dinoflagellate cysts (i.e, Protoperidinium spp) which likely fed on phytodetritus and riverderived organic material. Such conditions are fairly consistent with the relatively low carbon 295 contents (μ gC/L) observed in LS waters (Fig. 4a). 296

The Arctic sea-ice biomarker IP25 (Fig. 4b) further highlight the different regimes 297 298 observed in ice-free and ice-dominated surface waters. IP25 is a proxy of sea-ice based on a highly branched mono-unsaturated isoprenoid alkene found in some sea-ice diatoms which, 299 300 however, generally account for 5% of the total sea-ice taxa (Belt et al., 2007; Brown et al., 2014b). The IP25 concentrations varied by several orders of magnitude over the study area 301 showing low concentrations in the open-water western region while the sea-ice dominated 302 303 surface waters to the east exhibited high concentrations especially at station 31b (Fig. 4b; 304 Table 1); p<0.01 Welch T-test). The fact that IP25 was still detectable throughout the ice-free outer LS suggests that the proxy captured the signal of the sea-ice retreat that occurred shortly 305 306 before the sampling at the end of May/early June (Janout et al., 2016). Alternatively, the IP25 could have been advected from nearby sea-ice dominated regions. 307

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309 **5.2. Dual carbon isotopes:** δ^{13} C and Δ^{14} C

 δ^{13} C and Δ^{14} C of the POM (>10 \mu m) samples exhibited a distinctive longitudinal trend 310 across the study area between LS and ESS (Fig. 4c,d) (p<0.01 T-test). Depleted δ^{13} C values 311 312 characterized the LS open waters ranging from -28.1 to -24.7% (Fig. 4c). Although within the 313 range of terrestrially-derived material, our CuO oxidation data (i.e. trace of lignin phenols and absence of cutin-derived products) suggest that the "light" isotopic composition in the LS 314 might instead reflect the plankton assemblage dominated by heterotrophic dinoflagellate cysts 315 316 as previously described (e.g., *Protoperidinium* spp; Fig. 5a). More specifically, heterotrophic dinoflagellates can adapt their metabolism depending on the substrate available (e.g., diatoms 317 318 and bacteria). Several studies have shown that terrestrial DOC greatly promotes bacteria biomass production which in turn stimulates the growth of heterotrophic dinoflagellates 319 (Carlsson et al., 1995; Purina et al., 2004; Wikner and Andersson, 2012). Thus, in these 320 conditions, allochthonous terrestrial DOC is actively recycled by bacteria and transferred to 321

dinoflagellates which explains, thus, the depleted δ^{13} C values observed in the river-dominated samples (Carlsson et al., 1995).

324 The modern radiocarbon fingerprint of the Lena DOC discharge is consistent with Δ^{14} C signature of the POM (>10µm) fraction in the LS (up to +99 ‰), supporting the 325 326 importance of terrestrial DOC as a carbon source for the food web in the river plume (Fig. 4d and 6). By contrast, comparison with other potential carbon sources which include the Lena 327 river particulate organic carbon, surface sediments, Pleistocene coastal Ice-Complex Deposit 328 and Pacific DIC inflow reveals a different (more depleted) radiocarbon fingerprint (Fig. 6). It 329 is also import to highlight that the DOC within the Lena plume is one/two-order of magnitude 330 higher than the particulate carbon pool supporting, thus, our hypothesis (Humborg et al., 331 2017; Salvadó et al., 2016). 332

Moving towards the ice-dominated ESS, surface waters progressively become more 333 autotrophic and productive (Humborg et al., 2017) while the POM (>10µm) exhibited a wide 334 δ^{13} C signature ranging from -28.6 to -21.2‰ (Fig. 4c). The most depleted values were 335 observed across the transition zone between open-waters and sea-ice. Visual inspections of 336 337 these samples revealed large abundance of the centric diatom Chaetoceros spp. (spores and vegetative cells; St22, Fig. 5b) while lignin and cutin data indicated, a negligible input of 338 land-derived material. Primary factors determining the fractionation of stable carbon isotopes 339 in phytoplankton are several and include CO₂aq concentration, δ^{13} Caq, growth rate, cell size, 340 cell shape, light and nutrient availability (Gervais and Riebesell, 2001; Laws et al., 1997a; 341 342 Popp et al., 1998; Rau et al., 1996). Our understanding about isotopic fractionation has been historically achieved via laboratory experiments designed to test each factor under controlled 343 344 conditions. In natural environments, however, different factors can compete with each other, sometimes in opposite directions. Yet, the existing knowledge about surface water properties 345

during the expedition (Humborg et al., 2017) can provide important constraints for theisotopic signal interpretation.

For example, comparison with continuous δ^{13} C-CO₂aq and CO₂aq data measured throughout the cruise track - time-averaged to match the large volume filtration along the cruise track (Table 1) - suggested a negligible role exerted by δ^{13} C-CO₂aq (Fig. 7b) while CO₂aq concentration correlated with the δ^{13} C of the POM (>10µm) fraction (r²=0.72; *p*<0.01) (Fig. 7a). Such a relationship fits with the general model according to which a low demand (i.e., low growth rate) and high supply (i.e., abundant CO₂aq) favour high fractionation and vice versa (Laws et al., 1997b; Laws et al., 1995; Wolf-Gladrow et al., 1999).

During the expedition, surface water properties (i.e. O₂ and CO₂, Table 2) (Humborg 355 et al., 2017) suggest that the productivity in the outer ESS increases moving eastward, as 356 commonly observed, likely due to the Pacific inflow (Björk et al., 2011; Semiletov et al., 357 2005). As a result, the wide range of plankton $\delta^{13}C$ over the ESS can be explained in terms of 358 two different regimes: (a) in the transition zone between open waters and sea-ice, the 359 productivity was low but CO_2 aq was oversaturated while (b) in the easternmost ESS, 360 productivity was high but CO₂aq was depleted (Fig. 7b). The former regime favours 361 fractionation while the latter does not (Fig. 7b). Different diatom assemblages can also be 362 another factor to consider although the phytoplankton diversity observed over ESS can be 363 considered rather small (e.g. Chaetoceros spp. dominant in most of the samples) compared to 364 the wide range of δ^{13} C observed (i.e., from -28.8 to -21.6) (Table 3). 365

The POM (>10 μ m) fraction in the sea-ice dominated ESS exhibited slightly - but consistently - depleted Δ^{14} C values ranging from -62 to -49 ‰ (Fig. 4d). This region is affected by the inflow of Pacific waters whose DIC exhibits, however, a modern Δ^{14} C signature (Griffith et al., 2012) (Fig. 6). By contrast, these results suggest the influence from an aged carbon pool. As the ESS remains covered by sea-ice for most of the year, it is

possible that the sea-ice hampers the gas exchange with the atmosphere and acts as a lid by 371 372 trapping CO₂ which derives from the breakdown of sedimentary organic material (Anderson et al., 2009; Semiletov et al., 2016), which might have such ages (Bröder et al., 2016a; Vonk 373 374 et al., 2012). In these conditions, the pre-aged CO_2 accumulates underneath the sea-ice and is subsequently incorporated during carbon fixation by the phytoplankton. While overaturated 375 376 bottom waters were extensively documented in the region with important consequences on the local DIC (Anderson et al., 2009; Pipko et al., 2009), more work is clearly needed to 377 understand if early diagenesis in sediments can also affect the radiocarbon signature of the 378 CO₂aq underneath the sea-ice. Alternatively, the slightly depleted radiocarbon signature might 379 indicate the presence of pre-aged terrestrial organic carbon (Fig. 6) in the POM (>10µm) 380 samples, not reflected in the lignin and cutin tracers (Fig. 3). However, it would then remain 381 elusive why such an aged land-derived influence was not visible in the river-dominated LS 382 waters while it affected the sea-ice dominated region. 383

Taken together, our results indicate that the dual-carbon isotope fingerprint is highly affected by the trophic conditions (heterotrophic *vs* autotrophic) as well as the extent of primary productivity. In a warming scenario characterized by sea-ice retreat (Arrigo et al., 2008; Comiso et al., 2008) and enhanced terrestrial input from land as result of hydrology and permafrost destabilization (Frey and Smith, 2005; Vonk et al., 2012), the geochemical composition of plankton will likely change as the warming proceeds.

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391 **6. Conclusions**

392 Analyses of large-volume filtrations of plankton-dominated >10 μ m particle samples 393 revealed a high degree of heterogeneity in the dual carbon isotope signature (δ^{13} C and Δ^{14} C) 394 between ice-free waters (Laptev Sea) and the ice-covered region (East Siberian Sea).

Our results suggest a heterotrophic environment in the outer LS open waters where the 395 δ^{13} C depleted river DOC is transferred to relatively higher trophic levels via microbial 396 incorporation in the river plume. Moving eastwards towards the ice-dominated outer ESS, 397 398 surface waters became progressively more autotrophic. Here, the isotopic fractionation appears to follow the phytoplankton growth vs CO₂ demand model according to which carbon 399 fractionation decreases at high growth and low CO₂ concentrations. As a result, the transition 400 between open-waters and sea-ice exhibited more depleted $\delta^{13}C$ values compared to the 401 productive easternmost stations. Radiocarbon signatures were slightly depleted over the whole 402 403 sea-ice dominated area. This raises the question whether the sea-ice hampers the gas exchange with the atmosphere and trap the CO₂ sourced from reactive sedimentary carbon pools. 404

In a warming scenario, it is likely that the oligotrophic ice-free LS will be dominated 405 by heterotrophic metabolism fuelled by terrestrially-derived organic material (i.e., Lena 406 input). In these conditions, the dual-carbon isotope signature of the heterotrophic plankton 407 will essentially reflect the terrestrial fingerprint. In the ESS, which receives the inflow of the 408 409 nutrient-rich Pacific waters, ice-free conditions will enhance light penetration. This in turn might further stimulate phytoplankton growth with important implications in terms of CO₂ 410 411 depletion and resulting low isotope fractionation. Altogether, this will result in a sharp compositional gradient (e.g. δ^{13} C) between LS and ESS similar to what captured in our semi-412 synoptic study. 413

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427	(www.arcticgreatrivers.org).
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ID	Time averaged latitude (N)	Time averaged longitude (E)	Mean sea- ice percentage (%)	POM (>10µm) concentration (mg/l)	OC (d.w.)	δ ¹³ C (‰)	Δ ¹⁴ C (‰)	IP25 (ng/gOC)	averege CO2aq (ppm)*	average δ^{13} C- CO ₂ aq (‰)*
ST4	81.68	105.96	98.4	6	18.2	-26.7	n.d.	n.d.	323	-10.9
ST5	80.47	114.07	98.7	15	42.6	-27.6	n.d.	n.d.	322	-11.0
ST6	78.86	125.22	82.2	1	51.7	-26.6	99	n.d.	325	-10.8
ST7	77.88	126.62	0.0	11	43.1	-25.7	n.d.	88	350	-10.7
ST8	77.16	127.32	0.0	17	30.9	-26.7	41	n.d.	391	-10.5
ST9	76.78	125.83	0.0	3	31.5	-27.9	30	48	385	-10.5
ST10	76.90	127.81	0.0	11	40.9	-24.7	n.d.	n.d.	349	-11.0
ST11	77.12	126.66	0.0	13	29.6	-28.1	27	13	428	-10.7
ST22	77.67	144.63	0.0	20	11.3	-28.8	n.d.	95	394	-11.0
ST23	76.43	147.53	0.0	6	7.6	-28.5	-50	n.d.	394	-11.2
ST24	76.42	149.84	34.4	19	11.9	-26.8	-62	368	374	-11.1
ST25	76.62	152.03	96.7	23	19.5	-25.7	-31	465	263	-10.8
ST26	76.14	157.85	96.2	109	30.8	-24.2	-30	217	316	-10.9
ST27	75.00	161.03	91.5	41	23.3	-23.0	n.d.	256	299	-11.1
ST28	74.63	161.98	86.3	28	15.5	-23.8	n.d.	n.d.	214	-11.3
ST29	73.61	169.72	79.3	31	14.7	-23.2	-50	518	184	-11.3
ST30	75.61	174.01	66.7	43	22.6	-27.0	n.d.	n.d.	304	-10.5
ST31A	75.85	174.41	75.6	30	10.9	-21.6	-62	1911	182	-10.6
ST31B	74.26	173.74	63.5	15	4.6	-23.3	n.d.	783	n.d.	n.d.
ST32	73.56	176.06	51.8	21	11.3	-24.5	-58	131	n.d.	n.d.
ST33	72.35	-175.14	0.0	20	15.5	-23.5	n.d.	473	n.d.	n.d.
ST34	73.28	-173.05	28.7	76	13.4	-21.6	-52	970	n.d.	n.d.
ST35	75.21	-172.05	53.9	24	14.3	-24.2	n.d.	268	n.d.	n.d.

Table 1. Chemical composition of the POM (>10µm) fraction and continuous CO2aq measurements*

n.d = not determined

*Humborg et al. (2017)

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	Salinity	Temperature	DIC	DOC	POC	δ ¹³ C- DIC	NO ₂ - NO ₃	PO ₄	\mathbf{O}_{2}
	Sunny	°C	μmol kg ⁻¹	μmol kg ⁻¹	μmol kg ⁻¹	%0	µmol kg	µmol kg ⁻¹	µmol kg ⁻¹
	median	median	median	median	median	median	median	median	media
Outer LS shelf (0-20 m)	32.87	3.84	2139	149.1	7.9	0.75	0.21	0.27	323.0
LS shelf break (0-20 m)	33.56	0.57	2114	91.5	10.1	1.10	0.26	0.15	364.9
Outer ESS shelf (0-20 m)	29.45	-1.33	1969	84.2	10.7	1.14	0.25	0.97	381.5
ESS shelf break (0-20 m)	28.23	-1.32	1979	73.7	4.6	1.47	0.11	0.59	394.1
	mean	mean	mean	mean	mean	mean	mean	mean	mean
Outer LS shelf (0-20 m)	31.17	3.40	2119	179.8	7.9	0.58	0.60	0.29	327.0
LS shelf break (0-20 m)	33.42	0.96	2111	97.5	10.0	1.10	0.61	0.16	358.1
Outer ESS shelf (0-20 m)	28.95	-0.05	1949	95.8	11.9	1.26	0.26	0.95	386.8
ESS shelf break (0-20 m)	28.27	-1.31	1975	72.0	4.6	1.49	0.12	0.60	397.0
	s.d.	s.d.	s.d.	s.d.	s.d.	s.d.	s.d.	s.d.	s.d.
Outer LS shelf (0-20 m)	3.22	2.38	89	66.3	1.7	0.50	0.91	0.11	14.6
LS shelf break (0-20 m)	0.70	2.07	23	21.2	1.7	0.11	0.74	0.06	22.5
Outer ESS shelf (0-20 m)	1.41	2.28	75	30.2	4.6	0.49	0.12	0.19	32.2
ESS shelf break (0-20 m)	0.53	0.04	49	3.2	0.3	0.08	0.03	0.02	8.3
*data from Humborg et al. 456	(2017) and	l Salvadó et al. (2	2016)						
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Table 2. Surface water ((0_20 m)	chemical and	nhysical r	nronerties duri	ing the SWFR	IS-C3 expedition*
Table 2. Surface water (0-20 m)	chennear anu	physical p	properties uur	ing the SwErv	JS-CJ expedition

ST6LSFew CoscinadiscusNone observedST9LSNone observedFew ProtoperidiniumST11LSNone observedAbundant ProtoperidiniumST22LS-ESSAbundant Chaetoceros, few Rhizosolenia, ThalassiosiraNone observedST25LS-ESSHigh diversity. Abundant Chaetoceros, few Rhizosolenia, Coscinadiscus, Thallasiosira, Asteromphalus, NaviculaNone observedST31AESSHigh diversity. Abundant Chaetoceros, few Rhizosolenia, Coscinadiscus, Thallasiosira, Bacterosira, NaviculaNone observedST31AESSHigh diversity. Abundant Chaetoceros, few Rhizosolenia, Thallasiosira, Bacterosira, NaviculaNone observedST34ESSAbundant Chaetoceros, few Thallasiosira, FragilariopsisFew Protoperidinium47011147147211473111474111	Silicoflagellate
ST11LSNone observedAbundant ProtoperidiniumST22LS-ESSAbundant Chaetoceros, few Rhizosolenia, ThalassiosiraNone observedST25LS-ESSHigh diversity. Abundant Chaetoceros, few Rhizosolenia, Coscinodiscus, Thallasiosira, Asteromphalus, NaviculaNone observedST31AESSHigh diversity. Abundant Chaetoceros, few Rhizosolenia, Thallasiosira, Bacterosira, NaviculaNone observedST31BESSHigh diversity. Few Chaetoceros, Thallasiosira, FragilariopsisFew ProtoperidiniumST34ESSAbundant Chaetoceros, few Thalassiosira, NaviculaFew Protoperidinium470471472473	Silicoflagellate
ST22LS-ESSAbundant Chaetoceros, few Rhizosolenia, ThalassiosiraNone observedST25LS-ESSHigh diversity. Abundant Chaetoceros, few Rhizosolenia, Coscinodiscus, Thallasiosira, Asteromphalus, NaviculaNone observedST31AESSHigh diversity. Abundant Chaetoceros, few Rhizosolenia, Thallasiosira, Bacterosira, NaviculaNone observedST31BESSHigh diversity. Few Chaetoceros, Thallasiosira, FragilariopsisFew ProtoperidiniumST34ESSAbundant Chaetoceros, few Thalassiosira, NaviculaFew Protoperidinium470471472473	Silicoflagellate
S122LS-ESSThalassiosiraNone observedST25LS-ESSHigh diversity. Abundant Chaetoceros, few Rhizosolenia, Coscinodiscus, Thallasiosira, Asteromphalus, NaviculaNone observedST31AESSHigh diversity. Abundant Chaetoceros, few NaviculaNone observedST31BESSHigh diversity. Few Chaetoceros, Thallasiosira, FragilariopsisFew ProtoperidiniumST34ESSAbundant Chaetoceros, few Thalassiosira, NaviculaFew Protoperidinium470471472473473473473	Silicoflagellate
ST25LS-ESSRhizosolenia, Coscinodiscus, Thallasiosira, Asteromphalus, NaviculaNone observedST31AESSHigh diversity. Abundant Chaetoceros, few Rhizosolenia, Thallasiosira, Bacterosira, NaviculaNone observedST31BESSHigh diversity. Few Chaetoceros, Thallasiosira, FragilariopsisFew ProtoperidiniumST34ESSAbundant Chaetoceros, few Thalassiosira, NaviculaFew Protoperidinium470471472473473473473	Silicoflagellate
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Table 3. Qualitative plankton characterization of selected POM (>10µm) samples

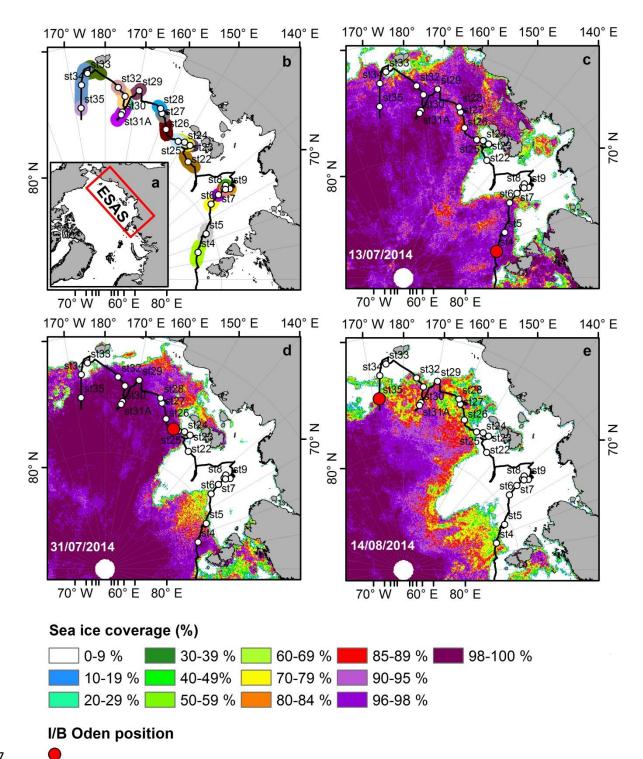


Fig. 1 (a) The study area in the East Siberian Arctic Shelf. (b) Time-averaged position during the large-volume filtration (circles) of the POM (>10 μ m) samples. Shaded coloured areas show the sampling area covered to harvest each POM (>10 μ m) sample. Sea-ice extent and concentration at the beginning (c), in the middle (d) and at the end (e) of the sampling campaign. The ship position is shown by a filled red circle.

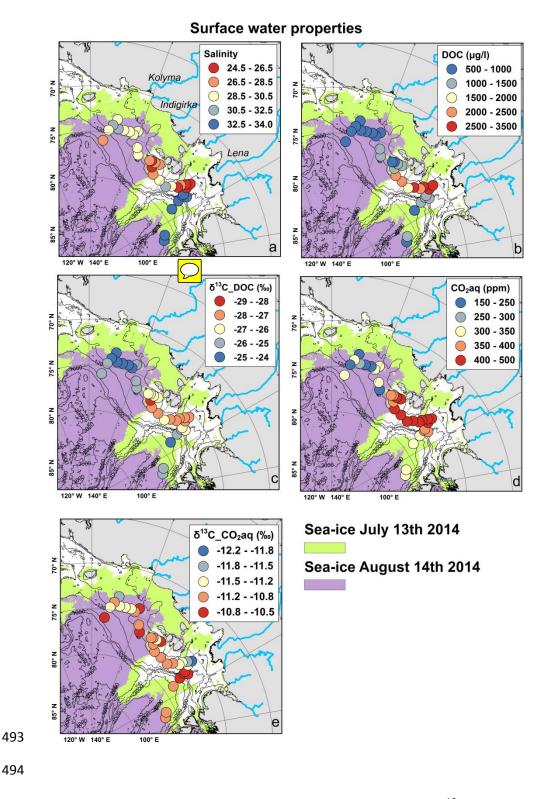
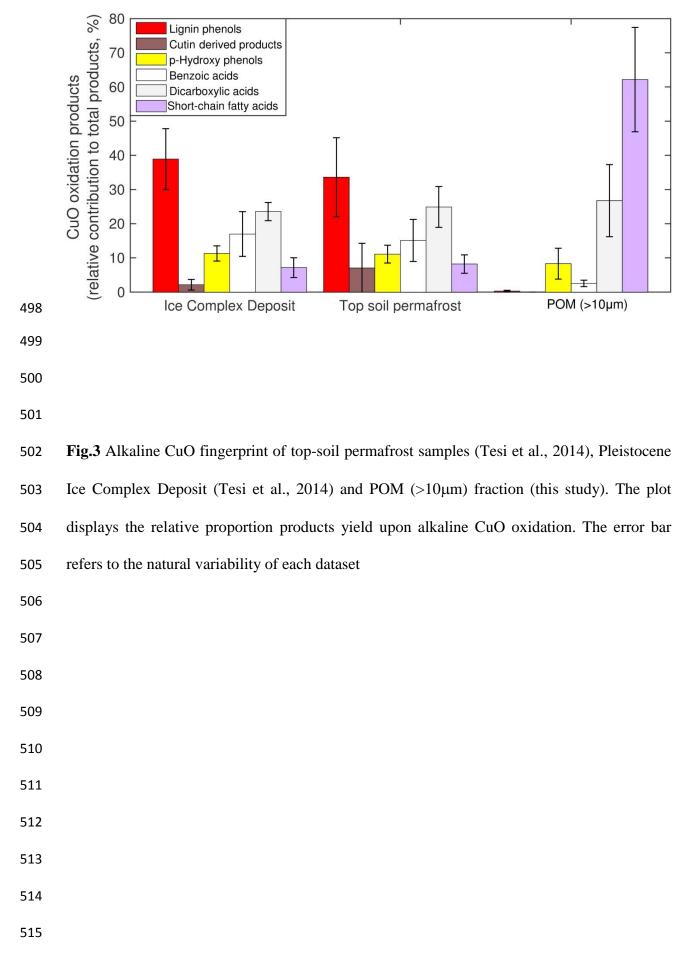


Fig.2 Surface water properties. (a) Salinity. (b) DOC. (c) δ^{13} C-DOC. (d) CO₂aq. (e) δ^{13} C-CO₂aq. Shaded areas show the sea-ice extent at the beginning (13/07/2014) and at the end of the sampling campaign (14/08/2014) (Humborg et al., 2017; Salvadó et al., 2016).



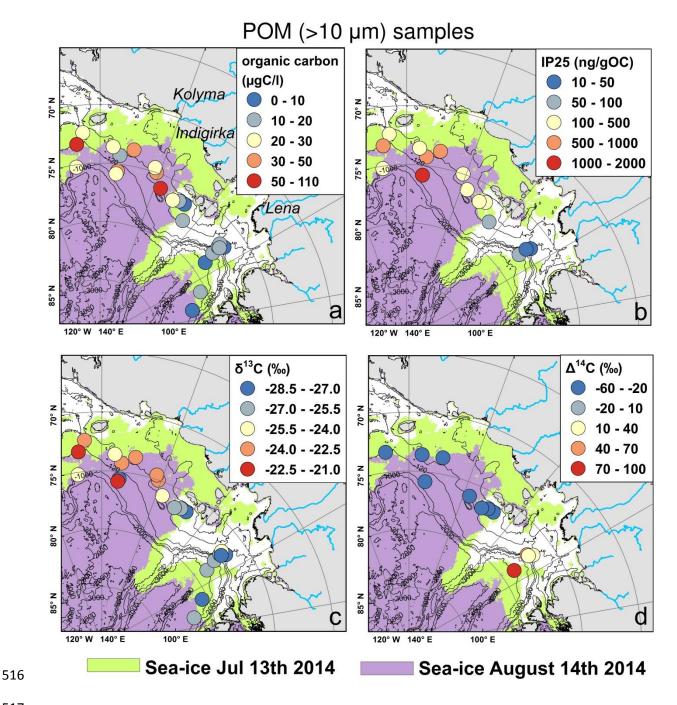
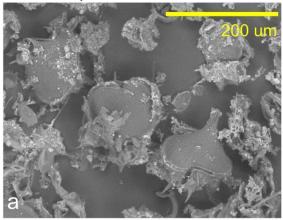


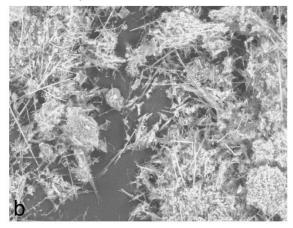


Fig. 4 POM (>10 μ m) composition (a) Organic carbon concentration. (b) IP25 (monounsaturated highly branched isoprenoid. (c) δ^{13} C. (d) Δ^{14} C. Shaded areas show the sea-ice extent at the beginning (13/07/2014) and at the end of the sampling campaign (14/08/2014).

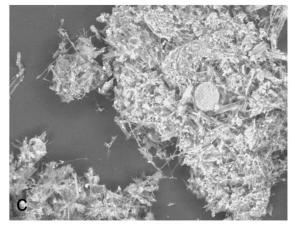
ST11 - Laptev Sea



ST22 - Laptev Sea / East Siberian Sea



ST34 - East Siberian Sea



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Fig. 5 SEM images. (a) ST-11: Dinoflagellates (*Protoperidinium* spp.) in open-waters of the
Laptev Sea. (b) ST22: Diatoms, mostly spines (setae) of *Chaetoceros* spp. in the transition
between Laptev Sea and East Siberian Sea. (c) ST-34: Diatoms from sea-ice dominated
waters in the East Siberian Sea

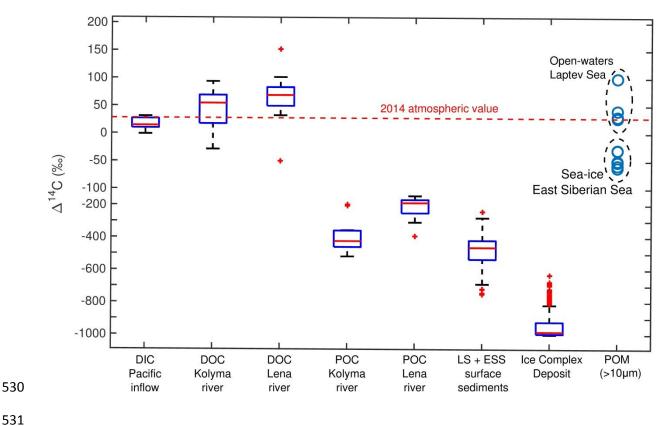


Fig. 6 Radiocarbon signature of inorganic and organic carbon pools. Whisker plots of

radiocarbon values for different inorganic and organic carbon sources from the literature,

compared to the outer Laptev Sea and outer East Siberian Sea (blue circles, this study). Solid

lines show the median, the box limits display the 25th and 75th percentiles while the crosses

show the outliers. Source: DIC (Griffith et al., 2012), DOC-Kolyma (2009-2014), DOC-Lena

(2009-2014), POC-Kolyma (2009-2011), POC-Lena (2009-2011)

(www.arcticgreatrivers.org), Laptev Sea and Eastern Siberia Sea surface sediments (Salvadó

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et al., 2016; Vonk et al., 2012) and Ice Complex Deposit (Vonk et al., 2012).
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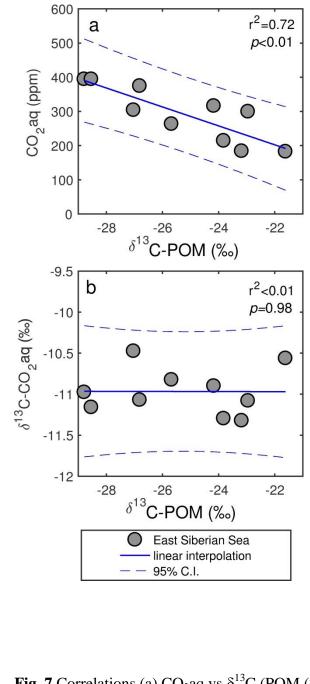


Fig. 7 Correlations (a) CO_2aq vs $\delta^{13}C$ (POM (>10µm) fraction) and (b) $\delta^{13}C$ -CO₂aq vs $\delta^{13}C$ in the East Siberian Sea (filled circles). The solid line shows the linear interpolation while the dashed line shows the 95% confidence intervals.



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