

1 **Diatom flux reflects water-mass conditions on the southern Northwind Abyssal**
2 **Plain, Arctic Ocean**

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13 **ABSTRACT:**

14 We studied time-series fluxes of diatom particles from 4 October 2010 to 18
15 September 2012 using bottom-tethered moorings with two sediment traps deployed at 180 m
16 and 1300 m depths at Station NAP (75°N, 162°W; 1975-m water depth) in the western Arctic
17 Ocean. This paper discusses on the relationship of time-series diatom fluxes with satellite-based
18 sea ice motion and simulated hydrographic variations. We observed clear maxima of the diatom
19 valve flux in November–December of both 2010 and 2011, and in August 2011. Diatoms in
20 samples were categorized into 98 taxa. The diatom flux maxima were characterized by many
21 resting spores in November–December and by the sea ice-associated diatom *Fossula arctica* in
22 August 2011. These assemblages along with abundant clay minerals in the samples suggest a
23 significant influence of shelf-origin materials transported by mesoscale eddies, which developed
24 along the Chukchi Sea shelf break. In contrast, the fluxes of total mass and diatoms were
25 reduced in summer 2012. We hypothesize that this suppression reflects the influx of
26 oligotrophic water originating from the central Canada Basin. A physical oceanographic model
27 demonstrated that oligotrophic surface water from the Beaufort Gyre was supplied to Station
28 NAP from December 2011 to early half of 2012.

31 KEY WORDS: diatom, phytoplankton, sinking particle flux, sediment trap, Northwind Abyssal
32 Plain, Arctic Ocean

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1. Introduction

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37 There are numerous studies reporting the significant influence of the recent declining
38 trend in Arctic sea-ice extent (Stroeve et al., 2012) on marine ecosystems (i.e., Grebmeier et al.,
39 2010; Wassmann and Reigstad, 2011; Wassmann et al., 2011). In the Canada Basin of the
40 western Arctic Ocean, the decrease in sea-ice cover results in deepening of the nutricline in the
41 central part of the Beaufort Gyre (McLaughlin and Carmack, 2010; Nishino et al., 2011a). The
42 intensification of sea-surface circulation promotes lateral shelf–basin interactions (Nishino et al.,
43 2011b; Watanabe and Hasumi, 2009), which influence to ecosystems and biogeochemical
44 cycles.

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While the shelf and shelf slope areas of the Arctic Ocean have been substantially
monitored (i.e., Hargrave et al., 1989; Fukuchi et al., 1993; Wassmann et al., 2004; Forest et al.,
2007, 2011; Gaye et al., 2007; Sampei et al., 2011), the year-round study of sinking biogenic
particles over the basins is still limited, except for a few studies (Fahl and Nöthig, 2007;
Lallande et al., 2009; Honjo et al., 2010; O'Brien et al., 2013). In the cryopelagic Canada Basin,
where the major primary producer is picoplankton, the biogenic particles are remineralized in
the upper water column and particulate organic carbon (POC) supplied into the deep sea are
essentially composed of allochthonous old carbon (Honjo et al., 2010). The low productivity of
shell-bearing microplankton and zooplankton fecal pellets, which have a role as ballast for
settling organic matter, limits the function of biological pump in the oligotrophic cryopelagic
Canada Basin (Honjo et al., 2010). A long-term sediment trap experiment containing
observation of diatom fluxes have been conducted in the Fram Strait (Bauerfeind et al., 2009).
The only previous report on an annual time-series of diatom fluxes in the basin of the Arctic
Ocean is that by Zernova et al. (2000), whose target region was at Station LOMO2 off the
Laptev Sea. Zernova et al. (2000) showed high diatom production and high settling fluxes of
diatom particles under sea-ice at Station LOMO2 during the seasonal maximum of solar
radiation. Lallande et al. (2014) compared short-term monitoring data on diatom flux in the

62 Laptev Sea during 1995, Fram Strait in 1997, and central Arctic Ocean in 2012. They suggested
63 that nutrient supply is the key factor for summer diatom production and POC flux in the central
64 Arctic Basin. In the Chukchi Borderland, the ice-tethered drifting sediment trap “S97-120m”
65 was deployed in 1998, and relatively high POC flux compared to that in the Canada Basin was
66 observed (Honjo et al., 2010). Based on the first year-round monitoring of settling particle flux
67 in the southern Northwind Abyssal Plain by Watanabe et al. (2014), it was suggested that the
68 large amount of settling biogenic and lithogenic particles in November-December 2010 was
69 transported from the Chukchi Sea shelf by the westward advection of cold eddy which
70 developed around the off Barrow Canyon in early summer 2010. According to schematic
71 diagram in Honjo et al. (2010), POC flux at ~120 m depth at 75°N and ~200 m depth at 80°N in
72 the Canada Basin is about 10 and 7 mmol m⁻² yr⁻¹, respectively. The annual POC flux at Station
73 NAP for the first deployment period is about 27 and 20 mmol m⁻² yr⁻¹ at shallow and deep traps,
74 respectively (Watanabe et al., 2014).

75 Diatom dominances in phytoplankton assemblages are usually observed in eutrophic
76 waters whereas dominance of flagellates and picoplankton rather than diatoms are observed in
77 oligotrophic waters such as central basin (Ardyna et al., 2011; Coupel et al., 2012; Lallande et
78 al., 2014). Diatoms are one of the dominant phytoplankton in the Chukchi Sea (Sukhanova et al.,
79 2009; Coupel et al., 2012; Joo et al., 2012; Laney and Sosik, 2014), and the recent
80 environmental changes have influenced the diatom flora and phytoplankton phenology (Arrigo
81 et al., 2012; Ardyna et al., 2014). As one of the major contributors to the biological pump,
82 settling diatom fluxes in the offshore regions along the Chukchi Sea shelf are likely affected by
83 the recent dramatic environmental changes.

84 In this paper, we present new findings on the settling flux of diatom valves and the
85 relationships between diatom valve flux, sinking diatom flora, and upper water-mass properties
86 in the southern Northwind Abyssal Plain from October 2010 to September 2012. The Chukchi
87 Sea is one of the obvious areas of retreating summer sea-ice (Stroeve et al., 2012). The upper
88 water column in the Chukchi Borderland can be affected by three characteristic water-masses:
89 Pacific water, East Siberian Shelf water, and Beaufort Gyre water (Nishino et al., 2011a).
90 Watanabe et al. (2014) documented the eddy-induced winter maximum of settling particle flux
91 at Station NAP. This early-winter event should be observed in settling diatom flux. This paper
92 newly mentions on the summer flux of settling diatom particles in addition to winter flux

93 maximum event of diatom flux. The present paper is the first report on year-round diatom floral
94 flux after the clear trend of declining sea-ice in the western Arctic Ocean. We expect that the
95 recent hydrographic changes in the western Arctic Ocean will be reflected in the settling diatom
96 flux and associated assemblages. The objectives of this paper are (1) to report the variation in
97 diatom flux and assemblage, and (2) to consider how hydrographic changes in the upper water
98 column are reflected in the diatom assemblage and diatom flux in the Northwind Abyssal Plain.

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2. Materials and methods

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102 Two year-round deployments of a bottom-tethered mooring with two conical
103 time-series sediment traps (model SMD26S-6000; Nichiyu Giken Kogyo Co. Ltd., Tokyo,
104 Japan) were conducted at Station NAP on the southern Northwind Abyssal Plain (75°N, 162°W;
105 1975-m water depth) from 4 October 2010 through 27 September 2011 and from 4 October
106 2011 through 17 September 2012. Sediment trap with pressure and temperature sensors was
107 deployed at shallow depth (about 180-260m) and deep depth (1300-1360m). The settling
108 particles were collected for 10–15 days per sample. Before sediment-trap deployment, the 26
109 sampling cups of each trap were filled with seawater containing 5% neutralized formalin as an
110 antiseptic (pH~8.2). In this study we analyzed the samples from both traps except the one that
111 contained a very low volume of trapped particles.

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113 The recovered sediment-trap samples were sieved through a 1-mm mesh to remove
114 swimmers (Matsuno et al., 2014), and then the fine size-fraction (less than 1 mm) was split into
115 appropriate aliquots (1/1000) for diatom analysis by using a wet sample divider (WSD-10;
116 McLane Research Laboratories, East Falmouth, Massachusetts, USA). One of the aliquots was
117 filtered onto a membrane filter (0.45- μ m pore size) with a 3-mm grid. The sample was desalted
118 by rinsing with Milli-Q water, and then the sample filter was dried overnight in an oven at 50 °C.
119 Two sample filters were prepared for each sample, and then one of the filters was mounted on a
120 microscope glass slide with Canada balsam.

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121 Sample filters mounted on the glass slides were counted for diatoms under a light
122 microscope at 600 \times magnification. A duplicate sample was observed using scanning electron
123 microscope observation after osmium coating. A minimum of 400 diatom valves (including
resting-spore valves) per sample were identified, usually to species or genus level. Diatom

124 fluxes were estimated on the basis of valve counts, aliquot size, filtered area (535 mm²), area of
125 sample filter observed, aperture area of sediment trap (0.5 m²), and the sampling period
126 (Onodera et al., 2005). As described in a previous microplankton flux study in the southeastern
127 Beaufort Sea (Forest et al., 2007), the flux of diatom-derived POC (hereafter, diatom POC flux)
128 was estimated on the basis of diatom cell size and an equation for converting cell volume to
129 carbon content per diatom cell (Menden-Deuer and Lessard, 2000). The method for bulk
130 component analysis is described by Watanabe et al. (2014).

131 Sea-ice concentration and light intensity close to Station NAP during the sampling
132 period were obtained from the National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP)/Climate
133 Forecast System Reanalysis (CFSR) (Saha et al., 2010). Sea surface temperature (SST) at
134 Station NAP was taken from the National Oceanographic and Atmospheric Administration
135 (NOAA) OI.v2 SST (Reynolds et al., 2002). Because the moored sediment trap array at Station
136 NAP did not include equipment to measure current velocity, and salinity, satellite-based sea ice
137 motion data and numerical simulation results from a physical oceanographic model known as
138 the Center for Climate System Research Ocean Component Model (COCO) (Hasumi, 2006)
139 were applied to estimate the sea ice and ocean current conditions in the western Arctic Ocean
140 during the sampling period. The National Snow and Ice Data Center (NSIDC) provided the
141 Polar Pathfinder 25 km EASE-Grid sea ice motion vectors, version 2 (Fowler et al., 2013). This
142 dataset was constructed from multiple satellite sensors, such as Special Sensor Microwave /
143 Imager (SSM/I), Advanced Microwave Scanning Radiometer-Earth Observing System
144 (AMSR-E), and Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR), and in-situ
145 measurements of the International Arctic Buoy Programme (IABP). In our study, the monthly
146 mean vector data were downloaded from the NSIDC website
147 (http://nsidc.org/data/docs/daac/nsidc0116_icemotion.gd.html). The pan-Arctic ice-ocean model
148 has the horizontal grid size of about 25 km and 28 vertical levels, where the layer thickness
149 varies from 2 m in the uppermost level to 500 m below 1000 m depth. The sea ice part
150 includes a one-layer thermodynamic formulation (Bitz and Lipscomb, 1999) and
151 elastic-viscous-plastic rheology (Hunke and Dukowicz, 1997). The ocean component is a
152 free-surface ocean general circulation model formulated with the uniformly third-order
153 polynomial interpolation algorithm (Leonard et al., 1994) for horizontal advection
154 scheme. The model domain contains the entire Arctic Ocean, the

155 Greenland-Iceland-Norwegian seas, and the northern part of the North Atlantic. The
156 spin-up experiment was initiated from the temperature and salinity fields of Polar
157 Science Center Hydrographic Climatology version 3.0 (Steele et al., 2001), no ocean
158 circulation, and no sea ice. The interannual experiment from 1979 to 2012 was then
159 performed. Whereas most parts of experimental designs were the same as in Watanabe (2013)
160 and Watanabe and Ogi (2013), the model version was upgraded from COCO 3.4 to 4.9 and the
161 atmospheric forcing dataset was changed from NCEP1 (Kalnay et al., 1996) to the NCEP/CFSR
162 in the present study.

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3. Results

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3.1 Oceanographic features and mooring conditions

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168 Station NAP is located at the southwestern edge of the Beaufort Gyre (Fig. 1), and is
169 occasionally influenced by relatively oligotrophic waters of the Beaufort Gyre (Nishino et al.,
170 2011a). The study area is in polar night from early November through early February (Fig. 2a).
171 The CFSR shortwave radiation at the sea surface (or surface of sea ice) ranged from 0 to 378 W
172 m⁻² (Fig. 2a). Station NAP is located in a seasonal sea-ice zone, and is covered by sea-ice from
173 late October through July (Fig. 2b). Sea surface temperature temporarily increased to about 2 °C
174 in early August in 2011 and 2012 (Fig. 2d).

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The upper water column around the study area is categorized by four water masses (McLaughlin et al., 2011). Under the surface mixed layer (about the upper 25 m), Pacific summer water is observed at 25–100 m water depth (salinity approximately 31–32; Steele et al., 2004). Cold Pacific winter water (temperature minimum at 150 m, salinity around 33; Coachman and Barnes, 1961) is found under the Pacific summer water (100–250 m water depth). Higher salinity water originating from the Atlantic Ocean is observed under the Pacific winter water.

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According to the logged data from pressure and temperature sensors attached to the sediment traps, the shallower sediment trap was moored at a water depth of 181–218 m (median, 184 m) for the first deployment period, and at 247–319 m (median, 256 m) for the second (Fig. 2c). Therefore, the shallow trap was in Pacific winter water during the sampling period, except

186 for in May and July 2012 (Fig. 2c, d). In July 2012, the depth of the shallower trap deepened to
187 320 m in the warm Atlantic water layer, probably because of intensified water currents and
188 incline of mooring, which might have temporarily decreased the trapping efficiency for sinking
189 particles (Matsuno et al., 2014). Although the deepening of shallow trap in May 2012 was minor
190 compared to that in July 2012, the increase of water temperature at shallow trap depth suggests
191 the shallowing upper boundary of the Atlantic water layer. The deeper sediment trap was
192 moored at 1318–1378 m for the entire sampling period.

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194 **3.2 Total mass flux and bulk components**

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196 As previously reported by Watanabe et al. (2014), the total mass flux showed clear
197 annual maxima in November–December in both 2010 and 2011 (Fig. 2e, f). The major
198 component of trapped particles was lithogenic silt-clay minerals (Fig. 2e). There was another
199 peak in total mass flux in summer 2011, but this summer peak did not appear in 2012. The
200 time-series of biogenic opal flux showed variations similar to those of total mass flux ($r = 0.93$
201 for shallow trap data, $n = 34$) (Fig. 2e). Microscopic observation suggests that the biogenic opal
202 in the studied material consisted mainly of diatom valves and radiolarian shells (Ikenoue et al.,
203 2014). The trap samples also contained low numbers of silicoflagellate skeletons, siliceous
204 endoskeleton of dinoflagellate genus *Actiniscus*, chrysophyte cysts, ebridian flagellate and
205 palmares. The contribution of these siliceous flagellates to POC and biogenic opal fluxes
206 appears minor compared to the contribution from diatoms and radiolarians. This result is
207 different from a previous observation on the Mackenzie Shelf in the southwestern Beaufort Sea
208 that showed a significant contribution by small flagellates to the POC flux (Forest et al., 2007).

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210 **3.3 Diatom valve flux and species composition**

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212 The total diatom flux captured in the shallow trap showed clear seasonality (Fig. 3a). A
213 relatively high flux of diatom valves was observed in November–December 2010,
214 August–September 2011, and November–December 2011 (Fig. 3a). The sinking diatom flux
215 rapidly increased in August 2011, when the sea-ice retreated at Station NAP (Figs. 2b, 3a). The
216 maximum of the total diatom flux at the shallow trap depth in summer 2011 reached 11.3×10^6

217 valves $\text{m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in the period from 18 to 31 August. This maximum was approximately 28% of
218 the diatom flux maximum at Station LOMO2 (150-m trap depth) in summer 1996 (Zernova et
219 al., 2000). In 2012, a seasonal increase in total diatom flux started after June. However, in
220 contrast to summer 2011, there was no clear maximum of diatom flux as the same as low total
221 mass flux in June–September 2012. The maximum fluxes reached 17.5×10^6 valves $\text{m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ and
222 10.8×10^6 valves $\text{m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in early winter 2010 and 2011, respectively. The high diatom flux
223 season at the deep trap was similar to that at the shallow trap (Fig. 3a, b). However, there was
224 different between two traps that total diatom flux at deep trap in summer 2011 was higher than
225 those in early winter maxima of 2010 and 2011.

226 The diatoms found in all samples examined were categorized into 98 taxa (Table 1).
227 Because diatom species usually observed in fresh or low-salinity water were very rare, the
228 biogenic materials collected in this study were primarily of marine origin. In the shallow trap
229 samples, the genera *Thalassionema* and *Chaetoceros* (subgenus *Hyalochaete*) were the major
230 components from late October 2010 to early July 2011 (Fig. 3c). *Chaetoceros* relatively
231 increased in late November–December 2010. *Thalassionema* relatively increased in the low flux
232 period and reached to 70% in March 2011. Then, *Fragilariopsis* (*oceanica* and *cylindrus*),
233 which are sea ice-related diatom species (Ren et al., 2014), gradually increased from April to
234 August 2011. The sinking diatom assemblage in summer 2011 was mainly composed of *Fossula*
235 *arctica*, one of the common sea-ice diatoms in the Arctic Ocean (Cremer, 1999; Quillfeldt,
236 2003). The maximum relative abundance of *F. arctica* was 80% in 14–28 September 2011. After
237 the period of *F. arctica* dominance, the relative abundance of *Proboscia eumorpha* increased in
238 shallow trap samples in October–November 2011 (Fig. 3c). The sinking diatom flora during the
239 high flux period of November–December 2011 was essentially the same as that in 2010,
240 although the relative abundance of *Chaetoceros* resting spores was relatively minor compared to
241 other diatoms (Fig. 3a, b). The relative increases of *Fragilariopsis* and *Fossula* were not
242 observed in 2012. The relative abundance of sea ice-related diatoms was less than 23% in
243 summer 2012. Instead, relative abundance of planktic diatoms such as *Thalassiosira* spp. and
244 *Nitzschia* spp. increased in settling diatom assemblage in summer 2012.

245 In comparison of shallow and deep trap diatom floras, the dominant species in settling
246 diatom flora of two traps were the same in the periods of diatom flux maxima (Fig. 3d).
247 However, time-series succession of major diatom species in deep trap samples were unclear

248 compared to that of shallow trap. The clear increase in the relative abundance of *Proboscia*
249 observed at shallow trap in October–November 2011 was not observed at deep trap

250 *Melosira arctica*, which was commonly observed at Station LOMO2 (Zernova et al.,
251 2000) and under summer sea ice in the northern Laptev Sea (Lallande et al., 2014), was rarely
252 observed in our samples (<2% numerical valve abundance). It has been reported that
253 *Neodenticula seminae* is an endemic species in the subarctic North Pacific (Hasle, 1976;
254 Yanagisawa and Akiba, 1990). This species has been expanding its distribution to the North
255 Atlantic Ocean via the Arctic Ocean since 1999 (Reid et al., 2007). At Station NAP, *N. seminae*
256 frustules and their fragments were sporadically observed in both shallow and deep trap samples
257 (Fig. 3c, d). Some diatom valves were observed within aggregated clay minerals, which are
258 considered an allochthonous component originating from the Chukchi Sea shelf.

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3.4 Sinking speed

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262 Using the time-lag between the observed flux maxima at the shallow and deep trap depths, we
263 estimated the average sinking speed of aggregated diatom particles between these depths at
264 37–75 m d⁻¹ in November 2010 and >85 m d⁻¹ in August 2011. The faster sinking speed in
265 August 2011 was primarily due to the abundant gelatinous material of zooplanktonic origin and
266 the larger particle sizes resulting from chains of the diatoms *Fossula arctica* and *Fragilariopsis*
267 spp.

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3.5 Diatom POC flux

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272 In order to estimate the diatom contribution to POC flux, the diatom POC flux is
273 required instead of the flux data for diatom valve abundance. Time-series fluctuations in the
274 diatom POC flux and in the dominant taxa in diatom POC estimation differ from those of the
275 diatom valve flux because of the temporary increases in the flux of larger centric diatoms (Figs.
276 3 and 4). The estimated diatom POC flux is based on observed valve numbers. It is therefore
277 difficult to estimate the influence of selective decomposition of diatom valves and diatom
278 carbon on the POC flux during the sinking process. In November–December most of the POC

279 was attributed to *Coscinodiscus*, *Rhizosolenia*, and *Chaetoceros* (Fig. 4). A temporary increase
280 in diatom POC flux was caused by the appearance of large *Coscinodiscus* in late March and
281 from mid-April to early May 2011. The ice-related algae *Fossula arctica* was the primary
282 species in diatom POC flux during August–September 2011. The high diatom POC flux from
283 *Rhizosolenia* and *Proboscia* in November 2011 was evidenced by the abundant occurrence of
284 the end parts of their needle-like valves rather than the abundant occurrence of intact cells. Thus,
285 the diatom POC flux in November 2011 became overestimate and exceeded total POC flux.
286 *Proboscia* was dominant in the eastern Chukchi Sea shelf waters in September–October 2010 (J.
287 Onodera, unpublished data). The diatom POC flux in summer 2012 was composed mainly of
288 *Thalassiosira* spp. Although vegetative *Chaetoceros* (subgenus *Hyalochaete*) and
289 *Thalassionema* were numerically abundant, their contribution to diatom POC was relatively
290 minor because their cell volume is one to five orders smaller than *Coscinodiscus*, *Rhizosolenia*,
291 *Proboscia*, and *Thalassiosira*.

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4. Discussion

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4.1 Summer diatom flux and changes in upper water masses

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Because the phytoplankton productivity and phytoplankton assemblage is clearly
different between the Chukchi Sea shelf and the Canada Basin, the settling diatom flux at
Station NAP should reflect the times-series hydrographic variations. The diatom flux and
species composition observed in summer 2011 and 2012 probably reflected the dominance of
different water masses—shelf water or oligotrophic Beaufort Gyre water—in the upper water
column. The high dominance of *Fossula arctica* at Station NAP in summer 2011 suggests the
presence of sea-ice transported from the highly productive Chukchi Sea shelf. This species is
commonly observed in the spring assemblage of ice and water in the Chukchi Sea (Quillfeldt et
al., 2003). According to data for the biogeographic diatom distribution in the Laptev Sea, *F.*
arctica is mainly observed in the sea-ice assemblage around shelf zones rather than on the basin
side (Cremer, 1999). The relatively high flux of lithogenic material in 2011 also suggests that
many of the particles trapped in this study originated primarily from the Chukchi Sea shelf.
During October 2010, there was a high cell density of *Proboscia eumorpha* over the eastern

310 Chukchi Sea shelf, whereas there was a low cell density of *Proboscia* species in water samples
311 from the southwestern Canada Basin and the Northwind Abyssal Plain (J. Onodera, unpublished
312 data). The relative increase in *P. eumorpha* after the period of *F. arctica* dominance in 2011
313 probably suggests the influence of Chukchi shelf waters on Station NAP. The transport of
314 coastal water toward Station NAP in summer 2011 was also inferred from the trapped Pacific
315 copepod *Neocalanus cristatus* (Matsuno et al., 2014). Abundant gelatinous zooplankton material,
316 such as “houses” of appendicularian Oikopleuridae (S. Chiba, pers. comm.), was also observed
317 in August-September 2011. In contrast to the situation in 2011, the limited influence of
318 shelf-origin sea-ice and shelf waters around Station NAP in 2012 are evidenced by the absences
319 of biogenic and lithogenic particle fluxes and the rare occurrences of *F. arctica* and other coastal
320 biogenic particles in January–September 2012.

321 To examine the background mechanisms for the suppressed biogenic fluxes in summer 2012,
322 we addressed the relationship between horizontal advection and settling particle fluxes using the
323 satellite-based sea ice motion data and the pan-Arctic ice–ocean model. The sea ice and water
324 mass properties at Station NAP should be considered to be occasionally influenced by
325 inter-annual variability in the Beaufort Gyre circulation. First, we checked the Polar Pathfinder
326 sea ice motion vectors. The seasonal averages in the western Arctic Ocean were plotted in Fig. 5.
327 During the winter season from November 2010 to January 2011, an anti-cyclonic sea ice
328 circulation (normally called as Beaufort Gyre) appeared over the Canada Basin and Chukchi
329 Borderland. This pattern subsided once in early spring and was then recovered for the summer
330 season from May to July 2011. Thus the source region of sea ice around Station NAP would
331 have been the southern Beaufort Sea in 2011. On the other hand, southward sea ice motion
332 prevailed from winter to spring 2012. The anti-cyclonic circulation was shown in following
333 early summer, but its strength was clearly weaker than 2011. The difference between two years
334 also indicated that shelf-origin sea ice less affected settling particle fluxes around Station NAP
335 in 2012.

336 Next, we analyzed the results from our inter-annual experiment using the 25-km grid COCO
337 model. The spatial pattern of simulated sea ice motion was nearly consistent with the
338 satellite-based one (Fig. 6). We then compared the simulated sea-surface height in the western
339 Arctic Ocean using the summertime averages in 2011 and 2012 (Fig. 7). In general, the spatial
340 pattern of sea surface height reflects the intensity and location of the oceanic Beaufort Gyre.

341 The COCO model demonstrated that the sea-surface height was higher over the entire western
342 Arctic basin and the maximum height was located more to the western side of the basin in
343 summer 2012 than those in summer 2011. This difference between the two years indicates that
344 the Beaufort Gyre expanded toward the Chukchi Borderland in 2012.

345 The five-year time-series of simulated ocean current direction in the surface 100-m layer
346 shows that a northwestward current frequently prevailed east of Station NAP (Fig. 8). This
347 situation favors the spread of shelf-origin water with high abundance of coastal diatom taxa and
348 lithogenic materials toward the Chukchi Borderland. The model results also show that the
349 current direction switched southwestward in December 2011. Because the central Canada Basin
350 is known as an oligotrophic region (Nishino et al., 2011a), the transport of nutrient-poor basin
351 water toward Station NAP would be a possible factor for explaining the lower diatom flux in
352 summer 2012. These model results suggest that variations in the Beaufort Gyre significantly
353 influenced nutrient availability and the consequent biogenic fluxes at Station NAP.

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355 **4.2 Lateral advection of coastal diatoms in early winter**

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357 Based on biogeographic characteristics, much of the *Chaetoceros* resting spores and
358 other coastal diatoms in the studied samples can be regarded as allochthonous materials
359 transported from shelf to basin. Compared to previous studies of particulate carbon fluxes in the
360 Arctic Ocean (summarized in Wassmann et al., 2004), the early winter maximum of POC flux in
361 our study is unusual under conditions of sea-ice cover and polar night. No diatom flux
362 maximum was observed in any early winter during the previous diatom flux study at Station
363 LOMO2 (Zernova et al., 2000). Because polar diatoms show tolerance to low light intensity
364 (Lee et al., 2008), the autumn diatom production probably continued under sea-ice cover and
365 decreasing solar radiation at Station NAP after late October (Fig. 2a, b). However, the high
366 diatom production and subsequent flux of settling diatoms and other biogenic particles,
367 comparable to the summer situation, cannot be explained on the basis of the general seasonality
368 of primary production and sinking particle flux in the seasonal sea-ice zone of the Arctic Ocean
369 (Wassmann et al., 2004; Wassmann and Reigstad, 2011). In this study, we also observed the
370 annual maximum of lithogenic particle flux during the period of the high flux of sinking
371 diatoms in November–December (Figs. 2 and 3; Watanabe et al., 2014). In the early winter of

372 each year, the origin of diatom particles comprising the diatom flux maximum around Station
373 NAP should be treated as a complex of transported shelf-origin materials and autochthonous
374 diatoms. The dominance of *Chaetoceros* (subgenus *Hyalochaete*) spp. and their resting spores,
375 and abundant silt-clay minerals in the studied samples, suggests the substantial influence of
376 Chukchi Sea shelf waters.

377 The increased supply of coastal diatoms and lithogenic materials in early winter can be
378 explained by several possible mechanisms for their transport from shelf to basin. Re-suspension
379 of shelf bottom materials into the upper water column would cause the continuous dominance of
380 lithogenic materials with coastal diatom valves in the studied particles at Station NAP. In
381 addition, suspended neritic diatoms are incorporated into sea ice and driven offshore (Róžańska
382 et al., 2008). However, sea-ice drift and the usual re-suspension of shelf materials cannot fully
383 explain the early winter flux maxima of diatoms and lithogenic particles at Station NAP. The
384 high-resolution pan-Arctic Ocean model COCO demonstrated that a drifting anti-cyclonic cold
385 eddy generated north of Point Barrow in June 2010 passed Station NAP at the 100- to 200-m
386 water depth during late October–early December 2010 (Watanabe et al., 2014). The simulated
387 cold eddy passage was consistent with the observed event-like cooling and deepening of the
388 moored trap depth that we recorded in late October–December 2010 (Fig. 2c, d). In addition,
389 this eddy continued to pull cold water from the outer shelf during the early part of its passage
390 from off Point Barrow toward Station NAP. Therefore, the movement of the cold eddy could
391 account for the appearance of the high proportion of shelf bottom-water at Station NAP in late
392 October–early December (Fig. S2.2 in Watanabe et al., 2014).

393 Based on the observed characteristics of diatom floral fluxes and the physical
394 oceanographic simulation, we suggest that the early-winter maximum of diatom flux observed
395 in this study is primarily caused by a drifting cold eddy that developed along the shelf break off
396 Point Barrow (Watanabe et al., 2014). The smaller maximum of diatom flux at deep trap in early
397 winter is probably reflecting the horizontal diffusion of settling particles in deep layer under
398 eddy (Siegel et al., 1990) in addition to biogenic particle decomposition. Whereas eddy-induced
399 lateral transport of coastal materials has been reported in the Canada Basin (O’Brien et al., 2011,
400 2013; Nishino et al., 2011b), the eddy in this study, composed of Pacific-origin waters with
401 lower density, did not flow down the shelf slope. Because the shallow sediment trap was
402 moored at about 260 m during the second deployment, the direct influence of the cold eddy was

403 not detected by the temperature and pressure sensors attached to the sediment trap. However, a
404 similar eddy-induced transport event of shelf materials to the basin in early winter 2011 is
405 evident in the high diatom flux, the characteristic diatom assemblage, and the high abundance of
406 lithogenic clay particles.

407

408 **4.3 Role of diatoms in the biological pump**

409

410 Because biogenic opal has a ballast effect on the export of particulate organic matter to
411 deep basins (Honjo et al., 2008; Honda and Watanabe 2010), the biological pump is usually
412 effective in diatom-rich oceans such as the Aleutian Basin in the Bering Sea (Takahashi et al.,
413 2002), the subarctic North Pacific (Honda et al., 2002; Takahashi et al., 2002; Honda and
414 Watanabe, 2010), and the Southern Ocean (Honjo et al., 2008). However, most settling
415 autochthonous POC in the central Canada Basin is remineralized within subsurface layers
416 (Honjo et al., 2010). Fresh POC is not supplied to deeper layers, even though there is primary
417 production of 2–4 mol C m⁻² y⁻¹ (Honjo et al., 2010). The primary producers in the cryopelagic
418 Canada Basin are mainly green algae and other picoplankton (e.g., Coupel et al., 2012). The
419 limited amounts of diatoms supplying biogenic ballast and fecal pellets are the causes of an
420 ineffective biological pump in the Canada Basin (Honjo et al., 2010). The relatively abundant
421 POC fluxes at Station NAP, in comparison to those at the subsurface and sediment-trap Station
422 CD04-3067m (trap depth: 3067 m) in the central Canada Basin (Honjo et al., 2010), re due to
423 the higher lateral carbon transport from the Chukchi Sea shelf, autochthonous production of
424 phyto- and zooplankton around Station NAP (Watanabe et al., 2014).

425

426 The diatoms collected in our samples sometimes retained the chain form of frustules.
427 In particular, frustules with residual protoplasm were also observed in the summer samples.
428 Their occurrence suggests that the carbon supplied to the deep sea in the Northwind Abyssal
429 Plain includes not only old carbon transported from the shelf or sea-floor ridge but also fresh
430 carbon produced around the study area. When the influence of shelf-origin water is obvious at
431 Station NAP, as in 2011, the biological pump at Station NAP will be relatively active owing to
432 abundant supplies of biogenic and lithogenic particles. In contrast, when oligotrophic water
433 from the central Canada Basin was supplied to Station NAP, as observed in early 2012, the
sinking particle flux at Station NAP was limited. In this situation, the efficiency of the

434 biological pump might be reduced to a level comparable to that in the central Canada Basin.
435 Therefore, on the Chukchi shelf side of the outer Beaufort Gyre, primary productivity and the
436 biological pump are influenced by the spatial distribution of upper water masses (Nishino et al.,
437 2011a). When oligotrophic sea-surface waters reduce the summer particle flux, as evident in
438 summer 2012, the eddy effect on lateral advection of shelf materials to the basin (Nishino et al.,
439 2011b; O'Brien et al., 2011, 2013; Watanabe et al. 2014) becomes important to the seasonality
440 of organic matter flux and the composition of the sinking microplankton flora in the study area
441 (Watanabe et al., 2014).

442

443 **Author contributions**

444 N.H. planned the research project. J.O. carried out the diatom analysis and offshore
445 work of sediment-trap mooring experiments. E.W. implemented the physical oceanographic
446 model. M.C.H. analyzed the biogenic opal in sediment trap samples. J.O. and E.W. prepared the
447 manuscript with contributions from all co-authors.

448

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459

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670

671

672 Table and figure captions

673

674 Table 1. Diatom taxa found in sediment trap samples from Station NAP collected from 4
675 October 2010 to 18 September 2012. The symbols "*" and "?" indicate sea ice-related
676 taxa, and uncertain identification in this study, respectively.

677

678 Figure 1. Bathymetric map around Station NAP (solid black circle at 75°N, 162°W) in the
679 western Arctic Ocean, and schematic of sea-surface circulation over the Chukchi Sea
680 shelf and in the southern Canada Basin (Danielson et al., 2011). NR, Northwind Ridge;
681 NAP, Northwind Abyssal Plain; CP, Chukchi Plateau; CS, Chukchi Spur; CAP, Chukchi
682 Abyssal Plain; AMR, Alpha-Mendeleev Ridge complex.

683

684 Figure 2. Time-series data at Station NAP from 1 October 2010 through 18 September 2012. (a)
685 Climate Forecast System Reanalysis (CFSR) reanalysis data of shortwave radiation, (b)
686 CFSR reanalysis data of sea-ice concentration, (c) depth log of moored shallow trap, (d)
687 water temperature recorded at moored shallow trap (black line), and NOAA OI.v2
688 weekly sea-surface temperature at Station NAP (gray line), (e) total mass flux and bulk
689 components of sinking particles at shallow trap depth (data period was expanded from
690 Watanabe et al., 2014), and (f) total mass flux and bulk components at deep trap depth.
691 Blank areas in bulk component data indicate no analysis because of limited sample
692 volume.

693

694 Figure 3. Total diatom flux and settling diatom assemblage at Station NAP from 4 October 2010
695 through 17 September 2012. (a) Sinking diatom flux at shallow trap, (b) sinking diatom
696 flux at deep trap, (c) relative diatom valve abundance excluding *Chaetoceros* spores at
697 shallow trap, and (d) relative diatom valve abundance excluding *Chaetoceros* spores at
698 deep trap. Blanks in time-series data indicate periods with no data because of limited
699 sample volume or periods without sampling because of mooring turnaround. The plot
700 data is listed in Table A1.

701

702 Figure 4. Time-series fluxes of total POC and diatom-derived carbon at Station NAP. (a)

703 Shallow trap, and (b) deep trap.

704

705 Figure 5. Sea ice motion vectors in the western Arctic Ocean derived from the Polar Pathfinder
706 dataset in (a-c) 2011 and (e-f) 2012. (g-i) Their difference (2012 minus 2011). Seasonal
707 averages for (a,d,g) November to January, (b,e,h) February to April, and (c,f,i) May to
708 July were calculated from monthly mean data. Each vector in the EASE grid was
709 interpolated to the COCO model grid for comparison, and the obtained vectors are shown
710 every eight grid (approximately 200 km). Unit vector corresponds to 5 cm s^{-1} . The
711 location of Station NAP is presented by the red circular symbol. Thin contours indicate
712 isobaths of 100 m, 1000 m, and 3000 m.

713

714 Figure 6. Same as Figure 5, but the COCO model result.

715

716 Figure 7. Sea surface height (cm) in the western Arctic Ocean obtained from the COCO model.
717 The summertime averages over June, July, and August are shown for (a) 2011 and (b)
718 2012. Black contours trace isobaths of 100 m, 1000 m, and 3000 m. The white contours
719 indicate a sea surface height of zero. The purple line corresponds to 75°N , used for
720 modeled current direction in Figure 8. Red dots show the location of Station NAP. Purple
721 dots represent the east and west limits of the horizontal section in Figure 8.

722

723 Figure 8 Modeled ocean current direction averaged from the surface to 100-m depth across an
724 east–west section along 75°N (see purple line in Figure 7). The vertical axis represents an
725 inter-annual time-series from 2008 to 2012. Blue (red) color indicates a northwestward
726 (southwestward) ocean current.

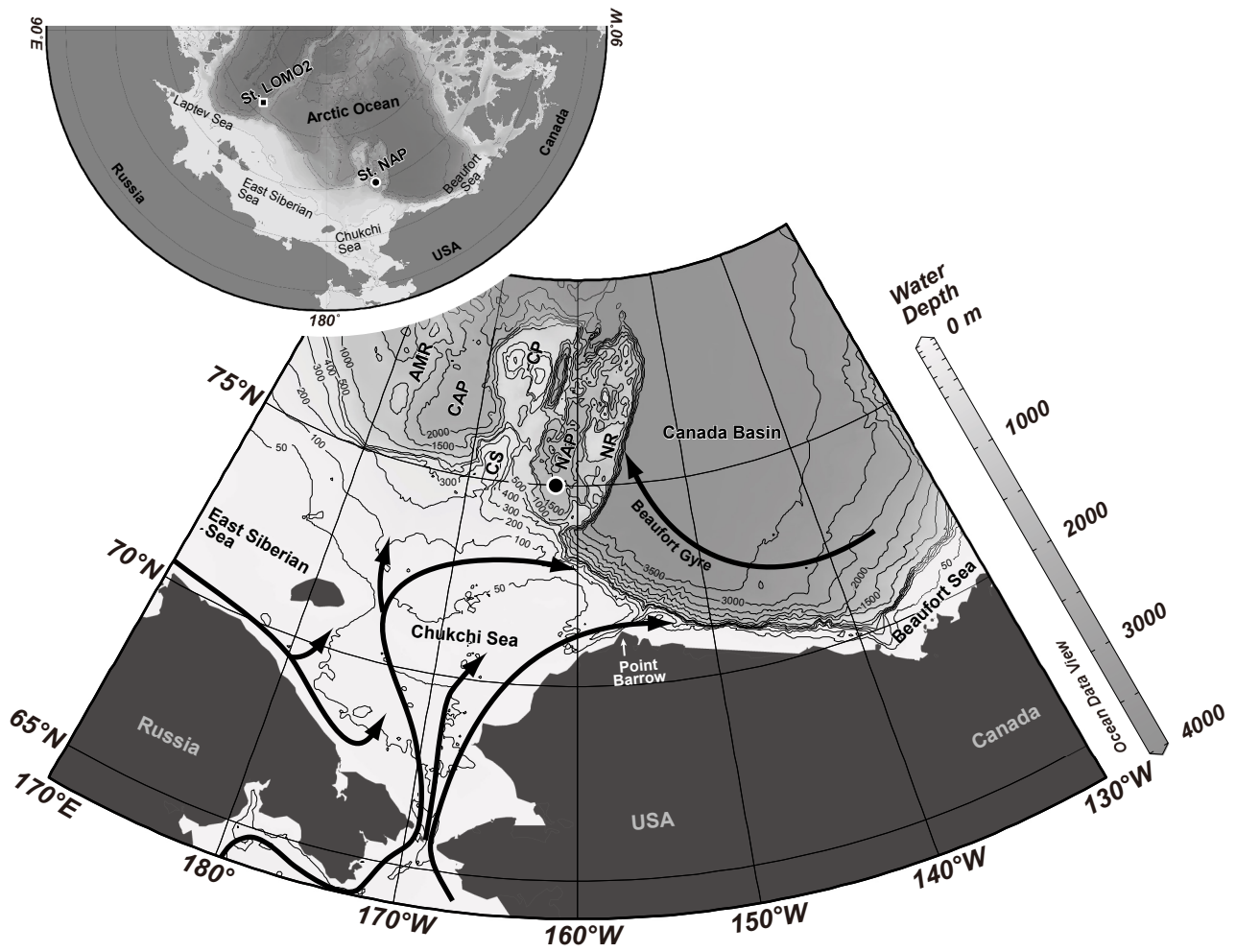


Fig. 1

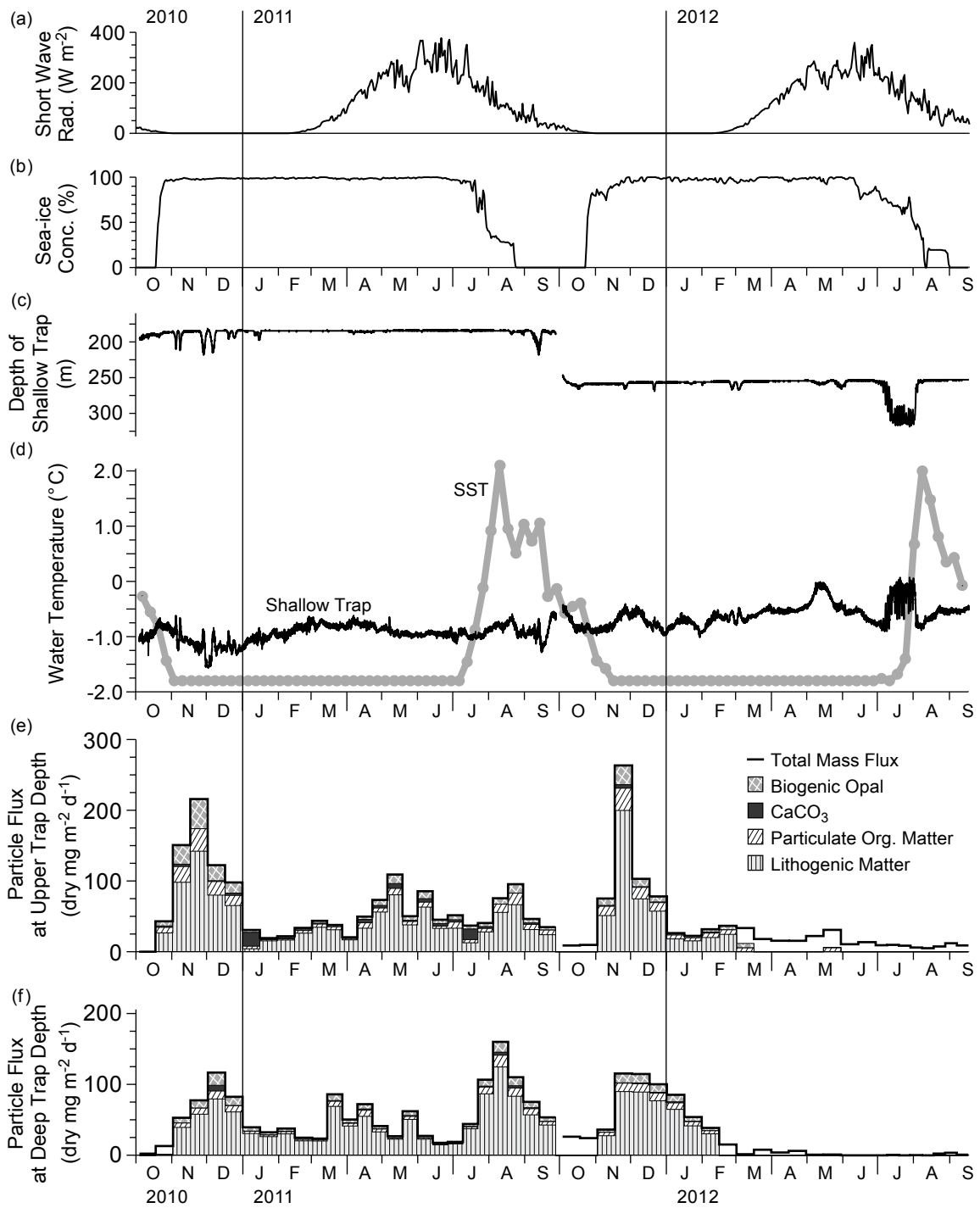


Fig. 2

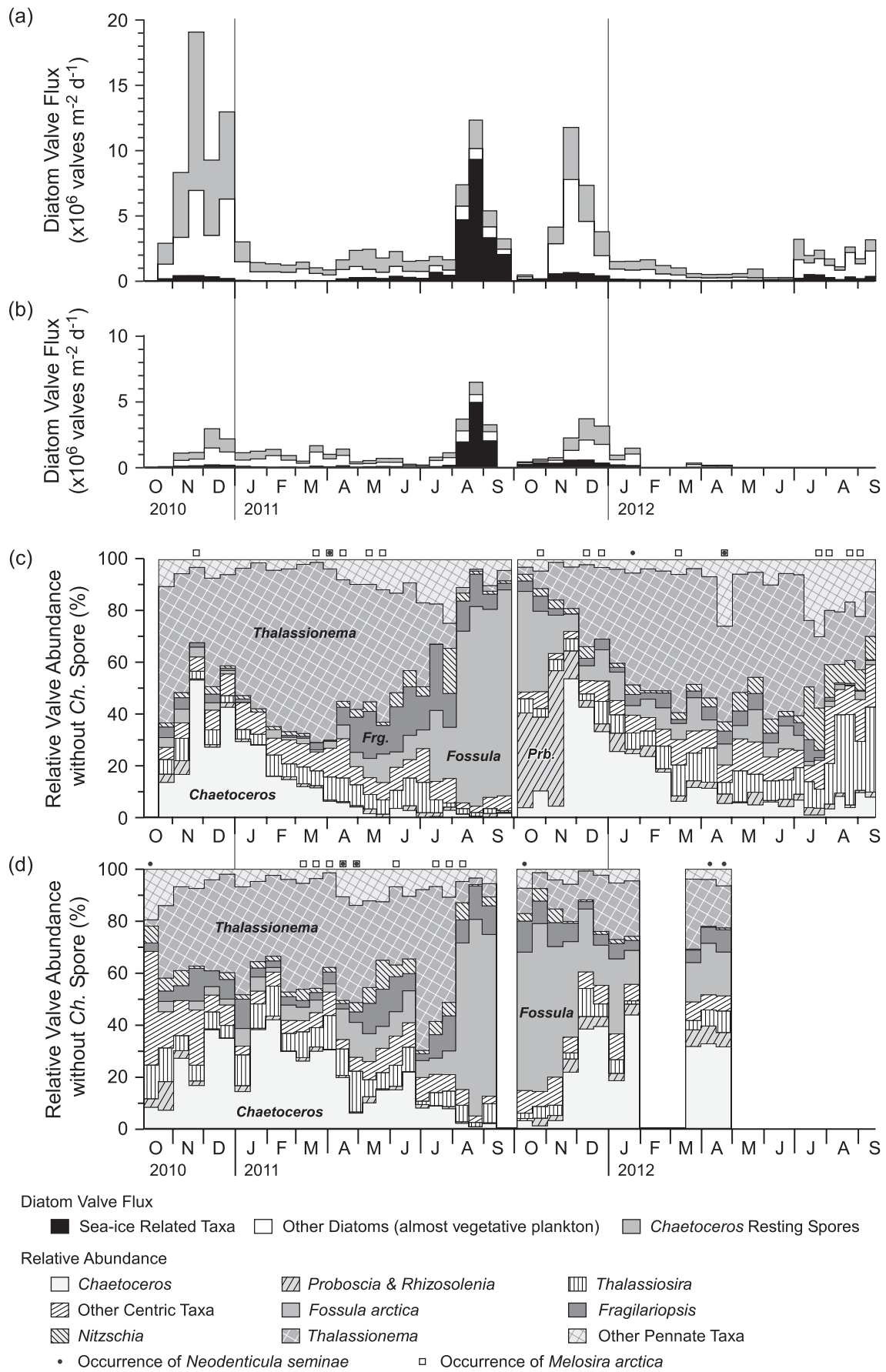


Fig. 3

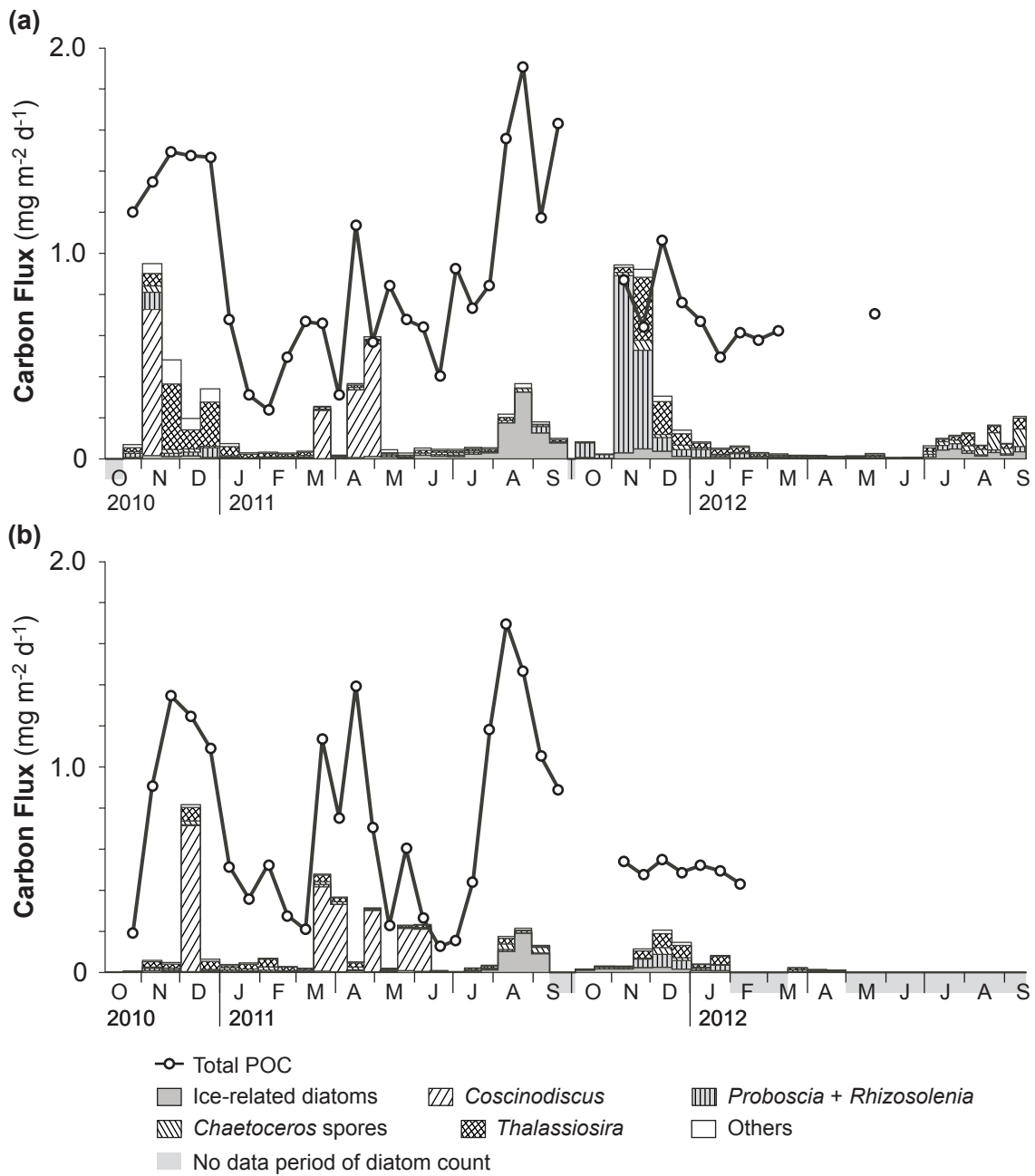


Fig. 4

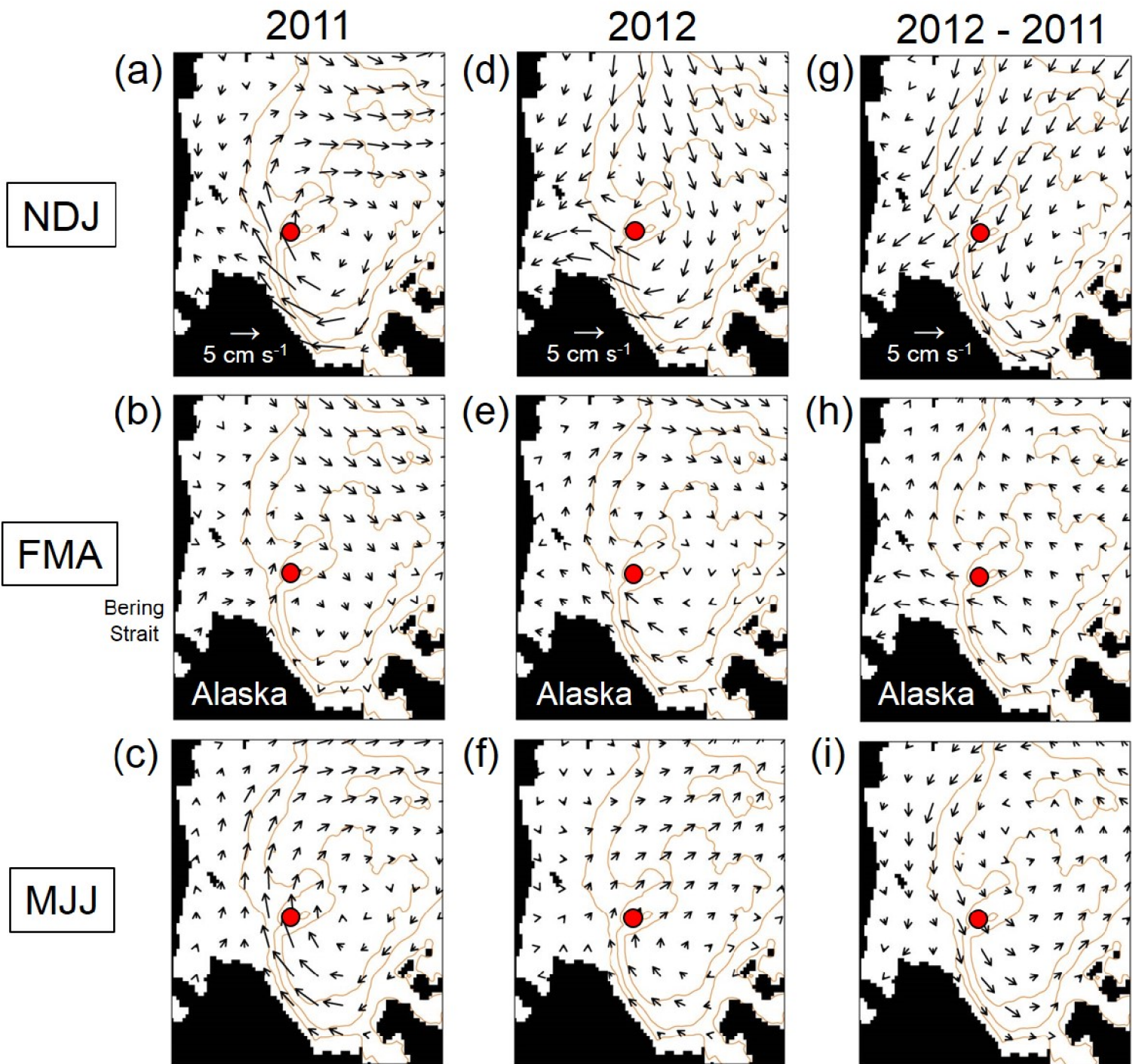


Fig. 5

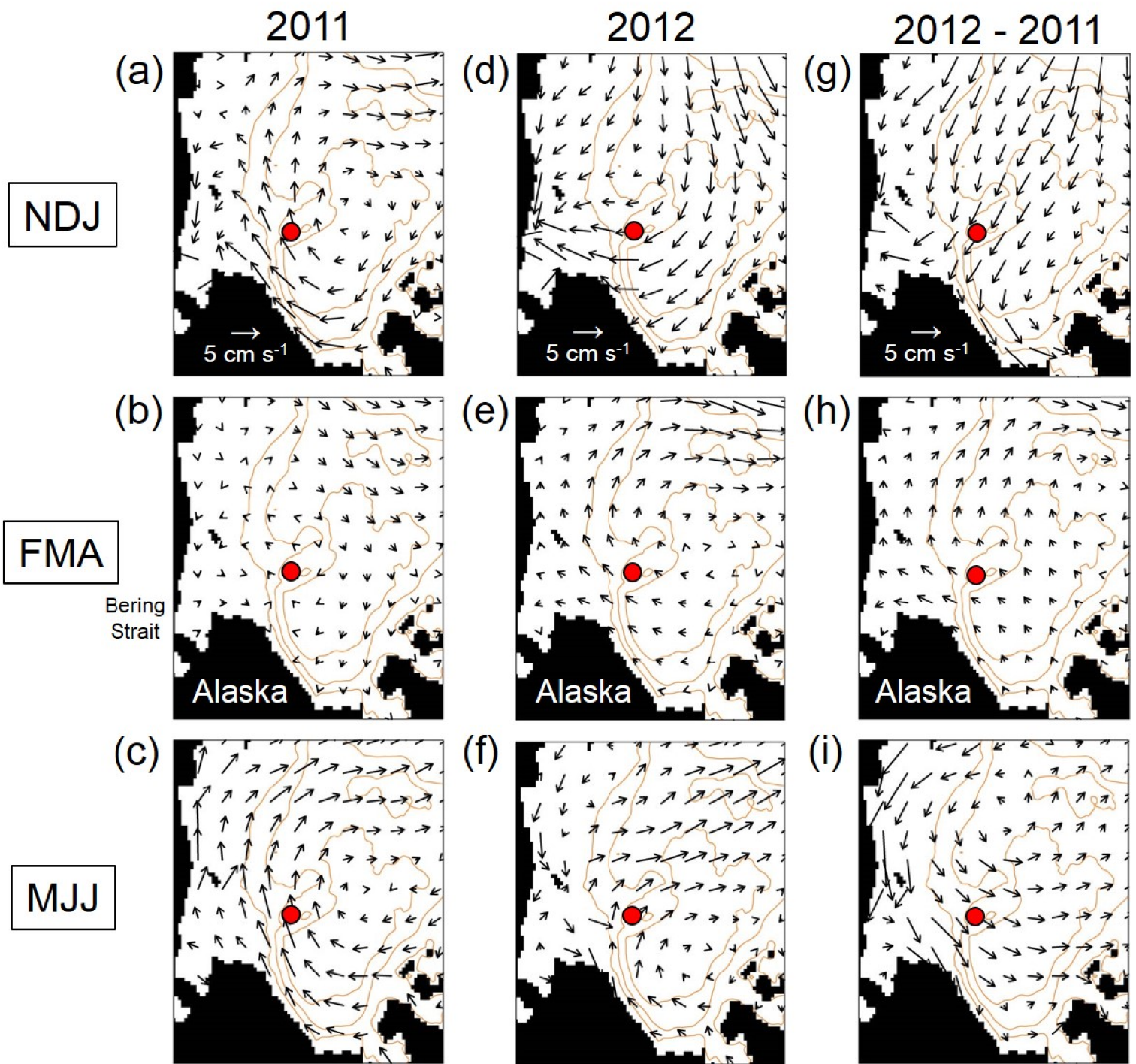


Fig. 6

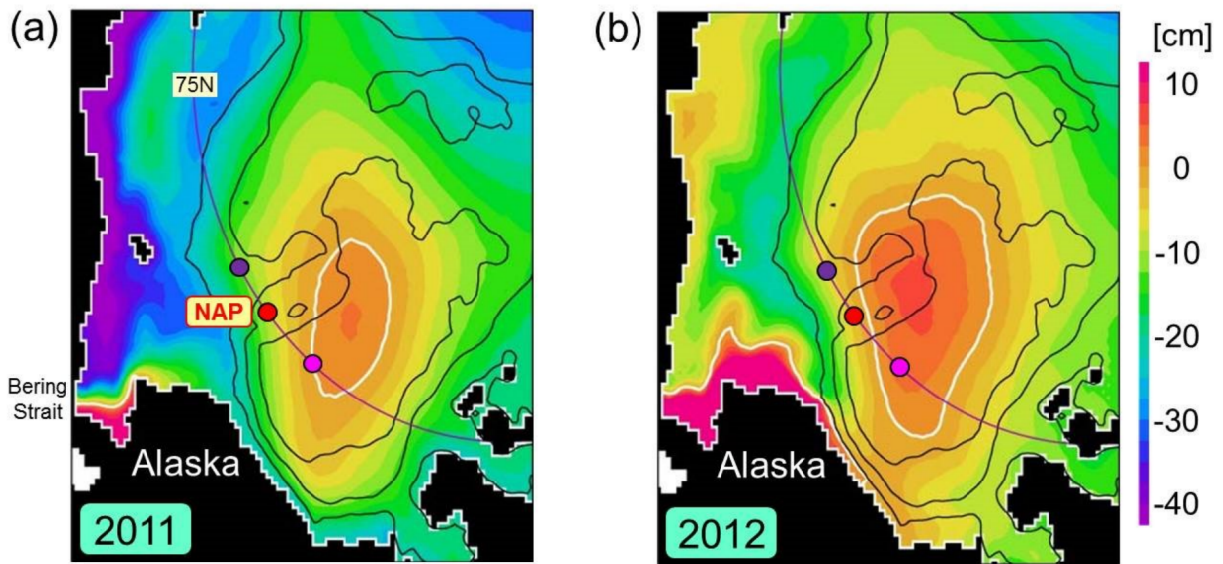


Fig. 7

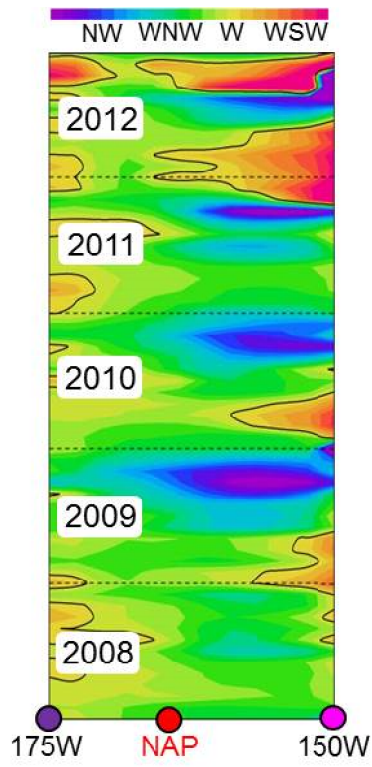


Fig. 8