

Dear,

Associate Editor,

Biogeosciences

We are pleased to submit the revised version of our manuscript entitled “First *in situ* estimations of small phytoplankton carbon and nitrogen uptake rates in the Kara, Laptev, and East Siberian seas”. We are thankful for your valuable comments and have incorporated changes suggested by you. We hope that the revised manuscript is now suitable for the publication in Biogeosciences.

Thanking you,

Your's sincerely,

Bhavya P. S.

(On behalf of all the authors)

The list of changes made in the revised manuscript are:-

1. The language correction for the manuscript has been performed by the native English editor.
2. The suggestions by the associate editor have been incorporated in the revised manuscript such as abbreviations and full spellings of parameters in the tables.
3. The usage of “PSU” has been removed from the revised manuscript as per the associate editor’s suggestions.

1 **First *in situ* estimations of small phytoplankton carbon and nitrogen uptake rates in the**  
2 **Kara, Laptev, and East Siberian seas**

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21 **Abstract.** Carbon and nitrogen uptake rates by small phytoplankton (0.7-5  $\mu\text{m}$ ) in the Kara,  
22 Laptev, and East Siberian seas in the Arctic Ocean were quantified using *in situ* isotope labeling  
23 experiments; this research was novel and part of the NABOS (Nansen and Amundsen Basins  
24 Observational System) program, taking place from August 21 to September 22, 2013. The depth-  
25 integrated carbon (C), nitrate ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ ), and ammonium ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ ) uptake rates by small  
26 phytoplankton ranged from 0.54 to 15.96  $\text{mg C m}^{-2}\text{h}^{-1}$ , 0.05 to 1.02  $\text{mg C m}^{-2}\text{h}^{-1}$ , and 0.11 to 3.73  
27  $\text{mg N m}^{-2}\text{h}^{-1}$ , respectively. The contributions of small phytoplankton towards the total C,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  
28 and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  varied from 25 to 89%, 31 to 89%, and 28 to 91%, respectively. The turnover times for  
29  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  by small phytoplankton found in the present study indicate the longer residence  
30 times (years) of the nutrients in the deeper waters, particularly for  $\text{NO}_3^-$ . Additionally, the  
31 relatively higher C and N uptake rates by small phytoplankton obtained in the present study from  
32 locations with less sea ice concentration indicate the possibility that small phytoplankton thrive  
33 under the retreat of sea ice as a result of warming conditions. The high contributions of small  
34 phytoplankton to the total C and N uptake rates suggest the capability of small autotrophs to  
35 withstand the adverse hydrographic conditions introduced by climate change.

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38 **Keywords:** Arctic Ocean, nitrogen, carbon, and small phytoplankton.

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## 42 1. Introduction

43 The Arctic Ocean has **always** been a key attraction for oceanic expeditions due to its rapid  
44 response to changing environmental conditions caused by both natural and anthropogenic factors.  
45 It has been reported that the rate of decrease in **the** sea ice extent in the Arctic Ocean is  
46 significantly high and **has gradually** caused a decline in sea ice thickness over recent decades  
47 (Stroeve et al., 2008; Comiso et al., 2008; Kwok et al., 2009; Overland and Wang, 2013). As an  
48 immediate effect, sea ice retreat **could** benefit the primary production by autotrophs due to  
49 increased exposure to sunlight (Hill and Cota, 2005; Gradinger, 2009; Arrigo et al., 2012, Arrigo  
50 and van Dijken, 2015; Bélanger et al., 2008; Kahru et al., 2016). It was also reported that  
51 primary production in the Barents Sea **increased by 30% during the warm period (i.e., 1989-1995)**  
52 **compared to the cold period during the** 1960s (Wassmann et al., 2011; Arrigo et al., 2008).  
53 However, as a result of sea ice melting, the ice-algal communities may be replaced by pelagic  
54 communities. Although ice-algal communities are not a large contributor to primary production,  
55 their absence could potentially alter the vertical flux of organic carbon and coupling between the  
56 euphotic and benthic zones (Walsh, 1989).

57 Sea surface warming can also result in strong water column stratification, which can  
58 reduce the nutrient supply to the surface water and consequently cause a decrease in primary  
59 production (Bopp et al., 2001; Tremblay and Gagnon, 2009; Lee et al., 2007, 2012; Li et al.,  
60 2009; Steinacher et al., 2010; Martin et al., 2010; McLaughlin et al., 2010; Slagstad et al., 2011;  
61 Thomas et al., 2012); **these conditions would cause** alterations in the carbon (C) dynamics in the  
62 Arctic Ocean (Arrigo et al., 2008; Bates and Mathis, 2009; Cai et al., 2010). **How phytoplankton**  
63 **communities in the Arctic Ocean would** respond to the physical, chemical, and biological stress  
64 introduced by global **warming has been a heavily debated topic.** One group of researchers **has**

65 reported that there has been an enhancement in annual primary production due to increased light  
66 availability and warmer temperature in the Arctic Ocean (Arrigo et al., 2008; Arrigo and Dijken,  
67 2011; Thomas et al., 2012). However, another group has suggested that excess moisture fluxes  
68 under warmer sea conditions can introduce wider cloud cover conditions during summer and  
69 early fall, and thus, the possibility of reducing autotrophic primary production is inevitable  
70 (Eastman and Warren, 2010; Vavrus et al., 2012; Bélanger et al., 2013). Water column  
71 stratification is also a contrary effect introduced by global warming, and stratification can  
72 significantly reduce the amount of vertical mixing of nutrient-rich deep waters, lowering primary  
73 productivity (Tremblay and Gagnon, 2009; Lee et al., 2007, 2012; Yun et al., 2015). On the other  
74 hand, a decline in the nutrient concentrations in surface waters and sustained nutrient levels in  
75 the deeper waters could be an immediate effect of global warming (Vancoppenolle et al., 2013).  
76 Such an environment would be adverse for large phytoplankton communities who require more  
77 nutrients to achieve a given potential primary production level (Li et al., 2009). However, small  
78 phytoplankton (size range: 0.7-5  $\mu\text{m}$ ), which have lower nutrient requirements, proliferate under  
79 such conditions (Li et al., 2009; Daufresne et al., 2009). Hence, understanding the mechanism  
80 and processes of small phytoplankton metabolic activities under various environmental  
81 conditions would be a crucial aspect of Arctic Ocean ecosystem research.

82 A few studies have been conducted to understand the fate of small phytoplankton under  
83 changing environmental scenarios (Li et al., 2009; Yun et al., 2015). These studies have  
84 identified that the smallest phytoplankton cells can flourish under such nutrient-replete  
85 conditions; however, the larger cells decline in number (Li et al., 2009). Hence, the reduction in  
86 the community average body size of the autotrophs is expected to be an obvious response to  
87 global warming (Daufresne et al., 2009). Consequently, the primary production contribution by

88 small phytoplankton would be a substantial part of the Arctic Ocean biogeochemistry. However,  
89 the contribution of small phytoplankton to autotrophic C and dissolved inorganic nitrogen [here;  
90  $\text{DIN} = \text{NO}_3^- + \text{NH}_4^+$ ] fixation has been one of the least investigated topics in global oceanic  
91 research, particularly in the Arctic Ocean (Semiletov et al., 2005; Arrigo and Dijken, 2011; Hill  
92 et al., 2017; Yun et al., 2012, 2015; Lee et al., 2007, 2012).

93         Apart from global warming, localized influences are also an important factor in  
94 controlling primary production in the Arctic Ocean. It has been reported that Arctic Ocean  
95 biogeochemistry is mainly governed by the high riverine **inputs and** intrusions of Atlantic and  
96 Pacific waters (Shiklomanov et al., 2000; Carmack and Macdonald, 2002; Peterson, et. al., 2002;  
97 Anderson et al., 2004). The major rivers that flow into the Arctic Ocean are the Ob', Lena,  
98 Yenisey, and **Mackenzie rivers, and numerous smaller rivers flow in both the Amerasian and**  
99 **Eurasian sectors. It has been reported that the Ob' and Yenisey rivers increased** in their  
100 freshwater discharge since the 1980s (Semiletov et al., 2005; Anderson et al., 2009). These seas  
101 are situated along the continental shelf of the Arctic Ocean, which is known to be the widest and  
102 shallowest shelf in the world's oceans (Semiletov et al., 2005). These seas are characterized by  
103 highly dynamic organic matter production and export to the deeper ocean as well as profound  
104 atmospheric exchanges of volatile gases (Semiletov et al., 2005; Anderson et al., 2009).

105         **Few studies have estimated** the influence of river effluences on the C and DIN uptake  
106 rates (Lee et al., 2007, 2012; Yun et al., 2015). However, the potential impact of riverine influx  
107 on small phytoplankton uptake rates, **which is relevant for the accountability of natural and**  
108 **anthropogenic influences on Arctic primary production, has not been investigated thus far.** The  
109 present study reports the first investigation results on small phytoplankton (size: 0.7-5  $\mu\text{m}$ )  
110 **contributions to the C,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  uptake rates in the Kara, Laptev, and East Siberian seas.**

111 Considering the global relevance of Arctic Ocean biogeochemistry, the present study aimed to (1)  
112 estimate the contribution of small phytoplankton to total primary production as well as the  $\text{NO}_3^-$   
113 and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  uptake rates and (2) investigate various factors influencing small phytoplankton  
114 community efficiency in the Kara, Laptev, and East Siberian seas.

## 115 2. Materials and Methods

### 116 2.1. Study Area

117 The investigations on biochemical parameters and C and DIN transformation rates in the Kara,  
118 Laptev, and East Siberian seas were conducted at 19 monitoring stations selected from a total of  
119 116 NABOS stations (Fig. 1; Table 1). The geographical boundaries of each sea were defined as  
120 per the classification performed by Pabi et al. (2008) (Fig. 1). Based on this classification, there  
121 were 4, 13, and 2 stations located in the Kara, Laptev, and East Siberian seas, respectively. The  
122 Kara and East Siberian seas have surface areas almost two times ( $926 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$  and  $987 \times 10^3$   
123  $\text{km}^2$ , respectively) larger than that of the Laptev Sea ( $498 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$ ) (Jakobsson, 2001).  
124 Additionally, the Laptev and East Siberian seas hold the shallowest zones of the Arctic Ocean  
125 basin, with a mean depth of 48 m, while the Kara Sea has a mean depth of 131 m (Jakobsson,  
126 2001).

### 127 2.2. Sampling

128 The sampling was conducted from 21<sup>st</sup> August to 22<sup>nd</sup> September 2013 onboard the Russian  
129 vessel “*Akademik Fedorov*”. The temperature and salinity were measured using a Seabird SBE9  
130 plus CTD (conductivity-temperature-depth tool) equipped with dual temperature (SBE3) and  
131 conductivity (SBE4) sensors. Samples for major inorganic nutrients [i.e.,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , nitrite ( $\text{NO}_2^-$ ),  
132  $\text{NH}_4^+$ , phosphate (P), and silicate (Si)] were collected using Niskin bottles attached to the CTD



133 device, and analysis was performed onboard using an Alpkem Model 300 Rapid Flow Nutrient  
134 Analyzer (5 channels) based on Whitley et al. (1981). The chlorophyll *a* (Chl *a*) samples for  
135 the small phytoplankton fraction were obtained from 3 light depths (100, 30, and 1%). The  
136 preparation of Chl *a* samples was based on the standard procedure reported in previous studies  
137 on the Arctic Ocean (Lee and Whitley, 2005; Lee et al., 2012). Water samples for small Chl *a*  
138 fractions were sequentially filtered through a 5- $\mu\text{m}$  Nucleopore and then 0.7- $\mu\text{m}$  pore-sized  
139 Whatman GF/F filters (47 mm). **Furthermore**, the GF/F filters were wrapped in aluminum foil  
140 and kept frozen at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$  until analysis. During the analysis, the Chl *a* fractions from the filters  
141 were extracted using 90% acetone treatment at  $-5^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 24 hours. The extracted Chl *a* samples  
142 **were subjected to** spectrophotometric analysis onboard using a pre-calibrated Turner Designs  
143 model 10-AU fluorometer. Samples for the C and DIN uptake rates were collected from six *in*  
144 *situ* **light level depths (100, 50, 30, 12, 5, and 1%) determined at each station based on the**  
145 **euphotic depth, which is based on Lambert-Beer's law. Underwater PAR sensors (and/or optical**  
146 **instruments) could not be used due to logistical problems, and the euphotic depth was calculated**  
147 **using the Secchi depth, which is a widely used method (Son et al., 2005; Tremblay et al., 2000;**  
148 **Lee et al. 2012; Bhavya et al., 2016; 2017; Lee et al., 2017a, 2017b).**

### 149 **2.3 $^{13}\text{C}$ and $^{15}\text{N}$ labeling experiments**

150 The estimation of the C and DIN uptake rates **was performed** using  $^{13}\text{C}$  and  $^{15}\text{N}$  dual isotope  
151 labeling experiments (Dugdale and Goering, 1967; Slawyk et al 1977; Dugdale and Wilkerson,  
152 1986). Seawater samples at each light depth were collected using Niskin bottles attached to the  
153 CTD Rosette and transferred to acid-cleaned polycarbonate incubation bottles (approximately 1  
154 L) wrapped with neutral density light filters (LEE filters) to match the desired light levels.  
155 Immediately, samples were spiked with 98-99% enriched tracer solutions of  $\text{NaH}^{13}\text{CO}_3$ ,  $\text{K}^{15}\text{NO}_3$ ,

156 or  $^{15}\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$  at concentrations of  $\sim 0.3$  mM,  $\sim 0.8\mu\text{M}$ , and  $\sim 0.1\mu\text{M}$  for the estimations of the C,  
157  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  uptake rates, respectively. Furthermore, the samples were subjected to 4-6 hrs of  
158 incubation in large transparent Plexiglas incubators on deck under natural light conditions, and  
159 these incubators were provided with running surface seawater. Immediately after the incubation,  
160 0.3 L of incubated samples were filtered through pre-combusted GF/F filters (25-mm diameter)  
161 for the total uptake rate estimation. The samples for the small fraction, sub-samples (0.5 L) of the  
162 incubated waters were passed through 5- $\mu\text{m}$  Nuclepore filters (47 mm) to remove large  
163 phytoplankton cells ( $>5$   $\mu\text{m}$ ), and then the filtrate was passed through pre-combusted GF/F (25  
164 mm) for the small phytoplankton (Lee et al., 2013). The values for large phytoplankton in this  
165 study were obtained from the difference between the small and total fractions (Lee et al., 2013).  
166 Samples were kept frozen ( $-20^\circ\text{C}$ ) until the mass spectrometric analysis (Finnigan Delta+XL) at  
167 the stable isotope laboratory of University of Alaska Fairbanks, USA. The uncertainties for the  
168  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  measurements were  $\pm 0.1\text{‰}$  and  $\pm 0.3\text{‰}$ , respectively. The DIN uptake rates of  
169 small phytoplankton were estimated using the mathematical formula given by Dugdale and  
170 Goering (1967).

$$171 \text{ DIN uptake rate} = P * \Delta I_p / (T * (I_0 S_a + I_r S_t) / (S_a + S_t) - I_0)$$

172 Where P is the amount of particulate N in the post-incubation sample;  $\Delta I_p$  is the increase in  $^{15}\text{N}$   
173 atom% in particulate N during incubation;  $S_a$  and  $S_t$  are the ambient and added  $\text{NO}_3^-$  (or  $\text{NH}_4^+$ )  
174 concentrations, respectively;  $I_r$  and  $I_0$  are  $^{15}\text{N}$  atom% of added tracer and natural  $^{15}\text{N}$  atom%; and  
175 T is the incubation time period. This equation assumes no formation of nutrients during  
176 incubation; therefore, the rates presented here are the potential rates. Similarly, the C uptake  
177 rates were also calculated using the same equation, where P denotes the particulate organic C,  
178 and  $S_a$  and  $S_t$  are the ambient dissolved inorganic carbon and added  $^{13}\text{C}$  tracer concentrations,

179 respectively.  $I_r$  and  $I_0$  are the  $^{13}\text{C}$  atoms% of the added tracer and natural  $^{13}\text{C}$  atom%,  
180 respectively (Slawyk et al. 1977).

### 181 3. Results and discussion

#### 182 3.1 Environmental parameters in the Arctic Ocean

183 The biological, chemical, and physical properties of the Arctic Ocean are mainly controlled by  
184 the circulation patterns governed by the waters of the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans (Anderson et  
185 al., 2004; Quadfasel, 2005) along with the river inputs (Peterson et al., 2002). The nutrient-rich,  
186 low saline (<33) Pacific Ocean waters and nutrients replete relatively more saline ( $\approx 34.8$ ). The  
187 Atlantic Ocean waters collectively regulate the biogeochemical activities of the Arctic Ocean  
188 (Maslowski et al., 2004). The present study was conducted during the late summer season, when  
189 the sea surface temperature (SST) ranged from  $-1.76^\circ\text{C}$  to  $1.62^\circ\text{C}$ . The sea surface salinity  
190 (SSS) during the study period varied from 28.29 to 33.44 (Table 1), which could be due to the  
191 influence of both the circulation patterns and the freshwater inputs. The present study retrieved  
192 the sea ice concentration (SIC) data from the National Snow & Ice Data Center, who obtained  
193 the data from a 2013 cruise. The results show that the SIC ranged from 0% to 100% (Table 1).

#### 194 3.2 Carbon and nitrogen uptake rates by small phytoplankton

195 Fig. 2 shows the depth profiles of the C,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  uptake rates per hour in the  
196 Laptev, Kara, and East Siberian seas. Only a few stations showed significant subsurface maxima  
197 for the C,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  uptake rates during the present study, while the rest of the stations  
198 exhibited no significant variation throughout the euphotic zone. The AF019 station showed  
199 exceptionally higher C,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  uptake rates, in general, with sharp subsurface maxima.  
200 The depth-integrated C,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  uptake rates by small phytoplankton in the East Siberian

201 Sea were observed to be very low compared to those of the other seas (Table 2, Figs. 3 & 4). The  
202 depth-integrated C uptake rates by small phytoplankton ranged from 0.54 to 15.96 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>.  
203 The depth-integrated NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> uptake rates ranged from 0.05 to 1.02 mg N m<sup>-2</sup>h<sup>-1</sup>, while the NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>  
204 uptake rates varied from 0.11 to 3.73 mg N m<sup>-2</sup>h<sup>-1</sup>. The station AF019 showed the maximum  
205 small phytoplankton uptake rates for C (15.96 mg C m<sup>-2</sup>h<sup>-1</sup>), NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (1.02 mg N m<sup>-2</sup>h<sup>-1</sup>), and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>  
206 (3.73 mg N m<sup>-2</sup>h<sup>-1</sup>). The contribution of small phytoplankton to the total uptake was also very  
207 high at station AF019 (Table 2). The lowest C, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> uptake rates were observed at  
208 stations AF044 and AF041. The highest SIC (100% and 60% at AF044 and AF041, respectively)  
209 in this region might be one explanation for the lower primary productivity due to light limitation.

### 210 3.3 Sea ice and small phytoplankton primary production

211 Previous investigations on SIC over the Arctic Ocean proved that, during winter, high ice  
212 formation leads to the expelling of salt content to the surrounding water. This condition  
213 introduces a relatively high salinity and a high-density water layer at the surface or just below the  
214 sea ice layer relative to the surrounding area. Such conditions lead to the sinking of the very cold  
215 and saline surface waters and the replacement by nutrient-rich deeper water, which is less dense  
216 and slightly warmer. This process leads to deep vertical mixing and the replenishment of the  
217 surface nutrient inventories (Niebauer et al., 1990; Falk-Petersen et al., 2000). However, during  
218 spring, the melting of sea ice results in a strong surface ocean stratification, where the nutrient-  
219 rich waters are exposed to light, creating favorable conditions for phytoplankton growth (Kirk,  
220 1983; Niebauer et al., 1990; Falk-Petersen et al., 2000). It has also been reported that the  
221 increasing atmospheric temperature due to global warming has caused a considerable reduction  
222 in SIC in the Arctic Ocean over the past three decades, with a rapid decrease in recent years  
223 (Levi, 2000; Parkinson, 1999).

224 Because ice cover has a significant role in controlling primary production, the dynamics  
225 of SIC is an integral part of Arctic Ocean research (Arrigo et al., 2008; Ardyna et al., 2014;  
226 Kahru et al., 2016). It has been reported that a reduction in SIC would facilitate photosynthetic  
227 activity and increase CO<sub>2</sub> intake by the seas (Anderson and Kaitin, 2001; Bates et al., 2006;  
228 Kahru et al., 2016). Apparently, it can cause a relative decline in the contribution by algae  
229 growing within the sea ice (Subba Rao and Platt, 1984; Legendre et al., 1992; Gosselin et al.,  
230 1997), although the sea ice community contributes less than 10% to the total amount of Arctic  
231 Ocean C sequestration (Clasby et al., 1973; Horner and Schrader, 1982). A detailed study  
232 conducted on the inter-annual variations in SIC and primary production by Kahru et al. (2016)  
233 suggested that primary production is enhanced with a decline in SIC. Kahru et al. (2016)  
234 reported that a decrease in the SIC initially starts from June onwards in the northeastern Barents  
235 Sea and between Greenland and the North American continent, with an increase in primary  
236 productivity. This extends to the Kara and Laptev seas during July and August, and these areas  
237 exhibit a gradual enhancement in primary productivity. Furthermore, this process migrates  
238 towards the region off Siberia and eventually into the Beaufort and Chukchi seas. However, the  
239 major enhancement of primary production generally occurs in the Laptev and Barents seas  
240 (Kahru et al., 2016). In agreement with this, our results also show relatively lower SIC and  
241 higher small phytoplankton C and DIN uptake rates in the Laptev Sea region (Table 2, Figs. 3 &  
242 4). The maximum SIC in the Laptev Sea was observed at station AF071, with a value of 65%.  
243 The Kara Sea was mostly void of ice cover, and only one station (AF095) was observed with an  
244 SIC of 40%. Relatively lower small phytoplankton C and DIN uptake rates were observed at  
245 both stations in the East Siberian Sea (AF041: 60% and AF044: 100%), where the SIC was  
246 observed to be the maximum among all stations. However, there was no significant inverse

247 correlation between small phytoplankton C and DIN uptake rates and SIC found during the  
248 present study (Figure not shown). This result could be due to the influence of other  
249 environmental constraints, such as low nutrients and temperature, on the metabolic activities of  
250 small phytoplankton.

251 The investigations conducted in the Amundsen Sea, Antarctic Ocean, reported that there  
252 is no significant difference in the small phytoplankton C uptake rates between polynya and non-  
253 polynya regions. The depth-integrated small phytoplankton C uptake rates obtained from  
254 polynya and non-polynya regions in the Amundsen Sea ranged from 58.6–193 mg C m<sup>-2</sup>d<sup>-1</sup> (126  
255 ± 55.2 mg C m<sup>-2</sup>d<sup>-1</sup>) and 62.2–266 mg C m<sup>-2</sup>d<sup>-1</sup> (124 ± 69.3 mg C m<sup>-2</sup>d<sup>-1</sup>), respectively (Lee et  
256 al., 2017a). These values showed that the depth-integrated small phytoplankton C uptake rates  
257 reported from the Amundsen Sea from both polynya and non-polynya regions were relatively  
258 higher than those obtained from the Arctic Ocean during the present study (5.86–191 mg C  
259 m<sup>-2</sup>d<sup>-1</sup>; average=37.7± 41.6). The daily NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> uptake rates of the small phytoplankton obtained  
260 from the Amundsen Sea were 7.5–26.6 mg N m<sup>-2</sup>d<sup>-1</sup> (16.7 ± 7.8 mg N m<sup>-2</sup>d<sup>-1</sup>) and 6.1–40.9 mg  
261 N m<sup>-2</sup>d<sup>-1</sup> (20.1 ± 13.1 mg N m<sup>-2</sup>d<sup>-1</sup>), and the values of the NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> uptake rates varied from 9.1–  
262 22.4 mg N m<sup>-2</sup>d<sup>-1</sup> (15.8 ± 6.4 mg N m<sup>-2</sup>d<sup>-1</sup>) and 9.9–81.1 mg N m<sup>-2</sup>d<sup>-1</sup> (30.7 ± 24.5 mg N  
263 m<sup>-2</sup>d<sup>-1</sup>), respectively, for the non-polynya and polynya regions. Similar to the C uptake rates, the  
264 small phytoplankton uptake rates for NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (0.75–12.2 mg N m<sup>-2</sup>d<sup>-1</sup>; 3.21±2.61 mg N m<sup>-2</sup>d<sup>-1</sup>) and  
265 NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (2.68–69.3 mg N m<sup>-2</sup>d<sup>-1</sup>; average: 16.12±14.54 mg N m<sup>-2</sup>d<sup>-1</sup>) were also significantly lower  
266 than those of the Amundsen Sea. The lower small phytoplankton uptake rates in the Arctic  
267 waters compared to the Antarctic waters may be due to the lower nutrient concentrations and co-  
268 limitation of N in the Arctic waters (Harrison and Cota, 1991). Sakshaug & Holm-Hansen (1984)

269 reported that the maximum Arctic nutrient concentrations are typically lower than the minimum  
270 Antarctic concentrations.

### 271 **3.4 Nutrient sources and influences on small phytoplankton primary production**

272 The shallow water column depths and the existence of long coastlines along with river  
273 runoff provide a wide opportunity for autotrophs in the Arctic Ocean to obtain sufficient light  
274 and nutrients (Kirk, 1983). Additionally, the Arctic Ocean is known to be a large receptor of  
275 freshwater discharge that exceeds 4000 km<sup>3</sup> per year (Shiklomanov, 2000; Carmack and  
276 Macdonald, 2002). The riverine discharges may have a great role in keeping those stations near  
277 river inlets distinctive in terms of their physico-chemical conditions. Similarly, the freshwater  
278 discharge from the six largest Eurasian rivers increased by 7% during the period of 1936-1999  
279 (Peterson et al., 2002). Among the various seas in the Arctic Ocean, the Kara and Laptev seas are  
280 known to be the first and second largest receptors, respectively, of total organic carbon fluxes,  
281 while the East Siberian Sea receives the least (Rachold et al., 2000).

282 In most stations, the nitrite + nitrate concentrations were observed to be homogeneous in  
283 the water column up to a depth of 20 m (approximately 30% light depth); however, they  
284 increased exponentially towards the bottom waters (Figure not shown). The depth profiles of  
285 NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and P did not show any significant variation throughout the euphotic zone (Figure used in  
286 Lee et al., unpublished). However, the nutrient concentrations were considerably distinct among  
287 the stations. The depth-integrated NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentrations varied between 22.3 and 189  
288 mmol m<sup>-2</sup>. The depth-integrated concentrations of P and Si ranged from 7.62 to 35.4 mmol m<sup>-2</sup>  
289 and 19.5 to 308 mmol m<sup>-2</sup>, respectively (Table 1). Generally, high concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> +  
290 NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and phosphate were found at the AF005, AF068, and AF071 stations in the Laptev Sea

291 and at one station in the Kara Sea (AF100), and they were relatively higher than those of the East  
292 Siberian Sea (Table 1, Figs. 3 & 4). However, the Si concentrations were higher in the East  
293 Siberian Sea than in the other two seas. These results are comparable with the earlier studies  
294 conducted by Codispoti and Richards (1968). They suggested that the concentrations of P and  
295  $\text{NO}_3^-$  were so low as to indicate nutrient limitation for phytoplankton production in the upper  
296 layers.

297 The details of the euphotic depths and the depth-integrated nutrient concentrations are  
298 shown in Table 1. The euphotic depths observed are different in almost all of the stations and  
299 range from 33 to 76 m. However, the data from our present study did not show any dependency  
300 of the depth-integrated nutrient budget with euphotic depth. For example, the AF019, AF080,  
301 and AF095 stations have deeper euphotic zones; however, they do not have depth-integrated  
302  $\text{NO}_2^- + \text{NO}_3^-$  concentrations close to the highest values obtained at the AF068, AF071, and AF005  
303 stations, which have relatively shallower euphotic depths. The depth-integrated P values also  
304 showed higher values at stations (AF019, AF068, AF100, AF080, AF095, and AF091) with both  
305 deeper and shallower euphotic depths. Hence, the variation in the euphotic depth seems to be  
306 insignificant in determining the nutrient budgets in the present study area.

307 The stations AF005, AF068, and AF071 in the Laptev Sea and AF100 in the Kara Sea,  
308 which were nearby the river inlets, were observed to have relatively higher nutrient  
309 concentrations (Table 1). The sampling locations away from the river inputs were mostly  
310 invaded by the nutrient-poor Atlantic waters instead of the nutrient-rich Pacific waters. Moreover,  
311 the Pacific Ocean nutrient inputs are generally restricted to the Chukchi Sea and the Amerasian  
312 Basin (Carmack et al., 1997; Dmitrenko et al., 2006). It is worth noting that all the sampling  
313 locations in the Arctic Ocean showed significantly lower small phytoplankton C and DIN uptake



314 rates, possibly due to the lack of light and nutrients. The nutrient stoichiometry analyses  
315 suggested that the Arctic Ocean waters are N **starved** and the N:P (here N = DIN:  $\text{NO}_2^- + \text{NO}_3^-$   
316 +  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and P:  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$ ) ratios are always below Redfield's ratio, which is 16:1 (mol: mol)  
317 (Redfield, 1963; Sakshaug, 2004). The relative abundances of micronutrients are also important  
318 factors **in controlling** primary production (Glibert et al., 2013; Bhavya et al., 2016, 2017). The  
319 DIN: P observed during the current study ranged from 2.60 to 16.4, with an average of  $6.6 \pm 3.0$ ,  
320 which is also in agreement with the previous studies **that have been** reported. These ratios point  
321 towards the N-starvation of phytoplankton, which can potentially **prevent** them from growing to  
322 a bloom. It **has been** reported that such cases with **lower** nutrient concentrations are generally  
323 less starving for small phytoplankton **sizes ranging** from 0.7-5  $\mu\text{m}$ , and they **appear** to be  
324 dominant in euphotic water columns (Lee and Whitledge, 2005; Li et al., 2009; Yun et al., 2015).

325 In general, experimental and theoretical **evidence suggests** that smaller cells have higher  
326 rates of nutrient uptake per unit biomass and lower half-saturation constants due to their higher  
327 surface area to volume ratios (Eppley and Thomas, 1969; Aksnes and Egge, 1991; Hein et al.,  
328 1995). Hence, the lower minimum cellular metabolic requirement for small phytoplankton  
329 selectively allows them to survive under lower resource concentrations **than those of** larger cells  
330 (Shuter, 1978; Grover, 1991). Hence, small phytoplankton cells appear to have substantial  
331 **advantages over** larger phytoplankton cells under nutrient-limited steady-state environmental  
332 conditions (Grover, 1989; Grover, 1991). However, under very poor nutrient conditions, small  
333 phytoplankton may also undergo nutrient **starvation**.

### 334 **3.5 Nutrient co-limitation**

335 Nutrient co-limitation is a major problem facing marine phytoplankton in oligotrophic  
336 and pelagic ecosystems. Recent studies have suggested that the maximum uptake of  
337 phytoplankton generally occurs when the nutrient stoichiometry is close to Redfield's ratio,  
338 which is 16:1 (Li et al., 2011; Glibert et al., 2013; Bhavya et al., 2016, 2017), irrespective of the  
339 individual nutrient concentration. Because the present study addresses completely different  
340 ecosystems with high SIC, low nutrients and low SSTs, understanding the influence of DIN: P  
341 would be challenging. In agreement with this, there were no significant correlations observed  
342 between the C,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  uptake rates and the DIN: P during the present study. However,  
343 Fig. 5 shows a weak, although positive, correlation of small phytoplankton contribution towards  
344 DIN: P. This result indicates the possibility of small phytoplankton efficiency to peak at a  
345 nutrient stoichiometry close to Redfield's ratio. However, the lack of sufficient stations with  
346 higher DIN: P values limits the present study from claiming the influence of nutrient  
347 stoichiometry on the small phytoplankton contribution. It is also important to note that the  
348 stations are located at geographical locations with diverse hydrographical parameters. However,  
349 on the basis of few studies conducted from various parts of oceanic and estuarine regions, it has  
350 been shown that DIN: P has a strong control on the total C and DIN uptake rates (Li et al., 2011;  
351 Glibert et al., 2013; Bhavya et al., 2016, 2017). Although there was no significant correlation  
352 obtained between the small phytoplankton uptakes and the DIN: P, the N co-limitation in the  
353 Arctic Ocean is clearly seen (Table 1). Thus, the relative abundances of DIN and P are highly  
354 important for the proper functioning of the C and DIN uptake mechanisms by autotrophs.

### 355 **3.6 Turnover times of nutrients**

356 The present study shows that N co-limitation persists in the Arctic Ocean and can potentially  
357 limit the small phytoplankton contribution. In that case, any inorganic N substrate introduced to

358 the surface waters might be immediately used by the phytoplankton to facilitate organic matter  
359 production under favorable environmental conditions. The turnover time for any substrate is an  
360 important measurement to estimate how rapid an N substrate can be consumed. The estimation  
361 of turnover time is performed by dividing the substrate concentrations with the corresponding  
362 uptake rates. Figs. 6 & 7 show the turnover times for the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  substrates when small  
363 phytoplankton communities are the only consumers. Fig. 7 shows that the turnover times for the  
364  $\text{NH}_4^+$  substrate (within 500 hours) in the surface waters are longer; however, they are relatively  
365 faster than those of the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in the upper layers of the euphotic zone at almost all the stations in  
366 the Arctic Ocean. However, the bottom waters of the euphotic zone showed relatively longer  
367 (1000-1700 hours) turnover times for  $\text{NH}_4^+$  substrate compared to the surface waters. The  
368 sampling location in the East Siberian Sea (AF044) was observed to have relatively longer  
369 turnover times for both  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  substrates at the surface layers (Figs. 6 & 7), which was  
370 possibly due to the lower uptake rates in that region. A continuous supply of nutrients through  
371 rivers and less efficient DIN uptake rates might be major reasons for longer turnover times.  
372 Compared to  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$  is consumed in distinctively longer periods as 14-fold at the surface  
373 waters and 25-fold at the bottom of the euphotic zone. Primarily, such a difference is due to the  
374 relative preference for  $\text{NH}_4^+$  by the small phytoplankton and second, due to the high  
375 concentrations of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in the deep waters relative to the  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations. The research  
376 outputs from a tropical eutrophic estuary in India have shown rapid turnover time (3.4-232 hrs  
377 for  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and 7.13-2419 hrs for  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ) by total phytoplankton communities for DIN substrates  
378 despite higher nutrient concentrations (Bhavya et al., 2016). In general, inhibition of  $\text{NO}_3^-$   
379 uptake is a very common phenomenon when higher  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations occur (e.g., Glibert,  
380 1982; Harrison et al., 1987; McCarthy et al., 1999; Bhavya et al. 2016). It is also very likely

381 there will be different turnover times with similar DIN concentrations under different  
382 hydrographic properties that can govern the C and DIN metabolism in a given region.

### 383 3.7 Quantum yield

384 During the present study, the size-fractionated Chl *a* concentrations at the three light levels (100,  
385 30, and 1%) were measured. The comparative analysis with the total Chl *a* fraction suggests that  
386 the small phytoplankton communities are major contributors in the Laptev, Kara, and East  
387 Siberian seas (Figure not shown; data used from Lee et al., unpublished). The results showed  
388 significantly high contributions of small phytoplankton to total Chl *a* at all three light levels  
389 (63.3 (S.D. = ±17.5%), 61.4 (S.D. = ±19.9%), and 59.0% (S.D. = ±18.4%) at 100, 30, and 1%,  
390 respectively).

391 The ability of Chl *a* to fix C and DIN in small phytoplankton communities is a matter of  
392 concern in the Arctic Ocean. The quantum yield for the present study is defined as the efficiency  
393 of unit Chl *a* in the small phytoplankton communities to fix DIN and C, which is calculated by  
394 dividing the uptake rates by the Chl *a* concentration. The lower temperatures and salinities, ice  
395 cover, and poor light availability can potentially lower the quantum yields. The quantum yields  
396 for the C and DIN are shown in Figs. 8 and 9, respectively. The maximum yields for both C and  
397 DIN were observed at AF091 for the 100 and 30% light depths. However, the quantum yield for  
398 C at the 1% light level in all stations was observed to be very low, more likely due to light  
399 limitation (Talling, 1957). Although the quantum yield for DIN was lower at 1% than at the other  
400 two light levels, a drastic drop in the quantum yield for DIN at the 1% light level, such as  
401 quantum yield for C, was not observed. This result can be due to the existence of significant  
402  $\text{NH}_4^+$  uptake rates in the light-scarce conditions.

### 403 **3.8 Small and large phytoplankton contributions**

404 It is known that the impact of global warming on the Arctic Ocean has introduced rapid changes  
405 in its physicochemical properties. Hence, the necessity to trace the changes in primary  
406 production patterns in the Arctic Ocean has gained attention in the recent era. It has been  
407 reported that the contribution of small phytoplankton to the total C and DIN fixations would  
408 increase under warming conditions (Li et al., 2009, Thomas et al., 2012). A significant number  
409 of total primary production estimates are available from the Arctic Ocean (Platt et al., 1982;  
410 Wassmann et al., 2011; Vedernikov et al., 1994; Gosselin et al., 1997; Boetius and Damm, 1998;  
411 Tremblay et al., 2002; Arrigo et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2007; 2012, 2017a; Arrigo and Dijken,  
412 2011; Yun et al., 2012, 2015; Kahru et al., 2016; Lee et al., unpublished). However, a deep  
413 understanding regarding the boosting of small phytoplankton under warming conditions and their  
414 contributions towards the total primary production is still rudimentary. The present study  
415 provides the first report on small phytoplankton contributions to the total primary production in  
416 the Kara, Laptev, and East Siberian seas in the Arctic Ocean. The results from the study suggest  
417 that the small phytoplankton potentially contributed 24 to 89%, 32 to 89%, and 28 to 91%, to the  
418 total C,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  uptake rates, respectively, in the whole study region. **Studies from**  
419 various oceanic bodies suggest that the small phytoplankton contribution to the total annual C  
420 and DIN fixation varies between 20 and 65% (Agawin et al., 2000; Hodal and Kristiansen, 2008;  
421 Joo et al. 2017; Lee et al. 2017a). The contributions of small phytoplankton to total C uptake  
422 rates were significantly higher in the Amundsen Sea, with an average of 50.8% ( $\pm 42.8\%$ ) and  
423 14.9% ( $\pm 8.4\%$ ), respectively, for the non-polynya and polynya regions (Lee et al. 2017a). The  
424 contributions of small phytoplankton to the total  $\text{NO}_3^-$  uptake rates were 28.2% ( $\pm 15.9\%$ ) in the  
425 non-polynya region and 18.1% ( $\pm 6.8\%$ ) in the polynya region. Similar to the C assimilation rates,

426 the small phytoplankton contributions to the total  $\text{NH}_4^+$  uptake rates were higher in both non-  
427 polynya (52.8%;  $\pm 40.5\%$ ) and polynya (31.6%;  $\pm 10.1\%$ ) regions (Lee et al., 2017a). Similarly,  
428 the small phytoplankton contribution in the western Canada basin in the Arctic Ocean was  
429 reported to be 64% (Yun et al., 2015). A recent study from the Chukchi Sea reported that the  
430 average contributions of small phytoplankton to the C and total DIN uptake rates were  
431 approximately 32% (S.D. =  $\pm 24\%$ ) and 37% (S. D. =  $\pm 26\%$ ), respectively (Lee et al., 2013).  
432 Similar investigations conducted in the northern Barents Sea found that small phytoplankton  
433 contributed almost half (46%) of the total primary production (Hodal and Kristiansen, 2008).  
434 The MODIS-derived data in the Ulleung Basin from 2003 to 2012 suggested that the annual  
435 contribution by small phytoplankton communities, in general, ranged from 19.6% to 28.4%, with  
436 an average of 23.6% (S.D. =  $\pm 8.1\%$ ) (Joo et al., 2017). This study suggested that large  
437 phytoplankton communities are the major contributors to primary production in the Ulleung  
438 Basin. Similarly, Legendre et al. (1992) reported that primary production in the high-latitude  
439 Arctic region waters, in general, was dominated by large phytoplankton cells ( $>5 \mu\text{m}$ ), while the  
440 standing stock was dominated by small cell-sized phytoplankton ( $0.7\text{--}5 \mu\text{m}$ ) due to strong  
441 grazing stress on large cells. The present study also estimated large phytoplankton contributions  
442 (total-small phytoplankton contributions) to the total uptake rates (Table 2). The assessments by  
443 Tremblay et al. (2000) suggested that large phytoplankton can fix relatively more C per unit  
444  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and thus export more C than can small phytoplankton. However, the results from the  
445 present study showed that the large phytoplankton communities in the Arctic Ocean could  
446 contribute only an average of 40%, 34%, and 35% to the total C,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  uptake rates,  
447 respectively. Hence, small phytoplankton appear to be the major contributors of C,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , and  
448  $\text{NH}_4^+$  uptake, with percentage contributions of 60%, 66% and 65%, respectively, in the Laptev,

449 Kara, and East Siberian seas. These values are much higher than the global average contribution  
450 (39%) of small phytoplankton production, as assessed by Agawin et al. (2000).

#### 451 **4. Conclusions**

452 The present study attempted to estimate small phytoplankton contributions towards the  
453 total C,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  uptake rates in the Kara, Laptev, and East Siberian seas. The  
454 contributions of small phytoplankton to the total C,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  uptake rates ranged from  
455 25-89%, 31-89%, and 28-91%, respectively, in the Arctic Ocean. There was no significant  
456 influence of ice cover on uptake rates; however, the stations with high SIC generally showed low  
457 surface small phytoplankton uptake of C,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$ . It was also observed that the DIN: P  
458 can potentially play a major role in controlling the small phytoplankton contributions towards the  
459 DIN uptake rates by small phytoplankton. The significant contributions of small phytoplankton  
460 indicate their efficiency to withstand hostile conditions, such as low nutrients, changing SST, and  
461 high ice cover. However, to understand the influence of global warming on small phytoplankton  
462 activity, growth, and community shifts, long-term *in situ* analyses as well as laboratory  
463 manipulations and experiments are highly recommended.

464

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745 Table 1. The physical and chemical properties of the sampling locations in the East Siberian Sea  
746 and the Laptev Sea, where station depth, euphotic depth, sea surface temperature (SST), and SIC  
747 are represented in m, m, °C, and %, respectively. Sea surface salinity is represented in practical  
748 salinity unit (PSU). The nutrient concentrations ( $\text{NO}_2^- + \text{NO}_3^-$ , phosphate (P), silicate (Si), and  
749  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ) are given as the depth-integrated values in the euphotic zones, with a unit of  $\text{mmol m}^{-2}$ .  
750 The DIN: P is the nutrient stoichiometry calculated from the available nutrient data.

Sector	Stn. Name	Longitude	Latitude	Date	Station depth	Euphotic depth	SST	SSS	SIC	$\text{NO}_2^- + \text{NO}_3^-$	P	Si	$\text{NH}_4^+$	DIN:P
Laptev Sea	AF005	109.20	78.78	25-Aug-13	283	38	-0.08	31.42	0	142	17.30	184	31.34	10.00
	AF006	118.45	77.59	26-Aug-13	1244	50	0.75	31.36	0	129	16.73	158	18.72	8.81
	AF011	125.80	77.40	27-Aug-13	1543	51	1.62	30.01	0	83.7	23.82	137	2.46	3.62
	AF019	125.74	79.42	28-Aug-13	3196	60	-1.6	32.44	25	132	25.75	144	13.57	5.65
	AF024	125.69	80.72	29-Aug-13	3730	51	-1.48	30.96	45	127	22.34	166	13.74	6.29
	AF036	141.56	80.18	1-Sep-13	1480	54	-1.22	28.29	25	113	7.62	207	11.85	16.39
	AF049	137.77	78.95	5-Sep-13	1552	51	1.57	29.09	0	22.3	9.91	100	3.44	2.60
	AF057	128.83	77.98	5-Sep-13	2325	51	1.49	30.25	0	107	19.96	200	5.60	5.62
	AF061	125.83	78.40	6-Sep-13	2700	51	-0.07	31.39	10	99.4	23.15	190	8.27	4.65
	AF068	107.39	79.76	10-Sep-13	1200	33	-0.35	32.57	0	167	34.20	110	27.64	5.70
	AF071	112.10	82.02	11-Sep-13	3530	43	-1.73	31.86	65	166	20.81	144	15.46	8.72
	AF072	107.48	81.44	12-Sep-13	3349	49	-1.75	32.37	40	132	20.17	89.5	4.32	6.78
AF080	102.31	80.60	13-Sep-13	315	76	-1.14	32.81	0	107	30.23	38.8	21.68	4.27	
East Siberian Sea	AF041	149.38	79.85	2-Sep-13	561	51	-1.57	29.86	60	99.0	16.21	308	19.20	7.30
	AF044	154.98	80.22	3-Sep-13	1904	35	-1.67	30.91	100	88.7	14.48	205	17.43	7.33
Kara Sea	AF091	97.55	82.30	14-Sep-13	2959	38	-1.32	33.30	0	117	25.60	135	17.67	5.27
	AF095	94.79	83.74	15-Sep-13	3668	68	-1.76	32.36	40	121	35.44	165	5.23	3.56
	AF100	90.01	83.75	16-Sep-13	3410	46	-1.49	33.29	0	189	29.02	118	6.62	6.75
	AF116	66.87	81.34	19-Sep-13	530	46	0.47	33.44	0	105	20.52	19.5	22.62	6.22

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759 Table 2. The contribution of small and large phytoplankton to the water column C, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> uptake rates. The units for the column-  
 760 integrated C and DIN uptake rates are mg C m<sup>-2</sup>h<sup>-1</sup> and mg N m<sup>-2</sup>h<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The starred values indicate possibly incorrect data due to error in  
 761 uptake rate measurements.

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Sector	Stn. Name	Small C uptake rates	Total C uptake rates	Small phytoplankton C uptake contribution (%)	Small NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> uptake rates	Total NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> uptake rates	Small phytoplankton NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> uptake contribution (%)	Small NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> uptake rates	Total NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> uptake rates	Small phytoplankton NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> uptake contribution (%)	Large phytoplankton C uptake contribution (%)	Large phytoplankton NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> uptake contribution (%)	large phytoplankton NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> uptake contribution (%)
Laptev Sea	AF005	0.86	1.25	68.28	0.06	0.09	72.41	0.94	1.03	90.95	31.72	27.59	9.05
	AF006	4.00	5.78	69.10	0.25	0.42	58.87	1.72	2.18	78.56	30.90	41.13	21.44
	AF011	2.85	4.31	66.02	0.16	0.42	38.47	0.53	0.89	59.83	33.98	61.53	40.17
	AF019	15.96	17.46	88.88	1.02	1.17	86.78	3.73	3.55	*105.1	11.12	13.22	
	AF024	0.69	1.34	51.62	0.08	0.14	56.81	0.31	0.85	36.06	48.38	43.19	63.94
	AF036	2.78	4.27	65.12	0.18	0.20	89.22	0.74	0.84	88.62	34.88	10.78	11.38
	AF049	1.76	4.02	43.86	0.17	0.22	75.57	0.46	0.78	58.44	56.14	24.43	41.56
	AF057	2.68	4.41	60.81	0.30	0.43	69.99	0.29	0.96	30.07	39.19	30.01	69.93
	AF061	1.91	4.38	43.56	0.48	1.53	31.46	0.53	1.91	27.77	56.44	68.54	72.23
	AF068	3.14	5.12	61.35	0.16	0.25	65.10	0.64	0.87	73.87	38.65	34.90	26.13
	AF071	0.54	2.19	24.59	0.22	0.27	79.83	0.33	0.28	*118.2	75.41	20.17	
	AF072	*0.63	*9.30	*6.79	0.27	0.43	63.42	0.27	0.41	65.27	*93.20	36.58	34.73
AF080	1.68	2.42	69.44	0.33	0.34	*96.66	0.86	1.02	84.58	30.56	*3.34	15.42	
East Siberian Sea	AF041	1.24	1.96	63.16	0.06	0.06	*109.6	0.50	0.57	86.92	36.84		13.08
	AF044	1.72	2.18	79.16	0.05	0.04	*129.7	0.11	0.14	75.18	20.84		24.82
Kara Sea	AF091	5.23	9.37	55.79	0.45	0.79	56.87	1.30	1.98	65.80	44.21	43.13	34.20
	AF095	1.73	2.52	68.59	0.28	0.24	*115.7	0.25	0.33	76.13	31.41		23.87
	AF100	1.63	4.85	33.60	0.31	0.56	55.58	0.37	0.82	44.97	66.40	44.42	55.03
	AF116				0.10	0.11	89.23						

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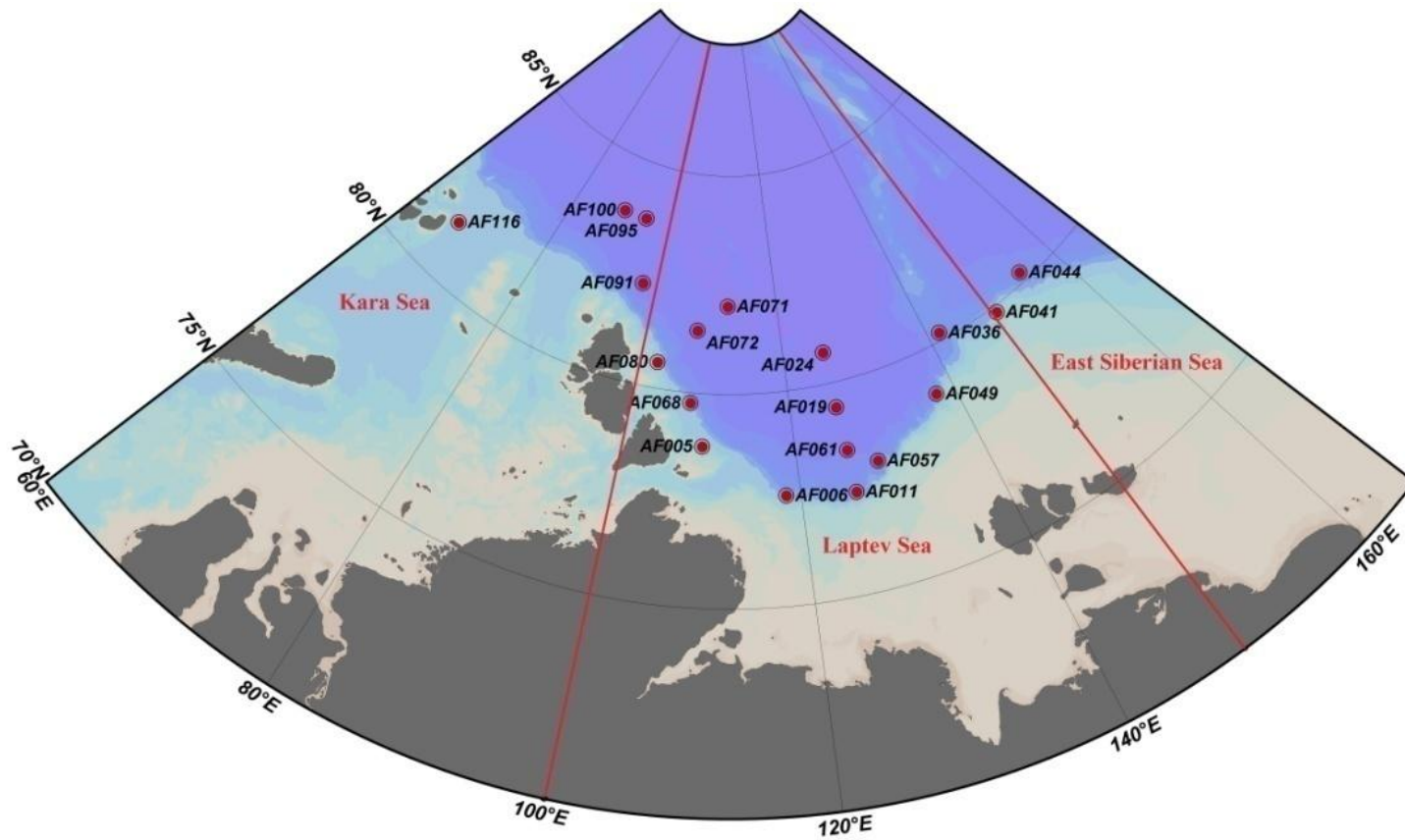
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773 Figure 1. Sampling locations in the Kara, Laptev, and East Siberian seas in the Arctic Ocean. The red straight lines indicate the geographic  
774 boundaries used to define the seas as per Pabi et al. (2008).

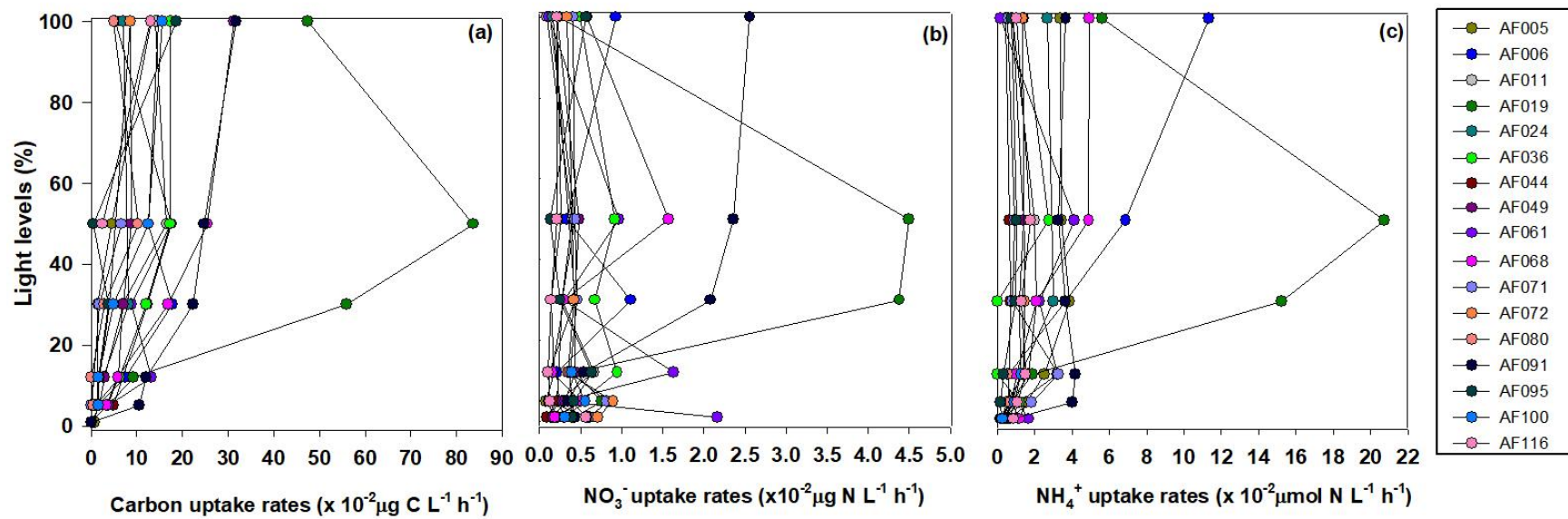
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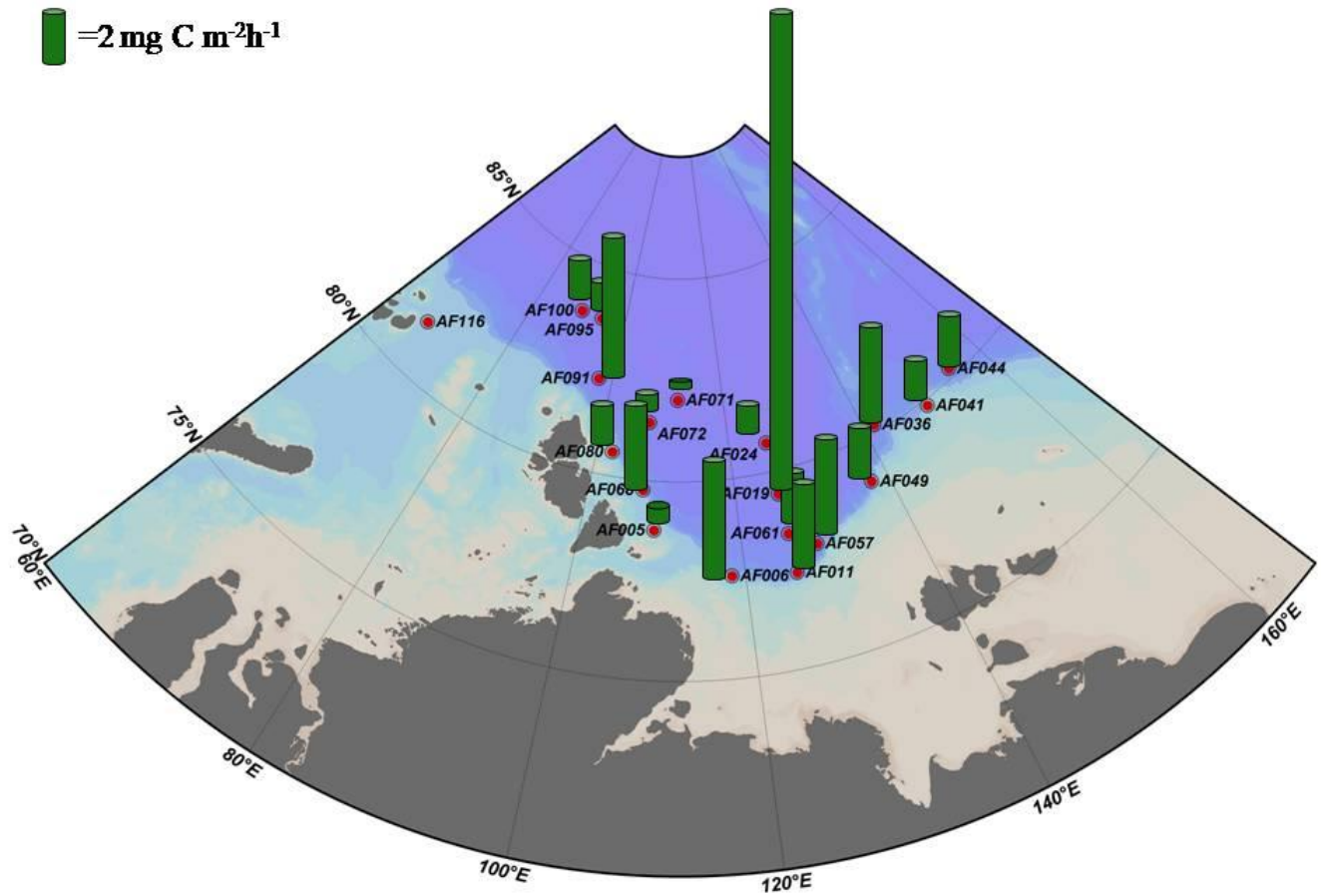
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781 Figure 2. Depth-wise small phytoplankton uptake rates of C,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  in the Kara, Laptev, and East Siberian seas.

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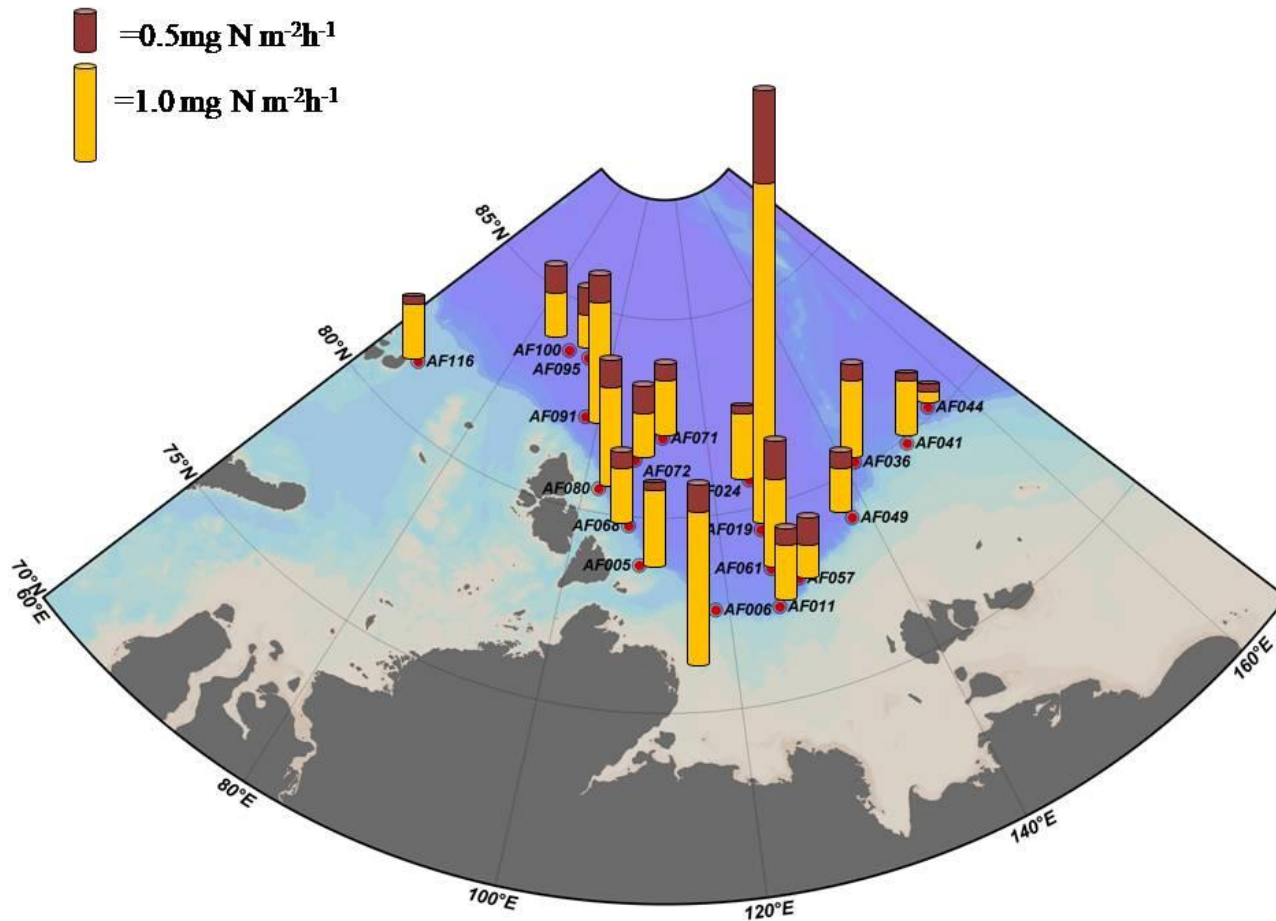
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786 Figure 3. The depth-integrated small phytoplankton C uptake rates in the sampling locations.

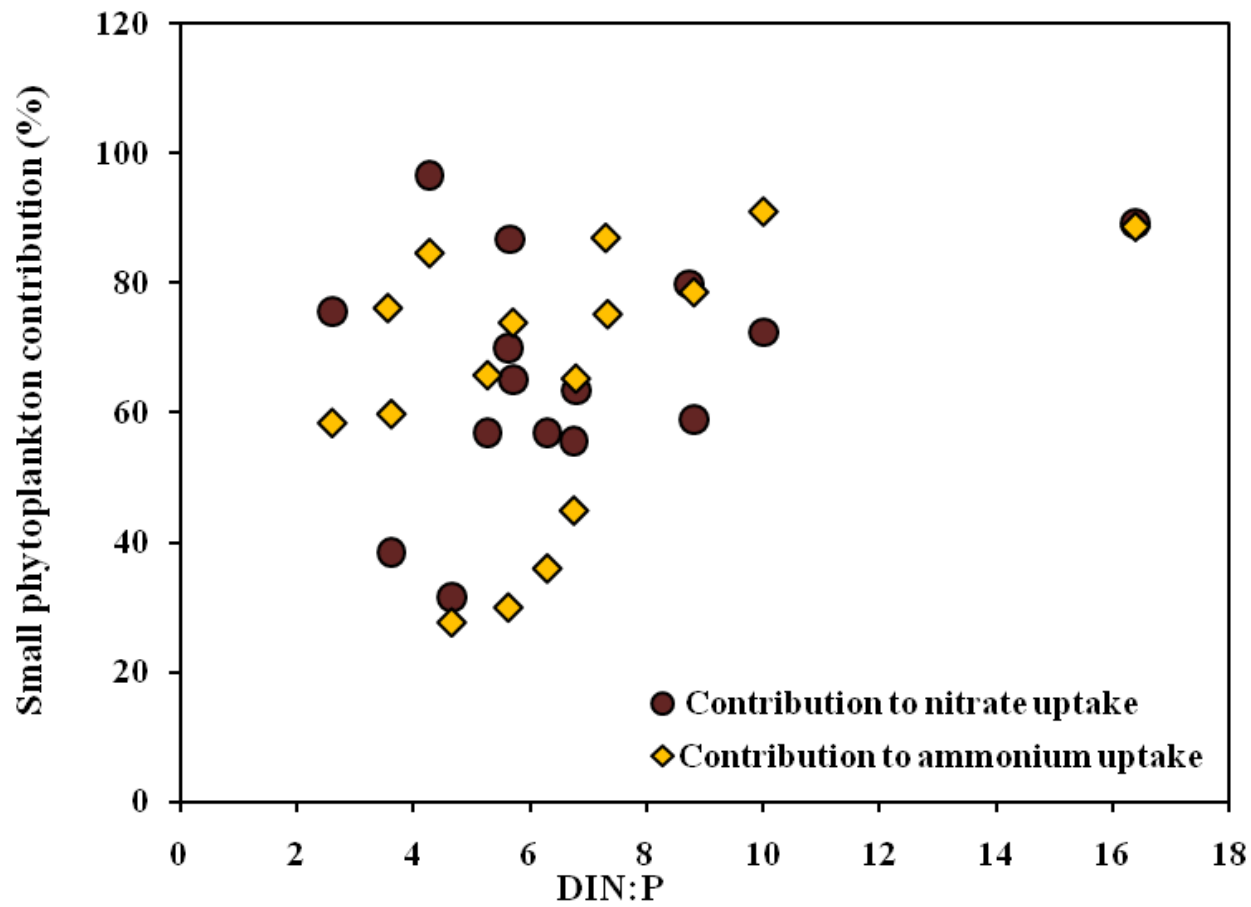
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789 Figure 4. The depth-integrated small phytoplankton  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  uptake rates in the sampling locations. The maroon and yellow  
 790 cylinders indicate the small phytoplankton  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  depth-integrated uptake rates, respectively.

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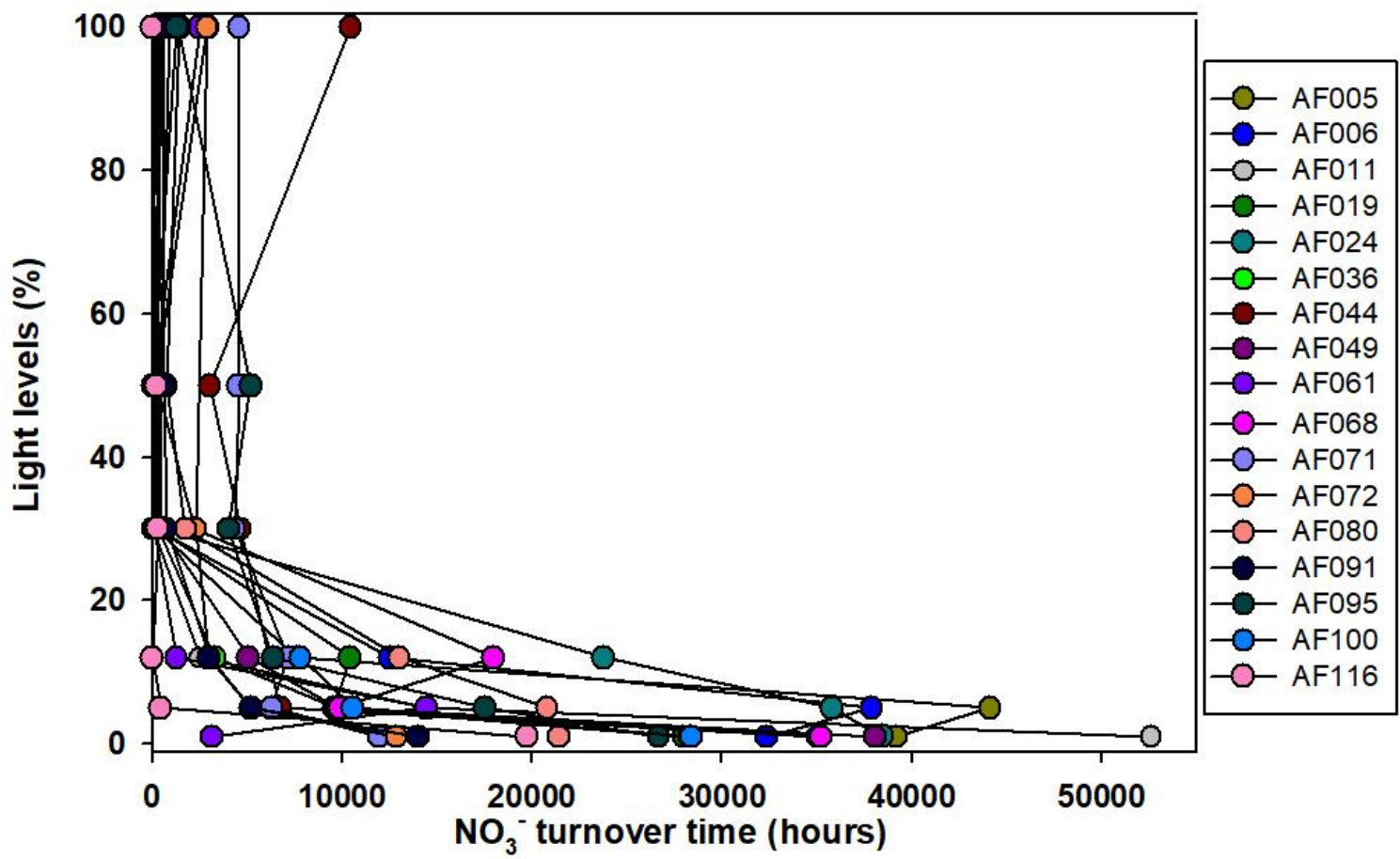


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793 Figure 5. The relationship of the contribution of small phytoplankton towards the total  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  uptake rates with DIN: P.

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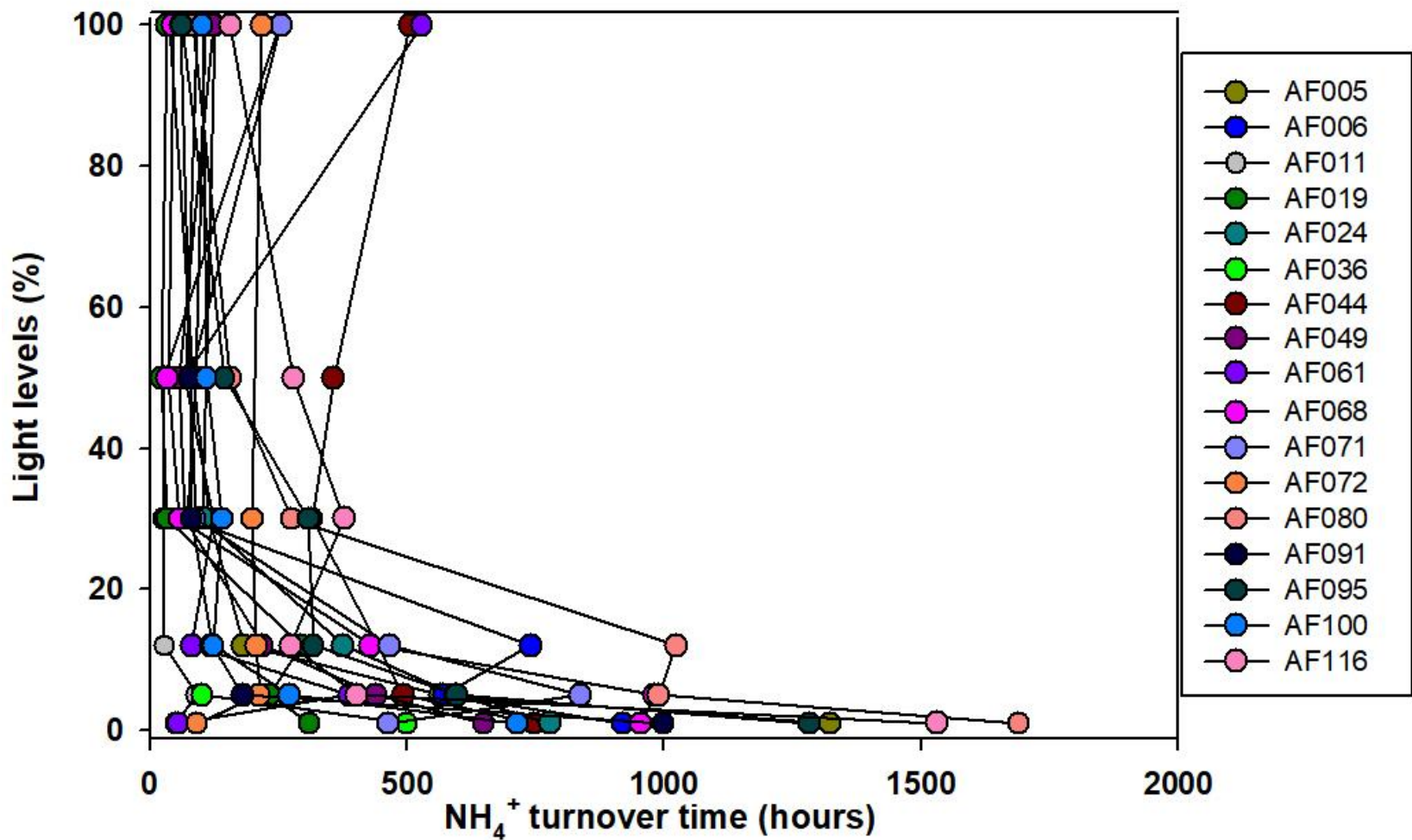


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797 Figure 6. Turnover time for the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> substrate, when small phytoplankton are the only consumers, in the sampling locations in the  
 798 Arctic Ocean.

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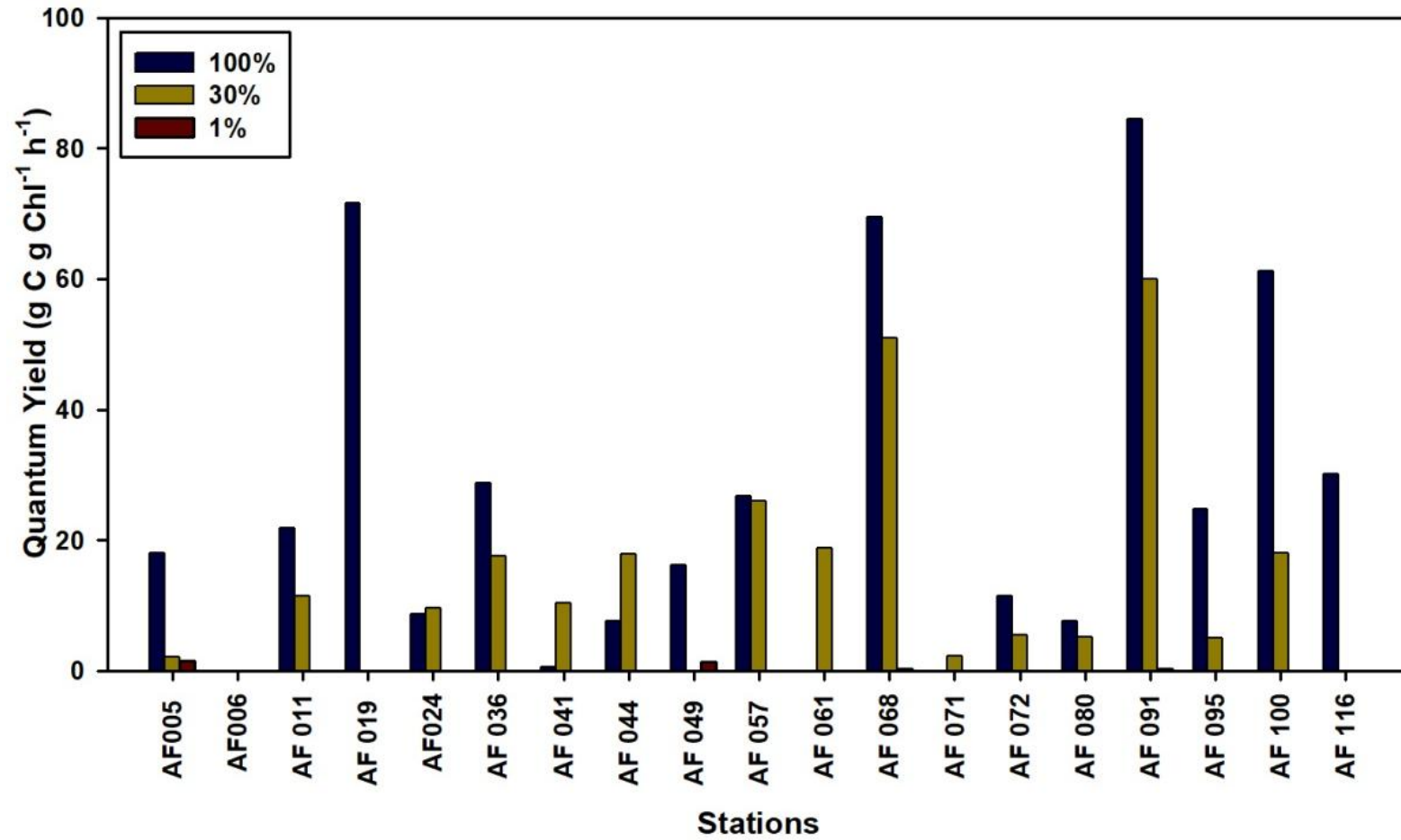




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801 Figure 7. Turnover times for the NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> substrate, when small phytoplankton are the only consumers, in the sampling locations.

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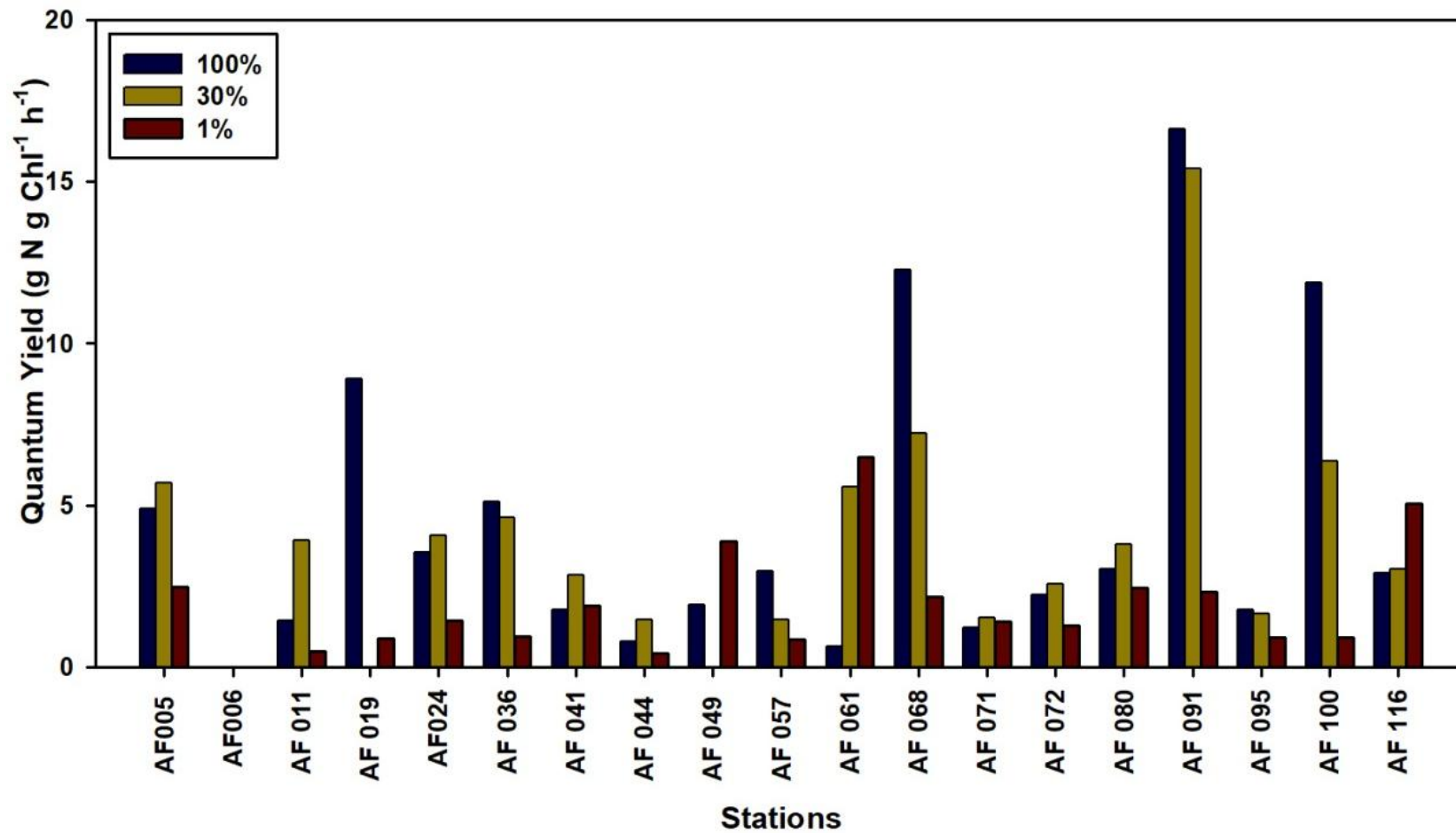


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804 Figure 8. Quantum C yield of small phytoplankton in the sampling locations.

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808 Figure 9. Quantum N yield of small phytoplankton in the sampling locations.

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