1	Influence of the bordering shelves on nutrient
2	distribution in the Arctic halocline inferred from
3 4	water column nitrate isotopes
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18 19	Running head: Nitrate isotopes in the Arctic Ocean
20	Abstract

The East Siberian Sea and contiguous western Arctic Ocean basin are characterized by a subsurface nutrient maximum in the halocline, generally attributed to both Pacific inflow and intensive remineralization in shelf bottom waters that are advected into the central basin. We report nitrogen and oxygen isotopic measurement of nitrate from the East Siberian Sea and western Eurasian Basin, in order to gain insight into how nitrate is processed by the microbial community and redistributed in the Arctic Ocean. A large decoupling between nitrate δ^{15} N and

 δ^{18} O is reported, increasing and decreasing upward from the Atlantic temperature maximum 27 layer toward the surface, respectively. A correlation between water and nitrate δ^{18} O indicates that 28 most of the nitrate (> 60 %) at the halocline has been regenerated within the Arctic Ocean. The 29 increase in nitrate δ^{15} N correlates with the fixed N deficit, indicating a causal link between the 30 loss of fixed N and the ¹⁵N enrichment. This suggests that a significant share of benthic 31 denitrification is driven by nitrate supplied by remineralization and partial nitrification, allowing 32 residual ¹⁵N-enriched ammonium to diffuse out of the sediments. By increasing nutrient 33 34 concentrations and fixed N deficit in shelf bottom waters, this imprint is attenuated offshore 35 following advection into the halocline by nitrate regeneration and mixing. Estimation of the 36 sedimentary isotope effect related to benthic denitrification yields values in the range of 2.4 - 3.837 ‰, with its magnitude driven by both the degree of coupling between remineralization and 38 nitrification, and fixed N concentrations in shelf bottom waters.

39 1. Introduction

40 Primary production in the Arctic Ocean is predominantly controlled by extreme seasonal 41 variation of light, while being modulated further by the growth and decay of sea ice (Wassman 42 and Reigstad, 2011; Slagstad et al., 2015). Primary production is thus restricted to a limited 43 period from late spring to summer and occurs both at the bottom of sea ice and in the euphotic layer (Wassman and Reigstad, 2011; Leu et al., 2015; Janout et al., 2016), with an overall higher 44 45 primary production over the Arctic shelves and slopes (Pabi et al., 2008). In recent years, Arctic 46 sea ice has been retreating at an unprecedented rate (Cavalieri and Parkinson, 2012). These 47 changes have profound impacts on primary production and upper ocean dynamics, and, 48 therefore, the functioning of the Arctic marine ecosystems (Wassman and Reistag, 2011; 49 Rainville et al., 2011; Yool et al., 2015). Primary production has increased by 30 % from 1998 to

50 2012 (Arrigo and van Dijken, 2015). Whether this increase in productivity will continue as sea 51 ice declines further, is difficult to predict (Arrigo and van Dijken, 2015; Vancoppenolle et al., 52 2013). In this respect, the availability of fixed nitrogen (i.e., reactive N or non-N₂; also defined 53 as biologically available N) also sets a limit on phytoplankton growth in the Arctic Ocean 54 (Popova et al., 2012; Codispoti et al., 2013). Current understanding in the N dynamics of Arctic 55 Ocean is limited compared to other ocean regions and reducing these uncertainties would 56 increase the reliability of projections for future Arctic primary productivity (Chang and Devol, 57 2009; Vancoppenolle et al., 2013; Arrigo and van Dijken, 2015).

58 Processes in the Arctic halocline are illustrative of the fixed N pathway into the Arctic Ocean 59 (Fig. 1b) (Tremblay et al., 2015). The subsurface nutrient maximum in the western Arctic upper 60 halocline is advected with high-nutrient Pacific water and supplemented with nutrients from the 61 decomposition of organic matter on the bordering shelves and slopes (Jones and Anderson, 1986; 62 Anderson et al., 2013; Tremblay et al., 2015). These waters exit the Arctic Ocean with the predominantly cyclonic Arctic Ocean Boundary Current (AOBC) carrying water from the 63 64 Beaufort Gyre toward the Canadian Arctic archipelago and Fram Strait (Rudels, 2012). The 65 colder lower halocline is thought to be formed either by (i) a combination of deep winter 66 convection and fresh water input by sea-ice melt when Atlantic water enters the Arctic Ocean 67 through the eastern Fram Strait and Barents Sea, or (ii) by offshore advection of dense water that 68 is produced by sea-ice formation over the Arctic shelves during AOBC transport (Aagaard et al., 69 1981; Rudels et al., 1994, 1996; Steele and Boyd, 1998; Woodgate et al., 2001; Kikuchi et al., 70 2004). Being progressively covered by a less saline upper halocline on its route into the western 71 Arctic Ocean, the lower halocline water mass initially has characteristics of the relatively 72 nutrient-poor Atlantic source water, but is subsequently supplemented with nutrients from the

decomposition of organic matter on bordering shelves and slopes during their transport
(Anderson et al., 2017). About half of the Atlantic inflow returns immediately out of the Arctic
Ocean through Fram Strait whereas the other half is transported with the AOBC across the Arctic
Ocean before exiting through the western Fram Strait and Canadian Arctic Archipelago (Fig. 1b)

77 (Rudels, 2012).

While nitrogen and oxygen isotopes ratios of nitrate (NO₃; ${}^{15}N/{}^{14}N$, ${}^{18}O/{}^{16}O$) provide a powerful 78 79 tool to assess how NO_3 is processed by the microbial community and is redistributed through the Arctic Ocean, such measurements have so far only been carried out for the Chukchi Sea shelf 80 81 and the Canada Basin (Brown et al., 2015). Nitrate assimilation and denitrification (both $NO_3^$ consuming processes) preferentially convert ¹⁴N and ¹⁶O, leaving the residual NO₃⁻ enriched in 82 $^{15}\mathrm{N}$ and $^{18}\mathrm{O}.$ The degree of fractionation is given by the kinetic isotope effect, $\epsilon,$ defined by the 83 ratio of rates at which the two isotopes are converted from one form to another (i.e., for nitrogen, 84 $^{15}\varepsilon$ (‰) = (($^{14}k/^{15}k$)-1) x 1000); where ⁿk is the rate coefficient for the ⁿN-containing reactant). 85 Since denitrifying bacteria and phytoplankton discriminate against ¹⁵N and ¹⁸O to the same 86 extent (${}^{15}\varepsilon \sim {}^{18}\varepsilon$) (Granger et al., 2008, 2010; Karsh et al., 2012), the residual NO₃ δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O 87 values increase in proportion to NO_3^- consumption (i.e., coupling between N and O isotopes). 88 89 Nitrification (NO_3^- producing process), on the other hand, decouples N from O isotopes 90 (Lehmann et al., 2004; Sigman et al., 2005). During NO₃⁻ assimilation and regeneration (i.e., N 91 remineralization + nitrification), the N isotopes are recycled between the fixed N pools, while the O isotopes are removed during NO₃⁻ assimilation (since NO₃⁻ is reduced to ammonium, NH₄⁺, 92 before assimilation) and then re-introduced during nitrification (i.e., oxidation of NH₄⁺ to nitrite, 93 NO₂, and then to NO₃) (Casciotti et al., 2010; Buchwald et al., 2012, 2015). Anaerobic 94 95 ammonium oxidation into N₂ (i.e., anammox) is another pathway to lose fixed N from marine

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96 sediments (Dalsgaard et al., 2005) but is considered to play a minor role over the Arctic shelves
97 in comparison to denitrification, as these shelves receive high loads of labile organic matter
98 (Dalsgaard et al., 2005; McTigue et al., 2016).

Brown et al. (2015) observed a progressive ¹⁵N-enrichment and ¹⁸O-depletion of NO₃⁻ over the 99 Chukchi Sea shelf and the adjacent offshore Canada Basin during advection of Pacific waters 100 through the Bering Strait into the Canada Basin. The ¹⁵N-enrichment was inversely correlated 101 with NH_4^+ concentrations in shelf bottom waters, suggesting a sediment source of ¹⁵N-enriched 102 NH_4^+ in agreement with the process of benthic coupled partial nitrification-denitrification 103 (Lehmann et al., 2007; Granger et al., 2011). The ¹⁸O-depletion relative to the Bering Sea source 104 105 waters indicated that a significant fraction (~ 50 %) of NO_3^- in the upper halocline was 106 regenerated by nitrification during the transport from the Bering Strait into the Canada Basin.

In the present study we report δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O of NO₃ along a slope transect in the East Siberian 107 108 Sea and for the sea ice-covered area of the western Eurasian Basin (Fig. 1), allowing us to test 109 the hypothesis that a decoupling between N and O isotopes as observed in the Bering Strait and 110 Canada Basin may likely be extended to the entire Arctic upper ocean. The primary objectives 111 are to understand how the nutrient maximum in the Arctic halocline is being formed, and what is 112 the influence of the bordering shelves on the reprocessing and redistribution of nutrients 113 throughout the Arctic Ocean. The secondary objective is to improve our mechanistic 114 understanding of the isotope systematics related to benthic fixed N loss.

115 2. Materials and method

Water samples were collected on full water column profiles during one cruise in the vicinity of
Fram Strait (~ 82.5°N and 6,2°W) in the western Eurasian Basin, northeast of Greenland, with 5
hydrocasts (July 2014; R.V. Polarstern, ARKXXVIII/3) and a second across-slope section in the

East Siberian Sea (170 – 175°E) with 6 hydrocasts, including on-shelf and off-shelf stations
(August 2014; R.V. Oden, SWERUS-C3) (Fig. 1).

121 Salinity and temperature were recorded using a Seabird 911C CTD with dual Sea-Bird 122 temperature (SBE 3), conductivity (SBE 04c) and oxygen sensors (SBE 43). Dissolved oxygen 123 (O_2) was measured onboard soon after sampling via Winkler titration as described in Anderson et 124 al. (2017). Samples were stored frozen (-20°C) in acid-cleaned HDPE 60 ml bottles until their analysis at the home-based laboratory (AMGC, VUB, Brussels, Belgium) for both water δ^{18} O, 125 and nitrate δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O. Immediately after sampling, the SWERUS-C3 samples were filtered 126 127 to remove particles using pre-rinsed Acrodisc filters (0.2 µm porosity). Nutrient concentrations (nitrate, NO₃⁻, nitrite, NO₂⁻, ammonium, NH₄⁺, phosphate, PO₄³⁻ and silicic acid, Si(OH)₄) were 128 129 measured based on spectrophotometric techniques, using a continuous flow QuAAtro analyzer 130 from Seal Analytical (Hydes et al., 2010), either soon after sampling for SWERUS-C3 or on 131 frozen samples at the home-based laboratory for ARKVIII/3 (Dore et al., 1996).

We used N* concentration to estimate the deficit in fixed N (i.e., biologically available N) in 132 comparison to PO_4^{3-} , according to $N^* = [DIN] - 16^*[PO_4^{3-}] + 2.9$ (Deutsch et al., 2001; DIN = 133 dissolved inorganic $N = NO_3^- + NO_2^- + NH_4^+$). Low (negative) N* concentrations indicate a sink 134 of fixed N and high (positive) concentrations are indicative of N2 fixation. Nutrients can be 135 136 further defined as regenerated vs. preformed nutrients (Ito and Follows, 2005). Below the 137 euphotic layer, regenerated nutrients are derived from the remineralization of organic matter, 138 either exported from the surface with export production (i.e., being equivalent to net community 139 production) or supplied from the rivers. Preformed nutrients originate as euphotic layer nutrients 140 that are left unused following blooms and are then carried into the subsurface by winter vertical mixing or downwelling (Ito and Follows, 2005). One can resolve the contributions of 141

142 regenerated and preformed nutrients using the Apparent Oxygen Utilization (AOU), which 143 depends on the observed temperature, salinity, and in-situ oxygen distribution (Broecker et al., 144 1985), and assuming a fixed stoichiometric ratio between oxygen and nutrients for remineralization (Anderson, 1995). Regenerated PO_4^{3-} equals AOU divided by the O_2/PO_4^{3-} 145 oxidation ratio during aerobic respiration (i.e., AOU/150; $C_{106}H_{175}O_{42}N_{16}P + 150O_2 = 106CO_2 + 1000$ 146 16HNO₃ + H₃PO₄ + 78H₂O). Extensive denitrification over the Arctic shelves and slopes (Chang 147 148 and Devol, 2009) introduces a complexity in the utilization of both AOU and O_2/NO_3^- oxidation 149 ratio, rendering it difficult to infer regenerated NO₃.

Nitrate $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$ were determined with the denitrifier method (Sigman et al., 2001; 150 151 Casciotti et al., 2002). Briefly, 20 nmol of NO_3^- is quantitatively converted to N_2O gas by 152 denitrifying bacteria (*Pseudomonas chlororaphis* f. sp. aureofaciens ATCC no 13985) that lack 153 an active N₂O reductase. The produced N₂O is analyzed by gas chromatography/isotope ratio 154 mass spectrometry (Thermo, DeltaV, VUB), using a custom-build 'purge and trap' system similar to the one described by Casciotti et al. (2002). Measurements are referenced to air N₂ for 155 δ^{15} N and Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW) for δ^{18} O using the NO₃⁻ reference 156 materials IAEA-NO3, with a δ^{15} N of 4.7‰ and a δ^{18} O of 25.6‰, and USGS-34, with a δ^{15} N of -157 1.8‰ and a δ^{18} O of -27.9‰ (Böhlke et al., 2003). Prior to the nitrate isotope analyses, NO₂⁻ was 158 159 removed by reaction with sulfamic acid to avoid any interference with NO₃⁻ (Granger and 160 Sigman, 2009). Each batch of samples intended for mass spectrometric analysis included NO₃⁻ 161 reference materials that was also amended with sulfamic acid to ensure that no contamination 162 originates from this treatment. As a concentration effect is reported for measurements of NO₃⁻ δ^{18} O, nitrate reference materials were diluted with low-nutrient Sargasso Sea surface water to 163 164 generate concentrations that bracket the concentrations of the samples in each batch (Weigand et al., 2016). We use any trends between the measured δ^{18} O of the two references concentrations bracketing of the sample concentrations to generate a linear correction for this trend (Marconi et al., 2015; Weigand et al., 2016). Replicate analysis (100% of the samples) indicates a median (mean) 1sd reproducibility of 0.15 (0.21) and 0.25 (0.27) ‰ for the NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O, respectively.

Water δ^{18} O was measured using a CO₂ equilibration technique (Epstein and Mayeda, 1953). 170 171 Headspace gastight vials (12 ml) are first flushed with helium gas and 500 µl of water is then 172 added followed by 300 µl of pure CO₂. The samples are placed in a shaker for 48h at ambient laboratory temperature allowing CO₂ δ^{18} O to fully equilibrate with water δ^{18} O before extraction 173 174 with a GasBench - Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer (Nu Perspective, Nu Instruments). Measurements were referenced to Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW) for δ^{18} O 175 176 using in-house standards previously calibrated to the VSMOW scale. The reported standard 177 deviation (1sd) is ~ 0.05 ‰ (Benetti et al., 2017).

178 3. Results

179 Temperature vs. salinity diagrams for both the East Siberian Sea and the western Eurasian Basin 180 show presence of cold and saline bottom water, overlaid by warmer Atlantic water centered at ~ 300 m (i.e., temperature maximum; $> 0^{\circ}$ C) (Fig. 2a). Overall, most of the density stratification in 181 182 the Arctic Ocean occurs above ~ 250 m in the halocline, separated into a lower and an upper 183 halocline with an Atlantic and Pacific origin, respectively (McLaughlin et al., 1996; Rudels et 184 al., 1996). In the western Eurasian Basin, only a cold lower halocline was observed near the 185 freezing point of seawater and with a salinity of ~ 34.0 (Fig. 2a), centered around ~ 100 m depth. 186 The lower halocline was warmer and slightly deeper in the East Siberian Sea. The upper halocline was present in the East Siberian Sea at a depth range of 100-125 m in the salinity range 32.5 to 33.5 and was clearly discernable by the maximum in nutrients, especially PO_4^{3-} and Si(OH)₄ being indicative of the nutrient-rich Pacific inflow (Fig. 3) (Jones et al., 1998). Water $\delta^{18}O$ largely followed salinity (Fig. 2b), as the freshwater supply in the Arctic Ocean is highly ¹⁸O-depleted (Cooper et al., 2008).

In the East Siberian Sea, a large accumulation of nutrients, especially PO_4^{3-} and Si(OH)₄, was 192 observed at the halocline (Fig. 3). On-shelf stations had roughly similar NO₃⁻ concentrations at 193 comparable salinity than off-shelf stations but with higher PO_4^{3-} and Si(OH)₄ concentrations. In 194 195 the western Eurasian Basin, no maximum in NO₃⁻ concentration was observed with concentrations steadily increasing from the surface to the deeper layers. On the contrary PO_4^{3-} 196 197 and Si(OH)₄ showed a small maximum at the lower halocline (Fig. 3). The accumulation of 198 nutrients in the East Siberian Sea was associated with a clear deficit in fixed N (i.e., biologically available N), as inferred from negative N* concentrations, and O2 consumption due to 199 remineralization (Figs. 3e, f). This is further confirmed with the proportion of regenerated PO_4^{3-1} 200 201 being higher at the halocline, and even more so at the lower halocline in the East Siberian Sea (Fig. 3d). 202

A large decoupling between NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O was observed at the halocline, increasing and decreasing upward, respectively (Figs. 4b, c). For the off-shelf stations of the East Siberian Sea, NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N increased from 5.0 to 8.6 ‰ from ~ 300 m depth to just below the mixed layer depth. No measurements were available at shallower depths as NO₃⁻ concentration was ~0.2 µmol l⁻¹, below our detection limit. The two on-shelf stations had contrasting NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N, with one station following the trend given by the off-shelf stations (up to 9.5 ‰) and one station having relatively lower NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N values (up to 5.3 ‰) (Fig. 4b). In the western Eurasian Basin, NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N

increased from 5.0 to 6.9 %. We observed a strong negative correlation between N* and NO₃⁻ 210 δ^{15} N (R² = 0.7, p value < 0.001) in the East Siberian Sea (Fig. 5a). Only one of the two on-shelf 211 stations falls on this trend with the other station presenting a deficit in fixed N but without ¹⁵N-212 enrichment of NO₃⁻. In the western Eurasian Basin, the relationship between N* and NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N 213 214 was attenuated, showing a larger scatter, though still significant ($R^2 = 0.3$, p value < 0.001). In the off-shelf stations of the East Siberian Sea, $NO_3^- \delta^{18}O$ decreased from 1.9 to -0.6 ‰ from ~ 215 300 m depth to just below the mixed layer depth (Fig. 4b). At a given salinity on-shelf stations 216 had similar NO₃⁻ δ^{18} O values than off-shelf stations (data not shown). NO₃⁻ δ^{18} O increased just 217 218 below the mixed layer for three stations, one on-shelf (up to 4.1 ‰) and two off-shelf stations 219 (up to 2.4 ‰). This likely reflects an increase in the contribution of preformed nutrients toward the surface (Fig. 3d), reflecting ¹⁸O enrichment from past NO_3^- assimilation starting with a NO_3^- 220 221 initial pool harboring a variable decoupling between N and O isotopes (Fig. 4c). In the western Eurasian Basin, NO₃⁻ δ^{18} O decreased similarly with depth from ~ 1.5 to 0.3 ‰ with comparable 222 223 values in both the lower halocline and surface waters as in the East Siberian Sea. A positive relationship was reported between NO₃⁻ δ^{18} O and water δ^{18} O in the East Siberian Sea (Fig. 4d; 224 $R^2 = 0.7$, p value < 0.001). This relationship was attenuated and more scattered for the western 225 Eurasian Basin ($R^2 = 0.4$, p value < 0.001). 226

4. Discussion

The nutrient maximum and fixed N (i.e., biologically available N) deficit in the western Arctic halocline are generally attributed to inflow of nutrient-rich Pacific waters through the shallow Bering Strait (Jones et al., 1998). Episodic intrusion of Pacific waters occurs in the Makarov Basin and the East Siberian Sea, mostly depending on the dominating atmospheric pressure field that determines the extent of the Beaufort Gyre and the position of the Transpolar Drift

(Woodgate et al., 2001; Proshutinsky et al., 2015). Further remineralization and benthic 233 234 denitrification in Arctic shelf seas are required to explain the accentuation of these properties within the Arctic Ocean. Although both NO_3^- and PO_4^{3-} concentrations increase in the upper 235 236 halocline relative to inflowing Pacific waters, the NO₃ increase is less than expected from 237 Redfield stoichiometry. As a result the fixed-N deficit is enhanced (Fig. 6) and this is likely due 238 to processes occurring over the productive Arctic shelves and slopes. There, benthic and water 239 column remineralization are confining decay products (i.e., nutrients) in shelf bottom waters that 240 are then advected throughout the basins of the Arctic Ocean to form the halocline (Jones and 241 Anderson, 1986; Anderson et al., 2013, 2017). The substantive production and export of organic 242 material to the shallow benthos stimulates denitrification in sediments, with benthic 243 denitrification rates reported to contribute between 4 to 13 % of the total sink of fixed N in the 244 global ocean. This contrasts with the relatively small contribution of the Arctic Ocean (1.4 %) to 245 the total ocean volume (Devol et al., 1997; Chang and Devol, 2009; McTigue et al., 2016).

246 In the East Siberian Sea, the O₂ consumption associated with the nutrient maximum cannot result 247 solely from the advection of nutrient-rich Pacific waters through the well-ventilated shallow Bering Strait (Fig. 3e) (Olsen et al., 2016). If this were the case, O₂ concentrations would be 248 close to saturation and most nutrients would be preformed nutrients. However, up to 75% of the 249 PO_4^{3-} in the halocline can be considered as regenerated PO_4^{3-} produced by the remineralization of 250 251 organic matter either exported from the surface waters or supplied from rivers (Fig. 3d) (Ito and Follows, 2005). The maximum contribution of regenerated PO₄³⁻ was also found in the lower 252 253 halocline carrying the O₂ minimum as well as a significant deficit in fixed N (Anderson et al., 254 2017). The lower halocline waters are essentially of Atlantic origin, being transported and 255 transformed along the cyclonic Arctic Boundary Current (Fig. 1b) (Aagaard et al., 1981; Rudels

256 et al., 1994, 1996; Steele and Boyd, 1998; Woodgate et al., 2001; Kikuchi et al., 2004). While 257 originally relatively poor in nutrients, accumulation of nutrients by remineralization during their 258 transport is required, most likely following offshore advection of nutrient-enriched shelf bottom 259 water into the central Arctic Basin (Anderson et al., 2017). Conservative mixing between 260 Atlantic- and Pacific-derived waters, following diapycnal mixing, cannot explain the nutrient 261 accumulation in nutrients, O₂ depletion and deficit of fixed N observed at the lower halocline in 262 the East Siberian Sea (red lines in Fig. 3). For the western Eurasian Basin stations, the lower 263 nutrient concentrations in the halocline could indicate that this area is predominantly affected by 264 the Atlantic inflow (Figs. 1c and 3) through the eastern Fram Strait and the Barents Sea and exit 265 the Arctic Ocean mostly through the western Fram Strait (Fig. 1b) (Ruddels, 2012). However, as discussed in the following sections, the NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O values for the western Eurasian 266 267 Basin indicate that these signatures were partly inherited from the Arctic Ocean and especially 268 from the bordering shelves, implying a widespread influence of the continental shelves on the 269 Arctic nutrient distribution.

270 The dual nitrogen and oxygen isotopes ratios of NO_3^- give insight on how NO_3^- is processed by 271 the microbial community and redistributed in the Arctic Ocean. The following discussion will start with the utilization of the NO₃⁻ δ^{18} O to estimate the fraction of NO₃⁻ regenerated within the 272 Arctic Ocean (section 4.1). Then, NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N will be discussed, suggesting that benthic coupled 273 274 partial nitrification-denitrification (CPND) is significant over the Arctic shelves and slopes, and is required to explain the high halocline NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N values in the East Siberian Sea and to a lower 275 276 extent in the western Eurasian Basin (section 4.2). Finally, the N isotope systematics associated 277 with CPND are discussed including implications for the utilization of the N isotopes to constrain 278 the marine N budget (section 4.3).

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4.1.Regenerated nitrate in the Arctic Ocean

Nitrified NO₃⁻ δ^{18} O is considered to be close to the δ^{18} O of seawater in which nitrification takes place (Casciotti et al., 2008; Sigman et al., 2009; Buchwald et al., 2012; Rafter et al., 2013). In comparison to the rest of the Ocean, Arctic waters exhibit a large variability in δ^{18} O resulting from the large ¹⁸O-depleted freshwater supply (Fig. 2b) (Cooper et al., 2008). This ¹⁸O-depletion could be transmitted to the newly produced NO₃⁻, potentially allowing us to quantify the fraction of NO₃⁻ being regenerated in the Arctic Ocean vs. the fraction being advected with the Pacific and Atlantic inflows.

We observed a positive relationship between the δ^{18} O of NO₃⁻ and seawater (R² > 0.4, p value < 287 0.001), indicating that the regional imprint from ¹⁸O-depleted Arctic rivers was indeed 288 289 transmitted to the Arctic NO₃⁻ pool through regeneration, both in the East Siberian Sea and the western Eurasian Basin (Fig. 4d). Overall NO₃⁻ δ^{18} O values decreased toward the surface (i.e., 290 following the trend for water δ^{18} O), but this decrease was stronger for the East Siberian Sea than 291 292 for the western Eurasian Basin, likely reflecting the larger freshwater contribution (i.e., lower water δ^{18} O and salinity) to the former basin (Fig. 2b) (Cooper et al., 2008; Bluhm et al., 2015). 293 This relationship between seawater δ^{18} O and NO₃⁻ δ^{18} O appears to be unique to the Arctic and 294 295 sub-Arctic areas, and so far has only been reported for the Chukchi Sea and the Canada Basin 296 (Brown et al., 2015) and over the northern Bering shelf (Granger et al., 2011, 2013). The present 297 study suggests that it is likely the norm for the whole Arctic Ocean. A deviation from this 298 relationship is observed toward the surface for some stations in both the East Siberian Sea and western Eurasian Basin, with the latter harboring high NO₃⁻ δ^{18} O (~1 to 4.3 ‰) for low seawater 299 δ^{18} O (~-1.6 to -2.3 ‰; Fig. 4d). This likely reflects ¹⁸O enrichment from NO₃⁻ assimilation 300

301 starting with a NO₃⁻ initial pool harboring a variable decoupling between N and O isotopes (Fig.
302 4c).

The regeneration of NO_3^- is related to nitrification (NH_4^+ to NO_3^-), while the O isotopes are 303 removed by NO_3^- assimilation and denitrification (since NO_3^- is reduced to NH_4^+ or N_2) and then 304 replaced in the nitrification process (NH_4^+ to NO_2^- and then to NO_3^-) (Sigman et al., 2005). The 305 δ^{18} O of newly produced NO₃⁻ will depend of the associated isotopic fractionation during 306 nitrification and the sources of O atoms (Sigman et al., 2009; Buchwald et al., 2012). The 307 relatively small range of NO₃⁻ δ^{18} O reported for deep and intermediate waters in the ocean (~ 1.5 308 to 2.5‰), being close to seawater δ^{18} O, has led to the general assumption that NO₃⁻ δ^{18} O of 309 310 newly produced NO_3^- is mainly set by O incorporation from water with a little contribution from O_2 (Sigman et al., 2009). Field studies have shown that newly produced NO₃⁻ $\delta^{18}O$ is near that of 311 seawater δ^{18} O + ~ 1.1 ‰ (Casciotti et al., 2008; Sigman et al., 2009; Rafter et al., 2013). While 312 culture experiments give a range for newly produced NO₃⁻ δ^{18} O between -1.5 and 1.3 % relative 313 to seawater δ^{18} O (Buchwald et al., 2012), encompassing field estimates, they also demonstrate 314 that this range in δ^{18} O reflects, instead, a combination of large kinetic isotope effects (during O 315 316 atom incorporation from H_2O and O_2) and equilibrium isotope effect with H_2O (Casciotti, 2007, 317 Casciotti et al., 2010; Buchwald et al., 2012).

Our data clearly highlight the role played by water δ^{18} O in setting the variation of NO₃⁻ δ^{18} O (Fig. 4d). Halocline waters in the East Siberian Sea and the western Eurasian basin, show a relatively good agreement between observed NO₃⁻ δ^{18} O and the predicted δ^{18} O for regenerated NO₃⁻ according to field studies (i.e., seawater δ^{18} O + ~ 1.1 ‰; black line in Fig. 4d). However, a clear deviation from the predicted trend, with higher NO₃⁻ δ^{18} O than expected, is observed toward the surface (i.e., toward more negative water δ^{18} O; above ~ 80 m depth) and could possibly reflect an increasing proportion of preformed nutrients (Fig 3d). An alternative explanation could be that a mismatch in the timing between NO₃⁻ regeneration and freshwater accumulation occurs toward the surface, or that regenerated NO₃⁻, mostly accumulated at the halocline nutrient maximum, diffuse upward and mix with more ¹⁸O-depleted surface waters. Despite this complexity, the relationship between NO₃⁻ and seawater δ^{18} O clearly indicates that most of the NO₃⁻ being supplied into the upper Arctic Ocean has been reprocessed at least once within the Arctic Ocean, including the NO₃⁻ advected with the nutrient-rich Pacific inflow.

Brown et al. (2015) estimated based on ambient $NO_3^- \delta^{18}O$ values that roughly 50 % of NO_3^- in the upper halocline was regenerated in the waters of the Bering Strait and the Canada Basin, encompassing the range given by Granger et al. (2013) for the northern Bering Shelf (20 to 80 %). These authors used the following mass and isotopic balance:

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$$[NO_3^-]_{\text{total}} * NO_3^- \delta^{18}O_{\text{total}} = [NO_3^-]_{\text{preformed}} * NO_3^- \delta^{18}O_{\text{preformed}} + [NO_3^-]_{\text{regenerated}} * NO_3^-$$

336
$$\delta^{18}O_{\text{regenerated}}$$
 (1)

337 Rearranged and simplified as follows:

338
$$[NO_3^-]_{regenerated}/[NO_3^-]_{total} = (NO_3^- \delta^{18}O_{total} - NO_3^- \delta^{18}O_{preformed})/(NO_3^- \delta^{18}O_{regenerated} - NO_3^-)$$
339
$$\delta^{18}O_{preformed}$$
 (2)

Equation 2 gives the proportion of the ambient NO₃⁻ pool being regenerated. Setting regenerated NO₃⁻ δ^{18} O to H₂O δ^{18} O + 1.1 ‰, yields NO₃ δ^{18} O values of 0.3 ± 0.6 and 0.4 ± 0.5 ‰ for the halocline of the East Siberian Sea and western Eurasian Basin, respectively. Preformed NO₃⁻ δ^{18} O is set to 1.5 ± 0.5 ‰, encompassing the range for the Atlantic and Pacific inflows (Brown et al., 2015; Deman et al., 2017). Accordingly, the proportion of regenerated NO₃⁻ to the NO₃⁻ pool is 80 ± 43 and 65 ± 35 % at the halocline of the East Siberian Sea and western Eurasian Basin, respectively. Despite the large uncertainties, these estimates are similar to the fraction of regenerated PO_4^{3-} calculated by assuming a fixed stoichiometric ratio between oxygen and nutrients for remineralization (40 to 75%; Fig. 3d). More data are needed to better constrain preformed $NO_3^{-5} \delta^{18}O$ at the regional scale in the Arctic Ocean, and holds for regenerated NO_3^{-5} $\delta^{18}O$ at the global scale.

351 4.2.Coupled benthic partial nitrification-denitrification on the bordering shelves

Nitrate $\delta^{15}N$ increased from the Atlantic temperature maximum upward to the halocline and 352 toward the surface, contrasting with the trend observed for NO₃⁻ δ^{18} O. This increase was larger in 353 354 the East Siberian Sea than in the western Eurasian Basin (Fig. 4b), reflecting the fact that water 355 in the latter basin is more representative of open water conditions, far from direct shelf to basin 356 interactions and was likely more impacted by regeneration and mixing with less-altered Atlantic inflow (Fig. 1b). The decoupling between NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O excludes the possibility that 357 partial NO₃⁻ assimilation is responsible for this increase in NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N. Nitrate assimilation 358 preferentially converts ¹⁴N and ¹⁶O, leaving the residual NO₃⁻ equally enriched in ¹⁵N and ¹⁸O as 359 both N and O isotopes are discriminated to the same extent ($^{15}\varepsilon \sim ^{18}\varepsilon$; Fig. 4c) (Granger et al., 360 2004, 2010; Karsh et al., 2012). This increase in NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N toward the surface can neither be 361 362 explained by regeneration of NO_3^- with nitrification in the water column. Indeed, as is common 363 to Arctic surface waters in summer, NO_3^- is fully consumed in the East Siberian Sea (Codispoti et al., 2013: Humborg et al., 2017). Export production δ^{15} N (i.e., sinking PN) is therefore equal 364 or close to the NO₃⁻ source δ^{15} N (i.e., subsurface NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N) (Eppley and Peterson, 1979; Altabet 365 366 and Francois, 1994). In case NO_3^- is only partly assimilated in the surface waters (e.g., in the western Eurasian Basin), export production δ^{15} N will be lower than ambient NO₃⁻ (Altabet and 367 368 Francois, 1994). Concerning the regeneration of NO_3^- , we can reasonably assume that (i) 369 nitrification is complete on annual to multi-annual scales, and (ii) there is little or no isotopic

fractionation during remineralization of organic matter to NH₄⁺ (Knapp et al., 2011; Möbius, 370 2013). Accordingly, buried organic N and nitrified NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N in the water column are equal or 371 close to the export production δ^{15} N. Violating assumptions (i) and (ii) will tend regenerated NO₃⁻ 372 δ^{15} N to become lower than sinking PN δ^{15} N (Granger et al., 2011; Fripiat et al., 2014). An input 373 374 of riverine organic matter will also likely decrease regenerated NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N upon remineralization, as riverine fixed N δ^{15} N is likely to be low in relative pristine high-latitude rivers (Voss et al., 375 2006). Instead of remaining constant or decreasing, NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N rather increased from the Atlantic 376 377 temperature maximum to the halocline where NO_3^- had accumulated as linked to a consumption of oxygen (Figs 3 and 4). As discussed further below, we suggest that this increase in NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N 378 379 is mostly derived from benthic-pelagic interactions (Fig. 7), confining nutrients and a fixed N 380 deficit in shelf bottom waters that are then advected throughout the basins of the Arctic Ocean to 381 be incorporated into the halocline (Jones and Anderson, 1986; Anderson et al., 2013, 2017). For 382 shelf bottom water of the East Siberian Sea this is in agreement with the observed larger nutrient 383 concentrations, N deficit and O₂ consumption, which show a tendency to increase toward the 384 sediment interface. Furthermore, we observed that for the off-shelf stations these properties of 385 the halocline become enhanced inshore (Fig. 3).

There was a strong negative correlation between N* and NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N in the East Siberian Sea (R² = 0.7, p value < 0.001), indicating a causal link between the loss of fixed N with benthic denitrification (i.e., N₂ production) and the ¹⁵N enrichment in ambient NO₃⁻ (Fig. 5a). Denitrification cannot take place in the oxygen-containing water column, as observed throughout the Arctic Ocean (Olsen et al., 2016), and is occuring predominantly in the anoxic sedimentary layer of the Arctic shelves and slopes (Chang and Devol, 2009). In case of benthic denitrification, such ¹⁵N-enrichment of NO₃⁻ can be explained if a significant share of

393 denitrification consumes NO₃⁻ that was initially produced from partial benthic nitrification (Fig. 7) (Lehmann et al., 2007). The first step of nitrification $(NH_4^+ \text{ into } NO_2^-)$ strongly discriminates 394 N isotopes, with ${}^{15}\epsilon \sim 15$ ‰ (Casciotti et al., 2003; Santoro and Casciotti, 2011). Residual NH₄⁺ 395 δ^{15} N increases by producing low NO₂⁻ δ^{15} N. It is generally assumed that NO₂⁻ does not 396 397 accumulate in pore waters and is quantitatively converted by the second step of nitrification 398 (NO₂⁻ into NO₃⁻). As a result of this complete NO₂⁻ oxidation, the reported inverse kinetic isotope effect (${}^{15}\varepsilon \sim -13$ ‰) is muted (Casciotti, 2009). Newly produced low- δ^{15} N NO₃⁻ is 399 subsequently reduced to N₂ by denitrification. In case remineralization exceeds nitrification (i.e., 400 partial nitrification) residual ¹⁵N-enriched NH₄⁺ diffuses out to bottom waters where it is fully 401 nitrified into NO₃, increasing the NO₃ concentration and transmitting the ¹⁵N-enrichment from 402 benthic nitrification into the water column NO_3^- (Fig. 7). This combination of processes is able to 403 explain the observed ¹⁵N enrichment in ambient NO₃⁻ in the shelf bottom waters and the Arctic 404 405 halocline layer (Figs. 4b, c and 5a). Sedimentary denitrification sustained by direct NO_3^{-1} diffusion from the overlying water column is unlikely to increase overlying water column NO_3^{-1} 406 δ^{15} N. This denitrification pathway is limited by the diffusion of NO₃⁻ into the active 407 denitrification layer, with little NO₃⁻ escaping and therefore not imparting its residual high- δ^{15} N 408 409 value to the overlying water column NO₃⁻ (Brandes and Devol, 1997, 2002; Lehmann et al., 410 2004, 2007).

Benthic coupled partial nitrification-denitrification (CPND) has also been put forward by others to explain a similar ¹⁵N-enrichment and ¹⁸O-depletion of NO₃⁻ over the Chukchi Sea shelf and the downstream Canada Basin (Brown et al., 2015). The occurrence of this decoupling between N and O isotopes also in the East Siberian Sea, as well as in the lower halocline of predominantly Atlantic origin water, suggests that benthic coupled nitrification-denitrification is a widespread process over the productive Arctic shelves and slopes. Higher export of organic matter over the shallow productive Arctic shelves (e.g., the Chukchi and East Siberian Sea) is likely more favorable to a decoupling between remineralization and nitrification (i.e., lower nitrification/remineralization ratio), allowing a larger efflux of NH_4^+ out of the sediments. This imprint is likely progressively diluted with increasing distance from the shelves by regeneration and mixing, implying decreasing $NO_3^- \delta^{15}N$ values and an attenuated relationship with N* in the western Eurasian Basin (Figs. 4b and 5a).

Though the N* and NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N trend closely fits the line representing conservative mixing 423 424 between Atlantic- and modified Pacific-derived waters, this process alone cannot reproduce the 425 distributions in nutrient, oxygen and N* concentrations found in the East Siberian Sea (red lines in Figs 3 and 5a). This is further confirmed by the distribution of NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N vs. the fraction of 426 427 fixed N left over by benthic denitrification (see next section). The East Siberian Sea falls on the fractionation trend given by the preferential removal of ¹⁴N with benthic denitrification, but with 428 higher than expected NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N for the conservative mixing (Figs 5b, c). However, in agreement 429 with the observed attenuation of the NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N vs. N* concentration relationship away from the 430 431 shelf regions, the trend in the western Eurasian Basin, on the contrary, does fit the mixing line between a fractionated (upper halocline) and an unfractionated pools of NO_3^- (Atlantic derived-432 433 water) (Figs 5b, c).

434 4.3.Sedimentary isotope effect associated with fixed N loss

The fixed N budget of the Ocean is set by the balance between N inputs (mostly N₂ fixation) and outputs (mostly pelagic and benthic denitrification) (Codispoti et al., 2001; Galloway et al., 2004; Gruber and Galloway, 2008). By knowing the isotope effects related to the fixed N outputs and the δ^{15} N of the fixed N input, one can estimate the relative imprint of benthic vs. water 439 column denitrification on the 'mean' (i.e., global ocean) oceanic fixed N δ^{15} N (Brandes and 440 Devol, 2002; Deutsch et al., 2004; Sigman et al., 2009).

In heterogeneous environments such as sediments, the determination of a 'mean' isotope effect related to fixed N loss is not trivial (Lehmann et al., 2007). Indeed, different isotope effects have been defined, depending on where in the system the isotopic fractionation is expressed (pore waters vs. overlying water column) and what fixed N pools are considered (only NO₃⁻ or total reactive N). The sedimentary isotope effect (ε_{sed}) takes into account the impact of all fixed N fluxes (including NH₄⁺) out of the sediments in the expression of the organism-level isotope effects into the overlying water column NO₃⁻ (Lehmann et al., 2007).

Benthic denitrification has long been assumed to occur with little or no sedimentary isotope 448 449 effect, as most of the NO₃ is reduced in the active denitrification layer with little NO₃ escaping and therefore not imparting its residual high- δ^{15} N value to the overlying water column NO₃⁻ 450 451 (Brandes and Devol, 1997, 2002; Lehmann et al., 2004, 2007). Recently, higher isotope effects for coupled partial nitrification-denitrification (CPND) have been reported (up to ~ 8 ‰), as the 452 residual NH_4^+ diffusing out of the sediments transmits the ¹⁵N-enrichment from benthic 453 454 nitrification into overlying water column NO₃⁻ (Fig. 7) (Lehmann et al., 2007; Granger et al., 455 2011; Alkhatib et al., 2012). A better assessment of the variability of the sedimentary isotope 456 effect is therefore required to better constrain the 'mean' oceanic N isotope budget.

The negative relationship between N* and NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N suggests a causal link between the loss of fixed N (predominantly over the shelves and slopes) (Chang and Devol, 2009) and the ¹⁵N enrichment in ambient NO₃⁻ (Fig. 5a). We propose to use this correlation to estimate the sedimentary isotope effect with the following equations:

461 $NO_3^- \delta^{15}N = \text{initial fixed N } \delta^{15}N - {}^{15}\varepsilon_{\text{sed}} * \ln([\text{DIN}]/([\text{DIN}]-N^*))$ (3)

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462 assuming a system in which the reactant N pool is neither replenished nor lost from the system
463 (i.e., Rayleigh fractionation kinetics). The alternative is an open system in steady state for which
464 the input of substrate balances the outputs (residual substrate + product):

465

$$NO_{3}^{-}\delta^{15}N = initial \text{ fixed } N \delta^{15}N + {}^{15}\varepsilon_{sed} * (1-[DIN]/([DIN]-N^{*}))$$
(4)

466 Several assumptions are inherent to these above equations. The first assumption is that DIN 467 concentration in the water column is representative of the residual fixed N pool. This is a 468 reasonable assumption since the sedimentary DIN pool contributes to a small fraction of the DIN 469 in the combined bottom water and reactive sedimentary layer. The second assumption considers 470 initial fixed N to be the sum of initially available fixed N in the water column (mostly dissolved 471 inorganic N) plus what is derived from organic matter remineralization, in both the bottom water (R_{wc}) and the reactive sedimentary layer (R_{sed}) (Fig. 7). Accordingly, the initial fixed N pool is 472 473 the water column DIN augmented with the N-deficit (N*) (Altabet et al., 1999). Hereafter, f is 474 defined as the ratio between DIN and (DIN-N^{*}), and represents the fraction of substrate remaining after the fixed N loss. The third assumption considers NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N as representative of 475 the residual fixed N δ^{15} N. It is a reasonable assumption since NO₃⁻ is considered as the end-476 477 product of remineralization in the aphotic ocean. To test this last assumption, we also take into account a sedimentary $NH_4^+ \delta^{15}N$ of 20 % and the relative contribution of NH_4^+ to the DIN pool 478 to estimate an expected DIN δ^{15} N. This sedimentary NH₄⁺ δ^{15} N value has been reported in the 479 480 shelf bottom water of the Bering shelf (Granger et al., 2011).

By rearranging equations 3 and 4, the linear relationship between NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N and either ln(f) or (1- f) allows us to estimate a sedimentary isotope effect of 2.4 ± 0.4 and 3.2 ± 0.4 ‰ (R² = 0.7; p value < 0.001) and an initial fixed N δ^{15} N (i.e., at N* = 0) of 6.1 ± 0.2 and 6.2 ± 0.2 ‰ (p value < 0.001), for closed and open system conditions, respectively (Figs. 5b and 5c). By taking into

account the expected DIN δ^{15} N (assuming a sedimentary NH₄⁺ δ^{15} N of 20 ‰), the isotope effect 485 increases to 3.0 ± 0.3 and 3.8 ± 0.3 ‰ ($R^2 = 0.9$; p value < 0.001) and the fixed N δ^{15} N increases 486 to 6.5 ± 0.1 and 6.6 ± 0.1 % (p value < 0.001) (not shown). Although more elaborate models 487 488 (e.g., diffusion-reaction models) might be more appropriate to describe this complex 489 environment, our one-box model is a robust approach to reproduce the observations in the East Siberian Sea ($R^2 > 0.7$, p value < 0.001; Fig. 5). The initial NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N is close to the observed 490 491 values at the lower halocline of the offshore East Siberian Sea sites, but little is known about 492 how and from where NO_3^- is advected over the East Siberian shelf. The estimated sedimentary 493 isotope effect fits in the range reported for benthic denitrification (0 - 8 ‰) (Brandes and Devol, 494 1997, 2002; Lehmann et al., 2004, 2007; Granger et al., 2011; Alhkatib et al., 2012). The upper limit is usually imparted to the nitrification-driven denitrification and the lower limit to NO_3^{-1} 495 496 diffusion-driven denitrification (Lehmann et al., 2007; Granger et al., 2011; Alhkatib et al., 497 2012).

498 In case of CPND the overall expression of the sedimentary isotope effect into the overlying 499 water column will be mostly a function of the balance between benthic remineralization and nitrification fluxes, which sets the amount of NH_4^+ diffusing out of the sediment, its $\delta^{15}N$ 500 501 signature as well as the ambient NO_3^- concentration. Similar to the dilution effect described in 502 Deutsch et al. (2004) for water column denitrification, a fractionated fixed N pool (i.e., efflux out 503 of the sediments) is mixed with an unfractionated fixed N pool (i.e., mostly ambient NO_3), impacting differently f and NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N being used to estimate ϵ_{sed} (Eqs. 3 and 4). With a tight 504 coupling between benthic remineralization and nitrification, efflux carries high $NH_4^+ \delta^{15}N$ out of 505 506 the sediments but its lower concentration will give less weight in the resulting mixing product $NO_3^- \delta^{15}N$ (i.e., efflux + ambient NO_3^- in the overlying water column). In case remineralization 507

equals CPND, the sedimentary isotope effect is muted, as there is no NH_4^+ efflux. In case there is 508 509 no NO_3^- in the initial water column, the estimated sedimentary isotope effect equals the isotope 510 effect of nitrification (~15 %; Casciotti et al., 2003; Santoro and Casciotti, 2011) and water column NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N is directly set by the efflux δ^{15} N (i.e., residual product of benthic 511 nitrification). Any intermediate scenario will tend to have a sedimentary isotope effect lying 512 between these two extreme values (i.e., 0 and ~ 15 %). Further mixing with offshore water, not in 513 514 contact with the reactive sedimentary layer, will also tend to decrease the overall expression of 515 the sedimentary isotope effect (Figs 5b, c).

Accordingly, the relatively low sedimentary isotope effect (2.4 - 3.8 ‰) for the East Siberian Sea may result of benthic CPND characterized by a close coupling between remineralization and nitrification. Note that one station over the shelf (i.e., SWERUS-C3 station 62), presented a clear fixed N deficit but little associated ¹⁵N-enrichment, and was considered an outlier (Fig. 5). This situation may likely result from benthic coupled nitrification-denitrification but with nitrification balancing remineralization, leading to little or no NH_4^+ efflux and a sedimentary isotope effect close to 0 ‰ for CPND.

In agreement with previous studies (Lehmann et al., 2007; Granger et al., 2011; Alkhatib et al., 2012) sedimentary isotope effect for benthic fixed N loss is likely to vary considerably for different sedimentary environments. We have shown that, in case of benthic coupled partial nitrification-denitrification, its magnitude also depends on the conditions in the overlying water column (i.e., unfractionated ambient fixed N pools) and especially the degree of coupling between remineralization, and nitrification in the reactive sedimentary layer (i.e., dilution effect). This has profound consequences in the determination of a 'mean' sedimentary isotope effect needed to assess a relative contribution of benthic vs. water column denitrification to the oceanicfixed N loss, requiring further investigations.

532 5. Conclusion

Mechanisms generally considered able to explain the halocline nutrient maximum in the Arctic Ocean are; (i) advection of nutrient-rich Pacific water via the shallow Bering Strait, and/or (ii) intensive remineralization over the productive shallow shelves. The latter mechanism implies a temporary confinement of the remineralization products (i.e., nutrients) in shelf bottom waters in interaction with highly reactive sediments, followed by their advection into the central basin to form the halocline (Jones and Anderson, 1986; Anderson et al., 2013, 2017; Tremblay et al., 2015).

Above the Atlantic temperature maximum, a clear relationship was observed between δ^{18} O of 540 541 water and NO_3^- , both for the East Siberian Sea and the western Eurasian Basin. Seawater in the upper Arctic Ocean has extremely low- δ^{18} O values due to the large ¹⁸O-depleted freshwater 542 supply. This imprint is transmitted to the ambient NO₃ δ^{18} O during NO₃ regeneration. At the 543 halocline, NO₃⁻ δ^{18} O was close to the value expected for newly produced NO₃⁻ δ^{18} O (i.e., water 544 δ^{18} O + 1.1 ‰; Sigman et al., 2009). This suggests that most of the NO₃⁻ (> 60 %) at the Arctic 545 546 halocline had been regenerated at least once within the Arctic Ocean, including the nutrients 547 supplied with the Pacific inflow. This proportion increases for the halocline of the East Siberian 548 Sea (~ 80%). These estimates are in agreement with the percentage contribution of regenerated PO_4^{3-} to the whole PO_4^{3-} pool determined based on Apparent Oxygen Utilization and $O_2:PO_4^{3-}$ 549 theoretical stoichiometric ratio, and ranging from ~ 40 up to 75 % for the halocline in the 550 551 western Eurasian Basin and East Siberian Sea, respectively (Ito and Follows, 2005).

The associated increase in NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N toward the nutrient maximum, which is accompanied by a 552 strong fixed N deficit and a partial O2 consumption, provide some clues on where the 553 regeneration predominantly occurs. The NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N increase was larger in the East Siberian Sea. 554 555 particularly for inshore waters compared to the western Eurasian Basin and was significantly 556 related with N* concentrations. In agreement with previous studies focusing on subarctic and 557 arctic shelves, it is suggested here that benthic denitrification consumes to a significant extent the 558 NO_3^- produced by partial nitrification in the reactive sediment layers (Granger et al., 2011; 559 Brown et al., 2015). Following an imbalance between remineralization and nitrification, high- δ^{15} N NH₄⁺ accumulates in pore waters and diffuses out of the sediments, transmitting the ¹⁵N-560 561 enrichment into the water column. As this process likely occurs over the entire the productive Arctic shelves, it could explain the accentuation in the nutrient enrichment, the high NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N, 562 and low NO₃⁻ δ^{18} O, as well as the fixed N deficit in the Arctic halocline, following advection of 563 564 shelf bottom waters into the central basin. This imprint is progressively diluted far from the shelves by mixing, implying lower NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N values and an attenuated relationship with N* with 565 increasing distance from the shelves (e.g., toward the western Eurasian Basin). 566

567 These findings clearly highlight the key role of the bordering shelves in setting the nutrient 568 distribution and properties in the Arctic Ocean. The substantive production and export of organic 569 material to the shallow sediments stimulates remineralization and denitrification at the sediment 570 interface, releasing and confining nutrients in shelf bottom water and removing fixed N from the 571 ocean. More investigations are required to develop a mechanistic understanding of this process 572 and how it is likely to evolve in a rapidly changing Arctic Ocean. This benthic-pelagic coupling 573 is still poorly represented in biogeochemical models (Popova et al., 2010; Vancoppenolle et al., 574 2013).

The relationship between N* and NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N allows us to estimate an isotope effect related to 575 576 benthic denitrification expressed in the water column (i.e., sedimentary isotope effect) (Altabet et 577 al., 1999; Lehmann et al., 2007). Over the East Siberian Sea, the sedimentary isotope effect was 578 between 2.4 and 3.8 ‰, in the middle range of previous estimates. This magnitude can be 579 explained by a close coupling between remineralization and nitrification, implying that the efflux out of the sediments carries a high- δ^{15} N signal but is highly depleted in fixed N. As the latter is 580 581 being mixed with the unfractionated fixed N pool in the overlying water column (mostly NO_3^{-}). less weight is given for the efflux to set water column NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N. This process is similar to what 582 583 has been described as a dilution effect for pelagic denitrification by Deutsch et al. (2004). 584 Variable sedimentary isotope effects determined by the degree of coupling between 585 remineralization and nitrification, overlying water column fixed N concentration, and variations 586 in the NO₃ source for benthic denitrification, all have profound consequences when assessing 587 the global fixed N budget based on the 'mean' (i.e., global Ocean) isotopic balance and require 588 further investigations (Brandes and Devol, 2002; Deutsch et al., 2004).

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803 Figures and captions

Figure 1: Sea Ice concentration on August 1st 2014 (Malasnik and Stroeve, 1999) (a) and bathymetry and halocline circulation, sources and associated fronts (blue shows Pacific-origin waters, purple shows Atlantic-origin waters, thick black line depicts the front between them) (Rudels et al., 1994, 1996; McLaughlin et al., 1996; Bluhm et al., 2015) (b). The stations reported in this study are represented by the red squares.

Figure 2: Potential Temperature – salinity diagram (a) and water $\delta^{18}O$ (‰ vs. SMOW) – salinity diagram (b) for the western Eurasian Basin (gray squares) and in the East Siberian Sea for the off-shelf (blue circles) and on-shelf (empty purple triangles) stations. Thin lines connects adjacent samples from the same hydrocast. The light gray shaded area indicates the upper halocline (UH) observed only in the East Siberian Sea. The dark gray shaded area is for the lower halocline (LH) in both the East Siberian Sea and western Eurasian Basin.

Figure 3: Concentrations – salinity diagrams for NO_3^- (a), Si(OH)₄ (b), PO_4^{3-} (c), 815 regenerated:total PO_4^{3-} ratio (d), dissolved O_2 (e), and N* (f) in the western Eurasian Basin (gray 816 817 squares) and in the East Siberian Sea for the off-shelf (blue circles) and on-shelf (empty purple 818 triangles) stations. This lines connects adjacent samples from the same hydrocast. The light gray 819 shaded area indicates the upper halocline (UH) observed only in the East Siberian Sea. The dark 820 gray shaded area is for the lower halocline (LH) in both the East Siberian Sea and western 821 Eurasian Basin. The black arrows indicate the trend for the off-shelf stations with decreasing 822 distance from the East Siberian shelf. The mixing lines between the upper halocline in the East 823 Siberian Sea and the lower halocline in the western Eurasian Basin is represented by the red 824 lines, representative of the Pacific- and Atlantic-derived waters, respectively.

Figure 4: Depth profiles of NO₃⁻ concentration (a) and both NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N (filled symbols) and δ^{18} O 825 826 (open symbols) (b) in the western Eurasian Basin (gray squares) and in the East Siberian Sea for 827 the off-shelf (blue circles) and on-shelf (purple triangles) stations. The horizontal gray dashed 828 line represents the 50m isobath, representing approximately the mean outer shelf-depth over the 829 East Siberian Sea, and the blue dashed line represents the Atlantic temperature maximum. The vertical dashed black lines in (b) represent the mean oceanic NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O (Sigman et al., 830 831 2009; Marconi et al., 2015). Thin lines connects adjacent samples from the same hydrocast. Nitrate $\delta^{15}N$ vs. $\delta^{18}O$ (c), and water $\delta^{18}O$ vs. NO₃⁻ $\delta^{18}O$ (d) in the western Eurasian Basin 832 833 (square) and in the East Siberian Sea for the off-shelf (circles) and on-shelf (triangles) stations. 834 The colored symbols in both (c) and (d) represent the halocline with the colors corresponding to 835 salinity (i.e., color bar in panel d). The trends given by both assimilation and benthic coupled 836 partial nitrification-denitrification (CPND) are represented in (c), as well as the predicted newly produced NO₃⁻ δ^{18} O from nitrification (d) according to field studies. 837

Figure 5: NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N vs. N* (a), ln(f) (b), and (1-f) (c) in the western Eurasian Basin (gray 838 839 squares) and in the East Siberian Sea for the off-shelf (blue circles) and on-shelf (purple triangles) stations. F is defined as the fractional loss of fixed N [i.e., $f = DIN/(DIN - N^*)$] 840 841 (Altabet et al., 1999). The linear regression for off-shelf stations in the East Siberian Sea is 842 shown with the dashed blue line. The open symbols represent the data omitted from regression 843 because they appears to have been influenced by past assimilation (Fig. 4c). The mixing lines 844 between the upper halocline in the East Siberian Sea and the lower halocline in the western 845 Eurasian Basin is shown with the red lines, representative of the Pacific- and Atlantic-derived 846 waters, respectively.

Figure 6: Phosphate vs. nitrate concentrations from both GLODAP-v2 database (Olsen et al., 847 848 2016) and this study. Black and white circles represents all available data from GLODAP-v2 in 849 the eastern and western Arctic, defined here as the area from the coasts to the North Pole 850 between 0 and 180°E and 0-180°W, respectively. Green and orange circles represent all available 851 data from GLODAP-v2 for the Bering Sea, over the shelf (> 150 m) and in the deep basin, 852 respectively. The arrows show the effect (i.e., slope) of remineralization, denitrification, and a 853 scenario in which denitrification equals remineralization, assuming N to P ratio of 16 and 104 for 854 remineralization and denitrification, respectively (Anderson et al., 1995; Gruber and Sarmiento, 855 1997).

856 Figure 7: Conceptual scheme showing the inputs and loss of fixed N in the combined shelf 857 bottom water and reactive sedimentary layer. Initial fixed N is initial DIN and what is supplied from the remineralization of exported particulate N (PN) both in the water column (R_{wc}) and in 858 sediments (R_{sed}). As little isotopic fractionation is expected for remineralization, the newly 859 produced NH₄⁺ δ^{15} N is close to the exported PN δ^{15} N, being close to the advected NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N as 860 861 most of the NO₃⁻ is consumed in the euphotic layer. Nitrification in the water column is assumed to be quantitative (~ 100%), and newly produced NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N in the water column is therefore 862 close to the NH₄⁺ δ^{15} N. If benthic remineralization is larger than nitrification, NH₄⁺ is 863 864 accumulated in pore waters and can diffuse into the overlying water column (i.e., efflux, E). $NH_4^+ \delta^{15}N$ will increase as being the residual substrate of nitrification, preferentially oxidizing 865 14 NH₄⁺ into NO₃⁻. Low- δ^{15} N NO₃⁻ in the reactive sediment will then be quantitatively converted 866 into N₂, transmitting the isotopic fractionation from sedimentary nitrification to denitrification 867 868 (D).



























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