Biogeochemical consequences of a changing Arctic shelf seafloor ecosystem

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Biogeochemical consequences of a changing Arctic shelf seafloor ecosystem --Manuscript Draft--

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Corresponding Author:	Christian März University of Leeds UNITED KINGDOM
Corresponding Author Secondary Information:	
Corresponding Author's Institution:	University of Leeds
Corresponding Author's Secondary Institution:	
First Author:	Christian März
First Author Secondary Information:	
Order of Authors:	Christian März
	Felipe Freitas
	Johan Faust
	Jasmin Godbold
	Sian Henley
	Allyson Tessin
	Geoffrey Abbott
	Ruth Airs
	Sandra Arndt
	David Barnes
	Laura Grange
	Neil Gray
	lan Head
	Katharine Hendry
	Robert Hilton
	Adam Reed
	Saskia Ruhl
	Martin Solan
	Terri Souster
	Mark Stevenson
	Karen Tait
	James Ward
	Steven Widdicombe
Order of Authors Secondary Information:	

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	Natural Environment Research Council (NE/P006108/1)	Dr Sian Henley
	Natural Environment Research Council (NE/P005942/1)	Dr Sandra Arndt
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Abstract:	Unprecedented and dramatic transformation climate change, but academic, public and p focussed on the most visible and direct asp permafrost thaw, the fate of charismatic me Such narratives disregard the importance o particular, miss the substantive contribution and sequestering carbon. Here, we summa Arctic shelf seafloor before considering how to human activities may alter system express importance of the Arctic benthic system in r change and, with a focus on emerging evide some observations and our perspectives or management and policy.	ns are occurring in the Arctic in response to olitical discourse has disproportionately ects of change, including sea ice melt, gafauna, and the expansion of fisheries. f less visible and indirect processes and, in of the shelf seafloor in regulating nutrients rise the biogeochemical functioning of the v climate change and regional adjustments ssion and dynamics. We highlight the noderating climate and anthropogenic ence from the Barents Sea region, offer n what research is needed to support

Dr Christian März Associate Professor in Biogeochemistry School of Earth and Environment University of Leeds Leeds LS2 9JT United Kingdom Email c.maerz@leeds.ac.uk T +44 (0) 113 34 31504 W http://www.see.leeds.ac.uk/people/c.maerz



Cover letter – Submission of revised version of "Biogeochemical consequences of a changing Arctic shelf seafloor ecosystem" to AMBIO

To whom it may concern,

It is our pleasure to submit our revised Article "Biogeochemical consequences of a changing Arctic shelf seafloor ecosystem" for consideration for publication with AMBIO. We believe that our contribution adds important knowledge and perspectives to a critically important, yet underappreciated part of the Arctic Ocean system that is facing a multitude of challenges from climate change and increased human exploitation of the Arctic. We are also confident that we have taken all comments by editor and reviewers into account in this revised version.

With kind regards, for all authors,

Climitia to

Dr Christian März

Christian März is an Associate Professor at the School of Earth and Environment, University of Leeds, UK. His research interests include biogeochemical cycles and paleoenvironmental reconstructions.

Address: School of Earth and Environment, University of Leeds, LS2 9JY Leeds, UK Email: <u>c.maerz@leeds.ac.uk</u>

Felipe Sales de Freitas is a Research Associate at the School of Earth Sciences, University of Bristol, UK. He is an oceanographer by training and applies numerical modelling to understanding marine biogeochemical cycles.

Address: School of Earth Sciences, Wills Memorial Building, Queen's Road, Bristol, BS8 1RJ, UK Email: <u>felipe.salesdefreitas@bristol.ac.uk</u>

Johan Faust is a Postdoctoral Research Fellow at the School of Earth and Environment, University of Leeds, UK (now at MARUM - Center for Marine Environmental Sciences, University of Bremen, Germany). He uses geochemical signatures in marine sediments to unravel paleoenvironmental conditions and the carbon cycle.

Address: MARUM - Center for Marine Environmental Sciences, University of Bremen, Leobener Strasse 8, 28359 Bremen, Germany

Email: jfaust@marum.de

Jasmin Godbold is an Associate Professor at the University of Southampton, UK. Her research focusses on understanding the consequences of environmental change and human activities for benthic organisms and ecosystems.

Address: Ocean and Earth Science, National Oceanography Centre Southampton, University of Southampton, Waterfront Campus, European Way, Southampton, SO14 3ZH. UK. Email: j.a.godbold@soton.ac.uk

Sian Henley is a Lecturer in Marine Science at the University of Edinburgh, UK. Her research interests centre on biogeochemical cycling and ecosystem functioning in both polar regions, and how they are responding to and feeding back on changes in the climate and physical environment. Address: School of GeoSciences, University of Edinburgh, James Hutton Road, Edinburgh, EH9 3FE, UK

Email: s.f.henley@ed.ac.uk

Allyson Tessin is an Assistant Professor at the Department of Geology at Kent State University in Ohio, USA. Her research interests include modern and paleo-marine biogeochemical cycling. Address: Department of Geology, 221 McGilvrey Hall, 325 S. Lincoln St., Kent OH, USA 44242 Email: atessin@kent.edu

Geoffrey D Abbott is a Reader at the School of Natural and Environmental Sciences, Newcastle University, UK. His research interests include organic biogeochemistry and carbon cycling. Address: School of Natural and Environmental Sciences, Newcastle University, NE1 7RU, UK Email: geoff.abbott@ncl.ac.uk

Ruth Airs is a Senior Analytical Chemist at Plymouth Marine Laboratory (PML). Her research evolves around developing and using improved detection and characterisation of biogeochemically relevant compounds, in particular photosynthetic pigments. Address: Plymouth Marine Laboratory, PL1 2EH, Plymouth, UK Email: <u>rairs@pml.ac.uk</u>

Sandra Arndt is an Associate Professor at the Université libre de Bruxelles, Belgium. She is interested in carbon and nutrient cycling across interfaces in the earth system and their feedbacks on past, present and future climate. Address: Dept. Geosciences Environment and Society, Université libre de Bruxelles, Av. F. Roosevelt 50 – CP160/02, 1050 Brussels, Belgium Email: <u>sandra.arndt@ulb.be</u>

David K A Barnes is a marine benthic ecologist at British Antarctic Survey, Cambridge, UK. His research interests include biodiversity, blue carbon and conservation on remote continental shelves. Address: British Antarctic Survey, UKRI, Cambridge, CB3 0ET, UK Email: <u>dkab@bas.ac.uk</u>

Laura Grange is a Lecturer in Marine Biology at Bangor University, North Wales, UK. Her research focuses on seafloor ecological processes in both polar regions, with a particular interest in the population consequences of environmental change on the reproductive ecology and resilience of species.

Address: School of Ocean Sciences, Bangor University, Bangor, Gwynedd, LL57 2DG, UK Email: <u>l.grange@bangor.ac.uk</u>

Neil Gray is Professor of Geomicrobiology at the School of Natural and Environmental Sciences, Newcastle University, UK. His research involves experimental approaches to link microbial biodiversity to function and geochemical conditions.

Address: School of Natural and Environmental Sciences, Newcastle University, NE1 7RU, Newcastle upon Tyne, UK

Email: neil.gray@ncl.ac.uk

Ian Head is Dean of Research and Innovation at the School of Natural and Environmental Sciences, Newcastle University, UK. His research seeks to unravel the microbial controls on biogeochemical process in natural and engineered environments.

Address: School of Natural and Environmental Sciences, Newcastle University, NE1 7RU, Newcastle upon Tyne, UK Email: <u>ian.head@ncl.ac.uk</u> Katharine (Kate) Hendry is an Associate Professor at the School of Earth Sciences at the University of Bristol, UK. Her research interests include multi-disciplinary approaches to understanding biogeochemical cycling in the polar regions.

Address: School of Earth Sciences, University of Bristol, Wills Memorial Building, Queens Road, BS8 1QE, UK

Email: <u>K.Hendry@bristol.ac.uk</u>

Robert G Hilton is a Professor of Earth Surface Geochemistry at Durham University, UK. His research focuses on the transfers of carbon from the atmosphere to sediments, with a particular focus on how climate can amplify (or dampen) these carbon transfers. Address: Department of Geography, Durham University, South Road, Durham, DH1 3LE, UK Email: r.g.hilton@durham.ac.uk

Adam J Reed is a Postdoctoral Researcher in Polar Benthic Ecology at the University of Southampton, UK. His interests are in reproductive ecology and life history of polar invertebrates, and the consequences of environmental change on reproductive processes. Address: Ocean and Earth Science, National Oceanography Centre Southampton, University of Southampton, Waterfront Campus, European Way, Southampton, SO14 3ZH. UK. Email: adam.reed@noc.soton.ac.uk

Saskia Rühl is a Postdoctoral Researcher at the Helmholtz Zentrum Hereon in Geesthacht, Germany, and a Visiting Postdoctoral Fellow at Plymouth Marine Laboratory in Plymouth, UK. She is interested in benthic-pelagic coupling from biological, physical and biochemical perspectives. Address: Helmholtz Zentrum Hereon, Max-Planck-Straße 1, 21502 Geesthacht, Germany Email: <u>saskia.ruehl@hereon.de</u>

Martin Solan is a Professor in Marine Ecology at the University of Southampton, UK with interests in understanding biodiversity-environment interactions and the ecosystem consequences of altered diversity and environmental change.

Address: Ocean and Earth Science, National Oceanography Centre Southampton, University of Southampton, Waterfront Campus, European Way, Southampton, SO14 3ZH, UK Email: <u>m.solan@soton.ac.uk</u>

Terri Souster is a Post Doctoral Researcher at The University of Tromso (UIT), Norway and a Research Fellow at The British Antarctic Survey, UK. Her research interests include benthic biodiversity, physiology and ecology of the polar regions and the implications of anthropogenic related climate change.

Address: The British Antarctic Survey, High Cross, Madingley Road, Cambridge, CB3 0ET, UK Email: <u>terrisouster@gmail.com</u>

Mark Stevenson is a Postdoctoral Research Associate in Organic Geochemistry and Palaeoclimate at Durham Univeristy, UK. His research uses organic geochemical techniques to understand biogeochemical cycling and develop improved reconstructions of past environmental change. Address: Department of Geography, Lower Mountjoy, South Rd, Durham, DH1 3LE, UK Email: <u>mark.stevenson@durham.ac.uk</u>

Karen Tait is a Senior Scientist at Plymouth Marine Laboratory, UK. She studies the links between microbial communities and the functions they provide in terms of carbon and nitrogen cycling within coastal and shelf sea ecosystems.

Address: Plymouth Marine Laboratory, PL1 2EH, Plymouth, UK Email: ktait@pml.ac.uk

James Ward is a postgraduate researcher at the University of Bristol. His research focusses on the biogeochemical cycling of silica in marine sediments and how sensitive these processes are to future changes in climate and the physical environment.

Address: School of Earth Sciences, University of Bristol, Wills Memorial Building, Queens Road, BS8 1QE, UK

Email: JamesPJ.Ward@bristol.ac.uk

Stephen Widdicombe is Director of Science at Plymouth Marine Laboratory, Plymouth UK. His research interests include the impacts of human activity and natural disturbances on marine biodiversity.

Address: Plymouth Marine Laboratory, PL1 3DH, Plymouth, UK Email: swi@pml.ac.uk

Biogeochemical consequences of a changing Arctic shelf seafloor ecosystem

Christian März¹, Felipe S. Freitas², Johan C. Faust^{1,3}, Jasmin A. Godbold⁴, Sian F. Henley⁵, Allyson C. Tessin⁶, Geoffrey D. Abbott⁷, Ruth Airs⁸, Sandra Arndt⁹, David K. A. Barnes¹⁰, Laura J. Grange¹¹, Neil D. Gray⁷, Ian M. Head⁷, Katharine R. Hendry², Robert G. Hilton¹², Adam J. Reed⁴, Saskia Rühl^{8,13}, Martin Solan⁴, Terri A. Souster^{10,14}, Mark A. Stevenson^{7,12}, Karen Tait⁸, James Ward², Stephen Widdicombe⁸

¹School of Earth and Environment, University of Leeds, LS2 9JT Leeds, UK (c.maerz@leeds.ac.uk) ²School of Earth Sciences, University of Bristol, Bristol, BS8 1QE, UK

³MARUM - Center for Marine Environmental Sciences, University of Bremen, Leobener Strasse 8,

28359 Bremen, Germany

⁴Ocean and Earth Science, National Oceanography Centre Southampton, University of Southampton, Waterfront Campus, European Way, Southampton, SO14 3ZH.

⁵School of GeoSciences, University of Edinburgh, James Hutton Road, Edinburgh, EH9 3FE, UK

⁶Department of Geology, Kent State University, Kent, OH 4424, USA

⁷School of Natural and Environmental Sciences, Newcastle University, Newcastle upon Tyne, NE1 7RU, UK

⁸Plymouth Marine Laboratory, Prospect Place, Plymouth, PL1 3DH, United Kingdom

⁹BGeosys, Dept. Geosciences, Environment and Society, Université libre de Bruxelles, Brussels,

CP160/03 1050, Belgium

¹⁰British Antarctic Survey, UKRI, Maddingley Rd, Cambridge, CB3 0ET, UK

¹¹School of Ocean Sciences, Bangor University, Bangor, Gwynedd, North Wales, LL57 2DG, UK

¹²Department of Geography, Durham University, Durham, DH1 3LE, UK

¹³Helmholtz Zentrum Hereon, Max-Planck-Str. 1, 21502 Geesthacht, Germany

¹⁴Department of Biosciences, Fisheries and Economics, UIT, Tromsø, Norway

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1 Biogeochemical consequences of a changing Arctic shelf seafloor ecosystem

2

3 Abstract

4	Unprecedented and dramatic transformations are occurring in the Arctic in response to climate
5	change, but academic, public and political discourse has disproportionately focussed on the most
6	visible and direct aspects of change, including sea ice melt, permafrost thaw, the fate of charismatic
7	megafauna, and the expansion of fisheries. Such narratives disregard the importance of less visible
8	and indirect processes and, in particular, miss the substantive contribution of the shelf seafloor in
9	regulating nutrients and sequestering carbon. Here, we summarise the biogeochemical functioning
10	of the Arctic shelf seafloor before considering how climate change and regional adjustments to
11	human activities may alter its biogeochemical and ecological dynamics, including ecosystem
12	function, carbon burial, or nutrient recycling. We highlight the importance of the Arctic benthic
13	system in mitigating climatic and anthropogenic change and, with a focus on the Barents Sea, offer
14	some observations and our perspectives on future management and policy.
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23 **1. Introduction**

24 The Arctic Ocean seafloor hosts a diverse and productive benthic ecosystem that is a crucial 25 component of an intimately coupled benthic-pelagic system (Fig. 1; Piepenburg 2005). Benthic 26 organisms modulate sequestration, transformation and storage of bio-essential nutrients and carbon 27 across the Arctic shelf seas (Morata et al. 2020). A significant proportion of organic matter (OM) 28 from marine, terrestrial, or sea ice sources is further recycled via microbially mediated processes 29 that are coupled to the activities of benthic meio-, macro- and mega-fauna (e.g., via bioturbation, 30 bioirrigation; Piepenburg et al. 1995; Renaud et al. 2008). These biological and biogeochemical 31 processes partition the carbon and nutrient pools into a fraction that is recycled to drive a benthic-32 pelagic feedback loop, and a fraction that is buried in the sediment. On the shallow Arctic shelf, the 33 feedback with water column processes (via physical mixing and primary productivity) is more 34 pronounced than in the deep ocean and plays a crucial role for benthic-pelagic coupling and 35 ecosystem productivity; the latter could then contribute to the long-term removal of carbon from 36 the ocean-atmosphere system. Key uncertainties exist, however, in how changing sea ice dynamics 37 (e.g., thickness, extent, inter-annual variability) will alter existing biological community composition 38 and structure, biogeochemical processes, and associated ecosystem functioning. Understanding how 39 these responses are manifest in the benthic environment, both directly and indirectly, is crucial to 40 understanding the Arctic ecosystem as a whole and its importance at the larger scale (Macdonald et 41 al. 2015).

One frequently debated proposition on Arctic change is that longer and more extensive open water conditions, especially across Arctic shelves, could lead to prolonged growing seasons and enhanced CO₂ uptake by biomass (Arrigo and Van Dijken 2015; Slagstad et al. 2015). Eventually, this could result in a negative feedback on the CO₂-induced greenhouse effect in the Arctic as more carbon is sequestered into the sediment. However, modelling the response of the Arctic Ocean carbon and nutrient cycles to reduced sea ice and its associated, and partly counteracting, effects (deeper light

48 penetration, longer growth seasons, increased water column stratification, ocean acidification, 49 warming), is difficult – partly due to an incomplete mechanistic understanding of the changing Arctic 50 Ocean seafloor. It is currently unclear which fraction of carbon and nutrients will be metabolised and 51 transformed at the seafloor, which interactions between microbial and macro-benthic activity 52 dominate these transformations, and what the effects are on ecosystem structure and functioning. 53 Seafloor recycling likely plays a significant role for the whole Arctic Ocean, with associated societal 54 feedbacks on fisheries and other marine resources, highlighting the critical importance of 55 understanding and quantifying biogeochemical processes at the Arctic seafloor. The carbon storage 56 potential of marine sediments in particular has only recently been recognised and evaluated (Luisetti 57 et al. 2020). Aspects to consider here are the reliable knowledge of carbon contents, the 58 vulnerability of this carbon store, and its assignment to specific nations. These questions will be 59 relevant for designing governance frameworks on sediment carbon storage, but there is little 60 empirical support to the assumed carbon inventory. Although sophisticated, multi-component 61 diagenetic models now exist, most regional to global scale biogeochemical and Earth system models 62 do not resolve the complexity of the seafloor environment. Moreover, models tend to neglect or 63 simplify biogeochemical processes by using a limited number of parameters in the sediment and, in 64 so doing, misrepresent organism-sediment interactions and benthic-pelagic coupling (Lessin et al. 65 2018; LaRowe et al. 2020).

With the recognition that the Arctic is undergoing transformative, and possibly irreversible, changes comes a need to re-evaluate how external forcing could change the fundamentals of the system. For context, we describe the role of the Arctic Ocean seafloor in carbon and nutrient cycling, OM burial and ecological function, provide context of how this role might change in the future, use a reactiontransport model to estimate possible changes to carbon and nutrient cycling in the Barents Sea, and give perspectives on human activities and management.

2. Biogeochemical functioning of the Arctic shelf seafloor – Recycling versus storage

74	Fundamentally, benthic recycling of carbon and nutrients is driven by the supply of biogenic material
75	to the seafloor, and its subsequent degradation and dissolution (Fig. 1; e.g., Middelburg 2019). Rates
76	of seafloor recycling are enhanced by intense activity of macro- and microorganisms, such as faunal
77	feeding, sediment mixing, microbial degradation. Recycling-induced fluxes across the sediment-
78	water interface influence nutrient budgets in the overlying waters (e.g., Bourgeois et al. 2017),
79	which, in turn, can impact primary production in the surface ocean. Any carbon that escapes benthic
80	recycling gets preserved below the seafloor, and this carbon burial is crucial for transferring
81	atmospheric CO_2 to a long-term sediment store. It is this balance between benthic recycling and
82	storage of carbon and nutrients that is likely to change in the future Arctic shelf seas.
83	In terms of carbon and nutrient cycling, Arctic shelf seas (e.g., the Barents Sea) are special because
84	(i) they are often highly productive, with significant atmospheric CO_2 uptake (Arrigo and van Dijken
85	2015); (ii) their shallow waters allow for a fast transfer of OM to the seafloor; and (iii) strong
86	seasonality and cold temperatures allow for efficient, pulsed carbon transfer to the seafloor
87	(Wassmann et al. 2006a; DeVries and Weber 2017). Once at the seafloor, the fate of carbon and
88	nutrients depends on the quality and quantity of exported OM (Morata and Renaud, 2008;
89	Stevenson et al. 2020), the stability of sedimentary OM and nutrients linked to reactive iron phases
90	in the upper sediments (Faust et al. 2020, 2021), and the composition and process rates of benthic
91	biota (McTigue et al. 2016; Solan et al. 2020). For the Barents Sea, recent models (Freitas et al. 2020)
92	suggest that benthic recycling of nutrients from sediments to overlying waters is mainly controlled
93	by OM reactivity, and therefore its source, age, and total amount (Fig. 2). Additionally, this study
94	shows the magnitude of nutrient fluxes to be somewhat independent from sea-ice extent and,
95	instead, to be mostly impacted by the (physico-chemical) structure of the overlying waters (Freitas
96	et al. 2020). With the pronounced changes in Arctic Ocean ecosystems (e.g., changes in sea ice,
97	water masses, phytoplankton species) that are projected to intensify in the coming decades (e.g.,

Arthun et al. 2012; Smedsrud et al. 2013; Oziel et al. 2017, 2020; Lewis et al, 2020), the trajectory of
carbon and nutrient recycling at the seafloor is uncertain.

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3. Altered system expressions and dynamics

102 Available evidence suggests that conditions across the Barents Sea, and other Arctic inflow shelves, 103 will become more akin to those of sub-Arctic seas. Warming is predicted to promote Barents Sea 104 'Atlantification' and Chukchi Sea 'Pacification' whereby warmer, saltier and nutrient-richer waters 105 routinely expand further north, often leading to higher primary productivity (Lind et al. 2018; Barton 106 et al. 2018). If sea ice reduction is paralleled by enhanced vertical mixing (Lind et al. 2018; 107 Randelhoff et al. 2020), phytoplankton growing seasons are extended. Enhanced mixing and bloom 108 duration could shift nutrient demands (Downes et al. 2021), with knock-on effects on carbon export. 109 It should be noted, however, that due to the environmental complexities there is significant 110 uncertainty in any prediction of Arctic Ocean primary productivity (Vancoppenolle et al. 2013). In 111 addition, thawing permafrost is now prevalent around the Arctic Ocean (in particular in Siberia) 112 which, combined with higher river runoff, will deliver more carbon and nutrients to the Arctic 113 shelves (e.g., Bröder et al. 2018; Terhaar et al. 2021). These changes in the status quo will likely alter 114 pathways of carbon delivery to the seafloor and, in turn, the amount of carbon preserved within 115 sediments. Further, changes in the composition and behaviour of the benthic community will affect 116 the fate of both organic and inorganic carbon accumulation at the seafloor. While there is a basic 117 understanding of current factors affecting Arctic seafloor biogeochemistry, some controls on OM 118 burial play out over thousands of years (e.g., Faust et al. 2021). It is unknown if ongoing/future 119 climate change may perturb these processes, either by modifying carbon inputs and/or the microbial 120 communities and degradation pathways below the seafloor (Brüchert et al. 2018). In addition, while the burial of zoobenthic carbon may be more strongly affected by ecosystem change (i.e., the 121 122 dominant benthic fauna), no clear link between this carbon pool and the position of the sea ice

margin was found in the Barents Sea (Souster et al. 2020). This may be partly due to the limited
number of habitats studied, or the numerous and complex interactions along the process chain from
sea ice cover and carbon export to dynamic ecosystem responses. At similar water depths around
Antarctica, across-habitat studies have suggested maximum burial may occur in habitat interface
zones, e.g., where basins meet glacial moraines (Barnes and Sands 2017).

128 Intimately linked to OM deposition at the seafloor is the cycling of nutrients. Benthic nutrient 129 recycling rates and fluxes are highly sensitive to the impacts of primary production and OM export 130 changes (e.g., Freitas et al. 2021). Extension of the phytoplankton growing season in the Barents Sea 131 carries with it the potential to increase total primary production if sufficient nutrients are available 132 (e.g., Lewis et al. 2020; Henley et al. 2020). Should this occur, and translate into greater export of 133 'fresh' OM, it could lead to higher benthic nutrient fluxes, although any effect is unlikely to be 134 universally expressed due to strong regional differences (e.g., Oziel et al. 2020; Downes et al. 2020). 135 Indeed, the highly seasonal, often short-term, and highly regional benthic-pelagic dynamics on Arctic 136 shelves go some way in explaining why an often assumed link between sea ice cover and benthic 137 nutrient fluxes is not always found (Freitas et al. 2020). This contrasts with sediment carbon 138 dynamics, with seasonally ice-covered parts of the Barents Sea exhibiting lower organic carbon 139 contents, but higher organic carbon burial rates (Faust et al. 2020) and higher abundances of benthic 140 fauna (Souster et al. 2020). On Arctic shelves and margins currently more permanently ice-covered 141 (e.g., Yermak Plateau), changes in primary production and OM delivery to the seafloor can lead to 142 comparatively greater changes in benthic nutrient fluxes as compared to the low background values 143 (Tessin et al. 2020).

While no systematic relationship between benthic nutrient fluxes and sea ice cover was found in the
Barents Sea, there is a significant link with water mass distributions and 'Atlantification'. Benthic
nutrient fluxes in summer 2017 were higher at stations dominated by Atlantic water (B13, B14, B17;
Fig. 2) than at those dominated by Arctic water (B15, B16; Fig. 2) (Freitas et al 2020). If

148 'Atlantification' continues, benthic nutrient fluxes are likely to increase across the region, 149 irrespective of superimposed seasonal and spatial variability. However, patterns of response will 150 depend on the relative importance of, and interactions between, increased bottom water 151 temperatures, changes in primary production and phytoplankton communities, and OM delivery to 152 the seafloor. And since the benthic efflux depends on fixation of nutrients in deposited organic 153 biomass, a net addition to benthic nutrient effluxes will only occur if the Barents Sea system as a 154 whole receives increased external nutrients, for example, through Atlantic water (Oziel et al. 2017) 155 or by increased input (and degradation) of terrestrial OM (Terhaar et al. 2019, 2021).

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4. Estimating future organic carbon burial and benthic nutrient cycling using a reaction transport model

159 Working from the realistic assumption (for reasons stated above) that reduced sea ice in the Barents 160 Sea may lead to increased OM export to the seafloor, we estimate the impact of this on carbon 161 burial and degradation rates by performing a simple model sensitivity analysis (Fig. 3). We use our baseline model for the Barents Sea shelf (Freitas et al. 2020) that is confounded in biogeochemical 162 163 data from five key stations across the Polar Front in the summers of 2017-2019 (Fig. 2). Here we test 164 how relative fluctuations in OM input (1-3 times the baseline values; expressed as total organic carbon, TOC) to the seafloor translate into absolute and relative changes in burial and degradation 165 166 rates. Whilst an increase in OM export to the seafloor from primary productivity will impact OM 167 degradation pathways, the impact on long-term sediment carbon burial will be minor, as 168 phytoplankton OM is quickly degraded at the seafloor (Fig. 3). However, we also observe that the 169 fraction of carbon preserved at depth is highest at stations B15 and B16 (just north of the Polar 170 Front), for poorly known reasons but presumably related to the dominance of Arctic water and/or 171 seasonal sea ice at those stations. How much of the carbon delivered into shelf seas by permafrost 172 thaw, coastal erosion and major river systems is degraded before burial is debated (e.g., Tank et al.

2012; Brüchert et al. 2018; Bröder et al. 2018, 2019), and further complicated by lateral OM
transport along the shelf (Stevenson et al. 2020). Nevertheless, terrestrial processes will likely exert
a major control on OM quality/quantity by delivering less degradable OM to Barents Sea sediments
(Freitas et al. 2020). Impacts of higher OM fluxes on zoobenthic carbon standing stocks are poorly
studied in the Arctic but, in West Antarctic shelf seas, extended phytoplankton blooms promoted by
sea ice loss have led to a doubling of zoobenthic carbon standing stock (Barnes 2015, 2017). It is
tempting, therefore, to suggest that a similar development might occur on Arctic shelves.

180 In a second step, to estimate the impacts of OM export changes on benthic nutrient fluxes (ignoring 181 ecological drivers), we expand a simple model sensitivity analysis used for TOC degradation and 182 burial rates (after Freitas et al. 2020) to calculate benthic nutrient fluxes (nitrate, ammonium, 183 phosphate; Fig. 4). We change the OM content to 0.1-6 times relative to baseline values, keeping all 184 other model parameters unchanged. Our simulation shows that any fluctuation in OM input to the 185 seafloor will result in a concomitant adjustment in nutrient fluxes (Fig. 4), even though the responses 186 are not strictly linear, vary between sites, and are nutrient-specific. Our results also suggest that 187 absolute changes in nutrient fluxes are likely to be more pronounced at sites influenced by Atlantic 188 Water, and that relative increases in OM input will trigger large changes in the way OM is being 189 degraded at and below the seafloor. The relative contribution of aerobic OM degradation will 190 decrease considerably as oxygen will become quickly depleted (Fig. 4), while anaerobic conditions 191 will prevail in the upper end of OM addition scenarios.

192 It should be noted that changes to ecological factors were ignored in the modelling exercise above, 193 but there is no doubt that environmental and anthropogenic change will also affect the benthic 194 ecosystem. A faunal separation occurs between northern (Arctic) and southern (Atlantic) 195 assemblages at the operational Polar Front (e.g., Jørgensen et al. 2015). The distribution of 196 functionally important species has received some attention (Degen and Faulwetter 2019), but there 197 are few direct measurements of faunal activity or physiological state, and no regional-scale

198 assessments of the faunal mediation of biogeochemistry (Solan et al. 2019). Nevertheless, recent 199 observations in the Barents Sea indicate that spatial and temporal variability in environmental 200 setting will be important in explaining biodiversity and ecological functions at larger scales, more so 201 than localized sea ice changes (Solan et al. 2020, Souster et al. 2020, Oleszczuk et al. 2021). Changes 202 in the quality and quantity of OM reaching the seabed can have significant implications for faunal 203 physiology, behaviour, growth (Reed et al. 2021a) and reproduction (Reed et al. 2021b) and, in turn, 204 biogeochemical cycling (Solan et al. 2020). Overall, however, there is a clear south-north increase in 205 species richness, biomass and functional diversity of mega -and macro-zoobenthos, but the mixed 206 depth of sediment and bioturbating activity of the community both decline with increasing latitude (Souster et al. 2020, Solan et al. 2020). 207

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5. Climate- and human-induced changes

210 The preservation of carbon within shelf sediments and benthic marine communities is likely to be 211 altered by the expansion of human activities as sea ice retreats, including fishing, shipping, and 212 petroleum exploration. With less challenging sea ice conditions and the northward migration of economically valuable fish stocks (e.g. Atlantic cod Gadus Morhua, Greenland halibut Reinhardtuis 213 214 hippoglossoides, shrimp Pandalus borealis), commercial fisheries follow and start trawling some of 215 the last unfished areas of the global shelf seafloor. Bottom trawling causes re-working and re-216 suspension of seafloor sediment (Puig et al. 2012; O'Neill and Ivanovic 2016), which can lead to 217 erosion and perturbations to benthic biogeochemistry, in particular a loss of sedimentary organic 218 carbon (Paradis et al. 2021). However, in the Barents Sea, reactive OM is quickly degraded and 219 recycled to CO₂ within the surface sediments (Freitas et al. 2020; Stevenson et al. 2020), even 220 without human intervention. The question then arises as to whether trawling will impact the more 221 stable, deeper, pre-degraded carbon stocks that remain in the sediments. This will depend on 222 various factors, including the depth of trawl penetration (typically 10s of cm) and the overall

223 sediment accumulation rates (~4-200 cm/1000 years; Faust et al 2020): Under high sedimentation 224 rates, reactive OM is buried relatively quickly, and re-exposure by trawling would negatively 225 affecting overall carbon burial efficiency. In low sedimentation rate areas, trawling might have less 226 of an effect on long-term carbon storage. Similar considerations can be made for nutrient recycling 227 to the water column by the mechanical disturbance of sediments (Duplisea et al. 2001): If the 228 disturbance reaches anaerobic layers where nutrient concentrations are significantly higher than in 229 the overlying waters, the resulting enhanced nutrient fluxes can fuel additional pelagic primary 230 production (Dounas et al. 2007; van der Velde et al. 2018; Tiano et al., 2021). Finally, the persistence 231 of any trawling-induced disturbance in the Barents Sea would depend on type and frequency of trawling as well as primary productivity and sedimentation rates, but literature-based estimates 232 233 range from several year to several decades (Buhl-Mortensen et al. 2016; Paradis et al. 2021). 234 Besides the sediment, polar benthic marine communities also store considerable carbon in the form 235 of biota. Zoobenthic carbon in the Barents Sea is comparable to the highest levels in Antarctic shelf 236 sediments (Souster et al. 2020). Changes in the density, diversity, and composition of mega-benthic 237 communities associated with bottom fishing activity in the Barents Sea have been observed (Buhl-238 Mortensen et al. 2016) and can significantly affect the biomass and stored carbon of all species 239 (Jorgensen et al. 2016).

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6. Implications for management and policy

Warming, in combination with increased disturbance of the Arctic shelf seafloor, is already imposing
significant changes to carbon and nutrient cycles, as well as ecosystems. Following scientific
recommendation, areas with fishing restrictions or closure in the Barents Sea, particularly around
Svalbard, were recently expanded by the Norwegian government (Jørgensen et al. 2020). The
ecosystem protection afforded by MPA or similar protection status increased the likelihood of
safeguarding carbon stocks and the processes that control seafloor carbon sequestration (Atwood et

248 al. 2020; Sala et al. 2021). For example, modifying fishing gears, limiting or preventing seafloor 249 trawling would reduce the physical disturbance that alters community composition and diversity, 250 biogeochemical cycling, and the amount of carbon released back into the water (Duplisea et al. 251 2001; Dounas et al. 2007; De Borger et al. 2021). However, expansion of fishery exclusion zones in 252 the Barents Sea is based largely on ecological/biodiversity criteria, rather than on the need for 253 protecting carbon stocks (Jørgensen et al. 2020). Recognition of the carbon burial aspect of marine 254 ecosystem services is currently missing in Arctic seas, but is increasingly recognised elsewhere 255 (Luisetti et al. 2020; Atwood et al. 2020; Sala et al. 2021). Biologically rich, vulnerable marine 256 environment hotspots can also be effective carbon sinks, as in the case of the first high seas MPA 257 around the South Orkney Islands, Antarctic Peninsula (Trathan et al. 2014; Barnes et al 2016). 258 Consideration of both nature and its functionality (ecosystem services or nature-based solutions, 259 Solan et al. 2020) provides a stronger and more comprehensive approach compared to a focus on 260 biodiversity alone (e.g., Sala et al. 2021). Societal and scientific pressure has recently resulted in 261 creation of some Very Large Marine Protected Areas (VLMPAs) but, as Sala et al. (2021) note, this 262 includes few areas within the polar regions. The polar regions have more governance complexity 263 than most Exclusive Economic Zones (EEZs), but they lag behind global MPA creation, even though 264 they could present new opportunities for carbon store protection. For example, 99% of most of 265 Ascension Island's VLMPA is deeper than 1000 m, but the main carbon pathway to sequestration 266 may occur in the shallowest 1000 m (Barnes et al. 2019). Protection of this shallow seabed 267 safeguards £1-2 million of carbon capture to sequestration at UN shadow price of carbon estimates. 268 There are opportunities in the Arctic to target such shallow carbon burial grounds. It is crucial to 269 learn lessons from rushed MPA designations, since those are often agreed on economically 270 unattractive areas, or implemented with clauses that allow resource exploitation to continue. 271 Society has to decide the type, rate and level of human activity that is acceptable in Arctic regions, 272 whilst balancing competing demands and world views, and to agree on equitable ways to resolve

conflict and maximise win-win strategies. However, the data needed to support effective marine

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274 management within the Arctic are sparse, incomplete or poorly quantified, making planning and 275 more informed decision-making challenging. Even in the better investigated regions such as the 276 Barents Sea, only parts of the carbon pathway (from capture to sequestration) is quantified and -277 even then - only for some habitats (e.g., muddy glacial troughs; Faust et al. 2020; Freitas et al. 2020; 278 Stevenson et al. 2020; Souster et al. 2020; Solan et al. 2020). Where appropriate socio-ecological 279 data do exist, the focus is spatially constrained and in a limited number of areas (Falardeau and 280 Bennett 2020). However, we understand enough to know that vulnerable marine ecosystems on 281 Arctic continental shelves are not necessarily co-located with the main carbon burial environments. 282 The most productive and most heavily fished ecosystems are situated on shoals, around the coasts 283 and above rocky ground, while most organic carbon is likely sequestered in muddy sediments of 284 glacial troughs. We also know that high productivity and throughput of carbon does not necessarily 285 mean high carbon sequestration. The prevailing systems controlling the cycling and storage of 286 carbon in the Arctic seafloor are complex and there is a general paucity of fully comprehensive data 287 sets. Despite the challenges, it is possible to make considerable progress in identifying the most 288 significant unprotected carbon burial hotspots, allowing for an effective assessment of the landscape 289 of potential threats and the risks and rewards surrounding seafloor protection. Most ecosystems 290 affected by human disturbance can recover when conditions improve, for example, if appropriate 291 conservation measures are enacted and human pressure is managed (Jones and Schmitz 2009). To 292 continue to benefit from seafloor carbon sinks and buy more time against climate change, we 293 contend that MPAs (no bottom fishing) for newly exposed ice-free regions in the Arctic will be 294 beneficial.

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529 Figures

Figure 1: Schematic illustration of ecological and biogeochemical parameters in Arctic Ocean shelfseas, with a focus on processes at the seafloor.

532 Figure 2: Location of Barents Sea shelf stations B13–B17 sampled in July 2017. Bathymetric depth

533 chart indicating meters below sea level (m.b.s.l). Depths of sampling were 359 m at B13 (74°

534 29.998 N; 30° 00.009 E), 293 m at B14 (76° 30.055 N; 30°30.241E), 317 m at B15 (78° 15.100 N;

535 30° 00.540 E), 283 m at B16 (80° 07.154 N; 30° 04.069 E) and 340 m at B17 (81° 16.765 N; 30°

536 19.496 E). From Stevenson and Abbott 2019.

537 Figure 3: Changes in degradation and burial rates of total organic carbon (TOC) following increased

538 OM export to the seafloor at the Barents Sea sites B13-B17. Model adopted from Freitas et al.

539 (2020), with outputs based on data gathered in July 2017. Integrated TOC degradation rates

540 (warm color bar) are shown for intervals (a—c) 0-1 cm, (g—i) 1-5 cm, and (m—o) 5-10 cm

sediment depth. Corresponding TOC burial rates (cold color bar) are shown at (d-f) 1, (j-l) 5,

and (q-s) 10 cm sediment depth. (t-x) Relative fraction of TOC burial with increasing burial

543 depth (cm) in response to input at sediment surface.

544 Figure 4: Changes in biogeochemical parameters following increases in OM export to the seafloor at 545 the Barents Sea sites B13-B17. Model adopted from Freitas et al. (2020), with outputs based on 546 data gathered in July 2017. Top row: Baseline nutrient fluxes of (a) nitrate, (b) ammonium and 547 (c) phosphate. Note the different scales in the color bar and direction of fluxes: cold colors 548 denote fluxes into sediments; warm colors denote fluxes out of the sediment. Middle row: 549 Changes in nutrient fluxes of (d) nitrate, (e) ammonium and (f) phosphate relative to increased 550 OM input. Note different scales in relative flux changes (y-axis) due to nutrient-specific response 551 to OM input and transformation at the seafloor: (d) nitrate fluxes become negative (i.e., sediments acting as nitrate sink rather than source), while (e) ammonium and (f) phosphate 552 fluxes increase. Line colors (d-g) denote reference sites in the Barents Sea. Bottom row: (g) 553

- 554 Changes in relative contribution of aerobic (presence of oxygen) OM degradation with gradual
- 555 increase in OM input. Contribution of aerobic OM degradation decreases exponentially with
- 556 higher OM input, which slows down overall degradation of OM.







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Rebuttal to AMBIO 2nd review "Biogeochemical consequences of a changing Arctic shelf seafloor ecosystem"

(author responses in italics)

This revision represents a big change c.f. the original submission and the authors have answered the original reviewer comments comprehensively and with obvious thought.

We thank the Editor for this acknowledgement of our revisions.

Figure 1 does not benefit from logical labeling and/or explanation in the legend. It is not clear what the various arrows are and why colored in different ways? Why have just phytoplankton, fish and a diversity of benthic organisms - surely the authors could be a bit more creative in depicting a more diverse pelagic foodweb supplying the benthos than just phytoplankton and fish? This manuscript will be used by none specialists and this rather depleted schematic is not really helping a non-specialist audience?

For example, presumably the U-bend structure on the left hand edge of the image is meant to be a burrowing animal, but I am not sure many others will, or even see it. The water disappearing behind the sediment on the left of the image is crude. The cloud & sun are just strange? There is no such change in relation to sea ice cover and again as it is, it is somewhat misleading. Conceptual figures like this are excellent and there is merit in having one here. However, this could do with considerable more thought as to how it could better serve the reader who is not necessarily a biologist. There are many biologists on the author list and it should be possible to create something more useful for a reader?

Thank you for these comments. We appreciate that figures like this one may be picked up by readers and can present a key piece of a publication. This is the very reason for trying to keep it simple, which obviously brings with it the omission of certain complexities of the natural system. However, we consider these simplifications as both justified (after all, the manuscript does focus on the benthic environment) and practical (too much visual information will distract the reader from the key points we are trying to make). The very fact that we have more "diversity" at the seafloor is intentional – this manuscript has a benthic focus, and while we appreciate a more "complete" atmosphere-oceansediment figure would be a great idea, this should probably be designed at the CAO program level.

Nevertheless, we have of course taken the Editor's comments to heart, and now present a strongly revised version of Figure 1. While a level of simplicity remains, we have tried to streamline the labelling of the figure in the sense of a true biogeochemical cycle. We have also decided to change the figure to a "status quo" version, removing any notion of parts or aspects of the system that may change as environmental conditions develop – the reason being that everything can (and probably will) change to an extent, making this overview figure too complex.

It is not clear in Figure 3 what the colors of the lines are associated with, especially in the middle row of figures...yes, on moving down to the lower figure on this plate it can be worked out, but again it is the reader having to do the work, rather than the figure helping them. Can something be added to the legend to help?

The differences in scales in the middle row of this plate really need to be highlighted in the legend and some explanation given? Some comment on the negative c.f with the two positive scales is surely needed in the legend?

The figure and caption has now been modified accordingly.

The different colors in the bottom row of Figure 4 are perplexing and need explanation? In the depth label on this row shouldn't it be -5 and -10

The figure and caption has now been modified accordingly.

At the end the authors reference to benthic disturbance and possible consequences. A good point, but this discussion could be made right up to date by considering works such as Tiano et al (2021) <u>https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0022098121001180?via%3Dihub</u> & their discussion?

A good point, and we have now included this reference.