

Paper III

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Seasonality of vertical flux and sinking particle characteristics in an ice-free high Arctic fjord –
different from sub-Arctic fjords?

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1 **Seasonality of vertical flux and sinking particle characteristics in an ice-free high Arctic**
2 **fjord – different from sub-Arctic fjords?**

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21

22 **Abstract**

23 Seasonality in plankton dynamics is strongly affected by sea ice cover and light regime in the
24 Arctic. The Arctic Adventfjorden (78 °N, 15 °E, western Svalbard) was previously seasonally
25 ice-covered, but has tended to be ice-free since 2007. It may accordingly serve as a model
26 area to study the vertical flux in a year-round ice-free Arctic fjord. We investigated (1) how
27 the vertical flux of organic matter follows the seasonal pattern of suspended material, (2) how
28 sinking particles' characteristics change with seasons and are linked to the vertical flux, and
29 (3) if the vertical flux in an Arctic but ice-free fjord with a major glacial run-off during
30 autumn is comparable to boreal and sub-Arctic ice-free fjords. We conducted seven field
31 samplings between December 2011 and September 2012, measuring the suspended biomass
32 (chlorophyll *a*, particulate organic carbon) at 5, 15, 25 and 60 m and the vertical biomass flux
33 (short-term sediment traps for 24 h; 20, 30, 40, 60 m). Sediment traps modified with gel-filled
34 jars were deployed to study sinking particles' characteristics (size and frequency distribution,
35 particle type). The resuspension from the seafloor by winter wind mixing and thermal
36 convection resulted in large, detrital sinking particles. Intense biomass sedimentation (fresh to
37 little degraded biomass) was found during the early spring bloom but diminished toward the
38 late bloom phase. The highest flux of particulate organic carbon (POC) was found during
39 autumn (770-1530 mg POC m⁻² d⁻¹), when sediment loaded glacial run-off and high pteropod
40 abundances were observed. The vertical carbon flux in the Arctic Adventfjorden appears to
41 resemble sub-Arctic fjords during winter and spring, but during autumn, a pulsed major POC
42 flux may be induced by glacial run-off.

43

44 (277 words)

45 **Keywords**

- 46 • Gel trap
- 47 • Particulate organic carbon (POC)
- 48 • Particle size spectra
- 49 • Aggregate
- 50 • Detritus
- 51 • Glacial run-off

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53

54

55 **Highlights**

- 56 • Ice-free Adventfjorden resembled sub-Arctic fjords during winter and spring
- 57 • Two major annual sedimentation events in ice-free Adventfjorden, Svalbard
- 58 • Highly variable POC: volume ratio due to different particle types and seasons
- 59 • High autumn POC flux associated with glacial run-off

60 **1 Introduction**

61 Strong seasonality in high latitude marine ecosystems generates an oscillating annual pattern
62 of nutrient concentrations as well as phytoplankton and zooplankton abundance throughout
63 the year (Leu et al., 2011; Rat'kova and Wassmann, 2002; Węśławski et al., 1991). This, in
64 turn, is presumed to determine the quality and intensity of the vertical biomass flux (De La
65 Rocha and Passow, 2007; Peinert et al., 1989; Wassmann et al., 1991), but few field studies
66 thus far have examined how sinking particles' characteristics change with seasons and how
67 they may be linked to the vertical carbon flux during different seasons (e.g., Mackenzie Shelf,
68 Forest et al., 2013).

69

70 It has been postulated that fjords are areas of enhanced organic carbon sequestration (Smith et
71 al., 2015). The major vehicle of the vertical carbon flux are algal aggregates, fecal pellets
72 detritus and marine snow, i.e. conglomerates (> 0.5 mm) of diverse composition and structure
73 (Alldredge and Silver, 1988).

74 Ice algae tend to form blooms in seasonally ice-covered fjords in April-May (Ji et al., 2013;
75 Leu et al., 2011). Heterotrophs, such as the copepod *Calanus glacialis*, utilize these blooms
76 (Søreide et al., 2010; Weydmann et al., 2013), but ice algal biomass also contributes to the
77 vertical export, when the cells are released into the water column during ice break-up (Arrigo,
78 2014; Tremblay et al., 1989).

79 Phytoplankton spring blooms occur in ice-free fjords in April and May and in seasonally ice-
80 covered fjords subsequent to the ice break-up (Eilertsen and Frantzen, 2007; Leu et al., 2011).
81 Diatoms, a prominent spring bloom taxon in high latitudes, can cause major biomass
82 sedimentation (Thompson et al., 2008; Wassmann et al., 1991). Their senescent cells and
83 resting stages have high sinking velocities (Rynearson et al., 2013; Smayda, 1971), and some
84 taxa release sticky exopolymeric substances, which contribute to the formation of algal
85 aggregates (Kiørboe et al., 1994; Thornton, 2002) and marine snow (Alldredge and Silver,
86 1988; Lampitt, 2001). Coagulation of single cells into aggregates or marine snow increases
87 the particle size, which, in turn, enhances the sinking velocity and the vertical export of
88 organic carbon.

89 However, the prymnesiophyte *Phaeocystis pouchetii* can also dominate the phytoplankton
90 blooms in the Barents Sea and the waters around Svalbard (Degerlund and Eilertsen, 2010).
91 This small flagellate has a low sinking velocity, and high cell abundances of this species
92 appear to diminish the vertical carbon flux below 60 m (Reigstad and Wassmann, 2007;
93 Reigstad et al., 2000).

94 Irrespective of the phytoplankton composition, an enhanced vertical carbon flux only occurs,
95 when the zooplankton community in the fjords executes a weak top-down regulation,
96 allowing sinking of ungrazed biomass. Top-down regulation by zooplankton reduces the
97 vertical biomass flux by grazing and some taxa, such as copepods, also fragment sinking
98 particles into smaller, slowly sinking material (Noji et al., 1991; Svensen et al., 2012).
99 Alternatively, copepods and krill also enhance the vertical carbon flux by re-packaging small
100 particles into fast sinking fecal pellets (Turner, 2002; Turner, 2015; Wexels Riser et al.,
101 2008).

102 Glacial run-off entrains lithogenic material with a high specific weight. When sinking
103 particles ‘scavenge’ this material, the sinking velocity of the organic material increases and
104 enhances the vertical biomass flux (Passow and De La Rocha, 2006).

105

106 In the present study, we conducted a nine-month field study in the Arctic Adventfjorden (78
107 °N, 15 °E, Fig. 1), western Svalbard. Previously, the fjord was seasonally ice-covered, but it
108 has mostly been ice-free since 2007 (www.met.no). Adventfjorden may therefore serve as a
109 model area to study the mechanisms of vertical flux in an ice-free, but glacially influenced
110 Arctic fjord. Our aim was to investigate: (1) how the vertical flux of organic matter follows
111 the seasonal pattern of suspended material; (2) how sinking particles’ characteristics change
112 with season and are linked to the vertical flux, and (3) if the vertical flux in an ice-free Arctic
113 fjord with a major glacial run-off during autumn, is comparable the vertical flux in boreal and
114 sub-Arctic ice-free fjords.

115

116

117 **2 Materials and methods**

118 **2.1 Study site and sampling program**

119 The present study was conducted at station IsA (Isfjorden-Adventfjorden, 78 ° 15.67’ N, 15 °
120 32.10’ E, Fig. 1) in the mouth of the Arctic Adventfjorden. Adventfjorden is a ~8 km long,
121 3.5 km wide and < 100 m deep side branch of Isfjorden, a large fjord system on the western
122 coast of Svalbard. Neither Isfjorden nor Adventfjorden has a sill at the fjord-mouth, and they
123 are therefore exposed to advection from the Atlantic-influenced West Spitsbergen Current.
124 Warmer and more saline water from this current reached the study site (~50 km from the open
125 coast) and allowed year-round ship-based sampling in ice-free waters. Glacial run-off (Advent
126 River, Longyear River, Fig. 1) affected IsA during the summer and autumn with substantial

127 amounts of sediment-loaded melt water (e.g. $9 \cdot 10^6 \text{ m}^{-3}$ during September, Węśławski et al.,
128 1999).

129 Field investigations were conducted throughout nine months, starting 14.12.2011 and ending
130 19.09.2012. We refer to the winter sampling days in December, mid-January and late January
131 as Winter I, Winter II and Winter III, respectively (Table 1). Spring sampling days in late
132 April, mid-May and late May are denoted as Spring I, Spring II and Spring III, respectively,
133 and the mid-September sampling is denoted as Autumn I (Table 1).

134

135 **2.2 Hydrography, light and wind data**

136 Hydrographical data included temperature and salinity measurements by a CTD (SD204,
137 SAIV A/S, Bergen, Norway) and subsequent computation of the potential density. The
138 seasonal light cycle at 78 °N includes the polar night from mid-November to late January. The
139 sun is below the horizon from early October to early March, and the midnight sun appears
140 between mid-April to late August. The underwater irradiance was quantified using a hand-
141 held LI-1000 Data Logger (Li-COR, Nebraska, USA), and the euphotic zone was defined as
142 the layer of > 1 % surface irradiance. Boat drift due to strong wind events made vertical
143 deployment of the irradiance logger difficult, and an overestimation of the euphotic zone may
144 be assumed. Wind data from Longyearbyen airport (78 ° 14' N, 15 ° 28' E, Fig. 1) is
145 considered to be representative for the IsA station and were downloaded from the Norwegian
146 Meteorological Institute (www.eklima.met.no).

147

148 **2.3 Suspended biomass (Chl *a*, POC, PON)**

149 Sea water samples were collected at 5, 15, 25 and 60 m with a 10 L Niskin bottle, transferred
150 into carboys, and stored dark and cool until filtration within a few hours (Table 1). Triplicates
151 of 250-400 mL were vacuum-filtered on Whatman GF/F filters for analysis of the Chl *a*
152 concentration. Filters were frozen in liquid nitrogen or at -80 °C until analysis within nine
153 months. Some pigment break-down resulting from the storage period may be assumed
154 (Mantoura et al., 1997). Chl *a* was extracted 20-24 h in 10 mL methanol (darkness, +4 °C)
155 and concentrations were then measured in a Turner Design AU-10 fluorometer (calibrated
156 with Chl *a*, Sigma S6144). For POC and PON analysis, triplicate subsamples (300-500 mL)
157 were filtered on pre-combusted Whatman GF/F filters, stored at -20 °C and analyzed within
158 2.5 years on a Leeman Lab CHN Analyzer following the procedures described in Reigstad et
159 al. (2008).

160

161 **2.4 Vertical flux characterization (Chl *a*, POC, particle size spectra)**

162 An anchored short-term sediment trap array was used to study the vertical flux of particulate
163 material at IsA (Table 1). Paired trap cylinders (KC Denmark, $d=7.2$ cm, 45 cm high, no
164 bafflers or poison) were mounted at 20, 30, 40 and 60 m and deployed for ca. 24 h (Table 1).

165 In this way, we collected particles sinking out from the lower eutrophic zone and below it
166 (Table 1), and we minimized the sampling of re-suspended material from the seafloor (~80
167 m).

168 After the trap array recovery water from one of the paired cylinders per depth was transferred
169 into carboys. Sub-samples were filtered to determine the vertical flux of Chl *a* and POC as
170 described above for the suspended samples (duplicates or triplicates of 150-400 mL for Chl *a*,
171 duplicates or triplicates of 250-500 mL for POC). The second trap cylinder at each depth was
172 modified with a gel-containing glass jar, fitting perfectly inside the trap cylinder (conceptual
173 idea by Lundsgaard et al., 1999; modification from polyacrylamide to commercially available
174 unpoisonous gels by Thiele et al., 2015 and Wiedmann et al., 2014) to study the vertical flux
175 of particles $\geq 50 \mu\text{m ESD}_{\text{image}}$ (estimated spherical diameter determined from images) by an
176 image analysis (concept by Ebersbach and Trull, 2008; Wiedmann et al., 2014). The threshold
177 function of ImageJ (AutoThresholding following Otsu clustering algorithm, Otsu, 1979) was
178 applied to establish a border between the particle and background in the 8-bit grey converted
179 images. Particles $< 50 \mu\text{m ESD}_{\text{image}}$ were excluded due to abundance underestimation
180 (Jackson et al., 1997; Jackson et al., 2005). The remaining particles were binned in 20 bins
181 from 0.050 mm to 5.080 mm $\text{ESD}_{\text{image}}$ (Table A.1) and an ellipsoidal particle shape was
182 assumed to estimate the particle volume (Wiedmann et al., 2014). The sediment trap
183 deployment time was adjusted for the season (Table 1). During Winter I-III, we deployed the
184 traps for ~24 h. During spring and autumn, the trap array was first deployed for ~24 h to
185 determine the biogeochemical flux, and then for ~2 h to study the particle flux using gel-
186 modified cylinders (short deployment prevented particle overload in the gels).

187

188 **2.5 Calculation of the loss rate and sinking velocity**

189 The loss rate can be expressed as the ratio of the vertical flux (POC, Chl *a* at depth z) to the
190 integrated suspended biomass (POC, Chl *a* above depth z). For the calculation of loss rates,
191 the integrated suspended biomass was estimated by trapezoidal integration. Similarly, the
192 average sinking velocity was expressed by the ratio of the vertical flux ($\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) to the
193 suspended biomass (mg m^{-3}) at depth z (Kiørboe et al., 1994).

194

195 **3 Results**

196 **3.1 Hydrography, light regime and wind**

197 The hydrographic environment at station IsA (Fig. 2) reflected the seasonal pattern of the
198 region. Cooling of the entire water column took place until mid-January, when warmer,
199 denser and more saline water from the West Spitsbergen Current was advected to the station
200 area. Another cooling period took place in April, and resulted in low water temperatures that
201 persisted throughout May (-0.5 to 1.0 °C). Thermal warming of the surface layers started in
202 June, and maximum surface water temperatures were reached in late August, co-occurring
203 with enhanced glacial melt water run-off and a freshening of the surface water layers
204 (23.8.2012: maximum water temperature 6.4 °C, minimum salinity 31.5). Low air
205 temperatures cooled the surface waters from September onward, while deeper water layers in
206 the fjord were still warm until late October (< 4.1 °C, Fig. 2). As glacial run-off ceased during
207 autumn, the surface salinity increased (Fig. 2). Light was measured from 8.3.2012 onwards,
208 when the sun rose above the horizon. Irradiance measurements indicated an euphotic zone
209 ranging down to 20-40 m (Table 1), with the exception of a very shallow euphotic zone of 8
210 m on 6.7.2012. Wind data from Longyearbyen airport (Fig. 1) showed a prevailing wind
211 direction “out of Adventfjorden” (6 of 7 sampling periods had a wind direction of E-SSW,
212 data not shown). The opposite wind direction (“into Adventfjorden”) was only observed
213 during Spring III.

214

215 **3.2 Suspended biomass (Chl *a*, POC) and its C/N ratio**

216 The temporal high-frequency sampling of the suspended biomass parameters Chl *a* and POC
217 showed clear seasonal patterns (Fig. 2). The Chl *a* and POC concentrations were both low
218 during winter, increased and peaked during the spring period (late April to end of May) and
219 showed a decreasing trend throughout summer and autumn. These data provided a seasonal
220 framework for our seven sampling events and indicated that Winter I-III, Spring I-III and
221 Autumn I (Fig. 2, blue lines) were typical representatives for seasonal scenarios with low,
222 high and intermediate suspended Chl *a* and POC concentrations, respectively. However, the
223 vertical distribution of the suspended biomass during the sampling events (Fig. 3) indicated
224 that there was also a distinct trend in the suspended biomass during the spring bloom.
225 A seasonal trend was also observed in the quality of the particulate organic material reflected
226 through (atomic) C/N ratios. Fresh material of algal origin is expected to reflect the Redfield
227 ratio (C/N = 6.6). During Winter II and III, C/N ratios of 8.3-12.1 indicated that the biomass
228 in the water column consisted of partly degraded material or a mixture of fresh marine

229 material and biomass from terrestrial origin (terrestrial material C/ N > 17, Bianchi, 2006).
230 Fresh organic material prevailed during Spring I-III, as indicated by C/N ratios close to the
231 Redfield ratio. During Autumn I, C/N ratios of 8.5-10.5 indicated again either degraded
232 marine material or a mixture of terrestrial and fresh marine material.

233

234 **3.3 Vertical biomass flux (Chl *a*, POC) and its C/N ratio**

235 The vertical flux patterns of Chl *a* and POC reflected a seasonality, partly matching the
236 observations for the suspended material. During Winter I-III, vertical Chl *a* and POC flux
237 were relatively low, with 90-140 mg POC m⁻² d⁻¹ and < 0.26 mg Chl *a* m⁻² d⁻¹ (Fig. 4),
238 respectively, but indicated that biomass was sinking out during the polar night. The highest
239 POC fluxes were measured during Winter II in the deepest traps, implying a resuspension
240 event rather than sinking POC from the water column. The highest vertical Chl *a* fluxes were
241 found during Spring I-II, and vertical POC fluxes also were high (>1000 mg POC m⁻² d⁻¹).
242 The maximum vertical POC flux (< 1500 mg POC m⁻² d⁻¹) was found during Autumn I (Fig.
243 4). Generally, the loss rates of Chl *a* and POC were higher at 30 m than at 60 m (exception
244 Winter III, Table 2). The sinking velocities, in contrast, were always higher at 60 m (Table 2).
245 The highest POC loss rate (36 %) and sinking velocity (12 m d⁻¹) was found during Autumn I
246 (Table 2). The C/N ratio of sinking material suggested the sedimentation of degraded material
247 during Winter II-III and Autumn I (C/N ratio: 10-15). During Spring I-III, the sinking
248 material had a C/N ratios similar to the suspended biomass (C/N ratio: 6-8, Table 3),
249 suggesting a vertical flux of recently produced biomass.

250

251 **3.4 Particle size and volume flux**

252 Volume flux spectra (Fig. 5) provide information on the characteristics of sinking particles in
253 the form of particle size (and volume) distribution and frequency. The area under the curve in
254 the volume flux spectra corresponds to the total particle volume sinking out at a particular
255 sampling date and depth. Our data show that the volume flux tended to be the highest at 60 m
256 and lowest at 30 m (except during Spring III, with minimum at 20 m).

257 During Winter I, the largest particles were found in the 2.23 mm ESD_{image} size bin (Table
258 A.1), and a total volume flux of 312-545*10³ mm⁻³ m⁻² d⁻¹ was estimated for the different
259 sediment trap depths (Fig. 5). Due to the ellipsoidal volume calculation (Wiedmann et al.,
260 2014), the median size of the volume flux could not be given, as an ellipsoidal volume could
261 not be converted back to one definite particle ESD_{image}. Thus, we can only state that medium
262 and large sized particles (Fig. 5, Table A.1) contributed most to the volume flux at 30 m and

263 40 m during Winter I, while large particles were important at 20 m and 60 m. During Spring
264 II, medium sized particles were important contributors to the vertical volume flux down to 40
265 m, but extra-large particles were also found at 60 m (4.56 mm ESD_{image} size bin).
266 Accordingly, the volume flux spanned from 171 to $1,195 \cdot 10^3 \text{ mm}^{-3} \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$. During Spring III,
267 all of the particles were small to medium-sized and found in size bins $\leq 1.81 \text{ mm ESD}_{\text{image}}$
268 (apart from one single particle at 20 m with 5.15 mm ESD_{image}), and the total volume flux was
269 moderate with $640\text{-}736 \cdot 10^3 \text{ mm}^{-3} \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ (Fig. 5). Autumn I was characterized by medium
270 sized sinking particles (bins $\leq 1.44 \text{ mm ESD}_{\text{image}}$) at 20 m and 30 m. Extra-large particles (\leq
271 $3.62 \text{ mm ESD}_{\text{image}}$ size bin) were found at 40 and 60 m, where also the highest volume fluxes
272 of the present study were estimated ($2,148$ and $6,189 \cdot 10^3 \text{ mm}^{-3} \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, respectively, Fig. 5).

273

274 The semi-quantitative visual inspection of the gels indicated that fine, degraded detritus
275 dominated the vertical flux during Winter I (Fig. 6). The material was accompanied by some
276 individuals of the pteropod *Limacina* sp. (characterized as swimmers and not included in the
277 vertical flux estimates). Detrital material was still observed in the gel deployed during Spring
278 II, but phytoplankton aggregates were also found. Phytoplankton aggregates dominated the
279 observed particles in the gels deployed during Spring III, but they occurred together with
280 detritus and fecal pellets. During Autumn I, a mixture of aggregates (probably
281 phytoplankton), fecal pellets and detritus prevailed in the gels, as well as a substantial number
282 of *Limacina* sp. individuals (up to 138 at 20 m).

283

284

285 **4 Discussion**

286 Investigating the seasonality in vertical biomass flux and particle characteristics showed that
287 some of the seasonal drivers, such as phytoplankton blooms, were similar in ice-free Arctic,
288 sub-Arctic and boreal fjords. Glacial run-off impacted sinking particles' characteristics and
289 provided an additional driver for the vertical carbon flux in the open Arctic Adventfjorden
290 during the melting period.

291

292 **4.1 Seasonal variation of suspended biomass in Adventfjorden – reflecting typical high** 293 **latitude seasonality?**

294 Adventfjorden, an Arctic fjord influenced by the Atlantic derived West Spitsbergen Current,
295 showed a pronounced seasonal variation during the nine months covered by the present field
296 study. The high frequency sampling program of hydrography and suspended biomass (Fig. 2)

297 placed our field studies within three distinct seasons - winter, spring and autumn. Each of the
298 investigation periods was categorized into one of these seasons, based on environmental and
299 ecological parameters.

300 Low irradiance and deep mixing processes (wind, thermal convection) during the polar night
301 causes light limitation and prevents production and built up of autotrophic biomass in high
302 latitudes. Therefore, our winter data (Fig. 2, 3) were typical for this season and corresponded
303 to previous observations of low biomass concentrations from Svalbard (Iversen and Seuthe,
304 2011; Zajączkowski et al., 2010), the Barents Sea (Olli et al., 2002) and northern Norway
305 (Eilertsen and Degerlund, 2010; Noji et al., 1993) during winter (Table 4).

306 The onset of the phytoplankton spring bloom took place in April in nutrient sufficient (4.5 μM
307 nitrate, Kubiszyn et al., in prep.), cold and non-stratified waters (Fig. 2), with a deep euphotic
308 zone (Table 1). This is a common situation in high latitude regions (Eilertsen, 1993;
309 Townsend et al., 1992). The early spring bloom phase has been associated with a high surface
310 concentration of phytoplankton due to low zooplankton abundances (North Atlantic: Parsons
311 and Lalli, 1988). Because we experienced this situation during Spring I in late April (Fig. 3,
312 low zooplankton abundance: $\sim 4 \cdot 10^3$ ind. m^{-3} , E.I. Stübner, pers. comm.), the sampling period
313 was characterized as a typical representation of an early bloom.

314 Spring II in mid-May was classified as a peak bloom situation, based on high Chl *a*
315 concentrations (Fig. 2, 3). Nitrate concentrations were not depleted at 25 m, while silicate was
316 low (1.5 μM nitrate + nitrite, 0.3 μM silicate, Kubiszyn et al., in prep.). A typical spring
317 bloom phytoplankton mixture of the diatoms *Chaetoceros socialis* and *Thalassiosira*
318 *nordenskiöldii* prevailed together with the prymnesiophyte *Phaeocystis pouchetii* (Kubiszyn
319 et al., in prep.). These species represent a typical spring bloom community, as previously
320 described for northern Norway, the waters around Svalbard and the Barents Sea (Degerlund
321 and Eilertsen, 2010).

322 Nitrate is considered to be the primary limiting nutrient for primary production in the Arctic
323 (Tremblay and Gagnon, 2009), and was depleted at 25 m during Spring III in late May.
324 Additionally, silicate concentrations were still low (0.9 μM , Kubiszyn et al., in prep.). The
325 abundant and diverse zooplankton community (ca. $20 \cdot 10^3$ ind. m^{-3}) with 40-70 %
326 meroplanktonic nauplii and larvae (Stübner et al., submitted, E.I. Stübner pers. comm.) most
327 likely exerted a strong grazing pressure and top-down regulation on the phytoplankton,
328 restraining the suspended Chl *a* (Fig. 3). Accordingly, we classified Spring III in late May as a
329 late bloom stage.

330 Water-mass stratification broke down due to cooling before Autumn I in mid-September.
331 Nutrients were replenished (2.6 μM nitrate, 2.5 μM silicate, Kubiszyn et al., in prep.), but no
332 autumn bloom in the form of biomass build up was observed (Fig. 3). We do not have data on
333 primary production and cannot evaluate if this was a result of low production or of high loss
334 rates (e.g., grazing from moderately abundant zooplankton: $\sim 7 \cdot 10^3$ ind. m^{-3} , Stübner et al.,
335 submitted). Autumn I was considered to be a typical representation of an autumn situation.

336
337 Zajączkowski et al. (2010) reported higher concentrations of suspended Chl *a* and POC from
338 the innermost, shallow part of Adventfjorden (40 m, ~ 400 m to Advent River and Longyear
339 River) than we found at IsA. This was probably caused by higher resuspension of previously
340 sedimented allochthonous bottom material in the shallow innermost Adventfjorden (e.g., by
341 thermal convection or tidal mixing, Zajączkowski et al., 2010; Zajączkowski and Włodarska-
342 Kowalczyk, 2007). High C/N ratios (> 16) in their suspended material supports this
343 assumption (Table 4).

344 Suspended biomass concentrations at IsA corresponded well with previous studies from the
345 central Barents Sea (Olli et al., 2002), western Svalbard (Kongsfjorden, Iversen and Seuthe,
346 2011), northern Norway (Balsfjorden/ Malangen, Eilertsen and Degerlund, 2010; Ramfjorden,
347 Noji et al., 1993; Balsfjorden, Reigstad and Wassmann, 1996; Malangen, Wassmann et al.,
348 1996), western Norway (Fanafjorden, Wassmann, 1984) and Conception Bay, Canada
349 (Thompson et al., 2008, Table 4). The variability in bloom magnitude reported in the
350 literature (e.g., present study: 0.6-4.2 mg Chl *a* m^{-3} ; Kongsfjorden, western Svalbard, Iversen
351 and Seuthe, 2011: 0.2-10 mg Chl *a* m^{-3}) most likely reflected our coarser temporal sampling
352 resolution, which may have missed the bloom maximum.

353 In conclusion, we assume that the seasonal variation of suspended biomass at IsA reflected
354 the typical high latitude seasonality. The timing of the bloom in April/ May in the fjords seem
355 to be comparable across latitudes from sub-Arctic to Arctic ice-free fjords, while bloom
356 conditions in May were reported for the Barents Sea and Conception Bay, Canada (Olli et al.,
357 2002; Thompson et al., 2008).

358 359 **4.2 Seasonality of the vertical flux intensity (POC, Chl *a*) in Adventfjorden – congruent** 360 **with other ice-free high latitude regions?**

361 Vertical flux intensity is determined by the overlaying processes of hydrography,
362 phytoplankton and zooplankton. Short-term sediment traps can be used to estimate the vertical
363 Chl *a* and POC flux and give insight into sinking particles' characteristics and, in combination

364 with suspended biomass data, into the vertical flux regulation during the time of deployment.
365 However, short-term traps deployed for ~24 h only give a snap-shot picture and cannot
366 provide robust seasonal or annual flux patterns. A comparison with previous published data
367 was conducted to evaluate if the vertical flux seasonality at IsA was comparable to the
368 seasonal flux pattern of other ice-free high latitude regions.

369

370 Chl *a* and POC fluxes at IsA during winter were comparable to literature data from the
371 innermost part of Adventfjorden (Zajaczkowski et al., 2010), Ramfjorden (northern Norway,
372 Noji et al., 1993), Fanafjorden (western Norway, Wassmann, 1984) and the open Barents Sea
373 (Olli et al., 2002; Table 4). Some differences between the two studies in Adventfjorden
374 (present study: 90-400 mg POC m⁻² d⁻¹; Zajaczkowski et al., (2010): < 750 mg POC m⁻² d⁻¹;
375 Table 4) seem to reflect the resuspension of bottom material in the shallow parts of the fjord
376 (as observed for the suspended material), and the C/N ratios of up to 25 in the sinking
377 material clearly reflected terrestrial input (Zajaczkowski et al., 2010).

378 Our strong pulses of vertical Chl *a* and POC flux during the spring exceeded previous
379 measurements from the innermost Adventfjorden (Zajaczkowski et al., 2010), Balsfjorden and
380 Malangen (northern Norway, Keck and Wassmann, 1996; Reigstad and Wassmann, 1996;
381 Reigstad et al., 2000), Fanafjorden (western Norway, Wassmann, 1984) and Conception Bay
382 (Canada, Thompson et al., 2008; Table 4), but were comparable with fluxes found in the open
383 Barents Sea (Olli et al., 2002; Table 4). We argue for a two-fold explanation of the decline in
384 vertical biomass flux during the course of the spring bloom (Fig. 4). First, the intensifying
385 top-down regulation by zooplankton probably reduced the vertical flux from Spring I to III
386 (Fig. 4). Second, the observed shift in the phytoplankton bloom composition from diatom-
387 dominated during Spring I to *Phaeocystis*-dominated during Spring III (Kubiszyn et al., in
388 prep.) could impact the vertical flux. Diatoms are known to produce sticky exopolymeric
389 substances, which promote aggregate formation and sinking (Kiørboe et al., 1990; Smetacek,
390 1985; Thornton, 2002). Because diatoms were also abundant in the sediment traps during
391 Spring I (molecular 454-sequencing analysis, M. Marquardt, pers. com.), we suggest that they
392 contributed to the higher vertical flux rates during early spring. The small celled flagellate
393 *Phaeocystis pouchetii* dominated in the water column during Spring III (> 10⁶ cells L⁻¹,
394 Kubiszyn et al., in prep.) and *Phaeocystis pouchetii* was also identified in the IsA sediment
395 traps down to 60 m (454-sequencing, M. Marquardt, pers. com.). However, literature indicates
396 that this species contributes little to the vertical carbon flux at depth > 60 m, despite high
397 suspended concentrations (Reigstad and Wassmann, 2007; Reigstad et al., 2000).

398 Our estimated bulk sinking velocities (Table 2) further pinpointed a slowing down of the
399 vertical flux during the course of the bloom. This matches the argumentation on a shift from
400 fast-sinking diatoms (Passow, 1991) to slow-sinking detritus, including *Phaeocystis* cells
401 (Reigstad and Wassmann, 2007).

402 The interpretation of Autumn I data was complex. Glacial run-off occurs in Adventfjorden
403 between June and September when air temperatures ($> 0^{\circ}$ C) allow snow and glacial melting
404 on land (Węślawski et al., 1999). The tide- and wind-steered meandering glacial plume
405 affected IsA at the surface (seen as reduced surface salinity in Fig. 2, Fig. A.1), but other
406 impacting effects must also be assumed at depths. Our POC flux during Autumn I exceeded
407 reported literature values up to 30-fold (Table 4) and was also higher than the flux observed
408 during Spring I-III (Fig. 4). We suggest that this was linked to the glacial run-off.

409 Zajaczkowski et al. (2010) described an intense vertical flux of particulate inorganic and
410 organic material (PIM and POM, respectively) in Adventfjorden during the summer melting
411 period. Accordingly, we assume that entrained POM also enhanced the POC flux at IsA. This
412 is bolstered by a high C/N ratio (up to 16, suggesting degraded re-suspended or terrestrial
413 material) in the sinking material in both the present study (Table 3) and Zajaczkowski et al.
414 (2010).

415 Glacial melt water can form “fingers” of high concentration of suspended particulate matter,
416 stretching several kilometers from the Advent River inlet into the fjord (Zajaczkowski and
417 Włodarska-Kowalczyk, 2007). We assume that this possibly promoted physical flocculation, a
418 process in which unstable mineral particles, suspended in the entrained melt water, form
419 aggregates with high sinking velocity (Kranck, 1973; Sutherland et al., 2015; Syvitski, 1980).
420 The lithogenic material was probably also incorporated into aggregates and fecal pellets, and
421 ballasted organic biomass due to its high specific sinking velocity (Iversen et al., 2010; Ploug
422 et al., 2008) and increased the vertical POC flux.

423 The comparison with literature shows that the vertical Chl *a* and POC flux at IsA was
424 congruent with the previously reported fluxes in other ice-free high latitude systems during
425 winter and spring but was higher during autumn.

426

427 **4.3 Sinking particles’ characteristics during different seasons**

428 Drivers of physical and biological particle aggregation (e.g., shear, cell abundance, stickiness,
429 Kiørboe et al., 1994) and modification processes by grazers (Turner, 2002; Turner, 2015)
430 affect sinking particles’ characteristics, such as C/N ratio, size, and sinking velocity (De La

431 Rocha and Passow, 2007). Here, we discuss the characteristics of the sinking material at IsA
432 during the different seasons and possible drivers.

433 In our study, the C/N ratio of sinking material matched well with the visual analysis (Table 3).
434 Both implied the sedimentation of degenerated material in mid-December (Winter I) and
435 recently produced material during mid-May and late May (Spring II and III, respectively,
436 Table 3). A high C/N ratio, as found during Autumn I (Table 3), usually points toward
437 strongly degraded material or terrestrial material, but the visual inspection (20 m and 30 m
438 gels) suggested sinking of aggregates and fecal pellets (Table 3). We presume that the impact
439 of the meandering glacial plume on IsA was highly variable. When the track of the plume
440 covered IsA, the sinking material had a higher C/N ratio due to more terrestrial material when
441 compared to a situation when the plume followed an alternative route, not hitting IsA. This
442 explanation is supported by the high C/N ratios of the 24 h deployed traps (13.0-15.0, Table
443 3), but lower ones in the subsequently deployed 2 h gel traps (C/N ratio 6.5-8.8, fresh material
444 observed on the gels, data not shown), as well as the high variability of salinity and density
445 (Fig. A.1).

446 The average sinking velocity for total POC or Chl *a* biomass (Table 2) at IsA during winter
447 and spring was comparable with the average velocities reported by Kiørboe et al. (1994) in
448 the Danish Isefjorden (10 m), but was somewhat higher than rates at Nordvestbanken (off the
449 Norwegian Shelf, 100 m, Andreassen et al., 1999). A direct comparison with particle sinking
450 velocities estimated by Laurenceau-Cornec et al. (2015) or McDonnell and Buesseler (2010)
451 was difficult, because the calculations were based on different data (our study: integrated
452 biomass and biomass flux; other studies: particle abundance in water column and sediment
453 traps) and differed in the size fraction included in the study (our study: > 0.7 μm , Laurenceau-
454 Cornec et al, 2015: > 150 μm , McDonnell and Buesseler, 2010: > 50 μm).

455 Following Stokes' Law, which tightly couples particle size and sinking velocity, the highest
456 sinking rates in our study were expected at 60 m, where particles tended to be larger than at
457 shallower depths. Our estimates of the sinking velocity at 30 m and 60 m support this
458 anticipation (Table 2).

459 In addition, Stokes' Law would suggest higher sinking velocities during Winter I and Autumn
460 I (40, 60 m), where particles tended to be larger than during Spring II, III and Autumn I (20,
461 30 m, Fig. 5). In case of Autumn I (40, 60 m) the suggestion of Stokes' Law is supported
462 (Table 2): We found here large particles and a high sinking velocity. Particle sizes in the 20 m
463 and 30 m gels during Autumn I however pinpointed that sinking velocity is not merely
464 influenced by size, but a variety of parameters such as sinking particle type, density, and

465 mineral ballasting (De La Rocha and Passow, 2007; Iversen et al., 2010; Laurenceau-Cornec
466 et al., 2015; McDonnell and Buesseler, 2010). We suggest that incooperation of lithogenic
467 material into organic particles (Iversen et al., 2010) and a higher abundance of fast-sinking
468 fecal pellets (Table 3) overruled the size effect at the shallow sampling depth during Autumn
469 I, and caused the high sinking velocity. During Winter I, the low sinking velocity was
470 apparently a result of prevailing large, fluffy, detrital particles (Table 3) with a low specific
471 weight and the lack of ballasting diatoms (Iversen and Ploug, 2010) or lithogenic material (no
472 run-off during winter).

473 Precautions must thus be taken when relating particle size or volume to the POC flux. For
474 Winter I we calculated a low POC: volume ratio of ~ 0.0003 mg POC mm^{-3} (data not shown),
475 which reflects the high contribution of fluffy detritus. The ratios from Spring II were among
476 the highest during the present study (e.g., 30 m: 0.0050 mg POC mm^{-3}) and reflected the
477 higher contribution of aggregates and fecal pellets. However, all POC: volume ratios at IsA
478 were several magnitudes lower when compared to ratios from the central Barents Sea, where
479 sinking material comprised densely packed unidentifiable detritus and fecal material (0.0067 -
480 0.1101 mg POC mm^{-3} , Wiedmann et al., 2014). Accordingly, translating particle size or
481 volume into POC flux without considering the prevailing particle type may introduce large
482 errors.

483 Pteropod sedimentation events were observed during autumn and winter in the North Atlantic,
484 and were also found at IsA (Table 3). The reported abundances range from 24 individuals m^{-2}
485 d^{-1} at 1700 - 2800 m in the Fram Strait (Meinecke and Wefer, 1990) to ca. $18 \cdot 10^3$ individuals
486 $\text{m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ at 50 m in the Norwegian Sea (Bathmann et al., 1991) and are comparable with our
487 observations at IsA ($\sim 8 \cdot 10^3$ $\text{m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$, Table 3). High pteropod abundances may have enhanced
488 the POC flux during Autumn I, but because our gel trap data did not indicate if these pelagic
489 gastropods were actively swimming or passively sinking into the trap cylinders, we cannot
490 state if the animals also represented a true component of the vertical biomass flux.

491 Nevertheless, they seem to provide an important mechanism for vertical export, because lost
492 or rejected mucous feeding webs of pteropods can promote aggregate formation (Bathmann et
493 al., 1991; Noji et al., 1997) and enhance the sinking velocity of organic matter.

494

495 **4.4 Ecosystem functioning during different seasons in high Arctic ice-free fjord with a** 496 **major glacial run-off during autumn**

497 In the context of climate warming, it is likely that seasonally ice-covered Arctic fjords and
498 embayments may become permanently ice-free in the future. To predict the vertical flux

499 intensity in these areas, an improved understanding is needed. We used Adventfjorden as a
500 model area, because it has been seasonally ice-covered for several months during 2000-2005
501 (www.met.no, detailed ice maps available for Adventfjorden since 2000), but tended to be
502 ice-free during the last years (2006-2007, 2010, 2012-2014). This was probably a result of
503 strong northerly winds, which enhanced the advection of comparably warm water from the
504 West Spitsbergen Current into the fjords on western Svalbard (Cottier et al., 2007) and higher
505 temperature of the advected water (Onarheim et al., 2014).

506 Compiling our data, we put forward a conceptual model of the pelagic-benthic coupling in a
507 year-round ice-free Arctic fjord with glacial run-off during autumn (Fig. 7). In terms of
508 suspended POC and Chl *a* concentrations as well as the vertical biomass flux, the winter
509 situation in Adventfjorden was comparable to boreal, sub-Arctic and ice-free Arctic fjords.
510 Enhanced mixing by thermal convection and wind must be assumed when compared to the
511 previous ice-covered situation. We presume that detrital material, previously settled to the
512 bottom, was re-suspended, especially in the shallow areas, and laterally advected to the
513 middle of the fjord as described for the sub-Arctic Ramfjorden (Noji et al., 1993). The vertical
514 flux during the polar night was dominated by large detrital particles with a low density and
515 POC content. In the absence of ballasting materials (e.g., diatom cells or lithogenic material),
516 the sinking velocity and POC flux tended to be lower when compared to the other seasons
517 (Table 2, Fig. 4, Fig. 7).

518 The spring situation at IsA resembled previous observation from boreal, sub-Arctic and Arctic
519 ice-free fjords in terms of suspended and sedimenting Chl *a* and POC. High vertical flux rates
520 of un-grazed phytoplankton aggregates and detrital material was found during an early bloom
521 phase, but the vertical flux intensity decreased toward the late bloom. We suggest this was
522 caused by a shift from a diatom to a *Phaeocystis* dominated bloom as well as an intensifying
523 top-down control by zooplankton.

524 During autumn, the ice-free Adventfjorden differed from many investigated fjords e.g., in
525 northern Norway (Table 4), which are rarely affected by major glacial run-off (Fig. 2). We did
526 not observe any phytoplankton autumn blooms and associated POC sedimentation events as
527 described for sub-Arctic regions (Wassmann et al., 1991), but this may be due to low
528 sampling frequency. Instead, the sediment loaded meltwater input was identified as a major
529 driver of the high POC flux during autumn. In addition, high abundances of *Limacina* sp. and
530 rejected or lost mucous nets may be possible drivers of the high POC flux.

531

532 We propose that the seasonal vertical flux patterns in an ice-free Arctic fjord with glacial run-
533 off resemble sub-Arctic fjords during winter and spring. During autumn, the systems appear
534 to differ and a major POC sedimentation may be caused by the glacial run-off.

535 In a scenario of climate warming it must be assumed that previously ice-covered fjords and
536 embayments will turn into permanently open waters in the future. Ice algae blooms associated
537 with the sea ice and their contribution to the vertical carbon flux will no longer occur in these
538 future ice-free fjords. Fjords, affected by glacial run-off, may however still have a high
539 vertical biomass flux because the entrained sediment-loaded melt water can drive the vertical
540 biomass flux in the fjord during the melting season.

541

542

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552

553

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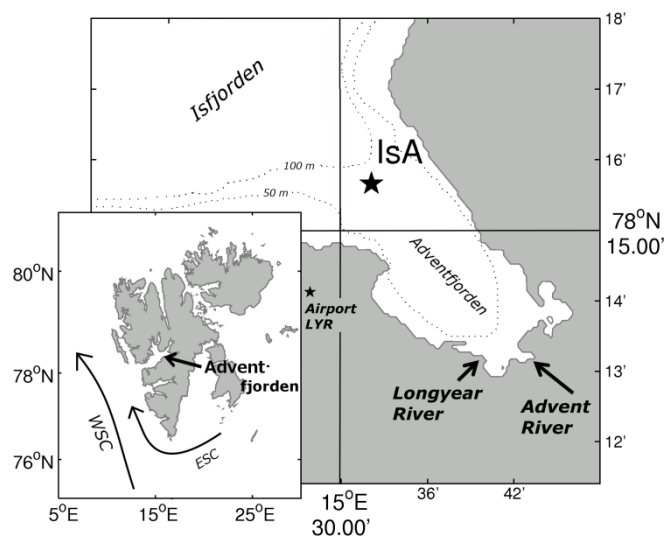


Figure 1: ISA station was located in the mouth of Adventfjorden, a side branch of the Isfjorden system, western Svalbard (main map, depth contour following Zajączkowski et al., 2010). Adventfjorden is influenced by the Atlantic derived, warm West Spitsbergen Current (WSC) and the Arctic derived, cold East Spitsbergen Current (ESC, small map), as well as glacial run-off from the Longyear and Advent River (during ice melting period in summer and autumn).

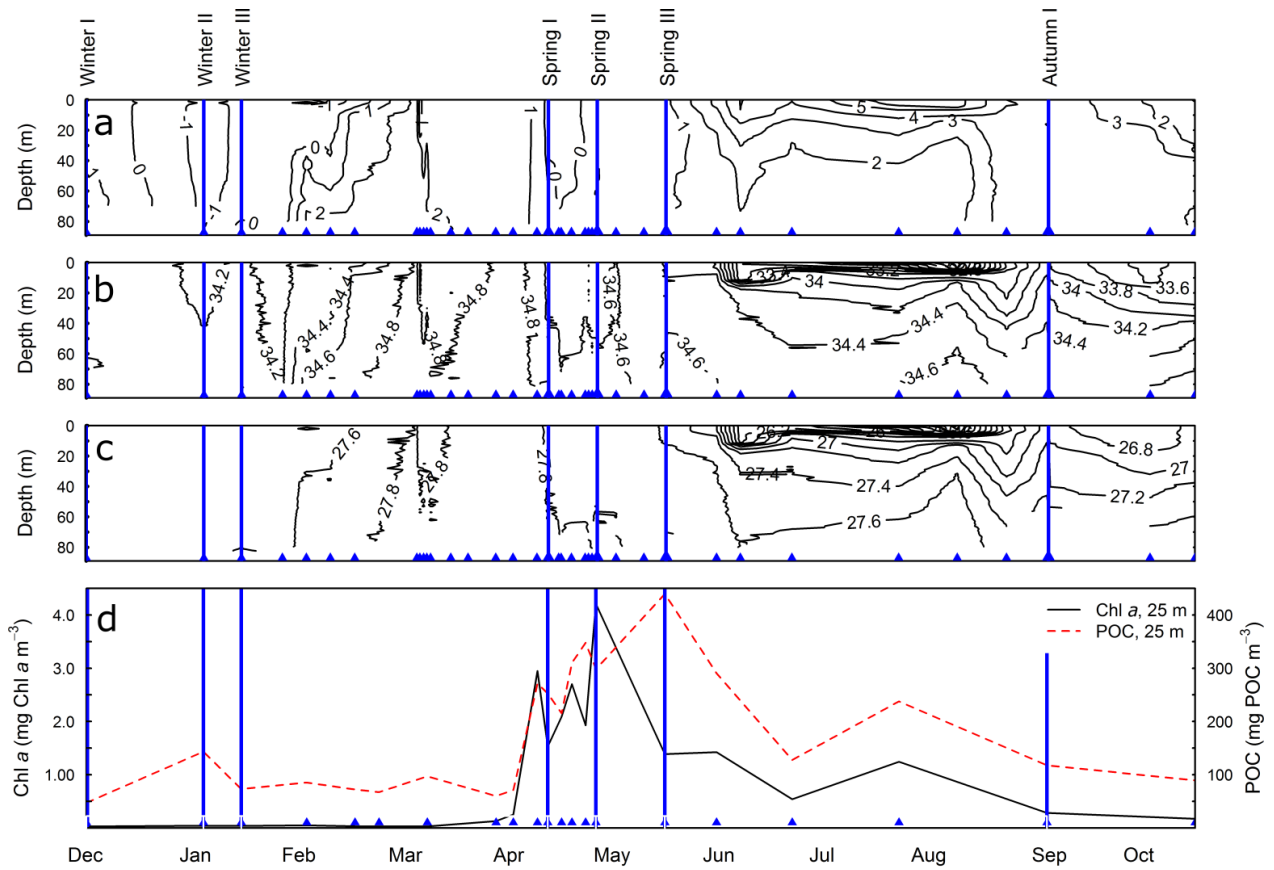


Figure 2: Temperature (a), salinity (b), density (c), and the seasonal development of suspended biomass is shown (d, black line: chlorophyll *a*, Chl *a*, red stippled line: particulate organic carbon, POC) at IsA during the sampling program (14.12.2011 - 31.10.2012). Sampling dates with the CTD are indicated by blue triangles. Sediment trap deployment took place at the dates indicated by blue vertical lines.

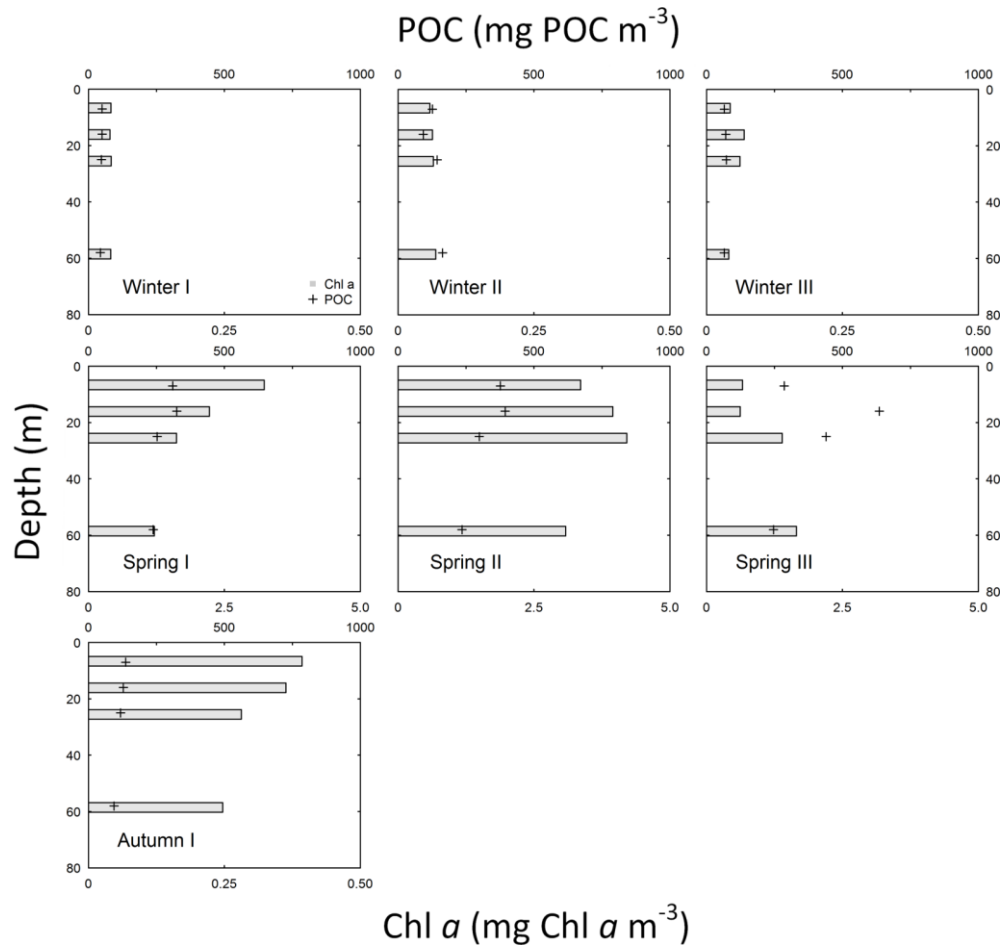


Figure 3: Suspended chlorophyll *a* (Chl *a*) (grey bars) and particulate organic carbon (POC, black cross) concentrations at 5, 15, 25 and 60 m during Winter I-III, Spring I-III and Autumn I. Note different scales on the lower x-axis for Spring I-III.

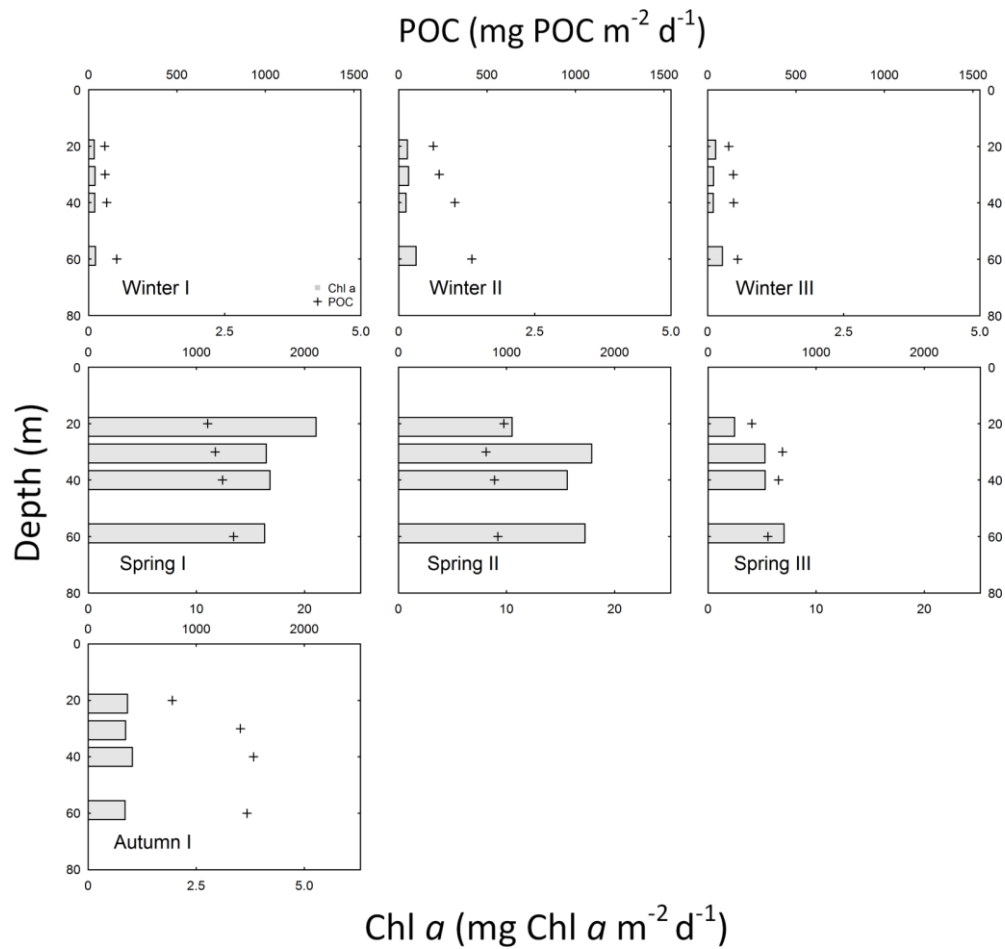


Figure 4: Vertical flux of chlorophyll *a* (Chl *a*, grey bars) and particulate organic carbon (POC, black cross) at 20, 30, 40, and 60 m during Winter I-III, Spring I-III, and Autumn I. Note different scale on the upper x-axis during Winter I-III and the lower x-axis for Spring I-III.

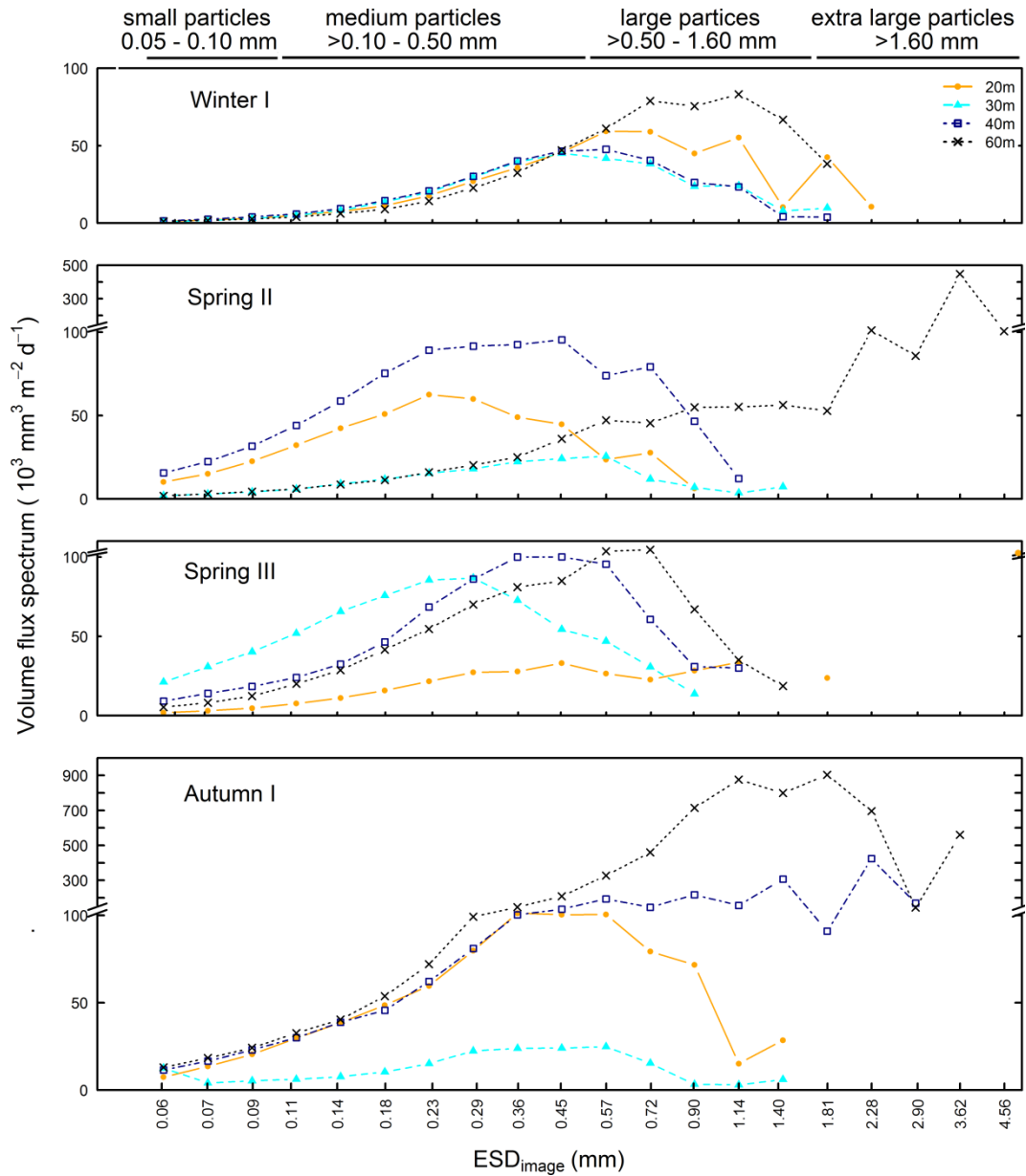


Figure 5: Volume flux spectra at the four trap deployment depths (20 m: orange solid, 30 m: turquoise stippled, 40 m: blue dotted/stippled, 60 m: black dotted) during Winter I, Spring II, Spring III, and Autumn I. The horizontal axis is logarithmic and displays the average size of the particle bins. The area under the curve reflects the total volume of particles sinking out per sampling depth, and the top line indicates the size classes of the particles. Note the broken y-axis in Spring II, Spring III and Autumn I.

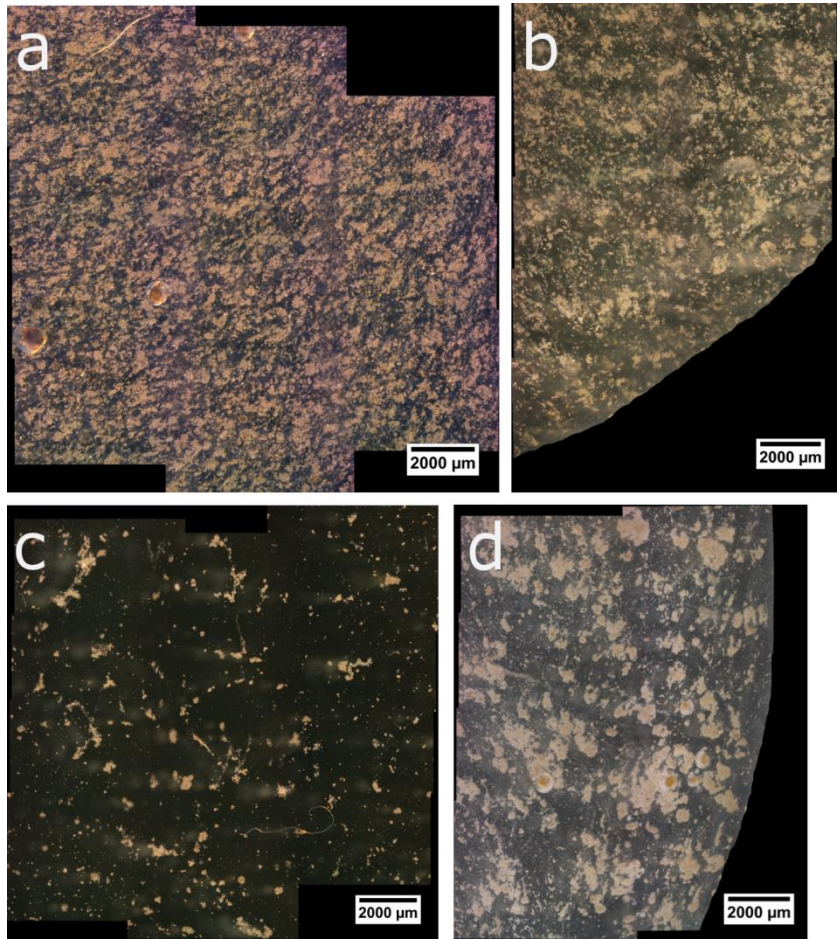


Figure 6: Example images (15 x magnification) demonstrating the different quality of sinking particles observed in the gel traps deployed at 60 m during Winter I (a), Spring II (b), Spring III (c) Autumn I (d). Note that the December sample was deployed for ~24 h, while the other samples were only deployed for ~2 h.

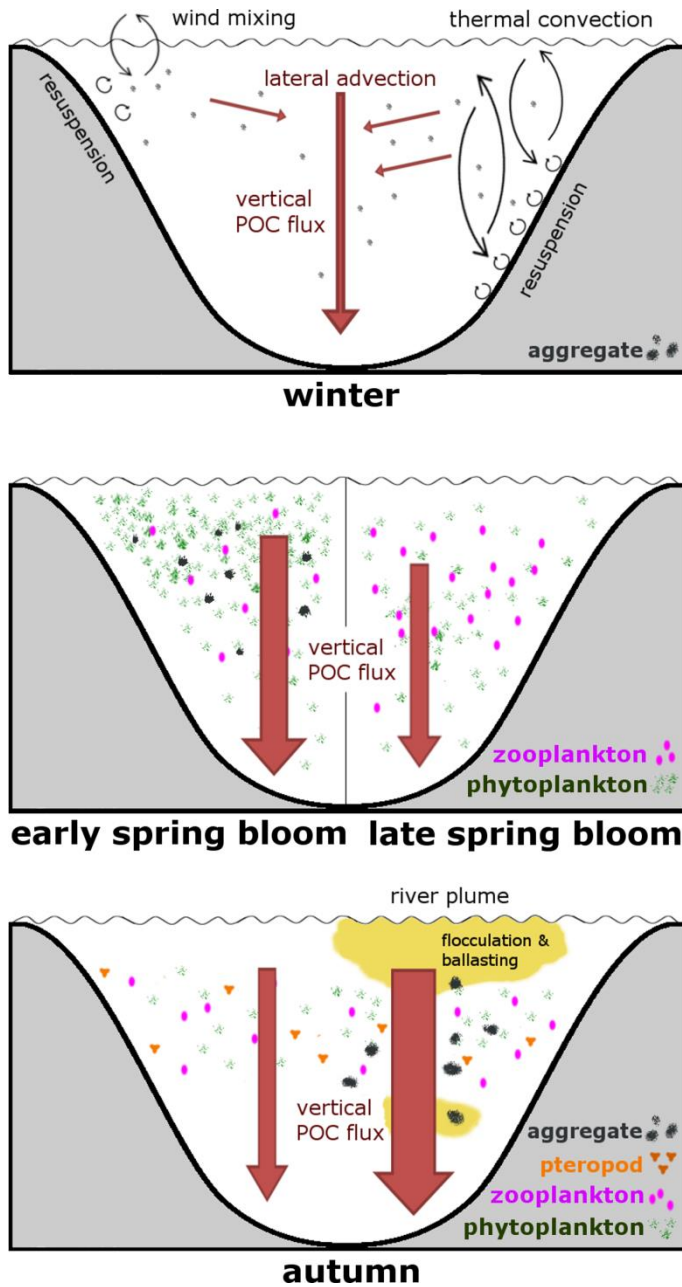
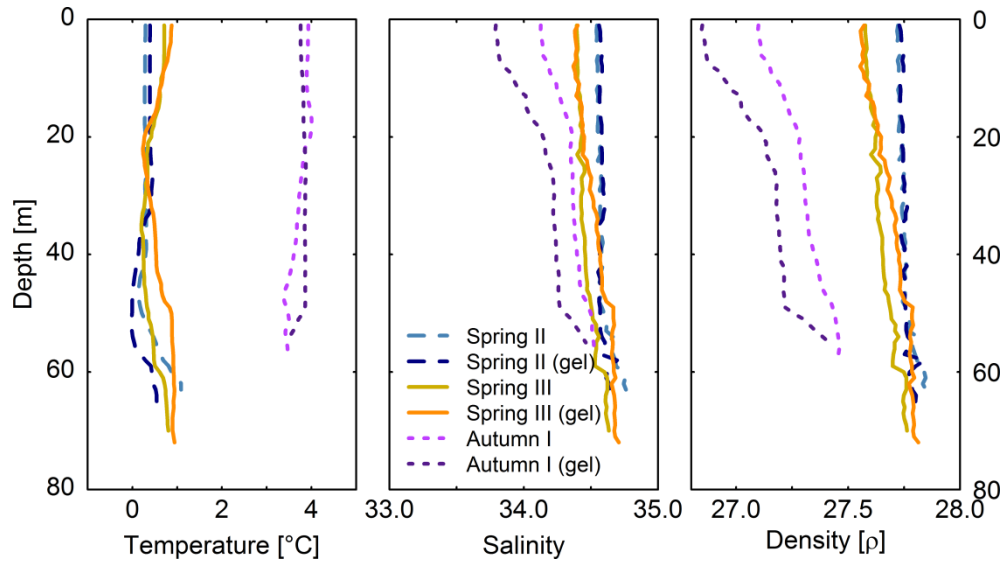


Figure 7: Conceptual model of vertical POC flux during the different seasons in the ice-free, high Arctic Adventfjorden. Resuspension of detritus from the bottom and lateral advection resulted in some vertical POC flux during winter. A strong flux event can take place during an early spring bloom situation, when aggregates of phytoplankton and detritus are formed and sink out. During a late bloom phase a stronger coupling between phytoplankton production and zooplankton diminishes the vertical POC flux. During autumn, the plume of glacial run-off can cause flocculation and aggregate formation. Entrained lithogenic material in-cooperated into sinking particles can enhance the sinking velocity of organic material, as well as high pteropod abundances.



Supplement – Figure A.1: Temperature (left), salinity (middle) and density (right) plots from Spring II, Spring III and Autumn I, when CTD casts were conducted on two subsequent days (on first day, when the 24 h sediment traps array was deployed and on the second day, when the 2 h gel trap array was deployed), illustrating the variable impact of the glacial run-off on salinity during autumn.

Table 1: Sampling schedule for suspended water samples, sediment trap deployment and ‘gel trap’ deployment (sediment traps modified with a gel jar) at IsA station (78° 15.67’ N, 15° 32.10’ E). Research Vessel: 1: NorCGV Svalbard, 2: R/V Helmer Hanssen, 3: Polar Circle, 4: R/V Viking Explorer, 5: M/V Farm.

Label	Date	Boat	CTD	Euphotic zone (m)	Susp. Chl <i>a</i> , POC (mg m ⁻³)	Susp. C/N	Deployment time (h)	Sediment trap** (m)	‘Gel trap’ (m)
Winter I	13./ 14.12.2011	1	X		5,15,25,60	5,15,25,60*	24:15	20,30,40,60	20,30,40,60
Winter II	17./ 18.01.2012	2	X		5,15,25,60	5,15,25,60	22:00	20,30,40,60	
Winter III	27./ 28.01.2012	1	X		5,15,25,60	5,15,25,60	25:00	20,30,40,60	
	09.02.2012	3	X		25				
	16.02.2012	3	X		25				
	23.02.2012	3	X		25				
	01.03.2012	3	X		25				
	08.03.2012	3			25				
	19.-22.03.2012***	3	X	34					
	29.03.2012	3	X	45	25				
	03.04.2012	3	X	40	25				
	11.04.2012	3	X	40	25				
Spring I	16.04.2012	3	X	45	25				
	23.04.2012	3	X	35	25				
	26./ 27.04.2012***	4	X	30	5,15,25,60	5,15,25,60	24:25	20,30,40,60	
	30.04.2012	3	X	30	25				
	03.05.2012	3	X	25	25				
07.-09.05.2012***	3	X	25	25					
Spring II	10./ 11.05.2012***	4	X	25	5,15,25,60	5,15,25,60	23:25	20,30,40,60	
	11.05.2012	4					02:00		20,30,40,60
	16.05.2012	3	X						
	24.05.2012	3	X	30	25				
Spring III	30./ 31.05.2012***	4	X	20	5,15,25,60	5,15,25,60	23:45	20,30,40,60	
	31.05.2012	4					01:50		20,30,40,60
	14.06.2012	3	X		25				
	21.06.2012	3		25	25				
	06.07.2012	3	X	8	25				
	06.08.2012	3	X	30	25				
	23.08.2012	3	X	20	25				
	06.09.2012	3	X						
Autumn I	18./ 19.09.2012***	5	X	30	5,15,25,60	5,15,25,60	23:05	20,30,40,60	
	19.09.2012	5					02:30		20,30,40,60
	31.10.2012	3	X		25				

*PON samples not available

** analyzed for POC, PON and Chl *a*

*** daily sampling

Table 2: Loss rate and average sinking velocity of Chl *a* and POC.

	Winter I		Winter II		Winter III		Spring I		Spring II		Spring III		Autumn I	
	30 m	60 m	30 m	60 m	30 m	60 m	30 m	60 m	30 m	60 m	30 m	60 m	30 m	60 m
Loss rate (% d⁻¹)														
- Chl <i>a</i>	9.5	5.1	9.6	8.1	6.0	8.3	-	-	15.5	7.8	19.7	9.6	6.6	3.7
- POC	6.3	5.6	6.8	5.5	6.9	4.1	13.2	8.3	7.6	5.0	5.1	2.4	36.8	21.2
Average sinking velocity (m d⁻¹)														
- Chl <i>a</i>	2.8	3.1	2.8	4.6	1.7	6.6	-	-	4.2	5.6	3.8	4.2	2.4	2.8
- POC	2.0	3.7	1.6	3.0	2.0	2.6	4.6	5.6	2.7	3.9	1.6	2.2	12.0	15.7

Table 3: Quality of the sinking material denoted by the C/N ratio (PON values of Winter I not available) and the most frequent particle type (detritus = mainly small, unidentifiable particles, PP = phytoplankton, FP = fecal pellets) in the deployed gel jars. Dominant particle type in bold.

		Winter I	Winter II	Winter III	Spring I	Spring II	Spring III	Autumn I
C/N	20, 30, 40, 60 m		10.6-12.4	12.7-14.1	7.9-8.0	6.8-7.8	6.7-7.2	13.0-15.0
dominant particle type	20 m	detritus				detritus, FP	PP aggregates, detritus	FP , aggregates*, <i>Limacina</i> sp. (138)
	30 m	detritus, <i>Limacina</i> sp. (10)				detritus, aggregates*	PP aggregates, detritus	aggregates*, FP, <i>Limacina</i> sp. (63)
	40 m	detritus				detritus, aggregates*	aggregates*, FP	detritus , aggregates* , FP, <i>Limacina</i> sp. (73)
	60 m	detritus, <i>Limacina</i> sp. (13)				detritus, aggregates	FP , aggregates*	detritus , aggregates, few FP, <i>Limacina</i> sp. (68)

* most likely phytoplankton aggregates

Table 4: Literature compilation of suspended POC and Chl *a* concentrations (mg m^{-3}) and the vertical flux of both parameters ($\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) in high latitude fjords and the Barents Sea during winter, spring and autumn.

Place	Date	Depth (m)	Chl <i>a</i>	POC	C/N	Reference
Winter - suspended						
Adventfjorden – IsA, Svalbard	Dec 11/ Jan 12	5,15,25,60 m	<0.1	50-160	8.3-11.7	present study
Adventfjorden, Svalbard	Nov 06/ Feb 07	5,35 m	0.2-0.6	180-500	2.5-20 ²	Zajaczkowski et al. 2010
Kongsfjorden, Svalbard	Dec 06	0-50 m ¹	0.01	43	6.6	Iversen and Seuthe (2010)
Central Barents Sea	March 98	0-50 m ¹	<0.05	40-70	7.4-9.0	Olli et al. (2002)
Balsfjorden, N-Norway	Dec 08	20,63 m	0.05			Eilertsen and Degerlund (2010)
Malangen, N-Norway	Dec 08	20,417 m	0.03-0.04			Eilertsen and Degerlund (2010)
Ramfjorden, N-Norway	Nov/ Dec 89	0,10,30,50,70 m	0.03-0.20	70-270	13-25	Noji et al. (1993)
Spring - suspended						
Adventfjorden – IsA, Svalbard	Apr/ May 12	5,15,25,60 m	0.6-4.2	230-630	6.2-7.1	present study
Adventfjorden, Svalbard	Apr/ May 06	5,35 m	0.1-6.8	300-900	6-16	Zajaczkowski et al. (2010)
Kongsfjorden, Svalbard	Apr/ May 06	0-50 m ¹	0.2-10	310-670	4.6-5.3	Iversen and Seuthe (2010)
Central Barents Sea	May 98	0-50 m ¹	4.5-7.5	300-680	6.5-8.0	Olli et al. (2002)
Balsfjorden, N-Norway	Apr 92	0-36 m ¹	2.7-4.1	500-830		Reigstad et al. (1996)
Indrejord/ Tenneskjær, Malangen, N-Norway	Apr/ May 91	0-30 m ¹	0.5-2.1	410-610		Wassmann et al. (1996)
Conception Bay, Newfoundland fjord, Canada	May 98	30 m	2.5			Thompson et al. (2008)
Autumn – suspended						
Adventfjorden – IsA, Svalbard	Sept 12	5,15,25,60 m	0.3-0.4	90-130	8.5-10.5	present study
Adventfjorden, Svalbard	Oct 06	5,35 m	0.1	190-210	7.5-20 ²	Zajaczkowski et al. (2010)
Kongsfjorden, Svalbard	Sept 06	0-50 m ¹	0.5	114	7.1	Iversen and Seuthe (2010)
Indrejord/ Tenneskjær, Malangen, N-Norway	Sept 91-Oct 91	0-30 m ¹	0.6-1.2			Wassmann et al. (1996)
Winter – sedimented						
Adventfjorden – IsA, Svalbard	Dec 11/ Jan 12	20,30,40,60 m	<0.26	90-400	10.6-14	present study
Adventfjorden, Svalbard	Nov 06/ Feb 07	35 m	0.22-0.33	500-750	6-25	Zajaczkowski et al. 2010
Central Barents Sea	March 98	30-200m ⁵	<0.2	20-70		Olli et al. (2002)
Ramfjorden, N-Norway	Nov/ Dec 89	10,30,50,70 m	0.03-0.3	25-300	9-12	Noji et al. (1993)
Fanafjorden, W-Norway	Nov 79/ Feb 80	60,90 m		100-220	9-10	Wassmann (1984)
Spring – sedimented						
Adventfjorden – IsA, Svalbard	Apr/ May 12	20,30,40,60 m	2.5-20 ⁴	900-1350 ⁴	6.1-8.0	present study
Adventfjorden, Svalbard	Apr/ May 06	35 m	0.75-5	400-600	5-14	Zajaczkowski et al. (2010)
Central Barents Sea	May 98	30-200m ⁵	10-30	200-2000		Olli et al. (2002)
Balsfjorden, N-Norway	Apr 92	30,60 m	0.5-5-5	180-630	6.5-13	Reigstad et al. (1996)

Indrejord/ Tenneskjær, Malangen, N-Norway	Apr/ May 91	30 m	0.1-13	250-750	5.5-10	Keck and Wassmann (1996)
Ullsfjorden, N-Norway	Apr 97	60 m	10-12	220-420	7.8-9.2	Reigstad et al. (2000)
Fanafjorden, W-Norway	Apr/ May 91	60,90 m		220-600	8-13	Wassmann (1984)
Conception Bay, Newfoundland fjord, Canada	May 98	40,80 m		300-700	8-9	Thompson et al. (2008)
Autumn - sedimented						
Adventfjorden – IsA, Svalbard	Sept 12	20,30,40,60 m	0.6-0.8 ⁴	770-1530 ⁴	13-15 ⁴	present study
Adventfjorden, Svalbard	Oct 06	35 m	<0.1	500	7-16	Zajackowski et al. (2010)
Indrejord/ Tenneskjær, Malangen, N-Norway	Sept 91-Oct 91	30 m		130-190	7.5-8.0	Keck and Wassmann (1996)
Fanafjorden, W-Norway	Sept 80	60,90 m		300-420	9.5	Wassmann (1984)
Hudson Bay, Canada	Sept/ Oct 05	50 m	0.06-1.34	50-76.8		Lapoussière et al. (2013)

¹ Average concentration, not integrated

² different size fractions (0.4-2.7; 2.7-20; >20 µm)

³ data from Reigstad and Wassmann (1996), another sampling station in the same fjord

⁴ 2 h deployed traps not taken into account

⁵ 30,40,50,60,90,120,150,200 m

Table A.1: Bin averages with the lower and upper limit and particle size categories, which were used to bin the particles

Bin average (mm)	Lower bin limit (mm)	Upper bin limit (mm)	Size category
0.056	0.050	0.063	small particles
0.071	0.063	0.079	
0.090	0.079	0.100	
0.113	0.100	0.126	medium particles
0.142	0.126	0.159	
0.179	0.159	0.200	
0.226	0.200	0.252	
0.285	0.252	0.318	
0.359	0.318	0.400	
0.452	0.400	0.504	large particles
0.569	0.504	0.635	
0.717	0.635	0.800	
0.904	0.800	1.008	
1.139	1.008	1.270	
1.435	1.270	1.600	very large particles
1.808	1.600	2.015	
2.278	2.015	2.539	
2.870	2.539	3.200	
3.616	3.200	4.031	
4.555	4.031	5.080	