

1 Title:

2 **Transport of trace metals (Mn, Fe, Ni, Zn and Cd) in the western Arctic Ocean**
3 **(Chukchi Sea and Canada Basin) in late summer 2012**

4

5 Authors:

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18

19 **Abstract**

20 Distributions of trace metals (Mn, Fe, Ni, Zn and Cd) in the western Arctic Ocean
21 (Chukchi Sea and Canada Basin) in September 2012 were investigated to elucidate the
22 mechanisms behind the transport of these metals from the Chukchi Shelf to the Canada Basin.
23 Filtered ($< 0.22 \mu\text{m}$) and unfiltered seawater samples were analyzed to determine dissolved
24 (D) and total dissolvable (TD) trace metal concentrations, respectively. We identified
25 maxima in vertical profiles for the concentrations of D-Fe and TD-Fe, as well as for the other
26 four analyzed trace metals, which occurred in the halocline and/or near-bottom waters.
27 Concentration profiles of all trace metals except for Cd also tended to show peaks near the
28 surface, which suggest that the inflow of low-salinity Pacific-origin water from the Bering
29 Strait, as well as local fresh water inputs such as river water and melting sea-ice, influenced
30 trace metal concentrations. The distribution patterns and concentration ranges were generally
31 similar between the D and TD fractions for Ni, Zn and Cd, which indicate that Ni, Zn and Cd
32 were present mainly in their dissolved forms, whereas the concentrations of TD-Fe and TD-
33 Mn were generally higher than those of D-Fe and D-Mn, respectively. These results are
34 consistent with the results of previous studies of this region. For both Fe and Mn, labile
35 particulate (LP) concentrations (the difference between the TD and D fractions, which is
36 acid-leachable fraction in the particles during storage at pH 1.5-1.6) were highest in the near-
37 bottom waters of the Chukchi Shelf region. The relationships between the distance from the
38 shelf break and the concentrations of trace metals revealed that Fe and Mn concentrations in
39 halocline waters tended to decrease logarithmically with distance, whereas changes in the
40 concentrations of Ni, Zn, Cd and phosphate with distance were small. These results suggest
41 that the distributions of Fe and Mn were controlled mainly by input from shelf sediment and
42 removal through scavenging processes. Based on the phase distributions of Fe and Mn, which
43 were calculated as ratios between the LP and D fractions, different behaviors between Fe and
44 Mn were expressed during lateral transportation. The concentration of TD-Fe declined

45 rapidly via removal of LP-Fe from the water column, whereas the concentration of TD-Mn
46 declined more slowly through the transformation of D-Mn into LP-Mn. In contrast, the
47 concentrations of D-Cd, D-Zn and D-Ni were more strongly correlated with phosphate levels,
48 which suggest that, like phosphate, the distributions of Cd, Zn and Ni were generally
49 controlled by the internal biogeochemical cycles of the ocean interior. Based on the findings
50 of studies that have previously evaluated the concentration maxima of Ni, Zn and Cd within
51 the halocline layer in the Canada Basin near the Canadian Arctic Archipelago, the elevated
52 Ni, Zn and Cd concentrations in the halocline layer may extend across the Canada Basin from
53 the Chukchi Sea shelf-break area. The determination coefficients for correlations with
54 phosphate concentration varied between the concentrations of Ni, Zn and Cd, which suggest
55 that the sources of these trace metals, such as sediments and sea-ice melting, affected their
56 patterns of distributions differently. Our findings reveal the importance and impact of the
57 halocline layer for the transport of trace metals in the western Arctic Ocean during the late
58 summer. The existence of rich and various sources likely sustained the high concentrations of
59 trace metals and their unique profiles in this region.

60

61 **Key words:** Trace metals, Arctic Ocean, Chukchi Sea, Canada Basin, halocline,
62 GRENE

63

64 **1. Introduction**

65 Although the Arctic Ocean constitutes only about 3% of the world's oceans by area, it
66 includes approximately 20% of the world's continental shelf area (Chang and Devol, 2009).
67 The Chukchi Sea, located in the western Arctic Ocean, is a highly productive region during
68 times of ice-edge retreat (Hill and Cota, 2005). Physical, chemical and biological
69 characteristics of the Chukchi Sea are strongly influenced by currents that flow northward
70 through the Bering Strait (Springer and McRoy, 1993). The mean annual transport through
71 the Bering Strait into the Chukchi Sea is about 0.8 Sv, which has strong seasonal variability
72 between a summer maximum and a winter minimum, and supports the high productivity of
73 this region through the transport of nutrients (Coachman and Aagaard, 1988). It has been
74 reported that a large fraction of the organic matter that forms in surface waters in the shelf
75 areas of the Chukchi Sea sinks to the seafloor, which fuels productive benthic communities
76 and causes high rates of sedimentary denitrification (Chang and Devol, 2009; Brown *et al.*,
77 2015). The Pacific-origin water from the Bering Strait is already depleted in nitrate (NO_3^-)
78 relative to phosphate (PO_4^{3-}), and NO_3^- is further depleted relative to PO_4^{3-} in the Chukchi Sea
79 via the effect of sedimentary denitrification (Yamamoto-Kawai *et al.*, 2006). A unique
80 feature of the upper surface water in the western Arctic Ocean is the dominance of a strong,
81 cold halocline that separates the Pacific-origin surface waters from the underlying Atlantic-
82 origin waters (Aagaard *et al.*, 1981). Cold and dense brine is produced in the fall and winter
83 as sea ice forms, and the halocline is maintained by large-scale lateral advection from the
84 adjoining continental shelves (Aagaard *et al.*, 1981; Jones and Anderson, 1986). The water of
85 this halocline is therefore associated with prominent maxima of nutrients and dissolved
86 organic matter (Anderson *et al.*, 2013). In the Canada Basin, mixtures of Pacific-origin and
87 Atlantic-origin waters are only found below the nutrient maxima (Yamamoto-Kawai *et al.*,
88 2008). Pacific-origin water that enters through the Bering Strait can be highly modified
89 throughout transport on the shelves by runoff, interaction between sediment and near-bottom

90 water, and sea-ice formation (Cooper *et al.*, 1997). The Canada Basin is separated from the
91 Makarov Basin by the Mendeleev–Alpha Ridge with a sill depth of ~2000 m, and is fairly
92 isolated from ventilation by the dense shelf waters of the Makarov, Barents, Kara and Laptev
93 seas (Swift *et al.*, 1997). In the Canada Basin, freshening of surface seawater began in the
94 1990s and has been attributed to increased river runoff and sea ice melting (Morison *et al.*
95 (2012) and references therein).

96 Trace metals such as iron (Fe), manganese (Mn), nickel (Ni), zinc (Zn) and cadmium
97 (Cd) are involved in numerous processes in the metabolisms of phytoplankton and can be
98 toxic at high concentration (Twining and Baines, 2013 and references therein). Iron is
99 required for many processes including photosynthesis, chlorophyll synthesis and nitrogen
100 metabolic pathways such as nitrogen fixation and NO_3^- and nitrite (NO_2^-) reduction. It is well
101 established that Fe often limits phytoplankton growth in environments where subsurface
102 nutrients are replete, which include high-nutrient, low-chlorophyll areas such as the
103 upwelling regions of the Southern Ocean and the eastern equatorial Pacific (e.g., Moore *et al.*,
104 2013). Zinc also plays a role in many metalloproteins such as alkaline phosphatase, carbonic
105 anhydrase and the Zn form of superoxide dismutase (Zn-SOD). Cadmium is also known to be
106 a cofactor in carbonic anhydrase, and can substitute for Zn in diatom growth pathways (Lane
107 and Morel, 2000); it has been suggested that phytoplankton mistakenly import Cd through a
108 non-specific divalent metal transporter in this process (Horner *et al.*, 2013). Sunda and
109 Huntsman (2000) demonstrated that Cd drawdown was accelerated under Fe-limited
110 conditions. Nickel is associated primarily with urease and the Ni form of superoxide
111 dismutase (Ni-SOD) (Dupont *et al.*, 2008a, b). Manganese is an essential trace metal for
112 phytoplankton growth because it is prominently involved in the oxygen-evolving complex of
113 photosystem II and the Mn form of superoxide dismutase (Mn-SOD) (Wolfe-Simon *et al.*,
114 2005). However, limitation of Mn for phytoplankton growth has not yet been observed in the
115 ocean.

116 In the open ocean, vertical distributions of Ni, Zn and Cd in dissolved fractions (< 0.2–
117 0.4 μm) are generally characterized by surface minima, rapid increases to maximum
118 concentrations in the thermocline, and then relatively constant concentrations in deep water,
119 similar to the distribution patterns of nutrients (e.g., Bruland *et al.*, 1991). However, the
120 vertical distributions of dissolved Mn and Fe differ from those of the above “nutrient-type”
121 trace metals. Maximum Mn occurs in the surface water and decreases with depth, which is
122 why Mn is called a “scavenging-type” trace metal (e.g., Bruland *et al.*, 1991). Vertical
123 profiles of Fe are often reported as nutrient-type or a combination of nutrient-type and
124 scavenging-type elements; therefore, Fe is called as “hybrid-type” trace metal. Both Fe and
125 Mn have short residence times relative to Ni, Zn and Cd (Chester and Jickells, 2012). In
126 oxygenated seawater, the thermodynamically favored form of Fe is Fe(III), which is strongly
127 hydrolyzed, and its removal is mainly constrained by complexation with natural organic
128 ligands such as humic substances (Laglera *et al.*, 2011).

129 Recent studies have gradually revealed the distribution of Fe in the western Arctic
130 Ocean (Chukchi Sea and Canada Basin). The reported ranges for the concentrations of
131 dissolved Fe and total dissolvable Fe (i.e., the concentration of leachable Fe in acidified
132 unfiltered sample, see section 2) have been extremely broad (0.36–33.1 nM and 0.8–89000
133 nM, respectively), but the maxima of dissolved Fe concentration occurred consistently within
134 the halocline layer (HL) with high concentrations of nutrients and dissolved organic matter
135 (Nakayama *et al.*, 2011; Cid *et al.*, 2012 ; Nishimura *et al.*, 2012; Aguilar-Islas *et al.*, 2013;
136 Hioki *et al.*, 2014). Because high concentrations of trace metals have been observed in near-
137 bottom water in the shelf region, it has been suggested that sedimentary input is an important
138 source of trace metals in the western Arctic Ocean. However, few studies of trace metals
139 (especially Mn and Fe) in Chukchi Sea sediments have been performed (Naidu *et al.*, 1997;
140 Trefry *et al.*, 2014). Naidu *et al.* (1997) investigated metal concentrations (Al, Fe, Mn, Cu, Cr,
141 Co, Zn, Ni and V) in the seafloor muds of the Chukchi Sea in 1986, and found that the

142 concentrations of these metals were low relative to those of Arctic shelves of Russia, East
143 Greenland and the Beaufort Sea. A more recent study also investigated concentrations of Fe,
144 Al and selected trace metals (including Mn, Cd, Ni, Zn) in surface sediments from the
145 Chukchi Sea collected in 2009 and 2010; although concentrations of each trace metal varied
146 considerably with sediment texture (i.e., grain size), these metals were found to exist at
147 natural background levels in most samples when normalized for Al concentration (Trefly *et*
148 *al.*, 2014). These studies suggest that Chukchi Shelf sediment is unlikely to have been
149 significantly influenced by anthropogenic pollution. In addition to continental shelf sediments
150 and remineralization of biogenic and/or mineral particles, river discharge and melting sea ice
151 are also potential sources of trace metals (Nakayama *et al.*, 2011; Nishimura *et al.*, 2012; Cid
152 *et al.*, 2012; Hioki *et al.*, 2014). The presence of these diverse sources is likely to influence
153 the lateral transport of Fe in this region. Compared to Fe, there are relatively few data for
154 distributions of Zn, Cd, Ni and Mn in the western Arctic Ocean (Yeats, 1988; Yeats and
155 Westerlund, 1991; Cid *et al.*, 2012). Yeats (1988) and Yeats and Westerlund (1991)
156 investigated the distributions of total dissolvable Mn, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn and Cd and dissolved
157 Mn in the Canada Basin near the Canadian Arctic Archipelago, and found that Ni, Zn and Cd
158 concentrations tended to peak around the nutrient maximum in the halocline. More recently,
159 Cid *et al.* (2012) investigated distributions of trace metals (Al, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, Cd
160 and Pb) from samples collected in September 2000 and found that roughly all of these trace
161 metals had concentration maxima in the HL, with the exception of Al. It was suggested that
162 nutrient-type trace metals such as Ni, Cu, Zn and Cd were generally more dominant in the
163 dissolved fractions ($< 0.2 \mu\text{m}$), whereas the other metals measured (Al, Mn, Fe and Co)
164 were more dominant in the labile particulate fractions (i.e., the differences between dissolved
165 and total dissolvable fractions) (Cid *et al.*, 2012). However, the mechanism behind the
166 transport of these trace metals from the Chukchi Shelf to the Canada Basin remains unclear.

167 The balance between input and removal of a trace metal controls its distribution in
168 seawater. As discussed above, there are several potential sources of trace metals in the
169 western Arctic Ocean, and the processes associated with each source and sink are likely to
170 have different impacts on the concentrations of different trace metals that reflect their specific
171 characteristics. Therefore, it is valuable to investigate the distributions of many trace metals
172 simultaneously to elucidate geochemical cycling in this region. Furthermore, the climatic
173 conditions of the Arctic Ocean have changed rapidly over the previous several decades,
174 which have resulted in environmental impacts such as decreased summer sea-ice cover and
175 increased air temperature (Wood *et al.*, 2015). Indeed, in the summer of 2012, the area of the
176 Arctic Ocean covered by sea ice was the smallest in recorded history (National Snow and Ice
177 Data Center (NSIDC) (http://nsidc.org/data/seaice_index/)). For this study, the distributions
178 of dissolved and total dissolvable trace metals (Mn, Fe, Ni, Zn and Cd) in the Chukchi Sea
179 and Canada Basin were investigated to elucidate the transport of trace metals in the western
180 Arctic Ocean in the late summer of 2012.

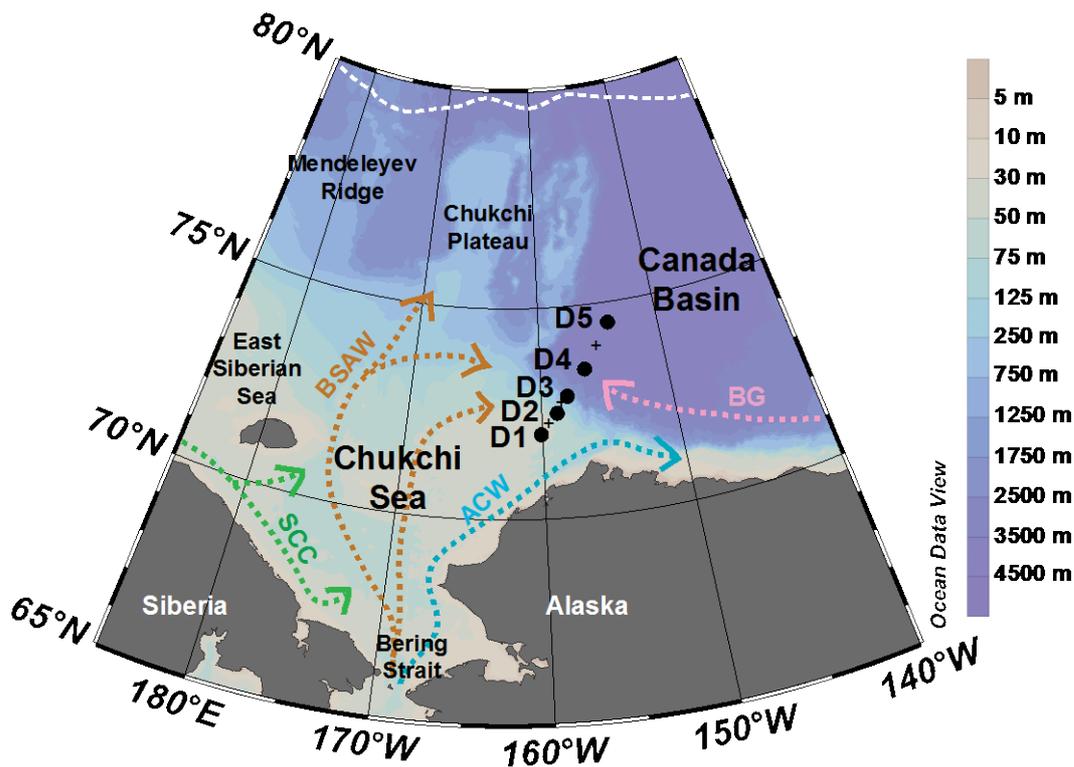
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182 **2. Methods**

183 **2.1. Study area and sample collection**

184 Seawater samples were collected from the western Arctic Ocean during the R/V *Mirai*
185 (Japan Agency for Marine Earth Science and Technology – JAMSTEC) MR12-E03 cruise
186 from September 15 to October 4, 2012 (Kikuchi, 2012; Fig. 1). The samples were obtained
187 using acid-cleaned, Teflon-coated 10-L Niskin-X sampling bottles with a Teflon sampling
188 spigot (General Oceanics) attached to a Conductivity Temperature Depth–Carousel Multiple
189 Sampler (CTD-CMS, SBE 911 Plus and SBE 32 carousel water sampler, Sea-Bird
190 Electronics, Inc.) and armored cable. All plastic apparatus used for this study were acid-
191 cleaned. Filtered ($< 0.22 \mu\text{m}$, Durapore cartridge Millipak 100, Millipore) and unfiltered
192 seawater samples were collected to determine the concentrations of dissolved trace metals

193 (D-metals: D-Mn, D-Fe, D-Ni, D-Zn and D-Cd) and total dissolvable trace metals (TD-
 194 metals: TD-Mn, TD-Fe, TD-Ni, TD-Zn and TD-Cd), respectively. Gravity filtration was
 195 performed for the filtered samples in a hangar deck of the ship immediately after recovering
 196 the Niskin-X sampling bottles. Since the seawater samples used for this study were obtained
 197 from the same Niskin-X sampling bottles at the same time as those used for previous Fe
 198 analyses (Hioki *et al.*, 2014), the seawater samples were identical between two studies. All
 199 samples were collected in 125-mL low-density polyethylene (LDPE, Nalgene) bottles and
 200 acidified to pH 1.5-1.6 with 0.5-mL trace-metal-grade HCl (Tampure AA100, Tama
 201 Chemical) in a class 100 clean air bench on board the research vessel. The acidified samples
 202 were stored at room temperature for over two years before the trace metals analyses were
 203 performed in a land-based laboratory.



204
 205 Fig. 1. Sampling locations (black filled circles) during R/V *Mirai* MR12-E03 cruise. Cross
 206 symbols indicate the locations that only hydrographic parameters and nutrients data were
 207 obtained. White dot-line indicates the location of ice edge during the observation. Dot-
 208 arrows indicate the surface water currents directions in this region (pink: Beaufort Gyre

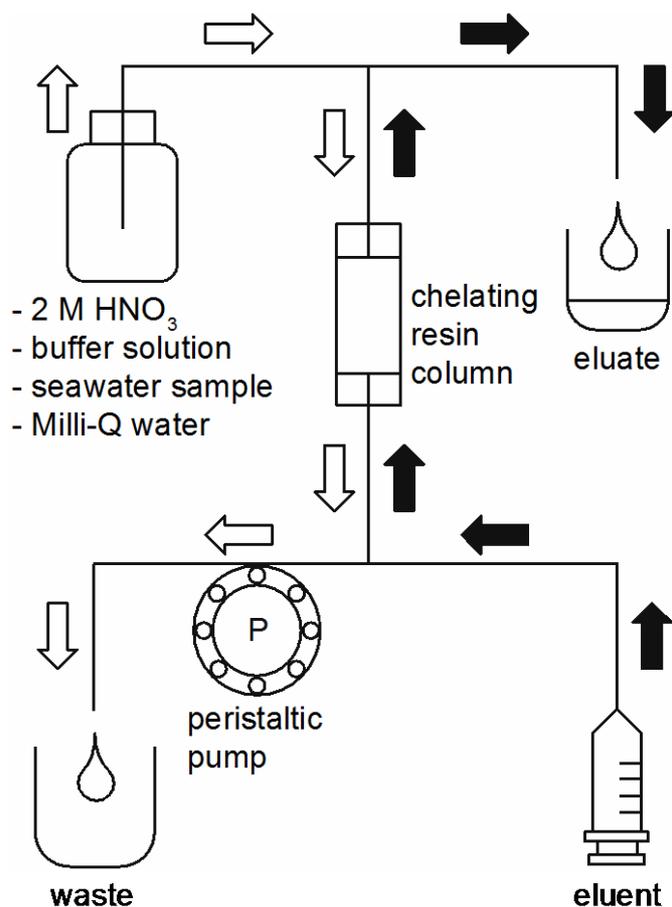
209 (BG), sand: Bering Shelf Anadyr Water (BSAW), cyan: Alaskan Coastal Water (ACW),
210 green: Siberian Coastal Current (SCC)).

211

212 **2.2. Trace metal analyses**

213 The concentrations of D-metals ([D-Mn], [D-Fe], [D-Ni], [D-Zn] and [D-Cd]) and TD-
214 metals ([TD-Mn], [TD-Fe], [TD-Ni], [TD-Zn] and [TD-Cd]) were determined using a
215 chelating resin preconcentration and inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-
216 MS) method adapted from Sohrin *et al.* (2008). Preparation of all reagents and samples was
217 carried out in a positive-pressure class 1000 clean room. All apparatus used for sample
218 preparation were acid-cleaned before use. For preconcentration of each sample, Nobias
219 Chelate-PA1 (Hitachi High-Technologies) resin was packed in a column of a 3-cm
220 perfluoroalkoxy alkane tube with a 1.8-cm in diameter. Acetic acid - ammonium acetate
221 buffer (pH of 6.0) was prepared by mixing trace-metal-grade NH₄OH (Tama pure AA100,
222 Tama Chemical) and glacial acetic acid (Optima, Fisher Chemical), where final concentration
223 of acetic acid plus acetate was 3.6 M. A 0.05 M acetate buffer was prepared by diluting the
224 3.6 M buffer solution. The Nobias Chelate-PA1 column was mounted in a manual
225 preconcentration system. Fig. 2 illustrates the procedure for the sample preconcentration and
226 extraction steps. Prior to the sample being loaded, the chelating resin column was cleaned
227 using >35 mL of 2 M HNO₃ (trace-metal-grade, Tama pure AA100, Tama Chemical) and
228 conditioned using 35 mL of 0.05 M acetate buffer solution. Then each seawater sample (24.5
229 mL) was delivered into the column with a peristaltic pump. After the seawater sample was
230 loaded, 17.5 mL of 0.05 M ammonium acetate buffer solution was passed through the column
231 to remove sea salt in the column. The trace metals were then eluted with 6 mL of 2 M HNO₃.
232 The system used for this study had four parallel lines and could process four samples
233 simultaneously. The flow rate was 3.5 mL/min for the sample, buffer solutions and acid for
234 the cleaning column; the flow rate for the eluent (6 mL of 2 M HNO₃) was 1.5 mL/min using

235 a Teflon syringe opposite the direction of sample loading. Consequently, each seawater
236 sample was concentrated 4.1 times into 2 M HNO₃. Concentrations of D-metals or TD-metals
237 in the eluent were determined with a Thermo Scientific ELEMENT XR mass spectrometer
238 using the medium resolution mode in a clean room; a calibration curve method was applied
239 using a diluted metal standard solution (ICP-MS Multi-Element Solution, SPEX) prepared in
240 2 M HNO₃. The isotopes measured for the determinations were ⁵⁵Mn, ⁵⁷Fe, ⁶⁰Ni, ⁶⁸Zn and
241 ¹¹⁴Cd. Other isotopes for Fe (⁵⁶Fe), Ni (⁶¹Ni and ⁶²Ni), Zn (⁶⁶Zn and ⁶⁷Zn) and Cd (¹¹¹Cd and
242 ¹¹²Cd) were also measured to cross-check the results. For this study, the detection limits,
243 defined as three times the standard deviation of the blank seawater measurements ($n = 4-8$),
244 were 0.012 nM, 0.25 nM, 0.091 nM, 0.19 nM and 0.095 nM for Mn, Fe, Ni, Zn and Cd,
245 respectively. The standard seawater samples GEOTRACES GD and SAFe D2 (Johnson *et al.*,
246 2007) were run as quality control checks for the data (Table 1), and the results were within or
247 near the ranges of the most recent consensus values (GEOTRACES website (2015):
248 <http://www.geotraces.org/science/intercalibration>).



249

250 Fig. 2. Diagram of the preconcentration system of trace metals. White arrows mean the flow
 251 direction when seawater sample is introduced to the chelating resin column. Black
 252 arrows mean the one when eluent pass through the column.

253

254 2.3. Hydrographic data

255 Temperature and salinity were measured with a CTD probe. Data for chlorophyll *a* and
 256 dissolved oxygen concentrations were obtained with a chlorophyll fluorometer and an oxygen
 257 sensor, respectively. The concentrations of nutrients (indicated with square brackets: [NO₃⁻],
 258 [NO₂⁻], [NH₄⁺], [PO₄³⁻] and [Si(OH)₄]) were measured with a QuAatro system by Marine
 259 Works Japan. Details of these analytical methods are provided in the cruise report for the R/V
 260 *Mirai* cruise MR12-E03 (Kikuchi, 2012). The report and data are available to the public
 261 through the JAMSTEC data website (<http://www.godac.jamstec.go.jp/darwin/e>).

262

263 3. Results

264 3.1. Hydrography

265 Fig. 3 is a temperature–salinity diagram that shows the existence of several water
266 masses in the study area, which is consistent with the findings of previous studies (Shimada
267 *et al.*, 2005; Codispoti *et al.*, 2005; Wang *et al.*, 2006; Cid *et al.*, 2012; Aguilar-Islas *et al.*,
268 2013; Hioki *et al.*, 2014). We divided these masses into four types based on salinity and
269 potential density (σ_{θ}): (1) Pacific Summer Water (PSW), which extends from the surface to
270 depths of ~ 10–75 m, and has salinity ≤ 32.0 and $\sigma_{\theta} \leq 25.6$; (2) the Upper Halocline Layer
271 (UHL), which has salinity of 32.0–33.6 and σ_{θ} of 25.7–27.0; (3) the Lower Halocline Layer
272 (LHL) with salinity of 33.6–34.5 and σ_{θ} of 27.1–27.7; and (4) Atlantic Water (AW) with
273 salinity ≥ 34.6 and $\sigma_{\theta} \geq 27.8$. In this study, the UHL and LHL together are defined as HL.
274 Note that the near-bottom waters at Stns. D1 and D2 were within the UHL in this study.

275 Distributions of potential temperature, salinity, σ_{θ} , dissolved oxygen and nutrients are
276 shown in Fig. 4. The surface area of sea ice covering the Arctic Ocean reached its lowest
277 recorded extent in the summer of 2012 (National Snow and Ice Data Center (NSIDC)
278 (http://nsidc.org/data/seaice_index/)) when our observations and sample collection were
279 performed. Our sampling site was over 500 km from the nearest ice edge. However, sea ice
280 persisted until September around Wrangel Island between the Chukchi Sea and East Siberian
281 Sea in 2012, Nishino *et al.* (2016) found the large fraction of sea-ice meltwater relative to a
282 more typical year in the Chukchi Sea using a calculated fraction of sea-ice meltwater (f_{SIM})
283 from the relationship between potential alkalinity (total alkalinity + nitrate – ammonium) and
284 salinity (Yamamoto-Kawai *et al.*, 2009). In this study, salinity in the surface water (5-m
285 depth) was generally low (25.1–28.2); the lowest value was observed from the offshore
286 station (Stn. D5). Although inflows of meteoric fresh water and low-salinity Pacific-origin
287 water through the Bering Strait are likely to influence the distribution of salinity in this study
288 area (e.g., Shimada *et al.*, 2005; Yamamoto-Kawai *et al.*, 2008), the f_{SIM} in the surface water

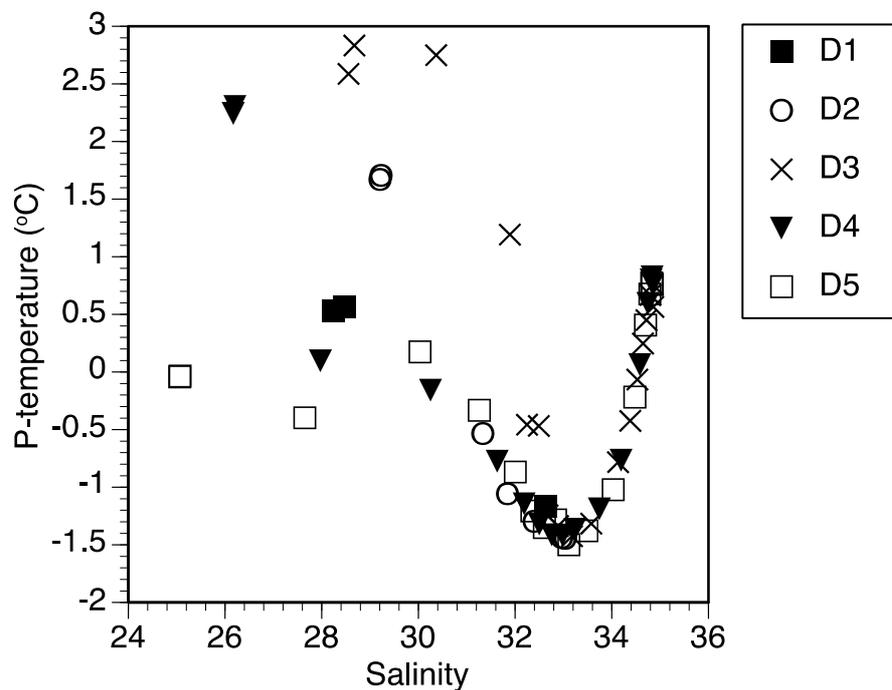
289 at Stn. D5 was higher ($f_{SIM} = 0.06$) than those at adjacent stations ($f_{SIM} = 0.02$ – 0.05) except
290 for Stn. D1 ($f_{SIM} = 0.08$), suggesting that the surface water at Stn. D5 was relatively
291 influenced by sea-ice melting (Japan Agency for Marine-Earth and Technology (2016) Data
292 Research System for Whole Cruise information in JAMSTEC). These things indicate the
293 presence of freshwater input from rivers and melting sea-ice via Ekman transport associated
294 with the Beaufort Gyre (Proshutinsky *et al.*, 2009).

295 The cold halocline water forms a barrier to mixing of the Pacific-origin surface waters
296 and underlying Atlantic waters. All nutrients analyzed had maxima in the UHL, although the
297 patterns of their vertical profiles were variable among them. In the PSW, dissolved inorganic
298 nitrogen (DIN, sum of NO_3^- , NO_2^- and NH_4^+) was largely depleted relative to PO_4^{3-} at all
299 stations, which suggests that phytoplankton growth may be limited by nitrogen in this area;
300 this finding is consistent with previous studies of this region (Codispoti *et al.*, 2005; Wang *et*
301 *al.*, 2006; Brown *et al.*, 2015). Indeed, chlorophyll *a* concentration never exceeded $0.5 \mu\text{g/L}$
302 at all stations; its maximum was observed at 10–20-m depths at Stns. D1, D2 and D3, 50-m
303 depth at Stn. D4 and 100-m depth at Stn. D5 (Table 2). Because a subsurface chlorophyll
304 maximum exceeding $1 \mu\text{g/L}$ was found over the Chukchi Shelf region in August (Hill *et al.*,
305 2005; Wang *et al.*, 2006), a decline in phytoplankton blooming during our observational
306 period can be presumed. Below the PSW, $[\text{NO}_3^-]$ increased to as high as $16 \mu\text{M}$ in the UHL,
307 and then decreased to $\sim 13 \mu\text{M}$ in the AW. Contour plots of $[\text{NO}_2^-]$ and $[\text{NH}_4^+]$ in 2D
308 sections revealed that these nutrients had clear maxima in the UHL near the shelf and slope
309 regions of the Chukchi Sea. In particular, $[\text{NH}_4^+]$ frequently accumulated ($> 1 \mu\text{M}$) in the
310 UHL, as reported in previous studies (Codispoti *et al.*, 2005; Connelly *et al.*, 2014; Brown *et*
311 *al.*, 2015). Brown *et al.* (2015) investigated the stable isotopes of oxygen (^{16}O and ^{18}O) and
312 nitrogen (^{14}N and ^{15}N) of NO_3^- , which suggested that the main source of the accumulated
313 NH_4^+ near the bottom water in the Chukchi Sea shelf region was sedimentary input, not the
314 degradation of organic matter in the water column. In contrast with DIN, both PO_4^{3-} and

315 Si(OH)_4 were replete in the study area. There were clear maxima in the UHL for both $[\text{PO}_4^{3-}]$
316 and $[\text{Si(OH)}_4]$, and the highest values were observed in the UHL at Stn. D3 where dissolved
317 oxygen concentration was low. Interestingly, $[\text{Si(OH)}_4]$ in the PSW at Stns. D4 and D5 were
318 lower than those at Stns. D1, D2 and D3, whereas other nutrients, such as PO_4^{3-} , did not show
319 this trend. Tovar-Sánchez *et al.* (2010) reported that concentrations of total phosphorus and
320 nitrogen in Arctic sea ice were $\sim 24\%$ and $\sim 70\%$ of those in surface seawater, respectively,
321 whereas the concentrations of Si(OH)_4 were only $\sim 5\%$ of those in the surface water. These
322 results also reflect the influence of sea-ice melting at the Canada Basin stations (Stns. D4 and
323 D5) during our observations.

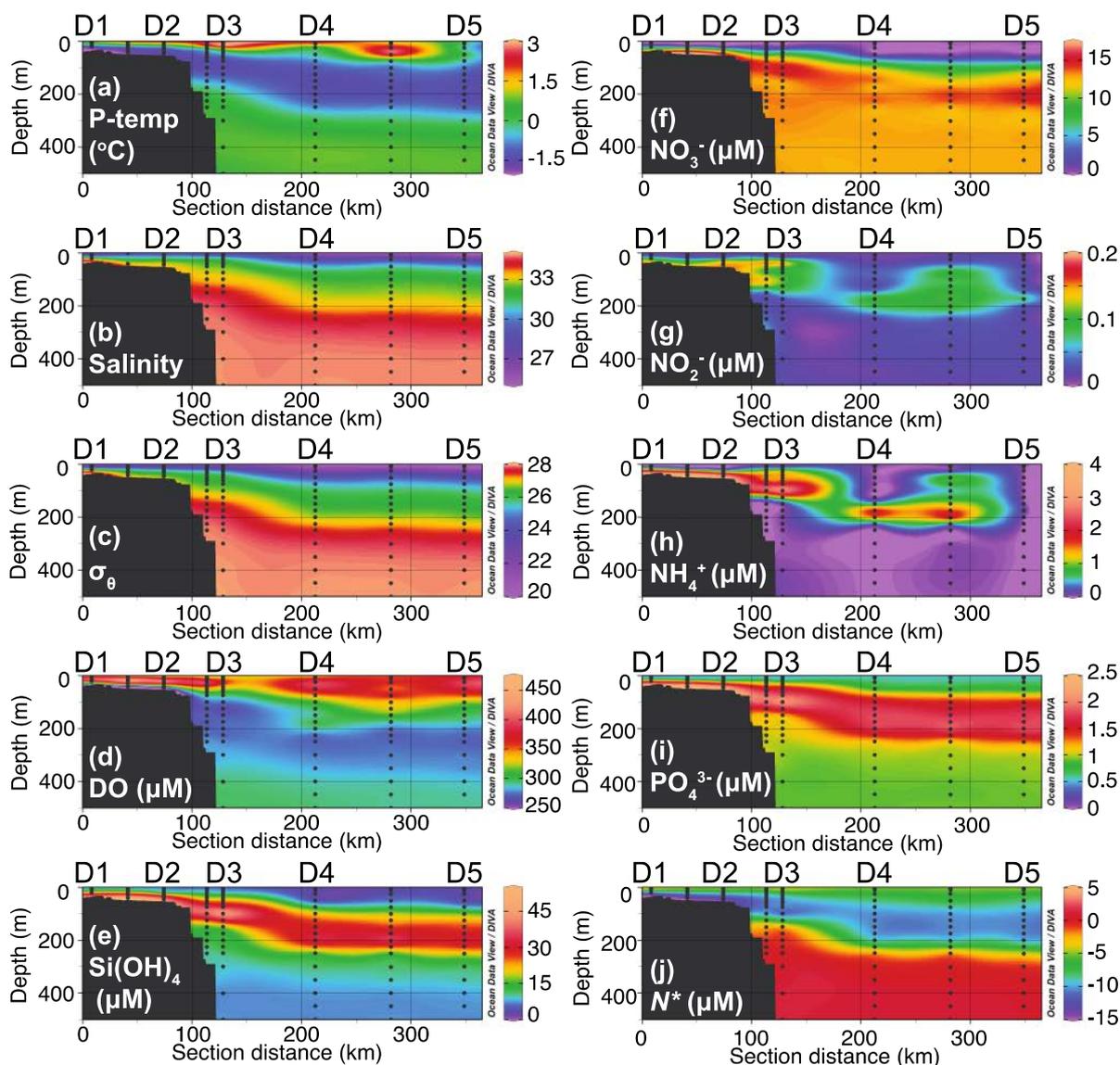
324 Fig. 4 also shows the 2D section of N^* , which is a commonly used metric to assess the
325 degree of deficiency or excess of nitrogen in a water mass relative to phosphorus, originally
326 defined as $N^* = ([\text{NO}_3^-] - 16[\text{PO}_4^{3-}] + 2.9) \times 0.87$ (Gruber and Sarmiento, 1997). Because
327 DIN includes NO_2^- and NH_4^+ in addition to NO_3^- , we adopt a definition where $N^* = ([\text{DIN}] -$
328 $16[\text{PO}_4^{3-}] + 2.9) \times 0.87$ for the western Arctic Ocean (Nishino *et al.*, 2005). A negative N^*
329 indicates DIN loss or PO_4^{3-} input for a region, whereas a positive N^* indicates DIN input or
330 PO_4^{3-} loss. Consequently, a water mass with a high N^* value generally has high nitrogen
331 input through nitrogen fixation, and one with a low N^* value is generally nitrogen deficient
332 from sedimentary and/or water column denitrification. In the study area, N^* was negative in
333 the PSW and HL (Hioki *et al.*, 2014), which is consistent with the findings of previous
334 studies of the Chukchi Sea (e.g., Nishino *et al.*, 2005; Connelly *et al.*, 2014); in fact, the
335 Chukchi Shelf is considered to have some of the lowest N^* values globally (Deutsch and
336 Weber, 2012). N^* in the UHL was lower than in other water masses, and the lowest N^* was
337 observed near the bottom at the shelf break station (Stn. D2). Because dissolved oxygen
338 concentrations in the study area were too high to enable denitrification in the water column,
339 the low N^* suggests that the water mass was influenced by sedimentary denitrification and/or

340 anammox. In contrast, however, N^* in the AW was found to show positive values, which
341 reflects the difference between Pacific- and Atlantic-origin waters in this area.



342

343 Fig. 3. Temperature - salinity diagram from the sampling sites in this study.



344

345 Fig. 4. Upper 500 m vertical sections from Stns. D1 to D5 for (a) potential temperature (P-
 346 temp), (b) salinity, (c) potential density (σ_{θ}), (d) dissolved oxygen (DO), (e)
 347 $\text{Si}(\text{OH})_4$, (f) NO_3^- , (g) NO_2^- , (h) NH_4^+ , (i) PO_4^{3-} and (j) N^* . N^* was calculated from
 348 the following equation; $N^* = ([\text{DIN}] - 16[\text{PO}_4^{3-}] + 2.9) \times 0.87$ (see text).

349

350 3.2. Dissolved trace metals (D-metals) in the Chukchi Sea and Canada Basin

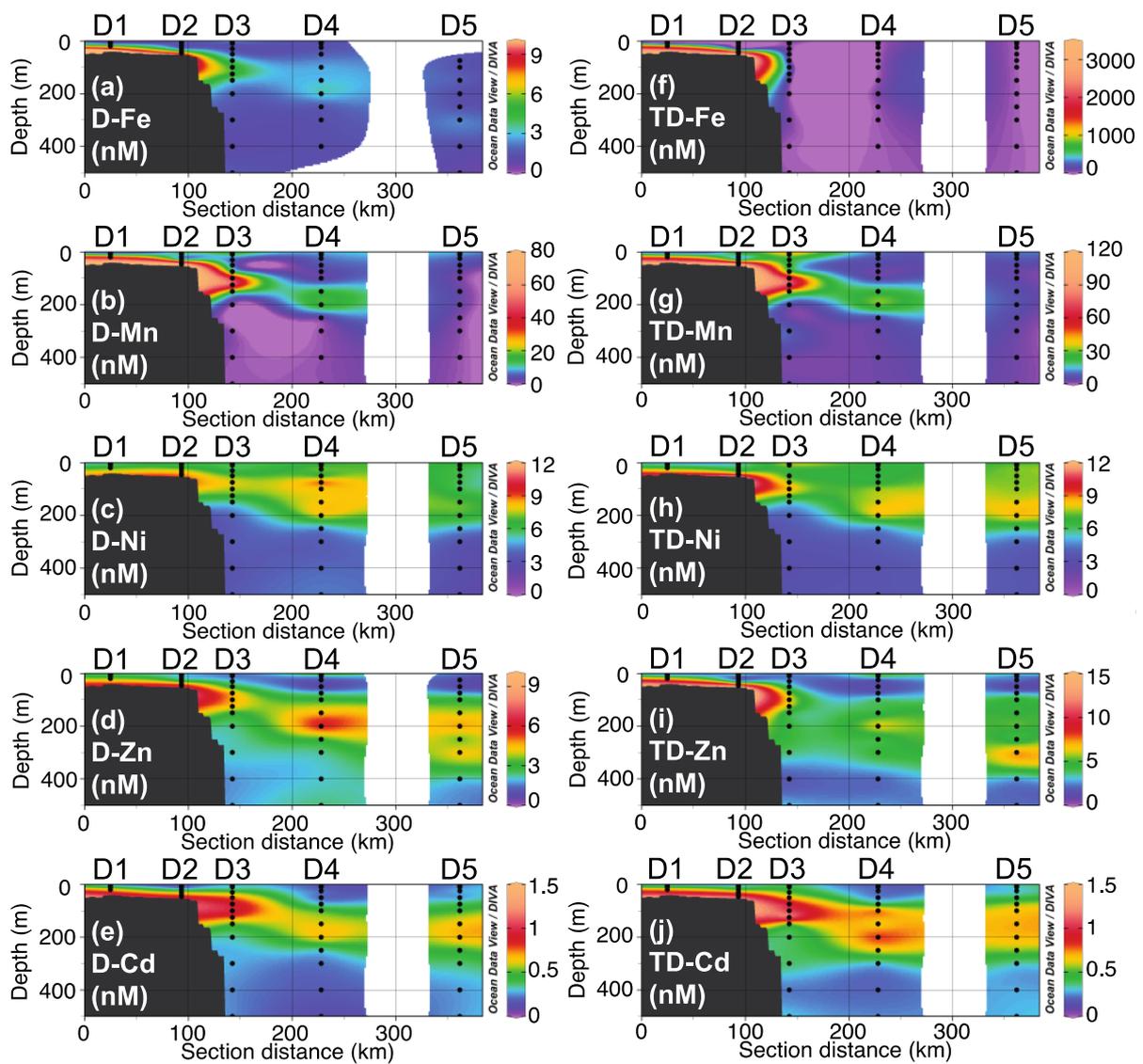
351 The spatial distributions of D-metals are shown in Figs. 5 and 6, and the corresponding
 352 datasets are given in Table 2. The [D-Fe] ranged from 0.78 to 8.26 nM. In the PSW, [D-Fe]
 353 was high, with an average of 1.52 ± 0.42 nM ($n = 13$) including the samples from the Canada
 354 Basin (Stn. D4). The [D-Fe] reached its peak in the surface water (5-m depth) at all stations

355 except for Stn. D5, where [D-Fe] could not be determined because of contamination; the
356 highest surface [D-Fe], 2.65 nM, was found at the Chukchi Sea shelf slope (Stn. D3). Below
357 the surface, [D-Fe] decreased to minima near the subsurface chlorophyll maximum layers at
358 Stns. D1, D2 and D3, which suggest Fe consumption by phytoplankton (Table 2). Then, [D-
359 Fe] began to increase with depth in the UHL, and an especially high [D-Fe] of over 6 nM was
360 found only near the bottom in the Chukchi Sea. The highest [D-Fe] was observed near the
361 bottom in the vicinity of the Chukchi Sea shelf break (Stn. D2). It was also recognized based
362 on the relationship between [D-Fe] and salinity that the highest [D-Fe] was observed around
363 salinity of ~ 33.6 , which occurred at the boundary between the UHL and LHL (Fig. 7). This
364 trend was also observed in the relationships between nutrients such as $[\text{PO}_4^{3-}]$ and salinity
365 (Fig. 7), although the relationship between [D-Fe] and salinity was more complex. Within the
366 UHL, [D-Fe] gradually decreased with distance from the shelf (see section 4.3); the peak of
367 [D-Fe] in the UHL was no longer apparent at Stn. D5 (Fig. 6). In the AW, the [D-Fe] ranged
368 from 0.78 to 2.34 nM, and there was no clear trend in the distribution patterns between
369 stations.

370 The [D-Mn] covered a broad range from 0.34 to 81.4 nM (Figs. 5, 6 and Table 2),
371 which fall within the range determined in a previous study of the western Arctic (Cid *et al.*,
372 2012). Except for Stn. D1, the vertical distribution of [D-Mn] had 2 peaks: one in the surface
373 water and a second in the UHL. In the surface water (5-m depth), the [D-Mn] ranged from
374 8.21 to 15.0 nM with a mean of 10.81 ± 3.46 nM ($n = 5$); concentrations over 10 nM were
375 observed at Stns. D2 and D3. The maximum [D-Mn] occurred in the surface water at all
376 stations except for Stn. D1. The bottom depth was shallow (30 m) at Stn. D1; therefore, the
377 decreasing trend of [D-Mn] with depth could not be observed. A maximum [D-Mn] at the
378 surface is typical and well-recognized across the world ocean, including in the Arctic Ocean
379 (Campbell and Yeats, 1982; Yeats, 1988; Middag *et al.*, 2011). This trend can be attributed
380 not only to riverine and atmospheric inputs, but also to photochemical reduction of Mn

381 oxides and light inhibition of microbial Mn oxidation (Sunda and Huntsman, 1988). Below
382 the surface water, [D-Mn] tended to decrease with depth through the PSW. In the UHL, [D-
383 Mn] began to increase with depth to a sharp peak in the UHL. The highest [D-Mn] (81.3 nM)
384 was found in the near-bottom water at Stn. D2. A [D-Mn] over 57 nM was also found in the
385 UHL at Stn. D3. The depths of [D-Mn] subsurface maxima generally correspond to the
386 depths of [D-Fe] peaks in the UHL. As was noted for [D-Fe], the [D-Mn] in the UHL also
387 gradually decreased with distance from the shelf break (Fig. 6, see section 4.3). In the AW,
388 [D-Mn] began to decrease with depth with features of the scavenging-type distribution. The
389 lowest value was observed in the deepest sample (500-m depth) in the AW at Stn. D5, which
390 is consistent with expectations because it is the station farthest from the shelf break, and
391 therefore farthest from the source of Mn in the study area.

392 The ranges of the [D-Ni], [D-Zn] and [D-Cd] were 2.66–9.28 nM, 0.58–6.04 nM and
393 0.11–0.99 nM, respectively (Figs. 5, 6 and Table 2); which also are values consistent with the
394 previously reported values for this area (Cid *et al.*, 2012). The relationships detected between
395 salinity and [D-Ni], [D-Zn], [D-Cd] or [PO₄³⁻] indicate that the maxima of [PO₄³⁻] and the
396 nutrient-type trace metals occurred in the UHL (Fig. 7). The ranges of [D-Ni], [D-Zn] and
397 [D-Cd] within the UHL were similar between the Chukchi Shelf region and the Canada Basin,
398 and correspond to the range of [PO₄³⁻]. However, there were several disagreements with
399 [PO₄³⁻] distribution in the [D-Zn] and [D-Ni] data. In the PSW of the Canada Basin (Stn. 4),
400 [D-Zn] and [D-Ni] had peaks near the surface (5-m depth), but this feature was not found in
401 the [D-Cd] or [PO₄³⁻]. In particular, [D-Ni] values in the PSW were generally high ($6.37 \pm$
402 0.91 nM, $n = 17$) and similar to those in the UHL (7.46 ± 0.77 nM, $n = 14$). In the AW, [D-
403 Ni], [D-Zn] and [D-Cd] were relatively uniform with depth, and there were no significant
404 differences between sampling stations. Interestingly, [D-Ni] in the AW was considerably
405 lower than in the other water masses, which was not the case for [D-Zn] and [D-Cd].



406

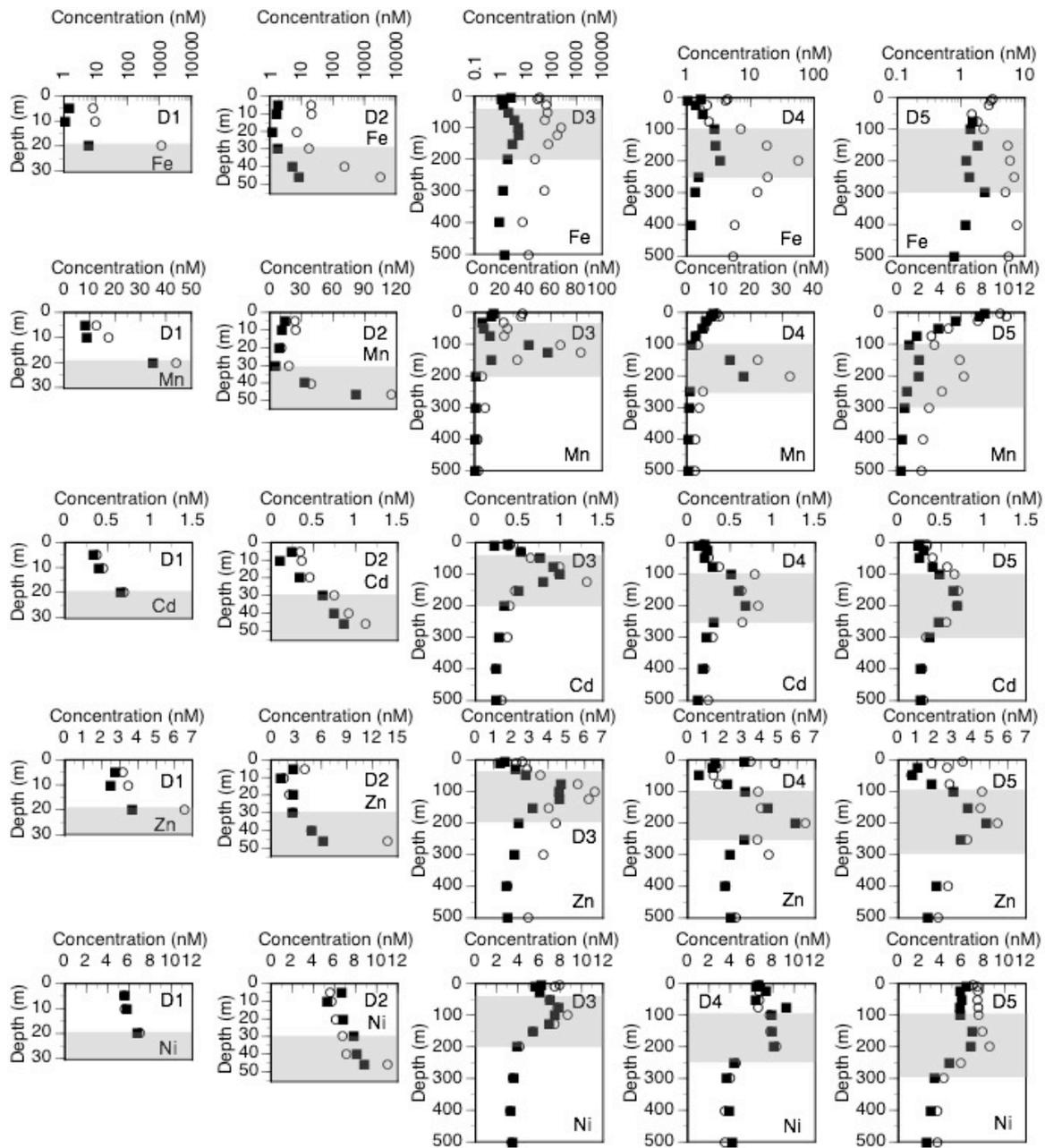
407 Fig. 5. Upper 500 m vertical sections of trace metal concentrations from Stns. D1 to D5; (a)

408 D-Fe, (b) D-Mn, (c) D-Ni, (d) D-Zn, (e) D-Cd, (f) TD-Fe, (g) TD-Mn, (h) TD-Ni, (i)

409

TD-Zn and (j) TD-Cd.

410



411

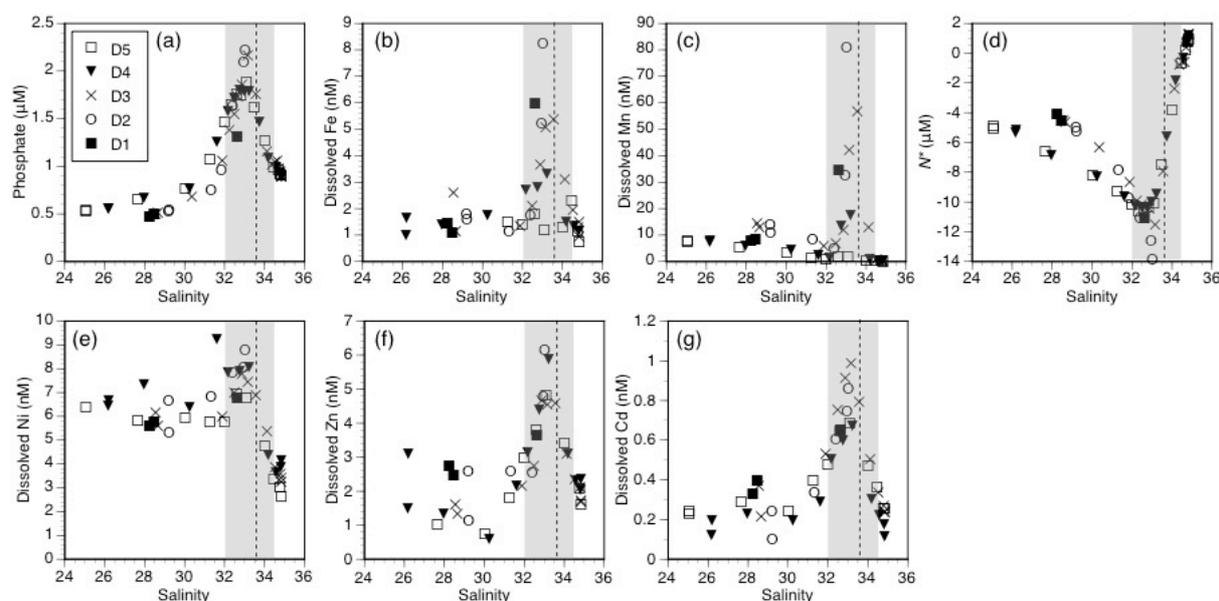
412 Fig. 6. Vertical distributions of trace metals for dissolved (filled square) and total dissolvable

413 (open circle) fractions in each sampling station. Gray areas indicate the HL

414 (combination of the UHL and LHL). Bottom depths at Stns. D1 and D2 are 30-m and

415 55-m, respectively.

416



417

418 Fig. 7. Relationships between salinity and (a) $[\text{PO}_4^{3-}]$, (b) $[\text{D-Fe}]$, (c) $[\text{D-Mn}]$, (d) N^* , (e) $[\text{D-Ni}]$, (f) $[\text{D-Zn}]$ or (g) $[\text{D-Cd}]$. The water masses were divided into 4 groups (PSW,
 419 UHL, LHL and AW) using salinity (see text). Gray areas indicate the HL (combination
 420 of the UHL and LHL). Broken lines indicate the boundary between the UHL and LHL.
 421

422

423 3.3. Total dissolvable trace metals (TD-metals) in the Chukchi Sea and Canada Basin

424 The vertical distribution patterns were generally similar between D-metals and TD-
 425 metals, the maxima of which were also observed in the UHL (Figs. 5, 6, and Table 2).
 426 However, the behaviors of the dissolved and total dissolvable fractions were different
 427 between trace metals. In the case of Fe, the $[\text{TD-Fe}]$ was much higher than $[\text{D-Fe}]$ and varied
 428 substantially with depth (Fig. 6, Table 1); $[\text{TD-Fe}]$ ranged from 1.47 to 3276 nM, and the
 429 ratio of dissolved to total dissolvable Fe fractions ($[\text{D-Fe}]/[\text{TD-Fe}]$) dramatically changed
 430 (0.003–0.841). Exceedingly high $[\text{TD-Fe}]$ values were found from Stns. D1 and D2 (1173
 431 and 3276 nM, respectively), and the $[\text{D-Fe}]/[\text{TD-Fe}]$ ratios for these waters were low (0.003–
 432 0.005). In addition, $[\text{TD-Fe}]$ as high as 253 nM was found in the UHL at Stn. D3 with low
 433 $[\text{D-Fe}]/[\text{TD-Fe}]$ (0.02). In contrast, at Stn. D5, the maximum $[\text{TD-Fe}]$ in the UHL decreased
 434 to 5.87 nM at 200-m depth, with a $[\text{D-Fe}]/[\text{TD-Fe}]$ ratio for the sample increased to 0.21.
 435 These results suggest that Fe in the study area existed mainly in labile particulate form (LP-

436 Fe, [LP-Fe] = [TD-Fe] – [D-Fe]) in seawater with high Fe concentrations. [TD-Mn] ranged
437 from 2.28 to 115 nM, and [D-Mn]/[TD-Mn] was also variable with depth at the same stations
438 (0.082–0.99). The [TD-Mn] maxima were observed within the UHL at all stations except for
439 Stn. D5, as was the case for [TD-Fe]. At Stn. D5, the highest [TD-Mn] was observed near the
440 surface (5-m depth). The [TD-Mn] in the UHL decreased with distance from the shelf break
441 from 115 nM (Stn. D2) to 6.26 nM (Stn. D5). Within ~ 270 km of the Chukchi Sea shelf
442 break, both [TD-Fe] and [TD-Mn] in the UHL decreased dramatically by factors of ~ 480 and
443 ~ 27, respectively. Near the bottom of the Chukchi Sea shelf break station (Stn. D2), where
444 all of trace metals concentrations reached their maxima, the [D-metal]/[TD-metal] ratio of
445 Mn (0.707) was much higher than that of Fe (0.003).

446 The maxima of [TD-Ni], [TD-Zn] and [TD-Cd] were also found in the UHL. Although
447 the [D-metal]/[TD-metal] ratios ranged widely in this study (0.72–1.4 for Ni, 0.32–1.3 for Zn
448 and 0.29–1.2 for Cd), the distribution pattern of [TD-Ni], [TD-Zn] and [TD-Cd] were similar
449 to those of the respective dissolved fractions. These results indicate that at the time of the
450 study, Ni, Zn and Cd mainly existed in dissolved forms in the western Arctic Ocean, which
451 are consistent with the findings of Cid *et al.* (2012). Low [D-metal]/[TD-metal] ratios were
452 observed near the bottom water and/or around subsurface chlorophyll maxima, which suggest
453 that trace metal concentrations are affected by suspended sedimentary and/or biogenic
454 particles. At some depths, [D-metal]/[TD-metal] ratios were higher than 1.0 (Table 1), which
455 imply that recovery of these metals from unfiltered samples may not be sufficient.

456

457 **4. Discussion**

458 Our results show that both the dissolved and total dissolvable fractions of trace metals
459 (Mn, Fe, Ni, Zn and Cd) had concentration maxima in the UHL in the western Arctic Ocean,
460 and that especially high concentrations of Fe and Mn were observed in the Chukchi Sea
461 continental shelf region (Figs. 5 and 6). These trends are generally consistent with the

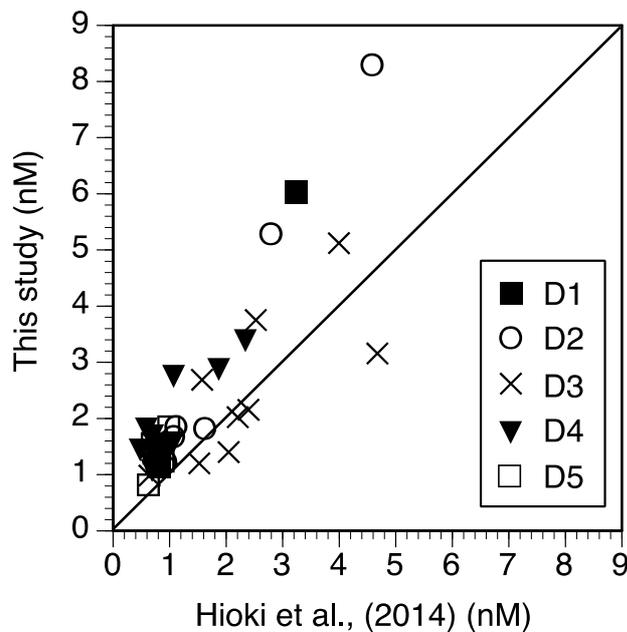
462 findings of previous studies of this area (Nakayama *et al.*, 2011; Nishimura *et al.*, 2012; Cid
463 *et al.*, 2012; Aguilar-Islas *et al.*, 2013; Hioki *et al.*, 2014). However, we found that the
464 concentrations of [D-Fe] from our samples were higher than those of Hioki *et al.* (2014),
465 whose seawater samples were collected on the same cruise (section 4.1). In the following
466 sections, we discuss the sources of trace metals (section 4.2), offshore transportation (section
467 4.3) and the implications of these trends in the Chukchi Sea and Canada Basin (section 4.4).

468

469 **4.1. Comparison of Fe concentration results with previous study results**

470 Reported [D-Fe] and [TD-Fe] values from previous studies of the western Arctic Ocean
471 have varied widely: 0.36–33.1 nM and 0.8–89000 nM, respectively (Nakayama *et al.*, 2011;
472 Nishimura *et al.*, 2012; Cid *et al.*, 2012; Aguilar-Islas *et al.*, 2013; Hioki *et al.*, 2014). Our
473 dataset for both [D-Fe] and [TD-Fe] fall within these ranges, although the concentration we
474 report are higher than those of Hioki *et al.* (2014) (Fig. 8). As mentioned in the method
475 section, the seawater samples analyzed for this study and those analyzed by Hioki *et al.*
476 (2014) were obtained from the same sampling bottles simultaneously. However, values of
477 [D-Fe] in this study are 1.6 ± 0.5 ($n = 37$) times higher than those of Hioki *et al.* (2014) (Fig.
478 8). The chelating resin preconcentration and ICP-MS method (adapted from Sohrin *et al.*,
479 2008) was used to measure trace metals simultaneously in this study, whereas Hioki *et al.*
480 (2014) used an automated Fe analyzer with a combination of chelating resin preconcentration
481 and a luminol–hydrogen peroxide chemiluminescence detection method (Obata *et al.*, 1997).
482 Nonetheless, the Fe detection methods of both studies were applied successfully with
483 reference seawaters, such as the SAFe and GEOTRACES standard waters. The profiles
484 produced by both studies are not erratic but oceanographically consistent. We believe that
485 both datasets represent the chemically-labile dissolved fractions of Fe in seawater. However,
486 the sample preservation periods and degree of acidification were significantly different
487 between these two studies; the seawater samples used in this study were stored for over two

488 years at pH 1.5–1.6, whereas the samples used by Hioki *et al.* (2014) were stored at pH 1.7–
 489 1.8 for three months prior to analyses. Based on the low [D-Fe]/[TD-Fe] ratios determined in
 490 this study, there may be abundant colloidal particles in the western Arctic Ocean, especially
 491 in the Chukchi Sea continental shelf/slope region. Previous studies also observed higher
 492 concentrations of TD-Fe compared to D-Fe (Nakayama *et al.*, 2012; Cid *et al.*, 2012;
 493 Aguilar-Islas *et al.*, 2013; Hioki *et al.*, 2014). Because the preservation period for seawater
 494 samples was much longer for this study, some chemically labile components were released
 495 from colloidal particles in the filtered seawater samples over that two-year period. Further
 496 research is required to evaluate the impact of sample preservation periods on trace metal
 497 concentrations, especially for samples from coastal shelf regions such as the Chukchi Sea.



498
 499 Fig. 8. Comparison of [D-Fe] in the western Arctic Ocean between Hioki *et al.* (2014) and
 500 this study. A solid line indicates 1:1 ratio.

501

502 4.2. Sources of trace metals in the western Arctic Ocean

503 Our results show that all of the analyzed trace metals (Fe, Mn, Ni, Zn and Cd) had
 504 characteristic distributions in the western Arctic Ocean in the late summer of 2012, and
 505 generally these trace metals were present at high concentrations; halocline water was the

506 most enriched in Mn, Ni, Zn, Cd, Fe and nutrients. The trends in the relationships between D-
507 metals and PO_4^{3-} concentrations reflect the distinct properties of each trace metal in the ocean
508 interior (Fig. 9). [D-Ni], [D-Zn] and [D-Cd] were more strongly correlated with $[\text{PO}_4^{3-}]$ than
509 were [D-Fe] or [D-Mn], which suggest that the distributions of D-Ni, D-Zn and D-Cd were
510 generally controlled by the internal biogeochemical cycles of the ocean interior that also
511 affect PO_4^{3-} , whereas the distributions of D-Fe and D-Mn were more strongly influenced by
512 external sources and/or removal of trace metals from the water column. Similar properties
513 were also suggested based on studies of other continental shelf regions such as the central
514 California Current System (Biller and Bruland, 2013).

515 Iron is well-known as a controlling factor of phytoplankton stocks in a wide range of
516 oceanic environments (e.g., Moore *et al.*, 2013). However, the growth of phytoplankton in
517 this study area is generally recognized as limited by nitrogen during the summer, as discussed
518 above. Our results suggest that [D-Fe] in the PSW in the western Arctic Ocean was generally
519 higher than those in other Arctic basins, such as the Nansen Basin and the Amundsen Basin
520 (Klunder *et al.*, 2012a), but similar to those of adjacent areas such as the northern Bering Sea
521 shelf (Nishimura *et al.*, 2012). In the central Arctic Ocean, Klunder *et al.* (2012b) found
522 minima of [D-Fe] near the surface, which suggest depletion of D-Fe by phytoplankton
523 growth. For this study, we calculate an index Fe^* ($Fe^* = [\text{D-Fe}] - 0.47 [\text{PO}_4^{3-}]$) to quantify
524 the degree of Fe limitation on phytoplankton growth relative to $[\text{PO}_4^{3-}]$ (Parekh *et al.*, 2005).
525 Positive Fe^* generally implies adequate [D-Fe] to support the complete biological utilization
526 of PO_4^{3-} , while negative Fe^* indicates a Fe deficit relative to PO_4^{3-} (Parekh *et al.*, 2005). In
527 this study, Fe^* in all samples had positive values (0.32–7.21, $n = 39$), which suggest that Fe
528 was replete for phytoplankton growth even relative to PO_4^{3-} in the western Arctic Ocean
529 during late summer 2012. Furthermore, among the water masses considered in this study, Fe^*
530 was lowest in the AW, which emphasizes the importance of the Pacific-origin waters that
531 pass over the continental shelf as a major source of Fe in the western Arctic Ocean.

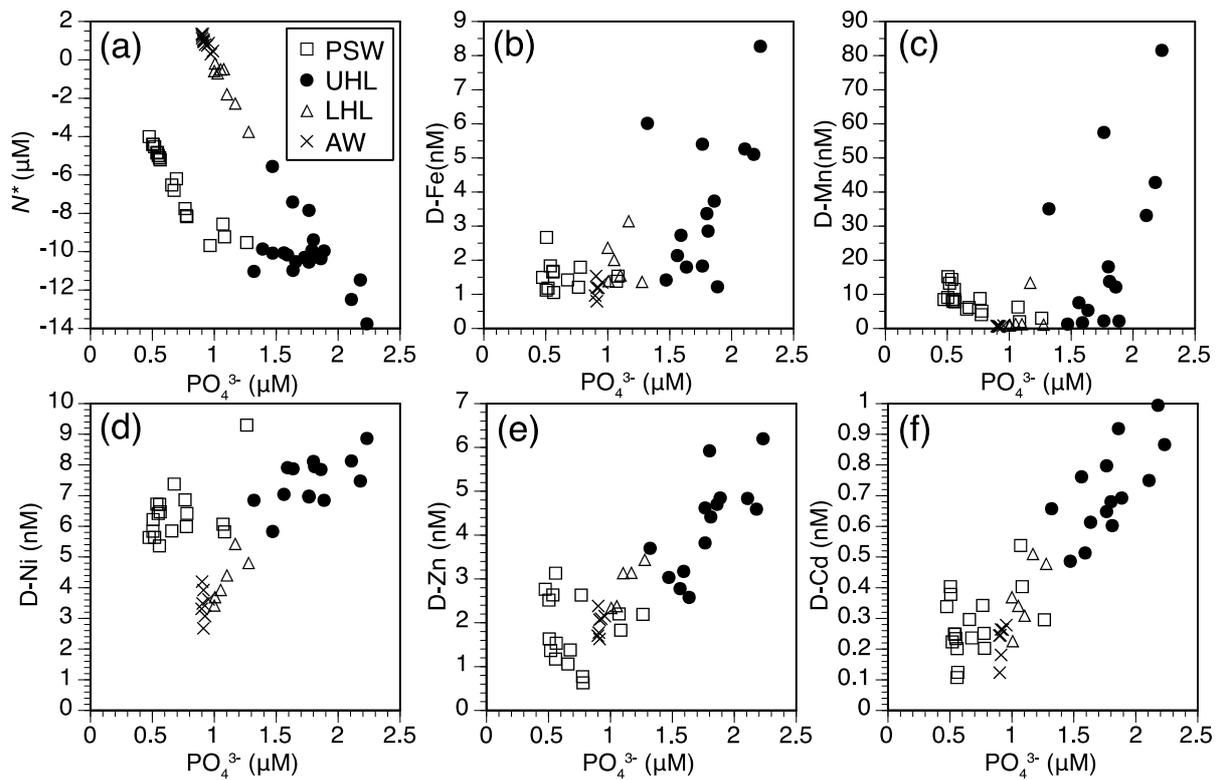
532 Previous studies of this region have suggested several potential external sources of
533 trace metals: re-suspension of sediment particles from the shelf, sea-ice melting, river
534 discharge and water inflow from the Bering Strait (Nishimura *et al.*, 2012; Cid *et al.*, 2012;
535 Aguilar-Islas *et al.*, 2013; Hioki *et al.*, 2014). As discussed above, Hioki *et al.* (2014) have
536 demonstrated a scheme of the sources and processes responsible for lateral transport of Fe in
537 the western Arctic; the cold and dense waters that characterize the UHL have high levels of
538 Fe, nutrients and dissolved organic matter from interaction with shelf sediment and from
539 brine production by the formation of sea ice in the fall and winter. Because there is a positive
540 correlation between [D-Fe] and [D-Mn] in the UHL (Fig. 10), similar processes may also
541 operate in D-Mn distribution, especially in the UHL. Among the potential external sources
542 mentioned above, sedimentary input was the most important source of all trace metals,
543 especially Fe and Mn. In the bottom layer over the sea floor, D-Fe and D-Mn are expected to
544 be supplied in their reduced forms, Fe(II) and Mn(II), from the suboxic and/or anoxic
545 sediments. Reduced Fe(II) is then oxidized to the less soluble Fe(III) in the oxic water
546 column, and some are complexed with the natural organic ligands such as humic substances
547 (Lohan and Bruland, 2008). Recently, many studies have further indicated that the release of
548 Fe(II) from reducing continental shelf sediments may be an important source of Fe in coastal
549 waters (Pakhomova *et al.*, 2007; Noffke *et al.*, 2012; Chever *et al.*, 2015). However
550 compared to Fe(II), reduced Mn(II), is more slowly oxidized to insoluble Mn(III) and Mn(IV)
551 oxides in oxic seawater (Millero *et al.*, 1987; Sunda and Huntsman, 1987, 1990; von Langen
552 *et al.*, 1997; Santana-Casiano *et al.*, 2005; Morgan, 2005). The positive correlation between
553 [D-Fe] and [D-Mn] in the UHL suggests that the binding of Fe with organic ligands and the
554 removal of remaining Mn occur at similar time scales in the UHL. The removal and
555 transportation processes will be discussed in section 4.3.

556 In the PSW, the inflow of low-salinity Pacific-origin water from the Bering Strait and
557 local fresh water inputs such as sea-ice meltwater and river water may be important sources

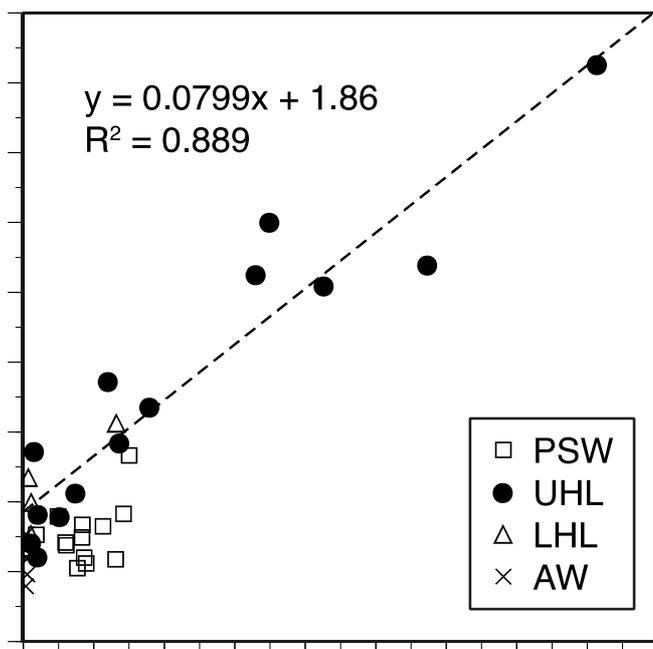
558 of trace metals in the study area in addition to the upward inputs from sediment. For Fe,
559 although [D-Fe] and [TD-Fe] in the Canada Basin PSW were lower than those in the Chukchi
560 Sea shelf and slope regions, they were still higher than those of other typical oceanic regions,
561 such as subarctic North Pacific (e.g., Kondo *et al.*, 2012) and the central Arctic basins (e.g.,
562 Klunder *et al.*, 2012a). Over the last 20 years, the freshwater discharge from major Arctic
563 rivers has increased (Doxaran *et al.*, 2015 and references therein), the accumulation of
564 significant amount of freshwater has been observed in the Beaufort Gyre of the Canada Basin
565 (e.g., Morrison *et al.*, 2012). According to the calculated fractions of meteoric water and sea-
566 ice meltwater in the surface water, the fraction for meteoric water was higher (6-18%) than
567 that for sea-ice meltwater (2-8%). It suggests that the meteoric water was the major source of
568 freshwater in this study area. In this region, there are several large rivers that can affect the
569 properties of water in the Chukchi Sea region, including the Mackenzie River and the Yukon
570 River. The Mackenzie River, which is the largest and longest river that flows into the
571 Beaufort Sea, has a water discharge of 249–333 km³/year; its river water is rich in suspended
572 material (Dittmar and Kattner, 2003). Cid *et al.* (2012) reported that the concentrations of all
573 trace metals in the Mackenzie Trough in 2002 were higher than those in the Canada Basin for
574 both the dissolved and total dissolvable fractions. The Yukon River flows from British
575 Columbia through Alaska and into the northeastern Bering Sea shelf with an average water
576 discharge of ~ 198 km³/year that varies seasonally (Wickland *et al.*, 2012), which could
577 account for ~ 8% of the freshwater input into the Arctic Ocean (Aagaard and Carmack, 1989).
578 Nishimura *et al.* (2012) observed high [D-Fe] in low-salinity surface water in the Yukon
579 River estuarine region (> 10 nM) and the Bering Strait (~ 5–10 nM). Moreover, there are
580 several large rivers in the Siberian shelves of the Arctic Ocean, such as the Lena River and
581 Kolyma River. The input of fresh water from the Lena River could strongly impact Mn input
582 in the Laptev Sea estuary (Middag *et al.*, 2011). The Kolyma River is located in northern
583 Siberia with a mean water discharge of 122 km³/year (Rachold *et al.*, 2004). Although the

584 concentrations of trace metals are unknown, it has been reported that this river contains vast
585 reserves of carbon in Pleistocene-aged permafrost soils (Griffin et al., 2011). Not only the
586 meteoric water, but also sea-ice melting also strongly influences trace metal distributions in
587 the western Arctic. In late summer 2012, the surface area of ice covering in the Arctic Ocean
588 reached its lowest extent in recorded history (Wood *et al.*, 2015), resulting that significant
589 portion of sea-ice meltwater was found in the PSW in this study area. Previous studies have
590 suggested that melting sea ice is a plausible source of Fe in the Arctic (Measures, 1999;
591 Tovar-Sánchez *et al.*, 2010), as well as in the Sea of Okhotsk (Kanna *et al.*, 2014), the Bering
592 Sea (Aguilar-Islas *et al.*, 2008) and the Antarctic (e.g., Noble *et al.*, 2013). Measures (1999)
593 reported that the concentrations of Fe and Al in surface seawater in the Arctic Ocean were
594 elevated near large masses of sea ice that contained entrained sediments. Tovar-Sánchez *et al.*
595 (2010) determined the concentrations of trace metals (Fe, Mo, Ni, Zn, V, Cu and Co) and
596 nutrients in seawater and multilayered ice along the Greenland current and the Fram Strait
597 and showed that the sea ice was more enriched in these trace metals relative to the surface
598 waters. Noble *et al.* (2013) investigated the distribution of trace metals (Mn, Fe, Al, Co, Cu
599 and Cd) under the McMurdo Sound seasonal ice beneath in the Ross Sea and found that the
600 all metals except for Cd had extremely high concentrations in the shallowest samples. In the
601 present study, we also observed increases in both [D-metals] and [TD-metals] in the surface
602 water at the northernmost station (Stn. D5), with the exception of Cd. These findings suggest
603 that sea ice near the continental margins in particular could supply these trace metals to the
604 water column via melting. Because our study area covers a shelf region, and because the
605 PSW was most likely strongly influenced by meteoric water and inflow from the Bering
606 Strait and the Chukchi Sea continental shelf, sea ice in this area presumably contained
607 terrestrial materials. Indeed, the [D-Fe]/[TD-Fe] ratio in the surface water (5-m depth) was
608 low (0.07–0.38), which suggests that the particulate form was the dominant fraction of Fe in
609 the surface water. Therefore, these sources of freshwater input from rivers and Pacific inflow

610 are inferred to have significant influence on trace metal distributions in the western Arctic via
 611 the Beaufort Gyre and/or the formation of sea-ice in the fall and winter. Altogether, the
 612 existence of various sediment-rich input sources likely sustained the high surface
 613 concentrations of trace metals observed in the western Arctic Ocean.
 614



615
 616 Fig. 9. Relationships between $[PO_4^{3-}]$ and (a) N^* , (b) [D-Fe], (c) [D-Mn], (d) [D-Ni], (e) [D-
 617 Zn] or (f) [D-Cd].



618
 619 Fig. 10. Relationships between [D-Fe] and [D-Mn]. A broken line indicates the regression
 620 line in the UHL.

621

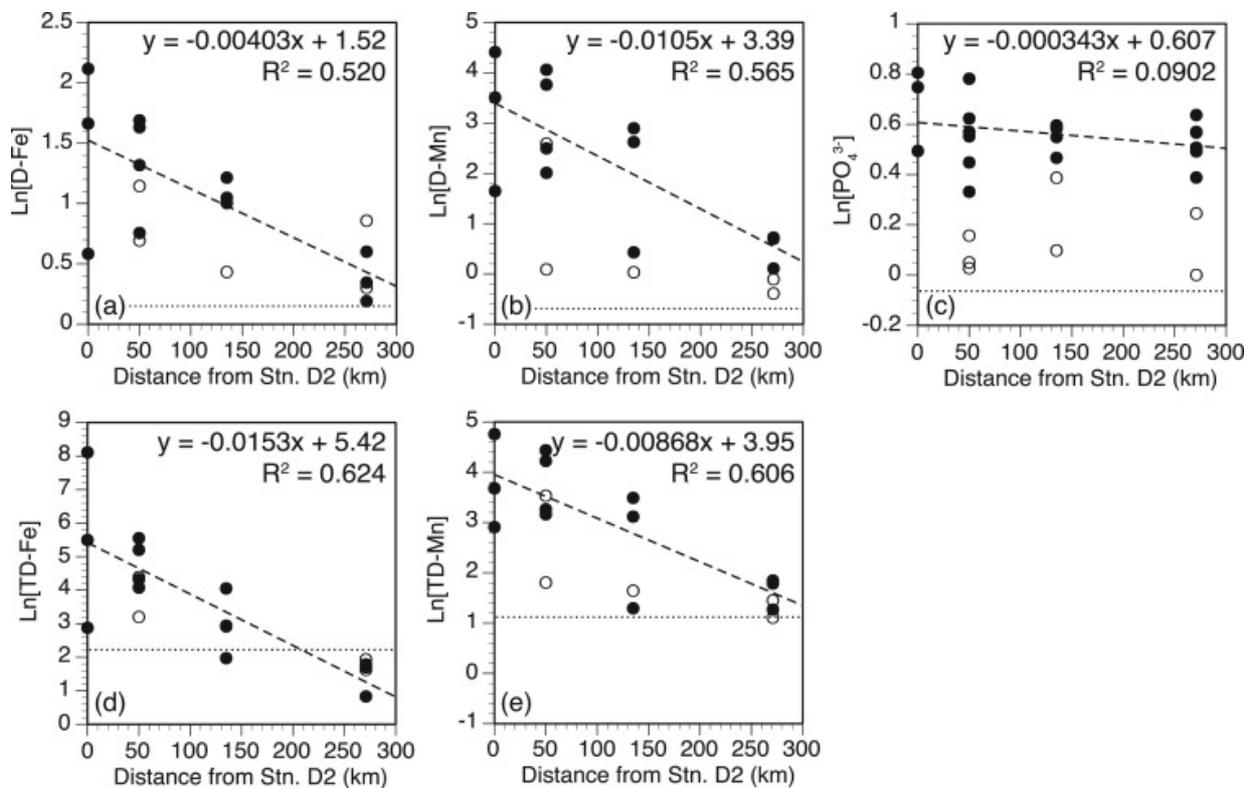
622 4.3. Transport of Fe and Mn within the HL in the western Arctic Ocean

623 Within the HL, concentration maxima were identified for both D-metals and TD-metals
 624 of all five trace metals included in this study. For Fe and Mn, their subsurface maxima in the
 625 UHL were distinct from those in other Arctic basins (i.e., the Nansen, Amundsen and
 626 Makarov Basins) and shelf regions (the Barents, Kara and Laptev Seas) (Middag *et al.*, 2011;
 627 Thuróczy *et al.*, 2011). The relationships between the distance from the shelf break (Stn. D2)
 628 and the natural logarithm of [D-metals] or [TD-metals] in the HL reflect the characteristics of
 629 transport of each trace metal (Fig. 11). In this study, the concentrations of Fe and Mn (for
 630 both the dissolved and total dissolvable fractions) decreased logarithmically with increasing
 631 distance from the shelf break in both the UHL and LHL, whereas the change in $[PO_4^{3-}]$ was
 632 small. This relationship suggests that scavenging processes within the UHL controlled the
 633 transports of Fe and Mn. The [TD-Fe] decreased dramatically with distance compared to [D-
 634 Fe] in this layer, which indicates that labile particulate Fe was preferentially removed from

635 the water column. In contrast, [TD-Mn] decreased more slowly than [TD-Fe], but [D-Mn]
636 decreased faster than [D-Fe] (Fig. 11). To evaluate the phase distributions of Fe and Mn
637 during lateral transportation, we calculated [LP-Fe]/[D-Fe] and [LP-Mn]/[D-Mn] ratios in
638 seawater, where [LP-Mn] = [TD-Mn] - [D-Mn] (Fig. 12). The [LP-Fe]/[D-Fe] ratio in the
639 UHL decreased logarithmically against distance from the shelf break, whereas the [LP-
640 Mn]/[D-Mn] ratio gradually increased with distance. These results reflect the differing
641 behavior of Fe and Mn in the transport processes of this region. For Fe, the [TD-Fe]
642 decreased quickly via removal of LP-Fe from the water column, whereas the [TD-Mn]
643 decreased more slowly through the transformation of D-Mn to LP-Mn. Fig. 11 also shows
644 that [D-Fe] and [D-Mn] in the UHL would decrease to the levels observed in the AW within
645 ~ 350 km and ~ 390 km north of Stn. D2, respectively. The accumulation of [NH₄⁺] in the
646 UHL was also observed, and there were positive correlations between [NH₄⁺] and [D-Fe]/[D-
647 Mn] (data not shown). Brown *et al.* (2015) investigated the stable isotopes of oxygen (¹⁶O
648 and ¹⁸O) and nitrogen (¹⁴N and ¹⁵N) of NO₃⁻ in the Chukchi Sea shelf region, and the results
649 suggested that the main source of the NH₄⁺ accumulated in the near-bottom water was
650 sedimentary input, not degradation of organic matter in the water column. Therefore, the
651 observed increases in [NH₄⁺] in the near-bottom water were most likely derived from the
652 sediments of the Chukchi Sea continental shelf; the time scale for its removal from the water
653 column was similar to those for D-Fe and D-Mn during our observational period.
654 Considering the dispersion of the slopes for D-Mn and D-Fe (Fig. 11), there were no
655 significant differences between D-Mn and D-Fe. A similar result was also calculated for D-
656 Fe from the dataset of Hioki *et al.* (2014). These results further suggest that the elevated D-Fe
657 and D-Mn levels were removed within the similar scales of time. It has been suggested that
658 Fe(II) is oxidized rapidly within minutes to hours in oxygenated water (Santana-Casiano *et*
659 *al.*, 2005), whereas the oxidation of soluble Mn(II) by Mn-oxidizing bacteria proceeds at was
660 much slower rate on a scale from hours to days (Sunda and Huntsman, 1988). Our results do

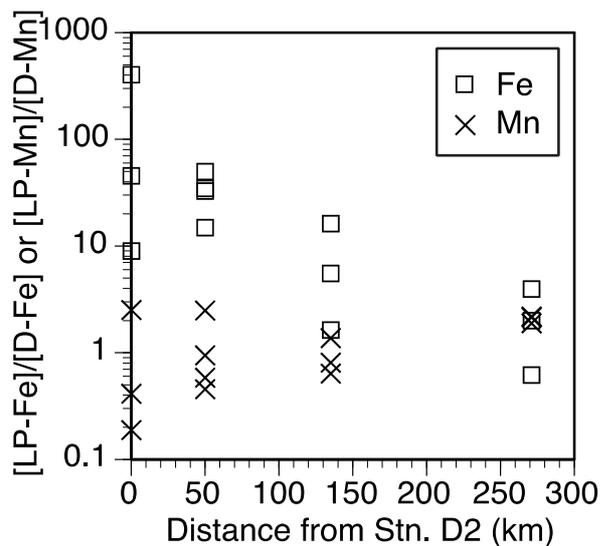
661 not follow the general chemical properties of Fe and Mn with respect to the oxidation kinetics
662 described above, which suggest the existence of moderate scavenging mechanisms for Fe(III)
663 in the study area. In this case, we can propose that a high [D-Fe] was sustained in the HL
664 because of the presence of organic ligands such as humic substances. It has been
665 demonstrated that humic substances are important sources of organic ligands in coastal areas
666 (e.g., Laglera *et al.*, 2011). Hioki *et al.* (2014) investigated the distribution of humic-like
667 fluorescent dissolved organic matter (humic-FDOM) as an index for humic substances, and
668 found that the maxima of humic-FDOM occurred in the HL in the western Arctic Ocean.
669 Furthermore, Yamada *et al.* (2015) investigated the distribution of transparent exopolymer
670 particles (TEP) using a 0.4- μ m pore-size polycarbonate filter with samples collected during
671 the same cruise as the samples in the present study and observed that the ratios of TEP carbon
672 to total particulate organic carbon (POC) were generally high in the shelf and slope regions in
673 the study area. This finding suggested that particles containing large amounts of TEP were
674 produced in the shelf region and transported offshore. Furthermore, because TEP is produced
675 through flocculation of marine biogenic polysaccharides, which are also recognized as
676 organic ligands for Fe (Stolpe and Hassellöv, 2010), this finding indicates that the organic
677 ligands for Fe may also be supplied from the sediment and biological production on the
678 Chukchi Shelf and transported offshore. In the western Arctic Ocean, Aguilar-Islas *et al.*
679 (2013) also demonstrated the relationship between the natural logarithm of Fe concentration
680 and the distance from the shelf in halocline waters based on observations made in the summer
681 of 2010, and reported the resulting equation: $\text{Ln}[\text{D-Fe}] = -0.0026 \times [\text{distance from 100-m}$
682 $\text{isobaths (km)}] + 0.9836$. Although the averaged absolute value of the slope from this study
683 was slightly higher than that reported by Aguilar-Islas *et al.* (2013), there was no significant
684 difference when the unevenness of [D-Fe] in the UHL in our study was considered (Fig. 11).
685 In late summer 2012, it was reported that northwesterly winds flowing in the northern part of
686 an extended Siberian High transported oligotrophic water into the Beaufort Gyre, which

687 circulated it toward our study area (Watanabe *et al.*, 2015). An unusually large warm-core
 688 eddy (~ 100 km in diameter) had been observed in the Canada Basin in late summer 2010
 689 (Nishino *et al.*, 2011), which suggested that the offshore transports of nutrients and Fe could
 690 have been enhanced by the eddy (Nishino *et al.*, 2011; Aguilar-Islas *et al.*, 2013). However,
 691 because our sampling sites were located too far to the east of the study area of Aguilar-Islas
 692 *et al.* (2013) to investigate the effects of this eddy, further research is still required to evaluate
 693 the impacts of hydrographic and meteorological changes to the transport of Fe in the western
 694 Arctic Ocean.



695
 696 Fig. 11. Logarithmic changes in concentrations of (a) D-Fe, (b) D-Mn, (c) PO_4^{3-} , (d) TD-Fe
 697 and (e) TD-Mn in the UHL (closed circles) and LHL (open circles) against the distance
 698 from Stn. D2. Each broken line indicates the regression line in the UHL. The dotted
 699 line indicates the average concentration of each trace metal in the AW.

700



701

702 Fig. 12. Changes in the ratio between labile particulate and dissolved concentrations for Fe
 703 ([LP-Fe]/[D-Fe]) or Mn ([LP-Mn]/[D-Mn]) in the UHL against the distance from
 704 Stn. D2.

705

706 **4.4. Implications of nutrient-type trace metal behaviors in the western Arctic**
 707 **Ocean**

708 Our results suggest that the elevated Ni, Zn and Cd concentrations in the HL may
 709 extend across the Canada Basin from the Chukchi Sea shelf break area. The relationships
 710 between salinity and D-metals/ PO_4^{3-} indicate that the maximum concentrations of both PO_4^{3-}
 711 and D-metals were observed in the UHL ($\sigma_\theta \approx 26.5$) (Fig. 7). The trends in the relationships
 712 between concentrations of D-metals and PO_4^{3-} reflect the distinct properties of each trace
 713 metal in the ocean interior (Fig. 9). As discussed in section 4.3, the variation in $[\text{PO}_4^{3-}]$ within
 714 the UHL was small over the study area (Fig. 11). Similarly small variations were also
 715 observed in [D-Zn], [D-Ni] and [D-Cd] (data not shown). It has been suggested that most of
 716 the regeneration of organic matters occurs over the Chukchi Sea shelf and slope regions and
 717 in the shelf sediments, whereas abyssal regeneration in the Canada Basin was minor
 718 (Codispoti *et al.*, 2005). This trend would imply that Ni, Zn and Cd accumulated on the
 719 Chukchi Sea shelf in the UHL with nutrients and could be transported northward offshore via

720 the UHL at least as far as ~270 km north of the shelf break while maintaining high
721 concentrations. Indeed, previous studies have found that the concentration maxima of Ni, Zn,
722 and Cd occurred in the HL of the Canada Basin near the Canadian Arctic Archipelago (Yeats,
723 1988; Yeats and Westerlund, 1991), which support the interpretation that the elevated Ni, Zn
724 and Cd concentrations in the HL extend across the Canada Basin from the Chukchi Sea shelf
725 break area. [D-Ni], [D-Zn] and [D-Cd] correlate more strongly with [PO₄³⁻] than [D-Fe] or
726 [D-Mn], which suggest that, like PO₄³⁻, the distributions of D-Ni, D-Zn and D-Cd were
727 generally controlled by internal biogeochemical cycles of the ocean interior. This behavior
728 has also been proposed for other continental shelf regions such as the central California
729 Current System (Biller and Bruland, 2013). However, there were differences in the strengths
730 of the correlations between [PO₄³⁻] and [D-Ni], [D-Zn] and [D-Cd]. [D-Cd] showed the
731 strongest correlation with [PO₄³⁻], and [D-Ni] the weakest correlation, with [D-Zn] in the
732 middle.

733 The high [D-Cd]/[TD-Cd] ratio and positive correlation between [D-Cd] and [PO₄³⁻]
734 suggest that the distribution of Cd was most likely to be controlled by internal
735 biogeochemical cycles in the study area, which is consistent with the findings of Cid *et al.*
736 (2012). The strong positive correlation between [D-Cd] and [PO₄³⁻] was also reported by
737 Yeats and Westerlund (1991), who investigated trace metal (Cd, Zn, Cu and Ni) distributions
738 near the Canadian Arctic Archipelago in the Canada Basin. Cd can act either as a nutrient or
739 as a toxin; therefore it influences phytoplankton growth. Especially in the coastal areas in
740 industrialized regions, rivers are thought to be the most important source of Cd after
741 atmospheric input (Lambelet *et al.*, 2013 and references therein). Our results indicate the [D-
742 Cd] in the PSW ranged from 0.11 to 0.47 nM, which are similar level to those in the coastal
743 seas of the Siberian Shelf (0.02–0.46 nM) (Lambelet *et al.*, 2013). Off the coast of central
744 California, similar [D-Cd] has been reported (0.05–0.87 nM) (Biller and Bruland, 2013).
745 Overall, the [D-Cd] in the surface water of the western Arctic Ocean was high relative to

746 those in the oligotrophic open oceans such as the North Pacific (~0.002 nM) (e.g., Bruland,
747 1980), but it is similar to [D-Cd] in coastal areas. Cullen (2006) suggested that preferential
748 uptake of Cd in surface seawater under Fe limitation could cause a ‘kink’ in the relationship
749 between [D-Cd] and [PO₄³⁻] that results in a lower [D-Cd]/[PO₄³⁻] ratio (e.g., < 0.21 × 10⁻³).
750 In the present study there was no kink in this relationship, which is consistent with our
751 discussion of *Fe** in section 4.3 where it was explained that [D-Fe] was replete in the surface
752 water in this area. The [D-Cd]/[PO₄³⁻] ratios were higher than 0.34 × 10⁻³ at all stations (the
753 minimum coefficient of determination was 0.93), which are similar to the values for that ratio
754 in the eastern North Pacific (Bruland, 1980).

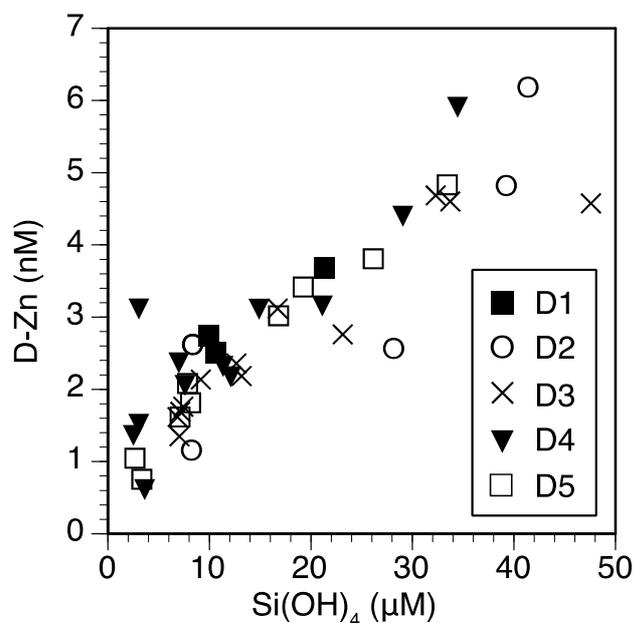
755 The ranges of both [D-Zn] and [TD-Zn] in this study were similar to those in the
756 earlier study in the western Arctic Ocean (Cid *et al.*, 2012). It has previously been reported
757 that the [D-Zn] correlates more strongly with [Si(OH)₄] (i.e., correlation coefficient = 0.996)
758 than with [PO₄³⁻] or [NO₃⁻] in the ocean (e.g., Bruland, 1980). In the western Arctic Ocean,
759 [D-Zn] and [Si(OH)₄] were generally correlated, but the correlation coefficient was relatively
760 poor: [D-Zn] (nM) = 0.10 [Si(OH)₄] (μ M) + 1.19 (*R*² = 0.801) (Fig. 13). The slope value
761 (Zn/Si, 0.10) was higher than those reported from the North Atlantic (0.058) (Roshan and Wu,
762 2015), North Pacific (0.054–0.067) (Kim *et al.*, 2015 and references therein) and Bering Sea
763 (0.078) (Fujishima *et al.*, 2001). The Zn/Si ratio of the Bering Sea was slightly higher than
764 those of the North Pacific. Based on the influence of the Pacific-origin water entering through
765 the Bering Strait into the western Arctic Ocean, the Zn/Si slope was likely modified during
766 the process of transport from the Bering Sea to the Chukchi Sea shelf region. We found that
767 both [D-Zn] and [TD-Zn] were elevated in near-bottom water at Stns. D1 and D2, where Fe
768 and Mn also reached their maxima. In these samples, the [TD-Zn] values were especially
769 high; the concentrations of labile particulate Zn (LP-Zn, [LP-Zn] = [TD-Zn] – [D-Zn]) near
770 the bottom at Stns. D1 and D2 were 2.88 nM and 7.64 nM, respectively. As a result, the [D-
771 Zn]/[TD-Zn] ratios for these samples were as low as 0.45–0.56. Although the [D-metal]/[TD-

772 metal] ratios for Zn were generally higher than those of Fe and Mn, they tended to be lower
773 than those of Ni and Cd in the study area. Trefly *et al.* (2014) reported the concentrations of
774 trace metals (including Fe, Mn, Ni, Zn and Cd) in surface sediments in the northeastern
775 Chukchi Sea; the Zn/Fe and Zn/Mn ratios in these surface sediments were calculated to be
776 approximately 0.0021 and 0.17, respectively. These values were similar to the [LP-Zn]/[LP-
777 Fe] ratios (0.0023–0.0024) and [LP-Zn]/[LP-Mn] ratios (0.23–0.31) of the near-bottom
778 waters at Stns D1 and D2. These results indicate that not only Fe and Mn, but also Zn were
779 supplied to near-bottom water from continental shelf sediment in the Chukchi Sea. The [LP-
780 Zn]/[LP-Fe] and [LP-Zn]/[LP-Mn] ratios in the UHL increase with distance from the shelf
781 break (Stn. D2), which suggest faster removal of LP-Fe and LP-Mn from the water mass
782 compared to LP-Zn. In addition to sedimentary input, the influences of fresh water inputs
783 such as melting sea-ice and river waters may also be a reason for the weak correlation
784 between [D-Zn] and [Si(OH)₄], as well as the high slope value. Both [D-Zn] and [TD-Zn] had
785 peaks near the surface in the Canada Basin (Stns. D4 and D5). Because sea ice is not the
786 source of the Si(OH)₄ in seawater in the Arctic Ocean (Tovar-Sánchez *et al.*, 2010), the
787 increase in Zn concentration in the PSW was likely derived from the sea-ice melting over the
788 summer.

789 Ni is classified as a nutrient-type trace metal and has high [D-Ni]/[TD-Ni] ratios in our
790 dataset. However, the relationship between [D-Ni] and [PO₄³⁻] showed more scattering
791 compared to those between [D-Cd] or [D-Zn] and [PO₄³⁻] (Fig. 9), which suggests that
792 phytoplankton uptake and remineralization of settling particles have only minor effects on the
793 distribution of D-Ni in the study area. It is likely that the high [D-Ni] in the PSW (6.19 ± 0.56
794 nM, $n = 13$) relative to other areas, such as the North Pacific (Bruland, 1980; Fujishima *et al.*,
795 2001) and the central California Current system (Biller and Bruland, 2013), caused the
796 scattering in the relationship between [D-Ni] and [PO₄³⁻]. The concentration of Ni in the sea
797 ice has been reported to be higher than that of the surrounded seawater, as have the

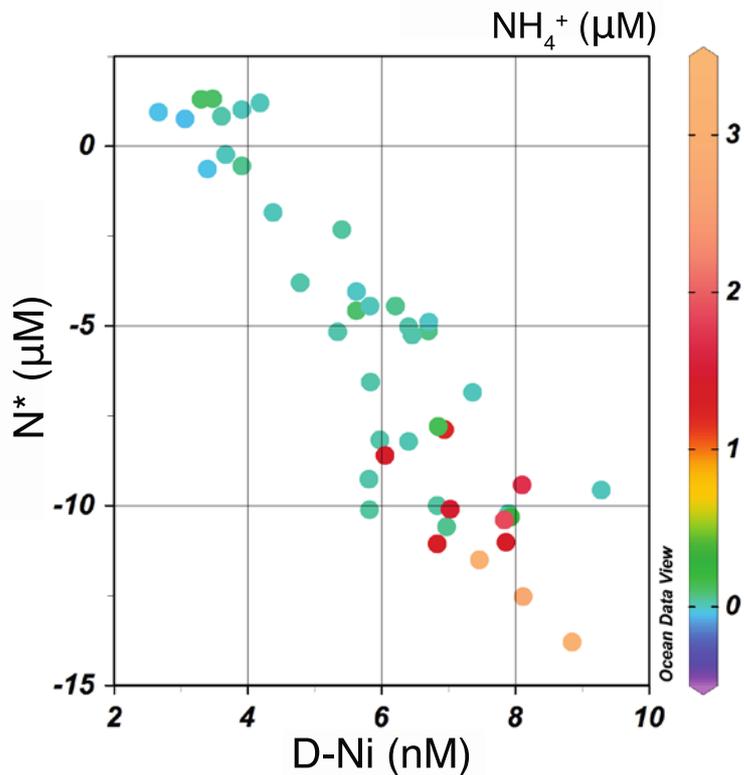
798 concentrations of other trace metals such as Fe, Mn, Co, Cu and Zn (Tovar-Sánchez *et al.*,
799 2010; Noble *et al.*, 2013). Therefore, the [D-Ni] has remained high in the PSW of the Canada
800 Basin. Furthermore, similar [D-Ni] values were observed in the Bering Sea and its shelf area,
801 including in the Bering Strait (Fujishima *et al.*, 2001; Cid *et al.*, 2011, 2012). Therefore, high
802 [D-Ni] in the Chukchi Sea PSW may be derived from the supply of the Pacific-origin water
803 that passes through the Bering Strait. Interestingly, we found that the [D-Ni] was inversely
804 proportional to N^* (Fig. 14); the coefficient of determination for this relationship ($R^2 = 0.812$)
805 was higher than those for relationships between N^* and the macro-nutrients PO_4^{3-} , NO_3^- and
806 Si(OH)_4 , whereas no linear relationships were observed between N^* and the other trace
807 metals in the study. Accumulations of D-Ni and NH_4^+ were observed in negative N^* waters
808 where the influence of sedimentary denitrification and/or anammox was strong. These
809 observations were consistent with those of previous studies that reported elevated $[\text{NH}_4^+]$ in
810 near-bottom water in the Chukchi Sea shelf and slope regions (Codispoti *et al.*, 2005;
811 Connelly *et al.*, 2014). Because water column denitrification only occurs when dissolved
812 oxygen concentration is below 2–4 μM (e.g., Devol, 1978), the negative N^* values in this
813 study likely indicate the influence of sedimentary denitrification and/or anammox or the
814 preferential release of PO_4^{3-} from the sediment. These findings imply that D-Ni in near-
815 bottom water was supplied during early diagenesis of the surface sediment and transported
816 offshore within the HL. In biological metabolism, Ni is associated primarily with Ni-SOD
817 and urease (Dupont *et al.*, 2008a, b). Urease is an amidohydrolase with Ni in the active site
818 that catalyzes the dissociation of urea into NH_4^+ and carbon dioxide, which provides a source
819 of nitrogen for the organism. Most phytoplankton, including cyanobacteria, coccolithophores,
820 dinoflagellates, cryptophytes and prasinophytes, use urease (Dupont *et al.*, 2010).
821 Furthermore, metagenomic analysis has revealed that Arctic archaea and small prokaryotes
822 possess the urease gene in high abundance, which suggests that their nitrification and
823 autotrophic growth may be fueled by urea in the Arctic Ocean (Alonso-Saez *et al.*, 2012).

824 Connelly *et al.* (2014) reported that major microbial incorporation of nitrogen shifted from
825 NH_4^+ in the summer to urea in the winter during sea-ice formation. Although the reason why
826 the [D-Ni] and N^* show a strong linear relationship remains unclear, the presence of high [D-
827 Ni] can sustain the organisms' use of urea in this study area. Further study is required to
828 elucidate the role of Ni in the nitrogen cycle in the western Arctic Ocean.



829

830 Fig. 13. Relationship between [Si(OH)₄] and [D-Zn].



831

832 Fig. 14. Relationship between [D-Ni] and N^* . The color of each point indicates $[NH_4^+]$. The
 833 $[NH_4^+]$ accumulation was only found in high [D-Ni] and low N^* .

834

835 5. Conclusions

836 Our results indicate that the concentrations of trace metals (Mn, Fe, Ni, Zn and Cd)
 837 were generally high in the Chukchi Sea continental shelf and slope regions, particularly
 838 within the UHL. The HL contributes to the unique distribution patterns of trace metals in the
 839 western Arctic Ocean. In this region, not only does the Pacific-origin inflow water from the
 840 Bering Strait contain high concentrations of trace metals, but there are also various additional
 841 sources of trace metals that may contribute to this enrichment, such as continental shelf
 842 sediments, river water discharge, melting sea ice and remineralization of organic matter. It is
 843 likely that the trace metals-rich halocline water is transported offshore and mixed with
 844 ambient water masses. Nonetheless, it is important to identify and evaluate the differences in
 845 each vertical profile for different trace metals. For Fe and Mn, the balance between major

846 benthic input and rapid removal by scavenging must be considered to understand their
847 patterns of distribution. In contrast, the elevated Ni, Zn and Cd, which existed as mainly
848 dissolved forms, were transported further offshore from the Chukchi Sea shelf break to
849 Canada Basin within the UHL. In this study, we also explored the possibility of dissociation
850 of refractory colloidal Fe during the long-term preservation of our samples; this issue is
851 important for estimation of the Fe budget in the Arctic Ocean.

852

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863

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Table 1. Values for SAFe D2 and GEOTRACES intercalibration 2009 GD samples for Mn, Fe, Ni, Zn and Cd in this study.

Sample		Mn	Fe	Ni	Zn	Cd
D2	This study	0.39 ± 0.07 (n=3)	0.81 ± 0.11 (n=3)	8.47 (n=1)	7.53 (n=2)	1.10 ± 0.10 (n=3)
	Consensus value	0.35 ± 0.05	0.93 ± 0.02	8.63 ± 0.25	7.43 ± 0.25	0.99 ± 0.02
GD	This study	0.25 (n=2)	1.14 (n=2)	4.07 (n=2)	2.25 (n=1)	0.30 (n=2)
	Consensus value	0.21 ± 0.03	1.00 ± 0.10	4.00 ± 0.10	1.71 ± 0.12	0.271 ± 0.001

Table 2.

Concentrations of dissolved trace metals (D-Mn, D-Fe, D-Ni, D-Zn and D-Cd), total dissolvable trace metals (TD-Mn, TD-Fe, TD-Ni, TD-Zn and TD-Cd) and chlorophyll *a* (Chl *a*) in the western Arctic Ocean.

Station	Depth (m)	[D-Mn] (nM)	[D-Fe] (nM)	[D-Ni] (nM)	[D-Zn] (nM)	[D-Cd] (nM)	[TD-Mn] (nM)	[TD-Fe] (nM)	[TD-Ni] (nM)	[TD-Zn] (nM)	[TD-Cd] (nM)	Chl <i>a</i> ($\mu\text{g/L}$)
D1 (72.00,02' N, 159.99,72' W)	5	8.31	1.48	5.52	2.75	0.34	12.8	8.35	5.66	3.19	0.38	
	10	8.91	1.11	5.63	2.50	0.40	17.6	9.67	5.65	3.49	0.45	0.43
	20	34.9	6.00	6.52	3.69	0.65	44.1	1173	6.97	6.57	0.70	0.32
D2 (72.49,98' N, 158.79,88' W)	5	14.2	1.82	6.35	2.62	0.25	24.0	20.5	5.40	4.01	0.35	
	10	11.3	1.64	5.12	1.16	0.11	24.5	21.2	5.54	1.58	0.36	0.41
	20	8.61	1.19	6.62	2.62	0.34	10.8	7.26	5.88*	2.17*	0.46	0.42
	30	5.14	1.78	7.84	2.57	0.61	18.1	17.5	6.63*	2.64	0.75	
	40	33.0	5.25	8.12	4.82	0.75	39.2	240	6.84*	4.79*	0.92	0.24
	46	81.4	8.26	8.76	6.18	0.86	115	3276	11.46	13.8	1.12	
D3 (72.86,53' N, 157.96,47' W)	5	15.0	2.65	5.94	1.62	0.38	37.8	36.0	7.85	2.56	0.41	
	10	13.1	1.17	5.47	1.35	0.22	36.6	30.6	7.21	2.24	0.39	0.50
	30	6.09	1.37	5.96	2.19	0.54	22.9	65.8	N.D.	2.83	0.54	0.48
	50	7.38	2.12	6.77	2.77	0.76	25.8	74.2	7.16	3.56	0.65*	0.05
	75	12.0	3.72	7.57	4.69	0.92	23.4	57.9	7.59	5.62	0.99	0.03
	100	42.6	5.09	7.42	4.58	0.99	67.6	254	8.59	6.54	0.98*	0.06
	125	57.3	5.39	6.69	4.61	0.79	83.5	179	7.61	6.23	1.31	0.05
	150	13.2	3.12	5.26	3.12	0.51	33.7	79.1	5.29	4.02	0.47*	0.01
	200	1.08	1.99	3.90	2.36	0.34	6.00	24.1	4.12	4.42	0.40	0.00
	300	0.69	1.33	3.21	2.14	0.28	8.45	56.3	3.54	3.72	0.38	
	400	0.53	0.95	3.00	1.69	0.24	2.37	7.84	3.07	1.77	0.23*	
500	0.42	1.52	3.37	1.76	0.24	2.98	13.5	3.18*	2.90	0.31		

N.D. = not determined.

* Recovery of trace metals from the unfiltered sample may not be sufficient.

Table 2. continued.

Station	Depth (m)	[D-Mn] (nM)	[D-Fe] (nM)	[D-Ni] (nM)	[D-Zn] (nM)	[D-Cd] (nM)	[TD-Mn] (nM)	[TD-Fe] (nM)	[TD-Ni] (nM)	[TD-Zn] (nM)	[TD-Cd] (nM)	Chl <i>a</i> ($\mu\text{g/L}$)
D4 (73.49.22' N 156.41.15' W)	5	8.36	1.66	6.62	3.12	0.20	9.48	4.38	6.59*	3.46	0.18*	0.09
	10	7.65	1.04	6.34	1.52	0.12	10.21	4.11	6.89	4.83	0.21	0.09
	25	5.96	1.41	7.55	1.37	0.23	6.57	2.11	6.66*	1.61	0.22*	0.08
	50	4.90	1.78	6.17	0.62	0.20	5.49	N.D.	6.81	1.43	0.25	0.15
	75	2.83	N.D.	8.86	2.18	0.29	2.86	2.25	6.15*	1.70*	0.37	0.10
	100	1.52	2.71	7.85	3.16	0.51	3.61	7.06	7.73*	3.88	0.79	0.02
	150	13.61	2.84	7.76	4.40	0.60	22.3	18.2	7.62*	4.03*	0.63	0.00
	200	17.89	3.35	7.64	5.91	0.68	32.4	56.6	8.36	6.47	0.83	0.01
	250	1.02	1.53	4.42	3.11	0.31	5.10	18.6	4.54	3.84	0.65	
	300	0.74	1.36	3.37	2.32	0.22	4.00	12.9	4.16	4.45	0.30	
	400	0.52	1.17	3.78	2.06	0.18	2.81	5.68	3.50*	2.09	0.20	
500	0.56	5.00	4.17	2.37	0.12	2.68	5.38	3.49	2.65	0.25		
D5 (74.49.87' N, 154.00.40' W)	5	8.21	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	0.25	9.70	3.13	6.83	3.53	0.34	
	10	7.71	N.D.	6.58	N.D.	0.23	10.3	2.91	7.20	1.84	0.34	0.06
	25	5.48	N.D.	5.91	1.05	0.29	7.59	2.72	7.30	2.70	0.30	
	50	3.86	N.D.	5.91	0.76	0.25	4.82	1.47	7.25	0.71*	0.40	0.09
	75	1.82	1.52	5.83	1.82	0.40	3.21	1.80	7.03	2.81	0.58	0.15
	100	1.10	1.40	5.33	3.02	0.48	3.51	2.25	7.26	4.59	0.66	0.22
	150	2.04	1.81	6.65	3.81	0.65	5.89	5.38	7.94	4.52	0.71	
	200	1.99	1.20	6.79	4.83	0.69	6.26	5.87	8.66	5.44	0.69	
	250	0.89	1.34	4.65	3.42	0.48	4.21	6.80	5.80	3.79	0.57	
	300	0.67	2.34	3.41	N.D.	0.37	2.99	4.99	4.12	7.55	0.33*	
400	0.44	1.18	2.84	2.08	0.26	2.45	7.50	3.71	2.73	0.28		
500	0.34	0.78	2.72	1.62	0.26	2.28	5.54	3.73	2.20	0.30		

N.D. = not determined.

1108 * Recovery of trace metals from the unfiltered sample may not be sufficient.