Stable isotope composition of dissolved inorganic carbon and particulate organic carbon in sea ice from the Ross Sea, Antarctica

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[1] We examined controls on the carbon isotopic composition of sea ice brines and organic matter during cruises to the Ross Sea, Antarctica in November/December 1998 and November/December 2006. Brine samples were analyzed for salinity, nutrients, total dissolved inorganic carbon (ΣCO_2), and the ¹³C/¹²C ratio of ΣCO_2 ($\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$). Particulate organic matter from sea ice cores was analyzed for percent particulate organic carbon (POC), percent total particulate nitrogen (TPN), and stable carbon isotopic composition $(\delta^{13}C_{POC})$. ΣCO_2 in sea ice brines ranged from 1368 to 7149 μ mol kg⁻¹, equivalent to 1483 to 2519 μ mol kg⁻¹ when normalized to 34.5 psu salinity (s Σ CO₂), the average salinity of Ross Sea surface waters. Sea ice primary producers removed up to 34% of the available ΣCO_2 , an amount much higher than the maximum removal observed in sea ice free water. Carbonate precipitation and CO_2 degassing may reduce $s\Sigma CO_2$ by a similar amount (e.g., 30%) in the most hypersaline sea ice environments, although brine volumes are low in very cold ice that supports these brines. Brine $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$ ranged from -2.6 to +8.0% while $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$ ranged from -30.5 to -9.2%. Isotopic enrichment of the ΣCO_2 pool via net community production accounts for some but not all carbon isotopic enrichment of sea ice POC. Comparisons of $s\Sigma CO_2$, $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$, and $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$ within sea ice suggest that ϵ_p (the net photosynthetic fractionation factor) for sea ice algae is ~8% smaller than the ϵ_p observed for phytoplankton in open water regions of the Ross Sea. These results have implications for modeling of carbon uptake and transformation in the ice-covered ocean and for reconstruction of past sea ice extent based on stable isotopic composition of organic matter in sediment cores.

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1. Introduction

[2] Sea ice influences the global carbon cycle by acting as a barrier to diffusive air-sea gas exchange and through biotic and abiotic transformations that occur within the ice. The sea ice microbial community is among the largest homogeneous sunlit ecosystems on Earth, encompassing nearly five percent of the planet's surface area at its maximum extent [*Gloersen et al.*, 1999; *Lizotte*, 2001; *Zwally et al.*, 2002]. While sea ice primary production accounts for just 1–2% of biogenic carbon produced in the Southern Ocean, 10–28% of primary

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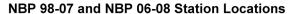
production within the seasonally ice-covered portions of the Southern Ocean takes place within sea ice microhabitats [*Arrigo et al.*, 1997, 1998; *Arrigo and Thomas*, 2004]. Sea ice algae are also an important food source for populations of krill and zooplankton during winter and may seed spring and summer phytoplankton blooms in surrounding open water ecosystems [*Smith and Nelson*, 1985, 1986; *Priddle et al.*, 1996; *Arrigo*, 2003]. In addition to their role in high-latitude marine ecosystems and biogeochemical cycles, ice algae may be more directly connected to regional climate through production of dimethyl sulfide (DMS) [*Trevena et al.*, 2003; *Trevena and Jones*, 2006]. In the atmosphere, DMS is oxidized to form sulfate aerosols that are potentially a major source of cloud condensation nuclei [*Charlson et al.*, 1987].

[3] Algae thrive in a variety of microhabitats associated with pack ice including meltwater ponds, gap waters, freeboard layers, and the network of brine channels within the ice interior. The extraordinary variation of microenvironments

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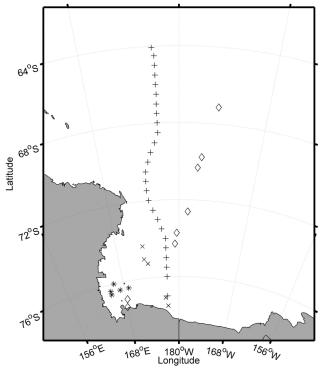


Figure 1. All station locations for NBP 98–07 and NBP 06–08. Pluses denote NBP 98–07 "early" stations. Asterisks denote NBP 98–07 "late" stations. Crosses denote NBP 98–07 stations not included in either subgroup. Diamonds denote all NBP 06–08 stations.

within and associated with sea ice makes quantification of chemical and biological processes challenging. Large-scale models of the Antarctic sea ice ecosystem suggest that while productivity rates peak during austral summer, spatially integrated primary production in Antarctic sea ice is greatest in spring with ~60% of annual sea ice primary production (30–70 Tg C) occurring in November and December [*Arrigo et al.*, 1997; *Arrigo and Thomas*, 2004].

[4] Abiotic processes occurring within sea ice may also play an important role in the cycling of carbon in the polar seas. Rysgaard et al. [2007] suggest that precipitation of CaCO₃ mineral phases within sea ice could result in the downward transport of 0.2–0.5 Pg C y^{-1} out of the surface ocean, a flux comparable to estimates of the net oceanatmosphere CO₂ flux for the entire Southern Ocean south of 50°S [Takahashi et al., 2002]. This abiotic carbon pump results from the high ΣCO_2 to alkalinity ratio (and subsequently high pCO_2) of brine expelled from sea ice during ice formation and subsequent brine drainage. When sea ice melts during spring, solid CaCO₃ phases within the ice dissolve into the surface ocean raising alkalinity and driving a CO2 flux from atmosphere to ocean. Recent observations of ikaite (CaCO₃ 6H₂O) crystals in a range of sea ice types in the Weddell Sea including young nilas (thickness < 0.5 m) and multiyear floes (thickness > 2 m) suggest that precipitation of solid CaCO₃ phases way be widespread within Antarctic pack ice [Dieckmann et al., 2008].

[5] Due in part to high $[\rm CO_{2(aq)}]$ associated with low-temperature seawater, bulk $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$ values in Southern Ocean surface waters are negative (-21 to -33‰) relative to POC from lower-latitude surface waters [Rau et al., 1991a, 1991b; Dehairs et al., 1997; Villinski et al., 2000]. Significant enrichment in $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$ from the Southern Ocean has been documented in the water column and in habitats associated with sea ice [Rau et al., 1991b; Fischer, 1991; Dunbar and Leventer, 1992; McMinn et al., 1999; Kennedy et al., 2002; Arrigo et al., 2003]. Seasonal enrichment of more than 10% has been noted in suspended POC in the Ross Sea during summer [Dunbar and Leventer, 1992; Villinski et al., 2000] as well as in seafloor sediments [Villinski et al., 2008]. Factors that may be responsible for isotopic enrichment include high growth rates of primary producers during periods of high productivity, species-specific fractionation, increased heterotrophic recycling in the upper water column, and bloom-related drawdown of [CO2(aq)] in stratified surface waters [Villinski et al., 2000, 2008]. While similar mechanisms are likely responsible for isotopic variability in sea ice organic matter, these effects may be enhanced owing to the isolated nature of the brine channel environment.

[6] Lab experiments suggest that enrichment in $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$ in sea ice brines could be associated with both biotic and abiotic effects [Gleitz et al., 1996; Papadimitriou et al., 2004]. Enrichment in $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$ from sea ice environments has been documented from several different environments around Antarctica with most investigations of pack ice focused on the Weddell Sea [Gibson et al., 1999; Thomas et al., 2001; Kennedy et al., 2002; Papadimitriou et al., 2007]. Here we provide the first report of $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$ variability in extracted sea ice brines from the Ross Sea. The purpose of our study is to provide an extensive new data set with which to investigate biogeochemical cycling within Antarctic pack ice during the austral spring. Several possible causes for isotopic enrichment of POC and ΣCO_2 are examined: (1) carbonate crystal growth and degassing; (2) photosynthetic drawdown of the ΣCO_2 pool via net community production; and (3) a decrease in the magnitude of $\varepsilon_{\rm p}$ for sea ice algae relative to phytoplankton in surrounding open water ecosystems.

2. Methods

[7] The Research Vessel Ice Breaker (RVIB) *Nathaniel B*. Palmer (NBP) was used for two Ross Sea sampling programs. Samples were collected between 6 November and 6 December 1998 as part of the ROAVERRS (Research on Ocean-Atmosphere Variability and Ecosystem Response in the Ross Sea) program during cruise NBP 98-07, and between 9 November and 1 December 2006 as part of the CORSACS (Controls on Ross Sea Algal Community Structure) cruise NBP 06-08. During the first two weeks of NBP 98-07, sea ice was sampled on a N-S transect centered on 176°E, extending from the ice edge at \sim 64°S to the Ross Ice Shelf ($\sim 78^{\circ}$ S) at roughly 0.5° increments (Figure 1). Along the southward transect, an average of 3 ice stations were completed every 24 h for a total of 27 stations from 6 to 14 November. Stations completed during this interval (i.e., stations 1-27) are hereafter referred to as "early" stations. A complete description of the physical setting, sea ice properties, and sampling methods during this segment of the cruise is given by *Arrigo et al.* [2003].

[8] During the last several weeks of NBP 98–07, ice stations were occupied less frequently and primarily located in the southwestern Ross Sea (Figure 1). These stations included fast ice and multiyear pack ice, in addition to much younger pack ice that formed during the spring. In order to investigate the evolution of brine environments during spring we focus on stations sampled from 4 to 6 December (i.e., stations 95– 99), a subgroup representative of late spring/early summer conditions (Figure 1). Hereafter we refer to this subgroup as "late" stations. During NBP 06–08, a total of eight stations were sampled along a NE-SW transect from the outer pack near 67°S to ~77°S (Figure 1). Similar to the "early" stations of NBP 98-07, the ice sampled was exclusively first year pack ice. Ice thickness at most stations ranged from 0.6 m to just over 1 m except at the first (northernmost) station where cores were drilled near a pressure ridge where the sea ice was over 3 m thick.

[9] Multiple SIPRE cores were collected at each of 37 stations occupied during NBP 98-07 and 8 stations during NBP 06–08. Ice cores were drilled at least 30 m from the ship in both the middle of floes and along floe edges at level (unridged) sites. In the outer pack, where floes were smaller, four cores were typically drilled for POM analysis in a transect extending from the center to the floe edge. Separate SIPRE cores for the separation of brines were drilled adjacent to centrally positioned POM cores. Brine cores were cut into sections ~10 cm in length and POM cores cut into sections ~ 20 cm in length. Clean rubber gloves were worn while handling cores to avoid contamination. Segments for brine analysis were placed in individually labeled plastic containers and POM segments were placed in polyethylene bags. All sections were transferred to a cooler for transportation back to the ship, typically within 20 to 30 min. For the thickest floes (i.e., thickness > 1.6 m), we did not sample the entire core owing to logistical constraints; in these instances, we typically took samples from the top and bottom of the ice. In areas of thin ice (i.e., thickness < 20 cm), we sampled from a personnel basket suspended over the side using the ship's crane. At these stations, an ice saw was used to cut segments directly from the ice. During NBP 98-07, a total of 161 cores were sampled for both brine and POM analysis. In all, 68 cores were collected for brine analysis and 93 cores were sampled for POM analysis. During NBP 06-08, 21 cores were sampled for brine and POM analysis.

[10] Brine cores were immediately transported to a cold room laboratory kept at -2°C and individual core sections were centrifuged in 1 L buckets at 1800 rpm for 5 min to separate liquid brines from ice; brine cores were typically processed within 1 h of collection. Centrifuged brine samples from vertically equivalent sections of different cores were typically combined in order to provide a volume large enough for the full suite of analyses. Brine samples were transferred to 10 ml vials; soon after, salinity, ΣCO_2 , and nutrients were determined from subsamples. Salinity of brines was measured using an Orion Instruments handheld conductivitybased salinometer calibrated before every set of samples using either Dickson ΣCO_2 standards or primary IAPSO seawater salinity standards. During NBP 98–07, ΣCO_2 was determined using a shipboard CO₂ stripping system coupled to a coulometric CO2 titrator modeled after the LDEO design used during the Southern Ocean JGOFS cruises [Sweeney et al., 2000]. On the basis of analysis of several hundred replicate Dickson ΣCO_2 standards, our analytical precision is on the order of $\pm 1 \ \mu \text{mol kg}^{-1}$. During NBP 06–08, ΣCO_2 was determined using an automated shipboard CO₂ stripping system coupled to a LICOR infrared CO₂ analyzer after a design developed at the Monterey Bay Aquarium Research Institute (G. Friederich, personal communication, 2006). Samples are typically analyzed in triplicate using this system and we achieve an average analytical precision on the order of $\pm 1.2 \ \mu mol \ kg^{-1}$. For ΣCO_2 isotopic analysis on both cruises CO₂ gas was extracted at sea via acidification with phosphoric acid in a helium gas stream bubble stripper. The released CO₂ gas was collected by freezing with liquid nitrogen and sealed in glass ampoules for return to the Stanford University Stable Isotope Laboratory. The stable isotopic composition was determined using an automated Finnigan MAT 252 Stable Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer. Isotopic values are reported as the per mil (%) difference between sample and standard using the convention $\delta^{13}C = [(R_{sample}/R_{standard}) - 1]*1000$ where R represents the ${}^{13}C/{}^{12}C$ ratio and the standard is PDB. On the basis of analysis of replicate stripped CO₂ samples, precision of the $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$ values is $\pm 0.03\%$.

[11] A Technicon Autoanalyzer II system was used to determine concentrations of nitrate (NO₃⁻), nitrite (NO₂⁻), ammonium (NH₄⁺), phosphate (PO₄³⁻), and silicic acid (Si(OH)₄) according to JGOFS protocols as described in the work of *Knap et al.* [1996]. High-salinity samples suspected of having nutrient concentrations outside the optimal Autoanalyzer analytical range were diluted with artificial nutrient-free seawater prior to analysis. All samples were analyzed within 8 h of collection. Detection limits were 0.03 μ mol kg⁻¹ for NO₃⁻, 0.005 μ mol kg⁻¹ for NO₂⁻, 0.005 μ mol kg⁻¹ for NH₄⁺, 0.008 μ mol kg⁻¹ for PO₄³⁻, and 0.1 μ mol kg⁻¹ for Si (OH)₄. All nutrient and Σ CO₂ data were converted to units of μ mol kg⁻¹ and normalized to 34.5 psu, roughly the average salinity of the Ross Sea, to remove the effects of dilution from melting sea ice or brine injection from ice formation [*Dunbar et al.*, 2003].

[12] The most commonly used method for collecting sea ice brine described by Gleitz et al. [1995] consists of drilling a hole in the ice, covering the hole with a lid, and allowing brine from surrounding ice to drain into the hole. Two drawbacks of this "sackhole" method are that brine from biologically active lower sections of the ice is typically not sampled and that vertical variability of biogeochemical parameters within the ice cannot be examined. In addition, at low temperatures and correspondingly low brine volume and ice porosity, up to 60 min of drainage time may be required to collect an adequate sample volume [Gleitz et al., 1995] during which some equilibration with air is possible. The most notable drawback of the "centrifugation" method as employed here includes the possibility of melting, degassing, and/or mineral phase precipitation as a result of increased pressure during centrifugation. Papadimitriou et al. [2004] noted discrepancies in ΣCO_2 concentrations between "sackhole" and "centrifugation" samples collected during lab freezing experiments which the authors attributed to pressure effects during centrifugation; no discrepancies were apparent in $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$ between the two sampling methods. While great care was taken during this study to keep brine samples close to in situ temperatures and to process samples in as little time as pos-

Table 1.	Summary	of All Sea Ice	Segments	Sampled Du	ring NBP	98–07 an	d NBP 06–08 ^a

	NBP 98-07		NBP	NBP 98-07		NBP	NBP 98-07		NBP	NBP 98-07			NBP			
	All	Early	Late	06–08 (All)	All	Early	Late	06–08 (All)	All	Early	Late	06–08 (All)	All	Early	Late	06–08 (all)
	Salinity (psu)			$\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO2}$ (‰ relative to PDB)			$\frac{\Sigma \text{CO}_2}{(\mu \text{mol kg}^{-1})}$			$s\Sigma CO_2 \ (\mu mol \ kg^{-1})$						
Number Minimum	176 27.4	117 27.4	37 29.0	36 31.5	119 -2.6	75 -1.3	28 -2.6	25 1.3	150 1368	93 2066	35 1368	33 1692	150 1483	93 1609	35 1483	33 1594
Maximum Mean	100.8 44.8	84.6 46.8	49.8 35.3	79.0 46.5	8.0 2.0	6.0 1.9	8.0 2.4	4.2 2.5	7149 2753	4458 2979	3016 1981	4217 2779	2447 2050	2326 2103	2375 1921	2519 2021
$\pm 1 \sigma$	44.8 13.0	11.8	5.3	40.5 12.5	2.0 1.8	1.5	2.5	2.3 0.8	852	606	395	643	183	136	223	2021
	Si(OH) ₄ (µmol kg ⁻¹)			sSi(OH) ₄ (µmol kg ⁻¹)			PO_4^{3-} (μ mol kg ⁻¹)			${ m sPO_4^{3^-}}\ (\mu{ m mol}\ { m kg}^{-1})$						
Number	156	97	37	24	155	96	37	24	154	97	35	24	153	96	35	24
Minimum Maximum	0 164	17 164	0 89	15 93	0 100	17 92	0 100	13 47	0.2 169.2	0.2 68.5	0.6 130.0	0.3 7.7	0.1 143.2	0.1 45.7	0.6 143.2	0.1 8.1
Mean $\pm 1 \sigma$	66 41	84 35	26 24	53 25	47 24	59 17	24 21	34 11	9.4 23.7	4.9 9.5	12.6 23.8	1.1 1.5	7.2 17.2	3.4 6.4	13.3 26.3	0.9 1.6
±1 0	NO_3^-				sNO_3^-			NO_2^-			sNO_2^-					
	$(\mu mol kg^{-1})$					$(\mu \text{mol kg}^{-1})$			$(\mu mol kg^{-1})$			$(\mu \text{mol kg}^{-1})$				
Number	156	97	37	24	155	96	37	24	156	97	37	24	155	96	37	24
Minimum Maximum	0.0 72.8	0.2 64.8	0.0 17.6	3.3 27.7	0.0 31.3	0.1 31.3	0.0 19.8	1.5 24.8	0.0 1.4	$0.0 \\ 1.0$	$0.0 \\ 1.0$	0.4 2.0	0.0 1.3	$\begin{array}{c} 0.0 \\ 1.0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 0.0 \\ 0.8 \end{array}$	0.2 2.0
Mean	16.6	21.7	2.8	8.6	11.7	15.1	2.8	6.4	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.9	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.6
$\pm 1 \sigma$	16.2	15.6	4.9	5.8	9.7	8.9	4.9	5.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4
	$\frac{\rm NH_4^+}{(\mu \rm mol \ kg^{-1})}$			${ m sNH_4^+} \ (\mu { m mol} \ { m kg}^{-1})$			$ \begin{array}{c} \text{TIN} \; (\text{NO}_3^- + \text{NO}_2^- + \text{NH}_4^+) \\ (\mu \text{mol } \text{kg}^{-1}) \end{array} $			$sTIN (\mu mol kg^{-1})$						
Number	156	97	37	24	155	96	37	24	156	97	37	24	155	96	37	24
Minimum	1.3	2.3	1.3	2.2	1.4	1.8	1.4	1.4	2.6	4.0	2.6	7.1	2.9	3.1	2.9	3.1
Maximum Mean	1000.8 25.3	52.8 10.0	31.6 8.5	9.4 5.4	558.7 16.5	55.2 7.7	36.7 8.4	9.4 4.0	1011.4 42.2	81.2 32.0	44.6 11.4	38.1 14.9	564.6 28.4	85.4 23.0	51.9 11.2	34.1 11.0
$\pm 1 \sigma$	23.3 108.7	10.0 8.9	8.3 5.0	3.4 2.2	58.5	7.8	8.4 5.6	4.0 2.2	42.2	32.0 19.1	7.8	6.9	28.4 58.8	23.0 13.0	8.3	6.8
-10	100.7	δ ¹³ C	POC	2.2			nent PO				nent TPN				grated F	
	(% relative to PDB)					$(\mu g l^{-1})$			$(\mu g l^{-1})$			(mg m^{-2})				
Number	265	186	52	22	267	186	52	22	267	186	52	19	33	24	4	6
Minimum Maximum	-28.2 -9.2	-27.9 -14.4	-28.2 -9.2	-30.5 -17.6	169 20744	169 6185	385 11650	185 2720	23 3530	23 763	42 1008	13 324	36 6692	63 2276	930 2256	229 304
Mean	-23.0	-23.4	-21.3	-24.4	1542	1123	1642	682	206	145	1008	73	871	591	1646	259
$\pm 1 \sigma$	3.2	2.5	4.2	3.3	2591	1048	2285	609	414	139	202	83	1197	450	623	34

 $^{a}\Sigma CO_{2}$ and nutrient data are from extracted brines. POC and TPN data are from bulk ice. All $\delta^{13}C$ data are in ‰ relative to PDB. Preceding "s" denotes normalization to 34.5 psu salinity. Depth-integrated POC represents the mean of all cores at each station.

sible, we acknowledge the possibility that centrifugation of sea ice segments may introduce some systematic error to the ΣCO_2 measurements presented here. Nevertheless we feel the centrifugation approach is preferable as we can directly sample the brines that are influenced by the active sea ice biological communities at the base of the pack ice.

[13] Sea ice core segments for POM analysis were taken aboard ship and stored in a thermally insulated cooler for no more than $\frac{1}{2}$ h before processing. In the ship's cold room, ice segments were measured for length and placed into 2 L polyethelene bottles. To avoid cell lysing, a measured volume of filtered seawater was added to ensure that the solution salinity did not decrease below 28 psu [Arrigo et al., 2003] as samples were allowed to melt in the dark. Between 200 to 1000 ml of diluted sample was filtered for POM through 25 mm Whatman GF/F glass-fiber filters washed with 0.1 N HCl; filters were frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C prior to analysis. POC, TPN, and $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$ were determined using a Carlo Erba NA1500 elemental analyzer/Conflo II system coupled to a Finnigan DeltaPlus Stable Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer at the Stanford University Stable Isotope Laboratory. Precision for $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$ for this method, based on

replicate analyses of NIST and USGS standards, is 0.05‰. Reproducibility for $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$ of individual samples is on the order of 0.11‰. POC, TPN, $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$, pigment, and species composition data from "early" stations are reported and discussed in the work of *Arrigo et al.* [2003].

3. Results

3.1. Salinity

[14] Brine salinities of individual ice core segments from NBP 98–07 and NBP 06–08 ranged from 27 to 101 psu and from 32 to 79 psu, respectively (Table 1). The mean and standard deviation for NBP 98–07 (45 ± 13 psu) was nearly identical to that of NBP 06–08 (47 ± 12 psu). Brine salinities display an inverse relationship with ice temperature; salinities are typically greatest near the snow-ice interface and decrease with depth in the ice (data not shown). For comparison, *Gleitz et al.* [1995] reported brine salinities in the Weddell Sea ranging from 21 to 41 psu in January 1991 and 34 to 108 psu in April 1992. *Papadimitriou et al.* [2007] measured brine salinities in the Weddell Sea in December 2004 of 40 to 63 psu. *Garrison et al.* [2003] measured brine salinities in

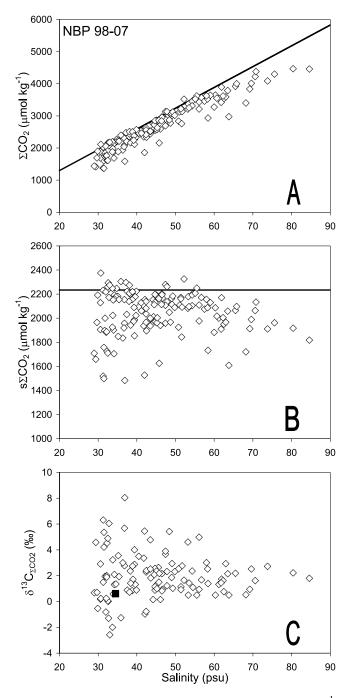


Figure 2. Brine salinity versus (a) ΣCO_2 in μ mol kg⁻¹ (solid line represents expected values based on concentration effect during freezing); (b) s ΣCO_2 (i.e., ΣCO_2 in μ mol kg⁻¹ normalized to 34.5 psu; solid line represents the preutilization value of 2234 μ mol kg⁻¹); and (c) $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$ in ‰ relative to PDB (solid square represents preutilization (winter seawater) composition of 0.6‰ and 2234 μ mol kg⁻¹). All data are from cruise NBP 98–07.

the Ross Sea in May/June 1998 ranging from 35 to 157 psu with a mean of 109 psu.

3.2. Total Dissolved Inorganic Carbon

[15] ΣCO_2 for all samples discussed here ranged from 1368 to 7149 μ mol kg⁻¹ and from 1483 to 2519 μ mol kg⁻¹ when

normalized to 34.5 psu salinity (s Σ CO₂) (Table 1). Σ CO₂ is highly correlated with brine salinity (R² = 0.9) owing to concentration effects during freezing/melting (Figures 2a and 3a). There is significantly greater s Σ CO₂ variability at low salinities (Figures 2b and 3b). Σ CO₂ is typically highest near the snow-ice interface and decreases with depth,

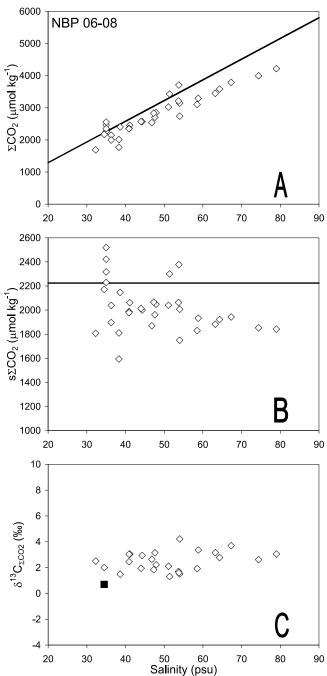


Figure 3. Brine salinity versus (a) ΣCO_2 in μ mol kg⁻¹ (solid line represents expected values based on concentration effect during freezing); (b) s ΣCO_2 (i.e., ΣCO_2 in μ mol kg⁻¹ normalized to 34.5 psu; solid line represents the preutilization value of 2225 μ mol kg⁻¹); and (c) $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$ in % relative to PDB (solid square represents pre-utilization (winter seawater) composition of 0.7‰ and 2225 μ mol kg⁻¹). All data are from cruise NBP 06–08.

similar to salinity (data not shown). For comparison, *Gleitz* et al. [1995] reported a ΣCO_2 range in the Weddell Sea of 839 to 2149 μ mol kg⁻¹ in January 1991 and 1878 to 7261 μ mol kg⁻¹ in April 1992; *Papadimitriou et al.* [2007] reported a range in the Weddell Sea in December 2004 of 2091 to 3551 μ mol kg⁻¹; and *Garrison et al.* [2003] reported a range in the Ross Sea in May/June 1998 of 4176 to 8761 μ mol kg⁻¹.

[16] Comparison of $s\Sigma CO_2$ to an estimated winter seawater or preutilization value allows estimation of the ΣCO_2 deficit associated with biotic and abiotic processes. Following the method of Sweeney et al. [2000], we estimate preutilization ΣCO_2 by averaging deep water (i.e., depth > 200 m) concentrations from all stations over the Ross Sea continental shelf. This approach relies on the fact that substantial overturn and homogenization of the shelf water column occurs during autumn through early spring each year. Winter seawater s Σ CO₂ estimated by this method for NBP 98–07 was 2234 μ mol kg⁻¹, within 1 μ mol kg⁻¹ of the early spring value estimated by Sweeney et al. [2000] for 1997. Winter seawater s Σ CO₂ for NBP 06–08 was 2225 μ mol kg⁻¹. By differencing with preutilization values, the lowest $s\Sigma CO_2$ value we observed in 1998 corresponds to a deficit of 751 μ mol kg⁻¹ or 34% of the preutilization ΣCO_2 pool. The greatest s ΣCO_2 deficits for individual ice core segments correspond to interior sections (i.e., >20 cm from both the snow-ice interface and the ice-water interface) from "late" stations; significant depletion was also observed near the ice-water interface at several stations from both the "early" and "late" periods (Figure 4). Studies in the Weddell Sea indicate similar deficits; Gleitz et al. [1995] reported ΣCO_2 drawdown in first year sea ice in January 1991 of up to 1200 μ mol kg⁻¹ and Papadimitriou et al. [2007] reported deficits in December 2004 of 700 μ mol kg⁻¹. During NBP 98–07, large deficits were also noted in extremely cold hypersaline brine environments near the snow/ice interface from the central pack (Figure 4).

[17] $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$ of brine from individual core sections ranged from -2.6 to +8.0% for all samples (Table 1). This range is significantly greater than the range in $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$ reported for surface waters in the Ross Sea (+0.47 to +3.58%)(R. B. Dunbar, unpublished data, 2009; P. D. Quay, unpublished data, 2009; Villinski et al. [2000]). We observed a large range in $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$ in low-salinity brines during NBP 98–07 (Figure 2c) and the greatest variability at "late" stations (Table 1). Variability in $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$ was significantly smaller during NBP 06-08 compared to NBP 98-07 (Figures 2c and 3c). Enriched values are generally associated with indicators of active algal growth (i.e., high chlorophyll a, NO₃ depletion) (Figures 4 and 5; see also Figure 9). Kennedy et al. [2002] measured a lesser degree of enrichment in gap waters and surface ponds (+0.15 to +2.98%) in Weddell Sea pack ice in January/February 1997, environments that are typically less isolated than interior brines. Papadimitriou et al. [2007] reported a similar range compared to our study for brine collected from the Weddell Sea in December 2004 (+2.9 to +6.4%).

3.3. Nutrients

[18] Nutrient data from the "early" stations of NBP 98–07 are reported by *Arrigo et al.* [2003]. Ranges and means for NO_3^- , NO_2^- , NH_4^+ , Si(OH)₄, and PO_4^{3-} for both cruises

including "late" stations from NBP 98-07 are summarized in Table 1; vertical profiles of sNO_3^- and sPO_4^{3-} are displayed in Figure 4. NO_3^- was greatest in the upper ice for "early" stations and generally decreased with depth in the ice; extreme sNO_3^- depletion coincides with significant $s\Sigma CO_2$ depletion at "late" stations (Figure 4). NH_4^+ and PO_4^{3-} ranged widely with concentrations for many samples greater than expected from the concentrating effects of freezing. During NBP 98-07, NH_4^+ and PO_4^{3-} were most elevated at "late" stations and at "early" stations in the central pack around 72°S (Figure 4). sSi (OH)₄ followed similar spatial and depth patterns compared to sNO_3^- except that depletion was less frequent (data not shown). Among "late" stations complete sSi(OH)₄ depletion occurred in only two highly productive interior sections; however, levels approached complete depletion in a significant number of other "late" samples.

3.4. Particulate Organic Matter

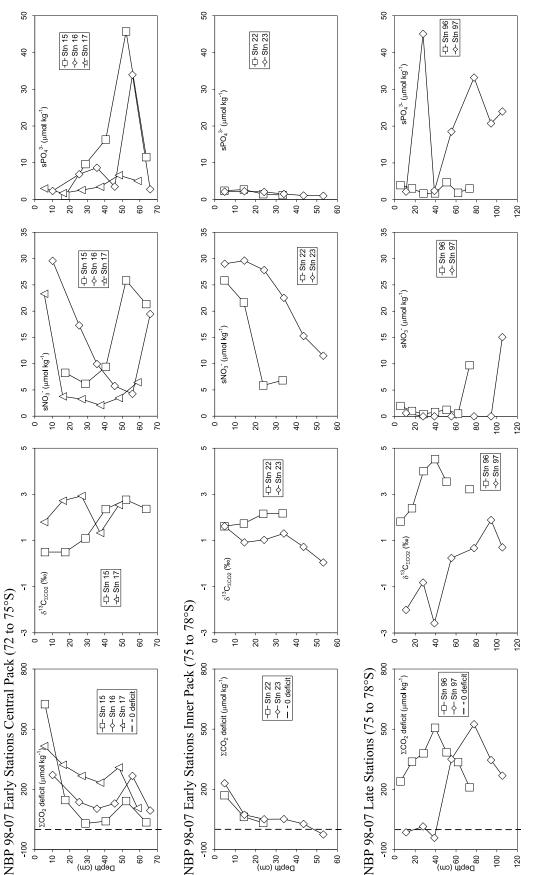
[19] POC for all individual ice segments collected during NBP 98–07 and NBP 06–08 ranged from 169 to 20744 μ g l⁻ (14 to 1729 μ mol l⁻¹) and from 185 to 2720 μ g l⁻¹ (15 to 227 μ mol l⁻¹), respectively. Sea ice POC showed distinct latitudinal trends for the "early" NBP 98-07 transect with high levels near the northern edge of the pack, a smaller local maximum near 72°S, and steadily decreasing values to the south, approaching the Ross Sea polynya [Arrigo et al., 2003]. The highest POC observed in this study was from "late" pack ice in the southwestern Ross Sea sampled during NBP 98–07. Very low POC was observed in young thin ice near the polynya. High POC was generally observed at the bottom of the ice with very high POC observed in bottom segments from "late" stations (Figure 5). The range in POC was less than observed by Kennedy et al. [2002] who reported POC greater than 6000 μ mol l⁻¹ in Weddell Sea pack ice in January/February 1997.

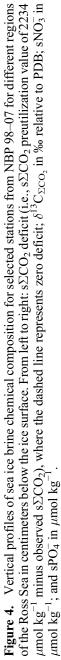
[20] $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$ values ranged from -30.5 to -9.2‰ for all sea ice samples from both cruises (n = 287, Table 1). The range in water column $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$ for the upper 150 m during NBP 98– 07 was notably smaller (-22.1 to -31.0%, n = 452) than for samples from sea ice. Mean sea ice $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$ during NBP 98– 07 (-23.0‰) was enriched by 5‰ relative to mean water column $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$ (-28.1‰) (Figure 6). Mean sea ice $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$ during NBP 06-08 was slightly more depleted (-24.4‰) than during NBP 98–07. Enriched $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$ generally coincided with high POC both spatially and with depth in the ice (Figures 5 and 7). $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$, like POC, was typically highest near the ice-water interface (Figure 5). However, enriched $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$ was also observed in interior sections from "late" stations during NBP 98-07 (Figure 5). The observed sea ice range is similar to that observed by Kennedy et al. [2002] in Weddell Sea pack ice in January/February 1997 (-27.3 to -10.0%).

4. Discussion

4.1. Influence of Abiotic Processes on ΣCO_2 and $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$

[21] Recent studies based on field observations from the Weddell Sea [*Papadimitriou et al.*, 2007; *Dieckmann et al.*, 2008] and freezing experiments [*Papadimitriou et al.*, 2004] indicate that CaCO₃ precipitation and CO₂ degassing may have a significant impact on both Σ CO₂ and $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma$ CO₂ in





NBP 98-07 Early Stations Central Pack (72 to 75°S)

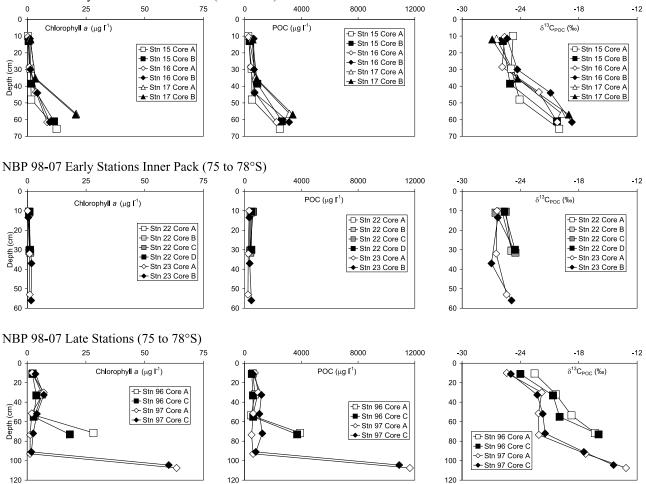


Figure 5. Vertical profiles of sea ice particulate organic composition for selected stations from NBP 98–07 in centimeters below the ice surface. From left to right: chlorophyll *a* in μ g l⁻¹; POC in μ g l⁻¹; and $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$ in ‰ relative to PDB.

sea ice brines. Papadimitriou et al. [2007] noted dramatic reductions in alkalinity in combination with ΣCO_2 deficits in second year ice in the Weddell Sea suggesting carbonate precipitation. Dieckmann et al. [2008] observed the metastable hydrated CaCO₃ phase ikaite (CaCO₃ 6H₂O) in sea ice environments in the Weddell Sea ranging from young to multiyear pack ice. Additionally, Papadimitriou et al. [2004] measured s Σ CO₂ depletions of up to 376 μ mol kg⁻¹ in brine samples during an 18 day freezing experiment where biological effects on ΣCO_2 and $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$ were assumed to be minimal; on the basis of isotopic constraints, the authors suggest that both CaCO₃ precipitation and CO₂ degassing may occur in sea ice. On the basis of equilibrium thermodynamic considerations, both anhydrous and hydrated forms of CaCO₃ may precipitate at brine temperatures lower than -1.9° C, assuming conservative behavior of Σ CO₂ [Anderson and Jones, 1985; Marion, 2001]. PO₄³⁻ is a known inhibitor of precipitation of anhydrous CaCO₃ minerals [Bischoff et al., 1993] and high PO_4^{3-} levels have been linked to ikaite precipitation in Antarctic sediments [Whiticar and Suess, 1998] and other high-latitude environments. Elevated PO_4^{3-} was observed in many brines sampled in this study, likely resulting from both concentration during freezing and regeneration

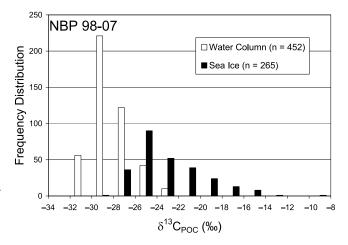


Figure 6. Histogram of all individual sea ice and water column $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$ samples from NBP 98–07; all isotopic values are in % relative to PDB.

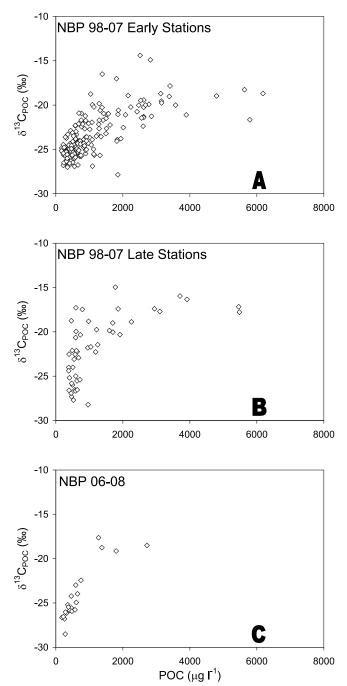


Figure 7. Relationship between POC and $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$ of ice segments from (a) NBP 98–07 "early" stations, (b) NBP 98–07 "late" stations, and (c) all NBP 06–08 stations; all isotopic values are in ∞ relative to PDB.

of POM within brine channels (Table 1 and Figure 4), so we expect that conditions favorable to ikaite precipitation were achieved. Degassing of CO_2 occurs owing to the concentrating effects of brine formation and as a result of $CaCO_3$ precipitation. Nucleation of gas bubbles within brine pockets is facilitated by the presence of nucleation sites (e.g., authigenic particles); resultant gas bubbles are trapped within the ice matrix but may eventually escape to the atmosphere or the underlying water column [*Killawee et al.*, 1998; *Papadimitriou*]

et al., 2004]. Degassing may be more pronounced in sea ice than in freshwater ice due to the porous nature of the sea ice matrix and, to a lesser degree, the decreasing solubility of CO_2 with increasing salinity.

[22] We observed large s ΣCO_2 deficits in upper sections of the ice at low-productivity stations (Figure 4). Deficits near the top of the ice were particularly large (up to 625 μ mol kg⁻¹) in the central pack during NBP 98-07 (72 to 75°S). Previous field investigations suggest that significant biological activity under these conditions is unlikely. Arrigo and Sullivan [1992] found greatly reduced photosynthetic rates in fast ice algal communities at salinities above 50 psu and total photosynthetic shutdown above 100 psu salinity. Brine salinities among "early" stations of NBP 98-07 were routinely greater than 50 psu, especially in upper sections of the ice where ice temperatures were consistently below -7°C [Arrigo et al., 2003]. Considering that brines had likely been colder and therefore even more saline in the months prior to our investigation, it is unlikely that conditions in upper sections of the central pack would have allowed for significant photosynthesis. Support for this interpretation is provided by nutrient distributions and observations of POC and chlorophyll a. $s\Sigma CO_2$ deficits in upper ice layers were not accompanied by significant drawdown of NO_3^- or other nutrients (Figure 4). Low concentrations of chlorophyll a and POC in surface layers of the central pack (Figure 5) suggest that little photosynthesis had occurred in situ following ice formation during the previous autumn. Biological data from an investigation of microbial communities in the Ross Sea during autumn 1998 support this assumption [Garrison et al., 2003, 2005]. Depleted $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$ in upper sections of the central pack suggest that the bulk of existing POC may have been entrained during ice formation.

[23] The effect of abiotic processes on $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$ of sea ice brines is complicated by the opposing isotopic fractionation effects associated with CaCO₃ precipitation and CO₂ degassing and by the degree of exchange with the atmosphere and seawater below. If we assume the brine is completely isolated and biological effects are negligible, we can consider only the temperature-dependent equilibrium fractionation between evolved $CO_2(g)$ and HCO_3^- ($\varepsilon_{CO2(g)-HCO3-}$) and between CaCO₃(s) and HCO₃⁻ (ε _{CaCO3(s)-HCO3-}). At 0°C, ε _{CO2(g)-HCO3-} is -10.8‰ [Zhang et al., 1995]. Precipitation of ikaite has a much smaller fractionation effect in the opposite direction. Whiticar and Suess [1998] estimated a fractionation during the precipitation of ikaite ($\varepsilon_{CaCO3•6H20(s)-HCO3-}$) of between 1 and 2‰ at -1.4°C which is nearly identical to the observed fractionation during the precipitation of calcite at 0°C ($\varepsilon_{CaCO3(s)-HCO3-} = +1.2\%$) [Romanek et al., 1992; Papadimitriou et al., 2004]. Degassing of ¹²C-enriched CO₂ enriches the remaining ΣCO_2 pool in ¹³C whereas precipitation of ¹³C-enriched CaCO₃ phases depletes the ΣCO_2 pool; therefore, the overall isotopic effect depends on the fractional contribution of each process to overall ΣCO_2 reduction [Papadimitriou et al., 2004]. If the system is open to significant exchange with the atmosphere, Rayleigh dynamics no longer hold and kinetic fractionation effects associated with gas exchange must also be considered [Stiller et al., 1985; Papadimitriou et al., 2004].

[24] We can use the empirically determined fractionation factors described above to calculate the fractional contri-

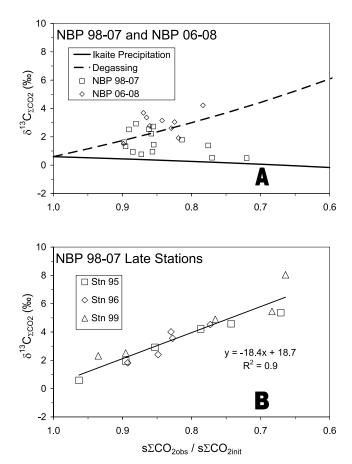


Figure 8. (a) Estimation of the fractionation factor (ε_i) due to abiotic processes based on $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$ and $s\Sigma CO_2$ from extracted sea ice brines. Experimentally determined fractionation effects for abiotic processes are used to calculate theoretical isotopic composition of the remaining brine assuming Rayleigh behavior: $R_t/R_o = f^{(\alpha-1)}$, where R_o is the ratio of ¹³C to ¹²C of the initial ΣCO_2 pool divided by the ratio of 13 C to 12 C of the PDB standard, and R_t is the analogous ratio for the remaining $s\Sigma CO_2$ pool at time t; f is the fraction of the s ΣCO_2 pool remaining, and α is the fractionation factor. Here ε for each process equals $(\alpha - 1)$ *1000. Theoretical lines are calculated assuming an initial $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$ of 0.6‰ and an initial s Σ CO₂ of 2234 μ mol kg⁻¹. Here $\varepsilon_{CaCO3 \cdot 6H20 - HCO3} = +1.5\%$ for ikaite precipitation; $\varepsilon_{\rm CO2(g)-HCO3-}$ = -10.8‰ for degassing based solely on equilibrium fractionation. Only data from samples with $s\Sigma CO_2$ deficits greater than 200 μ mol kg⁻¹ and brine salinities greater than 50 psu are shown. (b) Relationship between $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$ and $s\Sigma CO_2$ from extracted sea ice brines from selected NBP 98-07 "late" stations.

butions of CaCO₃ precipitation and degassing to inorganic carbon loss using the Rayleigh-type distillation equation of *Barkan et al.* [2001] after *Papadimitriou et al.* [2004]:

$$\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_{2,1}} = \delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_{2,i}} + (f_{degas} * \varepsilon_{degas} + f_{precip} * \varepsilon_{precip}) \\ * \ln(s\Sigma CO_{2,t}/s\Sigma CO_{2,i}),$$
(1)

where $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_{2,t}}$ is the observed isotopic composition at time t, $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_{2,t}}$ is the initial isotopic composition estimated

from assumed winter seawater conditions, $s\Sigma CO_{2,t}$ is the observed salinity-normalized concentration at time t, $s\Sigma CO_{2,i}$ is the initial salinity-normalized concentration estimated from assumed winter seawater conditions, fdegas is the fractional contribution of inorganic carbon loss due to degassing, and f_{precip} is the loss due to carbonate precipitation. Using an ε_{degas} of -10.8% for degassing and an ε_{precip} of +1.5% for CaCO₃ 6H₂O precipitation, f_{precip} estimates ranged from 0 to 0.9 for all individual NBP 98–07 brine samples with a s ΣCO_2 drawdown greater than 200 μ mol kg⁻¹ and a brine salinity above 50 psu (n = 15); f_{precip} for the sample with the greatest drawdown (625 μ mol kg⁻¹) was 0.9. f_{precip} for all NBP 06–08 brine samples satisfying the same criteria ranged from 0 to 0.4 (n = 9) with most samples indicating that degassing was solely responsible for $s\Sigma CO_2$ deficits. Uncertainty increases to infinity for segments with deficits less than 200 μ mol kg⁻¹. Given the complex and variable history of brine channel environments and the small number of segments that meet the above criteria for this calculation, our estimates should be viewed with caution. As mentioned above, we assume that segments with deficits greater than 200 μ mol kg⁻¹ are closed to the atmosphere and surrounding seawater and thus can be accurately described by Rayleigh-type equations. We also assume that photosynthesis is negligible at brine salinities above 50 psu and that salinities prior to sampling had been continuously too high (and in situ temperatures too low) for significant photosynthesis. Figure 8a shows the theoretical Rayleigh curves for degassing and precipitation of ikaite including all samples that meet the above criteria for both cruises. Rearranging equation (1) and making the same assumptions as above, we can estimate an effective fractionation factor for all abiotic processes in sea ice brines:

$$\varepsilon_{i} = \left(\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_{2,i}} - \delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_{2,i}}\right) / \left[\ln\left(s\Sigma CO_{2,t}/s\Sigma CO_{2,i}\right)\right], \quad (2)$$

where ε_i is the effective fractionation factor due to all abiotic processes; all other terms are the same as described for equation (1). We estimate an ε_i of $-7 \pm 6\%$ for NBP 98–07 and $-13 \pm 5\%$ for NBP 06–08.

[25] If degassing accounted for a significant fraction of the reduction of ΣCO_2 in cold upper ice, we would expect to find isotopic enrichment in upper ice relative to lower sections among "early" stations of NBP 98-07 in the cold interior pack ice and from similar stations during NBP 06-08. Indeed, $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$ ranged from +0.5 to +3.5% in topmost sections at all such stations suggesting the possibility of isotopic enrichment due to degassing. Nevertheless, this range is nearly identical to the range in $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$ in Ross Sea surface waters so it seems unlikely that degassing is a dominant control on $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$ and hence isotopic enrichments in sea ice POC. However, isotopic enrichment may be partially offset or "masked" by remineralization of low δ^{13} C POC entrained during ice formation. On the basis of this limited quantitative approach, we suggest that precipitation of solid CaCO₃ phases such as ikaite and CO2 degassing may both contribute to ΣCO_2 loss from Ross Sea sea ice brine, but we cannot conclusively state which is more important, what if any mineral phases are precipitating in the pack ice, and what conditions may favor one process over the other. A more quantitative analysis including measurement of alkalinity,

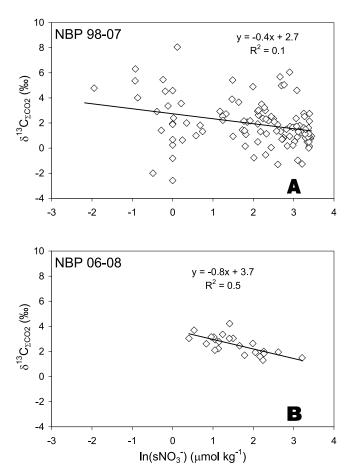


Figure 9. Relationship between $\ln(sNO_3^-)$ in μ mol kg⁻¹ and $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$ for (a) NBP 98–07 and (b) NBP 06–08; all isotopic values are in % relative to PDB.

chemistry and amount of authigenic mineral phases, and dissolved gas ratios during the coldest winter months may provide more conclusive evidence of the influence of abiotic processes on the sea ice carbonate system. Such investigations might be justified given the potential impact of degassing/CaCO₃ precipitation on regional carbon budgets. A simple calculation suggests that a ten percent loss of ΣCO_2 from the top meter (the approximate thickness of first year pack ice) of seawater degassed over a season from five percent of the Earth surface (the approximate global coverage of seasonal pack ice) yields an annual ocean-atmosphere CO_2 flux of 0.07 Pg C y⁻¹ assuming the degassed CO_2 escapes through the ice to the atmosphere. For comparison, the net ocean-atmosphere CO_2 flux for the entire Southern Ocean south of 50°S has been estimated at -0.47 Pg C y⁻¹ [Takahashi et al., 2002]. This estimate of degassed CO₂ flux from sea ice is purely speculative, but the observation of $s\Sigma CO_2$ deficits from sea ice demonstrates the potential importance of degassing and CaCO₃ precipitation within sea ice on regional carbon cycling in the ice-covered seas. While abiotic processes are assumed to be the dominant cause of $s\Sigma CO_2$ deficits in cold upper ice, most brine samples were from environments with salinities less than 50 psu suggesting that most environments with large $s\Sigma CO_2$ deficits have a mainly biological origin (Figures 2b and 3b).

4.2. Influence of Sea Ice Biology on ΣCO_2 and $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$

[26] We invoke photosynthetic drawdown of ΣCO_2 to explain enrichment of both $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$ and $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$ in sea ice. The strong correlation between $s\Sigma CO_2$ deficits and $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$ at "late" stations during NBP 98-07 (Figures 4 and 8b) coincident with other indicators of biological activity (i.e., elevated cholophyll a and POC concentrations shown in Figure 5) suggests that biological uptake was a dominant control on $\delta^{13} \tilde{C}_{\Sigma CO_2}$, variability at productive stations and that uptake occurred at a rapid rate relative to replenishment from surrounding seawater. Further evidence of biological drawdown of $s\Sigma CO_2$ is provided by the relationship between $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_3}$ and brine sNO₃ (Figure 9) where nutrient depletion was coincident with isotopic enrichment. The rela-tionship between $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$ and $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$ in sea ice is not always straightforward. While many stations show significant $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$ enrichment, a large number of measurements fell toward the depleted end of the range (<-25‰) suggesting that a significant fraction of POM in the ice at less productive stations was entrained from surface seawater during ice formation and thus its isotopic composition does not entirely reflect in situ primary production. In addition, the low $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$ end-member for sea ice brines is ~3.0% lower than values observed in the water column suggesting significant remineralization of ¹³C-depleted POC can occur within isolated brine environments. Furthermore, it seems possible that the semisolid gelatinous nature of POM within the sea ice matrix may contribute to longer residence times for POC compared to brine ΣCO_2 which drains continuously through channels as air and sea ice temperatures increase. These factors may explain why ΣCO_2 depletion accounts for less than a third of observed POC at most stations (data not shown). Despite these complications, there is a strong positive correlation between POC concentration and $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$ for all stations from NBP 98-07 and NBP 06-08 (Figure 7). The overall range in $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$ from sea ice brines (-2.6 to +8.0‰) compared to the range in surface seawater $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$ (+0.5 to +3.5‰) suggests that biological drawdown of ΣCO_2 can account for up to a 7.5‰ enrichment in sea ice POC relative to water column POC in the most isolated/productive environments.

[27] The degree of isotopic fractionation by marine phytoplankton during photosynthetic carbon fixation (ε_p) is defined as the difference between $\delta^{13}C_{CO_{2(aq)}}$ and $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$. A number of factors are known to influence ε_p including [CO_{2(aq)}], growth rate, species specific fractionation effects, and direct HCO₃ uptake [*Laws et al.*, 1995; *Popp et al.*, 1999; *Tortell et al.*, 1997, 2008; *Cassar et al.*, 2004]. Estimation of ε_p for sea ice algae is complicated by the dynamic nature of sea ice microenvironments described above. Abiotic isotopic effects, brine drainage and seawater recharge, and remineralization of entrained POC and POC produced in situ can potentially offset or inflate enrichment of $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$. Previous studies also indicate that heterotrophic products are enriched in ¹³C relative to algae, another potential complication in the interpretation of isotopic measurements from sea ice POC [*Fischer et al.*, 1988].

[28] We estimate variability of $\varepsilon_{\rm p}$ within sea ice by comparing $\delta^{13}C_{\rm CO_{2(aq)}}$ and $\delta^{13}C_{\rm POC}$ from highly productive "late" stations (stations 95–99) sampled during NBP 98–07. $\delta^{13}C_{CO_{2(a0)}}$ can be calculated from measured $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_{2}}$ and temperature (T_k in Kelvin) using the equation $\delta^{13}C_{CO_{2(aq)}} = \delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_{2}} * 23.644 - 9701.5/T_{k}$ from *Burkhardt et al.* [1999] and the equation $\varepsilon_{\rm p} = (\delta^{13}C_{\rm CO_{2(aq)}} - \delta^{13}C_{\rm POC})/(1 + 0.001*\delta^{13}C_{\rm POC})$ after *Rau et al.* [2001] and *Kennedy et al.* [2002]. For the biologically active "late" stations of NBP 98–07, we calculate an ε_p of ~11 ± 2‰ (n = 14) with a range from 5 to 14‰. This value is ~8‰ smaller in magnitude than the apparent ε_p for phytoplankton in open waters of the Ross Sea (R. B. Dunbar, unpublished data, 2009). Kennedy et al. [2002] observed a similar range in ε_p from 5 to 20% in sea ice environments from the Weddell Sea and no apparent correlation between ε_p and $[CO_{2(aq)}]$. The sea ice algae ε_p estimated in this study is also similar to the ε_p estimated during upwelling conditions in Monterey Bay [Rau et al., 2001] and off the coast of Peru [Pancost et al., 1997]. Rau et al. [2001] observed that $\varepsilon_{\rm p}$ was relatively insensitive to $[CO_{2(aq)}]$, growth rate, and cell size and suggested that active uptake of HCO₃⁻ could account for a lower ε_p than predicted by a purely diffusive CO₂ transport model; the lower ε_p results from the 9 to 11‰ offset between $\delta^{13}C_{HCO3^-}$ and $\delta^{13}C_{CO_{2(aq)}}$ due to the temperature-dependent fractionation presented above. If we assume that sea ice algae predominantly fix carbon derived from HCO₃⁻ at highly productive "late" stations instead of $CO_{2(aq)}$ and that fractionation during transport and acquisition of HCO_3^- is negligible, we calculate an $\varepsilon_{\rm pHCO3-}$ of 23 ± 2‰ (n = 14), closer to the $\varepsilon_{\rm pCO2(aq)}$ observed in open water regions of the Ross Sea.

[29] Our estimation of $\varepsilon_{\rm p}$ assumes that abiotic fractionation effects at "late" NBP 98-07 stations were negligible, a reasonable inference given that temperature, brine salinity, and ΣCO_2 were close to seawater, and that enrichment coincided with evidence of in situ biological production (i.e., nutrient depletion, huge stocks of POC and chlorophyll *a*). We also note that the sensitivity of ε_p to [CO_{2(aq)}], growth rates, and cell size was not quantified in this study. Size fractionation studies from open water regions of the Southern Ocean have found significant (up to 8%) enrichment in large organic particulates (derived mainly from diatoms) relative to fine particulates [Trull and Armand, 2001]. Given that the sea ice community was almost exclusively composed of diatoms as reported in the work of Arrigo et al. [2003], species composition and/or the cell surface/volume ratio could also contribute to a reduced sea ice algae $\varepsilon_{\rm p}$.

5. Conclusions

[30] Stable carbon isotopic signatures in sea ice ΣCO_2 and POC reflect a dynamic combination of biotic and abiotic processes that grow increasingly complex as sea ice ages. ¹³C-enrichment observed in both POC and ΣCO_2 suggests that microenvironments within the sea ice ecosystem remain isolated well into spring when rates of primary production remain high relative to rates of nutrient replenishment. Our results suggest high rates of primary production within brine environments close to the ice-water interface and also within interior communities of thick persistent pack ice as demonstrated by large accumulations of POC and dramatic reductions in $s\Sigma CO_2$. We find evidence for the influence of degassing and/or carbonate precipitation on the CO_2 system within some brine environments, particularly within cold hypersaline brines. At such sites, deficits in $s\Sigma CO_2$ of up to 625 μ mol kg⁻¹ accompanied by variability in $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_7}$ and a lack of nutrient drawdown suggest that significant CaCO₃ precipitation and/or CO₂ degassing can occur in the upper ice during the austral winter. At sites exhibiting significant primary productivity, based on the relationships between $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$, $\delta^{13}C_{POC}$, and s ΣCO_2 , we conclude that photosynthetic drawdown is the dominant control on isotopic enrichment of POC in sea ice relative to POC from the water column. Photosynthetic enrichment in $\delta^{13}C_{\Sigma CO_2}$ of up to 7.5‰ can explain some but not all of the isotopic enrichment of sea ice algal POC in the Ross Sea. Another significant factor may be much lower ε_p values for sea ice algae compared to ε_p for open water Ross Sea phytoplankton. The estimated average $\varepsilon_{pCO2(aq)}$ of 11‰ at biologically active sea ice stations presumably reflects the response of the sea ice algal community to greater levels of carbon drawdown than observed in the open water column. The source of this reduction may also be related to a shift from utilization of CO₂ (aq) to active uptake of HCO₃⁻ [Tortell et al., 1997, 2008; Cassar et al., 2004] and/or the cell surface/volume ratio of sea ice algae relative to open water communities.

[31] Our results suggest that: (1) abiotic carbon system transformations related to the initial formation of sea ice as well as the continued cooling of brine-containing sea ice during the austral winter may result in precipitation of solid CaCO₃ phases and CO₂ release; (2) photosynthetic drawdown of brine Σ CO₂ contributes significantly to the overall enrichment observed in sea ice algal δ^{13} C values; (3) net photosynthetic fractionation factors for sea ice algae are lower and more variable than ϵ_p values for open water algal communities; and (4) extreme POC δ^{13} C_{POC} enrichments (>-20‰) are associated with, and limited to, sea ice environments, suggesting a strong utility for paleoenvironmental assessment of the presence/absence of sea ice.

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