

1 Diatom growth, biogenic silica production, and grazing losses to microzooplankton  
2 during spring in the northern Bering and Chukchi Seas

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15 colimitation

16

17 **Abstract**

18 It is unclear how warming polar marine systems will alter the magnitude of diatom productivity  
19 and its fate within the food web. We examined diatom productivity and size-fractionated  
20 phytoplankton grazing losses to protozoan grazers in the northern Bering and Chukchi seas  
21 during June 2017. Sea ice was nearly absent and water temperatures were unseasonably warm;  
22 such conditions may be considered normal in future decades. Among 28 experiments conducted,  
23 five were in bloom conditions. Diatom biomass and production rates were similar to previous  
24 studies, suggesting the early ice retreat did not lead to appreciably reduced diatom growth.  
25 Statistical analyses showed that 77% of the variance in diatom growth rate could be explained by  
26 a combination of nutrients, light, and their interaction, but the interactive effect was most  
27 important (explaining 66 % of the variance). Protozoan grazing intensity on phytoplankton was  
28 largely affected by size, specifically, grazing on larger phytoplankton (e.g. diatoms) was highly  
29 variable among stations, with many stations having unquantifiable rates. Protozoan grazers  
30 consumed an average of  $23 \pm 35\%$  of growth at bloom stations and  $55 \pm 102\%$  among non-  
31 bloom stations. For smaller phytoplankton, grazing was persistent and less variable spatially,  
32 consuming  $64 \pm 38\%$  of growth at bloom stations and  $79 \pm 63\%$  at non-bloom stations. Although  
33 previous studies (that did not size-fractionate samples) inferred that protozoan grazers control  
34 diatom biomass during blooms, our results suggest that diatom productivity largely escaped  
35 protozoan grazing losses, especially in bloom conditions, likely due to temporal lag between  
36 phytoplankton and protist biomass accumulation. Thus, during bloom conditions, it was  
37 estimated that 20-50 times more diatom organic matter was available for higher trophic levels

38 and/or export (as opposed to water column remineralization) than under non-bloom conditions,  
39 despite only a 12-fold increase in gross diatom production in the bloom.

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## 42 **1. Introduction**

43

44 While predicting future productivity in the Bering Sea (BS) and Chukchi Sea (CS) is  
45 important, a more pressing concern in this system is determining the fate of primary production  
46 within the food web. Existing data in the BS show that annual primary productivity is higher in  
47 years with poorer survivorship of age-0 walleye pollock (*Theragra chalcogramma*)—the most  
48 important regional and global (2014 data) fishery by landings (Eisner et al., 2014; FAO, 2016;  
49 Hunt et al., 2011). The lack of a significant correlation between fisheries potential and annual  
50 primary production could imply not-direct or non-linear relationships between these rates.  
51 Indeed, the 2019 Ecosystem Status report for the eastern BS show no correlation between the  
52 annual mean abundance of large copepods and euphausiids (age-0 walleye pollock prey) and the  
53 average primary production rate during the growing season, whereas there is a positive  
54 correlation between smaller copepods (not as favorable for age-0 walleye pollock) and primary  
55 production (Kimmel et al., 2019; Nielsen et al., 2019). Such a lack of understanding limits our  
56 predictive capability to determine whether hypothetical increases in future primary production  
57 may fuel enhanced higher trophic biomass in the pelagic or benthic realms. Whether diatoms will  
58 continue to have a dominant role in regional spring productivity is also unknown. Bottom-up  
59 factors, e.g. warming, could reduce diatoms' element per unit biovolume (i.e. elemental density),  
60 and therefore reduce the quantity of carbon produced (Krause and Lomas, 2020; Lomas et al.,  
61 2019), even if other bottom-up factors (increased light, nutrient fluxes) favor faster growth rates.  
62 Understanding the fate of diatom primary production has important ramifications, from modeling  
63 changes in regional biogeochemical cycles to diagnosing whether the ecosystem will sustain  
64 economically important services.

65 While multiple groups of phytoplankton persist in the high-latitude Alaskan Seas, larger  
66 cells such as diatoms play key food-web roles, especially during blooms in both the spring and  
67 summer (Giesbrecht and Varela, 2021; Krause and Lomas, 2020; Yang et al., 2015). During the  
68 spring, the phytoplankton community increases biomass and fuels efficient transfer of energy  
69 and materials to higher trophic levels; under such conditions diatoms dominate phytoplankton

70 biomass and the community rate of primary production (Baumann et al., 2014; Lomas et al.,  
71 2012). During cold-anomaly years in the eastern BS, Baumann et al. (2014) observed that diatom  
72 contribution to total phytoplankton biomass averaged 80% in the spring. A recent analysis of  
73 data from 2006 through 2016 demonstrated that warm anomaly years have higher phytoplankton  
74 biomass but the size structure is not significantly different from cool anomaly years (Lomas et  
75 al., 2020).

76 Microzooplankton (MZP) and larger mesozooplankton (LMZP e.g. calanoid copepods,  
77 euphausiids) are important consumers of regional phytoplankton productivity (Campbell et al.,  
78 2016; Sherr et al., 2013). Relative to most phytoplankton groups, diatoms' larger size makes  
79 them favorable food sources for LMZP, which are themselves important prey items for age-0  
80 class walleye pollock. On the eastern BS shelf, stable isotope data suggest LMZP graze more  
81 heavily on diatoms and other primary producers than MZP (Morales et al., 2014). However,  
82 analyses based on direct feeding experiments have shown that while LMZP prefer MZP as prey,  
83 in the spring and early summer; MZP biomass is minor compared to phytoplankton, and  
84 therefore, phytoplankton dominate LMZP diets under these conditions (Campbell et al., 2016).  
85 Such direct ingestion allows for a more efficient trophic transfer of phytoplankton organic matter  
86 than "phytoplankton → MZP → LMZP" pathways (Sherr et al., 2013; Stoecker et al., 2014a;  
87 Yang et al., 2015), which compound respiration losses from the increased number of trophic  
88 steps. Thus, processing primary productivity through the microbial loop may be one of the  
89 underlying factors affecting the observed spatial variations in organic matter quality based on  
90 C:N ratios, e.g. Grebmeier et al. (1988).

91 Regional studies show that MZP can be a major carbon pool within the food web for  
92 higher consumers (e.g. copepods) and they can consume significant quantities of primary  
93 production. Previous studies demonstrate that MZP biomass in these systems are variable and, at  
94 times, can exceed phytoplankton biomass by multiple factors, ranging from 0.2 – 109  $\mu\text{g C L}^{-1}$   
95 during spring (Sherr et al., 2013) and 1– >150  $\mu\text{g C L}^{-1}$  during summer (Olson and Strom, 2002;  
96 Stoecker et al., 2014b; Strom and Fredrickson, 2008; Yang et al., 2015). Similarly, summer  
97 studies have observed that MZP carbon can exceed phytoplankton carbon, especially when  
98 chlorophyll *a* (Chl *a*) concentrations are low. During the Bering Ecosystem Study (BEST) and  
99 Bering Sea Integrated Ecosystem Research Program (BSIERP), it was recognized that there is a  
100 seasonal increase in the relative importance of MZP grazing relative to phytoplankton growth. In

101 the spring, MZP grazing rates averaged 46% of phytoplankton growth among bloom and non-  
102 bloom conditions (Sherr et al., 2013). Farther north, in the CS and Beaufort Sea during late  
103 spring and early summer (Shelf–Basin Interactions program), Sherr et al. (2009) observed that  
104 MZP grazing consumed between 0–120% of daily primary production (note: >100% losses of  
105 daily primary production reduces phytoplankton standing stock), with an average of 22%  
106 —approximately half the spring rates observed during BEST/BSIERP. More recent results  
107 demonstrated similar variability in the CS during spring 2014, where MZP grazed 31–>100% of  
108 primary production, with an average of 46% (Connell et al., 2018). While these data demonstrate  
109 that MZP can be an important control on total phytoplankton biomass and productivity, size-  
110 fractionated data for the BS are only reported for the summer (Olson and Strom, 2002; Strom  
111 and Fredrickson, 2008). During summer in the Chukchi, Yang et al. (2015) directly quantified  
112 diatom losses to MZP (based on cell counts), and showed it was substantial ( $63\% \pm 21\%$  SD of  
113 diatom production); however, whether this is similar in the spring is unknown. The lack of size-  
114 fractionated data during spring precludes us from understanding which phytoplankton size  
115 classes are being controlled by MZP. Sherr et al. (2013) note that the disparity in growth rates  
116 between MZP and diatoms during early bloom stages in the BS is due to the lag of MZP growth  
117 rate to availability of phytoplankton prey (i.e. MZP growth approaches maximum rates at high  
118 prey biomass levels). This disparity during spring suggests that regional diatoms could grow (at  
119 times) with minor losses due to MZP. Such a condition would enable a high proportion of diatom  
120 carbon being directly consumed by higher trophic level organisms (e.g. LMZP, larval fish)  
121 and/or exported to the benthos via sedimentation (e.g. single cell sinking, association with  
122 aggregates).

123 In this study, we report rates of diatom growth and productivity, along with rates for  
124 MZP grazing on both large ( $\geq 5 \mu\text{m}$ ) and small ( $< 5 \mu\text{m}$ ) phytoplankton during spring in the  
125 northern BS and CS during a year experiencing early-ice retreat and anomalously warm  
126 temperatures (Baker et al., 2020; Walsh et al., 2018). The grazing measurements are coupled to  
127 measurements of diatom productivity using a silicon tracer method, as diatoms are the only  
128 major phytoplankton group having an obligate silicon requirement. Such early-ice retreat  
129 conditions may affect regional food web phenology by altering when the main phytoplankton  
130 bloom occurs and the growth/success of consumers which require this production pulse. Given  
131 the projected warming trends through the end of the 21<sup>st</sup> century for the pan-Arctic region (IPCC,

132 2014) and the potential for ecological reordering in this region (Huntington et al., 2020),  
133 understanding the proportion of primary production which is consumed by MZP will be  
134 important for setting upper limits for the availability of primary production to higher trophic  
135 organisms in this system.

136

## 137 **2. Methods**

138

### 139 *2.1. Collection and hydrography*

140

141 Microzooplankton grazing, phytoplankton growth, and diatom productivity rates were  
142 measured during the Arctic Shelf Growth, Advection, Respiration and Deposition (ASGARD,  
143 Chief Scientist S. Danielson) cruise in the northern BS and CS aboard the R/V Sikuliaq from 9 –  
144 28 June 2017 (Fig. 1). Hydrographic properties were measured using a SeaBird SBE CTD  
145 equipped with a Biospherical QSP-240 photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) meter, Wetlabs  
146 FLRTD fluorometer and SeaBird SBE 43 O<sub>2</sub> meter. Water was collected at two depths, based on  
147 the percent PAR relative to that just below the surface (%I<sub>0</sub>), typically the 50%I<sub>0</sub> depth (upper  
148 euphotic zone) and the lower euphotic zone (5% or 1%I<sub>0</sub>). One Niskin bottle per depth was  
149 sampled directly into darkened acid-cleaned 20 L carboys through a 200 µm Nitex mesh. This  
150 water was used for all rate measurements and particulate matter standing stock measurements,  
151 and the carboys were gently mixed by inversion before any subsamples were taken. Nutrient  
152 samples were collected directly from Niskin bottles taken at the same depth and syringe filtered  
153 through 0.45 µm cellulose acetate membranes and immediately frozen. On shore, silicic acid,  
154 phosphate, nitrate, nitrite and ammonium were analyzed using standard methods described by  
155 Mordy et al. (2012).

156

### 157 *2.2. Particulate matter standing stocks*

158

159 Particulate matter standing stocks were subsampled and analyzed using standard  
160 methods. After gently homogenizing the carboy, triplicate subsamples per depth were taken for  
161 measurement of Chl *a* and biogenic silica (bSiO<sub>2</sub>) and a single sample was collected for diatom  
162 abundance and morphometrics. 1.0 L Chl *a* samples were filtered sequentially through 5 µm

163 polycarbonate membranes housed in 47 mm in-line filter holders, and glass fiber filters (0.7  $\mu\text{m}$   
164 approximate pore size) housed in 25 mm in-line filter holders. Thus, each triplicate bottle had  
165 both  $\geq 5$  and  $< 5$   $\mu\text{m}$  fraction measurements. At sea, Chl *a* samples were extracted in acetone for  
166 24 hours at  $-20$   $^{\circ}\text{C}$  and quantified using an acidification method on a TD10-AU fluorometer  
167 calibrated at sea with a pure chlorophyll standard (Sigma–Aldrich, C6144); daily calibration  
168 checks were done using a solid standard, as in Lomas et al. (2012).

169 Two  $\text{bSiO}_2$  metrics are reported. For total  $\text{bSiO}_2$  standing stock, which includes both that  
170 associated with live cells and detrital fragments, 0.6 – 1.0 L was filtered through a 1.2  $\mu\text{m}$  pore  
171 size polycarbonate filter, folded in quarters and transferred to a cryogenic vial, then frozen ( $-20$   
172  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ). On shore, samples were dried in a  $60$   $^{\circ}\text{C}$  oven, and  $\text{bSiO}_2$  quantified using an alkaline  
173 digestion in Teflon tubes (Krause and Lomas, 2020). To derive  $\text{bSiO}_2$  standing stock associated  
174 with only living diatoms, the total  $\text{bSiO}_2$  standing stock was combined with microscopy. A single  
175 10-mL subsample was collected per depth for diatom abundance and morphometrics and was  
176 analyzed on a VS Series benchtop FlowCam (Yokogawa Fluid Imaging Technologies;  
177 Scarborough, ME). Analysis was done on unfixed samples in autoimage mode with a 10x  
178 objective and 200  $\mu\text{m}$  flow cell. Given the analytical configuration, runs typically lasted  $\sim 30$   
179 minutes and samples were analyzed  $< 2$  hours post hydrocast. Diatom images (empty frustules  
180 excluded) were manually classified within the generated image files. Biovolume is among the  
181 automatically calculated morphometric properties for each imaged particle using either prolate  
182 sphere, sphere, or cylindrical shapes; for this analysis, we used only cylinder-based biovolume.  
183 As discussed in Krause and Lomas (2020), the FlowCam software assigns a single biovolume  
184 value to chains and the biovolume assignments for diatom chains are conservative, especially for  
185 longer chains. Diatom biovolume for each manually-classified image was converted to  $\text{bSiO}_2$   
186 standing stock using the cold-water diatom allometric equation for Si vs. biovolume in stationary  
187 growth (assuming most populations will not be in exponential phase at the time of sampling)  
188 reported by Lomas et al. (2019):

$$\text{Log Si (pmol cell}^{-1}\text{)} = 0.72 (\text{Log Biovolume, } \mu\text{m}^3) - 1.34$$

189  
190 This relationship was empirically determined using 11 diatom cultures grown at  $2$   $^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Some of  
191 these clones were isolated in lower latitudes (e.g.  $40 - 59$   $^{\circ}\text{N}$ ) when ambient temperature was  $\leq 3$   
192  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Single-cell  $\text{bSiO}_2$  content was calculated and the summation of all imaged cells per sample  
193 yielded the biovolume-derived  $\text{bSiO}_2$  associated with the living diatoms — hereafter referred to

194 as “live” bSiO<sub>2</sub> to distinguish it from total (living plus detrital) bSiO<sub>2</sub>. While this relationship  
195 works well for ASGARD and other Southern Ocean field datasets, it does not appear to be  
196 accurate for more temperate cold water systems like in the northern Kerguelen Plateau —  
197 discussed in Krause and Lomas (2020). However, this specific allometric relationship has been  
198 shown to yield growth rates that are realistic, i.e. 1 – 64% of the maximum predicted growth rate  
199 based on the temperature of collection (Eppley, 1972), compared to Si per biovolume  
200 relationships derived from low-latitude diatoms in culture and field studies (Conley et al., 1989;  
201 Krause et al., 2010), which can yield growth rates ranging from 6 – 294% (average 110%) of that  
202 predicted by the temperature (Krause and Lomas, 2020). The underlying mechanisms  
203 responsible for the Lomas et al. (2019) allometry success and/or unsuccess in specific cold-water  
204 systems requires more study. However, for this analysis, this allometry is favored based on  
205 collectively yielding the most realistic growth rates given the ambient temperatures.

206

### 207 *2.3. Diatom production and growth rates*

208

209 For bSiO<sub>2</sub> production, measurements were made using a radioisotope (Krause et al.,  
210 2011). After gently homogenizing the carboy, triplicate 150 mL polycarbonate bottles were filled  
211 at the same time as dilution experiment bottles. To each replicate, 367 Bq of <sup>32</sup>Si(OH)<sub>4</sub> (>20 kBq  
212 μg Si<sup>-1</sup>) was added, bottles were capped and sealed, and placed in bags made of neutral density  
213 screening to simulate the %I<sub>0</sub> at the depth of collection. Bags were then submerged in a  
214 transparent acrylic deck-board incubator continuously cooled with shipboard water pumped from  
215 their underway system intake (~6 m depth, ~50%I<sub>0</sub> depth). Incubations were terminated after 24  
216 hours and samples were filtered onto a 1.2 μm pore polycarbonate filter, dried on Nylon disc  
217 planchettes, then covered with mylar that was secured with a nylon ring to keep the filter and  
218 particles contained. <sup>32</sup>Si (long-lived parent, half-life ~140 years) decays into a short-lived  
219 daughter isotope, <sup>32</sup>P (half-life ~14 days); samples were stored for ~4 months (i.e. seven <sup>32</sup>P half-  
220 lives) to reach secular equilibrium and avoid quantification of any activity on the filter which  
221 was from the uptake of <sup>32</sup>P. Planchette <sup>32</sup>Si activity was quantified using gas-flow proportional  
222 counting with a GM-25 multiscaler (Risø National Laboratory, Technical University of  
223 Denmark) as described by (Krause et al., 2011). The gross rate of bSiO<sub>2</sub> production is referred to

224 as  $\rho$  ( $\mu\text{mol Si L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$ ), and was normalized to the total standing stock of  $\text{bSiO}_2$  to determine the  
225 biomass-specific rate of production, denoted as  $V_b$ , using a logistic approach:

$$226 \quad \text{bSiO}_{2\text{-New}} = \rho \times (\text{incubation time})$$

$$227 \quad V_b = \ln[(\text{bSiO}_{2\text{-New}} + \text{average bSiO}_2) \times (\text{average bSiO}_2)^{-1}] \times (\text{incubation time})^{-1}$$

228 where the average  $\text{bSiO}_2$  represents the average of the triplicate samples at the same sampling  
229 point. Combining the  $^{32}\text{Si}$  uptake and live  $\text{bSiO}_2$  facilitated estimation of diatom growth rates ( $\mu$ )  
230 (Krause and Lomas, 2020) as:

$$231 \quad \text{diatom } \mu = \rho \times (\text{live bSiO}_2)^{-1}$$

232 In four (out of 24 total) cases, live  $\text{bSiO}_2$  exceeded the total  $\text{bSiO}_2$  from the filtered samples  
233 (102, 134, 138, 316%); for these instances, diatom  $\mu$  was calculated using the filtration-based  
234 total  $\text{bSiO}_2$  assuming that all  $\text{bSiO}_2$  was living (i.e.  $V_b$  and diatom  $\mu$  are equal). Both  $V_b$  and  
235 diatom  $\mu$  enable estimates of doubling times following:

$$236 \quad \text{doubling time} = (V_b \text{ or diatom } \mu) \times \ln(2)$$

237 The comparison of diatom  $\mu$  and  $\geq 5 \mu\text{m}$  phytoplankton  $\mu$  (dilution experiment, see  
238 below) is not straight forward, even if diatoms represent 100% of the  $\geq 5 \mu\text{m}$  Chl *a*, due to these  
239 measurements quantifying different aspects of diatom cell growth. The dilution method derives  
240 estimates of  $\mu$  from net changes in cell-associated Chl *a* under variable MZP grazing losses.  
241 These changes can be positive or negative and may not necessarily reflect cell division.  $^{32}\text{Si}$ -  
242 based estimates of diatom  $\mu$  are based on the rate at which Si is incorporated into diatom  
243 frustules (typically occurs immediately prior to division) and normalized to live  $\text{bSiO}_2$ ; because  
244 of the tracer addition approach, only positive rates are valid. There are known temporal offsets  
245 between these two processes within a diatom cell. If the incubation period is less than a cell  
246 division cycle, then it would be expected that these measurements of diatom  $\mu$  and  $\geq 5 \mu\text{m}$   $\mu$  are  
247 uncoupled. Given the 24-hour incubation conditions, and that regional diatoms have been shown  
248 to grow at a doubling every two days (Yang et al., 2015), these independent growth metrics are  
249 not expected to be well aligned for this system even when diatom biomass dominates this size  
250 fraction.

251

#### 252 *2.4. Microzooplankton grazing and phytoplankton growth rates*

253



254 Microzooplankton grazing and phytoplankton  $\mu$  were quantified for each Chl *a* size  
255 fraction,  $\geq 5 \mu\text{m}$  and  $< 5 \mu\text{m}$ , using a modified dilution experiment assay similar to previous  
256 regional studies (Olson and Strom, 2002; Sherr et al., 2013; Stoecker et al., 2014a; Strom and  
257 Fredrickson, 2008; Yang et al., 2015). This method has been widely used and reviewed  
258 elsewhere (Calbet and Landry, 2004); briefly, it assumes that predictable changes in encounter  
259 rate between MZP and phytoplankton prey affect the net accumulation of phytoplankton biomass  
260 (e.g. Chl *a*) proportionally, i.e. reducing the interaction increases the relative net accumulation of  
261 Chl *a* due to the easing of grazing pressure. A second Niskin bottle at each light depth was used  
262 to generate particle-free seawater (i.e. exclusion of bacteria and microplankton). Water was  
263 directly subsampled from the Niskin bottle through  $0.2 \mu\text{m}$  capsule filter (with a built-in  $0.8 \mu\text{m}$   
264 pre-filter), using a peristaltic pump, into 1-L incubation bottles in four proportions (based on the  
265 dilution percentage); these ranged from 100% whole seawater to 15% whole seawater (i.e. 85%  
266 particle-free seawater). For each experiment (i.e. depth and station), four dilution levels were  
267 used, and every level had triplicate bottles. After gently homogenizing water from the  $200 \mu\text{m}$ -  
268 prefiltered carboy, whole seawater was added to the particle-free seawater in each dilution bottle,  
269 slowly (with minimal turbulence) bringing all 1 L bottles to a constant volume (i.e. the bottle  
270 brim), and sealing the bottle opening with laboratory parafilm to avoid any air bubbles after the  
271 bottle cap was placed (M. Landry, pers. comm.). A nutrient amendment was made ( $5 \mu\text{M}$  nitrate,  
272  $0.5 \mu\text{M}$  phosphate) when nitrate concentrations in the water were  $< 1 \mu\text{M}$  based on shipboard  
273 underway In Situ Ultraviolet Spectrophotometer sensor to avoid exacerbating potential nutrient  
274 limitation by lack of MZP-based nutrient remineralization in highly diluted samples. Post cruise  
275 nutrient data showed inconsistencies between the underway nitrate estimate and that from the  
276 direct nutrient analysis, specifically that some nutrients were low when the sensor measurement  
277 reported high values. Many studies use unamended 100% whole seawater controls to compare  
278 with nutrient-amendment bottles, e.g. (Olson and Strom, 2002; Yang et al., 2015); however,  
279 similar to Sherr et al. (2013), who were also involved in a large and multidisciplinary cruise, we  
280 did not have the water budget to include unamended controls, as these would have resulted in no  
281 volume for diatom production measurements (above). Regional studies, during summer, show  
282 that the growth rate for non-amended controls are typically 80% – 100% of rates in the amended  
283 controls among phytoplankton groups (Yang et al., 2015). Sample bottles (12 per depth) were  
284 placed in corresponding neutral density screened bags and incubated alongside  $^{32}\text{Si}$  samples.

285 Initial Chl *a* samples were immediately filtered following placement of samples in the incubator  
286 and final Chl *a* samples were filtered after the 24-hour incubation; both were size-fractionated  
287 and quantified at sea as described above. The initial Chl *a* was averaged among triplicates and  
288 multiplied by each dilution factor to obtain the initial Chl *a* concentration for each dilution. Flow  
289 cytometry subsamples (2 mL) were collected from all Chl *a* sample bottles prior to filtration.  
290 These samples were preserved (0.5% paraformaldehyde final concentration), frozen at -80 °C,  
291 analyzed as described elsewhere (Casey et al., 2013), and were used to quantify potential  
292 photoacclimation effects during the incubation. During analysis, the relative red fluorescence of  
293 phytoplankton particles was compared to a standard reference bead (Spherotech; 0.53 μm Nile  
294 Red), which was checked and adjusted (if necessary) every half hour while samples were being  
295 analyzed to ensure consistency of instrument performance through the analytical run. When the  
296 ratio of red fluorescence in the final samples to the initial samples ( $PA_{\text{corr}}$ ) exceeded 1.0, we  
297 interpreted that photoacclimation occurred and used this to empirically correct calculated rates  
298 (discussed below).

299 Net changes in Chl *a* as a function of dilution were used to determine the parameters of  
300 interest. Particle-free seawater blanks typically had barely detectable or below-detection Chl *a*.  
301 For every individual replicate among dilution levels, the net rate of Chl *a* change was calculated  
302 as:

$$\text{Net Chl } a \text{ rate} = \ln(\text{Chl } a \text{ final} \times \text{Chl } a \text{ initial}^{-1} \times PA_{\text{corr}}^{-1}) \times \text{incubation time}^{-1}$$

303 thus, 12 points were generated among the four dilution levels for each size fraction.  
304 Operationally,  $PA_{\text{corr}}$  values for picoeukaryotes and nanoeukaryotes were assigned for the <5 and  
305  $\geq 5$  μm fractions, respectively. The increased temperature of incubation relative to that at the  
306 collection of sampling may have artificially increased phytoplankton growth rates. Among the 15  
307 stations, the temperature at the 50% $I_0$  during collection was 0 – 5.9 °C higher than the lower-  
308 light sample depth, with the median and average being 2.1°C and 2.2 °C, respectively. Given the  
309 lower light conditions which persisted throughout the incubation, we presume that light was the  
310 most salient limiting factor (see Discussion) and chose not to apply any temperature corrections  
311 in this analysis. A Model I linear regression was fit to each data set (i.e. <5,  $\geq 5$  μm size fractions)  
312 where the slope denotes the specific MZP grazing rate (denoted as  $g$ ,  $d^{-1}$ ) and the y-intercept the  
313 instantaneous phytoplankton growth rate (denoted as  $\mu$ ,  $d^{-1}$ , i.e. the rate of growth when no MZP  
314 grazers are present). For these regression fits, an  $\alpha = 0.05$  level was used to denote the

316 probability of rejecting the null hypotheses (i.e. MZP grazing and phytoplankton growth rates  
317 were zero) when true. Under conditions when we could not reject the null hypothesis for a  
318 specific rate (i.e. grazing, growth), we considered it below detection for that experiment and a  
319 value of zero was assigned for purposes of averaging rates among stations. The proportion of  
320 phytoplankton growth consumed by MZP grazing was estimated as:  $g \times \mu^{-1}$  for each size  
321 fraction, depth, and station. To distinguish dilution-experiment derived  $\mu$  from diatom growth  
322 rate derived using  $^{32}\text{Si}$  (above), dilution-based growth rates will be referred to with their  
323 corresponding size fraction (e.g.  $<5 \mu\text{m}$   $\mu$  and  $\geq 5 \mu\text{m}$   $\mu$ ).

324

## 325 *2.5. Historical data and statistical analysis*

326

327 To contextualize our results, MZP grazing rate data from previous studies were compiled  
328 from published tables (Liu et al., 2002; Olson and Strom, 2002; Sherr et al., 2009; Sherr et al.,  
329 2013; Strom and Fredrickson, 2008; Yang et al., 2015). For data only reported in figures  
330 (Connell et al., 2018; Olson and Strom, 2002), Graph Grabber (Quintessa software) was used to  
331 extract these data. In other studies (Stoecker et al., 2014a), data were available in public archives.  
332 Because we could not directly compare our size fractionated rates with these previous studies  
333 (for which size fractionation may not have been conducted), rates were compared based on total  
334 Chl *a* (i.e. sum of our size fractions).

335 Statistics were run using XLStat software. For correlation analyses, a non-parametric  
336 Spearman Rho test was used, and comparison between sample types was also done using a non-  
337 parametric Mann Whitney U test. For model II regressions, a geometric mean regression  
338 approach was used. To determine factors that affected diatom growth rates, an ANCOVA  
339 approach was used to generate a best fit model determined using the Akaike Information  
340 Criterion (AIC). The goal of this model was to assess the relative importance of measured  
341 properties (e.g. nutrient concentrations), categorical variables (e.g. high and low light), and/or  
342 their interaction, in explaining variance among diatom growth rates.

343

## 344 **3. Results**

345

### 346 *3.1. Hydrography and nutrients*

347

348           The general climatology during ASGARD 2017 was warm relative to average conditions  
349 (Danielson et al., 2020; Huntington et al., 2020). Generally, the progression of sea-ice retreat was  
350 consistent from south to north based on data within three subareas in the southeastern BS,  
351 northern BS, and the CS (Fig. 1). An oscillation between warm and cold intervals between 2000  
352 – 2019 for a small area in the southeastern BS (Fig. 1B) alters the ice retreat timing by plus or  
353 minus one month compared to mean conditions (Stabeno et al., 2012), though recent conditions  
354 have shown more dramatic changes (Baker et al., 2020; Huntington et al., 2020; Walsh et al.,  
355 2018). Fractional ice cover in the southeastern and northern BS during June 2017 (Fig. 1D) were  
356 consistent with previous decades for this time of the year (i.e. low), yet the ice extent in the  
357 northern BS appeared to be declining in April and May relative to the long-term record. During  
358 June, the average ice cover (mean  $\pm$  SD used throughout Results unless otherwise noted) in the  
359 northern BS was  $3.4\% \pm 2.7\%$  from 1980 through 2006, but from 2007 through 2017 it was  $0.4\%$   
360  $\pm 0.5\%$ . Relative to the years 1980 through 2019, the extent of ice-free water in the CS during  
361 June 2017 was highest during this time series (Fig. 1D) and with only minimal changes in the  
362 following two years after the cruise (June 2018, June 2019). This reduction trajectory appears to  
363 be a long-term, albeit highly variable, trend since 1980 (Fig. 1D). Within the water column, we  
364 consistently observed thermal stratification (as expected). Among our incubation stations, the  
365 upper euphotic zone samples (3 – 7 m) came from waters ranging between 2.4 – 6.5 °C, while  
366 for the lower euphotic zone samples (10 – 35 m) the water temperature at the time of sampling  
367 ranged between -1.2 – 4.0 °C (Table 1, Fig. 2).

368           Nutrient concentrations were variable laterally across the shelf, but increased with depth  
369 (Table 1, Fig. 2). In the upper euphotic zone, the ranges (mean  $\pm$  SD) for phosphate, nitrate,  
370 ammonium, and silicic acid were 0.3 – 1.7  $\mu\text{M}$  ( $0.7 \pm 0.4 \mu\text{M}$ ), 0.0 – 16.7  $\mu\text{M}$  ( $3.1 \pm 5.9 \mu\text{M}$ ),  
371 0.0 – 1.5  $\mu\text{M}$  ( $0.4 \pm 0.5 \mu\text{M}$ ), 0.5 – 31.4  $\mu\text{M}$  ( $6.7 \pm 10.1 \mu\text{M}$ ), respectively. In the lower euphotic  
372 zone, the ranges (mean  $\pm$  SD) for phosphate, nitrate, ammonium, and silicic acid were 0.6 – 1.8  
373  $\mu\text{M}$  ( $1.0 \pm 0.4 \mu\text{M}$ ), 0.0 – 17.9  $\mu\text{M}$  ( $5.0 \pm 6.7 \mu\text{M}$ ), 0.0 – 4.4  $\mu\text{M}$  ( $1.3 \pm 1.0 \mu\text{M}$ ), 0.7 – 33.4  $\mu\text{M}$   
374 ( $9.5 \pm 11.1 \mu\text{M}$ ), respectively. Most of the variability in both diatom  $V_b$  and diatom  $\mu$  was  
375 accounted for by variability in nitrate and silicic acid concentrations (discussed below); thus,  
376 phosphate and ammonium are not discussed further. The heterogeneity across the nutrient fields  
377 reflects a combination of unresolved lateral variations in the flow and water mass fields, time

378 history of each water parcel in relation to the spring bloom, and the energetic local flow field  
379 adjusting to the topographic constrictions of the Bering Strait region (Danielson et al., 2020;  
380 Danielson et al., 2014).

381

### 382 3.2. Phytoplankton community and diatom biomass

383

384 As with nutrients, Chl *a* concentrations were highly variable station-to-station (Table 1,  
385 Fig. 2). Among the 28 sample depths, five were considered to be at bloom biomass ( $>3.0 \mu\text{g Chl } a \text{ L}^{-1}$ , Table 1), based on the regional criterion reported in Sherr et al. (2013). For upper euphotic  
386 zone samples,  $\geq 5 \mu\text{m Chl } a$  ranged from  $<0.1 - 16.5 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  with an average of  $1.7 \pm 4.4 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$   
387 (Fig. 2C), while  $<5 \mu\text{m Chl } a$  ranged from  $<0.1 - 0.8 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  with an average of  $0.3 \pm 0.3 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$   
388 Replication for Chl *a* in both size fractions was acceptable, with the average ( $\pm$  SD) percent  
389 coefficient of variation (CV) being  $14 \pm 9\%$  and  $21 \pm 15\%$  for the large and small size fractions,  
390 respectively. Lower euphotic zone samples were similar in range to upper euphotic zone  
391 samples;  $0.2 - 17.6 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  for  $\geq 5 \mu\text{m Chl } a$  and  $<0.1 - 0.8 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  for  $<5 \mu\text{m Chl } a$ ; with average  
392 values of  $2.5 \pm 4.6 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  and  $0.3 \pm 0.2 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  for the  $\geq 5 \mu\text{m}$  and  $<5 \mu\text{m Chl } a$  fractions,  
393 respectively. For these lower euphotic zone samples, the average percent CV was  $22 \pm 22\%$  and  
394  $25 \pm 20\%$  for the large and small size fractions, respectively. When averaging among all stations  
395 and depths, the  $\geq 5 \mu\text{m}$  fraction had the majority of Chl *a*, and this increased from the upper  
396 euphotic zone ( $55 \pm 28\%$ ) to the lower euphotic zone ( $75 \pm 21\%$ ).

398 Like  $\geq 5 \mu\text{m Chl } a$ , bSiO<sub>2</sub> (i.e. diatom biomass proxy) had a similar degree of station-to-  
399 station variability (Fig. 2D, 2I). In the upper euphotic zone, bSiO<sub>2</sub> ranged from  $0.5 - 14.5 \mu\text{mol}$   
400  $\text{Si L}^{-1}$  (Fig. 2D) with an average ( $\pm$  SD) of  $4.5 \pm 4.8 \mu\text{mol Si L}^{-1}$ . In the lower euphotic zone,  
401 bSiO<sub>2</sub> ranged from  $1.9 - 15.2 \mu\text{mol Si L}^{-1}$  (Fig. 2I) with a significantly higher average,  $8.2 \pm 4.4$   
402  $\mu\text{mol Si L}^{-1}$ , than the upper euphotic zone (Mann-Whitney U = 53,  $p < 0.05$ ; Fig. 2D, 2I). The CV  
403 among total bSiO<sub>2</sub> replicates was better than for both Chl *a* size fractions, averaging  $9 \pm 15\%$  and  
404  $6 \pm 5\%$  for upper and lower euphotic zone, respectively. The percentage of live bSiO<sub>2</sub>, which  
405 was associated with living diatoms (Table 1), ranged from  $4 - 316\%$  (average  $60\% \pm 90\%$ ) and  $2$   
406  $- 190\%$  (average  $38\% \pm 56\%$ ) for the upper and lower euphotic zones, respectively. As noted  
407 above in the Methods section, only four samples exceeded 100% (Table 1), and when assigning  
408 100% to these depths, the averages ( $\pm$  SD) were reduced to  $37 \pm 38\%$  and  $30 \pm 34\%$  for the upper

409 and lower euphotic zone, respectively. Correlations between total and live bSiO<sub>2</sub> with ≥5 μm Chl  
410 *a* were strong and all highly significant: ≥5 μm Chl *a* vs. total bSiO<sub>2</sub> (Spearman Rho = 0.87,  
411 p<0.01), ≥5 μm Chl *a* vs. live bSiO<sub>2</sub> (Spearman Rho = 0.79, p<0.01). These results suggest that  
412 diatoms were the dominant phytoplankton group modulating the signal in the larger Chl *a* size  
413 fraction.

414

### 415 3.3. Diatom bSiO<sub>2</sub> production and growth rates

416 Diatom bSiO<sub>2</sub> production generally mirrored the trends in biomass (Table 1, 2). The  
417 gross rate of bSiO<sub>2</sub> production,  $\rho$ , was highly correlated with total bSiO<sub>2</sub> standing stock  
418 (Spearman Rho = 0.75, p<0.01) and ≥5 μm Chl *a* (Spearman Rho = 0.85, p<0.01).  $\rho$  ranged from  
419 0.01 – 1.81 μmol Si L<sup>-1</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> (average 0.35 ± 0.59 μmol Si L<sup>-1</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) and <0.01 – 2.03 μmol Si L<sup>-1</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>  
420 (average 0.38 ± 0.64 μmol Si L<sup>-1</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) for the upper and lower euphotic zones, respectively. Like  
421 other replicated measurements, the CV was low, with averages of 12 ± 7% and 12 ± 6% for the  
422 upper and lower euphotic zones, respectively.  $V_b$  ranged from 0.01 – 0.17 d<sup>-1</sup> and <0.01 – 0.14 d<sup>-1</sup>  
423 <sup>1</sup> for the upper and lower euphotic zone, respectively; the averages (± SD) at each light depth  
424 were also similar (upper euphotic zone 0.05 ± 0.05 d<sup>-1</sup>, lower euphotic zone 0.03 ± 0.04 d<sup>-1</sup>).  
425 Maximum  $V_b$  (i.e. 0.17 d<sup>-1</sup>) infers a minimum doubling time of 4.1 days; however, the doubling  
426 time averaged (± SD) station-by-station (opposed to basing on average  $V_b$ ) inferred was 34 ± 24  
427 and 82 ± 86 days for the upper and lower euphotic zone, respectively.

428 Diatom  $\mu$  can help correct for potential bias of  $V_b$  rates due to detrital bSiO<sub>2</sub>.  $V_b$  and  
429 diatom  $\mu$  among stations and depths were not significantly correlated (Spearman Rho = 0.07,  
430 p=0.73), which is expected if there was a variable proportion of detrital bSiO<sub>2</sub> among stations  
431 (Goering et al., 1973; Krause et al., 2010). Diatom  $\mu$  exceeded  $V_b$  in all but four samples (i.e.  
432 those where live bSiO<sub>2</sub> was >100%). Diatom  $\mu$  ranged from 0.02 – 0.68 d<sup>-1</sup> (average 0.20 ± 0.19  
433 d<sup>-1</sup>) and 0.05 – 0.79 d<sup>-1</sup> (0.17 ± 0.21 d<sup>-1</sup>) in the upper and lower euphotic zone, respectively. The  
434 station-by-station average doubling times averaged (± SD) 9 ± 11 and 7 ± 4 days for the upper  
435 and lower euphotic zone, respectively. We infer that diatom  $\mu$  estimates are reflective of  
436 phytoplankton in only the large size fraction (discussed below); this is bolstered by the strong  
437 correlations between ≥5 μm Chl *a* and live bSiO<sub>2</sub> (see above), ≥5 μm Chl *a* and  $\rho$  (see above),  
438 and no correlation between <5 μm Chl *a* and either live bSiO<sub>2</sub> (Spearman Rho = 0.00, p=0.97) or  
439  $\rho$  (Spearman Rho = 0.03, p=0.89).

440 Using an ANCOVA approach, a statistical model was produced to identify and quantify  
441 the degree of diatom  $\mu$  variability explained by nutrients, light, and their interaction. Using AIC,  
442 the best fit models using 1, 2 and 3 parameters were generated. Given that we sampled at relative  
443 light depths (i.e. 50% $I_0$  and 5% $I_0$  or 1% $I_0$ ) for a given experiment, light was used as a categorical  
444 variable, i.e. high ( $n = 13$ ) or low ( $n = 10$ ) in the ANCOVA. A one interaction model (nitrate x  
445 light) explained a majority of the variance (model  $F_{(1, 21)} = 40.9$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ,  $r^2 = 0.66$ , AIC = -107.9;  
446 Supplementary Table 1, 2). The two- and three-variable models selected could explain a higher  
447 proportion of diatom  $\mu$  variance but only with a minor change in AIC (e.g. two variable: light,  
448 silicic acid x light  $r^2 = 0.72$ ,  $\Delta AIC$  2.4; three variable: ammonium, light, silicic acid x light  $r^2 =$   
449  $0.77$ ,  $\Delta AIC$  4.6; Supplementary Table 1, 2).

450

451 *3.4. Size-fractionated phytoplankton community rates: MZP grazing loss and phytoplankton*  
452 *growth*

453

454 Whether MZP grazing rates were quantifiable experimentally was strongly dependent on  
455 the phytoplankton size class (Fig. 3). Among the 28 experiments (i.e. 14 stations, 2 depths per  
456 station), significant grazing for the  $\geq 5 \mu\text{m}$  Chl *a* size fraction was observed in 10 experiments  
457 (Table 2); the lack of quantifiable grazing did not appear to result from the absence of nutrient  
458 amendments, as five experiments (of the 10 with quantifiable grazing) had amended nutrients  
459 and five did not. This differs from the  $< 5 \mu\text{m}$  Chl *a* size fraction, where significant grazing was  
460 observed in 21 of 27 experiments (Table 2;  $< 5 \mu\text{m}$  Chl *a* initial samples were compromised for  
461 one experiment/depth hence the lower total number of experiments). For the  $\geq 5 \mu\text{m}$  Chl *a* size  
462 fraction, grazing rates ranged from 0 – 3.33  $\text{d}^{-1}$  (average  $0.35 \pm 0.89 \text{ d}^{-1}$ ) in the upper euphotic  
463 zone and 0 – 2.95  $\text{d}^{-1}$  (average  $0.31 \pm 0.78 \text{ d}^{-1}$ ) in the lower euphotic zone (Table 2). Among  
464 these same stations and depths, the growth rate for the  $\geq 5 \mu\text{m}$  Chl *a* size fraction ranged from -  
465 0.50 – 1.40  $\text{d}^{-1}$  (average  $0.09 \pm 0.43 \text{ d}^{-1}$ ) and -0.10 – 1.00  $\text{d}^{-1}$  (average  $0.09 \pm 0.27 \text{ d}^{-1}$ ) in the  
466 upper and lower euphotic zones, respectively. In the  $< 5 \mu\text{m}$  Chl *a* size fraction, grazing rates  
467 ranged from 0 – 2.71  $\text{d}^{-1}$  (average  $0.62 \pm 0.77 \text{ d}^{-1}$ ) in the upper euphotic zone and 0 – 2.30  $\text{d}^{-1}$   
468 (average  $0.57 \pm 0.57 \text{ d}^{-1}$ ) in the lower euphotic zone (Table 2). The corresponding range in  
469 growth rates for the  $< 5 \mu\text{m}$  Chl *a* size fraction ranged from 0 – 2.00  $\text{d}^{-1}$  (average  $0.48 \pm 0.54 \text{ d}^{-1}$ )

470 and  $-0.42 - 1.77 \text{ d}^{-1}$  (average  $0.50 \pm 0.54 \text{ d}^{-1}$ ) in the upper and lower euphotic zones,  
471 respectively.

472 MZP grazing rates were significant at times relative to phytoplankton growth rates. When  
473 comparing MZP  $g$  to phytoplankton  $\mu$ , Sherr et al. (2013) included all stations, regardless of  
474 whether or not MZP grazing was significantly resolved; for consistency, we report  $g \mu^{-1}$  for both  
475 size fractions in this manner (Table 2). However, for our calculations of averages, we considered  
476 0 values for grazing when MZP was not significant. For the  $\geq 5 \mu\text{m}$  Chl  $a$  size fraction the  
477 percentage of grazing relative to growth ranged from 0 – 314% (average  $47\% \pm 100\%$ ) and 0 –  
478 295% (average  $51\% \pm 91\%$ ) in the upper and lower euphotic zones, respectively. For the  $< 5 \mu\text{m}$   
479 Chl  $a$  size fraction the percentage of grazing relative to growth ranged from 0 – 197% (average  
480  $87\% \pm 64\%$ ) and 0 – 147% (average  $97\% \pm 37\%$ ) in the upper and lower euphotic zones,  
481 respectively. As reported by Sherr et al. (2013), we also observed a major shift in  $g \mu^{-1}$  between  
482 bloom and non-bloom stations, but only for the large size fraction. Average ( $\pm$  SD)  $\geq 5 \mu\text{m}$   $g \mu^{-1}$   
483 was  $23\% \pm 35\%$  ( $55\% \pm 102\%$ ) for bloom (non-bloom) stations. Whereas average  $< 5 \mu\text{m}$   $g \mu^{-1}$   
484 was  $64\% \pm 38\%$  ( $79\% \pm 63\%$ ) for bloom (non-bloom) stations.

485

486

## 487 4. Discussion

488

### 489 4.1. Bottom-up regulation of phytoplankton growth rates

490

491 Dilution experiments enable an assessment of both bottom-up and top-down factors  
492 concurrently. The caveat for comparing phytoplankton growth rates to bottom-up factors is that  
493 dilution experiments must successfully conform to the methodological assumptions (Landry and  
494 Hassett, 1982). Non-zero rates for the small-phytoplankton size class were quantified in 70% of  
495 our experiments, twice the number of experiments where non-zero rates were quantified for large  
496 phytoplankton. A correlation analysis among all hydrographic (temperature, water depth),  
497 chemical (nitrate, ammonium, phosphate, silicic acid) and particulate (size fractionated Chl  $a$ ,  
498 total  $\text{bSiO}_2$ , live  $\text{bSiO}_2$ ) stocks, and process rates ( $< 5 \mu\text{m}$  and  $\geq 5 \mu\text{m}$   $\mu$ , MZP grazing on both  
499 size fractions, diatom  $\mu$ ,  $\rho$ ,  $V_b$ ) showed that the growth rate for small phytoplankton was  
500 significantly correlated with only the growth rate of large phytoplankton and the MZP grazing



501 rate of small phytoplankton (Spearman Rho = 0.72,  $p < 0.01$ ). These correlations suggest MZP  
502 controlled  $< 5 \mu\text{m}$  but not biomass in this size fraction. This lack of correlation may be an  
503 artifact of the relatively invariant  $< 5 \mu\text{m}$  biomass (Chl *a* range  $< 0.1 - 1.1 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ , average  $0.3 \pm$   
504  $0.2 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) and lower dynamic range than biomass in large cells, hence a correlation could not  
505 resolve a biomass trend. Additionally, the lack of correlation to hydrographic parameters and  
506 nutrients could reflect the tight coupling between small phytoplankton growth and MZP grazing  
507 at both light depths (i.e. MZP grazed, on average,  $87\% \pm 64\%$  and  $97\% \pm 37\%$  of production for  
508 upper and lower euphotic zone, respectively), suggesting that food web/ecological processes  
509 (nutrient remineralization) were more important for sustaining  $< 5 \mu\text{m}$  during our cruise.

510         Given the consistency in observed growth and MZP loss rates for small phytoplankton,  
511 the remainder of the discussion focuses on processes in the large phytoplankton size fractions,  
512 specifically for diatoms. Quantifiable non-zero growth rates in the large phytoplankton occurred  
513 in 35% of the experiments. The tight coupling between  $\geq 5 \mu\text{m}$  Chl *a* and total bSiO<sub>2</sub>, live bSiO<sub>2</sub>,  
514 and  $\rho$  strongly support the notion that diatoms drove the signal in the large phytoplankton size  
515 fraction, consistent with previous regional studies (Baumann et al., 2014; Giesbrecht and Varela,  
516 2021). We leverage the independent isotope-based diatom growth rates in the remaining analyses  
517 due to the high frequency of zero rates quantified for dilution experiments (discussed below).

518         There are few previous studies reporting  $\rho$ ,  $V_b$  or diatom  $\mu$  data in this region. During the  
519 Processes and Resources of the Bering Sea Shelf program from 1978 – 1981, Banahan and  
520 Goering (1986) reported  $\rho$  or  $V_b$  in the southeastern Bering Shelf region, the same spatial domain  
521 as more recent projects (e.g. BEST). Their sampling included higher vertical resolution, but  
522 euphotic zone average  $\rho$  (i.e. their reported integrated rate divided by euphotic zone depth)  
523 ranged from  $< 0.1 - 1.1 \mu\text{mol Si L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$ , with their highest single-depth rates exceeding  $2 \mu\text{mol Si}$   
524  $\text{L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$ ; these ranges are nearly identical to our observations. Similarly, their range in euphotic-  
525 zone averaged  $V_b$  was  $0.04 - 0.18 \text{d}^{-1}$ , similar to our rates during the ASGARD cruise (note:  
526 these authors normalized to total particulate silica opposed to just bSiO<sub>2</sub>, suggesting rates were  
527 conservative). More recently, Giesbrecht and Varela (2021) reported the first measurements for  $\rho$   
528 or  $V_b$  within the euphotic zone of the ASGARD domain (i.e. northern BS and CS) during July  
529 with multiple years of data (2013 – 2016). Giesbrecht and Varela (2021) observed higher  
530 maximum  $\rho$  and  $V_b$  values, with rates up to  $> 3 \mu\text{mol Si L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$  and  $> 0.3 \text{d}^{-1}$ , respectively;  
531 however, the time-averaged  $\rho$  among all stations and summers was  $< 0.5 \mu\text{mol Si L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$  except

532 for a single station in the Bering Strait (average  $\sim 2 \mu\text{mol Si L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$ ) which was more variable.  
533 Similarly, the central tendency for average  $V_b$  among years and stations reported by Giesbrecht  
534 and Varela (2021) was  $<0.2 \text{d}^{-1}$  for all stations except the Bering Strait ( $\sim 0.3 \text{d}^{-1}$ ). Yang et al.  
535 (2015) also used a dilution method approach in the CS ( $73^\circ - 79^\circ \text{N}$ ) during summer under  
536 primarily low Chl *a* conditions ( $<0.6 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ); however, these authors used diatom cell counts to  
537 quantify growth, making a better comparison to our isotope-derived diatom  $\mu$  (shown in Fig.  
538 4D). These authors reported a range of  $0.16 - 0.45 \text{d}^{-1}$ , with an average of  $0.30 \pm 0.10 \text{d}^{-1}$ .  
539 Overall, rates during ASGARD appear comparable to previous studies (in both spring and  
540 summer) despite the anomalously low ice conditions during June 2017 (Fig. 1D).

541 The comparison of  $V_b$  vs. silicic acid concentration can yield important information about  
542 whether diatoms may be kinetically limited by silicic acid availability. While kinetic limitation  
543 may not be intense enough to dramatically limit diatom growth, even moderate stress (e.g.  
544 uptake of Si at half saturation rates) has been linked to increased mortality through facilitation of  
545 viral infection both in laboratory conditions and the California Current during upwelling  
546 (Kranzler et al., 2019). A saturable response (e.g. Michaelis-Menten kinetics) is expected when  
547 examining  $V_b$  vs. silicic acid concentration, yet such a trend is only apparent for a subset of our  
548 data (Fig. 4A). Saturable responses are observed when a single community (i.e. specific station  
549 and water depth) is amended with increasing silicic acid to observe the response of Si uptake,  
550 e.g. Giesbrecht and Varela (2021) during summer, whereas we report uptake rates among  
551 different communities across a natural gradient in silicic acid. Consequently, each community  
552 likely has a different physiological acclimation state, *sensu* Lomas et al. (2014), which  
553 complicates using a Michaelis-Menten kinetic framework to infer limitation of diatoms by  
554 suboptimal silicic acid concentrations (hence using ANCOVA approach, discussed below). Low  
555  $V_b$  values are associated with both high and low silicic acid concentrations (Fig. 4A). We infer  
556 this to be due to low diatom activity (e.g. early bloom phases, high nutrients) and/or an artefact  
557 of high detrital silica which biases  $V_b$  to be low (e.g. late bloom phase, low nutrients). The subset  
558 of samples that appear to have a Michaelis-Menten response (i.e. all  $V_b > 0.03 \text{d}^{-1}$ , except the  
559 DBO2.2, 4m sample) only share the commonality of high live  $\text{bSiO}_2$  percentage ( $73 \pm 30\%$ ) vs.  
560 all other samples ( $18 \pm 24\%$ , Fig. 4A) and these differences are significant (Mann-Whitney  $U =$   
561  $24$ ,  $p=0.01$ ). Correcting for effects of detrital  $\text{bSiO}_2$  shows that diatom  $\mu$  was well correlated to  
562 bottom-up factors (Fig. 4B, 4C). The relatively linear response, opposed to a hyperbolic response

563 observed in short-term experiments, e.g. Giesbrecht and Varela (2021), observed between diatom  
564  $\mu$  and nutrients (Fig. 4B, 4C) is consistent with acclimation to the mean environment, as alluded  
565 to for P by Lomas et al. (2014). Taken together, this suggests that silicic acid concentration did  
566 not limit diatom growth during ASGARD.

567 Our data suggest that diatom  $\mu$  may have been lower than physiological maxima. Using  
568 Eppley's classical empirical equation showing the change in phytoplankton growth with  
569 temperature (Eppley, 1972), upper euphotic zone diatoms grew at an average of  $20 \pm 19\%$  of  
570 their maximum rate, and lower euphotic zone diatoms grew at an average of  $18 \pm 24\%$  of their  
571 maximum rate (Fig. 4D). Given the similarity of diatom rates to previous regional reports, it may  
572 be inferred that growth could have been limited in those studies also. Due to the high degree of  
573 correlation between silicic acid and nitrate concentrations (Spearman Rho = 0.94,  $p < 0.01$ ),  
574 diatom  $\mu$  increased linearly in response to increases of both nutrients (Fig. 4B, 4C), thereby  
575 making it difficult to assign one as the limiting nutrient over the other; however, the ANCOVA  
576 results show that the interaction of nitrate and light provides the most predictive power for a one-  
577 parameter model. The rate of increase in diatom  $\mu$  with increasing nutrient concentrations was  
578 also larger for the upper euphotic zone than lower euphotic zone. This separation by light depth  
579 suggests an important role for light and/or the interaction of light and nutrients in regulating  
580 diatom  $\mu$ , as observed for lower latitude diatoms (Brzezinski et al., 2015; King and Barbeau,  
581 2011). Even if the effect of light-nutrient interaction has a small absolute magnitude (compared  
582 to lower latitude systems), it could be proportionally more important in polar regions due to the  
583 relatively low growth rates constrained by ambient temperature. Given the result of the  
584 ANCOVA model fit to these data, i.e. the interaction of light and nitrate was the most important  
585 factor (explaining 66% of the data set variance), future regional work should explore diatom  
586 growth within the context of co-limitation.

587

#### 588 *4.2. Do MZP control diatoms during spring?*

589

590 Many ecological interactions among zooplankton and phytoplankton are size-dependent.  
591 As phytoplankton increase in size, e.g. large diatoms and/or long chains, they typically become  
592 too large for consumption by most MZP and are more favorable for LMZP (e.g. large calanoid  
593 copepods, krill), although studies do show BS LMZP prefer MZP (Campbell et al., 2016).

594 However, many MZP (e.g. certain dinoflagellates) have evolved mechanisms to handle large  
595 particles at a fast rate in lower latitudes, especially diatom chains - which may be many times  
596 longer than their own body length (Jacobson and Anderson, 1986). While there have been many  
597 studies in the region, especially in the southeastern BS, reporting dilution experiment data, most  
598 experiments were not size-fractionated and those that did were largely conducted during the  
599 summer (Olson and Strom, 2002; Strom and Fredrickson, 2008). When considering the proxy of  
600 total Chl *a* (i.e. sum of  $\geq 5$  and  $< 5$   $\mu\text{m}$  Chl *a* fractions) during spring data from previous studies,  
601 the proportion of experiments with no significant MZP grazing (i.e. grazing = 0) was similar to  
602 our study (Fig. 5). However, when size-fractionating, the proportion of experiments with MZP  
603 grazing rates equal to zero diverged with plankton size, a trend not observed during summer  
604 studies (Fig. 5). Given the similarity in our data and prior regional work (when using total Chl *a*  
605 as a proxy), we suggest that diatoms during spring largely escape MZP grazing losses, especially  
606 during blooms, and we explore explanations for this apparent lack of grazing control.

607 While large cells may be palatable for MZP, they do present issues of increased handling  
608 time and mechanical barriers. Two laboratory studies have demonstrated that MZP prefer  
609 diatoms with lower silica content vs. more silica-dense cells (Spillane, 2016; Zhang et al., 2017).  
610 Among all samples, only three (5 m DBO3.3, 4 m CPL6, 22 m IL4; Table 1) were dominated  
611 numerically by pennate diatoms (e.g. *Fragilariopsis*, *Pseudo-nitzschia*; data not shown), yet only  
612 one of these three samples (5 m DBO3.3, Table 2) had significant grazing on large  
613 phytoplankton by MZP. Strom et al. (2017) also recently reported there is no evidence that  
614 coccolithophorid calcium carbonate plates protect large phytoplankton from MZP grazing.  
615 Coccolithophore cells are considerably smaller than diatoms, thus, the combined effect of  
616 phytoplankton size and biomineral content may reduce, but not eliminate MZP grazing rates, e.g.  
617 (Jacobson and Anderson, 1986). In the Bering and Chukchi environments, this size-selectivity of  
618 MZP for smaller phytoplankton may manifest if the large phytoplankton assemblage is  
619 dominated by heavily silicified chain-forming centric diatoms as opposed to lightly silicified  
620 chain-forming pennate diatoms (Taniguchi et al., 1976). During spring 2017, we observed  
621 diatom assemblages most of the time were dominated by centric diatoms. Thus, it does not  
622 appear that diatom diversity or biomineralization directly promoted escape from MZP grazing.

623 Top-down control on MZP by LMZP could promote MZP grazing release from diatoms.  
624 Regional LMZP appear to prefer MZP, over diatoms, in their diets (Campbell et al., 2016).

625 However, Campbell et al. (2016) also noted that diatoms were the main diet of LMZP at bloom  
626 stations during spring in the eastern BS due to the exceptional disparity between diatom biomass  
627 and MZP biomass (i.e. LMZP cannot avoid eating diatoms in bloom conditions). During the  
628 ASGARD cruise, LMZP abundances were highly variable among stations and typically  
629 dominated by copepods (Kimura et al., 2020). None of the stations sampled by Kimura et al.  
630 (2020) were at our bloom stations (CNL3, DBO3.8A, DBO3.8, Table 1). The greatest LMZP  
631 abundances for the 2017 growing season (June – September) were observed in the month  
632 following the ASGARD cruise for the majority of LMZP species reported (Kimura et al., 2020).  
633 While top-down control on MZP cannot be directly tested with these data, we suggest that this  
634 was not a main mechanism based on the high spatial and temporal variability reported by Kimura  
635 et al. (2020) and the observations by Campbell et al. (2016) that LMZP primarily consume  
636 diatoms (despite preferring MZP) under bloom conditions.

637         The lack of significant grazing on the diatom size class by MZP may be a function of the  
638 time lags between these groups. During early bloom stages in this region, MZP growth rates are  
639 lower than diatoms due to the lower availability of phytoplankton prey; thus, the conditions of  
640 low MZP grazing losses for diatoms encountered during ASGARD may be due to this temporal  
641 disconnect (Sherr et al., 2013). Sherr and Sherr (2007) noted that heterotrophic dinoflagellates in  
642 the CS and Beaufort Sea are likely dominant consumers of diatom blooms during spring,  
643 consistent with other subarctic literature in the northern hemisphere (references therein).  
644 However, their analysis was largely based on comparison of standing stocks, without  
645 corresponding rate information for all data points. At the three stations with the highest  
646 proportion of grazing on large phytoplankton by MZP (CNL3, 4 m; DBO3.3, 5 m; CL3, 22 m;  
647 Table 2), FlowCam analysis (data not shown) showed that ciliates dominated MZP biovolume in  
648 two (CNL3, DBO3.3) whereas large dinoflagellates (presumably heterotrophic) dominated only  
649 at CL3. Overall, the FlowCam-derived MZP biomass (based on allometry) was relatively low  
650 (average  $\sim 20 \mu\text{g C L}^{-1}$ , 1st – 3<sup>rd</sup> quartiles 6 – 30  $\mu\text{g C L}^{-1}$ ; Lomas, Krause, unpubl.), especially  
651 compared to  $\sim 100 \mu\text{g C L}^{-1}$  estimated phytoplankton carbon —inferred by converting average  $\geq 5$   
652  $\mu\text{m Chl } a$  (average  $2.2 \pm 4.4 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) to carbon using a regional Carbon:Chl  $a$  ratio of  $\sim 50$  from  
653 Lomas et al. (2012). This range is similar to the average MZP standing stocks observed in the BS  
654 during spring at phytoplankton bloom (average  $42 \pm 22 \mu\text{g C L}^{-1}$ ) and non-bloom (average  $9.2 \pm$   
655  $7.8 \mu\text{g C L}^{-1}$ ) stations where dilution experiments were conducted (Sherr et al., 2013). Hence, the

656 disparity between MZP grazing and diatom growth rates during early bloom stages observed  
657 during ASGARD appears to be due to the lag of MZP growth rate to availability of  
658 phytoplankton prey (i.e. MZP growth approaches maximum rates at high prey biomass levels).  
659 While diatom MZP grazing losses during summer in this region have been reported to be the  
660 lowest among the various phytoplankton groups (Yang et al., 2015), these data suggest that  
661 diatoms during the spring can grow (at times) with minor and/or insignificant losses due to MZP  
662 grazing in spring. This is consistent with the low proportional grazing on larger phytoplankton  
663 (i.e.  $\geq 5 \mu\text{m g } \mu^{-1}$ ) between bloom (average  $23\% \pm 35\%$ ) and non-bloom (average  $55\% \pm 102\%$ )  
664 stations. Even if including non-significant  $\geq 5 \mu\text{m g } \mu^{-1}$  station data, i.e. as done by Sherr et al.  
665 (2013), the  $\geq 5 \mu\text{m g } \mu^{-1}$  during bloom stations would increase (average  $43\% \pm 46\%$ , Fig. 6) and  
666 is nearly identical to bloom station  $\text{g } \mu^{-1}$  reported by Sherr et al. (2013) in the spring (average  
667  $42\% \pm 42\%$ ). Thus, under bloom conditions, much of the diatom carbon may be available for  
668 higher trophic level organisms and/or export.

669

#### 670 *4.3. The fate of diatom organic matter during spring*

671 Despite diatoms typically being the largest cells among the phytoplankton community,  
672 their losses to MZP grazing consumption can be high in many oceanic regions. In the Southern  
673 Ocean from the Polar Front and southward, Selph et al. (2001) reported that MZP grazing rate on  
674 diatoms was 63% of diatom growth, indicating that a majority of diatom organic matter  
675 production was funneled through this MZP food-web pathway; this proportion is comparable to  
676 reported diatom losses to MZP during summer in the CS (Yang et al., 2015). Previous studies in  
677 the southeastern BS during summer show that MZP grazing on the largest phytoplankton size  
678 class (dominated by diatoms) either can consume ~50% (Strom and Fredrickson, 2008) or nearly  
679 100% (Olson and Strom, 2002) of its production. These summer-season results are consistent  
680 with global trends (Calbet and Landry, 2004) in the proportional losses of phytoplankton  
681 production to MZP grazing. However, our data support the observation and ideas expressed in  
682 Sherr et al. (2013), and discussed above, in that diatoms during this spring period can have  
683 pulsed periods of growth without major MZP grazing during bloom development, potentially  
684 funneling considerable carbon to higher trophic levels and/or export.

685 The historical context of ice extent within the ASGARD latitude domain shows that 2017  
686 was a low-ice-extent anomaly (Fig. 1), however, this low-ice anomaly trend appeared to start

687 earlier in the southeastern BS (Fig. 1) around 2014, coincident with other observations of  
688 extreme level of oceanic heat in Alaskan waters and the North Pacific more generally (Bond et  
689 al., 2015; Danielson et al., 2020; Walsh et al., 2018). Our diatom productivity measurements  
690 during 2017 are similar to those of both Banahan and Goering (1986) in the southeastern BS, and  
691 within the ASGARD domain by Giesbrecht and Varela (2021) between 2013 and 2016;  
692 suggesting that physical changes in the ice extent over time had not manifested in major shifts of  
693 diatom production by 2017. This is consistent with inferences from Lomas et al. (2012)  
694 regarding the need for at least a factor of two changes in total primary productivity to resolve  
695 climate change signals in the BS.

696 The  $\rho$  data provide an independent metric of diatom productivity and using recently  
697 published Si:C for cold-adapted diatoms (Lomas et al. 2019), we can convert diatom  $\text{bSiO}_2$   
698 production into diatom-based primary production (PP). Because  $\text{bSiO}_2$  and  $\geq 5 \mu\text{m}$  Chl *a* were so  
699 strongly correlated, we infer that any MZP losses for this size class represents loss of diatoms  
700 only; the non MZP-grazed diatom PP sets a conservative metric on the amount of diatom  
701 material which can be passed directly to higher pelagic trophic levels or exported to the benthos.  
702 We converted this direct loss by MZP to diatom carbon units, and then plotted it against the total  
703 diatom PP among bloom and non-bloom stations (Fig. 6). Overall, the 2017 ASGARD data  
704 suggest that during bloom conditions, the amount of available diatom PP which escapes MZP  
705 grazing is 20-50 times higher than available during non-bloom conditions. This range is nearly  
706 double the disparity in absolute diatom PP between bloom and no-bloom conditions (i.e. former  
707 is ~12-fold higher), suggesting that the bloom conditions not only favor creation of more organic  
708 material, but this material can be more efficiently passed to higher trophic organisms and/or  
709 exported for consumption in the benthos.

710 The observation that a majority of spring season diatom PP can be available for pelagic  
711 higher trophic level consumers or export to the benthos, even during warm-anomaly years with  
712 very little sea ice, suggests that there may be some resilience for Arctic diatoms functioning in a  
713 warming world. However, this idea has many caveats. IPCC reports predict significant warming  
714 in the Arctic region by the end of the century (IPCC, 2014). A recent analysis by Krause and  
715 Lomas (2020) suggested that such warming may reduce the diatom elemental density, which is  
716 significantly higher for cold-adapted diatoms vs. low-latitude diatoms (Lomas et al., 2019), and  
717 such a reduction in elemental density could converge cold-adapted diatoms with the elemental

718 density in lower latitude diatoms, e.g. Menden-Deuer and Lessard (2000). If such a scenario  
719 were to happen, then the quality of diatom carbon per cell could be reduced (i.e. less element per  
720 cell), and thereby yield less absolute diatom-based PP (i.e. C) even without declines in diatom  
721 abundance. Thus, even if the lack of MZP grazing loss to diatom blooms during ASGARD 2017  
722 were reflective of future scenarios in a warming world, potential thermally-driven changes in  
723 diatom elemental density may lower the absolute surplus diatom PP available for higher trophic  
724 organisms in spring. Additionally, warmer temperatures may stimulate both phytoplankton and  
725 MZP growth rates, thus, future MZP assemblages may be able to respond faster to the buildup of  
726 phytoplankton biomass, and reduce the inferred temporal lag in our study (and that discussed by  
727 Sherr et al. (2013) during spring). The combination of warming (which affects diatom elemental  
728 density) and/or increased MZP grazing losses both can reduce the surplus diatom PP in this  
729 system and modify the food web. Future efforts must attempt to disentangle these effects to  
730 better predict how organic matter will flow to higher trophic levels in these ecologically and  
731 economically important, but rapidly changing, regions within the broader Arctic.

732

733

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912

913 **Fig. Captions**

914 **Fig. 1.** ASGARD station map with subareas among domains (A) showing changes in sea-ice  
915 extent proportion (1 = 100% coverage) during April (B), May (C), and June (D) between 1980  
916 through 2019 in the southeastern Bering Sea (bold line), northern Bering Sea (bold cyan line),  
917 and Chukchi Sea (gray dashed line) Seas; 2017 is highlighted (gray) in B, C, D. For reference,  
918 ASGARD 2017 stations are plotted on the map. Domain subareas (boxes) include southeastern  
919 Bering Sea ( $57.5 - 58.0^\circ$  N,  $-168 - -162^\circ$  E), northern Bering Sea ( $63.9 - 64.5^\circ$  N,  $-172 - -166^\circ$   
920 E), and Chukchi Sea ( $70.0 - 70.5^\circ$  N,  $-172 - -166^\circ$  E). Data are from MERRA Data Assimilation  
921 model (GMAO, 2008) with  $0.5^\circ \times 0.667^\circ$  spatial- and 1-month temporal resolution and are  
922 averaged for each boxed region shown (map); accessed through Giovanni NASA EarthData  
923 version 4.33 (giovanni.gsfc.nasa.gov).

924  
925 **Fig. 2.** Spatial distribution of properties in the upper (A – E) and lower (F – J) euphotic zone  
926 during ASGARD. (A, F) CTD-determined temperature, (B, G) nitrate, (C, H)  $\geq 5 \mu\text{m}$  Chl *a*, (D,  
927 I)  $\text{bSiO}_2$  and (E, J) diatom  $\mu$ . For each property, the color bar under the lower-euphotic-zone  
928 panel applies to both light depths. Plots generated using Ocean Data View. Note: Transit station  
929 1 not shown (see Table 1).

930  
931 **Fig. 3.** Changes in the net increase in Chl *a* ( $\text{d}^{-1}$ ) with percentage of whole seawater between  $\geq 5$   
932  $\mu\text{m}$  Chl *a* and  $< 5 \mu\text{m}$  Chl *a* fractions at stations DBO3.8A at 3 m where both size fractions had  
933 non-zero slopes (A) and CNL3 at 4 m where only the  $< 5 \mu\text{m}$  Chl *a* fraction had a non-zero slope  
934 (B). If significant, Model-I linear regressions are shown. These stations are representative of our  
935 typical responses (other stations in Supplemental Fig. 1), specifically that  $< 5 \mu\text{m}$  Chl *a* samples  
936 had non-zero MZP grazing rates whereas a majority of MZP grazing rates in the  $\geq 5 \mu\text{m}$  Chl *a*  
937 size fraction was zero.

938  
939 **Fig. 4.** Diatom  $V_b$  and  $\mu$  vs. dissolved silicic acid concentration (A, B, respectively), (C) diatom  
940  $\mu$  vs. nitrate concentration, and (D) diatom  $\mu$  vs. temperature during ASGARD (upper euphotic  
941 zone, filled circles, and lower euphotic zone, gray circles) along with a prior CS field study  
942 (upward triangles) reporting diatom growth rates from dilution experiments (Yang et al., 2015)  
943 relative to the empirical relationship for phytoplankton growth and temperature (black line)

944 described by Eppley (1972). Error bars on A are SD. Geometric mean regressions and  $R^2$  are  
945 shown in B, C, with reported ANOVA F and p values. Point denoted by \* not used in regressions  
946 or ANCOVA analysis.

947

948 **Fig. 5.** Comparison of the frequency of dilution experiments where MZP grazing was zero (i.e.  
949 not resolved) for previously published spring (Connell et al., 2018; Sherr et al., 2009; Sherr et al.,  
950 2013) and summer (Liu et al., 2002; Olson and Strom, 2002; Sherr et al., 2009; Stoecker et al.,  
951 2014a; Strom and Fredrickson, 2008; Yang et al., 2015) studies in the southeastern BS and CS  
952 domains. Only summer studies reported size-fractionated rates. We compare our rates based on  
953 total Chl *a* (sum of size fractions for our study, black bars) and the size-fractionated components  
954 ( $\geq 5 \mu\text{m}$  light gray bars,  $< 5 \mu\text{m}$  dark gray bars).

955

956 **Fig. 6.** A) Comparison of MZP grazing loss relative to phytoplankton  $\mu$  ( $\text{g} \times \mu^{-1}$ ) during bloom  
957 and non-bloom conditions (mean  $\pm$  SE to account for sample size differences). Open bars denote  
958 average among all stations, regardless of whether MZP grazing was significantly different from  
959 zero as in Sherr et al. (2013); hatched bars denote average when a value of 0 is applied for non-  
960 significant grazing (i.e. reported  $\text{g} \times \mu^{-1}$  averages in Results). B) The rate of diatom primary  
961 productivity (PP) was converted using Si:C for cold-adapted diatoms (Lomas et al., 2019), also  
962 shown is the quantity of diatom PP which escapes MZP grazing (calculated as  $\text{PP} \times (1 - (\text{g} \times \mu^{-1}$   
963  $^{-1}))$  for bloom and non-bloom conditions. Open and hatched bars denote using  $\text{g} \times \mu^{-1}$  averages as  
964 described for panel A. SE in panel B were propagated from ( $\text{g} \times \mu^{-1}$ ) and  $\rho$  error terms.

Table 1: Hydrography, nutrients ( $\mu\text{M}$ ), size-fractionated Chl *a* ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ), bSiO<sub>2</sub> standing stock ( $\mu\text{mol Si L}^{-1}$ ) and that associated with only living diatoms (Live bSiO<sub>2</sub> as % of total bSiO<sub>2</sub>) for the ASGARD cruise and pre-cruise transit (“Transit” stations) from the southeastern BS to Nome, Alaska. Error term is SD ( $n = 3$ ). “--” indicate no data.

Station #	Date (DD-Month-YY)	Lat. (°N)	Long (°E)	Depth (m)	T (°C)	Si(OH) <sub>4</sub> ( $\mu\text{M}$ )	SRP ( $\mu\text{M}$ )	NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> ( $\mu\text{M}$ )	NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> ( $\mu\text{M}$ )	$\geq 5 \mu\text{m}$ Chl <i>a</i> ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )	$< 5 \mu\text{m}$ Chl <i>a</i> ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )	bSiO <sub>2</sub> ( $\mu\text{mol Si L}^{-1}$ )	Live bSiO <sub>2</sub> (%)
Transit 1	05-Jun-17	56.39	-167.15	35	4.00	2.9	0.61	1.5	1.55	--	--	0.10 ± 0.01	--
Transit 2	06-Jun-17	60.44	-168.20	5	3.18	0.5	0.88	0.0	0.05	0.81 ± 0.14	0.05 ± 0.03	4.32 ± 0.93	39%
				24	3.02	0.7	0.89	0.0	0.03	1.81 ± 0.12	0.02 ± 0.02	7.10 ± 0.11	--
Transit 3	07-Jun-17	64.27	-165.71	5	2.39	1.7	0.87	0.1	0.09	0.20 ± 0.02	--	3.86 ± 0.17	7%
				10	0.30	1.8	0.99	0.1	0.23	0.35 ± 0.03	0.03 ± 0.02	6.24 ± 0.66	4%
CBE9	09-Jun-17	64.38	-167.07	5	4.22	2.1	0.49	0.1	0.27	0.07 ± 0.01	0.19 ± 0.01	0.99 ± 0.05	316%
				26	-0.44	4.2	0.96	0.5	1.09	1.15 ± 0.91	0.46 ± 0.02	8.44 ± 0.33	--
CBW5	11-Jun-17	64.15	-171.51	7	6.54	5.9	0.49	3.1	0.46	0.07 ± 0.00	0.23 ± 0.03	0.54 ± 0.02	--
				29	1.60	28.5	1.81	17.9	1.61	0.23 ± 0.06	0.07 ± 0.02	6.87 ± 0.38	2%
CNL3	13-Jun-17	66.50	-168.96	4	5.59	1.9	0.28	0.0	0.06	0.40 ± 0.02	0.13 ± 0.03	1.98 ± 0.04	105%
				18	2.17	5.9	1.02	6.6	1.81	4.70 ± 1.14	0.10 ± 0.04	15.2 ± 0.4	72%
IL2	14-Jun-17	67.54	-164.88	5	4.71	1.6	0.40	0.0	0.00	--	--	0.66 ± 0.07	13%
				33	-1.22	11.8	0.99	2.0	0.46	--	--	13.6 ± 0.1	92%
DBO3.8A	15-Jun-17	67.67	-168.73	3	2.70	11.9	1.21	9.2	1.06	4.99 ± 0.89	0.15 ± 0.04	13.9 ± 0.1	42%
				13	2.30	11.7	1.22	9.5	1.16	4.71 ± 0.23	0.18 ± 0.03	13.8 ± 2.3	70%
DBO3.3	16-Jun-17	68.18	-167.31	5	6.14	0.9	0.49	0.0	0.02	0.11 ± 0.04	0.23 ± 0.01	0.76 ± 0.46	30%
				22	1.55	1.6	0.72	0.1	1.26	0.40 ± 0.01	0.23 ± 0.10	3.51 ± 0.19	28%
CL3	17-Jun-17	69.03	-168.89	6	6.17	0.7	0.56	0.1	0.35	0.13 ± 0.02	0.20 ± 0.00	1.48 ± 0.03	23%
				22	2.36	4.7	1.15	3.2	4.40	0.30 ± 0.12	0.05 ± 0.00	7.64 ± 0.97	8%
CL1	18-Jun-17	68.95	-166.91	5	2.63	5.4	0.68	0.2	0.37	0.08 ± 0.02	0.31 ± 0.07	0.95 ± 0.01	5%
				22	0.33	4.1	0.81	0.9	1.34	0.35 ± 0.03	0.30 ± 0.05	1.85 ± 0.04	14%
DBO3.8	20-Jun-17	67.67	-168.96	4	3.87	3.7	0.47	0.6	0.06	16.45 ± 2.19	0.39 ± 0.13	14.5 ± 0.1	165%
				17	3.87	5.8	0.61	2.7	0.59	17.57 ± 2.42	0.36 ± 0.07	14.0 ± 0.2	190%
IL4	21-Jun-17	67.41	-165.79	5	4.07	1.6	0.55	0.2	0.86	0.22 ± 0.03	0.26 ± 0.02	1.91 ± 0.08	9%
				22	3.24	2.4	0.67	0.3	1.66	0.17 ± 0.02	0.24 ± 0.05	2.75 ± 0.11	7%
CPL 6	22-Jun-17	66.50	-167.70	4	2.95	2.1	0.65	0.1	0.89	0.46 ± 0.02	0.57 ± 0.06	4.28 ± 0.10	6%
				16	2.89	2.4	0.62	0.2	0.94	0.40 ± 0.03	0.55 ± 0.01	3.93 ± 0.02	--
DBO2.4	24-Jun-17	64.96	-169.89	5	2.66	31.4	1.69	16.7	1.52	0.47 ± 0.09	0.36 ± 0.11	10.3 ± 1.1	4%
				21	2.66	33.4	1.67	17.6	1.62	0.48 ± 0.23	0.30 ± 0.06	10.8 ± 1.7	3%
DBO2.2	26-Jun-17	64.68	-169.10	4	3.40	29.8	1.54	15.9	0.29	1.53 ± 0.17	1.09 ± 0.34	6.65 ± 0.18	25%
				17	2.87	30.6	1.62	16.9	0.78	1.99 ± 0.62	0.82 ± 0.10	7.41 ± 0.31	17%

Table 2 – <sup>32</sup>Si-based rate measurements: biogenic silica production,  $\rho$  ( $\mu\text{mol Si L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$ ), total bSiO<sub>2</sub>-normalized production,  $V_b$  ( $\text{d}^{-1}$ ), diatom growth,  $\mu$  ( $\text{d}^{-1}$ );  $\pm$  SD. Dilution based rate measurements: MZP grazing rates,  $g$  ( $\text{d}^{-1}$ ) and phytoplankton growth rate,  $\mu$  ( $\text{d}^{-1}$ ) among size fractions ( $\geq 5 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $< 5 \mu\text{m}$ ); mean  $\pm$  SE of the regression fit, p-value for the regression fit is in parentheses. Abbreviations are “ns” (not significant) and “--” (no data). \*Denotes  $V_b = \text{diatom } \mu$  as “Live” bSiO<sub>2</sub> (FlowCam derived) exceeded 100% of total bSiO<sub>2</sub>. As in Sherr et al. (2013) the  $g \mu^{-1}$  calculation for each experiment is done regardless of whether grazing is significant. †Denotes 0% when grazing was negative (i.e. below detection) or 100% when phytoplankton  $\mu$  was negative and grazing positive.

Station #	Depth (m)	$\rho$ ( $\mu\text{mol Si L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$ )	$V_b$ ( $\text{d}^{-1}$ )	diatom $\mu$ ( $\text{d}^{-1}$ )	$\geq 5 \mu\text{m } g$ ( $\text{d}^{-1}$ ), p-value	$\geq 5 \mu\text{m } \mu$ ( $\text{d}^{-1}$ ), p-value	$\geq 5 \mu\text{m } g \mu^{-1}$ (%)	$< 5 \mu\text{m } g$ ( $\text{d}^{-1}$ ), p-value	$< 5 \mu\text{m } \mu$ ( $\text{d}^{-1}$ ), p-value	$< 5 \mu\text{m } g \mu^{-1}$ (%)
Transit 1	35	$<0.00 \pm <0.00$	$0.01 \pm <0.00$	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Transit 2	5	$0.10 \pm 0.02$	$0.02 \pm <0.00$	0.06	$0.81 \pm 0.48$ (0.03)	$1.06 \pm 0.48$ (ns)	76	$-1.94 \pm 1.36$ (0.03)	$-2.68 \pm 1.36$ (ns)	†0
Transit 2	24	$0.22 \pm 0.01$	$0.03 \pm <0.00$	--	$0.34 \pm 0.11$ (0.04)	$0.17 \pm 0.11$ (0.01)	199	$0.82 \pm 0.34$ (ns)	$-0.41 \pm 0.34$ (0.04)	†100
Transit 3	5	$0.08 \pm <0.00$	$0.01 \pm 0.01$	0.30	$0.54 \pm 0.30$ (ns)	$0.28 \pm 0.30$ (ns)	195	--	--	--
Transit 3	10	$0.19 \pm 0.05$	$0.03 \pm 0.01$	0.79	$-0.32 \pm 0.84$ (ns)	$-0.50 \pm 0.84$ (ns)	†0	$-0.80 \pm 0.58$ (ns)	$0.751 \pm 0.58$ (ns)	†0
CBE9	5	$0.02 \pm <0.01$	$0.02 \pm <0.01$	*0.02	$0.53 \pm 0.25$ (ns)	$-0.07 \pm 0.25$ (ns)	†100	$0.61 \pm 0.09$ (<0.01)	$0.35 \pm 0.09$ (<0.01)	175
CBE9	26	$0.10 \pm 0.02$	$0.01 \pm <0.01$	--	$-0.00 \pm 0.17$ (<0.01)	$0.61 \pm 0.17$ (ns)	†0	$0.68 \pm 0.16$ (<0.01)	$0.46 \pm 0.16$ (<0.01)	147
CBW5	7	$0.05 \pm <0.01$	$0.10 \pm <0.01$	--	$0.15 \pm 0.40$ (ns)	$0.10 \pm 0.40$ (ns)	142	$0.36 \pm 0.07$ (<0.01)	$0.49 \pm 0.07$ (<0.01)	74
CBW5	29	$0.02 \pm <0.01$	$<0.01 \pm <0.01$	0.13	$-0.39 \pm 0.20$ (ns)	$-0.35 \pm 0.20$ (ns)	†0	$0.33 \pm 0.15$ (<0.01)	$0.56 \pm 0.15$ (ns)	†100

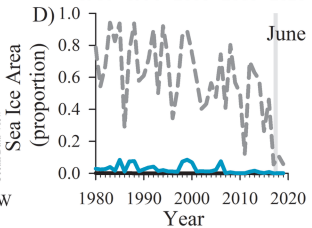
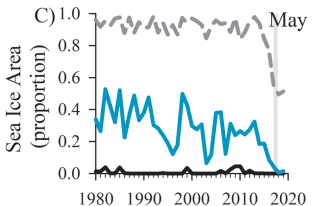
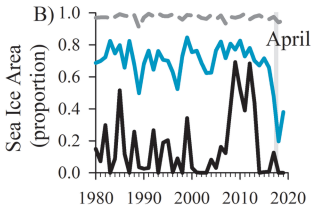
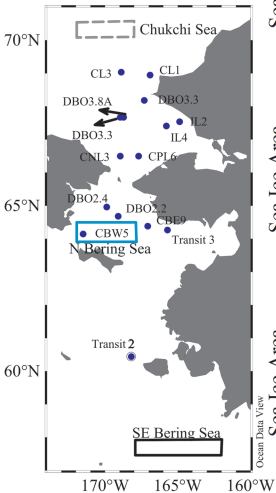


CNL3	4	0.10 ± 0.01	0.05 ± <0.01	*0.05	0.57 ± 0.10 (0.02)	0.18 ± 0.10 (<0.01)	314	1.65 ± 0.35 (<0.01)	0.83 ± 0.35 (<0.01)	197
CNL3	18	1.07 ± 0.19	0.07 ± 0.01	0.09	0.41 ± 0.67 (ns)	-0.18 ± 0.67 (ns)	†100	0.46 ± 0.14 (<0.01)	0.65 ± 0.14 (<0.01)	71
DBO3.8A	3	1.81 ± 0.04	0.12 ± <0.01	0.29	-0.06 ± 0.64 (ns)	0.01 ± 0.64 (ns)	†0	0.44 ± 0.13 (<0.01)	0.47 ± 0.13 (<0.01)	96
DBO3.8A	13	2.03 ± 0.10	0.14 ± <0.01	0.20	0.42 ± 0.22 (<0.01)	1.23 ± 0.22 (ns)	34	0.66 ± 0.18 (<0.01)	1.09 ± 0.18 (<0.01)	61
DBO3.3	5	0.02 ± <0.01	0.03 ± <0.01	0.09	3.33 ± 0.87 (0.03)	1.39 ± 0.87 (<0.01)	239	2.70 ± 0.85 (<0.01)	1.99 ± 0.85 (0.01)	136
DBO3.3	22	0.09 ± <0.01	0.03 ± <0.01	0.09	-0.06 ± 0.09 (ns)	-0.06 ± 0.09 (ns)	†0	0.46 ± 0.08 (<0.01)	0.61 ± 0.08 (<0.01)	75
CL3	6	0.02 ± <0.01	0.01 ± <0.01	0.05	-0.17 ± 0.11 (<0.01)	-0.67 ± 0.11 (ns)	†0	0.28 ± 0.05 (<0.01)	0.63 ± 0.05 (<0.01)	45
CL3	22	0.03 ± <0.01	<0.01 ± <0.01	0.05	2.94 ± 0.56 (0.02)	0.99 ± 0.56 (<0.01)	295	2.29 ± 0.51 (<0.01)	1.77 ± 0.51 (<0.01)	130
CL1	5	0.01 ± <0.01	<0.01 ± <0.01	0.18	-0.79 ± 0.09 (<0.01)	-0.50 ± 0.09 (<0.01)	†0	0.49 ± 0.18 (<0.01)	0.40 ± 0.18 (0.02)	123
CL1	22	0.02 ± <0.01	<0.01 ± <0.01	0.06	0.34 ± 0.10 (ns)	-0.09 ± 0.10 (<0.01)	†100	0.50 ± 0.10 (<0.01)	0.40 ± 0.10 (<0.01)	123
DBO3.8 bloom	4	1.19 ± 0.21	0.08 ± 0.01	*0.08	0.01 ± 0.15 (<0.01)	0.58 ± 0.15 (ns)	2	0.49 ± 0.17 (ns)	0.16 ± 0.17 (0.01)	†0
DBO3.8 bloom	17	1.57 ± 0.26	0.11 ± 0.02	*0.11	0.49 ± 0.23 (<0.01)	0.61 ± 0.23 (ns)	81	0.54 ± 0.07 (<0.01)	0.59 ± 0.07 (<0.01)	91

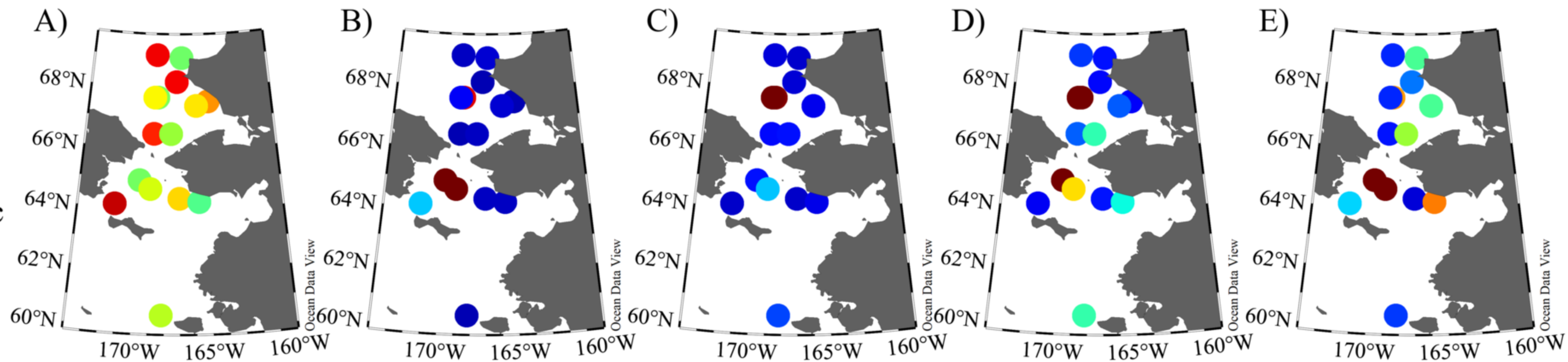
IL4	5	0.03 ± <0.01	0.02 ± <0.01	0.18	-0.52 ± 0.16 (ns)	-0.26 ± 0.16 (0.01)	†0	0.02 ± 0.13 (<0.01)	0.48 ± 0.13 (ns)	†100
IL4	22	0.01 ± <0.01	<0.01 ± <0.01	0.06	-0.71 ± 0.90 (ns)	-0.66 ± 0.90 (ns)	†0	0.09 ± 0.34 (ns)	-0.06 ± 0.34 (ns)	†100
CPL 6	4	0.05 ± <0.01	0.01 ± <0.01	0.21	0.12 ± 0.19 (ns)	-0.13 ± 0.19 (ns)	†100	0.78 ± 0.13 (<0.01)	0.84 ± 0.13 (<0.01)	92
CPL 6	16	0.04 ± <0.01	<0.01 ± <0.01	--	0.06 ± 0.15 (ns)	-0.21 ± 0.15 (ns)	†100	0.46 ± 0.05 (<0.01)	0.34 ± 0.05 (<0.01)	134
DBO2.4	5	0.18 ± <0.01	0.02 ± <0.01	0.47	0.20 ± 0.20 (<0.01)	0.63 ± 0.20 (ns)	33	-0.22 ± 0.10 (<0.01)	0.08 ± 0.10 (<0.01)	†0
DBO2.4	21	0.04 ± <0.01	<0.01 ± <0.01	0.12	-0.60 ± 0.23 (ns)	0.15 ± 0.23 (0.02)	†0	0.86 ± 0.14 (<0.01)	0.75 ± 0.14 (<0.01)	114
DBO2.2	4	1.21 ± 0.10	0.17 ± 0.01	0.68	-0.49 ± 0.19 (<0.01)	0.50 ± 0.19 (0.02)	†0	0.70 ± 0.39 (0.03)	0.82 ± 0.39 (ns)	†100
DBO2.2	17	0.22 ± 0.02	0.03 ± <0.01	0.17	0.15 ± 0.11 (<0.01)	-0.30 ± 0.11 (ns)	†100	0.69 ± 0.14 (<0.01)	0.63 ± 0.14 (<0.01)	109

- SE Bering Sea
- N Bering Sea
- - - Chukchi

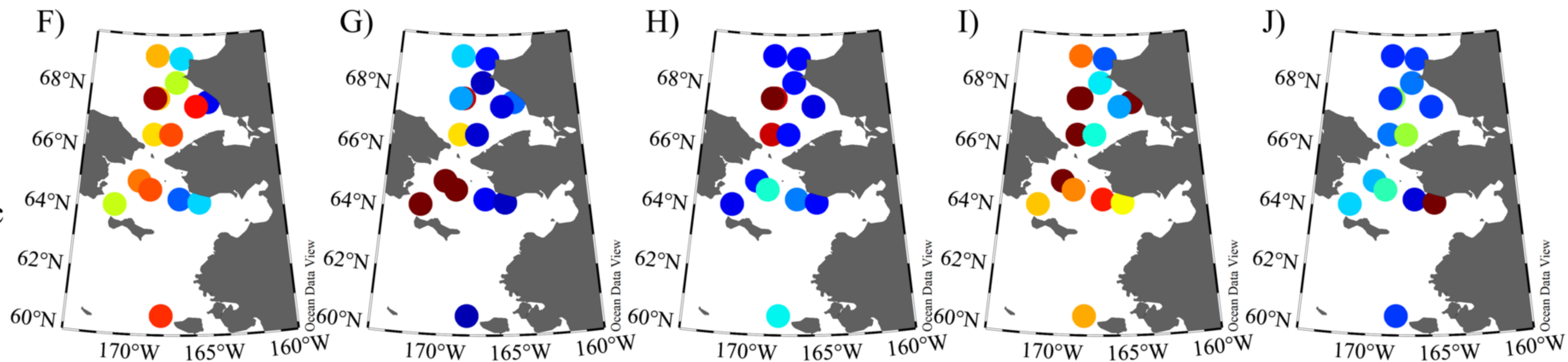
A)



Upper  
Euphotic  
Zone



Lower  
Euphotic  
Zone



Temperature (°C)

0 2 4

NO<sub>3</sub> (μM)

0 4 8

≥5 μm Chl a (μg L<sup>-1</sup>)

0 2 4

bSiO<sub>2</sub> (μmol Si L<sup>-1</sup>)

0 4 8

Diatom μ (d<sup>-1</sup>)

0 0.15 0.3



