1	MOSAIC (Modern Ocean Sediment Archive and Inventory of Carbon):		
2	A (radio)carbon-centric database for seafloor surficial sediments		
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4	Tessa Sophia van der Voort ^{1, †} , Thomas Michael, Blattmann ^{1, ††} , Muhammed Usman ^{1, †††} ,		Deleted: .
5	Daniel Montluçon ¹ , Thomas Loeffler ¹ , Maria Luisa Tavagna ¹ , Nicolas Gruber ² , and Timothy		
6 7	Ian Eglinton ¹		
8	¹ Department of Earth Sciences, Geological Institute, ETH Zürich, Sonneggstrasse 5, 8092		
9	Zürich, Switzerland		
10	² Department of Environmental System Sciences, Institute of Biogeochemistry and Pollutant		
11	Dynamics, ETH Zürich, Universitätstrasse 16, 8092 Zürich, Switzerland		
12	[†] New address: Campus Fryslân, University of Groningen, Wirdumerdijk 34, Leeuwarden		
	^{††} New address: Biogeochemistry Research Center, Japan Agency for Marine-Earth Science and Technology (JAMSTEC), Yokosuka, Japan.		
	ttt New address: Department of Physical and Environmental Sciences, University of Toronto, +	•	Formatted: Line spacing: single
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19	Key points paper:		

- 20~ (1) Paper presents global database for marine surficial sediments
- 21 (2) Database has a user-friendly interactive app with downloadable data
- 22 (3) Provides a new platform to answer key questions in biogeochemistry
- 23
- 24 Key words:
- 25 Ocean Sediments, Organic Carbon, Radiocarbon, ¹³C, Carbon Sequestration, MOSAIC,
- 26 Database
- 27

31 Abstract

32 Mapping the biogeochemical characteristics of surficial ocean sediments is crucial for 33 advancing our understanding of global element cycling, as well as for assessment of the potential footprint of environmental change. Despite their importance as long-term repositories 34 for biogenic materials produced in the ocean and delivered from the continents, 35 biogeochemical signatures in ocean sediments remain poorly delineated. Here, we introduce 36 MOSAIC (Modern Ocean Sediment Archive and Inventory of Carbon; DOI: 37 https://doi.org/10.5168/mosaic019.1, mosaic.ethz.ch, Van der Voort et al., 2019), a 38 (radio)carbon-centric database that seeks to address this information void. The goal of this 39 nascent database is to provide a platform for development of regional to global-scale 40 41 perspectives on the source, abundance and composition of organic matter in marine surface sediments, and to explore links between spatial variability in these characteristics and 42 biological and depositional processes. The database has a continental margin-centric focus 43 44 given both the importance and complexity of continental margins as sites of organic matter burial. It places emphasis on radiocarbon as an underutilized yet powerful tracer and 45 46 chronometer of carbon cycle processes, and with a view to complementing radiocarbon 47 databases for other earth system compartments. The database infrastructure and interactive 48 web-application are openly accessible and designed to facilitate further expansion of the 49 database. Examples are presented to illustrate large-scale variabilities in bulk carbon properties 50 that emerge from the present data compilation.

51

52 1. Introduction

53 Oceans sediments constitute the largest and ultimate long-term global organic carbon (OC) 54 sink (Hedges and Keil, 1995), and serve as a key interface between short- and long-term components of the global carbon cycle (Galvez et al., 2020). Assessments of the distribution 55 56 and composition of OC in ocean sediments are crucial for constraining carbon burial fluxes, 57 the role of ocean sediments in global biogeochemical cycles, and in interpretation of 58 sedimentary records. Constraining the magnitude of carbon stocks, as well as delineating the sources, pathways and timescales of carbon transfer between different reservoirs (e.g., 59 atmosphere, oceanic water column, continents) comprise essential challenges. In this regard, 60 radiocarbon provides key information on carbon sources and temporal dynamics of carbon 61 exchange. The half-life of radiocarbon is compatible with assessments of carbon turnover and 62 transport times within and between different compartments of the carbon cycle, while also 63 64 serving to delineate shorter-term (< 50 kyr) and longer-term (> 50 kyr) cycles. Moreover, the advent of nuclear weapons testing in the mid 20th century serves as a time marker for the onset 65 of the Anthropocene (Turney et al., 2018), and a tracer for carbon that has recently been in 66 67 communication with the atmosphere. With on-going dilution of this atmospheric "bomb spike" with radiocarbon-free carbon dioxide from the combustion of fossil fuels (Graven, 2015; Suess, 68 69 1955), radiocarbon serves a particularly sensitive sentinel of carbon cycle change. 70

71 Radiocarbon databases or data collections have been established for the atmosphere (e.g. 72 University Heidelberg Radiocarbon Laboratory, 2020), ocean waters (Global Data Analysis 73 Project (GLODAP), Key et al., 2004), and most recently soils (ISRaD; Lawrence et al., 2020) 74 with tree-rings, corals and other annually-resolved archives providing information on historical variations in ¹⁴C in the atmosphere and surface reservoirs_(Friedrich et al., 2020; 75 Reimer, 2020), At present, no such radiocarbon database exists for OC residing in ocean 76 77 sediments. As a sensitive tracer of carbon sources and carbon cycle perturbations, there is a 78 clear imperative to fill this information void given that on-going anthropogenic activities directly and indirectly influence ocean sediment and resident OC stocks (Bauer et al., 2013; 79 80 Breitburg et al., 2018; Ciais et al., 2013; Keil, 2017; Regnier et al., 2013; Syvitski et al., 2003). 81 Materials accumulating in modern ocean sediments also provide a crucial window into how on-going processes that are observable through direct instrumental measurements and remote 82 sensing data manifest themselves in the sedimentary record. 83

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87 Over 85% of OC burial in the modern oceans occurs on continental margins, with deltaic, fjord and other shelf and slope depositional settings constituting localized hotspots for carbon burial 88 89 (Bianchi et al., 2018; Hedges and Keil, 1995), As the interface between land and ocean, 90 continental margins comprise a key juncture in the carbon cycle (Bianchi et al., 2018), provide 91 crucial habitats for unique marine ecosystems (Levin and Sibuet, 2012), support a major 92 fraction of the worlds fisheries (Worm et al., 2006), and participate in exchange processes with the interior ocean (Dunne et al., 2007; Jahnke, 1996; Rowe et al., 1994). These ocean settings 93 and their underlying sediments are also amongst those most vulnerable to change (Keil, 2017) 94 through direct perturbations such as contaminant and nutrient discharge from land, loci of 95 intense resource extraction such as bottom trawling (Pusceddu et al., 2014) and mineral and 96 hydrocarbon recovery (e.g., Chanton et al., 2015), as well as indirect effects such as ocean 97 warming (Roemmich et al., 2012), acidification (Feely et al., 2008; Orr et al., 2005) and local 98 or large-scale deoxygenation (Diaz and Rosenberg, 2008; Keeling et al., 2010). Such influences 99 100 may change not only the amount of carbon sequestered in marine sediments but also its 101 character, with radiocarbon serving as a key metric to detect such change.

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103 At present, an information gap exists between the numerous in-depth biogeochemical investigations of carbon burial focused on geographically-localized regions (e.g., Bao et al., 104 105 2016; Bianchi, 2011; Castanha et al., 2008; Kao et al., 2014; Schmidt et al., 2010; Schreiner et al., 2013) and global-scale syntheses that draw upon large suites of bulk OC concentration 106 measurements but are limited in diversity of geochemical information (e.g., Atwood et al., 107 2020; Premuzic et al., 1982; Seiter et al., 2004, 2005) and lack sedimentological context. 108 Consequently, current global-scale budgets and global-scale Earth System Models (ESMs) do 109 not resolve regional or small-scale variability (Bauer et al., 2013), and are limited by our 110 111 current understanding of variability in biogeochemical and sedimentary processes that influence sedimentary organic matter composition and reactivity (Arndt et al., 2013; Bao, R. 112 et al., 2018; Levin and Sibuet, 2012; Middelburg, 2018). Snelgrove et al., (2018). for example, 113 114 argues that robust estimates of sediment carbon turnover are impeded by high spatial variability 115 in sediment carbon properties, Increasingly powerful Region Oceanic Model Systems (ROMS) 116 models (e.g., Gruber et al., 2012) and statistical methods for geospatial analysis (e.g., van der Voort et al., 2018; Atwood et al., 2020) hold the potential to utilize information from local-117 scale studies and inform ESMs, but these require mining and collation of existing data and 118

119 merging this with new observations. Spatially-resolved datasets for marine sedimentary OC

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127 are beginning to emerge (e.g. Inthorn et al., 2006; Schmidt et al., 2010), including radiocarbon

128 measurements (e.g., Bao et al., 2016; Bosman et al., 2020). The latter information is likely to

129 increase in availability with the advent of natural-abundance ¹⁴C measurement via elemental

130 analysis coupled with gas-accepting accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS) systems (McIntyre

131 et al., 2016; Wacker et al., 2010) that enable routine, high-throughput ¹⁴C measurements.

132

133 Overall, there is a strong need to synthesize information related to not only OC content, but

134 also its composition and depositional context, from separate region-based studies. Merging of135 this information to provide pan-continental margin ocean floor data resources would enable

development of robust budgets and detection in changes in the magnitude or nature of carbonstocks. In addition to the content and radiocarbon characteristics of OC that are of value in

138 constraining the provenance and reactivity of OM (Griffith et al., 2010), other geochemical

139 characteristics of organic matter, including the elemental composition (e.g., C/N ratio)
 140 abundance, stable isotopic (¹³C, ¹⁵N) and molecular (biomarker) composition of organic matter,

141 as well as contextual properties such as sedimentation rate, mixed-layer depth, $\underline{bioturbation}$

142 <u>intensity</u>, and redox conditions (Aller and Blair, 2006; Arndt et al., 2013; Griffith et al., 2010a)
143 are needed to provide a holistic depositional perspective. With on-going analytical advances

144 that facilitate more rapid and streamlined sediment analysis, it is anticipated that there will be

145 substantial increases in data availability and diversity, highlighting the urgent need to compile,

- 146 organize and harmonize existing datasets.
- 147

148 2. The MOSAIC database

In this study, we present MOSAIC (Modern Ocean Sediment Archive and Inventory of Carbon) 149 a database designed to provide a window into the spatial variability in geochemical and 150 sedimentological characteristics of surficial ocean sediments on regional to global scales. 151 MOSAIC represents the starting point of an on-going endeavor to compile from data from prior 152 and on-going studies in order to build a comprehensive, continental margin-centric picture of 153 the distribution and characteristics of organic matter accumulating in modern ocean sediments. 154 155 The database infrastructure has been configured for facile incorporation of new data, for expansion of included parameters, as well as for retrieval of data in an accessible and citable 156 format. MOSAIC is realized in an interactive web environment which allows users to visualize, 157 select and download data. This infrastructure is built using open-source (or optional open-158 source) software (SI Table 1). The overarching goal is for MOSAIC to serve as a data platform 159

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162 for the scientific community to explore the nature and causes of spatial patterns of 163 biogeochemical signatures in ocean sediments.

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165 2.1. Database scope and content

167 2.1.1. Spatial and depth coverage and georeferencing

168 The focus of MOSAIC is on the coastal ocean (continental margins) with limited inclusion of data from deep ocean settings. Attention is also restricted to surficial sediments (nominally the 169 170 upper ~ 1m) that are most effectively sampled with shallow coring systems designed to recover an intact sediment-water interface (e.g., hydraulically-damped multicorer, box corer). The 171 rationale is because of the focus on processes associated with deposition, early diagenesis, and 172 burial of organic matter, rather than on down-core investigations used for paleooceanographic 173 and paleoclimate reconstruction. Sediment depth profile data can be primarily used to examine 174 diagenetic profiles, and to constrain sedimentation rates, mixed layer depths, redox gradients, 175 as well as to determine carbon fluxes and inventories. 176 177 178 2.1.2 Scope of data acquisition 179 The data currently comprising the MOSAIC database was extracted from over two hundred publications. No unpublished data is included in the on-line version, and the focus of the 180 database in this initial phase of implementation is on an initial suite of commonly measured 181 sediment parameters (e.g. sampling depth, carbon content and $\delta^{13}C)$ that are available in high 182 183 abundance. A non-exhaustive list of the most important parameters cataloged in the MOSAIC 184 database can be found in Table 1. A more comprehensive list of parameters that are available

185 in the SQL framework can be found in the Supplemental Information (SI).

186

187 2.1.3 Core parameters

188 The database was established based on selected key parameters, with a particular emphasis on

189 the radiocarbon content of OC, as well as other basic properties that provide broader 190 geochemical and sedimentological context (Table 1). The former include total organic carbon

191 (TOC) and total nitrogen (TN) content, organic carbon/total N ratios, and the carbon isotopic

192 composition (δ^{13} C and 14 C values) of OC. Sedimentological parameters are yet to be 193 implemented in the on-line version but will include parameters such as grain size, mineral **Deleted:** that are targeted for inclusion in the near future can be found in the

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specific surface area, mixed layer depth, oxygen penetration depth, sedimentation rate, porosityand dry bulk density.

- 199
- 200 2.2 MOSAIC Structure

The normalized relational database structure of the MOSAIC database was created using the 201 202 open-source MySQL software (MySQL Workbench Community for Ubuntu 18 version 203 6.3.10). The relational aspect of the database means that data (e.g., related to sample or 204 location-specifics) are stored in data tables which are connected (or related) by a unique 205 identifier. "Normalized" implies that in the structure of the database redundancies are 206 eliminated (e.g., a variable such as water depth occurs only once in the database, Codd, 1990). 207 A schematic of the detailed database structure can be found in SI Figure 2. The database 208 structure contains entries for key geochemical parameters pertaining to ocean sediment core 209 samples, including organic matter content, isotopic signature, and composition, as well as 210 texture and sedimentological parameters. Information can be collected for bulk samples as well 211 as, for example, size and density fractions. Furthermore, it is designed to enable additional 212 modules that can accommodate data related to other sample suites such as sinking particulate 213 matter from the ocean water column (e.g., time-series sediment traps), or riverine samples. It 214 includes is an exclusivity option which can be used to indicate if data is in the public domain 215 or not (e.g., pending publication of separate contributions). 216 Reporting conventions are detailed in the SI Table 2. Units as specified in the original papers were used (listed in SI). Where possible ¹⁴C information was collected as Δ^{14} C, alternatively it 217

218 was collected as Fm₂ and all Δ^{14} C values were converted to Fm when sampling year was avail-

219 able (Stuiver and Polach, 1977). Ongoing efforts are underway to further harmonize the data

220 and convert all data to Δ^{14} C for the next iteration for the MOSAIC database.

221 2.3 The MOSAIC Pipeline

There is a five-step pipeline for incorporation of data into MOSAIC. These are: (1) data ingestion, (2) quality control, (3) transformation and structuring and (4) addition to a userfriendly MySQL database interface, which is (5) available for users via a <u>website</u> (Figure 1). This design enables users to query the collected data and augment and extend the existing database using familiar spreadsheet software (Microsoft Excel®, LibreOffice). The associated app allows any user to interactively select, visualize and query data without using database (SQL) syntax (SI Figure 1).

230 2.3.1 Data ingestion

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231 Input of data to the database is possible by filling in a pre-structured spreadsheet file with set vocabularies. The user selects relevant parameter inputs from drop-down menus that streamline 232 data entry and assist in execution of subsequent SQL queries. Excel files were designed for 233 specific datasets, and within each Excel file there are three sub-tabs corresponding to groups 234 235 of the normalized MOSAIC SQL database (more details on database structure are provided in the database). These tabs are (i) sample-related tab, (ii) geopoint-related tab (i.e., location), (iii) 236 author-related tab (i.e., paper). Certain variables pertaining to sample coordinates and depth 237 are required for data submission (i.e., latitude, longitude, water depth and sample core depth). 238 239 In this first version of MOSAIC, filled-in spreadsheet files with specified units and pre-defined lists can be sent to mosaic@erdw.ethz.ch1 for ingestion into the database. 240

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242	2.3. <u>3</u> Data quality	
	2.3.3.1 Initial data collection	
244	The current MOSAIC dataset was initiated by manual mining of an initial subset of peer-re-	
245	viewed oceanographic papers that contained substantial TO ¹⁴ C datasets (e.g., Griffith et al.,	
246	2010) from different continental margin systems. This enabled the collecting researcher to be	
247	trained in the process of data evaluation and handling. MOSAIC was further expanded by ex-	
248	tracting data from a broader suite peer-reviewed papers which were found using the search	
249	engine Google Scholar, with search terms including "organic carbon in surficial/surface sedi-	
250	ments", "TOC in surficial/surface sediments" and "radiocarbon/14C in surficial/surface sedi-	
251	ments". Data was, where necessary, converted to common units. For instance, all coordinates	
252	were converted to the WSG84 coordinate systems, all total organic carbon was converted to	
253	percentages, and sample depth to centimeters. More details can be found in SI Table 1.	
254		
255	2.3.3.2 Data quality control	~
256	Quality control of the input data is implemented via a python script tailored to the pre-defined	

- 257 spreadsheet files. This script auto-checks the values of key parameters such as latitude,
- longitude, carbon and nitrogen content, ¹³C, ¹⁴C, CaCO₃ content, SiO₂ content and sediment
 texture-related parameters. The auto-check produces a log file with flags for unexpected values.
- 260 In turn, the flags point to the exact line containing possible out-of-bound values. For example,

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¹ Data ingestion files MOSAIC_data_input_file.xlsx or MOSAIC_data_input_file.ods are available with this publication

for TOC (%), if values are negative, there will be a prompt "*cannot be negative, please check*",
when values are > 2 and <20 there is a prompt "*is quite high. Are you sure it is correct*?" and
lastly if values are > 20 there is the prompt "*value is high. Please check units*". Each flag is
accompanied by a line number to locate the possibly erroneous data. Additional details can be
found in the quality control script in the SI. These flags then trigger a manual quality check of
the data by an expert in-house user.

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279 2.3.3 Data transformation and structuring

280 The next step involves transforming data (using Python code) from Excel into csv files that are 281 compatible with the normalized relational database structure in SQL. This is done by (*i*) adding 282 unique identifiers to the data and (*ii*) transforming the data into appropriate csv files.

283 Importantly for the database structure, unique identifiers are created for each appropriate 284 database table (SI Figure 2). For example, for a specific location, an individual sediment core may yield multiple samples (i.e., core sections corresponding to different depth intervals), with 285 multiple measurements (e.g., ¹³C, ¹⁴C and %TOC) performed on each sample (section). In this 286 287 example, the location is assigned a unique geopoint location identifier, the core receives a 288 unique identifier, and each sample (section) is given a unique identifier. These identifiers 289 resurface in each database table (e.g., on compositional parameters), resulting in the possibility 290 of multiple cores and multiple sample identifiers for a single geopoint. For the creation of 291 identifiers, the Python script finds a unique combination of coordinates (i.e., latitude and 292 longitude), assigns an identifier and eliminates duplicates. It repeats this for all primary keys 293 in the database.

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295 2.3.4 MySQL interface

The Excel files designed for facile data ingestion are transformed in order to be compatible with the normalized database using a Python script. This script executes this transformation by auto-creating the compatible csv files, including the unique identifiers for the primary keys. The script can be adapted to a dataset and is provided in the SI. The MOSAIC SQL database allows for a direct upload of csv following data quality assessment, addition of identifiers and creation of csv files. At present, a member of the ETH Biogeoscience group is allocated to undertake this task upon receipt of files.

304 2.3.5 MOSAIC Website: User access and citing of data

305 The website (mosaic.ethz.ch) can be cited using the digital object identifier number (DOI) https://doi.org/10.5168/mosaic019.1. Additionally, under the tab "about this app & app ver-306 sion", the date of the most recent update is included. In order to access data, users do not need 307 308 to use SQL syntax. Instead, users can select data of interest using drop-down menus or by 309 selecting data via a visual geographic interface. The selected data resulting from the query is 310 shown in a table and can be directly downloaded as a csv file (SI Figure 1). Every datapoint is 311 accompanied by the DOI of the original paper. When querying data through the MOSAIC 312 website, the relational aspects of the database ensures that, for example, when a certain location 313 is selected, all data pertaining to this point appear in the table and are downloaded. For users versed in SQL syntax, all accompanying data is available in SQL code, which can be imported 314 315 in both MySQL and PostgreSQL graphic user interface software. In this format, all data can be

316 queried in using SQL syntax.

317 3. Results and Discussion

- 318 3.1 Excerpts from the MOSAIC database
- 319 We provide examples of information extracted from MOSAIC (https://doi.org/10.5168/mo-
- 320 saic019.1, Van der Voort et al., 2019). The intention here is to illustrate broad-scale variability
- 321 in OC properties rather than offer in-depth interpretations. Such interpretations would, of
- 322 course, evolve as the database develops further and as additional parameters are added. The
- 323 latter will be the focus of subsequent contributions.

324 We first show the statistical distributions of geochemical properties (Figure 3). On a 325 global scale, TOC contents of marine surface sediments (< 100 cm) are lognormally distributed around ~1 % (mean = 1.63%, median = 1.14%; n= 8688; Figure 3a), consistent with prior 326 observations (Keil, 2017; Seiter et al., 2004, 2005). The distribution of stable carbon isotope 327 328 $(\delta^{13}C)$ values of OC shows two distinct populations (mean = -22.6%), median = -22.18%; n = 4297; Figure 3b), likely reflecting relative dominance of terrestrial C3 plant (~-27 ‰) and 329 330 marine (~-22 ‰) sources (Burdige, 2005; Sackett and Thomson, 1963). Corresponding radiocarbon contents (expressed here as Fm values) exhibit a more unimodal distribution with 331 an average Fm value of ~ 0.7 (Mean = 0.7, Median = 0.73, n = 709; Figure 3c), highlighting the 332 333 significant proportions of pre-aged OC in globally distributed marine surficial sediments (Griffith et al 2010). 334

335 Carbon isotopic compositions of surface sediment OC exhibit substantial variability when plotted as a function of water depth (Figure 4). Radiocarbon contents are especially 336 variable and generally lower in shallow (coastal) areas where TOC is also relatively low 337 (Figure 4a). Coastal areas are both prone to supply of pre-aged OC from adjacent land masses 338 (e.g., Tao et al., 2015; van der Voort et al., 2017), as well as ageing associated with sediment 339 reworking and lateral transport by bottom currents (Bao et al., 2016; Bröder et al., 2018), A 340 similar pattern of variability is evident in δ^{13} C values (Figure 4b) which exhibit a larger spread 341 on continental shelves (~-13 to -30 ‰) and converge towards higher (more ¹³C-enriched) δ^{13} C 342 343 values (~- 22 ‰) in the deeper ocean. These trends reflect trajectories and modes carbon supply 344 both from land and the ocean to the seafloor that govern OC sequestration and resulting sedimentary signatures (Bianchi et al., 2007; Burdige, 2005). Distinguishing between and 345 quantifying the relative importance these factors is important for understanding consequences 346 347 for carbon burial (Arndt et al., 2013; Bao et al., 2019; Bao et al., 2016), and requires ancillary 348 geochemical and sedimentological data (e.g., biomarker signatures, grain size distributions) -

349 information that will be incorporated into a future iteration of the MOSAIC database.

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357 Broad-scale variability in OC characteristics of surface marine sediments also emerges 358 when properties are examined as a function of latitude (Figure 5). For example, despite considerable scatter in stable carbon isotopic compositions, there is a general trend from higher 359 to lower δ^{13} C values with increasing latitude (Figure 5a). This could reflect latitudinal 360 variations in the carbon isotopic composition of marine phytoplankton (Goericke and Fry, 361 1994), and/or changes in the proportions and δ^{13} C values of terrestrial OC inputs (e.g., balance 362 of C3 vs C4 vegetation; Huang et al., 2000). Latitudinal trends in ¹⁴C are less clear due to a 363 paucity of data with sufficient geographic coverage (Figure 5b), and serve to highlight ocean 364 365 regions and domains that are presently understudied with respect to this and other sediment 366 variables.

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368 3.2 Scientific value of MOSAIC

The compilation of data and subsequent re-analyses holds the potential to yield novel insights 369 into the distribution and composition of OC accumulating in the contemporary marine 370 371 environment, shed light on underlying processes, and identify gaps in existing data sets and spatial coverage. For example, the latter is particularly pertinent for ¹⁴C data and ancillary 372 measurements that are necessary to broadly apply isotopically-enabled models of organic 373 374 turnover and burial in sediments (e.g., Griffith et al., 2010; Isla and DeMaster, 2018), as well as to constrain geographic variability in the age distribution of sedimentary OC in an analogous 375 376 fashion to those of, for example, soil carbon (e.g., Shi et al., 2020). Filling such gaps is also important given increasing interest in developing robust assessments of carbon stocks in coastal 377 marine sediments in the context of future greenhouse gas reporting protocols_(Avelar et al., 378 379 2017; Luisetti et al., 2020), Moreover, regional-scale data compilation of spatially comprehensive geochemical and sedimentological information (Bao, et al., 2018; Bao et al., 380 2016), coupled with the application of novel numerical clustering methods (Van der Voort et 381 382 al., 2018) can facilitate refinement of criteria for delineating biogeochemically provinces (Longhurst, 2007; Seiter et al., 2004), that reflect both source inputs and hydrodynamic 383 regimes, in order to improve carbon cycle budgets and models. Spatially-resolved information 384 385 on biogeochemical characteristics of seafloor sediments is also value in understanding benthicpelagic coupling (e.g., Griffiths et al., 2017) as well as the relationships between sediment 386 387 properties and the diversity and functioning of benthic ecosystems (Middelburg, 2018; Snelgrove et al., 2018). Such examples highlight the value of leveraging existing datasets, 388

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Moved up [1]: Moreover, regional-scale data compilation of spatially comprehensive geochemical and sedimentological information (Bao, et al., 2018; Bao et al., 2016), coupled with the application of novel numerical clustering methods (Van der Voort et al., 2018) can facilitate refinement of criteria for delineating biogeochemically provinces (Longhurst, 2007; Seiter et al., 2004), that reflect both source inputs and hydrodynamic regimes, in order to improve carbon cycle budgets and models.

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 $411\;$ connecting various data sources and using other types of analyses (modelling, statistics) in

- 412 order to garner new insights into underlying processes.
- 413

414 3.3 MOSAIC in context.

415	MOSAIC complements other ongoing efforts to collect and organize a broad spectrum $\underline{\mathrm{of}}$
416	geoscientific and related data, such as the extensive PANGAEA data repository (AWI and
417	MARUM, 2020), as well as those with more targeted missions, such as the International Soil
418	Radiocarbon Database (ISRaD; Lawrence et al., 2020). It differs from these and other
419	initiatives with a primary focus on (i) pro-actively collating data pertinent to OC burial on
420	continental margins, (ii) upper sediment layers (nominally < \sim 1m) that encompass early
421	diagenetic processes and recent deposition (as opposed to down-core studies that seek to re-
422	construct past ocean and climate conditions), and (iii) radiocarbon information that bridges to
423	equivalent databases for other carbon cycle compartments. In this way, we envision that it will
424	serve as a resource to enable "on-stop shopping" for biogeochemical and sedimentological in-
425	formation on continental margin surficial sediments. While thus far data ingested into MO-
426	SAIC has been retrieved from the primary research literature, future efforts will focus on har-
427	monizing and linking with other databases in order to improve overall connectivity of infor-
428	mation. The MOSAIC database has been designed to be modular and adaptable to
429	accommodate further developments and expansion of its dimensionality, while retaining its
430	overall (radio)carbon-centric focus. In particular, inclusion of ¹⁴ / _* C data on specific fractions
431	separated, for example, according to sediment density (Wakeham et al., 2009) or thermal
432	lability (Rosenheim et al., 2008), or at the molecular level (e.g. Druffel et al., 2010; Tao et al.,
433	2016). In this context, it is anticipated that MOSAIC will serve as a key research and teaching
434	resource for biogeochemists focusing on contemporary biogeochemical processes as well as
435	seeking to interrogate sedimentary archives to develop records of past oceanographic
436	conditions.
437	
438	4. Data Availability

439 The data of the database can be accessed via mosaic.ethz.ch and the DOI is
440 https://doi.org/10.5168/mosaic019.1 (Van der Voort et al., 2019). The timestamp of the most
441 recent update is provided on the MOSAIC main page (about this app & app version) along with
442 the DOI. Users who would like to add data to the database can fill in the data in the Excel®

443 templates that can be found in the SI of this paper and send it to mosaic@erdw.ethz.ch.

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449 5. Conclusion and Outlook 450 In this paper, we describe the rationale behind as well as development and structure of a 451 database (MOSAIC) focused on OC accumulating in contemporary continental margin sediments. Current data residing within MOSAIC was derived from over 200 peer-reviewed 452 453 papers, with the intention that this resource will further expand both regarding data density and 454 dimensionality, with a specific emphasis on radiocarbon as an underdetermined yet crucial property for constraining carbon cycle processes. We provide selected examples of spatial var-455 iations in bulk geochemical characteristics (e.g., 14C content) of organic carbon, and envision 456 457 that MOSAIC will serve as a tool to (a) better understand the nature and causes of spatial variability in biogeochemical characteristics of continental margin sediments, which in turn 458 has ramifications for (global) carbon dynamics, seafloor ecology and socioeconomic ramifica-459 tions of these aspects, and complement existing (e.g., soils, ocean dissolved inorganic carbon) 460 461 and planned (riverine carbon, oceanic water column carbon) radiocarbon-centric databases for 462 other major carbon pools, 463 464 6. Video Supplement

465 Accompanying this paper is a short instructional video (in SI) which explains to users how to
466 download the data from MOSAIC (https://doi.org/10.5168/mosaic019.1, Van der Voort et al.,
467 2019).

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469 7. Author Contributions

Tim Eglinton led the conceptual development of the MOSAIC project. Tessa Sophia van der 470 Voort designed, structured and filled the SQL database and also created the associated 471 infrastructure in R, Python and Excel/LibreOffice. Thomas M. Blattmann and Daniel 472 Montluçon provided feedback on the database structure and website development and 473 contributed to discussion of the data. Mohammed Usman collected the MOSAIC data and 474 contributed to the data evaluation. Thomas Loeffler enabled the set-up of infrastructure and 475 476 contributed to the technical components of the paper. Maria Luisa Tavagna contributed to the 477 concept development. Nicolas Gruber contributed to the MOSAIC concept development and project set-up. T.S. van der Voort prepared the manuscript with help of all co-authors. 478

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Deleted: The structure of the database and the associated web interface for data submission and retrieval is presented. The supporting infrastructure was built with open-source software (SQL, R, Python, LibreCale; also provided with this contribution). Current data residing within MOSAIC derives was derived from over 200 peer-reviewed papers, with the intention that this resource will further expand both regarding data density and dimensionality, with a specific emphasis on radiocarbon as an underdetermined yet crucial property for constraining carbon cycle processes. MOSAIC can contribute to a better

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Construction of parallel databases focused on riverine data and ocean sediment trap data are also under development Deleted:

500 8. Competing interests

501 All co-authors declare that they have no competing interests regarding this manuscript.

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503 9. Acknowledgements

504 This project was funded by the ETH project (T. Eglinton and N. Gruber) "Elucidating processes

505 that govern carbon burial in the global ocean" (46 15-1). We thank Melissa Schwab for sharing

506 her insights in optimal R visualization. Many thanks also to Stephane Beaussier, who helped

 $507\,$ to overcome numerous challenges in the development of this project. We thank Anastasiia

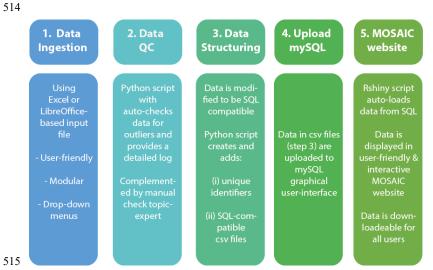
508 Ignatova for contributions to a prototype of MOSAIC. We thank Philip Pika for his insights

509 into sediment parameters.

511 10. Tables and Figures

ble 1 Overview of ke	ey variables and their abun	dance in the MOSAIC data	base. An exhaustive list	can be found in the SI.	 Formatted: Normal, Left, Line spacing: single, No page break before
	Main variable	Unit	Number of datapoints	Required (Y/N)	-
Geopoints	Latitude	Degrees (°)	8706	Y	•
	Longitude	Degrees (°)	8706	Y	
Samples Ocean	Exclusivity Clause	Y/N	8706	Y	-
	Water depth	m	4297	Y ²	Formatted: Font colour: Custom Colour (RGB(68,84,106)
	Sample core depth (average)	Centimeter (cm)	7147	Y	
	Sample name	VARCHAR	-	Ν	
	Total Organic Carbon (TOC)	Percentage (%)	8688	Ν	
	$\delta^{13}C$	Permil (‰)	4297	Ν	
	Fm	fraction	709	Ν	
	C:N Ratio	Ratio	504	Ν	
	SiO ₂	Percentage (%)	370	Ν	
	CaCO ₃	Percentage (%)	1668	Ν	
Articles	Article doi	VARCHAR	235	N	-

² There are ongoing efforts to collect all water depth information, ancillary information will be attained using the GEBCO bathymetric grid (GEBCO, 2020).

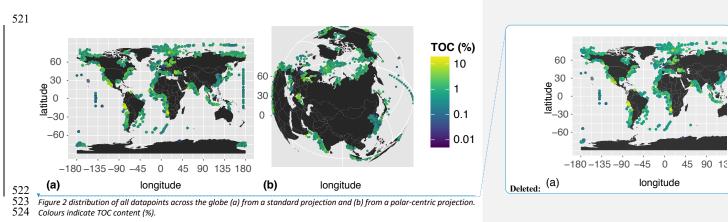


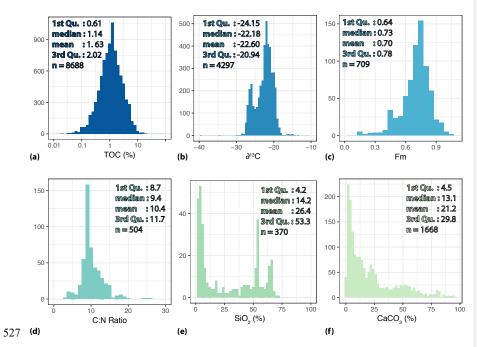
516 Figure 1 Overview of the MOSAIC pipeline. Data ingestion (1) is done with excel-based input files. Then, (2) data quality control

is achieved using is a python script which auto-checks the data for outliers and produces a subsequent log. Afterwards, (3)

unique identifiers are added and the data is transformed into SQL-compatible format in Python. Subsequently, (4) data

- addition to the MOSAIC database occurs within the MySQL GUI, and finally (5), the data is auto-updated within the R
- 520 environment and the Rshiny app is updated.





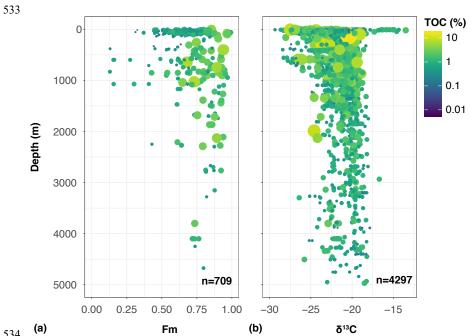
528 Figure 3 Distribution of data for key sedimentary parameters included in MOSAIC: (a) TOC shows a log-normal distribution

529 which peaks at ~1.1 % and averages around 1.6 %, (b) δ^{13} C values show two distinct peaks at ~-22 and ~27 permil, (c)

530 radiocarbon shows a strongly depleted signature with the fraction modern value averaging at ~0.7. The (d) C:N ratio global

531 average is ~ 10. The median (e) silicate (SiO₂) and (f) carbonate (CaCO₃) contents are ~14%, and ~ 13%, respectively

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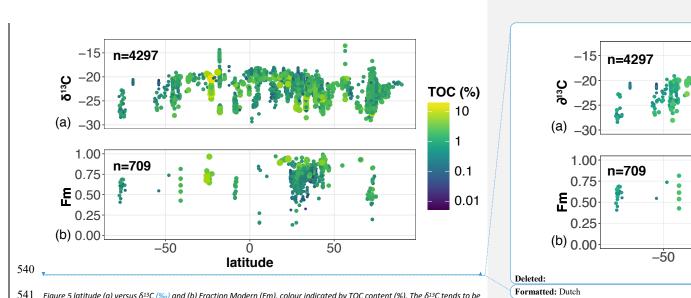


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535 Figure 4 (a) Fraction modern versus depth, bubble size and colour indicate sample TOC content (%). On ocean shelves (shallow 536 depths) we observe generally low TOC values and depleted Fm values. Carbon in deeper oceans show a larger spread in ages 537 and TOC content. (b) δ^{13} C modern versus depth, bubble size and colour indicate sample TOC content (%). On ocean shelves

538 (shallow depths) we observe a large spread in ∂^{13} C values. Carbon in deeper oceans show a smaller spread and converge to

539 less depleted $\delta^{13}C$ values.



541 Figure 5 latitude (a) versus $\delta^{13}C$ ($\frac{\%_0}{2}$ and (b) Fraction Modern (Fm), colour indicated by TOC content (%). The $\delta^{13}C$ tends to be

542 less depleted in the low-latitudes. The Fm shows a sampling bias in the mid-range latitudes and also appears to be less 543 depleted in the lower latitudes.

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