

1 MOSAIC (Modern Ocean Sediment Archive and Inventory of Carbon):
2 A (radio)carbon-centric database for seafloor surficial sediments

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18

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

28 Abstract

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

48

49 1. Introduction

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

67

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

81

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

97

98 At present, an information gap exists between the numerous in-depth biogeochemical
99 investigations of carbon burial focused on geographically-localized regions (e.g., Bao et al.,
100 2016; Bianchi, 2011; Castanha et al., 2008; Kao et al., 2014; Schmidt et al., 2010; Schreiner et
101 al., 2013) and global-scale syntheses that draw upon large suites of bulk OC concentration
102 measurements but are limited in diversity of geochemical information (e.g., Atwood et al.,
103 2020; Premuzic et al., 1982; Seiter et al., 2004, 2005) and lack sedimentological context.
104 Consequently, current global-scale budgets and global-scale Earth System Models (ESMs) do
105 not resolve regional or small-scale variability (Bauer et al., 2013), and are limited by our
106 current understanding of variability in biogeochemical and sedimentary processes that
107 influence sedimentary organic matter composition and reactivity (Arndt et al., 2013; Bao, R.
108 et al., 2018; Levin and Sibuet, 2012; Middelburg, 2018). Snelgrove et al., (2018), for example,
109 argues that robust estimates of sediment carbon turnover are impeded by high spatial variability
110 in sediment carbon properties. Increasingly powerful Region Oceanic Model Systems (ROMS)
111 models (e.g., Gruber et al., 2012) and statistical methods for geospatial analysis (e.g., van der
112 Voort et al., 2018; Atwood et al., 2020) hold the potential to utilize information from local-
113 scale studies and inform ESMs, but these require mining and collation of existing data and
114 merging this with new observations. Spatially-resolved datasets for marine sedimentary OC

115 are beginning to emerge (e.g. Inthorn et al., 2006; Schmidt et al., 2010), including radiocarbon
116 measurements (e.g., Bao et al., 2016; Bosman et al., 2020). The latter information is likely to
117 increase in availability with the advent of natural-abundance ^{14}C measurement via elemental
118 analysis coupled with gas-accepting accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS) systems (McIntyre
119 et al., 2016; Wacker et al., 2010) that enable routine, high-throughput ^{14}C measurements.

120

121 Overall, there is a strong need to synthesize information related to not only OC content, but
122 also its composition and depositional context, from separate region-based studies. Merging of
123 this information to provide pan-continental margin ocean floor data resources would enable
124 development of robust budgets and detection in changes in the magnitude or nature of carbon
125 stocks. In addition to the content and radiocarbon characteristics of OC that are of value in
126 constraining the provenance and reactivity of OM (Griffith et al., 2010), other geochemical
127 characteristics of organic matter, including the elemental composition (e.g., C/N ratio)
128 abundance, stable isotopic (^{13}C , ^{15}N) and molecular (biomarker) composition of organic matter,
129 as well as contextual properties such as sedimentation rate, mixed-layer depth, bioturbation
130 intensity, and redox conditions (Aller and Blair, 2006; Arndt et al., 2013; Griffith et al., 2010a)
131 are needed to provide a holistic depositional perspective. With on-going analytical advances
132 that facilitate more rapid and streamlined sediment analysis, it is anticipated that there will be
133 substantial increases in data availability and diversity, highlighting the urgent need to compile,
134 organize and harmonize existing datasets.

135

136 2. The MOSAIC database

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

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

150

151 2.1. Database scope and content

152

153 2.1.1. *Spatial and depth coverage and georeferencing*

154 The focus of MOSAIC is on the coastal ocean (continental margins) with limited inclusion of
155 data from deep ocean settings. Attention is also restricted to surficial sediments (nominally the
156 upper ~ 1m) that are most effectively sampled with shallow coring systems designed to recover
157 an intact sediment-water interface (e.g., hydraulically-damped multicorer, box corer). The
158 rationale is because of the focus on processes associated with deposition, early diagenesis, and
159 burial of organic matter, rather than on down-core investigations used for paleoceanographic
160 and paleoclimate reconstruction. Sediment depth profile data can be primarily used to examine
161 diagenetic profiles, and to constrain sedimentation rates, mixed layer depths, redox gradients,
162 as well as to determine carbon fluxes and inventories.

163

164 2.1.2 *Scope of data acquisition*

165 The data currently comprising the MOSAIC database was extracted from over two hundred
166 publications. No unpublished data is included in the on-line version, and the focus of the
167 database in this initial phase of implementation is on an initial suite of commonly measured
168 sediment parameters (e.g. sampling depth, carbon content and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$) that are available in high
169 abundance. A non-exhaustive list of the most important parameters cataloged in the MOSAIC
170 database can be found in Table 1. A more comprehensive list of parameters that are available
171 in the SQL framework can be found in the Supplemental Information (SI).

172

173 2.1.3 *Core parameters*

174 The database was established based on selected key parameters, with a particular emphasis on
175 the radiocarbon content of OC, as well as other basic properties that provide broader
176 geochemical and sedimentological context (Table 1). The former include total organic carbon
177 (TOC) and total nitrogen (TN) content, organic carbon/total N ratios, and the carbon isotopic
178 composition ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and ^{14}C values) of OC. Sedimentological parameters are yet to be
179 implemented in the on-line version but will include parameters such as grain size, mineral

180 specific surface area, mixed layer depth, oxygen penetration depth, sedimentation rate, porosity
181 and dry bulk density.

182

183 2.2 MOSAIC Structure

184 The normalized relational database structure of the MOSAIC database was created using the
185 open-source MySQL software (MySQL Workbench Community for Ubuntu 18 version
186 6.3.10). The relational aspect of the database means that data (e.g., related to sample or
187 location-specifics) are stored in data tables which are connected (or related) by a unique
188 identifier. “Normalized” implies that in the structure of the database redundancies are
189 eliminated (e.g., a variable such as water depth occurs only once in the database, Codd, 1990).
190 A schematic of the detailed database structure can be found in SI Figure 2. The database
191 structure contains entries for key geochemical parameters pertaining to ocean sediment core
192 samples, including organic matter content, isotopic signature, and composition, as well as
193 texture and sedimentological parameters. Information can be collected for bulk samples as well
194 as, for example, size and density fractions. Furthermore, it is designed to enable additional
195 modules that can accommodate data related to other sample suites such as sinking particulate
196 matter from the ocean water column (e.g., time-series sediment traps), or riverine samples. It
197 includes an exclusivity option which can be used to indicate if data is in the public domain
198 or not (e.g., pending publication of separate contributions).

199 Reporting conventions are detailed in the SI Table 2. Units as specified in the original papers
200 were used (listed in SI). Where possible ^{14}C information was collected as $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$, alternatively it
201 was collected as Fm, and all $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$ values were converted to Fm when sampling year was avail-
202 able (Stuiver and Polach, 1977). Ongoing efforts are underway to further harmonize the data
203 and convert all data to $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$ for the next iteration for the MOSAIC database.

204 2.3 The MOSAIC Pipeline

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

212

213 2.3.1 Data ingestion

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

224

225 2.3.3 Data quality

226 2.3.3.1 Initial data collection

227 The current MOSAIC dataset was initiated by manual mining of an initial subset of peer-re-
228 viewed oceanographic papers that contained substantial TO¹⁴C datasets (e.g., Griffith et al.,
229 2010) from different continental margin systems. This enabled the collecting researcher to be
230 trained in the process of data evaluation and handling. MOSAIC was further expanded by ex-
231 tracting data from a broader suite peer-reviewed papers which were found using the search
232 engine Google Scholar, with search terms including “organic carbon in surficial/surface sedi-
233 ments”, “TOC in surficial/surface sediments” and “radiocarbon/¹⁴C in surficial/surface sedi-
234 ments”. Data was, where necessary, converted to common units. For instance, all coordinates
235 were converted to the WSG84 coordinate systems, all total organic carbon was converted to
236 percentages, and sample depth to centimeters. More details can be found in SI Table 1.

237

238 2.3.3.2 Data quality control

239 Quality control of the input data is implemented via a python script tailored to the pre-defined
240 spreadsheet files. This script auto-checks the values of key parameters such as latitude,
241 longitude, carbon and nitrogen content, ¹³C, ¹⁴C, CaCO₃ content, SiO₂ content and sediment
242 texture-related parameters. The auto-check produces a log file with flags for unexpected values.
243 In turn, the flags point to the exact line containing possible out-of-bound values. For example,

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

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

250

251 2.3.3 Data transformation and structuring

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

255 Importantly for the database structure, unique identifiers are created for each appropriate
256 database table (SI Figure 2). For example, for a specific location, an individual sediment core
257 may yield multiple samples (i.e., core sections corresponding to different depth intervals), with
258 multiple measurements (e.g., ^{13}C , ^{14}C and %TOC) performed on each sample (section). In this
259 example, the location is assigned a unique geopoint location identifier, the core receives a
260 unique identifier, and each sample (section) is given a unique identifier. These identifiers
261 resurface in each database table (e.g., on compositional parameters), resulting in the possibility
262 of multiple cores and multiple sample identifiers for a single geopoint. For the creation of
263 identifiers, the Python script finds a unique combination of coordinates (i.e., latitude and
264 longitude), assigns an identifier and eliminates duplicates. It repeats this for all primary keys
265 in the database.

266

267 2.3.4 MySQL interface

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

275

276 2.3.5 MOSAIC Website: User access and citing of data

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

289 3. Results and Discussion

290 3.1 Excerpts from the MOSAIC database

291 We provide examples of information extracted from MOSAIC (<https://doi.org/10.5168/mo->
292 [saic019.1](https://doi.org/10.5168/mosaic019.1), Van der Voort et al., 2019). The intention here is to illustrate broad-scale variability
293 in OC properties rather than offer in-depth interpretations. Such interpretations would, of
294 course, evolve as the database develops further and as additional parameters are added. The
295 latter will be the focus of subsequent contributions.

296 We first show the statistical distributions of geochemical properties (Figure 3). On a
297 global scale, TOC contents of marine surface sediments (< 100 cm) are lognormally distributed
298 around ~1 % (mean = 1.63%, median = 1.14%; n= 8688; Figure 3a), consistent with prior
299 observations (Keil, 2017; Seiter et al., 2004, 2005). The distribution of stable carbon isotope
300 ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) values of OC shows two distinct populations (mean = -22.6‰, median = -22.18‰; n =
301 4297; Figure 3b), likely reflecting relative dominance of terrestrial C₃ plant (~-27 ‰) and
302 marine (~-22 ‰) sources (Burdige, 2005; Sackett and Thomson, 1963). Corresponding
303 radiocarbon contents (expressed here as Fm values) exhibit a more unimodal distribution with
304 an average Fm value of ~0.7 (Mean = 0.7, Median = 0.73, n = 709; Figure 3c), highlighting the
305 significant proportions of pre-aged OC in globally distributed marine surficial sediments
306 (Griffith et al 2010).

307 Carbon isotopic compositions of surface sediment OC exhibit substantial variability
308 when plotted as a function of water depth (Figure 4). Radiocarbon contents are especially
309 variable and generally lower in shallow (coastal) areas where TOC is also relatively low
310 (Figure 4a). Coastal areas are both prone to supply of pre-aged OC from adjacent land masses
311 (e.g., Tao et al., 2015; van der Voort et al., 2017), as well as ageing associated with sediment
312 reworking and lateral transport by bottom currents (Bao et al., 2016; Bröder et al., 2018). A
313 similar pattern of variability is evident in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values (Figure 4b) which exhibit a larger spread
314 on continental shelves (~-13 to -30 ‰) and converge towards higher (more ¹³C-enriched) $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
315 values (~- 22 ‰) in the deeper ocean. These trends reflect trajectories and modes carbon supply
316 both from land and the ocean to the seafloor that govern OC sequestration and resulting
317 sedimentary signatures (Bianchi et al., 2007; Burdige, 2005). Distinguishing between and
318 quantifying the relative importance these factors is important for understanding consequences
319 for carbon burial (Arndt et al., 2013; Bao et al., 2019; Bao et al., 2016), and requires ancillary
320 geochemical and sedimentological data (e.g., biomarker signatures, grain size distributions) -
321 information that will be incorporated into a future iteration of the MOSAIC database.

322 Broad-scale variability in OC characteristics of surface marine sediments also emerges
323 when properties are examined as a function of latitude (Figure 5). For example, despite
324 considerable scatter in stable carbon isotopic compositions, there is a general trend from higher
325 to lower $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values with increasing latitude (Figure 5a). This could reflect latitudinal
326 variations in the carbon isotopic composition of marine phytoplankton (Goericke and Fry,
327 1994), and/or changes in the proportions and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of terrestrial OC inputs (e.g., balance
328 of C_3 vs C_4 vegetation; Huang et al., 2000). Latitudinal trends in ^{14}C are less clear due to a
329 paucity of data with sufficient geographic coverage (Figure 5b), and serve to highlight ocean
330 regions and domains that are presently understudied with respect to this and other sediment
331 variables.

332

333 3.2 Scientific value of MOSAIC

334 The compilation of data and subsequent re-analyses holds the potential to yield novel insights
335 into the distribution and composition of OC accumulating in the contemporary marine
336 environment, shed light on underlying processes, and identify gaps in existing data sets and
337 spatial coverage. For example, the latter is particularly pertinent for ^{14}C data and ancillary
338 measurements that are necessary to broadly apply isotopically-enabled models of organic
339 turnover and burial in sediments (e.g., Griffith et al., 2010; Isla and DeMaster, 2018), as well
340 as to constrain geographic variability in the age distribution of sedimentary OC in an analogous
341 fashion to those of, for example, soil carbon (e.g., Shi et al., 2020). Filling such gaps is also
342 important given increasing interest in developing robust assessments of carbon stocks in coastal
343 marine sediments in the context of future greenhouse gas reporting protocols (Avelar et al.,
344 2017; Luisetti et al., 2020). Moreover, regional-scale data compilation of spatially
345 comprehensive geochemical and sedimentological information (Bao, et al., 2018; Bao et al.,
346 2016), coupled with the application of novel numerical clustering methods (Van der Voort et
347 al., 2018) can facilitate refinement of criteria for delineating biogeochemically provinces
348 (Longhurst, 2007; Seiter et al., 2004), that reflect both source inputs and hydrodynamic
349 regimes, in order to improve carbon cycle budgets and models. Spatially-resolved information
350 on biogeochemical characteristics of seafloor sediments is also value in understanding benthic-
351 pelagic coupling (e.g., Griffiths et al., 2017) as well as the relationships between sediment
352 properties and the diversity and functioning of benthic ecosystems (Middelburg, 2018;
353 Snelgrove et al., 2018). Such examples highlight the value of leveraging existing datasets,

354 connecting various data sources and using other types of analyses (modelling, statistics) in
355 order to garner new insights into underlying processes.

356

357 3.3 MOSAIC in context.

358 MOSAIC complements other ongoing efforts to collect and organize a broad spectrum of
359 geoscientific and related data, such as the extensive PANGAEA data repository (AWI and
360 MARUM, 2020), as well as those with more targeted missions, such as the International Soil
361 Radiocarbon Database (ISRaD; Lawrence et al., 2020). It differs from these and other
362 initiatives with a primary focus on (i) pro-actively collating data pertinent to OC burial on
363 continental margins, (ii) upper sediment layers (nominally $< \sim 1\text{m}$) that encompass early
364 diagenetic processes and recent deposition (as opposed to down-core studies that seek to re-
365 construct past ocean and climate conditions), and (iii) radiocarbon information that bridges to
366 equivalent databases for other carbon cycle compartments. In this way, we envision that it will
367 serve as a resource to enable “on-stop shopping” for biogeochemical and sedimentological in-
368 formation on continental margin surficial sediments. While thus far data ingested into MO-
369 SAIC has been retrieved from the primary research literature, future efforts will focus on har-
370 monizing and linking with other databases in order to improve overall connectivity of infor-
371 mation. The MOSAIC database has been designed to be modular and adaptable to
372 accommodate further developments and expansion of its dimensionality, while retaining its
373 overall (radio)carbon-centric focus. In particular, inclusion of ^{14}C data on specific fractions
374 separated, for example, according to sediment density (Wakeham et al., 2009) or thermal
375 lability (Rosenheim et al., 2008), or at the molecular level (e.g. Druffel et al., 2010; Tao et al.,
376 2016). In this context, it is anticipated that MOSAIC will serve as a key research and teaching
377 resource for biogeochemists focusing on contemporary biogeochemical processes as well as
378 seeking to interrogate sedimentary archives to develop records of past oceanographic
379 conditions.

380

381 4. Data Availability

382 The data of the database can be accessed via mosaic.ethz.ch and the DOI is
383 <https://doi.org/10.5168/mosaic019.1> (Van der Voort et al., 2019). The timestamp of the most
384 recent update is provided on the MOSAIC main page (about this app & app version) along with
385 the DOI. Users who would like to add data to the database can fill in the data in the Excel®
386 templates that can be found in the SI of this paper and send it to mosaic@erdw.ethz.ch.

387

388 5. Conclusion and Outlook

389 In this paper, we describe the rationale behind as well as development and structure of a
390 database (MOSAIC) focused on OC accumulating in contemporary continental margin
391 sediments. Current data residing within MOSAIC was derived from over 200 peer-reviewed
392 papers, with the intention that this resource will further expand both regarding data density and
393 dimensionality, with a specific emphasis on radiocarbon as an underdetermined yet crucial
394 property for constraining carbon cycle processes. We provide selected examples of spatial var-
395 iations in bulk geochemical characteristics (e.g., ^{14}C content) of organic carbon, and envision
396 that MOSAIC will serve as a tool to (a) better understand the nature and causes of spatial
397 variability in biogeochemical characteristics of continental margin sediments, which in turn
398 has ramifications for (global) carbon dynamics, seafloor ecology and socioeconomic ramifica-
399 tions of these aspects, and complement existing (e.g., soils, ocean dissolved inorganic carbon)
400 and planned (riverine carbon, oceanic water column carbon) radiocarbon-centric databases for
401 other major carbon pools.

402

403 6. Video Supplement

404 Accompanying this paper is a short instructional video (in SI) which explains to users how to
405 download the data from MOSAIC (<https://doi.org/10.5168/mosaic019.1>, Van der Voort et al.,
406 2019).

407

408 7. Author Contributions

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

418

419 8. Competing interests

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

421

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426 to overcome numerous challenges in the development of this project. We thank Anastasiia

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

428 into sediment parameters.

429

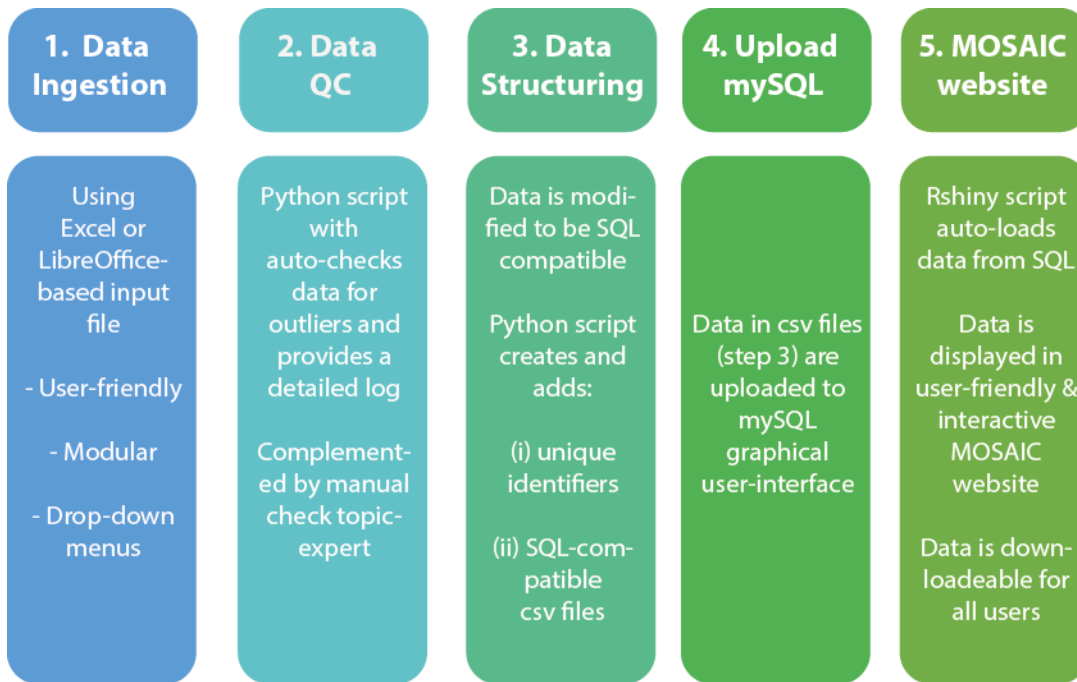
430 10. Tables and Figures

431

432 *Table 1 Overview of key variables and their abundance in the MOSAIC database. An exhaustive list can be found in the SI.*

	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
	Sample core depth (average)	Centimeter (cm)	7147	Y
	Sample name	VARCHAR	-	N
	Total Organic Carbon (TOC)	Percentage (%)	8688	N
	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	Permil (‰)	4297	N
	Fm	fraction	709	N
	C:N Ratio	Ratio	504	N
	SiO ₂	Percentage (%)	370	N
	CaCO ₃	Percentage (%)	1668	N
Articles	Article doi	VARCHAR	235	N

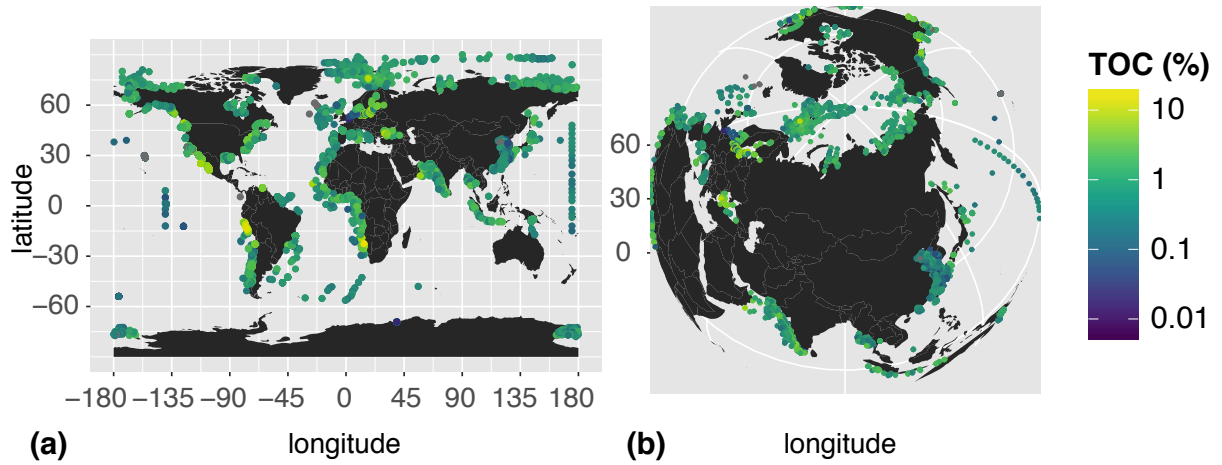
² There are ongoing efforts to collect all water depth information, ancillary information will be attained using the GEBCO bathymetric grid (GEBCO, 2020).



434

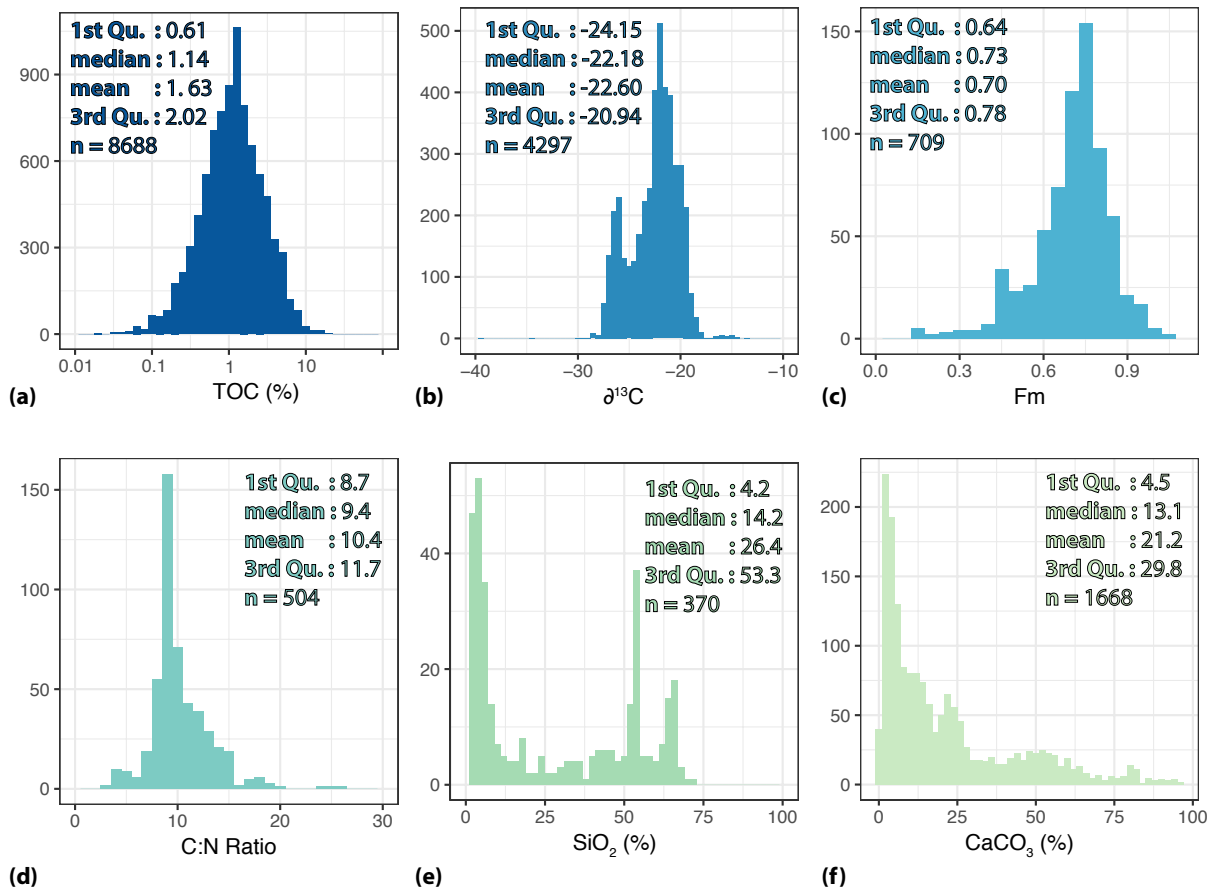
435 *Figure 1 Overview of the MOSAIC pipeline. Data ingestion (1) is done with excel-based input files. Then, (2) data quality control*
 436 *is achieved using is a python script which auto-checks the data for outliers and produces a subsequent log. Afterwards, (3)*
 437 *unique identifiers are added and the data is transformed into SQL-compatible format in Python. Subsequently, (4) data*
 438 *addition to the MOSAIC database occurs within the MySQL GUI, and finally (5), the data is auto-updated within the R*
 439 *environment and the Rshiny app is updated.*

440



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443

(a) longitude **(b)** longitude
Figure 2 distribution of all datapoints across the globe (a) from a standard projection and (b) from a polar-centric projection. Colours indicate TOC content (%).



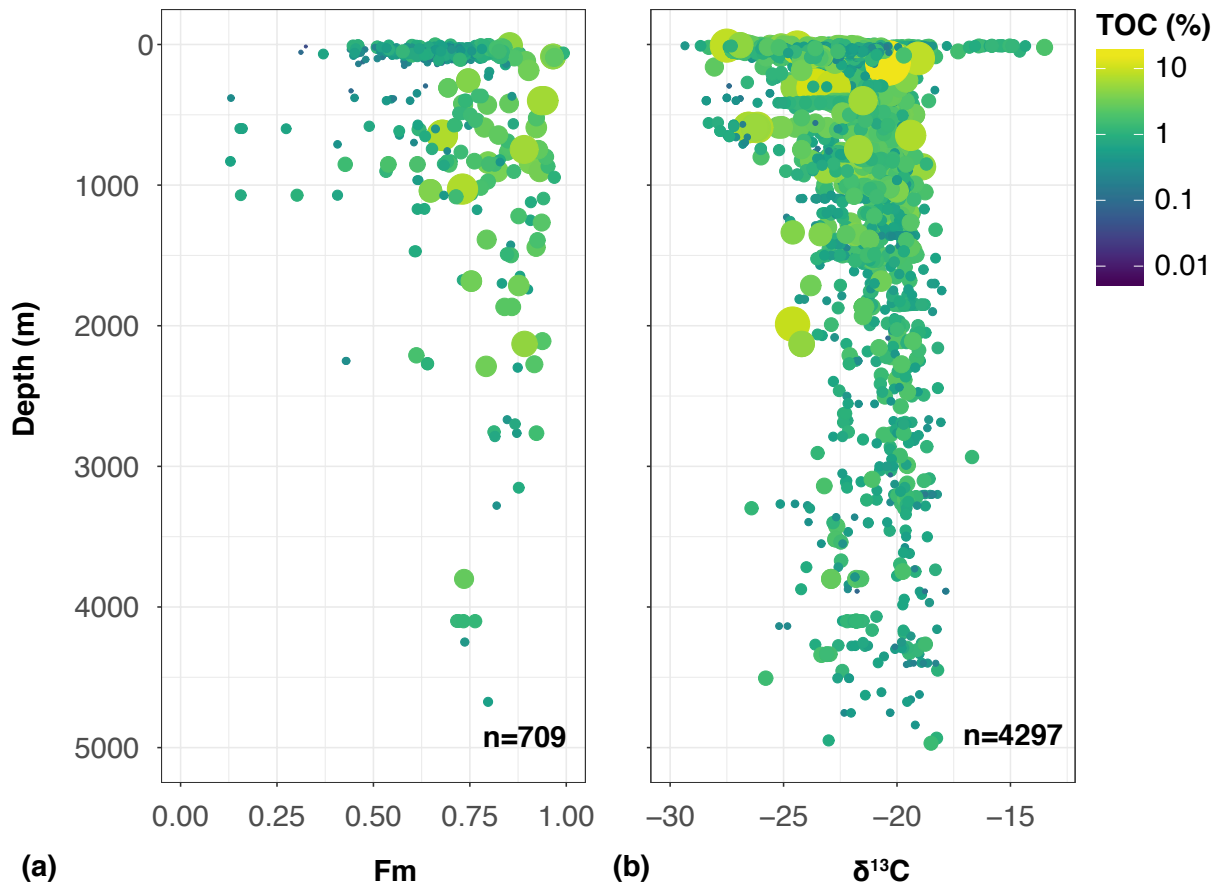
445 (d)

(e)

(f)

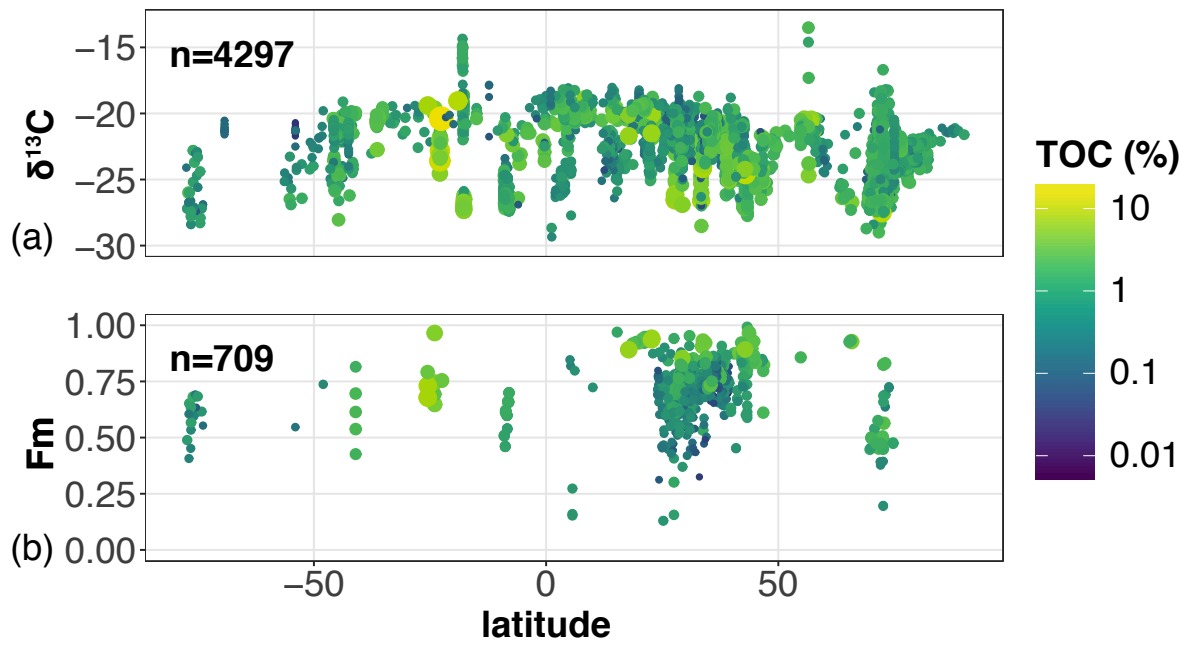
446 Figure 3 Distribution of data for key sedimentary parameters included in MOSAIC: (a) TOC shows a log-normal distribution
 447 which peaks at ~1.1 % and averages around 1.6 %, (b) $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values show two distinct peaks at ~-22 and ~-27 permil. (c)
 448 radiocarbon shows a strongly depleted signature with the fraction modern value averaging at ~0.7. The (d) C:N ratio global
 449 average is ~ 10. The median (e) silicate (SiO_2) and (f) carbonate (CaCO_3) contents are ~14%, and ~ 13%, respectively

450



451

452 *Figure 4 (a) Fraction modern versus depth, bubble size and colour indicate sample TOC content (%). On ocean shelves (shallow*
453 *depths) we observe generally low TOC values and depleted Fm values. Carbon in deeper oceans show a larger spread in ages*
454 *and TOC content. (b) $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ modern versus depth, bubble size and colour indicate sample TOC content (%). On ocean shelves*
455 *(shallow depths) we observe a large spread in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values. Carbon in deeper oceans show a smaller spread and converge to*
456 *less depleted $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values.*



457

458 *Figure 5 latitude (a) versus $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰) and (b) Fraction Modern (F_m), colour indicated by TOC content (%). The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ tends to be*
 459 *less depleted in the low-latitudes. The F_m shows a sampling bias in the mid-range latitudes and also appears to be less*
 460 *depleted in the lower latitudes.*

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