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Type II photosensitized oxidation in senescent microalgal cells at different latitudes: Does low under-ice irradiance in polar regions enhance efficiency?

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31

32 Abstract

33 Comparison of Type II photosensitized oxidation of lipids (the photodynamic effect) and photodegradation of chlorophyll (sensitizer photobleaching) in samples of particulate matter 34 35 collected previously from locations representing a diverse range of latitudes reveals an 36 enhancement of the photooxidation of lipids at the expense of chlorophyll photodegradation in 37 the polar regions. The efficiency of the photodynamic effect appears to be particularly high in sinking particles collected under sea ice and is attributed to the rapid settling of highly 38 39 aggregated sympagic algae to depths of low light transmission favouring the photodynamic effect at the expense of photobleaching of the sensitizer. Paradoxically, the low efficiency of 40 Type II photosensitized oxidation of lipids observed in temperate and equatorial regions is 41 associated with high solar irradiances in these regions. Type II photosensitized oxidation of 42 lipids in senescent phytoplankton seems thus to be strongly dependent of the intensity of solar 43 44 irradiance.

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Keywords: Photodynamic effect; Senescent phytoplankton; Latitude; Polar regions; Solar
irradiance.

48 1. Introduction

Reconstructions of sedimentary palaeoenvironments are essential to place the current global 49 warming trends into the context of natural and long-term climate variability. Lipid biomarkers 50 51 preserved in sediments are often used for this purpose since they are key indicators of organic 52 matter (OM) sources (Volkman et al., 1998; Wakeham et al., 1997). Maximizing the reliability of these reconstructions requires careful consideration of the processes that affect the fate of 53 54 OM - notably OM degradation and/or preservation - during its transport down the water column from the euphotic zone to the seafloor. Degradation may be biotic (i.e. induced by 55 56 zooplankton and bacteria, Harvey et al., 1987; Grossart et al., 2007) or abiotic (i.e. induced by 57 light or radicals, Rontani, 2012). Photooxidation (which has generally received little attention until now in the literature) that destroys most of the unsaturated components of biogenic OM 58 initially present in the settling material (for a recent review see Rontani and Belt, 2020) can 59 strongly alter the lipid signature of OM reaching the seafloor. It is thus essential to take into 60 account the potential effects of abiotic degradation when making palaeoenvironmental 61 reconstructions from sedimentary OM. 62

In healthy phytoplankton cells, light absorption by chlorophyll creates an excited singlet 63 state (¹Chl), which leads to the classical fast reactions of photosynthesis (Foote, 1976). The 64 energy of this excited state is then transferred to various substrates, where it promotes 65 photosynthetic reactions, while a relatively small proportion of ${}^{1}Chl$ (<0.1%) undergoes 66 intersystem crossing (ISC) to form the longer-lived triplet state (³Chl; Knox and Dodge, 1985) 67 (Fig. 1). ³Chl is not only potentially damaging in itself in Type I reactions (Knox and Dodge, 68 1985), but can also generate reactive singlet oxygen $({}^{1}O_{2})$ by reaction with ground state oxygen 69 70 (³O₂) via Type II photoprocesses (Fig. 1) (Krieger-Liszkay, 2005). Despite the production of 71 other Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS), it is generally considered that the photo-production of 72 ${}^{1}O_{2}$ plays the major role in light-induced damage to plant cells (Triantaphylides et al., 2008).

In view of the susceptibility of plant cells to oxidative damage, there are many antioxidant protective mechanisms in chloroplasts. For example, carotenoids quench ³Chl and ¹O₂ by energy transfer mechanisms at very high rates (Fig. 1). Such antioxidants have a dual role: first, they limit ¹O₂ formation, and second, they help remove any ¹O₂ that does form (Foote, 1976; Tefler, 2002). Tocopherols and ascorbic acid are also efficient quenchers of ¹O₂ (Halliwe11, 1987; Havaux et al., 2005).

In senescent phototrophic organisms, the cessation of photosynthetic reactions results in 79 an accelerated rate of formation of ³Chl and ROS (mainly ¹O₂) (Nelson, 1993; Triantaphylides 80 et al., 2008). The rate of formation of these potentially damaging species then often exceeds the 81 quenching capacity of the photoprotective system such that photodegradation of cell 82 components can occur via the so-called photodynamic effect (Merzlyak and Hendry, 1994) 83 84 (Fig. 1). Direct and irreversible reaction of 3 Chl with 3 O₂ (photobleaching) gives photooxidation 85 products (Harbour and Bolton, 1978) (Fig. 1), while ${}^{1}O_{2}$ reacts extremely rapidly with nearby biomolecules at near diffusion-controlled rates (photodynamic effect) (Knox and Dodge, 1985; 86 87 Cadenas, 1989; Skovsen et al., 2005). The very high reactivity of ${}^{1}O_{2}$ with numerous cell 88 components (unsaturated lipids, some amino acids, nucleic acids; Rontani, 2012, Devasagayam and Kamat, 2002) is a consequence of the loss of the spin restriction that normally hinders 89 reaction of ³O₂ with these biomolecules (Zolla and Rinalducci, 2002). ¹O₂ also reacts with the 90 sensitizer (chlorophyll) inducing its photobleaching (Nelson, 1993; Rontani, 2012) (Fig. 1). It 91 is important to note, however, that photobleaching of the sensitizer reduces ¹O₂ production and 92 is thus competitive with the photodynamic effect. 93

In this study, we investigated the photooxidation of chlorophyll (photobleaching) and some common algal unsaturated lipids (Δ^5 -sterols and monounsaturated fatty acids (MUFAs)) (photodynamic effect) in marine particulate matter from locations representing a diverse range of latitudes, from the Arctic to the Antarctic. In order to try to explain an increased, yet highly

98 variable, efficiency of the photodynamic effect observed in material from the polar regions,
99 particular attention was given to samples from the Canadian Arctic representing sea ice, the
100 water column under the ice, and regions of open water.

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102 **2. Experimental**

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104 2.1. Sample collection

Detailed descriptions (e.g. sampling dates, depths, volumes, etc) of the collection of samples of 105 marine particulate matter from the Arctic, English Channel, Mediterranean Sea, Arabian Sea, 106 Equatorial Pacific, Equatorial Atlantic, Peru upwelling and East Antarctica (Fig. 2) has been 107 described previously (see references in Tables 1 and 2). Briefly, suspended particulate matter 108 (SPM) samples were collected with Niskin bottles or an in situ multiple-unit large-volume 109 110 filtration system (MULVFS), while sinking particles were collected with floating or fixed mooring sediment traps. Sub-samples for lipid analysis were then filtered onto GF/F filters and 111 112 stored frozen (-80 °C). Sympagic algae were obtained from the bottom-most layer of sea ice 113 (0-10 cm) from Resolute Passage (Canadian Arctic) (Rontani et al., 2014). Samples of the subice colonial diatom, Melosira arctica, which colonises the underside of sea ice and is widely 114 distributed across the Arctic (Boetius et al., 2013), were collected from the Canadian icebreaker 115 CCGS Amundsen under the ice $(49 \pm 4 \text{ cm})$ in Baffin Bay $(70^{\circ}28'32''N, 64^{\circ}0'37''W)$ in June 116 2016 (GreenEdge Campaign)) and on board of R/V Lance (81°14'22'N, 21°54'50'E) in 117 August 2017 as part of an oceanographic transect north of Svalbard from Rijpfjorden towards 118 the Nansen Basin. Near-surface (<10 m) water column samples (ca. 1 - 4 l) were collected 119 along a N-S transect terminating in the Amundsen Sea (Antarctica) and filtered (GF/F) on board 120 the Korean Icebreaker RV Araon in January/February 2016. 121

123 2.2. Sample treatment

The whole material of the different samples was reduced with excess NaBH₄ in MeOH (25 ml; 124 30 min) to reduce labile hydroperoxides (resulting from Type II photooxidation) to their 125 126 corresponding alcohols. which are more amenable to analysis using gas chromatography/electron ionization (GC-EIMS), 127 mass spectrometry gas chromatography/electron ionization tandem mass spectrometry (GC-EIMS/MS) and gas 128 chromatography/electron ionization quadrupole time of flight mass spectrometry (GC-QTOF). 129 Water (25 ml) and KOH (2.8 g) were then added and the resulting mixture saponified by 130 refluxing (2 h). After cooling, the mixture was acidified (HCl, 2 N) to pH 1 and extracted with 131 dichloromethane (DCM; 3 x 20 ml). The combined DCM extracts were dried over anhydrous 132 Na₂SO₄, filtered and concentrated via rotary evaporation at 40 °C to give total lipid extracts 133 (TLEs). All the solvents (pesticide/glass distilled grade) and reagents (Puriss grade) were 134 135 obtained from Rathburn and Sigma-Aldrich, respectively. TLEs were derivatized by dissolving them in 300 µL pyridine/bis-(trimethylsilyl)trifluoroacetamide (BSTFA; Supelco; 2:1, v/v) and 136 silvlated (50 °C, 1 h). After evaporation to dryness under a stream of N₂, the derivatized residue 137 138 was dissolved in hexane/BSTFA (to avoid desilylation) and analysed by the aforementioned mass spectrometric methods. 139

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141 2.3. Assignment and quantification of lipids and their degradation products

Lipids and their degradation products were identified by comparison of retention times and 142 mass spectra with those of standards and quantified using GC-EIMS, GC-EIMS/MS and GC-143 QTOF based on calibrations with external standards. Operating conditions employed during 144 these analyses were as per those described previously (Rontani et al, 2019 and references 145 therein). Standards of phytol, palmito leic acid, 24-methylcholesta-5,22-dien-3 β -ol 146 (brassicasterol) and 24-methylcholesta-5,(24/28)-dien-3β-ol (24-methylenecholesterol) were 147

obtained from Sigma-Aldrich. Standard oxidation products of these compounds were produced
according to previously described procedures (Rontani and Marchand 2000; Marchand and
Rontani 2001; Rontani and Aubert, 2005).

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152 *2.4. Data treatment*

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154 2.4.1 Chlorophyll photooxidation estimates

The molar ratio 3-methylidene-7,11,15-trimethylhexadecan-1,2-diol (phytyldiol):phytol (Chlorophyll Phytyl side-chain Photodegradation Index, CPPI) has been previously proposed to estimate the extent of photodegradation of chlorophylls possessing a phytyl side-chain in natural marine samples through use of the empirical equation: chlorophyll photodegradation % $= (1 - [CPPI + 1]^{-18.5}) \times 100$ (Cuny et al., 1999).

160

161 *2.4.1. Lipid photooxidation estimates*

162 The extent of photooxidation (%) of sterols was estimated using the equation: Δ^5 -sterol 163 photooxidation % = (Δ^4 -stera-6 α/β -diols % × (1+0.3)/0.3) (Christodoulou et al., 2009).

164 Type II photosensitized oxidation of MUFAs was estimated after quantification of 165 isomeric *trans* allylic hydroxyacids resulting from NaBH₄-reduction of the corresponding 166 photochemically-produced hydroperoxides after subtraction of the amounts of these 167 compounds arising from autoxidation (Marchand and Rontani, 2001).

168

169 2.4.3. Statistical analysis

Mann – Whitney – Wilcoxon tests were performed to identify any significant differences in: (i)
the ratio of brassicasterol photo-oxidation percentage / chlorophyll photo-oxidation percentage
with latitude (Table S1), and (ii) the ratios of 24-methylenecholesterol photooxidation

percentage / chlorophyll photooxidation percentage, palmitoleic acid photooxidation
percentage / chlorophyll photooxidation percentage and brassicasterol photooxidation
percentage / chlorophyll photooxidation percentage between different sample types (i.e. sea ice
POM, SPM and sediment traps) (Table S2).

177 **3. Results and discussion**

Since photodynamic processes and sensitizer photobleaching are competitive processes (Fig. 178 1), we used the ratio of the % photooxidation of membrane lipids to that of chlorophyll to 179 estimate the efficiency of Type II photosensitized oxidation processes (the photodynamic effect 180 in Fig. 1) in senescent phytoplankton at different latitudes. In the case of brassicasterol, a 181 phytoplanktonic Δ^5 -sterol widely distributed in the oceans (Volkman, 1986, 2003), values of 182 this ratio obtained from previously published and unpublished data sets (Table 1) show a strong 183 increase (albeit with high variability) in samples from the polar regions in comparison to 184 samples collected from temperate and equatorial settings (Fig. 3). Such increases were found 185 to be significant when the data from the temperate and equatorial settings were compared with 186 those from the Arctic and Antarctic datasets (and the combined Arctic/Antarctic dataset), vet 187 no significant difference was found between the high latitude datasets (Table S1). Low 188 temperatures have previously been shown to reduce diffusion rate of ${}^{1}O_{2}$ through cell 189 membranes (Ehrenberg et al., 1998), thus favouring the intra-cellular involvement of the 190 photodynamic effect. More recently, Amiraux et al. (2016) confirmed these results in the case 191 192 of the centric diatom Chaetoceros neogracilis (strain RCC2022) and observed an increase (3.0 \pm 0.5 fold) of the ratio k_{camp}/k_{chl} (where k_{camp} is the first-order photodegradation rate of 193 194 campesterol and k_{chl} this of chlorophyll) when the temperature decreased from 17 to 7°C. The 195 characteristic low temperatures of the Arctic and Antarctic could thus be the cause of the high values of the ratio % photooxidation brassicasterol / % photooxidation chlorophyll measured in 196

197 samples from these regions. However, low temperatures alone cannot explain the very high198 variability of this ratio observed within these samples (Fig. 3).

In an effort to explain this strong variability, we examined, more closely, Arctic samples 199 collected from sea ice, under the ice (suspended and sinking particles) and from open water 200 conditions (sinking particles), which are all dominated by diatoms. The % photooxidation of 201 the common diatom lipids brassicasterol, 24-methylenecholesterol and palmitoleic acid to that 202 of chlorophyll are summarized in Table 2 and Fig. 4. Strong differences of photodynamic effect 203 204 efficiency were observed between these different kinds of particles. These differences were found to be significant between surface samples (sea ice and SPM) and traps and between under 205 ice traps and open water traps (Table S2). These different samples having been collected at very 206 close temperatures (ranging from -1 to -2 °C in surface waters of Arctic), it is clear that the low 207 temperatures do not represent the main driver for the enhancement of photodynamic efficiency 208 209 in polar regions.

Riebesell et al. (1991) previously suggested that growing cells released by sea ice remain largely unaggregated (i.e. mainly in suspension). The very low photooxidation state of lipids and chlorophyll observed in SPM collected under the ice (Fig. 4) could thus result from the healthy state of the algal cells present in these samples (Rontani et al., 2016), which are largely unaffected by photooxidative damage. Indeed, in healthy cells, the greater part of the photoexcited chlorophyll singlet state is used in the fast photochemical reactions of photosynthesis.

The efficiency of the photodynamic effect appears to be considerably higher in material collected in sediment traps in spring from under sea ice compared to those collected in summer from open water (Fig. 4, Table S2), which is likely attributable to the respective contributions of sympagic (i.e. living within ice) vs pelagic algae. Indeed, in contrast to healthy and largely unaggregated sympagic algal cells (see above), less metabolically-active sea ice algae that are

released from the ice are generally concentrated into aggregates that become sinking particles 222 (Riebesell et al., 1991). Moreover, sympagic diatoms exhibit a higher sensitivity towards light-223 224 induced stress than pelagic diatoms (Kvernvik et al., 2020). Such differences in sensitivity were attributed, in part, to the gradually changing and low amplitude irradiance typically experienced 225 by sympagic algae (Hill et al., 2018), whereas pelagic cells in open water, in contrast, 226 experience high amplitude changes in light intensity over much shorter timescales (MacIntyre 227 et al., 2000). This interesting hypothesis is not supported, however, by: (i) the very low 228 229 efficiency of the photodynamic effect observed in the bottom-most layer of sea ice (Table 2) and (ii) the lack of correlation between lipid photooxidation % and the concentration of the sea 230 ice lipid biomarker IP25 (a well-known sea ice proxy, for reviews see Belt and Müller, 2013; 231 Belt, 2018) in under ice traps ($R^2 < 0.008$). 232

During in vitro experiments carried out on senescent cells of the centric diatom 233 234 Chaetoceros neogracilis (strain RCC2022), Type II photosensitized oxidation of lipids was also observed to be strongly enhanced by low irradiance levels, whereas the opposite was true for 235 the photodegradation of chlorophyll (Amiraux et al., 2016). The ratio k_{camp}/k_{chl} thus increased 236 237 4.2 ± 0.8 fold when irradiance decreased from 2038 to 165 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹. In the Arctic, the mean PAR (Photosynthetically Active Radiation) irradiance in the surface mixed layer is 238 considerably higher in open water than in ice-covered zones (365 \pm 62 and 10.9 \pm 2.7 μ mol 239 photons $m^{-2} s^{-1}$, respectively, Alou-Font et al., 2016). The intensity of solar irradiance may thus 240 be at the origin of the contrasting efficiency of the photodynamic effect observed in sinking 241 particles collected under sea ice compared to those from open water (Fig. 4). Further, the 242 243 increase of this efficiency with depth in under ice samples (Fig.4, Table S2) could result from enhanced aggregation of senescent sympagic algae as they sink to deeper traps (Riebesell et al., 244 1991; Rontani et al., 2016) where light transmission is lower. In contrast, the relatively high 245 irradiance observed at the ice-water interface (up to ca. 100 μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ in Davis 246

Strait, Galindo et al., 2017) could explain the greatly diminished photodynamic effect in 247 sympagic algae inhabiting the bottom-most layer of sea ice and in Melosira arctica (Table 2) 248 (Fig. 6). Examination of near-surface (<10 m) SPM samples collected along a N-S transect 249 terminating in the Amundsen Sea (Antarctica) in open water and seasonally ice covered zones 250 further confirmed the increase of photodynamic efficiency in regions of sea ice cover (Fig. 5) 251 (W = 52, p-value = 0.003205). In addition, the relatively higher photooxidation state of these 252 suspended particles compared to those collected in the Arctic (Fig. 4, Table 2) may be attributed 253 254 to the low contribution (typically 0.5 to 2%) of sympagic algae to primary production in January-February in the Antarctic (Lizotte, 2001). 255

Due to their strong aggregation capability (Macdonald et al., 1998; Ambrose et al., 2001, 256 2005) and the low remineralizing potential of their associated bacteria (Amiraux et al., 2017, 257 2020), sympagic algae seem to contribute more significantly than open water phytoplankton to 258 259 the export of carbon to Arctic sediments, providing an early season food source for benthic fauna (Macdonald et al., 1998; Mincks et al., 2005). Episodic massive falls of M. arctica can 260 261 sink to the seafloor (Ambrose et al., 2005; Boetius et al., 2013; Lalande et al., 2019). The 262 polyunsaturated fatty acid (PUFA) content in algal biomass that reached the seafloor is essential for growth and reproduction of benthic fauna (Brett and Müller-Navarra, 1997; McMahon et 263 al., 2006). Due to the high photosensitized oxidation of MUFAs observed in samples sinking 264 under sea ice cover (Fig. 4), and the well-known increasing photooxidation rates of fatty acids 265 with their degree of unsaturation (Frankel, 1998; Rontani et al., 1998), the PUFA content of 266 sympagic material reaching the sediment would thus be greatly reduced. Melosira strands that 267 are weakly affected by abiotic degradation processes under the ice (ratio C_{20:5} acid vs 268 palmitoleic acid ranging from 0.25 to 0.47), despite a significant photooxidation of chlorophyll 269 (Table 2), and that sink very quickly to the seafloor (Syvertsen, 1991) in massive falls (Ambrose 270

et al., 2005; Boetius et al., 2013; Lalande et al., 2019) may be an important source of fresh
material rich in OM (i.e., PUFAs) for the benthos.

273 Further, the expected reduction of sea ice cover resulting from increased global warming may result in a shift in the relative contributions of ice-associated vs pelagic algae (Carroll and 274 Carroll, 2003) to the seafloor. The high flux of fast-sinking aggregates of strongly abiotically-275 276 altered sympagic algae and fast sinking well preserved M. arctica reaching Arctic sediments could thus be replaced, progressively, by a lower flux of weakly abiotically alterated pelagic 277 278 biomass. Such a shift should thus strongly impact the quality and quantity of food reaching benthic communities, as previously proposed by Sun et al. (2007), and could significantly alter 279 280 the community structure and spatial distribution of the benthos.

281

282 4. Conclusions

283 During this work, Type II photosensitized oxidation of lipids (photodynamic effect) and photodegradation of chlorophyll (photobleaching) were compared in several samples of 284 285 particulate matter from locations ranging from the Arctic to the Antarctic. The results obtained 286 clearly showed an enhancement of the photooxidation of lipids at the expense of chlorophyll photodegradation in polar regions compared to temperate and equatorial regions. Careful 287 examination of different samples of sympagic and epiphytic algae, suspended and sinking 288 particles collected in Arctic allowed to show that the efficiency of photodynamic effect was 289 particularly high in sinking particles collected under the ice (Fig. 6). This high efficiency was 290 attributed to the rapid settling of highly aggregated sympagic algae to depths of low light 291 292 transmission favouring photodynamic effect at the expense of photobleaching of the sensitizer. In contrast, in the case of samples exposed to relatively high solar irradiances - sympagic and 293 epiphytic algae collected in the bottommost layer of ice or at the underside of ice, respectively, 294 and particles collected from open waters - the efficiency of photodynamic effect appeared to be 295

relatively weak (Fig. 6). The low efficiency of Type II photosensitized oxidation of lipids observed in temperate and equatorial regions could, perhaps paradoxically, thus be attributed to the high solar irradiances received in these regions. The intensity of solar irradiance seems thus to be a key parameter during the Type II photosensitized oxidation of lipids in senescent phytoplankton.

301

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520	Figure captions							
521								
522	Figure 1. Potential pathways for chlorophyll (Chl) excitation energy in senescent							
523	phytoplankton cells (simplified scheme limited to the formation of ${}^{1}O_{2}$ and photoprotective role							
524	of carotenoids (Car)).							
525								
526	Figure 2. Sampling locations.							
527								
528	Figure 3. Values of the ratio brassicasterol photooxidation %/chlorophyll photooxidation % in							
529	particulate matter samples collected at different latitudes.							
530								
531	Figure 4. Values of the ratios brassicasterol photooxidation %/chlorophyll photooxidation %,							
532	24-methylenecholesterol photooxidation %/chlorophyll photooxidation % and palmitoleic acid							
533	photooxidation %/chlorophyll photooxidation % in particulate matter samples collected in							
534	Arctic ice-covered and open water zones.							
535								
536	Figure 5. Values of the ratio brassicasterol photooxidation %/chlorophyll photooxidation % in							
537	SPM samples collected in open and ice-covered zones along a N-S transect terminating in the							

538 Amundsen Sea (Antarctica).

540	Figure 6. Conceptual scheme summarizing the efficiency of photodynamic effect in sympagic,								
541	epiphytic and pelagic algae in polar regions. (To simplify the scheme only the Type II								
542	photosensitized oxidation of palmitoleic acid is shown) (nd = not detected).								
543									
544	Table captions								
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546	Table 1. Variation of the ratio brassicasterol photooxidation %/chlorophyll photooxidation %								
547	in particulate matter samples according to the latitude.								
548									
549	Table 2. Photooxidation of chlorophyll, brassicasterol, 24-methylenecholesterol and								
550	palmitoleic acid in different sea ice, M. arctica and particulate matter samples collected in the								
551	Arctic.								
552									
553	Supplementary material								
554									
555	Table S1. Results of Mann – Whitney – Wilcoxon analysis testing the effect of the latitude on								
556	the brassicasterol photooxidation percentage : chlorophyll a photooxidation percentage ratio.								
557	Bold values are indicative of significance.								
558									
559	Table S2. Results of Mann – Whitney – Wilcoxon analysis testing the effect of the sample type								
560	on the 24-methylenecholesterol photo-oxidation percentage / chlorophyll photo-oxidation								
561	percentage, palmitoleic acid photo-oxidation percentage / chlorophyll photo-oxidation								
562	percentage and brassicasterol photo-oxidation percentage / chlorophyll photo-oxidation								
563	percentage ratios. Bold values are indicative of significance.								

Table 1

Variation of the ratio brassicasterol photooxidation %/chlorophyll photooxidation % in particulate matter samples according to the latitude.

Latitude	Location	Nature of particles	n	Brassicasterol hv %/Chlorophyll hv %	References	
71-74°N 50°N 43°N 43°N 17°N 0° 0° 12°S 40-67°S 67 75°S	Canadian Arctic English Channel Rhône Prodelta Ligurian Sea Arabian Sea Equatorial Atlantic Equatorial Pacific Peru Upwelling South Pacific	Suspended and sinking Suspended Suspended Sinking Suspended and sinking Suspended Suspended and sinking Sinking Suspended	46 24 21 12 7 2 11 10 5	$\begin{array}{c} 0.77 \pm 1.10 \\ 0.02 \pm 0.04 \\ 0.21 \pm 0.11 \\ 0.21 \pm 0.10 \\ 0.07 \pm 0.04 \\ 0.10 \pm 0.12 \\ 0.11 \pm 0.07 \\ 0.18 \pm 0.04 \\ 0.09 \pm 0.04 \\ 0.50 \pm 0.45 \end{array}$	Rontani et al., 2012; 2016 Rontani et al., 2021 Galeron et al., 2018 Christodoulou et al., 2009 Wakeham et al., 2002 Galeron et al., 2018 Wakeham et al., 2002; Rontani et al., 2011 Bretagnon et al., 2010	

Table 2

Photooxidation of chlorophyll, brassicasterol, 24-methylenecholesterol and palmitoleic acid in different sea ice, *M. arctica* and particulate matter samples collected in the Arctic.

Samples	Location	n	Chlorophyll photooxidation %	Brassicasterol photooxidation %/ chlorophyll photooxidation %	24-Methylenecholesterol photooxidation %/ chlorophyll photooxidation %	Palmitoleic acid photooxidation %/ chlorophyll photooxidation %
Sea ice (0-3 cm)	Resolute Passage ^a and Davies Strait ^b	21	54.5 ± 38.4	0.02 ± 0.05	0.04 ± 0.10	0.05 ± 0.08
Melosira arctica	Baffin Bay and North of Svalbard	6	40.2 ± 12.8	-	-	0.03 ± 0.03
Under ice spm (<10 m)	Resolute Passage ^c	20	16.3 ± 13.9	0.05 ± 0.17	0.42 ± 0.96	1.00 ± 1.60
Under ice trap (5 m)	Resolute Passage ^c	11	55.7 ± 34.1	1.10 ± 0.62	1.22 ± 0.98	2.87 ± 2.78
Under ice trap (30 m)	Resolute Passage ^c	11	11.5 ± 8.6	2.00 ± 1.39	3.97 ± 2.22	8.39 ± 7.15
Open water trap (100 m)	Beaufort Sea ^d	12	99.8 ± 0.2	0.23 ± 0.07	0.48 ± 0.14	0.47 ± 0.19

^a Rontani et al., 2014

^b Amiraux et al., 2017

^c Rontani et al., 2016

^d Rontani et al., 2012







Brassicasterol hv %/chlorophyll hv %





Latitude



Table S1: Results of Mann – Whitney – Wilcoxon analysis testing the effect of the latitude on the brassicasterol photooxidation percentage : chlorophyll a photooxidation percentage ratio. Bold values are indicative of significance.

Source of variation	W	p-value
High latitudes ^a x low latitudes ^b	3861.5	1 × 10 ⁻⁷
Arctic x Antarctic	583	0.71
Arctic x low latitudes	1107.5	7 × 10 ⁻⁴
Antarctic x low latitudes	1513	2 × 10 ⁻⁹

^a Sum of Arctic and Antarctic values

^b Sum of low latitude values (between 67°S and 50°N)

Table S2: Results of Mann – Whitney – Wilcoxon analysis testing the effect of the sample type on the 24-methylenecholesterol photo-oxidation percentage / chlorophyll photo-oxidation percentage, palmitoleic acid photo-oxidation percentage / chlorophyll photo-oxidation percentage and brassicasterol photo-oxidation percentage / chlorophyll photo-oxidation percentage ratios. Bold values are indicative of significance.

Source of variation	24-Me-cholesterol		Brassicasterol		Palmitoleic acid	
	W	p-value	W	p-value	W	p-value
Sea ice x SPM	180	0.4372	212.5	0.5858	4	1.0 x 10⁻⁷
Sea ice x all traps	1	3.0 x 10 ⁻¹⁰	2	3.7 x 10 ⁻¹⁰	3	7.2 x 10 ⁻¹⁰
SPM x all traps	78	3.3 x 10 ⁻⁶	27	2.0 x 10 ⁻⁸	242	0.1034
Surface ^a x Traps ^b	79	5.6 x 10 ⁻¹²	29	7.6 x 10 ⁻¹⁴	245	1.4 x 10⁻⁶
Traps 5 m x Traps 30 m	10	2.0 x 10 ⁻⁴	29	0.0225	19	0.0028
Traps 5 m x Traps 100 m	16	2.3 x 10 ⁻³	0	1.5 x 10 ⁻⁶	0	1.5 x 10 ⁻⁶
Traps 30 m x Traps 100 m	0	3.6 x 10 ⁻⁵	0	7.4 x 10 ⁻⁷	0	7.4 x 10 ⁻⁷

^a Sum of sea ice and SPM

^b Sum of traps