


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

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3

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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, <sup>13</sup>C, 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](http://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 20<sup>th</sup> 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  
72 historical variations in <sup>14</sup>C in the atmosphere and surface reservoirs (Friedrich et al., 2020;  
73 Reimer et al., 2009). At present, no such radiocarbon database exists for OC residing in ocean  
74 sediments. As a sensitive tracer of carbon sources and carbon cycle perturbations, there is a  
75 clear imperative to fill this information void given that on-going anthropogenic activities  
76 directly and indirectly influence ocean sediment and resident OC stocks (Bauer et al., 2013;  
77 Breitburg et al., 2018; Ciais et al., 2013; Keil, 2017; Regnier et al., 2013; Syvitski et al., 2003).  
78 Materials accumulating in modern ocean sediments also provide a crucial window into how  
79 on-going processes that are observable through direct instrumental measurements and remote  
80 sensing 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 (Levin & Sibuet, 2012; Bao  
108 et al., 2018; Arndt et al., 2013). Increasingly powerful Region Oceanic Model Systems  
109 (ROMS) models (e.g., Gruber et al., 2012) and statistical methods for geospatial analysis (e.g.,  
110 van der Voort et al., 2018; Atwood et al., 2020) hold the potential to utilize information from  
111 local-scale studies and inform ESMs, but these require mining and collation of existing data  
112 and merging this with new observations. Spatially-resolved datasets for marine sedimentary  
113 OC are beginning to emerge (e.g. Inthorn et al., 2006; Schmidt et al., 2010), including  
114 radiocarbon measurements (e.g., Bao et al., 2016; Bosman et al., 2020). The latter information



115 is likely to increase in availability with the advent of natural-abundance  $^{14}\text{C}$  measurement via  
116 elemental analysis coupled with gas-accepting accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS) systems  
117 (McIntyre et al., 2016; Wacker et al., 2010) that enable routine, high-throughput  $^{14}\text{C}$   
118 measurements.

119

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

134

## 135 2. The MOSAIC database

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



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

149

## 150 2.1. Database scope and content

151

### 152 2.1.1. *Spatial and depth coverage and georeferencing*

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

162

### 163 2.1.2 *Scope of data acquisition*

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

171

### 172 2.1.3 *Core parameters*

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



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

181

## 182 2.2 MOSAIC Structure

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

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

## 203 2.3 The MOSAIC Pipeline

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

211





212 *2.3.1 Data ingestion*

213 Input of data to the database is possible by filling in a pre-structured spreadsheet file with set  
214 vocabularies. The user selects relevant parameter inputs from drop-down menus that streamline  
215 data entry and assist in execution of subsequent SQL queries. Excel files were designed for  
216 specific datasets, and within each Excel file there are three sub-tabs corresponding to groups  
217 of the normalized MOSAIC SQL database (more details on database structure are provided in  
218 the database). These tabs are (i) sample-related tab, (ii) geopoint-related tab (i.e., location), (iii)  
219 author-related tab (i.e., paper). Certain variables pertaining to sample coordinates and depth  
220 are required for data submission (i.e., latitude, longitude, water depth and sample core depth).  
221 In this first version of MOSAIC, filled-in spreadsheet files with specified units and pre-defined  
222 lists can be sent to [mosaic@erdw.ethz.ch](mailto:mosaic@erdw.ethz.ch)<sup>1</sup> for ingestion into the database.

223

224 *2.3.2 Data quality control*

225 Quality control of the input data is implemented via a python script tailored to the pre-defined  
226 spreadsheet files. This script auto-checks the values of key parameters such as latitude,  
227 longitude, carbon and nitrogen content, <sup>13</sup>C, <sup>14</sup>C, CaCO<sub>3</sub> content, SiO<sub>2</sub> content and sediment  
228 texture-related parameters. The auto-check produces a log file with flags for unexpected values.  
229 In turn, the flags point to the exact line containing possible out-of-bound values. For example,  
230 for TOC (%), if values are negative, there will be a prompt “cannot be negative, please check”,  
231 when values are > 2 and <20 there is a prompt “is quite high. Are you sure it is correct?” and  
232 lastly if values are > 20 there is the prompt “value is high. Please check units”. Each flag is  
233 accompanied by a line number to locate the possibly erroneous data. These flags then trigger a  
234 manual quality check of the data by an expert in-house user.

235

236 *2.3.3 Data transformation and structuring*

237 The next step involves transforming data (using Python code) from Excel into csv files that are  
238 compatible with the normalized relational database structure in SQL. This is done by (i) adding  
239 unique identifiers to the data and (ii) transforming the data into appropriate csv files.  
240 Importantly for the database structure, unique identifiers are created for each appropriate  
241 database table (SI Figure 2). For example, for a specific location, an individual sediment core  
242 may yield multiple samples (i.e., core sections corresponding to different depth intervals), with

---

<sup>1</sup> Data ingestion files MOSAIC\_data\_input\_file.xlsx or MOSAIC\_data\_input\_file.ods are available with this publication



243 multiple measurements (e.g.,  $^{13}\text{C}$ ,  $^{14}\text{C}$  and %TOC) performed on each sample (section). In this  
244 example, the location is assigned a unique geopotential location identifier, the core receives a  
245 unique identifier, and each sample (section) is given a unique identifier. These identifiers  
246 resurface in each database table (e.g., on compositional parameters), resulting in the possibility  
247 of multiple cores and multiple sample identifiers for a single geopotential. For the creation of  
248 identifiers, the Python script finds a unique combination of coordinates (i.e., latitude and  
249 longitude), assigns an identifier and eliminates duplicates. It repeats this for all primary keys  
250 in the database.

251

#### 252 *2.3.4 MySQL interface*

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

260

#### 261 *2.3.5 MOSAIC Website: User access and citing of data*

262 The website ([mosaic.ethz.ch](https://mosaic.ethz.ch)) can be cited using the digital object identifier number (DOI)  
263 <https://doi.org/10.5168/mosaic019.1>. In order to access data, users do not need to use SQL  
264 syntax. Instead, users can select data of interest using drop-down menus or by selecting data  
265 via a visual geographic interface. The selected data resulting from the query is shown in a table  
266 and can be directly downloaded as a csv file (SI Figure 1). When querying data through the  
267 MOSAIC website, the relational aspects of the database ensures that, for example, when a  
268 certain location is selected, all data pertaining to this point appear in the table and are  
269 downloaded. For users versed in SQL syntax, all accompanying data is available in SQL code,  
270 which can be imported in both MySQL and PostgreSQL graphic user interface software. In  
271 this format, all data can be queried in using SQL syntax.



272 3. Results and Discussion

273 3.1 Excerpts from the MOSAIC database

274 We provide examples of information extracted from MOSAIC (<https://doi.org/10.5168/mo->  
275 [saic019.1](https://doi.org/10.5168/mosaic019.1), Van der Voort et al., 2019). The intention here is to illustrate broad-scale variability  
276 in OC properties rather than offer in-depth interpretations. The latter will be the focus of  
277 subsequent contributions.

278 We first explore the statistical distributions of geochemical properties (Figure 3). On a  
279 global scale, TOC contents of marine surface sediments (< 100 cm) are lognormally distributed  
280 around ~1 % (mean = 1.63%, median = 1.14%; n = 8688; Figure 3a), consistent with prior  
281 observations (Keil, 2017; Seiter et al., 2004, 2005). The distribution of stable carbon isotope  
282 ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) values of OC shows two distinct populations (mean = -22.6‰, median = -22.18‰; n =  
283 4297; Figure 3b), likely reflecting relative dominance of terrestrial C3 plant (~27 ‰) and  
284 marine (~-22 ‰) sources (Burdige, 2005; Sackett and Thomson, 1963). Corresponding  
285 radiocarbon contents (expressed here as Fm values) exhibit a more unimodal distribution with  
286 an average Fm value of ~0.7 (Mean = 0.7, Median = 0.73, n = 709; Figure 3c), highlighting the  
287 significant proportions of pre-aged OC in globally distributed marine surficial sediments  
288 (Griffith et al 2010).

289 Carbon isotopic compositions of surface sediment OC exhibits substantial variability  
290 when plotted as a function of water depth (Figure 4). Radiocarbon contents are especially  
291 variable and generally lower in shallow (coastal) areas where TOC is also relatively low  
292 (Figure 4a). Coastal areas are both prone to supply of pre-aged OC from adjacent land masses  
293 (e.g. Tao et al., 2015; van der Voort et al., 2017), as well as ageing associated with sediment  
294 reworking by bottom currents (Bao et al., 2016). A similar pattern of variability is evident in  
295  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values (Figure 4b) which exhibit a larger spread on continental shelves (~-13 to -30 ‰)  
296 and converge towards higher (more  $^{13}\text{C}$ -enriched)  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values (~-22 ‰) in the deeper ocean.  
297 These trends reflect trajectories and modes carbon supply both from land and the ocean to the  
298 seafloor that govern OC sequestration and resulting sedimentary signatures (Bianchi et al.,  
299 2007; Burdige, 2005). Distinguishing between and quantifying the relative importance these  
300 factors is important for understanding consequences for carbon burial (Arndt et al., 2013; Bao  
301 et al., 2019; Bao et al., 2016), and requires ancillary geochemical and sedimentological (e.g.,  
302 biomarker signatures, grain size distributions) information that will be incorporated into a  
303 future iteration of the MOSAIC database.



304 Broad-scale variability in OC characteristics of surface marine sediments also emerges  
305 when properties are examined as a function of latitude (Figure 5). For example, despite  
306 considerable scatter in stable carbon isotopic compositions, there is a general trend from higher  
307 to lower  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values with increasing latitude (Figure 5a). This could reflect latitudinal  
308 variations in the carbon isotopic composition of marine phytoplankton (Goericke and Fry,  
309 1994), and/or changes in the proportions and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of terrestrial OC inputs (e.g., balance  
310 of  $\text{C}_3$  vs  $\text{C}_4$  vegetation; Huang et al., 2000). Latitudinal trends in  $^{14}\text{C}$  are less clear due to a  
311 paucity of data with sufficient geographic coverage (Figure 5b), and serve to highlight ocean  
312 regions and domains that are presently understudied with respect to this and other sediment  
313 variables.

314

### 315 3.2 Scientific value of MOSAIC

316 The compilation of data and subsequent re-analyses holds the potential to yield novel insights  
317 into the distribution and composition of OC accumulating in the contemporary marine  
318 environment, shed light on underlying processes, and identify gaps in existing data sets. The  
319 latter is particularly pertinent for  $^{14}\text{C}$  data and ancillary measurements necessary to broadly  
320 apply isotopically-enabled models of organic turnover and burial in sediments (e.g., Griffith  
321 et al., 2010) and constrain geographic variability in the age distribution of sedimentary OC in  
322 an analogous fashion to those of, for example, soil carbon (e.g. Shi et al., 2020). Filling such  
323 gaps is also important given increasing interest in developing robust assessments of carbon  
324 stocks in coastal marine sediments in the context of future greenhouse gas reporting protocols  
325 (e.g. Avelar et al., 2017). Moreover, regional-scale data compilation of spatially  
326 comprehensive geochemical and sedimentological information (Bao, et al., 2018; Bao et al.,  
327 2016), coupled the application of novel numerical clustering methods (Van der Voort et al.,  
328 2018) can facilitate refinement of criteria for delineating biogeochemically provinces  
329 (Longhurst, 2007; Seiter et al., 2004), that reflect both source inputs and hydrodynamic  
330 regimes, in order to improve carbon cycle budgets and models. Such examples highlight the  
331 value of leveraging existing datasets, connecting various data sources and using other types of  
332 analyses (modelling, statistics) in order to garner new insights into underlying processes.

333

### 334 3.3 MOSAIC in context.

335 MOSAIC complements other ongoing efforts to collect and organize a broad spectrum  
336 geochemical and related data, such as the PANGAEA data repository (AWI and MARUM,



337 2020), as well as those with more targeted missions, such as the International Soil Radiocarbon  
338 Database (ISRaD; Lawrence et al., 2020). It differs from these and other initiatives in its  
339 targeted approach with a primary focus on (i) collating data pertinent to OC burial on  
340 continental margins, (ii) upper sediment layers (nominally  $< \sim 1\text{m}$ ) that encompass early  
341 diagenetic processes and recent deposition, and (iii) radiocarbon information that bridges to  
342 equivalent databases for other carbon cycle compartments. The MOSAIC database has been  
343 designed to be modular and adaptable to accommodate further developments and expansion of  
344 its dimensionality, while retaining its overall carbon-centric focus. In particular, inclusion of  
345  $^{14}\text{C}$  data on specific fractions separated, for example, according to sediment density  
346 (Wakeham et al., 2009) or thermal lability (Rosenheim et al., 2008), or at the molecular level  
347 (e.g. Druffel et al., 2010). In this context, it is anticipated that MOSAIC will serve as a key  
348 research and teaching resource for biogeochemists focusing on contemporary biogeochemical  
349 processes as well as seeking to interrogate sedimentary archives to develop records of past  
350 oceanographic conditions.

351

#### 352 4. Data Availability

353 The data of the database can be accessed via [mosaic.ethz.ch](https://mosaic.ethz.ch) and the DOI is  
354 <https://doi.org/10.5168/mosaic019.1> (Van der Voort et al., 2019). Users who would like to add  
355 data to the database can fill in the data in the Excel® templates that can be found in the SI of  
356 this paper and send it to [mosaic@erdw.ethz.ch](mailto:mosaic@erdw.ethz.ch).

357

#### 358 5. Conclusion and Outlook

359 In this paper, we introduce the motivation for development of a database (MOSAIC) focused  
360 on OC accumulating in contemporary continental margin sediments. The structure of the  
361 database and the associated web interface for data submission and retrieval is presented. The  
362 supporting infrastructure was built with open-source software (SQL, R, Python, LibreCalc;  
363 also provided with this contribution). Current data residing within MOSAIC derives from over  
364 200 peer-reviewed papers, with the intention that this resource will further expand both  
365 regarding data density and dimensionality, with a specific emphasis on radiocarbon as an  
366 underdetermined yet crucial property for constraining carbon cycle processes. Construction of  
367 parallel databases focused on riverine data and ocean sediment trap data are also under  
368 development.



369 6. Video Supplement

370 Accompanying this paper is a short instructional video (in SI) which explains users how to  
371 download the data from MOSAIC (<https://doi.org/10.5168/mosaic019.1>, Van der Voort et al.,  
372 2019).

373

374 7. Author Contributions

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

384

385 8. Competing interests

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

387

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390 that govern carbon burial in the global ocean" (46 15-1). We thank Melissa Schwab for sharing  
391 her insights in optimal R visualization. Many thanks also to Stephane Beaussier, who helped  
392 to overcome numerous challenges in the development of this project. We thank Anastasiia  
393 Ignatova for contributions to a prototype of MOSAIC. We thank Philip Pika for his insights  
394 into sediment parameters.

395

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396 10. Tables and Figures



397

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

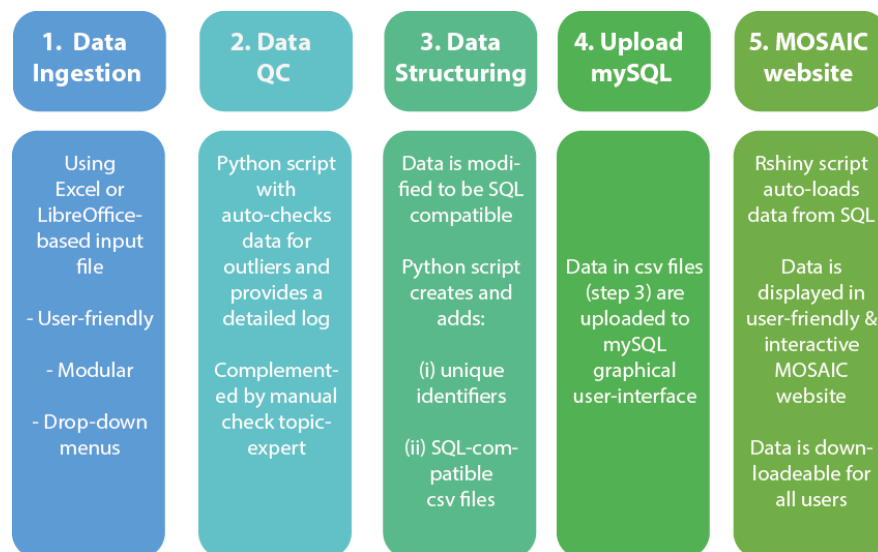
	Main variable	Unit	Number of datapoints	Required (Y/N)
<b>Geopoints</b>	Latitude	Degrees (°)	8706	Y
	Longitude	Degrees (°)	8706	Y
<b>Samples Ocean</b>	Exclusivity Clause	Y/N	8706	Y
	Water depth	m	4297	Y <sup>2</sup>
	Sample core depth (average)	Centimeter (cm)	7147	Y
	Sample name	VARCHAR	-	N
	Total Organic Carbon (TOC)	Percentage (%)	8688	N
	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	Permil (‰)	4297	N
	Fm	fraction	709	N
	C:N Ratio	Ratio	504	N
	SiO <sub>2</sub>	Percentage (%)	370	N
	CaCO <sub>3</sub>	Percentage (%)	1668	N
<b>Articles</b>	Article doi	VARCHAR	235	N

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





399

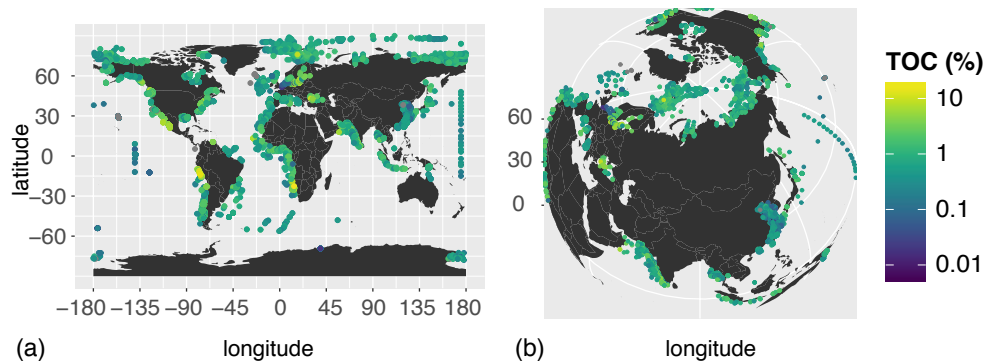


400

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



406



407

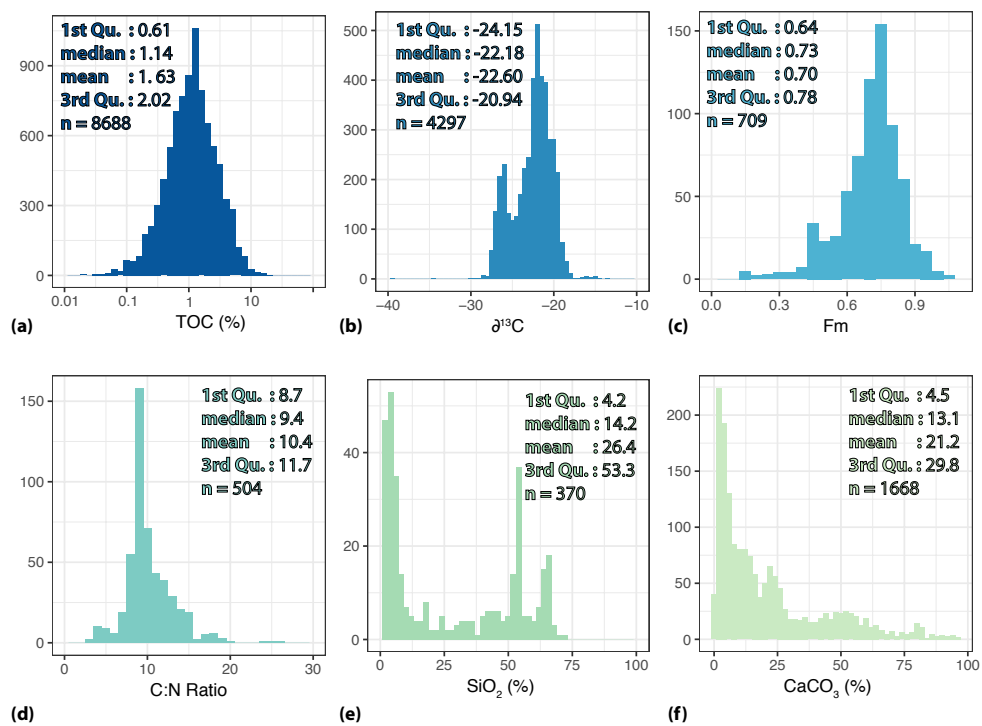
408

409

(a) (b)  
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 (%).



410

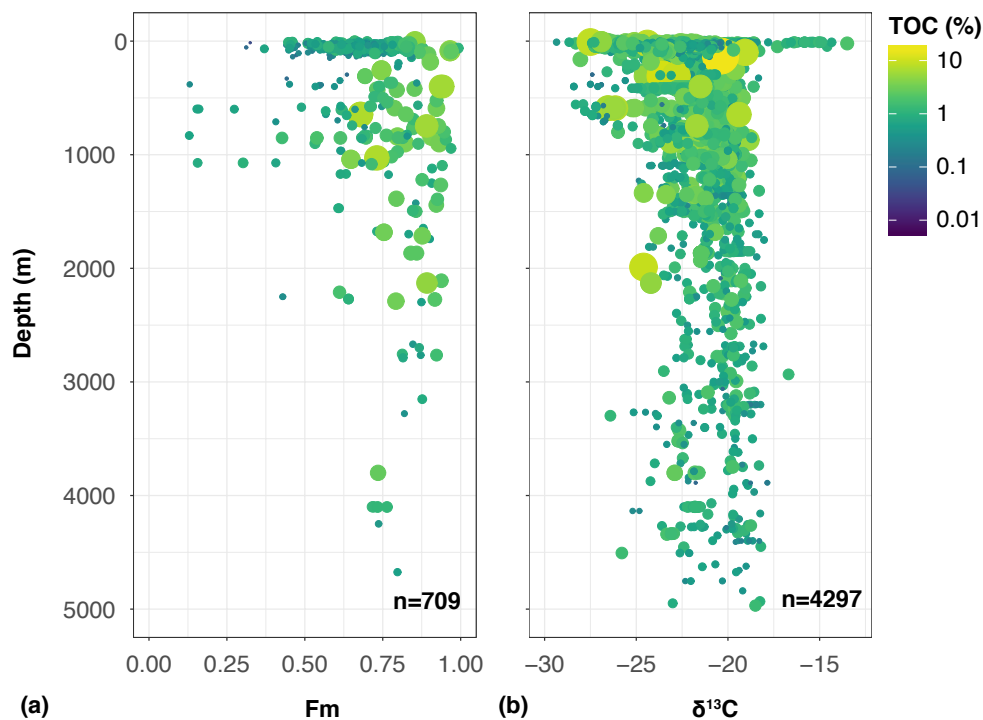


411

412 Figure 3 Distribution of data for key sedimentary parameters included in MOSAIC: (a) TOC shows a log-normal distribution  
413 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)  
414 radiocarbon shows a strongly depleted signature with the fraction modern value averaging at ~0.7. The (d) C:N ratio global  
415 average is ~ 10. The median (e) silicate ( $\text{SiO}_2$ ) and (f) carbonate ( $\text{CaCO}_3$ ) contents are ~14%, and ~ 13%, respectively

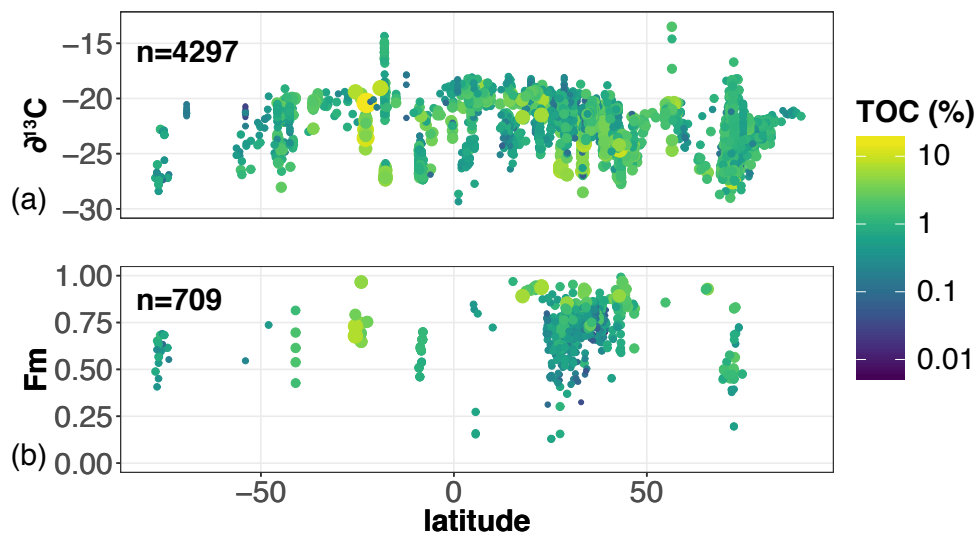


416



417

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



423

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

427



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