

1 **Export fluxes in a naturally iron-fertilized area of the Southern**
2 **Ocean: seasonal dynamics of particulate organic carbon export**
3 **from a moored sediment trap (part 1).**

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20 **Abstract**

21
22 A sediment trap moored in the naturally iron-fertilized Kerguelen plateau in the Southern
23 Ocean provided an annual record of particulate organic carbon and nitrogen fluxes at 289 m.
24 At the trap deployment depth current speeds were typically low ($\sim 10 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$) and primarily
25 tidal-driven (M2 tidal component). Although advection was weak, the sediment trap may have
26 been subject to hydrodynamical and biological (swimmer feeding on trap funnel) biases.
27 Particulate organic carbon (POC) flux was generally low ($< 0.5 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) although two
28 episodic export events (< 14 days) of $1.5 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ were recorded. These increases in flux
29 occurred with a 1-month time lag from peaks in surface chlorophyll and together accounted
30 for approximately 40 % of the annual flux budget. The annual POC flux of $98.2 \pm 4.4 \text{ mmol m}^{-2}$
31 y^{-1} was low considering the shallow deployment depth, but comparable to independent

32 estimates made at similar depths (~300 m) over the plateau, and to deep-ocean (>2 km) fluxes
33 measured from similarly productive iron-fertilized blooms. Although undertrapping cannot be
34 excluded in shallow moored sediment trap deployment, we hypothesize that grazing pressure,
35 including mesozooplankton and mesopelagic fishes, may be responsible for the low POC flux
36 beneath the base of the winter mixed layer. The importance of plankton community structure
37 in controlling the temporal variability of export fluxes is addressed in a companion paper.

38

39 **1 Introduction**

40 The biological carbon pump is defined as the downward transfer of biologically fixed
41 carbon from the ocean surface to the ocean interior (Volk and Hoffert, 1985). Global
42 estimates of Particulate Organic Carbon (POC) export cluster between 5 Pg C y⁻¹ (Moore et
43 al., 2004; Lutz et al., 2007; Honjo et al., 2008; Henson et al., 2011; Lima et al., 2014) and 10
44 Pg C y⁻¹ (Laws et al., 2000; Schlitzer, 2004; Gehlen et al., 2006; Boyd and Trull, 2007; Dunne
45 et al., 2007; Laws et al., 2011). The physical transfer of dissolved inorganic carbon to the
46 ocean interior during subduction of water masses is two orders of magnitude higher (> 250 Pg
47 C y⁻¹, Karleskind et al., 2011; Levy et al., 2013). The global ocean represents a net annual
48 CO₂ sink of 2.5 Pg C y⁻¹ (Le Quéré et al., 2013), slowing down the increase of the
49 atmospheric CO₂ concentration resulting from anthropogenic activity. Although the Southern
50 Ocean (south of 44°S) plays a limited role in the net air-sea CO₂ flux (Lenton et al., 2013), it
51 is a key component of the global anthropogenic CO₂ sink representing one third the global
52 oceanic sink (~1 Pg C y⁻¹) while covering 20 % of its surface (Gruber et al., 2009). The
53 solubility pump is considered as the major component of this sink, whereas the biological
54 carbon pump is considered to be inefficient in the Southern Ocean and sensitive to iron
55 supply.

56 Following “the iron hypothesis” in the nineties (Martin 1990), iron limitation of high
57 nutrient low chlorophyll (HNLC) areas, including the Southern Ocean, has been tested in
58 bottle experiments (de Baar et al., 1990) and through *in situ* artificial fertilization experiments
59 (de Baar et al., 2005; Boyd et al., 2007). Results from these experiments are numerous and
60 essentially highlight that the lack of iron limits macronutrient (N, P, Si) utilization (Boyd et
61 al., 2005; Hiscock and Millero, 2005) and primary production (Landry et al., 2000; Gall et al.,
62 2001; Coale et al., 2004) in these vast HNLC areas of the Southern Ocean. Due to a large
63 macronutrient repository the biological carbon pump in the Southern Ocean is considered to

64 be inefficient in its capacity to transfer atmospheric carbon to the ocean interior (Sarmiento
65 and Gruber, 2006). In the context of micronutrient limitation, sites enriched in iron by natural
66 processes have also been studied and include the Kerguelen islands (Blain et al., 2001, 2007),
67 the Crozet islands (Pollard et al., 2007), the Scotia Sea (Tarling et al., 2012), and the Drake
68 Passage (Measures et al., 2013). Enhanced primary producer biomass in association with
69 natural iron supply (Korb and Whitehouse, 2004; Seeyave et al., 2007; Lefèvre et al., 2008)
70 strongly support trace-metal limitation. Furthermore, indirect seasonal budgets constructed
71 from studies of naturally fertilized systems have been capable of demonstrating an increase in
72 the strength of the biological carbon pump (Blain et al., 2007; Pollard et al., 2009), although
73 strong discrepancies in carbon to iron sequestration efficiency exist between systems. To date,
74 direct measurements of POC export over seasonal cycles from naturally fertilized blooms in
75 the Southern Ocean are limited to the Crozet Plateau (Pollard et al., 2009; Salter et al., 2012).
76 The HNLC Southern Ocean represents a region where changes in the strength of the
77 biological pump may have played a role in the glacial-interglacial CO₂ cycles (Bopp et al.,
78 2003; Kohfeld et al., 2005) and have some significance to future anthropogenic CO₂ uptake
79 (Sarmiento and Le Quéré, 1996). In this context, additional studies that directly measure POC
80 export from naturally iron-fertilized blooms in the Southern Ocean are necessary.

81 POC export can be estimated at short timescales (days to weeks) using the ²³⁴Th proxy
82 (Coale and Bruland, 1985; Buesseler et al., 2006; Savoye et al., 2006), by optical imaging of
83 particles (e.g. Picheral et al., 2010, Jouandet et al., 2011) or by directly collecting particles
84 into surface-tethered sediment traps (e.g. Maiti et al., 2013 for a compilation in the Southern
85 Ocean) or neutrally buoyant sediment traps (e.g. Salter et al., 2007; Rynearson et al., 2013).
86 Temporal variability of flux in the Southern Ocean precludes extrapolation of discrete
87 measurements to estimate seasonal or annual carbon export. However seasonal export of POC
88 can be derived from biogeochemical budgets (Blain et al., 2007; Jouandet et al., 2011; Pollard

89 et al., 2009) or be directly measured by moored sediment traps (e.g. Salter et al., 2012).
90 Biogeochemical budgets are capable of integrating over large spatial and temporal scales but
91 may incorporate certain assumptions and lack information about underlying mechanisms.
92 Direct measurement by sediment traps rely on fewer assumptions but their performance is
93 strongly related to prevailing hydrodynamic conditions (Buesseler et al., 2007a), which can be
94 particularly problematic in the surface ocean. Measuring the hydrological conditions
95 characterizing mooring deployments is therefore crucial to address issues surrounding the
96 efficiency of sediment trap collection.

97 The ecological processes responsible for carbon export remain poorly characterized
98 (Boyd and Trull, 2007). There is a strong requirement for quantitative analysis of the
99 biological components of export to elucidate patterns in carbon and biomineral fluxes to the
100 ocean interior (Francois et al., 2002; Salter et al., 2010; Henson et al., 2012; Le Moigne et al.,
101 2012; Lima et al., 2014). Long-term deployment of moored sediment traps in areas of
102 naturally iron fertilized production, where significant macro- and micro-nutrient gradients
103 seasonally structure plankton communities, can help to establish links between ecological
104 succession and carbon export. For example, sediment traps around the Crozet Plateau (Pollard
105 et al., 2009) identified the significance of *Eucampia antarctica* var. *antarctica* resting spores
106 for carbon transfer to the deep ocean, large empty diatom frustules for Si:C export
107 stoichiometry (Salter et al., 2012), and heterotrophic calcifiers for the carbonate counter pump
108 (Salter et al., 2014).

109 The increase in primary production resulting from natural fertilization might not
110 necessarily lead to significant increases in carbon export. The concept of “High Biomass, Low
111 Export” (HBLE) environments was first introduced in the Southern Ocean (Lam and Bishop,
112 2007). This concept is partly based on the idea that a strong grazer response to phytoplankton
113 biomass leads to major fragmentation and remineralization of particles in the twilight zone,

114 shallowing the remineralization horizon (Coale et al., 2004). In these environments, the
115 efficient utilization and reprocessing of exported carbon by zooplankton leads to fecal pellet
116 dominated, low POC fluxes (Ebersbach et al., 2011). A synthesis of short-term sediment trap
117 deployments, ²³⁴Th estimates of upper ocean POC export and in situ primary production
118 measurements in the Southern Ocean by Maiti et al. (2013) has highlighted the inverse
119 relationship between primary production and export efficiency, verifying the HBLE status of
120 many productive areas in the Southern Ocean. The iron fertilized bloom above the Kerguelen
121 Plateau exhibits strong remineralization in the mixed layer compared to the mesopelagic,
122 (Jacquet et al., 2008) and high bacterial carbon demand (Obernosterer et al., 2008), features
123 consistent with a HBLE regime. Moreover, an inverse relationship between export efficiency
124 and zooplankton biomass in the Kerguelen Plateau region support the key role of grazers in
125 the HBLE scenario (Laurenceau-Cornec et al., 2015). Efficient grazer responses to
126 phytoplankton biomass following artificial iron fertilization of HNLC regions also
127 demonstrate increases in net community production that are not translated to an increase in
128 export fluxes (Lam and Bishop, 2007; Tsuda et al., 2007; Martin et al., 2013; Batten and
129 Gower, 2014).

130 POC flux attenuation with depth results from processes occurring in the euphotic layer
131 (setting the particle export efficiency, Henson et al., 2012) and processes occurring in the
132 twilight zone between the euphotic layer and ~1000 m (Buesseler and Boyd, 2009), setting
133 the transfer efficiency (Francois et al., 2002). These processes are mainly biologically-driven
134 (Boyd and Trull, 2007) and involve a large diversity of ecosystem components from bacteria
135 (Rivkin and Legendre, 2001; Giering et al., 2014), protozooplankton (Barbeau et al., 1996),
136 mesozooplankton (Dilling and Alldredge, 2000; Smetacek et al., 2004) and mesopelagic
137 fishes (Davison et al., 2013; Hudson et al., 2014). The net effect of these processes is
138 summarized in a power-law formulation of POC flux attenuation with depth proposed by

139 Martin et al. (1987) that is still commonly used in data and model applications. The b-
140 exponent in this formulation has been reported to range from 0.4 to 1.7 (Buesseler et al.,
141 2007b; Lampitt et al., 2008; Henson et al., 2012) in the global ocean. Nevertheless, a change
142 in the upper mesopelagic community structure (Lam et al., 2011), and more precisely an
143 increasing contribution of mesozooplankton (Lam and Bishop, 2007; Ebersbach et al., 2011)
144 could lead to a shift toward higher POC flux attenuation with depth.

145 In this paper, we provide the first annual description of the POC and PON export
146 fluxes below the mixed layer within the naturally fertilized bloom of the Kerguelen Plateau
147 and we discuss the reliability of these measurements considering the hydrological and
148 biological context. A companion paper (Rembauville et al., 2014) addresses our final aim: to
149 identify the ecological vectors that explain the intensity and the stoichiometry of the fluxes.

150 **2 Material and Methods**

151 **2.1 Trap deployment and mooring design**

152 As part of the KEOPS2 multidisciplinary program, a mooring line was deployed at
153 station A3 (50°38.3 S – 72°02.6 E) in the Permanently Open Ocean Zone (POOZ), south of
154 the Polar Front (PF) (Fig. 1). The mooring line was instrumented with a Technicap PPS3
155 (0.125 m² collecting area, 4.75 aspect ratio) sediment trap and inclinometer (NKE S2IP) at a
156 depth of 289 m (seafloor depth 527 m) (Fig. 2). A conductivity-temperature-pressure (CTD)
157 sensor (Seabird SBE 37) and a current meter (Nortek Aquadopp) were placed on the mooring
158 line 30 m beneath the sediment trap (319 m). The sediment trap collection period started on
159 21 October 2011 until 7 September 2012. The sediment trap was composed of twelve rotating
160 sample cups (250 mL) filled with a 5 % formalin hypersaline solution buffered with sodium
161 tetraborate at pH = 8. Rotation of the carousel was programmed to sample short intervals (10-
162 14 days) between October and February, to optimize the temporal resolution of export from
163 the bloom, and long intervals (99 days) between February and September. All instruments had
164 a 1 hour recording interval. The current meter failed on the 7th April 2012.

165 **2.3 Surface chlorophyll data**

166 The MODIS AQUA level 3 (4 km grid resolution, 8 day averages) surface chlorophyll
167 *a* product was extracted from the NASA website (<http://oceancolor.gsfc.nasa.gov/>) for the
168 sediment trap deployment period. An annual climatology of surface chlorophyll *a*
169 concentration, based on available satellite products (1997-2013), was calculated from the
170 multisatellite Globcolour product. The Globcolour level 3, (case 1 waters, 4.63 km resolution,
171 8 day averages) product merging Seawifs, MODIS and MERIS data with GSM merging
172 model (Maritorena and Siegel, 2005) was accessed via <http://www.globcolour.info>. Surface
173 chlorophyll *a* concentrations derived from Globcolour (climatology) and MODIS data

174 (deployment year) were averaged across a 100 km radius centered on the sediment trap
175 deployment location (Fig. 1).

176 **2.3 Time series analyses of hydrological parameters**

177 Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) analysis was performed on the annual time series data obtained
178 from the mooring, depth and potential density anomaly (σ_θ) that were derived from the CTD
179 sensor. Significant peaks in the power spectrum were identified by comparison to red noise, a
180 theoretical signal in which the relative variance decreases with increasing frequency (Gilman
181 et al., 1963). The red noise signal was considered as a null hypothesis and its power spectrum
182 was scaled to the 99th percentile of χ^2 probability. Power peaks higher than 99 % red noise
183 values were considered to be statistically significant (Schulz and Mudelsee, 2002), enabling
184 the identification of periods of major variability in time series. In order to identify the water
185 masses surrounding the trap, temperature and salinity recorded by the mooring CTD were
186 placed in context to previous CTD casts conducted at A3 during KEOPS1 (39 profiles, 23
187 January 2005 - 13 February 2005) and KEOPS2 (12 profiles, from 15 - 17 November).

188 **2.4 Sediment trap material analyses**

189 Upon recovery of the sediment trap the pH of the supernatant was measured in every cup and
190 1 mL of 37 % formalin buffered with sodium tetraborate (pH=8) was added. After allowing
191 the particulate material to settle to the base of the sample cup (~24 hrs), 60 mL of supernatant
192 was removed with a syringe and stored separately. The samples were transported in the dark
193 at 4°C (JGOFS Sediment Trap Methods, 1994) and stored under identical conditions upon
194 arrival at the laboratory until further analysis. Nitrate, nitrite, ammonium and phosphate in the
195 supernatant were analysed colorimetrically (Aminot and Kerouel, 2007) to check for possible
196 leaching of dissolved inorganic nitrogen and phosphorus from the particulate phase.

197 Samples were first transferred to a petri dish and examined under stereomicroscope
198 (Leica MZ8, x10 to x50 magnification) to determine and isolate swimmers (i.e. organisms
199 that actively entered the cup). All swimmers were carefully sorted, cleaned (rinsed with
200 preservative solution), enumerated and removed from the cups for further taxonomic
201 identification. The classification of organisms as swimmers remains subjective and there is no
202 standardized protocol. We classified zooplankton organisms as swimmers if organic material
203 and preserved structures could be observed. Empty shells, exuvia (exoskeleton remains) and
204 organic debris were considered part of the passive flux. Sample preservation prevented the
205 identification of smaller swimmers (mainly copepods) but, where possible, zooplankton were
206 identified following Boltovskoy (1999).

207 Following the removal of swimmers, samples were quantitatively split into eight
208 aliquots using a Jencons peristaltic splitter. A splitting precision of 2.9 % (coefficient of
209 variation) was determined by weighing the particulate material obtained from each of four
210 1/8th aliquots (see below). Aliquots for chemical analyses were centrifuged (5 min at 3000
211 rpm) with the supernatant being withdrawn after this step and replaced by Milli-Q-grade
212 water to remove salts. Milli-Q rinses were compared with ammonium formate. Organic
213 carbon content was not statistically different although nitrogen concentrations were
214 significantly higher, consequently Milli-Q rinses were routinely performed. The rinsing step
215 was repeated three times. The remaining pellet was freeze-dried (SGD-SERAIL, 0.05-0.1
216 mbar, -30 °C to 30 °C, 48h run) and weighed three times (Sartorius MC 210 P balance,
217 precision 10⁻⁴ g) to calculate the total mass. The particulate material was ground to a fine
218 powder and used for measurements of particulate constituents.

219 For particulate organic carbon (POC) and particulate organic nitrogen (PON) analyses,
220 3 to 5 mg of the freeze-dried powder was weighed directly into pre-combusted (450°C, 24h)
221 silver cups. Samples were decarbonated by adding 20 µL of 2M analytical grade hydrochloric

222 acid (Sigma-Aldrich). Acidification was repeated until no bubbles could be seen, ensuring all
223 particulate carbonate was dissolved (Salter et al., 2010). Samples were dried overnight at 50
224 °C. POC and PON were measured with a CHN analyzer (Perkin Elmer 2400 Series II
225 CHNS/O Elemental Analyzer) calibrated with glycine. Samples were analysed in triplicate
226 with an analytical precision of less than 0.7 %. Due to the small amount of particulate
227 material in sample cups #5 and #12, replicate analyses were not possible. Uncertainty
228 propagation for POC and PON flux was calculated as the quadratic sum of errors on mass flux
229 and POC/PON content in each sample. The annual flux (\pm standard deviation) was calculated
230 as the sum of the time-integrated flux.

231 **3. Results**

232 **3.1 Physical conditions around trap**

233 The sediment trap was deployed in the upper layers of Upper Circumpolar Deep Water
234 (UCDW), beneath seasonally mixed Winter Water (WW) (Fig. 2). The depth of the CTD
235 sensor varied between 318 m and 322 m (1 % and 99 % quantiles), with rare deepening to 328
236 m (Fig. 3a). Variations in tilt angle of the sediment trap were also low, mostly between 1 °
237 and 5 °, and occasionally reaching 13 ° (Fig. 3d). Current speed amplitude varied between 4
238 cm s⁻¹ and 23 cm s⁻¹ (1 % and 99 % quantiles) with a maximum value of 33 cm s⁻¹ and a mean
239 value of 9 cm s⁻¹ (Fig. 3e). Horizontal flow vectors were divided between northward and
240 southward components with strongest current speeds observed to flow northward (Fig. 3f and
241 3g).

242 The range in potential temperature and salinity was 1.85–2.23 °C and 34.12 – 34.26 (1
243 % - 99 % quantiles) (Fig. 3b and 3c). From July to September 2012, a mean increase of 0.2°C
244 in potential temperature was associated with a strong diminution of high frequency noise
245 suggesting a drift of the temperature sensor. Consequently these temperature data were

246 rejected from the time-series analysis. The potential temperature/salinity diagram is compared
247 to KEOPS1 and KEOPS2 CTD downcast at station A3 (Fig. 4). The CTD sensor recorded the
248 signature of the UCDW and no intrusion of overlying WW could be detected.

249 The power spectrum of vertical sediment trap displacements identified six significant
250 peaks corresponding to frequencies of 6.2 h, 8.2 h, 23.9 h, 25.7 h and 14 days (Fig 5a).
251 Concomitant peaks of depth, angle and current speed were also observed with a period of 14
252 days. However, spectral analysis of the potential density anomaly σ_θ revealed only one
253 significant major power peak corresponding to a frequency of 12.4 h (Fig. 5b). Isopycnal
254 displacements were driven by the unique tidal component (M2, 12.4h period) and trap
255 displacements resulted from a complex combination of multiple tidal components. The power
256 spectrum analysis suggested that a 40 hour window was relevant to filter out most of the short
257 term variability (black line in Fig 3a – 3e).

258 A pseudo-lagrangian trajectory was calculated by cumulating the instantaneous current
259 vectors (Fig 6). Over short time-scales (hours to day) the trajectory displays numerous tidal
260 ellipses. The flow direction is mainly to the South-East in October 2011 to December 2012
261 and North-East from December 2011 to April 2012. For the entire current meter record (6
262 months) the overall displacement followed a 120 km northeasterly, anticlockwise trajectory
263 with an effective eastward current speed of approximately 1 cm s^{-1} .

264 **3.2 Seasonality of surface chlorophyll *a* concentration above trap location**

265 The seasonal variations of surface chlorophyll *a* concentration for the sediment trap
266 deployment period differed significantly from the long-term climatology (Fig 7a). The bloom
267 started at the beginning of November 2011, ten days after the start of the sediment trap
268 deployment. Maximum surface chlorophyll *a* values of $2.5 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ occurred on the first week
269 of November and subsequently declined rapidly to $0.2 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ in late December 2011. A

270 second increase in surface chlorophyll *a* up to 1 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ occurred in January 2012 and values
271 decreased to winter levels of 0.2 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ in February 2012. A short-term increase of 0.8 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$
272 occurred in mid-April 2012.

273 **3.3 Swimmer abundances**

274 No swimmers were found in cups #3 and #5 (Table 2). Total swimmer numbers were highest
275 in winter (1544 individuals in cup #12). When normalized to cup opening time, swimmer
276 intrusion rates were highest between mid-December 2011 and mid-February 2012 (from 26 to
277 55 individuals d^{-1}) and lower than 20 individuals d^{-1} for the remainder of the year. Swimmers
278 were numerically dominated by copepods throughout the year, but elevated amphipod and
279 pteropod abundances were observed at the end of January and February 2012 (Table 2). There
280 was no significant correlation between mass flux, POC and PON fluxes and total swimmer
281 number or intrusion rate (Spearman's correlation test, $p > 0.01$). Copepods were essentially
282 small cyclopid species. Amphipods were predominantly represented by the hyperidean
283 *Cylopus magellanicus* and *Themisto gaudichaudii*. Pteropods were represented by *Clio*
284 *pyramidata*, *Limacina helicina* forma *antarctica* and *Limacina retroversa* subsp. *australis*.
285 Euphausiids were only represented by the genus *Thysanoessa*. One *Slapa thompsoni* salp
286 (aggregate form) was found in the last winter cup #12.

287 **3.4 Seasonal particulate organic carbon and nitrogen fluxes**

288 Particulate organic carbon flux ranged from 0.15 to 0.55 $\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ during the productive
289 period except during two short export events of 1.6 ± 0.04 and 1.5 ± 0.04 $\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$
290 sampled in cups #4 (2 to 12 December 2011) and #9 (25 January to 8 February 2012),
291 respectively (Fig. 7b). The two flux events occurred with an approximate time lag of one
292 month compared to peaks in surface chlorophyll *a* values. A modest value of 0.27 ± 0.01 mmol
293 $\text{m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ was observed in autumn (cup #11, 22 February to 30 May 2012). The lowest POC flux

294 was measured during winter ($0.04 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, cup #12, 31 May to 7 October). Assuming
295 that POC export was negligible from mid September to mid October, the annually integrated
296 POC flux was $98.2 \pm 4.4 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ (Table 1). The two short (<14 days) export events
297 accounted for $16.2 \pm 0.5 \%$ (cup #4) and $21.0 \pm 0.6 \%$ (cup #9) of the annual carbon export out
298 of the mixed layer (Table 1). Mass percentage of organic carbon ranged from 3.3 % to 17.4 %
299 (Fig. 7b). Values were slightly higher in autumn and winter (respectively $13.1 \pm 0.2 \%$ and
300 $11 \pm 2.1 \%$ in cups #11 and #12) than in the summer, with the exception of cup #5 where the
301 highest value of 17.4 % was observed. PON fluxes followed the same seasonal patterns as
302 POC. This resulted in a relatively stable POC:PON ratio that varied between 6.1 to 7.4, except
303 in the autumn cup #11 where it exceeded 8.1 (Table 1).

304 **4 Discussion**

305 **4.1 Physical conditions of trap deployment**

306 Moored sediment traps can be subject to hydrodynamic biases that affect the accuracy of
307 particle collection (Buesseler et al., 2007a). The aspect ratio, tilt and horizontal flow regimes
308 are important considerations when assessing sediment trap performance. Specifically, the line
309 angle and aspect ratio of cylindrical traps can result in oversampling (Hawley, 1988).
310 Horizontal current velocities of 12 cm s^{-1} are often invoked as a critical threshold over which
311 particles are no longer quantitatively sampled (Baker et al., 1988). During the sediment trap
312 deployment period we observed generally low current speeds (mean $< 10 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$) with 75% of
313 the recorded data lower than 12 cm s^{-1} . Despite the high aspect ratio of the PPS3 trap (4.75),
314 and the small mooring line angle deviations, it is likely that episodic increases in current
315 velocities ($>12 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$) impacted collection efficiency. When integrated over the entire current
316 meter record (October 2011 to April 2012), the resulting flow is consistent with the annual

317 northeastward, low velocity ($\sim 1 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$) geostrophic flow previously reported over the
318 central part of the Kerguelen plateau (Park et al., 2008b).

319 The depth of the winter mixed layer (WML) on the Kerguelen Plateau is usually
320 shallower than 250 m (Park et al., 1998; Metzl et al., 2006). The sediment trap deployment
321 depth of ~ 300 m was selected to sample particle flux exiting the WML. The moored CTD
322 sensor did not record any evidence of a winter water incursion during the deployment period,
323 confirming the WML did not reach the trap depth. The small depth variations observed during
324 the deployment period resulted from vertical displacement of the trap. Variations of σ_θ may
325 have resulted from both vertical displacement of the CTD sensor and possible isopycnal
326 displacements due to strong internal waves that can occur with an amplitude of > 50 m at this
327 depth (Park et al., 2008a). Our measurements demonstrate that isopycnal displacements are
328 consistent with the M2 (moon 2, 12.4 h period) tidal forcing described in physical modeling
329 studies (Maraldi et al., 2009, 2011). Spectral analysis indicates that high frequency tidal
330 currents are the major circulation components. Time-integrated currents suggest that
331 advection is weak and occurs over longer timescale (months). Assuming the current flow
332 measured at the sediment trap deployment depth is representative of the prevailing current
333 under the WML, more than three months are required for particles to leave the plateau from
334 the A3 station, a timescale larger than the bloom duration itself. Therefore we consider that
335 the particles collected in the sediment trap at station A3 were produced in the surface waters
336 located above the plateau during bloom conditions.

337 **4.2 Swimmers and particle solubilization**

338 Aside from the hydrodynamic effects discussed above, other potential biases characterizing
339 sediment trap deployments, particularly those in shallow waters, is the presence of swimmers
340 and particle solubilization. Swimmers can artificially increase POC fluxes by entering the

341 cups and releasing particulate organic matter or decrease the flux by feeding in the trap funnel
342 (Buesseler et al., 2007a). Some studies have focused specifically on swimmer communities
343 collected in shallow sediment traps (Matsuno et al., 2014 and references therein) although trap
344 collection of swimmers is probably selective and therefore not quantitative. Total swimmer
345 intrusion rate was highest in cups #6 to #9 (December 2011 to February 2012) generally
346 through the representation of copepods and amphipods (Table 2). The maximum swimmer
347 intrusion rate in mid-summer as well as the copepod dominance is consistent with the fourfold
348 increase in mesozooplankton abundance observed from winter to summer (Carlotti et al.,
349 2014). Swimmer abundance was not correlated with mass flux, POC or PON fluxes,
350 suggesting that their presence did not systematically affect particulate fluxes inside the cups.
351 Nevertheless such correlations cannot rule out the possibility of swimmers feeding in the trap
352 funnel modifying particle flux collection.

353 Particle solubilization in preservative solutions may also lead to an underestimation of
354 total flux measured in sediment traps. Previous analyses from traps poisoned with mercuric
355 chloride suggest that ~30 % of total organic carbon flux can be found in the dissolved phase
356 and much higher values of 50 % and 90 % may be observed for nitrogen and phosphorous,
357 respectively (Antia, 2005; O'Neill et al., 2005). Unfortunately the use of a formaldehyde-
358 based preservative in our trap samples precludes any direct estimate of excess of dissolved
359 organic carbon in the sample cup supernatant. Furthermore, corrections for particle leaching
360 have been considered problematic in the presence of swimmers since a fraction of the
361 leaching may originate from the swimmers themselves (Antia, 2005), potentially leading to
362 over-correction. Particles solubilization may have occurred in our samples as evidenced by
363 excess PO_4^{3-} in the supernatant. However the largest values were measured in sample cups
364 where total swimmers were abundant (cups #8 to #12, data not shown). Consequently, it was
365 not possible to discriminate solubilisation of P from swimmers and passively settling particles

366 and it therefore remains difficult to quantify the effect of particle leaching. However, leaching
367 of POC should be less problematic in formalin-preserved samples because aldehydes fix
368 organic matter, in addition to poisoning microbial activity.

369 **4.3 Seasonal dynamics of POC export**

370 The sediment trap record obtained from station A3 provides the first direct estimate of POC
371 export covering an entire season over the naturally fertilized Kerguelen Plateau. We observed
372 a temporal lag of one month between the two surface chlorophyll *a* peaks and the two export
373 events. Based on a compilation of annual sediment trap deployments, Lutz et al. (2007)
374 reported that export quickly follows primary production at low latitudes whereas a time lag up
375 to two months could occur at higher latitudes. A 1-2 month lag was observed between
376 production and export in the pacific sector of the Southern Ocean (Buesseler et al., 2001), as
377 well as along 170°W (Honjo et al., 2000) and in the Australian sector of the Subantarctic
378 Zone (Rigual-Hernández et al., 2015). The temporal lag between surface production and
379 measured export in deep traps can originate from ecological processes in the upper ocean (e.g.
380 carbon retention in the mixed layer) as well as slow sinking velocities (Armstrong et al.,
381 2009) and one cannot differentiate the two processes from a single deep trap signal. A global-
382 scale modeling study suggests that the strongest temporal decoupling between production and
383 export (more than one month) occurs in areas characterized by a strong seasonal variability in
384 primary production (Henson et al., 2014). The study attributes this decoupling to differences
385 in phenology of phytoplankton and zooplankton and evokes zooplankton ejection products as
386 major contributors to fast sinking particles sedimenting post bloom.

387 On the Kerguelen Plateau there is evidence that a significant fraction of
388 phytoplankton biomass comprising the two chlorophyll peaks is remineralized by a highly
389 active heterotrophic microbial community (Obenosterer et al., 2008; Christaki et al., 2014).
390 Another fraction is likely channeled toward higher trophic levels through the intense grazing

391 pressure that supports the observed increase in zooplankton biomass (Carlotti et al., 2008,
392 2014). Therefore an important fraction of phytoplankton biomass increases observed by
393 satellite may not contribute to export fluxes. Notably, the POC:PON ratio measured in our
394 trap material is close to values reported for marine diatoms (7.3 ± 1.2 , Sarthou et al., 2005),
395 compared to the C:N ratio of zooplankton faecal pellets which is typically higher (7.3 to >15,
396 Gerber and Gerber, 1979; Checkley and Entzeroth, 1985; Morales, 1987). Simple mass
397 balance would therefore suggest a significant contribution of phytoplanktonic cells to the
398 POC export, which is indeed corroborated by detailed microscopic analysis (Rembauville et
399 al., 2014).

400 Although we observed increasing contributions of faecal pellet carbon post-bloom
401 (Rembauville et al., 2014), in line with the model output of Henson et al. (2014), differences
402 in phytoplankton and zooplankton phenology do not fully explain the seasonality of export on
403 the Kerguelen Plateau. Considering the shallow trap depth (289 m) and typical sinking speed
404 of 100 m d^{-1} for phyto-aggregates (Allredge and Gotschalk, 1988; Peterson et al., 2005; Trull
405 et al., 2008a), aggregate-driven export following bloom demise would suggest a short lag of a
406 few days between production and export peaks. The temporal lag of one month measured in
407 the present study suggest either slow sinking rates ($<5 \text{ m d}^{-1}$) characteristic of single
408 phytoplanktonic cells or faster sinking particles that originate from sub-surface production
409 peaks undetected by satellite. It is generally accepted that satellite detection depth is 20-50 m
410 (Gordon and McCluney, 1975), and can be less than 20 m when surface chlorophyll *a* exceed
411 $0.2 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ (Smith, 1981), which prevents the detection of deep phytoplanktonic biomass
412 structures (Villareal et al., 2011). Although subsurface chlorophyll maxima located around
413 100 m have been observed over the Kerguelen Plateau at the end of the productive period,
414 they have been interpreted to result from the accumulation of surface production at the base of
415 the mixed layer rather than subsurface productivity features (Uitz et al., 2009). In support of

416 this, detailed taxonomic analysis of the exported material highlights diatom resting spores as
417 major contributors to the two export fluxes rather than a composite surface community
418 accumulated at the base of the mixed layer. The hypothesis of a mass production of nutrient-
419 limited resting spores post-bloom with high settling rates explains the temporal patterns of
420 export we observed (Rembauville et al., 2014). However a better knowledge of the dynamics
421 of factors responsible for resting spore formation by diatoms remains necessary to fully
422 validate this hypothesis.

423 **4.4 Evidence for significant flux attenuation over the Kerguelen Plateau**

424 The Kerguelen Plateau annual POC export ($98.2 \pm 4.4 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$) approaches the median
425 global ocean POC export value comprising shallow and deep sediment traps ($83 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$,
426 Lampitt and Antia, 1997), but is also close to values observed in HNLC areas of the POOZ
427 ($11\text{-}43 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ at 500 m, Fischer et al., 2000). Moreover, the magnitude of annual POC
428 export measured at $\sim 300\text{m}$ on the Kerguelen Plateau is comparable to deep-ocean ($>2 \text{ km}$)
429 POC fluxes measured from the iron-fertilized Crozet ($60 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$, Salter et al., 2012) and
430 South Georgia blooms ($180 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$, Manno et al., 2014).

431 We first compared the sediment trap export fluxes with short-term estimates at 200 m
432 in spring (KEOPS2) and summer (KEOPS1). The POC flux recorded in the moored sediment
433 trap represents only a small fraction (3-8%) of the POC flux measured at the base of the
434 winter mixed layer (200 m) by different approaches during the spring KEOPS2 cruise (Table
435 3). The same conclusion can be drawn when considering the comparison with different
436 estimates made at the end of summer during KEOPS1. Moreover, the annual POC export of
437 $\sim 0.1 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ at 289 m (Table 1) represents only 2% of the indirect estimate of POC export
438 ($5.1 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$) at the base of the WML (200 m) on the Kerguelen Plateau based on a
439 seasonal DIC budget (Blain et al., 2007). The short term estimates are derived from a diverse
440 range of methods. The ^{234}Th proxy is based on the ^{234}Th deficit relative to the ^{238}U due to its

441 adsorption on particles, and its subsequent conversion to carbon fluxes using measured
442 POC:²³⁴Th ratios. (Coale and Bruland, 1985; Buesseler et al., 2006; Savoye et al., 2006). The
443 UVP (Underwater Video Profiler) provides high resolution images of particles (>52 μm) and
444 the particle size distribution is then converted to carbon fluxes using an empirical relationship
445 (Guidi et al., 2008; Picheral et al., 2010). Drifting gel traps allow the collection, preservation
446 and imaging of sinking particles (>71 μm) that are converted to carbon fluxes using empirical
447 volume:carbon relationships (Ebersbach and Trull, 2008; Ebersbach et al., 2011; Laurenceau-
448 Cornec et al., 2015). Finally, drifting sediment traps are conceptually similar to moored
449 sediment traps but avoid most of the hydrodynamic biases associated with this technique
450 (Buesseler et al., 2007a). The diversity of the methods and differences in depth where the
451 POC flux was estimated render quantitative comparisons challenging. Nevertheless, POC
452 fluxes measured at 289 m with the moored sediment trap are considerably lower than other
453 estimates made at 200 m. This result indicates either extremely rapid attenuation of flux
454 between 200 m and 300 m or significant sampling bias by the sediment trap.

455 We note that low carbon export fluxes around 300 m have been previously reported on
456 the Kerguelen Plateau. In spring 2011, UVP derived estimates of POC export at 350 m were
457 0.1 to 0.3 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹ (Table 3), values close to our reported value of 0.15 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹. In
458 summer 2005, POC export at 330 m from gel trap was 0.7 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹ (Ebersbach and Trull
459 2008), which is also close to our value of 1.5 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹. Using the Jouandet et al. (2014)
460 data at 200 m (1.9 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹) and 350 m (0.3 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹) and the Ebersbach and Trull
461 (2008) data at 200 m (5.2 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹) and 330 m (0.7 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹) leads to Martin power
462 law exponents values of 3.3 and 4, respectively. These values are high when compared to the
463 range of 0.4–1.7 that was initially compiled for the global ocean (Buesseler et al., 2007b).
464 However, there is increasing evidence in support of much higher b-values in the Southern
465 Ocean that fall in the range 0.9–3.9 (Lam and Bishop, 2007; Henson et al., 2012; Cavan et al.,

466 2015). Our calculations are thus consistent with emerging observations of significant POC
467 flux attenuation in the Southern Ocean.

468 Using the aforementioned b values (3.3 and 4) and the POC flux derived from ^{234}Th
469 deficit at 200 m in spring (Planchon et al., 2014), we estimate POC fluxes at 289 m of 0.7 to
470 1.1 $\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$. The flux measured in our sediment trap (0.15 $\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) data represents
471 14 % to 21 % of this calculated flux. Very similar percentages (21 % to 27 %) are found using
472 the POC fluxes derived from the ^{234}Th deficit in summer (Savoie et al., 2008). Therefore we
473 consider that the moored sediment trap collected ~15-30 % of the ^{234}Th – derived particle flux
474 equivalent throughout the year. Trap-derived particle fluxes can represent 0.1 to >3 times the
475 ^{234}Th -derived particles in shallow sediment traps (Buesseler, 1991; Buesseler et al., 1994;
476 Coppola et al., 2002; Gustafsson et al., 2004) and this difference is largely attributed to the
477 sum of hydrodynamic biases and swimmer activities (Buesseler, 1991), although it probably
478 also includes the effect of post-collection particle solubilisation. In the Antarctic Peninsula,
479 ^{234}Th derived POC export was 20 times higher than the fluxes collected by a shallow,
480 cylindrical, moored sediment trap at 170 m (Buesseler et al., 2010). The present deployment
481 context is less extreme (depth of 289 m, mean current speed $<10 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$, low tilt angle, high
482 aspect ratio of the cylindrical PPS3 trap) but we consider that hydrodynamics (current speed
483 higher than 12 cm s^{-1} during short tidal-driven events) and possible zooplankton feeding on
484 the trap funnel are potential biases that may explain in part the low fluxes recorded by the
485 moored sediment trap. Therefore the low fluxes observed likely result from a combined effect
486 of collection bias (hydrodynamics and swimmers) and attenuation of the POC flux between
487 the base of the WML and 300 m. However, it is not possible with the current dataset to isolate
488 a specific explanation for low flux values.

489 Strong POC flux attenuation over the Kerguelen Plateau compared to the open ocean
490 is also reported by Laurenceau-Cornec et al. (2015) who associated this characteristic with a

491 HBLE scenario and invoked the role of mesozooplankton in the carbon flux attenuation.
492 Between October and November 2011, mesozooplankton biomass in the mixed layer doubled
493 (Carlotti et al., 2014) and summer biomass was twofold higher still (Carlotti et al., 2008).
494 These seasonal patterns are consistent with the maximum swimmer intrusion rate and
495 swimmer diversity observed in summer (Table 2). It has previously been concluded that
496 zooplankton biomass is more tightly coupled to phytoplankton biomass on the plateau
497 compared to oceanic waters, leading to higher secondary production on the plateau (Carlotti et
498 al., 2008, 2014). Further support linking zooplankton dynamics to HBLE environments of
499 iron-fertilized blooms are the findings of Cavan et al. (2015) that documents the lowest export
500 ratio (exported production/primary production) in the most productive, naturally fertilized
501 area downstream of South Georgia. Another important ecosystem feature associated to the
502 HBLE environment of the Kerguelen Plateau, and likely shared by other island-fertilized
503 blooms in the Southern Ocean, is the presence of mesopelagic fish (myctophid spawning and
504 larvae foraging site, Koubbi et al., 1991, 2001). Mesopelagic fish can be tightly coupled to
505 lower trophic levels (Saba and Steinberg, 2012) and can play a significant role in carbon flux
506 attenuation (Davison et al., 2013). Although important for carbon budgets it is a compartment
507 often neglected due to the challenge of quantitative sampling approaches. We suggest that the
508 HBLE scenario and large attenuation of carbon flux beneath the WML at Kerguelen may
509 reflect the transfer of carbon biomass to higher and mobile trophic groups that fuel large
510 mammal and bird populations rather than the classical remineralization-controlled attenuation
511 characterizing open ocean environments. Although technically challenging, testing this
512 hypothesis should be a focus for future studies in this and similar regions.

513 **5. Conclusion**

514 We report the seasonal dynamics of particulate organic carbon (POC) export under the winter
515 mixed layer (289 m) of the naturally iron fertilized and productive central Kerguelen Plateau.

516 Annual POC flux was remarkably low (98 mmol m^{-2}) and occurred primarily during two
517 episodic (<14 days) flux events exported with a 1 month lag following two surface
518 chlorophyll *a* peaks. Analysis of the hydrological conditions and a comparison with different
519 estimates of POC fluxes in spring and summer at the same station suggests that the sediment
520 trap was subject to possible hydrodynamic and biological biases leading to under collection of
521 particle flux. Nevertheless the low POC export was close to other estimates of deep (>300 m)
522 POC export at the same station and is consistent with high attenuation coefficients reported
523 from other methods. We invoke heterotrophic microbial activity and mesozooplankton and
524 mesopelagic fish activity as possible explanations for efficient carbon flux attenuation and/or
525 transfer to higher trophic levels which results in a High Biomass, Low Export environment.

526 The biogenic silicon, diatoms assemblages and faecal pellet fluxes are reported in a
527 companion paper that identifies the primary ecological vectors regulating the magnitude of
528 POC export and seasonal patterns in BSi:POC export (Rembauville et al., 2014).

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943

944 **Table 1:** Dynamics of carbon and nitrogen export fluxes at station A3 collected by the
 945 sediment trap at 289 m.

Cup	Start	Stop	Fluxes ($\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$)			Contribution to annual export (%)	
			POC	PON	POC:PON	POC	PON
1	21/10/2011	04/11/2011	0.15±0.01	0.02±0.00	6.80±0.56	2.11±0.06	2.30±0.01
2	04/11/2011	18/11/2011	0.14 ±0.01	0.02±0.00	6.09±0.67	1.94±0.16	2.27±0.15
3	18/11/2011	02/12/2011	0.15±0.01	0.02±0.00	7.33±0.31	2.12±0.06	1.99±0.06
4	02/12/2011	12/12/2011	1.60±0.04	0.23±0.01	6.95±0.29	16.18±0.45	16.48±0.07
5	12/12/2011	22/12/2011	0.34±0.00	0.05±0.00	6.87±0.08	3.41±0.03	3.64±0.03
6	22/12/2011	01/01/2012	0.51±0.04	0.08±0.01	6.70±0.78	4.82±0.76	5.50±0.39
7	01/01/2012	11/01/2012	0.42±0.02	0.06±0.00	6.73±0.46	4.23±0.14	4.65±0.42
8	11/01/2012	25/01/2012	0.34±0.01	0.05±0.00	6.94±0.38	4.83±0.18	4.84±0.11
9	25/01/2012	08/02/2012	1.47±0.03	0.20±0.01	7.38±0.26	20.98±0.57	21.07±0.05
10	08/02/2012	22/02/2012	0.55±0.04	0.08±0.00	6.97±0.88	7.83±0.64	8.36±0.57
11	22/02/2012	31/05/2012	0.27±0.01	0.03±0.00	8.09±0.22	26.84±0.47	24.12±0.20
12	31/05/2012	07/09/2012	0.04±0.00	0.01±0.00	6.06±0.17	4.71±0.90	4.78±0.09
Annual export ($\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{y}^{-1}$)			98.24±4.35	13.59±0.30			

946

947

948 **Table 2:** Number of swimmer individuals found in each cup and swimmer intrusion rate
 949 (number d⁻¹, *bold italic* numbers) for each taxa and for the total swimmers.

Cup	Copepod	Pteropod	Euphausi d	Ostracod	Amphipo d	Cnidaria n	Polychaet e	Ctenopho re	Siphonop hore	Salp	Total
1	166	13	1	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	183
	<i>12</i>	<i>1</i>	<i><1</i>	<i><1</i>	<i><1</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>13</i>
2	55	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	55
	<i>4</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>4</i>
3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>
4	113	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	113
	<i>11</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>11</i>
5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>
6	540	0	1	0	2	5	1	4	1	0	554
	<i>54</i>	<i>0</i>	<i><1</i>	<i>0</i>	<i><1</i>	<i><1</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>55</i>
7	583	0	0	0	0	2	2	3	0	0	590
	<i>58</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i><1</i>	<i><1</i>	<i><1</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>58</i>
8	686	33	2	2	8	5	1	4	0	0	741
	<i>49</i>	<i>2</i>	<i><1</i>	<i><1</i>	<i>1</i>	<i><1</i>	<i><1</i>	<i><1</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>52</i>
9	392	14	4	3	121	4	2	0	0	0	540
	<i>28</i>	<i>1</i>	<i><1</i>	<i><1</i>	<i>9</i>	<i><1</i>	<i><1</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>38</i>
10	264	69	1	2	18	11	0	2	0	0	367
	<i>19</i>	<i>5</i>	<i><1</i>	<i><1</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>0</i>	<i><1</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>26</i>
11	54	0	0	0	29	4	1	0	0	0	88
	<i>1</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i><1</i>	<i><1</i>	<i><1</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>1</i>
12	1481	44	5	7	2	3	2	0	0	1	1544
	<i>15</i>	<i><1</i>	<i><1</i>	<i><1</i>	<i><1</i>	<i><1</i>	<i><1</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i><1</i>	<i>15</i>

950

951

952 **Table 3:** Summary of estimates of POC fluxes at the base of, or under, the mixed layer at
 953 station A3 from the KEOPS cruises.

Author	Method	Period	Depth (m)	POC flux ($\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$)	
KEOPS1					
Savoie et al., 2008	^{234}Th deficit	23 Jan – 12 Feb 2005	100	23 ± 3.6	
			150	25.7 ± 3.6	
		200	24.5 ± 6.8		
Ebersbach and Trull, 2008	Drifting gel trap, optical measurements and both constant and power law C conversion factor	4 Feb 2005	200	23.9	
			100	5.3	
		12 Feb 2005	200	5.2	
			330	0.7	
430	1				
Jouandet et al., 2008	Annual DIC budget	Annual	MLD base	85	
Trull et al., 2008b	Drifting sediment trap	4 Feb 2005	200	7.3-10	
		12 Feb 2005		3-3.1	
Jouandet et al., 2011	In situ optical measurement (UVP) and power function C conversion factor	22 Jan 2005	200	72.4	
			330	27.2	
			400	21.6	
		23 Jan 2005	200	29.8	
			330	26.8	
			400	15.9	
		12 Feb 2005	200	4.8	
			330	5.6	
			400	7.9	
KEOPS2					
Planchon et al., 2014	^{234}Th deficit, steady state model	20 Oct 2011	100	3.5 ± 0.9	
			150	3.9 ± 0.9	
		16 Nov 2011	200	3.7 ± 0.9	
			100	4.6 ± 1.5	
		16 Nov 2011	150	7.1 ± 1.5	
			200	3.1 ± 0.6	
		16 Nov 2011	^{234}Th deficit, non steady state model	100	7.3 ± 1.8
				150	8.4 ± 1.8
200	3.8 ± 0.8				
Laurenceau-Cornec et al., 2015	Drifting gel trap, optical measurement of particles	16 Nov 2011	210	5.5	
			210	2.2	
Jouandet et al., 2014	In situ optical measurement (UVP) and power function C conversion factor	21 Oct 2011	200	0.2	
			350	0.1	
		16 Nov 2011	200	1.9	
			350	0.3	

955 **Figures captions**

956 **Figure 1.** Localization of the Kerguelen Plateau in the Indian sector of the Southern Ocean
957 and detailed map of the satellite-derived surface chlorophyll *a* concentration (MODIS level 3
958 product) averaged over the sediment trap deployment period. Sediment trap location at the A3
959 station is represented by a black dot, whereas the black circle represents the 100 km radius
960 area used to average the surface chlorophyll *a* time series. Arrows represent surface
961 geostrophic circulation derived from the absolute dynamic topography (AVISO product).
962 Positions of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current core (AAC core), the Polar Front (PF) and the
963 Fawn Through Current (FTC) are shown by thick black arrows. Grey lines are 500 m and
964 1000 m isobaths.

965 **Figure 2.** Schematic of the instrumented mooring line against vertical temperature profiles.
966 The sediment trap and the current meter/CTD sensor location on the mooring line are shown
967 by white circles. Temperature profiles performed during the sediment trap deployment (20
968 October 2011) are represented by grey lines. Black full line is the median temperature profile
969 from 12 casts realized on the 16 November 2011. Dashed black lines are the first and third
970 quartiles from these casts. The grey rectangle represents the Kerguelen Plateau seafloor. The
971 different water masses are Antarctic Surface Water (AASW), Winter Water (WW) and Upper
972 Circumpolar Deep Water (UCDW).

973 **Figure 3.** Hydrological properties recorded by the instrument mooring at station A3. a) depth
974 of the CTD sensor, b) salinity, c) potential temperature, d) line angle, e) current speed, grey
975 lines are raw data, black lines are low-pass filtered data with a Gaussian filter (40 hour
976 window as suggested by the spectral analysis), f) direction and speed of currents represented
977 by vectors (under sampled with a 5 hours interval) and g) wind rose plot of current direction

978 and intensities, dotted circles are directions relative frequencies and colors refer to current
979 speed (m s^{-1}).

980 **Figure 4.** Potential temperature/salinity diagram at station A3. Data are from the moored
981 CTD (black dots), KEOPS1 (blue line) and KEOPS2 (red line). Grey lines are potential
982 density anomaly. The different water masses are Antarctic Surface Water (AASW), Winter
983 Water (WW) and Upper Circumpolar Deep Water (UCDW).

984

985 **Figure 5.** Power spectrum of the spectral analysis of a) depth time series and b) potential
986 density anomaly time series. Pure red noise (null hypothesis) is represented by red dashed
987 lines for each variable. The period corresponding to a significant power peak (power peak
988 higher than the red noise) is written.

989 **Figure 6.** Progressive vector diagram (integration of the current vectors all along the current
990 meter record) calculated from current meter data at 319 m. The color scale refers to date.

991 **Figure 7.** Seasonal variations of surface chlorophyll *a* and particulate organic carbon (POC)
992 export. a) Seasonal surface chlorophyll concentration and 16 years climatology (Globcolour)
993 averaged in a 100 km radius around the station A3 station The black line represents the
994 climatology calculated for the period 1997/2013, whilst the green line corresponds to the
995 sediment trap deployment period (2011/2012). b) POC flux (grey bars) and mass percentage
996 of POC (red dotted line). Error bars are standard deviations from triplicates, bold italic
997 numbers refer to cup number.

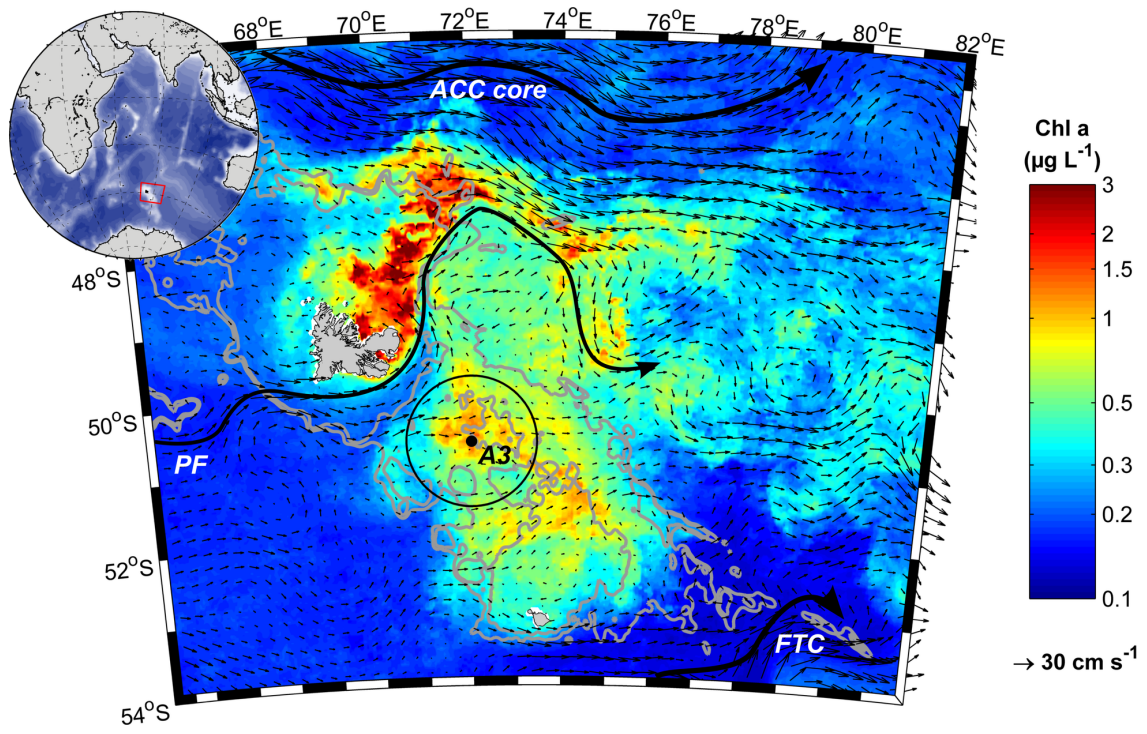


Figure 1.

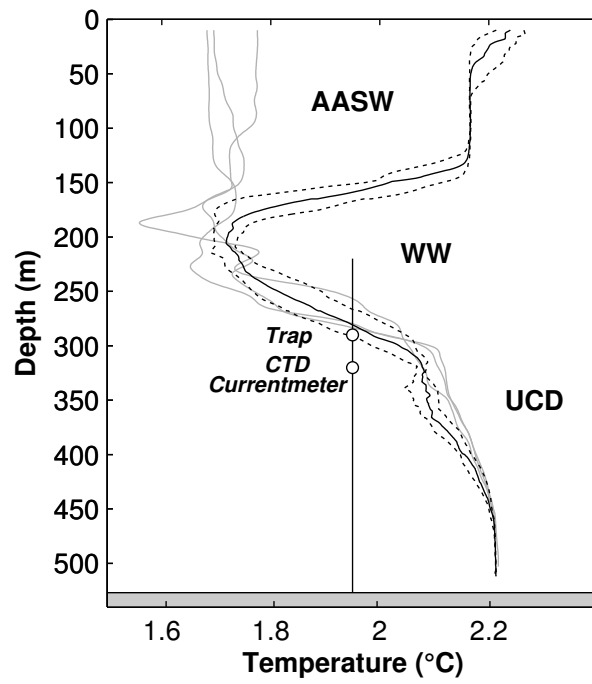


Figure 2.

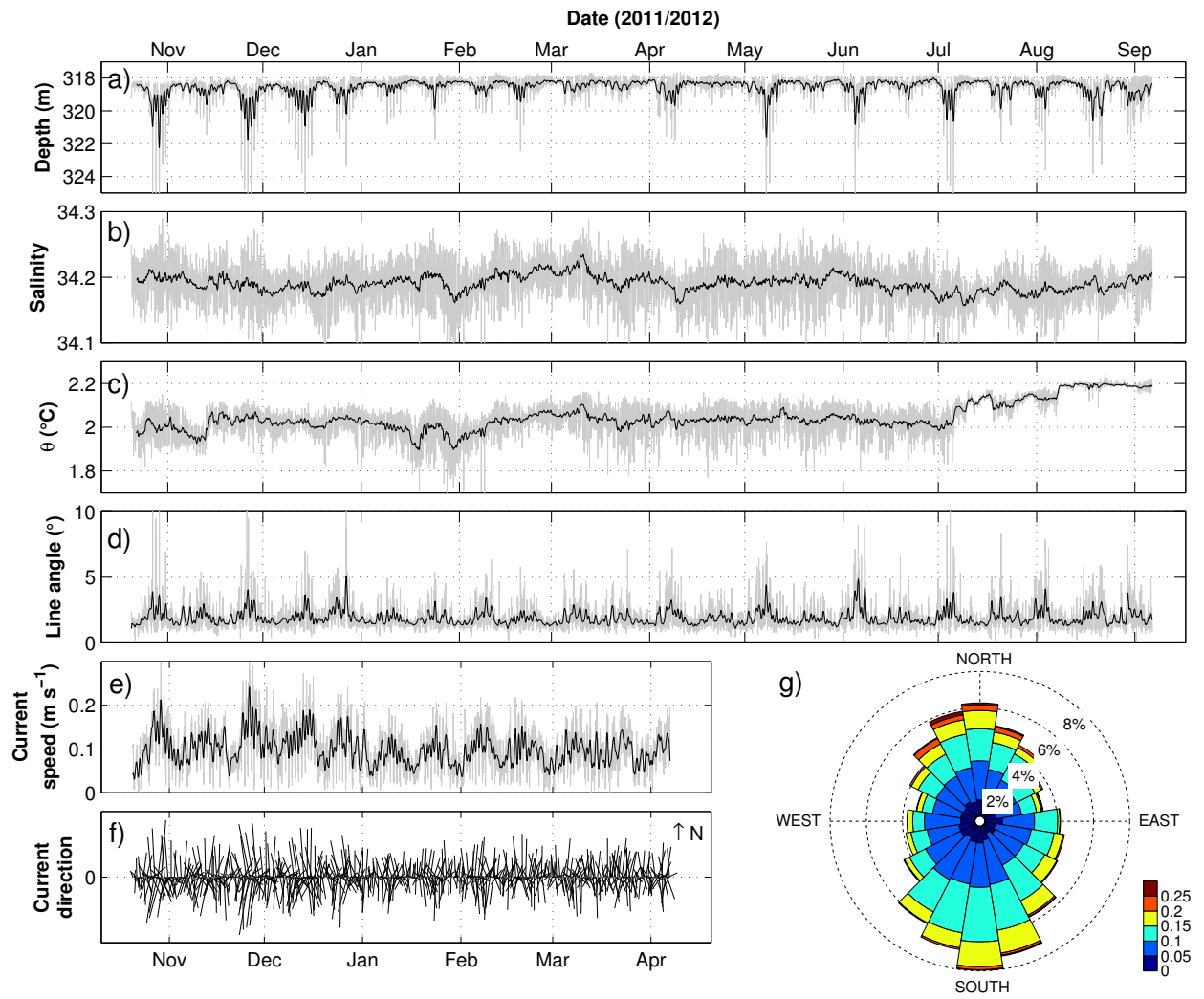


Figure 3.

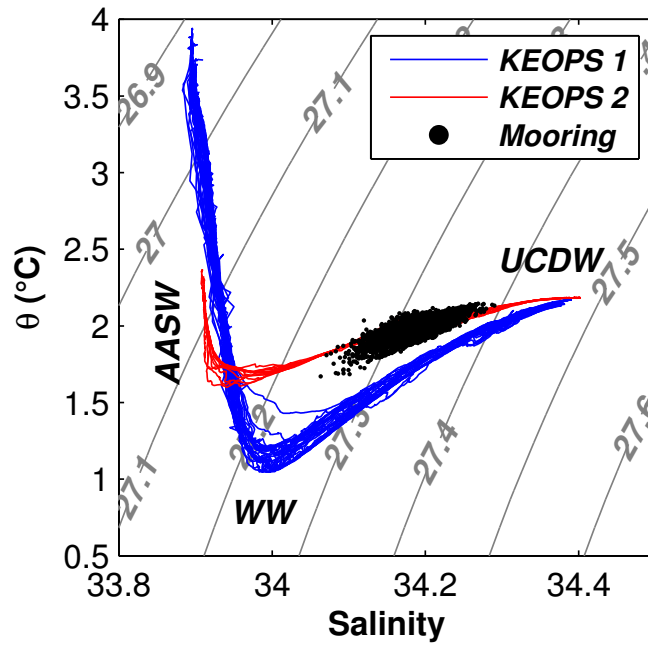


Figure 4.

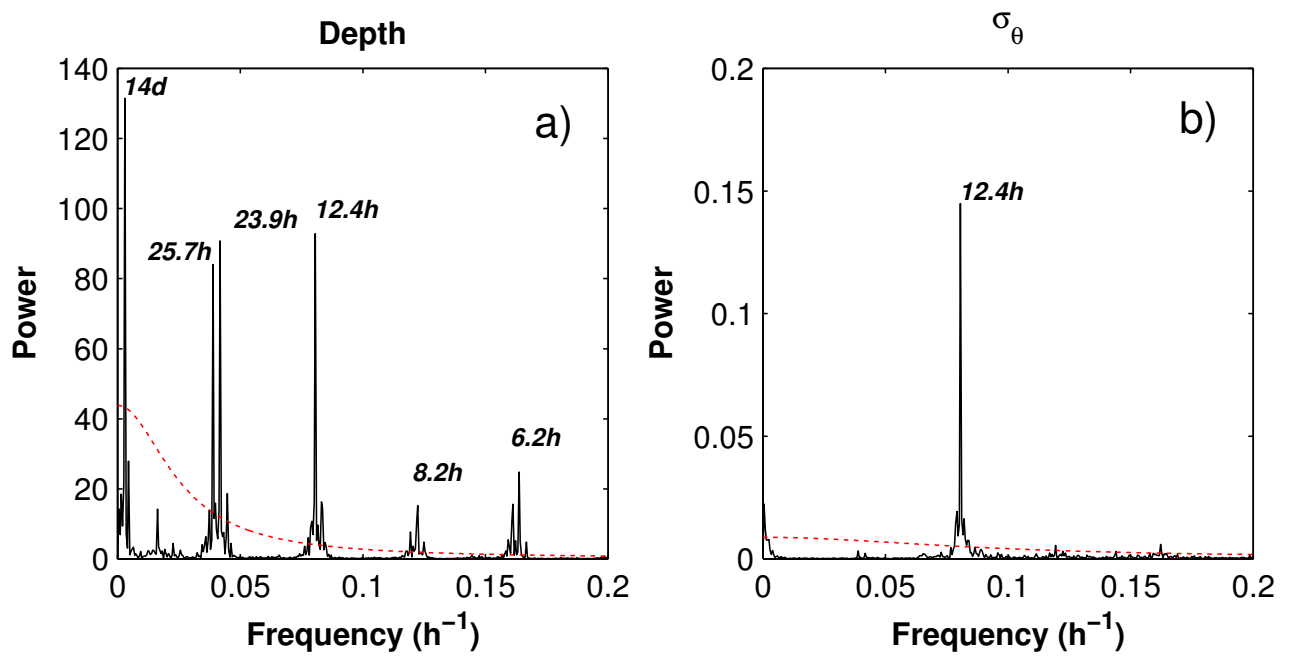


Figure 5.

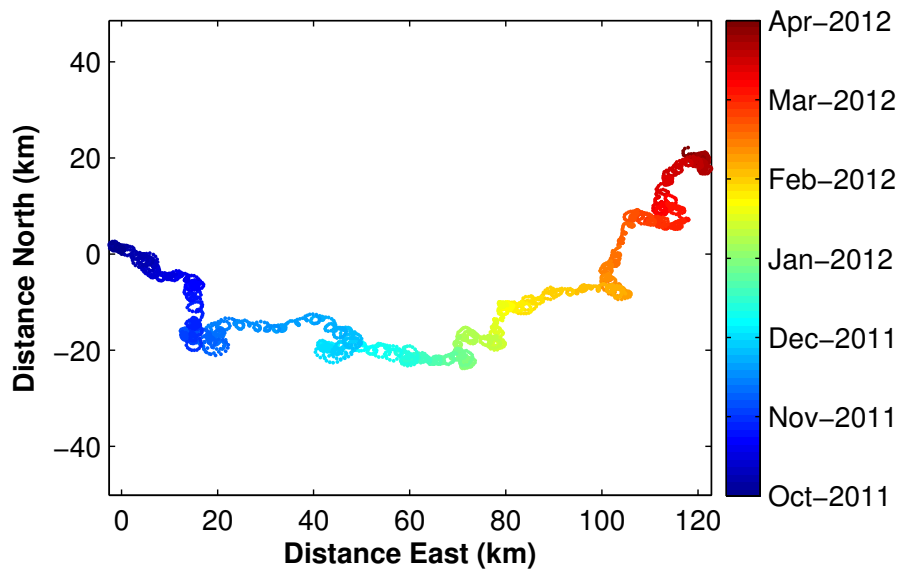


Figure 6.

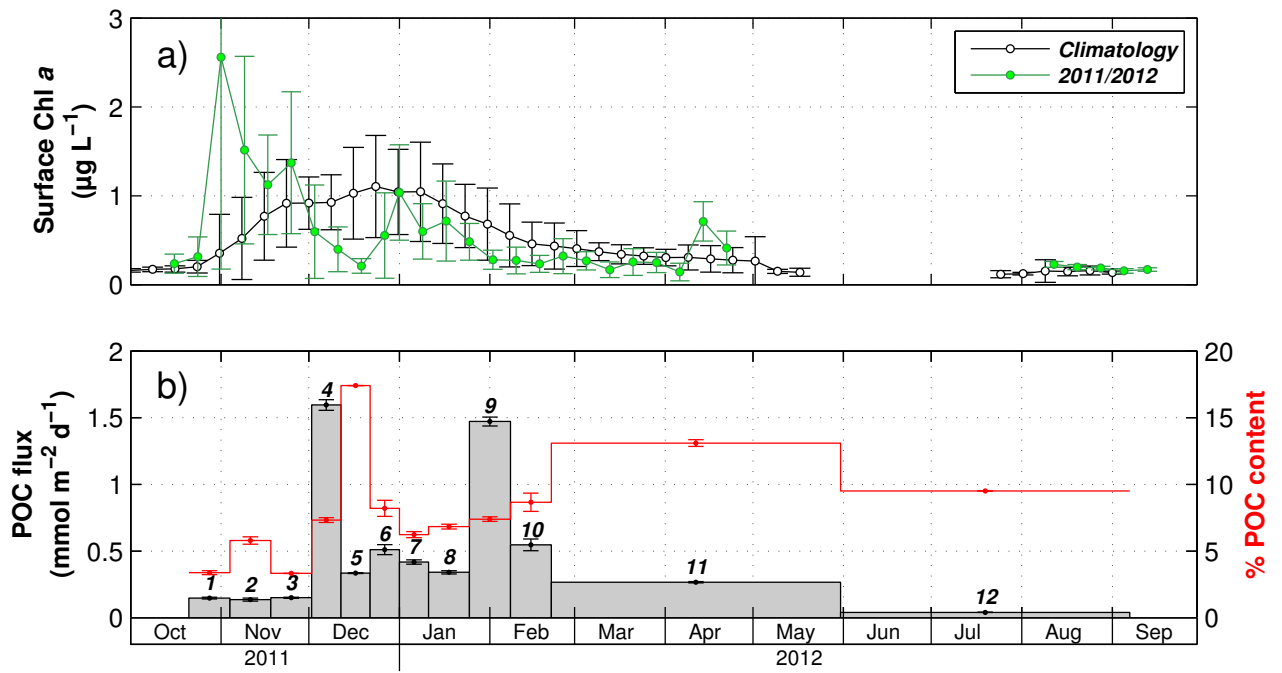


Figure 7.