# Export fluxes in a naturally iron-fertilized area of the Southern Ocean: importance of diatom resting spores and faecal pellets for export (part 2).

M. Rembauville<sup>1,2</sup>, S. Blain<sup>1,2</sup>, L. Armand<sup>3</sup>, B. Quéguiner<sup>4</sup> and I. Salter<sup>1,2,5</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Sorbonne Universités, UPMC Univ Paris 06, UMR 7621, LOMIC, Observatoire Océanologique, Banyuls-sur Mer, France.

8 <sup>2</sup>CNRS, UMR 7621, LOMIC, Observatoire Océanologique, Banyuls-sur-Mer, France.

<sup>3</sup> Department of Biological Sciences and Climate Futures, Macquarie University, New South Wales, Australia
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<sup>4</sup> Aix-Marseille Université, Université de Toulon, CNRS/INSU, IRD, MOI, UM 110, Marseille, France.

<sup>5</sup> Alfred-Wegener-Institute for Polar and Marine research, Bremerhaven, Germany.

16 Correspondance to : M. Rembauville (<u>rembauville@obs-banyuls.fr</u>).

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# 19 Abstract

20 The biological composition of the material exported to a moored sediment trap located under the winter mixed layer of the naturally-fertilized Kerguelen Plateau in the Southern 21 Ocean was studied over an annual cycle. Despite iron availability in spring, the annual 22 particulate organic carbon (POC) export (98.2 mmol m<sup>-2</sup>) at 289 m was low but annual 23 biogenic silica export was significant (114 mmol m<sup>-2</sup>). This feature was related to the 24 25 abundance of empty diatom cells and the ratio of full:empty cells exerted a first order control 26 in BSi:POC export stoichiometry of the biological pump. *Chaetoceros Hyalochaete* spp. and Thalassiosira antarctica resting spores were responsible for more than 60 % of the annual 27 28 POC flux that occurred during two very short export events of <14 days in spring-summer. Relatively low diatom fluxes were observed over the remainder of the year. Faecal pellet 29 contribution to annual carbon flux was lower (34 %) and reached its seasonal maximum in 30

autumn and winter (> 80 %). The seasonal progression of faecal pellet types revealed a clear 31 transition from small spherical shapes (small copepods) in spring, larger cylindrical and 32 ellipsoid shapes in summer (euphausiids and large copepods) and finally large tabular shapes 33 (salps) in autumn and winter. We propose in this High Biomass, Low Export (HBLE) 34 environment that small, but highly silicified and fast-sinking resting spores are able to bypass 35 the intense grazing pressure and efficient carbon transfer to higher trophic levels that are 36 responsible for the low fluxes observed the during the remainder of the year. More generally 37 38 our study also provides a statistical framework linking the ecological succession of diatom and zooplankton communities to the seasonality of carbon and silicon export within an iron-39 fertilized bloom region in the Southern Ocean. 40

# 42 **1 Introduction**

The Southern Ocean is the place of exposure of old upwelled waters to the atmosphere and 43 the formation of mode waters, thereby ventilating an important part of the global ocean and 44 playing a central role in distributing heat, carbon and nutrients in the global ocean (Sarmiento 45 et al., 2004; Takahashi et al., 2012; Sallée et al., 2012). Silicon trapping occurs in the 46 Southern Ocean because silicon is stripped out of the euphotic zone more efficiently than 47 phosphorous and nitrogen (Holzer et al., 2014). It is generally acknowledged that regional 48 variations in plankton community structure are responsible for variations in nutrient 49 stoichiometry in the Southern Ocean (Jin et al., 2006; Weber and Deutsch, 2010) and that the 50 biological pump is a central process regulating this stoichiometry (Ragueneau et al., 2006; 51 52 Salter et al., 2012; Primeau et al., 2013). These characteristics emphasize the importance of biological processes in the Southern Ocean waters for the availability of silicic acid and 53 nitrate (Sarmiento et al., 2004; Dutkiewicz et al., 2005) as well as phosphate (Primeau et al., 54 2013) at lower latitudes, thereby regulating part of the productivity of the global ocean. It has 55 been proposed that change in the uptake ratio of silicate and nitrate by Southern Ocean 56 phytoplankton in response to increased iron availability during the Last Glacial Maximum 57 could have played a substantial role in varying atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> (Brzezinski et al., 2002; 58 Matsumoto et al., 2002). 59

Primary production in the Southern Ocean is regulated by macro- and micronutrient availability (Martin et al., 1990; Moore et al., 2001; Nelson et al., 2001; Moore et al., 2013) and light levels as modulated by insolation and surface layer mixing (Venables and Moore, 2010; Blain et al., 2013). The complex interaction of these factors introduces strong spatial heterogeneity in the distribution of primary producer biomass (Arrigo et al., 1998; Thomalla et al., 2011). In particular, High Nutrient, Low Chlorophyll (HNLC) areas in the open ocean contrast strongly with highly productive, naturally fertilized, blooms located downstream of

island systems such as the Keguelen Plateau (Blain et al., 2001, 2007), Crozet Islands (Pollard 67 et al., 2002) and South Georgia (Park et al., 2010; Tarling et al., 2012). The diatom-dominated 68 phytoplankton blooms characteristic of these island systems are the product of multiple 69 70 environmental conditions favorable for their rapid growth (Ouéguiner, 2013), which appear to promote POC export from the mixed layer (Nelson et al., 1995; Buesseler, 1998). However 71 the ecological traits of certain species can impact the BSi:POC export stoichiometry 72 73 (Crawford, 1995; Salter et al., 2012), and may therefore control the biogeochemical function of a particular region of the Southern Ocean (Smetacek et al., 2004; Assmy et al., 2013). 74

75 Among the numerous ecological characteristics of plankton communities, algal aggregation (Jackson et al., 2005; Burd and Jackson, 2009), mesozooplankton faecal pellets 76 77 (Lampitt et al., 1990; Wilson et al., 2008, 2013), vertical migrations of zooplankton and mesopelagic fish (Jackson and Burd, 2001; Steinberg et al., 2002; Davison et al., 2013), 78 radiolarian faecal pellets (Lampitt et al., 2009), and diatom resting spore formation, (Salter et 79 80 al., 2012; Rynearson et al., 2013) have all been highlighted as efficient vectors of carbon export out of the surface mixed layer. The challenge in describing the principal ecological 81 processes regulating POC export fluxes is the requirement to have direct access to sinking 82 particles. Many of the processes described occur in the upper layers of the ocean, where 83 circulation can strongly influence the reliability of sediment trap collections (Baker et al., 84 1988; Buesseler et al., 2007). Short term deployments of free drifting sediment traps can be an 85 efficient solution to minimize the hydrodynamic bias (Buesseler et al., 2000; Lampitt et al., 86 2008) but spatial and temporal decoupling of production and export needs to be considered 87 88 (Salter et al., 2007; Rynearson et al., 2013). In regions characterized by relatively weak circulation, moored sediment trap observations in areas of naturally fertilized production can 89 track temporal succession of exported material from long-term (several month) blooms 90 91 (Westberry et al., 2013). Such an approach can partially resolve how ecological processes in plankton communities regulate POC and biomineral export out of the mixed layer (Salter et al., 2012; Salter et al., 2014), although selective processes during export may modify original
surface features.

The central Kerguelen Plateau is a good environment to study the ecological vectors of 95 export with sediment traps due to the naturally fertilized recurrent bloom (Blain et al., 2007) 96 97 and shallow bathymetry that breaks the strong Antarctic Circumpolar Current flow (Park et al., 2008, 2014). As reported in the companion paper (Rembauville et al., 2014), annual POC 98 export measured by the sediment trap deployment at 289 m beneath the southeastern iron-99 fertilized Kerguelen bloom was  $98\pm4$  mmol m<sup>-2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>. This downward flux of carbon may 100 account for as little as ~1.5 % of seasonal net community carbon production ( $6.6\pm2.2$  mol m<sup>-2</sup>, 101 Jouandet et al., 2008) and <2 % of seasonally-integrated POC export estimated at 200 m from 102 a dissolved inorganic carbon budget (5.1 molC m<sup>-2</sup>, Blain et al., 2007). Although 103 hydrodynamical and biological biases related to the shallow moored sediment trap 104 105 deployment may partly explain the low POC fluxes we report, independent measurements of low POC fluxes (>300 m) at the same station (Ebersbach and Trull, 2008; Jouandet et al., 106 2014) are consistent with the hypothesis of flux attenuation below the winter mixed layer. 107 These observations suggest a 'High Biomass, Low Export' (HBLE, Lam and Bishop, 2007) 108 status characterizing the productive Kerguelen Plateau. HBLE status appears to be a common 109 feature of other productive sites of the Southern Ocean (Lam and Bishop, 2007; Ebersbach et 110 al., 2011; Lam et al., 2011; Maiti et al., 2013; Cavan et al., 2015). Describing the temporal 111 succession of POC and BSi flux vectors from the Kerguelen Plateau is of interest to increase 112 113 our understanding of the ecological processes characterizing HBLE environments.

114 Numerous studies have described diatom fluxes from sediment trap records in the 115 Southern Ocean (Leventer and Dunbar, 1987; Fischer et al., 1988; Abelmann and Gersonde, 116 1991; Leventer, 1991; Gersonde and Zielinski, 2000; Fischer et al., 2002; Pilskaln et al.,

2004; Ichinomiya et al., 2008; Salter et al., 2012). Highest diatom fluxes recorded by 117 sediment traps (>10<sup>9</sup> valves  $m^{-2} d^{-1}$ ) were observed in the Seasonal Ice Zone (SIZ) near 118 Prydz Bay and Adélie Land and were dominated by Fragilariopsis kerguelensis and smaller 119 Fragilariopsis species such as Fragilariopsis curta and Fragilariopsis cylindrus (Suzuki et 120 al., 2001; Pilskaln et al., 2004). These high fluxes occured in summer and were associated 121 with the melting of sea ice. Changes in light availability and melt water input appear to 122 establish favorable conditions for the production and export of phytoplankton cells (Romero 123 and Armand, 2010). In the Permanently Open Ocean Zone (POOZ), highest diatom fluxes 124 recorded were two orders of magnitude lower  $\sim 10^7$  valves m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> (Abelmann and Gersonde, 125 1991; Salter et al., 2012; Grigorov et al., 2014) and typically represented by F. kerguelensis 126 and *Thalassionema nitzschioides*. One notable exception is the naturally iron-fertilized waters 127 downstream of the Crozet Plateau where resting spores of Eucampia antarctica var. 128 antarctica dominated the diatom export assemblage (Salter et al., 2012). 129

130 Other studies have reported faecal pellet contribution to POC fluxes in the Southern Ocean (Dunbar, 1984; Wefer et al., 1988; Wefer et al., 1990; Wefer and Fisher, 1991; 131 Dubischar and Bathmann, 2002; Suzuki et al., 2001,2003; Accornero and Gowing, 2003; 132 Schnack-Schiel and Isla, 2005; Gleiber et al., 2012) with a particular emphasis on shelf 133 environments where faecal pellet contribution to POC flux was typically higher than in the 134 oceanic regions (Wefer et al., 1990; Wefer and Fischer, 1991; Schnack-Schiel and Isla, 2005). 135 In the Ross Sea, a northward decreasing contribution to carbon flux of 59 %, 38 % and 15 % 136 for southern, central and northern areas was reported from 235 m sediment traps deployments 137 (Schnack-Schiel and Isla, 2005). Faecal pellets in the Ross Sea were generally represented by 138 larger shapes with only 2 to 3 % of them present as small spherical or ellipsoid shapes and 139 total faecal pellet flux was slightly higher than  $10^3$  pellets m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>. High faecal pellet 140 141 contribution to carbon fluxes (> 90 %) have been observed in the Bransfield Strait and the

Marginal Ice Zone of the Scotia Sea, and have been linked to the abundance of the Antarctic krill *Euphausia superba*, resulting in maximum recorded fluxes of  $>5 \times 10^5$  pellets m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> (Bodungen, 1986; von Bodungen et al., 1987; Wefer et al., 1988). The strong contribution of krill faecal pellets to carbon flux in the western Antarctic Peninsula was confirmed over several years of observations, with the highest contributions to carbon flux succeeding the phytoplankton bloom in January and February (Gleiber et al., 2012).

In the present study, particulate material exported from the mixed layer in the naturally 148 fertilized Permanently Open Ocean Zone (POOZ) of the Kerguelen Plateau is described from 149 an annual sediment trap mooring. To develop our understanding of seasonal variability in the 150 ecological flux vectors and particle biogeochemistry we investigate the link between the 151 chemical (POC, PON, BSi) and biological (diatom species and faecal pellet types) 152 components of exported particles. Furthermore, we advance the limitations of previous studies 153 by explicitly distinguishing full and empty diatom cells in the exported material and thereby 154 determine species-specific roles for carbon and silica export. 155

# 156 2 Materials and methods

As part of the multidisciplinary research program KEOPS2 a moored sediment trap 157 (Technicap PPS3) was deployed at 289 m (seafloor depth: 527 m) at the representative bloom 158 station A3 (50°38.3' S - 72°02.6' E) for a period of 321 days (21 October 2011 to 7 159 September 2012). The sediment trap mooring was located within an iron-fertilized bloom site 160 on the southern part of the Kerguelen Plateau (Blain et al., 2007). The cup rotation dates of 161 162 the sediment trap are listed in Table 1. Details of sediment trap design, hydrological conditions, sample processing, POC and PON analyses and surface chlorophyll a data 163 164 extraction are described in a companion paper (Rembauville et al., 2014). Comparison with thorium-based estimates of carbon export suggests a trapping efficiency of 15-30 % relative to 165

the proxy, although strong particle flux attenuation between 200 m and the trap depth (289 m) might also contribute to the low fluxes. We therefore interpret our results to accurately reflect the relationships between the biological and geochemical signals of the material caught by the sediment trap, which we acknowledge may not necessarily represent the entire particle export at 289 m.

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# 2.1 Biogenic and lithogenic silicon analyses

For the analysis of biogenic silica (BSi) and lithogenic silica (LSi), 2 to 8 mg of freeze-dried 172 material were weighed (Sartorius precision balance, precision  $10^{-4}$  g) and placed into falcon 173 tubes. The extraction of silicon from biogenic and lithogenic particle phases was performed 174 following the Ragueneau et al. (2005) triple NaOH/HF extraction procedure. Silicic acid 175 176 (Si(OH)<sub>4</sub>) resulting from NaOH extractions was measured automatically on a Skalar 5100 autoanalyzer whereas Si(OH)<sub>4</sub> resulting from HF extraction was measured manually on a 177 Milton Roy Spectronic 401 spectrophotometer. Si(OH)<sub>4</sub> analyses were performed 178 179 colorimetrically following Aminot and Kerouel (2007). Standards for the analysis of samples from the HF extraction were prepared in an HF/H<sub>3</sub>BO<sub>4</sub> matrix, ensuring the use of an 180 appropriate calibration factor that differs from Milli-Q water. The contribution of LSi to the 181 first leaching was determined by using Si:Al ratios from a second leaching step (Ragueneau et 182 al., 2005). Aluminum concentrations were measured by spectrophotometry (Howard et al., 183 1986). The triple extraction procedure is optimized for samples with a BSi content  $< 10 \mu mol$ . 184 For some samples (cup #3, #4, #6, #7, #8, #9 and #10) the Si:Al molar ratio in the second 185 leachate was high (>10) indicating the incomplete dissolution of BSi. For these samples it was 186 187 not possible to use Si:Al ratios to correct for LSi leaching. A crustal Si:Al mass ratio of 3.74 (Taylor and McClennan, 1986) was therefore used and applied to all the samples for 188 consistency. Precision (estimated from measurement of 25 independent samples) was 13 189 190 nmol/mg, which represents <1 % of the BSi content in all samples and 14 % of the mean LSi 191 content. Blank triplicates from each extraction were below the detection limit. BSi results 192 from this method were compared to the kinetic method from DeMaster (1981). There was an 193 excellent agreement between the two methods (Spearman rank correlation, n = 12, p < 0.001, 194 BSi <sub>kinetic</sub> = 1.03 BSi <sub>triple extraction</sub> - 0.08, data not shown). To estimate the contribution of opal 195 to total mass flux, we assumed an opal composition of SiO<sub>2</sub> 0.4H<sub>2</sub>O (Mortlock and Froelich, 196 1989).

In order to correct for the dissolution of BSi during deployment and storage, Si(OH)<sub>4</sub> excess was analyzed in the overlying preservative solution. Particulate BSi fluxes were corrected for dissolution assuming that excess silicic acid originated only from the dissolution of BSi phases. Si(OH)<sub>4</sub> excess was always <10 % of total (dissolved + particulate) Si concentrations. Error propagation for POC, PON, BSi fluxes and molar ratios were calculated as the quadratic sum of the relative error from triplicate measurements of each variable.

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# 2.2 Diatom identification, fluxes and biomass

204 Many sediment trap studies reporting diatom fluxes in the Southern Ocean use a micropaleontological protocol that oxidizes organic material (KMnO<sub>4</sub>, HCl, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) thereby 205 facilitating the observation of diatom valves (see Romero et al., 1999, 2000 for a description). 206 In the present manuscript, our specific aim was to separately enumerate full and empty diatom 207 cells captured by the sediment trap to identify key carbon or silicon exporters amongst the 208 diatom species. We therefore used a biological method following a similar protocol to that of 209 (Salter et al., 2007, 2012). To prepare samples for counting, 2 mL of a gently homogenized 210 1/8 wet aliquot were diluted in a total volume of 20 mL of artificial seawater (S = 34). In 211 212 order to minimize the exclusion and/or breaking of large or elongated diatom frustules (e.g. Thalassiothrix antarctica), the pipette tip used for sub-sampling was modified to increase the 213 tip aperture to >2 mm. The diluted and homogenized sample was placed in a Sedgewick-214 215 Rafter counting chamber (Pyser SGE S52, 1 mL chamber volume). Each sample was

observed under an inverted microscope (Olympus IX71) with phase contrast at 200x and 400x 216 magnification. Diatom enumeration and identification was made from one quarter to one half 217 of the counting chamber (depending on cell abundance). The total number of diatoms counted 218 219 was >400 in all the cups with the exception of the winter cup #12 (May – September 2012) where the diatom abundance was low (<100 diatoms counted). Diatoms species were 220 identified following the recommendations of Hasle and Syvertsen (1997). All whole, intact 221 222 and recognizable frustules were enumerated. Full and empty cells were counted separately, following suggestions in Assmy et al. (2013). 223

Due to the lower magnification used and preserved cell contents sometimes obscuring 224 taxonomic features on the valve face, taxonomic identification to the species level was 225 226 occasionally difficult and necessitated the categorizing of diatom species to genus or taxa 227 groupings in the following manner: Chaetoceros species of the subgenus Hyalochaete resting spores (CRS) were not differentiated into species or morphotypes but were counted separately 228 229 from the vegetative cells; Fragilariopsis separanda and Fragilarsiopsis rhombica were grouped as Fragilariopsis separanda/rhombica; Membraneis imposter and Membraneis 230 challengeri and species of the genera Banquisia and Manguinea were denominated as 231 Membraneis spp. (Armand et al., 2008a); diatoms of the genus Haslea and Pleurosigma were 232 grouped as Pleurosigma spp.; all Pseudo-nitzschia species encountered were grouped as 233 Pseudo-nitzschia spp.; Rhizosolenia antennata and Rhizosolenia styliformis were grouped as 234 Rhizosolenia antennata/styliformis; large and rare Thalassiosira oliverana and Thalassiosira 235 tumida were grouped as Thalassiosira spp.; Thalassiosira antarctica resting spores (TRS) 236 237 were identified separately from the vegetative cells; small centric diatoms (<20 µm) represented by Thalassiosira gracilis and other Thalassiosira species were designated as 238 Small centrics (< 20µm); and finally large and rare centrics including Azpeitia tabularis, 239 240 Coscinodiscus spp. and Actinocyclus curvatulus were grouped as Large centrics (>20 µm). Full and empty frustules of each species or taxa grouping were distinguished and enumerated
separately. The cell flux for each diatom species or taxa grouping was calculated according to
Equation (1):

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$$Cell flux = N_{diat} \times d \times 8 \times V_{cup} \times \frac{1}{0.125} \times \frac{1}{days} \times chamber fraction$$
 (1)

Where *Cell flux* is in valves m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>,  $N_{diat}$  is the number of cells enumerated for each diatom classification, *d* is the dilution factor from the original wet aliquot, 8 is the total number of wet aliquots comprising one sample cup,  $V_{cup}$  is the volume of each wet aliquot, 0.125 is the Technicap PPS/3 sediment trap collecting area (m<sup>2</sup>), *days* is the collecting period, *chamber fraction* is the surface fraction of the counting chamber that was observed (one quarter or one half). The annually integrated full and empty diatom flux for each species was calculated assuming as follows:

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$$Annual flux_{(x)} = \sum_{i=1}^{12} (Flux_{(x)i} \times days_i)$$
(2)

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Where *Annual flux*<sub>(x)</sub> is the annually integrated flux of a full or empty diatom species x (cell m<sup>-2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>), *Flux*<sub>(x)i</sub> is the full or empty flux of this species in the cup number i (cell m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) and *days*<sub>i</sub> is the collecting time for the cup number i (d). The calculations assume negligible export occurred during the month of September which was not sampled by the sediment trap. We consider this assumption reasonable based on the preceding flux profile and low concentration of satellite-derived chlorophyll a (Rembauville et al. 2014).

261 We directly compared the micropaleontological (as used in Rigual-Hernández et al. (2015)) and biological counting techniques in our sediment trap samples and noted the loss of 262 several species (Chaetoceros decipiens, Chaetoceros dichaeta, Corethron pennatum 263 Corethron inerme, Guinardia cylindrus and Rhizosolenia chunii) under 264 the micropaleontological technique. We attribute this to the aggressive chemical oxidation techniques used to "clean" the samples as well as the centrifugation steps which may also selectively destroy or dissolve certain frustules. For the species that were commonly observed by both techniques, total valve flux was in good agreement (Spearman rank correlation, n =12,  $\rho = 0.91$ , p < 0.001, data not shown) although consistently lower with the micropaleontolgical technique, probably due to the loss of certain frustules described above. Full details of this method comparison are in preparation for a separate submission.

Diatoms species that contributed to more than 1 % of total full cell flux were 272 converted to carbon flux. For E. antarctica var. antarctica, Fragilariopsis kerguelensis, 273 Fragilariopsis separanda/rhombica, Pseudo-nitzschia spp. and Thalassionema nitzschioides 274 spp., we used published cell-specific carbon content ( $Cell_C$ , pgC cell<sup>-1</sup>) for diatoms 275 communities of the Kerguelen Plateau from Cornet-Barthaux et al. (2007). As Chaetoceros 276 Hyalochaete resting spores (CRS) and Thalassiosira antarctica resting spores (TRS) largely 277 278 dominated the full diatom fluxes (>80%), an appropriate estimation of their carbon content based on the specific sizes observed in our dataset was required for accurate quantification of 279 their contribution to carbon fluxes. Biomass calculations for both CRS and TRS were 280 determined from >50 randomly selected complete resting spores observed in splits from cups 281 #4 to #11 (December 2011 to May 2012). Morphometric measurements (pervalvar and apical 282 axis) were made using the Fiji image processing package (available at http://fiji.sc/Fiji) on 283 images taken with an Olympus DP71 camera. Cell volumes followed appropriate shape 284 designated calculations from Hillebrand et al. (1999) (Table 2). The cell volume coefficient of 285 variation was 46 % and 54 % for CRS and TRS, respectively. CRS carbon content was 286 estimated from the derived cell volume using the volume to carbon relationship of 0.039 287 pmolC µm<sup>-3</sup> established from the resting spore of *Chaetoceros pseudocurvisetus* (Kuwata et 288 al., 1993), leading to a mean  $Cell_C$  value of 227 pgC cell<sup>-1</sup> (Table 2). There is currently no 289

volume to carbon relationship for *Thalassiosira antarctica* resting spores described in the literature, therefore, the allometric relationship for vegetative diatoms (Menden-Deuer and Lessard, 2000) was used to calculate our TRS carbon content, giving a mean *Cell<sub>C</sub>* value of 1428 pgC cell<sup>-1</sup> (Table 2). Full diatom fluxes were converted to carbon fluxes as follows:

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$$C flux_{(x)} = \frac{Flux_{(x)} \times Cell_{C(x)}}{M_{12}C \times 10^9}$$
 (3)

where  $C flux_{(x)}$  is the carbon flux carried by each diatom species x (mmol C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>),  $Flux_{(x)}$  is the full cell numerical flux of species x (cell m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>),  $Cell_{C(x)}$  is the carbon content of species x(pgC cell<sup>-1</sup>) and  $M_{12C}$  is the molecular weight of <sup>12</sup>C (12 g mol<sup>-1</sup>) and  $10^9$  is a conversion factor from pmol to mmol.

# 299 **2.3 Faecal pellet composition and fluxes**

To enumerate faecal pellets an entire 1/8 aliquot of each sample cup was placed in a gridded petri dish and observed under a stereomicroscope (Zeiss Discovery V20) coupled to a camera (Zeiss Axiocam ERc5s) at 10x magnification. Photographic images (2560 x 1920 pixels, 3.49  $\mu$ m pixel<sup>-1</sup>) covering the entire surface of the petri dish were acquired. Following Wilson et al. (2013), faecal pellets were classified into five types according to their shape: spherical, ovoid, cylindrical, ellipsoid and tabular. The flux of each faecal pellet class (nb m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) was calculated as follows:

307 Faecal pellet 
$$flux = N_{FP} \times 8 \times \frac{1}{0.125} \times \frac{1}{days}$$
 (4)

where  $N_{FP}$  is the number of pellets within each class observed in the 1/8<sup>th</sup> aliquot. The other constants are as described in Eq. (1). Individual measurements of the major and minor axis for each faecal pellet were performed with the Fiji software. The total number of spherical, ovoid, cylindrical, ellipsoid and tabular faecal pellets measured was 4041, 2047, 1338, 54 and 29,

respectively. Using these dimensions, faecal pellet volume was determined using the 312 appropriate shape equation (e.g. sphere, ellipse, cylinder, ovoid/ellipse) and converted to 313 carbon using a factor of 0.036 mgC mm<sup>-3</sup> (Gonzalez and Smetacek, 1994). Due to the 314 irregularity of the tabular shapes preventing the use of single equation to calculate their 315 volume, a constant value of 119 µgC pellet<sup>-1</sup> representing a midrange value for tabular shapes 316 (Madin, 1982), was applied to tabular faecal pellets (Wilson et al., 2013). This value was 317 appropriate because the observed tabular faecal pellets were within the size range reported in 318 319 Madin (1982). Ranges and mean values of faecal pellet volumes and carbon content are reported in Table 3. Faecal fluff and disaggregated faecal pellets were not considered in these 320 321 calculations because quantitative determination of their volume is difficult. We acknowledge that fragmentation of larger pellets may represent an artifact of the sample splitting procedure. 322 Alternatively, their presence may also result from natural processes within the water column, 323 324 although dedicated sampling techniques (e.g. polyacrylamide gel traps) are required to make this distinction (Ebersbach et al., 2014, 2011; Ebersbach and Trull, 2008; Laurenceau-Cornec 325 326 et al., 2015). Consequently our present quantification of faecal pellet carbon flux should be considered as lower-end estimates. 327

The precision of our calculations depends on the reliability of carbon-volume conversion factors of faecal pellets, which vary widely in the literature, as well as variability in diatom resting spore volumes (Table 2). To constrain the importance of this variability on our quantitative estimation of C flux, we calculated upper and lower error bounds by a constant scaling of the conversion factors ( $\pm$  50 %).

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## 2.4 Statistical analyses

334 Correspondence analysis was performed to summarize the seasonality of diatom export335 assemblages. This approach projects the original variables (here full and empty cells) onto a

few principal axes that concentrate the information of the Chi-squared (Chi<sup>2</sup>) distance between both observations and variables (Legendre and Legendre, 1998). Chi<sup>2</sup> distance is very sensitive to rare events. Consequently, only species with an annual mean flux higher than 10% of the mean annually integrated flux of all the species were retained in the correspondence analysis. This selection was performed separately on full and empty cell fluxes.

Partial least square regression (PLSR) analysis was used to examine the relationships 342 between ecological flux vectors (full and empty diatom cells and faecal pellet fluxes as 343 columns of the X matrix, cups being the rows) and bulk geochemical properties (POC flux, 344 PON flux, BSi flux, POC:PON and BSi:POC molar ratio and columns in the Y matrix) of the 345 exported material. The principle of PLSR is to decompose both the X and Y matrix into their 346 principal components using principal component analysis and then use these principal 347 348 components to regress Y in X (Abdi, 2010). PLSR is capable of modeling response variables 349 from a large set of predictors. The same filter as for the correspondence analysis (full- and 350 empty -cell fluxes >10 % of the total mean flux) was applied.

# 351 **3 Results**

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# **3.1** Chemical composition of the settling material

Time series of the chemical signature of the settling material are presented in Fig. 1 and export fluxes are reported in Table 1. POC and PON fluxes are also reported and discussed in the companion paper (Rembauville et al., 2014). BSi fluxes exhibited the same seasonal pattern as POC fluxes (Fig. 1c) with low fluxes (< 1 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) except during the two intense events (2.60  $\pm$  0.03 and 2.19  $\pm$  0.10 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, mean  $\pm$  standard deviation). LSi fluxes were highest in in spring (>10 µmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> in cups #1 to #4, October to December 2011, Table 1). The contribution of LSi to total particulate Si was 5 % and 10 % respectively

in cups #1 (October/November 2011) and #12 (May to September 2012) and lower than 3 % 360 the remainder of the year. The BSi:POC molar ratio was highest at the beginning of the 361 season (between 2.18  $\pm$  0.19 and 3.46  $\pm$  0.16 in the first three cups from October to December 362 2011, blue line in Fig. 1c) and dropped to  $0.64 \pm 0.06$  in cup #5 (end December 2011), 363 following the first export event. BSi:POC ratios were close in the two export events (1.62  $\pm$ 364 0.05 and 1.49  $\pm$  0.08). The lowest BSi:POC ratio was observed in autumn in cup #11 (0.29  $\pm$ 365 0.01, February to May 2012). Similarly, the opal contribution to total mass flux was highest in 366 spring (70.8 % in cup #2, November 2011) and lowest in autumn (21.5 % in cup #11, 367 February to May 2012). 368

369 **3.2 Diatom fluxes** 

Diatoms from 33 taxa were identified and their fluxes determined across the 11-months time series. Fluxes are reported in Table 4 and Table 5 for full and empty cells, respectively. Full and empty cell fluxes for the total community and for the taxa that are the major contributors to total diatom flux (eight taxa that account for >1 % of total cells annual export) are presented in Fig. 2. The full and empty cell fluxes for each diatom species or taxa are reported in Table 4 and 5, respectively.

During spring (cups #1 to #3, October to December 2011) and autumn/winter (cups 376 #11 and #12. February to September 2012) the total flux of full cells was  $< 5 \times 10^6$  cells m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-</sup> 377 <sup>1</sup> (Fig. 2a). The total flux of full cells increased to 5.5 and  $9.5 \times 10^7$  cells m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> (cups #4 and 378 #9, December and end January respectively) during two episodic (<14 days) sedimentation 379 events. The two largest flux events (cups #4 and #9) were also associated with significant 380 export of empty cells with respectively  $6.1 \times 10^7$  and  $2.9 \times 10^7$  cells m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 2a). For 381 *Chaetoceros Hyalochaete* spp. resting spores (CRS), full cells fluxes of  $4 \times 10^7$  cells m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> 382 and  $7.8 \times 10^7$  cells m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> accounted for 76 % and 83 % of the total full cell flux during these 383

two events, respectively (Fig. 2b), whereas a smaller contribution of *Thalassiosira antarctica* 384 resting spores (TRS) ( $2.7 \times 10^6$  cells m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, 5 % of total full cells) was observed during the 385 first event (Fig. 2h). CRS also dominated (79-94 %) the composition of full cells in the 386 intervening period (cups #5-#8, December 2011 to January 2012), although the magnitude of 387 cell flux was moderate ( $9 \times 10^6 - 2.5 \times 10^7$  cells m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) by comparison (Fig. 2b). In cup #4 388 (December 2011), the empty cell flux contained 61 % of C. Hyalochaete spp. vegetative 389 empty cells and 27 % of unidentified Small centrics (<20 µm) empty cells. In cup #9 (end 390 January 2012), the total empty cells flux contained 60 % of C. Hyalochaete spp. vegetative 391 stage and only 2 % of Small centrics (<20 µm) empty cells. 392

Fragilariopsis kerguelensis, and Fragilariopsis separanda/rhombica (Fig. 2d and 2e) 393 were mostly exported from spring through the end of summer (cups #1 to #10, October 2011 394 to February 2012) with total (full + empty) fluxes  $< 3 \times 10^6$  cells m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, a value ~20 times 395 lower than the highest CRS fluxes recorded. During this time, these species were represented 396 by >50 % of empty cells. In autumn and winter, (cups #10 and #11, February to May 2012), 397 these species were only represented by low fluxes ( $< 0.5 \times 10^{-6}$  cells m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) of empty cells. 398 Thalassionema nitzschioides spp. fluxes were highest in spring and early summer (cups #1 to 399 #4, October to December 2011) with total fluxes comprised between  $3.5 \times 10^6$  and  $6.7 \times 10^6$ 400 cells m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 2g). The remainder of the year, total flux was  $< 2 \times 10^6$  cells m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> and was 401 essentially represented by full cells. Pseudo-nitzschia spp. were mostly represented by full 402 cells (Fig. 2f) with the highest flux of  $1.2 \times 10^7$  cells m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> observed in the second intense 403 export event (cup #9, end January 2012). Eucampia antarctica var. antarctica total fluxes 404 were always represented by >50 % of full cells (Fig. 2c). Total cell fluxes of Eucampia 405 antarctica var. antarctica gradually increased from  $<1 \times 10^5$  to  $1.3 \times 10^6$  cells m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> from 406 spring to summer (cups #1 to #9, October 2011 to January 2012) and then decreased to a 407 negligible flux in winter (cup #12, May to September 2012). This species was observed as 408

both the lightly silicified, chain-forming, vegetative form and the highly silicified winter growth stage form. Both forms were observed throughout the year without specific seasonal pattern. Small centric species (<20  $\mu$ m) were essentially represented by empty cells (Fig. 2i). Their total fluxes were <4 × 10<sup>6</sup> cells m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, except in the first export event (cup #4, December 2011) where their flux represented a considerable export of 1.7 × 10<sup>7</sup> cells m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>.

Diatoms and sampling cup projection on the first two axes from the correspondence 414 analysis is presented in Fig. 3. Chi<sup>2</sup> distance in the correspondence analysis is based on 415 frequency distribution, therefore the results of the analysis must be considered as 416 representative of the community composition as opposed to cell flux. The first two factors 417 accounted for the majority (75.6 %) of total explained variance. Early in the season (cups #1-418 419 #3, October to mid-December 2011), during the period of biomass accumulation in the surface (Fig 1a), diatom fluxes were characterized by empty cells of T. nitzschioides spp. and 420 F. kerguelensis. Full TRS cells were observed in cup #3 (end November 2011) following the 421 422 initial bloom decline. The first major flux event (cup #4, December 2011) contained mostly TRS, empty Small centrics ( $< 20 \,\mu$ m) cells and empty C. Hyalochaete spp. cells. The summer 423 flux period (cups #5 to #8, December 2011 to January 2012) primarily consisted of CRS, 424 although E. antarctica var. antarctica, Pseudo-nitzschia spp, and Thalassiothrix antarctica 425 were present as full cells and Plagiotropis spp., Membraneis spp., Pseudo-nitzschia spp. as 426 empty cells. The second major flux event (cup #9, end January 2012) was tightly associated 427 with CRS and full Pseudo-nitzschia spp. cells. Subsequent cups (#10 and #11, February to 428 May 2012) were characterized by full cells of E. antarctica var. antarctica and Thalassiotrix 429 430 antarctica and empty cells of Corethron inerme, P. alata, F. separanda/rhombica and F. kerguelensis. Winter fluxes (cup #12, May to September 2012) were similar to the initial three 431 cups characterized primarily by empty cells of small diatom taxa. The centralized projection 432

in Fig. 3 of full *F. kerguelensis* and *T. nitzschioides* spp. highlights their constant presence
throughout the annual record.

The total empty: full cell ratio is presented in Fig. 2a (blue line). This ratio was highest 435 in spring and early summer (cups #1 to #4, October to December 2011), ranging between 1.1 436 and 2.4, suggesting more empty cells to full cells. The ratio was lowest, representing 437 considerably more full cells to empty cells in cups #5 to #10 (December 2011 to February 438 2012) with values between 0.1 and 0.4. In autumn (cup #11, February to May 2012), the 439 empty:full ratio increased to 0.7. In the winter cup #12 (May to September 2012), the total 440 amount of full diatom cells was very low and therefore we could not calculate a robust 441 empty:full ratio. Across the time-series certain diatom taxa were observed exclusively as 442 443 empty cells, notably Chaetoceros atlanticus f. bulbosum, and Corethron pennatum. For diatom taxa present as full and empty cells we calculated an annually integrated empty:full 444 ratio (Fig. 4) and arbitrarily defined threshold values of 2 (representing species mainly 445 446 observed as empty cells) and 0.5 (representing species mainly observed as full cells), respectively. In decreasing order, the diatom taxa exhibiting empty:full ratios >2 were 447 Thalassiosira lentiginosa, Small centrics (<20 µm), Proboscia alata, Rhizosolenia 448 antennata/styliformis, Chaetoceros decipiens, Corethron inerme, Dactyliosolen antarcticus, 449 Large centrics (>20 µm), and Asteromphalus spp. The diatom taxa displaying an empty:full 450 ratio <0.5 were Thalassiothrix antarctica, Rhizosolenia simplex, CRS, Eucampia antarctica 451 var. antarctica, Thalassiosira spp. and Navicula spp. Species or grouped taxa with ratio 452 values falling between the thresholds <2 and >0.5 (*R. chunii*, through to *C. dichaeta* in Fig. 4) 453 454 were perceived as being almost equally represented by full and empty cells when integrated annually across the time series. 455

456 **3.3 Faecal pellet fluxes** 

The seasonal flux of faecal pellet type, volume and their estimated carbon flux are 457 summarized in Fig. 5 and Table 6. Total faecal pellet flux was  $<2 \times 10^3$  pellets m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> in 458 spring (cups #1 to #3, October to December 2011). Cups #4 and #5 (December 2011) were 459 characterized by the highest fluxes of  $21.8 \times 10^3$  and  $5.1 \times 10^3$  pellets m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 5a, Table 460 6). Faecal pellet numerical flux decreased gradually from mid-summer (cup #5, December 461 2011) to reach a minimal value in winter (140 pellets m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> in cup #12, May to September 462 2012). In spring (cups #1 to #3, October to December 2011), spherical and cylindrical shapes 463 dominated the numerical faecal pellet fluxes. Ellipsoid and tabular shapes were absent from 464 these spring cups. The first export event (cup #4, December 2011), was numerically 465 dominated by the spherical shaped pellets, however the remainder of the summer (cups #5 to 466 #10, December 2011 to February 2012) contained spherical, ovoid and cylindrical shapes in 467 comparable proportions. Ellipsoid shapes were observed from mid-summer to autumn (cups 468 #7 to #11, January to May 2012) but their overall contribution to pellet flux was low (<6 %, 469 470 Table 6). Rare tabular shapes were observed in summer (cups #6 and #8, December and 471 January 2012) and their contribution to numerical fluxes was highest in autumn and winter (cups #11 and #12, February to September 2012). 472

The median faecal pellet volume showed a seasonal signal with a maximum peak >5.5  $\times 10^{6} \ \mu m^{3}$  in mid-summer (cups # 6 to #8, mid-December to January 2012) and values <4 ×  $10^{6} \ \mu m^{3}$  the remainder of the year (Fig. 5b). Concomitantly with the highest median volume, the largest variance in faecal pellet size was also observed in the summer (highest interquartile values in Fig. 5b).

Total faecal pellet carbon flux was lowest in spring (<0.05 mmolC m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> in cups #1 to #3, October to December 2011, Fig. 5c, Table 6). The highest total faecal pellet carbon flux of nearly 0.5 mmolC m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> was observed during the first export event in cup #4 (December 2011) and was essentially composed of spherical shapes (83 %, Table 6). For the remainder of the summer (cups #5 to #10, December 2011 to February 2012), total faecal pellet carbon flux was between 0.03 and 0.15 mmolC m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> with a dominant contribution of cylindrical, ellipsoid and tabular shapes. In autumn and winter (cups #11 and #12, February to September 2012), faecal pellet carbon fluxes of 0.13 and 0.06 mmolC m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> were strictly dominated by tabular shapes (>90 % to total faecal pellet carbon fluxes, Table 6).

487

# 3.4 Statistical analysis of biological and biogeochemical signatures

The  $\beta$  correlation coefficients of standardized variables obtained from the PLSR 488 analysis are presented as a heatmap in Fig. 6. The full cell fluxes of all diatom taxa, in 489 addition to spherical and ovoid and ellipsoid faecal pellet fluxes were positively correlated to 490 POC and PON fluxes. By contrast, empty cell fluxes of F. kerguelensis, P. alata, T. 491 nitzschioides spp., T. lentiginosa and cyclindrical, ellipsoid and tabular pellet fluxes were 492 493 either uncorrelated or negatively correlated with POC and PON fluxes. Full- and empty-cell fluxes of all diatom taxa were positively correlated with BSi fluxes, although this correlation 494 was notably weak for empty cells of C. inerme, P. alata and T. lentiginosa. Only spherical 495 and ovoid faecal pellets were positively correlated with BSi fluxes. Full cells fluxes of CRS 496 and E. antarctica var. antarctica were the most negatively correlated with BSi:POC molar 497 ratio, whereas TRS, F. kerguelensis, T. nitzschioides spp. and T. lentiginosa full cells fluxes 498 were positively correlated. Spherical and ovoid faecal pellets were weakly and negatively 499 correlated with the BSi:POC molar ratio whereas the cylindrical, ellipsoid and tabular shapes 500 were more strongly negatively correlated to the BSi:POC molar ratio. All the biological 501 components exhibited weak or no correlations to the POC:PON molar ratio. 502

The first two latent vectors of the PLSR accounted for 61.3 % and 74.1 % of cumulative variance in X (full and empty diatom and pellet fluxes) and Y (biogeochemical properties). In order to visualize how the seasonal succession of flux vectors was related to

the bulk geochemical properties of particles, the sampling cups, biological and chemical 506 factors were projected on the first two latent factors of the PLSR analysis (Fig. 7). Positively 507 projected on the first axis are the POC, PON and BSi fluxes, close to the export events 508 sampled in cups #4 (December 2011) and #9 (end January 2012). The closest biological 509 components comprise a complex assemblage of full and empty cells and spherical and ovoid 510 faecal pellet shapes. All the other cups are projected far from these two export events. The 511 second axis opposes the spring cups (#1 to #3, October to mid-December 2011) to the autumn 512 (#11, February to May 2012) and winter (#12, May to September 2012) cups. Empty frustules 513 of F. kerguelensis, T. lentiginosa and T. nitzschioides spp. are projected close to the spring 514 515 cups (#1 to #3, October to mid-December 2011) together with the BSi:POC molar ratio whereas autumn (#11, February to May 2012) and winter cups (#12, May to September 2012) 516 are projected far from the BSi:POC molar ratio and close to the tabular and cylindrical faecal 517 518 pellet shapes.

#### 519

# 3.5 Partitioning carbon fluxes among ecological vectors

We estimated the contribution of resting spores and faecal pellets to carbon flux, calculated 520 their cumulative values and compared them to measured values (Fig. 8a and 8b). A highly 521 significant correlation (Spearman rank correlation, n= 36,  $\rho = 0.84$ , p <0.001) was evident 522 between calculated and measured carbon flux suggesting that the main ecological flux vectors 523 524 observed in the sample were capable of explaining the seasonal variation in total POC flux. 525 Table 7 lists the contribution of each vector to the calculated flux. In cup #1 (October to mid-526 November 2011), CRS and other diatoms dominated the calculated POC fluxes, with respectively 25.3 % and 38.6 %. Diatoms other than spores dominated the calculated carbon 527 528 flux (35.4 %) together with cylindrical faecal pellets (36.4 %) in cup #2 (November 2011). TRS dominated the POC fluxes (85.1 %) in cup #3 (November/December 2011). CRS strictly 529 dominated the calculated POC fluxes in summer (cups #4 to #10, December 2011 to February 530

531 2012) with a contribution ranging from 46.8 % to 88.1 %. During the autumn and winter 532 (cups #11 and #12, February to September 2012), POC fluxes were almost exclusively 533 associated to tabular faecal pellets, 81 % and 93.3 %, respectively. At annual scale diatoms 534 resting spores (CRS and TRS), other diatoms and faecal pellets respectively accounted for 535 60.7 %, 5 % and 34.3 % of the calculated POC fluxes. Annual POC fluxes estimated from 536 ecological vectors considered here were slightly less than measured values (93.1 versus 98.2 537 mmol m<sup>-2</sup>).

538 4 Discussion

#### 539

# 4.1 The significance of resting spores for POC flux

Generally POC fluxes were  $<0.5 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  with the notable exception of two pulsed (<14 540 days) export events of ~1.5 mmol  $m^{-2} d^{-1}$  that accounted for ~40 % of annual POC export. 541 These two flux events were characterized by a noticeable increase and general dominance of 542 543 diatom resting spores. During both of these pulsed export events, cumulative Chaetoceros Hyalochaete spp. resting spores (CRS) and Thalassiosira antarctica resting spores (TRS) 544 fluxes accounted for 66 % and 88 % of the measured POC flux, whereas total faecal pellet 545 546 flux accounted for 29 % and 5.2 %, respectively (Table 7). The combination of CRS and TRS were responsible for 60.7 % of the annual calculated POC flux, a value ten times higher than 547 the contribution of other diatoms (5 %). We did not observe any full cells of the vegetative 548 stage of Chaetoceros Hyalochaete, a feature possibly related to its high susceptibility to 549 grazing pressure in the mixed layer (Smetacek et al., 2004; Quéguiner, 2013; Assmy et al., 550 551 2013). Empty Chaetoceros Hyalochaete spp. cells were vegetative stages different in shape from the resting spores. These empty frustules may be the remnants of vegetative stages 552 following spore formation. Alternatively, dissolution of the lightly silicified valves or girdle 553 554 bands of the vegetative cell could result in the rapid consumption of the cellular organic

material in the upper water column and this may also explain the absence of full vegetative cells in the sediment trap record. Our flux data reveal that small (10 to 30  $\mu$ m) and highly silicified resting spores bypass the intense grazing pressure characterizing the base of the mixed layer, and are the primary mechanism through which carbon and, to a lesser extent silicon, is exported from the surface.

Numerous sediment trap studies have reported a strong contribution, if not dominance, 560 of CRS to diatom fluxes at depth in various oceanographic regions: firstly, in coastal 561 influenced regions (e.g. Antarctic Peninsula (Leventer, 1991), Bransfield Strait (Abelmann 562 and Gersonde, 1991), Gulf of California (Sancetta, 1995), the Omura Bay (Kato et al., 2003), 563 Santa Barbara basin (Lange, 1997), North Pacific Ocean (Chang et al., 2013) and the Artic 564 (Onodera et al., 2014)), secondly in upwelling-influenced regions (Eastern Equatorial Atlantic 565 (Treppke et al., 1996)) and finally in the open ocean in the subarctic Atlantic (Rynearson et 566 567 al., 2013). Similar to sediment trap observations, CRS are reported as dominant in surface sediments of coastal regions (peri-Antarctic shelf and Antarctic sea ice (Crosta et al., 1997; 568 569 Zielinski and Gersonde, 1997; Armand et al., 2005), the North Scotia Sea (Allen et al., 2005) 570 and east of Kerguelen Island (Armand et al., 2008b)), but also in upwelling-influenced regions (the northeastern Pacific (Grimm et al., 1996), the northeast Pacific (Lopes et al., 571 2006)) and finally in the open ocean (the North Atlantic, Bao et al., 2000). Moreover, the 572 annual POC export from the A3 station sediment trap at 289 m (98.2 $\pm$ 4.4 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> v<sup>-1</sup>) falls 573 near annual estimates from deep sediment traps (>2000 m) located in the naturally fertilized 574 area downstream of the Crozet Islands (37-60 and 40-42 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>, Salter et al., 2012) 575 576 where fluxes were considered as mainly driven by resting spores of *Eucampia antarctica* var. antarctica. Diatom resting spores are frequently observed in blooms heavily influenced by the 577 578 proximity of the coast. Major resting spores contribution to carbon fluxes was observed in only one study in the open North Atlantic Ocean (Rynearson et al., 2013), but they are 579

580 generally absent or very rare in open ocean sediment trap studies (Fischer et al., 2002; 581 Grigorov et al., 2014; Rigual-Hernández et al., 2015). The frequent occurrence and 582 widespread distribution of diatoms resting spores in the neritic or coastal-influenced ocean 583 suggest their pivotal role in the efficient transfer of carbon to depth in these areas.

Chaetoceros resting spores have been reported to contain up to 10 times more carbon 584 than the vegetative forms (Kuwata et al., 1993) with no vacuole and high contents of lipids 585 586 and carbohydrates (Doucette and Fryxell, 1983; Kuwata et al., 1993). Moreover, CRS resist grazing and have been found to lower copepods grazing pressure (Kuwata and Tsuda, 2005). 587 We suggest that diatom resting spores gather three essential characteristics for effective POC 588 export to the deep ocean: (1) they efficiently bypass the grazing pressure near the mixed layer 589 590 due to their morphological characteristics such as very robust frustules (CRS) or numerous spines (TRS) (high export efficiency), (2) they are efficiently transferred to depth due to the 591 thick and dense frustule increasing sinking velocity and (3) their high carbon content is 592 593 protected from microbial degradation by the thick frustules (these last two points result in a high transfer efficiency). The spatial distribution and formation of resting spores may 594 595 therefore be an integral ecological component defining the strength and efficiency of the biological pump in specific regions. Nutrient depletion has been shown to trigger resting spore 596 formation in Chaetoceros Hyalochaete laboratory cultures (Garrison, 1981; Sanders and 597 Cibik, 1985; Kuwata et al., 1993; Oku and Kamatani, 1997) over relatively rapid timescales 598 (6 to 48 h, McQuoid and Hobson, 1996). Although Si(OH)<sub>4</sub> depletion appears to be the most 599 likely biogeochemical trigger at the Kerguelen Plateau (from 24 µmol L<sup>-1</sup> in early spring to 2 600  $\mu$ mol L<sup>-1</sup> in summer, (Mosseri et al., 2008; Closset et al., 2014)), other environmental factors 601 (iron or light availability) could influence resting spore formation. Notably, dissolved iron 602 concentration in the mixed layer rapidly decreases to  $0.1 \sim 0.2$  nmol L<sup>-1</sup> after the beginning of 603 604 the spring bloom at A3, however the vertical entrainment is much weaker in summer

compared to spring (Bowie et al., 2014). Rynearson et al. (2013) reported the absence of spores in the mixed layer despite a strict dominance of the trap samples. Resting spore formation at some depth below the summer mixed layer (possibly implying a light control) could explain the temporal decoupling between the surface production tracked by the satellite in the surface layer (first ~20 meters) and the export events. Further work to establish seasonal dynamics of factors linked to diatom life cycles and specifically the formation of resting spore is necessary.

612

# 4.2 Contribution of faecal pellets to POC flux

Although diatom resting spores are the primary vector for POC flux below the mixed 613 layer, faecal pellets were also important and accounted for 34.3 % of annual export. It has 614 615 been hypothesized that faecal pellets are the dominant flux component in High Biomass, Low 616 Export (HBLE) environments, where biomass is routed to higher trophic levels (Lam and Bishop, 2007; Ebersbach et al., 2011). However, this hypothesis does not appear to be true for 617 the bloom of the central Kerguelen Plateau suggesting that faecal material is efficiently 618 reprocessed in the mixed layer, or that a significant part of the pellet flux is excreted below 619 the trap depth by vertically migrating zooplankton. Small spherical faecal pellets dominated 620 the annual numerical faecal pellet flux (53.8 %, Table 6). The short and intense export of 621 small spherical faecal pellets was concomitant with the first strong POC export in cup #4 622 (December 2011, Table 6). The significance of small spherical faecal pellets to POC flux is 623 624 somewhat uncharacteristic in comparison to other sediment trap records in shallow areas of 625 the Southern Ocean (Schnack-Schiel and Isla, 2005). They are possibly produced by small cyclopoid copepods, like Oithona similis that are abundant in the POOZ (Fransz and 626 627 Gonzalez, 1995; Pinkerton et al., 2010). More specifically, O. similis represents >50 % of mesozooplankton abundance at A3 in spring (Carlotti et al., 2015) has been observed at 628 station A3 in summer (Carlotti et al., 2008). Oithona species are known to be coprophagous 629

and play an important role in flux reprocessing (Gonzalez and Smetacek, 1994), which may partially contribute to the rapid flux attenuation observed by efficiently retaining carbon in the mixed layer. This reprocessing feeding strategy might also explain the low faecal pellet flux we observed (highest value of  $21.8 \times 10^3$  pellet m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>), which was two orders of magnitude lower than the  $>5 \times 10^5$  pellet m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> observed in neritic areas where euphausiids dominate the mesozooplankton community (Bodungen, 1986; von Bodungen et al., 1987; Wefer et al., 1988).

637 There were notable differences in faecal pellet types over the course of the season. The transition from spherical and ovoid pellets in spring to larger cylindrical and tabular pellets in 638 summer presumably reflects shifts in dominant zooplankton species from small cyclopoid 639 640 copepods towards larger calanoid copepods, euphausiids and salps (e.g. Wilson et al., 2013). Carlotti et al. (2015) report that mesozooplankton biomass doubled between October and 641 November 2011 and was three-fold higher in January 2005 (Carlotti et al., 2008). In spring, 642 643 Carlotti et al. (2015) observed that the small size fraction  $(300 - 500 \mu m)$  was numerically dominated by Oithona similis (50 % of the total mesozooplankton assemblage), although the 644 larger size fractions dominated the mesozooplankton biomass (dominated by Clausocalanus 645 citer, and Rhicalanus gigas). This is consistent with the dominance of small spherical faecal 646 pellets and the lower contribution of cylindrical shapes we observed in spring and early 647 summer (cups #1 to #4, October to December 2011, Table 6). In summer (January 2005), the 648 mesozooplankton community was more diversified and comprised 21 % of small individuals 649 (Oithona sp and Oncea sp.), 20 % of medium-sized individuals (Clausocalanus sp and 650 651 Microcalanus sp.) and 21 % of large individuals (Calanus sp., Metrida sp., Paraeuchaeta sp., Pleuromama sp. and Rhincalanus sp.; Carlotti et al., 2008). As the median size of faecal 652 pellets increases, so does their relative contribution to carbon flux (Fig. 5b and 5d, Table 6). 653 654 Our observation of an increasing contribution of cylindrical faecal pellet shapes in summer

(cups #5 to #10, December 2011 to February 2012, Table 6) is consistent with the increasing 655 contribution of large calanoid copepods to the mesozooplankton assemblages. We note that 656 pteropods showed the highest contribution to mesozooplankton assemblages at station A3 in 657 summer (16 % of total abundance, Carlotti et al., 2008). We associate this observation with 658 the large ellipsoid faecal pellet shape that was first observed in the sediment trap in cup #5 659 (end December 2011) and represented the highest contribution to faecal pellet carbon fluxes 660 in cup #9 (January/February 2012, Table 7). Tabular faecal pellets dominated the low POC 661 fluxes observed in the autumn and winter when chlorophyll a concentration was reduced to 662 background levels, although this interpretation should be taken with caution since a constant 663 and high carbon content was used for this shape. The increase in organic carbon content and 664 negative correlation between the abundance of cylindrical, ellipsoid and tabular faecal pellets 665 fluxes and the BSi:POC molar ratio suggests that large zooplankton producing these tabular 666 667 pellets (large copepods, euphausiids and salps) were not feeding directly on diatoms. During the autumn and winter, microbial components other than diatoms must sustain the production 668 of these large zooplankton. Direct observation of faecal pellet content is beyond the scope of 669 670 the present study but would help to elucidate how seasonal trends of zooplankton feeding ecology influence carbon and biomineral export. Moreover, dedicated studies are still needed 671 672 to document the seasonal dynamic of euphausiid and salp abundances over the Kerguelen Plateau to compare them with our reported faecal pellet fluxes. 673

674

# 4.3 Diatom fluxes

The diatom fluxes (sum of empty and full cells) observed at the central Kerguelen Plateau reached their maximum value of  $1.2 \times 10^8$  cells m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> during the two short export events, which is equivalent to  $2.4 \times 10^8$  valves m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>. This latter value falls between the highest values observed in POOZ (~10<sup>7</sup> valves m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> Abelmann and Gersonde, 1991; Salter et al., 2012; Grigorov et al., 2014) and the SIZ (>10<sup>9</sup> valves m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, Suzuki et al., 2001;

Pilskaln et al., 2004). The diatom fluxes over the Kerguelen plateau are similar to the 2.5 - 3.5 680  $\times$  10<sup>8</sup> valves m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> measured at 200 m depth in a coastal station of the Antarctic Peninsula, 681 where CRS represented ~80 % of the phytoplankton assemblage (Leventer, 1991). Previous 682 683 studies report the presence of a resting spore formation strategy in diatom species as typically associated with neritic areas (Smetacek, 1985; Crosta et al., 1997; Salter et al., 2012). During 684 the summer KEOPS1 cruise, a shift in plankton community composition was observed at 685 station A3 between January and February. The surface community initially dominated by 686 Chaetoceros Hyalochaete vegetative chains gave way to one dominated by Eucampia 687 antarctica var. antarctica, concomitant with increasing CRS abundance in the mixed layer 688 (Armand et al., 2008a). The abundance of dead cells (within chains or as empty single cells 689 and half cells) in the surface water column also increased from January to February, 690 suggesting intense heterotrophic activity. Surface sediments at station A3 contain, in 691 692 decreasing abundance, F. kerguelensis, CRS and T. nitzschioides spp. cells (Armand et al., 2008b). These sedimentary distributions are consistent with the dominant species observed in 693 694 the sediment trap, F. kerguelensis and T. nitzschioides spp. being present throughout the year 695 and mostly represented by empty cells whereas CRS are exported during short and intense events. 696

Eucampia antarctica var. antarctica resting spores dominated the deep (2000 m) 697 sediment trap diatom assemblages in the naturally fertilized area close to the Crozet Islands 698 with fluxes >  $10^7$  cells m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> (Salter et al., 2012). We observed highest *Eucampia antarctica* 699 var. antarctica full cells fluxes of  $\sim 10^6$  cells m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> in summer, which represents <10 % of the 700 701 total cell flux. Both vegetative and resting stages were observed. Our results suggest that *Eucampia antarctica* var. *antarctica* is unlikely to be a major driving vector for carbon fluxes 702 to depth over the central Kerguelen Plateau, in part because the community was not forming 703 704 massive highly-silicified, fast-sinking resting spores contrary to observations near the Crozet

Islands. Moreover their biogeographic abundance distribution from sea floor observations 705 suggests they are not dominant in this region of the plateau (Armand et al., 2008b). The iron-706 fertilized Crozet bloom is north of the Polar Front and dissolved Si(OH)<sub>4</sub> concentrations were 707 depleted to 0.2  $\mu$ mol L<sup>-1</sup> (Salter et al., 2007) compared to ~2  $\mu$ mol L<sup>-1</sup> on the Kerguelen 708 Plateau (Mosseri et al., 2008). It is possible, along with differences in iron dynamics between 709 the two plateaus, that differences in nutrient stoichiometry favour bloom dynamics and resting 710 711 spore formation of *Chaetoceros Hyalochaete* populations surrounding the Kerguelen Islands. 712 Nevertheless, the increasing full cell flux of *Eucampia antarctica* var. antarctica from spring to summer in the sediment trap time series is consistent with the observations of an increasing 713 714 abundance in the mixed layer at the station A3 in summer (Armand et al., 2008a).

715 Highest Pseudo-nitzschia spp. full cell fluxes were observed in summer, concomitantly with the second export peak (cup #9, end January 2012). Pseudo-nitzschia 716 species are rarely found in deep sediment trap studies and are absent from sediment diatom 717 718 assemblages, presumably due to their susceptibility to water column dissolution (Grigorov et al., 2014; Rigual-Hernández et al., 2015). The species Pseudo-nitzschia hemii has been 719 reported to accumulate in summer in deep chlorophyll maximum in the Polar Frontal Zone 720 (Kopczynska et al., 2001). Such deep biomass accumulation is hypothesized to benefit from 721 nutrient diffusion through the pycnocline (Parslow et al., 2001). These general observations 722 are consistent with the peaks in Pseudo-nitzschia spp. fluxes we report in summer over the 723 Kerguelen Plateau. 724

Although their fluxes were very low, species of the *Rhizosolenia* and *Proboscia* genera were mostly exported as empty cells at the end of summer and during autumn (cups #8 to #11, end January to May 2012), occurring in parallel with the full cell fluxes of the giant diatom *Thalassiothrix antarctica* (Table 4). It has been suggested that these species belong to a group of "deep shade flora" that accumulate at the subsurface chlorophyll maxima in

summer with their large frustules protecting them from grazing pressure in stratified waters 730 (Kemp and Villareal, 2013). Interestingly these species were also found in deep sediment 731 traps located in a HNLC area south of the Crozet Plateau (Salter et al., 2012), as well as in 732 733 subsurface chlorophyll maximum in HNLC waters of the Southern Ocean (Parslow et al., 2001; Holm-Hansen et al., 2004; Gomi et al., 2010). A subsurface chlorophyll maximum has 734 previously been observed at 120 m on the Kerguelen Plateau (also station A3) during summer 735 736 (Uitz et al., 2009) and appears to correspond to an accumulation of particles consisting of 737 aggregates of large diatom species (Jouandet et al., 2011). The fact that Rhizosolenia spp. and Proboscia spp. were observed as empty cells whereas Thalassiothrix antarctica was mostly 738 represented by full cells suggest species-specific grazing on these communities. There appears 739 to be ecological differentiation within the "deep shade flora" that precludes describing a 740 single effect on export stoichiometry. Moreover, on the Kerguelen Plateau, these species are 741 742 not exported in "massive" proportions as the fall-dump hypothesis suggests (Kemp et al., 2000). The physical and biogeochemical factors responsible for their production and export 743 744 are still to be determined, and should be investigated thoroughly given the potential 745 importance that these species might have for export fluxes on a global scale (Kemp et al., 2000; Richardson et al., 2000; Kemp and Villareal, 2013). 746

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# 4.4 Preferential carbon and silica sinkers

Unlike most previous sediment trap studies in the Southern Ocean, we used a counting technique that facilitated the identification of carbon and siliceous components of exported material. Although we lost a small degree of taxonomic resolution with this approach (see methods), it allowed us to avoid unnecessary assumptions concerning carbon content of exported diatoms and directly constrain the role of different species for carbon and silica export.

The annual BSi:POC ratio of the exported material (1.16) is much higher than the 754 755 usual ratio proposed for marine diatoms of 0.13 (Brzezinski, 1985). Moreover, the BSi:POC ratio of the exported material in spring (2.1 to 3.4, cups #1 to #3, October to mid-December 756 2011) is significantly higher than the BSi:POC ratio of 0.3 to 0.7 in the mixed layer of the 757 same station during spring (Lasbleiz et al., 2014; Trull et al., 2015). Numerous chemical, 758 physical, biological and ecological factors can impact BSi:POC ratios of marine diatoms (e.g. 759 Ragueneau et al., 2006). However, the ten-fold differences in BSi:POC ratios of exported 760 761 particles between spring and summer is unlikely to result only from physiological constraints set during diatoms growth (Hutchins and Bruland, 1998; Takeda, 1998). Previous 762 763 comparisons in natural and artificially iron-fertilized settings have the highlighted importance of diatom community structure for carbon and silica export (Smetacek et al., 2004; Salter et 764 al., 2012; Quéguiner, 2013; Assmy et al., 2013). The presence of different diatom species and 765 766 their characteristic traits (e. g. susceptibility to grazing, apoptosis, viral lysis) are all likely to influence the flux of full and empty cells. Therefore, the net BSi:POC export ratio results 767 768 from the net effect of species specific Si:C composition (Sackett et al., 2014) and the 769 subsequent species-specific mortality pathway and dissolution. A significant correlation between BSi:POC and empty:full cells ratio (Spearman rank correlation, n = 12,  $\rho = 0.78$ , p < 0.78, p < 0.7770 771 0.05) suggests the latter acts as a first order control on the silicon and organic carbon export 772 stoichiometry. Differences in BSi:POC ratios between the mixed layer suspended particle stock and particles exported out of the mixed layer may be explained by the dominant 773 sedimentation of empty diatom frustules that results from the grazing pressure by the 774 zooplankton community and the intense carbon utilization by heterotrophic microbial 775 communities (Christaki et al., 2014). 776

777 We classified species that were observed exclusively as empty cells, or sinking with an 778 integrated empty:full ratio >2, as predominantly silica exporters and these included: C.

bulbosum, C. pennatum, P. truncata, R. antennata/styliformis, A. hookeri, A. hyalinus, C. 779 decipiens, C. inerme, D. antarcticus, P. alata, T. nitzschioides spp., T. lentiginosa, and small 780 centric species (< 20 µm). Although F. kerguelensis, T. nitzschoides spp. and T. lentiginosa 781 782 were present through the entire season, their fluxes were highly correlated with BSi:POC ratios (Fig. 6) identifying these species as significant contributors to silica export. On the 783 contrary resting spores and species that sink with a major contribution of full cells (integrated 784 785 empty: full ratio <0.5) were identified as belonging to the preferential carbon sinkers: C. Hyalochaete spp., E. antarctica var. antarctica, R. simplex and Thalassiothrix antarctica. 786 Among them, CRS and E. antarctica var. antarctica were the most negatively correlated to 787 the BSi:POC ratio and were identified as key species for carbon export (Fig. 6). These 788 observations are consistent with a previous study of natural iron fertilization that identified C. 789 pennatum, D. antarcticus and F. kerguelensis as major silica sinkers and CRS and E. 790 791 antarctica var. antarctica resting spores as major carbon sinkers downstream of the Crozet 792 islands (Salter et al., 2012). During the EIFEX artificial fertilization experiment C. 793 Hyalochaete vegetative stages were identified as a major carbon sinker whereas F. 794 kerguelensis was considered as a strong silica sinker (Assmy et al., 2013). Notably, resting spore formation was not observed in the artificial experiment performed in the open ocean 795 796 remote from coastal influence, and carbon export was attributed to mass mortality and 797 aggregation of algal cells (Assmy et al., 2013). Nevertheless, a more detailed analysis of species-specific carbon and silica content in the exported material is necessary to fully 798 elucidate their respective roles on carbon and silica export. 799

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## 4.5 Seasonal succession of ecological flux vectors over the Kerguelen Plateau

Although sediment trap records integrate cumulative processes of production in the mixed layer and selective losses during export, they provide a unique insight into the temporal succession of plankton functional types and resultant geochemical properties of exported

particles characterizing the biological pump. The seasonal cycle of ecological vectors and 804 associated export stoichiometry is summarized in Figure 7. The robustness of the relationship 805 between measured and calculated POC fluxes (Fig. 8b) suggests that the main ecological flux 806 vectors described from the samples are capable of predicting seasonal patterns of total POC 807 fluxes. At an annual scale the calculated POC fluxes slightly underestimate the measured 808 fluxes (93.1 versus 98.2 mmol m<sup>-2</sup>). This might results from the minor contribution of full 809 cells other than the diatoms species considered, aggregated material, organic matter sorbed to 810 the exterior of empty cells and faecal fluff that was difficult to enumerate. 811

A scheme of phytoplankton and zooplankton communities succession in naturally-812 fertilized areas of the Southern Ocean was proposed by Quéguiner (2013). Spring 813 814 phytoplankton communities are characterized by small, lightly silicified, fast growing diatoms associated with small microphageous copepods. In summer, the phytoplankton community 815 816 progressively switches toward large, highly silicified, slow growing diatoms resistant to 817 grazing by large copepods. In this scheme carbon export occurs mostly in end summer through the fall dump. The species succession directly observed in our sediment trap samples 818 differs somewhat to the conceptual model proposed by Quéguiner (2013), although the 819 general patterns are similar. The diatom species exported in spring were F. kerguelensis, T. 820 nitzschioides spp., and small centric species (<20 µm), whilst in summer the comparatively 821 822 very large (>200 µm) species of Proboscia sp., Rhizosolenia sp. and Thalassiothrix antarctica were observed. However we observe that these species constituting the spring fluxes are 823 824 exported almost exclusively as empty cells. The abundance of small spherical and ovoid 825 faecal pellet suggests an important role of small copepods in the zooplankton (Yoon et al., 2001; Wilson et al., 2013), which was corroborated by the finding of dominant Oithona 826 similis abundances in the spring mesozooplankton assemblages at station A3 (Carlotti et al., 827 828 2015). Therefore, our data suggests that spring export captured by the sediment trap was the remnants of a diatom community subject to efficient grazing and carbon utilization in, or at
the basis of, the mixed layer, resulting in a BSi:POC export ratio > 2 (Table 1).

The main difference in our observations and the conceptual scheme of Quéguiner, 831 (2013) is the dominance of Chaetoceros Hyalochaete resting spores to diatom export 832 assemblages and their contribution to carbon fluxes out of the mixed layer in summer. Resting 833 spores appear to efficiently bypass the "carbon trap" represented by grazers and might also 834 physically entrain small faecal pellets in their downward flux. In mid-summer, faecal pellet 835 carbon export is dominated by the contribution of cylindrical shapes. This appears to be 836 consistent with an observed shift toward a higher contribution of large copepods and 837 euphausiids to the mesozooplankton community in the mixed layer (Carlotti et al., 2008). 838 However, CRS still dominate the diatom exported assemblage. The corresponding BSi:POC 839 ratio decreases with values between 1 and 2 (Table 1). The fact that there are two discrete 840 841 resting spore export events might be explained by a mixing event that injected Si(OH)<sub>4</sub> into the surface allowing the development of a secondary Si(OH)<sub>4</sub> limitation. 842

In the autumn and winter, diatom fluxes are very low and faecal pellet carbon export is dominated by cylindrical and tabular contributions consistent with a supposed shift to zooplankton communities dominated by large copepods, euphausiids, and salps (Wilson et al., 2013). The low BSi:POC ratios characterizing export at this time suggest that these communities feed primarily on suspended particles (in the case of salps) and on micro- and mesozooplankton or small diatoms, although direct measurements of faecal pellet content would be necessary to confirm this.

# 850 **5** Conclusion

We report the chemical (particulate organic carbon and nitrogen, biogenic silica) and biological (diatom cells and faecal pellets) composition of material exported beneath the

winter mixed layer (289 m) in a naturally iron-fertilized area of the Southern Ocean. Annually 853 integrated organic carbon export from the iron-fertilized bloom was low (98 mmol m<sup>-2</sup>) 854 although biogenic silicon export was significant (114 mmol m<sup>-2</sup>). *Chaetoceros Hyalochaete* 855 and *Thalassiosira antarctica* resting spores accounted for more than 60 % of the annual POC 856 flux. The high abundance of empty cells and the lower contribution of faecal pellets to POC 857 flux (34 %) suggest efficient carbon retention occurs in, or at the base of the mixed layer. We 858 propose that in this HBLE environment, carbon-rich and fast-sinking resting spores bypass the 859 intense grazing pressure otherwise responsible for the rapid attenuation of flux. The seasonal 860 succession of diatom taxa groups was tightly linked to the stoichiometry of the exported 861 material. Several species were identified as primarily "silica sinkers" e.g. Fragilariopsis 862 kerguelensis and Thalassionema nitzschioides spp. and others as preferential "carbon sinkers" 863 e.g. resting spores of Chaetoceros Hyalochaete and Thalassiosira antarctica, Eucampia 864 865 antarctica var. antarctica and the giant diatom Thalassiothrix antarctica. Faecal pellet types described a clear transition from small spherical shapes (small copepods) in spring, larger 866 cylindrical an ellipsoid shapes in summer (euphausiids and large copepods) and large tabular 867 shape (salps) in fall. Their contribution to carbon fluxes increased with the presence of larger 868 shapes. 869

The change in biological productivity and ocean circulation cannot explain the ~80 ppmv atmospheric  $pCO_2$  difference between the preindustrial era and the last glacial maximum (Archer et al., 2000; Bopp et al., 2003; Kohfeld et al., 2005; Wolff et al., 2006). Nevertheless, a simple switch in 'silica sinker' versus 'carbon sinker' relative abundance would have a drastic effect on carbon sequestration in the Southern Ocean and silicic acid availability at lower latitudes (Sarmiento et al., 2004; Boyd, 2013). The results presented here emphasize the compelling need for similar studies in other locations of the global Ocean that will allow identification of key ecological vectors that set the magnitude and thestoichiometry of the biological pump.

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- 1328

**Table 1.** Sediment bulk flux and composition results.

	~	Cup	Collect	Season		POC	PON			%		
Cun	Cup	closin	ion		Mass flux	flux	flux	BSi Flux (mmol m <sup>-2</sup>	LSi flux	opal	ΡΟC·ΡΟΝ	<b>BSi</b> ·POC
Cup	Jata	g	time		(mg m <sup>-</sup>	(mmol	(mmol		2 J-1		roomon	
	date	date	(days)		<sup>2</sup> <b>d</b> <sup>-1</sup> ) <sup>#</sup>	$m^{-2} d^{-1})^{\#}$	$m^{-2} d^{-1})^{\#}$	<b>a</b> )	<b>a</b> )			
1	21/10/20	04/11 /2011	14	Spring	52.2	0.15	0.02	0.51	26.6	65.6	6.80	3.46
2	04/11/20 11	18/11 /2011	14	Spring	28.1	0.14	0.02	0.30	18.0	70.8	6.09	2.18
3	18/11/20 11	02/12 /2011	14	Spring	54.1	0.15	0.02	0.51	13.0	63.9	7.33	3.43
4	02/12/20 11	12/12 /2011	10	Summe r	261.3	1.60	0.23	2.60	20.9	66.9	6.95	1.63
5	12/12/20 11	22/12 /2011	10	Summe r	23.1	0.34	0.05	0.21	4.4	62.4	6.87	0.64
6	22/12/20 11	01/01 /2012	10	Summe r	74.8	0.51	0.08	0.37	8.2	32.9	6.70	0.72
7	01/01/20 12	11/01 /2012	10	Summe r	80.5	0.42	0.06	0.55	8.9	46.0	6.73	1.32
8	11/01/20 12	25/01 /2012	14	Summe r	59.8	0.34	0.05	0.50	5.4	56.5	6.94	1.48
9	25/01/20 12	08/02 /2012	14	Summe r	238.7	1.47	0.20	2.19	7.2	61.7	7.38	1.49
10	08/02/20 12	22/02 /2012	14	Summe r	75.8	0.55	0.08	0.72	6.1	64.2	6.97	1.32
11	22/02/20 12	31/05 /2012	99	Autum n	24.4	0.27	0.03	0.08	1.5	21.5	8.09	0.29
12	31/05/20 12	07/09 /2012	99	Winter	5.1	0.04	0.01	0.03	2.2	35.0	6.06	0.66
A	Annual expo	rt <sup>*</sup>	322		14 438	98.2	13.6	114	1.85	53.1	7.2	1.2

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<sup>#</sup>Data from Rembauville et al. (2014).

1332 \* Values assume no flux during the unsampled portion of the year.

1333

- 1335 **Table 2.** *Chaetoceros* resting spores (CRS) and *Thalassiosira antarctica* resting spores (TRS)
- 1336 measurement and biomass data from station A3 sediment trap. The range and the mean value
- 1337 (bold italic) is reported for each variable.

Spore type	Number measured	Pervalvar axis (µm)	Apical axis (µm)	Shape *	Cell volume (µm <sup>3</sup> )	Volume/Carbon relationship	Cell carbon content (pmolC cell <sup>-1</sup> )	Cell carbon content (pgC cell <sup>-1</sup> )
CRS	63	3.1 - 8.5	7.2 - 17.4	Cylinder +	116.9 – 1415	0.039 pmolC um <sup>-3 #</sup>	5 - 55	55 - 662
		6	12.1	two cones	483		19	227
		10.2 - 26	25.6 -	Cylinder +	14035 -	0.011.8	56 - 153	672 -
TRS	57	10.2 20	35.3	two half	48477	$C = 0.582 \times V^{0.811}$ §	56 155	1839
		20.8	32.6	sphere	35502		119	1428

1338

1339 \* As defined in Hillebrand et al. (1999).

<sup>#</sup> Data representative of *Chaetoceros pseudocurvisetus* resting spore (Kuwata et al. 1993).

1341 <sup>§</sup> Equation from Menden-Deuer and Lessard (2000), where C is the carbon content (pg C) and

1342 V is the cell volume ( $\mu m^3$ ).

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**Table 3.** Faecal pellet measurement and biomass estimations from Station A3 sediment trap.

1346 For each variable, the range and the mean value (bold italic) are reported.

Faecal pellet shape	Number measured	Major axis (µm) (a)	Minor axis (µm) (b)	Volume equation	Volume (µm³)	Volume/carb on relationship	Faecal pellet carbon content (µmolC pellet <sup>-</sup> <sup>1</sup> )	Faecal pellet carbon content (µgC pellet <sup>-</sup> <sup>1</sup> )
Spherical	4041	11 - 1069		$4/3 \pi (a/2)^3$	$697 - 6.39 \times 10^8$		$2.09 \times 10^{-6} - $ 1.91	$2.51 \times 10^{-5}$ - 23
. I Contraction		150			$1.77 imes10^6$		5.3 10-3	0.06
Ovoid	2047	85 - 1132	10-802	$4/3 \pi (a/2)$	$4.45\times10^{3}\text{-}3.81\times10^{8}$		$1.34 \times 10^{-5} - 1.14$	$1.60 \times 10^{-4} - 13.72$
01010	2017	314	154	$(b/2)^2$	3.90 × 10 <sup>6</sup>	0.036 mgC	11.7 × 10 <sup>-3</sup>	0.14
Cylindrical	1338	106 - 6152	14-547	$\pi (h/2)^2$ a	$1.63 \times 10^4 - 1.45 \times 10^9$	mm <sup>-3 *</sup>	$4.89 \times 10^{-4} -$	$5.87 \times 10^{-4}$ -
Cymuncai	1556	981	136	n (0/2) a	<i>1.43</i> × <i>10</i> <sup>7</sup>		<b>0.04</b>	0.51
Ellipsoid	54	301 - 3893	51-1051	$4/3 \pi (a/2)$	$4.10 \times 10^5 - 2.25 \times 10^9$		$1.2 \times 10^{-3} - 6.75$	0.01 - 81
Empoord	51	1329	413	$(b/2)^2$	$1.19  imes 10^8$		0.36	4.28
Tabular	29	Highly variabl	le shapes, see xt			Constant, 119 µgC pellet <sup>-1 #</sup>	9.92	119

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<sup>\*</sup>Conversion factor from Gonzalez and Smetacek (1994).

<sup>#</sup>Conversion factor from Wilson et al. (2013).

# **Table 4.** Full diatoms cells flux $(10^6 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1})$ from the station A3 sediment trap.

						Cup n	umber						Contribution to annual full
Species – taxa group	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	cells flux (%)
Asteromphalus spp.	0	0.01	0	0.03	0	0	0	0	0.12	0	0	0	0.1
Chaetoceros atlanticus Cleve	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.07	0	0	0	0.0
Chaetoceros atlanticus f. bulbosus Ehrenberg	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0
Chaetoceros decipiens Cleve	0	0	0.02	0	0	0	0	0	0.07	0	0	0	0.0
Chaetoceros dichaeta Ehrenberg	0	0	0	0.07	0	0	0	0	0.26	0	0	0	0.1
Chaetoceros Hyalochaete spp.*	0.70	0	1.95	39.92	7.42	23.04	14.37	15.88	78.29	20.24	0.68	0	80.2
<i>Corethron inerme</i> Karsten	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.23	0	0	0	0.1
Corethron pennatum Grunow	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0
<i>Dactyliosolen antarcticus</i> Castracane	0	0	0	0.05	0	0	0	0	0.02	0	0	0	0.0
<i>Eucampia antarctica</i> var. <i>antarctica</i> (Castracane) Mangin	0.08	0.03	0.06	0.19	0.08	0.36	0.19	0.65	1.03	0.45	0.08	0.01	1.6
Fragilariopsis kerguelensis (O'Meara) Hustedt	0.88	1.06	0	1.93	0.40	0.13	0.21	0.12	1.40	0	0	0	2.4
Fragilariopsis separanda/rhombica group	0.02	0.16	0	0.68	0.05	0.20	0.13	0.07	1.47	0	0	0	1.1
Guinardia cylindrus (Cleve) Hasle	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.07	0	0	0	0.0
Leptocylindrus sp.	0	0	0	0.03	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0
Membraneis spp.	0.04	0.01	0	0.19	0	0	0.02	0.02	0.02	0	0	0	0.1
Navicula spp.	0	0	0.04	0.64	0	0	0	0.29	0.58	0	0	0	0.6
<i>Odontella weissflogii</i> (Grunow) Grunow	0	0	0	0.08	0	0	0	0	0.05	0	0	0	0.0
Pleurosigma spp.	0.01	0	0	0.22	0.02	0.02	0	0.03	0.96	0.04	0	0	0.5
<i>Proboscia alata</i> (Brightwell) Sundröm	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.09	0	0	0	0.0
Proboscia inermis (Castracane) Jordan & Ligowski	0	0	0	0.03	0	0	0	0	0.33	0	0	0	0.2
<i>Proboscia truncata</i> (Karsten) Nöthig & Logowski	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0
Pseudo-nitzschia spp.	0.26	0.02	0.21	1.81	0.08	0.45	1.85	1.56	7.08	0.36	0.02	0	5.6
Rhizosolenia antennata/styliformis group	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.05	0	0	0	0.0
Rhizosolenia chunii Karsten	0	0	0	0	0.05	0	0	0.03	0.07	0	0	0	0.1
<i>Rhizosolenia crassa</i> Schimper in Karsten	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0
Rhizosolenia simplex Karsten	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.07	0	0	0	0.0
Thalassionema nitzschioides spp. Pergallo & Pergallo	1.45	1.48	0.20	4.65	0.28	0.14	0.34	0.72	0.89	0.14	0.05	0.01	4.0
Thalassiosira lentiginosa (Janisch) Fryxell	0.01	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0
Thalassiosira spp.	0	0.05	0	0.05	0	0	0	0	0.12	0.05	0	0	0.1
<i>Thalassiosira antarctica</i> resting spore (TRS) Comber	0.04	0	2.19	2.65	0.17	0.14	0.13	0.14	0.12	0	0.01	0	2.1
<i>Thalassiothrix antarctica</i> Schimper ex Karsten	0	0	0	0.02	0.05	0.04	0.34	0.14	0.70	0	0	0	0.5

Small centrics (<20 μm)	0.05	0	0	0.41	0	0	0	0	0.19	0.18	0	0	0.3
Large centrics (>20 µm)	0	0	0.05	0.08	0	0	0	0	0.05	0	0	0	0.1
Total full cells	35.39	28.20	47.18	537.38	85.85	245.20	175.89	196.56	943.88	214.65	8.46	0.22	

<sup>\*</sup> Full cells of *Chaetoceros Hyalochaete* spp. were only found as resting spores.

# **Table 5.** Empty diatoms cells flux $(10^6 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1})$ from the station A3 sediment trap.

						Сир пւ	ımber						Contribution to annual empty
Species – taxa group	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	cells flux (%)
Asteromphalus spp.	0.02	0.02	0.09	0.08	0	0.05	0	0.03	0.05	0	0	0	0.3
Chaetoceros atlanticus Cleve	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0
Chaetoceros atlanticus f. bulbosus Ehrenberg	0.01	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.02	0	0.02	0	0	0.0
Chaetoceros decipiens Cleve	0	0	0.02	0.24	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.2
Chaetoceros dichaeta Ehrenberg	0	0	0.06	0.07	0	0	0	0	0.05	0	0.01	0	0.2
Chaetoceros Hyalochaete spp.	0	0	0.45	38.19	0	0	0	0.60	18.23	0.18	0	0	41.2
Corethron inerme Karsten	0.01	0.01	0.04	0	0	0.02	0	0	0.23	0.31	0.06	0	0.9
Corethron pennatum Grunow	0	0	0.02	0	0	0	0	0.02	0	0	0.01	0	0.1
Dactyliosolen antarcticus Castracane	0	0	0	0.05	0	0	0	0.07	0.02	0.05	0	0	0.2
Eucampia antarctica var. antarctica (Castracane) Mangin	0	0	0.04	0.25	0.06	0.05	0.06	0.09	0.28	0.11	0.04	0	1.0
Fragilariopsis kerguelensis (O'Meara) Hustedt	2.25	0.46	0.84	1.02	0.26	0.63	0.88	1.17	1.17	1.45	0.16	0.03	9.4
Fragilariopsis separanda/rhombica group	0.19	0.17	0.18	0.53	0.14	0.52	0.32	0.87	0.82	1.23	0.15	0	5.0
<i>Guinardia cylindrus</i> (Cleve) Hasle	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0
Leptocylindrus sp.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0
Membraneis spp.	0	0	0.02	0.05	0.02	0.04	0.02	0.07	0.14	0.07	0.01	0	0.4
Navicula spp.	0	0	0.13	0.36	0	0	0	0.12	0.12	0	0	0	0.5
Odontella weissflogii (Grunow) Grunow	0	0	0.02	0.10	0	0	0	0.02	0	0.02	0	0	0.1
Pleurosigma spp.	0.18	0.06	0.08	0.41	0.08	0	0.09	0.12	0.93	0.38	0.03	0	2.1
<i>Proboscia alata</i> (Brightwell) Sundröm	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.03	0.05	0.34	0.01	0	0.5
Proboscia inermis (Castracane) Jordan & Ligowski	0	0	0.01	0.08	0	0	0	0.03	0.05	0.13	0.01	0	0.3
<i>Proboscia truncata</i> (Karsten) Nöthig & Logowski	0	0	0.02	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.02	0	0	0.0
Pseudo-nitzschia spp.	0.59	0	0.12	0.59	0.09	0.04	0.99	0.75	5.26	0.34	0.02	0	7.4
Rhizosolenia antennata/styliformis group	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.02	0.02	0.13	0	0	0.2
Rhizosolenia chunii Karsten	0	0	0	0.03	0	0	0	0.02	0.02	0.20	0.02	0	0.4
<i>Rhizosolenia crassa</i> Schimper in Karsten	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.04	0	0	0.0
Rhizosolenia simplex Karsten	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.02	0	0	0	0	0.0
<i>Thalassionema nitzschioides</i> spp. Pergallo & Pergallo	4.33	1.97	5.39	2.07	0.19	0.09	0.47	0.12	0.72	0.18	0.03	0.01	13.2
Thalassiosira lentiginosa (Janisch) Fryxell	0.25	0.06	0.10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.4
Thalassiosira spp.	0.02	0.06	0.01	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.1

Thalassiosira antarctica resting spore (TRS) Comber	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0
<i>Thalassiothrix antarctica</i> Schimper ex Karsten	0	0	0	0	0	0.02	0	0	0	0.04	0	0	0.0
Small centrics (<20 μm)	0.48	0.44	2.96	16.87	0.28	0.13	0.17	0.24	0.65	0.20	0.03	0.02	15.7
Large centrics (>20 µm)	0	0.03	0.01	0.20	0	0	0	0	0.16	0.04	0	0	0.3
Total empty cells	8.34	3.28	10.57	61.20	1.12	1.59	3.01	4.43	28.98	5.46	0.59	0.07	

- **Table 6.** Faecal pellet numerical fluxes (normal text) and contribution to faecal pellet carbon
- 1360 fluxes (bold italic) from station A3 sediment trap.

				Contribution (%)									
Cup	$\begin{array}{c} Total \ FP \\ flux \ (nb \ m^{-2} \\ d^{-1}) \times 10^3 \end{array}$	Total FP carbon flux (mmol m <sup>-2</sup> d <sup>-</sup> <sup>1</sup> )	Median volume (10 <sup>6</sup> µm <sup>3</sup> )	Spherical	Ovoid	Cylindrical	Ellipsoid	Tabular					
1	1.20	0.02	2.07	53.3	19.7	27.0	0.0	0.0					
1	1.39	0.02	2.07	36.8	18.6	44.6	0.0	0.0					
2	1 75	0.04	2.55	36.5	29.7	33.9	0.0	0.0					
2	1.75	0.04	3.55	22.4	21.3	56.3	0.0	0.0					
2	0.72	0.01	0.05	62.7	37.3	0.0	0.0	0.0					
3	0.72	<0.01	0.95	54.5	45.5	0.0	0.0	0.0					
4	21.01	0.49	1.01	76.4	22.8	0.8	0.0	0.0					
4	21.81	0.48	1.91	83.1	15.3	1.6	0.0	0.0					
5	5 10	0.12	2 71	26.6	35.0	38.3	0.1	0.0					
5	5.10	0.12	5.71	13.8	18.3	67.4	0.5	0.0					
6	2.00	0.15	5.67	28.8	33.1	37.9	0.0	0.2					
0	2.69	0.15	5.07	4.6	10.9	43.1	0.0	41.3					
7	2.46	0.12	671	15.6	45.5	37.1	1.8	0.0					
1	2.40	0.12	0.71	2.5	16.1	56.0	25.3	0.0					
0	2.06	0.20	C 10	37.6	15.5	44.2	2.2	0.4					
8	2.06	0.20	6.18	1.9	2.1	34.6	15.8	45.5					
0	1.26	0.00	2.50	40.4	20.5	35.4	3.7	0.0					
9	1.36	0.09	3.59	2.8	4.9	27.9	64.4	0.0					
10	1.00	0.02	2.24	56.0	22.4	21.3	0.4	0.0					
10	1.22	0.03	2.34	17.7	9.1	69.9	3.3	0.0					
	0.07	0.12	2 10	38.9	30.8	20.3	5.7	4.3					
11	0.27	0.13	2.10	0.4	0.7	2.5	3.9	92.6					
10	0.14	0.07	2.41	18.4	57.6	20.3	0.0	3.7					
12	0.14	0.06	2.41	0.4	2.6	5.3	0.0	91.8					
	Annually in	tegrated contribu	tion	53.8	27.3	17.8	0.7	0.4					
	to fac	ecal pellet flux		17.9	6.6	17.3	7.7	50.4					

Table 7. Measured and calculated POC fluxes, and POC flux partitioning among the major 1362 3.

1363	identified ecological	vectors of carbon	exported out of	the mixed laye	er at station A
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						Contributio	n to calcu	lated POC flux	(%)		
Cup	Measured POC flux (mmol m <sup>-2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup> )*	Calculated POC flux (mmol m <sup>-2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup> )	CRS#	TRS <sup>§</sup>	Other diatoms	Spherical faecal pellet	Ovoid faecal pellet	Cylindrical faecal pellet	Ellipsoid faecal pellet	Tabular faecal pellet	Total faecal pellet
1	0.15	0.05	25.3	8.1	38.6	10.3	5.2	12.5	0.0	0.0	28.0
2	0.14	0.06	0.0	0.0	35.4	14.5	13.7	36.4	0.0	0.0	64.6
3	0.15	0.31	12.1	85.1	1.4	0.8	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.4
4	1.60	1.62	46.8	19.4	3.9	24.8	4.6	0.5	0.0	0.0	29.8
5	0.34	0.29	48.0	6.9	3.3	5.8	7.7	28.2	0.2	0.0	41.8
6	0.51	0.63	69.7	2.7	3.2	1.1	2.7	10.5	0.0	10.1	24.4
7	0.42	0.43	63.1	3.5	5.8	0.7	4.4	15.4	7.0	0.0	27.5
8	0.34	0.56	54.4	2.9	6.8	0.7	0.8	12.4	5.7	16.3	35.9
9	1.47	1.71	86.8	0.8	7.2	0.1	0.3	1.4	3.3	0.0	5.2
10	0.55	0.44	88.1	0.0	4.3	1.4	0.7	5.4	0.3	0.0	7.7
11	0.27	0.14	9.1	1.2	2.2	0.3	0.6	2.2	3.4	81.0	87.5
12	0.04	0.06	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.4	2.6	5.2	0.0	91.3	99.5
( ca	Contribution to alculated POC	o annual flux (%)	52.1	8.6	5.0	5.1	2.0	5.2	2.2	19.8	34.3

1364

- <sup>\*</sup> Data from Rembauville et al. (2014). 1365
- <sup>#</sup>CRS: *Chaetoceros Hyalocahete* resting spores. 1366
- <sup>§</sup> TRS: *Thalassiosira antarctica* resting spores. 1367

1369 Figures captions.

**Figure 1.** a) Time series of the surface chlorophyll *a* concentration averaged in a 100 km radius around the trap location. The black line represents the climatology calculated for the period 1997/2013, whilst the green line corresponds to the sediment trap deployment period (2011/2012). b) POC fluxes (grey bars) and C/N molar ratio (red line) of the exported material, c) BSi flux (light blue bars) and BSi:POC ratio (blue line). Errorbars are standard deviations on triplicates.

**Figure 2.** a) Total diatom cells fluxes (bars, left axis) and total empty:full cells ratio (blue line, right axis). b) to h) Fluxes of diatom cells from selected species identified as major contributors to diatom fluxes (>1 % of total diatom fluxes). In b), full cells are *Chaetoceros Hyalochaete* resting spores and empty cells are the vegetative stage. Full cell fluxes are represented by grey bars whereas empty cell fluxes are represented by white bars

**Figure 3.** Factorial map constituted by the first two axes of the correspondence analysis performed on the full and empty diatom cell fluxes. Red squares are cup projections with cup numbers specified, blue circles are full cell projections, white circles are empty cell projections. The size of the markers is proportional to their representation quality in this factorial map.

Figure 4. Annual ratio of empty to full cells for species observed as both forms. The dashed
lines are the 0.5 and 2 ratio values. *Chaetoceros Hyalochaete* spp. full cells were only
observed as resting spores.

**Figure 5.** a) Faecal pellet numerical fluxes partitioned among faecal pellet types, b) boxplot of faecal pellet volume. On each box, the central mark is the median, the edges of the box are the first and third quartiles, the whiskers extend to the most extreme data points comprised in 1.5 times the interquartile distance. c) faecal pellet carbon fluxes partitioned between the five faecal pellet types. The two arrows represent the two strong POC export events (cup #4 and#9, December 2011 and end January 2012, respectively).

**Figure 6.** Heatmap representation of  $\beta$  correlation coefficients between the biological variables (empty and full-cell diatom and faecal pellet type fluxes) and the chemical variables (POC, PON, BSi, POC:PON and BSi:POC) resulting from the partial least square regression. Blue circles represent full diatom cells, white circles are empty diatom cells. Brown circles represent the faecal pellet type fluxes. The alphabetical labels within the symbols are used to identify the variable projections shown in Fig. 7. CRS: *Chaetoceros Hyalochaete* resting spores, TRS: *Thalassiosira antarctica* resting spores.

Figure 7. Projection of the cups (red squares) the biological factors (circles) and the chemical
factors (green diamonds) in the first two latent vectors of the partial least square regression.
Circled labels refer to the full and empty species listed in Fig. 6.

1405 Figure 8. a) Grey bars in the background are measured POC fluxes, colored bars in the foreground are calculated POC fluxes partitioned among the main ecological vectors 1406 identified. b) Regression ( $r^2 = 0.72$ ) between the measured and calculated POC fluxes. The 1407 correlation is highly significant (Spearman rank correlation, n = 36,  $\rho = 0.84$ , p < 0.001). 1408 Error bars were generated by increasing/decreasing the carbon/volume conversion factors by 1409 50 %. Black dashed line is the 1:1 relation, red line is the regression line, red dashed lines 1410 denotes the 99 % confidence interval. CRS: Chaetoceros Hyalochaete resting spores, TRS: 1411 1412 Thalassiosira antarctica resting spores.



Figure 1.







Figure 3.



Figure 4.



Figure 5.

QC         QC<	0.04 0.04 0.04 0.04 0.01
Image: CRS         0.07         0.07         0.06         0.02         -0           Image: Description of the structure of the struct	0.04 0.04 .07 0.01
Image: Crisical Control         Image: Crisica	0.04 0.04 .07 0.01
Image: Construction	0.04 0.07 0.01
	0.01
$\mathbf{A}$ = E soparanda/rhombiaa 0.06 0.06 0.06 0.02 -0	0.01
P. separandamonibica     0.00     0.00     0.02     -0	11
Navicula spp. 0.07 0.07 0.07 0.02	0
Preulosigina spp. 0.06 0.06 0.05 0.02 -0	0.01
T nitzochioidos spp. 0.04 0.04 0.06 0.02 -0	
	.07
The assist the antiactica 0.04 0.04 0.02 0.01 0	0.02
Small centrics (<20 µm) 0.06 0.06 0.07 0.01 0	0.03
Chapterson Huglesheets app 0.07 0.07 0.07 0.02	0
Image: Construction         O	0.03
E. antarctica         0.00         0.07         0.06         0.02         -0           Image: Structure of the struc	17
F. kerguerensis     0.01     0.03     -0.02	. 17
P. separanda/monibica 0.04 0.04 0.05 0.01 -0	0.03
Merriaria app 0.05 0.06 0.05 0.02 -0	0.04
Inavicula spp.         0.05         0.05         0.06         0.01	.05
Image:	0.02
P. alala     0.01     0.01     0.01     0.01     0.01     0.01     0.01	0.03
Fseudo-nil2scrila spp. 0.03 0.05 0.05 0.01	
C 1. Πιζεκπισμές spp0.05 -0.02 0.04 -0.04 0.	.24
Contraction (<20 µm)     Contraction (<20	.22
(i) Sinai centrics (<20 µm) 0.05 0.05 0.06 0.01 0.	.04
Carge centrics (-20 pm) 0.07 0.07 0.07 0.02 0.     Spherical faces pallet 0.05 0.05 0.01 0.	.01
	0.02
	J.UZ
	0.06
Ellipsolu laecal pellet 0.03 0.03 0.01 0.01 -0     Tabular faccal pellet -0.01 -0.01 -0.05 0.02 -0	0.06

Figure 6.



Figure 7.



Figure 8.