2	Ocean, the Kerguelen Plateau: importance of diatom spores and
3	faecal pellet for exportand ecological vectors of carbon and
4	<del>biogenic silica to depth</del> (part 2).
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Export fluxes in a naturally iron-fertilized area of the Southern

Abstract 20

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

spring-summer. (<14 days in spring-summer) representing the majority of captured export. 31 Relatively low diatom fluxes were observed over the remainder of the year. Faecal pellet 32 contribution to annual carbon flux was low (34 %) and reached it's its seasonal maximum in 33 autumn and winter (> 80 %). The seasonal progression of faecal pellet types revealed a clear 34 transition from small spherical shapes (small copepods) in spring, larger cylindrical and 35 ellipsoid shapes in summer (euphausiids and large copepods) and finally large tabular shapes 36 (salps) in autumn and winter. We propose that in this High Biomass, Low Export (HBLE) 37 environment that small, highly silicified, fast-sinking resting spores are able to bypass the 38 high intense grazing pressure and efficient carbon transfer to higher trophic levels that are 39 responsible for the low fluxes observed the during the remainder of the year. More generally 40 Our study also provides a statistical framework linking the ecological succession of diatom 41 and zooplankton communities to the seasonality of carbon and silicon export within an iron-42 43 fertilized bloom region in the Southern Ocean.

44

### 45 **1 Introduction**

The Southern Ocean is the place of exposure of old upwelled waters to the atmosphere and 46 the formation of modal mode waters, thereby ventilating an important part of the global 47 Ocean and playing a central role in distributing heat, carbon and nutrients in the global Ocean 48 (Sarmiento et al., 2004; Takahashi et al., 2012; Sallée et al., 2012). Silicon trapping occurs in 49 the Southern Ocean because silicon is stripped out of the euphotic zone more efficiently than 50 phosphorous and nitrogen (Holzer et al., 2014). It is generally acknowledged that regional 51 variations in plankton community structure are responsible for variations in nutrient 52 stoichiometry in the Southern Ocean (Jin et al., 2006; Weber and Deutsch, 2010) and that the 53 biological pump is a central process regulating this stoichiometry (Ragueneau et al., 2006; 54 Salter et al., 2012; Primeau et al., 2013). These characteristics emphasize the importance of 55 biological processes in the Southern Ocean waters for the availability of silicic acid and 56 nitrate (Sarmiento et al., 2004; Dutkiewicz et al., 2005) as well as phosphate (Primeau et al., 57 2013) at lower latitudes, thereby regulating part of the productivity of the global Ocean. It has 58 been proposed that change in the uptake ratio of silicate and nitrate by Southern Ocean 59 phytoplankton in response to increased iron availability during the Last Glacial Maximum 60 could have played a substantial role in varying atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> (Brzezinski et al., 2002; 61 62 Matsumoto et al., 2002).

Primary production in the Southern Ocean is regulated by macro- and micronutrients availability (Martin et al., 1990; Moore et al., 2001; Nelson et al., 2001; Moore et al., 2013) and light-mixing regime (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 et al., 2002) and South 70 Georgia (Park et al., 2010; Tarling et al., 2012). The diatom-dominated phytoplankton blooms 71 characteristic of these island systems are the product of multiple environmental conditions 72 73 favorable for their rapid growth (Ouéguiner, 2013), which appear to promote POC export from the mixed layer (Nelson et al., 1995; Buesseler, 1998). However the ecological traits of 74 certain species can impact the BSi:POC export stoichiometry (Crawford, 1995; Salter et al., 75 76 2012), and may therefore control the biogeochemical function of a particular region of the Southern Ocean (Smetacek et al., 2004; Assmy et al., 2013) 77

Among the numerous ecological characteristics of plankton communities, algal 78 aggregation (Jackson et al., 2005; Burd and Jackson, 2009), mesozooplankton faecal pellets 79 (Lampitt et al., 1990; Wilson et al., 2008, 2013), vertical migrations of zooplankton and 80 mesopelagic fish (Jackson and Burd, 2001; Steinberg et al., 2002; Davison et al., 2013), 81 radiolarian faecal pellets (Lampitt et al., 2009), and diatom resting spore formation, (Salter et 82 83 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 84 processes regulating POC export fluxes is the requirement to have direct access to sinking 85 particles. Many of the processes described occur in the upper layers of the ocean, where 86 circulation can strongly influence the reliability of sediment trap collections (Baker et al., 87 1988; Buesseler et al., 2007). Short term deployments of free drifting sediment traps can be an 88 efficient solution to minimize the hydrodynamic bias (Buesseler et al., 2000; Lampitt et al., 89 2008) but spatial and temporal decoupling of production and export needs to be considered 90 91 (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 92 track temporal succession of exported material from long-term (several month) blooms 93 94 (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 98 export with sediment traps due to the naturally fertilized recurrent bloom (Blain et al., 2007) 99 100 and shallow bathymetry that breaks the strong Antarctic Circumpolar Current flow (Park et 101 al., 2008, 2014). As reported in the companion paper (Rembauville et al., 2014), annual POC export measured by the sediment trap deployment at 289 m beneath the southeastern iron-102 fertilized Kerguelen bloom is  $98\pm4$  mmol m<sup>-2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>. This downward flux of carbon may account 103 for as little as ~1.5 % of seasonal net community carbon production (6.6 $\pm$ 2.2 mol m<sup>-2</sup>, 104 Jouandet et al., 2008) and <2 % of seasonally integrated POC export estimated at 200 m from 105 a dissolved inorganic carbon budget (5.1 molC m<sup>-2</sup>; Blain et al., 2007). A comparison of POC 106 fluxes over short-term intervals (<1 month) from a wide variety of approaches revealed 107 108 similar reductions in POC flux between 200 m and 300 m during spring and summer (Rembauville et al., 2014). Such a rapid attenuation of flux appears to be inconsistent with 109 microbial remineralization of settling particles (Rembauville et al., 2014). Although 110 hydrodynamical and biological biases related to the shallow moored sediment trap 111 deployment may partly explain the low POC fluxes we report, independent measurements of 112 low POC fluxes (>300 m) at the same station (Ebersbach and Trull, 2008; Jouandet et al., 113 2014) are consistent with the hypothesis of an intense flux attenuation below the winter mixed 114 layer. Previously, we have suggested the role of higher trophic levels (mesozooplankton and 115 mesopelagic fish) feeding at the base of the mixed layer as an explanation for the low POC 116 fluxes we observed. The intense microbial heterotrophic activity (Obernosterer et al., 2008; 117 Christaki et al., 2014) and zooplankton grazing (Carlotti et al., 2008, 2015) in the mixed layer, 118 119 together with the strong flux attenuation at depth lead to a These observations suggest a 'High

Biomass, Low Export' (HBLE, Lam and Bishop, 2007) status environment characterizing the 120 productive Kerguelen Plateau. HBLE status appears to be a common feature of other 121 productive sites of the Southern Ocean (Lam and Bishop, 2007; Ebersbach et al., 2011; Lam 122 et al., 2011; Maiti et al., 2013; Cavan et al., 2015). Describing the temporal succession of 123 POC and BSi flux vectors from the Kerguelen Plateau is of interest to increase our 124 understanding of the ecological processes characterizing HBLE environments. In particular, 125 phytoplankton community composition and faecal pellet fluxes may be a significant 126 component of particles exported from the Kerguelen Plateau. 127

Numerous Several studies have described diatom fluxes from sediment trap records in 128 the Southern Ocean (Leventer and Dunbar, 1987; Fischer et al., 1988; Abelmann and 129 Gersonde, 1991; Leventer, 1991; Gersonde and Zielinski, 2000; Fischer et al., 2002; Pilskaln 130 et al., 2004; Ichinomiya et al., 2008; Salter et al., 2012). Highest diatom fluxes recorded by 131 sediment traps (>  $10^9 \text{ cells}$  valves m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) are were observed in the Seasonal Ice Zone (SIZ) 132 133 near Prydz Bay and Adélie Land and are were dominated by Fragilariopsis kerguelensis and smaller Fragilariopsis species such as Fragilariopsis curta and Fragilariopsis cylindrus 134 (Suzuki et al., 2001; Pilskaln et al., 2004). These high fluxes occured in spring summer and 135 are were associated with the melting of sea ice. Changes in light availability and melt water 136 input appear to establish favorable conditions for the production and export of phytoplankton 137 cells (Romero and Armand, 2010). In the Permanently Open Ocean Zone (POOZ), highest 138 diatom fluxes recorded are were two orders of magnitude lower  $\sim 10^7$  cell valves m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> 139 (Abelmann and Gersonde, 1991; Salter et al., 2012; Grigorov et al., 2014) and typically 140 represented by F. kerguelensis and Thalassionema nitzschioides. One notable exception is 141 except in the naturally iron fertilized waters downstream of the Crozet Plateau where resting 142 spores of Eucampia antarctica var. antarctica dominated the diatom export assemblage 143 144 (Salter et al., 2012)

Other studies have reported the faecal pellet contribution to POC fluxes in the 145 Southern Ocean (Dunbar, 1984; Wefer et al., 1988; Wefer et al., 1990; Wefer and Fisher, 146 1991; Dubischar and Bathmann, 2002; Suzuki et al., 2001,2003; Accornero and Gowing, 147 2003; Schnack-Schiel and Isla, 2005; Gleiber et al., 2012) with a particular emphasis on shelf 148 processes environments where faecal pellet contribution to POC flux is was typically higher 149 than in the oceanic regions (Wefer et al., 1990; Wefer and Fischer, 1991; Schnack-Schiel and 150 Isla, 2005). In the Ross Sea there is was a northward decreasing contribution to carbon flux of 151 59 %, 38 % and 15 % for southern, central and northern areas reported from 235 m sediment 152 traps deployments (Schnack-Schiel and Isla, 2005). Faecal pellets in the Ross Sea are were 153 generally represented by larger shapes with only 2 to 3 % of them present as small spherical 154 or ellipsoid shapes and total faecal pellet flux is was slightly higher than  $10^3$  pellet m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>. 155 High faecal pellet contribution to carbon fluxes (> 90 %) has have been observed in the 156 157 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 158  $>5 \times 10^5$  pellets m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> (Bodungen, 1986; von Bodungen et al., 1987; Wefer et al., 1988). The 159 160 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 161 succeeding the phytoplankton bloom in January and February (Gleiber et al., 2012). 162

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

### 171 **2 Materials and methods**

172 As part of the multidisciplinary research program KEOPS2 a moored sediment trap (Technicap PPS3) was deployed at 289 m (seafloor depth: 527 m) at the representative bloom 173 station A3 (50°38.3' S - 72°02.6' E) for a period of 321 days (21 October 2011 to 7 174 September 2012). The sediment trap mooring was located within an iron-fertilized bloom site 175 on the southern part of the Kerguelen Plateau (Blain et al., 2007). The cup rotation dates of 176 the sediment trap are listed in Table 1. Details of sediment trap design, hydrological 177 conditions, deployment conditions sample processing, POC and PON analyses and surface 178 chlorophyll *a* data extraction are described in a companion paper (Rembauville et al., 2014). 179 180 Comparison with thorium-based estimates of carbon export suggests a trapping efficiency of 15-30 % relative to the proxy, although strong particle flux attenuation between 200 m and 181 the trap depth (289 m) might also contribute to the low fluxes. We, therefore, interpret our 182 results to accurately reflect the relationships between the biological and geochemical signals 183 of the material caught by the sediment trap, which we acknowledge may not necessarily 184 185 represent the entire particle export at 289 m.

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# 2.1 Sediment trap sample processing

187 Details of sediment trap sample retrieval and processing methods have been presented in
 188 Rembauville et al. (this issue). In brief, swimmers were removed and classified from samples
 189 under a dissecting microscope. The samples were quantitatively divided into 8 aliquots using
 190 a Jencons peristaltic splitter with a precision of ~2.9 %. Particulate material was separated

- 191 from the overlying preservative fluid by a centrifugation and freeze-drying procedure.
- 192
- 2.2 Chemical measurements

POC and PON analyses have been previously described in Rembauville et al. (this issue). In summary, 3 to 5 mg of freeze dried material were weighed directly into pre-combusted (450°C, 24h) silver cups and decarbonated through the addition of 2N HCl. Samples were dried overnight at 50 °C and POC and PON were measured with a CHN analyzer (Perkin Elmer 2400 Series II CHNS/O Elemental Analyzer) calibrated with glycine. Samples were analyzed in triplicate with an analytical precision of less than 0.3 %.

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- 200

#### 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 201 material were weighed (Sartorius precision balance, precision  $10^{-4}$  g) and placed into falcon 202 203 tubes. The extraction of silicon from biogenic and lithogenic particle phases was performed following the Ragueneau et al. (2005) triple NaOH/HF extraction procedure. Silicic acid 204 (Si(OH)<sub>4</sub>) resulting from NaOH extractions was measured automatically on a Skalar 5100 205 206 autoanalyzer whereas Si(OH)<sub>4</sub> resulting from HF extraction was measured manually on a Milton Roy Spectronic 401 spectrophotometer. Si(OH)<sub>4</sub> acid analyses were performed 207 colorimetrically following Aminot and Kerouel (2007). Standards for the analysis of samples 208 from the HF extraction were prepared in an HF/H<sub>3</sub>BO<sub>4</sub> matrix, ensuring the use of an 209 appropriate calibration factor that differs from Milli-Q water. The contribution of LSi to the 210 first leaching was determined by using Si:Al ratios from a second leaching step (Ragueneau et 211 al., 2005). Aluminum concentrations were measured by spectrophotometry (Howard et al., 212 1986). The triple extraction procedure is designed optimized for samples with a BSi content < 213 214 10 µmol. For some samples (cup #3, #4, #6, #7, #8, #9 and #10) the Si:Al molar ratio in the second leachate was high (>10) indicating the incomplete dissolution of BSi. For these 215 samples it was not possible to use Si:Al ratios to correct for LSi leaching. A crustal Si:Al 216 217 mass ratio of 3.74 (Taylor and McClennan, 1986) was therefore used instead and applied to

all the samples for consistency. Precision (estimated from measurement of 25 independent 218 samples) was 13 nmol/mg, which represents <1 % of the BSi content in all samples and 14 % 219 of the mean LSi content. Blank triplicates from each extraction were lower than below the 220 221 detection limit. BSi results from this method were compared to the kinetic method from DeMaster (1981). There was an excellent agreement between the two methods (Spearman 222 rank correlation, n = 12, p < 0.001, BSi <sub>kinetic</sub> = 1.03 BSi <sub>triple extraction</sub> - 0.08, data not shown). To 223 224 estimate the contribution of opal to total mass flux, we assumed an opal composition of  $SiO_2$ 225 0.4H<sub>2</sub>O (Mortlock and Froelich, 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.

232

### 2.2 Diatom identification, fluxes and biomass

Many sediment trap studies reporting diatom fluxes in the Southern Ocean use a 233 micropaleontological protocol that oxidizes organic material (KMnO<sub>4</sub>, HCl, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) thereby 234 facilitating the observation of diatom frustules valves (see Romero et al., 1999, 2000 for a 235 description). In the present manuscript, our specific aim was to separately enumerate full and 236 empty diatom cells captured by the sediment trap to identify key carbon or silicon exporters 237 amongst the diatom species. We therefore used a biological method following a similar 238 239 protocol to that of (Salter et al., 2007, 2012). To prepare samples for counting, 2 mL of a gently homogenized 1/8 wet aliquot were diluted in a total volume of 20 mL of artificial 240 seawater (S = 34). In order to minimize the exclusion and/or breaking of large or elongated 241 242 diatom frustules (e.g. Thalassiothrix antarctica), the pipette tip used for sub-sampling was

modified to increase the tip aperture to >2 mm. The diluted and homogenized sample was 243 placed in a Sedgewick-Rafter counting chamber (Pyser SGE S52, 1 mL chamber volume). 244 Each sample was observed under an inverted microscope (Olympus IX71) with phase contrast 245 246 at 200x and 400x magnification. Diatom enumeration and identification was made from one quarter to one half of the counting chamber (depending on cell abundance). The total number 247 of diatoms counted was >400 in all the cups with exception to the winter cup #12 (May -248 249 September 2012) where the diatom abundance was low (<100 diatoms counted). Diatoms 250 species were identified following the taxonomic description in recommendations of Hasle and Syvertsen (1997). All whole, intact and recognizable frustules were enumerated. Full and 251 252 empty cells were counted separately, following suggestions in Assmy et al. (2013).

253 Due to the lower magnification used and preserved cell contents sometimes obscuring taxonomic features on the valve face, taxonomic identification to the species level was 254 occasionally difficult and necessitated the categorizing of diatom species to genus or taxa 255 256 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 257 from the vegetative cells; Fragilariopsis separanda and Fragilarsiopsis rhombica were 258 grouped as Fragilariopsis separanda/rhombica; Membraneis imposter and Membraneis 259 challengeri and species of the genera Banquisia and Manguinea were denominated as 260 Membraneis spp. (Armand et al., 2008a); diatoms of the genus Haslea and Pleurosigma were 261 grouped as *Pleurosigma* spp.; all *Pseudo-nitzschia* species encountered were grouped as 262 Pseudo-nitzschia spp.; Rhizosolenia antennata and Rhizosolenia styliformis were grouped as 263 264 Rhizosolenia antenanta/styliformis Rhizosolenia antennata/styliformis; large and rare Thalassiosira oliverana and Thalassiosira tumida were grouped as Thalassiosira spp.; 265 Thalassiosira antarctica resting spores (TRS) were identified separately from the vegetative 266 267 cells; small centric diatoms (<20 µm) represented by Thalassiosira gracilis and other 268 *Thalassiosira* species were designated as Small centrics ( $< 20\mu$ m); and finally large and rare 269 centrics including *Azpeitia tabularis*, *Coscinodiscus* spp. and *Actinocyclus curvatulus* were 270 grouped as Large centrics ( $>20 \mu$ m). Full and empty frustules of each species or taxa grouping 271 were distinguished and enumerated separately. The cell flux for each diatom species or taxa 272 grouping was calculated according to Equation (1):

273 
$$Cell flux = N_{diat} \times d \times 8 \times V_{cup} \times \frac{1}{0.125} \times \frac{1}{days} \times chamber fraction$$
(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:

281

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

283

Where *Annual flux*<sub>(x)</sub> is the annually integrated flux of a full or empty diatom species x (cell  $m^{-2} y^{-1}$ ), *Flux*<sub>(x)i</sub> is the full or empty flux of this species in the cup number *i* (cell  $m^{-2} d^{-1}$ ) 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 (Rembauville et al. 2014).

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We directly compared the micropaleontological (as used in Rigual-Hernández et al. 291 292 (2015)) and biological counting techniques in our sediment trap samples and noted the loss of several species (Chaetoceros decipiens, Chaetoceros dichaeta, Corethron pennatum 293 294 Corethron inerme, *Guinardia* cylindrus and Rhizosolenia chunii) under the micropaleontological technique. We attribute this to the aggressive chemical oxidation 295 techniques used to "clean" the samples as well as the centrifugation steps which may also 296 selectively destroy or dissolve certain frustules. For the species that were commonly observed 297 298 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 299 micropaleontolgical technique, probably due to the loss of certain frustules described above. 300 Full details of this method comparison are in preparation for a separate submission. 301

Diatoms species that contributed to more than 1 % of total full cell flux were 302 converted to carbon flux. For E. antarctica var. antarctica, Fragilariopsis kerguelensis, 303 304 Fragilariopsis separanda/rhombica, Pseudo-nitzschia spp. and Thalassionema nitzschioides spp., we used published cell-specific carbon content ( $Cell_C$ , pgC cell<sup>-1</sup>) for diatoms 305 communities of the Kerguelen Plateau from Cornet-Barthaux et al. (2007). As Chaetoceros 306 Hyalochaete resting spores (CRS) and Thalassiosira antarctica resting spores (TRS) largely 307 dominated the full diatom fluxes (>80%), an appropriate estimation of their carbon content 308 based on the specific sizes observed in our dataset was required for accurate quantification of 309 their contribution to carbon fluxes. Biomass calculations for both CRS and TRS were 310 311 determined from >50 randomly selected complete resting spores observed in splits from cups 312 #4 to #11 (December 2011 to May 2012). Morphometric measurements (pervalvar and apical axis) were made using the Fiji image processing package (available at http://fiji.sc/Fiji) on 313 images taken with an Olympus DP71 camera. Cell volumes followed appropriate shape 314 315 designated calculations from Hillebrand et al. (1999) (Table 2). The cell volume coefficient of

variation was 46 % and 54 % for CRS and TRS, respectively. CRS carbon content was 316 estimated from the derived cell volume using the volume to carbon relationship of 0.039 317 pmolC µm<sup>-3</sup> established from the resting spore of *Chaetoceros pseudocurvisetus* (Kuwata et 318 al., 1993), leading to a mean  $Cell_C$  value of 227 pgC cell<sup>-1</sup> (Table 2). There is currently no 319 volume to carbon relationship for Thalassiosira antarctica resting spores described in the 320 literature, therefore, the allometric relationship for vegetative diatoms (Menden-Deuer and 321 Lessard, 2000) was used to calculate our TRS carbon content, giving a mean  $Cell_C$  value of 322 1428 pgC cell<sup>-1</sup> (Table 2). Full diatom fluxes were converted to carbon fluxes as follows: 323

324 
$$C flux_{(x)} = \frac{Flux_{(x)} \times Cell_{C(x)}}{M_{12_C} \times 10^9}$$
(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 325 the full cell numerical flux of species x (cell  $m^{-2} d^{-1}$ ), Cell<sub>C(x)</sub> is the carbon content of species x 326 (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 327 from pmol to mmol. Other diatoms species that contributed to more than 1 % of total cell flux 328 (E. antarctica var. antarctica, Fragilariopsis kerguelensis, Fragilariopsis 329 separanda/rhombica, Pseudo nitzschia spp. and Thalassionema nitzschioides spp.) were 330 converted to carbon flux using cell-specific carbon content for diatoms communities of the 331 Kerguelen Plateau from Cornet-Barthaux et al. (2007). 332

## 333 **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  $m^{-2} d^{-1}$ ) was calculated as follows:

341 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  $1/8^{th}$  aliquot. The other 342 constants are as described in Eq. (1). Individual measurements of the major and minor axis for 343 each faecal pellet were performed with the Fiji software. The total number of spherical, ovoid, 344 cylindrical, ellipsoid and tabular faecal pellets measured was 4041, 2047, 1338, 54 and 29, 345 respectively. Using these dimensions, faecal pellet volume was determined using the 346 347 appropriate shape equation (e.g. sphere, ellipse, cylinder, ovoid/ellipse) and converted to carbon using a factor of 0.036 mgC mm<sup>-3</sup> (Gonzalez and Smetacek, 1994). Due to the 348 irregularity of the tabular shapes preventing the use of single equation to calculate their 349 volume, a constant value of 119 µgC pellet<sup>-1</sup> representing a midrange value for tabular shapes 350 (Madin, 1982), was applied to tabular faecal pellets (Wilson et al., 2013). This value was 351 relevant appropriate because the observed tabular faecal pellets were comprised in within the 352 size range reported in Madin (1982). Ranges and mean values of faecal pellet volumes and 353 carbon content are reported in Table 3. Faecal fluff and disaggregated faecal pellets were not 354 355 considered in these calculations because quantitative determination of their volume is difficult. We acknowledge that fragmentation of larger pellets may represent an artifact of the 356 sample splitting procedure. Alternatively, their presence may also result from natural 357 processes within the water column, although dedicated sampling techniques (e.g. 358 polyacrylamide gel traps) are required to make this distinction (Ebersbach et al., 2014, 2011; 359 Ebersbach and Trull, 2008; Laurenceau et al., 2014). Consequently our present quantification 360 of faecal pellet carbon flux should be considered as lower-end estimates. 361

The precision of our calculations depends on the reliability of carbon-volume conversion factors of feacal 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 %).

367 2

### **2.4** Statistical analyses

Correspondence analysis was performed to summarize the seasonality of diatom export 368 assemblages. This approach projects the original variables (here full and empty cells) onto a 369 few principal axes that concentrate the information of the Chi-squared (Chi2) distance 370 between both observations and variables (Legendre and Legendre, 1998). Chi<sup>2</sup> distance is 371 very sensitive to rare events. Consequently, only full- and empty-cells fluxes >10 % of the 372 total mean flux of all sample cups were retained in the correspondence analysis. This step 373 avoided the inclusion of rare species, which potentially carry a lot of weight in the analysis 374 despite providing weak information. Consequently, only species with an annual mean flux 375 376 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 377 fluxes. 378

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

388 **3 Results** 

### 389 **3.1** Chemical composition of the settling material

390 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 already reported and 391 discussed in the companion paper (Rembauville et al., 2014). Surface chlorophyll a 392 concentration above the trap location and POC fluxes (Fig. 1a and 1b) have been described 393 and discussed in Rembauville et al. (2014). Elemental fluxes are reported in Table 1. POC 394 fluxes were low most of the time (< 0.5 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) except during two short and intense 395 export events in early December (1.6 mmol  $m^2 - d^4$ ) and late January early February (1.47) 396 mmol  $m^{-2}$   $d^{-4}$ ). Assuming a negligible flux during the unsampled period (the month in 397 September), the annual POC export was  $98.2 \pm 4.3$  mmol m<sup>-2</sup> (total  $\pm$  sum of time integrated 398 standard deviations). BSi fluxes exhibited the same seasonal pattern than as POC fluxes (Fig. 399 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 400  $2.19 \pm 0.10 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ , mean  $\pm$  standard deviation). LSi fluxes were highest in in spring 401  $(>10 \mu mol m^{-2} d^{-1} in cups \#1 to \#4, October to December 2011, Table 1)$ . The contribution of 402 LSi to total particulate Si was 5 % and 10 % respectively in cups #1 (October/November 403 2011) and #12 (May to September 2012) and lower than 3 % the remainder of the year. The 404 POC:PON molar ratio showed low variability, ranging between 6 and 8.1, with a maximum 405 406 value observed in autumn (cup #11). The BSi:POC molar ratio was highest at the beginning of the season (between  $2.18 \pm 0.19$  and  $3.46 \pm 0.16$  in the first three cups from October to 407 408 December 2011, blue line in Fig. 1c) and dropped to  $0.64 \pm 0.06$  in cup #5 (end December 409 2011), following the first export event. BSi:POC ratios were close in the two export events 410  $(1.62 \pm 0.05 \text{ and } 1.49 \pm 0.08)$ . The lowest BSi:POC ratio was observed in autumn in cup #11 411  $(0.29 \pm 0.01$ , February to May 2012). Similarly, the opal contribution to total mass flux was 412 highest in spring (70.8 % in cup #2, November 2011) and lowest in autumn (21.5 % in cup 413 #11, February to May 2012).

414 **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 flux-of full- and empty-cell fluxes for each diatom species or taxa is reported in Table 4.

During spring (cups #1 to #3, October to December 2011) and autumn/winter (cups 421 #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> 422 <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 423 #9, December and end January respectively) during two episodic (<14 days) sedimentation 424 425 events. The two largest flux events (cups #4 and #9) were also associated with significant 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 426 *Chaetoceros Hyalochaete* spp. resting spores (CRS), full cells fluxes of  $4 \times 10^7$  cells m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> 427 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 428 two events, respectively (Fig. 2b), whereas a smaller contribution of Thalassiosira antarctica 429 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 430 first event (Fig. 2h). CRS also dominated (79-94 %) the composition of full cells in the 431 intervening period (cups #5-#8, December 2011 to January 2012), although the magnitude of 432 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 #4 433

434 (December 2011), the empty cell flux contained 61 % of *C. Hyalochaete* spp. vegetative 435 empty cells and 27 % of unidentified Small centrics ( $<20 \mu$ m) empty cells. In cup #9 (end 436 January 2012), the total empty cells flux contained 60 % of *C. Hyalochaete* spp. vegetative 437 stage and only 2 % of Small centrics ( $<20 \mu$ m) empty cells.

Fragilariopsis kerguelensis, and Fragilariopsis separanda/rhombica (Fig. 2d and 2e) 438 were mostly exported from spring through the end of summer (cups #1 to #10, October 2011 439 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 440 lower than the highest CRS fluxes recorded. During this time, these species were represented 441 by >50 % of empty cells. In autumn and winter, (cups #10 and #11, February to May 2012), 442 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. 443 444 Thalassionema nitzschioides spp. fluxes were highest in spring and early summer (cups #1 to #4, October to December 2011) with total fluxes comprised between  $3.5 \times 10^6$  and  $6.7 \times 10^6$ 445 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 446 essentially represented by full cells. Pseudo-nitzschia spp. were mostly represented by full 447 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 448 export event (cup #9, end January 2012). Eucampia antarctica var. antarctica total fluxes 449 were always represented by >50 % of full cells (Fig. 2c). Total cell fluxes of Eucampia 450 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 451 spring to summer (cups #1 to #9, October 2011 to January 2012) and then decreased to a 452 negligible flux in winter (cup #12, May to September 2012). This species was observed as 453 both the lightly silicified, chain-forming, vegetative form and the highly silicified winter 454 455 growth stage form. Both forms were observed throughout the year without specific seasonal pattern. Small centric species (<20 µm) were essentially represented by empty cells (Fig. 2i). 456 Their total fluxes were  $< 4 \times 10^6$  cells m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, except in the first export event (cup #4, 457 December 2011) where their flux represented a considerable export of  $1.7 \times 10^7$  cells m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>. 458

Diatoms and sampling cup projection on the first two axes from the correspondence 459 analysis is presented in Fig. 3. Chi<sup>2</sup> distance in the correspondence analysis is based on 460 frequency distribution, therefore the results of the analysis must be considered as 461 462 representative of the community composition as opposed to cell flux. The first two factors accounted for the majority (75.6 %) of total explained variance. Early in the season (cups #1-463 #3, October to mid-December 2011), during the period of biomass accumulation in the 464 surface (Fig 1a), diatom fluxes were characterized by empty cells of *T. nitzschioides* spp. and 465 F. kerguelensis. Full TRS cells were observed in cup #3 (end November 2011) following the 466 initial bloom decline. The first major flux event (cup #4, December 2011) contained mostly 467 468 TRS, empty Small centrics ( $< 20 \mu m$ ) cells and empty C. Hyalochaete spp. cells. The summer flux period (cups #5 to #8, December 2011 to January 2012) primarily consisted of CRS, 469 although E. antarctica var. antarctica, Pseudo-nitzschia spp, and Thalassiothrix antarctica 470 471 were present as full cells and Plagiotropis spp., Membraneis spp., Pseudo-nitzschia spp. as empty cells. The second major flux event (cup #9, end January 2012) was tightly associated 472 473 with CRS and full Pseudo-nitzschia spp. cells. Subsequent cups (#10 and #11, February to 474 May 2012) were characterized by full cells of *E. antarctica* var. antarctica and Thalassiotrix antarctica and empty cells of Corethron inerme, P. alata, F. separanda/rhombica and F. 475 kerguelensis. Winter fluxes (cup #12, May to September 2012) were similar to the initial three 476 cups characterized primarily by empty cells of small diatom taxa. The centralized projection 477 in Fig. 3 of full F. kerguelensis and T. nitzschioides spp. highlights their constant presence 478 throughout the annual record. 479

The total empty:full cell ratio is presented in Fig. 2a (blue line). This ratio was highest in spring and early summer (cups #1 to #4, October to December 2011), ranging between 1.1 and 2.4, suggesting more empty cells to full cells. The ratio was lowest, representing considerably more full cells to empty cells in cups #5 to #10 (December 2011 to February

2012) with values between 0.1 and 0.4. In autumn (cup #11, February to May 2012), the 484 empty:full ratio increased to 0.7. In the winter cup #12 (May to September 2012), the total 485 amount of full diatom cells was very low and therefore we could not calculate a robust 486 empty:full ratio. Across the time-series certain diatom taxa were observed exclusively as 487 empty cells, notably Chaetoceros atlanticus f. bulbosum, and Corethron pennatum. For 488 diatom taxa present as full and empty cells we calculated an annually integrated empty:full 489 ratio (Fig. 4) and arbitrarily defined threshold values of 2 (representing species mainly 490 observed as empty cells) and 0.5 (representing species mainly observed as full cells), 491 respectively. In decreasing order, the diatom taxa exhibiting empty:full ratios >2 were 492 Thalassiosira lentiginosa, Small centrics (< 20µm), Proboscia alata, Rhizosolenia 493 antennata/styliformis, Chaetoceros decipiens, Corethron inerme, Dactyliosolen antarcticus, 494 Large centrics (> 20 µm), and Asteromphalus spp. The diatom taxa displaying an empty:full 495 ratio <0.5 were Thalassiothrix antarctica, Rhizosolenia simplex, CRS, Eucampia antarctica 496 497 var. antarctica, Thalassiosira spp. and Navicula spp. Species or grouped taxa with ratio 498 values falling between the thresholds (<2 and >0.5; R. chunii, through to C. dichaeta in Fig. 4) were perceived as being almost equally represented by full and empty cells when integrated 499 annually across the time series. 500

#### 501

### **3.3 Faecal pellet fluxes**

The seasonal flux of faecal pellet type, volume and their estimated carbon flux are 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 spring (cups #1 to #3, October to December 2011). Cups #4 and #5 (December 2011) were 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 6). Faecal pellet numerical flux decreased gradually from mid-summer (cup# 5, December 2011) to reach a minimal value in winter (140 pellets m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> in cup #12, May to September 2012). In spring (cups #1 to #3, October to December 2011), spherical and cylindrical shapes

dominated the numerical faecal pellet fluxes. Ellipsoid and tabular shapes were absent from 509 these spring cups. The first export event (cup #4, December 2011), was numerically 510 dominated by the spherical shaped pellets, however the remainder of the summer (cups #5 to 511 #10, December 2011 to February 2012) contained spherical, ovoid and cylindrical shapes in 512 comparable proportions. Ellipsoid shapes were observed from mid-summer to autumn (cups 513 #7 to #11, January to May 2012) but their overall contribution to pellet flux was low (<6 %, 514 Table 6). Rare tabular shapes were observed in summer (cups #6 and #8, December and 515 January 2012) and their contribution to numerical fluxes was highest in autumn and winter 516 (cups #11 and #12, February to September 2012). 517

The median faecal pellet volume showed a seasonal signal with a maximum peak > 519  $5.5 \times 10^6 \,\mu\text{m}^3$  in mid-summer (cups # 6 to #8, mid-December to January 2012) and values <4 520  $\times 10^6 \,\mu\text{m}^3$  the remainder of the year (Fig. 5b). Concomitantly with the highest median 521 volume, the largest variance in faecal pellet size was also observed in the summer (highest 522 interquartile values in Fig. 5b).

Total faecal pellet carbon flux was lowest in spring ( $< 0.05 \text{ mmolC m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  in cups #1 523 to #3, October to December 2011, Fig. 5c, Table 6). The highest total faecal pellet carbon flux 524 of nearly 0.5 mmolC  $m^{-2} d^{-1}$  was observed during the first export event in cup #4 (December 525 2011) and was essentially composed of spherical shapes (83 %, Table 6). For the remainder of 526 the summer (cups #5 to #10, December 2011 to February 2012), total faecal pellet carbon flux 527 was between 0.03 and 0.15 mmolC m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> with a dominant contribution of cylindrical, 528 ellipsoid and tabular shapes. In autumn and winter (cups #11 and #12, February to September 529 2012), faecal pellet carbon fluxes of 0.13 and 0.06 mmolC  $m^{-2} d^{-1}$  were strictly dominated by 530 531 tabular shapes (> 90 % to total faecal pellet carbon fluxes, Table 6).

# 532 **3.4 Statistical analysis of biological and biogeochemical signatures**

The  $\beta$  correlation coefficients of standardized variables obtained from the PLSR 533 analysis are presented as a heatmap in Fig. 6. The full cell fluxes of all diatom taxa, in 534 addition to spherical and ovoid and ellipsoid faecal pellet fluxes were positively correlated to 535 536 POC and PON fluxes. By contrast, empty cell fluxes of F. kerguelensis, P. alata, T. nitzschioides spp., T. lentiginosa and cyclindrical, ellipsoid and tabular pellet fluxes were 537 either uncorrelated or negatively correlated with POC and PON fluxes. Full- and empty-cell 538 fluxes of all diatom taxa were positively correlated with BSi fluxes, although this correlation 539 540 was notably weak for empty cells of C. inerme, P. alata and T. lentiginosa. Only spherical and ovoid faecal pellets were positively correlated with BSi fluxes. Full cells fluxes of CRS 541 542 and E. antarctica var. antarctica were the most negatively correlated with BSi:POC molar ratio, whereas TRS, F. kerguelensis, T. nitzschioides spp. and T. lentiginosa full cells fluxes 543 were positively correlated. Spherical and ovoid faecal pellets were weakly and negatively 544 correlated with the BSi:POC molar ratio whereas the cylindrical, ellipsoid and tabular shapes 545 were more strongly negatively correlated to the BSi:POC molar ratio. All the biological 546 547 components exhibited weak or no correlations to the POC:PON molar ratio.

The first two latent vectors of the PLSR accounted for 61.3 % and 74.1 % of 548 cumulative variance in X (full and empty diatom and pellet fluxes) and Y (biogeochemical 549 properties). In order to visualize how the seasonal succession of flux vectors was related to 550 the bulk geochemical properties of particles, the sampling cups, biological and chemical 551 factors were projected on the first two latent factors of the PLSR analysis (Fig. 7). (Fig. 8). 552 Positively projected on the first axis are the POC, PON and BSi fluxes, close to the export 553 554 events sampled in cups #4 (December 2011) and #9 (end January 2012). The closest biological components comprise a complex assemblage of full and empty cells and spherical 555 and ovoid faecal pellet shapes. All the other cups are projected far from these two export 556 557 events. The second axis opposes the spring cups (#1 to #3, October to mid-December 2011) to

the autumn (#11, February to May 2012) and winter (#12, May to September 2012) cups. Empty frustules of *F. kerguelensis*, *T. lentiginosa* and *T. nitzschioides* spp. are projected close to the spring 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) are projected far from the BSi:POC molar ratio and close to the tabular and cylindrical faecal pellet shapes.

564

#### 3.5 Partitioning carbon fluxes among ecological vectors

We estimated the contribution of resting spores and faecal pellets to carbon flux, calculated 565 their cumulative values and compared them to measured values (Fig. 8a and 8b). A highly 566 significant correlation (Spearman rank correlation, n= 36,  $\rho = 0.84$ , p < 0.001) was evident 567 between calculated and measured carbon flux suggesting that the main ecological flux vectors 568 569 observed in the sample were capable of explaining the seasonal variation in total POC flux. Table 7 lists the contribution of each vector to the calculated flux. In cup #1 (October to mid-570 November 2011), CRS and other diatoms dominated the calculated POC fluxes, with 571 respectively 25.3 % and 38.6 %. Diatoms other than spores dominated the calculated carbon 572 flux (35.4 %) together with cylindrical faecal pellets (36.4 %) in cup #2 (November 2011). 573 574 TRS dominated the POC fluxes (85.1 %) in cup #3 (November/December 2011) (85.1 %). CRS strictly dominated the calculated POC fluxes in summer (cups #4 to #10, December 575 2011 to February 2012) with a contribution ranging from 46.8 % to 88.1 %. During the 576 autumn and winter (cups #11 and #12, February to September 2012), POC fluxes were almost 577 exclusively associated to tabular faecal pellets, 81 % and 93.3 %, respectively. At annual 578 scale diatoms resting spores (CRS and TRS), other diatoms and faecal pellets respectively 579 580 accounted for 60.7 %, 5 % and 34.3 % of the calculated POC fluxes. Annual POC fluxes estimated from ecological vectors considered here were slightly less than measured values 581  $(93.1 \text{ versus } 98.2 \text{ mmol } \text{m}^{-2}).$ 582

584

## 4.1 The significance of resting spores for POC flux

Although there was generally a strong attenuation of flux between the base of the winter 585 586 mixed layer (WML) and 300 m on the Kerguelen Plateau (Rembauville et al 2014), we observed significant variability in export over the annual cycle. In a companion paper we 587 present multiple lines of evidence that converge on a scenario of strong flux attenuation 588 between the base of the winter mixed layer (WML at ~220 m) and 300 m on the Kerguelen 589 Plateau (Rembauville et al., 2014). Most notably large attenuation coefficients (3.3 - 4) were 590 calculated from independent measurements in spring and summer. (Ebersbach and Trull, 2008; 591 Jouandet et al., 2014). Strong flux attenuation and under trapping due to hydrodynamics and 592 swimmers combine to explain the low annually-integrated POC fluxes. However, we 593 observed significant variability in export over the annual cycle. Generally POC fluxes were 594  $<0.5 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  with the notable exception of two pulsed (<14 days) export events of ~1.5 595 mmol  $m^{-2} d^{-1}$  that accounted for ~40 % of annual POC export. These two flux events were 596 597 characterized by a noticeable increase and general dominance of diatom resting spores. During both of these pulsed export events, cumulative Chaetoceros Hyalochaete spp. resting 598 spores (CRS) and Thalassiosira antarctica resting spores (TRS) fluxes accounted for 66 % 599 600 and 88 % of the measured POC flux, whereas total faecal pellet flux accounted for 29 % and 5.2 %, respectively (Table 7). The combination of CRS and TRS were responsible for 60.7 % 601 of the annual calculated POC flux, a value ten times higher than the contribution of other 602 diatoms (5 %). We did not observe any full cells of the vegetative stage of Chaetoceros 603 Hyalochaete, a feature possibly related to its high susceptibility to grazing pressure in the 604 605 mixed layer (Smetacek et al., 2004; Quéguiner, 2013; Assmy et al., 2013). Empty Chaetoceros Hyalochaete spp. cells were vegetative stages different in shape from the resting 606 spores. It can be the remaining of These empty frustules may can be the remnants of 607

vegetative stages following the spore formation. formation or the result of the consumption of 608 the organic material by grazing. Alternatively, dissolution of the lightly silicified valves or 609 girdle bands of the vegetative cell could result in the rapid consumption of the cellular organic 610 material in the upper water column and this may also explain the absence of full vegetative 611 cells in the sediment trap record. Our flux data reveal that small (10 to 30  $\mu$ m) and highly 612 silicified resting spores bypass the intense grazing pressure characterizing the base of the 613 614 mixed layer, and are the primary mechanism through which carbon and, to a lesser extent 615 silicon, is exported from the surface.

Numerous sediment trap studies have reported a strong contribution, if not dominance, 616 of CRS to diatom fluxes at depth in various oceanographic regions: firstly, in coastal 617 influenced regions (e.g. Antarctic Peninsula (Leventer, 1991), Bransfield Strait (Abelmann 618 and Gersonde, 1991), Gulf of California (Sancetta, 1995), the Omura Bay (Kato et al., 2003), 619 620 North Pacific Ocean (Chang et al., 2013) and the Artic (Onodera et al., 2014)), secondly in upwelling-influenced regions (e.g. Santa Barbara basin (Lange, 1997), Eastern Equatorial 621 622 Atlantic (Treppke et al., 1996)) and finally in the open ocean in the subarctic Atlantic 623 (Rynearson et 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 624 al., 1997; Zielinski and Gersonde, 1997; Armand et al., 2005), the North Scotia Sea (Allen et 625 al., 2005) and east of Kerguelen Island (Armand et al., 2008b)), but also in upwelling-626 influenced regions (the northeastern Pacific (Grimm et al., 1996), the northeast Pacific (Lopes 627 et al., 2006)) and finally in the open ocean (the North Atlantic, Bao et al., 2000). (e.g. 628 Antarctic Peninsula (Leventer, 1991), Bransfield Strait (Abelmann and Gersonde, 1991), Gulf 629 630 of California (Sancetta, 1995; Lange et al., 1997), Eastern Equatorial Atlantic (Treppke et al., 1996), East China Sea the Omura Bay (Kato et al., 2003), coastal North Pacific Ocean (Chang 631 et al., 2013) and the subarctic Atlantic (Rynearson et al., 2013) and the Artic (Onodera et al., 632

2014)). CRS are also found to be dominant in surface sediments in the coastal northeastern 633 Pacific (Grimm et al., 1996), the North Atlantic (Bao et al., 2000), the northeast Pacific 634 (Lopes et al., 2006), the North Scotia Sea (Allen et al., 2005), Antarctic sea ice and coastal 635 regions (Crosta et al., 1997; Zielinski and Gersonde, 1997; Armand et al., 2005), and east of 636 Kerguelen Island (Armand et al., 2008b). Moreover, the annual POC export from the A3 637 station sediment trap at 289 m (98.2±4.4 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>) falls near annual estimates from deep 638 sediment traps (>2000 m) located in the naturally fertilized area downstream of the Crozet 639 Islands (37-60 and 40-42 mmol  $m^{-2}$  y<sup>-1</sup>, Salter et al., 2012) where fluxes were considered as 640 mainly driven by resting spores of Eucampia antarctica var. antarctica. The frequent 641 occurrence and widespread distribution of diatoms resting spores suggest their pivotal role in 642 the efficient transfer of carbon to depth. Although they are 20 frequently observed in blooms 643 heavily influenced by the proximity of the coast, large scale advection might explain that their 644 645 impact on carbon export is not restricted to neritic areas. Diatom resting spores are frequently observed in blooms heavily influenced by the proximity of the coast. Major resting spores 646 647 contribution to carbon fluxes was observed in only one study in the open North Atlantic 648 Ocean (Rynearson et al., 2013), but they are generally absent or very rare in open ocean sediment trap studies (Fischer et al., 2002; Grigorov et al., 2014; Rigual-Hernández et al., 649 2015). The frequent occurrence and widespread distribution of diatoms resting spores in the 650 neritic or coastal-influenced ocean suggest their pivotal role in the efficient transfer of carbon 651 to depth in these areas. 652

653 *Chaetoceros* resting spores have been reported to contain up to 10 times more carbon 654 than the vegetative forms (Kuwata et al., 1993) with no vacuole and high contents of lipids 655 and carbohydrates (Doucette and Fryxell, 1983; Kuwata et al., 1993). Moreover, CRS resist 656 grazing and have been found to lower copepod<del>s</del> grazing pressure (Kuwata and Tsuda, 2005). 657 We suggest that diatom resting spores gather three essential characteristics for effective

intense POC export to the deep ocean: (1) they efficiently bypass the grazing pressure near the 658 mixed layer due to their morphological characteristics such as very robust frustules (CRS) or 659 numerous spines (TRS) (high export efficiency), (2) they are efficiently transferred to depth 660 due to the thick and dense frustule increasing sinking velocity and (3) their high carbon 661 content is protected from microbial degradation by the thick frustules (these last two points 662 result in a high transfer efficiency). The spatial distribution and formation of resting spores 663 may therefore be an integral ecological component defining the strength and efficiency of the 664 biological pump in specific regions. Nutrient depletion has been shown to trigger resting spore 665 formation in Chaetoceros Hyalochaete laboratory cultures (Garrison, 1981; Sanders and 666 667 Cibik, 1985; Kuwata et al., 1993; Oku and Kamatani, 1997) over relatively rapid timescales (6 to 48 h, McQuoid and Hobson, 1996). Although Si(OH)<sub>4</sub> depletion appears to be the most 668 likely biogeochemical trigger at the Kerguelen Plateau (from 24  $\mu$ mol L<sup>-1</sup> in early spring to 2 669  $\mu$ mol L<sup>-1</sup> in summer; (Mosseri et al., 2008; Closset et al., 2014)), other environmental factors 670 (iron or light availability) could influence the resting spore formation. Notably, dissolved iron 671 concentration in the mixed layer rapidly decreases to  $0.1 \sim 0.2$  nmol L<sup>-1</sup> after the beginning of 672 the spring bloom at A3, however the vertical entrainment is much weaker in summer 673 compared to spring (Bowie et al., 2014). Further work to establish seasonal dynamics of these 674 factors linked to diatom life cycles and specifically the formation of resting spore formation 675 response is necessary. 676

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### 4.2 Contribution of faecal pellets to POC flux

Although diatoms resting spores are the primary vector for POC flux below the mixed layer, faecal pellets were also important and accounted for 34.3 % of annual export. It could be has been hypothesized that faecal pellets are the dominant flux component in High Biomass, Low 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 the bloom of the central Kerguelen Plateau suggesting that faecal material is 683 efficiently reprocessed in the mixed layer, or that a significant part of the pellet flux is 684 excreted below the trap depth by vertically migrating zooplankton. Small spherical faecal 685 pellets dominated the annual numerical faecal pellet flux (53.8 %, Table 6). The short and 686 intense export of small spherical faecal pellets was concomitant with the first strong POC 687 export in cup #4 (December 2011, Table 6). The significance of small spherical faecal pellets 688 to POC flux is somewhat uncharacteristic in comparison to other sediment trap records in 689 690 shallow areas of 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 691 (Fransz and Gonzalez, 1995; Pinkerton et al., 2010). More specifically, O. similis represents 692 >50 % of mesozooplankton abundance at A3 in spring (Carlotti et al., 2015) have has been 693 observed at station A3 in summer (Carlotti et al., 2008). Oithona species are known to be 694 695 coprophagous and play an important role in flux reprocessing (Gonzalez and Smetacek, 1994), which may partially contribute to the rapid flux attenuation observed by efficiently 696 retaining carbon in the mixed layer. This reprocessing feeding strategy might also explain the 697 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 698 orders of magnitude lower than the  $>5 \times 10^5$  pellet m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> observed in neritic areas where 699 euphausiids dominate the mesozooplankton community (Bodungen, 1986; von Bodungen et 700 al., 1987; Wefer et al., 1988). 701

There are-were notable differences in faecal pellet type over the course of the season. The transition from spherical and ovoid pellets in spring to larger cylindrical and tabular pellets in summer presumably reflects shifts in dominant zooplankton species from small cyclopoid 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 November 2011 and was three-fold higher in January 2005 (Carlotti et al., 2008).

In spring, Carlotti et al. (2015) observed that the small size fraction  $(300 - 500 \mu m)$  was 708 numerically dominated by Oithona similis (50 % of the total mesozooplankton assemblage), 709 although the larger size fractions dominated the mesozooplankton biomass (dominated by 710 711 Clausocalanus citer, and Rhicalanus gigas). This is consistent with the dominance of small spherical faecal pellets and the lower contribution of cylindrical shapes we observed in spring 712 and early summer (cups #1 to #4, October to December 2011, Table 6). In summer (January 713 714 2005), the mesozooplankton community was more diversified and comprised 21 % of small 715 individuals (Oithona sp and Oncea sp.), 20 % of medium-sized individuals (Clausocalanus sp and Microcalanus sp.) and 21 % of large individuals (Calanus sp., Metrida sp., Paraeuchaeta 716 717 sp., Pleuromama sp. and Rhincalanus sp.; Carlotti et al., 2008). As the median size of faecal pellets increases, so does their relative contribution to carbon flux (Fig. 5b and 5d, Table 6). 718 Our observation of an increasing contribution of cylindrical faecal pellet shapes in summer 719 720 (cups #5 to #10, December 2011 to February 2012, Table 6) is consistent with the increasing contribution of large calanoid copepods to the mesozooplankton assemblages. We note that 721 722 pteropods showed the highest contribution to mesozooplankton assemblages at station A3 in 723 summer (16 % of total abundance, Carlotti et al., 2008). We associate this observation with the large ellipsoid faecal pellet shape that was first observed in the sediment trap in cup #5 724 (end December 2011) and represented the highest contribution to faecal pellet carbon fluxes 725 in cup #9 (January/February 2012, Table 7). Tabular faecal pellets dominated the low POC 726 fluxes observed in the autumn and winter when chlorophyll a concentration was reduced to 727 background levels, although this interpretation should be taken with caution since a constant 728 729 and high carbon content was used for this shape. The increase in organic carbon content and negative correlation between the abundance of cylindrical, ellipsoid and tabular faecal pellets 730 731 fluxes and the BSi:POC molar ratio suggests that large zooplankton producing these tabular pellets (large copepods, euphausiids and salps) are were not feeding directly on diatoms. 732

During the autumn and winter, microbial components other than diatoms must sustain the production of this these large zooplankton. Direct observation of faecal pellet content is beyond the scope of 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 to document the seasonal dynamic of euphausiids and salps abundances over the Kerguelen Plateau to compare them with our reported faecal pellet fluxes.

### 740 **4.3 Diatom fluxes**

The diatom fluxes (sum of empty and full cells) observed at the central Kerguelen 741 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 742 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 743 highest values observed in POOZ ( $\sim 10^7$  values m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> Abelmann and Gersonde, 1991; Salter 744 et al., 2012; Grigorov et al., 2014) and the SIZ (>10<sup>9</sup> valves  $m^{-2} d^{-1}$ , Suzuki et al., 2001; 745 Pilskaln et al., 2004). The values diatom fluxes over the Kerguelen plateau are similar to the 746 2.5 -  $3.5 \times 10^8$  valves m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> measured at 200 m depth in a coastal station of the Antarctic 747 Peninsula, where CRS represented ~80 % of the phytoplankton assemblage (Leventer, 1991). 748 Although the Previous studies report the presence of a resting spore formation strategy in 749 diatom species as typically associated with neritic areas (Smetacek, 1985; Crosta et al., 1997; 750 Salter et al., 2012). , their very high export and transfer efficiency together with advection can 751 explain their contribution to deep open ocean fluxes (e.g. Rynearson et al., 2013). During a 752 previous the first multidisciplinary process study of the Kerguelen Plateau the summer 753 KEOPS1 cruise, a shift in plankton community composition was observed at station A3 754 755 between January and February. The surface community initially dominated by Chaetoceros Hyalochaete vegetative chains gave way to one dominated by Eucampia antarctica var. 756 antarctica, concomitant with increasing CRS abundance in the mixed layer (Armand et al., 757

758 2008a). The abundance of dead cells (within chains or as empty single cells and half cells) in 759 the surface water column also increased from January to February, suggesting intense 760 heterotrophic activity. Surface sediments at station A3 contain, in decreasing abundance, *F.* 761 *kerguelensis*, CRS and *T. nitzschioides* spp. cells (Armand et al., 2008b). These sedimentary 762 distributions are consistent with the dominant species observed in the sediment trap, *F.* 763 *kerguelensis* and *T. nitzschioides* spp. being present throughout the year and mostly 764 represented by empty cells whereas CRS are exported during short and intense events.

Eucampia antarctica var. antarctica resting spores dominated the deep (2000 m) 765 sediment trap diatom assemblages in the naturally fertilized area close to the Crozet Islands 766 with fluxes >  $10^7$  cells m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> (Salter et al., 2012). We observed highest *Eucampia antarctica* 767 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 768 total cell flux. Both vegetative and resting stages were observed. Our results suggest that 769 770 *Eucampia antarctica* var. *antarctica* is unlikely to be a major driving vector for carbon fluxes 771 to depth over the central Kerguelen Plateau, in part because the community was not forming massive highly-silicified, fast-sinking resting spores contrary to observations near the Crozet 772 773 Islands. Moreover their biogeographic abundance distribution from sea floor observations suggests they are not dominant in this region of the plateau (Armand et al., 2008b). The iron-774 fertilized Crozet bloom is north of the Polar Front and dissolved Si(OH)<sub>4</sub> concentrations were 775 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 776 Plateau (Mosseri et al., 2008). It is possible, along with differences in iron dynamics between 777 the two plateaus, that differences in nutrient stoichiometry favour bloom dynamics and resting 778 779 spore formation of *Chaetoceros Hyalochaete* populations surrounding the Kerguelen Islands. Nevertheless, the increasing full cell flux of *Eucampia antarctica* var. *antarctica* from spring 780 to summer in the sediment trap time series is consistent with the observations of an increasing 781

abundance in the mixed layer at the station A3 in summer (Armand et al., 2008a). and
 therefore the role this species plays as an efficient vector for carbon export.

Highest Pseudo-nitzschia spp. full cell fluxes were observed in summer, 784 concomitantly with the second export peak event (cup #9, end January 2012). Pseudo-785 nitzschia species are rarely found in deep sediment trap studies and are absent from the 786 787 sediment diatom assemblages, presumably due to their susceptibility to water column dissolution (Grigorov et al., 2014; Rigual-Hernández et al., 2015). The species Pseudo-788 *nitzschia hemii* has been reported to accumulate in summer in deep chlorophyll maximum in 789 the Polar Frontal Zone (Kopczynska et al., 2001). Such deep biomass accumulation is 790 hypothesized to benefit from nutrient diffusion through the pycnocline (Parslow et al., 2001). 791 792 These general observations are consistent with the peaks in *Pseudo-nitzschia* spp. fluxes we 793 report in summer over the Kerguelen Plateau. The genera have been reported to accumulate in summer in deep chlorophyll maximum, benefiting from nutrient diffusion through the 794 795 pycnocline (Parslow et al., 2001) This ecological characteristic, together with the shallow sediment trap depth (289 m) may explain our observations of peaks in Pseudo nitzschia spp. 796 fluxes during summer. 797

Although their fluxes were very low, species of the Rhizosolenia and Proboscia genus 798 genera were mostly exported as empty cells at the end of summer and during autumn (cups #8 799 to #11, end January to May 2012), occurring in parallel with the full cell fluxes of the giant 800 diatom Thalassiothrix antarctica (Table 4). It has been suggested that these species belong to 801 a group of "deep shade flora" that accumulate at the subsurface chlorophyll maxima in 802 summer with their highly silicified, large frustules protecting them from grazing pressure in 803 804 stratified waters (Kemp and Villareal, 2013). Interestingly these species were also found in deep sediment traps located in a non-fertilized HNLC area south of the Crozet Plateau (Salter 805 806 et al., 2012), as well as in 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 807 chlorophyll maximum has previously been observed at 120 m on the Kerguelen Plateau (also 808 station A3) during summer (Uitz et al., 2009) and appears to correspond to an accumulation of 809 particles consisting of aggregates of large diatom species (Jouandet et al., 2011). The fact that 810 Rhizosolenia spp. and Proboscia spp. were observed as empty cells whereas Thalassiothrix 811 antarctica was mostly represented by full cells suggest species-specific grazing on these 812 communities. There appears to be ecological differentiation within the "deep shade flora" that 813 precludes describing a single effect on export stoichiometry. Moreover, on the Kerguelen 814 Plateau, these species are not exported in "massive" proportions as the fall-dump hypothesis 815 suggests (Kemp et al., 2000). (Kemp and Villareal, 2013). The physical and biogeochemical 816 factors responsible for their production and export are still to be determined, and should be 817 investigated thoroughly given the potential importance that these species might have for 818 819 export fluxes on a global scale (Kemp et al., 2000; Richardson et al., 2000; Kemp and 820 Villareal, 2013).

#### 821

#### 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 alloweds us to avoid unnecessary assumptions concerning carbon content of exported diatoms and directly pinpoint 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 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

2011) is significantly higher than the BSi:POC ratio of  $0.32 \pm 0.06$  in the mixed layer of the 831 same station during spring (Lasbleiz et al., 2014). Numerous chemical, physical, biological 832 and ecological factors can impact BSi:POC ratios of marine diatoms (e.g. Ragueneau et al., 833 2006). However, the ten-fold differences in BSi:POC ratios of exported particles between 834 spring and summer is unlikely to result simply only from physiological constraints set during 835 diatoms growth (Hutchins and Bruland, 1998; Takeda, 1998). Previous comparisons in natural 836 837 and artificially iron-fertilized settings have the highlighted importance of diatom community structure for carbon and silica export (Smetacek et al., 2004; Salter et al., 2012; Quéguiner, 838 2013; Assmy et al., 2013). The presence of different diatom species and their characteristic 839 traits (e. g. susceptibility to grazing, apoptosis, viral lysis) are all likely to influence the flux 840 of full and empty cells. Therefore, the net BSi:POC export ratio results from the net effect of 841 species specific Si:C composition (Sackett et al., 2014) and the subsequent species-specific 842 mortality pathway and dissolution. A significant correlation between BSi:POC and empty:full 843 cells ratio (Spearman rank correlation, n = 12,  $\rho = 0.78$ , p < 0.05) suggests the latter acts as a 844 845 first order control on the silicon and organic carbon export stoichiometry. Differences in 846 BSi:POC ratios between the mixed layer suspended particle stock and particles exported out the mixed layer may be explained by the dominant sedimentation of empty diatom frustules 847 848 that results from the grazing pressure by the zooplankton community and the intense carbon utilization by heterotrophic microbial communities (Christaki et al., 2014). 849

We classified species that were observed exclusively as empty cells, or sinking with an
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. decipiens, C. inerme, D. antarcticus, P. alata, T. nitzschioides* spp., *T. lentiginosa*, and small
centric species (< 20 µm). Although *F. kerguelensis, T. nitzschoides* spp. and *T. lentiginosa*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 856 contrary resting spores and species that sink with a major contribution of full cells (integrated 857 empty-full ratio <0.5) were identified as belonging to the preferential carbon sinkers: C. 858 859 Hyalochaete spp., E. antarctica var. antarctica, R. simplex and Thalassiothrix antarctica. Among them, CRS and E. antarctica var. antarctica were the most negatively correlated to 860 the BSi:POC ratio and were identified as key species for carbon export (Fig. 6). These 861 observations are consistent with a previous study of natural iron fertilization that identified C. 862 pennatum, D. antarcticus and F. kerguelensis as major silica sinkers and CRS and E. 863 antarctica var. antarctica resting spores as major carbon sinkers downstream Crozet islands 864 (Salter et al., 2012). During the EIFEX artificial fertilization experiment C. Hyalochaete 865 vegetative stages were identified as major carbon sinker whereas F. kerguelensis was 866 considered as strong silica sinker (Assmy et al., 2013). Notably, resting spore formation was 867 868 not observed in the artificial experiment performed in the open ocean remote from coastal influence, and carbon export was attributed to mass mortality and aggregation of algal cells 869 870 (Assmy et al., 2013). Nevertheless, a more detailed analysis of species-specific carbon and 871 silica content in the exported material is necessary to fully elucidate their respective roles on carbon and silica export. 872

These observations are consistent with previous studies of natural (Salter et al., 2012) 873 and artificial (Assmy et al., 2013) iron fertilization that identified C. pennatum, D. antarcticus 874 and F. kerguelensis as major silica sinkers and C. Hyalochaete vegetative cells, CRS and E. 875 antarctica var. antarctica resting spores as major carbon sinkers. Notably, resting spore 876 formation was not observed in the artificial experiment and carbon export was attributed to 877 mass mortality and aggregation of algal cells (Assmy et al., 2013). Nevertheless, a more 878 detailed analysis of species-specific carbon and silica content in the exported material is 879 880 necessary to fully validate their respective role on carbon and silica export.

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# 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

4.5 Seasonal succession of ecological flux vectors over the Kerguelen Plateau

particles characterizing the biological pump. The seasonal cycle of ecological vectors and 886 associated export stoichiometry is summarized in Figure 7. The robustness of the relationship 887 between measured and calculated POC fluxes (Fig. 8b) suggests that the main ecological flux 888 vectors described from our sediment trap the samples are sufficient to model the seasonal 889 evolution capable of predicting seasonal patterns of total POC fluxes (Fig. 8b). At an annual 890 scale the calculated POC fluxes slightly underestimate those measured the measured fluxes 891 (93.1 versus 98.2 mmol  $m^{-2}$ ), which This might results from the minor contribution of full 892 893 cells other than the diatoms species considered, in addition to aggregated material, organic matter sorbed to the exterior of empty cells and faecal fluff that was difficult to enumerate. In 894 spring, carbon fluxes are low and mainly associated with the empty cells of small diatoms and 895 small faecal pellets. In summer carbon fluxes are primarily driven by resting spores, whereas 896 the contribution of small faecal pellets is low. In winter, when primary production is 897 negligible, large faecal pellets become the major carbon flux vector. 898

A scheme of phytoplankton and zooplankton communities succession in naturally fertilized areas of the Southern Ocean was proposed by Quéguiner (2013). Spring phytoplankton communities are characterized by small, lightly silicified, fast growing diatoms associated with small microphageous copepods. In summer, the phytoplankton community progressively switches toward large, highly silicified, slow growing diatoms resistant to the 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

differs somewhat to the conceptual model of ecological succession in naturally iron fertilized 906 areas proposed by Quéguiner (2013), although the general patterns are similar. The first 907 diatoms exported in spring are indeed small species of F. kerguelensis, T. nitzschioides spp., 908 and small centric species ( $<20 \mu m$ ). The diatom species exported in spring were F. 909 kerguelensis, T. nitzschioides spp., and small centric species (<20 µm), whilst in summer the 910 comparatively very large (>200 µm) species of Proboscia sp., Rhizosolenia sp. and 911 Thalassiothrix antarctica were observed. However we observe that these species constituting 912 the spring fluxes are exported almost exclusively as empty cells. The abundance of small 913 spherical and ovoid faecal pellet suggests an important role of small copepods in the 914 zooplankton (Yoon et al., 2001; Wilson et al., 2013), which was corroborated by the finding 915 of dominant Oithona similis abundances in the spring mesozooplankton assemblages at 916 station A3 (Carlotti et al., 2015). Therefore, our data suggests that spring export captured by 917 918 the sediment trap was the remnants of a diatom community subject to efficient grazing and 919 carbon utilization in, or at the basis of, the mixed layer, resulting in a BSi:POC export ratio > 920 2 (Table 1).

921 The main difference in our observations and the conceptual scheme of Quéguiner, (2013) is the dominance of Chaetoceros Hyalochaete resting spores to diatom export 922 assemblages and their contribution to carbon fluxes out of the mixed layer in summer.  $\frac{1}{2}$ 923 probably triggered by Si(OH)<sub>4</sub> limitation. Resting spores appear to efficiently bypass the 924 "carbon trap" represented by grazers and might also physically entrain small faecal pellets in 925 their downward flux. In mid-summer, faecal pellet carbon export is dominated by the 926 927 contribution of cylindrical shapes. This appears to be consistent with an observed shift toward a higher contribution of large copepods and euphausiids to the mesozooplankton community 928 929 in the mixed layer (Carlotti et al., 2008). However, CRS still dominate the diatom exported assemblage. The corresponding BSi:POC ratio decreases with values between 1 and 2 (Table 930

1). The fact that there are two discrete resting spore sport 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.

In the autumn and winter, diatoms 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 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.

#### 941 **5** Conclusion

We report the chemical (particulate organic carbon and nitrogen, biogenic silica) and 942 943 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. Despite 944 iron availability, Annually integrated organic carbon export from the iron fertilized bloom 945 was low (98 mmol m<sup>-2</sup>) although biogenic silicon export was significant (114 mmol m<sup>-2</sup>). 946 Chaetoceros Hyalochaete and Thalassiosira antarctica resting spores accounted for more 947 than 60 % of the annual POC flux. The high abundance of empty cells and the low 948 contribution of faecal pellets to POC flux (34 %) suggest efficient carbon retention occurs in, 949 950 or at the base of the mixed layer. We propose that in this HBLE environment, carbon-rich and 951 fast-sinking resting spores bypass the intense grazing pressure otherwise responsible for the rapid attenuation of flux. The seasonal succession of diatom taxa groups was tightly linked to 952 the stoichiometry of the exported material. Several species were identified as primarily "silica 953 sinkers" e.g. Fragilariopsis kerguelensis and Thalassionema nitzschioides spp. and others as 954

955 preferential 'carbon sinkers' e.g. resting spores of *Chaetoceros Hyalochaete* and 956 *Thalassiosira antarctica, Eucampia antarctica* var. *antarctica* and the giant diatom 957 *Thalassiothrix antarctica*. Faecal pellet types described a clear transition from small spherical 958 shapes (small copepods) in spring, larger cylindrical an ellipsoid shapes in summer 959 (euphausiids and large copepods) and large tabular shape (salps) in fall. Their contribution to 960 carbon fluxes increased with the presence of larger shapes.

The change in biological productivity and ocean circulation cannot explain the ~80 961 ppmv atmospheric  $pCO_2$  difference between the preindustrial era and the last glacial 962 maximum (Archer et al., 2000; Bopp et al., 2003; Kohfeld et al., 2005; Wolff et al., 2006). 963 Nevertheless, a simple switch in 'silica sinker' versus 'carbon sinker' relative abundance 964 965 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 966 emphasize the compelling need for similar studies in other locations of the global Ocean that 967 968 will allow identification of key ecological vectors that set the magnitude and the stoichiometry of the biological pump. 969

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**Table 1.** Sediment trap cup collection dates, seasonal attribution, particulate organic carbon (POC)
and nitrogen (PON) fluxes, biogenic and lithogenic silicon (BSi and LSi) fluxes and molar ratios. POC
and PON data from Rembauville et al. (2014). and calculated export fluxes of particulate organic
carbon (POC), particulate organic nitrogen (PON) and biogenic silica (BSi) and molar POC:PON and
BSi:POC.

Cup	Cup opening date	Cup closin g date	Collecti on time (days)	Season	Mass flux (mg m <sup>-2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup> )	POC flux (mmol m <sup>-2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup> )	PON flux (mmol m <sup>-2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup> )	BSi Flux (mmol m <sup>-2</sup> d <sup>-</sup> <sup>1</sup> )	LSi flux (µmol m <sup>-2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup> )	% opal	POC:PON	BSi:POC
1	21/10/20 11	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	Autumn	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
Annua	al export (m y <sup>-1</sup> )	mol m <sup>-2</sup>				98.2	13.6	114	1.85			

Table 2. *Chaetoceros* resting spores (CRS) and *Thalassiosira antarctica* resting spores (TRS)
measurement and biomass data from station A3 sediment trap covering cups #4 (December
2011) to #11 (April 2012). For each variable, the range and the mean value (bold italic) is
reported.

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 μm <sup>-3</sup> #	5 – 55	55 - 662
		6	12.1	two cones	483		19	227
TRS	57	10.2 - 26	25.6 – 35.3	Cylinder + two half	14035 – 48477	$C = 10^{(0.811 \log 10(V))}_{0.541) \text{ s}}$	56 - 153	672 - 1839
		20.8	32.6	sphere	35502	<sup>0.541)</sup> §	119	1428

1473 \* As defined in Hillebrand et al., (1999)

1474 # Data representative of *Chaetoceros pseudocurvisetus* resting spore (Kuwata et al. 1993)

1475 § Equation from Menden-Deuer and Lessard, (2000), where C is the carbon content (pg C)

1476 and V is the cell volume ( $\mu m^3$ )

- 1477
- 1478

1479 **Table 3.** Faecal pellet measurement and biomass estimations from Station A3 sediment trap.

1480 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 <i>150</i>		$4/3 \pi (a/2)^3$	697 - 6.39 × 10 <sup>8</sup> 1.77 × 10 <sup>6</sup>		2.09 × 10 <sup>-6</sup> – 1.91 <b>5.3 10<sup>-3</sup></b>	2.51 × 10 <sup>-5</sup> - 23 <b>0.06</b>
Ovoid	2047	85 - 1132 <i>314</i>	10-802 <i>154</i>	$4/3 \pi (a/2) (b/2)^2$	$4.45 \times 10^3$ - $3.81 \times 10^8$ $3.90 \times 10^6$	0.036 mgC	$1.34 \times 10^{-5} - 1.14$ $11.7 \times 10^{-3}$	$1.60 \times 10^{-4} - 13.72$ 0.14
Cylindrical	1338	106 - 6152 <b>981</b>	14-547 <b>136</b>	$\pi (b/2)^2 a$	$1.63 \times 10^4 - 1.45 \times 10^9$ $1.43 \times 10^7$	mm <sup>-3</sup> *	4.89 × 10 <sup>-4</sup> – 4.35 <b>0.04</b>	$5.87 \times 10^{-4} - 52$ 0.51
Ellipsoid	54	301 - 3893 <i>1329</i>	51-1051 <b>413</b>	$4/3 \pi (a/2) (b/2)^2$	$\begin{array}{c} 4.10 \times 10^{5} - 2.25 \times 10^{9} \\ 1.19 \times 10^{8} \end{array}$		$1.2 \times 10^{-3} - 6.75$ 0.36	0.01 - 81 <b>4.28</b>
Tabular	29					Constant, 119 µgC pellet <sup>-1</sup> #	9.92	119

1481 \* Gonzalez and Smetacek, (1994)

1482 # Wilson et al. (2013)

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

### Chaetoceros Hyalochaete spp. were only found as resting spores.

	Cup number												Contribution to annual flu
Species – taxa group	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	(%)
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
Corethron inerme 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
Dactyliosolen antarcticus 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
Tragilariopsis 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
Odontella weissflogii (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
Proboscia alata (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
Proboscia truncata (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

Thalassiothrix antarctica 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	

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

						Empty	Cells						Contribution to annual flux
Species – taxa group / Cup Number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	(%)
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 Hustedt	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
Guinardia cylindrus (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
Proboscia alata (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
Proboscia truncata (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 Armand & Zielinski	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
Raisten Rhizosolenia crassa 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
Thalassionema nitzschioides 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

Thalassiothrix antarctica 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. Total faecal pellet (FP) flux, total faecal pellet carbon flux, median volume and
carbon flux partitioned among faecal pellets types from station A3 sediment trap.
Contribution to numerical faecal pellet flux is provided in normal text whereas the
contribution to faecal pellet carbon flux is reported in bold italic.

						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	1.39	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	3.55	36.5	29.7	33.9	0.0	0.0
2	1.75	0.04	5.55	22.4	21.3	56.3	0.0	0.0
3	0.72	< 0.01	0.95	62.7	37.3	0.0	0.0	0.0
3	0.72	<0.01	0.93	54.5	45.5	0.0	0.0	0.0
4	21.81	0.48	1.91	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	3.71	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	2.60	0.15	5.67	28.8	33.1	37.9	0.0	0.2
0	6 2.69	0.13	5.07	4.6	10.9	43.1	0.0	41.3
7	2.46	0.12	6.71	15.6	45.5	37.1	1.8	0.0
/	2.46	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	0.41	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
		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
identified ecological vectors of carbon exported out of the mixed layer at station A3.
Measured total POC flux from Rembauville et al. (2014). CRS: *Chaetoceros Hyalocahete*resting spores, TRS: *Thalassiosira antarctica* resting spore.

				Contribution to calculated 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	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				
	Contribution to alculated POC		52.1	8.6	5.0	5.1	2.0	5.2	2.2	19.8	34.3				

1503 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 deviation 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 1527 faecal pellet types. The two arrows represent the two strong POC export events (cup #4 and1528 #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 numbered and 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 numbers labels refers to the full and empty species listed in Fig. 6.

1539 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 1540 identified. b) Regression ( $r^2 = 0.72$ ) between the measured and calculated POC fluxes. The 1541 correlation is highly significant (Spearman rank correlation, n = 36,  $\rho = 0.84$ , p < 0.001). 1542 Error bars were generated by increasing/decreasing the carbon/volume conversion factors by 1543 50 %. Black dashed line is the 1:1 relation, red line is the regression line, red dashed lines 1544 denotes the 99 % confidence interval. CRS: Chaetoceros Hyalochaete resting spores, TRS: 1545 1546 Thalassiosira antarctica resting spores.

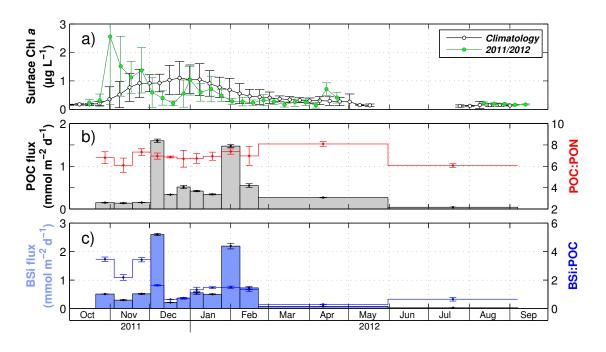
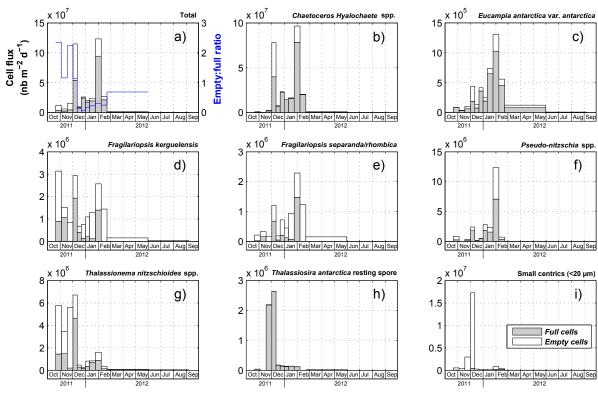


Figure 1.





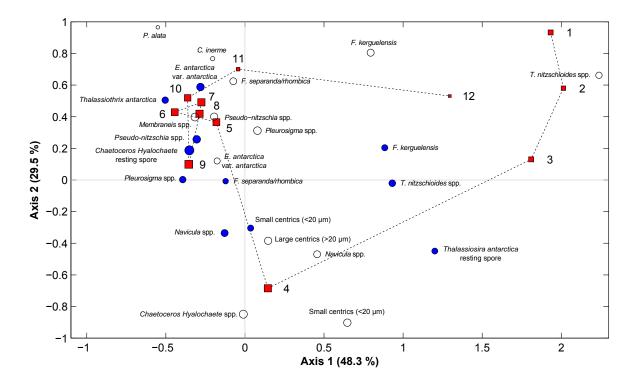


Figure 3.

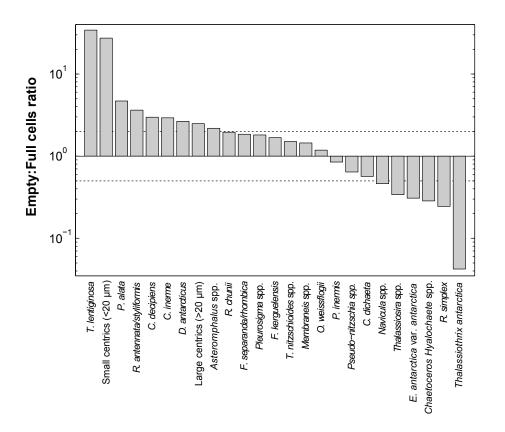


Figure 4.

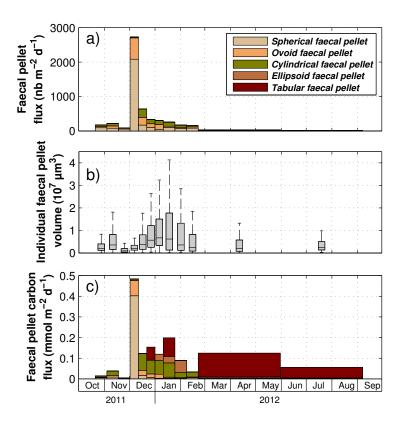


Figure 5.

	8					
		*0 <sup>CU</sup>	P04	<b>B</b> <sup>GS</sup>	POC:POR	BSI.POC
a	CRS	0.07	0.07	0.06	0.02	-0.04
Ь	E. antarctica	0.05	0.05	0.03	0.02	-0.04
C	F. kerguelensis	0.05	0.05	0.07	0	0.07
d	F. separanda/rhombica	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.02	-0.01
e	Navicula spp.	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.02	0
ſ	Pleurosigma spp.	0.06	0.06	0.05	0.02	-0.01
<b>(</b>	Pseudo-nitzschia spp.	0.06	0.05	0.05	0.02	-0.01
h	T. nitzschioides spp.	0.04	0.04	0.06	0	0.07
<b>(i)</b>	TRS	0.03	0.03	0.05	-0.01	0.1
() (k)	Thalassiothrix antarctica	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.01	-0.03
k	Small centrics (<20 µm)	0.06	0.06	0.07	0.01	0.01
a	Chaetoceros Hyalochaete spp.	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.02	0
Ь	C. inerme	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.01	-0.03
©	E. antarctica	0.08	0.07	0.06	0.02	-0.04
© @ @	F. kerguelensis	0	0.01	0.05	-0.02	0.17
e	F. separanda/rhombica	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.01	-0.03
ſ	Membraneis spp.	0.06	0.06	0.05	0.02	-0.04
9	Navicula spp.	0.05	0.05	0.06	0.01	0.05
h	Pleurosigma spp.	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.01	0.01
(j)	P. alata	0.01	0.01	0	0.01	-0.03
$\Theta$ $\Theta$ $\Theta$ $\Theta$ $\Theta$	Pseudo-nitzschia spp.	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.01	0
k	T. nitzschioides spp.	-0.03	-0.02	0.04	-0.04	0.24
$\bigcirc$	T. lentiginosa	-0.04	-0.04	0.02	-0.04	0.22
() ()	Small centrics (<20 µm)	0.05	0.05	0.06	0.01	0.04
n	Large centrics (>20 µm)	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.02	0.01
S	Spherical faecal pellet	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.01	0.01
0	Ovoid faecal pellet	0.05	0.05	0.04	0.01	-0.02
C	Cylindrical faecal pellet	0	0	-0.02	0.01	-0.08
E	Ellipsoid faecal pellet	0.03	0.03	0.01	0.01	-0.06
T	Tabular faecal pellet	-0.01	-0.01	-0.05	0.02	-0.15

Figure 6.

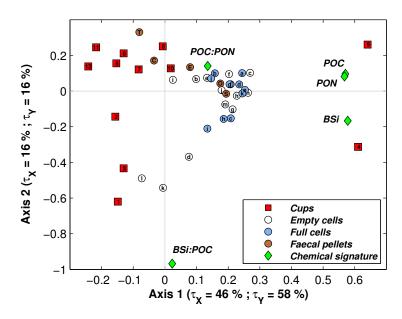


Figure 7.

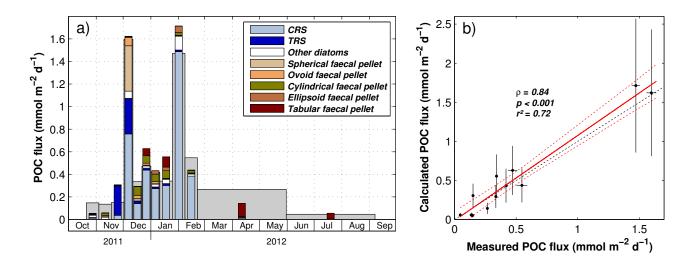


Figure 8.