1	Nitrogen isotopic evidence for a shift from nitrate- to diazotroph-fueled			
2	export production in the VAHINE mesocosm experiments			
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1 Abstract:

2 In a coastal lagoon with a shallow, 25 m water column off the southwest coast of New 3 Caledonia, large-volume (~50 m³) mesocosm experiments were undertaken to track the 4 fate of newly fixed nitrogen (N). The mesocosms were intentionally fertilized with 0.8 5 μM dissolved inorganic phosphorus to stimulate diazotrophy. N isotopic evidence 6 indicates that the dominant source of N fueling export production shifted from subsurface 7 nitrate (NO₃⁻) assimilated prior to the start of the 23-day experiments to N₂ fixation by the end of the experiments. While the $\delta^{15}N$ of the sinking particulate N (PN_{sink}) flux changed 8 during the experiments, the $\delta^{15}N$ of the suspended PN (PN_{susp}) and dissolved organic N 9 10 (DON) pools did not. This is consistent with previous observations that the $\delta^{15}N$ of surface ocean N pools is less responsive than that of PN_{sink} to changes in the dominant 11 source of new N to surface waters. In spite of the absence of detectable NO₃⁻ in the 12 mesocosms, the $\delta^{15}N$ of PN_{sink} indicated that NO_3^- continued to fuel a significant fraction 13 of export production (20 to 60%) throughout the 23-day experiments, with N₂ fixation 14 15 dominating export after about two weeks. The low rates of organic N export during the 16 first 14 days were largely supported by NO_3^- , and phytoplankton abundance data suggest 17 that sinking material primarily comprised large diatoms. Concurrent molecular and 18 taxonomic studies indicate that the diazotroph community was dominated by diatom-19 diazotroph assemblages (DDAs) at this time. However, these DDAs represented a minor 20 fraction (<5%) of the total diatom community and contributed very little new N via N₂ 21 fixation; they were thus not important for driving export production, either directly or 22 indirectly. The unicellular cyanobacterial diazotroph, a Cyanothece-like UCYN-C, 23 proliferated during the last phase of the experiments when N₂ fixation, primary production, and the flux of PN_{sink} increased significantly, and $\delta^{15}N$ budgets reflected a 24 25 predominantly diazotrophic source of N fueling export. At this time, the export flux itself 26 was likely dominated by the non-diazotrophic diatom, Cylindrotheca closterium, along 27 with lesser contributions from other eukaryotic phytoplankton and aggregated UCYN-C 28 cells, as well as fecal pellets from zooplankton. Despite comprising a small fraction of the 29 total biomass, UCYN-C was largely responsible for driving export production during the 30 last ~10 days of the experiments both directly (~5 to 22% of PN_{sink}) and through the rapid 31 transfer of its newly fixed N to other phytoplankton; we infer that this newly fixed N was

1 transferred rapidly through the dissolved N (including DON) and PN_{susp} pools. This 2 inference reconciles previous observations of invariant oligotrophic surface ocean DON 3 concentrations and $\delta^{15}N$ with incubation studies showing that diazotrophs can release a 4 significant fraction of their newly fixed N as some form of DON. 5

1 **1** Introduction

2 One of the primary pathways by which carbon dioxide (CO_2) is removed from the 3 atmosphere is via photosynthesis, through which it is converted into organic carbon. In 4 the ocean, this process is known as the "biological pump" since upon death, the 5 phytoplankton that fixed inorganic carbon into biomass in surface waters are eventually 6 transported to depth (either via passive sinking or as a byproduct of grazing), thereby 7 "pumping" the carbon to deep waters where it remains isolated from the atmosphere on 8 hundred to thousand year time scales. In broad regions of the surface ocean, the scarcity 9 of the essential macronutrient, nitrogen (N), limits photosynthesis and thus the capacity 10 of the biological pump to remove CO_2 from the atmosphere (Falkowski, 1997). 11 Consequently, there is considerable interest in quantifying fluxes of N to the ocean, as 12 well as in understanding the fate of that N once it enters the ocean.

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14 In addition to lesser contributions from rivers and atmospheric deposition, the dominant 15 source of N to the ocean is biologically-mediated di-nitrogen (N_2) fixation (Gruber, 16 2004). Marine cyanobacteria, bacteria, and archaea that can access the abundant 17 dissolved N₂ gas pool as a source of assimilative N are known as diazotrophs and have a 18 competitive advantage over other microbes and phytoplankton that require an exogenous 19 source of N such as nitrate (NO_3) , ammonium (NH_4) , and/or dissolved organic N 20 (DON). Several geochemical signals that accumulate in the thermocline of the 21 oligotrophic gyres are thought to result from diazotrophic activity in overlying surface 22 waters. In particular, diazotrophic biomass has elevated N to phosphorus (P) ratios (~25:1 23 to 50:1) (Holl and Montoya, 2008; Krauk et al., 2006; Kustka et al., 2003; White et al., 24 2006) relative to typical (i.e., "Redfieldian") marine biomass (~16:1 N:P) (Falkowski, 25 2000; Redfield, 1958; Sterner and Elser, 2002). The death of diazotrophs and subsequent 26 remineralization of their biomass in the thermocline can cause NO_3^{-1} to phosphate (PO₄³⁻) 27 concentration ratios >16:1 in regions associated with high rates of N_2 fixation (Gruber and Sarmiento, 1997; Hansell et al., 2004). Combining inventories of elevated subsurface 28 NO_3 : PO₄³⁻ concentration ratios with timescales over which the signal has accumulated 29 30 has been used to estimate basin-scale rates of marine N₂ fixation (Deutsch et al., 2001; 31 Eugster and Gruber, 2012; Gruber and Sarmiento, 1997). Additionally, the NO₃

1 accumulating in the thermocline as a result of diazotrophic activity has a N isotopic 2 composition ("\delta^{15}N") of ~-2 to 0\% (Carpenter et al., 1997; Hoering and Ford, 1960; Minagawa and Wada, 1986), which is distinct from that of mean ocean NO₃, ~5‰ 3 (Sigman et al., 2009) (" δ^{15} N", where δ^{15} N = {[(15 N/ 14 N)_{sample}/(15 N/ 14 N)_{reference}] - 1}*1000, 4 with atmospheric N_2 as the reference). Consequently, regions of the ocean associated 5 with elevated rates of N₂ fixation accumulate low- δ^{15} N NO₃⁻ in the same water masses 6 that host elevated NO₃⁻:PO₄³⁻ concentration ratios; the accumulation of this low- δ^{15} N NO₃⁻ 7 has also been used to estimate basin-scale N₂ fixation rates (Knapp et al., 2008). 8

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10 While geochemical evidence indicates that the high N:P ratios and low $\delta^{15}N$ of 11 diazotrophic biomass is ultimately incorporated into the upper thermocline of the tropical 12 and subtropical ocean, the pathways by which these geochemical signatures are 13 transferred from the surface to subsurface ocean remain enigmatic. For example, the 14 conspicuous marine diazotroph Trichodesmium spp. is thought to be grazed by only a 15 small number of zooplankton (O'Neill and Roman, 1994; Roman, 1978), suggesting that 16 this diazotroph may not be transferred up the food web in the same way as other 17 phytoplankton. Additionally, due to the presence of buoyant gas vacuoles, 18 Trichodesmium spp. may not sink as efficiently as other phytoplankton, potentially 19 explaining why its biomass is often not observed in sediment traps (Walsby, 1992). This 20 renders sinking upon death, another common fate of phytoplankton biomass, a less likely 21 pathway by which newly fixed N may leave surface waters.

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23 Instead of being transferred up the food web to higher trophic levels or being removed 24 via sinking, newly fixed N has been thought to play a critical role in supporting the 25 microbial loop through the release of DON and NH₄⁺. Programmed cell death (Berman-26 Frank et al., 2004), grazing (Glibert and Bronk, 1994), and direct release (Capone et al., 27 1994) have been invoked as mechanisms by which *Trichodesmium* spp. may release 28 DON and NH₄⁺ to surrounding waters. While consumption of this diazotroph derived N (DDN) would retain its low- $\delta^{15}N$ signature in the event that the DDN consumers 29 eventually sink into the thermocline, it leaves unclear the mechanism by which an 30 elevated NO₃⁻:PO₄³⁻ concentration ratio accumulates in the thermocline, since the micro-31

1 organisms consuming the DDN would likely do so at or close to Redfield stoichiometry. 2 Moreover, there is little field evidence of DON concentrations increasing, or the δ^{15} N of 3 DON decreasing, in regions (Knapp et al., 2011) or periods (Knapp et al., 2005) of high 4 N₂ fixation relative to regions and/or times with low rates of N₂ fixation. Consequently, 5 while many pathways have been explored, the fate of newly fixed N remains obscure. 6

7 One geochemical tool that has been used to track the fate of DDN, as well as to quantify its contribution to export production, is the upper ocean $\delta^{15}N$ budget. Comparing the 8 9 distinct δ^{15} N of subsurface NO₃⁻ and newly fixed N, the two dominant sources of new N to surface waters, with the $\delta^{15}N$ of the export flux ("PN_{sink} $\delta^{15}N$ ") provides an integrative 10 11 measure of the relative contributions of subsurface NO_3^- and N_2 fixation to export 12 production (e.g., (Altabet, 1988; Casciotti et al., 2008; Dore et al., 2002; Karl et al., 1997; 13 Knapp et al., 2005; Liu et al., 1996)). Assigning newly fixed N a δ^{15} N of -1‰, the 14 fractional importance of N₂ fixation for supporting export production (x) in an upper 15 ocean δ^{15} N budget can be expressed as:

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$$PN_{sink} \delta^{15}N = x(-1\%) + (1 - x)(NO_3^{-} \delta^{15}N)$$
 Eq. 1

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19 Rearranging and solving for x yields:

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$$x = (NO_3^{-5} \delta^{15}N - PN_{sink} \delta^{15}N)/(1 + NO_3^{-5} \delta^{15}N)$$
 Eq. 2

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23 Multiplying the fraction of export production supported by N_2 fixation (x) by the PN_{sink} 24 mass flux provides a time-integrated N_2 fixation rate that can be compared with ${}^{15}N_2$ 25 incubation-based N₂ fixation rate measurements (Knapp et al., 2016). We note that the δ^{15} N of NO₃ in the equations above more accurately refers to the δ^{15} N of NO₃ + nitrite 26 (NO_2) ; however, NO_2 concentrations are typically extremely low throughout the 27 28 oxidized water column, so for brevity, we refer to $NO_3^{-}+NO_2^{-}$ measurements as NO_3^{-} 29 measurements.

1 N isotope budgets in stratified, oligotrophic gyres consistently indicate that subsurface 2 NO_3^- supports at least 75%, and often >90%, of export production, even during the 3 stratified summer season (Altabet, 1988; Casciotti et al., 2008; Fawcett et al., 2011; 4 Knapp et al., 2016; Knapp et al., 2005). This is inconsistent with biological assays 5 indicating that N₂ fixation supports a higher, and often dominant, fraction of tropical and 6 subtropical export production (e.g., (Capone et al., 2005; Montoya et al., 2004)). The 7 disagreement between the results of these biological assays and the δ^{15} N budgets (as well 8 as the lack of response in the concentration and/or $\delta^{15}N$ of oligotrophic surface ocean DON) raises the following questions: are upper ocean δ^{15} N budgets an appropriate tool 9 for tracking the fate of DDN?, and is the δ^{15} N of sinking organic matter diagnostic for the 10 11 source of N fueling export production?

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To address the fate of DDN and to quantify the contribution of newly fixed N to export 13 14 production, large volume ($\sim 50 \text{ m}^3$) mesocosms were deployed in a region of the 15 southwest Pacific known to support diazotrophy during the austral summer (Bonnet et al., 16 2015; Dupouy et al., 2000; Rodier and Le Borgne, 2010, 2008) and where PO_4^{3-1} 17 availability appears to ultimately control N₂ fixation rates (Moutin et al., 2008; Moutin et 18 al., 2005). In order to better track the fate of DDN, these mesocosms were intentionally 19 fertilized with ~0.8 μ M dissolved inorganic phosphorus (DIP) to stimulate diazotrophic 20 activity and thus amplify the biogeochemical signals of N₂ fixation. Here, we present $\delta^{15}N$ budgets from inside the manipulative mesocosm experiments and discuss how the 21 22 observed geochemical signals correspond to contemporaneous shifts in diazotroph and 23 phytoplankton community composition.

24

25 2 Methods

26 **2.1 Experimental design and sample collection**

A detailed description of the VAHINE mesocosm experiments is provided elsewhere (Bonnet et al., 2016b). Briefly, three 2.3 m diameter, 15 m deep (~50 m³) cylinders of impermeable, transparent plastic sheeting (subsequently referred to as M1, M2, and M3) were deployed in shallow waters (25 m water column depth) of the oligotrophic Noumea lagoon, 28 km from New Caledonia (Bonnet et al., 2016b). Screw-top plastic bottles (250

mL) were attached to the bottom of the mesocosms to collect PN_{sink}. These "sediment 1 2 trap" samples were collected daily by SCUBA divers and "swimmers" were removed 3 from them prior to analysis. Water column samples were collected daily at 6 m depth 4 from each of the three mesocosms throughout the 23-day experiment. Discrete samples for nutrients including NO₃⁻+NO₂⁻ and NH₄⁺, suspended particulate N (PN_{susp}), and total N 5 6 $(TN = PN_{susp} + DON + NO_3^{-} + NO_2^{-} + NH_4^{+})$ were collected by pumping water via PVC 7 tubing connected to a teflon pump (Astii) into 50 L polyethylene carboys atop a floating 8 platform. The 50 L carboys were transferred to the R/V Alis and immediately subsampled 9 on deck for the discrete samples described above. Finally, samples were also collected at 10 a control site near the mesocosms (subsequently referred to as "Noumea lagoon waters") 11 to monitor biogeochemical conditions outside of the manipulative mesocosm 12 experiments.

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14 To stimulate diazotrophy, DIP was added on the evening of the fourth day of the 15 experiments to reach a final concentration of ~ $0.8 \,\mu$ M in each mesocosm. As described in 16 (Bonnet et al., 2016b), this was achieved by pumping a 20 L concentrated DIP stock 17 solution throughout the 15 m water column of each mesocosm.

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19 2.2 Nitrogen concentration and δ^{15} N analyses

20 A detailed description of the sample collection, analysis, and results of dissolved 21 inorganic N (DIN) measurements made in the VAHINE mesocosm experiments is 22 described elsewhere (Berthelot et al., 2015; Bonnet et al., 2016b). Briefly, the 23 concentration of NH₄⁺ was determined using a fluorometric method (Holmes et al., 1999) 24 with a detection limit of 0.01 μ M, the concentration of NO₃⁻+NO₂⁻ was determined using 25 colorimetric methods (Strickland and Parsons, 1968) with a detection limit of 0.01 μ M, and the concentration of $\mathrm{PN}_{\mathrm{susp}}$ was determined by wet oxidation (Pujo-Pay and 26 Raimbault, 1994) with a quantification limit of 0.06 μ M. The δ^{15} N of PN_{suen} was 27 28 determined by filtering seawater through a pre-combusted, acid-washed Whatman GF/F 29 (nominal pore size of 0.7 μ m), followed by high-temperature combustion of the filter 30 coupled with isotope ratio mass spectrometry using a Delta Plus Thermo Fisher Scientific 31 mass spectrometer as described in (Berthelot et al., 2015).

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2 The concentration of TN for samples collected at the same time and in the same manner 3 as the DIN samples described above was determined by persulfate oxidation (Solorzano 4 and Sharp, 1980) with adaptations (Knapp et al., 2005), and the resulting NO_3^- was 5 measured by chemiluminescence (Braman and Hendrix, 1989). DON concentration was 6 determined by subtracting the concentrations of PN_{susp} , NH_4^+ , and $NO_3^- + NO_2^-$ (reported in 7 (Berthelot et al., 2015)) from the measured TN concentration of each sample with a 8 propagated error of $\pm 0.5 \ \mu\text{M}$. The δ^{15} N of NO₃⁻+NO₂⁻ was measured using the denitrifier 9 method (Casciotti et al., 2002; McIlvin and Casciotti, 2011; Sigman et al., 2001) with a 10 typical standard deviation of ± 0.2 ‰. The δ^{15} N of TN was determined via persulfate 11 oxidation of TN to NO₃⁻ (Knapp et al., 2005) and subsequent analysis of NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N by the 12 denitrifier method, with a propagated error for DON δ^{15} N calculated using a Monte Carlo method (Press et al., 1992) of ± 0.6 %. Finally, the δ^{15} N of PN_{sink} was measured using a 13 14 Thermo Scientific Flash 2000 Elemental Analyzer coupled with a Delta Plus Thermo 15 Scientific mass spectrometer. The average standard deviation for the standards analyzed 16 was ± 0.06 %.

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18 3 Results

19 The intentional DIP fertilization of the mesocosms on the fourth evening of the VAHINE 20 experiments lends temporal structure to the 23-day course of observations. Three distinct 21 phases are evident based on multiple biogeochemical metrics: days 1 to 4, prior to DIP 22 fertilization (subsequently referred to as "PO"), which largely reflect "background" 23 conditions; days 5 to 14, after DIP fertilization (subsequently referred to as "P1"), 24 characterized by a much longer DIP turnover time than P0; and finally, days 15 to 23 25 (subsequently referred to as "P2"), during which DIP concentrations decreased and 26 biomass, primary production, and N₂ fixation rates increased (Berthelot et al., 2015; 27 Bonnet et al., 2016b). Differences in the community composition of phytoplankton and 28 diazotrophs (Leblanc et al., 2016; Turk-Kubo et al., 2015) were also evident among the 29 three phases of the VAHINE experiments. Consequently, the results described below are 30 evaluated within the temporal context of the observed biogeochemical changes in the 31 mesocosms.

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2 3.1 DON concentration and $\delta^{15}N$

3 Concentrations of DON within the mesocosms showed no significant change over the 4 course of the 23-day experiments (Fig. 1a). Average DON concentrations in M1, M2, and 5 M3 were 5.4 \pm 0.3 μ M, 5.3 \pm 1.1 μ M, and 5.5 \pm 0.6 μ M, respectively. These 6 concentrations are consistent with previous observations from surface waters of other 7 oligotrophic ocean regions (Knapp et al., 2011; Letscher et al., 2013), as well as with the DON concentration of 5.4 µM in Noumea lagoon waters measured outside the 8 9 mesocosms. However, while our observation of invariant DON concentrations over the 10 duration of the experiments are largely similar to those reported by Berthelot et al. 11 (2015), the DON concentration that we measure for three samples collected at the end of 12 P2 diverge from those of Berthelot et al. (2015) who report decreasing DON 13 concentrations (of $\sim 0.9 \ \mu$ M) in all three mesocosms during P2 compared to P0 and P1. 14 For comparison, Fig. 1a shows DON concentration measurements from this study 15 overlain upon those of Berthelot et al. (2015). We note that our DON sampling resolution 16 was not as high as that of Berthelot et al. (2015), so it is possible that we missed the 17 decrease in DON concentration in the mesocosms. The Berthelot et al. (2015) DON 18 concentration decrease, which they attribute to consumption by phytoplankton and/or 19 heterotrophic bacteria, was not accompanied by a decrease in DOC concentration, which 20 given typical C:N ratios for marine dissolved organic matter (DOM) of 12 to 14 (Benner, 21 2002), would be expected to decline by ~9 to 12 μ M. Since both TN sample sets were 22 collected at the same time and in the same manner, and since the DON concentration 23 calculated by mass balance in both cases used the same DIN and PN_{susp} measurements 24 reported by (Berthelot et al., 2015), the only measurement contributing to the discrepancy 25 is that of TN. We note that slightly different reagents were used to chemically oxidize TN 26 to NO₃; while (Berthelot et al., 2015) used the wet-oxidation method of (Pujo-Pay and 27 Raimbault, 1994), the TN measurements reported here were made with a reagent that 28 contained no boric acid and a higher sodium hydroxide concentration (Fawcett et al., 29 2011; Knapp et al., 2005). In addition, the potassium persulfate was recrystallized four 30 times, then rinsed with GC-grade methanol to speed drying and remove N contamination 31 to facilitate isotopic analysis (Fawcett et al., 2014; Higgins et al., 2009). We cannot 1 explain the discrepancy between the DON concentration measurements for samples 2 collected at the end of P2 in this study and those reported by Berthelot et al. (2015); given 3 that our samples were also measured for DON $\delta^{15}N$ (discussed below), we interpret the 4 data presented in this study in the context of our DON concentration measurements rather 5 than those of Berthelot et al. (2015). We note, however, that regardless of the DON 6 concentration used, the conclusions from our $\delta^{15}N$ budget remain the same (see section 7 4.1 below).

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9 Similar to the concentration of DON, the $\delta^{15}N$ of DON showed no significant change 10 over the course of the experiments (Fig. 1b, Table 1). The average DON $\delta^{15}N$ in M1, M2, 11 and M3 was $4.7 \pm 1.0\%$, $4.7 \pm 0.4\%$, and $5.3 \pm 1.0\%$, respectively. The $\delta^{15}N$ of DON in 12 the VAHINE mesocosms is similar to that reported previously for the North Pacific gyre 13 (4.7‰), where the similarity of the $\delta^{15}N$ of DON to the $\delta^{15}N$ of subsurface NO₃⁻ was 14 interpreted to reflect the dominance of subsurface NO₃⁻ for fueling export production 15 (Knapp et al., 2011).

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17 **3.2 PN**_{susp} δ¹⁵N

The concentration of PN_{susp} (along with the concentrations of suspended particulate 18 organic carbon (PCsusp) and phosphorus (PPsusp)) increased over the course of the 19 20 experiments (Fig. 1c), most notably during P2, consistent with the observed increase in 21 carbon and N₂ fixation during P2 (Berthelot et al., 2015). However, the $\delta^{15}N$ of PN_{susp} in 22 the mesocosms did not show any significant change with time, and was largely similar to the $\delta^{15}N$ of PN_{susp} in the lagoon waters (Fig. 1d, Table 1). The average $\delta^{15}N$ of PN_{susp} in 23 M1, M2, and M3 was $3.3 \pm 0.8\%$, $3.4 \pm 1.4\%$, and $3.8 \pm 1.5\%$, respectively, while the 24 δ^{15} N of PN_{susp} outside the mesocosms was $3.3 \pm 1.3\%$. 25

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27 3.3 PN_{sink} δ¹⁵N

In contrast to the concentration of DON and the $\delta^{15}N$ of DON and PN_{susp} , the $\delta^{15}N$ of PN_{sink} changed significantly over the course of the experiments (Fig 2a). Evaluating the PN_{sink} $\delta^{15}N$ collected in all three mesocosms during P0, P1, and P2 with the Kruskal-

Wallis rank-sum test for non-parametric data (Triola, 2001) shows that the mean δ^{15} N of 1 2 PN_{sink} for each time period (P0, P1 and P2) is significantly different (p<0.005). Considering the mesocosms individually, the $\delta^{15}N$ of PN_{sink} for each time period was 3 4 significantly different for M2 (p<0.005) and potentially for M3 (0.1>p>0.05), but not for M1 (0.9>p>0.1). The average $PN_{sink} \delta^{15}N$ in M1, M2, and M3 during P0 was $3.9 \pm 0.1\%$, 5 6 $4.4 \pm 0.3\%$, and $4.2 \pm 0.2\%$, respectively, decreasing to $2.9 \pm 0.5\%$, $3.2 \pm 0.4\%$, and 3.07 $\pm 0.3\%$ during P1, and 2.2 $\pm 1.9\%$, 1.4 $\pm 1.2\%$, and 3.3 $\pm 1.9\%$ during P2 (Fig. 2a). All 8 $PN_{sink} \delta^{15}N$ measurements for the mesocosms are reported in Supplementary Table 1. 9

10 4 Discussion

11 **4.1** The fate of newly fixed N – pools or fluxes?

12 As described above, a primary goal of the VAHINE project was to track the fate of newly 13 fixed N in manipulative mesocosm experiments (Bonnet et al., 2016b). The δ^{15} N of PN_{susp} 14 in the euphotic zone has often been used to infer the dominant N form fueling primary 15 production, particularly in oligotrophic systems where NO_3^- and NH_4^+ are typically 16 effectively completely consumed in surface waters (Altabet, 1988; Altabet and 17 McCarthy, 1985; Capone et al., 2005; Treibergs et al., 2014). However, bulk PN_{susp} 18 includes compositionally-distinct N-containing particles: diverse living autotrophs and 19 heterotrophs as well as detrital organic matter (Fawcett et al., 2011; Rau et al., 1990). In 20 the oligotrophic Sargasso Sea, each of these groups has been shown to have a distinct $\delta^{15}N$ signature, with the $\delta^{15}N$ of bulk $PN_{\scriptscriptstyle susp}$ recording their mass-weighted average 21 (Fawcett et al., 2011; Fawcett et al., 2014; Treibergs et al., 2014). The $\delta^{15}N$ of PN_{susp} is 22 23 also altered by the consumption and production of N forms recycled in surface waters 24 (e.g., NH_4^+), the fluxes of which can often greatly exceed the external supply of N to the 25 euphotic zone (e.g., via N₂ fixation or NO₃⁻ mixed up from below) (Altabet, 1988; Knapp et al., 2011; Lourey et al., 2003). Thus, while the $\delta^{15}N$ of PN_{susp} may provide some 26 27 indication of the primary N source supporting the upper ocean ecosystem, it is unlikely to 28 be a good indicator of the dominant N form fueling export production (Altabet, 1988; 29 Lourey et al., 2003).

This appears to be the case in the VAHINE mesocosms. The $\delta^{15}N$ of PN_{susp} remained 1 2 roughly constant throughout the 23-day experiments and did not significantly differ from 3 the δ^{15} N of PN_{susp} in the lagoon waters where rates of N₂ fixation were relatively low and 4 constant in the absence of DIP fertilization (Fig. 1d, Table 1). During P1, N₂ fixation added ~0.1 μ M N to the mesocosms (Berthelot et al., 2015). Assuming a δ^{15} N of -1 % for 5 6 this DDN (Carpenter et al., 1997; Hoering and Ford, 1960; Minagawa and Wada, 1986), 7 its accumulation as PN_{susp} (assuming an average PN_{susp} δ^{15} N of 3.0 ‰ on day 5) would lower the $\delta^{15}N$ of this pool by ~0.4‰. However, the $\delta^{15}N$ of PN_{susp} did not decline and, if 8 anything, increased by day 14 (average δ^{15} N of 3.7 ‰), further indicating that DDN did 9 not accumulate significantly in the PN_{susp} pool in the mesocosms. This pattern was even 10 11 more pronounced during P2: while N₂ fixation added ~0.25 μ M N and the concentration 12 of PN_{susp} increased by 0.25 to 0.74 μ M (Berthelot et al., 2015), the δ^{15} N of PN_{susp} 13 remained unchanged (Fig. 1d, Table 1). Thus, while DDN may have passed through the PN_{susp} pool, its transit was sufficiently rapid that the $\delta^{15}N$ of N₂ fixation never 14 15 accumulated above detection limits in PN_{susp}.

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We note that both the concentration and $\delta^{15}N$ of PN_{susp} in the lagoon waters were high 17 (i.e., 0.8 \pm 0.1 μ M and 3.3 \pm 1.3 ‰) relative to euphotic zone PN_{susp} in similar 18 oligotrophic regions such as near Bermuda and Hawaii (e.g., PN_{susp} concentration and 19 20 δ^{15} N of 0.2 to 0.3 μ M and -1 to 1 ‰; (Altabet, 1989, 1988; Casciotti et al., 2008; Dore et al., 2002; Fawcett et al., 2011; Fawcett et al., 2014). The high background PN_{susp} 21 22 concentrations observed in the Noumea lagoon have been previously attributed to 23 anthropogenically-driven eutrophication related to untreated sewage release from New 24 Caledonia (Fichez et al., 2010). While the site of the VAHINE mesocosms located 28 km 25 off the coast was selected to be as representative of the open ocean as possible, it was still 26 at the entrance to the lagoon where the water quality is affected by ocean water inflow, 27 land-derived inputs, and anthropogenic inputs such as industrial and waste water discharge (Labrosse et al., 2000). The high $\delta^{15}N$ of PN_{susp} may also be at least partly due 28 to this "island effect" as NO₃⁻ deriving from human waste is typically high in δ^{15} N (5 ‰ 29 30 to 20 ‰; (McClelland and Valiela, 1998; Swart et al., 2013; Townsend-Small et al.,

2007). However, subsurface NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N in this region is 6.5 ‰ (this study; (Yoshikawa et 1 2 al., 2015)), such that its assimilation by phytoplankton would also serve to elevate the δ^{15} N of PN_{susp}. In sum, the high δ^{15} N of PN_{susp} requires the assimilation of NO₃⁻ even if the 3 source of that NO₃⁻ is uncertain. More importantly, the invariant $\delta^{15}N$ of PN_{susp} 4 5 throughout the mesocosm experiments confirms that while fluxes of DDN may have passed through the PN_{susp} pool, DDN did not accumulate as PN_{susp} above detection limits. 6 This observation is consistent with previous work showing low seasonality in the $\delta^{15}N$ of 7 the PN_{susp} pool in spite of changes in the sources and fluxes of new N to oligotrophic 8 9 surface waters (e.g., (Altabet, 1988)).

10

Similarly, the stability of the DON concentration and $\delta^{15}N$ (as well as the consistently 11 low concentrations of $NO_3^{-}+NO_2^{-}$ and NH_4^{+} ; (Berthelot et al., 2015)) in the mesocosms 12 could be interpreted as indicating that very little DDN was transferred to the dissolved 13 14 pools during the experiments. These observations are in contrast to previous studies 15 documenting the release of significant quantities of dissolved N during N₂ fixation. For example, elevated DON and/or NH4⁺ concentrations have been observed in the waters 16 17 surrounding Trichodesmium blooms (Devassy et al., 1978; Karl et al., 1997; Lenes et al., 18 2001) and in aging Trichodesmium cultures (Mulholland and Capone, 2001), and 19 Trichodesmium has been shown to directly release upwards of 50% of its newly fixed N as DON and/or NH₄⁺ (Bonnet et al., 2016a; Capone et al., 1994; Glibert and Bronk, 1994; 20 21 Mulholland et al., 2004) with a low $\delta^{15}N$ (Meador et al., 2007). While the VAHINE 22 mesocosms were dominated by diazotrophs other than Trichodesmium (Turk-Kubo et al., 23 2015), it is still possible that DDN was released during the experiments but was so 24 rapidly taken up by other (N-limited) organisms that it never accumulated in the 25 dissolved pool. Indeed, when N₂ fixation rates increased towards the end of P1 and into 26 P2, diatoms without diazotrophic symbionts rapidly increased 3- to 6-fold in all 27 mesocosms, the non-diazotrophic cyanobacterium, Synechococcus, increased ~10-fold, 28 and small (<35 μ m) eukaryotic phytoplankton increased 2- to 4-fold (Leblanc et al., 29 2016). Given that the mesocosm bags were impermeable to an external physical N supply 30 (e.g., upwelled or advected NO₃), the mostly likely N source fueling the observed

1 phytoplankton growth during P2 was DDN. This is supported by short-term (24 to 72 h) 2 experiments conducted during the VAHINE study that were designed to track the fate of 3 DDN. They showed the accumulation of ¹⁵N originating from ¹⁵N₂ fixation in the 4 dissolved N pool and in the biomass of non-diazotrophic diatoms and picoplankton (0.2 5 to 2 μ m size fraction) on day 17 and 19 of the mesocosm experiments (Bonnet et al., 6 2016a). The total N supplied by N₂ fixation during P2, when N₂ fixation rates were highest (average of 27.3 ± 1.0 nmol N L⁻¹ d⁻¹ over the three mesocosms; Berthelot et al., 7 8 2015), was ~0.25 μ M. This quantity of N amounts to <5 % of the ambient DON 9 concentration, such that the addition of any portion of this DDN to the DON pool, 10 regardless of whether it was subsequently consumed by phytoplankton, would not have been evident above the background DON concentration or δ^{15} N. However, it is clear that 11 DDN did not accumulate as NH_4^+ since, while NH_4^+ concentrations increased slightly 12 13 during P2 (from ~0.01 μ M to 0.06 μ M; Berthelot et al., 2015), they were still extremely 14 low throughout the experiments.

15

In contrast to the invariant $\delta^{15}N$ of the PN_{susp} and DON pools, the $\delta^{15}N$ of PN_{sink} 16 17 significantly decreased over the course of the experiments (Fig. 2a, Table 1). The unique 18 experimental design of the mesocosms provided a closed system that prevented the 19 resupply of nutrients via lateral or vertical exchange, such that N₂ fixation is the only new 20 N source that could drive changes in the $\delta^{15}N$ of PN_{sink}. Moreover, the effectively 21 complete NO_3^- consumption that occurred in these waters prior to the initiation of the 22 experiments (Berthelot et al., 2015) simplifies δ^{15} N budget calculations by removing the 23 need to consider a potentially variable isotope effect (or indeed, any isotope effect) for 24 NO_3^- assimilation; only the initial $\delta^{15}N$ of the NO_3^- is required.

25

We use Eq. (2) to evaluate the contribution of N_2 fixation to export production in the mesocosms, taking the $\delta^{15}N$ of subsurface NO_3^- to be that measured in the outside waters that are thought to flush the lagoon (6.5‰ at 200 m). The average fractional contribution of N_2 fixation to export production within the three mesocosms increased over the course of the experiments; N_2 fixation supported 32 ± 4 %, 47 ± 6 %, and 56 ± 24 % of export

1 production during P0, P1, and P2, respectively (Fig. 2b, Table 1). In spite of the range in 2 $PN_{sink} \delta^{15}N$, especially in P2, the mean $\delta^{15}N$ of PN_{sink} is significantly different between 3 each time period; the fraction of export production supported by N₂ fixation during each 4 time period is thus also significantly different. We note that the apparent fractional contribution of N₂ fixation to export production suggested by the $\delta^{15}N$ of PN_{sink} in the 5 6 VAHINE experiments is high relative to geochemical studies conducted in other tropical 7 and subtropical open ocean regions (<10-25 %; Altabet, 1998; Knapp et al., 2005; 8 Casciotti et al., 2008). However, the intentional fertilization of the mesocosms with DIP, 9 the lack of external N sources other than N₂ fixation to the water column, and the 15 m 10 mesocosm water column that was both significantly shallower and less turbulent than that 11 of the open ocean study sites all likely favored diazotrophy in the mesocosms. Direct 12 comparison of the fractional significance of N₂ fixation to export production in the 13 VAHINE experiments with observations from open ocean sites should thus be made with 14 caution.

15

Given the potential for especially large gradients in the $\delta^{15}N$ of NO₃⁻ in the upper 16 17 thermocline of the South Pacific (Casciotti et al., 2013; Yoshikawa et al., 2015), and the 18 possibility that the island provided a source of NO₃⁻ of unknown (albeit high) δ^{15} N to the 19 lagoon, the results of our δ^{15} N budget are best used to evaluate relative changes in the 20 sources of N fueling export production. Regardless of the uncertainty in the absolute 21 contribution of N₂ fixation to export production at any one time point, the relative shift in the $\delta^{15}N$ of PN_{sink} is significant and clearly indicates that export production in the 22 23 mesocosms was initially fueled primarily by NO_3^- that had been assimilated prior to the 24 start of the experiments, with N2 fixation becoming the dominant driver of export by the 25 end of the experiments.

26

During P0, the rates of primary production and N_2 fixation were low, although N_2 fixation appears to have been slightly higher than during P1 (Berthelot et al., 2015). In addition, there was no observable increase in PN_{susp} concentration during P1, indicating that little to no growth occurred during this phase of the experiments. Given the mean

 $PN_{sink} \delta^{15}N$ of 4.1 ± 0.3 ‰ during P0, we hypothesize that the sinking flux (which was 1 also low; ~0.07 mmol N m⁻² d⁻¹; Fig. 2a) likely constituted mainly large cells that, due to 2 3 the lack of nutrients and turbulence that characterized the mesocosm enclosures, were 4 unable to grow and instead sank rapidly out of surface waters. This is supported by: i) a 5 small but detectable decline in the concentration of PC_{susp} during P0 (Berthelot et al., 6 2015); ii) taxonomy data from the mesocosms showing a sharp decline in the abundance 7 of the initially dominant, large and chain-forming diatom species (e.g., Thalassionema 8 spp., Leptocylindrus spp., and Chaetoceros spp.) between days 2 and 5 (Leblanc et al., 9 2016), and iii) calculations using Stokes' law, modified specifically for diatoms by 10 (Miklasz and Denny, 2010), that predict that diatoms with a diameter of 50 to 100 μ m 11 will sink at speeds >10 m day⁻¹, allowing them to easily sink out of the 15 m-deep 12 mesocosms on the timescale of a day. Given that diatoms have a strong tendency towards 13 NO₃⁻ assimilation (Dortch, 1990; Fawcett and Ward, 2011; Goericke, 2002), the 14 preferential sinking out of large diatoms that had consumed predominantly NO₃⁻ prior to the commencement of the experiments can explain the slightly higher $\delta^{15}N$ of PN_{sink} 15 during P0 than P1 (average of 4.1 ± 0.3 % versus 3.0 ± 0.4 %), even though N₂ fixation 16 17 was marginally higher during P0.

18

19 Throughout most of P1, N₂ fixation rates, primary production, and the sinking flux 20 remained low and constant (Berthelot et al., 2015; Fig. 2a). Along with the relatively invariant $\delta^{15}N$ of PN_{sink} during this period, these observations suggest that PN_{sink} 21 22 comprised mostly aggregated suspended material that had been present in surface waters 23 since the beginning of the experiments rather than newly generated biomass. Indeed, the $\delta^{15}N$ of PN_{sink} throughout P1 is indistinguishable from that of PN_{susp} (3 ‰; Figs. 1d and 24 25 2a, Table 1). Thus, despite the lack of NO_3^- in the mesocosms, more than half of the 26 export production that occurred during P1 was supported by NO₃⁻ that had been 27 assimilated by phytoplankton prior to the start of the experiments (Eq. 1). N₂ fixation 28 rates began to increase by day 11 or 12 in all mesocosms; this was quickly followed by 29 an increase in PN_{susp} concentrations, as well as an increase in the magnitude of the sinking

1 flux and a decrease in its $\delta^{15}N$, consistent with both an increased supply of N to the 2 mesocosms and a low $\delta^{15}N$ for that N.

3

To confirm that the decrease in the $\delta^{15}N$ of PN_{sink} is best explained by N₂ fixation, we 4 compared the N₂ fixation rate derived from the δ^{15} N budget (Eq. (1) and (2), above) with 5 the ${}^{15}N_2$ incubation-based N_2 fixation rates (Berthelot et al., 2015) (Table 2). The time-6 integrated DDN that accumulated as PN_{sink} over the course of the 23-day experiments in 7 each of the mesocosms corresponds to 52 to 75 % of the ${}^{15}N_2$ incubation-based N₂ 8 9 fixation flux integrated over the same time period (Table 2). In spite of the uncertainty 10 associated with both analyses, including the different time scales over which each metric 11 may integrate N₂ fixation fluxes and the possibility that some of the DDN accumulated in 12 the DON and/or PN_{susp} pools below analytical detection limits, we conclude that the 13 primary fate of newly fixed N in the VAHINE mesocosm experiments was to be 14 converted into the PN_{sink} flux.

15

16 We note that the net DON consumption at the end of P2 proposed by (Berthelot et al., 17 2015) would not change our δ^{15} N budgets given the suggestion by the authors that the primary fate of this DON was to accumulate in the PN_{susp} pool; this represents a 18 19 redistribution of N between surface pools separate from the PN_{sink} flux. While there is no reason that the consumed DON had to be retained in the PN_{susp} pool, the isotopic data 20 21 indicate that if the (Berthelot et al., 2015) DON concentrations are correct, then, as the 22 authors propose, the fate of this DON has to primarily be retention in the PN_{susp} pool. The 23 isotope data also suggest that the majority of the DDN in the mesocosms was fairly 24 rapidly exported, either directly by sinking diazotrophs, by zooplankton grazing upon the 25 diazotrophs (Hunt et al., 2016), and/or indirectly after being cycled through the dissolved 26 N pool and assimilated by non-diazotrophic plankton in the PN_{susp} pool that then sank into 27 the sediment traps (Bonnet et al., 2016a), rather than being retained in surface waters. 28 This is consistent with prior work using δ^{15} N budgets to quantify the significance of DDN 29 for supporting export production (Altabet, 1988; Casciotti et al., 2008; Dore et al., 2002). The results presented here demonstrate that the $\delta^{15}N$ of the PN_{sink} flux, compared to the 30

δ¹⁵N of DON and/or the PN_{susp} pool, is the most appropriate tool for evaluating the fate of
 newly fixed N on day to several week timescales, since it records the δ¹⁵N of the sources
 of new N fueling export production with the most fidelity.

4

5 **4.2** NO₃⁻- and N₂ fixation-driven export production in the context of 6 changing phytoplankton and diazotroph community composition

7 The shift from NO_3^- to N_2 fixation as the dominant source of N fueling export production 8 during the VAHINE mesocosm experiments is paralleled by observed changes in the 9 composition of the phytoplankton and diazotroph communities (Leblanc et al., 2016; 10 Turk-Kubo et al., 2015). In particular, the diazotroph that dominated inside the 11 mesocosms prior to DIP fertilization (i.e., during P0), as well as immediately following 12 DIP fertilization (i.e., during P1), was *Richelia* associated with the diatom *Rhizosolenia* 13 (Het-1), a diatom-diazotroph assemblage (DDA) that was also common in the Noumea 14 lagoon waters (Turk-Kubo et al., 2015). However, a Cyanothece-like group-C unicellular 15 cyanobacterial diazotroph (hereafter, "UCYN-C") came to dominate the diazotroph 16 community inside the mesocosms during P2. This diazotroph was rarely observed outside 17 the mesocosms, suggesting that the experiment itself created favorable conditions for the 18 success of this ecotype, which has never been observed at high abundances in the marine 19 water column (Turk-Kubo et al., 2015). It is possible that the microbial community 20 response to DIP fertilization created conditions suitable for UCYN-C growth inside the 21 mesocosms (see below; (Turk-Kubo et al., 2015)).

22

23 During P0, the diatom community was numerically dominated by non-diazotrophic 24 species such as Leptocylindrus spp. and Chaetoceros spp., with DDAs comprising a 25 minor fraction (i.e., <5%) of total diatom abundance, and becoming even less abundant 26 during P1 (Leblanc et al., 2016). Thus, while DDAs may have been responsible for the 27 low levels of N₂ fixation detected during P0 and P1, they were not sufficiently abundant 28 to be important drivers of export production; rather, we suggest that the small amount of 29 export that occurred during P0 and P1 was fueled by large (non-DDA) diatoms and aggregating PN_{susp} that bore the high δ^{15} N of earlier NO₃⁻ consumption (see above). 30

1 The increase in the rate of N_2 fixation observed towards the end of P1 (days 11 to 12) was 2 rapidly followed by a 2- to 10-fold increase in the abundance of non-diazotrophic 3 diatoms, driven almost exclusively by Cylindrotheca closterium, which reached 4 maximum abundance on days 15 to 16 and then declined to P1 levels by days 18 to 20 5 (Leblanc et al., 2016). Beginning on day 11 to 15, the abundance of both Synechococcus 6 and small eukaryotic phytoplankton ($<35 \mu$ m) also increased, although less rapidly than 7 the diatoms. Unlike the large diatoms, these two groups continued to grow until the end 8 of the experiments (Leblanc et al., 2016). Molecular data suggest that UCYN-C were the 9 dominant diazotrophs responsible for the elevated rates of N₂ fixation during late P1 and 10 throughout P2 (Turk-Kubo et al., 2015). We hypothesize that the subsequent rapid 11 transfer of DDN to the dissolved pool fueled the observed growth of C. closterium and 12 other phytoplankton during this time period. This is supported by a short-term ${}^{15}N_2$ labeled-DDN transfer experiment conducted on days 17 and 19 in which nanoSIMS 13 14 (nanoscale secondary ion mass spectrometry) analyses revealed that non-diazotrophic 15 plankton (diatoms and picoplankton) became significantly enriched in ¹⁵N after 24 to 72 h 16 due to their assimilation of DDN transferred from the diazotrophs in the mesocosms (Bonnet et al., 2016a). Regardless of the form of this DDN (i.e., NH₄⁺ or DON), in the 17 mesocosms it would retain the low- $\delta^{15}N$ characteristic of N₂ fixation, thereby lowering 18 the $\delta^{15}N$ of the phytoplankton that consumed it. Since the $\delta^{15}N$ of PN_{susp} did not decline 19 significantly during P2 but the δ^{15} N of PN_{sink} did, it follows that the sinking flux likely 20 21 comprised a contribution from both UCYN-C and the DDN-fueled phytoplankton. The 22 isotope data also suggest that while the C. closterium and other phytoplankton that 23 consumed the DDN may have briefly contributed to the PN_{susp} pool, they did not 24 accumulate above detection limits in the PN_{susp} pool for >1 day (i.e., the timescale of 25 mesocosm sampling) before sinking. This is analogous to the DDN passing briefly and 26 undetectably through the dissolved N pool before it was rapidly consumed by 27 phytoplankton. UCYN-C are small cyanobacteria $(5.7 \pm 0.8 \ \mu\text{m}; (Bonnet et al., 2016a),$ 28 but they were observed to aggregate into 100 to 500 μ m particles that sank rapidly, constituting 22.4 \pm 5 % of the PC_{sink} flux at the height of the UCYN-C bloom (day 17) 29 30 and ~5 % as the bloom decayed (Bonnet et al., 2016a). In addition to their direct 31 contribution to export, UCYN-C provided the N that fueled phytoplankton growth during 1 P2, such that this organism was responsible for driving most of export production in the 2 mesocosms, albeit largely indirectly. One implication of these results is that the 3 phenomenon of newly fixed N being released to the dissolved pool is apparently not 4 unique to Trichodesmium spp.. Another implication of the indirect control of diazotrophs 5 on export production, if relevant to the open ocean, is that while the transfer of DDN to 6 depth via non-diazotrophic phytoplankton ultimately leads to a decline in the $\delta^{15}N$ of thermocline NO₃⁻, it will not increase the NO₃⁻:PO₄³⁻ concentration ratio of these 7 8 subsurface waters.

9

10 **5** Conclusions

11 The goal of the VAHINE project was to track the fate of newly fixed N in large-volume, 12 DIP-fertilized mesocosm experiments. Consistent with previous work, we found no 13 evidence of newly fixed N accumulating in the surface DON or PN_{susp} pools. Instead, the $\delta^{15}N$ of the PN_{sink} flux decreased over the course of the experiments in proportion to 14 15 increasing rates of N₂ fixation. These observations are consistent with the traditional 16 oceanographic paradigm that new fluxes of N to the surface ocean are balanced by the 17 dominant flux out of surface waters, the sinking particulate flux (Eppley and Peterson, 18 1979). Moreover, they suggest that upper ocean $\delta^{15}N$ budgets that include measurements 19 of PN_{sink} are the best metric for tracking the fate of DDN and for diagnosing the dominant 20 N source fueling export production. While at-sea collections of PN_{sink} are expensive and logistically challenging, our results underscore the value of $PN_{sink} \delta^{15}N$ measurements and 21 22 emphasize their critical role in constraining the location, magnitude, and timing of marine 23 N₂ fixation fluxes.

24

This work provides isotopic evidence not only for newly fixed N leaving surface waters via the sinking flux, but also strongly suggests that DDN was first rapidly cycled through the dissolved N and PN_{susp} pools before being transferred to the sinking flux. While prior $\delta^{15}N$ budget studies have shown the rapid transfer of low- $\delta^{15}N$ N from surface to subsurface waters, the unique design of the mesocosm experiments that received no other external N source to support phytoplankton growth after several weeks of isolation requires that the low- $\delta^{15}N$ PN_{sink} flux observed during P2 was fueled by DDN. Daily

1 water column measurements of dissolved organic and inorganic N concentrations (and 2 the δ^{15} N of DON) indicate that DDN did not accumulate above detection limits in these or the PN_{susp} pools for >1 day timescales. While the δ^{15} N budget suggests that N₂ fixation 3 was the primary source of N fueling export production during P2, phytoplankton 4 5 abundance data show that non-diazotrophic phytoplankton, including large diatoms and 6 Synechococcus, "bloomed" during P2 (Leblanc et al., 2016), accumulating in numbers 7 too large to be supported by recycled forms of N that did not derive from N₂ fixation. 8 Assuming that these non-diazotrophic phytoplankton had no other means of acquiring N 9 than via the UCYN-C population that also increased significantly during P2, it is 10 extremely likely that DDN was transferred from UCYN-C to the non-diazotrophic 11 phytoplankton that drove most of the export production, along with a small direct 12 contribution (~5 to 22%) from aggregated UCYN-C cells (Bonnet et al., 2016a) and 13 zooplankton grazing (Hunt et al., 2016). Indeed, such a DDN transfer to the non-14 diazotrophic pool was directly observed in a companion nanoSIMS-¹⁵N₂ study conducted 15 in mid-P2 when UCYN-C was blooming but diatom abundances were declining (Bonnet 16 et al., 2016a); there is no reason that the same mechanism did not fuel the growth of 17 diatoms earlier in P2. These diatoms included C. closterium, which reportedly has the 18 ability to survive in low nutrient environments with seed populations that remain poised 19 to thrive when supplied with a pulse of nutrients, and then sink out of surface waters 20 under calm conditions due to their size (Kingston, 2009; Margalef, 1978; Wasmund et al., 21 2014). This is consistent with our observations of PN_{susp} and PN_{sink} during the VAHINE 22 experiments. In addition, C. closterium abundances have been observed to increase 23 dramatically after Trichodesmium blooms in the South West Pacific (Bonnet et al., Under 24 review). Our study provides some of the first evidence for DDN being rapidly transferred 25 through the dissolved pool to other phytoplankton that then dominate the sinking flux 26 instead of being transferred to the subsurface by diazotrophs sinking directly out of 27 surface waters.

28

Our findings are consistent with prior work showing that diazotrophs release newly fixed
N to the dissolved pool (Capone et al., 1994; Glibert and Bronk, 1994; Mulholland et al.,

31 2006; Mulholland et al., 2004), as well as with studies that have failed to observe DDN

1 accumulating in surface ocean N pools (Fawcett et al., 2011; Fawcett et al., 2014; Knapp 2 et al., 2005; Knapp et al., 2011). The results of the VAHINE experiments reconcile some 3 of these observations, but also leave open the question of the composition of the DDN 4 that is released to the dissolved pool. Additionally, the experiments raise the question of 5 how microbes and phytoplankton stay "poised" to rapidly assimilate DDN, and why they 6 sink out of surface waters when they acquire DDN, with no retention or accumulation of 7 that DDN in the upper ocean N pools. In other words, why is the fate of DDN so 8 disproportionately biased towards sinking?

9

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1 Figure captions and tables

2

3 Figure 1. VAHINE water column DON concentration measurements from this study in color overlain upon those of Berthelot et al. (2015), in gray (a), DON $\delta^{15}N$ (b), PN_{susp} 4 concentration (c), and $PN_{susn} \delta^{15}N$ (d) from within M1 (red filled inverted triangles), M2 5 6 (blue filled squares), M3 (green filled circles), and in the lagoon waters outside the 7 mesocosms ("X" symbols). Error bars represent propagated error for DON concentration and DON δ^{15} N, and ±1 S.D. for PN_{susp} concentration. No replicate measurements of PN_{susp} 8 $\delta^{15}N$ were made, so no error bars are shown. Shaded regions indicate P0 (days 1 through 9 4) and P2 (days 15 through 23), with the unshaded region in between indicating P1 (days 10 11 5 through 14). 12

13 Figure 2. VAHINE PN_{sink} mass flux in M1 (red solid line), M2 (blue dotted line), and M3 (green dashed line), and $PN_{sink} \delta^{15}N$ in M1 (red filled inverted triangles), M2 (blue filled 14 squares), and M3 (green filled circles) (a) and the corresponding contribution of N₂ 15 16 fixation to export production (b). Shaded regions indicate P0 (days 1 through 4) and P2 17 (days 15 through 23), with the unshaded region in between indicating P1 (days 5 through 14). $PN_{sink} \delta^{15}N$ error bars represent an average measurement S.D. of ±0.06‰, and error 18 bars for the fractional contribution of N₂ fixation to the PN_{sink} flux reflect the $\pm 0.06\%$ 19 20 range associated with the $PN_{sink} \delta^{15}N$ measurements.

21

22 Table 1. Average concentrations (± 1 S.D.) (μ M) and δ^{15} N (‰) for organic N pools and 23 fluxes in the VAHINE mesocosms during P0 (days 1 through 4), P1 (days 5 through 14), 24 and P2 (days 15 through 23), as well as in the lagoon waters outside the mesocosms. 25 Additionally, the average (± 1 S.D.) fraction of export supported by N₂ fixation based on 26 δ^{15} N budget calculations, as well as the average (± 1 S.D.) N₂ fixation rate for each time period based on both $\delta^{15}N$ budget calculations and ${}^{15}N_2$ incubations (Berthelot et al., 27 2015), are reported. Note that DON concentration and $\delta^{15}N$ for the lagoon and P0 are 28 29 based on one measurement, so no standard deviation is included. DIN pool

- 1 concentrations were low (i.e., <0.1 μ M) and invariant throughout the experiment
- 2 (Berthelot et al., 2015).
- 3

Table 1.	lagoon	PO	P1	P2
[DON] (µM)	5.3	5.4	5.3 ± 0.3	5.2 ± 0.7
DON δ ¹⁵ N (‰)	5.5	3.2	5.0 ± 0.7	4.8 ± 0.7
$[PN_{susp}] (\mu M)$	0.8 ± 0.1	0.9 ± 0.1	0.9 ± 0.2	1.3 ± 0.4
$PN_{susp} \delta^{15}N$ (%)	3.3 ± 1.3	3.2 ± 1.5	3.4 ± 1.5	3.7 ± 0.9
$PN_{sink} \delta^{15}N$ (%)	N/A	4.1 ± 0.3	3.0 ± 0.4	2.3 ± 1.8
% export from N ₂ fixation	N/A	$32 \pm 4\%$	$47 \pm 6\%$	56 ± 24%
δ^{15} N budget N ₂ fix. rate	N/A	23 ± 8	51 ± 41	329 ± 298
$(\mu \operatorname{mol} \operatorname{N} \operatorname{m}^{-2} \operatorname{d}^{-1})$				
$^{15}N_2$ fix incub. N ₂ fix. rate	137 ± 52	259 ± 88	150 ± 61	411 ± 127
$(\mu \operatorname{mol} \operatorname{N} \operatorname{m}^{-2} \operatorname{d}^{-1})$				

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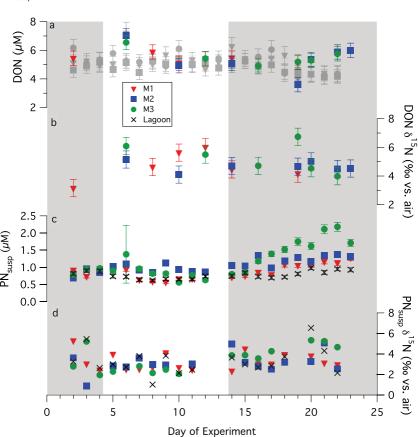
5 Table 2. Comparison of time-integrated diazotroph derived N (DDN) for each mesocosm

 $6 \qquad \text{based on } \delta^{15}N \text{ budget calculations and } ^{15}N_2 \text{ fixation incubation rates.}$

7

Table 2.	M1	M2	M3
δ^{15} N budget DDN (μ M)	0.29	0.28	0.20
¹⁵ N ₂ incubation [N] (μ M)	0.41	0.38	0.38
δ^{15} N budget/ 15 N ₂ incubation	71%	75%	52%

Figure 1. DON concentration (a), DON $\delta^{15}N$ (b), PN_{susp} concentration (c), and PN_{susp} $\delta^{15}N$ (d) from the VAHINE mesocosm experiments.



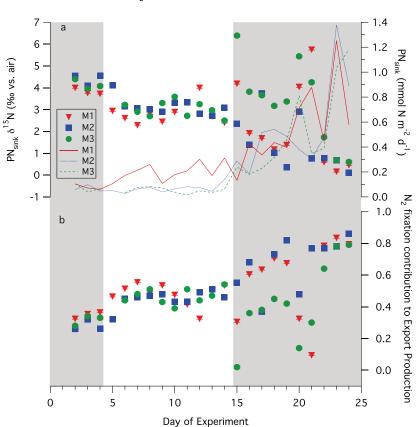


Figure 2. PN_{sink} mass flux and $\delta^{15}N$ (a) and $\delta^{15}N$ budget-based estimates of fractional contribution of N₂ fixation to export production (b).