Introduction to the project VAHINE: VAriability of vertical and tropHIc transfer of diazotroph derived N in the south wEst Pacific

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1 Abstract

At the global scale, N₂ fixations provides the major external source of reactive nitrogen to the surface ocean, surpassing atmospheric and riverine inputs, and sustains ~50 % of new primary production in oligotrophic environments. The main goal of the VAHINE project was to study the fate of nitrogen newly fixed by diazotrophs (or diazotroph-derived nitrogen) in oceanic food webs, how it impact heterotrophic bacteria, phytoplankton and zooplankton dynamics, stocks and fluxes of biogenic elements and particle export. Three large-volume (~50 m3) mesocosms were deployed in a tropical oligotrophic ecosystem (the New Caledonia lagoon, south-eastern Pacific) and intentionally fertilized with ~0.8 µM of dissolved inorganic phosphorus (DIP) to stimulate diazotrophy and follow subsequent ecosystem stocks and fluxes changes. VAHINE was a multidisciplinary project involving close collaborations between biogeochemists, molecular ecologist, chemists, marine opticians and modelers. This introductory paper describes in detail the scientific objectives of the project as well as the implementation plan: the mesocosm description and deployment, the selection of the study site (New Caledonian lagoon) and the logistical and sampling strategy. The main hydrological and biogeochemical conditions of the study site before the mesocosms deployment and during the experiment itself are described, and a general overview of the papers published in this special issue is presented.

1 1 General context and objectives of the VAHINE project

Climate change is now widely recognized as the major environmental problem facing the globe (IPCC, 2014) and is at the heart of human, environmental and economical issues. On a global scale, the oceanic biological carbon pump (BCP) influences climate trends: it consists of the photosynthetic fixation of carbon dioxide (CO₂) by oceanic algae (phytoplankton) in the upper illuminated ocean, followed by the downward flux of some of this material mainly due to gravitational settling. The BCP transfers approximately 5-15 GT of carbon (C) from the surface ocean to the oceans interior every year (Henson et al., 2011).

9 The efficiency of our oceans to take up excess CO₂ largely depends on the availability of fixed nitrogen (N) (Falkowski, 1997) in the surface ocean. In the vast nitrate (NO₃⁻)-limited 10 oligotrophic gyres, which cover ~60 % of the global ocean surface, fixed N is principally 11 provided through the biological fixation of atmospheric dinitrogen (N_2) by N₂-fixing (or 12 13 diazotrophic) organisms (Karl et al., 2002). Diazotrophs fix N₂ gas dissolved in seawater (the largest reservoir of N on Earth) into ammonium and organic N compounds. At the global 14 15 scale, they provide the major external source of N for the ocean, surpassing atmospheric and riverine inputs (Gruber, 2004), and act thus as 'natural fertilizers', contributing to sustain life 16 17 and the BCP through the so called 'N₂-primed prokaryotic C pump' (Karl et al., 2003; Karl et al., 2012). 18

Important progress on the magnitude and the ecological role of marine N₂ fixation in 19 20 biogeochemical cycles has been made by the international oceanographic community over the last two decades. They include the landmark discovery of unicellular diazotrophic organisms 21 of pico- and nanoplanktonic size termed UCYN, e.g. (Zehr et al., 2001), and new and 22 unexpected ecological niches where diazotrophs are active, such as N-rich oxygen minimum 23 zones, e.g. (Dekaezemacker et al., 2013; Fernandez et al., 2011). Thus, we have gained a 24 much better understanding of this process. However, a critical question that remains poorly 25 26 studied is the fate of N newly fixed by diazotrophs (or diazotroph derived N, hereafter referred to as DDN) in oceanic food webs, and its impact on CO₂ uptake and export (BCP) 27 28 (Mulholland, 2007). The VAHINE project proposes a scientific contribution to answer these questions, based on a combination of experimentation and modeling involving recently 29 developed innovative techniques. The acronym VAHINE (VAriability of vertical and tropHIc 30 transfer of diazotroph derived N in the south wEst Pacific) was chosen in order to take 31 reference to the Pacific culture where this experiment has been performed with the help of 32 local people. The main scientific research priorities of the project were: 33

- 1 i) To quantify the DDN which enters the planktonic food web,
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ii) To investigate how the development of diazotrophs influences the subsequent
diversity, gene expression, and production of primary producers, heterotrophic
bacterioplankton, and subsequently zooplankton abundance,

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7 iii) To examine whether different functional types of diazotrophs significantly modify the
8 stocks and fluxes of the major biogenic elements (C, N, P),

iv) To elucidate whether the efficiency of particulate matter export depends on thedevelopment of different functional types of diazotrophs.

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Summarized conclusions of each article composing the special issue are provided in section 4 of this manuscript (Special issue presentation). Additionally, a detailed literature review on knowledge regarding the fate of DDN in the ocean is provided in the synthesis article of the present issue (Bonnet et al., 2016) together with a detailed description of the experimental and modelling results obtained during the project that answer the above scientific questions.

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Below, we focus on the technical challenges and the methods developed to answer the 19 scientific questions of the project. Studying the fate of DDN in the ocean is technically 20 complex. First, it requires appropriate methodologies to trace the passage of DDN through the 21 22 different components of planktonic food web. During the VAHINE project, we intensively used high-resolution nanometer scale secondary ion mass spectrometry (nanoSIMS) in 23 combination with flow cytometry cell sorting and ${}^{15}N_2$ labelling to trace the passage of ${}^{15}N_2$ 24 labelled DDN into several groups of non-diazotrophic phytoplankton and bacteria. This 25 technique and results are extensively presented in Bonnet et al. (Accepted) and in this special 26 issue (Berthelot et al., 2016; Bonnet et al., 2015) and will not be detailed here. 27

Second, it requires the monitoring of the chemical, biological and biogeochemical characteristics of a water body affected by a diazotroph bloom for a long period of time (15-30 days) to be able to follow plankton community changes, track the N transfer in the different compartments of the ecosystem (dissolved/particulate phases, small/large plankton, export material) and elaborate biogeochemical budgets. Small-scale laboratory microcosm experiments have been frequently used in ocean biogeochemical studies, but their limited realism can make extrapolations to natural systems difficult to justify. They limit the duration

of experiments to few days (usually 24 to 72 h), the small volumes used (few liters maximum) 1 limit the number of parameters measured and they do not include export terms. To overcome 2 these difficulties, we decided to use the technology of large-volume mesocosms. Mesocosms 3 are now widely used in ecological studies (Riebesell et al., 2013; Stewart et al., 2013) and 4 enable isolation of water masses of several cubic meters from physical dispersion for several 5 weeks, without disturbing temperature and light conditions, taking into account the biological 6 7 complexity of the planktonic ecosystem at large scales; they thus provide a powerful approach to maintain natural planktonic communities under close-to-natural self-sustaining conditions 8 9 for several weeks. Moreover, the responses obtained from mesocosms studies (isolated from hydrodynamics) provide useful parameterizations for ecosystem and biogeochemical models. 10

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12 2 Implementation of the VAHINE project

13 2.1 Mesocosms description and deployment

Among the different types of mesocosms available (Stewart et al., 2013), the model chosen 14 for this study (surface 4.15 m², volume ~50 m³, Fig. 1) are sea-going mesocosms entirely 15 transportable that can be used under low to moderate wind/wave conditions (20-25 knots/2.5 16 17 wave height). They have been designed in the framework of the DUNE project (Guieu et al., 2010; Guieu et al., 2014) and consist in large transparent bags made of two 500 µm thick films 18 of polyethylene (PE) and vinyl acetate (EVA, 19%), with nylon meshing in between to allow 19 maximum resistance and light penetration (produced by HAIKONENE KY, Finland) (Fig. 2). 20 They are 2.3 m in diameter and 15 m in height and are equipped with removable sediment 21 traps for sinking material collection (Fig. 1, 2), a prerequisite to answering some of the 22 questions of the project. In the framework of VAHINE, we deployed three mesocosms 23 (hereafter named M1, M2 and M3) to ensure replication and robustness of the data. 24

The mesocosms were made of three different parts (Fig. 1, 2): i) the main cylinder, rigidified 25 26 by five polyethylene rings maintaining the round shape of the bags and ending with two 8 cm 27 width PVC circles sandwiching the bags ii) the bottom cone (2.2 m height) also made of two 28 8 cm width PVC circles. It was equipped with the sediment trap system, on which is screwed a 250 mL flask collecting sinking material, allowing an easy daily collection and replacement 29 by SCUBA divers, iii) the PE flotation frame supporting the bags and attached at three points 30 my means of specific PVC cylindrical structures at the level of the upper ring and at the level 31 of the ring just below the sea-surface. The structure was equipped with six buoys insuring the 32 buoyancy of the system. 33

The mesocosms were moored using three screw anchors installed on the sea floor at 25 m 1 depth. The three mesocosms were attached together and moored with the anchors screwed 2 120° from each other and connected to sub-surface buoys, which were themselves connected 3 to surface buoys. The complete setup was a solid mooring capable of absorbing the sea swell 4 while maintaining a supple and strong structure and ensuring that no tension was applied 5 directly to the bags. An in situ mooring line was installed on an independent screw anchor to 6 7 incubate subsamples collected from the mesocosms for production measurements (primary production, N₂ fixation) and process studies under the same conditions as in the mesocosms. 8 9 A fifth independent screw anchor was installed to hold two mobile plastic logistics platforms for instrumentation and the daily sampling by scientists. 10

The mesocosms were deployed on January 13th 2013 (day 0) with the assistance of four 11 professional SCUBA divers. The group of three main cylinders was first deployed and the 12 13 initial operations were performed on a coral shoal near the deployment site. The bags, cinched by three small elastic ropes, were placed inside and fixed to the flotation frame at three places 14 15 using the designed PVC pieces. Once fixed, the system was transported to the deployment site, and attached to the subsurface buoys tethered to the screw anchors. Small ballast weights 16 17 were set up at the base of the bags and the elastic ropes released, allowing the main cylinders to gently deploy vertically with the assistance of the SCUBA divers (Fig. 2e,f). Once 18 deployed, the main cylinders were left opened for 24 h to stabilize the water column inside. 19 The following day (day 1, January 14th), the divers closed the mesocosms by screwing 20 together the main cylinder and the bottom cone using eight nylon screws preventing further 21 22 water exchange between inside and outside the mesocosms (Guieu et al., 2010). During the entire installation, the divers remained outside the bags to minimize disturbance and potential 23 24 contamination of the water column.

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26 2.2 Selection of the study site

The mesocosms were deployed during austral summer conditions (January-February 2013) in 27 28 the oligotrophic New Caledonian coral lagoon (Noumea lagoon). New Caledonia is located in the South West Pacific ocean, 1500 km east of Australia in the Coral Sea (Fig. 3a), and hosts 29 30 one of the three largest reef systems worldwide. It still displays intact ecosystems and its ecological and patrimonial value has been recognized through its registration as a UNESCO 31 world heritage site. This site has been chosen for several reasons: i) it is a tropical low-32 nutrient low-chlorophyll (LNLC) ecosystem strongly influenced by oceanic oligotrophic 33 waters inflowing from outside the lagoon (Ouillon et al., 2010). NO₃⁻ and chlorophyll a (Chl 34

a) concentrations are typically $< 0.04 \ \mu mol \ L^{-1}$ and around 0.10-0.15 $\mu g \ L^{-1}$, respectively, 1 during the summer season (Fichez et al., 2010). ii) Primary productivity is N-limited 2 throughout the year (Torréton et al., 2010) giving N₂-fixing microorganisms a competitive 3 advantage over non-diazotrophic organisms. New Caledonian waters support high N2 fixation 4 rates (151-703 µmol N m⁻² d⁻¹, Garcia et al., 2007), high *Trichodesmium* spp. abundances 5 (Dupouy et al., 2000; Rodier and Le Borgne, 2010, 2008) as well as unicellular diazotrophic 6 7 cyanobacteria (UCYN) (Biegala and Raimbault, 2008). The New Caledonian lagoon therefore represented an ideal location to track the fate of DDN in the ecosystem and implement the 8 9 VAHINE project.

Before the VAHINE project, the mesocosms chosen for this study had only been deployed in 10 protected bays of the temperate Mediterranean Sea, which is not submitted to tide currents 11 12 and trade winds as New Caledonia is. In order to test the resistance of the mesocosms in a 13 tropical ecosystem submitted to trade winds (20-25 knots) and high tidal currents, and to select the ideal location to deploy the mesoscosms inside the lagoon, we performed a pilot 14 15 study in March 2012 (i.e. one year before the VAHINE project). Four potential study sites were tested of which the Tabou Reef (22°29.073 S - 166°26.905 E) located in close proximity 16 17 to Boulari passage (Fig. 3b, c) has been selected as the ideal location to implement the project as it met the following specifications required for the technical deployment and sustainability 18 of the mesocosms: i) the site was protected from the dominant trade winds by the submerged 19 20 reef located less than one nautical mile from the study site, ii) it was located 28 km from the New Caledonian coast at the exit of the lagoon and was strongly influenced by oceanic 21 waters, typical of a LNLC environment (see below, initial conditions), iii) it was 25 m-deep, 22 which is in the range required (17-25 m) to deploy 15 m high mesocosms and insure the 23 SCUBA divers security, iv) the seafloor was mainly composed of sand, which is a 24 prerequisite to implant to screw anchors in the substrate, v) it is seldom visited by amateur 25 26 yatchmen.

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28 2.3 DIP fertilization

Dissolved inorganic phosphorus (DIP) availability has been reported to control N_2 fixation in the southwest Pacific (Moutin et al., 2008; Moutin et al., 2005). To alleviate any potential DIP limitation in the mesocosms and enhance a bloom of diazotrophs for the purpose of this study, the mesocosms were intentionally fertilized with ~0.8 µmol L⁻¹ of DIP on the evening of day 4 (January 16th) of the experiment. Such concentrations have already been measured in the New Caledonian lagoon and were shown to be able to stimulate N₂ fixation. The amount of DIP added was also chosen based on the modelling work performed by Gimenez et al. (2016),
confirming a clear stimulation of N₂ fixation by 0.8 µmol L⁻¹ DIP in our experimental
systems, and an absence of stimulation without any DIP enrichment.

We diluted 5.66 g of KH_2PO_4 in three 20-L carboys filled with filtered surface seawater collected close to the mesocosms. The carboy contents were homogenized and 20 L of each solution were then been carefully introduced in each mesocosm from the bottom to the surface through a braided PVC tubing (inner diameter = 9.5 mm) connected to a Teflon pump (St-Gobain Performance Plastics) gradually lifted up during the KH_2PO_4 fertilization to insure homogenization of the solution.

10 When deployed, the mesocosms naturally trapped different volumes of seawater and the volume of each mesocosms had to be determined for biogeochemical budgets (Berthelot et 11 al., 2015). As DIP concentrations were measured at three selected depths (1 m, 6 m, 12 m) 12 13 before (evening of day 4) and after (morning of day 5) the fertilization, the delta DIP was used to calculate the volume of each mesocosm based on the assumption that no DIP was 14 15 consumed during the night between day 4 and day 5. The DIP concentrations were homogeneous over depth on day 5 and the mesocosm volumes were calculated as 52,790±490 16 L for M1, 42,620±430 L for M2 and 50,240±300 L for M3, with the uncertainties calculated 17 from standard deviation of triplicate DIP measurements. 18

New Caledonian soils are very rich in metals. A third of its surface (5500 km²) is covered by 19 soils originating from ultramafic rocks which have exceptionally high levels of metals such as 20 Fe, Ni, Cr, Co, and Mn (Jaffré, 1980). Consequently, dissolved trace metals are particularly 21 22 abundant in the Noumea lagoon (Migon et al., 2007). Iron concentrations measured during the Diapalis cruises around New Caledonia were higher than those reported in the sub-tropical 23 North Pacific and the high iron inputs in this region are hypothesized to drive the South West 24 Pacific towards a DIP depletion (Van Den Broeck et al., 2004). Metals were thus not 25 26 supplemented to the mesocosms.

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28 **2.4 Logistics, sampling strategy**

As the mesocosms were moored 28 km off the coast, all the experimental work had to be performed on site: scientific laboratories were setup on the R/V Alis (28.5 m) moored 0.5 nautical mile from the mesocosms, and on the Amédée sand island located one nautical mile from the mesocosms (Fig. 3b, c), on which we set up a laboratory and accommodated scientists for the duration of the VAHINE experiment.

Sampling in the mesocosms started on January 15th (day 2). The experiment lasted for 23 days for logistical reasons (i.e. until February 6th) and sampling was performed daily at 7 am from the sampling platform moored next to the mesocosms. Every day after collection, seawater samples were immediately carried out to the R/V Alis and the Amédée for immediate processing.

Discrete samples were collected at three selected depths (1 m, 6 m, 12 m) in each mesocosm 6 7 and outside (hereafter termed 'lagoon waters') using a braided PVC tubing connected to the Teflon PFA pump activated by pressurized air from diving tanks, allowing sampling of large 8 9 volumes with the least possible perturbation inside the mesocosms. For stock measurements, 50-L PE carboys were filled at each depth of each mesocosm, immediately transported 10 onboard the R/V Alis for subsampling and samples treatments. For flux measurements 11 (primary production, bacterial production, N_2 fixation), samples were directly collected in 12 incubation bottles and transported onboard to avoid the subsampling step and minimize the 13 time between collection, tracer spikes and incubation. For prokaryotic diversity and gene 14 15 expression measurements, 10-L carboys were filled (from M1 only) and carried out to the Amédée laboratory for immediate processing. A total of 220 L were sampled every day from 16 17 each mesocosms, corresponding to ~10 % of the total mesocosms volume sampled at the end of the 23-days experiment. 18

After seawater sampling, vertical CTD profiles were performed (around 10 am) using a SBE 19 20 19 plus Seabird CTD in each mesocosm and outside the mesocosms to document the vertical structure of temperature, salinity and fluorescence. The CTD in situ fluorescence data were 21 fitted to the Chl a data from fluorometry measurements using a linear least squares regression. 22 Sediment traps were then collected daily from each mesocosm by two SCUBA divers (Fig. 23 2e, f1). They followed the same protocol everyday: they gently tapped the cone of the 24 mesocosms to dislodge sinking material retained on the walls, waited for 15 minutes, and 25 26 collected the 250 mL flasks screwed to the trap system of each mesocosm and immediately 27 replaced it with a new one.

Vertical net hauls were performed every four days using a 30 cm diameter, 100 cm long, 80 µm mesh net fitted with a filtering cod end. On each sampling occasion, three vertical hauls were collected from each mesocosm and lagoon waters, representing a total volume of 2.13 m^3 , i.e. 4 % of the total mesocosm volume. This sampling strategy was chosen to minimize the effect of zooplankton catches on the plankton abundance and composition in the mesocosms.

1 **2.5** Replicability among the mesocosms

2 Guieu et al. (2010) and Guieu et al. (2014) have performed several mesocosm experiments in the Mediterranean Sea and demonstrated that the type of mesocosms used in the present study 3 is well adapted to conduct replicated process studies on the first levels of the pelagic food web 4 in LNLC environments. In order to evaluate the reproducibility among the three mesocosms 5 deployed during VAHINE, we calculated the coefficient of variation (CV, %) of the main 6 7 stocks and fluxes measured every day for 23 days for every sampling depth (Table 1, the methods are described in detail in the publications composing this special issue). The CV 8 9 ranged from 4 to 42 % depending on the parameter considered. It was lowest for TOC and DON concentrations (4 and 9 %, respectively), which is very satisfying as these CV are close 10 to the precision of the methods themselves, indicating a good reproducibility between 11 mesocosms. It was highest for NO_3^- concentrations (42 %), which is consistent with the fact 12 that NO₃⁻ concentrations were close to quantification limits of conventional methods (~0.05 13 µmol L⁻¹) during the 23-days experiment: when the mean value is close to zero, the CV 14 15 approaches infinity and is therefore sensitive to small changes in the mean. For flux measurements of PP, BP and N₂ fixation, the CV's were 29, 26 and 34%, respectively, which 16 17 is also satisfying given the natural spatial heterogeneity of plankton in the environment due to aggregation, (Seebah et al., 2014), or to the buoyancy of some diazotrophs such as 18 Trichodesmium (Capone et al., 1997), which introduces spatial variability, well known in the 19 20 natural environment for N₂ fixation (Bombar et al., 2015).

Another criterion to evaluate the consistency between mesocosms is to compare the evolution 21 of the biogeochemical conditions and the plankton community composition between 22 mesocosms. This approach is described in details in several articles of the present issue and 23 only some general features will be given here. As an example, bulk N₂ fixation rates averaged 24 18.5 \pm 1.1 nmol N L⁻¹ d⁻¹ (standard deviation was calculated on the average N₂ fixation rates of 25 26 each mesocosm) over the 23 days of the experiment (all depths averaged together). N₂ 27 fixation rates did not differ significantly among the three mesocosms (p<0.05, Kruskall-28 Wallis test, (Berthelot et al., 2015). Moreover, we consistently observed the same temporal dynamics over the three mesocosms, such as the dramatic increase of rates from days 15 to 23 29 (during which they reached 27.3 \pm 1.0 nmol N L⁻¹ d⁻¹). This together indicates good 30 replicability between the mesocosms (Bonnet et al., 2015). Molecular data also report a shift 31 32 in the diazotrophic community composition around day 15, with a bloom of UCYN-C consistently occurring in the three mesocsoms, see (Turk-Kubo et al., 2015). The same feature 33 34 was observed for Synechococcus abundances, which increased by a factor of two since day 15 to day 23 in every mesocosm (Leblanc et al., 2016). Finally, the diatom community which was very diverse during the first half of the experiment suddenly shifted beginning ~day 10 and *Cylindrotheca closterium* consistently became the dominant diatoms in the three mesocosms (Leblanc et al., 2016). These observations, together with the CV reported above indicate that biogeochemical and biological conditions were comparable between the three mesocosms.

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8 3 Initial conditions and evolution of the core parameters during the 9 experiment

Initial hydrological and biogeochemical conditions (i.e. conditions in ambient waters the day 10 of mesocosms deployment - January 13th, day 0) are summarized in Table 2. Seawater 11 temperature was 25.30°C, which is slightly lower than the temperature reported at this season 12 13 at the Amédée lighthouse station, while salinity (35.15) was typical for the season (Le Borgne et al., 2010). NO₃⁻ and DIP concentrations were both reported at 0.04 \pm 0.01 µmol L⁻¹, and Chl 14 a concentrations from fluorescence data (0.11 μ g L⁻¹) were typical of oligotrophic systems 15 and in the range reported in the literature for this location (Fichez et al., 2010). Dissolved 16 17 organic N (DON) and P (DOP) concentrations were 4.65±0.46 and 0.100±0.002 and ambient N_2 fixation rates 8.70±1.70 nmol N L⁻¹ day⁻¹ before the mesocosms deployment. 18

Seawater temperature measured daily by vertical CTD profiles inside the mesocosms and in 19 20 the lagoon waters (Fig. 4a-d) gradually increased over the 23-days of the experiment from 25.50°C the day of the mesocosms closure (day 2) to 26.24°C on day 23. This warming is the 21 typical trend observed in New Caledonia along the summer season (Le Borgne et al., 2010). 22 The water column was vertically homogeneous over the course of the experiment, except the 23 two first days, which were characterized by a slight stratification inside and outside the 24 mesocosms. Data indicate therefore a good reproducibility between the three mesocosms and 25 26 between the mesocosms and the Noumea lagoon waters.

Salinity data (Fig. 4e-h) indicate a small and gradual increase in the three mesocosms during the 23-days experiment (35.2 to 35.4) suggesting a probable higher level of evaporation in the mesocosms compared to the Noumea lagoon. Moreover, lagoon waters constantly receive some low salinity waters from the coast due to rainfall advected by tide currents, which may also explain the slightly lower salinity values measured in the Noumea lagoon (35.40) compared to inside (35.47) at the end of the experiment.

NO₃⁻ concentrations (Fig. 5a-d) remained below 0.1 μ mol L⁻¹ during the whole experiment in all mesocosms and in the lagoon waters. Average concentrations over the 23-days experiment

and the three depths samples were close to detection limits of the method (0.01 μ mol L⁻¹) and 1 are thus difficult to quantify accurately: they were $0.04\pm0.02 \text{ }\mu\text{mol }L^{-1}$, $0.02\pm0.01 \text{ }\mu\text{mol }L^{-1}$, 2 0.02 ± 0.02 µmol L⁻¹, and 0.06 ± 0.04 µmol L⁻¹ in M1, M2, M3 and in the lagoon waters, 3 respectively. DIP concentrations (Fig. 5e-h) were also close to detection limits (0.005 µmol L⁻ 4 ¹) and on average 0.04 ± 0.01 , 0.03 ± 0.01 and 0.03 ± 0.02 µmol L⁻¹ before the DIP fertilization 5 (days 2 to 4, hereafter called P0) in M1, M2 and M3 (average over the three depths). They 6 increased after the fertilization on day 5 to 0.73 ± 0.07 , 0.98 ± 0.01 , 0.77 ± 0.03 µmol L⁻¹ in M1, 7 M2 and M3. The intensity of the DIP fertilization differed slightly among the mesocosms, 8 likely reflecting the different volume of the mesocosms (see above). Subsequently DIP 9 concentrations decreased steadily towards initial concentrations by the end of the experiment: 10 0.03 ± 0.01 , 0.03 ± 0.01 and 0.05 ± 0.02 µmol L⁻¹ in M1, M2 and M3, respectively (average of 11 days 23 over the three depths). However, the DIP pool was first exhausted in M1 (day 14), 12 then M2 (day 19) and finally M3 (day 23). A more detailed description of the evolution of 13 stocks and fluxes of biogenic elements during the experiment can be found in (Berthelot et al., 14 15 2015).

Chl a fluorescence was homogenous throughout the water column during the course of the 16 experiment (Fig. 4i-l). Chl *a* slightly increased (by 0.1 to 0.2 μ g L⁻¹) in the three mesocosms 17 after DIP fertilization on days 5 and 6. After day 6, they consistently declined back to the 18 initial (before fertilization) concentrations of 0.12-0.15 μ g L⁻¹. On days 12, 13 and 14, Chl a 19 concentrations re-increased dramatically to reach 0.61, 0.65 and 1.02 μ g L⁻¹ in M1, M2 and 20 M3 at day 23, respectively, indicating that the three mesocosms were relatively synchronized 21 but the intensity of the phytoplankton bloom differed between the mesocosms, with a greater 22 increase observed in M3 compared to M2 and M1. In the lagoon waters, Chl a concentrations 23 also gradually increased over the experiment (concentrations reached 0.35 μ g L⁻¹ at day 23) 24 but to a lower extend compared to that of the mesocosms. 25

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27 4 Special issue presentation

The goal of this special issue is to present the knowledge gained regarding the fate of DDN in a LNLC ecosystem based on the large dataset acquired during the VAHINE mesocosm experiment. VAHINE was a multidisciplinary project involving close collaborations between biogeochemists, molecular ecologist, chemists, marine opticians and modelers. Most of the contributions to this special issue have benefited from this collective and collaborative effort. The philosophies and summarized results of the different papers composing the special issue are presented briefly hereafter and a synthesis paper of all the multidisciplinary approaches 1 used to answer the main scientific questions of the VAHINE project is proposed at the end of

- 2 the issue (Bonnet et al., 2016).
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First, thanks to the high frequency (daily) sampling of the same water body for 23 days, this 4 project provided a unique opportunity to characterize the diversity of the planktonic 5 assemblage using several complementary approaches, and investigate species successions in 6 7 relation to hydrological parameters, biogeochemical stocks and fluxes during a diazotroph bloom in a LNLC ecosystem. By using PCR targeting a component of the nitrogenase gene 8 9 (nifH), sequencing and qPCR assays, Turk-Kubo et al. (2015) fully characterized the diazotroph community composition within the mesocosms and the New Caledonian 10 (Noumea) lagoon and calculated in situ growth and mortality rates for natural populations of 11 diazotrophs, which is rarely accomplished. They revealed that the diazotroph community was 12 13 dominated by Diatom-Diazotroph Associations (DDAs) during the first period of the experiment after the DIP fertilization (days 5 to 14; hereafter called P1), and a bloom of 14 15 UCYN-C occurred during the second half (days 15 to 23, hereafter called P2), providing an unique opportunity to compare the DDN transfer and export efficiency associated with 16 17 different diazotrophs. Complementary to this approach, Pfreundt et al. (2015) used 16S tag sequencing to examine the temporal dynamics of the prokaryotic community and observed 18 clear successions of prokaryotes during the experiment, in relation with biogeochemical 19 20 parameters. In a second study, Pfreundt et al. (2016) also used metatranscriptomics to investigate the microbial gene expression dynamics from diazotrophic and non-diazotrophic 21 taxa and highlighted specific patterns of expression of genes involved in N, DIP, iron and 22 light utilization along the different phases of the experiment. Van Wambeke et al. (2015) 23 revealed that heterotrophic bacterioplankton production and alkaline phosphatase activity 24 were statistically higher during P2, concomitant with the UCYN-C bloom. Their results 25 26 suggest that most of the DDN reached the heterotrophic bacterial community through indirect processes, like mortality, lysis and grazing. In parallel, Leblanc et al. (2016) focused on the 27 28 phytoplankton assemblages and dynamics from pigment signatures, flow cytometry and taxonomy analyses and revealed a monospecific bloom of the diatom Cylindrotheca 29 30 closterium and an 2-fold increase in Synechococcus and nano-phytoeukaryotes during P2.

Tedetti et al. (2015) used bio-optical techniques to describe the spectral characteristics and the variability of dissolved and particulate chromophoric materials according to the phytoplankton community composition and revealed a coupling between the dynamics of the N₂ fixation and that of chromophoric material in the South West Pacific. Berman-Frank et al. (2016) analyzed the spatial and temporal dynamics of transparent exopolymeric particles
(TEP), which are sticky carbon rich compounds that are formed, degraded, and utilized in
both biotic and abiotic processes, and measured a relatively stable TEP pool available as both
a carbon source for plankton communities and facilitating aggregation and flux throughout the
experiment

Second, the bloom of diazotrophs (UCYN-C) obtained in the closed water body of the 6 7 mesocosms following DIP fertilization offered the opportunity to track the fate of DDN in the ecosystem: Berthelot et al. (2015) described the evolution of C, N, P pools and fluxes during 8 9 the course of the experiment and report a 3-fold increase in Chl a concentrations and N₂ fixation rates and a 5-fold increase in C export during the second half of the experiment 10 (UCYN-C bloom). They also reveal that the *e*-ratio that quantifies the efficiency of a system 11 to export particulate organic C was significantly higher (p < 0.05) during P2 than during P1, 12 13 indicating that the production sustained by UCYN-C was more efficient at promoting C export than the production sustained by DDAs. Complementary to this approach Knapp et al. 14 (2015) reported the results of δ^{15} N measurements on DON. PON and particles from sediment 15 traps and further substantiated these results with a significantly (p<0.05) higher contribution 16 of N₂ fixation to export production during P2 (56±24 % and up to 80 % at the end of the 17 experiment) compared to P1 (47±6 %). Bonnet et al. (2015) explored the fate of DDN at 18 shorter time scales and revealed that ~ 10 % of UCYN-C from the water column were 19 20 exported daily to the traps, representing as much as 22.4 ± 5.5 % of the total POC exported at the height of the UCYN-C bloom. This export was mainly due to the aggregation of small 21 (5.7±0.8 μm) UCYN-C cells into large (100–500 μm) aggregates. They also showed using a 22 nanoSIMS approach that 21±4 % of the DDN was transferred to non-diazotrophic plankton, 23 mainly picoplankton (18 \pm 4 %) followed by diatoms (3 \pm 2 %) during P2. The same 24 nanoSIMS approach was used by Berthelot et al. (2016) in a parallel experimental study to 25 26 compare the DDN transfer efficiency into non-diazotrophic plankton, whether it comes from 27 UCYN-C, UCYN-B or Trichodesmium. They showed that the transfer was twice as high during a Trichodesmium bloom than during a UCYN-B or UCYN-C bloom, arguing that 28 29 filamentous diazotrophs blooms are more efficient at promoting non-diazotrophic production in N depleted areas. In parallel, Hunt et al. (2016) estimated a mean ~ 30 % contribution of 30 DDN to zooplankton biomass in the mesocosms based on natural ¹⁵N isotope measurements 31 on zooplankton. They also provided evidence for direct ingestion and assimilation of UCYN-32 C-derived N by the zooplankton, results that were complemented by qPCR assays on several 33 34 diazotroph phylotypes in zooplankton guts. Spungin et al. (2016) took advantage of the *Trichodesmium* bloom occuring outside the mesoscoms to specifically investigate its decline
 and understand changes in genetic underpinning and features that could elucidate varying
 stressors or causes of mortality of *Trichodesmium* in the natural environment.

Third, modelling was used at every stage of the project. Simulations performed with the 1D-4 vertical biogeochemical mechanistic Eco3M-MED model have been used prior to the 5 6 VAHINE experiment to help in the scientific implementation of the project (timing and 7 quantification of the DIP fertilization). Gimenez et al. (2016) validated the model using the in situ data measured during the whole experiment, and provided additional information such as 8 9 stoichiometry of planktonic organisms that could not be inferred from in situ measurements and offered the opportunity to deconvolute the different interlinked biogeochemical processes 10 occurring in the ecosystem to help understanding the fate of DDN in oligotrophic ecosystems 11 and the impact of N₂ fixation on carbon export. 12

13 Finally, a synthesis study by Bonnet et al. (2016) attempts to summarize our knowledge and the unresolved questions regarding the fate of DDN in the ocean, synthetize and link the 14 major experimental and modelling results obtained during the project and described in the 15 VAHINE Special issue. It reconciles the diverse and complementary methodological 16 approaches used in this study to answer the scientific questions of the VAHINE project. After 17 putting in perspective the different experimental findings, the modelling approach has also 18 been used in the synthesis article as a tool to investigate the impact of N₂ fixation on marine 19 productivity, export and food web composition by artificially removing N₂ fixation in the 20

- 21 model.
- 22
- 23

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30

Author contribution: S. B. designed the experiments helped by T.M. J.M.G., F.L. designed
the mesocosms, J.M.G., E.F., B.B., A.R. and J.M.B. deployed the mesocosms and performed
CTD and traps sampling, M.R. analyzed CTD data, T.M was responsible for the nutrient
analyses. S. Bonnet prepared the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors.

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1	Figure legends.
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3	Figure 1. Drawing representing the main features of the large-volume mesocosm device.
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5	Figure 2. View of the experiment from the side and the seafloor during (a-c) and after the
6	deployment (d). e-f collect of sediment traps by the SCUBA divers (Photos: J.M. Boré and E.
7	Folcher, IRD).
8	
9	Figure 3. Location of the study site of the VAHINE experiment. Map showing surface
10	chlorophyll a concentrations (MODIS) in the Southwestern Pacific during the study period
11	(January-February 2013), b) Map of the Noumea lagoon, c) a view taken from the Amédée
12	Island showing the location of mesocosms and R/V Alis.
13	
14	Figure 4. Horizontal and vertical distributions of seawater temperature (°C), salinity and
15	fluorescence (μ g L ⁻¹) in M1 (a,e,i), M2 (b,f,j), M3 (c,g,k), and lagoon waters (d,h,l). The grey
16	bars indicate the timing of the DIP spike on day 4.
17	
18	Figure 5. Horizontal and vertical distributions of NO_{3x}^{-1} and DIP (µmol L ⁻¹) in M1 (a,e), M2
19	(b,f), M3 (c,g), and lagoon waters (d,h). The grey bars indicate the timing of the DIP spike on
20	day 4.
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- **Table 1.** Mean variation coefficients (CV = standard deviation x 100 / mean, %) calculated
 for samples collected at the same time and the same depth in the three mesocosms. The CV
 derived from these calculations was averaged over the 23-days experiment.

	Parameter measured	CV (%) between the three mesocosms		
	NO ₃ ⁻ concentrations	42		
	DON concentrations	9		
	DOP concentrations	21		
Standing stocks	PON concentrations	21		
	POPconcentrations	26		
	Chl a concentrations	26		
	TOC concentrations	4		
	TEP concentrations	24		
	Primary production	29		
Fluxes	Bacterial production	26		
	N ₂ fixation	34		
	Prochlorococcus abundances	30		
	Synechococcus abundances	30		
Plankton abundances	Pico-eukaryote abundances	31		
	HNA abundances	22		
	LNA abundances	11		
	Average	24		



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Table 2. Initial conditions (hydrological and biogeochemical parameters) recorded at 6 m depth just before the mesocosm deployment (January 13th).

	Temperature (°C)	Salinity	[NO ₃ ⁻] (µmol L ⁻¹)	[DIP] (µmol L ⁻¹)	[Chl <i>a</i> fluo] (µg L ⁻¹)	[DON] (µmol L ⁻¹)	[DOP] (µmol L ⁻¹)	N_2 fixation (nmol N L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)
	25.30	35.15	0.04±0.01	0.04±0.01	0.11	4.65±0.46	0.10±0.02	8.70±1.70
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