

1 **Effect of the silica content of diatom prey on the production, decomposition and**
2 **sinking of fecal pellets of the copepod *Calanus sinicus***

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11

12 **Abstract**

13 The effects of changing the amount of silica in the cell wall of diatom prey, on
14 the production, decomposition rate and sinking velocity of fecal pellets of the
15 calanoid copepod, *Calanus sinicus*, were examined. Using different light intensities to
16 control the growth of the diatom *Thalassiosira weissflogii* also led to the
17 accumulation of different amounts of biogenic silica. Copepods were then fed with
18 either low (~1600 cells L⁻¹) or high (~8000 cells L⁻¹) concentrations of this diatom.
19 Copepods fed on a high concentration of diatoms with high-silica content, exhibited a
20 lower grazing rate and lower fecal pellet production rate than those fed on a high
21 concentration of diatoms with low-silica content. However, there was no difference in
22 either the grazing or fecal pellet production rates at low prey concentrations with
23 high- or low-silica content. The size of the fecal pellets produced was only affected by
24 the prey concentration, and not by the silica content of prey. In addition, the
25 degradation rate of the fecal pellets was much higher for copepods fed a low-silica
26 diet than for those fed on a high-silica diet. Significantly lower densities and sinking
27 rates only occurred in the fecal pellets of copepods fed a low-silica diet and a low
28 prey concentration. Calculating the L-ratio (the ratio of degradation rate:sinking rate)
29 for each group indicated that the fecal pellets produced by copepods fed on highly
30 silicified diatoms are likely to transport both biogenic silica and organic carbon to the
31 deep layer; whereas those produced following the consumption of low-silica diatoms
32 are likely to decompose in the mixing layer.

33

34

35 **Introduction**

36 In the marine environment, zooplankton fecal pellets constitute a main vehicle
37 for transporting biogenic elements to the sediments, although a substantial proportion
38 of this flux is recycled or repackaged in the water column by microbial decomposition
39 and zooplankton coprophagy (Turner, 2002; 2015). Diatoms are among the most
40 abundant phytoplankton, and they represent a main component in the diet of
41 zooplankton in marine environments. Studies show that zooplankton with a diatom
42 diet usually produce fecal pellets that sink faster than those on other diets (Feinberg
43 and Dam, 1998). Dagg et al. (2003) reported that the contribution of fecal pellets to
44 the flux of particulate organic carbon (POC) and biogenic silica (bSi) is higher during
45 the spring diatom bloom than during the summer within the Antarctic Polar Front
46 region. Similarly, Goldthwait and Steinberg (2008) reported an increase in
47 mesozooplankton biomass and fecal production and flux inside cyclonic and
48 mode-water eddies. However, González et al. (2007) reported a negative correlation
49 between the vertical carbon flux of diatoms and the production of fecal material in a
50 time-series study in the upwelling waters off Chile.

51 The quantity and characteristics of the fecal pellets produced by zooplankton
52 depend on several factors. The pellet production rate is reported to be affected by the
53 rate of ingestion and assimilation efficiency (Butler and Dam, 1994; Besiktepe and
54 Dam, 2002). It has also been demonstrated that the type of diet can affect the
55 characteristics of the fecal pellets produced; including size, density and sinking rates
56 (e.g., Feinberg and Dam, 1998 and ref. therein). In addition, the decomposition rate of
57 pellets varies with water temperature, as well as with both microbial and metazoan
58 activity (Poulsen and Iversen, 2008; Svensen et al., 2012). Factors that contribute to
59 the sinking velocity of the pellets include size, density and shape, all of which can
60 vary dramatically both among different zooplankton species and within the same

61 zooplankton species feeding on different types of prey (Fowler and Small, 1972;
62 Turner, 1977; Feinberg and Dam, 1998). Turbulence in the water column, the
63 presence or absence of a peritrophic membrane, and the production of microbial gas
64 within a peritrophic membrane might also affect the sinking rate of pellets (Honjo and
65 Roman, 1978; Bathmann et al., 1987). Indeed, the sinking rate and decomposition rate
66 are the two most important parameters used, to determine whether a pellet will or will
67 not be successfully transported into deeper water before its contents are degraded. For
68 example, a slowly-sinking pellet is more likely to decompose and become part of the
69 recycled materials before it exits the euphotic zone (Dagg and Walser, 1986).

70 The cell wall (frustrule) of diatoms is composed of two silicate shells, which are
71 believed to act as a defense mechanism to prevent ingestion by grazers (Pondaven et
72 al., 2007); thus different levels of silicification of the frustrule might affect the grazing
73 rate of copepods (Friedrichs et al., 2013, Liu et al., in revision). The silica content of
74 the cell wall of diatoms is not only species-specific, but it is also affected by
75 environmental parameters such as light, temperature, salinity, pH, nutrients and trace
76 metals (Martin-Jézéquel et al., 2000 and ref. therein; Claquin et al., 2002; Vrieling et
77 al., 2007; Herve et al., 2012; Liu et al., in revision). Although the frustule has no
78 nutritional value for zooplankton, it is thought to provide ballast, which is especially
79 advantageous when the fecal pellets are sinking. Hence, pellets with a high diatom
80 biomass generally exhibit higher levels of export of POC (Armstrong et al., 2002;
81 François et al., 2002; Klaas and Archer, 2002). Thus, the content of the zooplankton
82 diet (and therefore the type and concentration of ballast minerals ingested) might
83 strongly affect the sinking velocity of the fecal pellets produced, and hence the
84 vertical flux of biogenic silica and carbon.

85 Most of the studies describing the production rates and characteristics of
86 copepod fecal pellets have focused on aspects such as food types (Feinberg and Dam,

87 1998), or the different periods of phytoplankton blooms (Butler and Dam, 1994).
88 There are currently no reports that describe the effect of the silica content of diatoms
89 on the production, degradation and sinking of fecal pellets. Liu et al. (2016) recently
90 demonstrated that the diatom *Thalassiosira weissflogii*, when grown at different light
91 levels, contain varying amounts of silica, and that the small calanoid copepod
92 *Parvocalanus crassirostris*, when fed on diatoms containing high levels of silica
93 exhibited a reduced feeding rate, and stagnant growth as well as low egg production
94 and hatching success. In this study we used the same diatom species with different
95 silica content as prey to study the characteristics of the fecal pellets produced by the
96 herbivorous copepod, *Calanus sinicus*.

97

98 **Materials and Methods**

99 **Copepod and prey culture conditions.** The herbivorous copepod *Calanus*
100 *sinicus* was collected from the coastal waters around Hong Kong in February 2013.
101 Copepods were maintained on a 14 h light:10 h dark cycle at 23.5°C in 2 L glass
102 containers with 0.2 µm-filtered seawater. The copepods were fed a mixed algal diet
103 consisting of *Rhodomonas* sp. and *Thalassiosira weissflogii* at a concentration of
104 ~5000 cells L⁻¹; this food suspension was supplied to the cultures twice a week and
105 the whole culture seawater was replaced every week. The copepods were maintained
106 for more than one month prior to the start of the experiment to ensure that all the
107 adults were grown in approximately the same conditions and were of approximately
108 the same age.

109 The diatom, *T. weissflogii*, was maintained in exponential growth in f/2 medium
110 (Guillard, 1975), under light intensities of either 15 µmol photons s⁻¹ m⁻² or 200 µmol
111 photons s⁻¹ m⁻² to generate cells with different cellular silica contents (Liu et al., 2016).
112 The diatom cultures were transferred every 4 or 8 days for the high- and low-light

113 batches, respectively. After two transfers the amount of biogenic silica in the diatom
114 cells was measured using a modified version of the method described by Paasche
115 (1980), following the procedures described more recently by Grasshoff et al. (1999).
116 Cells were collected on a 1 μm polycarbonate filter (47mm diameter) and washed
117 with 10 ml autoclaved seawater and 0.01M HCl during filtration to remove the
118 intercellular silicate pools. The folded filter was immediately placed into a 15 ml
119 polypropylene tube and stored at -80°C . Hydrolysis was carried out using 4ml of 5%
120 NaOH, digested at 85°C for 2 hours. After cooling, 0.72 ml of 1.0 M HCl was added
121 to each tube, lowering the pH to 3-4. Silicic acid concentration of samples was
122 determined colourmetrically, through the formation of blue coloured silicocomplexes.

123

124 **Experimental design.** Active adult female *Calanus sinicus* with intact
125 appendages were selected and starved for 24 hours before an experiment. A total of
126 seven experiments was conducted to determine fecal pellet production, degradation
127 and sinking, and in each experiment these parameters were measured both at low and
128 high food concentrations, and at high and low levels of silica contained in the diatom
129 prey (Table 1). In each experiment, the copepods were fed with the same species of
130 diatom (i.e., *T. weissflogii*), at either ca. 1600 cells L^{-1} (low concentration), or ca.
131 8000 cell L^{-1} (high concentration), the latter being above the food saturation level
132 according to Frost (1972). The abundance and volume of diatoms were measured
133 (triplicate subsamples) using a Beckman Coulter Z2 Particle Counter and Size
134 Analyzer.

135 In the fecal pellet production experiments, five replicate bottles containing one
136 copepod per bottle, and two control bottles without a grazer, were used. All the bottles
137 were filled with 100 ml freshly-prepared media consisting of 0.2 μm prefiltered
138 seawater and suspensions of the respective prey for each treatment. All incubations

139 were conducted at 23.5°C and in the dark for 24 hours. At the end of the incubation
140 period, a 2 ml sample was collected from each bottle and fixed with acid Lugol's at a
141 final concentration of 2%, for subsequent diatom quantification. The remaining water
142 was collected in a 50 ml polypropylene tube and fixed with glutaraldehyde at a final
143 concentration of 1%, for further quantification of the fecal pellets.

144 In order to obtain fresh pellets for the degradation experiments, two plastic
145 beakers were prepared for the high- and low-silica content prey. Each beaker
146 contained 7-8 copepods and 700 ml culture medium, prepared as described for the
147 production experiments. After 12 hours of incubation (except for experiment # 3,
148 which was incubated for 18 hours), the medium was sieved through a 40 µm mesh to
149 collect the fecal pellets and then rinsed with autoclaved 0.22 µm filtered seawater. At
150 least 20 intact fecal pellets were selected using a glass Pasteur pipette under a
151 stereomicroscope and poured into a 250 ml polycarbonate bottle containing 200 ml of
152 2 µm pre-filtered sea water taken from the field. The number of replicate bottles and
153 the incubation period of each experiment are show in Table 2. All the bottles were put
154 on a roller at 0.4 rpm in the dark at 23.5°C and then at the end of the respective
155 incubation times, the whole water of each bottle was collected in a plastic bottle and
156 fixed with glutaraldehyde at a final concentration of 1% for further fecal pellet
157 analysis.

158 Experiments to estimate the fecal pellet sinking rate were conducted by obtaining
159 fecal pellets using the degradation experiment procedure (described above) but with
160 an incubation time of 24 hours. After collecting all the fecal pellets from the beakers,
161 50 intact pellets were selected and suspended in 260 ml 0.2 µm prefiltered autoclaved
162 seawater. The fecal pellet sinking rate was measured using a SETCOL chamber (49
163 cm height, 2.6 cm inner diameter) made by 4 mm Plexiglas (Bienfang, 1981), filled
164 with well-mixed pellet-containing seawater. The chamber was allowed to settle for 6

165 min, and then the whole column of water was collected from outflow tubes in a
166 top-to-bottom order. The water was collected in a plastic bottle and fixed with
167 glutaraldehyde as described above, for subsequent fecal pellet analysis.

168

169 **Determining the number and size of fecal pellets.** The water samples
170 containing the fecal pellets in the 50-ml polypropylene tubes were allowed to settle
171 for 24 hours. The upper water was then removed smoothly and the remainder was
172 poured into the well of a 6-well plate and the number of pellets was counted using an
173 inverted microscope (Olympus IX51) at 100× magnification. Only intact fecal pellets
174 and fragments with end points were counted. The total number of fecal pellets was
175 then calculated to include all of the intact fecal pellets plus half of the pellet fragments.
176 Images of at least 30 intact fecal pellets were acquired with a CCD camera (Model 4.2,
177 Diagnostic Instrument Inc., USA), after which the length and width of each fecal
178 pellet was measured and the volume was calculated making the assumption that they
179 are cylindrical in shape.

180

181 **Calculating the fecal pellet degradation rate.** The rate of degradation of the
182 fecal pellets was calculated from the loss of fecal pellet equation, described by:

183
$$N_t = N_0 e^{-rt}$$

184 where N is the total number of fecal pellets in the incubation bottle at the
185 beginning (N_0) and end of the experiment (N_t); t is the incubation time (in days); and r
186 is the degradation rate (d^{-1}). The degradation rate estimated in this study only
187 considered the effect of microbial organisms and assumed that the loss rate was
188 exponential.

189

190 **Calculating the fecal pellet sinking velocity.** The rate that fecal pellets sank
191 was calculated from the formula reported by Bienfang et al. (1982), which was
192 originally used to measure the average sinking rate of phytoplankton. Thus:

$$193 \quad S = \frac{N_S}{N_T} \times \frac{L}{t}$$

194 where S is the average sinking velocity; L is the height of the sinking column; t is the
195 duration of the trial; N_T is the total number of fecal pellets within the settling water
196 volume; and N_S is the total number of fecal pellets that settled during the trial time.

197 In addition, the density of the fecal pellets was calculated using the
198 semi-empirical equation deduced by Komar (1980), as follows:

$$199 \quad w_s = 0.079 \frac{1}{\mu} (\rho_s - \rho) g L^2 \left(\frac{L}{D} \right)^{-1.664}$$

200 where w_s is the sinking velocity of the fecal pellets; μ and ρ are the fluid viscosity and
201 density, respectively; L and D are the length and diameter of the fecal pellets,
202 respectively, assuming they are in the cylindrical shape; g is the acceleration of
203 gravity; and ρ_s is the density of fecal pellet.

204

205 **Results**

206 **Grazing response**

207 The cellular silica content of first and second generation *T. weissflogii* when
208 cultured at high and low light intensities is shown in Fig. 1. After two transfers the
209 cellular biogenic silica content was significantly different (t-test, $p < 0.05$; Fig. 1) when
210 comparing the high-light and low-light culture conditions. The silica content of high-
211 and low-silica diatoms used in all the experiments was consistent and the differences
212 between the two treatments were all statistically significant (Table 1). Other cellular
213 parameters, such as cell size and carbon and nitrogen contents, were also measured
214 for selected samples (data not shown), and the results were consistent with those
215 reported in a previous study (Liu et al., 2016), which showed no significant difference
216 between the two types of prey.

217 The grazing response of *C. sinicus* to diatoms with different silica contents
218 showed similar patterns between high (ca. 8000 cells ml^{-1}) and low (ca. 1600 cells
219 ml^{-1}) prey concentration (Fig. 2). At high concentrations of prey, *C. sinicus* grazed the
220 diatoms with low cellular silica content two times faster than when they had a high
221 silica content (t-test, $p < 0.05$). The same trend was also observed at low concentrations
222 of the prey, although in this case the difference was not statistically significant. In
223 addition, the rate of clearance was significantly higher for the low-silica prey than for
224 the high-silica prey at both low and high prey concentrations (t-test, $p < 0.05$). These
225 results indicate that the silica content of diatoms can affect the grazing activity of
226 copepods.

227

228 **Fecal pellet production**

229 The rate of fecal pellet production varied both with the silica content and the
230 concentration of the prey (Fig. 3A). At a high prey concentration, *C. sinicus* that were

231 fed on low-silica prey produced significantly higher amounts of fecal pellets (192 ± 32
232 FP ind⁻¹ d⁻¹) than those fed on high-silica prey (113 ± 47 FP ind⁻¹ d⁻¹, $p < 0.05$); which
233 corresponds well with the rate of ingestion (Fig. 2A and 3A). At a low prey
234 concentration, however, the production of fecal pellets by *C. sinicus* fed with the low
235 and high-silica prey was not significantly different (Fig. 3A). In addition, the size of
236 the fecal pellets was only affected by the concentration of the prey, and not by the
237 silica content of the prey (Fig. 3B). Thus, the fecal pellets produced in the high
238 concentration of prey groups had a mean length and width of 582.4 ± 98.7 μm and
239 72.5 ± 4.5 μm , respectively, which are significantly larger than the size of those
240 produced in the low concentration of prey groups, which had an average length and
241 width of 352.4 ± 54.7 μm and 59.6 ± 6.8 μm , respectively (ANOVA, $p < 0.05$).

242

243 **Fecal pellet degradation rate and sinking rate**

244 The degradation rate of fecal pellets was significantly different when the
245 copepods fed on diatoms with different silica content (Table 2). The degradation rate
246 of the fecal pellets produced from the low-silica prey was approximately 4-5-fold
247 higher than that of the pellets generated from the high-silica prey, irrespective of the
248 prey concentration or the period of degradation incubation. In addition, the
249 degradation rate of the fecal pellets from low prey concentration was significantly
250 higher than ones from high prey concentration after an incubation period of 24 hr (p
251 < 0.05 , ANOVA). Furthermore, the degradation rate obtained following 48 h
252 incubation was significantly higher than that following just 24 h incubation (only high
253 prey concentration experiments) for both the high ($p < 0.05$, t-test) and low ($p < 0.01$,
254 t-test) silica prey (Table 2), indicating an acceleration of degradation in the second
255 day of incubation.

256 The sinking rate of fecal pellets was also different for the high and low prey

257 concentrations (Fig. 4). At a high concentration of prey, the sinking rates of the pellets
258 produced by the high- and low-silica prey (i.e., 3.05 and 3.13 cm min⁻¹, respectively),
259 were not significantly different. However, at a low prey concentration, the sinking
260 rate of pellets from the high-silica-content prey (i.e., 2.59 cm min⁻¹) was significantly
261 greater (t-test, p<0.01) than that of pellets from the low-silica-content prey (i.e., 0.53
262 cm min⁻¹). The average density of the fecal pellets was calculated as being
263 1.093-1.095 g cm⁻³ at the high prey concentration, and 1.035-1.097 g cm⁻³ at the low
264 prey concentration. The variation in the calculated density of fecal pellets is consistent
265 with the pattern of sinking rate, with the lowest density occurred in fecal pellets from
266 low-silica prey at the low prey concentration (Fig. 4).

267

268 **Discussion**

269 The grazing activity of copepods varies not only with the concentration of the
270 prey but also with the nutritional quality of the prey. In our study, the grazing and
271 clearance rates determined with varying food concentrations followed a similar trend
272 to that described in the literature (e.g., Frost, 1972). In addition, the grazing activity
273 was affected by the cellular silica content of the prey, as has been observed with other
274 copepod species (Liu et al., 2016). Silicification has been suggested to be one of the
275 strategies that is used by diatoms to protect them from ingestion by grazers (Pondaven
276 et al., 2007). Friedrichs et al. (2013) examined the mechanical strength of the frustules
277 of three diatom species and measured the feeding efficiency of copepods on these
278 diatoms. Their results showed that the diatom species with the more weakly-silicified
279 frustules and the highest growth rate was the least stable and was fed upon the most,
280 whereas the species with the most complex frustule exhibited the greatest stability and
281 was fed upon the least. Within the same species of diatom, different growth rates have
282 resulted in different amounts of silica in the frustule (Claquin et al., 2002). This

283 results in higher copepod ingestion and clearance rates for diatoms with a low silica
284 content when compared with those for diatoms with a higher silica content (Liu et al.,
285 2016). The results obtained in the current study are consistent with those reported by
286 Friedrichs et al. (2013) and Liu et al. (2016).

287 Previous studies indicate that while there is a linear relationship between the
288 ingestion rate and the total number of fecal pellets produced per unit time (Ayukai and
289 Nishizawa, 1986; Ayukai, 1990), there is a high level of variation among different
290 diets (Båamstedt et al., 1999 and references therein; Besiktepe and Dam, 2002). In
291 addition, the size of fecal pellets increases as the concentration of the food increases,
292 such that they reach a maximum size when the concentration of food is above the
293 saturation level (Dagg and Walser, 1986; Butler and Dam, 1994). Our results
294 confirmed these previous findings and demonstrated that the size of fecal pellets
295 produced was only affected by the concentration of prey, and fecal pellets did not
296 show any significant size differences when comparing prey of high and low cellular
297 silica content. Butler and Dam (1994) reported that when sufficient food was
298 available, the size of the fecal pellets varied with the nutritional quality (e.g., the C:N
299 ratio) of the prey. Since diatoms with different silica content (generated by varying the
300 light intensity) do not differ in their cellular C:N ratio (Claquin et al., 2002; Liu et al.,
301 2016), these ratios did not affect the size of the pellets produced.

302 The degradation rate and sinking velocity of the fecal pellets are highly
303 dependent on the characteristics of the pellets, which are in turn affected by the
304 quality and quantity of the food ingested (Feinberg and Dam, 1998; Turner, 2002;
305 2015 and references therein). For example, it is known that the decomposition rate of
306 the fecal pellets is affected by diet, pellet size and the producer of the pellets (e.g.,
307 Shek and Liu, 2010), but no research have addressed the degradation rates of fecal
308 pellets produced by prey under different stoichiometric conditions. Hansen et al.

309 (1996) estimated the degradation rate of fecal pellets produced from diets of
310 *Thalassiosira weissflogii*, a diatom; *Rhodomonas baltica*, a nanoflagellate; or
311 *Heterocapsa triquetra*, a dinoflagellate. Fecal pellets produced from a diet of the
312 diatom species presented the slowest rate of degradation when compared with those
313 produced from diets of the nanoflagellate or dinoflagellate species. Similarly, Olesen
314 et al. (2005) compared the degradation rate of fecal pellets produced on a diet of the
315 diatom, *Skeletonema costatum*, or the nanoflagellate, *Rhodomonas salina*, and
316 reported a similar trend but higher degradation rates than Hansen et al. (1996). The
317 relationship between the surface:volume ratio and the degradation rate of fecal pellets
318 was used to explain the variation in the degradation rate of pellets produced with
319 different diets. Our results (Table 2) were higher than those reported by Hansen et al.
320 (1996), which were 0.024 d^{-1} for *T. weissflogii*, but our results showed a similar trend
321 to those summarized by Olesen et al. (2005) (dashed line in Fig. 5), in that there was
322 an increase in the degradation rate with the increase in fecal pellet surface:volume
323 ratio, although the degradation rates that we measured, exceeded the predicted rates in
324 most cases, particularly for fecal pellets produced with low-Si diatom prey (Fig. 5).
325 The generally higher rates in our study might be caused by the higher temperature that
326 we used when compared with the previous studies (i.e., 23.5°C in our study *versus* 17°C
327 and 18°C in Olesen et al., 2005 and Hansen et al., 1996, respectively), but the
328 differences in predator and prey quality, particular the cellular Si content in this study,
329 cannot be ignored.

330 The sinking rate of fecal pellets is usually considered to be related to their size
331 and density, which is in turn dependent on the concentration and composition of the
332 prey (Bienfang, 1980; Urban et al., 1993; Feinberg and Dam, 1998). We also
333 demonstrated that fecal pellet size, sinking rate and density were correlated with the
334 concentration of prey (Fig. 3B, 4), especially in the low-silica diatom prey treatment.

335 Using the ratio of ingestion rate : fecal pellet production rate ratio as an index to
336 compare the diatom content per fecal pellet, no differences were found in pellets
337 produced from diets of the same silica content (Fig. 6), indicating that prey
338 concentration does not affect the package content of the fecal pellets. On the other
339 hand, copepods were shown to pack fewer hard-shelled (i.e., high-Si) diatoms into
340 each fecal pellet in comparison to the soft-shelled (i.e., low-Si) diatoms, although
341 these data were not significantly different statistically (Fig. 6).

342 The fecal pellets of copepods are formed in the midgut surrounded by a
343 peritrophic membrane, which is believed to protect the gut wall from the sharp edges
344 of the prey's cell wall. Moreover, the different sizes of fecal pellets with similar prey
345 content per fecal pellet are thought to result from the decreasing gut passage time with
346 the increasing of food concentration. A high prey concentration results in the food
347 passing through the gut more quickly and results in incomplete digestion, whereas a
348 low prey concentration allows the food to be kept in the intestinal tract for a longer
349 time and therefore digestion is relatively more complete. We showed that the silica
350 content of the diatom cell wall determines the density and sinking rate of the fecal
351 pellets when the prey concentration was low due to complete digestion. In addition,
352 we showed that only the low concentration of low-Si prey group, resulted in a
353 significantly lower fecal pellet density and sinking rate. In previous studies, the
354 sinking rate and density of the fecal pellets of *Calanus* were shown to be 70-171 m
355 day⁻¹ and 1.07-1.17 g cm⁻³, respectively (Bienfang, 1980; Urban et al., 1993), which
356 are considerably higher than our results (Fig. 4). We suggest that these differences
357 might be caused by the differences in methodology used (Griffin, 2000).

358 To compare the combined effects of sinking and degradation rates for each
359 treatment, the reciprocal length scale, or L-ratio, which is the fraction of pellet
360 degradation per unit length traveled, was calculated (Feinberg and Dam, 1998). The

361 product of the L-ratio multiplied by the depth of the mixed layer can then be used to
362 provide the degree of degradation of a pellet within this layer. The results from such
363 calculations suggest that some diets might result in pellets that are substantially
364 recycled within the epipelagic layer whereas others result in pellets that are exported
365 out of the mixed layer in a relatively non-degraded manner. It should be pointed out,
366 however, that the degradation rates we calculated are likely to be highly
367 underestimated due to the absence of zooplankton activities. For example, it has been
368 reported that copepod ingestion of entire fecal pellets (i.e., coprophagy) or only partial
369 break down of fecal pellets might dramatically reduce the overall downward transport
370 of fecal material and thus increase its retention in the epipelagic layer (Lampitt et al.,
371 1990; Gonzalez and Smetacek, 1994; Svensen et al., 2012). For the same reason, plus
372 the absence of turbulence in our experimental set-up, our sinking rate measurements
373 are likely to be overestimated. Nevertheless, the L-ratio provides a relative indicator
374 of the export efficiency of the fecal pellets produced on diatom diets of different silica
375 content and can be used for a comparison with copepod fecal pellets produced with
376 other diets. Our results also show that pellets produced from high silica content
377 diatoms are more likely to sink out of the mixed layer before being degraded, when
378 compared with pellets from low silica content diatoms. On the other hand, fecal
379 pellets produced from a low concentration of prey with low-Si content are the most
380 likely to be degraded in the mixed layer (Table 3). Our results suggest that the grazing
381 activity of copepods might result in organic matter being mostly recycled in the mixed
382 layer during the fast-growth period of diatoms (e.g., at the beginning of the bloom),
383 whereas it could accelerate the export of POC to the deep ocean by producing
384 fast-sinking fecal pellets during the slow-growth period of diatoms (e.g., during the
385 senescent stage of the diatom bloom).

386 In conclusion, the silica content of the cell wall of diatoms can affect the grazing

387 activity of copepods and influence the rates of production, decomposition and sinking
388 of their fecal pellets. Our findings suggest that it is not only the nutritional quality, but
389 also the digestion process of copepods that can result in the different characteristics of
390 the pellets produced. In addition, it is a combination of both degradation and sinking
391 rates, (which are affected by the abundance and cellular silica content of the diatom
392 prey among other physicochemical factors), that determines the efficiency of the
393 downward export of biogenic silica and organic carbon by fecal pellets.

394

395

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533 Table 1. Summary of the concentration and cellular silica content of the diatom prey
 534 in each experiment.

535

Expt.	Measurements	[Prey]	Silica level	Initial prey density (cells mL ⁻¹)	Cellular silica (pg SiO ₂ cell ⁻¹)
1	Fecal pellet production	High	High	8194 ± 166.9	55.7 ± 1.7
		High	Low	7976 ± 8.5	38.2 ± 1.4
2		Low	High	1640 ± 28.3	51.7 ± 1.9
		Low	Low	1490 ± 84.9	31.4 ± 6.6
3		High	High	8194 ± 166.9	55.7 ± 1.7
		High	Low	7976 ± 8.5	38.2 ± 1.4
4	Fecal pellet degradation*	High	High	7499 ± 63.6	58.9 ± 2.4
		High	Low	7344 ± 169.7	33.4 ± 4.3
5		Low	High	1640 ± 28.3	51.7 ± 1.9
		Low	Low	1490 ± 84.9	31.4 ± 6.6
6	Fecal pellet	High	High	8114 ± 138.0	56.5 ± 5.9
		High	Low	7904 ± 124.7	27.0 ± 0.6
7	sinking	Low	High	1790 ± 48.1	52.1 ± 1.3
		Low	Low	1545 ± 75.0	30.3 ± 3.1

536 The incubation time of the 3 fecal pellet degradation experiments can be found in
 537 Table 3.

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540 Table 2. Degradation rate of the fecal pellets produced by *C. sinicus* after they were
 541 fed on diatoms with different silica content.

542

Prey concentration	Incubation period	Silicon status of prey	n	Degradation rate (day ⁻¹)
High	48 hr	HSi	3	0.21±0.15
		LSi	3	0.91±0.17
High	24 hr	HSi	4	0.03±0.04
		LSi	4	0.15±0.02
Low	24 hr	HSi	3	0.08±0.04
		LSi	2	0.38±0.03

543 HSi: high silica content, LSi: low silica content.

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548 Table 3. The L-ratio (m⁻¹), determined as the mean degradation rate constant (t⁻¹),
 549 divided by the mean sinking rate (m d⁻¹), for each treatment.

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Prey silica content	High food concentration	Low food concentration
High Si	3.91×10 ⁻⁴	7.56×10 ⁻⁴
Low Si	1.09×10 ⁻³	1.65×10 ⁻²

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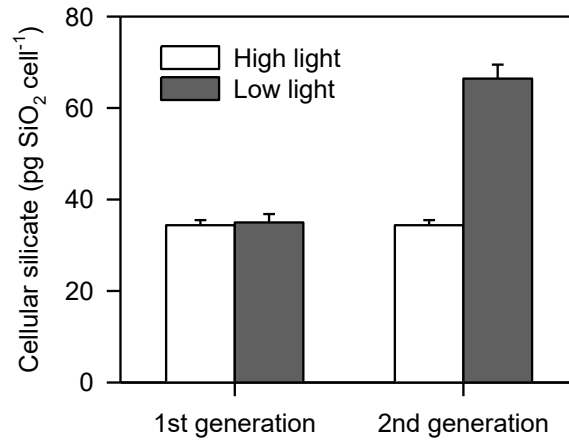
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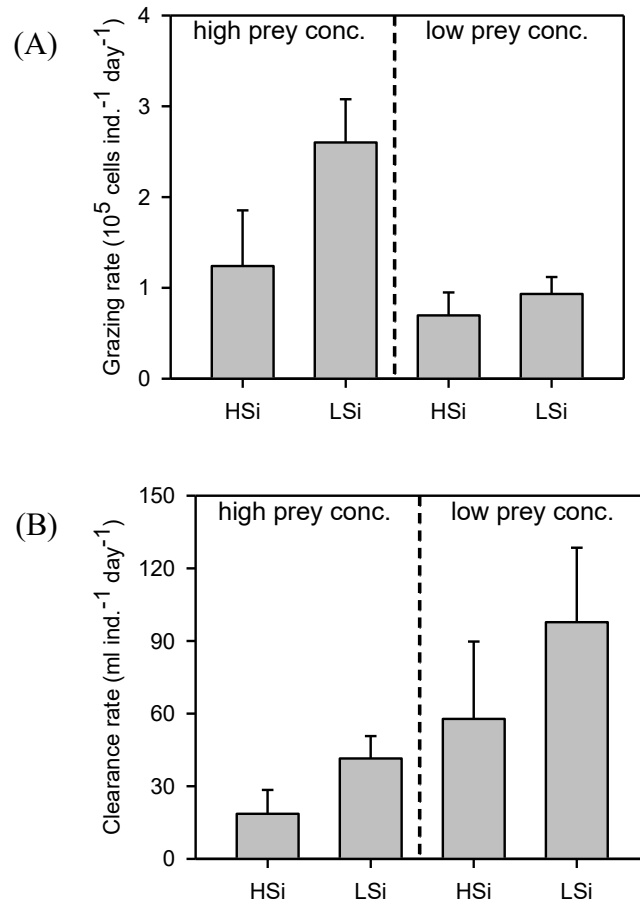
558 Fig. 1. The cellular silica content of *T. weissflogii* grown under different light
559 intensities. The error bars show one standard deviation (n=3).



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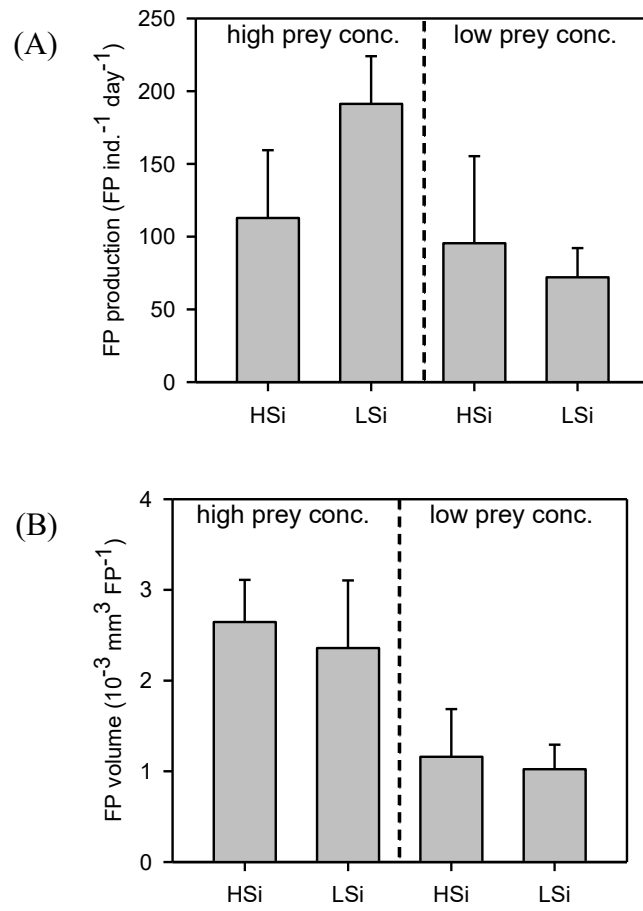
562 Fig. 2. Grazing rate (A) and clearance rate (B) of *C. sinicus* fed on diatoms with
563 different silica content. HSi and LSi are high and low silica diatom prey, respectively.
564 The error bars show one standard deviation (n=5).



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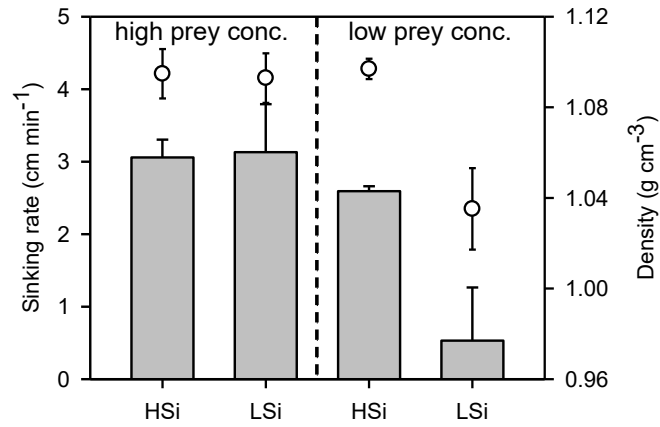
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567 Fig. 3. The rate of fecal pellet production (A), and the average volume of each fecal
568 pellet (B), produced by *C. sinicus*. HSi and LSi indicate high and low silica diatom
569 prey, respectively. The error bars show one standard deviation (n = 5).



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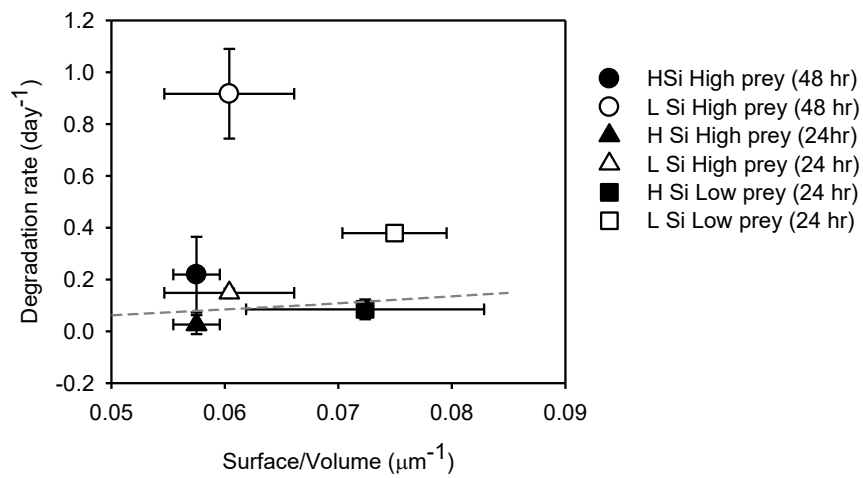
573 Fig. 4. The sinking rate (bars) and calculated density (open dots) of the fecal pellets
574 generated by *C. sinicus* produced following each treatment. HSi and LSi are high and
575 silica diatom prey, respectively. The errors bar show one standard deviation (n=3).



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582 Fig. 5. The relationship between degradation rates and surface:volume ratio of fecal
583 pellets from different experimental treatments. HSi and LSi are high and low silica
584 content diatoms, respectively; high and low prey are high and low prey concentrations,
585 respectively; 48 hr and 24 hr are the incubation periods used for the degradation
586 experiments. The error bars show ± 1 standard deviation and the dashed line shows the
587 relationship curve generalized by Olesen et al. (2005).

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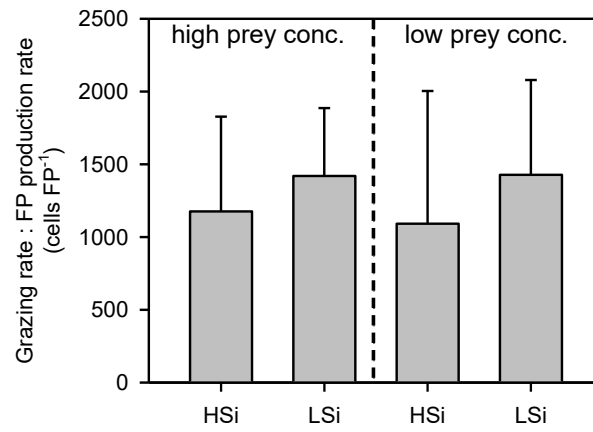


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592 Fig. 6. The grazing rate: fecal pellet production rate ratio of each treatment. HSi and
593 LSi are the high and low silica diatom prey, respectively. The error bars show one
594 standard deviation.



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