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## Re: BG – 2016-520 Belcher et al.

Dear Dr Gerhard Herndl,

Thank you for taking the time to review our revisions to the manuscript and for approving our changes. We have uploaded the manuscript as requested with no further changes.

Yours Sincerely,

Anna Belcher

# <u>Copepod</u> faecal pellet transfer through the meso- and bathypelagic layers in the Southern Ocean in spring

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9 Abstract. The faecal pellets (FP) of zooplankton can be important vehicles for the transfer of particulate organic carbon 10 (POC) to the deep ocean, often making large contributions to carbon sequestration. However, the routes by which these FP 11 reach the deep ocean have vet to be fully resolved. We address this by comparing estimates of copepod FP production to 12 measurements of copepod FP size, shape and number in the upper mesopelagic (175-205 m) using Marine Snow Catchers, and in the bathypelagic using sediment traps (1,500-2,000 m). The study is focussed on the Scotia Sea, which contains some 13 14 of the most productive regions in the Southern Ocean, where epipelagic FP production is likely to be high. We found that, although the size distribution of the zooplankton copepod community suggests that high numbers of small FP are produced 15 16 in the epipelagic, small FP are rare in the deeper layers, implying that they are not transferred efficiently to depth. 17 Consequently, small FP make only a minor contribution to FP fluxes in the meso- and bathypelagic, particularly in terms of 18 carbon. The dominant FP in the upper mesopelagic were cylindrical and elliptical, while ovoid FP were dominant in the 19 bathypelagic. The change in FP morphology, as well as size distribution, points to the repacking of surface FP in the 20 mesopelagic and in situ production in the lower meso- and bathypelagic, which may be augmented by inputs of FP via 21 zooplankton vertical migrations. The flux of carbon to the deeper layers within the Southern Ocean is therefore strongly 22 modulated by meso- and bathypelagic zooplankton, meaning that the community structure in these zones has a major impact 23 on the efficiency of FP transfer to depth.

24

### 25 1 Introduction

The biological carbon pump (BCP) from the atmosphere to the deep ocean is an important process by which carbon can be sequestered for millennia or longer (Volk and Hoffert, 1985). About 10% of surface ocean primary production sinks out (is exported) of the surface ocean, with the remainder being remineralised in situ. However, only a small fraction of this material (<10%) reaches the deep ocean (Sarmiento and Gruber, 2006), with most of it being respired by grazers or bacteria (Azam et al., 1983) in the upper mesopelagic (Martin et al., 1987). Thus close to 10% of surface primary production is stored in the interior, a process which Nevertheless, it is estimated that the BCP keeps atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> around 200 ppm lower than preindustrial levels (Parekh et al., 2006). Small changes in the BCP, such as a change in the depth at which sinking material is remineralised can result in large changes to the climate system; a global increase of 24 m ifin the depth at with 63% of sinking carbon is respired is increased by 24 m globally, this could decrease atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> by 10-27 ppm (Kwon et al., 2009). For this reason, the nature of particles occurring at different depths is important to understand.

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37 The repackaging of slow-sinking individual phytoplankton cells into fast-sinking faecal pellets (FP) can promote efficient export of POC out of the euphotic zone (Hamm et al., 2001). The contribution of FP to bathypelagic particle fluxes can be 38 39 large (>90%) (Carroll et al., 1998; Manno et al., 2015; Wilson et al., 2013), providing direct evidence of the importance of 40 zooplankton FP to the transport of carbon to the deep ocean. However, surface produced FP can also undergo intense 41 reworking and fragmentation in the euphotic and upper mesopelagic zones (González et al., 1994b; Wexels-Riser et al., 42 2001; Wexels Riser et al., 2007), through processes such as coprophagy (ingestion of FP), coprorhexy (fragmentation of FP), 43 microbial remineralisation and physical aggregation and disaggregation (Lampitt et al., 1990; Poulsen and Iversen, 2008; 44 Turner, 2015; Wilson et al., 2008). Thus, FP can also provide a source of nutrition for other zooplankton and bacterial 45 communities en route to the deep ocean (Miguel et al., 2015; Wexels-Riser et al., 2001). The complexity of these interacting 46 factors results in a wide range of estimates (<1->100% (Turner, 2015)) of the contribution FP make to POC flux (%FPC), 47 which is typically measured using sediment traps (Dagg et al., 2003; Fowler et al., 1991; Gleiber et al., 2012; Manno et al., 48 2015; Suzuki et al., 2001; Wassmann et al., 2000; Wilson et al., 2013).

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Differences in FP shape, composition and density, as well as varying depths of production (through zooplankton species residing at different depths and also vertical migration (VM)) will greatly influence the magnitude of FP associated POC that reaches the deep ocean (Atkinson et al., 2012; Steinberg et al., 2000; Wallace et al., 2013; Wilson et al., 2008). Both diel and seasonal migrations of zooplankton can directly transport carbon out of the euphotic zone to the mesopelagic, bypassing the region of rapid remineralisation (Jónasdóttir et al., 2015; Kobari et al., 2008; Steinberg et al., 2000). Different zooplankton feeding strategies will also influence the effect that their vertical migrations have on POC export (Wallace et al., 2013).

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57 The direct sinking of zooplankton FP can provide an efficient vehicle for the sequestration of carbon in the deep ocean. For 58 example, direct sedimentation of FP from large salp blooms in the upper ocean can result in huge depositions on the sea floor 59 at depths of ~4000 m due to their high sinking velocities (Smith, Jr. et al., 2014). Additionally, the swarming behaviour of 60 krill can result in *en masse* sinking of FP, which can overload recycling zooplankton grazers and be efficiently transferred through the upper ocean (Clarke et al., 1988). Alternatively, FP may arrive in the deep ocean via a FP 'cascade' effect 61 62 (Bodungen et al., 1987; Urrere and Knauer, 1981), being constantly reworked and transformed with depth. The fact that FP 63 have been observed in the deep ocean highlights the important role they play in carbon sequestration, however knowledge of 64 the route by which these FP reach the deep ocean is not vet clear. There is a need for comparisons between the composition

and characteristics of sinking FP just below the euphotic zone and in the deep ocean to improve our understanding of both
 the origin of faecal material reaching the deep ocean and how it is potentially modified by meso- and bathypelagic
 zooplankton.

68

69 Zooplankton FP can make a large contribution to fluxes of FP in the meso- and bathypelagic of the Scotia Sea (e.g. Belcher 70 et al., 2016b; Cavan et al., 2015; Manno et al., 2015). In this region, the transfer of FP through the mesopelagic (as well as 71 the mechanisms controlling their transfer) is therefore a key determinant of the efficiency of the BCP. Here we use Marine Snow Catchers and deep ocean sediment traps in the Scotia Sea, within the Southern Ocean, to collect intact sinking FP in 72 73 the upper mesopelagic and bathypelagic respectively, and use these data to compare the characteristics of mesopelagic and 74 bathypelagic FP. We compare <del>zooplankton</del>-copepod abundances in the upper 200 m with FP fluxes in both the upper 75 mesopelagic and bathypelagic in order to understand the processes controlling the fate of FP produced in the epipelagic. We 76 use these data to determine whether FP arriving in sediment traps in the deep ocean are a result of a direct detrital rain from 77 the surface, or are produced in the mesopelagic via the grazing and repackaging of this material by deep zooplankton 78 populations. We focus in particular on copepod FP as copepods are the numerically dominant zooplankton in our study 79 region, typically comprising >90% of total zooplankton (Ward et al., 2012). Zooplankton FP can make a large contribution 80 to fluxes of FP in the meso- and bathypelagie of the Seotia Sea (e.g. Beleher et al., 2016b; Cavan et al., 2015; Manno et al., 81 2015). In this region, the transfer of FP through the mesopelagic (as well as the mechanisms controlling their transfer) is therefore a key determinant of the efficiency of the BCP. 82

#### 83 2 Methods

#### 84 2.1 Study site

85 Sediment traps have been deployed for a number of years at two sites, P2 and P3 (Fig. 1), upstream and downstream of 86 South Georgia (at -55.248 °N, -41.265 °E and -52.812 °N, -39.972 °E respectively) in the Scotia Sea in the Southern Ocean 87 (Manno et al., 2015). The Scotia Sea is mainly located in the eastward flowing Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC), which 88 is split by a number of frontal systems including the Southern Antarctic Circumpolar Front (SACCF, Fig. 1). The complex 89 circulation patterns and variability in frontal systems shapes the Scotia Sea ecosystem (Murphy et al., 2007). P3 and P2 are 90 located downstream and upstream of South Georgia respectively, leading to marked differences in community structure with 91 large rapidly sinking diatoms likely to be more prevalent in the iron fertilised downstream region (Korb et al., 2012; 92 Smetacek et al., 2004). Phytoplankton blooms at P3 can be sustained for 3-4 months (Whitehouse et al., 2008), whereas 93 blooms are typically much shorter in the SACCF region where P2 is located (Park et al., 2010), likely influencing the 94 dynamics of the zooplankton community. Variability in regional dispersal or retention by the current systems of the ACC is 95 important for determining the seasonal dynamics of Scotia Sea ecosystems (Murphy et al., 2007; Thorpe et al., 2007).

- 97 During cruises in austral spring 2013 (JR291) and 2014 (JR304) aboard the RRS James Clark Ross, sSamples of sinking 98 particles in the upper mesopelagic were collected from-using Marine Snow Catchers (MSC) (Table 1) and zooplankton 99 abundance data using Bongo net were collected during cruises in austral spring 2013 (JR291) and 2014 (JR304) aboard the **RRS James Clark Ross** (Table 1).s. -Sediment trap data were obtained from traps deployed in 2012 and 2013 at P2 and P3, at 100 depths of 1,500 m and 2,000 m respectively. The P3 trap (2,000 m depth) was deployed in May 2013 on cruise JR287, and 101 P2 (1.500 m depth) deployed on 8<sup>th</sup> December 2012 on eruise JR280, herein defined as D1. Both traps were recovered in 102 103 December 2013 on cruise JR291 aboard the R.R.S. James Clark Ross. In addition the P2 mooring was redeployed on 7<sup>th</sup> Dec 2013 and recovered on 28<sup>th</sup> November 2014 during cruise JR304, herein defined as D2. Samples from the spring period 104 (October to January) were analysed for comparison with MSC deployments. Mean current velocities at both sites are <10 m 105  $s^+$  (Whitehouse et al., 2012) suggesting effects of lateral advection are minimal and as such they are not considered in this 106 107 study. Mean current velocities in December 2012 and 2013 (measured with a Nortek Aquadopp current meter deployed just below the ST) were 7.2 and 4.5 cm s<sup>-1</sup>, and, 14.2 and 12.5 cm s<sup>-1</sup>at P3 and P2 respectively. These data agree with mean 108 current velocities at the depth of the ST at both sites of  $\leq 10 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$  observed by Whitehouse et al. (2012) in 2008, suggesting 109 that the effects of lateral advection are minimal and as such they are not considered in this study. 110
- 111

#### 112 **2.2 Mesozooplankton collection**

## 113 **2.2.1 Net sampling**

114 Mesozooplankton samples were collected at both P2 and P3 using a motion-compensating Bongo net (61 cm mouth 115 diameter, 2.8 m long, 200 um mesh). The net was equipped with solid cod ends, deployed to 200 m and hauled vertically to the surface at 0.22 m s<sup>-1</sup>. Samples were preserved in 4% formalin (w/v) in seawater before being identified to species/taxa 116 117 using a binocular microscope and staged where appropriate. At least 500 individuals were counted per sample. Counts were converted into ind,  $m^{-2}$  (0-200 m) based on the area of the Bongo net mouth and the depth of deployment. A total of five 118 119 deployments were carried out during JR291 and two during JR304. Average abundances for each species/taxa were 120 calculated by averaging all the deployments (from both cruises) at each site. Antarctic krill (Euphausia superba) and other 121 large euphausiids were occasionally caught in the Bongo nets, but the Bongo net does not accurately quantify their 122 abundance due to their patchy distribution and net avoidance capabilities. Large euphausiid abundances were therefore not 123 considered, so zooplankton abundances in this study reflect mesozooplankton abundances. In particular, copepod species 124 were overwhelmingly dominant in terms of abundance at our study sites, typically >90% of total zooplankton abundance 125 (Ward et al., 2012). Zooplankton were grouped into; small microcopepod species (Oithong similis, Oncaea sp. and Ctenocalanus sp.) large calanoid copepod species (Rhincalanus gigas, Calanoides acutus, Calanus similimus, C. 126 127 propinguus, Euchaeta spp., and Metridia spp), small euphausiids (all euphausiid species caught in net) and other 128 zooplankton (all remaining species).

#### 129 2.2.2 Prediction of faecal pellet size distribution in epipelagic layers

We predicted the size distribution of FP in the epipelagic layers by using the size distribution of the copepod community assessed via prosome length (PL, mm) (Ward et al. 2012, their table A1) and the known relationship between copepod size and the volume of their FP (FPV,  $\mu m^3$ ) (Mauchline, 1998; Stamieszkin et al., 2015).

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134 
$$\log_{10} FPV = \theta \log_{10}(PL) + \eta$$
 (1)

135

136 We take mean values of  $\theta$  and n of 2.58 and 5.4 respectively from Stamieszkin et al. (2015) derived from literature values of 137 FPV and PL. Using measured copepod abundances, we then calculated the size distribution of FP produced by our 138 population of copepods. We compared the percent abundance in each size class, making the assumption that all copepods 139 were egesting FP at the same rate (see Discussion). As the zooplankton net tows are integrated from the surface to 200 m. 140 there is a slight overlap with the MSC samples, however, as the bulk of zooplankton are found in the upper 100 m (Ward et al., 2014), these net samples are largely representative of the epipelagic layer and we refer to it as such for simplicity. Non-141 142 copepod zooplankton ( $\sim 10$  % mesozooplankton abundance) were not considered in this calculation and represent a 143 background error in this approach.

## 144 **2.3 Faecal pellet collection**

## 145 **2.3.1 Marine Snow Catcher deployments**

146 Marine Snow Catchers (MSC) were deployed in the upper mesopelagic, defined here as 110 m below the base of the mixed 147 layer depth (MLD) identified from vertical profiles of the water column taken prior to MSC deployments using a 148 Conductivity-Temperature-Depth (CTD) unit (Seabird 9Plus with SBE32 carousel). MSC are large (95 L) PVC closing 149 water bottles, designed to minimise turbulence so particles are more likely to remain intact (Belcher et al., 2016a, 2016b; 150 Cavan et al., 2015; Riley et al., 2012). Once at the appropriate depth, MSC were closed via a mechanical release mechanism, 151 before recovering and leaving on deck for a settling period (2 hours). Following settling, they were drained and particles that 152 sank fast enough to reach the bottom collector tray ("fast sinking" particles (Riley et al., 2012)) were removed from the tray 153 and stored at 2-4°C for further analysis. All particles collected in the MSC tray were counted as it was not necessary to split 154 the sample. Particles reaching the bottom of the tray that were visible by eye were picked from the tray using a wide bore pipette. Given the MSC height of 1.53 m, particles originating at the top of the MSC are required to sink at a minimum rate 155 of 18.4 m d<sup>-1</sup> to reach the base of the MSC. However, considering measurements of FP sinking velocity in the Southern 156 Ocean of  $f^{27}$  m d<sup>-1</sup> to 1218 m d<sup>-1</sup> (Atkinson et al., 2012; Belcher et al., 2016b; Cavan et al., 2015), this is likely sufficient to 157 158 capture sinking FP.

#### 159 2.3.2 Sediment trap deployments

Sediment traps (ST) were deployed in the bathypelagic (1500 m to 2000 m). The P3 trap (2,000 m depth) was deployed in 160 May 2013 on cruise JR287, and P2 (1,500 m depth) deployed on 8<sup>th</sup> December 2012 on cruise JR280. Both traps were 161 recovered in December 2013 on cruise JR291 aboard the R.R.S. James Clark Ross. In addition the P2 mooring was 162 redeployed on 7<sup>th</sup> Dec 2013 and recovered on 28<sup>th</sup> November 2014 during cruise JR304. Samples from the spring period 163 (October to January) were analysed for comparison with MSC deployments. The STy consisted of a plastic funnel with a 164 baffle at the top (0.5 m<sup>2</sup> surface area), and a narrow opening at the bottom, through which particles fall into 1 L sampling 165 166 cups (McClane, PARFLUX Mark 78H-21). The traps were programmed so sampling cups would rotate after 14 to 31 days. 167 with shorter periods set to coincide with expected periods of high productivity. Prior to deployment, each cup was filled with a preservative solution of sodium chloride buffered 0.01% Mercuric Chloride. Upon recovery, samples were photographed 168 169 and the pH recorded. Swimmers, defined as zooplankton that were alive and intact on entering the trap, were picked out 170 using tweezers and removed from the sample. Each sample was then split into a number of equal aliquots (determined by the 171 amount of material in the sample) using a rotary splitter McClane Wet Sample Divider (WSD-10). Three replicates were 172 analysed for ST FP, with all FP in each replicate counted (see supplementary table S1 for absolute counts). Here we focus on ST trap samples in November and December (austral spring) to match MSC and zooplankton net deployments. 173

## 174 **2.4 Faecal pellet analysis**

175 All FP were photographed using an Olympus SZX16 microscope. FP were classified visually as round, ovoid or cylindrical 176 using light microscopy. All FP in each category collected in the MSC were counted, and their length and width measured 177 using ImageJ. For each ST sample, the dimensions of 10-50 FP of each class were measured and, for MSC samples, all FP 178 were counted and measured. FP volumes were calculated for round, ovoid and cylindrical pellets using the formula for a 179 sphere, ellipsoid and cylinder respectively. Equivalent spherical diameters (ESD) were also calculated. We compare FP 180 volume rather than FP number to avoid bias due to possible fragmentation (Wexels Riser et al., 2010). The carbon contents of FP were calculated based on conversion factors of 0.035, 0.052 and 0.030 mg C mm<sup>-3</sup> for round, ovoid and cylindrical FP 181 182 respectively based on measurements made on FP collected from the ST in spring-early autumn (Manno et al., 2015).

183

Without faecal production experiments of isolated species, it is difficult to ascertain the exact origin of FP collected in the MSC and ST. Previous studies (González, 1992; González et al., 1994a; González and Smetacek, 1994; Martens, 1978; Wilson et al., 2008; Yoon et al., 2001) suggest that ovoid/ellipsoidal pellets originate from copepods, pteropods and larvaceans, cylindrical pellets from krill and copepods, and spherical pellets from amphipods, small copepods and crustacean nauplii.

## 189 **2.5 Faecal pellet sinking velocities and fluxes**

190 Sinking velocities (w) of a sample of FP collected in MSC were measured on board on both cruises. During JR291, sinking 191 velocities were measured in a graduated glass cylinder in a temperature controlled laboratory (2°C). For each FP, the sinking 192 velocity was calculated from the average of the time taken to sink past two marked distances (10 cm apart), with the starting 193 point more than 10 cm from the water surface. During JR304, sinking velocities were measured in a temperature controlled 194 (at 4°C) flow chamber system (Ploug and Jorgensen, 1999), suspending FP in an upward flow and taking the average of 195 three measurements. Only FP larger than 0.15 mm ESD (i.e. those visible by eye) could be measured. No significant 196 differences were found between sinking velocities measured during JR291 and JR304 by these two different methods 197 (Student's t-test, p=0.2).

198 The median sinking velocity of measured FP for each MSC was utilised to calculate the sinking FP flux (FPF).

199

200 
$$FPF(n FP m^{-2}d^{-1}) = \frac{nFP}{A} \times \frac{w}{h}$$
 (2)

201

Here, nFP is the total number of FP collected at the base of the MSC (excluding krill FP), A the area of the MSC opening based on inner MSC diameter, and h the height of the snow catcher (1.53 m).

- 204 For sediment trap samples, FP fluxes were calculated as follows:
- 205

206 
$$FPF(nFPm^{-2}d^{-1}) = nFP/(A/d),$$
 (3)

207

where *d* is the number of days that the trap was open (15 days) and *A* is the area of the sediment trap  $(0.5 \text{ m}^2)$ .

## 209 **2.6 Faecal pellet comparisons**

210 FP collected in the ST and MSC were compared in terms of the number of FP in each morphological type as well as in terms 211 of carbon. As the absolute number of FP was vastly different between MSC and ST samples due to attenuation with depth, 212 we compared the percentage abundance and carbon across the size distribution of all FP from measured FP volumes. As only 213 an average FP size for each morphological type (rather than for all individual FP) was measured for samples from the ST 214 deployments D1 and D2, we make use of historical sediment trap data (Manno et al., 2015) at the same sites from December 215 2009 and 2010 (herein referred to as H2009 and H2010). The size of all FP in each sample-split were measured in the study 216 of Manno et al. (2015) allowing us to and hence we use these data to compare size distributions of MSC and ST collected FP. 217 Manno et al. (2015) also categorised FP into ovoid, cylindrical and round, with an additional category of elliptical. We 218 combine cylindrical and elliptical categories due to their similar morphology and to allow comparison with our MSC data. 219 Although this introduces uncertainty in terms of inter-annual variability between 2009-2010 (full sediment trap data) and 220 2013-2014 (Marine Snow Catcher data), consistency in the FP types and percentages in each category between years (Fig.

S2) provides confidence in the use of these historical data. Numbers of large cylindrical FP, probably originating from large
 euphausiids, were removed from counts given the large potential bias in the quantification of these organisms in the net
 samples. Again we take took into account only the spring data (November and December).

## 224 **2.7 Statistics**

In order to estimate error uncertainty, we take the standard error of our measurements, i.e. multiple Bongo net tows for zooplankton, multiple MSC deployments for mesopelagic FP, and multiple ST deployments for bathypelagic FP. We compare zooplankton size distributions using a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. FP size distributions (in terms of % abundance) are also compared using an Anderson-Darling k-sample test as this test is more sensitive to differences in the tails and differences in shift, scale and symmetry when means are similar (Engmann and Cousineau, 2011). All statistics were carried out in RStudio (version 0.98.1091; R development core team, 2014).

#### 231 **3. RESULTS**

## 232 **3.1 Zooplankton community and faecal pellet production**

On average, total zooplankton abundances and species compositions were similar at P2 and P3 (Fig. 2), with small microcopepod species *Oithona similis*, *Oncaea sp.* and *Ctenocalanus sp.* outnumbering the main large calanoid copepod species (*Rhincalanus gigas, Calanoides acutus, Calanus similimus, C. propinquus, Euchaeta spp.*, and *Metridia spp*) (Table S12, Fig. 2). The number of zooplankton with PL <-2 mm was is similar at P2 and P3 (ratio P3:P2 of 1.1), but the abundance of larger copepods (4-7 mm PL) at P3 was almost double that of P2 (ratio P3:P2 of 1.8) (Fig. S1).

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The predicted size distribution of egested FP from our mesozooplankton copepod community highlights that most FP egested in the epipelagic would be in the smallest size category  $<0.001 \text{ mm}^3$  (97.6 ± 20.3% and 97.0 ± 4.0% at P2 and P3 respectively) with low contributions (<2%) from each of the larger FP size categories (Fig. 3a). The high standard error of FP  $<0.001 \text{ mm}^3$  at P2 is in part due to very high abundances of *Oithona similis* during one deployment. Removing this net from the average gives 97.8±13.7% FP $<0.001 \text{ mm}^3$ . The predicted size distributions of FP at P2 and P3 were not significantly different (p>0.5, Mann-Whitney U-test, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, and Anderson-Darling k-sample test).

### 245 **3.2 Sinking faecal pellets**

Sinking faecal pellets collected by the MSC (upper mesopelagic) and the ST (bathypelagic) are described in terms of size and shape to assess changes between these two layers.

#### 248 **3.2.1 Faecal pellet shape**

The morphologies of FP captured by the MSC at P2 were heterogeneous (Fig. 4, Fig. 5a), with cylindrical/elliptical FP, and round FP making up similarly high percent contributions to the total number of FP. Conversely, a single morphology dominated in the P3 MSC samples which were cylindrical FP of <0.005 mm<sup>3</sup> (Fig. 5c).

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All morphological classes found in the upper mesopelagic (MSC samples) were also present in the bathypelagic (ST samples, Fig. 4). However, the dominant type of FP changed between these two layers (Fig. 5). Ovoid FP made only low contributions (<-8.3% and <1.4% at P2 and P3 respectively) to total FP abundance in the MSC samples but were the dominant type in most size categories in the ST samples (up to 25.2% and 13.1% at P2 and P3 respectively, Fig. 5).

## 257 **3.2.2 Faecal pellet size**

The predicted FP size distributions of pellets produced in the epipelagic by the net caught <u>zooplankton copepod</u> community were significantly different to those observed in the upper mesopelagic (MSC samples) at both P2 and P3 (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, D=0.58 (P2), D=0.67 (P3), DF=11, p<0.01). Comparison of Fig. 3a and b reveals that there was a reduced dominance of the smallest FP (0-0.001 mm<sup>3</sup>) from >96 ± <20% to <18 ± <5% between the two layers at both sites.

262

263 A further loss in the smaller FP size categories is apparent between the upper mesopelagic MSC samples and the bathypelagic ST samples (Fig. 3c). FP <0.003 mm<sup>3</sup> in volume decreased from  $35.5 \pm 13.4\%$  to  $5.0 \pm 0.4\%$  at P2 and from 264 265  $52.3 \pm 6.7\%$  to  $14.0 \pm 5.7\%$  at P3. Based on size alone, the FP community appears to have become less diverse in the 266 bathypelagic layer, with most FP (>80 %) occupying a narrower size range in the ST samples, (0.003-0.01 mm<sup>3</sup>) compared 267 to the MSC samples (0.001-0.02 mm<sup>3</sup>). FP size distributions in the MSC and ST were not however significantly different at 268 either P2 or P3 (Anderson-Darling k-sample test, T.AD=1.3, DF=11, p=0.2 and T.AD=0.43, DF=11, p=0.9 at P2 and P3 269 respectively). Re-running the test for only FP size categories <0.003 mm<sup>3</sup> highlights a significant difference in the %FP 270 abundance in the smaller size categories between the MSC and ST (p=0.03 at both P2 and P3).

## 271 **3.3 Faecal pellet carbon**

Although small FP were numerically dominant in the MSC, comparison of Fig. 5 and Fig. 6 reveals higher contributions of the larger FP size classes to total FP carbon (FPC). This is not unexpected as larger FP contain a larger amount of carbon. FPC data highlight the importance of the loss of large FP to the carbon sinking through the water column. Although abundances of small FP greatly reduced with depth, this does not represent such a large change in terms of carbon.

## 276 **3.4 Faecal pellet sinking velocities and fluxes**

Sinking velocities of FP (excluding krill FP) collected in the MSC ranged from 52 to 382 m d<sup>-1</sup> at P2 and 13 to 227 m d<sup>-1</sup> at P3<sub>a</sub> reflecting the range in FP shapes and sizes. Generally small FP had lower sinking velocities than larger FP. During cruise JR291, Wwe measured FP sinking rates (excluding krill FP) of 47-120 m d<sup>-1</sup> for FP <0.002 mm<sup>3</sup>, and 36-270 m d<sup>-1</sup> for FP >0.02 mm<sup>3</sup>-(supplementary table S3). Rates measured in this study are consistent agree with the range of 5-220 m d<sup>-1</sup> given by (Turner,-(2002) for copepod FP. During cruise JR304, FP sinking rates were 47-51 m d<sup>-1</sup> and 36-270 m d<sup>-1</sup> for FP <0.002 mm<sup>3</sup> and FP >0.02 mm<sup>3</sup> respectively.

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At P3, the flux of cylindrical and elliptical FP in the MSC was an order of magnitude higher than fluxes of round or ovoid FP (190,716 FP m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> compared to 32,172 FP m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>). Similarly a-whereas, at P2, cylindrical and elliptical FP were the the dominant FP type (21,128 FP m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>,), but fluxes of round FP were also important (14,596 FP m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) at this site of a similar magnitude (Table 2). FP fluxes in the ST were dominated by ovoid FP at both sites (Table 2).

## 288 4. DISCUSSION

In this study we compare predicted size distributions of FP produced by the zooplankton (mainly copepod)copepod community in the epipelagic, to those of sinking FP in the upper mesopelagic (from MSC) and the bathypelagic (from ST) in order to determine the fate of FP sinking through the mesopelagic and assess the importance of deep dwelling zooplankton on the efficiency of the BCP in the Southern Ocean.

## 293 4.1 Changes in faecal pellet with depth: upper mesopelagic

294 Our data suggest that small FP are not transferred efficiently from the epipelagic to the meso- and bathypelagic, and hence 295 make a small contribution to FP fluxes at depth, particularly in terms of carbon. Comparison of estimated copepod FP 296 production with measurements of sinking FP in the upper mesopelagic (from MSC) gives an indication of the degree of 297 retention in that layer. The community at both P2 and P3 was dominated by microcopepod species which, based on their 298 size, produce small FP which are expected to sink more slowly than large FP (Komar et al., 1981; Small et al., 1979; Stamieszkin et al., 2015). Agreeing with the data presented here, small FP (<0.002 mm<sup>3</sup>) are predicted to have a sinking 299 velocity three times slower than larger FP ( $>0.02 \text{ mm}^3$ ) based on the empirical relationship of Small et al. (1979) for copepod 300 301 FP.

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The longer residence time of small FP in the upper ocean (due to their slower sinking velocities) means they are exposed to remineralisation processes such as coprophagous feeding, fragmentation and microbial remineralisation, for a longer period of time. This type of retention filter and low export efficiency of small FP has been observed in a number of oceanographic environments (e.g. Dagg et al., 2003; Viitasalo et al., 1999; Wexels-Riser et al., 2001). Wexels Riser et al. (2010) made 307 observations over the upper 200 m of a Norwegian fjord, finding that large FP produced by *Calanus finmarchicus* 308 contributed disproportionately to vertical flux despite large numbers of small FP produced by *Oithona similis*, agreeing well 309 with the loss of small FP that we observed in the Scotia Sea.

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It is important to acknowledge here, that although the 200  $\mu$ m mesh used in this study is commonly used in zooplankton surveys, this leads to an underestimation of the smaller zooplankton size classes present in the epipelagic. Ward et al., (2012) found that a 53  $\mu$ m mesh caught 5.87 times more zooplankton than a 200  $\mu$ m net in the upper mesopelagic of the northern Scotia Sea in spring. However, in this study an underestimation of the small zooplankton size classes serves to reinforce the fact that small FP dominate the flux of FP out of the epipelagic and are largely attenuated as they pass through the mesopelagic.

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318 Comparison of freshly egested FP size distributions with the size distributions of FP sinking through the mesopelagic relies 319 here on the assumption that different species within the copepod community had the same rates of egestion. FP production 320 varies with species, as well as factors such as season and food availability; the range in FP production rates between different copepod species across a number of high latitude studies is 2-48 FP ind.d<sup>-1</sup> (Dagg et al., 2003; Daly, 1997; Roy et al., 2000; 321 322 Thibault et al., 1999; Urban-Rich et al., 1999). However, as the estimated abundance of egested FP in the smallest size 323 category (0-0.001 mm<sup>3</sup>) is between 60-250 times greater than the next largest category, the smallest FP are still likely to 324 dominate the FP community even if egestion rates are varied within reasonable bounds. Therefore, despite our assumptions 325 regarding rates of egestion, our conclusion of rapid attenuation of these small FP in the upper mesopelagic remains valid.

## **4.2 Changes in faecal pellet with depth: meso- to bathypelagic**

Our data reveal a change in FP size, shape and abundance between the upper mesopelagic and bathypelagic of the Scotia Sea suggesting in situ FP production by deeper dwelling zooplankton. The occurrence of intact and fresh FP in deep sediment traps in the Southern Ocean (e.g. Accornero et al., 2003; Manno et al., 2015) may therefore be a result of an indirect, cascade-like transfer through the mesopelagic as they are reprocessed by different zooplankton communities (Miquel et al., 2015; Urrere and Knauer, 1981).

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Urrere and Knauer (1981) deployed free-floating traps off the Monterey Peninsula in California. They observed a decrease in numerical FP fluxes in the upper 500 m, but FP fluxes increased by a factor of 2.7 from 500 m to 1500 m. This increase was largely due to elliptical FP, suggesting the presence of deep resident (or overwintering) zooplankton populations (Urrere and Knauer, 1981). The authors conclude that organic material reaches the deep ocean (supporting deep resident zooplankton populations) through in situ repackaging of detritus and via heterotrophy as well as inputs from migrating populations, emulating the "ladder of migrations" first proposed by Vinogradov (1962). More recently, Miquel et al. (2015) deployed drifting sediment traps in the upper 210 m of the Beaufort Sea, observing increases in elliptical FP with depth and decreases in cylindrical FP. They explain this by the presence of omnivorous and carnivorous zooplankton in the mesopelagic, whose
primary food sources are the vertical flux of organic matter and other organisms. In agreement with our observations, Suzuki
et al. (2003) observed large declines in cylindrical FP between sediment traps deployed at 537 and 796 m in the marginal ice
zone of Antarctica, and increases in elliptical FP over the same depth range. They suggest that coprophagous feeding and
new FP production can explain some of the loss of cylindrical FP, with fragmentation into small sinking particles explaining
the rest. As different zooplankton species produce different shapes of FP, a change in FP shape <u>can</u> suggests a change in
zooplankton community structure.

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348 At both P2 and P3 we saw an increase in the contribution of ovoid FP to the total number of FP between the upper 349 mesopelagic (MSC samples) and bathypelagic (ST samples), increasing by factors of 4.5 and 8.5 at P2 and P3 respectively. 350 This suggests that there is either an input of ovoid FP at depth, or that cylindrical-elliptical and round FP are preferentially 351 remineralised in the mesopelagic. We made both size and shape measurements of FP in the upper mesopelagic and 352 bathypelagic, allowing us to discern if there is indeed production of new ovoid FP at depth. At both P2 and P3, we observed 353 size classes of ovoid FP in the ST  $(0.003-0.008 \text{ mm}^3)$  that were not present in the MSC, which rules out selective 354 remineralisation. Furthermore, the intact shape of ovoid FP in the ST argues against fragmentation as a cause of this change 355 in size distribution. In agreement with Manno et al. (2015), we observed that ovoid FP in the ST showed fewer signs of 356 fragmentation and were more intact than cylindrical or elliptical FP at both P2 and P3. Estimates of FPC in ST samples 357 indicates that these ovoid FP also make a large contribution to the flux of POC and, as such, their production at depth 358 represents a mechanism for long term storage of carbon in the ocean. Hence, we conclude that FP fluxes to depth are 359 augmented by FP produced in situ at depth.

360

361 We can estimate the size class of zooplankton producing the FP we find at depth based on the FP size class and Equation 1. 362 We estimate that zooplankton of PL 2.6-3.8 mm and 2.6-3.2 mm could have produced the FP we observed in the ST, based 363 on dominant size classes of FP of 0.003-0.008 mm<sup>3</sup> and 0.003-0.005 mm<sup>3</sup> at P3 and P2 respectively. Of the species within 364 these size classes recorded in the Bongo net tows at P2 and P3, Calanoides acutus IV and Metridia gerlachei adults were the 365 most abundant and may be responsible for the flux of these FP to the ST. C.acutus is a known seasonal migrator in the 366 region, occurring in the upper 200 m in summer but residing deeper (~200--600 m) in spring (Ward et al., 2012). Metridia 367 spp. are also known migrators (Ward et al., 1995, 2006b; Ward and Shreeve, 1999), found to be one of the more abundant 368 species in the 500-1000 m depth range based on *Discovery Investigations* to the west of the Drake Passage (Ward et al., 369 2014). Ward et al. (2014) find the most abundant species in this depth range to be Oncaea spp., Oithona frigida and 370 *Microcalanus pygmaeus*, all of which are too small ( $\leq 0.5$  mm PL) to produce the larger FP that were dominant in the ST. 371 Similar to the situation in the epipelagic and upper mesopelagic, we suggest that although small species are more abundant, 372 they produce small FP which sink slowly and are rapidly remineralised. It is likely that it is the less abundant larger 373 carnivores and recyclers in the lower mesopelagic that are contributing more to the flux of carbon to the deep ocean through the production of large FP, agreeing with the modelling study of Stamieszkin et al., (2015). Calanoid copepod families *Aetideidae, Heterorhabdidae, Metridinidae* and *Euchaetidae* are also common in the mesopelagic of the Scotia Sea and surrounding area (Laakmann et al., 2009; Ward et al., 1995; Ward and Shreeve, 1999), and are of an appropriate size (as adults or other copepodite stages) to produce the larger FP that were dominant in the ST. Although we can only speculate as to the possible producers of FP in the ST, it is clear that appropriately sized zooplankton are sufficiently abundant in the mesopelagic to influence the flux of FP to the ST.

380

When comparing datasets collected via different methods (in this case Bongo nets, MSC and ST), it is important to consider 381 382 the different time and space scales over which they measure. The zooplankton Bongo net samples integrated vertically over 383 the top 200 m and temporally over the period over which replicate samples were taken (a few days at each site for both 384 cruises). MSC samples were an instantaneous snapshot of the particle flux and, at a deployment depth of 110 m below the 385 mixed layer, they integrate over spatial scales of tens of kilometres (based on median sinking rates at P2 and P3 and a current speed of 10 cm s<sup>-1</sup>). Conversely, ST samples captured the flux over a 15 day period and at a deployment depth of 1500 and 386 387 2000 m had a potential sample collection area on spatial scales of hundreds of kilometres (based on the same conditions). If 388 zooplankton communities vary significantly over tens of kilometres then this would reduce the direct comparability of MSC 389 and ST data. Previous studies in the region suggest that much of the Scotia Sea is populated by a single zooplankton 390 'community', but there are regional differences in the stage of phenological development. (Ward et al., 2006a), implying that 391 the species composition may not vary on short spatial scales. Changes in the species stage are likely tied to changes in 392 phytoplankton productivity, as for much of the time, Southern Ocean zooplankton are food limited (Ward et al., 2006a). 393 Cluster analysis of phytoplankton in the Scotia Sea reveals distinct communities (in terms of abundance, community 394 structure and productivity) on spatial scales of hundreds of kilometres (Korb et al., 2012), and hence we would not expect 395 significant changes in the stage-structure of zooplankton on the spatial resolution of the MSC, making these results more 396 comparable to those of the ST. The high sinking rates of zooplankton FP means that their occurrence in ST is representative 397 of the conditions directly above the ST (Buesseler et al., 2007). Slow-sinking particles spread out more as they sink which 398 increases our uncertainty in depth comparisons of smaller FP. However, the spatial scale of zooplankton variability at our 399 study site means that slow-sinking FP particles reaching the ST likely reflect the same zooplankton community structure as 400 occurring directly above the ST. For each of our three methods (nets, MSC and ST), we take averages over multiple years which should also reduce the uncertainties associated with the various spatial and temporal resolutions of the three methods. 401 402 However, we acknowledge that the different spatial and temporal scales of measurement could also contribute to some of the 403 vertical changes in FP shape and size structure that we observed.

## 405 **4.3 Role of meso- and bathypelagic zooplankton**

406 Our data suggest that zooplankton residing below the euphotic layer repackage sinking detritus and produce FP which are 407 able to pass through the lower mesopelagic and be collected in ST in the bathypelagic. Observations made at P2 and P3 in 408 autumn show that, during the night, the highest zooplankton abundances are in the upper 125 m (C.Liszka pers. comm.). 409 However corresponding daytime surface abundances are typically lower which may be partially explained by certain species 410 that migrate vertically in the water column (C.Liszka pers. comm.). We suggest that diel vertical migrators may contribute to 411 the relatively fresh FP we found at depth. A modelling study by Wallace et al. (2013) suggests that FP penetrate deeper in 412 the water column when there is zooplankton vertical migration, with the deepest FP production occurring when zooplankton 413 undertake diel vertical migrations rather than forav type feeding (multiple ascents and descents during a day). Resident 414 zooplankton populations were observed below 150 m depth, with a peak at 375-500 m, most notably at P3 (C.Liszka 415 pers.comm.), suggesting that the deeper parts of the community, consisting of non-migratorsing. or seasonally or ontogenetically migratorsing, community are also important at our study site and could repackage organic material in the 416 417 upper mesopelagic, and may have producedeing some of the intact FP which we observed in our ST.

418

419 The abundance of zooplankton typically declines rapidly over the upper 1000 m of the water column (Ward et al., 1995, 420 2014; Ward and Shreeve, 1999), suggesting that any new FP production below the depth of our MSC samples is likely to 421 take place in the upper to mid mesopelagic where zooplankton abundances are higher. Although Zzooplankton are more 422 concentrated in the epipelagic, however, the total abundance of zooplankton in the meso- and bathypelagic can be high due 423 to the large depth extent of these layers. In the Antarctic Zone (to the west of our study site), of Ward et al. (2014), found 424 that the -total depth integrated zooplankton abundances in the 250-2000 m horizon (extending extrapolating abundances 425 recorded at 750-1000 m down to 2000 m) in the Antarctic Zone (to the west of our study site) is about three quarters (0.74) 426 of the number of zooplankton abundance in the top 250 m-(Ward et al., 2014). Therefore it is likely that there is still 427 substantial production of FP in the lower mesopelagic, and FP compared to FP produced in the epipelagic, FP produced in 428 the lower mesopelagic<del>produced here</del> are subject to remineralisation processes over a shorter distance, so are more likely to 429 reach the deep ocean intact.

430

Despite the similarities in copepod abundances at P2 and P3, the numbers of FP collected at P3 were an order of magnitude higher than at P2. Surface phytoplankton productivity at P3 is typically much higher than at P2, with large blooms occurring in most years (Borrione and Schlitzer, 2013; Korb et al., 2008, 2012). This may in part explain higher FP fluxes at the P3 site, as in good feeding conditions (such as those measured during JR304 (Belcher et al., 2016b)) FP production rates have been shown to be higher (Besiktepe and Dam, 2002; Butler and Dam, 1994). The zooplankton community structure may also affect the fate of FP in the mesopelagic. Previous studies have found relationships between POC export and the presence of microcopepod species, suggesting that low POC export may be attributed to coprophagy and/or coprorhexy (Suzuki et al., 438 2003; Svensen and Nejstgaard, 2003). More recently, several studies have proposed that the main role of small zooplankton 439 species may be to fragment FP rather than ingest them (Iversen and Poulsen, 2007; Poulsen and Kiørboe, 2005; Reigstad et 440 al., 2005). Regardless of the mechanism, previous studies agree that high microcopepod abundances can lead to increased FP 441 retention. The ratio of small copepods to large calanoids is higher at P2\_increased abundance of small copepods (compared to 442 larger calanoids) at P2 (Fig\_ure 2), which may result in greater losses of FP in the epi- and mesopelagic, resulting in lower 443 numbers of FP captured in our MSC and ST at P2. Indeed, we see higher attenuation of FP fluxes at P2 than P3 between our 444 measurement depths (Table 2).

445

446 The flux of FP reaching the deep ocean therefore depends not only on surface production, but also on the meso- and bathypelagic zooplankton populations and the balance between FP retention and FP production. For instance, if the deep 447 448 zooplankton community at P3 are larger in size than those at P2, this could explain the larger size of FP observed in the ST 449 at P3 as well as contributing to higher numbers of FP here due to increased sinking velocities of larger FP (Komar et al., 1981; Small et al., 1979; Stamieszkin et al., 2015). OAlthough our data implies that in situ FP production in the mesopelagic 450 451 accounted for additional fluxes of FP to the bathypelagic at both P2 and P3. However as there is- the the potential for further 452 working, fragmentation and remineralisation and fragmentation of FP produced in the mesopelagic-, the gross deep FP 453 production cannot be quantified here. means we are not able to quantify this deep FP production. We therefore cannot 454 determine whether higher FP fluxes at P3 are due primarily to reduced FP attenuation or to increased FP production at 455 depth: most likely a combination of both mechanisms is taking place. Previous work in the region, has however found that 456 hinowever at least in the upper mesopelagic (mixed layer depth-200 m) FP attenuation is higher at P2 than P3 (Belcher et al., 457 2016b). We cannot rule out that a combination of both is occurring.

458

459 We present here a Our comparison of FP size, shape and abundance in the upper mesopelagic and lower bathypelagic agrees 460 suggesting, in agreement with previous hypotheses -(Accornero et al., 2003; Manno et al., 2015; Suzuki et al., 2003), that 461 allowing us to verify previous hypotheses of in situ FP production and vertical migrations might be important in-augments ing the flux of FP to depth in the Southern Ocean (Accornero et al., 2003; Manno et al., 2015; Suzuki et al., 2003). We find 462 463 that the occurrence of intact FP in deep ST couldan be explained by both vertical migrations of zooplankton, and 464 repackaging and in situ FP production by meso- and bathypelagic zooplankton populations (Fig. 7). The route by which the FP are transferred to depth is a key control on the amount of carbon reaching this depth. Taking an integrated surface 465 production of 1 g C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> (based on measurements by Korb et al. (2012) to the northwest of South Georgia), and assuming 466 467 that FP reaching the deep ocean via vertical migration are only an assimilation efficiency assimilated (with efficiency of 66%) (Anderson and Tang, 2010; Head, 1992)) -during vertical migrationonce (left panel Fig. 7, Case AScenario 1), we calculate 468 that up to 340 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> could reach the depth of migration (this depth will vary both between species and seasonally). In 469 470 comparison, if FP are repackaged multiple times on their transit through the mesopelagic then FP will be assimilated 471 multiple times, resulting in reduced transfer of carbon when compared to diel vertical migration. For example, if we assume 472 FP that undergoing repackaging in the mesopelagic are assimilated twice over the same vertical distance as a typical depth range as the vertical migration (right panel, Fig. 7, Case BScenario 2), result in up to 115 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> could reaching the 473 474 same depth. The exact difference in carbon transfer between these two routes (Case A and BScenario 1 and 2) will depend 475 on the number of repackaging steps over the migration depth, specific assimilation efficiencies of the repackaging copepods 476 as well as loss of FP carbon via degree of microbial-remineralisation-occurring during FP sinking between repackaging 477 eveles. However, these calculations highlight that t he route by which the FP are transferred to depth is a key control on the 478 amount of carbon reaching this depth. - These estimates are within the range of estimates of POC flux made in the upper 479 mesopelagic at P2 and P3 (Belcher et al., 2016b), but are over an order of magnitude higher than POC fluxes measured in the 480 ST (Manno et al., 2015), implying that material reaching the ST may have been repackaged many times. The exact 481 difference in earbon transfer between these two routes (Case A and B) will depend on the number of repacking steps. 482 specific assimilation efficiencies of the repackaging copepods as well as degree of microbial remineralisation occurring 483 during FP sinking between repackaging eveles. Regardless of the feeding mode of these mesopelagic zooplankton 484 communities (detritivory, omnivory or carnivory), production of FP at depth via both the aforementioned scenarios supports 485 the transfer of intact FP to the deep ocean, supporting the sequestration of carbon on long timescales. There is therefore a 486 need to link meso- and bathypelagic zooplankton communities (particularly the larger size classes) to carbon fluxes within 487 global biogeochemical models by refining the contribution of different zooplankton size classes to carbon fluxes via their 488 differential FP production rates and sinking speed.

489

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## 701 Tables

Cruise	Site	Latitude	Longitude	Date	Time (GMT)	Depth of MSC (m)
JR291	P2	-55.192	-41.342	02/12/2013	23:45	176
	P2	-55.196	-41.332	03/12/2013	15:54	204
	P2	-55.259	-41.295	07/12/2013	15:07	203
	Р3	-52.769	-40.155	13/12/2013	13:49	205
	Р3	-52.769	-40.154	14/12/2013	06:33	180
JR304	Р3	-52.8116	-39.9727	12/12/2014	22:40	176
	Р3	-52.8118	-39.9726	13/12/2014	22:47	183

702 Table 1: Details of marine snow catcher (MSC) deployments during cruises JR291 and JR304 to the Scotia Sea

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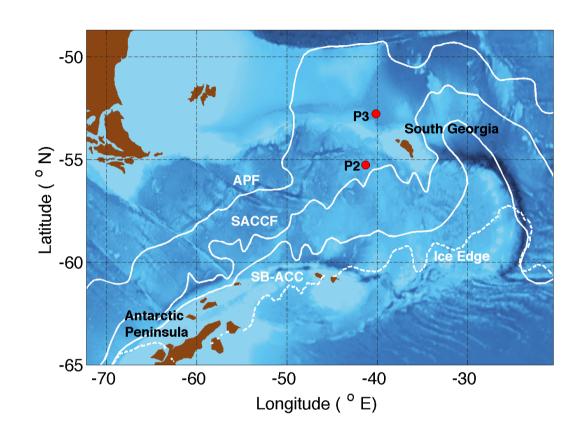
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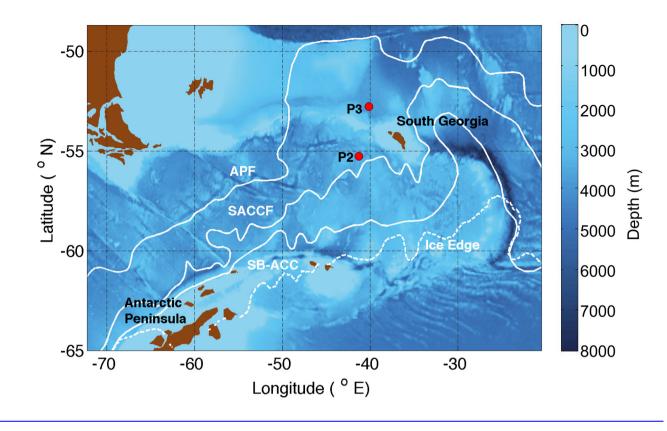
705Table 2: FP fluxes (±SE, nFP m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) of ovoid, cylindrical and elliptical (Cyl+Ell), and round FP at P2 and P3 as measured in<br/>Marine Snow Catchers (MSC) and sediment traps (ST) in the Scotia Sea in spring.

	P <u>2</u>				P <u>3</u>				
	Ovoid	Cyl + Ell	Round	Total	Ovoid	Cyl + Ell	Round	Total	
MSC	<u>6,309</u> (±2,698)	<u>21,128</u> (±1,328)	<u>14,596</u> ( <u>±1,124)</u>	<u>89,850</u> (±11,922)	<u>13,416</u> (±8,207)	<u>190,716</u> (±51,623)	<u>32,172</u> (±15,239)	<u>236,304</u> (±63,079)	
ST	<u>640</u> (±33)	<u>238</u> (±82)	<u>175</u> (±37)	<u>1,052</u> (±152)	<u>11,226</u> (±706)	<u>7,406</u> ( <u>±1,274)</u>	<u>4,668</u> (±14)	<u>23,300</u> (±1,994)	
MSC/ST	<u>9.9</u>	<u>88.9</u>	<u>83.5</u>	<u>39.9</u>	<u>1.2</u>	<u>25.8</u>	<u>6.9</u>	<u>10.1</u>	

# 709 Figures and Figure Legends







713 Figure 1: Stations sampled in the Scotia Sea. White lines indicate average frontal positions. APF=Antarctic Polar Font (Orsi et al.,

714 715 1995), SACCF = Southern Antarctic Circumpolar Current Front (Thorpe et al., 2002), SB-ACC-=Southern Boundary - Antarctic

Circumpolar Current (Orsi et al., 1995). White dotted lines indicates the position of the ice edge on 3<sup>rd</sup> Dec 2013 (OSTIA Sea Ice 716 satellite data).

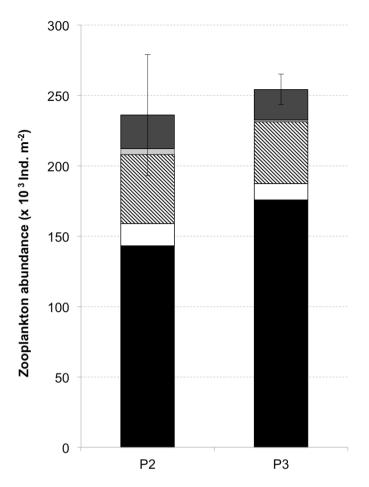


Figure 2: Average zooplankton abundances (x 10  $^3$  Ind. m<sup>-2</sup> (0-200m)) measured in the Scotia Sea in December 2013 and 2014 using a 200  $\mu$ m mesh. Small microcopepods (black), large calanoids (white), other copepods (striped), small euphausiids (light grey), other zooplankton (dark grey) (see text for full details on groups). Error bars show ±SE of total zooplankton abundance based on multiple Bongo net tows at each site.

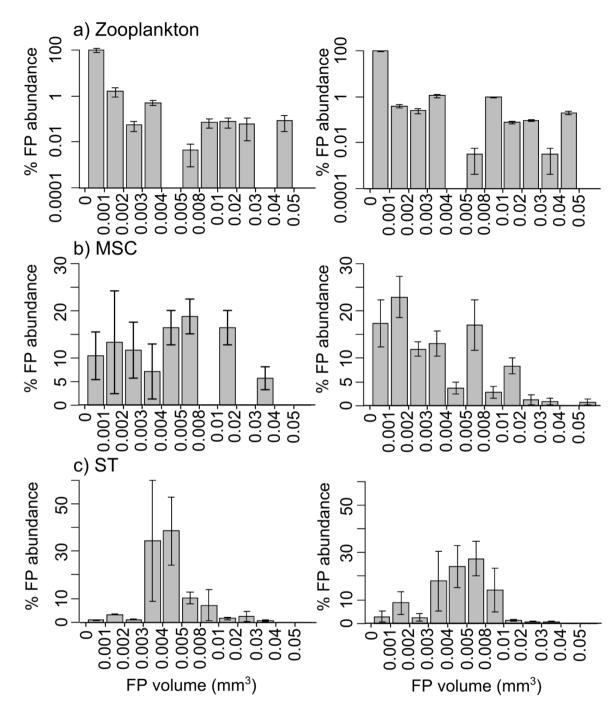
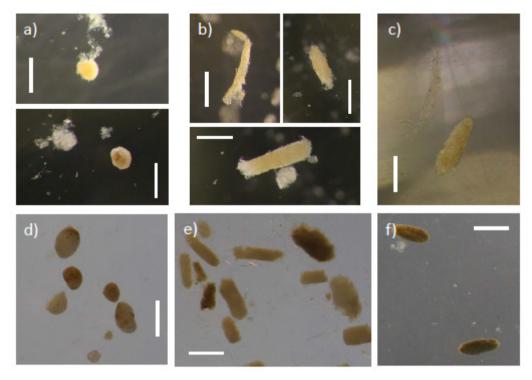
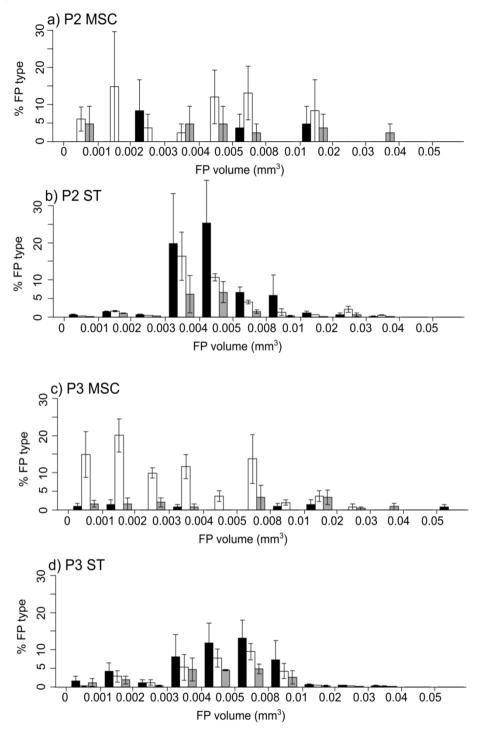


Figure 3: Faecal pellet size distributions for P2 (left) and P3 (right) in the Scotia Sea. The percent (%) abundance of faecal pellets in each size class (volume, mm<sup>3</sup>) is presented for; a) estimated egested faecal pellet size distributions based on mesozooplankton abundances (200 μm mesh), b) faecal pellets measured in marine snow catchers (MSC) at MLD+110 m averages (±SE), and c) faecal pellets in sediment traps (ST). Krill faecal pellets have been removed. Note the uneven faecal pellet volume size classes, and log scale on the Y axis for a.

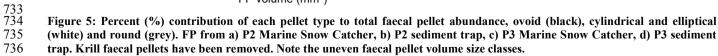




- Figure 4: Light microscopy photographs of faecal pellets collected from Marine Snow Catchers (A-C) and sediment traps (D-F).
   The different morphological classes are illustrated; a)+d)) round, b)+e) cylindrical, c)+f) ovoid. Scale bar = 0.5 mm.
  - 51 11







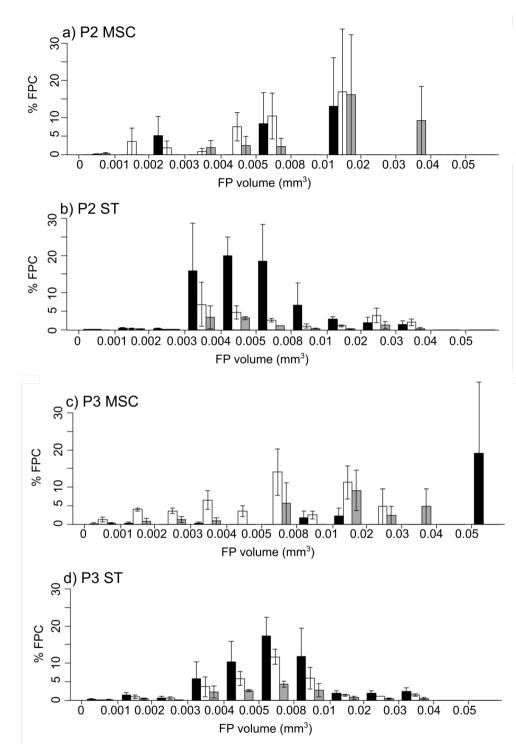
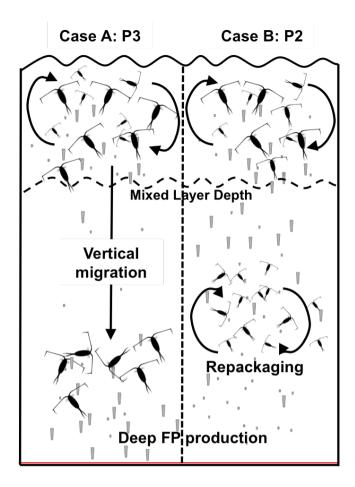


Figure 6: Percent (%) contribution of each pellet type to total faecal pellet carbon, ovoid (black), cylindrical and elliptical (white)
and round (grey). FP from a) P2 Marine Snow Catcher, b) P2 sediment trap, c) P3 Marine Snow Catcher, d) P3 sediment trap.
Krill faecal pellets have been removed. Note the uneven faecal pellet volume size classes.



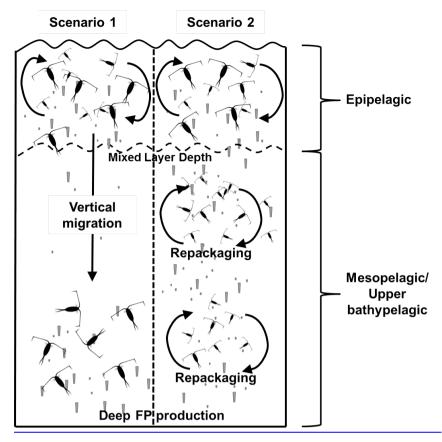


Figure 7: Schematic to illustrate the dominant-possible mechanisms of deep FP production that are suggested to be occurring at our study sites in the Scotia Sea-P2 (right) and P3 (left). In Case AScenario 1, intact FP reach the deep ocean via vertical migration of zooplankton, whereas, in Case-Scenario 2B, FP at depth are due to result from in situ repackaging of sinking detritus by deep dwelling zooplankton. The actual mechanisms occurring in the mesopelagic are likely to be a complex combination of both scenarios.

## 749 Supplementary Material

# 750 Supplementary Tables

# 751Table S1: Absolute number of FP counted in sediment trap (ST) sample split and Marine Snow Catcher (MSC) samples. Three<br/>replicates were counted for ST samples and are presented as mean (standard deviation), where as all FP collected in the MSC<br/>samples were counted. Krill FP are not included.

<u>Cruise</u>	<u>Site</u>	<u>Sampling</u> <u>Method</u>	<u># FP</u>
<u>JR291</u>	<u>P2</u>	<u>MSC</u>	<u>4</u>
	<u>P2</u>	<u>MSC</u>	<u>9</u>
	<u>P2</u>	<u>MSC</u>	<u>28</u>
	<u>P3</u>	<u>MSC</u>	<u>15</u>
	<u>P3</u>	<u>MSC</u>	<u>74</u>
<u>JR304</u>	<u>P3</u>	<u>MSC</u>	<u>120</u>
	<u>P3</u>	<u>MSC</u>	<u>252</u>
Dec 2009	P2	ST	422 (98)
<u>Dec 2007</u>		ST	<u>1156 (195)</u>
	<u>P3</u>		
<u>Dec 2010</u>	<u>P2</u>	<u>ST</u>	<u>564 (134)</u>
	<u>P3</u>	<u>ST</u>	<u>974 (238)</u>

Table S2: Zooplankton abundance (ind. m<sup>-2</sup>) from Bongo samples (200 μm mesh, 0-200 m) taken in the Scotia Sea, Antarctica during
 research cruises JR304 and JR291. Species in bold are those used to estimate size distributions of egested faecal pellets.

	JR291					JR304	
	P3				P2		
Species and Stage	E072	E126	E131	E137	E44	E38	E40
Rhincalanus gigas male	27	0	0	0	0	0	(
Rhincalanus gigas female	712	383	356	329	55	7	465
Rhincalanus gigas V	219	164	164	246	0	0	383
Rhincalanus gigas IV	0	27	0	27	0	0	2
Rhincalanus gigas III	55	246	274	301	0	0	11
Rhincalanus gigas II	876	602	274	219	110	0	(
Rhincalanus gigas I	548	164	137	27	137	0	
Rhincalanus gigas nauplii	110	876	1,314	438	1,971	5,256	25,40
Calanoides acutus female	82	137	164	192	0	301	8
Calanoides acutus V	1,615	2,436	2,135	2,190	164	0	27-
Calanoides acutus IV	3,039	1,205	1,643	1,150	575	383	1,42
Calanoides acutus III	548	219	192	411	602	1,341	6,35
Calanoides acutus II	55	55	164	356	329	3,285	10,62
Calanoides acutus I	0	0	0	274	411	3,532	7,77
Calanus simillimus male	0	0	0	27	0	0	
Calanus simillimus female	27	110	55	27	0	0	13
Calanus simillimus V	0	27	27	0	0	0	
Calanus simillimus IV	0	27	82	82	0	0	
Calanus simillimus III	0	27	0	27	0	0	11
Calanus simillimus II	0	27	82	246	0	0	
Calanus simillimus I	0	55	164	274	0	0	
Calanus propinquus male	0	0	0	27	0	0	
Calanus propinquus female	27	0	27	0	0	0	2
Calanus propinquus V	110	55	55	27	0	0	
Calanus propinquus IV	27	55	82	0	27	164	
Calanus propinquus III	0	55	0	0	82	274	43

	JR291					JR304	
	P3				P2		
Species and Stage	E072	E126	E131	E137	E44	E38	E40
Calanus propinquus II	0	0	0	0	27	383	1,424
Calanus propinquus I	0	0	0	0	0	438	1,095
Euchaeta antarctica V	0	0	0	0	27	0	0
Euchaeta antarctica IV	0	0	0	0	27	0	0
Euchaeta antarctica III	55	55	110	110	0	164	219
Euchaeta antarctica II	110	164	739	0	0	0	438
Euchaeta antarctica I	0	82	274	438	0	0	0
Euchirella rostrata/rostramagna	0	0	27	0	0	0	0
Haloptilus	0	27	0	0	0	82	27
Heterorhabdus	0	27	27	0	55	0	0
Eucalanus longiceps	0	0	0	0	0	0	27
Metridia gerlachei adult	164	356	1,013	465	55	110	192
Metridia lucens adult	0	0	465	246	301	0	0
Metridia male	110	27	55	0	0	0	0
Metridia I-III	14,455	17,959	27,595	15,769	3,395	15,331	33,289
Metridia IV-V	2,847	3,066	3,504	5,256	767	0	1,752
Pleuromamma rob.	0	0	55	0	0	0	0
Oithona similis	121,768	137,099	122,206	123,082	30,552	68,769	184,843
Oithona frigida	876	3,504	3,066	438	986	2,628	0
Oncaea	10,074	9,198	16,207	4,818	14,783	4,818	12,264
Scolecithricella minor	903	712	1,040	1,314	110	137	0
Scaphocalanus farrani	0	0	27	0	0	0	0
Scaphocalanus copepodites	0	0	164	0	0	0	0
Microcalanus	1,314	2,628	8,760	2,190	876	7,884	7,008
Ctenocalanus	55,190	33,289	21,463	25,843	5,366	17,083	65,702
Cteno/Micro copepodites	0	0	0	0	2,628	0	3,504
Clausocalanus laticeps	630	164	438	438	0	110	0
Clausocalanus copepodites	0	438	438	0	0	0	876
Drepanopus 1-3	876	7,884	5,694	7,008	0	0	0
Drepanopus 4-6	0	876	438	0	0	0	0

	JR291					JR304	
	P3				P2		
Species and Stage	E072	E126	E131	E137	E44	E38	E40
Racovitzanus	0	27	0	0	0	0	0
Calanus nauplii	8,322	7,446	26,719	18,835	14,126	12,264	28,909
Cyclopoi nauplii	0	0	2,190	4,380	6,023	0	0
Thysanoessa calyptopes	1,205	0	1,752	0	329	1,424	1,697
Thysanoessa spp.	277	137	82	274	110	5,858	1,451
Euphausia frigida	86	27	0	0	0	0	0
Euphausia frigida calyptopis	110	0	0	438	0	411	770
Euphausia frigida furcilia	55	0	82	192	0	110	55
Euphausia triacantha calyptopis	0	0	0	0	0	0	27
Chaetognatha	1,314	958	1,040	931	137	356	1,560
Tomopteris	0	0	82	438	0	110	0
Pelagobia	1,752	438	1,314	3,504	1,971	6,570	5,256
Rhynchonerella bongraini	0	0	0	0	0	27	0
Themisto gaudichaudi	21	0	0	0	0	0	55
Ostracoda	14	164	548	356	137	356	301
Pteropoda	0	0	0	876	0	1,752	876
Limacina (large)	0	0	0	0	0	110	0
Spongiobranchea	0	27	0	0	0	0	0
Appendicularians	6,570	10,074	20,149	35,479	2,957	15,331	33,289
Siphonophora	0	55	329	110	0	0	0
Fish larvae	0	0	0	0	0	27	0
Medusae	0	55	0	0	0	0	0
Primno macropa	0	27	0	0	0	0	0

761Table S3: Sinking velocities and volumes of FP (excluding krill FP) collected in Marine Snow Catchers at P2 and P3 during<br/>research cruises JR291 and JR304.

<u>Site</u>	<u>FP volume</u>	FP sinking	Site	<u>FP volume</u>	<u>FP sinking</u>
	(mm <sup>3</sup> )	velocity (m d <sup>-1</sup> )		(mm <sup>3</sup> )	velocity (m d <sup>-1</sup> )
<u>P2</u>	<u>0.040</u> <u>0.031</u>	<u>144</u> 270	<u>P3</u> P2	<u>0.010</u> <u>0.027</u>	<u>75</u> 57
<u>P2</u>	<u>0.031</u> <u>0.008</u>	<u>270</u> 52	<u>P3</u> P2	<u>0.027</u> <u>0.002</u>	<u>57</u>
<u>P2</u>		<u>52</u>	<u>P3</u> P2		<u>48</u> 87
<u>P2</u>	<u>0.040</u>	<u>144</u> 125	<u>P3</u>	<u>0.026</u>	<u>87</u>
<u>P2</u>	<u>0.031</u>	<u>135</u>	<u>P3</u>	<u>0.002</u>	<u>51</u>
<u>P2</u>	<u>0.057</u>	<u>134</u>	<u>P3</u>	<u>0.005</u>	<u>68</u>
<u>P2</u>	<u>0.019</u>	<u>342</u>	<u>P3</u>	<u>0.014</u>	<u>49</u>
<u>P2</u>	<u>0.011</u>	<u>382</u>	<u>P3</u>	<u>0.028</u>	<u>92</u>
<u>P2</u>	<u>0.072</u>	<u>247</u>	<u>P3</u>	<u>0.023</u>	<u>106</u>
<u>P2</u>	<u>0.044</u>	<u>101</u>	<u>P3</u>	<u>0.009</u>	<u>24</u>
<u>P2</u>	<u>0.007</u>	<u>193</u>	<u>P3</u>	<u>0.091</u>	<u>92</u>
<u>P2</u>	<u>0.017</u>	<u>116</u>	<u>P3</u>	<u>0.066</u>	<u>140</u>
<u>P2</u>	<u>0.035</u>	<u>207</u>	<u>P3</u>	<u>0.012</u>	<u>57</u>
<u>P2</u>	<u>0.002</u>	<u>246</u>	<u>P3</u>	<u>0.006</u>	<u>65</u>
<u>P2</u>	<u>0.016</u>	<u>61</u>	<u>P3</u>	<u>0.010</u>	<u>62</u>
<u>P2</u>	<u>0.001</u>	<u>120</u>	<u>P3</u>	<u>0.006</u>	<u>64</u>
<u>P2</u>	<u>0.003</u>	<u>98</u>	<u>P3</u>	<u>0.002</u>	<u>47</u>
			<u>P3</u>	<u>0.037</u>	<u>36</u>
			<u>P3</u>	<u>0.031</u>	<u>53</u>
			<u>P3</u>	<u>0.014</u>	<u>122</u>
			<u>P3</u>	<u>0.021</u>	<u>36</u>
			<u>P3</u>	<u>0.077</u>	<u>100</u>
			<u>P3</u>	<u>0.018</u>	<u>62</u>
			<u>P3</u>	<u>0.026</u>	<u>64</u>
			<u>P3</u>	<u>0.013</u>	<u>79</u>
			<u>P3</u>	<u>0.083</u>	<u>227</u>
			<u>P3</u>	<u>0.286</u>	<u>203</u>
			<u>P3</u>	<u>0.165</u>	<u>189</u>
			<u>P3</u>	0.007	<u>100</u>
			<u>P3</u>	0.006	<u>74</u>
			<u>P3</u>	0.005	13
			<u>P3</u>	0.115	<u>106</u>
			<u>P3</u>	0.021	<u>60</u>
			<u>P3</u>	0.005	<u>68</u>

	<u>P</u>	<u>3 0.</u>	018	<u>79</u>
	<u><u>P</u>:</u>	<u>3 0.</u>	<u>006</u>	<u>49</u>
	<u><u>P</u>:</u>	<u>3 0.</u>	<u>009</u>	<u>64</u>
	<u><u> </u></u>	<u>3 0.</u>	<u>003</u> <u>1</u>	<u>55</u>
	<u><u> </u></u>	<u>3 0.</u>	<u>005</u> <u>2</u>	.22
	<u><u>P</u>:</u>	<u>3 0.</u>	<u>256</u> <u>1</u>	44
	<u><u>P</u>:</u>	<u>3 0.</u>	002	<u>82</u>
	<u><u>P</u>:</u>	<u>3 0.</u>	<u>006</u> <u>1</u>	<u>33</u>
763				

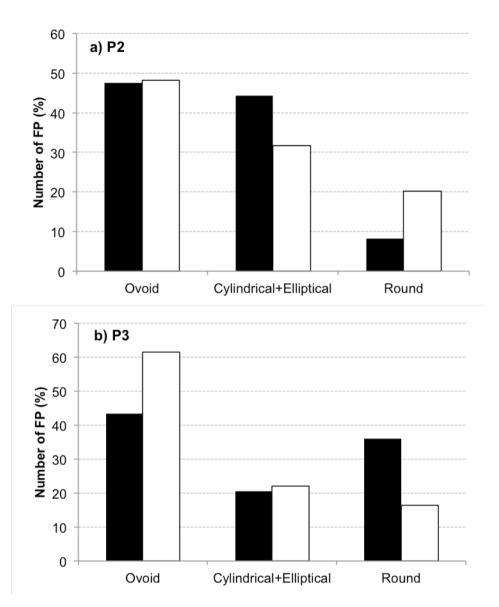


Figure S1: Comparison of sediment trap faecal pellet (FP) morphologies measured in this study (2013 and 2014, black) with those measured historically (2009 and 2010, white) at a) P2 and b) P3. Both studies are means of November and December data. The percent (%) of FP in each category is broadly consistent between study years (paired t-test p>0.5) providing support for our use of historical data for size comparisons with marine snow catcher data collected in 2013 and 2014.

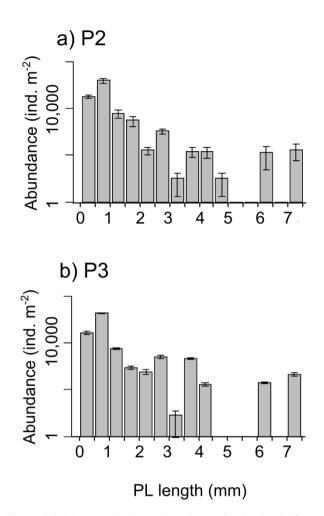


Figure S2: Mesozooplankton abundances in the Scotia Sea. Average (±SE) abundance (ind. m<sup>-2</sup>) from Bongo net tows (0-200 m, 200 μm mesh) taken during cruises JR291 and JR304 for a) P2 and b) P3. Note the log scale on the y axis.