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Biogeochemistry and carbon mass balance of a coccolithophore bloom in the northern Bay of Biscay (June 2006)

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ABSTRACT

Primary production (PP), calcification (CAL), bacterial production (BP) and dark community respiration (DCR) were measured along with a set of various biogeochemical variables, in early June 2006, at several stations at the shelf break of the northern Bay of Biscay. The cruise was carried out after the main spring diatom bloom that, based on the analysis of a time-series of remotely sensed chlorophyll-a (Chl-a), peaked in mid-April. Remotely sensed sea surface temperature (SST) indicated the occurrence of enhanced vertical mixing (due to internal tides) at the continental slope, while adjacent waters on the continental shelf were stratified, as confirmed by vertical profiles of temperature acquired during the cruise. The surface layer of the stratified water masses (on the continental shelf) was depleted of inorganic nutrients. Dissolved silicate (DSi) levels probably did not allow significant diatom development. We hypothesize that mixing at the continental slope allowed the injection of inorganic nutrients that triggered the blooming of mixed phytoplanktonic communities dominated by coccolithophores (*Emiliana huxleyi*) that were favoured with regards to diatoms due to the low DSi levels. Based on this conceptual frame, we used an indicator of vertical stratification to classify the different sampled stations, and to reconstruct the possible evolution of the bloom from the onset at the continental slope (triggered by vertical mixing) through its development as the water mass was advected on-shelf and stratified. We also established a carbon mass balance at each station by integrating in the photic layer PP, CAL and DCR. This allowed computation at each station of the contribution of PP, CAL and DCR to CO₂ fluxes in the photic layer, and how they changed from one station to another along the sequence of bloom development (as traced by the stratification indicator). This also showed a shift from net autotrophy to net heterotrophy as the water mass aged (stratified), and suggested the importance of extracellular production of carbon to sustain the bacterial demand in the photic and aphotic layers.

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1. Introduction

During coccolithophore blooms, carbon (C, all abbreviations are defined in Table 1) cycling in the photic zone is driven by the production and degradation of organic matter (primary production (PP) and community respiration), and the production and dissolution of biogenic calcite (CaCO₃). Both processes transfer C to depth and impact on the speciation of dissolved inorganic C (DIC) and CO₂ flux across the air–sea interface (Purdie and Finch, 1994; Buitenhuis et al., 1996, 2001; Crawford and Purdie, 1997;

Frankignoulle and Borges, 2001; Suykens et al., 2010a). Changes of C fluxes of pelagic calcifiers under ocean acidification (e.g., Orr et al., 2005), namely a decrease in calcification rates, could provide a negative feedback in response to increasing atmospheric CO₂ as suggested by controlled experiments either in cultures (e.g., Riebesell et al., 2000; Sciandra et al., 2003; De Bodt et al., 2008, 2010) or mesocosms (e.g., Delille et al., 2005; Riebesell et al., 2007). Further, due to their relatively large contribution to the phytoplanktonic community, and their complex life cycle which alternates between naked and calcified forms, the effect of coccolithophores on CO₂ fluxes is variable during bloom development, altering the ratio of calcification (CAL) to PP (Billard and Inoué, 2004). Understanding and quantifying the C cycling associated with coccolithophore blooms under natural conditions is needed to correctly parameterize and validate biogeochemical

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Table 1
List and definition of abbreviations used in text.

Abbreviation	Definition
%O ₂	Oxygen saturation
AVHRR	Advanced very high resolution radiometer
BOD	Biological oxygen demand
BP	Bacterial production
C	Carbon
CaCO ₃	Calcium carbonate
CAL	Calcification
Chl-a	Chlorophyll-a
CO ₂	Carbon dioxide
CTD	Conductivity-temperature-depth
DCR	Dark community respiration
DIC	Dissolved inorganic carbon
DSi	Dissolved silicate concentration
GPP	Gross primary production
HPLC	High performance liquid chromatography
HR	High reflectance
K _d	Diffuse attenuation coefficient
L _{wm} (555)	Normalized water-leaving radiance at 555 nm
MLD	Mixed layer depth
MODIS	Moderate-resolution imaging spectrometer
NMCF	Net metabolic carbon flux
NCP	Net community production
O ₂	Oxygen
PAR	Photosynthetically active radiation
pCO ₂	Partial pressure of carbon dioxide
PIC	Particulate inorganic carbon
PO ₄	Phosphate concentration
POC	Particulate organic carbon
PP	Primary production
PP _d	Dissolved primary production
PP _{tot}	Total primary production
SeaWiFS	Sea-viewing Wide Field-of-view Sensor
SST	Sea surface temperature
TCA	Trichloroacetic acid
TEP	Transparent exopolymer particles
TEP-C	Transparent exopolymer particles carbon concentration
TPC	Total particulate carbon
UML	Upper mixed layer

models that aim at predicting feedbacks related to ocean acidification and incorporate knowledge obtained from perturbation laboratory experiments.

Coccolithophore blooms have an identifiable spectral signature (reflectance) on the 555 nm band from remote sensing (Balch et al., 2005, 2007; Balch and Utgoff, 2009) and have frequently been observed in the English Channel (GREPMA, 1988; Garcia-Soto et al., 1995), the Celtic Sea and the Bay of Biscay (Holligan et al., 1983; Garcia-Soto and Pingree, 2009; Harlay et al., 2010; Suykens et al., 2010a) from high reflectance (HR) patches on satellite images. These HR patches have been attributed to blooms of the coccolithophore *Emiliania huxleyi*, which can reach concentrations above 10⁸ liths L⁻¹ (Holligan et al., 1993).

We carried out a survey at the continental margin of the northern Bay of Biscay in early June 2006 when a HR patch associated with a coccolithophore bloom was observed. We report physico-chemical and biogeochemical parameters (temperature, nutrients, chlorophyll-a (Chl-a), and oxygen saturation (%O₂)), elemental composition of suspended particulate matter as well as community metabolic rates like the daily rates of CAL, PP, bacterial production (BP), and dark community respiration (DCR). Remotely sensed images and the output of a physical model were used to analyse the seasonal phytoplankton dynamics. Finally, based on community metabolic rate measurements, we compute and discuss a C mass balance for the photic zone.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Study site

The study area is at the shelf break of the Celtic Sea in the northern Bay of Biscay, located in the eastern North Atlantic Ocean (Fig. 1). The topography of the shelf-edge of the northern Bay of Biscay defines the particular physical conditions at the La Chapelle Bank and the Meriadzek Terrace: combined to strong tidal currents,

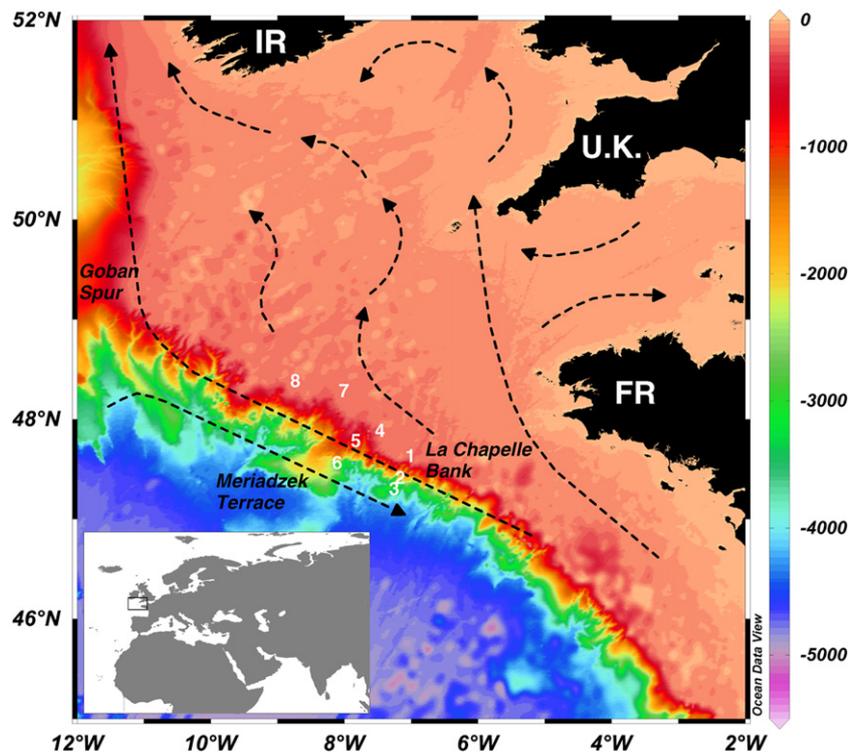


Fig. 1. Map of the northern Bay of Biscay showing bathymetry (Smith and Sandwell, 1997), the location of the stations and surface currents (Pingree and Le Cann, 1989; Pingree, 1993; Pingree et al., 1999 and Huthnance et al., 2001). The stations 1 and 4 were revisited after 9 and 6 days, respectively, and referred to as 1bis and 4bis in the text.

the steep slope enhances shear stress and generates internal tides and turbulence which favours vertical mixing (Pingree and New, 1995). These hydrographic properties are evidenced by the distribution of sea surface temperature (SST) on satellite images, where a cold patch of water stretches during spring and summer, when sufficient stratification has developed, between the 200 m and the 2000 m isobaths (Wollast and Chou, 2001). The vertical mixing occurs by pulses at the shelf break and erodes the seasonal thermocline leading to the upward transport of deeper water, sustaining biological activity during spring and summer by supplying nutrients to the photic zone (Pingree et al., 1986; Joint et al., 2001; Wollast and Chou, 2001; Sharples et al., 2007, 2009). Sharples et al. (2007) showed that during spring tides, enough nitrate pulses are released to the photic zone to sustain new production of phytoplankton and to induce shifts in the plankton community on a fortnightly basis (spring and neap tide oscillations). The use of phytoplankton pigments used as biomarkers indicates that the most abundant taxa are prymnesiophytes, among which the coccolithophore *E. huxleyi*, with two short blooms of diatoms in spring and fall (Joint et al., 2001). Along-slope currents north-western winds contribute to the advection of surface waters and general cross-slope water motion (Huthnance et al., 2001; Sharples et al., 2007).

2.2. Sampling strategy

Samples were collected at the continental margin between 31 May and 9 June 2006 (Fig. 1; Table 2). The cruise was split into two legs (first leg: 31st May to 3rd June; second leg: 5th June to 9th June), during which two stations (1 and 4) were revisited after 9 and 6 days, respectively, and named 1bis and 4bis. The stations were located over the continental shelf at depths < 180 m (stations 1, 4, 7 and 8) and along the shelf break and slope at depths of ~600 m (stations 2 and 5) and ~1600 m (stations 3 and 6).

2.3. Vertical hydrography and light attenuation

A Seabird CTD (SBE21), with a rosette sampler of 12 Niskin bottles (10 L), was used to determine vertical profiles of temperature and salinity, and to collect seawater for chemical and biological analyses.

At each station, water was collected at dawn at 3, 20, 40, 60, 80, 100 and 150 m depth. Vertical profiles of *in situ* photosynthetic active radiation (PAR) were acquired in the water column with a Seabird SBE19 equipped with a LiCor Li-192-SA PAR sensor, around noon for each station. From the PAR profile, the downwelling diffuse attenuation coefficient K_d (m^{-1}) and the photic depth (corresponding to 1% of the incoming PAR) were determined.

2.4. Inorganic nutrients

Samples were filtered through 0.4 μm Nuclepore filters and preserved at $-20^\circ C$ for total phosphate (PO_4) and $4^\circ C$ for dissolved silicate (DSi) until analysis. Seawater PO_4 and DSi concentrations were measured colorimetrically with the molybdate/ascorbic acid method (Grasshoff et al., 1983).

2.5. Photosynthetic pigments concentration

2.5.1. Fluorometric determination of Chl-a

Chl-a concentration was determined fluorometrically according to Yentsch and Menzel (1963): 250 ml of seawater was filtered through a glass fibre filter (47 mm Whatman GF/F) which was then wrapped in aluminium foil and stored on board at $-20^\circ C$ before analysis. Extraction of pigments was carried out overnight at $-20^\circ C$ in the dark, in 10 ml 90% acetone and centrifuged for 10 min at 5000 rpm before the fluorescence measurement with a Shimadzu RF-1501 spectrofluorophotometer.

2.5.2. High performance liquid chromatographic (HPLC) determination of pigments

About 500–3500 ml of seawater was filtered through glass fibre filters (47 mm Whatman GF/F) that were subsequently stored in liquid nitrogen onboard the ship and during transport. Extraction of the pigments was performed in 90% acetone. The frozen filters were cut into small pieces (several mm \times 1 cm) and sonicated (pulses) for 30 s (50 W) in a centrifuge tube with 3.5 ml 90% acetone. The extracts were cleared from debris by filtering through a 0.2 μm Teflon syringe filter after centrifuging at $-5^\circ C$ for 4 min at 700g. The HPLC method, based on Wright and Jeffrey (1997), allowed separation of the different pigments that were used to estimate the

Table 2

Stations, sampling date, location, depth, MLD (in m), photic depth, SST ($^\circ C$), pCO_2 (μatm , from Suykens et al., 2010a) and $\%O_2$ (%), PO_4 and DSi concentrations ($\mu mol L^{-1}$) in surface waters, integrated concentration of Chl-a ($mg m^{-2}$), POC and PIC ($g C m^{-2}$), PIC:POC ratio, integrated rates in the photic zone of PP, CAL, BP ($mg C m^{-2} d^{-1}$), DCR ($mmol O_2 m^{-2} d^{-1}$), and CAL:PP ratio in the northern Bay of Biscay in June 2006 (the cruise was split into two legs: first leg from 31st May to 3rd June; second leg from 5th June to 9th June). Some of the variables were not determined at some stations ("nd").

Station	1	1bis	2	3	4	4bis	5	6	7	8
Date	31/05/2006	09/06/2006	01/06/2006	01/06/2006	02/06/2006	08/06/2006	02/06/2006	07/06/2006	07/06/2006	06/06/2006
Latitude ($^\circ N$)	47.7488	47.7499	47.5330	47.4168	48.0999	48.0997	47.9011	47.6786	48.3997	48.5003
Longitude ($^\circ W$)	7.0000	7.0010	7.1661	7.2651	7.5016	7.4999	7.9015	8.2093	8.0993	8.9011
Depth (m)	157	158	680	1826	162	167	527	1248	164	180
MLD (m)	32	22	40	21	34	23	53	16	20	19
photic depth (m)	30	37	31	nd	26	27	nd	nd	27	34
SST ($^\circ C$)	13.03	14.34	12.99	13.98	13.29	14.20	13.25	14.86	14.51	14.48
pCO_2 (μatm)	265	273	306	323	293	307	353	324	309	325
$\%O_2$ (%)	111	111	110	110	108	109	106	116	110	110
PO_4 ($\mu mol L^{-1}$)	0.00	0.03	0.08	0.46	0.04	0.04	0.12	0.04	0.01	0.04
DSi ($\mu mol L^{-1}$)	0.59	0.25	1.40	0.00	0.33	0.45	0.62	0.48	0.45	1.65
Integrated Chl-a ($mg Chl-a m^{-2}$)	90.2	36.6	130.3	nd	50.5	57.1	74.8	nd	48.3	34.9
Integrated POC ($g C m^{-2}$)	9.24	8.95	10.29	nd	6.93	4.40	nd	nd	10.46	8.56
Integrated PIC ($g C m^{-2}$)	6.64	2.48	8.04	nd	2.39	2.65	nd	nd	2.40	4.34
PIC:POC	0.72	0.28	0.78	nd	0.34	0.60	nd	nd	0.23	0.51
Integrated PP ($mg C m^{-2} d^{-1}$)	950	710	2160	nd	650	660	1170	nd	900	430
Integrated CAL ($mg C m^{-2} d^{-1}$)	90	190	620	nd	160	150	290	nd	430	160
CAL:PP	0.09	0.27	0.29	nd	0.24	0.23	0.25	nd	0.48	0.38
Integrated BP ($mg C m^{-2} d^{-1}$)	116	nd	48	nd	51	nd	nd	nd	53	47
Integrated DCR ($mmol O_2 m^{-2} d^{-1}$)	73.7	103.5	81.3	nd	78.9	101.2	nd	nd	81.4	104.3

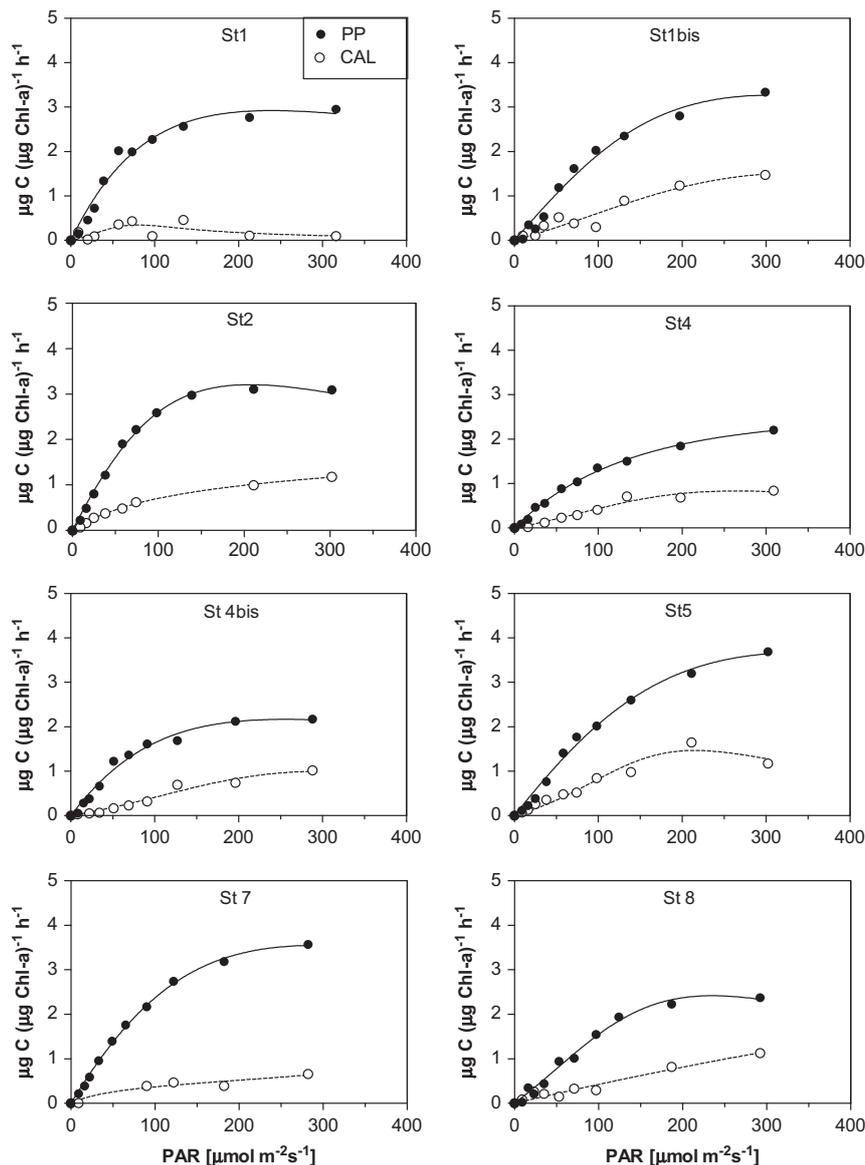


Fig. 2. Chl-a normalized ^{14}C primary production (PP, $\mu\text{g C } (\mu\text{g Chl-a})^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$) and calcification (CAL, $\mu\text{g C } (\mu\text{g Chl-a})^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$) versus irradiance (PAR, $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) in surface waters in northern Bay of Biscay in June 2006.

taxonomic composition of the phytoplankton community, expressed in % of total Chl-a for each phytoplankton group, according to the Bayesian Compositional Estimator (Van den Meersche et al., 2008). Standard pigment mixtures were used to allow identification and quantification of the detected pigment peaks in the chromatogram.

Fluorometric Chl-a was sampled with a higher vertical resolution than HPLC Chl-a; hence, hereafter, only the fluorometric Chl-a are shown and discussed, while the HPLC pigment data are used to discuss the taxonomic composition of phytoplankton.

2.6. Particulate organic (POC) and inorganic (PIC) carbon

Seawater (200–2000 ml) was filtered onto duplicate precombusted (4 h, 500 °C) 25 mm Whatman GF/F filters. The samples were stored at -20 °C until analysis. Within three months after the cruise, the filters were dried overnight at 50 °C. One set of the duplicate filters was acidified overnight under HCl fumes at room temperature in order to remove inorganic carbon. The filtered area

was stamped out with a calibrated punch in order to remove the external ring of the filter. Filters were packed in solvent-rinsed tin sample boats for analysis. The POC and the total particulate carbon (TPC) concentrations in the suspended matter were determined sequentially with a Fisons NA-1500 CHN microanalyzer. The PIC concentration was calculated by difference between TPC and POC. Five standards (STSD2, certified reference stream sediment from the Geological survey of Canada) and four blanks were used to derive the calibration with least-squares regression.

2.7. Processes measurements

2.7.1. ^{14}C primary production and calcification

PP and CAL were determined following the protocol given by Harlay et al. (2010) using an incubation period of 4 h. At each station, the response of PP and CAL to irradiance (PAR) (PP versus PAR and CAL versus PAR curves) were determined at the surface (3 m depth; Fig. 2) and integrated versus depth and time to determine daily rates of PP and CAL (Table 2).

2.7.2. Bacterial production

Bacterial production was determined by the incorporation of ^3H -thymidine. Samples (10–20 ml) were incubated in duplicate with 10 nM of ^3H -thymidine for 90 min in the dark close to *in situ* temperature. After incubation, samples were poisoned with 2% formalin and filtered on 0.2 μm polycarbonate filters. According to Fuhrman and Azam (1982), samples were rinsed with ice-cold 5% TCA and radio-assayed by liquid scintillation counting with Ultima Gold AB as scintillation cocktail. To calculate bacterial biomass production from thymidine incorporation, a conversion factor of 1.74×10^{18} cells mol^{-1} incorporated thymidine with an average cell volume of $0.03 \mu\text{m}^3$ was assumed (Kirchman, 1992). Furthermore, a carbon conversion factor of $0.3 \times 10^{-6} \mu\text{g C } \mu\text{m}^{-3} \text{ cell}^{-1}$ was used (Fuhrman and Azam, 1982).

2.8. Pelagic dark community respiration (DCR) and dissolved oxygen saturation (% O_2)

Water samples were collected from Niskin bottles in biological oxygen demand (BOD) bottles. Concentration of dissolved O_2 was measured by automated Winkler titration with potentiometric end-point detection using a Metrohm redox electrode (6.0451.100) and Metrohm titrator (Dosimat 625). Reagents and standardizations were similar to those described by Knap et al. (1996). The saturation concentration of seawater with respect to oxygen was computed with the algorithm given by Benson and Krause (1984).

DCR measurement was determined on 3 replicates (60 ml BOD bottles) fixed immediately after collection with the Winkler reagents while 3 other replicates were incubated for 24 h in the dark, cooled with running seawater pumped from 2.5 m depth. Dissolved O_2 in the water column was determined on 50 ml subsamples from a 300 ml BOD bottle.

2.9. Integration of the data

As a way of reconstructing the bloom sequence and succession of the mixed phytoplankton community, and showing how this creates an ecological niche favourable for coccolithophores, available biogeochemical parameters and processes were plotted against the difference of seawater density between 100 and 3 m

($\Delta\rho_{100\text{m}-3\text{m}}$). The $\Delta\rho_{100\text{m}-3\text{m}}$ values are used as indicators of the degree of stratification of the water column, and this approach was preferred because it is easily computed and is sufficient for the purpose of the analysis. The use of mixed layer depth (MLD) as a descriptor for stratification gave similar patterns as $\Delta\rho_{100\text{m}-3\text{m}}$ (not shown).

3. Results

3.1. Seasonal evolution of key remotely sensed biological and modelled physical variables

Time-series from late winter to late summer 2006 of remotely sensed Chl-a, and normalized water-leaving radiance at 555 nm ($L_{\text{wn}}(555)$), and modelled key physical variables (upper mixed layer (UML) and SST) were used to set our cruise in the frame of the overall seasonal cycle of phytoplankton biomass, and the physical conditions prevailing in the area before and after the cruise. Chl-a increased rapidly in early April 2006 with the onset of the spring bloom and peaked in mid-April (Fig. 3), in agreement with previous observations in the area (Wollast and Chou, 2001; Hydes et al., 2001; Joint et al., 2001). A second peak of Chl-a was observed three weeks later, after which Chl-a concentration decreased, and remained low from early July onwards. After the second peak of Chl-a, $L_{\text{wn}}(555)$ representing the backscatter of suspended calcite, hence of the coccolithophore cells and liths, increased by 3-fold from winter values ($0.3\text{--}0.5 \text{ mW cm}^{-2} \mu\text{m}^{-1} \text{ sr}^{-1}$) to peak in mid-May ($\sim 1.1 \text{ mW cm}^{-2} \mu\text{m}^{-1} \text{ sr}^{-1}$) one week before our cruise, and decreased to background level in late June. In mid-April, SST started to increase from the winter value ($\sim 11^\circ\text{C}$), coinciding with the first peak of Chl-a. The UML depth started shoaling in mid-April to attain, in mid-May, a value of ~ 35 m, corresponding to the depth of the photic layer. $L_{\text{wn}}(555)$ started to increase when the mixed layer depth attained a value of ~ 35 m, to peak about three weeks later, in mid-May, concomitantly to an increase of SST. A deepening of the UML and a decrease of SST occurred just before the start of the cruise, due to stormy weather, and coincided with a decrease of $L_{\text{wn}}(555)$. The possible scenario underlying this decrease of $L_{\text{wn}}(555)$ is a mixing of surface water and a redistribution of the

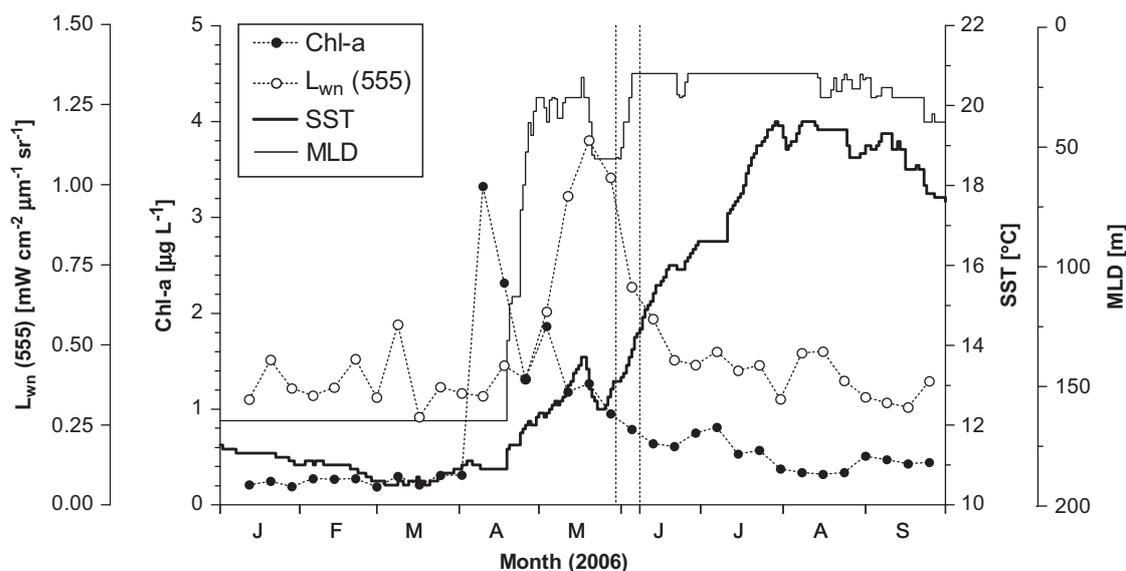


Fig. 3. Time series from January to September 2006 of remotely sensed weekly Chl-a concentrations ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) (left axis) and $L_{\text{wn}}(555)$ ($\text{mW cm}^{-2} \mu\text{m}^{-1} \text{ sr}^{-1}$; left axis), modelled MLD (m; right axis) and SST ($^\circ\text{C}$; right axis) for a box in the northern Bay of Biscay [$48.5^\circ\text{--}48.0^\circ\text{N}$; $8.0^\circ\text{--}7.5^\circ\text{W}$]. The vertical dotted lines correspond to the period of the cruise (31 May to 9 June 2006). Chl-an and $L_{\text{wn}}(555)$ are Level-3 Sea-viewing Wide Field-of-view Sensor data (<http://reason.gsfc.nasa.gov/Giovanni/>), and MLD and SST were simulated by Met Office National Centre for Ocean Forecasting for the North-East Atlantic $1/8^\circ$ model.

suspended matter through the water column. The period of the cruise coincided with a period of thermal re-stratification with an increase of SST and a shoaling of the UML depth that remained close to 25 m until September as SST increased up to 19 °C.

3.2. Biogeochemical settings in June 2006

The cruise was carried out with the support of near-real time remotely sensed images of SST, Chl-a and reflectance (Fig. 4). Along the shelf break, several patches of cold water (SST < 14 °C) were observed in the studied area (Fig. 4a), corresponding to the signature of enhanced vertical mixing due to internal tides (Pingree et al., 1999; Wollast and Chou 2001). These patches of cold waters were characterized by lower Chl-a levels (~0.4 µg L⁻¹) and were surrounded by waters exhibiting higher Chl-a values (> 0.8 µg L⁻¹) on-shelf and off-shore (Fig. 4b). This was related to the propagation of these nutrient rich colder waters from the shelf-break off- and on-shore due to baroclinic eddy activity along the edges of the cold water patch (Sharpley et al., 2007, 2009; Jonathan Sharples, pers. comm., 2010), leading to enhanced biological activity as they warm and stratify. As these water-masses propagated further on the shelf, phytoplankton activity caused nutrient exhaustion and solar irradiance induced a warming leading to stratification. Hence, the high Chl-a waters were confined close to the shelf-break (Fig. 4b). The sampled stations were located in relatively warm areas (SST > 13 °C) characterized by moderate (0.80 µg L⁻¹; station 8) to higher (1.62 µg L⁻¹; station 6) Chl-a values. Several HR patches associated with moderate Chl-a concentrations were located on-shelf bordering the shelf-break, clustered mainly around 50°N and 48°N (Fig. 4c). Our sampling stations were distributed within and around a HR patch that was centred at the location of station 4.

The vertical profiles of temperature in Fig. 5 agree with remotely sensed SST (Fig. 4a), with temperatures in surface waters ranging from 13.0 to 14.0 °C (Table 2) during the first leg (stations 1–5). An increase of ~1 °C was observed during the second leg, with SST values ranging from 14.2 to 14.9 °C (stations 6, 7, 8, 4bis and 1bis). The upper part of the water column was stratified with MLD ranging between 20 and 80 m (Fig. 5; Table 2). Stations located on the continental slope (2 and 5) showed less stratification due to enhanced vertical mixing related to internal tides (Pingree et al., 1999; Wollast and Chou 2001). Stratification increased from the first to the second leg. The photic depth ranged between 26 and 37 m (stations 7 and 1bis, respectively; Table 2).

Surface waters were depleted in PO₄ with concentrations below or close to 0.1 µmol L⁻¹ at all stations except station 3 (Fig. 6). The PO₄ concentration increased with depth to 0.5 µmol L⁻¹ below the photic zone. DSi exhibited a lesser depletion than PO₄ but concentrations remained below 2.0 µmol L⁻¹ in the UML. DSi concentrations in surface waters were close to 0.6 µmol L⁻¹, except at stations 2 and 8, where values ~1.5 µmol L⁻¹ were measured (Fig. 6).

Chl-a concentration profiles exhibited higher values in the photic zone, ranging between 0.2 µg L⁻¹ (station 1bis) and 2.0 µg L⁻¹ (station 2; Fig. 7). Station 2 showed the highest Chl-a concentration with values > 1.0 µg L⁻¹ down to 60 m depth. At station 8, Chl-a concentration was lower than 1.0 µg L⁻¹ over the entire water column. The vertical distribution of Chl-a at the revisited stations showed a decrease of 40–50% in surface waters and a deepening of the sub-surface maximum to the bottom of the UML (stations 1bis

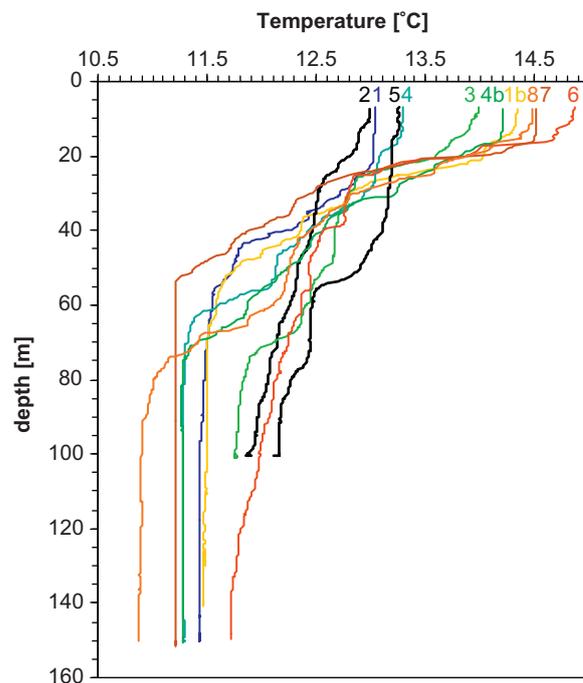


Fig. 5. Vertical profiles of temperature (°C) at the different station in northern Bay of Biscay in June 2006. Black profiles correspond to the stations (2 and 5) located on the continental slope.

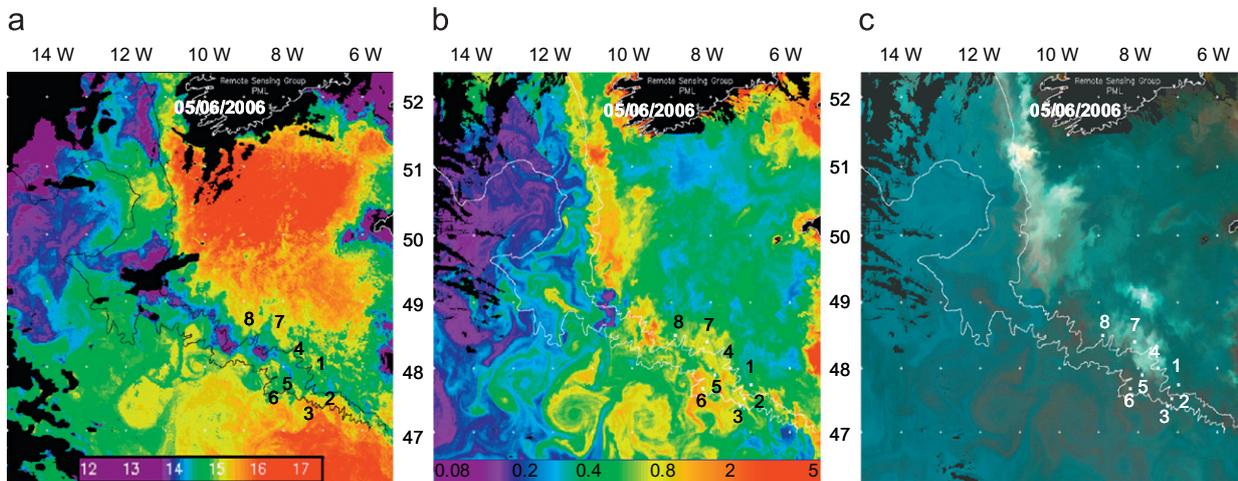


Fig. 4. a- Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR) SST (5th June 2006) b- Moderate-resolution Imaging Spectrometer (MODIS) Chl-a (5th June 2006); c- MODIS false-colour reflectance composite (5th June 2006).

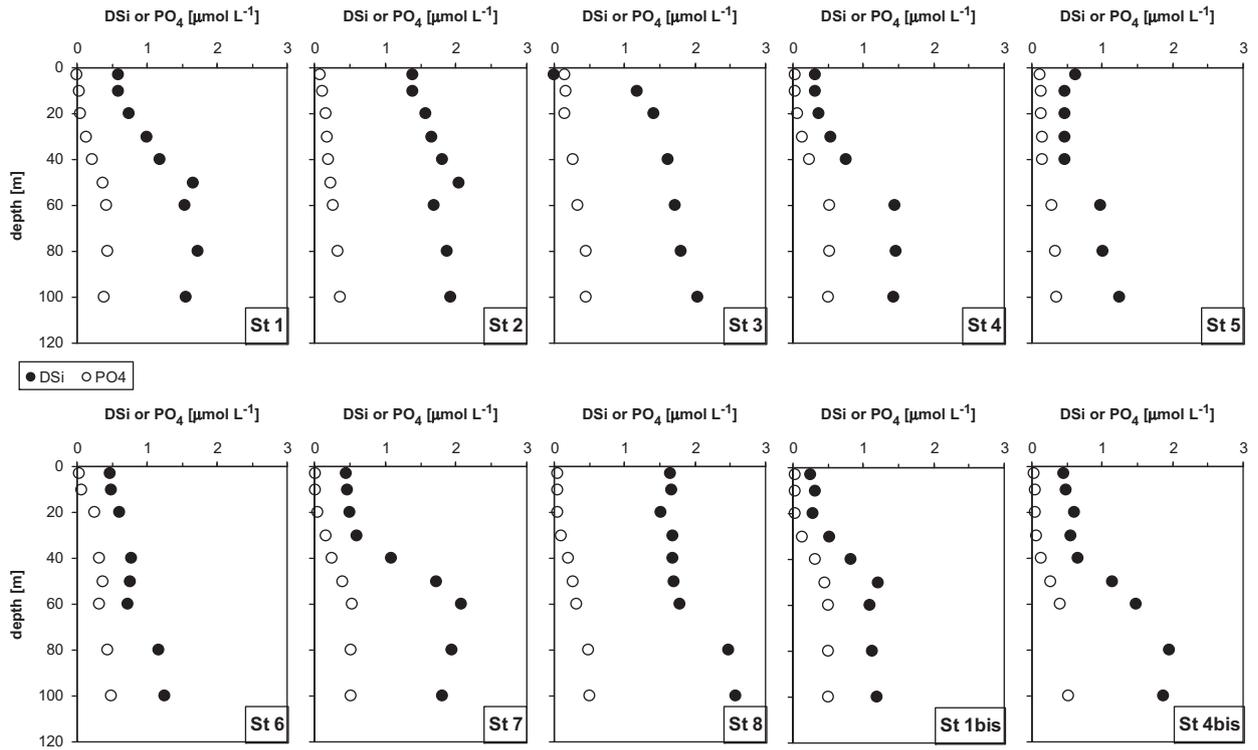


Fig. 6. Vertical profiles of PO_4 and DSi ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) in northern Bay of Biscay in June 2006. Stations 1, 4, 7 and 8 and the revisited stations 1bis and 4bis are located over the continental shelf, stations 2 and 5 are located over the continental slope, and stations 3 and 6 are deeper stations.

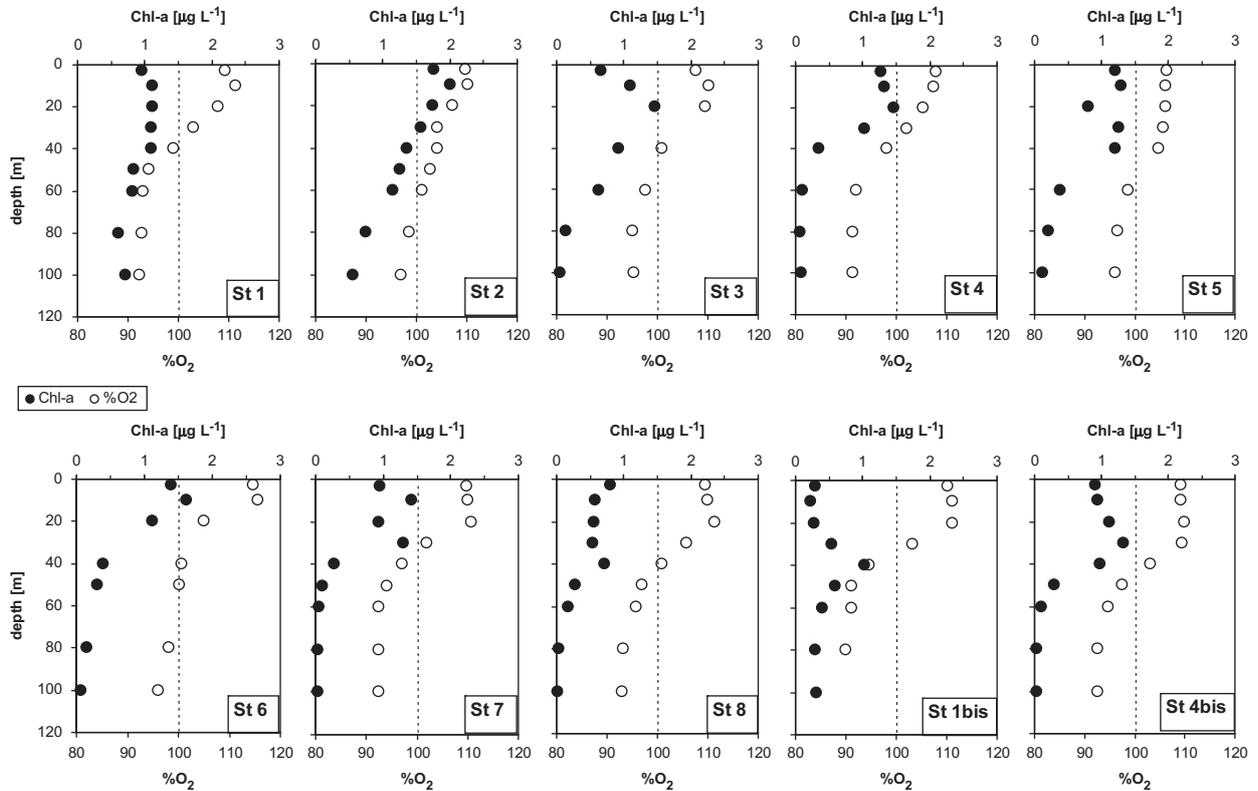


Fig. 7. Vertical profiles of Chl-a ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) and $\% \text{O}_2$ (%) in northern Bay of Biscay in June 2006. Stations 1, 4, 7 and 8 and the revisited stations 1bis and 4bis are located over the continental shelf, stations 2 and 5 are located over the continental slope, and stations 3 and 6 are deeper stations.

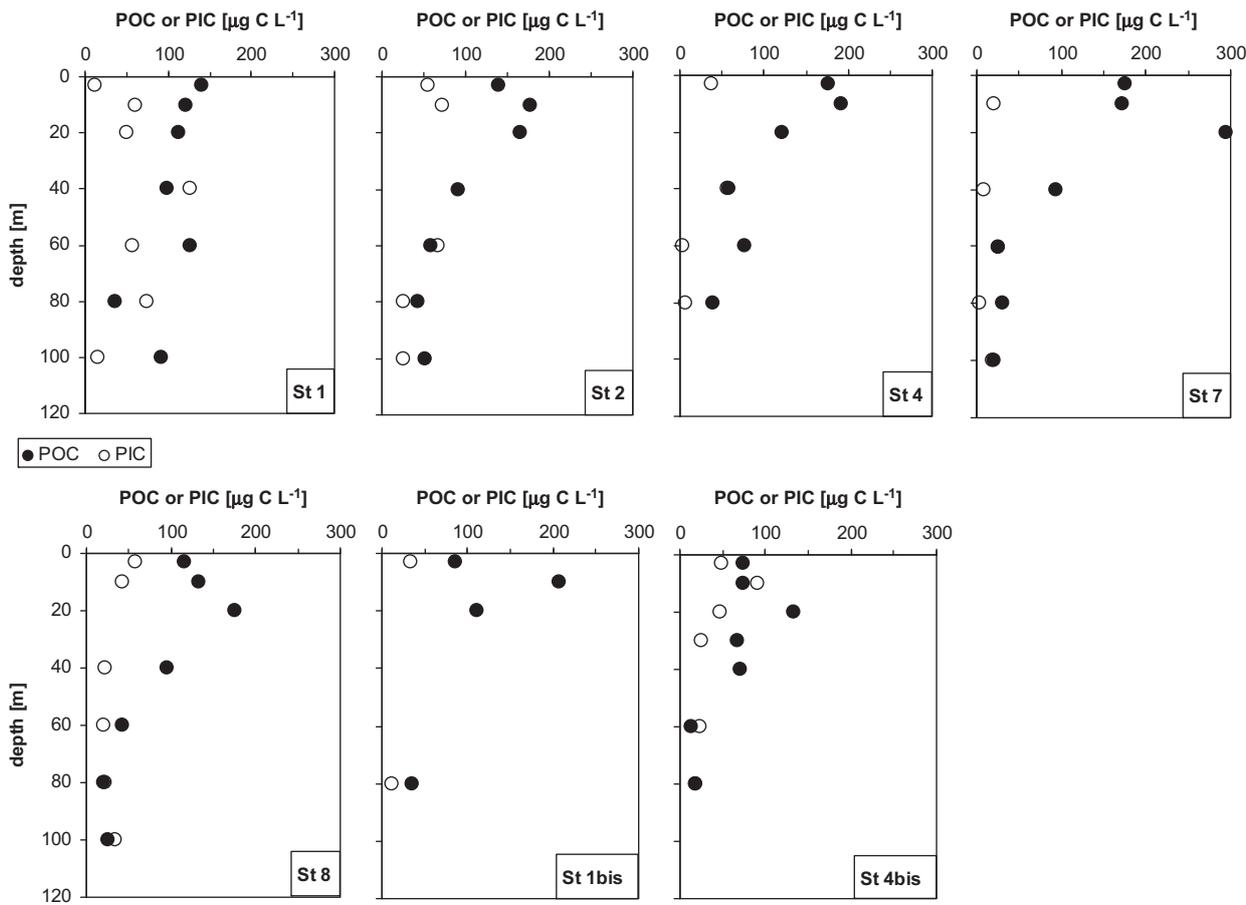


Fig. 8. Vertical profiles of POC and PIC concentrations ($\mu\text{g C L}^{-1}$) in northern Bay of Biscay in June 2006. Stations 1, 4, 7 and 8 and the revisited stations 1bis and 4bis are located over the continental shelf, station 2 is located over the continental slope, and stations 3, 5 and 6 were not sampled for this parameter.

and 4bis). The Chl-a concentration reported here was within the range reported by Rees et al. (2002) ($< 1.4 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) and Head et al. (1998) ($< 0.8 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$), during early stages of coccolithophore blooms in the North Sea.

Daily depth-integrated PP (Table 2) was globally lower than or close to $1000 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ except for station 2 (continental slope), where a maximum value of $2160 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ was observed (Table 2). The lowest PP rate was measured at station 8 ($430 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$), in the HR zone. These PP values were of the same magnitude to those reported in the same area in June 2004 (Harlay et al., 2010).

As a result of biological activity, the UML was oversaturated in O_2 with respect to atmospheric equilibrium down to 30–40 m depth (Fig. 7). Oxygen saturation increased up to 110% at the depth of the Chl-a maximum. The underlying waters remained undersaturated in O_2 with respect to atmospheric equilibrium, with levels never decreasing below 92%. The POC concentration ranged between 58 and $295 \mu\text{g C L}^{-1}$ in the top 40 m (at stations 4 and 7, respectively) (Fig. 8). The range of POC values in the photic layer was consistent with those determined during an early coccolithophore bloom in the northern North Sea in June 1994 ($200\text{--}230 \mu\text{g C L}^{-1}$; Marañón and González, 1997; Head et al., 1998), and in the northern Bay of Biscay in June 2004 ($42\text{--}86 \mu\text{g C L}^{-1}$; Harlay et al., 2010). The highest value ($295 \mu\text{g C L}^{-1}$ at 20 m, station 7) was close to those reported in a decaying bloom off Shetland in July 1993 ($336 \mu\text{g C L}^{-1}$; van der Wal et al., 1995). PIC in the water column ranged between 21 and $127 \mu\text{g C L}^{-1}$ (Fig. 8) due to the presence of coccolithophores, as supported by HPLC analysis of phytoplankton pigments (see hereafter), scanning

electron microscope images (not shown) that identified *E. huxleyi* as the most abundant species, and anomalies of total alkalinity (TA) measured during this cruise and reported by Suykens et al. (2010a). The PIC concentrations were typical for the study area (Harlay et al., 2010) and slightly higher than those reported in the northern North Sea in June 1994 ($26\text{--}50 \mu\text{g C L}^{-1}$; Head et al., 1998). The PIC:POC ratio ranged between 0.23 and 0.66, except at station 7 (~ 0.10) and in the surface sample at station 1 (~ 0.20). Values of the PIC:POC ratio were higher than those reported in the same area (0.20–0.30) in June 2004 (Harlay et al., 2010) and in the North Sea in June 1994 (< 0.25 ; Head et al., 1998).

Depth integrated CAL ranged from 90 to $620 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ at stations 1 and 2, respectively. The lowest CAL values, between 90 and $160 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ were observed at stations 1, 4 and 8. These values were in agreement with the rates determined in the same area in June 2004 (Harlay et al., 2010). At the revisited station 1bis, CAL increased by $100 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, and the PP decreased by $240 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ after 9 days. At the revisited station 4bis CAL decreased by $10 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ while PP increased by $10 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ after 6 days.

Values of DCR in sub-surface waters ranged between -2.2 and $-5.2 \text{ mmol O}_2 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ d}^{-1}$ at stations 1 and 8, respectively, and ranged between -0.1 and $-2.3 \text{ mmol O}_2 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ d}^{-1}$ below the photic zone (Fig. 9). At all stations, the vertical pattern of DCR paralleled the distribution of PP (Fig. 10) that exhibited higher values in the photic layer and considerably reduced values below the UML. These DCR values are consistent with those previously reported in surface waters during coccolithophore blooms, ranging from -2.9 to $-4.9 \text{ mmol O}_2 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in the North Atlantic in

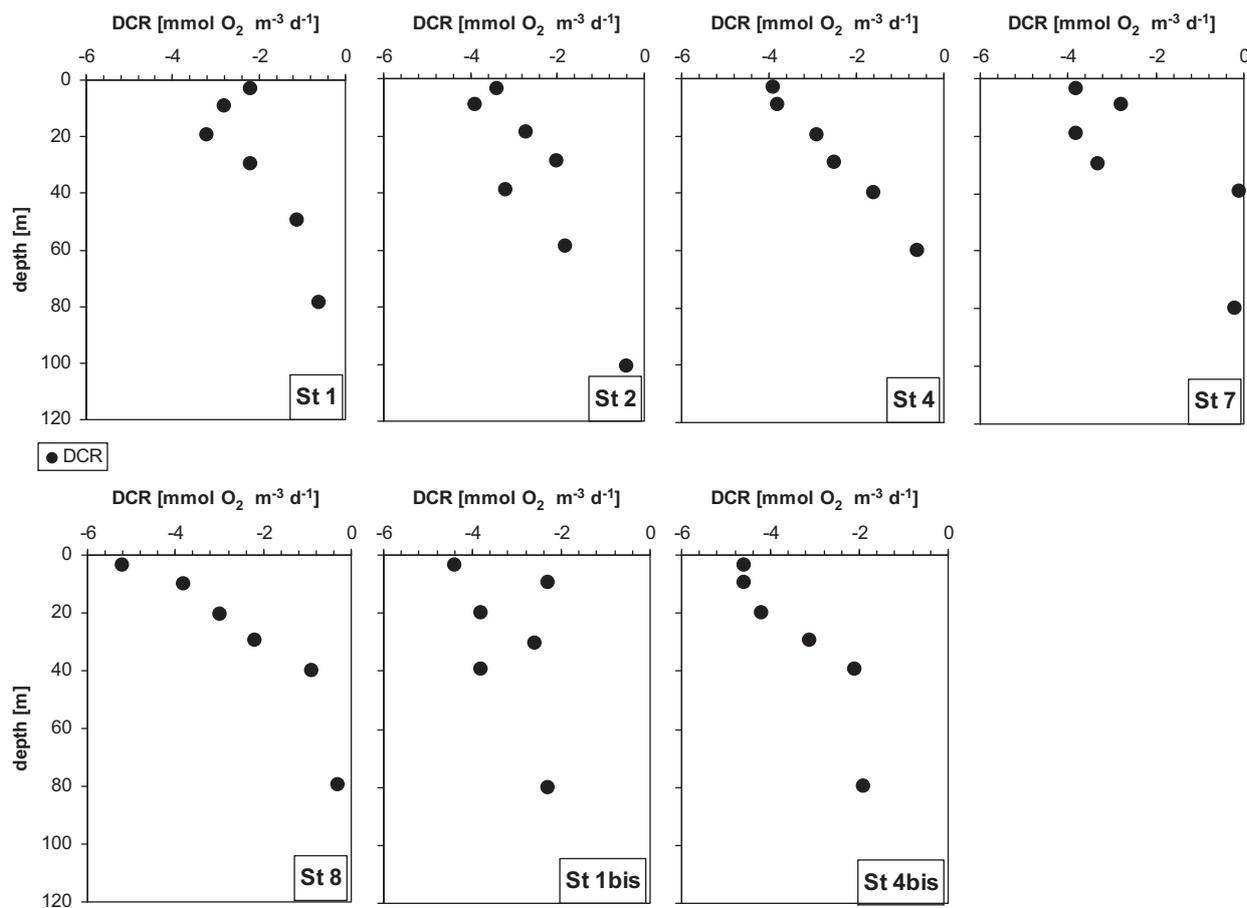


Fig. 9. Vertical profiles of DCR ($\text{mmol O}_2 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ d}^{-1}$) in northern Bay of Biscay in June 2006. Stations 1, 4, 7 and 8 and the revisited stations 1bis and 4bis are located over the continental shelf, station 2 is located over the continental slope, and stations 3, 5 and 6 were not sampled for this parameter.

June 1991 (Holligan et al., 1993) and from -1.8 to -3.7 $\text{mmol O}_2 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in the North Sea in June 1999 (Robinson et al., 2002).

The CAL to PP ratio (CAL:PP, Table 2) varied considerably from one station to another, ranging from 0.01 (station 8 at 20 m) to 1.13 (station 4bis at 3 m). The average CAL:PP ratio (0.29 ± 0.25 ; $n=18$) during our cruise was higher than that reported in the Bay of Biscay in June 2004 (range 0.02–0.31; average 0.16 ($n=11$); Harlay et al., 2010), than in the North Sea in July 1993 (0.03–0.18; van der Wal et al., 1995) and June 1994 (0.14–0.16; Head et al., 1998), and off Iceland in June 1991 (0.14–0.19; Fernández et al., 1993).

4. Discussion

Diatoms and coccolithophores are the two major groups having a significant impact on phytoplankton biomass during the spring–summer phytoplankton succession in the Bay of Biscay, but other phytoplankton groups like dinoflagellates, autotrophic prokaryotes (*Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus*) and autotrophic picoeukaryotes are also present (Hydes et al., 2001; Sharples et al., 2009). The analysis of the remotely sensed Chl-a shows that our cruise was after the main spring phytoplankton bloom in mid-April (Fig. 3) that is typically dominated by diatoms (Hydes et al., 2001; Joint et al., 2001). This is corroborated by the analysis of the distribution of biogeochemical variables showing very low DSI and PO_4 concentrations in surface waters, low Chl-a values, O_2 over-saturation and CO_2 under-saturation with respect to atmospheric equilibrium (Section 3.2, Table 2). The low DSI concentrations in the photic zone (Fig. 6) may have disadvantaged diatoms against coccolithophores

(Egge and Aksnes, 1992; Egge and Heimdal, 1994; Lessard et al., 2005) that in addition can rely on dissolved organic phosphorus to meet their phosphorous requirements (Riegman et al., 2000). The remotely sensed SST (Fig. 4) and vertical profiles of temperature (Fig. 5), suggest enhanced vertical mixing at the continental slope, associated nearby with relatively higher Chl-a values and HR. We hypothesize that mixing at continental slope allowed the injection of inorganic nutrients that triggered the blooming of mixed phytoplankton communities dominated by coccolithophores. Since the sampled stations were distributed along a spatial gradient from cool (low stratification) to warm (higher stratification) waters, we use hereafter an indicator of stratification ($\Delta\rho_{100 \text{ m}-3 \text{ m}}$) to classify the different sampled stations, and to reconstruct the possible evolution of the bloom from the onset at the continental slope (triggered by vertical mixing) through its development as the water mass was advected on-shelf and stratified.

4.1. Biogeochemical features due to the bloom development as determined by the degree of water column stratification

Stratification is one of the most important variables controlling PP and the succession of phytoplankton communities (e.g., Margalef, 1997). The increase of stratification leads to the decrease of vertical inputs of inorganic nutrients (Rost and Riebesell, 2004) and DIC (Borges et al., 2008) but enhances light conditions for phytoplankton development. Such environmental changes drive a succession of phytoplankton communities from diatoms to coccolithophores that exhibit higher tolerance for high light

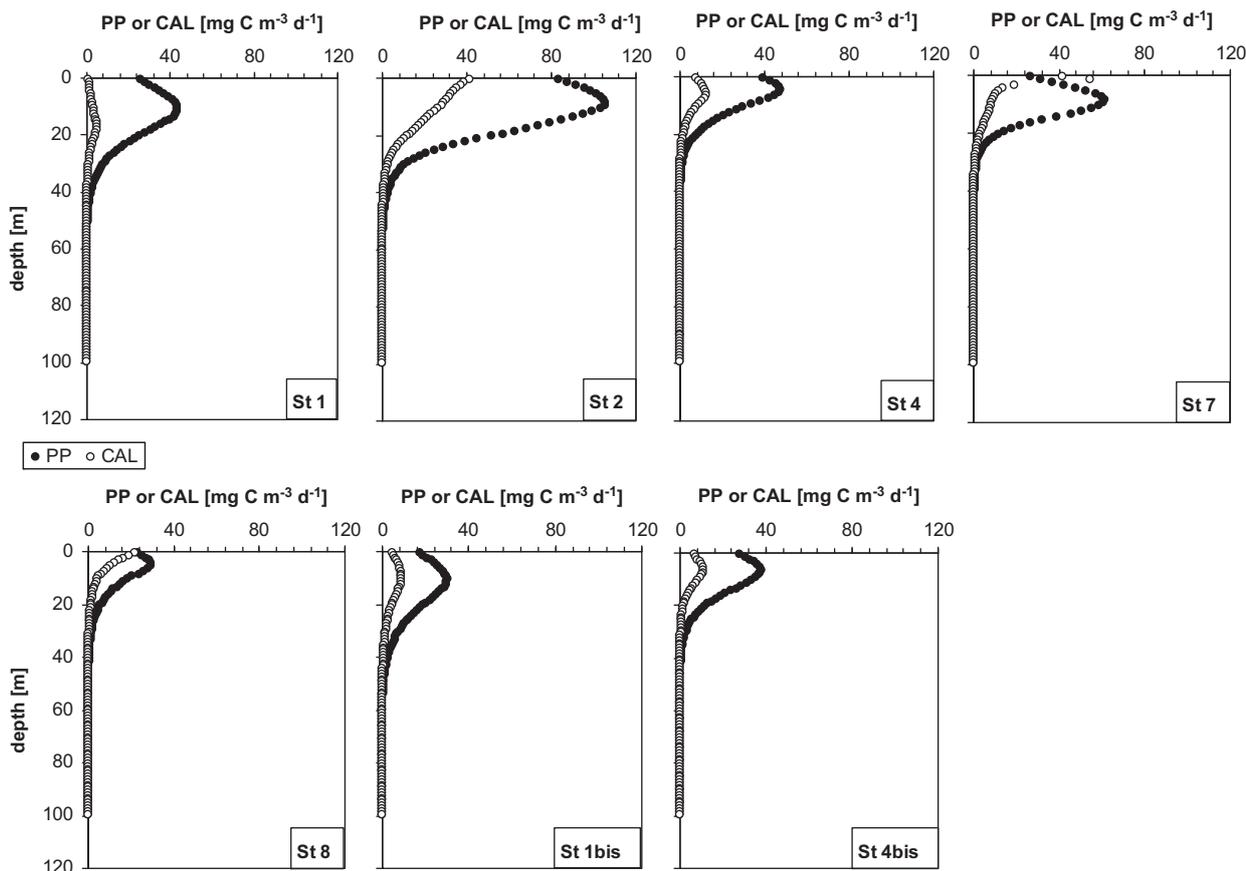


Fig. 10. Vertical profiles of PP and CAL ($\text{mg C m}^{-3} \text{d}^{-1}$) computed from PPvsPAR and CALvsPAR, respectively in northern Bay of Biscay in June 2006. Stations 1, 4, 7 and 8 and the revisited stations 1bis and 4bis are located over the continental shelf, station 2 is located over the continental slope, and stations 3, 5 and 6 were not sampled for this parameter.

(Balch et al., 1992; Nanninga and Tyrrell, 1996) and are associated with lower $p\text{CO}_2$ (Dong et al., 1993; Brownlee et al., 1994; Nimer et al., 1994). They are able to outcompete diatoms under low inorganic nutrient concentrations, and/or deviating from the Redfield stoichiometry. We attempted reconstructing the bloom sequence and succession of the mixed phytoplankton community and the ecological niche favourable for coccolithophores, by plotting biogeochemical parameters and processes against $\Delta\rho_{100\text{ m}-3\text{ m}}$ (Figs. 11–13).

The PO_4 concentrations in surface waters significantly decreased with increase in stratification whereas no clear trend was apparent for DSi in surface water that remained below $2.0 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ (Fig. 11). The decrease of PO_4 availability could explain the decrease of integrated Chl-a, indicative of the bloom ageing and in decline. With increasing stratification, PP decreased while CAL increased for stations over the shelf (Fig. 13).

The phytoplankton community was dominated by coccolithophores (Prymnesiophytes), representing about 42% of total Chl-a at the onset of the bloom (station 2, low stratification), and decreased with stratification (Fig. 11). The contribution of diatoms to total Chl-a was highly variable, ranging from 5% (station 8) to 44% (stations 7 and 4bis) and did not show any significant pattern with increasing stratification, but an increase with decrease in DSi concentrations. The low values of DSi (below $2.0 \mu\text{M}$) are likely to limit growth of large heavily silicified diatoms (Paasche, 1973; Egge and Aksnes, 1992). Microscopic observations showed a dominance, in terms of biovolume, of large and lightly silicified diatoms (*Rhizosolenia spp.*) which can explain the high abundances ($\sim 44\%$) at the stations 4bis and 7 with a high degree of stratification

(N. Van Oostende and K. Sabbe, unpublished results, 2010). The increase with stratification of phototrophic dinoflagellate biomass and of other groups (chrysophytes, prasinophytes, cryptophytes and cyanobacteria) is characteristic of coccolithophore bloom decline, and has also been observed in mesocosms (Riebesell et al., 2007).

A significant decrease of transparent exopolymer particles ($\text{TEP}-C_{\text{micro}}$ as reported for this cruise by Harlay et al., 2009) was observed with increasing stratification and nutrient depletion (Fig. 12). No clear pattern was observed in the POC concentration with increasing stratification, while PIC decreased, leading to a decrease in the PIC:POC ratio (Fig. 12). However, PP decreased and CAL increased with stratification, leading to a significant increase of the CAL:PP ratio ($r^2=0.79$) (Fig. 13). This suggests a decoupling between standing stocks of POC and PIC and their respective production rates, favouring export of biogenic material to depth. Stations located in the HR patch (4, 4bis, 7 and 8) showed low PIC compared to those at stations 1 and 2, located outside the HR patch. Indeed, the optical properties of this HR patch were due to abundant shed liths in surface waters (e.g., Holligan et al., 1993) and were not necessarily associated with high PIC concentrations. The increase of CAL (and CAL:PP ratio) for stations over the shelf (excluding stations 2 and 5) is characteristic of coccolithophore bloom development from high-PP and low-CAL during the early bloom phase to low-PP and high-CAL during stationary and declining bloom phases (Fig. 13). Such a change was accompanied by an increase of heterotrophic processes, as featured by the increase of DCR with stratification, although there was no pattern of BP with stratification (Fig. 13).

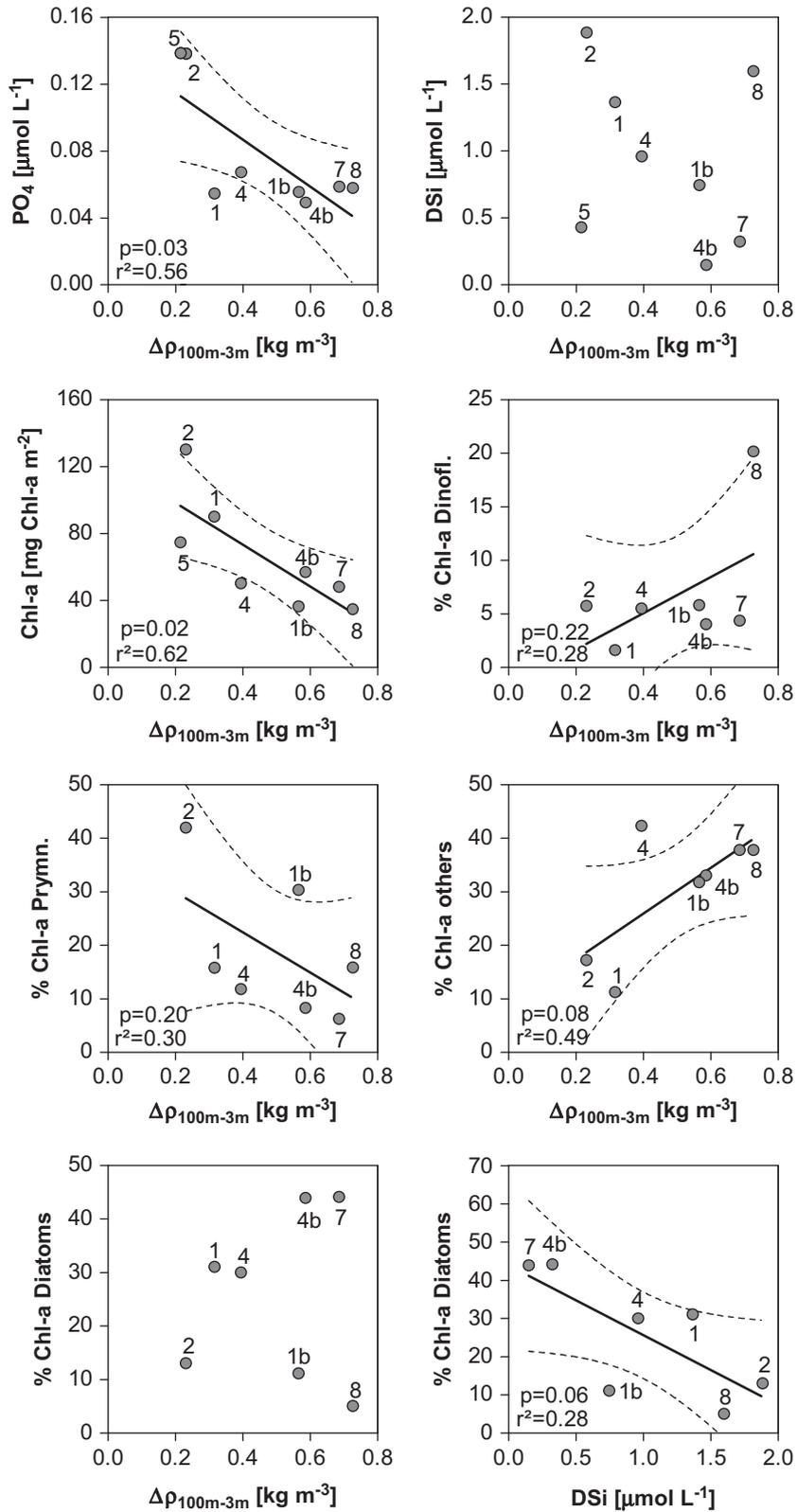


Fig. 11. Depth averaged PO_4 ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) and DSI ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) in the 30 m top layer, depth integrated Chl-a (mg Chl-a m^{-2}) in the photic zone and the relative percentage of Chl-a for Dinoflagellates (% Chl-a Dinofl.), Prymnesiophytes (% Chl-a prym.), other phytoplankton groups (% Chl-a Others) and diatoms (% Chl-a Diatoms), (integrated over the top 30 m) versus the difference of density at 3 m depth and at 100 m depth ($\Delta\rho_{100m-3m}$) in northern Bay of Biscay in June 2006. The linear regression and the 95% confidence intervals (dashed lines) are represented together with the determination coefficient (r^2). Plain regression lines are based on all stations, dashed regression lines are based on the continental shelf stations (excluding the continental slope—stations 2 and 5). Numbers refer to the sampling station.

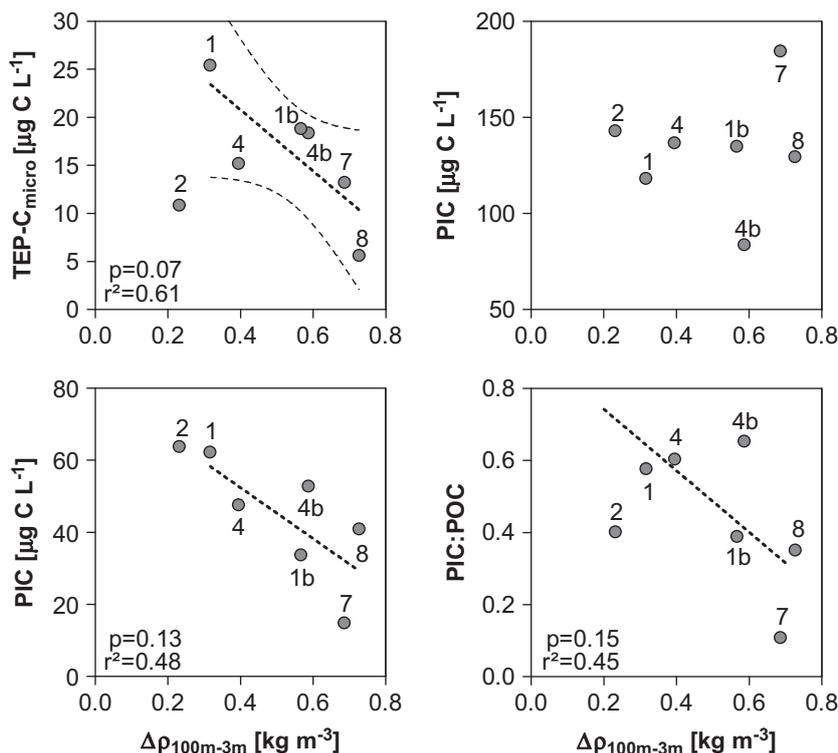


Fig. 12. Depth averaged TEP-C_{micro} ($\mu\text{g C L}^{-1}$, from Harlay et al., 2009), POC ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$), PIC ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) and PIC:POC ratio in the top 30 m versus the difference of density at 3 m depth and at 100 m depth ($\Delta\rho_{100\text{ m}-3\text{ m}}$) in northern Bay of Biscay in June 2006. The linear regression and the 95% confidence intervals (dashed lines) are represented together with the determination coefficient (r^2). Plain regression lines are based on all stations, dashed regression lines are based on the continental shelf stations (excluding the continental slope—stations 2 and 5). Numbers refer to the sampling station.

4.2. Trophic status of the coccolithophore bloom

A community is termed “autotrophic” when gross primary production (GPP) is higher than community respiration and “heterotrophic” when community respiration exceeds GPP (e.g., Gattuso et al., 1998). However, the trophic status of a community does not necessarily imply that it is a source or a sink for atmospheric CO₂, since the direction of the air–sea CO₂ fluxes results from a combination of several biogeochemical and physical processes acting at different time scales (e.g., Borges et al., 2006). The pCO₂ values in surface waters during the cruise ranged from 265 to 353 μatm and indicate that the area was undersaturated with respect to atmospheric equilibrium ($\sim 376 \mu\text{atm}$) (Table 2), acting as a sink for atmospheric CO₂ ranging between -8.5 and $-17.8 \text{ mmol C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ (Table 3; Suykens et al., 2010a). The range of pCO₂ values was comparable to those reported during coccolithophore blooms in the Bering Sea (Murata and Takizawa, 2002), the North Sea (Buitenhuis et al., 1996) and the northern North Atlantic (Robertson et al., 1994), and in the Bay of Biscay in June 2004 (Harlay et al., 2010).

Based on the measurement of metabolic rates, the trophic status of the coccolithophore bloom was assessed, considering that the ¹⁴C-based rate measurement of PP reflected GPP, based on the short duration of the incubations (Gazeau et al., 2007). The community evolved from net autotrophy at the early stage of the bloom, station 2 (PP:DCR=2.2), to net heterotrophy at station 8 (PP:DCR=0.3) when PP rates decreased (Fig. 14). The same pattern of decreasing PP:DCR with decrease in PP was also reported during a coccolithophore bloom in the North Sea in June 1999 (based on O₂ incubations for both PP and DCR, Robinson et al., 2002). The PP:DCR ratio was on average 0.73 ± 0.47 ($n=7$), similar to the values reported in the North Sea in June 1999 ranging from 0.18 to 1.29, on average 0.89 ± 0.37 ($n=8$, Robinson et al., 2002).

4.3. Carbon mass balance in the photic zone

The C cycle in the photic zone is driven by GPP and community respiration, the balance of these two terms corresponds to the net community production (NCP). In coccolithophore blooms, CAL is an additional source of CO₂ to the surrounding seawater that modulates the net balance of community CO₂ fluxes (Purdie and Finch, 1994; Crawford and Purdie, 1997; Frankignoulle and Borges, 2001; Suykens et al., 2010a). The NCP, corresponding to the potential for C export from the photic layer to the aphotic zone, was compared to the integrated DCR_{aphotic} in the aphotic layer (i.e., the aphotic C demand). NCP was calculated in the photic layer as:

$$\text{NCP} = \text{PP} - \text{DCR}_{\text{photic}}$$

where PP and DCR are expressed as CO₂ fluxes.

The net metabolic CO₂ flux (NMCF) was compared to the air–sea CO₂ flux computed from pCO₂ measurements and was calculated as:

$$\text{NMCF} = \text{NCP} + 0.6\text{CAL}$$

where 0.6CAL is the flux of CO₂ released to the water column by CAL (Frankignoulle et al., 1994).

The early bloom phase (stations 2 and 1) was characterized by high PP and CAL values (Table 2). The NMCF ($-67.9 \text{ mmol C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ at station 2) had the same direction as the air–sea CO₂ flux ($-11.4 \text{ mmol C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$). At station 2, the NCP was positive, indicating a net autotrophic status leading to a positive potential C export ($+98.7 \text{ mmol C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) that was of the same order of magnitude as the aphotic pelagic C demand ($89.0 \text{ mmol C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$).

At the stations representative of more developed and declining bloom conditions (stations 4, 4bis, 7 and 8), PP and CAL were lower than the early bloom phase (stations 2 and 5), and NCP was neutral or negative, indicating a balanced or a net heterotrophic status (ranging from $+5.5$ to $-68.8 \text{ mmol C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$). At these stations,

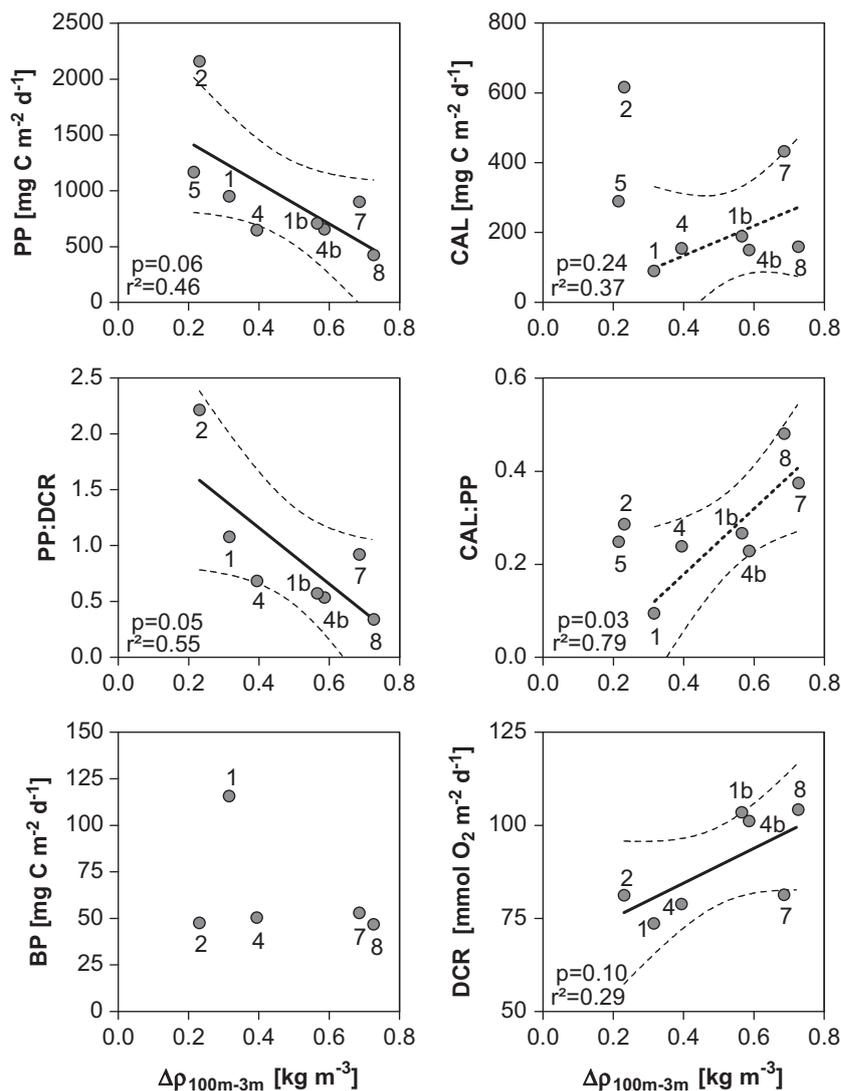


Fig. 13. PP ($\text{mg C m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$), CAL ($\text{mg C m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$), PP:DCR ratio, CAL:PP ratio, BP ($\text{mg C m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) and DCR ($\text{mmol O}_2 \text{m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) versus the difference of density at 3 m depth and at 100 m depth ($\Delta\rho_{100 \text{ m}-3 \text{ m}}$) in northern Bay of Biscay in June 2006. The linear regression and the 95% confidence interval (dashed lines) are represented together with the determination coefficient (r^2). Plain regression lines are based on all stations, dashed regression lines are based on the continental shelf stations (excluding the continental slope—stations 2 and 5). Numbers refer to the sampling station.

Table 3

Carbon fluxes ($\text{mmol C m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) in the northern Bay of Biscay in June 2006 based on a mass related to fixation of CO_2 by PP (the particulate gross primary production), to release of CO_2 by CAL (using an average molar ratio of CO_2 production to CaCO_3 production of 0.6, Frankignoulle et al. (1994), hence, $0.6 \times \text{CAL}$), and to the release of CO_2 by DCR (integrated in the photic layer and converted to C units using a respiratory quotient of 1). The net metabolic CO_2 flux corresponds to the net balance of CO_2 fixed by PP and CO_2 release by CAL and DCR. Net air–sea CO_2 flux was computed from measurements of $p\text{CO}_2$ (as detailed by Suykens et al. 2010a). Export of organic C corresponds to the net balance of PP and DCR (integrated in the photic layer). Aphotic C demand corresponds to DCR integrated in the aphotic layer (to the sea floor depth except for station 2 (total depth of 680 m) where integration was carried out to the depth of deepest sample (100 m)). Stations were classified from the less to most stratified conditions.

Station	CO_2 fluxes ($\text{mmol C m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$)				C fluxes ($\text{mmol C m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$)		
	Related to PP	Related to CAL	Related to DCR	Net metabolic CO_2 flux	Net air–sea CO_2 flux	Export of organic C	Aphotic C demand
2	–180.0	30.9	81.3	–67.9	–11.4	98.7	89.0
1	–79.3	4.5	73.7	–1.0	–17.8	5.5	98.2
4(HR)	–54.0	7.8	78.9	32.6	–13.4	–24.9	66.9
1bis	–59.2	9.5	103.5	53.8	–16.1	–44.4	159.0
4bis(HR)	–54.6	7.5	101.2	54.1	–10.7	–46.6	168.5
7(HR)	–75.1	21.7	81.4	28.0	–10.2	–6.4	35.1
8(HR)	–35.5	8.0	104.3	76.8	–8.5	–68.8	72.3

the NMCF was positive (+32.6 and +76.8 $\text{mmol CO}_2 \text{m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) while the air–sea CO_2 flux remained negative (–8.5 and –17.8 $\text{mmol CO}_2 \text{m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$). The potential C export was negative

(–24.9 to –68.8 $\text{mmol C m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$); hence, insufficient to sustain either the aphotic pelagic C demand (between 35.1 and 168.5 $\text{mmol C m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) or the benthic respiration, ranging during

the cruise from -2.3 to -7.2 mmol O₂ m⁻² d⁻¹ at stations 2, 4, 4bis and 8 (Suykens et al., 2010b).

One caveat in the community C mass balance given in Table 3 is that a steady state was assumed. It is well established that in aquatic ecosystems there is a variable but usually strong decoupling in time and space of organic C production and consumption. This decoupling could explain the low export of organic carbon computed at most stations that cannot meet the aphotic C demand. Furthermore, air–sea CO₂ fluxes are an integrated signal of the water mass biogeochemical history because of the very long equilibration time of surface waters with respect to atmospheric CO₂ due to the buffering capacity of seawater. Also, CO₂ dynamics integrate both physical (e.g., vertical mixing, advection, and water residence time) and purely thermodynamic (mainly water temperature change) effects, as discussed at length by e.g., Borges et al. (2006). This appears to be the most likely explanation for the net sink of atmospheric CO₂ computed from the pCO₂ measurements for all stations, while the balance of community metabolic rates leads to a net release of CO₂ in the photic layer during the maturing and declining bloom phases.

The other caveat in the C mass balance (Table 3) is that we only considered the measurements of PP in the particulate phase. In all aquatic ecosystems, the contribution of dissolved PP (PP_d) is variable but always significant compared to particulate PP (e.g., Baines and Pace, 1991). We did not measure PP_d due to the difficulty of estimating this quantity with the ¹⁴C incubation method (Marra, 2002 and references therein). The biogeochemical model of Joassin et al. (2008) that describes C dynamics in coccolithophore blooms validated with mesocosm experiments (Delille et al., 2005), was used to estimate PP_d and to refine the C mass balance (Table 4). Estimated PP_d ranged between 14% and 28%

of total primary production (PP_{tot} = PP + PP_d) which is similar to the range (6–24%) reported by Rees et al. (2002) during a coccolithophore bloom in the North Sea in June 1999.

Based on the C mass balance accounting for PP_d (Table 4), NMCF was negative at stations 1, 2, 4 and 5, at rates of the same order of magnitude as the air–sea CO₂ fluxes. The NMCF was balanced at station 7. At stations 1, 2, 4, 5 and 7, a net export of organic C was computed that is of the same order of magnitude as the aphotic C demand. The trend in export of organic C is consistent with the conceptual model of bloom development with higher C export at the onset of the bloom (stations 1, 2 and 5), lower C export at the mature bloom phase (stations 4 and 7), and low or no export during the declining bloom phase (stations 8, 1bis and 4bis). This is also consistent with the phytoplankton composition derived from HPLC measurements showing an increasing contribution of dinoflagellates, chrysophytes, prasinophytes and cryptophytes as the bloom matured and declined (Fig. 11), since most of these phytoplankton species have a low potential for sedimentation and vertical export due to their small size, lack of inorganic cell wall structures, or mobility (flagellates).

Labile sugars are high C content organic compounds exuded by phytoplankton, constituting a fraction of the C released by PP_d. Their contribution to the C fixed photosynthetically, depends on the growth stage of the coccolithophore *E. huxleyi* (Fernández et al., 1996). Among dissolved C losses, of particular interest is the production of some polysaccharides that can aggregate to form sticky C-rich particles such as TEP (Passow, 2002). During mesocosm experiments with *E. huxleyi*, C losses due to TEP formation and settling of aggregates had a significant impact on the C budget (Engel et al., 2004; Delille et al., 2005; Joassin et al., 2008). During this cruise, the carbon content of TEP (TEP-C) averaged 12% of POC and attained 68% of POC at certain depths (Harlay et al., 2009). The dynamics of TEP formation during bloom development modifies the properties of macroaggregates (Logan et al., 1995; Engel, 2000; Kahl et al., 2008) and the presence of calcite in these aggregates increases their settling velocity (ballast effect; François et al., 2002). However, TEP concentrations were higher during the early phases of the bloom and tightly coupled to primary production and phytoplankton standing stocks (Fig. 12). This is consistent with the low export of C computed for the maturing and declining bloom phases (Tables 3 and 4). The comparison of the C mass balances given in Tables 3 and 4, certainly highlights the importance of PP_d in C flows during coccolithophore blooms, although it is acknowledged that the estimates of PP_d herein are rough approximations and should be used with caution.

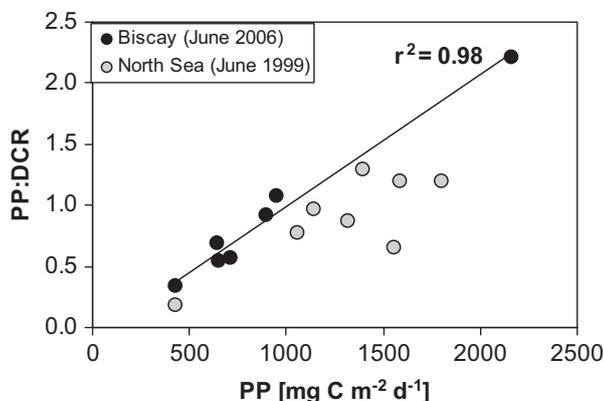


Fig. 14. PP:DCR versus PP (mg C m⁻² d⁻¹) in northern Bay of Biscay in June 2006 and in the North Sea in June 1999, during a coccolithophore bloom (Robinson et al., 2002).

5. Synthesis and conclusions

A bloom of mixed phytoplankton community dominated by coccolithophores was studied at the continental margin of the northern Bay of Biscay, where enhanced biological activity resulted

Table 4
Carbon fluxes (mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹) in the northern Bay of Biscay in June 2006. All computations are identical to Table 2 (refer to caption for details) with the exception that PP_{tot} corresponds to the sum of particulate PP and PP_d (computed using the biogeochemical model of Joassin et al., 2008).

Station	CO ₂ fluxes (mmol C m ⁻² d ⁻¹)				C fluxes (mmol C m ⁻² d ⁻¹)		
	Related to PP _{tot}	Related to CAL	Related to DCR	Net metabolic CO ₂ flux	Net air–sea CO ₂ flux	Export of organic C	Aphotic C demand
2	-205.6	30.9	81.3	-93.5	-11.4	124.3	89.0
1	-108.8	4.5	73.7	-30.5	-17.8	35.0	98.2
4(HR)	-114.4	7.8	78.9	-27.8	-13.4	35.5	66.9
1bis	-65.7	9.5	103.5	47.3	-16.1	-37.9	159.0
4bis(HR)	-63.8	7.5	101.2	44.9	-10.7	-37.4	168.5
7(HR)	-101.4	21.7	81.4	1.7	-10.2	19.9	35.1
8(HR)	-39.2	8.0	104.3	73.1	-8.5	-65.1	72.3

from local nutrient inputs into the UML, due to physical forcing (mainly internal tides) as deduced from vertical profiles of temperature and remotely sensed SST (cooler and less stratified water patches at the shelf break and the continental slope). It is hypothesized that the vertical mixing at the shelf-break triggered the bloom of mixed phytoplankton communities dominated by coccolithophores, and that the bloom developed and then declined as these water masses were transported over the continental shelf due to baroclinic eddy activity along the edges of the cold water patch, stratifying as they warmed.

The cruise took place after the main spring bloom of, probably, large diatoms that peaked in mid-April (based on the temporal evolution of Chl-a from remote sensing images and modelled deep UML favourable to the development of large diatoms). Hence, during our cruise, the area was strongly depleted in DSi with levels < 2.0 μM that are limiting for diatom growth (Egge and Aksnes, 1992). Additional inputs of nutrients by vertical mixing at the shelf break would then favour phytoplankton development and the succession from diatoms to coccolithophores.

The analysis of data as a function of an indicator of stratification allowed the reconstruction of the bloom sequence, whereby coccolithophores dominated in low stratified conditions and, as stratification intensified, their abundance declined in favour of dinoflagellates, chrysophytes, prasinophytes and cryptophytes. Furthermore, coccolithophores shifted from an organic production dominated-phase to a more inorganic production dominated-phase, as shown by the increase of the CAL:PP ratio with stratification.

A C mass balance in the photic layer was computed along a gradient between the high production zone (stations 2 and 5) and the HR zone (station 8). The $p\text{CO}_2$ measurements indicated that surface waters acted as a net sink for atmospheric CO_2 during all phases of the bloom, although TA data reported by Suykens et al. (2010a) showed that CAL had a large impact on surface seawater dissolved carbonate chemistry. Hence, CAL related to coccolithophore blooms had the potential to decrease the sink of atmospheric CO_2 but did not reverse the direction of the flux. Net community autotrophy was only found for the early phase of the bloom. During the maturing and declining phases of the bloom, potential export from the photic layer could not meet the aphotic C demand. This C mass balancing approach suffers from several caveats. Firstly, steady-state is assumed but C dynamics need to be integrated over longer time scales due to the decoupling in time and space of organic carbon production and degradation. Secondly, the importance of PP_d and its potential incorporation into TEP during coccolithophore blooms is likely a significant C flux sustaining the heterotrophic C demand in the twilight zone, as suggested by Koeve (2005). Indeed, when comparing the C mass balance in the photic layer and the air–sea CO_2 fluxes and the aphotic C demand, the C community mass balance established using estimated PP_d was more consistent.

The effects of ocean acidification on marine communities will likely lead to a decoupling of C and N cycling, modifying C export to depth and providing a feedback on increasing atmospheric CO_2 (Riebesell et al., 2007). As a result of the expected reduction of CAL in bloom forming coccolithophores in a high CO_2 ocean (Riebesell et al., 2000; Delille et al., 2005) and associated changes in the ballast of aggregates by biogenic calcite (De La Rocha and Passow, 2007; Hofmann and Schellnhuber, 2009), the biogenic C pumping efficiency of these blooms is likely to be modified in the coming decades and centuries. The magnitude and direction of these changes remain to be established. Comprehensive and multi-disciplinary studies of C cycling in coccolithophore blooms in natural conditions such as the one reported here is an essential prerequisite for a robust and credible implementation in mathematical models to allow the projection of a plausible future evolution of

carbon biogeochemistry under global change, in particular in relation to ocean acidification.

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