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Putting the silicon cycle in a bag: Field and mesocosm observations of silicon isotope fractionation in subtropical waters east of New Zealand

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- 1 Putting the silicon cycle in a bag: Field observations of silicon isotope fractionation in
- 2 subtropical waters east of New Zealand
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25 Abstract

A mesocosm experiment was used to investigate the fractionation of silicon (Si) isotopes in 26 27 subtropical surface waters east of New Zealand. This region surface waters were characterised by relatively low concentrations of silicic acid (Si(OH)₄) (~2 μ mol L⁻¹) and higher nitrate (~5 28 μ mol L⁻¹) and dissolved iron (Fe) concentrations (~0.4 nmol L⁻¹) prior to development of the 29 30 annual springtime phytoplankton bloom. To simulate initiation of the bloom, a large (~700 L) 31 mesocosm experiment was undertaken whereby surface seawater containing the natural 32 plankton community was incubated for a 168-hr period. During the mesocosm experiment the 33 concentrations of Si(OH)₄, nitrate, phosphate and dissolved iron all decreased while the 34 concentration of biogenic silica (BSi) increased 12-fold. Coupled with the increase in BSi was 35 a change in the Si-isotope composition of BSi (δ^{30} Si_{BSi}) which increased from 1.49 ‰ to 2.64 36 ‰ after 168 hr. Complementary observations to those made for the mesocosm experiment were 37 made for corresponding surface waters. For these waters we observed a small decline in the 38 concentrations of nitrate, phosphate and dissolved Fe, but little change in the concentrations of Si(OH)₄ and BSi. In contrast to the mesocosm experiment, surface water δ^{30} Si_{BSi} values became 39 lighter during bloom initiation, suggestive of Si(OH)₄ being replenished into surface waters. 40 41 These differences in the drawdown and utilisation of nutrients and dissolved Fe between the 42 mesocosm and surface waters during bloom initiation likely result from favourable Fe and light 43 supply conditions within the mesocosm. In contrast, water column stability (i.e. vertical 44 mixing), and the supply of dissolved Fe are likely to influence bloom initiation and its 45 longevity. The fractionation of Si-isotopes in the mesocosm experiment followed closed-46 system Rayleigh fractionation kinetics, and an enrichment factor (ɛ) of -1.13 ‰ was calculated 47 for the exponential phase of growth for the diatom community, which was marked by the presence of the diatoms Asterionelopsis glacilis and Mellosira moniliformis. The isotope 48 49 enrichment factor agreed well with previous observations of Si isotope fraction in diatoms from 50 field communities, and appeared to be independent of variations in the ambient Si(OH)4 51 concentration, and phytoplankton species composition.

52 **1. Introduction**

53 The biological fractionation of silicon (Si) isotopes by diatoms in the surface ocean makes the stable isotope composition of biogenic silica (δ^{30} Si_{BSi}) an extremely sensitive tracer of the 54 marine biogeochemical Si-cycle (de Souza et al., 2012b; Sutton et al., 2018). Understanding 55 56 the processes governing Si-isotope fractionation is particularly important in the Southern 57 Ocean, a region where silicic acid (Si(OH)₄) is retained as a result of diatoms in sub-polar 58 waters preferentially removing Si(OH)₄ relative to nitrate (NO_{3⁻}) from the water column. These 59 Si-poor waters extend northward as Sub-Antarctic Mode Water (SAMW) and play a significant 60 role in setting the nutrient status of the global ocean (Sarmiento et al., 2004). The strong de-61 coupling of Si(OH)₄ and NO₃⁻ in Antarctic polar waters has a particularly important bearing on 62 marine productivity at lower latitudes, and is due to a complex interplay between, (1) different 63 diatom species and morphological types displaying varying degrees of bio-silicification 64 (Baines and Pace, 1991), (2) Fe and light limitation inducing heavier rates of bio-silicification 65 and reduced uptake of NO₃⁻ in diatoms (Brzezinski et al., 2002; Franck et al., 2003; Marchetti 66 et al., 2010), (3) the export and deep remineralisation of Si(OH)₄ relative to NO_3^- (Pichevin et 67 al., 2014; Sarmiento et al., 2007), and (4) grazer induced variations in cell wall bio-silicification 68 and cell morphology (Smetacek et al., 2004). Deciphering the relative importance of these 69 processes is key to understanding the nutrient distribution in and outside of the Southern Ocean 70 (Sarmiento et al., 2004).

71 The distribution of δ^{30} Si_{BSi} is extremely sensitive to these processes and acts as a useful tracer 72 for examining the cycling of Si in resident diatom communities (De La Rocha et al., 1997; 73 Fripiat et al., 2012; Milligan et al., 2004). The uptake of Si(OH)₄ by diatoms in the ocean 74 influences the isotopic compositions of both Si(OH)₄ and biogenic silica (BSi) in surface waters. During Si(OH)₄ uptake, the lighter Si isotope (²⁸Si) is preferentially taken up, and is 75 76 defined by a fractionation factor (ϵ). For laboratory cultures and field populations of diatoms ϵ 77 generally ranges between -0.53 and -1.9 ‰, with the odd individual species having more 78 extreme values e.g. Chaetoceros brevis (Cardinal et al., 2007; De La Rocha et al., 1997; Fripiat 79 et al., 2011; Meyerink et al., 2017; Sutton et al., 2013; Varela et al., 2004). In general, the 80 factors that influence Si silicon isotope fractionation during a phytoplankton bloom formation 81 are not well characterised. The aim of this study was to simulate the formation of the annual 82 spring bloom using mesocosm approach and complement mesocosm observations with water 83 column measurements.

84 This study took place within a warm-core eddy (39°20S 180°00'W) east of New Zealand where 85 an annual spring phytoplankton bloom has been observed to occur based on satellite and field 86 measurements (Boyd et al., 2012; Ellwood et al., 2015; Murphy et al., 2001). The region is a 87 site of considerable eddy activity, which arises from the convergence of SubAntarctic Water 88 (SAW) and Sub-Tropical Water (STW) (Bostock et al., 2013; Butler et al., 1992; Fernandez et 89 al., 2014). The convergence zone is locked topographically to the Chatham Rise, a shallow 90 (<300 m deep) submarine ridge, and is a region of high temperature, salinity and nutrient 91 gradients as a result of the confluence of two significantly different water masses (SAW and 92 STW) (Chiswell et al., 2015; Nodder et al., 2005). A warm core eddy immediately north of the 93 Chatham Rise is a persistent feature in the region, which extends to 2000 m depth; and has 94 been observed to have a spring bloom at its centre, which induces oligotrophic conditions in 95 summer, and is followed by deep winter mixing and low productivity in winter (Murphy et al., 96 2001; Nodder et al., 2005). Phytoplankton community structure in the bloom is generally characterised by chlorophyll (Chl) concentrations $>1 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$, and large phytoplankton (>20 97 98 μm) (Boyd et al., 2012). Consequently, the area is marked by high seasonal fluxes of biogenic 99 material to deeper waters (Nodder et al., 2005; Nodder and Northcote, 2001).

The relatively low concentrations of Si(OH)₄ (~2 μ mol L⁻¹) compared to NO₃⁻ (~4 μ mol L⁻¹) in 100 101 surface-ocean waters testify to the influence of SAW in the region (Boyd et al., 1999). A 102 number of Fe-process studies have been undertaken in the region (e.g. (Boyd et al., 2012; Boyd 103 et al., 2015; Ellwood et al., 2015). These studies found that during the 2008 annual spring 104 bloom dissolved Fe and nutrients are sufficient to support bloom initiation, however its 105 duration and magnitude is primarily set by competition for dissolved Fe between various 106 microbe and phytoplankton groups, which ultimately limits overall production in these waters. 107 In contrast, relatively little is known on the biological fractionation of Si-isotopes by diatoms 108 in New Zealand surface waters. Instead, a majority of the processes relating to variations in 109 δ^{30} Si in Si(OH)₄ and diatom derived BSi in the region are inferred from previous studies in the 110 Southern Ocean and Equatorial Pacific e.g. (Beucher et al., 2008; de Souza et al., 2012a; Fripiat 111 et al., 2012). At present, the only studies investigating Si-isotopes in New Zealand waters are 112 for diatoms and sponges collected in the mesopelagic zone south of New Zealand, an area that 113 is more strongly influenced by SAW (Egan et al., 2012; Rousseau et al., 2016; Wille et al., 114 2010).

115 The aims of the voyage were to (1) investigate the physicochemical factors driving the 116 longevity, magnitude and termination of the spring phytoplankton bloom, (2) to investigate 117 trace metal cycling within the bloom, and (3) to relate this mechanistic understanding of 118 environmental controls on bloom dynamics to remotely sensed-trends in phytoplankton blooms 119 across the mesoscale eddy field east of New Zealand (See Ellwood et al. 2015 and references 120 therein). The survey drew on the findings from an earlier voyage in September 2008 (FeCycle 121 II), and utilised a mesocosm experiment to investigate pelagic Fe-cycling within the resident 122 phytoplankton community (Boyd et al., 2012; Ellwood et al., 2015; Ellwood et al., 2014). The 123 work presented here is a supporting study that investigated factors driving BSi formation and 124 Si-isotope fractionation within the spring bloom in the convergence zone east of New Zealand. 125 The aim of this work was to investigate whether the fractionation of Si isotopes in subtropical 126 surface waters east of New Zealand are influence by changes in Fe bioavailability as the annual 127 spring bloom develops. To elucidate whether Fe bioavailability and phytoplankton bloom development influence δ^{30} Si, we complemented water column sampling with a large mesocosm 128 129 (700 L) experiment and smaller (20 L) incubation experiments. Here, we present comparisons of BSi production and Si-isotope (δ^{30} Si_{BSi}) fractionation in the mesocosm with new δ^{30} Si_{BSi} 130 131 data from the subtropical-convergence zone.

132

133 **2. Methods**

134 2.1 Sampling Site and Experimental Design

135 The present survey (TAN1212) was part of a GEOTRACES process study and took place in a zone of confluence east of New Zealand (approximately 179°W, 39°S). The voyage took place 136 137 between 15 September 2012 (year day 259) and 7 October 2012 (year day 281). Survey 138 methods were similar to those for a previous voyage in September of 2008 (Boyd et al., 2012); 139 where after an initial survey of the eddy, a drogued drifter was deployed at the centre of the 140 eddy to provide the quasi-Lagrangian sampling platform needed to interpret biogeochemical 141 observations of the feature (for further details on eddy formation, see Boyd et al. (2012) and Ellwood et al. (2014)). 142

143 Sea surface (0 - 10 m depth) samples for BSi and Si-isotopes were collected between days 263 144 and 279 using the ships underway seawater supply. Sea surface Chl *a* fluorescence, 145 photosystem II (PSII) photochemical efficiency (F_v/F_m), and the effective absorption cross 146 section of PSII (σ_{PSII}) were monitored in real-time using a Chelsea Instruments Fast Repetition 147 Rate (FRR) fluorometer that was plumbed into the ships underway water supply. Periodically, size-fractionated Chl *a* samples were collected for analysis. Daily sea-surface samples (10m depth) were collected for dissolved macro-nutrients ($NO_3^- + NO_2^-$, Si(OH)₄ and PO_4^{3-}), particulate nitrogen (PON), particulate carbon (POC), and particulate phosphorus (POP) were collected off pre-dawn sampling casts utilising Niskin bottles deployed on a 24 bottle CTD rosette system (SBE 911plus CTD rosette). Samples for bacteria, *Synechococcus*, *Prochlorococcus*, and pico-eukaryote cell enumeration were collected using the procedures described by Hall et al. (2004)

Daily sea-surface samples (10 m depth) for dissolved Fe (DFe) were obtained using a trace 155 156 metal clean (TM) rosette. Macro-nutrient concentrations were measured in real-time using a 157 micro-segmented flow analyzer (Astoria Pacific International [API300]) with digital detection 158 (Ellwood et al., 2014). Dissolved Fe (DFe) concentrations were determined onboard by flow-159 injection analysis with chemiluminescence detection of Fe using luminol after Fe pre-160 concentration on to Toyopearl AF-Chelate-650 M resin (de Jong et al., 1998) and spiking with hydrogen peroxide (Lohan et al., 2006). Samples for DOC were analysed at the National 161 162 Institute of Water and Atmospheric Research (NIWA) according to APHA method 5310B 163 using a TOC analyser.

164 A mesocosm experiment was conducted on day 266 using an acid cleaned 1000 L LDPE bag 165 filled with 350 L of surface seawater that was pre-filtered using an acid cleaned 0.2 µm capsule filter (Supor Acropak 200; Pall). Surface seawater was collected in a trace metal clean manner 166 167 using a tow fish (Ellwood et al., 2014). The main aim of the mesocosm experiment was to mimic Fe cycling of pelagic Fe in the water column (see Ellwood et al. (2015) for more details). 168 Two bags were used, one spiked with 0.2 nmol L^{-1} of the radionuclide ⁵⁵Fe and a control, spiked 169 with 0.2 nmol L^{-1} of non-radioactive Fe. Both bags were allowed to equilibrate with natural 170 171 ligands present in the filtered seawater for 12 hours before being inoculated with another 350 172 L of unfiltered seawater collected using the TM tow fish containing the natural plankton 173 community (Ellwood et al., 2015). The total volume in each bag was 700 L. The bags were 174 incubated on deck for 168 hours at 50% of the ambient light intensity (attenuated with neutral density screening), and kept at ambient seawater temperature by continual surface seawater 175 176 circulation around the bags. All analyses and observations for the work presented in this study 177 were made on the bag spiked with non-radioactive Fe. The Fe cycling results for the radioactive 178 Fe experiments are were presented by Ellwood et al. (2015).

179 To determine the influence the addition of Fe in the mesocosm might have on the resident diatom community, and hence BSi production and the fractionation of $\delta^{30}Si_{BSi}$, a smaller 180 181 microcosm experiment was run in conjunction on day 272. The experiment was run for 96 182 hours and acted as an Fe-free control. For this experiment, four 20 L low density polyethene 183 cubic containers were filled using unfiltered seawater from the tow fish, with two of the containers spiked with 0.5 nmol L⁻¹ of dissolved Fe, and incubated as described for the 184 185 mesocosm experiment. For the mesocosm and microcosm experiments pre-incubation samples were collected for macro-nutrient concentrations, BSi and Si-isotopes, photosynthetic 186 187 parameters (fluorescence, F_v/F_m and σ_{PSII}) and POC, PON and POP. The 700 L mesocosm 188 experiment was sampled every 12-24 hours while the 20 L microcosm experiment was only 189 sampled at the end of the 96-hour incubation in order to avoid possible Fe contamination.

190

191 2.2 POC, PON, POP and BSi Analysis

192 Samples for POC and PON analysis were collected by filtering between 500 and 750 mL of 193 seawater through a pre-combusted 25 mm GFF filter (Merck-Millipore), before rinsing with 194 50 ml of filtered seawater. Filters were stored at -80°C before analysis. Samples for BSi and silicon isotope analysis were collected onto 25 mm 0.4 µm polycarbonate filters (Pall). Surface 195 196 seawater samples and samples from the mesocosm experiment were collected by filtering 30 -197 60 L (for surface seawater) and 10 - 20 L (for mesocosm and microcosm samples) of sample, 198 respectively, through a 142 mm 0.4 µm polycarbonate filter. The filter was immediately placed 199 in a 50 ml polypropylene tube and capped. All filters were stored at -20 °C prior to analysis. 200 Hydrolysis of the samples for BSi content was carried out by adding 18 ml of 0.5% (w/w) 201 Na₂CO₃ solution to the tubes and heating them to 85 °C for 2 hr (Paasche, 1980). When cool, 202 each tube was neutralized with 0.5 M HCl to the turning point of methyl orange (pH 3-4), 203 before being made up to 25 mL with deionised water. Silicate concentrations were determined 204 using the molybdenum blue method (Strickland and Parsons, 1972).

205

206 2.3 Preparation of samples for determination of δ^{30} Si of BSi

Samples for δ^{30} Si_{BSi} determination were rinsed from their filters into 2.5 ml Teflon bombs using deionised water. They were then evaporated to dryness at 50 °C in a drying oven overnight. To remove any organics that may interfere with the analysis; the samples were treated with 1 mL of 30% (v/v) H₂O₂ solution and refluxed for 24 hours at 70 °C on a hotplate. Following the 211 oxidation of organics, the lids of the Teflon bombs were removed, and the samples were left to 212 evaporate to dryness before adding 2 mL of 0.5 M NaOH to dissolve the sample. Samples were 213 then left to reflux for 24 hours at 50 °C. A portion of the sample was removed, neutralised and 214 the silicate concentration determined using the molybdenum blue method (Strickland and 215 Parsons, 1965). Prior to silicon isotope analysis, sodium was removed from the samples using 216 cation exchange chromatography. Twelve cation exchange columns were prepared using 217 modified polypropylene 2.5 mL Pasteur Pipettes loaded with approximately 1 ml Dowex 50W-218 X8 cation exchange resin (200-400 mesh). Columns were cleaned by passing 0.5 ml of 8% 219 (v/v) hydrofluoric acid (HF) and 3x 0.75 mL of deionised water over the resin. The resin was 220 then protonated with 3x 0.75 mL 4M HCl followed by 3x 0.75 mL deionised water rinses. Each 221 column was loaded with 0.5 mL of sample and then rinsed with 4x 0.75 mL of deionised water 222 to ensure the entire sample was eluted. To minimize contamination, samples were collected in 223 vials that were cleaned using 8% (v/v) HF, before being rinsed with deionised water.

224

225 2.4 Determination of δ^{30} Si in particulate BSi

The δ^{30} Si of diatom BSi was determined according to methods developed by (Wille et al., 2010) using a multi-collector inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (MC-ICP-MS) (Finnigan Neptune, Germany) in medium-resolution mode. An ESI-Apex nebulizer fitted with a Teflon inlet system and a demountable torch fitted with an alumina injector was used for sample introduction. We used a standard-sample-standard bracketing technique for data acquisition and reduction (Wille et al., 2010). The δ^{30} Si signal (based on the relative abundance of ³⁰Si to ²⁸Si (³⁰Si/²⁸Si) was calculated using the following formula:

233

234
$$\delta^{30}Si = \left\lfloor \left(\frac{R_{Sample}}{R_{Std}}\right) - 1 \right\rfloor \times 1000$$
(1)

235

Where R_{sample} is the ³⁰Si/²⁸Si ratio of the sample and R_{Std} is the ³⁰Si/²⁸Si ratio of the in-house RC11 diatomaceous standard. Measured δ^{30} Si and the δ^{29} Si values were then converted to be relative to the NBS28 reference standard based on the daily offset between the in-house RC11 diatomaceous standard and NBS28. The overall offset between the in-house standard and the NBS28 standard was -2.28 ± 0.14 (n = 11; mean ± 2x standard deviation). Measurements of

- 241 sample blanks were made prior to each run to ensure that the combined blank and background 242 was <1% of the total sample signal. NBS28 and the "Diatomite" standard detailed in Reynolds 243 et al. (2007) were also prepared with each daily run, and were measured with every three samples (≤ 8 diatomite/NBS28 standards per daily run). The δ^{30} Si composition of the 244 "Diatomite" standard (again relative to NBS28) produced average values for δ^{29} Si of 0.73 ± 245 0.11 ‰ and δ^{30} Si of 1.42 ±0.17 ‰ (2 SD, n = 11), and are within the upper 90% confidence 246 range (δ^{29} Si = 0.79 ‰, δ^{30} Si = 1.54 ‰) of the modal values (δ^{29} Si = 0.66 ‰, δ^{30} Si = 1.27 ‰) 247 248 from inter-laboratory comparisons performed by Reynolds et al. (2007). 249
- Sample δ^{30} Si and the δ^{29} Si values were plotted against each other to ascertain the best-fit massdependent fractionation line (MDF, Figure 1). Our calculated slope for the best-fit MDF line was 0.55 with a regression error of 0.13 (2SE, *n* = 11) and is consistent with the consensus slope of 0.511 obtained from inter-laboratory silicon standard measurements (Figure 1). This value agrees with the slope of the theoretical fractionation line for Si of 0.5092 (Reynolds et al., 2007).
- 256 Silicon isotope fractionation in diatoms has been modelled using both closed and open
- 257 steady-state models (Cardinal et al., 2007; De La Rocha et al., 1997; Varela et al., 2004). The
- 258 closed system model is employed when there is no net import or export of Si(OH)₄ or BSi out
- of surface waters during the period of biological incorporation of Si (Varela et al., 2004); for
- 260 example, during periods of intense water column stratification where mixing across the
- 261 density interface separating the surface mixed layer from deeper waters is minimal
- 262 (Brzezinski et al., 2001). Because the mesocosm experiment has no inputs or outputs, a 263 closed system model can be used to define the evolution of δ^{30} Si through the following
- 264 relationships:

265
$$\delta^{30}Si(OH)_4 = \delta^{30}Si(OH)_{4 \text{ initial}} + \varepsilon \ln f$$
(2)

$$266 \qquad \delta^{30}Si_{BSi,inst} = \delta^{30}Si(OH)_4 + \varepsilon \tag{3}$$

267
$$\delta^{30}Si_{BSi.acc} = \delta^{30}Si(OH)_{4 \text{ initial}} - \varepsilon(f\ln f/1 - f)$$
(4)

268 Where δ^{30} Si(OH)₄ is the isotopic composition of Si(OH)₄ in seawater, δ^{30} Si(OH)_{4initial} is the 269 initial isotopic composition of Si(OH)₄ in seawater prior to biological incorporation of Si(OH)₄, 270 δ^{30} BSi_{inst} and δ^{30} BSi_{acc} are the instantaneous BSi product and accumulated BSi product

- 271 (respectively), and f is the fraction of Si(OH)₄ remaining in the system after BSi formation
- 272 ([Si(OH)₄]/[Si(OH)_{4initial}]) (Varela et al., 2004). The Rayleigh isotope fractionation model
- 273 assumes a constant value for α (the fractionation factor), also known as the enrichment factor
- 274 (ϵ), where ϵ (‰) \approx (1 α) ×1000).
- 275

3. Results

277 *3.1 Surface water data*

278 Phytoplankton bloom initiation commenced with a shoaling of the mixed layer on day 272 and 279 continued until the end of the voyage on day 279, with surface fluorescence (Arbitrary units, 280 AU) ranging from < 0.5 prior to bloom formation, to 1.0 after the bloom (Figure 2A). Nitrate 281 and DFe concentrations exhibit 1.5 - 3 fold decreases in surface concentrations during bloom initiation (Figures 2B, 3 and 4A), with NO₃⁻ concentrations decreasing from >4.8 μ mol L⁻¹ on 282 day 267 to $< 2.3 \mu mol L^{-1}$ on day 278, and DFe concentrations decreasing from $> 0.3 nmol L^{-1}$ 283 ¹ on day 267 to < 0.2 nmol L⁻¹ on days 278 and 279. Silicic acid concentrations were relatively 284 low (< 2 μ mol L⁻¹) in comparison to NO₃⁻ (\leq 5 μ mol L⁻¹) during the voyage and exhibited little 285 variation during bloom initiation (Figure 4A). 286

287 From the start of the voyage, the phytoplankton community composition in surface waters was 288 dominated by eukaryotic pico-phytoplankton $(0.2 - 2 \mu m \text{ in size})$ and prokaryote pico-289 phytoplankton (Synechococcus and Prochlorococcus) (Figure 4B). Pico-eukaryotic plankton 290 cell numbers increased relative to the other plankton groups, exhibiting a 2-fold increase on 291 day 270 and a 3-fold increase by day 279. In comparison, both Synechococcus and 292 Prochlorococcus populations exhibit little variation between days 263 and 273. Synechococcus 293 and Prochlorococcus populations change rapidly, however, following day 273, where they 294 exhibit 5-fold and 8-fold increases in their respective populations between days 273 and 279. 295 The pico-phytoplankton also dominated the Chl a estimates of phytoplankton biomass (Figure 296 4D). Night-time measurements of F_v/F_m average around 0.4 between days 263 and 272 before 297 dropping to around 0.3 by day 274 (Figure 4B), following the decline in dissolved Fe

298 concentration (Figure 4A). Between days 274 and 278, F_v/F_m remained around 0.3.

299 Surface elemental ratios and POC, PON and BSi concentrations are presented in Figure 4,

300 while surface values for δ^{30} Si from BSi are presented in Table 1. BSi concentrations

301 remained consistent at $0.07 \pm 0.02 \ \mu mol \ L^{-1}$ for the duration of the voyage and displayed little

302 variation despite a relative increase in concentration at the onset of the bloom, from 0.049

- μ mol L⁻¹ on day 273 to 0.103 μ mol L⁻¹ on day 276 (Table 1, Figure 4C). The lack of variation
- 304 in surface BSi is reflected in the relatively small change in surface Si(OH)₄ concentrations
- 305 over the duration of the voyage (Figure 4A). Particulate organic nitrogen exhibits a 2-fold

306 increase on day 273 (Figure 4C), which is concomitant with a relative decrease in the surface

307 NO₃⁻ concentration of ~1.3 μ mol L⁻¹ (Figure 4A). Samples for δ^{30} Si_{BSi} from BSi were taken

- 308 prior to bloom initiation on days 268 and 270 and exhibited δ^{30} Si_{BSi} values of 1.61 ± 0.2 ‰
- and 1.83 \pm 0.2 ‰, respectively (Figure 2B, Table 1), whereas δ^{30} Si_{BSi} values were relatively
- 310 lighter with respect to 30 Si following bloom initiation, with δ^{30} Si_{BSi} values of 1.35 \pm 0.2 ‰ on
- 311 day 275, and 1.22 ± 0.2 ‰ on day 279, respectively.
- 312 3.2. Mesocosm (700 L bag) experiment
- There was a significantly different response in the mesocosm experiment compared to the 313 314 response in surface waters over the duration of the voyage. Fluorescence and F_v/F_m increased 315 with peak fluorescence at around 160 hr (Table 2 Figure 5A). BSi, NO₃⁻ and Si(OH)₄ 316 concentrations in the bag at the start of the experiment were comparable to sea-surface concentrations of BSi, NO₃⁻ and Si(OH)₄ on day 266, when the experiment was initiated. Both 317 318 NO₃⁻ and Si(OH)₄ concentrations exhibited an 11-fold and 9-fold decrease (respectively) by the end of the mesocosm experiment, while BSi concentrations increased from 0.1 µmol L⁻¹ to 1.3 319 μ mol L⁻¹ by the end of the mesocosm experiment (Figure 5B). There was almost complete 320 utilisation of the Si(OH)₄ pool in the mesocosm by siliceous organisms, with BSi production 321 reaching 18 ± 1 nmol L⁻¹ hr⁻¹ during the exponential phase of growth. This value closely 322 resembles the rate of Si(OH)₄ depletion in the mesocosm, which reached $20 \pm 1 \text{ nmol } L^{-1} \text{ hr}^{-1}$ 323 324 during the exponential phase of growth.
- The starting value δ^{30} Si_{BSi} for BSi in the mesocosm experiment was 1.49 ± 0.2 ‰ (t = 0 hr) 325 and comparable to the sea-surface $\delta^{30}Si_{BSi}$ value of 1.61 ± 0.2 ‰ collected on day 268 (Figure 326 5B). Over the course of the mesocosm experiment, δ^{30} Si_{BSi} values became heavier with respect 327 to ³⁰Si, with δ^{30} Si_{BSi} values increasing to 2.64 ± 0.2 ‰ by the end of the experiment (Figure 328 329 5B). Silicon isotope fractionation within the experiment closely resembled Rayleigh fractionation kinetics, and a fractionation factor (α) of 0.9989, and an initial δ^{30} Si_{DSi} value of 330 2.92 ± 0.1 ‰ was calculated by fitting a model to the δ^{30} Si_{BSI} for BSi (Figure 5C) (De La Rocha 331 332 et al., 1997). While no phytoplankton community data were available for the mesocosm 333 experiment, examination of late exponential populations confirmed the presence of the diatoms 334 Asterionelopsis glacilis, Mellosira moniliformis and Ceratium arcticum (Figure 6).
- 335 3.3.Microcosm (20 L) experiment
- 336 Derived photosynthetic parameters from the microcosm experiment are presented in Figure 7. 337 Despite the increase in Chl *a* fluorescence at the end of the experimental period in both control 338 and Fe-addition experiments, both F_v/F_m and Chl *a* concentration decreased in the control 339 experiment, whilst Chl *a* concentration and F_v/F_m increased (p< 0.05) in response to Fe-

340 addition (Figure 7A, Table 3). The PSII effective absorption cross-section (σ_{PSII}) decreased in 341 both treatments by the end of the experimental period, however, this decrease was more pronounced in the Fe-addition experiment. BSi concentration increased from 0.1 µmol L⁻¹ at 342 T=0 to 0.9 \pm 0.2 µmol L⁻¹ and 1.1 \pm 0.1 µmol L⁻¹ at T=96 in the control and Fe-addition 343 344 experiments, respectively. The increase in BSi concentration is consistent with the mesocosm (700 L bag experiment, Figure 7) which exhibited a 12-fold increase in BSi concentration at 345 346 the end of the experimental period. In addition, both POC and PON concentrations exhibited a 347 2-3 fold increase at the end of the experimental period (Figure 7B), with POC responding 348 more strongly to Fe-addition in comparison to the control experiment. As a result, both 349 treatments exhibited significant increases in elemental ratios at the end of the experimental 350 period (Figure 7C). The increase in the C:N ratio, however, was more pronounced in the Fe-351 addition treatment, where POC concentration increased 3-fold compared to a 2.4-fold increase 352 in the control. Increases in Si:N and Si:C ratios were due to a more pronounced increase in BSi 353 concentrations compared to increases in PON and POC concentrations. The addition of dissolved Fe appeared had little effect (p > 0.1) on the Si:N and Si:C ratios at the end of the 354 355 experimental period (Figure 7C).

357 **4. Discussion**

358 Here we first discuss the silicic acid, BSi and silicon isotope results from the mesocosm and

- 359 microcosm experiments. We then place the experiments into context by comparing the
- 360 findings with water column measurements. We then detail the processes that might regulate
- 361 silicic acid utilisation in the waters east of New Zealand.

362 The fractionation of Si isotopes in the mesocosm bag experiment closely resembled Rayleigh fractionation closed-system kinetics as Si(OH)₄ was drawdown (Figure 5B). BSi concentration 363 364 increased 12-fold in the mesocosm over 8 days resultant from increased in diatoms production thus leading to an increase in δ^{30} Si_{BSi}. The value for δ^{30} Si_{BSi} at the beginning of the mesocosm 365 experiment was 1.49 \pm 0.2 %, which closely resembled surface values for δ^{30} Si_{BSi} measured 366 prior to bloom initiation on days 268 and 270 (Figure 5, Table 1). As the experiment progressed 367 δ^{30} Si_{BSi} increased to 2.64 ± 0.2 ‰ by the end of the experiment. Based on the increase in 368 δ^{30} Si_{BSi} and the drawdown in silicic acid as the mesocosm bag experiment progressed, we were 369 able to calculate a fractionation factor (α) of 0.9989 ($\epsilon = -1.1$ ‰) and a starting seawater value 370 371 for δ^{30} Si_{DSi} of 2.92 ± 0.1 ‰. The fractionation factor reported from the mesocosm experiment closely resembles fractionation factors previously published for laboratory and field 372 373 communities. De La Rocha et al. (1997) obtained a value for ε of -1.1 \pm 0.4 ‰ for the diatoms 374 Thalassiosira weisfloggii, Thalassiosira sp. and Skeletonema costatum cultured in the laboratory and found that fractionation was independent of species or temperature. More 375 376 recently Sutton et al. (2013), however, found significant variations in ε between the Southern 377 Ocean species Chaetoceros brevis (-2.09 \pm 0.09 ‰) and Fragilariopsis kergulensis (-0.56 \pm 378 0.07 ‰)., The fractionation factor reported here (-1.13 \pm 0.1 ‰) from the mesocosm 379 experiment also closely resembles fractionation factors reported for field communities, e.g. 380 Varela et al. $(2004)(-1.2 \pm 0.2 \%)$, Fripiat et al. $(2011)(-1.0 \pm 0.3\%)$ suggesting that species 381 composition of the overall diatom community in the open ocean plays an important role in 382 governing the Si isotope composition in surface waters.

The high δ^{30} Si_{DSi} value calculated from the mesocosm experiment reflects the relatively high δ^{30} Si_{BSi} values observed at the start of the experiment and also reflects the surface water composition prior to bloom initiation on days 268 and 270 (Figure 5, Table 1). The calculated δ^{30} Si_{DSi} of 2.92 ± 0.1 ‰ from the experiment is within the range expected for sub-tropical and tropical water (Beucher et al., 2008) and matches those reported from the Polar Frontal Zone of the Pacific Sector of the Southern Ocean (~3.2 ‰) (de Souza et al., 2012b). 389 In contrast to the mesocosm experiment, changes to Si(OH)4 and BSi concentrations for surface 390 waters within the eddy were relatively subtle (Figure 2B). In contrast to mesocosm experiment, sea-surface values for δ^{30} Si_{BSi} were relatively constant between days 268 and 270 and then 391 decline by about ~0.5 ‰ though to day 279, following bloom initiation (Table 1). The surface 392 393 water values presented here on days 275 and 279 for $\delta^{30}Si_{BSi}$ resemble values reported for 394 waters north of the Sub-tropical front in the Atlantic sector of the Southern Ocean (1.30 ± 0.1) 395 ‰)(Fripiat et al., 2012). It is likely that the observed shift in the δ^{30} Si_{BSi} composition in surface 396 waters towards lighter Si isotopes could be attributable to a change in the supply of Si(OH)₄ to 397 surface waters, possibly from SAW (Figure 2B). It also reflects the open system nature of the 398 area.

399 In contrast to the mesoscom experiment the BSi concentration in surface waters varied little during the ~17 day voyage, only increasing from 0.05 μ mol L⁻¹ on Day 264 to 0.11 μ mol L⁻¹ 400 on day 278 (Figure 4C). The relatively rapid uptake of Si(OH)₄ in the mesocosm experiment 401 402 as well as the 12-fold increase in BSi concentrations, in contrast to lack of in situ BSi 403 production, suggest that changes in water-column stability may have encouraged more rapid bloom initiation compared to surface waters. It is possible that Fe had a small stimulatory effect 404 405 within the mesocosm experiment, although it was only increased by 0.2 nmol L⁻¹ relative to surface waters, which were 0.3-0.4 nmol L⁻¹. This was tested in smaller microcosm (20 L) 406 407 experiments, where the rate of BSi production show little variation between control and Fe-408 addition replicates (p > 0.05). In these smaller experiments, Fe addition did seem to affect 409 photosynthetic parameters (F_v/F_m , σ_{PSII} and Chl *a* fluorescence) as well as POC concentration 410 in comparison to the control experiment such that some community dynamics may have 411 differed in the mesocosm experiment compared to the community in surface waters. It is 412 possible that the small addition of Fe may have removed resource competition between diatoms 413 and other phytoplankton in the mesocosm experiment, however, it is more likely that the larger 414 phytoplankton were initially dominating before being run into nitrate and possibly Fe-415 limitation (Boyd et al., 2012; Ellwood et al., 2015; Ellwood et al., 2014).

The surface water plankton community was dominated by the presence of eukaryotic picoplankton $(0.2 - 2 \ \mu\text{m})$, and a background population of photosynthetic prokaryotes (*Synechococcus* and *Prochlorococcus*). Size-fractionated Chl *a* distribution suggests that the picoplankton community dominated photosynthetic biomass. Previous studies in the area also suggest that at its peak, the phytoplankton bloom is dominated by photosynthetic prokaryotes and large diatoms such as *Asterionellopsis glacilalis* (cell volume ~ 60 μ m³) and 422 *Leptocylindrus sp.* (~ 600 μ m³) (Boyd et al., 2012). Similarly, we observed an increased 423 abundance of *A. glacialis*, *M. moniliformis* and *C. arcticum* in the exponential stage population 424 in the mesocosm experiment, but not for our water column measurements.

425 At this stage it is difficult to determine why $Si(OH)_4$ was depleted in the mesocosm, whilst the 426 sea-surface inventory was maintained. The consumption of Si(OH)₄ and the formation of BSi 427 in the mesocosm experiment suggests that Si(OH)₄ is not the ultimate factor limiting diatom 428 productivity as the water column stratifies and the spring bloom progresses (Boyd et al., 2012). 429 Ultimately the lack of bloom formation in the present study is likely due to water column 430 instability and unfavourable Fe and light supply conditions for bloom initiation (Chiswell et al. 431 submitted), as well as a dominant diatom phytoplankton assemblage compared to picoplankton. 432 Zooplankton grazing may also be suppressed in the mesocosm experiment, which may allow 433 full nutrient and Fe consumption, although during spring bloom development primary 434 producers tend to outcompete grazers (Boyd et al., 2012). For the current study, a fully developed spring bloom did not occur at this site, even after the voyage was competed 435 436 (Chiswell et al. submitted); there is a hint of a potential iron limitation of the plankton 437 community whereby F_v/F_m declined from 0.4 to 0.3 following a decline in dissolved Fe 438 concentration (Figure 4), so perhaps this was contributing factor to the lack of bloom 439 development.

One of the more important findings of the study was that despite the large species-level 440 441 variability in Si isotope fractionation factors observed by Sutton et al. (2013), the community 442 level fractionation factor of -1.1 % determined in in this study agrees well with previous 443 estimates of -1.2 ‰ (observed by Fripiat et al. 2012), and -1.1 ‰ (observed by De la Rocha et 444 al. 1997). Furthermore, the fractionation factor that was obtained from the mesocosm 445 experiment appears to exhibit little variation despite the relatively low ambient Si(OH)₄ 446 concentrations of 2 µmol L⁻¹ (compared to the Southern Ocean waters, where Si concentrations can be >20 μ mol L⁻¹) (de Souza et al., 2012b; Frank et al., 2003). This highlights the utility of 447 the diatom δ^{30} Si as a proxy for diatom Si(OH)₄ utilisation in paleo-reconstructions (e.g. 448 449 Beucher et al., 2007; De La Rocha et al., 1998) and that species level variation in Si isotope 450 fractionation may not be important when considering past trends in diatom Si(OH)₄ utilisation.

451

453 **4.3.** Conclusions

454 Contrasting results between the mesocosm (700 L) bag experiment and sea-surface measurements suggest that δ^{30} Si_{BSi} in surface waters rarely exceeds ~ 2 ‰ as a result of Fe-455 456 limitation of the diatom population at the end of a phytoplankton bloom (Boyd et al., 2012); and the continuous re-supply of Si(OH)₄ to surface waters. Despite this, δ^{30} Si_{DSi} values in 457 458 subtropical surface waters east of New Zealand are relatively high, and it is likely that silicic acid resupply by waters enriched in ³⁰Si likely plays a larger role in governing the δ^{30} Si 459 460 composition of surface waters, in addition to biological fractionation by diatoms. We also 461 observed that the community level Si isotope fractionation factor is independent of species 462 composition and Si(OH)₄ concentration. Our observed value of -1.1 ‰ is also consistent with 463 previous field studies (Fripiat et al. 2012 and Varela et al. 1997) and similar to mono-specific 464 lab culture studies (De la Rocha et al. 1997 and Milligan et al. 2004).

465

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Table 1. Surface BSi concentrations and δ^{30} BSi values over the duration of the voyage. Duplicate

474 samples for BSi were taken on days 266, 268 and 270 (mean \pm 1 SD). $\delta^{29}Si_{BSi}$ and $\delta^{30}Si_{BSi}$ values are

475 per mil (‰) with errors based on 2 standard deviation calculated from multiple measurements.

				Surface BSi
Day	Date	$\delta^{29}Si_{BSi}$	$\delta^{\rm 30}Si_{\rm BSi}$	concentration
				(µmol L⁻¹)
263	19/09/2012			0.092
264	20/09/2012			0.084
265	21/09/2012			0.074
266	22/09/2012			0.091 ± 0.050
267	23/09/2012			0.055
268	24/00/2012	0.02 + 017	1.61 ±	0.073 ± 0.010
268	24/09/2012	0.82 ± 017	0.25	
269	25/09/2012			0.040
270	26/00/2012	0.00 + 0.47	1.83 ±	0.071 ± 0.010
270	26/09/2012	0.96±0.17	0.25	
271	27/09/2012			0.056
272	28/09/2012			0.049
273	29/09/2012			0.049
274	30/09/2012			0.046
0.75		0.00 - 0.17	1.35 ±	0.045
275	01/10/2012	0.66 ± 0.17	0.25	
276	02/10/2012			0.102
277	03/10/2012			0.088
278	04/10/2012			0.110
			1.22 ±	0.092
279	05/10/2012	0.60 ± 0.17	0.25	
	263 264 265 266 267 268 269 270 271 272 273 274 275 276 276 277	26319/09/201226420/09/201226521/09/201226622/09/201226723/09/201226824/09/201226925/09/201227026/09/201227127/09/201227228/09/201227329/09/201227430/09/201227501/10/201227602/10/201227804/10/2012	263 19/09/2012 264 20/09/2012 265 21/09/2012 266 22/09/2012 267 23/09/2012 268 24/09/2012 0.82 ± 017 269 25/09/2012 0.82 ± 017 269 25/09/2012 0.96 ± 0.17 270 26/09/2012 0.96 ± 0.17 271 27/09/2012 274 273 29/09/2012	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

Time	BSi (μmol L ⁻¹)	δ ³⁰ Si _{BSi} (‰)	Si(OH)₄ (μmol L ⁻¹)	NO₃ (µmol L ⁻¹)	Fo	F _v /F _m
(hr)						
0	0.091	1.49			2.40	0.06
22					1.90	0.19
24	0.042	1.62	1.88	4.78		
36	0.049	1.94				
38			1.94	4.77		
46					1.80	0.23
48	0.087					
51			1.95	4.70		
58					2.00	0.23
61			1.87	4.58		
72	0.157				2.30	0.23
75			1.81	4.44		
94					3.20	0.35
96	0.332	2.04				
98			1.74	3.53		
118					7.10	0.36
120	0.542	2.19				
122			1.16	2.50		
144	0.750	2.54			12.8	0.26
146			0.82	1.55		
166					13.2	0.27
168	1.29	2.64				
170			0.47	0.42		
190					12.8	0.24
194			0.28			

Table 2. Results from the mesocosm (700 L bag) experiment for BSi, NO₃⁻ and Si(OH)₄, the isotope 479 composition (δ^{30} Si_{BSi}) of BSi, fluorescence, and F_v/F_m.

- 481 **Table 3.** Values from microcosm (20 L) experiment at T = 0 hours and at T = 96 hours ($n \ge 3, 1$ S.D).
- 482 BSi, Si:N and Si:C values with no error (*) reflect the single BSi measurement taken at T= 0 hours
- 483 prior to the start of the experiment.

Parameter	T = 0 hr	Control (T = 96 hr)	Fe-addition (T = 96 hr)
Chl a fluorescence	3.95 ±0.1	9.12 ±0.4	8.62 ±0.5
F _v /F _m	0.38 ±0.02	0.35 ±0.01	$0.41 \pm 0.01^{*}$
σPSII	762 ±61	717 ±35	595 ±41 [*]
Chl a (mg L ⁻¹)	1.34 ±0.1	1.26 ±0.1	$1.75 \pm 0.1^{+}$
POC (µmol L ⁻¹)	10.2 ±0.5	24.7 ±1.1	$31.6 \pm 2.5^{+}$
PON (µmol L ⁻¹)	1.6 ±0.01	3.24 ±0.2	3.22 ±0.2
BSi (µmol L⁻¹)	0.1*	0.92 ±0.2	1.09 ±0.1
Si:N (mol/mol)	0.06*	0.28 ±0.05	0.34 ±0.03
Si:C (mol/mol)	0.01*	0.04 ±0.001	0.03 ±0.004
C:N (mol/mol)	6.38 ±0.23	7.64 ±0.09	$9.8 \pm 0.18^{\ddagger}$

484 *Variation from control at the 90-95 % confidence interval

485 [†]Variation from control at the 95-99% confidence interval

486 [‡]Variation from control at >99% confidence interval

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- 620

621 Figures

- 622 **Figure 1.** Mass dependent fractionation (MDF) of δ^{29} Si vs δ^{30} Si line for all diatom samples relative to 623 NBS28. MDF line represented by δ^{29} Si = 0.55 ± 0.02[δ^{30} Si] – 0.08 ± 0.04, r^2 = 0.
- 624 **Figure 2. A.** Underway surface Chlorophyll fluorescence data, measured in arbitrary units (AU)
- obtained from the FRR (Fast Repetition Rate) Fluorometer for year days 268, 270, 275 and 279 of the
- 626 voyage. Black dots represent drogue drifter tracks. **B**. Surface (0 10m) values for BSi, Si(OH)₄, δ^{30} Si
- 627 and DFe for year days 268, 270, 275 and 279.
- **Figure 3.** Profiles of DFe, Si(OH)₄, NO₃⁻, and PO₄³⁻ concentration versus depth for year days 267, 270, 275 and 278.
- **Figure 4.** A Mean surface (0 10 m) nutrients (Si(OH)₄, NO₃⁻, PO₄³⁻ and DFe) over the duration
- 631 survey. B. cell counts for cyanobacteria and size fractionated eukaryotic phytoplankton along with
- 632 night-time F_v/F_m measurements. C. Concentrations of POC, PON and BSi. D. Size fractionated
- 633 Chlorophyll *a* concentrations and the Chl:C ratio. For surface macro-nutrients (Si(OH)₄, NO₃⁻ and
- 634 PO₄³⁻), values are in μ mol L⁻¹ ±1SD (n = 2). For mean DFe concentrations, values are in nmol L⁻¹, 635 ±1SD ($n \ge 4$).
- **Figure 5.** Results from the mesocosm (700 L bag) experiment; **A.** Photosynthetic parameters
- 637 **B** Concentrations of BSi, NO₃⁻ and Si(OH)₄ and the isotope composition (δ^{30} Si_{BSi}) of BSi
- 638 over the experimental period; C. Variation in δ^{30} Si_{BSi} during the experimental period, where f
- 639 is the fraction of dissolved silicon remaining (Si/Si_0 , where Si_0 is the starting concentration of
- 640 Si(OH)₄ in the bag). Instrumental errors for δ^{30} Si values are 0.2 ‰ (2SE). A fractionation
- factor (α) of 0.9989 was calculated using a SOLVER based algorithms to fit a model
- (equation 4) to the data and closely resembles the reported fractionation factor (ϵ) of -1.2 ±
- 643 0.02 ‰ for diatoms in the field (Fripiat et al., 2011). Also present is the model (equation 2)
- 644 for evolution of δ^{30} Si(OH)₄ during the experiment.
- 645 **Figure 6.** Microscope images of *Asterionelopsis glacilis* and *Mellosira moniliformis*. A.
- 646 glacilis is a pennate diatom (general length, $30 150 \,\mu$ m), while *M. moniliformis* is a centric
- 647 diatom (Length, 11-30 μ m, diameter, 17 70 μ m).
- 648 Figure 7. Change in A. photosynthetic parameters B. POC, PON and BSi concentration C.
- and elemental ratios for microcosm (20 L) experiment harvested after 96 hours incubation
- 650 time. Experiments represents T0, control and Fe-addition experiments.
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