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► **To cite this version:**

F. Fripiat, M. Elskens, T. W. Trull, S. Blain, A.-J. Cavagna, et al.. Significant mixed layer nitrification in a natural iron-fertilized bloom of the Southern Ocean. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, 2015, 29 (11), pp.1929-1943. 10.1002/2014GB005051 . hal-02556217

HAL Id: hal-02556217

<https://hal.science/hal-02556217v1>

Submitted on 15 May 2021

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

10.1002/2014GB005051

Key Points:

- Little nitrate consumption in an iron-fertilized bloom of the Southern Ocean
- Significant mixed layer nitrification
- Nitrate-based primary production is mainly regenerated production

Supporting Information:

- Text S1
- Figures S1–S5

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Citation:

Fripiat, F., et al. (2015), Significant mixed layer nitrification in a natural iron-fertilized bloom of the Southern Ocean, *Global Biogeochem. Cycles*, 29, 1929–1943, doi:10.1002/2014GB005051.

Received 2 DEC 2014

Accepted 19 OCT 2015

Accepted article online 21 OCT 2015

Published online 20 NOV 2015

Significant mixed layer nitrification in a natural iron-fertilized bloom of the Southern Ocean

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Abstract Nitrification, the microbially mediated oxidation of ammonium into nitrate, is generally expected to be low in the Southern Ocean mixed layer. This paradigm assumes that nitrate is mainly provided through vertical mixing and assimilated during the vegetative season, supporting the concept that nitrate uptake is equivalent to the new primary production (i.e., primary production which is potentially available for export). Here we show that nitrification is significant (~40–80% of the seasonal nitrate uptake) in the naturally iron-fertilized bloom over the southeast Kerguelen Plateau. Hence, a large fraction of the nitrate-based primary production is regenerated, instead of being exported. It appears that nitrate assimilation (light dependent) and nitrification (partly light inhibited) are spatially separated between the upper and lower parts, respectively, of the deep surface mixed layers. These deep mixed layers, extending well below the euphotic layer, allow nitrifiers to compete with phytoplankton for the assimilation of ammonium. The high contributions of nitrification to nitrate uptake are in agreement with both low export efficiency (i.e., the percentage of primary production that is exported) and low seasonal nitrate drawdown despite high nitrate assimilation.

1. Introduction

Southern Ocean biogeochemical cycles play a disproportionate role in setting the air-sea balance of CO₂ and global biological production [Sarmiento *et al.*, 2004; Sigman *et al.*, 2010]. Deep nutrient-rich waters ascend to the surface and are returned as subsurface waters further north, before the available nutrient pools can be fully utilized by phytoplankton [Sarmiento *et al.*, 2004]. This inefficiency of the biological pump to strip nutrients from the surface layer has been attributed to iron and light co-limitation [Martin *et al.*, 1990; Mitchel *et al.*, 1991] and represents (i) a missed opportunity to sequester more CO₂ into the deep ocean [Sigman *et al.*, 2010] and (ii) a nutrient leak toward low-latitude areas [Sarmiento *et al.*, 2004]. In contrast to the dominant high-nutrient low-chlorophyll (HNLC) areas, persistent and large blooms are observed downstream of islands and bathymetric features where the Antarctic Circumpolar Current interacts with topography [Blain *et al.*, 2007; Sokolov and Rintoul, 2007], increasing the supply of macro- (e.g., nitrate and phosphate) and micronutrients (e.g., iron).

The largest and recurrent bloom is observed around the Kerguelen Islands and the adjacent plateau to its southeast (Figure 1) [Blain *et al.*, 2007]. The biogeochemical dynamics have been extensively studied during KEOPS 1 and 2 (Kerguelen ocean and plateau compared study) in January–February 2005 and October–November 2011. Despite high primary productivity, the seasonal nitrate (NO₃[−]) drawdown was only slightly elevated (6 μmol L^{−1}) in comparison to surrounding HNLC areas (3–4 μmol L^{−1}) [Pondaven *et al.*, 2000; Nelson *et al.*, 2002]. To tackle that apparent paradox, we investigated the upper ocean seasonal nitrogen (N) cycle over the southeast Kerguelen Plateau using model and data for nitrate and ammonium concentrations and uptake rates, particulate nitrogen accumulation and export, and nitrate δ¹⁵N and δ¹⁸O [Savoye *et al.*, 2008; Trull *et al.*, 2008, 2015; Cavagna *et al.*, 2015; Dehairs *et al.*, 2015; Planchon *et al.*, 2015].

We conclude that surface mixed layer nitrification, the microbially mediated process by which ammonium is oxidized to nitrate, contributes significantly to the recycling and supply of nitrate for phytoplankton growth. A mixed layer which extends deeper than euphotic layer allows the nitrate produced by nitrification in the

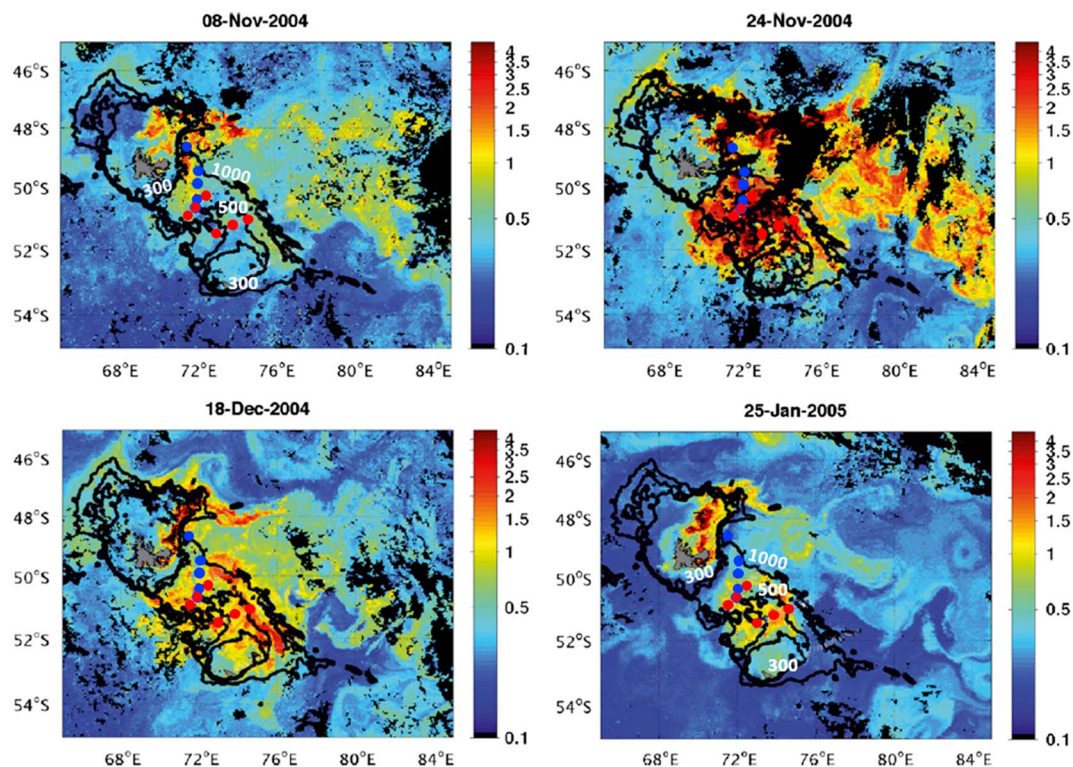


Figure 1. Seasonality of the bloom over and downstream of the Kerguelen Plateau as shown by Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) Aqua chl *a* images during the 2005 bloom period. Contours show the bathymetry [300, 500, and 1000 m isobaths; adapted from *Mongin et al., 2008*]. The red and blue circles show the KEOPS 1 and 2 stations investigated in this study.

aphotic part of the mixed layer (i.e., partly light inhibited) to become directly available for phytoplankton growth in the euphotic layer above. A deep spring-summer mixed layer appears to be a characteristic feature over the Kerguelen Plateau and could explain the high contribution of nitrification to nitrate assimilation there. However, a large-scale comparison between mixed layer depth (MLD) and euphotic layer depth (Z_{eu}) for the open “ice-free” Antarctic zone indicates that such a feature ($MLD > Z_{eu}$) is common in early spring (October–November), likely imposing a tighter coupling between nitrate consuming and regenerating processes for this area in early spring than previously thought.

2. Methods

The southeast Kerguelen Plateau is located south of the Polar Front in the open ice-free Antarctic zone (near 72°E and 51°S). This study combines several data sets obtained during two expeditions to the region that bracketed the seasonal cycle in biomass production (Figure 1). KEOPS 1 was carried out in January–February 2005 and KEOPS 2 in October–November 2011. The data include vertical profiles of nitrate $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ [Trull *et al., 2008; Dehairs et al., 2015*], mixed layer particulate nitrogen (PN) $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ [Trull *et al., 2008, 2015*], NO_3^- and NH_4^+ uptake rates in the 100 and 0.1–0.01% PAR (photosynthetically active radiation) depth ranges [Cavagna *et al., 2015*; P. Raimbault, unpublished results], and ^{234}Th -based particulate N (PN) export rates [Savoye *et al., 2008; Planchon et al., 2015*]. The discussion is focused on the southeast Kerguelen Plateau because this area was studied during both the spring and late summer expeditions, allowing us to constrain the seasonal evolution of the N-biogeochemical cycle (from October to February). Specifically we used data from KEOPS 1 stations A1, A3, A5, B1, B3, and B5 and KEOPS 2 stations A3, TNS-8, TNS-9, TNS-10, TEW-4, and E4-W (therefore neglecting the stations outside the Kerguelen Plateau area). This highly productive area is associated with weak mean currents that suggest residence times over the plateau reaching ~ 7 – 8 months [Park *et al., 2008a, 2008b*]. Thus, seasonal changes of water column properties reflect mainly local biogeochemical properties over the vegetative season (~ 3 months).

Method details for the different parameters are available in the individual publications, so here we provide only a brief overview. Nitrate (NO_3^-), nitrite (NO_2^-), and ammonium (NH_4^+) concentrations were measured on board with an autoanalyzer. PN concentrations (GF/F filtered seawater) were measured with an elemental analyzer–isotope ratio mass spectrometry (EA-IRMS). Uptake rates were measured using shipboard incubations of ^{15}N and ^{13}C tracers (NO_3^- , NH_4^+ , and dissolved inorganic carbon) during KEOPS 1 [P. Raimbault, unpublished results] and KEOPS 2 [Cavagna *et al.*, 2015] using the same methods. Seawater was sampled between 100 and 0.1–0.01% PAR, spiked with $\text{H}^{13}\text{CO}_3^-$ and either $^{15}\text{N}\text{-NO}_3^-$ or $^{15}\text{N}\text{-NH}_4^+$, shielded with neutral density screens simulating in situ PAR, and incubated at the temperature of local surface water in a flow-through on-deck incubator (during 24 h). The ^{15}N and ^{13}C incorporation into particulate matter was measured with an EA-IRMS, and uptake rates were computed by solving the mass and isotopic balances in the time frame of the incubations.

PN export rates at 100 m were estimated by Savoye *et al.* [2008] and Planchon *et al.* [2015] for KEOPS 1 and 2, respectively. These studies used the measurement of the natural radioisotope ^{234}Th produced from the decay of ^{238}U . The ^{234}Th is quickly adsorbed onto particles, while ^{238}U remains in solution. Because of its short half-life (24.1 days) and its strong adsorption onto particles, the deficit of ^{234}Th with respect to ^{238}U in the upper layer provides an estimate of the export of particulate matter from the upper ocean [Buesseler *et al.*, 2006]. Sparser observations of PN export using free drifting sediment traps gave similar results [Trull *et al.*, 2008; Laurenceau *et al.*, 2015].

The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ results for the combined pool of $\text{NO}_3^- + \text{NO}_2^-$ were reported in Trull *et al.* [2008] and Dehairs *et al.* [2015], for KEOPS 1 and 2, respectively, and were measured using the “denitrifier method” [Sigman *et al.*, 2001; Casciotti *et al.*, 2002]. Briefly 20–30 nmol of $\text{NO}_3^- + \text{NO}_2^-$ was quantitatively converted to N_2O gas by denitrifying bacteria that lack an active N_2O reductase. The N and O isotopic composition of this N_2O was measured by gas chromatography/isotope ratio mass spectrometry with online cryotrapping. Measurements were referenced to air N_2 and Vienna SMOW using the nitrate reference materials (injected with a NO_3^- concentration of 200 μM): IAEA-N3, with a $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of 4.7‰ and a $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of 25.6‰; USGS-34, with a $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of -1.8 ‰ and a $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of -27.9 ‰; and USGS-32, with a $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of 180‰ and a $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of 25.7‰ [Böhle *et al.*, 2003; Marconi *et al.*, 2015]. The PN $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ for both KEOPS 1 and 2 were measured with an EA-IRMS on suspended PN collected from the mixed layer using high-volume pumps [Trull *et al.*, 2008, 2015].

Several recent studies highlight that the inclusion of NO_2^- in measurements of the isotopic composition of $\text{NO}_3^- + \text{NO}_2^-$ can have a significant impact on the results even if nitrite is present at very low levels [Casciotti *et al.*, 2007; Rafter *et al.*, 2013; Fawcett *et al.*, 2015; Smart *et al.*, 2015; see supporting information for a detailed description of this interference]. In the present study, nitrification is inferred from the observed decoupling between N and O isotopes between spring and summer (section 3.2). The sensitivity to possible nitrite interference on this decoupling differs between N and O isotopes and may, therefore, induce a bias. To check whether or not nitrite interference could have induced a significant bias, we tested what would be the effect of varying nitrite $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ on the nitrate-only $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (see supporting information). We took into account effects of both the natural variability in nitrite $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and the methodological bias associated with a lower fractional O atom loss when nitrite instead of nitrate is reduced into nitrous oxide prior analysis [Casciotti *et al.*, 2007]. From this analysis, it appears that nitrite interference underestimates nitrate $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ by $0.3\text{--}0.5 \pm 0.1$ ‰ and 0.3 ± 0.1 ‰, respectively. The similar bias for both N and O isotopes implies no significant impact on our assessment of the seasonal decoupling between N and O isotopes (i.e., within the error range of the observations; see supporting information and section 3.2). For this reason and to allow the comparison with both Trull *et al.* [2008] and Dehairs *et al.* [2015], uncorrected $\text{NO}_3^- + \text{NO}_2^-$ $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values are taken to reflect the NO_3^- -only $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values.

The seasonal model is described in detail in the supporting information. The model calculates concentrations and isotopic compositions for the NO_3^- , NO_2^- , NH_4^+ , and organic N pools and uses a cost function approach versus observations (that equally weights these pools) to find optimal solutions. It uses the observed fluxes of nitrate and ammonium uptakes, particulate nitrogen export, and upward nitrate supply as additional constraints, with these evaluated over the full seasonal cycle to de-emphasize differences in the effective time scales of these methodologies. The model was run as a single box representing the surface mixed layer to obtain an initial overall perspective on the relative magnitudes of the processes, with a focus on the optimum fit for the ratio of the production of nitrate by nitrification to nitrate uptake. This model was run with and without assumptions regarding dissolved organic nitrogen concentrations (to address dissolved organic

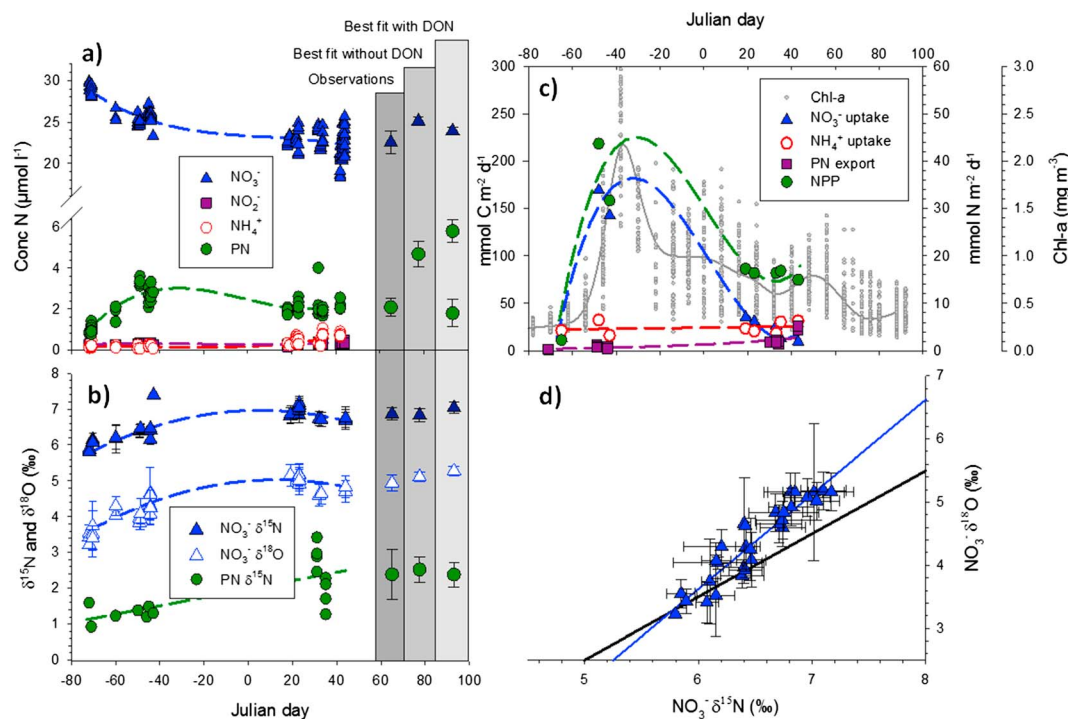


Figure 2. Temporal evolution of rates, concentrations, and isotopic compositions in the mixed layer. (a) Temporal evolution (Julian days versus 31 December; x axis) of NO_3^- (blue triangles), NO_2^- (black squares), NH_4^+ (empty red circles), and PN (green circles) concentrations. (b) Temporal evolution of $\text{NO}_3^- \delta^{15}\text{N}$ (blue filled triangles), $\text{NO}_3^- \delta^{18}\text{O}$ (blue empty triangles), and PN $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (green circles). (c) Temporal evolution of net primary production (green circles), NO_3^- uptake (blue triangles), NH_4^+ uptake (empty red circles), PN export (purple squares), and MODIS Aqua chl *a* (gray dots, 8 days, 0.25° resolution, between 49.25 and 51.5°S and 71.6 and 73.8°E , available at <http://hermes.acri.fr/index.php>) [Maritoner and Siegel, 2005]. (d) Mixed layer $\text{NO}_3^- \delta^{15}\text{N}$ versus $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (blue circles, error bar = 1 sd for the replicates, including both early spring and late summer observations). In Figures 2a and 2b, the averages (\pm sd) of the KEOPS 1 observations are shown in the dark-gray column (i.e., final conditions). The simulations with model outputs falling within ± 2 sd of the observations are shown in the medium- and light-gray columns, using model calculations without and with an actively cycling DON pool, respectively. When this pool is incorporated into the model as organic N, the simulated PN concentration (i.e., total organic N minus DON) falls within the error bars of the observations. In Figure 2d, the black line represents the 1:1 reference line (slope of 1) with the initial mixed layer (20 October) as the source and the blue line the data regression line (slope = 1.5 ± 0.1 ; $R^2 = 0.87$; P value < 0.001).

nitrogen (DON) data limitations). A simpler version of this model was also extended to a multibox version to determine the vertical distribution of nitrification, in particular to verify whether the observations required nitrification to occur within the surface mixed layer. Mixed layer (100 ± 40 m; average \pm standard deviation (sd) of 56 conductivity-temperature-depth (CTD) profiles during KEOPS 1 and 2) is representative of the surface box in which both primary production and associated N assimilation is occurring. This choice is motivated by the fact that (i) this layer is well mixed with a steep density gradient at the bottom, implying uniform biogeochemical properties and limited exchanges with the underlying ocean, and (ii) the euphotic layer (53 ± 16 m; average \pm sd of 21 profiles during KEOPS 1 and 2) in which most of the primary production taking place is more shallow [Cavagna *et al.*, 2015].

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Biogeochemical Properties

The seasonal evolutions of net primary production and NO_3^- uptake were in agreement with satellite Chl *a* observations (Figures 1 and 2c), which show that the bloom starts in early November, reaches its maximum level in late November–early December, and collapses in January–February [Blain *et al.*, 2007; Mongin *et al.*, 2008; Cavagna *et al.*, 2015].

Deep winter vertical mixing imposed high NO_3^- concentrations in the mixed layer at the onset of the bloom ($28.8 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$; Figures 2a and 3a). Over the course of the bloom nitrate was partly consumed

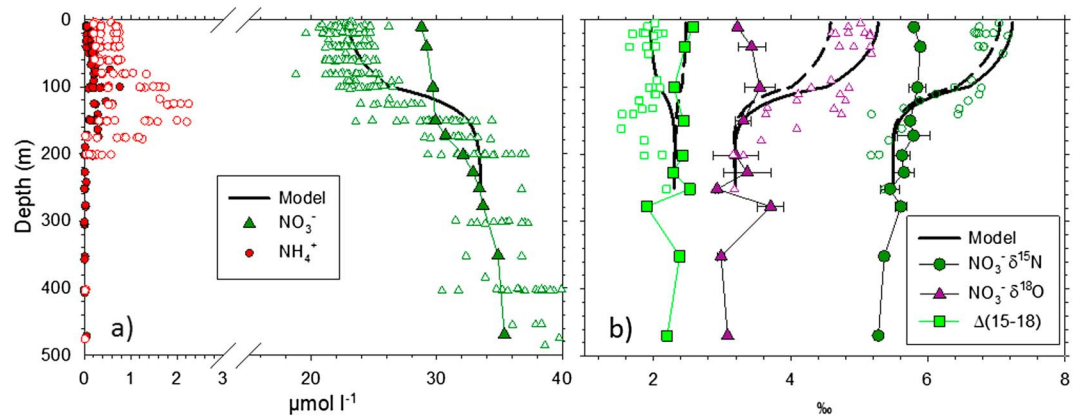


Figure 3. Observed and simulated vertical distributions of concentrations and isotopic compositions. (a) NO_3^- (green triangles) and NH_4^+ (red circles) vertical concentration profiles for the first station (A3-1) of KEOPS 2 (filled symbols; 20 October; representing the initial conditions) and KEOPS 1 (empty symbols; January–February; representing the final conditions). (b) Profiles of $\text{NO}_3^- \delta^{15}\text{N}$ (green circles), $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (purple triangles), and $\Delta(15-18)$ (green squares) for the first station (A3-1) of KEOPS 2 (filled symbols) and KEOPS 1 (empty symbols). Error bars = 1 sd for the replicates. The black lines represent the final conditions for the time-dependent one-dimensional vertical box model (0–250 m, 50 layers) for nitrification in both the mixed layer and below (full lines) and nitrification exclusively below the mixed layer (dashed lines). The initial model conditions are the first sampled station (A3-1).

with an estimated seasonal NO_3^- drawdown of $0.6 \pm 0.2 \text{ mol m}^{-2}$. NO_2^- concentrations in the mixed layer remained relatively low and constant from October to February ($0.3 \pm 0.1 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$; Figure 2a). NH_4^+ concentrations increased in the mixed layer from early spring (as low as $0.04 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) to late summer (up to $1.05 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$; Figures 2a and 3a), and a subsurface (150 m) NH_4^+ maximum (up to $2.3 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) occurred in late summer (Figure 3a). This maximum coincided with the development of a subsurface Chl *a* maximum [Mosseri *et al.*, 2008] and was located below the mixed layer in the region presenting the highest density gradient. Higher residence times for sinking particles resulting in an accumulation of biomass and associated remineralization is a likely cause of this ammonium peak [Blain *et al.*, 2015].

To compare these seasonal changes in nitrogen concentrations to the daily nitrogen flux measurements, we used the approach of integrating the best fit model curves as shown in Figure 2c. This de-emphasizes the different methodological time scales involved (e.g., 24 h for the uptake incubation experiments and ~30 days for the ^{234}Th -based export estimates) [Buesseler *et al.*, 2006] and yields (with $\pm 90\%$ prediction intervals): NO_3^- uptake = $2.2 \pm 1.0 \text{ mol m}^{-2}$, NH_4^+ uptake = $0.5 \pm 0.3 \text{ mol m}^{-2}$, and PN export = $0.2 \pm 0.2 \text{ mol m}^{-2}$. By comparing the best fit model curves with satellite Chl *a* observations, it is likely that the uptake rates should be in the lower range (Figure 2c). Satellite Chl *a* observations shows a clear spring peak in biomass with less summer continuation. The vertical NO_3^- diffusive flux is also estimated to be $0.2 \pm 0.2 \text{ mol m}^{-2}$, from the NO_3^- concentration gradient ($5.2 \pm 3.4 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$; between 0–100 and 140–160 m depth stratum) and the estimated vertical diffusivity ($3.0 \pm 1.5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) above the southeast Kerguelen Plateau [Park *et al.*, 2008a, 2014].

This comparison shows that on a seasonal basis, primary production was mainly sustained by NO_3^- uptake. Most importantly, even though the seasonally integrated NO_3^- uptake was high, the apparent NO_3^- depletion in the mixed layer over the season remained low ($0.6 \pm 0.2 \text{ mol m}^{-2}$; Figure 2a). Two processes can be responsible for this imbalance (1.6 mol m^{-2}) between seasonal NO_3^- drawdown and uptake:

1. NO_3^- supply by mixing and/or
2. significant nitrogen remineralization (conversion of particulate nitrogen to ammonium) coupled to nitrification (oxidation of ammonium via nitrite to nitrate).

The mixed layer NO_3^- budget can help to resolve these possible processes and can be described as follows, assuming a negligible contribution of both ammonium and nitrite:

$$\Delta\text{NO}_3^- = \Delta\text{ON} + \text{ON export} - \text{NO}_3^- \text{ supply} \quad (1)$$

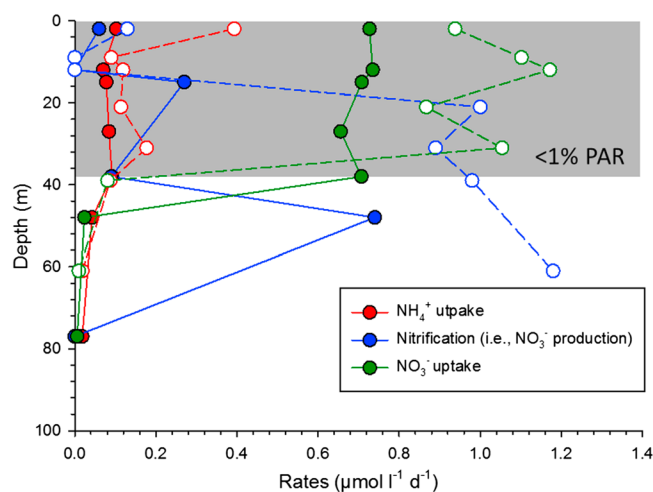


Figure 4. Vertical profiles of key nitrogen cycling rates in the mixed layer (100 ± 40 m) over the Kerguelen Plateau for two stations (A3-2 and E4-W) shown as filled and empty circles for NO_3^- uptake (green symbols), NH_4^+ uptake (red symbols), and nitrification (blue symbols) [Cavagna *et al.*, 2015]. These rates were obtained from ^{15}N isotope enrichment experiments: NO_3^- -spiked incubation (24 h) for uptake and nitrification (as reflected in term of production of NO_3^-) and NH_4^+ -spiked incubations for NH_4^+ uptake (24 h). The gray zone represents the depths receiving $\geq 1\%$ of the surface photosynthetically active radiation (i.e., euphotic layer).

during the vegetative season does not appear sufficient to explain the large decoupling (1.6 mol m^{-2}) between NO_3^- uptake and apparent drawdown. Indeed, higher supply requires that both the export and accumulation of organic matter increase (equation (1)), which was not observed. Hence, N recycling within the mixed layer via remineralization and nitrification appears to be a more viable explanation. This perspective is also supported by high daily nitrification rates in the mixed layer (up to $\sim 1 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$) in November (Figure 4), indicating a tight balance with assimilation rates [Cavagna *et al.*, 2015]. In the next section, we show that the isotopic composition of nitrate also points toward a strong contribution of nitrification to nitrate assimilation over the vegetative season.

3.2. Isotopic Constraints

Analysis of the natural N and O isotopic composition ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$) of the various fixed N pools has the potential to yield process rate estimates integrated over seasonal time scales. During NO_3^- assimilation, phytoplankton preferentially incorporate ^{14}N , leaving the residual NO_3^- enriched in ^{15}N [Sigman *et al.*, 1999]. Most field estimates of isotope effects are close to 5–10‰ (i.e., $^{15}\epsilon$ (‰) = $(^{14}\text{k}/^{15}\text{k})^{-1} \times 1000$, where ^nk is the rate coefficient for the ^nN -containing reactant) [DiFiore *et al.*, 2010]. Since phytoplankton discriminate against ^{15}N and ^{18}O to the same extent ($^{15}\epsilon \approx ^{18}\epsilon$) [Granger *et al.*, 2004, 2010; Karsh *et al.*, 2012], the residual NO_3^- $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ rise equally as assimilation proceeds (i.e., coupling between N and O isotopes). In contrast, nitrification decouples N from O isotopes [Lehmann *et al.*, 2004; Sigman *et al.*, 2005]. During NO_3^- assimilation and regeneration, the N isotopes are recycled between the fixed N pools, while the O isotopes are removed by nitrate assimilation (since NO_3^- is reduced to NH_4^+ before assimilation) and then replaced in the nitrification process (NH_4^+ to NO_2^- and then NO_3^-). Nitrified NO_3^- $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ will thus depend on the PN $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, as well as on the NH_4^+ and NO_2^- branching reactions and associated isotope effects (Figure 5) [DiFiore *et al.*, 2009; Fripiat *et al.*, 2014]. Nitrified NO_3^- $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ appears to be close to the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of the ambient water plus $\sim 1.1\text{‰}$ [Casciotti *et al.*, 2008; Sigman *et al.*, 2009; DiFiore *et al.*, 2009; Rafter *et al.*, 2013]. Co-culture experiments (combining NH_4^+ oxidizing bacteria, NH_4^+ oxidizing archaea, and NO_2^- oxidizing bacteria) give a range for the nitrified NO_3^- $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ between -1.5 and 1.3‰ relative to seawater H_2O $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ [Buchwald *et al.*, 2012], encompassing field estimates.

At the onset of the spring bloom, NO_3^- $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ were relatively constant with depth (Figure 3b). This is in agreement with the relatively small gradient in nitrate concentration and previously low

where ΔNO_3^- is the apparent NO_3^- depletion, ΔON is the accumulation in the mixed layer of organic N, ON export is the export of organic N below the mixed layer (^{234}Th deficit approach), and NO_3^- supply is the mixing term (=unknown in equation (1)). The accumulation of organic N is based on the PN concentration at the end of the vegetative season ($0.21 \pm 0.04 \text{ mol m}^{-2}$; Figure 2a) and the dissolved organic N (DON) accumulation (estimated to be 0.4 mol m^{-2} based on observed minus background HNLC concentrations) [Ogawa *et al.*, 1999], although this value is uncertain because DON was only measured during KEOPS 2 [Blain *et al.*, 2015]. Based on these estimates, the mixed layer NO_3^- budget is relatively well balanced (0.6 ± 0.2 versus $0.6 \pm 0.3 \text{ mol m}^{-2}$) considering the vertical NO_3^- diffusive flux ($0.2 \pm 0.2 \text{ mol m}^{-2}$) as representative of the mixing term. Additional supply through mixing into the surface water

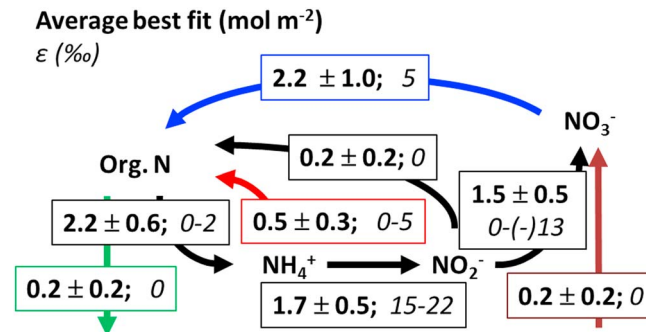


Figure 5. Prescribed and simulated fluxes obtained from the single box nitrogen cycling model (best fit average of 147 simulations \pm 1sd). The fluxes (bold numbers) are represented in mol m⁻² season⁻¹. Numbers in italic give the range for the isotope effects (see the auxiliary materials for more detailed discussion). Black arrows are the derived fluxes and colored arrows are the prescribed fluxes (with 90% confidence interval).

biological activity. Associated with the seasonal NO₃⁻ drawdown, NO₃⁻ δ¹⁵N and δ¹⁸O increased by 0.9 and 1.5‰, respectively (Figures 2b and 3b). The slopes given by the relationships between Ln([NO₃⁻]) and NO₃⁻ δ¹⁵N and δ¹⁸O provide estimates of the net N and O isotope effects associated with NO₃⁻ consumption (i.e., assuming Rayleigh fractionation, with the assumptions that the reactant and product are neither replenished nor lost from the system) [Sigman *et al.*, 1999]. For the observed NO₃⁻ depletion, N isotopes (net ¹⁵ε = 3.0 ± 0.3‰; R² = 0.80; P value < 0.001) appeared to be less

fractionated than O isotopes (net ¹⁸ε = 4.5 ± 0.5‰; R² = 0.71; P value < 0.001), with both of them lower than summertime field estimates [DiFiore *et al.*, 2010]. Such decoupling between N and O isotopes can also be visualized in terms of the NO₃⁻ δ¹⁵N-δ¹⁸O relationship (relative to the 1:1 reference line, slope = 1; Figure 2d). If NO₃⁻ assimilation (with ¹⁵ε ≈ ¹⁸ε) was the only process at work, the isotopic composition should fall on the 1:1 reference line [Sigman *et al.*, 2005]. Instead, mixed layer data from the iron-fertilized plateau show a slope of 1.5 ± 0.1 (R² = 0.87; P value < 0.001; Figure 2d). Nitrification can explain both this deviation above the 1:1 reference line and the lower net isotope effects compared to summertime field estimates. Nitrification produces NO₃⁻ with δ¹⁵N decreased more than δ¹⁸O compared to ambient NO₃⁻ [Sigman *et al.*, 2005, 2009; Casciotti *et al.*, 2008; DiFiore *et al.*, 2009; Rafter *et al.*, 2013].

This important influence of nitrification was further confirmed with the vertical profiles of Δ(15-18) (=NO₃⁻ δ¹⁵N-NO₃⁻ δ¹⁸O) [Rafter *et al.*, 2013]. As for the NO₃⁻ δ¹⁵N-δ¹⁸O relationship, the Δ(15-18) values allow assessment of the decoupling between N and O isotopes. With NO₃⁻ assimilation as the only process, Δ(15-18) should remain unchanged (=initial Δ(15-18)), since the isotope effects are similar for N and O isotopes. By regenerating NO₃⁻ with a lower δ¹⁵N than δ¹⁸O, nitrification decreases the Δ(15-18) of the initial nitrate pool [Sigman *et al.*, 2005, 2009]. At the onset of the bloom, Δ(15-18) was relatively constant with depth (with a mixed layer Δ(15-18) of 2.5‰; Figure 3b). This initial profile does not show clear evidence of wintertime surface nitrification as suggested with the observed decoupling of N and O isotopes in the upper ocean for the Atlantic sector of the Southern Ocean in winter [Smart *et al.*, 2015]. At the end of the bloom, mixed layer Δ(15-18) had decreased down to ~1.9‰, in agreement with the occurrence of spring-summer mixed layer nitrification (early spring Δ(15-18) minus late summer Δ(15-18) = 0.5 ± 0.3‰). Since here we report NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ δ¹⁵N and δ¹⁸O, an interference from the nitrite pool would also have the potential to affect differently N and O isotopes, implying possibly that an effect of nitrification is not required to explain the observations [Smart *et al.*, 2015; Fawcett *et al.*, 2015; see supporting information for a detailed description of this interference]. However, since (i) we are looking at the seasonal changes in both δ¹⁵N and δ¹⁸O (i.e., seasonal decoupling between N and O isotopes) and (ii) there is no significant change in the contribution of NO₂⁻ into the NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ pool (1.2 ± 0.5 %) between spring and summer, an interference from an invariant NO₂⁻ δ¹⁵N and δ¹⁸O will have no effect on our assessment of the decoupling between N and O isotopes (i.e., early spring Δ(15-18) minus late summer Δ(15-18) = 0.5‰). It is only in case NO₂⁻ δ¹⁵N and δ¹⁸O vary significantly between spring and summer that a bias could occur. By taking the range for both NO₂⁻ δ¹⁵N and δ¹⁸O that we can expect (including the methodological bias for O isotopes), the seasonal decoupling between N and O isotopes is 0.56 ± 0.22‰. Such a range is indistinguishable from the precision given on the observations (0.53 ± 0.30‰), implying a negligible impact of nitrite interference on the observed seasonal decoupling between N and O isotopes in the mixed layer.

A distinct subsurface (150 m) Δ(15-18) minimum was also observed in late summer (Figure 3b), coinciding with the subsurface NH₄⁺ and chl *a* maxima [Mosseri *et al.*, 2008]. Remineralization, coupled with nitrification,

of this accumulated biomass is a likely explanation for this distinct $\Delta(15-18)$ minimum (further discussed below). One could argue that such low- $\Delta(15-18)$ subsurface NO_3^- can be supplied into the mixed layer by vertical mixing in summer, and thus that mixed layer nitrification would not be necessary to explain the observed decoupling between N and O isotopes in the mixed layer.

In the following two sections, we use the vertically resolved version of the model and the water column profiles of the nitrate N and O isotopes to address the vertical distribution of nitrification (section 3.3) and to obtain optimized quantitative estimates of the contribution of nitrification to NO_3^- assimilation in the mixed layer (using the single box model; section 3.4).

3.3. Surface Versus Subsurface Nitrification

The southeast Kerguelen plateau is characterized by high-vertical-eddy diffusivities [Park *et al.*, 2008b, 2014] and a deep mixed layer (100 ± 40 m; average \pm sd of 56 CTD profiles during KEOPS 1 and 2). The euphotic layer (100 to 1% of photosynthetically active radiation) is more shallow, 53 ± 16 m (average \pm sd of 21 profiles during KEOPS 1 and 2). Until recently, nitrification was thought to be inhibited by light. However, effective measurements of nitrification rate show a maximum near the bottom of the euphotic zone (5–10% PAR) [Ward, 2007], i.e., within the mixed layer for the Kerguelen Plateau. A decoupling with depth between NO_3^- assimilation (light dependent) and nitrification (partly light inhibited) may occur either within the mixed layer, implying that recently nitrified NO_3^- is directly available for subsequent phytoplankton assimilation (case a) or only below the mixed layer in the extreme case of light inhibition (case b). In the latter scenario, recently nitrified NO_3^- must be supplied into the summer mixed layer through vertical mixing.

To determine which of these scenarios prevailed above the Kerguelen Plateau, we developed a multibox vertically resolved (0–250 m) model to qualitatively describe the seasonal evolution of NO_3^- $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ from the onset (October) to the collapse (February) of the bloom (see the supporting information for a detailed model description and sensitivity analysis). Briefly there are three processes presenting a contrasting vertical distribution (Figure S2 in the supporting information): (i) vertical mixing between adjacent layers, (ii) NO_3^- assimilation in the mixed layer, and (iii) nitrification, either considered to represent a fraction of NO_3^- assimilation in the mixed layer (mixed layer nitrification) or to decrease with depth from a subsurface maximum at the base of the mixed layer (subsurface nitrification) following particulate organic N attenuation with depth [Berelson, 2001]. In the model, nitrification produces NO_3^- with $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of 1.9‰ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of 0.6‰, reflecting the average PN $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and H_2O $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ($-0.5\text{‰} + 1.1\text{‰}$), respectively [Archambeau *et al.*, 1998; Casciotti *et al.*, 2008; Sigman *et al.*, 2009; Rafter *et al.*, 2013].

The model satisfactorily reproduces the NO_3^- concentration, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ profiles (Figures 3a and 3b). The model simulations reveal contrasting vertical $\Delta(15-18)$ distributions ($= \text{NO}_3^- \delta^{15}\text{N} - \text{NO}_3^- \delta^{18}\text{O}$), depending on the nitrification scenario (Figures 3b and 6). For the case of nitrification occurring only below the mixed layer, the lowest simulated $\Delta(15-18)$ values (2.3‰; Figures 3b and 6b) are found below the mixed layer where nitrification is strongest. Vertical mixing propagates this anomaly both upward and downward. For the case of nitrification in both the mixed layer and the subsurface, simulated $\Delta(15-18)$ values decrease upward (down to 1.9‰; Figures 3b and 6a).

In general, the observed $\Delta(15-18)$ values for the iron-fertilized plateau are consistent with the modeled occurrence of nitrification in both surface and subsurface waters (Figure 6). The model cannot reproduce the observed low $\Delta(15-18)$ values in the mixed layer without allowing for significant surface nitrification.

However, the model cannot also reproduce the distinct subsurface (150 m) $\Delta(15-18)$ minimum in late summer. In order to do so, recently nitrified NO_3^- should bear a $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ above $\sim 7\text{‰}$ or a $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ below $\sim -3\text{‰}$ or a combination of both (Figure 6c). Such high values for recently nitrified $\text{NO}_3^- \delta^{18}\text{O}$ are well above reported values [Sigman *et al.*, 2009; Buchwald *et al.*, 2012], except for one outlier at 5.3‰ in Buchwald *et al.* [2012]. One of the main factors driving variations in the recently nitrified $\text{NO}_3^- \delta^{18}\text{O}$ is the nitrite residence time, setting the degree of exchange between the O atoms in H_2O and NO_2^- [Buchwald *et al.*, 2012]. Exchanges lead to higher $\text{NO}_3^- \delta^{18}\text{O}$ because of the equilibrium isotope effect between NO_2^- and H_2O [Casciotti *et al.*, 2007; Buchwald *et al.*, 2012]. It is likely that the higher residence time for nitrite in the deep Chl *a* maximum (either via NO_2^- production rates in excess of NO_2^- consumption rates and/or slower overall rates) is the cause for the subsurface $\Delta(15-18)$ minimum. Alternatively, lower recently nitrified $\text{NO}_3^- \delta^{15}\text{N}$ can be achieved with an

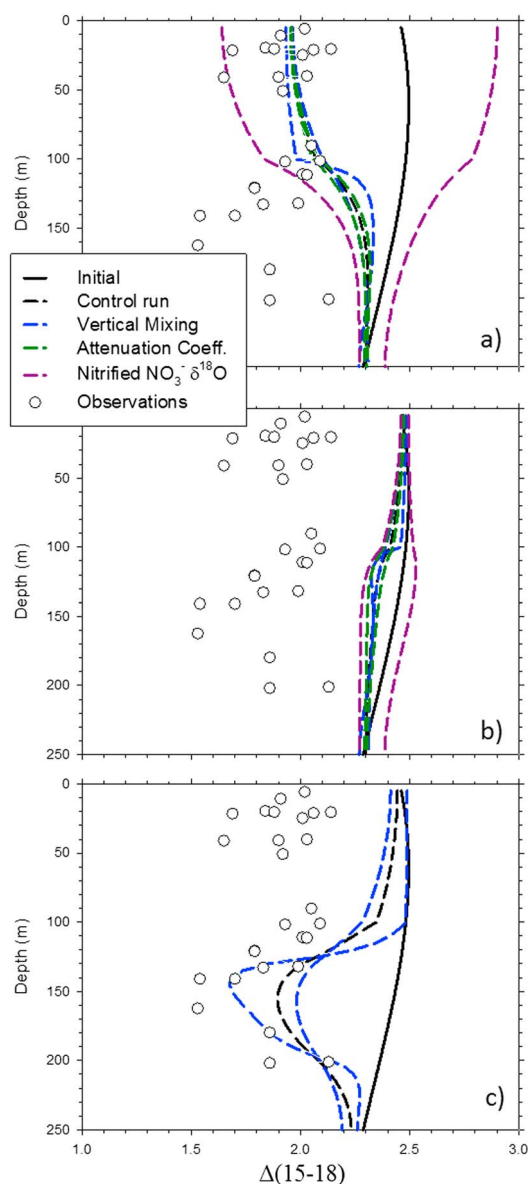


Figure 6. Sensitivity of the time-dependent one-dimensional vertical box model (0–250 m, 50 layers) to (i) the depth attenuation coefficient for the export of organic matter (green dashed line; $b = 0.6$ – 1.3 , i.e., the oceanic range) [Berelson, 2001]; (ii) to the vertical mixing rates (blue dashed lines; with a net upward nitrate supply varying from 0.03 to 0.3 mol m^{-2} , implying a large range in the upward and downward fluxes due to a small vertical nitrate gradient; see supporting information for a detailed description on the model sensitivity); and (iii) to the newly produced $\text{NO}_3^- \delta^{18}\text{O}$ (purple dashed lines, -1.5 to 1.3%) [Buchwald *et al.*, 2012]. The initial conditions are represented by the black line (A3-1 KEOPS2 station; 20 October). The dashed black line is the control run ($b = 0.82$; newly produced nitrate $\delta^{18}\text{O} = 0.6\%$; net nitrate supply into the mixed layer $= 0.2 \text{ mol m}^{-2}$). The final conditions are represented by the empty circles (KEOPS 1 station; January–February). (a) One-dimensional vertical box model with nitrification in both surface and subsurface. (b) One-dimensional vertical box model with nitrification in subsurface only. (c) One-dimensional vertical box model with no nitrification above 125 m (only at 125 m and attenuated with depth below, corresponding to the subsurface chl *a* maximum) and a value for newly produced nitrate $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ at 7% between 125 and 200 m.

imbalance between NH_4^+ production and consumption processes, as expected from the strong NH_4^+ accumulation ($2.3 \mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$) at the deep Chl *a* maximum. This imbalance allows the expression of the isotope effect associated with NH_4^+ oxidation (15 – 22%), leading to the production of low- $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ nitrate [Casciotti *et al.*, 2003; Santoro and Casciotti, 2011].

However, even with these extreme values for recently nitrified $\text{NO}_3^- \delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in the subsurface and a large tested range for the vertical mixing rates, surface nitrification is still required in order to reproduce the low- $\Delta(15-18)$ values in the mixed layer (Figure 6c; see supporting information for a more detailed description of the model sensitivity). As noted earlier, this result is also in agreement with daily nitrification rates (up to $\sim 1 \mu\text{mol l}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$) in the mixed layer at the peak of the bloom (Figure 4) [Cavagna *et al.*, 2015].

3.4. Surface Contribution of Nitrification to NO_3^- Assimilation

It is generally assumed that NO_3^- in the Southern Ocean is mainly assimilated in summer and replenished by vertical mixing during the winter months. Low nitrification rates in the mixed layer have been indeed reported in the HNLC areas ($< 0.1 \mu\text{mol l}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$) but only for fall and winter when primary production and remineralization are expected to be low [Olson, 1981; Bianchi *et al.*, 1997]. In contrast, in spring (November), daily nitrification rates in the mixed layer were much higher (up to $\sim 1 \mu\text{mol l}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$) over the southeast Kerguelen Plateau (Figure 4) [Cavagna *et al.*, 2015].

To further constrain the seasonal contribution of nitrification to NO_3^- assimilation, we used a time-dependent single-box model for the mixed layer (see supporting information for a more detailed description of the model). The model simulates the change in concentration of the fixed N pools (PN, NH_4^+ , NO_2^- , and NO_3^-) and their isotopic compositions ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$ for all of them and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ for NO_3^-) in the time frame given by the

observations (from October to February). During NO_3^- assimilation and regeneration, N isotopes are recycled between the fixed N pools (Figure 5), while O isotopes are removed, and then replaced by the nitrification process [Sigman *et al.*, 2005]. We assume that recently nitrified NO_3^- has a $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value equal to that of ambient seawater plus 1.1‰ [Casciotti *et al.*, 2008; Sigman *et al.*, 2009; Rafter *et al.*, 2013].

As previously described in the methods section, some N fluxes were independently estimated from observations and therefore prescribed (colored arrows in Figure 5). Both ammonium (NH_4^+) and nitrite (NO_2^-) concentrations in the mixed layer remained relatively low (Figure 2a), indicating a close balance between their production and consumption processes. This left us with two unknowns, both related to the relative contribution of the processes associated with the NH_4^+ and NO_2^- removals, i.e., assimilation and oxidation (branching reactions, black arrows in Figure 5).

We solve the model differential equations by varying both NH_4^+ assimilation/ammonification and NO_2^- assimilation/ NH_4^+ oxidation ratios, targeting the best agreement between the observations (and their uncertainties) at the collapse of the bloom (KEOPS 1) and the model counterparts. To measure this agreement, we use the minimum cost function, searching for the lowest standardized residual [Elskens *et al.*, 2007] (see supporting information for a more detailed description of the optimization scheme and the model sensitivity). By varying both NH_4^+ assimilation/ammonification and NO_2^- assimilation/ NH_4^+ oxidation ratios, the best fits (within the error range of the observations; Figures 2a and 2b) impose a contribution of nitrification to NO_3^- assimilation between 40 and 80%. The model is highly sensitive to the NO_3^- uptake term, with a contribution of nitrification in the lower range at lower rates. The comparison between the best fit model curves for NO_3^- uptake and satellite Chl *a* observation (Figure 2c) may suggest that it is likely that the NO_3^- uptake term might be in the lower range of the estimations. Such a contribution for nitrification fits the upper oceanic range reported in the literature [Ward, 2007; Yool *et al.*, 2007] and implies that NO_3^- is strongly recycled in the mixed layer over the Kerguelen Plateau. This analysis does not include DON, for which measurements were only reported for October–November and exceeded by up to $4\ \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ the concentration in the HNLC area [Ogawa *et al.*, 1999; Blain *et al.*, 2015]. Field and laboratory studies indicate that both bacteria and zooplankton preferentially degrade low- $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ organic N to ammonium, with a net isotope effect of $\sim 2\text{--}3\text{‰}$ [Checkley and Miller, 1989; Knapp *et al.*, 2011; Möbius, 2013, and references therein]. With the reasonable assumption that this fractionation is identical for ammonification of PN and DON (PN, DON \rightarrow NH_4^+) and that the DON release (PN \rightarrow DON) has little or no fractionation [Knapp *et al.*, 2011, and references therein], recently produced DON $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ will be close to PN $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ [Fripiat *et al.*, 2015]. Adding this $4\ \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ of DON to the final PN pool, assuming that it is an actively cycling N pool [Bronk *et al.*, 1994], allows us to improve the fit between the measured and simulated concentrations (Figures 2a and 2b) without changing the contribution of nitrification to NO_3^- assimilation (0.66 ± 0.09 and 0.72 ± 0.08 , average \pm sd, without and with the DON, respectively; $n = 147$ simulations).

We acknowledge that an uncertainty remains on the parameterization of the mixing term (set to $0.2 \pm 0.2\ \text{mol m}^{-2}\ \text{yr}^{-1}$ from the vertical diffusivity constant and vertical nitrate gradient; Figure 5). If the nitrate supply was revised upward (e.g., to reflect other processes such as entrainment by episodic mixed layer deepening), this mechanism would supply low $\Delta(15\text{--}18)$ nitrate into the mixed layer (from the subsurface nitrate $\Delta(15\text{--}18)$ minimum; Figure 3b) and imply an overall lower contribution of surface nitrification to nitrate assimilation. However, the relatively good fit between the seasonal (i.e., single box model) and daily (i.e., ^{15}N incubations) estimates argues against this possibility. In addition, in simulations with increased vertical nitrate supply (see Figure S5 in the supporting information), the model cannot reproduce the observations (in the limit of their uncertainties) for a nitrate supply higher than $0.6\text{--}0.8\ \text{mol m}^{-2}\ \text{yr}^{-1}$, and the ratio of nitrification to nitrate assimilation is still ~ 0.5 . We close this discussion of resupply by noting that while our assessment has been one-dimensional, estimated horizontal resupply from surrounding HNLC waters is insufficient [$\sim 30\%$ of seasonal depletion; Jouandet *et al.*, 2008] to change our conclusions.

The optimal estimated integrated nitrification in the mixed layer over the vegetative season is $1.5 \pm 0.5\ \text{mol m}^{-2}$ (Figure 5), with a mixed layer average of $0.13 \pm 0.07\ \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}\ \text{d}^{-1}$ (117 days and a mixed layer depth of 100 ± 40 m). In comparison, rates in other open ocean systems range from a few to a few hundred nanomolar per day [Ward, 2007] with the highest rates reaching $0.75\ \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}\ \text{d}^{-1}$ in the Peru upwelling [Lipschultz *et al.*, 1991].

3.5. Mechanistic Understanding and Biogeochemical Implications

The observed decoupling between mixed layer depth (MLD) and euphotic layer depth (Z_{eu}) can explain why the productive Kerguelen Plateau appears to be a favorable environment for nitrification to contribute significantly to nitrate assimilation in the surface water. The spring mixed layer for this area extends deeply into the water column (100 ± 40 m), well below the euphotic zone depth (53 ± 16 m). Productive areas are known to present high light attenuation with depth [Kirk, 1992]. This allows NO_3^- to be assimilated in the upper parts of the mixed layer, where light is sufficient to sustain high primary production and regenerated in the lower parts, where light is insufficient to inhibit nitrification [Ward, 2007]. Nitrate assimilation and regeneration can thus take place within the same water mass (i.e., mixed layer). The vertical profile indeed shows that NO_3^- assimilation rates decrease with depth, and nitrification rates increase with depth, within the mixed layer (Figure 4) [Cavagna et al., 2015]. At the bottom and below the euphotic layer, light intensity is severely reduced, phytoplankton are light limited, and nitrifiers can compete with phytoplankton for the ammonium produced by remineralization [Ward, 2007; Martens-Habbena et al., 2009; Newell et al., 2011; Smith et al., 2014]. Iron fertilization leads to overall higher primary productivity [Cavagna et al., 2015] and likely yields more ammonium from remineralization for nitrification. Several studies have shown that the microbial food web and grazing were indeed stimulated over the southeast Kerguelen Plateau [Brussaard et al., 2008; Carlotti et al., 2008; Sarthou et al., 2008; Christaki et al., 2015; Malits et al., 2014]. The absolute rate of nitrification likely tracks the overall productivity of the Kerguelen Plateau system (estimated to be $196 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ by integrating the net primary production curve in Figure 2), which is in the upper portion of the global oceanic range [Behrenfeld and Falkowski, 1997; Cavagna et al., 2015]. To summarize, the balance between nitrate assimilation and nitrification in the mixed layer is likely driven by the decoupling between MLD and Z_{eu} , and the absolute rates of both nitrification and N assimilation are dependent on the overall productivity.

To see if such decoupling is common in the Southern Ocean, we looked at MLD from Argo profiles, mainly between 2004 and 2006 [Dong et al., 2008] and Z_{eu} from satellite Chl *a* distributions for October 2004 to February 2005 (available at <http://hermes.acri.fr/index.php>) [Morel et al., 2007]. We focused on the open (i.e., ice free) Antarctic zone (OAZ) [DiFiore et al., 2009] between the Antarctic Polar Front and Southern Antarctic Circumpolar Current Front, which is representative of the water masses over the southeast Kerguelen Plateau [Park et al., 2008a, 2008b]. MLD is commonly deeper than Z_{eu} in October and November (Figure 7; Mann-Whitney rank sum test, P value < 0.001). The opposite is true from December to February (Mann-Whitney rank sum test, P value < 0.05). In the pelagic area south of 50°S , the bloom starts in October, peaks at the end of November–December, and collapses in January–February [Arrigo et al., 2008]. During a significant fraction of time (approximately from the onset to the peak of the bloom), MLD is therefore commonly deeper than Z_{eu} . This analysis suggests that the observed close balance between nitrate assimilation and nitrification may be a more general characteristic of the open Antarctic zone in early spring than previously thought. This needs to be further confirmed with spatially distributed studies, as well as direct nitrification measurements, which are still lacking in both spring and summer in this area [Olson, 1981; Bianchi et al., 1997]. The overall seasonal effect may not be as strong in the OAZ as over the southeast Kerguelen Plateau. Over the plateau, summer MLD tends to be deeper than in the OAZ (Mann-Whitney rank sum test, P value < 0.001 , with a median estimate up to ~ 25 m deeper) and Z_{eu} to be shallower owing to higher productivity (down to ~ 35 – 40 m at the peak of the bloom; Figure 4). The decoupling ($\text{MLD} > Z_{eu}$) is therefore maintained for a longer period of time (especially in December; Figure 7), likely allowing a higher contribution of nitrification to nitrate assimilation for this specific area. However, this study adds to the growing body of work (wintertime Antarctic zone and Antarctic sea ice, both low-light environments) [Fripiat et al., 2014, 2015; Smart et al., 2015] that suggest also surface nitrification in the Southern Ocean is more important than previously thought.

It is generally considered that the discrimination of nitrate and ammonium uptake enables resolving new from regenerated production [Dudgale and Goering, 1967], i.e., primary production sustained by nitrate from primary production sustained by NH_4^+ . This paradigm assumes, among other things, that nitrate is mainly supplied to the euphotic layer through vertical mixing from the ocean interior. At steady state the upward flux of nitrate must balance the downward flux of sinking PN, i.e., new primary production [Eppley and Peterson, 1979]. In this paradigm, nitrification occurs below the euphotic layer. In most of the ocean (e.g. low-latitude areas) Z_{eu} is deeper than MLD, implying that regenerated nitrate is not directly available to

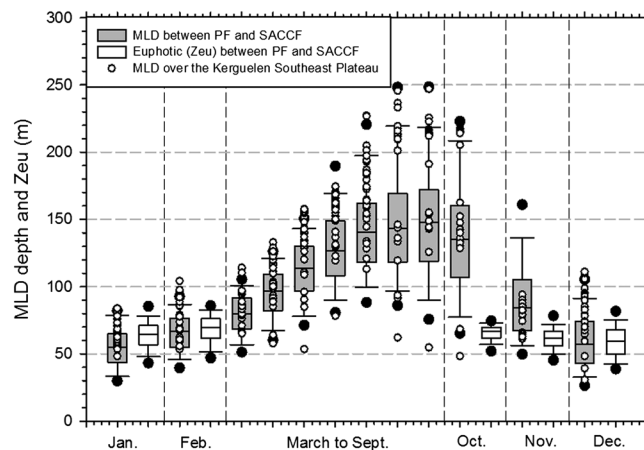


Figure 7. Mixed layer depth (gray boxes) and euphotic layer depth (white boxes) distributions in the open Antarctic zone (from the monthly climatology given in *Dong et al.* [2008] and available at <http://hermes.acri.fr/index.php>). MLD over the southeast Kerguelen Plateau is represented by the white dots (also from the climatology given in *Dong et al.* [2008] for the isobaths of ~500 m). MLD was computed from individual Argo profiles based on the threshold method with a finite-density difference criterion (0.03 kg m^{-3}) from a near-surface reference value. The MLD climatology was mapped onto a $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ grid [*Dong et al.*, 2008]. Euphotic depth (1% PAR) was derived from Sea-viewing Wide Field-of-view Sensor products of surface Chl *a* (following *Morel et al.* [2007]). The Z_{eu} climatology represents the binned monthly values mapped onto a $100 \text{ km} \times 100 \text{ km}$ grid. The locations of the fronts given in *Orsi et al.* [1995] have been used to retrieve the data corresponding to the open Antarctic zone (between the Antarctic Polar Front and Southern Antarctic Circumpolar Current Front). The boxes, whiskers, and symbols cover the 25th to 75th, the 10th to 90th, and the 5th to 95th percentiles, respectively.

uptake + NH_4^+ uptake]). If one knows primary productivity, new primary production can be estimated by multiplying it by the *f* ratio [*Dudgale and Goering*, 1967]. The *f* ratio over the southeast Kerguelen Plateau in spring is in the range of 0.75–0.85 [*Cavagna et al.*, 2015; *Trull et al.*, 2015]. By considering the fraction of NO_3^- assimilation provided through nitrification, the corrected *f* ratio decreases to 0.26. This value is similar to the average PN export efficiency over the southeast Kerguelen Plateau, 0.02–0.30 (i.e., the fraction of primary production that is exported from the upper 100 m) as determined from the ^{234}Th deficit and the $^{234}\text{Th}:\text{N}$ ratio of the exported organic matter [*Savoie et al.*, 2008; *Planchon et al.*, 2015]. Nitrate-based primary production in this iron-fertilized bloom appears mainly to return to nitrate through nitrification. Overall, the concomitant high residual NO_3^- concentration ($>20 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) at the end of the vegetative season emphasizes that the lack of iron is not the only driver of the high-nutrient low-chlorophyll character in the Antarctic zone. This study highlights the role of low light level in deep mixed layers, already recognized as a co-limitation factor, together with iron, for primary production [*Martin et al.*, 1990; *Mitchel et al.*, 1991; *de Baar et al.*, 2005], via its impact on nitrification and the regeneration of nitrate within the mixed layer.

Finally, we consider the possibility that high nitrification provides a feedback to climate warming via N_2O production that counters the removal of CO_2 by the iron-enhanced biological pump. *Fuhrman and Capone* [1991] hypothesized that iron fertilization by leading to higher primary productivity should promote the formation of nitrous oxide (N_2O) via stimulation of the overall N cycle (assimilation + regeneration). This was not observed. There were no indications of significant N_2O production in the mixed layer over the southeast Kerguelen Plateau at the onset of the bloom [*Farias et al.*, 2015], with estimated atmosphere-ocean N_2O fluxes ranging from -10.5 to $5.1 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ (with positive values representing fluxes from the ocean to the atmosphere). Nitrification is thought to dominate N_2O production in oxic water columns [*Bange*, 2007]. N_2O is a by-product of nitrification with a N_2O yield (moles of N_2O produced per mole ammonium consumed $\times 100$)

phytoplankton, in agreement with the approach described by *Dudgale and Goering* [1967] to assess new primary production. The particularity of the Kerguelen Plateau, and the open Antarctic zone in spring, is that the MLD is commonly deeper than Z_{eu} , allowing the nitrate produced by nitrification to be easily transported into the euphotic, thereby directly supporting regenerated primary production. The new production paradigm in the sense of *Dudgale and Goering* [1967] has been recently challenged with the observations of significant nitrification in the euphotic layer, even in the low-latitude ocean [*Yool et al.*, 2007]. Their modeling study suggests that nitrification could account for about half of the nitrate consumed in the euphotic layer by phytoplankton at the global scale. However, the Southern Ocean was still considered to obey the initial paradigm with presumed low nitrification rates [*Olson*, 1981; *Bianchi et al.*, 1997; *Yool et al.*, 2007; *DiFiore et al.*, 2009]. A commonly used metric to assess new primary production is the *f* ratio (i.e., NO_3^- uptake/ $[\text{NO}_3^-$

ranging between 0.001 and 10% [Goreau *et al.*, 1980; Yoshida *et al.*, 1989; Bange, 2007; Frame and Casciotti, 2010; Löscher *et al.*, 2012]. In the conditions encountered in the summer mixed layer over the southeast Kerguelen Plateau (oxic conditions and low-nitrite concentrations), the N₂O yield should be in the lower range (0.001 to 0.05%) [Frame and Casciotti, 2010; Löscher *et al.*, 2012]. By taking this range and the average daily nitrification rates of 12.8 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹ (from the single box model), N₂O production by nitrification should range between 0.1 and 6.4 μmol m⁻² d⁻¹, encompassing the observed range for the atmosphere-ocean N₂O fluxes [Farias *et al.*, 2015]. Thus, the enhanced surface nitrification does not seem to increase significantly N₂O production in this specific iron-fertilized area with therefore no significant effect on climate. This is in agreement with the study of Clark *et al.* [2014] in the North Sea showing nitrous oxide concentration in the mixed layer comparable to that of the atmosphere in spite of a close balance between assimilation and regeneration (i.e., nitrification) processes for the dissolved inorganic N forms (NH₄⁺, NO₂⁻, and NO₃⁻).

4. Conclusion

Although iron fertilization clearly stimulates primary productivity and total nitrogen uptake over the southeast Kerguelen Plateau [Cavagna *et al.*, 2015], nitrate concentration at the end of the growing period is only slightly lower than the levels encountered in surrounding high-nutrient low-chlorophyll waters [Pondaven *et al.*, 2000; Nelson *et al.*, 2002; Blain *et al.*, 2007]. We suggest that this condition arises because mixed layer nitrification is significant over the Kerguelen Plateau and is sufficient to sustain most of the NO₃⁻ assimilation on a seasonal basis (40 to 80 %). The large contribution of nitrification is inferred from the imbalance between nitrate assimilation (from nitrate uptake rates) and apparent nitrate depletion, implying another source of nitrate, and the decoupling between N and O isotopes in upper oceanic nitrate, fingerprinting the occurrence of nitrification. This is further confirmed by high daily nitrification rates measured in incubations in November [Cavagna *et al.*, 2015]. The large decoupling between the euphotic layer and mixed layer depths (with MLD > Z_{eu}) appears to be the environmental condition that allows nitrifiers to so successfully compete with phytoplankton for the reprocessing of ammonium. We encourage further investigations on the significance of nitrification in the Southern Ocean. Previous studies reporting nitrification rates have been mainly performed during unproductive seasons [Olson, 1981; Bianchi *et al.*, 1997]. It is likely that a prevailing deep mixed layer in this ocean imposes a tighter coupling between nitrate consuming and regenerating processes than previously expected, especially in early spring. Together with the recent studies of Smart *et al.* [2015] and Fripiat *et al.* [2014, 2015] in wintertime Antarctic zone and in sea ice (both low-light environments), this study shows that there is a growing recognition of the importance of nitrification at the surface of the Southern Ocean.

Acknowledgments

Data are available as in the data repositories of both KEOPS 1 (<http://www.obs-vlfr.fr/proof/vt/op/ec/keops/keo.htm>) and KEOPS 2 (http://www.obs-vlfr.fr/proof/php/keops2/x_datalist_1.php?xxop=keops2&xxcamp=keops2). We thank the Captain and the crew of *Marion-Dufresne* as well as KEOPS 1 and 2 chief scientists B. Quéguiner and S. Blain for their assistance and help during the cruises. We are grateful to the Institut Paul Emile Victor for having granted us access to the *Marion-Dufresne*. The research was conducted with grants from (Belgian Science Policy, grant SD/CA/05A), Flanders Research Foundation (FWO; grant G071512N); Vrije Universiteit Brussel (Strategic Research Plan); and the Antarctic Climate and Ecosystem Cooperative Research Center. F. Fripiat is currently a postdoctoral fellow at FWO, Flanders Research Foundation. The interpretation of the data was greatly aided by expertise F. Fripiat learned during his time in the Sigman laboratory at Princeton University.

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