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Influence of planktonic foodweb structure on a system's capacity to support pelagic production: an inverse analysis approach

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Abstract:

Coupled plankton/small pelagic (SP) fish systems were analysed to assess how foodweb structure influences the export of carbon to pelagic fish during the spring bloom in the Bay of Biscay. The investigation of carbon export flows through inverse analysis was supplemented by estimating the carrying capacity for pelagic fish production by applying linear programming. A planktonic foodweb dominated by microbial pathways had the highest trophic efficiency owing to the tight coupling between planktonic trophic levels and predation pressure on mesozooplankton by fish. Moreover, the magnitude of the gap between carrying capacity and estimated carbon export was related to the size structure of primary producers, with the picophytoplankton-based foodweb having the smallest gap and the microphytoplankton-based one the largest gap. Planktonic foodwebs dominated by small autotrophic cells channelled most of their available carbon to pelagic fish production, whereas foodwebs dominated by large phytoplankton were better suited to benthic communities with a large loss of carbon through sedimentation. Although the total carbon available to higher trophic levels does not vary with the size of the main primary producers, the potential export to SP fish depends on the structure of the planktonic foodweb.

Keywords: Bay of Biscay ; carbon export ; carrying capacity ; inverse analysis ; planktonic foodweb ; small pelagic fish

1 INTRODUCTION

2

3 The fate of primary production and the flux of biogenic carbon in the oceans are
4 major concerns in biological oceanography (e.g. Duarte and Cebrian, 1996). The fate of
5 primary production depends on the path carbon takes within the planktonic food web. Two
6 simplified patterns, the grazing food chain and the microbial food web, have been
7 distinguished based on the size of the main algal producers (Azam *et al.*, 1983,
8 Sommaruga, 1995). The most common view indicates that the planktonic food web exports
9 biogenic carbon mostly during diatom blooms (e.g. Cushing, 1989, Legendre, 1990) when
10 the algal cells are either directly grazed by metazoans or sink out of the photic zone
11 (Legendre, 1990). This situation (upwelling, coastal waters) corresponds to the most
12 productive world wide fisheries (Cushing, 1989). The opposite situation is found in
13 oligotrophic waters where the main primary producers are pico-nanophytoplankton that are
14 not directly grazed by mesozooplankton (Capriulo *et al.*, 1991). Within this kind of
15 ecosystem, the biogenic carbon is recycled through the microbial food web before it
16 reaches metazoans (Cushing, 1989, Legendre and Le Fevre, 1995). This type of planktonic
17 food web structure corresponds to the lowest export rates of biogenic carbon (Legendre
18 and Rassoulzadegan, 1996) and to less productive fisheries. Regarding the two planktonic
19 food web functioning described above, the food web structure has an influence on the
20 system's capacity to support benthic and/or pelagic fish production (Sommer *et al.*, 2002).
21 Thus, describing the planktonic food web structure and functioning is essential to
22 understand the trophic links between plankton communities and higher trophic levels.

23 In the Bay of Biscay, small pelagic fish such as anchovy or sardines are an
24 important economic resource. In spring, these fish are mainly localized on the continental
25 shelf which corresponds to the peak spawning period (between May and July) (Motos *et*

1 *al.*, 1996). Previous studies have shown the occurrence of winter diatom blooms on the
2 continental shelf of the Bay of Biscay (e.g. Gohin *et al.*, 2003) that lead to the onset of
3 phosphorus limitation in early spring (e.g. Herbland *et al.*, 1998). As a consequence, spring
4 corresponds to a transient situation from a system dominated by large-sized phytoplankton
5 (winter diatom bloom) to one dominated by small-sized phytoplankton that are better
6 competitors in phosphorus-limited conditions (Herbland *et al.*, 1998). During spring, the
7 planktonic food web in the Bay of Biscay is then based on multivorous trophic flows
8 (Legendre and Rassoulzadegan, 1995). The consequences of this specific planktonic food
9 web dynamics on carbon export through sedimentation have been studied using inverse
10 analysis (Marquis *et al.*, 2007). In that study, phytoplankton size was not a determining
11 factor in downward export (E, i.e. sedimentation) (Legendre and Rivkin, 2002) and
12 bacterial activity had potentially a higher control on relative carbon export than
13 phytoplankton size structure. In the present study, we focused on examining the export to
14 the higher pelagic food web (F) (Legendre and Rivkin, 2002). We focused specifically on
15 small pelagic fish production that is an important economic resource in this area. Inverse
16 analysis method (Vézina and Platt, 1988, Vézina, 1989) was used to reconstruct the entire
17 food web combining plankton and fish compartments and to estimate carbon flows.

18 The overall goal of this study was to specify the relationship between planktonic
19 food web functioning and the system capacity to export biogenic carbon to small pelagic
20 fish (F) during spring. We investigated two different estimates of export to higher pelagic
21 levels: one is an export consistent with the available data on fish abundance and the second
22 is a potential export, i.e. the maximum carbon flux that can support pelagic fish production
23 given constraints on primary production and food web structure (F_{max}). Our question was
24 whether there is a substantial gap between the two estimates and whether food web
25 structure influences the difference between real export and capacity of export. This is the

1 first time inverse analysis has been used to investigate the productive capacity of fisheries
2 ecosystems.

3

4

5 **MATERIAL AND METHODS**

6

Study site

7 The Bay of Biscay (Fig. 1) is an open bay within the eastern Atlantic Ocean. This
8 bay is characterized by a large continental shelf (up to 200 km wide). Data for the study
9 were obtained from the PEL2001 oceanographic cruise (Fig. 1) in spring 2001. Plankton
10 was sampled at three stations (A, 47°11N-3°15W, 70-m deep; B, 47°04-4°19W, 129-m
11 deep; and C, 46°55N-05°17W, 381-m deep; respectively 11,12 and 13 May 2001) located
12 on a Loire plume transect across the continental shelf (A being the station closest to the
13 Loire estuary and C the farthest) (Fig. 1). Based on the available data at the three stations,
14 three food webs have been constructed using inverse analysis.

15

16

Plankton and fish data

17 Data about plankton ecosystem, i.e. productions and biomass (Table 1), were
18 sourced from Marquis *et al.* (2007). With regard to the variation in field data estimation
19 over one-week survey (Biomet cruises, cf. Marquis *et al.* 2007), the overall estimate error
20 for plankton input data was assumed to be less than 20%. Before comparing the three
21 systems, the impact of this uncertainty in the input data on the carbon flow estimates has
22 been tested with a sensitivity analysis where each input data was individually changed by
23 plus and minus 20% (cf. Marquis *et al.* 2007).

24

25

The small pelagic fish species studied were: anchovy (*Engraulis encrasicolus*),
Atlantic horse mackerel (*Trachurus trachurus*), Atlantic and chub mackerel (*Scomber*

1 *scombrus* and *S. japonicus*), sardine (*Sardina pilchardus*) and sprat (*Sprattus sprattus*).
2 Fish species were regrouped into functional compartments based on published feeding
3 requirements (derived from Mehl and Westgard, 1983, Tudela and Palomera, 1997,
4 Plounevez and Champalbert, 2000, Bode *et al.*, 2003, Sanchez and Olaso, 2004):
5 • Small Pelagic 1 (SP1): strict zoophagous (anchovy, sprat, small horse mackerel ≤ 16 cm,
6 small sardine ≤ 18 cm and small Atlantic + chub mackerel ≤ 24 cm).
7 • Small Pelagic 2 (SP2): phyto-zoophagous (large sardine > 18 cm).
8 • Small Pelagic 3 (SP3): meso and macrozoophagous and ichthyophagous (large horse
9 mackerel > 16 cm and large Atlantic + chub mackerel > 24 cm).

10 Small pelagic fish biomasses (Table 1) were estimated from acoustic surveys run
11 during daytime at 10 knots along cross-shore transects from the coast (20 m isobath) to the
12 edge of the continental shelf (250 m isobath). Transects were parallel to each other and set
13 at approximately 12 nautical miles from each other. Trawl hauls run in conjunction with
14 the acoustic surveys allowed us to assess the proportion of each species of small pelagic
15 fish within each transect (Petitgas *et al.*, 2003). The biomass of species was then
16 determined according to its average size and wet weight collected during trawls. The
17 estimate error of this method is assumed to be around 12.5% (Petitgas, 1993). The
18 conversions from wet weight (WW) to dry weight (DW) and carbon biomass (CB) were
19 done by applying the ratios: $DW = 0.30$ WW and $CB = 0.45$ DW (Karakoltsidis *et al.*,
20 1995). We took fish movements into account during 24 h by calculating the mean biomass
21 of small pelagic fish within a radius of 15 nautical miles around each station (A, B and C).

22

23 **Methods to construct and analyze food webs**

24 Inverse analysis is a numerical method for developing complete, steady state food
25 web models (Vézina and Platt 1988, Vézina 1989). The *a priori* linear model (Fig. 2) links

1 observations to unknown flows that need to be estimated. Inverse analysis uses field
2 estimates and other data sources to develop a network of equations and inequalities in
3 order to build the best estimates of food web flows. The solution selected is the minimum
4 of a norm ('parsimony principle'). A complete description of the method is in Marquis *et*
5 *al.* (2007). The algorithm of resolution from Vézina and Platt (1988) was programmed by
6 G. A. Jackson using the software Matlab©.

7 In the present work, the method used in Marquis *et al.* (2007) was subjected to two
8 modifications concerning (1) the coupling of the small pelagic fish compartments with the
9 plankton ecosystems and (2) the estimation of the carrying capacity.

10

11 *Coupling the fish compartments to the planktonic systems*

12 We used concurrent fish abundance data to constrain the flow from plankton to
13 higher consumers. This is something that is rarely done, if ever, in inverse analysis where
14 the focus is usually on passive carbon export and export to fish is either ignored or treated
15 as a free parameter.

16 The simple *a priori* model (Marquis *et al.*, 2007) was adapted to include three small
17 pelagic fish compartments (Fig. 2). The new *a priori* model included 50 average flows of
18 carbon below one square meter of the photic zone during one day (Table 2).

19 The 22 inequalities concerning fish compartments described their consumption (Q)
20 and production (P). Those inequalities were calculated with the mean ratios of
21 consumption on biomass (Q/B) and production on biomass (P/B) of each small pelagic fish
22 group (Table 3). The highest and the lowest values of those ratios found in the literature for
23 each species were used to build the interval limits for each trophic group (derived from
24 Hoenig, 1983, Palomares and Pauly, 1989, Pauly, 1989, Ainsworth *et al.*, 2001, Harvey *et*
25 *al.*, 2003, Trites, 2003, Sanchez and Olaso, 2004). The aggregate Q/B and P/B ratios for

1 each fish compartment were the sum of the ratios for each species making up the
2 compartment, weighted by the relative biomass of each species. The egestion (feces
3 production) flux ranged between 10 and 20% of the consumption (derived from Klumb,
4 2002). The diet of SP2 and SP3 fishes was assumed to comprise between 40 and 60%
5 mesozooplankton while SP1 were assumed to consume 100% mesozooplankton (derived
6 from Mehl and Westgard, 1983, Tudela and Palomera, 1997, Plounevez and Champalbert,
7 2000, Klumb, 2002, Bode *et al.*, 2003, Sanchez and Olaso, 2004). Finally, predation of
8 SP3 fishes on organisms not included in the model was assumed to vary between 5 and
9 15% of the sum of the total plankton losses (other predation on mesozooplankton and
10 sedimentation of microphytoplankton and detritus) that correspond to the euphausiid diet
11 (derived from the euphausiid ingestion estimated in Sanchez and Olaso, 2004).

12

13 *Estimation of the carrying capacity*

14 We used linear inverse modeling to calculate F, the least-squares estimate of the
15 export that supports fish production during spring in the Bay of Biscay. We also used
16 linear programming (LP) (Luenberger, 1984) to calculate Fmax, the potential carbon
17 export. The goal of this carrying capacity analysis was to obtain the theoretical maximum
18 production of small pelagic fish supported by each of the three planktonic food webs. In
19 order to simplify the analysis, only one fish compartment production was directly
20 maximized, while the other two increased in relation to its maximization. The ratios
21 between production and consumption of each fish compartment were also preserved in the
22 estimation of the carrying capacity. The results of the inverse analysis calculations were
23 used in order to fix the P/Q ratio of each SP compartment and the ratios of SP1 and SP2
24 productions to SP3 production. Then, the linear programming was applied to maximize

1 SP3 production. LP produces the highest value of SP production (Fmax) that is supported
2 by the system (without changing any input data and constraints).

3

4

Network analysis

5 The 'Netwrk 4.2' program (Ulanowicz, 1999) was used to calculate indices
6 describing the modeled food web. In this study, the network indices used were the
7 effective trophic level of each compartment and the Finn cycling index (FCI, Finn, 1976).
8 The effective trophic level of a compartment corresponds to its trophic position when the
9 food web is simplified into a simple linear food chain. FCI is defined as the ratio of the
10 sum of carbon flows in cyclic pathways to the sum of all carbon flows in the food web.

11

RESULTS

13

14

Food web functioning

Plankton

16 Total net production of the three size classes of phytoplankton (Fig. 3) was high at
17 the three stations, but the total net primary production was 1.4 times higher at station A
18 ($1180 \text{ mgC m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) than at the other stations. The proportion of production by small
19 phytoplankton (Ph1 and Ph2) was high in B and C (98 and 80% of total net primary
20 production, respectively) and relatively lower in A (48% of the total net primary
21 production).

22 Net bacterial production was low at the three stations and represented less than 8%
23 of the total net primary production (Table 4). The net protozoan production as a proportion
24 of total net production was similar in A and C but two times higher in B (Table 4). The
25 mesozooplankton production represented similar proportions of the total primary

1 production (PP) in the three food webs (Table 4). As a consequence of the stronger role of
2 protozoa within the diet of mesozooplankton, the mesozooplankton effective trophic level
3 was the highest in the mid-shelf station (2.65, Table 4).

4 The FCI (Table 4) indicated that food webs in stations A and C had more
5 significant cycling pathways than in station B, i.e. the amount of carbon flowing through
6 the DOC and the detritus compartments were higher in A and C than in B (Table 4).

7 8 *Pelagic fish*

9 The total net production of pelagic fish was highest in station B (in relation to the
10 high biomass of SP3 measured around the station, cf. Table 1) with more than 20 mgC m⁻²
11 d⁻¹ (Fig. 4a). The total net production of pelagic fish was similar in stations A and C at 11.3
12 and 12.2 mgC m⁻² d⁻¹, respectively (Fig. 4a). Although the compartments SP1 and SP3
13 were the main components of the fish biomass in A (Table 1), most of the fish production
14 was due to SP1 only (Fig. 4a). In station C, the proportions of the three fish compartments
15 were roughly equal in total biomass and production (Table 1 and Fig. 4a).

16 The predation on mesozooplankton by small pelagic fish was highest in B with a
17 mesozooplankton consumption of 6, 10 and 96 mgC m⁻² d⁻¹ by SP1, SP2 and SP3,
18 respectively (Table 2). Predation on mesozooplankton by small pelagic fish was slightly
19 lower in A and in C with total consumptions of 56 and 84 mgC m⁻² d⁻¹ (Table 2). The
20 predation of small pelagic fish on mesozooplankton was not the major carbon outflow in A
21 (31% of the total carbon outflows from mesozooplankton, Fig. 4b); other predators such as
22 euphausiids or other fish consumed 69% of the available biomass of mesozooplankton in A
23 and less than 32% in B and C of carbon available from mesozooplankton prey (Fig. 4b).

24 25 **Export to pelagics and carrying capacity**

1 In terms of export (F), station B showed the highest ratio of total net small pelagic
2 (SP) production to total net Primary Production (2.4%, Fig. 5), while station A showed the
3 lowest value (1.0%, Fig. 5). The difference between the export (F) and the capacity (Fmax)
4 was highest in station A (1.0 to 9.0%, Fig. 5). The two values (F and Fmax) were very
5 similar in station B (2.4 and 2.5%, Fig. 5) and the capacity in station C was almost 3 times
6 higher than the export (1.4 to 3.8%, Fig. 5). In all three systems, as a consequence of
7 constraining predation fluxes at their maximum limits, linear programming led to a
8 considerable decrease (virtually reach 0) in microphytoplankton sedimentation and other
9 predation on mesozooplankton whereas the sedimentation of detritus increased as a
10 consequence of higher mesozooplankton ingestion (detritus mainly composed of fecal
11 pellets).

12

13 **DISCUSSION**

14

Planktonic food web functioning

15 Net primary production was high at the three stations ($> 800 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) and
16 corresponded to typical values found during spring bloom in temperate waters such as the
17 Baltic Sea ($> 1000 \text{ mgC m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$; Tremblay *et al.*, 2002) or the Gironde plume in the Bay of
18 Biscay (Laborde *et al.*, 1999). Moreover, bacterial to primary production ratios were very
19 low, as also observed during spring in upwelling coastal area off the northern Spanish
20 coast (0.04; Teira *et al.*, 2003). The three food webs represented different stages of the
21 spring bloom on the continental shelf of the Bay of Biscay (Marquis *et al.*, 2007). Coastal
22 spring blooms generally occur first near the coast or river mouths (stratification due to low
23 salinity, combined with relatively high nutrient levels) before progressing offshore (e.g.
24 Yin *et al.*, 1996). However, in our study, the microphytoplankton bloom seems less
25 advanced inshore than mid-shelf (station B is located 60 nautical miles further offshore

1 than station A). This observation is consistent with satellite observations (Gohin *et al.*,
2 2003) where the spring bloom appeared in the middle of the continental shelf before the
3 coastal area. This situation may be due to the high turbidity of the river plume waters. The
4 resulting low light environment due to river discharge may have delayed the inshore bloom
5 (e.g. Iriarte and Purdie, 2004).

6 As shown in Marquis *et al.* (2007), sensitivity analysis, done by changing the input
7 data by plus or minus 20%, revealed that the inverse solutions clearly separated the three
8 models based on their different flow structure. Thus, combining the observations on the
9 bloom timing with those on microbial flows in each food web resulted in the description of
10 three distinct functioning; the inshore station was dominated by direct trophic pathways
11 (i.e. microphytoplankton to metazoans); the offshore station was in transition from a winter
12 situation with high carbon cycling, to a spring situation with high microphytoplankton
13 production; the mid-shelf station represented an intermediate situation between a food web
14 dominated by direct pathways to one dominated by microbial pathways (Legendre and
15 Rassoulzadegan, 1995, Marquis *et al.*, 2007).

16

17 **Predation on mesozooplankton**

18 The differences in fish production observed among the three stations were related
19 to fish biomass. Since the three fish compartments showed similar ranges of P/B and Q/B
20 ratios (Table 3), the spatial distributions of each fish species have an effect on the total
21 pelagic fish production calculated at each station. During spring 2001, large sardines
22 (SP2) were distributed along the shelf break such as in spring 2000 (Petitgas *et al.*, 2006),
23 the smallest pelagic fish such as sprat and anchovy (SP1) were located close to the coast
24 and the larger fish such as chub mackerels (SP3) were mainly distributed in mid-shelf.

1 Therefore, the highest production observed in mid-shelf is related to the very large biomass
2 of SP3 ($> 10 \text{ gC m}^{-2}$) due to high mackerel abundances.

3 However, the method used to obtain fish biomass data (i.e. combining acoustic
4 surveys and trawl observations) may induce an estimate error (Petitgas *et al.*, 2003). In
5 order to assess whether there was a relationship between fish biomass estimation errors and
6 our carbon flow calculations, we tested the three fish biomasses individually at each station
7 (results not shown). We did not explore effects of combined errors between them. We
8 changed the selected biomass by plus or minus 10% (error margin considered for the fish
9 biomass estimation) and reran the inverse analysis. The resulting carbon flows within the
10 planktonic food web did not differ from the original values by more than 10%. Thus, the
11 uncertainty of the fish biomass data will have had little effect on the final differences
12 between F and Fmax resulting from our analysis, when comparing each food web.

13 The spring conditions of the three food webs may have allowed a large export of
14 carbon to planktivorous fish, since primary production reached high levels and planktonic
15 grazers (protozoa and mesozooplankton) were present in the three food webs (Legendre
16 and Rassoulzadegan, 1996, Marquis *et al.*, 2007). The flow of carbon available to
17 planktivores was sufficient in the three food webs to cover the food requirements of small
18 pelagic fish present in the environment. In fact, small pelagic fish did not appear to be the
19 most important predator of mesozooplankton inshore (30% of total predation on
20 mesozooplankton) and represented between 60 and 65% of the total predation on
21 mesozooplankton in mid-shelf and shelf edge stations, respectively. This relatively low
22 level of predation on mesozooplankton suggests that a large fraction of the
23 mesozooplankton production may be available for other planktivorous organisms, such as
24 suprabenthic zooplankton (euphausiids and mysids) or macrozooplankton (medusa or
25 large tunicates). The observations made on the biomass and the diet of such

1 macrozooplankton in the area close to the Bay of Biscay may confirm this inverse analysis
2 result. For example, macrozooplankton biomasses are high during springtime in areas close
3 to the Bay of Biscay, such as St Brieuc Bay (Vallet and Dauvin, 1999) and these biomasses
4 are dominated by mysids. In the Baltic Sea, the diet of mysids is composed of a large
5 proportion of copepods and rotifers throughout the year (Rudstam *et al.*, 1992) and
6 euphausiids of the North-East Atlantic Ocean are important copepod predators (Bamstedt
7 and Karlson, 1998). Moreover, along the Cantabrian coast, mysids and euphausiids
8 consume approximately 60% of the total carbon available from mesozooplankton over one
9 year (Sanchez and Olaso, 2004). Despite the importance of the mysid and euphausiid
10 populations (as well as other possible planktivorous fish) in the pelagic food web of the
11 Bay of Biscay as revealed by our model, the distribution and biomass of those predators
12 have never been as intensively studied as the small pelagic fish. With regard to our model
13 results, we argue that there is an urgent need in the study of mysid and euphausiid
14 distribution, biomass and predation impact within the Bay of Biscay.

15

16 **Trophic efficiency from primary production to pelagic fish**

17 The export to pelagic fish (F) corresponded to the relative fish production (ratio of net
18 pelagic fish production to net primary production) and varied between 1 and 2.4 % in the
19 three food webs. The value of 2.4 % found at the mid-shelf station seemed high compared
20 to what is currently assumed in the literature. The general view of pelagic ecosystems
21 assumes an ecological efficiency of 10 % between each trophic level (Pauly and
22 Christensen, 1995). Therefore, if planktivorous fish occupy the third trophic level in the
23 food web, as generally assumed, this means that fish production would not exceed 1% of
24 the primary production. Indeed, the small pelagic fish trophic level may change with the
25 planktonic food web structure and the resulting relative fish production may be higher than

1 1% of the primary production (in upwelling areas, Ryther, 1969) as well as far lower
2 (Iverson, 1990). In our study, the high relative fish production found at mid-shelf mean
3 that the trophic efficiency between each trophic level in the food web was higher than 10%
4 (e.g. Sommer *et al.*, 2002). Such a high trophic efficiency might have been due to tight
5 coupling between trophic levels (Gaedke and Straile, 1994). Gaedke and Straile (1994)
6 explained that this situation would happen if the primary production was nutrient limited
7 and the microbial pathways were dominating the carbon pathways in the planktonic food
8 web. Such situations can be observed at site B where the recent microphytoplankton bloom
9 led to a nutrient limitation and the production of picophytoplanktonic cells supported active
10 protozoan grazing (high relative protozoa production, Table 4). This hypothesis is
11 reinforced by the very low Finn Cycling Index measured at the mid-shelf station (Table 4)
12 that shows very little recycling activity despite the importance of microbial communities
13 (protozoa). Moreover, we argue that the predation control on mesozooplankton by the very
14 large population of planktivorous fish at this site (SP3) may have enhanced the tight
15 coupling at lower trophic levels and so the final trophic efficiency of the planktonic food
16 web.

17

18 **Support of benthic and pelagic production**

19 As shown in Marquis *et al.* (2007), the relative amount of carbon exported from
20 mesozooplankton (i.e. carbon available for predation on mesozooplankton) does not vary
21 with the size of the dominant primary producers: 14.32 to 15.81% at all stations (ratios of
22 net mesozooplankton production to net primary production, Table 4). Moreover, the
23 differences observed between the values of relative export to pelagic fish (F) at each
24 station are also rather low (1 to 2.4%).

1 On the other hand, the gap between export to pelagic fish (F) and carrying capacity
2 (Fmax) was very different between the 3 stations, with the highest difference observed at
3 the inshore station and the lowest at the mid-shelf station. These dissimilarities may be
4 related to their distinctive food web structure (Fig. 6). The *in situ* conditions of the inshore
5 station led to the export of large amounts of carbon, mainly through sedimentation of fresh
6 microphytoplankton cells and detritus. When maximizing pelagic fish predation, those
7 carbon flows were reduced and the corresponding amount of carbon was transferred
8 towards the fish, resulting in a very high carrying capacity. Legendre (1990) and Cushing
9 (1989) both concluded that microphytoplankton blooms allow the highest export of carbon.
10 They also said that areas with microphytoplankton bloom sustain the largest fisheries but
11 the relatively low export to pelagic fish of the inshore food web indicated that the
12 microphytoplankton-based food web was not an optimal situation for strict pelagic fish
13 production. We therefore argue that the inshore food web seemed configured to support
14 demersal and benthic productions (Fig. 6) through downward export of detritus and
15 microphytoplankton aggregates (Richardson *et al.*, 2000). However, due to the relatively
16 shallow depth of the inshore station, pelagic fish should be able to consume descending
17 particles. This possibility is not included in the present model but should be taken into
18 account in future studies in order to confirm the proportion of the spring bloom production
19 actually reaching the benthos in the inshore food web.

20 At mid-shelf, primary production was almost exclusively exported to the pelagic fish
21 production and the general trophic efficiency was high. The capacity (Fmax) of the mid-
22 shelf station was equivalent to the export (F), meaning that the maximum level of pelagic
23 fish production supported was reached under the *in situ* conditions. Despite low observed
24 biomass, the protozoa community was very active in this food web in response to the
25 importance of the picophytoplanktonic production (Legendre and Rassoulzadegan, 1996).

1 Such as in the example of Northeast Water Polynya (Pesant *et al.*, 2000), the downward
2 export of carbon was low in this planktonic food web dominated by small phytoplankton.
3 Downward carbon fluxes may still exist through the sedimentation of the copepod faecal
4 pellets; however, those pellets may not sink as fast as diatom aggregates and therefore may
5 not be a direct energy source for benthic metazoans (Legendre and Rivkin, 2002). As a
6 consequence of those low sedimentation flows, the picophytoplankton-based food web
7 showed the highest export (F) of carbon to pelagic fish but the lowest carrying capacity
8 (F_{max}) (Fig. 6). Thus, the picophytoplankton-based food web with high protozoa activity
9 emerged as the optimal situation to support pelagic production. At last, the shelf edge food
10 web that included both microbial and herbivorous pathways was an intermediate situation
11 between the two extremes (inshore and mid-shelf) with an intermediate carrying capacity
12 (F_{max}) and an intermediate gap between F and F_{max} (Fig. 6). Both pelagic and benthic
13 productions were then supported in the *in situ* conditions of that multivorous food web.

14

15 **CONCLUSION**

16 These three situations illustrated the complexity of the existing relationships between
17 planktonic food web and carbon export in the ocean (Legendre and Rassoulzadegan,
18 1996). With equivalent levels of primary production, the three food webs differed from one
19 another through the number of steps existing between the primary production and
20 planktivorous fish and through its capacity to support pelagic production as well as benthic
21 production. In Marquis *et al.* (2007), the analysis of simple plankton food webs led to the
22 conclusion that the total amount of carbon available to pelagic predators was less
23 controlled by the size structure of the primary producers than by the bacterial to primary
24 production ratio. In the present study, although this conclusion is confirmed, it is shown
25 that the main primary producer size and food web functioning were directly influencing the

1 carrying capacity of the planktonic food web and its relative support to pelagic and/or
2 benthic fish production. In general, studies considering the relationship between plankton
3 and fisheries take into account neither the size structure of the primary producers nor the
4 planktonic food web functioning (e.g. Iverson, 1990). Considering the results of the
5 present study, we argue that distinction between amounts of carbon available, carbon flows
6 to pelagic fish and carrying capacity of the ecosystem needs to be carefully taken into
7 account and therefore plankton food web functioning should not be neglected anymore in
8 fisheries studies.

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20

21 **LITERATURE**

22

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1 **Figure captions**

2 **Figure 1:** Map of the Bay of Biscay showing the three stations of the study. PEL-A for
3 station A, PEL-B for station B and PEL-C for station C. Dashed line is a schematic
4 representation of the continental shelf limits.

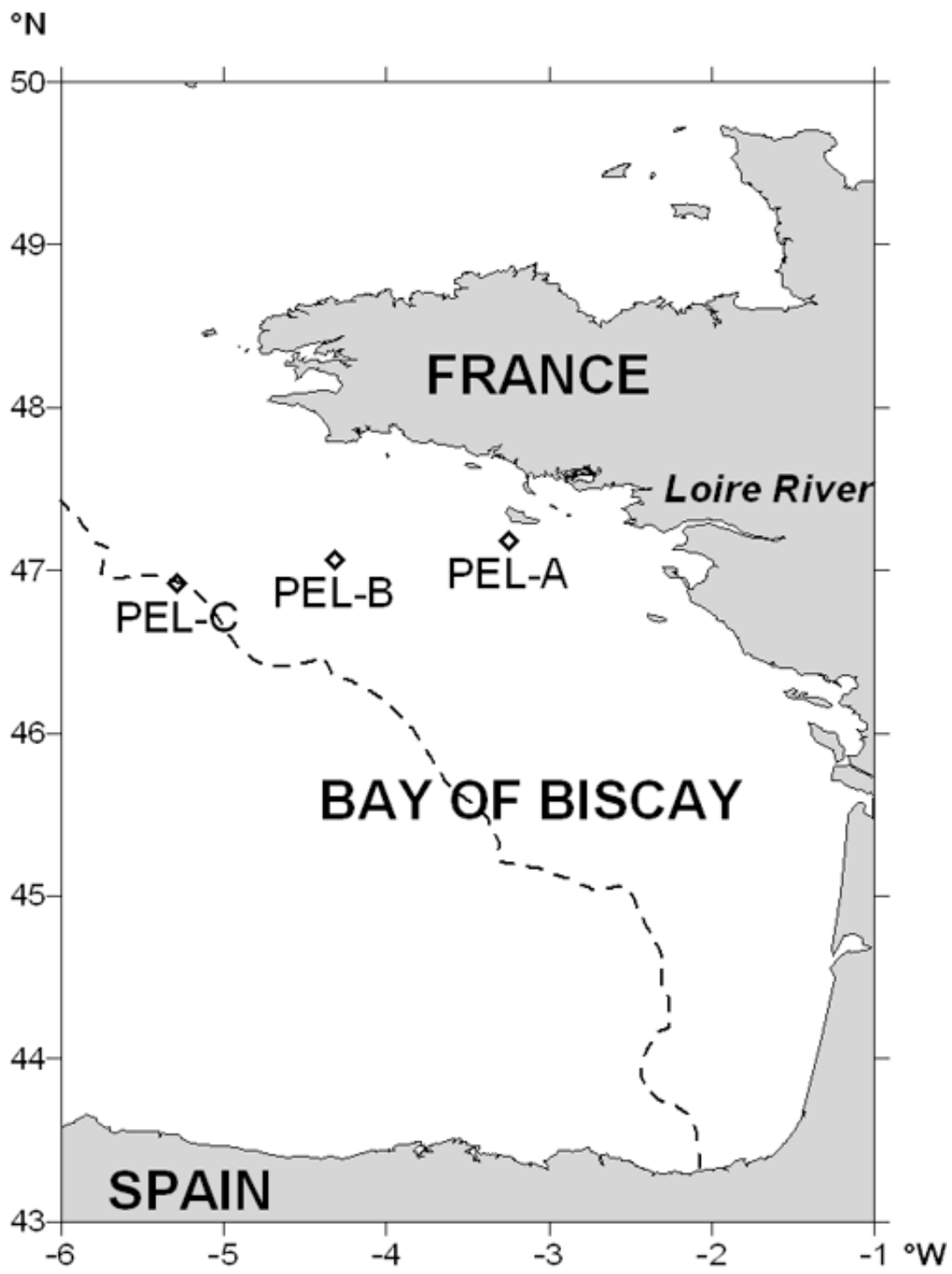
5 **Figure 2:** *a priori* model used to build the coupled small pelagic fish/plankton systems.
6 Definitions of abbreviations are Ph1: picophytoplankton (<2µm), Ph2: nanophytoplankton
7 (2-20µm), Ph3: microphytoplankton (>20µm), Bac: bacteria, Pro: protozoa (ciliates and
8 flagellates, 20-200µm), Mes: mesozooplankton (>200µm), SP1: small pelagic fish 1, SP2:
9 small pelagic fish 2, SP3: small pelagic fish 3, Det: detritus and DOC: dissolved organic
10 matter.

11 **Figure 3:** Contribution of the 3 phytoplankton size-classes to the net total primary
12 production ($\text{mgC m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) for the three food web systems. Ph1: picophytoplankton, Ph2:
13 nanophytoplankton and Ph3: microphytoplankton.

14 **Figure 4: a)** Contribution of each compartment of small pelagic fish to the total fish
15 production in $\text{mgC m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ and **b)** Fate of the carbon outflows from mesozooplankton in %
16 of the total predation on mes: 177.7, 136.8 and 123.2 $\text{mgC m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$, respectively at sites A, B
17 and C. SP1: small pelagic fish 1 (strict zoophagous: anchovies, sprats, small horse
18 mackerels < 16 cm and small sardines < 18 cm), SP2: small pelagic fish 2 (phyto-
19 zoophagous: large sardines > 18 cm), SP3: small pelagic fish 3 (meso-macrozoophagous
20 and ichthyophagous: large horse mackerels > 16 cm and atlantic + chub mackerels), Other:
21 others predators of mesozooplankton (euphausiids, larger fish, etc.).

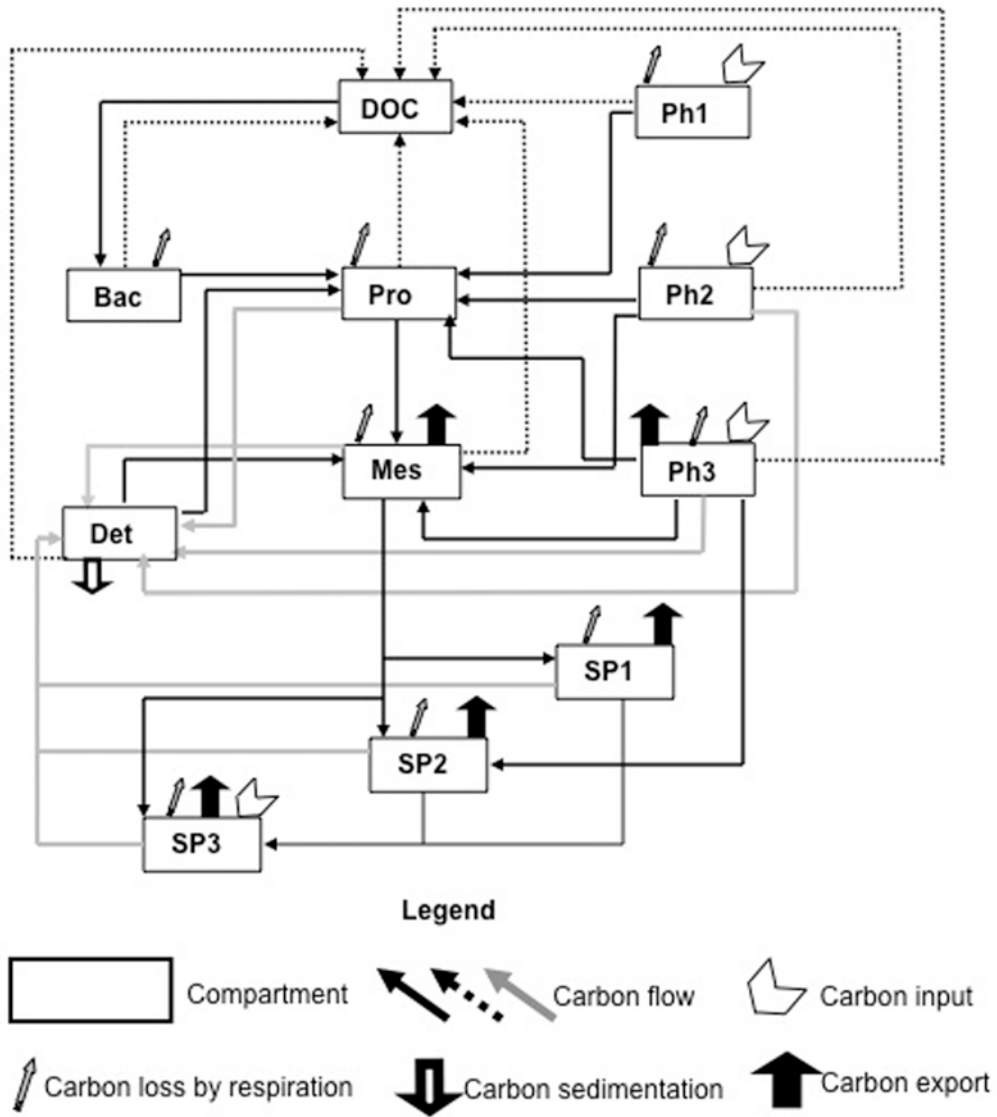
22 **Figure 5:** Ratios of the total small pelagic fish production on total net primary production
23 (%): export (F) and capacity (Fmax) for the three food web systems.

24 **Figure 6:** Schematic synthesis of the results with emphasis on carbon export toward fish
25 populations.



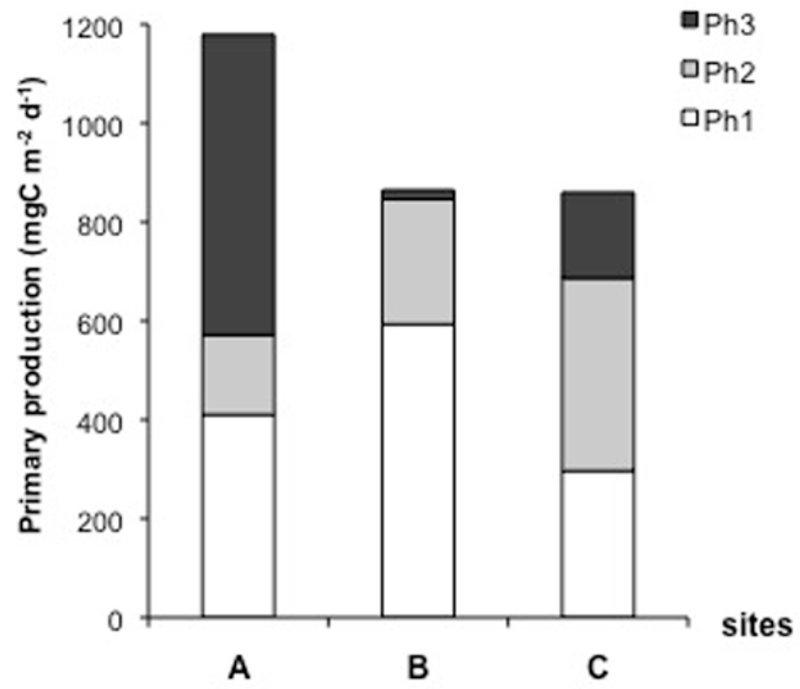
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Fig. 1



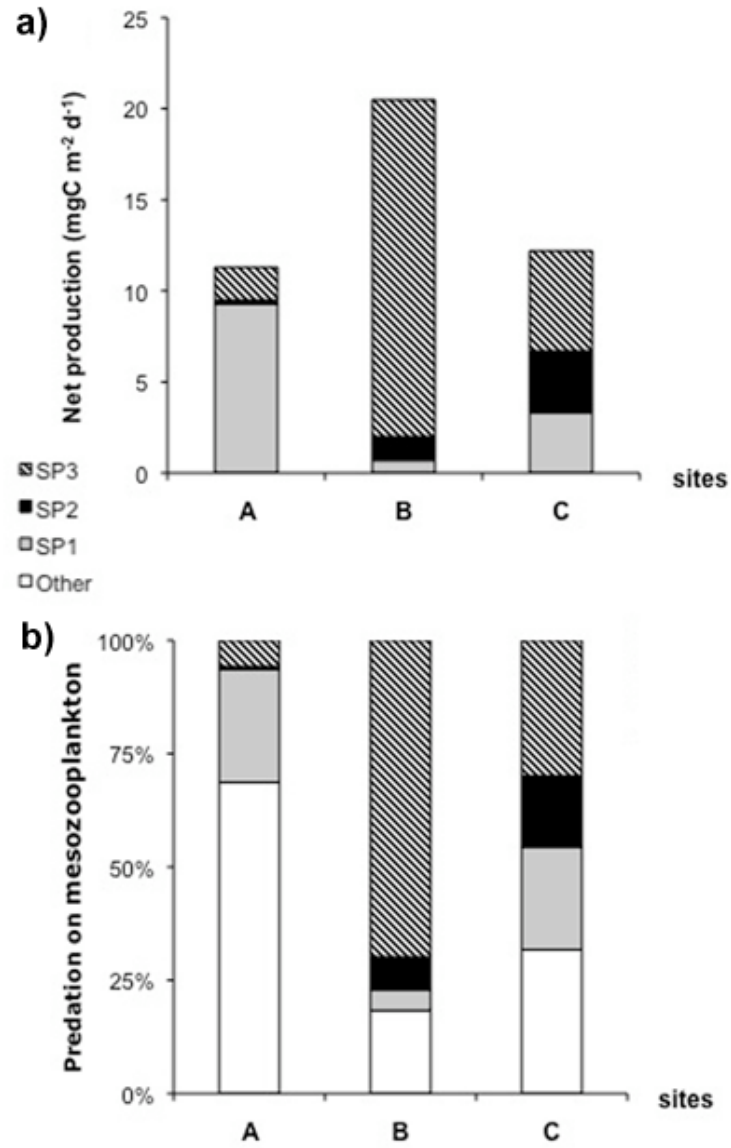
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Fig. 2



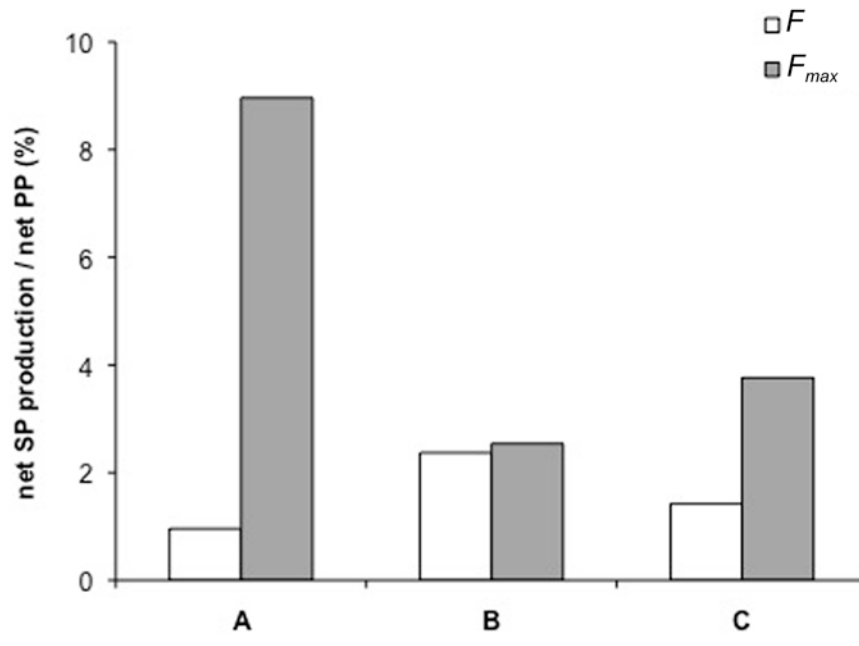
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Fig. 3



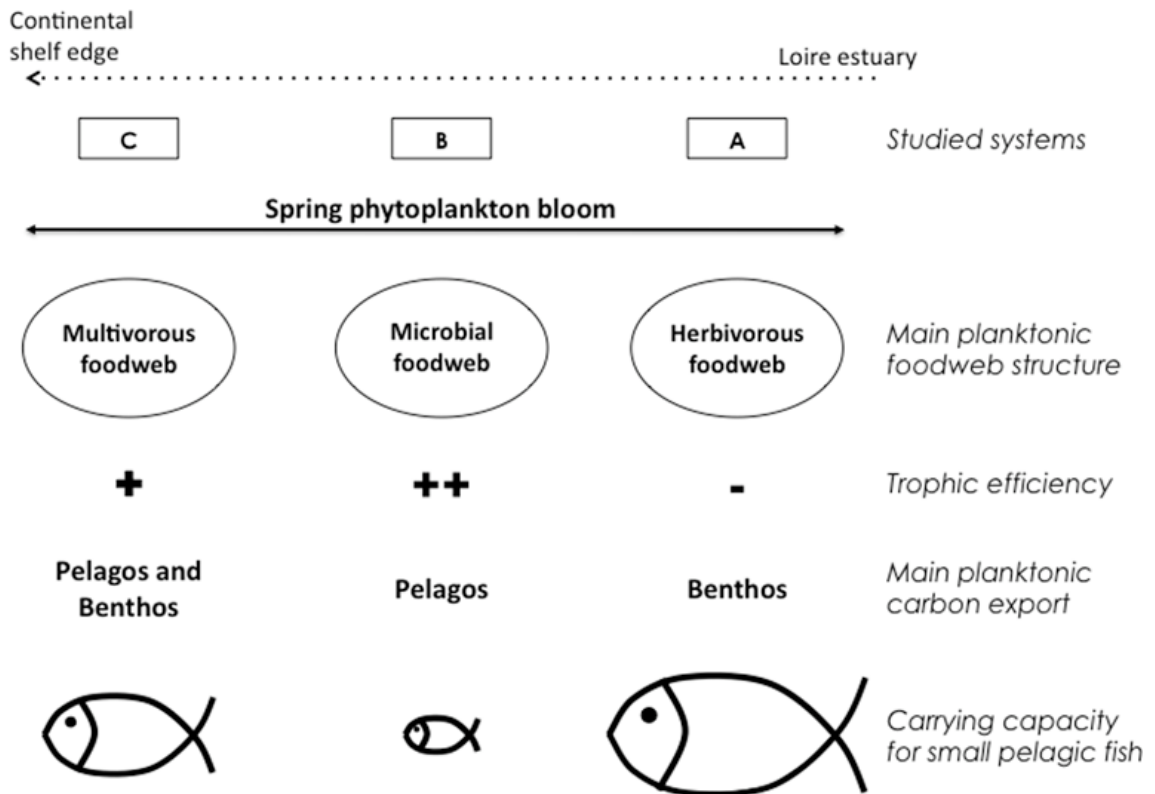
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Fig. 4



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Fig. 5



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Fig. 6

1 **Table 1:** Production data ($\text{mgC m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) used as input values within the equality set and
 2 biomass data (mgC m^{-2}) used within the constraint set to build the three systems.

3 Production formulations used symbols of carbon flows described in Table 2.

4

		A	B	C	
Productions	Picophytoplankton	CgppTOph1 – 0,5 Cph1TOres	632.0	782.1	412.0
	Nanophytoplankton	CgppTOph2 – 0,5 Cph2TOres	217.5	287.9	444.5
	Microphytoplankton	CgppTOph3 – 0,5 Cph3TOres	737.1	21.7	197.7
	Bacteria	CbacTOpro + CbacTOdoc	50.6	37.8	66.7
Biomasses	Bacteria		137,0	173.1	201.4
	Protozoa		52.9	20.5	35.8
	Mesozooplankton		2517.0	1375.4	1669.3
	Small pelagic fish 1		1594.1	522.2	2375.6
	Small pelagic fish 2		94.1	770.3	2064.8
	Small pelagic fish 3		1296.5	13510.2	3691.5

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1 **Table 2:** Flow formulations, descriptions and values ($\text{mgC m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) issued from direct
 2 measures (bold font) and from inverse analysis calculations (normal font).

Symbol	Description	A	B	C
CgppTOph1	Gross primary production of picophytoplankton	743.6	806.6	450.7
CgppTOph2	Gross primary production of nanophytoplankton	255.9	295.3	455.9
CgppTOph3	Gross primary production of microphytoplankton	798.9	22.3	202.8
Cph1TOres	Respiration by picophytoplankton	223.1	48.8	77.5
Cph1TOpro	Grazing of picophytoplankton by Protozoa	410.4	593.4	296.7
Cph1TOdoc	DOC excretion by picophytoplankton	110.2	164.3	76.4
Cph2TOres	Respiration by nanophytoplankton	76.8	14.8	22.8
Cph2TOpro	Grazing of nanophytoplankton by protozoa	0.0	0.0	58.9
Cph2TOmes	Grazing of nanophytoplankton by mesozooplankton	157.8	128.7	177.7
Cph2TOdet	Detritus production by nanophytoplankton	3.4	123.8	153.2
Cph2TOdoc	DOC excretion by nanophytoplankton	17.9	28.1	43.3
Cph3TOres	Respiration by microphytoplankton	123.5	1.1	10.1
Cph3TOpro	Grazing of microphytoplankton by protozoa	95.5	0.0	0.0
Cph3TOmes	Grazing of microphytoplankton by mesozooplankton	259.5	0.0	0.0
Cph3TOsp2	Grazing of microphytoplankton by small pelagic fish 2	1.4	7.9	32.3
Cph3TOdet	Detritus production by microphytoplankton	105.1	0.0	0.0
Cph3TOdoc	DOC excretion by microphytoplankton	67.5	2.1	19.3
Cph3TOlos	Sedimentation of microphytoplankton	146.3	11.2	141.1
CproTOres	Respiration by protozoa	306.1	156.5	222.4
CproTOmes	Grazing of protozoa by mesozooplankton	139.1	208.3	105.6
CproTOdet	Detritus production by protozoa	55.6	203.3	52.1
CproTOdoc	DOC excretion by heterotrophic protozoa	55.6	63.1	42.2
CmesTOres	Respiration by mesozooplankton	319.9	68.4	92.4
CmesTOsp1	Predation of mesozooplankton by small pelagic fish 1	44.4	6.3	28.0
CmesTOsp2	Predation of mesozooplankton by small pelagic fish 2	1.0	9.8	19.3
CmesTOsp3	Predation of mesozooplankton by small pelagic fish 3	10.3	95.5	36.8

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Table 2 continued

Symbol	Description	A	B	C
CmesTOdet	Detritus production by mesozooplankton	142.2	102.6	61.6
CmesTOdoc	DOC excretion by mesozooplankton	71.1	34.2	30.8
CmesTOlos	Outflows of mesozooplankton by other predation	122.0	25.1	39.1
Csp1TOres	Respiration by small pelagic fish 1	30.7	4.4	21.9
Csp1TOdet	Feces production by small pelagic fish 1	4.4	1.3	2.8
Csp1TOlos	Outflows of small pelagic fish 1 by predation	9.3	0.0	0.0
Csp1TOsp3	Predation of small pelagic fish 1 by small pelagic fish 3	2.0	12.9	43.0
Csp2TOres	Respiration by small pelagic fish 2	0.2	3.5	5.2
Csp2TOdet	Feces production by small pelagic fish 2	0.2	0.0	0.0
Csp2TOlos	Outflows of small pelagic fish 2 by predation	21.4	108.9	49.7
Csp2TOsp3	Predation of small pelagic fish 2 by small pelagic fish 3	2.6	31.8	6.1
Csp3TOres	Respiration by small pelagic fish 3	1.8	18.5	5.5
Csp3TOdet	Feces production by small pelagic fish 3	15.5	61.7	17.8
Csp3TOlos	Outflows of small pelagic fish 3 by predation	0.0	0.7	3.3
CextTOsp3	Predation of other preys (fish, euphausiids) by small pelagic fish 3	0.0	1.3	3.4
CdocTObac	DOC absorption by bacteria	440.3	378.3	298.0
CbacTOres	Respiration by bacteria	389.7	340.5	231.3
CbacTOpro	Grazing of bacteria by protozoa	50.6	37.8	66.7
CbacTOdoc	DOC excretion by bacteria	0.0	0.0	0.0
CdetTOdoc	Detritus dissolution into DOC	117.9	86.5	86.0
CdetTOpro	Detritus consumption by protozoa	0.0	0.0	0.0
CdetTOmes	Detritus consumption by mesozooplankton	154.4	4.9	24.6
CdetTOlos	Outflows of detritus by sedimentation	41.2	374.9	170.3

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1 **Table 3:** Limits of P/B and Q/B ratios (d^{-1}) used within the inequality set to build the three
 2 systems with small pelagic fish predation (P: production, B: biomass and Q: consumption).
 3 SP1: small pelagic fish 1, SP2: small pelagic fish 2, SP3: small pelagic fish 3.

		A	B	C
SP1	<i>Lower P/B</i>	0.0034	0.0008	0.0008
	<i>Higher P/B</i>	0.0058	0.0017	0.0014
	<i>Lower Q/B</i>	0.0223	0.0121	0.0118
	<i>Higher Q/B</i>	0.0287	0.0236	0.0197
SP2	<i>Lower P/B</i>	0.0011	0.0011	0.0011
	<i>Higher P/B</i>	0.0016	0.0016	0.0016
	<i>Lower Q/B</i>	0.0230	0.0230	0.0230
	<i>Higher Q/B</i>	0.0250	0.0250	0.0250
SP3	<i>Lower P/B</i>	0.0008	0.0008	0.0008
	<i>Higher P/B</i>	0.0014	0.0014	0.0015
	<i>Lower Q/B</i>	0.0118	0.0118	0.0118
	<i>Higher Q/B</i>	0.0199	0.0198	0.0215

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Table 4: Systems characteristics with **ratios** (%) of net heterotrophic plankton production (bacteria -net BP-, protozoa -net Pro.P- and mesozooplankton -net Mes.P-) on net primary production (net PP); **Effective trophic level of mesozooplankton** and **Finn cycling index** (FCI, %).

	A	B	C
Net BP/net PP (%)	4.29	4.37	7.76
Net Pro.P/net PP (%)	11.80	24.08	12.28
Net Mes.P/net PP (%)	15.07	15.81	14.32
Effective trophic level of mesozooplankton	2.21	2.65	2.40
FCI (%)	7.77	4.96	7.95