

# Primary productivity and N<sub>2</sub>-fixation in the eastern Indian ocean: Bottom-up support for an ecologically and economically important ecosystem

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## ABSTRACT

Oligotrophic ocean regions are characterized by strong nutrient limitation, low standing phytoplankton biomass, and highly efficient nutrient recycling. During the BLOOFINZ-IO expedition (February 2022), we quantified nutrient inventories, primary productivity and N<sub>2</sub> fixation in the Argo Basin of the eastern Indian Ocean, the sole known spawning ground for Southern Bluefin Tuna. Low concentrations of surface nitrate (<0.02 μmol L<sup>-1</sup>) and persistent residual phosphate indicated N as the limiting macronutrient, with photophysiological indices consistent with iron colimitation. Depth-integrated net primary production (NPP), from <sup>14</sup>C-based *in-situ* incubations during 4 Lagrangian experiments, averaged ~460 mg C m<sup>-2</sup>d<sup>-1</sup>, generally agreeing with mean satellite-based NPP estimates (459 mg C m<sup>-2</sup>d<sup>-1</sup>) but with spatial discrepancies. Nitrogen fixation provided a consistent new nitrogen source, contributing ~16 % to local NPP in the upper euphotic zone. Gross primary production (GPP), from fast-repetition-rate-fluorometry-based estimates of electron transport, revealed significant autotrophic respiration losses, with mean GPP:NPP ratios of ~1.8 consistent with metabolic costs under nutrient limitation. Net community production (NCP) from O<sub>2</sub>/Ar ratios averaged ~20 % of NPP in the upper 30 m. This result, in combination with N<sub>2</sub> fixation measurement, indicates that N<sub>2</sub> fixation supports most of the export production in the region. Together, the multi-method approach revealed a recycling-dominated ecosystem affected by episodic mixing events, where primary productivity is maintained primarily through efficient nitrogen recycling and physiological photoacclimation. These results provide a comprehensive baseline of bottom-up support of ecosystem productivity for the Argo Basin for assessing future climate-driven changes in stratification, nutrient cycling, and food-web dynamics.

## 1. Introduction

The eastern Indian Ocean, located between northwestern Australia and Indonesia and directly downstream of the Indonesian Throughflow, is a region of global significance for regulating heat transfer from the Pacific to the Indian Ocean (Lee et al., 2015; Desbruyères et al., 2017) and is the only known spawning region for Southern Bluefin Tuna (SBT) (Farley and Davis, 1998). However, it remains a sparsely studied area regarding its ecological and biogeochemical processes. The BLOOFINZ (Bluefin Larvae in Oligotrophic Ocean Foodwebs, Investigations of Nutrients to Zooplankton) project investigated the region during the peak SBT spawning season in January–February 2022 to assess its potential vulnerabilities to future climate change. Quantification of gross-, net- and net community-productivity and its support by nitrogen (N) sources

are central to understanding the energy available for higher trophic levels. In the present study, we focus on primary production, N<sub>2</sub> fixation and associated photophysiological measurements conducted during four multi-day Lagrangian experiments.

Despite low rates of production per unit area, oligotrophic systems contribute an estimated 30–40 % of total global marine primary production (Behrenfeld and Falkowski, 1997; Field et al., 1998). Primary productivity depends on efficient recycling of N through ammonification (Dugdale and Goering, 1967), and N<sub>2</sub> fixation can play a significant role in supporting new production (Raes et al., 2015; Tang et al., 2019). In these systems, only a small fraction of primary production is usually exported out of the euphotic zone (Buesseler et al., 1998; Henson et al., 2019). Deep chlorophyll maxima (DCM), where a substantial portion of the phytoplankton community resides, still pose some challenges for

This article is part of a special issue entitled: BLOOFINZ/INDITUN published in Deep-Sea Research Part II.

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<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dsr2.2025.105570>

Received 30 June 2025; Received in revised form 12 November 2025; Accepted 22 November 2025

Available online 25 November 2025

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satellite-based net primary production (NPP) algorithms. Though algorithms by Westberry et al. (2008) do account for vertical chlorophyll distribution, productivity estimate and their dynamics, especially under nutrient stress, still require field verification. Questions thus arise on how general algorithms in these oligotrophic region relate to depth-resolved measurements of NPP from  $^{14}\text{C}$  uptake or to high-resolution quantification of gross primary (GPP) and net community productivity (NCP) (Robinson et al., 2009; Quay et al., 2010; Hamme et al., 2012; Schuback et al., 2015; Teeter et al., 2018; Kranz et al., 2020).

In this study, we applied a multi-method approach to quantify nutrients, productivity metrics and  $\text{N}_2$  fixation in SBT spawning waters overlying the 5000-m deep Argo Abyssal Plain (hereafter, Argo Basin) off NW Australia (Fig. 1). We directly compare NPP assessments from *in situ* incubations and satellite products for four multi-day Lagrangian experiments. From continuous surface measurements of  $\text{O}_2:\text{Ar}$ , Fast Repetition Rate Fluorometry (FRRf) and photophysiological parameters in transect sampling across the basin, we derive carbon-based estimates of NCP, GPP and production relationships. From direct experimental measurements of  $\text{N}_2$  fixation rates, we establish that diazotrophy is the main contributor to the new N required to balance the measured (Stukel et al., this issue) export fluxes. Our overall goals were to evaluate the magnitude and variability of autotrophic production and N supply to this key region during the peak SBT spawning season (austral summer) and to establish baseline metrics for understanding future responses of the system to climate change. Please note that this article is part of an end-to-end, interdisciplinary study of the southern bluefin tuna spawning region, linking physics, chemistry, and biology to uncover the drivers of productivity and nutrient-carbon cycling in this ecologically and economically important ecosystem (please see Landry et al. (This issue) for an overview article. Throughout the article, we reference our more detailed companion papers directly connection to this article.

### 1.1. General sampling plan

The Argo Basin was sampled on BLOOFINZ cruise RR2201 of *R/V Roger Revelle* between 31 January and March 3, 2022 (Fig. 1). We first conducted an east-to-west transect across the central basin, then sampled south to begin the first of four Lagrangian experiments (Radke et al. (2017) nts (hereafter, “cycles”) in the southern basin. Following the cycle experiments, two additional transects were sampled before departing the basin, first east-to-west at  $15^\circ\text{S}$ , then west-to-east at

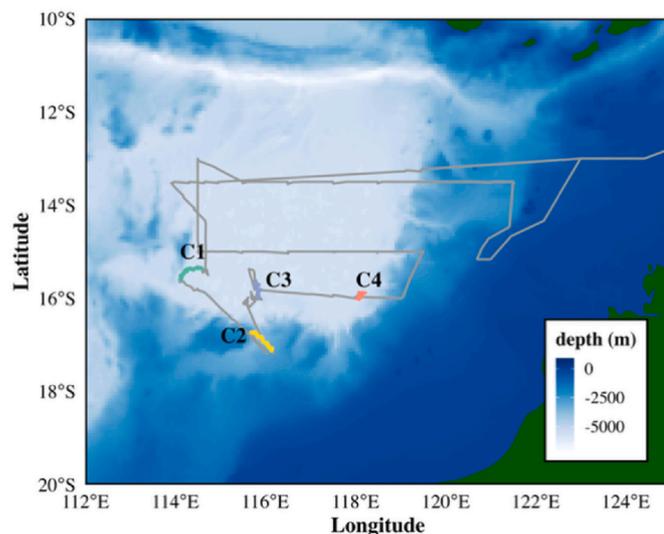


Fig. 1. Map of the study area as a bathymetry with cruise track (in grey) and cycle location (in colors). (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

$13.5^\circ\text{S}$ . During each cycle, sampling and incubations were done on a repeated daily schedule for 3–5 days following a satellite-tracked drifter with a 3-m drogue centered at 15-m depth (Landry et al., 2009; Stukel et al., 2015). Seawater samples for nutrients, phytoplankton and experimental incubations were collected with a 12-place CTD rosette of 10-L Niskin bottles. Incident Photosynthetically Active Radiation (PAR) was measured continuously by the ship’s meteorological system and a PAR sensor on CTD profiles. During both transect and cycle experiments, continuous measurements of mixed-layer  $\text{O}_2:\text{Ar}$  ratios, fluorometric chlorophyll *a* (Chla) and FRRf were taken by instruments plumbed into the ship’s seawater intake delivered at  $\sim 4 \text{ L min}^{-1}$  by a diaphragm pump (Graco Husky 1050e).

Water samples for extracted Chla analyses were taken from CTD profiles, filtered onto GF/F filters, extracted in 90 % acetone for 24 h and measured with a 10AU fluorometer (Turner Designs). Surface Chla values were also continuously measured by a fluorometer. However, underway data between February 14 and 23 was unusable due to biofouling. Nutrient samples (50 mL) were filtered directly from CTD bottles through acid-cleaned  $0.2\text{-}\mu\text{m}$  Acropak in-line capsules (Pall-Gelman) into 3X-rinsed Nalgene HDPE bottles and immediately frozen at  $-20^\circ\text{C}$ . Concentrations of nitrate, nitrite, ammonium, phosphate and silicate concentrations were measured with a Seal AutoAnalyzer 3 at the Scripps Institution of Oceanography Data Facility.

### 1.2. Net primary productivity (NPP) on in-situ array and satellite derived NPP

Net primary production was measured by  $^{14}\text{C}$ -bicarbonate uptake ( $\text{NPP}_{14\text{C}}$ ) in *in-situ* incubations following Morrow et al. (2018). For each cycle day, water was collected at six depths spanning the euphotic zone on the 02:00 (local) CTD cast and transferred gently via silicon tubing into acid-washed 280-mL polycarbonate incubation bottles that had been pre-soaked with Milli-Q water and rinsed three times with station water. For each depth, three replicate bottles and one dark bottle were spiked with  $10 \mu\text{Ci H}^{14}\text{CO}_3^-$  and incubated for 24 h (beginning at 04:00 local) in mesh bags attached at the collection depth. Following incubation, samples were processed under dim red light. After a subsample (100  $\mu\text{L}$ ) was taken for total radioactivity, bottle volumes were filtered onto GF/F filters, acidified with 0.5 mL of 10 % biological-grade HCl, and degassed for 24 h. The filters were subsequently placed into scintillation cocktail and analyzed with a liquid scintillation counter.  $\text{NPP}_{14\text{C}}$  was calculated according to (Steemann Nielsen, 1952) as:

$$\text{NPP}_{14\text{C}} (\mu\text{g C L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}) = ((\text{As} - \text{Ab}) / \text{At}) \times \text{DIC} \times 1.05 \times (1/t) \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

where As = sample activity; Ab = blank activity; At = total bottle activity; DIC = dissolved inorganic carbon ( $25.5 \mu\text{mol C L}^{-1}$ ); and  $t$  = incubation time (1 day). Depth integrations were done in RStudio by trapezoidal interpolation to 30 m and to the deepest sample measurement. We assumed that rates measured at our shallowest depth (5m) were indicative of rates from the surface to 5 m, in order to integrate productivity throughout the water column.

$\text{NPP}_{\text{Sat}}$  was also estimated for the Argo region from 8-day composite NPP satellite data products of the CAFÉ model from Oregon State University (Silsbe et al., 2016). Satellite based estimates of NPP for the region had been described by Kehinde et al. (2023). Here, we re-analyzed the data along the cruise track using the CAFÉ algorithm which we think captures the productivity in this region best. We also focus specifically on the Lagrangian cycles and averaging the data over 1-min intervals based on the ship’s location rather than the larger ITF productivity assessment of (Kehinde et al., 2023).

### 1.3. $\text{N}_2$ fixation on in-situ array

$\text{N}_2$  fixation rates were measured using the  $^{15}\text{N}_2$  gas tracer technique following the bubble dissolution method described by (Mohr et al.,

2010a). Because of the extra setup time required, samples for these incubations were taken from the 22:00 CTD and thus differed from 02:00 (local) productivity samples, though were taken in close proximity to the drift array and assumed to have a similar plankton composition. For each of 6 depths, unfiltered seawater was directly transferred into triplicate acid cleaned 4.6 L polycarbonate bottles and kept in the dark until spiked with  $^{15}\text{N}_2$ -containing water. To improve dissolution of  $^{15}\text{N}_2$  into the spiked inoculum, 1.2 L of the same water was degassed (Mohr et al., 2010a) using a Pfeiffer vacuum pump and rigorously stirred with Teflon-coated stir bar. The partially degassed water was transferred by peristaltic pump into a 1 L Tedlar gas sampling bag (Restek) with residual dissolved  $\text{O}_2$  measured during transfer with an optode system (Firesting, Germany). On average, 35 % of  $\text{O}_2$  was retained indicating a similar residual  $^{14}\text{N}_2$ . The bags were filled with 1.2 L degassed seawater, spiked with 35 ml of  $^{15}\text{N}_2$  gas (98–99 atom %, Cambridge Isotope Laboratories), and transferred to a automatic bubble disturbing setup which moved the bubble continuously for  $\sim 1.5$  h. The  $^{15}\text{N}_2$  enrichment of this inoculum was calculated to be  $\sim 50$  %. Around 03:00, an hour before array deployment,  $\sim 350$  ml of the inoculum was added to each of three 4.6-L bottles, and the bottles were filled to capacity with natural seawater for a final  $^{15}\text{N}_2$  enrichment of around 7.5 %. These bottles were subsequently incubated for 24 h on the *in-situ* array.

Post incubation, aliquots from each bottle were transferred into 50–125 ml serum bottles using a peristaltic pump, and 5–12  $\mu\text{l}$  of  $\text{HgCl}_2$  was added to kill biological activity. These bottles were sealed with Teflon-coated septums for gas-tight seals and stored in the dark at room temperature. Residual water from the incubations was filtered onto precombusted GF/F under dim light, and filters were frozen at  $-20$  °C before being dried in a desiccator and packed into tin cups for analysis at the Stable Isotope Laboratory. The  $^{15}\text{N}_2$  spike concentration was measured on shipboard with a Pfeiffer QMS 220 MIMS system. A long needle inserted into the serum bottle was connected by a microvolume gear pump to the membrane system (Bay Instruments), and the  $^{15}\text{N}:^{14}\text{N}$  gas ratio was measured and found to average 5.7 % (slightly less than theoretically assumed).  $\text{N}_2$  fixation was calculated according to (White et al., 2020). Depth integrations were done in RStudio by trapezoidal interpolation to 30 m and to the deepest sample measurement at each cycle day (max. 90 m).

#### 1.4. Net Community Production (NCP)

NCP estimates from  $\text{O}_2:\text{Ar}$  measurements reflect oxygen production by photoautotrophs, respiration by photo- and heterotrophs, and corrections for physical gas exchange processes assuming steady-state processes over the residence time of  $\text{O}_2$  (Craig and Hayward, 1987). Continuous underway measurements of  $\text{O}_2:\text{Ar}$  were obtained by equilibrium inlet mass spectrometry (EIMS, Pfeiffer QMS 220) as described by Kranz et al. (2020). Biological supersaturation of oxygen ( $\Delta\text{O}_2:\text{Ar}$ ) was determined by normalizing the measured  $\text{O}_2:\text{Ar}$  ratio to values obtained during regular ( $\sim 1$  h every 8 h) calibrations with atmosphere-equilibrated seawater. Data were smoothed by 5-min running averaging, and calibration times were exchanged with correlated extrapolations of the prior and post calibration data. NCP rates were calculated as:

$$\text{NCP} = k \cdot \Delta(\text{O}_2 / \text{Ar}) [\text{O}_2]_{\text{sol}} \rho \quad (\text{Eq. 2})$$

where  $k$  is the piston velocity for  $\text{O}_2$  gas exchange ( $k$ ;  $\text{m d}^{-1}$ ) estimated from the square of satellite-measured wind speed and the temperature-dependent Schmidt number ( $Sc$ ) for  $\text{O}_2$  (Wanninkhof, 2014). To incorporate the temporal dynamics of wind forcing and upper-ocean mixing, a time-weighted mean  $k$  was computed by incorporating the wind speed history and mixed-layer depth (MLD) (Reuer et al., 2007).  $[\text{O}_2]_{\text{sol}}$  is the mixed-layer oxygen solubility, and  $\rho$  is the average ML density.  $\Delta(\text{O}_2/\text{Ar})$  is the biological oxygen signal defined by  $\Delta(\text{O}_2/\text{Ar}) = \frac{(\text{O}_2/\text{Ar})}{(\text{O}_2/\text{Ar})_{\text{cal}}} - 1$ .

NCP was calculated for two estimates of mixed layer depths (MLD $_{\sigma_\theta}$  and MLD $_{\text{O}_2}$ ) and also at a constant depth of 30 m. MLD $_{\sigma_\theta}$  was determined from CTD profiles as the depth at which the density had increased by  $0.01 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$  relative to the density at 5 m. We also calculated MLD $_{\text{O}_2}$  as a 2 % change in  $\text{O}_2$  concentration from a reference depth of 10 m (Castro-Morales and Kaiser, 2012). Both MLD estimates were smoothed by 3-d running means prior to the ventilation calculation to account for internal waves and other variations. Among our three approaches, NCP $_{\sigma_\theta}$  and NCP $_{\text{O}_2}$  are dynamic estimates constrained by hydrographic ( $\sigma_\theta$ ) and hydrographic/biological ( $\text{O}_2$ ) structures of the water column, whereas NCP $_{30\text{m}}$  provides a fixed-depth reference for comparing between methods (GPP only valid above 30 m, NPP valid for full water column but with limited sample size within shallow mixed layers (e.g.,  $<10$ -m MLD $_{\sigma_\theta}$ ). NCP was calculated as  $\text{mmol O}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  and converted to NCP $_{\text{C}}$  ( $\text{mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ ) using a photosynthetic quotient of 1.3 and  $12.01 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$  for carbon. We adopted  $\text{PQ} = 1.3$ , instead of the  $\sim 1.1$  expected for  $\text{NH}_4^+$  utilization, to account for Fe-stress-induced alternative electron flows (e.g., cyclic and Mehler pathways, photorespiration) that decouple  $\text{O}_2$  evolution from  $\text{CO}_2$  fixation and increase the apparent PQ (Laws, 1991; Behrenfeld and Milligan, 2013).

#### 1.5. Gross primary productivity and photophysiology using FRRf

Gross primary productivity (GPP) was estimated using Fast Repetition Rate fluorometry (FRRf) based on Oxborough et al. (2012) and adapted for field applications following Schuback et al. (2015, 2016). Implementation of the method for this study closely followed Kranz et al. (2020). The method applied is based on single turnover excitation of the photosystem, measured as photosystem II fluorescence (Oxborough et al., 2012; Schuback et al., 2015; Boatman et al., 2019; Kranz et al., 2020). The FRRf data provide estimates of gross primary production expressed in electrons per photosystem II reaction center.

Shipboard measurements were made from the ship's seawater system using a bench-top FastAct 2+ Fast TRAKA instrument (Chelsea, UK). Photosynthesis versus irradiance (P vs. E) curves were run on a  $\sim 30$ -min sampling interval using single-turnover flash sequences to resolve photosystem II (PSII) photophysiological parameters. For every 5-ml sample, water was first purged through the cuvette to remove old sample and acclimated to low light ( $12 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) for 10 min, then dark acclimated for 60 s. Measured parameters included the dark/low light adapted maximum quantum yield of PSII ( $F_v/F_m$ ), the functional absorption cross-section of PSII ( $\sigma_{\text{PSII}}$ ), and the effective quantum yield under ambient light ( $F_q/F_m'$ ). Additional photophysiological parameters are described in Supplemental Table 1.

Using a modified version of the absorbance algorithm (Oxborough et al., 2012), volume-based productivity rates (i.e., mol electrons  $(\text{RCII})^{-1} \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ d}^{-1}$ ) were calculated as:

$$JV_{\text{PSII,abs}} = \Phi_{\text{RCII}} \cdot F_o' \cdot K_a \cdot E \cdot 8.64 \times 10^{-8} \quad (\text{Eq. 3})$$

where  $F_o' = (F_m \cdot F_0)/(F_m - F_0) \cdot (F_q/F_m)$ ;  $K_a$  is the instrument calibration factor ( $11800 \text{ m}^{-1}$ );  $E$  = irradiance ( $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) of actinic light in the instrument and the factor  $8.64 \times 10^{-8}$  converts  $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  to mol photons  $\text{m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  and kg to mg. The photon to electron conversion  $\Phi_{\text{RCII}}$  (mol  $e^-$  mol photon $^{-1}$ ) has a constant value of 1, representing one electron transferred from P680 to quinone A ( $Q_A$ ) for each photon absorbed and delivered to reaction center RCII (Kolber and Falkowski, 1993). RCII was estimated as:

$$\text{RCII} = K_a \cdot F_0 / \sigma_{\text{PSII}} \quad (\text{Eq. 4})$$

where  $F_0$  is dark-adapted base fluorescence and  $\sigma_{\text{PSII}}$  is the absorption cross-section area of the dark-adapted photosystem. Here, we used mean nighttime  $\sigma_{\text{PSII}}$  measurements and assumed similar absorption cross section during the following day to avoid errors from daytime suppression due to enhanced base fluorescence and non-photochemical

quenching.  $JV_{PSII}$  (mol electrons  $m^{-3} d^{-1}$ ) was converted to carbon units by the factor  $\Phi_{e:c}$  (Schuback and Tortell, 2019):

$$\Phi_{e:c} / \eta_{RCII} = 486 \cdot NPQ_{NSV} + 1854 \quad (\text{Eq. 5})$$

where  $\Phi_{e:c}$  is the electron to carbon fixation ratio,  $\eta_{RCII}$  is the RCII to Chl-*a* ratio, and  $NPQ_{NSV}$  is the normalized Stern-Volmer non-photochemical quenching coefficient.  $\eta_{RCII}$  was determined using the RCII calculated in Eq. (4) and dividing by Chl-*a* concentration from the ship's fluorometer. During the timespan where the fluorometer readings were faulty, we used nighttime  $F_0$  from the FRRf and the relationship between  $F_0$  and Chl-*a* before the sensor was fouled.

To calculate water column GPP from FRRf measurements, we used *in-situ* light attenuation from noon CTD profiles to calculate the light field over the diurnal cycle. P vs. E relationships were determined from FRRf productivity parameters according to (Platt et al., 1980) if photoinhibition was observed (Eq. (6)) or from Webb et al. (1974) if no photoinhibition was observed (Eq. (7)):

$$\text{Productivity} = P_s \times \left[ 1 - e^{-\frac{-\alpha \times E}{P_s}} \right] \times e^{-\frac{-\beta \times E}{P_s}} \quad (\text{Eq. 6})$$

$$\text{Productivity} = P_s \times \left[ 1 - e^{-\frac{-\alpha \times E}{P_s}} \right] \quad (\text{Eq. 7})$$

where  $P_s$  is the maximum photosynthesis,  $E$  is PAR,  $\alpha$  is the initial photosynthesis slope under low irradiance, and  $\beta$  is the slope under high/stressful irradiance.

Due to system oligotrophy, some measurements did not pass quality control even at lower light ( $250 \mu\text{mol photons } m^{-2} s^{-1}$ ). These P vs. E curves were omitted from further analysis, but the parameters were used for mean estimates of basic dark adapted photophysiological parameters (see below). Due to instrument failures and missing data, we obtained a higher temporal resolution of GPP by averaging the valid daytime productivity estimates (Eq. (6) and (7)) for every 30 min at their respective light conditions. We considered the parameters only valid to 30 m depth because cellular Chl-*a* changed below 30 m (Supplemental Fig. 3). Additional photophysiological parameters derived from dark-adapted measurements are described in Supplemental Table S1.

### 1.6. Statistical methods

All statistical analyses were conducted in R (version 2024.12.0 + 467; R Core Team). For comparisons of productivity metrics across

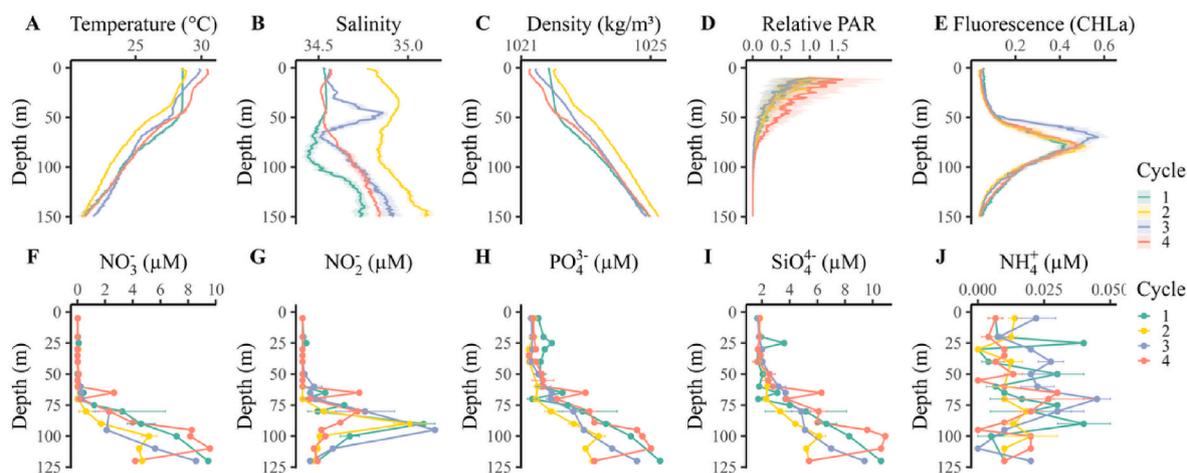
cycles and treatments, we assumed normality and homogeneity. Significant differences among Lagrangian cycles were tested by one-way ANOVA followed by post-hoc pairwise comparisons by Tukey's Honest Significant Difference (HSD) test. Depth-integrated rates (e.g.,  $^{14}\text{C-NPP}$ , GPP,  $\text{N}_2$  fixation) were calculated by trapezoidal integration of depth profiles over the upper 30 m and the full photic zone, with variability reported as standard error of the means (SEM) of replicate profiles. All plots were generated using ggplot2, and compositing of multi-panel figures was performed using patchwork packages. The significance level was set at  $\alpha = 0.05$  for all tests.

## 2. Results

### 2.1. Environmental properties

During cruise RR2201, the Argo Basin was characterized by warm surface waters and strong thermal stratification (Fig. 2A, Table 1). Sea surface temperatures (upper 30 m) ranged from  $\sim 28^\circ\text{C}$  to  $30^\circ\text{C}$  across all cycles. Subsurface temperatures at the DCM (67–75 m) were  $\sim 4^\circ\text{C}$  lower compared to surface values, indicating strong thermal stratification. Salinity remained relatively uniform throughout the surface layer in Cycles 1, 2, and 4 (hereafter C1 to C4), with modest increases at depth (Fig. 1B). The highest salinity was observed during Cycle 2, while Cycle 3 showed a distinct salinity anomaly near 50 m depth, suggesting a subsurface intrusion of water from lateral advection or a remnant signal from a prior mixing event. Mixed layer depth (Fig. S2, Table 1), based on sigma theta was determined to average around  $30.5 \pm 3.1$ ,  $9.4 \pm 1.0$ ,  $6.6 \pm 0.2$  and  $9.2 \pm 0.8$  for C1 to C4, respectively. Mixed layer depths based on the oxygen profiles for analysis of the  $\text{O}_2/\text{Ar}$  data ( $\text{MLD}_{\text{O}_2}$ ) were determined to be  $53 \pm 7$ ,  $32 \pm 7$ ,  $17 \pm 2.5$ ,  $20.5 \pm 7$  m for C1 to C4, respectively (Fig. S2, Table 1). The generally deeper mixing during C1 was the result of a storm system which passed through the area shortly before C1. Since C3 was the same water mass as C1, re-stratification occurred within 7 days.  $\text{MLD}_{\sigma\theta}$  based on density was consistently shallower than  $\text{MLD}_{\text{O}_2}$ , particularly during stratified periods (Table 1). These discrepancies reflect the differing time scales of physical mixing (hours to days) and biological and air-sea gas exchange processes (days to weeks), the latter being more appropriate for the  $\text{O}_2/\text{Ar}$  NCP assessment.

Nutrient concentration profiles verified the oligotrophic nature of the basin (Fig. 2, Table 1). Nitrate concentrations ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ ) were generally depleted (Fig. 2F), averaging ( $\pm$ SEM)  $0.018 \pm 0.04 \mu\text{M}$  in surface waters down to 50 m, with nitraclines (the depth at which nitrate



**Fig. 2.** Physical and biochemical profiles from the 4 cycles plotted to 150-m depth. A) Temperature ( $^\circ\text{C}$ ), B) Salinity (PSU), C) Density ( $\text{kg } m^{-3}$ ), D) Relative PAR ( $\mu\text{mol photons } m^{-2} s^{-1}$ ), E) Chl-*a* fluorescence ( $\mu\text{g } L^{-1}$ ) taken from the CTD rosette depth profiles and plotted as average per cycle with 95 % confidence interval (shaded area). F-J) Nutrient profiles ( $\mu\text{M}$ ) taken from CTD niskin bottles. F)  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , G)  $\text{NO}_2^-$ , H)  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$ , I)  $\text{SiO}_4^{4-}$  J)  $\text{NH}_4^+$ . Error bars denote standard deviation when multiple samples were taken from the same depth during a cycle.

**Table 1**  
Nutrient and biophysicochemical parameters during the cycles, averaged by depth intervals. Where shown, the errors are 1 standard error of the mean.

	Depth	Cycle 1	Cycle 2	Cycle 3	Cycle 4
Starting Dates		02/04	02/09	02/15	02/20
Par	0–30 m	75.80 ± 4.15	161.25 ± 7.37	156.61 ± 7.52	102.63 ± 5.38
	30–50 m	24.42 ± 1.37	53.46 ± 2.85	53.77 ± 3.05	48.39 ± 2.86
	50–100 m	6.35 ± 0.28	11.52 ± 0.54	10.44 ± 0.52	11.84 ± 0.61
	Deep	0.17	0.17 ± 0.01	0.15	0.13 ± 0.01
	Salinity	0–30 m	34.54	34.85	34.57
	30–50 m	34.54	34.89	34.71	34.54
	50–100 m	34.48	34.83	34.62	34.60
	Deep	34.69	35.02	34.82	34.78
Temp	0–30 m	28.57	28.41 ± 0.01	29.08 ± 0.01	29.78 ± 0.01
	30–50 m	28.49 ± 0.01	27.35 ± 0.03	27.87 ± 0.01	28.80 ± 0.02
	50–100 m	26.06 ± 0.03	24.53 ± 0.02	25.40 ± 0.02	25.73 ± 0.02
	Deep	12.96 ± 0.08	16.12 ± 0.06	14.45 ± 0.08	14.49 ± 0.07
	MLD <sub>00</sub>	41 ± 15	10 ± 5	6.8 ± 1.2	10.76 ± 3.7
MLD <sub>O2</sub> NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	0–30 m	53 ± 7	32 ± 7	17 ± 2.5	20.5 ± 7
	30–50 m	0.03 ± 0.01	0.02	0.01	0.01
	50–100 m	1.94 ± 0.75	1.33 ± 0.45	1.14 ± 0.46	2.10 ± 0.91
	Deep	21.03 ± 3.90	11.92 ± 2.22	20.02 ± 3.04	13.56 ± 1.83
	NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup>	0–30 m	0.01	0.01	0.01
30–50 m		0.01 ± 0.01	0.01	0.02	0.01
50–100 m		0.02	0.02	0.02	0.01
Deep		0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
PO <sub>4</sub> <sup>3-</sup>		0–30 m	0.11 ± 0.01	0.05 ± 0.01	0.05
	30–50 m	0.10 ± 0.01	0.04	0.06 ± 0.01	0.08 ± 0.02
	50–100 m	0.24 ± 0.05	0.20 ± 0.03	0.20 ± 0.04	0.30 ± 0.06
	Deep	1.55 ± 0.27	0.85 ± 0.14	1.45 ± 0.21	0.95 ± 0.12
	NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	0–30 m	ND	ND	ND
30–50 m		ND	ND	ND	ND
50–100 m		0.07 ± 0.02	0.08 ± 0.03	0.07 ± 0.03	0.07 ± 0.02
Deep		0.03 ± 0.01	0.02	0.01 ± 0.01	0.01 ± 0.01
SiO <sub>4</sub>		0–30 m	2.00 ± 0.22	1.85 ± 0.02	1.79 ± 0.04
	30–50 m	1.80 ± 0.08	1.97 ± 0.05	2.13 ± 0.08	2.02 ± 0.39
	50–100 m	3.85 ± 0.70	3.71 ± 0.33	4.13 ± 0.48	5.00 ± 0.77
	Deep	44.31 ± 13.22	17.37 ± 5.31	40.23 ± 10.29	16.16 ± 2.81

concentrations first exceeded 1 μmol L<sup>-1</sup>) around 65–81 m. Phosphorus (Fig. 2H), showed a remaining concentration of 0.07 ± 0.02 μM PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup> μM. P\* (the overabundance of phosphorus relative to nitrogen P\* = [PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup>] - 16/[NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>]) averaged 0.06 in the upper 50 m and 0.1 for the upper 100 m (Figure Supplemental 2), indicating that nitrate was a limiting major macro-nutrient in the surface ocean. Silicic acid (Fig. 1H) was measured at average concentrations of 1.89 ± 0.04 μM within the upper 50 m; ammonia (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>) was barely measurable (0.012 ± 1 μM) throughout the water column (Fig. 1I), indicating active recycling.

Nitrite (Fig. 1G) had a prominent maximum, indicating enhanced nitrification, slightly below the deep chlorophyll maximum (DCM) (Fig. 1E). The DCM (Fig. 1E) depths ranged from 67 to 75 m, with the nitracline typically slightly deeper than the DCM. The euphotic zone (EZ) depth (1 % surface PAR) (Fig. 1D) was slightly deeper than the DCM, while subsurface fluorescence peaks marked the DCM and associated productivity zones.

## 2.2. Net primary productivity (NPP) on in-situ array

<sup>14</sup>C-based NPP profiles showed distinct differences across the four Lagrangian experiments. For C1, NPP<sub>14C</sub> was greatly reduced in the lower euphotic zone (EZ) compared to the surface (~78 % reduction at 50 m) (Fig. 3A) due to low light (cloud cover) during the first 3 days (Fig. S3), but the rates increased sharply on day 4, with 50-m NPP being 8 % higher than the surface (Fig. 3A). For C2 and C3 (Fig. 3B and C), profiles were relatively constant to 60 m. In contrast, C4 (Fig. 3D) showed a strong decrease in the upper 20 m followed by an almost linear decrease with deeper depth, which correlated with increasing cellular Chla below 40 m (see Fig. S1).

Integrated NPP<sub>14C</sub> rates were relatively consistent across the cycles except for days 1–3 of C1. Cycle-averaged productivity was lowest in C1 (283 ± 72 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>), and C2–C4 exhibited higher full-depth integrated NPP<sub>14C</sub> values of 542 ± 43, 546 ± 53, and 496 ± 28 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The overall mean NPP<sub>14C</sub> across all four cycles was 460 ± 40 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>. Integrated <sup>14</sup>C-based primary productivity for the upper 30 m (the habitat depth of SBT larvae) (Fig. 2E insert, Table 2) averaged roughly half of the full EZ-integrated rates. Cycle mean values ranged from 164 ± 20 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> in C1 to 240 ± 21 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> in C4, with an overall average of 212 ± 14 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>.

Supplementing our direct NPP<sub>14C</sub> measurements, NPP<sub>Sat</sub> estimates for the region averaged 450 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> along the cruise track (Fig. 3). Productivity was highest in patches in the shelf area between 120 and 125°E and along the Australian coastline south of Argo Basin. West of 120 °E, productivity between 12.5 and 17.5°S was relatively uniform (464 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> on average), showing no obvious indications of local production hot spots in the Argo Basin during our cruise (Fig. 3).

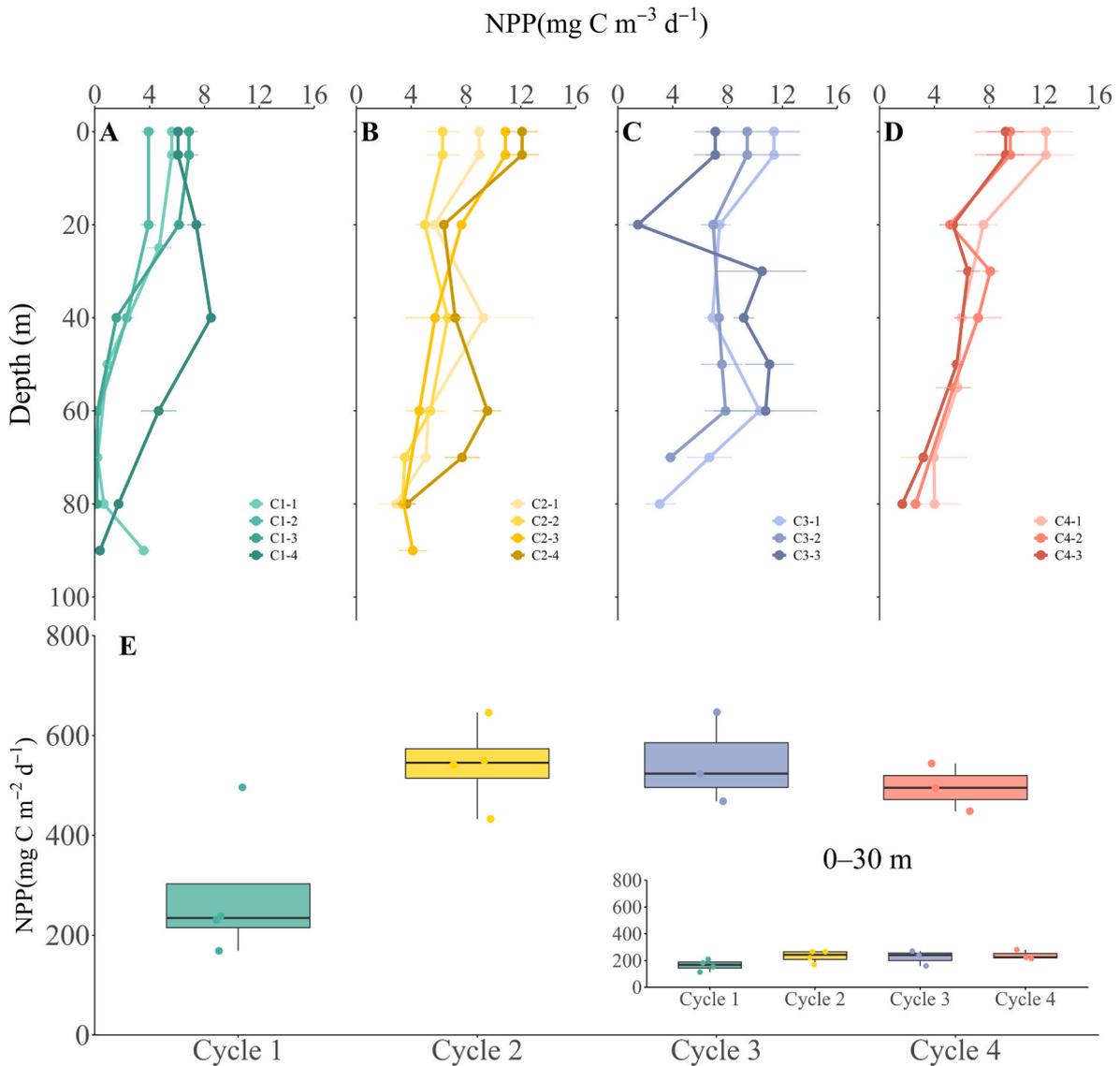
For the Lagrangian cycles, 8-day NPP<sub>Sat</sub> estimates ranged from 428 to 518 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> (Table 2) (Fig. 4), with an overall cycle mean of 459 ± 2 mg C m<sup>-2</sup>. Post-hoc Tukey's HSD tests indicated significant differences among cycles. During C1, mean NPP<sub>Sat</sub> (515 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) was significantly higher than C2–C4 (p < 0.01). In C2, productivity was lowest (446 ± 19 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>; p = 0.002 versus C1) and exhibited the highest variability. NPP<sub>Sat</sub> for C3 (Feb. 19–26; 429 ± 1 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) was significantly lower than both C1 (p < 0.001) and C4 (459 ± 2 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>; p = 0.03).

## 2.3. N<sub>2</sub> fixation on in-situ array

N<sub>2</sub>-fixation rates are unavailable for C1 and the first two days of C2 due to lost samples. Measured rates ranged generally from 10 to 20 nmol N<sub>2</sub> L<sup>-1</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> with an average of ~15 nmol N<sub>2</sub> L<sup>-1</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> for the upper 60 m, decreasing sharply to 1–2 nmol N<sub>2</sub> L<sup>-1</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> at depths of 70–80 m in the nitracline. Based on Redfield stoichiometric conversion to mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, EZ-integrated rates ranged from 60 to 86 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, with the highest value on day 3 of C3 (84 ± 4 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) and the lowest on day 3 of C4 (57 ± 3 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) (Fig. 5, Table 2). Corresponding 30-m integrated rates ranged from 27 ± 6 to 41 ± 0 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, averaging 34 ± 2 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>. N<sub>2</sub>-fixation for the full depth was highest during C2 (84 ± 3 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>), followed by C3 (76 ± 7 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) and C4 (61 ± 4 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>), giving an overall average of 74 ± 3 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> (Table 2).

## 2.4. Gross primary productivity (GPP)

Due to low biomass, about 30 % of the P vs E curves did not pass



**Fig. 3.** Daily measurement profiles and integrated values of <sup>14</sup>C based net primary productivity (NPP<sub>14C</sub>). A-D) NPP<sub>14C</sub> profiles for all cycles and cycle days with error bars denoting 1 standard error of the mean. E) Integrated productivity in mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>. Dots indicate the water column productivity for each day (n = 4, 4, 3, and 3 for Cycles 1, 2, 3, and 4, respectively) while the boxplot indicates the median and interquartile range of integrated values. Insert: Depth integrated NPP<sub>14C</sub> of the water column of the upper 30 m.

quality control (i.e. low signal-to-noise ratio resulted in low data confidence at light levels >250 μmol photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>). Because community compositions (Selph et al.,; Yingling et al.,) and base GPP calculation parameters were similar among cycles (Fig. S3), we used the diurnal average of the fitted photosynthetic parameters ( $\alpha$ ,  $P_{max}$ ,  $\beta$ ) from the P vs. E equations to substitute for missing data (see methods, Eq. (6) and (7)). These data (Fig. 6A–D), revealed a midday productivity saturation for most cycles (e.g., flat production despite the sinusoidal solar cycle).

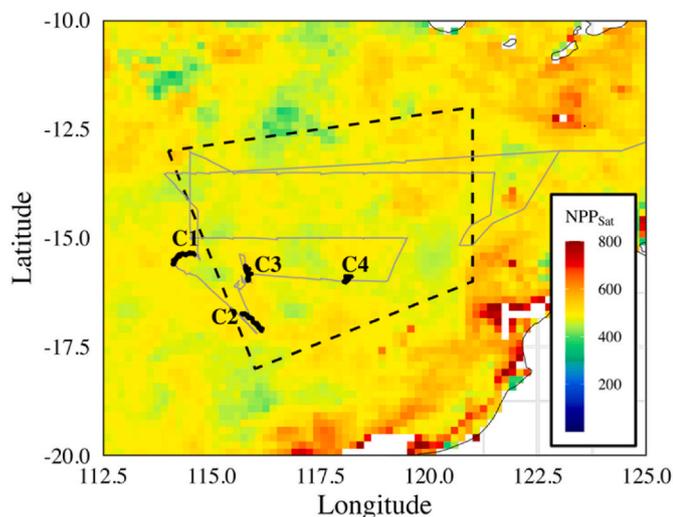
FRRf-based estimates of gross primary productivity for the upper 30 m (GPP<sub>30m</sub>) varied daily from 188 to 465 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, with a cycle average of 345 ± 16 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 6E–Table 2, Table S2). Despite reduced PAR at the beginning, C1 showed similar GPP rates compared to the other cycles (mean 352 ± 23 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>), with daily values from 305 to 403 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> (Table S2). C2 showed day-to-day variability (217–465 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) and a similar mean value (345 ± 55 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) comparable to C1. C3 had the highest mean GPP<sub>30m</sub> at 381 ± 80 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, peaking at 715 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> with an integrated daily rate of 513 ± 31 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> on day 3, yet these mean data were not significantly different compared to C1 and C2. C4 displayed the lowest

GPP<sub>30m</sub>, ranging from 188 to 375 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> with a cycle mean of 302 ± 57 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>. Despite these cycle differences, a one-way ANOVA using daily GPP<sub>30m</sub> revealed no statistically significant differences among cycles ( $p > 0.05$ ). Direct comparison of GPP<sub>30m</sub> to NPP<sub>14C</sub> for the upper 30 m resulted in a mean gross-to-net productivity ratio (GPP:NPP<sub>30m</sub>) of 1.63 ± 0.14 (Table 2) with high variability in individual daily estimates from 0.67 to 3.21 (Table S2).

### 2.5. Net community productivity (NCP)

Net community productivity was calculated based on O<sub>2</sub>:Ar data, wind velocity and mixed layer depth. MLD<sub>O<sub>2</sub></sub> estimates for C2 to C4 were below 10 m, while O<sub>2</sub> profiles indicated a deeper MLD (Fig. S2). Hence, we analyzed NCP based on both MLD<sub>O<sub>2</sub></sub> and MLD<sub>O<sub>2</sub></sub> (hereafter, NCP<sub>O<sub>2</sub></sub> and NCP<sub>O<sub>2</sub></sub>, respectively). In addition, we calculated a NCP<sub>30m</sub> estimate based on a fixed 30-m MLD (MLD<sub>30m</sub>) for direct comparisons with GPP<sub>30m</sub> and NPP<sub>30m</sub>.

The relatively shallow MLD<sub>O<sub>2</sub></sub> resulted in short O<sub>2</sub> residence time; hence, daily changes in wind affected NCP calculations most strongly



**Fig. 4.** Satellite observed net primary productivity ( $NPP_{Sat}$ ). The underlying data are from the CAFÉ model extracted for Feb. 10–17. The cruise track is shown in grey, the different cycles are indicated in black and the polygon indicated the study region as analyzed by (Kehinde et al., 2023) bounded by coordinates: 13°S, 114°E; 18°S, 116°E; 16°S, 121°E; 12°S, 121°E).

(Fig. 7). C1 had the highest  $NCP_{\sigma\theta}$  (Table S2), ranging from 116 to 388  $mg\ C\ m^{-2}\ d^{-1}$  (Table 2), with a cycle mean of  $268 \pm 64\ mg\ C\ m^{-2}\ d^{-1}$ . This is likely due to mixing from the previous storm event as well as the integration over a deeper mixed layer.  $NCP_{O_2}$  and  $NCP_{30m}$  estimates for C1 were  $398 \pm 81$  and  $205 \pm 29\ mg\ C\ m^{-2}\ d^{-1}$ , respectively (Table 2, Fig. 7). C2 exhibited substantially lower  $NCP_{\sigma\theta}$ ,  $NCP_{O_2}$ , and  $NCP_{30m}$  estimates of  $39 \pm 7$ ,  $130 \pm 27$ , and  $115 \pm 21\ mg\ C\ m^{-2}\ d^{-1}$ , respectively. C3 displayed the lowest values of  $13 \pm 7$  ( $NCP_{\sigma\theta}$ ),  $32 \pm 15$  ( $NCP_{O_2}$ ), and  $47 \pm 27\ mg\ C\ m^{-2}\ d^{-1}$  ( $NCP_{30m}$ ). In C4, the respective estimates were  $29 \pm 6$ ,  $78 \pm 11$ , and  $80 \pm 12\ mg\ C\ m^{-2}\ d^{-1}$ .

Across all cycles,  $NCP_{30m}$  and  $NPP_{30m}$  averaged  $119 \pm 20$  and  $212 \pm 14\ mg\ C\ m^{-2}\ d^{-1}$ , respectively, resulting in a mean  $NCP:NPP_{30m}$  ratio of  $\sim 0.56$  (Table 1). These results suggest that just over half of net primary production was retained within the upper 30 m, with the remainder lost to community respiration or export.

## 2.6. Photophysiology

During C1, lower light in the upper 30 m ( $PAR_{30m} = 452 \pm 8\ \mu mol\ photons\ m^{-2}\ s^{-1}$ ) yielded a moderate PSII efficiency ( $Fv/Fm = 0.26 \pm 0.002$ ) and a light-saturation irradiance of  $334 \pm 9\ \mu mol\ photons\ m^{-2}\ s^{-1}$  (Fig. S3). Under these lower-light conditions, cells showed a larger antenna size ( $\sigma = 6.62 \pm 0.07\ nm^2$ ), significantly greater than C2 and C3 ( $p < 0.01$ ), and exhibited modest nonphotochemical quenching in the dark-adapted state ( $NSV = 2.89 \pm 0.01$ ). Electron transport through the photosystem II ( $1/\tau_{es} = 1.25 \pm 0.04\ ms^{-1}$ ) was moderate (Fig. S3). For C2, average light intensity ( $PAR_{30m}$ ) was  $598 \pm 9\ \mu mol\ photons\ m^{-2}\ s^{-1}$  with a low photosynthetic quantum yield ( $Fv/Fm = 0.19 \pm 0.003$ , the lowest of all cycles ( $p < 0.0001$ ) and high  $E_k$  ( $412\ \mu mol\ photons\ m^{-2}\ s^{-1}$ ). Antenna size was significantly reduced compared to C1 ( $\sigma = 5.08$

$\pm 0.11\ nm^2$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ), while nonphotochemical quenching in the dark-adapted state increased ( $4.52 \pm 0.10$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ) (Fig. S3). The electron transport rate through the photosystem ( $1/\tau$ ) increased slightly ( $1.4 \pm 0.1\ ms^{-1}$ ), consistent with accelerated electron turnover under photostress. C3, the continuation of C1, exhibited similar mean light intensity compared to C2 ( $559 \pm 10\ \mu mol\ photons\ m^{-2}\ s^{-1}$ ), and showed elevated photochemical efficiency ( $Fv/Fm = 0.30 \pm 0.002$ ;  $p < 0.01$  versus C1) and light-use efficiency at sub-saturating irradiance ( $\alpha = 0.046 \pm 0.001$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ) and lowest  $E_k$  ( $283 \pm 10$ ;  $p < 0.01\ \mu mol\ photons\ m^{-2}\ s^{-1}$  versus C1 and C2). Both  $\sigma$  ( $5.84 \pm 0.04\ nm^2$ ) and nonphotochemical quenching ( $2.40 \pm 0.03$ ) were low, and  $1/\tau_{es}$  was lowest ( $0.95 \pm 0.03\ ms^{-1}$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ) (Fig. S3), indicating optimal light capture and minimal energy dissipation under balanced light conditions. During C4, the average light intensity ( $PAR_{30m} = 579 \pm 10\ \mu mol\ photons\ m^{-2}\ s^{-1}$ ) was similar to C2 and C3, with moderate PSII efficiency ( $Fv/Fm = 0.23 \pm 0.003$ ). The light-saturation irradiance ( $E_k = 302 \pm 14\ \mu mol\ photons\ m^{-2}\ s^{-1}$ ) was intermediate between C1 and C3. Antenna size ( $\sigma = 6.17 \pm 0.08\ nm^2$ ) showed a moderate value, closer to that of C1, while nonphotochemical quenching ( $NSV = 3.36 \pm 0.06$ ) indicated a moderate energy dissipation capacity. Electron transport rate through the photosystem ( $1/\tau_{es} = 1.40 \pm 0.04\ ms^{-1}$ ) was similar to C2, suggesting comparable electron turnover rates under these intermediate conditions (Fig. S3).

## 3. Discussion

### 3.1. General features of the Argo Basin

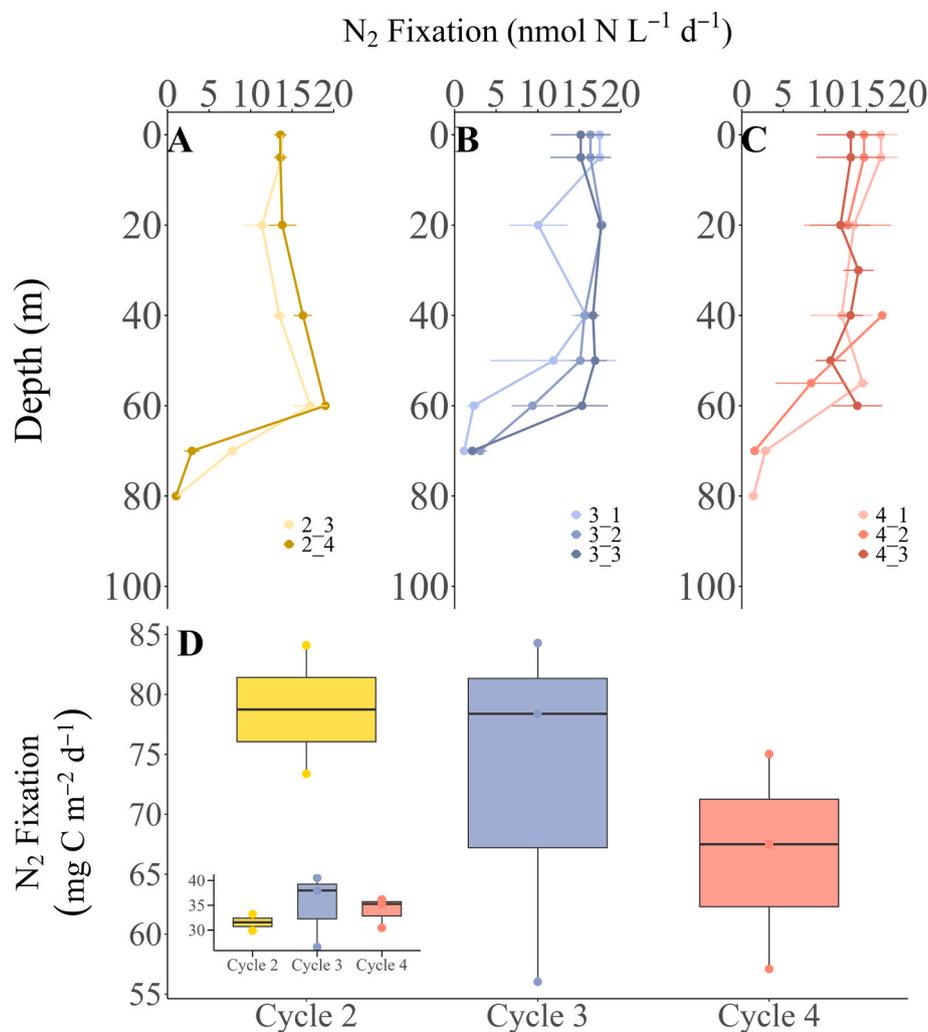
Our study revealed warm surface temperature, a mostly shallow MLD $_{\sigma\theta}$  and near-complete depletion of nitrate in surface waters of the Argo Basin (Fig. 1). Remaining phosphorus of  $0.06\ \mu mol\ L^{-1}$  gave ratios of dissolved inorganic N:P well below Redfield. The nitracline was consistently between 70 and 81 m, similar to the 67–75 m DCM (Fig. 2E). Residual ammonium ( $\sim 0.01\ \mu mol\ L^{-1}$ ; Fig. 2J) throughout the EZ was consistent with efficient N recycling. Residual silicate (Fig. 2I;  $\sim 1.9\ \mu mol\ L^{-1}$ ) and available P aligned with dominance of small cyanobacteria such as *Prochlorococcus* and low abundances of silicified phytoplankton, like diatoms (Yingling et al., This issue). Additionally, the deep nitrite maxima (Fig. 2G) and  $O_2$  depletion near the DCM (Fig. S2 (Stukel et al., This issue); suggested enhanced nitrification and microbial respiration, potentially supporting microaerobic processes such as denitrification or anammox (Dore et al., 2002; Fawcett et al., 2015). Despite these nutrient features (Fig. 2) and high cellular Chl $a$  in the lower EZ (Fig. S1; (Stukel et al., This issue),  $>50\%$  of total NPP occurred in the upper 50 m (Fig. 2), indicating light limitation at depth (Geider et al., 1997; Kana et al., 1997). This was also notable as cloud-suppressed  $NPP_{14C}$  during the first three days of C1 (Fig. 3A) and as substantially reduced phytoplankton growth rates from dilution experiments incubated in the lower EZ (Landry et al., 2025).

Together, these features illustrate a recycling-dominated system, where N availability restricts surface productivity, light limits sub-surface productivity and recycling processes sustain much of the community's N demand. The persistent low N:P ratios suggest favorable conditions for diazotrophy (Landolfi et al., 2018; Louchard et al., 2023),

**Table 2**

Rates of productivity measurements and ratios. Only average values are presented in this table. Cycle day values are presented in Supplemental Table S2. Rates are expressed in  $mg\ C\ m^{-2}\ d^{-1}$ . Numbers in parenthesis denote standard error of the mean for the rates and error propagated errors for the ratios.

Cycle-Day	$NPP_{Sat}$	$NPP_{14C}$ (full)	$NPP_{14C}$ (30 m)	GPP (30m)	NCP (sigma)	NCP (O2)	NCP (30 m)	$N_2$ Fix (30)	$N_2$ Fix (full)	GPP: NPP (30m)	NCP:NPP (30 m)
<b>Cycle 1</b>	518 (1)	283 (72)	164 (20)	352 (23)	268 (64)	398 (81)	205 (29)	32 (2)	79 (5)	2.15 (0.3)	1.25 (0.21)
<b>Cycle 2</b>	447 (19)	542 (43)	230 (23)	345 (55)	39 (7)	130 (27)	115 (21)	47 (27)	73 (9)	1.50 (0.27)	0.50 (0.13)
<b>Cycle 3</b>	429 (1)	546 (53)	224 (33)	381 (80)	13 (7)	32 (15)	47 (27)	35 (5)	67 (5)	1.70 (0.41)	0.21 (0.12)
<b>Cycle 4</b>	457 (7)	496 (28)	240 (21)	302 (57)	29 (6)	78 (11)	80 (12)	34 (2)	67 (5)	1.26 (0.28)	0.33 (0.06)
<b>average</b>	459 (2)	460 (40)	212 (14)	345 (16)	97 (34)	174 (46)	119 (20)	34 (2)	72 (4)	1.63 (0.14)	0.56 (0.1)



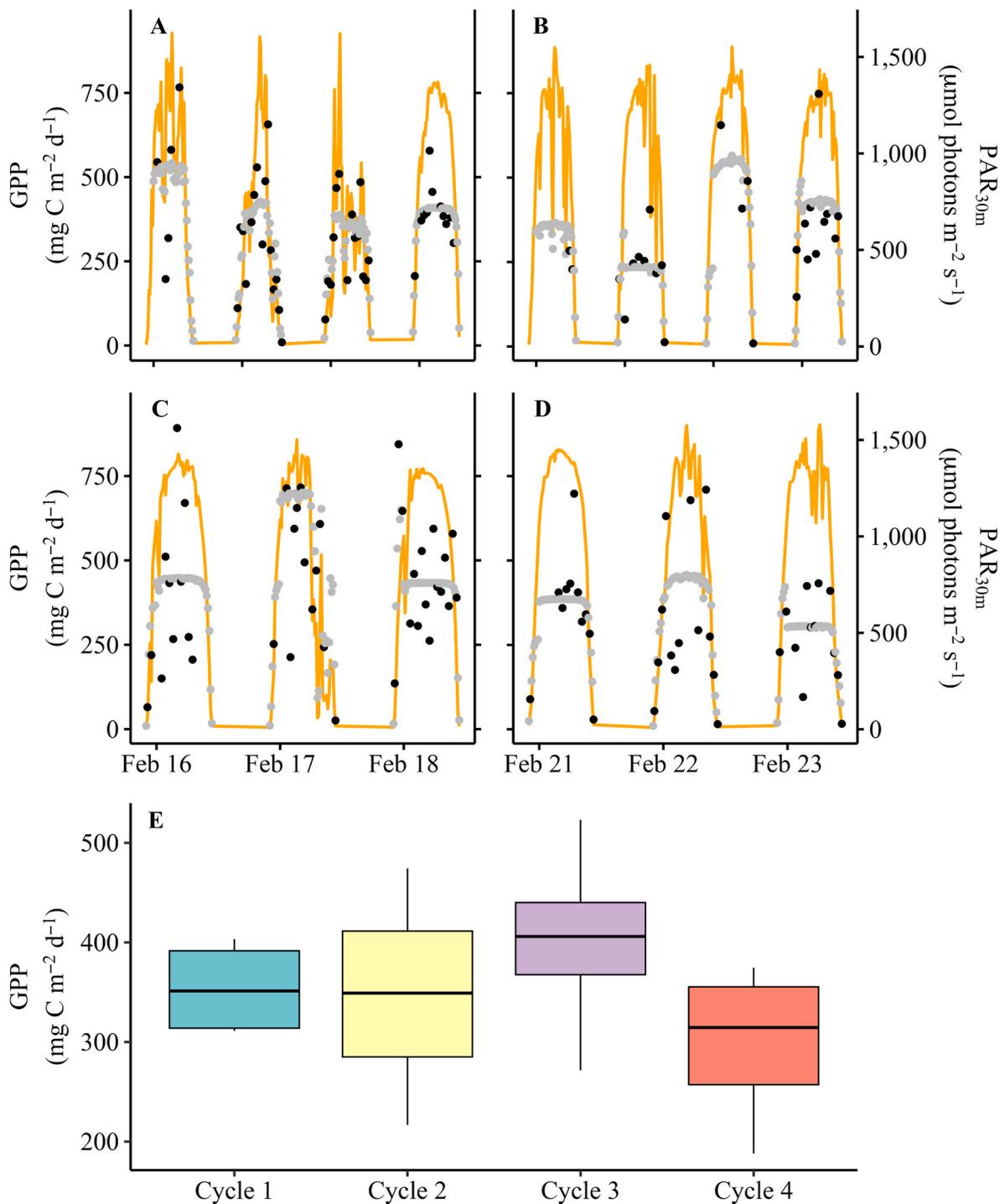
**Fig. 5.**  $N_2$  fixation profiles and integrated rates. A-D);  $N_2$ -fixation over the depth of the array in  $\text{nmol N m}^{-3} \text{d}^{-1}$  for all cycles and cycle days. D) Integrated  $N_2$ -fixation in  $\text{mg C m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ . Dots indicate the water column integrated productivity for each day ( $n = 2, 3, 3$  for Cycles 2, 3, and 4, respectively), while the boxplot indicates the median and interquartile range. Insert: Depth integrated  $N_2$  fixation of the water column of the upper 30 m.

although the measured  $N_2$  fixation rates (Fig. 5) and residual P suggest that diazotroph potential might not have been fully realized during our study period. In addition, Fe appears to be a co-limiting factor in cycles 1, 2 and 4 (pers. comm. Rob Lampe).

### 3.2. Net primary productivity

Our observed rates of  $\text{NPP}_{14\text{C}}$  are broadly consistent with long-term averages from oligotrophic gyres such as HOT and BATS (Brix et al., 2006), but 38 % higher than the mean estimate of  $325 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$  for the Atlantic Bluefin Tuna spawning region in the Gulf of Mexico (Yingling et al., 2022). Productivity was highest in the upper 50 m, with subsurface productivity following decreasing light availability. The light-limiting nature of subsurface production was further supported by flow cytometric measurements showing increased cellular Chl<sub>a</sub> in *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* below 40 m (Fig. S1), as well as increases in Chl<sub>a</sub>:POC ratios below 50 m (Selph et al., This issue; Stukel et al., This issue). This pattern parallels previous observations from oligotrophic regions where DCMs are largely driven by pigment adjustments to low-light conditions (Mignot et al., 2014; Cornec et al., 2021; Phong-phattarawat et al., 2023). DOC production (not measured) may add an additional 2–50 % to the NPP pool (Thornton, 2014). This would be especially significant in the nutrient-limited high-light section of the water column.

Comparing *in-situ* daily productivity ( $\text{NPP}_{14\text{C}}$ ) to remotely sensed estimates using the 8-day composite CAFE model ( $\text{NPP}_{\text{Sat}}$ ), NPP rates converged on similar cycle-averaged values of  $460 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$  (Figs. 2 and 3, Table 1), supporting the general usage of such algorithms to assess productivity of this region. However, substantial discrepancies emerged on shorter timescales (Table S2, Figs. 3, 5 and 6). For instance, the day-to-day variability of  $\text{NPP}_{14\text{C}}$  in C1 (Fig. 2A) was not captured in the 8-day composite  $\text{NPP}_{\text{Sat}}$  assessment of productivity (Table S2), which remained stable throughout the observational period due to the longer time integration. Variability in  $\text{NPP}_{14\text{C}}$  reflects transient physical or biological processes such as short-term, changes in light availability and/or photoacclimation. Recognizing the fine-scale variability is crucial for understanding ecosystem dynamics in stratified environments, where productivity and community structure can shift on time-scales of hours to days. While satellite algorithms have made progress in capturing depth-dependent distribution of biomass, Chl<sub>a</sub> and estimated productivity (Westberry et al., 2008), the inherent temporal and vertical differences impose a limited ability to resolve short-term changes in sub-surface production estimates in stratified oligotrophic systems, underscoring the continued importance of high-frequency *in-situ* observations.



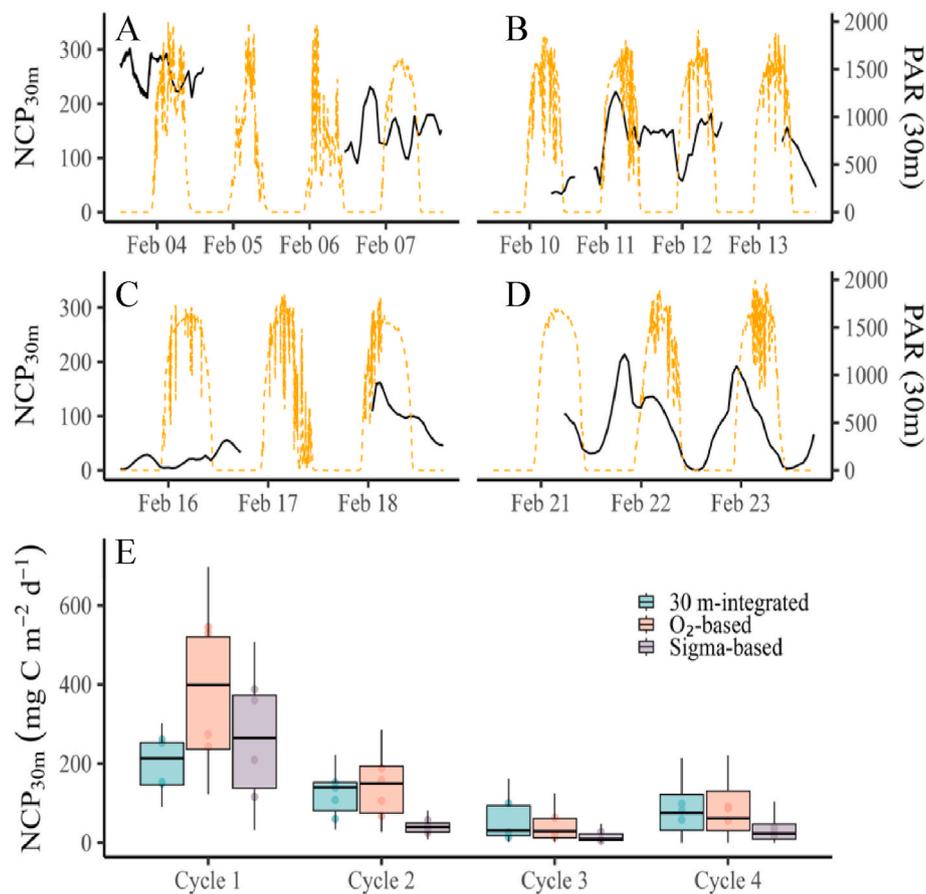
**Fig. 6.** Gross primary productivity over the diurnal cycles and integrated over 30 m. Panels A–D correspond to C1–C4, respectively. Orange lines indicate the median light intensity for 30 m water depth in  $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ . Black dots indicate the calculated GPP for all valid FRRF P vs. E curves integrated over the upper 30 m. Grey dots indicate the interpolated data based on 30 min intervals using the average P vs. E (alpha, Pmax, beta) integrated over the upper 30 m. D: Average GPP for each cycle. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

### 3.3. Support of NPP by N<sub>2</sub> fixation

N<sub>2</sub> fixation was estimated to be a secondary N source supporting primary production. As shown in Yingling et al. (This issue), ammonium utilization was the primary N source for the community while nitrate uptake was mostly negligible in surface waters. Using Redfield stoichiometry for C:N conversion, N<sub>2</sub>-fixation rates for C2–C4 averaged  $34 \pm 2 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  in the upper 30 m and  $72 \pm 4 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  for the full profile (Fig. 5, Table 2) supporting 16 % of measured NPP<sub>14C</sub>. While

Redfield stoichiometry provides a useful benchmark to convert N units to C units, oligotrophic systems do not universally follow Redfield. Systematic deviations in N:P and C:N with nutrient supply are well documented in central gyres (Galbraith and Martiny, 2015). However, since we do only have bulk C:N ratios and not phytoplankton-based assessment of C:N, Redfield stoichiometry was the most realistic to apply to our data.

As such, N<sub>2</sub> fixation presents a substantial contribution to the “new” N pool in this region (Eppley and Peterson, 1979). More importantly for



**Fig. 7.** Net Community Production (NCP,  $\text{mg C m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ ) in each cycle. Panels A–D: Solar irradiance in orange; NCP calculated using  $\text{MLD}_{30\text{m}}$  in black over the day-night times for each cycle. E) NCP averaged over the cycle duration: Box plot indicates the calculations based on the different MLD applied (30 m integrated, O<sub>2</sub>-based, or Sigma-based). (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

the biogeochemistry of this region, the N<sub>2</sub> fixation rates measured account for the majority of new N required to balance the measured carbon export of 18 % of  $\text{NPP}_{14\text{C}}$  into sediment traps (Stukel et al., this issue). In addition to our findings of the importance of N<sub>2</sub> fixation to export production in the Argo Basin, Radke et al. (2017) showed sediment organic matter with low  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  along the northwestern shelf region. This is an indication of organic matter produced supported by N<sub>2</sub> fixation in surface waters being exported. Similarly, Stukel et al. (this issue) analyzed  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$   $\text{NO}_3$  during Cycle 4, the one closest to the shelf region. Elevated N<sub>2</sub> fixation rates were also measured closer to the shallower ITF (de Souza et al.).

Complementary on-deck incubations performed on the cross-basin transects following C4 revealed more variable rates further in the central Argo Basin, and diel experiments (12 h daytime) indicated 2–3 fold higher daytime than nighttime rates. These rates would indicate that N<sub>2</sub> fixation by a mixture of photoautotrophic diazotrophs with different N<sub>2</sub> fixation strategies and/or heterotrophic diazotrophs contributed to the N budget in this region. Unicellular cyanobacterial diazotrophs (e.g., *Crocospaera*) typically fix N<sub>2</sub> at night, utilizing daytime acquired carbon to generate the cellular energy needed for N<sub>2</sub> fixation (thus higher C requirements by day for night N fixation) (Mohr et al., 2010b; Zehr and Capone, 2020). In contrast, filamentous *Trichodesmium* fixes N<sub>2</sub> by day, using photosynthetic energy while employing O<sub>2</sub>-protection strategies (Milligan et al., 2007; Kranz et al., 2010; Zehr and Capone, 2020). Both processes imply mechanistic linkages among light, cellular energy, reductant supply, and N<sub>2</sub>-fixation rates and may be happening in our experiments.

Interestingly, residual phosphorus concentrations, low N:P ratios, warm temperature and strong stratification are considered diazotrophy-

favorable conditions. Yet, the residual phosphorus also indicate that N<sub>2</sub> fixation was not fully realized. Ecological controls such as trace metal limitation and/or partial light limitation deeper in the water column may have constrained overall N fixation activity, as previously observed in other parts of the Indo-Pacific (Raes et al., 2015; Landolfi et al., 2018; Chowdhury et al., 2023).

### 3.4. Gross production and autotrophic respiration

Primary productivity involves the harvesting of light to split water, yielding energy and reductant for nutrient and carbon uptake and fixation (Falkowski, 2012). Variable fluorescence measurements quantify electron generation and transport rates through the photosystem. Carbon-based GPP estimates derived from FRRf measurements depend strongly on electrons used per carbon fixed (e:C) ratios, which can vary with species composition, light acclimation and nutrient status (Schuback et al., 2015, 2016; Boatman et al., 2019). In the present study, neither community composition (Yingling et al., This issue) nor nutrient status changed dramatically, and light availability was similar in C2–C4 (but more limiting during C1). Hence, our cycle estimates should be reasonably comparable among themselves, but absolute values might be over- or underestimated (Halsey et al., 2013; Schuback et al., 2015; Boatman et al., 2019). A potential bias can be evaluated using the NPP: GPP ratios determined at 30 m. Assuming that GPP is theoretically 40–50 % greater than NPP (corresponding to an  $\text{GPP/NPP} \approx 1.5$  (Marra, 2002; Juranek and Quay, 2005), our results suggest that GPP may have been overestimated for the cruise average by ~9 % (average cycle deviations: C1: +43 %, C2: 0 %, C3: +13 %, C4: –16 %). This discrepancy is most likely attributed to uncertainties in the electron-to-carbon

conversion applied to the FRRf-derived measurements, reflecting variability in alternative electron transport pathways and in the cellular allocation of photosynthetically derived energy and reductants to metabolic processes other than carbon fixation.

Underway surface analysis from the ship's seawater intake ties the GPP estimates to the upper EZ, as both cellular pigmentation and photoacclimation dramatically change at greater depth. Based on flow cytometric data (Fig. S1), cellular Chla values were relatively stable to ~40 m but increased by 4–5 fold in the deeper EZ. GPP<sub>30m</sub> rates of ~380 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> were comparable to estimates for mid-to-offshore waters of the California Current Ecosystem (Kranz et al., 2020) but lower than the 440 and 710 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> winter/summer estimates for station ALOHA based on oxygen isotope data (Juraneck and Quay, 2005). However, because these rates were integrated over a deeper MLD (45–85 m) depth, our data seem to be within a generally expected range.

GPP:NPP<sub>30m</sub> ratios, using a 30-m integrated NPP<sub>14C</sub> data subset, ranged between 0.67 and 3.2 with an average of 1.63 (Table 1). A ratio of ~1.63 is consistent with prior observations in oligotrophic regions where cellular respiration accounts for 40–70 % of gross photosynthesis (Laws et al., 2000; Marra and Barber, 2004; Halsey et al., 2013; Huang et al., 2021) with even higher % of respiration conducted by diazotrophic organisms (Kana, 1993; Milligan et al., 2007; Halsey et al., 2010; Kranz et al., 2010; Grosskopf and LaRoche, 2012). The higher GPP relative to NPP<sub>14C</sub> highlights the substantial respiratory losses within the phytoplankton community and underscores the metabolic cost of maintaining growth under low-nutrient conditions (Halsey et al., 2010, 2013, 2014; Kranz et al., 2011; Eichner et al., 2014). Lower GPP<sub>30m</sub> estimates compared to NPP<sub>30m</sub> (observed C3, day 1 and C4, day 1) do, however, highlight some uncertainty of the FRRf method. Nonetheless, these GPP<sub>30m</sub> estimates, when considered alongside NPP<sub>30m</sub> and NCP<sub>30m</sub> measurements, provide important constraints on trophic efficiency and organic carbon cycling in the region.

### 3.5. Community metabolism, new and export production using O<sub>2</sub>/Ar analysis

In regions characterized by high regenerative productivity, such as the Argo Basin, the balance between NPP, NCP and export of particulate organic carbon (POC) is often assumed to approach a quasi-steady state where NCP approximates export production if no significant accumulation of organic matter occurs (Williams et al., 2004; Brix et al., 2006; Kranz et al., 2020). In oligotrophic systems, export production primarily reflects rapid sinking of zooplankton fecal pellets, enabling efficient vertical transfer of organic carbon despite generally low productivity (Stukel et al., This issue). This export relies on new production fueled by external N input, either via vertical supply of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> or biological N<sub>2</sub> fixation.

Our O<sub>2</sub>:Ar-based NCP estimates were particularly sensitive to assumptions regarding MLD, which was very shallow based on σ<sub>θ</sub> criteria. The more appropriate MLD assumptions (MLD<sub>O<sub>2</sub></sub> or the average of MLD<sub>30 m</sub>) resulted in mean NCP estimates of 174 and 119 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (Fig. 7, Table 2). In the following discussion, we primarily utilize NCP<sub>30m</sub> estimates to compare water-column NCP rates to GPP and NPP measurements.

The elevated NCP observed during C1, leading to a NCP:NPP ratio above 1, is at odds with the theoretical assumption that NCP needs to be smaller than NPP. However, C1 was conducted just days after a storm event resulted in deep water-column mixing, causing potential entrainment of oxygen-rich upper DCM subsurface waters (Fig. S2), thus artificially elevating the O<sub>2</sub> concentration. Elevated NCP compared to NPP can be observed under certain physical forcings such as in upwelling regions (Kranz et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020) or as seen here, after a mixing event. The low O<sub>2</sub>:Ar-derived NCP rates underscore the recycling-dominated nature of the Argo Basin. Export efficiencies (ratio of export to NPP), derived independently from sediment trap fluxes and NPP estimates, ranged from 0.085 to 0.23 (C1: 0.23, C2: 0.085, C3: 0.22,

C3: 0.22; average: 0.18) (Stukel et al., This issue). These export ratios are notably higher than expected for a small-phytoplankton-dominated oligotrophic system (Buesseler and Boyd, 2009; Siegel et al., 2014; Karl et al., 2021; Stukel et al., 2024). Applying the average NPP<sub>14C</sub> (460 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) and an export ratio of 0.18 yields an expected NCP of ~83 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, being reasonably close to our cycle-averaged NCP<sub>30m</sub> values (Table 2, Fig. 6), but exceeding the estimates from C2–C4 by a factor of 2–3. The difference of NCP<sub>30m</sub> compared to export estimates may partially reflect integration mismatches, as sediment trap fluxes were made just beneath the base of the EZ (116–127 m), while O<sub>2</sub>/Ar estimates were constrained to a shallower mixed layer.

The positive NCP across the observation period further supports the net autotrophic status of the system, supplying organic matter to higher trophic levels which might be respired below the MLD<sub>O<sub>2</sub></sub>, as indicated by the strong negative O<sub>2</sub> gradient below the DCM (Supplemental Fig. S2). The continuously positive NCP also indicates that the system approached an ecosystem-wide metabolic balance during the period of measurement (Landry et al., 2025). In addition, since the Argo Basin expressed higher than expected NCP rates, it appears that higher trophic levels may effectively transfer energy through microbial and mesozooplankton food webs. This is supported by food-web analysis suggesting enhanced trophic transfer efficiencies (Landry et al., 2025).

### 3.6. Photophysiology

Analysis of the photosynthetic processes of electron generation and transport, energy dissipation and light-use efficiency can shed light on potential limitations of photoautotrophic productivity and the ability of cells to adjust to specific environmental conditions of the Argo Basin. During C1, reduced light availability following a transient mixing event resulted in moderate photosynthetic efficiency (Fv/Fm = 0.26) (Fig. S3A and B) and a light-saturation point (Ek) of ~334 μmol photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. S3 C). The phytoplankton community responded by increasing absorption cross section (σ = 6.6) (Fig. S3 E), indicative of a larger light-harvesting antennae to optimize photon capture under low light (MacIntyre et al., 2000; Falkowski and Raven, 2007). Non-photochemical quenching (NSV) remained modest (Fig. S3 F), indicating limited excess energy dissipation, while moderate electron turnover rates (1/τ) (Fig. S3 G) suggested balanced excitation pressure and effective electron transport through the lower photosystem (Ruban, 2016). These photoacclimation responses helped to mitigate the reduction in primary productivity despite reduced irradiance, as reflected in the lowest NPP<sub>14C</sub> observed during C1 (Westberry et al., 2008).

In contrast, higher light during C2 (PAR<sub>30m</sub> = 598 μmol photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) resulted in photophysiological signatures of photo-stress. The maximum photochemical efficiency of PSII (Fv/Fm) decreased significantly (0.19), while Ek increased to ~412 μmol photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, consistent with reduced photosynthetic efficiency at high light and/or potential iron limitation (Behrenfeld and Milligan, 2013). The antenna size decreased significantly (σ = 5), suggesting contraction of light-harvesting structures to avoid overexcitation (Schuback et al., 2017). Elevated nonphotochemical quenching (NSV = 4.52) reflects enhanced energy dissipation to protect PSII from photodamage (Lavaud et al., 2016). The faster electron turnover (1/τ) indicates increased electron cycling rates to dissipate excess excitation energy. These responses suggest that phytoplankton experienced physiological stress at higher irradiances but actively regulated energy input to maintain photochemical stability.

In C3, the continuation of C1, light levels remained moderately high (PAR<sub>30m</sub> = 559 μmol photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>), and the data suggested a balanced light acclimation state. Fv/Fm increased to 0.30 (+0.04 compared to C1), the highest of all cycles, and light-utilization efficiency (α) was significantly elevated. The low Ek (~283 μmol photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>), together with intermediate antenna size (σ = 5.84) and low non-photochemical quenching (NSV = 2.40), suggest optimal excitation

balance under these more stable light conditions. The slower electron turnover ( $1/\tau = 0.000953 \mu\text{s}^{-1}$ ) reflects efficient energy conversion with minimal photoprotective dissipation. This optimized light utilization likely contributed to the relatively stable  $\text{NPP}_{14\text{C}}$  observed in C3 despite continued stratification.

During C4, light levels remained elevated ( $\text{PAR}_{30\text{m}} = 579 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ), but photophysiological responses indicated a transitional state between high-light stress and acclimation.  $F_v/F_m$  decreased to 0.23, suggesting mild photoinhibition and possible enhanced Fe stress, while  $E_k$  remained relatively low ( $\sim 302 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ), indicating incomplete acclimation to higher light. The antenna size ( $\sigma = 6.17$ ), suggests a partial enhancement of light-harvesting complexes. Moderate non-photochemical quenching ( $\text{NSV} = 3.36$ ) and rapid electron turnover rates ( $1/\tau = 0.001397 \mu\text{s}^{-1}$ ) indicate active photoprotective regulation and energy balancing to maintain efficient photosynthetic operation under fluctuating light and nutrient regimes.

Overall, these photophysiological patterns illustrated how the phytoplankton community employed flexible photoacclimation strategies to maintain productivity despite being nutrient and possibly Fe co-limited (Falkowski and Raven, 2007; Suggett et al., 2009). Under low light (C1), cells maximized light capture, while under high light (C2), cells minimized excess energy input and enhanced energy dissipation. The optimal balance achieved in C3 reflects a return to more stable stratified conditions, allowing efficient light utilization without the need for strong photoprotective responses. The transitional dynamics of C4 further highlight the community's capacity to fine-tune light harvesting and photoprotection in response to environmental shifts. These dynamic adjustments likely explain, in part, why overall primary productivity remained relatively stable across cycles, despite strong variability in surface irradiance. Flexible photoacclimation capacity is a key adaptation for phytoplankton communities inhabiting strongly stratified, oligotrophic systems such as the Argo Basin, where irradiance regimes can shift rapidly on sub-daily to multi-day timescales.

#### 4. Conclusions

Across four Lagrangian experiments in the oligotrophic Argo Basin,  $\text{NPP}$  from  $^{14}\text{C}$  and  $\text{N}_2$ -fixation *in-situ* incubation profiles and  $\text{NPP}$  satellite products, FRRf-derived GPP, and  $\text{O}_2/\text{Ar}$ -based NCP measurements offer a coherent view of the productivity regime, its variability and underlying metabolic processes. Satellite and  $^{14}\text{C}$  measurements gave similar mean estimates ( $460 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ ) of  $\text{NPP}$ . A 1.7 GPP: $\text{NPP}$  ratio for the upper 30 m was consistent with metabolic costs of growth under low-nutrient, high-light conditions. Below 50 m, light availability, rather than nutrients, was the primary limiting factor.  $\text{N}_2$  fixation contributed  $\sim 16\%$  of  $\text{NPP}_{14\text{C}}$ , accounting for the new N required to balance high export rates in the system. The general agreement among approaches supports the robustness of our rate estimates, while also highlighting the strengths and caveats of different measurements. As climate warming continues to alter surface stratification, wind forcing and nutrient supply, these detailed measurements provide a baseline for assessing future changes in N utilization and productivity in this globally important tuna spawning region.

#### CRedit authorship contribution statement

**Sven A. Kranz:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Visualization, Validation, Supervision, Resources, Project administration, Methodology, Investigation, Funding acquisition, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization. **Jared M. Rose:** Writing – review & editing, Validation, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization. **Michael R. Stukel:** Writing – review & editing, Validation, Methodology, Investigation, Funding acquisition, Data curation, Conceptualization. **Karen E. Selph:** Writing – review & editing, Investigation, Funding acquisition, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization. **Natalia Yingling:** Writing – review & editing,

Formal analysis. **Michael R. Landry:** Writing – review & editing, Validation, Project administration, Data curation, Conceptualization.

#### Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

#### Acknowledgements

We thank the captain and crew of the R/V Roger Revelle for their outstanding support and general assistance. Research support was provided by the National Science Foundation Grants OCE- 1851347 and 2404504 (to S.A.K.), OCE-1851381 (to K.E.S.), OCE-1851347 and OCE-1851558 (to M.R.L.), Seawater and plankton samples were collected under Australian Government permit AU-COM2021-520 and Australian Marine Parks permit PA2021-00062-2 issued by the Director of National Parks, Australia. The views expressed in this publication do not necessarily represent those of the Director of National Parks or the Australian Government.

#### Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dsr2.2025.105570>.

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