43

Trophic Structure and Productivity of the lagoonal communities of **Tikehau atoll (Tuamotu Archipelago, French Polynesia)**

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Abstract

Carbon standing stocks and fluxes were studied in the lagoon of Tikehau atoll (Tuamotu archipelago, French Polynesia), from 1983 to 1988.

The average POC concentration $(0.7-2000 \,\mu\text{m})$ was 203 mg C m⁻³. The suspended living carbon $(31.6 \text{ mg C m}^{-3})$ was made up of bacteria (53%), phytoplankton $< 5 \mu \text{m}$ (14.2%), phytoplankton $>5 \,\mu\text{m}$ (14.2%), nanozooplankton 5–35 μm (5.7%), microzooplankton 35–200 μm (4.7%) and mesozooplankton 200–2000 μ m (7.9%). The microphytobenthos biomass was 480 mg C m⁻².

Suspended detritus (84.4% of the total POC) did not originate from the reef flat but from lagoonal primary productions. Their sedimentation exceeded phytobenthos production.

It was estimated that 50% of bacterial biomass was adsorbed on particles. the bacterial biomass dominance was explained by the utilisation of 1) DOC excreted by phytoplankton $(44-175 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1})$ and zooplankton $(50 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1})$ 2) organic compounds produced by solar-induced photochemical reactions 3) coral mucus.

50% of the phytoplankton biomass belongs to the $< 5 \,\mu m$ fraction. This production (440 mg C m⁻² day^{-1}) exceeded phytobenthos production (250 mg C m⁻² day⁻¹) when the whole lagoon was considered.

The zooplankton >35 μ m ingested 315 mg C m⁻² day⁻¹, made up of phytoplankton, nanozooplankton and detritus. Its production was $132 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$.

Introduction

Recent upward revisions in estimates of biomass per bacterium indicate that many earlier biomass values may have to be almost doubled and that bacteria are major components of marine systems (Fuhrman et al., 1989). In addition to the classic type of grazing food web (phytoplankton-zooplankton-fish), a 'microbial loop' (phytoplanktonbacteria-heterotrophic flagellates or protozooplankton) was described by Azam et al. (1983). A

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stratified, oligotrophic water column may give rise to dominance of small phytoplankters, relatively high DOM-production rates and a long 'microbial loop' type of food chain (Kiørboe et al., 1990).

Polynesian atoll lagoons are located in oligotrophic waters and dominance of small phytoplankters (cyanobacteria) was demonstrated in the atoll of Tikehau by Blanchot et al. (1989). In such shallow ecosystems, benthic primary production can play an important role. Charpy-Roubaud (1988) observed that microphyto-

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benthic production represented 55% of the phytoplanktonic production of the Tikehau lagoon.

The aim of this paper was to investigate the activities of lagoonal primary producers (phytoplankton and phytobenthos), zooplankton (nano, micro and mesoplankton) and bacteria.

All data used in this study were obtained during the ATOLL program of the Tahiti ORSTOM Center.

Description of site studied

The atoll chosen as a study site was Tikehau, situated in the north west of Tuamotu archipelago (Fig. 1); its characteristics make it a suitable model of a mid-sized open atoll. A preliminary

Leewards

Passage

Out_flow of lagoon

water

Tikehau

Zone

description of this atoll was given by Harmelin-Vivien (1985). Tikehau is almost circular: its widest diameter is nearly 28 km. The surface of the lagoon is 400 km², 91% of the lagoon bottom is deeper than 15 m and the average depth is 25 m (Lenhardt, 1987). Oceanic water enters by the east and south east reef-flat spillways, and exits after a mean residence time of 176 days by the passage located to the west (Lenhardt, 1988).

Material and methods

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• 36 25

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In_flow of

oceanic water

25

20

Suspended material $(0.5-35 \ \mu m)$

Standing stocks: eleven surveys were made in the lagoon between 1983 and 1985 (Table 1); sam-

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Dominant wind

15°05'S

148°05'W



148° 15' W

25

• 25

> • 22

22

28

St. Faufaa

32

14°55'S

10

Fig. 1. The atoll of Tikehau: location and depth of sampling stations.

pling was performed at 46 stations, every 10 m depth and 1 m above the bottom using 51 Niskin bottles. Chlorophyll (chl $\cdot a$) and particulate organic carbon (POC) concentrations were also analysed at the Faufaa station (19 m deep), every week, between July 1985 and February 1987 (see Fig. 1).

Sea water samples were prefiltered through a 35 μ m mesh polyamide screen. Then, a) 100 to 300 ml were filtered through a Whatman GF/F filter for chl $\cdot a$ analysis; b) 500 to 1000 ml through a GF/F processed filter (precombusted 4 hours at 450 °C and precleaned with HCl 1 N for POC analysis and c) 250 to 500 ml were filtered through a Millipore 0.45 μ m filter for ATP analysis.

 $Chl \cdot a$ was determined by fluorescence (Yentsch & Menzel, 1963) using a TURNER 111 fluorometer. POC concentrations were determined after rinsing the filter with 20 ml of HCl (0.1 N) using a CHN analyzer 185-B Hewlett-Packard (Gordon & Sutcliffe, 1973); the combustion temperature of 720 °C was chosen to minimize carbonate interference on the filters (Telek & Marshall, 1974). ATP extractions were performed immediately in 5 ml of boiling TRIS (0.02 M, pH = 7.85); ATP extracts were frozen at -20 °C for later analysis. ATP concentrations were measured according to the method described by Holm-Hansen & Booth (1966), using a LKB Luminometer and Luciferine-Luciferase preparations from SIGMA (ref. FLE 50).

In April 1986, plankton counts were performed using epifluorescence microscopy as described in Blanchot *et al.* (1989). To measure the size structure of suspended particles, water samples were successively filtered through a polyamide net with a 35 μ m size mesh, through a 5 μ m filter (Millipore) and finally through a GF/F (Whatman) filter.

Conversion factors: The living carbon (liv C) was estimated from ATP concentration and a C/ATP ratio of 250 (Holm-Hansen & Booth, 1966 and Laws et al., 1984). The liv C < 5 μ m was estimated from the average percentage of ATP passing through a filter of 5 um pore size. Phytoplanktonic carbon (phy C) was estimated from chlorophyll concentration and a C/chl $\cdot a$ ratio (Riemann et al., 1982; Søndergaard et al., 1988). The C/chl $\cdot a$ ratio of the phytoplankton of Tikehau was determined experimentally on three occasions: lagoon water prefiltered onto a 5 um pore size filter was incubated in situ with ¹⁴C; the ratio assimilated C/increase in $chl \cdot a$ inside the incubation bottle represents the phytoplanktonic $C/chl \cdot a$ ratio. The carbon content of heterotrophs smaller than 5 μ m was estimated from the difference between liv $C_{(<5 \mu m)}$ and phy $C_{(<5 \mu m)}$. The carbon content of heterotrophs between $5\,\mu m$ and $35\,\mu m$ was estimated from the difference between the liv $C_{(5-35 \, \mu m)}$ and phy $C_{(5-35 \ \mu m)}$. The carbon biomasses of ciliates and heteroflagellates were calculated using counts performed in April 1986 and conversion factors given by Blanchot et al. (1989).

Fluxes: The carbon assimilation of phytoplankton was estimated by measuring *in situ* ¹⁴C uptake between 1983 and 1987 (292 incubations). The method was that described in Charpy-Roubaud *et al.* (1988). Fourteen measurements of sedimentation rate of particulate matter were performed between January 1986 and May 1987, at the Faufaa station. The sediment trap consisted of a PVC plastic jar with a ratio of height to width of 2.5:1. Poison was not used, so as to allow measurements of ATP concentration inside the trap. The jar was mounted 15 m below the surface and 4 m above the bottom to prevent resuspension. Material was collected for 6 to 20 hours. The POC export out of the lagoon was calculated by

Table 1. Date and number of stations (N) sampled during the surveys in the lagoon.

Date	03/83	07/83	09/83	12/83	02/84	11/84	01/85	03/85	04/85	07/85	08/85	
N	21	14	22	17	9	10	7	7	7	7	7	

the equation:

Export (mg C m⁻² day⁻¹) =
$$F \cdot POC_L/S_L$$

F = annual average flow through the passage and the reef flat spillways; it was estimated as $6 \cdot 10^7 \text{ m}^3 \text{ day}^{-1}$ by Lenhardt (1988).

 POC_L = average POC concentration in the lagoon (mg C m⁻³).

 $S_L = \text{lagoon area} = 4 \ 10^8 \text{ m}^2$.

The zooplankton (35 µm-2000 µm)

The standing stocks and taxonomic composition of the zooplankton were monitored in the lagoon of Tikehau between April 1985 and April 1986. Microzooplankton $(35-200 \,\mu\text{m})$ and mesozooplankton (200–2000 μ m) were collected by vertical hauls from the bottom to the surface. These data were supplemented by two 10 day studies of the variability, structure and functioning of the pelagic ecosystem. Excretion and respiration rates were determined from incubation experiments. Using the C:N:P ratio method, net growth efficiencies (K_2) were calculated for the zooplankton. Combined with nitrogen and phosphorus excretion rates, K_2 values enabled the assessment of production rates. Ingestion by animals > 35 μ m was calculated by means of assimilation efficiencies. These methods are described in Le Borgne et al. (1989).

Microphytobenthic carbon at the sediment water interface

Microphytobenthos biomass and production were studied between 1985 and 1987 (Charpy-Roubaud, 1988):

- microphytobenthos biomass was estimated by sediment chl $\cdot a$ concentration measurements following the procedure described by Plante-Cuny (1984). Results are in mg chl $\cdot a$ m⁻² for the upper 0.5 cm of sediment. Microphytobenthic carbon was estimated using the same C/chl $\cdot a$ ratio as for the phytoplankton. - phytobenthic production was determined by O_2 budgets, measured within clear and dark plexiglass domes. The production of O_2 (BP_{O2}) may be converted into the gross production of carbon (BP) by the equation:

 $Bp = (BP_{O_2} \cdot 0.375 \cdot PQ) + (R \cdot 0.375 \cdot RQ)$

R = Respiration during daytime; PQ and RQ = photosynthetic and respiratory coefficients.

Results

Particulate organic matter

POC concentration values (N = 522) ranged from 82 to 893 mg C m⁻³. The yearly average was significantly (P < 0.05) higher in 1983 than in other years (Fig. 2). The occurrence of two hurricanes in March and May 1983 in the Western Tuamotu Archipelago is believed to be responsible for this high POC level. Monthly averages (all years included), presented wide variations but the station location had no influence on POC concentration. The POC concentrations were 40% higher in samples taken near the bottom than in the water column.

Chl·a concentration values (Fig. 2) ranged (N = 782) from 0.02 to 1.01 mg m⁻³. Yearly averages were not significantly (P > 0.05) different but monthly averages differed significantly (P < 0.05). Chl·a concentrations were 37% higher close to the bottom than in the water column.

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ATP concentrations (Fig. 2) were lower in 1985 than in other years. Monthly averages differed significantly (P < 0.05); ATP concentration was independent of the proximity to the bottom.

Therefore, in order to estimate the lagoonal POM averages, we consider neither 1983 data nor data collected close to the bottom, and we use the equation:

Average
$$POM = \left[\sum_{i=N_i}^{i=1} POM_i\right] / N_i$$



Fig. 2. Means and confidence intervals (P = 95%) for factors 'year', 'month' and 'type of water'; B = samples taken at 1 m above the bottom, I = samples taken between 2 m and the bottom, S = samples taken between 0 m and 2 m.

 $POM_i = POM$ average on month *i*. $N_i =$ number of months prospected.

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The weighted averages and confidence intervals are summarized in Table 2.

The results of seven filtering experiments performed in 1984, 1985 and 1986 with 35 μ m mesh size (polyamide net) and then 5 μ m pore size (Nuclepore filters) appear in Table 2.

The average sedimentation rates are summarized in Table 2.

The POC export was calculated at 29 mg m⁻² day⁻¹.

Table 2. Weighted averages and confidence intervals (P = 95%) of chl·a, ATP and POC concentration (mg m⁻³); percentages of particles passing through $5 \ \mu m \ (\% < 5 \ \mu m)$ and averages sedimentation rates (SR: mg m⁻² day⁻¹).

	$chl \cdot a$	ATP	POC
Average	$\begin{array}{rrr} 0.18 \pm & 0.01 \\ 409 \end{array}$	0.11 ± 0.01	192 <u>+</u> 10
N		162	290
% < 5 μm	50 ± 11	$\begin{array}{ccc} 50 & \pm 11 \\ 23 \end{array}$	46 ± 11
N	27		21
SR	0.11 ± 0.06	0	350 ± 218
N	11	11	11

Organism	В	Α	Ι	Р	Е	Ratios
Phytoplankton						
<5 µm	4.5					
$>5 \mu m$	4.5					
Total	9.0	17.6		?	?	$C/chl \cdot a = 50$
Zooplankton						
<35 µm	1.8		?	?	?	
Zooplankton						
35– 200 μm	1.5		2.6	1.2	8.4	
200–2000 µm	2.5		10.0	4.1	19.2	
Total	4.0		12.0	5.3	27.6	C/P = 52
Detritus						
35– 200 μm	2.3					
200–2000 µm	4.4			*		
Total	6.7					
Phytobenthos	В			Р		
-	(mg chl·	$a {\rm m}^{-2}$)		(mg C m	$^{-2}$ day $^{-1}$)	
	9.6			250		

Table 3. Phytoplankton, zooplankton and phytobenthos biomass and fluxes measured in the lagoon of Tikehau. Data from Charpy-Roubaud (1988), Charpy-Roubaud *et al.* (1988), Le Borgne *et al.* (1989), Blanchot *et al.* (1989). B = biomass (mg C m⁻³); A = assimilation, I = ingestion, P = production (A, I, P = mg C m⁻³ day⁻¹); E = Excretion of organic P (mg P m⁻³ day⁻¹).

Plankton and microphytobenthos biomasses and fluxes

These results are presented in Charpy-Roubaud (1988), Charpy-Roubaud *et al.* (1988), Le Borgne *et al.* (1989) and Blanchot *et al.* (1989). They are summarized in Table 3.

Results of the 5 experiments for determining the C/chl \cdot *a* ratio appear in Table 4. This ratio ranged from 34 to 73 with an average of 50.

Table 4. Determination of the phytoplanktonic C/chl·a ratio in the lagoon of Tikehau. chl· a_{t0} = concentration (mg m⁻³) at zero time; chl· a_{te} = concentration at $t0 + \delta t$ time; $\delta C/\delta t$ = carbon assimilation rate (mg C m⁻³ h⁻¹).

Date	δt	$chl \cdot a_{t0}$	$chl \cdot a_{te}$	$\delta chl \cdot a/\delta t$	$\delta C/\delta t$	$C/chl \cdot a$
01/85	2	0.023	0.030	0.0035	0.12	34
•	2	0.030	0.033	0.0015	0.11	73
04/85	4	0.040	0.075	0.0088	0.35	40
•	4	0.036	0.077	0.0103	0.67	65
12/85	4	0.120	0.190	0.0175	0.69	39

Discussion

Planktonic trophic web

50% of the POC were in particles $< 5 \,\mu m$.

The detritus pool $<35 \,\mu\text{m}$ can be estimated by the difference: POC – liv C_($<35 \,\mu\text{m}$) = 192 – (0.11 × 250) = 164 mg C m⁻³. Such a large proportion of detritic carbon in the POM is generally observed in tropical coastal waters: Gerber & Marshall (1982) found 77 to 84% of detritic carbon in the Enewetok lagoon, and Winn & Karl (1984) found 70 to 90% in the waters close to Hawaii.

We did not measure directly the biomass of bacteria, but we think that we can obtain an order of magnitude by the difference between liv C estimated from ATP and the other biomasses measured or estimated. Therefore, free bacteria biomass (BB) may be calculated with the equation:

$$BB = liv C_{(<5 \mu m)} - phy C_{(<5 \mu m)}$$

with: $liv C_{(<5 \,\mu\text{m})}$ = percentage of ATP_(<5 μ m) × ATP × 250

phy $C_{(<5 \, \mu m)}$ = percentage of $chl \cdot a_{(<5 \, \mu m)} \times chl.a \times (C/chl \cdot a ratio).$

The average value C/chl $\cdot a = 50$ (from Table 4) lies within the range reported by Takahashi *et al.* (1985) for picoplankton and is very close to the ratio of 46 found by Laws *et al.* (1987) for oligotrophic Pacific waters. Therefore:

$$BB = (0.46 \times 0.11 \times 250) - (0.5 \times 0.18 \times 50) = 8.2 \text{ mg C m}^{-3}$$

The liv $C_{(5-35 \ \mu m)}$ is made up of heterotrophs and phytoplankton (4.5 mg C m⁻³). It can be calculated using ATP_(5-35 \ \mu m) data: $0.54 \times 0.11 \times 250 = 14.9 \text{ mg C m}^{-3}$. The carbon content of heterotrophs in the size range from 5 to $35 \ \mu m$ was therefore equal to: $14.9 - 4.5 = 10.4 \text{ mg C m}^{-3}$. The biomass of ciliates and heteroflagellates was equal to 1.8 mg C m⁻³ (Table 3), and the difference (= 8.6 mg C m⁻³) was certainly due to bacteria adsorbed onto the detritus (Charpy, 1985).

The total biomass of bacteria was therefore equal to: free bacteria + adsorbed bacteria = 16.8 mg C m⁻³. Such a biomass is commonly observed in waters over reefs; Sorokin (1974) summarizes data for biomasses of bacteria which range from 11 to 170 mg C m⁻³. More recently, Moriarty et al. (1985) reviewed the productivity and trophic role of bacteria on coral reefs. They give biomass values ranging from 19 to 150 mg $C m^{-3}$. Linley & Koop (1986) observed in the coral reef lagoon of One Tree Island (Great Barrier Reef) a biomass of heterotrophic bacteria ranging from 1.2 to $16.2 \text{ mg} \text{ Cm}^{-3}$, and Hopkinson et al. (1987) observed a bacterial biomass of 2 mg C m^{-3} in the water column of Davies Reef (Australia). In Tikehau, in April 1986, the biomass of bacteria was estimated at 17.1 mg C m⁻³ by Blanchot *et al.* (1989). The observed ratio free bacteria/adsorbed bacteria = 2 is consistent with the ratios given by Moriarty (1979) and Moriarty et al. (1985) in coral reef areas.

The estimated bacterial biomass was 2 times

higher than the phytoplankton C in the Tikehau lagoon. Dominance of bacterial biomass was also observed in the oligotrophic waters of the Sargasso Sea by Fuhrman et al. (1989); the interpretation of these authors was that bacteria consume significant amounts of carbon probably released from phytoplankton directly or via herbivores. In Tikehau, the excretion rate of dissolved organic phosphorus (DOP) of the zooplankton $> 35 \,\mu m$ was measured in 1986 at 27.6 10^{-3} mg P m⁻³ day⁻¹ (Table 3). Using the ratio C/P of zooplankton body constituent: 52 (Table 3), the organic carbon excretion was $1.4 \text{ mg C m}^{-3} \text{ day}^{-1}$. Assuming a constant excretion per unit of biomass in the zooplankton, the nanozooplankton excretion was estimates as: $(1.4/4) \times 1.8 = 0.6 \text{ mg C m}^{-3} \text{ day}^{-1}$. The release of carbon by the phytoplankton was not measured. Values recorded in the literature vary from 10 to 75% but are generally less than 40%of the photoassimilated carbon (Newell et al., 1981). Therefore, the phytoplankton excretion ranged from 0.1×17.6 (average phytoplankton assimilation) = 1.7 to $0.4 \times 17.6 = 7 \text{ mg C m}^{-3}$ day⁻¹. Fuhrman et al. (1989) gave another interesting alternative to plankton as a source of DOM: solar-induced photochemical production of labile low molecular weight organic compounds from high molecular weight refractory DOM. This source may be important for the lagoon due to the low depth and high energy level. In the coral reef area, the role of coral mucus as a substrate for microbial growth (Moriarty et al., 1985) is particulary interesting.

Representation of the lagoonal ecosystem

Figure 3 illustrates biomass and fluxes of matter in the plankton and in the benthos measured or estimated. In order to be able to compare benthic and planktonic ecosystems, standing stocks are in mg C m⁻² and fluxes in mg C m⁻² day⁻¹. The depth of integration is 25 m (average depth of the lagoon). We assume that the micro and mesozooplankton ingest all the nanoplankton production and that bacteria are ingested by the nanozoo-



Fig. 3. Trophic structure and productivity of the lagoonal communities. Standing stocks (mg C m⁻²) are in boxes, and fluxes (mg C m⁻² day⁻¹) are represented by arrows. A = assimilation, E = Excretion, Ex = Export, I = Ingestion, P = Production, S = Sedimentation, DIC = dissolved inorganic carbon.

plankton. Indeed, the major consumers of bacteria in the plankton are flagellate and ciliate protozoans (Landry *et al.*, 1984).

Origin of the detritus: If we consider that the detritus pool is in a steady state, its production is equal to its disappearance from the water column (sedimentation + export out of the lagoon + ingestion). We do not know the ingestion rate of the detritus; however, detritus production is at least 379 mg Cm^{-2} day⁻¹ (sedimentation + export). The lagoonal suspended detritus can originate from the lagoonal production or from the reef-flat primary production. The reef flat production was not measured, but it may be assumed to be close to the proposed 'standard' reef-flat production: 7 ± 1 g C m⁻² day⁻¹ (Kinsey, 1983). Assuming a reef flat surface of 10 km², the total reef production would be close to $7 \cdot 10^{10} \text{ mg C day}^{-1}$. Hatcher (1983) has reconsidered export of organics from reef-flats and concluded that many systems may be exporting more than 20% (as much as 60%) of their gross primary production to downstream areas. However most of the organic export from the reef-flat is towards oceanic waters. We can roughly estimate the percentage of oceanic waters coming into the lagoon in relation to the total oceanic flux. The current speed of oceanic waters close to the atoll was measured in March 1984, and values in the upper 50 m were about 0.4 m s⁻¹ (Charpy *et al.*, 1985). Therefore, the flux of waters passing outside the atoll can be estimated as the flux of water passing through an area 30 km wide (atoll diameter) and 20 metres deep: $0.24 \cdot 10^6 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$. The average flux of water passing through the lagoon is $700 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Lenhardt, 1988), i.e. 0.3% of the oceanic flux. Assuming that the reef flat exports between 20% and 60% of its gross production, $42 \cdot 10^6$ to $126 \cdot 10^6$ mg C enter the lagoon each day. These values represent 0.1 to 0.3 mg C day^{-1} per square metre of lagoon. Therefore, the detritus reef export towards the lagoon is insignifi-

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cant and the detritus pool originates from lagoonal primary productions.

The role of the phytoplankton: In spite of a low biomass (225 mg C m⁻²), phytoplankton production is relatively high (440 mg C m⁻² day⁻¹). The annual mean assimilation number calculated by Charpy-Roubaud (1988)et al. was 9.8 mg C mg⁻¹ chl $\cdot a$ h⁻¹. This value is high but commonly observed in tropical coastal waters. Indeed, Takahashi & Bienfang (1983) gave an assimilation number of $8.09 \text{ mg C mg}^{-1}$ $chl \cdot a h^{-1}$ for the picoplankton of the coastal Hawaiian waters: however, this value remains lower than the maximum potential production per $chl \cdot a$ observed by Legendre *et al.* (1988) in waters close to Moorea Island (French Polynesia): 5 to $25 \text{ mg C mg}^{-1} \text{ chl} \cdot a \text{ h}^{-1}$.

The role of the zooplankton: The mesoplank- $(200-2000 \ \mu m)$, microzooplankton ton $(35-200 \,\mu\text{m})$ and nanozooplankton $(5-35 \,\mu\text{m})$ biomasses are not very different: 63, 38 and 46 mg C m⁻². They represent in total 26% of the heterotrophs. In April 1986, Le Borgne et al. (1989) calculated the assimilation efficiency for mixed copepods (D = 0.9) and the net growth efficiency of carbon $(K_2 = 0.21 - 0.46)$. The gross growth efficiency (K_1) is equal to the product of the assimilation efficiency, D, by the net growth efficiency, K_2 (Le Borgne, 1978). The high values of K_1 (19% –41%) could explain the rapid zooplankton turnover (one day). Zooplankton $(35-2000 \,\mu\text{m})$ ingestion is in the same order as the phytoplankton production and probably regulates its biomass. The zooplankton production $(>35 \ \mu\text{m})$: 132 mg C m⁻² day⁻¹ represents the net pelagic production of the lagoon, available for the fish.

The role of the microphytobenthos: Microphyte biomass was higher in the benthos than in the plankton; however, production was lower in the benthos. Charpy-Roubaud *et al.* (1988) have demonstrated that phytobenthos production decreased with depth, while phytoplankton production increased (integrated production), but the sum remained constant. Phytobenthic production appears to be lower than the detritus sedimentation which probably makes a major contribution to the benthic food web. The biomass of the animals living in the sediments is not known, but they probably ingest the phytobenthic production plus a large part of the organic carbon sedimentation. Indeed, the organic C content of the interstitial waters of the sediments in Tikehau is very low 0.5 mg C g⁻¹ of dry sediment (Sarazin *et al.*, 1988).

Conclusions

The detritus $< 35 \,\mu$ m represent the most important particulate organic carbon pool in the lagoon. They originate from lagoonal primary production, and their sedimentation onto the bottom exceeds benthic primary production. Planktonic bacteria biomass is in the same order as the microphytobenthos, and is equal to twice the phytoplanktonic biomass. We interpret pelagic bacteria dominance by a 'microbial loop', returning energy released as DOM by phytoplankton and zooplankton, but also energy released as mucus from lagoonal coral communities.

Direct measurements of bacterial biomass, bacterial and nanozooplankton productions and nanoplankton and phytoplankton excretions could complete this carbon cycle.

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