

1 **Seasonal variation in remotely-sensed phytoplankton size structure around Southern**
2 **Africa.**

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15 **Abstract**

16

17 The three-component model of Brewin et al. (2010) computes fractional contributions of
18 three phytoplankton size classes (micro- ($> 20 \mu\text{m}$), nano- (2-20 μm), picophytoplankton (< 2
19 μm)) to the overall chlorophyll *a* concentration (Chla). Using *in situ* pigment data, model
20 coefficients were adjusted for application to the southern African marine region. The refined
21 model was applied to seasonal and monthly climatologies of MODIS Aqua Chla around
22 Southern Africa. Chla $> 1 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ was limited to shelf regions along the coasts of Southern
23 Africa and Madagascar, while values $< 0.1 \text{ mg}^{-3}$ were found over most of the open ocean
24 between the equator and 38°S during austral summer and autumn. In winter and spring, low
25 values ($< 0.1 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$) were restricted to smaller regions within subtropical gyres, while
26 values up to 0.7 mg m^{-3} extended over a much greater area of the open ocean. Shelf regions in
27 the northern (NB) and southern Benguela (SB), Agulhas Bank (AB), Agulhas region (AR),
28 and Mozambique Channel (MC) all showed similar seasonal cycles of size structure. On
29 average, micro-phytoplankton comprised $> 50\%$ of the total Chla in these regions with little
30 change throughout the year. The AR shelf differed, with picophytoplankton dominating in
31 summer, and micro- and nanophytoplankton the rest of the year. In the open ocean domains
32 of the NB, SB, and AB regions, nanophytoplankton dominated for most of the year, with
33 picophytoplankton being more prevalent during summer and autumn. In contrast, in the AR
34 open ocean, nanophytoplankton were dominant only during winter and early spring, whereas
35 picophytoplankton dominated throughout the year in the MC open ocean. The refined model
36 characterised previously unknown spatial and temporal changes in size structure in various
37 ecosystems around Southern Africa.

38

- 39 **Keywords:** Phytoplankton, biomass, size structure, Benguela Upwelling System, Agulhas
- 40 Current System, sub-Antarctic zone

41 **1. Introduction**

42

43 Phytoplankton play a critical role in a number of key marine processes, including the
44 modulation of food webs, CO₂ exchanges, and the cycling of carbon and other nutrients such
45 as nitrate, phosphate, and silicate. The size distribution of phytoplankton has a strong
46 influence on community structure, physiology, metabolism, and the trophic organisation of
47 the pelagic ecosystem (Chisholm, 1992). Partitioning phytoplankton communities according
48 to size provides a more detailed and integrative means of investigating phytoplankton
49 structure and function in relation to key physical processes and biogeochemical cycles
50 (IOCCG, 2014). Communities dominated by large-sized phytoplankton have the potential to
51 export organic, through a short food chain, to the seabed or transfer it to upper trophic levels
52 and to neighbouring regions, while communities predominated by small-sized phytoplankton
53 are mainly characterised by complex microbial food webs that favour recycling of organic
54 matter within the euphotic zone (Cermeño et al., 2006). Although large-sized phytoplankton
55 can sustain higher rates of photosynthesis (Cermeño et al., 2006), small-sized phytoplankton
56 are an important fraction (35-60 %) of the total biomass and may account for over 50 % of
57 daily primary production in oligotrophic regions and 25-30 % in more productive coastal
58 regions (Platt et al., 1983; Tremblay and Legendre, 1994; Marañón et al., 2001).

59

60 The marine region around Southern Africa hosts a complex interplay between a number of
61 major oceanic systems including the Benguela upwelling system, the greater Agulhas Current
62 system, and the Southern Ocean, and plays a key role in the global ocean circulation and
63 biogeochemical cycling (Hutchings et al., 2009; Lutjeharms, 2006). On the west and south
64 coasts of Southern Africa, the Benguela upwelling system and the Agulhas Bank have
65 ecological and economic significance for driving a very productive ecosystem which supports

66 a complex trophic structure and a multitude of commercially harvested resources (Hutchings
67 et al., 2009; Verheye et al., 2016). Most of the primary production in this ecosystem can be
68 attributed to microphytoplankton dominated communities, but nanophytoplankton dominated
69 communities are also known to be important due to their larger spatial extent (Hirata et al.,
70 2009).

71

72 Located on the east and south coasts of Southern Africa, the Agulhas Current system feeds
73 the upper limb of the Atlantic meridional overturning circulation through the flow of warm,
74 saline surface waters from the Indian Ocean to the Atlantic Ocean (Lutjeharms, 2006). The
75 Agulhas ecosystem and Mozambique Channel are characterised as oligotrophic, where
76 mainly nano- and picophytoplankton dominate in the surface layers further offshore, with
77 microphytoplankton being more important in the shelf regions (Barlow et al., 2010; Sá et al.,
78 2013). Located south of the African continent, the Southern Ocean plays a critical role in
79 regulating the global organic carbon flux and modulates nutrient supply to thermocline
80 waters, which in turn drives productivity in the lower latitudes (Sarmiento et al., 2004;
81 Schlitzer, 2002). The Southern Ocean is unique in that it has high nutrient concentrations and
82 low phytoplankton biomass, with high spatial and temporal variability (Thomalla et al.,
83 2011a). These extremely different environments provide a good opportunity to investigate
84 seasonal variations in phytoplankton biomass and size structure under varying environmental
85 conditions.

86

87 With decreasing opportunities and continually rising costs associated with the collection of *in*
88 *situ* data, research efforts globally have become more focussed on the use of satellite data and
89 models to elucidate oceanographic processes and variability (IOCCG, 2014). In recent years,
90 the use of satellite ocean-colour data has been extended to the derivation of phytoplankton

91 functional types and size classes, with the aim of improving our understanding of oceanic
92 biogeochemical cycles. A number of different abundance-based, spectral-based, and
93 ecological approaches to determine phytoplankton size classes (PSC) have been developed
94 and implemented (Brewin et al., 2010; Hirata et al., 2009; Uitz et al., 2006, among others).
95 Although Brewin et al. (2011) highlighted the need for continued and improved *in situ* data
96 availability to further improve the estimation of satellite-derived PSCs, their initial
97 comparison indicated that the various models performed with similar accuracy. While these
98 models have been applied globally, there have been relatively few models tuned for regional
99 applications, and none for around Southern Africa. One approach that has been successfully
100 tuned to different regions is the three-component model of Brewin et al. (2010), including:
101 the Atlantic Ocean (Brewin et al., 2010; Brewin et al., 2014); the eastern Atlantic Ocean
102 (Brotas et al., 2013); the Indian Ocean (Brewin et al., 2012); the South China Sea (Lin et al.,
103 2014); the Western Iberian coastline (Brito et al., 2015); the Mediterranean Sea (Sammartino
104 et al., 2015); the Red Sea (Brewin et al., 2015a); as well as the global ocean (Brewin et al.,
105 2015b; Ward, 2015). The primary goals of this study are to: (1) refine the parameterization of
106 the Brewin et al. (2010) model for regional application to the marine environment around
107 Southern Africa; (2) to use the model to identify the dominant size class; and (3) describe
108 previously unknown seasonal and spatial variations in Chla and phytoplankton size structure
109 in this region.

110

111 **2. Data and Methods**

112

113 **2.1. Re-tuning of the Brewin et al. (2010) model**

114 Brewin et al. (2010) developed an abundance-based PSC model to estimate the Chla
115 concentrations of three phytoplankton size classes (micro- ($> 20 \mu\text{m}$), nano- ($2\text{-}20 \mu\text{m}$), and

116 picophytoplankton ($< 2 \mu\text{m}$)), as a function of the total Chla concentration (C). The model is
 117 based on two exponential functions (Sathyendranath et al., 2001), where the chlorophyll
 118 concentration of picophytoplankton (denoted C_p) and combined nano-picophytoplankton
 119 (denoted $C_{p,n}$) are computed as:

$$C_p = C_p^m [1 - \exp(-S_p C)], \quad (1)$$

120 and

$$C_{p,n} = C_{p,n}^m [1 - \exp(-S_{p,n} C)], \quad (2)$$

121 where the parameters $S_{p,n}$ and S_p determine the initial slope between size-fractionated
 122 chlorophyll and total chlorophyll (denoted C in the Eq. 1 and 2), and C_p^m and $C_{p,n}^m$ determine
 123 the asymptotic maximum values for the two size-classes. Once $C_{p,n}$ and C_p are obtained,
 124 nanophytoplankton chlorophyll (denoted C_n) and microphytoplankton chlorophyll (denoted
 125 C_m) can be computed as $C_n = C_{p,n} - C_p$ and $C_m = C - C_{p,n}$. The fractions of each size class
 126 (F_p , F_n and F_m) can then be computed by dividing the size-fractionated chlorophyll (C_p , C_n
 127 and C_m) by total chlorophyll (C).

128

129 The original global model was parameterized using coefficients determined from refined
 130 relationships between HPLC (High Performance Liquid Chromatography)-derived biomarker
 131 pigments and the total Chla (Uitz et al., 2006), and linking specific biomarker pigments to
 132 each size class following Uitz et al. (2006), with further refinements as proposed by Brewin
 133 et al. (2010) and Devred et al. (2011). Details of the development, parameterisation and
 134 application of the model are described in Brewin et al. (2015b). Application of the model to
 135 satellite data has been extensively validated with independent *in situ* data in a variety of
 136 marine environments (Brewin et al., 2010; Brewin et al., 2012; Brewin et al., 2015b; Lin et
 137 al., 2014).

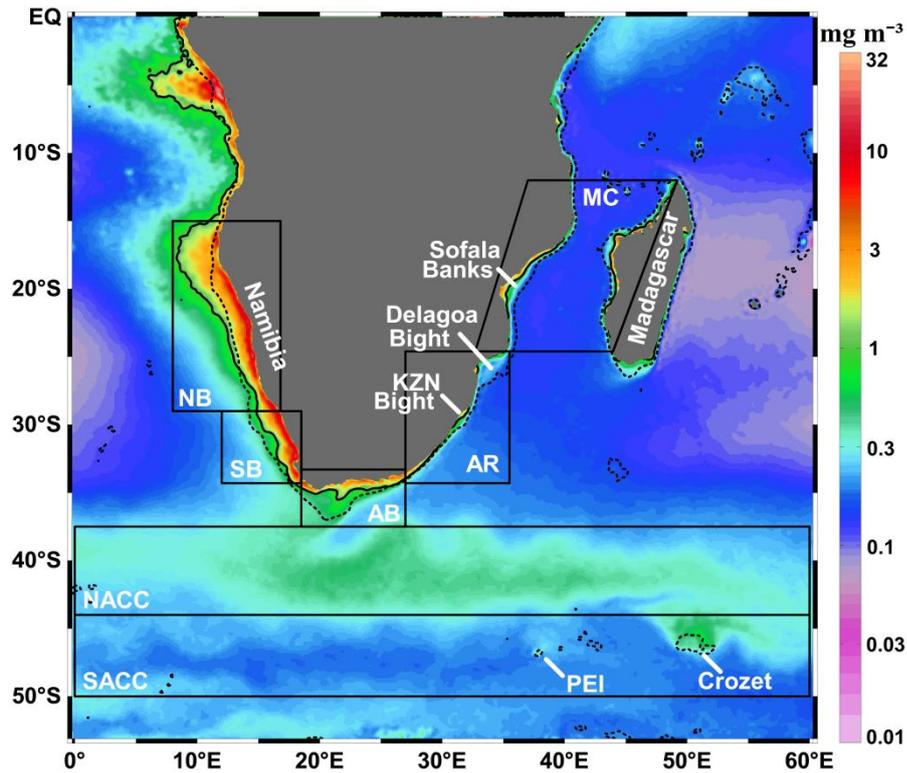
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139 Here, we regionally-tuned the global model using HPLC data collected in the Southern
140 African marine region (Figure 1). This included data from: the BEAGLE cruise (November-
141 December 2003; Barlow et al., 2007); the Atlantic Meridional Transect (AMT) cruises 6, 15,
142 16, and 17 (May 1998, October 2004, May 2005, November 2005; Brewin et al., 2010); the
143 Agulhas ecosystem and Tanzania (November 2006, August-October 2007; Barlow et al.,
144 2008; Barlow et al., 2011); the Mozambique Channel (November-December 2008, October-
145 November 2009, April-May 2010; Barlow et al., 2014); Version 2.0 ALPHA of the NASA
146 bio-Optical Algorithm Dataset (October 2002; Werdell and Bailey, 2005), following the
147 removal of any AMT data so as to avoid duplication; and a cruise in the Atlantic sector of the
148 Southern Ocean (February-March 2009; Gibberd et al., 2013). Only samples in the top 20 m
149 of the water column were used (within the surface mixed-layer, rarely < 20 m, de Boyer
150 Montégut et al., 2004), and where the difference between Chla and the total accessory
151 pigments was less than 30 % of the total pigment concentration (Aiken et al., 2009; Brewin et
152 al., 2015b). In total, 407 samples were available and Figure 2a shows the spatial distribution
153 and number of samples for each dataset.

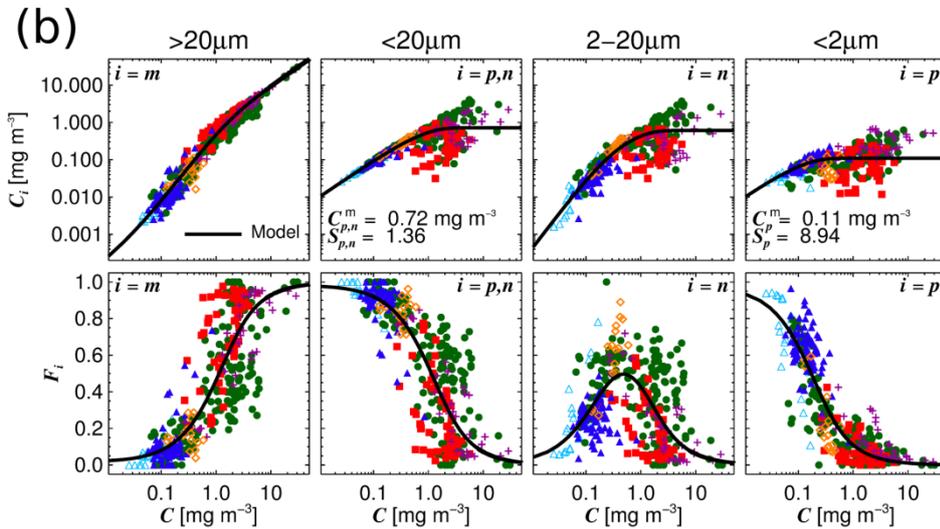
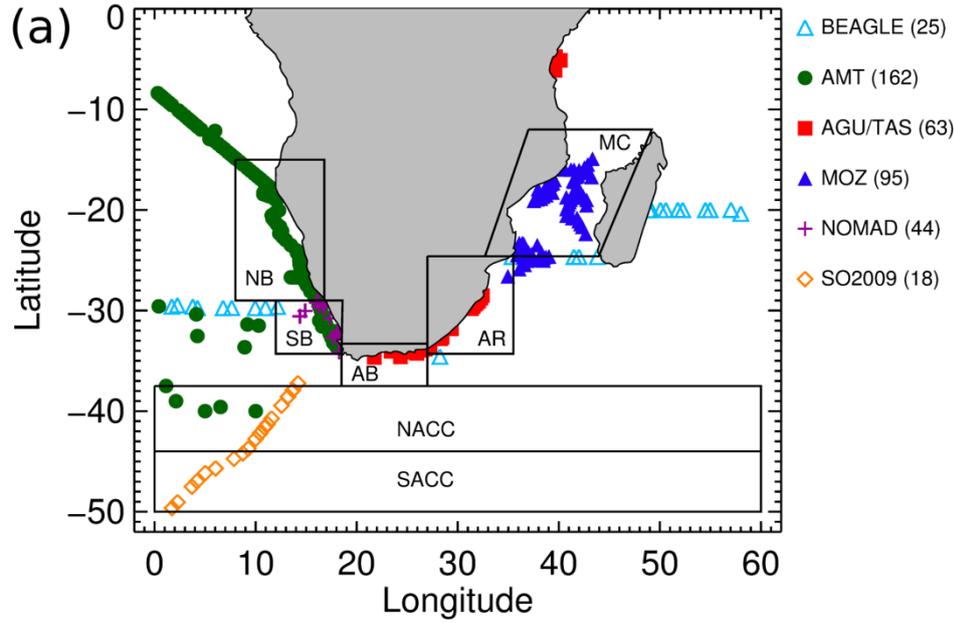
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155 Following the methods described in Brewin et al. (2015b), size-fractionated chlorophyll (C_p ,
156 C_n and C_m) was estimated from the HPLC pigment data. The total chlorophyll concentration
157 was estimated from the weight of seven diagnostic pigments (Uitz et al., 2006), and then the
158 fractions of chlorophyll in each size class were estimated. The fraction of picophytoplankton
159 chlorophyll (C_p) was computed using zeaxanthin, total chlorophyll b , and by allocating part
160 of the 19'-hexanoyloxyfucoxanthin pigment to the picophytoplankton pool at total
161 chlorophyll concentrations ≤ 0.08 mg m⁻³. The nanophytoplankton chlorophyll fraction (C_n)
162 was estimated using 19'-hexanoyloxyfucoxanthin, 19'-butanoyloxyfucoxanthin, alloxanthin,

163 and by apportioning some of the fucoxanthin pigment to the nanophytoplankton pool, using
 164 the method of Devred et al. (2011). The microphytoplankton chlorophyll fraction (C_m) was
 165 estimated using the remaining fucoxanthin (that was attributed to the micro size class) and
 166 peridinin as diagnostic pigments (Devred et al., 2011; Brewin et al., 2015b).
 167



168
 169 **Figure 1:** Long-term mean MODIS-Aqua chlorophyll *a* (mg m^{-3}) around Southern Africa
 170 with demarcated regions. (NB – Northern Benguela, SB – Southern Benguela, AB – Agulhas
 171 Bank, AR – Agulhas Region, MC – Mozambique Channel, NACC – Northern Antarctic
 172 Circumpolar Current region, SACC – Southern Antarctic Circumpolar Current region, PEI –
 173 Prince Edward Islands). Black solid contours indicate the 1 mg m^{-3} isocline, and the dotted
 174 black contours indicate the GEBCO 1000 m isobath (Becker et al., 2009).
 175



176

177 **Figure 2:** (a) Distribution of *in situ* pigment data used to re-tune the Brewin et al. (2010)
 178 three-component model to Southern African waters, including data from the BEAGLE cruise,
 179 the Atlantic Meridional Transect (AMT), the Agulhas ecosystem and Tanzania (AGU/TAS),
 180 the Mozambique Channel (MOZ), the NASA bio-Optical Marine Algorithm Dataset
 181 (NOMAD), and a cruise in the Atlantic sector of the Southern Ocean (SO2009). The
 182 numbering in parentheses indicates the number of samples used in each cruise. The
 183 demarcated regions follow those shown in Fig. 1. (b) The top row shows size-fractionated
 184 chlorophyll (C_p , $C_{p,n}$, C_n , and C_m) as a function of total chlorophyll (C), and the bottom row

185 shows the fractions (F_p , $F_{p,n}$, F_n , and F_m) as a function of total chlorophyll (C), for the *in situ*
186 parameterisation dataset (374 samples, symbols follow that of **(a)** with the regionally-tuned
187 three-component model overlain. The re-tuned parameters of the three-component model are
188 provided, with: $C_{p,n}^m$ representing the upper bound of chlorophyll for cells $< 20 \mu\text{m}$; C_p^m
189 representing the upper bound of chlorophyll for cells $< 2 \mu\text{m}$; $S_{p,n}$ representing the initial
190 slope dictating the increase in chlorophyll for cells $< 20 \mu\text{m}$ as a function of total chlorophyll;
191 and S_p representing the initial slope dictating the increase in chlorophyll for cells $< 2 \mu\text{m}$ as a
192 function of total chlorophyll (see Brewin et al. 2010).

193

194 Samples were matched to daily, level 3 (4 km binned) satellite chlorophyll data, from
195 MODIS-Aqua v2014.0 (downloaded from the Ocean Biology Processing Group (OBGP) at
196 NASA's Goddard Space Flight Center (GSFC)). Each *in situ* sample was matched in time
197 (daily temporal match-up) and space (closest latitude and longitude) with the satellite data.
198 Following Bailey and Werdell (2006), we used a multi-pixel box (3 x 3 pixel window) to
199 increase the possibility of an *in situ* measurement being available for comparison with the
200 MODIS-Aqua data. The median chlorophyll concentration of the nine pixels was considered
201 as the satellite estimate and only match-ups with 5 or more of the nine pixels, and with a
202 median coefficient of variation for remote-sensing reflectance bands between 412 and 547
203 nm of less than 0.15, were included, to ensure reasonable homogeneity of the match-up site
204 (Bailey and Werdell, 2006; Brewin et al., 2015b; Brewin et al., 2016). Following this criteria,
205 33 satellite match-ups of a possible 407 were available.

206

207 The 33 satellite match-ups were removed from the 407 samples and set aside for independent
208 validation of satellite Chla and size-fractionated Chla; leaving 374 samples for re-tuning of
209 the Brewin et al. (2010) model. To evaluate model performance, we used the correlation

210 coefficient (r) and the root-mean-square error (ψ). Statistical tests were performed in \log_{10}
211 space for the chlorophyll concentrations, considering chlorophyll is approximately log-
212 normally distributed (Campbell, 1995), and in linear space for the size fractions. Following
213 Brewin et al. (2015b), Eq. 1 and 2 were fitted to the 374 samples using a standard, nonlinear,
214 least-squares method with relative weighting (Moré, 1978) to retrieve the model parameters
215 (see Table 1 and Figure 2b). Model parameters were compared with the global model of
216 Brewin et al. (2015b) and the Atlantic Ocean model of Brewin et al. (2010) in Table 1, and
217 found to have significantly higher initial slopes ($S_{p,n}$ and S_p) than both previous studies,
218 justifying the regional tuning of the model, and suggesting a higher contribution of smaller
219 cells at low total Chla, though similar asymptotic maximum values (C_p^m and $C_{p,n}^m$) to the
220 previous studies were shown. The model captures the general trends in absolute chlorophyll
221 concentrations (C_p , $C_{p,n}$, C_n , and C_m) and fractions (F_p , $F_{p,n}$, F_n , and F_m) as a function of
222 total chlorophyll for the Southern African dataset (Figure 2b). Statistical comparisons of
223 modelled and *in situ* size-fractionated chlorophyll are comparable to those from Brewin et al.
224 (2015b) for the global ocean (Table 2).

225

226 **Table 1:** Comparison of model parameters derived in this study, with those of Brewin et al.
227 (2015b) for the global ocean and Brewin et al. (2010) for the Atlantic Ocean. Bracketed
228 values show 15.9 % and 84.1 % confidence intervals (1 standard deviation) on a parameter
229 distribution derived using 1000 bootstraps.

| Model Parameter | This study (Southern Africa) | Brewin et al. (2010) (Atlantic Ocean) | Brewin et al. (2015b) (Global Ocean) |
|----------------------------|---|--|---|
| C_p^m | 0.11 (0.10 to 0.12) | 0.11 | 0.13 |
| $C_{p,n}^m$ | 0.74 (0.67 to 0.78) | 1.06 | 0.77 |

| | | | |
|-----------|---------------------|-------|------|
| $S_{p,n}$ | 1.34 (1.26 to 1.49) | 0.851 | 1.22 |
| S_p | 9.02 (8.21 to 9.39) | 6.801 | 6.15 |

230

231 **Table 2:** Statistical comparison of model performance in this study with that from Brewin et
 232 al. (2015b). IN refers to the *in situ* dataset used to parameterise the model, and SAT the
 233 satellite validation dataset. r is the correlation coefficient, ψ the root-mean-square error and N
 234 the number of samples. The chlorophyll concentration is denoted C , and the subscript m
 235 refers to microphytoplankton, n nanophytoplankton and p picophytoplankton (p,n is
 236 combined nano-picophytoplankton).

| Dataset (IN = in situ, SAT = satellite validation) | Size-fractionated chlorophyll (C_i) or total chlorophyll (C) | This study (Southern Africa) | | | Brewin et al. (2015b) (Global Ocean, see their Fig. 6) | | |
|--|---|---------------------------------|--------|-----|--|--------|------|
| | | r | ψ | N | r | ψ | N |
| IN | C_m | 0.98 | 0.30 | 374 | 0.91 | 0.34 | 5841 |
| IN | $C_{p,n}$ | 0.79 | 0.28 | 374 | 0.94 | 0.13 | 5841 |
| IN | C_n | 0.86 | 0.33 | 374 | 0.93 | 0.24 | 5841 |
| IN | C_p | 0.45 | 0.30 | 374 | 0.64 | 0.26 | 5841 |
| SAT | C | 0.98 | 0.14 | 33 | 0.88 | 0.25 | 598 |
| SAT | C_m | 0.96 | 0.29 | 33 | 0.86 | 0.41 | 598 |
| SAT | $C_{p,n}$ | 0.91 | 0.18 | 33 | 0.79 | 0.27 | 598 |
| SAT | C_n | 0.95 | 0.25 | 33 | 0.80 | 0.38 | 598 |
| SAT | C_p | 0.41 | 0.32 | 33 | 0.57 | 0.28 | 598 |

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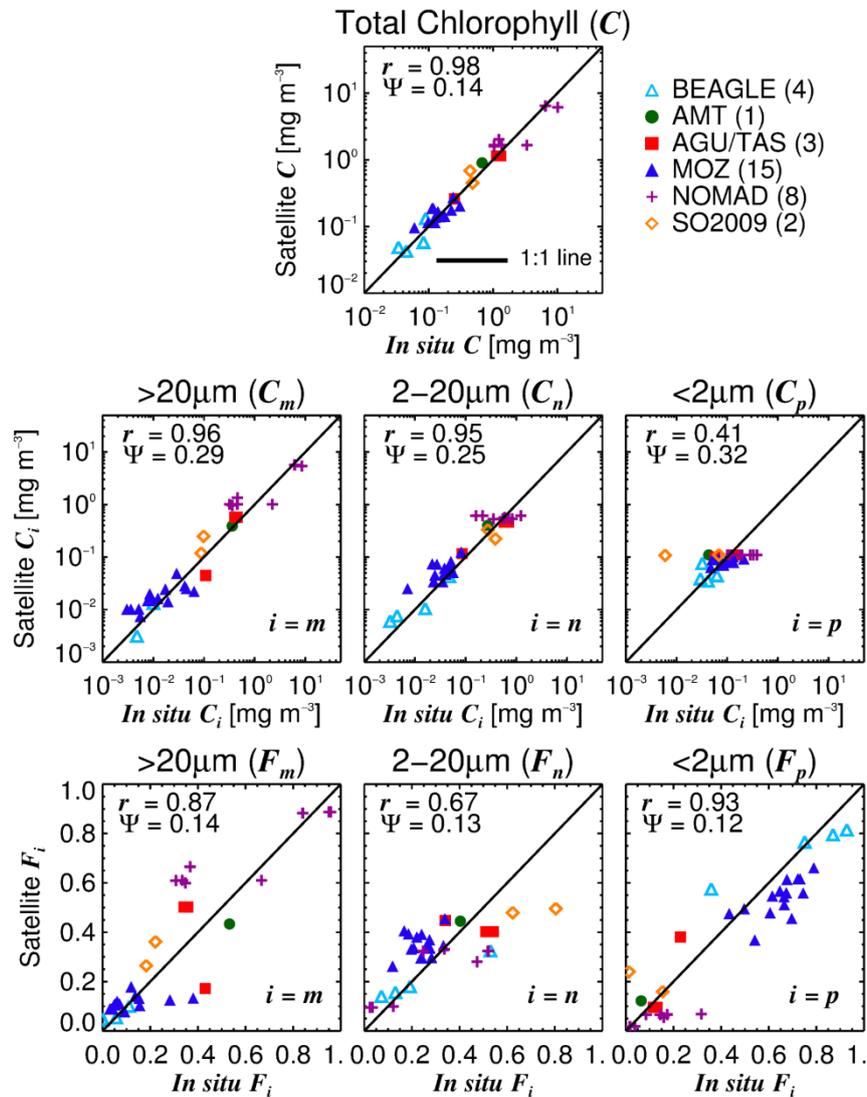
238 **2.2. Ocean colour data analysis**

239 Standard monthly-averaged chlorophyll *a* (Chla) data (version 2014.0 for the period July
240 2002 to April 2016, and version 2014.0.1 for the period May to October 2016) from the
241 MODIS-Aqua sensor, with a spatial resolution of 4.5 km, were provided by the OBGP at
242 NASA's GSFC. Seasonal and monthly climatologies of Chla, for the 2002-2016 period were
243 used to describe the large-scale seasonal variations in Chla. These climatologies were
244 generated by averaging the data throughout the timeseries for each month of the year, as well
245 as over a three month period for each season defined as austral summer (December, January,
246 February), austral autumn (March, April, May), austral winter (June, July, August), and
247 austral spring (September, October, November).

248

249 Since the ocean around Southern Africa is so extensive, with a number of different
250 ecosystems and a wide range of Chla characteristics, specific regions were selected for
251 further investigation (Figure 1). These regions were the northern Benguela (NB), southern
252 Benguela (SB), Agulhas Bank (AB), Agulhas Region (AR), Mozambique Channel (MC),
253 northern Antarctic Circumpolar region (NACC), and the southern Antarctic Circumpolar
254 region (SACC) (Figure 1). The regions were defined based on the spatial variation in physical
255 driving forces, including ecosystem responses such as primary and secondary production and
256 the trophic structure of food webs (Hutchings et al., 2009; Kirkman et al., 2016). Within each
257 of these regions, averages of the monthly climatologies of Chla, as well as the fractional
258 contributions of micro-, nano-, and picophytoplankton were investigated. Dominance of
259 different size classes has been associated with different Chla ranges, where
260 microphytoplankton dominate at high Chla, nanophytoplankton at intermediate Chla, and
261 picophytoplankton at low Chla concentrations (Aiken et al., 2007; Barlow et al., 2007; Uitz et
262 al., 2006). For those regions around the Southern African coast (NB, SB, AB, AR, and MC),

263 further sub-division was performed using a Chla concentration of 1 mg m^{-3} to separate the
 264 higher biomass areas on the shelf from the open ocean regions, similar to Demarcq et al.
 265 (2007).



266
 267 **Figure 3:** Independent satellite validation of total chlorophyll from MODIS-Aqua (C , top
 268 figure), size-fractionated chlorophyll (middle row), and the fractions of each size class to
 269 total chlorophyll (bottom row), in Southern African waters. r is the correlation coefficient and
 270 ψ the root-mean-square error. For the concentrations, statistical tests were performed in \log_{10} -
 271 space and for the fractions (bottom row), linear space.

272 **3. Results**

273

274 **3.1. Satellite validation of total and size-fractionated chlorophyll**

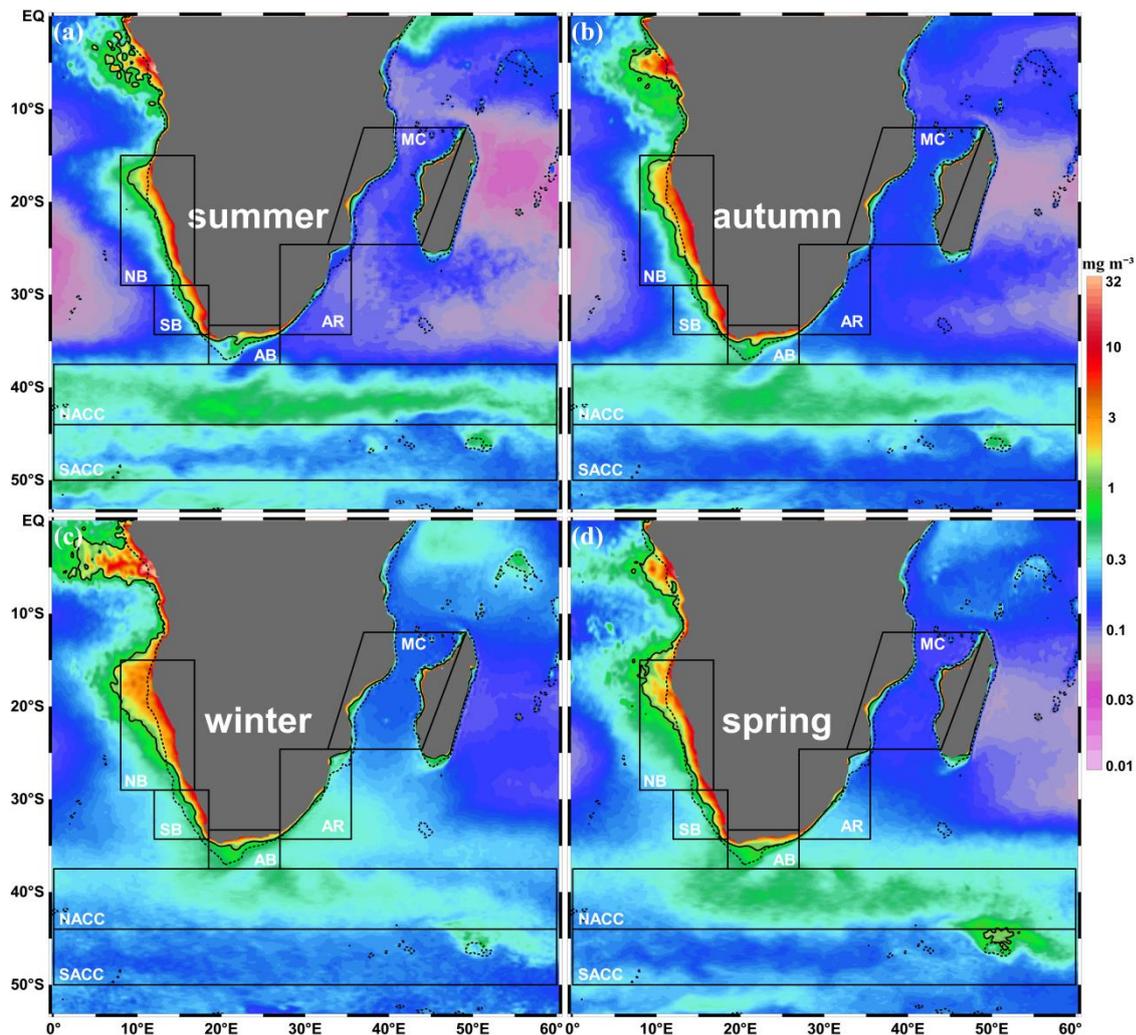
275 Satellite estimates of total chlorophyll are in good agreement with *in situ* data, with a high
276 correlation coefficient and low root mean square error (Figure 3 and Table 2). In fact, the root
277 mean square ($\psi = 0.14$) is considerably lower and correlation ($r = 0.98$) higher than that
278 reported in other studies using global datasets (Bailey and Werdell, 2006; Brewin et al.,
279 2015b; Gregg and Casey, 2004), and comparable with a recent study in the Atlantic Ocean
280 using underway spectrophotometry (Brewin et al., 2016). Satellite estimates of size-
281 fractionated chlorophyll (Figure 3 and Table 2), and the fractions of each size class to total
282 chlorophyll (Figure 3) using the re-tuned model of Brewin et al. (2010), are also shown to
283 compare well with the *in situ* data ($r = 0.41$ to 0.96). Low root mean square errors for both
284 the satellite estimates of size-based concentrations ($\psi < 0.32$) and the fractions ($\psi < 0.14$)
285 were found (Figure 3). These statistics are generally better than those presented by Brewin et
286 al. (2015b) for a global validation (see Table 2). Results from this independent validation
287 give confidence in the use of MODIS-Aqua total chlorophyll and size-fractionated chlorophyll
288 products for Southern African waters.

289

290 **3.2. Seasonal cycle of total chlorophyll and the size fractions**

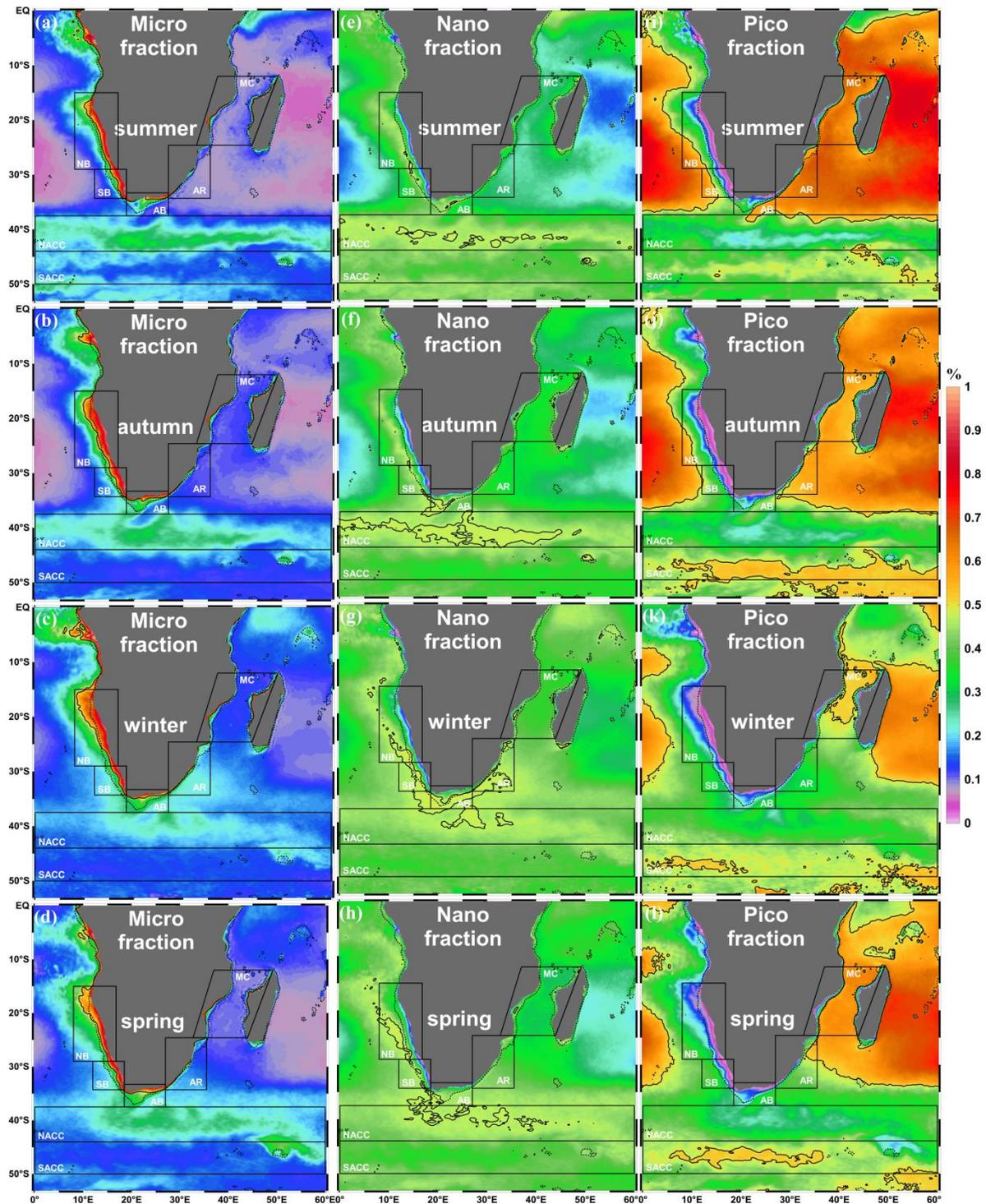
291 Seasonal Chla climatologies (Figure 4) illustrated that Chla values $> 1 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ were limited to
292 the shelf regions along the coasts of Southern Africa and Madagascar, while the lowest
293 values ($< 0.1 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$) occurred over most of the open ocean between the equator and $\sim 38^\circ\text{S}$
294 during austral summer (Figure 4a) and autumn (Figure 4b). During austral winter and spring,
295 Chla values up to 0.5 mg m^{-3} extended over a much larger area of the open ocean, with low
296 values ($< 0.1 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$) restricted to smaller regions within the subtropical gyres (Figure 4c, d).

297 Microphytoplankton comprised $> 50\%$ of the total Chla in the shelf regions of Southern
 298 Africa and Madagascar, with $< 20\%$ in the subtropical gyres and the Mozambique Channel
 299 (Figure 5 a-d), while the converse was observed for picophytoplankton (Figure 5 i-l).
 300 Notably, nanophytoplankton tended to dominate in smaller zones along the edges of the
 301 continental shelves and in the Southern Ocean between $38\text{--}44^\circ\text{S}$ (Figure 5 e-h). Since the
 302 seasonally-averaged proportion of nanophytoplankton did not exceed 50% , the 0.47 contour
 303 was chosen to delineate the regions where nanophytoplankton contributed substantially to the
 304 total Chla (Figure 5 e-h).



305 **Figure 4:** Seasonal climatologies (2002-2016) of MODIS-Aqua chlorophyll a (mg m^{-3})
 306 during austral (a) summer, (b) autumn, (c) winter, and (d) spring. Black solid contour
 307 indicates the 1 mg m^{-3} isoline. Dotted black contours indicate the GEBCO 1000 m isobaths
 308

309 (Becker et al., 2009), and the black boxes indicate the demarcated regions (NB – Northern
310 Benguela, SB – Southern Benguela, AB – Agulhas Bank, AR – Agulhas Region, MC –
311 Mozambique Channel, NACC – Northern Antarctic Circumpolar Current region, SACC –
312 Southern Antarctic Circumpolar Current region).



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Figure 5: Seasonal climatologies (2002-2016) of the fractional contributions of (a-d) micro-, (e-h) nano-, and (i-l) picophytoplankton to the total MODIS-Aqua chlorophyll *a* during austral summer, autumn, winter, and spring. Black solid contours indicate the 0.5 (50 %) contour for micro- and picophytoplankton, and the 0.47 (47 %) isolines for nanophytoplankton. Dotted black contours indicate the GEBCO 1000 m isobaths (Becker et

319 al., 2009), and the black boxes indicate the demarcated regions (NB – Northern Benguela, SB
320 – Southern Benguela, AB – Agulhas Bank, AR – Agulhas Region, MC – Mozambique
321 Channel, NACC – Northern Antarctic Circumpolar Current region, SACC – Southern
322 Antarctic Circumpolar Current region).

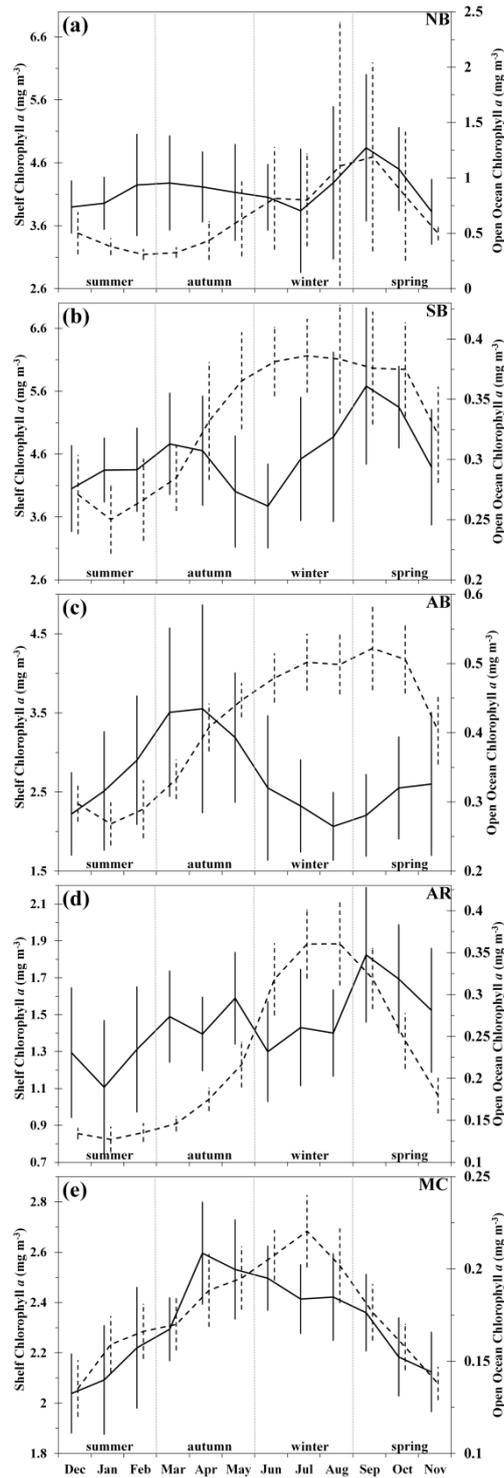
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324
325 The shelf regions, particularly along the west and south coasts of Southern Africa, exhibited
326 regional differences in the offshore extent of Chla concentrations $> 1\text{mg m}^{-3}$ (Figure 4). In the
327 northern Benguela (NB), around 17.5°S , high Chla extended furthest offshore during austral
328 winter (Figure 4c) and spring (Figure 4d), with less offshore extent in autumn (Figure 4b) and
329 the lowest in summer (Figure 4a). Further south, off central Namibia ($\sim 23^{\circ}\text{S}$), the greatest
330 offshore extent also occurred in winter (Figure 4c), but the extent observed in autumn (Figure
331 4b) was greater than in summer (Figure 4a) and spring (Figure 4d).

332
333 Regional averages of the monthly mean Chla on the NB shelf indicated a peak in spring
334 (September-October) and slightly elevated biomass in late summer-early autumn (Figure 6a).
335 Throughout the year, microphytoplankton comprised 70-73 % of the total Chla in the NB
336 shelf region, with the maximum proportion observed in April (Figures 5 and 7).
337 Nanophytoplankton comprised 23-25 % of the total Chla, while the picophytoplankton
338 contribution was $\sim 5\%$, with the highest fractions of both groups observed in July and
339 November (Figures 5 and 7). In contrast, mean Chla in the offshore domain was much lower,
340 with a peak in late winter-early spring (August-September) (Figure 6a), likely due to the
341 increased offshore extent of higher Chla throughout the NB during this period (Figure 4).
342 Although nanophytoplankton were dominant (44-46 %) throughout the year in the offshore
343 domain (Figures 5 and 7b), seasonal differences in the proportions of micro- (19-32 %) and

344 picophytoplankton (22-41 %) were observed. During summer and autumn, the
345 picophytoplankton proportion was greater than the microphytoplankton contribution, while
346 the opposite was observed in winter and spring (Figures 5 and 7b).

347

348 In the southern Benguela (SB), maximum offshore extent of high Chla was found in autumn
349 (Figure 4b) and summer (Figure 4a), while it was lower during spring (Figure 4d) and the
350 least was observed in winter (Figure 4c). On the SB shelf, mean Chla was highest in spring
351 (September-October), with a smaller peak in autumn (March-April) (Figure 6b). Similar to
352 the NB shelf, microphytoplankton contributed 71-77 % to the total Chla on the SB shelf
353 throughout the year, with nanophytoplankton comprising 19-24 %, and a 4-5 % contribution
354 from picophytoplankton (Figures 5 and 7c). The highest proportion of microphytoplankton
355 was observed in October, and during June for nano- and picophytoplankton (Figure 7). In
356 contrast, the open ocean domain showed the lowest Chla in summer, while higher values
357 were sustained from late autumn to spring (Figures 4 and 6b). Nanophytoplankton dominated
358 (37-47 %) the Chla in the open ocean domain during autumn, winter, and spring, but in
359 summer, the proportions of picophytoplankton (30-47 %) were higher (Figures 5 and 7d). In
360 contrast to the NB open ocean domain (Figure 7b), the microphytoplankton proportion in the
361 SB open ocean domain was much lower (16-23 %) (Figure 7d).



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Figure 6: Monthly climatologies (2002-2016) of the mean MODIS-Aqua chlorophyll *a* (mg m⁻³) in the (a) Northern Benguela (NB), (b) Southern Benguela (SB), (c) Agulhas Bank (AB), (d) Agulhas Region (AR), and the (e) Mozambique Channel (MC) regions. Black solid lines indicate shelf concentrations, while dashed lines indicate open ocean concentrations. Vertical lines indicate standard deviations of the means. Note the differences in y-axis scales.

368 South of Southern Africa, on the western part of the Agulhas Bank (AB), at $\sim 20^\circ\text{E}$,
369 maximum offshore extent of high Chla occurred in winter (Figure 4c). In contrast, in the
370 central part of the AB ($\sim 21.5^\circ\text{E}$), maximum offshore extent was observed in autumn (Figure
371 4b), and on the eastern AB (east of 23.6°E), it occurred in spring (Figure 4d). Throughout the
372 AB, offshore extent of high Chla was least during summer (Figure 4a). Highest mean Chla in
373 the shelf region was observed during autumn, while the lowest occurred in late winter
374 (August) (Figure 6c). Similar to both the NB and SB shelf domains, microphytoplankton
375 were also dominant (58-68 %) on the AB shelf, while the nano- (26-32 %) and
376 picophytoplankton (6-12 %) contributions were slightly higher (Figures 5 and 7e). Peak
377 microphytoplankton proportion was observed in April, similar to the NB region, while the
378 nanophytoplankton contribution was highest in August, and picophytoplankton was greatest
379 in December (Figure 7).

380

381 In contrast to the shelf, the AB open ocean region showed the lowest mean Chla in summer
382 (January) and the highest in spring (September) (Figure 6c). Similar to the SB open ocean
383 domain, nanophytoplankton were also dominant (39-48 %) for most of the year in the AB
384 open ocean region, with slightly lower proportions occurring during summer (Figures 5 and
385 7f). Although the differences were smaller, microphytoplankton proportions exceeded the
386 picophytoplankton contributions during winter and early- to mid-spring (Figures 5 and 7f),
387 similar to the pattern observed in the NB open ocean region (Figure 7b).

388

389 South of $\sim 31^\circ\text{S}$, the southern part of the Agulhas region (AR), exhibited no substantial
390 differences in the offshore extent of high Chla values (Figure 4). However, further north, in
391 the Kwa-Zulu Natal Bight at $\sim 29^\circ\text{S}$, high Chla values extended further offshore in winter
392 and spring (Figure 4c, d), and were restricted to a narrow area closer to the coast during

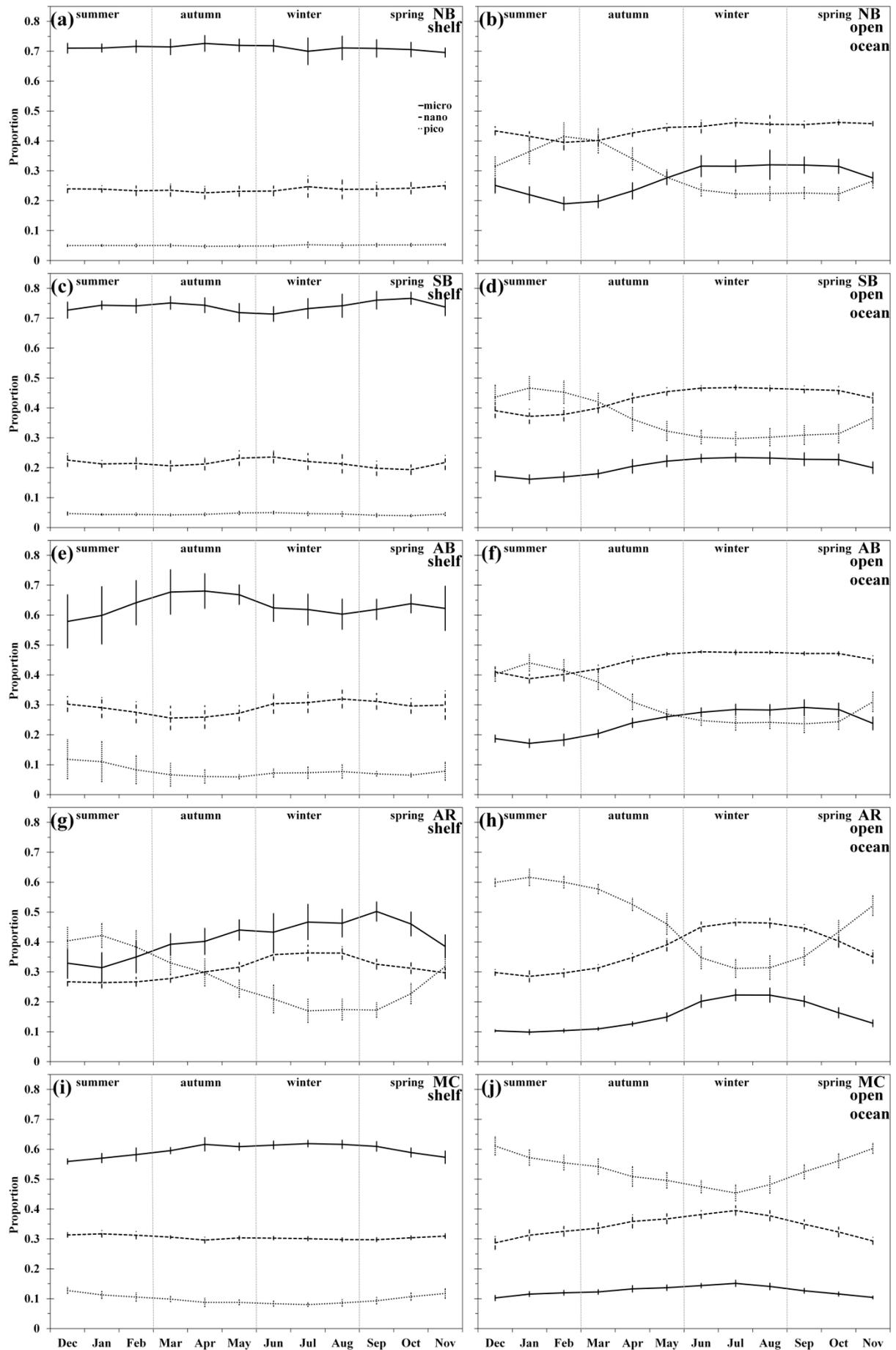
393 summer and autumn (Figure 4a, b). Mean Chla in the shelf region showed multiple peaks,
394 with the highest occurring in spring (September), while the open ocean domain showed a
395 much clearer seasonal cycle with a peak in winter (Figure 6d). On the AR shelf, higher
396 proportions of micro- and nanophytoplankton occurred during autumn, winter, and spring.
397 However, during summer, the picophytoplankton proportion was higher (Figures 5 and 7g).
398 In the AR open ocean domain, picophytoplankton were dominant in mid- to late spring, and
399 during summer and autumn, while nanophytoplankton proportions were greater in winter and
400 early spring (Figures 5 and 7h). Although microphytoplankton contributed less than 22 % to
401 the total Chla, the proportions were slightly higher during winter and early spring (Figures 5
402 and 7h).

403

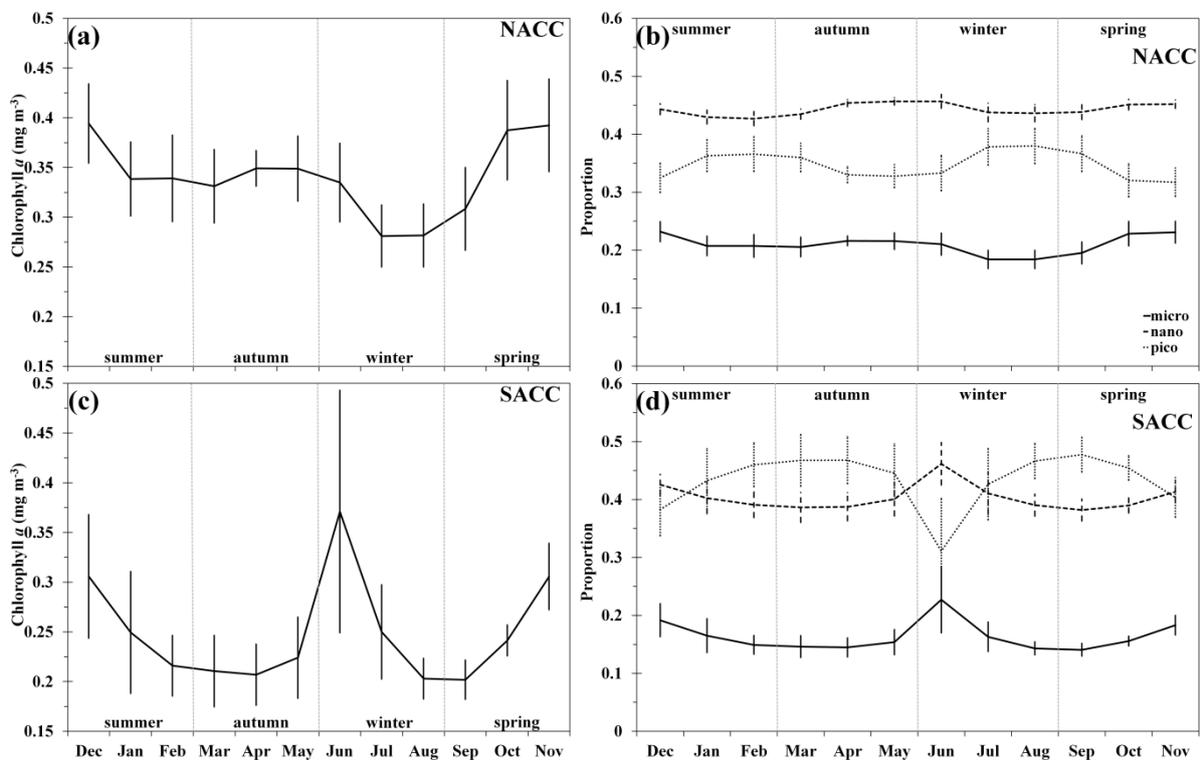
404 On the Sofala Bank (~ 20 °S), in the Mozambique Channel (MC), high Chla values extended
405 further offshore during autumn and summer (Figure 4 a, b), and were restricted closer to the
406 coast during winter and spring (Figure 4c, d). In contrast, further northeast, along the coast of
407 Madagascar (~ 16 °S), greater offshore extent of high Chla values occurred in winter and
408 spring (Figure 4c, d), with less offshore extent in summer and autumn (Figure 4a, b). The
409 shelf regions of the MC showed the highest mean Chla in autumn (April), while the open
410 ocean region showed a peak in winter (July) (Figure 6e). In the MC shelf region,
411 microphytoplankton comprised 56-62 % of the total Chla, while the nanophytoplankton
412 contribution was 30-32 %, and picophytoplankton contributed 8-13 % (Figures 5 and 7i). In
413 contrast, the MC open ocean domain showed a predominance of picophytoplankton
414 throughout the year (Figures 5 and 7j). Microphytoplankton contributions remained below 16
415 % in the MC open ocean region throughout the year (Figures 5 and 7j).

416

417 In the Southern Ocean (38-44 °S), the northern Antarctic Circumpolar (NACC) region was
418 associated with elevated Chla concentrations (up to 0.7 mg m⁻³), with higher values occurring
419 over a larger area in spring, summer, and autumn than during winter (Figures 4 and 8a).
420 Throughout the year, nanophytoplankton comprised 38-46 % of the total Chla in this region,
421 while the picophytoplankton contribution varied between 31-48 %, and the
422 microphytoplankton proportion was 14-23 % (Figures 5 and 8b). South of 44 °S, in the
423 southern Antarctic Circumpolar (SACC) region, Chla values were higher during mid-spring
424 to mid-summer (Figures 4a, d and 8c), while generally lower values were observed in autumn
425 and winter (Figure 4b, c). However, monthly mean values (Figure 8c) indicated an increase in
426 Chla in early winter (June). Although nanophytoplankton were also prominent in the SACC
427 (Figure 8d), and the microphytoplankton contribution was similarly low, the proportion of
428 picophytoplankton was greater than that observed in the NACC, and exceeded the
429 contributions of the other size fractions for most of the year (Figure 8d).
430



432 **Figure 7:** Monthly climatologies (2002-2016) of fractional contributions of micro-, nano-,
 433 and picophytoplankton to the total chlorophyll *a* in the shelf and open ocean regions of the (a,
 434 b) Northern Benguela (NB), (c, d) Southern Benguela (SB), (e, f) Agulhas Bank (AB), (g, h)
 435 Agulhas Region (AR), (i, j) Mozambique Channel (MC). Black solid lines indicates
 436 microphytoplankton, dashed lines indicates nanophytoplankton, and dotted lines indicates
 437 picophytoplankton contributions. Vertical lines indicate standard deviations of the means.
 438



439 **Figure 8:** Monthly climatologies (2002-2016) of the mean MODIS-Aqua chlorophyll *a* (mg
 440 m⁻³) and fractional contributions of micro-, nano-, and picophytoplankton to the total
 441 chlorophyll *a* in the (a, b) northern Antarctic Circumpolar Current (NACC) and (c, d)
 442 southern Antarctic Circumpolar Current (SACC) regions. On panels b and d, the black solid
 443 lines indicate microphytoplankton, dashed lines indicate nanophytoplankton, and dotted lines
 444 indicate picophytoplankton contributions. Vertical lines indicate standard deviations of the
 445 means.
 446

447 **4. Discussion**

448

449 The distribution of phytoplankton populations is driven primarily by the adaptation of various
450 communities to the availability of optimal levels of light and nutrients, which are regulated
451 by both physical processes, including mixing and stratification, and biological processes such
452 as growth, mortality, and grazing (IOCCG, 2014). Different phytoplankton taxa show
453 preferences for specific environmental conditions, and they have different biogeochemical
454 functions within an ecosystem (IOCCG, 2014). Generally, microphytoplankton tend to
455 dominate in environments where mixing is stronger and nutrient concentrations are higher,
456 while picophytoplankton are dominant in stratified conditions where they are better suited to
457 utilising the regenerated nutrients found in those environments (Chisholm, 1992; Cullen et
458 al., 2002).

459

460 Characterising and understanding the seasonal dynamics of phytoplankton size composition
461 is critically important if we are to be able to assess the impacts of current and future climate
462 change and variability on these populations under differing environmental conditions.
463 Although there has been a growing number of studies investigating phytoplankton seasonality
464 across the global ocean in recent years, such research has been lacking for marine ecosystems
465 around Southern Africa, and thus the current study presents the first regional scale
466 characterisation of the full seasonal cycle in satellite-derived Chla and phytoplankton size
467 structure for this region.

468

469 **4.1. West and South coast of Southern Africa**

470 In coastal upwelling systems, such as the Benguela (including the NB, SB, and AB regions),
471 the combined effects of variable wind forcing, nutrient input, as well as water column

472 mixing, stratification and retention, enhance phytoplankton growth, resulting in high biomass
473 levels and favour the presence of micro- and nanophytoplankton (Verheye et al., 2016).
474 These larger sized phytoplankton populations are important in driving the high productivity
475 of this upwelling system, which supports a very rich commercial fishing and marine
476 aquaculture industry (Kirkman et al., 2016; Verheye et al., 2016).

477

478 In the northern and southern Benguela shelf domains, surface Chla provides a reasonable
479 indication of phytoplankton biomass distributions in the euphotic zone (Barlow et al., 2005;
480 2006; Louw et al., 2016; Shannon and Pillar, 1986, Lamont et al., 2014a). However, it is
481 important to note that subsurface biomass maxima are commonly observed in the open ocean
482 domains of the northern and southern Benguela, as well as in both the shelf and open ocean
483 sectors of the Agulhas Bank (Barlow et al., 2005; 2006; Lamont et al., 2014b; Probyn, 1992;
484 Shannon and Pillar, 1986), and thus, it should be recognised that satellite estimates of Chla
485 are only representative of the surface layer. Therefore, variations of size structure presented
486 in the current study should similarly be considered as representative of only the surface layer.

487

488 Seasonal changes and spatial variability of Chla (Figures 4 and 6) observed during the current
489 study agreed well with the patterns described by previous investigations of satellite Chla
490 (Demarcq et al., 2003, 2007, Verheye et al., 2016; Weeks et al., 2006). Similarly, there was
491 good correspondence with *in situ* observations reported in previous studies. On the NB shelf,
492 Louw et al. (2016) used a 12-year climatology of monthly *in situ* Chla in the upper 30 m of
493 the water column and identified Chla peaks in December, April, and August, while a strong
494 decrease was found in June and July. Likewise, on the SB shelf, *in situ* studies (Brown and
495 Cochrane, 1991) have also documented a twofold increase in the productive area from winter
496 to summer, and concentrations observed during spring were higher than those in autumn

497 (Lamont et al., 2014a). The consistency between the seasonal cycles identified in the current
498 study and those observed in previous investigations, especially those using *in situ* data,
499 confirms the utility of satellite Chla for examining surface phytoplankton seasonality in the
500 region.

501

502 Notably, in the NB, SB, and AB shelf regions, the maximum offshore extent of high Chla ($>$
503 1 mg m^{-3}) was not temporally coincident with the highest mean Chla (Figures 4 and 6). The
504 highest mean Chla was observed in spring (September) in the NB and SB regions (Figure 6a,
505 b), while the maximum offshore extent in these regions occurred during winter and autumn,
506 respectively (Figure 4). In the AB shelf region, the highest mean Chla occurred in autumn
507 (April) (Figure 6c), while the maximum offshore extent varied from winter on the western
508 AB, to autumn on the central AB, and spring on the eastern AB (Figure 4). Furthermore, the
509 offshore extent of high microphytoplankton proportions ($> 50 \%$) (Figure 5a-d) tended to
510 mirror that of the high Chla (Figure 4).

511

512 It has previously been suggested that the offshore extent of high phytoplankton biomass in
513 the NB and SB regions is controlled by the flow patterns of the Benguela Current (Demarcq
514 et al., 2007). However, the offshore domain of the SB region is one of highly turbulent
515 mixing, resulting from the interaction of passing anticyclonic eddies from the Agulhas
516 Current retroflection with smaller cyclonic eddies formed within the Cape Basin (Boebel et
517 al., 2003). Consequently, the SB region is characterised by strong gradients in eddy kinetic
518 energy (EKE), which is very low on the shelf and very high in the offshore domain (Veitch et
519 al., 2009). It is likely that the offshore extent of high biomass in the SB region is limited more
520 by the strong gradients in EKE, and strong mixing offshore, than by the flow pattern of the
521 Benguela Current. In contrast, high EKE is found much further away from the shelf in the NB

522 region (Veitch et al., 2009), thus allowing for further offshore extension of high biomass
523 water in the NB as compared to the SB.

524

525 In the AB region, the offshore extent of high phytoplankton biomass is limited by the
526 Agulhas Current. The AB shelf is relatively wide, and shallow compared to the NB and SB
527 shelf regions (Hutchings et al., 2009). The Agulhas Current flows strongly along the shelf
528 break, carrying warm, saline oligotrophic water, which is low in nutrients and phytoplankton
529 biomass. Here, the inshore edge of the Agulhas Current is associated with extensive
530 meandering, as well as the growth of shear-edge features and substantial warm water plumes,
531 which often extend across large areas of the shelf (Lutjeharms, 2006). The interaction of this
532 fast-flowing oligotrophic current with the comparatively slower-moving higher biomass shelf
533 waters results in strong gradients which prevents the offshore extension of high biomass
534 beyond the shelf edge, and also results in the southwestward advection of elevated biomass
535 (Figures 1 and 4).

536

537 Microphytoplankton were found to dominate the high biomass areas on the NB, SB, and AB
538 shelf regions throughout the year, with peak proportions occurring in April in the NB and AB
539 regions, and October in the SB region (Figures 5 and 7). This is consistent with previous
540 studies showing microphytoplankton, such as diatoms, to dominate shelf regions in upwelling
541 systems, where temperatures are lower and nutrient concentrations are higher (Aiken et al.,
542 2007; Barlow et al., 2001; 2005; 2006; Hirata et al., 2009; Shannon and Pillar, 1986). These
543 microphytoplankton dominated communities can sustain higher rates of photosynthesis
544 (Cermeño et al., 2006), as a result of their larger photosynthetic rates per unit volume (Hirata
545 et al., 2009), and are thus very important in maintaining the high primary production in these
546 regions. Dinoflagellates are also important in these regions, particularly in stratified waters

547 during late summer and early autumn (Pitcher et al., 1992; Pitcher and Nelson, 2006). The
548 timing of peak microphytoplankton proportions in these regions is commensurate with
549 periods of strong wind-driven upwelling and mixing which introduces nutrients into the
550 euphotic zone, stimulating phytoplankton growth (Demarcq et al., 2007; Louw et al., 2016).
551 Although nanophytoplankton proportions in these shelf regions were relatively low and less
552 than 25 % on average in the NB and SB regions, their contribution to the total Chla on the
553 AB shelf was higher (26-32 %) (Figure 7 a, c, e), reflecting greater importance of these
554 smaller-sized phytoplankton on the AB shelf.

555

556 In contrast, in the open ocean domains of the NB, SB, and AB regions, nanophytoplankton
557 were dominant for most of the year, except during summer, when the picophytoplankton
558 proportion was higher (Figure 7). Nanophytoplankton, such as flagellates, have been
559 observed to be prominent further offshore in warmer shelf waters, where they can take
560 advantage of elevated nutrient concentrations after upwelled water has warmed (Barlow et
561 al., 2001, 2005, 2006, 2016; Probyn, 1992), whereas picophytoplankton are most abundant in
562 the oligotrophic open ocean regions, seaward of the oceanic front, as they are better adapted
563 to the enhanced stratification, higher temperatures and lower nutrients found in the surface
564 layers of these regions (Barlow et al., 2016; Brewin et al., 2010; Hirata et al., 2009).

565

566 **4.2. East coast of Southern Africa and Madagascar**

567 In comparison to the Benguela system, far fewer studies on phytoplankton have been
568 conducted in the Agulhas region (AR), with the majority of investigations focussed on the
569 wider shelf areas of the KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) Bight (28.5-30 °S) and the Delagoa Bight
570 (~24-27 °S). Early studies showed Chla concentrations in Delagoa Bight ranging between 0.6
571 and 1.26 mg m⁻³ (Mordasova, 1980), and more recent investigations (Barlow et al. 2008;

572 Kyewalyanga et al., 2007; Sá et al., 2013) have illustrated variable phytoplankton
573 distributions in response to changing circulation patterns (Lamont et al., 2010). On the KZN
574 shelf, a wide range of *in situ* Chla concentrations has been observed (Barlow et al., 2008,
575 2010, 2013, 2015; Burchall, 1968 a, b; Carter and Schleyer, 1988). Although the variance
576 associated with these Chla values is high (Carter and Schleyer, 1988), in response to rapid
577 changes in hydrographic conditions (Lamont and Barlow, 2015; Lamont et al., 2016;
578 Lutjeharms et al., 2000), there was an indication of maximum phytoplankton biomass
579 occurring during autumn and late winter/early spring (Burchall 1968a, b; Carter and Schleyer,
580 1988).

581

582 Although the current study investigated the entire AR shelf region, higher mean Chla was
583 similarly observed during spring and autumn (Figure 6d). In this region, the Agulhas Current
584 flows strongly along the shelf edge, promoting kinematically driven upwelling at certain
585 locations (Lutjeharms et al., 2000), and is thought to drive Ekman veering along the shelf
586 slope (Lutjeharms, 2006). Deflections of the Agulhas Current from the shelf edge have been
587 observed to result in the formation of large (Tsugawa and Hasumi, 2010), as well as small
588 (Roberts et al., 2010) cyclonic eddies, embedded on the landward side of the Current. As they
589 travel southward, these eddies, as well as the Ekman veering along the shelf slope, may also
590 result in the upwelling of nutrient-rich waters onto the shelf and the subsequent stimulation of
591 phytoplankton growth (Lutjeharms, 2006). However, Lamont and Barlow (2015) have shown
592 that strong current speeds associated with the impinging of the edge of the Agulhas Current
593 onto the shelf, can result in rapid southward transport of phytoplankton biomass. The
594 multiple Chla peaks noted throughout the year in this study (Figure 6d) are thus indicative of
595 this rapidly changing environment, strongly influenced by the Agulhas Current flowing along
596 the shelf edge.

597

598 In comparison to Chla studies, investigations of size structure in the AR shelf regions have
599 been even more infrequent, and mainly limited to individual *in situ* surveys (Barlow et al.,
600 2008, 2010, 2013, 2015), and thus the current study represents the first study of the seasonal
601 cycle of phytoplankton size structure in this shelf region. Although microphytoplankton was
602 observed to dominate during autumn, winter, and spring, nanophytoplankton also contributed
603 substantially to the total Chla from late autumn to spring (Figure 7). These periods of
604 elevated micro- and nanophytoplankton proportions are synonymous with seasons during
605 which wind mixing is enhanced and nutrient supply to the surface layers are greater.

606

607 These results are consistent with a previous study in the Delagoa Bight, where
608 nanophytoplankton were observed to dominate across most of the Bight, while
609 picophytoplankton accounted for < 20 % of the total Chla during late winter (Barlow et al.,
610 2008). There are also some similarities with studies further south, on the KZN Bight, where
611 micro- and nanophytoplankton communities were observed to dominate the near-shore
612 regions in summer and winter (Barlow et al., 2013, 2015), while picophytoplankton tended to
613 dominate along the outer edges of the KZN Bight, where the influence of the warmer
614 Agulhas Current water was greatest (Barlow et al., 2008; 2010; 2015).

615

616 However, in striking contrast to summer observations on the shelf of the KZN Bight (Barlow
617 et al., 2013, 2015), the current study showed that picophytoplankton was dominant in the
618 larger AR shelf region during summer (Figure 7), likely due to the reduced wind mixing and
619 stronger thermal stratification which results in less nutrient supply to the surface layers
620 during this season (Lutjeharms, 2006). The AR region is the only shelf region along the
621 Southern African coast where the seasonality in phytoplankton size structure closely

622 resembles that of the open ocean domains (Figure 7), suggesting strong influence of offshore
623 dynamics on the shelf ecosystem. Agulhas Current surface waters are generally very warm,
624 saline, and nutrient-poor (Lutjeharms 2006; Barlow et al., 2013, 2015). These oligotrophic
625 conditions favour the presence of smaller-sized phytoplankton as they are better suited to
626 utilising the regenerated nutrients available in these surface waters (Barlow et al., 2015). This
627 disparity to other shelf regions is likely also enhanced by the effect of averaging over a larger
628 area in the current study (see Figure 1 for extent of the AR region), which includes the region
629 south of 31 °S where the shelf is very narrow and the edge of the Agulhas Current is able to
630 impinge much closer to the coast (Lutjeharms, 2006).

631

632 Similar to the AR region, there have been few studies of the large scale variations in
633 phytoplankton biomass and size structure in the MC region. In particular, studies on the shelf
634 region have been historically very limited, despite the ecological and economic significance
635 of the ecosystem to local fisheries (Leal et al., 2009). The current study showed that in the
636 MC shelf region, peak Chla was observed in April (Figure 6e), and that microphytoplankton
637 were dominant throughout the year (Figure 7i), and suggest that there is little seasonal change
638 in the size structure on the MC shelf (Figure 6e). On the Sofala Banks, where the shelf is
639 wide and relatively shallow (Lutjeharms, 2006), higher biomass levels and
640 microphytoplankton dominance was limited to the inner part of the shelf (Figures 1, 4, and 5),
641 where river and estuarine discharge are known to enhance nutrient concentrations in the
642 surface layers (Leal et al., 2009).

643

644 In contrast, the outer part of the shelf was dominated by nanophytoplankton communities
645 (Figure 5), likely due to the enhanced nutrient conditions in the surface layers resulting from
646 the upwelling induced by the interaction of offshore mesoscale features with the shelf edge.

647 These findings are also consistent with a previous study by Sá et al. (2013), which showed
648 that during summer, micro- and nanophytoplankton communities dominated in cooler waters,
649 while picophytoplankton were prevalent in warmer waters on the shelf. On the southern
650 Madagascar shelf region, Pripp et al. (2014) observed elevated Chla values associated with
651 wind-driven upwelling, whereas elevated Chla in the northern region at 16 °S appeared to be
652 driven by upwelling induced by the interaction of anti-cyclonic eddies with the shelf.

653

654 Chla variability in the northern (10-16 °S) and southern (24-30 °S) sectors of the open ocean
655 domain in the Mozambique Channel (MC) is characterised by the predominance of the
656 seasonal cycle, with Chla reaching a peak in July-August (Lévy et al., 2007; Tew Kai and
657 Marsac, 2009). In contrast, in the central (16-24 °S) portion of the MC, Tew Kai and Marsac
658 (2009) demonstrated that Chla variations are driven by intense mesoscale dynamics, with
659 anti-cyclonic eddies associated with low Chla values, while elevated Chla was related to
660 cyclonic eddies. Subsurface phytoplankton biomass maxima are common in both the shelf
661 and open ocean sectors of the Agulhas region and the Mozambique Channel (Barlow et al.,
662 2014; 2015; Lamont et al., 2015; Sá et al., 2013) and thus the variations in Chla and size
663 structure presented in the current study are representative of the surface layer only.

664

665 It has been suggested that eddy formation in the MC displays a seasonal cycle, in relation to
666 variability in the South Equatorial Current north of Madagascar, with maxima occurring
667 during winter, and minima in summer (Backeberg and Reason, 2010). These mesoscale
668 eddies are known to interact with the shelf, resulting in locally enhanced upwelling and
669 increases in phytoplankton biomass, and can also cause entrainment and export of
670 chlorophyll-rich water from the shelf to the open ocean (Barlow et al., 2014; Lamont et al.,
671 2014b; Quartly and Srokosz, 2004; Ridderinkhof and de Ruijter, 2003; Schouten et al., 2003).

672 In this study, averaged Chla values across the entire MC open ocean region (Figure 6e)
673 displayed a maximum in winter (July), similar to observations by Tew Kai and Marsac
674 (2009), and also corresponded with the seasonality in eddy formation suggested by
675 Backeberg and Reason (2010).

676

677 In contrast to the other open ocean domains in the regions around Southern Africa, the MC
678 open ocean domain showed dominance of picophytoplankton throughout the year (Figure 7j).
679 The elevated picophytoplankton proportions during late austral spring to early austral
680 summer (Figure 7j) may be related to the seasonal influx of chlorophyll-poor subtropical
681 surface waters from the south Indian Ocean gyre into the Mozambique Channel (Schouten et
682 al., 2005). These findings are in agreement with previous studies which showed that surface
683 phytoplankton populations in the MC open ocean domain are comprised primarily of
684 picophytoplankton, with nanophytoplankton being of secondary importance during summer
685 and autumn (Barlow et al., 2007; 2014; Zubkov and Quartly, 2003).

686

687 **4.3. Southern Ocean**

688 South of the African continent, the Southern Ocean generally exhibits relatively low Chla
689 (Figures 1 and 4), despite the large concentrations of unused macronutrients such as nitrate
690 and phosphate in the surface layers (Moore and Abbott, 2002). Although satellite Chla in the
691 Southern Ocean is significantly underestimated compared to *in situ* measurements (Kahru
692 and Mitchell, 2010), surface Chla values are considered to be representative of the biomass in
693 the upper mixed layer (Arrigo et al., 2008; Thomalla et al., 2011a). It is widely accepted that
694 these low phytoplankton biomass levels are maintained by a variety of forcing mechanisms,
695 among which the key factors are water column stability, and the availability of light and
696 micronutrients such as iron and silicic acid (Arrigo et al., 2008; Behrenfeld, 2010).

697

698 Throughout the Southern Ocean, the seasonal variations in phytoplankton biomass are
699 strongly controlled by the seasonal cycle of solar irradiance, which governs light availability
700 and also impacts water column stability, and hence nutrient supply to the surface layers,
701 through changes in the net heat flux (Arrigo et al., 2008; Swart et al., 2015). These conditions
702 favour the dominance of picophytoplankton, which are better adapted to take advantage of
703 such light and nutrient conditions (Laubscher et al., 1993; Perissinotto et al., 1990). This is
704 particularly clear in the SACC region, where picophytoplankton were dominant throughout
705 the year, except in late spring and early summer when nanophytoplankton proportions were
706 slightly more elevated (Figures 5 and 8). However, a study by Thomalla et al. (2011a)
707 revealed a more complex pattern of regional variations in the seasonal expression of Chla,
708 implying distinct regional differences in the mechanisms supplying light and iron to the
709 surface layers.

710

711 Exceptions to this general pattern of low Chla commonly occur in the vicinity of sub-
712 Antarctic islands where the bathymetry is shallower and phytoplankton biomass is elevated as
713 a result of the “island mass effect” (McQuaid and Froneman, 2008). This is especially evident
714 in the vicinity of the Prince Edward and Crozet Island archipelagos, located in the SACC
715 region, where elevated Chla concentrations and higher proportions of micro- and
716 nanophytoplankton were observed throughout the year (Figures 1, 4, and 5). Elevated Chla
717 concentrations are also associated with the major fronts and mesoscale activity of the
718 Antarctic Circumpolar Current due to increased micro- and macronutrient concentrations and
719 improved light conditions, resulting from the shoaling of the upper mixed layer (Lutjeharms
720 et al., 1985; Moore and Abbott, 2002; Thomalla et al., 2011a, b; Swart et al., 2015).

721

722 In the NACC region, the Subtropical Front (STF, 41.6 ± 1.07 °S) separates warmer
723 subtropical surface waters from the sub-Antarctic region, while the Sub-Antarctic Front
724 (SAF, 46.4 ± 1.07 °S) delineates the northern boundary of the Antarctic Polar Frontal Zone
725 (APFZ) (Durgadoo et al., 2010, Lutjeharms and Valentine, 1984). Due to the location of both
726 these fronts in the NACC region, Chla concentrations (Figures 4 and 8a, b) and the
727 proportions of nano- and microphytoplankton (Figures 5 and 8b, c) were higher than those
728 observed in the SACC region. This is in agreement with previous observations which also
729 identified elevated Chla in this region, particularly during spring and summer (Gibberd et al.,
730 2013; Thomalla et al., 2011b; Swart et al., 2015). Although monthly mean Chla indicated an
731 increase in the SACC region in June (Figure 8c), and there appeared to be an increase in the
732 proportion of nanophytoplankton relative to the picophytoplankton (Figure 8d), this should be
733 viewed with caution, since this apparent increase is likely to be an artifact resulting from a
734 lack of data coverage over much of this region during winter, particularly in June (Thomalla
735 et al., 2011a).

736

737 **5. Summary**

738

739 When fitting the three-component model (Brewin et al., 2010) to data around Southern
740 Africa, we found significantly higher initial slopes ($S_{p,n}$ and S_p) in model parameters than
741 previous studies using global or Atlantic-basin datasets (Brewin et al., 2010; 2015b),
742 indicating a higher concentration of Chla for small cells at low total Chla concentrations
743 when compared to global models. This suggests a slightly different relationship between
744 phytoplankton size structure and total Chla in this region. The satellite-derived seasonal
745 cycles of Chla and size structure observed in the current study compared well to previously
746 observed variations in each of the regions, suggesting that the three-component model

747 (Brewin et al., 2010) captures the spatial and seasonal variations in phytoplankton size
748 structure in the region around Southern Africa, and may provide worthwhile information for
749 observing longer-term variability of phytoplankton communities.

750

751 The NB, SB, and AB shelf regions form part of the highly productive wind-driven Benguela
752 upwelling system, while the MC shelf region comprises part of the northern reaches of the
753 oligotrophic greater Agulhas Current system. Despite the large differences in physical forcing
754 and biological characteristics in these regions, the shelf domains of the NB, SB, AB, and MC
755 regions all showed a similar seasonal cycle of phytoplankton size structure, with a dominance
756 of microphytoplankton, and very little change throughout the year. Unlike these regions, the
757 AR shelf domain was the only one where a seasonal change in the dominant phytoplankton
758 group was observed, with picophytoplankton dominating in summer, and micro- and
759 nanophytoplankton the rest of the year. The open ocean domains of the NB, SB, AB, and AR
760 regions showed a change from picophytoplankton dominance in summer (and autumn in the
761 AR region), to nanophytoplankton dominance throughout the rest of the year. In contrast, the
762 MC open ocean domain showed picophytoplankton dominance throughout the year. In the
763 Southern Ocean, the NACC region showed dominance of nanophytoplankton throughout the
764 year, as a result of improved light and nutrient conditions associated with the STF and the
765 SAF, while, in contrast, the SACC region showed picophytoplankton dominance for most of
766 the year, except in June, November, and December.

767

768 Climate change has had a substantial impact on marine ecosystems globally, and is predicted
769 to continue to modify the seasonal dynamics of physical and biological processes and
770 ecosystem responses (Doney et al., 2012). The large scale warming trends which have been
771 observed in most ecosystems (Belkin, 2009) have already resulted in substantial spatial

772 changes in global phytoplankton distributions, as well as a reduction in global primary
773 production since the 1990s (Gregg and Rousseaux, 2014; Behrenfeld et al., 2006; 2016).
774 Furthermore, alterations in food web structure and ecosystem functioning are expected as
775 increased thermal stratification and reduced nutrient supply to the surface layers would
776 favour the proliferation of smaller-sized phytoplankton communities (Hofmann and
777 Todgham, 2010; O'Connor et al., 2009; Verheye et al., 2016). This study showed that nano-
778 and picophytoplankton are the most abundant groups in the offshore marine region around
779 Southern Africa, while microphytoplankton are more prevalent in shelf regions. In the
780 context of a warming climate, it is likely that these microphytoplankton dominated shelf
781 regions would change to a system where smaller groups are more prevalent, thus significantly
782 altering ecosystem functioning in these ecologically and economically important regions.

783

784 Phytoplankton populations have high turnover rates which are strongly coupled to
785 environmental variations, making them ideal indicators to elucidate biological responses to
786 environmental forcing (Platt and Sathyendranath, 2008). In the context of studying the ocean
787 carbon cycle and detecting climate change, it has been recognised that different
788 phytoplankton taxa have different biogeochemical functions within an ecosystem (IOCCG,
789 2014), and for this reason, the composition and structure of phytoplankton populations have
790 become increasingly important as ecological indicators to assess ecosystem functioning, and
791 their detection from remotely-sensed data enables the study of seasonal and inter-annual
792 variations, as well as long-term trends in these indicators (Platt and Sathyendranath, 2008).
793 Application of a regionally-tuned PFT algorithm to remotely-sensed chl_a in this study
794 provides the first regional scale characterisation of the full seasonal cycle in phytoplankton
795 size structure for this region, and has revealed substantial seasonal and spatial variations in
796 size structure under widely differing environmental conditions around Southern Africa. These

797 observations provide a baseline against which inter-annual and longer-term variations in
798 phytoplankton can be assessed.

799

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801

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