

1 **Seasonal variability of phytoplankton vertical distribution in a contrasted South Pacific**  
2 **Ocean from BioGeoChemical-Argo profiling floats**

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14 **Key Points:**

- 15
- 16 • We report contrasted seasonal variations of phytoplankton vertical distribution in the  
undersampled South Pacific from 13 BGC-Argo floats
  - 17 • In oligotrophic gyres, subsurface biomass influenced by stratification below the mixed  
18 layer may have been largely underestimated
  - 19 • Equatorial waters show unique chlorophyll profiles, with a pronounced subsurface peak  
20 and a persistent surface bloom feature

21 **Abstract**

22 The seasonal variability of phytoplankton vertical distribution is investigated in the South Pacific  
23 where observations are scarce and scattered. We used 13 BioGeoChemical-Argo floats  
24 deployed across diverse oceanic environments. The seasonal latitudinal displacement of the  
25 Tasman front induces transitions from mesotrophic to oligotrophic conditions. This shift results  
26 in Chlorophyll-a concentration vertical distribution changing from bloom types to Subsurface  
27 Chlorophyll Maxima (SCM) types, with intermediate hybrid types between these extremes.  
28 Such hybrid profiles frequently occur in the equatorial Pacific, highlighting a large-scale pattern  
29 rather than local island mass effect. In oligotrophic regions, seasonal variations of light  
30 availability and stratification dynamics below the mixed layer likely relate SCMs to an increase  
31 in carbon biomass or photoacclimation. A biomass increase is frequently observed, contrary to  
32 previously reported, suggesting that subsurface phytoplankton production may have been  
33 largely underestimated. This calls for further observations of the water column in these remote  
34 undersampled open ocean areas.

35 **Plain Language Summary**

36 This study investigates the seasonal variability in the vertical distribution of Chlorophyll-a  
37 concentration (Chl, a proxy of phytoplankton biomass) in the South Pacific. We use  
38 observations from autonomous platforms (BioGeoChemical-Argo floats) deployed in nutrient-  
39 limited (oligotrophic) areas (center of the gyre, Tonga area and Coral Sea), the mesotrophic  
40 equatorial area and the Tasman Sea. In oligotrophic regions, a permanent maximum of  
41 Chlorophyll at depth (or Subsurface Chlorophyll Maximum, SCM) shows seasonal changes, likely  
42 due to either a biomass increase or physiological adaptation to light conditions. Mixing and  
43 water column destabilisation help bring nutrients to the SCM layer, promoting biomass  
44 increase. The Tasman front, which delineates oligotrophic conditions northward and  
45 mesotrophic ones southward. In this area Chl vertical profiles appear to be seasonally  
46 representative of oligotrophic or mesotrophic dynamics with SCM and bloom types,  
47 respectively, according to the seasonal position of the front. Finally, the high occurrence of  
48 Hybrid (combining SCM and bloom) type profiles in the equatorial area appears to be related to  
49 the regional environment rather than to the effects of surrounding islands. These findings  
50 highlight the need for further studies in remote, nutrient-limited regions of the open ocean.

## 51 **1 Introduction**

52 Phytoplankton, at the basis of the marine food web, play a key role for the oceanic upper  
53 trophic levels and carbon export to the deep ocean. Hence, it is essential to characterise the  
54 spatio-temporal variability of their biomass. Phytoplankton growth relies on the availability of  
55 light and nutrients, the latter being made available in the sunlit layer through oceanic and  
56 atmospheric processes. Specifically, changes in the water column stratification due to vertical  
57 mixing can induce the uplift of nutrients from the deep ocean to the euphotic zone, hence  
58 allowing phytoplankton to grow (e.g. Eppley et al., 1979; Gačić et al., 2002; Peeters et al., 2013).  
59 Conversely, intense stratification, such as in the oligotrophic gyres, prevents nutrient uplift (e.g.  
60 Lewis et al., 1986; Moore et al., 2013; Strom & Fredrickson, 2008) in which case phytoplankton  
61 are confined to a deeper layer of the water column, at a depth where the amount of available  
62 light and nutrients is balanced (Cullen, 2015; Morel et al., 2010). Such subsurface maxima are  
63 well-documented through observations of Chlorophyll-a concentration (Chl), a proxy for  
64 phytoplankton biomass. They are referred to as Deep Chlorophyll Maxima (DCM) or Subsurface  
65 Chlorophyll Maxima (SCM; e.g., Cullen, 2015; Shulenberger & Reid, 1981). Albeit widely used,  
66 Chl is nevertheless an ambiguous proxy, as the Chl-to-carbon biomass ratio depends on  
67 phytoplankton composition and physiology and, in particular, changes with depth due to the  
68 physiological response of phytoplankton cells to light-limited conditions, a process called  
69 photoacclimation (Geider, 1987). Hence, SCM distributions do not always reflect a concomitant  
70 increase in Chl and carbon biomass at depth (i.e. Subsurface Biomass Maxima, SBM), but  
71 instead an increase of Chl associated with photoacclimation (i.e. Subsurface Acclimation  
72 Maxima, SAM; e.g. Barbieux et al., 2019; Cornec et al., 2021). The latter being likely associated  
73 with reduced biological production in oligotrophic environments (e.g. Barbieux et al., 2022), the  
74 distinction between these two processes is crucial to study the biological carbon pump and  
75 ecosystem dynamics (e.g. Westberry et al., 2008). However, environmental processes triggering  
76 SAM and SBM remain poorly understood, at the seasonal scale in particular.

77 The vast South Pacific Ocean (SPO) encompasses a variety of biogeochemical environments. It  
78 hosts the largest oligotrophic area of the global ocean, with strong stratification inducing  
79 relatively low mean surface Chl ( $< 0.1 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ ; Claustre & Maritorena, 2003; Morel et al., 2010;

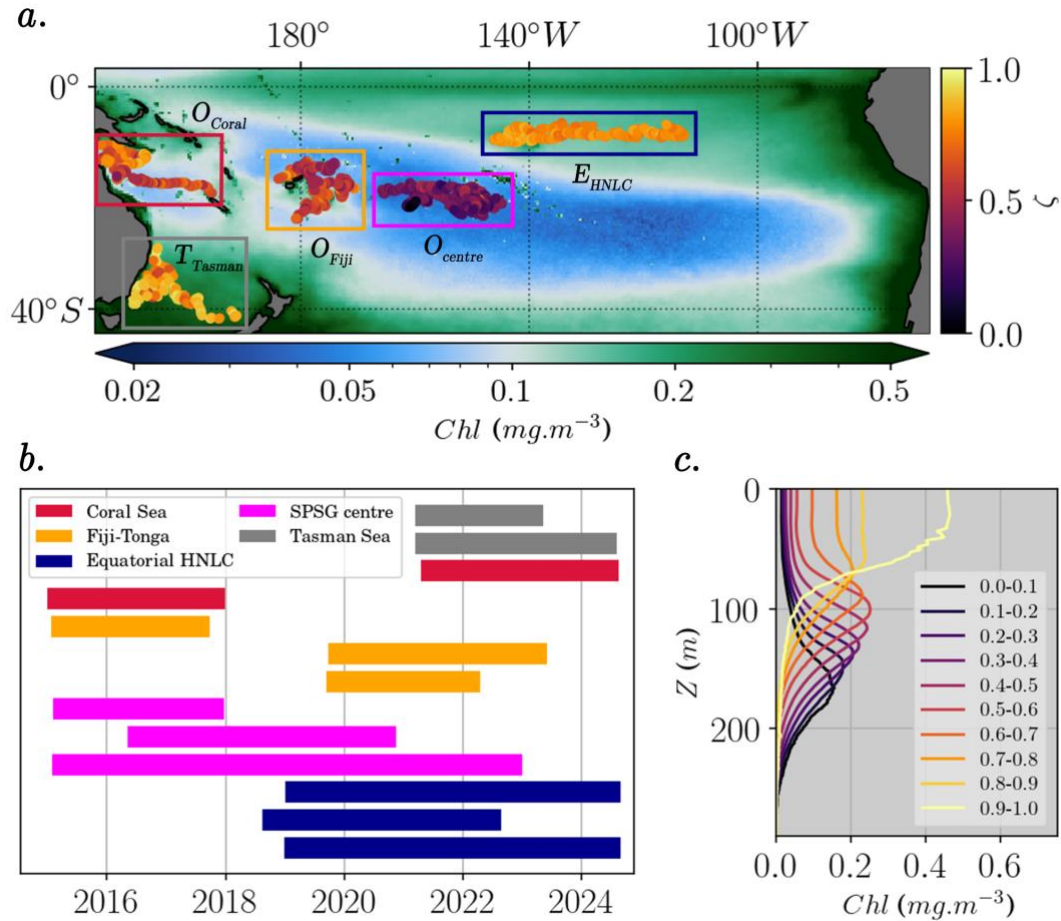
80 Figure 1a). This area itself is contrasted, ranging from moderate oligotrophy in the western  
81 tropical SPO ( $\approx 0.1 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ ) to extreme oligotrophy ( $\approx 0.01 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ ) in the vicinity of Easter  
82 Island (Claustre et al., 2008). Observations from few oceanic cruises in the South Pacific  
83 Subtropical Gyre (SPSG) have revealed spatial differences in the subsurface layer considering  
84 the depth and intensity of the SCM, but also the composition of phytoplankton communities  
85 (Bonnet et al., 2023; Claustre et al., 2008; Moutin et al., 2017; Ras et al., 2008). In addition, only  
86 two studies focused on the investigation of the seasonal variability of Chl vertical distributions  
87 in this region, using only one year of observations from a BioGeoChemical-Argo (BGC-Argo)  
88 profiling float each (Mignot et al., 2014; Sauzède et al., 2020). However, how this seasonal  
89 variability is modulated along a longitudinal gradient in the oligotrophic SPSG, as well as the  
90 relative importance of SAM vs. SBM and the underlying physical and biogeochemical processes  
91 have never been investigated.

92 The oligotrophic SPSG is surrounded by mesotrophic environments along the equatorial band  
93 as well as at temperate and high latitudes. North of the SPSG, the equatorial divergence  
94 induces High Nutrient Low Chlorophyll (HNLC) conditions (Murray et al., 1992) which may be  
95 disturbed by the presence of islands such as the Marquesas Islands (Martinez &  
96 Maamaatuaiahutapu, 2004). Observations based on one oceanographic cruise and one year  
97 deployment of a BGC-Argo float allowed the investigation of the vertical structure of Chl within  
98 this archipelago in 2011-2012 (Martinez et al., 2020). The Chl vertical profiles appeared to  
99 alternate between well-mixed distributions (i.e., homogeneous distribution of Chl in the mixed  
100 layer) and a combination of well-mixed and SCM patterns along a north-south gradient.  
101 However the authors could not specify whether the Chl vertical distribution combining these  
102 two types of profiles was induced by particular biogeochemical properties of the HNLC area or  
103 by the presence of the islands (Island Mass Effect, IME; Doty & Oguri, 1956), nor by some  
104 regional and/or seasonal forcings.

105 At temperate latitudes at the SPO western boundary, the Tasman Sea straddles the Tasman  
106 Front, which represents an eastern extension of the East Australian Current. This current  
107 separates from the east coast of Australia at a seasonal scale (Kerry & Roughan, 2020) and  
108 meanders towards the northern tip of New Zealand (Oke et al., 2019). North of the front, the

109 stratified, oligotrophic Coral Sea waters are relatively unproductive, while the vertically well-  
110 mixed waters south of the front exhibit strong biological activity (Baird et al., 2008). Studies on  
111 phytoplankton based on in-situ observations focused on the North-East Tasman Sea (Ellwood et  
112 al., 2013) or on the western region close to the Australian East coast (e.g., Baird et al., 2008;  
113 Suthers et al., 2011). Within the Tasman Sea, only two satellite based studies have investigated  
114 the Chl variability at a seasonal scale but observations were limited to the surface (Chiswell et  
115 al., 2013; Tilburg et al., 2002). Importantly, here again, the seasonal variability of the vertical  
116 dynamics of Chl at the scale of the Tasman front remains unclear.

117 Over the last decade, the BGC-Argo program has drastically increased the number of in-situ  
118 measurements of key physical and biogeochemical variables, in particular in remote, poorly  
119 sampled regions like the SPO. Recent studies based on this program investigated the seasonal  
120 variability of Chl vertical distributions at the global scale (Bock et al., 2022; Cornec et al., 2021),  
121 the North Atlantic Ocean (Lacour et al., 2019) or the Mediterranean Sea (Barbieux et al., 2019).  
122 In contrast, a specific focus on the SPO has never been performed, so that the seasonal  
123 variability of the Chl vertical distribution in this basin remains largely unknown, as well as the  
124 physical-biogeochemical processes at stake. Here, we use observations from 13 BGC-Argo  
125 profiling floats that drifted from 2015 to 2023 in the contrasted SPO provinces presented above  
126 (Figure 1a and b), namely the temperate-latitude Tasman Sea ( $T_{\text{Tasman}}$ ), the equatorial HNLC  
127 area ( $E_{\text{HNLC}}$ ), and three oligotrophic regions following a zonal gradient from the Coral Sea  
128 ( $O_{\text{Coral}}$ ), the Fiji-Tonga region ( $O_{\text{Fiji}}$ ) toward the center of the SPSG ( $O_{\text{center}}$ ). The aim of the  
129 present study is to characterise the seasonal variability of the Chl vertical distribution in these  
130 regions and to investigate the underlying physical-biogeochemical mechanisms. A focus is  
131 placed on the SAM and SBM seasonality along the east-west gradient of the SPSG.



132 **Figure 1.** (a) Trajectories of the 13 BGC-Argo floats. Each dot represents the location of a float  
 133 profile with its  $\zeta$  value in colour as presented in (c).  $\zeta$  is an indicator of the shape of the Chl  
 134 vertical profile (vertical colorbar). Boxes delineate the five distinct regions of float drift, namely  
 135 the Tasman Sea ( $T_{Tasman}$ ), the Coral Sea ( $O_{Coral}$ ), the Fiji-Tonga region ( $O_{Fiji}$ ), the center of the  
 136 South Pacific Subtropical Gyre ( $O_{centre}$ ) and the equatorial HNLC area ( $E_{HNLC}$ ). The colour in  
 137 background is the surface Chl from the OC-CCI satellite product averaged over 2015-2023  
 138 (horizontal colorbar). (b) Timeline of Chl measurements for each BGC-Argo float, with colours  
 139 corresponding to float drift regions as in (a). (c) Range of  $\zeta$  values corresponding to the Chl  
 140 vertical profiles. The associated Chl values are indicated as the X-axis.

## 141 **2 Data and Methods**

### 142 2.1 Processing of the BGC-Argo measurements

143 We use observations from 13 BGC-Argo profiling floats (Figure 1a and b), deployed in the  
144 Tasman and Coral Seas, the vicinity of the Fiji and Tonga archipelagos, the center of the SPO,  
145 and the Equatorial HNLC area (see the World Meteorological Organisation numbers in  
146 Supplementary Table S1). All the floats are equipped with a Sea-Bird Scientific SBE41 CTD  
147 sensor measuring temperature (T), salinity (S), and pressure (P), a Sea-Bird ECO Puck that  
148 measures Chlorophyll-*a* fluorescence (excitation/emission wavelengths of 470/695 nm) and the  
149 particulate backscattering coefficient at 700 nm ( $b_{bp}$ ), a Sea-Bird OCR-504 multispectral  
150 radiometer that measures the Photosynthetic Available Radiation (PAR) as well as the  
151 downwelling irradiance at 380 nm,  $E_d(380)$ , 412 nm,  $E_d(412)$ , and 490 nm,  $E_d(490)$ . Apart from  
152 two floats in  $O_{center}$ , all the floats are also equipped with Andraea optodes measuring dissolved  
153 oxygen concentration.

154 The Chlorophyll-*a* fluorescence and  $b_{bp}$  coefficient were derived from the raw optical signal of  
155 the ECO sensor following the standard BGC-Argo protocol (Carval et al., 2018; Dall’Olmo et al.,  
156 2023; Schmechtig et al., 2015, 2023). To account and correct for the strong regional variability  
157 in the fluorescence-to-Chl ratio (Petit et al., 2022; Roesler et al., 2017), we assessed a  
158 conversion factor for each vertical profiles using the  $E_d(490)$  measurements as described by  
159 Xing et al. (2011). Each float was attributed a constant correction factor, corresponding to the  
160 median values obtained over its lifetime. The resulting factors are consistent with (Roesler et  
161 al., 2017 and Petit et al., 2022) in the SPSG. Finally, the Chl profiles were smoothed with a 10-m  
162 moving average and corrected from Non-Photochemical Quenching (NPQ) following Terrats et  
163 al. (2020). Spikes potentially associated with particle aggregates or zooplankton may be  
164 observed in  $b_{bp}$  profiles (Briggs et al., 2011; Haëntjens et al., 2020). A 10-m moving average was



165 applied to the  $b_{bp}$  individual profiles, and values exceeding the 5th and 95th percentiles of the  
166 residuals were removed, following Barbieux et al. (2019).

167 The PAR profiles were corrected from cloud effects which intermittently reduces irradiance  
168 values. To do so, an envelope was derived for each log-transformed PAR profile, using strictly  
169 decreasing and moving-average filters with a 50-m window. The difference between  
170 observations and the envelope was used with a threshold to identify the occurrence of clouds.  
171 Finally, following Organelli et al. (2016), a 4<sup>th</sup>-degree beta-spline curve was fitted to the  
172 observations not affected by clouds (see details in Supplementary section S2).

173 For most of the floats used in this study, the profiling frequency is 5 days. However, some of the  
174 floats cycled at a higher frequency (1 to 3 days) during a few months after deployment. In this  
175 case, only the profiles acquired every 5 days are considered for consistency.

## 176 2.2 Classification of the Chl vertical profiles

177 As in Mignot et al. (2011), two mathematical functions illustrating two main types of Chl vertical  
178 profiles — Bloom and SCM — are adjusted to the BGC-Argo Chl profiles (see Supplementary  
179 section S3). The SCM type is characterised by a pronounced subsurface peak, while the Bloom  
180 type shows elevated values in the upper layer without a significant subsurface peak. Then, the  
181 quality of each fit is assessed using the squared Pearson correlation coefficient,  $r^2$ , and the Chl  
182 profiles are attributed the Bloom or SCM types according to the best statistics. In addition, we  
183 include a Hybrid type for the Chl profiles for which both functions have satisfying fits (i.e.  $r^2 >$   
184  $0.8$ ). This type corresponds to profiles featuring significant surface values with, nonetheless, a  
185 notable subsurface maximum. Finally, the Chl profiles for which the fit scores are too low ( $r^2 <$   
186  $0.8$ ) for both models are classified as Other and discarded (less than 1%). As a result, 12% of the  
187 profiles belong to the Bloom type, 75% to the SCM type and 12% to the Hybrid type.

188 This approach also allows the retrieval of the SCM depth ( $Z_{SCM}$ ) and width ( $W_{SCM}$ ) for the Chl  
189 profiles of the SCM type, as adjustment parameters of the gaussian model (see Supplementary  
190 section S3). The Chl profiles from the SCM type are further classified in two subcategories to  
191 determine whether the SCM is related to the occurrence of a carbon biomass maximum

192 concomitant with the Chl maximum (i.e., Subsurface Biomass Maximum, SBM) or to  
193 photoacclimation of phytoplankton cells to low light conditions at depth (i.e., Subsurface  
194 Acclimation Maximum, SAM). Following Cornec et al. (2021), vertical profiles of  $b_{bp}$ , which can  
195 be used as a proxy for the stock of Particulate Organic Carbon (POC), are considered in addition  
196 to the Chl profiles. Correlations between Chl and  $b_{bp}$  are calculated along depth over [ $Z_{SCM}$ -  
197  $W_{SCM}$ ;  $Z_{SCM}+W_{SCM}$ ] for each profile. Significant correlation means that a subsurface local  
198 maximum of  $b_{bp}$  is detected in the proximity of the  $Z_{SCM}$ , thus the SCM is considered as a SBM.  
199 Inversely, the SCM is considered as a SAM when there is no significant correlation between Chl  
200 and  $b_{bp}$ . Hence, this classification yields 4 classes that are Bloom, Hybrid, SAM and SBM, with  
201 the last two corresponding to profiles of the SCM type. The full method is detailed in the  
202 Supplementary section S4.

### 203 2.3 An indicator of the shape of Chl vertical profiles ( $\zeta$ )

204 Here we propose a novel indicator,  $\zeta$ , that provides a synthetic, quantitative view of the spatio-  
205 temporal variability of the vertical distribution of Chl at the SPO scale. The method to derive  $\zeta$   
206 relies on the Principal Component Analysis of the whole dataset of Chl profiles (see  
207 Supplementary section S5).

208 The different values of  $\zeta$  smoothly connect the sigmoid (reflecting the Bloom type, higher values  
209 of  $\zeta$ ) and gaussian shapes (reflecting the SCM type, lower values of  $\zeta$ ), passing through the  
210 hybrid class associated with intermediate values of  $\zeta$  (Figure 1c). Therefore,  $\zeta$  provides  
211 information about SCM characteristics such as  $Z_{SCM}$ ,  $W_{SCM}$ , or even surface and SCM Chl values.

### 212 2.4 Hydrological variables

213 BGC-Argo measurements are used to investigate the physical and biogeochemical mechanisms  
214 driving the phytoplankton vertical and seasonal variability. First, the mixed layer depth (MLD) is  
215 used to trace the surface-driven mixing. MLD is defined as the depth at which surface density is  
216 exceeded by  $0.125 \text{ kg.m}^{-3}$ , a density criterion usually considered in the study region (Ohno et  
217 al., 2004; Sauzède et al., 2020; Suga et al., 2004). The potential density is computed using the  
218 Gibbs-SeaWater library (McDougall & Barker, 2011). The squared Brunt-Vaisala frequency ( $N^2$ ,

219 or buoyancy frequency) is also estimated.  $N^2$  is commonly used as an indicator of the ocean  
 220 stratification (Agustí & Duarte, 1999) and its maximum depth ( $Z_{N2max}$ ) is a proxy for the  
 221 pycnocline depth (Lü et al., 2020), more independent from surface properties than MLD  
 222 (Strutton et al., 2023). It is defined as:

$$223 \quad N^2(z) = -\frac{g}{\rho_0} \partial_z \sigma(z)$$

224 with  $z$  the depth,  $g$  the gravitational acceleration,  $\rho_0$  the mean density of seawater (taken as  
 225  $1025 \text{ kg.m}^{-3}$ ),  $\partial_z$  the  $z$ -wise derivative operator and  $\sigma$  the potential density referenced to the  
 226 surface.

227 In regions such as the subtropics, the presence of a surface salinity maximum leads to  
 228 destabilising the salinity vertical profile. During winter, the convective mixing generates a  
 229 strongly density-compensated layer at the base of the well-mixed layer. This structure can lead  
 230 to the occurrence of double-diffusive convection (Kolodziejczyk & Gaillard, 2012, 2013; Yeager  
 231 & Large, 2007). This phenomenon can be illustrated by the Turner angle (Ruddick, 1983):

$$232 \quad T_u(z) = \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{\alpha \partial_z T(z) + \beta \partial_z S(z)}{\alpha \partial_z T(z) - \beta \partial_z S(z)} \right)$$

233 with respectively  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  the sea water thermal expansion and haline contraction coefficients.  
 234 Values of  $T_u$  within  $\pm 45^\circ$  correspond to depths where the water column is stable.  $T_u > 45^\circ$   
 235 indicates that the salinity gradient is more destabilising than the temperature gradient is  
 236 stabilising. Inversely,  $T_u < -45^\circ$  indicates that the temperature gradient is more destabilising  
 237 than the salinity gradient. The process of double-diffusive convection can occur for  $T_u > 71.6^\circ$   
 238 (Ruddick, 1983). Probability that  $\mathcal{P}(T_u > 71.6^\circ)$  is computed considering the mean and standard  
 239 deviation of  $T_u$ , assuming a normal distribution.

240 Light penetration is quantified through the depth of the  $20 \text{ } \mu\text{mol.quanta.m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$  isolume ( $Z_{iso20}$ )  
 241 using the PAR data from the BGC-Argo floats, as in Barbieux et al. (2019) and Cornec et al.

242 (2021). The euphotic depth  $Z_{eu}$  is defined as the depth at which PAR is equal to 1% of its surface  
243 value.

244 Lastly, the CANYON-B neural network is applied to pressure, temperature, salinity, oxygen  
245 (when available; see Supplementary Table S1), position and date data from the BGC-Argo floats  
246 to derive nitrate concentrations (Bittig et al., 2018; Sauzède et al., 2017). The nitracline depth,  
247  $Z_{nit}$ , is then calculated as the depth of the  $1 \mu\text{mol.L}^{-1}$  isoline (Cermeño et al., 2008; Lavigne et al.,  
248 2015; Sauzède et al., 2020).

249 For all considered variables, monthly climatologies were derived by monthly averaging the  
250 individual profiles.

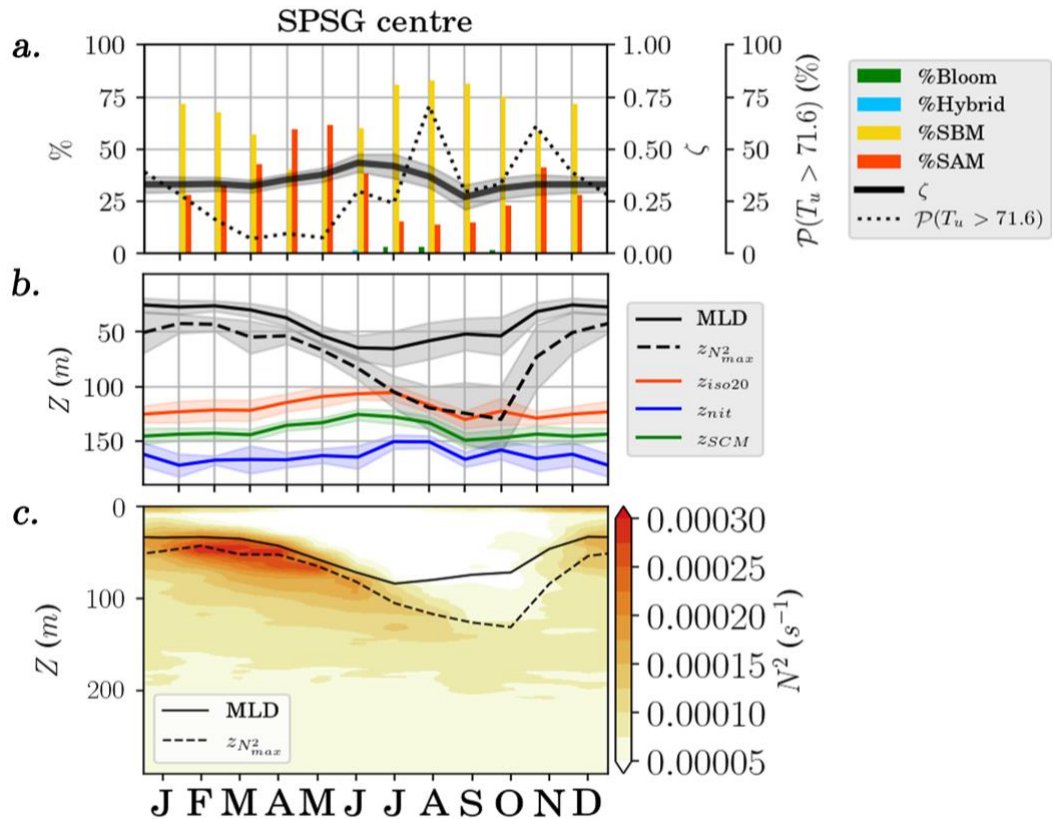
### 251 **3 Results and discussion**

252 At the basin scale, the  $\zeta$  index provides synthetic information about the distinct types of Chl  
253 vertical profiles within the SPO (Figure 1a). The lowest seasonal values of  $\zeta$  ( $\approx 0.25$ ), in  $O_{center}$   
254 (Figure 1a), are associated with the deepest SCM (down to 140 m) and the lowest surface Chl  
255 ( $\approx 0.02 \text{ mg.m}^{-3}$ ; Figure 1c). Intermediate values of  $\zeta$  ( $0.5 < \zeta < 0.7$ ) can be observed in  $O_{Coral}$  and  
256  $O_{Fiji}$  reflecting shallower  $Z_{SCM}$  ( $\sim 100$  m) and higher surface Chl values ( $0.05 \text{ mg.m}^{-3}$ ) along a zonal  
257 gradient toward the western oligotrophic area.  $E_{HNLC}$  and  $T_{Tasman}$  mesotrophic areas are  
258 associated with the Bloom and Hybrid classes ( $\zeta > 0.85$  and  $0.75 < \zeta < 0.85$ , respectively). In  
259 addition to providing a synoptic view of the SPO spatial variability in the Chl vertical  
260 distributions,  $\zeta$  also allows investigating their seasonal variations.

#### 261 **3.1 The zonal gradient of the South Pacific oligotrophic gyre**

262 In the  $O_{center}$  region, the  $\zeta$  index shows weak, yet notable seasonal variations. Minimum  $\zeta$  values  
263 ( $\approx 0.25$ , Figure 2a) are observed from September to March and are associated with a deep SCM  
264 compared to other oligotrophic regions ( $Z_{SCM} \approx 150$  m; Figure 2b). In contrast, maximum  $\zeta$  values  
265 (0.45) are found during the austral winter (July), when the SCM is the shallowest ( $Z_{SCM} \sim 125$  m).  
266 These results are coherent with a permanent SCM regime reported in several previous studies  
267 (e.g. Cornec et al., 2021; Dandonneau et al., 2004; Mignot et al., 2014). Here, it is related with a

268 MLD permanently 100-150 m shallower than  $Z_{nit}$  (Figure 2b), illustrating that the seasonal  
 269 convection cannot reach the nitracline and uplift nutrients toward the upper sunlit layer in this  
 270 area. Also, seasonal variations of the SCM depth are light-driven as illustrated by a  $Z_{SCM}$  closely  
 271 following  $Z_{iso20}$  ( $r = 0.93$ ; Figure 2b; Mignot et al., 2014).



272

273 **Figure 2.** Seasonal climatologies for  $O_{center}$  of: (a) the percentage of Chl profile types (Bloom,  
 274 Hybrid, SBM and SAM; left axis),  $\zeta$  values (first right axis, solid black line), and probability of  $T_u$   
 275 being  $> 71.6$  (second right axis, dash black line); (b) MLD,  $Z_{N2max}$ ,  $Z_{iso20}$ ,  $Z_{nit}$  and  $Z_{SCM}$  along depth;  
 276 (c)  $N^2$  along depth. MLD and  $Z_{N2max}$  as in (b) are reported.

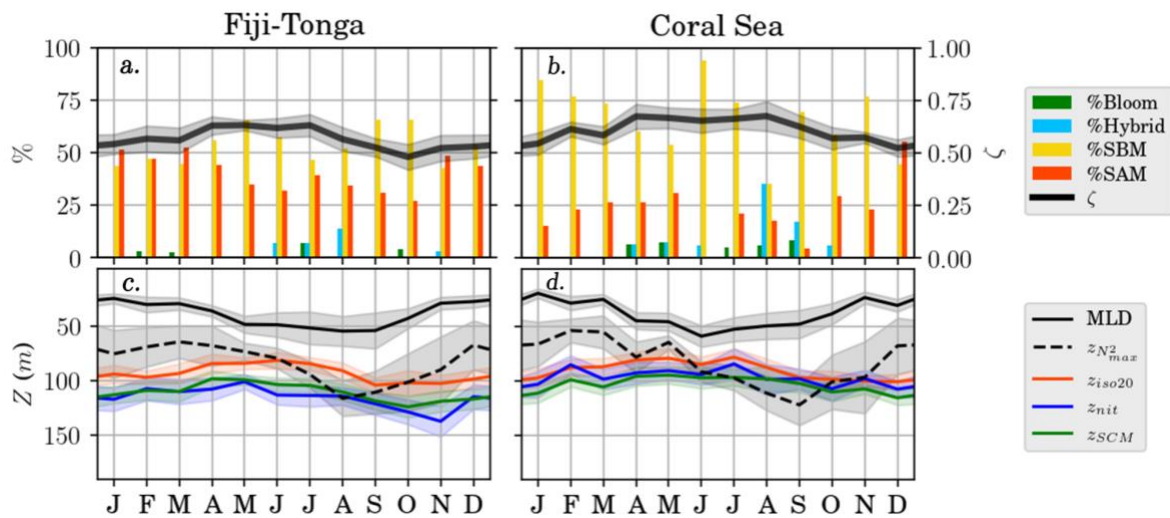
277 Although vertical Chl profiles of the SCM type dominate throughout the year in the  $O_{center}$   
 278 region, the relative contribution of SAM (induced by photoacclimation) or SBM (associated with  
 279 an increase in carbon biomass) is highly variable on a seasonal scale. SAM profiles dominate  
 280 and reach their maximum occurrence frequency (60%) in April-May (late autumn/early winter  
 281 in the Southern Hemisphere). SBM profiles dominate throughout the rest of the year, with a

282 maximum contribution (80%) in the July-October period (late winter/spring). These  
283 observations contrast with previous studies in permanently stratified oligotrophic regions  
284 indicating a dominance of SBM only in summer (December-March) likely due to a  $Z_{SCM}$  closer to  
285 the nitrate pool following the seasonal isolume deepening (Barbieux et al., 2019; Cornec et al.,  
286 2021; Mignot et al., 2014).

287 To understand the dominance of the SBM class in June-October, we investigate the variations  
288 of  $N^2$  which provides additional information about stratification and vertical stability of the  
289 water column (Figure 2c). Indeed,  $O_{center}$  has particular hydrodynamic properties as the South  
290 Pacific Tropical Water (SPTW) is characterised by a vertical salinity maximum (35.6 - 36.5 psu)  
291 located at 8°S - 25°S, 160°W - 110°W, lying in the upper thermocline around the 1025  $kg \cdot m^{-3}$   
292 isopycnal (Qu et al., 2013; Tsuchiya & Talley, 1996). In winter/spring, stratification weakens  
293 (Figure 2c) and the depth of its maximum  $Z_{N2max}$  deepens well below the MLD (Figures 2b, 2c).  
294 This suggests stronger convection and vertical mixing leading to the formation of density-  
295 compensated layers between the base of the ML and the pycnocline (Kolodziejczyk & Gaillard,  
296 2013; Yeager & Large, 2007). Enhanced vertical mixing may erode the nitracline and allow  
297 nutrient diffusion at these depths (although mixing may not be strong enough to extend up to  
298 the surface). In addition, an enhanced compensated layer is likely to favour double diffusive  
299 mixing (of nutrients) as supported by the values of the Turner angle (high percentage of values  
300 > 71.6). This ensemble of processes could explain the significant occurrence of SBM, which  
301 would rely on local vertical supply of nutrients.

302 Oligotrophic characteristics are also found in the  $O_{Fiji}$  and  $O_{Coral}$  regions. The seasonal variations  
303 of  $\zeta$  follow those of  $Z_{SCM}$  (Figures 3a, b), and the MLD remains 70-100 m above  $Z_{nit}$  (Figures 3c,  
304 d). However, from  $O_{center}$  to  $O_{Fiji}$  and  $O_{Coral}$ , both  $Z_{nit}$  and  $Z_{iso20}$  are uplifted and get closer to each  
305 other, inducing a  $Z_{SCM}$  30 to 40 m shallower in  $O_{Coral}$  than  $O_{center}$ . In addition, the westward  
306 deepening in the SPO of the tropical-subtropical pycnocline (Johnson & McPhaden, 1999) and  
307  $Z_{N2max}$  combined with shallower  $Z_{nit}$  could explain stronger nutrient input at  $Z_{SCM}$  inducing a  
308 higher dominance of SBM. Finally, nutrient injection occurs in the surface layer in August and  
309 September when the stratification is the weakest and  $Z_{N2max}$  deepens below  $Z_{nit}$ . This injection

310 induces the appearance of Bloom and Hybrid type profiles. The sporadic occurrence of the  
 311 Hybrid and Bloom types among the other months of the year may rather reflect the supply of  
 312 nutrients from a relatively shallow  $Z_{nit}$  associated with specific phenomena such as the  
 313 influence of Pacific islands (Messié et al., 2020, 2022), hydrothermal sources supplying iron as  
 314 reported in  $O_{Fiji}$  (Guieu et al., 2018; Tilliette et al., 2022), or eddies and front activity (Heywood  
 315 et al., 1996; Travis & Qiu, 2020).



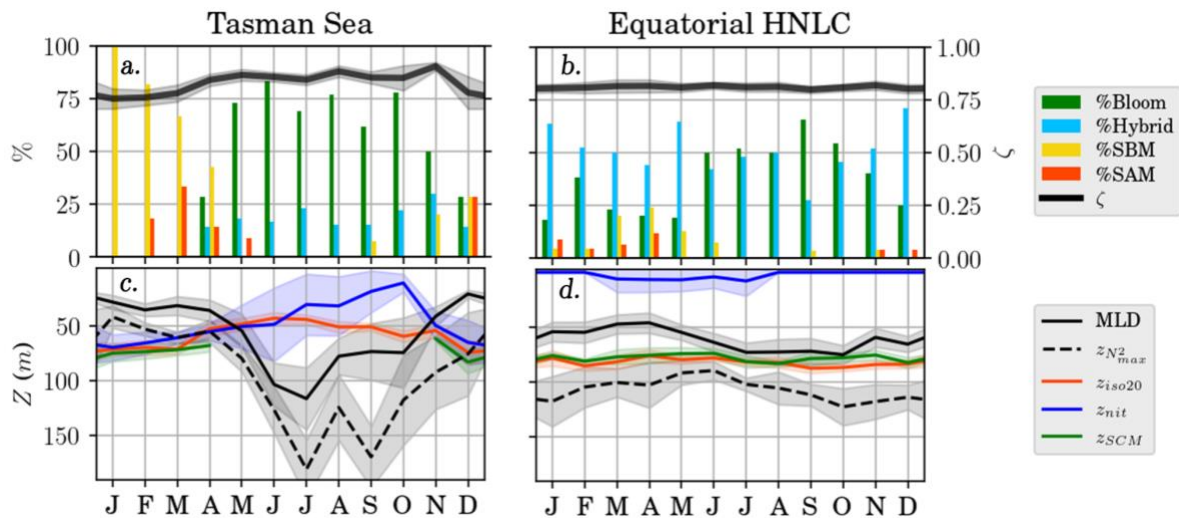
316

317 **Figure 3.** Upper row: same as in Figure 2a without the information on  $T_u$ . Lower row: same as in  
 318 Figure 2b for  $O_{Fiji}$  (left column) and  $O_{Coral}$  (right column).

### 319 3.2 The productive mid-latitude Tasman Sea and equatorial HNLC area

320 At temperate latitudes, the elevation of Chl in the Tasman front is partly related to the mixing  
 321 of relatively warm, macronutrient-poor but iron-rich oligotrophic water from the subtropics  
 322 with cooler, macronutrient-rich but iron-poor subantarctic water (Boyd et al., 1999). In this  
 323 region, the  $\zeta$  index reaches high values (0.75 - 0.9) compared to the overall low values found in  
 324 the three oligotrophic regions (Figure 4a). From January to April, the predominance of the SCM  
 325 type profiles reflects a southward shift of the front and a positioning of the floats in an  
 326 oligotrophic environment with MLDs shallower than  $Z_{nit}$  (Figure 4b and Supplementary Figure  
 327 S6.1a). The predominance of SBM is explained by  $Z_{nit}$  and  $Z_{iso20}$  approximately located at the  
 328 same depth. From March to October, the Tasman front has moved northward and the floats are

329 located in a mesotrophic environment (Supplementary Figure S6.1b and S6.1c). The  
 330 predominance of the Bloom type profiles reflects two dynamical processes. First, the  
 331 occurrence of a fall bloom which coincides with the gradual deepening (April to June) of the  
 332 mixed layer (Supplementary Figure S6.2). Then, the spring bloom coincides with the shoaling of  
 333 the MLD from August to November. These blooms and MLD dynamics coincide with the surface  
 334 Chl seasonal variability reported by Tilburg et al. (2002) from three years of satellite  
 335 observations in the Tasman Sea over 37°S-42°S. Finally, as the Tasman front moves southward  
 336 at the end of the year, the successive changes of dominance from Bloom to Hybrid, then to  
 337 SCM type profiles (beginning of the year) illustrate the transition from a mesotrophic to  
 338 oligotrophic environment.



339

340

**Figure 4.** As in Figure 3 but for (a-c)  $T_{\text{Tasman}}$ , and (b-d)  $E_{\text{HNLC}}$ .

341 The  $E_{\text{HNLC}}$  area is also related to a productive regime with  $\zeta$  values about 0.8, reflecting Hybrid  
 342 and Bloom type profiles, and very few occurrences of the SCM type (Figure 4c). Unlike in the  
 343 Tasman Sea,  $Z_{\text{nit}}$  either reaches or is close to the surface, highlighting the expected no-limiting  
 344 nitrate conditions (Figure 4d). Hybrid type profiles dominate all over the year. The consumption  
 345 of nitrates at the surface could explain the low Chl values ( $\approx 0.2 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ ) consistent with  
 346 satellite observations, while the SCM-like shape below reflects higher Chl as nitrate  
 347 concentrations increase with depth. The trajectories of the four floats, mainly upstream of the



348 Marquesas archipelago, suggest that these types of Chl profiles are related to the regional  
349 HNLC environment, rather than to the local Marquesas IME. Finally, the Bloom type profiles  
350 occurrence increases from July to November following the seasonal deepening of the MLD, and  
351 a subsequent stronger input of nutrients toward the mixed layer. Conversely, the SBM type  
352 occasionally occurs in March and April when the MLD is the shallowest.

#### 353 **4 Conclusions**

354 This study provides the first seasonal climatology of Chl vertical distribution in the South Pacific  
355 Ocean using BGC-Argo profiling floats. By refining previous general classification methods  
356 (based on distinction between Bloom profiles and Subsurface Chlorophyll Maxima profiles,  
357 SCM), it also includes distinctions between SCM profiles driven by photoacclimation (SAM),  
358 actual biomass increase (SBM), and Hybrid types (intermediate between SCM and Bloom  
359 profiles), along with a new index ( $\zeta$ ) for profile shape comparison. The results reveal a  
360 permanent deep SCM in the oligotrophic  $O_{\text{center}}$ ,  $O_{\text{Fiji}}$ , and  $O_{\text{Coral}}$  regions. A north-westward  
361 gradient is observed, with an uplift of the nitracline and SCM depths and a deepening  
362 pycnocline leading to increased SBM and hybrid profiles in the west. In the Tasman Sea,  
363 contrasting oligotrophic and mesotrophic environments show SBM and Bloom dominance  
364 north and south of the Tasman front, respectively, while the high occurrence of Hybrid profiles  
365 in  $E_{\text{HNLC}}$  is linked to the regional HNLC environment rather than local island effects.

366 Stratification-related metrics (e.g.,  $N^2$  and  $Z_{N2\text{max}}$  indices) appear to better explain the difference  
367 in seasonal occurrence of SAM and SBM profiles, compared to the dynamics of the Mixed Layer  
368 Depth alone, with vertical mixing and potential double-diffusion events playing key roles in the  
369 vertical nutrient inputs from depth toward upper layers.

370 These findings underscore the need to distinguish between SBM and SAM processes, as SBM-  
371 dominated profiles, potentially associated with increased biological production, are more  
372 frequent in these oligotrophic regions than previously reported. Expanding in-situ observations  
373 in the SPO is critical for understanding long-term changes in primary production and carbon  
374 export in response to ongoing and future climate warming.

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402 **Data availability statement**

403 The BGC-Argo data were collected and made freely available by the International Argo Program  
404 and the national programs that contribute to it (<http://www.argo.ucsd.edu>,  
405 <http://argo.icommops.org/>). This Argo Program is part of the Global Ocean Observing  
406 System. All analyses have been performed using python 3.11.3. The code behind the CANYON-B  
407 estimation of nitrate from temperature, salinity and oxygen concentration is available openly at  
408 <https://github.com/HCBScienceProducts/CANYON-B>.

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