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Phytoplankton chlorophyll $a$ biomass, composition, and productivity along a temperature and stratification gradient in the northeast Atlantic Ocean


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Abstract. Relationships between sea surface temperature (SST, > 10 m) and vertical density stratification, nutrient concentrations, and phytoplankton biomass, composition, and chlorophyll $a$ (Chl $a$) specific absorption were assessed in spring and summer from latitudes 29 to 63° N in the northeast Atlantic Ocean. The goal of this study was to identify relationships between phytoplankton and abiotic factors in an existing SST and stratification gradient. Furthermore, a biophysical model was used to estimate productivity for five phytoplankton groups. Nutrient concentration (integrated from 0 to 125 m) was inversely correlated with SST in spring and summer. SST was also inversely correlated with near-surface (0–50 m) Chl $a$ and productivity for stratified stations. Near-surface Chl $a$ and productivity showed exponential relationships with SST. Chl $a$ specific absorption and excess light experiments indicated photoacclimation to lower irradiance in spring as compared to summer. In addition, Chl $a$ specific absorption suggested that phytoplankton size decreased in summer. The contribution of cyanobacteria to water column productivity of stratified stations correlated positively with SST and inversely with nutrient concentration. This suggests that a rise in SST (over a 13–23 °C range) stimulates productivity by cyanobacteria at the expense of haptophytes, which showed an inverse relationship to SST. At higher latitudes, where rising SST may prolong the stratified season, haptophyte productivity may expand at the expense of diatom productivity. Depth-integrated Chl $a$ (0–410 m) was greatest in the spring at higher latitudes, where stratification in the upper 200 m was weakest. This suggests that stronger stratification does not necessarily result in higher phytoplankton biomass standing stock in this region.

1 Introduction

Phytoplankton growth in the oceans ultimately depends on seasonal and interannual climatological cycles that determine the availability of nutrients and light. In addition, loss factors such a grazing, viral lyses, and sinking influence phytoplankton standing stock. In the open ocean, vertical density stratification is an important process in shaping the resource availability for phytoplankton growth. Stabilization of the water column allows phytoplankton to exploit higher irradiance intensities near the surface. However, stratification also inhibits exchange with nutrient-rich deep water, potentially leading to nutrient limitation of phytoplankton near the surface. In
the absence of stratification (winter, early spring) the depth range of vertical mixing due to wind and convection can expand by more than one order of magnitude, reducing phytoplankton light availability, and increasing nutrient concentrations. Furthermore, stratification may affect predator–prey and viral–algal host interactions by influencing encounter rates (Behrenfeld, 2010; Baudoux et al., 2008). Moreover, stratification is also an important factor in the seasonal development of phytoplankton composition in the open ocean. Changes in phytoplankton composition often coincide with changes in cell size, because an increased surface-to-volume ratio is advantageous under low nutrient concentrations typical of a stratified water column (Chisholm and Morel, 1991).

High nutrient concentrations and turbulence due to winter mixing supports the growth of larger phytoplankton species such as diatoms, whereas the onset of stratification in spring leads to a succession towards smaller phytoplankton species (Litchman et al., 2007; Claustre et al., 2005). Low nutrient availability in the (sub)tropical oligotrophic ocean results in the dominance of cyanobacteria like Synechococcus and Prochlorococcus over picoeukaryotic phytoplankton species (Li, 1994; Johnson et al., 2006). The changes in phytoplankton composition can affect productivity and carbon storage to the deep ocean (Claustre et al., 2005; Martin et al., 2011).

Apart from pronounced seasonal changes, the North Atlantic experiences fluctuations in sea surface temperature (SST, >10 m) on interannual to multidecadal scales due to the influence of the North Atlantic Oscillation and the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (changes in the range of 0.5 °C, Drinkwater et al., 2003; Enfield et al., 2001; Ting et al., 2009). In addition, the North Atlantic has experienced significant warming as a result of global climate change (Gleckler et al., 2012), and this process is expected to continue over the next decades. The response of ocean productivity to rising temperature is under debate. Models predict that increased SST will enhance stratification of the upper oceans (Steinacher et al., 2010; Hofmann et al., 2011), thereby reducing the depth of the mixed layer and decreasing nutrient exchange with the deep ocean. Remote-sensing-derived, globally averaged Chl a and productivity showed a significant negative relationship with density differences in the upper oligotrophic open ocean (Behrenfeld et al., 2006; Polovina et al., 2008). However, long-term monitoring sites and historical records for estimated Chl a showed conflicting trends for the North Atlantic and other oceanic regions (Chavez et al., 2010; Boyce et al., 2010). Furthermore, no evidence for the interannual control of phytoplankton biomass and productivity by stratification was observed in the subtropical North Pacific or North Atlantic, although stratification correlated on a seasonal timescale with phytoplankton productivity (Dave and Lozier, 2010; Lozier et al., 2011). At mid- and higher latitudes in the North Atlantic, stratification has been associated with bloom formation (Dutkiewicz et al., 2001). Here, termination of convection and the onset of stratification initiate the phytoplankton spring bloom (Siegel et al., 2002; Taylor and Ferrari, 2011; Mahadevan et al., 2012). Earlier onset of stratification in the subpolar North Atlantic may prolong the phytoplankton bloom season (Racault et al., 2012). As such, different responses to stratification can be expected between the subpolar and subtropical North Atlantic (Richardson and Schoeman, 2004).

We hypothesized that SST influences phytoplankton biomass and composition by affecting nutrient concentrations in the upper open ocean. Therefore, relationships between SST and nutrient concentrations can be expected along existing temperature gradients. Furthermore, relationships between SST, phytoplankton biomass, composition and productivity can be expected along existing temperature gradients in the open ocean. Recent studies on temperature and stratification relationships with phytoplankton biomass and productivity have focused on the oligotrophic open ocean, where nutrient limitation of phytoplankton is a dominant feature (Behrenfeld et al., 2006; Polovina et al., 2008; Dave and Lozier, 2010; Lozier et al., 2011). In this context, temperate and higher latitude regions have received less attention and studies that include both oligotrophic and higher latitude waters on this topic are currently lacking. A pronounced gradient in SST and stratification can be observed from low (29° N) to higher (63° N) latitudes in the North Atlantic (Jurado et al., 2012a,b). We investigated seasonal changes in biomass, productivity, and composition of North Atlantic phytoplankton along this gradient in relation to stratification, sea surface temperature, nutrient concentration, and light availability. Furthermore, a model was used to estimate daily water column productivity in the euphotic zone, using in situ phytoplankton biomass (Chl a), phytoplankton composition (pigments), light, and temperature as variables, providing insight into the contribution of five phytoplankton taxonomic groups to community primary productivity. Because stratification shows strong seasonality at temperate and higher latitudes, the gradient in the North Atlantic was sampled during spring when stratification was weak, and during summer when the strongest stratification occurs.

2 Methods

Two cruises were performed in the North Atlantic Ocean onboard the RV Pelagia covering the area between the Canary Islands and Iceland (summer: July/August 2009; spring: April/May 2011). The cruise track covered subtropical, temperate, and subpolar sections in the North Atlantic Ocean (Fig. 1). Samples were collected with a trace metal clean CTD (conductivity, temperature, depth) frame equipped with 12 (summer) and 27 L (spring) sample bottles. Samples for macronutrients, pigments, chlorophyll specific absorption, and excess light experiments (see below) were obtained in a dedicated clean container.
2.1 Stratification index

The stratification index (Behrenfeld et al., 2006; Dave and Lozier, 2010; Lozier et al., 2011) was used as a measure of stratification. The stratification index was calculated as the difference in potential density (sigma–theta) between the upper 10 m (0–10 m average) and 200 m using the salinity and temperature profiles obtained by the CTD (Seabird 9+) when the difference in potential density was smaller than 0.125, the upper 200 m was considered as non-stratified (De Boyer Montegut et al., 2004).

2.2 Nutrients

Nutrient samples (6 mL) were obtained from multiple bottles, sampling between 4 and 7 depths. The samples were filtered through 0.2 μm Acrodisc filters and measured onboard for inorganic PO₄, NH₄, NO₂, and NO₂ + NO₃ using a Bran & Luebbe Quatro autoanalyzer. Depth profiles of PO₄ and NO₃ (calculated by subtracting NO₂ from NO₂ + NO₃) were fitted with a three or a five parameter sigmoidal function by nonlinear regression (Sigma plot 11.0). Using the obtained function, nutrient concentrations were calculated over one meter depth intervals for the potential (0–125 m), upper (0–50 m), and lower (50–125 m) euphotic zone. Furthermore, N : P ratios were calculated for the upper and lower euphotic zone as (NO₃ + NH₄)/PO₄ for the respective depth intervals. In the present study, oligotrophic and mesotrophic stations were distinguished based on the concentration of NO₃ in the upper euphotic zone (0–50 m). We defined oligotrophic stations as those stations where NO₃ in the upper euphotic zone was below the detection limit (0.13 μmol L⁻¹), whereas nutrients were detectable in the upper euphotic zone of mesotrophic stations (Fig. 2). The detection limit for PO₄ was 0.03 μmol L⁻¹.

2.3 Chlorophyll specific absorption

Samples (5–10 L) for Chl a specific absorption were obtained from the chlorophyll maximum (oligotrophic stations: ~70 m; mesotrophic stations: ~40 m) and from the subsurface (oligotrophic stations: ~15 to 30 m; mesotrophic stations: ~10 to 15 m). The samples were filtered through 47 mm GF/F (Whatman), frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at ~80°C. Transmission and reflection from the filter was measured between 350 and 800 nm on a Varian CARY 3E UV/VIS double beam spectrophotometer with integrating sphere over 1 nm intervals, before and after bleaching with 1% sodium hypochloride (Tassan and Ferrari, 1995). Chlorophyll specific absorption (αₜₐₜ) was calculated between
400 and 700 nm using the filter clearance area, sample volume, Chl \(a\) concentration (separate high-performance liquid chromatography sample, see below), and the amplification factor \(\beta\) (set at 2 for all samples). The spectrally weighted mean specific absorption coefficient \((= \bar{\alpha})\) was calculated as the sum of \(\bar{\alpha}_s\) between 400 and 700 nm and corrected by a normalized solar spectrum (maximum set to one). Changes in light spectrum with depth were not accounted for. The spectrally weighted mean specific absorption coefficient \((= \bar{\alpha})\) was used to indicate the presence of differences in species composition and photoacclimation between samples from different depths for the CHEMTAX calculations (see below).

### 2.4 Excess light experiments

An experimental approach was used to obtain information on the photoacclimation state of phytoplankton, which was used for the productivity calculations. Samples from discrete depths (chlorophyll maximum and subsurface) were exposed to excess irradiance, and fluorescence characteristics were determined during recovery in low light. Previous studies demonstrated that this response is strongly dependent on the photoacclimation state of algae (Van de Poll et al., 2006, 2011). Phytoplankton samples were exposed in 350 mL quartz cuvettes to 5 min of excess light (provided by a 250 W MHN-TD lamp (Philips) and two 20 W TL/12 lamps (Philips)) at in situ temperature. PAR and PAR+UVR conditions were created with GG395 and WG305 filters (Schott AG, Mainz), respectively (Supplement, Table 6). 30 mL subsamples from the cuvettes were obtained after exposure and during recovery in low light at 5 min intervals for 60 min. Control samples (150 mL) remained in darkness (dark-adapted controls). Fluorescence parameters were determined using a Water PAM with a WATER-FT flow-through emitter-detector (Waltz, GmbH). Recovery of PSII quantum yield was determined by comparing the maximum PSII quantum yield (dark acclimated) with the average PSII quantum yield that was reached between 40 and 60 min of recovery after exposure. Because fast reversible non-photochemical quenching relaxes within 40 min, this provides an indication for slowly reversible photoinhibition (i.e., damage that requires a relatively long time to repair). The maximum quantum yield of PSII \((F_\text{m}/F_\text{m})\) was calculated as \((F_\text{m} - F_0)/F_\text{m}\).

### 2.5 Pigment composition

Four to seventeen samples (5–10 L) were obtained from multiple depths at each station and filtered through 47 mm GF/F filters (Whatman) under mild vacuum (0.3 mbar), frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at \(-80^\circ\text{C}\). Prior to analysis, filters were freeze-dried (48 h) and pigments were extracted in 90% acetone \((v/v)\) (48 h, 4 °C, darkness). Pigments were separated on a Waters 2695 HPLC (high-performance liquid chromatography) system using a Zorbax Eclipse XDB-C8 column (3.5 µm particle size) as described by Hooker et al. (2009). Diode array spectroscopy (Waters 996) and retention time were used for pigment identification, and the system was calibrated against standards (DHL, Denmark) for chlorophyll \(a\), divinyl \((dv)\) chlorophyll \(a_2\), chlorophyll \(b\), chlorophyll \(c_2\), chlorophyll \(c_3\), peridinin, 19-butanoyloxyfucoxanthin, 19-hexanoyloxyfucoxanthin, fucoxanthin, neoxanthin, prasinoxanthin, alloxanthin, and zeaxanthin. Total Chl \(a\) (sum of Chl \(a_1\) and \(dv\) Chl \(a\)) obtained from HPLC analysis served as a phytoplankton biomass indicator and was used to calibrate the fluorescence sensor from the CTD (Chelsea Aquariuma Mk III). A single relationship between HPLC Chl \(a\) and Chl \(a\) fluorescence values was used for the summer cruise. However, during the spring cruise, the relationship between Chl \(a\) fluorescence and HPLC Chl \(a\) was more variable, and three different relationships were used to calibrate the fluorescence profiles for data from latitude 29 to 40° N, 40 to 47° N, and 48 to 63° N. The calibrated fluorescence profiles were then used to calculate Chl \(a\) over 1 m depth intervals. Depth-integrated Chl \(a\) was calculated for the euphotic zone and defined depth intervals – Chl \(a\) integrated over 0–50 m (Chl \(a_0\)-50 m) and total depth-integrated Chl \(a\) (surface to 200–410 m, Chl \(a\)). For the latter, Chl \(a\) below these depths was negligible. The euphotic zone was defined as the depth with 0.1 % of surface irradiance. We choose the 0.1 % depth as the limit of the euphotic zone because this is a better representation of the depth below which net photosynthesis is negligible than the commonly used 1 % depth of surface irradiance. The 0.1 % light depth was calculated from the vertical attenuation coefficient \((K_d)\), which was determined from the linear regression of natural log transformed PAR vs. depth (PAR: photosynthetically active radiation, 400–700 nm, measured by a 2π Satlantic PAR sensor on the CTD).

### 2.6 Phytoplankton composition

Phytoplankton taxonomic composition was determined using CHEMTAX (Mackey et al., 1996) and will be presented in Mojica et al. (2013). In short, 13 pigments (Chl \(a\), dv Chl \(a\), Chl \(b\), Chl \(c_2\), Chl \(c_3\), peridinin, fucoxanthin, 19-butanoyloxyfucoxanthin, 19-hexanoyloxyfucoxanthin, neoxanthin, prasinoxanthin, alloxanthin, and zeaxanthin) were used to distinguish 8 taxonomic groups (cyanobacteria: Synechococcus and Prochlorococcus, haptophytes, diatoms, dinoflagellates, cryptophytes, prasinophytes, and pelagophytes). Samples were grouped according to latitude and analyzed for spring and summer separately to minimize the residual error. In oligotrophic waters, Chl \(a\) specific absorption showed differences between subsurface samples and those from the chlorophyll maximum. In accordance, separate CHEMTAX analyses were performed for oligotrophic samples with depth < 50 m and > 50 m, using high-light- and low-light-acclimated initial pigment ratios, respectively (Supplement, Tables 3 and 4). Mesotrophic stations showed
no differences between subsurface and chlorophyll maximum Chl $a$ specific absorption, and for these stations, low-light-acclimated pigment ratios were used for all depths. Contributions of the taxonomic groups were expressed relative to Chl $a$. Initial pigment ratios for CHEMTAX (Supplement, Tables 3, 4) were obtained from published pigment ratios (Zapata et al., 2004; Laviale and Neveux, 2011; Kulk et al., 2011, 2012) and from exponentially growing batch cultures (haptophytes: Emiliania huxleyi, Phaeocystis globosa; and diatoms: Ditylum brightwellii, Thalassiosira pseudonana; unpublished results). CHEMTAX results were compared with light microscopy on fixed samples (Supplement), and with detailed flow cytometry data (Mojica et al., 2013). The current study focused on five phytoplankton groups used in the primary production model.

2.7 Primary production

Depth-integrated daily primary production in the euphotic zone (PP$_{Zeu}$) and in the upper 50 m (PP$_{0-50m}$) was calculated for each station using a diagnostic bio-optical model comparable to Claustre et al. (2005) and Uitz et al. (2008). The model uses in situ temperature, light, light attenuation, and Chl $a$ profiles to estimate primary productivity of different oceanic phytoplankton groups. In contrast to the model presented by Claustre et al. (2005) and Uitz et al. (2008), the current model uses CHEMTAX based taxonomic groups and laboratory determined primary production rates. We used the recovery of PSII maximum quantum yield from excess light as a measure for phytoplankton photoacclimation state.

2.7.1 In situ data and light

In situ measurements obtained during the two cruises in the North Atlantic Ocean were used to set the irradiance climate, temperature, and biomass in the model. The daily light dose at each station was obtained from the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS-Aqua) satellite (level 3 data, 9 d average) using photosynthetically available radiation (MAMO$_{PAR,9km,CR}$), with 9 km$^{-2}$ resolution from Giovanni ocean color radiometry portals. The time resolved surface PAR was then calculated using the formulations for the diurnal variation of solar irradiance from Kirk et al. (1994). PAR attenuation for 1 m depth intervals was calculated using the $K_d$ determined from PAR profiles of the CTD (Supplement).

The in situ SST (CTD temperature at 10 m depth) during the spring and summer cruise in the North Atlantic Ocean ranged from 7.7 to 23.3 $^\circ$C. Because carbon fixation characteristics for the model were based on laboratory measurements at 20 $^\circ$C, a temperature correction was applied. A linear relationship between carbon fixation and temperature was assumed ($-0.045$ mg C m$^{-2}$ d$^{-1}$ °C$^{-1}$).

Phytoplankton biomass (Chl $a$) was obtained from in situ fluorescence profiles (1 m depth intervals), which were calibrated to HPLC Chl $a$ concentrations as described above.

2.7.2 Primary production calculations

Five groups were distinguished to model primary production: group 1: Prochlorococcus; group 2: Synechococcus; group 3: Prasinophyceae, Pelagophyceae, and Cryptophyceae; group 4: Haptophyceae and Dinophyceae; and group 5: diatoms. Photosynthetic characteristics for these functional groups were obtained from $^{14}$C-based photosynthesis versus irradiance measurements of Prochlorococcus marinus (group 1), Synechococcus sp. (group 2), Ostreococcus sp. (group 3), Emiliania huxleyi (group 4), and Thalassiosira oceanica (group 5) (Kulk et al., 2011). Photosynthetic characteristic of low light (50 µmol photons m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$) and high light (125 µmol photons m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$) acclimated phytoplankton were used to calculate carbon fixation rates (Supplement, Table 1). A vertical structure in photosynthetic characteristics was assumed during summer. The depth where the PAR dose exceeded the dose experienced by the high-light-acclimated cultures (125 µmol photons m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$) was calculated from the $K_d$. Above this depth, phytoplankton were assumed to be high-light acclimated, whereas low-light-acclimated phytoplankton (50 µmol photons m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$) were assumed below this depth. In contrast, all phytoplankton was assumed to be low-light acclimated in spring. This was based on the Chl $a$ specific absorption and photoacclimation experiments that indicated low-light-acclimated phytoplankton and less vertical structure in the water column in spring. Depth-integrated primary production was calculated according to Platt et al. (1980; see Supplement) for a 24 h period over 1 h time intervals in the euphotic zone (0.1 % PAR) for the five functional phytoplankton groups.

2.8 Statistics

Relationships between nutrient concentration ($NO_3$ and $PO_4$ integrated over 0–125 m: $N_{0-125m}$ and $P_{0-125m}$), SST, density differences (0–200 m), phytoplankton biomass, and phytoplankton productivity were assessed by calculating the Spearman rank-order correlation coefficient (SigmaPlot 11.0, Systat Software). We used the following indicators for phytoplankton biomass: Chl $a$ concentration in samples from 10 to 20 m (surface Chl $a$), Chl $a$ integrated over 0–50 m (Chl $a_{0-50m}$), and total depth-integrated Chl $a$ (surface down to 200–410 m, Chl $a_s$). The daily integrated productivity in the euphotic zone (PP$_{Zeu}$) and the daily productivity integrated over 0–50 m (PP$_{0-50m}$) were used as measures for productivity. In addition, relationships between contributions of five taxonomic groups to productivity were assessed. Summer and spring cruises were tested separately ($n = 32$). Furthermore, relationships were assessed for stratified (spring and summer cruise pooled, $n = 52$) and non-stratified
(spring, \( n = 12 \)) stations. Chl \( a \) specific absorption data from oligotrophic and mesotrophic stations were pooled (subsurface and Chl \( a \) maximum, separately) and tested with a one-way ANOVA using Statistica 8.0 (StatSoft). Differences were considered significant at \( p < 0.05 \).

### 3 Results

#### 3.1 Vertical density stratification

In summer, all stations were stratified, whereas weaker stratification was found in spring (Fig. 2). In spring, the upper 200 m of the 12 stations above 47° N were considered to be non-stratified (density difference < 0.125). In both seasons, the stratification index was highest at low latitudes and declined at higher latitudes, but the latitudinal gradient was less pronounced in spring compared to summer. The correlation between the stratification index (difference in potential density between the surface and 200 m) and SST (< 10 m) was stronger in summer than in spring (correlation coefficient 0.87 vs. 0.78, data not shown).

#### 3.2 Nutrient standing stock

Oligotrophic conditions were encountered up to latitude 45° N in summer and 39° N in spring. N and P concentrations in the lower euphotic zone (50–125 m) increased linearly with latitude and did not show significant differences between spring and summer (Fig. 2). N and P in the upper euphotic zone (0–50 m) of mesotrophic stations increased with latitude, and concentrations were higher in spring than in summer. \( N_{0-125} \) and \( P_{0-125} \) showed strong inverse correlations with SST in spring and summer and for stratified (summer and spring combined) and non-stratified stations (Table 1). The correlations between stratification index and \( N_{0-125} \) and \( P_{0-125} \) were stronger in summer than in spring and were not significant for stratified (summer and spring combined) and non-stratified stations. Integrated N and P concentrations in the euphotic zone were on average five times higher in non-stratified stations compared to stratified stations (data not shown).

Average N : P ratios for the upper euphotic zone of oligotrophic stations were 9.6 (± 3.6) and 12.0 (± 6.2) for spring and summer, respectively (data not shown). Four oligotrophic stations showed high N : P ratios due to extremely low P concentrations and were excluded from the N : P calculations. At mesotrophic stations, the average N : P ratio of the upper euphotic zone was 15.3 (± 0.9) and 13.2 (± 1.4) for spring and summer. Average N : P ratios for the lower euphotic zone were 14.0 (± 3.7) and 16.5 (± 0.9) for spring and summer in oligotrophic stations, and 15.9 (± 0.6) and 16.1 (± 0.3) for spring and summer in mesotrophic stations, respectively.

#### 3.3 Phytoplankton Chl \( a \) specific absorption

At oligotrophic stations, the spectrally weighted mean specific absorption coefficient (\( \bar{a}^* \)) for the chlorophyll maximum (Chl \( a \) max) and subsurface samples for oligotrophic and mesotrophic stations, obtained during the spring (A) and summer (B) cruises (average ± standard deviation). The number of replicates is indicated in the bars. Significant differences between chlorophyll maximum and subsurface samples are indicated with *.

### Table 1. Spearman rank-order correlation coefficients of sea surface temperature (SST) and density differences in the upper 200 m (density) for nitrate (N) and inorganic phosphate (P) concentration in the potential euphotic zone (0–125 m). Data are shown for spring and summer cruises (\( n = 32 \)) and for stratified (\( n = 52 \)) and non-stratified (\( n = 12 \)) stations from both cruises combined. Significant correlations are bold.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Summer</th>
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<tr>
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<td>SST</td>
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<td>( N_{0-125} )</td>
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<td>-0.87</td>
<td>-0.99</td>
<td>-0.75</td>
<td>-0.84</td>
<td>-0.10</td>
<td>-0.91</td>
<td>-0.24</td>
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<td>( P_{0-125} )</td>
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<td>-0.86</td>
<td>-0.98</td>
<td>-0.74</td>
<td>-0.84</td>
<td>-0.10</td>
<td>-0.97</td>
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and PAR+UVR and was not significantly different among stations (results not shown). In contrast, recovery from excess light showed significant differences between summer and spring samples. Subsurface samples recovered to 90% of the original value within 1 h in summer, whereas this was 65% in spring, suggesting low irradiance acclimation in spring (Fig. 4). Chlorophyll maximum samples from oligotrophic stations showed significantly less recovery in spring and summer (40–50% of original value, Fig. 4). PAR+UVR caused lower recovery in oligotrophic stations of chlorophyll maximum samples compared to PAR, but UVR effects were not significant in mesotrophic stations in both seasons.

### 3.5 Phytoplankton biomass

Oligotrophic stations showed a deep chlorophyll maximum, whereas surface Chl $\alpha$ was lower than that of mesotrophic stations. Mean surface Chl $\alpha$ was higher in spring (0.23 ± 0.07 mg Chl $\alpha$ m$^{-3}$) than in summer (0.08 ± 0.03 mg Chl $\alpha$ m$^{-3}$) for oligotrophic stations (Fig. 5). More variability in surface Chl $\alpha$ was observed in mesotrophic stations, with maximum surface concentrations (2.0 mg Chl $\alpha$ m$^{-3}$) at midlatitudes during spring and at higher latitudes during the summer. Mean depth-integrated Chl $\alpha$ (Chl $\alpha_T$) for oligotrophic stations was 49 ± 11 and 23 ± 6 mg Chl $\alpha$ m$^{-2}$ for spring and summer, respectively. Stronger seasonal differences were found in Chl $\alpha_T$ of mesotrophic stations, with on average 112 ± 36 and 33 ± 11 mg Chl $\alpha$ m$^{-2}$ in spring and summer, respectively. Non-stratified stations showed highest Chl $\alpha_T$ (up to 190 mg Chl $\alpha$ m$^{-2}$, integrated over 410 m). Depth-integrated Chl $\alpha$ in the euphotic zone declined with increasing latitude from 80 to 30% in spring, whereas 90% of Chl $\alpha$ was found in the euphotic zone in summer (Fig. 5). In spring, Chl $\alpha$ in the euphotic zone correlated positively with SST (correlation coefficient 0.92), but not in summer. Surface Chl $\alpha$ and Chl $\alpha_{0-50m}$ correlated with $N_0$ and $P_{0-125m}$, whereas inverse correlations were observed with SST (Table 2, Fig. 6). Correlations between these variables were weaker in spring compared to summer. In spring, Chl $\alpha_T$ correlated with $N_{0-125m}$ and $P_{0-125m}$, SST, and the stratification index. When tested for stratified stations (spring and summer combined), surface Chl $\alpha$ and Chl $\alpha_{0-50m}$ showed significant inverse correlations with SST and stratification index, and positive correlations with $N_{0-125m}$ and $P_{0-125m}$ (Table 2). The relationships between Chl $\alpha$ (surface Chl $\alpha$ and Chl $\alpha_{0-50m}$) and SST were best described by an exponentially declining function (Fig. 6). Chl $\alpha$ concentrations of non-stratified stations were not correlated with $N_{0-125m}$ and $P_{0-125m}$, SST, and stratification index (data not shown).
Table 2. Spearman rank-order correlation coefficients of nitrate (N) and inorganic phosphate (P) concentrations in the potential euphotic zone (0–125 m), sea surface temperature (SST), and density differences in the upper 200 m (density) versus phytoplankton biomass and productivity. Surface chlorophyll a (surface Chl a), Chl a in the upper euphotic zone (Chl a0–50 m), and Chl a integrated from the surface to 200–410 m (Chl a125–200) were used as biomass indicators. Productivity in the upper euphotic zone (PP0–50 m) and productivity in the euphotic zone (PPZeu) were used as indicators for productivity. Data are shown for spring and summer cruises (n = 32), and for the stratified stations from both cruises (n = 52). Significant correlations are expressed in bold.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N0–125 m (mg m−2)</th>
<th>P0–125 m (mg C m−2 day−1)</th>
<th>SST</th>
<th>Density</th>
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<tr>
<td>Summer n = 32</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surface Chl a</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>−0.96</td>
<td>−0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chl a0–50 m</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>−0.92</td>
<td>−0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chl a125–200</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>−0.66</td>
<td>−0.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PP0–50 m</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>−0.89</td>
<td>−0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PPZeu</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>−0.87</td>
<td>−0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spring n = 32</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surface Chl a</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>−0.61</td>
<td>−0.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chl a0–50 m</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>−0.41</td>
<td>−0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chl a125–200</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>−0.91</td>
<td>−0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PP0–50 m</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>−0.47</td>
<td>−0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PPZeu</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>−0.50</td>
<td>−0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stratified n = 52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surface Chl a</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>−0.91</td>
<td>−0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chl a0–50 m</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>−0.88</td>
<td>−0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chl a125–200</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>−0.56</td>
<td>−0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PP0–50 m</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>−0.87</td>
<td>−0.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PPZeu</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>−0.85</td>
<td>−0.42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.6 Primary production

Daily primary production in the euphotic zone (PPZeu) of oligotrophic stations was higher in spring than in summer (on average 722 ± 192 and 457 ± 242 mg C m−2 d−1, respectively; Fig. 7). However, for mesotrophic stations, PPZeu was significantly higher in summer than in spring (on average 1627 ± 416 and 1210 ± 225 mg C m−2 d−1, respectively). In summer, PPZeu and PP0–50 m correlated positively with N0–125 m and P0–125 m, and inversely with SST and the stratification index (n = 32, Table 2). These correlations were weaker in spring (n = 32). PPZeu and PP0–50 m showed inverse correlations with SST at stratified stations (summer and spring combined) (Table 2, Fig. 6), and positive correlations with N0–125 m and P0–125 m (Table 2). The relationship between PP0–50 m and SST was best described by an exponentially declining function (Fig. 6). There was a weak inverse correlation between productivity and the stratification index for stratified stations (Table 2). Productivity of non-stratified stations showed no correlations with N0–125 m and P0–125 m and SST (data not shown).

Cyanobacteria contributed up to 40 % to the productivity of oligotrophic stations (group 1 and 2 combined; Figs. 6, 8). At stratified stations (summer and spring combined), the contribution of cyanobacteria was inversely correlated with N0–125 m and P0–125 m and positively with SST, whereas no significant relationship was found for the stratification index (Table 3). In mesotrophic stations, productivity of cyanobacteria was of minor importance (Fig. 7). On average 30 % of group 3 (prasinophytes, pelagophytes and cryptophytes) consisted of prasinophytes (data not shown). Group 3 showed a relatively stable contribution to productivity of stratified stations (on average 30 %). In non-stratified stations the
Table 3. Spearman rank-order correlation coefficients of estimated contribution to primary production of group 1 (Prochlorococcus), group 2 (Synechococcus), group 1 and 2 combined (cyanobacteria), group 3 (prasinophytes, cryptophytes and pelagophytes), group 4 (haptophytes and dinophytes), and group 5 (diatoms) between nitrate (N$_{0–125\ m}$) and inorganic phosphate (P$_{0–125\ m}$) concentrations in the potential euphotic zone, sea surface temperature (SST), and density differences in the upper 200 m (density). Data are shown for stratified (n = 52) and non-stratified (n = 12) stations from spring and summer cruises.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stratified stations (n = 52)</th>
<th>N$_{0–125\ m}$</th>
<th>P$_{0–125\ m}$</th>
<th>SST</th>
<th>Density</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group 1, 2 (Cyanobacteria)</td>
<td>-0.83</td>
<td>-0.83</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 1 (Prochlorococcus)</td>
<td>-0.77</td>
<td>-0.77</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 2 (Synechococcus)</td>
<td>-0.79</td>
<td>-0.80</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 3 (Prasinophytes)</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 4 (Haptophytes)</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>-0.59</td>
<td>-0.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 5 (Diatoms)</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
<td>-0.23</td>
<td>-0.26</td>
<td>-0.28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Non-stratified stations (n = 12)</th>
<th>N$_{0–125\ m}$</th>
<th>P$_{0–125\ m}$</th>
<th>SST</th>
<th>Density</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group 3 (Prasinophytes)</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>-0.79</td>
<td>-0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 4 (Haptophytes)</td>
<td>-0.76</td>
<td>-0.76</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 5 (Diatoms)</td>
<td>-0.73</td>
<td>-0.71</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 7. Latitudinal changes in daily primary production in the euphotic zone (PP$_{Zeu}$) during the spring (A) and summer (B) cruise. Productivity was estimated from in situ phytoplankton biomass and composition, light, light attenuation, and temperature using a biophysical model (see Methods section for details). Black symbols represent data from non-stratified stations.

The summer and spring comparison of open-ocean stations in the North Atlantic (29–63° N) showed that phytoplankton biomass, productivity, and composition were correlated with N and P concentrations and SST. In the present study, the potential nutrient availability for phytoplankton was estimated by integration of nutrient concentrations over 0–125 m (N$_{0–125\ m}$ and P$_{0–125\ m}$). The positive correlations between N$_{0–125\ m}$ and P$_{0–125\ m}$ and Chl a and productivity suggested that open-ocean phytoplankton biomass and productivity were controlled by the availability of these nutrients in the investigated region. SST was inversely correlated with phytoplankton biomass and productivity and with N$_{0–125\ m}$ and P$_{0–125\ m}$. This suggests that SST is important in determining nutrient availability for phytoplankton by influencing vertical exchange with deeper nutrient-rich water. The relationships were stronger with SST than with the stratification index. In spring nutrient concentrations were more uncoupled from stratification, i.e., were less reflected by the differences in density. The correlation between SST and nutrients in non-stratified stations possibly reflects the relationship between SST and the depth of winter mixing. In addition, correlations between SST and phytoplankton biomass and productivity were weaker under the weakly and non-stratified conditions in spring. Moreover, the fraction of the phytoplankton biomass in the euphotic zone correlated with SST. Combined, this indicates that convective and wind mixing...
exerted a stronger influence on the water column distribution of Chl $a$ in spring.

The inverse relationships between SST and near-surface phytoplankton biomass and PP$_{0-50\text{m}}$ for stratified stations suggest that within the SST range of 13–23°C, North Atlantic open-ocean phytoplankton productivity co-varies with SST. If this also applies to interannual, and multidecadal SST changes, this would imply that anthropogenic warming of the ocean has a negative influence on phytoplankton biomass and productivity in the stratified open ocean within this temperature range. It should be noted that these correlations are not proof of causation. Nevertheless, the existence of correlations between SST, nutrient concentrations, phytoplankton PP and Chl $a$ in the surface oceans provide support for the hypothesis that SST influences nutrients in the open-sea surface and thereby controls phytoplankton biomass, productivity and composition.

The relationship between productivity and SST in stratified stations indicated that a 0.5°C increase in SST would cause a 11% decline in daily productivity in the upper 50 m. Gregg et al. (2003) reported a 6–7% decline in annual productivity in the central and northern section of the North Atlantic from a 0.3 to 0.7°C SST increase. In addition, the response of Chl $a$ to SST observed in the present study suggested that a SST rise of 0.5°C would correspond to a 12–13% decline in near-surface Chl $a$ (surface Chl $a$, Chl $a_{0-50\text{m}}$) for stratified conditions between 13 to 23°C. The nonlinear nature of the Chl $a$ and PP versus SST responses also indicates stronger responses can be expected in regions with lower SST, whereas responses are smaller in regions with higher SST. Previously, relationships between stratification and phytoplankton biomass and Chl $a$ for the oligotrophic North Atlantic and Pacific were not detected (Dave and Lozier, 2010; Lozier et al., 2011), whereas they were observed in remote sensing data with SST above 16°C (Behrenfeld et al., 2006).

4.2 Stratification mediated shifts in phytoplankton biomass, productivity, and composition

In spring, stations above 47° N showed minimal stratification, with potential density differences in the upper 200 m of 0.029 ± 0.02 kg m$^{-3}$. This is less than the reported 0.12 kg m$^{-3}$ difference for eddy-driven stratification that preceded thermal stratification in the same region in 2008 (Mahadevan et al., 2012), but corresponds with values (0.025 kg m$^{-3}$) where phytoplankton biomass accumulation in the upper 150 m was observed around New Zealand (Chiswell, 2011). At our non-stratified stations, we observed relatively low surface Chl $a$ (0.7 ± 0.3 mg Chl $a$ m$^{-3}$), and up to 70% of the Chl $a$ was below the euphotic zone. Comparable observations were reported during late winter–early spring by Backhaus et al. (2003) for the Icelandic Basin. Inevitably, the occurrence of phytoplankton below the euphotic zone will slow down growth rates of the phytoplankton standing stock. However, productivity estimates for the euphotic zone of non-stratified stations in the present study were not significantly different compared to those from stratified mesotrophic stations in spring.

Increased surface Chl $a$ in response to stratification of the water column represents the classical view of the spring bloom at mid- and higher latitudes (Sverdrup, 1953). However, the present study suggests that the pre-bloom conditions, with minimal stratification in the upper 200 m (beginning of May, latitude 49–62° N), were more rich in terms of depth-integrated Chl $a$ (129 ± 32 mg Chl $a$ m$^{-2}$) compared with surface blooms at midlatitudes in spring (44–45° N, up to 112 ± 13 mg Chl $a$ m$^{-2}$) and surface blooms at higher latitudes in summer (59–62° N, 42 ± 13 mg Chl $a$ m$^{-2}$). This also illustrates that surface Chl $a$ concentration can be a poor indicator of phytoplankton standing stock, since surface Chl $a$ was lower during pre-bloom conditions (0.7 ± 0.3 mg Chl $a$ m$^{-3}$) compared with spring (1.8 ± 0.3 mg Chl $a$ m$^{-3}$) and summer...
(1.3 ± 0.3 mg Chl \text{a} m^{-3}) \) blooms. It was earlier observed that phytoplankton growth increased with increasing light in winter and early spring in the absence of stratification (Behrenfeld, 2010). This increase in Chl \text{a} can be masked by the diluting effect of deep convective and wind-induced vertical mixing as proposed by Boss and Behrenfeld (2010).

Relationships between the contribution of taxonomic groups to productivity and SST were different for stratified and non-stratified stations. In the latter stations, productivity of group 3 (prasinophytes, cryptophytes) was inversely correlated with SST (7–12 °C), whereas group 4 (haptophytes) and 5 (diatoms) were positively correlated with SST. This suggested that temperature constrains productivity of the latter groups within this temperature range. In the present study, the nutrient-rich conditions associated with non-stratified stations supported significant diatom productivity (up to 60 %) above SST of 8 °C. After stratification, the relatively large and heavy diatoms typically become nutrient (Si) limited (Alkire et al., 2012). Furthermore, contraction of the mixed layer and the euphotic zone due to stratification traps a large amount of the phytoplankton in the dark ocean (Backhaus et al., 2003). Estimated class-specific productivity from SeaWiFS observations showed that the strongest productivity anomalies occurred in early spring in the temperate and subpolar North Atlantic, coinciding with diatom productivity (Uitz et al., 2010). Therefore, it can be expected that differences in annual primary production are in large part caused by variability in diatom productivity.

The nutrient concentrations in the euphotic zone of stratified stations were on average five times lower compared to those of the non-stratified stations. Furthermore, low N : P ratios indicated mostly N-limitation in the upper euphotic zone (0–50 m) of stratified stations. This is consistent with factorial nutrient addition experiments in the oligotrophic North Atlantic that have identified N as the primary limiting nutrient (Davey et al., 2008; Moore et al., 2008). Therefore, the ability to compete for nutrients can be expected to be an important driver of changes in phytoplankton composition in the stratified North Atlantic. In the present study, changes in phytoplankton groups that contributed to primary production were observed along the latitudinal gradient in N\text{0.125 m} and P\text{0.125 m}. Overall, the haptophyte pigment signature was dominant in spring and summer. Moreover, an inverse correlation was observed for the contribution of group 4 (dominated by haptophytes) and SST, whereas there was a positive correlation between SST and group 1 and 2 (cyanobacteria) in stratified stations. This suggests that increased SST will increase the contribution of less productive species, such as Prochlorococcus, at the expense of more productive species, such as haptophytes, at low and midlatitudes. Furthermore, the present study also suggests that haptophytes succeed diatoms after stratification in spring at higher latitudes. Therefore, earlier stratification in spring would prolong the growth season of haptophytes at higher latitudes in the North Atlantic Ocean.

### 4.3 Productivity modeling and assumptions

Reported productivity in the North Atlantic subtropical gyre varied between 100 and 350 mg C m^{-2} d^{-1} (Morel et al., 1996; Marañón et al., 2000, 2003). Claustre et al. (2005) estimated daily primary production rates of 939 ± 223 and 393 ± 80 mg C m^{-2} d^{-1} for spring and summer, respectively, in the North Atlantic between 39 to 45° N, which agrees with our estimates for this region. In the present study, N and P were not depleted in summer in the upper euphotic zone (0–50 m) of mesotrophic stations. Therefore, wind events can temporarily raise nutrient concentrations in the mixed layer in summer, making nutrient limitation less evident in these stations. At mesotrophic stations, reported productivity values do not show clear differences between summer and spring (500–2000 mg C m^{-2} d^{-1}, Bury et al., 2001; Weeks et al., 1993), whereas our estimates are in the same range but suggest higher productivity in summer.

Our productivity calculations were significantly influenced by the assumed photoacclimation state of the phytoplankton. Inclusion of these differences was motivated by observed differences in Chl \text{a} specific absorption and recovery of PSII quantum yield from excess light, which both indicated acclimation to lower irradiance in spring. In the present study, Chl \text{a} specific absorption was significantly lower (37 %) in spring compared to summer, as was also observed by Claustre et al. (2005). This may be caused by increased pigment packaging due to the presence of larger phytoplankton species such as diatoms. Furthermore, the relationships between Chl \text{a} fluorescence (CTD) and HPLC determined Chl \text{a} concentrations showed a decreased Chl \text{a} specific fluorescence yield in spring as compared to summer (data not shown), providing additional evidence for seasonal differences in the Chl \text{a} package effect. Most variability in Chl \text{a} specific absorption has been associated with changes in phytoplankton size structure (Bricaud et al., 2004). In the present study, reduced nutrient concentrations coincided with a shift to smaller phytoplankton species, which was also found in other studies (Agawin et al., 2000; Marañón et al., 2001; Bouman et al., 2011). Smaller species contain less Chl \text{a} per cell and therefore show less pigment packaging (Ciotti et al., 2002). Therefore, changes in phytoplankton cell size may contribute to the observed nonlinear relationship between Chl \text{a} and SST. However, acclimation to different light and nutrient conditions can also influence cellular Chl \text{a} and Chl \text{a} specific absorption, but the magnitude of these changes can vary among phytoplankton species (Geider et al., 1993; Kulk et al., 2011). Stronger turbulence in spring (Jurado et al., 2012b) may have reduced the light dose experienced by the phytoplankton, thereby increasing cellular pigment concentrations compared to the more stable summer conditions. Therefore, contributions of phytoplankton composition and photoacclimation on Chl \text{a} specific absorption cannot be fully separated. However, recovery of PSII quantum yield from excess light provided additional.

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evidence for acclimation to lower irradiance and less vertical structure in photosynthetic parameters in spring as compared to summer. Assuming low-light-acclimated phytoplankton in spring caused on average a 26% lower productivity for oligotrophic stations compared to the assumed vertical structure in photosynthetic parameters in summer. This underlines the importance of photoacclimation on the model results.

In the present study, several assumptions were made to model primary production from field measurements. Firstly, we applied a linear temperature correction to total modeled productivity. Typically, growth shows temperature dependence in specific oceanic phytoplankton species (Moore et al., 1995; Kulk et al., 2012). Eppley (1972) suggested that the temperature dependence of growth is exponential, with growth increasing with increasing temperature. However, compiled carbon fixation data and lab experiments suggest a linear response of productivity within the temperature range of 13–23°C (Behrenfeld et al., 1997; Montagnes and Franklin, 2001). Secondly, the model assumes that nutrient availability is reflected by differences in phytoplankton biomass and composition. This is in line with the observation that nutrient availability does not influence Chl a specific net primary production in Dunaliella tertiolecta (Halsey, 2011). Moreover, phytoplankton turnover rates in the ocean are on the order of days, which would eliminate nutrient starved phytoplankton species from the community. Finally, the model assumes a sinusoidal irradiance distribution during the day and therefore does not include effects of cloud cover and/or vertical mixing. However, Kulk et al. (2011) showed that there were no significant effects of a dynamic irradiance regime on phytoplankton carbon fixation characteristics (under nutrient replete conditions). At last, the productivity model does not account for spectral irradiance changes at depth. Validation of the productivity calculations with field productivity estimates was not possible in the present study. Therefore, the current productivity estimates should be viewed as potential productivity estimates, rather than actual measurements. Overall, the model approach can expand the use of phytoplankton pigments and provided useful insight in group specific productivity.

5 Conclusions

Our results show an inverse relationship between phytoplankton productivity and biomass with SST for the stratified North Atlantic Ocean with SST between 13 and 23°C. Furthermore, increasing SST was associated with a change in phytoplankton species composition from haptophytes to cyanobacteria at mid- and low latitudes. Since increases in North Atlantic SST are expected for the coming decades, phytoplankton may respond accordingly. Responses to a future temperature rise are more likely to be observed in high latitude Chl a and productivity due to the nonlinear relationship with SST. Increasing SST has been suggested to mediate different effects on phytoplankton biomass in subtropical (less productivity) and subpolar regions (increased productivity due to a longer growth season) in the North Atlantic. However, our data showed the highest depth-integrated Chl a at higher latitude non-stratified stations in spring, suggesting that phytoplankton blooms can start under minimal stratification. This indicated that possible earlier onset of stratification (and surface blooming) would not necessarily result in a longer and more productive season. In contrast, delayed stratification may prolong the growth season of diatoms, the most productive phytoplankton group that contributes significantly to carbon export into the deep ocean, whereas earlier stratification may expand the contribution of haptophytes at the expense of diatoms.

Supplementary material related to this article is available online at: http://www.biogeosciences.net/10/4227/2013/bg-10-4227-2013-supplement.pdf.

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References


