1	High resolution analysis of a North Sea phytoplankton
2	community structure based on in situ flow cytometry observations
3	and potential implication for remote sensing.
4	M. Thyssen ^{1*} , S. Alvain ¹ , A. Lefèbvre ² , D. Dessailly ¹ , M. Rijkeboer ⁴ , N. Guiselin ¹ ,
5	V. Creach ³ , LF. Artigas ¹
6	
7 8 9	[1] { <i>Université Lille Nord de France</i> – CNRS UMR 8187 Laboratoire d'Océanologie et de Géosciences, Université du Littoral Côte d'Opale, MREN, 32 Avenue Foch, 62930 Wimereux, France}
10 11	[*] {now at : <i>Aix Marseille Université</i> , CNRS/INSU, IRD, Mediterranean Institute of Oceanography (MIO), UM 110, <i>13288 Marseille</i> }
12	[2] {IFREMER LER, 150 quai Gambetta, 62200, Boulogne sur Mer, France}
13 14 15 16 17 18	 [3] {The Centre for Environment, Fisheries and Aquaculture Science (Cefas), Pakefield Road, NR33 0HT Lowestoft, United Kingdom} [4] {RWS Centre for Water Management. Laboratory for hydrobiological analysis. Zuiderwagenplein 2, 8224 AD Lelystad, The Netherlands}
19	*Corresponding author: M. Thyssen (melilotus.thyssen@mio.osupytheas.fr)
20	
21	
22	Key words: Plankton functional type, automated scanning flow cytometry, PHYSAT, North
23	Sea, mapping.
24	
25	
26	
21 20	
28	

- 29 Abstract
- 30

31 Phytoplankton observation in the ocean can be a challenge in oceanography. Accurate 32 estimations of its biomass and dynamics will help to understand ocean ecosystems and refine 33 global climate models. Relevant datasets of phytoplankton defined at a functional level and on 34 a daily and sub meso scale are thus required. In order to achieve this, an automated, high frequency, dedicated scanning flow cytometer (SFC, Cytobuoy, NL), has been developed to 35 36 cover the entire size range of phytoplankton cells whilst simultaneously taking pictures of the largest of them. This cytometer was directly connected to the water inlet of a pocket Ferry 37 38 Box during a cruise in the North Sea, 8-12 May 2011 (DYMAPHY project, INTERREG IV A 39 "2 Seas"), in order to identify the phytoplankton community structure of near surface waters 40 (6 m) with a high spatial resolution basis $(2.2 \pm 1.8 \text{ km})$. Ten groups of cells, distinguished on the basis of their optical pulse shapes, were described (abundance, size estimate, red 41 42 fluorescence per unit volume). Abundances varied depending on the hydrological status of the 43 traversed waters, reflecting different stages of the North Sea blooming period. Comparisons 44 between several techniques analyzing chlorophyll a and the scanning flow cytometer, using 45 the integrated red fluorescence emitted by each counted cell, showed significant correlations. 46 For the first, time, the community structure observed from the automated flow cytometry 47 dataset was compared with PHYSAT reflectance anomalies over a daily scale. The number of 48 matchups observed between the SFC automated high frequency in situ sampling and remote 49 sensing was found to be more than two times better than when using traditional water 50 sampling strategies. Significant differences in the phytoplankton community structure within 51 the two days for which matchups were available suggest that it is possible to label PHYSAT 52 anomalies using automated flow cytometry to resolve not only dominant groups, but 53 community structure.

Phytoplankton plays a major role in marine ecosystems as the most important primary 56 57 producer in the ocean (Field et al. 1998). Phytoplankton is involved in the long-term trapping 58 of atmospheric carbon and its role in carbon transfer from the upper ocean layers to deep 59 waters highlight its influence on climate (Boyce et al. 2010; Marinov et al. 2010). Beyond its role in the carbon cycle, phytoplankton also plays a major role in modifying the 60 61 biogeochemical properties of water masses by converting most of the inorganic matter into 62 available organic matter (nitrogen, phosphate, silicate, sulfur, iron); and determining the 63 structure of the trophic status of marine environments. Given this importance, it is insufficient 64 to use a single proxy, such as chlorophyll *a* measurements, for quantifying and qualifying phytoplankton over large scales when attempting to understand its role in biogeochemical 65 66 processes (Colin et al. 2004). Such a proxy does not reflect changes in community structure 67 (Hirata et al. 2011) and does not yield robust biomass estimations (Kruskopf and Flynn 2006). 68 Yet this classical proxy is frequently used to study the spatial and temporal variability of 69 phytoplankton from both remotely sensed and *in situ* measurements. LeQuéré (LeQuéré et al. 70 2005) pointed out the importance of taking into account the functionality of phytoplankton 71 species when considering the influence of phytoplankton community structure on 72 biogeochemical processes. This functionality concept (i.e. Phytoplankton Functional Types, 73 PFT) is described as set of species sharing similar properties or responses in relation to the 74 main biogeochemical processes such as the N, P, Si, C and S cycles (diazotrophs for N cycle 75 such as Cyanobacteria, diméthylsulfoniopropionate producers for S cycle such as Phaeocystis, 76 silicifiers for Si cycle such as Diatoms, calcifiers for C cycle such as Coccolithophorids, size 77 classes mainly used for C cycle).

78 Representative data sets of phytoplankton functional types, size classes and specific 79 chlorophyll a concentrations are the subject of active research using high frequency in situ 80 dedicated analysis from automated devices such as spectral fluorometers, particle scattering 81 and absorption spectra recording instruments, or automated and remotely controlled scanning 82 flow cytometry (SFC). Among the high frequency in situ techniques used to quantify 83 phytoplankton abundance, community structure and dynamics, SFC is the most advanced 84 instrument, counting and recording cell optical properties at the single cell level. This 85 technology has recently been adapted for the analysis of almost all the phytoplankton size 86 classes and focuses on the resolution of phytoplankton community structure dynamics 87 (Dubelaar et al. 1999; Olson et al. 2003; Sosik et al. 2003; Thyssen et al. 2008a; Thyssen et 88 al. 2008b). In parallel, algorithms applied to remote sensing data have been developed which 89 are dedicated to characterizing phytoplankton groups, PFTs or size classes (Sathyendranath et 90 al. 2004; Ciotti et al. 2006; Nair et al. 2008; Aiken et al. 2008; Kostadinov et al. 2010; Uitz et 91 al. 2010; Moisan et al. 2012). One of these algorithms, PHYSAT, has provided a description 92 of the dominant phytoplankton functional types (LeQuéré et al., 2005) for open waters on a 93 global scale, leading to various studies concerning the PFT variability (Alvain et al. 2005; 94 Alvain et al. 2013; Masotti et al. 2011; Demarcq et al. 2011, Navarro et al., 2014). PHYSAT 95 relies on the identification of water-leaving radiance spectra anomalies, empirically associated 96 with the presence of specific phytoplankton groups in the surface water. The anomalies were 97 labeled thanks to the comparison with high pressure liquid chromatography (HPLC) biomarker pigment match ups. To date, six dominant phytoplankton functional groups in open 98 99 waters (Diatoms, Nanoeukaryotes, Prochlorococcus, Synecochoccus, Phaeocystis-like, 100 Coccolithophorids) have been found to be significantly related to specific water-leaving 101 radiance anomalies from SeaWiFS (Sea-viewing Wide Field-of-view Sensor) sensor measurements at a resolution of 9 km (Alvain et al. 2008). These relationships have been 102

verified by theoretical optical models (Alvain *et al.* 2012). This theoretical study also showed
that additional groups or assemblages could be added in the future, once accurate *in situ*observations are available.

106 Describing the community structure on a regional scale will give better quantification 107 and understanding of the phytoplankton responses to environmental change and consequently, 108 support the modification of theoretical considerations regarding energy fluxes across trophic 109 levels. It is critical for understanding community structure interactions and particularly when 110 it is necessary to take into account the meso-scale structure in a specific area (D'Ovidio et al. 111 2010), which is the case in areas under the influence of regional physical forcing such as the 112 English Channel and the North Sea. Long-term changes detected in these regions have been 113 shown to impact local ecosystem functioning by inducing, for instance, a shift in the timing of 114 the spring bloom (Wiltshire and Manly 2004; Sharples et al. 2009; Vargas et al. 2009; Racault 115 et al. 2013) or specific migrations of regional (Gomez and Souissi 2007) or dominant 116 phytoplankton groups (Widdicombe et al. 2010). In addition, hydrodynamic conditions have 117 been shown to play a strong role in the phytoplankton distribution on a regional scale 118 (Gailhard et al. 2002; Leterme et al. 2008). It is therefore crucial to develop specific 119 approaches to characterize the phytoplankton community structure (beyond global-scale 120 dominance) and its high frequency variation in time and space. In order to achieve this, large 121 data sets of *in situ* analyses resolving PFT are essential for specific calibration and validation 122 of regional remote sensing algorithms such as PHYSAT. Flow-through surface water 123 properties analysis for remote sensing calibration optimizes the amount of matchups (Werdell 124 et al., 2010; Chase et al., 2013). For the purpose of collecting high resolution in situ data 125 describing phytoplankton community structure, automated SFC technology allows samples to 126 be collected at high frequency, resolving hourly and km scales with a totally automated 127 system. The instrument enables single cell analysis of phytoplankton from 1 to 800 µm and several mm in length for chain forming cells and automated sampling allows large space and
time domains to be covered at a high resolution (Sosik *et al.* 2003; Thyssen *et al.* 2008b;
Thyssen *et al.* 2009; Ribalet *et al.* 2010).

131 Based on this approach, a high frequency study of the phytoplankton community 132 structure in the North Sea was conducted. The *in situ* observations from SFC have been used 133 for the first time and as a first trial to label PHYSAT anomalies detected during the sampling 134 period. Thus, the available dataset makes it possible to distinguish between different water-135 leaving radiance anomaly signatures in which significantly distinct phytoplankton community 136 structures can be described, rather than just the dominant communities, as it is the case in 137 previous studies. Our results are an improvement over conventional approaches as they allow 138 the distribution of phytoplankton community structure to be characterized at a high resolution, 139 from both *in situ* and day-to-day water-leaving radiance anomaly maps specific to the study 140 area.

141

142

2. Materials and Methods

143 Samples were collected during the PROTOOL/DYMAPHY-project cruise onboard the 144 RV Cefas Endeavour from the 8 to 12 May 2011 in the south-west region of the North Sea (Figure 1). Automated coupled sampling using a Pocket FerryBox (PFB) and a Cytosense 145 146 scanning flow cytometer (SFC, Cytobuoy, b.v.) started on the 8 May at 9:00 UTC and ended 147 on the 12 May at 4:00 UTC. Water was continuously collected from a depth of 6 m and 148 entered the PFB at a pressure of 1 bar maximum. Sub-surface discrete samples were collected 149 using Niskin bottles on a rosette and analyzed using a second Cytosense SFC (Stations 4, 6 150 and 13 were used in this paper, Figure 1).

2.1. Phytoplankton community structure from automated SFC

152 Phytoplankton abundance and group description were determined by using two 153 Cytosense SFCs (Cytobuoy, b.v.), one was fixed close to the PFB and sampling the 154 continuous flow of pumped sea water, the second one was used for pictures collection from 155 discrete samples. These instruments are dedicated to phytoplankton single cell recording, 156 enabling cells from 1 µm to 800 µm and several mm in length to be analysed routinely in 1-10 cm^3 of sea water. Each single cell or particle in suspension in the solution passes through the 157 158 laser beam thanks to the principle of hydrodynamic focusing. The instrument then records the 159 resulting optical pulse shapes and count each single particle.

160 2.1.1. Automation of the continuous flow sampling

Automated measurements were run from the continuous flow of sea water passing through the PFB. Samples for SFC were automatically collected from a 450 cm³ sampling unit where water from the continuous flow was periodically stabilized. This sampling unit was designed to collect bypass water from the 1 bar PFB inlet. The sampling unit water was replaced within a minute. One of the Cytosenses was directly connected to the sampling unit and two successive analyses with two distinct protocols were scheduled automatically every 10 min.

168 2.1.2. Flow cytometry analysis

169 A calibrated peristaltic pump was used to estimate the analysed volumes and send the 170 sample to the SFC optical unit. Suspended particles were then separated using a laminar flow 171 and subsequently crossed a laser beam (Coherent, 488 nm, 20 mV). The instrument recorded 172 the pulse shapes of forward scatter (FWS) and side ward scatter (SWS) signals as well as red, 173 orange and yellow fluorescence (FLR, FLO, FLY respectively) signals for each chain or 174 single cell. The Cytosense instrument was equipped with two sets of photomultiplier (PMT) 175 tubes (high sensitivity and low sensitivity modes), resolving a wider range of optical signals 176 from small (~<10 μ m) to large particles (~<800 μ m). Two trigger levels were applied on the 177 high sensitivity PMT to discriminate highly concentrated eukaryotic picophytoplankton and cyanobacteria (trigger level: FLR 10 mV; acquisition time: 180 s; sample flow rate: 4.5 178 mm.s), from less concentrated nano- and microphytoplankton (trigger level: FLR 25 mV, 179 acquisition time: 400 s; sample flow rate: 9 mm $\stackrel{3}{.s}$). Setting the trigger on red fluorescence 180 181 was preferred to the commonly FWS or SWS triggering as a tradeoff between representative phytoplankton data sets and non-fluorescing particles/noise recording, but this procedure 182 183 affected the SWS and FWS pulse shapes to some extent. To ensure good control and 184 calibration of the instrument settings, a set of spherical beads with different diameters was 185 analysed daily. This allowed the definition of estimated-size calibration-curves between Total FWS (in arbitrary units) and actual bead size. This set of beads included 1, 6, 20, 45, 90 µm 186 187 yellow green fluorescence from Polyscience Fluoresbrite microspheres, 10 µm orange fluorescence Invitrogen polystyrene Fluorosphere, and 3 µm 488 nm Cyto-calTMAlignment 188 189 standards. To correct for the high refraction index of polystyrene beads that generates an 190 underestimation of cell size, we defined a correcting factor by using 1.5 µm silica beads 191 (Polyscience, Silica microspheres) (Foladori et al. 2008). The phytoplankton community was 192 described using several two-dimensional cytograms built with the Cytoclus® software. For 193 each autofluorescing phytoplankton cell analysed, the integrated value of FLR pulse shape 194 (Total red fluorescence TFLR, a.u.) was calculated. For each phytoplankton cluster, the amount of TFLR is reported per unit volume (TFLR.cm⁻³, a.u..cm⁻³). The TFLR.cm⁻³ of each 195 resolved phytoplankton cluster was summed (Total TFLR.cm⁻³) and was used as a proxy for 196 197 chlorophyll a concentration. The TFLR signal was corrected from high sensitivity PMT 198 saturation signal in the case of highly fluorescing cells (> 4000 mV) thanks to the low 199 sensitivity PMTs that behaved linearly with the high sensitivity PMT, allowing the 200 reconstruction of the high sensitivity signal.

201 Discrete samples were collected during the cruise and analyzed using a second 202 Cytosense SFC equipped with the Image in Flow system. The samples were analysed using 203 settings similar to those of the Cytosense coupled to the PFB. The amount of pictures was 204 determined before each sample acquisition and pictures were randomly collected within the 205 largest particles until the predetermined number of pictures was reached.

206

2.2. Temperature and Salinity

207 The PFB (4H-JENA©) was fixed on the wet laboratory bench, close to the Cytosense, 208 in order to share the same water inlet. This instrument recorded temperature and conductivity 209 (from which salinity was computed) from the clean water supplied by the ship's seawater 210 pumping system at a frequency of one sample every minute.

211 Within the PFB dataset, only data related to automated SFC analyses were selected for 212 plotting temperature – salinity diagrams.

213

2.3. Chlorophyll a

214 Samples for High Pressure Liquid Chromatography (HPLC) analyses and bench top 215 fluorometry (Turner® fluorometer) were collected randomly within 6 hour periods before or 216 after the supposed on-board Aqua MODIS (Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer) 217 sensor passage (12:30 pm UTC) to fulfill classical requirements in terms of in situ and 218 remotely sensed matchup criteria. Samples were collected from the outlet of the PFB, filtered 219 onto GF/F filters and stored directly in a -80°C freezer. The HPLC analyses were run on an Agilent Technologie, 1200 series. Pigments were extracted using 3 cm³ ethanol containing 220 221 vitamin E acetate as described by Claustre et al. (2004) and adapted by Van Heukelem and 222 Thomas (2001). For bench top fluorometry, the filters were subsequently extracted in 90% 223 acetone. Chlorophyll a (chla) concentration was evaluated by fluorometry using a Turner Designs Model 10-AU fluorometer (Yentsch and Menzel 1963). The fluorescence was 224

measured before and after acidification with HCl (Lorenzen 1966). The fluorometer wascalibrated using known concentrations of commercially purified chla (Sigma-Aldrich®).

The PFB was equipped with a multiple fixed wavelength spectral fluorometer (AOA
fluorometer, bbe©) sampling once every minute to obtain chla values.

229 MODIS chla values corresponded to Level-3 binned data consisting of the 230 accumulated daily Level-2 data with a 4.6 km resolution.

231

2.4. Mixed layer depth

Daily water column temperature mapping was obtained from the Forecasting Ocean Assimilation Model 7 km Atlantic Margin model (FOAM AMM7), available at MyOcean data base (http://www.myocean.eu.org/). Model output temperature depths were as follows: 0, 3, 10, 15, 20, 30, 50, 75, 100, 125, 150 m. Average mixed layer depth (MLD) on the 5 sampling days was calculated from daily temperature datasets. MLD was defined as the depth associated with an observed temperature difference of more than 0.2 °C with respect to the surface (defined at 10 m, de Boyer Montégut *et al.* 2004).

239 2.5. Matching method between in situ and remotely sensed observations for 240 phytoplankton community structure.

The PHYSAT approach is based on the identification of specific signatures in the 241 242 water leaving radiance (nLw) spectra measured by an ocean color sensor. It is described in 243 detail by Alvain et al. (2005, 2008). Briefly, this empirical method has been first established 244 by using two kinds of simultaneous and coincident measurements: nLw measurements and in 245 situ measurements of diagnostic phytoplankton pigments. The presence of a specific 246 phytoplankton group was established based on pigment analysis. In a first step, this approach 247 has allowed to detect four dominant phytoplankton groups identified within the available in 248 situ data set, based on the pigment inventories. Four groups were detected first (diatoms, 249 nanoeukaryotes, Synechococcus and Prochlorococcus) when they are dominant. Note that here, "dominant" has been defined by Alvain *et al.* (2005) as situations in which a given phytoplankton group is a major contributor to the total diagnostic pigments. This represented a limitation in using other potential phytoplankton *in situ* analysis. In a second step, coincident remote sensed radiance anomalies (Ra) spectra between 412 and 555 nm were transformed into specific normalized water-leaving radiance or Ra spectra in order to evidence the second-order variability of the satellite signal. This was done by dividing the actual nLw by a mean nLw model (nLw_{ref}), which depends only on the standard chla.

257 Then, coincident nLw spectra and *in situ* analysis were used to show that every 258 dominant phytoplankton group sampled during in situ sampling is associated with a specific 259 Ra spectrum in terms of shape and amplitude. Based on this, a set of criteria has been defined 260 in order to characterize each group in function of its Ra spectrum, first by minimum and 261 maximum values approach and more recently using neuronal network classification tools 262 (Ben Mustapha et al., 2014). These criteria can be applied to global daily archives to get 263 global maps of the most frequent group of dominant phytoplankton. When no group prevails 264 over the month, the pixels are associated with an "unidentified" phytoplankton group.

265 In this study, remotely sensed observations were selected on the basis of quality criteria that ensured a high degree of confidence in PHYSAT as described in Alvain et al. 266 267 (2005). Thus, pixels were only considered when clear sky conditions were found and when 268 the aerosol optical thickness, a proxy of the atmospheric correction steps quality, was lower than 0.15. The effects of sediments and/or CDOM were minimized by focusing on 269 270 phytoplankton dominated waters as defined from the optical typology described in 271 Vantrepotte et al (2012). Waters classified as turbid were therefore excluded from the 272 empirical relationship since the PHYSAT method is currently not available for such areas. 273 Waters classified as non-turbid using the same criteria were selected and the PHYSAT algorithm applied. To link coincident in situ and remotely sensed observations, a match-up 274

exercise was carried out. Matching points between *in situ* SFC samples (considered as *in situ* data) and 4.6 km resolution MODIS pixels (highest L3 binned resolution) were selected by comparing their concomitant position day after day. When more than one *in situ* SFC sample was found in a MODIS pixel the averaged value of TFLR (a.u..cm⁻³) for each phytoplankton group was calculated.

280 2.6. Statistics

Statistics were run under R software (CRAN, <u>http://cran.r-project.org/</u>). Before running correlation and comparison tests on the different *in situ* sensors (for chla and Total TFLR), the Shapiro normality test was run. When data did not follow a normal distribution, a Wilcoxon signed rank test was applied. Correlations between data were defined using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

286 As the PHYSAT approach is based on the link between specific Ra spectra (in terms of 287 shapes and amplitudes) and specific phytoplankton composition, the set of remotely sensed 288 data was separated into distinct groups with similar Ra. The PHYSAT Ra found over the 289 studied area and matching the *in situ* SFC samples was differentiated by applying a k-means 290 clustering partitioning method (tested either around means (Everitt and Hothorn 2006) or 291 around menoids (Kaufman and Rousseeuw 1990)). The appropriate number of clusters 292 (distinct PHYSAT Ra) was decided with a plot of the within groups sum of squares by 293 number of clusters extracted. A hierarchical clustering was computed to illustrate the k-means clustering method. Within each k-mean cluster, SFC-defined phytoplankton community was 294 described and differences between TFLR.cm⁻³ per phytoplankton group were compared 295 296 within the different PHYSAT spectra clusters using the Wilcoxon signed rank test.

- **3. Results**
- **3.1. Temperature, Salinity and Mixed layer depth**

300 The sampling track crossed four North Sea marine zones: Western Humber, Tyne, 301 Dogger, Eastern Humber and Thames (Fig. 1). The PFB measured temperature associated 302 with the SFC samples ranged between 8.83 °C and 12.39°C with an average of 10.67 ± 0.72 303 °C. Minimal temperatures were found in the western Humber area (53-55°N and -1-1°E) and 304 maximal temperatures were found in the Thames area (54-52°N, 2-4°E) (Fig. 2A). Salinity 305 from the PFB ranged between 34.02 and 35.07 with an average value of 34.6 ± 0.26 . Highest 306 salinity values were found in the Dogger area above 55°N and in the limit between the 307 Humber and the Thames areas, 53°N. Lowest salinity values were found in the Tyne area 308 around 55°N, -1 °E and in the Thames area (by the Thames plume; Fig. 2B).

The mixed layer depth calculated from the FOAM AMM7 was used to illustrate the physical environment of the traversed water masses. Different mixed layer depth characterized the sampled area, with deeper MLD in the northern part (15 to 30 m) and a shallower MLD in the southern area (~10 m, Fig.1). A tongue of shallow MLD (~10 m) surrounded by deeper MLD (~20 m) crossed the sampling area at ~55°N and ~3°E.

314

3.2. Phytoplankton community from SFC analysis

315 A total of 247 SFC validated analysed samples were collected during this experiment. 316 Average distance between samples collected with the automated SFC was of 2.2 \pm 1.8 km 317 when the system ran continuously. The sampling rate was 25 ± 45 min. Up to 10 318 phytoplankton clusters were resolved (Fig. 3) based on their optical fingerprints from SFC 319 analysis. The 10 discriminated clusters were labeled as follows: PicoORG (Fig. 3A), 320 PicoRED (Fig. 3A), NanoSWS (Fig. 3B), NanoRED1 (Fig. 3C), NanoRED2 (Fig. 3B and 321 3C); Micro1 (Fig. 3C and 3D), MicroLowORG (Fig. 3A), NanoORG and MicroORG (Fig. 322 3D) and Micro2 (Fig 3D). Pictures were randomly collected (between 20 and 60 pictures per 323 sample within Micro2) and were used to illustrate the most frequently encountered class (Fig. 324 4). Station 4 (Fig. 4A) sampled at 12 m, showed mostly a mixture of dinoflagellate-like cells 325 (25 pictures collected within 47 Micro2 cluster's counted cells). Station 6 (Fig. 4B) sampled
326 at 7 m, showed pictures composed mainly of diatoms (*Thalassiosira* and *Chaetoceros*, 11
327 images collected among 28 Micro2 cluster's counted cells). Station 13 (Fig. 4C) sampled at 7
328 m, gave a mixture of diatoms and dinoflagellates (58 pictures shot among the 99 Micro2
329 cluster's counted cells: 5 *Chaetoceros*, 30 *Rhizosolenia*, 10 Dinoflagellates, one flagellate and
330 several unidentified cells).

Cell abundance, average cell size and TLFR.cm⁻³ for each cluster are illustrated on 331 332 Figures 5, 6 and 7 respectively. Average abundance and sizes of each cluster are addressed in 333 Table 1. PicoRED cells were on average, the most abundant in the studied area (Fig. 5B and Table 1) followed by NanoRED2, PicoORG, NanoRED1 and Micro1 (Fig. 5F, 5A, 5C and 5G 334 respectively, Table 1). The other cluster's abundances were below 1.10^2 cells.cm⁻³ on average 335 336 (Fig. 5D, E, H, I, J; Table 1). PicoORG cells were the smallest estimated (Fig. 6A, Table 1), 337 while the largest estimated were MicroORG, MicroLowORG and Micro2 cells (Fig. 6H, 6I 338 and 6J respectively, Table 1).

339 The western Humber zone (Fig.1) was marked by the highest abundances of PicoRED, 340 PicoORG, MicroORG, MicroLowORG and Micro1 (Fig. 5B, 5A, 5H, 5I and 5G). The eastern 341 part of the Humber zone (Fig.1) was marked by the highest abundances of NanoRED1 and 342 Micro1 (as for the western part) (Fig. 5C, 5G). High values of PicoRED were also observed in 343 this part of the Humber zone. The Tyne zone (Fig.1) had the highest abundance of NanoORG 344 and Micro2 clusters (Fig. 5D, 5J), and the lowest abundance of PicoRED and NanoSWS. 345 High abundance values of MicroORG were also observed (Fig. 5H). The size of the 346 NanoSWS and the NanoRED2 were the greatest in this zone (Fig. 6E, 6F). The Dogger zone 347 (Fig.1) was dominated in terms of abundance by the PicoRED and the PicoORG, where the 348 sizes were the smallest (Fig. 6B and 6A) but did not show the highest abundance values. The 349 cell sizes of Micro1 were the greatest in this zone (Fig. 6G). Observations in the Thames zone (Fig.1) produced the maximal abundance of NanoSWS and NanoRED2 (Fig. 6E, 6F). Sizes
were the greatest for PicoORG, NanoRED1 and NanoSWS (together with the Tyne zone; Fig.
6A, 6C, 6E). TFLR follows similar trends to abundance (Fig. 7).

353 **3.3. Comparison between scanning flow cytometry, Total Red Fluorescence** and chlorophyll *a* analysis

355 Several bench top and *in situ* instruments, i.e. HPLC, Turner fluorometer and the PFB 356 AOA fluorometer, were used to give either exact and/or proxy values of chla. Similarly to 357 temperature and salinity, the PFB AOA fluorometer samples were selected to match SFC 358 samples. Overall values of chla originating from these instruments were superimposed to the Total TFLR.cm⁻³ (by summing up the TFLR.cm⁻³ values of the observed cluster) and the 359 360 MODIS chla values matching the points on Figure 8. HPLC values varied between 0.21 and 7.58 μ g.dm⁻³ with an average of 1.57 ± 2.01 μ g.dm⁻³. Turner fluorometer values varied 361 between 0.41 and 2.31 with an average of $1.24 \pm 0.7 \ \mu g.dm^{-3}$. AOA fluorometer values varied 362 between 0.73 and 28.53 μ g.dm⁻³ with an average of 4.44 ± 5.54 μ g.dm⁻³. The Total TFLR.cm⁻³ 363 364 from SFC, normalized with 3 µm bead red fluorescence varied between 5011 and 399200 a.u..cm⁻³ with an average value of 64394.5 \pm 67488.4 a.u..cm⁻³. The Shapiro normality test 365 366 showed non normality for each of the variables so a Wilcox test was run between techniques 367 involving similar units. HPLC and Turner chla concentrations were significantly not different 368 (n=9, p=0.65) and the correlation was significant (Spearman, r=0.98, Table 2). The absolute 369 values from both techniques were significantly different from the AOA fluorometer values 370 (n=9, p<0.001 for both) but were significantly correlated (Spearman, r=0.86 and r=0.82 for HPLC and Turner fluorometer respectively, Table 2). The SFC Total TFLR (a.u..cm) 371 372 summing up the TFLR of all the phytoplankton groups was used for comparison with other

373 chla determinations. Correlations with the AOA fluorometer, the HPLC and the Turner374 fluorometer results were all significant as shown in Table 2.

375 3.4. PHYSAT anomalies and SFC phytoplankton community composition, 376 extrapolation to the non-turbid classified waters in the North Sea

377 Considering our database of coincident SFC in situ and MODIS remotely sensed 378 observations, a total of 56 matching points were identified, from which only 38 points 379 corresponded to non-turbid classified waters. Matching points between in situ sampling and 380 remote sensing pixels for the purpose of the PHYSAT empirical calibration were selected in 381 the daytime period 6 - 18 h. Additional samples collected out of this period results in the loss 382 of correlation significance between MODIS chla and the AOA fluorometer chla within the SFC dataset (r=0.49, p=0.06, n=15, Spearman rank test), leaving 15 SFC matching points 383 (Fig. 1 and Fig. 8). The chla values found in the matching points were lower than 0.5 µg.dm 384 385 (Fig. 8).

386 PHYSAT radiance anomalies (Ra) were calculated based on the 2005 method (Alvain 387 et al., 2005) and the average signal was recalculated to fit the sampling area. The Ra were 388 separated into two distinct anomalies using the within sum of square minimization (Fig. 9A) 389 and illustrated on a dendrogram (Fig. 9B). These two distinct types of anomalies in terms of 390 shape and amplitude are illustrated in Figure 9C and 9D and the anomaly characteristics are 391 summarized on Table 3. The first anomaly set (N1, Table 3) was composed of 5 spectra that 392 had overall higher values than the second anomaly set (N2, Table 3), composed of the other 10 spectra. The corresponding SFC cluster proportion of TFLR.cm⁻³ to the overall Total 393 TFLR.cm⁻³ found within the two anomalies are illustrated in Figures 10 A and B. Similarly, 394 the relative difference of each phytoplankton cluster's TFLR.cm⁻³ within the two anomalies to 395 its overall TFLR.cm⁻³ median value are illustrated in Figures 10 C and D. Considering our 396 397 previous analyses, N1 and N2 community structures were dominated by NanoRED2

TFLR.cm⁻³ (Fig. 10A and 10B). Regarding each distinct cluster relative difference to its 398 399 overall median value, samples corresponding to N1 anomalies had significantly higher NanoRED1 TFLR.cm⁻³, higher NanoORG TFLR.cm⁻³ and higher MicroORG TFLR.cm⁻³; 400 while the samples corresponding to N2 anomalies had only higher PicoRED TFLR.cm 401 402 (Wilcox rank test, N1, n=5; N2, n=10, Fig. 10C and 10D). Temperature, salinity, MODIS chla and SFC Total TFLR.cm⁻³ found in each *in situ* sample corresponding to both sets of 403 404 anomalies are illustrated in Fig. 11. Samples found in the N1 pixels were significantly warmer 405 $(11.3 \pm 0.32^{\circ}C \text{ in N1} \text{ and } 10.94 \pm 0.23^{\circ}C \text{ in N2}, p<0.1$, Wilcox rank test, Fig. 11A), not 406 significantly different in terms of salinity, although N1 waters were less salty (Fig. 11B), significantly richer in chla $(0.87 \pm 0.19 \ \mu\text{g.dm}^{-3}$ in N1 and $0.43 \pm 0.07 \ \mu\text{g.dm}^{-3}$ in N2, p<0.01, 407 Wilcox rank test, Fig. 11C), but not significantly different in Total TFLR.cm⁻³ values (Fig. 408 409 11D).

410 Considering the specificity of each set of Ra in terms of phytoplankton and 411 environmental conditions, it's interesting to map their frequency of detection in our area of 412 interest. A pixel is associated with an anomaly when the Ra values at each wavelength 413 fulfilled the criteria of Table 3. The frequencies of occurrence over the sampling period based 414 on a composite overlapping the sampling period are illustrated in Fig. 12A and 12B. Pixels 415 corresponding to N1 anomaly were mostly found in the 54-56°N area (Dogger and German, 416 Fig. 1), following the edge between the shallow MLD tongue and the deepest MLD zones 417 (Fig. 1), but also near the Northern Scottish coast (Forth, Forties and Cromarty, Fig. 12A), 418 where MLD was shallow (Fig. 1). The N2 anomaly pixels were mostly found in the Forties, 419 Fisher and German area, on much smaller surfaces (Fig. 12B).

420

424 Water mass dynamics generates patchiness which modifies phytoplankton 425 community structure and makes it difficult to follow a population over time and at a basin 426 scale. In this context, the hourly observation of phytoplankton at the single cell and the 427 community level and its daily spatial structure resolution from extrapolation using PFT 428 remote sensing mapping can help to follow spatial distribution of phytoplankton communities. 429 The improvement of PFT mapping, i.e. from dominant groups to the community structure 430 resolution, is one of the ideas generated in this paper. This paper shows for the first time that 431 SFC datasets can be used for labeling PHYSAT anomalies at the daily scale. The SFC is a 432 powerful automated system aimed to be implemented in several vessels of opportunity and 433 monitoring programs for future PHYSAT anomalies identification at the daily scale and at the 434 community structure level. A recent publication that enables the classification of a large range 435 of anomaly spectra (Ben Mustapha et al., 2014) should help to make this easier. Thus, the 436 knowledge and the tools are available, which augurs well for understanding phytoplankton 437 heterogeneity and variability over high resolution spatio-temporal scales. Indeed, resolving 438 phytoplankton community structure over the sub meso scale and hourly scale is a good way to understand the influence of environmental short scale events (Thyssen et al., 2008a; Lomas et 439 440 al. 2009), seasonal (or not) succession schemes, resilience capacities of the community after 441 environmental changes and impacts on the specific growth rates (Sosik et al. 2003, Dugenne 442 et al., 2014). Resolving the community structure and the causes of variations at several 443 temporal and spatial scales has great importance in further understanding the phytoplankton 444 functional role in biogeochemical processes. This scale information is currently lacking for 445 the global integration of phytoplankton in biogeochemical models, mainly due to the lack of

adequate technology which is needed to integrate the different levels of complexity linked tophytoplankton community structure.

448 **Phytoplankton community description**

449 Phytoplankton community structure from automated SFC is described through clusters 450 of analyzed particles sharing similar optical properties. Thus cluster identification at the 451 species level is speculative and, as any cytometric optical signature, it needs a sorting and 452 genetic or microscopic analysis to be resolved at the taxonomic level. This deep level of 453 phytoplankton diversity resolution requirement is not needed in biogeochemical processes 454 studies in which functionality is preferred to taxonomy (LeQuéré et al., 2005). In this context, 455 most of the optical clusters could be described at the plankton functional type level because of 456 some singular similarities combining abundance, size, pigments and structure proxies 457 obtained from optical SFC variables (Chisholm et al. 1988; Veldhuis and Kraay 2000; Rutten 458 et al. 2005; Zubkov and Burkill 2006). The Cytobuoy instrument used in this study was 459 developed to identify phytoplankton cells from picophytoplankton up to large 460 microphytoplankton with complex shapes, even those forming chains. Indeed, the volume analyzed was close to 3 cm³, giving accurate counts of clusters with abundances as low as 30 461 cells.cm⁻³ (100 cells counted), under which, coefficient of variation exceeds 10% (Thyssen et 462 463 al., 2008a). Such low abundances were found for some of the clusters identified in this study (NanoORG, MicroORG and Micro2 clusters for which the median abundance value was close 464 to 30 cells.cm⁻³), in agreement with concentrations observed in previous studies for the 465 466 possibly related phytoplankton genus, as discussed below, i.e. cryptophytes (Buma et al. 467 1992), diatoms and dinoflagellates (Leterme et al. 2006). Previous comparisons between 468 bench top flow cytometry and remote sensing (Zubkov and Quartly, 2003) could technically 469 not include the entire size range of nano-microphytoplankton. The Cytobuoy SFC resolves 470 cells up to 800 µm in theory, but this depends on the counted cells in the volume sampled

471 (which is approximately ten times more than classical flow cytometry). However, the largest 472 part of phytoplankton production in the North Sea is driven by cells < 20 μ m (Nielsen *et al.* 473 1993), and we can consider this size class to be correctly counted with the SFC. Furthermore, 474 significance between the sum of each cluster's TFLR (Total TFLR.cm⁻³) and bulk chlorophyll 475 measurements (Table 2 and Fig. 7) confirms the power of SFC for phytoplankton community 476 resolution.

477 PicoORG cells could be labeled Synechococcus (Waterbury et al. 1979; Li1994) based 478 on their phycoerythrin pigment fluorescence (Fig. 3A), their size estimated between 0.8 and 1.2 μ m (Fig. 6A) and their abundances around 10² - 10⁴ cells.cm⁻³ (Fig. 5A). PicoRED cells 479 480 could be autotrophic eukaryotic picoplankton, as their cell size varied between 1-3 µm (Fig. 481 6B) and contained chla as their main pigment. Thus, PicoORG and PicoRED clusters 482 contained the smallest cells found above the so called non-fluorescing/electronical noise 483 background of this instrument (Fig. 3A and 3B). As Prochloroccocus is expected to be absent 484 in these waters, we can conclude that the cytometer observed most of the phytoplankton size 485 classes when sufficiently concentrated in the analysed volume. NanoRED1 cells exhibited 486 abundance and sizes close to those of *Phaeocystis* haploid flagellate cells (3-6 µm, Fig. 6C, 487 Rousseau et al. 2007 and references therein). Their presence, found mostly in the Humber 488 (Fig. 5C), suggests that this area corresponded to a period between the inter-bloom (haploid 489 stage, life stage persisting between two blooms of diploid colonial cells) and the start of the 490 Phaeocystis bloom (Rousseau et al., 2007). Similarly, NanoRED2 could be referred to as Phaeocystis diploid flagellates or free colonial cells, based on their size and abundance (4-8 491 μm and 0-50.10 cells.cm³ (Fig. 6F and 5F respectively), Rousseau et al., 2007). Their 492 493 maximal abundance was found in the southern North Sea Thames area. Their presence 494 suggested an area of *Phaeocystis* colonial blooming stage (Guiselin 2010).

495 MicroORG cells, whose abundance and size are close to those of some large 496 cryptophytes cells, were found in the same areas as NanoORG cells (Fig. 5H and 5D 497 respectively), which are related to smaller Cryptophyceae cells. MicroLowORG cells with 498 sizes close to that of MicroORG cells and although low in concentration, emitted orange 499 fluorescence and could represent cells with little phycoerythrin content. NanoSWS cluster 500 was composed of high SWS scattering cells that are consistent with the signature of 501 Coccolithophorideae cells (van Bleijswijk et al. 1994; Burkill et al., 2002). The observed 502 abundances did fit with the low Coccolithophorideae concentrations observed in the southern 503 North Sea (Houghton, 1991). The Micro1 cluster could correspond to small nanoplanktonic 504 diatom cells (~10-30 µm, Fig. 6G). Regarding the size range, this cluster could represent 505 several species. They were mainly found within the Humber area. The Micro2 cluster was 506 mostly composed of large diatoms (*Rhizosolenia*, *Chaetoceros*) and dinoflagellates (Fig. 4) 507 within the size range of 40 - 100 µm (Fig. 6J) as observed in the pictures (Fig. 4). The 508 presence of these groups illustrates the boundary between the end of the diatom bloom and the 509 development of a dinoflagellate bloom, from which it could be possible to make a link with 510 the *Dinophysis norvegica* and *Alexandrium* early summer bloom, observed in the Tyne region 511 by Dodge (Dodge 1977). This is in agreement with the stratification observed within the 512 Thames zone (Fig.1).

513 Phytoplankton community structure at the North Sea basin scale

The data sets from the spatial (km) and the temporal (hourly) scales for phytoplankton community structure based on single cell optical properties are important for validating the methods describing phytoplankton community structure from space. Ocean algorithms need specific information on water properties and phytoplankton structure and are dependent on validation from *in situ* observations, always complex to collect and limited by sky condition criteria. The PHYSAT method was built on an empirical relationship between dominant 520 phytoplankton functional types from in situ HPLC analysis and Ra. The method was thus limited to dominance cases only as HPLC analysis can't give us more information. The 521 522 remote sensing synoptic extrapolation concerning phytoplankton community structure 523 remains to be established and in spite of a theoretical validation (Alvain et al., 2012), still 524 depends on important in situ data point collection in order to build robust empirical 525 relationships. In this study, the combination of phytoplankton high frequency analysis from an 526 automated SFC with the PHYSAT method proved to be an excellent calibration by giving an 527 unprecedented amount of matching points for only two significant sampling days (number of 528 analyzed samples for non-turbid waters matching MODIS pixels: 38, number of used samples 529 between 6 and 18h: 15, corresponding to 39.5 % profitability), compared to the 14% matching 530 points from the GeP&CO dataset (Alvain et al., 2005).

531 The combination of SFC and PHYSAT has shown that a first set of specific anomalies 532 (N1) can be associated with NanoRED1, NanoORG and MicroORG, which contributed more to the Total TFLR.cm⁻³ (a proxy of chla, Fig. 7, Table 2) than in the second set of anomaly 533 (N2), in which PicoRED cells contributed significantly more to the Total TFLR.cm $^{-3}$, but also, 534 where Micro1 contribution to Total TFLR.cm $^{-3}$ was above its overall median value observed 535 536 along the matching points (Fig. 10D). Spatial successions between diatoms (as could be found 537 in the NanoRED1 and Micro1 clusters) and cryptophytes (corresponding to the NanoORG 538 and MicroORG specific signatures) revealed differences in stratification, lower salinity and 539 shallower MLD (Moline et al. 2004; Mendes et al. 2013). Indeed, the N1 anomaly 540 corresponds to areas of low MLD (Fig. 1) following the main North Sea current from the 541 south west to the north east (Holligan et al. 1989), surrounding the Dogger bank. This 542 anomaly was also found on the north-western part of the northern North Sea, following the 543 Scottish coastal water current with a shallow MLD (Fig. 1 11A). The N2 anomaly was observed with the deeper MLD of the Forties, Fisher and German areas (Fig. 1 and 11B). 544

These N2 areas corresponded to a phytoplankton community still blooming while the N1 anomaly areas might be at a stage of late blooming, in which conditions fit cryptophyceae development and grazing (cells of *Myrionecta rubra* were observed when using the Image in Flow, not shown). These organisms were found dominating the areas surrounding the Dogger bank from observations and counts carried out by Nielsen *et al.* (1993) during the same period.

551

552 In conclusion, our study of phytoplankton community structure distribution 553 resolved at the sub mesoscale evidenced the importance of the North Sea hydrological context. Significant differences between the two sets of anomalies observed during the 554 555 sampling period are mainly due to cryptophyte like cells and pico-nanophytoplankton size 556 class cells. This daily scale resolution thanks to high resolution techniques meeting single cell 557 and remote technologies will help in understanding the role of circulation and hydrological 558 properties of the water masses on the phytoplankton composition, succession schema, 559 spreading and bloom triggering and collapsing.

560

561 Acknowledgement

562 This study was funded by the DYMPAHY (Development of a DYnamic observation 563 system for the assessment of MArine water quality, based on PHYtoplankton analysis) INTERREG IVA "2 Mers Seas Zeeën" European cross-border project, co-funded by the 564 European Regional Development Fund (ERDF) and French (ULCO-CNRS-UL1), English 565 566 (Cefas) and Dutch (RWS) partners. We thank the captain and crew of the RV Cefas 567 "Endeavour", as well as Anne-Hélène Rêve for chlorophyll a bench top analysis. We also 568 thank Dr. Rodney Forster for his invitation onboard the ship during the EU FP7 PROTOOL 569 (Automated Tools to Measure Primary Productivity in European Seas) cruise. We are also

570	grateful to	our funding sources	, the CNRS, th	ne CNES-TOSCA/PHYTOCOT	project. The
-----	-------------	---------------------	----------------	------------------------	--------------

571 authors thank NASA/GSFC/DAAC for providing access to daily L3 MODIS binned products.

572

573 **References**

- Aiken, J., N. J. Hardman-Mountford, R. Barlow, J. Fishwick, T. Hirata and T. Smyth (2008).
 Functional links between bioenergetics and bio-optical traits of phytoplankton taxonomic groups: an overarching hypothesis with applications for ocean colour remote sensing. Journal of Plankton Research 30(2): 165-181.
- Alvain, S., C. Le Quéré, L. Bopp, M. F. Racault, G. Beaugrand, D. Dessailly and E.
 Buitenhuis (2013). Rapid climatic driven shifts of diatoms at high latitudes. Remote
 Sensing of Environment 132: 195-201.
- Alvain, S., H. Loisel and D. Dessailly (2012). Theoretical analysis of ocean color radiances
 anomalies and implications for phytoplankton groups detection in case 1 waters. Optics
 Express 20(2): 1070-1083.
- Alvain, S., C. Moulin, Y. Dandonneau and F. M. Bréon (2005).Remote sensing of
 phytoplankton groups in case 1 waters from global SeaWiFS imagery. Deep Sea
 Research Part I: Oceanographic Research Papers 52(11): 1989-2004.
- Alvain, S., C. Moulin, Y. Dandonneau and H. Loisel (2008). Seasonal distribution and
 succession of dominant phytoplankton groups in the global ocean : A satellite view.
 Global Biogeochemical Cycles 22: GB3001.
- Ben Mustapha Z., Alvain S., Jamet C, Loisel H. and D. Dessailly. Automatic classification of
 water leaving radiance anomalies from global SeaWifS imagery : Application to the
 detection of phytoplankton groups in open ocean waters. Remote Sensing of
 Environment RSE-08794, 2014.
- Boyce, D. G., M. R. Lewis and B. Worm (2010).Global phytoplankton decline over the past
 century. Nature 466(7306): 591-596.
- Buma, A. G. J., W. W. C. Gieskes and H. A. Thomsen (1992). Abundance of cryptophyceae
 and chlorophyll b-containing organisms in the Weddell-Scotia Confluence area in the
 spring of 1988. Polar Biology 12(1): 43-52.
- Burkill, P.H., Archer, S.D., Robinson, C., Nightingale, P.D., Groom, S.B., Tarran, G.A., and
 Zubkov, M.V. 2002. Dimethyl sulphide biogeochemistry within a coccolithophore
 bloom (DISCO): an overview. Deep-Sea Res. II, 49: 2863–2885
- 603 Chase, A., Boss, E., Zaneveld, R., Bricaud, A., Claustre, H., Ras, J., Dall'Olmo, G. and T.K.
 604 Westberry, (2013). Decomposition of in situ particulate absorption spectra. Methods in
 605 Oceanography, 7: 110-124.
- 606 Chisholm, S. W., R. J. Olson and C. M. Yentsch (1988). Flow cytometry in oceanography:
 607 Status and prospects. Eos, Transactions American Geophysical Union 69(18): 562-572.
- 608 Ciotti, A. and A. Bricaud (2006). Retrievals of a size parameter for phytoplankton and spectral
 609 light absorption by Colored Detrital Matter from water-leaving radiances at SeaWiFS

- channels in a continental shelf region off Brazil. Limnol. Oceanogr. Methods 4: 237–
 253.
- 612 Claustre, H., S. B. Hooker, L. Van Heukelem, J.-F.Berthon, R. Barlow, J. Ras, H. Sessions, C.
 613 Targa, C. S. Thomas, D. van der Linde and J.-C. Marty (2004). An intercomparison of
 614 HPLC phytoplankton pigment methods using in situ samples: application to remote
 615 sensing and database activities. Marine Chemistry 85(1-2): 41-61.
- 616 Colin, P., I., C. Le Quéré, E. Buitenhuis, J. House, C. Klaas and W. Knorr (2004). Biosphere
 617 dynamics: challenges for Earth system models. The State of the Planet: Frontiers and
 618 Challenges, C.J. Hawkesworth and R.S.J. Sparks (eds), American Geophysical Union
- D'Ovidio, F., S. De Monte, S. Alvain, Y. Dandonneau and M. Levy (2010). Fluides dynamical
 niches of phytoplankton types. PNAS.
- de Boyer Montégut, C., G. Madec, A. S. Fischer, A. Lazar and D. Iudicone (2004). Mixed
 layer depth over the global ocean: An examination of profile data and a profile-based
 climatology. Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans 109(C12): C12003.
- Demarcq, H., G. Reygondeau, S. Alvain and V. Vantrepotte (2011). Monitoring marine
 phytoplankton seasonality from space. Remote Sensing of Environment 117: 211-222.
- Dodge, J. D. (1977). The early summer bloom of dinoflagellates in the North Sea, with
 special reference to 1971. Marine Biology 40: 327-336.
- Dubelaar, B. J., P. Gerritzen, A. E. R. Beeker, R. Jonker and K. Tangen (1999). Design and
 first results of Cytobuoy: a wireless flow cytometer for in situ analysis of marine and
 fresh waters. Cytometry 37: 247-254.
- Dugenne, M., M. Thyssen, D. Nerini, C. Mante, J.-C. Poggiale, N. Garcia, F. Garcia and G. J.
 Gregori (2014). Consequence of a sudden wind event on the dynamics of a coastal
 phytoplankton community: an insight into specific population growth rates using a
 single cell high frequency approach. Frontiers in Microbiology 5: 485. doi:
 10.3389/fmicb.2014.00485
- Everitt, B. S. and T. Hothorn (2006). A Handbook of Statistical Analyses Using R, Chapman &
 Hall.
- Field, C. B., M. J. Behrenfeld, J. T. Randerson and P. G. Falkowski (1998). Primary
 production of the biosphere: integrating terrestrial and oceanic components. Science
 281: 237-240.
- Foladori, P., A. Quaranta and G. Ziglio (2008). Use of silica microspheres having refractive
 index similar to bacteria for conversion of flow cytometric forward light scatter into
 biovolume. Water Research 42(14): 3757-3766.
- Gailhard, I., P. Gros, J. P. Durbec, B. Beliaeff, C. Belin, E. Nézan and P. Lassus (2002).
 Variability patterns of microphytoplankton communities along the French coasts.
 Marine Ecology Progress Series 242: 39-50.
- 647 Gomez, F. and S. Souissi (2007). Unusual diatoms linked to climatic events in the
 648 northeastern English Channel. Journal of Sea Research 58: 283-290.
- Guiselin, N. (2010). Etude de la dynamique des communautés phytoplanctoniques par microscopie et cytométrie en flux, en eaux côtières de la Manche orientale. <u>ULCO-MREN</u>. Doctorate (Ph.D.) Thesis in Biological Oceanology, University of Littoral Côte d'Opale (ULCO), 190 pp.

- Hirata, T., N. J. Hardman-Mountford, R. J. W. Brewin, J. Aiken, R. Barlow, K. Suzuki, T.
 Isada, E. Howell, T. Hashioka, M. Noguchi-Aita and Y. Yamanaka (2011). Synoptic
 relationships between surface Chlorophyll-a and diagnostic pigments specific to
 phytoplankton functional types. Biogeosciences 8(2): 311-327.
- Holligan, P. M., T. Aarup and S. B. Groom (1989). The North Sea: Satellite colour atlas.
 Continental Shelf Research 9(8): 667-765.
- Houghton, S. D. (1991). Coccolith sedimentation and transport in the North Sea. Marine
 Geology 99(1-2): 267-274.
- Kaufman, L. and P. J. Rousseeuw (1990). Finding Groups in Data: An Introduction to Cluster
 Analysis, Wiley-Interscience.
- Kostadinov, T. S., Siegel, D. A., and Maritorena, S. (2009). Retrieval of the particle size
 distribution from satellite ocean color observations, J. Geophys. Res., 114, C09015,
 doi:10.1029/2009JC005303.
- Kruskopf, M. and K. J. Flynn (2006). Chlorophyll content and fluorescence responses cannot
 be used to gauge phytoplankton biomass, nutrient status or growth rate. New
 Phytologist 169: 525-536.
- LeQuéré, C. L., S. P. Harrison, I. Colin Prentice, E. T. Buitenhuis, O. Aumont, L. Bopp, H.
 Claustre, L. Cotrim Da Cunha, R. Geider, X. Giraud, C. Klaas, K. E. Kohfeld, L.
 Legendre, M. Manizza, T. Platt, R. B. Rivkin, S. Sathyendranath, J. Uitz, A. J. Watson
 and D. Wolf-Gladrow (2005). Ecosystem dynamics based on plankton functional types
 for global ocean biogeochemistry models. Global Change Biology 11(11): 2016-2040.
- Leterme, S., R. D. Pingree, M. D. Skogen, L. Seuront, P. C. Reid and M. J. Attrill (2008).
 Decadal fluctuations in North Atlantinc water inflow in the North Sea between 19582003: impact on temperature and phytoplankton populations. Oceanologia 50(1): 59-72.
- Leterme, S. C., L. Seuront and M. Edwards (2006).Differential contribution of diatoms and
 dinoflagellates to phytoplankton biomass in the NE Atlantic Ocean and the North Sea.
 Marine Ecology-progress Series 312: 57-65.
- Li, W. K. W. (1994). Primary production of prochlorophytes, cyanobacteria and eukaryotic
 ultraphyto-plankton: Measurements from flow cytometric sorting. Limnology and
 Oceanography 39: 169–175.
- Lomas, M. W., N. Roberts, F. Lipschultz, J. W. Krause, D. M. Nelson and N. R. Bates (2009).
 Biogeochemical responses to late-winter storms in the Sargasso Sea. IV. Rapid
 succession of major phytoplankton groups. Deep Sea Research I 56: 892-909.
- Lorenzen, C. J. (1966). A method for the continuous measurement of in vivo chlorophyll
 concentration. Deep Sea Research I 13: 223-227.
- Marinov, I., S. C. Doney and I. D. Lima (2010). Response of ocean phytoplankton community
 structure to climate change over the 21st century: partitioning the effects of nutrients,
 temperature and light. Biogeosciences Discuss. 7(3): 4565-4606.
- Masotti, I., C. Moulin, S. Alvain, L. Bopp and D. Antoine (2011). Large scale shifts in
 phytoplankton groups in the Equatorial Pacific during ENSO cycles. Biogeosciences 8:
 539-550.
- Mendes, C. R. B., V. M. Tavano, M. C. Leal, M. S. Souza, V. Brotas and C. A. E. Garcia
 (2013). Shifts in the dominance between diatoms and cryptophytes during three late
 summers in the Bransfield Strait (Antarctic Peninsula). Polar Biology 36(4): 537-547.

- Moisan, T. A. H., S. Sathyendranath and H. A. Bouman (2012). Ocean Color Remote Sensing
 of Phytoplankton Functional Types, ISBN: 978-953-51-0313-4, InTech.
- Moline, M. A., H. Claustre, T. K. Frazer, O. Schofield and M. Vernet (2004). Alteration of the
 food web along the Antarctic Peninsula in response to a regional warming trend. Global
 Change Biology 10(12): 1973-1980. Navarro, G., S. Alvain, V. Vantrepotte and I. E.
 Huertas (2014). Identification of dominant phytoplankton functional types in the
 Mediterranean Sea based on a regionalized remote sensing approach. Remote Sensing
 of Environment 152(0): 557-575.
- Navarro, G., S. Alvain, V. Vantrepotte and I. E. Huertas (2014). Identification of dominant
 phytoplankton functional types in the Mediterranean Sea based on a regionalized remote
 sensing approach. Remote Sensing of Environment 152(0): 557-575.
- Nair, A., S. Sathyendranath, T. Platt, J. Morales, V. Stuart, M.-H, N. Forget, E. Devred and H.
 Bouman (2008). Remote sensing of phytoplankton functional types. Remote Sensing of
 Environment 112(8): 3366-3375.
- Nielsen, T. G., B. Lokkegaard, K. Richardson, F. Pedersen and L. Hansen (1993).Structure of
 plankton communities in the Dogger Bank area (North Sea) during a stratified situation.
 Marine Ecology Progress Series 95: 115:131.
- Olson, R. J., A. Shalapyonok and H. M. Sosik (2003). An automated flow cytometer for
 analyzing pico- and nanophytoplankton=FlowCytobot. Deep Sea Research Part I 50:
 301-315.
- Racault, M. F., C. Le Quéré, E. Buitenhuis, S. Sathyendranath and T. Platt (2013).
 Phytoplankton phenology in the global ocean. Ecological Indicators 14(1): 152-163.
- Ribalet, F., A. Marchetti, K. A. Hubbard, K. Brown, C. A. Durkin, R. Morales, M. Robert, J.
 E. Swalwell, P. D. Tortell and E. V. Armbrust (2010). Unveiling a phytoplankton hotspot at a narrow boundary between coastal and offshore waters. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 107(38): 16571-16576.
- Rousseau, V., M.-J.Chrétiennot-Dinet, A. Jacobsen, P. Verity and S. Whipple (2007). The life
 cycle of Phaeocystis: state of knowledge and presumptive role in ecology.
 Biogeochemistry 83(1-3): 29-47.
- Rutten, T. P. A., B. Sandee and A. R. T. Hofman (2005). Phytoplankton monitoring by high
 performance flow cytometry: A successful approach? Cytometry Part A 64A(1): 16-26.
- Sharples, J., C. M. Moore, A. E. Hickman, P. M. Holligan, J. F. Tweddle, M. R. Palmer and J.
 H. Simpson (2009). Internal tidal mixing as a control on continental margin ecosystems.
 Geophysical Research Letters 36(23): L23603.
- Sathyendranath, S., W. Louisa, D. Emmanuel, P. Trevor, C. Carla and M. Heidi (2004).
 Discrimination of diatoms from other phytoplankton using ocean-colour data. Marine
 Ecology Progress Series 272: 59-68.
- Sosik, H. M., R. J. Olson, M. G. Neubert and A. Shalapyonok (2003). Growth rates of coastal
 phytoplankton from time-series measurements with a submersible flow cytometer.
 Limnology and Oceanography 48(5): 1756-1765.
- Thyssen, M., N. Garcia and M. Denis (2009). Sub meso scale phytoplankton distribution in
 the North East Atlantic surface waters determined with an automated flow cytometer.
 Biogeosciences 6: 569-583.
- 740 Thyssen, M., D. Mathieu, N. Garcia and M. Denis (2008b). Short-term variation of

- phytoplankton assemblages in Mediterranean coastal waters recorded with an automated
 submerged flow cytometer. Journal of Plankton Research 30(9): 1027-1040.
- Thyssen, M., G. A. Tarran, M. V. Zubkov, R. J. Holland, G. Gregori, P. H. Burkill and M.
 Denis (2008a). The emergence of automated high-frequency flow cytometry: revealing
 temporal and spatial phytoplankton variability. Journal of Plankton Research 30(3):
 333-343.
- 747 Uitz, J., H. Claustre, B. Gentili and D. Stramski (2010). Phytoplankton class-specific primary
 748 production in the world's oceans: Seasonal and interannual variability from satellite
 749 observations. Global Biogeochemical Cycles 24(3): GB3016.
- Van Bleijswijk, J. D. L., R. S. Kempers, M. J. Veldhuis and P. Westbroek (1994). Cell and
 growth characteristics of types A and B of Emiliania huxleyi (Prymnesiophyceae) as
 determined by flow cytometry and chemical analyses. Journal of Phycology 30: 230241.
- Van Heukelem, L. and C. S. Thomas (2001). Computer assisted high performance liquid
 chromatography method development with applications to the isolation and analysis of
 phytoplankton pigments. Journal of Chromatography A910(1): 31A49.
- Vantrepotte, V., H. Loisel, D. Dessailly and X. Mériaux (2012).Optical classification of
 contrasted coastal waters. Remote Sensing of Environment 123(0): 306-323.
- Vargas, M., C. W. Brown and M. R. P. Sapiano (2009).Phenology of marine phytoplankton
 from satellite ocean color measurements. Geophys. Res. Lett. 36.
- Veldhuis, M. J. W. and G. W. Kraay (2000). Application of flow cytometry in marine
 phytoplankton research: current applications and future perspectives. Scientia Marina
 64(2): 121-134.
- Waterbury, J. B., S. W. Watson, R. R. L. Guillard and L. E. Brand (1979).Widespread
 occurrence of a unicellular, marine, planktonic cyanobacterium. Nature 277(293:294).
- Werdell, P.J., Proctor, C.W., Boss, E., Leeuw, T. and M. Ouhssain (2013). Underway sampling
 of marine inherent optical properties on the Tara Oceans expedition as a novel resource
 for ocean color satellite data product validation. Methods in Oceanography 7: 40-51.
- Widdicombe, C. E., D. Eloire, D. Harbour, R. P. Harris and P. J. Somerfield (2010).Long-term
 phytoplankton community dynamics in the Western English Channel. Journal of
 Plankton Research 32(5): 643-655.
- Wiltshire, K. H. and B. F. J. Manly (2004). The warming trend at Helgoland Roads, North
 Sea: phytoplankton response. Helgoland marine research 58: 269-273.
- Yentsch, C. S. and Menzel, D. W. (1963) A method for the determination of phytoplankton
 chlorophyll and phaeophytin by fluorescence. Deep Sea Research, 10: 221-231.
- Zubkov, M. V. and P. H. Burkill (2006). Syringe pumped high speed flow cytometry of
 oceanic phytoplankton. Cytometry Part A 69A(9): 1010-1019.
- Zubkov, M.V. and G.D. Quartly (2003).Ultraplankton distribution in surface waters of the
 Mozambique Channel flow cytometry and satellite imagery. Aquatic Microbial
 Ecology 33(2): 155-161.
- 781
- 782

783 **Figure legends:**

784

Figure 1. Flow cytometry sampling points superimposed on the mixed layer depth (m) calculated with modeled temperature of the water column from the FOAM AMM7 (average values from the 8 to the 12 May 2011). Chosen stations for phytoplankton pictures collection with the flow cytometer are labeled (ST=station, ST4, ST6, ST13). Yellow squares correspond to MODIS matching points for non-turbid waters selected between 6 h and 18 h.

Figure 2. A. Temperature and B. Salinity measured with the Pocket Ferry Box. Presented data are selected to match the scanning flow cytometry collected samples. Grey bars delimit the traversed marine areas: H= Humber, T=Tyne, D=Dogger, Th=Thames.

Figure 3. A. TFLO vs TFLR (a.u.) cytogram with a FLR trigger level at 10 mV 793 794 showing the PicoORG cluster, the PicoRED cluster, the MicroLowORG cluster. B. Maximum 795 SWS (a.u.) vs TFLR (a.u.) cytogram with a FLR trigger level at 10 mV showing the 796 NanoSWS cluster, the NanoRED2 cluster and 3 µm beads. C. TFLR (a.u.) vs TFWS (a.u.) 797 cytogram with a FLR trigger level at 10 mV showing the NanoRED1 cluster, the NanoRED2 798 cluster, and the Micro1 cluster. D. TFLO vs TLFR (a.u.) cytogram with a FLR trigger level of 799 25 mV showing the NanoORG1, the MicroORG, the Micro1 and Micro2 clusters and 10 µm 800 beads. Clusters colors are consistent across different panels.

Figure 4. Pictures of cells from the scanning flow cytometer image in flow device collected within the Micro2 cluster. Surface closest stations where Micro2 abundance was the highest (station 4, 6, and 13) are illustrated.

Figure 5. Abundance $(10^3 \text{ cells.cm}^{-3})$ of each phytoplankton cluster resolved with the scanning flow cytometer. Scales are not homogenised for the purpose of distribution evidence. Grey bars separate the traversed marine areas: H= Humber, T=Tyne, D=Dogger, Th=Thames. Figure 6. Average estimated size for each phytoplankton cluster resolved with the scanning flow cytometer. Scales are not homogenised for the purpose of distribution evidence. Grey bars separate the traversed marine areas: H= Humber, T=Tyne, D=Dogger, Th=Thames.

Figure 7. Scanning flow cytometer Total red fluorescence per unit volume (SFC TFLR.cm⁻³) for each phytoplankton cluster. Superimposed large black squares are the matching points with MODIS pixels in non-turbid waters between 6 h and 18 h. Diamonds correspond to the night SFC samples matching MODIS passage but not taken into account because of the possible differences between day and night community structures. Scales are not homogenised for the purpose of distribution evidence. Grey bars separate the traversed marine areas: H= Humber, T=Tyne, D=Dogger, Th=Thames.

Figure 8. SFC Total TFLR per cm⁻³ compared to chl a analyses using different instruments. Refer to Material and Methods for a detailed description of each method. Blue triangles: AOA fluorometer PFB (chla μ g.dm⁻³). Black diamonds: SFC Total TFLR.cm⁻³ (a.u..cm⁻³). Green triangles: Turner fluorometer (chla μ g.dm⁻³). Grey triangles: HPLC (chla μ g.dm⁻³). Red squares: MODIS chla values corresponding to non-turbid waters (after Vantrepotte et al., 2012) and selected between 6 h and 18 h (chla μ g.dm⁻³).

Figure 9. A. Within sum of squares for the optimal number of K-nodes selection corresponding to PHYSAT anomalies. B. Cluster dendrogram defining the two main nodes grouping similar PHYSAT anomalies matchups (N1 and N2). C and D. Corresponding Ra (Radiance Anomaly) spectra for N1 and N2. Red dashed lines correspond to the minima and maxima values of the spectra as described in Table 3.

Figure 10. A and B. Clusters proportional contribution to the Total TFLR.cm⁻³ within each PHYSAT anomaly (N1 and N2). C and D. Within each anomaly, clusters TFLR.cm⁻³ proportional difference to its median value calculated on the entire matching points dataset. Wilcoxon rank test was run for each cluster between the two anomalies. ***p<0,001;
**p<0,01; *p<0,1.

Figure 11. Boxplots within each PHYSAT anomaly (N1, N2) of A. Temperature (°C), B. Salinity, C. Chlorophyll *a* (as estimated from MODIS L3 Binned) and D. Total TFLR (a.u..cm⁻³). Wilcoxon rank test was run for each parameter between the two anomalies. ***p<0,001; **p<0,01; *p<0,1.

Figure 12. A and B. Frequency of occurrence of the two distinct anomalies (N1 and N2) over the North Sea during the sampling period (08/05/2011 to the 12/05/2011). Yellow squares correspond to MODIS matching points for non-turbid waters selected between 6 h and 18 h and used to distinguish N1 and N2 PHYSAT anomalies.

Table 1. Minimal, maximal, average and standard deviation of abundance (cells.cm⁻³) for each defined phytoplankton cluster followed by the size estimated (μ m) average ± standard deviation values.

Table 2. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient between the different methods used for chlorophyll *a* estimates and with the Total TFLR from the scanning flow cytometer per unit volume. ***p<0,001; ** p<0,01.

- Table 3. Minimal and maximal radiance anomaly (Ra) values for each collected MODIS wavelength (nm) that characterizes the edges for the two PHYSAT radiance anomalies spectra (N1 and N2) observed in this study.
- 850
- 851
- 852
- 853
- 854
- 855

- Table 1

Cluster's name	Abundance min-max (cells.cm ⁻³)	Average abundance ± SD (cells.cm ⁻³)	Average size ± SD (μm)
PicoORG	25 - 18710	1559 ± 2821	1.09 ± 0.17
PicoRED	275 - 26960	5674 ± 4647	1.83 ± 0.32
NanoRED1	97 - 7172	888 ± 942	2.33 ± 0.33
NanoORG	<10 - 759	87 ± 150	5.8 ± 2.1
NanoSWS	< 10 - 376	99 ± 93	10 ± 2.56
NanoRED2	200 - 54880	4187 ± 7878	6.4 ± 1.4
Micro1	<10 - 4392	420 ± 769	16.9 ± 5.6
MicroORG	<10 - 306	48 ± 60	23.5 ± 10
MicroLowORG	<10 - 687	69 ± 111	23.75 ± 8.6
Micro2	<10 - 420	37 ± 59	65.5 ± 21.0

- 878 Table 2.

Spearman's correlation coefficient	SFC TFLR.cm ⁻³ (a.u.) n=247	AOA fluorometer (µg.dm ⁻³) n=254	HPLC chla (µg.dm ⁻³) n=12	Turner chla (µg.dm ⁻³) n=9
SFC TFLR.cm ⁻³ (a.u.)	1	0,93***	0,82***	0,82***
AOA fluorometer (μg.dm ⁻³)		1	0,86***	0,82***
HPLC chla (μg.dm ⁻³)			1	0,98***
Turner chla (μg.dm ⁻³)				1

900 Table 3.

Node	Ra (412) nm Min	Ra (412) nm Max	Ra (443) nm Min	Ra (443) nm Max	Ra (488) nm Min	Ra (488) nm Max	Ra (531) nm Min	Ra (531) nm Max
N1 (n=5)	1.06	1.30	0.96	1.24	0.91	1.10	0.91	1.09
N2 (n=10)	0.74	0.97	0.75	0.93	0.70	0.89	0.72	0.93
903	I							
904								
905								
906								
907								
908								
909								
910								
911								
912								
913								
914								
915								
910 017								
917								
919								
920								
921								
922								
923								
924								
925								
926								
927								

930 FIGURE 1



/50

943 FIGURE 2







FIGURE 4

A. Station 4, 12m Tyne 9/05/11 8:00 UTC







B. Station 6, 7m West Dogger 9/05/11 17:50 UTC





C. Station 13, 7m South Dogger 11/05/115:30 UTC



ار 200 ل









SFC TFLR (10⁵ а.и..ст⁻³)

FIGURE 8





1002 FIGURE 9







FIGURE 12

