

1 Responses to the comments of the Editor (E. Boss)

2

3 We thank you very much for your attentive reading and for the suggestions you proposed on
4 the manuscript BG-2015-25. In most cases, we changed the text accordingly to your
5 suggestions (see the track-changes version below). In the following, we provide a specific
6 response to some of your comments.

7

8 **Page 7, line 13:**

9 Text:

10 “Profiles with a surface fluorescence value lower than the bottom value were removed from
11 the database (202 profiles removed).”

12 Editor comment:

13 “this can be real (that is not instrumental failure) and may be due to dissolved substances at
14 depth, e.g. Rottgers and Kock, 2012, BG”

15 Authors response:

16 Most of the profiles with a surface fluorescence value lower than the bottom value display
17 also a relatively shallow depth for their deepest observation. Indeed, for 90% of these profiles,
18 their deepest observation depth was above 177m. Yet, at this depth, in oligotrophic
19 conditions, the presence of fluorescence can be due to chlorophyll. Then, we considered that
20 these profiles are likely incomplete on the vertical and we preferred to remove them from the
21 dataset.

22

23 **Page 9, line 16:**

24 Text:

25 “considering that the median of the ten deepest observations is equal to zero ”

26 Editor comment:

27 “Due to the problem with CDOM we find that the zero is not necessarily at the deepest depth,
28 but rather there can be at mid profile. This is probably a better value to adjust against (e.g. 10
29 minimal values in a profile)”

30 Authors response:

31 Although profiles have been filtered, some noise remains. Hence, using the ten minimal
32 values to compute beta should result in an underestimation of beta. Even if we agree that
33 CDOM could affect the chlorophyll fluorescence profile, a visual control of the whole
34 database did not drive to the detection of artefacts like increases of fluorescence at depth.
35 Then, to compute beta, we preferred to maintain our method, based on the ten deepest
36 observations.

37

38 **Page 10, line 14:**

39 Editor comment:

1 “Make sure to provide the Z_e calculation method in the methods section.”
2 Authors response:
3 In section method we added the following sentence to explain the Z_e calculation method:
4 “ Z_e is calculated from the chlorophyll integrated content using equations of Morel and
5 Berthon (1989)”
6 **Page 14 line 19:**
7 Text:
8 “According to Huisman et al., (1999), the development of a [Chl-a] gradient in the mixed
9 layer would be possible if mixed layer turbulence were low thus allowing for the
10 accumulation of phytoplankton cells near the surface. ”
11 Editor comment:
12 “you can test for that with a less stringent MLD criterion, e.g. 0.005kg/m^3 ”
13 Author response:
14 You are right. When the MLD is computed with a difference density criteria of 0.05 kg m^{-3} ,
15 MLD ranges between 11 and 49m which supports the hypothesis of Huisman et al. (1999).
16
17 **Page 14 line 21:**
18 Text:
19 “Lowest surface [Chl-a] values are observed for “DCM” shape profiles while highest (1.22
20 mg m^{-3}) values are observed for “HSC” shape profiles.”
21 Editor comment:
22 “these are also the ones for which you cannot fully correct for NPQ”
23 Authors response:
24 Surface chlorophyll values reported on Table 3 derived from ocean color observations (see
25 figure caption). Then, they are not affected by NPQ. In the new version of the manuscript, we
26 added a mention about the remote sensing origin of surface chlorophyll data:
27 Page 14, line 22: “According to the results presented in Table 3, ocean color surface [Chl-a]
28 values are related to the shape of the vertical profile.”
29
30 **Page 17 line 4:**
31 Text:
32 “We hypothesize that these winter subsurface maxima could be an artifact caused by the large
33 averaging timescale (from December to March), leading to the combination of [Chl-a] profiles
34 with highly different vertical distributions (see Fig. 5) ”
35 Editor comment:
36 “Can you test this?”
37 Authors response:
38 The comparison of the monthly (Fig. 3) and seasonal (Fig. 5) fluorescence-based chlorophyll
39 climatology is a sort of test for this hypothesis.

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Page 19 line 31:

Text:

“The observation of “HSC” like profiles in the South-West region suggests that, during winter, mixing is able to supply enough nutrients at the surface to support episodic developments of phytoplankton close to the surface, when water column begins to stabilize.”

Editor comment:

“Are the physical forcings different between East and West? e.g. 1D and weak horizontal density gradients in the East and more eddies/3D instabilities/strong horizontal density gradients in the West in Winter? More homogeneous forcing in the East vs. strong frontal features in the West? That could also contribute to the observations.”

Authors response:

It is very hard to determine which could explain the observed biological differences between south-west and east Mediterranean Sea. In both regions, sub-mesoscale activity is very important with fronts, jets and eddies. Eddy Kinetic Energy has similar intensity in east and west Mediterranean Sea (see Rio et al., 2007, Journal of Marine Systems). To our mind, as exposed in the text, differences in chlorophyll patterns would be due to the nutrient distribution and concentration which are affected by the eastward circulation of the surface Modified Atlantic Waters.

However, we mentioned your hypothesis in the new version of the manuscript:

Page 20, line 7: “As sub-mesoscale activity, associated to jets, fronts and eddies, is similarly intense in both, South-Western and Eastern basins (Rio et al., 2007), our best explanation for the spatial divergences in the occurrence of “HSC” profiles is the regional differences in nutrient stocks below the nitracline.”

Page 22 line 10

Text:

“However, according to Table 4, the estimations of nitracline depths are not likely to be good estimators of the top of the nitracline, if the nitrate gradient is not a enough sharp feature, as is it the case, for example in the Eastern Mediterranean Sea. Indeed, nitracline depths have been computed from discrete vertical 10 profiles, using the 1µM isoline (Lavigne et al., 2013).”

Editor comment:

“that is probably due to the poor vertical resolution of data collected with bottles. Should be much better with sensors measuring at higher vertical resolution.”

Authors response:

You are right, we also mentioned it in the text (page 22, line 10-11), poor vertical resolution does not allow to properly estimate the nitracline depth. However, we think that this problem is worse when the vertical nitrate distribution does not display a sharp and clear gradient between surface and deep waters as it is the case in the Eastern Mediterranean Sea (see for instance <http://www.oao.obs-vlfr.fr/bioargo/PHP/lovbio018c/lovbio018c.html>).

Tables

1 As recommended, in tables 2 and 3, non-parametric metrics have been used.

2

1 **On the vertical distribution of the chlorophyll-a**
2 **concentration in the Mediterranean Sea: a basin scale and**
3 **seasonal approach**

4

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17

1 **Abstract**

2 The distribution of the chlorophyll-a concentration ([Chl-a]) in the Mediterranean Sea, mainly
3 obtained from satellite surface observations or from scattered in situ experiments, is updated
4 by analyzing a database of fluorescence profiles converted into [Chl-a]. The database, which
5 includes 6790 fluorescence profiles from various origins, was processed with a specific
6 quality control procedure. To ensure homogeneity between the different data sources, 65% of
7 fluorescence profiles have been inter-calibrated on the basis of their concomitant satellite
8 [Chl-a] estimation. The climatological pattern of [Chl-a] vertical profiles in four key sites of
9 the Mediterranean Sea has been analyzed. Climatological results confirm previous findings
10 over the range of existing [Chl-a] values and throughout the principal Mediterranean trophic
11 regimes. It also provides new insights on the seasonal variability of the shape of the vertical
12 [Chl-a] profile, inaccessible from remote sensing observations. An analysis based on the
13 recognition of the general shape of the fluorescence profile was also performed. Although the
14 shape of [Chl-a] vertical distribution characterized by a deep chlorophyll maximum (DCM) is
15 ubiquitous during summer, different forms are observed during winter, thus suggesting that
16 factors affecting the vertical distribution of the biomass are complex and highly variable. The
17 [Chl-a] spatial distribution in the Mediterranean Sea mimics, at smaller scales, what is
18 observed in the Global Ocean. As already evidenced by analyzing satellite surface
19 observations, mid-latitude and subtropical like phytoplankton dynamics coexist in the
20 Mediterranean Sea. Moreover, the Mediterranean DCM variability appears to be characterized
21 by patterns already observed at the Global scale.

22

1 1 Introduction

2 1.1 Surface chlorophyll distribution

3 Chlorophyll-a concentration ([Chl-a] hereafter) is the main proxy of phytoplankton biomass
4 (Strickland, 1965; Cullen, 1982), representing a key oceanic biogeochemical variable.
5 However, in the Mediterranean Sea, as in the global ocean, the comprehensive knowledge of
6 the [Chl-a] spatio-temporal variability has been prevented due to a lack in in situ observations
7 (Conkright et al., 2002; Manca et al., 2004). The understanding of the [Chl-a] distribution is
8 essentially restricted to the surface, as based on remote sensing observations. In the
9 Mediterranean Sea, ocean color sensors, like CZCS (Feldman et al., 1989) or SeaWiFS
10 (McClain et al., 1998), provide observations with high temporal and spatial resolution over
11 the whole basin (Morel and André, 1991; Antoine et al., 1995; Bosc et al. 2004).

12 As in situ observations have demonstrated (Dolan et al., 1999; Dolan et al., 2002; Ignatiades
13 et al., 2009), satellite data confirm the oligotrophic nature of the basin (Dugdale and
14 Wilkerson, 1988) as well as the east-west gradient in oligotrophy (see Fig. 1, panels B and C).
15 Excepting the Liguro-Provençal region, where a large spring bloom takes place, and for some
16 localized spots, most of the basin exhibits very low values ($< 0.2 \text{ mg m}^{-2}$) of satellite surface
17 [Chl-a]. Surface [Chl-a] decreases eastward (Bosc et al., 2004; Barale et al., 2008) displaying
18 a sharp gradient between the west and east basins (mean [Chl-a] is about 0.4 mg m^{-3} in the
19 west basin and 0.05 mg m^{-3} in the east basin, Bosc et al., 2004, Fig. 1, panels B and C).
20 Superimposed on this general pattern, ocean color data also provide insights on the
21 occurrence and on the influence of meso and sub-mesoscale structures on [Chl-a] (Taupier-
22 Letage et al., 2003; Navarro et al., 2011, D'Ortenzio et al., 2014).

23 Satellite observations have also been the primary source of information for the
24 characterization of the [Chl-a] seasonal and interannual variability (D'Ortenzio and Ribera
25 d'Alcalà, 2009; Volpe et al., 2012; Lavigne et al., 2013). At a Global scale, ocean color
26 satellite observations indicate that surface [Chl-a] annual cycles display different patterns
27 moving from a tropical to a temperate or a polar environment (Yoder et al., 1993) generally
28 following latitudinal gradients. Boundaries between large ecological regions have been
29 determined from satellite observations, in the global ocean (Longhurst, 2006) but also at
30 regional scales (Devred et al., 2007; D'Ortenzio and Ribera d'Alcalà, 2009; Platt et al., 2010).
31 Indeed, focusing on ocean color observations, D'Ortenzio and Ribera d'Alcalà (2009)
32 confirmed the presence, in the Mediterranean Sea, of surface [Chl-a] annual cycles, displaying

1 similarities with subtropical or with temperate regions. The authors demonstrated that a
2 subtropical-like [Chl-a] seasonality (highest [Chl-a] during winter and lowest during summer)
3 encompasses most of the basin whereas a temperate like seasonality, marked by a high peak
4 of surface [Chl-a] in spring (in March/April), is recurrently observed in the North-Western
5 basin and occasionally in other Mediterranean regions. Further analysis (Lavigne et al., 2013)
6 showed that the coexistence of different regimes in the Mediterranean Sea is mainly due to the
7 high variability of the interplay between physical forcing, which affects the Mixed Layer
8 Depth (MLD hereafter), and chemical forcing (i.e. nutrient availability).

9 **1.2 The vertical [Chl-a] distribution**

10 Contrary to the horizontal distribution of [Chl-a] which, despite the uncertainties due to the
11 impact of bio-optical processes (see below), are regularly assessed within the basin, low cloud
12 coverage allowing for high frequency measurements, vertical distributions of [Chl-a] are
13 much less documented due to in situ undersampling and to the intrinsic limits of color remote
14 sensing in the retrieval of information from subsurface layers.

15 So far, the largest part of the information derives from studies conducted in specific sites (e.g.,
16 Dolan et al., 2002; Christaki et al., 2001; Estrada et al., 1993; Casotti et al., 2003; Marty et al.,
17 2002; Psarra et al., 2000; Krom et al., 1992), generalizations based on large scale cruises
18 (Moutin and Raimbault, 2002; Crombet et al, 2011) and synthetic analyses (e.g. Siokou-
19 Frangou et al., 2012), or reconstructions derived from modeling studies (e.g., Macias et al.,
20 2014; Crise et al., 1999). These studies showed that deep chlorophyll maximum (DCM,
21 hereafter) are ubiquitous over the Mediterranean from spring to autumn (Crise et al., 1999;
22 Moutin and Raimbault 2002; Siokou-Frangou et al., 2010). They display a longitudinal
23 deepening from West to East (see Crise et al., 1999 for a review), with their depth ranging
24 from 30 m in the westernmost area (Dolan et al., 2002) to 70 m in the South Adriatic and even
25 more than 100 m in the Levantine Sea (Christaki et al., 2001). During winter, DCM generally
26 disappear in the whole basin and the so called “mixed” shape (Morel and Berthon, 1989; Uitz
27 et al., 2006), characterized by a constant [Chl-a] from the surface to the basis of the MLD is
28 often observed (Krom et al., 1992; Marty et al., 2002; Mignot et al., 2014). Alternatively, a
29 [Chl-a] vertical shape marked by a high subsurface maximum close to the surface (less than
30 10m) has also been documented for the North-Western basin, during the spring bloom period
31 (Marty et al., 2002; Manca et al., 2004). In spite of those focused studies and the compilation
32 of Chl-a climatology provided by the MEDAR/MEDATLAS project (Maillard and Coauthors,

1 2005), the spatial distribution of [Chl-a] vertical profiles and their yearly patterns are still
2 poorly documented in the basin. Satellite [Chl-a] values may provide additional information
3 using the approach introduced for global assessments of depth integrated Chl-a values (e.g.,
4 Morel and Berthon, 1989). In many instances, (e.g., Bosc et al., 2004) their use was implicit
5 and no specific analysis on the vertical distribution *per se* was carried out.

6 As discussed in a recent review by Cullen (2015), there is no unique DCM and its dynamics
7 result from the interactions among external forcing, e.g., the penetration of light in water, the
8 intensity of vertical mixing and subsurface nutrient distribution and biotic processes, e.g.,
9 photoacclimation, grazing, phytoplankton composition. To assess which and how many
10 DCMs exist in the Mediterranean sea because of its known geographical and dynamical
11 gradients, a starting step is to produce a quantitative characterization of their shapes and their
12 seasonal evolution, which is one of the main scope of this contribution. In addition, a good
13 appreciation of seasonal changes in vertical [Chl-a] distribution, the other objective of this
14 study, is a first step towards a better understanding of mechanisms controlling seasonal
15 phytoplankton development. It is also essential to better interpret changes in surface [Chl-a]
16 as detected by satellite sensors. This study will ~~allow help~~ for the ~~integration of the~~
17 biogeographical ~~characterization of the basin built on interpretation of~~ surface [Chl-a]
18 patterns, ~~thus~~ paving the way to focused area studies based on in situ sampling or autonomous
19 vehicles.

20 **1.3 Fluorescence**

21 In situ [Chl-a] are obtained on filtered water samples, from which the pigment content was
22 extracted and analyzed. The most accurate results are nowadays obtained by High
23 Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC, Gieskes and Kraay, 1983). Their associated
24 protocols are most often expensive, time consuming, and depend on direct sampling with
25 bottles. They hence provide discrete values on a vertical scale with a limited horizontal and
26 temporal resolution. To overcome the above limitations, fluorescence observations can be
27 used. The estimation of [Chl-a] from the fluorescence technique (Lorenzen, 1966) is based on
28 the chlorophyll-a property of absorbing blue light and re-emitting it, as fluorescence, in the
29 red part of the spectrum. The quantity of fluorescence emitted by a water sample is
30 proportional to [Chl-a], which could be then easily derived by measuring emitted radiation at
31 red wavelengths. The fluorescence technique therefore represents a ~~robust and~~ non-invasive
32 method to observe continuous vertical profiles of [Chl-a].- Nowadays, fluorimeters commonly

1 equip CTDs and can even be built in autonomous profilers. Indeed, an increasing number of
2 profiling floats and gliders are equipped with a fluorimeter (Johnson et al., 2009) while
3 fluorescence is becoming the main source of data for [Chl-a] vertical profiles. To date, more
4 than 67900 fluorescence profiles are available in the World Ocean Database 2013 (Boyer et
5 al., 2013).

6 However, fluorescence is only a proxy for [Chl-a], implying that the fluorescence signal need
7 to be calibrated for a [Chl-a] estimation. Calibration coefficients (α and β , see Eq. (1))
8 provided by manufacturers are only indicative of the response of the sensor to a given Chl-a
9 concentration in an extract or in an algal suspension, and cannot be applied to all in situ
10 conditions. The fluorescence to [Chl-a] ratio is highly variable, since it changes with the
11 taxonomic assemblage or environmental conditions (Kiefer, 1973) or it may be affected by
12 dissolved materials (Rottgers and Koch, 2012). For instance, under low light conditions, the
13 chlorophyll content per cell can increase while the fluorescence to [Chl-a] ratio decreases due
14 to the packaging effect (Sosik et al., 1989). In response to supra-optimal light irradiation,
15 phytoplankton triggers photo-protection mechanisms, inducing a drastic decrease in the
16 fluorescence to [Chl-a] ratio (Kolber and Falkowski, 1993; Müller et al., 2001); this
17 mechanism is called Non Photochemical Quenching (NPQ). The main result of NPQ effect is
18 a decrease of fluorescence at the surface, even for constant [Chl-a] (Cullen and Lewis, 1995;
19 Xing et al., 2012).

$$[Chl - a] = \alpha \times (FLUO - \beta) \quad Eq. (1)$$

20 Better estimates are obtained by determining the empirical coefficients (i.e. α and β) that fit
21 fluorescence with in situ data for each profile (Morel and Maritorena, 2001) or for each cruise
22 (Sharples et al., 2001; Strass, 1990; Cetinic et al., 2009). However, this calibration method
23 based on the existence of simultaneous in situ samples is not always applicable. Alternative
24 calibration methods, independent of concomitant HPLC observations, have therefore recently
25 been developed (Boss et al., 2008; Xing et al., 2011; Mignot et al., 2011; Lavigne et al.,
26 2012). They are based on additional information such as irradiance profiles (Xing et al.,
27 2011), ocean color observations (Boss et al., 2008; Lavigne et al., 2012) or the shape of the
28 fluorescence profile (Mignot et al., 2011). Although these new calibration methods do not
29 reach the accuracy of HPLC based calibration, they offer an acceptable alternative to extract
30 reliable estimates of [Chl-a] vertical profiles from large quantity of fluorescence profiles.

31 **1.4 Outlines**

1 This study aims at improving knowledge on the spatio-temporal variability of the vertical
2 distribution of the [Chl-a] in the Mediterranean Sea, focusing particularly on [Chl-a]
3 seasonality. For this, all the available proxies of [Chl-a] ~~were~~ merged to build a new data
4 base. Special attention ~~was~~ paid to the shape of the [Chl-a] profiles: indeed different patterns
5 can point to different processes controlling the phytoplankton distribution. The spatial and
6 seasonal variability of the DCM, which is one of the most common features in Mediterranean
7 [Chl-a] vertical profiles, ~~will be~~ also specifically investigated. The scope of this paper is
8 ~~essentially restrained to~~ the description of the variability of [Chl-a] vertical profiles, as they
9 result from the interactions between many factors that can be complex as well as poorly
10 documented. This variability ~~will be~~ only discussed with regard to Mediterranean hydrology
11 and light fields.

12 In the following section, the fluorescence database is presented, including the quality control
13 and calibration procedures that were applied. In the results section, the seasonal and spatial
14 variability of climatological [Chl-a] vertical profiles, derived from fluorescence-based
15 reconstructed [Chl-a] profiles is presented. Climatological results are completed by the
16 analysis of the shape of the [Chl-a] profiles. Contrary to the climatology of [Chl-a] vertical
17 profiles, the shape analysis is based on normalized [Chl-a] profiles and does not account for
18 the [Chl-a] values. The seasonal variability in occurrences of principal [Chl-a] vertical shapes
19 is also investigated here. In the fourth section, certain methodological points related to the
20 production of climatological patterns are addressed. Results ~~presented in above mentioned~~
21 ~~section~~ are also compared with previous remote sensing based observations. Finally, the
22 diversity in Mediterranean [Chl-a] patterns is highlighted in a comparison with the Global
23 Ocean.

24 **2 Data and Methods**

25 **2.1 Data set of fluorescence chlorophyll profiles**

26 More than 6000 chlorophyll fluorescence profiles, and their corresponding temperature and
27 salinity profiles, from the Mediterranean Sea in areas where bathymetry exceeds 100m depth,
28 were collected from various data source (Table 1). These comprise online databases (986
29 profiles), French cruises (2670 profiles), the MEDAR (228 profiles) and the SESAME
30 programs data base (1815 profiles) and, finally, fluorescence profiles derived from Bio-Argo
31 floats (1091 profiles). The density of profiles covers the whole Mediterranean Basin, although

1 some areas are better represented than others (Fig. 1). Many profiles are available in the
2 North-Western Mediterranean Sea, whereas the South-Western Mediterranean Sea and the
3 Levantine Sea are poorly represented. Available profiles range between 1994 and 2014, all
4 seasons being equally represented (winter 30% of data, spring 21%, summer 25% and autumn
5 24%). Although only 16% of the database are Bio-Argo profiles, they represent half of
6 available profiles for the 2008-2014 period.

7 **2.2 Data processing and calibration**

8 Prior to calibration, a quality control procedure was applied to fluorescence profiles. It
9 comprises a test of uniqueness (to eliminate repetitions of a same profile), the identification of
10 spikes (see D'Ortenzio et al., 2010) and of the signs of fluorometer failure (portion of profile
11 with exactly the same value or jumps in the fluorescence profile). After this quality control
12 step, 593 profiles were removed from the database. Then, incomplete profiles (i.e. profiles for
13 which the acquisition was not deep enough to display the whole fluorescence shape) were also
14 removed. Profiles with a surface fluorescence value lower than the bottom value were
15 removed from the database (202 profiles removed). In addition, the profiles obtained during
16 the three "Long Duration" stations of the BOUM cruise (Moutin et al., 2012) were removed
17 from the dataset, because they had been sampled at very high temporal frequency within
18 anticyclonic eddy (Moutin and Prieur, 2012). These 404 profiles, which are therefore not
19 independent, would have over-represented specific environments in the dataset.

20 The remaining fluorescence profiles (5571 profiles) were calibrated using satellite ocean color
21 matchups as surface references (Lavigne et al., 2012). This method has been validated in the
22 Mediterranean Sea, by comparing satellite calibrated profiles and in situ HPLC [Chl-a] data.
23 In the Mediterranean Sea, the calibrated profiles are unbiased and present a median error of
24 41%, which is reduced to 34% when compared to climatological averages. In summary, (see
25 Lavigne et al., 2012, for a comprehensive description and validation of the procedure) the
26 method consists in (step 1) a correction for the NPQ effect, (step 2) the adjustment to a zero
27 value of the fluorescence profile at depth and (step 3) the application of a calibration
28 coefficient obtained from ocean color satellite matchups. The last step has only been applied
29 to the fluorescence profiles available for the 1998-2014 period (i.e. time during which the
30 SeaWiFS or MODIS Aqua data were available and could be used to calculate the matchups).

31 Step 1 provides a systematic correction of the NPQ effect by extrapolating the maximum
32 fluorescence value observed in the mixed layer up to the surface (Xing et al. 2012). Although

1 Biermann et al. (2014) proposed an improvement of the method for profiles with euphotic
2 depth above MLD, we preferred to use a unique data processing procedure, to avoid the
3 introduction of an artificial bias due to a heterogenic data treatment. The MLD was evaluated
4 from potential density profiles using a density criterion of 0.03 kg m^{-3} (de Boyer Montegut et
5 al., 2004; D’Ortenzio et al., 2005). This method revealed to be an efficient NPQ correction in
6 most of conditions (Xing et al., 2012; Lavigne et al., 2012), although it presented limitations
7 for shallow MLD and stratified water columns. By applying the equation proposed by
8 Sackmann et al. (2008) on monthly averaged light fields, the impact of NPQ was observed to
9 be significant only above 60m, thus leading a two-fold underestimation of surface [Chl-a].
10 Considering this result, the weak efficiency of the NPQ correction method in stratified
11 conditions should not have major consequences on the present study. Only the analysis of the
12 surface to integrated content chlorophyll ratio (see Table 3) should be considered with
13 caution.

14 Step 2 corrects the systematic instrumental offset, which impacts on the whole profile,
15 although it can only be detected at depth. Except for very specific cases, [Chl-a] is considered
16 reach a zero value at depths where there is no more light availability. If it is not the case, a
17 correction factor (i.e. β on Eq. (1)) is subtracted from the whole fluorescence profile,
18 considering that the median of the ten deepest observations is equal to zero. Profiles in which
19 MLD was deeper than the deepest fluorescence observation were not processed but not
20 ~~removed~~ of the database (1.1% of data set). After step 1 and step 2 procedures, 5571
21 profiles were successfully corrected and stored in the so-called “1994-2014 database”. These
22 fluorescence profiles were used later for the shape analysis (see Sect. 2.3 and Sect. 3.2).

23 In step 3, fluorescence profiles collected after 1998 were converted into [Chl-a] units using a
24 transformation based on ocean color satellite observations (Lavigne et al., 2012). 8-day Level
25 3 standard mapped images of SeaWiFS and MODIS Aqua surface chlorophyll at 9km
26 resolution were obtained from the NASA web site (<http://oceancolor.gsfc.nasa.gov/>) for the
27 1998-2014 period (1998-2007 for SeaWiFS and 2008-2014 for MODIS Aqua). The use of
28 NASA [Chl-a] standard products allows for a good consistency between SeaWiFS and
29 MODIS datasets thus avoiding the introduction of any bias between the two time-series
30 (Franz et al., 2005). For each fluorescence profile, the satellite image matching the profile
31 date was selected. The corresponding surface [Chl-a] values over a $0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$ box centered
32 on the geographical position of the profile were extracted and averaged. The integrated
33 chlorophyll content over $1.5Z_e$ (where Z_e is the euphotic depth) is then estimated from

1 | satellite [Chl-a] using empirical relationships (Uitz et al., 2006) and Z_c is calculated from the
2 | [chlorophyll integrated content using equations of Morel and Berthon \(1989\)](#). A multiplicative
3 | coefficient (α coefficient in Eq. (1)) is applied to the fluorescence profile, imposing that the
4 | integrated fluorescence content matches the integrated chlorophyll content derived from
5 | satellite. At the end, 3867 fluorescence profiles were successfully transformed into [Chl-a].
6 | These [Chl-a] profiles formed the “1998-2014 database” and similarly to fluorescence profiles
7 | of the “1994-2014 database”, they are available upon request from the first author.

8 | **2.3 Determination of the shape of fluorescence profiles**

9 | On the basis of a visual analysis of the whole database, five general types of fluorescence
10 | vertical shapes were identified. These five categories, which represent the most frequent
11 | shapes of vertical distribution observed in the Mediterranean, also reflect their conditioning
12 | by physical-biological processes. These categories are referred to as “DCM”, “homogeneous”,
13 | “HSC” (for High Surface Chlorophyll), “complex” and “modified DCM” on the basis of their
14 | general characteristics (Fig. 2). The “DCM” and “homogeneous” shapes have been commonly
15 | used to describe [Chl-a] vertical profiles (Morel and Berthon, 1989; Uitz et al., 2006; Mignot
16 | et al., 2011). They are referred to as “stratified” and “mixed”, respectively, and are
17 | discriminated according to the relative position of Z_e and MLD. The “DCM” shape is
18 | characterized by a subsurface DCM, and the “homogeneous” shape by a positive
19 | homogeneous [Chl-a] in the mixed layer. After examination of the database, three other
20 | standard shapes have been introduced (i.e. “HSC”, “modified DCM” and “complex” shapes)
21 | to better describe the observed variability. The “HSC” standard shape was defined for profiles
22 | displaying a steady decrease of [Chl-a] from surface to depth (~100m) as generally observed
23 | during phytoplankton blooms (Chiswell, 2011). The “modified DCM” shape describes
24 | profiles with relatively high values in the mixed layer and with a peak of [Chl-a] just below
25 | the MLD. It represents an intermediate condition between the “DCM” and “homogeneous”
26 | situations. Finally, profiles with a complex shape, often displaying several peaks and a
27 | relatively high surface [Chl-a] were classed as standard “complex” shapes.

28 | To automatically categorize each profile of the 1994-2014 database into one of the five shape
29 | classes, a simple algorithm has been used, computing the following metrics for each profile:
30 | the depth of fluorescence maxima (D_{max} , see Fig. 2 panels A and D), the MLD, the
31 | fluorescence integrated content in a 20m layer centered on D_{max} (F_{max} , see Fig. 2, panel A),
32 | the fluorescence integrated content in the 0-20m surface layer (F_{surf} , see Fig. 2 panel A), the

1 fluorescence integrated content in the mixed layer (F_{MLD} , see Fig. 2 panel D) and the total
2 fluorescence content (F_T , see Fig. 2 panel B).

3 The algorithm was applied to each profile. It first tests the “HSC” shape. The “HSC” shape is
4 assigned to a profile, if its fluorescence averaged over layers of 10m width decreases from
5 surface to 100m. Secondly, the “DCM” shape is tested. If MLD is above D_{max} and if F_{max} is
6 twice superior to F_{surf} , the profile is classed in the “DCM” category. If not, the
7 “homogeneous” shape is tested. The profile is classed in the “homogeneous” category if
8 F_{MLD}/F_T is superior to 0.85 (more than 85% of biomass contained in the mixed layer). Finally,
9 if the fluorescence profile does not meet any of the previous criteria, it is either classed in the
10 “modified DCM” category, if the corresponding MLD is above D_{max} or in the “complex”
11 category.

12 Overall, 2780 profiles were classed in the “DCM” category, 751 in the “homogeneous”
13 category, 413 in the “HSC” category, 637 in the “modified DCM” category and 990 in the
14 “complex” category.

15 **3 Results**

16 **3.1 Some climatological behaviors**

17 Although the availability of the calibrated profiles (1998-2014 database) should allow to
18 generate interpolated products on a regular mesh grid (as, for example, the World Ocean
19 Atlas, Conkright et al., 2002), we preferred to avoid any large interpolation and only present
20 Mediterranean patterns for locations well represented in our database. Hence, monthly
21 climatologies of [Chl-a] vertical profiles were computed for four geographical ~~points~~areas
22 (i.e. 4°x4° boxes) where the data density was high. These ~~points~~locations were also placed in
23 four main Mediterranean sub-basins (i.e. centered on 42°N/5°E in the North-Western basin,
24 38°N/5°E in the South-Western basin, 36°N/17°E in the Ionian Sea and 34°N/30°E in the
25 Levantine Sea, see yellow diamonds on Fig. 1). The monthly time-series are presented in the
26 next section (Sect. 3.1.1). Although, in the following, we refer to these time-series as
27 “climatological”, certain average profiles result from a low number of fluorescence profiles
28 (sometimes less than 10, see numbers on Fig. 3) and therefore do not strictly represent a
29 climatological pattern. To better identify spatial changes in [Chl-a] fields, we also present
30 climatological transects (Sect. 3.1.2). Due to the weak density of data in the eastern basin, the
31 [Chl-a] distribution could only be analyzed along a 5°E north-south transect in the western

1 basin (see dotted line on Fig. 1). Nevertheless, this transect encompasses regions with
2 different biological dynamics (D’Ortenzio and Ribera d’Alcalà, 2009) and it is representative
3 of the main patterns of the Western Mediterranean.

4 **3.1.1 Seasonality in four geographic pointslocations**

5 For each of the four selected geographic pointslocations (see above), all available profiles in a
6 $4^{\circ} \times 4^{\circ}$ side box centered on the chosen geographical position were averaged on a 1-meter
7 vertical scale and on a monthly basis to produce climatological profiles. The resulting
8 monthly climatologies are displayed on Fig. 3.

9 Overall, the climatological time-series representing the South-Western basin, the Ionian Sea
10 and the Levantine Sea (Fig. 3, panels B, C and D) display a similar evolution of the vertical
11 [Chl-a] distribution. From December to March, [Chl-a] is greater in the surface layer: from
12 surface to the base of pycnocline (Fig. 2, panel B), while the April to November months are
13 characterized by the occurrence of a DCM, concurrent with the development of the seasonal
14 pycnocline close to surface. In the South-Western region, winter profiles present relatively
15 high [Chl-a] in the upper meters ($[\text{Chl-a}] > 0.5 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$), whereas in the Ionian, and even more
16 in the Levantine, upper layer [Chl-a] is lower and the base of the pycnocline is deeper (about
17 150 m in the Ionian Sea and more than 200 m in the Levantine Sea). DCM, when occurring, is
18 deeper in the Levantine and Ionian seas than in the South-Western region. The climatological
19 time-series in the North-Western basin (Fig. 3, panel A) displays a different succession. DCM
20 occurs from May to October, when surface stratification of the water column can be observed.
21 In November and December, [Chl-a] vertical profiles display homogeneous concentrations
22 from the surface to the upper limit of the pycnocline, which deepens through mixing
23 processes. In January and February, the water density profiles are nearly constant and [Chl-a]
24 profiles display low and homogeneous concentrations up to 100m. In March and April,
25 although surface water density slightly decreases, pointing to water column stabilization
26 and/or stratification, surface [Chl-a] considerably increases. Finally, all time-series are
27 characterized by a deepening of the DCM from May to July and a shallowing from August to
28 September. It appears that in the North-West region, the deepening of the DCM coincides
29 with the deepening of the pycnocline. In the other areas, the pycnocline is much shallower
30 than the DCM and their dynamics seem to be uncoupled until September. In October and
31 November, the base of the surface mixed layer seems to be correlated with DCM.

1 Regarding [Chl-a] values, regional differences are visible, confirming previous observations
2 on the eastward increase of oligotrophic conditions. The highest [Chl-a] value is observed in
3 April, in the North-Western climatology (Fig. 3, panel A), reaching 1.2 mg m^{-3} . However, this
4 mean value is derived from extremely variable observations ranging between 0.3 and 4.2 mg
5 m^{-3} . The South-Western time-series shows [Chl-a] values up to 0.5 mg m^{-3} , observed in the
6 surface during winter and at the DCM during summer. In the Ionian climatology, highest
7 [Chl-a] values can be observed at the DCM, reaching 0.3 mg m^{-3} . Finally, the Levantine
8 climatology displays the lowest [Chl-a], with values rarely exceeding 0.25 mg m^{-3} .

9 Table 2 presents averagedmedian [Chl-a] values at the DCM depth, for the four geographic
10 pointslocations analyzed here. Contrary to the DCM [Chl-a] values visible in Fig. 3, the
11 values reported in Table 2 are derived from the meanmedian DCM [Chl-a] values extracted
12 individually from each fluorescence profile presenting a DCM. In the North-Western region,
13 [Chl-a] at DCM is often around 1 mg m^{-3} , though it ranges between 0.6563 mg m^{-3} in
14 September and 1.2207 mg m^{-3} in April. At the South-Western point, the averaged [Chl-a] at
15 DCM is 0.8788 mg m^{-3} . In the Eastern basin, values are twice lower (about 0.55 mg m^{-3} at the
16 Ionian point and 0.4540 mg m^{-3} at the Levantine point). A seasonal pattern does not clearly
17 emerge from the analysis of the DCM statistics, except that [Chl-a] at DCM is generally
18 higher during spring and summer and lower during autumn. Note that averagedmedian DCM
19 depth [Chl-a] values (Table 2) are higher than the DCM depth [Chl-a] values observed on
20 climatological profiles (Fig. 3) because the averaging process on the latter tends to flatflatten
21 DCMs (see discussion on Sect. 4.1.2, Lavigne et al., 2012).

22 3.2.1 North-South transect

23 All the data located within $\pm 2^\circ$ from the 5°E meridian were selected to produce a
24 climatological pictures of [Chl-a] fields in spring (March to May, Fig. 4, panel A) and in
25 summer (June to September, Fig. 4, panel B).

26 The spring situation (Fig. 4, panel A) displays various types of profiles and a large range of
27 [Chl-a] values. North of 41°N , [Chl-a] values are high ($> 1 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$) at surface and decrease
28 with depth. Highest [Chl-a] values ($\sim 3 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$) are observed around 42°N in surface (up to
29 30m depth). Between 40°N and 41°N , surface [Chl-a] is around 0.5 mg m^{-3} and a DCM is
30 visible at 50m depth. Further south, the climatological transect displays a deeper DCM
31 (around 75m depth) and very low surface [Chl-a] values ($< 0.3 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$).

1 In the summer transect (Fig. 4, panel B), the presence of a DCM is ubiquitous, although its
2 position in the water column and its [Chl-a] values vary throughout the transect. A steady
3 deepening of the DCM is observed from 43°N (DCM depth around 50 m) to 39°N (DCM
4 depth around 85 m). A southward decrease of [Chl-a] at DCM is also observed. It ranges from
5 0.8 mg m⁻³ to 0.4 mg m⁻³. South of 39°N, a shallowing of the DCM depth and an increase of
6 the [Chl-a] at DCM are observed.

7 3.2 Analysis of the profile shapes

8 3.2.1 Characteristics of standard shapes

9 As a procedure was established to classify the shapes of the [Chl-a] profiles included in the
10 1994-2014 database (Sect. 2.3), certain characteristics related to [Chl-a] profiles could be
11 computed. They are summarized in Table 3.

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12 ~~unsurprisingly~~, MLD is shallowest when the standard vertical fluorescence shape is “DCM”.
13 Additionally, the MLD is deepest when the standard fluorescence shape is “homogeneous”. In
14 these 2 cases, the relative position of MLD and Z_e confirm therefore that the “homogeneous”
15 and “DCM” shapes can be compared with the well-known “stratified” and “mixed” shapes
16 introduced by Morel and Berthon (1989). Profiles shapes categorized as “modified DCM”,
17 “complex” and “HSC”, display intermediate values for MLD. For profiles of the “modified
18 DCM” shape, the average distance between MLD and chlorophyll maxima is 22m. This
19 relatively short distance may indicate that the “modified DCM” shape derives from erosion by
20 deeper mixing of the DCM structure. For the “HSC” standard shape, MLD can be relatively
21 deep (ranging between 13m and 95m). A [Chl-a] gradient could therefore develop in both,
22 stratified and mixed conditions. According to Huisman et al., (1999), the development of a
23 [Chl-a] gradient in the mixed layer would be possible if mixed layer turbulence were low thus
24 allowing for the accumulation of phytoplankton cells near the surface.

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25 According to the results presented in Table 3, ocean color surface [Chl-a] values are related to
26 the shape of the vertical profile. Lowest surface [Chl-a] values are observed for “DCM” shape
27 profiles while highest (~~4.220.77~~ mg m⁻³) values are observed for “HSC” shape profiles. In
28 spite of its variability, this high value suggests that the “HSC” shape could result from the
29 exponential growth of phytoplankton at surface in unlimited nutrient condition associated to a
30 stable water column. Hence, “HSC” profiles would typically correspond to bloom conditions.
31 A very high variability, with surface [Chl-a] values ranging from 0.13 mg m⁻³ to 1.19 mg m⁻³,

1 is observed for profiles of the standard “homogenous” shape. This variability likely results
2 from the interactions between the high variability of MLD and the recent development of
3 phytoplankton biomass.

4 | The $F_{\text{surf}}/F_{\text{T}}$ ratio changes with the shape of the [Chl-a] profile. The lowest ratio (~~65~~%) is
5 observed for the “DCM” shape, even though this value is likely to be underestimated by a
6 | factor of 2.5 because of NPQ. The standard “~~homogeneous~~”, “complex” and “HSC” shapes
7 | display similar ~~averaged median~~ ratios, ~~32%, 3028%~~ and ~~3531%~~, respectively. Once again,
8 there is a large variability for “homogeneous” shape profiles that which can be explained by
9 the variability of the MLD. Finally, in the “HSC” situation, the upper 20m can accumulate up
10 to 50% of the chlorophyll content.

11 **3.2.2 Seasonal distribution of the profile shapes**

12 | ~~An objective~~ study of the seasonal distributions of standard shapes was performed for the
13 main Mediterranean regions (Fig. 5, boundaries of the Mediterranean regions are drawn in the
14 Fig. 1). During summer, all the regions are dominated by the “DCM” shape, with occurrences
15 exceeding 90%. The “DCM” shape disappears in November everywhere, the time of its onset
16 depends on the region: April for the Ionian, Levantine and Tyrrhenian regions, May for the
17 South-West region and June for the North-West region. During the autumn/winter period, all
18 the categories of shapes can be observed in one same region and during a same month.
19 Nevertheless, profiles shapes classed as “modified DCM” are more frequent in early winter
20 (i.e. the Ionian region where the “modified DCM” shape represents more than 60% of profiles
21 in December and January), which reinforces the intuition that this shape might be generated
22 by deeper mixing eroding the DCM structure. Profiles with the “homogeneous” shape are
23 observed from November to March everywhere, except in the Ionian region. Similarly, the
24 “complex” shape is present everywhere from November to March. Profiles displaying a
25 “HSC” shape are absent, or nearly absent, in the Ionian and Levantine regions. In the
26 Tyrrhenian and South-West regions, “HSC” profiles can be observed between November and
27 March and are most abundant in February. In the North-West region, although “HSC” profiles
28 are observed in winter, from November to February, they peak in spring (March – April) with
29 occurrences exceeding 60%. Assuming that the “HSC” profiles denote bloom events, this
30 result suggests that bloom events may occur during winter in the whole Western
31 Mediterranean although they only peak in the North-West region during spring.

1 **3.2.3 Longitudinal and seasonal distribution of the DCM depth**

2 The DCM is confirmed to be a dominant feature of the [Chl-a] distribution in the
3 Mediterranean, although its characteristics change from one region to another and with time.
4 A deepening of the DCM depth with longitude is generally observed (Fig. 6), confirming
5 previous findings (Crise et al., 1999). A linear model applied to DCM depth data indicates
6 that, on average, DCM depth deepens by 1.6 m for 1° of longitude. However, a large
7 variability exists, especially in the Ionian and Levantine seas. Superimposed to this general
8 deepening of DCM with longitude, regional differences can be observed between the main
9 Mediterranean sub-basins. Considering profiles at the same range of longitude, the averaged
10 DCM depth is deeper and more variable in the South-West region than in the North-West
11 region (see Table 4). In the eastern basin, the Adriatic region displays shallow and stable
12 DCM depths, whereas the Ionian and Levantine regions display deeper and more variable
13 DCM depths (Table 4).

14 Part of the variability observed in the different Mediterranean regions can be explained by
15 seasonality. All the Mediterranean regions have a seasonal variability in the DCM depth (Fig.
16 7), which is characterized by a widespread deepening from March to mid-summer, and a
17 shallowing from mid-summer to November. In all the Mediterranean regions, except the
18 North-West region, there is 40% deepening of the DCM between spring and summer (33% in
19 the North-West).

20 **4 Discussion**

21 **4.1 Methodological discussion**

22 **4.1.1 Comparison with MEDATLAS**

23 The climatological profiles for each of the four geographical points analyzed in the Sect. 3.1
24 have been computed from the MEDATLAS climatology and compared to their fluorescence
25 based counterparts evaluated here (Fig. 8). For each geographical point, the two versions of
26 [Chl-a] vertical profiles (fluorescence based and MEDATLAS) displayed similar ranges of
27 values, although differences are observed in the form of [Chl-a] vertical profiles. The
28 fluorescence based profiles often display thinner DCMs with higher [Chl-a] values than in the
29 MEDATLAS climatology (see for instance Fig. 8, panel B summer, panel C autumn and
30 panel D summer). Moreover, in the MEDATLAS climatology, very weak seasonal changes of

1 the DCM depth are visible. These divergences can be explained by the use of discrete data
2 and of interpolation in the MEDATLAS climatology, which prevents the proper
3 characterization of vertical structures. In winter, the MEDATLAS climatology, and
4 sometimes the fluorescence based climatology, show profiles with subsurface maxima (Fig. 8,
5 panels A, B, C, winter), which have not been observed in the monthly fluorescence based
6 time-series (Fig. 3). We hypothesize that these winter subsurface maxima could be an artifact
7 caused by the large averaging timescale (from December to March), leading to the
8 combination of [Chl-a] profiles with highly different vertical distributions (see Fig. 5).
9 Another particular feature of the MEDATLAS climatology that does not show in the
10 fluorescence-based climatology are the rises in summer and autumn surface [Chl-a] above
11 DCM (Fig. 8, panels A, B and D). We suggest that this feature could result from the
12 propagation by interpolation of the high surface [Chl-a] observed on coastal regions (see also
13 Bosc et al., 2004). In addition, considering the geographical positions of the available
14 MEDAR observations, in almost all the studied sub-basin (except Ionian) coastal observations
15 are included in the database. They might therefore be responsible for the observed difference
16 with the fluorescence-based climatology.

17 In summary, the results of this comparison demonstrate that, although the MEDATLAS
18 database is extremely valuable, the derived MEDATLAS fields for [Chl-a] present serious
19 limitations and they need to be updated.

20 **4.1.2 Methodological approaches**

21 In the present study, two different approaches have been used to describe the monthly
22 variability of [Chl-a] profiles. On one hand, the “standard” method consists in averaging [Chl-
23 a] values for a number of defined standard depths (i.e. Conkright et al., 2002, Sect. 3.1). On
24 the other hand, a “probabilistic” method (Sect. 3.2), for which each [Chl-a] profile is
25 considered as a whole, focuses the analysis on its general shape and on specific features (e.g.
26 DCM depth). The second approach requires an *a priori* knowledge of the different profile
27 shapes found in the database as well as the definition of an efficient and automatic procedure
28 to categorize the profiles. In this [study analysis](#), the main standard shapes and the classification
29 procedure were defined after individual visualization of all the fluorescence profiles in the
30 database and determination of their characteristics (i.e. D_{\max} , $F_{\text{MLD}}/F_{\text{T}}$, F_{\max}/F_{surf} , see Sect. 2.3
31 for details).

1 The two approaches are complementary. The “standard” method highlights the average
2 pattern of the [Chl-a] profile and provides the ranges of [Chl-a] values. However, [Chl-a]
3 values must be considered independently for each depth and the shape of the resulting
4 climatological profile has to be interpreted carefully because it is a composite. A typical
5 artifact of this method is the tendency of the DCM to be flattened (compare DCM of Fig. 3
6 and values of Table 2). In these cases (i.e. [Chl-a] profile extremely stable, as during summer,
7 or very dynamic, as during winter), the “probabilistic” analysis of the shape of the [Chl-a]
8 profile appears more pertinent. In addition, the “probabilistic” analysis provides information
9 on the environmental processes that lead to the observed [Chl-a] shape. As mentioned in Sect.
10 3.2.1, the “modified DCM” shape likely results from the erosion by upper vertical mixing of
11 the DCM structure while the “homogenous” standard shape is likely driven by vertical
12 mixing, which encompasses the whole [Chl-a] profile. Similarly, the “HSC” profiles,
13 associated to high surface [Chl-a] values (see Table 3), could be collected (and then
14 associated) to surface phytoplankton bloom conditions. Under these conditions, if there is no
15 nutrient limitation, growth rate is essentially affected by light availability and then decreases
16 with depth. This can account for the derived decrease in the [Chl-a] gradient from surface to
17 depth. Nevertheless, these conjectures have to be considered on a statistical basis. Indeed,
18 each individual profile is affected by complex and variable factors (i.e. vertical mixing, 3D
19 dynamic structures, light distribution, grazing pressure, Longhurst and Harrison, 1989, see
20 also discussion below), which sometimes lead to erratic [Chl-a] vertical distributions that
21 become difficult to explain (17% of profiles have been classed as “complex” standard
22 shapes). Finally, the “probabilistic” analysis also revealed that seasonal changes in [Chl-a]
23 profiles are not smooth and steady, as the climatological analysis may suggest, but are rather
24 strongly dynamic-extremely variable.

25 **4.2 A new vision of the [Chl-a] in the Mediterranean Sea**

26 **4.2.1 Comparison with satellite ocean color observations**

27 The main feature that emerges from the analysis of annual cycles of surface [Chl-a] from
28 ocean color data over the Mediterranean sea is the coexistence of two main types of cycle
29 (Bosc et al., 2004; D’Ortenzio and Ribera 2009; Lavigne et al., 2013). The two cycles (“NO
30 BLOOM” and “BLOOM”, following the definition of D’Ortenzio and Ribera d’Alcalà, 2009)
31 can be characterized, firstly, by a two-fold increase from summer to winter in the normalized
32 [Chl-a] (so-called NO BLOOM annual cycle) and secondly, by a moderate (two-fold) increase

1 in normalized [Chl-a] from summer to winter, followed by an exponential increase (three-
2 fold) in early spring (so-called BLOOM annual cycle). These previous findings are based on
3 satellite surface [Chl-a] and result from a complex statistical analysis (i.e. normalization of the
4 seasonal cycles, clustering analysis), but they have also been confirmed by the climatological
5 time-series presented here (see Sect. 3.1). Climatologies of [Chl-a] profiles (Fig. 3) for the
6 South-Western region (panel B), the Ionian region (panel C) and the Levantine region (panel
7 D), which correspond to the NO BLOOM regions identified by D'Ortenzio and Ribera
8 d'Alcalà (2009), display similarities in the seasonal variations of surface [Chl-a] and they also
9 showed a similar succession of winter homogeneous profiles and summer profiles with DCM.
10 In contrast, the time-series corresponding to the North-Western region (Fig. 3, panel A)
11 presents, in March and April, [Chl-a] vertical profiles characterized by high surface
12 concentrations (i.e. HSC profiles), confirming the specific feature of the North-Western
13 region in the Mediterranean Sea. Unlike NO BLOOM Mediterranean regions, in the North-
14 West region, the average winter MLD is deeper than the DCM and the nitracline depth (see
15 Table 4). This particularity explains the March-April bloom, which could be supported by
16 large winter nutrient supplies and/or the dilution of grazers. It also indicates that winter
17 vertical mixing fully destroys the nitracline, pycnocline and DCM, which have to be restored
18 each year. The annual renewal of these structures contributes to their tight coupling (see Fig. 3
19 panel A and Table 4), which is not observed in NO BLOOM Mediterranean regions (based on
20 Fig. 3 results, DCM and pycnocline are uncoupled). In NO BLOOM regions, ~~DCM and~~
21 ~~nitracline are not reached by the average winter MLD (see Table 4)~~ except for extreme MLD
22 events (Lavigne et al., 2013), winter MLD does not generally reach the depths of reached by
23 DCM and nitracline during summer (see Table 4).

24 Beyond the bimodal conception (i.e. BLOOM / NO BLOOM) of annual [Chl-a] cycles in the
25 Mediterranean Sea, there is an important and unresolved complexity marked by the presence
26 of regional differences within the two main biomass annual cycles. A good illustration of this
27 complexity is the identification by D'Ortenzio and Ribera d'Alcalà (2009) of three different
28 annual cycles (i.e. 3 bioregions) for the NO BLOOM dynamics. The probabilistic analysis of
29 the general shape of the [Chl-a] profiles ~~achieved~~performed in this paper also contributes to
30 refine the basic BLOOM / NO BLOOM scheme and should help to explain the complex
31 patterns observed from the surface. In Fig. 5, regional differences in the distribution of the
32 standard shapes for [Chl-a] vertical profiles are observed among the NO BLOOM regions (i.e.
33 South-West, Levantine and Ionian regions). The main difference is the significant proportion

1 of “HSC” like profiles during winter months (i.e. January, February and March) in the South-
2 West region, whereas this proportion is very small (less than 10%) in the Ionian sea, and even
3 zero in the Levantine Sea. The observation of “HSC” like profiles in the South-West region
4 suggests that, during winter, mixing is able to supply enough nutrients at the surface to
5 support episodic developments of phytoplankton close to the surface, when water column
6 begins to stabilize. This could also explain the higher [Chl-a] observed in the South-West
7 region and the difference between the South-Western and Eastern normalized [Chl-a] annual
8 cycles (D’Ortenzio and Ribera d’Alcalà, 2009). Compared to the Eastern Mediterranean Sea,
9 DCM and nitracline depths are shallow in the South-West region (Table 4). However, winter
10 mixing is constrained, in the Algerian basin, by the strong halocline associated to the
11 spreading of Atlantic Water, and barely reaches the nitracline depth (D’Ortenzio and Prieur,
12 2010; Lavigne et al., 2013). Therefore, As 3-D sub-mesoscale activity, associated to jets,
13 fronts and eddies, is also similarly intense in both, South-Western and Eastern basins (Rio et
14 al., 2007), our best explanation for the spatial divergences in the occurrence of “HSC” profiles
15 might originate in the regional differences in nutrient stocks below the nitracline. Indeed, for
16 the intermediate layer, the nitrate concentration is much higher in the Western than in the
17 Eastern basin (Ribera d’Alcalà et al., 2003). In addition, the nitrate to phosphate ratio
18 increases eastward, suggesting that phytoplankton growth is mainly limited by phosphate in
19 the Eastern Mediterranean Sea (Ribera d’Alcalà et al., 2003, Bethoux et al., 2002; Krom et al.,
20 1991). Hence, the absence of “HSC” profiles in the Eastern Mediterranean Sea could be due
21 to a too weak mixing efficiency to supply sufficient amounts of nitrate and phosphate for
22 supporting a phytoplankton bloom.

23 **4.2.2 High diversity of the Mediterranean [Chl-a]**

24 Although the Mediterranean Sea covers a relatively small latitudinal range (from 30°N to
25 45°N), previous findings, essentially based on satellite observations, have shown that in this
26 basin, the annual phytoplankton cycles representative of subtropical and mid-latitude regions
27 of the global ocean coexist (D’Ortenzio and Ribera d’Alcalà 2009, Lavigne et al., 2013).
28 Present results, which focus on the seasonal variability of the whole [Chl-a] vertical
29 distribution, confirm these previous statements. The climatological time-series of [Chl-a]
30 profiles (Fig. 3) for the South-Western region (panel B), the Ionian region (panel C) and the
31 Levantine region (panel D) are very close to typical subtropical behavior marked by the quasi-
32 permanent existence of the DCM (Letelier et al., 2004; Mignot et al., 2014). In particular, the
33 [Chl-a] climatology of the BATS station in the subtropical North Atlantic gyre (Steinberg et

1 al., 2001; Lavigne et al., 2012) displays many similarities, in terms of ranges of values for
2 [Chl-a], DCM depths and winter mixing depths, with the climatological time-series built in
3 the Levantine Sea (Fig. 3, panel D). The only main difference is that the “homogeneous”
4 climatological profiles begin in December in the Mediterranean regions and only in January at
5 the BATS station (Lavigne et al., 2012). Regarding seasonal cycles obtained for the North-
6 Western Mediterranean Sea, they can be easily compared to mid-latitude (40°-60°) regions
7 marked by an intense spring bloom as in the North Atlantic (Siegel et al., 2002) or in certain
8 regions of the Southern Ocean (Thomalla et al., 2011). Similarly to our northwestern
9 Mediterranean observations, the seasonal cycles for [Chl-a] vertical profiles presented by
10 Boss et al. (2008) in the Western North-Atlantic (about 50°N) and by Chiswell (2011) in the
11 waters east of New Zealand (about 40°S) display a majority of profiles with a “homogeneous”
12 shape during winter and, in spring, a predominance of profiles displaying a “HSC” shape or
13 an “homogeneous” shape with high [Chl-a] values. The coexistence of profiles with
14 “homogeneous” and “HSC” shapes during spring could be explained by the intermittent
15 feature of mixing, which continuously modifies the vertical distribution of [Chl-a] during the
16 spring bloom (Chiswell, 2011). Finally, it is important to mention that the summer situation is
17 very different between the North-Atlantic region studied by Boss et al. (2008) and the North-
18 Western Mediterranean Sea. Although, DCM like profiles are nearly permanent in the North-
19 Western Mediterranean from May/June, Boss et al. (2008) only observed them to start in late
20 summer.

21 The present study also shows that in the Mediterranean Sea, the specific features of the [Chl-
22 a] profiles with a “DCM” shape have a large variability, comparable to those observed in the
23 Global ocean, although occurring on shorter spatial scales. The most relevant indicator is
24 certainly the DCM depth, which was observed to range between 30m and more than 150m. As
25 expected (e.g. Cullen, 2015), the depth of the Mediterranean DCM is inversely related to the
26 surface [Ch-a] (Fig. 9). In addition, the relationship between the DCM depth and surface [Chl-
27 a] (blue curve on Fig. 9) is similar to the relationship reported for the Global ocean (red curve
28 on Fig. 9, Mignot et al., 2011). This observation suggests that certain DCM properties in the
29 Mediterranean Sea conform to the same generic properties established for the Global Ocean.

30 At the first order, the DCM depth variability in the Mediterranean Sea is related to the spatial
31 component and, in particular, longitude. The deepening of the DCM along a longitudinal
32 gradient (in the present study, DCM deepens by 1.6m per 1 degree of longitude east) agrees
33 with the previous review, also based on observations, by Crise et al. (1999). This general

1 deepening of the DCM with longitude covaries with the eastward increase of oligotrophy in
2 the Mediterranean Sea (Béthoux et al., 1998). This pattern is generally attributed to anti-
3 estuarine circulations in the Straits of Gibraltar and Sicily, which generate an eastward inflow
4 of surface nutrient depleted waters and a westward outflow of deep nutrient rich waters. In the
5 Eastern Mediterranean Sea, oligotrophy is also maintained by poor nutrient inputs from the
6 boundaries (atmosphere and coasts) and by the formation of Levantine Intermediate Water,
7 which is not the product of deep convection but of the subduction of surface water into
8 intermediate water layers (Robinson and Golnaraghi). As revealed by Table 4, regional
9 changes in DCM depth, nitracline depth and averaged daily PAR at DCM are correlated in the
10 Mediterranean Sea. The eastward deepening of the DCM depth and of the nitracline depth is
11 accompanied by a decrease in the mean daily averaged PAR at DCM (values ranging from 1
12 mol quanta m⁻² day⁻¹ in the North-West Mediterranean to 0.16 mol quanta m⁻² day⁻¹ in the
13 Levantine Sea). This trend concurs with the “general rule” that states that the DCM builds-up
14 where there is an optimal balance between the upward nutrient flux and the downward photon
15 flux and lies on top of the nutricline (Cullen, 2015). The large distance between DCM depth
16 and nitracline depth in the Ionian (36m) and the Levantine (83m) basins may be considered as
17 contradictory with the previous theory. However, according to Table 4, the estimations of
18 nitracline depths are not likely to be good estimators of the top of the nitracline, if the nitrate
19 gradient is not ~~sharp~~ enough ~~sharp feature~~, as is it the case, for example in the Eastern
20 Mediterranean Sea. Indeed, nitracline depths have been computed from discrete vertical
21 profiles, using the 1µM isoline (Lavigne et al., 2013).

22 Results from Fig. 10 also show that a seasonal component contributes to explain DCM
23 variability in the Mediterranean regions. The observed seasonal pattern of the DCM depth
24 (i.e. deepening from spring to summer and shallowing from summer to autumn) is consistent
25 with previous model results (Macias et al., 2014), and with individual Bio-Argo float
26 observations (Mignot et al., 2014). Letelier et al. (2004) and Mignot et al. (2014) explain this
27 seasonal pattern by considering that the DCM depth might be driven by the light availability
28 and that it would follow the depth of an isolume. This observation is confirmed here by the
29 analysis of the vertical [Chl-a] profile as a function of irradiance for the spring, summer and
30 autumn periods (Fig. 10). For all regions, from spring to summer, PAR at DCM depth
31 remains unchanged although [Chl-a] decreases. Accordingly to Letelier et al. (2004), higher
32 spring [Chl-a] may be explained by the temporal erosion of the upper nitracline from spring to

1 summer, supporting the hypothesis of deep biomass maxima. From summer to autumn, the
2 magnitude of DCMs remains roughly unchanged, similarly to the PAR at DCM.

3 **5 Conclusion**

4 Since the initial work of the MEDAR/MEDATLAS group (Maillard and coauthors, 2005;
5 Manca et al., 2004), the proposed study represents the first attempt to analyze the seasonal
6 variations of the [Chl-a] vertical distribution over the Mediterranean Sea. The picture of the
7 [Chl-a] field in the basin has been updated here, as it had been mainly derived from surface
8 satellite data or from limited and scarce in situ observations. Chlorophyll-a fluorescence data
9 (specifically calibrated and homogenized consistently processed with a dedicated method)
10 provided a significantly larger database than the commonly used in situ bottle estimations.
11 Additionally, a better description of the vertical distribution was made possible. 6790 profiles
12 of fluorescence were gathered and processed to carry out a comprehensive analysis of the
13 seasonal variability of the vertical [Chl-a] profiles within the main Mediterranean sub-basins.
14 The present analysis, in agreement with previous satellite results (D’Ortenzio and Ribera
15 d’Alcalà, 2009), demonstrates the coexistence of two main types of dynamics (i.e. subtropical
16 and mid-latitude dynamics) in the Mediterranean Sea. Mid-latitude dynamics are observed in
17 the North-Western basin. Their main specificity is the high occurrence of “HSC” profiles in
18 March and April, whereas this type of shape, associated to bloom conditions, is nearly absent
19 elsewhere during this season. The subtropical dynamics encompass most of the remaining
20 basin. It is characterized by an omnipresent DCM from spring to autumn and by a large
21 variety of [Chl-a] vertical shapes during winter. The present analysis also demonstrated that
22 the [Chl-a] pattern in the Mediterranean Sea is not uniform. Even among regions with
23 subtropical dynamics, a strong variability was observed in [Chl-a] values or DCM
24 characteristics. At the basin scale, this variability follows an eastward oligotrophic pattern.

25 The present study was often limited by the quantity of data, which did not allow for the
26 analysis of each region of the Mediterranean Sea (e.g. the Adriatic Sea). We regret the
27 singular absence of fluorescence profiles in oceanographic databases compared to other
28 parameters. For instance, in the MEDAR database, there are 118009 salinity profiles, 44928
29 oxygen profiles and only 1984 chlorophyll-a fluorescence profiles. Finally, in this study we
30 were only able to present climatological behaviors. Although it is a first and necessary step
31 for a better understanding of processes which impact seasonal variability of [Chl-a] vertical
32 profiles, it would be interesting to further study certain particular cases showing, with a high

1 frequency, annual series of vertical [Chl-a] profiles. These data have now become available
2 with the development of Bio-Argo floats (Johnson et al., 2009) and some studies have already
3 demonstrated their potential for such applications (Boss and Behrenfeld, 2010; Mignot et al.,
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24

1 Table 1. Description of sources for fluorescence profiles. In this table, only fluorescence
 2 profiles obtained in Mediterranean regions where bathymetry is superior to 100m are counted.
 3 Coastal regions have been neglected.

4

	Data source	Number of profiles
Online databases	PANGAEA (http://www.pangaea.de/)	93
	SISMER (http://www.ifremer.fr/sismer/index_FR.htm)	110
	WOD09 (http://www.nodc.noaa.gov/)	94
	OGS database (http://nodc.ogs.trieste.it/cocoon/data/dataset)	689
	SUB-TOTAL	986
French cruises	PROSOPE (Claustre et al., 2004)	96
	DYNAPROC (Andersen and Prieur, 2000)	251
	BOUM (Moutin et al., 2012)	573
	ALMOFRONT (Claustre et al., 2000)	1046
	DYFAMED (Marty et al., 2002)	191
	MOOSE-GE (http://hermes.dt.insu.cnrs.fr/moose/)	285
	DEWEX (Durrieu de Madron et al., 2011)	228
SUB-TOTAL	2670	
	SESAME Program (http://www.sesame-ip.eu/)	1815
	MEDAR Program (MEDAR Group., 2002)	228
	Bio-Argo (Xing et al., 2011; http://www.oao.obs-vlfr.fr/web/index.php)	1091
	TOTAL	6790

5

6

1 Table 2. Averaged Median and interquartile range (IQR) of [Chl-a] at DCM for each
 2 geographical point location analyzed on Fig. 3 (i.e. yellow diamonds on Fig. 1). Averaged
 3 [Chl-a] values Median and IQR were computed by averaging considering all the DCM depth
 4 [Chl-a] estimations extracted from available “DCM” like profiles. IQR is the difference
 5 between the third and the first quartile.

	Point: 42°N 5°E (North-West)				Point: 38°N 5°E (South-West)				Point: 36°N 17°E (Ionian)								
	MEAN	MEDIAN	SD	IQR	N	MEAN	MEDIAN	SD	IQR	N	MEAN	MEDIAN	SD	IQR			
April	1.2207	0.6648			26						0.7370	0.2426			107	0.5047	0.0709
May	0.8683	0.2033			38	0.9397	0.1823			9	0.7371	0.2425			37	0.5049	0.0908
June	0.9997	0.2836			129	1.2408	0.7612	0.26		6	0.9081	0.2328			17	0.4737	0.0925
July	0.9897	0.4067			67	0.8684	0.1720			160	0.4742	0.1523			9	0.4642	0.1510
August	0.6957	0.3239			45	0.8473	0.4036			7	0.4441	0.1415			22	0.4432	0.1208
September	0.6563	0.2621			41	0.9962	0.9816			9	0.3432	0.1117			23	0.3432	0.0706
October	0.90079	0.4532			33	1.06	0.1011			6	0.4843	0.2413			81	0.3132	0.0403

7

1 Table 3. Average-Median value (bold) and inter-first and ninth decile-range for parameters:
 2 MLD, euphotic depth (Z_e), surface [Chl-a] observed by satellite (Chl_{SAT}) and percentage of
 3 chlorophyll content in the upper 20m layer compared to the whole integrated content
 4 (F_{surf}/F_T).

5

	MLD (m)	Z_e (m)	Chl_{SAT} (mg m^{-3})	F_{surf}/F_T (%)
DCM	17	72	0.1513	65%
	<u>14</u> 11-27	57-90	0.05-0.27	2-11
Modified DCM	30	52	0.3932	2221%
	<u>26</u> 13-52	37-66	0.16-0.63	13-32
Homogeneous	186	51	0.5331	3221%
	<u>86</u> 27-596	<u>52</u> 29-71	0.13-1.19	11-43
Complex	39	48	0.5236	3028%
	<u>33</u> 17-63	33-62	0.18-0.80	18-47
HSC	57	36	1.22	3531%
	<u>35</u> 13-95	<u>34</u> 17-57	<u>0.77</u> 0.25-2.76	20-53

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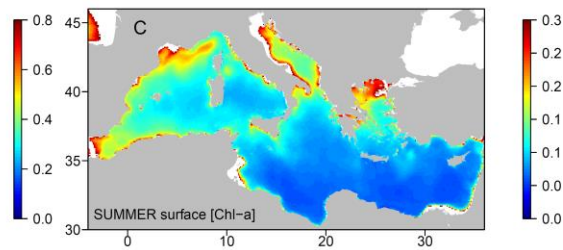
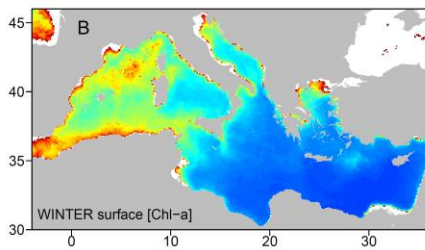
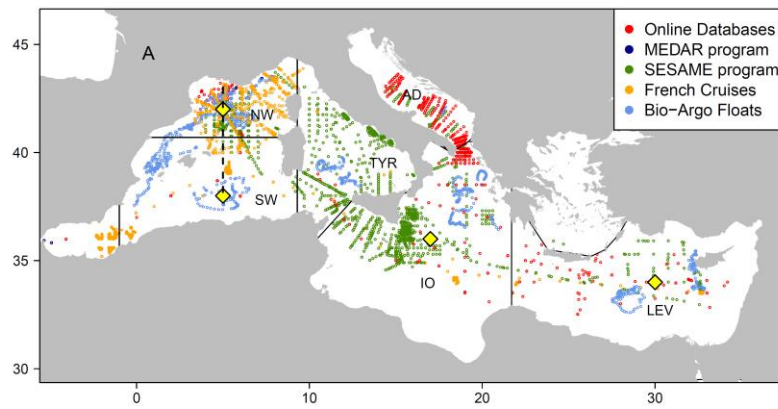
1 Table 4. Regional average values and standard deviations (numbers in brackets) for a set of
2 parameters. Winter MLD was computed with January and February MLDs. The DCM depth
3 and the PAR at DCM has been computed only for profiles belonging to the “DCM” standard
4 shape category. PAR at DCM has been determined for each fully calibrated (i.e. 1998-2014
5 database) [Chl-a] vertical profiles. The vertical profile of the PAR attenuation coefficient was
6 computed from [Chl-a] vertical profile and applied to surface PAR estimates derived from the
7 monthly SeaWiFS PAR climatology. For the nitracline depth, the isoline 1 μ M was computed
8 on a large set of nitrates profiles derived from MEDAR and SESAME programs (see Lavigne
9 et al., 2013 for details about this database).

10

	Winter MLD (m)	Nitracline depth (m)	DCM depth (m)	PAR at DCM (mol photons m ⁻² day ⁻¹)
North-West	342 (623)	62 (38)	51.7 (12.5)	1.03 (0.86)
South-West	47 (63)	78 (24)	73 (17)	0.77 (0.77)
Tyrrhenian	45 (38)	97 (23)	73 (13)	0.57 (0.19)
Adriatic	126 (181)	56 (24)	56 (10)	--
Ionian	67 (46)	119 (46)	83 (29)	0.51 (0.64)
Levantine	122 (122)	185 (47)	102 (17)	0.16 (0.16)

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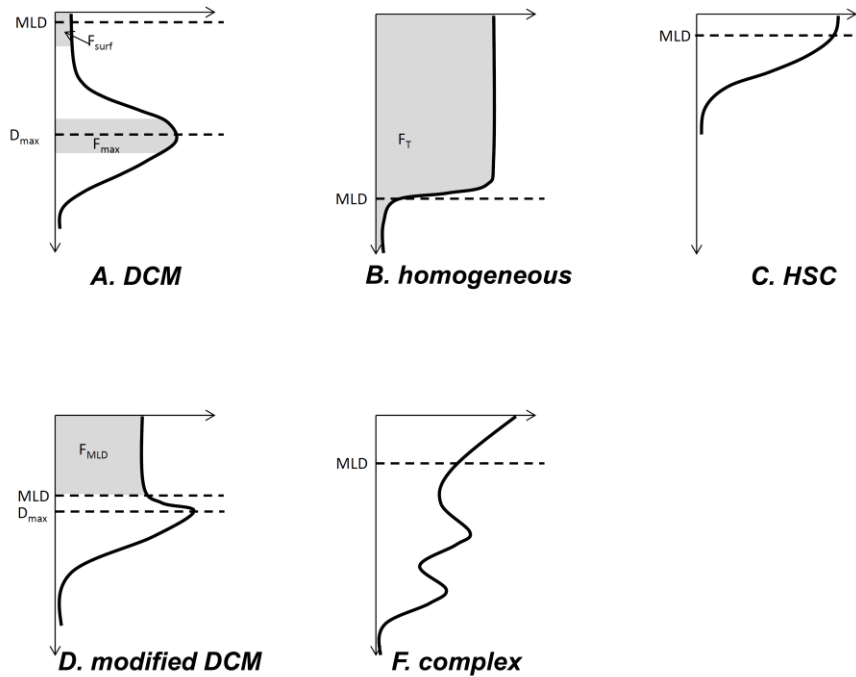


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 2 Figure 1. Panel A: spatial distribution of fluorescence profiles available in the database.
 3 Colors indicate the source of data. Black lines delineate large Mediterranean regions: they are
 4 referred by NW for “North-West”, SW for “South-West”, TYR for “Tyrrhenian”, AD for
 5 “Adriatic”, IO for “Ionian” and LEV for “Levantine”. Yellow diamonds refer to the center of
 6 region for which a climatology of [Chl-a] vertical profile has been computed (see Fig. 3) and
 7 the dashed black line shows the center of the North-West transect (see Fig. 4). Panels B and
 8 C: SeaWiFS climatology of surface [Chl-a] for winter (panel B) and summer (panel C). Note
 9 that color scales are not the same.

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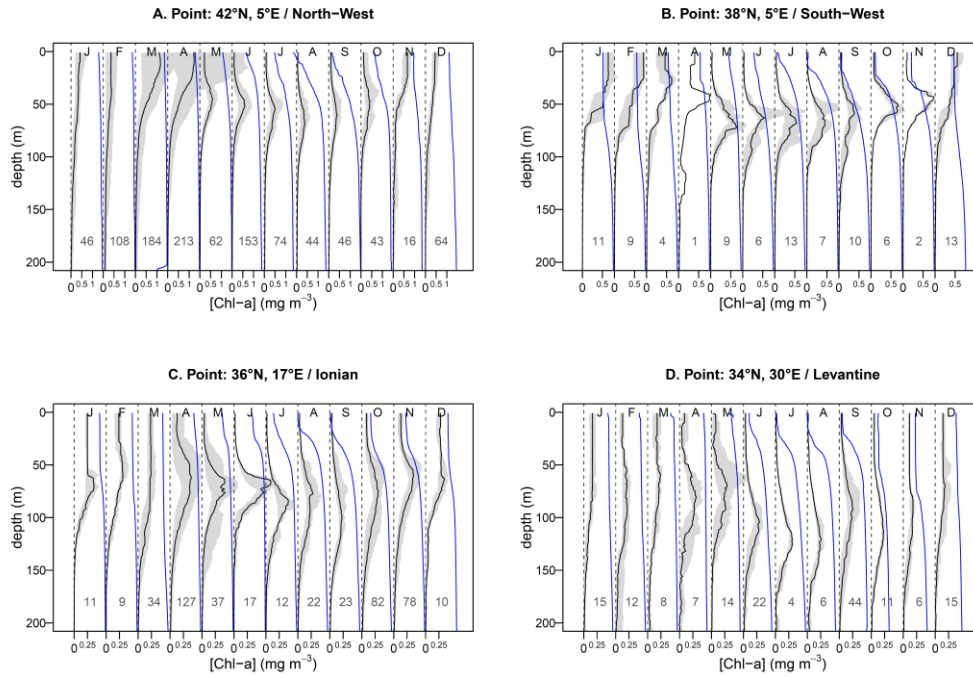
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4 Figure 2. The five standard shapes for [Chl-a] vertical profiles identified in our dataset. See
5 Sect. 2.3 of the text for more details about these shapes and for a description of the algorithm
6 used to identify them. Black solid lines represent the normalized [Chl-a] vertical profile.
7 Metrics used for the determination of the profile standard shape (i.e. MLD, D_{\max} , F_{surf} , F_{\max} ,
8 F_T , see text Sect. 2.3 for definitions) are represented on standard profiles. Although all of
9 these metrics have been computed on each fluorescence profile, they could not be represented
10 on a same profile for practical reasons.

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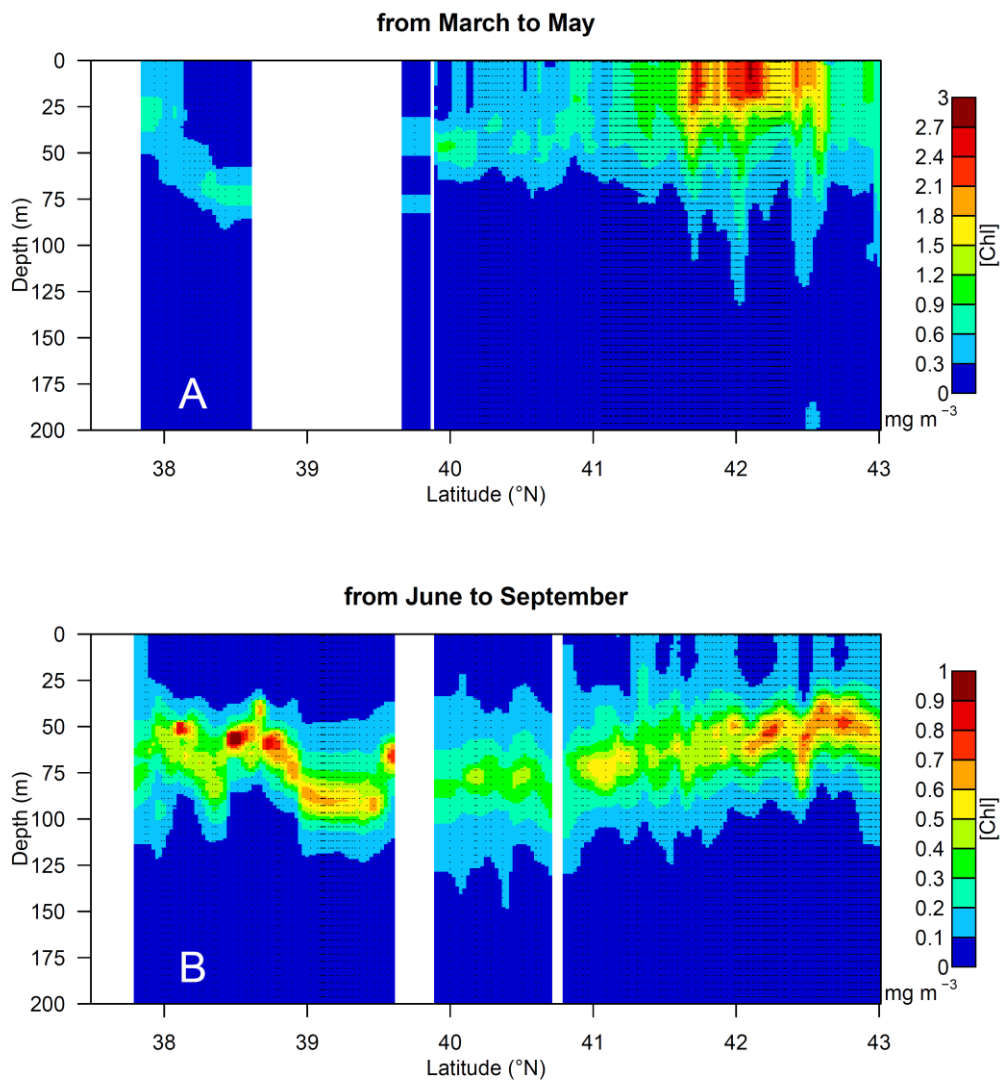
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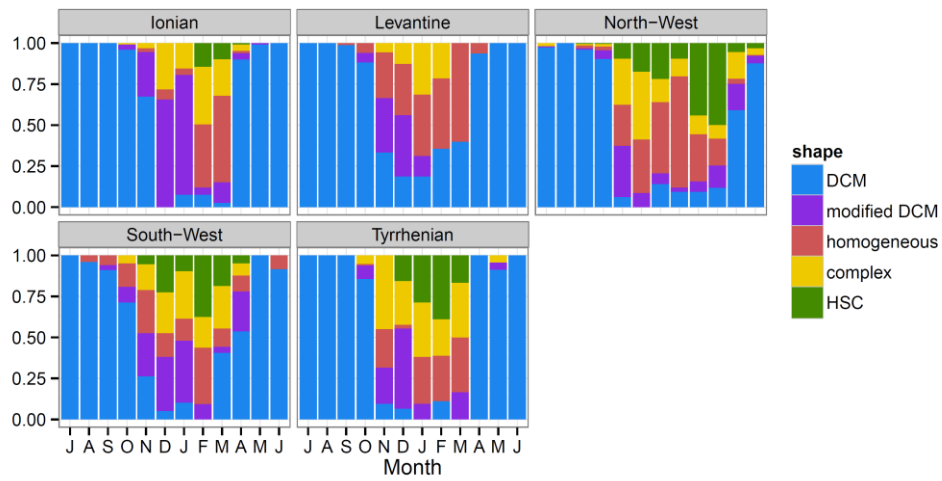
4 Figure 3. Climatology of [Chl-a] vertical profiles (black lines) for 4 points of the
5 Mediterranean Sea (see yellow diamonds on Fig. 1). All profiles located within a 4°x4° box
6 centered on indicated positions were retained. The median value for each month is the black
7 line. The grey zone indicates the 0.1 quantile – 0.9 quantile range. Numbers below
8 climatological profiles indicate on the number of available data profiles used to compute
9 them. Normalized average water density profiles are superimposed (blue lines).

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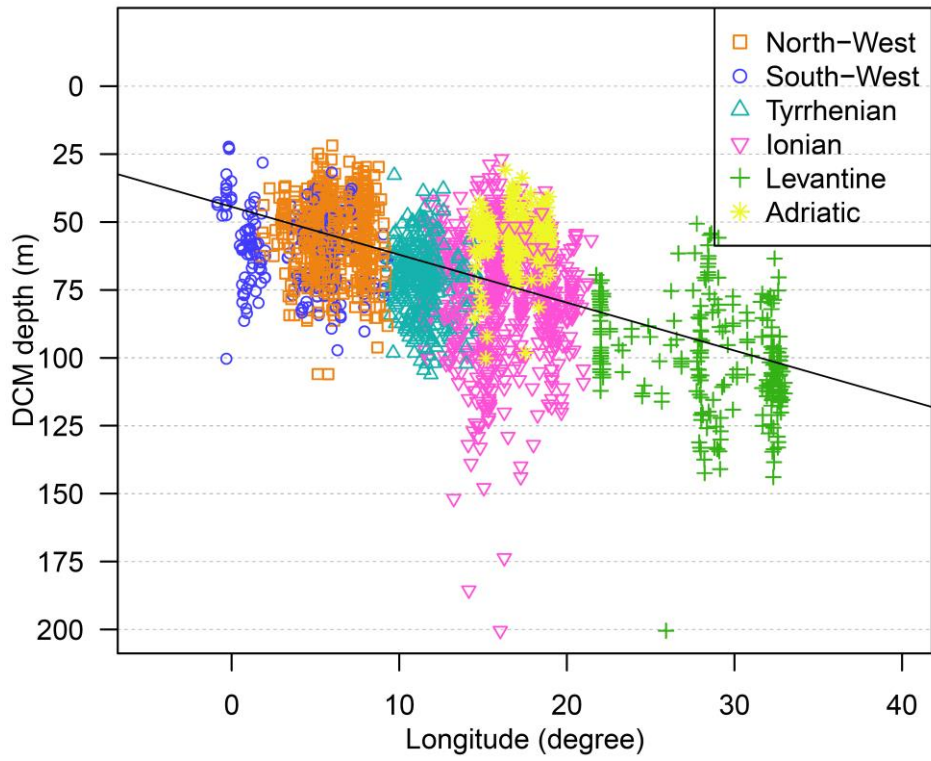
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 2
 3 Figure 4. North-South climatological transect of [Chl-a] along the 5°W meridian (see the
 4 black dotted line on Fig. 1). Panel A represents the averaged situation for the March to May
 5 period and panel B for the June to September period. Note that color scales are different
 6 between panels A and B. For each available data profile, a vertical dotted line was
 7 superimposed to the graphic.
 8



1
 2 Figure 5. Histograms indicating for each month and each Mediterranean region, the
 3 proportion of each type of standard shape observed in the 1994-2014 database (i.e. “DCM”,
 4 “homogeneous”, “HSC”, “modified DCM” and “complex” see Fig. 2 and Sect. 2.3). The
 5 height of color bars indicates the proportion of profiles which were classed in each category
 6 of standard shapes. Note that months range from July to June.

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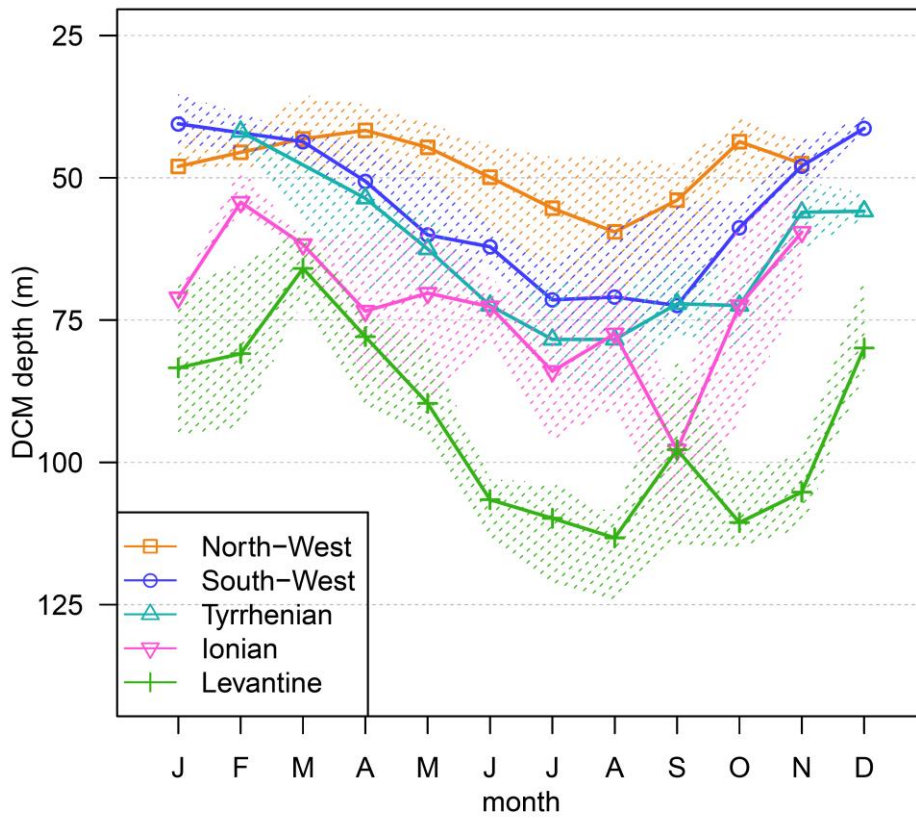
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4 Figure 6. DCM depth as a function of longitude. DCM depths were computed only on “DCM”
5 like profiles (see Sect. 2.3 for an objective definition of “DCM” like profile). Black line
6 represents the linear model between the DCM depth and the longitude. Its slope is 1.6 m per
7 degree of longitude.

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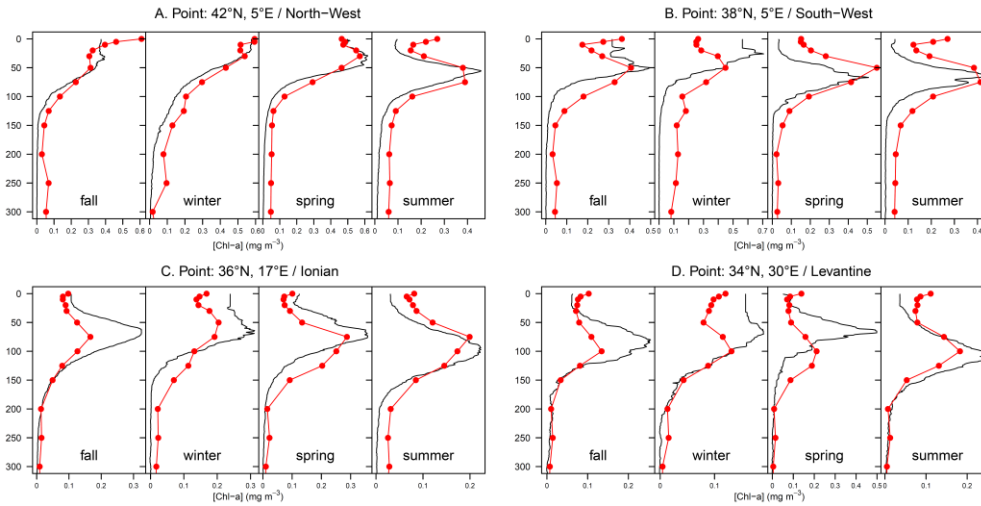
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4 Figure 7. Seasonal evolution of the DCM depth. DCM depths were computed only on “DCM”
5 like profiles (see Sect. 2.3 for an objective definition of “DCM” like profile). Symbols refer to
6 monthly median whereas dotted areas indicate the inter-quartile range.

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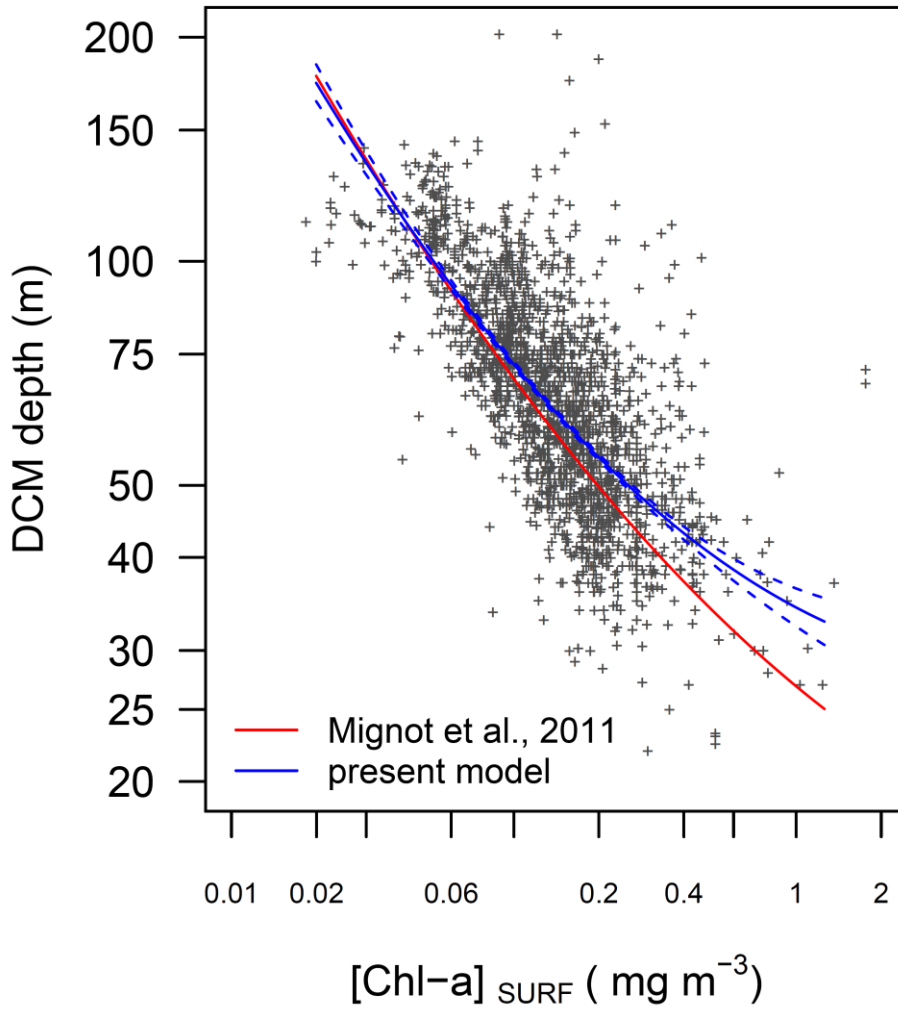
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4 Figure 8. [Chl-a] profiles obtained from the MEDATLAS climatology for the four locations
5 analyzed on Fig. 3 (red lines and red points). MEDATLAS climatology was downloaded from
6 http://modb.oce.ulg.ac.be/backup/medar/medar_med.html. For comparison, corresponding
7 seasonally averaged profiles were computed from the 1998-2014 [Chl-a] fluorescence
8 database (black lines). Seasons are calendar-based seasons.

9

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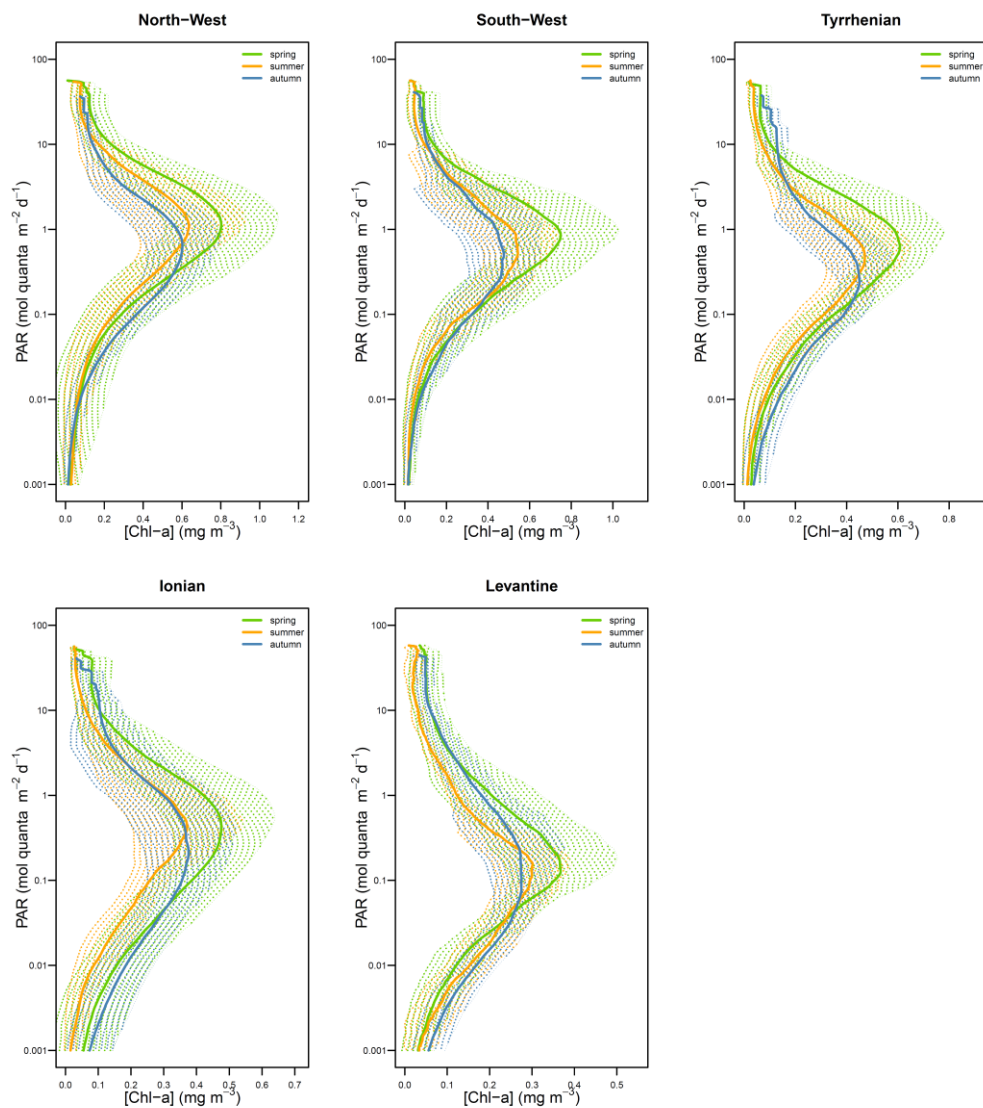
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2

3 Figure 9. Scatter plots of the DCM depth as a function of surface [Chl-a]. Only “DCM” like
4 profiles were used for this analysis. Surface [Chl-a] were obtained from satellite ocean color
5 data. The blue solid line refers to a second order polynomial model determined from present
6 data ($R^2 = 0.52$) with its confidence intervals (blue dotted lines) and the red line represents
7 model computed by Mignot et al. (2011) from a global ocean dataset.

8



1
 2 Figure 10. Averaged vertical distribution of [Chl-a] as a function of PAR with standard
 3 deviation (dotted area). Spring refers to the April-June period, summer to July and August and
 4 autumn to the September-November period.