

1 **Phytoplankton dynamics driven by vertical nutrient fluxes during the spring**
2 **inter-monsoon period in the northeastern South China Sea**

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14 **Abstract**

15 A field survey from the coastal ocean zones to the offshore pelagic zones of the
16 northeastern South China Sea (nSCS) was conducted during the inter-monsoon period of
17 May 2014 when the region was characterized by prevailing low-nutrient conditions.
18 Comprehensive field measurements were made for not only hydrographic and
19 biogeochemical properties but also phytoplankton growth and microzooplankton grazing
20 rates. We also performed estimations of the vertical turbulent diffusivity and diffusive
21 nutrient fluxes using a Thorpe-scale method and the upwelling nutrient fluxes by Ekman
22 pumping using satellite-derived wind stress curl. Our results suggest that phytoplankton
23 chlorophyll patchiness in the nSCS during the study period is largely controlled by
24 vertical nutrient fluxes with combined contributions from both turbulent diffusion and
25 curl-driven upwelling. Our results also reveal the generally increasing role of turbulent
26 diffusion but decreasing role of curl-driven upwelling on vertical transport of nutrients
27 from the coastal ocean zones to the offshore pelagic zones in the nSCS. Elevated nutrient
28 fluxes observed near Dongsha Islands were found to support high new production leading
29 to net growth of phytoplankton community, whereas the low nutrient fluxes near
30 southwest Taiwan had resulted in a negative net community growth leading to decline of
31 a surface phytoplankton bloom.

32 1. Introduction

33 Nutrient fluxes from below the euphotic zone are essential for phytoplankton primary
34 production in the surface ocean (Eppley and Peterson, 1979), while the mechanisms
35 regulating those fluxes are still inadequately understood in the northeastern South China
36 Sea (nSCS), particularly during the spring intermonsoon period. Wind-driven coastal
37 upwelling, river discharge, and inter-shelf nutrient transport were important mechanisms
38 supplying nutrients to the euphotic zone of the nSCS (Liu et al., 2002; Gan et al., 2010;
39 Han et al., 2013), while their contributions to primary production were mostly limited to
40 coastal regions as these nutrients would be mostly utilized in the coastal waters before
41 reaching the large area of the nSCS. Kuroshio intrusion would dilute the nSCS waters
42 with the low nutrient North Pacific waters (Farris and Wimbush. 1996), which appeared
43 to be much weaker during April-September (Centurioni et al., 2004). Contribution of
44 nitrogen fixation to new production of the nSCS was generally negligible compared to the
45 nitrate-based new production (Chen et al., 2005; Bombar et al., 2010). Atmospheric
46 deposition of anthropogenic nitrogen could support up to ~20% of the annual new
47 production in the nSCS exceeding those from riverine inputs (Kim et al., 2014). But its
48 contribution would be much less during the spring inter-monsoon season as the reduced
49 rate of atmospheric deposition (Lin et al., 2009).

50 Diapycnal mixing by turbulent dissipation was recently found to be important for the
51 supply of new nitrogen in the nSCS, where the vertical turbulent diffusivities were an
52 order of magnitude higher than the adjacent West Pacific Ocean (Tian et al., 2009; Liu
53 and Lozovatsky 2012; Yang et al., 2014). It was also suggested that phytoplankton
54 blooms off the west coast of the nSCS could be induced by wind stress curl-driven
55 upwelling during the spring inter-monsoon season (Wang and Tang 2014), which would
56 cause a local uplift of isopycnals leading to nutrient injection into the euphotic zone with
57 subsequent changes of community structure and productivity (Rykaczewski and Checkley
58 2008; Li et al., 2015). By modifying the surface wind stress and wind stress curl via
59 air-sea coupling, the eddy-induced Ekman pumping (Gaube et al., 2013) was important
60 for phytoplankton production in the nSCS during the inter-monsoon transition period (Lin
61 et al., 2010). As both intermittent turbulent diffusion and wind-driven Ekman pumping
62 affect the vertical transport of nutrients on temporal scales similar to the generation time

63 of phytoplankton, they will have large influences on plankton dynamics of the upper
64 ocean (Cullen et al., 2002). It is therefore important to investigate the roles of these two
65 mechanisms in driving the variability of phytoplankton biomass and primary production
66 in the large area of the nSCS.

67 Spatial distribution of phytoplankton at sea is a result of complex interactions
68 between physical and biological processes (Davis et al., 1991; Abraham 1998). In
69 addition to the vertical nutrient fluxes, phytoplankton biomass and productivity of the
70 nSCS are influenced by growth-grazing dynamics (Chen 2005; Huang et al., 2011; Zhou
71 et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2013). Shifts in the dominance of phytoplankton species in the
72 western South China Sea were believed to be driven by a close coupling of the mortality
73 rates of different phytoplankton groups via common grazers such as nanoflagellates
74 (Chen et al., 2009). There was on average ~61% of phytoplankton growth lost to
75 microzooplankton grazing in coastal upwelling regions of the nSCS in response to
76 increased nutrient fluxes, whereas growth and grazing mortality rates were mostly
77 balanced on the shelf and shelf break areas without upwelling events (Huang et al., 2011).
78 It was also suggested that the balance of phytoplankton growth and microzooplankton
79 grazing in the pelagic nSCS could be perturbed by physical disturbances such as eddies,
80 fronts, and typhoons, leading to large deviations of planktonic ecosystem from the steady
81 state (Zhou et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2013).

82 Here, we present results of a field survey from the coastal ocean zones to the offshore
83 pelagic zones in the nSCS conducted during the spring inter-monsoon transition of May
84 2014, when the region was characterized by prevailing low nutrient conditions as a result
85 of weak and variable winds (Lin et al., 2010). Comprehensive measurements were made
86 for hydrographic and biogeochemical properties, as well as biological rates including
87 phytoplankton growth and grazing rates and net nutrient consumption rates. We also
88 performed estimations of the vertical turbulent diffusivity and diffusive nutrient fluxes
89 using a Thorpe-scale method (Gargett and Garner 2008; Li et al., 2012) and the upwelling
90 nutrient fluxes by Ekman pumping using satellite-derived wind stress curl (Gill 1982;
91 Risien and Chelton 2008). In synthesizing these field data, the focus of this paper are to
92 (1) investigate the spatial patterns of vertical nutrient fluxes in the nSCS, (2) determine
93 the relative roles of turbulent diffusion and Ekman pumping to vertical transport of

94 nutrients in the upper ocean, and (3) understand the linkage between vertical nutrient
95 fluxes and phytoplankton dynamics in the nSCS during the spring inter-monsoon period.

96

97 **2. Materials and methods**

98 2.1. Site description, field sampling, and measurements

99 There are typically high nutrients in the coastal regions of the nSCS due to river
100 discharge, inter-shelf transport, and upwelling and mixing (Gan et al., 2010), in contrast
101 to the oligotrophic low-latitude offshore regions with strong stratification. The nSCS is
102 also strongly influenced by Kuroshio intrusion through the Luzon Strait (Farris and
103 Wimbush 1996). The intruded Kuroshio waters with higher temperature and salinity but
104 lower nutrients are often transported westward via eddies and Ekman advection
105 (Centurioni et al., 2004) influencing the large area of the nSCS on seasonal time-scales.

106 A field survey of the nSCS (Fig. 1) was conducted during May 2014 aboard the *R/V*
107 *Shiyan III* of the South China Sea Institute of Oceanology. From May 14th to May 16th,
108 2014, a transect from the coastal waters near Shantou to the offshore waters near the
109 Luzon Strait was comprehensively sampled to investigate the spatial patterns of
110 hydrographic and biogeochemical properties of the nSCS. Station S₁ (22°N, 119.5°E) was
111 chosen as a reference time-series station with continuous CTD sampling of 13 casts
112 within 24 hours (start: 10:00 am, May 18th, 2014). Stations A (21.9°N, 120°E with a
113 bottom depth of 1547 m) near the southwest of Taiwan and station B (20.5°N, 117°E with
114 a bottom depth of 607 m) in the southeast of Dongsha Islands were selected for dilution
115 experiments to quantify phytoplankton growth and microzooplankton grazing rates.

116 Discrete seawater samples at depths of 0 m, 25 m, 50 m, 75 m, 100 m, 200 m, 300 m,
117 500 m, and 700 m were collected using a SeaBird SBE 9/11 CTD rosette water sampler
118 system, providing high resolution hydrographic measurements of the upper water column
119 with internal pressure, conductivity, and temperature sensors. We define euphotic zone as
120 the layer above 1% of surface Photosynthetically Active Radiation (PAR), measured by a
121 PAR sensor (Biospherical Instrument, Inc.). After inline filtrations from the PVC Niskin
122 bottles through 0.8 μm Nuclepore filters, seawater samples for nutrients were frozen
123 immediately and stored in a refrigerator until final analyses after the cruise. For
124 chlorophyll-*a* sampling, 500 ml of seawater was gently filtered (<50 mmHg) through a

125 GF/F (Whatman) filter, which was wrapped in a piece of aluminum foil and kept at -20°C
 126 on board. Upon return to the lab, chlorophyll-*a* samples were sonicated for 20 min and
 127 extracted in 5 ml 90% acetone at 4°C in the dark for 24 hours. These samples were
 128 centrifuged at 4000 rpm for 10 min before final determinations by standard fluorescence
 129 methods (Parsons et al., 1984) using a Turner Designs Model 10 Fluorometer.
 130 Concentrations of nitrate plus nitrite, phosphate and silicate were determined by a Seal
 131 AA3 auto analyzer (Bran-Lube, GmbH). The low concentrations of nitrate plus nitrite and
 132 phosphate within the euphotic zone were also determined by the long-cell method (Li et
 133 al., 2008; Li and Hansell 2008) by incorporating a 50 cm liquid waveguide cell to AA3
 134 with detection limits of $\sim 0.02\ \mu\text{M}$ and $\sim 0.01\ \mu\text{M}$, respectively.

135

136 2.2. Remote sensing observations

137 High-resolution satellite data, including sea surface temperature (SST), sea surface
 138 chlorophyll (SSChl), surface geostrophic currents, as well as surface wind stresses and
 139 Ekman velocities, were used to assess the spatial change of these surface properties in the
 140 nSCS during the study period. Monthly averaged sea surface chlorophyll-*a* ($0.04^{\circ}\times 0.04^{\circ}$)
 141 was acquired from the NASA's Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer data
 142 observed by the Aqua Satellite (MODIS-Aqua). Near real time geostrophic currents
 143 ($0.2^{\circ}\times 0.2^{\circ}$) were from the NOAA's CoastWatch data based on the daily sea level height
 144 anomaly and a climatological mean dynamic height field by NOAA/AOML. Daily sea
 145 surface temperature ($0.1^{\circ}\times 0.1^{\circ}$) was acquired from the NOAA's Geostationary
 146 Operational Environmental Satellite –Polar Operational Environmental Satellite program
 147 (GOES-POES). Daily Ekman upwelling velocities and surface wind stresses with a
 148 resolution of $0.25^{\circ}\times 0.25^{\circ}$ were derived from the Advanced Scatterometer data by the
 149 European Meteorological and Operational satellite program (METOP-ASCAT). The
 150 Ekman pumping velocity (w_e , negative for downwelling) at the depth of Ekman layer is
 151 calculated as (Gill, 1982)

$$152 \quad w_e = \frac{1}{\rho_w} \left(\nabla \times \frac{\boldsymbol{\tau}}{f} \right)$$

153 (1)

154 where ρ_w is the density of seawater, which is assumed constant at $1024\ \text{kg m}^{-3}$; f is the

155 Coriolis parameter; τ is the vector of wind stress.

156

157 2.3 Thorpe-scale analyses and vertical diffusivity

158 We applied a Thorpe-scale based approach (Thorpe 1977; Galbraith and Kelley 1996;
159 Gargett and Garner 2008; Li et al., 2012) to estimate fine structure and turbulent
160 diffusivity for each station using CTD downcast data. The method combines several
161 criteria to determine the real overturns from a density profile (Li et al., 2012), including
162 the test of minimum thickness, the run-length and water mass tests (Galbraith and Kelley
163 1996), as well as the tests of minimal overturn ratio and maximal T/S tightness (Gargett
164 and Garner 2008). These criteria ensure that the maximal density difference within an
165 overturn is greater than twice the measurement noise (0.001 kg m^{-3}). The length scale of
166 an overturn is larger than twice the vertical resolution (Nyquist theorem) and larger than a
167 minimum thickness (Galbraith and Kelley 1996). The percentage of positive/negative
168 displacements within an overturn (the overturn ratio) is larger than 0.2 and the deviations
169 on a T/S diagram are less than 0.003 (Gargett and Garner 2008). The vertical resolution
170 of CTD sampling during the cruise was $\sim 10 \text{ cm}$ with a fall rate of $\sim 2.4 \text{ m s}^{-1}$. Therefore,
171 only overturns larger than 0.5 m are included, to obtain five data point resolution. We
172 discard data in the upper 10 m , as the Thorpe approach is not strictly valid there. Once an
173 overturn is identified, the Thorpe scale (L_T) is calculated from the root mean square of the
174 vertical displacement (d_z) as $L_T = (\Sigma d_z^2)^{0.5}$.

175 Turbulent kinetic energy dissipation rate (ε) is calculated from L_T and N by

$$176 \quad \varepsilon = 0.64 \cdot L_T^2 \cdot N^3$$

177 (2)

178 where N is the buoyancy frequency given by $N^2 = -g\rho_0^{-1}(\partial\rho/\partial z)$ with g the gravitational
179 acceleration, ρ_0 the mean density, and $\partial\rho/\partial z$ the density gradient across each overturn
180 (Galbraith and Kelley 1996). According to Osborn (1980), the vertical diffusivity (K_z) can
181 be estimated from ε and N by

$$182 \quad K_z = 0.2 \cdot \varepsilon \cdot N^{-2}$$

183 (3)

184 The diffusive nutrient fluxes at the depth of interest can be estimated by multiplying the

185 diffusivity (K_z) by the local nutrient gradient ($\partial C/\partial z$). Nutrient gradient, at the depth of Z_i
186 with the concentration of C_i , is approximately estimated by $(C_{i+1}-C_i)/(Z_{i+1}-Z_i)$, with C_{i+1}
187 the concentrations at Z_{i+1} immediately next to Z_i .

188

189 2.4 Setup of dilution experiments

190 Phytoplankton growth and microzooplankton grazing in the surface waters of stations
191 A and B near the edge of continental shelf were assessed on board using dilution
192 technique (Landry and Hassett 1982; Landry et al., 1998; Li et al., 2011) on May 13th and
193 May 17th, 2014. All the bottles, tubing and carboys were soaked in 10% (v/v)
194 hydrochloric acid solution for over 24 hours and they were rinsed several times with
195 deionized water and seawater before each experiment. Surface seawater, collected by an
196 acid-washed polyethylene bucket, was screened through a 200- μ m mesh before being
197 transferred into polycarbonate carboys as raw seawater. A dilution series was prepared
198 with 0%, 25%, 50%, 75%, and 100% unfiltered seawater in duplicated polycarbonate
199 bottles (0% unfiltered seawater sample was not performed at station B). Measured
200 amounts of particle-free seawater, obtained by filtering the raw seawater with 0.45 μ m
201 filters, were added to 2.4-liter polycarbonate bottles. These samples were then enriched
202 with additional nutrients to promote constant growth of phytoplankton. Finally, each
203 bottle was gently filled with unfiltered seawater to its capacity. There was also one bottle
204 filled with 100% unfiltered raw seawater without nutrient enrichment to serve as the
205 control for our experiment. All the bottles were tightly capped and incubated for 24 hours
206 in a deck incubator, which was covered with a neutral density screen to mimic the natural
207 sunlight and filled with flowing seawater from the sea surface to control the temperature.
208 Duplicate 300 ml samples were taken from each bottle before and after the dilution
209 experiments for chlorophyll-*a* measurements.

210 Specific rates of nutrient-saturated phytoplankton growth (μ_n , d⁻¹) and
211 microzooplankton grazing (g , d⁻¹) are estimated by least-square regression between the
212 net growth rates (η , d⁻¹) and the dilution factors (D) as

$$213 \quad \eta = \frac{1}{t} \ln \left(\frac{P_t}{P_0} \right) = \mu_n - D \cdot g$$

214

(4)

215 where P_0 and P_t are the initial and final concentrations of chlorophyll-*a*, respectively and
216 t is the duration of the incubation. The natural phytoplankton growth rate (μ), which is
217 often subjected to nutrient limitation (Landry et al., 1998), is finally estimated from the
218 net growth rate of raw seawater without nutrient enrichment (η_{raw}) by $\mu = \eta_{\text{raw}} + g$.

219 To examine the response of the phytoplankton community to nutrient enrichment, two
220 bottles of raw seawater with nutrient additions were incubated for 4 days, with
221 chlorophyll-*a* and nutrient samples taken at the very beginning and each day afterwards.
222 Nutrient data within the exponential growth phase is used to estimate the specific net
223 nutrient consumption rate (m) of the incubated community by linear regression of $\ln(C)$
224 and t assuming

$$\frac{dC}{dt} = -m \cdot C$$

(5)

227 where C is the concentration of dissolved nutrients in the sample.

228

229 **3. Results**

230 3.1 Hydrographic dynamics of the nSCS

231 During the survey of May 2014, waters of the nSCS can be grouped into three regions
232 (Fig. 1): the coastal ocean zone (stations C₁₋₆), the offshore pelagic zone (stations C₇₋₁₀),
233 and the water-intrusion zone near the Luzon Strait (stations C₁₁₋₁₃). These three different
234 zones were influenced by a diverse set of physical processes. The coastal ocean zone,
235 which can be further separated into two subregions including the nearshore area (stations
236 C₁₋₂) and the continental shelf (stations C₃₋₆), was strongly affected by wind-driven
237 upwelling processes including Ekman transport and Ekman pumping (Gan et al., 2010).
238 The nearshore area was characterized by low sea surface temperature (Fig. 2a) as a result
239 of upwelling via Ekman transport driven by southwest monsoon along the shore. Ekman
240 pumping induced by wind stress curl showed a significant increase near the edge of the
241 continental shelf far away from the coastline (Fig. 2b). Upward transport of the deeper
242 water with lower temperature but higher salinity along the shelf slope was clearly seen
243 during the transect (Fig. 3a and 3b), which could be a result of direct upwelling or
244 alongshore advection of upwelled waters from upstream. Both the offshore pelagic zone

245 and the water-intrusion zone are far from the coast with bottom depths more than 2000 m
246 (Fig. 1). The offshore pelagic zone was relatively stable with weak surface geostrophic
247 currents, while the water-intrusion zone was strongly influenced by Kuroshio intrusion
248 through the Luzon Strait (Fig. 2a).

249 Sea surface temperature from satellite showed a generally increasing trend from the
250 coastal regions near Shantou to the offshore regions near Luzon Strait due to the
251 decreasing latitude (Fig. 2a). The observed cross-shelf gradient of surface temperature
252 from the discrete bottle measurements is in good agreement with the satellite SST data,
253 with an average of 24.0 ± 0.6 °C near the coast, 25.2 ± 0.2 °C on the continental shelf,
254 28.4 ± 0.5 °C in the offshore pelagic zone, and 29.1 ± 0.5 °C near the Luzon Strait (Fig.
255 3a). Surface salinity was less variable than temperature from nearshore to offshore with a
256 difference of less than 0.3 during the survey (Fig. 3b). Although there was slightly higher
257 surface salinity on the continental shelf (34.1 ± 0.1), the average salinity concentration at
258 the surface in the coastal ocean zone (33.9 ± 0.2) was generally the same as those of the
259 offshore pelagic zone (33.8 ± 0.1) and the water-intrusion zone (33.9 ± 0.3). Substantially
260 higher subsurface salinities within the euphotic zone between the offshore pelagic zone
261 and the water-intrusion zone (Fig. 3b) could come from the upwelled Pacific waters
262 southwest of Taiwan (Chao et al., 1996).

263 Surface geostrophic current data (vectors of Fig. 2a) reveals that station B was located
264 at the edge of two eddies with southward surface flows. Directions of wind stresses in the
265 nSCS were generally southwest during the study period except two regions where wind
266 stress changed direction (vectors of Fig. 2b): one in the northwest of Dongsha Islands
267 with southerly winds and the other in the Luzon Strait with westerly winds. There were
268 several places of curl-driven upwelling in the offshore deep-water regions, though the
269 entire area was predominantly downwelling. Large curl-driven upwelling ($>0.5 \times 10^{-5}$ m
270 s^{-1}) was only observed near the edge of the continental shelf over abrupt changes of
271 bathymetry. Strong temporal variations of Ekman pumping velocity (Fig. 2d) could be
272 found in the coastal station of C₆ and the offshore station of C₁₃. Though the vertical
273 velocities by Ekman pumping during our sampling duration of May 14th-16th, 2014 are
274 relatively low, they are representative of the entire spring intermonsoon period from May
275 8th to June 7th, 2014 with substantially low wind intensity (Fig. 2d).

276

277 3.2 Spatial patterns of chlorophyll-*a* and nutrients in the nSCS

278 Sea surface chlorophyll-*a* in the nSCS during May 2014 was very high in the coastal
279 ocean zone – particularly in the near-shore regions – and decreased slightly on the
280 continental shelf (Fig. 2c). In contrast, there was generally low sea surface chlorophyll-*a*
281 in the large areas of the offshore pelagic zone and the water-intrusion zone.

282 Concentrations of the surface chlorophyll-*a* from discrete measurements during our
283 survey (Fig. 3c), varying from 0.04 to 0.92 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$, is in good agreement with the satellite
284 remote sensing data. In particular, surface chlorophyll-*a* along the section shows a
285 general seaward-decreasing trend from the costal regions of $0.72 \pm 0.36 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ to the
286 offshore regions of $0.09 \pm 0.04 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$, which is consistent with the decrease of surface
287 nitrate concentrations from $>1.0 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ near coast to $<1.0 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ in offshore (Fig.
288 3d). There was a surface chlorophyll patch ($\sim 0.3 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) found at station C₁₁ between the
289 offshore pelagic zone and the water-intrusion zone during the transect study (Fig. 3c),
290 which could result from a surface phytoplankton bloom spreading from the southwest
291 coast of Taiwan to the offshore regions of the central nSCS (Fig. 2c).

292 Phytoplankton chlorophyll-*a* was vertically well mixed in the coastal ocean zone,
293 with clear subsurface maxima of chlorophyll-*a* only found in the offshore pelagic zone
294 and the water-intrusion zone (Fig. 3c). The depth of the subsurface chlorophyll maxima
295 followed the $\sigma_{\theta} = 23.5$ isopycnal, which became much shallower when approaching the
296 continental shelf from offshore. The vertical distribution of nutrients along the section
297 generally followed the isopycnal surfaces in the upper water column (Fig. 3d-f), revealing
298 the importance of physical control on upper ocean biogeochemistry. The observed uplifts
299 of isopycnals as well as the depths of chlorophyll maximum and nutricline at stations C₆,
300 C₈, C₉, C₁₀, and C₁₂ are consistent with positive upwelling velocities driven by wind
301 stress curl (Fig. 2b). Interestingly, there were substantially higher phosphate and silicate
302 concentrations at depths of ~ 200 m (across the $\sigma_{\theta} = 25.5$ isopycnal) for both stations C₉
303 and C₁₁ in the offshore regions, which could be due to either a horizontal or vertical
304 injection event prior to our survey. Elevated chlorophyll-*a* at station C₁₁ was
305 accompanied by not only the subsurface high nutrients but also the high salinity in the
306 euphotic zone, suggesting possible vertical and horizontal nutrient transports in the upper

307 layer. Curiously, low chlorophyll-*a* was found at station C₉, which showed the highest
308 nutrient concentrations and nutrient gradients. Along the density interval of $\sigma_{\theta} = 25$ and σ_{θ}
309 = 26 in the water-intrusion zone there was evidence for isopycnal mixing between the
310 high-nutrient nSCS waters and the adjacent waters of Luzon Strait with lower nutrient but
311 higher temperature/salinity.

312

313 3.3 Vertical diffusivity and diffusive nutrient fluxes

314 Turbulent diffusivity estimated by Thorpe analyses varied substantially from the edge
315 of continental shelf to the west of Luzon Strait during May 2014 (Fig. 4). An overall
316 averaged K_z of $2.5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ for the upper 300 m of the offshore deep-water stations is
317 much higher than the oceanic background diffusivity of $10^{-5} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$, but is comparable to
318 the previous basin-scale estimates in the nSCS (Tian et al., 2009; Liu and Lozovatsky
319 2012). There were relatively high mean diffusivities of 3.6×10^{-4} and $3.3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ at
320 stations C₈ and C₁₁, compared to $2.5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ of station C₉. Although the nitrate
321 gradient at the based of euphotic zone in C₉ (0.12 mmol m^{-2}) was about twice of that in
322 C₁₁ (0.06 mmol m^{-2}), its diffusive nitrate flux ($0.26 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) was only about 15% of
323 that in C₁₁. Our data reveals a general decreasing of mean diffusivity from $1.1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$
324 of C₅ on the continental shelf, to $6.3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ of C₆ over the continental slope, and to
325 $9.1 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ of C₇ in the offshore pelagic zone. Yang et al. (2014) measured turbulent
326 diffusivity along a short section near the edge of the continental shelf southwest of
327 Taiwan using a microstructure profiler during May 2004 – about the same place as our
328 stations C₅ to C₇ (Fig. 1). Their results showed high turbulent mixing over the continental
329 shelf with a mean diffusivity of $1.6 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ but a much lower diffusivity of 5.2×10^{-4}
330 $\text{m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ over the slope (Yang et al., 2014), which are well comparable with our estimates
331 using Thorpe analyses.

332 Due to intermittent nature of the turbulence dissipation, the vertical structures of
333 diffusivity observed during our study were quite patchy (Fig. 4). In order to investigate
334 the vertical patterns of turbulent diffusivity, we compared the observations of the two
335 incubation stations (stations A and B) with that of the reference time-series station S₁ (Fig.
336 5), which had a better vertical resolution of diffusivity. It is not surprising to find that the
337 diffusivity profile of station A is quite similar to that of station S₁ (Fig. 5), as the two

338 stations are very close to each other (Fig. 1). However, there are substantially higher
339 diffusivities found in station B than in station S₁ (Fig. 5). The average diffusivity at 100 m
340 during our study was about $1.6 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ in station A but about $4.4 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ in station
341 B. The corresponding diffusive nitrate fluxes at the base of euphotic zone were thus about
342 $0.65 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in station A and $3.03 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in station B, given their nitrate
343 gradients of 0.05 and 0.08 mmol m^{-2} at 100 m, respectively (Table 1). Region of the
344 southeast Dongsha Islands near station B has been well documented for its high turbulent
345 mixing because of internal waves and eddies (e.g. Lien et al., 2005; Chow et al., 2008).
346 Enhanced vertical mixing by nonlinear internal waves generated at the shelf edge near
347 Dongsha Islands (Lien et al., 2005) would lead to a higher surface chlorophyll-*a* and net
348 primary production than the adjacent areas with less influence of internal waves during
349 the summertime (Pan et al., 2012). The high diffusivity and diffusive nitrate flux at
350 station B may also be contributed by physical dynamics associated with eddy-eddy
351 interactions (Fig. 2a). The frontal zones at the edge of eddies are often places of increased
352 vertical mixing (Klein and Lapeyre 2009; Li et al., 2012), though the eddy-induced
353 vertical fluxes may vary substantially between cyclonic, anticyclonic and mode-water
354 eddies (McGillicuddy et al., 2007).

355

356 3.4 Rates of phytoplankton growth, microzooplankton grazing, and specific nutrient 357 consumption

358 Hydrographic and biogeochemical conditions of the two incubation stations were
359 quite different, with much higher temperature (Fig. 6) and salinity (data not shown) but
360 lower nutrients and nutrient gradients in station A than in station B (Fig. 6). Station A was
361 at the edge of a surface phytoplankton bloom (Fig. 2c) spreading from the southwest
362 coast of Taiwan to the offshore pelagic regions, while station B was near the central nSCS
363 with very low sea surface chlorophyll-*a* ($<0.1 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$). Except for the surface layer,
364 chlorophyll-*a* concentration of station B was generally much higher than that of station A
365 throughout the water column. There was a clear subsurface chlorophyll maximum of ~ 0.4
366 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ at 50 m for station B (Fig. 6), while double peaks of chlorophyll-*a* were found for
367 station A with a surface maximum of $\sim 0.3 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ and a subsurface maximum of $\sim 0.1 \mu\text{g}$
368 L^{-1} at 75 m.

369 Rates of phytoplankton growth and microzooplankton grazing at the surface were
370 substantially different between the two stations. The nutrient-saturated phytoplankton
371 growth rate was 1.24 d^{-1} at station B, which was about three times of that at station A
372 (0.44 d^{-1}). On the other hand, the microzooplankton grazing rate of 0.43 d^{-1} at station A
373 was only slightly lower than the grazing rate of 0.60 d^{-1} at station B (Fig. 7). The natural
374 growth rate of phytoplankton, after correction for the effects of nutrient enrichment as
375 described in section 2.3, was 0.28 d^{-1} at station A, much lower than the rate of 1.18 d^{-1} in
376 station B. The rates measured at station B during May 2014 are comparable with previous
377 estimates of growth rates of 1.03 d^{-1} and grazing rates of 0.62 d^{-1} near Dongsha Islands
378 during July 2009 (Chen et al., 2013). Our results for station A are also in good agreement
379 with those found in the non-upwelling area of the south Taiwan Strait (Huang et al., 2011),
380 which suggested mean rates of $0.4\text{-}0.5 \text{ d}^{-1}$ and $0.3\text{-}0.7 \text{ d}^{-1}$ for phytoplankton growth and
381 microzooplankton grazing during July 2004 and 2005.

382 Incubation experiments in station A revealed an exponential growth of phytoplankton
383 chlorophyll-*a* in response to nutrient addition within the first two days, before reaching a
384 stable growth phase on the third day and a decay phase on the fourth day; the
385 chlorophyll-*a* of the control experiment with raw seawater without nutrient additions
386 quickly decreased as nutrients were consumed in the bottles (Fig. 8a). In contrast,
387 phytoplankton of station B showed no response to nutrient enrichment within the first two
388 days of incubation compared to the control experiment (Fig. 8b). Significant increase of
389 incubated chlorophyll-*a* for station B was only found during the last two days of
390 experiment (Fig. 8b). Nutrient utilization during nutrient-enrichment incubations at these
391 two stations were also quite different, with a much slower specific rate of nutrient
392 consumption at station B (0.46 d^{-1}) than at station A (1.03 d^{-1}). These results suggest that
393 there was stronger nutrient limitation of the phytoplankton community at station A than
394 station B during our cruise.

395

396 **4. Discussion**

397 4. 1 Roles of turbulent mixing and curl-driven upwelling on nutrient fluxes of the nSCS
398 during the spring inter-monsoon transition period

399 If the horizontal and atmospheric inputs are ignored, the total nutrient flux into the

400 euphotic zone (J_{total}) is the sum of diffusive flux due to turbulent dissipation ($J_{dif}=K_z\partial C/\partial z$)
401 and the advective flux due to upwelling ($J_{upw}=wC$, negative for downwelling):

$$402 \quad J_{total} = K_z \frac{\partial C}{\partial z} + wC$$

403 (6)

404 To assess the roles of turbulent diffusion and Ekman pumping on vertical transport of
405 nutrients in the nSCS, the diffusive and advective nitrate fluxes at the base of euphotic
406 zone was estimated from the continental shelf to the open sea during May 2014 (see
407 Table 1 for details). Vertical velocity (w) at the base of euphotic zone is assumed equal
408 to the curl-driven upwelling/downwelling velocity (w_e) by Ekman pumping. We have
409 neglected Ekman transport as its effect is restricted only to the near coast (Gan et al.,
410 2010). Variations of w during the transect study is consistent with the isopycnal
411 oscillation along the section (Fig. 3), suggesting the important role of Ekman pumping on
412 physical dynamics of the water column. At the continental slope of station C₆, the vertical
413 nitrate fluxes were largely supported by curl-driven upwelling, with turbulent mixing
414 playing a minor role due to low nitrate gradients. In contrast, the diffusive nitrate flux
415 was over three times of the upwelled nitrate flux at station C₇, immediately adjacent to C₆.
416 Except for station C₁₂, curl-driven downwelling was observed in the deep-water regions
417 during the transect study, leading to downward transport of the low-nutrient surface water
418 to the deeper layer. The upward nitrate fluxes in these stations were thus determined by
419 the intensities of diffusive fluxes working against the downwelling fluxes. There was a
420 negative nitrate flux found at station C₉ where downwelling was stronger than the upward
421 diffusion, resulting in a loss of nitrate from the euphotic zone. Our findings suggest that it
422 is the interplay of turbulent diffusion and curl-driven upwelling/downwelling that
423 controls the vertical fluxes of nutrients into the euphotic zone to support phytoplankton
424 production in the nSCS.

425 For the deep-water stations including the offshore pelagic zone and the water
426 intrusion zone, the integrated chlorophyll-*a* biomass during the transect study shows a
427 positive correlation with the upward nitrate flux ($\int Chl \cdot dz = 16.75 \times J_{total} + 7.7$, $r^2 = 0.58$,
428 $p = 0.014$) when station C₉ is not included (Table 1), supporting the important role of
429 bottom-up control on phytoplankton production in our study area (Chen 2005). From the

430 slope of 16.75, we could estimate a specific new production by vertical nitrate supply of
431 $0.060 \text{ molN (gChl)}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$, which is slightly lower than $0.063\text{-}0.088 \text{ molN (gChl)}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$
432 reported in the nSCS by Chen (2005). Assuming a vertically constant rate of
433 phytoplankton specific growth, a gram chlorophyll-to-carbon ratio of 0.03 and a molar
434 C/N ratio of 6.625, we estimate a vertically integrated primary production of ~ 12.3
435 $\text{mmolN m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in station B and $\sim 1.8 \text{ mmolN m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in station A. The contribution of
436 vertical nutrient fluxes to primary production could thus be $\sim 11\%$ and $\sim 26\%$ in stations B
437 and A, respectively, which are comparable with the f -ratio of 0.14-0.20 previously
438 estimated in the nSCS from late March to October (Chen, 2005). In steady status, the net
439 primary production of phytoplankton should be balanced by the upward nutrient flux as
440 well as the downward particle flux. Therefore, a high nutrient flux would correspond to a
441 high net primary production and thus a high biomass accumulation, if other conditions
442 remain the same (species, temperature, light, grazing, etc). Station C₉ is interesting in that
443 the vertical nutrient fluxes are net downward out of euphotic zone, suggesting that the
444 station may not be in steady status. High nutrients here are likely a result of strong
445 horizontal input or a previous diapycnal nutrient injection. In this case, large drawdown
446 of nutrients will be expected by fast growing phytoplankton and by the downward
447 transport of nutrients out of euphotic zone.

448 Uncertainty of the vertical nutrient flux could be contributed by errors in the
449 determinations of vertical diffusivity and vertical velocity, as well as nutrient
450 concentration and gradient. Calculation errors of vertical diffusivity by the Thorpe-scale
451 approach, estimated from the time-series station S₁, were $0.87 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ at 50 m (n=5),
452 $0.71 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ at 100 m (n=6), and $0.46 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ at 150 m (n=7). We therefore
453 obtain an average of $0.68 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ for the overall uncertainty of diffusivity
454 determined in our study. Uncertainty of vertical velocity by Ekman pumping from
455 satellite observations could be approximately determined at each station by their standard
456 deviations over the sampling duration of May 14th-16th, 2014. Measurement errors of
457 nutrients at depths during the field study should be negligible as the concentrations are
458 considerably higher than the detection limits of the analytical methods. We are not able to
459 quantify the uncertainty of nutrient gradient, as we have only one cast for each station
460 with reduced resolution below the euphotic layer. Meanwhile, the nutrient gradient and

461 related diffusive flux that we have calculated at the base of euphotic zone could be
462 interpreted as a mean value between the two adjacent bottle depths (100-200 m). The
463 final uncertainties for the vertical nutrient fluxes are summarized in Table 1, which vary
464 substantially from 0.10 to 0.98 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹ for stations in the offshore regions.

465

466 4.2 Impact of growth-grazing dynamics on phytoplankton chlorophyll biomass in the 467 nSCS

468 Distributions of phytoplankton in the ocean are controlled by complex physical and
469 biological interactions. To assess the influence of growth-grazing dynamics on
470 phytoplankton chlorophyll-*a* biomass in the nSCS, two stations with distinct
471 biogeochemical settings and nutrient fluxes were selected for measurements of
472 phytoplankton growth and microzooplankton grazing rates. In addition, the community
473 response to nutrient enrichments at the two stations was assessed by continuous
474 incubations for up to four days. Previous studies indicates that surface phytoplankton
475 community in the southeast Dongsha Islands is dominated by both diatom and
476 picoplankton such as *Prochlorococcus*, while picoplankton with negligible diatoms are
477 found in the non-upwelling area south of the Taiwan Strait during late spring and early
478 summer (Yang 2009; Huang et al., 2011). Our results of substantially high phytoplankton
479 growth rates observed at station B southeast of Dongsha Islands are in agreement with its
480 high nutrient concentrations and nutrient fluxes compared to station A south of Taiwan
481 Strait. When released from the constraints by nutrient limitation, phytoplankton
482 community will be expected to shift from dominance by picoplankton toward a higher
483 relative abundance of larger phytoplankton because of their higher intrinsic capacity for
484 growth (Agawin et al., 2000).

485 Percentage of the primary production consumed by microzooplankton can be
486 estimated by the ratio of microzooplankton grazing over phytoplankton growth (g/μ)
487 (Landry et al., 1998). High g/μ ratios (~ 1.5) at station A suggest an elevated role of the
488 microbial food web in the south Taiwan Strait, promoting nutrient recycling to support
489 further phytoplankton growth. Whereas, the relatively higher microzooplankton grazing
490 rate but lower g/μ ratio at station B may indicate a greater efficiency of carbon export
491 near the Dongsha Islands, as the greater loss of diatoms through sinking or grazing by

492 mesozooplankton in regions with high nutrient supply (Landry et al., 1998). Natural
493 growth of phytoplankton at station B was much higher than its grazing mortality, leading
494 to a large net growth rate (growth minus grazing) of 0.58 d^{-1} , which is consistent with the
495 high integrated chlorophyll biomass in this station. In contrast, a negative net growth rate
496 of -0.15 d^{-1} was found at station A as a result of higher grazing pressure. The specific
497 phosphate consumption rate of 1.03 d^{-1} at station A was about twice of that at station B
498 (0.46 d^{-1}) suggesting a larger nutrient demand at station A. There was actually a faster
499 response of phytoplankton to nutrient enrichment at station A than at station B indicating
500 a stronger nutrient limitation in the south Taiwan Strait. The negative net community
501 growth and the higher nutrient consumption rate at station A are consistent with the
502 spring phytoplankton bloom of the southwest Taiwan observed in the satellite data (Fig.
503 2c) being in its decline phase. Indeed, the area of the phytoplankton bloom decreased
504 substantially within two weeks and was not visible by the middle of June, 2014 (from
505 weekly mean sea surface chlorophyll-*a* data of MODIS Aqua) supporting the important
506 role of grazing activity on phytoplankton distribution in the nSCS.

507 In conclusion, we have conducted a preliminary study on vertical nutrient fluxes and
508 phytoplankton dynamics in the nSCS. Our results suggest that phytoplankton patchiness
509 in the nSCS during the spring inter-monsoon of May 2014 was mainly controlled by
510 vertical nutrient fluxes, which were driven by both turbulent diffusion and wind stress
511 curl-driven upwelling. Our results also revealed an increasing role of turbulent diffusion
512 but a decreasing role of curl-driven upwelling on vertical transport of nutrients from the
513 coastal ocean zones to the offshore pelagic zones in the nSCS. Elevated nutrient fluxes
514 observed near the Dongsha Islands were found to support high new production leading to
515 net growth of phytoplankton community, whereas the low nutrient fluxes of the south
516 Taiwan Strait resulted in a negative net community growth leading to decline of a
517 phytoplankton bloom. As the findings presented here is limited by the very narrow area
518 and the very short period of sampling time, future studies may be improved by addressing
519 the variability of vertical nutrient fluxes and its relationship to phytoplankton dynamics
520 on a much longer time scale over a much broader area of the nSCS.

521

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649 Table 1: Comparisons of integrated chlorophyll-*a* ($\int Chl \cdot dz$), nitrate gradient ($\partial C/\partial z$), nitrate
650 concentration (NO_3), vertical diffusivity (K_z), upwelling velocity (w_e), diffusive nitrate flux
651 (J_{dif}), upwelled nitrate flux (J_{upw}), and total nitrate flux (J_{total}) for transect stations C₆₋₁₂ and
652 incubation stations A and B at ~1% light depth (~100m depth).

Station	$\int Chl \cdot dz$ [mg m ⁻²]	$\partial C/\partial z$ [mmol m ⁻⁴]	NO_3 [mmol m ⁻³]	^a K_z [10 ⁻⁴ m ² s ⁻¹]	^b w_e [10 ⁻² m s ⁻¹]	J_{dif} [mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹]	^c J_{upw} [mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹]	J_{total} [mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹]
C ₆	16.8	0.001	5.01	6.30±0.68	0.28±0.02	0.05±0.01	1.21±0.09	1.27±0.10
C ₇	20.2	0.077	6.42	0.91±0.68	0.03±0.05	0.60±0.45	0.17±0.27	0.77±0.73
C ₈	22.1	0.079	7.47	3.60±0.68	-0.21±0.08	2.44±0.46	-1.36±0.52	1.09±0.98
C ₉	15.4	0.122	9.52	0.25±0.68	-0.12±0.03	0.26±0.72	-0.99±0.25	-0.72±0.96
C ₁₀	21.7	0.082	9.37	3.45±0.68	-0.18±0.03	2.44±0.48	-1.46±0.24	0.99±0.72
C ₁₁	38.7	0.060	2.08	3.30±0.68	-0.27±0.07	1.71±0.35	-0.49±0.13	1.23±0.48
C ₁₂	20.7	0.029	3.93	1.53±0.68	0.05±0.05	0.39±0.17	0.17±0.17	0.56±0.34
C ₁₃	13.2	0.046	1.98	2.26±0.68	-0.27±0.17	0.91±0.27	-0.46±0.29	0.44±0.56
A	15.7	0.047	2.09	1.60±0.68	-0.09±0.04	0.65±0.28	-0.16±0.08	0.49±0.35
B	24.8	0.080	4.82	4.40±0.68	-0.41±0.11	3.03±0.47	-1.71±0.46	1.33±0.93

653

654 ^a uncertainty of K_z from Thorpe analyses is estimated as $0.68 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ (see text for detail)

655 ^b w_e are 3-day-mean of May 14th-16th, 2014, except station B that is of May 12th-14th, 2014

656 ^c assuming vertical velocity at the depth of 100m is equal to w_e .

657 Figure 1: Sampling map in the northeastern South China Sea during May 2014. Dash
658 lines show the topography of the study area; solid dots are the stations for a transect study
659 (C_{1-13}) during May 14th-16th, 2014; star is a time-series reference station (S_1); filled
660 squares are two stations where shipboard dilution experiments were performed (A and B).
661 Inserted plot shows the temperature/salinity diagram for the transect with arrows
662 indicating waters from the coastal ocean zone (thick gray lines), the offshore pelagic zone
663 (thick black lines), and the Kuroshio intrusion zone (thin lines).

664

665 Figure 2: Spatial distributions of (a) sea surface temperature, (b) curl-driven upwelling
666 velocity, and (c) sea surface chlorophyll during the survey, together with (d) the
667 time-series of curl-driven upwelling and wind stress at stations C_6 and C_{13} during
668 May-June, 2014. Vectors in panel (a) and panel (b) are surface geostrophic currents and
669 wind stresses, respectively; geostrophic current is from 3-day-mean altimetry data from
670 NOAA/AOML; upwelling velocity and wind stress are from 3-day mean
671 METOP-ASCAT data; sea surface temperature is 3-day-mean GOES-POES data; sea
672 surface chlorophyll- a is monthly MODIS-Aqua data.

673

674 Figure 3: Vertical distributions of (a) temperature [T], (b) salinity [S], (c) chlorophyll- a
675 [$Chl-a$], (d) nitrate [NO_3], (e) silicate [$Si(OH)_4$], and (f) phosphate [PO_4] along the coastal
676 transect of the northern South China Sea. Overlaid white lines in each panel are
677 isopycnals.

678

679 Figure 4: Profiles of Thorpe displacement (d_z), Thorpe scale (L_T), and turbulent
680 diffusivity (K_z) for nine stations ($C_5, C_6, C_7, C_8, C_9, C_{10}, C_{11}, C_{12}, C_{13}$) from the edge of
681 continental shelf to the west of Luzon Strait. Locations of these stations are shown in
682 Figure 1.

683

684 Figure 5: Comparisons of vertical turbulent diffusivities (K_z) between two stations A and
685 B. Black line is the result of the reference station S_1 with continuous CTD sampling up to
686 13 casts; circles are for station A (2 casts) with squares for station B (2 casts).

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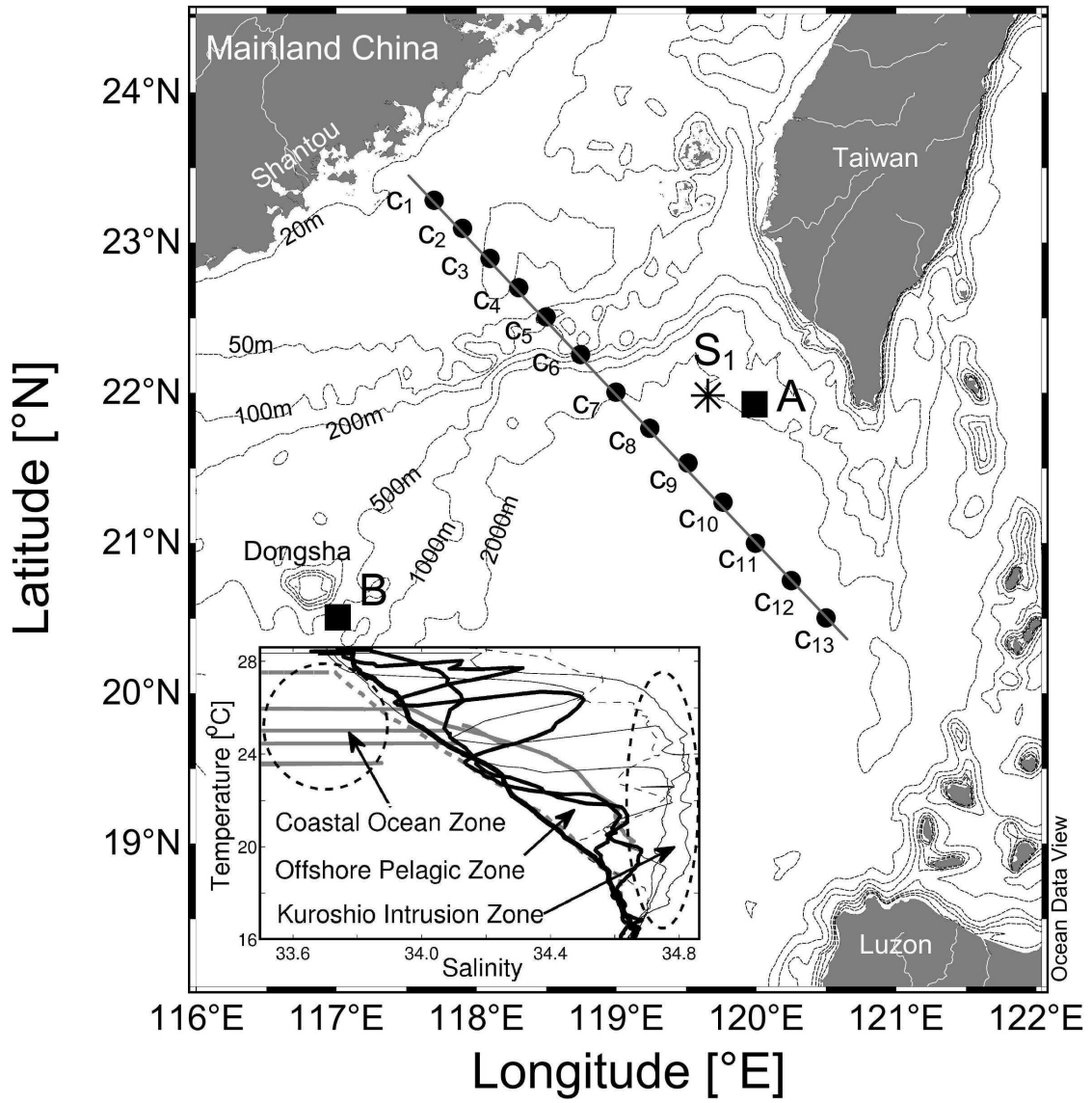
688 Figure 6: Comparisons of vertical profiles of chlorophyll- a [$Chl-a$], temperature [T],
689 nutrients [$Si(OH)_4, NO_3, PO_4$], and nutrient gradients between two incubation stations A
690 and B. Thick lines in each panel are for bottom axis with thin lines (open symbols) for top
691 axis; dash lines are for station A with solid lines for station B.

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693 Figure 7: Dilution experiment plots of phytoplankton net growth rates against the dilution
694 factors for stations A and B. Filled circles are net growth rates of the raw seawater
695 without nutrient enrichments.

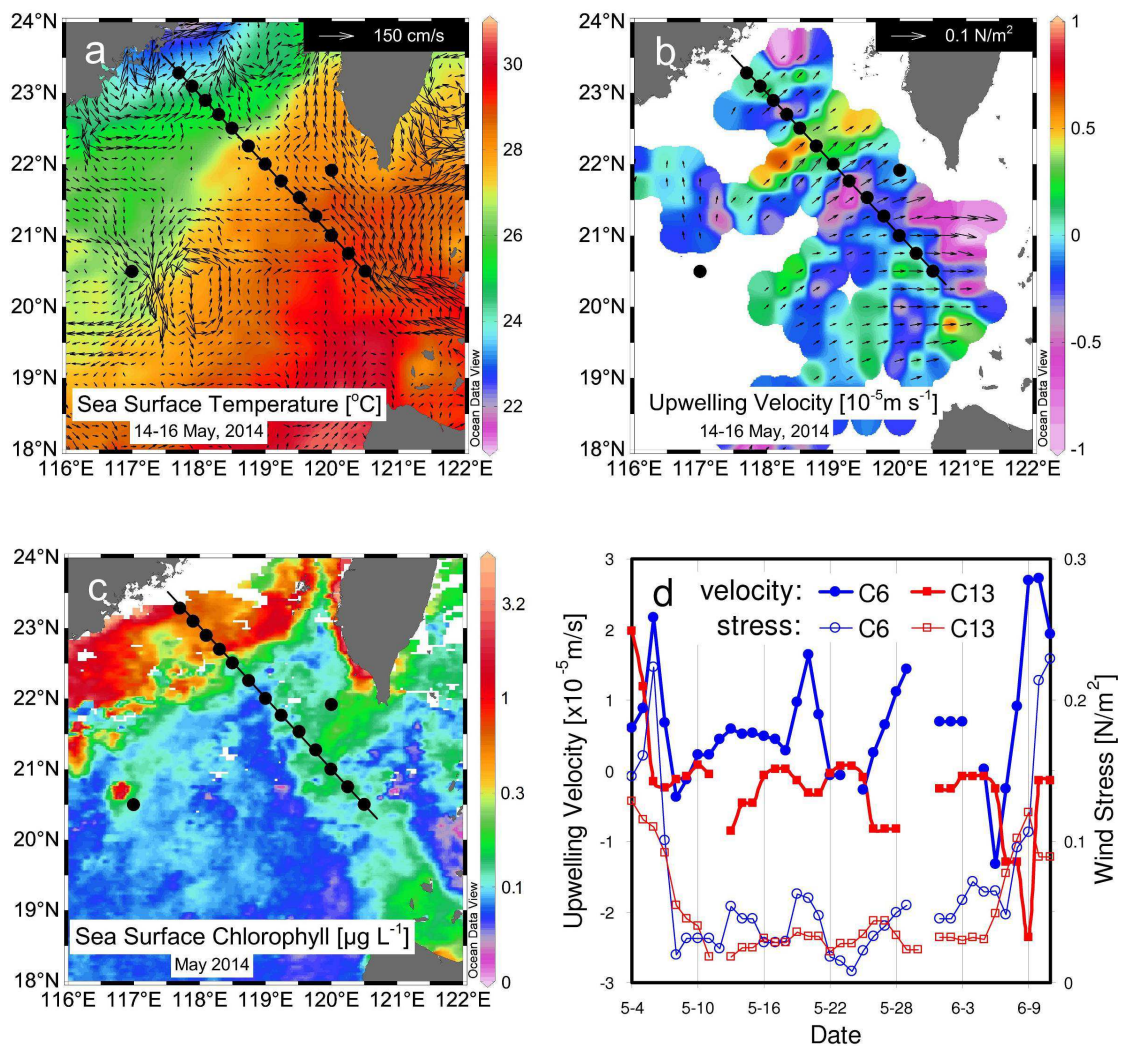
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697 Figure 8: Temporal variations of chlorophyll- a and phosphate during incubations with
698 and without nutrient enrichments in stations A and B. Dash lines (filled symbols) are for
699 chlorophyll- a in left axis with thin lines (open symbols) for phosphate in right axis;
700 control is the incubation of raw seawater without nutrient addition.



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Figure 1



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Figure 2

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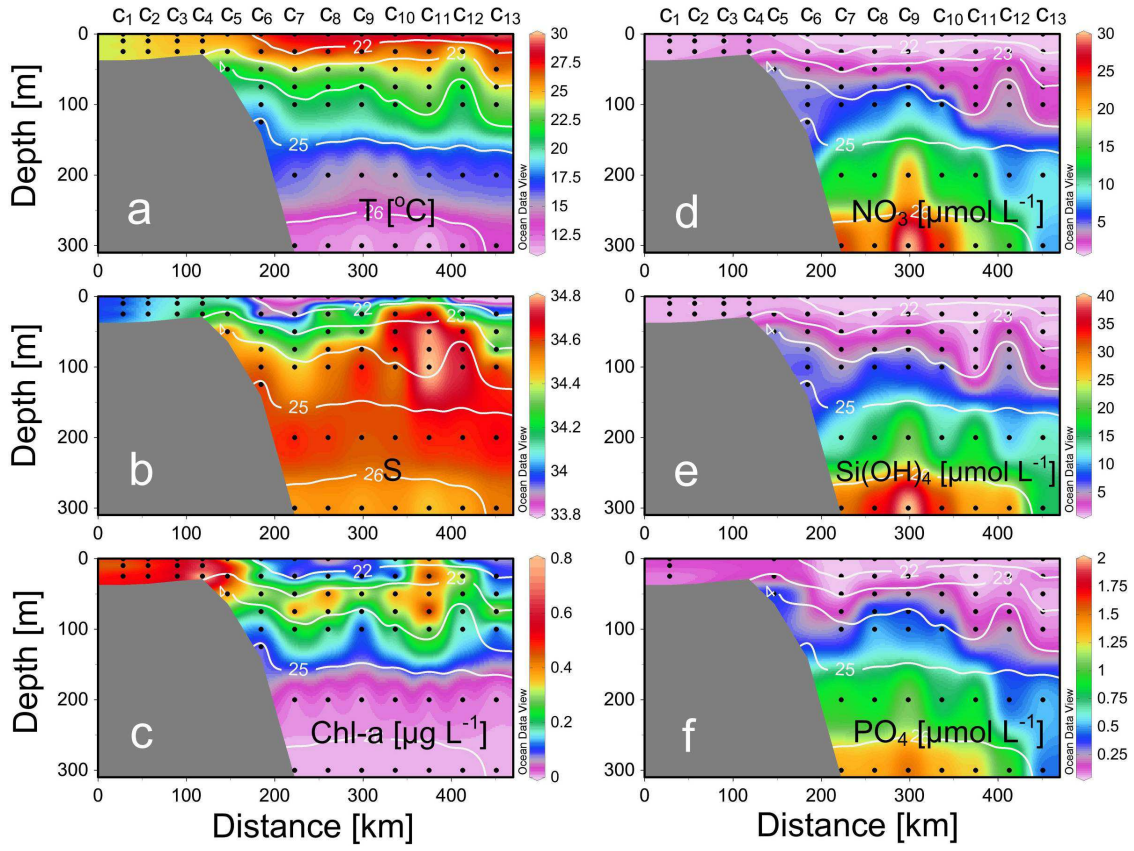


Figure 3

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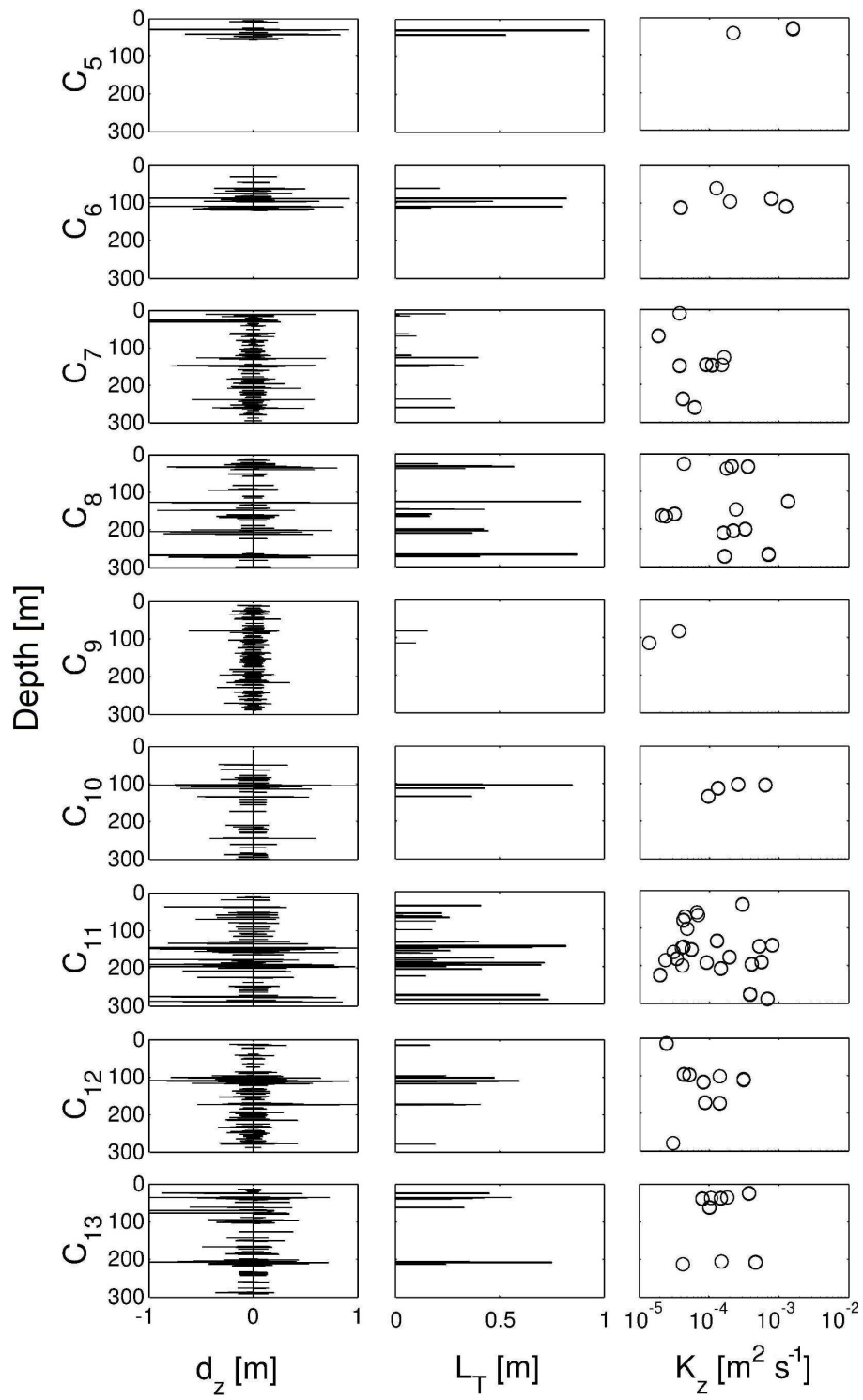
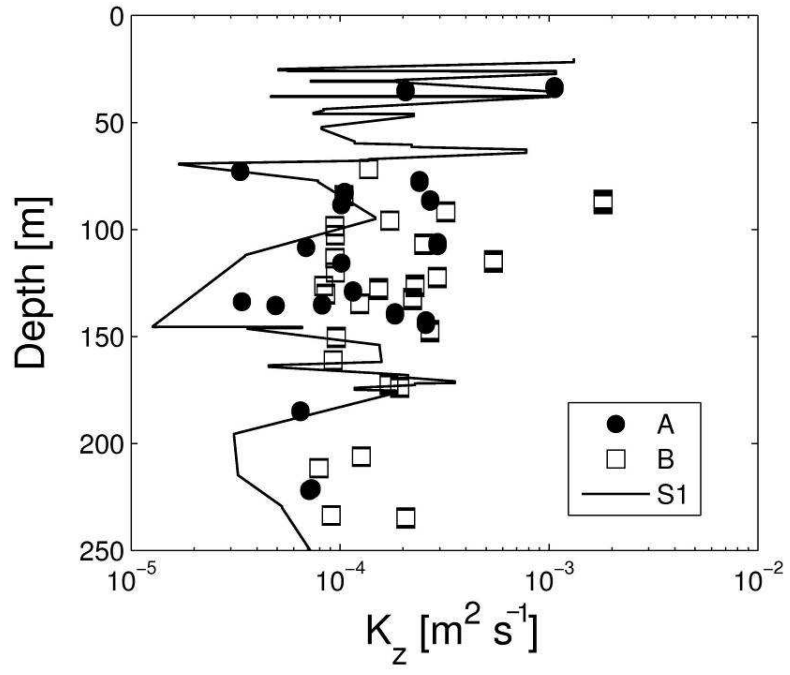


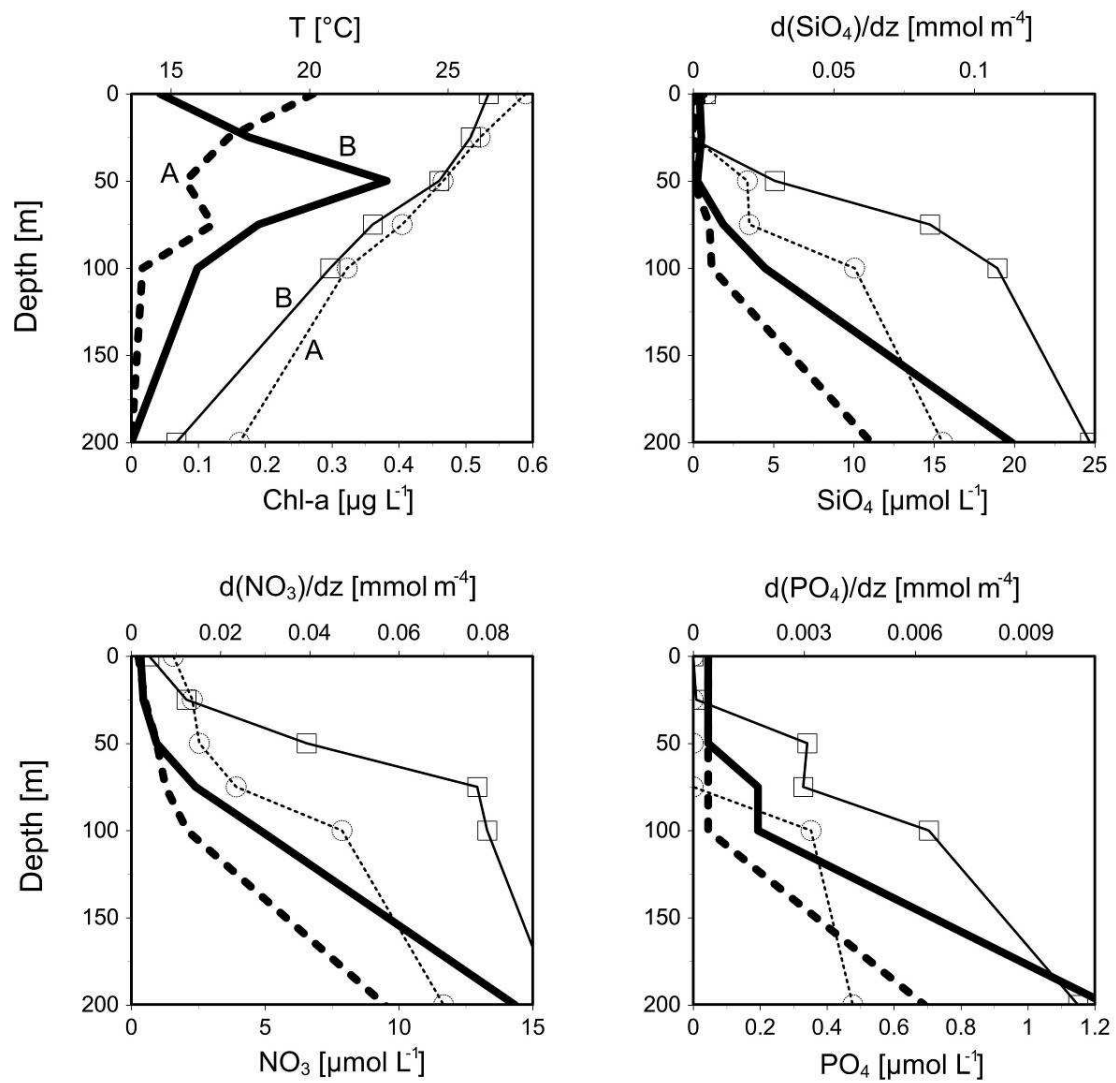
Figure 4

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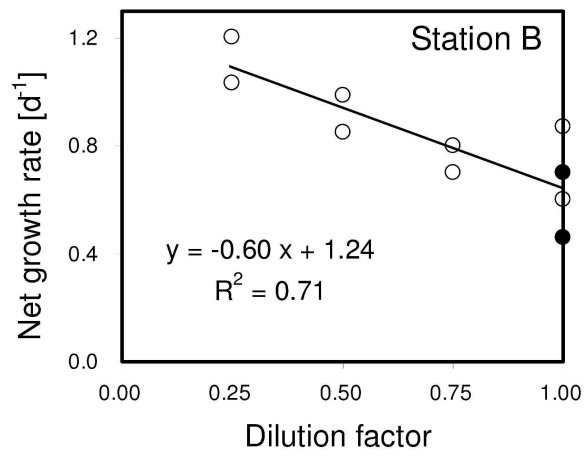
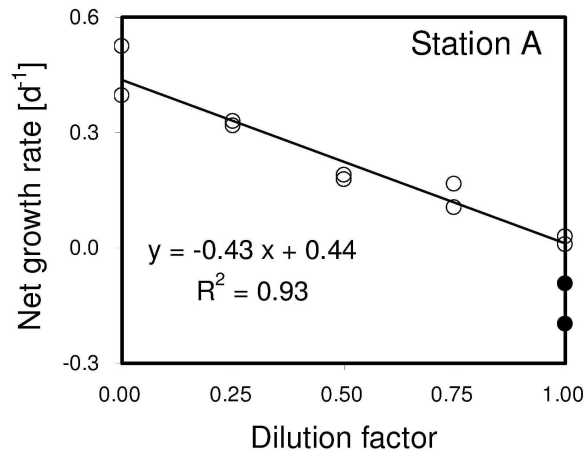
Figure 5



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Figure 6

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Figure 7

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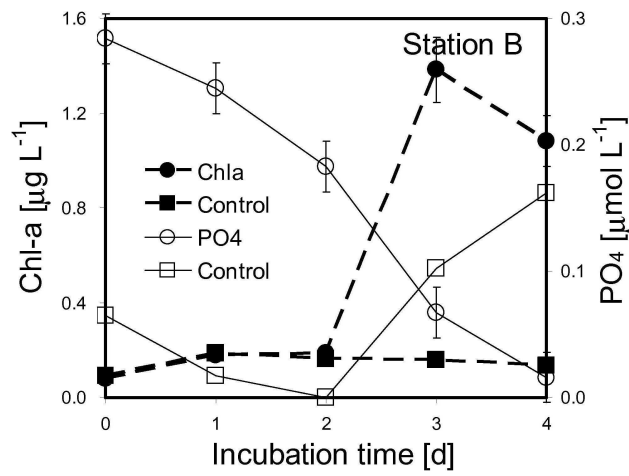
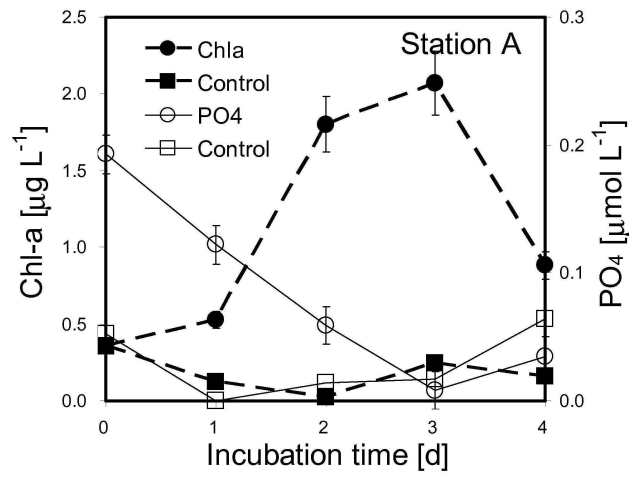


Figure 8

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