

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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15 **Abstract**

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

34

35 1. Introduction

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

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

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

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

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

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

99

100 **2. Materials and methods**

101 2.1. Site description, field sampling, and measurements

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

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

119 Discrete seawater samples at depths of 0 m, 25 m, 50 m, 75 m, 100 m, 200 m, 300 m,
120 500 m, and 700 m were collected using a SeaBird SBE 9/11 CTD rosette water sampler
121 system, providing high resolution hydrographic measurements of the upper water column
122 with internal pressure, conductivity, and temperature sensors. We define euphotic zone as
123 the layer above 1% of surface Photosynthetically Active Radiation (PAR), measured by a
124 PAR sensor (QSP200L, Biospherical Instrument, Inc.). After inline filtrations from the
125 PVC Niskin bottles through 0.8 µm Nuclepore filters, seawater samples for nutrients
126 were frozen immediately and stored in a refrigerator until final analyses after the cruise.
127 For chlorophyll-*a* sampling, 500 ml of seawater was gently filtered (<50 mmHg) through

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

138

139 2.2. Remote sensing observations

140 High-resolution satellite data, including sea surface temperature (SST), sea surface
 141 chlorophyll (SSChl), surface geostrophic velocities, as well as surface wind stresses and
 142 Ekman velocities, were used to assess the spatial change of these surface properties in the
 143 nSCS during the study period. Monthly averaged sea surface chlorophyll-*a* ($0.04^{\circ}\times 0.04^{\circ}$)
 144 was acquired from the NASA's Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer data
 145 observed by the Aqua Satellite (MODIS-Aqua). Surface velocity fields ($0.3^{\circ}\times 0.3^{\circ}$) were
 146 derived from multi-satellite altimeter (TOPEX, JASON-1, ERS-2, ENVISAT and GFO)
 147 and scatterometer data distributed by the NOAA's Ocean Surface Current Analysis
 148 -Realtime (OSCAR) program, which had been largely validated by a variety of field
 149 measurements including global drifts, moorings, and shipboard ADCP. Daily sea surface
 150 temperature ($0.1^{\circ}\times 0.1^{\circ}$) was acquired from the NOAA's Geostationary Operational
 151 Environmental Satellite –Polar Operational Environmental Satellite program
 152 (GOES-POES). Daily Ekman upwelling velocities and surface wind stresses with a
 153 resolution of $0.25^{\circ}\times 0.25^{\circ}$ were derived from the Advanced Scatterometer data by the
 154 European Meteorological and Operational satellite program (METOP-ASCAT). The
 155 Ekman pumping velocity (w_e , negative for downwelling) at the depth of Ekman layer is
 156 calculated as (Gill, 1982)

$$157 \quad w_e = \frac{1}{\rho_w} \left(\nabla \times \frac{\tau}{f} \right)$$

158

(1)

159 where ρ_w is the density of seawater, which is assumed constant at 1024 kg m^{-3} ; f is the
160 Coriolis parameter; τ is the vector of wind stress.

161

162 2.3 Thorpe-scale analyses and vertical diffusivity

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

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

181

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

182

(2)

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

187

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

188

(3)

189 The diffusive nutrient fluxes at the depth of interest can be estimated by multiplying the
190 diffusivity (K_z) by the local nutrient gradient ($\partial C/\partial z$). Nutrient gradient, at the depth of Z_i
191 with the concentration of C_i , is approximately estimated by $(C_{i+1}-C_i)/(Z_{i+1}-Z_i)$, with C_{i+1}
192 the concentrations at Z_{i+1} immediately next to Z_i .

193

194 2.4 Setup of dilution experiments

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

215 Specific rates of nutrient-saturated phytoplankton growth (μ_n , d^{-1}) and
216 microzooplankton grazing (g , d^{-1}) are estimated by least-square regression between the
217 net growth rates (η , d^{-1}) and the dilution factors (D) as

218
$$\eta = \frac{1}{t} \ln \left(\frac{P_t}{P_0} \right) = \mu_n - D \cdot g$$

219 (4)

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

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

230
$$\frac{dC}{dt} = -m \cdot C$$

231 (5)

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

233

234 3. Results

235 3.1 Hydrographic dynamics of the nSCS

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

247 water with lower temperature but higher salinity along the shelf slope was clearly seen
248 during the transect (Fig. 3a and 3b), which could be a result of direct upwelling or
249 alongshore advection of upwelled waters from upstream. Both the offshore pelagic zone
250 and the water-intrusion zone are far from the coast with bottom depths more than 2000 m
251 (Fig. 1). The offshore pelagic zone was relatively stable with weak surface geostrophic
252 currents, while the water-intrusion zone was strongly influenced by Kuroshio intrusion
253 through the Luzon Strait (Fig. 2a).

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

268 Directions of wind stresses in the nSCS were generally southwest during the study
269 period except two regions where wind stress changed direction (vectors of Fig. 2b): one
270 in the northwest of Dongsha Islands with southerly winds and the other in the Luzon
271 Strait with westerly winds. There were several places of curl-driven upwelling in the
272 offshore deep-water regions, though the entire area was predominantly downwelling.
273 Large curl-driven upwelling ($>0.5 \times 10^{-5}$ m s⁻¹) was only observed near the edge of the
274 continental shelf over abrupt changes of bathymetry. Strong temporal variations of
275 Ekman pumping velocity (Fig. 2d) could be found in the coastal station of C₆ and the
276 offshore station of C₁₃. Though the vertical velocities by Ekman pumping during our
277 sampling duration of May 14th-16th, 2014 are relatively low, they are representative of the

278 entire spring intermonsoon period from May 8th to June 7th, 2014 with substantially low
279 wind intensity (Fig. 2d).

280

281 3.2 Spatial patterns of chlorophyll-*a* and nutrients in the nSCS

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

286 Concentrations of the surface chlorophyll-*a* from discrete measurements during our
287 survey (Fig. 3c), varying from 0.04 to 0.92 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$, is in good agreement with the satellite
288 remote sensing data. In particular, surface chlorophyll-*a* along the section shows a
289 general seaward-decreasing trend from the coastal regions of $0.72 \pm 0.36 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ to the
290 offshore regions of $0.09 \pm 0.04 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$, which is consistent with the decrease of surface
291 nitrate concentrations from $>1.0 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ near coast to $<1.0 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ in offshore (Fig.
292 3d). There was a surface chlorophyll patch ($\sim 0.3 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) found at station C₁₁ between the
293 offshore pelagic zone and the water-intrusion zone during the transect study (Fig. 3c),
294 which could result from a surface phytoplankton bloom spreading from the southwest
295 coast of Taiwan to the offshore regions of the central nSCS (Fig. 2c).

296 Phytoplankton chlorophyll-*a* was vertically well mixed in the coastal ocean zone,
297 with clear subsurface maxima of chlorophyll-*a* only found in the offshore pelagic zone
298 and the water-intrusion zone (Fig. 3c). The depth of the subsurface chlorophyll maxima
299 followed the $\sigma_{\theta} = 23.5$ isopycnal, which became much shallower when approaching the
300 continental shelf from offshore. The vertical distribution of nutrients along the section
301 generally followed the isopycnal surfaces in the upper water column (Fig. 3d-f), revealing
302 the importance of physical control on upper ocean biogeochemistry. The observed uplifts
303 of isopycnals as well as the depths of chlorophyll maximum and nutricline at stations C₆,
304 C₈, C₉, C₁₀, and C₁₂ are consistent with positive upwelling velocities driven by wind
305 stress curl (Fig. 2b). Interestingly, there were substantially higher phosphate and silicate
306 concentrations at depths of ~ 200 m (across the $\sigma_{\theta} = 25.5$ isopycnal) for both stations C₉
307 and C₁₁ in the offshore regions, which could be due to either a horizontal or vertical
308 injection event prior to our survey. Elevated chlorophyll-*a* at station C₁₁ was

309 accompanied by not only the subsurface high nutrients but also the high salinity in the
310 euphotic zone, suggesting possible vertical and horizontal nutrient transports in the upper
311 layer. Curiously, low chlorophyll-*a* was found at station C₉, which showed the highest
312 nutrient concentrations and nutrient gradients. Along the density interval of $\sigma_{\theta} = 25$ and σ_{θ}
313 = 26 in the water-intrusion zone there was evidence for isopycnal mixing between the
314 high-nutrient nSCS waters and the adjacent waters of Luzon Strait with lower nutrient but
315 higher temperature/salinity.

316

317 3.3 Vertical diffusivity and diffusive nutrient fluxes

318 Turbulent diffusivity estimated by Thorpe analyses varied substantially from the edge
319 of continental shelf to the west of Luzon Strait during May 2014 (Fig. 4). An overall
320 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
321 much higher than the oceanic background diffusivity of $10^{-5} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$, but is comparable to
322 the previous basin-scale estimates in the nSCS (Tian et al., 2009; Liu and Lozovatsky
323 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
324 stations C₈ and C₁₁, compared to $2.5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ of station C₉. Although the nitrate
325 gradient at the based of euphotic zone in C₉ (0.12 mmol m^{-2}) was about twice of that in
326 C₁₁ (0.06 mmol m^{-2}), its diffusive nitrate flux ($0.26 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) was only about 15% of
327 that in C₁₁. Our data reveals a general decreasing of mean diffusivity from $1.1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$
328 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
329 $9.1 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ of C₇ in the offshore pelagic zone. Yang et al. (2014) measured turbulent
330 diffusivity along a short section near the edge of the continental shelf southwest of
331 Taiwan using a microstructure profiler during May 2004 – about the same place as our
332 stations C₅ to C₇ (Fig. 1). Their results showed high turbulent mixing over the continental
333 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}
334 $\text{m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ over the slope (Yang et al., 2014), which are well comparable with our estimates
335 using Thorpe analyses.

336 Due to intermittent nature of the turbulence dissipation, the vertical structures of
337 diffusivity observed during our study were quite patchy (Fig. 4). In order to investigate
338 the vertical patterns of turbulent diffusivity, we compared the observations of the two
339 incubation stations (stations A and B) with that of the reference time-series station S₁ (Fig.

340 5), which had a better vertical resolution of diffusivity. It is not surprising to find that the
341 diffusivity profile of station A is quite similar to that of station S₁ (Fig. 5), as the two
342 stations are very close to each other (Fig. 1). However, there are substantially higher
343 diffusivities found in station B than in station S₁ (Fig. 5). The average diffusivity at 100 m
344 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
345 B. The corresponding diffusive nitrate fluxes at the base of euphotic zone were thus about
346 $0.65 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in station A and $3.03 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in station B, given their nitrate
347 gradients of 0.05 and 0.08 mmol m^{-2} at 100 m, respectively (Table 1). Region of the
348 southeast Dongsha Islands near station B has been well documented for its high turbulent
349 mixing because of internal waves (e.g. Lien et al., 2005; Chow et al., 2008). Enhanced
350 vertical mixing by nonlinear internal waves generated at the shelf edge near Dongsha
351 Islands (Lien et al., 2005) would lead to a higher surface chlorophyll-*a* and net primary
352 production than the adjacent areas with less influence of internal waves during the
353 summertime (Pan et al., 2012). The high diffusivity and diffusive nitrate flux at station B
354 may also be contributed by physical dynamics associated with high internal waves found
355 in this region. The frontal zones at the edge of eddies are often places of increased
356 vertical mixing (Klein and Lapeyre 2009; Li et al., 2012), though the eddy-induced
357 vertical fluxes may vary substantially between cyclonic, anticyclonic and mode-water
358 eddies (McGillicuddy et al., 2007).

359

360 3.4 Rates of phytoplankton growth, microzooplankton grazing, and specific nutrient 361 consumption

362 Hydrographic and biogeochemical conditions of the two incubation stations were
363 quite different, with much higher temperature (Fig. 6) and salinity (data not shown) but
364 lower nutrients and nutrient gradients in station A than in station B (Fig. 6). Station A was
365 at the edge of a surface phytoplankton bloom (Fig. 2c) spreading from the southwest
366 coast of Taiwan to the offshore pelagic regions, while station B was near the central nSCS
367 with very low sea surface chlorophyll-*a* ($<0.1 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$). Except for the surface layer,
368 chlorophyll-*a* concentration of station B was generally much higher than that of station A
369 throughout the water column. There was a clear subsurface chlorophyll maximum of ~ 0.4
370 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ at 50 m for station B (Fig. 6), while double peaks of chlorophyll-*a* were found for

371 station A with a surface maximum of $\sim 0.3 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ and a subsurface maximum of $\sim 0.1 \mu\text{g}$
372 L^{-1} at 75 m.

373 Rates of phytoplankton growth and microzooplankton grazing at the surface were
374 substantially different between the two stations. The nutrient-saturated phytoplankton
375 growth rate was 1.24 d^{-1} at station B, which was about three times of that at station A
376 (0.44 d^{-1}). On the other hand, the microzooplankton grazing rate of 0.43 d^{-1} at station A
377 was only slightly lower than the grazing rate of 0.60 d^{-1} at station B (Fig. 7). The natural
378 growth rate of phytoplankton, after correction for the effects of nutrient enrichment as
379 described in section 2.3, was 0.28 d^{-1} at station A, much lower than the rate of 1.18 d^{-1} in
380 station B. The rates measured at station B during May 2014 are comparable with previous
381 estimates of growth rates of 1.03 d^{-1} and grazing rates of 0.62 d^{-1} near Dongsha Islands
382 during July 2009 (Chen et al., 2013). Our results for station A are also in good agreement
383 with those found in the non-upwelling area of the south Taiwan Strait (Huang et al., 2011),
384 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
385 microzooplankton grazing during July 2004 and 2005.

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

399

400 **4. Discussion**

401 4. 1 Roles of turbulent mixing and curl-driven upwelling on nutrient fluxes of the nSCS

402 during the spring inter-monsoon transition period

403 If the horizontal and atmospheric inputs are ignored, the total nutrient flux into the
404 euphotic zone (J_{total}) is the sum of diffusive flux due to turbulent dissipation ($J_{dif}=K_z\partial C/\partial z$)
405 and the advective flux due to upwelling ($J_{upw}=wC$, negative for downwelling):

$$406 \quad J_{total} = K_z \frac{\partial C}{\partial z} + wC$$

407 (6)

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

429 For the deep-water stations including the offshore pelagic zone and the water
430 intrusion zone, the integrated chlorophyll-*a* biomass during the transect study shows a
431 positive correlation with the upward nitrate flux ($\int Chl \cdot dz = 16.75 \times J_{total} + 7.7$, $r^2 = 0.58$,

432 $p=0.014$) when stations C₉ is not included (Table 1), supporting the important role of
433 bottom-up control on phytoplankton production in our study area (Chen 2005). Station C₆
434 should be excluded from the regression since it is near the top of the shelf-slope
435 subjecting to influence by along-shelf transport of low-chlorophyll waters, which could
436 have resulted in the relatively lower chlorophyll-*a* biomass but higher vertical nutrient
437 supplies observed in this station. From the regression slope of 16.75, we could estimate a
438 specific new production by vertical nitrate supply of $0.060 \text{ molN (gChl)}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$, which is
439 slightly lower than $0.063\text{-}0.088 \text{ molN (gChl)}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ reported in the nSCS by Chen (2005).
440 Assuming a vertically constant rate of phytoplankton specific growth, a gram
441 chlorophyll-to-carbon ratio of 0.03 and a molar C/N ratio of 6.625, we estimate a
442 vertically integrated primary production of $\sim 12.3 \text{ mmolN m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in station B and ~ 1.8
443 $\text{mmolN m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in station A. The contribution of vertical nutrient fluxes to primary
444 production could thus be $\sim 11\%$ and $\sim 26\%$ in stations B and A, respectively, which are
445 comparable with the *f*-ratio of 0.14-0.20 previously estimated in the nSCS from late
446 March to October (Chen, 2005). In steady status, the net primary production of
447 phytoplankton should be balanced by the upward nutrient flux as well as the downward
448 particle flux. Therefore, a high nutrient flux would correspond to a high net primary
449 production and thus a high biomass accumulation, if other conditions remain the same
450 (species, temperature, light, grazing, etc). Station C₉ is interesting in that the vertical
451 nutrient fluxes are net downward out of euphotic zone, suggesting that the station may
452 not be in steady status. High nutrients here are likely a result of strong horizontal input or
453 a previous diapycnal nutrient injection. In this case, large drawdown of nutrients will be
454 expected by fast growing phytoplankton and by the downward transport of nutrients out
455 of euphotic zone.

456 Uncertainty of the vertical nutrient flux could be contributed by errors in the
457 determinations of vertical diffusivity and vertical velocity, as well as nutrient
458 concentration and gradient. Calculation errors of vertical diffusivity by the Thorpe-scale
459 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),
460 $0.71 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ at 100 m (n=6), and $0.46 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ at 150 m (n=7). We therefore
461 obtain an average of $0.68 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ for the overall uncertainty of diffusivity
462 determined in our study. Uncertainty of vertical velocity by Ekman pumping from

463 satellite observations could be approximately determined at each station by their standard
464 deviations over the sampling duration of May 14th-16th, 2014. Measurement errors of
465 nutrients at depths during the field study should be negligible as the concentrations are
466 considerably higher than the detection limits of the analytical methods. We are not able to
467 quantify the uncertainty of nutrient gradient, as we have only one cast for each station
468 with reduced resolution below the euphotic layer. Meanwhile, the nutrient gradient and
469 related diffusive flux that we have calculated at the base of euphotic zone could be
470 interpreted as a mean value between the two adjacent bottle depths (100-200 m). The
471 final uncertainties for the vertical nutrient fluxes are summarized in Table 1, which vary
472 substantially from 0.34 to 0.98 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹ (n=9) for stations in the offshore regions.

473

474 4.2 Impact of growth-grazing dynamics on phytoplankton chlorophyll biomass in the 475 nSCS

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

493 Percentage of the primary production consumed by microzooplankton can be

494 estimated by the ratio of microzooplankton grazing over phytoplankton growth (g/μ)
495 (Landry et al., 1998). High g/μ ratios (~ 1.5) at station A suggest an elevated role of the
496 microbial food web in the south Taiwan Strait, promoting nutrient recycling to support
497 further phytoplankton growth. Whereas, the relatively higher microzooplankton grazing
498 rate but lower g/μ ratio at station B may indicate a greater efficiency of carbon export
499 near the Dongsha Islands, as the greater loss of diatoms through sinking or grazing by
500 mesozooplankton in regions with high nutrient supply (Landry et al., 1998). Natural
501 growth of phytoplankton at station B was much higher than its grazing mortality, leading
502 to a large net growth rate (growth minus grazing) of 0.58 d^{-1} , which is consistent with the
503 high integrated chlorophyll biomass in this station. In contrast, a negative net growth rate
504 of -0.15 d^{-1} was found at station A as a result of higher grazing pressure. The specific
505 phosphate consumption rate of 1.03 d^{-1} at station A was about twice of that at station B
506 (0.46 d^{-1}) suggesting a larger nutrient demand at station A. There was actually a faster
507 response of phytoplankton to nutrient enrichment at station A than at station B indicating
508 a stronger nutrient limitation in the south Taiwan Strait. The negative net community
509 growth and the higher nutrient consumption rate at station A are consistent with the
510 spring phytoplankton bloom of the southwest Taiwan observed in the satellite data (Fig.
511 2c) being in its decline phase. Indeed, the area of the phytoplankton bloom decreased
512 substantially within two weeks and was not visible by the middle of June, 2014 (from
513 weekly mean sea surface chlorophyll-*a* data of MODIS Aqua) supporting the important
514 role of grazing activity on phytoplankton distribution in the nSCS.

515 In conclusion, we have conducted a preliminary study on vertical nutrient fluxes and
516 phytoplankton dynamics in the nSCS. Our results suggest that phytoplankton patchiness
517 in the nSCS during the spring inter-monsoon of May 2014 was largely controlled by
518 vertical nutrient fluxes, which were driven by both turbulent diffusion and wind stress
519 curl-driven upwelling. Our results also revealed an increasing role of turbulent diffusion
520 but a decreasing role of curl-driven upwelling on vertical transport of nutrients from the
521 coastal ocean zones to the offshore pelagic zones in the nSCS. Elevated nutrient fluxes
522 observed near the Dongsha Islands were found to support high new production leading to
523 net growth of phytoplankton community, whereas the low nutrient fluxes of the south
524 Taiwan Strait resulted in a negative net community growth leading to decline of a

525 phytoplankton bloom. As the findings presented here is limited by the very narrow area
526 and the very short period of sampling time, future studies may be improved by addressing
527 the variability of vertical nutrient fluxes and its relationship to phytoplankton dynamics
528 on a much longer time scale over a much broader area of the nSCS.

529

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658 Table 1: Comparisons of integrated chlorophyll-*a* ($\int Chl \cdot dz$), nitrate gradient ($\partial C/\partial z$), nitrate
659 concentration (NO_3), vertical diffusivity (K_z), upwelling velocity (w_e), diffusive nitrate flux
660 (J_{dif}), upwelled nitrate flux (J_{upw}), and total nitrate flux (J_{total}) for transect stations C₆₋₁₂ and
661 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

662

663 ^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)

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

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

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

673

674 Figure 2: Spatial distributions of (a) sea surface temperature, (b) curl-driven upwelling
675 velocity, and (c) sea surface chlorophyll during the survey, together with (d) the
676 time-series of curl-driven upwelling and wind stress at stations C_6 and C_{13} during
677 May-June, 2014. Vectors in panel (a) and panel (b) are surface geostrophic currents and
678 wind stresses, respectively; [geostrophic current is from OSCAR data](#); upwelling velocity
679 and wind stress are from 3-day mean METOP-ASCAT data; sea surface temperature is
680 3-day-mean GOES-POES data; sea surface chlorophyll-*a* is monthly MODIS-Aqua data.

681

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

686

687 Figure 4: Profiles of Thorpe displacement (d_z), Thorpe scale (L_T), and turbulent
688 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
689 continental shelf to the west of Luzon Strait. Locations of these stations are shown in
690 Figure 1.

691

692 Figure 5: Comparisons of vertical turbulent diffusivities (K_z) between two stations A and
693 B. Black line is the result of the reference station S_1 with continuous CTD sampling up to
694 13 casts; circles are for station A (2 casts) with squares for station B (2 casts).

695

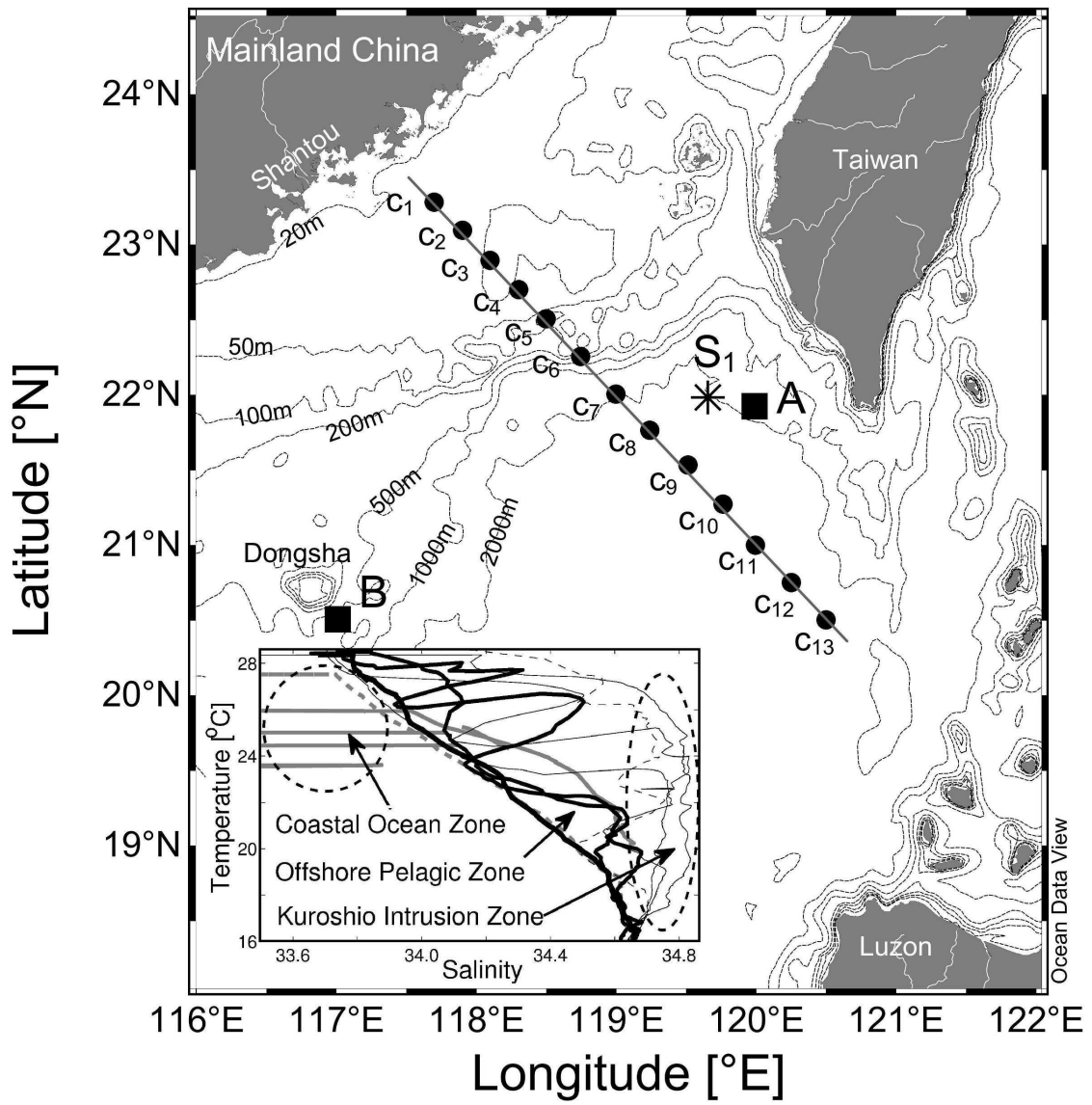
696 Figure 6: Comparisons of vertical profiles of chlorophyll-*a* [$Chl-a$], temperature [T],
697 nutrients [$Si(OH)_4, NO_3, PO_4$], and nutrient gradients between two incubation stations A
698 and B. Thick lines in each panel are for bottom axis with thin lines (open symbols) for top
699 axis; dash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

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

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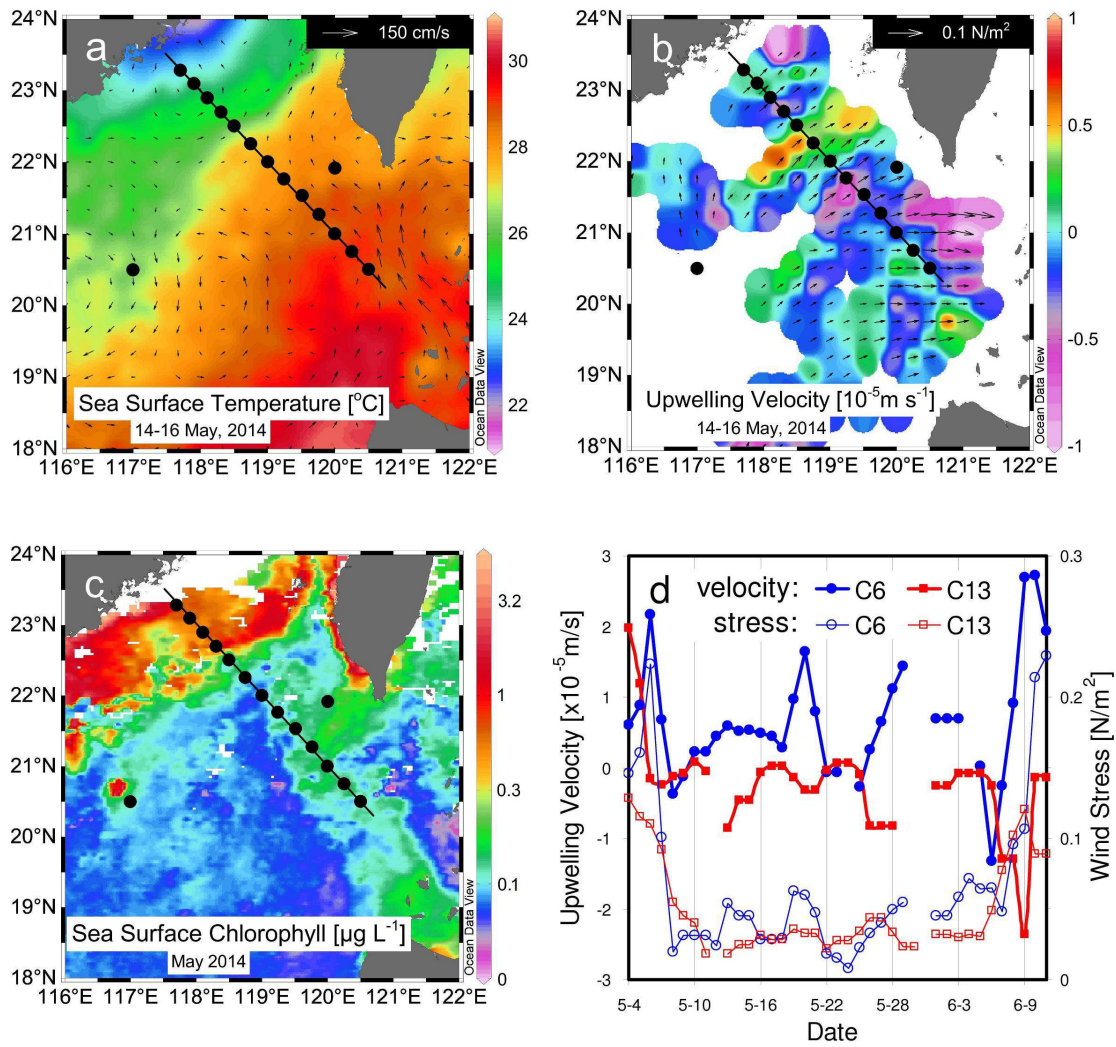
705 Figure 8: Temporal variations of chlorophyll-*a* and phosphate during incubations with
706 and without nutrient enrichments in stations A and B. Dash lines (filled symbols) are for
707 chlorophyll-*a* in left axis with thin lines (open symbols) for phosphate in right axis;
708 control is the incubation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



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Figure 1

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Figure 2

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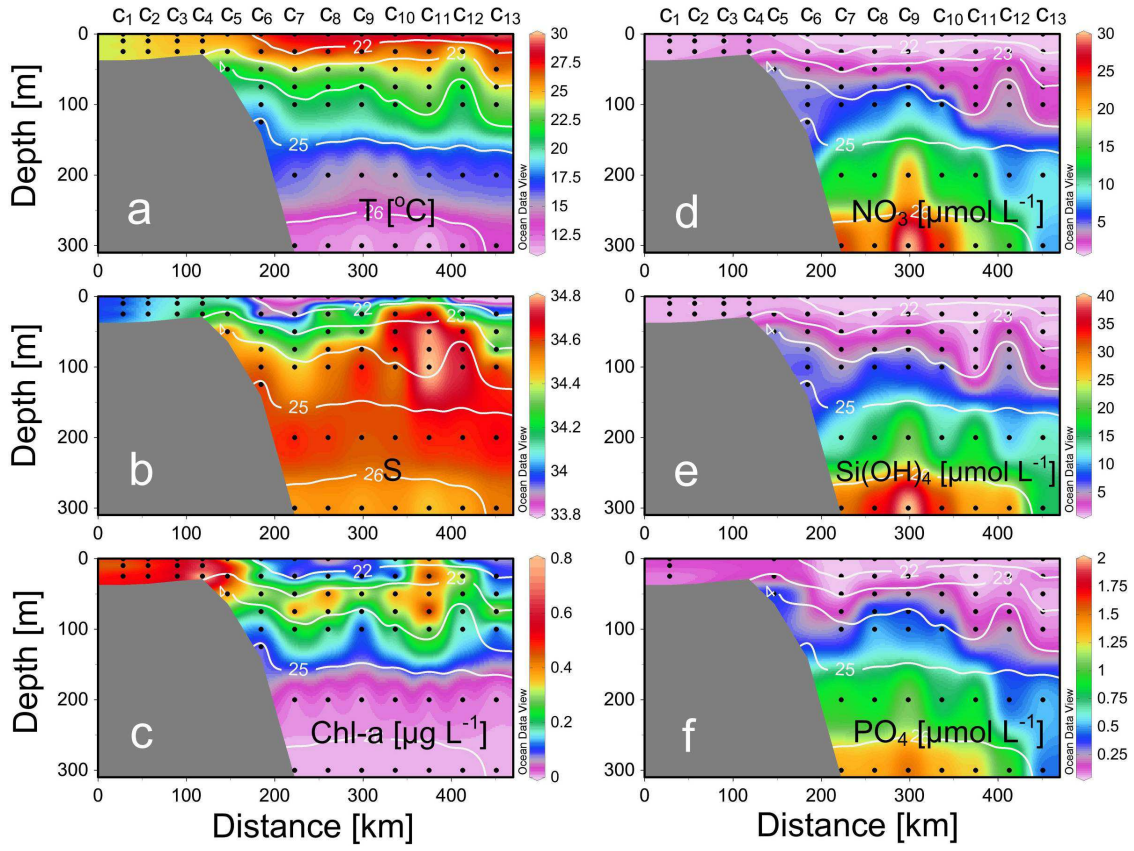


Figure 3

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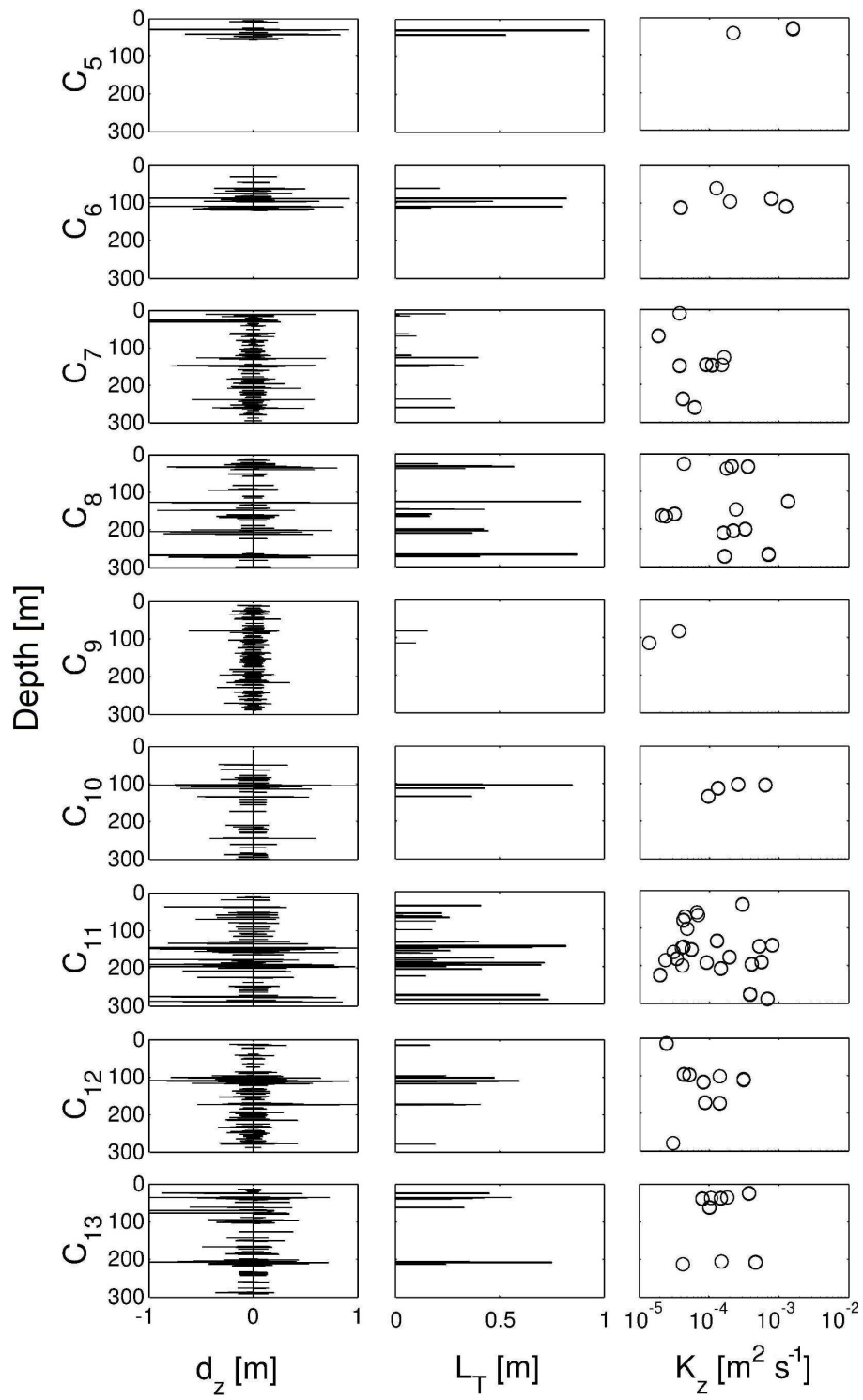
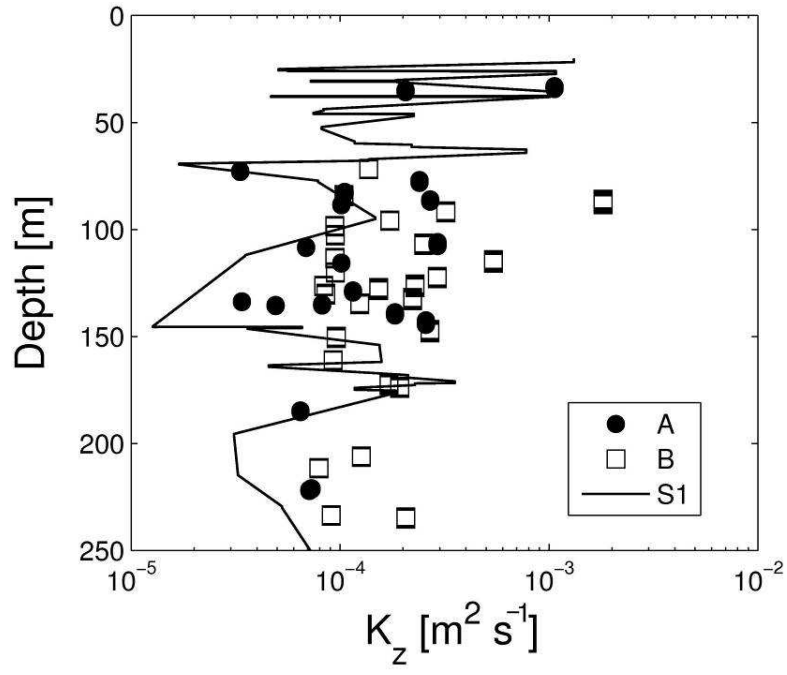


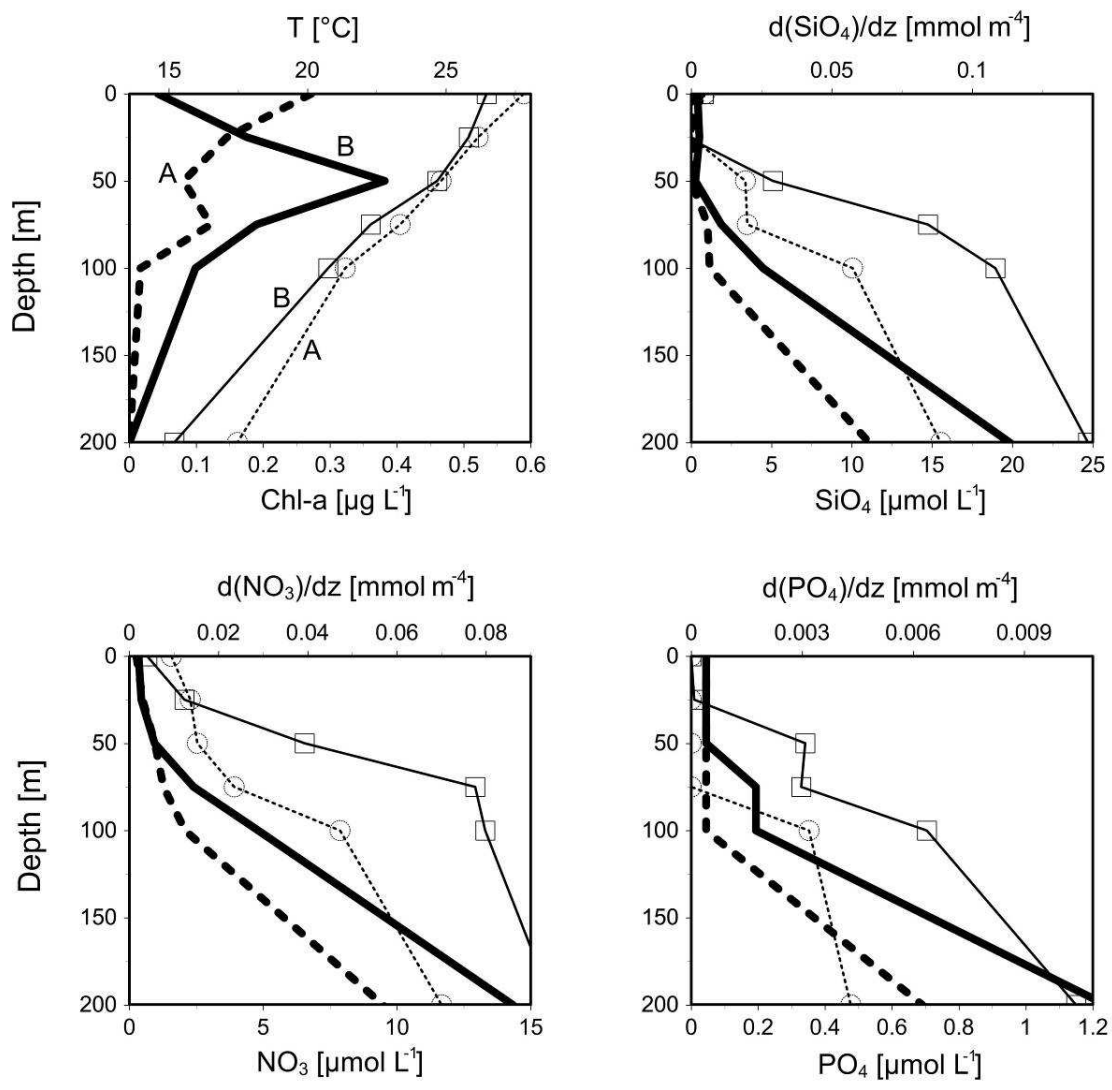
Figure 4

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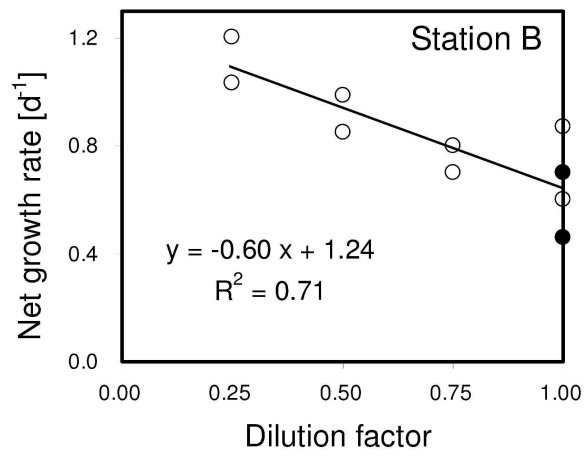
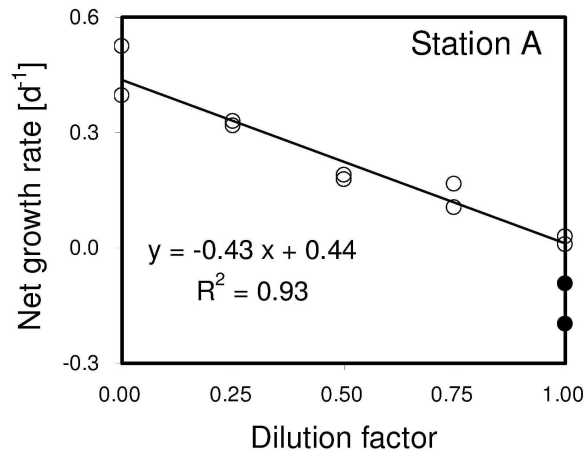
Figure 5



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Figure 6

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Figure 7

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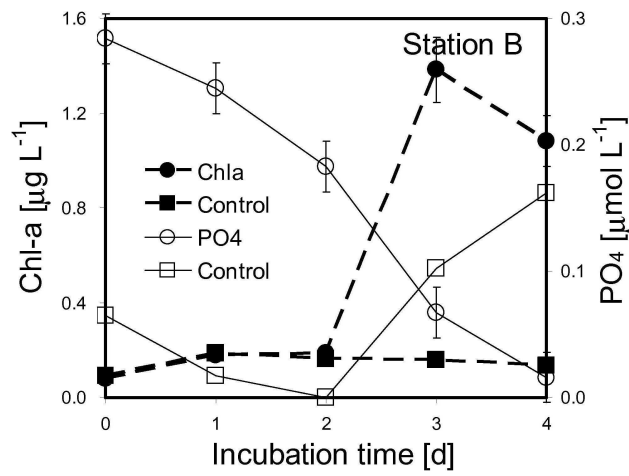
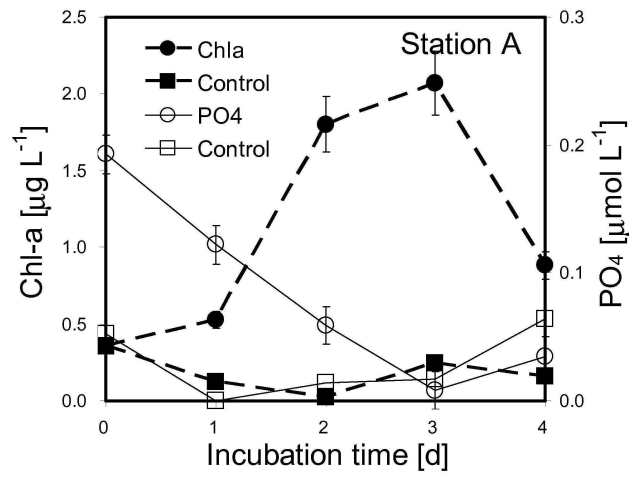


Figure 8

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