

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

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## 1 **Abstract**

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

22

# 1    **1    Introduction**

## 2    **1.1 Surface chlorophyll distribution**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

### 19 **1.3 Fluorescence**

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

1 profiling floats and gliders are equipped with a fluorimeter (Johnson et al., 2009) while  
2 fluorescence is becoming the main source of data for [Chl-a] vertical profiles. To date, more  
3 than 67900 fluorescence profiles are available in the World Ocean Database 2013 (Boyer et  
4 al., 2013).

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

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

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

#### 29 **1.4 Outlines**

30 This study aims at improving knowledge on the spatio-temporal variability of the vertical  
31 distribution of the [Chl-a] in the Mediterranean Sea, focusing particularly on [Chl-a]

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

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

## 22 **2 Data and Methods**

### 23 **2.1 Data set of fluorescence chlorophyll profiles**

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

1 Levantine Sea are poorly represented. Available profiles range between 1994 and 2014, all  
2 seasons being equally represented (winter 30% of data, spring 21%, summer 25% and autumn  
3 24%). Although only 16% of the database are Bio-Argo profiles, they represent half of  
4 available profiles for the 2008-2014 period.

## 5 **2.2 Data processing and calibration**

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

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

29 Step 1 provides a systematic correction of the NPQ effect by extrapolating the maximum  
30 fluorescence value observed in the mixed layer up to the surface (Xing et al. 2012). Although  
31 Biermann et al. (2014) proposed an improvement of the method for profiles with euphotic  
32 depth above MLD, we preferred to use a unique data processing procedure, to avoid the



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

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

21 In step 3, fluorescence profiles collected after 1998 were converted into [Chl-a] units using a  
22 transformation based on ocean color satellite observations (Lavigne et al., 2012). 8-day Level  
23 3 standard mapped images of SeaWiFS and MODIS Aqua surface chlorophyll at 9km  
24 resolution were obtained from the NASA web site (<http://oceancolor.gsfc.nasa.gov/>) for the  
25 1998-2014 period (1998-2007 for SeaWiFS and 2008-2014 for MODIS Aqua). The use of  
26 NASA [Chl-a] standard products allows for a good consistency between SeaWiFS and  
27 MODIS datasets thus avoiding the introduction of any bias between the two time-series  
28 (Franz et al., 2005). For each fluorescence profile, the satellite image matching the profile  
29 date was selected. The corresponding surface [Chl-a] values over a  $0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$  box centered  
30 on the geographical position of the profile were extracted and averaged. The integrated  
31 chlorophyll content over  $1.5Z_e$  (where  $Z_e$  is the euphotic depth) is then estimated from  
32 satellite [Chl-a] using empirical relationships (Uitz et al., 2006). A multiplicative coefficient  
33 ( $\alpha$  coefficient in Eq. (1)) is applied to the fluorescence profile, imposing that the integrated

1 fluorescence content matches the integrated chlorophyll content derived from satellite. At the  
2 end, 3867 fluorescence profiles were successfully transformed into [Chl-a]. These [Chl-a]  
3 profiles formed the “1998-2014 database” and similarly to fluorescence profiles of the “1994-  
4 2014 database”, they are available upon request from the first author.

### 5 **2.3 Determination of the shape of fluorescence profiles**

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

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

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

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

### 13 **3 Results**

#### 14 **3.1 Some climatological behaviors**

15 Although the availability of the calibrated profiles (1998-2014 database) should allow to  
16 generate interpolated products on a regular mesh grid (as, for example, the World Ocean  
17 Atlas, Conkright et al., 2002), we preferred to avoid any large interpolation and only present  
18 Mediterranean patterns for locations well represented in our database. Hence, monthly  
19 climatologies of [Chl-a] vertical profiles were computed for four geographical points where  
20 the data density was high. These points were also placed in four main Mediterranean sub-  
21 basins (i.e. 42°N/5°E in the North-Western basin, 38°N/5°E in the South-Western basin,  
22 36°N/17°E in the Ionian Sea and 34°N/30°E in the Levantine Sea, see yellow diamonds on  
23 Fig. 1). The monthly time-series are presented in the next section (Sect. 3.1.1). Although, in  
24 the following, we refer to these time-series as “climatological”, certain average profiles result  
25 from a low number of fluorescence profiles (sometimes less than 10, see numbers on Fig. 3)  
26 and therefore do not strictly represent a climatological pattern. To better identify spatial  
27 changes in [Chl-a] fields, we also present climatological transects (Sect. 3.1.2). Due to the  
28 weak density of data in the eastern basin, the [Chl-a] distribution could only be analyzed  
29 along a 5°E north-south transect in the western basin (see dotted line on Fig. 1). Nevertheless,  
30 this transect encompasses regions with different biological dynamics (D’Ortenzio and Ribera  
31 d’Alcalà, 2009) and it is representative of the main patterns of the Western Mediterranean.

### 1 **3.1.1 Seasonality in four geographic points**

2 For each of the four selected geographic points (see above), all available profiles in a 4°x4°  
3 side box centered on the chosen geographical position were averaged on a 1-meter vertical  
4 scale and on a monthly basis to produce climatological profiles. The resulting monthly  
5 climatologies are displayed on Fig. 3.

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

29 Regarding [Chl-a] values, regional differences are visible, confirming previous observations  
30 on the eastward increase of oligotrophic conditions. The highest [Chl-a] value is observed in  
31 April, in the North-Western climatology (Fig. 3, panel A), reaching  $1.2 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ . However, this  
32 mean value is derived from extremely variable observations ranging between  $0.3$  and  $4.2 \text{ mg}$   
33  $\text{m}^{-3}$ . The South-Western time-series shows [Chl-a] values up to  $0.5 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ , observed in the

1 surface during winter and at the DCM during summer. In the Ionian climatology, highest  
2 [Chl-a] values can be observed at the DCM, reaching  $0.3 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ . Finally, the Levantine  
3 climatology displays the lowest [Chl-a], with values rarely exceeding  $0.25 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ .

4 Table 2 presents averaged [Chl-a] values at the DCM depth, for the four geographic points  
5 analyzed here. Contrary to the DCM [Chl-a] values visible in Fig. 3, the values reported in  
6 Table 2 are derived from the mean DCM [Chl-a] values extracted individually from each  
7 fluorescence profile presenting a DCM. In the North-Western region, [Chl-a] at DCM is often  
8 around  $1 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ , though it ranges between  $0.65 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$  in September and  $1.22 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$  in  
9 April. At the South-Western point, the averaged [Chl-a] at DCM is  $0.87 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ . In the  
10 Eastern basin, values are twice lower (about  $0.55 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$  at the Ionian point and  $0.45 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$   
11 at the Levantine point). A seasonal pattern does not clearly emerge from the analysis of the  
12 DCM statistics, except that [Chl-a] at DCM is generally higher during spring and summer and  
13 lower during autumn. Note that averaged DCM depth [Chl-a] values (Table 2) are higher than  
14 the DCM depth [Chl-a] values observed on climatological profiles (Fig. 3) because the  
15 averaging process on the latter tends to flat DCMs (see discussion on Sect. 4.1.2, Lavigne et  
16 al., 2012).

### 17 **3.2.1 North-South transect**

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

21 The spring situation (Fig. 4, panel A) displays various types of profiles and a large range of  
22 [Chl-a] values. North of  $41^\circ\text{N}$ , [Chl-a] values are high ( $> 1 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ ) at surface and decrease  
23 with depth. Highest [Chl-a] values ( $\sim 3 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ ) are observed around  $42^\circ\text{N}$  in surface (up to  
24 30m depth). Between  $40^\circ\text{N}$  and  $41^\circ\text{N}$ , surface [Chl-a] is around  $0.5 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$  and a DCM is  
25 visible at 50m depth. Further south, the climatological transect displays a deeper DCM  
26 (around 75m depth) and very low surface [Chl-a] values ( $< 0.3 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ ).

27 In the summer transect (Fig. 4, panel B), the presence of a DCM is ubiquitous, although its  
28 position in the water column and its [Chl-a] values vary throughout the transect. A steady  
29 deepening of the DCM is observed from  $43^\circ\text{N}$  (DCM depth around 50 m) to  $39^\circ\text{N}$  (DCM  
30 depth around 85 m). A southward decrease of [Chl-a] at DCM is also observed. It ranges from  
31  $0.8 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$  to  $0.4 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ . South of  $39^\circ\text{N}$ , a shallowing of the DCM depth and an increase of  
32 the [Chl-a] at DCM are observed.

## 1 **3.2 Analysis of the profile shapes**

### 2 **3.2.1 Characteristics of standard shapes**

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

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

20 According to the results presented in Table 3, surface [Chl-a] values are related to the  
21 shape of the vertical profile. Lowest surface [Chl-a] values are observed for “DCM” shape  
22 profiles while highest ( $1.22 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ ) values are observed for “HSC” shape profiles. In spite of  
23 its variability, this high value suggests that the “HSC” shape could result from the exponential  
24 growth of phytoplankton at surface in unlimited nutrient condition associated to a stable water  
25 column. Hence, “HSC” profiles would typically correspond to bloom conditions. A very high  
26 variability, with surface [Chl-a] values ranging from  $0.13 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$  to  $1.19 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ , is observed  
27 for profiles of the standard “homogenous” shape. This variability likely results from the  
28 interactions between the high variability of MLD and the recent development of  
29 phytoplankton biomass.

30 The  $F_{\text{surf}}/F_T$  ratio changes with the shape of the [Chl-a] profile. The lowest ratio (6%) is  
31 observed for the “DCM” shape, even though this value is likely to be underestimated by a

1 factor of 2.5 because of NPQ. The standard “homogeneous”, “complex” and “HSC” shapes  
2 display similar averaged ratios, 32%, 30% and 35%, respectively. Once again, there is a large  
3 variability for “homogeneous” shape profiles that which can be explained by the variability of  
4 the MLD. Finally, in the “HSC” situation, the upper 20m can accumulate up to 50% of the  
5 chlorophyll content.

### 6 **3.2.2 Seasonal distribution of the profile shapes**

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

### 27 **3.2.3 Longitudinal and seasonal distribution of the DCM depth**

28 The DCM is confirmed to be a dominant feature of the [Chl-a] distribution in the  
29 Mediterranean, although its characteristics change from one region to another and with time.  
30 A deepening of the DCM depth with longitude is generally observed (Fig. 6), confirming  
31 previous findings (Crise et al., 1999). A linear model applied to DCM depth data indicates

1 that, on average, DCM depth deepens by 1.6 m for 1° of longitude. However, a large  
2 variability exists, especially in the Ionian and Levantine seas. Superimposed to this general  
3 deepening of DCM with longitude, regional differences can be observed between the main  
4 Mediterranean sub-basins. Considering profiles at the same range of longitude, the averaged  
5 DCM depth is deeper and more variable in the South-West region than in the North-West  
6 region (see Table 4). In the eastern basin, the Adriatic region displays shallow and stable  
7 DCM depths, whereas the Ionian and Levantine regions display deeper and more variable  
8 DCM depths (Table 4).

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

## 15 **4 Discussion**

### 16 **4.1 Methodological discussion**

#### 17 **4.1.1 Comparison with MEDATLAS**

18 The climatological profiles for each of the four geographical points analyzed in the Sect. 3.1  
19 have been computed from the MEDATLAS climatology and compared to their fluorescence  
20 based counterparts evaluated here (Fig. 8). For each geographical point, the two versions of  
21 [Chl-a] vertical profiles (fluorescence based and MEDATLAS) displayed similar ranges of  
22 values, although differences are observed in the form of [Chl-a] vertical profiles. The  
23 fluorescence based profiles often display thinner DCMs with higher [Chl-a] values than in the  
24 MEDATLAS climatology (see for instance Fig. 8, panel B summer, panel C autumn and  
25 panel D summer). Moreover, in the MEDATLAS climatology, very weak seasonal changes of  
26 the DCM depth are visible. These divergences can be explained by the use of discrete data  
27 and of interpolation in the MEDATLAS climatology, which prevents the proper  
28 characterization of vertical structures. In winter, the MEDATLAS climatology, and  
29 sometimes the fluorescence based climatology, show profiles with subsurface maxima (Fig. 8,  
30 panels A, B, C, winter), which have not been observed in the monthly fluorescence based



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

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

#### 15 **4.1.2 Methodological approaches**

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

27 The two approaches are complementary. The “standard” method highlights the average  
28 pattern of the [Chl-a] profile and provides the ranges of [Chl-a] values. However, [Chl-a]  
29 values must be considered independently for each depth and the shape of the resulting  
30 climatological profile has to be interpreted carefully because it is a composite. A typical  
31 artifact of this method is the tendency of the DCM to be flattened (compare DCM of Fig. 3  
32 and values of Table 2). In these cases (i.e. [Chl-a] profile extremely stable, as during summer,

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

## 19 **4.2 A new vision of the [Chl-a] in the Mediterranean Sea**

### 20 **4.2.1 Comparison with satellite ocean color observations**

21 The main feature that emerges from the analysis of annual cycles of surface [Chl-a] from  
22 ocean color data over the Mediterranean sea is the coexistence of two main types of cycle  
23 (Bosc et al., 2004; D’Ortenzio and Ribera 2009; Lavigne et al., 2013). The two cycles (“NO  
24 BLOOM” and “BLOOM”, following the definition of D’Ortenzio and Ribera d’Alcalà, 2009)  
25 can be characterized, firstly, by a two-fold increase from summer to winter in the normalized  
26 [Chl-a] (so-called NO BLOOM annual cycle) and secondly, by a moderate (two-fold) increase  
27 in normalized [Chl-a] from summer to winter, followed by an exponential increase (three-  
28 fold) in early spring (so-called BLOOM annual cycle). These previous findings are based on  
29 satellite surface [Chl-a] and result from a complex statistical analysis (i.e. normalization of the  
30 seasonal cycles, clustering analysis), but they have also been confirmed by the climatological  
31 time-series presented here (see Sect. 3.1). Climatologies of [Chl-a] profiles (Fig. 3) for the  
32 South-Western region (panel B), the Ionian region (panel C) and the Levantine region (panel

1 D), which correspond to the NO BLOOM regions identified by D'Ortenzio and Ribera  
2 d'Alcalà (2009), display similarities in the seasonal variations of surface [Chl-a] and they also  
3 showed a similar succession of winter homogeneous profiles and summer profiles with DCM.  
4 In contrast, the time-series corresponding to the North-Western region (Fig. 3, panel A)  
5 presents, in March and April, [Chl-a] vertical profiles characterized by high surface  
6 concentrations (i.e. HSC profiles), confirming the specific feature of the North-Western  
7 region in the Mediterranean Sea. Unlike NO BLOOM Mediterranean regions, in the North-  
8 West region, the average winter MLD is deeper than the DCM and the nitracline depth (see  
9 Table 4). This particularity explains the March-April bloom, which could be supported by  
10 large winter nutrient supplies. It also indicates that winter vertical mixing fully destroys the  
11 nitracline, pycnocline and DCM, which have to be restored each year. The annual renewal of  
12 these structures contributes to their tight coupling (see Fig. 3 panel A and Table 4), which is  
13 not observed in NO BLOOM Mediterranean regions (based on Fig. 3 results, DCM and  
14 pycnocline are uncoupled). In NO BLOOM regions, DCM and nitracline are not reached by  
15 the average winter MLD (see Table 4) except for extreme MLD events (Lavigne et al., 2013).

16 Beyond the bimodal conception (i.e. BLOOM / NO BLOOM) of annual [Chl-a] cycles in the  
17 Mediterranean Sea, there is an important and unresolved complexity marked by the presence  
18 of regional differences within the two main biomass annual cycles. A good illustration of this  
19 complexity is the identification by D'Ortenzio and Ribera d'Alcalà (2009) of three different  
20 annual cycles (i.e. 3 bioregions) for the NO BLOOM dynamics. The probabilistic analysis of  
21 the general shape of the [Chl-a] profiles achieved in this paper also contributes to refine the  
22 basic BLOOM / NO BLOOM scheme and should help to explain the complex patterns  
23 observed from the surface. In Fig. 5, regional differences in the distribution of the standard  
24 shapes for [Chl-a] vertical profiles are observed among the NO BLOOM regions (i.e. South-  
25 West, Levantine and Ionian regions). The main difference is the significant proportion of  
26 "HSC" like profiles during winter months (i.e. January, February and March) in the South-  
27 West region, whereas this proportion is very small (less than 10% ) in the Ionian sea, and even  
28 zero in the Levantine Sea. The observation of "HSC" like profiles in the South-West region  
29 suggests that, during winter, mixing is able to supply enough nutrients at the surface to  
30 support episodic developments of phytoplankton close to the surface, when water column  
31 begins to stabilize. This could also explain the higher [Chl-a] observed in the South-West  
32 region and the difference between the South-Western and Eastern normalized [Chl-a] annual  
33 cycles (D'Ortenzio and Ribera d'Alcalà, 2009). Compared to the Eastern Mediterranean Sea,

1 DCM and nitracline depths are shallow in the South-West region (Table 4). However, winter  
2 mixing is constrained, in the Algerian basin, by the strong halocline associated to the  
3 spreading of Atlantic Water, and barely reaches the nitracline depth (D’Ortenzio and Prieur,  
4 2010; Lavigne et al., 2013). Therefore, the spatial divergences in the occurrence of “HSC”  
5 profiles might originate in the regional differences in nutrient stocks below the nitracline.  
6 Indeed, for the intermediate layer, the nitrate concentration is much higher in the Western  
7 than in the Eastern basin (Ribera d’Alcalà et al., 2003). In addition, the nitrate to phosphate  
8 ratio increases eastward, suggesting that phytoplankton growth is mainly limited by phosphate  
9 in the Eastern Mediterranean Sea (Ribera d’Alcalà et al., 2003, Bethoux et al., 2002; Krom et  
10 al., 1991). Hence, the absence of “HSC” profiles in the Eastern Mediterranean Sea could be  
11 due to a too weak mixing efficiency to supply sufficient amounts of nitrate and phosphate for  
12 supporting a phytoplankton bloom.

#### 13 **4.2.2 High diversity of the Mediterranean [Chl-a]**

14 Although the Mediterranean Sea covers a relatively small latitudinal range (from 30°N to  
15 45°N), previous findings, essentially based on satellite observations, have shown that in this  
16 basin, the annual phytoplankton cycles representative of subtropical and mid-latitude regions  
17 of the global ocean coexist (D’Ortenzio and Ribera d’Alcalà 2009, Lavigne et al., 2013).  
18 Present results, which focus on the seasonal variability of the whole [Chl-a] vertical  
19 distribution, confirm these previous statements. The climatological time-series of [Chl-a]  
20 profiles (Fig. 3) for the South-Western region (panel B), the Ionian region (panel C) and the  
21 Levantine region (panel D) are very close to typical subtropical behavior marked by the quasi-  
22 permanent existence of the DCM (Letelier et al., 2004; Mignot et al., 2014). In particular, the  
23 [Chl-a] climatology of the BATS station in the subtropical North Atlantic gyre (Steinberg et  
24 al., 2001; Lavigne et al., 2012) displays many similarities, in terms of ranges of values for  
25 [Chl-a], DCM depths and winter mixing depths, with the climatological time-series built in  
26 the Levantine Sea (Fig. 3, panel D). The only main difference is that the “homogeneous”  
27 climatological profiles begin in December in the Mediterranean regions and only in January at  
28 the BATS station (Lavigne et al., 2012). Regarding seasonal cycles obtained for the North-  
29 Western Mediterranean Sea, they can be easily compared to mid-latitude (40°-60°) regions  
30 marked by an intense spring bloom as in the North Atlantic (Siegel et al., 2002) or in certain  
31 regions of the Southern Ocean (Thomalla et al., 2011). Similarly to our northwestern  
32 Mediterranean observations, the seasonal cycles for [Chl-a] vertical profiles presented by  
33 Boss et al. (2008) in the Western North-Atlantic (about 50°N) and by Chiswell (2011) in the

1 waters east of New Zealand (about 40°S) display a majority of profiles with a “homogeneous”  
2 shape during winter and, in spring, a predominance of profiles displaying a “HSC” shape or  
3 an “homogeneous” shape with high [Chl-a] values. The coexistence of profiles with  
4 “homogeneous” and “HSC” shapes during spring could be explained by the intermittent  
5 feature of mixing, which continuously modifies the vertical distribution of [Chl-a] during the  
6 spring bloom (Chiswell, 2011). Finally, it is important to mention that the summer situation is  
7 very different between the North-Atlantic region studied by Boss et al. (2008) and the North-  
8 Western Mediterranean Sea. Although, DCM like profiles are nearly permanent in the North-  
9 Western Mediterranean from May/June, Boss et al. (2008) only observed them to start in late  
10 summer.

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

20 At the first order, the DCM depth variability in the Mediterranean Sea is related to the spatial  
21 component and, in particular, longitude. The deepening of the DCM along a longitudinal  
22 gradient (in the present study, DCM deepens by 1.6m per 1 degree of longitude east) agrees  
23 with the previous review, also based on observations, by Crise et al. (1999). This general  
24 deepening of the DCM with longitude covaries with the eastward increase of oligotrophy in  
25 the Mediterranean Sea (Béthoux et al., 1998). This pattern is generally attributed to anti-  
26 estuarine circulations in the Straits of Gibraltar and Sicily, which generate an eastward inflow  
27 of surface nutrient depleted waters and a westward outflow of deep nutrient rich waters. In the  
28 Eastern Mediterranean Sea, oligotrophy is also maintained by poor nutrient inputs from the  
29 boundaries (atmosphere and coasts) and by the formation of Levantine Intermediate Water,  
30 which is not the product of deep convection but of the subduction of surface water into  
31 intermediate water layers (Robinson and Golnaraghi). As revealed by Table 4, regional  
32 changes in DCM depth, nitracline depth and averaged daily PAR at DCM are correlated in the  
33 Mediterranean Sea. The eastward deepening of the DCM depth and of the nitracline depth is

1 accompanied by a decrease in the mean daily averaged PAR at DCM (values ranging from 1  
2 mol quanta m<sup>-2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> in the North-West Mediterranean to 0.16 mol quanta m<sup>-2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> in the  
3 Levantine Sea). This trend concurs with the “general rule” that states that the DCM builds-up  
4 where there is an optimal balance between the upward nutrient flux and the downward photon  
5 flux and lies on top of the nutricline (Cullen, 2015). The large distance between DCM depth  
6 and nitracline depth in the Ionian (36m) and the Levantine (83m) basins may be considered as  
7 contradictory with the previous theory. However, according to Table 4, the estimations of  
8 nitracline depths are not likely to be good estimators of the top of the nitracline, if the nitrate  
9 gradient is not a enough sharp feature, as is it the case, for example in the Eastern  
10 Mediterranean Sea. Indeed, nitracline depths have been computed from discrete vertical  
11 profiles, using the 1µM isoline (Lavigne et al., 2013).

12 Results from Fig. 10 also show that a seasonal component contributes to explain DCM  
13 variability in the Mediterranean regions. The observed seasonal pattern of the DCM depth  
14 (i.e. deepening from spring to summer and shallowing from summer to autumn) is consistent  
15 with previous model results (Macias et al., 2014), and with individual Bio-Argo float  
16 observations (Mignot et al., 2014). Letelier et al. (2004) and Mignot et al. (2014) explain this  
17 seasonal pattern by considering that the DCM depth might be driven by the light availability  
18 and that it would follow the depth of an isolume. This observation is confirmed here by the  
19 analysis of the vertical [Chl-a] profile as a function of irradiance for the spring, summer and  
20 autumn periods (Fig. 10). For all regions, from spring to summer, PAR at DCM depth  
21 remains unchanged although [Chl-a] decreases. Accordingly to Letelier et al. (2004), higher  
22 spring [Chl-a] may be explained by the temporal erosion of the upper nitracline from spring to  
23 summer, supporting the hypothesis of deep biomass maxima. From summer to autumn, the  
24 magnitude of DCMs remains roughly unchanged, similarly to the PAR at DCM.

## 25 **5 Conclusion**

26 Since the initial work of the MEDAR/MEDATLAS group (Maillard and coauthors, 2005;  
27 Manca et al., 2004), the proposed study represents the first attempt to analyze the seasonal  
28 variations of the [Chl-a] vertical distribution over the Mediterranean Sea. The picture of the  
29 [Chl-a] field in the basin has been updated here, as it had been mainly derived from surface  
30 satellite data or from limited and scarce in situ observations. Chlorophyll-a fluorescence data  
31 (specifically calibrated and homogenized with a dedicated method) provided a significantly  
32 larger database than the commonly used in situ bottle estimations. Additionally, a better

1 description of the vertical distribution was made possible. 6790 profiles of fluorescence were  
2 gathered and processed to carry out a comprehensive analysis of the seasonal variability of the  
3 vertical [Chl-a] profiles within the main Mediterranean sub-basins. The present analysis, in  
4 agreement with previous satellite results (D’Ortenzio and Ribera d’Alcalà, 2009),  
5 demonstrates the coexistence of two main types of dynamics (i.e. subtropical and mid-latitude  
6 dynamics) in the Mediterranean Sea. Mid-latitude dynamics are observed in the North-  
7 Western basin. Their main specificity is the high occurrence of “HSC” profiles in March and  
8 April, whereas this type of shape, associated to bloom conditions, is nearly absent elsewhere  
9 during this season. The subtropical dynamics encompass most of the remaining basin. It is  
10 characterized by an omnipresent DCM from spring to autumn and by a large variety of [Chl-  
11 a] vertical shapes during winter. The present analysis also demonstrated that the [Chl-a]  
12 pattern in the Mediterranean Sea is not uniform. Even among regions with subtropical  
13 dynamics, a strong variability was observed in [Chl-a] values or DCM characteristics. At the  
14 basin scale, this variability follows an eastward oligotrophic pattern.

15 The present study was often limited by the quantity of data, which did not allow for the  
16 analysis of each region of the Mediterranean Sea (e.g. the Adriatic Sea). We regret the  
17 singular absence of fluorescence profiles in oceanographic databases compared to other  
18 parameters. For instance, in the MEDAR database, there are 118009 salinity profiles, 44928  
19 oxygen profiles and only 1984 chlorophyll-a fluorescence profiles. Finally, in this study we  
20 were only able to present climatological behaviors. Although it is a first and necessary step  
21 for a better understanding of processes which impact seasonal variability of [Chl-a] vertical  
22 profiles, it would be interesting to further study certain particular cases showing, with a high  
23 frequency, annual series of vertical [Chl-a] profiles. These data have now become available  
24 with the development of Bio-Argo floats (Johnson et al., 2009) and some studies have already  
25 demonstrated their potential for such applications (Boss and Behrenfeld, 2010; Mignot et al.,  
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4

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

4

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

5

6

1 Table 2. Averaged [Chl-a] at DCM for each geographical point analyzed on Fig. 3 (i.e. yellow  
 2 diamonds on Fig. 1). Averaged [Chl-a] values were computed by averaging all the DCM  
 3 depth [Chl-a] estimations extracted from available “DCM” like profiles.

4

	Point: 42°N 5°E (North-West)			Point: 38°N 5°E (South-West)			Point: 36°N 17°E (Ionian)			Point: 33.5°N 33°E (Levantine)		
	MEAN	SD	N	MEAN	SD	N	MEAN	SD	N	MEAN	SD	N
April	1.22	0.66	26				0.73	0.24	107	0.50	0.07	6
May	0.86	0.20	38	0.93	0.18	9	0.73	0.24	37	0.50	0.09	6
June	0.99	0.28	129	1.24	0.76	6	0.90	0.23	17	0.47	0.09	154
July	0.98	0.40	67	0.86	0.17	160	0.47	0.15	9	0.46	0.15	10
August	0.69	0.32	45	0.84	0.40	7	0.44	0.14	22	0.44	0.12	11
September	0.65	0.26	41	0.99	0.98	9	0.34	0.11	23	0.34	0.07	23
October	0.90	0.45	33	1.06	0.10	6	0.48	0.24	81	0.31	0.04	10

5

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

4

	MLD (m)	$Z_e$ (m)	$\text{Chl}_{\text{SAT}}$ ( $\text{mg m}^{-3}$ )	$F_{\text{surf}}/F_T$ (%)
DCM	<b>17</b> 11-27	<b>72</b> 57-90	<b>0.15</b> 0.05-0.27	<b>6%</b> 2-11
Modified DCM	<b>30</b> 13-52	<b>52</b> 37-66	<b>0.39</b> 0.16-0.63	<b>22%</b> 13-32
Homogeneous	<b>186</b> 27-596	<b>51</b> 29-71	<b>0.53</b> 0.13-1.19	<b>32%</b> 11-43
Complex	<b>39</b> 17-63	<b>48</b> 33-62	<b>0.52</b> 0.18-0.80	<b>30%</b> 18-47
HSC	<b>57</b> 13-95	<b>36</b> 17-57	<b>1.22</b> 0.25-2.76	<b>35%</b> 20-53

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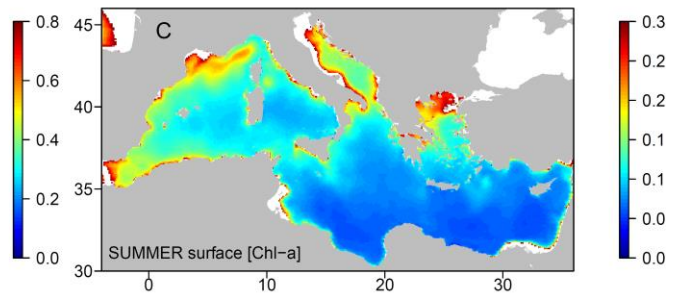
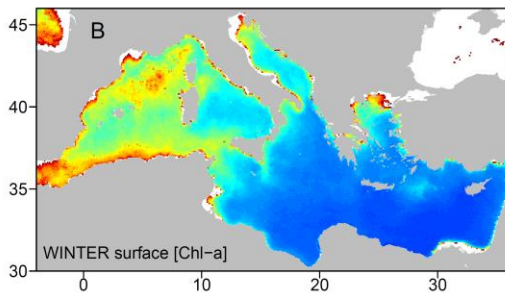
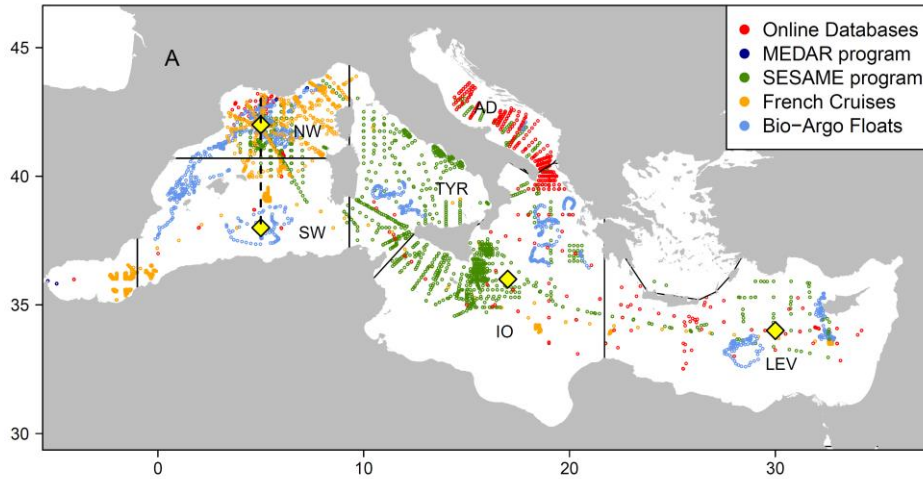
1 Table 4. Regional average values and standard deviations (numbers in brackets) for a set of  
 2 parameters. Winter MLD was computed with January and February MLDs. The DCM depth  
 3 and the PAR at DCM has been computed only for profiles belonging to the “DCM” standard  
 4 shape category. PAR at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

10

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

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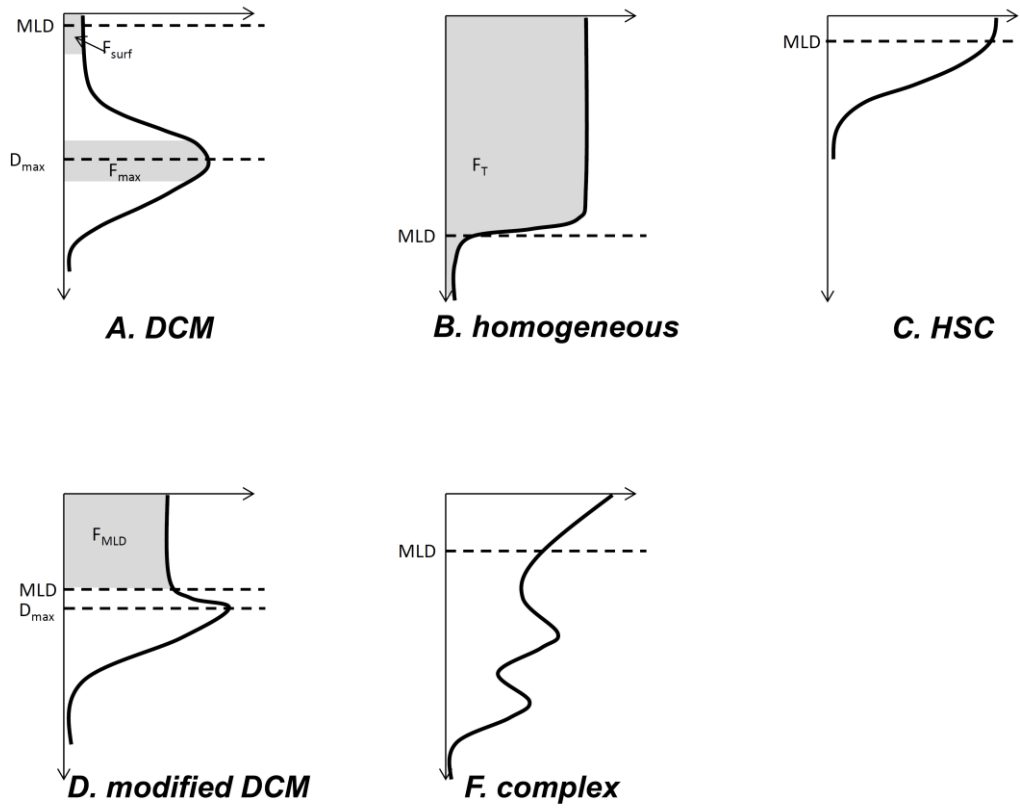


1  
 2 Figure 1. Panel A: spatial distribution of fluorescence profiles available in the database.  
 3 Colors indicate the source of data. Black lines delineate large Mediterranean regions: they are  
 4 referred by NW for “North-West”, SW for “South-West”, TYR for “Tyrrhenian”, AD for  
 5 “Adriatic”,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

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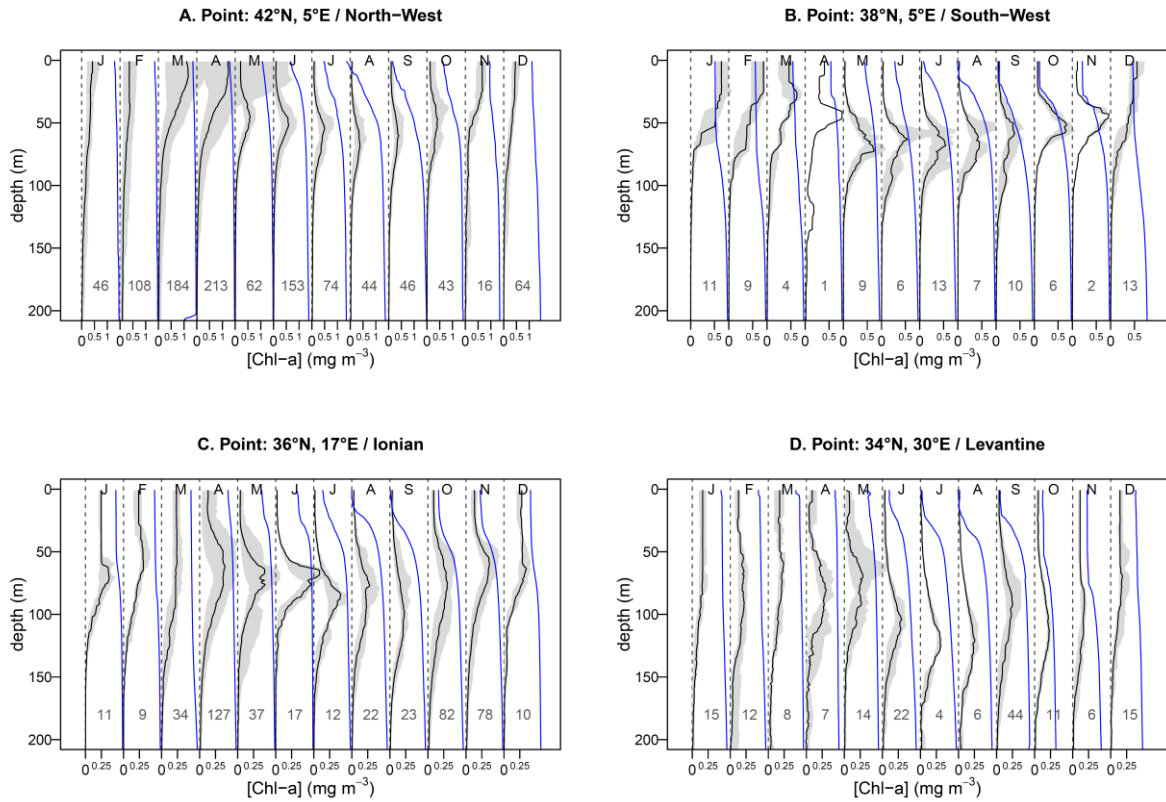
3

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

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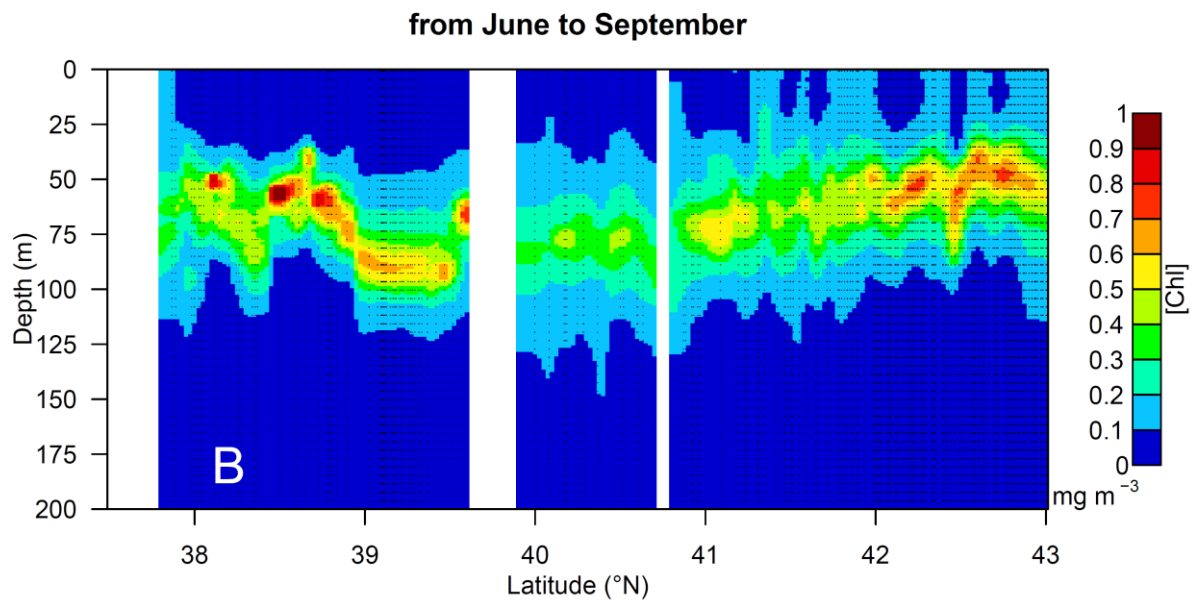
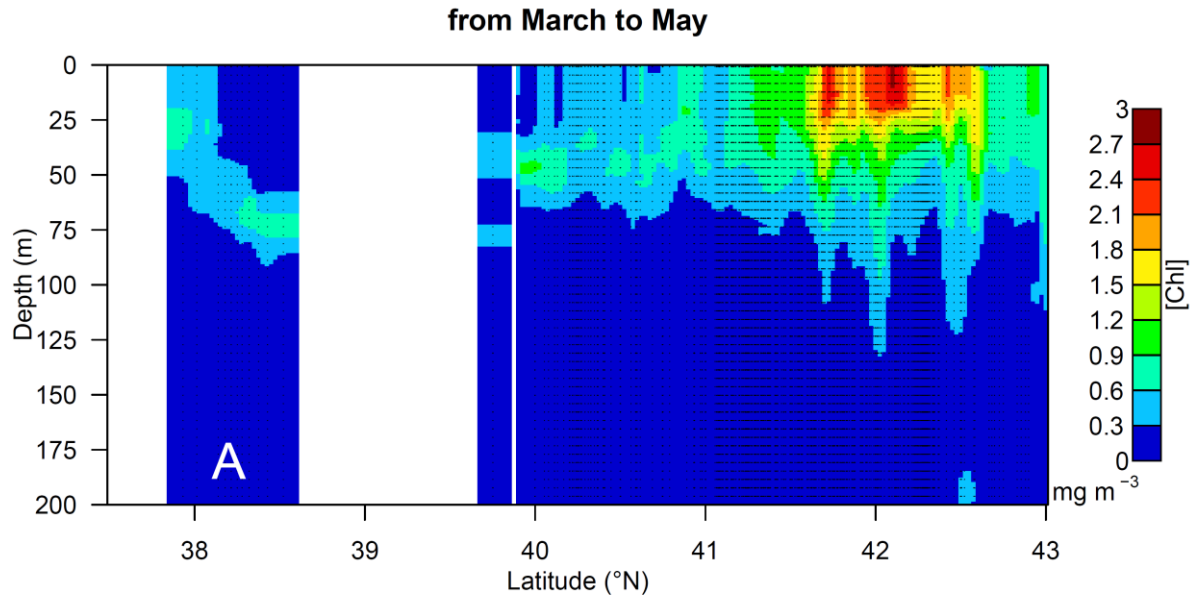
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4 Figure 3. Climatology of [Chl-a] vertical profiles (black lines) for 4 points of the  
5 Mediterranean Sea (see yellow diamonds on Fig. 1). All profiles located within a 4°x4° box  
6 centered on indicated positions were retained. The median value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

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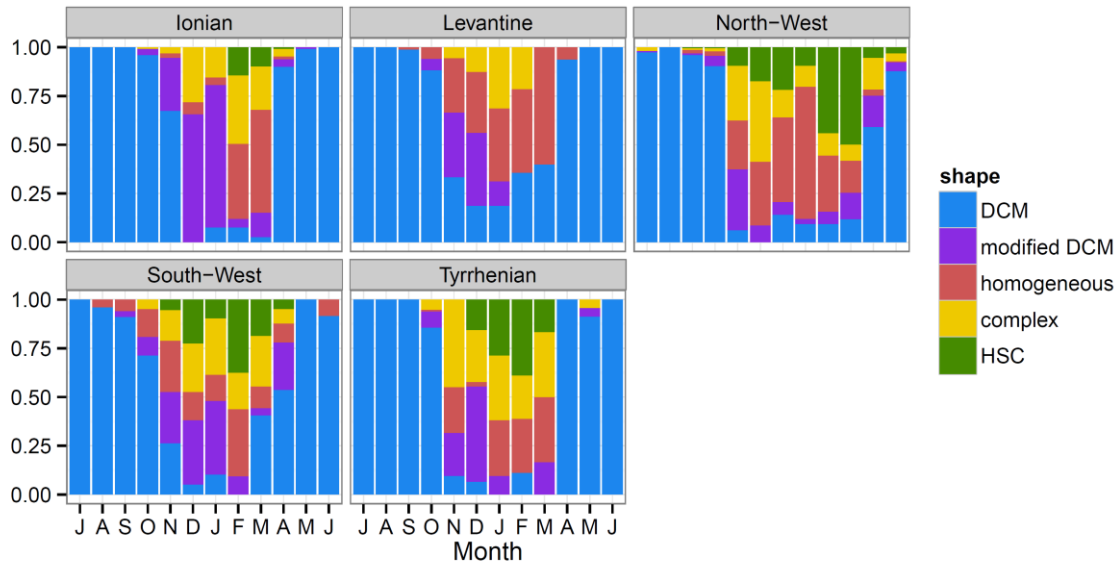
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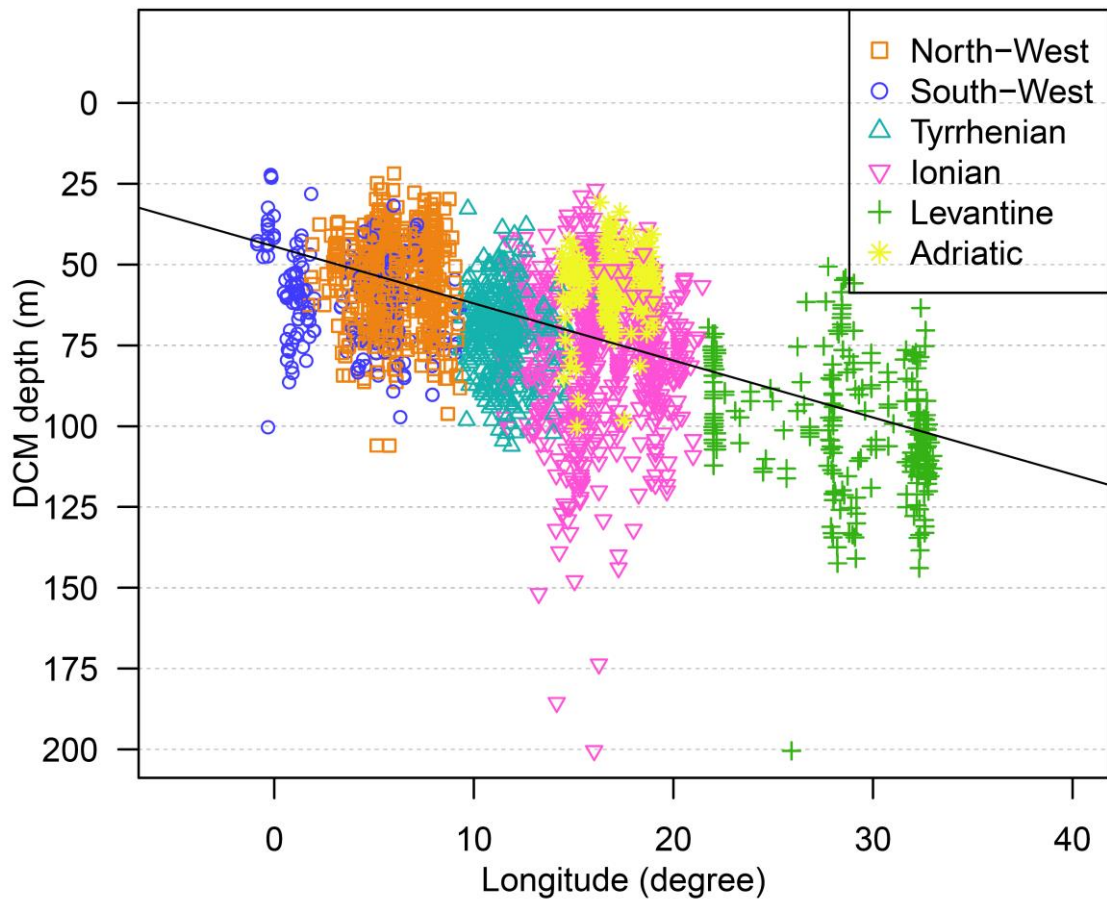
Figure 4. North-South climatological transect of [Chl-a] along the 5°W meridian (see the black dotted line on Fig. 1). Panel A represents the averaged situation for the March to May period and panel B for the June to September period. Note that color scales are different between panels A and B. For each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



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

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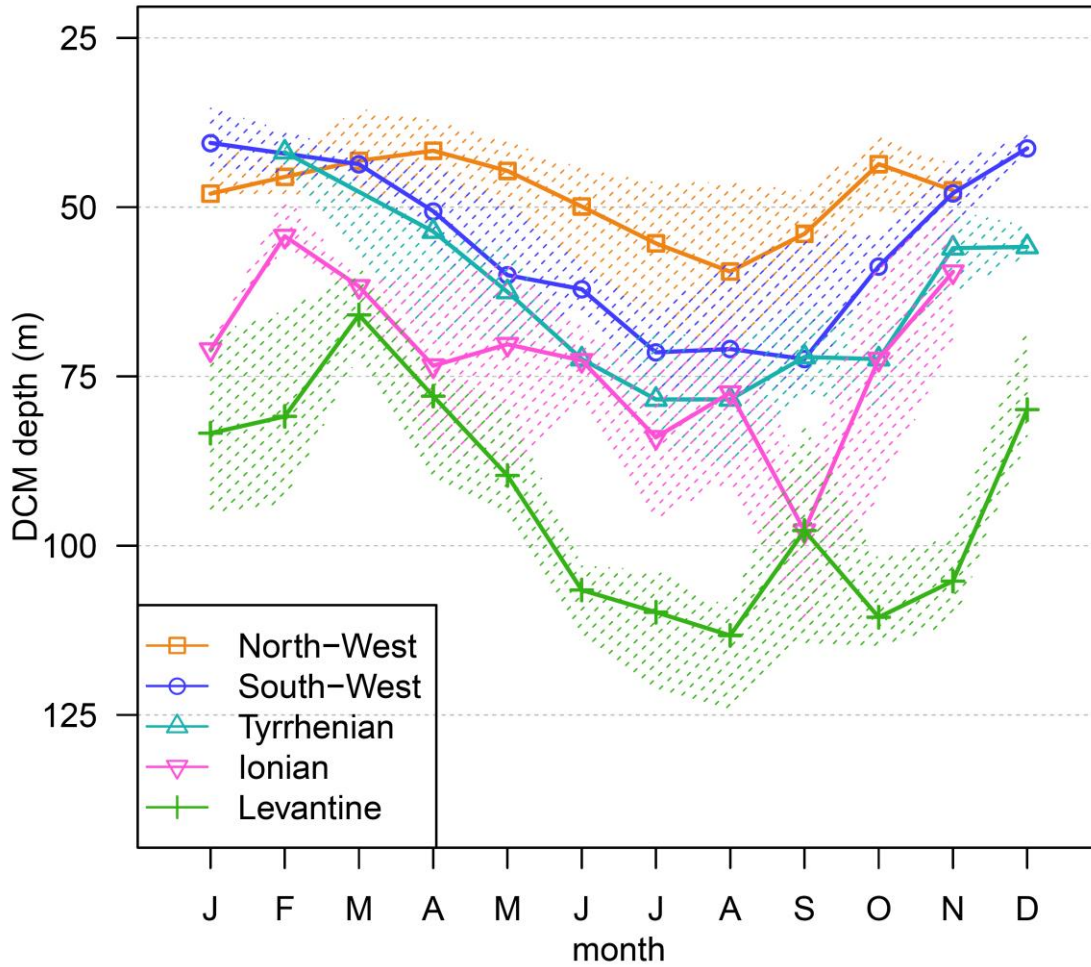
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4 Figure 6. DCM depth as a function of longitude. DCM depths were computed only on “DCM”  
5 like profiles (see Sect. 2.3 for an objective definition of “DCM” like profile). Black line  
6 represents the linear model between the DCM depth and the longitude.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

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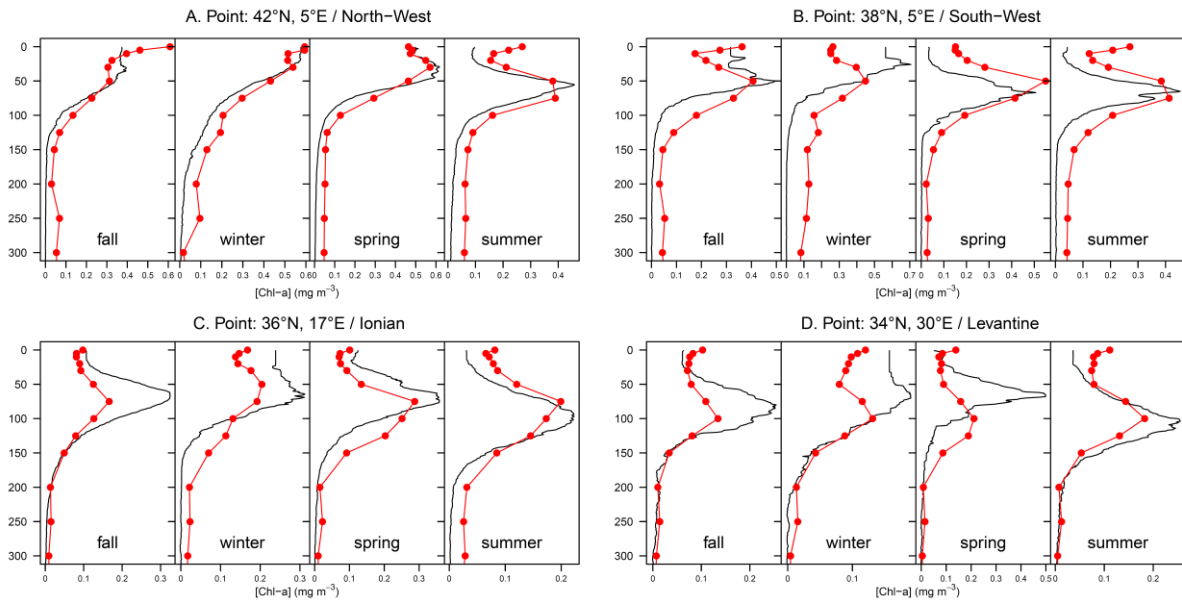
3

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

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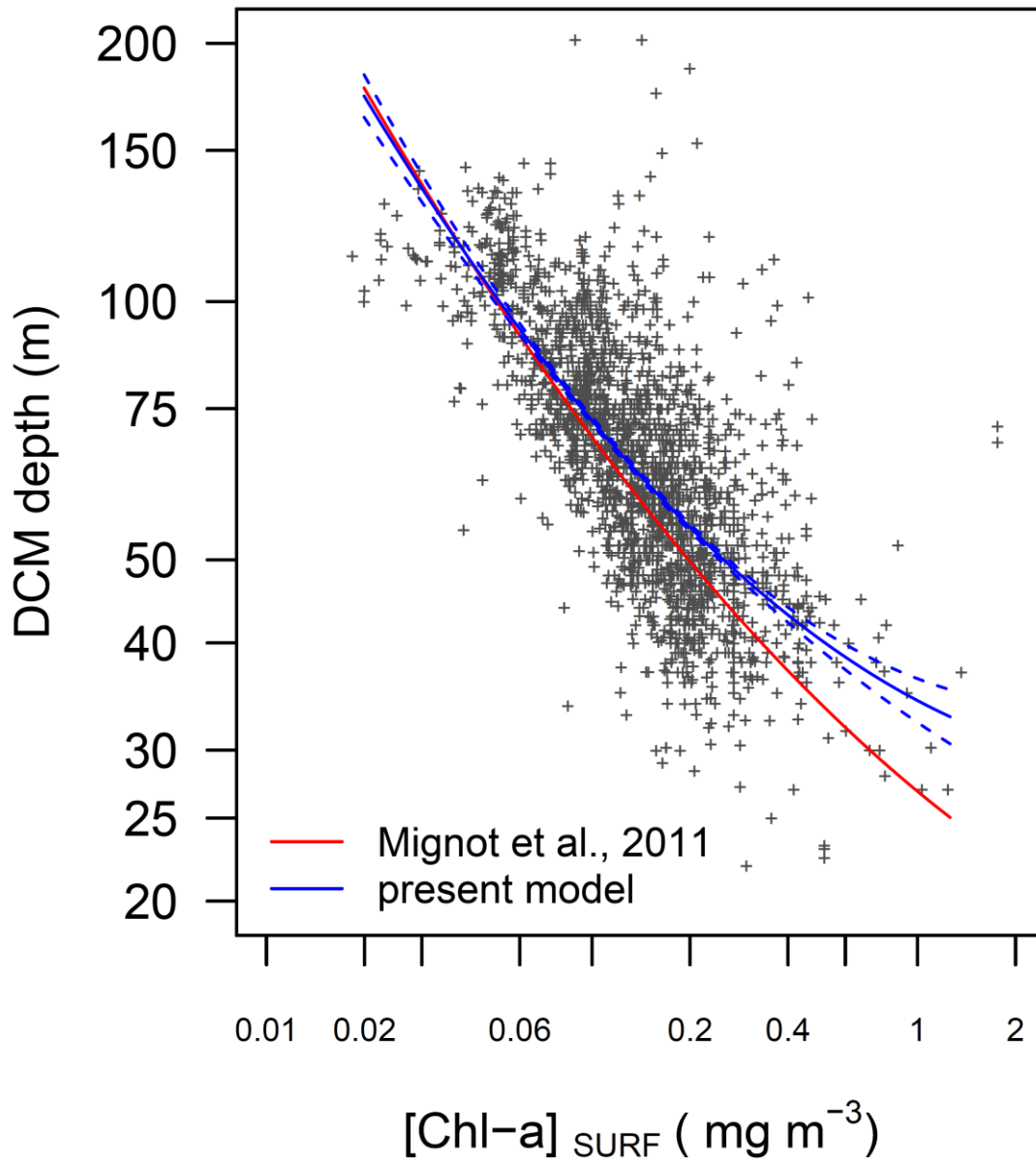
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4 Figure 8. [Chl-a] profiles obtained from the MEDATLAS climatology for the four locations  
5 analyzed on Fig. 3 (red lines and red points). MEDATLAS climatology was downloaded from  
6 [http://modb.oce.ulg.ac.be/backup/medar/medar\\_med.html](http://modb.oce.ulg.ac.be/backup/medar/medar_med.html).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

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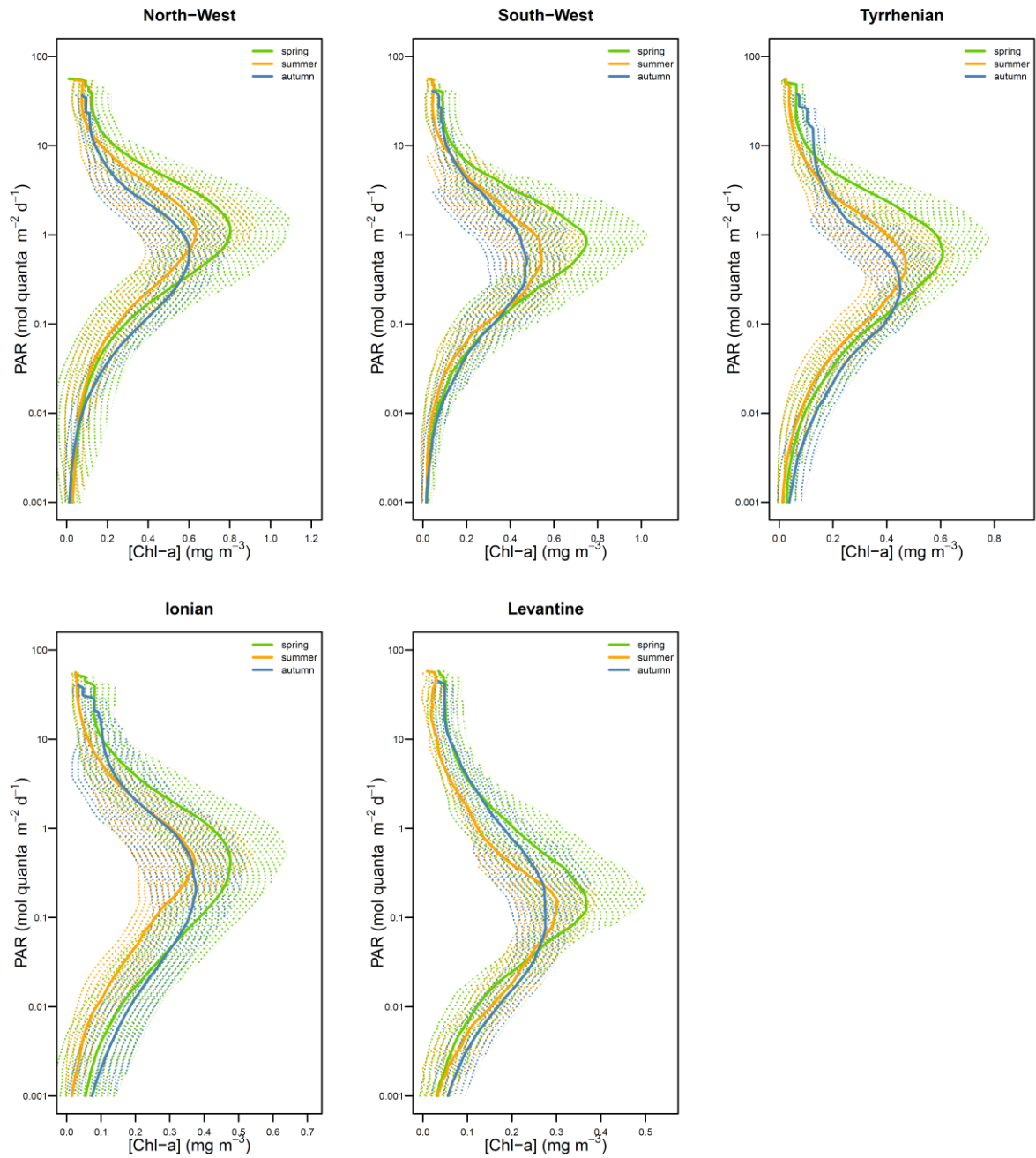
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3 Figure 9. Scatter plots of the DCM depth as a function of surface [Chl-a]. Only “DCM” like  
4 profiles were used for this analysis. Surface [Chl-a] were obtained from satellite ocean color  
5 data. The blue solid line refers to a second order polynomial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

8



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