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Spatial and temporal variability in nutrients and carbon uptake during 2004 and 2005 in the eastern equatorial Pacific Ocean

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Abstract

The Eastern Equatorial Pacific plays a great role in the global carbon budget due to its enhanced biological productivity linked to the equatorial upwelling. However, as confirmed by the Equatorial Biocomplexity cruises in 2004 and 2005, nutrient upwelling supply varies strongly, also due to the Tropical Instability Waves. The aim of this study 5 is to examine patterns of spatial and temporal variability in the biological uptake of NO_3 , Si(OH)₄ and carbon in this region, and to evaluate the role of biological and physical interactions controlling these processes over seasonal and intra-seasonal time scales. Here, high resolution Pacific ROMS-CoSiNE model results are combined with in situ and remote sensing data. The results of model-data comparison reveal an 10 excellent agreement in domain-average hydrographic and biological rate estimates, and patterns of spatio-temporal variability in primary productivity. We demonstrate for the first time that Tropical Instability Waves can be directly linked to increased NO₂ and Si(OH)₄ upwelling supply and enhanced nutrient and carbon uptake, in particular by large phytoplankton such as diatoms. In order to fully resolve the complexity of 15

biological and physical interactions in the Eastern Equatorial Pacific, we recommend improving the CoSiNE model by introducing more phytoplankton groups and a variable Redfield ratio.

1 Introduction

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20 1.1 Importance of the eastern equatorial Pacific

The Eastern Equatorial Pacific (EEP) plays a great role in the global carbon (C) cycling due to its enhanced biological productivity linked to the equatorial upwelling. Encompassing the equatorial upwelling zone (EUZ; 3° S- 3° N, 140–90° W), the EEP provides the largest natural oceanic source of CO₂ into the atmosphere at about 0.7 to 1.0 Pg C yr^{-1} (Tans et al., 1990; Takahashi et al., 2003), decreasing to 0.2 to





0.4 Pg C yr⁻¹ during strong El Niño years (Ishii et al., 2009). Primary productivity (PP) in the EEP is significantly greater than in any other open ocean province, with an average value of 642 mg C m² d⁻¹ (Pennington et al., 2006). Due to the large areal extent of the EEP, its new production is estimated to account for 18 % of global new production
⁵ (Chavez and Toggweiler, 1995). Despite the very high biological productivity, the EEP is a so-called "High Nitrate, Low Chlorophyll" (HNLC) region, with excess nitrate (NO₃) and unexpectedly low chlorophyll-*a* (ChI) concentrations in the surface waters (Minas et al., 1986; Dugdale and Wilkerson, 1998). The EEP is characterized by a strong zonal and meridional gradient in nutrients (iron (Fe), nitrogen (N), silicon (Si)) and
¹⁰ ChI concentrations (Jiang et al., 2003; Pennington et al., 2006; Kaupp et al., 2011). The eastward shoaling Equatorial Undercurrent (EUC) provides the largest source of these nutrients in the EEP, mostly through upwelling of deeper waters (Palacz et al., 2011). However, the supply of these elements into the EEP surface waters is variable

(Wells et al., 1999; Christian et al., 2002; Slemons et al., 2009; Gorgues et al., 2010). The Equatorial Biocomplexity (EB) project was a recent attempt to elucidate the role of biological and physical interactions in controlling nutrient dynamics in the EEP. Two cruises conducted in December 2004 (EB04) and September 2005 (EB05) aimed at investigating ecological and chemical processes associated with, and responsible for,

and hence constitutes an important factor in regulating local phytoplankton production

- the HNLC conditions in the EEP (Nelson and Landry, 2011). Data collected from the EB04 and EB05 cruises was unprecedented with regard to the rate measurements, the spatial area covered and the vertical profiles obtained (Nelson and Landry, 2011). In comparison to previous investigations in this region (e.g., EqPac, CLIVAR P16N cruise), the results of EB studies revealed large variability in nutrient concentrations as well as untake rates, and suggested that the relative roles of different regulatory.
- as well as uptake rates, and suggested that the relative roles of different regulatory mechanisms can vary significantly both spatially and temporarily in the EEP (Nelson and Landry, 2011). The 2004 and 2005 cruises showed relatively little difference in the hydrography (Strutton et al., 2011) because they took place during similar seasonal and El Niño conditions. However, remote sensing and Tropical Atmosphere Ocean





(TAO) buoy time series observations demonstrate that the EEP responds to changes in coupled atmosphere-ocean circulation associated with seasons (Philander et al., 1987; Murray et al., 1994), tropical instability waves (TIWs) (Foley et al., 1997), and the El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) (Wang and Fiedler, 2006, and references therein).

1.2 Previous carbon and nutrient uptake estimates

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There have been few directly measured rates of phytoplankton nitrate uptake (ρ NO₃) (Dugdale et al., 1992; McCarthy et al., 1996; Rodier and Le Borgne, 1997; Raimbault et al., 1999), silicic acid uptake (ρ Si(OH)₄) (Dam et al., 1995; McCarthy et al., 1996; Blain et al., 1997; Leynaert et al., 2001), and PP (Barber et al., 1996) in the EEP prior to the EB cruises. In order to resolve the dynamics of biogeochemical cycling of nutrients and biological productivity in the EEP, Dugdale and Wilkerson (1998) developed a biological model of the EUZ, which was based on the idea of Si-limitation in this region. Their model was later combined with the N-based model of Chai et al. (1996) to create

- the one-dimensional Carbon, Silicon, Nitrogen Ecosystem (CoSiNE) model (Chai et al., 2002). Combining the CoSiNE model with three-dimensional physical models such as the NCAR climate ocean model (NCOM) (Gent et al., 1998) or the Regional Ocean Modeling System (ROMS) model (Wang and Chao, 2004), resulted in the first comprehensive NO₃, Si(OH)₄, Fe and C budgets for the EEP (Jiang et al., 2003; Palacz
- et al., 2011). Additionally, size-fractionated nutrient uptake rates from the EB04 and EB05 cruises were previously compared with the 50 km Pacific ROMS-CoSiNE results and revealed good agreement in mean equatorial ρNO_3 and ammonia uptake (ρNH_4), particulate organic N and *f*-ratios (Dugdale et al., 2007).

The EB04 and EB05 cruises provided the much needed in situ measurements, which ²⁵ can be used to evaluate the CoSiNE model results, such as nutrients and their supplies, nutrient uptake rates, phytoplankton biomass and composition, and specific growth and grazing rates. Comparing zooplankton grazing rates (Taylor et al., 2011) with phytoplankton growth rates (Selph et al., 2011), Landry et al. (2011) concluded that the





HNLC surface waters of the EEP exhibit a balance of growth and grazing processes, thus placing a constraint on the magnitude of phytoplankton biomass and C export flux. However, they also pointed at the possible local and episodic nature of C export in the EEP, likely linked to TIW activity. They suggested that fluxes must be calculated at a higher spatial and temporal resolution to answer the question of how important production, recycling and export fluxes are in the overall nutrient and C budgets.

1.3 Objectives

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The aim of this study is to examine patterns of spatial and temporal variability in the biological uptake of NO₃, Si(OH)₄ and C in the EEP, and to evaluate the role of biological and physical interactions controlling these processes. We present the results of 10 an integrated effort to address some of the questions formulated but left unanswered by the EB project which only revealed a snapshot view of the changes in nutrient dynamics and biological productivity. Three-day averaged model results allow for a two year, near-continuous record of coincident mesoscale (12.5 km resolution) changes in circulation and biological production. Such detailed spatial and temporal analysis of 15 changes in biological processes in the EEP has previously only been performed on surface Chl distribution using remote sensing data (e.g., Chavez et al., 1999; Strutton et al., 2001; Ryan et al., 2006; Strutton et al., 2011). By combining model results with the remote sensing estimates of biological production and the findings of the EB cruises, we investigate the dynamics of the processes controlling nutrient cycling and 20 C production in the EEP in an integrated fashion, consistent in time and space.

2 Model and data

2.1 Coupled physical-biogeochemical model

Model calculations are performed using the biogeochemical model CoSiNE (Chai et al., 2002; Dugdale et al., 2002) coupled with the ROMS circulation model. This coupled





model was first configured for the Pacific Ocean domain $(45^{\circ} \text{ S}-65^{\circ} \text{ N}, 99^{\circ} \text{ E}-70^{\circ} \text{ W})$ with realistic geometry and topography by Wang and Chao (2004) at a 50 km spatial resolution, and later at an increased resolution of 12.5 km by Xiu and Chai (2010). Initialized with climatological temperature and salinity from the World Ocean Atlas (WOA)

- ⁵ 2001 (Ocean Climate Laboratory National Oceanographic Data Center, 2002), the Pacific ROMS model has been forced with the climatological NCEP/NCAR reanalysis of air-sea fluxes (Kalnay et al., 1996) for several decades in order to reach quasi equilibrium. The model is then integrated for the period of 1991 to 2010 forced with daily air-sea fluxes of heat and fresh water from the NCEP/NCAR reanalysis (Kalnay et al., 1996).
- 10 1996). The heat flux is derived from short- and long-wave radiations and sensible and latent heat fluxes calculated using the bulk formula with prescribed air temperature and relative humidity. The multiple satellite blended daily sea wind with a resolution of 0.25° (Zhang et al., 2006) is used to calculate the surface wind stress based on the bulk formula of Large and Pond (1982). Detailed physical and biological model configuration can be found in Liu and Chai (2009), Chai et al. (2009), and Xiu and Chai (2010).

Here, we analyze the results from a coupled physical-biogeochemical model at the 12.5 km spatial and three-day temporal resolution that is capable of resolving mesoscale features in physical circulation (Xiu et al., 2010) and biogeochemical fluxes (Xiu et al., 2011; Xiu and Chai, 2011). Principal CoSiNE equations describing biological processes and which differ from the ones in Chai et al. (2002), are listed in Appendix A.

The results are a combination of on-line and off-line model calculations – an approach that was validated in Palacz et al. (2011) and which allowed us to optimize the model performance specifically in the EEP region. In this study, we use on-line calculated three-day averaged net short-wave radiation flux (which is converted to light

field to calculate biological production), temperature and nutrient concentration fields. These variables provide input for off-line calculated vertical light profiles, phytoplankton and zooplankton biomass, specific growth rates, nutrient uptake rates and grazing. Our model results include two groups of phytoplankton, small and large phytoplankton, and two groups of zooplankton, micro- and mesozooplankton. Size-fractionated





phytoplankton ρNO_3 , $\rho Si(OH)_4$ and ρNH_4 are calculated explicitly. Total N uptake $(\rho NO_3 + \rho NH_4)$ is converted into C units using a fixed Redfield ratio of 6.6 to estimate PP.

- Off-line calculations offer several advantages for this modeling study. First, they are computationally less costly and more time efficient. By performing more model runs we are able to test different model configurations and parameter values in order to simulate the EEP conditions best. For example, we distinguish between using daily-averaged and diurnal cycle of light as an energy source for phytoplankton growth. Second, we conduct series of sensitivity studies to find an optimum set of biological parameters, including $\rho Si(OH)_4$ and ρNH_4 half-saturation constants, Si:N uptake ratio or zooplank-
- ¹⁰ Including ρ SI(OH)₄ and ρ NH₄ half-saturation constants, SI:N uptake ratio or zooplankton grazing rates. While many parameters in the biological model are the same as in Chai et al. (2002), others, listed in Table 1, are modified based either on the findings of the EB project or are derived from model sensitivity runs. Although the off-line calculations do not account for advection in phytoplankton and zooplankton biomass,
- ¹⁵ considering that turnover of phytoplankton biomass is comparable to the three-day period during which two on-line variables (surface light and nutrients) are updated, the modeled distribution of phytoplankton biomass is not likely to be affected significantly by this limitation. Growth rates and nutrient uptake rates are calculated off-line every hour and later averaged into three-day estimates.
- In this study, model domain is equal to the EEP box delineated between 140–110° W and 1° S–1° N to match the area most heavily sampled during both EB cruises, and at the same time, to confine the box to the upwelling dominated EUZ. Hence, our calculations are consistent and directly comparable with budget calculations performed by Jiang et al. (2003) and more recently by Palacz et al. (2011).

25 2.2 Cruise data

Evaluation of the 12.5 km Pacific ROMS-CoSiNE nutrient cycling results is based on comparison with corresponding measurements conducted during the two EB cruises aboard the R/V Revelle, EB04 in December 2004 and EB05 in September 2005.





Details of station locations and hydrographic conditions from both cruises can be found in Strutton et al. (2011). Sampling and data analysis methods of ρNO_3 and ρNH_4 measurements are described in Dugdale et al. (2007) and Parker et al. (2011). Krause et al. (2011) give a detailed procedure for calculating $\rho Si(OH)_4$ rates, while Balch et al.

5 (2011) provide information on estimating total community and size-fractionated C fixation rates.

2.3 Statistical analysis

The skill of Pacific ROMS-CoSiNE model is assessed using comparisons with data collected in situ during EB cruises. Apart from mean and variability estimates, we calculate model bias (B; representing the difference between the means of the two fields), and the centered pattern root mean square difference (RMSD_{cp}; equivalent to an unbiased RMSD representing the differences in the variability of the two fields). Combining B and RMSD_{cp} we obtain the total RMSD (RMSD_{tot}) which provides a valuable overall comparison of model and data fields (Campbell et al., 2002; Friedrichs et al., 2009).

¹⁵ Model-data comparison of nutrient uptake rates is illustrated by means of a target diagram (Jolliff et al., 2009). Target diagrams are used to visualize B, RMSD_{cp} and RMSD_{tot} on a single plot. On the target diagram, these statistical metrics are normalized by standard deviation of the data (σ_d). On this plot, normalized B is on the *y*-axis and normalized RMSD_{cp} is on the *x*-axis. Concentric circles represent normalized ²⁰ RMSD_{tot} isolines with the solid circle representing the normalized deviation of the data. If model RMSD_{tot} exceeds the standard deviation of observations, i.e. RMSD_{tot} > 1, then the model is showing less skill than does the mean of observations.

3 Results and discussion

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In this section, we describe patterns of variability in model phytoplankton nutrient and C uptake in the EEP during 2004–2005. First, we verify the capability and skill of the



Pacific ROMS-CoSiNE model to reproduce the hydrographic conditions encountered during the EB04 and EB05 cruises. Second, we compare the EB cruise and modeled biological environment of the EEP, including phytoplankton growth and nutrient uptake rates, biomass and species composition. Third, we present the two-year time series of nutrient and C uptake rates. Fourth, we present patterns of spatio-temporal variability in nutrient and C uptake rates as well as the corresponding upwelling supply rates. We also discuss the origin of observed patterns of variability in the context of satellite

estimates of PP in the 2004–2005 period.

3.1 Hydrographic conditions

¹⁰ In Table 2 we summarize the mean and standard deviation of the EEP box averaged model and EB data hydrography. In Fig. 1, a more detailed comparison at individual stations using scatter plots verifies the model skill in simulating zonal and vertical gradients in temperature (T), dissolved oxygen (O₂), NO₃ and Si(OH)₄.

There is a wide range of *T* in the top 150 m of the water column (Fig. 1a), suggesting a steep thermocline that is indicative of a strong cold water upwelling in the EUZ. There is a high and statistically significant linear correlation between in situ measured and modeled *T* during December 2004 (r = 0.97, p < 0.01) and September 2005 (r = 0.91, p < 0.01). A small but consistent negative bias indicates that the model tends to slightly underestimate *T* with respect to both EB04 (bias of -1.53 °C) and EB05 (bias of -2.71 °C) observations. The bias is larger in the lower range of *T*, corresponding to shallower depths (Fig. 1a). Nevertheless, this bias, describing the difference between

- the means of two datasets, does not contribute much to RMSD_{tot} . The RMSD_{cp} , or the unbiased RMSD, which is used to assess the differences in variability, is relatively low for *T* (0.95 and 1.35 °C in 2004 and 2005, respectively). This good overall relationship
- is also evident in the domain-average mean and standard deviation model and data estimates (Table 2).

The model also does well when simulating the distribution of O_2 (Fig. 1b), a proxy for both upwelling of deep waters and biological remineralization activity. There is a high





correlation between model and data, especially in September 2005 (r = 0.93, p < 0.01). The model simulates the observed variability very well, with a small difference in amplitude of variability between the two years (Fig. 1b and Table 2). A consistent positive bias present in the model is more visible than in the case of T (compare Fig. 1b with 1a), but shows little statistical difference between 2004 and 2005 (29.0 vs. 29.3 mg O₂ m⁻³). Figure 1b reveals that the largest bias occurs at mid O₂ range.

NO₃ and Si(OH)₄ concentrations are compared in Fig. 1c,d, respectively. Both relationships are very highly correlated and statistically significant at the 99% level (r > 0.90). We note that model NO₃ is overestimated in its lower values (at the surface) but underestimated it its higher values (below the euphotic zone). This is likely related to the bias in *T* identified in Fig. 1a. The ratio of model to data standard deviations (σ_m/σ_d) of NO₃ reveals that the model also underestimates the amplitude of variability, more so in September 2005 than in December 2004 (0.42 vs. 0.77). Table 2 confirms that while the mean model and data fields are very similar, the model NO₃ variability (standard deviation) is underestimated relative to other hydrographic factors.

Small positive model bias in surface NO₃ and low NO₃ variability is unlikely to create a positive bias in phytoplankton new production. This is because of predominant Si-limitation of large phytoplankton, maintained by a consistently low ratio of surface Si(OH)₄ to NO₃ (compare Fig. 1c and d), as well as a high NH₄ inhibition of ρ NO₃ in small phytoplankton (ψ_{S1} in Table 1). In the model it is assumed that Si(OH)₄ availability plays the main role in controlling large phytoplankton growth and new production because they share the functional properties of diatoms.

A very good model-data comparison of $Si(OH)_4$ and other hydrographic parameters (Table 2 and Fig. 1), provides confidence in Pacific ROMS-CoSiNE's ability to simulate the characteristic LSiHNLC conditions of the EEP region, and justifies the use of our model approach to perform the biological rate calculations described in the next sections.

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3.2 Nutrient and C uptake rates

In Table 3 we summarize the mean monthly-averaged model PP (equivalent to phytoplankton uptake of C) and nutrient uptake rates (ρNO_3 , ρNH_4 and $\rho Si(OH)_4$), integrated over the top 75 m depth (using the standard trapezoidal method). We compare

- them with similar estimates from the EB04 and EB05 cruises (Balch et al., 2011; Parker et al., 2011; Krause et al., 2011). Here, standard deviations correspond to the scale of zonal and meridional variability modeled or observed within the EEP box. The model does an excellent job in capturing the mean state of all biological rates in the EEP domain, but in general performs better in December 2004. The only visible large dis-
- ¹⁰ crepancy between model and data occurs for ρNH_4 during September 2005. There is a consistent positive bias associated with $\rho Si(OH)_4$ that originates from the fact that all large phytoplankton in the model take up Si(OH)₄, while in the field, diatoms comprise only a fraction of that population (Parker et al., 2011; Taylor et al., 2011). Nevertheless, most model rate estimates are within a factor of two from the mean in situ ¹⁵ measurements. Such a good box-average agreement is the basis for positive model
- performance evaluation.

Additionally, in Fig. 2 we use a target diagram to illustrate the normalized biased and unbiased statistical metrics used to compare ROMS-CoSiNE and EB macronutrient and C uptake rates. We conclude that the spatial variability in uptake rates is modeled ²⁰ reasonably well, with the exception of ρ Si(OH)₄ that was shown to be overestimated for reasons discussed above. It is clear that there are large year to year discrepancies in the model bias. On the other hand the unbiased RMSD_{cp} shows no such trend, and remains relatively low for both uptake rate estimates.

Results shown in Fig. 2 also reveal a certain paradox by which the model provides a consistently good representation of PP over the two year sampling periods, but less satisfying results of ρNO_3 and ρNH_4 in 2005 than in 2004. If total C uptake by phytoplankton is linked to the uptake of total N by means of a constant Redfield ratio (PP = Redfield ratio × ($\rho NO_3 + \rho NH_4$)) as it is done in the ROMS-CoSiNE model, then





we would expect no discrepancy in the model bias and variability of N and C uptake between the two time periods. C uptake during EB was measured independently (Balch et al., 2011) and is prone to a different sampling error than ρNO_3 and ρNH_4 (Parker et al., 2011). However, both methods of calculating uptake rates have been performed

side by side in the Equatorial Pacific during previous cruises and are unlikely to carry a measurement error large enough to explain this difference. Thus, it is likely that the model assumption of a constant Redfield ratio needs to be reevaluated in order to more accurately capture the dynamics of C and nutrient uptake rates in the EEP.

In order to fully inspect the model skill in describing the phytoplankton nutrient uptake dynamics in the EEP, we further verify how the model captures the mean phytoplankton specific growth rate (μ) and phytoplankton biomass (*S*), the product of which determines the total nutrient uptake rates.

3.3 Specific growth rates and biomass

The analysis of EEP box mean μ and *S* is particularly useful in illustrating why the total N and C uptake rates are well modeled under December 2004 but less so under September 2005 conditions (Fig. 3 and Table 3). The mean total phytoplankton μ , calculated on the basis of a seawater dilution method (Selph et al., 2011), equals $0.53 \pm$ $0.11 d^{-1}$ in December 2004 and is well matched and only slightly underestimated by the model mean equal to $0.45 \pm 0.03 d^{-1}$ (Table 4). However, in September 2005, the model overestimates μ despite of displaying much lower standard deviation associated with spatial variability (Table 4). At the same time, total phytoplankton biomass, defined as total amount of Chl pigment in cells > 0.45 μ m in diameter, was estimated at 26.5 \pm 3.4 mg Chl m⁻² during EB04 (Balch et al., 2011). This is in excellent agreement with the modeled 28.4 \pm 4.6 mg Chl m⁻². The comparison is even better in September 2005 when the model *S* matches perfectly both in terms of the mean and variability (Table 4).

The conclusions derived from these results shed more light on the year-to-year discrepancy in model performance in simulating total nutrient and C uptake rates. It appears that the model does an excellent job in capturing the mean state of total





phytoplankton biological production described by PP, total μ and S. However, when looking at ρNO_3 , ρNH_4 and $\rho Si(OH)_4$ we need to consider what the species composition of the phytoplankton community looks like. The model, which only uses a simple two phytoplankton group setup and assumes that all large phytoplankton have the same functional behavior as diatoms, does not simulate all phytoplankton growth dy-

same functional behavior as diatoms, does not simulate all phytoplankton growth dynamics well as revealed by the discrepancy in 2004 and 2005 ρ NH₄, or the consistent positive bias in ρ Si(OH)₄. In the following section we explore the possible role of this limitation in preventing the model from fully resolving the patterns of variability in biological production in the EEP.

10 3.4 Phytoplankton species composition

The numerous studies integrated within the EB project reveal a very dynamic phytoplankton community with relative abundances of several autotrophic functional groups shifting on small spatial and temporal scales (Selph et al., 2011; Stukel et al., 2011; Taylor et al., 2011). One of the issues addressed by the EB project was the role of diatoms in regulating the productivity of the HNLC waters in the EEP. While the total and relative abundance of individual phytoplankton groups was investigated using flow cytometry pigment analysis (Taylor et al., 2011), their contribution to nutrient and C uptake was based on size-fractionated measurements. Integrating results from these two different approaches allowed for an indirect estimate of the role of diatoms in nutrient

²⁰ cycling in the EEP.

Parker et al. (2011) speculated that the role of diatoms in total ρ NO₃ could be several times higher than their biomass contribution (< 10%). At the same time, they pointed at the importance of accounting for large dinoflagellates which obtain their N from both mixotrophy and nitrate uptake. Large dinoflagellates have a big share in new production

while constituting for much of the larger size fraction of phytoplankton biomass. Since the CoSiNE model only takes into account two functional types of phytoplankton, we cannot distinguish between diatoms and dinoflagellates in the large phytoplankton size fraction. However, through a comparison of large phytoplankton cell biomass obtained





from size-fractionated ChI measurements (Balch et al., 2011) and pigment-specific diatom concentration (Taylor et al., 2011), we can comment on the role of diatoms in nutrient uptake relative to their biomass, and place this discussion in the context of the disparate September 2005 N, Si and C flux estimates discussed above.

- ⁵ While diatoms comprise on average only 6.5 % of the total autotrophic community in the study periods (Taylor et al., 2011), Parker et al. (2011) documented that diatoms make up between 13 and 37 % of the total phytoplankton community. However, at several biological "hotspots" along the equator, they constitute between 3 and 45 % of the > 5 μ m phytoplankton size group, in December 2004 and September 2005, respectively
- (Parker et al., 2011). These hotspots, associated with strong upwelling at the leading or trailing edge of a TIW, also strongly affect *p*NO₃ and *p*Si(OH)₄ variability along the equator (Parker et al., 2011; Krause et al., 2011). In the model, large phytoplankton biomass oscillates between 24 and 44 % of total biomass across the entire 2004–2005 period but is on average equal to 42 % during the two months when EB cruises took
 place. This estimate is higher than 6.5 % diatom biomass contribution measured in the field, and also an overestimate with respect to the 20–30 % contribution of the > 3 um
- field, and also an overestimate with respect to the 20–30 % contribution of the > 3 μ m phytoplankton biomass reported by Balch et al. (2011).

It appears that the current version of the CoSiNE model cannot simulate a lower large phytoplankton biomass while maintaining diatom's large contribution to ρNO_3 .

- ²⁰ On the other hand, large (> 5 µm) dinoflagellates, which do not have a Si-requirement for growth and thus do not obscure the ρ Si(OH)₄ model-data comparison, can have a large contribution to total ρ NO₃ whenever their N demand is not satisfied by phagotrophy (Stukel et al., 2011). Assuming that diatoms compete for both NO₃ and NH₄, as it is also assumed in the model, Parker et al. (2011) estimated that dinoflagellates ²⁵ account on average for 55 % of ρ NO₃ in the > 5 µm fraction. It seems that further
- improvement in the model calculations cannot take place without introducing new phytoplankton functional groups, such as the dinoflagellates.

In order to place this discussion back into the context of total nutrient and C uptake rates, we refer to the role of diatoms in new and primary production. The EB cruises





reported that diatoms on average would account for 45 % of ρ NO₃ (Parker et al., 2011). This is in excellent agreement with the model large phytoplankton ρ NO₃ of 48 % in December 2004, and 50 % in September 2005. Diatom contribution to PP in the model is 40 % in December 2004 and 37 % in September 2005. Landry et al. (2011) calculated that large eukaryotic phytoplankton constituted between 15 and 62 % of primary production in the EEP, with diatoms contributing on average 18 % of total autotrophic production. This indicates minor fluctuations in the otherwise overestimated role of model diatoms in PP variability in the EEP.

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Another means of evaluating the role of diatoms in new production is to calculate their *f*-ratios. In the model, diatoms have an average *f*-ratio of 0.39 and 0.36 in December 2004 and September 2005, respectively. This is in very good agreement with the > 5 µm size-fractionated *f*-ratio from EB04 and EB05 (Table 5). Slightly higher model values are to be expected if lack of mixotrophic (with much lower *f*-ratios) dinoflagellates in the model is considered. Unfortunately, there are no diatom specific *f*-ratio estimates from either of the EB cruises. Comparison of the modeled small phytoplankton and total autotrophic community *f*-ratios reveals a similarly good agreement with the EB data (Table 5).

In order to understand the discrepancy between the modeled and the observed nutrient and C uptake rates, it is important to mention the significant differences in phy-

- ²⁰ toplankton composition reported during EB cruises. In September 2005, contribution of *Prochloroccocus* towards total autotrophic biomass increased by more than twofold (Taylor et al., 2011). These small cells rely on NH₄ as their principal source of N for growth, and their elevated biomass enhanced ρ NH₄ more than twofold during EB05 (Table 3; Parker et al., 2011). ρ NO₃ by large phytoplankton increased as well (Parker
- et al., 2011) but without a concomitant elevation in ρ Si(OH)₄ (Krause et al., 2011). Parker et al. (2011) demonstrated that in Decemeber 2004 ρ NO₃ by cells > 5 µm was equal or greater than the estimated diatom demand for N. In September 2005, it was much lower than the diatom demand, suggesting an increase in relative contribution of large dinoflagellates (that do not take up Si) to ρ NO₃. At the same time, in situ





observations reported only a small change in the EEP mean PP (Table 3); (Balch et al., 2011).

Therefore, we conclude that while the CoSiNE model simulates the overall phytoplankton nutrient uptake dynamics well, its size-fractionated nutrient uptake is not always adequate to represent the interaction between shifts in phytoplankton species composition and nutrient and C uptake rates. Future improvements in the model design will require a greater diversification of phytoplankton functional groups in order to better represent the short-term, spatially diverse changes in phytoplankton community structure observed in the EEP (Selph et al., 2011; Stukel et al., 2011; Taylor et al., 2011), as recommended by Parker et al. (2011).

3.5 Patterns of temporal variability

Figure 3 shows the time distribution of depth-integrated (0–75 m) and area-averaged (1° S–1° N, 140–110° W) PP, ρ NO₃, ρ Si(OH)₄ and ρ NH₄ from January 2004 to December 2005. Superimposed on the model time series are the cruise-averaged biological uptake rates measured in situ. A one standard deviation range of both model and cruise estimates illustrates the zonal variation range in the biological rates between 140° W and 110° W. The well aligned model and cruise estimates of PP and ρ NO₃ especially (Fig. 3a,c) reflect the good agreement presented in Table 3.

Figure 3a reveals that the EEP-averaged PP oscillates strongly on intraseasonal time scales, with visible low frequency modulations of the variability amplitude. The 2004–2005 mean PP equals 54.7 mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹, with a minimum of 37.8 and a maximum of 68.3 mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹. Mean ρ NO₃ is estimated at 2.49 mmol N m⁻² d⁻¹ but varies by more than a factor of three across the time period, from a minimum of 1.19 to a maximum of 4.12 mmol N m⁻² d⁻¹ (Fig. 3b). ρ Si(OH)₄ has a minimum value of 2.07 mmol Si m⁻² d⁻¹ and a maximum of 5.37 mmol Si m⁻² d⁻¹. Mean ρ Si(OH)₄ equals 3.65 mmol Si m⁻² d⁻¹.





In Fig. 3d we also present the model time series of ρ NH₄. The September 2005 mismatch between mean model and data value, attributed to a twofold increase in *Prochloroccocus* abundance (Parker et al., 2011; Taylor et al., 2011), is now better explained by a relatively low ρ NH₄ variability in the EEP across the two year period. The 2004–2005 model mean ρ NH₄ is 5.81 mmol N m⁻² d⁻¹, with the maximum domain average uptake rate of 7.66 mmol N m⁻² d⁻¹. ρ NH₄ data presented by Parker et al. (2011) are in the range of values reported from the JGOFS EqPac studies (Pena et al., 1994; McCarthy et al., 1996). However, Parker et al. (2011) admit that their EB ρ NH₄ measurements had limitations originating from the need for ¹⁵N enrichment to stimulate any ρ NH₄ under very low ambient NH₄ concentrations in the collected water samples.

- Such an interpretation of overestimated in situ ρ NH₄ is consistent with the results of the theoretical calculations of C uptake derived from total N using a 6.6–7.3 Redfield ratio range conversion. The observed high ρ NH₄ would require C uptake much higher than the PP measured in situ (Balch et al., 2011), which however is in good agreement
- ¹⁵ with our model PP estimates (Figs. 2 and 3, Table 3). It is difficult to constrain ρ NH₄ in the model because of two reasons. First, rapid turnover time of NH₄, on an order of one hour, makes modeling NH₄ dynamics very difficult. Second, the major source of NH₄ is from regeneration processes that depend on zooplankton biomass, another biological factor that is difficult to constrain and capture in the model. Regardless of the
- ²⁰ error associated with the ρ NH₄ estimates, in situ and model alike, availability of NH₄ is not expected to limit phytoplankton growth and thus is not a deterministic factor in regulating C cycling in the EEP.

Results presented in Fig. 3 address an important issue of how much vital information about temporal variability in phytoplankton and nutrient dynamics remains unac-

²⁵ counted for when comparing results from consecutive cruises substantially separated in time. While the TAO buoy array (http://www.pmel.noaa.gov/tao/) provides time series of physical oceanographic and atmospheric data, there is no direct way of evaluating patterns of variability in biological process, other than remotely-measured surface Chl, and their interactions with changes in the physical circulation. In Fig. 4 we compare the





modeled three-day average PP with the remote-sensing-derived eight-day composite net primary production (NPP) from two Vertically Generalized Production Models (VGPMs), standard and Eppley-modified, and the updated C-based Production Model (CbPM) (http://www.science.oregonstate.edu/ocean.productivity/). NPP from VGPMs

⁵ is a function of Chl, available light, and the photosynthetic efficiency (Behrenfeld and Falkowski, 1997). The CbPM relates NPP to phytoplankton C biomass and μ by retrieving information about particle backscatter and absorption (Westberry et al., 2008).

All time series in Fig. 4 come from depth-integrated and area-averaged PP between January 2004 and December 2005. The VGPM and CbPM offer the only sound ref-

erence frame for evaluating the pattern and amplitude of temporal variability of the ROMS-CoSiNE estimated PP. In general, the mean and variability of the modeled PP are in the middle of the range of values obtained from the three satellite-derived NPP estimates. While the two VGPMs are visibly lower in both their mean and range of variability, the amplitude of CbPM variability is close in line with the modeled one, though its mean value is higher than that of ROMS-CoSiNE.

Based on the modeled high amplitude and frequency of variability in both PP and nutrient uptake (Figs. 3 and 4), we expect that distribution of biological rates is affected by individual TIW events, occurring every four to five weeks on average. Figure 5 demonstrates that our ROMS-CoSiNE model is capable of capturing the TIW dynamics in the EEP. The latitude langitude surface plate of SET and Chi reveal a pageing TIW.

²⁰ in the EEP. The latitude-longitude surface plots of SST and Chl reveal a passing TIW that disturbs the SST field via enhanced upwelling (colder SST), and which promotes a significant response in biological productivity (higher Chl).

Although there are no studies that examine the effect of passing TIWs on the distribution of satellite-measured PP in the EEP, studies of surface distribution of ChI have

shown that this proxy for phytoplankton biomass, which is related to C production, is strongly regulated by these fast moving, westward propagating TIWs (e.g., Chelton et al., 2000; Strutton et al., 2001, 2011; Ryan et al., 2006).

Furthermore, we suspect that if the large and high-frequency temporal variability is also reflected in the spatial distribution of biological productivity within the EEP region,





then looking at the area-averaged time series of nutrient and C uptake rates might mask some important patterns of spatial variability occurring within the EEP domain. Therefore, we also examine patterns of zonal variability in nutrient and C uptake rates and how they may differ in time over the 2004–2005 period.

5 3.6 Patterns of spatio-temporal variability

We use the Hovmöller diagrams to illustrate patterns of spatio-temporal variability in the nutrient and C uptake rates. We present results from two regions: (1) averaged over the upwelling dominated 1° S–1° N meridional domain, (2) and averaged over the 1–3° N meridional domain which includes the area most affected by passing TIWs in the EEP (Evans et al., 2009). Figure 6 shows the scale and pattern of variability in depthintegrated nutrient uptake rates from the two regions. As expected, ρ NH₄ dominates in both the mean and variability compared to ρ NO₃ and ρ Si(OH)₄. In the 1° S–1° N region (top panels of Fig. 6), the distribution of nutrient uptake rates is very patchy. While there are no distinguishable patterns in ρ NO₃, ρ NH₄ displays periods of very fall in both 2004 and 2005, ρ NH₄ is consistently very high all along the equator. Although the timing coincides with the maximum in TIW intensity, no frontal features can

be associated with elevated regenerated production. However, when looking at the distribution of ρ Si(OH)₄, fronts of elevated uptake propagating from east to west are very pronounced. Consistently with ρ NH₄, maximum ρ Si(OH)₄ takes place during fall of each year. By estimating the time it would take such a front to cross from 110° W to 140° W, we conclude that these features are most likely caused by passing TIWs.

TIW signature is even stronger in the spatio-temporal distribution of nutrient uptake rates in the 1–3° N region (bottom panels of Fig. 6). Being further away from the equator and the area of maximum upwalling, biological fluxes are in general lower than at

²⁵ tor and the area of maximum upwelling, biological fluxes are in general lower than at the equator. Yet, they exhibit much higher variability associated with episodically very high nutrient uptake events. Lines of elevated $\rho Si(OH)_4$ uptake are well matched in time and space with those identified in the along-equatorial region. Moreover, these





frontal features associated with elevated $\rho Si(OH)_4$ are now easily identified in the ρNH_4 distribution. This suggests that in the absence of strong background recycling of N, the effect of passing TIWs can not only enhance the new but also fuel the regenerated biological production in the EEP.

- ⁵ The strongest TIW signature is captured in the modeled distribution of $\rho Si(OH)_4$ (Fig. 6b,e). Here, we see fast-moving waves passing through the EEP at regular 4–5 week intervals, reflected in bands of elevated $\rho Si(OH)_4$ very closely resembling bands of elevated surface ChI concentrations observed from space by Strutton et al. (2001) or Ryan et al. (2006). In between the strong TIW seasons there are periods of very low $\rho Si(OH)_4$ recorded, as in March and April 2005. These are likely linked with the passage of Kelvin waves. We speculate that the effect of Kelvin waves is to decrease diatom activity and biological uptake of Si by decreasing the upwelling supply of Si(OH)_4 into the euphotic zone. Under the same conditions, small phytoplankton are affected less as they rely on NH₄ and NO₃ for growth. Both these nutrients are not limiting in
- ¹⁵ the EEP surface waters.

In order to verify these speculations, we plot the time-longitude distribution of NO_3 and $Si(OH)_4$ positive upwelling flux into the top 75 m water column together with the surface concentrations of these nutrients in the TIW-dominated, 1–3° N domain (Fig. 7). It appears that the prominent wave-like features are also distinguished in the upwelling

- ²⁰ flux distribution, in the Si(OH)₄ flux in particular. Furthermore, it can be noticed that the elevated supply of this growth-limiting nutrient coincides with area and time of elevated surface Si(OH)₄ concentration (Fig. 7d). Even though this relationship is less pronounced in the distribution of ρNO_3 , the effect of passing TIWs on the supply of NO₃ (Fig. 7a) and its surface concentration (Fig. 7c) is nevertheless visible. Estimates
- ²⁵ of wave speed and frequency of the frontal features identified in Fig. 7 also confirm that they are likely the result of intense TIW activity, especially in the fall and early winter in both 2004 and 2005.

Finally, we analyze the spatio-temporal distribution of PP in both the 1° S- 1° N and $1-3^{\circ}$ N regions. In Fig. 8 we compare the model and satellite depth-integrated and





meridional average PP. Based on the model-satellite time series comparison shown in Fig. 4, we choose the standard VGPM version of the satellite PP estimate to evaluate the model spatio-temporal patterns of variability. First, we notice areas of elevated PP in both the model and satellite data in the early fall of both 2004 and 2005. Highest

- ⁵ PP values are found in the eastern side of the region but lines of elevated production can be seen to frequently propagate westward. Second, we see long periods of extremely low PP all over the EEP domain, similarly in the model and satellite result (e.g., March and April 2005). These features match well with time and location of depressed nutrient uptake likely caused by a strong Kelvin wave (Fig. 6). The wave-like or frontal
- features in PP, associated with passing TIWs, are much more pronounced in the 1–3° N region, as expected. Although model PP is on average higher than estimated using remote sensing, similarity in the patterns is striking. Considering that TIW signature is strongest in the distribution of ρ Si(OH)₄ and appears in the distribution of PP as well, we can assume that the role of large phytoplankton, or diatoms in particular, might
- be critical to determining the overall distribution of depth-integrated PP. Even though our model overestimates the diatom contribution to biomass, this does not seem to affect model PP variability strongly, especially considering the excellent model-satellite agreement in PP distribution seen in Fig. 8.

However, there are some minor but important discrepancies between model and
 satellite PP patterns of variability. For instance, elevated PP in early fall lasts for a few weeks longer in the model result. This is also reflected in the mismatch between model and satellite PP time series compared in Fig. 4. We were able to attribute these discrepancies in PP to a relatively higher small phytoplankton population seen in the model during October and November 2005, also reported during the EB05 cruise (Parker et al., 2011). Blooms of small phytoplankton, as indicated by high *Prochloroccocus*

25 et al., 2011). Blooms of small phytoplankton, as indicated by high Prochloroccocus biomass during EB05, typically occur below the surface (Selph et al., 2011) and it is possible that the satellite VGPM model of PP does not take this into account. Even though the VGPM model attempts to estimate depth-integrated and not only surface PP, its algorithm is inherently dependent on the estimates of surface optical properties





predominantly. We suggest that further model and satellite comparisons are necessary to fully evaluate the role of subsurface processes on biological productivity in the entire euphotic zone.

We consider our results an important validation of the ROMS-CoSiNE model capabil-

- ity to accurately represent spatial and temporal patterns of variability in biological productivity in the EEP. Although there is no direct means of validating the model pattern of nutrient uptake rate distribution, the consistency between nutrient upwelling supply flux, surface nutrient concentration and PP patterns of variability indicates a very strong connection between TIW activity and nutrient uptake rates in the EEP. This study potentially provides key evidence for the water column link between physical and biological
- variability in the EEP so far mostly identified for surface processes (e.g., Strutton et al., 2001; Ryan et al., 2006).

Furthermore, our results confirm that bottom-up regulation through variable nutrient supply significantly impacts the productivity of the EEP and can explain the dominant
 features in the observed spatial and temporal variability. Nonetheless, a much more complex interaction between biological and physical processes likely takes place in the EEP. Top-down control, though not investigated in this study, might be equally modulated by the TIW and Kelvin wave activity but may also act on different time scales.

4 Conclusions

²⁰ In this study we demonstrate that the 12.5 km ROMS-CoSiNE model can simulate nutrient dynamics and biological productivity in the EEP, described by the EB04 and EB05 cruises. The model accurately represents the mean and variability in hydrographic conditions, including temperature, NO₃ and Si(OH)₄, and O₂. Modeled PPs of 53.1 ± 5.5 and 64.1 ± 6.2 mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹ agree extremely well with EEP box averages of 62.4 ± 9.2 and 59.3 ± 18.6 mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹ measured in December 2004 and September 2005, respectively. Modeled ρ NO₃ in December 2004 and September 2005 are 2.46 ± 0.63 and 2.67 ± 0.76 mmol N m⁻² d⁻¹, which agree within a factor of two with





EB04 and EB04 cruise measurements of 3.59 ± 1.32 and 4.17 ± 1.82 mmol N m⁻² d⁻¹. Measured ρ Si(OH)₄ values of 1.70 ± 0.56 and 1.23 ± 0.61 mmol Si m⁻² d⁻¹ are overestimated by modeled 3.18 ± 1.02 and 3.58 ± 1.25 mmol Si m⁻² d⁻¹ in December 2004 and September 2005, respectively, due to lack of functional diversity among modeled large phytoplankton. We demonstrate that the Pacific ROMS-CoSiNE model can accurately simulate mean phytoplankton specific growth rates, with the modeled two-year mean of $0.45 d^{-1}$ matching closely with cruise average of $0.48 d^{-1}$. Two-year mean depth-integrated phytoplankton biomass is 28.9 mg Chl m⁻² in the model, very close to the corresponding cruise estimate of 29.5 mg Chl m⁻². Station by station comparisons

provide a source of model evaluation in a statistical sense only. Lack of data assimilation prevents us from accurately constraining physical conditions in the model. Thus, modeled TIWs do not correspond exactly to those observed during the EB cruises. Nevertheless, it is important to note that the model range of variability in nutrient uptake rate, controlled by changes in the physical environment, matches extremely well with that observed in situ.

Our modeled time series of nutrient uptake rates provide a nearly-continuous record of temporal variability in nutrient dynamics and biological productivity. These results complement the scarce cruise measurements and provide a much needed reference for estimating 2004–2005 mean conditions and seasonal variability in the EEP.

²⁰ Our findings point at the important role of TIWs in controlling patterns of spatial and temporal variability in nutrient, especially Si, dynamics in the EEP. It appears that TIWs passing across the EEP domain enhance ρ Si(OH)₄ significantly, indicating a strong response of the diatom population to perturbed Si supply conditions. While the observed phenomena are short-lived, they reveal the importance of TIWs in the context ²⁵ of nutrient growth limitation and frequent but likely ephemeral changes in phytoplankton

species composition in the EEP. Our results provide first direct evidence that TIWs can alter the state of nutrient limitation to a large degree by supplying significant amounts of Si(OH)₄ causing a rapid and strong response in large phytoplankton growth and biomass. Future studies that examine the role of TIWs in changing the supply and





phytoplankton uptake of iron explicitly will also help estimate the degree of co-limitation of these two elements.

Through a careful model-data comparison we also provide recommendations for how the biological CoSiNE model can be improved to better simulate nutrient dynamics and biological productivity in the EEP. Firstly, we recommend incorporating new phytoplankton functional groups into the model design, such as mixotrophic dinoflagellates. Their lack in the current model configuration may explain the observed station by station discrepancies and markedly overestimated mean $\rho Si(OH)_4$. Future development in this direction is likely to improve the model skill in representing patterns of phytoplankton productivity in response to changes in nutrient supply and uptake.

Secondly, the observed mismatch in N and C uptake by phytoplankton cannot be overcome unless a dynamic C : Chl ratio is introduced. Under the assumption of a constant C : Chl ratio, we often cannot link changes in phytoplankton biomass with patterns of variability in PP. It is particularly important to understand how these interactions al-

- ¹⁵ ter in response to TIWs and other physical phenomena that control nutrient supply in the EEP. Thirdly, it is necessary to remove the constraint of a fixed Redfield ratio. We suspect that a dynamic N to C uptake ratio would increase the flexibility of biological production responses to changes in phytoplankton community and nutrient dynamics, especially evident during passage of TIWs, and on longer time scales, Kelvin waves.
- ²⁰ Fourthly, the data collected from the EB04 and EB05 cruises was unprecedented with regard to the key biological rate measurements, which provide constrains on models and point to directions for improvement. When comparing observations with model results directly (i.e. matching time and space), data assimilation is necessary, which will match model physical conditions with real ocean conditions. Continued remote
- sensing and in situ observations of ocean physical conditions should be incorporated through data assimilation into physical-biogeochemical modeling.





Appendix A

Principal CoSiNE nutrient uptake equations

A1 Small phytoplankton

$$^{5} \rho NO_{3} = \mu S1_{\max} \frac{NO_{3}}{K_{S1_{N}O_{3}} + NO_{3}} e^{-\psi_{S1}NH_{4}} (1 - e^{(-a/(\mu S1_{\max}))/})S1$$
(A1)
$$\rho NH_{4} = \mu S1_{\max} \frac{NH_{4}}{K_{S1_{N}H_{4}} + NH_{4}} \left(1 - e^{(-a/(\mu S1_{\max}))/}\right)S1$$
(A2)

I is the vertical profile of light; *a* is the initial slope of the P-I curve equal to 0.025. For explanations of other symbols see Table 1.

A2 Large phytoplankton

$$\rho NO_{3} = \mu S2_{max} \times MIN \left(\frac{NO_{3}}{K_{S2_NO_{3}} + NO_{3}}, \frac{Si(OH)_{4}}{K_{Si(OH)_{4}} + Si(OH)_{4}} \right) \times \dots \\ \times e^{-\psi_{S2}NH_{4}} (1 - e^{(-a/(\mu S2_{max}))/})S2$$

$$\rho Si(OH)_{4} = \mu S2_{max} \times MIN \left(\frac{NO_{3}}{K_{S2_NO_{3}} + NO_{3}}, \frac{Si(OH)_{4}}{K_{Si(OH)_{4}} + Si(OH)_{4}} \right) \times \dots \\ \times e^{-\psi_{S2}NH_{4}} (1 - e^{(-a/(\mu S2_{max}))/})S2$$

$$\rho NH_{4} = \mu S2_{max} \times MIN \left(\frac{NO_{3}}{K_{S2_NO_{3}} + NO_{3}}, \frac{Si(OH)_{4}}{K_{Si(OH)_{4}} + Si(OH)_{4}} \right) \times \dots \\ \times (1 - e^{-\psi_{S2}NH_{4}})(1 - e^{(-a/(\mu S2_{max}))/})S2$$

(A3)

(A4)

(A5)



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Table 1. Optimized CoSiNE model parameters. Key model parameters used in this study are compared with the early CoSiNE model parameterization applied by Chai et al. (2002).

CoSiNE model parameter	Symbol	This study	Chai et al. (2002)	Unit
Light	1	Diurnal cycle	Diurnal cycle	$W m^{-2}$
NH_4 inhibition for small phyto.	Ψ _{<i>s</i>1}	10.00	5.59	$(mmol m^{-2})^{-1}$
NH ₄ inhibition for large phyto.	Ψ_{S2}	4.00	5.59	$(mmol m^{-2})^{-1}$
Half-saturation for ρNH_4 by small phyto.	$K_{S1_{NH_4}}$	0.10	0.05	$mmol m^{-2}$
Half-saturation for ρNH_4 by large phyto.	$K_{S2_{NH_4}}$	None	1.00	mmol m ⁻²
Half-saturation for ρNO_3 by small phyto.	$K_{S1_{NO_3}}$	0.50	0.50	$mmol m^{-2}$
Half-saturation for ρNO_3 by large phyto.	$K_{S2_{NO_3}}$	1.00	0.50	$mmol m^{-2}$
Half-saturation for ρ Si(OH) ₄	K _{Si(OH)₄}	3.50	3.00	mmol m ⁻²
Large phyto. Si:N uptake ratio	Si : N	Dynamic > 1	1.00	-
Max specific growth rate of small phyto.	$\mu S1_{max}$	2.00	2.00	d^{-1}
Max specific growth rate of large phyto.	$\mu S2_{max}$	2.50	3.00	d^{-1}

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Table 2. The model-data comparison of domain-averaged hydrographic conditions during 2004–2005. *T*, O_2 , NO_3 and $Si(OH)_4$ are compared for the periods December 2004 and September 2005.

Source	7	Г	C) ₂	N	О ₃	Si(C	DH) ₄
	(°	C)	(mg O	₂ m ⁻³)	(mmol	N m ⁻³)	(mmol	Sim ⁻³)
	Dec 2004	Sep 2005	Dec 2004	Sep 2005	Dec 2004	Sep 2005	Dec 2004	Sep 2005
EB data	23.1 ± 3.29	22.0 ± 4.14	161 ± 27.9	148 ± 34.6	9.62 ± 4.18	11.4 ± 7.05	5.04 ± 3.09	6.15±3.07
Model	21.6 ± 2.76	20.5 ± 2.52	190 ± 28.2	177 ± 37.2	10.3 ± 3.21	11.4 ± 2.97	6.68 ± 3.48	7.64 ± 3.20

Table 3. The model-data comparison of nutrient and C uptake rates during 2004–2005. Results
are area-averaged and depth-integrated. Mean and standard deviation come from the along-
equatorial profiles between 140° W and 110° W. PP data from Balch et al. (2011), pNO ₃ and
ρ NH ₄ from Parker et al. (2011), and ρ Si(OH) ₄ from Krause et al. (2011).

Source	F	PP	$ ho NO_3$		hoSi(OH) ₄		ρNH_4	
	(mmol C	Cm ⁻² d ⁻¹)	(mmol N m ⁻² d ⁻¹)		(mmol Si m ⁻² d ⁻¹)		(mmol N m ⁻² d ⁻¹)	
	Dec 2004	Sep 2005	Dec 2004	Sep 2005	Dec 2004	Sep 2005	Dec 2004	Sep 2005
EB data	62.4 ± 9.2	59.3 ± 18.6	3.59 ± 1.32	4.17 ± 1.82	1.70 ± 0.56	1.23 ± 0.61	7.94 ± 5.22	17.1 ± 3.7
Model	53.1 ± 5.5	64.1 ± 6.2	2.46 ± 0.63	2.67 ± 0.76	3.18 ± 1.02	3.58 ± 1.25	5.58 ± 0.88	7.05 ± 0.78





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Table 4. The model-data comparison of phytoplankton specific growth rate and biomass in the EEP. Results are domain-averaged over the 1° S– 1° N and $140-110^{\circ}$ W region. Cruise specific growth rates come from Selph et al. (2011) and biomass estimates from Balch et al. (2011).

Source	Specific growth rate		Total phytoplankton biomas	
	(d^{-1})		$(mg Chl m^{-2})$	
	Dec 2004	Sep 2005	Dec 2004	Sep 2005
EB data	0.53 ± 0.11	0.39 ± 0.11	26.5 ± 3.4	32.4 ± 5.1
Model	0.45 ± 0.03	0.48 ± 0.03	28.4 ± 4.6	32.1 ± 4.9

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Table 5. The model-data comparison of domain-averaged f-ratios during 2004–2005. Total phytoplankton f-ratios are compared with size-fractionated estimates. Cruise f-ratios were calculated by Parker et al. (2011).

Source	Small phytoplankton		Large phytoplankton		Total phytoplankton	
	Dec 2004	Sep 2005	Dec 2004	Sep 2005	Dec 2004	Sep 2005
EB data	0.38	0.10	0.34	0.33	0.28	0.16
Model	0.25	0.22	0.39	0.36	0.31	0.27



Fig. 1. Collection of scatter plots representing in situ and the modeled hydrographic conditions for the depth range of 0–150 m and along two longitude lines (140° W and 110° W). The model results are meridional averages from 1° S–1° N, and 15-day or 9-day time averages (roughly corresponding to the length of EB04 and EB05 equatorial transects). December 2004 data (+) and September 2005 (o) are plotted separately. The dashed diagonal line in each scatter plot is the 1:1 perfect model-data fit line. **(A)** *T* (°C); **(B)** O_2 (mg O_2 m⁻³); **(C)** NO₃ (mmol N m⁻³); **(D)** Si(OH)₄ (mmol Si m⁻³).







Fig. 2. Target diagram of PP and nutrient uptake rates in the EEP during 2004–2005. Diagram shows the normalized *B* and RMSD_{cp} (unbiased RMSD_{cp}) for the model PP, ρNO_3 , $\rho \text{Si}(\text{OH})_4$ and ρNH_4 relative to the EB observations from December 2004 and September 2005. Concentric circles represent RMSD_{tot} isolines.







Fig. 3. Model time series of carbon and nutrient uptake rates in the EEP during 2004–2005. Results are depth-integrated and area-averaged. Solid lines are the box means and dashed lines are 1σ around the mean. Cruise data are from December 2004 (*) and September 2005 (o). Horizontal error bars on cruise estimates indicate the length of equatorial transects in days, while vertical error bars correspond to 1σ around the EEP mean. **(A)** PP (mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹); **(B)** ρ NO₃ (mmol N m⁻² d⁻¹); **(C)** ρ Si(OH)₄ (mmol Si m⁻² d⁻¹); **(D)** ρ NH₄ (mmol N m⁻² d⁻¹).







Fig. 4. Comparison of model and satellite primary productivity time series in the EEP during 2004–2005. Thick solid line is the ROMS-CoSiNE estimate. Standard VGPM result is marked with a thin solid line with open circles. The Eppley-modified VGPM result is labeled with a thin solid line with crosses. The updated CbPM result is represented by a thin solid line with asterisks. Satellite data from http://www.science.oregonstate.edu/ocean.productivity/. See text for a detailed description of satellite model PP algorithms.











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Fig. 6. Time-longitude diagrams of depth integrated and meridional average nutrient uptake rates in the EEP. Time period is from January 2004 to December 2005. Top panels (A-C) show nutrient uptake rates averaged over 1° S-1° N and bottom panels (D-F) show nutrient uptake rates averaged over 1–3° N. (A,D) ρ NO₃ (mmol N m⁻² d⁻¹); (B,E) ρ Si(OH)₄ (mmol Si m⁻² d⁻¹); (C,F) ρNH_4 (mmol N m⁻² d⁻¹).







Fig. 7. Time-longitude diagrams of meridional-averaged positive nutrient supply flux and surface concentration in the EEP. Top panels **(A,B)** show positive upwelling supply flux averaged over $1-3^{\circ}$ N, and bottom panels **(C,D)** show nutrient surface concentrations also averaged over $1-3^{\circ}$ N. Time period is from January 2004 to December 2005. **(A)** NO₃ upwelling supply (w * NO₃) (mmol N m⁻² d⁻¹); **(C)** NO₃ at 0 m (mmol N m⁻³); **(B)** Si(OH)₄ upwelling supply (w * Si(OH)₄) (mmol Si m⁻² d⁻¹); **(D)** Si(OH)₄ at 0 m (mmol Si m⁻³).



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Fig. 8. Time-longitude diagrams of depth integrated and meridional average model and satellite PP in the EEP. Time period is from January 2004 to December 2005. Top panels **(A,B)** show PP averaged over 1° S– 1° N and bottom panels **(C,D)** show PP averaged over $1-3^{\circ}$ N. **(A,C)** standard VGPM satellite estimate of PP (mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹) based on Behrenfeld and Falkowski (1997); **(B,D)** ROMS-CoSiNE PP (mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹).



