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Floodwater Impact on Galveston Bay Phytoplankton Taxonomy, Pigment Composition and Photo-Physiological State following Hurricane Harvey from Field and Ocean Color (Sentinel-3A OLCI) Observations

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Abstract

Phytoplankton taxonomy, pigment composition and photo-physiological state were studied in Galveston Bay (GB), Texas (USA) following the extreme flooding associated with Hurricane Harvey (August 25–29, 2017) using field and satellite ocean color observations. Percentage of chlorophyll a (Chl a) in different phytoplankton groups were determined from a semi-analytical IOP (inherent optical property) inversion algorithm. The IOP inversion algorithm revealed the dominance of freshwater species (cyanobacteria and green algae) in the bay following the hurricane passage (September 29, 2017) under low salinity conditions associated with the discharge of floodwaters into GB; 2 months after the hurricane (October 29-30, 2017), under more seasonal salinity conditions, the phytoplankton community transitioned to an increase in small sized groups such as haptophyte and prochlorophyte. Sentinel-3A OLCI-derived Chl a obtained using a red/NIR band ratio algorithm for the turbid estuarine waters was highly correlated (R²> 0.90) to HPLC-derived Chl a concentrations. A Non-Negative Least Square (NNLS) inversion model was then applied to OLCI-derived Chl a maps of GB to obtain spatiotemporal distributions of phytoplankton diagnostic pigments; results appeared consistent with extracted phytoplankton taxonomic composition derived from the IOP inversion algorithm. OLCI-derived diagnostic pigment distributions also exhibited good agreement with HPLC measurements, with mean R2 ranging from 0.39 for violaxanthin to 0.98 for Chl a. Environmental factors (e.g. floodwaters) combined with phytoplankton taxonomy also strongly modulated phytoplankton physiology in the bay as indicated by measurements of photosynthetic parameters with a Fluorescence Induction and Relaxation (FIRe) system. Phytoplankton in well-mixed waters (mid-bay area) exhibited maximum PSII photochemical efficiency (F_V/F_M) and low effective absorption cross section (σ_{PSII}), while the areas adjacent to the shelf (likely nutrient-limited) showed low F_V/F_M and elevated σ_{PSII} values. Overall, the approach using field and ocean color data combined with inversion models allowed, for the first time, an assessment of phytoplankton response to a large hurricane-related floodwater perturbation in a turbid estuarine environment based on its taxonomy, pigment composition and physiological state.

Key words: Galveston Bay, phytoplankton taxonomy, pigment composition, physiology, ocean color, chlorophyll a, Sentinel-3A OLCI

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1. Introduction

Phytoplankton, which form the basis of the aquatic food web, are crucial to marine ecosystems and play a strong role in marine biogeochemical cycling and climate change. Phytoplankton contributes approximately half of the total primary production on Erath, fixing ~50 GT of carbon into organic matter per year through photosynthesis; however, various phytoplankton taxa affect differently the carbon fixation and export (Sathyendranath et al., 2014). Chlorophyll a (Chl a), an essential phytoplankton photosynthetic pigment, has been considered a reliable indicator of phytoplankton biomass and primary productivity in aquatic systems (Bracher et al., 2015). Phytoplankton also contain several accessory pigments such as chlorophyll-b (Chl b), chlorophyll-c (Chl c), photosynthetic carotenoids (PSC) and photo-protective carotenoids (PPC) that are either involved in light harvesting, or in protecting Chl a and other sensitive pigments from photo-damage (Fishwick et al., 2006). Some of PSCs and PPCs are taxaspecific and have been considered as bio-marker pigments: e.g., fucoxanthin (PSC) for diatoms, peridinin (PPC) for certain dinoflagellates, alloxanthin (PPC) for cryptophytes, zeaxanthin (PPC) for prokaryotes (e.g. cyanobacteria), and the degradation products of Chl a, namely, divinyl Chl a and divinyl-Chl b for prochlorophyte (Jeffrey and Vest, 1997). High-Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC) which can efficiently detect and quantify several chemo-taxonomically significant chlorophylls and carotenoids, when coupled with these taxa-specific pigment ratios, allow phytoplankton taxonomic composition to be quantified based on a pigment concentration diagnostic procedures such as CHEMTAX (Mackey et al., 1996). Furthermore, phytoplankton pigments with distinct absorption characteristics strongly influence the light absorption by phytoplankton (Bidigare et al., 1990; Ciotti et al., 2002; Bricaud et al., 2004). As such, phytoplankton absorption spectra has been used to infer underlying pigments and also phytoplankton taxonomy by Gaussian-decomposition of (Hoepffner and Sathyendranath, 1991; Lohrenz et al., 2003; Ficek et al., 2004; Chase et al., 2013; Moisan et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2016; Moisan et al., 2017). More importantly, phytoplankton optical properties (absorption and backscattering) bearing the imprints of different pigments and cell-size, are important contributors to reflectance in a waterbody (Gordon et al., 1988). Morel and Prieur, (1977) first reported the feasibility of calculating the phytoplankton absorption coefficients and other inherent optical properties (IOPs) from measured subsurface irradiance reflectance based on the simplified radiative transfer equation. Improvements in semi-analytical inversion algorithms to derive IOPs from in-situ and remotely sensed reflectance spectra have been reported (Roesler and Perry, 1995; Hoge and Lyon, 1996; Lee et al., 1996; Garver and Siegel, 1997; Carder et al., 1999; Maritorena et al., 2002; Roesler and Boss, 2003; Chase et al., 2017). Roesler et al. (2003) further modified an earlier IOP inversion algorithm used in Roesler and Perry, (1995) by adding a set of 5 species-specific phytoplankton absorption spectra, and derived phytoplankton taxonomic composition from the field measured remote sensing reflectance.

Phytoplankton pigment composition varies not only between taxonomic groups but also with photophysiological state of cells and environmental stress (e.g., light, nutrients, temperature, salinity, turbulence and stratification) (Suggett et al., 2009). The photosynthetic pigment field is an important factor influencing the magnitude of fluorescence emitted by phytoplankton, with active fluorometry commonly used to obtain estimates of phytoplankton biomass (D'Sa et al., 1997). Advanced active fluorometry termed as fast repetition rate (FRR; (Kolber et al., 1998)) and analogous techniques such as the fluorescence induction and relaxation (FIRe; (Suggett et al., 2008)) allows for the simultaneous measurements of the maximum PSII photochemical efficiency (F_V/F_M ; where F_m and F_o is maximum and minimum fluorescence yield and F_v is variable fluorescence obtained by subtracting F_o from F_m) and the effective absorption cross section (σ_{PSII}) of a phytoplankton population; these have been used as diagnostic indicators for the rapid assessment of phytoplankton health and photo-physiological state linked to environmental stressors. Considerable effort has been invested to achieve a deeper understanding of the impacts of environmental factors and phytoplankton taxonomy on photosynthetic performance of natural communities from field and laboratory fluorescence measurements (Kolber et al., 1988; Geider et al., 1993; Schitüter et al., 1997; Behrenfeld and Kolber, 1999; D'Sa and Lohrenz, 1999;

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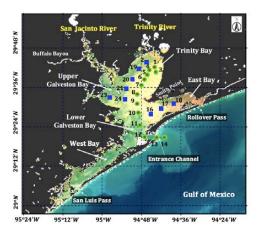
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Holmboe et al., 1999; Moore et al., 2003). Furthermore, knowledge of photo-physiological responses of phytoplankton in combination with information on phytoplankton taxonomic composition could provide additional insights on regional environmental conditions.

Synoptic mapping of aquatic ecosystems using satellite remote sensing has revolutionized our understanding of phytoplankton dynamics at various spatial and temporal scales in response to environmental variabilities and climate change. It has also provided greater understanding of biological response to large events such as hurricanes in oceanic and coastal waters (Babin et al. 2004; Acker et al. 2009; D'Sa 2014; Farfan et al. 2014; Hu and Feng, 2016). Although the primary focus of ocean color sensors has been to determine the Chl a concentration and related estimates of phytoplankton primary production (Mitchell, 1994; Behrenfeld and Falkowski, 1997), more recently, several approaches have been developed based on phytoplankton optical signatures to derive spatial distributions of phytoplankton functional types (PFTs) (Alvain et al., 2005; Nair et al., 2008; Hirata et al., 2011), phytoplankton size classification (Ciotti et al., 2002; Hirata et al., 2008; Brewin et al., 2010; Devred et al., 2011), and phytoplankton accessory pigments (Pan et al., 2010; Pan et al., 2011; Moisan et al., 2013; Moisan et al., 2017; Sun et al., 2017). The basis of these satellite-based remote sensing algorithms have relied on distinct spectral contributions from phytoplankton community composition (e.g., taxonomy, size structure) to remote sensing reflectance (R₁₅, sr⁻¹); however, these studies have all been confined to open ocean and shelf waters. In contrast, satellite studies of phytoplankton pigments have been limited in the optically complex estuarine waters where the influence from wetlands, rivers, and coastal ocean make phytoplankton communities highly variable and complex.

In this study, field bio-optical measurements and ocean color remote sensing data (Sentinel-3A OLCI) acquired in Galveston Bay, a shallow estuary along the Gulf coast (Texas, USA; Fig. 1), are used to investigate the spatial distribution of phytoplankton pigments, taxonomic composition, and their photophysiological state following the extreme flooding of the Houston Metropolitan and surrounding areas due to Hurricane Harvey and the consequent biological impact of the floodwater discharge into the bay. The paper is organized as follows: section 2 describes the field data acquisition, laboratory processing, and the algorithms and methods used to distinguish phytoplankton groups, retrieve spatial distribution of pigments, and calibrate phytoplankton physiological parameters. Results and discussion (sections 3 and 4), and conclusions (section 5) addresses the main contributions and findings of this paper.



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Figure 1. Sentinel-3A OLCI RGB image (October 29, 2017) with locations of sampling sites in Galveston Bay acquired on September 29 (red asterisk), October 29 (green circles) and October 30 (blue solid squares), 2017, respectively.

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131 2. Data and Methods

132 **2.1 Study** area

133 Galveston Bay (GB), a shallow water estuary (~2.1 m average depth), encompasses two major sub-134 estuaries: San Jacinto Estuary (also divided as Upper GB and Lower GB), and Trinity Estuary (Trinity 135 Bay) (Fig. 1). It is located adjacent to the heavily urbanized and industrialized metropolitan areas of 136 Houston, Texas (Dorado et al., 2015). A deep (~14 m) narrow Houston Ship Channel connects the bay to 137 the northern Gulf of Mexico (nGoM) through a narrow entrance, the Bolivar Roads Pass. Tidal exchange 138 between GB and the nGoM occurs through the entrance channel with diurnal tides ranging from ~0.15 to 139 ~0.5 m. The major freshwater sources to GB are the Trinity River (55%), the San Jacinto River (16%), 140 and Buffalo Bayou (12%) (Guthrie et al., 2012). The San Jacinto River was frequently observed to 141 transport greater amounts of dissolved nutrients into GB than the Trinity River (Quigg, 2011). The 142 catastrophic flooding of Houston and surrounding areas associated with Hurricane Harvey resulted in 143 strong freshwater inflows into GB from the San Jacinto River (>3300 m³s⁻¹; USGS 8068090) on August 29, 2017 and the Trinity River (>2500 m³s⁻¹; USGS 08066500 site at Romayor, Texas) on August 30, 144 145 2017, respectively. Although the discharge from the two rivers in the upstream returned to normal 146 conditions (~50-120 m³s⁻¹) in about 2 weeks after the Hurricane passage, salinity remained low for over a 147 month following the hurricane passage (D'Sa et al., 2018).

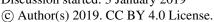
148 2.2 Sampling and Data Collection

149 Surface water samples were collected at a total of 34 stations during two surveys on September 29 and 150 October 29-30, 2017 (Fig. 1). Samples at stations 1 to 14 (red asterisk on top of green circle; Fig. 1) 151 along the Trinity River transect were collected repetitively on September 29 and October 29, 2017, 152 respectively. Additional 9 sampling sites (blue squares; Fig. 1) around the upper bay and in the East Bay 153 were sampled on October 30, 2017. The surface water samples were stored in coolers and filtered on the 154 same day. The filter pads were immediately frozen and stored in liquid nitrogen for laboratory absorption 155 spectroscopic and HPLC measurements of the samples. An optical package equipped with a conductivity-156 temperature-depth recorder (Sea-Bird SBE) and a Fluorescence Induction and Relaxation System (FIRe; 157 Satlantic Inc) was used to obtain profiles of salinity, temperature, pressure, and phytoplankton 158 physiological parameters (F_V/F_M and σ_{PSII}). Measurements of backscattering were also made at each 159 station using a WETLabs VSF-3 (470, 530, 670 nm) backscattering sensor (D'Sa et al. 2006; Naik et al. 160 2013). Included in the optical package was also a hyperspectral downwelling spectral irradiance meter 161 (HyperOCR, Satlantic). The irradiance data from HyperOCR were processed using Prosoft 7.7.14 and the 162 Photosynthetically Active Radiation (PAR) were estimated from the irradiance measurements. The above-163 water reflectance measurements were collected using a GER 1500 512iHR spectroradiometer in the 350-164 1050 nm spectral range. At each station, sky radiance, plate radiance, and water radiance were recorded 165 (each repeated three times) and processed to obtain above-water remote sensing reflectance (Joshi et al., 166 2017). Sentinel-3A OLCI full resolution mode, cloud free level-1 images were obtained for September 29, 167 October 29 and 30, 2017 over GB from the European Organization for Meteorological Satellites 168 (EUMESAT) website and pre-processed using Sentinel-3 Toolbox Kit Module (S3TBX) version 5.0.1 in 169 Sentinel Application Platform (SNAP). These OLCI data were further atmospherically corrected to obtain 170 remote sensing reflectance (R_{IS} OLCI, sr⁻¹) using Case-2 Regional Coast Color (C2RCC) module version 171 0.15 (Doerffer and Schiller, 2007).

2.3 Absorption Spectroscopy

- Surface water samples were filtered through 0.2-μm nuclepore membrane filters and the colored dissolved
- organic matter (CDOM) absorbance (A_{CDOM}) were obtained using a 1-cm path length quartz cuvette on a

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- Perkin Elmer Lambda-850 UV/VIS spectrophotometer equipped with an integrating sphere. The
- Quantitative Filter Technique (QFT) with 0.7-µm GF/F filters were used to measure absorbance of
- particles (A_{total}) and non-algal particles (A_{NAP}) inside an integrating sphere at 1 nm intervals from 300 to
- 178 800 nm. The absorption coefficients of CDOM (a_{CDOM}), NAP (a_{NAP}), particles (a_{total}) and phytoplankton
- (a_{PHY}) were calculated using the following equations:

$$a_{\text{CDOM}}(\lambda) = 2.303 \times \frac{A_{\text{CDOM}}(\lambda)}{L} \qquad \dots \dots (1)$$

- where L is the path length in meters. The a_{CDOM} were corrected for scattering, temperature, and baseline
- drift by subtracting an average value of absorption between 700-750 nm for each spectrum (Joshi and
- 183 D'Sa, 2015).

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$$a_{total}(\lambda) = 2.303 \times \frac{A_{total}(\lambda)}{V_{filtered}/S_{filter}} \qquad \dots (2)$$

$$a_{\text{NAP}}(\lambda) = 2.303 \times \frac{A_{\text{NAP}}(\lambda)}{V_{\text{filtered}}/S_{\text{filter}}} \qquad \dots (3)$$

$$a_{\text{PHY}}(\lambda) = a_{\text{total}} - a_{\text{NAP}} \qquad \dots (4)$$

- 187 where V_{filtered} is the filtered volume of sample, S_{filter} is the area of filter pads and the path length
- 188 correction for filter pad was applied according to (Stramski et al., 2015).

189 2.4 Pigment Absorption Spectra

- 190 The water samples were filtered with 0.7-μm GF/F filter. The filter pads were stored in liquid nitrogen
- until transferred into 30 ml vials containing 10 ml cold 96% ethanol (Ritchie, 2006). The vials were spun
- evenly to ensure full exposure of the filter pad to the ethanol and then kept in the refrigerator (in the dark)
- 193 overnight. The pigment solutions at room-temperature were poured off from vials into 1 cm cuvette and
- measured on a Perkin Elmer Lambda-850 UV/VIS spectrophotometer to obtain pigment absorbance
- spectra (A_{pig}), while, 90% ethanol was used as a blank (Thrane et al., 2015). The total absorption
- 196 coefficients of pigments $a_{pig}(\lambda)$ were calculated as follow:

$$a_{\text{pig}}(\lambda) = 2.303 \times \frac{A_{\text{pig}}(\lambda)}{L} \times (\frac{V_{\text{ethanol}}}{V_{\text{filtered}}}) \qquad \dots \dots (5)$$

- where L is the path length in meters, $V_{ethanol}$ is the volume of ethanol, and $V_{filtered}$ is the filtered volume of
- the water samples.

2.5 HPLC Measurements

- 201 Water samples were filtered through 0.7-µm GF/F filters and immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen for
- 202 HPLC analysis using the methods reported by Barlow et al. (1997). The detected pigments along with
- their abbreviations are listed in Table 1. Diagnostic biomarker pigments are marked in bold letters (Table
- 204 1).

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Table 1. Pigments information acquired from HPLC samples in Galveston Bay.

Variable	Primary Pigment (PPig)	Calculation
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	Chlorophyl	ls
[TChl a]	Total chlorophyll a (TChl a)	[Chlide a]+[DVChl a]+[Chl a]
[TChl b]	Total chlorophyll b (TChl b)	[DVChl b]+[Chl b]
[TChl c]	Total chlorophyll c (TChl c)	$[\operatorname{Chl} \operatorname{c}_1] + [\operatorname{Chl} \operatorname{c}_2] + [\operatorname{Chl} \operatorname{c}_3]$
	Carotenoid	ds
[Caro]	Carotenes†	[ββ-Car]+[βε-Car]
[Allo]	Alloxanthin	
[Buta]	19'-Butanoyloxyfucoxanthin	
[Diadino]	Diadinoxanthin	
[Diato]	Diatoxanthin	
[Fuco]	Fucoxanthin	
[Hexa]	19'-Hexanoyloxyfucoxanthin	
[Peri]	Peridinin	
[Zea]	Zeaxanthin	
[Neo]	Neoxanthin	
[Lut]	Lutein	
[Viola]	Violaxanthin	
[Pras]	Prasinoxanthin	
[Anthera]	Antheraxanthin	
Note: (1) [Chl b], PFTs (Moisan et a		[Hexa] are considered as diagnostic pigments

Variable Pigment Sum Calculation Total Chlorophyll (TChl) [TChl a]+[TChl b]+[TChl c] [TChl] [PPC] Photoprotective Carotenoids (PPC) [Allo]+[Diadino]+[Diato]+[Zea]+[Caro]+[Viola] [PSC] Photosynthetic Carotenoids (PSC) [Buta]+[Fuco]+[Hexa]+[Peri]+[Lut]+[Pras] [PSP] Photosynthetic Pigments (PSP) [PSC]+[TChl] [AP] Total Accessory Pigments (AP) $[PPC]+[PSC]+[TChl\ b]+[TChl\ c]$ [TP] Total Pigments (TP) [AP+[TChl a] [DP] Total Diagnostic Pigments (DP) [PSC]+[Allo]+[Zea]+[T Chl b]

2.6 FIRe Measurements

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An in-situ Fluorescence Induction and Relaxation System (FIRe, Satlantic Inc.) was used to characterize phytoplankton photosynthetic physiology during the two surveys in GB. The FIRe is based on illuminating a sample with an intense flash of light to instantaneously saturate the reaction centers of photosystem II (PSII); under these light conditions, reaction centers do not accept electrons and most of the absorbed light energy is dissipated as fluorescence. The fundamental parameter measured by FIRe is fluorescence yield F(t), which is the emitted fluorescence divided by the irradiance intensity (no unit). In contrast to strong flashes, dark adaption enables all reaction centers of PSII to be open with least fluorescence emitted, thus, resulting in minimal fluorescence yield ($F_{\rm o}$). Maximum fluorescence yield ($F_{\rm m}$) can be obtained after sufficient irradiation when all reaction centers are closed. Maximum photochemical efficiency, which quantify the potential of converting light to chemical energy for the PSII reaction centers (Moore et al., 2006), was calculated as ($F_{\rm m}$ - $F_{\rm o}$)/ $F_{\rm m}$ = $F_{\rm v}$ / $F_{\rm m}$. The functional absorption cross section $\sigma_{\rm PSII}$ (Å²quantum⁻¹) measures the capability of reaction centers to absorb light from the ambient environment. The FIRe was deployed at a slow descent rate, with 12 and 20 vertical profiles obtained during the first and second surveys, respectively. All measurements were programmed using standard

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- 221 protocols of single saturating turn-over (ST) flash saturation of PSII (Kolber et al., 1998). Flashes were
- 222 generated from highly uniform blue LEDs at 455 nm with approximately 30 nm half-bandwidth. Chl a
- 223 fluorescence was stimulated using saturating sequence of 80 1.1 µs flashes applied at 1 µs intervals, 8
- 224 sequences were averaged per acquisition, and the fluorescence signal was detected at 668 nm. All data
- 225 were processed using standard FIReCom software (Satlantic). In addition, samples of 0.2-µm filtered sea
- 226 water at each station were used as 'blank' to remove the background fluorescence signals (Cullen and
- 227 Davis, 2003); in this step, the fluorescence from the filtered samples (without phytoplankton) were
- 228 subtracted from in-situ fluorescence signals to get more accurate values of $F_{\nu}/F_{\rm m}.$

2.7 Retrieving Phytoplankton Groups from above-water R_{rs}

- 230 A fundamental relationship that links sub-surface remote-sensing reflectance (rrs) and the IOPs was
- 231 expressed using a quadratic function developed by (Gordon et al., 1988):

232
$$r_{rs} = g_1 * u(\lambda) + g_2 * u(\lambda)^2; \ u(\lambda) = \frac{b_b}{a_{total} + b_b} (6)$$

- 233 where, the parameters g₁ (~0.0788) and g₂ (~0.2379) are values for turbid estuarine waters (Joshi and
- 234 D'Sa, 2018); r_{rs} is the sub-surface remote sensing reflectance that were obtained from above-water remote
- 235 sensing reflectance (R_{rs}) using (Lee et al., 2002):

$$r_{rs} = \frac{R_{rs}}{0.52 + 1.7 \times R_{rs}} \qquad \dots (7)$$

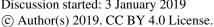
- 237 The total backscattering coefficient b_b is comprised of water (b_{bw}) and particulates including both organic
- 238 and inorganic particles (b_{bp}), while the total absorption coefficients (a_{total}) can be further separated into
- 239 four sub-constituents (Roesler and Perry, 1995) as indicated by:

240
$$b_b = b_{bw} + b_{bp}$$
; $a_{total} = a_w + a_{phv} + a_{CDOM} + a_{NAP}$ (8)

- 241 where a_w, a_{phy}, a_{CDOM}, and a_{NAP} represent the absorption coefficients of pure water, phytoplankton,
- 242 colored dissolved organic matter and non-algal particles, respectively.
- 243 The IOP inversion algorithm for retrieving IOPs from R_{rs} require known spectral shape (eigenvector) of
- 244 each component in Eq. (8) to estimate the magnitude (eigenvalue) of each component (Table 2). The
- 245 spectral shape can be adjusted by changing the values of slope based on characteristics of the study area.
- 246 It is worth noting that a single averaged phytoplankton eigenvector does not provide species information
- 247 whereas a set of several species-specific phytoplankton eigenvectors allow estimates of species
- 248 composition. IOPs inversion algorithm applied in this study makes use of mass-specific phytoplankton
- 249 absorption spectra of 10 groups namely, dinoflagellate, diatom, chlorophyte, cryptophyte, haptophyte,
- 250 prochlorophyte, raphidophyte, rhodophyte, red cyanobacteria (Synechococcus) and blue cyanobacteria
- 251 (Trichodesmium); these were obtained from Dierssen et al. (2006) and Dutkiewicz et al. (2015) as eigen
- 252 vectors rather than using one average $a_{phy}(\lambda)$ spectrum. Subsequently, the inversion algorithm iterates
- 253 repeatedly to minimize the difference between modeled R_{rs} and in-situ measured R_{rs} (R_{rs} insitu) until a best 254
- fit is achieved while allowing for alterations of all parameters listed in Table 2 (Chase et al., 2017). The
- 255 absolute percent errors between modeled and measured values of R_{rs}, a_{phy}, a_{CDOM}, a_{NAP} and b_{bp} were
- 256 calculated as:

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$$\%error = \left| \frac{x_{\text{modeled}} - x_{\text{measured}}}{x_{\text{measured}}} \right| \times 100 \qquad \dots (9)$$

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Table 2. Parameters and eigenvectors used in the semi-analytical inversion algorithm.

Parameter	Equation	Slope	Eigenvalue	
a _{CDOM} (λ)	$a_{CDOM}(\lambda) = M_{CDOM} \times exp^{-S_{CDOM} \times (\lambda - \lambda_0)};$ $\lambda_0 = 443$	S _{CDOM}	M_{CDOM}	
a _{NAP} (λ)	$a_{\text{NAP}}(\lambda) = M_{\text{NAP}} \times \exp^{-S_{\text{NAP}} \times (\lambda - \lambda_0)};$ $\lambda_0 = 443$	S _{NAP}	M _{NAP}	
$a_{phy}(\lambda)$	$a_{phy}(\lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Chl a_i \times a_{phi}^*;$ a_{phi}^* is the spectral shape of each phytoplankton group.		Chl a _i	
$b_{bp}(\lambda)$	$b_{bp}(\lambda) = B_{bp} \times (\lambda_0/\lambda)^{S_{bp}};$ $\lambda_0 = 443$	S _{bp}	B _{bp}	

Note: $a_{phi}^*(\lambda)$ for 10 different groups of phytoplankton used in this study were extracted from (Dierssen et al., 2006) and Dutkiewicz et al., (2015).

2.8 Retrieving Pigments from Sentinel 3-OLCI R_{rs}

2.8.1 Reconstruction of Pigment Absorption Spectrum by Multiple Linear Regression

261 Total pigment absorption spectra $a_{pig}(\lambda)$ obtained during both surveys (Eq. 5), were modeled as a third 262 order function of HPLC measured Chl a (Chl a_HPLC) concentration at each station as (Moisan et al., 2017):

263
$$a_{pig}(\lambda) = C_3 \times (Chl \ a_{HPLC})^3 + C_2 \times (Chl \ a_{HPLC})^2 + C_1 \times Chl \ a_{HPLC} + C_0 \quad (11)$$

264 where C=[C₃, C₂, C₁, C₀], is the wavelength-dependent vector coefficient ranging from 400 to 700 nm at 265 1 nm interval; these were further applied to Sentinel-3A OLCI Chl a to calculate apig OLCI at each pixel as:

$$a_{\text{pig_OLCI}}(\lambda) = C_3 \times (\text{Chl a_oLci})^3 + C_2 \times (\text{Chl a_oLci})^2 + C_1 \times \text{Chl a_oLci} + C_0 \quad \dots \quad (12)$$

where Chl a_OLCI is Sentinel-3A OLCI derived Chl a concentration (259×224 pixels); the obtained image represents the value of apig OLCI at a certain wavelength and 301 images of apig OLCI can be obtained in the 400-700 nm wavelength range at 1 nm interval.

2.8.2 Satellite Retrieval of Pigments using Non-Negative Least Square (NNLS) Inversion Model

The a_{pig} OLCI is a mixture of n pigments with known absorption spectra $a_i(\lambda)$, i = 1, 2, ..., n at wavelength λ (nm); thus, $a_{pig_OLCI}(\lambda)$ can be considered as a weighted sum of individual component spectrum (Thrane et al., 2015) at each image point as:

$$a_{\text{pig OLCI}}(\lambda) = x_1 \times a_1(\lambda) + x_2 \times a_2(\lambda) + \dots + x_n \times a_n(\lambda) \qquad \dots \dots (13)$$

where $A(\lambda) = [a_1(\lambda), a_2(\lambda), ... a_n(\lambda)]$ are the spectra of 16 pigments (Chl a, Chl b, Chl c₁, Chl c₂, pheophytin-a, pheophytin-b, peridinin, fucoxanthin, neoxanthin, lutein, violaxanthin, alloxanthin, diadinoxanthin, diatoxanthin, zeaxanthin, and β-carotenoid) extracted from supplementary R scripts of Thrane et al. (2015). All these 16 spectra are normalized to unit maximum peak absorbing value. The vector coefficient $[x_1, x_2, ... x_n]$ correspond to the weights of these distinct pigments; note that X cannot be negative, therefore, non-negative least squares (NNLS) was used to guarantee positive solutions of X (Moisan et al., 2013; Thrane et al., 2015). Eq. 13 can be further expressed as:

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$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{pig}(400)_{OLCI} \\ a_{pig}(401)_{OLCI} \\ \vdots \\ a_{pig}(700)_{OLCI} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} a_1(400), a_2(400), \dots a_n(400) \\ a_1(401), a_2(401), \dots a_n(401) \\ \vdots \\ a_1(700), a_2(700), \dots a_n(700) \end{bmatrix} \dots (14)$$

where n=16 is the number of pigment components included in the NNLS inversion model and x_n is the weight mentioned above for the n^{th} pigment. Note: x_n is not the concentration of each pigment component; the concentration of pigments (C_n , $\mu g \ L^{-1}$) were further calculated by dividing the pigment's weight-specific absorption coefficient (U_n , $L \ g^{-1} cm^{-1}$) at maximum peak wavelength (Thrane et al., 2015) as:

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$$C_n = 10000 \times (\frac{X_n}{U_n})$$
 (15)

2.9 Processing Approach

Sentinel 3A-OLCI pigment maps were generated using the processing pathway 1 (Fig. 2) that includes the following: 1) developing empirical relationships between HPLC-measured Chl a and R_{rs_insitu} band ratio for Sentinel 3A-OLCI band 9 (673 nm) and band 11 (709 nm) to generate Sentinel 3A-OLCI Chl a maps, 2) converting Chl a concentration to $a_{pig_OLCI}(\lambda)$ maps, and subsequently decomposing $a_{pig_OLCI}(\lambda)$ into individual pigment spectra to generate phytoplankton pigment maps for GB. In processing pathway 2, phytoplankton taxonomic composition at each sampling station was obtained from a 10-species IOP inversion model, which take R_{rs_insitu} as input and estimates Chl a concentration of each phytoplankton group (Fig. 2). Finally, CDOM-corrected FIRe measurements of F_v/F_m and σ_{PSII} were combined with phytoplankton taxonomy to assess photosynthetic physiology of different phytoplankton groups.

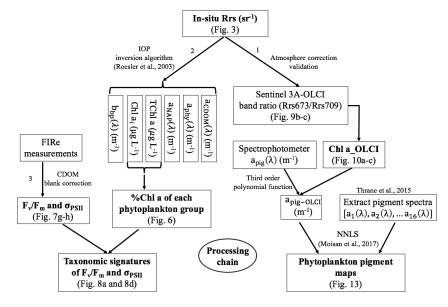


Figure 2. Flowchart showing the three processing steps for: (1) retrieving pigments spatial distribution maps from OLCI, (2) distinguishing phytoplankton groups, and (3) assessing phytoplankton physiological parameters and their linkages to taxonomic groups.

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306 3. **Results**

3.1 Phytoplankton Taxonomy and Physiological State from Field Observations

3.1.1 Measurements of Above Water Remote Sensing Reflectance

Above-water remote sensing reflectances (R_{rs_insitu}) from the two surveys (Fig. 3) reflect the influence of the absorbing and scattering features of water constituents. Low reflectance (~675 nm) caused by Chl a red light absorption and maximum reflectance at green wavelength (~550 nm) were observed. Obvious dips at ~625 nm versus reflectance peaks ~650 nm were observed in spectra during both surveys, which could be attributed to cyanobacteria (*Trichodesmium*) modulation of the spectra (Hu et al., 2010). The reflectance peak around 690–700 nm was obvious at most sampling sites except at stations 13 and 14 adjacent to the nGOM and were likely due to the suspended sediment scattering and effect of Chl a fluorescence (Gitelson, 1992). The peak position at stations with lower Chl a concentration (~5 μg L⁻¹) were observed at 690-693 nm; however, the peaks shifted to longer wavelengths of 705 and 710 nm for station 23 and 19 with extremely high Chl a concentrations of ~31 and 50 μg L⁻¹, respectively (Fig. 3).

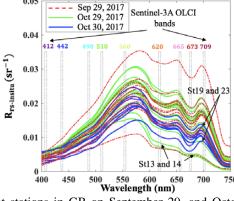


Figure 3. R_{rs_insitu} spectra at stations in GB on September 29, and October 29-30, 2017; vertical bars represent Sentinel-3A OLCI spectral bands.

3.1.2 Performance of IOP Inversion Algorithm

The IOP inversion algorithm was applied to R_{rs_insitu} data (Fig. 3) obtained during the two surveys in GB. The mean errors for modeled a_{CDOM} , a_{NAP} , a_{phy} and b_{bp_470} at all wavelengths for the 34 stations were 5.86%, 6.83%, 12.19% and 10.79%, respectively (Table 3). A total of 8 phytoplankton groups (dinoflagellate, diatom, chlorophyte, cryptophyte, haptophyte, prochlorophyte, raphidophyte, and blue cyanobacteria) were spectrally detected from the IOP inversion algorithm. The sum of 8 eigenvalues of Chl_i (Table 2) represents the modeled total Chl a (TChl a_mod) of the whole phytoplankton community. The TChl a_mod is better correlated with HPLC-measured total Chl a (TChl a_HPLC) for survey 2 (green circle; Fig. 4a) with $R^2 \sim 0.92$, compared to survey 1 (red color; Fig. 4a). In addition, the TChl a_mod appear to be slightly higher than TChl a_HPLC for survey 2. The modeled a_{CDOM} (a_{CDOM_mod}) are in close agreement with spectrophotometrically measured a_{CDOM} at 412 nm (Fig. 4b), with a_{CDOM} obtained on September 29, 2017 much higher than that on October 29-30, 2017. The modeled b_{bp} (b_{bp_mod}) are well correlated with in-situ b_{bp} (b_{bp_insitu}) at 470 nm (Fig. 4c) with higher R^2 (0.81) observed on September 29, 2017. In addition, both modeled and field-measured b_{bp} showed stronger backscattering at most stations on September 29, 2017 than those on October 29-30, 2017.





Table 3. Error statistics over all wavelengths and sampling stations ($N=301\times34=10234$; 12 and 22 stations on Sep 29 and Oct 29-30, 2017) from semi-analytical IOP inversion algorithm.

Parameter	Min. error	Max. error	Mean error	R ² (Sep)	R ² (Oct)
	(%)	(%)	(%)		
$R_{rs} \lambda \in [400,700]$	0.005	40.12	18.71	0.90	0.89
$a_{CDOM}(\lambda), \lambda \in [400,700]$	0.042	11.20	5.86	0.92	0.94
$a_{NAP}(\lambda), \lambda \in [400,700]$	0.001	11.46	6.73	0.90	0.91
$a_{PHY}(\lambda), \lambda \in [400,700]$	0.001	36.42	12.19	0.84	0.85
$b_{bp}(\lambda)$, $\lambda = 470 \text{ nm}$	0.057	40.22	10.79	0.81	0.43

The Chl a percentage (%Chl a), which is Chl_i/TChl a, were also compared with diagnostic pigment percentage (%DP), which is specific DP for each phytoplankton group over the sum of DP (Σ DP). The DP for diatom (fucoxanthin), dinoflagellate (peridinin), cryptophytes (alloxanthin), chlorophyte (Chl b), haptophyte (19°-hexanoyloxyfucoxanthin), and cyanobacteria (zeaxanthin) referred in (Moisan et al., 2017) were used in this study. The R² between %Chl a and %DP for different phytoplankton groups range from 0.15 to 0.81 (Fig. 4). The %Chl a of cryptophyte is between 5%-42% and well correlated with alloxanthin/ Σ DP (R²~0.62-0.72; Fig. 4d) for both surveys. In addition, the cryptophyte %Chl a at station 19 and 23 on October 30, 2017 was highest (~40%) in coincidence with the highest value of alloxanthin/ Σ DP (Fig. 4d). Furthermore, relationship between chlorophyte %Chl a and Chl b/ Σ DP (R²~0.55; Fig. 4e) showed that chlorophyte during survey 1 contributed higher fraction to the whole phytoplankton community compared to survey 2. The %Chl a of cyanobacteria highly correlated with zeaxanthin/ Σ DP with R² larger than 0.7 (Fig. 4f) for both surveys. Low %Chl a of dinoflagellate in coincidence with low peridinin/ Σ DP (R²~0.78) were observed at stations along the transect, however, increased contribution of dinoflagellate appeared adjacent to the entrance during both surveys (Fig. 4g).

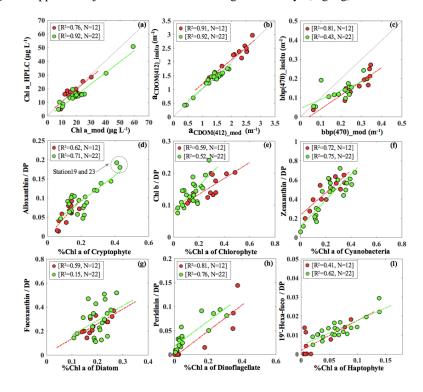






Figure 4. (a) Validation of TChl a_mod via HPLC-measured TChl a; individual %Chl a of each detected taxa versus corresponding %DP shown with (d) cryptophyte, (e) chlorophyte, (f) cyanobacteria, (g) diatom, (h) dinoflagellate, and (l) haptophyte; red and green dots indicate the samples on September 29 and October 29-30, 2017, respectively. Comparison between in-situ measurements and modeled results with (b) a_{CDOM}(412) and (c) b_{bp}(470).

3.1.3 Variations in Phytoplankton Community Structure

Reconstruction of the phytoplankton absorption coefficients spectra revealed variations in phytoplankton community structure (Fig. 5) even several weeks after Hurricane Harvey. The modeled a_{phy} spectra (a_{phy_mod}) at stations 6, 13, 17 and 19 (Fig. 5a-f) yielded spatiotemporal differences of phytoplankton taxonomic composition in GB. The strong absorption peak around 625 nm induced by cyanobacteria was observed at most of the stations for both modeled results and in-situ measurements (Fig. 5a, 5c and 5e) except at stations adjacent to the entrance (Fig. 5b and d). The a_{phy_mod} at station 6 was primarily dominated by group of cyanobacteria (blue line) and chlorophyte (green line) on September 29, 2017 (Fig. 5a); in contrast, the spectrum of chlorophyte contributed very little at station 6 on October 29, 2017 (green line; Fig. 5c). Furthermore, the shape of spectra for samples obtained at station 13 showed strong dinoflagellate-modulation versus extremely low cyanobacteria contribution during survey 1 (red line; Fig. 5b). However, small-size group like haptophyte and prochlorophyte displayed increasing proportions at station 13 on October 29, 2017 (Fig. 5d). Station 17 in the East Bay was dominated by cyanobacteria (blue line; Fig. 5e) and cryptophyte (pink line; Fig. 5e) absorption spectra, whereas, on October 30, 2017, the main spectral features at station 19 in the upper GB was from cryptophyte (pink line) and chlorophyte (green line; Fig. 5f).

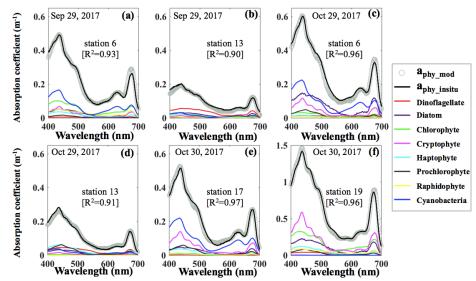


Figure 5. Reconstruction of phytoplankton absorption coefficients spectra at station 6 (a) and 13 (b) on September 29, 2017, at station 6 (c) and 13 (d) on October 29, 2017 and at 17(e), and 19 (f) on October 30, 2017 based on the mass specific absorption spectra of different phytoplankton groups including diatom, chlorophyte, dinoflagellate, cryptophyte, cyanobacteria (blue), haptophyte, prochlorophyte and raphidophyte presented using different colors.

The corresponding taxa-specific %Chl a derived from IOPs inversion algorithm for the two surveys on September 29 and October 29-30, 2017 are shown in Figure 6a and 6b, respectively. Cyanobacteria (blue

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bars) and chlorophyte (green bars) constituted over 55% of the phytoplankton communities during survey 1 (September 29, 2017; Fig. 6a). In addition, chlorophyte, known to proliferate in freshwater environments, showed higher fraction than that observed in survey 2 (green color; Fig. 6). Also, chlorophyte together with diatoms (purple color; Fig. 6a) accounted for ~ 60% of TChl a_mod at stations (e.g., station 7, 8 and 9) with a well-mixed water column (inferred from salinity profiles; not shown) on September 29, 2017. Cryptophyte, haptophyte and raphidophyte became a minor component of the community and accounted in total to ~25% of TChl a mod (Fig. 6a). Furthermore, dinoflagellate group had low contributions to TChl a_mod inside the bay, but showed increasing %Chl a (~30%) in higher salinity waters adjacent to the nGOM (red color; Fig. 6a). Cyanobacteria (blue color; Fig. 7) exhibited a slightly elevated percentage during survey 2 (~60 days after hurricane passage, October 29-30, 2017) and were quite abundant at station 16, 17 and 18 in East Bay where the water was calm and stratified as observed from salinity profiles. In addition, cyanobacteria were not prevailing adjacent to the nGOM (Station 12, 13 and 14) and close to San Jacinto (station 19, 20, 21, 23 and 24), where cryptophyte (pink color) and chlorophyte (green color) showed dominance (Fig. 6b). The %Chl a of chlorophyte obtained at stations along the Trinity River transect decreased by ~10% on October 29-30, 2017 compared to that on September 29, 2017. Small size groups like haptophyte and prochlorophyte increased on October 29-30, 2017 and were more abundant adjacent to the nGOM, accounting for more than 25% of the TChl a_mod.

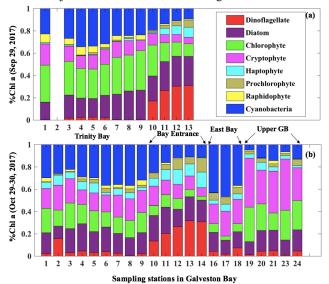


Figure 6. Phytoplankton taxonomic compositions detected from IOP inversion algorithm on September 29 and October 29-30, 2017 in Galveston Bay; phytoplankton groups are represented in different colors as shown in the legend.

3.1.4 Environmental Conditions and Physiological State of Phytoplankton Community

The surface salinity presented a pronounced seaward increasing gradient along the transect (station 3-14) during both the surveys (Fig. 7a) with primarily lower salinity throughout the bay during survey 1 in comparison to survey 2, which indicated the freshening impact was still ongoing even 4 weeks after Hurricane Harvey. The salinity was ~15 at station 16 and decreasing when going further into East Bay (~10 at station 17 and 18; Fig. 7a). In upper GB, salinity at station 19-24 did not vary significantly (~15), increasing along with the distance away from the San Jacinto River mouth with highest value (~17.5) at station 24. During both surveys, lowest Chl a (Fig. 7b) were observed adjacent to the nGOM, and the highest Chl a were closest to the river mouth. The Photosynthetically Active Radiation (PAR) which were

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calculated from down-welling irradiance (not shown) decreased significantly with depth, but surface PAR (Fig. 7c) were similar in magnitude at all stations. Pigment ratios including TChl a/TP (0.58-0.68), PSC/Chl a (0.07-0.26) and AP/TP (0.34-0.42) were obtained from HPLC measurements and shown in Figure 7d, 7e and 7f, respectively.

The CDOM calibrated and 0-0.5m depth averaged photosynthetic parameters F_V/F_M varied from 0.41 to 0.64 (Fig. 7g), while σ_{PSII} was in the range of 329-668 Ų quantum $^{-1}$ (Fig. 7h). The highest σ_{PSII} and lowest F_V/F_M appeared adjacent to the nGOM (station 12-14). Conversely, values of F_V/F_M at stations 7-9 with a well-mixed water column were high with low values of σ_{PSII} . Both F_V/F_M and σ_{PSII} did not directly correlate with Chl a, (e.g., high Chl a ~51 µg L $^{-1}$ at station 19 corresponded to a relatively low level of F_V/F_M ~0.45, versus high σ_{PSII} ~550 Ų quantum $^{-1}$). However, the stations with high F_V/F_M coincided with the high fraction of Chl a (Chl a/TP) and low fraction of AP (AP/TP) (Fig. 7d and 7f). In contrast, σ_{PSII} showed an overall positive relationship with AP/TP, but altered negatively with Chl a/TP during both surveys. The lowest (highest) value of σ_{PSII} (F_V/F_M) were observed at station 9 corresponding to the highest Chl a/TP value (~0.64) on October 29, 2017. The highest AP/TP and PSC/Chl a were obtained from stations adjacent to the nGOM.

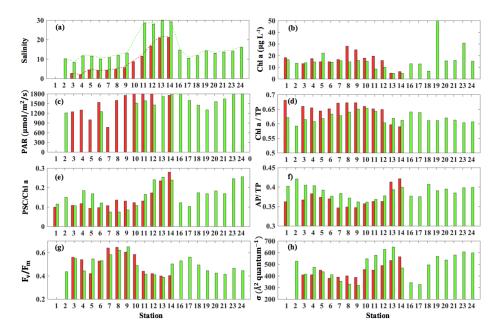


Figure 7. Environmental conditions (salinity, light field), pigment composition and physiological state in GB surface waters (red bars indicating samples from September 29, 2017 and blue bars representing samples from October 29 and 30, 2017). (a) Salinity, (b) Chl-a concentration, (c) PAR, (d) Chl a/TP, (e) PSC/Chl a, (f) AP/TP, (g) F_v/F_m , and (h) σ_{PSII} .

3.1.5 F_v/F_m and σ_{PSII} Taxonomic Signatures

Distinct pigments housed within phytoplankton light-harvesting antennae can strongly influence PSII light-harvesting capability and the photosynthetic quantum efficiency of phytoplankton (Lutz et al., 2001). In this study, we observed an inverse relationship ($R^2 \sim 0.63-0.81$; Fig. 8a and d) between the F_V/F_M and σ_{PSII} , that appeared related to taxonomic signals during surveys 1 and 2 in GB. Stations 1-9 along the





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transect were considered as well-mixed group with no dominance by any particular group (black circles; Fig. 8a-c); stations 10-14 close to the entrance were however, strongly dominated by dinoflagellate and haptophyte (red symbol; Fig. 8a-c) during survey 1. This well-mixed group displayed low values of σ_{PSII} $(\sim 390-439 \text{ Å}^2\text{quantum}^{-1})$, and high levels of F_V/F_M ($\sim 0.42-0.65$) with F_V/F_M approaching 0.65 at station 9 on September 29, 2017 (Fig. 8a). However, enhanced contributions of dinoflagellate and haptophyte around the entrance corresponded to a decline of F_V/F_M (0.3~0.4) against an increase of σ_{PSII} (500~600 Å²quantum⁻¹) during survey 1. Furthermore, samples obtained from survey 2 at station 1-9, station 10-14, station 16-18 and station 19-24 were considered as well-mixed (black), dinoflagellatehaptophyte dominated (red), cyanobacteria dominated (blue) and cryptophyte-chlorophyte dominated (green), respectively. Stations 16-17 dominated by cyanobacteria (blue triangles; Fig. 8d) showed high level of F_V/F_M (0.5~0.6) and relatively low values of σ_{PSII} (300~400 Ųquantum⁻¹). The F_v/F_m and σ_{PSII} of cryptophyte-chlorophyte dominated stations showed a moderate level of F_V/F_M (0.4~0.5) and σ_{PSII} (580~680 Å²quantum⁻¹). More importantly, tight positive relationships existed between measurements of F_V/F_M and Chl a/TP ($R^2 \sim 0.31 - 0.63$; Fig. 8b and e). On the other hand, σ_{PSII} were positively correlated with PSC/Chl a with R²~0.6 (Fig. 8c and f). The PSC/Chl a of cyanobacteria dominated group (blue symbols), and well mixed group (brown symbols) were relatively low. Highest PSC/Chl a and lowest Chl a/TP was observed for the dinoflagellate-haptophyte dominated group, corresponding to the lowest σ_{PSII} and highest F_V/F_M . In addition, cryptophyte-chlorophyte dominated group had high levels of PSC/TChl a (~0.18-0.26) and slightly higher Chl a/TP compared to dinoflagellate-haptophyte dominated group. Overall, well-mixed groups with high proportion of largesize phytoplankton (e.g., diatoms and chlorophyte) showed higher Chl a/TP along with larger F_V/F_M and smaller σ_{PSII} than those stations with high fraction of dinoflagellate and pico-populations (Fig. 8c and f).

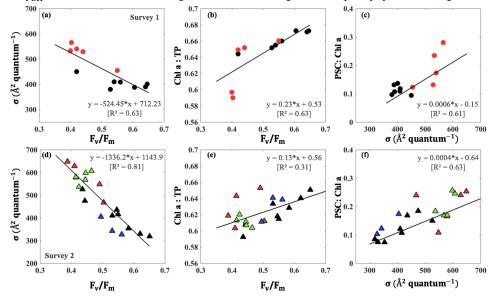


Figure 8. a, d) σ_{PSII} against F_V/F_M ; **b, e)** F_V/F_M versus Chl a/TP; and **c, f)** σ_{PSII} versus PSC/Chl a on September 29 and October 29-30, 2017 respectively. The data points identified by dominant taxa with black, red, green and blue symbols denoting well-mixed, dinoflagellate-haptophyte dominated, cryptophyte-chlorophyte dominated, and cyanobacteria dominated groups, respectively.

3.2 Satellite Observations of Phytoplankton Pigments

3.2.1 An OLCI Chl a Algorithm and its Validation





Blue to green band ratio algorithms have been widely used to study Chl a in the open ocean and shelf waters (D'Sa et al., 2006; Blondeau-Patissier et al., 2014); however, these bands generally fail in estuarine waters due to strong blue absorption by the high levels of CDOM and suspended particulate matter, especially after flooding events associated with hurricanes (D'Sa et al., 2011; D'Sa et al., 2018; Joshi and D'Sa, 2018). The percentage contribution by CDOM fluorescence (blank) to maximum fluorescence yield (F_m) obtained from in-situ FIRe (Fig. 9a) demonstrated that Chl a fluorescence was strongly influenced by high amounts of CDOM fluorescence in GB, especially during the first survey (September 29, 2017), when the bay was under strong floodwater influence (red triangles; Fig. 9a). The CDOM fluorescence signal constituted ~ 25 % in the region adjacent to the nGOM (stations 12-14), between 25%-50% in the upper GB, and up to ~65% in Trinity Bay, which implied that blue and even green band are highly contaminated by CDOM and might not be the most suitable bands for estimating Chl a in GB. However, an increase in peak height near 700 nm and its shift towards longer wavelength (Fig. 3) can be used as a proxy to estimate Chl a concentration.

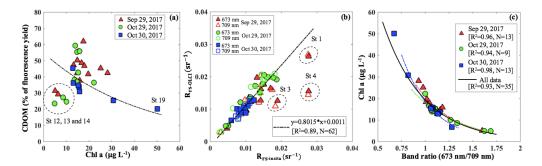


Figure 9. (a) Relationship between the percentage of the fluorescence yield of CDOM measured by FIRe against HPLC measured Chl a concentration. (b) Comparisons between R_{rs_insitu} and R_{rs_oLCI} at band 9 (673 nm) and band 11 (709 nm). (c) Exponential relationships between HPLC-measured Chl a concentrations and R_{rs_insitu} band ratio (673 nm/709 nm) in GB on September 29 (R^2 =0.89), October 29 (R^2 =0.93) and October 30 (R^2 =0.97). Red, green and blue lines and symbols indicate data sets obtained on September 29, October 29 and 30, 2017, respectively.

The C2RCC atmospheric-corrected R_{rs_OLCI} at each of the sampling sites were further averaged (3×3 pixels) and compared with R_{rs_insitu} (Fig. 3) at phytoplankton red absorption (~673 nm) and Chl a fluorescence (~700 nm) bands (Fig. 9b). The C2RCC performed overall better for the second survey on October 29-30, 2017 (green and blue symbols; Fig. 9b) than the first survey on September 29, 2017 (red triangles; Fig. 9b) when stations 1, 3 and 4 (circled triangles; Fig. 3c) adjacent to the Trinity River mouth were included; these stations were the last sampling sites in the afternoon (~4:30 pm) and under somewhat cloudy conditions. The time difference between satellite pass and in-situ measurements, sky conditions and shallow water depth also likely introduced more errors at these locations. The R² between R_{rs} out and R_{rs} insitu at red and near infrared (NIR) bands was 0.89 when the data from station 3 and 4 were excluded, suggesting good usability of these two bands for Chl a empirical algorithms in GB. Thus, the higher the Chl a concentration, the stronger the red light absorption, resulting in higher reflectance at 709 nm; consequently, negative correlations were observed between Red/NIR band ratio and Chl a. The ratio of Red (~673 nm) and NIR (709 nm) reflectance bands from in-situ measurements were overall highly correlated with HPLC-measured Chl a with $R^2 \sim 0.96$, 0.94 and 0.98 on September 29, October 29 and October 30, 2017, respectively (Fig. 9c). The Sentinel-3A OLCI Chl a maps (Fig. 10a-c) were generated for all data based on the relationship between Chl a and the Red and NIR band ratio as:

Chl a (
$$\mu$$
g L⁻¹) = 216.38 × exp(-2.399 × $\frac{R_{rs} (673)}{R_{rs} (709)}$) [All data] (16)





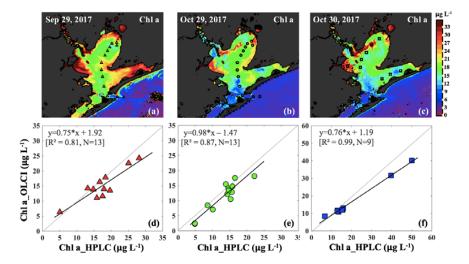


Figure 10. Chl a concentration generated based on in-situ band ratio ($R_{rs}673/R_{rs}709$) algorithm with (a), (b) and (c) representing Chl a distribution on September 29, October 29 and October 30, 2017, respectively; (c), (d) and (f) show the validation between HPLC-measured Chl a and OLCI-derived Chl a on September 29, October 29 and October 30, 2017, respectively.

The OLCI-derived Chl a (Fig. 10a-c) showed a good spatial agreement with Chl a_HPLC (Fig. 10d-f). The Chl a concentration on September 29, 2017 was overall higher than that on October 29-30, 2017 through the entire bay. East Bay displayed very high Chl a concentration, with highest value (>30 μ g L⁻¹) observed on September 29, 2017 (Fig. 10a). The narrow shape and shallow topography of East Bay results in relatively higher water residence time (Rayson et al. 2016); thus, the reduced exchange with shelf waters likely lends the East Bay vulnerable to eutrophication. The average Chl a concentration on October 29-30, 2017 were ~ 15 μ g L⁻¹ along the transect (station 1-11) and ~4-6 μ g/L (station 12-14) close the entrance of GB. In addition, Chl a adjacent to San Jacinto River mouth (>16 μ g L⁻¹) was higher than that in Trinity Bay, which might suggest that San Jacinto inflow had higher nutrient concentrations than Trinity as also previously reported (Quigg et al., 2010). Furthermore, the OLCI-Chl a maps on October 29 and 30, 2017 showed extremely high Chl a in a narrow area adjacent to the San Jacinto River mouth, with Chl a approaching ~ 40 μ g L⁻¹ at station 19 (Fig. 10c).

3.2.2 Reconstruction of Total Pigment Absorption Spectra from OLCI-derived Chl a

The reconstructed $a_{pig}(\lambda)$ based on the third order function of Chl a_HPLC (gray lines; Fig. 11a and b) agreed well with the spectrophotometrically measured $a_{pig}(\lambda)$ (black lines; Fig. 11a and b) during both surveys (R²=0.86; Fig. 11c). The R² for modeled versus measured $a_{pig}(\lambda)$ are between 0.76 and 1.00 from 400 to 700 nm with averaged R² of whole spectra reaching ~ 0.82 on September 29, 2017 and ~0.89 on October 29-30, 2017, respectively. The vector coefficients $C = [C_3, C_2, C_1, C_0]$ obtained from Eq. (11) were further applied to Eq. (12) to generate $a_{pig_OLCI}(\lambda)$ based on OLCI-derived Chl a images (Fig. 10a-c), which contained 259×224 pixels in each image. The $a_{pig_OLCI}(\lambda)$ at each pixel was retrieved at 1 nm interval, and thus 301 images of $a_{pig_OLCI}(\lambda)$ representing each wavelength were obtained over GB.





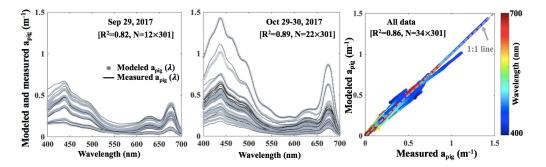
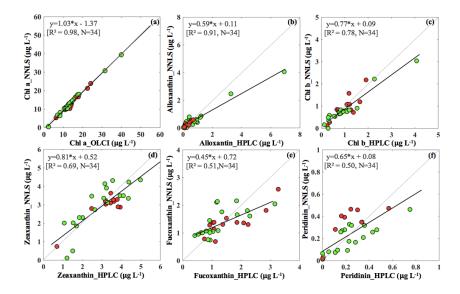


Figure 11. Spectrophotometrically measured and multi-regression fitted $a_{pig}(\lambda)$ spectra acquired on (a) September 29 and (b) October 29-30, 2017 in GB. Gray and black lines represent modeled and measured results, respectively. (c) Comparison between modeled and spectrophotometrically measured $a_{pig}(\lambda)$ for all data with color representing wavelength.

3.2.3 Accuracy of phytoplankton pigment retrievals from Sentinel 3A-OLCI

The reconstructed $a_{pig_OLCI}(\lambda)$ was spectrally decomposed into 16 individual pigment spectra at each pixel based on Eq. (14). A comparison of HPLC-measured pigments to averaged NNLS inversion model retrieved pigments showed R^2 ranging from a low of 0.39 for violaxanthin to 0.98 for Chl a (Table 4). The NNLS-modeled Chl a also correlated well with OLCI-derived Chl a (R^2 =0.98; Fig. 12a), with each exhibiting similar quantitative and spatial patterns. For the other 15 simultaneously simulated pigments, only 7 pigments averaged R^2 value greater than 0.65 (Table 4). Five NNLS-derived versus HPLC measured diagnostic pigments including alloxanthin, Chl b, zeaxanthin, fucoxanthin and peridinin are shown in Figure 12. The R^2 between NNLS-derived and HPLC-measured pigments for surveys 1 and 2 was highest for alloxanthin (0.91; Fig. 12b). For the other pigments R^2 was 0.78 for Chl b (Fig. 12c), 0.69 for zeaxanthin (Fig. 12d), 0.51 for fucoxanthin (Fig. 12e) and 0.50 for peridinin (Fig. 12f), respectively.



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Figure 12. Sentinel-3A OLCI derived pigment concentration against HPLC measured pigment concentration in Galveston Bay; a) Chl a, b) alloxanthin, c) Chl-b, d) zeaxanthin, e) fucoxanthin, and f) peridinin.

Table 4. Correlation between HPLC-measured pigment concentration with NNLS-modeled pigments.

Pigments	Sep 29, 2017	Oct 29, 2017	Oct 30, 2017	Averaged R ²
Chl a	0.95	0.97	0.98	0.97
Chl b	0.76	0.77	0.95	0.82
Chl c₁	0.56	0.42	0.79	0.59
Chl c ₂	0.49	0.45	0.74	0.56
Pheophythin a	0.76	0.79	0.72	0.75
Pheophythin b	0.75	0.88	0.76	0.79
Peridinin	0.65	0.48	0.51	0.54
Fucoxanthin	0.65	0.45	0.85	0.60
Neoxanthin	0.55	0.63	0.79	0.65
Lutein	0.61	0.78	0.72	0.70
Violaxanthin	0.43	0.34	0.39	0.39
Alloxanthin	0.81	0.40	0.91	0.72
Diadinoxanthin	0.69	0.40	0.89	0.66
Diatoxanthin	0.49	0.43	0.49	0.47
Zeaxanthin	0.76	0.65	0.78	0.73
β -carotenoid	0.41	0.42	0.82	0.55

3.3.1 Spatial Distributions of Diagnostic Pigments

Alloxanthin which is unique to cryptophytes (Wright and Jeffrey, 2006) exhibited spatial distributions patterns (Fig. $13a_1$ - c_1) that correlated reasonably well with Chl a distribution (Fig. 10a-c) during both surveys. Alloxanthin was especially low ($\sim 0.7~\mu g~L^{-1}$, Fig. $13a_1$) in the major basin area on September 29, 2017. However, alloxanthin showed very high concentrations ($\sim 3.5~\mu g~L^{-1}$, Fig. $13a_1$ - c_1) adjacent to San Jacinto River mouth, which coincided with the high %Chl a of cryptophyte at stations 19 and 23 (Fig. 6b). The bloom with high concentration of alloxanthin on October 29, 2017 ($\sim 3.5~\mu g~L^{-1}$; Fig. $13b_1$) then extended to a broader area on October 30, 2017 (Fig. $13c_1$).

Chl b is abundant in the group of chlorophyte (green algae) (Hirata et al., 2011) and the spatial distributions of Chl b (Fig. $13a_2$ - c_2) as well showed strong correlations with Chl a (Fig. 10a-c) for both surveys. The NNLS-derived Chl b exhibited overall elevated concentrations throughout bay and were higher in northern part of the bay than the area adjacent to the nGOM. Chl b concentrations observed on September 29, 2017 were higher than that on October 29-30, 2017, which corresponded to a decline of chlorophyte percentage derived from the IOP inversion algorithm for survey 2 (Fig. 6). Furthermore, Chl b concentrations approached ~2.8 μ g L⁻¹ in the bloom area and the corresponding green discoloration of water was also observed during the field survey on October 30, 2017.

Zeaxanthin was considered as taxa-specific pigment for prokaryotes (cyanobacteria) (Moisan et al., 2017) and NNLS-derived zeaxanthin maps revealed higher concentrations during survey 2 compared to survey 1. Zeaxanthin distributions (Fig. 12a₃-c₃) displayed significantly different patterns than Chl a and exhibited relatively lower concentration in the mid-bay (around Smith Point) on September 29, 2017. Zeaxanthin also displayed especially low concentrations in the bloom area during survey 2; furthermore, low %Chl a of cyanobacteria was also observed at stations 19-24 (Fig. 6), thus indicating that this localized algal bloom event was not associated with cyanobacteria.





Fucoxanthin is a major carotenoid found in diatoms (Hirata et al., 2011; Moisan et al. 2017) and the NNLS-derived fucoxanthin maps (Fig. $12a_4$ - c_4) showed highly similar distribution patterns with Chl a maps on September 29, 2017, but distributions differed on October 29-30, 2017. More interestingly, maps of fucoxanthin showed low concentrations around Smith Point on October 29-30, which also corresponded to the relatively low %Chl a of diatom derived from IOP inversion algorithm at station 7, 8 and 9. In addition, relatively low concentration of fucoxanthin was observed in the bloom area for survey 2. Overall, fucoxanthin concentration in GB was relatively higher for survey 1, which corresponded to the higher %Chl a of diatom (Fig. 6) compared to survey 2.

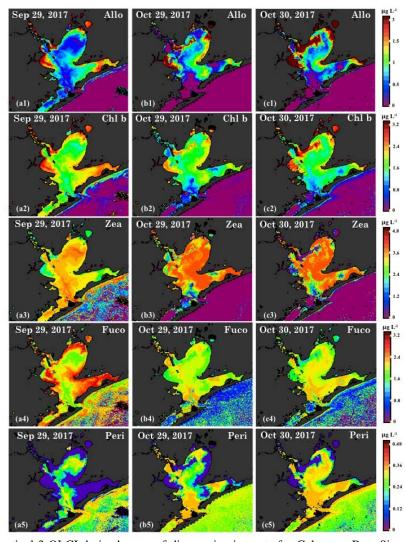


Figure 13. Sentinel-3 OLCI derived maps of diagnostic pigments for Galveston Bay. Simulated **a1-c1**) alloxanthin, **a2-c2**) Chl b, **a3-c3**) zeaxanthin, **a4-c4**) fucoxanthin, and **a5-c5**) peridinin concentrations. a, b and c represent columns (maps for 29 September, 29 and 30 October 2017) and 1-5 represent rows (pigments), respectively.

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Peridinin is a primary bio-marker pigment for certain dinoflagellates (Örnólfsdóttir et al., 2003). Peridinin concentrations were lowest in GB compared to other diagnostic pigments (0.001-0.05 μg L⁻¹), implying that dinoflagellate was not the dominant species during both surveys. Maps of peridinin (Fig. 12a₅-c₅) presented higher concentration (~0.3 μg L⁻¹) in higher salinity waters adjacent to the bay entrance, which agreed well with the increasing fraction of dinoflagellate at station 10-14 detected from IOP inversion model (Fig. 6). Furthermore, the areas with high concentrations of peridinin generally corresponded to lower Chl a concentrations during both surveys, this was especially obvious in the center of Trinity Bay and the entrance of GB on September 29, 2017, and bloom area on October 29-30, 2017. In addition, both fucoxanthin and peridinin pigments showed high concentrations along the Houston Ship Channel during survey 2.

4 Discussion

4.1 Performance of the Semi-Analytical IOP Inversion Algorithm

The residuals between R_{rs_insitu} and R_{rs_mod} on September 29 and October 29-30, 2017, are negative in the blue (400-450 nm) and red (610-630 nm) spectral range at most stations, whilst keeping positive ~700 nm, which could be attributed to a number of factors. First, the underestimation near 700 nm by the IOP inversion model is possibly induced by the absence of a fluorescence component in the IOP inversion model; thus, $R_{r_{s_insitu}}$ containing fluorescence signals were generally higher than $R_{r_{s_mod}}$ near 700 nm. Second, in the range of 610-630 nm, the absorption was overestimated at most of the stations; in this spectral range, the shape of spectra was strongly modulated by cyanobacteria absorption. Thus this overestimation ~620 nm is likely introduced by the input absorption spectrum (eigenvector) for cyanobacteria since all of input $a_{phi}^*(\lambda)$ are general absorption spectral shapes for different phytoplankton groups. However, the spectra of $a_{phi}^*(\lambda)$ can vary in magnitude and shape associated with package effects under different environmental conditions (e.g. nutrient, light and temperature) even for the same species (Bricaud et al., 2004). More detailed absorption spectra of phytoplankton under different conditions (e.g. high/low light and nutrient) could improve the performance of the IOP algorithm. Furthermore, the role of scattering might be another key factor to explain differences between R_{rs_insitu} and R_{rs_mod} for the whole spectra. The quantity and composition of suspended materials including phytoplankton, sediment and minerals will collaboratively determine $b_{bp}(\lambda)$ in both shape and magnitude. However, the input eigenvector of $b_{bp}(\lambda)$ in the present study was not divided into detailed sub-constituents and was a sum spectrum based on a power law function (Table 2). In reality, $b_{bp}(\lambda)$ spectra are not smooth and regular, and thus, the $b_{pp}(\lambda)$ value of phytoplankton and sediment might introduce errors to the whole spectrum due to their own scattering characteristics.

4.2 Distributions of NNLS-Retrieved Phytoplankton Pigments from Sentinel-3A OLCI

The derived maps of phytoplankton diagnostic pigments appeared to be reasonably correlated with HPLC-measured diagnostic pigments and showed overall agreement with extracted phytoplankton taxonomic compositions detected from the IOP inversion algorithm. The retrieved diatom-specific fucoxanthin maps however, showed high concentrations compared to other pigments adjacent to the entrance (Fig. 13b₄ and c₄), which contradicted with diatom %Chl a calculated from IOP inversion algorithm that Chl a fraction of diatom was relatively uniform at stations 12-14 (Fig. 6b). (Nair et al., 2008) concluded that fucoxanthin can occur in other phytoplankton types (e.g. raphidophyte and haptophyte). Fucoxanthin and/or fucoxanthin derivatives such as 19'-hexanoyloxyfucoxanthin can also replace peridinin as the major carotenoid in some dinoflagellates (e.g., *Karenia brevis*; Jeffrey and Vest, 1997). The elevated contributions from groups of dinoflagellate, haptophyte and prochlorophyte adjacent to the entrance (stations 10-14; Fig. 6b) along with high concentrations of fucoxanthin likely suggest the

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643 presence of elevated fractions of haptophyte and dinoflagellate, and further implies that fucoxanthin is an 644 ambiguous marker pigment for diatoms. This could also explain the poor correlation between 645 inverted %Chl a and %DP observed for the groups of diatom and haptophyte (Fig. 4g and l). These results 646 also further suggest the inherent limitations of using DP-type comparison between major biomarker 647 pigments and phytoplankton groups because the major assumption for DP-type methods is that diagnostic 648 pigment of distinct phytoplankton groups are uncorrelated to each other. This assumption is invalid in that 649 concentrations of major biomarker pigments are significantly correlated with each other and also may 650 vary in time and space under some external environmental stress (e.g., temperature, salinity, mixing, light 651 and nutrient) (Latasa and Bidigare, 1998).

652 Chl a concentration is another crucial factor that influences the accuracy of retrieved pigments. The goal 653 of the empirical Chl a algorithm for Sentinel 3A-OLCI is to obtain more accurate estimation of surface 654 Chl a concentration, which is better for retrieving other accessory pigments. However, the primary 655 limitation of Chl a empirical algorithms in this study was that the derived relationships between Red/NIR 656 and Chl a in GB may only be valid within a specific time period due to temporally-limited field 657 observations versus highly dynamic estuarine environments. Therefore, a Chl a empirical algorithm that is 658 more broadly applicable over a longer time period will largely improve the accuracy of retrieved 659 pigments over a series of remote sensing images and can be more useful for spatiotemporal studies of 660 phytoplankton functional diversity. In addition, the similarity of many carotenoid absorption spectra 661 could as well introduce errors when applying spectral decomposition techniques. Thus, the 16 input 662 pigment spectra used in this study were selected from (Thrane et al., 2015), which were correctly 663 identified from unknown phytoplankton community structure with low error rate reported from Monte 664 Carlo tests to minimize the potential effects of aliasing the spectra.

4.3 Response of Phytoplankton Taxonomic Composition to Environmental Conditions

Previous studies showed phytoplankton community in GB to be primarily dominated by diatoms/dinoflagellates during winter/spring, corresponding to the period of high fresh water discharge and nutrient concentrations (Dorado et al., 2015), while, cyanobacteria were the dominant species during the warmer months (Jun-Aug) (Roelke et al., 2013). However, perturbations following Hurricane Harvey affected the phytoplankton taxonomic composition with alterations in phytoplankton community structure were observed as GB system transitioned from marine to freshwater then to marine system. The decline of Chl a during survey 2 likely resulted from the depletion of nutrients associated with floodwaters. Higher fractions of diatom, cyanobacteria, and chlorophyte observed during survey 1 to some extent agreed well with measurements of Steichen et al., 2018 two weeks following Hurricane Harvey wherein, the phytoplankton community which was dominated by estuarine and marine diatoms and dinoflagellates pre-Hurricane Harvey, then transitioned to primarily freshwater species (cyanobacteria and green algae) immediately following the flooding event. The results of high cyanobacteria %Chl a accompanied by high concentration of zeaxanthin further confirmed that cyanobacteria biomass could probably be enhanced by high discharge of phosphorus-rich floodwaters (Schindler, 1977). In addition, the relatively higher fraction of diatom observed during survey 1 in comparison to survey 2 was likely associated with the rapid nutrient uptake rate of diatoms under high nutrient loading conditions after the freshwater inflows (Örnólfsdóttir et al., 2004). The decline of diatoms and chlorophyte versus slightly increased cyanobacteria observed during survey 2 could be due to the more rapid depletion of nutrients after the flooding event. Some cyanobacteria species are nitrogen (N₂) fixers, which could succeed in low nitrogen (N) waters (Howarth et al., 1988), and thus likely outcompeted diatoms and chlorophytes under more seasonal conditions during survey 2. Further, the presence of green algae and cyanobacteria could as well as be explained by the clarity and turbidity gradient of water. Quigg et al. (2010) reported that when turbidity was relatively high, chlorophyte dominated over cyanobacteria with biomass ratio of chlorophyte/cyanobacteria larger than 2, which supported our observations that chlorophyte dropped off Biogeosciences Discuss., https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-2018-504 Manuscript under review for journal Biogeosciences

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whilst cyanobacteria increased during survey 2. Highest cyanobacteria percentage in East Bay also suggest that calm and stratified waters may accelerate cyanobacteria growth as the buoyancy regulation mechanism of cyanobacteria is possibly restricted by water mixing. Dinoflagellates increased during survey 2 and showed overall preference for high-salinity waters. Previous Imaging FlowCytobot (IFCB) observations from Biological and Chemical Oceanography Data Management Office (BCO-DMO) showed that algal blooms after hurricanes in the nGOM were initially dominated by diatoms, and subsequently transitioned to blooms of dinoflagellates, likely associated with nutrient ratios and chemical forms of nutrient supplied by the flood waters and rainfall. Generally, silica (Si) is essential for the growth and reproduction of diatoms, whereas dinoflagellates show preference of higher phosphorus (P) compared to some other groups (Heisler et al., 2008). In this study, distribution of fucoxanthin and diatom %Chl a decreased from survey 1 to 2; in contrast, peridinin and dinoflagellate %Chl a showed overall increased elevation during survey 2. Nutrient supply ratio with low N:P or Si:P could be a contributor for shifting diatom-dominated community to dinoflagellates (Smayda et al., 1997). In addition, high concentrations of fucoxanthin and peridinin observed along the Houston Ship Channel, which was also shown in Steichen et al. (2018), might provide evidence that the ballast water addition from shipping vessels likely promote harmful species of dinoflagellates and diatoms (Steichen et al., 2015).

The localized cryptophyte-chlorophyte bloom that occurred ~60d after Hurricane Harvey, was captured by both satellite and in-situ measurements. This bloom might not be associated with the flooding events of Hurricane Harvey, and could be linked to nutrient-rich runoff flowing into GB, reflecting sensitivity and rapid response of phytoplankton community to nutrient input in GB. In shallow and turbid estuaries, human activities are altering the environment and causing phytoplankton changes in diversity and biomass to occur more frequently. Dugdale et al. (2012) reported that variations of phytoplankton community in San Francisco estuary could be attributed to anthropogenically-elevated concentration of ammonium, which restrain the uptake of nitrate, thus reducing the growth and reproduction of larger diatoms and shifting towards smaller species (e.g., cryptophyte and green flagellate). Furthermore, 'pink oyster' events related to alloxanthin of cryptophyte in GB occurred more frequently in recent years (Paerl et al., 2003). The eastern side of Houston Ship Channel in mid bay region was reported as the area most heavily impacted by the intense 'pink oyster' events. Previous studies and present observations both suggest that this cryptophyte-chlorophyte dominated bloom could be promoted by the nutrient-driven eutrophication from Houston Ship Channel, urbanization and industrialization along the upper San Jacinto River complex.

4.4 Photo-Physiological State of Natural Phytoplankton Community

In this study, the CDOM-corrected F_V/F_M and σ_{PSII} likely represented a composite of both phytoplankton taxonomy and physiological stress (e.g., nutrient and mixing). Typically, lowest N and P concentrations were measured closest to the nGOM (Quigg et al., 2009). Phytoplankton community living close to nGOM were usually in poor nutrient conditions and would be expected to maximize their light harvesting (increase in σ_{PSII}) due to nutrient stress. Simultaneously, phytoplankton cells might experience a decline of functional proportion of reaction centers of PSII (RCII), which means decrease in F_V/F_M . The observed low levels of F_V/F_M and Chl a/TP versus high values of σ_{PSII} and AP/TP adjacent to the nGOM showed agreement with previous studies that the fraction of carotenoids to be higher for nutrient-poor cultures (Schitüter et al., 1997; Holmboe et al., 1999). In contrast, phytoplankton in well-mixed waters (station 7-9) might experience abundant nutrients due to the resuspension associated with the cyclonic gyre around Smith Points; as such, their photosynthetic machinery were likely healthier. Aiken et al. (2004) documented that the Chl a/TP ratio was relatively higher when plants were in good growing conditions, which is similar to the observations in this study that phytoplankton have higher fraction of Chl a accompanying higher rate of photosynthetic efficiency (F_V/F_M) under nutrient replete conditions. Overall, the spatial pattern of F_V/F_M and σ_{PSII} in GB could be mainly attributed to physiological stress of nutrient

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and hydrodynamics conditions since the light availability (PAR) during the sampling period did not vary much spatially at the surface. Furthermore, FIRe measurements (F_V/F_M and σ_{PSII}) also presented a taxonomic signal super-imposed upon environmental factors. Each cluster with different dominant taxa (well mixed group, chlorophyte & cryptophyte, cyanobacteria, and dinoflagellate & haptophyte) displayed different physiological characteristics. The taxonomic sequence of eukaryotic groups from high F_V/F_M , low σ_{PSII} to low F_V/F_M , high σ_{PSII} in the present observations showed potential effects of phytoplankton cell size corresponding to diatoms, chlorophyte, and cryptophyte, dinoflagellate and haptophyte. The prokaryote (cyanobacteria) had relatively high values of F_v/F_m and low values of σ_{PSII} ; this agreed with F_V/F_M for some species of nitrogen-fixing cyanobacteria that can range from 0.6 to 0.65 (Berman-Frank et al., 2007). Yet, it is difficult to separate the contributions from environmental factors and taxonomic variations to the changes of FIRe fluorescence signals since all these parameters are inter-related. Different phytoplankton groups/sizes will display distinct physiological traits (F_V/F_M and σ_{PSII}) when experiencing considerable environmental pressures. Thus, effects of physiological stress on F_V/F_M and σ_{PSII} variations for natural samples can only be determined when taxonomic composition can be excluded as a contributor (Suggett et al., 2009).

5 Conclusions

Field measurements (salinity, pigments, optical properties and physiological parameters) and ocean color observations from Sentinel-3A OLCI were used to study the effects of extreme flooding associated with Hurricane Harvey on the phytoplankton community structures, pigment distributions and their physiological state in GB. Flooding effects made the entire GB transition from saline to freshwater then back to a more marine influenced system. The band ratio (Red/NIR) of R_{rs_insitu} were negatively correlated with HPLC-measured Chl a in an exponential relationship (R² > 0.93). The satellite-retrieved Chl a maps yielded much higher Chl a concentration on September 29, 2017 compared to October 29-30, 2017 with lowest Chl a observed adjacent to the shelf waters. Phytoplankton taxonomic composition was further retrieved from R_{rs_insitu} using a 10-species IOP inversion algorithm. Phytoplankton community generally dominated by estuarine marine diatoms/dinoflagellates before flood events, was altered to freshwater species of green algae (chlorophyte) and cyanobacteria during survey 1. It also showed an increase of small-size species including cryptophyte, haptophyte, prochlorophyte and cyanobacteria accompanied by a decline of chlorophyte and diatoms during survey 2.

Phytoplankton diagnostic pigments which were retrieved using an NNLS inversion model based on Sentinel-3A OLCI Chl a maps also confirmed spatiotemporal variations of phytoplankton taxonomy. The NNLS-retrieved diagnostic pigment maps showed overall spatiotemporal agreement with HPLC measurements with R² ranging from 0.39 (violaxanthin) to 0.98 (Chl a). Chl b showed overall higher concentrations during survey 1 compared to survey 2, and its distribution displayed highly similar patterns with Chl a. Alloxanthin showed especially low concentration in the main basin area but very high concentration in a localized bloom area adjacent to the San Jacinto River mouth. Zeaxanthin presented significantly different patterns with other pigments during both the surveys. Concentration of peridinin was overall low inside of GB, and generally displayed high concentrations in areas where Chl a was low.

Finally, the retrieved phytoplankton taxonomic compositions from the IOP inversion algorithm were linked with FIRe-measured photosynthetic parameters (F_V/F_M and σ_{PSII}) to assess the effects of physiological stress and taxonomic contributions on phytoplankton photosynthetic performance. An inverse relationship between the F_V/F_M and σ_{PSII} were observed during both surveys. Phytoplankton community in well-mixed waters (around Smith Point) showed high F_V/F_M against low σ_{PSII} ; in contrast, the area with poor nutrient conditions (adjacent to the shelf waters), showed low F_V/F_M and elevated σ_{PSII} . Taxonomic signatures of F_v/F_m and σ_{PSII} revealed diverse physiological characteristics with dinoflagellate-haptophyte group showing the lowest F_V/F_M versus the highest σ_{PSII} , whereas prokaryote

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783 of cyanobacteria-dominated group showed high values of F_V/F_M and low values of σ_{PSII} . Overall, this

784 study using field and ocean color data combined with inversion algorithms provided novel insights on

785 phytoplankton response to an extreme flood perturbation in a turbid estuarine environment based on

786 taxonomy, pigment composition and physiological state of phytoplankton.

787

788 Data availability. Data from field measurements are available upon request from the corresponding

789

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791 Author contributions. BL and ED conceived and designed the research; BL, ED and IJ collected and 792

processed the data; BL analyzed the data and all authors contributed to writing the paper.

793

794 Competing interests. The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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