

The impact of the South-East Madagascar bloom on the oceanic CO₂ sink.

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Abstract

We described new sea surface CO₂ observations in the southwestern Indian Ocean obtained in January 2020 when a strong bloom event occurred south-east of Madagascar and extended eastward in the oligotrophic Indian Ocean subtropical domain. Compared to previous years (1991-2019) we observed very low fCO₂ and dissolved inorganic carbon concentrations (C_T) in austral summer 2020, indicative of a biologically driven process. In the bloom the anomaly of fCO₂ and C_T reached respectively -33 μatm and -42 μmol.kg⁻¹ whereas no change is observed for alkalinity (A_T). In January 2020 we estimated a local maximum of air-sea CO₂ flux at 27°S of -6.9 mmol.m⁻².d⁻¹ (ocean sink) and -4.3 mmol.m⁻².d⁻¹ when averaging the flux in the band 26-30°S. In the domain 25-30°S/50-60°E we estimated that the bloom led to a regional carbon uptake of about -1 TgC.month⁻¹ in January 2020 whereas this region was previously recognized as an ocean CO₂ source or near equilibrium during this season. Using a neural network approach that reconstructs the monthly fCO₂ fields we estimated that when the bloom was at peak in December 2019 the CO₂ sink reached -3.1 (±1.0) mmol.m⁻².d⁻¹ in the band 25-30°S, i.e. the model captured the impact of the bloom. Integrated in the domain restricted to 25-30°S/50-60°E the region was a CO₂ sink in December 2019 of -0.8 TgC.month⁻¹ compared to a CO₂ source of +0.12 (± 0.10) TgC.month⁻¹ in December when averaged over the period 1996-2018. Consequently in 2019 this region was a stronger CO₂ annual sink of -8.8 TgC.yr⁻¹ compared to -7.0 (±0.5) TgC.yr⁻¹ averaged over 1996-2018. In austral summer 2019/2020, the bloom was likely controlled by relatively deep mixed-layer depth during preceding winter (July-September 2019) that would supply macro and/or micro-nutrients as iron to the surface layer to promote the bloom that started in November 2019 in two large rings in the Madagascar Basin. Based on measurements in January 2020, we observed relatively high N₂ fixation rates (up to 18 nmol N.L⁻¹.d⁻¹) suggesting that diazotrophs could play a role on the bloom in the nutrient depleted waters. The bloom event in austral summer 2020, along with the new carbonate system observations, represents a benchmark case for complex biogeochemical model sensitivity studies (including N₂-fixation process and iron supplies) for a better understanding on the origin and termination of this still “mysterious” sporadic bloom and its impact on ocean carbon uptake in the future.

1 Introduction

In the south-western subtropical Indian Ocean a phytoplankton bloom, called the South-East Madagascar Bloom (SEMB) occurs sporadically during austral summer (December-March, Fig. 1). Based on first years of SeaWiFS satellite Chlorophyll-a (Chl-a) observations in 1997-2001 the SEMB has been first recognized by Longhurst (2001) as the largest bloom in the subtropics, extending over 3000 x 1500 km in the Madagascar Basin. When the SEMB is well developed like in February-March 1999 (Longhurst, 2001), monthly mean Chl-a concentrations are higher than 0.5 mg.m⁻³ within the bloom contrasting with the low Chl-a in the surrounding oligotrophic waters (< 0.05 mg.m⁻³). For reasons still not fully understood, this bloom occurred in

44 specific years (1997, 1999 and 2000) but was absent or moderate during a strong El Niño - Southern Oscillation
45 (ENSO) event in 1998. Following the first study by Longhurst (2001), the frequency, extension, levels of Chl-a
46 concentration and processes that would control the SEMB and its variability have been investigated in several
47 studies (Srokosz et al, 2004; Uz, 2007; Wilson and Qiu 2008; Poulton et al 2009; Raj et al 2010; Huhn et al
48 2012; Srokosz and Quartly 2013). Most of these studies were based on Chl-a derived from remote sensing and
49 altimetry. They all concluded the need for *in-situ* observations to understand the initiation, extend and
50 termination of the SEMB. To our knowledge *in-situ* biogeochemical observations (Chl-a, phytoplanktonic
51 species and nutrients) within the SEMB region were only obtained during the MadEx experiment in February
52 2005 (Poulton et al 2009; Srokosz and Quartly 2013) a year when the bloom was not well developed (e.g. Uz,
53 2007; Wilson and Qiu 2008). The MadEx cruise was conducted above the Madagascar ridge and west of 51°E in
54 the Madagascar Basin. However, the eastward extension of the SEMB reached occasionally the central
55 oligotrophic Indian subtropics (longitude 70°E, Fig. 1b) where the bloom is transported and apparently bounded
56 by the South Indian Counter Current (SICC) around 25°S (Siedler et al 2006; Palastanga et al 2007; Huhn et al
57 2012; Menezes et al 2014). A recent analysis of the East Madagascar Current (EMC) and its retroflexion near
58 the southern tip of Madagascar also suggests that complex dynamic sometimes promotes the SEMB
59 (Ramanantsoa et al 2021). Modelling studies also suggested an eastward propagation of the SEMB through
60 advection or eddy transport originating from the south-east coast of Madagascar (Lévy et al 2007; Srokosz et al
61 2015; Dilmahamod, et al 2020) but a precise explanation of the internal (e.g. local upwelling, Ekman pumping,
62 meso-scale dynamics) or external processes (e.g. iron from rivers, coastal zones or sediments) at the origin of
63 this “mysterious” bloom is still missing.

64 The above studies have been recently synthesized by Dilmahamod et al (2019) who also proposed an
65 index to determine the level of the SEMB (strong, moderate or absent) based on the difference in Chl-a
66 concentrations between the western and eastern regions centered respectively around 55°E and 80°E at 24-28°S.
67 Quoting Dilmahamod et al (2019): “The South-East Madagascar Bloom is one of the largest blooms in the
68 world. It can play a major role in the fishing industry, as well as capturing carbon dioxide from the atmosphere”.
69 Although numerous cruises measuring sea surface CO₂ fugacity (fCO₂) were conducted since the nineties in the
70 south-western Indian Ocean region (Poisson et al., 1993; Metzl et al., 1995; Sabine et al 2000; Metzl, 2009), the
71 impact of the SEMB on air-sea CO₂ fluxes was not previously investigated. This is probably because the bloom
72 was not strong enough at the time of the cruises to identify large fCO₂ anomalies in this region. Therefore, the
73 temporal (seasonal and/or inter-annual) fCO₂ variability in the western and subtropical Indian Ocean is generally
74 interpreted by thermodynamics as the main control, biological activity and mixing processes being secondary
75 driving processes in this oligotrophic region (Louanchi et al, 1996; Metzl et al 1998; Sabine et al 2000;
76 Takahashi et al 2002). On the other hand, all climatologies based on observations suggest rather homogeneous
77 sea surface fCO₂ or dissolved inorganic carbon (C_T) fields in this region (Takahashi et al, 2002, 2009, 2014; Lee
78 et al, 2000; Sabine et al 2000; Bates et al 2006; Lauvset et al 2016; Zeng et al 2017; Broullón et al 2020; Keppler
79 et al 2020; Fay et al 2021; Gregor and Gruber 2021). This suggests that, although the SEMB and its extent have
80 been regularly observed since 1997 it seems to have a small effect on fCO₂ or C_T spatial variations. However, in
81 austral summer 2019-2020, the SEMB was particularly pronounced reaching monthly mean Chl-a concentrations
82 up to 2.5 mg.m⁻³ at the peak of the bloom in December 2019. It was clearly much stronger than previously
83 observed, at least since 1997 (Fig. 1) and reflected in fCO₂ observations in this region (Fig. 2).

84 In this analysis, we describe new oceanic carbonate system observations in surface waters obtained in
85 January 2020 associated to this very strong SEMB event and compare these observations with climatological
86 values and previous fCO₂ data when the SEMB was not well developed. We also evaluate the impact of the

87 bloom on air-sea CO₂ fluxes based on both observations and reconstructed monthly fCO₂ fields in the South-
88 Western Indian Ocean.

89

90 **2 Data collection**

91

92 As part of the long-term OISO project (Ocean Indien Service d'Observations), the OISO-30 cruise was
93 conducted in austral summer 2020 (from 2-January to 6-February 2020) onboard the R.V. Marion-Dufresne in
94 the Southern Indian Ocean (part of the track shown in Fig. 1). During the cruise, underway continuous surface
95 measurements were obtained for temperature (SST), salinity (SSS), fugacity of CO₂ (fCO₂), total alkalinity (A_T)
96 and total dissolved inorganic carbon (C_T). Analytical methods followed the protocol used since 1998 and
97 previously described for other OISO cruises (e.g. Metzl et al 2006; Metzl, 2009; Lo Monaco et al, 2021). Sea
98 surface temperature and salinity were measured continuously using a SBE45 thermosalinograph. Salinity data
99 were controlled by regular sampling and conductivity measurements (Guildline Autosol 8400B and using IAPSO
100 standard/OSIL). The SST and SSS data were also checked against CTD's surface records when available.
101 Accuracies of SST and SSS are respectively 0.005 °C and 0.01. Total alkalinity (A_T) and total dissolved
102 inorganic carbon (C_T) were measured continuously in surface water (3 to 4 sample/hour) using a potentiometric
103 titration method (Edmond, 1970) in a closed cell. For calibration, we used the Certified Referenced Materials
104 (CRMs, Batch #173) provided by Pr. A. Dickson (SIO, University of California). Replicate measurements were
105 occasionally performed at the same location. At 30°S/54°E for 4 replicates the mean A_T and C_T concentrations
106 were respectively 2328.6 (±0.7) and 1998.2 (±1.6) μmol.kg⁻¹. At 35°S/53.5°E for 6 replicates the mean A_T and
107 C_T were 2340.5 (±0.6) and 2060.6 (±1.1) μmol.kg⁻¹. Overall, we estimated the accuracy for both A_T and C_T
108 better than 3 μmol.kg⁻¹ (based on the analysis of CRMs). Like for all other OISO cruises, the surface underway
109 A_T and C_T data will be available at NCEI/OCADS ([www.ncei.noaa.gov/access/ocean-carbon-data-
110 system/oceans/VOS_Program/OISO.html](http://www.ncei.noaa.gov/access/ocean-carbon-data-system/oceans/VOS_Program/OISO.html)).

111 For fCO₂ measurements, sea-surface water was continuously equilibrated with a "thin film" type
112 equilibrator thermostated with surface seawater (Poisson *et al.*, 1993). The xCO₂ in the dried gas was measured
113 with a non-dispersive infrared analyser (NDIR, Siemens Ultramat 6F). Standard gases for calibration (271.39,
114 350.75 and 489.94 ppm) were measured every 6 hours. To correct xCO₂ dry measurements to fCO₂ *in situ* data,
115 we used polynomials given by Weiss and Price (1980) for vapour pressure and by Copin-Montégut (1988, 1989)
116 for temperature (temperature in the equilibrium cell measured using SBE38 was on average 0.28°C warmer than
117 SST during the OISO-30 cruise). The oceanic fCO₂ data for this cruise are available in the SOCAT data product
118 (version v2021, Bakker et al., 2016, 2021) and at NCEI/OCADS (Lo Monaco and Metzl, 2021). Note that when
119 added to SOCAT, the original fCO₂ data are recomputed (Pfeil et al., 2013) using temperature correction from
120 Takahashi et al (1993). Given the small difference between SST and equilibrium temperature, the fCO₂ data
121 from our cruises are identical (within 1 μatm) in SOCAT and NCEI/OCADS. For coherence with other cruises
122 we used the fCO₂ values as provided by SOCAT.

123 During the OISO-30 cruise, silicate (Si) concentrations in surface and water column samples (filtered at
124 0.2 μm, poisoned with 100 μl HgCl₂ and stored at 5°C) were measured onshore by colorimetry (Aminot and
125 Kérouel, 2007; Coverly et al. 2009). Based on replicate measurements for deep samples collected during OISO
126 cruises we estimate an error of about 0.3 % in Si concentrations.

127 Unfiltered and 20μm-prefiltered seawater (~ 10m depth) were collected for the determination of net N₂
128 fixation in both the total fraction and the size-fraction lower than 20 μm using the ¹⁵N₂ gas-tracer addition
129 method (Montoya et al., 1996). By difference, we calculated N₂ fixation rates related to the microphytoplankton

130 size class ($> 20\mu\text{m}$). Immediately after sampling, 2.5ml of 99% $^{15}\text{N}_2$ (Eurisotop) were introduced to 2.3L
131 polycarbonate bottles through a butyl septum. $^{15}\text{N}_2$ tracer was added to obtain a $\sim 10\%$ final enrichment. Then,
132 each bottle was vigorously shaken and incubated in an on-deck incubator with circulating seawater and equipped
133 with a blue filter to simulate the level of irradiance at the sampling depth. After 24h-incubation, 2.3L were
134 filtered onto pre-combusted 25mm GF/F filters, and filters were stored at -25°C . Sample filters were dried at
135 40°C for 48h before analysis. Nitrogen (N) content of particulate matter and its ^{15}N isotopic ratio were quantified
136 using an online continuous flow elemental analyzer (Flash 2000 HT), coupled with an Isotopic Ratio Mass
137 Spectrometer (Delta V Advantage via a conflow IV interface from Thermo Fischer Scientific). N_2 fixation rates
138 were calculated by isotope mass balanced as described by Montoya et al. (1996). The detection limit for N_2
139 fixation, calculated from significant enrichment and lowest particulate nitrogen is estimated to $0.04 \text{ nmol N L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$.
140

141 Other data used in this analysis (e.g. Chl-a from remote sensing, ADCP, current fields, fCO_2 , A_T , C_T
142 from other cruises or from climatology) will be referred to in the next sections when appropriate.
143

144 **3 Reconstructed fCO_2 and air-sea CO_2 fluxes**

145
146 In order to complement the results based on regional *in-situ* data and evaluate the CO_2 sink anomalies in
147 this region back to 1996, we also used results from a neural network model that reconstructs monthly fCO_2 fields
148 and air-sea CO_2 fluxes. The fCO_2 fields were obtained from an ensemble-based feed-forward neural network
149 model (named CMEMS-LSCE-FFNN) described in Chau et al (2022). This ensemble-based approach is an
150 updated and improved version of the model by Denvil-Sommer et al (2019). Model results are annually qualified
151 and distributed by the European Copernicus Marine Environment Monitoring Service (CMEMS, Chau et al
152 2020). To take into account the period in austral summer 2020 when the SEMB was particularly strong, we used
153 the latest temporal extension of the model which relies on the most recent version of the SOCAT data-base
154 (SOCAT-v2021, Bakker et al, 2021). For a full description of the model, access to the data and a statistical
155 evaluation of fCO_2 reconstructions please refer to Chau et al (2022).
156

156

157 **4 Results**

158

159 **4.1 Sea surface fCO_2 , C_T and A_T distributions in the SEMB in January 2020**

160

161 In January 2020, the SEMB occupied a large region in the Southern section of the Mozambique
162 Channel, the Natal Basin, the Mozambique Plateau and the Madagascar Basin. It extended eastward with meso-
163 scale and filaments structures reaching 60°E in the southern subtropical Indian Ocean where Chl-a was up to 0.5
164 mg.m^{-3} (Fig. 1a). Compared to previous years, the spatial structure of the 2020 SEMB event resembled to the
165 one that occurred in 2008 (e.g. Dilmahamod et al 2019), albeit with much higher Chl-a concentrations in 2020
166 (Fig. 1b, c). As opposed to previous years, the 2020 SEMB event started in November 2019 in the Madagascar
167 Basin and was pronounced in two large rings with monthly mean Chl-a concentrations reaching 1 mg.m^{-3} at
168 $25^\circ\text{S}/52^\circ\text{E}$ (Supp Mat Fig. S1). These large Chl-a rings were likely linked to eddies and/or to the retroflexion of
169 the South-East Madagascar current, SEMC (Lutjeharms 1988; Longhurst 2001; de Ruijter et al 2004;
170 Ramanantsoa et al 2021) as seen in the surface currents fields in November 2019 (Supp Mat Fig. S2). In
171 December 2019, the surface of the SEMB extended in all directions and a maximum monthly mean Chl-a
172 concentration up to 2.9 mg.m^{-3} was detected around $25^\circ\text{S}/51.5^\circ\text{E}$ (Supp Mat Fig. S1). The SEMB was less

173 developed in late February 2020 (Supp Mat Fig. S1). Whatever the origin and multiple drivers of the SEMB in
174 2020 through internal or external forcing (Dilmahamod et al 2019) this rather strong biological event would
175 significantly drawdown the C_T concentration and fCO_2 during several weeks from November 2019 to February
176 2020 in this region.

177 Along the OISO-30 cruise track at 54°E in January 2020, the underway surface measurements started at
178 26.5°S for fCO_2 and at 27°S for A_T and C_T . Along this track the sea surface Chl-a concentrations were relatively
179 lower south of 27°S (0.2-0.4 mg.m⁻³) than north of 27°S (0.8-1.2 mg.m⁻³, Fig. 3a). This was associated with a
180 rapid decrease in fCO_2 (Figure 3a) and salinity normalized C_T ($N-C_T = C_T*35/SSS$) concentration (Fig. 3b).
181 Because there was a sharp gradient in salinity at that latitude (Supp Mat Fig. S3), no significant change was
182 observed for salinity normalized A_T ($N-A_T = A_T*35/SSS$) along the track (Fig. 3b). The structure of the currents
183 from November 2019 to January 2020 (Supp Mat Fig. S2 and Fig. S4) suggests that the extension of the bloom
184 was linked to the retroflexion of the SEMC occurring around 24-26°S, one of the forms of the SEMC
185 retroflexion defined by Ramanantsoa et al (2021) that would transport nutrients eastward in the Indian Ocean.
186 The current field in January 2020 presents a complex meandering structure deflecting southward at 51°E and
187 recirculating northward around 53°E (Supp Mat Fig. S4). Further east, at 54°E along the cruise track, the ADCP
188 data recorded during the OISO-30 cruise revealed the presence of a relatively strong westward current (up to 40
189 cm.s⁻¹) centered around 28-29°S identified down to 600m. As opposed to the SEMC retroflexion this westward
190 current would bring high salinity and low nutrients from the subtropics.

191 The mean properties and differences within and out of the peak bloom are listed in Table 1. Although
192 the ocean was warmer in the bloom at 27°S (about +1°C, Supp Mat Fig. S3), fCO_2 was clearly much lower at
193 that location. The fCO_2 difference within and out of the peak bloom was -33 μ atm based on fCO_2 measurements.
194 Given the error associated to the fCO_2 calculations using A_T and C_T data (± 13 μ atm, Orr et al 2018) the observed
195 fCO_2 difference is confirmed with fCO_2 calculated with the A_T-C_T pairs (difference of -34.5 μ atm, last column in
196 Table 1). If one takes into account the effect of the warming on fCO_2 (Takahashi et al, 1993), the fCO_2 in the
197 bloom would be 323.5 μ atm. Therefore the solely impact of the biological processes in the bloom reduced fCO_2
198 by -49.3 μ atm. This is a very large effect and coherent with the observed difference in $N-C_T$ of -23.4 μ mol.kg⁻¹
199 within and out of the bloom and almost no change in $N-A_T$ (Table 1).

200 The atmospheric xCO_2 was 410 ppm in January 2020, equivalent to 397 μ atm for fCO_{2atm} (dashed line
201 in Fig. 3a, where xCO_2 in ppm was corrected to fCO_2 according to Weiss and Price, 1980). Consequently the
202 region was a strong CO_2 sink within the bloom area with maximal ΔfCO_2 value of -60 μ atm at 27°S (where
203 $\Delta fCO_2 = fCO_{2oce} - fCO_{2atm}$). As a comparison at this location (28-24°S-52.5°E) the climatological ΔfCO_2 value for
204 January (Takahashi et al 2009) was estimated between +4 to +10 μ atm, i.e. a small source or near equilibrium. It
205 is well known that gas exchange at the air-sea interface depends on both ΔfCO_2 and the wind speed (e.g.
206 Wanninkhof 2014). The net flux of CO_2 across the air-sea interface (FCO_2) was calculated according to the
207 following equation (1):

208

$$209 \quad FCO_2 = k K_0 \Delta fCO_2 \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

210

211 Where K_0 is the solubility of CO_2 in seawater calculated from *in situ* temperature and salinity (Weiss, 1974) and
212 k (cm.h⁻¹) is the gas transfer velocity expressed from the wind speed U (m.s⁻¹) (Wanninkhof, 2014) and the
213 Schmidt number Sc (Wanninkhof, 1992) following equation (2):

214

215 $k = 0.251 U^2 (Sc/660)^{-0.5}$ (Eq. 2)

216
217 In the region 25°S-30°S/45°E-60°E the average monthly wind speed (GMAO, 2015) was 7.9 m.s⁻¹ in
218 January 2020. This value is the same as derived from 6-hourly wind speed products at location 27°S-54°E, 7.8
219 (±2.3) m.s⁻¹ (Supp Mat Fig. S5a). Using equation (1) and (2), this leads to a CO₂ sink of -6.9 mmol.m².d⁻¹ at 27°S
220 in January 2020 whereas in the climatology (Takahashi et al 2009) this region was a CO₂ source of +0.72
221 mmol.m².d⁻¹ in January. In the band 26-30°S where Chl-a varied between 1.2 and 0.2 mg.m⁻³ (Fig. 3) the CO₂
222 sink was still significant on average, -4.3 (± 1.3) mmol.m².d⁻¹.

223 Integrated over 1 month and a surface of the bloom of 3000x1500 km (Longhurst, 2001), i.e. 4.5 Mkm²,
224 the carbon uptake in January 2020 would be -7.2 (± 2.2) TgC.month⁻¹. However, based on the Chl-a distribution
225 in January 2020 (Fig. 1a), we estimated the surface of the bloom east of 45°E to range between 1 and 1.7 Mkm²
226 depending the criteria based on Chl-a concentrations (respectively Chl-a = 0.16 mg.m⁻³ for a major bloom or
227 Chl-a = 0.07 mg.m⁻³ for a bloom, Dilmahamod et al 2019). This leads to an integrated CO₂ sink ranging between
228 -1.7 and -2.7 TgC.month⁻¹ probably more realistic than when using the surface of the bloom as defined by
229 Longhurst (2001). When restricted to the surface of the domain 25-30°S/50-60°E (0.6 Mkm²) the integrated CO₂
230 sink in January 2020 based on fCO₂ observations would be -1.0 TgC.month⁻¹.

231 Given the fCO₂ distribution observed in January 2020 and the strong CO₂ sink evaluated within the
232 SEMB, we then compared the 2020 observations with a period when the bloom was absent (or small) and for
233 which fCO₂ data were also available for comparison.

234

235 **4.2 Comparison with a low bloom year: 2005**

236

237 For the period 1998-2016, Dilmahamod et al (2019) synthesized the season and years (their Table 1)
238 with strong or moderate SEMB and years when no bloom was clearly observed, such as in 2005. This is
239 confirmed from the Chl-a time series constructed around 27°S that showed low Chl-a in 2005 compared to 2004
240 and 2006 (Fig. 1 b, c). However, it is worth to note that Poulton et al (2009) and Srokosz and Quartly (2013)
241 analyzed in-situ observations collected in this region in February 2005 during the MadEx cruise. They detected
242 that the bloom was present albeit with low Chl-a concentrations (maximum of 0.2 mg.m⁻³). Based on surface
243 observations (Chl-a, species and nutrients) along a NE-SE transect between 47°E and 51°E, Srokosz and Quartly
244 (2013) reported that Chl-a variability around 50°E was strongly linked to eddy field as first noticed by Longhurst
245 (2001). They also observed from Seasoar fluorimeter data that the deep chlorophyll maximum (DCM) around
246 70-100m was relatively homogenous along the cruise track and not associated with eddy field as opposed to
247 surface Chl-a. Excepted for silicate that showed some low “patchy” concentrations (<1 μmol.kg⁻¹) associated
248 with filaments of higher Chl-a in the Madagascar Basin (Poulton et al, 2009), no significant variation was
249 observed for other nutrients during MadEx in February 2005 and this was probably the case for fCO₂.

250 Here we revisited the SEMB in austral summer 2005 using data collected during the OISO-12 cruise
251 (expocode 35MF20050113 in the SOCAT data product, Bakker et al, 2016). To compare with 2020, we selected
252 the fCO₂ data collected along the same track around 54°E in February 2005 (note that the fCO₂ data collected in
253 January 2005 to the east, around 60°E, were almost the same, not shown). In the region east of Madagascar, the
254 bloom was discernible around 25°S in January 2005 with maximum Chl-a concentrations around 0.3 mg.m⁻³ at
255 50°E (Supp. Mat. Fig. S6). In January, the bloom appeared to extend eastward following a large meandering
256 structure around 25°S and in February 2005 the bloom is even detectable at 65°E-70°E where Chl-a
257 concentration was on average 0.19 (± 0.03) mg.m⁻³ within the core of the bloom. Interestingly this seems to be

258 centered in the core of the SICC (Huhn et al 2012) as revealed at 25°S by the ADCP observations obtained in
259 2005 along the OISO-12 cruise track as well as in surface current fields (Supp. Mat. Fig. S7). Like in November
260 2019 (Supp. Mat. Fig. S2) there was a clear signal of the SEMC retroflection in January 2005 that could explain
261 the structure and eastward propagation of the bloom. The retroflection located around 26°S-48°E in 2005 is close
262 to the location of the so-called “early retroflection” defined by Ramanantsoa et al (2021) as opposed to the
263 canonical retroflection of the SEMC found at the southern tip of Madagascar. The early retroflection of the
264 SEMC would import nutrient-rich water from the coast in the Madagascar Basin and trigger the phytoplankton
265 bloom.

266 The bloom in 2005 was low (Srokosz and Quartly, 2013; Dilmahamod et al, 2019) and thus it had no
267 impact on the $f\text{CO}_2$ distribution. This is shown in Fig. 4 where we compared $f\text{CO}_2$ observations along the same
268 track in February 2005 and January 2020. We present the results for $\Delta f\text{CO}_2$ along with sea surface Chl-a for each
269 period. In 2005 the sea surface $f\text{CO}_2$ was pretty homogeneous with values near the atmospheric $f\text{CO}_2$ level
270 ($\Delta f\text{CO}_2$ close to 0). Although one would expect to observe higher $f\text{CO}_2$ 15 years later due to anthropogenic
271 carbon uptake by the ocean driven by the increase in atmospheric CO_2 (and thus about the same $\Delta f\text{CO}_2$), both
272 $f\text{CO}_2$ and $\Delta f\text{CO}_2$ in 2020 were much lower than in 2005 especially north of 27°S (Fig. 4, Table 2). In austral
273 summer 2005, the region was near equilibrium with a $\Delta f\text{CO}_2$ mean value of $+8.6 (\pm 7.1) \mu\text{atm}$. This is close to
274 the climatology constructed for a reference year in 2005 (Takahashi et al, 2014, Table 2) and this is expected as
275 the climatology included the $f\text{CO}_2$ data from OISO cruises obtained in this region in 1998-2008. On the opposite,
276 in January 2020 we observed a strong sink (maximum $\Delta f\text{CO}_2 = -60 \mu\text{atm}$ at 27°S). As the temperature was about
277 the same for both periods, the difference in $f\text{CO}_2$ was not due to thermodynamics and the CO_2 sink observed in
278 2020 was directly linked to the strong SEMB that occurred in austral summer.

279 The average monthly wind speed was also about the same in 2020 (7.9 m.s^{-1}) and 2005 (8.5 m.s^{-1}) (Supp
280 Mat. Fig. S5b). Consequently the difference in the air-sea CO_2 flux between the two periods was controlled by
281 $\Delta f\text{CO}_2$. In the region 26-30°S/55°E, the mean CO_2 flux in 2005 was estimated at $+1.2 \text{ mmol.m}^{-2}.\text{d}^{-1}$ (a source)
282 against $-4.3 \text{ mmol.m}^{-2}.\text{d}^{-1}$ (a sink) in 2020.

283 284 **5 Discussion**

285 286 **5.1 A large biologically driven $f\text{CO}_2$ negative anomaly in 2020 relative to the anthropogenic uptake of CO_2**

287
288 Like for $f\text{CO}_2$, the N-C_T concentrations observed in the SEMB in January 2020 ($1950 \mu\text{mol.kg}^{-1}$, Fig.
289 3b, Table 1) were low compared to the climatology (Takahashi et al 2014). At 24°S-28°S/54°E, the N-C_T
290 climatological value in January range between 1970 and 1980 $\mu\text{mol.kg}^{-1}$. As the climatology produced by
291 Takahashi et al (2014) was referred to a nominal year 2005, one would expect to observe higher N-C_T
292 concentrations in 2020 due to anthropogenic CO_2 uptake.

293 In the Indian Ocean the decadal change of anthropogenic CO_2 (C_{ant}) was first evaluated by Peng et al
294 (1998) comparing data obtained in 1978 and 1995 north of 20°S. For the upper layer in the tropics (20°S-10°S)
295 Peng et al (1998) estimated an increasing rate of C_{ant} of around $1.1 \mu\text{mol.kg}^{-1}.\text{yr}^{-1}$. More recently, Murata et al
296 (2010) evaluated the changes of C_{ant} concentrations between 1995 and 2003 in the South Indian Ocean
297 subtropics. They estimated a mean increase of C_{ant} of $+7.9 (\pm 1.1) \mu\text{mol.kg}^{-1}$ over 8.5 years in the upper layers
298 that corresponds to a trend of $+0.93 (\pm 0.13) \mu\text{mol.kg}^{-1}.\text{yr}^{-1}$. In a global context, Gruber et al (2019 a, b)
299 estimated an accumulation of anthropogenic CO_2 (C_{ant}) of $+14.3 (\pm 0.3) \mu\text{mol.kg}^{-1}$ in surface waters of the south-

300 western Indian Ocean over 1994-2007, corresponding to an increasing rate in C_{ant} of $+1.10 (\pm 0.02) \mu\text{mol.kg}^{-1}.\text{yr}^{-1}$.
 301 ¹. To confirm these C_{ant} trends that were based on the C_{ant} differences between two periods (1995-1978, 2003-
 302 1995 or 2007-1994) we calculated the C_{ant} concentrations and long-term trend using water-column data available
 303 in 1978-2020 in the region $30\text{-}26^{\circ}\text{S}/55^{\circ}\text{E}$. We extracted the data from the most recent GLODAP quality
 304 controlled data product (version GLODAPv2-2021, Lauvset et al 2021a,b) completed with data from OISO
 305 cruises in 2012-2018. To calculate C_{ant} we used the TrOCA method developed by Touratier et al. (2007).
 306 Because indirect methods are not suitable for evaluating C_{ant} concentrations in surface waters due to gas
 307 exchange and biological activity we selected the data in the layer 100-250m below the DCM. C_{ant} concentrations
 308 were calculated for each sample in that layer and then averaged for each period to estimate the trend (Fig. 5). As
 309 expected the C_{ant} concentrations in subsurface increased significantly from 1978 to 2020 and the long-term trend
 310 of $+1.05 (\pm 0.08) \mu\text{mol.kg}^{-1}.\text{yr}^{-1}$ over this period is close to previous estimates based on different periods and
 311 approaches (Peng et al 1998; Murata et al, 2010; Gruber et al, 2019a).

312 Furthermore the C_{ant} trend of around $+1 \mu\text{mol.kg}^{-1}.\text{yr}^{-1}$ is coherent with an increase in C_{T} of between
 313 $+0.93$ and $+1.17 \mu\text{mol.kg}^{-1}.\text{yr}^{-1}$ derived from the oceanic $f\text{CO}_2$ increase over the period 1991-2007 estimated
 314 from winter and summer $f\text{CO}_2$ data ($+1.75$ and $+2.2 \mu\text{atm.yr}^{-1}$ respectively, Metzl, 2009) assuming constant
 315 alkalinity and temperature. With the new data available after 2007, we have revisited the $f\text{CO}_2$ long-term trend
 316 by selecting only the austral summer data in the region around $27^{\circ}\text{S}\text{-}55^{\circ}\text{E}$ (Fig. 2). For the period 1991-2019 we
 317 estimated a $f\text{CO}_2$ trend of $+1.55 (\pm 0.40) \mu\text{atm.yr}^{-1}$. This is less than the atmospheric $f\text{CO}_2$ increase of $+1.89 (\pm$
 318 $0.03) \mu\text{atm.yr}^{-1}$ over the same period suggesting that the CO_2 sink increased at this location. In a broader context,
 319 Landschützer et al (2016) suggested that the carbon uptake tended to increase slightly in 1998-2011 in the
 320 Subtropical Indian Ocean (their figure 3). We will see that such a change in the CO_2 fluxes in this region is also
 321 revealed in the CMEMS-LSCE-FFNN model (Chau et al, 2022). Note that if at that location $27^{\circ}\text{S}/55^{\circ}\text{E}$ (Fig. 2)
 322 the ocean $f\text{CO}_2$ data in 2020 were also used to estimate the trend (1991-2020), the rate of $f\text{CO}_2$ would be only
 323 $+1.09 (\pm 0.48) \mu\text{atm.yr}^{-1}$. i.e. about half the atmospheric $f\text{CO}_2$ trend. The $f\text{CO}_2$ observations in 2020 represent a
 324 large negative anomaly at local scale and thus caution is needed when incorporating such an anomaly to detect
 325 and interpret long-term change in the CO_2 sink, at least in the south-western Subtropical Indian Ocean.

326 To compare the $f\text{CO}_2$ trends listed above with the anthropogenic rate of around $+1.0 \mu\text{mol.kg}^{-1}.\text{yr}^{-1}$ (Fig.
 327 5), we have calculated C_{T} from the $f\text{CO}_2$ data and A_{T} derived from salinity (described below). For this
 328 calculation we used the CO2sys program (version CO2sys_v2.5, Orr et al., 2018) developed by Lewis and
 329 Wallace (1998) and adapted by Pierrot et al. (2006) with K1 and K2 dissociation constants from Lueker et al.
 330 (2000) and KSO_4 constant from Dickson (1990). The total boron concentration is calculated according to
 331 Uppström (1974). For nutrients we fixed phosphate concentrations at 0 and silicate at $2.0 (\pm 0.6) \mu\text{mol.kg}^{-1}$ (the
 332 mean of 79 surface observations measured during previous OISO cruises in the region $22^{\circ}\text{S}\text{-}30^{\circ}\text{S}$). To derive A_{T}
 333 from salinity we used the surface A_{T} observations obtained since 1998 in the subtropical south-western Indian
 334 Ocean (OISO cruises). From these data we estimated a robust relationship (Fig. 6):

$$335 \quad A_{\text{T}} (\mu\text{mol.kg}^{-1}) = 62.1601 * \text{SSS} + 123.1 \text{ (rms= } 7.0 \mu\text{mol.kg}^{-1}, r= 0.89, n= 3400) \quad (\text{Eq. 3})$$

336
 337
 338 The use of other relationships (e.g. Millero et al 1998; Lee et al 2006) would change slightly the A_{T}
 339 concentrations but not the interpretation on the C_{T} trend in this region. The time-series of salinity normalized C_{T}
 340 ($\text{N-C}_{\text{T}} = C_{\text{T}} * 35 / \text{SSS}$) in the box $27^{\circ}\text{S}\text{-}28^{\circ}\text{S}/55^{\circ}\text{E}$ shows that N-C_{T} increased over the period 1991-2019 at a rate
 341 of $+0.70 (\pm 0.24) \mu\text{mol.kg}^{-1}.\text{yr}^{-1}$ (Fig. 7). This is somehow lower than the anthropogenic trend of $+1 \mu\text{mol.kg}^{-1}.\text{yr}^{-1}$

342 ¹ suggesting that in addition to the anthropogenic CO₂ uptake, natural processes could also have a small impact
343 on the C_T and fCO₂ trends in surface waters over almost 30 years.

344 Having an estimate of the C_T change due to anthropogenic CO₂ (around +1 μmol.kg⁻¹.yr⁻¹) and taking
345 into account this effect, the climatological N-C_T concentration of 1973 μmol.kg⁻¹ for 2005 (Takahashi et al 2014)
346 corrected for the year 2020 would be 1988 μmol.kg⁻¹ in the region of interest. This is higher by up to +36
347 μmol.kg⁻¹ than the observed N-C_T in January 2020 in the SEMB (Table 1, Fig. 7). When correcting the
348 climatological value to the observed C_T trend of +0.7 μmol.kg⁻¹.yr⁻¹, the N-C_T in 2020 would be 1983.5 μmol.kg⁻¹
349 ¹, i.e. +32.5 μmol.kg⁻¹ higher than the observed value in January 2020. The N-C_T anomaly in January 2020 is
350 also large compared to the mean N-C_T seasonal amplitude of 20 μmol.kg⁻¹ generally observed in the South
351 Indian subtropics (Metzl et al 1998; Takahashi et al 2014). We also note that climatological N-A_T concentrations
352 of 2295 μmol.kg⁻¹ for January (Takahashi et al 2014) are very close to those we observed in January 2020 (Table
353 1, Fig. 3b). Therefore the low fCO₂ and strong CO₂ sink in 2020 in the SEMB is due to a large drawdown of C_T,
354 i.e. not driven by temperature changes or alkalinity.

355

356 5.2 Specificities of the SEMB bloom in 2020

357

358 Based on previous studies it is likely that the biologically driven reduction of C_T in the SEMB under
359 depleted sea surface nitrate concentrations was associated with the process of N₂ fixation (Uz, 2007). The
360 hypothesis that diazotrophy would play a role in the temporal C_T (and thus fCO₂) variability is supported by the
361 observation of large N₂-fixing phytoplankton in the SEMB region in 2005 during MadEx cruise (Poulton et al
362 2009). These authors found that the filamentous cyanobacteria *Trichodesmium* was most abundant south of
363 Madagascar (over the Madagascar ridge) whereas diatom-diazotroph associations (as *Rhizosolenia/Richelina*)
364 were mainly observed east of Madagascar (in the Madagascar Basin).

365 Our measurements in January 2020 showed high spatial variability of the N₂ fixation rate (range from
366 0.8 to 18.3 nmol N.L⁻¹.d⁻¹, Fig. 8). Such variability in the subtropical Indian ocean was also recently reported by
367 Hörstmann et al (2021) who measured N₂ fixation rates between 0.7 and 7.9 nmol N.L⁻¹.d⁻¹ in January-February
368 2017 in the same region (OISO-27 cruise) but when the SEMB was not pronounced (Fig. 1b, 1c) and when fCO₂
369 was high and above equilibrium (Fig. 2). Our results for silicate (Si) and N₂-fix observations are difficult to
370 interpret because few samples were collected along the track (Fig. 8). A maximum of N₂ fixation rate was
371 observed at 30°S that was not linked to changes in other properties. This local high N₂ fixation rate could be
372 related to *Trichodesmium* species but it was not sampled in January 2020. We also noted low Si concentrations at
373 27°S (0.6 μmol.kg⁻¹) associated with higher Chl-a and lower fCO₂ and C_T (Fig. 3). The low silicate might be
374 associated with the presence of diatom-diazotroph associations (DDA) as observed during the MadEx cruise
375 (Poulton et al 2009). In the bloom N₂ fixation increased northward from 28°S (factor ~5). Based on
376 measurements for different size fractions we observed that the N₂ fixation is mainly related to the fraction >
377 20μm (i.e. *Trichodesmium* and DDA) representing 88% (± 9%) of the N₂ fixation. “Hotspots” of large
378 diazotrophs (20-180 and 180-2000 μm) were also detected in other regions of the south-western Indian Ocean in
379 May 2010 during the TARA expedition (Pierella Karlusich et al, 2021).

380 At global scale, the presence of N₂-fixers in the south-western Indian Ocean has been detected from
381 satellite data (Westberry and Siegel, 2006; Qi et al 2020) and relatively high N₂ fixation rates in austral summer
382 in this region were also derived from N₂-fix data using a machine learning approach (Tang and Cassar, 2019;
383 Tang et al, 2019). A large scale distribution of diazotrophy was further estimated from surface C_T observations
384 suggesting the presence of N₂-fixers in the Mozambique Channel and the South-Western Indian Ocean (Lee et

385 al, 2002; Ko et al, 2018). These authors used regional $N-C_T$ versus SST relationships to reconstruct the $N-C_T$
386 field from which they estimated the net carbon production (NCP) in nitrate depleted waters, a proxy for carbon
387 production by N_2 fixing microorganisms. The $N-C_T$ /SST relationship observed from in-situ data in January 2020
388 somehow mimics this process (Fig. 9), i.e. the inter-annual variability of the $N-C_T$ /SST relationship would also
389 inform on the NCP by N_2 -fixers.

390 Sea surface warming and shallow mixed-layer depth (MLD) are proposed to lead to optimal conditions
391 for the growth of the N_2 -fixers and generate the SEMB (e.g. Longhurst, 2001; Srokosz et al 2015). In austral
392 summer 2020, the ocean was not much warmer than previous years suggesting that temperature was not a
393 specific driver of the SEMB that year. To the contrary, in January 2020 the region experienced a particularly
394 shallow MLD which might have favored the bloom (observed MLD around 20m at 27°S-28°S, Supp. Mat. Fig.
395 S8 and Fig. S9).

396 As noted above, the strong bloom started in November 2019 and could be well identified in two large
397 rings (Supp. Mat. Fig. S1). In the northern ring at 25°S-52°E the MLD was deep (> 80m) during 3 consecutive
398 months in July-September 2019 and deeper compared to previous years (Supp. Mat. Fig. S10). This would have
399 injected nutrients (and maybe iron) in surface layers and when the MLD was shallow at that location (< 20 m)
400 the bloom developed in November 2019 and reached high Chl-a in December 2019 (up to 1.8 mg.m⁻³). As the
401 bloom covered a large region in December 2019 and January 2020 other specific processes like iron supply
402 (from dust, coastal zone, rivers or sediments) still need to be identified to fully explain 2020 SEMB dynamics.
403 The 2020 bloom was clearly recognized in Chl-a, fCO₂ and C_T observations but at that stage we have no clear
404 explanation on the process (or multiple drivers) that generated its extend and intensity.

405

406 **5.3 The changing ocean CO₂ uptake in the SEMB based on reconstructed pCO₂**

407

408 The results presented above were based on local underway fCO₂ observations and the integrated air-sea
409 CO₂ fluxes were thus extrapolated from local data on a surface representing the area covered by the bloom
410 leading to a carbon uptake of between -1.7 and -2.7 TgC.month⁻¹ in January 2020. In the domain 25-30°S/50-
411 60°E we estimated a CO₂ sink in January 2020 close to -1 TgC.month⁻¹.

412 To evaluate the impact of the bloom at the regional scale, we used monthly surface ocean pCO₂ and air-
413 sea CO₂ flux fields reconstructed by a neural network method as described in section 3 (CMEMS-LSCE-FFNN,
414 Chau et al, 2022). The SEMB was well developed in December 2019 and we can evaluate its impact on the air-
415 sea CO₂ fluxes by comparing December 2018 (low bloom) and December 2019 (strong bloom, Fig. 10). In the
416 region 25-30°S/50-60°E, the average pCO₂ in December 2019 (375.9 ±6.3 μatm) was much lower than in
417 December 2018 (396.6 ±6.0 μatm) and thus opposite of the expected pCO₂ increase due to anthropogenic CO₂
418 uptake. At the local scale, within the bloom at 27°S-54°E or at 29°S-50°E the CMEMS-LSCE-FFNN model
419 estimated low pCO₂ clearly linked to higher Chl-a in December 2019 (Supp. Mat. Fig. S11 and Fig. S12).
420 Consequently the region was a small CO₂ source of +0.07 (± 0.53) mmol.m⁻².d⁻¹ in December 2018 but a CO₂
421 sink in December 2019 of -3.1 (± 1.0) mmol.m⁻².d⁻¹. Integrated over the region 25-30°S/50-60°E the carbon
422 uptake changed from a small CO₂ source in December 2018 of +0.019 TgC.month⁻¹ to a CO₂ sink in December
423 2019 of -0.8 TgC.month⁻¹ (Supp Mat Fig. S13) close to the estimate derived from observations in January 2020
424 (-1.0 TgC.month⁻¹). Over the period 1996-2018, the model evaluates each year a CO₂ source in December
425 averaging +0.12 (± 0.10) TgC.month⁻¹. This suggests that in late 2019 the CMEMS-LSCE-FFNN model did
426 capture the effect of the SEMB on pCO₂ and CO₂ fluxes, leading to a stronger regional CO₂ annual sink in 2019
427 (-8.8 TgC.yr⁻¹) compared to previous years (Fig. 11). A major SEMB was previously recognized in 1999, 2006

428 and 2008 (Dilmahamod et al 2019; see also Fig. 1). The model overestimates the CO₂ sink in 2006 and 2008 but
429 surprisingly not in 1999 (Fig. 11). This is probably because the ocean was warmer from December 1998 to March
430 1999 inducing a positive anomaly of fCO₂ that would balance the decrease of fCO₂ due to the biological activity
431 in summer 1999. With the exception of 2008 when the SEMB was also strong (Fig. 1) the CO₂ sink anomalies in
432 1998-2018 appeared relatively modest compared to that observed in 2019 (Fig. 11).

433

434 **6. Conclusions**

435

436 The new observations in the South-Western Indian Ocean presented here showed that the fCO₂ and C_T
437 concentrations in January 2020 were very low and far from normal conditions since 1991. This is explained by
438 the strong SEMB event that started in November 2019 in this region and was well developed in December 2019
439 and January 2020. Thanks to the continuous ocean color satellite data since 1997, the time-series of Chl-a in this
440 region showed that the bloom was particularly strong in austral summer 2019/2020. We suspect that prior to
441 1997, the SEMB has been less intense as suggested by *in-situ* fCO₂ data in 1991-1994 (Fig. 2). We estimated
442 that the SEMB led to a regional carbon uptake of between -1.7 and -2.7 TgC.month⁻¹ in January 2020. The
443 variation of the regional ocean CO₂ sink due to the SEMB developed in late 2019 was also quantified with the
444 CMEMS-LSCE-FFNN model. Model results indicate a large anomaly in December 2019 that led to an annual
445 sink of -8.8 TgC.yr⁻¹, i.e. about 1 TgC.yr⁻¹ larger than previous years. The strong bloom in austral summer 2020
446 represents an interesting benchmark case to test models for a better understanding of the origin of the SEMB and
447 its impact on the regional ocean CO₂ sink. Future studies should target sensitivity analysis with complex
448 biogeochemical models including the CO₂ system, at different spatial resolution for the dynamics, and with (or
449 without) N₂ fixers (e.g. Monteiro et al 2010; Landolfi et al 2015; Paulsen et al 2017). This plankton functional
450 type is not yet included to models dedicated to this region (Srokosz et al 2015, Dilmahamod et al 2020). The new
451 fCO₂, C_T, A_T and N₂ fixation rate observations presented here along with historical data (e.g. SOCAT, Bakker et
452 al 2016, 2021, Fig. 2) could serve as a validation to compare periods with or without bloom. In the future, if the
453 SEMB as observed in 2020 is more frequent or becomes a regular situation and if organic matter is exported
454 below the surface mixed layer, this could represent a negative feedback to the ocean carbon cycle, i.e. the ocean
455 sink would be enhanced. As already noted by several authors (e.g. Dilmahamod et al 2019) dedicated studies in
456 this region at the scale of eddies coupling dynamical and biological processes, including the sampling of
457 plankton, nutrients (e. g. iron), but also the determination of rates (e.g. N₂-fixation) etc... would be relevant to
458 understand the processes controlling the SEMB and to evaluate its impact on the biological carbon pump.

459

460 **Data availability**

461 Data used in this study are available in SOCAT (www.socat.info) for fCO₂ surface data, in GLODAP
462 (www.glodap.info) for water-column data, at NCEI/OCADS (www.ncei.noaa.gov/access/ocean-carbon-data-system/oceans/VOS_Program/OISO.html)
463 for A_T-C_T surface data, at Jas-ADCP (<http://uhsic.soest.hawaii.edu/sadcp>) for ADCP data. The CMEMS-LSCE-FFNN model data are available at
464 E.U. Copernicus Marine Service Information (<https://resources.marine.copernicus.eu/products>).

465

466 **Authors contributions**

467 CLM and NM are co-Is of the ongoing OISO project. fCO₂, A_T and C_T data for OISO-30 were measured by
468 CLM, CL and CM and qualified by CLM and NM. Nutrients data for OISO-30 were measured and qualified by

470 CL. N₂-fix data for OISO-30 were measured and qualified by CR. CLM, NM, and JF qualified fCO₂, A_T and C_T
471 data for previous OISO cruises. MG and TTTC developed the CMEMS-LSCE-FFNN model and provided the
472 model results. NM started the analysis, wrote the draft of the manuscript and prepared the figures with
473 contributions from all authors.

474

475 **Competing interest**

476 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

477

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844 Tables

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847 Table 1: Mean properties and their difference observed in January 2020 within and out of the SEMB peak
 848 bloom. For $f\text{CO}_2$, results based on measurements ($f\text{CO}_{2\text{mes}}$) or calculated using $A_T\text{-}C_T$ pairs ($f\text{CO}_{2\text{cal}}$) are both
 849 listed. Standard deviations are indicated between brackets.

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851 Region	SST	SSS	Chl-a	C_T	$N\text{-}C_T$	A_T	$N\text{-}A_T$	$f\text{CO}_{2\text{mes}}$	$f\text{CO}_{2\text{cal}}$
852	$^{\circ}\text{C}$	PSU	$\text{mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$	$\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$	$\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$	$\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$	$\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$	μatm	μatm
854 Within Peak Bloom	26.39	35.22	0.97	1958.6	1951.7	2313.5	2305.4	339.5	329.8
855 (Around 27°S)	(0.21)	(0.05)	(0.18)	(2.5)	(1.0)	(2.7)	(0.7)	(2.5)	(2.0)
857 South of the Peak Bloom	25.32	35.48	0.41	2000.6	1975.2	2332.1	2302.4	372.8	364.3
858 (Around 28°S)	(0.10)	(0.03)	(0.04)	(2.2)	(1.4)	(1.9)	(1.3)	(2.2)	(2.6)
860 Difference In-Out	+1.07	-0.26	+0.56	-42.0	-23.4	-18.6	+3.0	-33.3	-34.5

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866 Table 2: Mean sea surface properties observed along the same track in January 2020 and February 2005 in the
 867 region $30^{\circ}\text{S}\text{-}26^{\circ}\text{S}/54^{\circ}\text{E}$. Also indicated the mean values in the same region and season from the climatology of
 868 Takahashi et al (2014) and the Chl-a climatology evaluated for January-February 1998-2019. Nb is the number
 869 of observations for SST, SSS and $f\text{CO}_2$. Standard deviations are indicated in bracket.

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871 Cruise	Period	SST	SSS	$f\text{CO}_2$	$\Delta f\text{CO}_2$	Chl-a
872		$(^{\circ}\text{C})$	(PSU)	(μatm)	(μatm)	$(\text{mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3})$
875 OISO-12	Feb-2005	25.443	35.240	374.2	+8.6	0.087
876 Nb= 115		(0.813)	(0.112)	(7.1)	(7.1)	(0.014)
877 OISO-30	Jan-2020	25.103	35.442	362.2	-36.2	0.489
878 Nb=217		(0.739)	(0.110)	(10.7)	(10.7)	(0.266)
880 Climatology	Jan-Feb	26.242	35.230	376.1	+10.5	0.105
881		(0.898)	(0.140)	(3.6)	(3.6)	(0.093)

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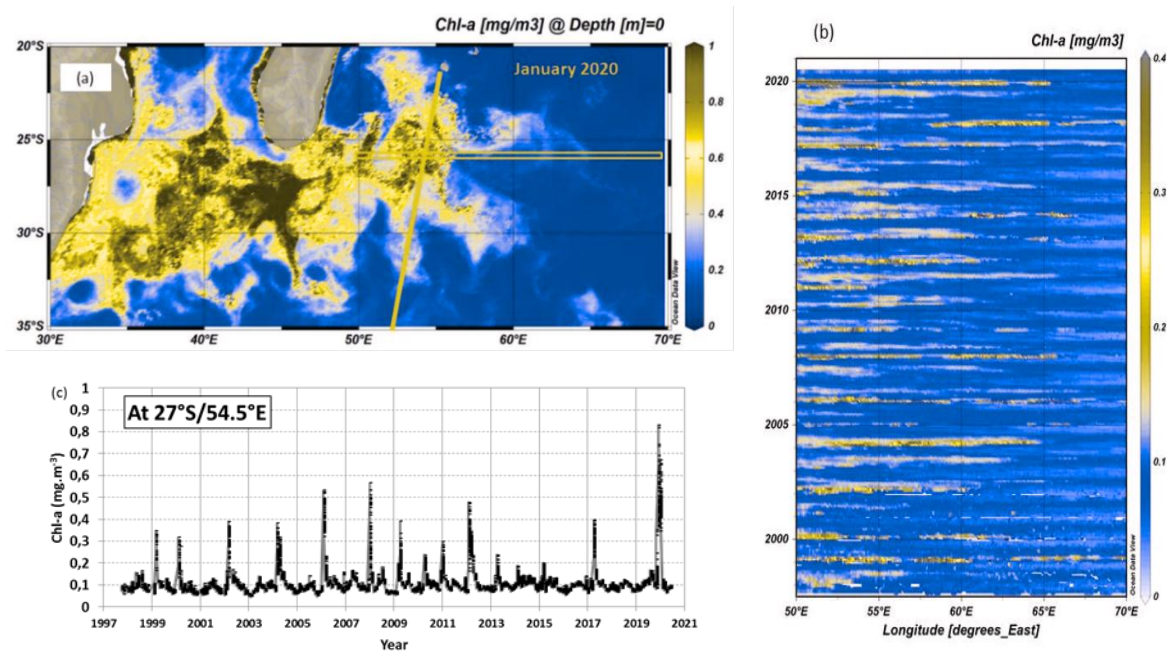
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887 Figures:

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889 Figure 1: (a): Map of monthly surface Chl-a ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$) in the South-Western Indian Ocean in January 2020 derived from
890 MODIS data (4x4km resolution), highlighting the bloom South and South-East of Madagascar. (b) Hovmoller Time-series
891 (Time/Longitude) of Chl-a ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$) around 26.5°S along $50\text{-}70^{\circ}\text{E}$ (Orange box in a). (c) Time-series of monthly Chl-a ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$)
892 in the box $27^{\circ}\text{S}/54.5^{\circ}\text{E}$ (only when valid number of pixels is greater than 5 for each point). The orange line on the map
893 identifies the track of the OISO-30 cruise. The figures highlight the high Chl-a concentration in austral summer 2020. Figures
894 (a) and (b) produced with ODV (Schlitzer, 2013) from data downloaded at <https://resources.marine.copernicus.eu/>
895 (OCEANCOLOUR_GLO_CHL_L4_REP_OBSERVATIONS_009_093), last access, 10-April-2021.
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909 Figure 2: Left: Tracks of cruises with sea surface $f\text{CO}_2$ data available in the South-Western Indian Ocean in SOCAT data
910 product (version SOCAT-v2021, Bakker et al, 2016; 2021). Right: Time-series of $f\text{CO}_2$ data (black dots) and mean $f\text{CO}_2$ for
911 each period (grey triangles) in the box 27°S - $28^\circ\text{S}/55^\circ\text{E}$ (black square in the map and insert on the right) for the months of
912 January and February (data available from 1991 to 2020 for austral summer). The red curve is the atmospheric $f\text{CO}_2$.
913 Although over 1991-2019 the ocean $f\text{CO}_2$ increased by $+1.55 (\pm 0.40) \mu\text{atm.yr}^{-1}$ (dashed grey line) due to anthropogenic CO_2
914 uptake, the $f\text{CO}_2$ recorded in January 2020 in the bloom were low compared to previous years with some values below 340
915 μatm , i.e. lower than in 1991. The January-February averaged $f\text{CO}_2$ in the same region derived from the 2005 climatology of
916 Takahashi et al (2014) is also plotted (orange diamond). Map on the left produced with ODV (Schlitzer, 2013).

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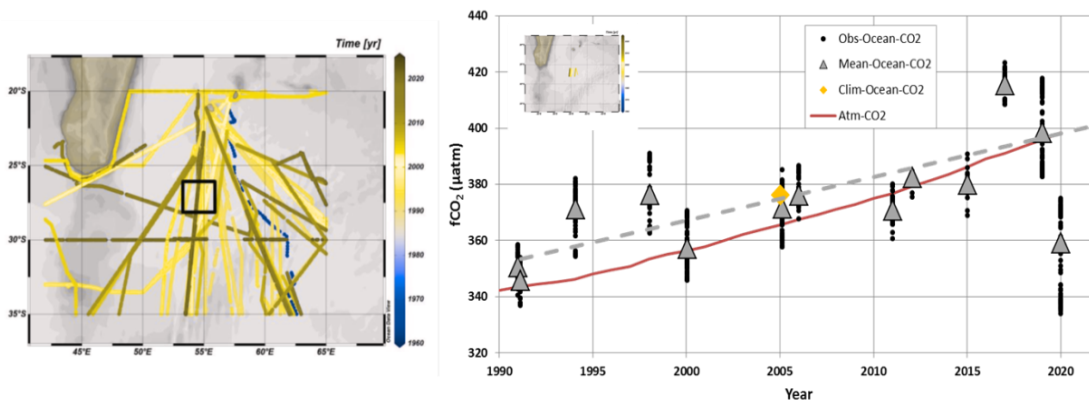
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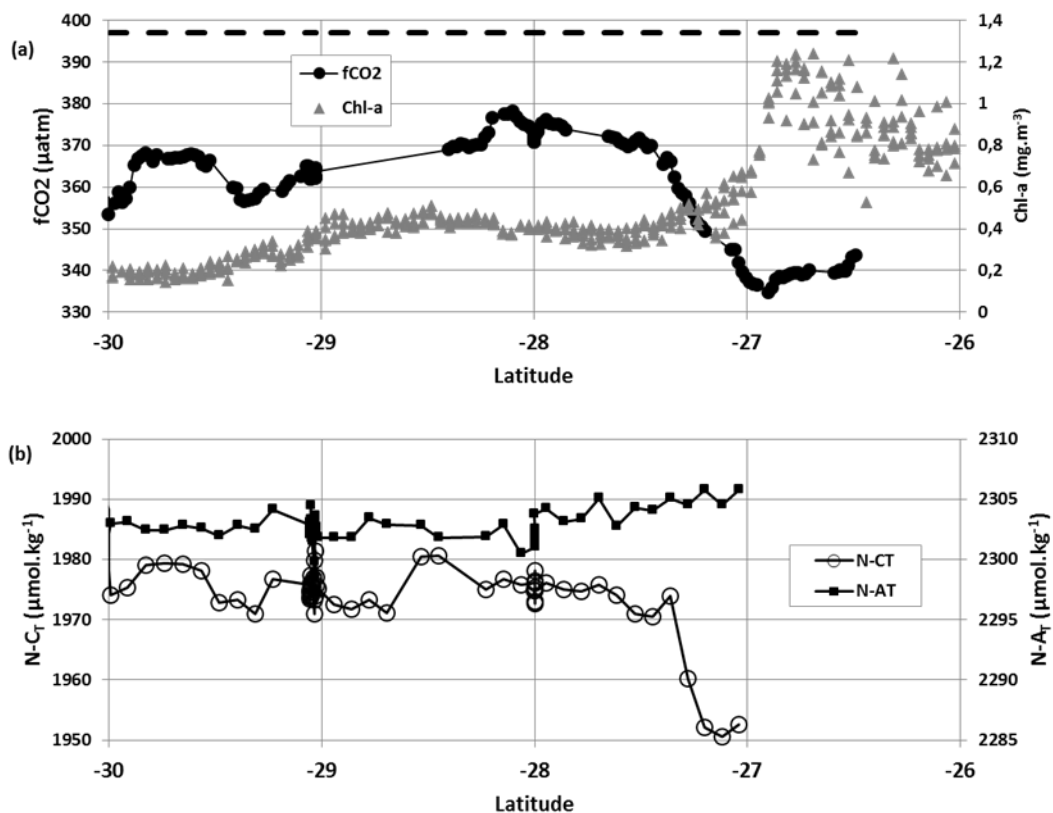
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941 Figure 3: Top (a): Sea surface $f\text{CO}_2$ (μatm) measured in January 2020 (black circles) and Chl-a ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$) from MODIS (4x4
942 km) along the cruise track (grey triangles). Bottom (b): Sea surface salinity normalized C_T ($N-C_T$, open circles) and salinity
943 normalized A_T ($N-A_T$, black squares) measured in January 2020 (both in $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$). Low $f\text{CO}_2$ and $N-C_T$ concentrations
944 recorded around 27°S were linked to high Chl-a (up to $1.2\text{ mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$) in the SEMB. In (a) the dashed-line represents the average
945 atmospheric $f\text{CO}_2$ for January 2020.

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968 Figure 4: ΔfCO_2 (μatm) ($\Delta fCO_2 = fCO_{2_{ocean}} - fCO_{2_{atm}}$) and sea surface Chl-a ($mg.m^{-3}$) distribution in January 2020 (black) and
969 February 2005 (orange) along the same track around $54^\circ E$ in the South-Western Indian Ocean. Here Chl-a is in log10 scale
970 and inverted. In 2020 when the SEMB was particularly strong ΔfCO_2 was negative (ocean CO_2 sink), whereas in 2005 when
971 the bloom was small, ΔfCO_2 was close to 0 or positive (ocean CO_2 source).

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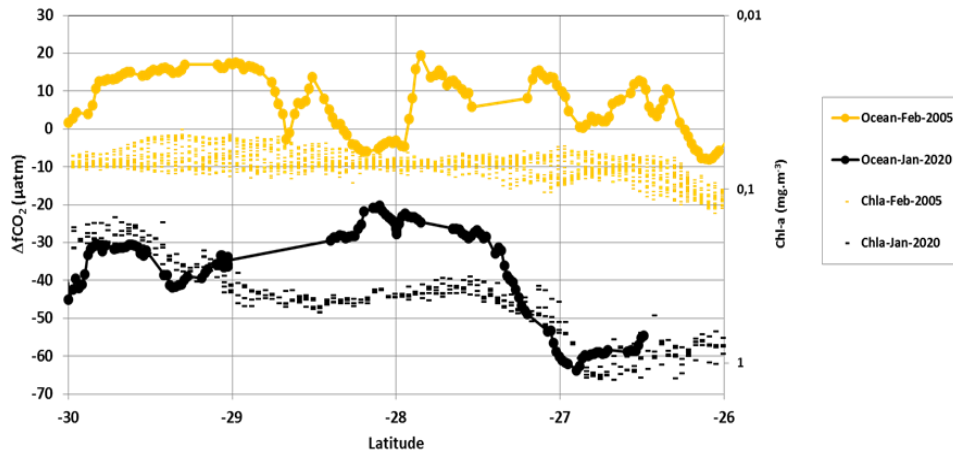
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988 Figure 5: Time-series of anthropogenic CO₂ concentrations (C_{ant}) estimated in subsurface (layer 100-250m) in the region 26-
989 30°S/55°E from the GLODAPv2-2021 data product (Lauvset et al, 2021,a,b) completed with OISO cruises in 2012-2018
990 (location of selected stations in the insert map). The figure shows the C_{ant} concentrations calculated for each sample (black
991 dots) and the C_{ant} averaged in the layer 100-250m for each period (grey triangles). Over the period 1978-2020, the C_{ant} long-
992 term trend is $+1.05 (\pm 0.08) \mu\text{mol.kg}^{-1}.\text{yr}^{-1}$ (dashed grey line).

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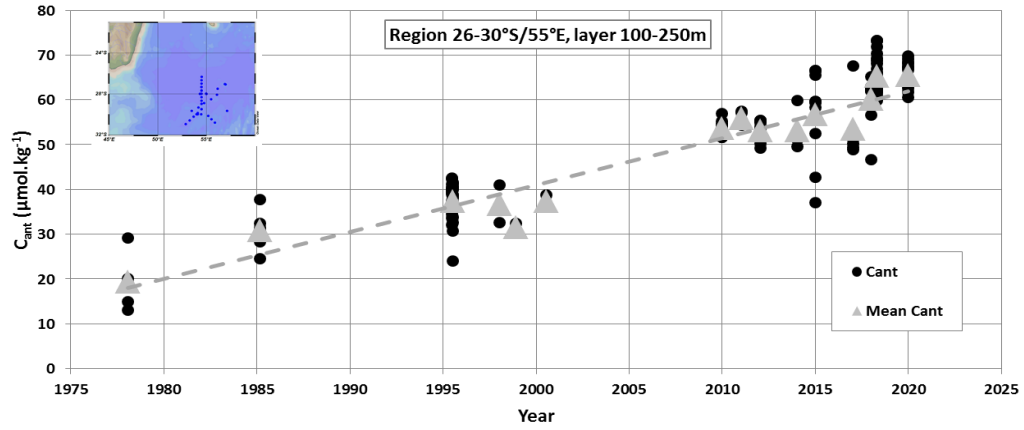
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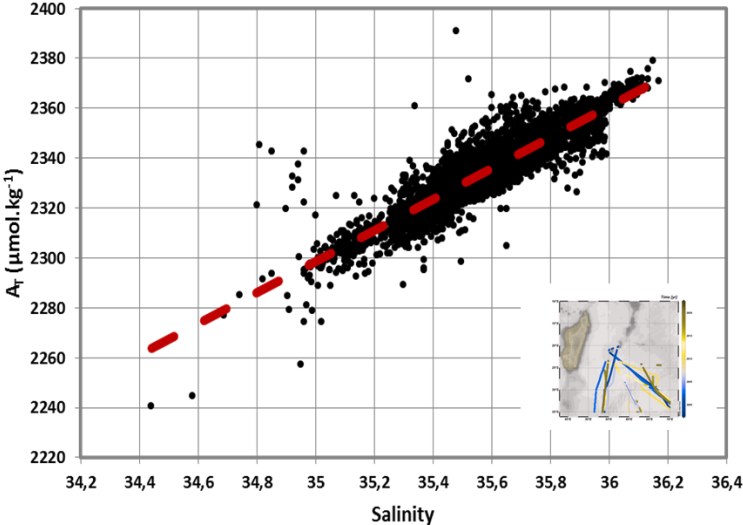
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Figure 6: Relationship of A_T ($\mu\text{mol.kg}^{-1}$) versus Salinity deduced from surface A_T data (n= 3400) obtained during OISO cruises in 1998-2020 in the South-Western Indian Ocean. For the subtropics we have selected the data in the region 35°S-20°S/50°E-70°E (track of cruises shown in the insert map). The relationship (red dashed) is $A_T = 62.1601 * \text{SSS} + 123.1$ and is used to calculate C_T concentrations in this region (Fig. 7). A_T data are available at NCEI/OCADS (https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/access/ocean-carbon-data-system/oceans/VOS_Program/OISO.html).



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Figure 7: Time-series of salinity normalized C_T ($N-C_T$ black dots) and their monthly mean (grey triangles) in the box 27°S - $28^\circ\text{S}/55^\circ\text{E}$ (insert map) calculated with $f\text{CO}_2$ observations (see Fig. 2) and reconstructed A_T from salinity (Figure 6). The figure shows data for the months of January and February (data available from 1991 to 2020 for austral summer). Over the period 1991-2019, the $N-C_T$ trend is $+0.70 (\pm 0.24) \mu\text{mol.kg}^{-1}$ (dashed grey line) reflecting in part the anthropogenic CO_2 uptake. Note the low $N-C_T$ in January 2020 in the SEMB compared to previous years with some values around $1950 \mu\text{mol.kg}^{-1}$ in 2020 as low as $N-C_T$ calculated in 1991. The $N-C_T$ concentration in the same region derived from the climatology of Takahashi et al (2014) is also plotted (orange diamond for the reference year 2005) as well as the climatological value for year 2020 after correcting for anthropogenic CO_2 (red diamond).

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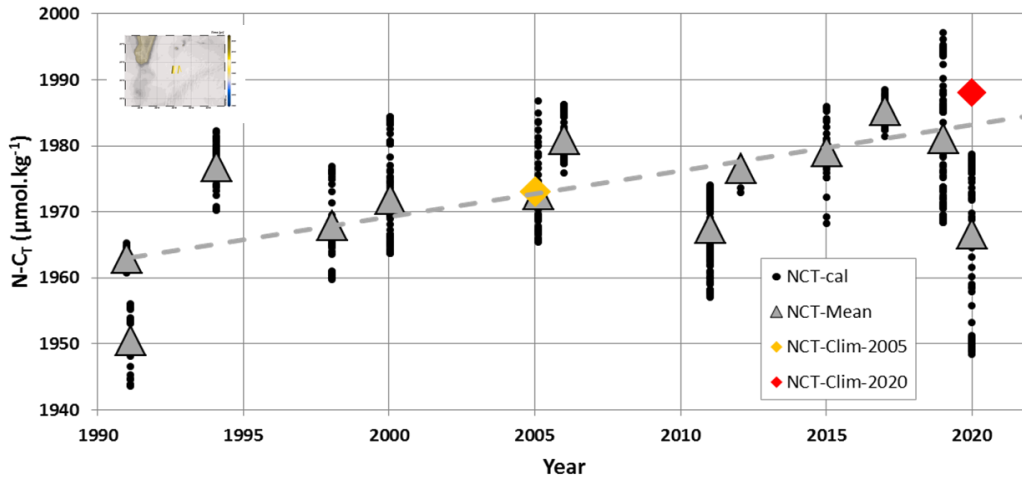
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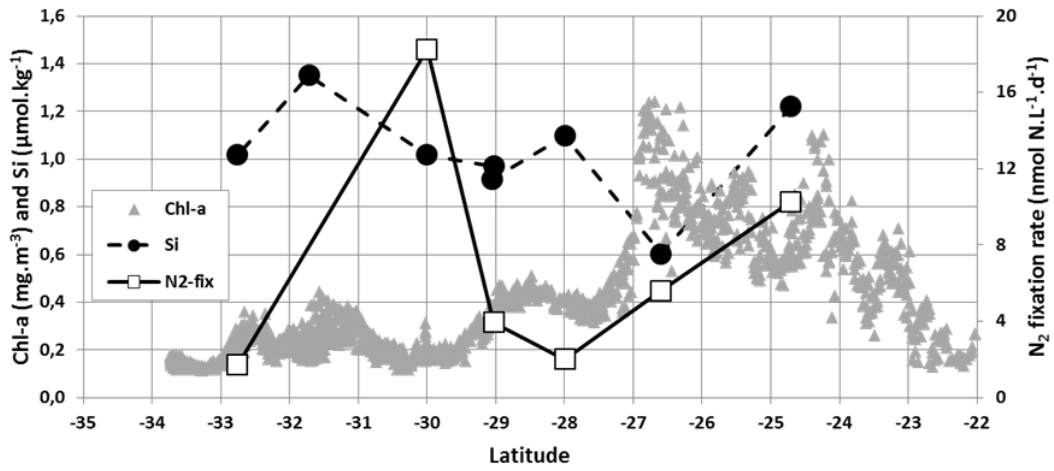
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Figure 8: Sea surface silicate concentration (Si, $\mu\text{mol.kg}^{-1}$, black circles, scale on the left), N_2 fixation rate ($\text{N}_2\text{-fix}$, $\text{nmol N.L}^{-1}.\text{d}^{-1}$, open squares, scale on the right) measured in January 2020 (OISO-30 cruise) and Chl-a (mg.m^{-3} , grey triangles, scale on the left) from MODIS (4x4 km) along the cruise track. The low Si concentration ($0.6 \mu\text{mol.kg}^{-1}$) recorded around 27°S was linked to higher Chl-a (up to 1.2mg.m^{-3}) in the SEMB.



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1089 Figure 9: The relationship between $N-C_T$ ($\mu\text{mol.kg}^{-1}$) and SST in surface waters based on OISO cruises observations in the
1090 south-western Indian Ocean in austral summer 2017, 2018, 2019 and 2020 along the same repeated track (insert map). In
1091 January 2020 during the strong SEMB the $N-C_T$ /SST relationship (black dots and black line) was much sharper than in 2017-
1092 2019 (grey dots and grey line) indicative of N_2 -fix production in nitrate depleted waters (e.g. Ko et al 2018).

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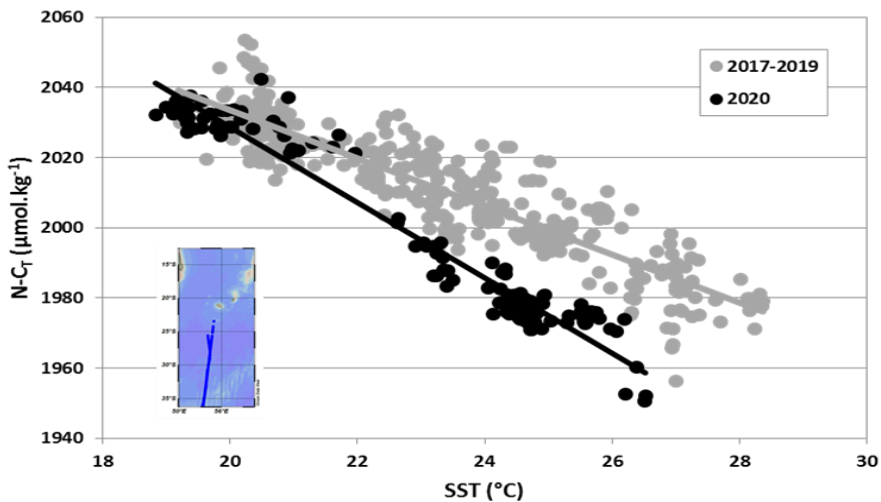
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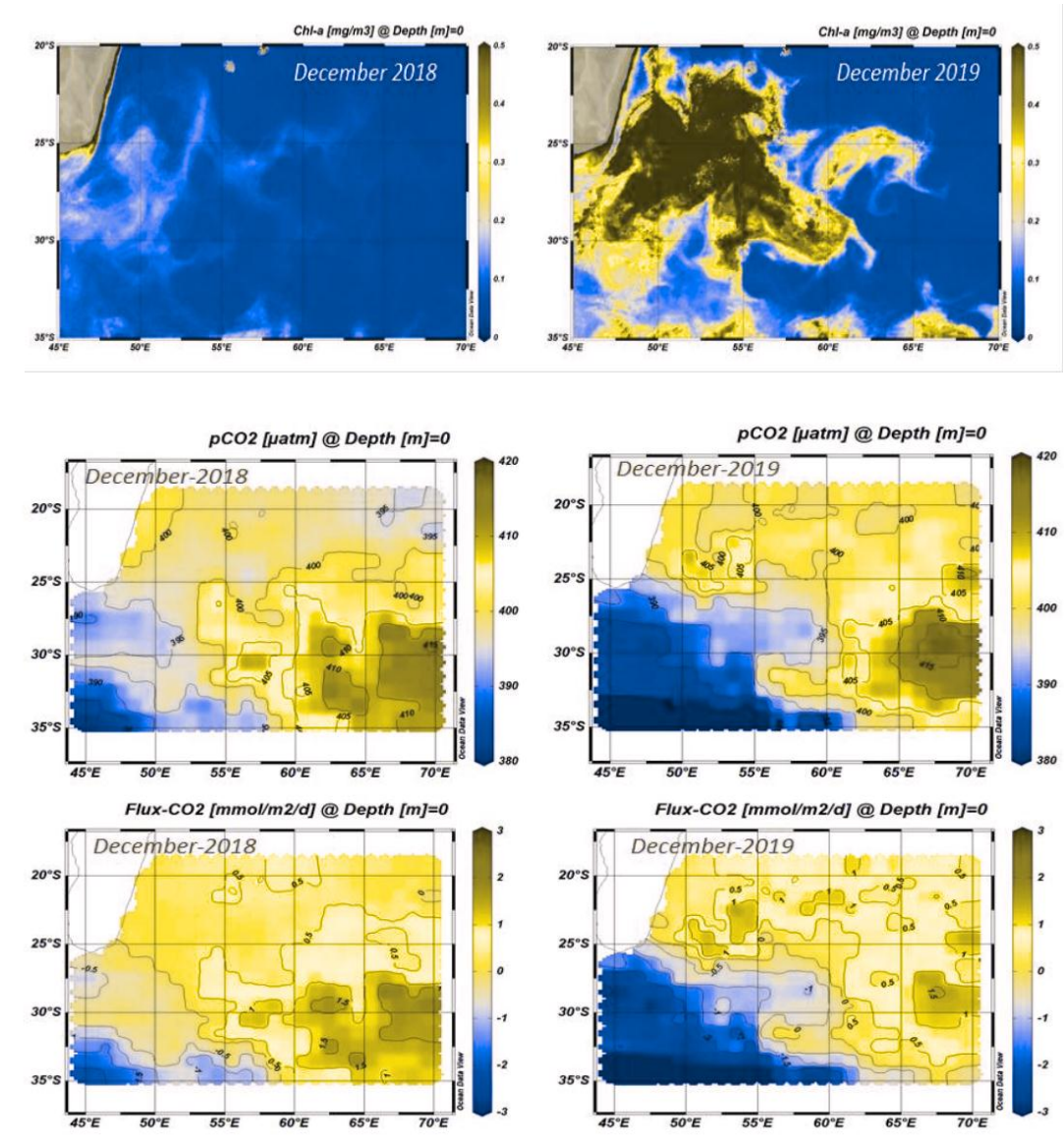
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Figure 10: Maps of Chl-a ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$), pCO_2 (μatm) and the air-sea CO_2 fluxes ($\text{mmol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{d}^{-1}$) in the South-Western Indian Ocean in December 2018 (left) and December 2019 (right). In December 2019 when the SEMB was particularly strong, the pCO_2 was lower and air-sea CO_2 fluxes were negative (ocean sink, in blue), whereas in December 2018 when the bloom was small, the fluxes were near equilibrium or positive in this region (ocean source, yellow-brown). Chl-a data downloaded at <https://resources.marine.copernicus.eu/> (OCEANCOLOUR_GLO_CHL_L4_REP_OBSERVATIONS_009_093), last access, 10-April-2021. Figures produced with ODV (Schlitzer, 2013).



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1150 Figure 11: Annual air-sea CO₂ flux (TgC.yr⁻¹) in the South-Western Indian Ocean (region 25-30°S/50-60°E) for the period
1151 1996-2019 from the CMEMS-LSCE-FFNN model. The carbon uptake progressively increased after 2007 with a maximum
1152 CO₂ sink estimated in 2019 when the SEMB was particularly strong.

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