

Vertical stratification-driven nutrient ratios regulate phytoplankton community structure in the oligotrophic western Pacific Ocean

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Abstract: Vertical stratification determines the variability of temperature and nutrient distribution in upper seawater, thereby affecting ocean primary production. Nutrients in the oligotrophic region vary in time and space, and thus, phytoplankton vary in their vertical distribution. However, differences in the vertical distribution of phytoplankton have not been studied systematically. This study investigated the spatial distribution pattern and diversity of phytoplankton communities in the western Pacific Ocean (WPO) in the autumn of 2016, 2017, and 2018 and the local hydrological and nutritional status. The Utermöhl method was used to analyze the ecological characteristics of phytoplankton in the surveyed sea area. In the three cruises investigated, we show universal relationships between phytoplankton and (1) vertical stratification, (2) N:P ratio, and (3) temperature and salinity. The potential influencing factors of physical and chemical parameters on phytoplankton abundance were analyzed using a structural equation model (SEM), which determined that the vertical stratification index was the most important influencing factor affecting phytoplankton abundance and indirectly affecting phytoplankton abundance by dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) and dissolved inorganic phosphorus (DIP). Vertical stratification determines the vertical distribution of the phytoplankton community structure in the WPO. The areas with strong vertical stratification (Groups A and B) are more conducive to the growth of cyanobacteria, and the areas with weak vertical stratification (Groups C and D) are more conducive to the bloom of diatoms and dinoflagellates.

Keywords: Vertical stratification; phytoplankton community; western Pacific Ocean; N:P ratio

1. Introduction

Phytoplankton account for more than half of global marine primary production and can actively maintain the stability of the entire ecosystem (Sun, 2011). Phytoplankton form the most important level of in the marine food chain (Qian et al., 2005), and changes in their community structure could alter the entire food web. They are widely distributed in various aquatic ecosystems and are marginally affected by fishing activities. Therefore, they are good indicators of marine environment health and climate change (Tang et al., 2017), and studying their community structure is crucial to marine ecology. Phytoplankton growth is closely related to nutrient concentration, and in the stable upper water, the thermocline prevents the upward replenishment of nutrients. Therefore, vertical stratification has a substantial effect on phytoplankton.

As the world's largest and deepest ocean, the Pacific Ocean covers a vast area and has a

1 complex geographic topography, with the deepest trenches on Earth and the highest absolute peaks
2 (Hu et al., 2016). The study area is located in the western Pacific Ocean (WPO) because the
3 equatorial current flows from east to west. Furthermore, warm seawater in the surface layer flows
4 with the current to the WPO, and in the equatorial region, strong solar irradiation heats the seawater
5 year-round. Under the influence of the dual factors, the average temperature of the ocean surface in
6 the WPO region is higher than 28 °C throughout the year. Through heated seawater, radiant heat,
7 and evaporative heat generated by heated seawater, radiative heat, and latent heat, the WPO is higher
8 than the equatorial eastern Pacific by 3–6 °C, and it has a profound impact on global climate change,
9 especially in China and Southeast Asia (Gordon et al., 1996; Hu et al., 2012; Hu et al., 2015). In
10 addition, the surface primary productivity is low, which is typical of oceans with high temperatures,
11 low salinity, and poor nutrition (Messié et al., 2006). The subtropical Pacific is stratified vertically
12 due to typhoons, upwellings, and various physical mixing processes (Emery et al., 1982). It also
13 causes the sea area to have a 100–150 m thermocline, and the high-temperature seawater in the
14 surface layer transfers heat to the atmosphere through sea-air interaction, which generates large
15 disturbances to the atmosphere, which is the area with the most tropical storms and typhoons formed
16 worldwide (Yan et al., 1992; Wang et al., 2012). Perennial tropical storms and typhoons cause heavy
17 rainfall in the sea, thereby reducing the nutrient content in the sea surface layer and restricting the
18 upwelling of nutrient-rich seawater in the lower layer through the thick thermocline layer and
19 making it difficult to reach the upper water column, which has the typical characteristics of high
20 temperature, high salinity, low nutrient, and low primary productivity (Messié et al., 2006;
21 Kawahata et al., 2002). Due to the Coriolis effect, after the trade wind current reaches the WPO, it
22 encounters the barrier of continental topography and changes its path again, some of which joins
23 the Equatorial Counter Current. However, most of it flows along the continental margin toward
24 higher latitudes and becomes the boundary between the nearshore and oceanic water systems. The
25 Philippine waters at 14–15°N are divided into the southward-moving Mindanao Current (MC) and
26 the northward-moving Kuroshio Current (KC) (Dong et al., 2012; Zhao, 2015). The Kuroshio
27 Current brings high-temperature and high-salinity seawater from the Pacific Ocean to a wide range
28 of offshore sea areas, which greatly impacts the ocean, meteorology, and hydrology of these sea
29 areas. These impacts could result in the movement of fishing grounds, waxing and waning of sea
30 fog, ice conditions in the Bohai and Yellow seas, and even flooding conditions in eastern China,
31 which are all important and related this phenomena (Christian et al., 2004; Gordon et al., 1996).
32 Phytoplankton brought by the Kuroshio water affect the structure of the biotic community in the
33 nearshore area under the effect of multiple factors. During phytoplankton blooms, the subsurface
34 chlorophyll maximum (SCM) usually occurs near or at the bottom of the light-permeable layer of
35 stable seawater (Yentsch, 1965). SCM distribution is closely related to the depth and intensity of the
36 thermocline, and mixing caused by solar radiation and wind is the driving force for regional
37 consistency and latitudinal differences in the thermocline.

38
39 Most ocean waters in the global oceans are oligotrophic. With global warming and increased
40 stratification of seawater, these zones are expected to expand, leading to decreases in marine nutrient
41 fluxes and primary productivity (Capotondi et al., 2012; Falkowski et al., 2007; Gruber, 2011).
42 Eutrophic zones with intermittent or irregular nutrient pulses alter the phytoplankton community
43 structure and are ideal for studying changes in phytoplankton community structure dynamics
44 (Lozier et al., 2011; Siokou-Frangou et al., 2010). Changes in seawater stratification and vertical

1 mixing may affect phytoplankton species composition, abundance, size structure, spatial
2 distribution, phenology, and productivity (Behrenfeld et al., 2006; Daufresne et al., 2009; Edwards
3 et al., 2004). These, in turn, affect the function and biogeochemistry of marine ecosystems
4 (Beaugrand et al., 2009; Hoegh-Guldberg et al., 2010). Therefore, studying the ecological and
5 physiological mechanisms that control changes in the phytoplankton community structure within
6 vertical gradients is essential to assess the response of marine systems to global climate change
7 (Richardson et al., 2004).

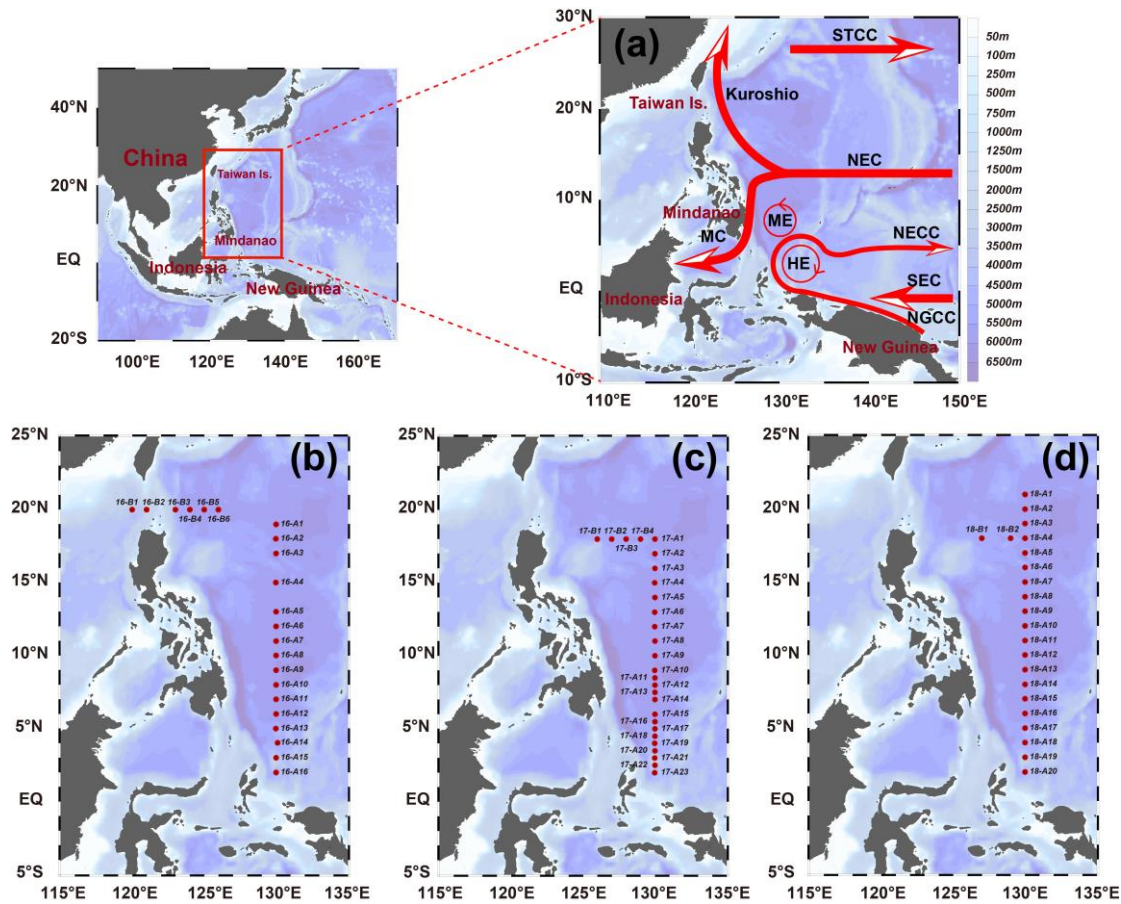
8
9 Currently, most studies on phytoplankton communities focus on the horizontal distribution at
10 the regional scale, while the vertical stratification of phytoplankton communities has been less
11 studied, and the factors affecting the vertical stratification of phytoplankton remain unclear. The
12 WPO is a typical oligotrophic zone with severe vertical stratification, and seawater stratification has
13 an important influence on the distribution of phytoplankton; therefore, it is necessary to study the
14 vertical stratification of phytoplankton in this region. We investigated how phytoplankton
15 abundance and community composition are related to vertical stratification along a latitudinal
16 gradient in the WPO during 2016–2018. Comparisons between different geographical regions with
17 different vertical density distributions offer a unique opportunity to study how phytoplankton
18 dynamics change as stratification develops.

19 20 2. Materials and methods

21 2.1. Study area and sampling

22 This study relied on the shared voyage of the WPO (0–20 °N, 120–130 °E), commissioned by
23 the National Natural Science Foundation of China. Physical, biological, chemical, and geological
24 surveys were carried out on the RV “*kexue*” from September to November in 2016, 2017, and 2018.
25 The sampling stations used in this study are shown in Figure 1; the sampling layers were 5, 25, 50,
26 75, 100, 150, and 200 m. Phytoplankton samples from different water layers were placed in 1 L PE
27 bottles, fixed in formaldehyde solution (3%), and stored in dark. Nutrient samples from different
28 layers were placed in PE bottles, frozen, and stored at –20 °C for laboratory nutrient analysis.

29



1
2 Figure 1. Stations in the western Pacific Ocean (WPO) of three cruises. (a): Current systems of the
3 WPO; (b), (c), and (d): sampling stations of 2016, 2017 and 2018 cruises, respectively. The station
4 at 130°E forms the section A, and the station at 20°N forms the section B. Map of the WPO shows
5 the major geographic names and the surface currents, including the Subtropical Counter Current
6 (STCC), the North Equatorial Current (NEC), the Northern Equatorial Counter Current (NECC),
7 the South Equatorial Current (SEC), the New Guinea Coastal Current (NGCC), the Mindanao
8 Current (MC), the Mindanao Eddy (ME), the Halmahera Eddy (HE).

9
10 **2.2. Identification of Phytoplankton**

11 After returning to the laboratory, the Utermöhl method was applied for phytoplankton analysis.
12 A 1 L subsample was allowed to stand for 48 h; then 800 mL supernatant was removed carefully by
13 siphoning through a catheter, taking care to prevent the catheter from touching the bottom of the
14 bottle. Thereafter, the remaining 200 mL liquid was gently mixed and half of which was further
15 concentrated with a 100 mL sedimentation column (Utermöhl method) for 48 h sedimentation. The
16 phytoplankton species were identified and enumerated under an inverted microscope (AE2000,
17 Motic, Xiamen, China) at 400× (or 200×) magnification. Phytoplankton identification was
18 conducted as described by Jin et al. (1965), Isamu Y (1991), and Sun et al. (2002). The World
19 Register of Marine Species (<http://www.marinespecies.org>). Species identification was as close as
20 possible to the species level.

21
22 **2.3. Nutrient Analysis**

23 The AA3 (SEAL, German) was used for the analysis and determination nutrient. Soluble

1 inorganic phosphorus (PO₄-P) was determined by the phosphomolybdenum blue method with the
 2 limit of detection of 0.02 μmol L⁻¹; dissolved silicate (SiO₃-Si) was determined by the silicon
 3 molybdenum blue method with the limit of detection of 0.02 μmol L⁻¹; nitrate (NO₃-N) was
 4 determined by the cadmium column method with the limit of detection of 0.01 μmol L⁻¹; nitrite
 5 (NO₂-N) was determined by the naphthalene ethylenediamine method with the limit of detection of
 6 0.01 μmol L⁻¹ (Dai et al., 2008). Ammonia (NH₄-N) was determined by the sodium salicylate
 7 method with the limit of detection of 0.03 μmol L⁻¹ (Guo et al., 2014; Pai et al., 2001). Nitrogen-to-
 8 phosphorous (N:P) ratio was calculated by dividing nitrogen concentration (NO₃⁻+NO₂⁻) by
 9 phosphate concentration.

11 2.4. Analysis and methods

12 A SBE911 CTD sensor and standard Sea-Bird Electronics methods were used to process
 13 recorded hydrological parameters. The depth of the mixed layer (ML) is calculated as

$$14 \quad (S, T) = (S_{ref}, T_{ref} - \Delta T)$$

15 S and T are the average salinity and temperature, respectively, and S_{ref} and T_{ref} are the temperature
 16 and salinity at 5 m, ΔT is equal to 0.5 °C.

17 We calculated the vertical stratification index (VSI) to indicate the degree of vertical
 18 stratification of the water column:

$$19 \quad VSI = \sum [\delta_{\theta}(m+1) - \delta_{\theta}(m)]$$

20 where δ_θ is the potential density anomaly, and m is the depth from 5 to 200 m.

21 The abundance of phytoplankton cells in water column was calculated through the trapezoidal
 22 integral method (Zhu et al., 2019):

$$23 \quad P = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \frac{P_{i+1} + P_i}{2} (D_{i+1} - D_i) \right\} / (D_n - D_1)$$

24 where P is the average value of phytoplankton abundance in water column, P_i is the abundance
 25 value of phytoplankton in layer *i*, *i* + 1 is the layer *i* + 1, D_n is the maximum sampling depth, D_i is
 26 the depth of layer *i*, and n is the sampling level.

27
 28 We clustered all species based on Bray-Curtis similarity distance for three years, and the results
 29 showed four distinct regions using the Primer (version 6). Distance-based Redundancy analysis (db-
 30 RDA) and Principal Co-ordinates Analysis (PCoA) were performed using the R package vegan
 31 (version 2.5-7) (Oksanen et al., 2020) to explain the relationship between the environmental
 32 parameters (temperature, salinity, depth, VSI, Dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) and Dissolved
 33 inorganic phosphorus (DIP) and Dissolved silicate (DSi)) and phytoplankton community structure.
 34 The results were visualized using the R package ggplot2 (version 3.3.2). SEM was used to assess
 35 the relative direct and indirect impact of physical and chemical parameters on phytoplankton
 36 abundance. The chi-square test (χ²), comparative fit index (CFI), and goodness fit index (GFI) were
 37 used to assess the model fit.

39 3. Results

40 3.1 Hydrographic features of the study area during the sampling years

41 The surface temperature and salinity of the surveyed sea area in 2016, 2017, and 2018 are
 42 shown in Figure 2. In general, the temperature increased with decreasing latitude, and the stations

1 near the equator exhibited the highest temperature; in contrast, the salinity showed an opposite
2 trend as that of temperature, with a high value from 15 °N to 20 °N. The surface temperature (Fig.
3 2) of the surveyed area in 2016 ranged from 28.58 °C (station 16-B1) to 30.14 °C (station 16-A16),
4 with an average of 29.43 °C. The surface salinity (Fig. 2) of the surveyed area in 2016 ranged from
5 33.80 (station 16-B2) to 34.65 (station 16-A2), with an average of 34.32. The surface temperature
6 (Fig. 2) of the surveyed area in 2017 ranged from 27.91 °C (station 17-A4) to 30.19 °C (station 17-
7 A20), with an average of 29.26 °C. The surface salinity (Fig. 2) of the surveyed area in 2017 ranged
8 from 33.38 (station 17-A16) to 34.64 (station 17-B4), with an average of 33.94. The surface
9 temperature (Fig. 2) of the surveyed sea area in 2018 ranged from 26.33 °C (station 18-B1) to
10 29.79 °C (station 18-A17), with an average of 28.83 °C. The surface salinity (Fig. 2) of the surveyed
11 sea area in 2018 ranged from 33.77 (station 18-A14) to 34.64 (station 18-B1), with an average of
12 34.21.

13

14 The profile distribution of temperature and salinity based on the cross-sectional data of
15 different water layers at each station obtained from the survey is shown in Figure 2. The temperature
16 of the shallow water column (0–100 m) is higher than that of the deep-water column (100–200 m).
17 The salinity values of the deep-water bodies (100–200 m) were higher than those of the shallow
18 water bodies (0–100 m). The values of temperature and salinity in 2016, 2017, and 2018 did not
19 change significantly. The temperature of the section in 2016 ranged from 12.16 °C (200 m at station
20 16-A11) to 30.14 °C (5 m at station 16-A16), with an average of 25.74 °C. The salinity of the section
21 in 2016 ranged from 33.80 (5 m at station 16-B2) to 35.39 (150 m at station 16-A16), with an
22 average of 34.61 °C. The temperature of the section in 2017 ranged from 11.16 °C (200 m at station
23 17-A13) to 30.19 °C (5 m at station 17-A20), with an average of 25.18 °C. The salinity of the section
24 in 2017 ranged from 33.38 (5 m at station 17-A16) to 35.24 (150 m at station 17-A23), with an
25 average of 34.46. The temperature of the section in 2018 ranged from 9.65 °C (200 m at station 18-
26 A14) to 29.79 °C (5 m at station 18-A17), with an average of 24.22 °C. The salinity of the section
27 in 2018 ranged from 33.77 °C (5 m at station 18-A14) to 35.39 °C (150 m at station 18-A17), with
28 an average of 34.57.

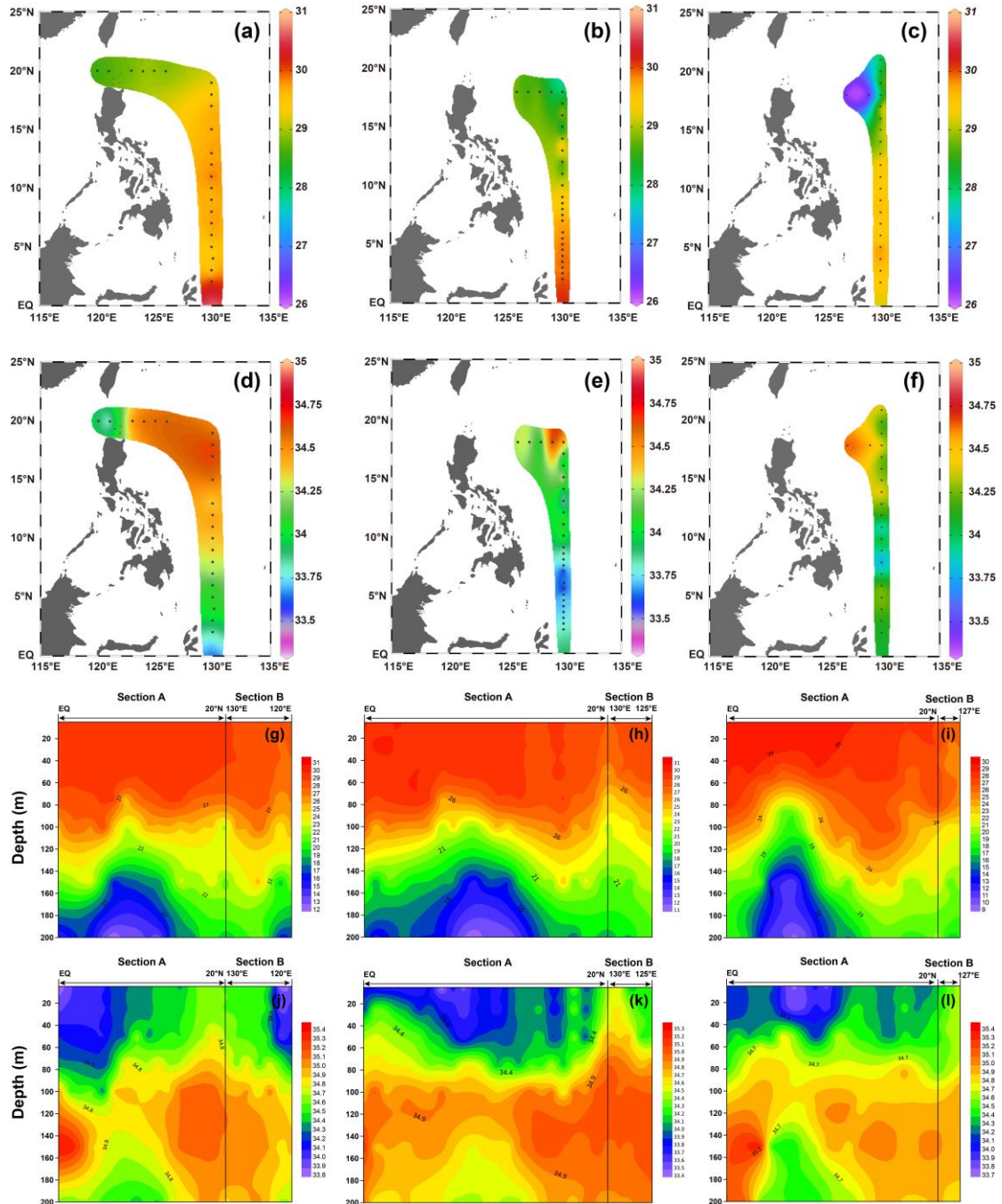
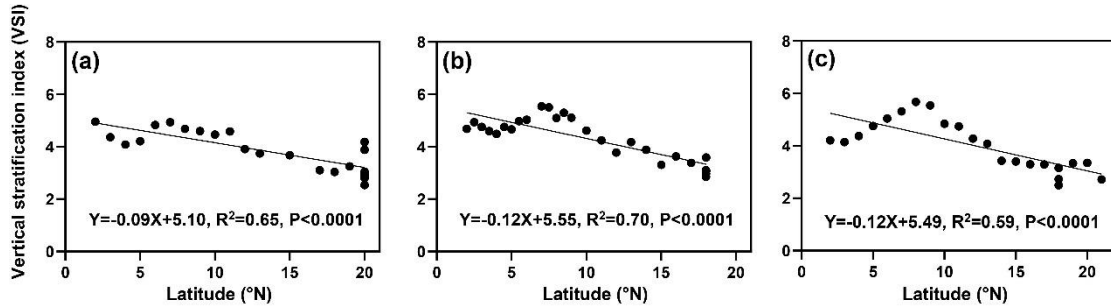


Figure 2. The temperature and salinity distribution in the WPO from three cruises. (a–c) surface temperature in 2016, 2017, 2018 respectively, (d–f) surface salinity in 2016, 2017, 2018 respectively, (g–i) vertical distribution of temperature in 2016, 2017, 2018 respectively, (j–l) vertical distribution of salinity in 2016, 2017, 2018 respectively.

The distribution of the VSI in latitude for the three cruises is shown in Figure 3. Overall, the VSI showed the same distribution pattern in the three cruises, with the highest value occurring at 7–8 °N and a decreasing trend with increasing latitude. In the 2016 cruise (Figure 3-a), the minimum value of VSI (2.54) appeared in the station at 20 °N (station 16-B4), and the maximum value (4.94) appeared in the station at 7 °N (station 16-A11), with an average of 3.90 ± 0.76 . In the 2017 cruise (Figure 3-b), a minimum value of VSI (2.85) appeared in the station at 18 °N (station 17-B4), and

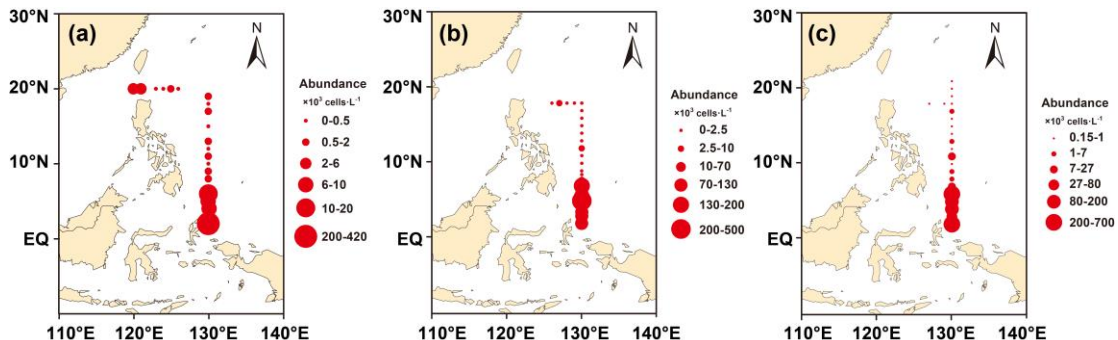
1 the maximum value (5.54) appeared in the station at 7 °N. The maximum value (5.54) occurred in
 2 the station at 7 °N (station 17-A14) with an average of 4.30 ± 0.82 . In the 2018 cruise (Figure 3-c),
 3 the minimum value of VSI (2.50) occurred in the station at 18 °N (station 18-B1), and the maximum
 4 value (5.48) occurred in the station at 8 °N (station 18-A14) with an average of 4.01 ± 0.95 .
 5 Interestingly, the variation in VSI varied significantly across latitudinal regions; the VSI was high
 6 from the equator to 10 °N, while it was low at 10–20 °N.



7
 8 Figure 3. Linear fits of the vertical stratification index with latitude (a) in 2016, (b) in 2017, (c) in
 9 2018. The black dots are the VSI of each station.

10
 11
 12 **3.2. Interannual variability of phytoplankton communities**

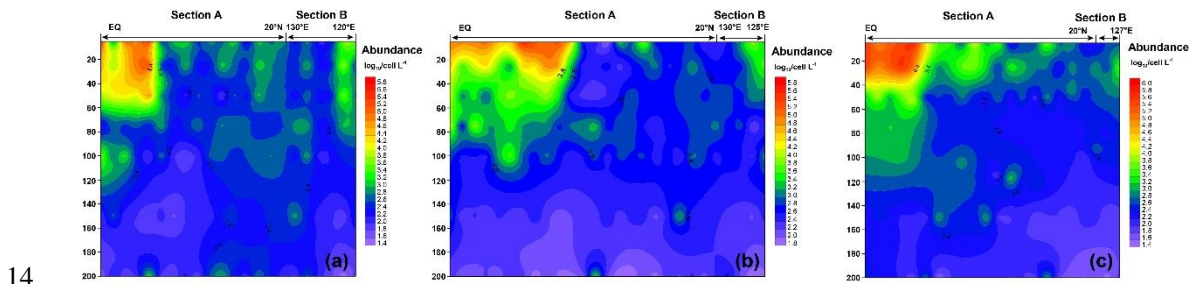
13 Figures 4a, b, and c show the horizontal distribution of surface phytoplankton abundance from
 14 2016 to 2018. The interannual variation in phytoplankton was relatively stable, and the sampling
 15 area and sampling time from 2016 to 2018 were generally consistent. Most phytoplankton species
 16 showed a relatively uniform distribution. Phytoplankton distribution showed a trend of decreasing
 17 abundance from the equator to the north, extending in latitude, especially between the equator to
 18 10 °N, where high values of abundance were concentrated. The abnormally high phytoplankton
 19 abundance in this region is associated with the predominance of *Trichodesmium*. However, affected
 20 by coastal currents, high abundance patches dominated by diatoms were observed in the Luzon
 21 Strait area in southern Taiwan, which were carried to the surface by upwelling currents and
 22 accounted for more than 67.76% of the abundance at this station. Relatively high abundances were
 23 observed at stations in the Kuroshio extension region, consisting mainly of cosmopolitan and warm
 24 water species. Phytoplankton abundance was the lowest in the high latitude region.



25
 26 Figure 4. Horizontal distribution of phytoplankton abundance in the WPO. a. 2016, surface layer; b.
 27 2017, surface layer; and c. 2018, surface layer.

28
 29 **3.3. Vertical distribution of phytoplankton abundance**

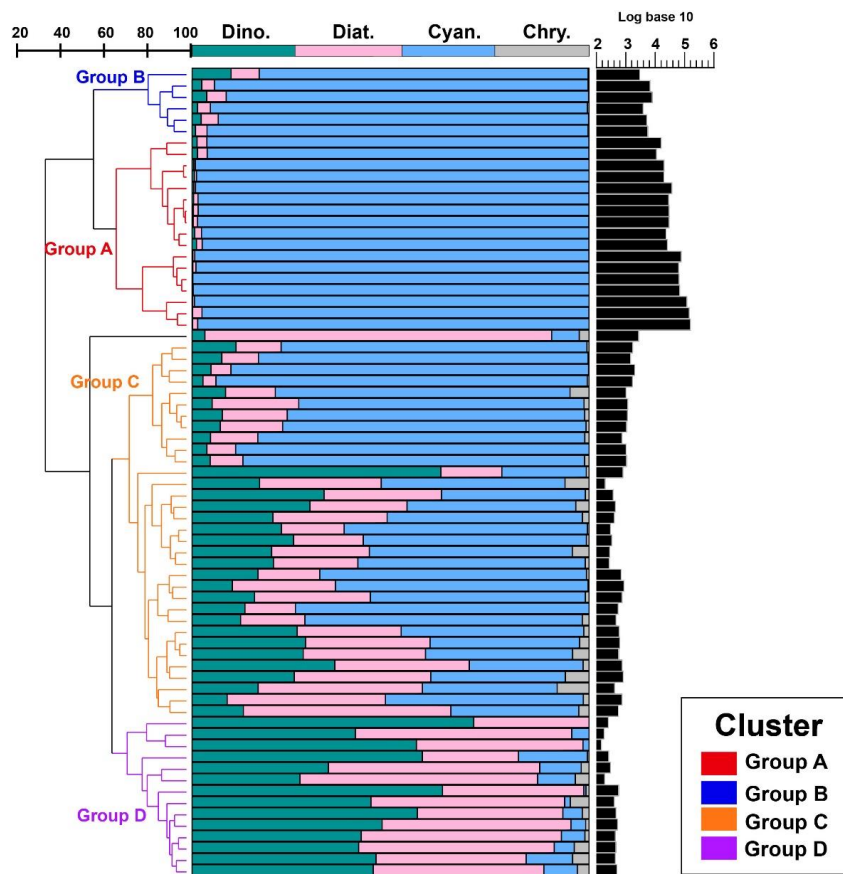
1 Figure 5 shows the vertical distribution of the phytoplankton. As can be seen from the figure,
 2 the overall trend in the WPO was consistent across the three cruises in 2016 (a), 2017 (b), and 2018
 3 (c), with the phytoplankton distribution showing regional variations in latitude and differences in
 4 vertical distribution at depth. In terms of latitude, high phytoplankton value areas were concentrated
 5 near the equator (0 °E–8 °E), and phytoplankton abundance gradually decreased with increasing
 6 latitude. Vertical distribution of phytoplankton indicated that the plankton-abundant areas occurred
 7 from 0–50 m, and the phytoplankton abundance gradually decreased with the increase in depth.
 8 Vertical distribution of phytoplankton abundance differed significantly across different areas. In the
 9 areas near the equator affected by Halmahera Eddy (HE) and Mindanao Eddy (ME), phytoplankton
 10 abundance was mainly concentrated in the upper water column (0–50 m) and consisted mainly of
 11 cyanobacteria. In the northern area affected by Kuroshio (KC), the phytoplankton abundance was
 12 lower than that in the equatorial stations, while the phytoplankton species composition was mostly
 13 dominated by diatoms and dinoflagellates.



14 Figure 5. Vertical distribution of phytoplankton abundance ($\text{Log}_{10} \text{ cells L}^{-1}$) in the WPO in 2016
 15 (a); 2017 (b) and 2018 (c).
 16

17 3.4. Phytoplankton community structure

18 Since there was little difference in interannual changes between species, we clustered all
 19 species based on Bray-Curtis similarity distance for stations, and the results showed four distinct
 20 regions (Figure 6). Cluster analysis divided the phytoplankton communities at the sampling sites for
 21 three years into four groups. Cyanobacteria (>90%) were the dominant species in groups A and B.
 22 The ratio of diatoms to dinoflagellates in Group A (4.8) was higher than that in Group B (1.4).
 23 Cyanobacteria were the dominant (66%) phytoplankton at the stations of Group C, while diatoms
 24 (18%) and dinoflagellates (14%) constituted 32% of the population in this group. Diatoms (43%)
 25 and dinoflagellates (49%) dominated the stations in Group D, accounting for approximately 92% of
 26 the total phytoplankton. The proportion of Chrysophyceae was low in all four groups (Table 1). The
 27 dendrogram showed that these populations were grouped into four groups, which were essentially
 28 identical to those determined by PCoA analysis (Figure 7). The horizontal and vertical axes explain
 29 51.87% and 21.41% of the phytoplankton community structure, respectively.
 30
 31

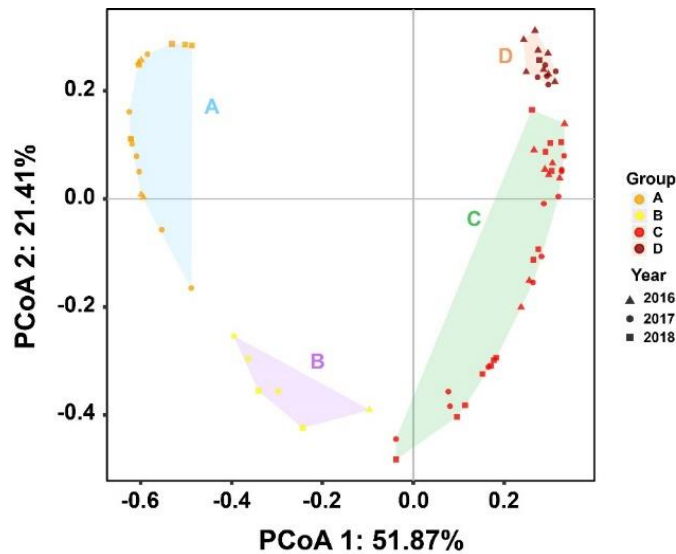


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2 Figure 6. Bray-Curtis similarity-based dendrogram showing averaged phytoplankton community
 3 composition and abundance for each station across the 3 cruises. For each station, community
 4 composition is indicated with bar plots, and phytoplankton abundance is represented with black bars.
 5

6 Table 1. The percentages (%) (average \pm standard deviations) of diatoms, dinoflagellates,
 7 cyanobacteria and Chrysophyceae in the four groups.

| Species | Group A | Group B | Group C | Group D |
|-----------------|------------------|------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| Diatoms | 1.09 \pm 0.79 | 4.25 \pm 1.57 | 21.83 \pm 11.45 | 43.71 \pm 10.12 |
| Dinoflagellates | 0.44 \pm 0.42 | 3.41 \pm 3.30 | 17.26 \pm 12.45 | 48.38 \pm 11.61 |
| Cyanobacteria | 98.45 \pm 1.10 | 92.08 \pm 4.79 | 59.05 \pm 20.38 | 6.06 \pm 4.93 |
| Chrysophyceae | 0.02 \pm 0.01 | 0.26 \pm 0.10 | 1.86 \pm 1.99 | 1.85 \pm 1.66 |



1

2 Figure 7. Principal Coordinates Analysis for groups. Triangles, circles, and squares represent 2016,
 3 2017, and 2018 stations, respectively. $P < 0.05$. Different colors represent different groups.
 4 Percentages of total variance are explained by coordinates 1 and 2, accounting for 51.87% and
 5 21.41%, respectively.

6

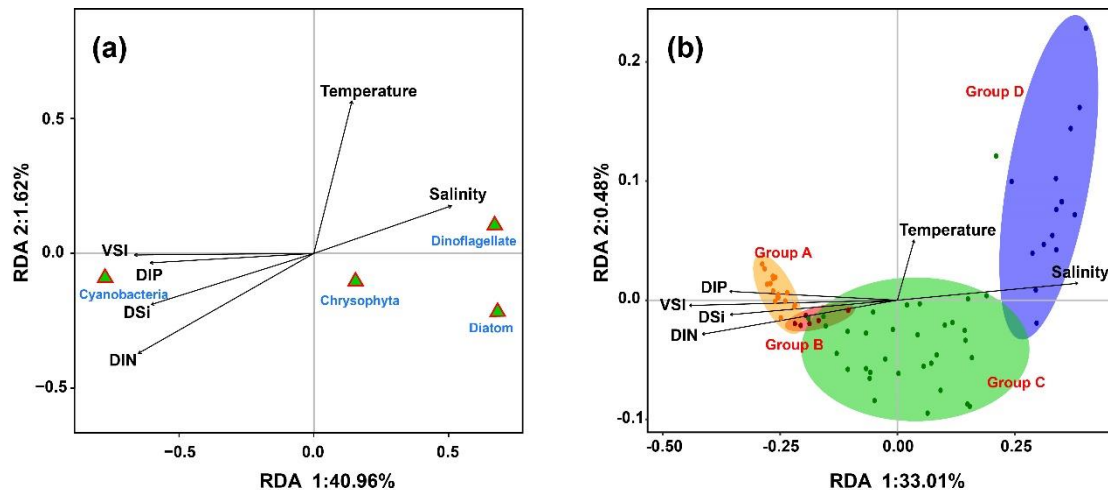
7 3.5. Relationships between phytoplankton and environmental factors

8 The relationship between phytoplankton and environmental factors was analyzed using RDA.
 9 We obtained a two-dimensional distribution map of the species, sample distribution, and
 10 environmental factors (Figure 8). The results showed that different phytoplankton classes were
 11 correlated differently with environmental factors. Cyanobacteria showed negative correlations with
 12 temperature and salinity and positive correlations with VSI and nutrient concentration, indicating
 13 that waters with high VSI are suitable for the growth of cyanobacteria (mostly *Trichodesmium*).
 14 Diatoms and methanogens showed the opposite trend, exhibiting positive correlations with
 15 temperature and salinity and negative correlations with VSI and nutrient concentration, indicating
 16 that diatoms and dinoflagellates prefer waters with low VSI.

17

18 There were four distinct phytoplankton communities in the WPO: Group A was distributed in
 19 the equatorial region with clear vertical stratification. This community is characterized by high
 20 abundance and is dominated by *Trichodesmium* species such as *T. thiebautii*, *T. hildebrandtii*, and
 21 *T. erythraeum*, which are positively correlated with high concentrations of DIN, phosphate, and
 22 silicate. Group B was located near 8°N and is mainly influenced by the NECC and mesoscale eddy
 23 influence; the phytoplankton community was represented by warm water species, similar to that of
 24 Group A. Group C was mainly distributed in the 15 °N region and was strongly influenced by the
 25 NEC. Group D was mainly distributed in the 20°N region, where it was directly influenced by the
 26 Kuroshio Current; the phytoplankton community was positively correlated with temperature and
 27 salinity.

28



1
2 Figure 8. Redundancy analysis of the (a) phytoplankton and environmental parameters, (b) groups
3 and environmental parameters in the WPO. Colored dots represent sampling sites, triangles
4 represent phytoplankton species, and arrows represent environmental factors.

6 3.4 Temperature, salinity, and vertical stratification index

7 The temperature, salinity, and VSI of the four groups are shown in Figure 9. The temperature
8 and salinity (T-S) box diagram of the sample from 5 m above depicts the four main water masses in
9 the WPO. Groups A (average 29.8 °C) and B (average 29.6 °C) had high temperatures, but the
10 salinities of Groups A (average 33.9 °C) and B (average 33.8 °C) was low. The temperature of
11 Groups C (average 28.9 °C) and D (average 28.9 °C) was low, but the salinity of Groups C (average
12 34.2) and D (average 34.4) was high (Fig.9-a). The strong spatial variability of T-S was evident from
13 the characteristics of salinity and temperature. We also calculated the vertical stratification index of
14 the four groups (Fig.9-b). Compared with Groups C (average 3.86) and D (average 3.54), the number
15 of VSIs in Groups A (average 4.69) and B (average 4.86) was markedly higher, and Group A had
16 the highest VSI. There were obvious differences between the four groups; that is, the stratification
17 of the first two groups was more pronounced (Table 2).

18 The vertical stratification index was linearly fitted to temperature (Fig.9-a) and salinity (Fig.9-
19 b). The fitting results show that the temperature is positively correlated with the vertical
20 stratification index. The VSI of all groups was negatively correlated with salinity. It can be noted
21 that the changes in temperature and salinity were more pronounced in the vertical direction. In
22 Groups A and B with a high stratification index, the changes in temperature and salinity within the
23 group were small. However, the temperature and salinity changed significantly within Groups C and
24 D, with a small stratification index.

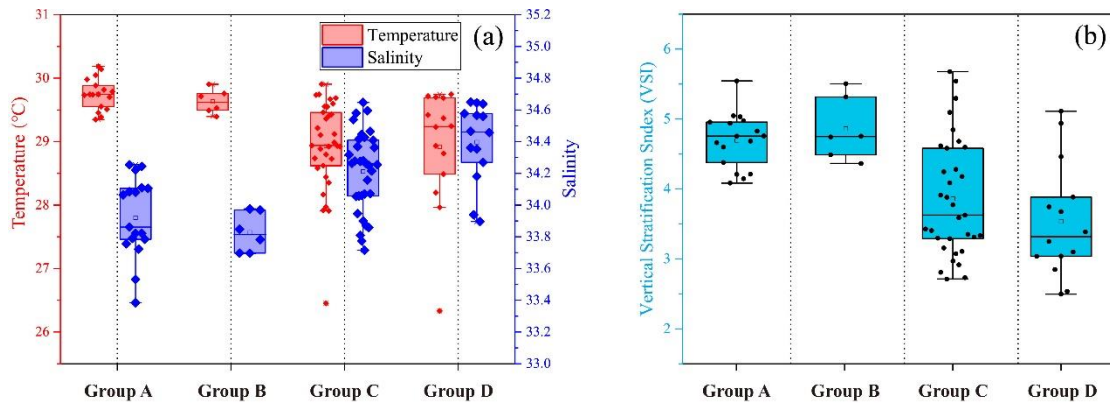


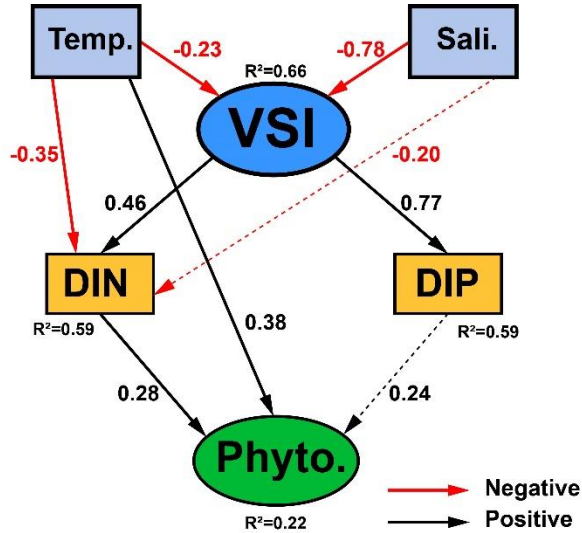
Figure 9 Surface temperature and salinity (a), and vertical stratification index (b) of the four groups.

Table 2. Average (\pm standard deviations) values for nutrients ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$), temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), salinity for each phytoplankton community group were identified by the cluster analysis in the WPO.

| | Group A | Group B | Group C | Group D |
|-------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| Temperature | 25.30 \pm 1.06 | 24.45 \pm 1.85 | 24.92 \pm 1.32 | 25.41 \pm 1.23 |
| Salinity | 34.45 \pm 0.14 | 34.40 \pm 0.07 | 34.56 \pm 0.16 | 34.68 \pm 0.20 |
| DIP | 0.28 \pm 0.07 | 0.18 \pm 0.13 | 0.16 \pm 0.13 | 0.13 \pm 0.10 |
| DIN | 4.49 \pm 1.76 | 5.43 \pm 2.71 | 2.62 \pm 1.89 | 1.80 \pm 1.08 |
| DSi | 2.93 \pm 1.05 | 4.13 \pm 2.15 | 1.90 \pm 1.47 | 1.44 \pm 0.95 |
| VSI | 4.69 \pm 0.39 | 4.86 \pm 0.45 | 3.86 \pm 0.84 | 3.54 \pm 0.82 |

3.6. Direct vs. indirect effects of environmental parameter on phytoplankton abundance

The causal relationships between measured phytoplankton abundance and relevant physical and chemical parameters were examined using SEM, using interactions between temperature, salinity, VSI, DIN, and DIP (Fig. 10), as theoretical and experimental data indicated the importance of these variables. The model results showed that temperature, DIP, and DIN had a direct effect on phytoplankton abundance, with temperature having the largest direct effect on phytoplankton abundance (0.38), followed by DIN (0.28) and DIP (0.24). Temperature, salinity, and VSI had indirect effects on phytoplankton abundance, with temperature and salinity having negative indirect effects on phytoplankton abundance (-0.17 and -0.30) and VSI having positive indirect effects (0.31) (Figure 10). From the results of the total effect, only salinity had a negative effect on phytoplankton abundance (-0.30), while both temperature and VSI had positive effects on phytoplankton abundance (0.20 and 0.312), with VSI having the largest total effect. Although the direct effect of temperature on phytoplankton abundance was significant, it was partially offset by the indirect negative effect, while VSI had no direct effect on phytoplankton abundance, but its larger indirect effect resulted in the largest total effect. Both DIN and DIP had positive effects on phytoplankton abundance, but the effect of DIN was greater. Since the vertical distribution of DIN and DIP exhibited stronger variability, more specific analyses of DIN and DIP will be conducted later.



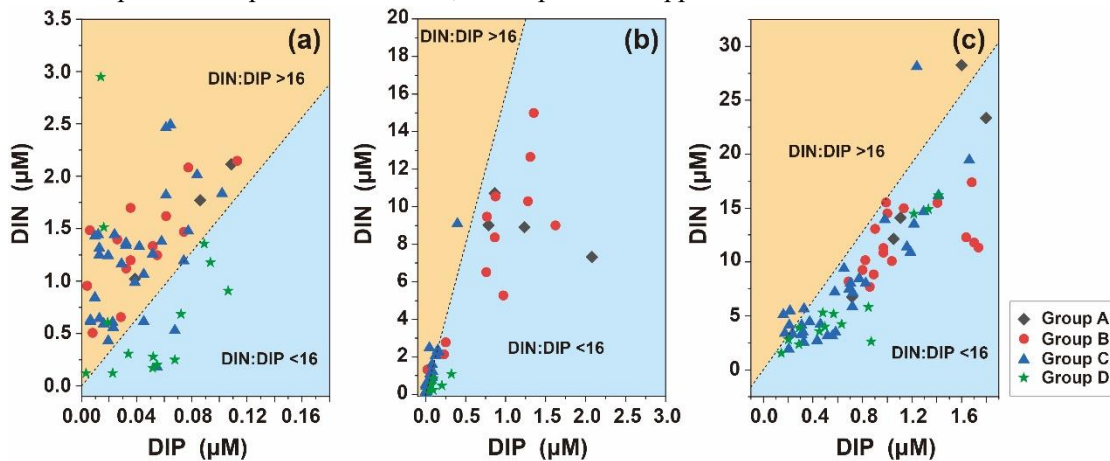
Chi-square=8.385, p=0.211, CFI=0.989, GFI=0.963

1

2 Figure 10. Structural Equation Model (SEM) analysis examining the effects of temperature, salinity,
 3 VSI, DIN and DIP on phytoplankton abundance. Solid black and red lines indicate significant
 4 positive and negative effects at $p < 0.05$, black and red dashed lines indicated insignificant effects.
 5 R^2 values associated with response variables indicate the proportion of variation explained by
 6 relationships with other variables. Values associated with arrows represent standardized path
 7 coefficients.

8

9 We analyzed the N:P ratio of the surface layer, SCM, and 200 m. The N:P ratio in the surface
 10 layer (N:P>16:1) indicates phosphorus limitation, which is consistent with the SEM analysis
 11 (Fig.11). The trophic structure of the SCM layer changed, N:P <16:1 indicated nitrogen limitation,
 12 and the depth continued to increase to the bottom of the euphotic layer and stabilized around N:P
 13 =16:1, indicating that at the bottom of the euphotic layer, as phytoplankton abundance decreased
 14 and interspecific competition decreased, the trophic ratio approached the Redfield ratio.



15

16 Figure 11. Distribution of phytoplankton community in DIN and DIP. (a): 5 m, (b): SCM, (b): 200
 17 m. The dashed line indicates the Redfield ratio N:P = 16:1.

18

19 4. Discussion

20 4.1. Comparison with historical data

1 Kuroshio and WPWP are key areas of the WPO sea-air interaction (Zhang, 1999). Previous
 2 surveys have provided less knowledge of the phytoplankton community structure in this study area
 3 (Table 3). Previously, samples were collected by net, and net-collected samples reduced
 4 phytoplankton abundance in small volumes, thereby underestimating the phytoplankton abundance
 5 in the ocean under investigation. In the present study, phytoplankton samples were collected from
 6 water samples, which better reflected the phytoplankton community structure and abundance. Sun
 7 et al. (1997) and Liu et al. (1997) further investigated the species composition and abundance
 8 distribution of phytoplankton diatoms and dinoflagellates in the Ryukyu Islands and nearby waters.
 9 Li et al. (2008) conducted a study on phytoplankton in the tropical and subtropical Pacific oceanic
 10 zones with response mechanisms to the limitation of nitrogen and iron. Chen et al. (2018)
 11 investigated the phytoplankton community structure and mesoscale eddies in the western boundary
 12 current. A total of 199 species in 61 genera belonging to four phytoplankton families were identified,
 13 among which the abundance of *Trichodesmium* species was high. Previous studies have mostly
 14 focused on the vertical trawl and the horizontal distribution of phytoplankton throughout the water
 15 column while ignoring the effect of vertical stratification on phytoplankton.

16
 17 Table 3. Historical data of the phytoplankton community in the WPO.

| Date | Sampling areas | Layer /m | Number of species | Sampling types | References |
|---------|-------------------------------------|----------|-------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|
| 2018.10 | 2°–20°N, 120°–130°E | 0–200 | 305 | Water samples | This study |
| 2017.10 | 2°–18°N, 126°–130°E | 0–200 | 339 | Water samples | This study |
| 2017.08 | 10.3°–10.9°N, 139.8°–140.4°E | 0–200 | 147 | Water samples | Dai et al., 2020 |
| 2017.08 | 21°–42°N, 118°–156°E | 0–200 | 235 | Water and net samples | Lin et al., 2020 |
| 2017.05 | 21°–42°N, 118°–156°E | 0–200 | 248 | Water and net samples | Lin et al., 2020 |
| 2016.09 | 2°–21°N, 127°–130°E | 0–200 | 269 | Water samples | This study |
| 2016.09 | 0°–20°N, 120°–130°E | 0–200 | 243 | Net samples | Chen et al., 2018b |
| 2014.08 | 0°–21.5°N, 121°–135.5°E | 0–300 | 199 | Net samples | Chen et al., 2018a |
| 1997.07 | 23°30′–29°30′N, 122°30′–130°30′E | 0–200 | 227 | Net samples | Sun et al., 2000 |
| 1997.07 | 23°30′–29°30′N, 122°30′–130°30′E | 0–200 | 251 | Net samples | Liu et al., 2000 |

18
 19 4.2. Relationship between N:P ratio and vertical distribution of phytoplankton

20 Research on the factors that control the structure of the phytoplankton community has been
 21 carried out for decades, but the hypothesis of nutrient concentration limits and ratios has not been
 22 fully explained in terms of affecting the structure of the phytoplankton community (Gao et al., 2019).
 23 As diatoms and dinoflagellates show great differences in cell morphology, structure, and nutrition
 24 mode, they differ greatly in their acquisition of nutrient strategies. Several studies have revealed
 25 that dinoflagellates have the ability of mixotrophy, and the mixotrophic modes of dinoflagellates
 26 include direct engulfment of prey, peduncle feeding, and pallium feeding, and phosphorus limitation
 27 is a common factor stimulating dinoflagellates to ingest particulate nutrients (Huang et al., 2005;
 28 Smayda, 1997; Stoecker, 1999). The variation in phytoplankton community structure was always
 29 correlated with fluctuations in physicochemical environmental parameters.

30
 31 In the four groups we studied, surface seawater N:P>16:1 indicated that phosphorus in surface

1 seawater was limited, but *Trichodesmium* relied on its own nitrogen fixation function and was highly
2 abundant in oligotrophic waters (Fig.11). The relationship between *Trichodesmium* and nitrogen
3 fixation has been demonstrated several years ago (Grosskopf et al., 2012; Luo et al., 2012; Zehr,
4 2011). The presence of slight nitrogen limitation in surface seawater in Group D was consistent with
5 the low abundance of *Trichodesmium*, which was consistent with studies on the abundance of
6 *Trichodesmium* in the region (Chen et al., 2019; Sohm et al., 2011). In the WPO, the most
7 oligotrophic ocean around the world (Hansell et al., 2000), nutrients have become an important
8 factor that determines the distribution of phytoplankton. Under nutrition-limited conditions, diatoms
9 and dinoflagellates were more susceptible, especially under phosphorus limitation (Egge, 1998),
10 which corresponds to the high abundance of Group D diatoms and dinoflagellates. In the present
11 study, the vertical pattern of N:P ratios indicated differences in nutrient composition across the
12 vertical gradient. The N:P ratio of the surface layer (N:P>16:1) indicated phosphorus limitation, the
13 structure of nutrients in the SCM layer changed, and (N:P<16:1) indicated nitrogen limitation: the
14 depth continued to increase to the bottom of the euphotic layer and was stable near (N:P=16:1),
15 indicating that at the bottom of the euphotic layer, with decreasing phytoplankton abundance,
16 interspecific competition reduced and the nutrient ratio approached the Redfield ratio. The
17 differences in nutrients partly affected the vertical distribution patterns of phytoplankton abundance.
18 Diatoms have higher phosphorus requirements than other phytoplankton groups, which may be
19 reflected by the lower N:P ratio in diatoms than in other groups (Hillebrand et al., 2013).

20 21 4.3. Vertical stratification determined the vertical distribution of phytoplankton

22 With global climate change, marine oligotrophic regions continue to expand, and seawater
23 stratification is intensified, which is the main problem affecting the marine phytoplankton
24 community structure. The WPO is a typical oligotrophic area with severe stratification. We found
25 that the interannual variation of phytoplankton in stable oligotrophy was not significant, and the
26 intensity of vertical stratification adapted to different environmental changes (nutrients, temperature,
27 and salinity), thus forming four contrasting environments with varying degrees of limiting the
28 community structure of phytoplankton. Comparative analysis of the phytoplankton community
29 composition of the four groups showed that the phytoplankton was mainly strongly affected by the
30 vertical stratification, which corresponds to previous research (Bouman et al., 2011; Hidalgo et al.,
31 2014; Mojica et al., 2015). Vertical stratification limits the replenishment of nutrients in the deep
32 layer and aggravates the formation of the thermocline, which affects the N:P ratio, thereby
33 restricting vertical migration of phytoplankton or affecting the physiology of heat-driven
34 phytoplankton growth and mortality variety (Gupta et al., 2020).

35
36 In the present study, *Trichodesmium* was the dominant cyanobacterial species. Marine
37 *Trichodesmium* has been considered the most critical autotrophic nitrogen-fixing cyanobacteria
38 since the 1960s (Dugdale et al., 1961). *Trichodesmium* can be divided into two forms: clusters and
39 free filaments. *Trichodesmium* is suitable for living in waters above 20 °C, and has a special cellular
40 air sac structure that allows it to move vertically within the upper 100 m of the ocean water column
41 (Laroche et al., 2005). In the process of water blooms formed by *Trichodesmium*, a large amount of
42 nitrogen is often fixed in a relatively short period of time. Therefore, the study of the nitrogen
43 fixation rate of *Trichodesmium* is crucial for estimating the rate of nitrogen fixation in the ocean
44 (Karl et al., 2002). Previous studies have not clarified which factors are the main causes of

1 Trichodesmium growth (possibly temperature, wind, iron, phosphorus, etc.) (Gobler, 2001; Karl et
2 al., 1997; Capone et al., 1997; Chang et al., 2000). Many researchers believe that temperature is the
3 most important factor affecting the growth of *Trichodesmium* (Capone et al., 1999; Adam et al.,
4 2002). However, we believe that there is no single positive correlation between temperature and
5 *Trichodesmium* growth, which is consistent with the study of Chang (2000). In the tropical WPO,
6 where the temperature was not restricted, the abundance of *Trichodesmium* in areas with higher
7 temperatures (Groups A and B) was higher than that at relatively low temperatures (Groups C and
8 D). However, when temperature was no longer the main limiting factor for the growth of
9 *Trichodesmium*, the abundance of *Trichodesmium* in the higher temperature Group A was not higher
10 than the relatively lower temperature Group B as expected, and the high-value area of
11 *Trichodesmium* appeared in Group B. For this reason, we believe that the vertical stratification of
12 Group B was the highest, and the abundance of *Trichodesmium* was also the highest, and the vertical
13 stratification of the four groups was in the following order: Group B > A > C > D (Fig. 9), which
14 was consistent with the high and low abundance of *Trichodesmium* in the four groups. SEM analysis
15 (Fig. 10) revealed that vertical stratification does not directly affect phytoplankton abundance, but
16 indirectly affects phytoplankton growth and abundance by driving the nutrient ratio (N:P). Therefore,
17 we suggest that temperature is not the main factor limiting phytoplankton growth in tropical
18 oligotrophic waters but rather drives nutrient ratios through vertical stratification, which affects
19 phytoplankton growth. This is reflected by the fact that growth of cyanobacteria, diatoms, and
20 dinoflagellates is higher in areas with severe vertical stratification, whereas diatoms and
21 dinoflagellates exhibited superior growth in areas with weak vertical stratification.

22
23 Previous models and field experiments have shown that the species composition of
24 phytoplankton communities is significantly affected by vertical turbulent mixing changes (Huisman
25 et al., 2004). A strong coupling exists between the nutrient supply rate and the photosynthetic
26 performance of phytoplankton (Bouman et al., 2006) and phytoplankton biomass and primary
27 production in eutrophic areas are high (Richardson et al., 2019), which directly limits nutrient supply.
28 The vertical stratification index reflects the potential causes of vertical stratification in various
29 physical and chemical processes, such as regulating the utilization of light and nutrients in the ocean,
30 which in turn affects phytoplankton dynamics. The results of the present study showed that from the
31 equator to the north, the VSI decreases as the latitude increases, and the phytoplankton community
32 structure changes from cyanobacteria to diatoms. Phytoplankton abundance was significantly
33 different in the water layer above the SCM. The water layer below the SCM tended to be stable. The
34 surface phytoplankton abundance was usually greater than that of the SCM layer, which was related
35 to the surface layer of *Trichodesmium*. Our results demonstrated that the highly stratified region was
36 more suitable for the growth of *Trichodesmium*, while the region with low vertical stratification
37 seems to be more conducive to the survival of diatoms and dinoflagellates (Fig. 6 and 8). Due to
38 their poor activity and high potential growth rate, diatoms can reproduce rapidly in the circulation
39 and water with high nutrient content (Tilman et al., 1986). The weak vertical stratification of Group
40 C and D regions leads to the homogeneity of temperature, salinity, density, and nutrients in the upper
41 part of 200 m in the vertical direction. The frequency and abundance of dinoflagellates in Groups C
42 and D were higher, which is consistent with the environment where they are more inclined to vertical
43 stratification and weaker (Perez et al., 2006). The vertical distribution of zooplankton has shown
44 that vertical stratification can hinder the migration of small zooplankton populations and indicate

1 different grazing pressures (Long et al., 2021; Aditee et al., 2005). Further research should consider
2 the difference in predation pressure of different zooplankton predators on the composition of the
3 phytoplankton community in different regions. Phytoplankton stratification may cause thin-layer
4 algal blooms and other phenomena, which was not discussed in this article, and the influence of
5 phytoplankton stratification can be investigated in future studies.

6 7 5. Conclusions

8 This study investigated the phytoplankton community structure of the WPO in the autumn of
9 2016, 2017, and 2018. The WPO is a typical oligotrophic ocean with a weak water exchange
10 capacity owing to the thermocline and severe stratification in the upper seawater layer. The
11 phytoplankton community structure mainly consisted of cyanobacteria, diatoms, and dinoflagellates,
12 while the abundance of Chrysophyceae was low. In terms of spatial distribution, phytoplankton
13 abundance was high from the equatorial region to 10 °N, and decreased with increasing latitude.
14 Phytoplankton showed a high variability in the vertical distribution. The potential influences of
15 physicochemical parameters on phytoplankton abundance were analyzed by SEM to determine
16 nutrient ratios driven by vertical stratification to regulate phytoplankton community structure in a
17 typical oligotrophic. Regions with strong vertical stratification (Groups A and B) were more
18 favorable for cyanobacteria, whereas weak vertical stratification (Groups C and D) was more
19 conducive to diatoms and dinoflagellates.

20
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