

1 **Seasonal variation in the correlation between anomalies of sea**
2 **level and chlorophyll in the Antarctic Circumpolar Current**
3 **region**

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13 **Key Points:**

- 14 • Satellite observations and an eddy-rich model show positively/negatively correlated
15 anomalies of sea level and chlorophyll in summer/winter.
- 16 • In summer, higher/lower iron concentration in positive/negative sea level anomalies
17 leads to higher/lower chlorophyll.
- 18 • In winter, deeper/shallower mixed layers in positive/negative sea level anomalies
19 decrease/increase chlorophyll through light limitation.

Abstract

We analyze satellite observations and an eddy-rich ocean model to show that mesoscale phenomena, such as fronts and eddies, strongly influence chlorophyll (CHL) concentrations in the Southern Ocean, driving CHL anomalies of opposite sign in winter versus summer. In austral winter, deeper mixed layers in positive sea surface height (SSH) anomalies reduce light availability, leading to anomalously low CHL concentration. In austral summer with abundant light, however, higher iron concentration in positive SSH anomalies yields higher CHL concentrations. The budget analysis of the model shows that anomalous vertical mixing associated with the mesoscale makes iron supply to the summertime mixed layer differ. Features with a negative SSH anomaly exhibit the opposite tendencies: higher CHL concentration in winter and lower in winter. Our results suggest that modulation of iron supply, light availability and vertical mixing by mesoscale processes plays an important role in causing systematic variations in primary productivity.

1 Introduction

The ocean is rich in mesoscale phenomena. They account for more than 90% of the kinetic energy in the surface ocean [Ferrari and Wunsch, 2009], and are thought to play a critical role in transporting momentum, heat, and energy [Robinson, 1983; Wunsch, 1999; Xu *et al.*, 2014]. The mesoscale modulates marine ecosystems because it affects the physical and chemical environment for life in the ocean, influencing, for instance, nutrient supply and the diversity of phytoplankton populations [McGillicuddy *et al.*, 2007; Rodríguez *et al.*, 2001; Clayton *et al.*, 2016]. This modulation is clearly seen in chlorophyll (CHL). Anomalies of surface CHL, a proxy for phytoplankton biomass, are observed to be correlated with sea surface height (SSH) anomalies, a proxy for mesoscale phenomena, in many regions of the ocean [Gaube *et al.*, 2014; Chelton *et al.*, 2011]. Depending on the prevailing drivers, both positive and negative correlations between CHL and SSH can be expected. A wide range of mechanisms have been proposed by which the mesoscale modulates biogeochemistry, as reviewed in McGillicuddy [2016].

In situ and satellite observations have revealed mixed layer depth (MLD) modulation by mesoscale dynamics; deeper (shallower) MLDs are associated with positive (negative) SSH anomalies in the subtropical ocean [Gaube *et al.*, 2013; Dufois *et al.*, 2014] and also in the SO [Hausmann *et al.*, 2017]. While the influence of mesoscale dynamics on the MLD, nitrate, and CHL in the subtropical gyres has received some attention [Du-

52 *fois et al.*, 2014, 2016], these processes remain under-studied in the SO, which is a region
 53 of major importance for biogeochemical cycling and air-sea carbon exchange. In much
 54 of the SO, the supply of iron and availability of light are key mediators of primary pro-
 55 ductivity [Boyd, 2002; Fauchereau et al., 2011]. During summer when sunlight is abun-
 56 dant, primary productivity is primarily limited by iron, which is depleted in the surface
 57 ocean and enriched at depth [Boyd and Ellwood, 2010]. In such conditions, introduction
 58 of iron-rich subsurface water through vertical mixing can enhance the primary produc-
 59 tivity and increase CHL. In contrast, during the winter, deep convective mixing supplies
 60 iron to the upper ocean [Tagliabue et al., 2014], but simultaneously decreases mixed-layer-
 61 average light levels for photosynthesis [Nelson and Smith, 1991]. Fauchereau et al. [2011]
 62 find large spatial and temporal variability in the correlation between CHL and MLD, and
 63 propose vertical mixing as an important driver for the surface CHL perturbation through
 64 changes in limitation by either iron or light.

65 The systematic modulation of MLD and its link to factors limiting productivity mo-
 66 tivates our study of the correlation between CHL and SSH on the mesoscale in the South-
 67 ern Ocean (SO). First we report on observed correlations between anomalies of SSH and
 68 CHL in the SO, particularly along the Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC), which plays
 69 a fundamental role in the global overturning circulation of the ocean [Marshall and Speer,
 70 2012] and is characterized by elevated eddy activity [Frenger et al., 2015; Rintoul, 2009],
 71 and then evaluate the influences of MLD modulation by mesoscale dynamics on the ob-
 72 served correlation. Our study shows that the modulation of MLD by the mesoscale is an
 73 important mechanism that affects phytoplankton communities in the SO by regulating light
 74 availability and iron supply. In winter, MLDs differ by a few tens of meter between pos-
 75 itive and negative SSH anomalies and influence the light availability. Despite of a few
 76 meters difference of MLD between them in summer, iron supply through vertical mixing
 77 is higher in positive SSH anomalies than negative anomalies.

78 **2 Seasonal correlation between anomalies of sea surface height and chlorophyll**

79 We evaluate the role of mesoscale phenomena by considering SSH anomalies ex-
 80 ceeding 5 cm, noting that such deviations in SSH include those driven by coherent eddy
 81 structures, as well as other mesoscale flow features (e.g., fronts and meanders). We only
 82 consider areas where bathymetry is deeper than 100 m in order to avoid the direct influ-
 83 ence from shelf regions. The correlations of CHL and SSH anomalies ($\rho_{SSH',CHL'}$) along

84 the ACC are characterized by intense seasonality, as pointed out by *Frenger* [2013]. Our
 85 correlation analysis of satellite observations of ocean color and SSH anomalies reveals a
 86 positive $\rho_{SSH',CHL'}$ along the ACC in summer (January–March, Fig. 1a) and a negative
 87 $\rho_{SSH',CHL'}$ in winter (July–September, Fig. 1b; data sources and analysis procedure are
 88 described in Supplementary Information). In winter, the signal is not as strong nor as clear
 89 as in the summer, which may be due to the lower density of wintertime observations and
 90 generally lower net primary productivity.

91 To identify the mechanisms by which mesoscale processes in the ACC influence
 92 CHL, we examine the solution of an eddy-rich, global ocean model run at $1/10^\circ$ horizon-
 93 tal resolution coupled to a biogeochemical model (details can be found in Supporting In-
 94 formation). Encouragingly, the simulation largely reproduces the observed seasonality in
 95 $\rho_{SSH',CHL'}$ (Figs 1c-d), as well as SSH variability and mean surface CHL (Supplemen-
 96 tary Fig. 1). There are broad areas of strongly positive $\rho_{SSH',CHL'}$ along the ACC and at
 97 its southern margins in summer, changing sign in winter, especially in the Indian and Pa-
 98 cific Ocean sectors. South of the ACC, correlations are noisier and observed and modeled
 99 correlations agree less, perhaps due to processes that are missing in the model, such as
 100 iron supply from melting sea ice, or possibly weaker observational constraints in the polar
 101 zone.

102 We examined $\rho_{SSH',CHL'}$ averaged zonally along the path of the ACC (defined
 103 by SSH isolines, see Supplementary Information) to elucidate seasonal patterns. Corre-
 104 lations are positive in the northern part of the ACC from January–June, then switch to
 105 negative until October (Fig. 2a). Observations indicate that the seasonality in the correla-
 106 tion is lagged further south; the model, however, shows a more consistent phasing over the
 107 meridional extent of the ACC region (Fig. 2b). In spite of this inconsistency, the simula-
 108 tion captures the major correlations in the ACC, justifying an examination of the simula-
 109 tion to identify the underlying mechanisms generating observed variability in mesoscale
 110 modulations of the CHL field.

111 **3 Model Diagnosis**

112 We hypothesize that oceanic mesoscale dynamics play an important role in the sea-
 113 sonality of $\rho_{SSH',CHL'}$ along the ACC by regulating the availability of light and iron sup-
 114 ply and resulting in differing CHL responses in summer and winter. There is a positive

115 correlation between MLD and SSH anomalies in all seasons over most of the SO, suggest-
116 ing that positive SSH anomalies have deeper mixed layers than those with negative SSH
117 anomalies (Figs 1e,f and 2e). This MLD modulation is more intense and systematic in
118 winter than in summer, evident in a larger MLD difference between positive and negative
119 SSH anomalies and a higher correlation coefficient between anomalies of SSH and MLD
120 (Figs 2e and 3a,b). The degree of MLD modulation increases with the size of the SSH
121 anomaly. For example, the wintertime MLD difference between positive and negative SSH
122 anomalies greater than 5 cm is 24 m; this difference increases to 55 m when SSH anoma-
123 lies greater than 20 cm are considered. The simulated correlation between SSH anomalies
124 and MLD, seasonality in MLD modulation and dependency of MLD anomaly on the SSH
125 anomaly amplitude are consistent with observed variations of MLD in eddies, whereby an-
126 ticyclones exhibit weaker stratification and deeper mixed layers than cyclones [*Hausmann*
127 *et al.*, 2017].

128 In winter, light is the primary factor limiting productivity throughout the whole wa-
129 ter column and iron limitation is of diminished importance (Fig. 3b). Since light is sup-
130 plied at the surface and attenuates with depth, mixed-layer mean light (or photosyntheti-
131 cally active radiation; $\langle \text{PAR} \rangle$) declines with increasing MLD. We find that $\langle \text{PAR} \rangle$ is nega-
132 tively correlated with SSH throughout the year (Fig. 2d) and is approximately 30% lower
133 in positive SSH anomalies than negative ones in winter (Fig. 4c) and about 7% lower in
134 summer (Fig. 4a). Hence deeper mixing in positive SSH anomalies decreases $\langle \text{PAR} \rangle$ ex-
135 perience by phytoplankton in the mixed layer; it is this effect that has the potential to
136 explain lower wintertime CHL in positive versus negative anomalies in SSH (Figs 3a,d).

137 In contrast, productivity is iron limited in the summer (Fig. 3b). The model simu-
138 lation shows that positive SSH anomalies in the ACC have 30% more $\langle \text{Fe} \rangle$ than negative
139 SSH anomalies in winter (Fig. 4c) and approximately 15% more in summer (Fig. 4a). A
140 budget analysis for $\langle \text{Fe} \rangle$ (Figure 4b,d; see Supplemental Information for details) quanti-
141 fies the various mechanisms of iron supply and removal. Iron is supplied to the mixed
142 layer by lateral and vertical advection, vertical mixing, aeolian input of dust, and entrain-
143 ment associated with changes in the MLD; it is consumed by phytoplankton uptake and
144 removed via scavenging on sinking particulates. Among these processes, we find that the
145 supply of iron by vertical mixing differs most between positive and negative SSH anoma-
146 lies. Supply of iron by vertical mixing in positive SSH anomalies has a median value that
147 is roughly 10% higher than in negative SSH anomalies when normalized by the mean

148 $\langle \text{Fe} \rangle$ in the ACC. The differences in other terms are small compared to that in the verti-
149 cal mixing. Iron input from dust increases $\langle \text{Fe} \rangle$ but, as might be expected, the differences
150 between positive and negative SSH anomalies are negligible. The biogeochemical sink is
151 the largest in summer with slightly more loss of iron in positive SSH anomalies due to
152 higher phytoplankton productivity.

153 The contribution from advection, including eddy-driven lateral advection via trap-
154 ping and stirring, potentially plays a role regionally if iron concentrations increase equa-
155 torward (i.e., warm anticyclonic features with anomalously high iron concentration and
156 cold cyclonic features with lower iron concentration). The Atlantic Ocean sector has a
157 clear increasing equatorward trend of iron concentration in both observations [Mawji *et al.*,
158 2015] and the model (Supplementary Fig. 3), i.e. sufficiently large to make an effect. Yet,
159 in the Indian and Pacific Ocean sectors, small meridional gradients in iron are reported in
160 the spring/summer vertical section of iron from GEOTRACES Intermediate Data Product
161 2014 [Mawji *et al.*, 2015]. Our simulation generally agrees with observations (See Supple-
162 mentary Fig. 2), and also reveals a small summertime lateral gradient of the surface iron
163 in the Indian and Pacific Ocean sectors, which remains unchanged even below the mixed
164 layer (Supplementary Fig. 3a,b), consistent with the overall small difference of iron advec-
165 tion between positive and negative SSH anomalies.

166 While the budget analysis confirms that vertical mixing is a dominant process sup-
167 plying iron to the mixed layer of positive SSH anomalies, the mechanisms driving this en-
168 hancement are complex. Iron concentrations are elevated both within and below the MLD
169 (Figs 3a-c). This suggests that part of the enhanced vertical flux in positive SSH anoma-
170 lies is attributable to a larger Fe reservoir underlying these features at depth. Indeed, both
171 the observations and the model simulation suggest that MLD modulation by the mesoscale
172 is relatively subtle in summer; thus, the enhanced vertical iron gradient in positive SSH
173 anomalies (Fig. 3c) may be the primary feature driving differences in iron supply by ver-
174 tical mixing—as opposed to mixed layer modulation. In any case, our model simulates
175 a positive correlation between anomalies of SSH and iron averaged over the mixed layer
176 ($\langle \text{Fe} \rangle$) (Fig. 2c).

4 Discussion

Our study emphasizes the importance of mesoscale processes affecting phytoplankton growth through modulation of the MLD and iron availability. Features with anomalously high SSH are characterized by deeper mixed layers while those with negative SSH anomalies have anomalously shallow MLD. These modulations affect light levels resulting in lower/higher chlorophyll in positive/negative SSH anomalies in winter. The MLD modulation by the mesoscale is also seen in summer, but the median MLD difference is less than 5 m along the ACC. Nevertheless, the MLD modulation and anomalous vertical gradient of iron together make iron supply by vertical mixing different in positive versus negative SSH anomalies and contribute to iron anomalies in the mixed layer. Our results suggest that anomalies in iron availability and light exposure associated with the mesoscale and the alternating role of iron and light limitation in summer and winter play a major role in explaining seasonally changing correlation between SSH and chlorophyll anomalies along the ACC (Figs. 3e,f).

In other highly dynamic regions of intense eddy activity such as the Gulf Stream or the Kuroshio Current, it is thought that eddies cause anomalies of CHL concentration primarily through eddy-driven advection of large-scale CHL gradients, i.e. stirring and trapping [Kouketsu *et al.*, 2015; Gaube *et al.*, 2014]. The meridional gradient of CHL suggests that advective mechanisms cannot be entirely ruled out in understanding the correlations along the ACC (Supplementary Figs 1c-d). While advection of chlorophyll plays a role in generating anomaly correlations, the seasonal sign switch of correlations cannot be explained based solely on advective mechanisms [I. Frenger, personal communication, 2017].

Our model-based results strongly suggest that the modulation of iron and light limitation by the mesoscale is a crucial mechanism driving CHL perturbations in the ACC region. In particular, the MLD modulation by the mesoscale in winter is the mechanism that have recently been identified as important also for nitrate supply in the subtropical gyres [Dufois *et al.*, 2016] and air-sea chlorofluorocarbon-11 exchange in the SO [Song *et al.*, 2015].

We report a higher level of iron in positive SSH anomalies along the ACC in both seasons. A possible explanation for higher iron in positive SSH anomalies in summer is preconditioning during winter. In winter when the MLD modulation is particularly intense, deeper mixed layers in positive SSH anomalies have considerably higher iron concentra-

209 tion than the shallower mixed layers of negative SSH anomalies. Anomalously high iron
210 in positive SSH anomalies in winter is not heavily used due to the lack of sunlight, and
211 subsequently may promote elevated primary productivity in summer. The mixed layer
212 shoals rapidly after winter, but vertical mixing at the base of the mixed layer continues
213 to entrain iron from the layer that was previously in the mixed layer during winter. Hence
214 positive SSH anomalies have relatively iron-rich water below the summertime mixed layer
215 compared to negative SSH anomalies, and this may contribute to differences in iron lim-
216 itation among the two types of features. This explanation can be applied to well-formed
217 and long-lived SSH anomalies whose lifespans are of the order of months (eddies).

218 Our study defines eddies based on SSH anomalies (> 5 cm) instead of the closed
219 SSH contour as in other studies [*Chelton et al., 2007; Hausmann et al., 2017*]. Hence the
220 correlation between SSH and chlorophyll anomalies includes not only coherent eddy struc-
221 tures but also mesoscale fronts and meanders. This may cause the MLD modulations com-
222 puted in both the observations and the model to be weaker than those that would result
223 from restricting our analysis to coherent structures, and thereby make the anomalous iron
224 flux by vertical mixing stand out less.

225 Understanding the influence of mesoscale processes on vertical mixing and iron sup-
226 ply is important for more accurate estimation of SO's role in global carbon cycle. How-
227 ever, coarse resolution climate modeling systems on which current studies rely do not re-
228 solve the ocean's mesoscale. Such models cannot capture mixed layer modulation by the
229 mesoscale, leading to as yet unknown biases in air-sea carbon dioxide flux. Quantifying
230 the integrated effects of these phenomena on biological uptake and the supply of carbon
231 rich water from depth is necessary to better understand the role of mesoscale on biogeo-
232 chemical cycling in the SO.

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Correlation between SSH' and CHL'

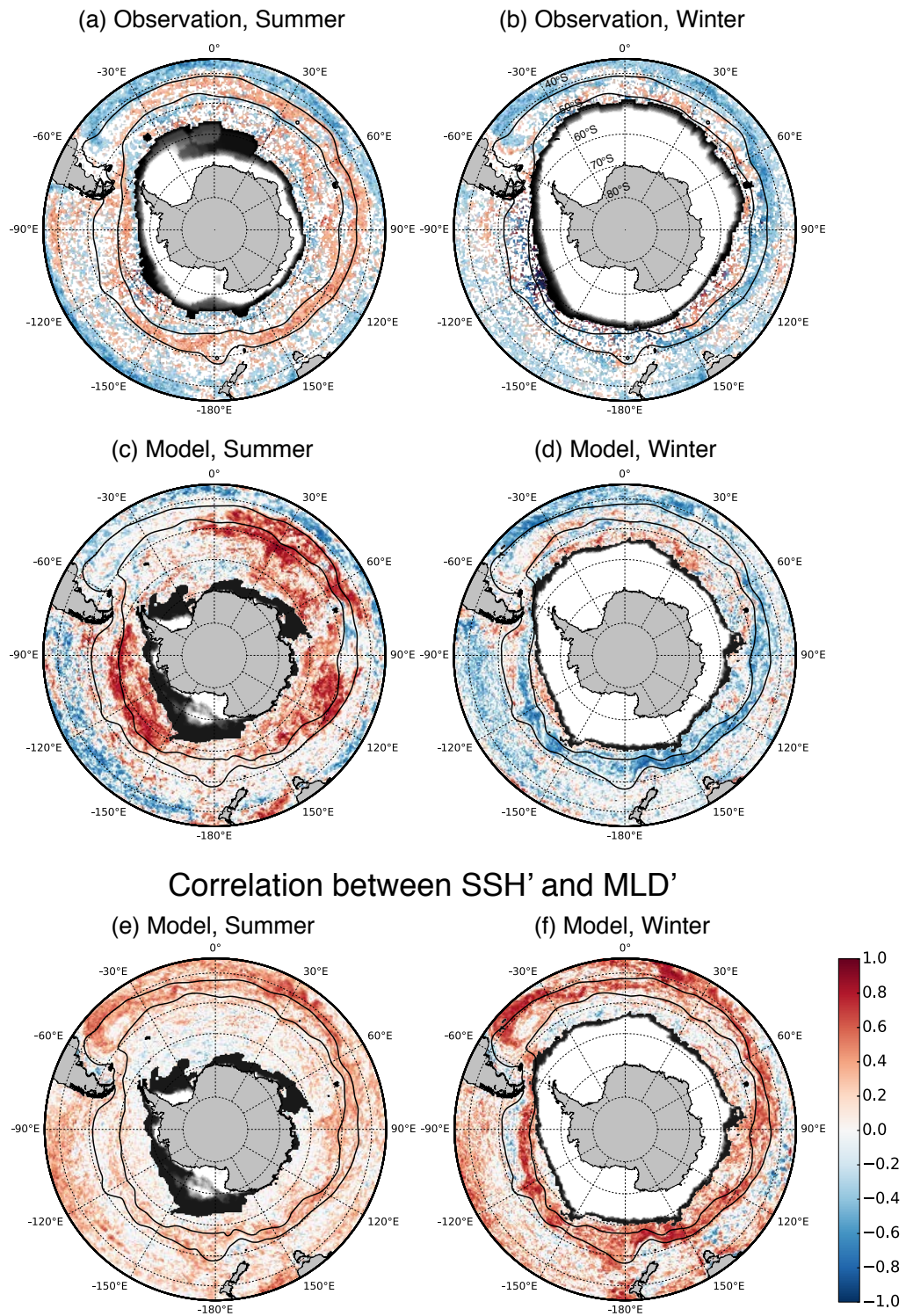
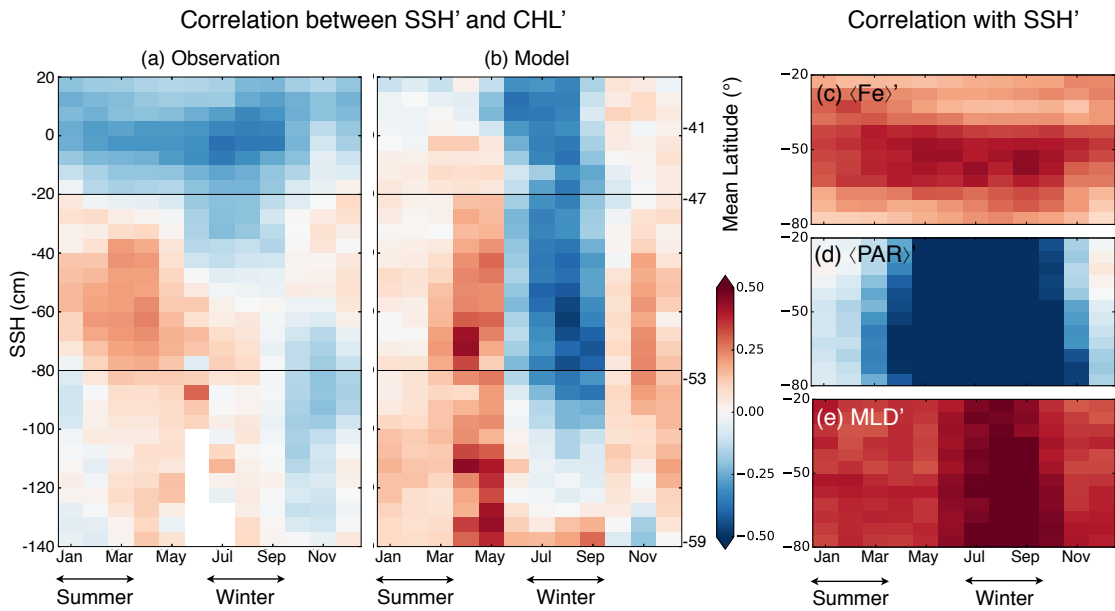
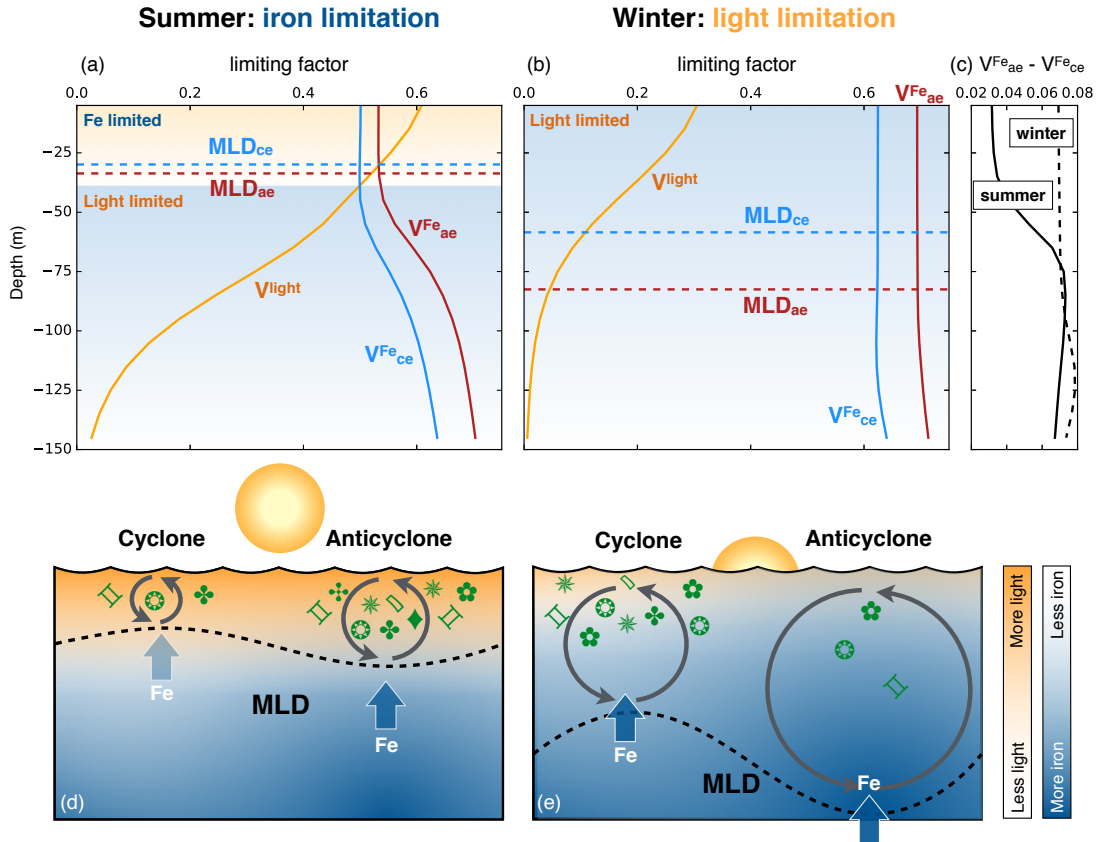


Figure 1. (Caption next pages.)

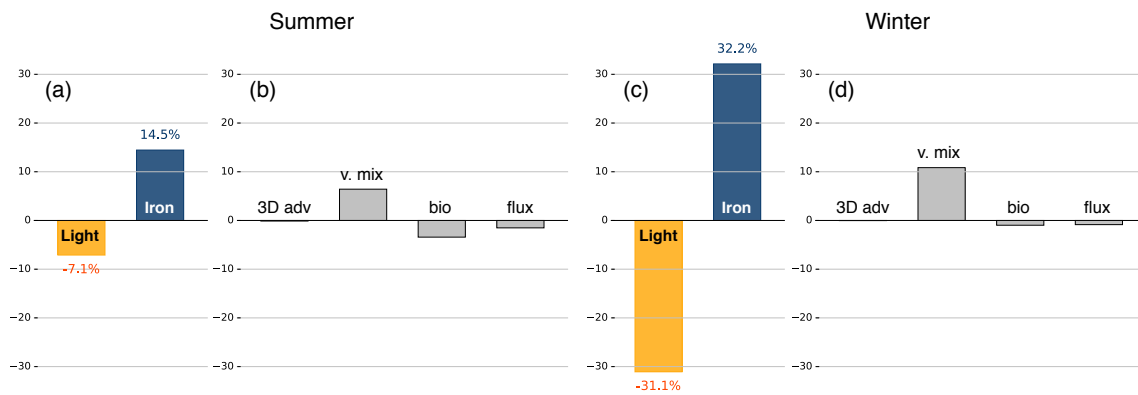
320 **Figure 1.** (Previous page.) The correlation coefficients between anomalies of sea surface height (SSH) and
 321 chlorophyll in the (a,b) satellite observations and (c,d) 1/10° ocean model are shown as pseudo-color images.
 322 The left and right columns show the (a,c) correlation for austral summer (January-March) and (b,d) austral
 323 winter (July-September), respectively. Black contours mark the sea level isolines of -20 cm and -80 cm
 324 that enclose the ACC. The masks in gray scale around Antarctica represent the sea-ice area fraction from the
 325 Hadley Centre Sea Ice and Sea Surface Temperature data set in (a,b) and from the model in (c,d). The sea-ice
 326 area fraction decreases from 1 to 0 as the color changes from white to black. The correlation coefficients
 327 between anomalies of SSH and mixed layer depth (MLD) in the eddy-rich model are also presented similarly
 328 in (e,f).



329 **Figure 2.** The correlation of anomalies in SSH and chlorophyll along SSH isolines in (a) observations and
 330 (b) model. The areas within two black lines at -80 cm and -20 cm approximate the ACC and correspond to the
 331 black contours in Figure 1. The equivalent latitude is shown on the right y-axis in (b). Panels on the right are
 332 the correlation coefficients of anomalies of the (c) iron and (d) light limiting factor averaged over the MLD,
 333 and (e) MLD with SSH anomalies. Correlations are statistically significant at the 99% confidence level.



334 **Figure 3.** (a,b) The median vertical profiles of light limiting factor (marked by “ V^{light} ” in orange) and iron
 335 limiting factors for positive SSH anomalies (anticyclones marked by “ $V^{Fe_{ae}}$ ”) and negative SSH anomalies
 336 (cyclones marked by “ $V^{Fe_{ce}}$ ”) in the biogeochemical model averaged in the ACC. In summer, iron is the
 337 limiting factor for the primary productivity within the mixed layer, however, light limits primary productivity
 338 more below the mixed layer (a). The magnitude of limiting factor is inversely related to its’ affect on primary
 339 productivity, e.g., light is more important than iron concentration throughout the whole water column in winter
 340 (b). Blue and red dotted lines represent the median value for mixed layer depth (MLD) within negative
 341 (cyclones) and positive (anticyclones) SSH anomalies, in the ACC. Panel (c) displays the vertical
 342 profile of the iron limiting factor differences ($V^{Fe_{ae}} - V^{Fe_{ce}}$) in summer (solid line) and winter (dashed line).
 343 A diagram depicting the mesoscale modulation of MLD and its impact on phytoplankton biomass in two
 344 different seasons in the Southern Ocean are shown in panes (d) and (e). The brightness of the blue and orange
 345 shading represents the iron concentration and sunlight intensity, respectively. In summer, primary production
 346 is controlled by iron supply (blue arrows) and not light in the mixed layer (d). In winter, intensive vertical
 347 mixing enriches iron concentration near the surface, but low light availability limits primary production (e).



348 **Figure 4.** The bar plots in (a,c) represent the percentage differences in light level (yellow) and iron con-
 349 centration (blue) in the mixed layer between positive (anticyclones) and negative (cyclones) SSH anomalies
 350 in summer and winter, respectively. The percentage differences between anticyclones and cyclones in var-
 351 ious contribution to the iron averaged over the mixed layer are plotted in (b,d). Those contributions are
 352 3-dimensional advection (3D adv), vertical mixing (v. mix), biogeochemical cycle (bio) and flux from dust
 353 (flux), and they are normalized by the averaged iron in the mixed layer.

Supporting Information for

“Mesoscale modulation of mixed layer depth and its impact on Southern Ocean chlorophyll”

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Satellite observations

The SSH anomaly fields were downloaded from Collecte Localis Satellites (CLS/AVISO) on a 1/4 degree grid for the 10 year period 1998 to 2007 at 7-day intervals. The near-surface chlorophyll concentration product comes from the Sea-Viewing Wide Field-of-View Sensor (SeaWiFS) project during the same period as the SSH anomaly. The Garver-Siegel-Maritorena (GSM) semi-analytical ocean color algorithm [Garver and Siegel, 1997; Maritorena et al., 2002; Siegel et al., 2002] was used to estimate CHL from ocean color measurements made by SeaWiFS. The log-transformed daily chlorophyll concentration estimates were averaged within the 1/4×1/4 degree grid to match the resolution of the SSH anomaly fields. The CHL fields were first \log_{10} transformed and then low-pass filtered using a loess smoother with a half-power cutoff of 2° in both latitude and longitude and 35-days in time onto. The resultant smoothed CHL fields have spatial and temporal resolution comparable with the SSH anomaly fields. The anomalies of the CHL fields were computed at each 7-day time step by high-pass filtering with a spatial loess smoother with a half-power cutoff of 6° in both latitude and longitude. The resulting anomalies are then transformed back to linear concentrations Campbell [1995]; Gaube et al. [2013] and $\rho_{SSH,CHL}$ is computed for each grid box as shown in Figures 1a,b. In addition, we com-

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puted $\rho_{SSH',CHL'}$ in SSH bins, *i.e.* approximately along streamlines as shown in Figure 2a (see also *Frenger* [2013]).

Model Simulations

The mechanisms generating observed $\rho_{SSH',CHL'}$ were examined using the Biogeochemical Elemental Cycling (BEC) model [*Moore et al.*, 2002, 2004, 2013] coupled to the ocean circulation component of the Community Earth System Model (CESM) with a resolution of 0.1° (less than 10 km in zonal direction in the Drake Passage). The total chlorophyll concentration is computed as the sum of chlorophyll of three phytoplankton functional groups whose biomasses are affected by the uptake of varied nutrients including iron, and grazing by zooplankton. The vertical mixing is estimated by the K-Profile Parameterization (KPP) mixing scheme [*Large et al.*, 1994] and we treated the depth of planetary boundary layer as MLD in the analysis.

The model was integrated for 5 years archiving 5-day means. The simulated SSH anomalies were computed by removing the spatial mean of 4×4 degree grid boxes. The procedure for the chlorophyll anomaly computation follows that used in the satellite data but from simulated 5-day mean total chlorophyll concentrations. For Figures 1 and 2, the solutions were mapped to the same grid as the satellite SSH anomalies before computing the correlation.

Nutrient limitation

Phytoplankton growth rates in the ocean biogeochemistry component of the CESM are computed as

$$\mu_i = \mu_{i,ref} \cdot T_f \cdot V_i \cdot L_i \quad (1)$$

where μ_i is the C-specific growth rate (d^{-1}) for phytoplankton functional type (PFT) i , $\mu_{i,ref}$ is the maximum growth rate (referenced to 30°C), and T_f is the temperature limitation (“Q10”) function; V_i and L_i are the nutrient and light response functions, respectively [*Geider et al.*, 1998]. For diatoms (diat) and “small” phytoplankton (sp), the nutrient response function follows Liebig’s law of the minimum, such that the ultimate limitation term used to compute growth is that of the most limiting nutrient:

$$V_{diat} = \min(V_{diat}^N, V_{diat}^P, V_{diat}^{Fe}, V_{diat}^{Si}) \quad (2)$$

$$V_{sp} = \min(V_{sp}^N, V_{sp}^P, V_{sp}^{Fe}) \quad (3)$$

Evaluation of the Model Simulation

The eddy-rich 0.1° CESM has the sea surface height (SSH) variability that agrees well with the one estimated from space. Figure S1(a) shows the standard deviation of SSH in the observation from Collecte Localis Satellites (CLS/AVISO) that we used in this study. The regions of elevated SSH variability include the Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC), Brazil-Malvinas Confluence, Agulhas Current retroflection and East Australian Current. The model simulation captures not only the spatial pattern of elevated SSH variability but also the magnitude of it (Fig. S1(b)). The simulated chlorophyll (CHL) at the surface agrees with SeaWiFS observation to a somewhat lesser degree than SSH variability. Although it underestimates the CHL concentration, the model generally shows similar patterns of high CHL as satellite observations. The simulated iron also captures a large scale iron distribution in observations (Fig. S2).

Iron is the limiting nutrient in the south of ACC for all phytoplankton types in the model, hence the information of the iron meridional gradient is important to understand the chlorophyll variability associated with the mesoscale. In summer (January-March), the Indian-Pacific sector has little meridional gradient as iron is depleted by active primary production, which makes it unlikely that lateral advection such as through stirring and trapping are driving the iron anomaly in Fig 4a. In the Atlantic sector, however, iron concentration generally increases equatorward (Fig. S3(top)). Consistent with *in situ* observations [Bowie *et al.*, 2002], iron is supplied from the Patagonian Shelf to the northern ACC creating a meridional gradient in the model. Also, the dust input from the atmosphere is the greatest in the Atlantic sector [Luo *et al.*, 2008]. With increasing iron concentrations toward equator, the eddy-driven advection, as well as vertical mixing, can create iron perturbations associated with eddies.

In winter (July-September), the surface ocean features a higher iron concentration than in summer. The primary productivity is more regulated by the light availability, nevertheless the wintertime iron distribution shows how closely iron is linked to the vertical mixing, especially in the Indian-Pacific sector. There, deeper vertical mixing enriches the surface ocean with iron as indicated by the fact that higher concentration of iron collocates with the region of relatively deep mixed layers (> 50 m) (Fig. S3(bottom)). The mixed layer depth in the Indian-Pacific sector is spatially inhomogeneous, so there are larger horizontal iron gradients than in summer. As a result, it is more likely that the

eddy-driven advection sets the perturbations in iron, but vertical mixing modulation becomes larger than in summer at the same time. The Atlantic sector shows a meridional gradient of iron that is not different from summer.

The budget of the iron averaged over mixed layer

We analyzed the budget of iron ($fe(z,t)$) averaged over the mixed layer $H(t) = \eta(t) - h(t)$, where $\eta(t)$ is the sea surface height and $h(t)$ is the time-varying depth of the boundary layer determined by the KPP mixing scheme. The temporal evolution of the iron averaged over the mixed layer ($\langle Fe \rangle \equiv \frac{1}{H(t)} \int_{h(t)}^{\eta(t)} fe(z,t) dz$) can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\langle Fe \rangle}{dt} &= \frac{d}{dt} \left[\frac{1}{H(t)} \right] \int_{h(t)}^{\eta(t)} fe(z,t) dz + \frac{1}{H(t)} \int_{h(t)}^{\eta(t)} \frac{d}{dt} fe(z,t) dz \\ &+ \frac{1}{H(t)} \left[fe(\eta(t),t) \frac{d\eta(t)}{dt} - fe(h(t),t) \frac{dh(t)}{dt} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{H(t)} \int_{h(t)}^{\eta(t)} \frac{d}{dt} fe(z,t) dz \\ &+ \frac{1}{H(t)} \left[(fe(\eta(t),t) - \langle Fe \rangle) \frac{d\eta(t)}{dt} - (fe(h(t),t) - \langle Fe \rangle) \frac{dh(t)}{dt} \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

The first and second terms represent the mean tendency of iron in the mixed layer and the contribution by entrainment/detrainment, respectively.

The $fe(z,t)$ tendency in the model is computed as follows.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} fe(z,t) &= -A_h(z,t) - \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (w(z,t) fe(z,t)) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(\kappa(z,t) \frac{\partial fe(z,t)}{\partial z} \right) \\ &+ F(z,t) + B(z,t), \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

where A_h is the horizontal advection, w is the vertical velocity, $\kappa(z,t)$ is the vertical diffusivity, $F(z,t)$ is the surface iron flux (nonzero only at the surface) and $B(z,t)$ is the biological source/sink term. Using (5), (4) can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\langle Fe \rangle}{dt} &= \frac{1}{H(t)} \int_{h(t)}^{\eta(t)} \left[-A_h(z,t) - \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (w(z,t) fe(z,t)) \right] dz && \text{[3D adv]} \\ &- \frac{1}{H(t)} \kappa(h(t),t) \left. \frac{\partial fe(z,t)}{\partial z} \right|_{z=h} && \text{[v. mix]} \\ &+ \frac{1}{H(t)} \int_{h(t)}^{\eta(t)} F(z,t) dz && \text{[flux]} \\ &+ \frac{1}{H(t)} \int_{h(t)}^{\eta(t)} B(z,t) dz && \text{[bio]} \\ &+ \frac{1}{H(t)} \left[(fe(\eta(t),t) - \langle Fe \rangle) \frac{d\eta(t)}{dt} - (fe(h(t),t) - \langle Fe \rangle) \frac{dh(t)}{dt} \right] && \text{[ent]} \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

with the surface value of the diffusivity, $\kappa(\eta(t),t) = 0$.

Statistics

We constructed distributions of $\langle \text{Fe} \rangle$, $\langle \text{PAR} \rangle$ and the terms in (6) at the locations of anticyclones and cyclones in summer and winter along the ACC. Since not all distributions are normally distributed (e.g. $\langle \text{Fe} \rangle$), the median is used as a representative measure of the distributions. The medians of $\langle \text{Fe} \rangle$ and $\langle \text{PAR} \rangle$ distributions for anticyclones and cyclones in the ACC are first obtained. Then the differences in medians between anticyclones and cyclones are normalized by that appropriate to the entire ACC. In Figures 4a,c, we plot the percent value of the median differences.

The terms in (6) are normalized by the median of $\langle \text{Fe} \rangle$ along the entire ACC after being multiplied by 10 days, the time interval used in the tendency equation in the model. We then compare the medians of each term's distribution to quantify the systematic differences between anticyclones and cyclones in Figures 4b,d in the main article. The 95% confidence intervals are estimated using bootstrapping and are very close to the median itself due to a large sample size, hence they are not plotted in Figure 4. It is noted that the advection term includes all advective processes in the region whose absolute SSH anomaly exceeds 5 cm. Hence, it does not solely represent the advection by coherent eddy structures through stirring or trapping.

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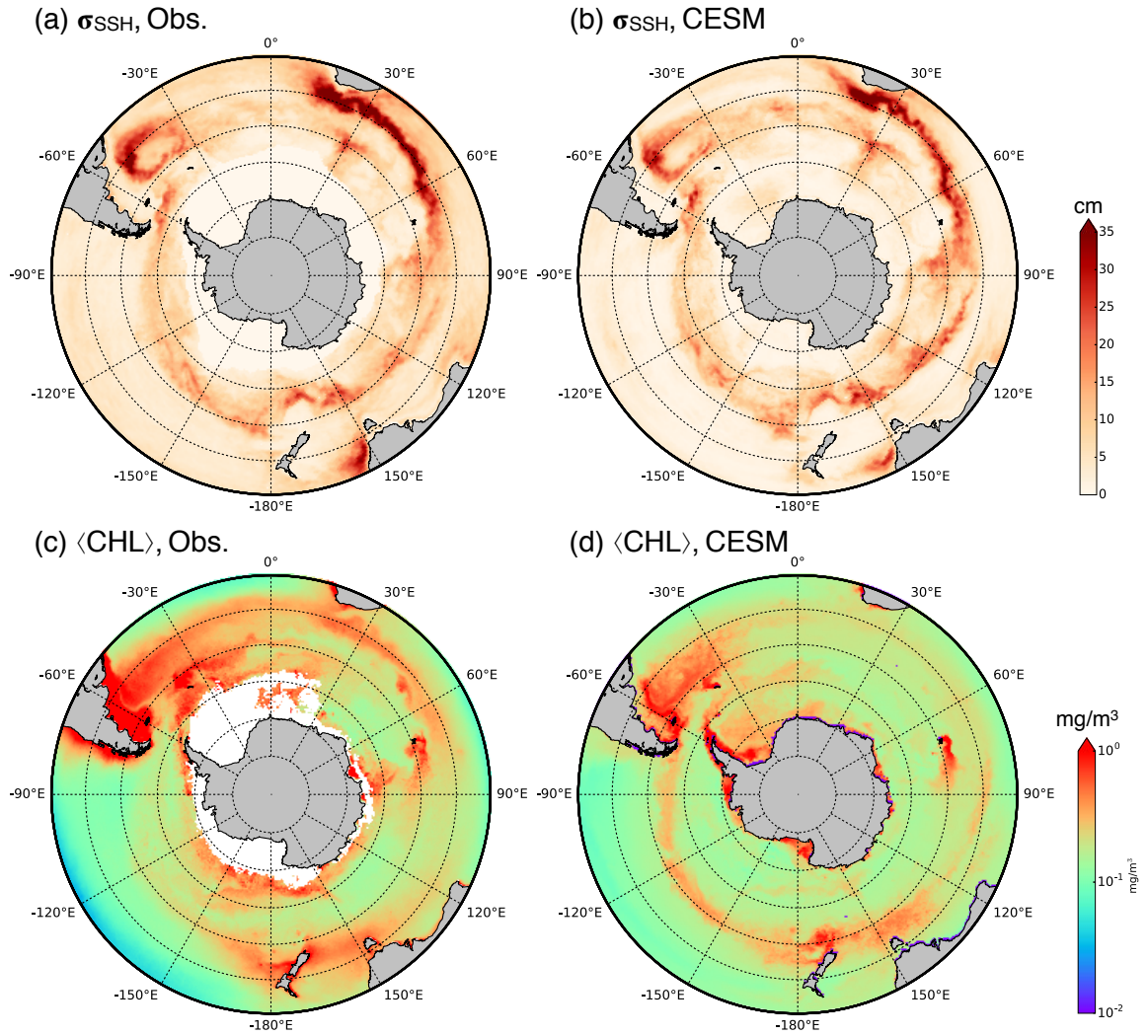


Figure S1. Standard deviation of sea surface height from (a) satellite observation and (b) eddy-resolving CESM. (c) and (d) show the time averaged surface chlorophyll estimated by ocean color and CESM, respectively. The white mask in (c) represents missing data.

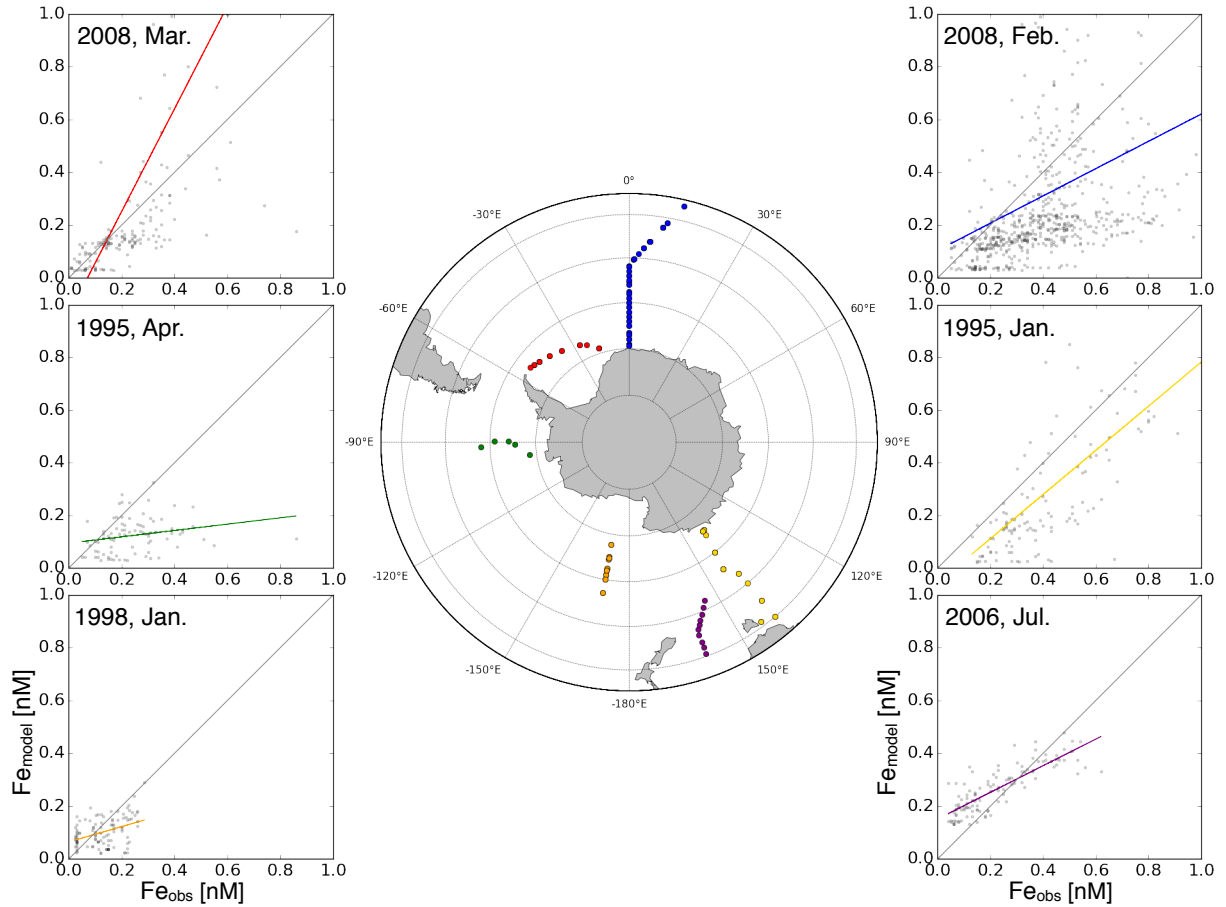


Figure S2. Dissolved iron data from observations and the model simulation is plotted along 6 transects in the SO. The observational data is taken from *Tagliabue et al. [2012]*. The colored lines are the linear least squares fit between the observations and the model data (gray dots), while gray lines are the one with a slope of 1. The colored dots on the map indicate the sampling location corresponding to the same colored line in the 6 panels.

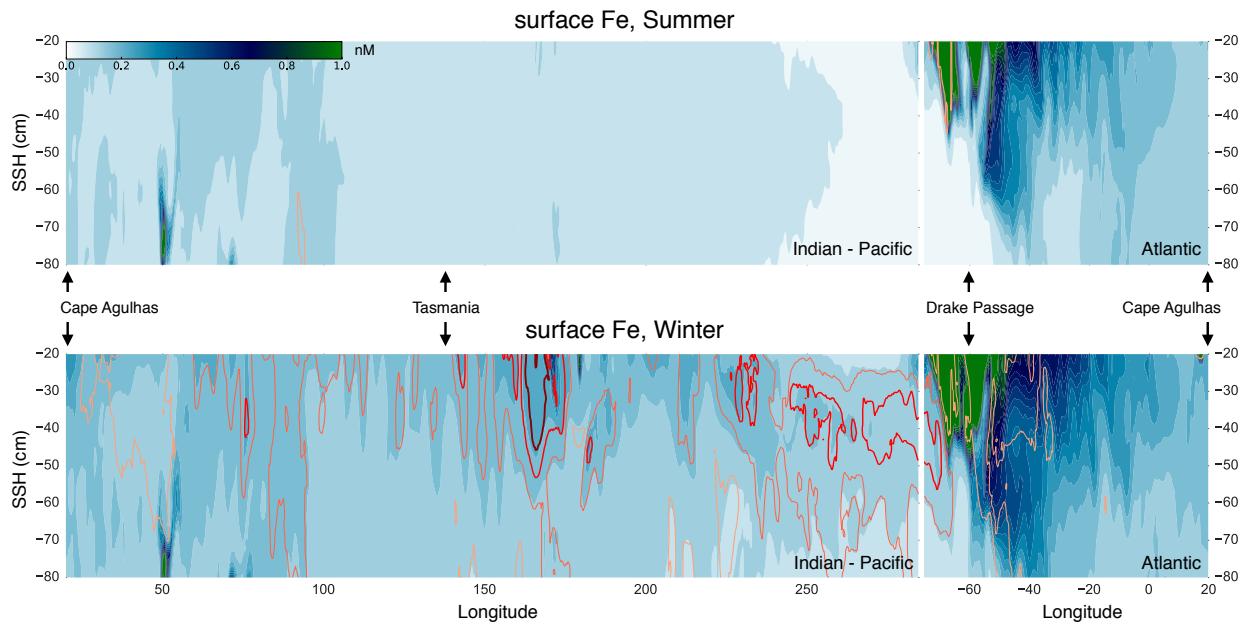


Figure S3. The shading is the seasonal mean iron along the SSH isolines for austral (top) summer and (bottom) winter computed in CESM. Orange, pink, red and dark red contours represent the regions with 50 m, 100 m, 150 m and 200 m levels of the planetary boundary layer depths estimated by the KPP vertical mixing scheme, respectively.