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# 1 Seasonal Phytoplankton Blooms in the Gulf of Aden revealed by Remote 2 Sensing

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## 15 16 **ABSTRACT**

17  
18 The Gulf of Aden, situated in the northwest Arabian Sea and linked to the Red Sea, is a  
19 relatively unexplored ecosystem. Understanding of large-scale biological dynamics is limited  
20 by the lack of adequate datasets. In this study, we analyse 15 years of remotely-sensed  
21 chlorophyll-a data (Chl-a, an index of phytoplankton biomass) acquired from the Ocean  
22 Colour Climate Change Initiative (OC-CCI) of the European Space Agency (ESA). The  
23 improved spatial coverage of OC-CCI data in the Gulf of Aden allows, for the first time, an  
24 investigation into the full seasonal succession of phytoplankton biomass. Analysis of indices  
25 of phytoplankton phenology (bloom timing) reveals distinct phytoplankton growth periods in

26 different parts of the gulf: a large peak during August (mid-summer) in the western part of  
27 the gulf, and a smaller peak during November (mid-autumn) in the lower central gulf and  
28 along the southern coastline. The summer bloom develops rapidly at the beginning of July,  
29 and its peak is approximately three times higher than that of the autumnal bloom. Remotely-  
30 sensed sea-surface temperature (SST), wind-stress curl, vertical nutrient profiles and  
31 geostrophic currents inferred from the sea-level anomaly, were analysed to examine the  
32 underlying physical mechanisms that control phytoplankton growth. During summer, the  
33 prevailing southwesterlies cause upwelling along the northern coastline of the gulf (Yemen),  
34 leading to an increase in nutrient availability and enhancing phytoplankton growth along the  
35 coastline and in the western part of the gulf. In contrast, in the central region of the gulf,  
36 lowest concentrations of Chl-a are observed during summer, due to strong downwelling  
37 caused by a mesoscale anticyclonic eddy. During autumn, the prevailing northeasterlies  
38 enable upwelling along the southern coastline (Somalia) causing local nutrient enrichment in  
39 the euphotic zone, leading to higher levels of phytoplankton biomass along the coastline and  
40 in the lower central gulf. The monsoon wind reversal is shown to play a key role in  
41 controlling phytoplankton growth in different regions of the Gulf of Aden.

42

43 Keywords: ocean colour remote sensing, chlorophyll, phenology, Gulf of Aden, upwelling,  
44 monsoon

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## 51 1. INTRODUCTION

52

53 The Gulf of Aden is a narrow, elongated, oceanic basin bordering the coastlines of southern  
54 Yemen and northern Somalia (Fig. 1). The gulf is ~900 km in length, with an average depth  
55 of approximately 1800 m, and has a total area of ~220,000 km<sup>2</sup> [*Al Saafani and Shenoi, 2007*].  
56 On its western side, the strait of Bab-El-Mandeb permits water exchange between the Gulf of  
57 Aden and the Red Sea, whereas the eastern end of the gulf opens to the northwest Arabian  
58 Sea.

59 The Gulf of Aden is characterised by high levels of marine biodiversity and species  
60 richness [*Gladstone et al., 1999*] - a consequence of the tropical coral reef ecosystems located  
61 within coastal areas around the gulf. Through commercial and artisanal fisheries, the gulf  
62 provides an essential resource to its neighbouring countries and is an important provider of  
63 food to coastal populations [*Gladstone et al., 1999*]. The Gulf of Aden is also an important  
64 commercial shipping route for international trade, particularly petroleum. A substantial 12%  
65 of the world's oil supply is transported through the Gulf of Aden by ~50,000 vessels each  
66 year [*Kraska and Wilson, 2009*]. For this reason, the physical oceanography of the area has  
67 been carefully studied and the main physical processes that occur in the gulf are well  
68 understood [*Al Saafani, 2008*]. Water exchange between the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aden is  
69 influenced by the seasonal reversal of wind patterns (via the Indian monsoon), which alters  
70 the flow regime across Bab-El-Mandeb [*Murray and Johns, 1997; Smeed, 1997*], playing an  
71 important role in the stratification and circulation of the gulf [*Johns and Sofianos, 2012*].  
72 Using remotely-sensed SST imagery and datasets from Air-deployed Expendable  
73 Bathythermograph (AXBT) surveys, *Johns et al. [1999]* demonstrated that the general  
74 surface circulation within the Gulf of Aden is characterised by mesoscale eddies (mostly

75 anticyclonic). These are commensurate with the width of the gulf and may have a substantial  
76 impact on its biology.

77 Knowledge on large-scale and long-term biological processes in the gulf is limited,  
78 primarily due to the lack of adequate data. Data paucity is aggravated by political instability  
79 in neighbouring countries and threats of piracy [Bower and Furey, 2012]. As a result, existing  
80 literature describing biological dynamics in the region is inconclusive. In particular, it is not  
81 clear when phytoplankton biomass across the Gulf of Aden is highest. Using *in situ*  
82 measurements, Baars *et al.* [1995] concluded that the majority of the Gulf of Aden is more  
83 oligotrophic during the spring and summer seasons, although they also observed a  
84 phytoplankton bloom in the western gulf (south of Bab-El-Mandeb) during August  
85 (southwest monsoon, June-September). Based on *in situ* observations, Wiebinga *et al.* [1997]  
86 found that there were low nutrient and chlorophyll-a (Chl-a) concentrations in surface waters,  
87 across most of the Gulf of Aden (samples taken in central and eastern gulf), during the  
88 southwest monsoon. An exception to this was a cold water mass observed in the western part  
89 of the gulf during the peak of the southwest monsoon (month not defined) in which the  
90 recorded *in situ* concentrations of Chl-a were as high as 5 mg/m<sup>3</sup>. However, Baars *et al.*  
91 [1995] and Wiebinga *et al.* [1997] came to the overall conclusion that the gulf was most  
92 productive during the northeast monsoon (November-February) whilst the former study also  
93 reported relatively large levels of mesozooplankton biomass associated with the northeast  
94 monsoon, including diapausing populations of the copepod *Calanoides carinatus* which were  
95 found across the entire gulf between depths of 300-1500 metres. Both of the studies described  
96 above have proposed that phytoplankton communities in the Gulf of Aden are dominated  
97 mainly by picophytoplankton (primarily *Prochlorococcus* and two strains of *Synechococcus*  
98 according to Baars *et al.*, 1995). This is consistent with the results of a study carried out by

99 *Gradinger et al.* [1992], who found that picoplankton were the dominant size fraction in the  
100 Gulf of Aden during February/March 1987.

101 The abundance, phenology (bloom timing) and size-structure of phytoplankton in the  
102 oceans have a vital influence on the structure of marine food webs. Phytoplankton provides  
103 an essential food source for some marine mammals and numerous species of commercially  
104 important fish, whereas fluctuations in the spatiotemporal distribution of phytoplankton have  
105 been shown to influence the biodiversity trends of various marine organisms [*Nybakken,*  
106 1997]. Phytoplankton also have a key role in maintaining the biodiversity of coral reef  
107 ecosystems; *Lo-Yat et al.* [2011] demonstrated a strong relationship between Chl-a  
108 concentration and fish larval supply on a tropical coral reef ecosystem. Despite the  
109 importance of phytoplankton in the function of marine ecosystems, the seasonal succession of  
110 phytoplankton biomass in the Gulf of Aden has not yet been well established, mainly because  
111 of the lack of adequate *in situ* data.

112 An alternative approach to *in situ* data collection is visible spectral radiometry (ocean  
113 colour remote sensing) from which we can estimate phytoplankton biomass indexed as  
114 concentrations of Chl-a. An overview of the ocean colour remote sensing missions can be  
115 found in the review by *McClain* [2009]. Remote sensing measurements of ocean colour have  
116 provided scientists with valuable information essential to characterise the seasonality of  
117 phytoplankton biomass in the surface of the ocean (e.g. *Dandonneau et al.*, 2004; *Raitsos et*  
118 *al.*, 2013). Satellite remote sensing allows synoptic observations of Chl-a concentration  
119 which provides the basis to determine ecological indicators characterising the state of the  
120 marine ecosystem at regional and global scales [*Platt and Sathyendranath*, 2008; *Racault et*  
121 *al.*, 2014a].

122 Satellite-derived observations of ocean colour can be limited by cloud cover, sun-glint  
123 and high concentrations of atmospheric aerosols. In these conditions, atmospheric-correction

124 algorithms may not work, resulting in missing data in the ocean colour time-series. This is  
125 especially true for the Gulf of Aden, as the region is subject to persistent cloud cover during  
126 the southwest monsoon period, particularly throughout July [*Fratantoni et al.*, 2006].  
127 Consequently, detecting the seasonal cycle of phytoplankton biomass in the gulf has been  
128 challenging using observations from single-satellite ocean colour missions. However, new  
129 approaches have been recently developed to provide a significantly higher number of  
130 observations using multiple missions. One such approach is that employed by the Ocean  
131 Colour Climate Change Initiative (OC-CCI, *Sathyendranath et al.*, 2016) of the European  
132 Space Agency (ESA). In this project, data from multiple satellite instruments (SeaWiFS,  
133 MODIS, and MERIS) have been merged, after band shifting and bias correction, to achieve  
134 consistency across sensors, and then error-characterised based on validation using global *in*  
135 *situ* data. For processing MERIS data, OC-CCI made use of an atmospheric correction  
136 algorithm (POLYMER, *Steinmetz et al.*, 2011) capable of retrieving ocean data under some  
137 adverse conditions (high sun-glint, thin clouds and high aerosol optical depths). For MODIS  
138 and SeaWiFS, the SeaDAS atmospheric correction algorithm was used (see *Fu et al.*, 1998).  
139 The result is a time-series of ocean colour data, which provides significantly improved  
140 coverage compared with what had been possible previously [*Racault et al.*, 2015, their Fig. 2;  
141 *Sathyendranath et al.*, 2016]. In particular, for the Gulf of Aden, OC-CCI products have  
142 allowed us to observe the complete phytoplankton seasonality for the first time. The purpose  
143 of this study is to use the OC-CCI data to describe the spatiotemporal distribution of  
144 phytoplankton biomass in the Gulf of Aden, and to investigate its relationship with the  
145 regional physical and environmental drivers.

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## 149 2. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

150

### 151 2.1 Ocean-colour data from satellites

152

153 Version 1 of the ESA OC-CCI product [Sathyendranath *et al.*, 2016], comprising error-  
154 characterised, merged SeaWiFS, MODIS and MERIS data, was used in this study. Level 3  
155 mapped data were acquired at 4 km and daily resolutions from [http://www.esa-oceancolour-](http://www.esa-oceancolour-cci.org)  
156 [cci.org](http://www.esa-oceancolour-cci.org). The seasonal 8-day composites and climatologies of Chl-a data were constructed for  
157 the period 1997 to 2012. For further analyses, quarterly seasonal periods were chosen after  
158 careful analysis of time series of 8-day composite images (spring: April-June; summer: July-  
159 September; autumn: October-December; winter: January-March). It is worth mentioning that  
160 this study also refers to the southwest (summer) and northeast (winter) periods of the Arabian  
161 monsoon (which may span across two of our defined quarterly seasons) when we discuss the  
162 reversal in wind direction over the Gulf of Aden.

163

### 164 2.2 Sea-surface temperature data from satellites

165

166 MODIS monthly Night-time Sea-Surface Temperature (NSST) level 3 data products (4 km  
167 resolution) were acquired from the Goddard Earth Sciences Data and Information Services  
168 Centre at <http://disc.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/> for the period 2003-2013. Seasonal SST climatology  
169 maps were then generated for this period. Changes in SST may provide an indirect indication  
170 for the presence of upwelling/downwelling areas and eddies, which may influence nutrient  
171 availability (e.g. *Goes et al.*, 2000), thus making SST a valuable physical variable to consider  
172 when investigating the generation and development of phytoplankton blooms. We  
173 constructed seasonal climatologies of SST for the spring, summer, autumn and winter seasons



174 (as described in section 2.1).

175

### 176 *2.3 Wind-stress curl data from satellites*

177

178 Wind can have a key influence on the spatial and temporal variability of phytoplankton  
179 blooms. For this study, we reconstructed seasonal climatologies of wind-stress curl for two of  
180 the months in winter (January-February) and summer (July-August) from the 1/4 degree  
181 Scatterometer Climatology of Ocean Winds (SCOW, *Risien and Chelton, 2008*), which is  
182 based on the 1999-2009 QuikSCAT scatterometer data. Due to its relatively high resolution,  
183 the SCOW dataset can resolve dynamically important features in the surface wind-stress field.

184

### 185 *2.4 Geostrophic current data from satellites*

186

187 Satellite altimetry can be used to study the propagation pathways of warm and cold-core  
188 oceanic eddies. In this study, we used altimeter sea-level anomaly and associated geostrophic  
189 velocity data produced by Ssalto/Ducas and distributed by Aviso with support from the  
190 Centre National D'Etudes Spatiales (CNES). The geostrophic velocities are computed from  
191 gridded sea surface heights with respect to a twenty-year mean, based on multi-mission  
192 satellite altimeter observations. We used a minimum curvature surface fitting method [*Franke,*  
193 *1982*] to interpolate the weekly, 1/3° products on to a 1/4° equi-rectangular grid. The full  
194 methodological approach, and its application in the nearby Red Sea, can be found in *Raitsos*  
195 *et al. [2015]*.

196

197

198 2.5 Temperature and nutrient profiles

199

200 The vertical structure of the water column, and temporal variations in nutrient and  
201 temperature, can modify phytoplankton growth. To depict the seasonal temperature and  
202 nutrient distributions, one-degree, monthly, climatological, *in situ* data on temperature and  
203 nutrients were retrieved from the objectively-analysed World Ocean Atlas 2009 [WOA09,  
204 *Garcia et al.*, 2010; *Locarnini et al.*, 2010]. The WOA09 data are based on various types of  
205 *in situ* observations, including Conductivity-Temperature-Depth (CTD) profiles, Expandable  
206 Bathythermographs (XBT) and moored and drifting buoys. The monthly climatologies  
207 derived from the WOA09 data provide profiles of temperature and nutrients at standard  
208 depths for the Gulf of Aden, approximately along the zonal axis of the gulf.

209

210 2.6 Phytoplankton phenology maps

211

212 Phenology can be defined as the study of the timing of periodic biological events [*Schwartz,*  
213 2003]. The phenological indices (initiation, peak, termination and duration, *Platt and*  
214 *Sathyendranath*, 2008) of phytoplankton blooms have been estimated using the OC-CCI Chl-  
215 a climatology time-series for the period 1997-2012. Methods to estimate phenological  
216 indicators are susceptible to the presence of gaps in the ocean colour time-series [*Racault et*  
217 *al.*, 2014b]. In the region of study, an 8-day temporal resolution has been shown to be the  
218 most suitable, balancing the finest temporal resolution feasible with fewest missing data.  
219 *Steinmetz et al.* [2011] reported a significantly higher number of observations in the Arabian  
220 Sea when using the atmospheric correction algorithm POLYMER for processing MERIS data  
221 and *Racault et al.* [2015] have shown a significant increase in OC-CCI data coverage in  
222 summer months in the Red Sea. To further reduce missing data from the Chl-a time-series

223 prior to estimating the timing of ecological events, a linearisation scheme was applied, on  
224 each 8-day composite, sequentially in the order: longitude and latitude. Gaps were filled with  
225 the average value of the bordering grid points along the indicated axis [*Racault et al.*, 2012;  
226 *Racault et al.*, 2014b]. The averaging window had a width of three points and the surrounding  
227 points were weighted equally. The cumulative sum of anomalies method based on a threshold  
228 criterion previously applied in the Red Sea to estimate phenological indices of the  
229 phytoplankton growth period [*Racault et al.*, 2015] has been adapted to estimate the indices  
230 in the Gulf of Aden, as outlined below.

231 First, the timings of peak Chl-a concentration were examined during two time-  
232 intervals: winter (January-March) and summer (July-September), corresponding to possible  
233 growth periods in the Gulf of Aden. These time-intervals were selected after visual  
234 examination of the time-series in the different regions of the Gulf of Aden. The maximum  
235 Chl-a concentrations estimated in the two periods were compared and the season in which the  
236 higher of the two peaks occurred was recorded as the “main” phytoplankton growth period in  
237 the year. The threshold of 20% of the maximum climatological Chl-a concentration [*Platt et*  
238 *al.*, 2009] was then estimated using the higher of the two peak Chl-a values from the two  
239 periods. Then, we computed the cumulative sum of anomalies [*Lozowski et al.*, 1989] using  
240 the Chl-a climatology. The cumulative sum method has been shown to reduce the potential  
241 effect of “noise” or short pulses in the Chl-a data without filtering the signal [*Greve et al.*,  
242 2005; *Brody et al.*, 2013]. The cumulative sum of anomalies method used in the present study  
243 further allows us to identify persistent periods of Chl-a increase above the threshold,  
244 characterizing the phytoplankton growth period [*Racault et al.*, 2015]. The timings of  
245 initiation and termination were identified as the times when Chl-a concentrations rose above  
246 and later fell below the threshold respectively. The duration was estimated as the number of

247 8-day periods between the timings of initiation and termination. For convenience, the number  
248 of 8-day periods will be referred to as ‘weeks’ throughout the manuscript.

## 249 2.7 Validation of ocean-colour data

250

251 To confirm the reliability of satellite data in the Gulf of Aden (and thus the interpretation of  
252 our results), OC-CCI Chl-a data were validated by *in situ* measurements obtained within and  
253 just outside of the Gulf of Aden. *In situ* Chl-a data were acquired from two sources: (i) High  
254 Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC) data (8 measurements) from the GeP&CO  
255 program in August-September 2002 (<http://lodyc.jussieu.fr/gepco>; see *Dandonneau et al.*,  
256 2004) (ii) *in situ* data (42 measurements) from a lidar fluorosensor operated onboard the RV  
257 *Italica*, collected as part of the MIPOT oceanographic campaign during November 2001  
258 [*Barbini et al.*, 2004]. Daily satellite Chl-a data from OC-CCI were matched in time (over a  
259 3-day temporal window) and space (latitude and longitude, closest 4 km pixel) with *in situ*  
260 Chl-a data. The coefficient of variation (median coefficient of variation for remote-sensing  
261 reflectance bands between 412 and 555 nm) for a box of nine pixels surrounding each match-  
262 up was computed. To ensure homogeneity of the match-up site, only match-ups with a  
263 coefficient of variation  $< 0.15$ , and  $> 5$  of the 9 pixels were included (Bailey & Werdell 2006;  
264 Brewin et al. 2015c). The daily OC-CCI Chl-a data were averaged over the 3-day period  
265 centred on the day of *in situ* data collection. A total of 36 OC-CCI match-ups were obtained;  
266 30 for MIPOT and 6 for GeP&CO.

267 To compare the performance of the satellite Chl-a data with the *in situ* data in the Gulf  
268 of Aden, two univariate statistical tests were used: the Pearson correlation coefficient ( $r$ ), and  
269 the root mean square error ( $\psi$ ). The equations used for each of these statistical tests are  
270 provided in Section 4.1 of *Brewin et al.* [2015a]. All statistical tests were performed in  $\log_{10}$   
271 space, considering Chl-a is approximately log-normally distributed [*Campbell et al.*, 1995].

272           Given the limited coincident *in situ* observations of  $a_{dg}$  and Chl-a, it is difficult to  
273 determine the extent to which our temporal analysis of Chl-a may be influenced by  $a_{dg}$ . In  
274 order to test this, we used monthly OC-CCI data of  $a_{dg}(443)$  between January 1998 and  
275 December 2010, absorption by phytoplankton ( $a_{ph}(443)$ ), estimated from the algebraic Quasi-  
276 Analytical Algorithm (QAA) of *Lee et al.* [2002], and monthly OC-CCI Chl-a data. The  
277 QAA is designed to retrieve estimates of  $a_{dg}$  and  $a_{ph}$  independently, such that the influence of  
278  $a_{dg}$  and  $a_{ph}$  on the reflectance spectrum can be separated. For the absorption data, the  
279 wavelength of 443 nm was chosen as  $a_{ph}(443)$  typically has the highest signal at 443 nm and  
280 correlates very well with Chl-a at this wavelength [*Bricaud et al.*, 2004], and  $a_{dg}$  also has a  
281 high signal at this wavelength (decreases exponentially with increasing wavelength).

282

### 283 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

284

#### 285 *3.1 Phytoplankton phenology*

286

287 Phenological maps of the Gulf of Aden were produced to examine the timings of the  
288 phytoplankton growth periods (Fig. 2). Excluding a small region along the southern coastline  
289 and lower central gulf (indicated by violet area), the main phytoplankton growth period  
290 across the gulf starts towards the end of spring (June, weeks 20 to 25, Fig. 2a). This coincides  
291 with the onset of the southwest monsoon season after the annual reversal in wind direction  
292 across the entire Gulf of Aden [*Clemens et al.*, 1991]. Phytoplankton biomass at the western  
293 gulf, northern coastline and eastern gulf peaks during summer (August, weeks 24 to 30),  
294 indicating a distinct summer bloom (Fig. 2b). The phytoplankton bloom terminates abruptly  
295 at the end of summer (September, weeks 32 to 34) just prior to the transitional period  
296 (October) between the southwest and northeast monsoon [*Prasad and Ikeda*, 2001]. The

297 duration of the summer phytoplankton growth (from initiation to termination) is about ~2.5 to  
298 4 months (i.e. 8 to 15 weeks, Fig. 2d).

299 In the lower central gulf and along the southeast coast, phytoplankton growth starts at  
300 the end of summer (September, weeks 32 to 33, Fig. 2a). The discrepancy in bloom timing  
301 between regions continues, as a peak in phytoplankton biomass is evident in the central gulf  
302 and southern coastline during autumn (November, weeks 39 to 41, Fig. 2b). The  
303 phytoplankton growth continues throughout the remainder of autumn and winter before  
304 terminating at the commencement of spring (late March/April, weeks 9 to 13, Fig. 2c). Thus,  
305 in this region, Chl-a concentrations may remain higher than the threshold criterion for several  
306 months (Fig. 2d), and the duration of phytoplankton growth may span from autumn to spring;  
307 an estimate of approximately 6 months (i.e. 25 weeks) can be made for a large portion of the  
308 region (Fig. 2d).

309 To investigate the underlying causes of the two contrasting patterns in the seasonal  
310 blooming (i.e. in summer and late autumn), the 8-day mean climatology of Chl-a for the last  
311 15 years was further analysed for the two regions. Two specific areas, which will be referred  
312 to as Area A (western gulf) and Area B (lower central gulf), were selected to represent the  
313 two distinct blooming regions described above (e.g. Fig. 2b and 2c). These areas were chosen  
314 based on the phenological characteristics highlighted in the gulf and are indicated by red  
315 boxes in Figure 2c. No area was selected for the eastern gulf, as preliminary analysis showed  
316 that it exhibits a similar seasonal cycle to that of the region chosen for Area A (western gulf).  
317 The Chl-a data from these two areas were plotted as time-series, providing a representation of  
318 the seasonality of phytoplankton biomass (Fig. 3).

319 In Area A (Fig. 3a), the lowest concentrations of Chl-a are detected during spring  
320 (weeks 12 to 23). This corresponds to the transition between the northeast and southwest  
321 monsoon when winds are weak [Al Saafani, 2008; Al Saafani and Shenoi, 2007], probably

322 resulting in reduced mixing, stronger stratification of the water column, and minimal upward  
323 transfer of nutrients into the euphotic zone. Following this, the highest Chl-a concentrations  
324 occur in summer (weeks 26 to 30). As previously observed in Fig. 2b, a rapid increase in  
325 phytoplankton biomass occurs at the end of spring following the establishment of the  
326 southwest monsoon (Fig. 3a). Chl-a concentrations are highest during early August when a  
327 climatological mean of approximately  $3.3 \text{ mg/m}^3$  is observed, which then decreases rapidly in  
328 September (Fig. 3a). The standard error of Chl-a concentrations at the peak of the summer  
329 bloom (August) indicates that concentrations may reach  $\sim 5 \text{ mg/m}^3$  in some years (Fig. 3a).  
330 These high concentrations are consistent with previous studies using *in situ* measurements  
331 taken in the western gulf, south of the Bab-el-Mandeb strait, during the peak of the southwest  
332 monsoon [Wiebinga *et al.*, 1997, month not specified]. From week 35 in autumn until week 5  
333 in mid-winter, concentrations of Chl-a decrease and fluctuate between  $0.6$  and  $0.8 \text{ mg/m}^3$  (Fig.  
334 3a), signifying the end of the phytoplankton growth period.

335 Chl-a concentrations in Area B reach, on average, lowest levels during spring (April-  
336 June) with a minimum concentration of  $0.15 \text{ mg/m}^3$  occurring between weeks 16 to 20 (Fig.  
337 3b). Low Chl-a concentrations are observed throughout the summer period, with the  
338 exception of a very short-term increase at the beginning of July that diminishes abruptly  
339 (weeks 22 to 24, Fig. 3b). There is a gradual increase in Chl-a until the end of October ( $\sim$   
340 week 36), before its peak in late November, when a climatological mean of  $1.1 \text{ mg/m}^3$  can be  
341 observed (Fig. 3b). Following the autumnal peak, Chl-a concentrations show a small decrease  
342 at the end of December, but they remain elevated and stabilise at approximately  $0.75 \text{ mg/m}^3$   
343 throughout winter (January-March).

344

345

346

### 347 3.2 Seasonal climatology of Chl-a and SST

348

349 To elucidate the spatiotemporal distribution of Chl-a and SST in the Gulf of Aden, seasonal  
350 climatologies were produced, covering the four main seasons (Fig. 4); spring: April-June;  
351 summer: July-September; autumn: October-December; and winter: January-March.

352 Satellite observations reveal distinct spatial features in the seasonal succession of  
353 phytoplankton biomass in the gulf, consistent with the phenological characteristics reported  
354 in Figures 2 and 3. The entire gulf experiences lowest Chl-a concentrations during spring  
355 (April-June, Fig. 4a). Based on multiple sources of hydrographic data, *Al Saafani* [2008]  
356 reported the presence of two anticyclonic eddies within the gulf during May, possibly  
357 explaining the wide-scale oligotrophy present across the gulf during spring (due to  
358 downwelling). SST is relatively uniform across the gulf throughout spring and remains warm,  
359 with temperatures between 27.4°C and 28.1°C (Fig. 4e).

360 In summer, Chl-a concentrations increase markedly across the western gulf and  
361 northern coastline, corresponding closely to the large region (Area A) defined in Figure 2c.  
362 During this season, Area A is characterised by substantially lower SST in contrast to Area B  
363 (Fig. 4f). The presence of colder SST in Area A coincides with an increase in Chl-a. These  
364 observations are also consistent with those of *Wiebinga et al.* [1997], who detected colder  
365 temperatures and *in situ* concentrations of Chl-a as high as 5 mg/m<sup>3</sup> in the western Gulf of  
366 Aden during summer (months not specified). *Baars et al.* [1995] also reported a  
367 phytoplankton bloom in August within the same area. Nevertheless, both of the  
368 aforementioned studies state that despite the appearance of phytoplankton blooms in the  
369 western gulf, the gulf is generally oligotrophic during summer. In fact, *Wiebinga et al.* [1997]  
370 described the whole gulf as being most productive during the northeast monsoon. Thus, prior  
371 to this study, the main months during which phytoplankton biomass is highest were unknown.



372 A region of low Chl-a and increased SST can be observed within Area B during  
373 summer, possibly indicating the presence of an anticyclonic eddy (Fig. 4b, f). *Prasad and*  
374 *Ikeda* [2001] identified the ‘Gulf of Aden Eddy’ (GAE), which forms within the vicinity of  
375 the gulf during mid-spring (May) and could be associated with the arrival of Rossby waves  
376 from the interior of the Arabian Sea due to possible forcing from the southern Arabian Sea  
377 high. *Bower and Furey* [2012] concluded that two additional eddies are generated during the  
378 onset of the southwest monsoon. They suggest that these eddies are formed as a result of  
379 positive wind-stress curl and a shoaling thermocline at the entrance of the Gulf of Aden,  
380 which divides the GAE (detected by *Prasad and Ikeda*, 2001) into two smaller anticyclonic  
381 eddies; the ‘Summer Eddy’ and ‘Lee Eddy’. *Bower and Furey* [2012] proposed that the  
382 ‘Summer Eddy’ moves westwards into the Gulf of Aden (strengthening as it moves), and is  
383 sustained by Ekman convergence associated with patches of negative wind-stress curl caused  
384 by wind jets through the elevated terrain of the area. The anticyclonic eddy identifiable in  
385 Figures 4b and f is perhaps the ‘Summer Eddy’ reported by *Bower and Furey* [2012]. Wind  
386 jets associated with mountainous topography along the northern Somali coastline could also  
387 be responsible for the formation of mesoscale eddies in the centre of the gulf, particularly  
388 during August, when the monsoonal winds are at their strongest [*Fratantoni et al.*, 2006].

389 Higher concentrations of Chl-a are present along the northern coastline of the Gulf of  
390 Aden during summer (Fig. 4b). In accordance with the monsoon regimes, *Johns et al.* [1999]  
391 proposed that upwelling occurs along the northern coastline during summer due to the  
392 formation of a wind-driven coastal current, contributing to the generation of phytoplankton  
393 blooms along the Yemeni coastline. *Aiki et al.* [2006] also demonstrated that positive wind-  
394 stress curl induces large-scale coastal Ekman upwelling over the gulf during the summer. *Al*  
395 *Saafani* [2008] suggested that conditions are favourable for upwelling along the northern  
396 coastline of the gulf during summer as a result of Ekman drift.

397 In autumn, there is a reduction in phytoplankton biomass throughout the Gulf of Aden,  
398 with the exception of higher concentrations of Chl-a across the southern coastline (Fig. 4c).  
399 During the northeast monsoon, winds across the Gulf of Aden blow from the northeast [*Al*  
400 *Saafani and Shenoi, 2007*]. It is highly possible that the seasonal reversal in wind direction at  
401 the beginning of the northeast monsoon induces an upwelling event along the southern  
402 coastline of the gulf during autumn, which is analogous to the upwelling observed along the  
403 northern coastline during summer. This view is supported by the presence of a prominent  
404 band of low SST along the southern coastline during autumn (Fig. 4g). *Al Saafani* [2008]  
405 demonstrated that upwelling generated by Ekman pumping occurs due to the establishment of  
406 a prominent westward current along the southern coastline of the gulf at the commencement  
407 of the northeast monsoon. Upwelling along the southern coastline of the gulf has also been  
408 reported and schematised by *Johns et al. [1999]*. These coastal upwelling events could be  
409 controlled by monsoonal winds, which generate prominent eastward (summer) and westward  
410 (autumn) coastal currents that are subject to Ekman drift [*Johns et al., 1999; Al Saafani,*  
411 *2008*]. During autumn, it is likely that upwelling is established over the southern gulf and  
412 occupies much of the area we define as Area B. Consequently, the November peak that can  
413 be observed in Area B (Fig. 2b, Fig. 3b) is most likely representative of annual coastal  
414 upwelling that stimulates a large phytoplankton bloom.

415 In winter, the higher concentrations of Chl-a observed along the southern coastline of  
416 the gulf during autumn are no longer apparent (Fig. 4d). Overall, the whole gulf exhibits  
417 relatively similar levels of higher Chl-a, although an area of slightly reduced Chl-a values is  
418 present in the eastern gulf between 49°E and 50°E. *Bower et al. [2002]* reported the presence  
419 of an anticyclonic eddy between 48°E and 49°E based on *in situ* data collected between  
420 February and March 2001, possibly providing an explanation for the diminished levels of  
421 Chl-a in this area. The presence of an anticyclonic eddy within this area between January and

422 March has also been reported by *Al Saafani* [2008], using altimetry-derived sea-surface-  
423 height anomalies.

424

### 425 *3.3 Thermocline depth, nutrients and wind-stress curl*

426

427 To investigate further the influence of physical forcing on summer phytoplankton biomass in  
428 Areas A and B, vertical cross-sections of temperature and nutrients, approximately along the  
429 zonal axis of the gulf, were plotted for two months representative of the quarterly winter and  
430 summer seasons respectively (Fig. 5a). During winter (January-February in this figure) the  
431 thermocline and nutriclines of nitrate and phosphate are relatively deep, with a distinct  
432 surface layer of warmer water extending down to approximately 125 m. During summer  
433 (July-August in this figure), the thermoclines and nutriclines have shoaled to approximately  
434 75 m. *Aiki et al.* [2006] investigated the depth of the thermocline in the Gulf of Aden and  
435 also observed that the shallowest thermocline depth occurs during summer followed by a  
436 significant deepening of the thermocline in late winter. According to these authors, the  
437 shoaling of the thermocline in the western Gulf of Aden is caused mainly by the strong  
438 summer monsoonal winds. *Bower and Furey* [2012] noted that the depth of the 20°C  
439 isotherm (situated in the middle of the main thermocline) is roughly 50 m shallower during  
440 mid-summer (August) in comparison with that in late winter (March). The deepening of the  
441 thermocline during winter can be attributed to the presence of colder winds, which cool  
442 surface waters in the western gulf, resulting in the sinking of more dense water.

443 The depth of the thermocline varies with longitude during summer (Fig. 5a). Between  
444 44°E and 46°E, a prominent ‘bulge’ (shallow thermocline) can be observed (Fig. 5a). The  
445 feature is located within Area A, the western gulf, and most likely signifies an upwelling  
446 event. The shoaling is also seen in the vertical cross-sections of nitrate and phosphate, which

447 exhibit elevated concentrations at a lower depth in the western gulf during summer (July-  
448 August, Fig. 5a). The depth of the thermocline decreases between 46°E and 49°E during  
449 summer, indicating the effect of the anticyclonic eddy within the centre of the gulf (i.e. Area  
450 B, Fig. 4b and f). This is commensurate with the climatology for geostrophic currents  
451 presented in Figure 5c, where vectors show a clockwise circulation (indicative of anticyclonic  
452 eddies in the northern hemisphere), and a region of apparently high sea-level anomaly in the  
453 central gulf during July and August, indicating the presence of a deeper surface mixed layer  
454 and lower Chl-a concentrations [Everett *et al.*, 2012]. Similar features are also evident in the  
455 sections of nitrate and (in particular) phosphate (Fig. 5a). Previous studies in the  
456 Mediterranean Sea have shown that anticyclonic eddies are characterised by the presence of a  
457 deeper nutricline and a limited input of nutrients to surface waters [Salihoglu *et al.*, 1990,  
458 Yilmaz *et al.*, 1994]. It is possible that the anticyclonic system observed in Area B during  
459 summer induces downwelling of surface waters [e.g. Fong *et al.*, 2008], reducing the  
460 concentration of nutrients in the euphotic zone, decreasing the productivity of the area  
461 [Triantafyllou *et al.*, 2014], ultimately resulting in low Chl-a concentrations.

462 Climatologies of wind-stress curl and geostrophic currents (indicative of  
463 upwelling/downwelling) across the Gulf of Aden for both winter and summer seasons are  
464 shown in Figs. 5b and 5c. Wind-stress curl appears to be relatively low across the gulf during  
465 the northeast monsoon [Fig. 5b, Al Saafani and Shenoi, 2007]. Interestingly, an anticyclonic  
466 eddy is apparent in the gulf, approximately between 48E° and 51°E (Fig. 5c). This appears to  
467 agree with Figure 4d, where concentrations of Chl-a in this same region are reduced in  
468 comparison with the rest of the gulf.

469 During summer, strong winds generate positive wind-stress curl in the far western  
470 gulf adjacent to the Bab-El-Mandeb strait (Fig. 5b), inducing upwelling and resulting in the  
471 shoaling of the nutricline/thermocline [Triantafyllou *et al.*, 2014, Fig. 5a]. Thus, prolonged

472 positive wind-stress curl during summer can break down the shallow thermocline, allowing  
473 the transport of colder, nutrient-rich waters to the surface, providing favourable conditions for  
474 phytoplankton growth and stimulating a large bloom in August (Fig.2b; Fig.3a; Fig. 4b).  
475 Supporting these observations, *Johns et al.* [1999] showed that seasonal upwelling occurs in  
476 the western Gulf of Aden at the onset of the southwest monsoon.

477 *Al Saafani et al.* [2007] showed that Ekman pumping is an important mechanism for  
478 generating mesoscale eddies within the Gulf of Aden during the southwest monsoon.  
479 Localised Ekman pumping generated by the strong monsoonal winds could contribute to the  
480 development of an eddy within Area A. Utilising 3D regional models (ROMS), nested within  
481 a data-assimilating global model (HYCOM) to investigate the interaction of Red Sea Outflow  
482 Water with eddies in the gulf, *Ilıcak et al.* [2011] demonstrated the presence of a large  
483 cyclonic eddy in the gulf during April 2007. By August, the cyclonic eddy had moved  
484 towards the southwest and increased in strength, occupying the area in the far western gulf  
485 where cooler water can be observed during summer (Fig. 4f). This cyclonic eddy may  
486 provide an alternative explanation for the strong upwelling (and peak in Chl-a) that can be  
487 observed in Area A during summer (Fig. 2b; Fig. 3a); the formation and intensification of  
488 cyclonic eddies are known to induce a flux of nutrients from deeper waters to the surface  
489 layer [*McGillicuddy and Robinson, 1997*].

490 It is worth noting that other factors can influence phytoplankton bloom dynamics.  
491 Light availability across oceanic regions is known to have an important role in controlling  
492 bloom initiation. For example, *Sverdrup* [1953] described the roles of both light availability  
493 and vertical mixing in the generation of the North Atlantic spring bloom; enhanced light  
494 availability during spring and the shoaling of the mixed layer allows phytoplankton  
495 productivity to exceed community loss processes and rapid phytoplankton growth can occur  
496 (whereas deeper mixed layers and reduced light availability during winter prevents net

497 community production). However, for tropical marine ecosystems such as the Gulf of Aden,  
498 light availability is relatively consistent annually and the presence of a permanent  
499 thermocline can act as a barrier to the upward transport of nutrients (thus, nutrient  
500 concentration is the primary factor limiting phytoplankton growth in the surface ocean). The  
501 role of zooplankton in modulating Gulf of Aden phytoplankton dynamics is yet to be studied.  
502 However, as seen in other oceanic blooming regions such as the North Atlantic Ocean and the  
503 Arabian Sea, it is possible that the reduction in Chl-a concentrations at the end of September  
504 in the western gulf may be attributed to increased grazing pressure following a rise in  
505 zooplankton abundance [Banse, 1992; Goericke et al., 2002]. After the southwest monsoon,  
506 the re-development of the thermocline following a reduction of local wind stress may also  
507 contribute to diminished levels of Chl-a.

508

### 509 *3.4 Satellite validation and impact of absorption by non-algal particles and dissolved matter*

510

511 The geographical distribution of the match-ups between the satellite and *in situ* data (see  
512 section 2.7 of the methodology), and the results from the comparison, is shown in Figure 6a.  
513 In general, statistical comparisons show good agreement between the satellite and *in situ* data,  
514 with a statistically significant correlation ( $r = 0.84$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), and a low root mean square  
515 error ( $\psi = 0.16$ , Fig. 6b). In fact, the root mean square ( $\psi = 0.16$ ) is about half that reported in  
516 other studies using global datasets [Gregg and Casey, 2004; Werdell and Bailey, 2005; Bailey  
517 and Werdell, 2006; Brewin et al., 2015c], and comparable with a recent study in the Atlantic  
518 Ocean [Brewin et al., 2016]. Statistical tests also compare favourably with regions that are  
519 within close proximity to the Gulf of Aden, such as the Red Sea [Brewin et al., 2013; 2015b].  
520 For instance, Brewin et al. [2015b] report a correlation coefficient ( $r$ ) of 0.84 and a  $\psi$  of 0.29  
521 in the Red Sea using OC-CCI and the OC4 algorithm (see their Fig. 5). The validation results

522 presented here (Fig. 6) provide confidence in the use of OC-CCI Chl-a data in the Gulf of  
523 Aden.

524 Remotely-sensed estimates of Chl-a in optically complex waters can be complicated  
525 by the presence of coloured dissolved organic matter (CDOM), which may affect the  
526 absorption of shorter (blue) visible light wavelengths, leading to an overestimation of Chl-a  
527 concentration [Matsuoka *et al.*, 2007]. The OC-CCI Chl-a data is computed using the OC4  
528 blue-green band-ratio algorithm [O'Reilly *et al.*, 2000]. Whilst validation in the Gulf of Aden  
529 showed good performance (Fig. 6b), the empirical nature of the OC4 algorithm means that it  
530 implicitly assumes absorption by dissolved substances and non-algal particles ( $a_{dg}$ ) co-varies  
531 in a predictable manner with Chl-a [Dierssen, 2010]. Figure 7a shows the determination  
532 coefficient ( $r^2$ ), derived from correlating monthly data (1998-2010, 156 months) of  $\log_{10}$ -  
533 transformed  $a_{ph}(443)$  and  $\log_{10}$  transformed  $a_{dg}(443)$  on a pixel-by-pixel basis over the Gulf  
534 of Aden. Over the majority of the gulf, the two variables are positively correlated ( $r^2$  is  
535 between 0.6 and 1.0,  $p < 0.05$ ), indicating that  $a_{ph}(443)$  and  $a_{dg}(443)$  co-vary in the Gulf of  
536 Aden and their temporal patterns are correlated, suggesting seasonal cycles in OC-CCI Chl-a  
537 should be relatively insensitive to the influence of non-algal particles and CDOM. In order to  
538 further confirm the validity of the OC-CCI Chl-a data, the determination coefficient ( $r^2$ ),  
539 derived from correlating monthly data (1998-2010, 156 months) of OC-CCI  $\log_{10}$ -  
540 transformed  $a_{ph}(443)$  and  $\log_{10}$ -transformed Chl-a, was also computed on a pixel-by-pixel  
541 basis over the Gulf of Aden (Figure 7b). Seasonal cycles of Chl-a in the Gulf of Aden,  
542 derived using the OC4 algorithm, are highly correlated with  $a_{ph}(443)$  derived from QAA ( $r^2 >$   
543 0.8, Figure 7b), suggesting consistent seasonal cycles (i.e. phenology) between the two  
544 variables ( $a_{ph}(443)$  and Chl-a).

545

#### 546 4. CONCLUSIONS

547

548 Prior to this study, knowledge on the large-scale phytoplankton dynamics within the Gulf of  
549 Aden was limited. Due to the paucity of biological data from *in situ* sampling, the gulf had  
550 been characterised as a winter-blooming region. The 15 years of high-resolution remotely-  
551 sensed Chl-a data produced by the ESA OC-CCI project has revealed that different regions of  
552 the Gulf of Aden exhibit distinct phytoplankton growth periods. The northern coastline (south  
553 Yemen) and the far western part of the gulf (Area A) are characterised by a prominent  
554 summer bloom, which is initiated in late spring (June) and peaks during mid-summer (August)  
555 when the southwesterlies prevail. Conversely, waters in the lower central gulf (Area B) and  
556 southern coastal region demonstrate maximum Chl-a concentrations during autumn (late  
557 November), indicating that the major phytoplankton growth period in these regions occurs  
558 during the northeast monsoon when the northeasterlies prevail.

559 Seasonal climatology maps of Chl-a, SST, wind-stress curl, sea-level anomaly,  
560 geostrophic currents and vertical profiles of nutrients showed that the spatial distribution of  
561 phytoplankton biomass within the gulf is related to changes in the physical environment,  
562 which are driven by the monsoon reversal. An increase in Chl-a concentrations occurs when  
563 wind-stress curl intensifies in the western gulf during summer, causing a shallowing of the  
564 thermocline and nutriclines, colder SSTs, and an increase in nutrient concentrations in the  
565 surface waters of the region. Conversely, the central gulf is dominated by an anticyclonic  
566 eddy during summer, resulting in reduced Chl-a concentrations and elevated SST as a  
567 consequence of downwelling. High Chl-a concentrations occur along the southern coastline  
568 (autumn) and northern coastline (summer). This is associated with colder SSTs, indicating the  
569 presence of large monsoonal-driven zones of coastal upwelling and enhanced nutrient  
570 availability.



571 Using ocean colour remote sensing observations (OC-CCI), our study presents, for the  
572 first time, a complete seasonal cycle of phytoplankton in the Gulf of Aden. The timing and  
573 magnitude of phytoplankton blooms have been shown to be among the determining factors  
574 for the survival of fish larvae [Platt *et al.*, 2003, Lo-Yat *et al.*, 2011]. Thus, further  
575 understanding of inter-annual variations in food availability along the coastline of the gulf  
576 (during the summer and autumn seasons) will be highly relevant to support the management  
577 of fisheries resources provided by tropical coral reef ecosystems, and could be a potential  
578 avenue for future research.

579

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581

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898 **LIST OF FIGURE CAPTIONS**

899

900 **Figure 1.** Location of the Gulf of Aden and the surrounding land/water masses

901

902 **Figure 2.** Phenological stages of the main phytoplankton growth period in the Gulf of Aden (based on  
903 OC-CCI 15 year-climatology of 8-day composites); **a)** timing of initiation, **b)** timing of peak, **c)**  
904 timing of termination and **d)** duration of the growth period. For panels **a**, **b**, and **c**, the colour scale  
905 illustrates the timing within a year in 8-day time steps (i.e. a year is expressed as 46 eight-day time  
906 steps, with 1 representing the first eight days of January) and in corresponding months (i.e. 12 months  
907 per year), whereas for panel **d**, the colour scale indicates the number of 8-day periods (or ‘weeks’, see  
908 ‘W’ on the left-hand side of the colour scale) between the initiation and termination. The red boxes  
909 depicted in panel **c** indicate areas selected for the time-series analysis (Area A in the western part of  
910 the gulf and Area B in the eastern/lower central part of the gulf).

911

912 **Figure 3.** Seasonal cycle of Chl-a from climatology of OC-CCI Chl-a (1997-2012) in the Gulf of  
913 Aden; **a)** Area A, and **b)** Area B (the locations of the areas are indicated by the red boxes in Fig. 2c).  
914 Blue-Grey shading indicates +/-1 Standard Error of OC-CCI climatology Chl-a concentrations.

915

916 **Figure 4. (a to d)** Seasonal mean of Chl-a concentration (OC-CCI 1997-2012, mg/m<sup>3</sup>), **(e to h)**  
917 Seasonal mean of Night-time Sea Surface Temperature (MODIS-aqua 2003-2013, °C).

918

919 **Figure 5. a)** Vertical cross sections for temperature (top panel), nitrate (middle panel) and phosphate  
920 (bottom panel) in the Gulf of Aden. The black solid line indicates the location of the thermocline  
921 (represented by the 20°C isotherm). Grey shaded areas represent absence of data. **b)** Seasonal mean  
922 of wind stress curl (10<sup>-7</sup> N m<sup>-3</sup>) for winter (Jan-Feb, left panel) and summer (Jul-Aug, right panel).  
923 Black arrows indicate wind pressure (0.1 N m<sup>-2</sup>) on the sea surface. **c)** Seasonal climatology of  
924 geostrophic sea-level anomalies (cm) currents for winter (Jan-Feb, left panel) and summer (Jul-Aug,

925 right panel). Black arrows indicate geostrophic velocities anomaly depicting the warm- (anti-cyclonic)  
926 and cold-core (cyclonic) eddies in the gulf.

927

928 **Figure 6: a)** *In situ* Chl-a gathered from two sources in the Gulf of Aden, from the GeP&CO program  
929 [Dandonneau *et al.*, 2004] and from the MIPOT oceanographic campaign [Barbini *et al.*, 2004], with  
930 satellite match-ups shown as green circles. Yellow box defines the Gulf of Aden region used for the  
931 validation analysis. **b)** Statistical comparison between *in situ* and OC-CCI Chl-a for the match-ups,  
932 with the correlation coefficient ( $r$ ), root mean square error ( $\psi$ ) and number of retrievals ( $N$ ). The  
933 yellow circles represent the satellite match-ups obtained within the Gulf of Aden (see corresponding  
934 yellow box in Figure 6a). The solid black line represents the 1:1 line.

935

936 **Figure 7: a)** The determination coefficient ( $r^2$ ), derived from correlating monthly OC-CCI data (1998-  
937 2010, 156 months) of  $\log_{10}$ -transformed  $a_{ph}(443)$  and  $\log_{10}$ -transformed  $a_{dg}(443)$  on a pixel-by-pixel  
938 basis over the Gulf of Aden. OC-CCI data for  $a_{ph}(443)$  and  $a_{dg}(443)$  were derived using the QAA of  
939 Lee *et al.* (2002), and are available through the OC-CCI project. **b)** Determination coefficient ( $r^2$ ),  
940 derived from correlating monthly OC-CCI data (1998-2010, 156 months) of  $\log_{10}$ -transformed  
941  $a_{ph}(443)$  and  $\log_{10}$ -transformed OC-CCI Chl-a on a pixel-by-pixel basis over the Gulf of Aden.

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