

15 **Abstract:** Southern Ocean primary productivity is primarily controlled by adjustments in light and
16 iron limitation, but the spatial and temporal determinants of iron availability, accessibility and
17 demand are poorly constrained, hindering accurate long-term projections. We present here a
18 unique multi-decadal record of phytoplankton photophysiology between 1996 – 2022, from
19 historical *in situ* datasets collected by BGC-Argo floats and ship-based platforms. We find a
20 significant multi-decadal trend in irradiance-normalised non-photochemical quenching due to
21 increasing iron stress, with concomitant declines in regional net primary production. The observed
22 trend of increasing iron stress results from changing Southern Ocean mixed layer physics, as well
23 as complex biological and chemical feedbacks that are indicative of important ongoing changes to
24 the Southern Ocean carbon cycle.

25

26 **Summary Sentence:** Southern Ocean phytoplankton exhibit a significant multi-decadal increase
27 in iron stress with climate implications.

28 **Main Text**

29

30 The Southern Ocean acts as the climate flywheel of the planet, buffering the impacts of climate
31 change by accounting for half of the total oceanic uptake of anthropogenic CO₂, absorbing three
32 quarters of the excess heat generated by anthropogenic CO₂ (1, 2), whilst also regulating the
33 supply of nutrients in support of low latitude productivity (3). Net primary production (NPP) is a
34 major contributor to biological carbon export, ~2 Pg C year⁻¹ (4), in the Southern Ocean and
35 supports rich marine ecosystems (5), driven in part by high macronutrient availability and
36 summertime light levels, but ultimately constrained by seasonal changes in light and a scarce
37 supply of the essential micronutrient iron (Fe) (6, 7). Substantial progress has been made in
38 understanding the range of Southern Ocean Fe supply mechanisms and biogeochemical cycling
39 processes that act to govern contemporary NPP (8, 9). Fe availability in the surface ocean is a
40 complex mix of concurrent biotic and abiotic processes that rapidly consume and recycle Fe, as
41 well as remove it from solution by particle scavenging and colloidal pumping (9). A central role
42 is played by the mixed layer depth, which influences seasonal and sub-seasonal Fe supply (8, 10)
43 simultaneously altering light availability, which affects phytoplankton growth and Fe demand
44 (11, 12). It is likely that anthropogenic forcing will affect all of these supply and removal terms
45 (13) in a complex manner, impacting Fe availability, NPP, ecosystem function and the transfer of
46 carbon, energy and nutrients through pelagic and benthic food webs (5). Observational
47 constraints on how climate variability impacts Fe availability for phytoplankton is, therefore, a
48 crucial component of Southern Ocean environmental change.

49

50 The Southern Ocean experiences climate variability associated with the Southern Annular Mode
51 (SAM) (14–16), with the recent increase in the positive phase of the SAM due to ozone depletion
52 and greenhouse gases driving an intensification and poleward shift of the westerly winds (15).
53 This is considered the clearest and most persistent change in Southern Hemisphere climate in the
54 last half century (17). Changes in Southern Ocean winds associated with the SAM elicit
55 widespread alterations of ocean vertical stratification and mixed layer depth (18–20), affecting
56 nutrient supply and the light environment, which interact seasonally to influence phytoplankton
57 growth (5). The poleward shift of the westerly winds may also impact atmospheric dust
58 deposition further altering Fe supply to the surface ocean (21). Any observable climate
59 adjustments will integrate changes associated with the SAM such as altered ocean stratification,
60 mixing and atmospheric deposition, with stronger projected changes in warming, carbonate
61 chemistry and ocean transport (22). Crucial to both contemporary and future trends in NPP, is
62 the response of Fe supply, availability and demand, which will be a key driver. However, there
63 are presently poor constraints on changing Fe supply and demand, and little consensus on the
64 impact of ocean warming and altered carbonate chemistry on Fe bioavailability in the Southern
65 Ocean (5, 13). Earth System Models tend to predict increased Southern Ocean NPP by the end of
66 the 21st century but are typified by significant inter-model disagreement (23). These
67 uncertainties in NPP trends are amplified by poor constraints on the Fe cycle components of
68 earth system models themselves (24), especially regarding projected changes in Fe stress (25),
69 for which there are no observation-based datasets presently available.

70

71 It is not possible to directly infer Fe stress from observed ambient concentrations, as standing
72 stocks are severely depleted by biological uptake (26) being maintained by recycling (10) and

73 there is substantial plasticity of phytoplankton cellular contents and requirements (11, 12), which
74 necessitates experimental approaches (27). Manipulation experiments of natural or cultured
75 communities incubated in bottles (6) or via *in situ* open ocean fertilization (28, 29) provide
76 insight regarding the role of Fe addition, while proteomic techniques quantify cellular responses
77 to *in situ* resource stresses of specific organisms (e.g., 30). Results from decades of research have
78 identified various responses in the probability of energy allocation of photons from a net balance
79 perspective in response to varying Fe and light conditions that stem from the central role that Fe
80 plays in photosynthesis (Fig. 1). For example, under optimal light and Fe replete conditions (Fig.
81 1A) phytoplankton photochemistry is at maximum capacity with any remaining energy being
82 dissipated as either fluorescence or non-photochemical quenching (NPQ; the dissipation of
83 excess energy in the form of heat; 31). Under nutrient replete conditions with high light stress
84 (Fig. 1B) there is a reduction in photochemistry to prevent photodamage to photosystem II and a
85 reduction in fluorescence (i.e., the common scenario of suppressed fluorescence measured during
86 daylight hours) with the dominant sink of excess energy being NPQ. Phytoplankton can adjust to
87 low average light levels by synthesizing additional photosynthetic reaction centres for increased
88 light absorption (32). However, because of the high Fe requirement of reaction centres, Southern
89 Ocean phytoplankton have evolved a photoacclimation strategy in response to their typically low
90 light and Fe environment (7, 27) that economizes their Fe use by enhancing light absorption
91 through increased light harvesting antennae size (with additional pigment complexes) rather than
92 the number of reaction centres (12). Selective pressure for this strategy however reduces the
93 efficiency of excitation energy transfer (from light harvesting pigments to reaction centres) and
94 can result in a bottleneck and buildup of protons under low Fe conditions (33). The result of this
95 scenario (under optimal light and Fe deplete conditions, Fig. 1C) is an equal allocation of energy

96 to photochemistry (as in an optimal light and Fe scenario, Fig. 1A) but with a greater proportion
97 of energy being dissipated as fluorescence. This drives the universal and readily observed
98 increase in fluorescence to chlorophyll ratios under low Fe conditions (34, 35). If we consider a
99 Fe limited but high light environment (Fig. 1D), phytoplankton avoid overexcitation and damage
100 to their photosystems by reducing photochemistry and fluorescence with the dominant energy
101 sink being NPQ. This is further supported by an increase in the synthesis of photoprotective
102 pigments involved in the xanthophyll cycle under Fe limiting conditions (36). An observed
103 increase in NPQ (in surface sunlit waters) is thus expected to reflect an increase in Fe stress
104 under high light conditions. Although this photophysiological plasticity may not be common to
105 all Southern Ocean phytoplankton, with a few exceptions exhibiting limited NPQ capacity to the
106 same stressors (Table S1), experiments that expressed a measurable increase in NPQ from excess
107 energy diversion were always in response to Fe limiting conditions (Table S1). These
108 photophysiological responses to Fe and light have a well-founded mechanistic basis and the
109 potential to provide a diagnostic appraisal of environmental conditions (37).

110

111 **Changing Photophysiology in the Southern Ocean**

112

113 A novel *in vivo* approach developed by Ryan-Keogh & Thomalla (38) quantifies the degree of
114 NPQ (which manifests as a measurable decrease in the ratio of photons emitted as fluorescence
115 to those absorbed by pigments) as a function of available light (irradiance-normalised NPQ,
116 referred to as α_{NPQ} in Ryan-Keogh & Thomalla (38)). Since the dominant influence of
117 “instantaneous” environmental light conditions on the degree of quenching are accounted for in
118 the determination of irradiance-normalised NPQ (as the slope of NPQ against *in situ* irradiance;

119 see Materials and Methods), this approach uniquely fingerprints the photophysiological response
120 of phytoplankton to their environment, independent of current light conditions and inclusive of
121 pigment configuration. A particular strength of this approach is that it can be applied to any
122 ocean profile with coincident measurements of fluorescence, photosynthetically active radiation
123 and backscatter or beam attenuation (e.g., ship-based, BGC-Argo profiling floats or autonomous
124 gliders), providing a unique opportunity to deliver a long-term time series by taking advantage of
125 historical measurements (see Materials and Methods). Here, we quantify irradiance-normalised
126 NPQ from a data set of 47 BGC-Argo floats and 194 cruises comprising a total of 5795 profiles
127 spanning 26 years (Fig. 2; see Materials and Methods), to produce the first multi-decadal (1996 –
128 2022) *in situ* assessment of irradiance-normalised NPQ in the Southern Ocean biome (defined
129 here as the spatial extent of the subpolar and ice biomes (39). We find a significant (Table 1; F-
130 statistic = 260.50, $p < 0.001$, $r^2 = 0.92$) positive linear trend in irradiance-normalised NPQ (Fig. 2)
131 in the Southern Ocean ($4.69\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) which is robust ($p < 0.001 - < 0.05$) across different seasons
132 (Fig. S1A–D), ocean basins (Fig. S1E–G) and frontal zones (Fig. S1H–J). Moreover, this trend is
133 not affected by an unequal distribution of observations by year, with no change in trend when the
134 sample size is retained at a minimum ($n = 3$) over time (Fig. S2A) or using a Monte Carlo
135 experiment where the years were randomly sampled (i.e., a jackknife resampling of 75% of the
136 1996 to 2022 range: Fig. S2B). These additional tests are indicative of the robustness of the
137 detected trend in irradiance-normalised NPQ that is not significantly affected by seasonal, spatial
138 or temporal bias in data coverage. The link between Southern Ocean contemporary climate
139 variability and the trend in annual mean irradiance-normalised NPQ is highlighted by its
140 significant correlation with the decadal rolling mean of the SAM index (Fig. S3, $r^2 = 0.62$,
141 $p < 0.001$), which implies that Southern Ocean phytoplankton are experiencing a multi-decadal

142 photophysiological adjustment, via their irradiance-normalised NPQ, to changes in nutrient and
143 light availability from altered stratification, mixed layer dynamics and dust deposition. If this
144 trend were driven primarily by increasing Fe stress, it would suggest significant implications for
145 adjustments in regional NPP and the effectiveness of the biological carbon pump.

146

147 The likelihood that variability in irradiance-normalised NPQ is primarily reflecting Fe stress is
148 supported by the fact that this proxy was significantly higher in control versus Fe addition
149 incubation experiments in the sub-Antarctic Southern Ocean (38) that it is well correlated with
150 elevated fluorescence to Chl ratios in Fe limited regions of the Southern Ocean (35) and it
151 reproduces known gradients in Southern Ocean Fe limitation, from both natural and artificial Fe
152 fertilization experiments. For example, BGC-Argo profiles upstream and downstream of the
153 Kerguelen Plateau (Fig. 3A), a region with a well characterised island mass Fe fertilization effect
154 (40), show significantly lower irradiance-normalised NPQ values (t-statistic = -12.74, $p < 0.001$,
155 $df = 1011$) in Fe fertilized downstream waters (mean = 16.6×10^{-3} , SE = 0.41×10^{-3} , $n = 525$)
156 compared to Fe-limited upstream locations (mean = 23.3×10^{-3} , SE = 0.44×10^{-3} , $n = 470$).
157 Similarly, ship-based profiles in and out of Fe addition patches during the SOIREE (28) and
158 SOFEx (29) mesoscale Fe fertilization experiments (Fig. 3A) are typified by irradiance-
159 normalised NPQ values that are significantly lower (t-statistic = 2.95 & 2.66, $p < 0.05$, $df = 12$ &
160 18, respectively) in patch (mean = 3.0×10^{-3} , SE = 1.24×10^{-3} , & 3.3×10^{-3} , SE = 0.97×10^{-3} , n
161 = 6 & 8, respectively) compared to out of patch (mean = 9.1×10^{-3} , SE = 1.72×10^{-3} , & $21.6 \times$
162 10^{-3} , SE = 4.79×10^{-3} , $n = 4$ & 16, respectively). Finally, across all available Southern Ocean
163 data, irradiance-normalised NPQ values in spring (Fig. 3B) and summer (Fig. 3C) are
164 significantly higher than those from autumn (Fig. S4A; spring = t-statistic = 2.10, $p < 0.05$, $df =$

165 2392; summer = t-statistic = 3.29, $p < 0.001$, $df = 3555$) and winter (Fig. S4B; spring = t-statistic
166 = 3.92, $p < 0.001$, $df = 2236$; summer = t-statistic = 4.89, $p < 0.001$, $df = 3399$), in accordance with
167 expected spring and summer time Fe depletion from biological utilisation (7, 10). Since a
168 photoacclimation response to seasonal variability in light would drive the opposite relationship,
169 this further supports the role of Fe-stress in driving irradiance-normalised NPQ.

170

171 Although the effect of instantaneous light is accounted for when deriving irradiance-normalised
172 NPQ, longer term photoacclimation strategies may also impact the trend (and seasonal
173 characteristics) observed in irradiance-normalised NPQ. These photophysiological adjustments
174 can also be detected through changes in cellular chlorophyll to carbon (Chl:C) ratios, however it
175 is important to note that these reflect phytoplankton's combined photoacclimation and nutrient
176 allocation response. Chl:C ratios are expected to increase in response to low light (41), however
177 photoacclimation occurs more effectively during Fe replete conditions (42), such that the degree
178 of response in Chl:C is primarily dependent on Fe availability. Particulate backscatter (b_{bp}) (from
179 both satellite and in situ sensors) can act as proxies for phytoplankton carbon (43–45), and their
180 proportion relative to chlorophyll can be used to infer cellular Chl:C ratios. The positive trend
181 observed in Chl:C from satellite remote sensing ($r^2 = 0.62$, $0.81\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$, $p < 0.001$; Fig. S5) for the
182 coincident period (1998 – 2021), suggests that phytoplankton are responding to a reduction in
183 available light by increasing cellular packaging of chlorophyll. This is supported by a spatially
184 coherent trend of a significant decrease in mixed layer light across the Southern Ocean (Fig. S6).
185 As such, photoacclimation/photoadaptation to low light conditions may contribute to the
186 observed trend in irradiance-normalised NPQ. That said, any reduction in available light in the
187 typically iron stressed Southern Ocean (7, 27) would increase Fe demand (12, 46) and increase

188 Fe stress in the absence of sufficient increases in Fe supply. When the trend in Chl:C is
189 investigated *in situ* (2015 – 2021) (restricted to BGC-Argo as, unlike irradiance-normalised
190 NPQ, fluorescence derived estimates of chlorophyll and optical proxies for carbon cannot be
191 merged across different sensors from the ship-based dataset due to differences in sensors and
192 manufacturer calibration coefficients), the integrated mixed layer trend (although insignificant) is
193 instead negative ($r^2 = 0.50$, $-3.59\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$, $p = 0.07$) reflecting a more typical response to Fe stress
194 (i.e., a decrease in Chl:C with a decrease in growth rates under Fe limiting conditions), with no
195 evidence of photoacclimation/photoadaptation. Moreover, a significant a negative relationship is
196 observed between *in situ* increasing irradiance-normalised NPQ and decreasing Chl:C (2015 –
197 2021) (Fig. S7A-C; $r^2 = 0.51 - 0.54$, $p < 0.001$), which strongly suggests that the
198 photophysiological trend in irradiance-normalised NPQ is in response to iron stress (rather than
199 low light). Similarly, when the seasonal characteristics are interrogated, Chl:C ratios are
200 significantly higher in winter than in summer (Fig S8; t-statistic = 18.7 – 21.9, $p < 0.001$, $df =$
201 2019 – 2113) reflecting typical photoacclimation in response to low light conditions (41). Were
202 photoacclimation the dominant driver of seasonal variability in NPQ it would elicit an increase in
203 irradiance-normalised NPQ in winter. The opposite response however (Fig. 3B,C) suggests that
204 Fe stress is instead most likely to be the dominant driver of seasonal variability in irradiance-
205 normalised NPQ.

206

207 **Trends in Primary Productivity**

208

209 Any trend of increasing Fe stress should reflect in concurrent reductions in photosynthetic
210 capacity and a decline in overall productivity, with large implications for biogeochemical cycling

211 and carbon drawdown (47). We note however that a decline in NPP, although expected in
212 response to an increase in Fe stress, is not a certainty (or a necessary requirement to verify Fe
213 stress), as indeed an increase in standing stocks (from increasing NPP) could drive an increase in
214 Fe stress. Similarly, trends in NPP may also reflect top-down controls of grazing that are
215 independent of Fe stress. Nonetheless, when we apply two models of NPP (48, 49) to the
216 Southern Ocean BGC-Argo data set (restricted to this platform for the same reason as described
217 above, 2014 – 2021; see Materials and Methods), we observe a decrease in NPP for both models
218 (Fig. 4). While the decline in NPP from the CbPM model is significant (Fig. 4A, 10% yr⁻¹, r² =
219 0.81, p<0.01; Table 1), the decreasing trend from the VGPM model is insignificant (Fig. 4A, 8%
220 yr⁻¹, r² = 0.43, p = 0.08), but both are on a similar order of magnitude as the increase in
221 irradiance-normalised NPQ for the same time period (4.72% yr⁻¹, r² = 0.56, p<0.05). When we
222 apply the same two NPP models in combination with an additional two NPP models (50, 51) to a
223 concomitant 24 year time series (1998 – 2021) from the Ocean Colour Climate Change Initiative
224 product (52) (see Materials and Methods), we see dominant declines in NPP for the subpolar and
225 ice biomes (39) from the carbon-based CbPM models and absorption-based CAFE model (with
226 61 – 80% of the trends being negative and 10 – 29% positive; Fig. 4B-D). Although the VGPM
227 model shows an increase in NPP (77% positive and 13% negative; Fig. 4C) this can be explained
228 by its strong dependence on trends in chlorophyll that are augmented by Southern Ocean
229 warming (5, 53). Similar results were observed in a recent study by Pinkerton et al. (54) (with
230 different satellite data and trend detection methods) but with all trends in NPP from the CbPM
231 model being negative with an overall negative but insignificant trend of -0.15% yr⁻¹ (p = 0.17),
232 whereas NPP from the VGPM model were positive and significant (0.8% yr⁻¹, p < 0.001).
233 However, when we investigate trends in NPP for the same period (1996 – 2021) from earth

234 system models of the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project phase 6 (CMIP6) we see very
235 little multi-decadal variability, with trends in NPP that range from -0.22% to $0.21\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ($r^2 = 1.5$
236 $\times 10^{-3} - 0.42$, Fig. 4F; Table 1). While most earth system models show insignificant trends in
237 NPP, three display significant positive trends ($0.10 - 0.15\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$, $p < 0.05$, Table 1) while two
238 others depict significant negative trends (-0.01% and $-0.22\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$, $p < 0.05$, Table 1). Once
239 projected to the end of the century however, the majority of CMIP6 models ($>80\%$) agree on an
240 increasing trend in NPP (23) at odds with trends currently observed to be ongoing.

241

242 **Sensitivity of Fe limitation to climate drivers**

243

244 The progressive trend of increasing *in situ* irradiance-normalised NPQ observed here over the
245 past 26 years reflects the impact of a suite of concurrent physical, chemical and biological
246 processes on the Southern Ocean Fe cycle and the response of phytoplankton production
247 (inclusive of physiological plasticity and adaptability), ranging from changing Fe supply,
248 speciation and recycling to adjustments in phytoplankton Fe demands and interactions with other
249 microbes (9, 55). The key challenge is that large scale *in situ* datasets are largely concerned with
250 ocean physics at spatio-temporal scales that are not matched by biological and chemical process
251 experiments (9). Overall, the trend in irradiance-normalised NPQ showed moderate correlations
252 with the dominant climate trends of reduced pH and surface warming (Fig. S9A,B, Table S2; $r^2 =$
253 0.42 and 0.36 , respectively; $p < 0.001$). This relationship with pH would agree with previous
254 studies that exhibit reduced Fe uptake under ocean acidification scenarios (56) due to potential
255 inhibition of the Fe uptake mechanisms (57). Moreover, ocean acidification is likely to impact
256 the availability of Fe bound to organic ligands as a lower pH will affect both Fe adsorption and

257 complexation (58, 59). Direct impacts of a reduced pH on NPQ is also likely as this mechanism
258 relies upon a trans-thylakoid membrane pH gradient (60), which would be impacted by a buildup
259 of intracellular hydrogen ions (61). The relationship with surface warming more likely reflects
260 independent changes to Fe delivery (e.g., 14) or poorly constrained impacts on Fe speciation,
261 bioavailability and demand (13). Relating the trend in irradiance-normalised NPQ to the
262 dominant SAM driven response of altered wind (namely vertical mixing and stratification)
263 showed some linkages, with a significant correlation between deeper summer mixed layer depths
264 (Fig. S9C, $r^2 = 0.39$, $p < 0.05$), but no correlation with autumn, winter or spring mixed layer
265 depths (Fig. S9D-F, $p > 0.05$). Recent evidence (24) has shown that in the Southern Ocean
266 summer there is a deepening of the mixed layer ($-3.4\% \pm 1.5\% \text{ decade}^{-1}$), which could increase
267 Fe demand (by decreasing light availability) and a significant increase in stratification ($8.1\% \pm$
268 $4.1\% \text{ decade}^{-1}$), which could negatively impact subseasonal Fe supply (e.g., from storm driven
269 entrainment, 8). Furthermore, it is also likely that for some key regions of the Southern Ocean,
270 local signals linked to changing Fe supply from dust, margins, glaciers or sea ice may be
271 important (5).

272

273 Adjustments in irradiance-normalised NPQ are fingerprinted by the well understood response of
274 phytoplankton photophysiology to Fe limitation. If the trend in irradiance-normalised NPQ
275 observed here is indeed reflecting a long-term increase in Fe stress, with an amplitude
276 adjustment in time (Fig. 2) similar to that observed from natural Fe fertilisation (Fig. 3A),
277 alongside a concomitant decrease in NPP (from *in situ* BGC-Argo floats 2014 – 2021; Fig. 4A
278 and CbPM satellite derived Fig. 4B), the implications are that earth system models may be
279 underestimating ongoing change in the Southern Ocean. Both CMIP5 and CMIP6 earth system

280 models tend to project a trend of increasing NPP and reducing Fe stress in the Southern Ocean
281 by the end of the 21st century in response to climate change (23), which is opposite to the
282 observed trend emerging across the region in this study. Improved knowledge of how Fe stress
283 interacts with other limiting factors and the role of parallel changes in phytoplankton species
284 composition and top-down control by grazers would enable us to link changing climate drivers,
285 growing Fe stress and altered NPP more robustly in the Southern Ocean and improve confidence
286 in projections. A major strength of irradiance-normalised NPQ is that it is a photophysiological
287 *in situ* measurement that can be applied retrospectively to appropriately equipped platforms to
288 span timeframes that reflect an integrated response to climate change and may help provide
289 emergent constraints for earth system models for improved climate projections.

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585 **Author contributions:**

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587 Conceptualization: TJRK, SJT

588 Formal analysis: TJRK, AT

589 Investigation: TJRK

590 Methodology: TJRK, SJT, AT

591 Funding Acquisition: TJRK, SJT, PMSM

592 Visualisation: TJRK

593 Writing - original draft: SJT

594 Writing - review & editing: TJRK, PMSM, AT

595

596 **Competing Interests:**

597

598 Authors declare that they have no competing interests.

599

600 **Data availability:**

601

602 BGC-Argo data were made available through the biogeochemical argo database (Table S3;

603 <https://biogeochemical-argo.org/>). Ship-based data were downloaded from various online

604 repositories (Table S4). Southern Annular Mode data were retrieved from

605 <https://climatedataguide.ucar.edu/climate-data/>. Core Argo mixed layer depth data were retrieved

606 from <http://mixedlayer.ucsd.edu/>. GLODAPv2.2021 data were retrieved from

607 <https://www.glodap.info/index.php/merged-and-adjusted-data-product/>. Ocean colour climate

608 change initiative data were retrieved from <https://esa-oceancolour-cci.org/>, with ocean colour

609 PAR data retrieved from <http://www.globcolour.info/>. Hadley EN4.2.2 temperature and salinity

610 data were retrieved from <https://www.metoffice.gov.uk/hadobs/en4/download-en4-2-2.html>. Sea

611 surface temperatures were retrieved from <https://www.ghrsst.org/>. CMIP6 data were obtained

612 from <https://esgf.llnl.gov/>.

613

614 **Supplementary Materials:**

615

616 Material and Methods

617 [References \(62-86\)](#)

618 Figs. S1 to S11

619 Tables S1 to S4

620  Deleted: References 62 to 86

622

623 **Fig. 1.** Schematic of the proportional energy allocation at photosystem II (PSII) under different
624 iron (Fe) and light scenarios that phytoplankton may encounter, where PC means
625 photochemistry, FL means fluorescence and NPQ means non-photochemical quenching.
626 Scenario A represents the optimal light and iron scenario where PC is at its maximum with any
627 remaining energy dissipated as FL or NPQ. Scenario B represents a high light stress scenario
628 where there is a reduction in PC to prevent damage to PSII and a reduction in FL, with NPQ
629 acting as the dominant energy sink. Scenario C represents an iron limiting scenario with an
630 increased light harvesting antenna size to maintain PC as in scenario A, but with an increase in
631 FL. Scenario D represents both a high light stress and iron limiting scenario, where both PC and
632 FL will be reduced with NPQ again acting as the dominant energy sink. The opaque background
633 units in panels A and B represent complete reaction centres with light harvesting antennas,
634 whereas the opaque background units in panels C and D represent the synthesis of energetically
635 decoupled light harvesting antennas, which may absorb light with only FL and potentially NPQ
636 acting as energy sinks.

637

638 **Fig. 2.** Distribution and trend of irradiance-normalised NPQ. Seasonal and annual means, with
639 an Ordinary Least Squares regression on the annual mean, of irradiance-normalised NPQ
640 determined from the combined BGC-Argo and ship-based dataset. (Inset) Map showing
641 distribution of BGC-Argo and ship-based profiles (1996 – 2022).

642

643 **Fig. 3.** Robustness of irradiance-normalised NPQ as a proxy for Fe stress demonstrated through
644 natural and artificial Fe gradients and seasonal Fe depletion. (A) Mean irradiance-normalised

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We are open to the idea of changing it to Graphic/Simplified representation instead of Schematic.

645 NPQ \pm standard errors from BGC-Argo profiles upstream and downstream of the Kerguelen
646 plateau and from ship-based profiles in and out of Fe-fertilized patches during SOIREE and
647 SOFEX. Maps of irradiance-normalised NPQ based on combined BGC-Argo and ship-based
648 profiles (1996 – 2021) for (B) Spring (SON: September, October, and November) and (C)
649 Summer (DJF: December, January, and February) gridded to $5^\circ \times 5^\circ$. The dashed line represents
650 the spatial extent of the Southern Ocean defined as the subpolar and ice biomes from Fay &
651 McKinley (39). See Fig. S4 for Winter and Autumn.

652

653 **Fig. 4.** Comparing net primary production (NPP) for the Southern Ocean from BGC-Argo,
654 remote sensing, and earth systems models. (A) Normalised annual means of NPP derived BGC-
655 Argo using 2 different NPP models (2014 – 2021) and derived from remote sensing using 4
656 different NPP models (1998 – 2021) averaged across the sub-polar and ice biomes from Fay &
657 McKinley (39), decadal trends (1998 – 2021) from remote sensing using (B) CbPM1, (C)
658 CbPM2, (D) CAFE and (E) VGPM, and (F) normalised annual means of NPP from CMIP6
659 model outputs (1996 – 2021). Statistics of the normalised annual trends of NPP models from
660 panels A and F can be found in Table 1. Normalisation was performed by dividing the data by
661 the mean value. Note that CbPM1 refers to the Behrenfeld et al. (49) model and CbPM2 refers to
662 the Westberry et al. (50) model. The dashed line represents the spatial extent of the Southern
663 Ocean defined as the subpolar and ice biomes from Fay & McKinley (39).

Platform	Date range	Parameter	Slope	Intercept	R ²	F-statistic	p-value
<i>in situ</i>	1996 – 2022	Irradiance-normalised NPQ	4.69×10^{-2}	-93.18	0.92	260.49	2.18×10^{-14}
	2014 – 2021	VGPM	-0.08	172.29	0.43	4.45	0.08
		CbPM1	-0.10	197.73	0.81	25.60	2.31×10^{-3}
Remote Sensing	1998 – 2021	VGPM	0.01	-15.79	0.55	26.97	3.30×10^{-5}
		CbPM1	-0.02	32.85	0.61	34.13	7.05×10^{-6}
		CbPM2	-0.01	25.80	0.57	29.08	2.05×10^{-5}
		CAFE	-0.01	19.47	0.46	18.75	2.69×10^{-4}
Earth System Models	1996 – 2021	CMIP6 Median	7.96×10^{-4}	-0.60	0.10	2.83	0.15
		CMIP6 Range	-2.25×10^{-3} – 2.19×10^{-3}	-0.38 – 5.51	1.54×10^{-3} – 0.42	0.04 – 17.53	7.92×10^{-3} – 0.98

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665 **Table 1:** Normalised Ordinary Least Squares regression results of irradiance-normalised NPQ

666 (1996 – 2022), NPP from 2 production models applied to BGC-Argo data (2014 – 2021), NPP

667 from 4 production models applied to Remote Sensing data (1998 – 2021) and NPP from CMIP6
668 outputs (1996 – 2021). Note that CbPM1 refers to the Behrenfeld et al. (49) model and CbPM2
669 refers to the Westberry et al. (50) model.