

# Supplementary

## Unifying theories on the Southern Ocean bio-optical anomaly

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## 21 S1 Figures

### 22 S1.1 Figure S1

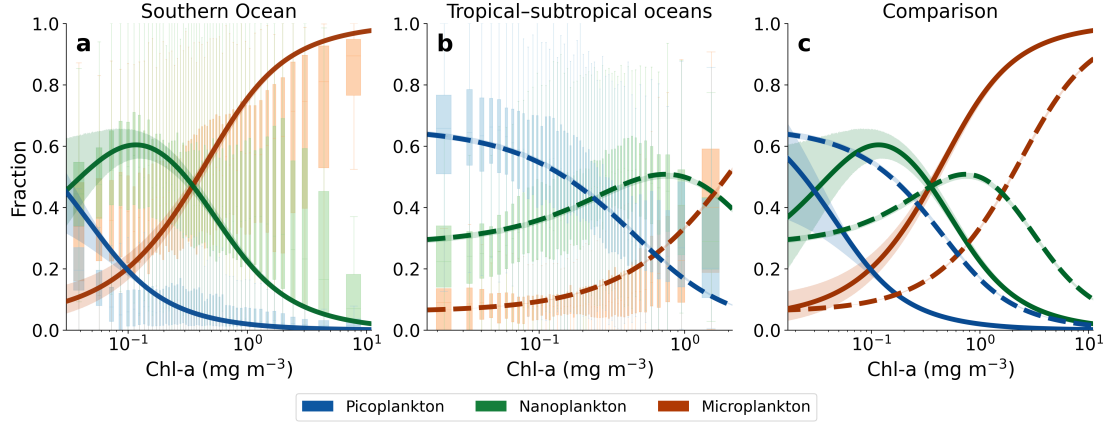


Figure S1. Same as Figure 2 in the main text. Given the large number of observations (16,977 Southern Ocean; 23,065 tropical-subtropical), individual dots overlap. Unlike Figure 2, which shows observation densities, here the in-situ measurements are summarised as box plots of the observed fractions ( $F_1$ ,  $F_2$ ,  $F_3$ ) after  $\log_{10}$ -scale binning of Chl-a. Each box plot shows the median and interquartile range, with whiskers extending to  $1.5 \times \text{IQR}$ . Bin widths vary on the raw Chl-a scale but have approximately equal sample counts.

## S1.2 Figure S2

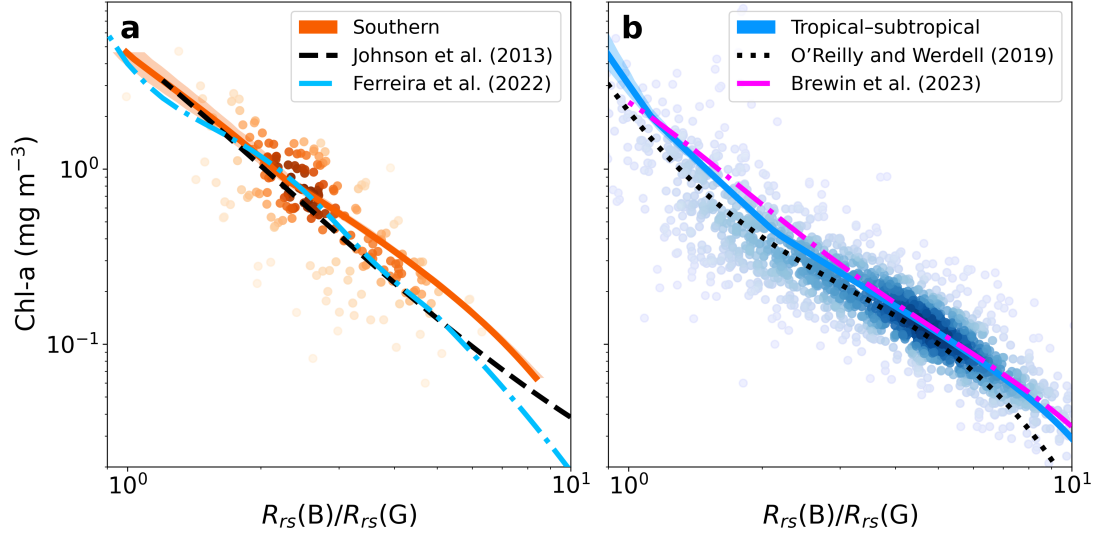


Figure S2. Ocean colour characteristics as a function of Chl-a across two ocean regions. a, Observations (dots) and model estimates (lines) of the relationship between the maximum blue-green band ratio ( $R_{rs}(B)/R_{rs}(G)$ ) and Chl-a for the Southern Ocean, with relationships reported in previous studies (Johnson et al., 2013; Ferreira et al., 2022). b, Observations (dots) and model estimates (lines) of the relationship for the tropical-subtropical oceans, with previous results shown for comparison (O'Reilly and Werdell, 2019; Brewin et al., 2023).

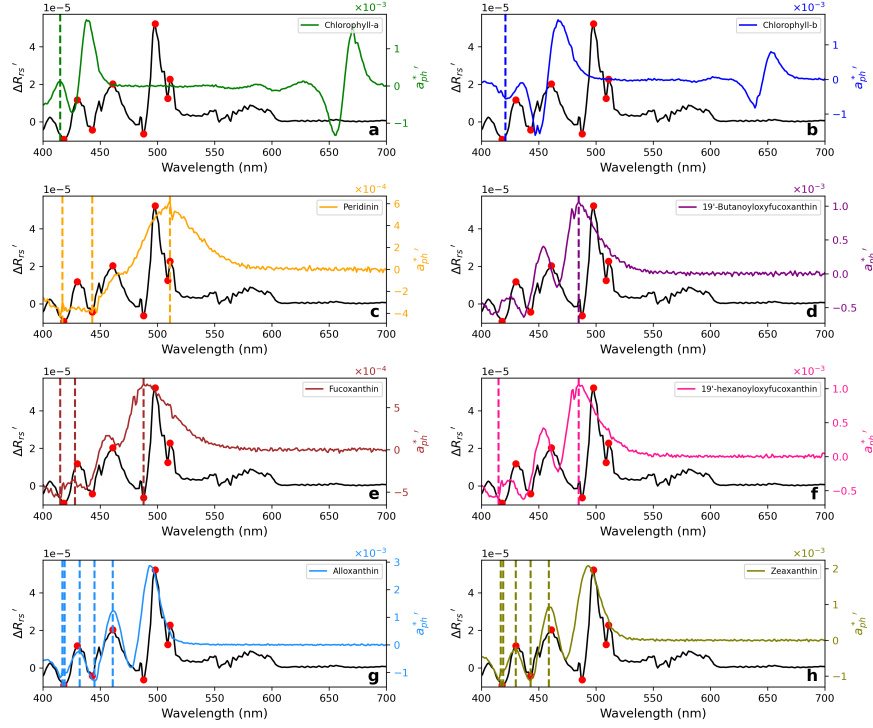


Figure S3. Comparison between the first derivative of hyperspectral remote sensing reflectance ( $\Delta R_{rs}'$ , black line, left y-axis) between the Southern Ocean and tropical-subtropical waters, and the first derivative of chlorophyll-specific absorption spectra ( $a_{ph}^*$ , coloured line, right y-axis) for eight pigments (Clementson and Wojtasiewicz, 2019). Red circles indicate the prominent positions of peaks in  $\Delta R_{rs}'$  (local maxima and minima), with vertical dashed lines representing pigment derivative peaks that fall within  $\pm 3$  nm of these  $R_{rs}$  derivative features. Note that the spectra from Clementson and Wojtasiewicz (2019) were measured in solvent and differ from in-vivo absorption. They are used here as a reference for peak identification, while more direct comparisons would require in-vivo data.

A dataset of 10,000 simulated OCMF (Ocean Colour Modelling Framework) hyperspectral  $R_{rs}$  spectra was generated separately for the Southern Ocean and the tropical-subtropical regions. Chl-a were randomly sampled from a log-normal distribution (0.01 to 100 mg m<sup>-3</sup>), with weighted sampling based on in-situ probability distributions to reflect regional variability. The difference in  $R_{rs}$ ,  $\Delta R_{rs}$ , was calculated as the median  $R_{rs}$  of the Southern Ocean minus that of the tropical-subtropical ocean. Its first derivative,  $\Delta R_{rs}'$ , was then computed, and peaks (local maxima and minima) were identified ('scipy.signal.find\_peaks' in Python). To ensure robustness, bootstrap resampling ( $N = 1,000$ ) was performed, and redundant peaks within  $\pm 1$  nm of a more frequent peak were removed. Chlorophyll-specific absorption spectra ( $a_{ph}^*$ , m<sup>2</sup> (mg C)<sup>-1</sup>) for eight phytoplankton pigments (Clementson and Wojtasiewicz, 2019) were interpolated to 1-nm resolution, and their first derivatives were compared to  $\Delta R_{rs}'$ .

The  $\Delta R_{rs}$  spectrum exhibits eight prominent peaks at 418, 430, 443, 461, 488, 498, 509, and 511 nm. While some (e.g., 443 and 488 nm) align with bands of multispectral sensors, others (e.g., 418, 430, 461, 509, 511 nm) are unique to hyperspectral platforms, such as PACE, GLIMER, and HICO. By comparing the locations of  $\Delta R_{rs}'$  peaks with those of  $a_{ph}^*$ , we found that several features of  $R_{rs}$  differences are associated with specific pigments. For example, the 418 nm peak corresponds to multiple pigments, including alloxanthin, fucoxanthin, zeaxanthin, 19'-hexanoyloxyfucoxanthin, chlorophyll-a, and chlorophyll-b. Other peaks show more distinct associations. The 461 nm peak with alloxanthin and zeaxanthin, 489 nm with fucoxanthin, and 511 nm with peridinin, each serving as a diagnostic marker for certain phytoplankton groups.



## S1.4 Figure S4

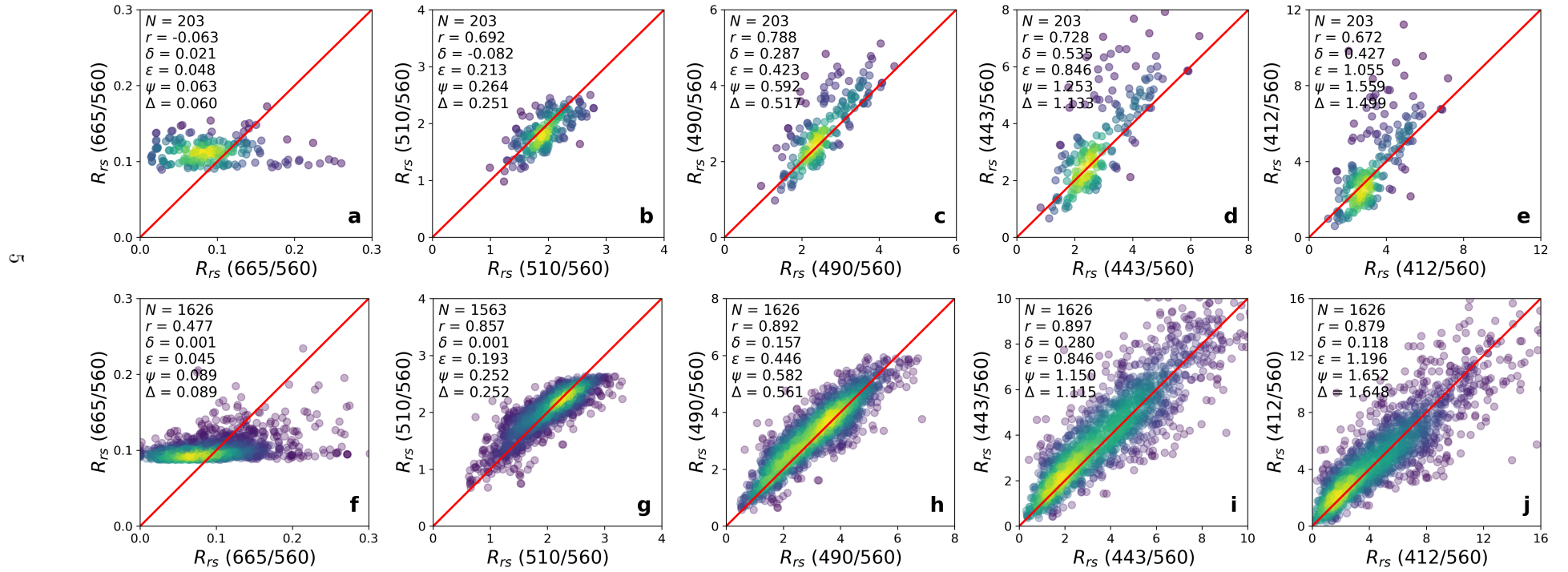


Figure S4. Independent validation of  $R_{rs}$  band ratios (normalised at 560 nm), comparing in-situ measurements (x-axis) with OCMF estimates (y-axis). a-e, Southern Ocean at 665, 510, 490, 443, and 412 nm; f-j, tropical-subtropical oceans at corresponding wavelengths. The red line indicates the 1:1 reference.

## S2 In-situ Data

### S2.1 HPLC pigments

This study compiled a dataset of 62,337 High Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC) samples collected from the global ocean. These include publicly available data from various sources, such as Australian Ocean Data Network (AODN, [IMOS, 2021a,b](#)), Biological and Chemical Oceanography Data Management Office (BCO-DMO, [McGillicuddy, 2007b,a](#); [DiTullio, 2011](#); [Vaillancourt and Marra, 2011](#); [Bidigare, 2012](#); [Richardson et al., 2013](#); [DiTullio, 2015](#); [Lee, 2020](#); [Lohrenz et al., 2020](#); [Landry, 2021](#)), DataONE ([Palmer Station Antarctica LTER et al., 2020](#); [Southern California Bight MBON et al., 2021](#)), Environmental Data Initiative Data Portal (EDI, [Palmer Station Antarctica LERT et al., 2018](#)), NASA SeaWiFS Bio-optical Archive and Storage System (SeaBASS, [Werdell et al., 2003](#)), PANGAEA ([Taylor et al., 2011b](#); [Claustre, 2013](#); [Bracher, 2014](#); [Clayton et al., 2014](#); [Peeken and Hoffmann, 2014](#); [Peeken and Nachtigall, 2014](#); [Bracher, 2015a](#); [Bracher et al., 2015](#); [Bracher, 2015b,c,d,e](#); [Hepach et al., 2016](#); [Peeken et al., 2017c,a,b](#); [Peeken and Quack, 2017](#); [Peeken and Walter, 2017](#); [Peeken et al., 2017d](#); [Taylor and Bracher, 2017](#); [Bracher, 2019](#); [Bracher et al., 2020](#); [Xi et al., 2023](#)), and some published works ([Brewin et al., 2015](#); [Jordan et al., 2024](#); [Hayward et al., 2024](#)).

To ensure data quality for subsequent analysis, several quality control steps were applied to the original HPLC dataset. When multiple samples were available at a station, each was treated as an individual observation. Each HPLC sample provides concentrations of total Chl-a (the sum of monovinyl chlorophyll-a, divinyl chlorophyll-a, and chlorophyllide-a) and seven diagnostic pigments used to infer phytoplankton size classes ([Vidussi et al., 2001](#); [Uitz et al., 2006](#)). Samples with Chl-a below  $0.001 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$  were removed, and any diagnostic pigment values below this threshold were set to zero ([Claustre et al., 2004](#)). Additionally, samples were retained only if the difference between total chlorophyll concentration and total accessory pigments concentration did not exceed 30% of the total pigment concentration ([Aiken et al., 2009](#)). To maintain the independence of comparisons between Chl-a and blue-green  $R_{rs}$  band ratios, any HPLC samples with concurrent  $R_{rs}$  measurements were excluded. Since the Ocean Colour Modelling Framework (OCMF, see Section 4.4 in the main text for details) is designed for Case-1 waters, samples potentially from optically complex waters were removed using water type classifications derived from OC-CCI satellite data (see Section S3.2 for details). Samples were restricted to two regions of interest: the Southern Ocean (latitudes south of  $60^\circ\text{S}$ ) and the combined tropical-subtropical oceans (between  $40^\circ\text{N}$  and  $40^\circ\text{S}$ ). After applying all quality control and selection criteria, a total of 37,763 HPLC samples ( $N = 16,578$  and  $21,185$  for the Southern Ocean and the tropical-

subtropical oceans, respectively) were retained for further analysis (Figure S5).

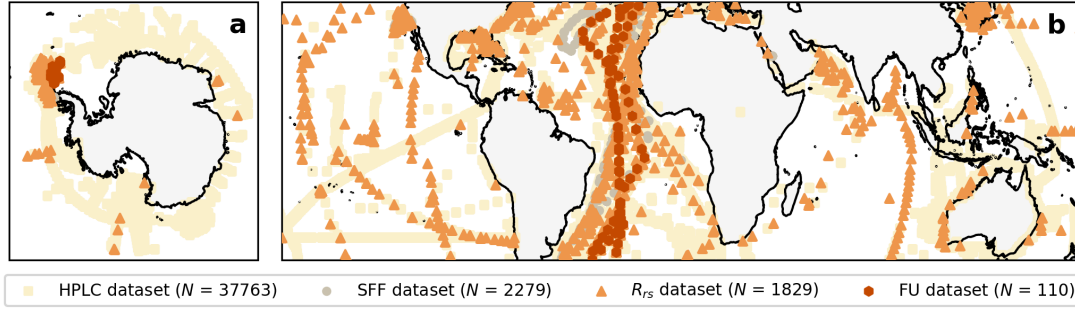


Figure S5. Geographic distribution of in-situ datasets used in this study for the Southern Ocean (south of 60°S, a) and tropical-subtropical regions (between 40°N and 40°S, b). Data include HPLC pigments (squares,  $N = 37,763$ ), size-fractionated filtration (circles,  $N = 2,279$ ), remote sensing reflectance (triangles,  $N = 1,829$ ), and Forel-Ule colour observations (hexagons,  $N = 110$ ).

## S2.2 Size-fractionated filtration Chl-a

A total of 3,610 size-fractionated fluorometric (SFF) Chl-a measurements collected from the global ocean were used in this study. These include publicly available data from various sources, such as, British Oceanographic Data Centre (BODC, [British Oceanographic Data Centre \(BODC\), 2020](#)), DataONE ([California Current Ecosystem LTER and Goericke, 2018](#); [Sosik et al., 2021](#)), and some published works ([Brewin et al., 2014a, 2017, 2019](#); [Venables et al., 2023](#)).

In general, the Chl-a concentration in water passing through a 2  $\mu\text{m}$  filter is designated  $C_1$  (picoplankton), the concentration retained between the 2 and 20  $\mu\text{m}$  filters as  $C_2$  (nanoplankton), and the concentration retained on the 20  $\mu\text{m}$  filter as  $C_3$  (microplankton). The total Chl-a is calculated as the sum of these three size fractions. Following a quality control procedure similar to that applied to the HPLC dataset, samples with concurrent  $R_{rs}$  measurements or those potentially from optically complex coastal waters were excluded, resulting in 2,279 SFF samples remained for analysis, including 399 from the Southern Ocean and 1,880 from tropical-subtropical regions (Figure S5).

## S2.3 Particulate absorption coefficients and Chl-a

From January to March 2024, we conducted a PICCOLO expedition (Processes Influencing Carbon Cycling: Observations of the Lower Limb of the Antarctic Overturning) in the Weddell Sea, Antarctica, one of the least-sampled regions of the Southern Ocean. One of the objectives of the cruise was to investigate the observed bio-optical anomaly.

During the cruise, particulate absorption coefficients ( $a_p(\lambda)$ ), ranging from 400 to 750 nm, were measured quasi-continuously using an AC-S spectrophotometer (WET Labs, serial number 297). The AC-S was integrated into the underway optics system, following design and methods described in [Dall’Olmo et al. \(2009\)](#), which draws seawater from 7 m depth. The system collects concurrent measurements of total absorption and attenuation coefficients of the bulk water,  $a(\lambda)$  and  $c(\lambda)$ , respectively. To distinguish particulate components, every hour the flow was automatically diverted for 10 minutes through a 0.2- $\mu\text{m}$  filter (SUEZ Memtrex NY MNY921EGS), allowing computation of  $a_p(\lambda)$  and particulate attenuation ( $c_p(\lambda)$ ) by subtracting the filtered signal from the bulk. Data acquisition was initially managed by the WET Labs DH4 system and later transitioned to the open-source INLININO software (<https://github.com/OceanOptics/Inlinino>).

Post-processing included 1-minute binning, quality screening, and corrections for temperature and scattering effects. During binning, data affected by bubbles or flow blockages (e.g., from sea ice) were removed. Flow rate data from the inline flow sensor were used to exclude non-flow periods, and ship metadata (e.g., hoist position, speed) were used to flag unreliable data. Only data collected within the start and end times of sampling stations were retained.

Subsequently, a series of quality control steps were conducted on both the bulk and filtered datasets. Spectra with high relative variability were excluded, defined as a standard deviation to median ratio above certain percentile (e.g., 90th at most stations). Given the temperature differences between the Antarctic cold seawater and the warm laboratory environment where the AC-S operated, measurements collected after thermal stabilisation were used, which was assessed using the temperature recorded by the AC-S.

Spectrally anomalous data, defined as any 1-minute spectrum with more than half its values falling outside  $\pm 1$  IQR (bounded by the 16th and 84th percentiles) from the station median, were removed. This procedure was applied separately to bulk and filtered datasets. To correct for transient effects during the automatic filter switch from bulk to filtered seawater, filtered time-series of each hour were fitted to an exponential model, and the intercept derived was used as the corrected value for the 0.2  $\mu\text{m}$ -filtered values for that hour. For stations with multiple filtered periods, these were interpolated before subtraction from bulk signals to derive  $a_p(\lambda)$  and  $c_p(\lambda)$ . Spectra were then smoothed using a Savitzky-Golay filter (`‘savgol_filter’` in Python). A correction for temperature and scattering ( $b_p(\lambda) = c_p(\lambda) - a_p(\lambda)$ ) effects was then applied following the method described by [Slade et al. \(2010\)](#), which adjusts for temperature-induced biases in absorption based on near-infrared optical properties. Only spectra with non-negative values across 400–700 nm were retained. The final  $a_p(\lambda)$  and  $c_p(\lambda)$  for each station were calculated as

113 the median of all valid 1-minute spectra.

114 In total, 37 stations of underway optical observations, specifically,  $a_p(\lambda)$ , were collected during  
115 the PICCOLO cruise, which can be used to estimate Chl-a using the line-height method (Boss  
116 et al., 2007; Brewin et al., 2012), such that,

$$\text{Chl-a} = \frac{a_p(676) - (0.6 \cdot a_p(650) + 0.4 \cdot a_p(714))}{0.014}, \quad (1)$$

117 where 0.014 represents the chlorophyll-specific absorption coefficient for phytoplankton at 676  
118 nm, which can vary with pigment composition and phytoplankton size (Bricaud et al., 1995).

119 Besides, surface water samples were collected at each station for laboratory analysis of Chl-a  
120 using an in-vitro fluorometric method (Turner Trilogy fluorometer). Specifically, 100 mL of  
121 seawater was filtered, and the filters were extracted in 10 mL of acetone and stored at -20°C  
122 for up to 24 hours. After dark equilibration at room temperature, Chl-a concentrations were  
123 determined fluorometrically, with the fluorometer calibrated against known standards.

124 Of the 37 stations, 32 had concurrent fluorometric and  $a_p$ -derived Chl-a data. The two estimates  
125 showed strong agreement, with a correlation of 0.970, a bias of -0.052 (indicating slight underes-  
126 timation by the  $a_p$  method), and a root mean square difference (RMSD) of 0.110, all calculated  
127 in  $\log_{10}$  space. To improve accuracy, the chlorophyll-specific absorption coefficient in Equation  
128 1 was optimised using these 32 match-ups. The revised coefficient is 0.0124, which reduced the  
129 bias to 0.001 and RMSD to 0.097. This regionally tuned line-height method was then applied  
130 to  $a_p$  from all 37 stations to derive Chl-a estimates for further analysis.

## 131 S2.4 Remote sensing reflectance

132 This study compiled a large dataset of remote sensing reflectance ( $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ ) with concurrent Chl-a  
133 measurements (Figure S5), combining data from a previously compilation (Sun et al., 2025) with  
134 newly collected observations.

135 The newly added observations include high-resolution  $R_{rs}$  measurements collected during the  
136 PICCOLO cruise, where a Satlantic HyperSAS system was deployed for quasi-continuous sam-  
137 pling along the cruise track. The system consists of three sensors: a zenith-facing irradiance  
138 sensor ( $E_s$ ), and two radiance sensors facing the sky ( $L_i$ ) and sea surface ( $L_t$ ), respectively. The  
139 processing of the  $E_s$ ,  $L_i$ , and  $L_t$  and the calculation of  $R_{rs}(\lambda)$  followed procedures similar to  
140 those used in previous Atlantic Meridional Transect cruises (Brewin et al., 2016; Lin et al., 2022;

141 [Pardo et al., 2023](#)). Specifically, raw data were extracted using Satlantic SatView and SatCon  
 142 software, and were dark-corrected. The three radiometric data were then synchronised to the  
 143 nearest second, and only records with fully matched timestamps across all three sensors were  
 144 retained.

145 A series of quality control filters were applied for  $R_{rs}$  measurements in the PICCOLO cruise:  
 146 (1) due to the low sun elevation in the Weddell Sea during summer, solar zenith angle  $\leq 80^\circ$   
 147 to ensure adequate sun elevation; (2) an azimuth angle between  $70^\circ$  and  $170^\circ$  to reduce sun  
 148 glint; (3) platform pitch and roll both within  $\pm 5^\circ$  to minimise platform tilt effects; and (4) no  
 149 negative radiance or irradiance values at 444 nm. To further minimise sun glint contamination,  
 150 we applied a near-infrared (NIR) screening procedure based on the  $L_t$  reflectance spectrum.  
 151 Only records within the lowest 10th percentile of the NIR signal were retained.  $R_{rs}$  were then  
 152 calculated as,  $R_{rs}(\lambda) = (L_t(\lambda) - 0.028 \cdot L_i(\lambda))/E_s(\lambda)$ , where 0.028 is a standard correction  
 153 factor for skylight reflection under open-ocean conditions ([Mobley, 1999](#)). To further correct  
 154 for residual contamination, the average  $R_{rs}$  in the NIR band (750–800 nm) was subtracted  
 155 from each spectrum. Any spectra with negative values in the visible range (400–700 nm) were  
 156 discarded. Next, two spectral band ratios,  $R_{rs}(443)/R_{rs}(547)$  and  $R_{rs}(488)/R_{rs}(547)$ , were  
 157 calculated. For each ratio, the coefficient of variation (CV) was calculated, and any records with  
 158 CV over 0.15 in either ratio were excluded. The median  $R_{rs}$  spectrum was then calculated for  
 159 each remaining minute and used as the final quality-controlled dataset. Finally, the  $R_{rs}$  spectra  
 160 were matched with underway  $a_p$  data. Only  $R_{rs}$  measurements within a  $\pm 1$  hour window centred  
 161 on the timestamp of each valid  $a_p$  measurement were retained. Note that during the collection  
 162 of radiometry data on the PICCOLO cruise, the  $E_s$  sensor mounted on top of the central mast  
 163 became contaminated by ship exhaust. To correct for this, pre- and post-cleaning data collected  
 164 at the end of the cruise were used to model the relationship between  $E_s$ -derived PAR and PAR  
 165 from a foremast sensor, which was less affected by exhaust. A time-dependent polynomial model  
 166 was applied to correct the full  $E_s$  dataset. This correction had minimal impact on the spectral  
 167 shape in the blue-green region relevant to this study.

168 Additional  $R_{rs}(\lambda)$  from previous compilation include publicly available data from various sources,  
 169 such as, BODC ([Brewin et al., 2023](#)), NASA NOMAD (NASA bio-Optical Marine Algorithm  
 170 Dataset, version 2.a, [Werdell and Bailey, 2005](#)), NASA SeaWiFS Bio-optical Archive and Stor-  
 171 age System (SeaBASS, [Werdell et al., 2003](#)), PANGAEA ([Taylor et al., 2011a](#); [Bracher, 2014](#),  
 172 [2015d, 2017a,b](#); [Kramer et al., 2021](#); [Xi et al., 2021](#); [Bracher and Cheah, 2022](#); [Valente et al.,](#)  
 173 [2022](#)), and some published works ([Brewin et al., 2023](#); [Jordan et al., 2024](#)). These measure-  
 174 ments were generally obtained from radiometric observations, using instruments such as Sat-

lantic HyperSAS/Free-Falling Optical Profile, RAMSES TriOS, following the ocean optics protocols (Mueller et al., 2003) and factory user guidelines.

To ensure consistent data quality, all  $R_{rs}$  measurements with unrealistically high values (i.e.,  $>0.15 \text{ sr}^{-1}$ ) being discarded. The dataset included both multispectral and hyperspectral observations. Any samples with fewer than six valid spectral bands were excluded. Hyperspectral data with spectral resolution of 2 nm or finer were interpolated to 1 nm. Quality assurance (QA) scores were computed following the method of Wei et al. (2016), with wavelength bands selected on a per-sample basis, and only those samples with QA scores over 0.80 were retained. Since the OCMF model does not simulate Raman scattering, corrections for Raman effects were applied to  $R_{rs}$  prior to analysis, using the approach from Lee et al. (2013). Due to the lack of detailed information about sensor mounting angles and observational geometry, bidirectional reflectance distribution function corrections were not applied.

After applying all filtering and quality control procedures, a total of 1,829  $R_{rs}$  samples from Case-1 waters (based on water type information from OC-CCI, see Section S3.2) were retained for analysis, including 203 from the Southern Ocean and 1,626 from the tropical-subtropical regions.

## S3 Auxiliary datasets

### S3.1 Sea surface temperature

Sea surface temperature (SST) was obtained for each Chl-a sample to support forward modelling in the Ocean Colour Modelling Framework (OCMF), specifically for estimating temperature-dependent variables (i.e., backscattering coefficients of pure water) in two regions. SST values were sourced from the NOAA Optimum Interpolation Sea Surface Temperature (OISST) dataset, version 2, which provides global daily coverage at a  $1/4^\circ$  spatial resolution. This OISST dataset integrates observations from satellites, ships, buoys, and Argo floats, and is distributed by NOAA's Physical Sciences Laboratory (<https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data.noaa.oisst.v2.highres.html>). Each in-situ Chl-a sample was matched to the nearest OISST in space (latitude and longitude) and time (daily), and only samples with SST values between  $-1.8$  and  $40^\circ\text{C}$  were retained. Due to the limited availability of concurrent in-situ temperature data (e.g., from CTD casts), OISST match-ups were used instead. Previous study has shown high consistency between OISST and in-situ temperature measurements (see Supplementary Figure



205 S4 in Sun et al. (2023)).

## 206 S3.2 Water type classification

207 This study used monthly Ocean Colour Climate Change Initiative (OC-CCI) dataset, version 6.0,  
208 at 4 km spatial resolution (Sathyendranath et al., 2021), available at [https://climate.esa.in](https://climate.esa.int/en/projects/ocean-colour/)  
209 [t/en/projects/ocean-colour/](https://climate.esa.int/en/projects/ocean-colour/). The dataset includes optical water class information (Jackson  
210 et al., 2017), where 14 optical water classes are assigned to each pixel that span a gradient from  
211 clear open-ocean waters (class 1) to highly turbid coastal regions (class 14). These classifications  
212 were used to identify samples influenced by optically complex coastal waters (Sun et al., 2025).  
213 To determine the dominant water type at each sample location, 25 years of monthly OC-CCI  
214 data (1998–2022) were used. For each pixel, the mean values across all 14 classes were computed,  
215 and the class with the highest mean value was selected as the representative water type. Samples  
216 falling into classes 12, 13, or 14 were excluded from further analysis, which are likely associated  
217 with turbid coastal waters (Jackson et al., 2017).

## 218 S4 Methods

### 219 S4.1 Diagnostic pigment analyses

220 Phytoplankton size classes (PSCs) were estimated from the HPLC pigment data using diagnostic  
221 pigment analysis (Brewin et al., 2010; Hirata et al., 2011), which infers the fractional contribution  
222 of three size classes (pico-, nano-, and microplankton) based on the concentrations of seven  
223 diagnostic pigments. PSC fractions were calculated by applying weighting coefficients to each  
224 pigment and summing their contributions within each size class.

225 Previous studies have shown that these weights vary by region (Brewin et al., 2017). Therefore,  
226 in this study, region-specific weights were derived for the Southern Ocean and the tropical–  
227 subtropical oceans using in-situ datasets. The weights were determined by minimizing the dif-  
228 ference between the in-situ measured Chl-a concentration ( $C$ ) and the weighted sum of the  
229 seven diagnostic pigments ( $C_w$ ), expressed as  $C_w = \sum_{i=1}^7 W_i P_i$ , where  $P_i$  represents the  
230 concentration of each diagnostic pigment and  $W_i$  is its corresponding weight, with  $i$  = fucox-  
231 anthin, peridinin, 19'-hexanoyloxyfucoxanthin, 19'-butanoyloxyfucoxanthin, alloxanthin, total  
232 chlorophyll-b, and zeaxanthin. The regional weights were computed using multi-linear regres-  
233 sion on their corresponding datasets in  $\log_{10}$  space, as shown in Table S1. Using these newly



234 derived weights, the  $C_w$  showed strong agreement with the  $C$ , with correlation coefficients and  
 235 root mean square differences ( $\log_{10}$  space; see Methods in the main text) of 0.980 and 0.107 for  
 236 the Southern Ocean, and 0.977 and 0.093 for the tropical–subtropical oceans, respectively.

237 Following [Brewin et al. \(2015\)](#), the fractional contributions of PSCs to total Chl-a were then  
 238 calculated,

$$F_1 = \begin{cases} \frac{(-12.5C + 1)W_3P_3}{C_w} + \frac{\sum_{i=6}^7 W_i P_i}{C_w} & \text{if } C \leq 0.08 \text{ mg m}^{-3} \\ \frac{\sum_{i=6}^7 W_i P_i}{C_w} & \text{if } C > 0.08 \text{ mg m}^{-3} \end{cases}, \quad (2)$$

$$F_2 = \begin{cases} \frac{-12.5CW_3P_3}{C_w} + \frac{\sum_{i=4}^5 W_i P_i + W_1 P_{1,n}}{C_w} & \text{if } C \leq 0.08 \text{ mg m}^{-3} \\ \frac{\sum_{i=3}^5 W_i P_i + W_1 P_{1,n}}{C_w} & \text{if } C > 0.08 \text{ mg m}^{-3} \end{cases}, \quad (3)$$

240 and

$$F_3 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^2 W_i P_i - W_1 P_{1,n}}{C_w}, \quad (4)$$

241 where  $F_1$ ,  $F_2$ , and  $F_3$  represent fractions of pico-, nano-, and microplankton, respectively. Since  
 242 fucoxanthin can be found in both micro- and nanoplankton, a portion of this pigment was  
 243 assigned to the nanoplankton group ([Devred et al., 2011](#)). This adjusted contribution,  $P_{1,n}$ ,  
 244 was computed using the expression  $P_{1,n} = 10^{q_1 \log_{10}(P_3) + q_2 \log_{10}(P_4)}$ , where  $P_3$  and  $P_4$  represent  
 245 19'-hexanoyloxyfucoxanthin and 19'-butanoyloxyfucoxanthin, with region-specific coefficients  $q_1$   
 246 and  $q_2$  derived through regression in  $\log_{10}$  space (see Table [S1](#)). When  $P_{1,n}$  exceeded  $P_1$ , it  
 247 was capped to  $P_1$ . The Chl-a specific to each size class, pico- ( $C_1$ ), nano- ( $C_2$ ), micro- ( $C_3$ ),  
 248 and combined pico- and nanoplankton ( $C_{1,2}$ ), were calculated by multiplying their respective  
 249 fractions (Equations 2–4) by the total in-situ Chl-a concentration ( $C$ ).

Table S1. Weighting coefficients for the seven diagnostic pigments and adjustment coefficients for fucoxanthin, used in this study for the Southern Ocean and the tropical–subtropical oceans. Values in brackets indicate the standard deviations associated with each weight and coefficient.

Pigments	Weights		
	$W$	Southern Ocean	Tropical–subtropical oceans
Fucoxanthin ( $P_1$ )	$W_1$	1.30 (0.01)	1.68 (0.02)
Peridinin ( $P_2$ )	$W_2$	0.91 (0.04)	0.87 (0.05)
19'-Hexanoyloxyfucoxanthin ( $P_3$ )	$W_3$	1.02 (0.01)	1.37 (0.01)
19'-Butanoyloxyfucoxanthin ( $P_4$ )	$W_4$	0.82 (0.03)	0.73 (0.03)
Alloxanthin ( $P_5$ )	$W_5$	1.60 (0.02)	4.24 (0.13)
Total chlorophyll-b ( $P_6$ )	$W_6$	1.31 (0.03)	0.74 (0.01)
Zeaxanthin ( $P_7$ )	$W_7$	1.30 (0.09)	1.07 (0.01)
Pigments	Coefficients		
	$q$	Southern Ocean	Tropical–subtropical oceans
19'-Hexanoyloxyfucoxanthin ( $P_3$ )	$q_1$	0.20 (0.03)	0.73 (0.04)
19'-Butanoyloxyfucoxanthin ( $P_4$ )	$q_2$	0.85 (0.02)	1.13 (0.03)

## S4.2 Three-component model

Unlike previous approaches that fit the three-component model by estimating two components sequentially (i.e., fitting  $F_{1,2}$  and  $F_1$  in Equations 1 and 2 in the main text to retrieve  $C_{1,2}^m$ ,  $D_{1,2}$ ,  $C_1^m$ , and  $D_1$ ), this study employs a multivariable least-squares optimisation approach. This approach combines residuals from multiple components into a single objective function, with each residual weighted by the inverse of its standard deviation to account for measurement uncertainty. Owing to the interdependence of model variables (size fractions), the multivariable approach offers the advantage of accounting for these interactions, resulting in more consistent parameter estimates. To ensure robust parameter estimation, we evaluated different combinations of components, such as  $F_{1,2}$  with  $F_1$ ,  $F_{1,2}$  with  $F_2$ , and  $F_1$  with  $F_2$  and  $F_3$ . Across different combinations, parameter estimates and model performance were broadly consistent, with the pairing of  $F_{1,2}$  and  $F_2$  having the most accurate results.

Therefore, for the tropical–subtropical oceans, the three-component model was fitted using non-linear least-squares optimisation ('lmfit' in Python), based on in-situ  $C$ ,  $F_{1,2}$ , and  $F_2$ . The resulting parameter estimates and their 95% confidence intervals are presented in Table S2. The relationships between Chl-a and size fractions from this study are consistent with those in

previous studies (Figure S6), reflecting overlap in data distributions (Brewin et al., 2014b; Sun et al., 2023).

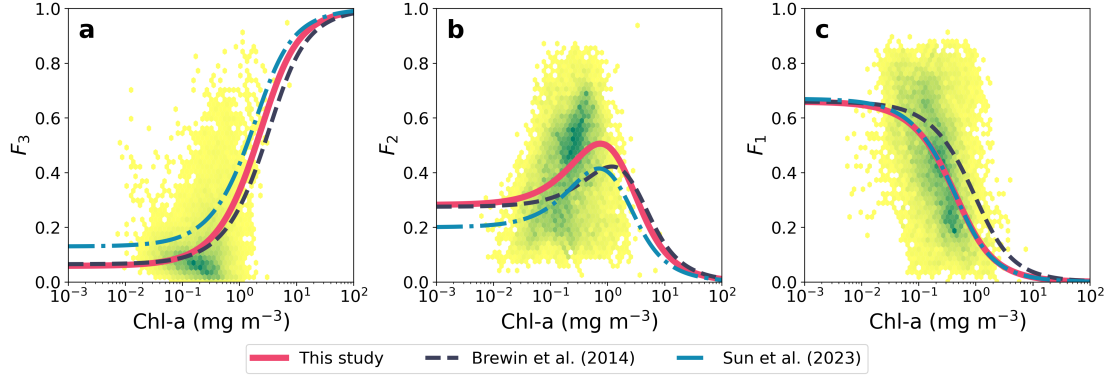


Figure S6. Fractional contributions of phytoplankton size classes, microplankton (a), nanoplankton (b), and picoplankton (c), as a function of total Chl-a in the tropical–subtropical ocean dataset. Background shading shows a density plot of the in-situ observations, with darker green indicating a higher number of data points. The re-tuned three-component model developed in this study is shown alongside model fits from previous studies (Brewin et al., 2014b; Sun et al., 2023) for comparison. The model parameters ( $C_{1,2}^m$ ,  $C_1^m$ ,  $D_{1,2}$ ,  $D_1$ ) are 1.785, 0.370, 0.935, 0.660 (see their Table ts01, Brewin et al., 2014b), and 0.95, 0.17, 0.87, 0.67 (see their Table 2, Sun et al., 2023), respectively.

In the Southern Ocean, the original exponential model struggled to capture the relationship between total Chl-a and PSCs. For example, microplankton contributions ( $F_3$ ) were highly variable across the full Chl-a range, with no clear exponential trend (Figure S7a). This contrasts with the tropical–subtropical regions, where  $F_3$  increases gradually at low Chl-a and more sharply beyond  $0.3 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$  (Figure S6a), a pattern well captured by the exponential model. However, in the Southern Ocean,  $F_3$  values spanned the full 0–1 range even at low Chl-a, making it difficult to fit a single exponential curve across the dataset. To address this issue, we developed a modified fitting approach tailored to the distributional characteristics of the Southern Ocean dataset. The dataset was divided into quantile-based bins for Chl-a and PSCs fractions, and the median values within each bin were computed to represent major tendencies. The exponential model was then fitted to these binned median values rather than the original data points. To evaluate the influence of bin resolution on the parameter result, we conducted a sensitivity analysis by varying the number of samples per bin (step size) from 1 to 30, which effectively adjusts the number of bins. We observed that as step size increased, the values of  $D_{1,2}$  and  $D_1$  for the Southern Ocean also increased, stabilising near one when the step size exceeds 14 (not shown). Based on this trend, we selected a step size of 13 for the Southern Ocean, which provided stable parameter estimates without over-smoothing the data. The model parameters are shown in Table S2. We also applied this binning-based method to the tropical–subtropical datasets. However, the parameter values, e.g.,  $D_{1,2}$ , were already stable across step sizes and closely aligned with the

287 results from the original (non-binned) method. Therefore, for the tropical–subtropical regions,  
 288 we retained the original fitting approach. The regional model of the Southern Ocean captures  
 289 the general trend observed in previous studies (Ward, 2015; Sun et al., 2023), particularly when  
 290 regional temperature information is incorporated, reflecting the cold environment of the region.  
 291 However, differences are observed in the relationship between  $F_3$  and Chl-a (Figure S7a), which  
 292 can be attributed to the different fitting methods used, with the modified version aligning more  
 293 closely with in-situ measurements.

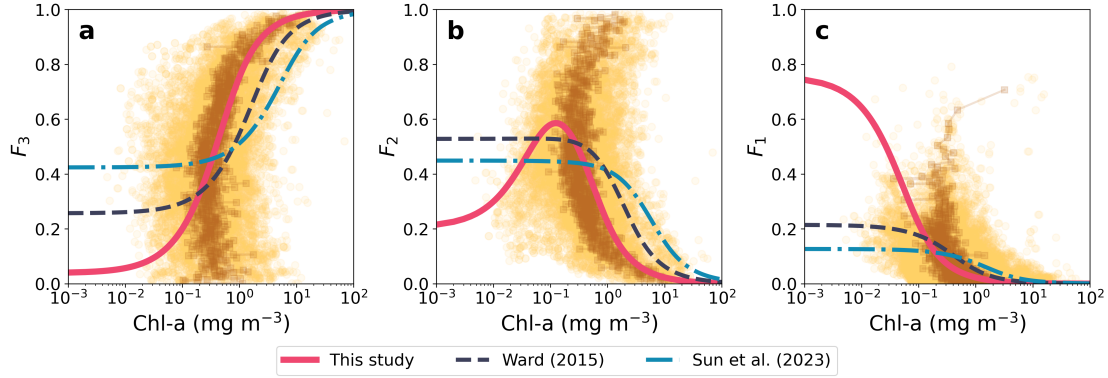


Figure S7. Fractional contributions of phytoplankton size classes, microplankton (a), nanoplankton (b), and picoplankton (c), as a function of total Chl-a in the Southern Ocean dataset (yellow circles), with quantile-binned median values shown as brown squares. The re-tuned three-component model developed in this study is shown alongside model fits from previous studies (Ward, 2015; Sun et al., 2023) for comparison. Note that model parameters here account for temperature (at 0 °C), using Equation 2 and Table 3 from Ward (2015) and Equations 8–11 and Table 2 from Sun et al. (2023), respectively.

Table S2. Parameter values of the three-component model for the Southern Ocean and tropical–subtropical regions. Values in brackets indicate the 5.55 and 94.45% confidence intervals, corresponding to two standard deviations.

Region	$C_{1,2}^m$	$C_1^m$	$D_{1,2}$	$D_1$
Southern Ocean	0.25 (0.24–0.27)	0.02 (0.02–0.02)	0.96 (0.90–1.00)	0.76 (0.43–1.00)
Tropical–subtropical oceans	1.28 (1.25–1.32)	0.17 (0.17–0.18)	0.94 (0.94–0.94)	0.66 (0.65–0.67)

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