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Composition and interannual variability of phytoplankton in a coastal upwelling region (Lisbon Bay, Portugal)

A. Silva *, S. Palma ¹, P.B. Oliveira ¹, M.T. Moita ¹

Instituto Nacional de Recursos Biológicos (INRB-IPIMAR), Av. Brasília s/n, 1449-006 Lisboa, Portugal

A R T I C L E I N F O

ABSTRACT

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Keywords: Phytoplankton succession Time series Diatoms Coccolithophores Dinoflagellates Upwelling From July 2001 to May 2005, at a fixed station located in Lisbon Bay (Cascais: 38° 41′ N, 09° 24′ W), surface seawater samples were collected on a weekly basis. We aimed to describe at different temporal scales, short-term to interannual, the phytoplankton community in relation to hydrographic conditions.

Maxima of the main phytoplankton groups varied according to the seasonality of upwelling/downwelling cycles and nutrient availability and were associated with particular hydrological mesoscale structures highlighted by satellite images. Short succession cycles were identified dependent on coastal upwelling events. Intermittent and weak pulses allowed the coexistence of species from different succession stages and groups, although having consecutive maxima. The interannual differences observed in the phytoplankton community, in Lisbon Bay, varied according to both the duration and strength of the upwelling events and to precipitation and Tagus river flow regimes.

Diatoms developed and were dominant, during spring–summer under prevailing upwelling conditions and silicon availability. Short upwelling pulses appeared to be unfavourable for diatoms maintenance. When upwelling weakened and SST increased due to onshore advection of warmer waters, coccolithophores dominated. This assemblage was the second most abundant during the study, in particular during the short transition period from upwelling (summer) to downwelling seasons (autumn) distributing in the largest range of hydrographical conditions between diatoms (maximum turbulence) during early spring and dinoflagellates (maximum stratification) during summer to further dominate during autumn and winter. Nitrites and nitrates seemed to favour greater developments of this group. Dinoflagellates peaked mainly during summer and were the less abundant through the four years due to the decrease of lasting convergence periods. Like coccolithophores, a preference for warmer waters emerged but this group seemed to have a narrow tolerance to turbulence and temperature changes.

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1. Introduction

At the west coast of Portugal upwelling generally occurs seasonally, from April to September, under northerlies, while onshore advection of oceanic waters is observed during autumn and winter, when southerly winds begin to dominate and there is an intensification of waters flowing poleward (Fiúza et al., 1982; Haynes and Barton, 1990; Peliz et al., 2005). Episodes of reverse winds can occur during both seasons. Lisbon Bay is either influenced by the subtropical branch of the Eastern North Atlantic Central Water (ENACWst) as by Tagus river discharges, an import nutrient source especially during winter. North of the bay, an upwelling filament rooted at cape Roca (Fig. 1) recurrently occurs during the northerly wind periods (upwelling favourable), typically extending to the south and westward direction. However, at Lisbon Bay the structure of upwelling is complex since it represents an important coastline

discontinuity. This region is considered an upwelling shadow area where phytoplankton species can be accumulated through different retention mechanisms (Graham and Largier, 1997; Moita et al., 2003; Oliveira et al., 2009). Moita (2001), for this coast, identified upwelling as the major source of seasonal and spatial variability of phytoplankton. Primary production depends on incoming solar irradiance, temperature, nutrients and oligoelements and in upwelling systems is defined practically by the external energy made available (Margalef, 1978a). In shelf waters, phytoplankton production is primarily controlled by the interaction of water masses supplying different levels of nutrients to the euphotic zone (Ciotti et al., 1995) and by the alterations of the water column stability (Laubscher et al., 1993; Brandini et al., 2000). Thus, the development of a certain size structure of the phytoplankton community depends on the physical-chemical characteristics of the environment (Kiørboe, 1993).

The sampling site, Cascais (Fig. 1), is located at the northern side of Lisbon Bay and south of cape Roca. Here, phytoplankton is either influenced by upwelled waters of the Roca filament or by warmer and mature surrounding waters. The prevailing condition depends on the intensity and persistence of upwelling favourable winds and on the

^{*} Corresponding author. Tel.: +351 213027121; fax: +351 213015948.

E-mail address: amsilva@ipimar.pt (A. Silva).

¹ Tel.: +351 213027121; fax: +351 213015948.

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Fig. 1. Location of the sampling site – Lisbon Bay/Cascais (●) and validation station (◊), 4 km offshore.

offshelf mesoscale structures controlling the offshore extension and position of the upwelling filament. Weak upwelling conditions allow a larger influence of warmer and stratified waters into the bay.

The aim of this study, based on four years of weekly sampling, was the characterization of the dominant phytoplankton community (diatoms, dinoflagellates and coccolithophores) in relation to hydrological conditions from short-term to interannual scales of variability. Such data set will allow comprehensive observations on phytoplankton species succession and is original since rarely on Portuguese coastal waters, the three phytoplankton groups are studied simultaneously with sampling and observation methods focus on coccolithophores.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Surveyed area and sampling strategy

From July 2001 to May 2005, at a fixed coastal station located in Lisbon Bay (Cascais: $38^{\circ} 41' \text{ N}$, $09^{\circ} 24' \text{ W}$) (Fig. 1), seawater samples were collected on a weekly basis, from surface, 1 h before high tide to minimize the direct influence of Tagus estuarine waters on the area. The surface samples were used for chlorophyll *a*, the fraction of chlorophyll *a* less than 20 µm, phytoplankton composition and nutrient determination. Temperature, salinity and depth were determined *in situ* with a Quanta CTD.

Daily wind data were obtained from the meteorological station of Cape Carvoeiro, located 50 km north of Cascais (Fig. 1).

2.2. Chlorophyll a and nutrient analyses

To evaluate the chlorophyll *a* concentration, 250 ml seawater samples were filtered and for chlorophyll $a < 20 \,\mu$ m, the same volume was filtered through a 20 μ m net placed on top of the filter (Whatman, 47 mm nitrate cellulose membrane with a 0.45 μ m nominal pore size). Pigments were extracted with 90% acetone and determined on the Perkin-Elmer spectrofluorometer (Holm-Hansen et al., 1965).

The water for nutrient determination was filtered through a Millipore filter of 0.45 µm and stored at -4 °C for subsequent analysis. Nitrites and nitrates (NO₂⁻ + NO₃⁻), phosphates (HPO₄³⁻) and silicon (SiO₄⁴⁻) were determined using an autoanalyser "SKALAR" according to the methods of *Technicon Industrial Systems* (Grasshoff, 1983). The detection limit is 0.2 µM for silicon and 0.05 µM for nitrites + nitrates and phosphates.

2.3. Phytoplankton analyses

Phytoplankton samples were preserved with hexamethylenetetramine buffered formalin to a final concentration of 2% (Throndsen, 1978). Phytoplankton species were identified and enumerated in subsamples of 50 ml by the Utermöhl technique (Hasle, 1978), using a Zeiss IM35 inverted microscope with phase contrast and bright field illumination. A magnification of $160 \times$ and $400 \times$ was used to analyse the phytoplankton assemblage with a detection limit of 40 cells l^{-1} and 2000 cells l^{-1} , respectively. When possible, the cells were identified to species level according to Hasle and Syvertsen (1996), Dodge (1982) and Moita and Vilarinho (1999). Coccolithophores were separately identified and counted from water samples (750 or 1000 ml) filtered through a 47 mm nitrate cellulose membranes (Whatman) with a 0.45 μ m nominal pore size. A strip of the filter was cut from the centre to the rim and slides were rendered transparent with a drop of Entellan mounting medium. Coccospheres were identified and counted until at a maximum of 300 cells of all taxa per sample (Fatela and Taborda, 2002) on an area of 2.2 mm² of the filter with a Zeiss optical microscope under cross-polarized light, at a magnification of 1250×. Depending on the overall abundance of coccospheres in the samples, counts ranged between 1 cell, corresponding to 73 cells l⁻¹ and 300 cells equivalent to 22×10^3 cells l⁻¹. A scanning electron microscope (JEOL-5200) was used to complete the identifications of the coccolithophore assemblage. Species were identified following Young et al. (2003).

2.4. Data analysis

In order to validate the site, 10 supplementary surface samples were simultaneously collected once a month, 4 km offshore from the Cascais station. A Mann–Whitney *U*-test was performed with the 10 samples. The null hypothesis was that each pair of samples is drawn from a single community and therefore the medians are equal. The main phytoplank-ton groups were observed and quantified for the test and the *p*-level found for each pair was always above 0.1, meaning there was an overlap between the two distributions. The study site was then considered representative of the inner shelf community (Silva et al., 2008).

Based on the values of northward wind stress component a daily upwelling index was calculated (Bakun, 1973). A running average, with a window width of 7 days, was determined to allow a straight relation between data from different time scales (weekly sampling and daily upwelling index).

In order to reveal the internal structure of the data (species distribution through time) in a way which best explains the maximum variance, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was performed using the software NTSYSpc version 2.02i from 1997 by Applied Biostatistics, Inc. The analysis constructs a new set of orthogonal coordinate axes such that the projection of points onto them has maximum variance. While defined in terms of variance and covariance, PCA was applied to standardized data since its scale dependent and the results are sensitive to the often arbitrary choices of units of measurement used in a study. As

data had a highly skewed distribution they were subject of a logarithmic transformation to restore normality in the distribution and equalize the variances and then standardize by subtracting the mean and dividing by the standard deviation. Thus, the centroid of the whole data set is zero and variance is unit. The species selected occurred at least in 20% of the samples during the four years and from the 209 taxa identified, 106 were excluded due to a relative low frequency.

Linear regressions were attempted, between the overall abundance of phytoplankton groups and each abiotic factor. No significant covariation was detected among parameters partly due to the wide range of temporal variably beneath. The highest correlations obtained were in accordance with field observations and were 0.2 (n = 197, p < 0.05) between coccolithophores and temperature, 0.3 (p < 0.01) for diatoms versus Chl a and 0.4 (n = 197, p < 0.01) for total phytoplankton and Chl a.

The satellite-derived sea surface temperature (SST) maps were extracted from EUMETSAT's Ocean and Sea Ice Satellite Application Facility "Regional SST" product, available at 2-km resolution (CMS, 2005).

3. Results

3.1. Hydrography and nutrients

From 2001 until 2005 the upwelling conditions became more persistent, although less intense, usually higher than $-1000 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ km}^{-1}$ and the number of days per year under northerlies increased (negative values in Fig. 2a). In 2004, there were more 55 days with upwelling conditions than in 2002. Conversely, the onshore advection periods of warmer oceanic waters were shorter over the years (upwelling index >0 m³ s⁻¹ km⁻¹) to decreased in frequency and strength from late summer to winter seasons (Fig. 2a). Spring and summer defined the upwelling season while shorter periods of onshore advection were typically observed between mid-September and early December. The autumn and winter seasons, that are usually associated with southerlies, were recurrently dominated by persistent upwelling conditions and sometimes precipitation as in 2003 and 2004. In 2002, the upwelling and downwelling seasons were clearly distinguished but onwards the mild upwelling periods were longer, as observed in 2004.

The sea water temperature varied from seasonal to interannual time scales ranging between 11.5 °C in January 2003, under upwelling and precipitation conditions, and 20.4 °C, observed in October 2002, the warmest autumn of the study period, under established convergence



Fig. 2. Seasonal and interannual variability of upwelling index (a), temperature (b) and salinity (c), from July 2001 to May 2005.

Table 1

Seasonal average and interannual variability of phosphates, silicon and nitrites + nitrates.

(µmol l ⁻¹)	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Phosphates					
Winter	-	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.4
Spring	-	1.1	0.6	0.5	0.3
Summer	1.6	0.8	0.9	0.4	-
Autumn	3.0	0.8	1.0	0.8	-
Total	4.6	3.5	3.4	2.4	0.7
Silicon					
Winter	-	6.6	16.3	11.1	2.5
Spring	-	8.4	6.1	4.3	1.2
Summer	3.6	7.4	1.7	3.2	-
Autumn	13.9	8.2	8.8	5.6	-
Total	17.5	30.6	32.9	24.2	3.7
Nitrites + nitrates					
Winter	-	12.6	5.2	7.0	6.4
Spring	-	8.5	5.5	3.8	4.0
Summer	5.5	7.0	6.5	2.5	-
Autumn	10.0	7.3	6.0	5.8	-
Total	15.5	35.4	23.2	19.1	10.4

Grey squares indicate that sampling occurred during ~2.5 months.

(Fig. 2b). From spring to autumn seasons, SST increased ~1–1.5 °C and higher temperatures begin to be recorded earlier in the years. Summers were progressively warmer with longer periods above 17 °C. Summer 2003 in particular, had the warmer minima and higher temperatures earlier in the season. The reduced depth of the sampling site can lead to an overestimating of SST during summer. However, the raises recorded

were in agreement with other works for the area. According to Díaz et al. (2006), for the period 1991–2003, the summer 2003 (July and August) was exceptionally hot, especially in most of Western Europe. In Lisbon, the air temperature was ~4 °C higher in August 2003 than for the same period in 2002. These high temperatures influenced SST, with temperature anomalies of $\sim +1.5$ °C in relation to the other summers. Additionally, the comparison between the SST distributions of July 2002 and 2004 showed that, despite the similar patterns of the cold upwelled water along the coast, there is a difference of more than 1 °C in the offshore temperatures, being higher in 2004, with a 15-20 day lag between the two years. It was observed that there was an increase in coastal temperatures during summer 2004 under downwelling conditions. The lowest SSTs were observed from late autumn until spring. Autumns had temperatures varying between 15 and 20 °C, with values decreasing towards winter temperatures that ranged from 12 °C to 15 °C. The winter periods became colder, with temperatures below 16 °C and the strongest differences were observed in 2003, apparently related to increments in precipitation due to an intensification of the SW winds (data on www.inag.pt and Silva et al., 2008). The rainfall regime and Tagus river flow strongly influenced salinity, especially from late autumn to winter as in 2003 and 2004, when the lowest values were recorded. During spring and early autumn values were relatively constant (around 35–35.5), usually higher than 34.5 (Fig. 2c). Salinity varied from 26.9 in January 2003 to 36.5 in October 2001. Higher salinities, as in 2002 reflected a dyer year as in 2003, the longest period of intense precipitation was responsible for the subsequent strongest fluctuations in salinity.

Average nutrient concentrations per season and year are summarised in Table 1. Nutrient concentrations changed (Fig. 3), mainly



Fig. 3. Seasonal and interannual variability of phosphates (a), silicon (b), nitrites + nitrates (c), N:P ratios (d) and Si:N ratios (e) from July 2001 to May 2005. The dots (•) indicate nutrient limitation, according to Dortch and Whitledge (1992).

influenced by phytoplankton maxima causing exhaustion and by precipitation and runoff related to major inputs. Since the sampling site as a coastal location, nutrients were in general available. The highest values during autumn and early spring coincided with the lowest phytoplankton concentrations and were influenced by precipitation and runoff, especially as silicon is concerned. Conversely, the lowest nutrient concentrations, from late-spring until summer, were associated with phytoplankton consumption, sometimes until potential limitation, despite the persistency of upwelling as a nutrient supply. Concerning nutrient stoichiometry and according to Dortch and Whitledge (1992), from the 197 observed samples, limitation values were found 44 times (Fig. 3d, e). These two authors propose a combination between nutrient concentrations and ratios to access limitation. The measured phosphates (Fig. 3a) varied between 0.2 and 3.2 μ mol l⁻¹ (May 03–May 02), and were always available in 2001 and 2005 and limited one or two times in 2002-2003. During winter 2004 (Fig. 3a, d), potential limitation by phosphates ($PO_4^{3-} \leq 2$, N/P>30 and Si/P > 3) occurred 8 times (4%). As for silicon (Fig. 3b), 2002 and 2003 presented the highest concentrations especially from autumn to spring while summer had minor concentrations. This nutrient ranged between 0.1 and 29.7 $\mu mol~l^{-1}$ (July 02–December 03). Potential limitation by silicon (SiO_4^{4-} <2, Si/N <1, Si/P <3) was recorded 24 times (12%) through summer seasons ($8 \times$ in 2003) and winter-spring 2005 $(8\times)$ (Fig. 3b, e). Silicon was in general available during 2001 and 2002 and particularly abundant after the rainy winters of 2003 and 2004 what possibly favoured the first diatom peaks recurrently observed through February months, the transition from winter to spring conditions. Nitrites and nitrates (Fig. 3c) were in general abundant especially during autumn-winter. Minima and maxima

were 0.06 and 21.9 μ mol l⁻¹ (December 02 and December 01). Nitrates potential limitation (DIN \leq 1, N/P <10 and Si:N >1) was observed 12 times (6%), during winter and spring in 2002 and 2003 (Fig. 3d).

3.2. Chlorophyll a and phytoplankton distribution

Chlorophyll *a* (Chl *a*) concentration presented minimum and maximum values of 0.1 μ g l⁻¹ (November 2001 and March 2005) and 5.3 μ g l⁻¹ (February 2005) respectively (Fig. 4a). Spring and summer were the two most productive seasons and the lower concentrations were usually during winter. This season, however, presented an increase in Chl *a* values since 2002 onwards, possibly related to the persistence of upwelling conditions. In average, during full years, the lowest Chl *a* concentrations were observed in 2002 while in 2004 they were the highest (Table 2).

The fraction of Chl *a* less than 20 µm increased along the years, especially during summer seasons (>50% of total Chl *a*) and was lower during winter and spring. Concentrations ranged from 0.01 µg l^{-1} in May 2002 (3% of total Chl *a*) to 3.96 µg l^{-1} in August 2001 (98% of total Chl *a*) (Fig. 4a).

Chlorophyll *a* reflected the major variations on phytoplankton biomass ($r^2 = 0.4$, n = 197, p < 0.01) that were influenced by the intensity and persistence of upwelling and downwelling events, changes in temperature and salinity and nutrient availability. Diatoms, coccolithophores and dinoflagellates (Fig. 4) represented more than 90% of cell counts. The remaining phytoplankton groups account less than 10% of total phytoplankton and were composed by small coccolithophores, small cryptophytes, chlorophytes, prasinophytes,



Fig. 4. Seasonal and interannual variability of Chl *a* (line) and Chl *a* below 20 µm (shadow) (a), total phytoplankton (b), diatoms (c), coccolithophores (d) and dinoflagellates (e), from July 2001 to May 2005.

Table 2

Seasonal average and interannual variability of Chl a, Chl a <20 μ m and total phytoplankton, diatoms, coccolithophores and dinoflagellates.

(µmol l ⁻¹)	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Chl a (ug l^{-1})					
Winter	-	0.4	0.7	0.9	1.2
Spring	_	0.7	1.3	1.4	0.7
Summer	2.3	1.1	1.6	2.1	_
Autumn	0.6	1.1	0.9	1.0	_
Total	2.9	3.3	4.5	5.4	1.9
Chl $a < 20 \mu m (\mu g l^{-1})$		010		011	110
Winter	-	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.7
Spring	-	0.2	0.5	0.5	0.3
Summer	1.2	0.3	0.8	1.3	_
Autumn	0.3	0.6	0.4	0.9	_
Total	1.5	1.3	2.0	3.1	1.0
Total phytoplankton					
$(\times 10^4 \text{ cells } l^{-1})$					
Winter	-	78	44	40	51
Spring	-	150	98	107	49
Summer	150	160	101	120	-
Autumn	97	120	47	150	-
Total	247	508	290	417	100
Diatoms ($\times 10^4$ cells l ⁻¹)					
Winter	-	34	10	15	21
Spring	-	70	68	50	8
Summer	17	99	26	19	-
Autumn	24	23	11	76	-
Total	41	226	115	160	29
Coccolithophores					
$(\times 10^4 \text{ cells } l^{-1})$					
Winter	-	28	23	11	7
Spring		49	22	20	24
Summer	38	22	63	48	-
Autumn	28	73	24	34	-
Total	66	172	132	113	31
Dinoflagellates					
$(\times 10^4 \text{ cells } l^{-1})$					
Winter	-	4	6	8	18
Spring		9	6	22	14
Summer	31	29	10	42	-
Autumn	12	13	9	45	-
Total	43	55	31	117	32

Grey squares indicate that sampling occurred during ~2.5 months.

cyanobacteria and other not identified small algae. These groups were randomly observed and traced trough the concentrations of Chl a <20 μ m. The highest phytoplankton concentrations were observed in

Table 3

Diatoms, coccolithophores and dinoflagellates maxima (×10⁴ cells l⁻¹), dominant species, Chl *a* and Chl *a* <20 μ m concentrations (μ mol l⁻¹) during the period highlighted by the satellite images.

Date	18 July 2002	1 October 2002	19 July 2004
Physical conditions	Upwelling	Downwelling	Weak upwelling
Diatoms	29	12	4
Dinoflagellates	1	5	25
Coccolithophores	4	24	1.5
Dominant phytoplankton	Pseudo-nitzschia	E. huxleyi (9)	S. cf.
species (cell number)	spp. (16)	Gephyrocapsa spp. (9)	trochoidea
			(24)
Chl a	1.8	2.61	2.33
Chl a <20 µm	0.16	1.2	0.49
Satellite image — figure	5a	5b	5c

2002 and 2004 (508×10^4 cells l⁻¹ in 2002 and 417×10^4 cells l⁻¹ in 2004), mainly from spring to autumn while the lowest were during winter seasons as 40×10^4 cells l⁻¹ in winter 2004 (Fig. 4b and Table 2).

Diatoms (Fig. 4c) represented the most abundant biomass source with several maxima from spring to early autumn and lower concentrations through late autumn to winter seasons (Table 2). During spring the group usually represented more than 80% of the phytoplankton community, contributing almost exclusively to Chl *a* (r^2 =0.3, n=197, p<0.01). Diatoms were most abundant in 2002, during summer in particular, and the highest peak of the sampling period was observed in October 2004, 38×10^4 cells l⁻¹ (65% of total phytoplankton). The assemblage was composed by 104 identified taxa dominated by *Chaetoceros* spp., *Thalassiosira* spp., *Pseudo-nitzschia* spp., *Skeletonema costatum, Asterionelopsis glaciallis, Leptocylindrus danicus, Detonula pumila, Guinardia delicatula, Guinardia* spp., *Thalassionema nitzschioides* and *Cylindrotheca closterium* (Appendix A).

The satellite image from 13–18 July 2002 clearly shows the presence of colder waters (<15 °C) around cape Roca, defining an upwelling filament with a southward orientation (highlighted by white arrows in Fig. 5a). The phytoplankton community (PC) from day 18 was dominated by diatoms (85% of PA) being *Pseudo-nitzschia* spp. the main genus observed (Table 3). Coccolithophores and dinoflagellates presented very low concentrations (11% and 3% of PC, respectively) with a reduced number of species (2 species each).



Fig. 5. Six-day average sea surface temperature (SST) derived from satellite data, previous to selected events of maxima concentration of diatoms (a), coccolithophores (b) and dinoflagellates (c). White arrows indicate the location of the upwelling filament.



Fig. 6. Seasonal and interannual distribution of PC1 scores (black line) in relation to total phytoplankton (grey line).

Coccolithophores (Fig. 4d) reached major abundances in 2002, in particular during autumn, when the highest concentration was observed $(24 \times 10^4 \text{ cells } 1^{-1} \text{ in October 2002, 58\% of PC})$. On the other hand coccolithophores recorded minor developments during winter seasons (Table 2) yet representing >90% of the phytoplankton community. Twenty two species were identified, being the assemblage dominated by *Emiliania huxleyi, Gephyrocapsa oceanica, Coronosphaera mediterranea, Calcidiscus quadriperforatus, Calcidiscus leptoporus, Gephyrocapsa muellerae, Helicosphaera carteri, Syracosphaera pulchra and Gephyrocapsa ericsonii (Appendix A). The SST distribution (Fig. 5b) at the end of September 2002 showed that the prevailing downwelling conditions led to the onshore advection of the warm surface waters capping the remnants of the upwelled water at the end of the season. The coccolithophores <i>E. huxleyi* and *G. oceanica*

dominated the phytoplankton community (Table 3) and dinoflagellates attended in very low numbers (12% of total phytoplankton) but with a high species diversity (9 species present). The coccolithophore *S. pulchra* in particular, appeared for the first time during this year, in June 2004 onwards, dominating the coccolithophore assemblage, under mild upwelling conditions and the presence of offshore waters warmer than in July 2002. The species developed during a period characterized by low nitrates, a decreased in phosphates (N:P >11) and limited silicate (Si:N <1).

Dinoflagellates (Fig. 4e), the less abundant group, developed during summer–autumn and maximum abundances were observed in 2004. A peak $(25 \times 10^4 \text{ cells l}^{-1})$ occurred in July 2004 representing 79% of the phytoplankton community. The lowest concentrations were during winter and spring seasons (Table 2). From the 83 taxa

Table 4

Scores of phytoplankton species defined by the projection of PC1, PC2 and PC3.

Species		PC1	Species		PC2	Species		PC3
Gymnodinium spp.	Δ	0.73	Thalassionema nitzschioides	•	0.75	Calcidiscus spp.	+	0.69
Diplopsalis spp.	Δ	0.69	Odontella spp.	•	0.63	Gephyrocapsa muellerae	+	0.46
Coronosphaera mediterranea	+	0.67	Chaetoceros spp.	•	0.61	Gephyrocapsa ericsonii	+	0.41
Prorocentrum spp.	Δ	0.65	Guinardia spp.	•	0.56	Odontela spp.	•	0.38
Gephyrocapsa oceanica	+	0.58	Gramatophora spp.	•	0.48	Emiliania huxleyi	+	0.37
Protoperidinium diabolum	Δ	0.58	Pseudo-nitzschia spp.	•	0.48	Thalassiosira spp.	•	0.29
Skeletonema costatum	•	0.56	Guinardia cf. delicatula	•	0.45	Leptocylindrus danicus	•	0.29
Gyrodinium spp.	Δ	0.53	Leptocylindrus danicus	•	0.39	Coronosphaera mediterranea	+	0.27
Gephyrocapsa ericsonii	+	0.52	Skeletonema costatum	•	0.33	Gonyaulax spp.	Δ	0.27
Dinophysis cf. acuminate	Δ	0.51	Cylindrotheca closterium	•	0.31	Protoperidinium diabolum	Δ	0.19
Protoperidinium steinii	Δ	0.50	Detonula pumila	•	0.30	Gephyrocapsa oceanica	+	0.19
Gephyrocapsa muellerae	+	0.49	Scripsiella cf. trochoidea	Δ	0.26	Dinophysis cf. acuminate	Δ	0.17
Ceratium furca	Δ	0.48	Thalassiosira spp.	•	0.25	Protoperidinium steinii	Δ	0.15
Gonyaulax spp.	Δ	0.38	Diploneis spp.	•	0.24	Gramatophora spp.	•	0.12
Thalassiosira spp.	•	0.37	Rhizosolenia spp.	•	0.24	Cylindrotheca closterium	•	0.10
Protoperidinium bipes	Δ	0.34	Licmophora sp.	Δ	0.20	Diploneis spp.	•	0.10
Cylindrotheca closterium	•	0.31	Protoperidinium diabolum	Δ	0.17	Thalassionema nitzschioides	•	0.08
Emiliania huxleyi	+	0.28	Gyrodinium spp.	Δ	0.14	Chaetoceros spp.	•	0.08
Protoperidinium spp.	Δ	0.27	Protoperidinium bipes	Δ	0.13	Protoperidinium bipes	Δ	0.06
Ceratium fusus	Δ	0.26	Prorocentrum spp.	Δ	0.13	Skeletonema costatum	•	0.02
Gramatophora spp.	•	0.24	Coronosphaera mediterranea	+	0.06	Dinophysis caudate	Δ	0.01
Rhizosolenia spp.	•	0.23	Protoperidinium steinii	Δ	0.02	Detonula pumila	•	0.00
Licmophora spp.	•	0.22	Diplopsalis sp.	Δ	0.01	Protoperidinium spp.	Δ	-0.02
Scripsiella cf. trochoidea	Δ	0.21	Gephyrocapsa oceanica	+	-0.04	Diplopsalis sp.	Δ	-0.11
Paralia sulcata	•	0.20	Gonyaulax spp.	Δ	-0.05	Guinardia cf. delicatula	•	-0.14
Calcidiscus spp.	+	0.19	Dinophysis caudate	Δ	-0.06	Prorocentrum spp.	Δ	- 0.17
Diploneis spp.	•	0.18	Protoperidinium spp.	Δ	-0.07	Paralia sulcata	•	-0.21
Guinardia cf. delicatula	•	0.17	Emiliania huxleyi	+	-0.13	Scripsiella cf. trochoidea	Δ	-0.29
Pseudo-nitzschia spp.	•	0.14	Gephyrocapsa muellerae	+	- 0.16	Licmophora sp.	•	-0.30
Dinophysis caudate	Δ	0.13	Gephyrocapsa ericsonii	+	- 0.18	Pseudo-nitzschia spp.	•	-0.35
Ceratium spp.	Δ	0.13	Gymnodinium spp.	Δ	-0.20	Ceratium spp.	Δ	-0.41
Chaetoceros spp.	•	0.04	Calcidiscus spp.	+	-0.21	Ceratium furca	Δ	-0.42
Odontella spp.	•	0.01	Paralia sulcata	•	-0.25	Gymnodinium spp.	Δ	-0.45
Detonula pumila	•	-0.01	Ceratium fusus	Δ	-0.26	Gyrodinium spp.	Δ	-0.51
Thalassionema nitzschioides	•	-0.03	Ceratium furca	Δ	-0.34	Rhizosolenia spp.	•	-0.61
Leptocylindrus danicus	•	-0.09	Dinophysis cf. acuminate	Δ	-0.57	Ceratium fusus	Δ	-0.63
Guinardia spp.	•	-0.09	Ceratium spp.	Δ	-0.58	Guinardia spp.	•	-0.64

Diatoms (•), coccolithophores (+) and dinoflagellates (empty Δ).

identified the assemblage was dominated by a permanent development of *Scripsiella* cf. *trochoidea* and in lower numbers by the species *Ceratium fusus*, *Prorocentrum micans*, *Ceratium furca* and several others included in the genus *Ceratium* spp., *Prorocentrum* spp., *Protoperidinium* spp., *Dinophysis* spp. and *Gymnodinium* spp. (Appendix A). The satellite data from 13–18 July 2004, the maxima period, showed prevailing mild upwelling conditions and the presence of colder waters (<15 °C) just in a small core around cape Roca (highlighted by a white arrow in Fig. 5c). S. cf. *trochoidea* dominated 95% of the dinoflagellate assemblage only represented by four species (Table 3). Diatoms and coccolithophores, with six identified species each (13% and 5% of PC, respectively) were observed in lower numbers.

3.3. Principal Component Analysis

The first 3 components explained 37% of the total variation within the data. The reduced variation explained was due to the low relative frequency used (20% with 93 species selected) and the wide range and heterogeneity of the temporal scales involved. However, the data was concentrated and phytoplankton grouped, revealing short-term and seasonal succession changes coherent with field observations.

The first component (PC1) accounted for as much of the variability in the data as possible and explained 15% of total variability within the data, positively correlated with all species. This relation is pointed out in Fig. 6 by the distribution of PC1 scores with total phytoplankton. PC1 separated two assemblages: the first correlated with the higher values of the component, included species with a regular attendance during summer, such as *Gymnodinium* spp., *Diplopsalis* spp., *C. mediterranea*, *Prorocentrum* spp., *G. oceanica*, *Protoperidinium diabolum* and *S. costatum* among others (Table 4). The second assemblage, correlated with lower values of PC1, developed during spring, when the second highest concentrations were observed, and was composed by *Guinardia* spp., *L. danicus*, *T. nitzschioides*, *D. pumila*, *Odontela* spp. and *Chaetoceros* spp. which attended as short peaks in this season, dominating the phytoplankton community.

Each succeeding component, PC2 and PC3 accounted for as much of the remaining variability as possible, explaining each one 11% of total variability within the data. PC2 was interpreted as a gradient between turbulence (positive values) and stratification (negative values) while PC3 axis revealed a gradient between cold (positive values) and warm (negative values) waters (Fig. 7 and Table 4). The distribution of the main taxonomic groups along axis 2 and 3 simplified the underlie structure and allowed the definition of three distinct assemblages. One group, distributed in the positive scores of PC2 and along PC3, was composed by diatoms. The species most correlated with turbulence were small chain forming diatoms as *Thalassionema nitzshioides, Odontella* spp., *Chaetoceros* spp. and *Guinardia* spp. and as turbulence decrease, *Pseudo-nitzschia* spp., *G. delicatula, L. danicus, S. costatum, C. closterium* and *D. pumila* (Table 4) appeared. Some of these, like *Odontella* spp., *Diploneis* spp. or *Licmophora* spp., were never responsible by major diatom peaks but were recurrently observed in low numbers having a high global frequency in the samples.

Associated with the negative scores of PC2 and PC3, as stratification and temperature increased, the phytoplankton community was characterized in lower numbers by dinoflagellates as *C. fusus*, *P. micans*, *C. furca* and several others included in the genus *Ceratium* spp., *Prorocentrum* spp., *Protoperidinium* spp., *Dinophysis* spp. and *Gymnodinium* spp. It is interesting to notice the detachment from the other dinoflagellates of *Dinophysis acuminata*, a harmful algae species highly correlated with stratification but associated with colder waters. The dominant dinoflagellate *Scripsiella* cf. *trochoidea*, that opportunistically peak before upwelling pulses, was positively correlated with intermediate turbulence.

Between the two assemblages and detached by PC3, there was a third cluster, composed by coccolithophores. The coccolithophore assemblage distributed in the positive axis of PC3 and was represented by *Calcidiscus* spp., in colder waters, *G. muellerae, G. ericsonii, E. huxleyi, G. oceanica* and *C. mediterranea*. This assemblage tolerated reduced turbulence and colder waters (11.5 °C). The opposite distribution of *Calcidiscus* genus, cold water taxa, and *Ceratium* species, warm water taxa, helped in the interpretation of axis 3 as a temperature gradient.

4. Discussion

During the four years the physical, chemical and biological parameters varied from short-term (upwelling event) to interannual



Fig. 7. Distribution of diatoms (\bullet), coccolithophores (+) and dinoflagellates (empty Δ) in the space defined by the second (PC2) and third (PC3) components.



Fig. 8. Schematic representation of the seasonal distribution of phytoplankton groups and dominant species associated with the upwelling/downwelling cycle.

scales. It was possible to identify short succession cycles of diatoms, coccolithophores and dinoflagellates, dependent on coastal upwelling events (Fig. 8). They occurred along a gradient of a template of rversus K growth strategies, diatoms (r-selected) exploited wellmixed, turbulent, nutrient-rich conditions, while dinoflagellates (Kselected) dominated in stable, stratified waters with low nutrient concentrations, as previously described by several authors for upwelling regions (NW Africa: Margalef, 1978a,b; Estrada and Blasco, 1985; California current: Hutchings et al., 1995; Venrick, 1998; Ria de Vigo (NW Iberian Peninsula): Nogueira and Figueiras, 2005; North California: Lassiter et al., 2006). As evidenced by the distribution along the positive axis of PC2 (maximum turbulence), small chain and colonial diatoms within the genus Chaetoceros and Thalassiosira, Asterionelopsis glacialis, and L. danicus, were the first to react to turbulence (1st stage species in phytoplankton succession) and were followed by larger forms (2nd stage) like Pseudo-nitzschia spp., D. pumila and Cerataulina pelagica, after the upwelling peak, as conditions persisted. These diatoms are apparently well adapted to the turbulent, high-energy, nutrient-rich upwelling conditions as often noted in the literature (Margalef, 1978a,b; Estrada and Blasco, 1985; Chavez et al., 1991; Kobayashi and Takahashi, 2002). The Chaetoceros genus were always the main component of the population, when cell numbers were high together with other centric diatoms such as Thalassiosira, forming a functional group that fit with other upwelling studies (Blasco et al., 1981; Lassiter et al., 2006) and the Margalef paradigm of adaptation to upwelling conditions. Short upwelling pulses appeared to be unfavourable for the development of diatoms, maintaining the assemblage in the first stages of succession while persistency seemed to promote species succession. Associated with relaxation periods were third stage species like Dinophysis, Protoperidinium, Ceratium and other dinoflagellates. As for coccolithophores, distinct species were associated with particular hydrographic conditions but from an upwelling scale point of view a preference emerged for intermediate turbulence and nutrient regimes, between diatoms (maximum turbulence) and dinoflagellates (maximum stratification). In accordance with Margalef's model, Young (1994) additionally related the ecological distribution of coccolithophores to their morphology, and found the lowest diversity and abundances both in strongly eutrophic environments and in extreme oligotrophic conditions, while the highest were in intermediate conditions. The placolith-bearing species dominated in nutrient-rich, turbulent environments such as upwelling areas, coastal and shelf seas, and constituted the main bloom-forming coccolithophores. These were recognised as early succession *r*-selected species, capable of a rapid growth, like E. huxleyi (Okada and Honjo, 1973; Honjo, 1977) and *Gephyrocapsa* spp. (Silva et al., 2008). The increasing cell numbers during the beginning of the upwelling season and under mild turbulent conditions suggested that E. huxleyi could be a 1st stage species in phytoplankton succession together with small chain diatoms, that prevailed if upwelling intensifies. The remaining coccolithophores included species showing a tendency towards weak r/K or K selection that decrease in abundance over the years due to shorter and less intense downwelling periods.

On Lisbon Bay, the seasonal pattern was typical of a temperate area with different phytoplankton groups peaking according to its particular abiotic preferences. Diatoms represented the most abundant biomass source with several maxima during persistent northerlies and nutrient availability usual from spring and summer. Diatoms diversity remained similar over the years with species dominating according to the persistence of upwelling. The coccolithophores were the second most abundant group, peaking throughout the year. According to Silva et al. (2008, 2009), spring and summer were dominated by small and coastal coccolithophores as E. huxleyi, while larger and robust oceanic forms developed, during summerautumn, in mature upwelled waters like C. mediterranea or were capable of dominating the phytoplankton assemblage during winter like Calcidiscus species (positively correlated with colder waters). Autumn was regarded as a short transition period (~1 month) from upwelling to downwelling seasons (Figueiras et al., 2002 for NW Iberia) when coastal turbulence is usually reduced but nutrients provided by upwelling are still available (Giraudeau et al., 1993; Kleijne, 1993; Ziveri et al., 1995). These conditions, where coccolithophores were most favoured, promote the onshore advection of oceanic warmer waters into colder and nutrient enriched ones. Dinoflagellates were the less abundant group, usually having maxima during summer under warmer stratified conditions. The group seemed to have a narrow tolerance to changes in turbulence and temperature, in particular to winter conditions. Chavez et al. (1991) noted that dinoflagellates were never an important component of the phytoplankton community in the upwelling region just north of Bodega bay (Northern California) probably due to the persistency of upwelling related turbulent conditions. The only dinoflagellate positively correlated with stratified colder waters was *D. acuminata* that, according to Palma et al. (1997), is associated with colder and less salty waters with maxima observed further north in the Portuguese coast.

The seasonal biotic and abiotic differences observed resulted from distinct interannual upwelling/downwelling patterns, different precipitation regimes and nutrient concentrations. From 2001 until 2005 the upwelling conditions became more persistent and according to Bakun (1990) and Santos et al. (2005) for the Iberian margin and McGregor et al. (2007) for NW Africa, there has been a regional increase in coastal upwelling during the last decades of the 20th century. The intensification of northerlies observed earlier in the year can be one of the keys to explain the increase in biomass (Chl *a*) from 2001 onwards (0.76 μ g l⁻¹). During 2002, the noticed distinction between upwelling and downwelling seasons and the availability of nutrients seemed to promote several phytoplankton maxima. The highest concentrations from the study were recorded in 2002 and characterized by diatoms, during a persistent and strong upwelling period, from spring to summer and by coccolithophores when convergence persisted, during the warmest autumn of the study. The satellite-derived and ocean colour data either supported the role of diatoms as proxies of upwelling conditions and the role of coccolithophores as tracers for the confluence of warmer offshore waters due to downwelling, as pointed out by Silva et al. (2008). Maxima of both groups interspersed with silicate and nitrate peaks, respectively, and were a possible reason to its subsequent reduction. Although the phytoplankton concentrations were maxima, total Chl a was the lowest from the study, mainly explained by the dominance of small chain diatoms, during spring-summer blooms and coccolithophores during autumn. A different picture was observed in 2003, when the SW winds promoting convergence conditions extended until May (late-spring) associated with longer rainy periods (winterspring and late autumn onwards). Increments in precipitation and in Tagus river flow influenced the low salinity values and coincided with the main shifts in nutrient concentrations. Phytoplankton concentrations were in general low and maxima were observed later in the year, in contrast with 2002, restricted to late-spring-summer when upwelling intensified. Silicon was largely available during winterspring, probably from a riverine origin, to be fully utilized by diatoms that seemed to be more turbulent and light dependent and less influenced by low salinities and temperatures. As northerlies intensified, the incoming solar radiation periods became longer and salinity and temperatures begin to rise, diatoms peak during latespring causing silicon depletion during all summer when coccolithophores increased. In 2004, a year characterized by persistent although weak upwelling conditions, four phytoplankton peaks emerged, expressive but short in time. This year presented the next high phytoplankton concentrations and the highest total Chl a from the study, exactly the opposite from 2002. The presence of D. pumila, a large chain diatom, seemed to play a role in the inconsistency between lower cell counts and higher biomass levels once in 2002, when phytoplankton maxima was observed, the concentrations were explained by small chain diatoms and coccolithophores. Hence, particular attention should be given when interpreting Chl a values because opposite concentrations were found to be related with similar cell counts characterized by different floral compositions. These results show the importance of microscope identifications in the interpretation of peaks. During 2004 the phytoplankton was dominated by diatoms and by dinoflagellates, instead of coccolithophores, with two short and significant peaks. Throughout this year was also observed an increase in the phytoplankton fraction $<20 \mu m$, the presence of large chain diatoms favoured by persistent turbulence and Scripsiella cf. trochoidea, an autotrophic opportunistic dinoflagellate abundant after upwelling peaks. The conditions highlighted by the satellite image from July 2004 promoted a mono-specific bloom of S. cf. trochoidea, what is not representative of the whole dinoflagellate preferences. The hypothesis of a local development of S. cf. trochoidea can be pointed out once this specie was always present in the samples and dominated the dinoflagellate assemblage. Ribeiro and Amorim (2008) observed in sediments from Lisbon Bay, a high percentage of cysts of S. cf. trochoidea and other species of the genus Scripsiella. The lower development of coccolithophores, during this summerautumn, coincided with the absence of established convergence, with the lowest concentrations of nitrites and nitrates, important for calcification processes (Baumann et al., 2005), as well as with an overall decreased in phosphates and limiting silicates. Tyrrel and Merico (2004) pointed out low silicon conditions and N:P ratios between 6 and 11 as favourable conditions for coccolithophore development. The present data shows 2004 as the year when silicon was lower but N:P ratios were >11. The coccolithophore S. pulchra peaked for the first time and dinoflagellates had maxima.

It is also important to highlight that phytoplankton community and its seasonal variability were not only dependent on physicalchemical process, but also represent the interaction of species specific net growth rates, combining variability of specific growth and loss rates (Domingues et al., 2005). For that reason, losses such as grazing, viral lysis and autolysis, could also explain part of the phytoplankton succession and should be evaluated in future studies.

5. Conclusions

The present study has provided a novel set of observations illustrating rapid changes (both short-term and seasonal) in phytoplankton size structure and community composition in Lisbon Bay coastal waters as a function to wind forcing and nutrient availability. Community changes were related to different scales of meteorological and hydrographic variability. Within the seasonal pattern, a series of short-term successions, from r-strategists towards K-strategists, was associated with hydrodynamic changes promoted by upwelling/ relaxation events. At a seasonal scale, the succession was related to the annual cycle of mixing/stratification and high/low precipitation and runoff. Coccolithophores appeared as the most tolerant group, with species thriving in a remarkable variety of oceanographic conditions between diatoms upwelling favourable (spring-summer) and dinoflagellates thermal stratified affinities (summer) to further develop during autumn and winter. Short and weak upwelling pulses allowed the coexistence of the three groups although maxima were not coincident.

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Appendix A

List of phytoplankton species observed during the sampling, separated in three major groups, diatoms, dinoflagellates and coccolithophores.

Diatoms Acinoptychus senarius Acnanthes spp. Amphiprora spp. Amphora spp. Asterionellopsis glacialis Asteromphalus flabellatus Asteromphalus sarcophagus Asteromphalus spp. Auricula spp. Bacillaria paxillifera Bacteriastrum delicatulum Bacteriastrum furcatum Bacteriastrum hyalinum Bacteriastrum spp. Biddulphia alternans . Biddulphia pulchella Biddulphia spp. Cerasterias cetauroides Cerataulina pelagica Chaetoceros curvisetus Chaetoceros danicus Chaetoceros decipiens Chaetoceros lorenzianus Chaetoceros pseudocur/curv. Chaetoceros rostratus Chaetoceros socialis Chaetoceros spp. Cocconeis spp. Corethron criophilum Coscinodiscus marginatus Coscinodiscus radiatus Coscinodiscus spp. Cylindrotheca closterium Dactyliosolen fragilissimus Dactyliosolen phuketensis Detonula pumila Diploneis bombus Diploneis sp. Ditylum brightwellii Eucampia cornuta Eucampia longicornis Eucampia spp. Eucampia zoodiacus Grammatophora marina Grammatophora spp. Guinardia cf. delicatula Guinardia cf. striata Guinardia flaccida Guinardia spp. Hemiaulus membranaceus Hemiaulus sinensis Lauderia annulata

Lentocylindrus danicus Leptocylindrus mediterraneus Leptocylindrus minimus Leptocylindrus spp. Licmophora sp. Lithodesmium undulatum Melosira distans Melosira granulate Melosira spp. Meuniera membranacea Navicula complanata Navicula spp. Nitzschia longissima Odontella mobiliensis Odontella longicornis Odontella spp. Paralia sulcata Pleurosigma spp. Podosira stelligera Podosira spp. Proboscia alata Pseudo-nitzschia spp. Rhabdonema adriaticum Rhizosolenia hebetata Rhizosolenia imbricate Rhizosolenia setigera Rhizosolenia spp. Rhizosolenia styliformis Rhoicosigma spp. Skeletonema costatum Skeletonema sp. Stephanopyxis palmeriana Stephanopyxis turris Stephanopyxis spp. Streptotheca thamensis Striatella unipunctata Surirella spp. Synedra spp. Thalassionema bacilare Thalassionema fraunfeldii Thalassionema nitzschioides Thalassionema spp. Thalassiosira anguste-lineata Thalassiosira eccentrica Thalassiosira rotula Thalassiosira subtilis Thalassiosira spp. Thalassiotrix spp. Trachyneis aspera

Dinoflagellates Alexandrium spp. Amphidoma caudatum Ceratium candelabrum Ceratium furca Ceratium fusus Ceratium gibberum Ceratium horridum Ceratium kofoidii Ceratium lineatum Ceratium macroceros Ceratium massiliense Ceratium minutum Ceratium spp. Ceratium symetricum Ceratium teres Ceratium tripos Corythodinium spp. Dinophysis acuta Dinophysis caudate Dinophysis cf. acuminata Dinophysis dens Dinophysis diegensis Dinophysis fortii Dinophysis rotundata Dinophysis skagii Dinophysis spp. Diplopsalis spp. Dissodinium asymmetricum Erytropsodinium spp. Gonyaulax diacantha Gonyaulax diegensis Gonyaulax spp. Gymnodinium catenatum Gymnodinium impudicum Gymnodinium spp. Gyrodinium fusiforme Gyrodinium spp. Histioneis spp. Lingulodinium polyedrum Mesoporus perforatus Micracanthadinium spp. Noctiluca sintilans Oxyrris spp. Oxytoxum spp. Phalacroma rotundata Podolampas palmipes Preperidinium spp. Pronoctiluca spinifera Prorocentrum compressum Prorocentrum gracile Prorocentrum lima Prorocentrum micans

Prorocentrum minimum Prorocentrum scuttelum Prorocentrum spp. Prorocentrum triestinum Protoceratium reticulatum Protoceratium spinulosum Protoperidinium aciculiferum Protoperidinium bipes Protoperidinium breve Protoperidinium conicum Protoperidinium crassipes Protoperidinium depressum Protoperidinium diabolum Protoperidinium divergens Protoperidinium globolum Protoperidinium leonis Protoperidinium murraay Protoperidinium oceanicum Protoperidinium pellucidum Protoperidinium pentagonum Protoperidinium quinquecorne Protoperidinium spp. Protoperidinium steinii Pyrocystis elegans Pyrocystis lunula Pyrocystis spp. Scripsiella cf. trochoidea Thoracosphaera heimii Torodinium robustum Triadinium polyedricum

Coccolithophores

Calcidiscus leptoporus Calcidiscus quadriperforatus Calyptrolithophora gracillima Calyptrolithophora papilifera Calyptrosphaera oblonga Coccolithus pelagicus Corisphaera sp. Coronosphaera mediterranea Crystallolithus hyalinus Crystallolithus rigidus Emiliania huxlevi Gephyrocapsa ericsonii Gephyrocapsa muellerae Gephyrocapsa oceanica Helicosphaera carteri Rhabdosphaera clavigera Syracolithus confusus Syracosphaera lamina Syracosphaera pulchra Syracosphaera spp. Zygosphaera marsilli

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