

1 **Predicting organismal response to marine heatwaves using mechanistic thermal**

2 **landscape models**

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11 **Author Contributions**

12 ARV and ERW were involved in research conceptualization, funding acquisition, and manuscript editing.
13 ARW developed the methodology, analyzed the data, and wrote the original manuscript. All authors
14 contributed to the draft and gave final approval for publication.

15 **Data availability**

16 Data and scripts are available from Github: https://github.com/villesci/mhw_simulation_manuscript.

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20 **Abstract**

21 Marine heatwaves (MHWs) can cause thermal stress in marine ectotherms, experienced as a pulse
22 against the press of anthropogenic warming. When thermal stress exceeds organismal capacity to
23 maintain homeostasis, organism survival becomes time-limited and can result in mass mortality events.
24 Current methods of detecting and categorizing MHWs rely on statistical analysis of historic climatology,
25 and do not consider biological effects as a basis of MHW severity. The reemergence of thermal tolerance
26 landscape models provides a physiological framework for assessing the lethal effects of MHWs by
27 accounting for both the magnitude and duration of extreme heat events. Here, we used a simulation
28 approach to understand the effects of a suite of MHW profiles on organism survival probability across 1)
29 thermal tolerance adaptation strategies, 2) interannual temperature variation, and 3) seasonal timing of
30 MHWs. We identified survival isoclines across MHW magnitude and duration broadly connecting acute
31 (low duration-high magnitude) and chronic (long duration-low magnitude) events with equivalent lethal
32 effects on marine organisms. While most attention has been given to chronic MHW events, we show
33 similar lethal effects can be experienced by more common but neglected acute marine heat spikes.
34 Critically, a fixed-baseline definition of MHWs does not accurately categorize biological mortality. By
35 letting organism responses define the extremeness of a MHW event, we can build a mechanistic
36 understanding of MHW effects from a physiological basis. MHW responses can then be transferred
37 across scales of ecological organization and better predict marine ecosystem shifts to MHWs.

38 *Keywords:* Ecological forecasting, extreme events, heat stress, mass mortality events, mechanistic
39 ecological models, thermal tolerance, time dependent effects, climate change.

40

41 **Introduction**

42 With the acceleration of climate change has come an urgent need to understand impact
43 pathways on marine ecosystems. Extreme climate events are hypothesized to have stronger impacts on
44 organisms rather than a shift in mean conditions (Bailey & van de Pol, 2016; Harris et al., 2018). Recently,
45 the increased frequency, intensity, and duration of marine heatwaves (MHWs) have garnered attention
46 as a symptom of climatic warming, with a discrete pulse behavior against the background of chronic
47 warming (Frölicher et al., 2018; Harris et al., 2018; Oliver et al., 2021). Extreme events due to weather
48 stochasticity are naturally occurring events, but as climate change presses temperature distributions
49 upwards these events become more prevalent and increase the probability of lethal effects on organisms
50 (Frölicher et al., 2018; Harvey et al., 2022; Scheffer et al., 2001; Smale et al., 2019). Mass Mortality
51 Events (MMEs) occur when a population of organisms can no longer maintain physiological homeostasis
52 or function (Ern et al., 2023; Ørsted et al., 2022) and are potential sources of population dynamic
53 inflection. Most studies investigating MHW-linked MMEs are descriptive field studies (Fey et al., 2015;
54 Garrabou et al., 2022; Glynn, 1968; Jurgens et al., 2015; Raymond et al., 2022; Tricklebank et al., 2021)
55 that do not investigate how different MHW profiles contribute to MME extent, although newer
56 experimental methods are trying to accommodate realistic MHW profiles (Bernal-Ibáñez et al., 2022;
57 Domínguez et al., 2021; Gerhard et al., 2023; Jentsch et al., 2007; Moyon et al., 2022; Pansch et al.,
58 2018; Seuront et al., 2019).

59 MHW extremeness can be defined using the climatological context in which they occur (Bailey &
60 van de Pol, 2016; Hobday et al., 2016). Recent consensus has defined MHWs as discrete periods when
61 temperatures exceed a seasonally varying threshold, which usually is represented by the 90th percentile
62 of historical climatology for five or more consecutive days (Hobday et al., 2016, 2018; Oliver et al., 2021).
63 This 90th percentile is calculated daily and thus varies seasonally, which is relevant in the context of
64 many organisms' phenology and performance throughout a seasonally variable environment (Hobday et

65 al., 2016). Additionally, MHW severity can be categorized and allow for comparison between events of
66 varying intensity, duration, and rate of onset (Hobday et al., 2018), although categorization is
67 determined by intensity only. This approach quantifies extreme conditions within a local spatiotemporal
68 context and approximates what is likely considered extreme by organisms (Oliver et al., 2021).

69 While such a fixed-baseline oceanographic metric is a good tool for understanding broad
70 patterns, it does not provide a clear picture of how extreme heat affects organisms and ecosystems
71 across scales. For example, organismal abilities to withstand MHWs vary greatly depending on
72 physiology, behavior, function, and thermal niche within an environment (Harris et al., 2018; Smith et
73 al., 2023). Further, a climatological definition of MHWs is only relevant when long-term data are
74 available at the scale relevant to an organism, which can vary widely from millimeters to thousands of
75 kilometers (Bates et al., 2018; Helmuth, 2009; Helmuth et al., 2014). Finally, a five-day minimum
76 threshold duration for a MHW ignores extreme heat events that do occur on much shorter timescales in
77 marine systems (Bates et al., 2018; White et al., 2023), although these shorter events may arise due to
78 interactions between oceanographic and atmospheric processes (Holbrook et al., 2019, 2020). Adhering
79 exclusively to an oceanographic definition of MHWs fails to consider biological responses to MHWs
80 (Smith et al., 2023) and how organismal responses are shaped by their environment. Conversely,
81 experiments and models that describe physiological responses to temperature rarely capture variability
82 found in MHWs and rely on responses to mean conditions, thereby ignoring non-linear responses and
83 the effects of Jensen's inequality (Buckley & Kingsolver, 2021; Dowd et al., 2015; Gerhard et al., 2023;
84 Harris et al., 2018; Morash et al., 2018). We lack coherent models that mechanistically link MHWs to
85 observed responses in organisms and ecosystems (González-Trujillo et al., 2023; van de Pol et al., 2017).

86 A mechanistic model of organism mortality in response to MHWs needs to accommodate
87 variation in the magnitude (or intensity) and duration of a heat challenge. Existing metrics that account
88 for heat duration include cumulative intensity metrics, such as those used in remote-sensed coral reef

89 bleaching tracking products (e.g. Coral Reef Watch, Heron et al., 2016; McClanahan, 2022; Skirving et al.,
90 2020). However, such approaches still rely on static thresholds over which to calculate stress
91 accumulation. A significant mechanistic development towards predicting the lethal effects of MHWs has
92 been the re-emergence of the thermal death time (TDT) model of ectotherm thermal tolerance – a
93 model that predicts death as a function of thermal exposure magnitude and time (Rezende et al., 2014).
94 This model conceptualizes thermal challenge as a heat-dose, and better unifies the relationship between
95 duration and magnitude of exposure that occur in heatwaves (Neuner & Buchner, 2023). When these
96 TDT curves are combined with survival probability functions, a thermal tolerance landscape is produced
97 which conceptualizes survival probability as a continuous response to temperature and temporal
98 exposure (Rezende et al., 2014). Dynamic tolerance models can be built around thermal tolerance
99 landscapes (Jørgensen et al., 2019, 2021; Rezende et al., 2020) to predict survival probability over
100 varying temperature exposures within an organism’s environment. Dynamic tolerance models therefore
101 account for time-dependent effects of heat stress. An important prediction of these models is death at
102 relatively benign temperature magnitudes and extended temporal exposures, which are generally
103 unaccounted for in single measures of thermal tolerance, such as CT_{max} and LT_{50} . Therefore, dynamic
104 tolerance models may identify cryptic mortality events that are not predicted by static thermal tolerance
105 indices.

106 The dynamic tolerance model approach is likely to produce more accurate predictions of
107 organism mortality within an environmental context and has shown promise in scaling the physiological
108 effects of climate change across ecological scales. Dynamic tolerance models predicted mortality events
109 with current and future water temperature scenarios in Venice Lagoon bivalves (Bertolini et al., 2023),
110 Antarctic marine invertebrates (Carter et al., 2023; Molina et al., 2022), and lotic amphipods (Verberk et
111 al., 2023). There has been a single application of dynamic tolerance models to MHWs that explicitly
112 investigated the potential for mismatches between categorization based on the 90th percentile of

113 climatology and modelled mortality (Bertolini & Pastres, 2021). A robust investigation of the interface of
114 both dynamic tolerance models and MHW categorization would further the field's ability to
115 mechanistically quantify MHW strength and better forecast ecological responses.

116 Here, we present a generalized computer MHW simulation that seeks to understand how
117 organism mortality responds to variation in MHW duration and magnitude, and how a dynamic
118 tolerance approach compares to Hobday's fixed-baseline categorization of MHW extremity. We first
119 simulate a suite of simple MHWs that vary in magnitude and duration following the threshold-duration
120 definition of Hobday et al. (2016) to explore all MHW possibilities relative to long-term climatological
121 baseline. We then simulate the exposure of two hypothetical organisms with different thermal strategies
122 to each MHW time series using dynamic tolerance models to extract final probability estimates of
123 organism mortality. We show how categorizing MHWs from the resulting survival landscape results in a
124 biologically-informed assessment of MHW lethal impacts that can better guide *ad hoc* classifications of
125 MHW impacts for species of interest. We hypothesize that similar levels of mortality can occur across
126 MHW climatology categories and levels of interannual variation, which may mean a climatology
127 definition of MHWs can both over- and under-estimate ecosystem impacts. Furthermore, a biological
128 approach will correctly predict low mortality during non-summer MHWs.

129 **Methods**

130 **Simulation of MHW Profiles**

131 We first constructed a suite of MHWs with varying magnitude and duration parameters. Hobday et al. (
132 2016) define three main MHW parameters: magnitude (thermal intensity), duration (temporal length of
133 MHW above 90th percentile), and rate of onset/decline (slope value between maximum intensity and
134 beginning/end of climatological heatwave) (Figure 1A). We defined duration as the MHW length as it
135 departs from the climatological curve, not the 90% threshold. We adopted this definition because we

136 simulated our time series as sinusoidal curves with no stochastic function, focusing on the main effect of
137 an idealized MHW on mortality. We did not manipulate rate of onset/decline as an independent
138 parameter of magnitude and duration, as this would require introducing a second MHW geometry
139 (trapezoidal) and is not aligned with our main research questions.

140 We simulated MHWs that ranged in duration from one hour to 30 days, with a discrete timestep
141 of one day. We investigated MHW duration shorter than the Hobday et al. (2016) threshold of five days
142 ('marine heat spikes') because of several case studies of organismal mortality in heatwave conditions
143 that last less than five days (Bates et al., 2018; Glynn, 1968; Raymond et al., 2022), although the
144 attribution of these events solely to marine heatwaves rather than atmospheric heatwaves or their
145 interaction may not be possible (Amaya et al., 2020; Holbrook et al., 2019, 2020). Next, we simulated
146 MHWs ranging in magnitude from 0-8°C with discrete breaks of 0.5°C. We chose 8°C as our maximum
147 magnitude, as this encapsulates the magnitudes of the most intense observed MHWs (Hobday et al.,
148 2018; Holbrook et al., 2019). In total, we simulated 527 distinct MHW profiles across magnitude-duration
149 parameters (Supplementary Figure 1).

150 We added each MHW to 52 days of a simulated temperature time series, composed of a
151 sinusoidal curve with an annual mean of 12°C and an annual variation of 14°C. Annual time series
152 maxima occurred on August 17th, and minima on February 15th. This approximates a temperature profile
153 found in temperate estuarine environments in the northern hemisphere. We next added three different
154 thresholds on top of this curve, representing scenarios where 90% of interannual temperature variation
155 occurred within 0.25°C, 0.75°C, and 1.5°C above annual mean temperature (climatology). Using the
156 MHW categorization developed by Hobday et al. (2018), we assigned three additional thresholds for
157 each variation scenario that were 1x, 2x, 3x, and 4x the difference between climatology and the 90%
158 MHW threshold to give moderate, strong, severe, and extreme categorizations (Figure 1A).

159 To demonstrate seasonal timing effects on survival from MHWs, we simulated MHWs across ten
160 time points 90 days after the annual maximum on August 17th. We allowed MHW magnitude to vary
161 between 0°C and 8°C, but fixed duration at 24 days. The 90% threshold was set at 0.75°C above
162 climatological mean. This totaled 153 simulations for the seasonal occurrence portion of the analysis. In
163 total, we simulated 2,261 unique temperature time series across season magnitude-duration
164 parameters, seasonal variability, and seasonal timing.

165 **Simulation of Thermal Death Time Curves**

166 Thermal Death Time (TDT) curves model the time-dependent effects of temperature exposure on
167 organismal thermal tolerance (Rezende et al., 2014). Time to death at a given temperature is determined
168 by a log linear relationship with time of exposure:

$$T_{ko} = CT_{max} - z \log_{10} t, \quad \text{Eqn. 1}$$

169 where T_{ko} is the time to knockout (or death), CT_{max} is the acute thermal tolerance at $z \log_{10} t = 0$,
170 which by definition is the thermal tolerance at 1 minute of exposure, z is a species-specific scaling
171 constant representing the inverse slope of the relationship between temperature and log time, and t is
172 time (eqn. 1, Figure 1B). From a TDT curve and the empirical measures of time to death that it describes,
173 we constructed thermal tolerance landscapes. These landscapes start from the assumption that a TDT
174 curve is simply a 50% survival isocline, and the spread of empirical time to death for a given temperature
175 can be used to construct additional mortality probability isoclines (Rezende et al., 2014). Combining
176 survival isoclines together results in a three-dimensional thermal tolerance landscape that fully describes
177 the continuous interactions of time and temperature exposure on probability of death (Rezende et al.,
178 2014).

179 We simulated two hypothetical species' TDT modes with two different parameter sets that
180 reflect two hypothetical thermal adaptation strategies (Supplementary Figure 2). We simulated a chronic

181 tolerator organism that maximizes extended exposure tolerance ($z = 4.5$) against a tradeoff of low acute
182 tolerance ($CT_{max} = 45^{\circ}\text{C}$), and an acute tolerator that maximizes acute tolerance ($CT_{max} = 46^{\circ}\text{C}$) at the
183 expense of rapidly decaying tolerance over time ($z = 5.25$). The temperature at which these two
184 strategies have equal responses occurs at their intersection (Supplementary Figure 2). Using the z and
185 CT_{max} parameters for each hypothetical species, we simulated empirical time to death for each species'
186 log-linear model. We simulated ten individuals per temperature treatment (26-46°C, by 2°C, total of 11
187 temperature treatments) following a normal distribution wherein mean time to death occurred at the
188 line of fit and error given as standard error = 0.1°C.

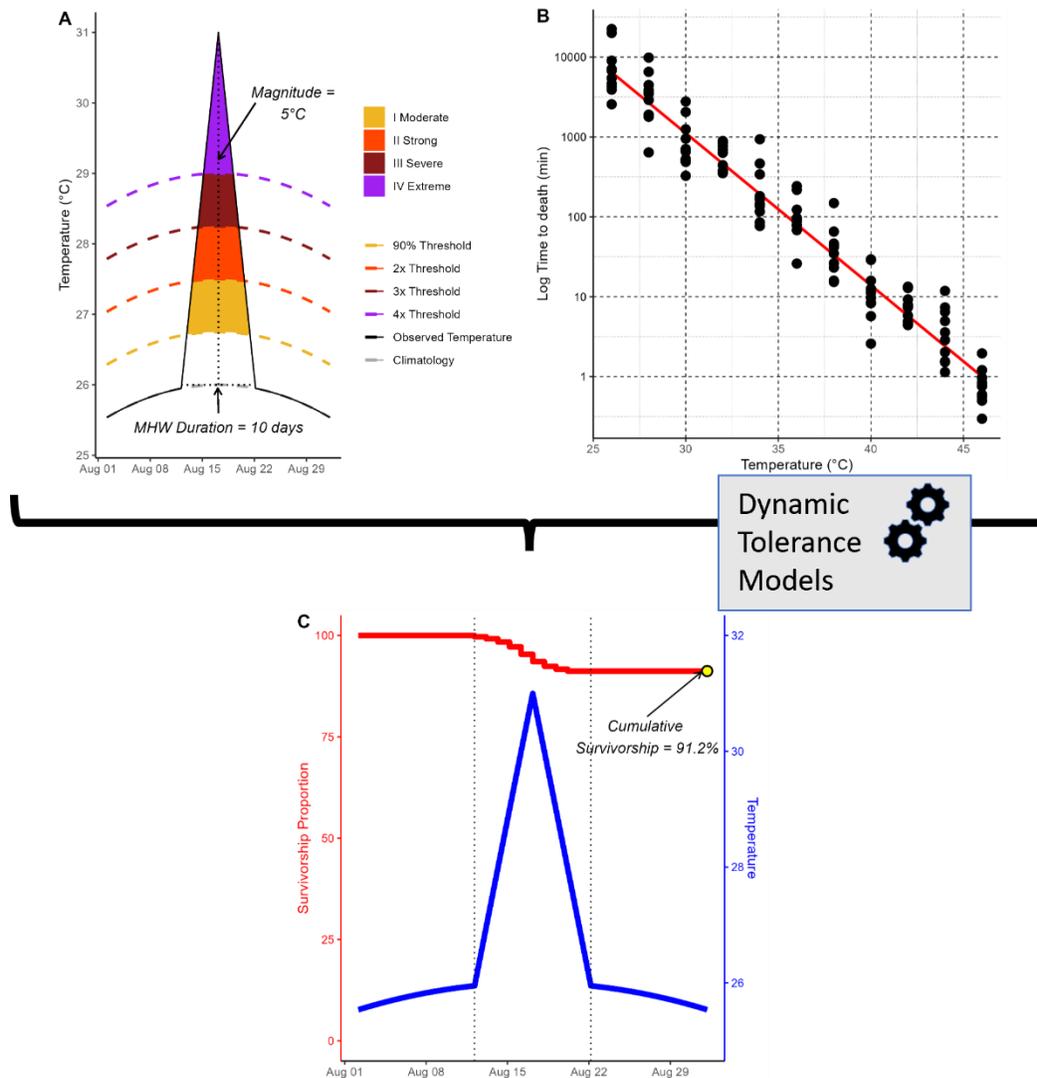
189 **Implementation of Dynamic Tolerance Models**

190 Dynamic tolerance models integrate TDT data and environmental temperature time series to
191 give a cumulative survival estimate at the end of the time series (Figure 1C, Supplementary Text). We
192 added an additional parameter within our *ad hoc* functions adapted from Rezende model (Rezende et
193 al., 2020) to account for the proposed critical temperature (T_c) delineating the limit of organismal
194 maintenance of homeostasis and function (Jørgensen et al., 2021; Ørsted et al., 2022; H.-O. Pörtner,
195 2010). Adding this extra parameter to the Rezende method avoids the accumulation of mortality at
196 theoretically sublethal temperatures, which is not controlled for in this method. In our simulation, we set
197 $T_c = 26^{\circ}\text{C}$ as this is the mean maximum temperature experienced by our hypothetical organisms and
198 within each organism's adaptive capacity. Additionally, we assumed no nightly or tidal immersion stress
199 recovery of organisms during each MHW.

200 **Calculation of MHW Mortality and MHW Mortality Heatmaps**

201 We calculated cumulative mortality for each MHW simulation and extracted the survival at the
202 end of the exposure period (Figure 1C) using the *ad-hoc* Rezende dynamic tolerance model
203 parameterized by one of the two hypothetical species TDT curves (Rezende et al., 2020). In addition, we

204 used adjusted functions to accommodate hourly time series from the heatwaveR package (Schlegel &
205 Smit, 2018) to categorize each simulated MHW according to the statistical oceanographic definition
206 (Hobday et al., 2018). We performed all analyses in R (v. 4.2.2).

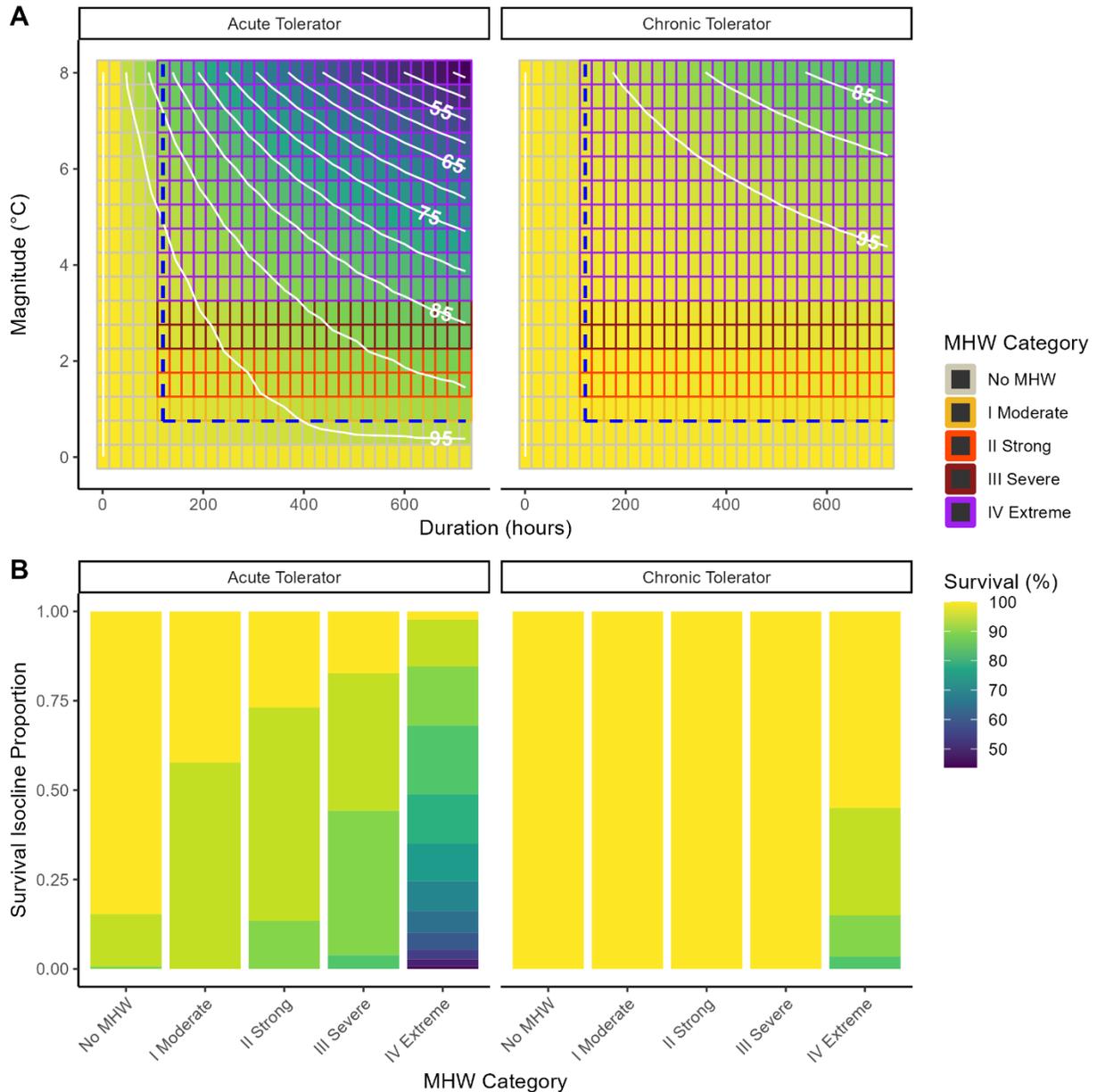


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208 Figure 1. Conceptual diagram of survival calculation over a MHW simulation using thermal
 209 death time (TDT) curves and dynamic tolerance model (Rezende et al., 2020). A) A simulated
 210 MHW displaying methods of parametrization using magnitude and duration (black dotted lines).
 211 Colored lines indicate MHW severity thresholds, colored areas the portion of the MHW profile
 212 within MHW categories. This MHW is considered ‘extreme’ under the Hobday definition.
 213 Climatology line (gray) indicates the historical time series over which thresholds are calculated.
 214 B) A TDT curve for a hypothetical species of $CT_{max} = 46\text{ °C}$, $z = 5.25$. The line of fit is determined
 215 via linear regression on logarithmically transformed data. Points are simulated data (see
 216 Methods) C) The temperature time series from A) and the thermal tolerance landscape in B) are
 217 the inputs of a dynamic tolerance model that gives a single survival probability estimate of
 218 91.2% for that given MHW parametrization of magnitude and duration. Dotted vertical lines
 219 indicate the beginning and end of the MHW. This process is repeated for each simulated MHW.

220 **Results**

221 The heatmap of survival between two hypothetical species revealed a substantial impact of
222 different organismal adaptations on survival across simulated MHWs. The acute tolerator (high CT_{max} ,
223 high z) experienced higher mortality across all simulations compared to the chronic tolerator (low CT_{max} ,
224 low z) (Figure 2A). The acute tolerator experienced a range of final mortalities within categories of
225 MHWs, with extreme MHWs (four times above the 90th percentile) causing mortality ranging from 0% to
226 56.3% (Figure 2B, left panel). The chronic tolerator experienced less variation in mortality within MHW
227 categories, and comparatively experienced lower rates of mortality within more intense MHW categories
228 than the acute tolerator categories (extreme MHW mortality range 0-18.8%) (Figure 2B, right panel). The
229 acute tolerator experienced up to 10.7% total mortality outside of Hobday categorized MHWs, mostly
230 over MHWs shorter than five days.

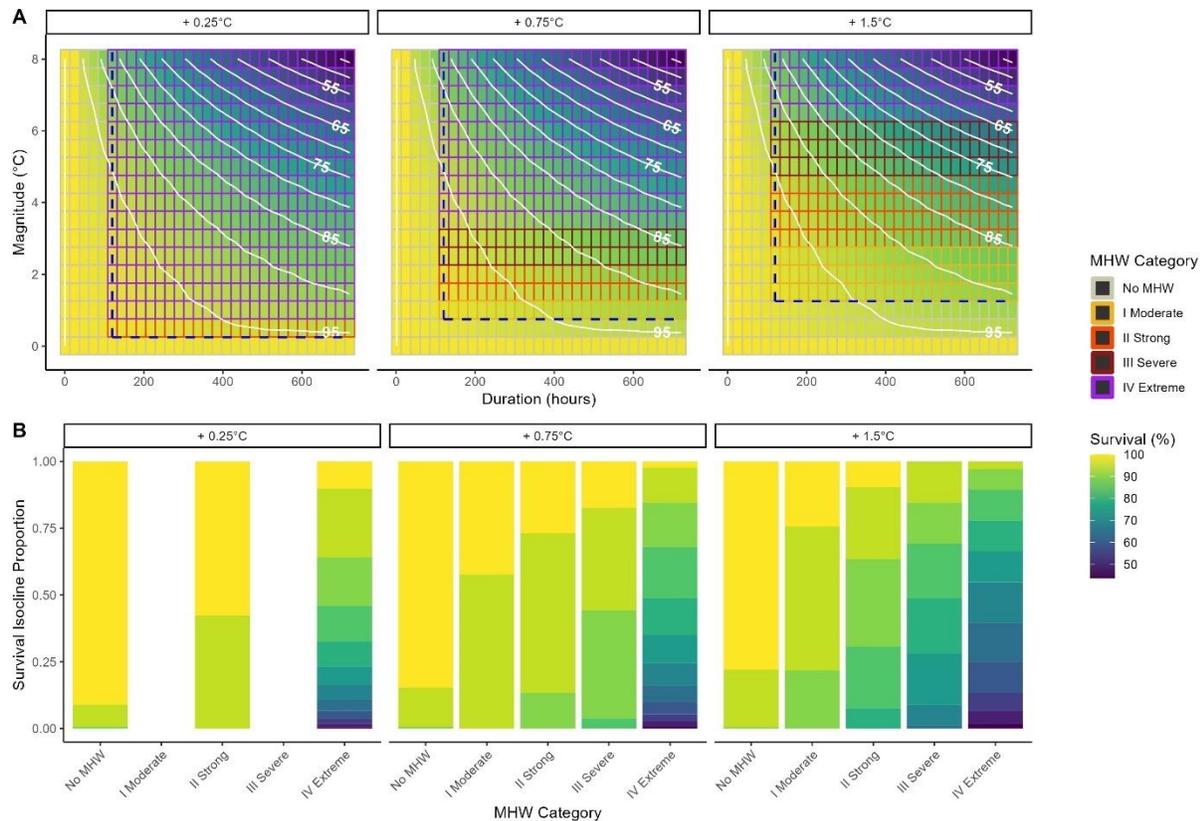


231

232 Figure 2A) Survival varies with magnitude and duration between two species and crosses over
 233 fixed-baseline MHW categories. Grid color indicates category of MHW, heatmap color the final
 234 survival prediction from each MHW. White isoclines connect MHW magnitude-duration
 235 combinations that resulted in equal survival. Vertical blue lines indicate the boundary between
 236 Hobday-defined MHWs and Marine Heat Spikes (< 5 days). Horizontal blue lines indicate the
 237 magnitude at which a temperature event becomes an MHW. B) Proportion of survival
 238 predictions, rounded to the nearest 0.05, within each MHW category for two different
 239 hypothetical species. Acute tolerator species $CT_{max} = 46^{\circ}C$, $z = 5.25$, chronic tolerator CT_{max}
 240 $= 45^{\circ}C$, $z = 4.5$.

241 Changing interannual variation did not impact the survival heatmap for the acute tolerator
242 species examined, as this altered only the climatological history and thus where Hobday's 90%
243 thresholds were calculated (Figure 3A). The simulated MHW profiles over which dynamic tolerance
244 models predict survival did not change. Decreasing interannual variation increased the number of MHW
245 profiles that were categorized under more extreme categories (Figure 3A , +0.25 °C), while increasing
246 variation decreased the number of MHW scenarios classified as such (Figure 3A, +1.5 °C). In low
247 variation scenarios, the magnitude between MHW category thresholds were smaller than the magnitude
248 steps in our simulations, and so no simulations were categorized as Moderate or Severe (Figure 3B, +0.25
249 °C**Error! Reference source not found.**). With increased annual variation (Figure 3B , +1.5°C), it became
250 less likely that low mortality MHWs would be categorized as extreme for the acute tolerator.

251



252

253 Figure 3A) Heatmap of survival predictions for the acute tolerator exposed to simulated MHWs
 254 that occur in three distinct varying environments. Labels indicate the degrees above climatology
 255 at which the threshold of MHW classification starts. Grid line color indicates category of MHW,
 256 heatmap color the final survival prediction from each MHW. White isoclines connect MHW
 257 magnitude-duration combinations with equal survival. Vertical blue lines indicate the boundary
 258 between Hobday-defined MHWs and Marine Heat Spikes (< 5 days). Horizontal blue lines
 259 indicate the magnitude at which a temperature event becomes a Hobday categorized MHW. B)
 260 Proportion of survival predictions, rounded to nearest 0.05, within each MHW category for
 261 three different variable environments. The middle panels (+0.75°C) are the same as the left-side
 262 panels in Figure 2.

263

Maximum mortality for the acute tolerator across all MHW simulations of magnitude was

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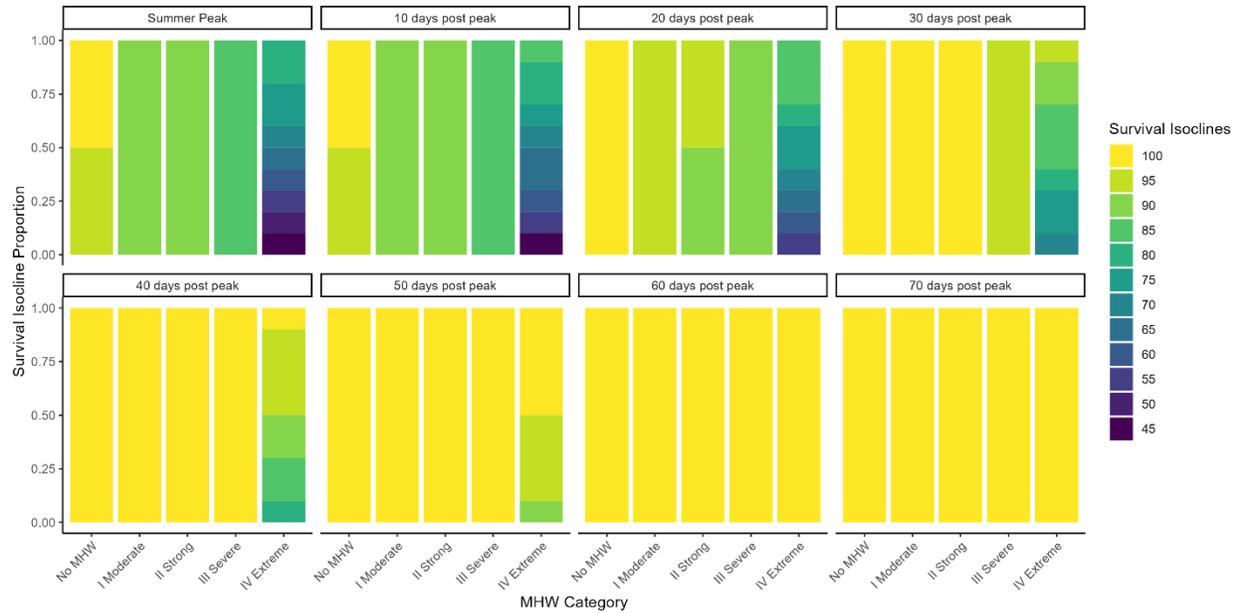
reached at the seasonal maxima (centered August 17th, Figure 4). Survival increased following the

265

sinusoidal function composing the annual time series for a given magnitude (Supplementary Figure 3),

266

with no mortality occurring after 70 days over even the highest magnitude MHWs.



267

268 Figure 4. Proportion of survival predictions within each MHW category, rounded to nearest 0.05,
 269 across eight seasonal occurrences ranging from 0 to 70 days post annual temperature
 270 maximum. Not shown are 80- and 90-day plots, which experienced no mortality over all MHW
 271 profiles.

272 **Discussion**

273 For the first time to our knowledge, we compared assessments of MHW strength using thermal
 274 tolerance landscapes and dynamic tolerance models (Rezende et al., 2020) and classifications of MHWs
 275 using climatology (Hobday et al., 2016) in tandem across a suite of simulated MHWs of varying
 276 magnitude and duration. As predicted, we found that a climatological approach to quantifying MHW
 277 strength (Hobday et al., 2018) can dramatically misclassify organismal effects, particularly over the
 278 strongest MHW categorizations. Further, strictly adhering to a five-day minimum threshold for classifying
 279 MHWs omits the potential for lethal effects during shorter ‘heat spike’ events. We attribute these
 280 mismatches between methods to the reliance on MHW magnitude, rather than the interaction between
 281 duration and magnitude, in the fixed-baseline oceanographic definition. We demonstrated that TDT
 282 curve shape and MHW seasonality can yield diverging survival estimates over MHWs within the same

283 Hobday category. Further, a climatological approach is sensitive to historical climatological variability and
284 can over- or under-predict biological impacts.

285 In our MHW simulations, mortality tended to be low in the least severe categories, but the range
286 of survival became broader in more severe categories. In some cases, no mortality was predicted to
287 occur in the most extreme MHWs, reflecting the gap between climatologically anomalous events and
288 events that cause mortality. In other cases, mortality occurred in uncategorized temperature profiles,
289 particularly during events shorter than five days that are otherwise ignored as MHWs. Application of the
290 dynamic tolerance model to bivalves in the Venice Lagoon also found mismatches in the climatological
291 categorization of MHWs and predicted survival. Clams experienced mortality during conditions that did
292 not exceed the 90th percentile climatology threshold, and also a lack of mortality during conditions that
293 did exceed this threshold (Bertolini & Pastres, 2021).

294 A common result across manipulations was the underlying logarithmic shape of survival isoclines
295 over the heatmap (Figures 2A and 3A). This is due to the shape of the TDT response curve reflected
296 through our MHW simulations (Rezende et al., 2014). By connecting MHW scenarios with equal survival,
297 we show that MHWs with different profiles can have similar biological effects. In particular, these
298 isoclines indicate acute events (high magnitude-long duration) to have similar effects as chronic (low
299 magnitude-long duration) events. However, survival over chronic events tends to be proportionally
300 driven by the magnitude of the event, while survival during acute events is more proportionally
301 governed by the duration of the event. While this may seem to support the approach of categorizing
302 MHW impacts based on magnitude in isolation (especially for events longer than five days), short-
303 duration events are common in comparison to long-duration events (Bates et al., 2018; McClanahan et
304 al., 2009; Pietri et al., 2021). The sensitivity of survival to even low durations further indicate the
305 importance of studying acute heating events with parameters such as tidal and daylight cycles, which are
306 neglected using magnitude-only metrics.

307 **TDT curve variation and MHWs**

308 Our analysis simulating the effects of variable MHWs across both species end survival demonstrated that
309 a putatively tolerant species when based on a single-tolerance measure (e.g. CT_{max} in isolation) actually
310 experiences higher mortality across virtually all MHW scenarios tested (Figure 2). The acute tolerator
311 (high CT_{max} , high z) would normally be considered a more tolerant species than the chronic tolerator (low
312 CT_{max} , low z) due to its larger acute thermal limit. However, because the log-linear TDT models intersect
313 and diverge (Supplementary Figure 2), the chronic tolerator is a more tolerant species over lower
314 temperature exposure. Given species with intersecting TDT curves are likely part of the same local
315 species assemblages, such as with marine bivalves and freshwater fish (Bertolini et al., 2023; Troia,
316 2023), the scaling factor z likely plays a more significant role in comparing species and population
317 sensitivities than CT_{max} when considering non-acute MHW events (Rezende et al., 2014). Overall, the role
318 of trade-offs and adaptive strategies of CT_{max}/z is unstudied across taxa and prevents the generalization
319 of organism survival to MHWs. We demonstrated that variation in these parameters has a significant role
320 on organismal tolerance to MHWs, and different adaptive strategies will result in differential organismal
321 outcomes to a shared MHW.

322 **Interannual variation and MHW Categorization**

323 Manipulating interannual seasonal variation did not have a direct impact on organism survival to our
324 simulated MHWs. Instead, increasing climatological variation influences how the 90th percentile of
325 climatology is calculated, and in turn how categories are assigned to MHWs (Hobday et al., 2018). We
326 held the adaptive strategy (i.e. the CT_{max} and z parameters) of our hypothetical organism constant, and as
327 a result the end survival over MHW simulations did not change despite this change in interannual
328 variation. Increasing annual variation tended to mask events with lethal risk by downgrading their
329 categorization. Decreasing variation had the opposite effect of upgrading MHW categorization, lumping
330 MHWs with low and high survival together in extreme categories. These different scenarios should not

331 be interpreted as different potential climate futures; it is expected that variation itself will remain
332 relatively constant with warming (Oliver et al., 2021; Witman et al., 2023). Rather, these different
333 scenarios reflect how temperature variation is itself varied throughout the world's oceans across
334 latitudinal, depth, estuarine, and other gradients (Baumann & Doherty, 2013; Sunday et al., 2011; Thorl
335 et al., 2022; Witman et al., 2023). Organisms in turn can evolve plasticity or adaptive strategies in
336 variable environments or exhibit plasticity and change the shape of their TDT curves (Baumann &
337 Conover, 2011; Somero, 2010; Stillman, 2003; Witman et al., 2023).

338 **Seasonal timing of MHWs**

339 Our analysis found mortality across all MHW simulations decreased with distance from the summer
340 maximum, following the shape of the underlying sine wave describing seasonal temperature variation.
341 Despite mortality essentially approaching zero by mid-October, the severity of MHWs as classified using
342 a climatological approach remained the same. Since the timing of extreme events against the backdrop
343 of the environment is an important modulator of how organisms experience and react to these events,
344 the Hobday MHW framework may fail to approximate biological effects outside of annual extremes
345 (Cinto Mejía & Wetzel, 2023; Ern et al., 2023). MHW timing can influence organism responses by their
346 occurrence against cyclic environmental factors (e.g. seasons, tides) as well as against organism
347 phenology and biological clocks (e.g. spawning, development) (Bernhardt et al., 2020; Giménez, 2023) .
348 Organisms are more likely to experience sublethal effects from MHWs that do not occur over seasonal
349 maxima, and which should be tolerable over moderate magnitudes and durations (Jentsch et al., 2007).
350 Flattening of annual temperature cycles and the elongation of summers may reduce the importance of
351 seasonal MHW timing and enlarge risky periods of stress for organisms (G. Wang & Dillon, 2014; J. Wang
352 et al., 2021). Properly selected TDT data should overcome the sources of variation outlined above by
353 accounting for the ways organisms interact with the timing of extreme events like MHWs.

354 **Limitations and future directions**

355 As with any modelling framework, applying dynamic tolerance models of thermal tolerance to
356 classifying MHWs has limitations. Thermal tolerance can vary across many contexts and organism states,
357 including acclimation (Stillman, 2003; Terblanche et al., 2007), developmental plasticity (Pottier et al.,
358 2022), life stage and size (Cinto Mejía & Wetzel, 2023; Dahlke et al., 2020; Truebano et al., 2018) ,
359 intraspecific variation (Dwane et al., 2021), seasonal timing (Ern et al., 2023), metabolic state (Guppy &
360 Withers, 1999; Semsar-kazerouni et al., 2020; Vajedsamiei et al., 2021), and oxygen availability (H.-O.
361 Pörtner, 2010; Verberk et al., 2016). Further, we assume mortality from a MHW event is directly
362 attributable to temperature stress. Mortality may also occur due to multiple biotic and abiotic stressors
363 co-occurring with temperature (Buckley & Kingsolver, 2021; Dowd et al., 2015; Ern et al., 2023; Litchman
364 & Thomas, 2023). Even with perfectly chosen TDT curves, behavioral thermoregulation is likely to play a
365 significant role in mediating organism mortality to MHWs (Chappon & Seuront, 2011; Kearney et al.,
366 2009). Even relatively nonmobile organisms like clams can change their thermal exposure by burrowing
367 deeper into cooler sediment (Domínguez et al., 2021; Macho et al., 2016). Mismatches between
368 predictions and observations and mortality are therefore likely, but predictions of mortality from a single
369 driver can serve as a null model over which stress synergies and covariance effects can be observed
370 (Gerhard et al., 2023; Litchman & Thomas, 2023).

371 In our MHW simulations, we did not include two additional parameters that are likely to mediate
372 organism responses: rate of onset and frequency/return time (Hobday et al., 2016). MHW rate of onset,
373 or ramping rate, is itself a function of magnitude-duration of temperature, and thus has an impact on
374 stress accumulation within an organism (Kingsolver & Umbanhowar, 2018; Rezende et al., 2011, 2020).
375 Further, we did not investigate event frequency, or return time, of MHWs, because dynamic tolerance
376 models do not currently allow for hypothesized organism recovery between MHW events (Jørgensen et

377 al., 2021; Ørsted et al., 2022). Future work could examine the theoretical underpinnings of post-event
378 recovery, as this will likely have a non-linear effect on mortality (Seuront et al., 2019).

379 With these limitations in mind, the Hobday approach to categorizing MHWs requires less
380 parameterization, and remains an important tool for rapidly assessing the potential for ecosystem effects
381 of MHWs. Researchers and managers could consider their goal of assessing MHW strength and consider
382 an alternative approach that considers organismal physiology if ecosystem and organism impacts are the
383 main interest. A recent criticism of the fixed-baseline approach argues that with the ongoing press of
384 warming, MHWs may be calculated to occur for much of the year (Amaya et al., 2023). Shifting the
385 baseline to reflect the warming rate would correct the climatological approach to capture only true
386 anomalous events. However, this approach departs from biological assessments of MHWs with ongoing
387 warming and will not accurately predict ecological impacts.

388 Finally, empirical evidence is needed to support the model results in this analysis. Simulating
389 MHW exposure on an organism and comparing measured mortality with modelled mortality will help
390 clarify the applicability of dynamic tolerance models across taxa and MHW profiles. Within our results,
391 we identified survival isoclines that connect MHW profiles with equal survival. Testing these profiles
392 experimentally and observing where divergences from this expectation occur will help identify any
393 departures from the TDT framework, and ultimately its limitations. Continued work integrating dynamic
394 tolerance models into population, species interaction, and ecosystem models will strengthen the
395 mechanistic basis upon which MHW impacts are forecasted.

396 **Conclusions**

397 Building a mechanistic understanding of the physiological effects of MHWs can allow for
398 predictions of MHW effects across scales of ecological organization (Twinn et al., 2020). As MHWs
399 become more predictable (Jacox et al., 2022), forecasting of ecological impacts across scale using

400 workflows like the dynamic tolerance models presented here will become more feasible, thereby helping
401 predict MMEs, population collapse, and species extinction events (Cerini et al., 2023; Verberk et al.,
402 2023). Developing predictive warning systems that can predict ecological climate can give individuals,
403 communities, managers, and governments context-specific information and actionable avoidance,
404 mitigation, or adaptation options.

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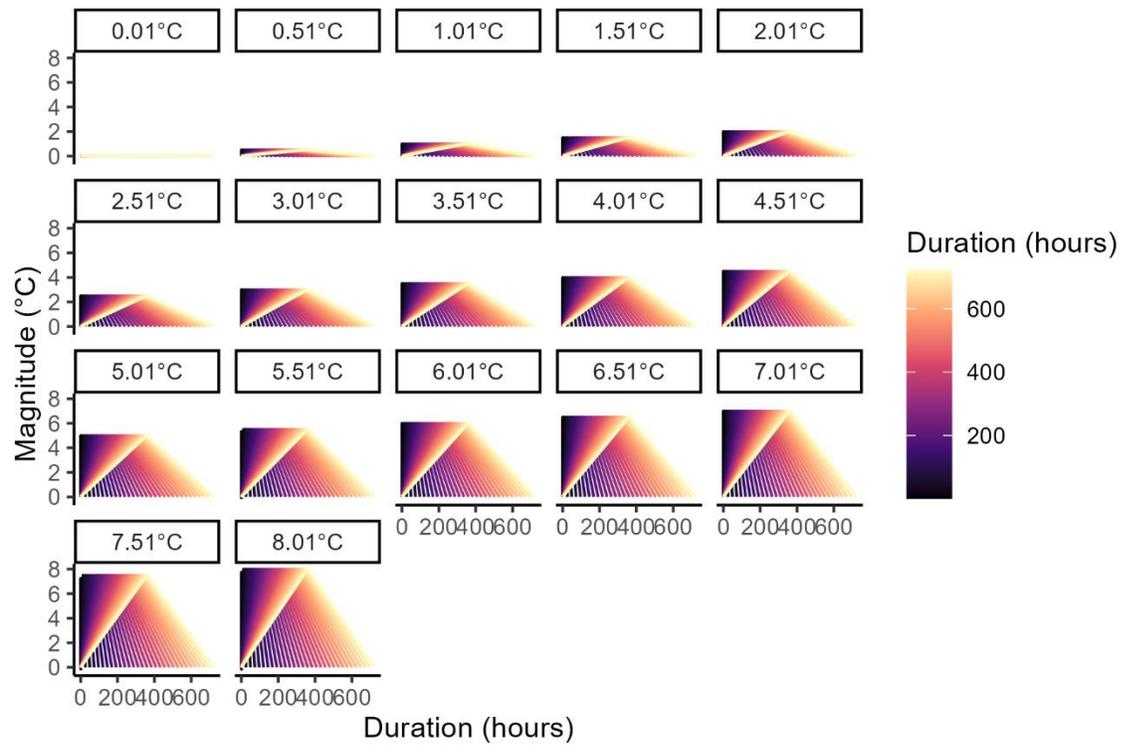
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690 **Supplementary Information**

691 **Dynamic Survival Models**

692 Two major dynamic survival models have been recently described that rely on two different methods of
693 calculating the instantaneous rate of mortality for a timestep within the temperature time series. The
694 Rezende method (also called Fundamental Kinetic Model, Rezende et al., 2020; Tang & Mitcham, 2007)
695 iteratively calculates mortality from a series of cumulative survival curves parameterized from the spread
696 of empirical time to death data. The Jørgensen method (also called Degree Minute Models; Jørgensen et
697 al., 2021; Tang & Mitcham, 2007) treats temperatures above a critical temperature (T_c ; loss of
698 homeostasis) as a thermal dose correlating with injury accumulation. This method integrates beneath
699 the exposure time series to arrive at a measure of area between the time series and T_c that corresponds
700 to a level of injury accumulation for an organism. An important distinction between the two methods is
701 that the Rezende method does not directly use the fitted log-linear model typically used to describe
702 Thermal Death Time (TDT) curves while the Jørgensen method uses the fitted model directly. The
703 Rezende method may more accurately predict death if different mechanisms are responsible for death at
704 different time-temperature exposures (Ern et al., 2023; Rezende et al., 2014; Tang & Mitcham, 2007).
705 However, since death is calculated from the spread of individual data points of time to death, this
706 method is likely sensitive to precision error arising from methodology. Additionally, the Rezende method
707 does not include the concept of critical temperature (T_c or T_{crit}) that delineates organism lifespan and
708 time-limited survival (mortality from heat stress) (Ern et al., 2023; Ørsted et al., 2022; Pörtner & Knust,
709 2007). While the general mechanisms behind T_c remain unclear (Ørsted et al., 2022), omitting T_c likely
710 results in overestimations of mortality at ecologically realistic temperatures for organism persistence
711 when summed over long time spans. The Jørgensen method is not probability based, includes T_c , and
712 assumes lethal stress is equally accumulated across temperature and time exposures. Therefore, while

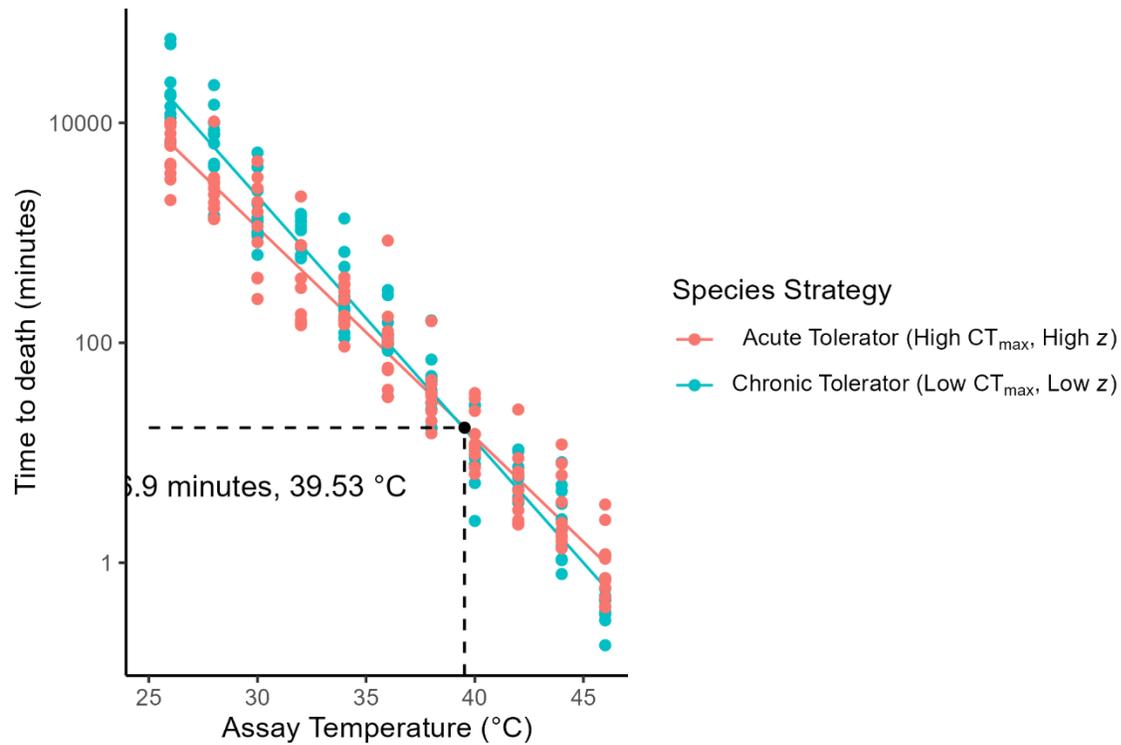
713 the Rezende method requires higher sample sizes of empirical data at each temperature point, the
714 Jørgensen method can be used with only the TDT curve, parameterized with a minimum of three data
715 points. Both methods are supported by empirical data, although mostly through the experimental use of
716 *Drosophila*. Future work should investigate the validity and limitations of both methods in tandem across
717 non-model species.



718

719 Supplementary Figure 1. Array of 527 MHW simulations across 17 durations and 31 durations. Each
 720 individual triangle (represented by a single color in each subplot) represents one MHW simulation.

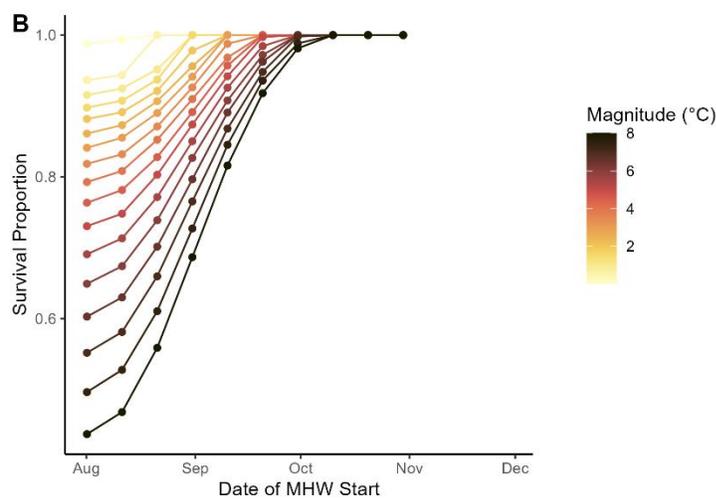
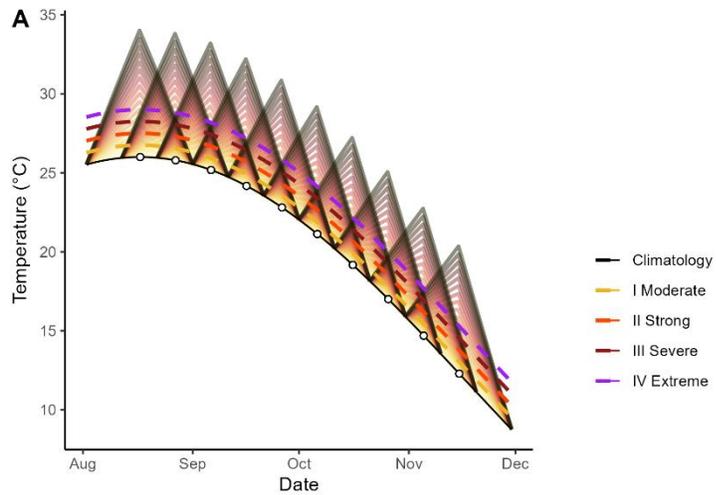
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723 Supplementary Figure 2. Thermal death time curves for two hypothetical species that follow two
 724 divergent adaptation strategies. One species exhibits an acute tolerator strategy (higher CT_{max} = 46 °C,
 725 high z value 5.25) than the chronic tolerator (45 °C, 4.5). Because z is the negative inverse of slope, this
 726 translates to a high acute tolerance trading off with a slower rate of time to death increase with lower
 727 exposure temperatures. The intercept of these two points occurs at 16.9 min, 39.5 °C. The chronic
 728 tolerator would exhibit slower time to death than the acute tolerator at temperatures above 39.5°C.

729



730

731 Supplementary Figure 3A. MHWs of fixed duration (24 days) but variable magnitude (0-8°C) were
 732 simulated across ten time points post annual maximum (white points). Each MHW was simulated onto
 733 the climatological curve in isolation for the analysis, but here are displayed stacked for visual purposes.

734 B) Resulting end of MHW survival for the acute tolerator exposed to each MHW across magnitude-
 735 seasonal occurrences.

736

737 **Citations form Supplement**

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