

1 **Background nutrient concentration determines phytoplankton bloom response to**
2 **marine heatwaves**

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12 **Abstract**

13 Ocean temperature extreme events such as marine heatwaves are expected to intensify in
14 coming decades due to anthropogenic global warming. Reported ecological and economic
15 impacts of marine heatwaves include coral bleaching, local extinction of mangrove and kelp
16 forests, and elevated mortalities of invertebrates, fishes, seabirds, and marine mammals. In
17 contrast, little is known about the impacts of marine heatwaves on microbes that regulate
18 biogeochemical processes in the ocean. Here we analyze the daily output of a near-global
19 ocean physical-biogeochemical model simulation to characterize the impacts of marine
20 heatwaves on phytoplankton blooms in 23 tropical and temperate oceanographic regions from
21 1992 to 2014. The results reveal regionally-coherent anomalies of shallower mixed layers and
22 lower surface nitrate concentrations during marine heatwaves. Strengthened stratification is
23 the plausible cause of such responses that exert counteracting effects on phytoplankton
24 growth through light and nutrient limitation. Consequently, the responses of phytoplankton
25 blooms are mixed, but can be related to the background nutrient conditions of the study
26 regions. With one exception, blooms are weaker during marine heatwaves in nutrient poor
27 waters, whereas in nutrient rich waters, the heatwave blooms are stronger. The corresponding
28 analyses of sea-surface temperature and chlorophyll *a* concentration based on satellite
29 observations support this relationship between phytoplankton bloom anomalies and
30 background nitrate concentration. Given that nutrient poor waters are projected to expand
31 globally in the twenty-first century, this study suggests increased occurrence of weaker
32 blooms during marine heatwaves in coming decades, with implications for higher trophic
33 levels and biogeochemical cycling of key elements.

35 1 Introduction

36 Marine heatwaves refer to prolonged anomalous warming events in the ocean that last for
37 days, months, and in some extreme cases, years (Hobday et al., 2018). These events have
38 negative impacts on marine organisms that are vulnerable to transient ocean warming.

39 Reported ecological and economic impacts of marine heatwaves include coral bleaching,
40 local extinction of mangrove and kelp forests, and elevated mortalities of invertebrates,
41 fishes, seabirds, and marine mammals (Smale et al., 2019).

42

43 Although the influence of marine heatwaves on large plants and animals is well documented,
44 the literature on the impacts on lower trophic levels is both scant and inconclusive. For
45 example, monthly shipboard measurements of phytoplankton and zooplankton (copepods)
46 abundance and composition on the Alaskan Shelf have revealed a significant positive
47 correlation between temperature and the abundance of diatoms and copepods during 2000-
48 2015, except for the last two years corresponding to the northeast Pacific ‘blob’ event (Batten
49 et al., 2018). Monthly satellite chlorophyll *a* observations have demonstrated both positive
50 and negative phytoplankton biomass anomalies in the northeast Pacific, depending on both
51 time and location (Cavole et al., 2016).

52

53 The major challenge of marine heatwave studies on lower trophic levels is the lack of high-
54 resolution and long-term monitoring of environmental and biological variables, such as
55 mixed layer depth, nutrient concentration, and biomass of phytoplankton and zooplankton.
56 Daily resolution is needed because some extreme events only last for days. On the other
57 hand, decades of measurements are needed to establish a well-defined baseline for
58 distinguishing marine heatwave impacts from interannual variability (Hobday et al., 2016).
59 Having such measurements is essential to develop a mechanistic understanding of the effects
60 of marine heatwaves on ocean biogeochemistry. For these reasons, biogeochemical models
61 and satellite observations are perhaps best suited to this type of study.

62

63 In this study, we characterize the impacts of marine heatwaves on phytoplankton blooms
64 using model simulation and satellite observations over recent decades. Model simulation
65 allows us to analyze the variability in physical and biogeochemical variables that are
66 practically impossible to obtain observationally at the daily temporal resolution and decadal

67 time period needed for quantifying marine heatwave impacts. On the other hand, satellite
68 observations provide a means of verification of simulated marine heatwaves and their
69 impacts on phytoplankton blooms.

70

71 2 Materials and methods

72

73 2.1 Study regions

74 We define 23 oceanographic regions for diagnosing simulated and observed marine heatwave
75 events and their effects on physical and biogeochemical properties (Figure 1). These regions
76 are selected in order to provide a global perspective, encompassing both tropical and
77 temperate waters, western and eastern boundary currents, nutrient limited and replete waters,
78 and coastal and open-water areas. Furthermore, many of these regions have experienced
79 marine heatwaves in recent decades, and some of their drivers and socio-economic impacts
80 have been assessed in the literature (Hobday et al., 2018; Holbrook et al., 2019).

81

82 2.2 Marine heatwave definition

83 We define an ocean warming event as a marine heatwave when the daily-mean sea surface
84 temperature exceeds its climatological 90th percentile for at least 5 days. This definition
85 follows that of Hobday et al. (2016) which was developed to facilitate comparisons among
86 the literature. We define 1982-2014 as the climatological period based on the availability of
87 both the model and satellite data products of daily-mean sea surface temperature. Following
88 Hobday et al. (2016), the daily climatological 90th percentile is defined after smoothing the
89 time series with 30-day moving averages. To characterize marine heatwave events, we use
90 the following metrics: frequency, duration, mean intensity, annual MHW days, and category
91 (Hobday et al., 2018).

92

93 2.3 Model data products

94 We analyze the output of three numerical experiments (historical, projection, and control)
95 conducted using the Ocean Forecasting Australian Model version 3 (OFAM3), which is
96 documented in detail in Zhang et al. (2016, 2017). In brief, OFAM3 is a near-global
97 configuration of the Modular Ocean Model version 4.1 (Griffies, 2010), which extends from
98 75° S to 75° N with a spatial resolution of 0.1°. At this resolution, the model resolves

99 mesoscale eddies in most of the tropical and temperate regions (Hallberg, 2013). OFAM3
100 does not have a prognostic sea-ice model component, but incorporates satellite-derived sea-
101 ice concentration as surface boundary conditions. There are 51 non-uniform vertical layers,
102 with the finest resolution of 5 m in the uppermost layer. OFAM3 has a biogeochemistry
103 model component called the Whole Ocean Model with Biogeochemistry and Trophic-
104 dynamics (WOMBAT; Oke et al., 2013). WOMBAT simulates five state variables
105 representative of the lower-trophic-level ecosystem: nitrate, iron, phytoplankton,
106 zooplankton, and detritus. The model equations are described in detail in Oke et al. (2013)
107 and the parameters are set to those adapted for the Australian Community Climate and Earth
108 System Simulator (ACCESS-ESM1; Law et al., 2017). The growth rate of phytoplankton
109 depends on temperature, light, nitrate, and iron. Specifically, the temperature determines the
110 maximum specific growth rate similar to the Eppley curve (Eppley, 1972), whereas reduced
111 light or nutrient conditions can limit the growth rate similar to the Monod equation (Monod,
112 1949). Although iron can be a limiting factor for phytoplankton growth in the model, our
113 preliminary analysis indicates that it is never limiting in the model simulation (Figure S1),
114 and therefore we exclude iron from the rest of the analysis.

115

116 To diagnose simulated marine heatwave events in the 23 study regions, we obtain the daily-
117 and regional-mean time series of simulated sea-surface temperature from 1982 to 2014 of the
118 historical experiment. This experiment is driven by the interannual near-surface atmospheric
119 forcing fields based on the Japanese 55-year Atmospheric Reanalysis (JRA-55; Kobayashi et
120 al., 2015) after 20 years of model spin-up (Zhang et al., 2016).

121

122 To diagnose the variability in physical and biogeochemical properties during marine
123 heatwave events, we obtain the daily- and regional-mean time series of simulated mixed layer
124 depth (MLD), sea-surface nitrate concentration, sea-surface phytoplankton and zooplankton
125 biomass, and depth-integrated gross primary production from 1992 to 2014 of the historical
126 experiment, during which ocean biogeochemistry is simulated. Due to the short duration of
127 the model experiment, the model drift is unavoidable for biogeochemical variables even in
128 the ocean surface layer. To resolve this issue, we estimate the model drift from the control
129 experiment, which is done in parallel with the historical experiment, and remove the drift
130 from the time series of the historical experiment (see Supplementary Information). Note that
131 simulated physical properties, including sea-surface temperature and mixed layer depth, do

132 not experience such a drift due to the set-up of the model spin-up as demonstrated by Zhang
133 et al. (2016).

134

135 To address marine heatwave impacts under the future climate, we obtain the annual-mean
136 fields of simulated sea-surface nitrate concentration of the projection experiment. This
137 experiment spans 2006 to 2101, driven by an atmospheric forcing that has both the
138 interannual variability of JRA55 and the long-term global warming trend derived by an
139 ensemble mean of the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project phase 5 (CMIP5)
140 Representative Concentration Pathway 8.5 (RCP8.5) projections (Zhang et al., 2017).

141

142 2.4 Satellite data products

143 To evaluate the model simulation of marine heatwaves, we obtain the daily-mean sea-surface
144 temperature reanalysis product of the Merged satellite and in situ data Global Daily Sea
145 Surface Temperature (MGD SST; Kurihara et al., 2006). This data product is representative
146 of ocean temperature at foundation depth (5-10 m; Fiedler et al., 2019; Kawai and Wada,
147 2007), which is closer to the representative depth of OFAM3 (2.5 m) than that of the National
148 Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration Optimum Interpolation Sea Surface Temperature
149 version 2 (NOAA OISST2), which is about 0.5 m (Reynolds et al., 2007). OFAM3 simulates
150 marine heatwaves that are in reasonable spatial agreement with both MGD SST and NOAA
151 OISST2, but it compares better with MGD SST than NOAA OISST2 in terms of annual
152 marine heatwave days (Hayashida et al., submitted).

153

154 To examine the variability in observed phytoplankton biomass during marine heatwave
155 events and compare it with model simulation, we obtain the daily-mean sea-surface
156 chlorophyll *a* concentration from 2002 to 2018 derived from the Moderate Resolution
157 Imaging Spectroradiometer Aqua (MODIS hereafter) ocean colour sensor. This data product
158 is obtained through the GlobColour project (<http://www.globcolour.info/>; accessed on August
159 19, 2019) at the spatial resolution of 1°, which is sufficient for the 23 study regions defined in
160 the present study.

161

162 Although a merged product of multiple ocean colour sensors is available for longer temporal
163 coverage, our preliminary analysis demonstrates substantial differences in chlorophyll *a*
164 concentration estimates between MODIS and the Sea-Viewing Wide Field-of-View Sensor

165 (SeaWiFS hereafter, operational 1997 to 2010) for most of the study regions (Figures S3-25).
166 The differences are systematic in that MODIS provides higher values during bloom seasons,
167 which is consistent with the finding of Marrari et al. (2016) for the South Atlantic Ocean. For
168 this reason, we use the data product based on a single sensor (MODIS, because it has a longer
169 record than SeaWiFS) rather than a merged product.

170

171 2.5 In situ climatology

172 To compare the simulated nutrients with observations, we obtain the 1° global annual-mean
173 climatological sea-surface nitrate concentration field of the World Ocean Atlas 2013 version
174 2 (WOA13; Garcia et al., 2013). In particular, we analyze the statistical mean product, which
175 is the average of all unflagged interpolated values in each grid cell which contain at least one
176 measurement.

177

178 3 Results

179 Here we focus on the mean characteristics of marine heatwave metrics and the mean
180 anomalies of mixed layer depth, sea-surface nitrate concentration, sea-surface phytoplankton
181 biomass, and sea-surface chlorophyll *a* concentration in the 23 study regions for periods
182 when phytoplankton blooms and marine heatwaves co-occur. The term mean refers to
183 climatological representation over the period 1992-2014 for all variables with the exception
184 of sea-surface chlorophyll *a* concentration anomalies, which are representative of the MODIS
185 period (2002-2018). The anomalies are expressed as standardized anomalies (SA), which are
186 the differences from the daily-mean climatologies divided by the interannual standard
187 deviations. Phytoplankton blooms are defined for each region as the period from the day of
188 the annual minimum to its annual maximum in the daily-mean climatology of sea-surface
189 phytoplankton biomass or chlorophyll *a* concentration (Figure S2). Comparisons of daily-
190 and regional-mean time series of the aforementioned variables and individual marine
191 heatwave events between the model and observations are provided in Figures S3-29.

192

193 3.1 Simulated and observed marine heatwaves

194 From 1992 to 2014 in the model, the study regions experience on average at least one marine
195 heatwave event per year that is about 30 days long and 0.75 °C above the daily-mean
196 climatology (Figure 2). These numbers compare well with observations that show about two

197 events per year with each event lasting for nearly 20 days and about 1 °C warmer than the
198 normal condition. The model and observations agree exceptionally well in terms of the
199 number of marine heatwave days per year averaged over the study regions (33.7 days; Figure
200 2d). Both the model and observations agree that marine heatwaves occur throughout the year
201 for all regions with generally higher probabilities in summer seasons. Typically, more events
202 result in a shorter duration for each event and vice versa, as indicated by statistically-
203 significant and highly-negative correlations between the mean frequency and duration over
204 the 23 study regions ($r^2 = -0.64$ and -0.87 for the model and observations, respectively, with
205 p-value < 0.05 for both).

206

207 Comparisons for each study region reveal a few notable similarities and differences between
208 the model and observations. The model and observations agree in terms of the occurrence of
209 a marine heatwave event in the Galapagos Island region which is categorized as “extreme”
210 (Figures 2a and S13). This event is known to have occurred as a result of a strong El Niño in
211 1997-1998 (Holbrook et al., 2019). The model simulates two additional extreme heatwave
212 events for the Leeuwin Current and South China Sea, whereas the observations do not
213 categorize these as extreme (Figures S9 and S5, respectively). This Leeuwin Current
214 warming in 2011 is known to have been caused by a strong La Niña (Feng et al., 2013) and
215 while the observations used here did not classify it as extreme, it is well-documented to have
216 had far-reaching and serious impacts on the marine environment (Wernberg et al., 2013).

217

218 The model simulates on average less than one marine heatwave event per year for the
219 Atlantic Equatorial Current and Humboldt Current regions, whereas the observations show
220 more than two events per year for these regions (Figure 2a). These differences in the mean
221 frequency are related to differences in the mean duration, which are about 45 days longer in
222 the model for both regions. Furthermore, the model simulates substantially longer marine
223 heatwaves for the California Current and Scotian Shelf and Grand Banks regions. The model
224 shows a wider spread in the mean duration distribution across the study regions, as indicated
225 by higher standard deviation (17.6 vs. 4.5 days for the model and observations, respectively).

226

227 The mean intensity of simulated marine heatwaves is lower than that of observed marine
228 heatwaves for all regions (Figure 2c). The largest difference of approximately 0.5 °C occurs
229 for the Scotian Shelf and Grand Banks region. This region also differs the greatest between

230 the model and observations among all study regions in terms of the mean marine heatwave
231 days (22.2 days more for the model; Figure 2d).

232

233 3.2 Simulated mixed layer depth, sea-surface nitrate concentration, and sea-surface 234 phytoplankton biomass

235 In the historical experiment of OFAM3, the co-occurrence of simulated marine heatwaves
236 and phytoplankton blooms takes place on average about once a year and lasts for 26 days
237 during 1992-2014 (Figure 3a). The anomalies of simulated mixed layer depth during the
238 marine heatwave-phytoplankton bloom co-occurrence are negative, meaning shallower than
239 average, for all study regions except for the Bay of Bengal and California Current regions
240 (Figure 3b). Seven of these regions experience exceptionally shallow mixed layers as
241 indicated by the magnitudes exceeding one. Similarly, the anomalies of simulated sea-surface
242 nitrate concentration are negative, meaning lower than average, for all regions (Figure 3c).
243 Eleven of these regions experience exceptionally low nitrate levels. Among these regions,
244 four experience both anomalously shallow mixed layers and low nutrient levels. Shallower
245 mixed layers imply relaxation from light limitation, whereas lower nitrate concentration
246 exacerbates nutrient limitation. Hence, these two anomalies have counteracting effects on
247 photosynthetic growth: enhancing light exposure but reducing nutrient supply. Consequently,
248 the anomalies of simulated phytoplankton biomass are both positive and negative across the
249 study regions (Figure 3d), depending on which resource — light or nutrients — is more
250 strongly limiting or whose limitation is more completely relieved. Five of these regions
251 experience exceptionally high or low biomass. Note that these anomalies are strongly
252 correlated with the anomalies of both sea-surface zooplankton biomass and depth-integrated
253 gross primary production across the study regions (Figure S30).

254

255 3.3 Observed sea-surface chlorophyll *a* concentration

256 Similar to the model simulation, the co-occurrence of observed marine heatwaves and
257 phytoplankton blooms defined based on the combination of MGD and MODIS takes place
258 roughly once a year, but lasts for 18 days on average during 2002-2018 (Figure 4a). The
259 duration is about a week shorter than the model simulation, which is partly due to the shorter
260 duration of marine heatwaves in general (Figure 2b) and may also be due to the shorter
261 duration of phytoplankton blooms in some regions (Figure S2). As in the simulated
262 phytoplankton biomass, the anomalies of observed sea-surface chlorophyll *a* concentration

263 are both positive and negative (Figure 4b). On the other hand, the magnitudes of the observed
264 anomalies are smaller than the simulated anomalies. The observed magnitudes are relatively
265 high (exceeding 0.5) in 6 regions.

266

267 3.4 Relationship between phytoplankton bloom response and background nutrient 268 concentration

269 To further investigate the mixed responses of simulated and observed phytoplankton blooms
270 to marine heatwaves, the anomalies are plotted against the climatological annual-mean sea-
271 surface nitrate concentration across the study regions (Figure 5). Doing so reveals a
272 remarkable relationship that is common to both the model simulation and observations. All of
273 the negative anomalies take place in regions where nitrate concentration is less than 3 μM ,
274 while the anomalies are positive for all regions where nitrate concentration is greater than 3
275 μM . The only exceptions are the simulated and observed negative anomalies for the
276 Galapagos Island region, where nitrate concentration is greater than 3 μM .

277

278 More broadly speaking, these findings distinguish the impacts of marine heatwaves on
279 phytoplankton blooms between nutrient limited and replete waters. As demonstrated by the
280 model results in Section 3.2, marine heatwaves are typically associated with shallower mixed
281 layer depth and lower nitrate concentration. In nutrient limited waters, these conditions
282 exacerbate nutrient stress, resulting in weaker blooms. In contrast, in nutrient replete waters,
283 the reduced nitrate concentration associated with marine heatwaves is not low enough to limit
284 photosynthetic growth. Instead, light is presumably the limiting factor in these regions, and
285 therefore marine heatwaves are generally associated with stronger blooms owing to shallower
286 mixed layer depth and the relief of light limitation.

287

288 Despite high background nutrient concentration, both the model simulation and observations
289 demonstrate that marine heatwaves in the Galapagos Island region are associated with weaker
290 blooms. These unexpected results are driven by extremely strong El Niño events (1997-1998
291 during the model simulation period and 2015-2016 during the MODIS observation period;
292 Figures S9, S27, and S31), which drive weakened or absent upwelling of nutrient rich waters
293 (Chavez et al., 1999). That is, unlike the other high nutrient ($>3 \mu\text{M}$) regions, marine
294 heatwaves (El Niño events) around the Galapagos can suppress nutrients to the point of

295 nutrient limitation. The weaker bloom during the 1997-1998 El Niño in the model simulation
296 is consistent with the SeaWiFS observations (Ryan et al., 2002).

297

298 Lastly, we note the regime in which nutrient poor regions experience stronger blooms during
299 marine heatwaves (the top-left quadrant of Figure 5). A few possible explanations for this
300 regime are: (1) the region is light limited rather than nutrient limited because of seasonal and
301 interannual variability that relieves the nutrient limited conditions, so that blooms are larger
302 due to relaxed light limitation; and (2) the effect of temperature on the photosynthetic growth
303 rate is greater than that of nutrient limitation. Separating the two effects requires more
304 thorough analyses of budget components.

305

306 3.5 Simulated sea-surface nitrate concentration in the twenty-first century

307 Under global warming, the spatial distribution of background nutrient concentration is
308 projected to change throughout the twenty-first century. The model simulation based on the
309 RCP8.5 scenario shows an expansion of nutrient poor waters (Figure 6). More specifically,
310 the spatial extent of simulated nutrient poor waters (defined here as less than $3\mu\text{M}$ nitrate) in
311 the 60°S - 60°N surface ocean is projected to increase by 8 % during the late twenty-first
312 century (2071-2100) compared to the early twenty-first century (2006-2035). Among the 23
313 study regions, this projected change has implications for four regions (the Bay of Bengal,
314 Galapagos Island, Northwest Pacific, and Tasmania) where the area of nutrient poor waters
315 increases noticeably. Based on our analysis of the co-occurrence of marine heatwaves and
316 phytoplankton blooms, the projected change would move these systems out of the top-right
317 quadrant of Figure 5, and into the bottom-left quadrant. Therefore, in the future these regions
318 would show a reduction in phytoplankton blooms during marine heatwaves. The projected
319 expansion of nutrient poor surface waters is also present in 7 out of 8 CMIP5 models with
320 similar percentage changes (1-5 %; Figure S32).

321

322 4 Discussion

323 Climate extreme events like marine heatwaves are occurring at an unprecedented and
324 extensive rate (Babcock et al., 2019), and they may have greater ecological impacts than the
325 more gradual effects of climate change. Here we combine observations and simulations to
326 elucidate the impacts of marine heatwaves on phytoplankton dynamics. Our model

327 simulation shows that marine heatwave events in the 23 study regions are generally
328 associated with shallower mixed layers and lower nitrate. These two responses have
329 counteracting effects on phytoplankton growth; shallower mixed layer depth can increase
330 growth by relaxing light limitation, whereas lower nitrate concentration can reduce the
331 growth by amplifying nutrient stress. The relative importance of these factors, and therefore
332 the phytoplankton bloom response during marine heatwaves, varies regionally, but we find
333 that it is linked to background nutrient concentration. Weaker blooms are almost always
334 associated with marine heatwaves in nutrient poor regions, and vice versa. This finding is
335 robust. Our analyses based on satellite observations support the model results in spite of
336 differences in biomass proxies (nitrogen content vs. chlorophyll *a* concentration) and
337 temporal coverages (1994-2014 for model vs. 2002-2018 for satellite).

338

339 Although not named as marine heatwaves, a few previous studies have documented lower
340 phytoplankton biomass and primary productivity during comparable transient ocean warming
341 events around the Galapagos Island region (Ryan et al., 2002), in the southern California
342 Current (Cavole et al., 2016; Zaba and Rudnick, 2016), the northeast Pacific (Kudela et al.,
343 2006), and the northern Humboldt Current (Iriarte and González, 2004). Our simulated and
344 observed results are consistent with these previous studies for the Galapagos Islands,
345 California Current, and British Columbia Continental Shelf (corresponding to the northeast
346 Pacific) regions. However, unlike Iriarte and González (2004), our simulated phytoplankton
347 biomass in the Humboldt Current region during the 1997-1998 El Niño is not lower than the
348 climatology, most probably due to the positive bias in background nutrient concentration in
349 the model, and so phytoplankton growth is not limited by nutrients. Hence, in addition to
350 phytoplankton anomalies, our model results provide evidence for nutrient limitation during
351 marine heatwaves due to strengthened stratification in these coastal upwelling systems of the
352 eastern Pacific.

353

354 Our simulated and observed findings are applicable to total phytoplankton only, but the
355 responses of different functional types and size classes are presumably variable, because
356 growth rates as a function of temperature, light, and nutrient conditions, are variable.
357 Previous studies have reported a transient change to a small-cell dominated phytoplankton
358 community composition during ocean warming events (Iriarte and González, 2004; Kudela et
359 al., 2006) that has implications for higher trophic levels (Jones et al., 2018). Similarly, the
360 limitation of other macro- and micro-nutrients is disregarded in the present study. Accounting

361 for this process can again affect the community composition (e.g. silicate deficiency is only
362 relevant for diatoms) and may hasten and amplify the negative bloom anomalies in iron
363 limited regions. However, these considerations should not change the conclusion about the
364 general relationship between phytoplankton bloom response and background nutrient
365 concentration. More detailed analyses on these topics can be performed using a more
366 complex ocean biogeochemistry model. Lastly, while our study mostly concerns the
367 variability of sea-surface properties, investigating the vertical structures of marine heatwaves
368 and associated biogeochemical properties (Zaba and Rudnick, 2016) would be worthwhile, to
369 comprehend the impacts throughout the water column. Such a study could be achieved
370 through process studies or deployments of autonomous platforms such as floats and gliders.

371

372 The impacts of marine heatwaves on phytoplankton are more than just the thermal stress, and
373 therefore are more complex than the impacts on large plants and higher trophic levels.
374 Strengthened stratification is a key mechanism for phytoplankton anomalies during marine
375 heatwaves. Although stronger blooms could be associated with marine heatwaves, projected
376 expansion of nutrient poor waters suggests increased occurrence of weaker blooms in coming
377 decades, with implications for higher trophic levels and biogeochemical cycling of key
378 elements. Through a synthesis of simulated and observed regional-mean time series analyses,
379 this study offers insights into a relationship between marine heatwaves and ocean
380 biogeochemistry.

381

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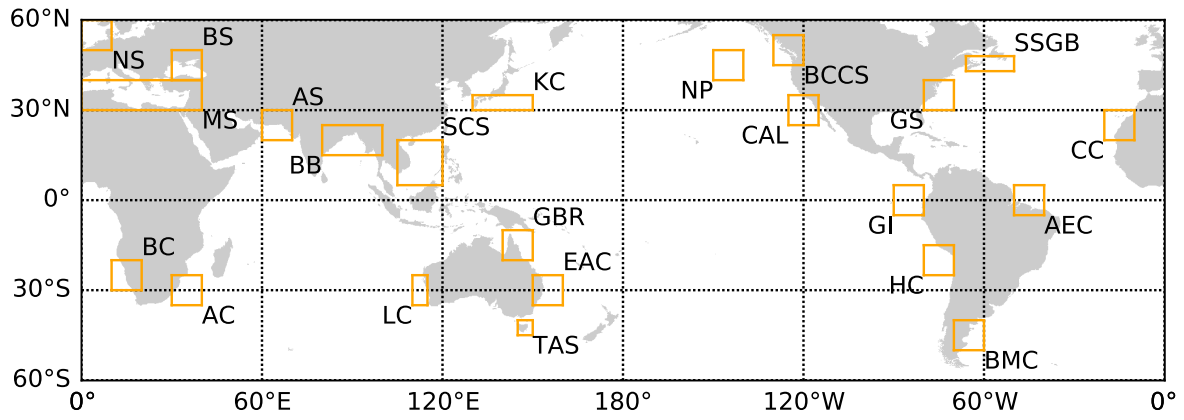
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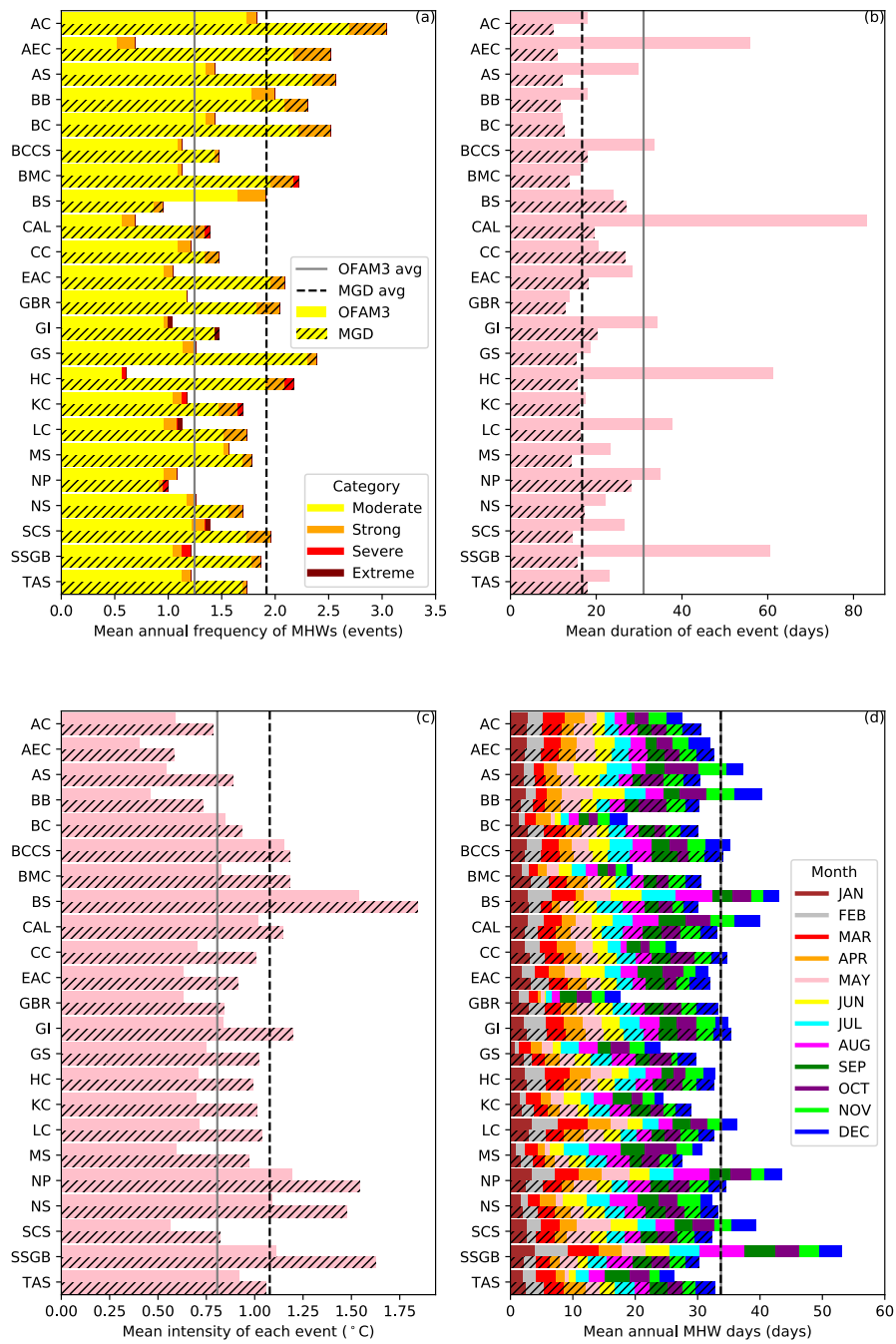
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Figure 1: Locations of the 23 case-study regions. AC: Agulhas Current, AEC: Atlantic Equatorial Current, AS: Arabian Sea, BB: Bay of Bengal, BC: Benguela Current, BCCS: British Columbia Continental Shelf, BMC: Brazil-Malvinas Confluence, BS: Black Sea, CAL: California Current, CC: Canary Current, EAC: East Australia Current, GBR: Great Barrier Reef, GI: Galapagos Island, GS: Gulf Stream, HC: Humboldt Current, KC: Kuroshio Current, LC: Leeuwin Current, MS: Mediterranean Sea, NP: Northeast Pacific, NS: North Sea, SCS: South China Sea, SSGB: Scotian Shelf and Grand Banks, TAS: Tasmania. See Table S1 for longitude and latitudinal coordinates of the regions.



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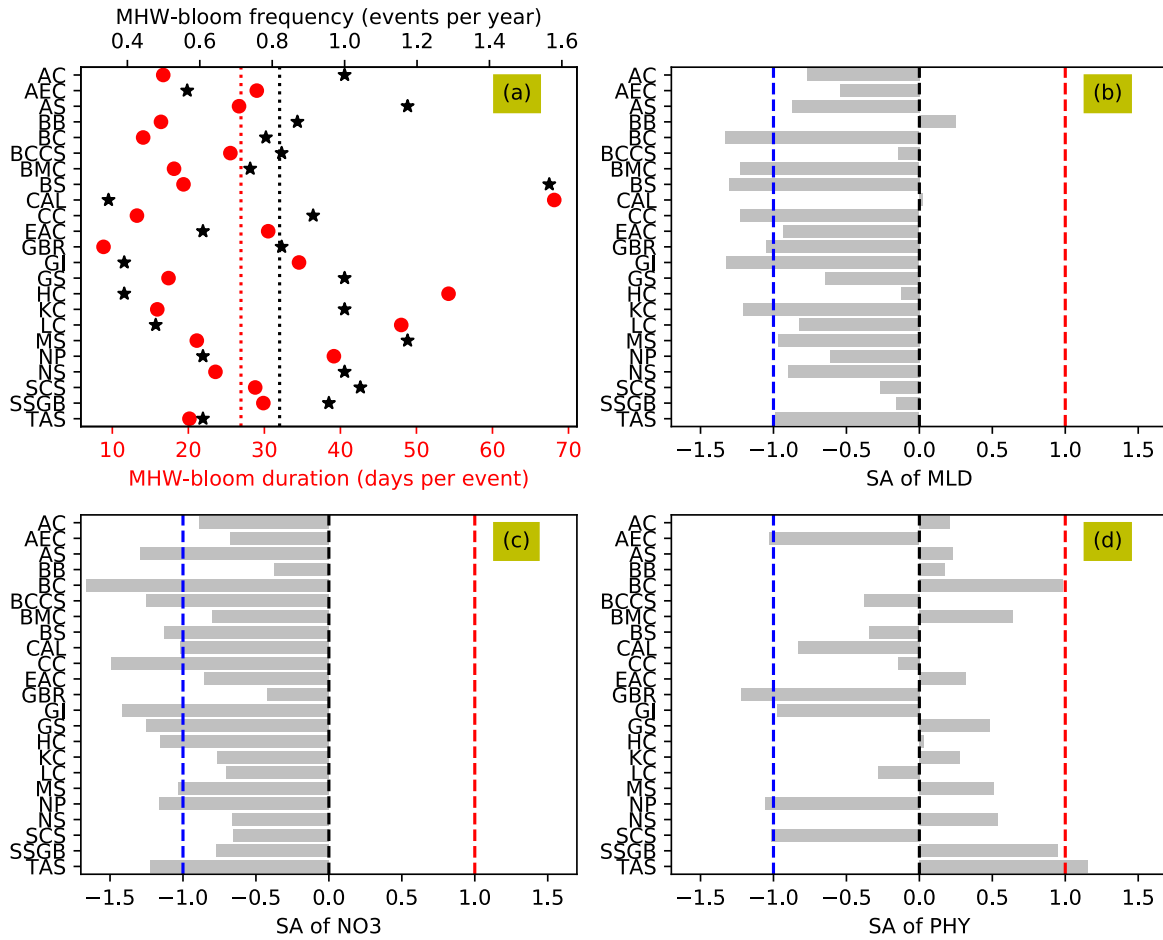
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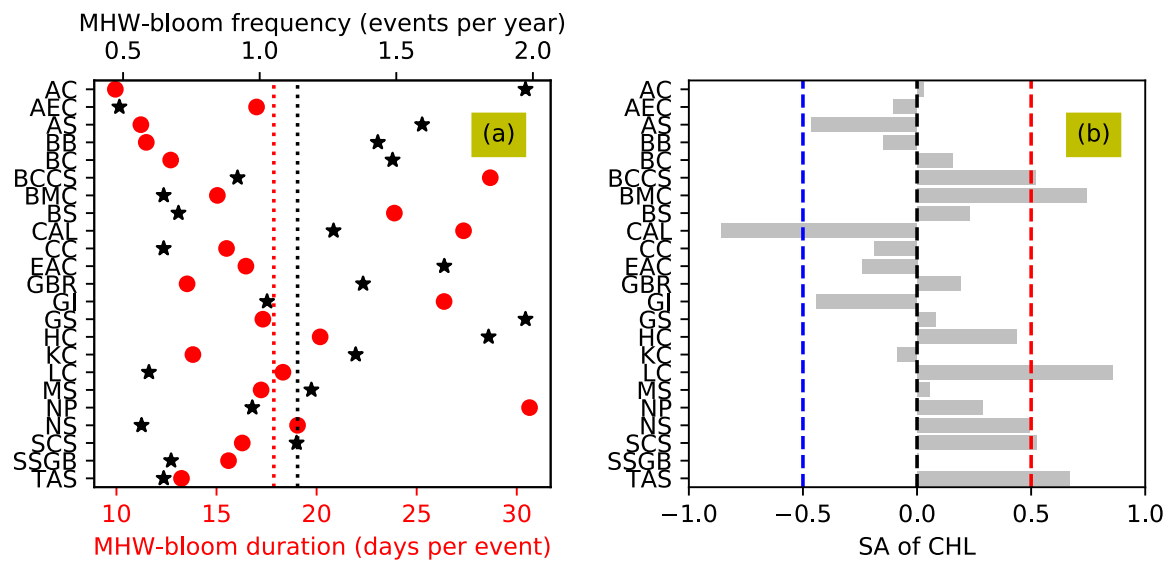
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Figure 2: Characteristics of MHWs in the 23 case-study regions based on the period 1992-2014. Bar graphs represent (a) how many MHW events occur, (b) how long each event lasts, (c) how much warmer the sea surface temperature is relative to the daily climatology, and (d) how many days are exposed to marine heatwaves in each region on an annual average. Bar graphs are hatched for satellite observations (MGD) to distinguish from model simulation (OFAM3). Vertical solid-grey and dashed-black lines denote the mean values of the 23 regions. In (a) and (d), colours are used in bar graphs to denote the proportion of each category and month of marine heatwave occurrence, respectively.



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Figure 3: Anomalies in simulated physical and biogeochemical properties during the co-occurrence of marine heatwaves and phytoplankton blooms. Bar graphs represent (a) mean frequency (black stars) and duration (red dots) of the marine heatwave-phytoplankton bloom co-occurrence, and mean standardized anomalies in (b) mixed layer depth, (c) sea-surface nitrate concentration, and (d) sea-surface phytoplankton biomass based on the historical experiment of OFAM3 over 1992-2014. In (a), the vertical dotted lines denote the average among the 23 regions. In (b), (c), and (d), the vertical dashed lines depict the values of -1 (blue), 0 (black), and 1 (red).

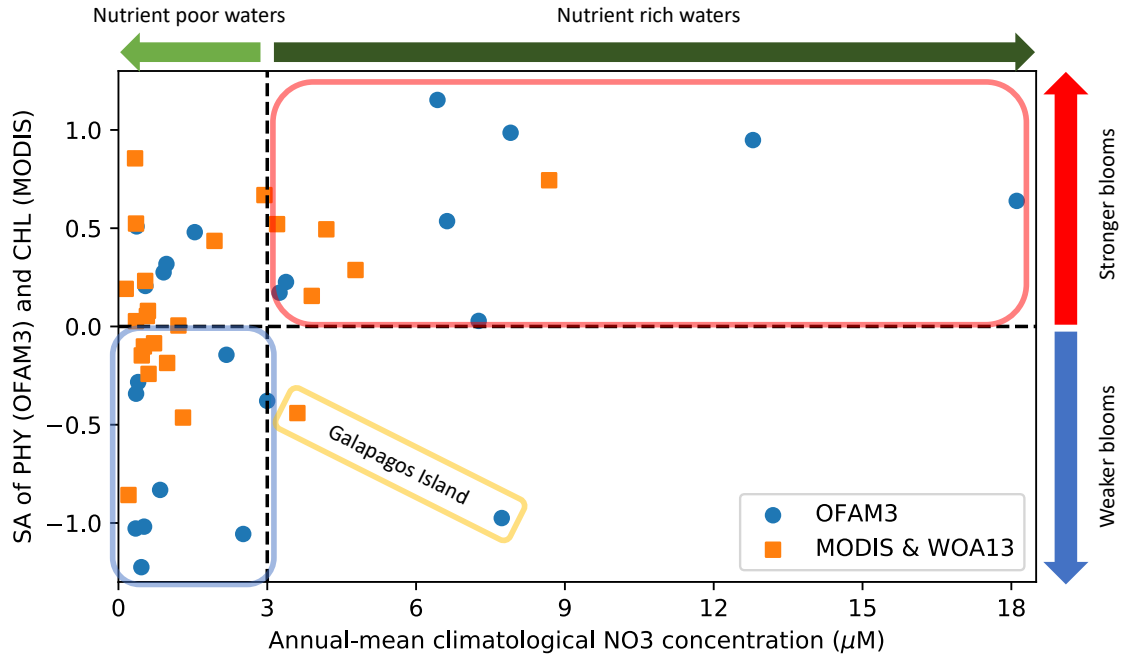


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Figure 4: Anomalies in observed sea-surface chlorophyll a concentration during the co-occurrence of marine heatwaves and phytoplankton blooms. Bar graphs represent (a) mean frequency (black stars) and duration (red dots) of marine

502 *heatwave-phytoplankton bloom co-occurrence and (b) mean standardized anomalies in sea-surface chlorophyll a*
 503 *concentration derived from satellite observations of MODIS over 2002-2018. In (a), the vertical dotted lines denote the*
 504 *average among the 23 regions. In (b), the vertical dashed lines depict the values of -1 (blue), 0 (black), and 1 (red).*

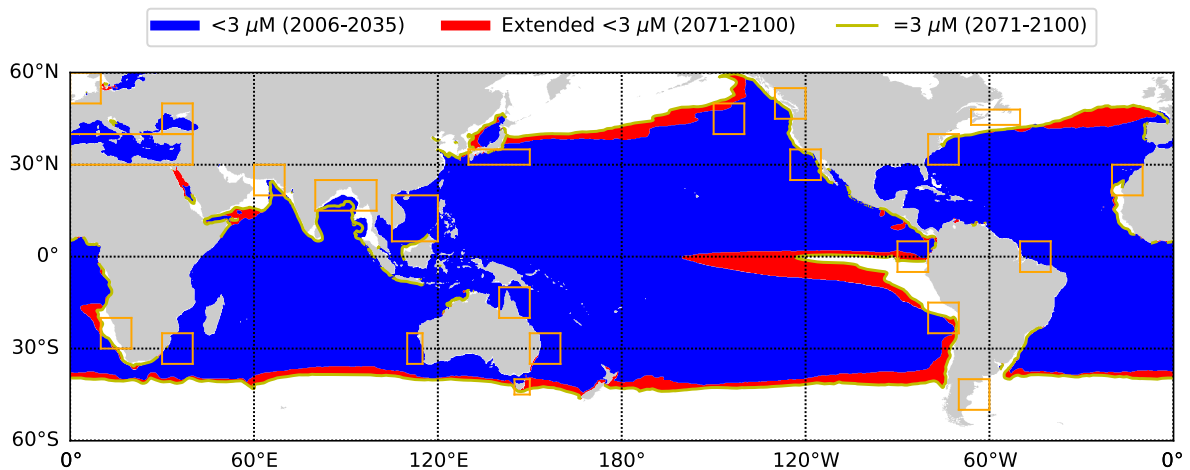
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508 **Figure 5: Relationship between phytoplankton bloom response to marine heatwaves and background nitrate**
 509 **concentration in the 23 study regions.** X-axis denotes the annual-mean sea-surface nitrate concentration based on the
 510 model simulation (1992-2014; OFAM3, blue) and the in situ climatology (WOA13, orange). Y-axis denotes the mean
 511 standardized anomalies of simulated sea-surface phytoplankton biomass (1992-2014; OFAM3, blue) and observed sea-
 512 surface chlorophyll a concentration (2002-2018; MODIS, orange) during the co-occurrence of phytoplankton blooms and
 513 marine heatwaves.

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Figure 6: Projected expansion of nutrient poor waters in the twenty-first century as simulated by OFAM3. Blue denotes
 the area of nitrate poor waters during 2006-2035 of the projection experiment. Nitrate poor waters are defined here as the
 climatological annual-mean sea-surface nitrate concentration of less than 3 µM). Red denotes the extended area of nitrate
 poor waters during 2071-2100. Yellow denotes the 3-µM contour during 2071-2100. Orange boxes denote the 23 study
 regions defined in Figure 1. The red regions will move to nutrient limited conditions under global warming and marine
 heatwaves will lead to reduced phytoplankton blooms.