

# Submesoscale frontal dynamics enhances phytoplankton chlorophyll in the North Pacific Subtropical Gyre

Xiao Liu<sup>1</sup> and Naomi Marcil Levine<sup>2,\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Earth Sciences, University of Southern California, Los Angeles 90089

<sup>2</sup>Department of Biological Sciences, University of Southern California, Los Angeles 90089

\*: Corresponding author; AHF M225, 3616 Trousdale Pkwy, Los Angeles, CA 90089;

[n.levine@usc.edu](mailto:n.levine@usc.edu); +1 (213) 821-0745

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21 **Key points:**

22 1. A new statistical tool quantifies spatial heterogeneity from high-resolution satellite images.

23 2. Submesoscale dynamics is shown to enhance chlorophyll in the North Pacific Subtropical

24 Gyre.

25 3. The impact of submesoscale physics on phytoplankton may modify the negative impact of

26 warming.

27

28 **ABSTRACT**

29

30 Subtropical gyres contribute significantly to global ocean productivity. As the climate warms,  
31 the strength of these gyres as a biological carbon pump is predicted to diminish due to  
32 increased stratification and depleted surface nutrients. We present results suggesting that the  
33 impact of submesoscale physics on phytoplankton in the oligotrophic ocean is substantial and  
34 may either compensate or exacerbate future changes in carbon cycling. A new statistical tool  
35 was developed to quantify surface patchiness from sea surface temperatures. Chlorophyll  
36 concentrations in the North Pacific Subtropical Gyre were shown to be enhanced by  
37 submesoscale frontal dynamics with an average increase of 38% (max. 83%) during late  
38 winter. The magnitude of this enhancement is comparable to the observed decline in  
39 chlorophyll due to a warming of  $\sim 1.1^{\circ}\text{C}$ . These results highlight the need for an improved  
40 understanding of fine-scale physical variability in order to predict the response of marine  
41 ecosystems to projected climate changes.

42

43 **1. Introduction**

44 The ocean and its biota are undergoing major changes as a result of natural and  
45 anthropogenic forcing. Over the past decades much has been learned with regard to alterations  
46 to large-scale (e.g. basin-wide) circulation in the ocean [Vecchi *et al.*, 2006], as well as the  
47 cascading effects on intermediate-scale dynamics such as eddies [Davis and Di Lorenzo, 2015].  
48 The impact of these physical variations on nutrient distributions and ecosystem structures has  
49 been studied through long-term time-series programs, field campaigns, and a variety of  
50 numerical modeling experiments [e.g. Corno *et al.*, 2007; Xiu and Chai, 2012]. However,  
51 much less is known about the variations and impact of another class of ubiquitous features,  
52 submesoscale dynamics, due to their typical length (1-10 km) and time (one to several days)  
53 scales which make them difficult to observe and model [Mahadevan and Tandon, 2006].  
54 These fine-scale features often arise through advective interactions with mesoscale frontal jets  
55 and eddy peripheries and are associated with sharp density gradients. These gradients create  
56 enhanced vertical velocities, promoting effective exchange between the ocean interior and  
57 surface layers [Capet *et al.*, 2008; Klein and Lapeyre, 2009; Levy *et al.*, 2010]. Sensors  
58 mounted on autonomous platforms, such as profiling floats and gliders, have captured  
59 enhanced, intermittent upwelling velocities into the euphotic zone that are hypothesized to  
60 result from submesoscale frontogenesis [Johnson *et al.*, 2010; Niewiadowska *et al.*, 2008].  
61 However, both the net impact of fine-scale processes on large-scale ocean biogeochemistry and  
62 how these interactions might change in the future remain poorly understood.

63 Various mechanisms have been proposed regarding the potential impact of submesoscale  
64 physics on phytoplankton dynamics. In oligotrophic regions, the upward branches of the fronts  
65 may enhance phytoplankton growth and productivity by transporting nutrients into the euphotic

66 zone [*Mahadevan and Archer*, 2000; *Johnson et al.*, 2010], while the downward components  
67 may facilitate export production by rapidly subducting biomass into the subsurface  
68 [*Niewiadowska et al.*, 2008; *Omand et al.*, 2015]. Using an idealized model, *Levy et al.* [2014]  
69 suggested that ~20% of new production in the oligotrophic subtropics could be explained by  
70 submesoscale dynamics. Conversely, in regimes where deep mixing frequently occurs and  
71 light is generally limiting, submesoscale instabilities may create a re-stratified sunlit layer that  
72 promotes productivity [*Mahadevan*, 2016]. It has also been argued that the downwelling side  
73 of the fronts subducts much of the phytoplankton biomass below the euphotic zone on short  
74 enough time-scales that the consumption of upwelled nutrients may be incomplete [*Levy et al.*,  
75 2012]. As such, due to the complexity of mixed layer dynamics and light and nutrient  
76 availability, the net impact of submesoscale physics on phytoplankton has been difficult to  
77 determine. In this study, we focus on the impact of fine-scale bio-physical interactions in the  
78 nutrient-depleted (oligotrophic) regions, such as the subtropical gyres.

79 Subtropical gyres play a critical role in global ocean productivity and carbon cycling [*Karl*  
80 *et al.*, 1996; *Lomas et al.*, 2010]. As global temperatures continue to rise, the efficiency of  
81 carbon export within these gyres is predicted to decline due to increased stratification, reduced  
82 vertical nutrient exchange, and shifts in phytoplankton assemblages towards smaller size  
83 classes [*Hilligsoe et al.*, 2011; *Li et al.*, 2009]. In addition, some studies have detected decadal-  
84 scale increasing trends in the frequency of oceanic fronts and eddy kinetic energy in the  
85 oligotrophic ocean [*Matear et al.*, 2013; *Hogg et al.*, 2015]. These trends are hypothesized to  
86 be driven by climate and atmospheric instabilities. While direct predictions of future changes  
87 in submesoscale dynamics are lacking, these observed changes in large- and mesoscale  
88 processes may cause significant modifications to submesoscale dynamics.

89 Over the past two decades, technological advances in remote sensing have provided  
90 synoptic surface views of the global ocean with improved temporal and spatial resolutions  
91 [Gaultier *et al.* 2014]. In this study, we investigated the impact of submesoscale physics on  
92 phytoplankton distributions using high-resolution satellite observations. Specifically, we  
93 developed a new metric (the Heterogeneity Index) that quantifies surface patchiness, and used  
94 it to identify signatures of fine-scale, frontal structures in the oligotrophic ocean from  
95 horizontal temperature gradients. We then established observational evidence for enhanced  
96 chlorophyll concentrations associated with submesoscale frontal dynamics in the North Pacific  
97 Subtropical Gyre (NPSG), with an average increase of up to 38% (maximum of 83%) during  
98 the later winter. These results have significant implications for understanding the impact of  
99 submesoscale physics on primary and export production in the oligotrophic ocean.

100 **2. Methods and Data**

101 2.1. Heterogeneity Index

102 Traditional approaches for quantifying patchiness in a resource field have primarily  
103 focused on data variance [e.g. Doney *et al.*, 2003], which only represents the average gradient  
104 in the field. Given the nonlinearity in biological responses to environmental conditions, the  
105 high degree of resource (e.g. nutrient) patchiness created by submesoscale dynamics is  
106 expected to produce a greater impact than the average gradient does. Cayula and Cornillon  
107 [1992] developed a method that uses SST histogram distributions to search for bimodality in  
108 resource distributions. This method was adapted to identify sea-surface fronts in various  
109 regions such as the California Current [Kahru *et al.*, 2012]. Here we combine these two  
110 approaches using measures of both variance and bimodality to quantify patchiness in SST. In  
111 addition, we add a third term that quantifies the skewness of the distribution. This additional

112 term allows us to capture patchiness created by thin filaments, which often cause unimodal,  
113 skewed SST distributions. Our new metric of spatial patchiness, the Heterogeneity Index (HI),  
114 is defined as:

115 
$$HI = a(b|\gamma| + c \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} + dP) \quad \text{eq. (1)}$$

116 where  $\gamma$  is the skewness of the distribution,  $\sigma$  is the standard deviation, and  $n$  is the sample  
117 size.  $P$  describes the difference in area between the best 5<sup>th</sup> order polynomial fit to the data  $x$   
118 [ $p(x)$  in eq. (2)] and a Gaussian distribution with the same sample mean ( $\mu$ ) and  $\sigma$  [ $g(\mu, \sigma)$  in  
119 eq. (2)]:

120 
$$P = \int_{\min(x)}^{\max(x)} \frac{|p(x) - g(\mu, \sigma)|}{g(\mu, \sigma)} dx \quad \text{eq. (2)}$$

121 Coefficients  $b$ ,  $c$ , and  $d$  (for the NPSG:  $b = 1.07$ ,  $c = 1.81$ ,  $d = 1.11$ ) scale each component  
122 between 0 and 1 such that equal weight is placed on each component, and  $a$  ( $a = 0.30$ ) scales  
123 HI such that  $HI = 0$  describes a homogenous system, and  $HI = 1$  describes a maximally  
124 heterogeneous system. Coefficients  $a$ - $d$  are region specific and must be retuned before HI can  
125 be applied to different regions (see Supporting Information *S1* and *S2* for details regarding HI  
126 formulation and normalization coefficients for other subtropical oceans).

127 HI is spatial-scale dependent and designed to identify physical processes occurring at the  
128 sub-domain scale. For example, elevated HI for a domain of 10 km  $\times$  10 km ( $HI_{10}$ ) can be  
129 caused by the inclusion of a feature smaller than 10 km in length (e.g. a submesoscale  
130 filamentous front), or a fraction of a feature equal to or larger than 10 km (e.g. part of a  
131 mesoscale front or the edge of an eddy). Figure 1 shows an example of a SST image in which  
132 such frontal features result in skewed, high variance, and bimodal distributions and, therefore,  
133 elevated  $HI_{10}$  values at the fine-scale. While HI equally weights features with different

134 underlying physical mechanisms, it highlights sharp horizontal density gradients occurring on  
135 the scale of a few kilometers (i.e. the submesoscale) that are typically associated with enhanced  
136 vertical velocities. As a simplification, hereafter we refer to all fine-scale frontal signatures as  
137 submesoscale structures due to the length scale of the gradients.

138 For this analysis, we apply HI to the oligotrophic NPSG. As density gradients are  
139 typically coincident with temperature gradients in this region, HI allows us to identify  
140 submesoscale structures in the NPSG from satellite-retrieved SST fields. However, caution is  
141 needed when applying HI to other oceanographic regimes where this underlying assumption  
142 may need to be revisited. For example, temperature may not be an appropriate indicator of  
143 water mass differences in high-latitude and coastal upwelling regions. Detection of patchiness  
144 in these regions using the HI metric may require the use of remotely sensed altimetry data  
145 (which currently precludes submesoscale analyses due to the spatial resolution of the data).

146 2.2. Satellite data and analyses

147 Level-2 daily images of MODIS/Aqua SST (daytime) and chlorophyll-*a* concentration  
148 (Chl) at approximately 1 km resolution were retrieved from the NASA OB.DAAC for a region  
149 in the NPSG (10-30°N, 160°E-160°W) during a 13-year period (July 2002 - June 2015). The  
150 latest version (R20140) of the reprocessed data was used. A subset of images were selected  
151 using a filtering grid with a fixed window size of 100 km × 100 km to ensure maximal spatial  
152 coverage (75% for SST and 70% for Chl) and optimal data quality (*SI*). For each of the 32,222  
153 selected images of 100 km × 100 km, an average  $HI_{10}$  was calculated for each individual pixel.  
154 Specifically, a grid with a cell size of 10 × 10 pixels was applied to the SST data and  $HI_{10}$  was  
155 computed for each grid cell. The grid was then shifted eastward or southward at increments of

156 one pixel at a time, and a new  $\text{HI}_{10}$  was calculated for each cell at the new grid location. Pixel-  
157 level  $\text{HI}_{10}$  was then estimated as the averaged  $\text{HI}_{10}$  from all possible grid locations.

158 To identify the fractional area impacted by submesoscale structures, heterogeneity maps  
159 of  $\text{HI}_{10}$  (1 km resolution) were examined at weekly intervals. For a single week, the  
160 background field was defined as those pixels with a  $\text{HI}_{10}$  within  $2\sigma$  from the mode of all  $\text{HI}_{10}$   
161 values for the week, and the region impacted by submesoscale structures was defined as pixels  
162 with a  $\text{HI}_{10}$  at least  $4\sigma$  greater than the mode (S3). Several different threshold values were  
163 tested and the results were not sensitive to the choice of  $4\sigma$ . Weekly climatologies of SST and  
164 Chl in the impacted regions were then compared with those in the background field.

165 **3. Results**

166 Seasonal climatologies of SST and  $\text{HI}_{10}$  over the 13-year period showed an inverse  
167 relationship between fine-scale heterogeneity ( $\text{HI}_{10}$ ) and SST, with winter dynamics resulting  
168 in increased mixed layer depths, reduced SST, and elevated  $\text{HI}_{10}$  (Fig. 2; S6). Overall, a  
169 positive relationship was observed between the seasonality of  $\text{HI}_{10}$  and Chl, with elevated  
170 values in the winter and spring and reduced values in the summer. Chl peaked in early  
171 February, coincident with an increasing  $\text{HI}_{10}$ , and then steadily declined while  $\text{HI}_{10}$  remained  
172 elevated. The fractional area impacted by submesoscale structures (indicated by elevated  $\text{HI}_{10}$ )  
173 was greatest during the winter-spring period, and lowest in the late summer and early autumn,  
174 with an annual mean of 5.2% (Fig. 3a). This is in agreement with a previous remote sensing  
175 study that suggests that 4–10% of the California Current System is covered by fronts [Woodson  
176 and Litvin, 2015].

177 Regions with submesoscale structures were also associated with lower SST and  
178 elevated Chl. The greatest change in SST relative to the background field was seen in late

179 February with a weekly average difference of up to 1.7°C (Fig. 3b). This is consistent with  
180 results from current profilers that showed an increase in the strength of submesoscale features  
181 during the winter (Jan-Mar) due to more frequent larger-scale features [Callies *et al.* 2015].  
182 Chl within submesoscale structures showed the greatest enhancement relative to the  
183 surrounding regions during the wintertime, with an average increase of 38% and a maximum  
184 increase of 83% (Fig. 3c). The average impact of submesoscale fronts was negligible in the  
185 summer and early autumn, during which period the fractional area impacted by submesoscale  
186 structures was also at its lowest. We hypothesize that the decreased impact during the  
187 summertime was driven by a deepening of the nutricline coupled with increased stratification  
188 thereby limiting the ability of submesoscale features to access deep nutrients (see *Discussion*  
189 and *S7*).

190 Ocean eddies play an important role in facilitating submesoscale activities due to  
191 baroclinic instabilities that frequently occur in their vicinity [Klein and Lapeyre, 2009]. A  
192 remote sensing based analysis of eddy location and age [Chelton *et al.*, 2011] suggests that  
193 mesoscale eddies are more frequent during the winter-spring period in the NPSG, and that  
194 summertime eddies are on average older and so theoretically less energetic (*S8*). This,  
195 combined with the seasonality in  $HI_{10}$ , suggests a coupling between both the frequency and  
196 intensity of mesoscale and submesoscale features in the region. As the average radius of eddies  
197 in the NPSG is estimated to be  $\sim$ 100 km [Gaube *et al.*, 2015],  $HI_{10}$  allows us to separate the  
198 impact of eddy-associated submesoscale features from that of upwelling in eddy interiors.  
199 Thus, the enhancement associated with elevated  $HI_{10}$  is primarily due to submesoscale  
200 dynamics and is in addition to the enhancement that occurs within mesoscale eddies.

201 As the climate warms, changes in physical dynamics across many different scales may  
202 alter nutrient distributions in the oligotrophic ocean, with the interactions between these  
203 impacts being complex and difficult to predict. For example, temperatures in the upper ocean  
204 are anticipated to rise, which will enhance stratification and reduce vertical nutrient exchange.  
205 However, the frequency and amplitude of submesoscale processes are also likely to be  
206 modified, though the sign and magnitude of these changes remain unknown. To understand the  
207 interactions between these processes and their net impact on phytoplankton dynamics over a  
208 large domain, we analyzed the relationship between  $SST_{100}$ ,  $Chl_{100}$ , and  $HI_{100}^{10}$ , which are  
209 defined as the average SST, Chl, and HI<sub>10</sub> over a 100 km × 100 km region (Fig. 4). To isolate  
210 the impact of submesoscale dynamics and remove the strong relationship between SST and Chl  
211 in the NPSG, the correlation between  $HI_{100}^{10}$  and  $Chl_{100}$  was examined at each  $SST_{100}$  level.

212 We found significant positive correlations between  $HI_{100}^{10}$  and  $Chl_{100}$  for all  $SST_{100}$  levels  
213 and all seasons, with the exception of 29.2°C during the summertime potentially due to limited  
214 data. In addition, these results suggest that changes in  $SST_{100}$  and  $HI_{100}^{10}$  have opposite impacts  
215 on  $Chl_{100}$  of approximately the same magnitude. For example, a moderate change of  $HI_{100}^{10}$   
216 from 0.242 to 0.266 (indicating intensified submesoscale dynamics and enhanced nutrients  
217 fluxes) in the winter at 22.14°C results in an increase in  $Chl_{100}$  of 0.015 mg m<sup>-3</sup>. This change is  
218 similar to the decline in  $Chl_{100}$  due to a warming of 2.41°C (indicating enhanced stratification  
219 and reduced nutrients fluxes) with  $HI_{100}^{10}$  remaining at 0.242. Similarly, a moderate decline in  
220 submesoscale activity (reduced  $HI_{100}^{10}$ ) combined with an increase in  $SST_{100}$  significantly  
221 enhanced the negative impact of warming on chlorophyll concentrations. These findings  
222 suggest that the impact of submesoscale dynamics has the potential to either compensate or  
223 exacerbate nutrient depletion caused by increased stratification of the oligotrophic ocean.

224 **4. Discussions and Implications**

225 Vertical exchange of nutrients between the ocean interior and upper layers is critical to  
226 phytoplankton growth and productivity. However, global estimates of new production exceed  
227 estimates of nutrients fluxes from large-scale circulations, winter convection, and mesoscale  
228 eddies [McGillicuddy *et al.*, 1998, 2003; Klein and Lapeyre, 2009]. The impact of  
229 submesoscale physics has been proposed as one of the missing physical mechanisms behind  
230 this imbalance as these features are associated with strong vertical velocities that are more than  
231 an order of magnitude greater than that associated with large-scale circulation and the interior  
232 of eddies [Thomas *et al.*, 2008]. High-resolution surveys have found efficient vertical  
233 exchange of water properties in the vicinity of fronts and eddies where submesoscale features  
234 are prevalent [Lima *et al.*, 2002; Omand *et al.*, 2015]. In the oligotrophic ocean where the  
235 discrepancy between nutrient requirements and replenishment is large [McGillicuddy *et al.*,  
236 1998], it is of particular importance to understand the role of submesoscale physics in driving  
237 additional vertical nutrient supply and, therefore, enhanced productivity. The Heterogeneity  
238 Index (HI) provides a means of quantifying the impact of fine-scale frontal structures such as  
239 thin filaments, mesoscale frontal jets, and the peripheries of eddies on primary production in  
240 this important region.

241 Our results demonstrate that submesoscale dynamics enhanced the overall concentration  
242 of Chl in the oligotrophic NPSG through most of the year. These findings suggest both that  
243 submesoscale features increased nutrient supply to the surface ocean and that the timescales of  
244 these fluxes exceeded the doubling time of phytoplankton cells. However, the impact of  
245 submesoscale processes on Chl varied seasonally with diminished impact during the summer  
246 (Fig. 3c). This may be due to decreases in the effectiveness of submesoscale processes in

247 supplying nutrients to the surface ocean caused by both a deepening of the nutricline and a  
248 strengthening of the stratification in the upper ocean [Mahadevan, 2016]. Specifically, we  
249 hypothesize that enhanced winds (maximum during March, Fig. S9) and weakened  
250 stratification during the late winter strengthened the vertical motions associated with  
251 submesoscale features and facilitated the access of deep nutrients thereby increasing the  
252 response of phytoplankton to these dynamics. Conversely, solar heating stratified the upper  
253 ocean during the summer and nutrients were depleted to a greater depth resulting in a strong  
254 pycnocline lying above the nutricline. We hypothesize that during summertime a significant  
255 fraction of submesoscale structures could not access the nutricline and thus had a minimal  
256 impact on nutrient transport and phytoplankton growth. Further *in situ* observations, such as  
257 vertical measurements of density and nutrients made directly within submesoscale structures,  
258 are needed in order to understand causative mechanisms behind the differential impact of  
259 submesoscale features in the winter-spring relative to the summer.

260 Using high resolution satellite data (1 km, daily snapshots), we identified signatures of  
261 submesoscale structures as heterogeneity “hotspots” and demonstrated that, in the oligotrophic  
262 subtropical gyre, increased patchiness in SST resulted in increased Chl concentrations.  
263 However, in order to understand the implications of submesoscale dynamics on phytoplankton  
264 productivity and carbon cycling, we rely on the assumption that remotely sensed Chl is a good  
265 proxy for phytoplankton biomass. Although we believe that this assumption holds true as a  
266 first-order approximation over large-scales, changes in environmental conditions can trigger  
267 rapid physiological responses in phytoplankton, such as modified intracellular Chl:C ratios,  
268 which may introduce some uncertainty into our results. Specifically, phytoplankton cells  
269 typically exhibit significant increases in Chl:C ratio with reduced light levels and/or increased

270 nutrient input [Behrenfeld *et al.*, 2015; Halsey *et al.*, 2015]. In the subtropical gyres where  
271 growth is primarily nutrient limited, the input of new nutrients may result in an increase in  
272 cellular Chl:C and therefore an increase in Chl concentration without necessarily a  
273 corresponding increase in biomass. While increases in Chl:C ratio are typically associated with  
274 concurrent increases in photosynthesis and growth rates [Graziano *et al.*, 1996; Moore *et al.*,  
275 2008; Li *et al.*, 2015], such variations in phytoplankton Chl:C ratio may contribute significantly  
276 to the observed increase in Chl and cloud our interpretation of changes in phytoplankton  
277 biomass and productivity associated with submesoscale features. Additional work is needed to  
278 better understand how changes in nutrient stoichiometry, photo-acclimation, and community  
279 composition impact variability in Chl:C ratio [Behrenfeld *et al.*, 2015]. Furthermore, satellite  
280 records only capture changes in the surface ocean and are not fully indicative of water column  
281 properties. As such, a necessary next step is to merge satellite observations that resolve surface  
282 properties with *in situ* (e.g. gliders and floats) profiles that diagnose vertical dynamics in order  
283 to fully understand the role of fine-scale processes in determining depth-integrated primary and  
284 export production.

285 The submesoscale has been largely ignored by the current generation of global climate  
286 models. While these models are powerful tools for exploring the impacts of large-scale  
287 climate-driven processes on marine biota, they are typically run at coarse resolutions (1-3°) due  
288 to computational constraints and thus only represent the mean fields of a resource environment  
289 which, in reality, includes a great deal of spatial and temporal heterogeneity over much finer  
290 scales. Our findings provide observational evidence that fine-scale processes may play a  
291 significant role in modulating phytoplankton growth and biomass distributions in the  
292 oligotrophic ocean, and that the magnitude of the biological response is comparable to that of a

293 warmer, more stratified ocean. These results provide a first-order estimate of fine-scale bio-  
294 physical interactions that have been previously under-determined by *in situ* observations.  
295 While this study has exclusively focused on the subtropical gyres, expanding this analysis to  
296 other oceanographic regimes may provide a means for parameterizing coarse resolution global  
297 climate models for the impact of fine-scale bio-physical interactions, ultimately improving our  
298 understanding of the response of marine ecosystems to future climate changes.

299 **Acknowledgments**

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301 (<http://oceancolor.gsfc.nasa.gov/>), SIO/UCSD (<http://mixedlayer.ucsd.edu>), NOAA/ESRL/PSD  
302 (<http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/data/reanalysis/reanalysis.shtml>), and Chelton et al. (2011,  
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307 **Figure Captions**

308 Figure 1. Feature identification using the Heterogeneity Index. An example of MODIS-Aqua  
309 SST image from 04/04/2003 is shown. Sub-regions (10 km  $\times$  10 km) associated with  
310 submesoscale structures are identified by high  $HI_{10}$  values while the background field is  
311 characterized by low  $HI_{10}$ .

312 Figure 2. Weekly climatologies of SST, Chl, and submesoscale heterogeneity ( $HI_{10}$ ) averaged  
313 over the study region (July 2002 to June 2015). Error bars represent  $\pm 0.25\sigma$  from the mean.

314 Figure 3. Impact of submesoscale heterogeneity ( $HI_{10}$ ) on SST and Chl. Panel a) shows the  
315 fractional area impacted by submesoscale features (high  $HI_{10}$ ). Panels b) and c) show the  
316 difference in SST and Chl between the background field and the feature-impacted regions. In  
317 all panels, the central mark of each box plot is the median, edges of the box are the 25<sup>th</sup> and  
318 75<sup>th</sup> percentiles, and whiskers extend to the most extreme data points excluding outliers which  
319 are denoted by red +. The solid and dashed lines are generated using a 3-point moving average  
320 filter. Note the changes in y-axis scales for panels a) and c).

321 Figure 4. Impact of SST and submesoscale heterogeneity ( $HI_{10}$ ) on Chl.  $SST_{100}$ ,  $Chl_{100}$ , and  
322  $HI_{100}^{10}$  are defined as the average SST, Chl, and  $HI_{10}$  over 100 km  $\times$  100 km regions. Results are  
323 presented by season with bins colored by  $Chl_{100}$ .  $Chl_{100}$  increases with decreasing  $SST_{100}$   
324 (horizontal axis) and increasing  $HI_{100}^{10}$  (vertical axis). The significance of the positive  
325 relationship between  $HI_{100}^{10}$  and  $Chl_{100}$  for each  $SST_{100}$  bin is shown on top of each column with  
326  $p < 0.01$  denoted by two stars (\*\*) and  $p < 0.05$  denoted by one star (\*). White bins indicate  
327 conditions where less than 15 images (100 km  $\times$  100 km with good spatial coverage) were  
328 available. The arrows demonstrate the comparable, and compensating, change in  $Chl_{100}$  (0.015  
329 mg m<sup>-3</sup>) that would result from a moderate increase in  $HI_{100}^{10}$  from 0.242 to 0.266 (solid arrow)  
330 versus a warming of the same waters by 2.41°C (dashed arrow).

331

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