1	Alexandrium on the Alaskan Beaufort Sea Shelf: Impact of upwelling in a warming Arctic				
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18 Abstract:

19 The harmful algal genus Alexandrium has characteristically been found in temperate and 20 subtropical regions; however recent evidence suggests global warming may be expanding its 21 range into high latitude waters. Alexandrium cysts have previously been documented in the Chukchi Sea and we hypothesize that *Alexandrium* may be expanding further into the Arctic due 22 23 to distribution by the Beaufort shelfbreak jet. Here we document the presence of Alexandrium catenella along the Alaskan Beaufort Sea shelf, marking an expansion of its known range. The 24 25 observations of A. catenella were made using three different methods: FlowCAM imaging, 18S 26 eukaryotic sequencing, and real-time quantitative PCR. Four occupations of a shelf/slope transect spanned the evolution of a strong wind-driven upwelling event over a 5-day period. A 27 28 nearby mooring provided the physical context for the event, revealing that enhanced easterly winds reversed the Beaufort shelfbreak jet to the west and induced upwelling of colder, denser 29 water onto the outer shelf. A. catenella sequences dominated the surface phytoplankton 30 31 community at the onset of the upwelling event. This signal vanished during and after the event, likely due to a combination of alongstream advection, cross-stream advection, and wind mixing. 32 33 These results suggest contrasting physical processes that are both subject to global warming 34 amplification, delivery of warm waters via the Beaufort shelfbreak jet and upwelling, may 35 control the proliferation of this potential harmful alga into the Arctic.

36 Keywords:

Alexandrium catenella, Beaufort Sea, upwelling, shelfbreak jet, saxitoxin, Arctic

38 1 Introduction

39 Harmful algal blooms (HABs) have become an increasingly important issue for public 40 health. Although a recent study concluded that it was additional monitoring and awareness rather 41 than a global increase in HABs that led to more documented instances of HABs and related 42 illnesses such as paralytic shellfish poisoning (PSP) from 1985-2018 (Hallegraeff et al., 2021), 43 there is evidence for both local and regional changes amongst certain HABs, including expansion of PSP into new regions associated with ocean warming (Anderson et al., 2021b). The majority 44 45 of human health problems associated with HABs come from the consumption of shellfish (Grattan et al., 2016) with PSP accounting for a third of the shellfish illnesses (Hallegraeff et al., 46 47 2021). PSP can occur when a neurotoxin, such as saxitoxin, is bioaccumulated through filter feeders and fish (Cusick and Sayler, 2013; Wang, 2008), and is subsequently consumed. Certain 48 species of dinoflagellates are associated with saxitoxin production and PSP outbreaks, making 49 50 them a consistent concern for public health and coastal ecosystem services (Grattan et al., 2016; 51 Hallegraeff et al., 2021). The *Alexandrium* genus is one of the dinoflagellate genera that has been 52 found to be the causative agent of many instances of shellfish poisoning along the coastal United 53 States (Anderson et al., 2008; Anderson et al., 2021b; Lewitus et al., 2012). The species 54 Alexandrium catenella, which is a well-studied member of the genus known for its ability to 55 produce saxitoxin and causing PSP outbreaks (John et al., 2014), is of particular focus for this 56 study due to recent documented expansion into the Arctic Ocean (Anderson et al., 2021a). While 57 the Alexandrium genus is now a globally abundant dinoflagellate, until 1970, the Alexandrium 58 tamarense species complex (which includes A. catenella) was only found in Europe, North America, and Japan – although it is still characteristically found in temperate and subtropical 59 regions (Lilly et al., 2007). It is important to note that the accepted nomenclature of the A. 60

61 *tamarense* species complex was recently changed to: Group 1: A. *catenella*, Group 2: A.

mediterraneum, Group 3: *A. tamarense*, Group 4: *A. pacificum*, and Group 5: *A. austaliense*(Fraga et al., 2015; John et al., 2014; Prud'homme van Reine, 2017). As prior studies have used
older nomenclature customs, clarification is provided throughout this manuscript where
appropriate.

66 The Arctic Ocean has been warming faster than any other place on Earth, resulting in more extensive sea ice retreat each year (Holland and Bitz, 2003; Manabe and Stouffer, 1980). It 67 68 is predicted that the Arctic will continue to warm because of enhanced ocean current heat 69 transport (Marshall et al., 2014; Marshall et al., 2015) combined with Arctic amplification (Kim et al., 2016). Heat transport through the Bering Strait has increased significantly over the past 70 71 three decades (Woodgate, 2018) and is forecast to be one of the most influential continued 72 imports of heat to the Arctic (van der Linden et al., 2019). The inflow through the Bering Strait is of particular interest to this study because it brings Pacific summer water to the Alaskan 73 Beaufort Sea shelf. This warm water is advected into the Alaskan Beaufort Sea via the Alaskan 74 Coastal Current which, upon exiting Barrow Canyon, forms the eastward-flowing Beaufort 75 76 shelfbreak jet (Nikolopoulos et al., 2009) (Fig 1). Increased heat transport in this region 77 associated with the Beaufort shelfbreak jet has the potential to expand the domain of normally 78 temperate algae into the Arctic. Of the temperate algae, expansion of *Alexandrium* further into 79 the Arctic is of particular concern as this expansion could have deleterious implications for the 80 economy and food production in remote regions of Alaska. Prior evidence of negative impacts have been documented in marine mammal beaching along the Alaskan coast up to Point Barrow 81 82 that was associated with the presence of the *Alexandrium* toxin saxitoxin (Lefebvre et al., 2016). 83 Cyst beds of saxitoxin producing species of *Alexandrium* have also been documented as far north as the Bering Sea and Chukchi Sea (Natsuike et al., 2017a; Natsuike et al., 2013) and most
recently seen ~100 km west of our study site in the Alaskan Beaufort Sea (Anderson et al.,
2021a). In addition to warming inflow into the Arctic resulting in evidence of *Alexandrium*expansion (Anderson et al., 2021a; Natsuike et al., 2017a), average temperatures suitable for
germination and growth of *Alexandrium* (5-15 °C, (Natsuike et al., 2017b)) have been observed
just west of our study area in a region where *A. catenella* cyst beds have recently been
documented (Anderson et al., 2021a).

91 While the Beaufort shelfbreak jet may be delivering temperate algae further into the 92 Arctic, once delivered into the region phytoplankton may be influenced by other complicating 93 physical process such as wind-driven upwelling. Specifically, under intensified easterly winds 94 the Beaufort shelfbreak jet reverses to the west, followed shortly thereafter by upwelling (Pickart et al., 2009). This upwelling can deliver nutrient-rich Pacific-origin winter water from the Arctic 95 basin onto the shelf (Lin et al., 2019; Pickart et al., 2011). Upwelling in the Beaufort Sea is 96 97 predicted to increase in strength and occurrence as a result of a warming climate (Pickart et al., 2013). The upwelled nutrient-rich cold water can reach the surface euphotic zone where 98 99 phytoplankton and other biota have access to it, often leading to a bloom of phytoplankton and 100 subsequently to an increase in upper trophic level biomass in the Alaskan Beaufort Sea (Ashjian et al., 2010). Some phytoplankton respond better than others to water column turbulence and 101 102 increased nutrient concentrations that are associated with upwelling events. Diatoms, for 103 example, are unicellular eukaryotic phytoplankton known to grow faster than other phytoplankton in response to nutrient pulses, allowing them to bloom in upwelling environments 104 (Biller et al., 2013). By contrast, dinoflagellates are generally more suited to bloom when the 105 upper water column is stratified, such as after upwelling events when wind mixing ceases 106

(Lewitus et al., 2012). As a result of this dynamic, when upwelling begins it is common for the
phytoplankton community to shift to diatoms, and, when upwelling relaxes, the environment
becomes more favorable to dinoflagellates and diatom growth often enters a lag phase (Smayda
and Trainer, 2010).

Motivated by a desire to explore how these two competing physical factors, warm water 111 112 intrusion via the Beaufort shelfbreak jet and upwelling, may be influencing Alexandrium populations in the coastal Arctic, this study uses multiple methods to evaluate Alexandrium in 113 the Beaufort shelf region at the onset, during, and after an upwelling event. We hypothesize that 114 115 the Beaufort shelfbreak jet is transporting warm water suitable for Alexandrium growth and expanding its habitable region. We further hypothesize that increased upwelling can mitigate this 116 expansion of Alexandrium by displacing these warmer waters in addition to increasing 117 turbulence. Using data from a FlowCam imaging system, we show evidence of Alexandrium 118 further into the eastern Pacific Arctic domain than has been previously observed. The species of 119 120 Alexandrium was subsequently determined to be A. catenella using both an 18S rRNA sequencing method and a 28S rRNA real-time quantitative PCR method. As A. catenella is a 121 toxin producing species, this proliferation is of particular concern and further study of toxicity of 122 123 A. catenella in this region may be warranted.

124 2 Material and methods

125 2.1 Physical data collection

A research cruise on R/V *Sikuliaq* took place in August-September 2017 as part of a program
investigating upwelling in the western Beaufort Sea. During the cruise, a shelf-slope transect
near 151°W was occupied four times between 30 August and 5 September (Fig. 1). An additional

129 test station was sampled at 71.77°N 153.34°W and is included here. Conductivity-temperaturedepth (CTD) stations were carried out using a Sea-Bird Electronics SBE 911-plus (Bellevue, 130 WA, USA) with dual temperature and conductivity sensors, as well as a dissolved oxygen sensor 131 (Sea-Bird SBE43) and a fluorometer (Wetlabs FLRTD). The stations were spaced ≤ 5 km apart, 132 and each occupation of the transect took between 10 and 18 h to complete. The transect was 133 134 located near a long-term mooring deployed as part of the Arctic Observing Network (AON) (Lin et al., 2019). The mooring is situated at the 147 m isobath in the core of the Beaufort shelfbreak 135 jet, roughly 35 km west of the transect (Fig. 1). Velocity was measured hourly from the mooring 136 throughout the Sikuliaq cruise using an upward-facing Nortek Signature 250 kHz acoustic 137 Doppler current profiler (ADCP) with 4 m bins, and temperature and conductivity (salinity) were 138 measured hourly using 8 SBE MicroCATs (Sea-Bird) spaced through the water column from 33 139 m to near the seafloor. Wind data at 9.4 m height were obtained from the meteorological station 140 in Utqiagvik, AK (Fig. 1), and 10-m wind and sea-level pressure fields from the ERA5 reanalysis 141 142 (Hersbach et al., 2018) were used as well. We consider the alongcoast wind (105°T, positive out of west), and the alongstream velocity (125°T, positive to the east) (Lin et al., 2019; 143 144 Nikolopoulos et al., 2009).

145 **2.2 Sample collection**

Near-surface water and water from the depth of the chlorophyll *a* maximum were collected
using Niskin bottles on the CTD rosette. Up to 4L of seawater were drawn into 10% HCl acidcleaned and seawater-rinsed Nalgene bottles (ThermoFisher Scientific; Waltham, MA, USA), then
subsequently filtered through a 0.22 µm Sterivex filter (Millipore Sigma, Merck KGaA;
Darmstadt, Germany) using a peristaltic pump. Filters were immediately frozen at -80°C until
DNA extraction. Seawater was also pre-filtered through a 100 µm Nitex mesh, and 5mL of filtered

152 seawater was run at 40x (300 µm) and 100x (100 µm) magnification on the FlowCAM (Yokogawa Fluid Imaging Technologies; Scarborough, ME, USA). Nitrate profiles were collected at 7 to 10 153 stations per transect occupation with an optical nitrate sensor (SUNA V2, Sea-Bird) powered with 154 an external 51 Ah battery pack. To create depth profiles, we aligned the SUNA and CTD data by 155 recorded time. Water samples from 4-6 depths at 12 stations selected from the broader cruise 156 157 sampling efforts, which also included additional transects along the Beaufort Sea shelf not presented here, were taken for direct nitrate concentration measurements to calibrate the nitrate 158 sensor. Nitrate concentrations in those water samples were measured using an Alpkem RFA 159 continuous flow analyzer following standard colorimetric protocols (Gordon, 1993). SUNA nitrate 160 profiles were calibrated by fitting a linear regression to direct measurements from corresponding 161 depths. While additional nutrients including phosphate and silicic acid were measured from the 162 broader cruise samples used to calibrate the SUNA sensor, only a few of the stations from this 163 manuscript were part of the calibration set. Because of this, only calibrated SUNA nitrate data are 164 165 presented here.

166 2.3 DNA extraction

An ethanol cleaned PVC pipe cutter was used to open the 0.22 μm Sterivex (Millipore
Sigma) filters and an autoclaved scalpel used to remove the filter. Each filter was added to a 2
mL tube containing AP1 Buffer (Qiagen; Hilden, Germany) and silicon beads of 0.1- and 0.5mm size. Bead beating was done using a bead beating attachment on a Vortex-Genie® 2 and
vortexing at maximum speed (3200 RPM) for ~2 minutes and DNA was extracted using the
DNeasy Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen) following the manufacturer's protocol.

173 **2.4 DNA amplification and sequencing analysis**

174 To analyze for eukaryotic community composition, the SSU rRNA 18S V9 marker gene was amplified from DNA by PCR in triplicate using 1x master mix (Phusion HF Mastermix, 175 ThermoFisher) and primers used in the Earth Microbiome Project's standard 18S Illumina 176 Sequencing protocol (Stoeck et al., 2010) on a SimpliAmp thermal cycler (Applied Biosystems; 177 Waltham, MA, USA). Triplicate PCR products were pooled, and the amplified DNA was 178 179 purified using Mag-Beads (AMPure XP, Beckman Coulter; Indianapolis, Indiana, USA). The amplified DNA was then subject to another round of PCR, to attach MiSeq indices (Illumina; 180 San Diego, CA, USA), and Mag-Bead purified again. Sequencing was done using the Illumina 181 MiSeq Desktop Sequencer at Old Dominion University (Norfolk, Virginia, USA) using a 2×300-182 bp kit. Sequences were analyzed by pipeline analysis using DADA2 (Callahan et al., 2016), with 183 minor exceptions to the default analysis. Reads without primer sequences were discarded from 184 185 analysis while intact sequences had primers removed using cutadapt (Martin 2011). Average reads per sample were 66000, and Amplicon Sequence Variants (ASVs) were identified using 186 187 the BLASTN (Altschul et al., 1990) algorithm to an in-house database including 18S rRNA eukaryote sequences from the National Center for Biotechnology and Information (NCBI; 188 189 Bethesda, MD, USA) and eukaryotic sequences from SILVA (the German Network for 190 Bioinformatics Infrastructure; Bremen, Germany). To calculate the 18S rRNA A. catenella 191 relative abundance of phytoplankton, the read counts for 4 ASVs for A. catenella (>99% similar) 192 were combined and divided by the combined read counts for to all 18S rRNA phytoplankton hits 193 (which includes ASVs classified as diatoms, dinoflagellates, and haptophytes). We chose to 194 calculate relative abundance of A. catenella in acknowledgement of the compositional nature of high-throughput amplicon sequencing datasets (Gloor et al., 2017). 195

196 **2.5 qPCR assay**

197 Quantification of the dinoflagellates A. catenella and Alexandrium pacificum was done in triplicate on a StepOne Plus real-time PCR system (ThermoFisher) using the species specific 28S 198 rRNA qPCR assays of Hosoi-Tanabe and Sako (2005) with 1x TaqMan Fast Advanced Master 199 Mix (ThermoFisher). We note that Hosoi-Tanabe and Sako used the older nomenclature and 200 refer to A. catenella as A. tamarense and A. pacificum as A. catenella. Absolute 28S rRNA gene 201 quantification was done using standard curves created by serial dilution of synthetic plasmids 202 (GENEWIZ; South Plainfield, NJ, USA) for both A. pacificum (previously A. catenella) and A. 203 catenella (previously A. tamarense) although A. pacificum was never detected in our samples 204 205 and will not be discussed further. A. catenella qPCR efficiency was 89% and standards ranged from 55 to 5.5E8 gc/ μ l. 206

207 **2.6 Statistical analysis**

Significant difference between groups of samples was determined using a Kruskal-Wallis 208 209 (Kruskal and Wallis, 1952) test. This was done by comparing grouped samples collected on the 210 shelf (excluding station 2.2) at the surface and chl-*a* depths for the 4 occupations, the onset (A), during (B), and after (C, D) upwelling. The Kruskal-Wallis test was chosen due to a few samples 211 being below detection limit, causing group sample counts to be uneven, and the non-normal 212 distribution of residuals for the one-way ANOVA. Significant differences between individual 213 214 groups was done using Dunn's post hoc test. Significance is reported with a p-value below the α 215 criterion of 0.05. A linear regression analysis was used to compare log transformed A. catenella 216 18S rRNA relative sequence abundance and 28S rRNA absolute sequence abundance. This correlation was checked to determine if the changes in absolute and relative abundance of A. 217 218 *catenella* corroborated each other to support our argument that A. *catenella* sequence abundance was higher before upwelling. Additionally, a linear regression analysis compared the log 219

transformed A. catenella 28S rRNA sequence abundance and CTD fluorescence when A.

221 catenella 18S rRNA sequences accounted for more than 5% of the relative phytoplankton 18S

222 rRNA sequences. This analysis was done to compare fluorescence, absolute and relative

sequence abundance to add support to the argument that A. catenella was a primary

224 phytoplankton in the community before upwelling. Strength of relationship is reported as ρ and

significance is reported with a p-value below the α criterion of 0.05.

226 **3 Results**

227 **3.1 Hydrography**

228 The transect was occupied four times (A, B, C, D) at different stages of a wind-driven upwelling event and the physical context for the event is provided by the meteorological 229 230 information together with the AON mooring data (Fig. 2). Alongcoast wind velocity from ERA5 and the Utgiagvik weather station is shown in the top panel (Fig. 2A). Water column 231 232 alongstream velocity, salinity, and potential temperature and density (referenced to the sea surface) are shown in subsequent panels (Fig. 2B-D), covering the full progression of the 233 upwelling event. As the first transect was occupied, the alongcoast winds became upwelling 234 favorable. Subsequent to this, the salinity in the lower part of the water column increased and the 235 Beaufort shelfbreak jet reversed to the west. The second transect was carried out shortly after the 236 peak of the event, while the third occupation occurred after the upwelling had subsided and the 237 238 eastward-flowing Beaufort shelfbreak jet had become re-established. The fourth occupation took 239 place as a second, considerably weaker, upwelling event commenced.

The evolution of the large-scale wind and sea-level pressure (SLP) field is shown inSuppl. Fig. 1. Before the first upwelling event, the winds were northerly in the study region

associated with the eastern side of the atmospheric Beaufort High. During the upwelling event,
the Beaufort High had weakened, but a low-pressure system over Alaska led to a strong zonal
SLP gradient over the southern Beaufort Sea. After the event, high SLP was established over
Alaska weakening the zonal gradient in the study region, resulting in light easterly winds.

The vertical sections of temperature and density (Fig. 3) and nitrate (Suppl. Fig. 2) of the sampled transects reveal differences throughout the water column between the onset of the primary upwelling event and the subsequent three occupations during/after the event that generally agree with AON mooring data.

250 3.2 Alexandrium catenella assessment

251 FlowCAM samples taken during occupation A at the onset of upwelling imaged 252 relatively high levels of *Alexandrium* on the Beaufort Sea shelf (Suppl. Table 1, Suppl. Fig. 4) and coincided with the highest absolute and relative gene abundances (Fig. 3, Suppl. Table 1, 253 254 Suppl. Fig. 4). Based on the absolute 28S rRNA gene abundances of A. catenella along with the ratio of A. catenella 18S rRNA sequences to total 18S rRNA eukaryotic phytoplankton 255 sequences (diatoms, dinoflagellates, haptophytes), the threshold for being imaged by the 256 FlowCAM was an absolute 28S rRNA gene abundance of > 3.92E+09 gc L⁻¹ and a relative A. 257 catenella 18S rRNA abundance of the total phytoplankton community of >45% (Suppl. Table 258 1). 259

Grouping by occupation and averaging the surface and chl-*a* max samples, the 28S rRNA absolute gene abundance were found to be significantly different using a Kruskal-Wallis test (F=14.65, p=0.0021). Dunn's post hoc test comparing the groups individually (Table 1) found occupation A to be significantly different than occupations B, C, and D. While no significant 264 different was seen between occupations B, C, and D. The same pattern of results was seen with the relative abundance of A. catenella, where a significant difference was found between the 265 occupations (F = 18.57, p=0.0003). The only difference being that between occupations B and D 266 there was a significant difference (Table 2) 267 The 18S rRNA relative abundance of A. catenella sequencing reads to phytoplankton 268 269 sequencing reads is plotted against the absolute 28S rRNA gene abundance of A. catenella (gc L⁻ ¹) with both on a log scale (Fig. 4A). A linear regression showed a significant correlation ($r^2 =$ 270 0.87, p < 0.0001) between absolute gene abundance and relative abundance of A. catenella. The 271 272 relationship between absolute 28S rRNA gene abundance of A. catenella (when A. catenella was above 5% of the relative 18S rRNA phytoplankton community) and fluorescence (mg m⁻³) 273 measured by the CTD (Fig. 4B) also showed a significant correlation ($r^2 = 0.75$, p-value = 274 0.0006). When the A. catenella was below 5% of the 18S rRNA phytoplankton community, no 275 such relationship exists, suggesting that A. catenella was likely a primary phytoplankton in the 276 community before upwelling. Absolute gene abundance of A. pacificum was not found in any of 277 the samples and consequently is not included in Supplemental table 1 or discussed further. 278

279 4 Discussion

280 4.1 Hydrographic context of upwelling/relaxation states during sampling

The study analyzed *A. catenella* abundances through four stages of upwelling at the same location. As earlier studies have demonstrated that the alongcoast winds are most effective at driving upwelling (Nikolopoulos et al., 2009), we use that metric and data from a AON mooring to provide context for our transect sampling. Prior to the first occupation (A), the alongcoast winds were weakly out of the west, and the Beaufort shelfbreak jet was flowing eastward. As the 286 first section was being occupied, the winds were building out of the east and the Beaufort shelfbreak jet was in the process of reversing. Typically upwelling commences roughly half a 287 day after the Beaufort shelfbreak jet reverses (Pickart et al., 2009), but in this case the upwelling 288 was beginning at the same time as the flow switched directions, as indicated by the uplifting of 289 the isopycnals. The reason for this may be that a strong upwelling event in the region took place 290 291 from 27-29 August (not shown), and the isopycnals had not fully relaxed prior to the main upwelling event considered here. As such, we refer to the first occupation as "onset of 292 upwelling." 293

294 The second occupation (B) took place roughly a day after the peak easterly winds, at which point the isopycnals were close to their maximum elevation but beginning to relax. The 295 upper part (shallower than 80m) of the Beaufort shelfbreak jet remained reversed, while the 296 deeper part was starting to become re-established to the east, which is the typical sequence (Lin 297 et al., 2019). This crossing is referred to as "during upwelling." The third occupation (C) 298 occurred when the bulk of the Beaufort shelfbreak jet was again flowing eastward and the denser 299 isopycnals had descended significantly deeper, which corresponds to "after upwelling." The final 300 occupation (D) of the section was done during the start of another upwelling event that was 301 302 considerably shorter and weaker. When considered in the context of the primary event, this occupation is also referred to as "after upwelling." 303

The profile data from our transects revealed that, as the event was beginning and the Beaufort shelfbreak jet was switching directions (occupation A), weakly stratified warm water was present over the outer shelf. This consisted mainly of Alaskan Coastal Water (>4°C) with a layer of sea-ice melt water occupying the top 10 m. Seaward of the shelf, the cold halocline, centered at the 26.5 kg m⁻³ isopycnal, was at its deepest depth of the four transect occupations.

309 By contrast, during the next three occupations the warm water on the shelf was largely displaced. In particular, the signature of Alaskan Coastal Water nearly disappeared at the surface, replaced 310 by a thicker layer of sea-ice melt water (roughly 25 m thick) and a deep layer of colder, denser 311 Bering Summer Water along the bottom of the outer shelf. The stratification in the upper 50 m 312 became enhanced, which is consistent with past mooring results (Lin et al., 2019). Furthermore, 313 314 seaward of the shelf the halocline shoaled and became colder. We note, however, that the denser 27.0 and 27.5 kg m⁻³ isopycnals were at their shallowest depth during occupation B, consistent 315 with the AON mooring data indicating that this was near the height of the upwelling. 316

317 4.2 A. catenella presence on the Beaufort Shelf

This study confirms the presence and abundance of *Alexandrium* – specifically the 318 319 species A. catenella – on the Alaskan Beaufort Sea shelf using imaging, sequencing, and qPCR methods. It is known that dinoflagellates have higher gene copy numbers than other unicellular 320 eukaryotes (Cusick and Sayler, 2013; Lin, 2011), thus there is some concern when using 321 322 ribosomal gene abundance to analyze eukaryotic community composition due to this copy number variability. However, we are encouraged that when Alexandrium was imaged by 323 FlowCAM in a sample (n=5), it corresponded with the five highest samples in terms of A. 324 catenella 18S rRNA relative abundance of phytoplankton sequences, and the five highest 325 absolute 28S rRNA gene abundances of A. catenella. Furthermore, our combined approach 326 found that as the relative abundance of A. catenella, as a proportion of phytoplankton sequences, 327 increased, the absolute gene abundance of A. catenella in our samples increased. Based on our 328 results, the thresholds for visualization on the FlowCAM were > 3.92E+09 gc L⁻¹ for 28S rRNA 329 gene abundance, which was associated with >45% relative abundance of A. catenella in total 18S 330 rRNA reads. Even though we found the three methods of measuring A. catenella abundance to 331

corroborate with each other, because of known issues with variability in ribosomal gene 332 abundance discussed above and the small size of our dataset, we caution against using this value 333 as a hard threshold. We are encouraged, however, that with further sampling of A. catenella 334 using these methods it may be possible to determine with more certainty the threshold at which 335 A. catenella is imaged on the FlowCAM. A loftier but potentially achievable goal would be to 336 337 further determine a threshold associated with toxic blooms. This would potentially allow for the use of imaging equipment like FlowCAM to analyze samples collected from remote areas for 338 monitoring. 339

340 Previous work has estimated that the average number of 18S rRNA copies per cell of A. catenella is 46000 (Yarimizu et al., 2021). If we use this value to convert our results into cell 341 densities, the threshold density to be imaged on the FlowCAM was 67000 cells L⁻¹, which is an 342 order of magnitude higher than 1000 cells L^{-1} found to be the level at which A. *catenella* can 343 pose a health risk (Jester et al., 2009). We acknowledge that A. catenella 28S rRNA sequence 344 counts may be overestimated using this approach due to the qPCR standard curve method used 345 (Hou et al., 2010) and known variability in ribosomal copy numbers per cell depending on the 346 strain (Yarimizu et al., 2021). In addition, without knowing the level of toxin in these samples it 347 348 is unsure whether the abundance of A. catenella were at levels that could pose a health risk. That said, the three methods we used validate each other and may indicate that the cell densities of A. 349 *catenella* were at problematic levels before upwelling was at its peak. 350

351 **4.3** *A. catenella* upwelling response

The results show that the absolute and relative abundances of *A. catenella* were statistically different at the onset of the upwelling event (occupation A) versus during/after the event (occupations B, C, and D). More specifically, our qPCR results show ~2 orders of 355 magnitude higher A. catenella on the shelf and in the vicinity of the shelfbreak at the onset of the upwelling event when compared to samples collected during and after the event. The same 356 pattern was seen in the 18S rRNA relative gene abundance of A. catenella, where it accounted 357 for >40% of the eukaryotic phytoplankton sequencing reads at the start of upwelling and 358 decreased to <1% after the upwelling. There was one exception to these general patterns on the 359 360 shelf, which is that slightly higher relative abundance of 18S rRNA and absolute abundance of 28S rRNA were detected in the surface sample collected at the onshore start of the transect after 361 upwelling (occupation C). 362

It is widely understood that an increase in nutrients in the euphotic zone should lead to 363 higher algal biomass (Cushing, 1971; Iles et al., 2012; Jackson et al., 2011; Loubere, 2000; 364 Tenore et al., 1995), but the abundance of A. catenella dramatically dropped during the 365 upwelling when increased nitrate concentrations were found on the Alaskan Beaufort Sea shelf. 366 This is consistent with evidence that dinoflagellates often dominate the phytoplankton 367 368 community during lag phases between upwelling events, after diatoms have responded to the increase in nutrients (Lewitus et al., 2012). Alexandrium is thought to initiate blooms offshore 369 and accumulate in coastal areas only after upwelling favorable winds subside (Anderson et al., 370 371 2008). Nitrate profile data from the calibrated SUNA sensor enabled us to confirm that nitrate upwelling occurred with the shallowing of the isopycnals associated with wind shifts. It is 372 373 reasonable to assume that additional nutrient concentrations also increased with upwelling based 374 on previous work in the area (Eddy et al., 2004; Mundy et al., 2009). However, as additional nutrients such as silicic acid and phosphate were only measured on a handful of samples from the 375 broader cruise, we are unable to comment on whether species distributions changes could have 376

been associated with specific shifts in macronutrient ratios (i.e., between nitrate, phosphate,silicic acid ratios) or simply as a result of the arrival of elevated nutrients as a whole.

379 These results are supportive of our hypothesis that the Alexandrium population present in 380 our study site at the onset of upwelling had been transported there by the eastward-flowing Beaufort shelfbreak jet. This hypothesis is also consistent with previous data collected 105 km 381 382 west of our study site where high levels of Alexandrium were measured on a transect just east of 383 Barrow Canyon occupied in August 2018-2019 (Anderson et al., 2021a). In that study the cells 384 were found in the warm Alaskan Coastal Water and sea-ice melt water being advected eastward 385 in the Beaufort shelfbreak jet and it was suggested that the cells may have entered the water column from a local seed bed just east of the canyon (Anderson et al., 2021a). At the time, the 386 387 Barrow Canyon was the furthest east that Alexandrium had been observed along the northern Alaskan coast. Our work indicates that the proliferation of *Alexandrium* by the Beaufort 388 shelfbreak jet continues east much further than Barrow Canyon. Further evidence that the 389 Beaufort shelfbreak jet is the main conduit for Alexandrium proliferation into the Beaufort Sea is 390 that the sample from the upper slope (~41 km from the onshore end of the transect and further 391 offshore than the Beaufort shelfbreak jet) showed only slightly enhanced levels of Alexandrium 392 393 at the onset of upwelling. Additionally, test station samples collected at the start of the 394 expedition in the center of the Beaufort shelfbreak jet had similarly high A. catenella gene counts 395 as those observed in our main transect at the onset of upwelling. The absence of both the Alaskan 396 Coastal Water and the *Alexandrium* signal during occupations B, C, and D is likely due to the reversed Beaufort shelfbreak jet having advected them back to the west. Additionally, the 397 secondary circulation during the upwelling event would tend to transport material offshore in the 398 surface Ekman layer (Schulze and Pickart, 2012), which, together with enhanced wind mixing 399

during upwelling (Spall, 2004), could significantly reduce the surface signature of *Alexandrium*on the shelf.

402 4.4 A comment on numerical abundances of A. catenella

While our results found that the relative abundance of A. catenella at times accounted for 403 up to 45% of the phytoplankton 18S rRNA reads, it is important to note that this likely reflects 404 405 higher ribosomal gene counts found in dinoflagellates compared with other phytoplankton (Gong and Marchetti, 2019; Lin, 2011). In other words, it would likely be an overestimation to state that 406 407 A. catenella comprised 45% of the phytoplankton community at this time. That said, in samples collected at the onset of upwelling (and all samples where A. catenella accounted for > %5 of the 408 18S rRNA reads), fluorescence had a significant positive relationship with A. catenella absolute 409 410 gene abundance. Thus, while A. catenella may not have accounted for 45% of the phytoplankton community, we can infer that it was likely an important part of the phytoplankton biomass at the 411 onset of the upwelling. We acknowledge that the outlier in the top right corner of Fig. 4B 412 appears to skew the regression analysis. This potential outlier was sampled at the chlorophyll 413 max depth (depth at which fluorescence was highest) at the Test Station (Fig. 1), which was 414 located roughly in the middle of the shelfbreak jet before any upwelling had occurred. Both the 415 surface and chlorophyll max samples from this station were included in this visualization and 416 analysis to further analyze the contribution A. catenella had to the relative phytoplankton 417 community. With the limited number of samples, we did not want to exclude any available data 418 points. Removing the possible outlier point changes the absolute value of the regression and we 419 caution that the intent of this figure is not to quantify a relationship between gc L^{-1} of A. 420 421 *catenella* and fluorescence. The point of the exercise was to confirm that when the relative abundance of A. catenella 18S sequences accounted for a significant percentage of the 422

phytoplankton community 18S sequences, there was a corresponding increase in both 28S 423 absolute gene abundance of A. catenella and fluorescence, indicating that A. catenella was a 424 dominant component of the phytoplankton community in these samples. During and after the 425 upwelling no such relationship is seen between A. catenella gene abundance and fluorescence, 426 no Alexandrium images were observed by the FlowCAM, and there was low relative abundance 427 428 of A. catenella 18S rRNA reads. This suggests that, as the Beaufort shelfbreak jet reversed during upwelling, the A. catenella population decreased and it was no longer a dominant 429 430 phytoplankton in the region.

431 **4.5 Future monitoring**

A. catenella is one of the species of the Alexandrium genus that forms resting cysts as a 432 433 part of their life cycle, and *Alexandrium* cysts are known to have an internal clock to bloom when suitable conditions exist (Anderson et al., 2014). A. catenella cysts have been found in 434 temperature ranges from -0.6 to 26.8 °C, with the highest abundances found between 5 - 15 °C 435 436 (Marret and Zonneveld, 2003). The surface temperature on the shelf at the onset of the upwelling event was > 5 °C. As *Alexandrium* has the ability to produce resting cysts to survive and take 437 advantage of suitable conditions (Anderson et al., 2014; Brosnahan et al., 2017; Wall, 1971), it 438 may be important to monitor this area for future *Alexandrium* blooms and further expansion 439 associated with the Beaufort shelfbreak jet. Future monitoring may be especially important 440 441 considering that A. catenella has been observed in the California Current upwelling system as an opportunistic dinoflagellate that can germinate in a variety of conditions, including upwelling 442 (Pitcher et al., 2017), although our data did not show evidence of *Alexandrium* associated with 443 444 Arctic upwelling. The region of the shelf where A. catenella was observed is relatively shallow $(\sim 21 \text{ m to } 56 \text{ m})$, thus strong storms that lead to mixing events on the shelf, could resuspend 445

Alexandrium cysts and possibly lead to a bloom. While upwelling was seen to cause a sharp drop 446 in the abundance of A. catenella in our study, presumably the mixing caused by upwelling could 447 also cause a reintroduction of A. catenella cysts to the water column, which may lead to the 448 germination and proliferation of the cells as upwelling relaxes and warm Beaufort shelfbreak jet 449 water begins to flow on the shelf again. While in our study two competing factors were 450 451 documented to influence Alexandrium abundance, the Beaufort shelfbreak jet and upwelling/reversal of the Beaufort shelfbreak jet, another factor to consider is the resuspension 452 453 of A. catenella cysts and subsequent germination during suitable periods between upwelling 454 events. As was documented by Anderson et al. (2021a) a large cyst bed of A. catenella is located on the shelf west of our sampling site. This reinforces that more study is needed to accurately 455 document abundance and toxicity throughout this region, as the factors influencing A. catenella 456 abundance indicate likely prevalence and further dispersion of the HAB with periods of 457 decreased abundance during upwelling. Additional sampling in this area that includes analysis 458 459 of nutrients, targeted toxin testing, cell imaging, and sequencing analysis at a higher resolution covering a time period fully encompassing upwelling, relaxation, and standard flow of the 460 Beaufort shelfbreak jet, will likely allow for a stronger foundation to correlate A. catenella 461 462 abundance with non-upwelling and upwelling events. Importantly, these results can be added to harmful algal bloom modeling efforts to predict future occurrences of toxic levels of A. 463 catenella. 464

While not all species or even strains of *Alexandrium* produce saxitoxin (Anderson et al.,
2012), there have been documented cases of *Alexandrium* blooms, and saxitoxin
bioaccumulation, seen along the Alaskan coast up to and just east of Point Barrow (Lefebvre et
al., 2016). Presumably, these events were the result of the Alaskan Coastal Current bringing

warm water suitable for *Alexandrium* populations to thrive and they produced saxitoxin that 469 eventually led to marine mammal deaths. It has been noted that Alexandrium may produce 470 saxitoxin as a pheromone or as an indicator of cyst settlement (Wyatt and Jenkinson, 1997); thus, 471 if an *Alexandrium* bloom is observed in this area, saxitoxin and any further bioaccumulation will 472 need to be monitored closely. Due to the previously documented bioaccumulation of saxitoxin 473 474 seen along the coast of Alaska up to Point Barrow (Lefebvre et al., 2016), we can hypothesize that this proliferation will continue along the Alaskan Beaufort Sea coast because of delivery by 475 the warming Beaufort shelfbreak jet, the warming Arctic as a whole, and the potential for 476 477 transport from the cyst beds of *Alexandrium* west of our study site. This proliferation is a concern as fish, sea birds, and mammals, including bowhead and beluga whales, are known to 478 479 spawn in this region primarily due upwelling events that cause increased primary production and zooplankton proliferation (Ashjian et al., 2010). Any proliferation of a potential toxin-producing 480 organism that can impact upper trophic levels in the region would be especially consequential to 481 482 the Inuvialuit, indigenous people in the western Canadian Arctic, who depend on this ecosystem (Ayles et al., 2016). 483

Finding A. catenella this far east on the Alaskan Beaufort Sea shelf indicates that the 484 485 Beaufort shelfbreak jet continues transporting warm water suitable for *Alexandrium* population expansion well past Barrow Canyon. It should also be noted that strong westerly winds are 486 487 common in this region during summer, which accelerate the Beaufort shelfbreak jet and lead to 488 downwelling (Foukal et al., 2019). This is notable, as it is similar to an anomaly that aligned with an A. catenella (referred to as A. fundyense in cited study) bloom in the Gulf of Maine where 489 downwelling favorable winds were thought to have caused a coastal accumulation of 490 Alexandrium (McGillicuddy et al., 2014). Easterly winds in the Alaskan Beaufort Sea intensify 491

in the fall, and upwelling activity increases (Lin et al., 2016; Pickart et al., 2013). This tends to 492 slow the Beaufort shelfbreak jet, flux warm surface water offshore, and upwell colder water from 493 the basin. Indeed, Bering Summer Water replaced much of the Alaskan Coastal Water over the 494 outer shelf on occupations B-D. This upwelled water was several degrees colder, changing the 495 environmental conditions away from those likely suitable for *Alexandrium*. These results lead us 496 497 to suspect that if A. catenella were to bloom, it would occur earlier in the Arctic summer when the Beaufort shelfbreak jet advects warm water to the Beaufort Sea and is not subject to as much 498 upwelling. It is worth noting, however, that there are evolutionary adaptations in *Alexandrium* 499 500 species that could allow for survival during upwelling, such as temporary chain formations and shifts in swimming velocity to adjust to turbulence (Smayda and Trainer, 2010). These 501 502 evolutionary advantages suggest that increased upwelling alone may not deter Alexandrium from surviving on the Alaskan Beaufort Sea shelf. 503

504 5 Conclusion

505 Heat transport by currents into the Arctic is predicted to continue increasing (Marshall et al., 2014; Marshall et al., 2015) presumably resulting in the Beaufort shelf continuing to warm. 506 Higher temperatures in coastal waters have been determined to cause the accumulation of A. 507 *catenella* in the Gulf of Maine (He and McGillicuddy Jr., 2008), and, with the likely warming of 508 the Beaufort Sea shelf, we can predict that the same may occur here. However, since upwelling 509 510 along the Beaufort Sea shelf is predicted to increase as well (Pickart et al., 2013), there are competing forces at play that could influence *Alexandrium* proliferation in the region. Either 511 way, it is prudent to further evaluate this area for A. catenella cell densities, toxin production and 512 513 determine the extent to which the Beaufort shelfbreak jet and upwelling influence levels of A. catenella. 514

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- 529 Data availability: Sample and station information, including qPCR results, and nitrate profiles
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- 532 SKQ201713S) Raw sequence files can be accessed via NCBI SRA
- 533 (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra; BioProject ID: PRJNA743005). FlowCAM images can be
- found on Ecotaxa (https://ecotaxa.obs-vlfr.fr/; Project ID: skq201713s).

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- **Table 1.** P-values from Dunn's post hoc test comparing differences in 28S rRNA absolute gene
- abundance of *A. catenella* sequencing reads in shelf samples (surface and chl-*a*) between

750 occupations of the transect. ns – not significant.	
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	А	В	С	D
А				
В	0.022			
С	0.020	ns		
D	0.005	ns	ns	

- **Table 2.** P-values from Dunn's post hoc test comparing differences in 18S rRNA relative
- abundance of *A. catenella* sequencing reads in shelf samples (surface and chl-*a*) between

755 occupations of the transect. ns – not significan	nt.
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	А	В	С	D
А				
В	0.043			
С	0.0015	ns		
D	< 0.0001	ns	0.040	

759 **Figure 1**

Map of the study area, including place names, and schematic circulation of the region. The flow emanating from Barrow Canyon splits, with the eastward-flowing portion forming the Beaufort Shelfbreak Jet. The locations of the repeat transect, the AON mooring, and the test station are marked (see the legend). The bathymetry is from IBCAO v3. The inset shows an enlarged view

of the measurement sites used in the study.

765 **Figure 2**

Timeseries of the upwelling event. (A) The alongcoast wind speed from the Utqiaġvik weather station and the ERA5 reanalysis. Negative values correspond to winds from the east. The grey bars denote the time periods of the four ship transects occupations. (B) Alongstream velocity, where positive is to the east. (C) Salinity (color) overlain by potential density (contours, kg m⁻³). The blue dots denote the locations of the MicroCATs on the mooring. (D) Same as (C) except for potential temperature (color).

772 **Figure 3**

Vertical sections of potential temperature (color) overlain by potential density (contours, kg m⁻³)
for (A) onset of upwelling, (B) during upwelling, and (C, D) after upwelling. Station locations
indicated by triangles across the top of the section with blue triangles indicating those at which
surface water was collected. While the AON mooring is not on the transect, the location of the
mooring with respect to the shelf on the sampled transect is plotted as a blue line for reference
with dots indicating the locations of MicroCATs along the mooring profile. The corresponding

concentrations of absolute *A. catenella* 28S rRNA gene abundance from surface collected samples are plotted above the sections, with the relative fraction of *A. catenella* 18S rRNA of total eukaryotic phytoplankton (dinoflagellates, diatoms, haptophytes) 18S rRNA indicated by the symbol size. Thresholds that were imaged by FlowCAM were 28S rRNA gene abundance of > 3.92E+09 gc L⁻¹ and a relative *A. catenella* 18S rRNA abundance of the total phytoplankton community of > 45%.

785 **Figure 4**

Observed relationships between *A. tamarense* 28S gene abundance and other measured variables.
A) Relationship between relative *A. catenella* 18S rRNA as a fraction of total eukaryotic
phytoplankton (dinoflagellates, diatoms, haptophytes)18S rRNA and absolute *A. catenella* 28S
rRNA gene abundance; both are on a log scale. B) Relationship plotted between fluorescence
and absolute 28S rRNA gene abundance of *A. catenella*; not on a log scale. Samples that had a
relative abundance of *A. catenella* above 5% (from 18S analysis) are solid black circles and
samples that had a relative abundance below 5% are empty black circles.













