

1 **Tasman Sea biological response to dust storm events during the austral**  
2 **spring of 2009.**

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9

10 **Abstract**

11

12 During the austral spring of 2009 several significant dust storms occurred in SE Australia including  
13 the so-called 'Red Dawn' event in late September. Estimates of 2.5 Mt total suspended particulate  
14 sediment lost off the Australian coast in the 3000 km long dust plume, make it the largest off-  
15 continent loss of soil ever reported. Much of this material was transported over the coastline of New  
16 South Wales and into the adjacent Tasman Sea. Long term model simulations of dust deposition over  
17 the southwest Tasman Sea suggest the amount deposited during the spring of 2009 was about  
18 three-times the long term monthly average. Previous satellite-based analyses of the biological  
19 response of Tasman Sea waters to dust-derived nutrients are equivocal or have observed no  
20 response. Satellite-derived surface chlorophyll concentrations in the southern Tasman during the  
21 spring of 2009 are well above the climatological mean, with positive anomalies as high as 0.5 mg m<sup>-3</sup>.  
22 Dust transport simulations indicate strong deposition to the ocean surface, which during both the  
23 'Red Dawn' event and mid-October 2009 dust storm events was enhanced by heavy precipitation.  
24 Cloud processing of the dust aerosol may have enhanced iron bioavailability for phytoplankton  
25 uptake.

26 **Keywords :** phytoplankton, dust storms, Tasman Sea, Australia

27

## 28 **Introduction**

29 Aeolian deposition of nutrient-rich dust has been shown to stimulate phytoplankton growth in  
30 various oligotrophic oceanic regions of the Northern Hemisphere (Bishop *et al.* 2002; Harrison *et al.*  
31 1999; Lenos *et al.* 2001). Although the evidence is limited, event-based analyses in waters proximal  
32 to the Australian continent have shown similar phytoplankton responses to dust deposition in the  
33 Southern Ocean south of Australia (Gabric *et al.* 2010), and in subtropical waters off southern  
34 Queensland (Shaw *et al.* 2008). However, other event-based studies have found little or no  
35 phytoplankton response to even major dust storm events in Australian waters (Mackie *et al.* 2008).  
36 Taking a climatological approach, Cropp *et al.* (2013) analysed a 20-year record of air parcel  
37 trajectories from the Lake Eyre Basin (LEB) in central Australia, and argued that marine biological  
38 receptivity to dust-derived nutrients is seasonally variable, and often not in synchrony with the  
39 timing of dust deposition. Cropp *et al.* (2013) suggest this may explain why some large dust storm  
40 events have not always produced a clear phytoplankton response in ocean waters adjacent to the  
41 continent.

42 Dust storm frequency in Australia is strongly seasonal and related to wind conditions, rainfall, and  
43 vegetation patterns, with peak dust storm activity in northern Australia occurring during spring and  
44 early summer, and activity in southern Australia reaching a maximum during summer (McTainsh and  
45 Leys 1993). Dust from Australian continental sources such as the LEB is entrained by warm pre-  
46 frontal northerly winds, frontal westerlies and post-frontal southerlies (Strong *et al.* 2010) and  
47 transported either to the north-west over the Indian Ocean, south over the Southern Ocean, or  
48 southeast over the Tasman Sea in association with the west-to-east passage of cold fronts (McTainsh  
49 1998). During the austral spring and summer, the northerly migration of the band of cold fronts  
50 contributes to increased dust storm activity over south-eastern Australia (McTainsh, 1998) and  
51 increases the likelihood of dust deposition over the adjacent oceans. Dust deposition events in the  
52 Subantarctic Southern Ocean have resulted in strong phytoplankton growth (Gabric *et al.* 2010),  
53 however, analyses of dust deposition over the Tasman Sea have not revealed a similar  
54 phytoplankton response (Mackie *et al.* 2008).

55 An anomalously intense dust storm event on 22 and 23 September 2009, called "Red Dawn" by the  
56 media, most likely originated in the southern LEB, the Strzelecki sub-basin and western and central  
57 New South Wales (NSW) and was the largest to pass over Sydney, Australia (as measured by its  
58 effect on visibility) since records began in 1940. Estimates of 2.54 Mt total suspended particulate  
59 sediment lost off the Australian coast in the 3000 km long dust plume, make it the largest off-  
60 continent loss of soil ever reported (Leys *et al.* 2011). The vertical distribution of dust from lidar

61 satellite data and analysis of model results also indicate that significant amounts of dust aerosols  
62 were transported over the Tasman Sea toward New Zealand (Chooari *et al.* 2012). Mineralogical  
63 analyses of the Red Dawn event showed the dust's elemental composition included high amounts of  
64 Si (24%) and Fe (6%), with 50% of the particles in the <10  $\mu\text{m}$  particle size range, indicating long-  
65 range transport from source (Aryal *et al.* 2012).

66 Presented here is a detailed analysis of the marine biological response in the Tasman Sea from 25-  
67 40°S during September–October, 2009. The impact of dust deposition to the ocean surface is  
68 evaluated using satellite-derived estimates of phytoplankton biomass, as indicated by surface  
69 chlorophyll (CHL), and atmospheric aerosol burden, indicated by aerosol optical depth (AOD). To  
70 examine the impact on the Tasman Sea, we have simulated contemporaneous atmospheric dust  
71 load and deposition over the Tasman using a regional dust transport model that provides daily data  
72 for the study period.

## 73 **Materials and Methods**

74

### 75 *Study Region Characteristics*

76 Lying between the Coral Sea and the Southern Ocean, the Tasman Sea (Fig. 1) spans the latitudes  
77 30–50°S, extending over 2800 km north–south, and includes sub-tropical to Subantarctic water  
78 masses (Anon. 1953). The main geostrophic feature along the eastern continental shelf is the East  
79 Australian Current (EAC), which flows southward until near 32°S where it detaches from the coast  
80 (Godfrey *et al.* 1980; Ridgway and Dunn 2003). The EAC then veers east between 32°S and 34°S to  
81 form the Tasman Front, where it flows across the Tasman Sea (Suthers *et al.* 2011). The  
82 hydrodynamic situation south of the Tasman Front is complex with a large number of mesoscale  
83 eddies, some semi-permanent features, originating within the EAC, and termed the 'Eddy Avenue'  
84 (Everett *et al.* 2012), that can significantly affect the local phytoplankton biomass (Everett *et al.*  
85 2012; Suthers *et al.* 2011). Cyclonic (upwelling) eddies within this eddy field have almost double the  
86 CHL ( $0.35 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ ) of anticyclonic eddies ( $0.18 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ ) (Everett *et al.* 2012). Observations from a  
87 long-term ocean station off eastern Tasmania show that the southward penetration of the EAC has  
88 increased over the past 60 years (Ridgway 2007).

89 Spanning such a large meridional area, the Tasman Sea is characterised by high spatial heterogeneity  
90 in biological activity. Macro-nutrients are low in the northern sub-tropical region (Ellwood *et al.*  
91 2013), but high in the southern Tasman (Bowie *et al.* 2011). Longhurst (2007) states that the

92 southern Tasman (east of Tasmania) exhibits a typical spring bloom with CHL maximal in late  
93 September or early October. However, interannual variability in CHL is high with the bloom onset  
94 varying by as much as four months at a fixed location. Satellite-derived climatologies of CHL in the  
95 northern Tasman Sea show a peak in winter (May–October), decreasing to low levels from  
96 November to April. In March, high CHL is concentrated in the Subtropical Convergence zone near  
97 40°S (Hayes *et al.* 2005).

98 Silicate concentrations along the east coast of the Australian continent are low (typically < 2μM) and  
99 have declined in recent decades (Condie and Dunn 2006; Thompson *et al.* 2009), possibly due to a  
100 change in the long-term supply from southward-flowing EAC water (Ridgway 2007). The role of Fe in  
101 mediating macro-nutrient uptake in phytoplankton is well documented with growth rates low in Fe-  
102 depleted regions (de Baar *et al.* 1999; Timmermans *et al.* 2004). Given the significant decline in  
103 surface silicate over the period 1947–2004, both Fe and silicate co-limitation may affect  
104 phytoplankton growth in the Tasman Sea, and the occasional deposition of Fe and silicate-rich dust  
105 may promote diatoms blooms. In a meridional transect from 33–43°S during summer, Hassler *et al.*  
106 (2014) note that cyanobacteria dominate in subtropical waters of the northern Tasman Sea, with  
107 non-diazotroph phytoplankton nitrogen limited. This contrasted with the subantarctic water mass in  
108 the southern Tasman Sea, where the phytoplankton community was dominated by a bloom of  
109 haptophytes. The low productivity in the subantarctic zone was explained by light limitation, but  
110 nitrogen, silicic acid, as well as Fe, were all depleted to the extent that they could become co-  
111 limiting. We note that *Trichodesmium spp.*, dinitrogen-fixing cyanobacteria, often form extensive  
112 blooms in subtropical ocean waters off north-eastern Australia (Carpenter *et al.* 1992). However, of  
113 relevance here, is that *Trichodesmium*, unlike other phytoplankton, are able to mediate dust  
114 dissolution, most likely via reduction (Rubin *et al.* 2011). Several field studies document the ability of  
115 *Trichodesmium* to utilize Fe by accelerating the rate of Fe dissolution from oxides and dust, through  
116 as yet unspecified cell-surface processes (Rubin *et al.* 2011; Shaked and Lis 2012).

117 Analysis of ocean colour data reveals that the Tasman Sea contains the largest non-coastal surface  
118 CHL concentrations within the South Pacific Ocean, with the variability in phytoplankton  
119 concentrations linked to mesoscale eddies (Tilburg *et al.* 2002). Upwelling and downwelling  
120 associated with these eddies can increase vertical mixing and nutrient concentrations in the upper  
121 ocean. Generally, high-phytoplankton concentrations are confined either to cold-core cyclonic  
122 eddies or along the coast, where upwelling can transport nutrients into the euphotic zone and  
123 stimulate phytoplankton growth (Suthers *et al.* 2011). High resolution eddy-resolving modelling  
124 suggests enhanced eddy activity with climate change may increase the nutrient supply to the upper

125 ocean and cause an increase in the phytoplankton concentrations and primary productivity by 10%  
126 in the western Tasman Sea (Matear *et al.* 2013).

127 Long-term measurements at an inshore location, Port Hacking (similar to 34°S), show a  
128 phytoplankton community that is dominated by diatoms during spring and with maximal CHL  
129 between August–October (Thompson *et al.* 2009). SeaWiFS CHL anomalies show substantial  
130 (~+100% of monthly mean) episodic blooms occur at Port Hacking, with notable events in August  
131 1998, October 2002 and January 2007. Although these are not convincingly explained, there is some  
132 evidence that dust-derived nutrients are a causative factor in the increased frequency of coastal  
133 phytoplankton blooms in NSW (Ajani *et al.* 2011).

134 Based on analysis of dust storm seasonality and aeolian transport from the continent, the likelihood  
135 of dust deposition over the Tasman Sea is relatively low from January through August, moderate  
136 during early spring, September–October, and low from November–December (Cropp *et al.* 2013).  
137 However, Cropp *et al.* (2013) found that ocean biological receptivity (as measured by mixed layer  
138 CHL and irradiance) to an injection of atmospheric nutrients is low during spring, so that a bloom is  
139 unlikely to develop at this time. This is consistent with analysis of a dust storm that passed over the  
140 southern Tasman during October 2003 and that produced no discernible phytoplankton response 7  
141 to 30 days after the dust storm (Boyd *et al.* 2004; Mackie *et al.* 2008).

142 A dust storm during early February 2005 coincided with sampling in the northern Tasman (in the  
143 vicinity of the Tasman Front) and although there was an increase in mixed layer (ML) iron (Fe)  
144 concentrations, no increase in primary production post-dust deposition was observed (Ellwood *et al.*  
145 2013). Field data collected in the north-eastern Tasman (~29°S, 170°E) in March–April, 2006 during  
146 and after a cyclone, showed elevated surface ocean inventories of Fe, suggestive of a dust source,  
147 which was probably enhanced by anomalously high wet deposition (Law *et al.* 2011). Shipboard  
148 dust-addition experiments showed that diazotrophic nitrogen fixation increased by an order of  
149 magnitude (Law *et al.* 2011). The observed ten-fold increase in nitrogen fixation in situ exceeded  
150 that reported in other nutrient perturbation experiments despite comparatively low concentrations  
151 of in situ dissolved Fe, indicating that Fe bioavailability may be a critical factor in determining the  
152 phytoplankton response to dust-derived nutrients in the Tasman Sea.

153 The bioavailability of Fe in the ocean requires it to be in a soluble form as one precondition, and Fe  
154 in mineral dust is typically insoluble (Mackie *et al.* 2008). However, the factors affecting Fe  
155 dissolution are multiple and complex, and include its different possible phases (particulate, colloidal,  
156 soluble), and the presence of Fe-binding ligands, which may lead to a redefinition of the term

157 'dissolved iron' (Breitbarth *et al.* 2010). Jickells and Spokes (2001) report that overall solubility of  
158 aerosol Fe at seawater pH is 0.8–2.1% of the total Fe deposited, however, wet-deposited mineral  
159 aerosols had a much higher soluble Fe (14%) than dry deposited. The influence of aerosol cloud  
160 processing on enhancing Fe solubility has been noted in several studies (Shi *et al.* 2009; Shi *et al.*  
161 2012; Zhang *et al.* 2013).

### 162 *Dust event observations*

163 The reduction in atmospheric visibility during a dust storm, or other dust entrainment event, is  
164 referred to as dust visibility reduction (DVR), and this can be used as a quantitative measure of the  
165 intensity of an event (Gabric *et al.* 2010). DVR is computed as follows:

$$166 \text{ DVR} = V_{\text{max}} - V_{\text{rec}} ,$$

167 where,  $V_{\text{max}}$  is the upper limit of measured visibility (50 km) as used by Australian Bureau of  
168 Meteorology (ABM) observers, and  $V_{\text{rec}}$  is the recorded visibility associated with the dust event. DVR  
169 provides a numerical value for dust entrainment event intensity (from 0 to 50km) without the need  
170 to classify events into different types. The DVR data is presented as a cumulative total of those  
171 observer stations recording an event (rather than an average across stations) because, in our opinion  
172 this is a better way of illustrating the combined effects of the frequency and intensity of dust  
173 entrainment events. High cumulative DVR values, therefore, indicate that many ABM stations were  
174 recording dust and that most of these stations recorded severe dust conditions. DVR data was  
175 gathered from a total of 138 observing stations which included those in Queensland south of  
176 latitude 23.3 degrees (Rockhampton), and all stations in NSW.

### 177 *Dust transport and deposition model*

178 The connection between individual dust storm events in southern Australia and resultant deposition  
179 over the adjacent ocean was investigated using the integrated wind erosion and dust transport  
180 model (CEMSYS) to simulate the daily deposition during Sept–Dec 2009. The CEMSYS model has  
181 been used for modelling several dust storms in Australia (Lu and Shao 2001; Shao and Leslie 1997)  
182 and was successfully validated using concurrent dust concentration data for a major dust storm  
183 event that moved north-east over the continent during October 2002 (McTainsh *et al.* 2005; Shao *et al.*  
184 *et al.* 2007). CEMSYS is a process-based model which couples an atmospheric sub-model, a wind  
185 erosion sub-model, and a dust transport and deposition sub-model. These sub-models are supported  
186 by a GIS database. The structure and details of the various sub-models is outlined in Shao and Leslie

187 (1997) and Lu and Shao (2001). CEMSYS takes into account the atmospheric conditions (wind speed,  
188 rainfall and temperature), soil conditions (soil texture and soil water) and surface vegetation.

189 For this study, CEMSYS was run at 0.45° x 0.45° resolution over the domain 108°E–168.75°E, 8.1°S–  
190 57.6°S, which covers the Australian continent, Southern Ocean and Tasman Sea for the simulation  
191 period. Atmospheric conditions used in the CEMSYS simulations for each day in the simulation  
192 period were obtained from HIRES, a High Resolution limited area atmospheric prediction model  
193 developed by Leslie (1998). Land surface information required for the CEMSYS simulations is  
194 summarised in Table 1. It was assumed that vegetation cover was slowly varying and therefore  
195 constant for each month in the simulation. Vegetation cover for each month was estimated based  
196 on each month’s Leaf Area Index (LAI) calculated from MODIS NDVI data using the empirical  
197 relationships developed by McVicar et al. (1996b). Soil texture across the continent was divided up  
198 into USDA soil texture classes. Each soil class was characterised by a particle-size density function.  
199 The particle-size distributions of each soil class were considered to be unchanged during wind  
200 erosion events. Soil moisture varied considerably during the simulation period and was modelled  
201 accordingly within CEMSYS (Shao *et al.* 2007).

## 202 *Satellite Data*

203 The Tasman Sea sub-region selected for the satellite data analysis covers 25–40°S and 150–170°E  
204 and includes the area under the path of the Red Dawn dust plume. Strictly, the northern extent of  
205 our study region extends into the Coral Sea as the Tasman’s northern boundary is defined as 30°S  
206 (Anon. 1953). Daily and 8-day MODIS (Aqua) binned CHL and AOD data at 550-nm and 4-km  
207 resolution are retrieved for the period September–December 2009. The study region is divided into  
208 five-degree latitude bands for statistical analysis. Climatological mean CHL is derived from the  
209 available MODIS 8-day archive (2002–2013) and anomalies are computed from this mean. Rainfall  
210 rate data at a resolution of 0.25° latitude-longitude are obtained from the Special Sensor  
211 Microwave/Imager (SSM/I) archive maintained by Remote Sensing Systems and sponsored by the  
212 NASA Earth Science MEaSUREs Program ([www.remss.com](http://www.remss.com)).

213

## 214 **Results and Discussion**

### 215 *Synoptic Meteorology and Dust Deposition*

216 Fig. 2a shows the synoptic mean sea level barometric pressure charts just before and during the ‘Red  
217 Dawn’ dust storm event from 22–25 September 2009 (days of the year 265–268). On 22 and 23

218 September 2009, a broad area of low pressure dominated south-eastern Australia, while a cold front  
219 stretched from 28–37°S and a large low pressure trough stretched from 12– 35°S. With the passage  
220 of the trough and the cold front from west to east, wind direction over the LEB and western NSW  
221 changed from north or north-westerly to south-west and westerly (Leys *et al.* 2011). During and  
222 prior to the ‘Red Dawn’ event, winds recorded in the western part of NSW were between 80 and 100  
223 km/h and elevated dust was recorded at numerous Dustwatch stations across NSW on 22 and 23  
224 September (<http://www.environment.nsw.gov.au/resources/dustwatch/DWNL090928.pdf>).

225 MODIS Terra pseudo-true colour imagery captured for September 22–23 (Fig. 3a) show the passage  
226 and extent of the dust plume as it crosses the coast and moves north-east over the Tasman Sea. The  
227 dust is clearly entrained in north-westerly winds associated with a cyclonic system to the south (Fig.  
228 3b). On 25 September a subsequent cold front passed over the same region. Of relevance to the  
229 subsequent pattern of dust deposition over the Tasman Sea, is the intense cyclonic system centred  
230 at approximately at 40°S, 165°E on 23 and 24 of September (Fig. 2).

231 The sum of the DVR values during September–October 2009 from all observing stations which  
232 recorded a dust event (including multiple daily DVR records when they occurred) is shown in Fig. 4a.  
233 Of the 61 days in September and October 2009, 40 days (or 65.5%) were dusty somewhere in the  
234 defined monitoring region. The most active day was September 23 when 107 (or 77.5%) of 138  
235 stations recorded dust. The ‘Red Dawn’ event was followed by two smaller events in late  
236 September/early October, plus another dust storm (61 stations involved) in mid-October as shown in  
237 the DVR time series for the September–October period (Fig. 4a).

238 The Hovmoller plot of the CEMSYS simulated dust deposition (Fig. 5b-c) shows strong deposition  
239 between 25–35°S (Fig. 5b-d) on day 266 (Sept 23), following the ‘Red Dawn’ dust storm on day 265,  
240 and also further south (30–40°S) on day 268 (Sept 25). This confirms that the dust plume transport  
241 was driven by the cyclonic low pressure system which was centred on the Tasman Sea between 35-  
242 40°S on the 23 September (Fig. 2), transported north to south and then likely rained out. Another  
243 strong dust deposition event is simulated on days 286–287 (October 13–14) with dust again  
244 deposited over a large latitude band, especially east of 155°E (Fig. 5b-d).

245 Fig. 6a-b show the 3-day average rainfall rate for 22–24 Sept and 13–15 October from the SSM/I  
246 sensor, and confirms widespread precipitation over the Tasman Sea on both occasions. Fig. 6c-d  
247 show the CEMSYS simulated proportion of wet deposition for these two periods, confirming that  
248 extensive wet deposition occurred over the southern Tasman, particularly during the September  
249 event. As noted above, cloud processing of the dust aerosol followed by wet deposition likely



250 enhanced the deposition rates and the solubility of dust-derived Fe deposited to the ocean during  
251 these events.

### 252 *Satellite AOD and CHL*

253 The MODIS AOD daily time series (Fig. 4b) shows a strong spike from 22–24 September, which is  
254 remarkable as the AOD values were averaged over the entire Tasman study region. The MODIS 3-day  
255 average AOD (Fig. 4c) confirms the extensive impact of the dust plume on AOD and atmospheric  
256 aerosol burden.

257 To illustrate the meridional change in bloom phenology in the Tasman, the climatological mean  
258 monthly CHL derived from the MODIS archive is presented in five-degree latitude bands in Fig. 7. The  
259 CHL peak occurs later in the year with increasing latitude; the timing of peak CHL ranging from  
260 August in subtropical waters to December, south of 40°S. The magnitude of the seasonal CHL peak  
261 also increases markedly with latitude, from 0.23 mg m<sup>-3</sup> in subtropical waters to 0.47 mg m<sup>-3</sup> in the  
262 subantarctic zone.

263 Hovmoller latitude-time plots of MODIS 8-day CHL concentrations and climatology (Fig. 8a-b) show  
264 that the phytoplankton response seems to be largely confined to the south of the Tasman Front, at  
265 approximately 32°S (Fig. 8c, 9c), with the greatest positive anomalies (>0.6 mg m<sup>-3</sup>) occurring south  
266 of 35°S between days 270-280, even though deposition was simulated further north (Fig. 5).  
267 Assuming that dust-derived Fe stimulated the phytoplankton response, this is consistent with the  
268 observations of Ellwood et al. (2013) who suggested that Fe was unlikely to limit primary production  
269 north of the Tasman Front. Alternatively, it may also suggest that the dust-derived Fe deposited in  
270 the northern Tasman was less soluble and therefore less available for phytoplankton.

### 271 *Baseline Dust Inputs to the Tasman Sea*

272 Fig. 10 shows the annual dust deposition (g m<sup>-2</sup>yr<sup>-1</sup>) from a previous CEMSYS model simulation for  
273 the period 2001–2011 in the region 30-45°S, 145-154°E (shown as shaded in the map insert), which  
274 includes the southwest Tasman Sea and subantarctic waters to the south. Although this area  
275 excludes the northern and eastern Tasman, which were affected by dust from the Red Dawn event,  
276 the seasonality and episodic nature of dust storm events is clear, with 2009 the fourth highest  
277 annual deposition in the time series. The mean dust deposited over the southwest Tasman during  
278 the spring of 2009 was 0.17 Mt per month, which is almost three times the long-term average  
279 monthly dust deposition of 0.063 ± 0.10 Mt and underscores the intensity of the 2009 dust storm  
280 season.

281 It is interesting to estimate the amount of dust-derived Fe that was delivered to the Tasman surface  
282 waters during the Red Dawn event. Table 2 gives the CEMSYS modelled dust deposition for 22-25  
283 September 2009, in ten  $3^{\circ} \times 3^{\circ}$  cells that cover most of the Tasman Sea. There are clear spatial  
284 gradients in deposition with higher values near the Australian coast, and in the northern Tasman.  
285 The east-west spatial gradient in modelled deposition is broadly consistent with the satellite data on  
286 AOD given in Figure 4c, bearing in mind that the relationship between dust loading, satellite AOD  
287 and dust deposition is complex. Assuming a mean depositional flux of  $1 \times 10^{-8} \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  and an Fe  
288 content of 3.5% for Australian dust (Mackie *et al.* 2005), this equates to a flux of  $3.5 \times 10^{-10} \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  of  
289 particulate Fe, corresponding to a delivery of  $0.12 \text{ mg Fe m}^{-2}$  over the four-day Red Dawn period. By  
290 way of comparison, Jickells *et al.* (2005) use the results from three modelling studies to derive a  
291 composite estimate of annual dust deposition over the Tasman Sea in range  $0.2\text{--}1 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  ( $\cong 0.6\text{--}$   
292  $3 \times 10^{-8} \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ). It is also interesting to note that the deposition flux over the Tasman during the  
293 Red Dawn event was a factor of five higher than that modelled over the Subantarctic Southern  
294 Ocean during the very active 2002 dust storm season (Gabric *et al.* 2010).

295 The September–November period coincides with rapid shoaling of the ML in the Tasman, from 160m  
296 to 40m (Tilburg *et al.* 2002). Assuming an ocean ML depth of 100m during late September, the ML  
297 particulate Fe concentration would be  $0.0012 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ . However, given a typical oceanic vertical  
298 mixing coefficient of  $10^{-4} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$  it would take approximately 12 days for a conservative tracer to be  
299 mixed uniformly over a 100m ML, which is unlikely for particulate Fe, given dissolution and rapid  
300 uptake by phytoplankton (Bowie *et al.* 2009). A more reasonable estimate of the particulate Fe  
301 concentration in the upper 10m of the water column is  $0.012 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$  or  $0.21 \text{ nmole L}^{-1}$ . This  
302 compares with observed surface values of particulate Fe of about  $0.05\text{--}0.2 \text{ nmole L}^{-1}$  in the  
303 subantarctic zone, measured at Station P3 ( $46^{\circ}\text{S}$ ,  $153^{\circ}\text{E}$ ) during January–February 2007 (Bowie *et al.*  
304 2009). Interestingly, there was quite low dust storm deposition over the SW Tasman Sea during 2007  
305 (see Fig. 10).

306 Perhaps the largest uncertainty in such estimates is the solubility and bioavailability of this  
307 particulate Fe. A broad range of physical, chemical and biological factors can affect dust-derived Fe  
308 solubility in both the marine atmosphere and upper ocean (Baker and Croot 2008). Jickells and  
309 Spokes (2001) report that overall solubility of aerosol Fe at seawater pH for wet deposited mineral  
310 aerosols is a much higher than for dry deposited (14% compared with about 1%), which was indeed  
311 the situation in the southern Tasman during the Red Dawn event (see Fig 6). A physical control on  
312 aerosol Fe solubility has been suggested by Baker and Jickells (2006), namely the preferential  
313 removal of larger particles during long-range transport leading to reduced modal size of the dust

314 population. Such smaller dust particles have a correspondingly larger surface area to volume ratio,  
315 and hence a greater proportion of their Fe content close enough to the particle surface to dissolve.  
316 Given the source area for the dust likely being the LEB (over 1000km west of Sydney), the  
317 approximate distance travelled by the dust plume to the northern Tasman was well over 2000km,  
318 and almost 3000km for those dust particles transported first northeast across the coast, and then  
319 from north to the south by the cyclonic system centred at between 35–40°S. The theory proposed by  
320 Baker and Jickells (2006) suggests that dust-derived Fe transported the longer distance to the  
321 southern Tasman will be more soluble and hence elicit a greater phytoplankton response. Both  
322 mechanisms affect the solubility of particulate Fe and could help explain the contrasting  
323 phytoplankton responses observed between the northern and southern Tasman Sea (Figs 8 and 9).

### 324 *Chlorophyll Anomalies*

325 The mid-October deposition event simulated around day 286 seems to promote a widespread, CHL  
326 response between days 290–295, which is again confined to the south of 32°S. CHL concentrations  
327 achieved during these events are well above the climatological mean values for spring, with positive  
328 anomalies as high as 0.5 mg m<sup>-3</sup>. As noted above, the ocean ML depth decreases rapidly through  
329 October, so that light would be less important in limiting of phytoplankton growth at this time.

330 The CHL anomaly Hovmoller plot by longitude shows high inshore anomalies occur throughout the  
331 spring season north of 35°S (Fig. 9a–b), which are likely due to eddy pumping or coastal upwelling.  
332 Figure 11 shows sea-level height anomalies (left-panel) and SST (right panel) for September 24. The  
333 penetration of warm EAC waters well south of the Tasman Front with entrainment of warm waters  
334 in an inshore eddy at 36°S is notable. The SST data clearly show both warm core (36°S, 153°E) and  
335 cold core (33°S, 156°E) eddies, which persisted for several days in the satellite record (IMOS 2009).  
336 However, the large offshore extent of positive CHL anomalies south of 35°S (Fig. 9c), strongly suggest  
337 the CHL increase post the Red Dawn event was due to the deposition of dust.

338 Fig. 12a–b show the spatial distribution of CHL anomalies (mg m<sup>-3</sup>) in the octad periods following the  
339 ‘Red Dawn’ and mid-October dust storm events. The basin-wide extent of these plumes of elevated  
340 CHL suggests that phytoplankton biomass increased over a large part of the Tasman Sea, that could  
341 not be caused by localized enhanced nutrient supply from coastal upwelling or cyclonic eddy  
342 pumping, since both processes are confined to waters in the western Tasman and closer to the NSW  
343 coast (Fig. 11). Taken together with the timing of simulated dust deposition this points to dust-  
344 derived nutrients as the most likely cause.

## 345 **Conclusions**

346 We have presented various data on ocean surface CHL, atmospheric aerosol loading (from AOD) and  
347 atmospheric dust deposition (modelled) over the Tasman Sea to explore the connection between  
348 the austral spring dust storm season of 2009, and the biogeochemical response of the adjacent  
349 ocean. Continental observations of DVR and dust transport model simulations suggest the  
350 deposition of dust to the Tasman Sea was significant, albeit episodic, and enhanced by widespread  
351 precipitation, during the late September and mid-October events.

352 The two dust storms that traversed the south-east coast of Australia during late September and mid-  
353 October 2009 appear to have caused a widespread spike in phytoplankton biomass in the Tasman  
354 Sea, especially south of the Tasman Front. Although the 'Red Dawn' event of late September was  
355 one of the largest in the record in terms of total soil loss, the biological response was almost as  
356 strong following the less intense mid-October event, suggesting the timing and mode of delivery of  
357 dust-derived nutrients and ocean state are all critical factors. Both events were accompanied by  
358 widespread precipitation over the Tasman Sea which is thought to enhance the solubility of dust  
359 associated Fe. A previous 20-year climatological analysis of dust storm trajectories suggested that an  
360 asynchrony between deposition and ocean receptivity in the Tasman Sea would make such events  
361 rare (Cropp *et al.* 2013), which underscores the unusual nature of the 2009 dust storm season.

362 Surface CHL concentrations observed during the study period are well above the climatological mean  
363 for this time of the year, with positive anomalies as high as  $0.5 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ . Although we do not have  
364 observations of in situ Fe concentration during spring 2009, results from other studies suggest that  
365 Fe can limit phytoplankton growth south of the Tasman Front, which is where the greatest  
366 phytoplankton response was seen. It is also clear that multiple factors, such as the mode of  
367 deposition (wet versus dry), dust solubility, and scavenging of released Fe all interact to set the  
368 seawater concentration of bioavailable Fe (Boyd and Ellwood 2010).

369 It is anticipated that as a result of global warming droughts will become more frequent and the  
370 number of severe dust storms in Australia may as a consequence increase (Bhattachan and  
371 D'Odorico 2014). There is some evidence that the mean aerosol loading over the continent is already  
372 changing due to enhanced dust storm activity (Mitchell *et al.* 2010). Although our data describe a  
373 very active dust storm season, they raise the possibility that future enhanced delivery of Australian  
374 dust to the Tasman Sea under warming may have significant impacts on regional phytoplankton  
375 dynamics and the carbon sink of these waters.

376

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381 MEaSURES DISCOVER Project. Data was sourced from the Integrated Marine Observing System  
382 (IMOS) - IMOS is supported by the Australian Government through the National Collaborative  
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593 Table 1: Summary of land surface information used in the CEMSYS simulations.

Parameter	Data Source
Aerodynamic Roughness	Constant for bare soil Derived from vegetation height and LAI for vegetated surfaces (Raupach 1994)
Zero-displacement height	Zero for bare soil Derived from vegetation height and LAI for vegetated surfaces (McVicar <i>et al.</i> 1996a)
Leaf Area Index (LAI)	Derived from SeaWiFS NDVI data
Vegetation Height	Adapted from the Atlas of Australia Resources
Soil particle-size distribution	Particle-size analysis of selected soil samples
Soil moisture	Soil moisture model integrated into CEMSYS.

594

595

596 Table 2: CEMSYS simulated mean dust depositional flux ( $\text{g m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$ ) during Red Dawn event

Longitude \ Latitude	150-153°E	153-156°E	156-159°E	159-162°E	162-165°E
31-34°S°	$4.7 \times 10^{-8}$	$3.2 \times 10^{-8}$	$1.8 \times 10^{-8}$	$1.0 \times 10^{-8}$	$1.0 \times 10^{-8}$
34-37°S	$0.96 \times 10^{-8}$	$0.61 \times 10^{-8}$	$0.55 \times 10^{-8}$	$0.48 \times 10^{-8}$	$0.48 \times 10^{-8}$

597

598

599 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

600

601 Figure 1 Tasman Sea study region (EAC: East Australian Current; STF: subtropical front)

602 Figure 2 Synoptic pressure charts for Sept 22–25, 2009 ([www.bom.gov.au](http://www.bom.gov.au))

603 Figure 3 True colour image of ‘Red Dawn’ dust plume from MODIS Terra overpass on 23 Sept  
604 2009 at (a) 00:05 UTC and, (b) 23:10 UTC on the 23 September 2009

605 Figure 4 (a) Total DVR from ABM stations in Eastern Australia during September and October  
606 2009, (b) Time series of daily areal average aerosol optical depth from MODIS (at  
607 550nm), and (c) AOD over the Tasman Sea during ‘Red Dawn’ event

608 Figure 5 Hovmoller plot of CEMSYS simulated deposition ( $\mu\text{g m}^2\text{s}^{-1}$ ) by longitude bands

609 Figure 6 SSM/I F17 three-day mean rainfall rate ( $\text{mm hr}^{-1}$ ) for (a) September 23–25, 2009 and  
610 (b) October 13–15, 2009 (source: [www.remss.com](http://www.remss.com)), and CEMSYS simulated  
611 proportion of wet deposition for (c) September 23–25, 2009 and (d) October 13–15,  
612 2009

613 Figure 7 MODIS-derived chlorophyll climatology (2002–13) for the Tasman Sea by latitude  
614 band, averaged over 150–170°E.

615 Figure 8 Hovmoller plot of MODIS 8-day mean CHL data and 10-year climatology, by latitude  
616 averaged over 150–170°E.

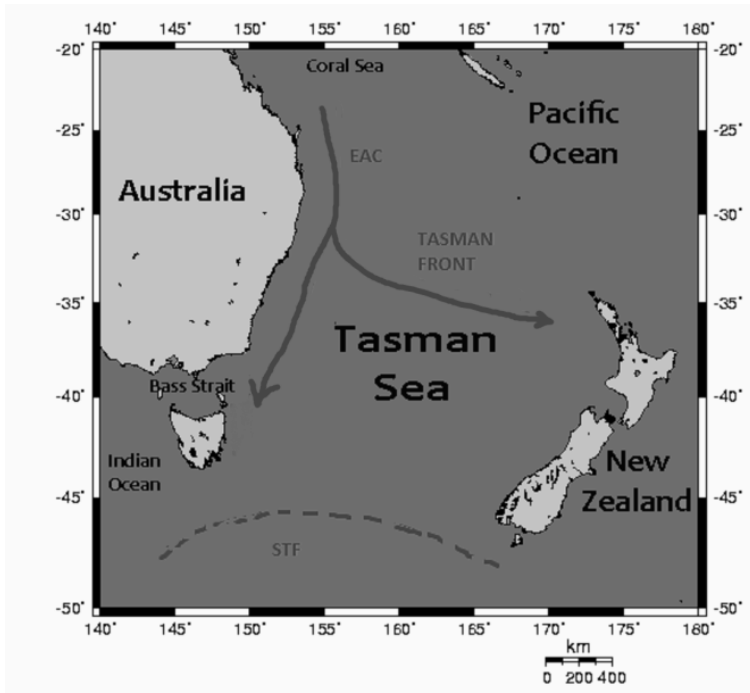
617 Figure 9 Hovmoller plot of MODIS 8-day mean CHL anomalies, by longitude (150–170°E)  
618 averaged over the given latitude bands.

619 Figure 10 CEMSYS modelled long-term dust deposition time series for the southwest Tasman  
620 Sea as shown in the map insert.

621 Figure 11 Satellite sea level anomalies (left panel) and 3-day SST composite (right panel) for  
622 September 24, 2009 (from the IMOS, 2009 archive).

623 Figure 12 MODIS 8-day CHL anomalies ( $\text{mg m}^{-3}$ ) for (a) 30 Sep –7 Oct, 2009, and (b) 16–23 Oct,  
624 2009.

625



626

627 Fig. 1

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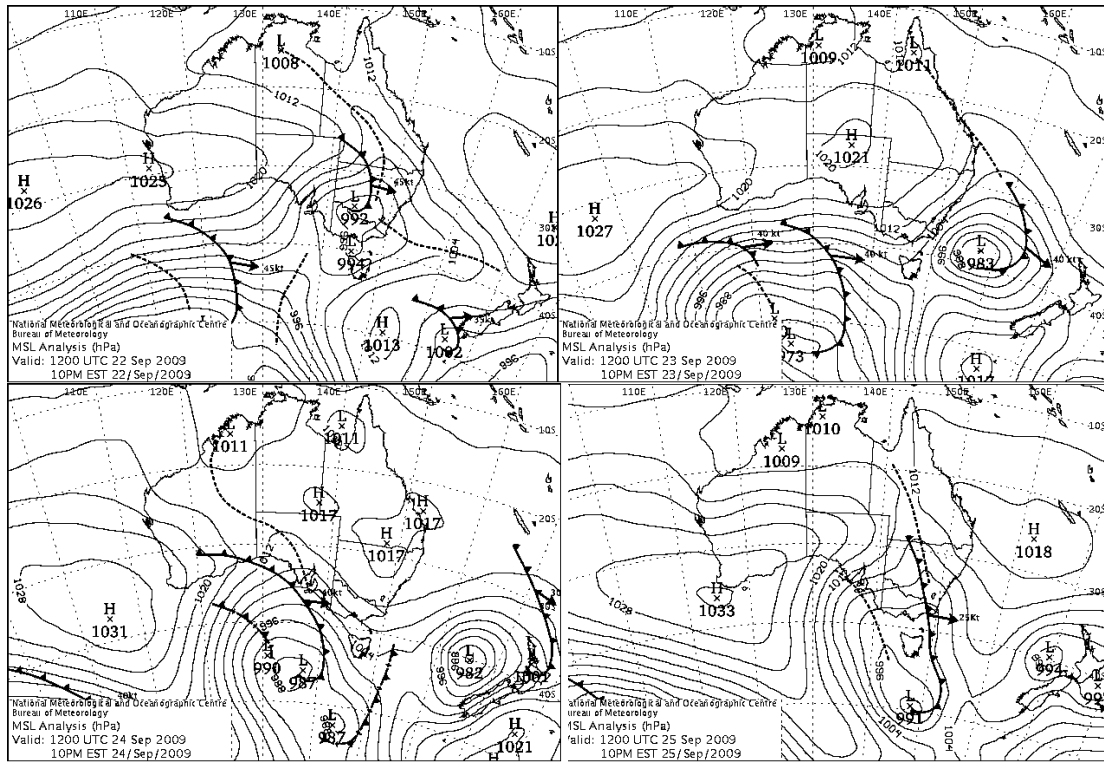
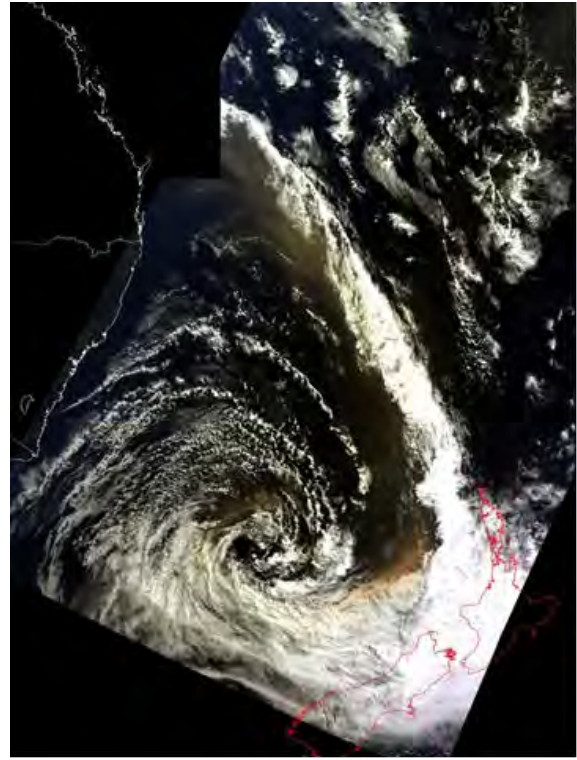
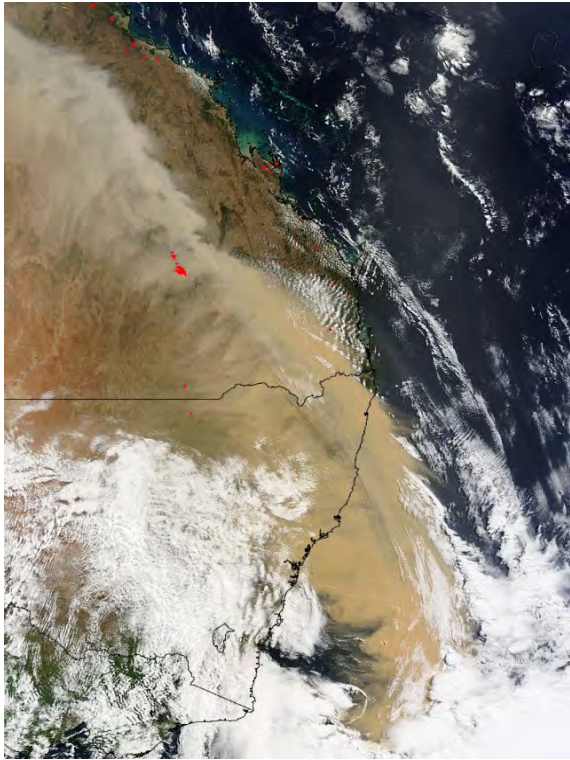


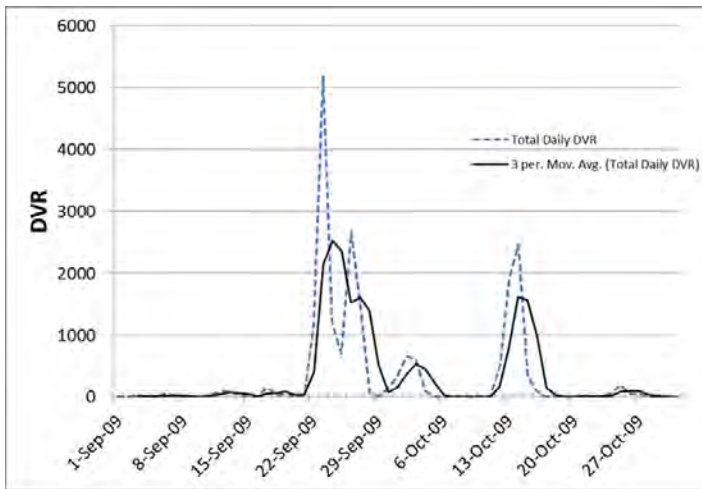
Fig. 2



(a)

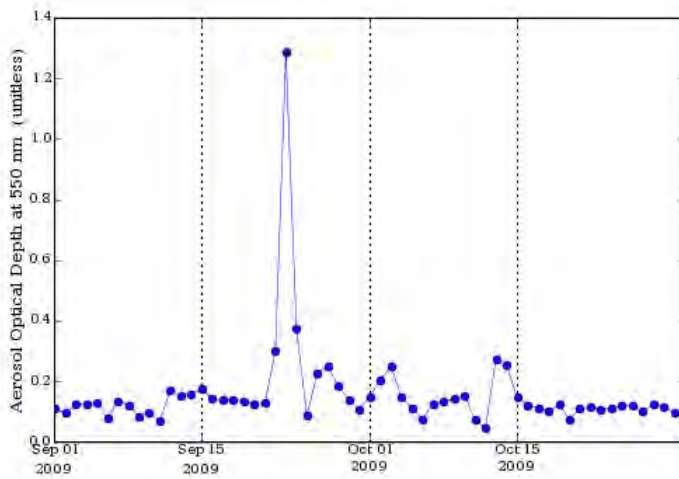
Fig. 3



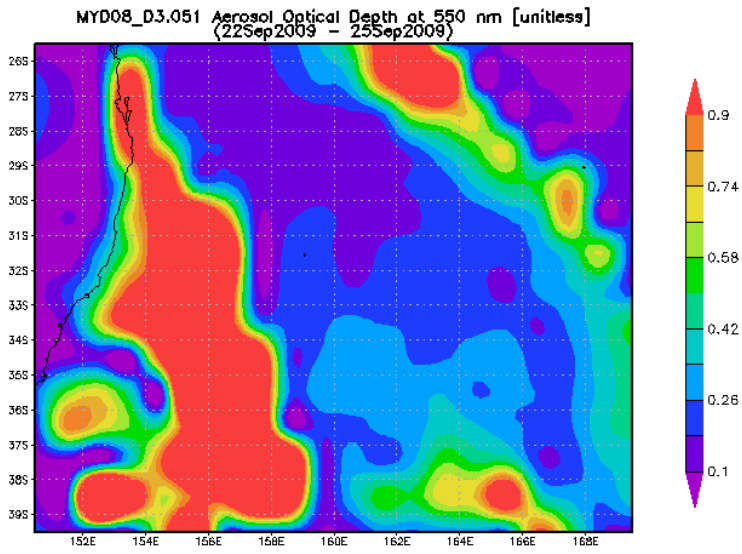


(a)

Area-Averaged Time Series (MYD08\_D3.051)  
(Region: 150E-170E, 40S-25S)



(b)



(c)

Fig. 4

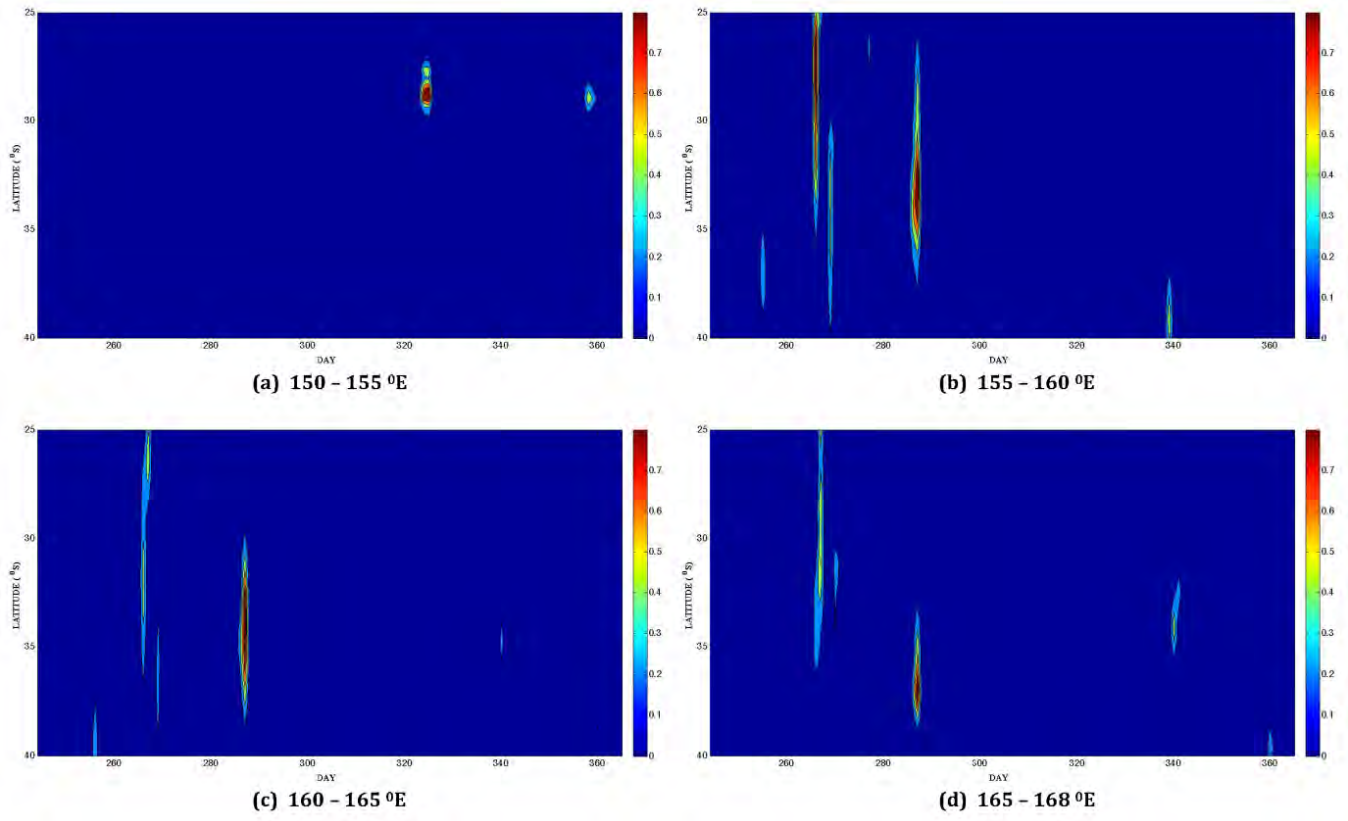
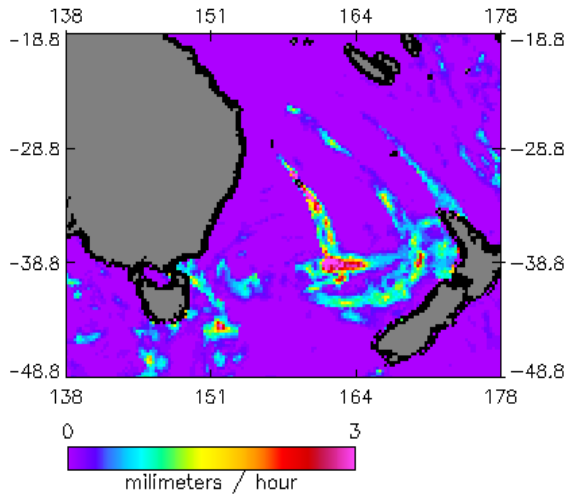
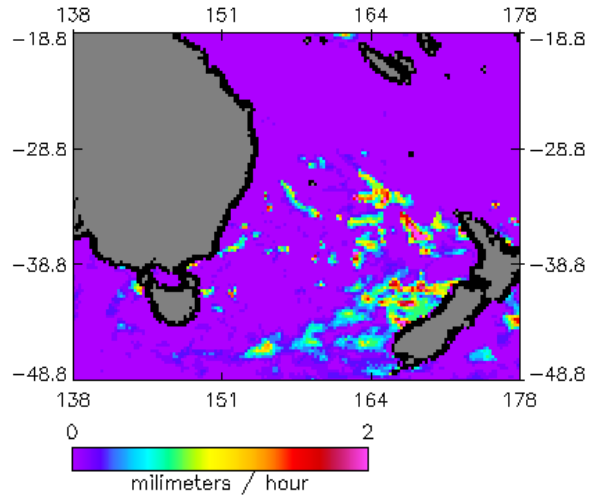


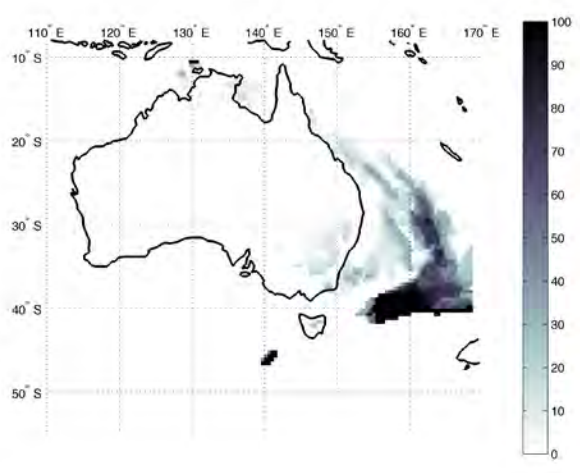
Fig. 5



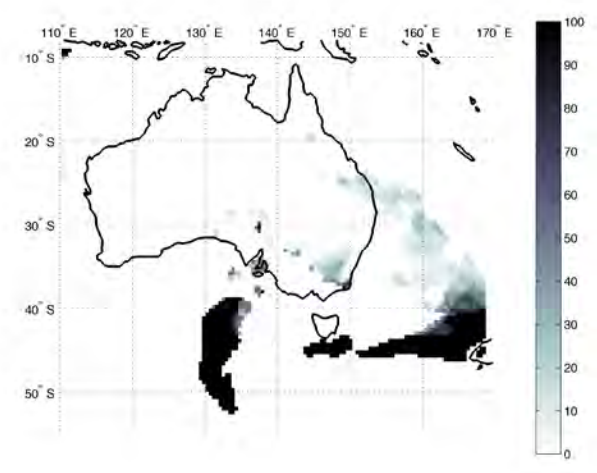
(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

Fig. 6

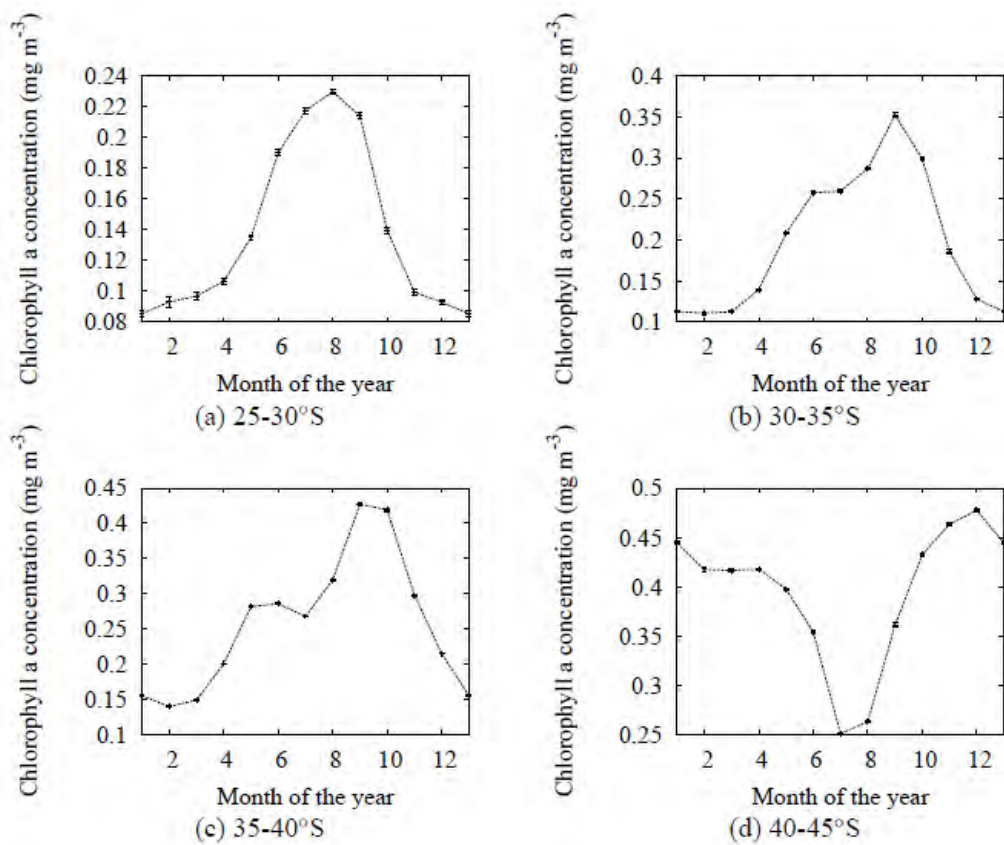
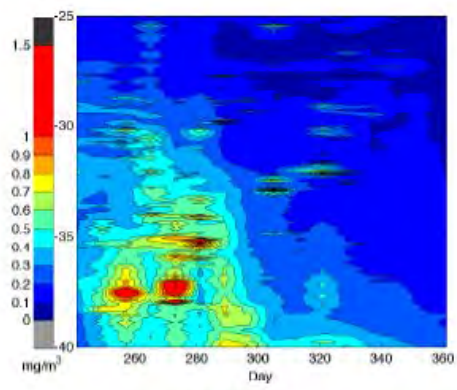
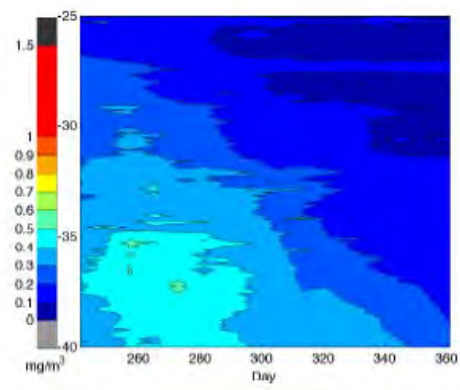


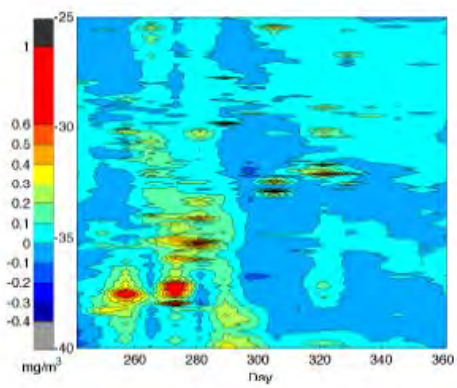
Fig. 7



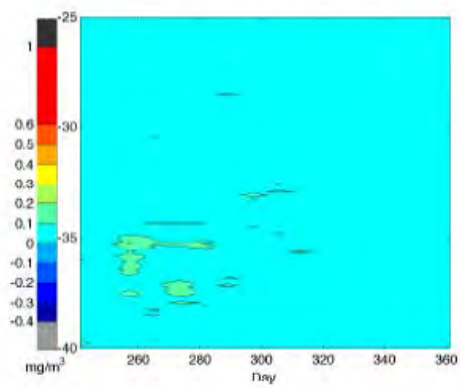
(a) 2009



(b) Climatology (2002-2012)

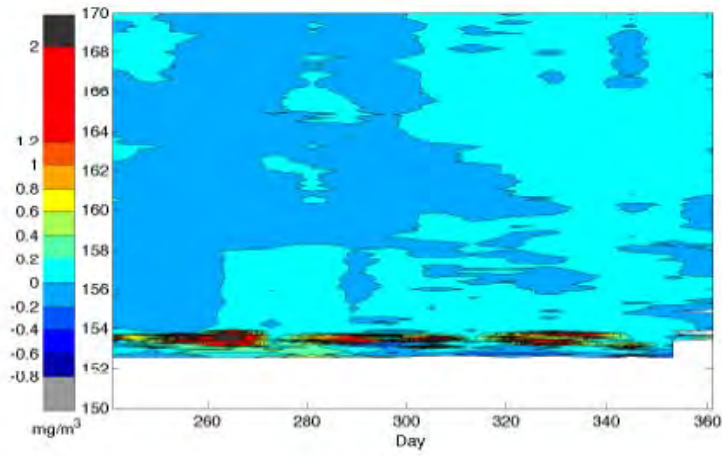


(c) The 2009 anomalies

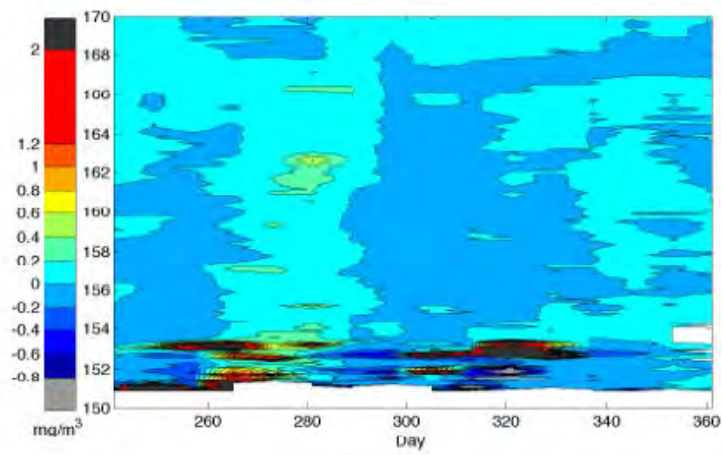


(d) Standard error in climatology

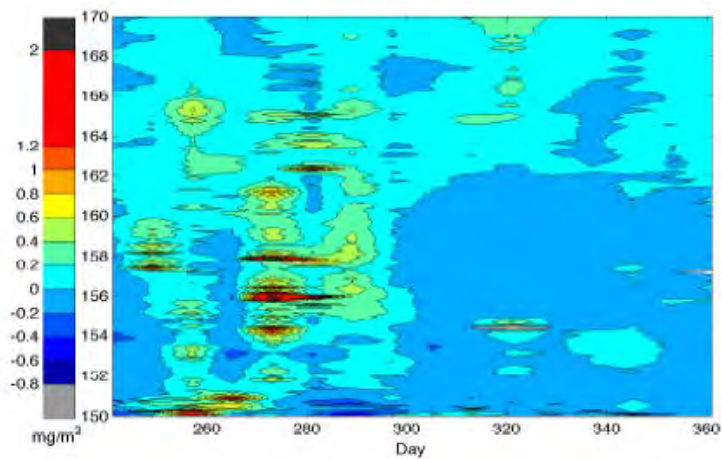
Fig. 8



(a) 25-30°S



(b) 30-35°S



(c) 35-40°S

Fig. 9

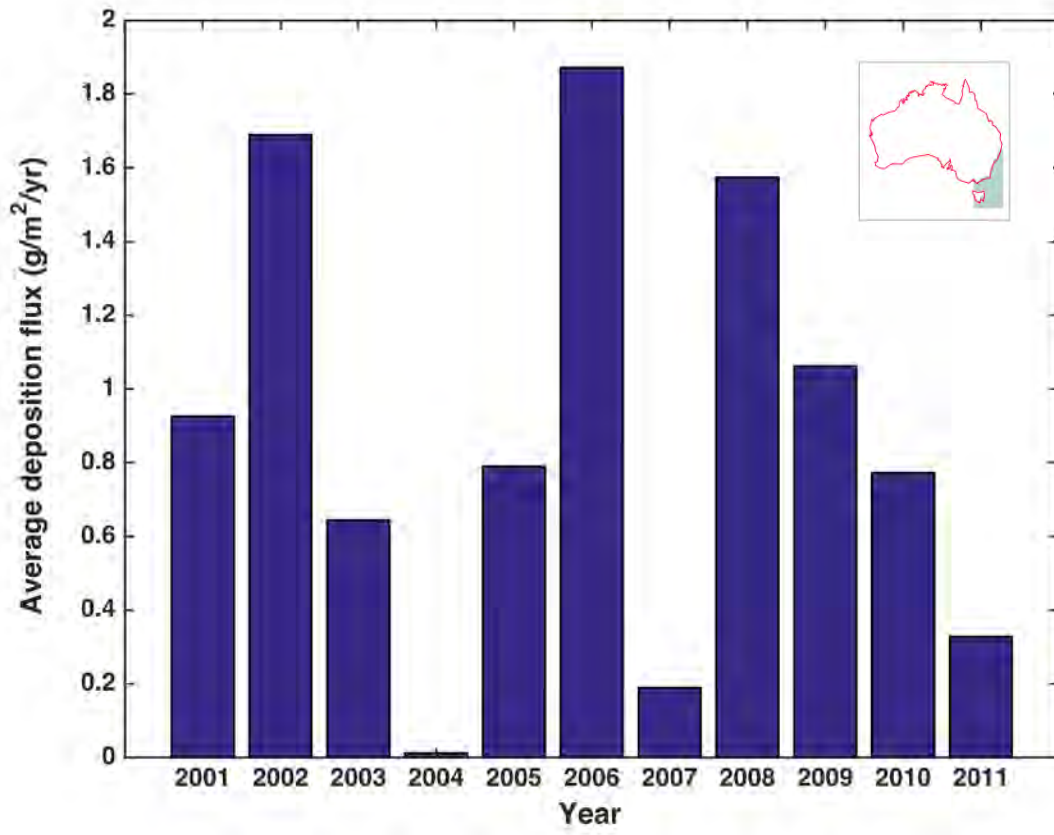


Fig. 10



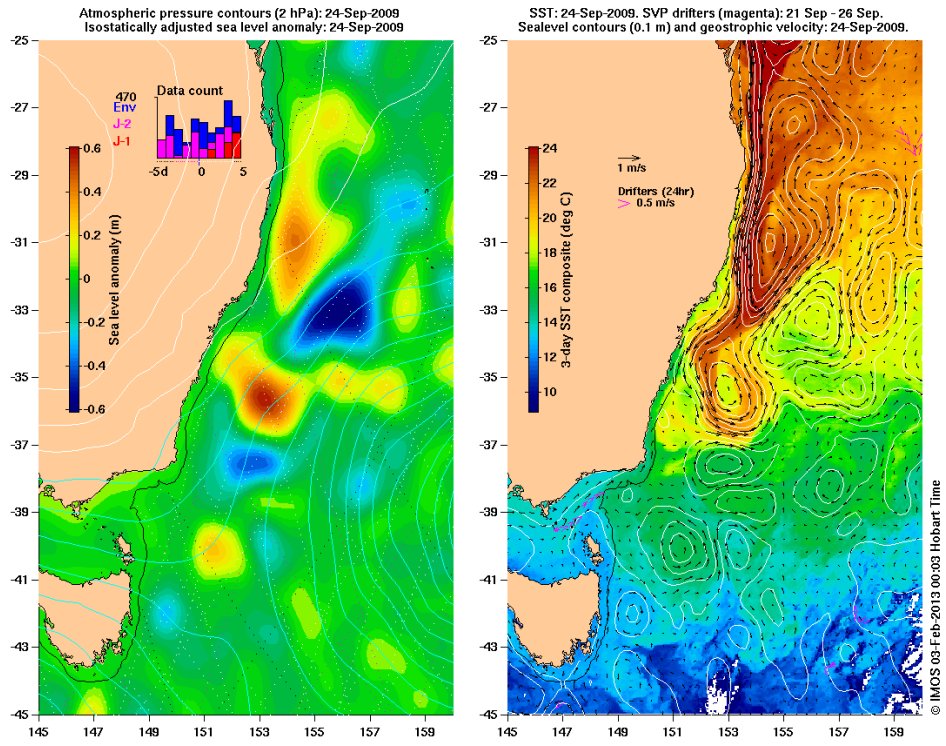
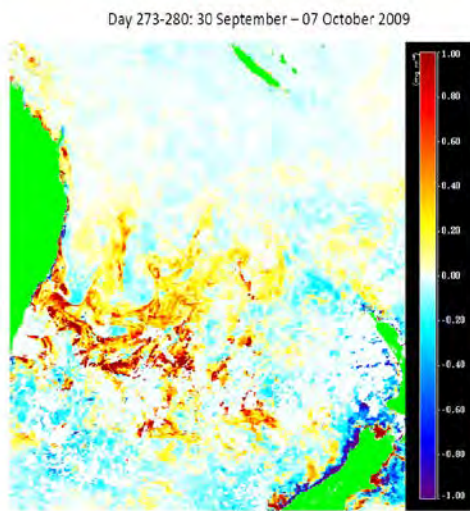
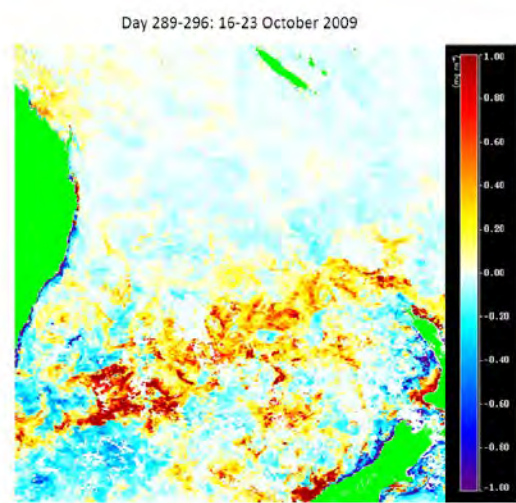


Fig. 11



(a)



(b)

Fig. 12