10 Harmful Algal Bloom Dynamics in Relation to Physical Processes

F.G. Figueiras, G.C. Pitcher, and M. Estrada

10.1 Introduction

The term harmful algal bloom (HAB) has been applied to a diverse range of phytoplankton to which harmful impacts have been attributed. These algae belong to a wide variety of phylogenetic groups. The dinoflagellates, raphidophytes, and prymnesiophytes have historically been considered the primary cause of HABs, but other groups of phytoplankton, such as the diatoms and cyanobacteria now also include taxa known to be harmful.

HAB dynamics are influenced at all spatial-temporal scales relevant to phytoplankton physiology, ecology, and distribution; from the level of short-lived sub-cellular physiological processes to global biogeographical ranges and long-term fluctuations of natural populations (Donaghay and Osborn 1997; Zingone and Wyatt 2005; Franks 2006). Harmful algal blooms should not be considered marginal biological phenomena. The view that HABs are irregular, unpredictable events is misleading, when in fact many harmful species constitute normal components of the seasonal succession of phytoplankton driven by exogenous forces, which contribute to the establishment of habitat templates favoring one or another phylogenetic or functional groups.

The upper ocean is physically forced by air–sea interactions, land and rivers, and the ocean interior. Winds force various physical processes, which are not mutually independent, such as waves, currents and turbulence. Coherent flow structures and convection further complicate upper ocean dynamics (Yamazaki et al. 2002). Hence, the upper ocean is the site of a myriad of interacting dynamic physical processes, all of which influence the functioning and distribution of organisms both directly and indirectly. Direct effects include those of turbulence in altering algal growth rates (Berdalet 1992; Juhl and Latz 2002; Sullivan et al. 2003), cell shape (Zirbel et al. 2000), and the transport of substances in and out of cells (Karp-Boss et al. 1996). The establishment of aggregations required for sexual exchange or the ability of grazers to capture

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cells is also directly influenced by turbulence in determining encounter rates and perceptive abilities (Yamazaki et al. 2002). Indirect physical effects include the influence of mixing patterns on the distribution of temperature and nutrients, and the transport of phytoplankton in or out of the euphotic zone.

This chapter focuses on the indirect effects of water motion and turbulence on HAB development, as mediated through transport, and provides examples of various ecosystem types in which these processes are operative.

10.2 Physical Constraints: From Diffusion to Advection

Phytoplankton inhabits a heterogeneous environment in which diffusion $(K_{x, y, z})$ and advection $(V_{x, y, z})$ are the main physical processes influencing population development. In this environment, the rate of change of any harmful algal population at a particular location (dN/dt) can be defined as a function of these two physical fluxes and growth (μ) :

$$
dN/dt = K_x \partial^2 N/\partial x^2 + K_y \partial^2 N/\partial y^2 + K_z \partial^2 N/\partial z^2
$$

-
$$
-V_x \partial N/\partial x - V_y \partial N/\partial y - V_z \partial N/\partial z + \mu N
$$
 (10.1)

Diffusion tends to reduce the spatial gradients of a population by mixing across gradients. Mixing tends to decrease the density of local population maxima, and increase local population minima by mixing from regions of high concentration to low. While vertical mixing tends to be many orders of magnitude weaker than horizontal mixing, the strong vertical gradients of many physical and chemical properties make vertical mixing of fundamental importance to biological phenomena.

Advection is driven by physical velocities, which move spatial gradients of a population in *x*, *y* and *z* directions. The importance of these terms depends on the relative strengths of these velocities and of the spatial gradients of the populations*.* Swimming can be formulated as a term for vertical advection (Margalef 1978) that may counter physically driven losses. Organism motility and its behavioral control (Kamykowski et al. 1998; Karp-Boss et al. 2000; Sullivan et al. 2003) interact with water circulation patterns and play a key role in favoring retention (Seliger et al. 1970; Anderson and Stolzenbach 1985) or accumulation (Tyler and Seliger 1981; Fraga et al. 1988; Figueiras et al. 1995) of motile phytoplankton. Swimming alters population gradients and leads to surface or subsurface accumulations of phytoplankton, especially in environments with downward water motions such as negative estuaries, convergent fronts or Langmuir circulation cells (Holligan 1979; Kamykowski 1981). The superior swimming ability of chain-forming dinoflagellates, like *Gymnodinium catenatum* or *Alexandrium catenella* (Fraga et al. 1989) or of ciliates

such as *Mesodinium rubrum*, enables them to balance relatively strong dispersing currents and to form blooms in high-energy frontal zones.

10.3 Life-Forms

Determination of the particular characteristics and adaptations that enable a harmful species to bloom is complicated by the considerable physiological and phylogenetic variety presented by these microalgae. Physiological factors increasing the net-growth-rate parameter (μ) , such as a rapid intrinsic division rate or allelopathic defenses against predation, are important in determining the bloom-forming capability of some species. However, these factors are in many instances overridden by the ecological response to hydrodynamic forcing. Margalef (1978) considered the available external energy, controlling water movement and nutrient supply, the key factor determining the selection of phytoplankton species. Populations selected under recurrent patterns of environmental conditions tend to share sets of *characteristics*, or *adaptation syndromes*, which provide a basis for the classification of phytoplankton lifeforms, as depicted in the *phytoplankton mandala* of Margalef (Fig. 10.1a), in which major taxonomic groupings are presented as *proxies* for phytoplankton life-forms. Diatoms tend to dominate in high-nutrient, relatively high-turbulence conditions, while (*flat*) dinoflagellates are better adapted to survival

Fig. 10.1. Phytoplankton succession and life-forms in an ecological space defined by turbulence and nutrient concentration, as depicted by the mandala of Margalef (**a**) and annual cycle of phytoplankton abundance in The Rías Baixas of Galicia (**b**) (see Fig. 10.4a for location) according to a mixing-stratification (new *vs.* regenerated nutrients) gradient. HABs are found to correspond to conditions of high nutrients and low turbulence. (a) Reprinted from Oceanologica Acta, volume 1, R. Margalef, pages 493–510, Copyright (1978), with permission from Elsevier. (b) Redrawn and simplified from Figueiras and Niell (1987)

under low-nutrient, low-turbulence conditions. Red-tide-forming (*rounded*) dinoflagellates are shown to be associated with high nutrient, low turbulence conditions. In general, given adequate nutrient supply, diatoms tend to have faster growth rates than other phytoplankton groups (Brand and Guillard 1981), but some level of upward advection or turbulent mixing may be required to maintain their populations in sufficiently illuminated conditions (Huisman et al. 2002). In contrast, motility may represent an important asset in a stratified environment by regulating position in the water column thereby determining nutrient uptake and the light environment. The association of red-tide-forming dinoflagellates with low turbulence may result primarily from reduced physical dispersion, thereby permitting the accumulation of algal biomass (see Eq. 10.1), rather than from any direct effects of turbulence on dinoflagellates. The mandala represented a conceptual model stressing the importance of hydrodynamic forcing relative to physiological responses to light or nutrient concentration (Margalef 1978; Margalef et al. 1979) and was never meant to provide a detailed prescription of taxonomic ordination. Its basic application (Fig. 10.1b) has been shown in numerous studies (Bowman et al. 1981; Jones and Gowen 1990; Figueiras and Ríos 1993; Vila and Masó 2005).

The life-form ordination of the *mandala*, which has been expanded by other authors (Cullen and MacIntyre 1998; Smayda and Reynolds 2001), emphasizes the importance of morphotypic properties, such as size and shape, and behavioral features related to the control of buoyancy or motility (see Sect. 10.2). Life-cycle strategies are also important in the context of the physical environment in that cyst or temporary cyst formation may be utilized to avoid dispersion (Garcés et al. 1999) and to reseed the water column (Anderson et al. 2005).

10.4 Algal Communities

The composition of microalgal communities reflects life-form selection modulated by species–specific features. Therefore, species assemblages tend to share similar functional characteristics in response to the ecological history of the body of water in which they are found. Although the dominance of a particular species within an available biodiversity pool may be reduced to a statistical probability, experience shows that phytoplankton communities can be characterized as assemblages of co-occurring species that show relatively persistent temporal and spatial patterns in composition (Blasco et al. 1981; Venrick 1999). Therefore, in spite of their occasional conspicuous dominance, harmful species do not occur in isolation, but rather as a group. Identification of assemblages incorporating HAB species, and their association with particular physical-chemical properties may therefore provide a predictive capability. For example, the toxic dinoflagellate *Gymnodinium catenatum* was observed in the Iberian upwelling system as a regular component of an assemblage of dinoflagellates including *Prorocentrum triestinum*, *P. micans*, *Ceratium fusus* and *Dinophysis acuta*. The detection of this assemblage in the rías could be used to warn of the likely appearance of *G. catenatum* (Figueiras et al. 1994; Fermín et al. 1996).

10.5 Retention and Transport

Ecosystems are often classified according to the relative importance of one or another physical process. These may include systems categorized by retention or reduced exchange, and others categorized by advective processes.

10.5.1 Retention-Reduced Exchange

Pycnoclines (Pingree et al. 1975; Nielsen et al. 1990; Kononen et al. 2003), fronts (Pingree et al. 1975; Pitcher and Boyd 1996; Pitcher et al. 1998) and cyclonic eddies (Trainer et al. 2002) tend to reduce exchange with surrounding waters, thereby favoring the accumulation of phytoplankton, which can be enhanced by decreased sinking speed or increased swimming capacity. Within pycnoclines, harmful algae are frequently found in thin layers (Bjørsen and Nielsen 1991; Gentien et al. 1995; Rines et al. 2002). The mechanisms of formation of these layers, which may vary substantially in thickness, spatial extent and duration (Dekshenieks et al. 2001), remain unclear. They may result primarily from physical processes, such as the interaction between vertical shear gradients and the horizontal advection of phytoplankton patches (Franks 1995), or they may require a particular swimming-sinking behavior (Sullivan et al. 2003; Gallager et al. 2004).

Retention and/or reduced exchange are often considered to favor HAB generation in small reservoirs or embayments. Blooms of *Pyrodinium bahamense* in Oyster Bay, Jamaica (Seliger et al. 1970), and of *Alexandrium ostenfeldii* and *Heterocapsa triquetra* in Salt Pond, Massachusetts, USA (Anderson and Stolzenbach 1985) are formed by avoiding water exchange. These populations are able to perform vertical migrations in synchrony with the tides, thereby avoiding tidal flushing. Reduced dispersion is also a requisite for blooms of the nitrogen-fixing and floating cyanobacteria *Aphanizomenon flos-aquae* and *Nodularia spumigena* in the Baltic Sea, which develop during calm weather conditions after the spring bloom when the water column is stratified and surface waters are almost exhausted of inorganic nitrogen (Sellner 1997). Similar effects can occur when diffusion from a water body is hindered by man-made structures or hydrographical features

such as fronts. These considerations, combined with nutrient enrichment or eutrophication owing to land runoff, explain the frequent development of HABs in enclosed or semi-enclosed coastal systems.

The influence of confinement in the development of HAB events was examined in a series of eight harbors distributed along the Catalan coast (NW Mediterranean, Fig. 10.2a, Vila and Masó 2005). These harbors were selected to include anthropogenically impacted areas and a range of harbor sizes. From a total of 171 taxa identified over an annual cycle, 27 were potentially harmful. These included *Alexandrium minutum*,*A. catenella*, several *Dinophysis* species and *Karlodinium* sp. Based on a multivariate analysis, the authors could distinguish four clusters (Fig. 10.2b) that could be assigned to four different functional groups: bloom-forming dinoflagellates, winter diatoms, summer-autumn diatoms and a group including both large dinoflagellates and elongated diatoms. The bloom-forming dinoflagellates included rounded species like *A. minutum*, *Gyrodinium impudicum*, *Prorocentrum triestinum* and *Scrippsiella* spp., which could be considered as *r*-strategists. This group was most abundant in large harbors during the summer. The group comprising large dinoflagellates and elongated diatoms included dinoflagellates such as *Ceratium* spp., with a high surface-to-volume ratio, and the diatom species *Proboscia alata* and *Rhizosolenia* cf. *imbricata*. The diatom groups were named according to their seasonal dominance; namely winter and summerautumn diatoms. Blooms were typically attributed to the bloom-forming dinoflagellates and to the winter diatoms, while potentially toxic taxa could be found in any one of the four clusters. The study also showed that dinoflagel-

Fig. 10.2. The study of HABs in eight harbors along the Catalan coast (**a**), including a schematic representation of the four functional phytoplankton groups in the framework of Margalef's mandala rotated through 180° (**b**) (from Vila and Masó 2005)

lates were more abundant in large harbors (>15 km2), and bloom-forming dinoflagellates were less represented in small harbors. The authors considered these variations in the abundance of dinoflagellates to be a function of longer water residence times in larger harbors, which present lower ratios between mouth area and contained water volume than smaller harbors.

10.5.2 Transport

Across-shelf and alongshore currents are known to play a key role in HAB dynamics in coastal waters.Coastal blooms may result from the onshore advection of blooms generated in offshore regions (Pitcher and Boyd 1996; Pitcher et al.1998; Raine and McMahon 1998; Trainer et al.2002; Anderson et al.2005).In other cases, onshore currents interact with coastal morphology and bathymetry to trap dinoflagellate populations in downwelling fronts, where the downward velocity of the water is countered by the ability of dinoflagellates to swim (Fraga et al. 1989; Figueiras et al. 1995).Alongshore currents significantly contribute to the extension of HABs along the coast. Blooms may be transported hundreds of kilometers from their origins by buoyancy currents associated with river outflows (Franks and Anderson 1992) or by surface poleward coastal currents in upwelling systems (Pitcher and Boyd 1996). In other cases, onshore and along-shore currents frequently combine to first accumulate blooms in the coastal region (Pitcher and Boyd 1996; Pitcher et al. 1998; Trainer et al. 2002; Anderson et al. 2005), before transporting them alongshore (Franks and Anderson 1992; Anderson et al. 2005).

Coastal upwelling systems provide an example in which both across-shelf and alongshore currents and retention processes interact to generate HABs. Under upwelling conditions, the general shelf circulation pattern consists of a surface alongshore equatorward current countered by a poleward undercurrent. Ekman transport provides an across-shelf component to the flow with an offshore stream at the surface and compensating onshore flow in deeper layers. The situation is reversed during downwelling, when a surface poleward current is established over the shelf and forces the onshore flow of surface waters. Consequently, the coastal impacts of harmful blooms in upwelling systems coincide with the relaxation phase of upwelling, whereby populations developing offshore during the active phase of upwelling are advected to coastal sites by across-shelf currents and transported alongshore by poleward counter currents. These currents are among the most prominent physical features of coastal upwelling systems and are considered key mechanisms for the initiation of late summer-autumn coastal blooms in several upwelling systems (Fraga et al. 1988; Figueiras et al. 1994; Pitcher and Boyd 1996; Trainer et al. 2002).

Coastline features, such as capes and embayments, particular topographic features of the slope and continental shelf, the presence of buoyant freshwater

Fig. 10.3. A 5-year (July 1998–June 2003) composite of SST (**a**) and chlorophyll (**b**) derived from daily high-resolution (1 km) NOAA AVHRR and SeaWiFS ocean color data. The role of shelf bathymetry and local topography in influencing the upwelling processes and the distribution of phytoplankton biomass is demonstrated (reprinted from Pitcher and Weeks (2006) with permission from Elsevier)

plumes and the dynamics of oceanic margins interact with wind forcing to generate instabilities in flow that alter the general circulation patterns of upwelling systems at various spatial scales. Alongshore and across-shelf flows are modified, resulting in the amplification and/or reduction of upwellingdownwelling processes (Fig. 10.3a). These coastline discontinuities result in considerable alongshore variability and give rise to areas of convergence or retention, which may favor the development of high biomass blooms (Fig. 10.3b). These areas may also function as sedimentary basins accumulating benthic cysts of HAB species that will later function as bloom inocula.

Interaction between coastline features and across-shelf currents also occur in the Galician Rías Baixas (Fig. 10.4a), comprising four bays located on the northern limit of the Iberian upwelling system. Here HABs dominated by dinoflagellates usually occur during the seasonal transitions in upwellingdownwelling. These bays, which have an almost perpendicular orientation to the coast, act to amplify upwelling and downwelling signals and the exchange between the rías and shelf. Thus, during upwelling, the circulation inside the rías consists of an outflow of surface waters and a compensating inflow of coastal bottom water (Fig. 10.4b). During these upwelling events, phytoplankton composition is characterized by the dominance of diatoms inside the rías and a higher incidence of dinoflagellates on the shelf (Tilstone et al. 1994). However, during downwelling conditions, circulation reverses and coastal

Fig. 10.4. The location of the four Rías Baixas of Galicia on the NW of the Iberian Peninsula (**a**) and a schematic representation of the circulation within the rías during (**b**) upwelling and downwelling (**c**)

surface water enters the rías to form a downwelling front with inner waters of higher continental influence (Fig. 10.4 c). Under these conditions, dinoflagellates are advected from the shelf into the interiors of the rías, where they accumulate in the downwelling front (Fraga et al. 1988; Figueiras et al. 1995; Fermín et al. 1996). This accumulation takes place due to the vertical swimming ability of dinoflagellates which allows them to remain in the water column (Fraga et al. 1989), while diatoms are unable to counteract the downward velocity and are removed from the surface waters.

Bloom transport is also an essential feature of HAB dynamics in the Gulf of Mexico. Blooms of *Karenia brevis*, which are usually initiated offshore, in thermal fronts on the western edge of the Loop Current during upwelling, can be advected towards the coast during periods of wind relaxation. Transport along the Gulf coast of Florida occurs in association with the northward intrusion of the Loop Current. Although *K. brevis* blooms are usually constrained to the west coast of Florida due to the restriction imposed by cyclonic gyres that reduce exchange at both extremes, the blooms are occasionally advected onto the Atlantic side of the Florida coast by the Gulf Stream when the Tortugas gyre debilitates (Tester and Steidinger 1997).

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