

# Open ocean biogeochemical impacts of extreme terrestrial precipitation

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## Key Points:

- Anomalously high precipitation from atmospheric rivers led to elevated river discharge, low ocean salinity, and increased stratification
- Freshwater discharge was rapidly transported hundreds of kilometers offshore, to the open ocean, within submesoscale eddies and filaments
- The biogeochemical impacts of runoff vary depending on nutrient properties at the coastal source and mixing along water-parcel trajectories

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## Abstract

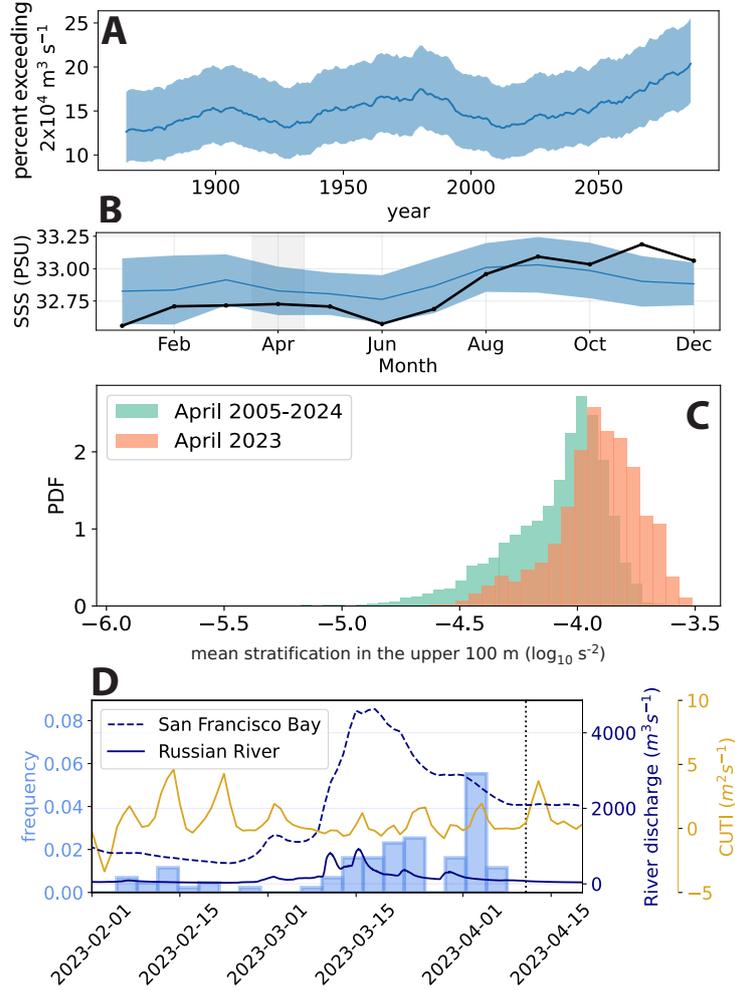
Extreme events reshape ocean ecosystems with significant implications for nutrient and carbon cycling. Here, we demonstrate that flooding on land can be a significant driver of biogeochemical variability in the open ocean, even in relatively dry climates. Using satellite observations, in situ measurements, and Lagrangian particle tracking, we present evidence that freshwater discharge from extreme precipitation during the 2023 water year was transported into the oligotrophic region of the California Current System. This transport was facilitated by submesoscale eddies and filaments and resulted in significant anomalies in surface salinity, stratification, nutrient concentrations, as well as phytoplankton and bacterioplankton community composition. These observations, combined with an Earth system model, highlight the importance of episodic river discharge events in shaping offshore biogeochemical fluxes and ecosystem structure in eastern boundary current systems under a changing climate.

## Plain Language Summary

In 2023 along the US West Coast, record breaking precipitation, due to weather features called atmospheric rivers, led to flooding on land and increased river runoff into the ocean. Using model estimates alongside ship and satellite observations, we demonstrate that the increase in freshwater discharge into seawater environments had a striking effect on the physics and biology of both the coastal and open ocean. In particular, this extreme terrestrial precipitation was associated with reduced ocean salinity, as well as growth and accumulation of phytoplankton. River estuaries, such as the San Francisco Bay, are typically enriched in nutrients, such as nitrate and phosphate. Therefore, we detected that as river runoff waters were rapidly transported hundreds of kilometers offshore through circulating current features, they also carried unique microbial communities potentially influenced by these terrestrial nutrient sources. However, runoff waters rich in phytoplankton did not always have the same composition of nutrients, nor were they made up of the same biological communities. Therefore, future studies are needed to further document and evaluate how extreme precipitation affects ocean ecosystems and circulation.

## 1 Introduction

Extreme precipitation over the US west coast is projected to increase in frequency (Swain et al., 2018), which will have cascading effects on society and ecosystems. A likely direct impact will be an increase in flooding, resulting in increased episodic river discharge into the ocean. Parts of the western US coastal region host a relatively dry climate that does not typically experience large river discharges. Analysis of a climate model ensemble, the Community Earth System Model Large Ensemble (CESM2 LENS), suggests that extreme river discharge into the ocean along the US West coast is likely to increase through the end of the century under a moderate climate change scenario (Figure 1A) alongside increased precipitation (Swain et al., 2018). River runoff has been observed to lead to enhanced coastal primary production (Kessouri et al., 2021) and modify global carbon cycling (Regnier et al., 2022). However, connections between extreme wet events, changes in ocean surface salinity (Hoffman et al., 2022), and the ultimate effects on biogeochemical fluxes remain poorly understood. Therefore, here we document the physical and biogeochemical impacts of extreme precipitation and flooding on the open ocean in a mid-latitude eastern boundary current system using observations during a recent high precipitation season.



**Figure 1.** (A) Extreme river discharge to the ocean from the climate model ensemble CESM-LENS2 quantified as percent of 90 ensemble members with April discharge exceeding  $2 \times 10^4 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$  integrated over the entire US West Coast. Shading is the 75% confidence interval. (B) Monthly average salinity and standard deviation (blue; 2015–2025, except 2023) in the California Current System offshore of San Francisco from the SMAP satellite. Black line is monthly average in 2023. (C) Probability density functions of mean stratification (calculated as the Brunt-Väisälä frequency  $N^2$ ) in the upper 100 meters from the California Underwater Glider Network Line 66.7. Distributions are significantly different (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test:  $D = 0.346$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) (D) Histogram in light blue showing date at which high-Chl ( $\text{Chl-}a > 1 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ ) waters, tracked backward in time using GLORYS horizontal current velocities, reach the coast. River discharge is in dark blue and the Coastal Upwelling Transport Index (CUTI) is in yellow.

## 2 Materials and Methods

Observations were collected during the NASA Sub-Mesoscale Ocean Dynamics Experiment (S-MODE) Intensive Operations Period “IOP2” (Farrar et al., 2025). Sampling occurred from April 3–May 2, 2023 within an operations area 100–300 km off of San Francisco, California.

Precipitation estimates and integrated vapor transport (IVT) were obtained from the high-resolution ERA5-Land and ERA5 reanalysis, respectively. Daily discharge measurements of the Russian River (Hacienda Bridge monitoring location) were obtained from USGS, and daily outflow estimates for the San Francisco Bay were obtained from California Natural Resources Agency Dayflow product.

Future river discharge is modeled using CESM2 Large Ensemble, which uses Model for Scale Adaptive River Transport MOSART1.0. We used the historical and SSP3-7.0 scenarios integrated over the US West coast and analyzed the proportion of the ensemble members with discharge exceeding  $2 \times 10^4 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , which is 96th percentile of discharge. A 30-year running mean was calculated prior to plotting, following the methods of Swain et al. (2018).

Physical and hydrographic patterns of the coastal and open ocean were investigated using salinity, stratification, and upwelling measurements. Monthly sea surface salinity (SSS) was retrieved from the Soil Moisture Active Passive (SMAP) mission Level-3 v6.0 data with a spatial resolution of approximately 0.25 degrees. The SSS product was averaged for the S-MODE operations area (Farrar et al., 2025). Mean stratification in the upper 100 meters were calculated as the Brunt-Väisälä frequency ( $N^2$ ) from depth-dependent density profiles obtained from California Underwater Glider Network data from 2015–2025 on Line 66.7, located off Monterey Bay, California. Fluctuations in wind-driven upwelling fluxes were characterized using the Coastal Upwelling Transport Index (Jacox et al., 2018).

Water parcel tracking simulations were conducted by seeding particles in high Chl regions (surface concentration  $> 1 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ ) identified from a satellite-derived sea-surface Chl-a image from April 11, 2023 (during S-MODE IOP2). These particles were tracked backward in time (with a time step of 1 day) using GLORYS horizontal velocities (0.083-degree spatial resolution). A date to coast was computed for each water parcel as the duration it took for each particle to reach the coastline, backward in time, from its initialized location.

Macronutrients, phytoplankton pigments, and particulate organic carbon (POC) concentrations were analyzed in samples collected from the shipboard underway system during S-MODE IOP2 (Farrar et al., 2025). Nutrients (e.g.,  $\text{NO}_3$ ,  $\text{PO}_4$ ) were analyzed colorimetrically with a Quickchem 8500 Lachat Flow Injection Analysis System, chlorophyll (Chl) and accessory pigments were analyzed with an Agilent RR1200 HPLC, and POC molarity was obtained using a Costech 4010 Elemental Analyzer. Underway POC measurements were also derived from an empirical fit between the beam attenuation coefficient at 657 nm, measured by a Seabird Scientific ac-s Spectral Absorption and Attenuation Sensor, and bottle POC concentrations (Lang et al., 2023). Underway Chl-*a* concentrations were derived from absorption line height at 676 nm measured by the ac-s sensor and were calibrated using extracted bottle samples analyzed by a Turner A10 fluorometer (Roesler & Barnard, 2013). Phytoplankton biomarker pigment concentrations were normalized by total Chl-*a* concentrations for subsequent analyses. Nitrate and phosphate surface bottle measurements were also obtained from the California Cooperative Oceanic Fisheries Investigation (CalCOFI) from the time period 1954–2024.

DNA samples for 16S and 18S rRNA gene sequencing were collected from the shipboard underway system (near-surface waters) to determine bacterioplankton and eukaryotic phytoplankton community composition, respectively. For DNA samples, 0.5 L of sea-

117 water was filtered through a sterile 0.2  $\mu\text{m}$  Supor membrane disk filter, stored at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$ ,  
118 and extracted using a KingFisher Flex Purification System and MagMax Microbiome  
119 Ultra Nucleic Acid Extraction kit following the methods of Merz et al. (2026). The V4–  
120 V5 hypervariable region of the 16S rRNA gene and V9 region of the 18S rRNA gene were  
121 amplified and sequenced using the MiSeq platform (Illumina) with universal primers 515F  
122 and 806R for 16S rRNA gene sequencing, 1380F and 1505R for 18S rRNA gene sequenc-  
123 ing, and a  $2\times 151$  bp library architecture. Amplicon sequence variant (ASV) reads were  
124 filtered, denoised, and merged with DADA2 (Callahan et al., 2016) and analyzed with  
125 paprica v0.7.1 (Bowman & Ducklow, 2015). Paprica uses RefSeq (O’Leary et al., 2016)  
126 and PR2 (Guillou et al., 2012) as reference databases and assigns taxonomy using a phy-  
127 logenetic placement approach, where each ASV is placed onto a pre-computed phyloge-  
128 netic tree with Infernal (Nawrocki & Eddy, 2013), epa-ng (Barbera et al., 2019), and Gappa  
129 (Czech et al., 2020). Reads assigned as metazoan mitochondria or chloroplasts were omit-  
130 ted. Libraries with sizes below the 5th percentile and reads with abundances fewer than  
131 10 were eliminated. These thresholds were implemented to remove potential contami-  
132 nant reads and did not significantly alter community composition analyses. Phytoplank-  
133 ton were identified using taxonomic labels for each sequence.

134 Principle Coordinate Analysis (PCoA) of Bray-Curtis distances and Redundancy  
135 Analysis (RDA), both using Hellinger-transformed relative abundances, were performed  
136 using the vegan package in R (Legendre & Gallagher, 2001; Oksanen et al., 2001). The  
137 RDA was conducted with 104 samples and using 8 environmental variables: tempera-  
138 ture, salinity, density (sigma-T), dissolved oxygen concentration, photosynthetically ac-  
139 tive radiation (PAR), Chl-*a* concentration, Chl-*a* fluorescence, and particulate organic  
140 carbon concentration. Comparisons between nutrients (nitrate and phosphate) and sequenc-  
141 ing-derived community composition were not possible due to limited overlap between sam-  
142 pling (only 9 samples).

143 High-Chl features, such as those associated with (sub)mesoscale eddies and filaments,  
144 were qualitatively identified and described in the S-MODE sampling region during April  
145 2023 using sea-surface Chl-*a* products derived from MODIS Aqua and Sentinel-3 Ocean  
146 and Land Color Instrument (OLCI). From April 20–25, 2023, the ship identified and fol-  
147 lowed a cyclonic submesoscale eddy, and samples taken within this eddy were identified  
148 as “eddy-core” based on their Chl-*a* concentration (highest measured Chl-*a* near core)  
149 and relative vorticity values (relative maxima at core) derived from currents measured  
150 by DopplerScatt (Rodríguez et al., 2018; Wineteer et al., 2020) and a shipboard Acous-  
151 tic Doppler Current Profiler (ADCP).

## 152 3 Results

### 153 3.1 Anomalous precipitation and freshwater discharge

154 The US West coast water year 2023 had anomalously high precipitation due to mul-  
155 tiple landfalling atmospheric rivers (ARs) (DeFlorio et al., 2024; Jimenez Arellano et al.,  
156 2025). The number of storms, combined with the rapid succession of storms, led to record-  
157 breaking precipitation, exacerbated hydrological impacts, and high discharges into the  
158 coastal ocean.

159 *In situ* sampling that took place April 6–30, 2023 (near peak discharge and pre-  
160 cipitation) during the S-MODE IOP2 (Farrar et al., 2025) in the offshore region of the  
161 California Current System (Figure 1) revealed that large discharge events impacted not  
162 only the coastal ocean, but also the more oligotrophic open ocean. A multiday AR event  
163 on March 10–15, 2023 with peak integrated vapor transport exceeding  $750 \text{ kg m}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$   
164 impacted the San Francisco (SF) Bay, Russian River, and Gualala-Salmon River water-  
165 sheds immediately prior to sampling. From March 11–15, the event generated average  
166 daily integrated precipitation of 147.97 mm in the Russian and Gualala-Salmon water-

167 sheds and 101.37 mm in the SF Bay watershed. In the open ocean region off the coast  
 168 of California, sea-surface salinity was anomalously fresh (low-salinity) during spring 2023,  
 169 as observed in the SMAP salinity record (2015–2025; Figure 1B). The observed region  
 170 was also significantly more stratified than in climatological conditions (Kolmogorov-Smirnov  
 171 test:  $p < 0.01$ ), in correspondence with the regionally low salinity that likely led to en-  
 172 hanced vertical density gradients (Figure 1C). Importantly, increased stratification can  
 173 inhibit vertical mixing, in turn preventing the exchange of biogeochemical material be-  
 174 tween the surface and interior ocean, both near the coast and offshore.

### 175 **3.2 Rapid across-shore transport of runoff waters**

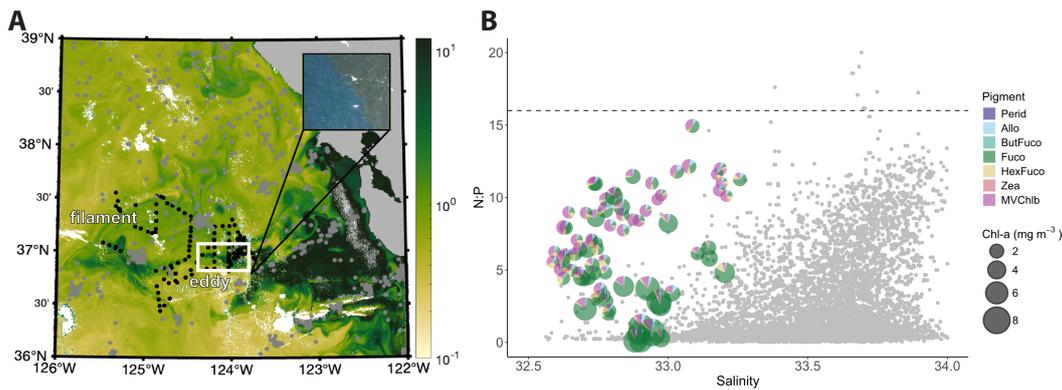
176 In contrast to a typical year where upwelling-driven productivity is associated with  
 177 relatively high salinity (salinity  $> 33$ ) (Gangrade et al., 2025; Zaba et al., 2021), some  
 178 high-Chl features were associated with relatively low salinity (salinity  $\leq 33$ ), particularly  
 179 in the offshore environment (Figure 2). Using Lagrangian methods to interrogate the water-  
 180 parcel origins, we find that most of the high-Chl water parcels, observed up to 300 km  
 181 offshore, originated near the Russian River estuary and near the SF Bay Estuary (Fig-  
 182 ure 1D, Supporting Information Figure 1). A forward tracking analysis of coastal wa-  
 183 ter parcels using high-frequency radar fields also demonstrate that water parcels effec-  
 184 tively escaped offshore to the open ocean (Supporting Information Figure 2).

185 The mode of the date of origin at the coast aligns with a runoff pulse that began  
 186 on March 8, 2023, but some of the water parcels appear to have originated during an ear-  
 187 lier upwelling pulse on February 15 (Figure 1D). The discharge during March 2023 from  
 188 the Russian River and SF Bay (from estuaries with 70 m and 5 km widths, respectively)  
 189 is of equivalent magnitude to the upwelling flux (CUTI) during this period. The observed  
 190 open ocean water mass salinity is in the range 32.5–33.4. We anticipate that the fresh-  
 191 water discharge mixed with seawater both in coastal areas and offshore and therefore im-  
 192 pacted the ocean environment hundreds of kilometers beyond the narrow coastal zone.

### 193 **3.3 Distinct biogeochemical responses in the open ocean**

194 We observed two distinct biogeochemical responses triggered by freshwater runoff  
 195 into the open ocean. These responses, associated with waters of slightly different salin-  
 196 ity ranges with potentially different origins, included differences in the composition of  
 197 nutrients, phytoplankton, and bacterioplankton communities.

198 The majority of the water parcels that appear to have originated from within the  
 199 SF Bay and Russian River estuaries were observed within a coherent submesoscale eddy  
 200 (white box in Figure 2) which had the highest observed Chl concentration (approximately  
 201 6–8  $mg\ m^{-3}$ ) during sampling and an average particulate organic carbon concentration  
 202 of 25  $mg\ m^{-3}$ . Waters within the core of this eddy were of relatively low salinity (salin-  
 203 ity  $\approx 33$ ) yet had anomalously high Chl. In the California Current System, waters of  
 204 this salinity are typically much lower in Chl than our observations (Gangrade et al., 2025;  
 205 Zaba et al., 2021). This feature also trapped water with very low nitrate:phosphate (N:P)  
 206 ratios, indicating a probable estuarine source that may have alleviated micronutrient lim-  
 207 itation, resulting in nitrate drawn down to near zero with excess phosphate (Figure 2B).  
 208 The SF Bay Estuary, one of the likely major sources of these waters (Supporting Infor-  
 209 mation Figure 1), is known to have excess phosphate (Cloern et al., 2020). The eddy fea-  
 210 ture also harbored a unique phytoplankton community with a predominance of fucox-  
 211 anthin pigments, suggesting a diatom-dominated community. The eddy, with a radius  
 212 of approximately 5 km, propagated westward at 6.5  $km\ d^{-1}$ , generating an offshore car-  
 213 bon flux of 0.16  $mg\ m^{-2}\ d^{-1}$ . This value is comparable to the average eddy flux of or-  
 214 ganic carbon in this system (Nagai et al., 2015). Submesoscale eddies such as this one  
 215 are prevalent in the California Current System and are potentially a significant route of  
 216 carbon supply to oligotrophic offshore regions through cross-shelf transport.

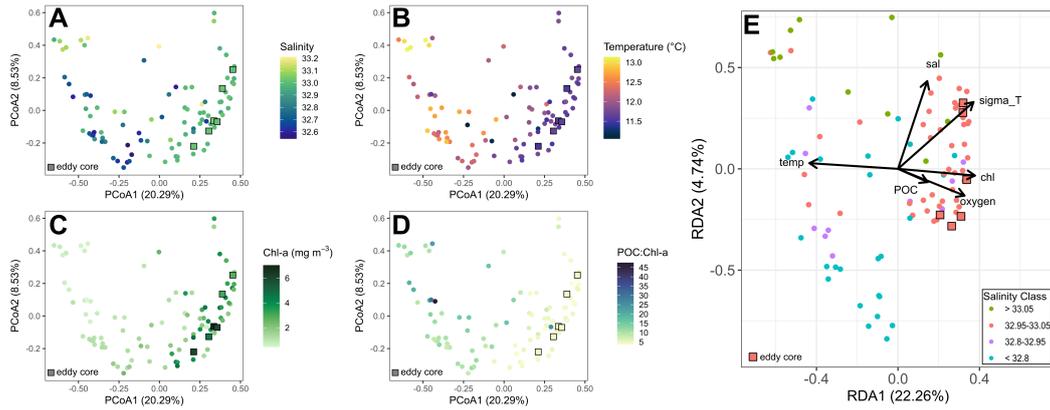


**Figure 2.** (A) Chl-*a* concentration in  $mg\ m^{-3}$  observed by Sentinel-3A on April 22, 2023. Black dots show the locations of nutrient samples. Grey dots show locations of CalCOFI stations. The inset image is a photo taken from a twin otter airplane showing the boundary between high and low Chl waters. (B) Nitrate to phosphate ratio from surface CalCOFI observations, 1954–2024 (grey) and S-MODE observations (pie charts) as a function of salinity. The pie charts show the relative concentration of each pigment, normalized by the total Chl-*a* concentration (“Perid” for peridinin, “Allo” for alloxanthin, “ButFuco” for 19’-butanoyloxyfucoxanthin, “Fuco” for fucoxanthin, “HexFuco” for 19’-hexanoyloxyfucoxanthin, “Zea” for zeaxanthin, and “MVChlb” for monovinyl chlorophyll *b*). The pie size is proportional to Chl-*a* concentration. The horizontal dashed line is the Redfield ratio (16:1 N:P)

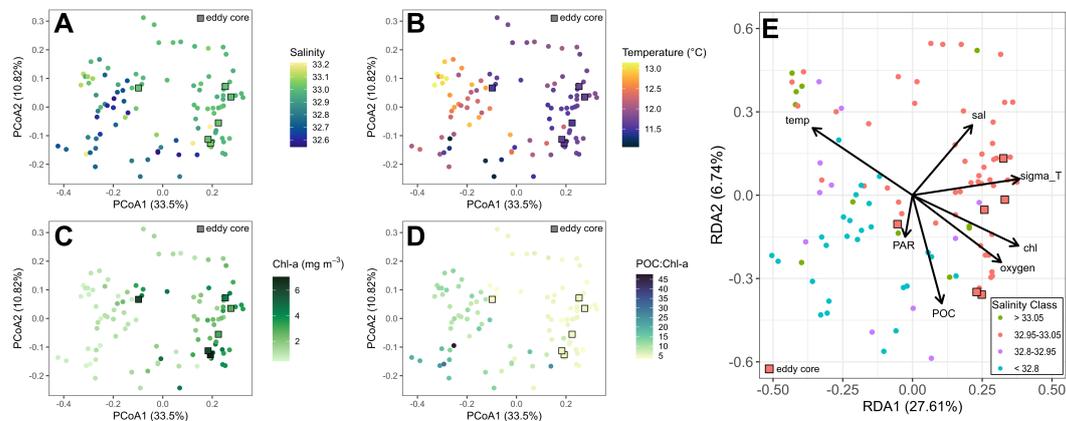
217 The remainder of the relatively low-salinity waters that were sampled were of lower  
 218 salinity and Chl-*a* (salinity < 32.9 and mean Chl-*a* =  $1.7\ mg\ m^{-3}$ ) than the eddy wa-  
 219 ters. These waters, which appeared to be transported across-shore within a filament north  
 220 of the eddy (Figure 2A), may have included: (1) water masses that advected north from  
 221 the SF Bay Estuary along the coast; (2) water masses that originated from river runoff  
 222 between Cape Mendocino and SF Bay, including the Russian River; or (3) waters of non-  
 223 coastal, possibly sub-arctic, origin. Water-parcel tracking results indicate that the fil-  
 224 ament waters had some combination of these water source origins (Supporting Informa-  
 225 tion Figure 1).

226 Despite these variable water mass origins, waters in this region were indeed anom-  
 227 alously fresh when compared with the historical CalCOFI record (1954–2024), consistent  
 228 with the anomalously low regional salinity. Strikingly, these waters had relatively high  
 229 N:P values when compared to waters of similar salinity in the historical record; however,  
 230 these N:P values fell within the range of historical observations ( $5\text{--}12\ \mu\text{M}\ N:\ \mu\text{M}\ P$ ) for  
 231 higher salinity waters. This may indicate mixing, along water mass trajectories, between  
 232 coastally-originating freshwater with low N:P and seawater with relatively high N:P. Al-  
 233 ternatively, N:P ratios in the source waters may be more similar to open ocean condi-  
 234 tions. Waters of these salinity-nutrient conditions have occurred very infrequently in this  
 235 region (Figure 2B).

236 Mixed phytoplankton communities were present in these anomalously low-salinity  
 237 filament waters (Figure 2B). The increased proportion of the pigments that are monovinyl  
 238 Chl-*b* and 19’-hex-fucoxanthin suggest a significant presence of chlorophytes (green al-  
 239 gae) and prymnesiophytes, respectively. In these waters, the biogeochemical conditions  
 240 indicate phytoplankton communities potentially limited by micronutrients: Chl was rel-  
 241 atively low while macronutrients (nitrate and phosphate) were still available. This Chl



**Figure 3.** Principle Coordinate Analysis (PCoA) of eukaryotic phytoplankton community (from 18S rRNA gene sequencing) using Bray-Curtis dissimilarity, in which each point represents a sample and is colored by (A) salinity, (B) temperature, (C) Chl-*a* concentration, and (D) POC:Chl. Eddy core samples are identified with square markers. (E) Redundancy Analysis (RDA) of environmental variables, in which each point represents a sample, distinguished by salinity class (colors): salinity > 33.05, salinity between 32.95 and 33.05, salinity between 32.8 and 32.95, and salinity < 32.8. Eddy core samples are identified with square markers. Salinity, density (sigma-T), Chl-*a* concentration (chl), dissolved oxygen (oxygen), particulate organic carbon (POC), and temperature (temp) significantly drive eukaryotic phytoplankton community composition across sites ( $p = 0.002$ ).



**Figure 4.** Principle Coordinate Analysis (PCoA) of bacterioplankton community (from 16S rRNA gene sequencing) using Bray-Curtis dissimilarity, in which each point represents a sample and is colored by (A) salinity, (B) temperature, (C) Chl-*a* concentration, and (D) POC:Chl. Eddy core samples are identified with square markers. (E) Redundancy Analysis (RDA) of environmental variables, in which each point represents a sample, distinguished by salinity class (colors): salinity > 33.05, salinity between 32.95 and 33.05, salinity between 32.8 and 32.95, and salinity < 32.8. Eddy core samples are identified with square markers. Salinity (sal), density (sigma-T), Chl-*a* concentration (chl), dissolved oxygen (oxygen), particulate organic carbon (POC), photosynthetically active radiation (PAR), and temperature (temp) significantly drive bacterioplankton community composition across sites ( $p \leq 0.026$ ).

242 signal could also be attributed to an early bloom stage in which phytoplankton were be-  
243 ginning to respond to a recent nutrient injection (Catlett et al., 2021).

244 Salinity was significantly correlated with both eukaryotic phytoplankton and bacte-  
245 rioplankton community composition and had an effect distinct from other environmen-  
246 tal variables (Figure 3 and Figure 4). Temperature and POC:Chl were also aligned with  
247 differences in eukaryotic phytoplankton and bacterioplankton community composition.  
248 Temperature, which typically has a strong positive but nonlinear relationship with ni-  
249 trate (Palacios et al., 2013), and C:Chl are known to vary with phytoplankton and bacte-  
250 rioplankton size and community structure in this region (Taylor et al., 2015). Here,  
251 in particular, the effects of temperature and Chl-*a* concentration were different from the  
252 effects of salinity in driving eukaryotic phytoplankton and bacterioplankton community  
253 composition, as evidenced by the roughly orthogonal angles between these environmen-  
254 tal variable vectors and the salinity arrow in canonical-axis space (Figure 3E and Fig-  
255 ure 4E).

256 The effects of nutrients (nitrate and phosphate) on eukaryotic phytoplankton and  
257 bacterioplankton community composition could not be tested within this framework due  
258 to limited sampling overlap. However, distinct nutrient conditions indeed existed across  
259 a narrow range of observed salinity values (Figure 2B). These observations suggest that  
260 different nutrient conditions resulted in distinct biological communities between low and  
261 high salinity waters, but also between the low-salinity filament and low-salinity eddy core.

262 In particular we found that eukaryotic phytoplankton and bacterioplankton com-  
263 munities, derived from DNA sequencing, in the anomalously low-salinity filament were  
264 distinct from eddy-core communities. Certain chlorophytes within the genera *Ostreococ-*  
265 *cus*, *Bathycoccus*, and *Micromonas* were present together and higher in relative abun-  
266 dances in low-salinity filament waters than in waters of other salinity (Supporting In-  
267 formation Figure S3). Interestingly, these filament waters also contained elevated rela-  
268 tive abundances of *Pseudo-nitzschia*, a toxigenic diatom species that is particularly com-  
269 petitive at transitions between iron-limited and iron-rich waters (Marchetti et al., 2012).  
270 In eddy-core waters, diatoms such as *Thalassiosira* were much higher in relative abun-  
271 dance than in filament waters. These observations are notably consistent with our HPLC-  
272 pigment derived observations. For bacterioplankton communities, *Alphaproteobacteria*  
273 (specifically the orders *Pelagibacterales* and *Rhodobacterales*) dominated in relative abun-  
274 dance in most waters across the observed salinity range; however, in the eddy-core wa-  
275 ters, *Flavobacteriales* within the phylum *Bacteroidetes* contributed to a higher propor-  
276 tion of relative abundance than in low-salinity filament waters (and waters of salinity  
277 higher than the eddy-core) (Supporting Information Figure S4). Some bacteria in the  
278 phylum *Bacteroidetes* are known to have associations with phytoplankton blooms, par-  
279 ticularly during bloom senescence (Teeling et al., 2016, 2012).

## 280 4 Discussion and Conclusion

281 Nearly all of the precipitation leading to flooding in northern California is due to  
282 ARs, which transport moisture from the tropics to the mid latitudes (Ralph et al., 2006;  
283 Bartusek et al., 2021). Extreme precipitation from ARs is projected to increase in fre-  
284 quency (Gershunov et al., 2019; Higgins et al., 2025), which may lead to increasing land-  
285 ocean connections due to increased river discharge. Riverine runoff is one part of the salin-  
286 ity budget in the California Current System, with advection and local precipitation also  
287 contributing, but it has unique implications for both circulation and biogeochemistry (Hoffman  
288 et al., 2022).

289 Nutrient conditions on land are typically different than in the open ocean, both in  
290 concentration and nutrient ratios. Terrestrial and coastal environments are also an im-  
291 portant source of micronutrients such as iron, which is often limiting in the California

292 Current System (Johnson et al., 1999; Hogle et al., 2018). A release from micronutrient  
293 limitation may explain the low N:P ratios and predominance of diatom-associated pig-  
294 ments and ASVs in the observations. This shift in composition, consistently detected across  
295 phytoplankton sampling methods, could have ecological and biogeochemical implications.  
296 For example, diatom cells may sink more rapidly than other phytoplankton, potentially  
297 enhancing carbon export (Durkin et al., 2016; Kramer et al., 2025). Ultimately, we pro-  
298 vide a nuanced view of the relevance of land-ocean nutrient transport: nutrient condi-  
299 tions similar to historical observations were associated with anomalously high Chl in a  
300 submesoscale eddy, while anomalous nutrient conditions (relatively high N:P) were as-  
301 sociated with fresh (low-salinity) waters that are rarely sampled in this region. These  
302 observations add to prior literature suggesting large offshore blooms in response to anoma-  
303 lous precipitation (Kudela & Chavez, 2004). But importantly, the biogeochemical im-  
304 plications of riverine-sourced runoff appear to be idiosyncratic and may vary depend-  
305 ing on the geographic origin, the timescale since origin, as well as the biogeochemistry  
306 of the source. The identification and characterization of water-mass origins are there-  
307 fore needed to further elucidate connections between source-water properties and open-  
308 ocean ecosystem dynamics after extreme precipitation events.

309 The biophysical implications of runoff-supplied nutrient input merit further study.  
310 In contrast to upwelling filaments, freshwater runoff is relatively light due to its low salin-  
311 ity. The dynamics of light filaments contrast with those of dense filaments (McWilliams  
312 et al., 2015). Rather than sinking, light filaments may be dissipated by shear dispersion,  
313 resulting in an alternative pathway of carbon export and altered spatial distribution of  
314 offshore carbon flux and enhanced submesoscale lateral dispersion (Seitz & Freilich, 2025).  
315 These shear-driven eddy dynamics may result in enhanced offshore transport rather than  
316 enhanced subduction (Gruber et al., 2011). In addition, these observations highlight the  
317 need for a more nuanced understanding of the association between elevated Chl and ed-  
318 dies. Here, we showed the coherent trapping and offshore transport of waters elevated  
319 in Chl via a submesoscale eddy. Eddies, such as the one observed in this study, can there-  
320 fore transport water quickly enough offshore to outpace phytoplankton loss due to graz-  
321 ing. However, more work is needed to understand the impact of other physical processes,  
322 like eddy-induced upwelling, and their interactions with biological growth and decay. Our  
323 observations demonstrate and provide further evidence that coherent submesoscale ed-  
324 dies facilitate cross-shelf exchange (Jhugroo et al., 2024), highlighting the need for fu-  
325 ture work to constrain their cumulative contributions.

326 Our observations suggest that increasingly extreme precipitation on land may have  
327 ecological impacts in eastern boundary currents due to changing the nutrient regime, par-  
328 ticularly alleviation of micronutrient limitation. These results may also be applicable in  
329 other regions with episodic riverine influence in the open ocean such as the Chilean coast,  
330 where precipitation is also dominated by atmospheric rivers and becoming more extreme  
331 (Lagos-Zúñiga et al., 2024). Land management, such as methods targeting flood mit-  
332 igation and nutrient runoff, has biogeochemical implications for the open ocean, even in  
333 relatively dry eastern boundary current regions.

## 334 Open Research Section

335 All S-MODE observational data are available on the NASA JPL PO.DAAC web-  
336 site: <https://podaac.jpl.nasa.gov/S-MODE>. S-MODE 16S and 18S rRNA gene sequenc-  
337 ing data are available in the NCBI SRA Project TBD (submission in progress). River  
338 discharge measurements are available at [https://waterdata.usgs.gov/monitoring-location/  
339 USGS-11467000/](https://waterdata.usgs.gov/monitoring-location/USGS-11467000/). San Francisco Bay outflow discharge data are available at [https://  
341 data.cnra.ca.gov/dataset/06ee2016-b138-47d7-9e85-f46fae674536/resource/f7c1ba7f-  
342 bd64-4762-88e3-6db9b2501b38/download/dayflowcalculations2023.csv](https://data.cnra.ca.gov/dataset/06ee2016-b138-47d7-9e85-f46fae674536/resource/f7c1ba7f-<br/>340 bd64-4762-88e3-6db9b2501b38/download/dayflowcalculations2023.csv). Data from  
342 ERA5-Land are available at <https://doi.org/10.24381/cds.e2161bac>, and for ERA5  
343 data at <https://doi.org/10.24381/cds.adbb2d47>. CalCOFI data are available at <https://>

344 calcofi.org/data/oceanographic-data/bottle-database/. CUGN data are avail-  
 345 able at <https://spraydata.ucsd.edu/data-access>. GLORYS and AVISO data are  
 346 available at <https://doi.org/10.48670/moi-00021> and <https://doi.org/10.48670/mds-00327>. CESM LENS-2 data are available at [https://esd.copernicus.org/articles/](https://esd.copernicus.org/articles/12/1393/2021/esd-12-1393-2021.html)  
 347 [12/1393/2021/esd-12-1393-2021.html](https://esd.copernicus.org/articles/12/1393/2021/esd-12-1393-2021.html). SMAP salinity data are available at [https://](https://podaac.jpl.nasa.gov/dataset/SMAP_RSS_L3_SSS_SMI_MONTHLY_V6)  
 348 [podaac.jpl.nasa.gov/dataset/SMAP\\_RSS\\_L3\\_SSS\\_SMI\\_MONTHLY\\_V6](https://podaac.jpl.nasa.gov/dataset/SMAP_RSS_L3_SSS_SMI_MONTHLY_V6). High-frequency radar  
 349 data are available at [https://dods.ndbc.noaa.gov/thredds/catalog/hfradar.html](https://dods.ndbc.noaa.gov/thredds/catalog/hfradar.html?dataset=hfradar_uswc_6km_25hravg)  
 350 [?dataset=hfradar\\_uswc\\_6km\\_25hravg](https://dods.ndbc.noaa.gov/thredds/catalog/hfradar.html?dataset=hfradar_uswc_6km_25hravg). Sentinel-3 OLCI data are available at [https://](https://doi.org/10.48670/moi-00278)  
 351 [doi.org/10.48670/moi-00278](https://doi.org/10.48670/moi-00278), and MODIS Aqua data are available at [https://doi](https://doi.org/10.5067/AQUA/MODIS/L3M/CHL/2022.0)  
 352 [.org/10.5067/AQUA/MODIS/L3M/CHL/2022.0](https://doi.org/10.5067/AQUA/MODIS/L3M/CHL/2022.0).  
 353

## 354 Conflict of Interest declaration

355 The authors declare there are no conflicts of interest for this manuscript.

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