



1 Marine Heatwaves in the Arabian Sea

2 Abhisek Chatterjee¹, Gouri Anil², Lakshmi R. Shenoy^{1,3}

3 ¹Indian National Centre for Ocean Information Services, Ministry of Earth Sciences, Hyderabad, India

4 ²Cochin University of Science and Technology, Cochin, India

5 ³Kerala University of Fisheries and Ocean Studies, Cochin, India

6 Correspondence to: Abhisek Chatterjee (abhisek.c@incois.gov.in)

7

8 **Abstract.** Marine heatwaves (MHWs) are prolonged warm sea condition events that cause a destructive impact on marine
9 ecosystems. The documentation of MHWs and assessment of their impacts are largely confined to a few regional seas or in
10 global mean studies. The Indian Ocean received almost no attention in this regard despite the fact that this ocean basin,
11 particularly the Arabian Sea, is warming at the most rapid pace among the other tropical basins in recent decades. This study
12 shows the characteristics MHWs for the Arabian Sea during 1982-2019. Our analysis shows that the duration of MHWs
13 exhibit a rapidly increasing trend of ~20 days/decade (1.5-2 count/decade) in the northern Arabian Sea and in the
14 southeastern Arabian Sea close to the west coast of India; which is more than 15 fold increase in the MHW days from the
15 early 80s'. At the same time increase in MHW frequency is ~1.5-2 count/decade i.e an increase of ~ 6 fold, indicating more
16 frequent and much longer heatwave events in the recent decade. Notably, since the beginning of the satellite record, the year
17 2010 and 2016 saw the maximum number of heatwave days with more than 75% of days of the pre-monsoon and summer
18 monsoon season experienced heatwaves. The accelerated trend of the heatwave days is found to be driven by the rapid rise
19 of the mean SST of the Arabian Sea in the recent decade. Moreover, longer heatwave days are also associated with the
20 dominant climate modes and among them, Indian Ocean Basin mode via the decaying phase of the El-Niño is found to be the
21 most influencing mode contributing in more than 70-80% of observed heatwave days in this basin. Mixed layer heat budget
22 analysis suggests significant heterogeneity in the dominant processes across the years; however, weakening of latent heat
23 loss is in general one of the key mechanism in the genesis of most of the MHWs.

24 1 Introduction

25 Sea surface temperature (SST) shows significant variability over a large spectrum of frequencies in space and time across the
26 globe. However, there are times when extremes of such variability occur causing severe stress to the local ecosystem and
27 economies driven by such ecosystems. These warmer than normal extreme ocean conditions are referred to as Marine
28 Heatwaves (MHWs) and are defined as prolonged anomalously warm ocean condition exceeding a pre-defined threshold
29 (Pearce et al., 2011; Hobday et al., 2016). These extreme warm events are shown to be responsible for widespread coral
30 bleaching (Hughes et al., 2017), loss of Kelp forest off the coast of Australia and New Zealand (Wernberg et al., 2016;



31 Thomsen et al., 2019), reduction in seagrass meadows (Arias et al., 2018) and widespread harmful algal blooms (Trainer et
32 al., 2020). Further, these events have also shown to impact economically important fishery industries in the northwest
33 Atlantic (Mills et al., 2013), northeast Pacific (Cavole et al., 2016) and coastal Australia (Caputi et al., 2016). Owing to their
34 devastating nature, MHWs and it's generating mechanisms received a lot of attention in the recent decade. Studies of major
35 MHWs that appeared in various parts of the world over the last decade suggest that evolution and the forcing mechanisms of
36 such events vary considerably from region to region and predominantly depend on the local air-sea coupling, atmospheric
37 conditions, oceanic preconditions and remote climatic teleconnections (Holbrook et al., 2019; Oliver et al., 2021). For
38 example, persistent large scale positive atmospheric pressure anomaly ridge caused unprecedented warm SST in the
39 northeastern Pacific during 2013-2016 with anomalies exceeding more than 3°C (Bond et al., 2015; Lorenzo and Mantua,
40 2016). A similar mechanism was at play during the summer of 2003 in the Mediterranean Sea (Olita et al., 2006) and in the
41 Tasman Sea during the summer of 2017/18 off the coast of New Zealand (Salinger et al., 2019). On the other hand,
42 advection of warm water found to be responsible for the widespread MHW in the tropical ocean around Australia in
43 2015/2016 (Benthuyssen et al., 2018), southeast of Australia in the Tasman Sea during 2015/16 (Oliver et al., 2017) and off
44 the coast of California (Durazo et al., 2002). Climate variabilities also play a significant role in modulating MHWs in the
45 tropical/extratropical oceans (Holbrook et al., 2019). Among them El-Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) shown to be the
46 dominant climate mode that influences MHW occurrence and duration in the tropical Pacific (Holbrook et al., 2020). In the
47 Indian Ocean, the positive phase of ENSO (Roxy et al., 2014; Chakravorty et al., 2014), Indian Ocean Basin Mode (Klein et
48 al., 1999; Du et al., 2009) and Indian Ocean Dipole mode (Saji et al., 1999; Chowdary and Gnanaseelan, 2007) favour
49 warming of SST in large part of the basin. In the extratropics, MHWs in the northeast Pacific is primarily associated with the
50 positive phase of Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) in interannual time scale and Pacific Decadal Oscillation and North
51 Pacific Gyre Oscillation (NGPO) in longer time scale (Lorenzo and Mantua, 2016). Whereas, North Atlantic oscillation
52 (NAO) shows strong associations in the MHWs of the northwest Atlantic (Scannell et al., 2016).

53

54 Unfortunately, while the understanding of the genesis of MHWs across the globe advanced rapidly over the last decade,
55 there is no study even to document these events in the northern Indian Ocean. Moreover, over the last few decades Indian
56 Ocean, particularly the Arabian Sea, sees rapid warming at a rate much faster than the other tropical basins (Levitus et al.,
57 2012). This warming not only show a negative influence on the primary productivity of the Arabian Sea (Roxy et al., 2016)
58 but also influences a shift in the phytoplankton community from diatoms to *Noctiluca scintillans* in the northern Arabian
59 Sea (Goes et al., 2020), reduced rainfall in the Indian continent (Roxy et al., 2015) and increase flood in the Indian mainland
60 (Ajaymohon and Suryachandra, 2008). Moreover, the frequency of cyclogenesis in the Arabian Sea has also increased over
61 the last few decades largely believed to be driven by this rapid rise in the SST. However, the impact of persistent MHW on
62 this enhanced cyclogenesis is still yet to be explored. Further, the southeastern Arabian Sea and the northern Arabian Sea are
63 also economically very important as they constitute one of the major fishing zones in the Arabian Sea. As per the recent
64 report from Central Marine Fisheries Research Institute, India (CMFRI, 2007) total fish landing from the Indian exclusive



65 economic zones (EEZ) is 2.49×10^6 tonnes during 2001-2005 and among them, 67% of the catch is from the eastern Arabian
66 Sea (Shankar et al., 2018). Hence, like other parts of the global ocean, MHWs in this region is very likely significantly
67 influencing the local marine ecosystem, the migration of species and the associated fishery-dependent economy. Therefore,
68 documenting and understanding the genesis of MHWs in the Arabian Sea, particularly in the coastal oceans which possess
69 significant economic importance, is necessary for better prediction of these MHWs and assessment of their impacts on this
70 region. Hence, in this study, we document MHWs in the Arabian Sea with a special emphasis on the coastal waters close to
71 the west coast of India and try to decipher the possible physical mechanisms that influence the genesis of such heatwaves in
72 this region. Next, in Section 2 we describe the data we use and the model configuration, experiments and forcing. Section 3
73 describe the observed trend in the MHWs. The influence of SST trend and the variabilities are given in Section 4. In Section
74 5, the impact of various climate modes are discussed. In Section 7, the role of various physical processes during some of the
75 strongest heatwaves are presented based on a mixed layer heat budget study and finally, Section 7 summarizes our main
76 results and discuss possible implications of this study.

77 **2 Data and Methodology**

78 **2.1 Sea Surface Temperature and MHW Detection**

79 To detect MHWs for the Arabian Sea, we have used daily NOAA OISST version 2 (Reynolds et al., 2007). The SST data are
80 analysed for the period of 1982-2019 available on a $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ grid. The MHW detection tool “*heatwaveR*” package
81 (Schlegel and Smit, 2018) is used for MHW detection. This tool uses MHW definition based on Hobday et al. (2016) and
82 characterizes MHW as an anomalous, warm, discrete event prolonged for more than 5 continuous days with SST more than a
83 particular threshold. The threshold is defined from a fixed seasonal climatological baseline with warmer SST above the 90th
84 percentile of the daily variability. Two consecutive events within 3 days are considered as a single event. The climatological
85 baseline is defined based on a fixed 30 year period 1982-2011. This seasonally varying threshold allows heatwaves events to
86 occur at any season across the year. In order to understand the MHW characteristics, three heatwave metrics are evaluated
87 here: MHW duration defined as the days between the start and end dates of an event, MHW intensity which refers to
88 maximum SST anomaly during an event and MHW frequency calculated based on the number of events occur during a
89 season or year.

91 **2.2 Ocean Model**

92 The model used in the present study is an ocean general circulation model based on Modular Ocean Model version 5
93 (MOM5; Griffies, 2012). The model configuration uses a hydrostatic and Boussinesq approximation with model coordinates
94 are discretized based on generalised orthogonal coordinates in horizontal and z^* -coordinate in the vertical. The model
95 domain extends from 30°E - 120°E and 30°S - 30°N with a uniform horizontal resolution of $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ and 40 z^* levels in the



96 vertical. The model bathymetry is based on Sindhu et al. (2007) with a minimum depth set to 15 m. The horizontal mixing is
97 based on Griffies & Hallberg, (2000) and the vertical mixing scheme is based on Large et al. (1994). To keep the model
98 stable, the horizontal friction is set to the lowest value. The temperature and salinity fields are relaxed to climatological
99 values (Chatterjee et al., 2012) with a time scale of 30 days within the 4° sponge layer at the open eastern and southern
100 boundaries. Salinity at the surface is restored with a relaxation of 15 days. To realistically simulate the cross basin flow, the
101 narrow Palk strait between India and Sri Lanka is closed in this model (Chatterjee et al., 2013, 2017).

102 2.2.1 Model experiments and forcing

103 The model is initially spin-up for 35 years from a state of rest and then the interannual run was carried out for 1990-2018
104 using restart state of the ocean from the final year simulation of the climatological run. For forcing the model, surface
105 momentum fluxes (zonal and meridional wind stress) and surface heat fluxes (shortwave radiation, longwave radiation, air
106 temperature and 2 m specific humidity) are obtained from Tropflux data (Praveen et al., 2012, 2013). The precipitation and
107 surface air pressure are obtained from NCEP reanalysis product (Kalnay et al., 1996). The monthly climatological river
108 discharge is based on Vörösmarty et al. (1996) and Papa et al. (2010) and is introduced over the top 15 m of the water
109 column. The model is extensively validated for the north Indian Ocean in earlier studies (Chatterjee et al., 2013, 2019;
110 Shankar et al., 2016, 2018; Vijith et al., 2016; Lakshmi et al., 2020). In order to analyse model simulated anomaly for each
111 variables, this 29 years interannual simulation is used to calculate a climatological field.

112 2.2.2 Mixed layer heat budget

113 In order to understand the dominant physical forcing in the genesis of MHWs a volume-averaged mixed layer heat budget
114 analysis has been carried out using the temperature and velocity fields taken from the model simulation. The mixed layer
115 temperature tendency over the time-varying mixed layer and fixed region of area A is given by

$$\frac{\partial \bar{T}}{\partial t} = \underbrace{\frac{-\overline{V_H T}}{Adv_H}} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{\rho C_p} \int_A \frac{Q}{h} dA}_{Q_v} - \underbrace{w \frac{\partial \bar{T}}{\partial z} - \frac{1}{Ah} \int_A (k_v \frac{\partial T}{\partial z})}_{Subsurface Process} -h \quad (1)$$

116 Where T is the SST, t is time, overbar represents volume averaged over the region A and within the time-varying mixed
117 layer depth h . Adv_H is the horizontal advection of temperature, Q is the net surface heat flux corrected for shortwave
118 penetration below the surface mixed layer, ρC_p is the specific heat capacity of seawater, w represents the vertical velocity
119 and k_v is the vertical eddy diffusivity. The vertical advection and diffusion together represent subsurface processes that
120 influence mixed layer temperature.



121 **3 Trends in the MHW**

122 Figure 1 shows the trend of various MHWs characteristics of the Arabian Sea (north of 5°N). The number of MHW days
123 increased significantly over the entire Arabian Sea (Figure 1a). The northern Arabian Sea and the southern Arabian Sea
124 show the strongest annual increasing trend with a rate of ~3 days/year. A similar increasing trend is also noticeable in the
125 Persian Gulf and the Gulf of Aden, two marginal seas connected to the Arabian Sea. The rest of the Arabian Sea, including
126 the coastal water of India, shows an annual increase in the MHW days at a rate of 1.5-2 days/year. Note that the north Indian
127 ocean sees rapid warming during the pre-monsoon or spring intermonsoon (PRM; March-April-May) and the summer
128 monsoon (SWM; June-July-August-September) seasons when the Inter-Tropical Convergence Zone moves to the northern
129 hemisphere over the Indian landmasses. This is the time, the Indian Ocean warm pool covers a large part of the southern and
130 eastern part of the Arabian Sea and the SST reaches more close to 31°C (Joseph, 1990; Vinayachandran and Shetye, 1991;
131 Shenoj et al., 1999; Chatterjee et al., 2012). Therefore, it is likely that this mean SST rise during these two seasons possibly
132 has a large impact on the MHW genesis over this region. Hence, the characteristics of these extreme events during the PRM
133 and SWM seasons are investigated separately. Interestingly, PRM and SWM constitute most of the marine heatwave days
134 observed annually across the years with about 60% of heatwaves days occur during these two seasons in the Arabian Sea.
135 Moreover, the trends of the heatwave days show marked spatial contrast between the two seasons (Figure 1d, g). During
136 PRM season, the strongest trend is primarily limited to the northern Arabian Sea along the coast of Pakistan, the
137 northwestern coast of India (coast of Gujarat and Maharashtra) and in the western boundary of the Arabian Sea along the
138 coast of Arabia and Somalia. Whereas, the rest of the Arabian Sea does not show any notable increase in heatwave days. On
139 the other hand, during SWM, a significant increase in heatwave days is observed in the southeastern Arabian Sea,
140 particularly all along the west coast of India. Additionally, the northern Arabian Sea continues to show a significant
141 increasing trend similar to the PRM season but now limited mostly along the coast of Pakistan. During this season the
142 western Arabian Sea does not show any significant trend in heatwave days.

143
144 The frequency of heatwaves also show a marginal annual increasing trend across the Arabian Sea, but the stronger trend of
145 ~0.06-0.08 count/year is limited to the southern and northeastern Arabian Sea and all along the west coast of India (Figure
146 1b). During PRM and SWM season, the increasing trend of heatwave frequency is mostly collocated with the regions where
147 an increasing trend of heatwave days is observed (Figure 1e, h). Therefore, while during PRM season an increasing trend in
148 frequency is observed in the northern Arabian Sea region at a rate of ~0.1-0.15 count/year, the SWM season shows a similar
149 trend along the west coast of India and across the southeastern Arabian Sea region. Note here that, annually while the
150 increase in the number of heatwaves over the four decades is only about 3-4 counts, the heatwave days have increased by
151 about 80-120 days. This means that the increase in heatwave events is much smaller compared to the observed increase in
152 heatwave days annually; indicating that in the recent decades the heatwaves have turned much prolonged than that of the
153 early 80s' and 90s'. On the other hand, heatwave intensity shows a meagre increase over most part of the Arabian Sea. The



154 most intense MHW intensity is experienced in northern Arabian Sea where an increasing rate of $\sim 0.05^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{year}$ is observed
155 during the PRM season.

156

157 Next, in order to understand the heatwave mechanisms in detail, based on the observed trend of the various heatwave
158 characteristics, we have selected two regions in the Arabian Sea for further analysis: the northern Arabian Sea (NAS; 60°E -
159 70°E , 18°N - 25°N) and the southeastern Arabian Sea (SEAS ; 65°E - 74°E , 7°N - 16°N) (black boxes in Figure 1). Figure 2 shows
160 the time series of percentage of heatwave days across each year annually and seasons-wise since 1982 for these two selected
161 regions. In both the regions, the number of heatwave days were comparatively low until the year 2000 except for the year
162 1986/87, 1992 and 1998 coinciding with the decaying phase of the El-Niño and the positive phase of the Indian Ocean Basin
163 Mode (Figure 2a, b). During this pre-2000 era annually only ~ 5 - 10% of days experience heatwaves in these regions. Post-
164 2000, the number of heatwave days increase significantly with an average of ~ 10 - 20% days experience heatwave in almost
165 all years. Further, the rapid increase in heatwave days is observed from the year 2015 with at least 25 - 50% of days
166 experience heatwave. During PRM season, the percentage of heatwave days is marginally higher in the NAS compared to
167 the SEAS (Figure 3c, d). Moreover, as noted for annual, during PRM season, NAS shows a marked rise in heatwave days
168 from the year 2015 with consistently more than 25 - 50% of days experience heatwave in this region. Nevertheless, during the
169 entire satellite era, the year 2010 and 2016 stands out as both regions experience heatwave for almost all days during this
170 season. During SWM season, the characteristics of heatwave days remain similar as was observed in PRM. The only
171 exception is that since 2015, SEAS experiences more heatwave days than the NAS. Particularly, the summer of 2015, 2017
172 and 2019 sees at least 50% or more heatwave days in the SEAS.

173

174 Overall, there is a notable increasing trend of the heatwave days annually and for the PRM and SWM seasons. Interestingly,
175 the rapid increase in MHW days in the last decade coincide with the period of rapid mean SST warming of this region. This
176 indicates that the anthropogenic warming of the mean SST is likely behind this increased heatwaves over this region.
177 Further, most of the intense heatwave years also coincide with the El-Niño year or the year next to the El-Niño year
178 suggesting an important role of climate modes in modulating these extreme events in this region which is in agreement with
179 what is observed in other regional seas across the world ocean.

180 **4 Role of Indian Ocean Warming and SST Variability**

181 The Indian Ocean is warming rapidly over the last few decades. An estimate based on Enhanced Reconstructed Sea Surface
182 Temperature (ERSSTv4) indicates that the tropical Indian Ocean is warming at a rate of $0.15^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{decade}$ during 1951-2015
183 (Roxy et al., 2020). Notably, during the summer monsoon, the western Arabian Sea experienced anomalous warming of
184 more than $\sim 1.2^{\circ}\text{C}$ during 1950-2012 (Roxy et al., 2014). SST trend calculated during this study period (1982-2019) for the
185 Arabian Sea indicates that annual anomalous warming of $\sim 1.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ in the recent decade is limited in the northern part of the



186 Arabian Sea and $\sim 0.75^{\circ}\text{C}$ in some part of the southern Arabian Sea (Figure 3a). However, the season-wise SST trend shows
187 pronounced spatial contrast between PRM and SWM seasons: while during PRM, NAS experiences anomalous warming of
188 more than $\sim 1.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ (Figure 3b), during SWM the warming of $\sim 0.75\text{--}1^{\circ}\text{C}$ is located close to the west coast of India (Figure 3c).
189 Interestingly, regions of the this strongest warming trend also experience an increasing trend of MHWs (see Figure 1),
190 indicating that the warming of the mean SST contributes to the increasing trend of heatwave days in the Arabian Sea. This is
191 in agreement with Oliver et al. (2019) who suggest that during the satellite period about 2/3rd of the global ocean experiences
192 an increasing trend of heatwave days due to the rising mean temperature of the ocean.

193

194 In order to understand the importance of the mean SST trend and the variability in the SST on the heatwave days over the
195 Arabian Sea, the SST time series is decomposed as below:

$$T(t) = T^{tr}(t) + T^{var}(t), \quad (2)$$

196 here, $T(t)$ is the time series of SST, $T^{tr}(t)$ is the SST trend, and $T^{var}(t)$ is the SST anomaly after removing the trend.
197 Figure 4 shows the time series of the percentage of heatwave days based on detrended SST time series (T^{var}). In this case,
198 the duration of MHWs for each year and seasons is primarily due to the variability of SST. The major contrast between
199 heatwave days based on $T(t)$ and $T^{var}(t)$ (Compare Figure 2 and 4) is that there is no secular trend in the heatwave days
200 when calculated based on the only SST variability. This supports that the increasing trend in the MHW days in the Arabian
201 Sea is driven by the rising temperature of the mean SST and not the variability. Noticeably, it is evident that these extreme
202 warm events are a regular phenomenon and existed since the record of satellite observation. Owing to the definition of
203 MHWs, these extreme events in the '80s and '90s are underestimated. Note also that SST variability contributed most
204 strongly during the PRM season of 2010 in the NAS region with almost 50-75% of days of this season experienced
205 heatwaves due to SST variability (Figure 4c). The 2016 event was the second most event in this region contributed strongly
206 by the SST variability. In fact, as will see in the next section, we find that these large number of heatwave days during PRM
207 season is primarily driven by El-Niño via the positive phase of Indian Ocean Basin mode. In contrast, in the SEAS, the SST
208 variability contributed most for the year 2016 with almost 20-40% of the observed heatwave days. The other notable years
209 are 1988, 1998 and 2003 when a considerable number of days experience heatwave in this region due to SST variability
210 alone. On the other hand, during the SWM season, the contribution of SST variability is most notable for the year 1982,
211 1983, 1987, 1988, and 2010 in the NAS and the year 1983, 1987, 2003 and 2015 in the SEAS.

212

213 In order to compare the role of mean SST warming with the SST variability, Figure 5 shows that the time series of the ratio
214 of the heatwave days owing to the SST trend and its variability by rearranging Equation (2) as follows:

$$\frac{MHW(T^{tr})}{MHW(T^{var})} = MHW\left(\frac{T}{T^{var}} - 1\right) \approx \frac{MHW(T)}{MHW(T^{var})} - 1 \quad (3)$$

215 assuming that MHW based on T^{tr} and T^{var} are independent of each other. This is a fairly good approximation as the
216 seasonal climatology is prepared using a 30 year record and doesn't include the last decade when rapid increase in SST is



217 observed and thus, can provide useful insight of the role of mean warming trend of the SST on the MHW generation. It shows
218 a very secular shift after the year 2000 in the driving force of the total annual heatwave days in the Arabian Sea. While,
219 during the pre-2000 era the natural variability of SST contributes most in driving the MHWs, post-2000 the warming trend
220 of mean SST becomes the dominant factor. It also shows that the influence of mean SST warming increased very rapidly
221 over the last two decades which is expected to continue further under the unabated Indian Ocean warming. However, there
222 are years when the ratio is much smaller when the climate mode driven variability contributes significantly to these extreme
223 warm events as noted in Figure 4.

224 **5 Role of Dominant Climate Modes**

225 Indian Ocean dipole mode (IOD) and El-Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) are the two dominant climate modes that
226 contribute to the SST variability of the tropical Indian Ocean in interannual timescale (Saji et al., 1999; Du et al., 2009).
227 During the positive phase of the IOD, the western Indian Ocean shows anomalous warming, whereas the eastern Indian
228 Ocean cools. In the negative phase, the sign of the SST anomaly reverses. Similarly, ENSO modulates the SST in the
229 tropical Pacific, but the influence of ENSO can be felt in other basins as well through an atmospheric teleconnection via
230 anomalous Walker circulation (Du et al., 2009) and the inter-basin transport of water mass properties (Lee et al., 2015).
231 During the positive phase of ENSO i.e. during El-Niño, the western Indian Ocean shows warmer anomaly due to the
232 weakening of the summer monsoon winds and increased shortwave radiation (Swapna et al., 2014). On the other hand,
233 during La-Nina, most parts of the Indian Ocean experiences cooler anomaly except the west coast of Australia where SST
234 elevated due to heat transport via Leeuwin current (Benthuisen et al., 2014). Associated with the direct impact of ENSO, the
235 Indian Ocean warming mode (also referred to as Indian Ocean Basin mode; IOBM) which peaks during the decaying phase
236 of the El-Niño and after the La-Nina, also contributes to the widespread warming of the tropical Indian Ocean (Xie et al.,
237 2009). Moreover, North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) also shown to play an important role in modulating SST of the Indian
238 ocean in interannual to decadal time scale (Xie et al., 2021). Therefore, these climate modes can support the genesis or
239 suppression of heatwaves depending upon their phases via modulating the thermocline depth and associated air-sea
240 interactions of the basin (Hobrook et al., 2019, 2020; Oliver et al., 2021).

241

242 In this section, we will look at the role of these climate modes, particularly IOD, ENSO, IOBM and NAO on the genesis of
243 MHWs in the Arabian Sea. As noted already in the previous section that the most number of heatwave days observed either
244 during the El-Niño years or during the decaying phase of the El-Niño i.e. during the positive phase of the IOBM. This
245 indicates that the El-Niño and IOBM climate modes play a significant role in modulating heatwaves in this region. Figure 6a
246 shows the correlation between MHW days derived from the detrended SST observation and the above-mentioned climate
247 modes. ENSO shows the strongest correlation in the southcentral Arabian Sea with a correlation coefficient of ~ 0.5 . The
248 correlation decreases northward and in fact, turns negative in the Persian Gulf region. The influence of IOD is most



249 prominent in the western Arabian Sea in the vicinity of the western box of the IOD. Otherwise, the correlation is generally
250 weak for the rest of the basin except close to the coast of Iran and Pakistan where a marginal increase in correlation is
251 observed. However, note here that, unlike ENSO, the spatial and temporal lengthscale of IOD is much smaller and thus, the
252 correlation across the entire year may be less, but can still influence significantly over a larger region during its peak phase.
253 As expected, the IOBM, which represents the basin-wide warming mode of the tropical Indian Ocean, shows the strongest
254 influence on the MHW days with a correlation coefficient of ~ 0.5 in most part of the Arabian Sea. In this case also, like
255 ENSO, the correlation decreases in the north. The influence of NAO is the weakest among the other climate modes and
256 mostly limited to the SEAS region close to the southern part of the west coast of India during the the negative phase.

257

258 As evident in the correlation map, the strong association of IOBM with the MHW days also reflected in the large percentage
259 of heatwaves days that co-occur with the positive phase of the IOBM (Figure 6b). Annually, about 60% and 75% of
260 heatwave days co-occur with the positive IOBM in the NAS and SEAS, respectively. These co-existing numbers go much
261 higher during the PRM season with more than 82% of heatwave days coincide with the positive IOBM phase in the SEAS
262 region. The next most influencing climate mode is the positive phase of ENSO or El-Niño. This is more conspicuous during
263 the PRM season as both the region experiences close to 50% co-existence between heatwave days and El-Niño. On the other
264 hand, positive IOD also significantly co-exist with more than 40% of heatwave days during this season. During the SWM
265 season, this association between IOBM and heatwaves decrease a bit with about 43% and 68% of heatwave days co-occur
266 with the positive IOBM in the NAS and SEAS, respectively. The influence of El-Niño, on the other hand, show marked
267 difference between NAS and SEAS region. During summer, while in the SEAS El-Niño co-occur with $\sim 50\%$ heatwave days;
268 in the NAS, both the phase (i.e. El-Niño and La-Nina) co-occur in $\sim 20\%$ heatwave days. This equal co-occurrence of
269 heatwave days in NAS indicates that there is no causal relationship between heatwave and ENSO in this region and
270 therefore, possibly a mere coincidence. A similar relationship is observed for the IOD mode as well i.e. heatwaves during its
271 positive and negative phase co-occur for an almost similar number of days and therefore, hinted that IOD most likley don't
272 cause heatwaves in the NAS during summer months. On the other hand, as seen in the correlation maps, the negative phase
273 of NAO likely contributes to the genesis of MHWs in the SEAS with close to 20% of heatwave days coincide with this mode
274 during this season.

275 **6 Dynamical mechanisms**

276 The dynamical processes responsible for the genesis of MHWs across the global ocean vary significantly (Helbrook et al.,
277 2019). The processes involved in the generation of heatwaves in a particular region can be assessed through the analysis of
278 heat sources and sinks in the upper mixed layer which ultimately reflects in the variation of the SST. This approach was
279 employed earlier for the understanding of the evolution of heatwaves during the 2011 Ningaloo Nino off Western Australia
280 (Benthuyesen et al., 2014), during 2012 warming off northeastern America (Chen et al., 2014) and in the East China Sea and



281 the south Yellow Sea during the summer of 2016-2018 (Gao et al., 2020). Here, we have used a similar mixed layer heat
282 budget formulation for the Arabian Sea (see Equation 1) to understand the dominant physical processes that are likely
283 favouring the generation of MHWs in this region for some of the years when a large number of days experience heatwaves.

284

285 Figure 7a and 8a show that mixed layer heat budget anomaly terms along with the mean seasonal SSTs for the years when
286 prominent heatwave days observed (see Figure 3) averaged during PRM and SWM season, respectively. Model simulated
287 mixed layer heat budget and SST anomalies are calculated based on climatology prepared based on interannual simulation
288 for the period 1990-2018.

289

290 For the PRM season (Figure 7a), NAS and SEAS exhibit the maximum number of heatwave days during 1998, 2002, 2003,
291 2010 and 2016. However, the dominant processes are somewhat different for each year. For example, during 1998, rapid
292 warming is seen over a large part of the NAS, but it is limited towards the coast in the SEAS region in the south. However,
293 SEAS show a slightly higher number of heatwave days than the NAS. A closer look at the heat budget anomalies suggests
294 that while surface heat flux (Q_v) contribute strongly to the warming of the NAS region, the advection and subsurface
295 processes contribute negatively over a large part of this region. This resulted in fewer heatwaves in the north. However, in
296 the SEAS, strong Q_v along with persistent background warm condition resulted in a higher number of heatwave days.
297 Similarly, for 2002 and 2003, the background warm SST plays the key role in heatwave generation in the north; however, in
298 the south Q_v , subsurface processes and advection also contribute positively. During 2010 the highest number of heatwave
299 observed in NAS; SEAS also sees a significant number of heatwave days, but a 10-20% fewer than the NAS (Figure 2).
300 This large number of heatwave days in NAS is also evident in the positive tendency anomaly averaged over the entire season
301 and primarily contributed by the strong positive Q_v anomaly and the very warm pre-condition of the SST over this region. In
302 the SEAS, the milder positive Q_v anomaly resulted in a fewer number of heatwaves than in the NAS region. On the other
303 hand, during 2016, while strong positive Q_v anomaly contributes to the heatwave formation in the NAS, the weaker
304 subsurface processes and advection of warm water with the warm SST pre-conditioning resulted in heatwaves in the SEAS.
305 A split-up of the surface flux components contributing to Q_v (Figure 7b) indicates that positive Q_v anomaly over the NAS
306 region during 1998 and 2010 is primarily driven by a weakening of latent heat loss owing to the weaker winds and positive
307 sensible heat flux anomaly driven by the warmer air temperature. The shortwave heat flux plays a secondary role in elevating
308 Q_v over this region.

309

310 For the SWM season (Figure 8a, b), the heatwaves show large spatial heterogeneity. The largest number of heatwave days
311 observed in the SEAS during 2015 driven by very warm background SST which further augmented by lower latent heat loss
312 due to weaker winds and positive shortwave anomaly owing to the El-Niño atmospheric teleconnection. A similar pre-
313 conditioning of SST contributed to the larger heatwaves in the year 2003 and 2010 summer as well. However, during



314 summer 2002, the positive surface heat flux driven by very strong positive shortwave flux and weaker latent and sensible
315 heat loss contributed to the genesis of heatwaves in the SEAS.

316

317 Overall, heatwave genesis and its forcing mechanisms vary considerably from year to year and also within the Arabian Sea.
318 Case studies concerning heatwaves of a particular region during a specific season is required to understand the complete
319 process of its evolution and decay for the respective events.

320 **7 Summary and discussion**

321 In this study, we have investigated the trends and genesis of the MHWs in the Arabian Sea (north of 5°N). Particularly we
322 studied the three main metrics of heatwaves: duration, frequency and intensity for the period of 1982-2019 and rallied
323 primarily on the OISSTv2 SST observations. Further, we have also used an ocean model simulation based on Modular
324 Ocean Model version 5 (MOM5) to conduct a mixed layer heat budget study for understanding the underlying forcing
325 mechanism in the genesis of such heatwave events.

326

327 Like other regions of the world ocean, we find that the Arabian Sea also experiences a rapid increase in heatwave days. At
328 the same time, heatwave frequency shows a marginal increase, suggesting that the heatwaves have now become prolonged
329 and in fact, sometimes persistent for an entire season in the recent decade. However, owing to the weaker SST variability
330 due to the proximity to the equatorial region, there is no significant increase in the heatwave intensity, a parameter often used
331 for marking these events and thus makes this region remained unexplored in terms of MHWs in other global studies. The
332 increasing trend of heatwave days is mainly evident post-2000 era and become conspicuous after the year 2015.

333

334 A detailed study for the pre-monsoon (or spring intermonsoon) and the summer monsoon indicates that the heatwave trend
335 varies significantly across the seasons. During pre-monsoon, an increase in heatwave days at a rate of 15-20 days/decade is
336 evident are primarily in the northern part of the Arabian Sea and along the coast of Arabia. However, during summer, the
337 increasing trend at a similar rate is most evident all along the coast of India and over a large part of the southeastern Arabian
338 Sea. Noticeably, across the last four decades, the year 2010 and 2016 show the longest heatwave days during both the
339 seasons and in fact, was persistent for the entire pre-monsoon season at few locations across the Arabian Sea. The regions of
340 strong heatwave trends also found to be collocated with the regions of strong SST warming trend in the recent decade. An
341 analysis of heatwave days based on detrended SST anomaly, suggests that the enormous trend in the observed heatwave days
342 are primarily linked to the rise in the mean SST of the Arabian Sea. The switch between the dominance of SST variability to
343 the mean SST warming happened sometime around the year 2000. However, SST variability still contributes in a significant
344 way for the years when climate variability dominated by major climate modes and cause a major source of SST warming in
345 this basin. A detailed study of the association of heatwave days and these climate modes indicate that the Indian Ocean Basin



346 mode (also refers as Indian Ocean warming mode) via the decaying phase of the El-Niño influence very strongly the genesis
347 of MHWs. In fact, during pre-monsoon, when this Indian Ocean Basin Mode is most active, co-exists in more than 70-80%
348 of heatwave days. During the summer monsoon, its influence weakens a bit over the entire Arabian Sea but remains
349 significantly large in the southeastern Arabian Sea. However, co-existing days reduced to merely 40% in the northern part
350 as is also evident in the correlation maps. The next most influencing climate modes are found to be El-Niño and positive
351 IOD. Both these modes contribute to about 40-50% of heatwave days in the northern Arabian Sea during pre-monsoon.
352 During the summer monsoon, the impact of these climate modes are relatively less but still contribute to more than 40% of
353 heatwave days in the southeastern Arabian Sea. But, in the north, the influence of El-niño and IOD is almost negligible
354 during this season.

355

356 A mixed layer heat budget shows a strong heterogeneity in the forcing mechanisms of the genesis of MHWs in the Arabian
357 Sea. As already mentioned, the background SST warming is the primary mechanism of the genesis of heatwaves in the
358 recent decade. However, the weakening of latent heat loss due to the weakening of winds driven by climatic factors
359 contribute significantly on a regional scale. The increased shortwave radiation likely due to the anomalous clear skies driven
360 by El-Niño atmospheric teleconnection also contributes as a secondary forcing mechanism for such events. Note, however,
361 that this study doesn't divulge details about their evolution, sustainability and decay as the observed heatwaves in each year
362 or season evolve differently forced by a different combination of forcing. Case studies designed for a particular heatwave
363 event are necessary for such understanding and therefore, to be taken separately as future studies.

364

365 This rapid increase in heatwave days in the northern and southeastern Arabian Sea is likely to cause a severe impact on the
366 physio-biogeochemical processes of this basin. One such possible impact is the recent increase in the harmful algal bloom in
367 the Arabian Sea. Recent studies suggest that there is a manifold increase in the harmful phytoplankton blooms in the
368 northern Arabian Sea and along the west coast of India attributed primarily to the increased stratification, weaker winds and
369 warming of the Arabian Sea (Padmakumar et al., 2012; Al Shehhi et al., 2014; Goes et al., 2020). Considering that the region
370 of increased toxic blooms are collocated with the regions where the heatwave days observed, the possibility that the relation
371 between these heatwave events and triggering of harmful blooms can not be negated.

372

373 Another possible implication of these increase heatwave days is the increased cyclogenesis over the Arabian Sea.
374 Dramatically, while earlier most of these tropical cyclones used to be towards the coast of Arabia (Figure 9a), in a recent
375 development, in the last few years severe cyclones are hitting the west coast of India. One such cyclone in the recent year
376 was *Nisarga* which made landfall in Mumbai (a city located on the west coast of India) in summer 2020 and wracked havoc
377 by causing loss of life and property over a vast area. Interestingly, this cyclone ended a one half month persistent heatwave
378 of intensity more than 1°C along the west coast of India (Figure 9b). It is not clear though if this intense heatwave over a vast
379 area off the west coast of India had any influence on the genesis of this cyclone. Interestingly, while we are writing this



380 paper, another severe cyclone *Tauktae* hit the west coast of India and cause large damage to the property and life and this
381 time as well the SST was more than 31°C off the west coast of India. Hence, there is a clear association between the
382 heatwaves and the increased cyclogenesis along the west coast in the last few years. Further study is required to understand
383 the dynamical link between them.

384

385 In summary, this study documented marine heatwaves and their various characteristics in the Arabian Sea. This is the first
386 study where a detailed analysis of marine heatwave for the Arabian Sea, particularly for the coastal water of economic
387 importance is discussed. This will give the opportunity to further investigate the impact of the heatwave events on the coastal
388 ecosystem and other oceanic properties of this tropical basin.

389 **Author contribution**

390 AC designed the study and wrote the paper, AC and GA performed the data analysis, LRS conducted the model experiments
391 and analysed the heat budget component. All authors contributed in the developing the research and contribute in discussion.

392 **Competing interests**

393 The authors declare no competing interests.

394 **Data availability**

395 The daily OISST is obtained from <https://coastwatch.pfeg.noaa.gov/erddap/>. The daily north Atlantic oscillation index was
396 provided by by NCEP Climate Prediction Centre (<https://ftp.cpc.ncep.noaa.gov/cwlinks/>). The best track data for cyclones
397 are obtained from “Best Track Archive” of Joint Typhoon Warning Centre. The model simulations will be made available
398 upon request. The marine heatwave detection tool `heatwaveR` was taken from
399 <https://robwschlegel.github.io/heatwaveR/index.html>.

400 **Acknowledgement**

401 The lead author thank the support provided by the Indian National Centre for Information Services (INCOIS), Ministry of
402 Earth Sciences to carry out this research. The model simulations are carried out in the Ministry of Earth Science’s central
403 HPC facility “MIHIR”. A part of this work is based on the master’s dissertation thesis of GA conducted at INCOIS. LRS.
404 was supported by the funding from INSPIRE DST fellowship. All the plotting and data analysis was carried out using R and
405 Ferret software. This is INCOIS contribution number 0000.



406 **References**

- 407 Ajayamohon, R. S. and Suryachandra A. R.: Indian Ocean Dipole Modulates the Number of Extreme Rainfall Events over
408 India in a Warming Environment, *J. Met. Soc. Japan*, 1, 245-252, 2008.
- 409 Al Shehhi, M. R., Gherboudj, I., Ghedira, H.: An overview of historical harmful algae blooms outbreaks in the Arabian Seas.
410 *Mar Pollut Bull.*, 86 (1-2), 314-324, 10.1016/j.marpolbul.2014.06.048, 2014.
- 411 Arias- Ortiz, A., Serrano, O., Masqué, P., Lavery, P. S., Mueller, U., Kendrick, G. A., Rozaimi, M., Esteban, A.,
412 Fourqurean, J. W., Marbà, N., Mateo, M. A., Murray, K., Rule, M. J., and Duarte C. M.: A marine heatwave drives
413 massive losses from the world's largest seagrass carbon stocks. *Nat. Clim. Change* **8**, 338–344,
414 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41558-018-0096-y>, 2018.
- 415 Benthuisen, J., Feng, M. & Zhong, L.: Spatial patterns of warming off Western Australia during the 2011 Ningaloo Nino:
416 Quantifying impacts of remote and local forcing. *Cont. Shelf Res.*, 91, 232-246, 2014.
- 417 Benthuisen, J. A., Oliver, E. C. J., Feng, M., and Marshall, A. G. Extreme marine warming across tropical Australia during
418 austral summer 2015–2016, *J. Geophys. Res.* 123, 1301–1326, 2018.
- 419 Bond, N. A., Cronin, M. F., Freeland, H., and Mantua, N.: Causes and impacts of the 2014 warm anomaly in the NE Pacific.
420 *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 42, 3414–3420, 2015.
- 421 Caputi, N., Kangas, M., Denham, A., Feng, M., Pearce, A., Hetzel, Y., Arani, C.: Management adaptation of invertebrate fisheries to an extreme marine
422 heatwave event at a global warming hot spot, *Ecology and Evolution*, 6(11), 3583–3593, <https://doi.org/10.1002/ecc3.2137>, 2016.
- 423 Chatterjee, A., Shankar, D., Sheno, S., Reddy, G., Michael, G., Ravichandran, M., Gopalkrishna, V. V., Rao, E. P. R.,
424 Bhaskar, T. V. S. U., and Sanjeevan, V. N. : A new atlas of temperature and salinity for the North Indian Ocean, *Journal*
425 *of Earth System Science*, 121(3), 559–593, 2012.
- 426 Chatterjee, A., Shankar, D., McCreary, J., and Vinayachandran, P.: Yanai waves in the western equatorial Indian Ocean,
427 *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, 118, 1556–1570, <https://doi.org/10.1002/jgrc.20121>, 2013.
- 428 Chatterjee, A., Shankar, D., McCreary, J., Vinayachandran, P., and Mukherjee, A.: Dynamics of Andaman Sea circulation
429 and its role in connecting the equatorial Indian Ocean to the Bay of Bengal. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*,
430 122, 3200–3218. <https://doi.org/10.1002/2016JC012300>, 2017.
- 431 Chatterjee, A., Kumar, B. P., Prakash, S., and Singh, P.: Annihilation of the Somali upwelling system during summer
432 monsoon, *Scientific reports*, 9(1), 7598. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-019-44099-1>, 2019.
- 433 Chen, K., Gawarkiewicz, G. G., Lentz, S. J., Bane, J. M.: Diagnosing the warming of the northeastern U.S. coastal ocean in
434 2012: a linkage between the atmospheric jet stream variability and ocean response, *J. Geophys. Res. Oceans*, 119:218–
435 27, 2014.
- 436 Chowdary, J. S. and Gnanaseelan, C.: Basin-wide warming of the Indian Ocean during El Niño and Indian Ocean dipole
437 years, *Int. J. of Clim.*, 27, 1421-1438, <https://doi.org/10.1002/joc.1482>, 2007, 2007.
- 438 Chakravorty, S., Chowdary, J. S., Gnanaseelan, C.: Epochal changes in the seasonal evolution of Tropical Indian Ocean
439 warming associated with El Niño, *Climate Dynamics*, 42, 805-822, doi:10.1007/s00382-013-1666-3, 2014.



- 440 Cavole, L. M., Alyssa, M. D., Rachel, E. D., Ashlyn, G., Irina, K., Camille, M. L. S. P., May-Linn, P., Arturo, R.-
441 V., Sarah, M. S., Nicole, K. Y., Michelle, E. Z., and Peter, J.S.: Biological Impacts of the 2013–2015 warm- water
442 anomaly in the northeast Pacific: winners, losers, and the future, *Oceanography*, 29, 273–285,
443 <https://doi.org/10.5670/oceanog.2016.32>, 2016.
- 444 CMFRI, 2007a. Marine fisheries profile India, <http://www.cmfri.org.in/data-publications-5/2007>.
- 445 Du, Y., Xie, S.-P., Huang, G. and Hu, K.: Role of air–sea interaction in the long persistence of El Niño–induced North
446 Indian Ocean warming. *J. Climate*, **22**, 2023–2038, 2009.
- 447 Durazo, R., and Baumgartner, T. R.: Evolution of oceanographic conditions off Baja California. *Prog. Oceanogr.* 54, 7–31,
448 2002.
- 449 Gao, G., Marin, M., Feng, M., Yin, B., Yang, D., Feng, X., Ding, Y., Song, D.: Drivers of marine heatwaves in the East
450 China Sea and the South Yellow Sea in three consecutive summers during 2016–2018, *Journal of Geophysical*
451 *Research:Oceans*, 125, e2020JC016518, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2020JC016518>, 2020.
- 452 Goes, J.I., Tian, H., Gomes, H.d.R., Anderson, O. R., Khalid, A.-H., deRada, S., Luo, H., Lubna, A.-K., Adnan, A.-A.,
453 Martinson, D. G.: Ecosystem state change in the Arabian Sea fuelled by the recent loss of snow over the Himalayan-
454 Tibetan Plateau region. *Sci. Rep.*, 10, 7422, <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-64360-2>, 2020.
- 455 Griffies, S.M., and Hallberg, R.W.: Biharmonic friction with a Smagorinsky-like viscosity for use in large-scale eddy-
456 permitting ocean models, *Monthly Weather Review*, 128(8), 2935–2946, 2000.
- 457 Griffies, S. M.: Elements of the modular ocean model (MOM), GFDL Ocean Group Tech. Rep, 7, 620, 2012.
- 458 Hobday, A. J., Alexander, L. V., Perkins, S. E., Smale, D. A., Straub, S. C., Oliver, E. C. J., Benthuisen, J. A., Burrows, M.
459 T., Donat, M. G., Feng, M., Holbrook, N. J., Moore, P. J., Scannell, H. A., Gupta, A. S., Wernberg, T.: A hierarchical
460 approach to defining marine heatwaves, *Prog. Oceanogr.*, 141:227–38, 2016.
- 461 Holbrook, N. J., Scannell, H. A., Gupta, A. S., Benthuisen, J. A., Feng, M., Oliver, E. C. J., Alexander, L. V., Burrows, M.
462 T., Donat, M. G., Hobday, A. J., Moore, P. J., Perkins-Kirkpatrick, S. E., Smale, D. A.,
463 Straub, S. C., Wernberg, T.: A global assessment of marine heatwaves and their drivers. *Nat. Commun.* 10:2624, 2019.
- 464 Holbrook, N.J., Sen Gupta, A., Oliver, E.C.J., Hobday, A. J., Benthuisen, J. A., Scannell, H. A., Smale, D. A., and
465 Wernberg, T.: Keeping pace with marine heatwaves, *Nat. Rev. Earth Environ.*, 1, 482–493,
466 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43017-020-0068-4>, 2020.
- 467 Hughes, T. P., Kerry, J. T. and Wilson, S. K.: Global warming and recurrent mass bleaching of corals. *Nature*, 543, 373–377,
468 <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature21707>, 2017.
- 469 Joseph, P. V.: Warm pool over the Indian Ocean and monsoon onset, *Trop. Ocean Atmos. Newsl.*, Winter, 53, 1 – 5, 1990.
- 470 Kalnay, E., Kanamitsu, M., Kistler, R., Collins, W., Deaven, D., Gandin, L., Iredell, M., Saha, S., White, G., Woollen, J.,
471 Zhu, Y., Chelliah, M., Ebisuzaki, W., Higgins, W., Janowiak, J., Mo, K. C., Ropelewski, C., Wang, J., Leetmaa, A.,
472 Reynolds, R., Jenne, R., and Joseph, D.: The NCEP/NCAR 40-year reanalysis project, *Bull. Am. Meteorol. Soc.*, 77,
473 437–471, 1996.



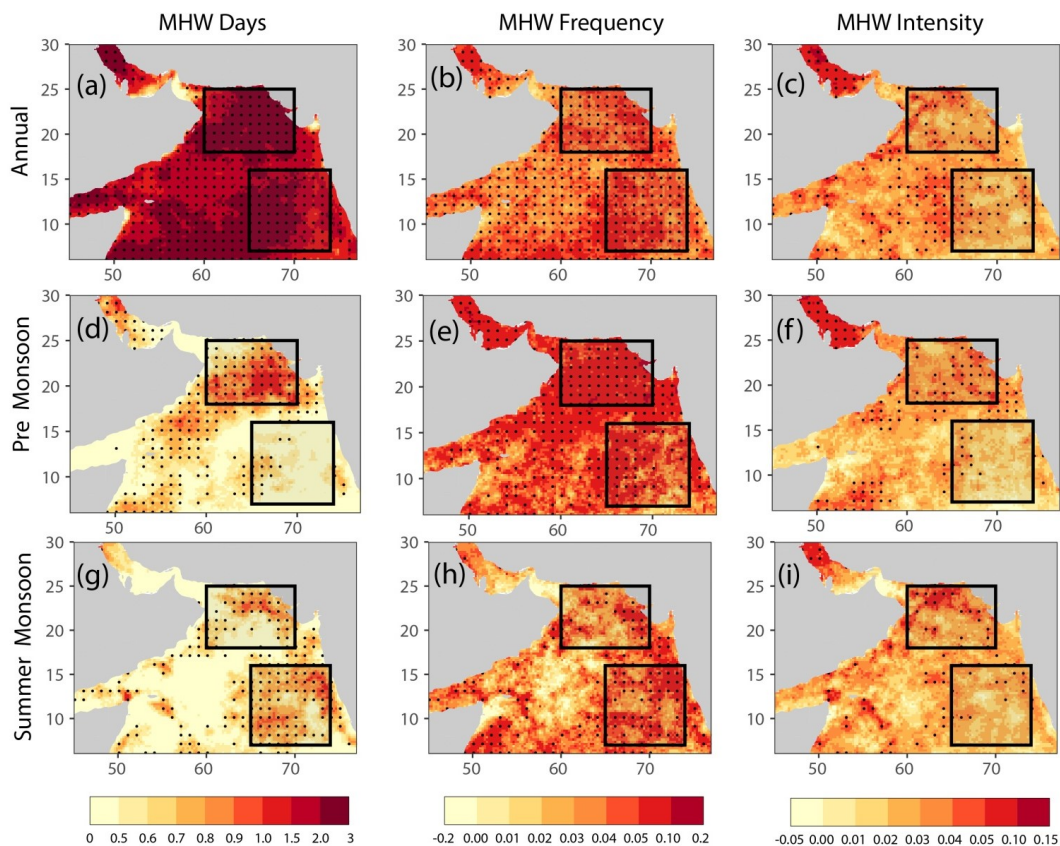
- 474 Klein, S. A., Soden, B. J. and Lau, N.-C.: Remote sea surface temperature variations during ENSO: Evidence for a tropical
475 atmospheric bridge. *J. Climate*, **12**, 917–932, 1999.
- 476 Lee S.-K., Park, W., Baringer, M. O., Gordon, A. L., Huber, B., and Liu, Y.: Pacific origin of the abrupt increase in Indian
477 Ocean heat content. *Nature Geoscience*, **8**, 445–449, 2015.
- 478 Lakshmi, R. S., Chatterjee, A., Prakash, S., and Mathew, T.: Biophysical interactions in driving the summer monsoon
479 chlorophyll bloom off the Somalia coast. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, **125**,
480 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2019JC015549>, 2020.
- 481 Large, W. G., McWilliams, J. C., and Doney, S. C.: Oceanic vertical mixing: A review and a model with a nonlocal
482 boundary layer parameterization. *Reviews of Geophysics*, **32**(4), 363–403, 1994.
- 483 Levitus, S., Antonov, J. I., Boyer, T. P., Baranova, O. K., Garcia, H. E., Locarnini, R. A., Mishonov, A. V., Reagan, J. R.,
484 Seidov, D., Yarosh, E. S. and Zweng, M. M.: World ocean heat content and thermocline sea level change (0–2000 m),
485 1955–2010. *Geophysical Research Letters* **39**(10). doi:10.1029/2012GL051106, 2012.
- 486 Lorenzo, E. D., Mantua, N.: Multi-year persistence of the 2014/15 North Pacific marine heatwave, *Nature Cli. Change*, **6**,
487 <https://www.nature.com/articles/nclimate3082>, 2016.
- 488 Mills, K. E., Andrew, J. P., Curtis, J. B., Yong, C., Fu-Sung, C., Daniel, S. H., Sigrid, L., Janet, A. N., Jenny, C.
489 S., Andrew, C. T., Richard, A. W.: Fisheries management in a changing climate: lessons from the 2012 ocean heat wave
490 in the Northwest Atlantic. *Oceanography* **26**, 191–195, 2013.
- 491 Holbrook, N. J., Scannell, H. A., Gupta, A. S., Benthuisen, J. A., Feng, M., Oliver, E. C. J., Alexander, L. V., Burrows, M.
492 T., Donat, M. G., Hobday, A. J., Moore, P. J., Perkins-Kirkpatrick, S. E., Smale, D. A.,
493 Straub, S. C., Wernberg, T.: A global assessment of marine heatwaves and their drivers. *Nat. Commun.* **10**:2624, 2019.
- 494 Olita, A., Sorgente, R., Ribotti, A., Natale, S., and Gaberšek, S.: Effects of the 2003 European heatwave on the Central
495 Mediterranean Sea surface layer: a numerical simulation. *Ocean Sci. Discuss*, **3**, 85–125 (2006).
- 496 Oliver, E. C. J., Benthuisen, J. A., Bindoff, N. L., Hobday, A. J., Holbrook, N. J., Mundy, C. N., Perkins-Kirkpatrick, S. E.:
497 The unprecedented 2015/16 Tasman Sea marine heatwave. *Nat. Commun.* **8**:16101, 2017.
- 498 Oliver, E.C., Burrows, M.T., Donat, M.G., Sen Gupta, A., Alexander, L.V., Perkins-Kirkpatrick, S.E., Benthuisen, J.,
499 Hobday, A.J., Holbrook, N.J., Moore, P. J., and Thomsen, M. S.: Projected marine heatwaves in the 21st century and the
500 potential for ecological impact, *Front. Mar. Sci.*, **6**, p.734, 2019.
- 501 Oliver, E. C. J., Benthuisen, J. A., Darmaraki, S., Donat, M. G., Hobday, A. J., Holbrook, N. J., Schlegel, R. W., Gupta, A.
502 S.: Marine heatwaves, *Ann. Rev. Mar. Sci.*, **13**, 313–342, <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-marine-032720-095144> , 2021.
- 503 Padmakumar, K. B., Menon, N. R., Sanjeevan, V. N.: Is Occurrence of Harmful Algal Blooms in the Exclusive Economic
504 Zone of India on the Rise? *Int. J. of Ocean.*, **2012**, 1–7, <https://doi.org/10.1155/2012/263946>, 2012.
- 505 Papa, F., Durand, F., Rossow, W. B., Rahman, A., and Bala, S. K.: Satellite altimeter-derived monthly discharge of the
506 Ganga-Brahmaputra River and its seasonal to interannual variations from 1993 to 2008, *Journal of Geophysical*
507 *Research*, **115**, C12013, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2009JC006075>, 2010.



- 508 Pearce, A. F., Lenanton, R., Jackson, G., Moore, J., Feng, M., Gaughan, D.: The “marine heat wave” off Western Australia
509 during the summer of 2010/11, Tech. Rep. 222, West. Aust. Fish. Mar. Res. Lab., North Beach,
510 Australia, 2011.
- 511 Praveen, K. B., Vialard, J., Lengaigne, M., Murty, V., and Mcphaden, M. J.: TropFlux: Air-sea fluxes for the global tropical
512 oceans-description and evaluation. *Climate Dynamics*, 38(7-8), 1521–1543, 2012.
- 513 Praveen, K. B., Vialard, J., Lengaigne, M., Murty, V., Mcphaden, M. J., Cronin, M., Pinsard, F., Gopala, R. K.: TropFlux
514 wind stresses over the tropical oceans: Evaluation and comparison with other products. *Climate Dynamics*, 40(7-8),
515 2049–2071, 2013.
- 516 Reynolds, R. W., Smith, T. M., Liu, C., Chelton, D. B., Casey, K. S., and Schlax, M. G.: Daily high-resolution-blended
517 analyses for sea surface temperature, *Journal of Climate*, 20(22), 5473–5496, <https://doi.org/10.1175/2007JCLI1824.1>,
518 2007.
- 519 Roxy, M., Ritika, K., Terray, P. and Masson, S.: The curious case of Indian Ocean warming, *J. Climate*, 27, 22, 8501-8509,
520 2014.
- 521 Roxy, M., Ritika, K., Terray, P., Murtugudde, R., Ashok, K., Goswami, B. N.: Drying of Indian subcontinent by rapid Indian
522 Ocean warming and a weakening land-sea thermal gradient. *Nat. Commun.*, 6, <https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms8423>,
523 2015.
- 524 Roxy, M. K., Modi, A., Murtugudde, R., Valsala, V., Panickal, S., Prasanna, K. S., Ravichandran, M., Vichi, M., and Lévy
525 M.: A reduction in marine primary productivity driven by rapid warming over the tropical Indian Ocean, *Geophys. Res.*
526 *Lett.*, 43, 826–833, doi:10.1002/2015GL066979, 2016.
- 527 Roxy, M. K. , Gnanaseelan, C., Parekh, A., Chowdary, J. S., Singh, S., Modi, A., Kakatkar, R., Mohapatra, S.,
528 and Dhara, C.: Indian Ocean warming, In *Assessment of Climate Change over the Indian Region*, Krishnan, R., Sanjay,
529 J., Gnanaseelan, C., Mujumdar, M., Kulkarni, A., Chakraborty, S., Eds., Springer, [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-4327-2)
530 [4327-2](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-4327-2), 2020.
- 531 Saji, N. H., Goswami, B. N. , Vinayachandran, P. N. and Yamagata, T.: A dipole mode in the tropical Indian
532 Ocean. *Nature*, **401**, 360–363. 1999.
- 533 Salinger MJ, Renwick J, Behrens E, Mullan AB, Diamond HJ, Sirguey, P., Smith, R. O., Trought, M. C. T., Alexander V, L.,
534 Cullen, N. J.: The unprecedented coupled ocean-atmosphere summer heatwave in the New Zealand region 2017/18:
535 drivers, mechanisms and impacts. *Environ. Res. Lett.*, 14:044023, 2019.
- 536 Scannell, H. A., Pershing, A. J., Alexander, M. A., Thomas, A. C. and Mills, K. E.: Frequency of marine heatwaves in the
537 North Atlantic and North Pacific since 1950, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 43, 2015GL067308, 2016.
- 538 Schlegel, R. W. and Smit, A. J.: heatwaveR: A central algorithm for the detection of heatwaves and cold-spells. *Journal of*
539 *Open Source Software*, 3(27), 821, <https://doi.org/10.21105/joss.00821>, 2018.
- 540 Shankar, D., Remya, R., Vinayachandran, P., Chatterjee, A., and Behera, A.: Inhibition of mixed-layer deepening during
541 winter in the northeastern Arabian Sea by the West India Coastal Current, *Climate Dynamics*, 47(3-4), 1049–1072, 2016.



- 542 Shankar, D., Remya, R., Anil, A. C., and Vijith, V.: Role of physical processes in determining the nature of fisheries in the
543 eastern Arabian Sea, 172 (12), 10.1016/j.pocean.2018.11.006, 2018.
- 544 Shenoj, S. S. C., Shankar, D. and Shetye, S. R.: On the sea surface temperature high in the Lakshadweep Sea before the
545 onset of southwest monsoon, J. Geophys. Res., 104(C7), 15703 – 15712, 1999.
- 546 Sindhu, B., Suresh, I., Unnikrishnan, A., Bhatkar, N., Neetu, S., and Michael, G.: Improved bathymetric datasets for the
547 shallow water regions in the Indian Ocean, Journal of Earth System Science, 116(3), 261–274, 2007.
- 548 Swapna, P., Krishnan, R. and Wallace, J.M.: Indian Ocean and monsoon coupled interactions in a warming
549 environment. Clim Dyn, 42, 2439–2454, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-013-1787-8>, 2014.
- 550 Trainer, V. L., Kudela, R. M., Hunter, M. V., Adams, N. G., and McCabe, R. M.: Climate Extreme Seeds a New Domoic
551 Acid Hotspot on the US West Coast, Front. Clim., 2:571836, doi: 10.3389/fclim.2020.571836, 2020.
- 552 Thomsen, M. S., Mondardini, L., Alestra, T., Gerrity, S., Tait, L., South, P. M., Lilley, S. A., Schiel, D. R.: Local extinction
553 of bull kelp (*Durvillaea* spp.) due to a marine heatwave, Front. Mar. Sci. 6, 84,
554 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2019.00084>, 2019.
- 555 Vijith, V., Vinayachandran, P., Thushara, V., Amol, P., Shankar, D., and Anil, A.: Consequences of inhibition of mixed-
556 layer deepening by the West India Coastal Current for winter phytoplankton bloom in the northeastern Arabian Sea,
557 Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans, 121, 6583–6603, <https://doi.org/10.1002/2016JC012004>, 2016.
- 558 Vinayachandran, P. N., and Shetye, S. R.: The warm pool in the Indian Ocean, Proc. Indian Acad. Sci. (Earth Planet. Sci.),
559 100(2), 165 – 175., 1991.
- 560 Vörösmarty, C., Fekete, B., and Tucker, B.: River discharge database, Version 1.0 (RivDIS v1. 0), Volumes 0 through 6. A
561 contribution to IHP-V Theme: 1. Technical documents in hydrology series. Paris: UNESCO, 1996.
- 562 Wernberg, T., Bennett, S., Babcock, R. C., De Bettignies, T., Cure, K., et al.: Climate- driven regime shift of a temperate
563 marine ecosystem, Science, 353, 169–172, 2016.
- 564 Xie, S. P., Hu, K., Hafner, J., Tokinaga, H., Du, Y., Huang, G., and Sampe, T.: Indian Ocean capacitor effect on Indo-
565 Western Pacific climate during the summer following El Nino. J. Clim. 22, 730-747 (2009).
- 566 Xie, T., Li, J., Chen, K., Zhang, Y., Sun, C.: Origin of Indian Ocean multidecadal climate variability: role of the North
567 Atlantic Oscillation. Clim Dyn, 56, 3277–3294, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-021-05643-w>, 2021.
- 568
- 569
- 570
- 571



572

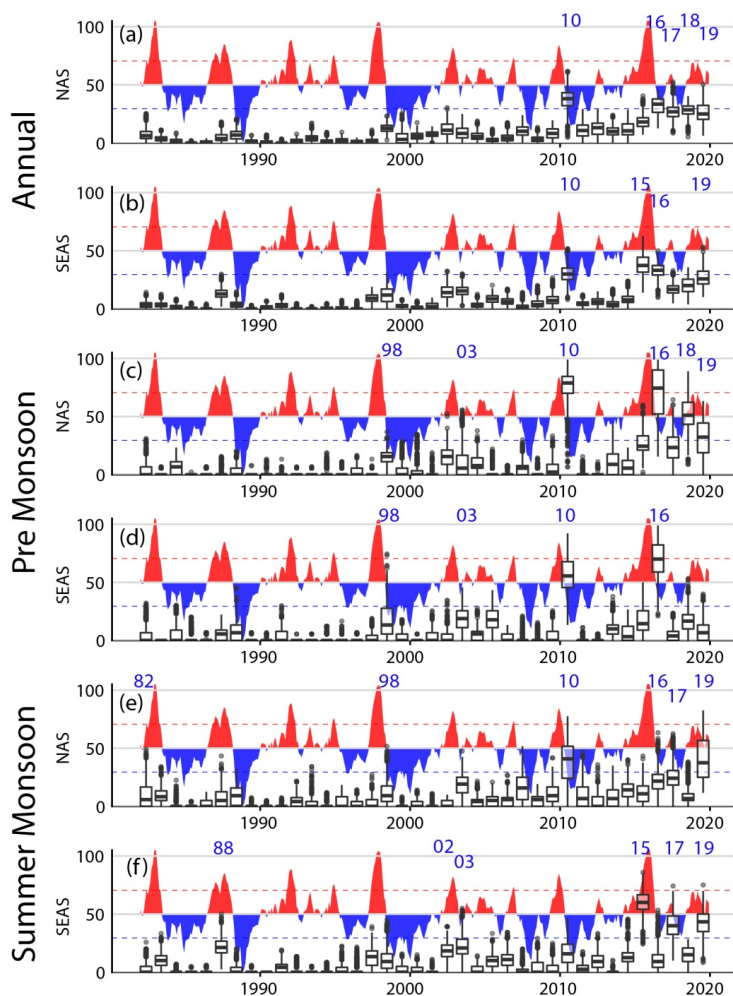
573 **Figure 1:** Trend for the MHW days (days/year; left panels), MHW frequency (count/year; middle panels) and MHW intensity
574 ($^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{year}$; right panels) for the annual (a,b,c), pre-monsoon (d,e,f) and summer monsoon (g,h,i) periods. The trends within the
575 99% confidence limit are marked by stapling. The black boxes represent the north Arabian Sea (NAS) and the southeastern
576 Arabian Sea (SEAS).

577



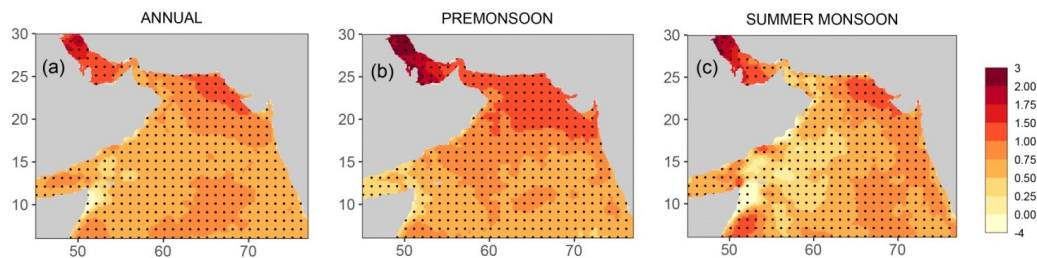
578

579



580

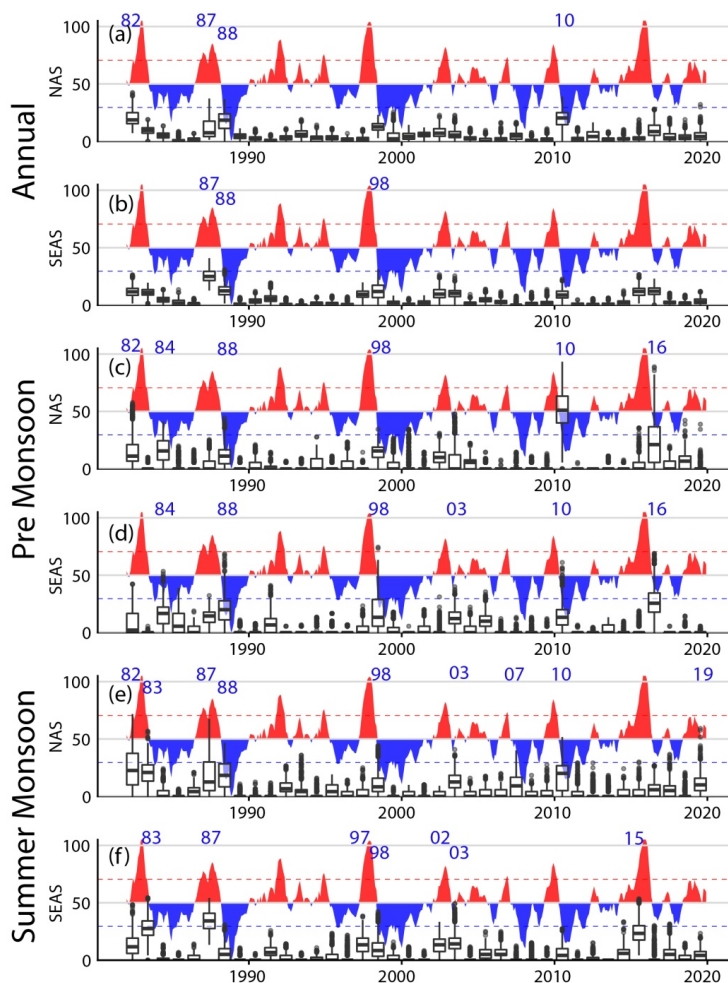
581 **Figure 2:** Boxplots of heatwave days using OISST during (a,b) annual, (c,d) pre-monsoon and (e,f) summer monsoon season
582 for the north Arabian Sea (NAS) and the southeastern Arabian Sea (SEAS). The shading represents Niño3.4 index and red
583 and blue dashed lines represent its 0.5 standard deviations. The numbers in blue fonts on top of each panels highlight the
584 years when number of heatwave days are comparatively larger than the other years.



585

586 **Figure 3:** Trends of SST (°C/37 years) over 1982-2019 for (a) annual, (b) pre-monsoon and (c) summer monsoon period.
587 Stiplings show regions where the trend is 99% significant based on two-tailed t-test.

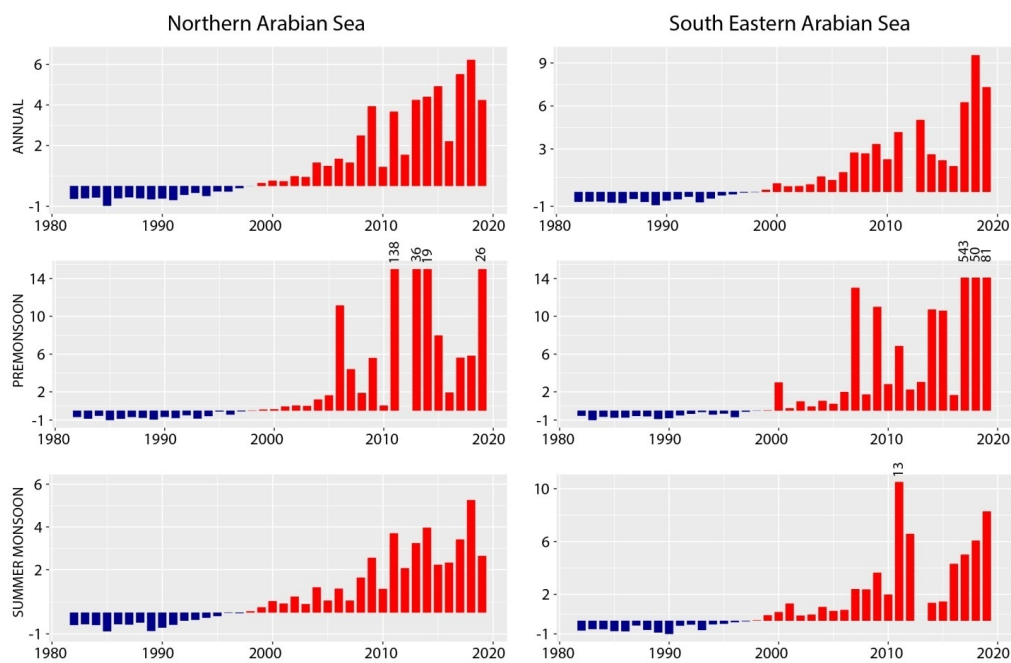
588



589

590 **Figure 4:** same as Figure 2, but using the detrended SST (T^{var}).

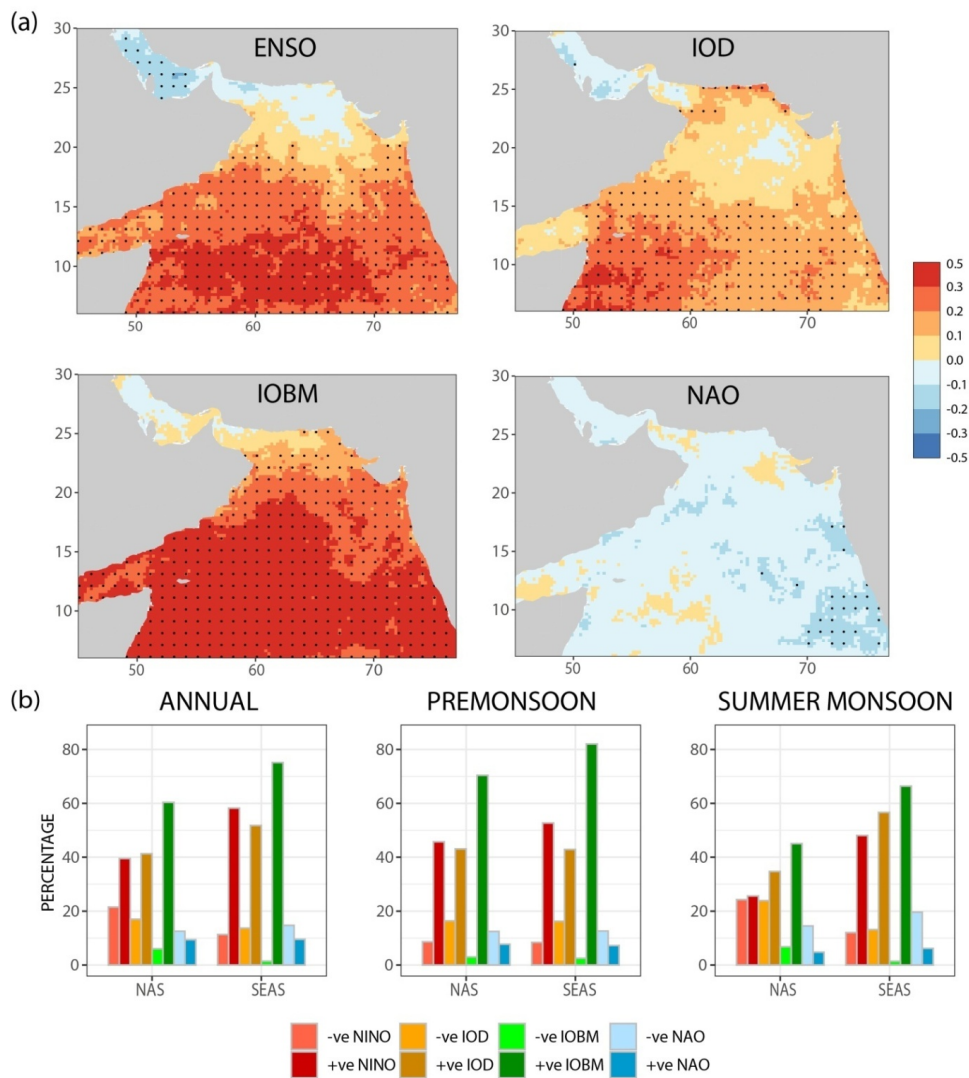
591



592

593 **Figure 5:** Ratio of MHW days derived using SST (T) and detrended SST (T^{var}) based on Equation (3).

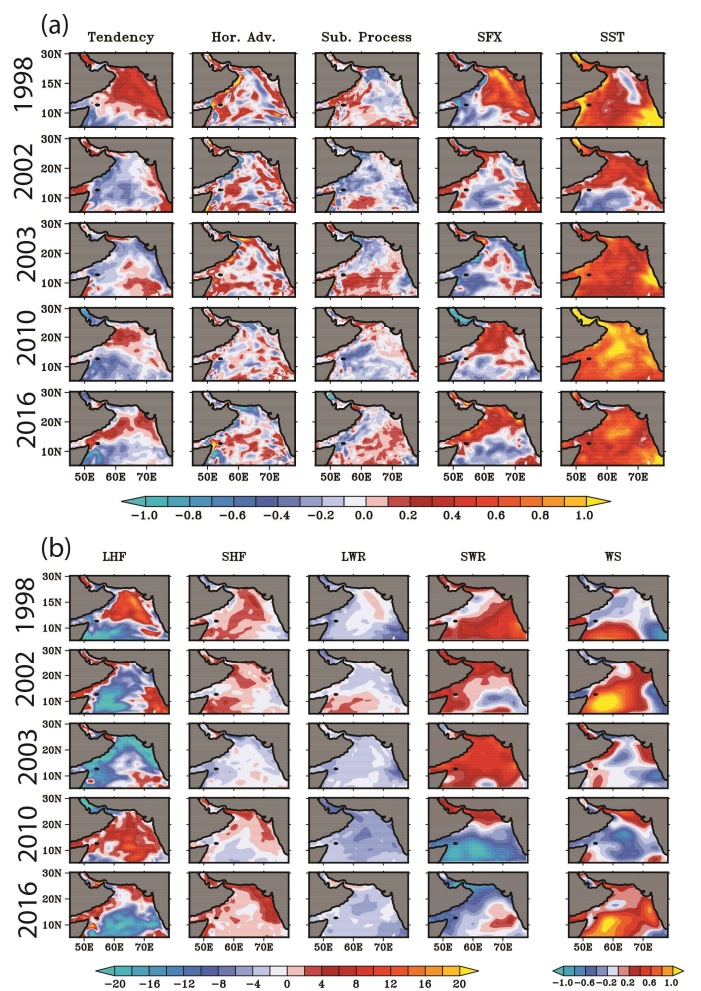
594



595

596 **Figure 6:** (a) Correlation between MHW days based on detrended SST (T^{var}) and major climate modes. Staplings represents regions
 597 where correlations are 99% significant. (b) Percentage of co-existing days between observed heatwaves and climate modes for annual, pre-
 598 monsoon and summer monsoon period.

599

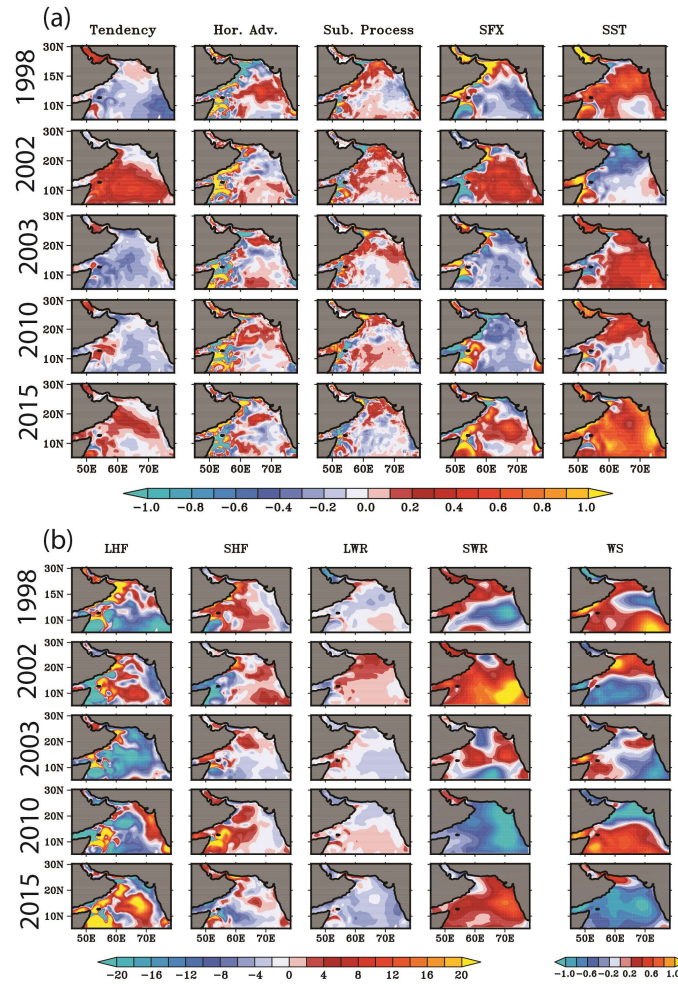


600

601 **Figure 7:** (a) seasonally averaged (pre-monsoon; MAM) anomalies of the temperature tendency ($^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{month}$) and role of
 602 horizontal advection, subsurface processes and the net surface heat flux (Q_v) on the simulated tendency. (right column) SST
 603 anomalies during the pre-monsoon season. (b) Seasonally averaged (pre-monsoon) surface heat flux components i.e latent
 604 heat flux (LHF), sensible heat flux (SHF), Net longwave radiation (LWR) and surface shortwave radiation (SWR). (right
 605 column) wind speed anomaly during the pre-monsoon season.

606

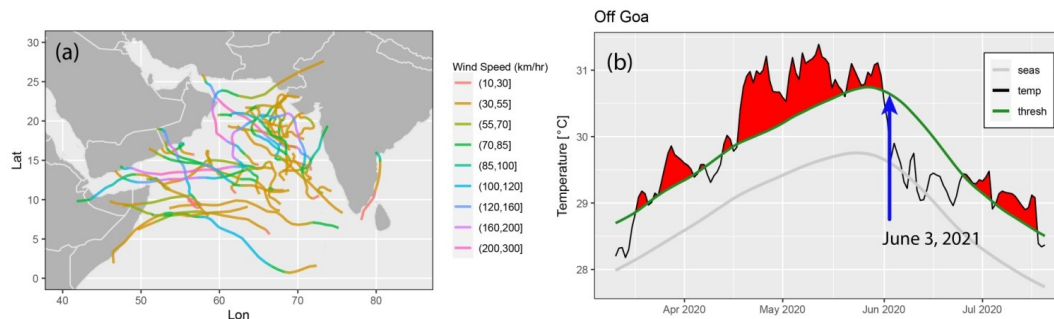
607



608

609 **Figure 8:** Same as Figure 7, but for the summer monsoon (JJAS) season.

610



611

612 **Figure 9:** (a) All cyclone best tracks in the Arabian Sea during 2000-2019. The intensity of the wind speed are denoted by the color scale.
613 All cyclones usually originate in the southern Arabian Sea and move towards the coast of Arabia. (b) SST (temp, black line) just before the
614 cyclone Nisarga which had a longfall at Mumbai on June 3, 2020. The green line represent the 90% seasonally varying threshold, gray line
615 is the climatology. The red shaded region shows the heatwave event.

616