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Episodic subduction patches in the western North Pacific identified from BGC-Argo float Data

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Abstract

Subduction associated with mesoscale eddies is an important but difficult to observe process that can efficiently export carbon and oxygen to the mesopelagic zone (100-1000db). Using a novel BGC-Argo dataset covering the western North Pacific (20-50°N, 120-180°E), we identified imprints of episodic subduction using anomalies in dissolved oxygen and spicity, a water mass marker. These subduction patches were present in 4.0% (288) of the total profiles (7,120) between 2008 and 2019, situated mainly in the Kuroshio Extension region between March and August (70.6%). Unlike eddy subduction processes observed at higher latitudes, roughly half (52%) of these episodic events injected carbon- and oxygen-enriched waters below the annual permanent thermocline depth (450 db), with >20% occurring deeper than 600 db. Export rates within these subductions are estimated to be on the order of 85-159 mg C m^{-2} day^{-1} and 175 to 417 mg O_2 m^{-2} day^{-1}. These mesoscale events would markedly increase carbon removal above that due to biological gravitational settling as well as oxygen ventilation in the region, both helping to support the nutritional and metabolic demands of mesopelagic organisms. Climate-driven patterns of increasing eddy kinetic energies in this region imply that the magnitude of these processes will grow in the future, meaning that these unexpectedly effective small-scale subduction processes need to be better constrained in global climate and biogeochemical models.

Keywords: dissolved oxygen; spicity; BGC-Argo; subduction; North Pacific

1. Introduction

Ocean subduction is the process of transporting water from the wind-mixed surface layer into or below the permanent thermocline, resulting in the efficient injection of heat, carbon and oxygen to the ocean interior (Fig. 1). Subduction therefore plays an important role in regulating global climate and carbon cycles (Sabine et al., 2004; Qu and Chen, 2009; Stukel et al., 2017 and 2018; Boyd et al., 2019; Martin et al., 2020). Many studies focus on the subduction of mode waters driven by large-scale circulation, and the seasonal cycle of the mixed layer dynamics (Williams, 2001; Qu et al., 2002; Qiu et al., 2007; Koch-Larrouy et al., 2010; Kawakami et al., 2015; Nie et al., 2016).

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But recent advances have highlighted the importance of small-scale (1-100 km) dynamical processes on vertical transport and biogeochemistry in the upper ocean, driven by mesoscale eddies and sub-mesoscale processes (Lévy et al., 2001; Xu et al., 2014; Omand et al., 2015; McGillicuddy, 2016; Llort et al., 2018; Resplandy et al., 2019). Ocean general circulation models typically resolve the large-scale subduction of mode waters (Koch-Larrouy et al., 2010) but cannot accurately capture small-scale, short-term subduction processes because of their episodic characteristics (Xu et al., 2014; Llort et al., 2018).

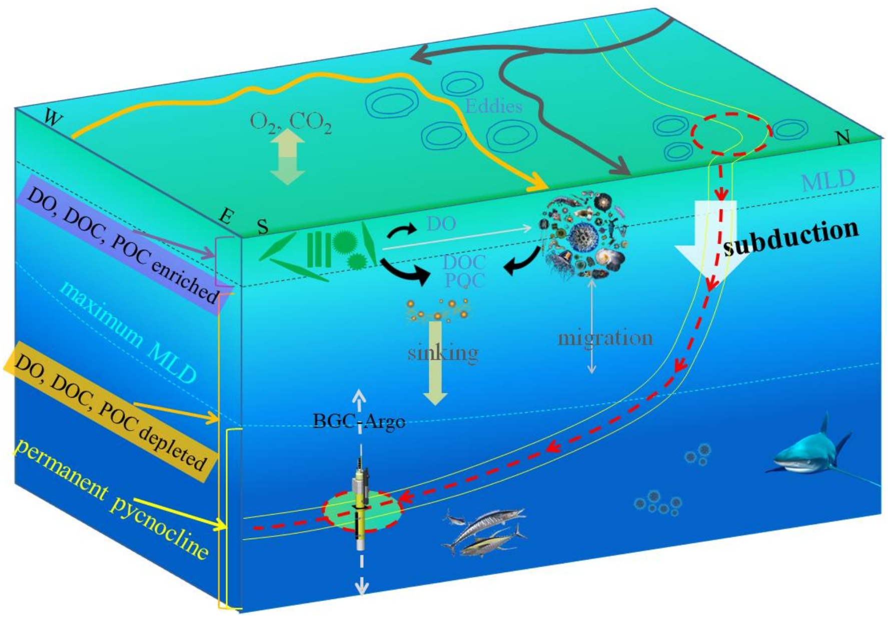

Fig. 1 An illustration of the Kuroshio and Oyashio extension region depicting the different modes of carbon export below the maximum annual mixed layer depth; the biologcial gravitational pump (sinking export, zooplankton migration) and subduction in the region of the Kuroshio and its extension (yellow line) and Oyashio and its extension (grey line). The subducted surface waters, apparently driven by mesoscale eddy processes, travel along isopycnal surfaces transporting water containing high dissolved oxygen (DO), dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and particulate organic carbon (POC) into the mesopelagic zone (low DO, DOC, and POC). The green layer represents the euphotic zone, and the blue layer below is the mesopelagic zone.

Subduction associated with mesoscale and sub-mesoscale dynamics has been observed at higher latitudes in the North Atlantic (Omand et al., 2015) and Southern Oceans (Llort et al., 2018), and similar processes are shown to occur in Kuroshio Extension (KE) region in the western subtropical Pacific. Shipboard sampling techniques have been used there to identify small water parcels within the main thermocline having low potential vorticity, elevated dissolved oxygen (DO), and anomalous salinity; signals

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indicative of small-scale subduction (Yasuda et al., 1996; Okuda et al., 2001; Oka et al., 2009). Analogous phenomena have been observed in mooring data from the region (Nagano et al., 2016; Inoue et al., 2016a; Kouketsu et al., 2016; Zhu et al., 2021), and more focused sampling of anticyclonic eddies with Argo floats (Zhang et al., 2015; Inoue et al., 2016b) and SeaGliders (Hosoda et al., 2021) confirm the existence of discrete subsurface water mass exchanges. These episodic features will contribute to both ventilation of the mesopelagic zone as well as export of dissolved inorganic and organic carbon from surface waters (i.e., the solubility pump (Sarmiento & Gruber, 2006), but their frequency, spatial extent and lifetimes remain unknown (Hosoda et al., 2021).

Eddy-associated processes that generate vertical transport of productive and detrital planktonic biomass into the mesopelagic zone affect not only carbon export but also carbon sequestration time scales (i.e., time that carbon remains within the ocean interior). In general, sequestration time scales are proportional to the depth of injection but the more important factor is whether these injections extend below the annual maximum mixed layer depth (MLD), or permanent pycnocline, which hinders its return to the atmosphere (Boyd et al., 2019). Although eddy-subduction has the potential to contribute significantly to global carbon export, evidence of the subsurface fate of injected carbon has been indirect and patchy (Estapa et al., 2019), highlighting the challenge of detecting and quantifying carbon export associated with mesoscale and sub-mesoscale processes.

The uncertainty about the contribution of eddy subduction to carbon and oxygen transport into the mesopelagic and deeper ocean interior has ramifications for both biogeochemical and ecological processes (Fig. 1). The transport of freshly produced particulate and dissolved organic carbon, along with oxygen, from surface waters to the mesopelagic zone is critical for balancing upper ocean carbon budgets (Emerson, 2014) and supporting the nutritional demands of mesopelagic organisms (Dall'Olmo et al., 2016). The knowledge gap in these episodic processes is particularly evident in the mid-latitude western North Pacific, where mesoscale eddies, recirculation gyres, fronts, and jets are amplified under the influence of the Kuroshio and Oyashio currents and their extensions (Nishikawa et al., 2010). Shoaling of the maximum annual MLD in this region relative to higher latitudes (Cronin et al., 2013; Palevsky & Doney, 2018) has the potential to increase carbon sequestration efficiency and oxygenation of the deep mesopelagic zone (Bushinsky & Emerson, 2018).

Here we investigate small-scale subduction events in the western North Pacific region over the past decade (2008-2019). These events were identified with a new algorithm utilizing anomalies of apparent oxygen utilization (AOU; a proxy for dissolved and particulate organic matter degradation) and potential spicity (π; a characteristic water mass marker) obtained from multiple biogeochemical Argo (BGC-Argo) datasets (Claustre et al., 2020; Chai et al., 2020). These findings show the spatial and temporal distributions of subduction patches reflecting episodic injection processes that contribute to the missing fraction of carbon and oxygen export into the deep twilight

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zone (Emerson, 2014; Martin et al., 2020), but also have the potential to become increasingly significant under future climate scenarios.

2. Data and Methods

2.1 Data

After the standard data quality control, 7,120 profiles from 43 BGC-Argo floats in the western North Pacific (20-50°N, 120-180°E) between 2008 and 2019 were selected (Fig. 2). All of these profiles contained measurements of temperature, salinity, pressure, and dissolved oxygen (DO, μmol/kg). The upper 1000db of the ocean was sampled in each profile and the typical profiling interval was between 5-10 days, with the floats parking at 1000db depth in between. The typical vertical sampling frequency was every 5db, 10db, and 50db for depth intervals of 0-100db, 100-500db, and 500-1000db, respectively. Some floats were set with daily profiling and higher vertical frequency (e.g., every 2db) for specific purposes.

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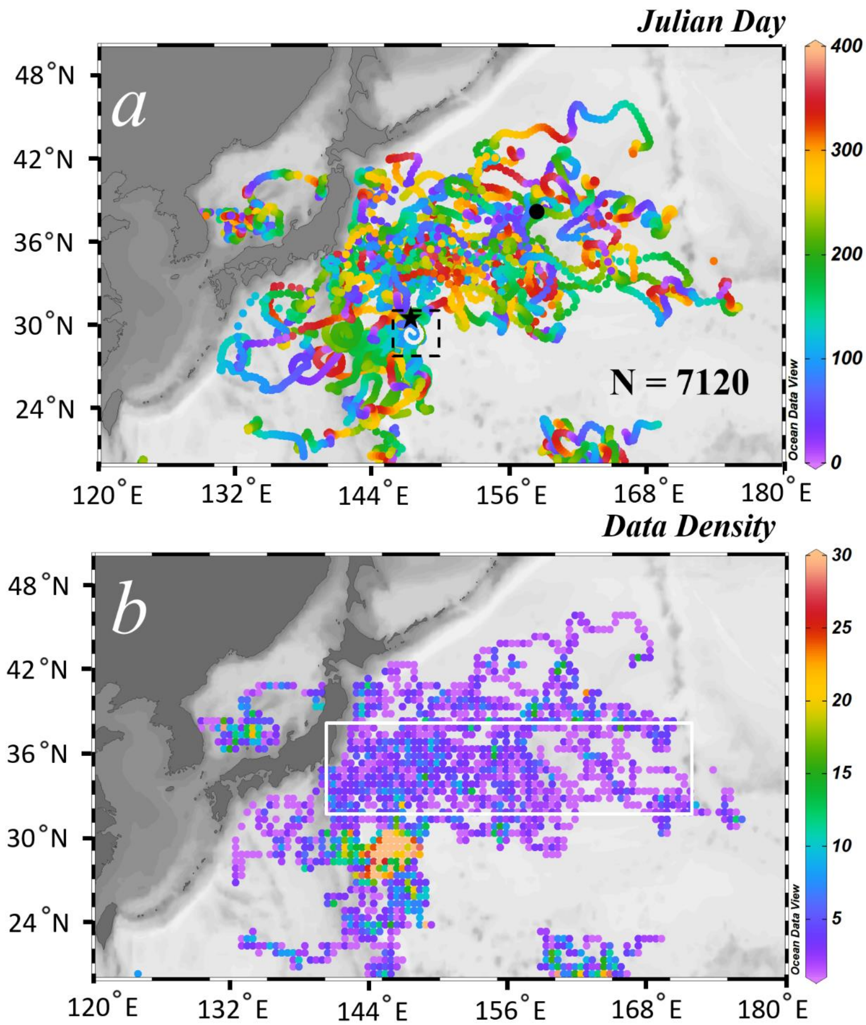

Fig. 2 Horizontal distribution of the QCed BGC-Argo data profiles between 2008 and 2019 in the western North Pacific. The argo profiling tracks are color coded by Julian day (a) and data density (number of available profiles) for each grid ($0.5^{\circ}\times0.5^{\circ}$) (b). The location of Station No. 234 from float MD5904034 is denoted by the black dot in (a) (see Fig. 3); the white line in the dashed box represents the trajectory of float MR2901556 between July 28th and August 18th in 2014, and the black star indicates the beginning of the float trajectory during this period (see Fig. 4). The white box in (b) denotes the region with strong energetic ocean processes.

All BGC-Argo variables were vertically smoothed with a 3-bin running average to remove sharp noises or spikes (Llort et al., 2018). Two key variables, apparent oxygen

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utilization (AOU) and potential spicity (π), were derived from the direct measurements. Specifically, AOU is defined as the difference between saturated oxygen concentration (O_{sat}) and DO, and O_{sat} is estimated from temperature and salinity (Garcia & Gordon, 1992). AOU is a proxy for water mass age which reflects the microbial respiration of dissolved and particulate organic matter (Sarmiento & Gruber, 2006). Potential spicity referenced to the surface pressure is calculated from pressure, temperature and salinity following Huang et al. (2018), and it allows differentiating water masses with distinct thermohaline properties but similar density. In addition, potential density (σ) referenced to the surface pressure was derived from pressure, temperature and salinity based on the thermodynamic equation (TEOS-10 (McDougall & Barker, 2011)); and MLD was estimated based on a threshold (0.05 kg/m^3) of the difference in density from a near-surface value (i.e., at 10db) (Brainerd & Gregg, 1995). All these derived variables were calculated for each of the 7,120 profiles.

In addition to the BGC-Argo float data, satellite data of daily sea level anomalies (SLA) and daily geostrophic velocity anomalies (u' and v') between 1993 and 2018 were also processed. The geostrophic velocity anomalies were used to calculate the eddy kinetic energy (EKE) as $\mathrm{EKE} = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{u'^2 + v'^2}$. These data were used to identify the spatial relationship between surface mesoscale circulation and the float profiles.

2.2 Methods

2.2.1 subduction detection

When a BGC-Argo float passes through a parcel of water injected from the mixed layer, it captures coherent anomalous features in AOU and π distinct from the surrounding waters (Fig. 1). These anomalies can be used to identify subduction patches that are indicators of subduction events occurring in the vicinity (Omand et al., 2015; Llort et al., 2018). Quantifying anomalies in AOU and π (denoted as Δ_{AOU} and Δ_{π}) requires defining the reference values of AOU and π at the mean state of the profile without subduction. Llort et al. (2018) used the 20-bin running averages of the profiles as the references, however, we found that this approach could dampen the subduction signal and thus miss subduction patches as well as misidentify other signals as subduction (see Fig. S1). To avoid misreporting these anomalies, a revised detection method was developed by trial and error, as shown in example profiles of AOU, π, DO and σ for Station No. 234 of float MD5904034 (Fig. 3; see Fig. 2a for its sampling location). Two subduction patches are visually apparent at ~230db and ~300db (yellow shades in Fig. 3a & 3b). The identification of the lower subduction patch at ~300db from the spicity profile is briefly described below and is illustrated in Fig. 3c:

1. Calculate the slopes (i.e., first-order derivative) for profiles of AOU and π against depth;

2. Locate the peaks in AOU and π profiles (e.g., the blue star in Fig. 3c) based on their slopes. Specifically, if at one sampling point the slope changes from positive to negative when moving downwards, it is called a negative peak and

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vice versa. Only the negative/positive peaks in π associated with a negative peak in AOU are considered, as only negative AOU anomalies indicate potential water transport from the surface mixed layer (Llort et al., 2018);

3. Locate the coherent peaks in both AOU and π, and mark their depths as the targeted locations (represented by pressure, p) for potential subduction patches;

4. Calculate the peak Δ_π at each targeted pressure. For the case of a negative (positive) peak, identify the maximum (minimum) values of π within the depth ranges of [p-Δp, p] and [p, p+Δp], respectively (green triangles in Fig. 3c), and the depth interval Δp=100db is chosen, considering the general vertical scale (i.e., a few tens of meters) of the eddy-induced subduction features (Zhang et al., 2015; Hosoda et al., 2021); the reference profile is defined by the straight line in between. The anomaly Δ_π (red bracket in Fig. 3c) is defined as the difference between the reference profile and the original profile of π at pressure p (green star in Fig. 3c);

5. Calculate Δ_{AOU} using the same method, independent of Δ_π;

6. The thresholds used to determine whether the signals meet the criteria of a subduction patch or not were set to -10 μmol/kg for Δ_{AOU} and ±0.05 kg/m^3 for Δ_π following Llort et al. (2018).

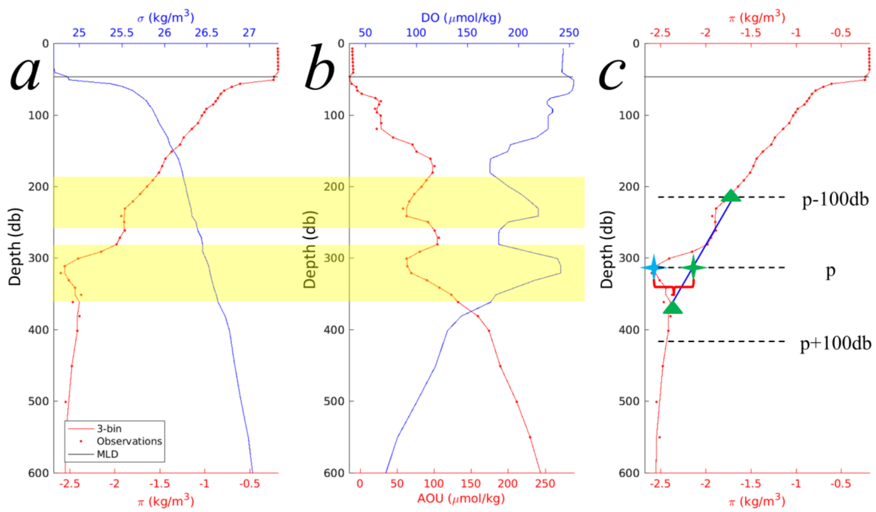

Fig. 3 Vertical property distributions of profile No. 234 (on June 24th 2016) of float MD5904034 (the black dot in Fig. 2a) demonstrate subduction patches observed by the BGC-Argo floats. (a) The profiles of potential density (σ, blue line) and potential spicity (π, red dotted line), (b) the profiles of DO (blue line) and AOU (red dotted line), and (c) same spicity profile as in (a), which is used to demenstrate the steps to detect subduction signals described in Methods. Note that the red dots in each panel represent the raw field observations, the overlaid red curves are the 3-bin running averages to remove

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sharp noises or spikes, and they are used to calculate the anomalies in AOU and π, and the black line represents the MLD. The yellow shades in (a) and (b) highlight the subduction features identified using the detection method in (c).

The refined algorithm presented here had improved performance for detecting subduction patches in these BGC-Argo profile data than that used in previous studies (Llort et al., 2018) (see Fig. S1). The main difference in our approach is in selecting the frame of reference for identifying AOU and π anomalies from irregular features in "typical" vertical profiles. We speculate that our refinements here may reveal more episodic subduction patches in other datasets as well.

The sensitivity of the method to the interval of Δp (in step 4) was investigated by varying Δp between 70db and 130db (see Table S1). For Δp of 100±3db (i.e., 97db, 98db, 99db, 101db, 102db, and 103db), less than 7 (≤ 2%) subduction patches were missed, and the resulted Δ_{AOU} and Δ_{π} show a RMSD of ≤ 3.8μmol/kg (≤ 8.3%) and ≤ 0.03 kg/m3 (≤ 9.2%). More details are provided in Text S1. The sensitivity analysis suggests the validity and robustness in the choice of Δp of 100db. After verifying that this modified approach better captured subduction indicators in a subset of BGC-Argo data from this region, the algorithm was applied to all profiles to identify the locations, depths, time and strengths (i.e., Δ_{AOU}, Δ_{DO} and Δ_{π}) of the subduction patches.

2.2.2 Quantification of carbon and oxygen export

For all the subduction patches identified using the method developed above, we obtain a first order estimate of carbon and oxygen export based on the AOU anomalies (ΔAOU) and DO anomalies (ΔDO) with the assumptions that: 1) the surface processes initiating these subduction events generated similar levels of surface production (i.e., organic carbon), and 2) the water parcels containing this organic carbon and DO are subducted into the ocean's interior.

We begin by estimating the average carbon and oxygen inventories within the water column based on the BGC-Argo profiles. We calculated AOU and DO inventories (per m^2) through these features in two ways: integration of the anomaly above the estimated baseline (Eqs. 1 & 2) and by using the anomaly peak height (Eqs. 3 & 4) (see Fig. 3c). The integrated AOU inventory was converted to carbon using a Carbon:Oxygen (C:O) remineralization ratio of 117:170 (Anderson and Sarmiento, 1994; Feely et al., 2004).

The equations for the integrated estimates for each profile are:

$$\text{Carbon Inventory}_{IA}\ (\text{g C/m}^2) = \text{C:O} \times \sum_{z=p1}^{z=p2} \Delta AOU_Z \qquad \text{(Eq. 1)}$$

$$\text{Oxygen Inventory}_{IA}\ (\text{g O}_2\text{/m}^2) = \sum_{z=p1}^{z=p2} \Delta DO_Z \qquad \text{(Eq. 2)}$$

where ΔAOU_z and ΔDO_z are the AOU and DO anomalies at depth z within the water column of the subduction patch, and the integrated areas (IA) of AOU and DO anomalies are converted from μmol kg^{-1} to mg m^{-2} based on seawater density.

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The inventories calculated using peak height (PH) approach are:

$$\text{Carbon Inventory}_{PH}\ (g\ C/m^2) = C{:}O \times \Delta_{AOU\_peak} \times H \qquad \text{(Eq. 3)}$$

$$\text{Oxygen Inventory}_{\_PH}\ (g\ O_2/m^2) = \Delta_{DO\_peak} \times H \qquad \text{(Eq. 4)}$$

where H is the thickness (i.e., vertical range from depth p1 to p2, in unit of m) of the subduction patch and the Δ_{AOU_peak} and Δ_{DO_peak} are the maximum anomalous values of AOU and DO converted to mg m^{-2} as above.

Converting these concentrations to carbon and oxygen export fluxes requires some knowledge of subduction rates, which can vary exponentially from surface (~100 m/day) to deep ocean (< 1 m/day). Rather than arbitrarily choosing a value in this range, we take a more conservative approach by considering that it is reasonable to expect that the subducted waters are renewed and dissipated on an annual scale. In other words, the individual subduction processes have at most a 1-year lifetime, and therefore we average the carbon and oxygen exports over 365 days (Eqs. 5-6).

$$\text{Carbon export}\ (g\ C\ m^{-2}\ d^{-1}) = \text{Carbon inventory} / 365 \qquad \text{(Eq. 5)}$$

$$\text{Oxygen export}\ (g\ O_2\ m^{-2}\ d^{-1}) = \text{Oxygen inventory} / 365 \qquad \text{(Eq. 6)}$$

using the inventories derived from Eqs. 1-4.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Case study: Detecting subduction in BGC-Argo datasets

Subduction associated with eddy pumping is a recognized important contributor to the transfer of carbon and other materials from the surface euphotic layer to the ocean interior (McGillicuddy, 2016; Bord et al., 2019), but investigating the spatial distributions, physical dynamics, and biogeochemical consequences of these episodic small-scale processes is difficult. The BGC-Argo program provides an exceptional data resource for this purpose (Claustre et al., 2020; Chai et al., 2020), but detecting subduction signals where differences among water masses are small is challenging.

Subduction below the seasonal and permanent pycnoclines can be identified in vertical profiles by anomaly matrices of temperature, salinity, and dissolved oxygen (DO). Examples of these events are illustrated in time-series from the BGC-Argo profiling float (MR2901556), positioned on the southern perimeter of the Kuroshio Extension region between July 28th and Aug. 18th 2014 (Fig. 4). Here, intermittent patches of elevated spicity (π), lower AOU, and greater dissolved oxygen are visible in the upper 600 db (Boxes 1-3, Fig. 4). Potential spicity (π), a parameter dependent on pressure, temperature and salinity (Huang et al., 2018), is a sensitive indicator of water mass differences. AOU is the difference between the measured dissolved oxygen concentration and its equilibrium saturation concentration in water with the same physical and chemical properties. It reflects the degree of progressive microbial

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decomposition of organic matter since the water was last at the surface in contact with the atmosphere (Garcia & Gordon, 1992; Sarmiento & Gruber, 2006). Despite this oxygen consumption, these injected waters retain excess net oxygen concentrations relative to the surrounding mesopelagic zone (Fig. 4d).

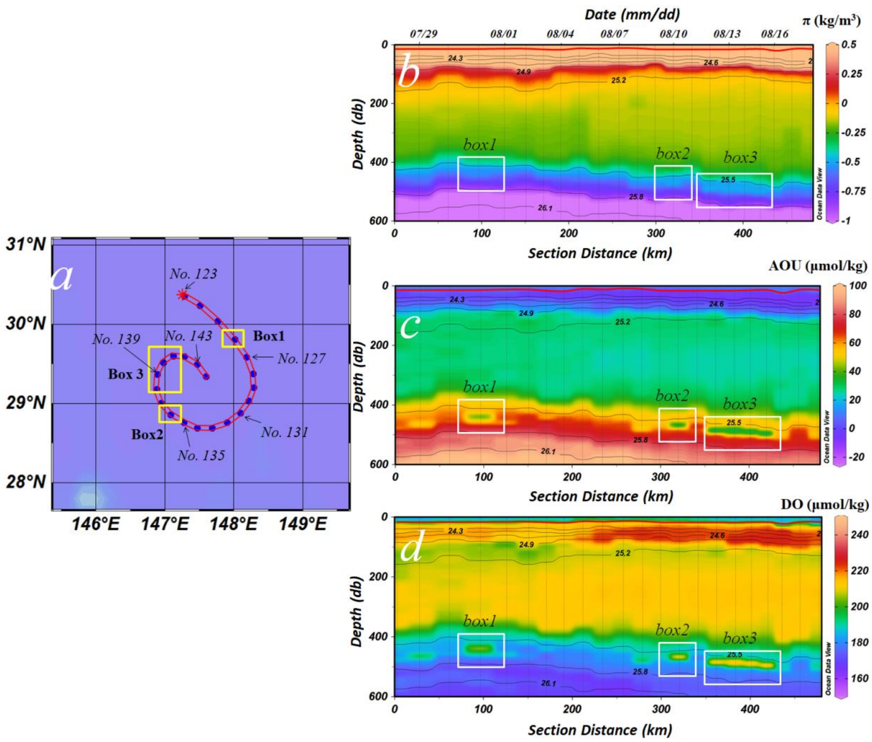

Fig. 4 Trajectory of float MR2901556 between July 28th 2014 (Station No. 123) and August 18th, 2014 (Station No. 144) and its time series of π (b) AOU (c) and DO (d). Vertical lines in (b), (c) and (d) represent the Bio-Argo profiles, and the section distance along the X-axis is the path distance from Station No. 123 (the red star in (a)). The three boxes (box1, box2, and box3) in panels (b,c,d) outline the coherent anomalous features in π, AOU and DO, which were identified as subduction patches following the detection procedure in Section 2.2.1. The red lines in panels (b,c,d) indicate the MLD, and the horizontal black lines are the isopycnals. Anomalies of magnitude less than -10 μmol/kg for Δ_{AOU} and ±0.05 kg/m^3 for Δ_π (e.g., at section distances of ~25km, 125km, 175km, 275km and 475km) were below our conservative thresholds for identifying intrusions (-10 μmol/kg for Δ_{AOU} and ±0.05 kg/m^3 for Δ_π).

Llort et al. (2018) successfully identified eddy subduction in BGC-Argo data from the Southern Ocean using anomalies in spiciness (Flament, 2002; Huang, 2011; McDougall & Krzysik, 2015), a parameter derived from a different function of pressure, temperature, and salinity than potential spicity (Huang et al., 2018). However, we found

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that spiciness frequently missed signs of subduction while misidentifying other signals as subduction, and the 20-bin method used by Llort et al. (2018) significantly dampened the subduction signals in our data. Potential spicity (π) (Huang et al., 2018), on the other hand, greatly improves the ability to distinguish among similar water masses due to its orthogonal coordination with density; a feature that spiciness lacks. This added sensitivity revealed substantially more signals of subduction in these BGC-Argo data than had been previously recognized. The modified algorithm based on peak detection here shows better capabilities in capturing and quantifying the subduction signals (see Methods, Fig. S1).

The ephemeral nature of the discrete anomalous π and AOU signals, highlighted in boxes 1-3 in the example time series (Fig. 4a, b, c, and d; July 31st, Aug 10th, and August 12th to 15th) indicates that they stemmed from distinct subduction events, opportunistically captured by this BGC-Argo float. The first two anomalies (July and early August) each appeared in only a single profile, perhaps indicating a limited spatial scale of these subduction events. In contrast, the mid-August anomaly persisted over 4 consecutive profiles, suggesting a more sustained, or a larger spatial subduction event.

3.2 Spatial and temporal distributions of subduction

We used our modified peak detection algorithm with the π and AOU data and applied it to all 7,120 BGC-Argo profiles (2008-2019) in the western North Pacific (Fig. 5). The modified algorithm resolved 335 subduction patches, spread over an unexpectedly large area in the western North Pacific. Overall, subduction patches were identified in 288 profiles (4.0%) (some profiles have multiple patches at different depths), with approximately 83% of these being concentrated in the Kuroshio-Oyashio extension region (Fig. 5a). High (>10 cm) climatologic sea level anomalies (SLA) and the corresponding distribution of Eddy Kinetic Energy (EKE) are evidence of the strong energetic ocean processes in this region (Fig. 5). By contrast, far fewer subduction patches were identified in the less energetic region to the south of 29°N despite a higher BGC Argo sampling density (Fig. 2b), consistent with eddy-related processes being important for driving these subduction events. Even so, the true frequency of these events across the entire region is certain to have been under-sampled given their small scales relative to the dispersed BGC-Argo float positions.

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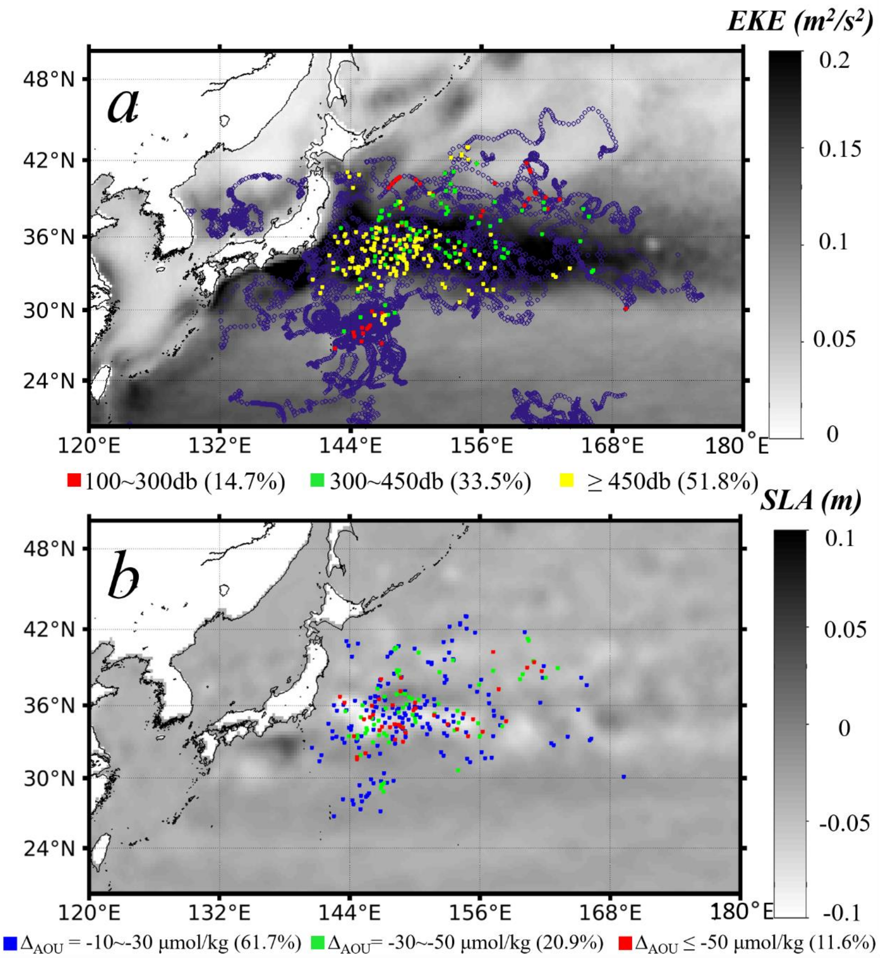
319 

320 **Fig. 5** Horizontal distribution of the BGC-Argo data profiles associated with subduction
321 patches (a and b) between 2008 and 2019 in the western North Pacific. The profiles
322 with detected subduction patches are color coded by different intervals of depths of the
323 subduction patches (a) and AOU anomalies (b), with percentages of detected patches
324 in each interval annotated. The grey-scale background maps in (a) and (b) are the annual
325 mean EKE and SLA climatologies, and the purple background data in (a) represent all
326 the analyzed profiles as shown in Fig. 2a.

327 Discrete signals of subduction were detected throughout the mesopelagic depth range
328 (~100-1000db), with the majority detected below 300db (green and yellow dots in Fig.
329 5a). The deepest penetrations (≥450 db) occurred largely in areas experiencing the
330 highest EKE while the shallowest (100-300 db) were largely restricted to areas with
331 lower EKE (Fig. 5a). Roughly half (52%) of the detected subduction signals were
332 within or below the permanent pycnocline (450 db) in this region of the western North

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Pacific (Cronin et al., 2013; Palevsky & Doney, 2018; Feucher et al., 2019), while 22% penetrated far deeper (up to 800 db; Table S2 in supplemental materials).

There was a distinct seasonality in subduction, with most (~70%) signals being observed between March (the maximum) and August (Figs. 6 & S2). Although only 8.3% of the total profiles were obtained in March, they accounted for 17.3% of all observed subduction patches (Fig. S2), consistent with observations of large-scale subduction in this region during late winter (Qu et al., 2002; Qiu et al., 2007; Nishikawa et al., 2010; Liu & Huang, 2012; Zhang et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2014). The March to August time frame also coincides with the onset and establishment of warming-induced shoaling of the mixed layer depth, when winter-subducted waters are less likely to be re-entrained into surface waters by winds (Dall'Olmo et al., 2016; Palevsky & Doney, 2018). In contrast, comparatively few (3.0%) of the subduction patches were detected in January and February. Although specific timelines between the observed subduction patches and their formation could not be determined, it is reasonable to anticipate that more energetic winds and the accumulated strong heat loss during mid-winter contributed to the peak in subduction signatures observed in March. The current BGC-Argo profiling asset is not sufficient to study how those subduction patches change on interannual scales.

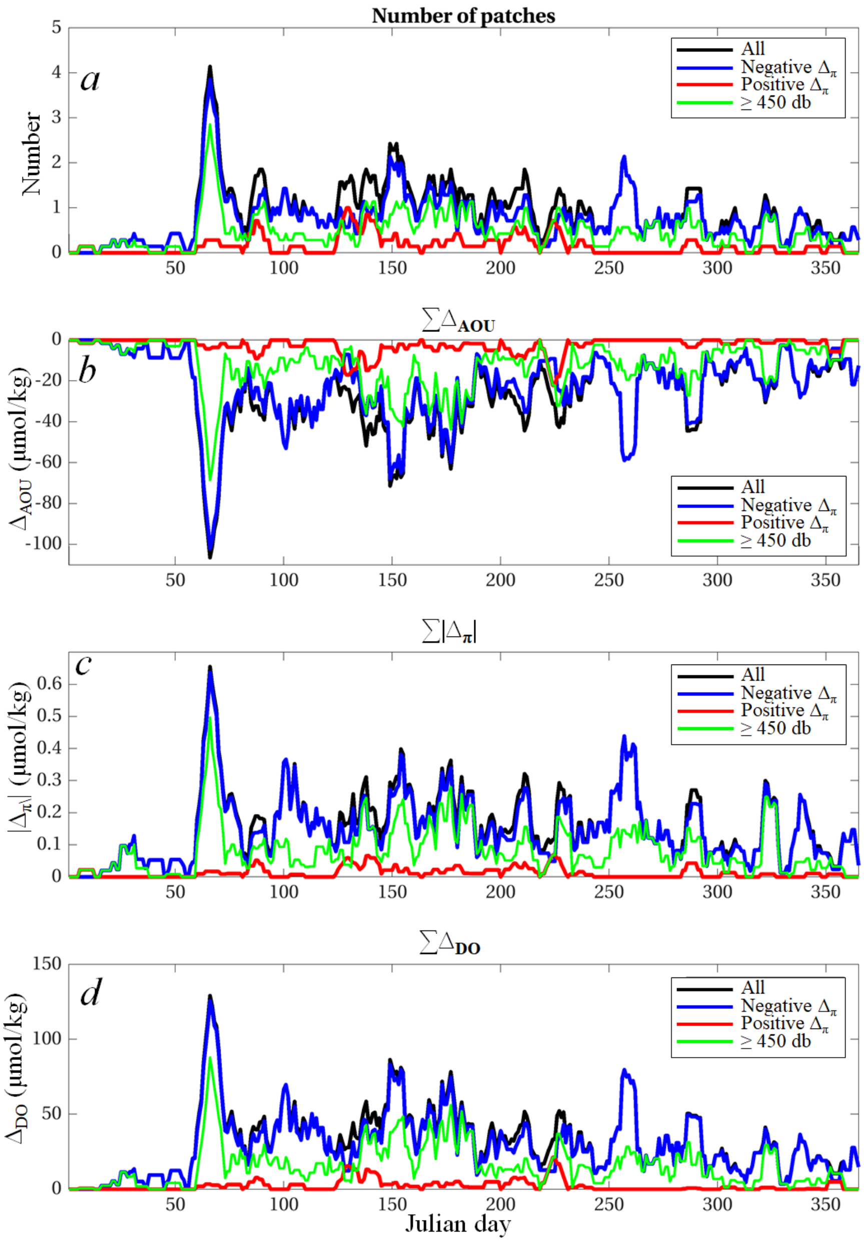

Fig. 6 Temporal distribution of the number of patches (a), integrated AOU anomaly (b), integrated π anomaly (c), and integrated DO anomaly (d), by Julian day based on 7-point smoothing. Spicity in subducted patches can be lower or higher than the surrounding waters, resulting in negative $\Delta\pi$ (red lines) or positive $\Delta\pi$ (blue lines) anomalies, respectively (see text in Section 3.4).

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The Kuroshio-Oyashio extension zone lies between the subtropical and subpolar gyres in the North Pacific, and it is a recognized hot-spot for water mass exchange via eddy transport (Yasuda et al., 1996; Talley, 1997; Joyce et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2016) and substantial ocean-to-atmosphere heat flux (Jing et al., 2020). It is not surprising then that the majority of subduction signals were observed in this region in spite of less float coverage (Fig. 5). Large-scale circulation and seasonal variability in the mixed layer depth here typically result in late winter subduction of subtropical mode waters (Qiu et al., 2007; Oka et al., 2009; Oka & Qiu, 2012; Xu et al., 2014 & 2016), and sharp horizontal density gradients can enhance strong vertical exchanges (Marshall et al., 1993; Hurlburt et al., 1996; Liu et al., 2012; Ma et al., 2017). Rapid heat loss to the winter-time cool, dry continental air masses flowing across the Kuroshio-Oyashio extension erodes the seasonal thermocline to its maximum depth in February-March (Cronin et al., 2013); the latter portion in which the subduction patches were most frequently observed (Fig. 6).

Ascertaining the frequency and spatial extent of these lower-latitude episodic events will be important for establishing their overall contribution to the transport of surface waters into the mesopelagic zone, but this goal is challenged by the presently limited distribution of BGC-Argo floats. It may be possible to obtain a first order estimate of their frequency by linking the subduction signals here to surface-expressed indicators of mesoscale circulation processes. Moreover, our findings suggest that spicity should be adopted more generally in probing BGC-Argo datasets to improve our understanding of the spatial and temporal distribution of subduction processes.

3.3 Carbon and oxygen injections into the twilight zone

Beyond being a water mass indicator, AOU is a proxy for cumulative net community respiration and a sensitive indicator of carbon export in the upper mesopelagic zone (Emerson et al., 2001; Pan et al., 2014; Catala et al., 2018; Bushinsky & Emerson, 2018). This export comprises remineralized carbon as well as dissolved and slowly sinking particulate organic matter carried by the subducting waters (Stukel et al., 2017) . The magnitude of AOU may be used as an indicator of the time since subduction, with the first order assumption being that the larger scale processes initiating these subduction events generated similar surface production. Values of Δ_{AOU} at the anomalous peak depth ranged between -10 (the minimal threshold used) and -81 µmol/kg (Fig. 7a). This proxy was highly variable over the space-time domain, similar to the variations in Δ_{π} (Fig. 7b). In general, 61.7% of the subduction patches had Δ_{AOU} in the range of -30 to -10 µmol/kg with the remainder having greater oxygen depletions (i.e., ≤ -30 µmol/kg) (Figs. 5b). Water masses subducted below 450db (i.e., the permanent pycnocline) had an average AOU anomaly of -25.7±15.3 µmol/kg.

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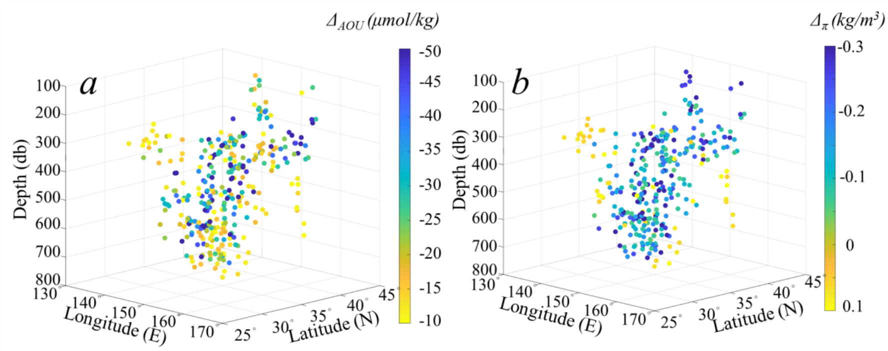

Fig. 7 Vertical spatial distribution of the detected subduction patches in the western North Pacific, color coded by the magnitudes of the subduction strengths in terms of AOU anomaly (a) and π anomaly (b), respectively.

There was no clear relationship between the depth of subduction and AOU (Fig 7a), suggesting either surface production was substantially different when these water parcels were subducted, or that these signatures stem from non-systematic differences in the time since subducted waters were last at the surface. Most subduction patches with strong AOU anomalies were observed between March and August (particularly March), after the seasonal mixed layer began to shoal, consistent with expected higher levels of phytoplankton production. Only 0.6% of the total subduction patches had Δ_{AOU} of ≤ -30 μmol/kg in January and February (Fig. S2b). The π anomalies show similar variation patterns with months (peaked in March), with stronger Δ_{π} coupled with stronger Δ_{AOU} (Fig. S2c).

Eddy associated pumping is one of several processes contributing to net global ocean carbon export (McGillicuddy, 2016; Boyd et al., 2019), but its importance is generally thought to be comparatively small because the relatively shallow penetration leads to shorter carbon sequestration times (Lévy et al., 2001; Karleskind et al., 2011a & 2011b; Omand et al., 2015; Nagai et al., 2015; Boyd et al., 2019). That is, much of the carbon "exported" to the upper mesopelagic zone over spring and summer is returned to the atmosphere by deep winter mixing. At higher latitudes, where eddy pumping has been most studied, subduction must extend up to > ~1000 m to reach below the permanent pycnocline (Palevsky & Doney, 2018; Boyd et al., 2019). However, the permanent pycnocline in the western North Pacific is much shallower—on the order of ~400 db (Qiu & Huang, 1995; Feucher et al., 2019)—and most of the observed subduction signals here extended far below this depth (Table S2). Thus although the subduction depths shown here are similar to those observed at higher latitudes, they represent much longer carbon sequestration time scales than those previously associated with eddy pumping (Boyd et al., 2019).

Similar small-scale subduction processes carry both particulate and dissolved organic matter, and modeling suggests that this physical mechanism can be a major factor influencing export of carbon from surface mixed layers to the upper mesopelagic zone

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(McGillicuddy, 2016; Stukel et al., 2017 & 2018). In our case, the subduction patches contained on average negative AOU anomalies of -27.6±16.4 μmol/kg, with a maximum of -81 μmol/kg in March (Figs. 6 &7, Table 1); which are significantly stronger than that observed for eddy pumping processes in the Southern Ocean (Llort et al., 2018). This microbial oxygen consumption corresponds to remineralization of ~19-56 μmol C/kg. Carbon export rates within these subducting patches, based on the thickness of the subduction layer, the magnitude of AOU, and conservative estimates of advection rates, would be on the order of 85-218 mg C m^{-2} day^{-1} (Table 2); i.e., export rates similar in magnitude, but smaller in spatial scales, to that occurring in the North Atlantic spring bloom (Siegel et al., 2014). However, these values are likely an underestimate because only a portion of the organic carbon would have been degraded on these monthly time scales (Bushinsky & Emerson, 2018). Even so, the overall regional export associated with these events is difficult to estimate given that the subduction patches were only opportunistically captured by a comparatively wide separation of BGC-Argo profiles. The true frequency of these events is unknown.

The inferred injection dynamics observed here would partially offset the apparent imbalance between the biological gravitational pump and mesopelagic carbon budgets (Burd et al., 2010; Emerson, 2014) as well as the nutritional shortfalls for subsurface biota (Steinberg et al., 2008; Oka et al., 2009; Lacour et al., 2017). The intensity of these export events below the permanent pycnocline is remarkable, and they have not been adequately considered in biogeochemical models.

Table 1 Summary of the subduction patches associated with positive and negative π anomalies; red numbers indicating statistics of the sum and mean based on absolute values of π anomalies.

Statistics	Number of patches	Δ_{AOU} (μmol/kg)		Δ_{DO} (μmol/kg)		Δ_{π} (kg/m^3)	
		$\sum \Delta_{AOU}$	mean(Δ_{AOU})	$\sum \Delta_{DO}$	mean(Δ_{DO})	$\sum \Delta_{\pi}$	mean(Δ_{π})
Total	335	-9248.43	-27.61	11560.79	34.51	58.57	0.17
$\Delta_{\pi} < 0$	279	-8303.75	-29.76	10743.84	38.51	-54.16	-0.19
$\Delta_{\pi} > 0$	56	-944.68	-16.87	816.95	14.59	4.41	0.08
Ratio ($\Delta_{\pi} < 0/\Delta_{\pi} > 0$)	4.98	8.79	1.76	13.15	2.64	12.28	2.47

Table 2 Statistics of the subduction-injected carbon and oxygen exports and export rates into the ocean's interior. See Section 2.2.2 for details on the calculation. Note that these statistics are based on the subduction patches identified, without considering their episodic characteristics and spatial and temporal inhomogeinity.

Method	Carbon Inventory (g C/m^2)	Oxygen Inventory (g O_2 /m^2)	Carbon export (mg C/m^2/day)	Oxygen export (mg O_2/m^2/day)
Integrated Area	31.3±25.9	63.8±52.8	85.8±71.1	174.6±144.6
Peak Height	79.8±58.1	152.1±108.1	218.6±159.1	416.6±296.2

Global ocean inventories of oxygen have been decreasing, and current climate models predict this trend is likely to accelerate over the next century (Oschlies et al., 2018). However, these models suffer from considerable gaps in understanding, one of which is the absence of small-scale transport processes such as the events captured here (Oschlies et al., 2018). The average residual DO enrichment in the subduction patches, defined as the difference in DO concentrations within and adjacent to the subducted waters, was 34.5±19.8 μmol O_2/kg, with levels as high as ~88 μmol O_2/kg below 450 db during March (Table 1, Fig. 6). These differences reflected ~20% higher oxygen concentrations than in the surrounding mesopelagic waters. Based on these residual excess oxygen concentrations and very conservative estimates of advection rates, the oxygen flux within these features would be on the order of 174-417 mg O_2 m^{-2} day^{-1} (Table 2). These oxygen fluxes are ~ 3-6 times greater than the estimated mesopelagic oxygen consumption rates in the highly productive Atlantic sector of the Southern Ocean (Dehairs et al., 1997), and thus may represent a significant source of ventilation to our study region.

Co-injection of oxygen below the permanent pycnocline by eddy pumping has not been given close consideration in previous studies, largely because it is less relevant for high latitude, oxygen-rich waters. However, weak ocean ventilation in the tropical and subtropical mesopelagic zone is leading to declining oxygen concentrations (Karstensen et al., 2008; Oschlies et al., 2018; Robinson, 2019) and expansion of oxygen minimum zones in many regions of the oceans (Stramma et al., 2008; Breitburg et al., 2018). These episodic, dispersed subduction events likely represent a significant source of ventilation to help offset the de-oxygenation phenomenon, and to support the expected climate-driven effects of increasing temperature on the metabolic oxygen demand of mesopelagic organisms (Wohlers et al., 2009). Enriched oxygen supplies into the mesopelagic zone also will influence remineralization rates of sinking particulate organic carbon in the ocean's twilight zone (Buesseler et al., 2007; Steinberg et al., 2008) affecting carbon sequestration time scales. Current global-scale biogeochemical models currently are too coarse to capture the effect that these sub-mesoscale processes may have on mesoscale oxygen variability (Takano et al., 2018), or to account for this added oxygen supply.

3.4 Surface forcing of subduction

The AOU, DO and π anomalies were integrated within the study domain over the year to assess the extent of subduction in the western North Pacific (Fig. 6, Table 1). π anomalies were divided into negative or positive Δ_π—i.e., π being greater or less than that in surrounding waters—which can suggest their modes of formation. Negative Δ_π would correspond with the subduction of colder waters, such as along the edges of cyclonic eddies, while positive Δ_π would be associated with the eddy pumping of warmer core, anticyclonic eddies. The subduction patches were clearly dominated by negative Δ_π, and more negative Δ_π corresponded with much larger Δ_{AOU} and Δ_{DO} (Fig. 6), suggesting they were associated with cyclonic, cold core, upwelling-dominated eddies that have higher oxygen solubilities, nutrient flux to the surface, and thus higher

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plankton production. Conversely, the association of lower Δ_{AOU} and Δ_{DO} with positive Δ_π would align with the lower oxygen solubility, nutrient flux and plankton production expected for warmer core, downwelling anticyclonic eddies. Moreover, the majority of deep intrusions had negative Δ_π (Fig. 6) consistent with colder waters following deeper isoclines. In contrast, anticyclonic eddies would push warm, lower oxygen and less biomass containing waters to shallower depths. These findings suggest that tracking the activity of cyclonic eddies in regions with shoaling permanent pycnoclines (Chelton et al., 2011; McGillicuddy, 2016) may be particularly important for quantifying these deeper subduction processes.

The findings here indicate that eddy associated subduction is an important mechanism driving carbon sequestration and oxygen enrichment below the permanent pycnocline across the western subtropical Pacific region, particularly near the Kuroshio Extension (KE). Moreover, the abundance of these discrete, small-scale subduction events almost certainly is under-sampled in the BGC-Argo dataset. The frequency of this subduction is expected to vary as the KE oscillates between two dynamic states—quasi-stable and unstable—linked to the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) or North Pacific Gyre Oscillation (NPGO) (Di Lorenzo et al., 2008). When quasi-stable, the KE jet shifts north and generates less eddy activity than the unstable, highly meandering southward KE jet, which reduces eastward transport and sharply increases eddy kinetic energy (Qiu & Chen, 2010; Lin et al., 2014). Superimposed on these KE oscillations has been an increase in the ratio of cyclonic to anticyclonic eddies associated with a climate-driven intensification of tropical storms in the western Pacific and the multidecadal trend of acceleration in Kuroshio flow (Zhang et al., 2020), suggesting that the importance of eddy-associated subduction processes in this region has been increasing, and may continue to increase in the future. This linkage needs to be considered in designing future ocean observation programs and modeling of global biogeochemical cycles to adequately capture the damping effects that eddy associated subduction may exert on increasing atmospheric CO_2 and de-oxygenation in the tropical and subtropical ocean.

4. Conclusion

Biogeochemical measurements obtained from the BGC-Argo float data provide new insights into the small-scale vertical water mass exchange in the ocean. In particular, spicity and AOU are key parameters in capturing the episodic subduction events and their significance. Although these floats cannot capture the full pathways of subduction, they provide the first-hand data on locations, depths, time, and strengths of episodic subduction patches. Here we analyze float data in the western North Pacific and show significant subduction export of dissolved oxygen and carbon to the mesopelagic zone particularly below the permanent pycnocline; thus, the BGC-Argo data available over the global oceans can be used to extend the current study to other oceanic regions. These two factors—increased carbon export and re-oxygenation—would help to offset the apparent budget imbalance between the biological gravitational pump and mesopelagic

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carbon demand, and support the increasing metabolic oxygen demand of mesopelagic organisms as ocean warming continues.

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Author contributions

S. C. was responsible for data processing and drafting the manuscript, R. X. H. and H. X. took the lead in data analysis from the view of physical oceanography, M. L. W. and F. C. contributed to the biogeochemical analysis, and F. C. designed and coordinated the overall research project. All authors contributed to the ideas and writing of this manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing financial or research interests.

Data availability

The BGC-Argo data used in this study were collected and made freely available by the International Argo Program and the national programs that contribute to it (http://www.argo.ucsd.edu, http://argo.jcommops.org), archived in the Argo Global Data Assembly Centre (http://doi.org/10.17882/42182), and quality-controlled and made available by the China Argo Real-time Data Center (http://www.argo.org.cn). The satellite SLA and geostrophic velocity data are from the Archiving, Validation and Interpretation of Satellite Data in Oceanography (AVISO) and can be downloaded from the Copernicus Marine Environment Monitoring Service (https://marine.copernicus.eu/).

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