



AGU Advances

Original Version of

Subantarctic Mode Water Biogeochemical Formation Properties and Interannual Variability

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23 Abstract

24 Subantarctic Mode Water (SAMW) is a key water mass for the transport of nutrients, oxygen, and
25 anthropogenic carbon into the ocean interior. However, a lack of biogeochemical observations of
26 SAMW properties during wintertime formation precluded their detailed characterization. Here we
27 characterize for the first time SAMW properties across their entire wintertime formation regions
28 based primarily on biogeochemical profiling floats. Observations show that the SAMW properties
29 differ between the two main formation regions in the Pacific and Indian sectors of the Southern
30 Ocean. SAMW formed in the Pacific is colder, fresher, and higher in oxygen, nitrate, and dissolved
31 inorganic carbon than its Indian Ocean counterpart. The relationship between potential density and
32 biogeochemical water properties is nearly identical between the two formation regions; property
33 differences thus predominantly reflect the difference in mean densities of SAMW formed in each
34 region. SAMW is undersaturated in oxygen during formation, which will impact calculations of
35 derived quantities that assume preformed oxygen saturation. SAMW is at or above atmospheric
36 $p\text{CO}_2$ during wintertime and therefore not a direct sink of contemporary carbon dioxide during the
37 formation period. Results from the Biogeochemical Southern Ocean State Estimate suggest anti-
38 correlated interannual variability in the dissolved inorganic carbon, nitrate, and oxygen in the
39 central and southeastern Pacific formation regions similar to previously established patterns in
40 mixed layer variability. This indicates that the mean properties of SAMW will vary depending on
41 which sub-region has a stronger formation rate, which is in turn linked to the Southern Annual
42 Mode and the El-Niño Southern Oscillation.

43

44 Plain Language Summary

45 In the Southern Ocean, north of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current, wintertime surface ocean heat
46 loss cools the water, increasing its density and forming thick layers of well mixed water that enter
47 the ocean. This water, called Subantarctic Mode Water (SAMW), represents an important pathway
48 for anthropogenic carbon, nutrients and oxygen into the ocean interior. In this study we used new
49 wintertime observations from profiling robots equipped with sensors that measure oxygen, nitrate,
50 and pH in the top 2000 m to determine important initial properties of SAMW for the first time.
51 We find that the SAMW properties differ between the Pacific and Indian formation regions and
52 are related to the different densities of water formed in each basin. These properties indicate that
53 it is unlikely for SAMW to take up present-day carbon dioxide during formation, though it may

54 still take up anthropogenic carbon. We investigated how these properties varied year-to-year using
55 an ocean model which assimilates the observations, finding links between changes in the
56 biogeochemical properties and physical processes as well as large-scale climate variability. These
57 results will provide valuable constraints on interpretation of subsurface ocean measurements and
58 model studies investigating the role of these waters in the global carbon cycle.

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62 **1. Introduction**

63 The Southern Ocean is responsible for 50% of the contemporary carbon absorbed by the
64 ocean each year (DeVries 2014; Le Quéré et al. 2018; Friedlingstein et al. 2019). This
65 contemporary carbon uptake by the Southern Ocean is largely driven by a strong anthropogenic
66 carbon flux overlaid on a balanced natural carbon cycle (Gruber et al. 2019b). North of the
67 Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC), the uptake of natural carbon is driven by Thermocline
68 Waters (TW) from the subtropics that cool as they are advected south and are the site of biological
69 production, both of which lower the partial pressure of CO₂ ($p\text{CO}_2$) in the ocean, drawing down
70 carbon from the atmosphere (Mikaloff Fletcher et al. 2007; Gruber et al. 2009b, 2019b). This
71 uptake is balanced by the upwelling of Circumpolar Deep Water (CDW) enriched in old carbon
72 from degraded biological material that is released to the atmosphere as CDW waters reach the
73 surface south of the ACC. A fraction of the upwelled CDW is advected southward, where it cools
74 and subducts as Antarctic Bottom Water, while another fraction is advected northward, mixing
75 with TWs advected southward, forming mode and intermediate waters (Iudicone et al. 2011;
76 Morrison et al. 2015). Newly formed Subantarctic Mode Water (SAMW) contains a mix of CDW,
77 Antarctic Intermediate Water (AAIW), older SAMW that is re-entrained as intense surface heat
78 loss during the winter drives deep winter mixed layers and subduction, and TW (McCartney 1977;
79 Hanawa and Talley 2001). After subduction, these well-mixed, near-surface layers are advected
80 away from their formation regions into the ocean interior (McCartney 1977, 1982). SAMW
81 primarily forms in the Indian and Pacific sectors of the Southern Ocean, where wintertime mixed
82 layers are deepest (Figure 1).

83 After subduction, SAMW is advected by the ACC and can either be re-entrained and
84 modified during subsequent winter mixed layer deepening or exported into the ocean interior
85 where it is advected by the subtropical gyre circulation (Hanawa and Talley 2001; Koch-Larrouy
86 et al. 2010; Hartin et al. 2011; Cerovečki et al. 2019; Morrison et al. 2022). SAMW redistributes
87 heat and freshwater from the Southern Ocean to the tropics (Wong et al. 1999) and the export of
88 nutrients from the Southern Ocean through mode and intermediate waters fuels between 44 and
89 75% of global ocean productivity (Sarmiento et al. 2004; Primeau et al. 2013). SAMW is also one
90 of the major water masses that transports anthropogenic and natural carbon into the ocean interior
91 from the Southern Ocean, based on interior measurements of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC)

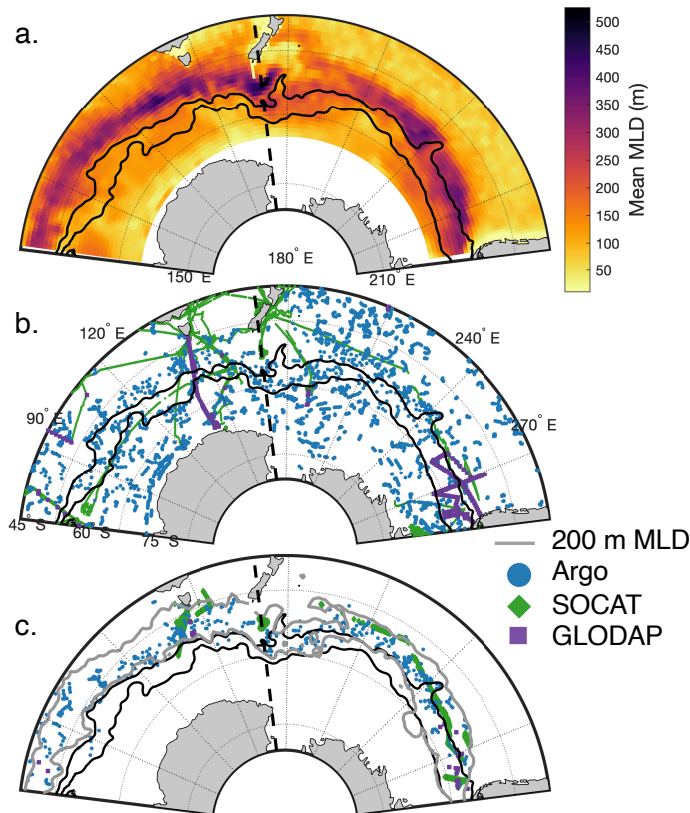


Figure 1. Wintertime mixed layer depths (MLD) and distribution of wintertime observations in the Indian and Pacific sectors of the Southern Ocean. (a) Mean winter (Aug. & Sept.) mixed layer depth calculated from gridded Argo product 2005-2020 (RG-Argo). (b) Map of wintertime water column biogeochemical properties (Argo floats, blue dots; GLODAP dataset since 1990, purple squares) and $p\text{CO}_2$ surface measurements (SOCAT dataset since 1990, green squares). (c) Same as (b), but only showing data within the SAMW density ranges in the Pacific ($26.8 \leq \sigma_\theta < 27.05 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$) and Indian ($26.6 \leq \sigma_\theta < 26.9 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$) basins within the wintertime mixed layer depths $\geq 200 \text{ m}$. Gray contour represents the mean wintertime 200 m MLD from RG-Argo indicating mode water formation regions. Black lines in all plots are the Polar Front (southern line) and the Subantarctic Front (Orsi et al. 1995).

92 and modeling inversion studies (Mikaloff Fletcher et al. 2006, 2007; Gruber et al. 2009b, 2019b).
 93 Southern Ocean mode and intermediate waters help ventilate the ocean interior with oxygen
 94 (Russell and Dickson 2003; Carter et al. 2014) and their distinctive high oxygen signature is
 95 evident as they spread into the subtropical gyre (McCartney 1977; Hanawa and Talley 2001).
 96 Modeling results indicate that SAMW has accumulated $\sim 20\%$ of the total ocean anthropogenic
 97 carbon inventory and gains $\sim 28\%$ of the annual anthropogenic increase, with 60-86% of the
 98 increase coming from air-sea fluxes and the rest accumulated through interior diapycnal processes
 99 (Groeskamp et al. 2016; Iudicone et al. 2016). However, the mechanistic understanding of air-sea
 100 CO_2 fluxes that we gain from model representations are dependent on accurate model
 101 representation of preformed mode water biogeochemical properties and resulting air-sea fluxes for
 102 which validation data has been previously unavailable.

103 SAMW is not homogeneous in space, but instead consists of pools of water with distinct
 104 properties that form in different locations. Water is then exported to the subtropics from these well-
 105 defined “hotspots” of formation following distinct pathways influenced by topography (Koch-
 106 Larrouy et al. 2010; Herraiz-Borreguero and Rintoul 2011; Li et al. 2021). While many physical

107 processes play an important role in SAMW formation, air-sea buoyancy fluxes and Ekman
108 transport of cold water are generally considered to be dominant processes (Speer et al. 2000;
109 Sloyan and Rintoul 2001; Rintoul and England 2002). SAMW is strongly coupled to the
110 atmosphere and the interannual variability of wintertime atmospheric forcing governs the
111 interannual variability and regional distribution of SAMW formation in the Pacific and Indian
112 sectors of the Southern Ocean, as revealed by the Argo observations. In the Southern Hemisphere
113 the extratropical atmospheric circulation has the quasi-stationary zonal wave number 3 (ZW3)
114 pattern present in both the mean atmospheric circulation and its variability on daily, seasonal, and
115 interannual timescales (Raphael 2004). As the SAMW is strongly coupled to the atmosphere, the
116 ZW3 can also be imprinted onto the zonal distribution of deep wintertime mixed layers associated
117 with the SAMW formation (Meijers et al. 2019; Tamsitt et al. 2020; Cerovečki and Meijers 2021).
118 The meridional wind anomalies introduced by these MSLP anomalies are of the opposite sign on
119 the two flanks of each center of the MSLP anomaly, resulting in anomalously cold conditions and
120 deep mixed layers on the flank with enhanced southerly winds, and anomalously warm conditions
121 and shallow mixed layers on the flank with enhanced northerly winds. Thus in years with strong
122 wintertime MSLP anomalies in the SAMW formation latitude range, deep wintertime mixed layer
123 depth (MLD) anomalies have a dipole pattern in each of the three ocean sectors, and these MLD
124 anomalies in the three ocean sectors tend to be in phase, which results in a more circumpolar
125 response to the atmospheric forcing (Tamsitt et al. 2020; Cerovečki and Meijers 2021). Argo
126 observations have also revealed that the variability of mode water volume and properties in
127 SAMW pools is governed not only by local atmospheric forcing, but also by advective processes
128 that transport property anomalies eastward, with a ~ 1 year lag between the central and southeastern
129 Pacific (Meijers et al. 2019; Cerovečki et al. 2019).

130 SAMW variability is strongly linked to the dominant modes of variability in the Southern
131 Hemisphere. The Southern Annual Mode (SAM) leads to large-scale wintertime MLD anomalies
132 (Sallée et al. 2010), strongly influencing the volume of subducted mode water. This volume has
133 increased over the Argo period (Gao et al. 2018; Portela et al. 2020) as mixed layers have deepened
134 in response to a strengthening SAM (Qu et al. 2020). In the Pacific, the SAMW formation is also
135 influenced by El Niño–Southern Oscillation (ENSO), and the relative phases of the ENSO and
136 SAM governs the interannual variability of SAMW thickness (Meijers et al. 2019).

137 In contrast to physical properties, changes in large-scale Southern Ocean biogeochemical
138 properties in response to climate variability, including those of SAMW, have primarily been
139 described using the results of model simulations. Modeling studies have linked decreased
140 contemporary Southern Ocean CO₂ fluxes and elevated surface DIC concentrations to positive
141 SAM phase through increased Ekman-driven upwelling of old waters enriched in DIC (Lenton and
142 Matear 2007; Lovenduski et al. 2007). Verdy et al. (2007) explored climate drivers of oxygen and
143 CO₂ fluxes in the Southern Ocean using a global numerical ocean model. The Pacific dipole
144 described in Meijers et al. (2019) and Cerovečki and Meijers (2021) is evident in the first EOF of
145 both oxygen and CO₂ flux variability in Verdy et al. (2007), which the authors also associate with
146 SAM. The upwelling of low oxygen water drives oceanic uptake of oxygen, so the response has
147 the opposite sign from CO₂. They find that ENSO is a secondary driver of oxygen and CO₂ flux
148 variability in the Pacific with a uniform central Pacific response driven by surface heat fluxes
149 rather than the dipole associated with SAM.

150 Wintertime measurements of biogeochemical tracers in the Southern Ocean are limited,
151 with most of the shipboard measurements that have historically underpinned our understanding of
152 ocean properties concentrated in a few locations (Figure 1). Therefore, despite its importance in
153 the distribution of carbon, nutrients, and oxygen in the ocean interior, the biogeochemical
154 properties of SAMW at the time of formation are poorly characterized. Knowing water mass
155 formation properties is key to interpreting downstream biogeochemical measurements and ground-
156 truthing the model-based interpretations of the role of SAMW in nutrient export and anthropogenic
157 carbon uptake. The impact of nutrients exported in SAMW to the global ocean on air-sea carbon
158 dioxide fluxes is determined by whether those nutrients are preformed or sourced from biological
159 material that degraded sometime between initial subduction and re-exposure to the surface.
160 Nutrient regeneration from respiration is accompanied by the release of DIC and consumption of
161 oxygen, such that biological production fueled by regenerated nutrients will either be offset by
162 regenerated CO₂ outgassing or will re-fix the regenerated DIC back to organic carbon. Preformed
163 nutrients are not coupled to regenerated DIC and can serve to draw carbon down from the
164 atmosphere. Preformed nutrients are often calculated using oxygen measurements, an oxygen
165 consumption to nutrient release respiration ratio, and assumed oxygen saturation during formation.
166 It is therefore important to characterize oxygen and preformed nutrients present in different water
167 masses and to understand if and how they vary in time.

168 Only one study has analyzed formation properties of SAMW from shipboard
169 measurements made on individual cruises that crossed a SAMW formation region in the Southeast
170 Pacific (Carter et al. 2014). Recent deployments of profiling floats equipped with biogeochemical
171 sensors throughout the Southern Ocean by the Southern Ocean Carbon and Climate Observations
172 and Modeling project (SOCCOM; Johnson et al. 2017) offer a new opportunity to characterize
173 these waters and better understand the role that SAMW plays in the global carbon cycle and
174 production.

175 While mapped interpolation products are available for some biogeochemical variables
176 (Garcia et al. 2010; Landschützer et al. 2013; Rödenbeck et al. 2013; Lauvset et al. 2016) these
177 products are biased toward summertime measurements. For example, inclusion of float-derived
178 $p\text{CO}_2$ with ship-board observations in standard mapping methods has reduced estimates of the
179 annual Southern Ocean contemporary carbon uptake from an annual uptake of $\sim 1.1 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$ to
180 $0.75 \pm 0.22 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$ (Bushinsky et al. 2019), primarily due to new wintertime observations.
181 Furthermore, the wintertime formation of SAMW has strong temporal and spatial variability,
182 leading to possible biases if properties or variability are extrapolated from too-sparse
183 measurements (Fay et al. 2014). These float-derived year-round, vertically-resolved
184 biogeochemical measurements for the first time enable characterization of these important water
185 masses during formation and will provide the link between surface processes and interior ocean
186 properties and changes. In this study we use wintertime observations from profiling floats and
187 available shipboard measurements to characterize SAMW properties at the time of formation.
188 Using results of an ocean state estimate we determine how these properties vary interannually and
189 regionally prior to export into the global ocean.

190

191 **2. Methods**

192 *SAMW identification*

193 SAMW was identified from gridded Argo T&S (hereafter RG-Argo; Roemmich and Gilson
194 2009) using a potential vorticity (PV) threshold of $\text{PV} < 40 \times 10^{-12} \text{ (m s)}^{-1}$, with PV defined as
195 $\text{PV} = f/\rho_0 \partial\sigma_\theta/\partial z$, where f is the Coriolis parameter, ρ_0 is the density of seawater, and σ_θ is
196 the potential density (taken here to be defined relative to the surface), averaged over the years
197 2005-2020. This PV threshold was used to identify the density range of core SAMW in the Pacific
198 (170°E to 70°W , 64°S to 45°S) and Indian (68°E to 170°E , 55°S to 30°S) ocean sectors, identified

199 as density bins (0.05 kg m^{-3} -wide spacing) containing at least 5% of total SAMW volume in an
200 annual average. We then used these density ranges throughout the rest of the study to identify
201 wintertime SAMW in each basin.

202

203 *Biogeochemical observations*

204 Biogeochemical properties of the deep wintertime mixed layers that form mode water were
205 determined from biogeochemical Argo float observations obtained from two sources. The primary
206 dataset is observations from over 200 floats equipped with oxygen, nitrate, pH, and bio-optical
207 sensors deployed by SOCCOM since 2014 (May 2021 snapshot; Johnson et al., 2017). The
208 SOCCOM data are supplemented by the University of Washington Argo Oxygen dataset (v1.1;
209 Drucker and Riser, 2016) that contains post-adjusted Argo oxygen data from 2003 to 2014. Where
210 float data was present in both datasets the SOCCOM data were preferentially used. The final
211 dataset contains 311 floats, of which 53 contain profiles that fell within the criteria used for SAMW
212 formation periods. A profile was determined to have sampled the SAMW formation period if it
213 fell within the density range for a given basin, was from August or September, and had a calculated
214 MLD of at least 200 m.

215 Oxygen and nitrate are measured by sensors mounted on the floats with stated uncertainties
216 of $1\text{-}2 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ for oxygen and $<1 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ for nitrate (Johnson et al. 2017). The partial pressure
217 of carbon dioxide ($p\text{CO}_2$) and dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) are estimated in the SOCCOM
218 data processed stream from measured pH and an alkalinity multiple linear regression (Williams et
219 al. 2017; Carter et al. 2018) with a theoretical uncertainty of $\sim 11 \mu\text{atm}$ for $p\text{CO}_2$, and $\sim 6 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$
220 for DIC (Williams et al. 2017, 2018; Johnson et al. 2017). While float observations underwent
221 prior QC, a secondary QC was performed by checking time series of temperature, salinity, oxygen,
222 nitrate, pH, and derived $p\text{CO}_2$ in the upper 20 m for each float. Large spikes in individual properties
223 with no accompanying changes in related properties were removed from analysis (Supplemental
224 Table S1, 116 profiles removed out of 36,247 profiles total).

225

226 *Shipboard observations and derived quantities*

227 Shipboard bottle measurements from the Global Ocean Data Analysis Project v2.2020
228 (GLODAP; Key et al., 2015; Olsen et al., 2016) and underway $p\text{CO}_2$ data from the Surface Ocean
229 CO_2 Atlas v2021 (SOCAT; Bakker et al., 2016) are used to supplement float observations. $p\text{CO}_2$

230 was calculated from GLODAP DIC and alkalinity using CO2SYS (van Heuven et al. 2011) and
231 the same carbonate system constants as used by the SOCCOM project (Williams et al. 2017).
232 MLDs are calculated for each float and ship profile using a $0.03 \text{ kg m}^{-3} \sigma_{\theta}$ change from a 10 m
233 reference (de Boyer Montégut et al. 2004). SOCAT $p\text{CO}_2$ observations are underway
234 measurements that are not associated with a vertical profile from which MLD could be calculated.
235 Instead, SOCAT observations were matched to the closest $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ ML from objectively
236 interpolated RG-Argo (Roemmich and Gilson 2009) MLDs .

237 $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ (surface $p\text{CO}_2$ minus atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$) values were calculated using the
238 atmospheric CO_2 mole fraction ($x\text{CO}_2$, NOAA Greenhouse Gas Marine Boundary Layer
239 Reference; Dlugokencky et al. 2019) matched to the nearest latitude. A correction for sea level
240 pressure was applied using a mean annual cycle for each location calculated from a 10-year time
241 series of National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP; Kalnay et al., 1996) reanalysis
242 sea level pressure and water vapor pressure calculated from SST and SSS (Zeebe and Wolf-
243 Gladrow 2001). Oxygen saturation concentrations are calculated from observed temperature and
244 salinity and García and Gordon (1992) solubility coefficients.

245

246 *Biogeochemical Southern Ocean State Estimate (BSOSE)*

247 The biogeochemical Southern Ocean State Estimate (BSOSE; Verdy and Mazloff 2017) is
248 a coupled biogeochemical-sea-ice-ocean state estimate that assimilates physical and
249 biogeochemical observations, including from biogeochemical profiling floats, creating a coherent
250 picture of Southern Ocean processes that conserves mass and has closed budgets for
251 biogeochemical properties. BSOSE is forced by optimized atmospheric reanalysis fields from
252 ERA-Interim (Dee et al. 2011). We used iteration 135, covering 2013-2019 at $1/6^{\circ}$ resolution, for
253 analysis of interannual variability. Here we only analyze the spatial and temporal variability of
254 SAMW in BSOSE output from the Pacific sector, because the distribution of deep wintertime
255 MLDs and SAMW formation regions in BSOSE iteration 135 was more similar to these from RG-
256 Argo than in the Indian sector.

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261 3. Results and discussion

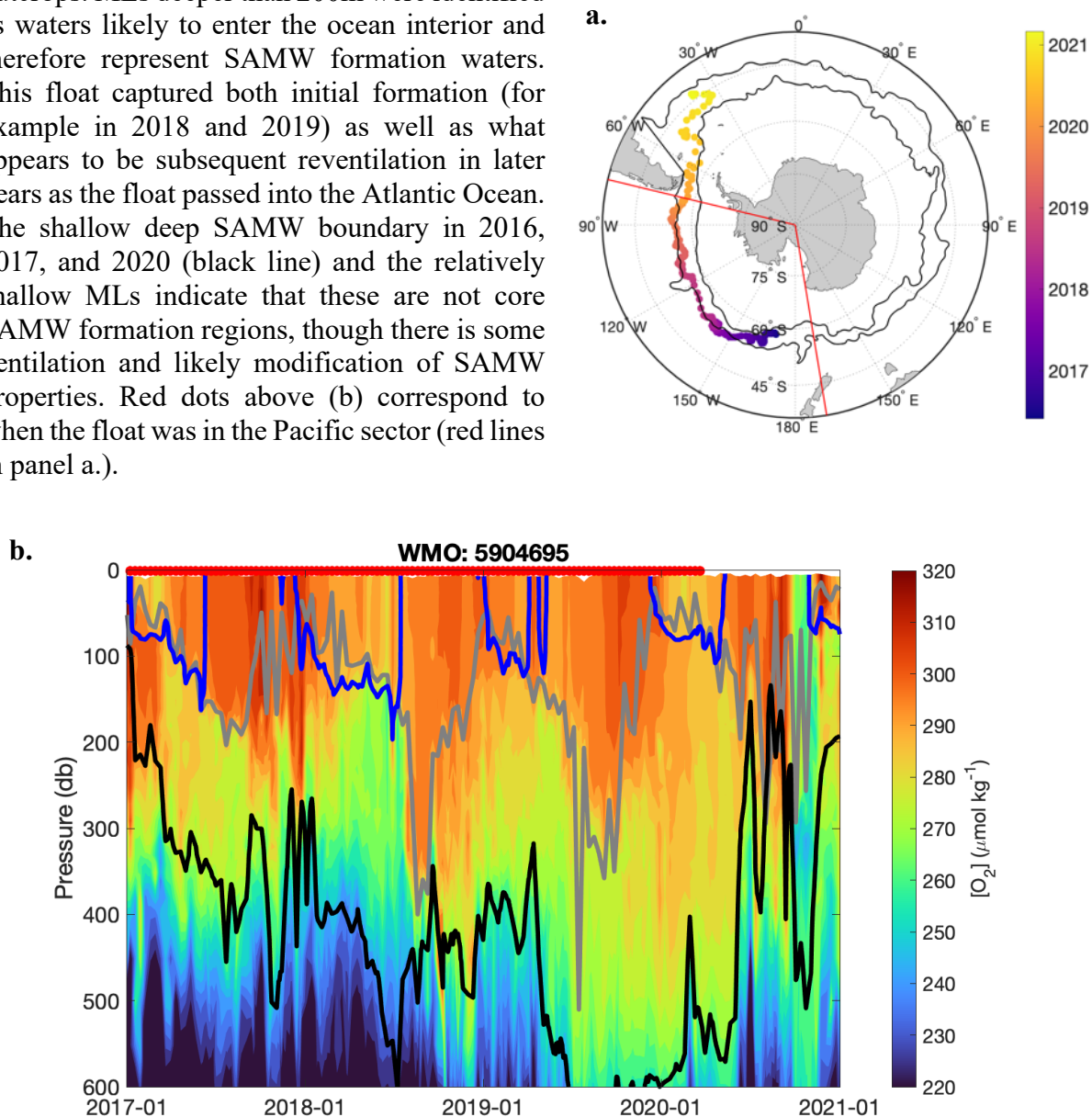
262 3.1 SAMW formation properties

263 The potential density bounds established for regional SAMWs were $26.8 \leq \sigma_{\theta} < 27.05$ kg
264 m^{-3} in the Pacific sector and $26.6 \leq \sigma_{\theta} < 26.9$ kg m^{-3} in the Indian sector. These density ranges
265 agree well with those from the literature (e.g. Cerovečki and Meijers, 2021). We identified SAMW
266 properties from float observations in the Pacific and Indian sectors during the time of formation
267 using these density bounds and calculating mean mixed layer properties from August to September
268 at the locations where the float profile mixed layer depth was at least 200 m. The depth criterion
269 was used to isolate the deep wintertime mixed layers associated with SAMW formation from other
270 shallower winter mixed layers, such as in areas of reventilation or seasonally formed water that
271 does not connect to the ocean interior (Koch-Larrouy et al. 2010). The threshold value was
272 determined by examining the individual float observations.

273 Pressure vs. time plots of individual floats capture the seasonal cycle of deep mixing in the
274 winter, where the lighter density bound of SAMW outcrops at the surface and newly formed waters
275 bring surface properties into the SAMW layer (Figure 2). As the mixed layer shoals in austral
276 spring, these waters mix in the ocean interior with older SAMW. After leaving Pacific or Indian
277 SAMW formation regions, floats often captured reventilation in other areas, such as float 5904695
278 that captured moderate wintertime ML deepening in the western Pacific in 2017 (Figure 2). The
279 float was advected eastward by the ACC and captured the process of strong wintertime ML
280 deepening in the Pacific in winters of 2018 and 2019. The subsequent year the float was advected
281 through the Drake Passage and into the Atlantic, where SAMW was reventilated, further
282 modifying the properties of SAMW that were set prior to restratification and isolation from the
283 atmosphere. The current study focuses only on the period of deep winter mixed layers and initial
284 formation properties, leaving reventilation and other post-formation modification processes to
285 later work.

286 Properties in the deep (> 200 m) winter mixed layers were first averaged in density bins
287 within the geographical bounds of each ocean sector and then weighted by volume to calculate
288 mean and standard deviation (Table 1). SAMW formed in the Pacific Ocean is colder and fresher,
289 with higher oxygen, nitrate, DIC, and $p\text{CO}_2$ than SAMW that forms in the Indian Ocean (Table 1,
290 Figures 3a and 3b). The relationship between potential density and each water property is nearly
291 identical between the Pacific and Indian formation regions, indicating that the preformed property

Figure 2. Trajectory and oxygen measurements from float 5904695. (a) Float 5904695 was deployed in the western Pacific in May 2016 and followed the Subantarctic Front (northern black line) as it was advected by the ACC into the Atlantic basin in 2020. Southern black line is the Polar Front. (b) Float oxygen measurements from the upper 600 m from 2017 to 2021. SAMW density bounds identified for the Pacific are shown for the lighter (blue, 26.8 kg m^{-3}) and denser (black, 27.05 kg m^{-3}) boundaries. MLD (gray) increases in the wintertime and the lighter SAMW boundary outcrops. MLs deeper than 200m were identified as waters likely to enter the ocean interior and therefore represent SAMW formation waters. This float captured both initial formation (for example in 2018 and 2019) as well as what appears to be subsequent reventilation in later years as the float passed into the Atlantic Ocean. The shallow deep SAMW boundary in 2016, 2017, and 2020 (black line) and the relatively shallow MLs indicate that these are not core SAMW formation regions, though there is some ventilation and likely modification of SAMW properties. Red dots above (b) correspond to when the float was in the Pacific sector (red lines in panel a.).



292 differences are primarily a function of the mean potential density of the waters formed in each
 293 region (Figure S1). The relationship between density and ocean properties determined from BGC
 294 Argo observations is well represented by BSOSE for all parameters except surface $p\text{CO}_2$ (Figure

Table 1. Mean preformed properties in SAMW formation regions obtained from float observations

Region	θ (°C)	Sal. (PSS-78)	[O ₂] ($\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$)	[NO ₃ ⁻] ($\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$)	[DIC] ($\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$)	$p\text{CO}_2$ (μatm)
Pacific	5.8 ± 0.6	34.2 ± 0.1	292 ± 6.2	21.5 ± 1.2	2135.1 ± 7.5	419.3 ± 14.4
Indian	9.3 ± 1	34.6 ± 0.2	271 ± 8.2	13.3 ± 2.9	2120 ± 6.3	404.4 ± 10.7

295 3, light dashed lines). Southern Ocean $p\text{CO}_2$ and the resulting air-sea flux is particularly hard for
 296 models to capture due to the non-linear relationship between $p\text{CO}_2$ and SST, DIC, and total
 297 alkalinity (Mongwe et al. 2018).

298 One of the few studies to characterize SAMW and the related AAIW properties in this
 299 region used data from a cruise in the winter of 2005 (Carter et al. 2014) to characterize deep winter
 300 mixed layer properties for SAMW that forms in the southeast Pacific. The SAMW formation
 301 properties described in Carter et al. (2014) fall on the denser end of newly formed SAMW in the
 302 Pacific, as expected, since the southeast Pacific is where the coldest and freshest SAMW is found.
 303 Thus, the Carter et al. (2014) estimates are 0.9-1.4 °C colder and 0.05-0.01 PSU fresher than the
 304 mean Pacific SAMW properties described in this study. The Carter et al. (2014) samples fall within
 305 ± 1 sd of the property-density relationships described in Figure 3a and 3b for θ , salinity, and [O₂]
 306 (gray symbols in Figure 3). The Carter et al. (2014) [NO₃⁻] is ~2.9 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ lower than the [NO₃⁻]
 307 observed in this study, indicating that either the SAMW formation region sampled in this study
 308 has a greater fraction of older water with a stronger signal of respiration or that less biological
 309 production has occurred since that water has been at the surface, either of which could result in a
 310 higher [NO₃⁻] value. The [DIC] and the $p\text{CO}_2$ calculated from the Carter et al. (2014) [DIC] and
 311 alkalinity are correspondingly lower than observed values. Correcting for the different amount of
 312 biological activity using an assumed Redfield stoichiometry of 106C: 16N and recalculating the
 313 [DIC] and $p\text{CO}_2$ (in the latter case, also correcting for SST and the biological impacts on alkalinity)
 314 yields values that are within the uncertainty of our observed property relationships with density
 315 (Figure 3, black symbols). This indicates that there is no fundamental disagreement between the
 316 carbonate system values derived from these float measurements and those observed by Carter et
 317 al. (2014). The [NO₃⁻] and [DIC] differences between the Carter et al. (2014) results and the current
 318 study may indicate variability or change on a multi-year time scale and warrants further exploration
 319 with longer time-series of observations or model output. The wide range of biogeochemical

320 properties across the density range of newly formed SAMW illustrates the need for observations
 321 that span the entire density and spatial extent of newly formed SAMW to fully characterize
 322 properties at the time of formation.

323 A recent study used ocean observations and a transport model to estimate preformed
 324 properties of oxygen, nitrate, silica, phosphate, and total alkalinity throughout the ocean interior
 325 (Carter et al. 2021). To compare Carter et al. (2021) to the current values for SAMW we applied
 326 the same geographic bounds for the Pacific and Indian regions and masked results using the RG-
 327 Argo mean winter MLD criteria of $>200\text{m}$. This yielded preformed properties at 200m depth of
 328 $284.8 \pm 13.3 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1} [\text{O}_2]$ and $22.3 \pm 3.9 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1} [\text{NO}_3^-]$ in the Pacific and $257.6 \pm 8.0 \mu\text{mol}$

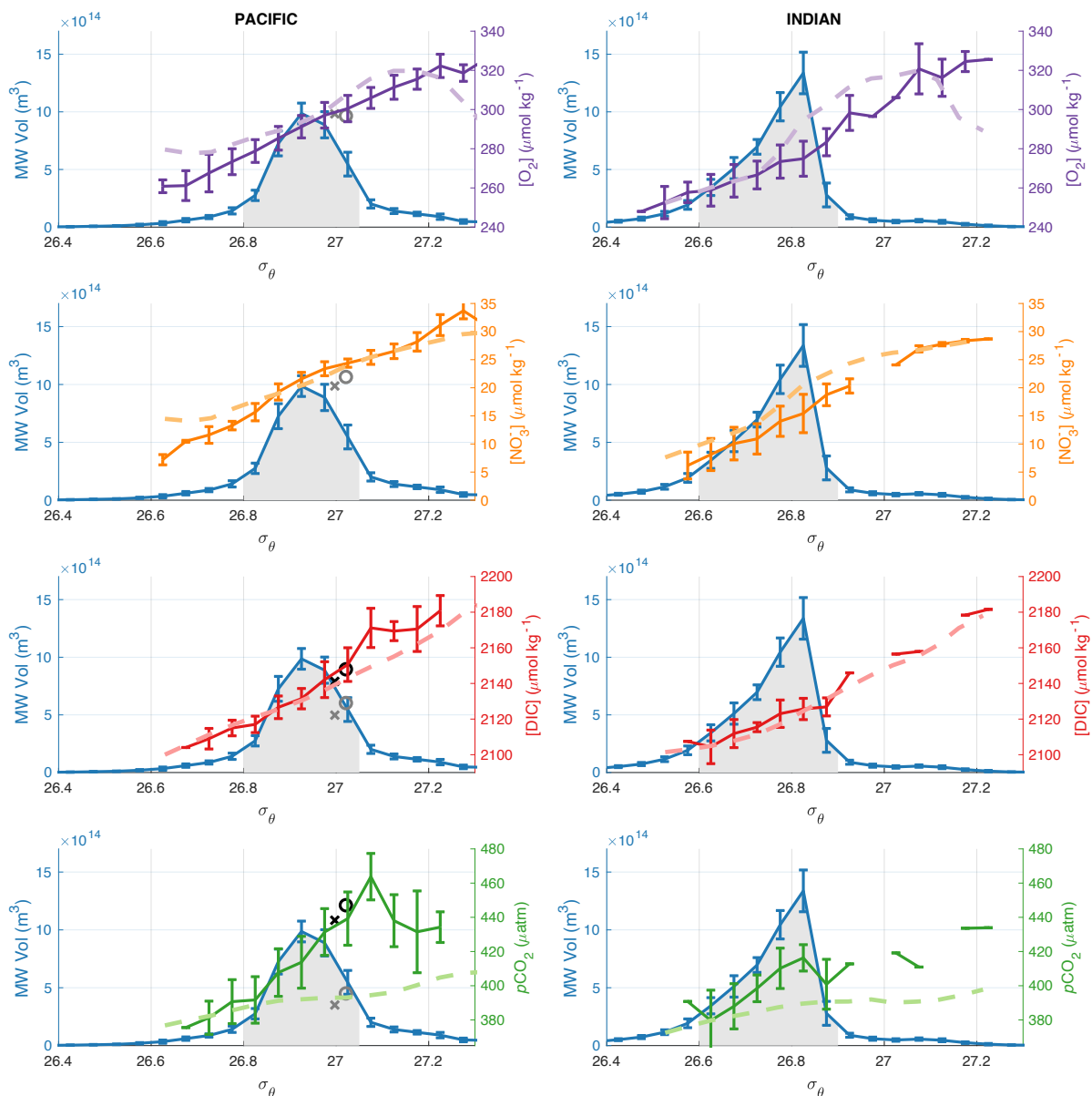


Figure 3a (previous page). Mixed layer biogeochemical properties of SAMW during wintertime formation and SAMW volume. Mode water volume and oxygen and nitrate, and estimated DIC and $p\text{CO}_2$ are plotted as a function of potential density. The blue curves show the monthly mean volume of water within the ML that satisfies the low potential vorticity (PV) criteria $\text{PV} < 40 \times 10^{-12} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1}$, obtained from the RG-Argo data set, for months August and September, 2005-2020, and binned into 0.05 kg m^{-3} wide density bins with the standard deviations indicating the interannual variability. The shaded areas under the volume curves indicates the density bins that contain at least 5% of SAMW by volume. Colored lines with error bars indicate the average properties $\pm 1 \text{ s.d.}$ from biogeochemical floats, binned into the same 0.05 kg m^{-3} wide density bins. Volume and property data are from mixed layers that exceed 200 m. Dashed lines are the August-Sept. mean biogeochemical properties from five-day averaged output from the Biogeochemical Southern Ocean State Estimate (BSOSE) and time averaged over years 2013-2019 where five-day averaged MLDs are deeper than 200m. Overlaid on the Pacific plots are markers indicating the SAMW formation properties identified in Carter et al. (2014) from their “North-Deep Mixed Layer Water” (northwest SAMW outcrop region, gray x’s) and “South-Deep Mixed Layer Water” (southeast SAMW outcrop region, gray o’s) samples. The Carter et al. (2014) $[\text{NO}_3^-]$ is an average of $2.9 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ lower than this study’s observations in the same density range. Adjusting the Carter et al. (2014) DIC and $p\text{CO}_2$ for the equivalent difference in organic matter (plus change in alkalinity due to organic matter respiration and SST difference for $p\text{CO}_2$) yields DIC and $p\text{CO}_2$ shown by the black x’s and o’s. The longitude range of the Indian Ocean sector is $68\text{-}170^\circ\text{E}$, and the Pacific sector $170\text{-}290^\circ\text{E}$.

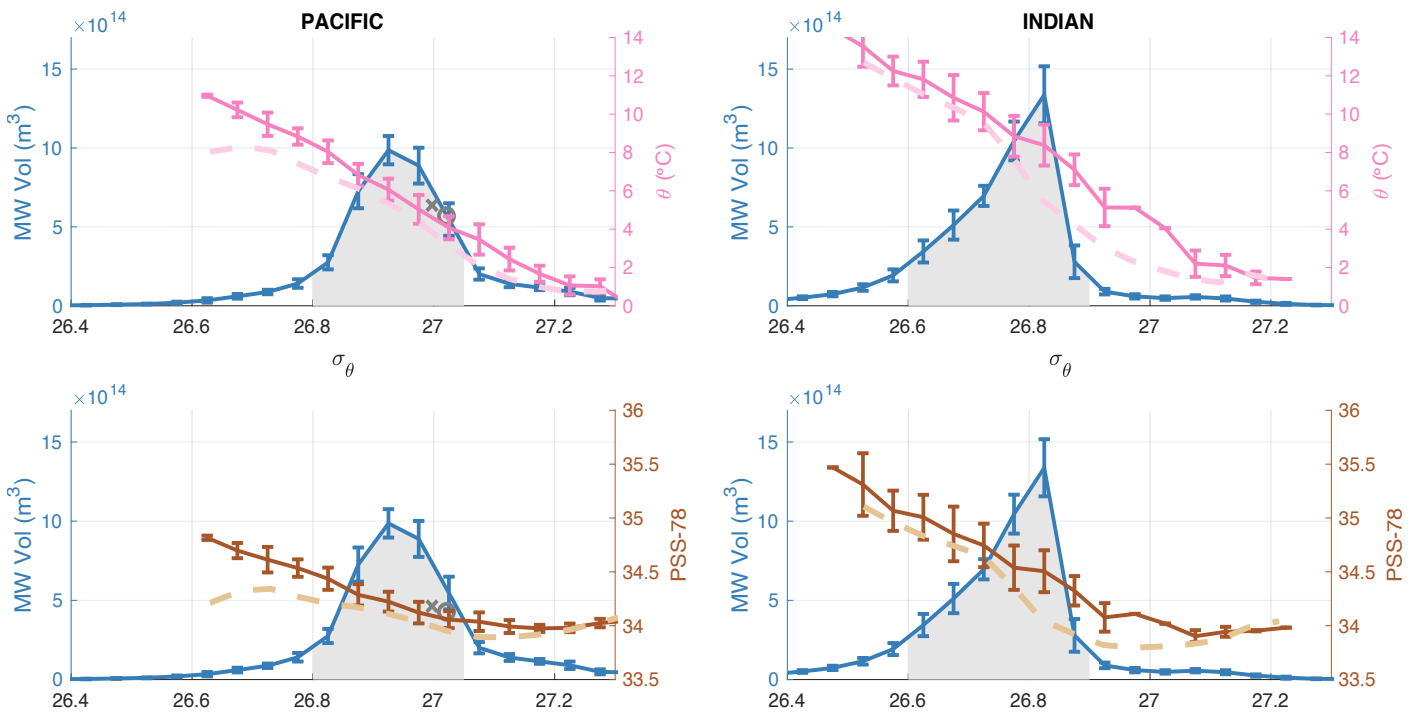


Figure 3b. Equivalent to Fig 3a but for potential temperature and salinity.

330 kg^{-1} $[\text{O}_2]$ and $13.4 \pm 3.6 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ $[\text{NO}_3^-]$ in the Indian Ocean. The differences in $[\text{O}_2]$ between
331 Carter et al. (2021) and the current study are on the same order as the difference between currently
332 observed oxygen and the saturation value, potentially introducing biases that would impact
333 interpretation of interior ocean processes. Comparison between the results of Carter et al. (2021)
334 and the current study is limited by the lack of density information from the Carter et al. (2021)
335 results, so it is unclear whether the possible bias between these results is meaningful or an artifact
336 of interpretation.

337 The relative properties of Pacific and Indian formation regions can be broadly interpreted
338 using the property and density relationship described in Figure 3 as differences in mixing fraction
339 of TW and AAIW/CDW in SAMW formation. The Indian SAMW formation region, which is
340 located further north than the formation region in the Pacific, displays a greater influence of TW
341 coming from the subtropics with higher temperatures and lower nutrients and carbon, whereas the
342 Pacific SAMW formation region has a greater influence of upwelled deep water, with high carbon
343 and nutrients, and cold temperatures. Oxygen concentrations follow the north-south temperature
344 gradient, as oxygen air-sea exchange is fast relative to that of CO_2 , allowing the mixed layer to
345 come close to solubility equilibrium with the atmosphere rather than being controlled by the initial
346 $[\text{O}_2]$ of the mixing water masses. The interpretation that preformed biogeochemical properties are
347 dependent on the mixing fraction is consistent with our physical understanding of how mode
348 waters form in these two regions. An early analysis of the Southern Ocean State Estimate found
349 SAMW forming in the Indian Ocean to have a greater fraction of volume transformed from the
350 lighter (TW) waters than the Pacific (Cerovečki and Mazloff 2016). The difference between the
351 mean SAMW biogeochemical properties in the Indian and Pacific regions shown in Figure 3a
352 indicates that, at a minimum, properties of newly formed SAMW will change depending on the
353 relative volumes of water formed in each SAMW formation region or within different density
354 classes in a region. This may be critical for projection of future Southern Ocean conditions as the
355 predicted poleward intensification of Southern Ocean winds may impact mode water subduction
356 rates differently in the Indian and Pacific formation regions (Downes et al. 2017). While we now
357 have sufficient data to describe the mean SAMW formation properties in the Pacific and Indian
358 Oceans, these basin-wide averages likely mask the intra-basin differences documented for the
359 physical properties, but observational coverage alone is of insufficient density to convincingly
360 explore intra-basin biogeochemical differences.

361

362 **3.2 Oxygen and carbon dioxide saturation at the time of formation**

363 SAMW is undersaturated in oxygen at the time of formation in both the Pacific and Indian
 364 formation regions (Table 2, Figure 4). Wintertime SAMW $\Delta[O_2]$, or the observed oxygen
 365 concentration minus saturation concentration ($\Delta[O_2] = [O_2]_{\text{measured}} -$
 366 $[O_2]_{\text{saturation}}$, $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$), is negative in almost all individual float observations and in all
 367 monthly averages, consistent with the sparse observations available in these wintertime locations
 368 in the GLODAP v2.2020 shipboard dataset. Mean Pacific SAMW formation waters have a $\Delta[O_2]$
 369 of $-11.1 \pm 2.3 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ and $-7.7 \pm 2.7 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ for Indian SAMW (Table 2, average of float and
 370 GLODAP data). During the formation period, high winds drive strong gas exchange and an oxygen
 371 flux into the ocean driven by the undersaturated waters. $\Delta[O_2]$ is calculated with an assumption of
 372 a standard sea level pressure (SLP) of 1013.25 mbar (1 atm). SLP in the Southern Ocean is
 373 typically below 1013.25 mbar and accounting for the mean winter SLP in the Pacific and Indian
 374 formation regions would reduce $\sim 30\%$ of the oxygen undersaturation. The fact that the waters stay
 375 undersaturated throughout the wintertime formation period indicates that a combination of surface
 376 cooling by atmospheric heat loss and continued entrainment of low oxygen sub-surface waters is
 377 maintaining undersaturation through the time of water mass formation and subduction.

Table 2. Mean $\Delta[O_2]$ and ΔpCO_2 of SAMW at the time of formation

Region	¹ $\Delta[O_2]$ ($\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$)			² ΔpCO_2 (μatm)			
	Argo	GLODAP	Combined Argo & GLODAP	Argo	GLODAP	SOCAT	Combined Argo & SOCAT
Pacific	-11.1 ± 2.3	-12.2 ± 1.7	-11.1 ± 2.3	23.9 ± 14.7	20.1 ± 0.5	5.7 ± 3.6	16.1 ± 14.5
Indian	-7.9 ± 2.4	-6 ± 4.3	-7.7 ± 2.7	9.3 ± 11.7	-14 ± 16.4	$-6.4 \pm$ 7.5	0.1 ± 12.2

¹ $\Delta[O_2] = [O_2]_{ML,observed} - [O_2]_{saturation}$; O_2 saturation calculated as a function of temp. and sal. (Garcia and Gordon, 1992)

² $\Delta pCO_2 = pCO_{2,surf} - X_{CO_2} \times (\frac{SLP}{1013.25} - pH_2O)$; X_{CO_2} from the NOAA Greenhouse Gas Marine Boundary Layer Reference (Dlugokencky et al. 2019), sea level pressure (SLP) in mbar, pH_2O calculated as a function of temperature and salinity (Zeebe and Wolf-Gladrow, 2001).

378 Undersaturation of oxygen at the time of water mass formation has long been discussed as
 379 a difficulty in interpreting interior ocean oxygen measurements, but estimates of preformed oxygen
 380 undersaturation have primarily come from model results. Model results have indicated significant
 381 oxygen undersaturation during deep water formation in the North Atlantic and Southern Ocean
 382 (Ito et al. 2004; Duteil et al. 2013). The assumption that water masses are in equilibrium with

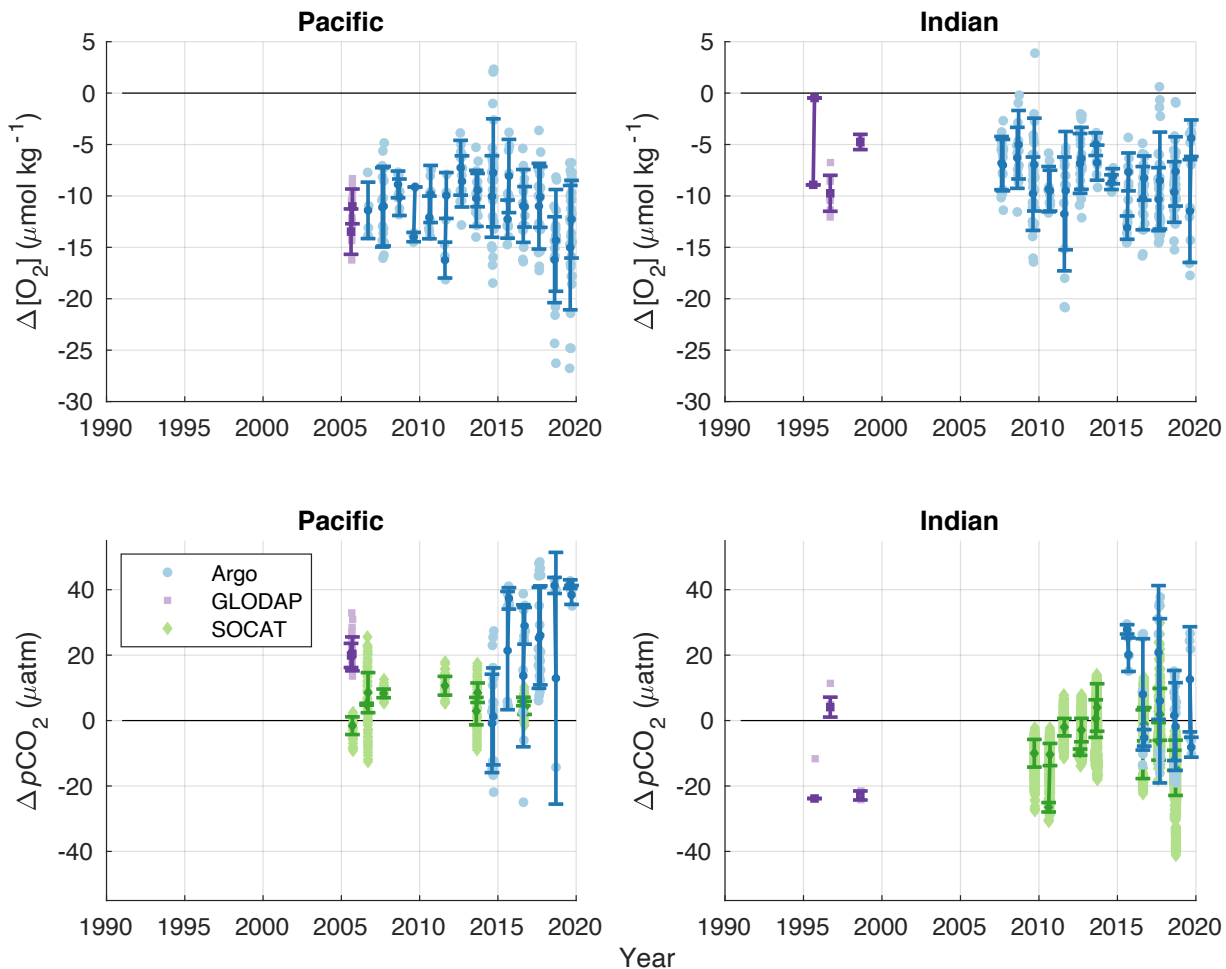


Figure 4. $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ and $\Delta[\text{O}_2]$ in SAMW formation regions from Argo floats and shipboard observations. (Top row) $\Delta[\text{O}_2]$ is calculated using the mixed layer average oxygen concentration from Argo floats (blue circles) and GLODAP shipboard measurements (purple squares) and is not corrected for local atmospheric pressure, reflecting the use of interior oxygen measurements relative to saturation concentration with an assumed atmospheric pressure of 1 atm. (Bottom row) $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ values from SOCAT $p\text{CO}_2$ measurements (green diamonds), Argo ph-derived $p\text{CO}_2$ estimates, and GLODAP DIC and alkalinity measurements using CO2SYS (van Heuven et al., 2011). SOCAT data are from near-surface underway systems, Argo data from the shallowest observation (typically 5-7m depth), and GLODAP data are from the upper 25m due to data availability. $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ for all data sources were calculated from NOAA ESRL atmospheric CO_2 values, corrected for water vapor pressure, and a 2011-2020 climatological sea

383 atmospheric oxygen underpins one of the most common uses of interior ocean oxygen
384 measurements, calculation of apparent oxygen utilization (AOU; $\text{AOU} = [\text{O}_2]_{\text{saturation}} -$
385 $[\text{O}_2]_{\text{measured}}, \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$), where $[\text{O}_2]_{\text{saturation}}$ is determined from temperature and salinity
386 dependent oxygen solubility (García and Gordon 1992). This quantity is key to determining
387 preformed quantities through the stoichiometric relationship between the consumption of oxygen
388 and release of nutrients and DIC during respiration (e.g.. Mackay and Watson 2021). Oxygen
389 utilization rates (OUR) describe the average respiration in a parcel of water by combining apparent
390 oxygen utilization (AOU) and an age tracer and, again, typically rely on the assumption that
391 preformed oxygen is at saturation. While one study (Koeve and Kähler 2016) found that
392 undersaturation in preformed oxygen did not make large difference in calculated OUR due to other
393 offsetting errors, this was based on a single model and did not have the observations to evaluate if
394 that model properly represented preformed biogeochemical properties.

395 The increasing number of oxygen-equipped profiling floats deployed throughout the ocean
396 is enabling the first observational studies of wintertime oxygen saturation over large areas. The
397 first basin-scale description of mixed layer $\Delta[\text{O}_2]$ and air-sea oxygen fluxes over several years was
398 also conducted in the Southern Ocean using Argo-oxygen floats, finding broad regions of
399 undersaturated wintertime waters but without focusing on specific water masses or ventilation
400 regions (Bushinsky et al. 2017). In the Labrador Sea, Wolf et al. (2018) used Argo-oxygen floats
401 to quantify significant undersaturation in Labrador Sea water at the time of formation that would
402 bias AOU and derived biogeochemical properties. In the study that estimated preformed properties
403 globally (Carter et al. 2021), errors in calculations of AOU were greatest in water formed in the
404 Southern Ocean and in the North Pacific due to the strong degree of wintertime oxygen
405 undersaturation in these regions. Broecker and Peng (1982) introduced the concept of True Oxygen
406 Utilization (TOU), which is the difference between preformed oxygen concentration and the
407 observed concentration, to account for the expected undersaturation during water formation events.
408 Here we show for the first time in SAMW using direct observations of the wintertime formation
409 that SAMW is undersaturated in oxygen when it leaves the ocean surface, altering the
410 interpretation of observations in this water mass throughout the ocean interior and allowing for the
411 calculation of TOU.

412 Mean monthly derived $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ determined only from float observations (surface $p\text{CO}_2$
413 minus atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$) is positive in the Pacific ($22.5 \pm 13.5 \mu\text{atm}$) formation region and

414 slightly positive in the Indian SAMW formation region ($9.5 \pm 12.9 \mu\text{atm}$) (Table 2; Figure 4,
415 bottom). In both the Pacific and Indian SAMW formation regions the $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ calculated from float
416 observations overlaps with, but is generally higher than, either direct shipboard measurements
417 (SOCAT) or derived $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ from paired DIC and alkalinity measurements (GLODAP). SOCAT
418 $p\text{CO}_2$ observations are direct measurements with accuracy better than $5 \mu\text{atm}$ (including quality
419 flags A-D, Lauvset et al. 2017), while the float-derived $p\text{CO}_2$ estimates utilize a recently developed
420 technique with a theoretical uncertainty of approximately $\pm 11 \mu\text{atm}$ (Williams et al. 2017). Float
421 observations have previously shown higher $p\text{CO}_2$ during the winter than has been recorded in the
422 SOCAT database (Gray et al. 2018; Williams et al. 2018). This elevated wintertime $p\text{CO}_2$ yields a
423 reduction in the Southern Ocean (south of 35°S) CO_2 sink in 2015-2017 from 1.1 Pg C yr^{-1} based
424 on SOCAT data alone to $0.75 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$ using a combined SOCAT and SOCCOM dataset
425 (Bushinsky et al. 2019). These results have been challenged, most recently by a study using
426 atmospheric CO_2 measurements and atmospheric transport models to constrain the Southern Ocean
427 sink (Long et al. 2021), which yielded a stronger Southern Ocean CO_2 sink, though with
428 overlapping uncertainties between the atmospheric constraint and the SOCCOM and SOCAT
429 float-based results in all months where atmospheric data existed.

430 The key question for average values of $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ or air-sea fluxes is whether averaged float
431 estimates of $p\text{CO}_2$ are accurate, not whether individual observations are precise. Crossover
432 comparisons between ship and float $p\text{CO}_2$ have indicated a possible high bias of float $p\text{CO}_2$ by ~ 4
433 μatm (Fay et al. 2018; Gray et al. 2018; Williams et al. 2018), smaller than the differences between
434 the Argo and SOCAT mean values in Table 2. An updated crossover comparison with the addition
435 of a filter eliminating crossover density differences $> 0.03 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ yields a mean float-derived $p\text{CO}_2$
436 bias of $-1.86 \pm 15.8 \mu\text{atm}$ (SOCAT minus floats, $n = 52$, Supplemental Figure S2), which makes it
437 unlikely that an error in the $p\text{CO}_2$ estimation method is responsible for the 17-20 μatm difference
438 in $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ between the mean Argo and SOCAT values observed here.

439 The difference between the SAMW formation $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ from SOCAT and Argo is more
440 likely due to the differences in sample distribution within each of these formation regions. The
441 strong coupling of density and biogeochemical properties seen in Figure 3 highlights the
442 importance of sampling the full range of densities. Previous work demonstrating spatial variability
443 in physical formation properties of SAMW indicates that spatial variations in biogeochemical
444 properties are also likely to exist. Histograms of the relative frequency of $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$, longitude, σ_θ ,

445 and θ of mode water formation region observations by the Argo and SOCAT datasets identify
446 differences in the sample distributions of these observations (Figure 5). In the Pacific, SOCAT-
447 determined $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ has a peak of ~ 0 μatm and a tail toward positive values. The SOCAT
448 observations are primarily from $\sim 170^\circ\text{E}$, at the very western edge of the Pacific basin, while one
449 cruise crossed the Pacific in 2006. This results in observations that are primarily from σ_θ 26.88 –
450 26.9 kg m^{-3} and θ of 7.26 – 7.94 $^\circ\text{C}$. Float observations cover a broader range of locations within
451 the Pacific and are consequently spread more evenly across the SAMW density range. SOCAT
452 sample coverage in the Indian Ocean is primarily from cruises originating from Tasmania and do
453 not cover the large formation regions in the central and western Indian Ocean. There are relatively
454 few GLODAP-derived $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ values in either basin, so our best estimate of the $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ for each
455 region is an average of monthly values from the SOCAT and Argo datasets, yielding 16.1 ± 14.5
456 μatm $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ in the Pacific and 0.1 ± 12.2 μatm $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ in the Indian Ocean.

457 The entire Southern Ocean is a significant sink for contemporary carbon, mainly driven by
458 the increase in atmospheric anthropogenic carbon and resulting oceanic anthropogenic uptake
459 (Mikaloff Fletcher et al. 2006; Gruber et al. 2009b; DeVries 2014). Much of this anthropogenic
460 carbon is both stored in and exported by mode and intermediate waters (Sabine et al. 2004;
461 Mikaloff Fletcher et al. 2006; Álvarez et al. 2009; Gruber et al. 2009a; Sabine and Tanhua 2010).
462 Model-derived calculations of anthropogenic carbon uptake use the difference in ocean carbon
463 fluxes and accumulation between model runs that do and do not include increasing atmospheric
464 carbon to determine uptake rates of anthropogenic carbon (Iudicone et al. 2011, 2016; Groeskamp
465 et al. 2016). This approach relies on an accurate representation of water mass properties and the
466 physical and biogeochemical processes that influence the carbonate system in models, which have
467 been shown to have difficulty in capturing the seasonal cycle of $p\text{CO}_2$ and air-sea CO_2 fluxes in
468 the Southern Ocean (Mongwe et al. 2018). If the models do not accurately capture contemporary
469 carbon uptake, then the anthropogenic carbon fluxes and storage will be biased.

470 Recent work attempting to constrain the magnitude of wintertime outgassing in the
 471 Southern Ocean (Gray et al. 2018; Bushinsky et al. 2019; Mackay and Watson 2021; Sutton et al.

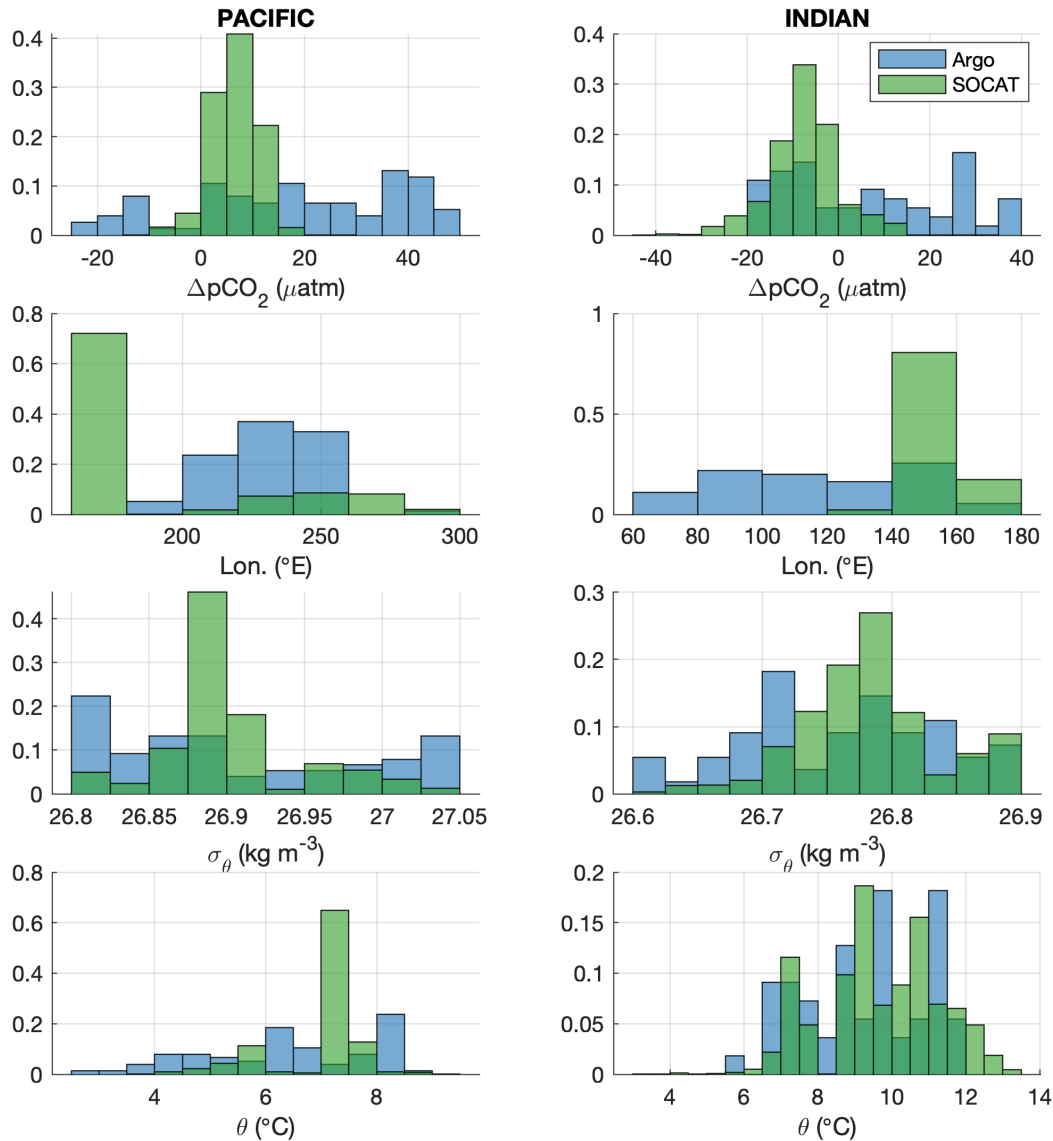


Figure 5. Properties associated with $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ calculated from SOCAT and Argo. Relative frequency histograms of calculated $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ and the associated longitude, potential density, and potential temperature for SAMW formation properties in the Pacific and Indian Oceans. SOCAT $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ values are primarily from narrow geographic regions in the Pacific sector near New Zealand and in the Indian sector near Tasmania. BGC Argo data are spread across the sectors, with more distributed density and potential temperature values as well. $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ for SOCAT is similarly within relatively narrow ranges for both sectors, while Argo-derived $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ overlaps with and, on average, is higher than SOCAT $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$. GLODAP-derived $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ and associated properties are not shown, as they represent a much smaller sample range and were not included in the property averages (Table 2).

2021; Long et al. 2021) makes it all the more important to understand the mechanisms that could contribute to total Southern Ocean uptake of contemporary and anthropogenic carbon. A $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ during formation that is near or above zero indicates that SAMW does not contribute to the total Southern Ocean contemporary carbon uptake during formation. It is clear from observed accumulation of anthropogenic carbon interior in the ocean interior (Sabine et al. 2004; Mikaloff Fletcher et al. 2006; Sabine and Tanhua 2010; Gruber et al. 2019a) that SAMW is important for the storage of anthropogenic carbon and export to the ocean interior, but the modeling work that has sought to elucidate whether SAMW accumulates anthropogenic carbon through surface or interior processes has not had robust observations for validation (Iudicone et al. 2011; Groeskamp et al. 2016). Here we provide both the mean biogeochemical properties and their distribution with respect to water mass density that can be used to validate model property distributions and representation of contemporary carbon fluxes, thereby improving future estimates of the magnitude and mechanisms of anthropogenic carbon uptake.

485

486 **3.3 Spatial and interannual variability of SAMW formation properties**

487 Almost 15 years of Argo observations have provided invaluable information about strong
488 interannual and spatial variability of SAMW physical properties. Argo observations have revealed
489 that the strong wintertime MLD anomalies in the Pacific, Indian, and Atlantic sectors that develop
490 in some years and are associated with SAM and ENSO tend to be out of phase in the western and
491 eastern parts of ocean sectors (Meijers et al. 2019; Tamsitt et al. 2020; Cerovečki and Meijers
492 2021). In years with anomalously strong formation of colder and denser varieties of SAMW in the
493 eastern parts of the Indian and Pacific sectors, the formation of warmer and lighter varieties of
494 SAMW in the western part of both ocean sectors is anomalously weak, enhancing the net cooling
495 and densification in each ocean sector. Conditions reverse in years with the preferential formation
496 of warmer and lighter varieties of SAMW (Cerovečki and Meijers 2021). Anomalies that develop
497 in the western part of one ocean sector can subsequently be advected by the ACC to arrive
498 approximately one year later to the eastern SAMW formation region of the same ocean sector
499 (Meijers et al. 2019; Cerovečki et al. 2019). This pattern of an east-west dipole in MLD anomalies
500 and propagation of strong anomalies is evident in the BSOSE Aug-Sept. time-mean MLD (Figure
501 6). During the 2013-2019 period of BSOSE model simulation analyzed here, the strongest MLD
502 anomalies developed in 2016 when a strong El Niño event coincided with a strong positive SAM

503 early in the year (Figure 6a). By austral winter 2016, both indexes transitioned to strongly negative
 504 (Meijers et al. 2019). The in-phase atmospheric modes resulted in anomalously deep and cold
 505 wintertime mixed layers in the central Pacific, and anomalously shallow and warm mixed layers
 506 in the southeast Pacific (Meijers et al. 2019; Cerovečki et al. 2019).

507 In addition to the previously described temperature anomalies (not shown) associated with
 508 the 2016 MLD anomalies, BSOSE displays high DIC and high NO_3^- in the central Pacific and low
 509 DIC and NO_3^- in the eastern Pacific (Figure 6b). The opposite pattern is observed in 2015, when

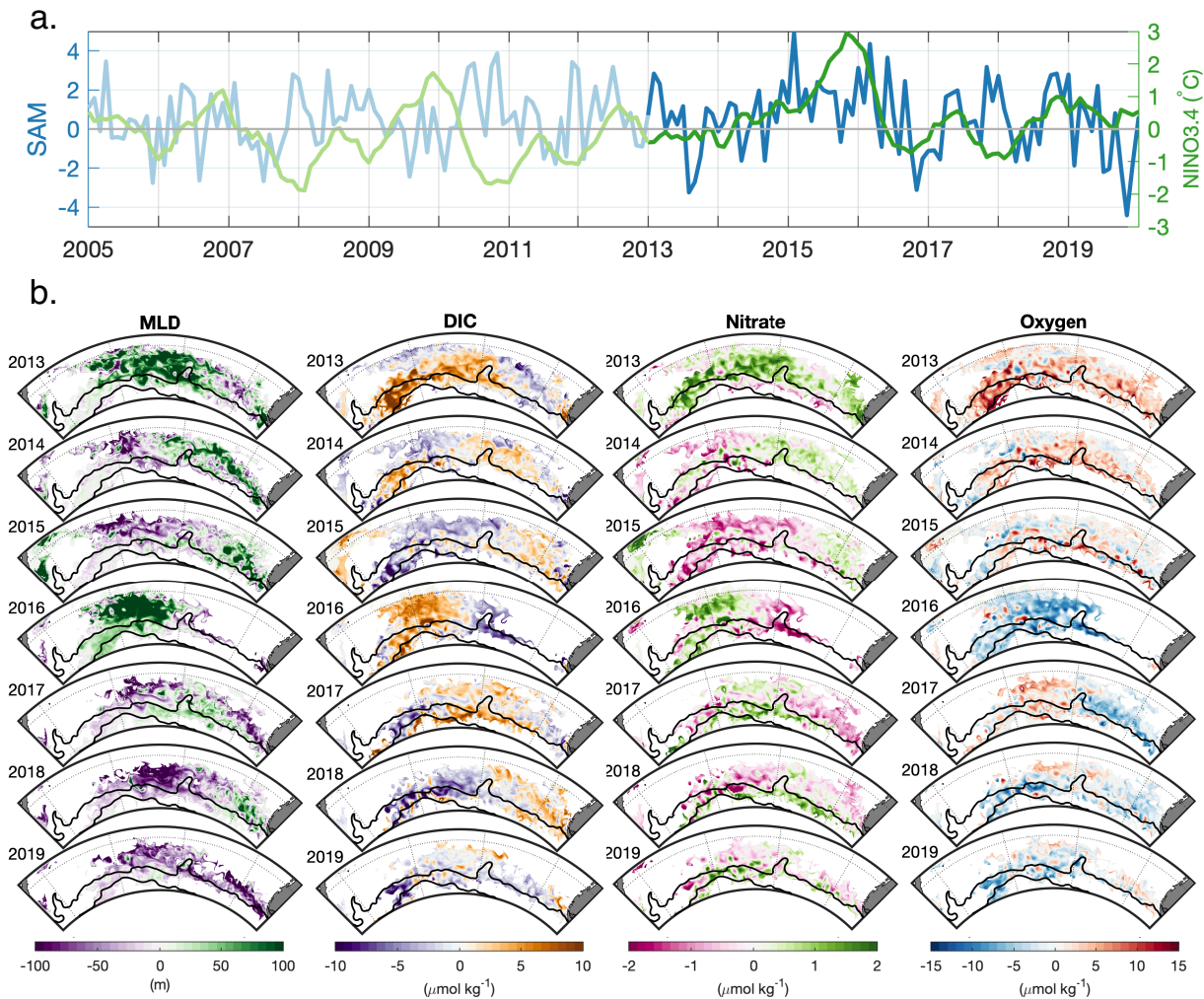


Figure 6. Time series of ENSO, SAM, and BSOSE winter anomalies in MLD, DIC, nitrate, and oxygen. (a) SAM (blue) and ENSO (green) indices are highlighted during the years covered by BSOSE. (b) Winter (AS) anomalies for MLD, DIC, nitrate, and oxygen demonstrate the combined influence of ENSO and SAM. Years and regions with deep MLD anomalies (green) are associated with higher DIC (orange) and nitrate (green). Spatial patterns of anomalies demonstrate a dipole between the central Pacific and southeast Pacific in many years, similar to a previously demonstrated pattern in SST, and Salinity (Cerovečki and Meijers, 2021).

510 anomalously shallow MLs in the central Pacific were associated with low DIC and low NO_3^- , while
511 anomalously deep MLs in the eastern Pacific entrained high DIC and NO_3^- waters. These anomaly
512 maps suggest a link between SAM, ENSO, and biogeochemical anomalies, but the BSOSE time
513 series is too short for more definitive attribution in the current study. Due to the relatively short
514 time period covered by the BSOSE iteration 135 used for this analysis we chose to investigate
515 interannual winter property anomalies rather than e.g. carrying out an EOF analysis, though an
516 initial EOF analysis produced qualitatively similar results.

517 A time-series of the wintertime (Aug-Sep) mean ML property anomalies within the Pacific
518 SAMW density range ($26.8 \leq \sigma_\theta < 27.05 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$) considered separately in the central (45-64°S,
519 170-246°E) and southeast (45-64°S, 246-290°E) Pacific reveals a similar dipole pattern of DIC,
520 nitrate, and oxygen as found in prior work considering physical properties (Figure 7). These two
521 regions of the Pacific are not entirely out of phase, as the biogeochemical properties during the
522 formation time period are not only governed by the local surface forcing that drives MLD
523 anomalies, but also the properties from water formed in prior years incorporated through
524 entrainment and lateral induction. The mean property anomalies of the Pacific are more closely
525 correlated with Central Pacific than the southeast Pacific due to the larger volume of water formed
526 in the central Pacific, in agreement with observational work by Cerovečki and Meijers (2021).

527 Oxygen time variability is more complicated as the fast gas exchange rate moves to restore
528 air-sea equilibrium and replenish waters that are initially deficient in oxygen but have low
529 temperatures and high solubility. In some years, such as 2016 when the strong El Niño and strongly
530 positive SAM combined to produce anomalously deep MLs, the oxygen anomaly is negative,
531 indicating that the entrainment signal was strong and persisted through the SAMW formation
532 period. In other years, such as 2013, deep MLs are associated with positive oxygen anomalies.
533 This dichotomy reflects the competing processes that impact oxygen in the upper ocean. In years
534 with strong heat loss to the atmosphere, cooler temperatures will increase the solubility, which,
535 coupled with strong winds driving high air-sea gas exchange rates, will tend to increase the oxygen
536 concentration in the surface ocean. On the other hand, deeper mixing will entrain more low-oxygen
537 water from below and the increased volume of the mixed layer will slow the change in oxygen
538 concentration for a given air-sea flux. Years with reduced air-sea heat loss in the winter and
539 shallower MLs are characterized by warmer temperatures and lower solubility but less entrainment
540 of low-oxygen waters. A plot of SAMW oxygen concentration against potential temperature for

541 the Pacific and Pacific sub-regions reveals that the main signal is a fairly consistent offset relative
 542 to oxygen saturation of which approximately 1/3 is due to low SLP (Figure S3), implying that not
 543 only do oxygen concentrations closely follow interannual temperature changes, but also that the
 544 balance of the above processes leads to a consistent $\Delta[O_2]$ despite large changes in MLD and
 545 temperature. Both the magnitude of the $\Delta[O_2]$ offset and the lack of variability in BSOSE are
 546 consistent with float and ship-board observations (Figure 4).

547 Interestingly, the differences in biogeochemical property anomalies observed between the
 548 central and southeastern Pacific are more pronounced during the first half of the BSOSE time
 549 series than after 2016 (Figure 6). Physical and biogeochemical properties across the Pacific

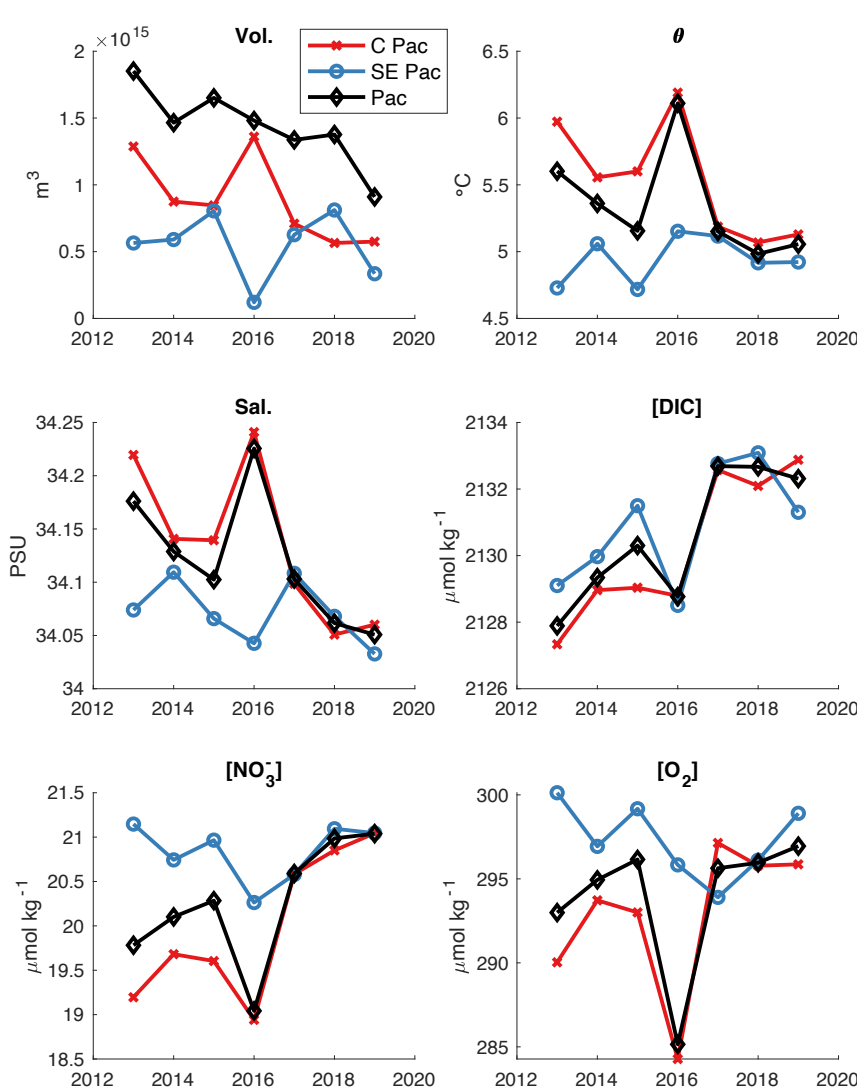


Figure 7. SAMW Pacific formation properties in BSOSE. Anomalies are mean winter (August and September) ML properties on the Pacific SAMW density range ($26.8 \leq \sigma_\theta < 27.05 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$). Anomalies are calculated for the central (red line, $45\text{-}64^\circ\text{S}$, $170\text{-}246^\circ\text{E}$), southeast (blue, $45\text{-}64^\circ\text{S}$, $246\text{-}290^\circ\text{E}$), and overall Pacific (black, $45\text{-}64^\circ\text{S}$, $170\text{-}290^\circ\text{E}$) regions.

550 become uniform during the 2016 El Niño and remain so through 2017, 2018, and 2019.
551 Homogenization during strong El Niño events in the south Pacific has been described previously
552 using Argo observations (Cerovečki and Meijers 2021). This propagation of signals across the
553 entire Pacific formation region is suggested by the apparent movement of anomalies from west to
554 east in Figure 6. Advection of biogeochemical anomalies in BSOSE is more prominent when
555 viewed in a Hovmöller diagram of the volume-weighted average upper ocean anomalies in the
556 region where August-September MLs exceed 150m (Figure S4). Similar advective signals have
557 been described in Argo observations of physical properties (Cerovečki and Meijers 2021) and
558 previously in modeled temperature, salinity, and air-sea fluxes of oxygen and carbon dioxide
559 (Verdy et al. 2007).

560 We are left with a framework where interannual variability in the biogeochemical
561 properties of newly formed SAMW is influenced by a mix of local atmospheric forcing combined
562 with the lateral induction of prior signals into the wintertime mixed layer. This mix of processes
563 agrees with prior work on SAMW physical properties (Meijers et al. 2019; Cerovečki et al. 2019;
564 Li et al. 2021) and a study demonstrating that surface fluxes are often not strong enough to change
565 the physical properties of SAMW, due to the memory in the large volume of sub-surface water
566 (Rintoul and England 2002). Advective propagation of anomalies can sometimes be interrupted
567 by sufficiently large forcing events, but many biogeochemical anomalies do transit the entire
568 Pacific SAMW formation region (Figure S4).

569

570 **4. Conclusions**

571 Here we use biogeochemical Argo float observations spanning a seven-year period to
572 characterize for the first time the regional distribution of SAMW formation properties in the
573 Pacific and Indian sectors, finding that the colder, fresher SAMW that forms in the Pacific is also
574 higher in oxygen, nitrate, DIC, and $p\text{CO}_2$ than SAMW that forms in the Indian Ocean. The
575 differences in formation properties between the Pacific and Indian Oceans reflect the differences
576 in the density of SAMW formed in each region. The distribution of wintertime properties against
577 density is consistent in both sectors, indicating that these property distributions predominantly
578 represent a continuum of source water mass mixing between thermocline water, upwelled
579 circumpolar deep water, and re-entrained SAMW.

580 In both the Pacific and Indian sectors, SAMW is undersaturated in oxygen at the time of
581 formation, with slightly stronger undersaturation present in the Pacific formation regions. This
582 undersaturation must be taken into account when calculating derived quantities that normally
583 assume oxygen saturation at the time of water mass formation. This observed undersaturation
584 appears fairly constant over the observed time period time and matches results from
585 biogeochemical ocean state estimate BSOSE that suggest some consistent balance between
586 undersaturation due to cooling or entrainment and replenishment by air-sea gas exchange that is
587 maintained despite large interannual differences in oxygen concentration and SST.

588 There are large differences between the mean $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ of newly formed SAMW estimated
589 from profiling floats and that measured by underway shipboard observations. Float estimates of
590 winter $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ are on average $\sim 17 \mu\text{atm}$ higher in this study than the limited SOCAT observations
591 from the same formation regions. However, float observations are geographically more uniformly
592 distributed over the SAMW formation regions, resulting in a wider range of properties than has
593 been observed from shipboard observations. The bulk of these differences can be understood from
594 the different sample distribution in the two datasets and there are no indications of systemic biases
595 in the float data that are large enough to account for the differences between float and shipboard
596 datasets. During the wintertime formation period, SAMW has a positive $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ (average of
597 SOCAT and float datasets) in the Pacific and a near neutral $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ in the Indian formation region.
598 This indicates that SAMW formation is not directly driving air-sea uptake of contemporary CO_2 .
599 The biogeochemical observations here provide for the first time the comparison data necessary to
600 determine if models used to understand how anthropogenic carbon enters the ocean interior
601 through mode and intermediate waters are accurately representing ocean biogeochemistry during
602 mode water formation.

603 There are sufficient float biogeochemical observations to constrain mean wintertime
604 formation properties but are not currently enough to investigate sub-regional or interannual
605 variability. We thus used BSOSE output to explore spatial and temporal SAMW variability,
606 focusing on the Pacific formation region. In the Pacific the link between climate modes of
607 variability and SAMW response is the strongest and BSOSE representation of the magnitude and
608 location of deep winter mixing in the Pacific was more similar to these from the RG-Argo than in
609 the Indian sectors. Comparison between this study and Cerovečki and Meijers (2021) indicates
610 that BSOSE reproduces the large-scale response of the MLD well, both in response to SAM and

611 ENSO and in the dipole pattern of variability between the central and southeast Pacific. BSOSE
612 also accurately represents the relationships between biogeochemical properties and water mass
613 density that we find in observations, giving good confidence that it can be used to develop our
614 understanding of the link between climate forcing and biogeochemical property variability in
615 SAMW formation waters.

616 Interannual variability in the central and southeast Pacific biogeochemical formation
617 properties display a see-saw pattern similar to that previously found in observations of physical
618 properties. The suggested dipole pattern of biogeochemical properties relates well to the
619 corresponding pattern in mixed layer depth and entrainment of deeper waters, with high nitrate
620 and high DIC in regions and years with deep mixed layer anomalies and low nitrate and low DIC
621 when the mixed layer is anomalously shallow. We expect that with more biogeochemical
622 observations made in the Southern Ocean, these patterns will become evident in the observations
623 as well. Interannual variability in oxygen concentration closely follows changes in ML temperature
624 with a consistent undersaturation indicating that ML waters do not have time to equilibrate with
625 the atmosphere regardless of whether there are anomalously deep or shallow MLDs.

626 Future work should focus on decomposing interannual variability in biogeochemical
627 signals between local forcing processes and the influence of multi-year advective signals. A
628 detailed understanding of the variability present in SAMW formation regions will help to
629 understand how sensitive the interior volume is to changes in volume and properties of the
630 individual formation regions and how strongly those variations are either modulated by the total
631 interior SAMW volume or transported to the rest of the ocean.

632 SAMW is a critical water mass for the uptake of anthropogenic carbon and transport of
633 oxygen and nutrients into the ocean interior. Improving our understanding of SAMW
634 biogeochemical properties and their variability is of fundamental importance for improving our
635 interpretation of interior ocean measurements, providing better validation for models, and
636 therefore enabling new understanding of how SAMW functions in these global biogeochemical
637 cycles.

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642 **Acknowledgements:**

643 Float data were collected and made freely available by the Southern Ocean Carbon and Climate
644 Observations and Modeling (SOCCOM) Project funded by the National Science Foundation,
645 Division of Polar Programs (NSF PLR -1425989 and OPP-1936222), supplemented by NASA,
646 and by the International Argo Program and the NOAA programs that contribute to it. The Argo
647 Program is part of the Global Ocean Observing System. The Argo Program is part of the Global
648 Ocean Observing System. The Surface Ocean CO₂ Atlas (SOCAT,) is an international effort,
649 endorsed by the International Ocean Carbon Coordination Project (IOCCP), the Surface Ocean
650 Lower Atmosphere Study (SOLAS) and the Integrated Marine Biosphere Research (IMBeR)
651 program, to deliver a uniformly quality-controlled surface ocean CO₂ database. The many
652 researchers and funding agencies responsible for the collection of data and quality control are
653 thanked for their contributions to SOCAT. The specific SOCAT data used in this study were
654 contributed by PIs K. Currie, A. Sutton, T. Trull, C. Sabine, T. Takahashi, C. Sweeney, S. C.
655 Sutherland, T. Newberger, D. R. Munro, B. Tilbrook, J. Akl, and C. Neill. SOCAT data from the
656 R/V Tangaroa were collected by the National Institute of Water and Atmospheric Research
657 (funded by the New Zealand Ministry of Business, Innovation and Employment). SOCAT data
658 from the R/V Gould and R/V Palmer were funded by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric
659 Administration through the Global Ocean Monitoring and Observing Program and the Office of
660 Oceanic and Atmospheric Research and by the National Science Foundation (grant numbers PLR
661 1341647 and 1543457). SOCAT underway data from Tilbrook, Akl and Neill were sourced
662 through Australia's Integrated Marine Observing System (IMOS) – IMOS is enabled by the
663 National Collaborative Research Infrastructure Strategy (NCRIS). Specific GLODAP data were
664 collected on the R/Vs Knorr, Aurora Australis, Malcolm Baldrige, and M.-Dufresne. SMB was
665 supported by NASA grants NNX17AI73G and 80NSSC22K0156 and benefited from support by
666 the NOAA Climate Program Office's Climate Observations and Monitoring, Climate Variability
667 and Predictability, and Global Ocean Monitoring and Observation programs
668 (NA21OAR4310260). IC was supported by NASA grants 80NSSC22K0156 and
669 80NSSC19K1115.

670

671 **Conflict of Interest Statement**

672 The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

673

674 **Open Research**

675 Datasets used in this paper are from these references and the associated repositories:

676

677 Biogeochemical float data are from the May 2021 SOCCOM snapshot (Johnson et al, 2017;
 678 doi.org/10.6075/J0T43SZG), along with the Drucker and Riser (2016) UW Argo Oxygen dataset
 679 which is now included in the Argo dataset (<https://argo.ucsd.edu/data/data-from-gdacs/>). Gridded
 680 Argo product by Roemmich and Gilson (2009) is available from [https://argo.ucsd.edu/data/argo-](https://argo.ucsd.edu/data/argo-data-products/)
 681 [data-products/](https://argo.ucsd.edu/data/argo-data-products/). Argo data were collected and made freely available by the International Argo
 682 Program and the national programs that contribute to it (<http://doi.org/10.17882/42182>,
 683 <http://www.argo.ucsd.edu>, <http://argo.jcommops.org>).

684

685 Shipboard data are from SOCAT v2021 (Bakker et al., 2016;
 686 <https://www.socat.info/index.php/data-access/>) and GLODAP v2.2020 (Key et al., 2015; Olsen et
 687 al., 2016; <https://www.glodap.info/index.php/merged-and-adjusted-data-product/>)

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689 **References**

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