

RESEARCH LETTER

10.1002/2015GL066463

Key Points:

- Anticyclonic eddies funnel marine particles into a wineglass shape to 1000 m, controlling export
- The slope of the wineglass, R , is the ratio of radial advection to particle sinking, such that particles are sorted by size
- R thus represents a tool to predict radial particle movement, here modeled as the residual ageostrophic velocity of the eddy

Supporting Information:

- Supporting Information S1

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Citation:

Waite, A. M., L. Stemmann, L. Guidi, P. H. R. Calil, A. M. C. Hogg, M. Feng, P. A. Thompson, M. Picheral, and G. Gorsky (2016), The wineglass effect shapes particle export to the deep ocean in mesoscale eddies, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, *43*, doi:10.1002/2015GL066463.

Received 5 OCT 2015

Accepted 29 AUG 2016

Accepted article online 31 AUG 2016

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The wineglass effect shapes particle export to the deep ocean in mesoscale eddies

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Abstract Mesoscale eddies in the ocean strongly impact the distribution of planktonic particles, mediating carbon fluxes over ~1/3 of the world ocean. However, mechanisms controlling particle transport through eddies are complex and challenging to measure in situ. Here we show the subsurface distribution of eddy particles funneled into a wineglass shape down to 1000 m, leading to a sevenfold increase of vertical carbon flux in the eddy center versus the eddy flanks, the “wineglass effect”. We show that the slope of the wineglass (R) is the ratio of particle sinking velocity to the radially inward velocity, such that R represents a tool to predict radial particle movement (here 0.05 m s^{-1}). A simple model of eddy spindown predicts such an ageostrophic flow concentrating particles in the eddy center. We explore how size-specific particle flux toward the eddy center impacts eddies' biogeochemistry and export fluxes.

1. Introduction

Mesoscale eddies drive the periodic enhancement of vertical organic carbon export to the mesopelagic through localized increases in primary production [Levy *et al.*, 1998] and by enhanced vertical velocities associated with eddy perimeters and fronts [Van Haren *et al.*, 2006]. However, at present there is a wide range of proposed mechanisms and little consensus on the precise pathways by which eddies control particulate organic carbon (POC) export within the eddies themselves. Cyclones in the tropical Atlantic increased POC fluxes by 2–4 times [Alonso-Gonzalez *et al.*, 2013], with zooplankton downward migration playing an important role. Cyclones can trigger high local subsurface respiration rates via the production of surface organic matter [Mourino-Carballido and Anderson, 2009]. Elsewhere, cyclones have been seen to be dominated by local effects with no net enhancement of vertical flux [Benitez-Nelson and McGillicuddy, 2008].

An early model by Franks and coworkers [Franks *et al.*, 1986] suggested that anticyclones could enhance productivity over the time scale of eddy relaxation (60 days) through upward movement of the pycnocline. However, the small number of papers sampling anticyclones (quite sparsely) in the field has suggested that they suppress productivity locally because of their deeper mixed layer depth [Hansen *et al.*, 2010; Moutin and Prieur, 2012]. Anticyclones carrying water trapped from productive coasts move this water into oligotrophic gyres, enhancing productivity locally [Ladd *et al.*, 2009; Waite *et al.*, 2016]. Recent work suggests that at the perimeter of anticyclones, subduction of productive waters along isopycnals drives the export of both large and small POC well below the euphotic zone, along density interfaces [Samuelson *et al.*, 2012; Omand *et al.*, 2015; Waite *et al.*, 2016]. On a seasonal time scale, mixed-layer deepening has been implicated in fueling the continued productivity of anticyclones in oligotrophic gyres [Dufois *et al.*, 2016].

The impact of anticyclone submesoscale circulation on particle flux was considered in more detail by Zhou and coworkers [2013] who used ²³⁴Th-based measurements and a conceptual model to show theoretically that anticyclones could increase vertical flux by gentle inward surface transport toward the eddy center (on the order of 0.01 m s^{-1}), though they conclude that the center of the eddy is likely to have a low flux. These authors point out that direct measurements of POC in mesoscale eddies at high spatial resolution

are rare, as is the resolution of submesoscale motions outside of eddy margins. Radial particle transport was also predicted in a model by *Samuelson et al.* [2012], who showed surface particle trajectories radially outward (the opposite direction than that shown by *Zhou and coworkers* [2013]). Particles' vertical transit pathways as they sink downward through eddies remain largely unresolved, and how they contribute to vertical export and carbon sequestration processes, both within eddies and in the context of broader global carbon flux patterns, is not fully understood.

For two anticyclonic mesoscale eddies, we present detailed field measurements showing the funneling of particles below the euphotic zone into a subsurface wineglass shape down to 1000 m. We demonstrate that there exists a subsurface slope in particle distributions that is steeper than the eddy isopycnals and that this slope increases with particle size. This suggests that particle distribution is not driven purely by isopycnal motion and that both particle sinking rates (which generally increase with particle size) and radial motions should govern their distributions. We test our hypothesis (1) via direct estimation of the radial velocity and (2) via a very simple first-order model.

2. Field Observations

Were executed at sea, transecting two mesoscale anticyclonic eddies: first, an eddy of the southward flowing Leeuwin Current (LC), sampled from the R/V *Southern Surveyor* in May 2006 in the eastern Indian Ocean and, second, an eddy in the Mediterranean Sea (MS) sampled from the R/V *Atalante* in July 2008. The forming anticyclonic mesoscale eddy in the LC was a large (200 km in diameter, 1000 m deep) feature, whose horizontal velocities reached 1 m s^{-1} to a depth of 150 m, with strong vertical shear [*Paterson et al.*, 2008]. The MS eddy was of a similar size, 70 km in diameter and 800 m in depth. The MS eddy was oligotrophic but enriched in dissolved organic carbon compared to the surrounding water mass. Both were sampled to 1000 m.

For the LC eddy, we transected the full diameter of the eddy, profiling to 1000 m every 18.5 km (10 nm) along 113.6° E between 31.6° and 34° S (Figures 1a and 1b). For the MS eddy, we sampled the southern eddy radius at 5 stations on three half-transects toward the center of the eddy. (Figures 2a and 2b). Physical variables were measured with a Sea-Bird Electronics 9/1 dual-sensor conductivity-temperature-depth unit. For both eddies, particle size distributions (equivalent spherical diameter (ESD) $>60 \mu\text{m}$) were measured in situ along a cross-eddy transect using the Underwater Vision Profiler 4 (UVP4) in the LC eddy and the UVP5 in the MS eddy ([*Picheral et al.*, 2010]). To avoid light contamination, images deeper than 40 m were used for day profiles with the UVP4. Objects in each image were detected, sized, and enumerated on custom software [*Picheral et al.*, 2010] based on the lateral scattering of light from a particle. Total number of pixels was converted to equivalent spherical diameter (ESD). Vertical particle fluxes were calculated from ESD (as in *Guidi et al.* [2008]; see supporting information).

The UVP data revealed a wineglass-shaped subsurface particle distribution in the LC eddy, with greatest concentration of particles high up in the water column and a deep central plume of particles reaching to 1000 m depth (Figures 1c and 1d). Particularly interesting was the vertical segregation of small and large particles, with smaller particles having a shallower concentration maximum. Similar patterns were seen at lower spatial resolution in the MS eddy (Figures 2c and 2d). The sloping sides of the wineglass (i.e., the slope of particle concentration isolines relative to the isopycnals) were significantly steeper for large particles than for small particles (chi-square $P < 0.001$) in both LC and MS eddies (Table 1).

Earlier work on the LC eddy suggested particles entered the eddy from the coast along the $\rho = 25.5$ potential density contour [*Waite et al.*, 2016], resulting in the particle-rich layer between 200 and 300 m in the eddy center. The LC eddy had particle concentrations (approximately $400 \text{ particles L}^{-1}$) 10 times that of the MS eddy (approximately $40 \text{ particles L}^{-1}$), reflecting a difference in productivity between the two oligotrophic sites (very low in the Mediterranean sea (mean $0.02 \text{ mol C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ [*Psarra et al.*, 2000]) and higher in the LC eddy ($0.1 \text{ mol C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ [*Waite et al.*, 2016])).

3. Mechanisms

We initially investigated, and rejected, two possible mechanisms likely to drive such particle distributions: (1) Downward vertical velocities within the eddy core and (2) shear-driven or turbulence-driven aggregation within the eddy core driving increased particle size and thus increased sedimentation rates in the eddy

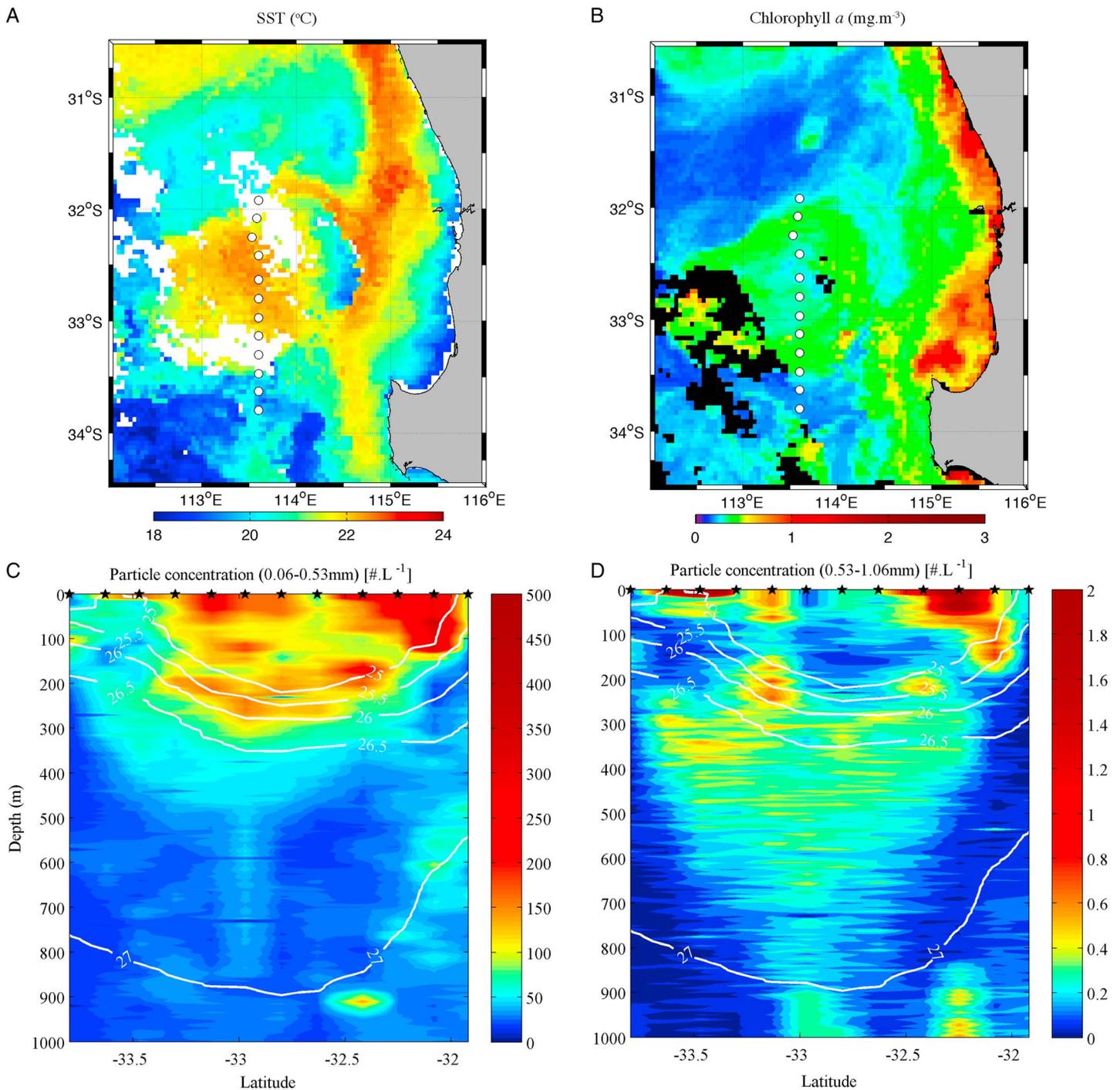


Figure 1. (a) Sea-surface temperature (°C) and (b) chlorophyll *a* (mg m⁻³) derived from Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) satellite, showing the mesoscale eddy in the Leeuwin Current (LC) off Australia. White circles indicate stations sampled. Spatial distributions of particles across the eddy: (c) Small (0.06–0.5 mm) and (d) large (0.5–1 mm) particles as measured by the Underwater Vision Profiler (UVP) shown in color, with isopycnals contoured in white.

center. For (1), we showed that vertical velocities [Gomis *et al.*, 2001] were not adequate in scale, or appropriate in distribution, to account for the particle distributions, since highest vertical velocities occurred at the eddy perimeter [Paterson *et al.*, 2008].

For (2), we evaluated the possible impact of shear-driven aggregation within the eddy core driving increased particle sedimentation rates in the eddy center using a coagulation model [Jackson *et al.*, 2005; Jackson and

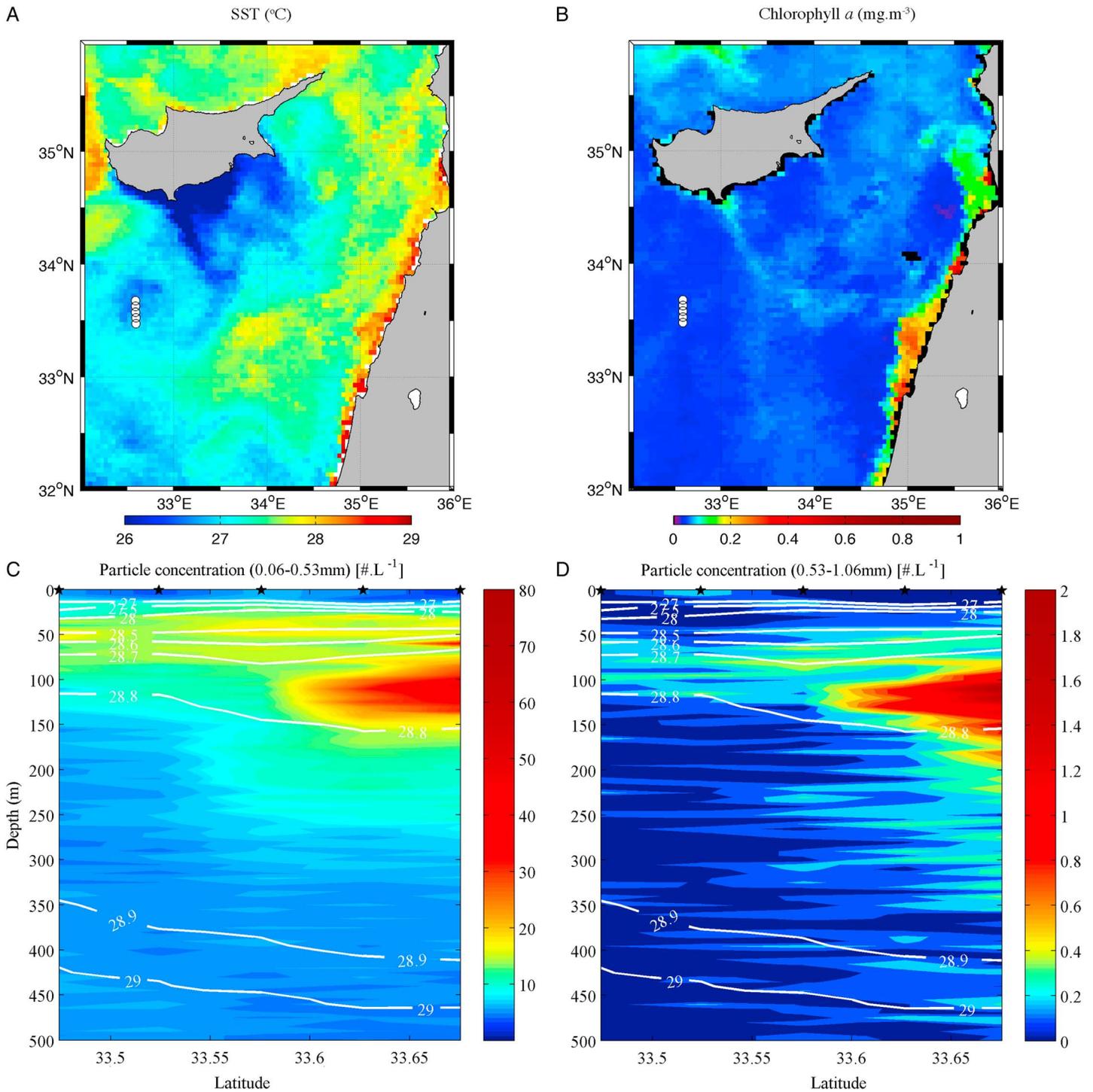


Figure 2. (a) Sea-surface temperature (°C) and (b) chlorophyll *a* (mg m⁻³) derived from Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) satellite, showing the mesoscale eddy sampled in the Mediterranean Sea (MS). White circles indicate stations sampled. Particle spatial distributions across the southern radius of the MS eddy as measured by the Underwater Vision Profiler (UVP) are shown with depth: (c) Small (0.06–0.5 mm) and (d) large (0.5–1 mm) with isopycnals contoured in white.

Lochmann, 1992). Increases in particle contact rates can drive aggregation to a first order, while concentration (C) increases are more important (aggregation is proportional to C²) [*Jackson, 2001*]. We assumed an individual particle size of 10 μm, a fractal dimension of 2.3, and an excess density of 0.01 g cm⁻³. Calculations of coagulation rates used the “fractal” kernels, midway between the rectilinear and curvilinear kernels

Table 1. Scaling of the Wineglass Effect to Calculate the Radial Velocity Generating the Wineglass Shape^a

Particle Category	Particle Size (mm)	Sinking Rate, s (m d ⁻¹)	Measured Particle Slope, R (%)	Radial Velocity, u (m s ⁻¹)	Eddy-Specific Normalized Slope, R_t
<i>Leeuwin Current Eddy (LC)</i>					
Small	0.06–0.5	~10	0.8 ± 0.5	~0.01–0.08	0.75
Medium	0.5–1	~50	0.8 ± 0.5	~0.03–0.08	0.3–8
Large	1–2	~100	3 ± 1.5	~0.07	12
<i>Mediterranean Eddy (MS)</i>					
Small	0.06–0.5	~10	0.1 ± 0.5	~0.03	0.75
Med	0.5–1	~50	0.3 ± 0.5	~0.03–0.08	0.3–8
Large	1–2	~100	1.2 ± 1.5	~0.07	12

^aParticle sizes were measured with an Underwater Vision Profiler (UVP), sinking rate s was assumed, and the slope R was measured as the difference in slope (in m/km) of particle concentration isolines against isopycnals. The isopycnal slopes were (1.3 ± 0.3 m km⁻¹) and (6.8 ± 1.6 m km⁻¹) in the LC and MS eddies, respectively. The radial velocity u was triangulated from s and R . $R_t = [s/(\text{pycnocline depth})]/[u/\text{eddy radius}]$, normalizing R (km m⁻¹) to relevant length scales of individual eddies; here the Rossby Radius (50 km) is in the horizontal, and the depth of the pycnocline (200 m) is in the vertical.

[Jackson, 2001]. Coagulation both adds and subtracts mass for particles in a given size range. We calculated the instantaneous rates of particle gain and loss using the sectional representation of the particle size distribution at five depths (175, 250, 300, 350, and 400 m) as in Stemmann *et al.* [2004b] (supporting information). At shear rates from shipboard Acoustic Doppler Current Profiler (ADCP) data (<0.01 s⁻¹), the impact of coagulation by shear on the size spectra was negligible for all size classes (minimum 100 μm) (1/Q_idQ_i/dt < 0.008 d⁻¹, where Q_i is particle biovolume).

3.1. Our Hypothesis

We hypothesized that the slope in the concentration isolines would represent the net effect of the downward sinking vector set by the settling velocity and the radial vector toward the eddy center (or away from the eddy center above the pycnocline). Since settling velocity is generally believed to increase with particle size, this would account for the change in slope as particle size increases. As they sink through the pycnocline to denser water, all particles' sinking rates decrease, so particles spend more time in the lower pycnocline than they do in the upper pycnocline. If the lower pycnocline has a gentle radially inward velocity, particles will be moved toward the eddy center there. Slower sinking particles with a longer residence time would be more affected than larger, faster sinking particles and would therefore be more concentrated at the eddy center, with the slopes of their concentration isolines flatter (Figures 1c, 11d, 2c, and 2d). This phenomenon, which we call “the wineglass effect,” would explain particle sorting process we observed.

Because the median sinking rate for a given particle size is reasonably well constrained (albeit with a very large variance) [Guidi *et al.*, 2008], for large particle sample sizes we should be able to use the particle slope to back calculate the radial velocity that generated it.

The wineglass slope R was directly measured, as a percent deviation from the isopycnal for each particle size class of interest (here 60 μm–500 μm, 500 μm–1 mm, and > 1 mm). The slope of the concentration isolines for each size class was then hypothesized to be a function of (vertical) sinking rate (s) and (horizontal) radial velocity (u) (Table 1). Our measurements of R range from 0.1 to > 3 (Figures 1 and 2 and Table 1), and the estimated radially inward velocity needed to generate these slopes range from 0.01 to 0.08 m s⁻¹.

4. Modeling

Having estimated the radial velocities u needed to produce the observed slopes, we sought a physical mechanism that might drive velocities of this scale. To first order, radial ageostrophic velocities due to frictional spindown of the eddy will bring isopycnals back to their equilibrium depths. This will generate inward velocities below the pycnocline and outward velocities above the pycnocline. The former will shape the wineglass by concentrating particles in the central portion of anticyclones as they sink through the pycnocline. Franks *et al.* [1986] used a similar model to explain biological production within the cores of anticyclones, via vertical nutrient transfer within the eddy. In the case of the wineglass effect, we explore how the horizontal component will tilt the trajectory of sinking particles, concentrating them toward the eddy center.

This simple model for eddy particle motion assumed (1) that the primary mode of vertical movement of particles is due to settling, (2) that particle settling velocities depend linearly upon the density difference between the particles and the local water density and that particle settling rate increases with particle size r with a range of possibly exponents described in the literature ($r^{0.5} - r^{1.3}$) [Guidi *et al.*, 2009; Waite *et al.*, 1997], and (3) that horizontal motion can be decomposed into a geostrophic component (around the vortex) and an ageostrophic radial component. The ageostrophic velocities were assumed to be driven by turbulent Reynolds stress within the water column, parameterized via a constant anisotropic eddy diffusivity.

4.1. Model Setup

We assumed a rotationally symmetric eddy with cylindrical polar coordinates (origin at eddy center, and radial and vertical coordinates are r and z , respectively). We assume that centrifugal forces within the eddy are negligible compared with gravitational acceleration and that the large scale structure of the eddy is stable [Kriest *et al.*, 2012] with respect to further shear instability or baroclinic instability. The eddy can then be defined by the geostrophic velocity v_g in the tangential direction (defined positive anticlockwise) that is in balance with the Coriolis force as given by the thermal wind equation [Killworth, 1980],

$$f \frac{\partial v_g}{\partial z} = \frac{-g}{\rho_0} \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial r} \quad (1)$$

where f is the Coriolis parameter, g is the acceleration due to gravity, ρ the local fluid density, and ρ_0 is the minimum density at $r=z=0$. We can write a friction-Coriolis balance within our eddy as (neglecting the centrifugal forcing)

$$f u = K_h \left(\frac{\partial^2 v_g}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial v_g}{\partial r} - \frac{v_g}{r^2} \right) + K_v \frac{\partial^2 v_g}{\partial z^2} \quad (2)$$

where u is the ageostrophic velocity in the radial direction (defined as being positive outward), K_h is the horizontal eddy viscosity, and K_v the vertical eddy viscosity. The model thus includes both the interfacial Ekman effect due to vertical friction [Vallis, 2006] and horizontal friction [Csanady, 1979], but it can be shown that it is the former effect which governs radial velocity, while the latter controls spindown effects. Substitute (1) into (2) to give

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial z} = \frac{-g}{f^2 \rho_0} \left[K_h \left(\frac{\partial^3 \rho}{\partial r^3} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial^2 \rho}{\partial r^2} - \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial r} \right) + K_v \frac{\partial^3 \rho}{\partial z^2 \partial r} \right] \quad (3)$$

This equation describes a velocity which is radially outward above the pycnocline and radially inward below the pycnocline (Figure 3a). The velocity acts to transport water along isopycnals and would therefore be associated a small vertical component (w). Advection along isopycnals implies that the vertical velocity can be obtained from the horizontal velocity and the isopycnal slope:

$$w = -u \left(\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial r} / \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial z} \right) \quad (4)$$

We assume that the sinking velocities will depend upon local water density, so we write

$$s = s_0 \frac{\rho_p - \rho}{\rho_p - \rho_0} \quad (5)$$

where s_0 is the assumed known base sinking rate (when $\rho = \rho_0$) and ρ_p is the particle density. This equation describes a particle sinking rate that decreases as the particle passes through the pycnocline; particles will spend longer in the lower pycnocline where the velocity is toward the center of the eddy. The net effect is that particles will be closer to the eddy center after passing through the pycnocline. We use the velocity field u (by numerically integrating (3)) and w (4), along with sinking rate s (5) to trace particles from the interior of the eddy as they fall through the pycnocline. In this case, we assume $K_h = 10 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$, $K_v = 10^{-3} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$, $f = 5 \times 10^{-7} \text{ s}^{-1}$, $\rho_p / \rho_0 = 1.003$ and use a density field with a 200 m thick pycnocline as shown by the grey contours (Figure 3a). For these parameters, we vary sinking rate s from 2 to 30 m d^{-1} to demonstrate the variation in the shape of the wineglass with sinking rate; parameters such as the eddy viscosity and density contrast govern the behavior of the model in a similar way.

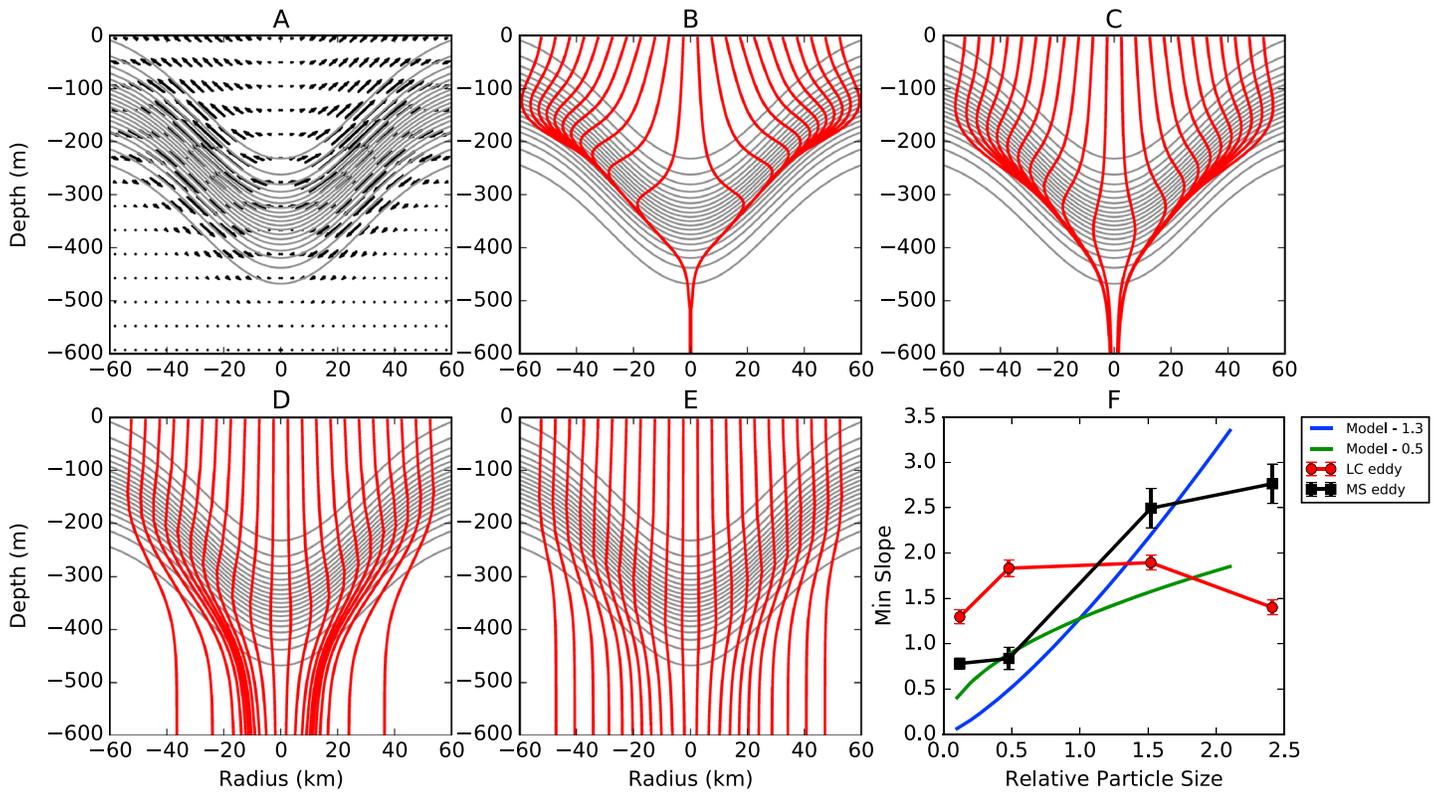


Figure 3. Particle trajectories plotted against ageostrophic velocity field for four cases with different base sinking rate: (a) The radial ageostrophic velocity field, (b) particle trajectories (red lines) for sinking rate of 2 m d^{-1} , (c) trajectories for sinking rate of 5 m d^{-1} , (d) trajectories for sinking rate of 15 m d^{-1} , and (e) trajectories for sinking rate of 30 m d^{-1} . Grey contours show the density field, which is assumed to be rotationally symmetric. (f) Raw comparison of wineglass shape indices between model and field data showing underlying process similarity without directly scaling the model. Predicted relationship between particle size and R generated by sinking particles of that size (blue), with observed statistically significant increase of wineglass slope with particle size from LC and MS eddies. Model values are given for the case where sinking rate is proportional to particle radius as $r^{1.3}$ and $r^{0.5}$, which covers the range of measured literature values (see text).

4.2. Model Output

The measure of the wineglass shape can be given by the ratio R between ageostrophic radial velocity and sinking rate. When R becomes small, the wineglass shape is more pronounced, as shown in Figures 3b and 3c (versus Figures 3d and 3e). The friction-Coriolis balance obtained by *Flierl and Mied* [1985] is the solution used in this study. A simple particle tracking algorithm was implemented using the radial velocities and the vertical velocities plus the sinking rate in order to see if the obtained solution would yield a shape that is consistent with the wineglass; that is, as particles descend into the deep ocean they are slightly advected inward; hence, the funneling effect within the eddy is obtained. Particle trajectories were calculated from a given initial position in the upper water column subject to ageostrophic velocities and settling, based solely on a given density structure. The ageostrophic horizontal velocity field acted to disperse particles radially outward in the upper thermocline, while flow centerward occurred in the lower thermocline. The behavior of particles within the eddy was critically dependent on particle sinking rate and thus on particle size [Waite *et al.*, 1997; Guidi *et al.*, 2008]. Small, slower-sinking particles spent longer in the region where velocity was oriented toward the center of the eddy. So while all particles were closer to the eddy center after passing through the thermocline, smaller ones were more concentrated there, creating the vertical segregation of different particle size classes and the different size-specific slopes of the wineglass effect (Figures 3b–3e).

4.3. Comparison Between Model Output and Field Data

The slope of the wineglass (R) increases with increasing particle size, scaling similarly in the field data and in the model (Figure 3f) and supporting the proposed interaction between particle sinking rate and eddy velocities in governing the observed wineglass shape. The simplicity of the model does not make it suitable for direct comparison with in situ data: In the model we varied sinking rate from 2 to 30 m d^{-1} to demonstrate

the variation in the shape of the wineglass with relative sinking rate; these are 2–5 times lower than expected actual rates, though some large particles are known to sink slowly. There will be other processes that will affect both particle sinking and ageostrophic velocities, which are not explicitly resolved here. For example, eddy/wind interaction will generate upwelling within anticyclonic eddies [Macintyre *et al.*, 1995]. This will tend to maintain sinking particles for longer periods within the eddy core. Also, nonlinear frictional effects, which are known to generate large vertical velocities and convergence at the edges of mesoscale eddies will become important as the Rossby number tends to unity and the quasi-geostrophic assumption of the model is violated [Martin and Richards, 2001; McGillicuddy *et al.*, 2007]. This will be particularly true at the edges of mesoscale structures [Mahadevan and Tandon, 2006; Mahadevan *et al.*, 2008]. Adiabatic processes such as surface frontogenesis may also generate large vertical velocities in regions of intense gradients of density and relative vorticity. In general, these will also be larger at the edges of eddies [Calil and Richards, 2010]. The extent to which the wineglass effect is altered by these processes is unknown. However, if the flow is along isopycnals, accumulation of particulate material at the center of anticyclones will be favored as particles settle from the edges [Omand *et al.*, 2015].

5. Impacts and Other Considerations—Scaling R as Rt

Estimating R as a percent slope intrinsically compares sinking rate s with radial velocity u , where the latter is about 100 times greater. However, we can gain insight here by considering the more specific spatial scales involved in the transit of an individual particle through a mesoscale eddy. Normalizing both numerator and denominator to the specific length scales traveled in the generation of the wineglass effect, we normalize s to the pycnocline height H (here about 200 m) and u by the Rossby radius r_d (in this case about 50 km). We thus go from $R = s/u$ to a derived value Rt , the ratio of the number of vertical and horizontal eddy transits per day (in day^{-1}):

$$R_t = \frac{r_d s}{H u}$$

R and Rt would have a constant ratio for a given mesoscale feature. Here, by definition, when $Rt \sim 1$, vertical and horizontal eddy transits per day (in day^{-1}) are of the same order, such that the wineglass effect has a visible impact on particles' sinking trajectory. However, note that the inverse of these numbers (in day^{-1}) is a time scale for a single eddy transit, τ (in days). We can therefore consider Rt equally as a ratio of time scales, or eddy residence times (in days), $\tau u/\tau s$ where τu is the time scale for a particle to transit the eddy radially and τs is the time scale to sink vertically through the pycnocline. Thus, we can use Rt in a manner analogous to a Damköhler number [see Oldham *et al.*, 2013] allowing Rt to take on a more specific and intuitive meaning: Rt , the normalized slope of the wineglass, is the ratio of time scales of the processes generating it.

This should help us predict impacts: If Rt is very low, the radial transport time scale is much shorter than the sinking time scale, particles are sinking slowly, and the probability of their being simply concentrated in the eddy center is increased (potentially the case for smallest particles; Figure 1a). If $Rt \gg 1$, the horizontal residence time scale is much longer than the sinking time scale, suggesting that the particles would transit rapidly through the eddy without significant concentration in the eddy center, i.e., no wineglass effect. If Rt is close to 1, then particles would have the greatest probability of forming a wineglass shape (potentially the case for larger particles; Figure 1b).

The potential for particles to contribute locally to biogeochemical processes concentrating in the eddy center should thus increase as Rt decreases. This could lead to higher mineralization rates in the eddy core at very low Rt . There is anecdotal evidence for this; the observed increase in oxygen deficit in the core of the LC eddy suggests respiration as high as $0.1 \text{ mol O}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ [Waite *et al.*, 2016]. A smaller oxygen depletion is also visible in the MS eddy, which also shows enhanced concentrations of dissolved organic matter, likely sourced from partial remineralization of small particles not proceeding to full oxidation under extreme oligotrophy [Moutin and Prieur, 2012]. Similar patterns are seen in other eddies [Moutin *et al.*, 2012].

Larger particles operating around $Rt \sim 1$ will also concentrate in the eddy center, but over a larger vertical distance, decreasing the probability for remineralization losses higher in the water column, and potentially resulting in aggregation in the eddy center driven by concentration increases. Concentration increases are the most important trigger of aggregation, which is one of the principal drivers of enhanced vertical fluxes.

We therefore tested the hypothesis that an increase in particles occurred in the eddy center that would support greater vertical particle fluxes: Increases in particle flux in the eddy center were calculated as the ratio between flux at km = 118 (eddy center) and flux at km = 210 (eddy margin). To account for parameter sensitivity of the particle flux estimates from particle size spectra, they were calculated using two parameterizations [Guidi *et al.*, 2008; Stemmann *et al.*, 2004b] and assuming a carbon to dry weight ratio of 0.4. The two estimates yield similar spatial patterns in the flux with a twofold to sevenfold increase in the eddy center compared to the surrounding stations of the eddy flank.

6. Conclusions

The biogeochemical impact of the wineglass effect will be dependent on individual eddy productivity and history, as well as the particle size spectrum. Where R_t is low, the concentration of (small) particles is likely to drive an acceleration of the biogeochemical rates within or near the pycnocline, possibly accelerating grazing [Stemmann *et al.*, 2004a; Guidi *et al.*, 2008] and remineralization [Waite *et al.*, 2000; Jackson and Checkley, 2011]. Where R_t is closer to 1, physical focusing of (larger) particles in the eddy center would increase sedimentary fluxes there and aggregation (being concentration dependent) would further increase sedimentation, deeper in the water column. Such increases in sedimentary fluxes could fuel hot spots for mesopelagic organisms and benthic communities [Waniek *et al.*, 2005; Wei *et al.*, 2010] in up to 1/6 of the world ocean. Inconsistencies in global remineralization budgets [Burd *et al.*, 2010] remind us of these budgets' vulnerability to uncertainties in sparsely sampled and poorly quantified processes at the mesoscale and submesoscale. Here we demonstrate the critical importance of understanding the interaction of particles of different sizes with physical processes at a fine spatial scales, which has the potential to impact a significant fraction of carbon fluxes across the global ocean.

Acknowledgments

We acknowledge helpful comments on the manuscript from W.-J. von Appen, G.A. Jackson, D. Griffin, and R.F.C. Mantoura. The work was supported by grants from the Australian Research Council (DP0663670 and DP 1093510) to AMW and coworkers. We acknowledge the support of the BOUM project for the MS sampling cruise. Discussions in Villefranche were supported by a Study Leave grant to AMW from the University of Western Australia. L.S., M.P., and G.G. acknowledge the CNRS and the University of Pierre and Marie Curie. L.S. was supported by the chair VISION from CNRS/UPMC. P.H.R.C. acknowledges support from CNPq (process: 307385/2013-2). A.M.H. was supported by an Australian Research Council Future Fellowship FT120100842. For all data associated with this work please contact the corresponding author A. Waite, anya.waite@awi.de.

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