





21 **Abstract.** A prominent ocean region exhibiting depleted oxygen concentration is the northern Indian  
22 Ocean, whose projected deoxygenation trend in response to climate change requires a comprehensive  
23 understanding of the roles of ocean dynamics. We present newly compiled *in situ* data across platforms  
24 (e.g. cruises, Argo, buoy) in the Indonesian coasts of Sumatra and Java between 2010-2022. Combined  
25 with reanalysis products, our data detect oxygen-depleted waters attributed to the eastward advection  
26 of the northern Indian Ocean waters and monsoon-driven coastal upwelling. Oxygen limited zones  
27 (OLZs,  $DO < 60 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ ) occupy various depths off the Sumatra-Java coasts, in which dissolved  
28 oxygen (DO) reaches  $\sim 40 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  in northwest Sumatra. The eastward propagating Equatorial  
29 Counter Current plays a major role in delivering the oxygen-depleted waters during the boreal summer;  
30 similarly, the South Equatorial Counter Current in the winter monsoon and the Wyrтки Jet during the  
31 transition months. Coastal upwelling regulates DO variations via primary production and the  
32 respiration of organic matter at intermediate depths in southern Java as the upwelled waters being  
33 advected westward towards Sumatra in the summer monsoon. Indonesian Throughflow with enriched  
34 organic matter modifies the oxygenated-depleted waters at its outlets. We observe a trend towards  
35 deepened OLZ in western Sumatra, while positive Indian Ocean Dipole events (2006, 2012, 2015,  
36 2019) lower DO in the thermocline depths of southern Java on the interannual timescale. Altogether,  
37 high-resolution observational biogeochemical data are key to advance our understanding of dynamical  
38 DO changes in the southeastern tropical Indian Ocean under the global deoxygenation trend.

39 **Keywords:** Deoxygenation, oxygen limited zone, upwelling, Indonesia, southeastern tropical Indian  
40 Ocean



41 **Short Summary**

42 We provide new insights on the presence of oxygen-depleted waters along the Indonesian coasts  
43 of Sumatra and Java attributed to the eastward advection of the northern Indian Ocean waters and  
44 monsoon-driven upwelling. Combined in situ and reanalysis data elucidate the complex interplay  
45 of oceanographic processes responsible for the observed oxygen in the region. The knowledge is  
46 crucial for research and management strategies to mitigate deoxygenation impacts on marine  
47 ecosystems in Indonesia.



## 48 **1 Introduction**

49 As human activities alter the ocean globally, deoxygenation in the open ocean and coastal  
50 systems has emerged as one of the most evident responses to climate change (Breitburg et al., 2018;  
51 Bindoff et al., 2019). Global coverage of deoxygenation varies spatially with the presence of oxygen  
52 minimum zones (OMZs) in the northern Indian Ocean and the eastern boundaries of the Pacific and  
53 Atlantic Oceans (Karstensen et al., 2008; Paulmier and Ruiz-Pino, 2009; Keeling et al., 2010; Breitburg  
54 et al., 2018). The global ocean has lost an estimated 2% ( $4.8 \pm 2.1$  Pmoles) of oxygen, showing marked  
55 changes in the upper 1,000 m section since the 1980s (Diaz and Rosenberg, 2008; Ito et al., 2017;  
56 Schmidtko et al., 2017). Ocean deoxygenation is expanding in a warmer climate, with recent CMIP6  
57 Earth system models suggesting greater deoxygenation trends than previous model ensembles  
58 (Canadell et al., 2021 and references therein). At regional scales, enhanced nutrients via ocean  
59 upwelling and coastal eutrophication leading to excessive respiratory oxygen demand may exacerbate  
60 the global deoxygenation trend (Oschlies et al., 2008; Gilbert et al., 2010; Pitcher et al., 2021). Since  
61 the mid-20th century, at least 400 coastal areas have become hypoxic, a condition in which seawater  
62 DO concentration reaches less than  $63 \mu\text{mol l}^{-1} \approx 2 \text{ mg l}^{-1}$  or approximately 30% oxygen saturation,  
63 with varying nonlinear perturbations on marine organisms (Diaz and Rosenberg, 2008; Vaquer-Sunyer  
64 et al., 2008).

65 Weakened ocean ventilation in a warmer climate primarily drives global deoxygenation in  
66 addition to the reduced solubility of seawater DO, which highlights the critical role of ocean dynamics.  
67 Reduced oxygen ventilation into the ocean interior due to more stratified oceans accounts for ~85% of  
68 the global deoxygenation trend (Helm et al., 2011; Schmidtko et al., 2017; Breitburg et al., 2018;  
69 Bindoff et al., 2019; Canadell et al., 2021). Seawater oxygen concentration is relatively higher in the  
70 upper ocean with air-sea flux and photosynthetic activities, while it diminishes with the oxygen-  
71 consuming biogeochemical processes (e.g. the decomposition of organic matters, remineralization) in  
72 the water column and bottom sediment (Oschlies et al., 2008; Pitcher et al., 2021). Oxygen-deficient  
73 conditions arise when oxygen consumption rates exceed renewal via ventilation or mid-depth  
74 injections of oxygenated waters (Wyrski, 1962; Hamme and Keeling, 2008).

75 A significant portion of the global ocean OMZs occurs in the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal  
76 (BoB), owing to the weak ventilation and high oxygen consumption at intermediate depths driven by  
77 high productivity and lithogenic inputs in the Arabian Sea and the BoB, respectively (Helly and Levin,  
78 2004; Paulmier and Ruiz-Pino, 2009; Rixen et al., 2020; Shenoy et al., 2020; Pitcher et al., 2021).  
79 Unlike in the Pacific and the Atlantic Oceans, low oxygen conditions do not develop along the eastern



80 boundary but are evident in the northern Indian Ocean. The area is distinctly characterized by the low-  
81 latitude continental boundary that restricts the formation of subsurface water masses. Ocean ventilation  
82 in the basin is influenced by the more oxygenated Indian Central Water (ICW) and the fresh and high  
83 silicate Indonesian throughflow (ITF) outflow (often referred to as the Australasian Mediterranean  
84 Water or the Banda Sea Water), with a minor contribution of the warm and saline Red Sea and the  
85 Persian Gulf Waters (You and Tomzak, 1992; Talley and Sprintall, 2005). The ICW, formed in the  
86 subtropical southern Indian Ocean, crosses the equator near the western boundary primarily during the  
87 southwest monsoon in the Arabian Sea (Swallow, 1984; Naqvi et al., 2010). In the BoB, high  
88 freshwater influx leads to a strong salinity stratification that hinders ventilation (You and Tomzak,  
89 1992). Vertical eddy mixing contributes to oxygen ventilation in the Arabian Sea and the BoB  
90 (McCreary et al., 2013; Sarma and Bhaskar, 2020). The Arabian Sea experiences a perennial high  
91 productivity due to upwelling during the southwest monsoon in boreal summer and convective  
92 overturning during the winter (Naqvi et al., 2006). While primary productivity is relatively lower in  
93 the BoB, the ballast effect of lithogenic inputs enhances the downward export of organic matter in the  
94 basin (Rao et al., 1994; Al Azhar et al., 2017).

95 In this study, we present the dynamics of oxygen-depleted waters along the Indonesian coasts  
96 of Sumatra and Java in the southeast tropical Indian Ocean (SETIO) using DO time series obtained  
97 from international cruise campaigns between 2010-2022, complemented by available Argo float, buoy  
98 and reanalysis products. Complex ocean circulations in the Indian Ocean advect the oxygen-depleted  
99 OMZ waters, thus potentially affecting marine ecosystems. Coastal currents in the northern Indian  
100 Ocean propagate eastward during the summer, and the Arabian Sea waters flow towards the Sumatra  
101 coast during the winter via the Equatorial Counter Current or ECC (Rahaman et al., 2020; Phillips et  
102 al., 2021). The eastward Wyrcki Jet at the upper 100 m of the equatorial Indian Ocean is most intense  
103 during the intermonsoon in May and November, reaching 18.74 and 16.83 Sv, respectively (Wyrcki,  
104 1973; McPhaden et al., 2015). The eastward Equatorial Under Current (EUC) at around 90-170 m  
105 depths is strongest in April and October (Iskandar et al., 2009). Knowledge gaps remain on the  
106 characteristics of oxygen-depleted waters of the study area and their associated mechanisms, such as  
107 the influences of seasonal upwelling and the Indo-Pacific climate variability.

108

## 109 **2 Materials and Methods**

### 110 **2.1 Study area**



111           The biogeochemistry of the Sumatra-Java coasts is influenced by several factors including  
112 lateral currents, the ITF and monsoon-driven upwelling. These processes significantly affect nutrient  
113 distribution, primary productivity and oxygen levels in the region. The ITF is crucial in delivering  
114 nutrients, particularly in the upper 300-400 m, which subsequently influences oxygen consumption in  
115 the water column (Talley and Sprintall, 2005; Ayers et al., 2014). Seasonal upwelling along the  
116 Sumatra-Java coasts peaks in June-November during the southeast monsoon in the boreal summer  
117 associated with the Ekman transport and mesoscales eddies that generate high primary productivity  
118 (Susanto et al., 2006; Yang et al., 2019; Wirasatriya et al., 2020). Major currents in the region are  
119 important in distributing saline and oxygen-depleted waters from the western Indian Ocean and  
120 relatively fresher waters of the ITF. The semi-annually reversing South Java Current (SJC) and its  
121 Under Current (SJUC) form the eastern boundary current system that flows along the coasts of Sumatra  
122 and Java (Sprintall et al., 1999, 2010; Wijffels et al., 2002). The SJC and SJUC contribute to  
123 exchanging freshwater and saltier waters in the SETIO. At deeper depths, the North Indian Intermediate  
124 Water (NIIW), characterized by high salinity and low oxygen, is transported eastward by the SJUC  
125 (Sprintall et al., 2010). The formation of the saltier NIIW is located in the northwestern Indian Ocean  
126 (You and Tomczak, 1993; Wijffels et al., 2002). The South Equatorial Current (SEC) also plays a  
127 significant role in the region, flowing westward around 12°S and bringing fresher and warmer waters.  
128 The current connects directly with the Agulhas Current and is part of the global ocean current system  
129 through the Ocean Conveyor Belt (Reppin et al., 1999; Makarim et al., 2019). In addition, the Sumatra-  
130 Java coasts are strongly influenced by Indo-Pacific climate variability, such as the El Niño-Southern  
131 Oscillation (ENSO) and the Indian Ocean Dipole (IOD) phenomenon, which can further modulate the  
132 biogeochemical processes and ecosystem dynamics in the region.

133

## 134 **2.2 Cruise-based observational data**

135           The collected *in situ* temperature, salinity and DO data presented herein are the product of  
136 several international cruise campaigns conducted in 2011-2013, 2015-2016, 2018-2019 and 2022 (Fig.  
137 1). The cruises comprise the Java Upwelling Variation Observation (JUVO) conducted in 2011, 2012,  
138 2015 and 2016, the Monsoon Onset Monitoring, Its Social and Ecosystem Impacts (MOMSEI) in 2013,  
139 the Transport Indonesian seas, Upwelling and Mixing Physics (TRIUMPH) in 2018 and 2019, and the  
140 Ekspedisi Widya Nusantara (EWIN) in 2022 using the RV Baruna Jaya I, RV Baruna Jaya III, RV  
141 Baruna Jaya III and RV Madidihang 03 (Appendix Table A1). These cruises deployed shipboard and



142 subsurface-moored conductivity-temperature-depth (CTD) and DO sensors at sampling stations, some  
143 repeated over multiple years.

144 Shipboard data were collected using Sea-Bird Electronic (SBE) 9Plus and 19Plus CTDs,  
145 equipped with an SBE 5T pump and an auxiliary SBE 43 DO sensor. The accuracies of the SBE 9Plus  
146 CTD were  $0.0003 \text{ S m}^{-1}$  (conductivity),  $0.001^\circ\text{C}$  (temperature), and 0.015% (depth) of the full-scale  
147 ranges. The SBE 19Plus CTD had measurement accuracies of  $0.0005 \text{ S m}^{-1}$  (conductivity),  $0.005^\circ\text{C}$   
148 (temperature), and 0.02% (depth). The SBE 43 DO sensor had an accuracy of  $\pm 2\%$  of saturation. The  
149 deployment was conducted from the surface to the near bottom or maximum wire length, with sampling  
150 speeds of 24 Hz (9 Plus) and 4 Hz (19 Plus), and the casting speed was kept at  $0.5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  to minimize  
151 the noise during measurement. The measured CTD data underwent quality control (QC) methods  
152 provided by the SBE data processing software (i.e. data conversion, wild edit, filtering, aligning CTD,  
153 cell thermal mass, loop edit, deriving variables based on EOS 80 standard, and bin average) with a  
154 final manual screening step to ensure the result of the QC process, following modified methods of  
155 Valcheva and Palazov (2010) and Sea-Bird Scientific (2017).

156 The moored CTD-DO sensors (SBE37 IMP-ODO) were deployed at 10 and 300 m depths with  
157 a 1-hour interval. CTD and DO measurements had accuracies of  $\pm 0.0003 \text{ S m}^{-1}$ ,  $0.002^\circ\text{C}$ , 0.1% and  
158 0.1% of the full-scale ranges, respectively. Each instrument followed a pre-deployment check  
159 including a comparison with the shipboard data. The data also followed QC methods (i.e. data  
160 conversion, wild edit, and deriving variables based on the EOS 80 standard).

161

### 162 **2.3 Argo float and RAMA buoy data**

163 Data from two Argo floats and a Research Moored Array for African - Asian - Australian  
164 Monsoon Analysis and Prediction (RAMA) buoy in the eastern Indian Ocean complement our cruise-  
165 based measurements. Two Argo floats provide temperature and salinity data across depths from the  
166 study area (ID #1901944 for 2010-2021 and #5905417 for 2016-2021). To establish a robust dataset,  
167 we use the adjusted QC flagged data (i.e. with real-time QC tests and adjusted values to account for  
168 statistical error estimates). The RAMA buoy ( $8^\circ\text{S}$ ,  $99.56^\circ\text{E}$ ) equipped with CTD and DO sensors at 10  
169 and 300 m depths provide continuous data from April 2014 to March 2015.

170

### 171 **2.4 Cross-sectional annual and seasonal DO concentrations across depths**

172 We assess annual, winter (Jan-Mar) and summer (July-Sept) climatology DO concentrations  
173 across depths and parallel cross-sections over the period 2000-2020 using the World Ocean Atlas 2018



174 (WOA18) data (Garcia et al., 2019). The dataset is a product of shipboard and underway instruments,  
175 moored buoys and Argo float data with a  $1^\circ$  spatial resolution. The WOA18 annual climatology data is  
176 available across 0-5,500 m depths (102 standard depths) and 0-1,500 m (57 standard depths) for the  
177 seasonal and monthly climatology data. We define the coastal, transition and SEC cross-sections with  
178 increasing distances from Sumatra and Java Islands.

179

## 180 **2.5 Reanalysis DO product and *in situ*-model validation**

181 We assess reanalysis temperature, salinity, ocean currents and DO data of the Copernicus  
182 Marine Environment Monitoring Service (CMEMS) between 2000-2020 with the *in situ* data from  
183 three observational stations from our 2022 cruise to provide insights on long-term DO variability over  
184 the Indian Ocean. The CMEMS dataset is a hindcast global ocean data using the Pelagic Interactions  
185 Schemes for Carbon and Ecosystem Studies (PISCES) biogeochemical model of intermediate  
186 complexity (Aumont, 2015). The three stations used in the *in-situ* model validation are St.04 ( $104.39^\circ\text{E}$ ,  
187  $6.54^\circ\text{S}$ ), St.13 ( $106.91^\circ\text{E}$ ,  $8.12^\circ\text{S}$ ) and St.14 ( $107.07^\circ\text{E}$ ,  $7.71^\circ\text{S}$ ). In evaluating the model's performance,  
188 we calculate the relative root mean square error (RRMSE) and mean absolute percentage error (MAPE)  
189 to assess the difference between predicted and actual values, with values closer to zero indicating a  
190 better match. The accuracy of the model can be considered as very good when  $\text{RRMSE} < 10\%$ , good  
191 ( $10\% < \text{RRMSE} < 20\%$ ), reasonable ( $20\% < \text{RRMSE} < 30\%$ ) or poor ( $\text{RRMSE} > 30\%$ ) (Li et al., 2013).  
192 Similar classifications are applied to the MAPE except for the poor ( $\text{MAPE} > 50\%$ ) category (Moreno  
193 et al., 2013). The calculated data show that RRMSE and MAPE are classified as good at St. 04 and  
194 very good at St. 13 and St. 14 (Appendix Table A2). The comparison between the modeled and  
195 observed DO shows biases, however, statistical analyses demonstrate a high agreement between the  
196 two datasets (Appendix Fig. A1). The reanalysis products underestimate DO concentrations at St. 04  
197 and St.14, particularly around 100-700 m depths, while under and overestimate *in situ* data at St. 13 at  
198 the similar depths.

199

## 200 **2.6 Identifying the presence of oxygen-depleted Arabian Sea water**

201 In order to trace the eastward intrusion of the saline oxygen-depleted Arabian Sea water into  
202 our study area, we apply the assumption of water mass with salinity reaching 35 practical salinity scale  
203 (PSS). The assumption relies on the fact that subsurface water masses in the Sumatra-Java coast do not  
204 have such saline value, including the ITF outflow with  $\sim 34.6$  PSS (Gordon et al., 1997; Makarim et



205 al., 2019). Herein, the critical concentration delimiting OMZ is defined at  $22 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ , and the OLZ  
206 at  $<60 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  following Espinosa-Diaz et al. (2021).

207

### 208 **3 Results**

#### 209 **3.1 Physical and biogeochemical characteristics of the water masses**

210 Our cruise-based observational measurements reveal a warm and fresh water mass overlying  
211 more saline water masses in the Sumatra-Java coasts of the SETIO (Fig. 2). A buoyant, warm and low  
212 salinity ( $<33$  PSS) water mass along the potential density ( $\sigma_\theta$ ) of 20-22 is prominent in the 2011, 2012,  
213 2015 and 2022 data. Beneath this surface mixed layer, we observe a  $\sim 35$  PSS salinity water mass along  
214 the  $\sigma_{\theta 23-24}$  in 2011, 2012 and 2015, and along the  $\sigma_{\theta 23-27}$  in 2019 and 2022. In 2016, a relatively  
215 more saline (35-36 PSS) water mass appear along the  $\sigma_{\theta 24-27}$ . High-salinity waters are also present at  
216 deeper depths along the  $\sigma_{\theta 24.5}$  and  $\sigma_{\theta 25-26}$  in 2019 and 2022. Most high-salinity waters are evident at  
217 stations southwest of the Sunda Strait.

218 Warm and fresh waters with relatively higher oxygen concentrations ( $164-197 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ )  
219 corroborate enhanced seawater DO from photosynthetic activities in the surface layer. High DO waters  
220 are present in the 32-34 PSS salinity ranges (Fig. 2b). The relationship between potential temperature  
221 and DO ( $\theta$ -DO) hints at high oxygen concentrations in warmer  $\sim 29-30^\circ\text{C}$  waters (Fig. 2c). Furthermore,  
222 DO concentrations with 34-35 PSS salinity decrease to  $120 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  with concentrations that vary  
223 from one year to another. In the 2016 cruise data, we observe a DO concentration of  $\sim 167 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$   
224 with 33-36.3 PSS salinity, slightly different from those observed in 2011, 2012, 2015 and 2022.  
225 Similarly, DO data in 2019 show slightly erratic profiles along the potential temperature and salinity  
226 gradients. At deeper depth with  $\sim 35$  PSS salinity, the DO concentration reaches  $50 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ .

227

#### 228 **3.2 Cross-sectional oxygen distributions along the Sumatra-Java coasts**

229 The WOA18 dataset, which serve to elucidate the influence of regional oceanography to  
230 seawater DO in our study site, show OLZs in the intermediate 200-1,000 m depths of the coastal section  
231 and in greater depths (500–1,000 m) of the transition section (Fig. 3). Overall, high DO ( $>180 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ )  
232 characterizes the upper 100 m section of the Sumatra-Java coasts year-round. The OLZ tongue with  
233  $\sim 35$  PSS salinity extends eastward for about 1,000 km in the coastal section and 500 km in the transition  
234 section.



235 The oxygen-depleted condition is absent in the SEC section, with  $DO < 100 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  occupying  
236 between 700-1,200 m in the depth profiles. We find no trace of the inferred Arabian Sea water in the  
237 SEC section throughout the year.

238 Comparison of OLZ between seasons reveals a sharper eastward protruding pattern during the  
239 boreal summer that may be shaped by the presence of upper and below ocean currents advecting  
240 relatively more oxygenated water masses. The feature, centered around 700 m depth, may be related  
241 to more oxygenated water masses advected from the eastern Indian Ocean (see Fig. 4-Right).

242 Taken together, our analysis of the WOA18 DO dataset in the SETIO shows the imprint of  
243 eastward advected oxygen-depleted water mass from the northern Indian Ocean, with the roles of local  
244 ocean currents inhibiting its eastward propagation.

245

### 246 **3.3 Horizontal depth profiles of oxygen in the Indian Ocean**

247 The cross-sectional oxygen distribution may infer the influence of the oxygen-depleted  
248 northern Indian Ocean waters in the SETIO. The annual climatology DO between 100 and 1,000 m is  
249 shown in Figure 4-Left. At a shallower 100 m depth, DO of  $60 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  (OLZ; black line) is evident  
250 in coastal regions of the western and eastern Arabian Sea and the BoB. At deeper depths, OLZ in the  
251 northern Indian Ocean covers a more extensive section and expands southward towards the equator.  
252 At around 200-600 m depths, the lowest DO concentration of  $\sim 40 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  is evident in the northwest  
253 of Sumatra westward of the  $94^\circ\text{E}$  longitude, consistent with the signature of the oxygen-depleted BoB  
254 water. While OMZ does not present at a 100 depth, it is evident in deeper depths, occupying the  
255 northern Arabian Sea and BoB around 200-400 m depths and most notably in the north of Arabian Sea  
256 at deeper  $> 700$  m depths, therefore lending support to the role of ocean dynamics in advecting oxygen-  
257 depleted water masses at those depths.

258 The spreading of the oxygen-depleted water at different depth levels is seasonally distinct. In  
259 the boreal winter, the OLZ is observed at 100 m depth along the coasts of the Arabian Sea and the  
260 western BoB that may be due to the West Indian Coastal Current (WICC), while the OMZ is only  
261 visible on the northern coast of BoB (Figure 4-Center). Low DO concentrations are also found in the  
262 center of the Arabian Sea. At 200-1000 m depths, the OLZ extends meridionally from the coast of  
263 Somalia in the western Indian Ocean to the Sumatra-Java coasts reaching the equator. The OMZ  
264 dominates the coastal area of the Arabian Sea and the southern BoB at  $\sim 200$  m. Only at greater depths  
265 in the south of the Arabian Sea is the OMZ visible. During the boreal summer, the spreading of the



266 oxygen-depleted water at deeper depth is similar to the winter, except in the upper 100 m with an  
267 apparent influence of continental margin (Fig. 4-Right).

268 OLZ and OMZ in the northern Indian Ocean expand southward, even crossing the equator as  
269 the depth increased. In the western Indian Ocean, OLZ reaches the 200 m depth at  $\sim 12^{\circ}\text{N}$  and the  
270 equator at 1000 m. This pattern is also evident in the eastern Indian Ocean, which may be caused by  
271 an eastward advection of low deoxygenated water due to a combination of the Summer Monsoon  
272 Current and the prolonged eastward WICC. While the southward extent of the OLZ in western Sumatra  
273 is similar to the West Indian Ocean, we observe a clear curvature bending towards the coastal western  
274 Sumatra, where the OLZ is evident at  $2.2^{\circ}\text{N}$  (200 m depth) and  $6.3^{\circ}\text{S}$  (700 m depth). The feature that  
275 causes a relatively higher DO concentration along the coastal western Sumatra may be driven by the  
276 SJUC.

277

## 278 **4 Discussion**

### 279 **4.1 Sources of oxygen-depleted waters in the Sumatra-Java coasts**

280 Our analyses of WOA and cruise-based data show seasonal variations in the imprints of  
281 oxygen-depleted northern Indian Ocean waters that are advected to the Sumatra-Java coasts by the  
282 regional ocean currents. To illustrate the mechanisms of the intrusion of the northern Indian Ocean  
283 waters, particularly from the saline Arabian Sea to the coasts of Sumatra and Java, Figure 5 shows  
284 salinity superimposed on currents at 100 to 1,000 m depths during both seasons. The oxygen-depleted  
285 Arabian Sea and the BoB waters are distinct in their salinities with high saline Arabian Sea and low  
286 saline BoB waters.

287 At the 100 m depth, the eastward propagating Equatorial Counter Current (ECC) is stronger  
288 during the boreal summer, thus delivering high saline low deoxygenated waters to the western Sumatra  
289 coast, which diminishes in the lower depths (Fig. 5-Right). The counter current reaches the eastern  
290 Indian Ocean and forms by the Somali Current from the north and the East African Coast Current from  
291 the south, thus feeding into the eastward equatorial currents (Sanchez-Franks et al., 2019; Schott and  
292 McCreary, 2001). A second of high saline waters is also observed as a result of an extended tongue of  
293 the Arabian Sea saline water via the Southwest Monsoon Current (SMC). The SMC, which flows from  
294 the Arabian Sea to the BoB through the south of Sri Lanka, is a surface-intensified current with a  
295 northward flow that reaches a depth of 300 m (Vinayachandran et al., 2018). Some currents  
296 continuously flow northward and bifurcate to the south reaching the coast of Sumatra.



297           During the boreal winter, the South Equatorial Counter Current (SECC) at around 5°S was  
298 essential for transferring highly saline water to the eastern Indian Ocean and subsequently into the  
299 southern coast of Java and Nusa Tenggara, where it meets the outflow of the ITF (Fig. 5-Left). At the  
300 eastern end of SECC, the SJC that flows southeastward along the coast of Sumatra and Java (Quadfasel  
301 and Cresswell, 1992; Iskandar et al., 2006), may play an important role in delivering SECC waters in  
302 the SETIO. The SJC is located in the upper 100 m, underneath the 200-1,000 m deep SJUC that carries  
303 a core of high saline and low oxygen North Indian Intermediate Water (Wijffels et al., 2002; Fieux et  
304 al., 2005). The SJC and SJUC signals flow eastward past the Savu Sea and reach the Ombai Strait as  
305 one of the major outflows of ITF (Sprintall et al., 2010). Salinity around the Sumatra-Java and Nusa  
306 Tenggara coasts varies, especially between 100 m and 200 m due to the dilution by ITF water.  
307 Additionally, the seawater freshening may have occurred westward at the Sunda Strait as a minor ITF  
308 outflow and subsequently expands due to wind stress and reversing currents in the Java-Sumatra coasts  
309 (Potemra et al., 2016; Susanto et al., 2016; Hamzah et al., 2020).

310           It is interesting to point out the role of the Wyrтки Jet along the equatorial Indian Ocean during  
311 the transition months in aiding the eastward transport of high salinity cores to the coasts of Sumatra  
312 and Java. The Wyrтки Jet, a strong eastward current along the equator caused by the presence of strong  
313 westerly winds, is prominent near the coasts of Sumatra and Java during the March-May and  
314 September-November months (Knaus and Taft, 1964; Wyrтки, 1973). As the western Indian Ocean  
315 thermocline lifted, the jet drives water masses with low oxygen and salinity maxima eastward while  
316 deepening in the west Sumatra mixed layer (see contour salinity of 35 PSS in the coastal region; Fig.  
317 3). The jet changes direction below 120 m and is strongest between 60°E and 90°E at the surface. The  
318 EUC, which also flows eastward, is located beneath (Wyrтки, 1973). Furthermore, the SJC (200 m) and  
319 its deeper SJUC (200-1000 m), which has a reversal direction, redistribute these water masses  
320 throughout the Sumatra and Java coasts (Iskandar et al., 2006; Sprintall et al., 2010). These support the  
321 critical influence of the jet to distribute seawater masses in the region.

322           To further investigate the imprint of saline northern Indian Ocean and freshwater water masses  
323 in the SETIO, we assess the relationship between salinity and current zonal velocity in the equatorial  
324 (80.5°E, 3°N-3°S) and at the Sunda Strait outlet (107°E, 7.75-9.5°S) areas between 2000-2020 (Fig.  
325 6). Salinity profiles corroborate that the western equatorial Indian Ocean is a major source of high (>35  
326 PSS) saline waters, which are also consistent with those observed between 40-100°E along the equator.  
327 The eastward velocity centered at the subsurface at 100 m depth extends to 3°N and 3°S. In comparison,  
328 the observed high saline waters and eastward zonal velocity are constrained around the equator at the



329 200 m depth. Our results agree with Argo float (ID #1901444) salinity data showing high saline waters  
330 in the upper 150 m of the eastern Indian Ocean. Salinity and zonal velocity experience drastic changes  
331 with the presence of saline water intrusion in certain years, i.e. 2007, 2015, and 2019. Of those events,  
332 the strongest one in 2019 is concurrent with the positive IOD event. Moreover, we observe a brief  
333 temporal lag between strong currents in the equatorial Indian Ocean and the emergence of high salinity  
334 waters in southern Java. Hence, we propose that the first baroclinic Kelvin waves are responsible for  
335 the observed zonal current changes off southern Java, consistent with previous works (Iskandar et al.,  
336 2006; Utari et al., 2019). By applying a lag correlation analysis, Utari et al. (2019) calculated an 18-  
337 day lag with an eastward propagating signal of a phase speed of around  $2.37 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ .

338

#### 339 **4.2 Shallow oxygen-depleted waters induced by upwelling**

340 While lateral transports are essential in distributing low-deoxygenated water masses in the  
341 SETIO, the role of vertical advection such as upwelling events in the summer may be key in  
342 understanding deoxygenation via ocean dynamics and respiration of organic matters. Upwelling events  
343 could stimulate primary production increasing seawater oxygen contents and the subsequent export of  
344 organic materials that increases biological oxygen consumption (Pitcher et al., 2021). To elucidate the  
345 mechanisms by which upwelling may shape oxygen-depleted water in the upper ocean, we characterize  
346 subsurface waters upwelled into the surface using *in situ* data from the Argo floats, a RAMA buoy and  
347 cruise-based measurements (Fig. 7).

348 *In situ* temperature and salinity data provided by the Argo show clear seasonality and  
349 interannual variations. Saline (34.3 PSS) waters during the southeast summer monsoon accompanied  
350 by cool ( $27^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) temperatures, suggesting water originated from deeper depths (Figs. 7a and 7b). In  
351 addition to the significant impact of seasonality on changes in temperature and salinity, IOD events,  
352 most notably the 2019 positive IOD, caused a prolonged period of low seawater temperatures from the  
353 subsurface layers to the coasts of Sumatra and Java. The propagation of Kelvin waves from the  
354 equatorial Indian Ocean influences the extent and magnitude of upwelling in Java and Sumatra, while  
355 IOD and ENSO events both contribute to upwelling variations at the coast of Sumatra and Java  
356 (Vinayachandran et al., 2021). Further discussions on how interannual Indo-Pacific climate variations  
357 may shape oxygen concentrations at our study site are discussed in Section 4.3.

358 Two *in situ* oxygen measurements installed on a RAMA buoy at the surface (10 m) and  
359 subsurface (300 m) depths elucidate changes associated with the primary production and respiration of  
360 organic matters that modulate seawater DO (Fig. 7c). In the surface layer, oxygen levels are noticeably



361 higher during the upwelling season that runs from June to October, due to biological production process  
362 involving phytoplankton photosynthesis. The temporal evolution of DO is consistent with changes in  
363 chlorophyll-a observed in the coasts of Sumatra and Java associated with upwelling (Susanto et al.,  
364 2006). Within the summer season, we observe short-term (~15-20 days) DO variations that the  
365 respiration of organic matter may drive. At 300 m depth, DO concentrations are consistently higher at  
366 the peak of the upwelling season (August-September), with another period of high DO values in the  
367 boreal winter. While the high DO content in the earlier may be driven by biological production, the  
368 high content during the latter may be associated with the ventilation from the ITF outflows. In some  
369 parts, DO at the 300 m depth reaches the OLZ level, indicating high oxygen consumption.

370 Observations from three stations located west to east in the south of Java during the July 2022  
371 cruise indicate upwelling along the southern coast of Java that may be influenced by the ITF outflow.  
372 Coastal upwelling, indicated by relatively higher chlorophyll-a, is evident and more intense around St.  
373 37 (Fig. 8a). This is further corroborated by lower temperatures and higher salinities in the surface  
374 depths at St.37, suggesting the presence of upward subsurface water into the surface (Fig. 8b). We also  
375 observe an interesting feature of curved high chlorophyll-a distribution that may indicate the role of  
376 the ITF outlet at the Lombok Strait, corroborated by the westward winds during the period. Earlier  
377 upwelling investigations have also shown the presence of upwelling that seems to be initiated at the  
378 southeastern tip of Java Island near St. 37 (Susanto et al., 2006; Iskandar et al., 2009; Mandal et al.,  
379 2022, Wirasatriya et al., 2020).

380 Comparative DO profiles from east to west, show higher DO content at the most eastward St.  
381 37 while DO contents plummet to the  $60 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  threshold at deeper depths towards the west, which  
382 lends support to the respiration of nutrient-rich surface waters driven by the easterly alongshore winds.  
383 The vertical DO profile does not detect any hypoxic area even at the subsurface depths despite  
384 upwelling occurring in the vicinity of St. 37 (Fig. 8c). The observation is consistent with the refilling  
385 by the ITF water from the outlet passage of Lombok Strait (Makarim et al., 2019). Towards the west,  
386 the hypoxic zone threshold ( $60 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ ) is detected at shallower depths, which are ~400-700 m at  
387 St. 14 and ~180-800 m at the westernmost St. 04. The lowered DO content at St. 04 changed rapidly,  
388 suggesting strong remineralization of organic matters. More sinking organic matter from the Java Sea  
389 near St. 04 would promote low oxygen levels. Significantly low salinity water (33 PSS) at St. 04  
390 supports the Java Sea water intrusion into the Indian Ocean through the Sunda Strait, therefore  
391 supplying significant levels of nutrients and carbon that are crucial for biological activity at the surface  
392 layer (Hamzah et al., 2020).



393

### 394 **4.3 Low and high-frequency changes in oxygen-depleted waters in the SETIO**

395 The comparison between two observational stations located in western Sumatra (98°E, 3°S) and  
396 southern Java (107°E, 7.75°S) show consistent seasonal and interannual variations in both sites;  
397 however, with a clear secular trend towards deepened OLZ in western Sumatra (Figs. 9a and 9b).  
398 Along water depths of 120 to 200 m, prominent seasonal fluctuations in oxygen concentrations may  
399 be driven by the local monsoonal winds over the Indonesian maritime continent. During the early  
400 southeast monsoon in June, the alongshore wind grows more vigorous causing the thermocline to shoal.  
401 The pattern reaches its peak in July-August, consistent with cool sea surface temperature (SST) in the  
402 subsequent months. Simultaneously, low oxygen concentrations rise from the subsurface 200 m to the  
403 mixed layer during these summer months. In the deeper depths below 250 m, temporal changes in the  
404 OLZ show markedly different trends between the western Sumatra and southern Java areas. While the  
405 latter shows a slight trend toward deepened OLZ, the trend has been rather drastic since 2001. An OLZ  
406 of 60 mol kg<sup>-1</sup> was found in 2001 at 600 m and remained marginally steady at 1000 m from 2012 to  
407 2020. Our findings are comparable to previous studies that discovered a maximum salinity of 35.1 PSS  
408 and a minimum oxygen concentration of 53.6 mol kg<sup>-1</sup> originating from the Arabian Sea and Red Sea  
409 Water along the Sumatra and Java coasts around 700-800 m (Coatanoan et al., 2010). Although our  
410 results show that oxygen concentrations of 60 μmol kg<sup>-1</sup> persist at 800-900 m in southern Java, this low  
411 oxygen background indicates that the regulated factors and mechanisms in Java and Sumatra are  
412 slightly different.

413 DO concentrations in the thermocline depths of the SETIO are sensitive to the interannual  
414 positive ENSO variations with more constrained IOD impacts in the southern Java section (Figs. 9c  
415 and 9d). Unlike in the south of Java, DO variations in upper western Sumatra are less sensitive to  
416 interannual Indo-Pacific variations. Strong positive ENSO events (e.g., 2006, 2012, 2015, 2019)  
417 coincide with shoaled thermocline or lower oxygen levels in the southern Java section of the SETIO.  
418 Conversely, our data show that only the strong 2015 positive IOD event has a similar impact. In 2006,  
419 the positive IOD event in the Indian Ocean coincides with a positive ENSO event in the Pacific; thus,  
420 the observed lowered DO change in the SETIO may be more associated with ENSO as opposed to only  
421 IOD. Positive IOD is characterized by relatively higher sea surface height, causing lower SST and  
422 upwelled deoxygenated water to the surface. It is interesting to note that while previous works have  
423 shown strong IOD impacts on surface biogeochemistry, such as the distribution of the chlorophyll-a  
424 contents (e.g. Iskandar et al., 2009; Siswanto et al., 2020; Shi and Wang, 2021; Susanto et al., 2006),



425 the imprint of positive IOD in the thermocline OLZ is much more muted as shown in our analyses.  
426 Indeed, chlorophyll has a distinct vertical distribution pattern, particularly in the oligotrophic ocean  
427 (Mignot et al., 2014; Barbieux et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2022), where the maximum concentration varies  
428 between 40-100 m in the global ocean (Yanusaka et al., 2022). During the negative IOD and ENSO  
429 events, for instance, in 2010, we observe that the OLZ threshold descends to a depth of ~180 m, which  
430 may be associated with downwelling off the coast of Java. Intense rainfall during the combined  
431 negative IOD and negative ENSO would increase organic matter from river discharges, thus further  
432 contributing to decreasing DO in the region. Taken together, we highlight the importance of  
433 chlorophyll-a and organic matter measurements not only in the surface ocean but also along the water  
434 column to comprehend the role of regional dynamics in ocean biogeochemistry.

435

## 436 **5. Concluding remarks**

437 Using available *in situ* and reanalysis data between 2010-2022, we detect the pervasiveness of  
438 oxygen-depleted northern Indian waters to the western Indonesian coasts in the SETIO, which our  
439 understanding of ocean deoxygenation is lacking. While the OLZ is present at various depths around  
440 the coasts of Sumatra and Java, the lower oxygen of ~40  $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  is observed only in northwest  
441 Sumatra. Lateral currents in the equatorial Indian Ocean play a major role in delivering the oxygen-  
442 depleted high-salinity water masses with a prominent role of the eastward propagating Equatorial  
443 Counter Current during the boreal summer, the SECC in the winter and the Wyrki Jet during the  
444 transition months. Our analyses corroborate that the first baroclinic Kelvin waves may play a role in  
445 the emergence of high-salinity waters in southern Java. While lateral transports are important in  
446 delivering the low-deoxygenated water masses to the SETIO, coastal upwelling events driven by  
447 easterly winds during the boreal summer stimulate the biological oxygen production and subsequently  
448 the respiration of organic matters at intermediate depths (200-1,000 m) as the water mass being  
449 advected westward from the southeastern coast of Java towards Sumatra. The outflow of fresh  
450 Indonesian Throughflow in the Indian Ocean via the Lombok and Sunda Straits further modifies the  
451 local distribution of low-deoxygenated water mass along the coast of Sumatra and Java, and lowers the  
452 oxygen level further due to the additional input of organic matter from the Indonesian maritime  
453 continent. High-resolution biogeochemical measurements are critical to understanding changes in the  
454 regional DO in different seasons.

455 In conclusion, the pervasiveness of low-deoxygenated northern Indian waters indicated by a  
456 clear secular trend towards deepened OLZ in western Sumatra highlights the importance of long



457 observational data across depth profiles in the SETIO. Unlike in southern Java, DO variations in upper  
458 western Sumatra are less sensitive to interannual Indo-Pacific variation. The imprints of the Indo-  
459 Pacific climate variations to DO concentrations are evident in the thermocline depths of southern Java,  
460 intriguingly, with stronger positive ENSO imprints (e.g. 2006, 2012, 2015, 2019) compared to positive  
461 IOD events. Only the strong 2015 positive IOD event shows a clear impact on DO in the SETIO.



462 **Appendix**

463 **A. Cruise Description**

464 **Appendix Table A1.** Brief on field campaigns in the southern coast of Java used in this study.

Cruise	Description
Java Upwelling Variation Observation (JUVO)	JUVO was a collaborative program between the Ministry of Marine Affairs and Fisheries and the First Institute of Oceanography (FIO) to understand Java upwelling variability. The program deployed a subsurface mooring system consisting of an ADCP and CTD sensors at various depths to obtain velocity, temperature, and salinity profiles.
Monsoon Onset Monitoring, Its Social and Ecosystem Impacts (MOMSEI)	MOMSEI was a regional program initiated by the Intergovernmental Ocean Commission Western Pacific Sub-Commission (IOC/WESTPAC) to understand the monsoonal upwelling and its climate and ecosystem impacts.
TRansport Indonesian seas, Upwelling and Mixing Physics (TRIUMPH)	TRIUMPH was an international collaboration between the Indonesian Institute of Sciences (LIPI) now the National Research and Innovation Agency (BRIN), FIO and the University of Maryland, to understand IOD variability in the eastern Indian Ocean and upwelling.
Expedition of Widya Nusantara (EWIN)	BRIN's EWIN cruise conducted in the Indian Ocean made oceanographic observations to understand the impact on marine productivity and biogeochemistry.

465

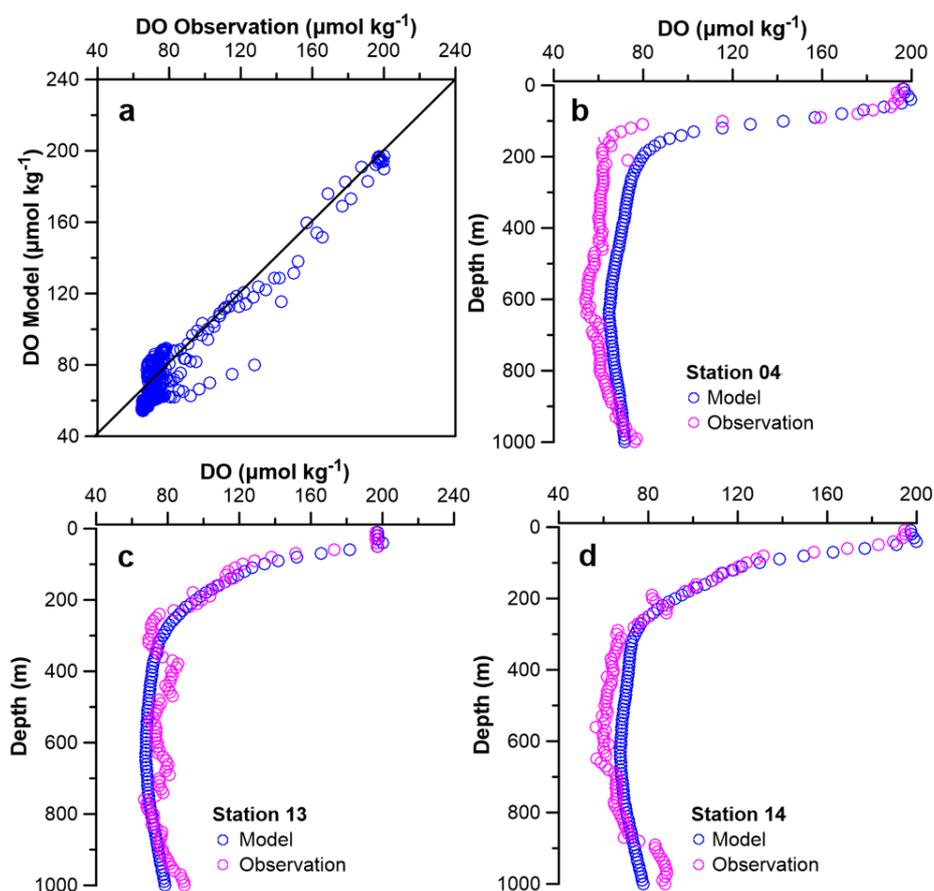


466 **B. Model Validation**

467 **Appendix Table A2.** RRMSE and MAPE values at measurement stations in southern Java.

Station ID	RRMSE (%)	MAPE (%)
St. 04	17.23	15.25
St. 13	7.93	7.22
St. 14	8.70	8.34

468



469

470 **Appendix Figure A1.** (a) The comparison between DO concentration from observation and model  
471 ( $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ ) in southern Java. (b) Vertical profiles of DO concentration (model and observation) during  
472 the 2022 cruise at St. 04, (c) St. 13, and (d) St. 14.



#### 473 **Data Availability**

- 474 ● Cruise-based CTD and DO data presented herein are deposited at the Repositori Ilmiah Nasional  
475 (RIN): <https://data.brin.go.id/dataset.xhtml?persistentId=hdl:20.500.12690/RIN/KWW79C>.
- 476 ● Argo temperature and salinity data (ID #1901444 and #5905017):  
477 <http://www.argodatamgt.org/Access-to-data/Argo-data-selection>.
- 478 ● RAMA buoy CTD and DO data: <https://www.pmel.noaa.gov/tao/drupal/rama-display>.
- 479 ● WOA18 DO and salinity data: <https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/access/world-ocean-atlas-2018>.
- 480 ● Copernicus Marine Environment Monitoring Service (CMEMS) salinity, ocean current and DO  
481 data: <https://data.marine.copernicus.eu/products>.
- 482 ● NOAA chlorophyll-a and wind stress data: <https://coastwatch.pfeg.noaa.gov/erddap/index.html>.
- 483 ● NOAA Ocean Observations Panel for Climate's IOD and Niño 3.4 indices:  
484 <https://gcos.wmo.int/en/home>.

485

#### 486 **Author Contributions**

487 FH, IT, AS, and ISN conceptualized the paper, and developed the framework and key messages. FH,  
488 AS, BP, DB, MF, RDAO, TA, MJR and PDS conducted data compilation and analyses. FH, IT, AS,  
489 ISN, MF, RDAO, DB, WY, ZW, HW, RDS and PDS wrote manuscript, reviewed and edited the  
490 manuscript. All authors have discussed and reviewed the manuscript, conducted manuscript  
491 proofreading, and approved the final version of the manuscript.

492

#### 493 **Competing Interests**

494 The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

495

#### 496 **Acknowledgements**

497 We thank the crews of the RV Baruna Jaya I, RV Baruna Jaya III, RV Baruna Jaya VIII, and RV  
498 Madidihang 03 for their instrumental assistance to the research cruises conducted between 2011-2022.

499

#### 500 **Financial Support**

501 This work was funded by the Indonesian Ministry of Marine Affairs and Fisheries (KKP) and the First  
502 Institute of Oceanography (FIO) through the JUVU Project (2011-2016) and the MOMSEI Project  
503 (2013); the Indonesian Institute of Sciences now the National Research and Innovation Agency  
504 Indonesia (BRIN), FIO, and University of Maryland (UMD) through the TRIUMPH Project (2018-



505 2022), BRIN Sailing Day (#2307/II.7/HK.01.00/6/2022) (2022); RDS was supported by the National  
506 Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) through the UMD Grant #80NSSC18K0777. ZW was  
507 jointly funded by the Laoshan Laboratory (contract #LSKJ202202700), the National Natural Science  
508 Foundation of China (grant #42076024) and the China-ASEAN Blue Partnership Construction  
509 Program.

510

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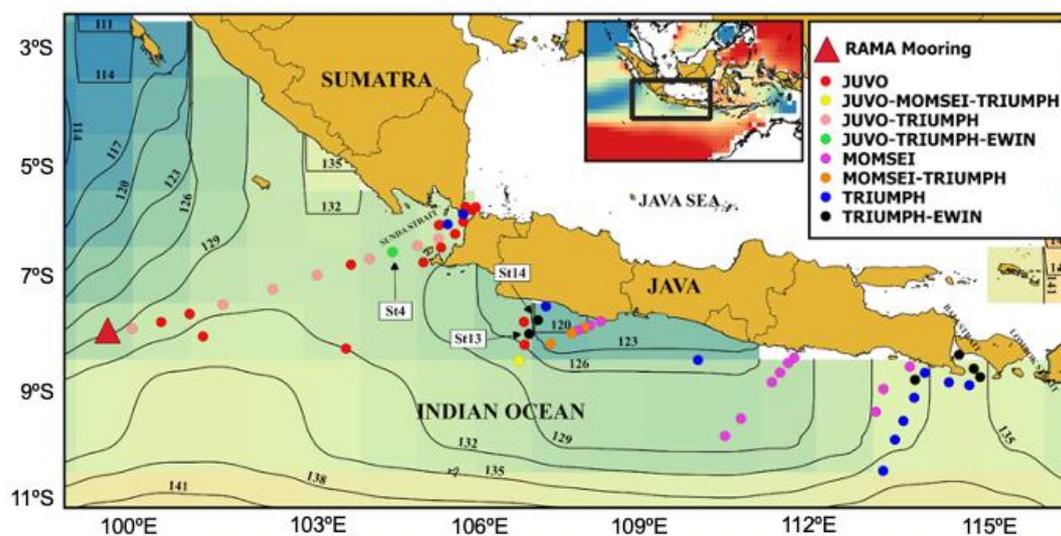
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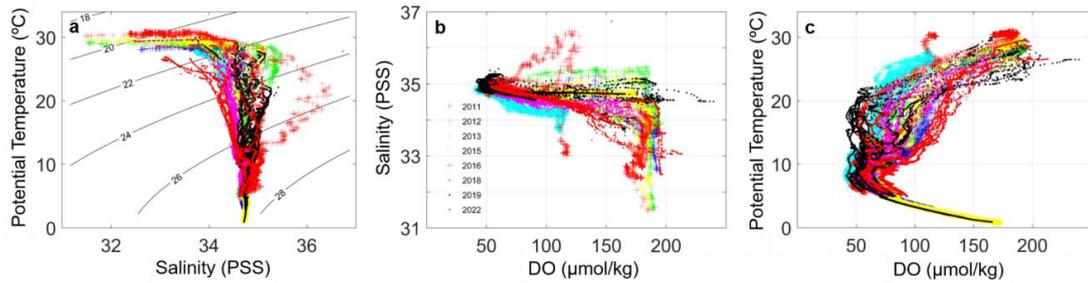


741 **Figures**



742

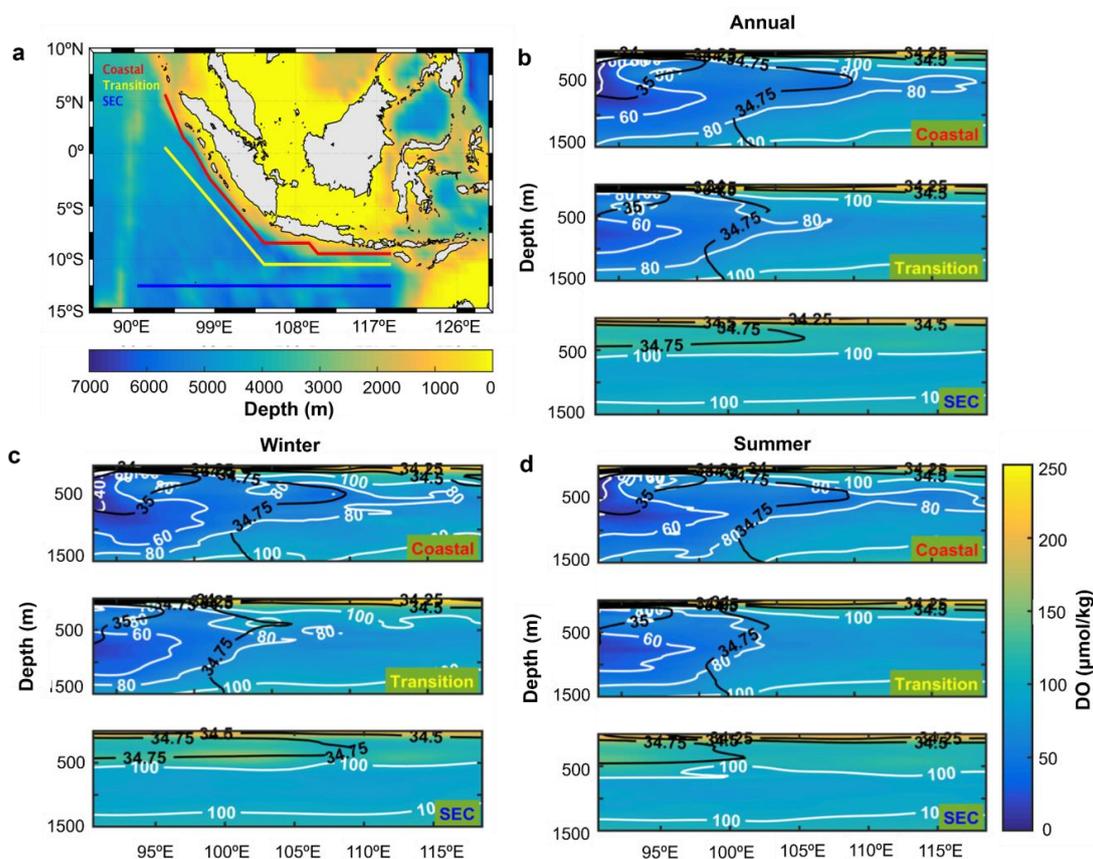
743 **Figure 1.** Study area showing sampling stations during international cruise campaigns between 2010-  
744 2022 (color dots) and a RAMA buoy (red triangle). DO data from St. 04, St. 13 and St. 14 in the 2022  
745 cruise are used for the model validation. The contours mark DO concentration ( $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ ) at a 100 m  
746 depth.

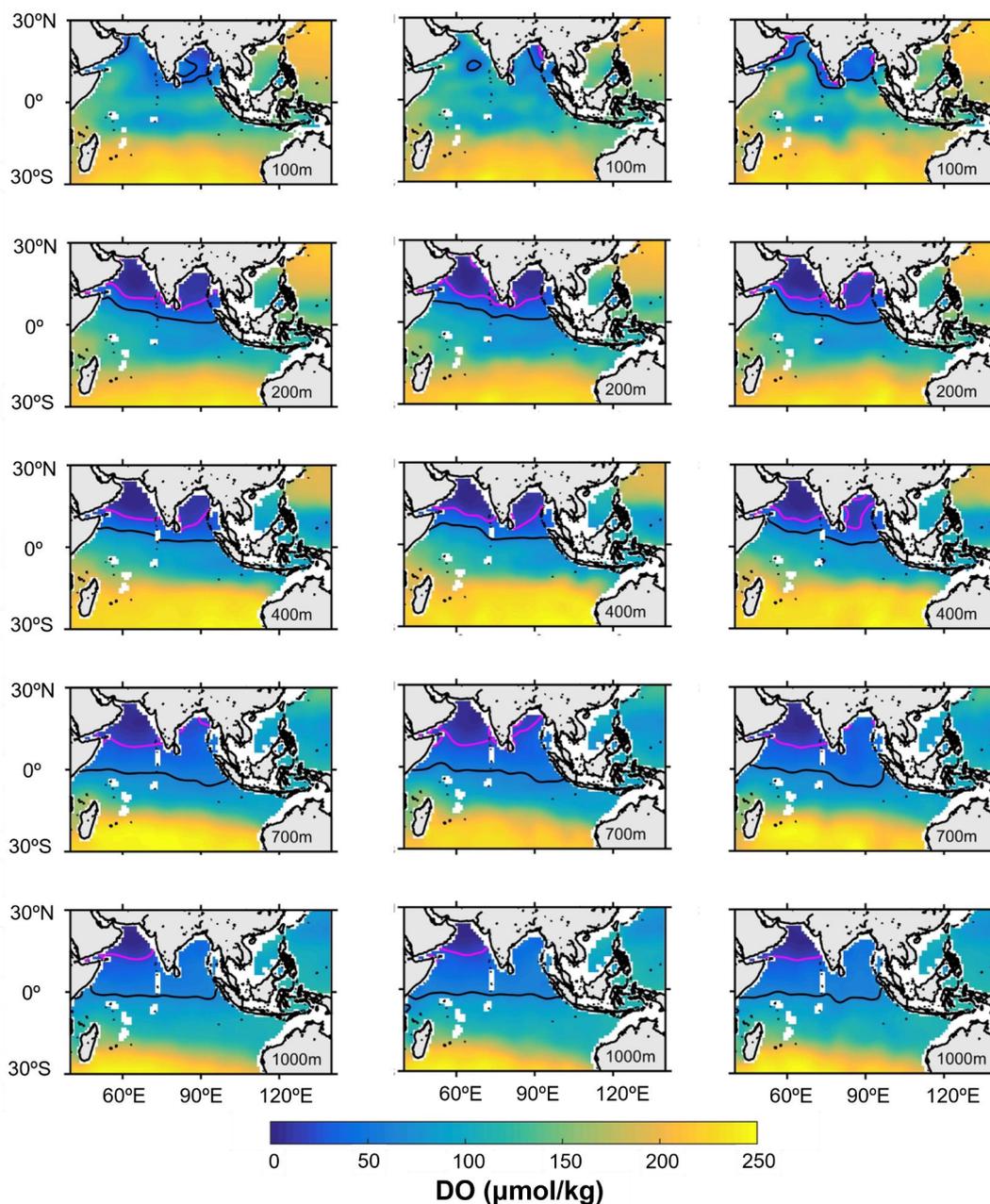


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748 **Figure 2.** Relationships between potential temperature, salinity and DO at compiled stations of the

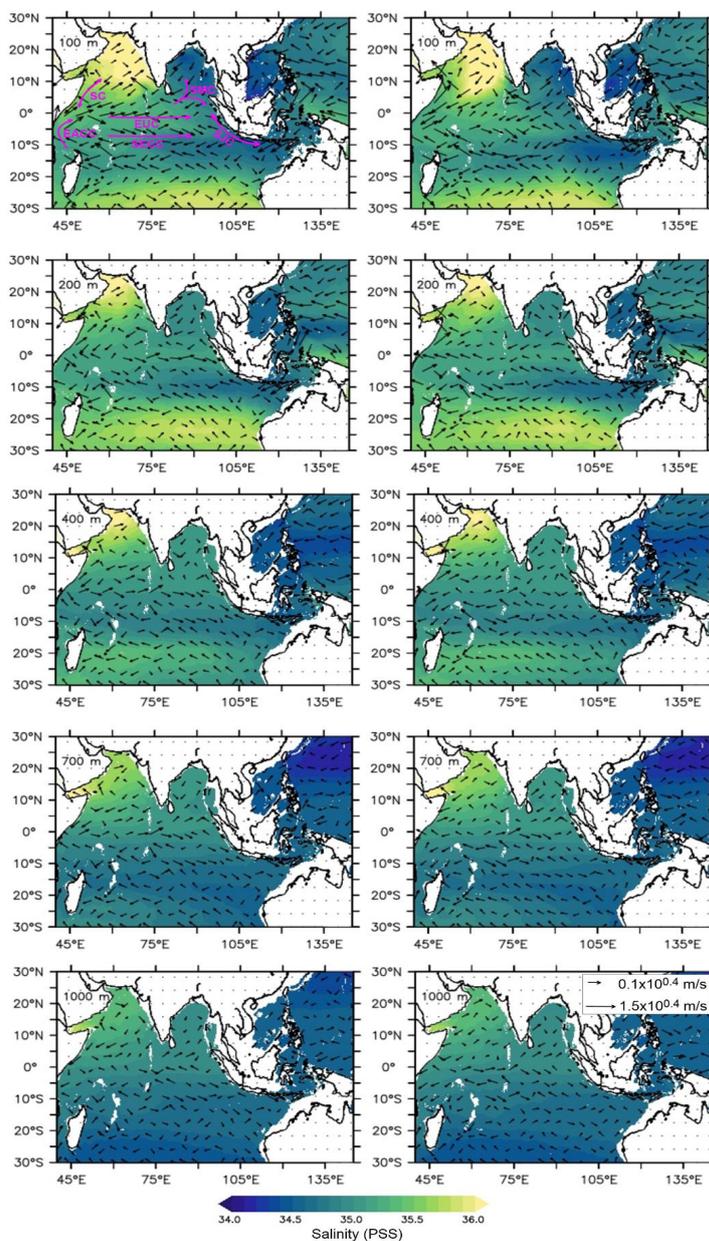
749 2010-2022 cruises.





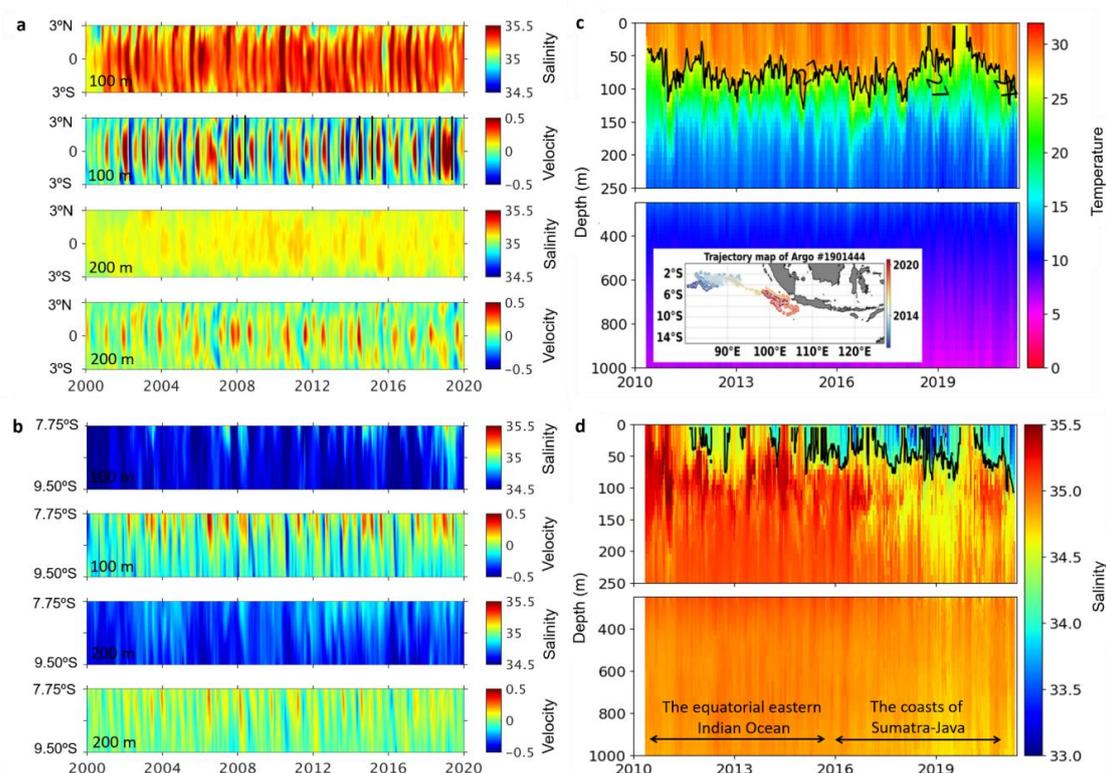
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756 **Figure 4. (Left)** Annual climatology DO concentrations across depths at 100, 200, 400, 700 and 1,000  
757 m. **(Center)** Boreal winter (Jan-Mar) climatology DO. **(Right)** Boreal summer (July-Sept) climatology  
758 DO. The black and purple lines denote the OLZ ( $\text{DO}=60 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ ) and the OMZ ( $\text{DO}=22 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ ), respectively. DO data of WOA18.  
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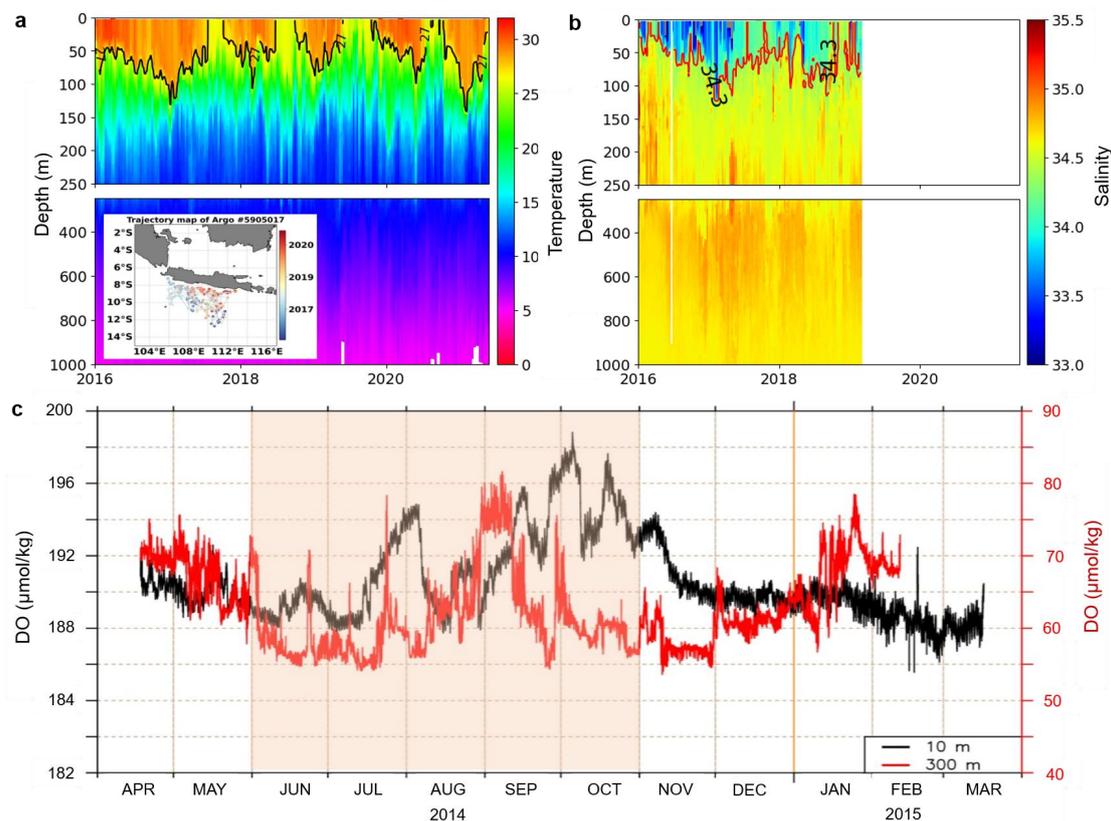
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761 **Figure 5. (Left)** Salinity (color) and currents (arrows) in the Indian Ocean across depths at 100, 200,  
762 400, 700 and 1,000 m the boreal winter (Jan-Mar). **(Right)** Similarly for the boreal summer (July-  
763 Sept). Equatorial ocean currents in the Indian Ocean are shown in the upper left panel: the Somali  
764 Current (SC), the East Africa Counter Current (EACC), the Equatorial Under Current (EUC), the South  
765 Equatorial Under Current (SEUC), and South Java Current (SJC). Salinity and currents data of  
766 CMEMS.



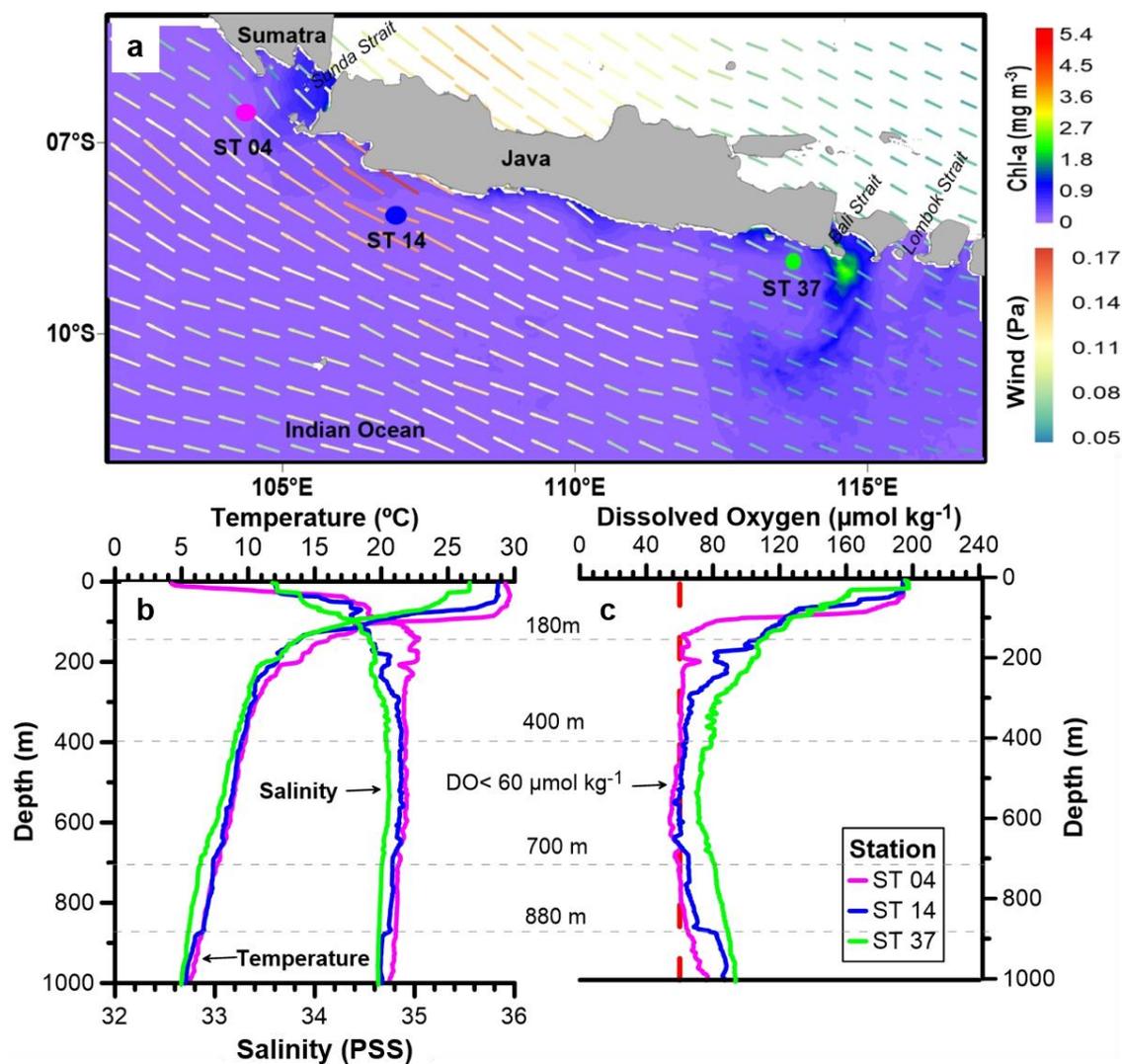
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768 **Figure 6.** (a) Salinity (PSS) and velocity ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) in the equatorial Indian Ocean ( $3^{\circ}\text{N}$ - $3^{\circ}\text{S}$ ,  $80.5^{\circ}\text{E}$ ) at  
769 100 m and 200 m depths. (b) Similarly in southern Java ( $7.75$ - $9.5^{\circ}\text{S}$ ,  $107^{\circ}\text{E}$ ). Salinity and currents data  
770 of CMEMS. (c) *In situ* temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) from the Argo float ID #1901444 in the eastern Indian Ocean.  
771 (d) Similarly for salinity.



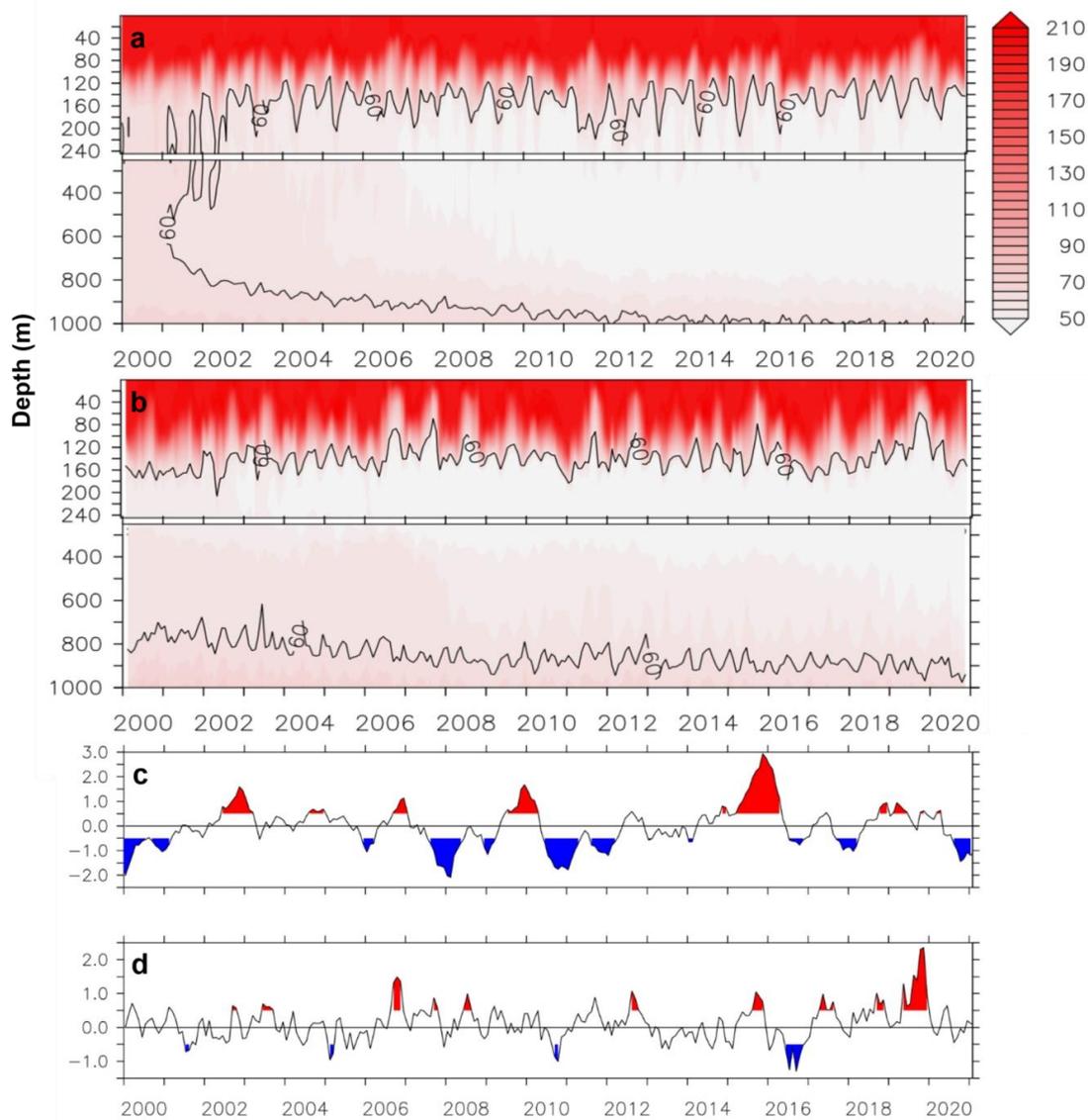
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773 **Figure 7.** (a) *In situ* temperature in the southern Java from the Argo float ID #5905017. (b) Similarly  
774 for salinity. The black and red line mark the 27°C isotherm and 34.3 PSS isohaline, respectively. (c)  
775 DO measurements from a RAMA buoy in southern Java from April 2014 to March 2015 at 10 m  
776 (black) and 300 m (red) depths. Shaded in panel (c) denotes upwelling season.



777

778 **Figure 8.** (a) Locations of observational stations 04, 14 and 37 in southern Java during the July 2022  
779 cruise with mapped chlorophyll-a (colors) and westward wind stress (arrows). (b) Vertical profiles of  
780 temperature and salinity. (c) Vertical profile of DO. The chlorophyll-a and westward wind stress data  
781 of NOAA.



782

783 **Figure 9.** (a) Comparison of DO ( $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ ) in western Sumatra (3°S, 98°E) between 2000-2020  
784 against the IOD and ENSO shown in panels c and d, respectively. (b) Similarly in southwestern Java  
785 (7.75°S, 107°E). Black lines mark the OLZ ( $\text{DO} = 60 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ ) thresholds. IOD and Niño 3.4 indices  
786 apply the  $\pm 0.5^\circ\text{C}$  thresholds.