



Vertical Fluxes of Dissolved Oxygen Driven by Turbulence and Diapycnal Mixing in Patagonian Fjords

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Abstract.

A global inventory of oceanic dissolved oxygen (DO) indicates that only 0.6% of the ocean's oxygen originates from the atmosphere. This makes the ocean highly sensitive to both natural and anthropogenic disturbances that can disrupt the physical and biogeochemical processes governing oceanic DO dynamics. The impact of ocean deoxygenation has accelerated globally, driven by warming and diminishing deep-water ventilation. Therefore, the primary objective of this work is to quantify, for the first time, the contribution of the dissipation of turbulent kinetic energy and the diapycnal eddy diffusivity (diapycnal mixing) to water ventilation, as evidenced by the occurrence of upward oxygen transport from deep to subsurface layers denoted as positive dissolved oxygen fluxes in the northern Patagonian fjords. A vertical microstructure profiler was used to measure, with high vertical resolution, the dissipation rate of turbulent kinetic energy and the oxygen characteristics of water at approximately 160 stations in the northern Patagonian fjords during seasonal campaigns in 2023. The results showed a range of dissipation between 10^{-9} and 10^{-4} $W\ kg^{-1}$, and diapycnal mixing values ranging from 10^{-5} to 10^{-2} $m^2\ s^{-1}$. The highest values of both variables were recorded in the Chiloé Inner Sea, where previously reported intense mixing has been attributed to tidal energy. Regarding oxygen flux records, larger positive fluxes were reported in the surface layer (10^{-5} and 10^{-3} $\mu mol\ L^{-1}\ s^{-1}$). Still, significant events of positive fluxes were recorded subsurface and in the deep layers of the Puyuhuapi Fjord due to intense diapycnal mixing forced by the advection of dense ocean waters. Moreover, intense turbulence contributes to positive oxygen fluxes over more of the water column than just the surface layer, especially in the Chiloé Inner Sea, driven by the interaction between the semidiurnal tides with the complex topography of the region. Moreover, double-diffusive convection appeared to be another mechanism favoring deep-water ventilation. Our results



35 highlight the importance of incorporating turbulence measurements into fjord studies to understand sensitivity to significant
36 oxygen variability.

37 1 Introduction

38 Hypoxic conditions and lower dissolved oxygen (DO) levels in coastal waters has expanded rapidly worldwide over the
39 past decades, mainly due to increased anthropogenic activities. However, these conditions can also result from natural
40 causes, of which ocean physical processes play a significant role (Conley et al., 2009; Breitburg et al., 2018). Globally, a
41 change in ocean ventilation due to warming has been found to be one of the leading causes of DO loss (2%) over the last 50
42 years (Schmidtko et al., 2017). Considering more local scales, the reduction of DO can significantly higher than the global
43 average and can differ greatly between basins, e.g., DO loss between 40-50% in the Gulf of St. Lawrence and Monterey Bay,
44 21% in the Southern California Bight, 22%, and 16% in the Southern Ocean (Levin 2018). Fjord ecosystems are also
45 affected by hypoxic conditions (DO values below 2 ml L⁻¹, 30 % oxygen saturation, and/or 89 μmol L⁻¹), especially in areas
46 with irregular topography that can act to reduce or inhibit deep-water ventilation (Jackson et al., 2021; Aksnes et al., 2023;
47 Solas et al., 2024). In the Patagonian fjords, hypoxic conditions were first reported in 1970 by the Hudson Expedition in the
48 subsurface layer (below 100 m depth) in Puyuhuapi Fjord and the adjacent Jacaf Channel (Linford et al., 2023 and 2024).
49 Afterward, Silva and Vargas (2014), Schneider et al. (2014), Pérez-Santos et al. (2018), and Pinilla et al. (2020) again
50 reported hypoxia in both areas during sporadic oceanographic cruises conducted from 1995 to 2012. Additionally, hypoxic
51 water was observed in the Almirante Montt Gulf (51.8° S/72.8° W) in southern Patagonia (Silva and Vargas, 2014). .

52 The studies on hypoxic conditions and low DO waters in Patagonian fjords has allowed for the determination of
53 which oceanographic processes contribute to variability, in particular decreases, in DO, highlighting 1) the advection of
54 hypoxic and lower DO waters by the Equatorial Subsurface Water Mass (ESSW), 2) oxygen consumption during community
55 respiration due to the degradation of autochthonous and allochthonous organic matter, and 3) longer residence times (Linford
56 et al., 2024). Moreover, oxygenated subsurface water enters the Patagonian fjords from the Subantarctic region, specifically
57 the Subantarctic Water Mass (SAAW). Additionally, surface oxygenated waters enter the fjords due to the supply of colder,
58 fresher estuarine water from river discharge and ice melting that occurs every spring and summer. Finally, vertical mixing
59 between the SAAW and estuarine water contributed to the origin of the Modified Subantarctic water mass (MSAAW)
60 (Siersvers and Silva, 2008; Pérez-Santos et al., 2014; Pérez-Santos et al., 2021; Linford et al., 2023, 2024). The Patagonian
61 fjords are among the few fjord systems worldwide where water masses with both low and high DO interact. Still, the
62 mechanisms involved in controlling this interaction and their implications for water column ventilation remain insufficiently
63 understood, which motivates the present manuscript.

64 Turbulence in the ocean has been widely explored and documented since the beginning of the vertical microstructure
65 profiler era. However, its implications for re-oxygenation and water column ventilation in Patagonian fjords have not yet
66 been directly examined. In terms of values, the lower dissipation rate of turbulent kinetic energy (ϵ) was registered in the
67 deep sea with $\epsilon=5\times 10^{-10}$ W kg⁻¹, followed by $\epsilon=3\times 10^{-9}$ and 10^{-8} W kg⁻¹ in the permanent and seasonal thermocline, around



68 $\varepsilon=3\times 10^{-7}$ W kg⁻¹ in the mixed layer, and finally, the higher values are reported in tidal channels with $\varepsilon=5\times 10^{-4}$ W kg⁻¹
69 (Thorpe 2005). In Patagonian fjords, the first turbulence measurements were collected with a Self Contained Autonomous
70 MicroProfiler (SCAMP), allowing the estimation of ε by fitting a theoretical Bachelor spectrum to scalar temperature or
71 salinity values (Ruddick et al. 2000; Luketina and Imberger 2001; Steinbuck et al. 2009). The results showed a range of
72 dissipation estimates, $\varepsilon=10^{-5}$ - 10^{-3} W kg⁻¹, and of diapycnal eddy diffusivities (diapycnal mixing) between 10^{-6} and 10^{-3} m² s⁻¹
73 (Pérez-Santos et al., 2014). Moreover, latter mechanical turbulence was measured with a high-resolution coastal turbulence
74 profiler (e.g., VMP-250) which registered values of dissipation up to $\varepsilon=10^{-5}$ W kg⁻¹ and diapycnal mixing values of 10^{-3} m² s⁻¹
75 ¹. These intense turbulence dissipation values were collected in the Puyuhuapi Fjord and the sill of the Jacaf channel, which
76 favored vertical mixing and, therefore, the aggregation of zooplankton and fish (Pérez-Santos et al., 2018). Additionally,
77 directed measurements of turbulence with a VMP-500 on the eastern side of the Magellan Strait found less intense
78 turbulence with $\varepsilon=10^{-8}$ - 10^{-7} W kg⁻¹ and diapycnal mixing in the order of 10^{-3} m² s⁻¹, but close to the seabed, turbulence was
79 stronger with $\varepsilon=10^{-3}$ W kg⁻¹ (Lozovatsky et al., 2024). Finally, the Patagonian fjords and channels are a primary candidate
80 for studying the implications of turbulence on oxygen fluxes and, therefore, water column ventilation as has been done in
81 previous studies in the Baltic Sea. In fact, Holtermann et al. (2022) quantified DO fluxes in the Baltic Sea using a turbulence
82 microstructure profiler coupled with a fast-response DO sensor. In the Baltic Sea, seasonal variability in turbulence and DO
83 flux was observed, with the lowest values recorded in summer. Additionally, mixing processes at the edges of the study area
84 were higher than those observed at intermediate and deep zones (Holtermann et al., 2022).

85 In addition to in situ observations, recent advances in high-resolution hydrodynamic modeling have enabled a more
86 detailed characterization of circulation, stratification, and mixing processes in the northern Patagonian fjords. MOSA, an
87 operational model, has successfully reproduced the two-layer estuarine structure and the seasonal variability of stratification,
88 demonstrating that the interaction between river discharge, tidal forcing, and wind that regulates both the intensity and
89 spatial distribution of vertical mixing (Ruiz et al., 2021). Regional simulations have further quantified subtidal mass and
90 property transport through the Guafo Mouth, highlighting the role of tides in modulating exchanges between the open ocean
91 and the inland system (Mundaca et al., 2025). In this framework, variability associated with the spring–neap tidal cycle
92 significantly alters available kinetic energy and current structure (Artal et al., 2019), suggesting a dynamical control on
93 mixing and ventilation processes. These studies provide the physical framework required to interpret the observed
94 distribution of turbulence and to assess its impact on vertical dissolved oxygen fluxes.

95 Therefore, the main goal of this work is to quantify the contribution of the dissipation rate of turbulent kinetic energy
96 and the diapycnal mixing to water ventilation, as evidenced by positive DO fluxes in the northern Patagonian fjords. To
97 complete this goal, a vertical microstructure profiler was used to collect turbulence, hydrographic, and DO data with high
98 vertical resolution (64–512 Hz) from the surface layer to 400 m depth. Additionally, a hydrodynamic model was used to
99 understand the drivers involved in the origin of intense turbulence and, consequently, the increase in oxygen fluxes.



101 **2 Data and methods**

102 **2.1 Data**

103 The *in-situ* hydrographic and micro-scale turbulence data were obtained at 56 stations distributed along the northern
 104 Patagonian fjords, covering a distance of ~950 km from the Reloncaví Fjord to the San Rafael Lagoon (Fig. 1a, Table 1). A
 105 vertical turbulence profiler model VMP-250-RDL (Fig. 2, <https://rocklandscientific.com/products/profilers/vmp-250>) was
 106 used for the collection of the datasets (Fig. 1b). This instrument is equipped with high-response temperature (FP07) and
 107 water conductivity (SBE7) probes, as well as two vertical shear probes (which measure mechanical turbulence in the water).
 108 The Vertical Microstructure Profiler measured the vertical shear of horizontal velocity in two orthogonal directions ($\partial u/\partial z$
 109 and $\partial v/\partial z$) using two shear probes installed in the nose cone of the instrument (Fig. 2b). The instrument operated in a
 110 downward profiling mode, recording data at a sampling rate of 512 Hz as it descended at an optimal free-fall speed of
 111 approximately 0.7 m s⁻¹. At least two profiles were collected at each station to ensure data reliability and to assess temporal
 112 variability (Huguenard et al., 2019). As part of the data quality control procedures, a minimum profiling speed of 0.2 m s⁻¹
 113 and minimum profile duration of 20 seconds were required for a cast to be considered valid. For the computation of the
 114 Nasmyth spectrum, the dissipation length was set to 8 seconds. The high-pass filter cutoff frequency for the shear probe data
 115 was 0.4 Hz, the low-pass filter cutoff was 30 Hz, and the anti-aliasing filter cutoff was 98 Hz. Corrections for vibrations
 116 were performed following the method described by Goodman et al. (2006). Data were excluded when the instrument’s
 117 inclination angle exceeded 5% (Lueck et al., 2013), and post-processing followed the ATOMIX guidelines (Lueck et al.,
 118 2024).

119 In addition to turbulence measurements collected at 512 Hz the profiler includes additional sets of temperature and
 120 conductivity sensors (JAC-CT), chlorophyll-a, and turbidity sensors, all of which operate at a sampling rate of 64 Hz.
 121 Additionally, the VMP250-RDL has been equipped with a high-response RINKO dissolved oxygen (DO) sensor (63%
 122 response in less than 1 second in water). The profiler can be deployed to depths of up to 500 meters.

124 Table 1. Oceanographic campaigns carried out in northern Patagonian (PN) fjords and channels.
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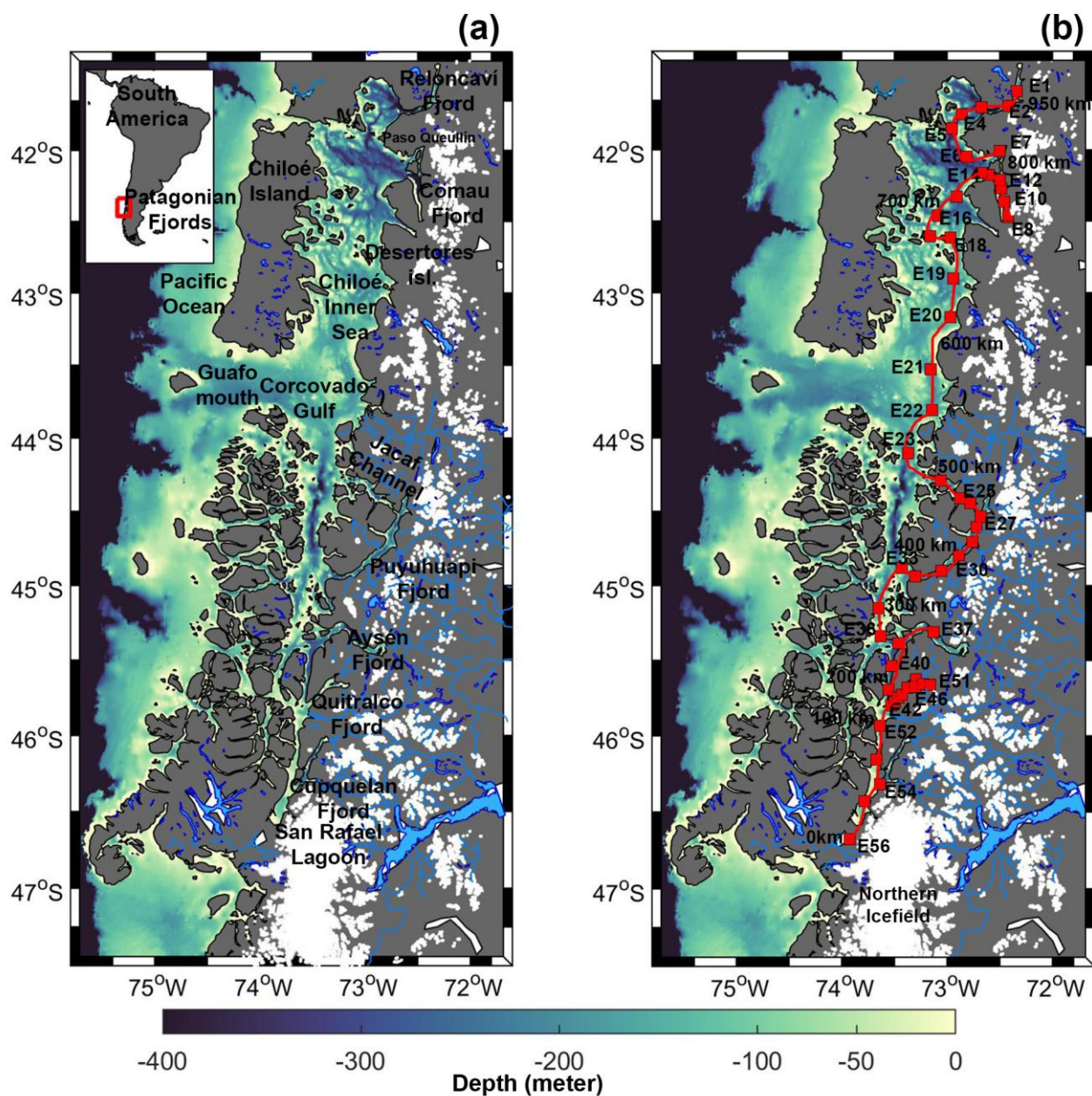
Expeditions (Austral seasons)	Date	# of Stations	Measurements	*Tidal Coefficient and Tidal moment
PN-Summer	March 04-19, 2023	52	Temperature, Salinity, and DO ₂	90 (higher) March 19, 2023
		47	Turbulence	Neap tides
PN-Fall	May 30-June 14, 2023	56	Temperature, Salinity, and DO ₂	61 (medium) June 11, 2023
		55	Turbulence	Neap tides
PN-Winter	August 6-20, 2023	56	Temperature, Salinity, and DO ₂	77 (high) August 6, 2023
		56	Turbulence	Neap tides

*Tidal coefficient obtained during Chiloe Inner Sea turbulence measurements (E8 and E10).

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128

129 **Figure 1.** (a) Map showing the fjords location in relation to South America and (b) the sampling stations carried out seasonality
 130 during 2023 in northern Patagonian fjords (all measurements described in Table 1). The rivers and lakes (blue), and snow cover
 131 (white) were added to the maps. The transect used to represent the results shown in Figures 3-6 is denoted with a continuous red
 132 line.
 133
 134



135 2.2 Turbulence measurements

136 The dissipation rate of turbulent kinetic energy (ε) obtained by the VMP-250 was derived from the vertical shear sensor
137 records, using the following equation:

$$138 \quad \varepsilon = 7.5\nu \left(\frac{\delta u}{\delta z} \right)^2, \quad (1)$$

139 where, ν is the kinematic viscosity, u is the horizontal velocity, z is the vertical coordinate, and therefore $\left(\frac{\delta u}{\delta z} \right)^2$ is the shear
140 variance.

141 2.3 Dissolved oxygen fluxes calculation

142 We apply the methodologies proposed by Valle-Levinson (2010) and Lefor et al. (2012) to quantify the processes
143 involved in DO variability (Equation 2).

$$144 \quad \frac{\partial O}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(K_z \frac{\partial O}{\partial z} \right), \quad (2)$$

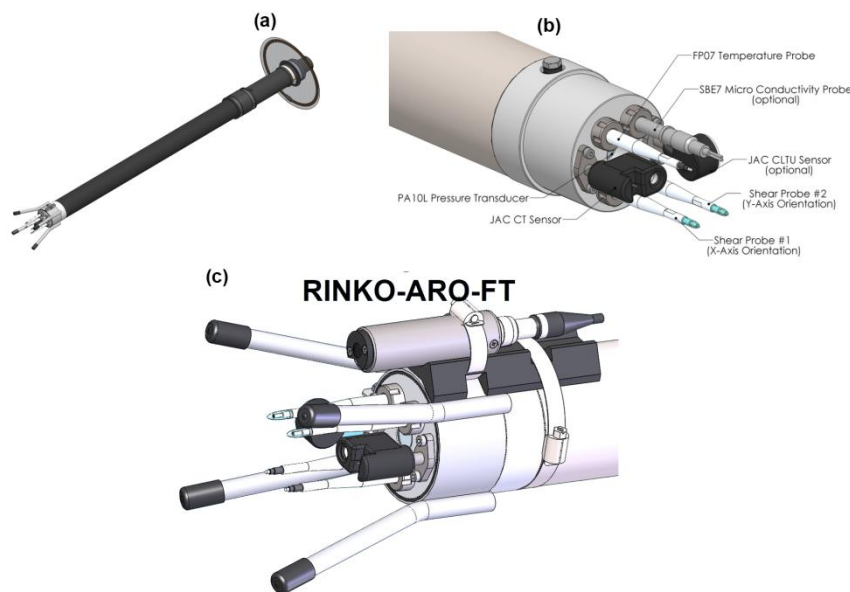
145 in which the mixing coefficient (K_z) can be calculated in terms of the diapycnal eddy diffusivity (K_ρ) and the vertical gradient
146 of DO ($\frac{\partial O}{\partial z}$) will be measured with a JAC-CT and DO RINKO sensor. The diapycnal eddy diffusivity was referred to along
147 the manuscript as diapycnal mixing.

148 The K_ρ was obtained from direct measurement of ε (Equation 1) using the VMP-250-RDL ($K_z = K_\rho$ and named in the
149 manuscript as K_{shear}). The most frequently used formulation for K_{shear} estimation is given by:

$$150 \quad K_{shear} = 2\nu \left(\frac{\varepsilon}{\nu N^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}, \quad (3)$$

151 in which $\nu = 1.9 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ and N is the buoyancy frequency (Osborn, 1980; Shih et al., 2005; Thorpe 2005; Cuypers et al.,
152 2011).

153 When $\partial O / \partial t > 0$, oxygen is being transported upward. This process results in the release of oxygen gas from the surface layer
154 into the atmosphere. An upward (positive) oxygen flux observed in deeper layers indicates that mechanisms are in place to
155 ventilate the subsurface water mass, allowing oxygen to move upward from these depths. In contrast, when $\partial O / \partial t < 0$, oxy-
156 gen is being transported downward. In this case, oxygen from the surface or upper layers is absorbed into the water body,
157 rather than being released into the atmosphere or to the subsurface layers. This distinction helps clarify how oxygen dynam-
158 ics can indicate whether a water body is losing, transporting, or absorbing oxygen at different depths.



159

160 **Figure 2. (a) Vertical microprofiler model VMP250-RDL with (b) two shear probes and one micro-temperature and micro-**
161 **conductivity probe incorporated. (c) A fast-response DO sensor was integrated to quantify DO fluxes with the same instrument.**

162

163 **2.4 Numerical model**

164 To complement field measurements and provide a regional-scale context, outputs from the South-Austral
165 operational model MOSA (Ruiz et al., 2021) were used. MOSA consists of two components: an oceanographic component
166 based on the Coastal and Regional Ocean Community model (CROCO, Debreu et al., 2012), and an atmospheric component
167 based on the Weather Research and Forecasting model (WRF, Skamarock et al., 2008). CROCO has a spatial resolution of 1
168 km and is configured with 42 terrain-following vertical levels. The bathymetric dataset was constructed from nautical chart
169 data from the Hydrographic and Oceanographic Service of the Chilean Navy (SHOA), complemented by data from the
170 General Bathymetric Chart of the Oceans (GEBCO) and local multibeam datasets. WRF has a spatial resolution of 3 km and
171 uses 32 terrain-following vertical levels. The performance of this MOSA configuration has been previously validated against
172 hydrographic and circulation observations (Ruiz et al., 2021). Regarding tidal forcing, ten principal harmonic constituents
173 (M_2 , S_2 , N_2 , K_2 , K_1 , O_1 , P_1 , Q_1 , M_f , and M_m) derived from the TPX07 barotropic tidal inverse model (Egbert and Erofeeva,
174 2002) are currently imposed without damping.

175 Atmospheric forecast outputs from the WRF model (wind stress, solar radiation, longwave and shortwave heat
176 fluxes, precipitation, and humidity) were used as surface boundary conditions for the ocean model. Similarly, oceanic
177 boundary conditions for the water column (temperature, salinity, sea level, and currents) were interpolated from the daily
178 $1/12^\circ$ spatial resolution Mercator-Ocean product (Dréville et al., 2008) at the open boundaries of the domain. A sponge layer
179 10 km wide was applied along the open boundaries to damp spurious noise and prevent the generation of artificial waves



180 caused by wave reflection at the domain edges (Penven et al., 2006). Each forecast cycle was initialized from the solution of
181 the previous forecast to ensure dynamical continuity. Lastly, freshwater input in the model is derived from the daily
182 climatology of 37 rivers in Chilean Patagonia, based on the FLOW hydrological model (Moreno-Meynard et al., 2024).

183 To highlight the high current energy within the Chiloé Inland Sea and to characterize mesoscale variability in the
184 area, mean kinetic energy (MKE) and mean eddy kinetic energy (MEKE) were calculated. These calculations were based on
185 the seasonally averaged simulated currents from the 2023 MOSA outputs. Summer was defined as the period from January 1
186 to March 30, autumn from April 1 to June 30, and winter from July 1 to September 30. MKE and MEKE were calculated as
187 follows:

$$MKE = \frac{1}{2}(u^{-2} + v^{-2}) \quad (4)$$

188

$$MEKE = \frac{1}{2}(u'^{-2} + v'^{-2}). \quad (5)$$

189 where u and v are the zonal and meridional components of the surface current, respectively; \bar{u} and \bar{v} are the mean velocities;
190 and $u' = u - \bar{u}$, $v' = v - \bar{v}$.

191 To explicitly characterize tidal forcing, a harmonic analysis of the simulated hourly depth-averaged currents was
192 performed using the T_TIDE package (Pawlowicz et al., 2002). The principal semidiurnal constituent (M_2) was extracted at
193 each grid point, obtaining the amplitudes of the zonal and meridional velocity components (A_u and A_v , respectively). From
194 these components, the kinetic energy associated with the M_2 tidal current was estimated as:

$$KE_{M_2} = 0.25(A_u^2 + A_v^2) \quad (6)$$

195 representing the time-averaged kinetic energy of a sinusoidal velocity signal. This metric was used to assess the spatial
196 distribution of tidal energy and its relationship with observed turbulence.

197 **3 Results**

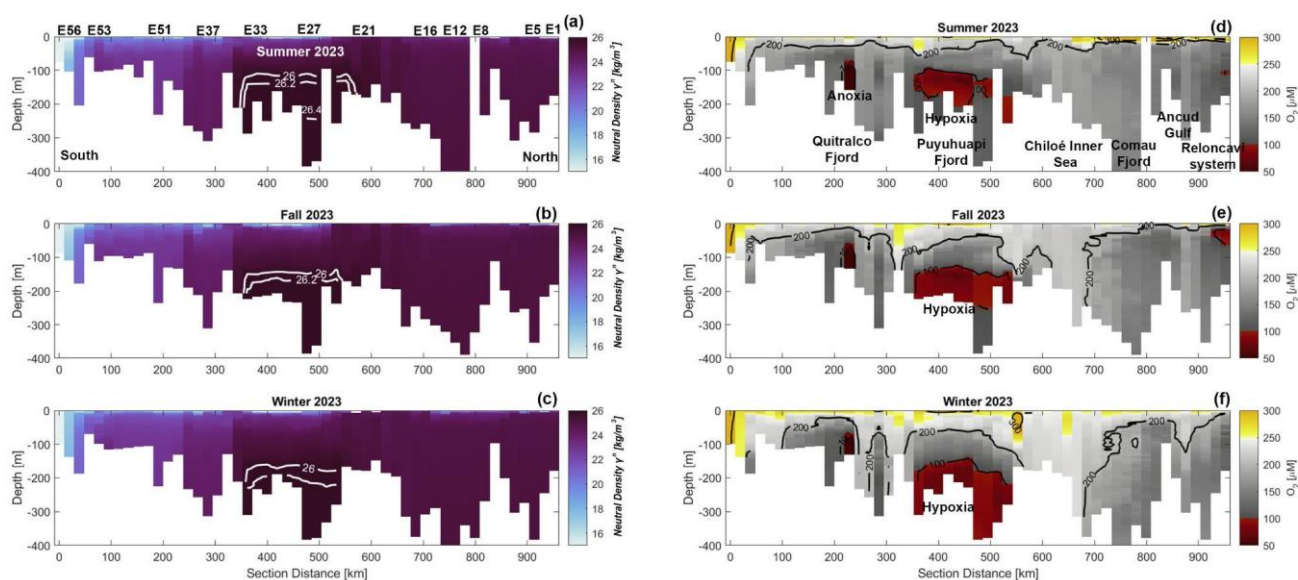
198 **3.1 Hydrographic conditions and DO distribution**

199 The vertical distribution of the water density anomaly generally showed less dense water (average of 10.5 kg m^{-3}) at
200 the beginning of the transect (station E56 in the San Rafael Lagoon, Figure 3a-c 0 km). This station (E56) is influenced by
201 ice melting from the San Rafael tidewater glacier (Figure 1c), which lessens density up to station E53 (e.g., Cupquellan
202 Fjord). Conversely, the densest water was recorded in the subsurface layer (below 100 m) of the Puyuhuapi Fjord, ranging
203 from $26\text{--}26.5 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ (350-550 km; stations E33-E21). The rest of the study area's density anomaly values ranged from 23 to
204 25 kg m^{-3} (Figures 3a-3c). In the case of DO distribution, oxygenated waters ($250\text{--}320 \text{ }\mu\text{M}$) were found in the surface layer
205 (0-50 m), and the water column was completely oxygenated in the San Rafael Lagoon (E56) and the Chiloé Inner Sea
206 (E16-E21), as a response to the mixing processes that will be discussed in the following sections (Figures 3d-3f). Moreover,



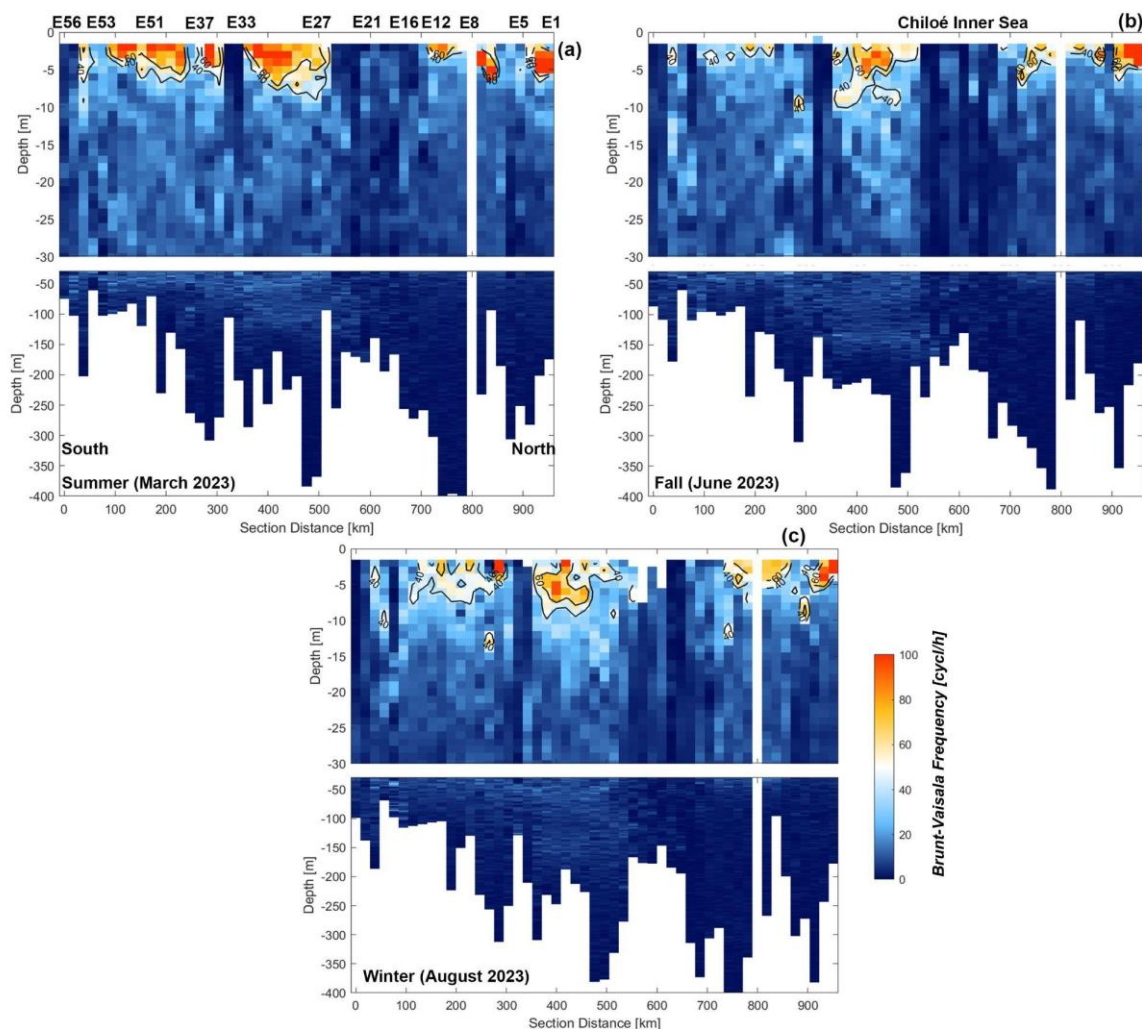
207 we observed poorly oxygenated water (60-100 μM) in the subsurface layer of Puyuhuapi Fjord that reached hypoxic
 208 conditions. At the same time, anoxia was only observed at depth in Quintralco Fjord during all seasons (Figures 3d-3f).

209 When comparing the density anomaly and DO distributions highlighted through the different seasons we found: (1)
 210 densest waters were found from the Chiloé Inner Sea (E21) to the Puyuhuapi Fjord (E27–E33) during all seasons. (2)
 211 Hypoxic conditions were consistently found at water depths between 150–350 m in Puyuhuapi Fjord, but this condition was
 212 reduced in summer 2023, where hypoxia was located higher in the water column between 100–150 meters. (3) This implies
 213 that the ventilation of deep water only occurred in Summer 2023 in Puyuhuapi Fjord, which coincided with the densest
 214 waters of each season analyzed (Figures 3a and 3d). The occurrence of deep-water ventilation during the summer season
 215 raises questions about its impact on the DO flux, motivating the following sections of the manuscript.



216
 217 **Figure 3. Seasonal vertical distribution of the (a-c) water density and (d-f) dissolved oxygen obtained from the San Rafael Lagoon**
 218 **(0 km, E56) to the Reloncaví Fjord (970 km, E1).**
 219

220 The calculation of the Brunt-Väisälä frequency to evaluate water column stratification indicated fully mixed water-
 221 column conditions in the Chiloé Inner Sea across all seasons (Figure 4), which correlated to the well-oxygenated water in
 222 this area (Figure 3d-3f). Additionally, the San Rafael Lagoon denoted thoroughly mixed conditions. At the same time,
 223 stratified waters were primarily located within the fjords, covering the top 10m of the water column, and exhibited higher
 224 values during the summer season. The oceanographic processes involved in the mixing and stratification of the water column
 225 will be examined in the discussion section.



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Figure 4. Seasonal records of the Brunt-Väisälä frequency along a vertical section in the northern Patagonian fjords (a) summer, (b) fall, and (c) winter during 2023.

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3.2 Turbulence and mixing coefficient

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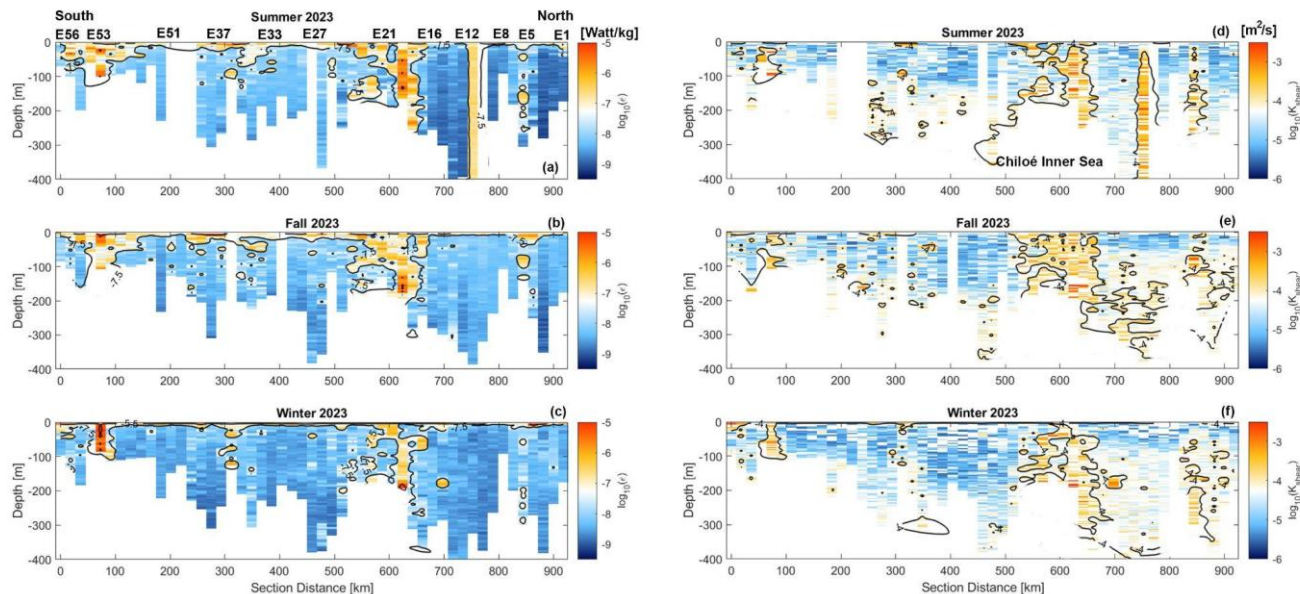
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As mentioned in previous sections, the Chiloé Inner Sea exhibited weak stratification and elevated DO values that extended throughout the water column (0-300 m) (Figures 3 and 4). The direct measurements of the dissipation rate of the turbulent kinetic energy (ϵ) revealed elevated turbulence mixing from stations E16 to E21, the area enclosed by the Corcovado Gulf and the Chiloé Inner Sea, throughout the year-round (Figure 5a-5c). In these areas, turbulent dissipation reached an absolute maximum of $4.5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ W kg}^{-1}$ in the surface layer during summer 2023 (Figure 5a). At station E5 (Paso Queullín) and station E53 (close to Cupquellan Fjord) high turbulent dissipation was measured during all seasons, while on average in the study area, turbulence ranged from $\epsilon=10^{-9}$ to $10^{-5} \text{ W kg}^{-1}$ (Figure 5).



238 The computation of the mixing coefficient calculated in terms of the diapycnal eddy diffusivity (K_{shear}) was
 239 interpreted as a competition between the turbulent mixing (Σ) and the stability of the water column represented by Brunt-
 240 Väisälä frequency (N^2), according to equation 3. The K_{shear} results showed higher values in areas where turbulent dissipation
 241 was intense, with K_{shear} in the range of $10^{-3} - 10^{-2} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Figure 5d-5f). The absolute maximum of K_{shear} was $2.03 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$
 242 in the deep layer (190 m) of the Chiloé Inner Sea during winter 2023, but also in March and June 2023, K_{shear} was elevated in
 243 this area and in the subsurface layer with K_{shear} ranging between $2.2\text{-}2.8 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$. Moreover, the K_{shear} was also high
 244 outside the Chiloé Inner Sea, highlighting the subsurface and deep layer of the Reloncaví system (E1-E5), Comau Fjord
 245 (E8-E14), and Puyuhuapi Fjord (E27-E33). We will now investigate how will these results impact the DO flux in the
 246 northern Patagonian Fjords.



247

248 **Figure 5. Seasonal vertical distribution of the (a-c) dissipation rate of turbulent kinetic energy and (d-f) diapycnal eddy diffusivity**
 249 **obtained from the San Rafael Lagoon (0 km, E56) to the Reloncaví Fjord (970 km, E1).**

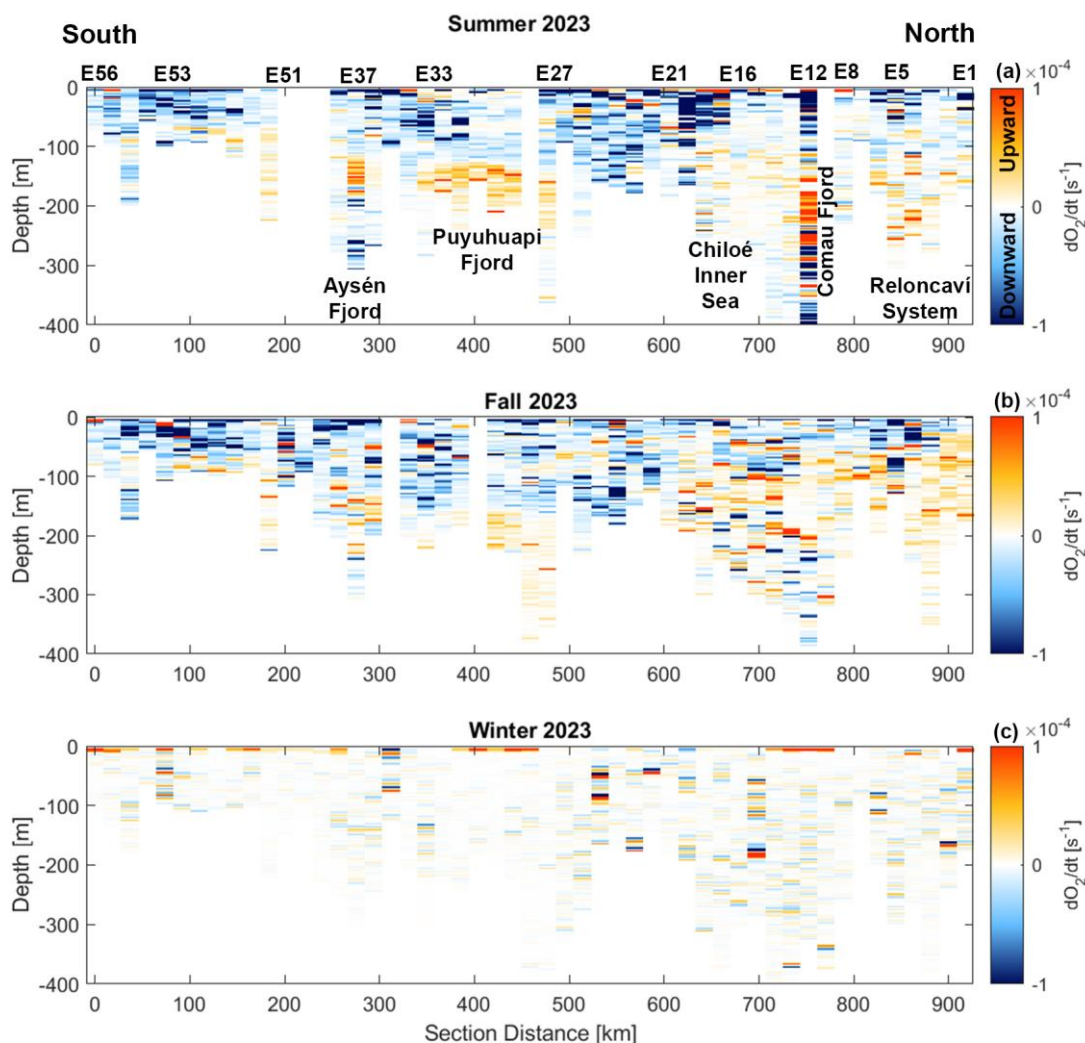
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251 3.3 Dissolved oxygen vertical flux

252 As expressed in equation 2, the dissolved oxygen flux depends directly on the mixing coefficient (K_{shear}) and the
 253 vertical gradient of DO. The computation of DO flux along the 2023 seasonal campaigns (summer, fall, and winter) denoted
 254 a high number of positive events of DO flux located mainly from the subsurface layer (down 50 m) to the bottom (Figure 6a-
 255 6c), located primarily in the waters of the Reloncaví system (E1-E5), Comau Fjord (E8-E12), Chiloé Inner Sea (E16-E21),
 256 Puyuhuapi Fjord (E27-E33), and Aysén Fjord (E37). The most intense positive DO flux was obtained in the Comau Fjord
 257 (E11-E12) during summer 2023, showing values of $2 \times 10^{-3} \mu\text{M s}^{-1}$ at 196 m, while in the Puyuhuapi Fjord (E27-E33), the
 258 deep area of positive values of DO flux expanded for about 100 km, between the 100-200 m (Figure 6a). Overall, these



259 results indicate persistent upward transport oxygen from deep to the subsurface layers, consistent with the ventilation
 260 patterns observed in several fjord systems.



261

262 **Figure 6. Seasonal vertical distribution of the (a-c) dissolved oxygen flux obtained from the San Rafael Lagoon (0 km, E56) to the**
 263 **Reloncaví Fjord (970 km, E1).**

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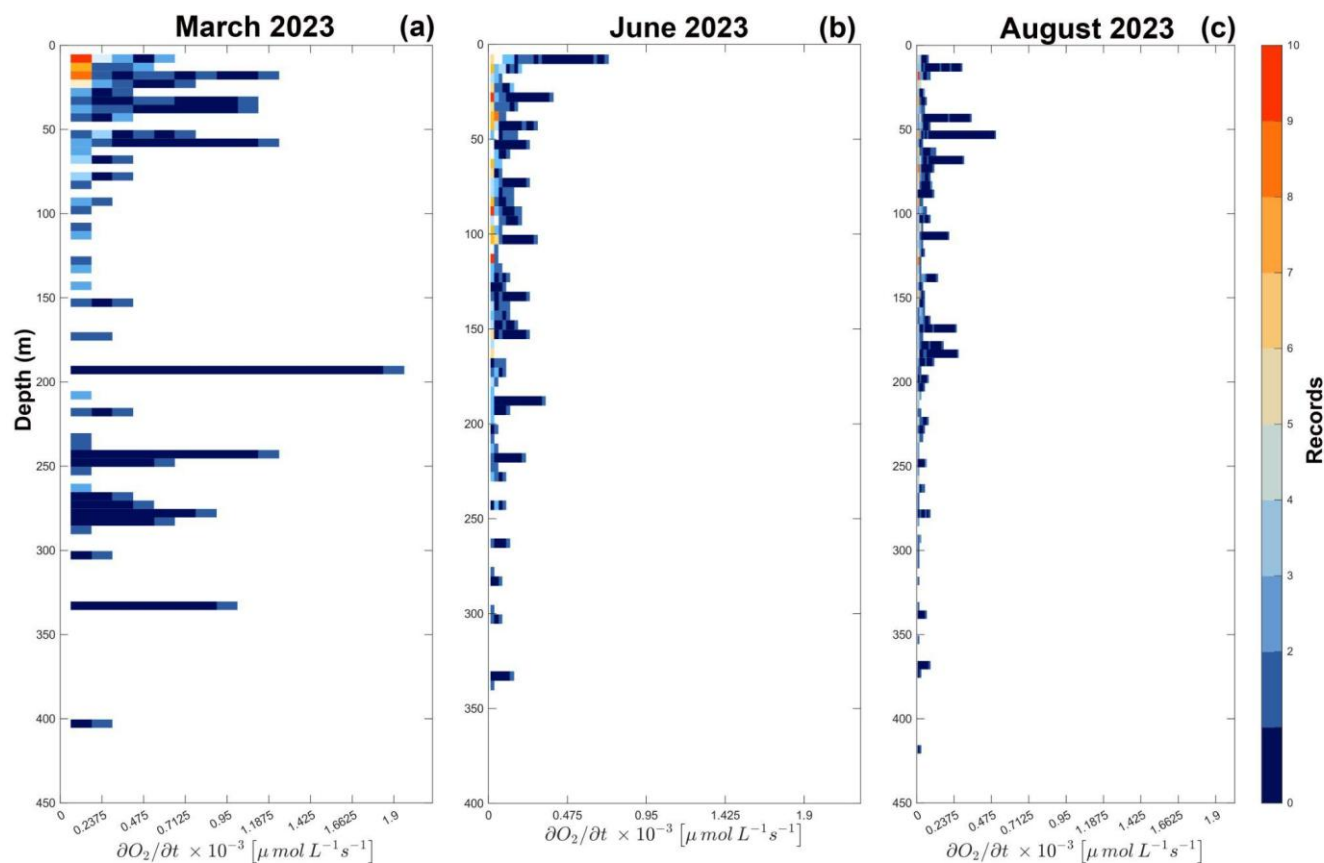
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A histogram of frequency was applied to the DO flux calculation to quantify the seasonal differences in vertical positive DO flux occurrence in the northern Patagonian fjords. The histogram showed a significant number of records of positive DO flux in March 2023 (summer), while fewer events were observed in winter (August) 2023 (Figure 7a-7c). In the case of events detected in March 2023, a first group of records was concentrated at the surface layer (0–60 m), and a second set of events was located between 200 m and 300 m depth, which could act as confirmation of the occurrence of DO flux in the ventilation layer observed and described in the Puyuhuapi Fjord and presented in the Figure 3a and Figure 6a. We will now investigate specific DO flux profiles along the study region to confirm this.

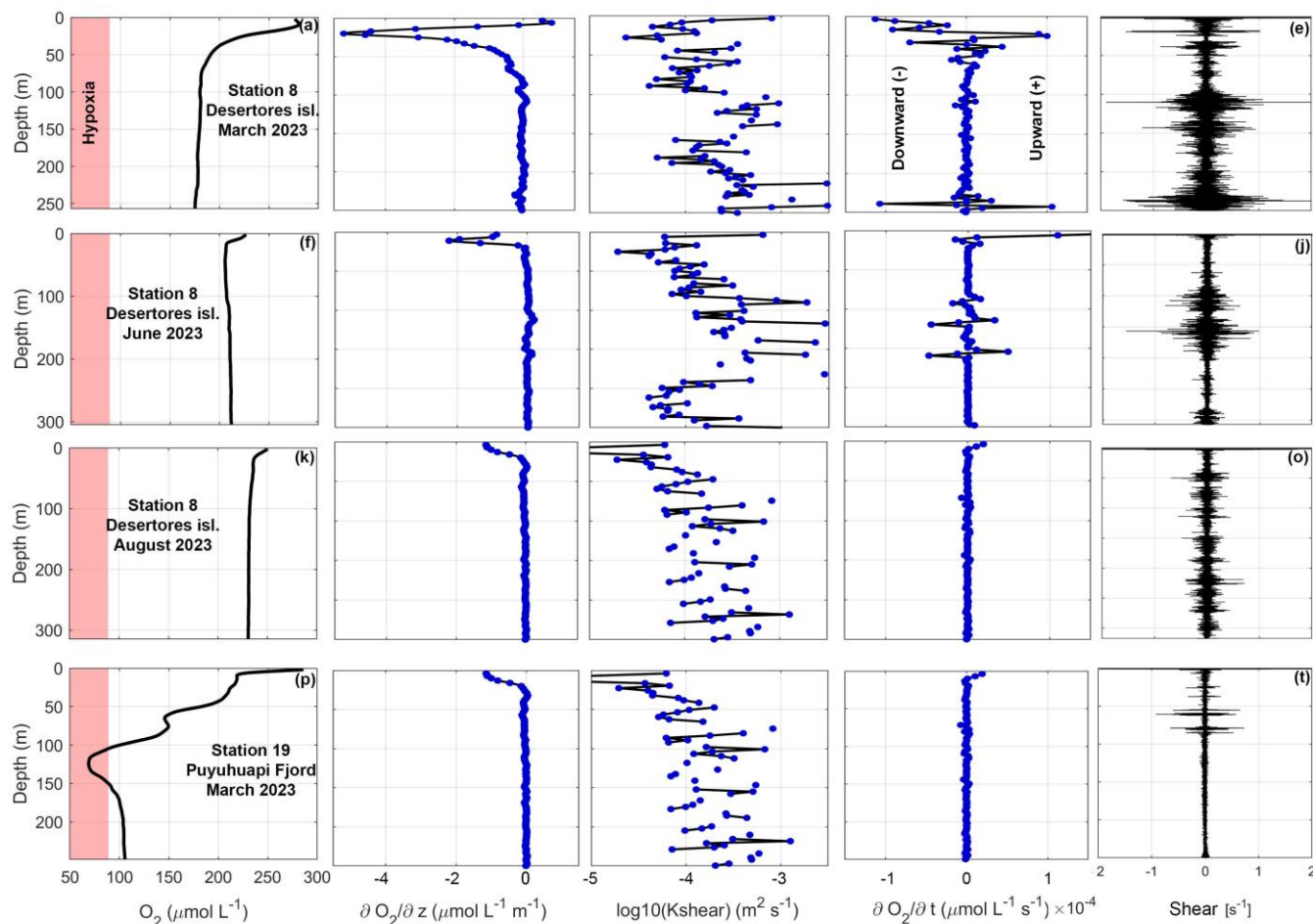


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Figure 7. Histogram of frequency of the vertical positive DO flux (upward) a in the northern Patagonian fjords during (a) summer, (b) fall, and (c) winter during 2023.

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A case study in Figure 8 clarified the processes involved in creating positive DO flux events. At station E8, located in the Desertores Island Passage, positive DO flux events coincided with the position where intense shear layers occurred, especially during March and June 2023, while in August 2023, turbulence was elevated homogenously over the water column, favoring positive DO flux (Figure 8a-8o). At station E19, located in the central basin of the Puyuhuapi Fjord, the intense shear layer again contributed to some positive DO flux events between the 50 m and 100 m depths. However, below these layers, turbulence decreased, and positive DO fluxes were observed (Figure 8p-8s). This relationship will be scrutinized in the discussion section. Finally, the case studies demonstrated the importance of an intense shear layer (turbulence) in generating positive DO flux events.



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285 **Figure 8. Examples of profiles of oxygen fluxes obtained at the intense turbulence mixing region in the Chiloé Inner Sea (E8) and**
 286 **in the hypoxic and ventilated region inside the Puyuhuapi Fjord (E19).**

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3.4 Numerical model support

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291 To characterize the general circulation and the spatial distribution of kinetic energy in the Chiloé Inner Sea (CIS),
 292 seasonal averages of the simulated surface currents were analyzed (Fig. 9). The magnitudes of the mean kinetic energy

293 (MKE) and mean eddy kinetic energy (MEKE) show moderate seasonal variability, particularly in the continental margin
 294 area of Chile on the eastern side of the domain (Fig. 9), which approximately corresponds to the locations of stations E5-

295 E20. A strengthening of the surface currents is observed in this eastern region ($\sim 72^\circ 52'W$), with values around 0.25 ms^{-1} in
 296 summer (Fig. 9a) and over 0.4 ms^{-1} in winter (Fig. 9c). In the northern sector, strong currents are consistently observed

297 across the three seasons, mainly associated with flow and circulation through the Chacao Channel. Another noteworthy
 298 feature is the enhancement of currents due to geomorphology visible during the summer near $42^\circ 45'S$, with velocities of

approximately 0.25 ms^{-1} . This current weakens during fall and transitions into a coastal flow that follows the Desertores

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300



299 Passage, skirts the Desertores Islands, and continues southward along the coast. No strong currents were observed within the
300 Comau Fjord or the Reñihué Fjord, suggesting that these current patterns following the bathymetry modulates water
301 exchange between the fjord region and the CIS.

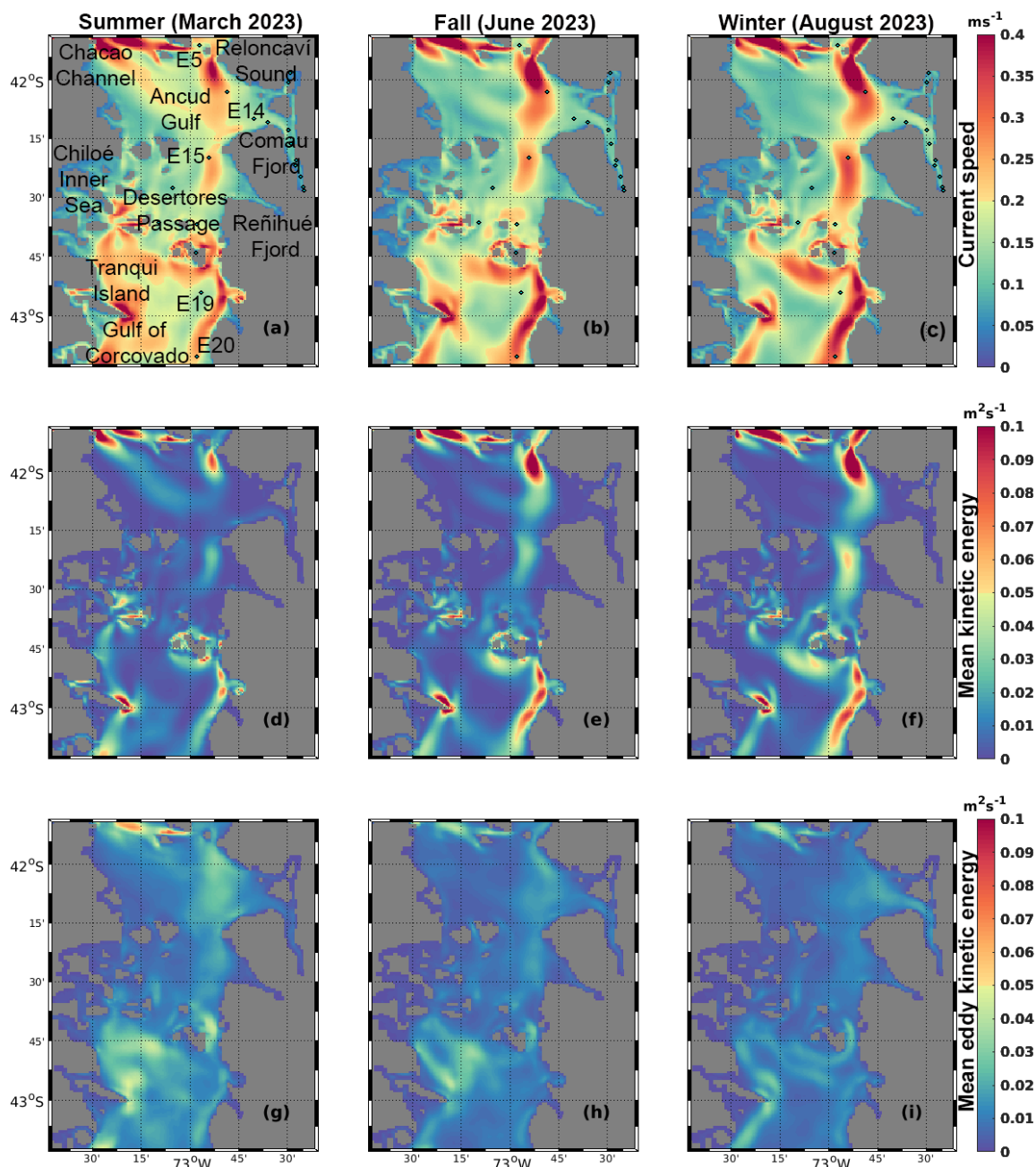
302 In turn, the spatial distribution of MKE closely follows the pattern of current magnitude, as expected. This
303 distribution also increases from summer to winter, revealing three highly energetic regions (Figs. 9d–9f): at the northern
304 boundary near the entrance to the Chacao Channel and the Reloncaví Sound; south of the Desertores Islands along the
305 eastern coastal margin; and around the northern and southern sectors of Tranqui Island. In contrast, MEKE shows a different
306 seasonal pattern, with relatively higher values in summer than in winter (Figs. 9g–9i). In all three seasons, elevated MEKE
307 values ($\sim 0.04 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$) are found in the Gulf of Corcovado, south of the Desertores Islands. High values are only observed
308 during summer in the frontal region west of the Comau Fjord and Reñihué Fjord, suggesting enhanced mesoscale variability
309 associated with seasonal frontal dynamics. Overall, the model results indicate that the CIS is characterized by persistent
310 energetic circulation and seasonally enhanced mesoscale variability. This energetic framework provides the background
311 conditions upon which high-frequency processes, such as tidal forcing, may contribute to the generation of strong shear and
312 turbulence.

313 To assess the role of tidal forcing, the principal semidiurnal constituent (M_2) was isolated from the depth-averaged
314 currents, and its amplitude and associated kinetic energy (KE_{M_2}) were computed (Fig. 10). Given the predominantly
315 barotropic nature of the M_2 tide in the study area and its weak seasonal variability, the patterns shown correspond to summer
316 (March) 2023, which is representative of the tidal energy distribution throughout the year. The distribution of the M_2 tidal
317 current amplitude (Fig. 10a) and KE_{M_2} (Fig. 10b) reveals multiple energetic hotspots, including the Guafo Mouth, the
318 Chacao Channel, the Desertores Islands, and several channels connecting the open ocean with the Moraleda Channel. These
319 regions coincide with areas of intensified flow identified in Figure 9, suggesting that tidal currents are locally enhanced by
320 bathymetric control and channelized circulation, creating favorable conditions for the generation of strong shear and mixing.

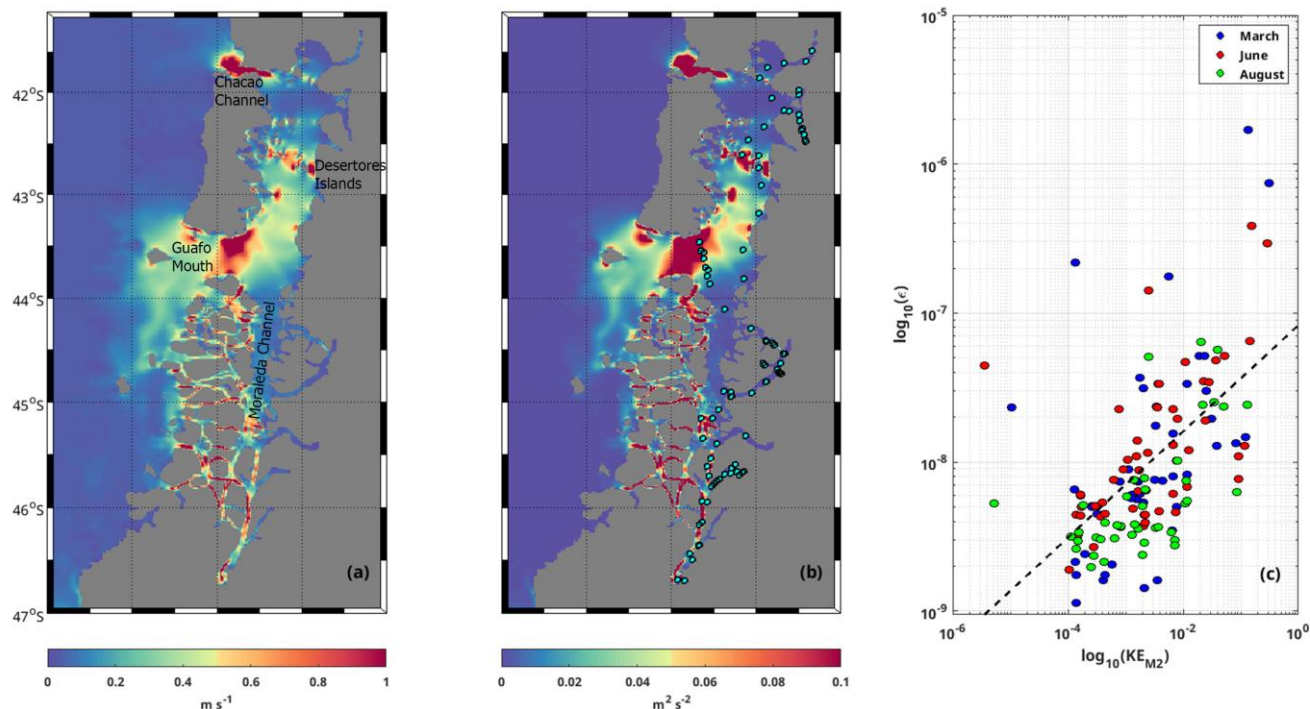
321 To quantify the relationship between tidal energy and turbulent dissipation, the median dissipation rate (ϵ) was
322 computed for each station from the vertical profiles obtained during the March, June, and August 2023 field campaigns.
323 These observational estimates were compared with the modeled tidal kinetic energy (KE_{M_2}), extracted from the nearest
324 model grid point to each station location (Fig. 10b). The relationship was evaluated in log–log space to better resolve the
325 wide range of variability (Fig. 10c). The results suggest a positive association between KE_{M_2} and ϵ , although with
326 considerable dispersion spanning one to two orders of magnitude for a given tidal energy level. Most observations are
327 concentrated at relatively low KE_{M_2} values, where ϵ exhibits high variability, indicating a strong influence of local processes.
328 At higher KE_{M_2} values, ϵ tends to reach larger magnitudes; however, the limited number of observations in this range
329 prevents the establishment of a robust scaling relationship. A least-square fit in log–log space yields a positive but weak
330 trend, with a sublinear slope (≈ 0.36) and a coefficient of determination $R^2 \approx 0.32$, supporting the idea that tidal energy
331 contributes to turbulence. Overall, these results are consistent with the spatial patterns described above; suggesting that while



332 tidal forcing provides an important energy source, the magnitude of ε is strongly modulated by local conditions such as
 333 stratification, bathymetry, and flow variability.



334
 335 **Figure 9.** Simulated surface current magnitude from the MOSA model within the Chiloé Inland Sea during (a) summer, (b)
 336 autumn, and (c) winter. Mean kinetic energy (MKE) for (d) summer, (e) autumn, and (f) winter. Mean eddy kinetic energy
 337 (MEKE) for (g) summer, (h) autumn, and (i) winter.
 338



339
 340 **Figure 10. (a) Amplitude of the M₂ tidal current (m s⁻¹) derived from harmonic analysis of depth-averaged model velocities for**
 341 **March 2023. (b) Kinetic energy associated with the M₂ tidal current (KE_{M2}, m² s⁻²), computed from the amplitudes of the zonal**
 342 **and meridional components. (c) Relationship between modeled KE_{M2} and observed turbulent dissipation rates (ε, W kg⁻¹) at**
 343 **station locations for March (blue), June (red), and August (black) 2023. Dissipation values correspond to the median of vertical**
 344 **profiles at each station, and KE_{M2} was interpolated from the model grid. Both axes in (c) are shown in log₁₀ scale. The dashed line**
 345 **indicates a least-squares fit in log–log space.**
 346

347

348 4 Discussion

349 Previous turbulence measurements in Patagonian fjords revealed intense mixing, particularly near fjord sills and in
 350 regions with irregular marine topography (Pérez-Santos et al. 2014; 2018). These findings highlight the important role of
 351 turbulence in promoting water column ventilation. However, the impact of turbulence and diapycnal mixing on gas fluxes,
 352 such as dissolved oxygen (DO), was not assessed in earlier studies. Addressing this gap is one of the principal motivations
 353 for the present manuscript. Seasonal data on hydrographic conditions, vertical shear, and dissolved oxygen were
 354 simultaneously collected using a high-resolution (64-512 Hz) turbulence profiler (VMP-250) throughout the fjords and
 355 channels of northern Patagonia in 2023. The results revealed intense turbulence in the Chiloé Inner Sea, which facilitated
 356 mixing across the entire water column (~200 m depth) and led to events of positive DO fluxes. Conversely, in the Puyuhuapi
 357 Fjord, elevated diapycnal mixing was primarily associated with changes in stratification and dense water intrusions, favoring
 358 subsurface and deep positive DO fluxes even when local dissipation rates were comparatively lower. These contrasting



359 behaviors suggest the coexistence of distinct ventilation regimes within the northern Patagonian fjords, motivating the
360 following discussion.

361 **4.1 Water column conditions and turbulence.**

362 The density anomaly distribution along the northern Patagonian fjords showed a clear seasonal correspondence
363 between the less-dense water (10 kg m^{-3}) and the oxygenated water column (90% saturation and $300 \mu\text{M}$), in particular near
364 the tidewater glacier of the San Rafael Lagoon. In contrast, dense waters coincided with subsurface and deep hypoxic
365 conditions observed primarily in the Puyuhuapi Fjord. Depending on the season, these dense and low-oxygen waters
366 extended toward the Jacaf Channel and the southern Corcovado Gulf (Fig. 3), reflecting variability in the exchange between
367 oceanic and fjord waters. Hypoxic conditions were reported in the Puyuhuapi Fjord back in the 1970s by the Hudson
368 expedition (Linford et al., 2023), before this area was used extensively for salmon aquaculture (Soto et al., 2004, 2021).
369 Moreover, a significant effort to understand DO distribution in Patagonian fjords was conducted during the 1990s and early
370 2000s by the CIMAR cruise, supported by the Chilean Navy (Siever and Silva, 2008; Silva, 2008). As one of the main
371 results of this initial effort, the relationship between the presence of low DO and hypoxic water regions and the position of
372 the salty, poorly oxygenated Equatorial Subsurface Water (ESSW) within fjords was identified (Silva, 2008; Silva and
373 Vargas, 2014; Schneider et al., 2014).

374 Additionally, Linford et al. (2024) demonstrated that not only did the ESSW contribute to hypoxic and low-DO
375 conditions in fjords, but also that these conditions are driven by the dominance of community respiration over gross primary
376 production, especially in the Puyuhuapi Fjord. On the other hand, the Chiloé Inner Sea (e.g., Desertores Island Passage)
377 showed higher values of DO from the surface layer to the bottom ($\sim 200 \mu\text{M}$) during fall and winter 2023 (Fig. 3e, 3f)
378 associated with lower buoyancy frequency values, evidencing a thoroughly mixed water column (Fig. 4). Ruiz et al. (2021)
379 computed the buoyancy frequency and potential energy anomaly in the northern Patagonian Fjords, identifying the Chiloé
380 Inner Sea as a region of persistent mixing, mainly explained by decreases in river discharge and intensified winds,
381 particularly during fall and winter. In addition to atmospheric and buoyancy forcing, the Chiloé Inner Sea is subject to strong
382 tidal currents and current–topography interactions that enhance vertical shear and sustain mixing throughout the year. In
383 contrast, during summer, thermal stratification dominated, coinciding with the distribution of the $200 \mu\text{M}$ oxycline shown in
384 Figure 3. However, the decreases in river discharge (Davila et al., 2002; Calvete and Sobarzo, 2011) and wind intensification
385 (Pérez-Santos et al., 2019; Soto-Riquelme et al., 2023) affect the entire northern Patagonian fjords systems during fall and
386 winter, with mixing conditions varying spatially and a majority of sheltered inner fjords remaining relatively stratified (Fig.
387 4). This spatial heterogeneity reflects differences in residence time and geometric confinement, as freshwater can remain
388 trapped inside fjords for extended periods, often exceeding 100 days (Linford et al., 2024), thereby maintaining vertical
389 stability despite seasonal atmospheric forcing. Lueck et al. (2013) proposed that in unsteady flow, the production and
390 dissipation of turbulent kinetic energy are nearly equal. In contrast, under stable conditions, approximately 20% of the
391 energy produced increases the fluid's potential energy, while the remaining 80% is dissipated as turbulent kinetic energy.



392

393 As a result of this study, in-situ turbulence measurements in the northern Patagonian fjords revealed, for the first
394 time, intense dissipation rates of turbulent kinetic energy ($\epsilon=5\times 10^{-10}$ W kg⁻¹) in the Chiloé Inner Sea (Fig. 5 , Fig. 7). This
395 elevated dissipation is identified as a key mechanism sustaining the persistent mixing conditions discussed previously and
396 reported by Ruiz et al. (2021), based on data from the oceanographic and operational MOSA numerical model. In addition,
397 other small areas exhibiting intense dissipation, such as Paso Queullín and the region between Quintralco Fjord and San
398 Rafael Lagoon, were also identified. These zones displayed higher diapycnal eddy diffusivity values, approximately 10^{-3} m²
399 s⁻¹ (Fig. 5), indicating enhanced vertical exchange across density gradients. Abrupt topographic changes (Fig. 1) and the
400 interaction of barotropic currents, modulated by semidiurnal tides with islands, passages, and channels appear to be primary
401 drivers of the intense turbulence in the Chiloé Inner Sea (Fig. 9, Fig. 10). The dominance of semidiurnal tidal currents in this
402 region has been documented by Artal et al. (2019), supporting the role of tidal forcing in sustaining shear-driven mixing.
403 Pérez-Santos et al. (2018) similarly observed intense turbulent mixing around a shallow sill at the confluence of the
404 Puyuhuapi Fjord and the Jacaf Channel. The dissipation rates of turbulent kinetic energy and diapycnal eddy diffusivity
405 reported by Pérez-Santos et al. (2018) were comparable to those recorded in this study. As a result, this turbulence
406 contributed to the aggregation of zooplankton and fish by enhancing nutrient injection into the photic layer, highlighting the
407 significance of intense turbulence in biogeochemical and biological cycles (Klymak and Gregg, 2004; Whitney et al., 2014).
408 Beyond the regions dominated by turbulence and high diapycnal eddy diffusivity, elevated values of this variable were also
409 observed in the subsurface layers of other areas. Notable examples are the Aysén, Puyuhuapi, and Comau fjords (Figures
410 5d–f), where buoyancy frequency likely modulates vertical mixing intensity. Together, these results indicate that spatial
411 contrasts in stratification, tidal forcing, and residence time jointly regulate oxygen renewal and vertical exchange processes
412 across the northern Patagonian fjords.

413

414 **4.2 Mechanisms involved in the origin of oxygen fluxes.**

415 The global decline in dissolved oxygen (DO) has become a major concern for the scientific community due to its
416 impacts on marine habitat quality and distribution, biodiversity loss, disease prevalence, greenhouse gas production, and
417 primary production (Bopp et al., 2013; Breitburg et al., 2018a, 2018b; Bhuiyan et al., 2024). Consequently, recent scientific
418 efforts have increasingly focused on identifying the mechanisms and drivers contributing to water ventilation. This process
419 helps balance the loss of oxygen and, in some cases, increases oxygen concentrations in subsurface and deep oceanic waters
420 (Fig. 6). In this context, we evaluate the role of mechanical turbulence and diapycnal mixing in enhancing DO
421 concentrations by quantifying DO fluxes using a VMP-250 microstructure profiler in selected areas of the northern
422 Patagonian fjords. These regions have historically exhibited hypoxic and low-oxygen conditions, as reported in previous
423 studies (Sievers and Silva, 2008; Silva and Vargas, 2014; Schneider et al., 2014; Linford et al., 2024). The results showed a
424 significant number of positive DO flux events in the Chiloé Inner Sea during summer and fall 2023, primarily explained by



425 intense turbulent mixing generated by the interaction of the semidiurnal tide with local topography, constituting the first
426 identified mechanism responsible for positive DO flux events in the northern Patagonian fjords. Numerical model results
427 indicated strong meridional currents at stations where enhanced shear layers were detected, particularly when the flow
428 crossed the Desertores Islands (Fig. 8). Intense zonal currents driven by passage and channel constrictions increased mean
429 kinetic and eddy kinetic energy (Fig. 9), thereby promoting turbulent energy dissipation in this area.

430 Furthermore, the numerical model highlighted the significance of the M_2 harmonic (Fig. 10) as a principal tidal
431 constituent influencing the circulation variability (Fig. 9), consistent with a previous barotropic tidal simulation of the Chiloé
432 Inner Sea (Aiken, 2008), and subsequent analyses of semidiurnal tidal variability in the region (Artal et al., 2019). The model
433 results indicate that the M_2 constituent plays a significant role in the tidal dynamics of the system, with differences in
434 amplitude, phase, and propagation of tidal constituents between the northern and southern Chiloé Inner Sea. Aiken, (2008)
435 showed that a resonance frequency close to the semidiurnal tide contributed to a higher amplitude of semidiurnal
436 constituents north of the Desertores Islands. In contrast, in the southern region, resonance was not observed due to numerous
437 channels and passages that facilitate the exchange of Pacific Ocean water with the fjord system. This mechanism is further
438 supported by recent modeling of subtidal transport through the Guafo Mouth, demonstrating that semidiurnal tidal forcing
439 modulates ocean–fjord exchange and associated property fluxes (Mundaca et al., 2025). Ross et al. (2025) utilized in-situ
440 data from an oceanographic mooring equipped with an Acoustic Doppler Current Profiler (ADCP) at the Guafo mouth to
441 demonstrate that subtidal processes are the primary drivers of exchange between the northern Patagonian fjords and the
442 adjacent Pacific Ocean. Additionally, high-frequency observations in Reloncaví Sound reveal pronounced diurnal–
443 semidiurnal shear and mixing linked to tidal dynamics, reinforcing the role of semidiurnal variability in structuring physical
444 and biogeochemical processes within the inner sea (Pérez-Santos et al., 2025). These findings are consistent with the results
445 presented here, where tidal energy contributes to turbulent dissipation, although its effect is strongly modulated by local
446 conditions.

447 The advection of dense water into the Puyuhuapi Fjord (Fig. 3a) leads to changes in subsurface and deep buoyancy,
448 enhancing vertical density gradients and promoting intense diapycnal eddy diffusivity (Fig. 5d). This process generates
449 positive DO flux events (Fig. 6a) and, consequently, reduces hypoxic conditions in the area (Fig. 3d), thereby constituting
450 the second mechanism involved in the origin of these events. For instance, Pinilla et al. (2020) reported a deep-water renewal
451 in the Puyuhuapi Fjord associated with increased inflow of dense water, which favors the formation of deep-oxygenated
452 waters. Additionally, Linford et al. (2023) and Ross et al. (2025) reported the significance of the oceanic–fjord interchange
453 through the Guafo Mouth, particularly the contribution of the oxygenated SAAW to ventilation and its distribution within the
454 Patagonian fjord system. Such renewal events represent a key ventilation mechanism that enhances deep oxygen
455 concentrations and improves overall water quality in fjord systems. Accordingly, deep-water renewals have long been
456 recognized as a fundamental process in fjord biogeochemistry, from early observations (Anderson and Devol, 1973) to
457 recent assessments (Salvanes et al., 2025).



458 Finally, double-diffusive convection (DDC), as measured by the Turner angle, may represent an additional
459 mechanism favoring positive DO flux in Patagonian fjords, particularly under stratification regimes established by dense-
460 water intrusions and subsequent vertical density gradients. Analysis of the dataset collected in this study indicates a
461 predominance of diffusive-layering over salt-fingering events (Figures A1 and A2 in the Appendix), with a substantial
462 number of medium- and strong-intensity diffusive-layering episodes identified in the study area, consistent with observations
463 by Pérez-Santos et al. (2014) in another Patagonian fjord. These conditions suggest that DDC may enhance vertical
464 redistribution of dissolved oxygen across stratified interfaces, potentially acting in concert with tidal mixing and deep-water
465 renewal processes described above. However, the specific quantitative contribution of DDC on positive DO flux remains
466 uncertain and warrants further investigation in future studies.

467

468 **5 Conclusions**

469 Hydrographic, turbulence, and dissolved oxygen data were collected using a vertical microstructure profiler in the
470 northern Patagonian fjords and channels to evaluate, for the first time, whether positive dissolved oxygen fluxes contribute to
471 deep-water ventilation in areas where poorly oxygenated and hypoxic waters have been observed. Measurements revealed
472 dense water in the Puyuhuapi Fjord and the Jacaf Channel, coinciding with regions of hypoxia. Furthermore, the extent of
473 hypoxic areas varied throughout the year under investigation (2023), with a marked reduction during the summer. Diapycnal
474 mixing was identified as a key process promoting positive dissolved oxygen fluxes in the subsurface layer of the Puyuhuapi
475 Fjord in summer (March) 2023. This process was facilitated by the advection of dense oceanic water into the fjord, thereby
476 reducing hypoxic conditions. In contrast, intense turbulence detected in the Chiloé Inner Sea was a major mechanism
477 associated with positive dissolved oxygen flux events across the seasons, linked to the interaction of semidiurnal tidal
478 currents with local topography. Together, these findings indicate that oxygen ventilation in northern Patagonian fjords is
479 governed by the interplay between barotropic tidal forcing, deep-water renewal, and stratification-controlled mixing
480 processes. The present study demonstrates the importance of utilizing a single instrument to evaluate the effects of
481 mechanical turbulence and diapycnal mixing on key gas fluxes (e.g., dissolved oxygen) that are crucial for sustaining marine
482 biodiversity and habitats, as well as for understanding the dynamics of globally distributed hypoxic areas. These results
483 contribute to a mechanistic understanding of how regional hydrodynamics regulate oxygen redistribution in semi-enclosed
484 coastal environments, which is essential for anticipating the response of fjord ecosystems to ongoing ocean deoxygenation
485 driven by climate change.

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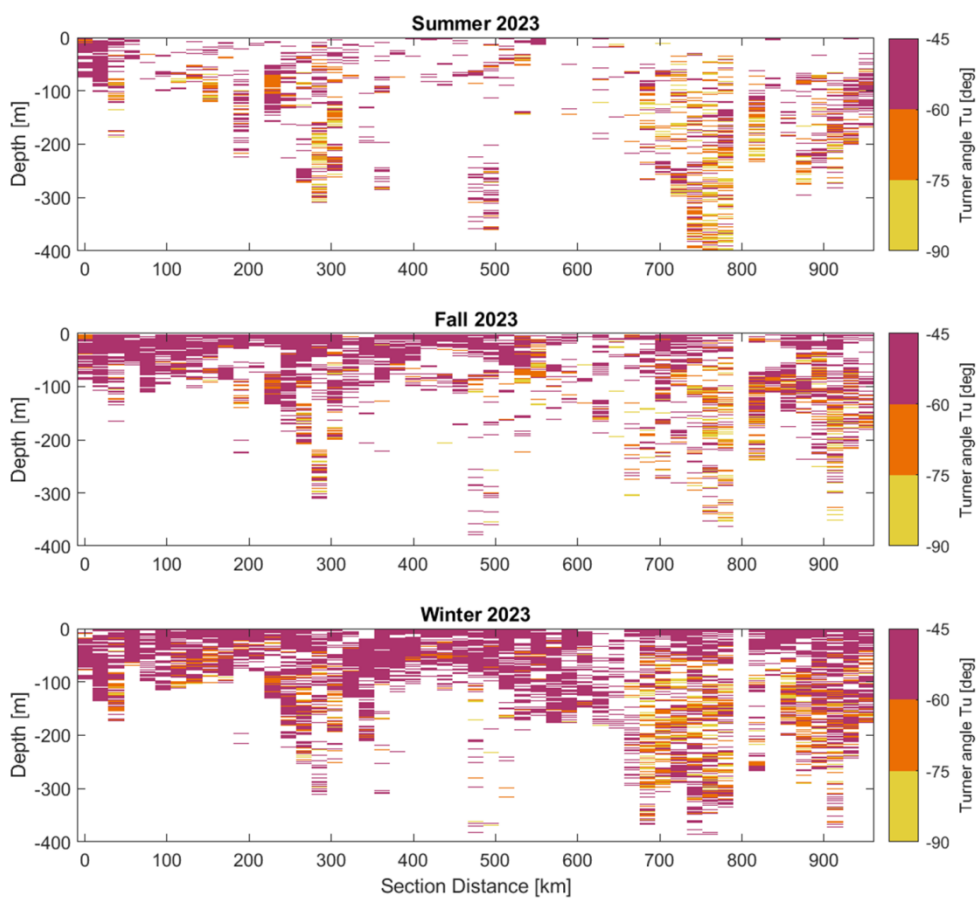
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APENDIX A

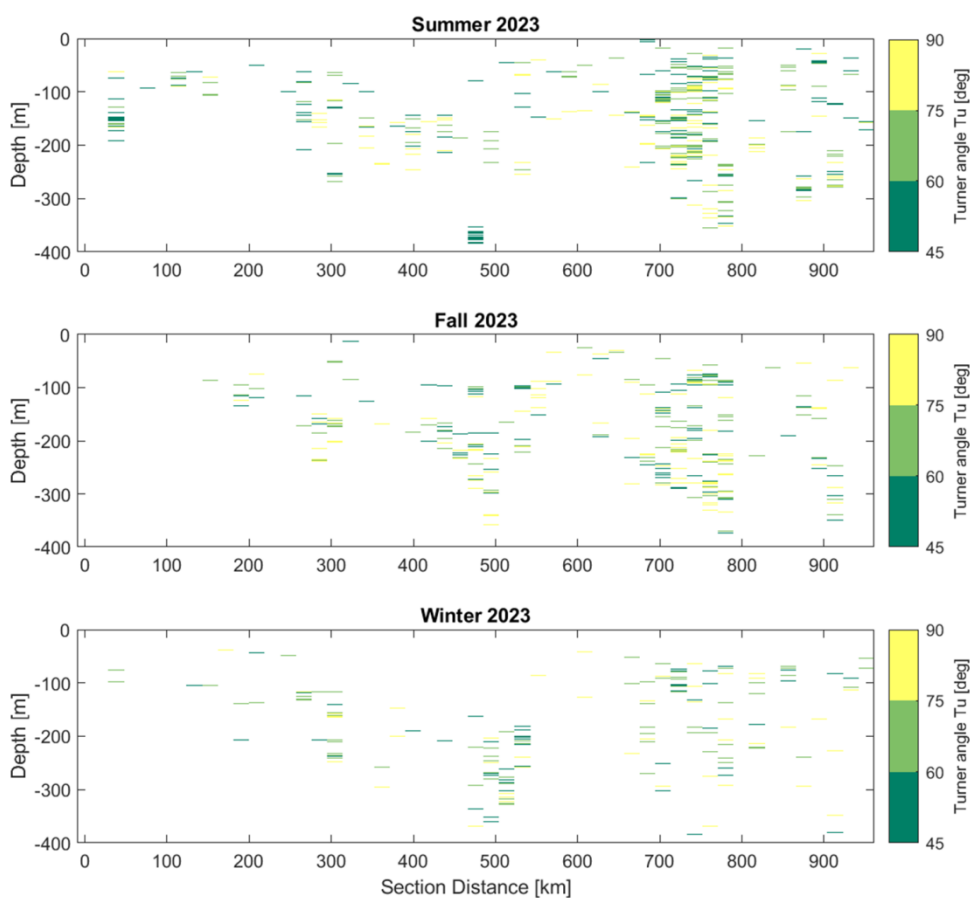


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492 **Figure A1.** Turner angle (Tu) calculation using the methodology proposed by You (2002), along a vertical section in the northern
493 Patagonian fjords during 2023. Results represented only the diffusive-layering events, divided into strong (Tu between -90° and $-$
494 75°), medium (Tu between -75° and -60°), and weak (Tu between -60° and -45°).

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497

498 **Figure A2. Turner angle (Tu) calculation using the methodology proposed by You (2002), along a vertical section in the northern**
499 **Patagonian fjords during 2023. Results represented only the salt fingering events (Tu between 90° and 45°).**

500 **Conflict of Interest**

501 The authors declare no conflicts of interest relevant to this study.



502 **Author Contributions**

503 IPS: led study design, collection and analysis of physical oceanographic, and manuscript leader. PL, LR, MR: analysis of
504 turbulence data, and manuscript revision. OA, EP: development and analysis of numerical model, and manuscript revision.
505 LR, PD, IM: manuscript revision. GM, GS: data collection. All authors contributed to the writing of the present manuscript.

506

507 **Funding**

508 Iván Pérez-Santos was funded by FONDECYT 1211037, 1251038, COPAS COASTAL FB210021, and IFOP ID 1049-48-
509 LP22. Lauren Ross acknowledges funding for NSF Grant Number 2045866 that aided in her participation of this study.

510 **Acknowledgments**

511 We thank the crew of the Jürgen Winter for their invaluable support during data collection. Special thanks are extended to
512 the students and technicians for facilitating the collection of turbulence data and ensuring the safe return of the microprofiler.

513

514 **Competition interests**

515 The authors declare no competing interests.

516

517 **Data availability statement**

518 Data and metadata are available in Pérez-Santos, I. (2026). Data and metadata from manuscript, Vertical Fluxes of Dissolved
519 Oxygen Driven by Turbulence and Diapycnal Mixing in Patagonian Fjords [Data set].
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