1	Full-depth eddy kinetic energy in the global ocean estimated
2	from altimeter and Argo observations
3	
4	Qinbiao Ni ^{1,2,3} , Xiaoming Zhai ² , J. H. LaCasce ⁴ , Dake Chen ^{1,3} and David P. Marshall ⁵
5	
6	¹ Southern Marine Science and Engineering Guangdong Laboratory, Zhuhai, China
7	² Centre for Ocean and Atmospheric Sciences, School of Environmental Sciences,
8	University of East Anglia, Norwich, UK
9	³ State Key Laboratory of Satellite Ocean Environment Dynamics, Second Institute of
10	Oceanography, Ministry of Natural Resources, Hangzhou, China
11	⁴ Department of Geosciences, University of Oslo, Oslo, Norway
12	⁵ Department of Physics, University of Oxford, Oxford, United Kingdom
13	
14	Corresponding author: Qinbiao Ni (niqinbiao@outlook.com)
15	
16	Key Points
17	• A new method is developed for estimating full-depth eddy kinetic energy from
18	satellite altimeter and Argo float data
19	• Mesoscale eddy structures are surface-intensified at low latitudes and deep-
20	reaching at high latitudes
21	• The total eddy kinetic energy in the global ocean is estimated to be about
22	$3.1 \times 10^{18} \text{ J}$
23	

24 Abstract

25 Although the surface eddy kinetic energy (EKE) has been well studied using 26 satellite altimeter and surface drifter observations, our knowledge of EKE in the 27 ocean interior is much more limited due to the sparsity of subsurface current measurements. Here we develop a new approach for estimating EKE over the full 28 depth of the global ocean by combining 20 years of satellite altimeter and Argo float 29 30 data to infer the vertical profile of eddies. The inferred eddy profiles are surfaceintensified at low latitudes and deep-reaching at mid- and high latitudes. They 31 compare favorably to the first empirical orthogonal function obtained from current 32 meter velocities. The global-integrated EKE estimated from the inferred profiles is 33 about 3.1×10^{18} J, which is close to that estimated from the surface mode (3.0×10^{18} J) 34 but about 30% smaller than that estimated from the traditional flat bottom modes 35 $(4.6 \times 10^{18} \text{ J}).$ 36

37 Plain Language Summary

38 The ocean is full of mesoscale eddies, analogous to weather systems in the atmosphere. Eddy kinetic energy in the surface ocean is generally well studied thanks 39 to the availability of satellite and drifter data. The subsurface eddy energy, on the 40 other hand, is not well known due to the relative lack of subsurface current 41 42 observations. Using vertical eddy structures inferred from satellite altimeter and Argo float data, we provide the first observational estimate of eddy kinetic energy over the 43 44 full depth of the global ocean. Our results have important implications for 45 understanding the ocean energy budget and for representing the effects of mesoscale eddies in ocean and climate models. 46

47 1. Introduction

48 Satellite altimetry reveals that the surface ocean is strongly turbulent, populated 49 with mesoscale eddies from tens to hundreds of kilometers in size. These are generated by barotropic and baroclinic instabilities of the large-scale flow (Gill et al.
1974; Chelton et al. 2011; Ni et al. 2020a). These eddies dominate the ocean's kinetic
energy spectrum and play a crucial role in transporting climatically important
properties such as mass, heat and carbon (Wunsch 1999; Zhai et al. 2010; Zhang et al.
2014; Conway et al., 2018; Ni et al. 2020b).

55 A key metric commonly used to measure the strength of mesoscale eddies is the eddy kinetic energy (EKE). Diagnosing and characterizing global EKE from 56 observations is important not only for understanding the ocean energy budget, but 57 also for developing mesoscale eddy parameterizations for ocean and climate models. 58 59 Such parameterizations often require solving an explicit eddy energy budget to determine the magnitude of eddy transfer coefficients (e.g., Eden and Greatbatch 60 61 2008; Marshall and Adcroft 2010; Marshall et al. 2012; Mak et al. 2018; 2022). One of the unknowns is the vertical structure of the eddy energy. Although the surface 62 EKE in the global ocean has been well studied using geostrophic velocity anomalies 63 derived from satellite altimeter and surface drifter data (Stammer 1997; Wunsch and 64 Stammer 1998; Yu et al. 2019), the subsurface EKE remains poorly characterized and 65 66 understood due to the limited spatio-temporal coverage of direct current observations 67 in the ocean interior (Wunsch 1997; de La Lama et al. 2016).

One way to estimate the full-depth EKE is to project altimeter-inferred surface 68 69 geostrophic currents downward in the water column, which requires knowledge of the vertical structure of the eddies. It is common to use linear dynamical modes to deduce 70 71 vertical eddy modal structures from the climatological ocean density field, e.g., the barotropic mode and first baroclinic modes for a flat-bottomed ocean (Wunsch 1997) 72 and, more recently, the surface mode, which assumes vanishing bottom velocity (de 73 74 La Lama et al. 2016, LaCasce 2017). However, given the assumptions and 75 uncertainties associated with these dynamical mode methods, the applicability of using vertical mode structures to estimate full-depth EKE on a global scale is not 76 clear. On the other hand, the global array of Argo profiling floats has collected vertical 77 profiles of temperature and salinity in the upper 2000 m of the global ocean for more 78

than two decades. Combining millions of Argo float observations with concurrent altimeter data potentially provides a novel way of deriving the vertical structure of ocean eddies (Wunsch 2008; Mulet et al. 2012; Ni et al. 2020a), which can then be used to estimate the full-depth EKE and compare with the results obtained from the dynamical mode approach.

84 2. Data processing

The daily 1/4°×1/4° altimetric sea level anomaly (SLA) data provided by Copernicus Marine Environment Monitoring Service used here span a 20-year period from 1998 to 2017. Each SLA map is spatially filtered using a high-pass Gaussian function (Chelton et al. 2011; Xu et al. 2016; Ni et al. 2020a)

89
$$G(k,l) = 1 - e^{-\frac{k^2 + l^2}{2\sigma^2}},$$
 (1)

90 where k and l are wavenumbers in the zonal and meridional directions, respectively, 91 and the standard deviation σ corresponds to a half-power cutoff wavelength of 20°. 92 This cutoff threshold removes the majority of large-scale signals related to 93 heating/cooling and wind forcing but preserves mesoscale signals associated with the 94 eddies (Fig. S1).

95 The Argo float profiles that pass the quality control are obtained from the China Argo Real-time Data Center for the same 20-year period. For each Argo profile, 96 97 potential density is calculated from temperature and salinity measurements and 98 linearly interpolated in the depth range of 10-1800 m at an interval of 10 m. The 99 potential density anomaly (ρ') associated with mesoscale eddies is obtained by subtracting from an Argo profile a local climatological profile. This climatological 100 profile is computed from averaging all the Argo profiles inside a bin of $5^{\circ} \times 5^{\circ}$ (and 101 collected within 45 days in each calendar year) centered at the profile under 102 103 consideration (Zhang et al. 2013; Ni et al. 2021). The eddy pressure anomaly (P') is 104 then calculated by integrating the hydrostatic equation downward from the surface (Wunsch 2008; Mulet et al. 2012; Ni et al. 2020a): 105

$$P' = \rho_{top}g\eta + \int_{z}^{0} \rho' g dz, \qquad (2)$$

107 where ρ_{top} is the shallowest density record of an Argo profile, *g* is gravity, and η is the 108 SLA at the location of the profile. The approach of integrating the hydrostatic 109 equation downward from the surface is preferred compared to integrating upward 110 from a hypothetical level of no motion, as many eddies are deep-reaching (e.g., van 111 Aken et al. 2003; Adams et al. 2011; Petersen et al. 2013).

112 The World Ocean Atlas 2018 (WOA18) climatological hydrological data, 113 provided by the U.S. National Centers for Environmental Information with a spatial 114 resolution of 1°, are used to extrapolate vertical eddy structures in the deep ocean as 115 well as calculate the linear dynamical modes. Current meter records are obtained from 116 the U.S. National Centers for Environmental Information during the period from 1962 117 to 2005. These data are used to deduce the empirical orthogonal function (EOF) 118 modes of the subsurface currents. Following de La Lama et al. (2016), the time series 119 of the current velocity records are low-pass filtered with a Butterworth filter to 120 remove periods shorter than one day. After that, we select only current-meter 121 moorings that satisfy the following three criteria: 1) The mooring contains 122 instruments at least at three different depths, 2) the records are longer than 90 days 123 and 3) the top instrument is located at a depth shallower than 1500 m and the bottom 124 instrument deeper than 3000 m.

125 **3.** Composite eddy structures

106

Mesoscale eddies are first identified from the high-pass-filtered SLA maps using an eddy detection method based on SLA geometry (Chelton et al. 2011; Ni et al. 2020a; 2020b). In total, about 29 million eddy snapshots are identified in the global ocean over the 20-year period. Then, over 1 million pressure anomaly profiles are calculated from Argo floats located inside and around the eddies; these are used to obtain the vertical eddy structures via composite analysis (Chaigneau et al. 2011; Ni et al. 2020a; Ni et al. 2021). Note that the signs of the pressure anomaly profiles

associated with cyclonic eddies are reversed before the composite analysis, since both 133 134 types of eddies have similar shapes (Zhang et al. 2013). A detailed description of eddy 135 identification and composite analysis methods is provided in the Supporting Information. We then composite the vertical eddy structures on a global $2^{\circ} \times 2^{\circ}$ grid 136 using $10^{\circ} \times 10^{\circ}$ bins centered at each grid point. A bin size of $10^{\circ} \times 10^{\circ}$ is used to ensure 137 that there are sufficient Argo float profiles for the analysis at each grid point (Fig. S2). 138 Consider the Northwestern Subtropical Pacific Ocean region (NSPO; [135°-139 145°E, 15°-25°N]) and the Gulf Stream region (GS; [51°-61°W, 31°-41°N]), where 140 marked differences occur in the vertical structures of composite eddies (Figs. 1a and 141 142 b). The magnitude of eddy surface pressure anomaly in the NSPO region (~0.15 dbar) is only about half that in the GS region (~0.33 dbar). Furthermore, the composite eddy 143 144 in the NSPO region displays a surface-intensified bowl-shaped vertical structure, with 145 the pressure anomaly decreasing rapidly with depth, in line with the shallow eddy 146 density anomaly (Fig. S3a). In contrast, the composite eddy in the GS region shows a 147 funnel-shaped vertical structure, consistent with a deep-reaching eddy density 148 anomaly (Fig. S3b). Similar eddy structures have been reported previously from in-149 situ current observations (e.g., De Mey and Robinson 1987; Wunsch 1997; Martin et 150 al. 1998; de Ruijter et al. 2002; van Aken et al. 2003). To assess the robustness of 151 these structures obtained through downward integration of the hydrostatic equation 152 using altimeter and Argo data, we made a similar analysis in the GS region in two different ways using HYCOM reanalysis output; this yielded very similar results 153 154 (Supporting Information; Fig. S4).

Figure 1c shows the latitudinal variations of the composite vertical eddy structures, obtained by averaging pressure anomalies of the composite eddies within one eddy radius from the eddy centers in 10° latitude bands. These vertical structures, normalized by their surface values, decay monotonically with depth in the upper 1800 m where Argo float data exist (black curves), consistent with previous research (Zhang et al. 2013; Ni et al. 2020a). We then apply an exponential function to fit the normalized structure in each 10° latitude band and extrapolate these vertical eddy 162 structures to the deep ocean using a stretched vertical coordinate $z_s = \int_{-H}^{0} N/f dz$, 163 where *N* is the buoyancy frequency estimated from WOA18, *f* is the Coriolis 164 parameter and *H* is the depth of ocean bottom. Figure 1c shows that the best-fitting 165 exponential function resembles very well the composite profile in the upper 1800 m in 166 all latitude bands. The eddy vertical structures are significantly surface-intensified at 167 low latitudes but deep-reaching at mid- and high latitudes. Note too that composite 168 profiles generally do not change sign with depth.

169 4. Comparison with first EOF mode

Previous studies (e.g. Müller and Sielder 1992; de la Lama et al. 2016) have 170 shown that the first EOF mode captures a substantial fraction of the subsurface 171 172 velocity variance, often exceeding 80% at current meter locations. As a further check, 173 we compare the vertical structures with the first EOFs obtained from 144 current 174 meter moorings located 5° poleward of the Equator that pass the selection criteria (see 175 Section 2). Figure 2a shows the global distribution of the moorings, which are most 176 abundant in the Atlantic Ocean. We obtain the first EOF mode at each mooring (see 177 Supporting Information) and then average the EOF modes separately for the 39 178 selected current meter moorings located at low latitudes ($<30^\circ$) and 105 current meter 179 moorings at high latitudes (>30°). The averaged first EOF modes (black curves in Fig. 180 2) are found to decay monotonically with depth and then remain relatively constant 181 below about 1500 m at low latitudes and below about 2000 m at high latitudes, 182 exhibiting a funnel-shaped structure. Note that on most moorings the uppermost 183 current meter is typically positioned a few hundred meters below the sea surface; the 184 extrapolation of EOFs to the sea surface is not straightforward (Wunsch 1997).

We then composite the vertical eddy structure (red curves) using only Argo float data within a circle of a radius of 2.5° centered at the location of each mooring and extrapolate below 1800 m depth using the exponential fit. The resulting vertical eddy structure closely resembles the average first EOF mode at both low and high latitudes.

We also derive the linear surface mode (blue curves) and first baroclinic mode (orange 189 190 curves) using the WOA18 climatological density profiles at the locations of current 191 moorings (Supporting Information). Compared with the first EOF mode, the surface 192 mode decreases more slowly with depth in the upper ocean and more quickly in the 193 deep ocean, although it lies within one standard deviation of the first EOF modes. The 194 more rapid attenuation of the surface mode in the deep ocean is probably due to the 195 assumption of zero bottom velocities, together with the absence of a bottom boundary 196 layer (LaCasce 2017). By contrast, the first baroclinic mode decays much faster with 197 depth than the first EOF mode and switches sign at ~1500 m. Our EOF analysis of 198 current meter data thus shows that deducing vertical eddy structures from a 199 combination of altimeter and Argo float data provides a promising way of projecting 200 surface currents downward in the water column to obtain the full-depth horizontal 201 eddy velocities.

202 5. Full-depth EKE

To estimate the global time-mean EKE over the full water depth, we first derive the surface geostrophic current velocities from the high-pass-filtered SLA maps assuming geostrophic balance (Ni et al. 2020a). The surface EKE is calculated from

206
$$EKE_0 = \frac{u_0^2 + v_0^2}{2},$$
 (3)

where u_0 and v_0 are the zonal and meridional components of surface geostrophic currents, respectively. The surface geostrophic velocities are then projected downward using the estimated vertical eddy structures to obtain the subsurface geostrophic velocities:

211
$$u(z) = u_0 \cdot F(z), \tag{4}$$

212

213 where F(z) is the vertical eddy structure normalized by its surface value in each bin 214 and z is the depth. Note that the composite (black curves in Fig. 1c) and extrapolated

215 (red curves in Fig. 1c) eddy structures are used for depths above and below 1800 m,

 $v(z) = v_0 \cdot F(z),$

(5)

216 respectively. Combining (3)–(5), EKE over the whole water column can be estimated217 by

218

 $\overline{EKE(z)} = \overline{EKE_0} \cdot F(z)^2, \tag{6}$

where the overbars indicate the time mean. Figure 3 shows that the spatial patterns of 219 220 EKE at different depths resemble that at the surface (as they must), with large values 221 near the western boundary currents and the Antarctic Circumpolar Current. The EKE is O (1000) cm² s⁻² at the surface and can reach O (100) cm² s⁻² even at 4000 m depth 222 in these strong current regions, while it is rather small below 500 m in the rest of the 223 224 ocean. The hotspots of high EKE in the deep ocean of the western boundary current 225 and the Antarctic Circumpolar Current regions suggest potentially elevated eddy energy dissipation rates there as a result of eddy-topography interaction (Yang et al. 226 227 2021).

228 For comparison, we apply the linear baroclinic modes to estimate the full-depth EKE in the global ocean. These are derived from the WOA18 climatological density 229 230 field (Supporting Information; LaCasce 2017; LaCasce and Groeskamp 2020). We 231 calculate both the standard (flat bottom) baroclinic modes and the surface modes 232 (with zero flow at the bottom) and use both to project the surface EKE downward into 233 the ocean interior. For the flat bottom modes, we assume that (1) EKE in the ocean is 234 dominated and approximately equipartitioned by the barotropic and first baroclinic 235 modes and (2) altimeter data reflects mostly the first baroclinic mode in the open ocean, following Wunsch (1997). 236

Figure 4 shows the depth-integrated $\text{EKE} \int_{-H}^{0} \rho_0 \cdot \overline{EKE(z)} \cdot dz$ (where H is the 237 depth of the ocean and ρ_0 is the reference density) estimated from the three 238 239 approaches. The overall large-scale spatial patterns are similar, with elevated EKE 240 levels in the western boundary current and the Antarctic Circumpolar Current regions. 241 However, the magnitude of the depth-integrated EKE estimated based on the 242 traditional flat bottom modes is significantly greater than those estimated from the 243 other two approaches. The global-integrated EKE estimated from the composite eddy structures is about 3.1×10^{18} J, which is close to that estimated based on the surface 244

mode $(3.0 \times 10^{18} \text{ J})$ but about one-third smaller than that estimated from the flat bottom modes $(4.6 \times 10^{18} \text{ J})$.

247 6. Conclusions

Based on satellite altimeter and Argo float observations over two decades (1998-248 249 2017), we provide the first estimate of full-depth EKE in the global ocean. The 250 vertical eddy structures obtained from composite analysis of altimeter and Argo data 251 are surface-intensified at low latitudes but deep-reaching at mid- and high latitudes. 252 These vertical eddy structures closely resemble the first EOF modes and thus offer a 253 promising new means of projecting surface currents downward in the water column to 254 obtain the full-depth horizontal eddy velocities. The resulting EKE is large at all 255 depths near the western boundary currents and the Antarctic Circumpolar Current, with a global total of about 3.1×10^{18} J. 256

257 Given the importance of EKE for the ocean circulation, tracer transport and 258 energy cascades (Ferrari and Wunsch 2010), our full-depth estimates have important 259 implications for understanding the ocean energy budget as well as for developing 260 energetically-consistent eddy parameterization schemes (Eden and Greatbatch 2008; 261 Marshall and Adcroft 2010; Marshall et al. 2012; Mak et al. 2018). Furthermore, the 262 newly-estimated full-depth EKE provides a new reference for validating eddy-263 permitting and eddy-resolving ocean models, moving beyond the current standard 264 practice of comparing model-simulated surface EKE with those derived from 265 altimeter and drifter data (Scott et al. 2009; Rieck et al. 2015; Yu et al. 2019). Future improvements of the full-depth EKE estimates will benefit from continuous 266 267 deployment of Argo profiling floats, including deep Argo floats that profile down to 268 near the sea floor, particularly in regions where the current numbers of Argo floats are 269 low.

270 Acknowledgments

Q. Ni is supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (42106011)
and an International Postdoctoral Exchange Fellowship awarded by the Office of
China Postdoctoral Council. D. Chen is supported by the National Natural Science
Foundation of China (42227901). J. H. LaCasce is supported under grant number
302743 (The Rough Ocean) of the Norwegian Research Council.

276 Data availability statement

- 277 All the data used in this study are publicly available. The satellite altimeter data are
- 278 available at
- 279 https://data.marine.copernicus.eu/product/SEALEVEL_GLO_PHY_L4_MY_008_04
- 280 7/description, the Argo float data are available at
- 281 https://argo.ucsd.edu/links/#National, the WOA18 climatological data are available at
- 282 https://www.nodc.noaa.gov/OC5/woa18/woa18data.html, the current meter data are
- 283 available at https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/access/data/global-ocean-currents-
- 284 database/cmportal.html and the reanalysis data from the HYCOM simulation are
- available at http://tds.hycom.org/thredds/catalog.html.

286 References

- Adams, D. K., et al. (2011). Surface-generated mesoscale eddies transport deep sea products from hydrothermal vents. Science, 332, 580-583.
- 289 2. Chaigneau, A., Texier, M. L., Eldin, G., Grados, C., & Pizarro, O. (2011). Vertical
- structure of mesoscale eddies in the eastern South Pacific Ocean: A composite
 analysis from altimetry and Argo profiling floats. Journal of Geophysical
 Research, 116, C11025.
- 293 3. Chelton, D. B., Schlax, M. G., & Samelson, R. M. (2011). Global observations of
 294 nonlinear mesoscale eddies. Progress in Oceanography, 91(2), 167-216.

- 295 4. Conway, T. M., Palter, J.B., & de Souza, G. F. (2018). Gulf Stream rings as a
 296 source of iron to the North Atlantic subtropical gyre. Nature Geoscience, 11(8),
 297 594-598.
- 298 5. de La Lama. M. S., Lacasce, J. H., & Kristine, F. H. (2016). The vertical structure
 299 of ocean eddies. Dynamics & Statistics of the Climate System. 1(1), 1-16.
- De Mey, P., & Robinson, A. R. (1987). Assimilation of altimeter eddy fields in a
 limited-area quasi-geostrophic model. Journal of Physical Oceanography, 17(12),
 2280-2293.
- 303 7. de Ruijter, W. P. M., et al. (2002). Observations of the flow in the Mozambique
 304 Channel. Geophysical Research Letters, 29(10), 140-1-140-3.
- 8. Eden, C., & Greatbatch, R. J. (2008). Towards a mesoscale eddy closure. Ocean
 Modelling, 20, 223-239.
- 307 9. Ferrari, R., & Wunsch, C. (2010). The distribution of eddy kinetic and potential
 308 energies in the global ocean. Tellus, 62, 92-108.
- 309 10. Gill, A. E., Green, J. S. A., & Simmons, A. J. (1974). Energy partition in the
 310 large-scale ocean circulation and the production of mid-ocean eddies. Deep Sea
 311 Research, 21(7), 499-528.
- 312 11. LaCasce, J. H. (2017). The prevalence of oceanic surface modes, Geophysical
 313 Research Letters, 44, 11097-11105.
- 12. LaCasce, J. H., & Groeskamp, S. (2020). Baroclinic modes over rough
 bathymetry and the surface deformation radius. Journal of Physical
 Oceanography, 50(10), 1-40.
- 317 13. Mak, J., Maddison, J. R., Marshall, D. P., & Munday, D. R. (2018).
 318 Implementation of a Geometrically Informed and Energetically Constrained
 319 Mesoscale Eddy Parameterization in an Ocean Circulation Model. Journal of
 320 Physical Oceanography, 48, 2363-2382.
- 14. Mak, J., Marshall, D. P., Madec, G., & Maddison, J. R. (2022). Acute sensitivity
 of global ocean circulation and heat content to eddy energy dissipation timescale.
 Geophysical Research Letters, 49, e2021GL097259.

- Marshall, D. P., & Adcroft, A. (2010). Parameterization of ocean eddies: Potential
 vorticity mixing, energetics and Arnold's first stability theorem. Ocean
 Modelling, 32, 188-204.
- 327 16. Marshall, D. P., Maddison, J. R., & Berloff, P. S. (2012). A framework for
 328 parameterizing eddy potential vorticity fluxes. Journal of Physical Oceanography,
 329 42, 539-557.
- 17. Martin, A. P., Wade, I. P., Richards, K. J., & Heywood, K. J. (1998). The PRIME
 eddy. Journal of Marine Research, 56, 439-462.
- 18. Mulet, S., Rio, M. H., Mignot, A., Guinehut, S., & Morrow, S. (2012). A new
 estimate of the global 3D geostrophic ocean circulation based on satellite data
 and in-situ measurements. Deep Sea Research Part II, 77, 70-81.
- 335 19. Müller, T. J., & Siedler, G. (1992). Multi-year current time series in the eastern
 336 North Atlantic Ocean. Journal of Marine Research, 50, 63-98.
- 337 20. Ni, Q., Zhai, X., Jiang, X., & Chen, D. (2021). Abundant cold anticyclonic eddies
 338 and warm cyclonic eddies in the global ocean. Journal of Physical Oceanography,
 339 51, 2793-2806.
- 340 21. Ni, Q., Zhai, X., Wang, G., & Hughes, C. W. (2020a). Widespread mesoscale
 341 dipoles in the global ocean. Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans, 125,
 342 e2020JC016479.
- 22. Ni, Q., Zhai, X., Wang, G., & Marshall, D. P. (2020b). Random movement of
 mesoscale eddies in the global ocean. Journal of Physical Oceanography, 50(8):
 2341-2357.
- 23. Petersen, M. R., Williams, S. J., Maltrud, M. E., Hecht, M. W., & Hamann, B.
 (2013). A three-dimensional eddy census of a high-resolution global ocean
 simulation. Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans, 118(4), 1759-1774.
- 24. Rieck, J. K., Bning, C. W., Greatbatch, R. J., & Scheinert, M. (2015). Seasonal
 variability of eddy kinetic energy in a global high-resolution ocean model.
 Geophysical Research Letters, 42(21), 9379-9386.
- 352 25. Scott, R. B., Arbic, B. K., Chassignet, E. P., Coward, A. C., & Varghese, A.

- 353 (2010). Total kinetic energy in four global eddying ocean circulation models and
 354 over 5000 current meter records. Ocean Modelling, 32, 157-169.
- 355 26. Stammer, D. (1997). Global characteristics of ocean variability estimated from
 356 regional topex/poseidon altimeter measurements. Journal of Physical
 357 Oceanography, 27(8), 1743-1769.
- 27. van Aken, H. M., et al. (2003). Observations of a young Agulhas ring, Astrid,
 during MARE in March 2000. Deep Sea Research II, 50, 167-195.
- 360 28. Wunsch, C. (1997). The vertical partition of oceanic horizontal kinetic energy.
 361 Journal of Physical Oceanography, 27, 1770-1794.
- 362 29. Wunsch, C. (1999). Where do ocean eddy heat fluxes matter? Journal of363 Geophysical Research Oceans, 104, 13,235-13,249.
- 364 30. Wunsch, C. (2008). Mass and volume transport variability in an eddy-filled
 365 ocean. Nature Geoscience, 1(3), 165-168.
- 366 31. Wunsch, C., & Stammer, D. (1998). Satellite altimetry, the marine geoid, and the
 367 oceanic general circulation. Annual Review of Earth & Planetary Sciences 26(1),
 368 2967-2973.
- 369 32. Yang, Z., Zhai, X., Marshall, D. P., & Wang, G. (2021). An idealized model study
 370 of eddy energetics in the western boundary 'graveyard'. Journal of Physical
 371 Oceanography, 51, 1265-1282.
- 372 33. Yu X., Ponte, A. L., Elipot, S., Menemenlis, D., Zaron, E. D., & Abernathey, R.
 373 (2019). Surface kinetic energy distributions in the global oceans from a high374 resolution numerical model and surface drifter observations. Geophysical
 375 Research Letters, 46(16), 9757-9766.
- 376 34. Zhai, X., Johnson, H. L., & Marshall, D. P. (2010). Significant sink of ocean-eddy
 377 energy near western boundaries. Nature Geoscience, 3(9), 608-612.
- 378 35. Zhang, Z., Wang, W., & Qiu, B. (2014). Oceanic mass transport by mesoscale
 eddies. Science, 345, 322-324.
- 36. Zhang, Z., Zhang, Y., & Wang, W. (2013). Universal structure of mesoscale
 eddies in the ocean. Geophysical Research Letters, 40(14), 3677-3681.



Figure 1. Vertical sections of pressure anomalies (dbar) at y = 0 associated with the composite eddies in (a) the Northwestern Subtropical Pacific Ocean and (b) the Gulf Stream. (c) Vertical pressure anomaly profiles (black curves) averaged within one eddy radius (r) from the eddy centers and normalized by the surface values for every 10° of latitude. The red curves show best-fit exponentials. Note that Argo profiles located within 5° of the Equator are excluded from the composite analysis.



401 Figure 2. (a) Locations of the selected current-meter moorings in the global ocean. (b) 402 Mean (black curve) and one standard deviation (grey shading) of the first EOF modes derived from the current meter moorings located at latitudes lower than 30° in Fig. 2a. 403 404 The red curve shows the vertical eddy structure composited using the Argo data inside a circle with a radius of 2.5° centered at each mooring. Note that the eddy structure 405 406 below 1800 m of the red line is obtained by the exponential fit. The blue and orange 407 curves show the averages of the surface modes and first baroclinic modes at the 408 mooring locations, respectively. (c) As Fig. 2b but for latitudes higher than 30°. 402



Figure 3. Global distributions of eddy kinetic energy (EKE; $cm^2 s^{-2}$) estimated using the altimeter and Argo observations at (a) the surface and at (b) -250 m, (c) -500 m, (d) -1000 m, (e) -2000 m and (f) -4000 m.



410 Figure 4. Global patterns of depth-integrated EKE (J m⁻²) estimated from (a) the
411 altimeter and Argo data, (b) the surface mode and (c) the barotropic and first
412 baroclinic modes.