Seasonal variations in planktonic foraminiferal flux and oxygen isotopic composition in the western North Pacific: implications for paleoceanographic reconstruction

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Abstract

The oxygen isotopic composition (δ¹⁸O) of planktonic foraminiferal shells in seafloor sediment provides information on past surface oceanography. Knowledge of seasonal and depth habitat, as well as the δ¹⁸O disequilibrium (vital effect), is essential to constrain the interpretation of sedimentary δ¹⁸O. Here, we present a 1-year time series of planktonic foraminiferal shell fluxes and δ¹⁸O from a sediment trap moored in the northwestern margin of the North Pacific. The vital effect and calcification depth for four species were estimated by comparing shell δ¹⁸O and the predicted values of equilibrium calcite calculated from temperature and estimated δ¹⁸O in seawater. Six major species (Neogloboquadrina incompta, Neogloboquadrina dutertrei, Neogloboquadrina pachyderma, Globigerina quinqueloba, Globigerina bulloides, and Globorotalia scitula) constituted 97% of the total foraminiferal flux. Most major species showed large fluxes in June and December, corresponding to periods of the development and disruption of the seasonal thermocline, implying the importance of nutrient injection and/or circulation for foraminiferal fluxes. Additional peaks in N. dutertrei and N. pachyderma were observed in August. The seasonal successions of foraminiferal fluxes corresponded to surface ocean stratification conditions and food availability, which are closely related to circulation of local currents. Vital effect estimations suggest that shells calcified in equilibrium for G. bulloides and N. pachyderma [sinistral (s)] and with a –0.7‰ offset for N. dutertrei [dextral (d)], a –1.0‰ offset for N. incompta (d), and a –0.3‰ offset for N. pachyderma (d).
The calculation of flux-weighted $\delta^{18}O$ values reveals that the sedimentary $\delta^{18}O$ values of *G. bulloides*, *N. dutertrei* (d), and *N. incompta* (d) reflect surface temperature in winter season, and those of *N. pachyderma* (s) and *N. pachyderma* (d) reflect summer and annual mean subsurface temperature, respectively. The shallow calcification depths for the four species suggest that $\delta^{18}O$ between different species ($\Delta \delta^{18}O$) in the western North Pacific does not work for reconstructing past stratification conditions, unlike in other regions. Rather, the $\Delta \delta^{18}O$ between *N. pachyderma* (s) and *G. bulloides*, *N. dutertrei* (d) or *N. incompta* (d) would provide a proxy for past seasonality.

**Keywords**: planktonic foraminifera, sediment traps, oxygen isotopes, northwestern North Pacific
1. Introduction

The oxygen isotopic composition ($\delta^{18}O$) of planktonic foraminifera has been widely used to reconstruct past surface ocean conditions. Because the isotopic fractionation factor between water and carbonate minerals depends on the calcification temperature (e.g., Epstein et al., 1953; McCrea, 1950), $\delta^{18}O$ in fossil foraminifera in seafloor sediments records both past seawater $\delta^{18}O$ and temperature changes. Knowledge of the seasonal and depth habitats of foraminifera is essential when fossil $\delta^{18}O$ is used for paleoceanographic reconstruction. Additionally, the difference in $\delta^{18}O$ among species ($\Delta \delta^{18}O$) that live different depths or seasonal habitats may give us an opportunity to investigate past stratification (e.g., Mortyn et al., 2002; Mulitza et al., 1997; Rashid and Boyle, 2007; Sagawa et al., 2011; Simstich et al., 2003; Spero et al., 2003) or seasonality (Jonkers et al., 2010).

The vertical and seasonal distributions of planktonic foraminifera are strongly affected by regional environmental factors, such as geography, hydrography, and ecosystems (e.g., Fairbanks et al., 1980; Kuroyanagi and Kawahata, 2004; Kuroyanagi et al., 2002; Sautter and Thunell, 1991). The regional environment may also influence the vital effect of the shell $\delta^{18}O$ (e.g., Niebler et al., 1999), which is defined as offset from the $\delta^{18}O$ equilibrium value. It is therefore important to constrain the influences of habitat distribution and the vital effect in the fossil $\delta^{18}O$ records on regional scales.

The planktonic foraminiferal species *Neogloboquadrina pachyderma* (Ehrenberg) has been
commonly used in paleoceanographic studies of the middle to high latitudes. Temporal variation in
the coiling ratio of this species has been interpreted in relation to past environmental changes (e.g.,
Thompson and Shackleton, 1980). However, recent genetic studies revealed that the two
morphospecies with opposite coiling directions show distinct genetic patterns (Bauch et al., 2003;
Darling et al., 2000). Based on the genetic differences and geographic distribution of the
morphospecies, Darling et al. (2006) suggested that the right-coiling morphospecies should be
recognized as *Neogloboquadrina incompta* (Cifelli). The geographic distribution of *N. pachyderma*
and *N. incompta* in surface sediments around the Japanese islands also shows a distinct pattern (Oda
and Domitsu, 2009; and references therein). In general, the left-coiling form is dominant in *N.
pachyderma* and the right-coiling form is dominant in *N. incompta* (Darling et al., 2006; Oda and
Domitsu, 2009), accounting for >97% in both species. However, a higher right-coiling ratio (>50%)
in *N. pachyderma*, which is distinct from *N. incompta*, was reported from the Holocene sediment of
the northwestern margin of the North Pacific (Kuroyanagi et al., 2006). This evidence implies that
the coiling direction–based identification method is not applicable to this region. Therefore, added
understanding of the habitat preferences and $\delta^{18}O$ of these morphospecies is essential for
paleoceanographic interpretation.

This study investigated the seasonal variation in the planktonic foraminiferal flux and $\delta^{18}O$
using a 1-year data series from a moored sediment trap in the northwestern margin of the North
Pacific (Fig. 1). The vital effect of $\delta^{18}O$, calcification depth, and flux-weighted $\delta^{18}O$ were estimated to better constrain the foraminiferal $\delta^{18}O$ proxy in paleoceanographic study. Our results revealed that differences in the flux-weighted $\delta^{18}O$ values among species mainly reflect seasonal flux pattern rather than the calcification depth in the western North Pacific, and the potential of $\Delta\delta^{18}O$ as a proxy of past seasonality in this region is therefore extended.

2. Oceanographic setting

The surface water around the study site is characterized by high seasonal variability due to the coexistence of the Oyashio Current and the Tsugaru Warm Current (TGC; Fig. 1). The Oyashio Current is a western boundary current of the Western Subarctic Gyre of the North Pacific that transports cold, fresh surface water. The Oyashio Current off the southeastern coast of Hokkaido bifurcates into the first branch of the Oyashio and the coastal Oyashio Water (Kono et al., 2004). The TGC is relatively warm and saline (>6 °C and ~34.0) (Hanawa and Mitsudera, 1986) and it originates from the Tsushima Warm Current (TWC), which is formed by mixing of the Kuroshio water and the coastal water in the East China Sea. Changes in the relative influence of these currents produce strong seasonality in surface conditions. The first branch of the Oyashio Current reaches its southernmost latitude in late winter to early spring and its northernmost latitude in late summer to autumn (Yasuda, 2003). The influence of the TGC on the study site increases in summer and autumn.
Monthly mean vertical profiles of temperature, salinity, and density during the period corresponding to trap deployment, from May 2002 to May 2003, are shown in Fig. 2a–c.

Temperature and salinity data were obtained from the National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) Global Ocean Data Assimilation System (GODAS) (Behringer and Xue, 2004). The temperature and salinity of the upper 200 m in March were nearly constant and fell within the range of about 2°C and 0.02, respectively, due to vertical mixing. Summer surface temperature reaches ~20°C and a steep thermocline develops at 20–40 m. The similarity of the density and temperature profiles suggests primary control by temperature, as expected with low variation in annual salinity (Fig. 2b).

3. Materials and Methods

3.1. Samples

A time-series sediment trap (model SMD21-6000; Nichiyu-giken-kogyou Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) was deployed at 350 m water depth (~620 m above the seafloor) at 41°33.8’N, 141°52.0’E. The sediment trap has a collection area of 0.5 m² with 21 cup collectors and was moored for 1 year from June 2002 to June 2003. Each sample represents a collection period of 11–30 days, with most being 14 days (Kawahata et al., 2009). The sample treatments were conducted following a method
described in Kawahata et al. (1998). Prior to trap deployment, the sampling bottles were filled with filtered seawater (0.45 μm pore size) containing a 3% formalin solution buffered with sodium borate to retard microbial activity in the trapped sample. After recovery, samples were stored at 2–4°C. They were filtered through a 1-mm mesh to remove zooplanktonic swimmers. The <1-mm fraction was split into 64 aliquots. Major components of trap samples were reported by Kawahata et al. (2009).

### 3.2. Analytical Methods

Planktonic foraminifera were wet sieved into two size fractions (125–250 μm and >250 μm), picked after drying, and identified for faunal abundance analysis. In this study, the taxonomic criteria followed Parker (1962), Saito et al. (1981), and Hemleben et al. (1989). \(^{δ^{18}O}\) measurements were derived from four planktonic foraminiferal species: *Globigerina bulloides*, *Neogloboquadrina dutertrei* [dextral (d)], *N. incompta* (d), and *N. pachyderma* [dextral and sinistral (s)]. Identified foraminiferal shells (125–250 μm) were cleaned with a wet brush under a microscope before being measured. Ten specimens were ideally used for each measurement, but approximately half of the samples contained <10 shells (2–9 specimens). Measurements were obtained using an isotope mass spectrometer (Finnigan MAT 253; Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc.) connected to an automated preparation system (Kiel Carbonate device IV) at Hokkaido University. Measured results were
calibrated with the NBS-19 standard, which was analyzed in the same sequence, and expressed in the VPDB scale. The analytical error was ± 0.06‰.

3.3. Calculation of isotopic equilibrium and flux-weighted δ\textsuperscript{18}O values

The predicted δ\textsuperscript{18}O value of equilibrium calcite was calculated using the δ\textsuperscript{18}O temperature scale of Kim and O'Neil (1997):

\[
\delta c = \frac{4.64 - \sqrt{21.53 - 0.36 \times (16.1 - T)}}{0.18} + \delta w
\]

(1)

where \(T\) is temperature (°C) and \(\delta c\) and \(\delta w\) are δ\textsuperscript{18}O values of carbonate and the ambient water, respectively, relative to the VPDB. We chose this δ\textsuperscript{18}O temperature scale because the calibrated temperature range (10-40°C) corresponds to that of natural variability. When we discuss the vital effect offset, it is reasonable to compare the measured values against the equilibrium δ\textsuperscript{18}O values based on the inorganic precipitation relationship (Kim and O'Neil, 1997) rather than the values based on field and laboratory relationships for specific foraminiferal taxa (e.g., Bemis et al., 1998; von Langen et al., 2000) or mollusks (e.g., Epstein et al., 1953). Monthly mean temperature and salinity data at 10-m depth intervals from 5 m to 303 m were obtained from a 1° × 1° gridded dataset of the NCEP GODAS (Fig. 2a, b). Unfortunately, the GODAS has no temperature and salinity data for a grid including the mooring site centered at 41°10’N, 141°30’E; therefore, average values were calculated from three adjacent grids (Fig. 1b). Seawater δ\textsuperscript{18}O was estimated using the linear
relationship proposed by Oba and Murayama (2004) between salinity and $\delta w$ in the Kuroshio-Oyashio mixed water region along the eastern coast of the Japanese islands:

$$\delta w = 0.521 \times S - 17.955.$$  \ (2)

where $\delta w$ is $\delta^{18}O$ of seawater (VSMOW) and $S$ is salinity. The $\delta w$ is converted to the VPDB scale by subtracting 0.27‰ (Hut, 1987). The vertical distribution of the predicted $\delta^{18}O$ record inversely resembles that of temperature (Fig. 2), suggesting that the predicted $\delta^{18}O$ is controlled mainly by temperature.

To constrain the effect of the seasonal foraminiferal flux in the fossil $\delta^{18}O$ record, flux-weighted $\delta^{18}O$ values (King and Howard, 2005; Kuroyanagi et al., 2011) were calculated for each species using the following equation:

$$\text{Flux-weighted } \delta^{18}O \text{ value} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (flux_i \times \delta^{18}O_i)}{\text{total flux}}$$  \ (3)

where $flux_i$ and $\delta^{18}O_i$ are the shell flux and $\delta^{18}O$ value for each species (125–250 $\mu$m size fraction).

4. Results

4.1. Seasonal fluxes

Fluxes in major components of trapped particles are reported by Kawahata et al. (2009) (Fig. 3a–e). In general, major components showed higher fluxes during three periods: June–July 2002, October 2002–January 2003 (maximum in December), and April–May 2003. Total foraminiferal
shell flux (TFF) ranged from 2 to 2032 shells m\(^{-2}\) day\(^{-1}\) during the mooring period (Fig. 3f). Most (89%) of the TFF was composed of small individuals (125–250 μm). Seasonal variation in TFF differed slightly from that of other biogenic components. Higher TFFs were observed in June, August, and December 2002 and a small peak was observed in late May. Two peaks in June and December corresponded to higher fluxes for other biogenic components. However, a TFF peak observed in August was not accompanied by other components, which showed minimum fluxes at this time. Another difference is that the increase in TFF starting in late May 2003 lagged behind that of biogenic opal and organic matter. The beginning of the TFF increase also lagged behind that of carbonate flux, suggesting differences in biological response between foraminifera and coccolithophores.

A total of 14 planktonic foraminiferal species were found at this site. The fauna consisted mainly of the temperate and subpolar species *N. incompta*, *N. dutertrei*, *N. pachyderma*, *Globigerina quinqueloba*, *G. bulloides*, and *Globorotalia scitula*, which had relative abundances of 25.7%, 25.4%, 22.8%, 15.1%, 4.1%, and 3.7%, respectively. These six species made up more than 97% of annual TFFs (>125 μm). The seasonal fluxes for *G. bulloides*, *N. incompta*, and *G. quinqueloba* exhibited bimodal peaks: late spring–summer (May–June) and early winter (December; Fig. 4). An additional peak in August was significant for *N. dutertrei* and *N. pachyderma*. *Globorotalia scitula* had a prominent peak around August–September only. To evaluate differences in seasonal variation
between right- and left-coiling individuals, we examined the coiling ratios of *N. incompta*, *N. dutertrei*, and *N. pachyderma*. *N. incompta* and *N. dutertrei* had high right-coiling ratios throughout the sampling period (both annual mean values were 87%). In contrast, left-coiling individuals were dominant in *N. pachyderma* (mean right-coiling ratio was 42%). Both coiling directions in all three species had similar seasonal flux patterns; weak positive correlations were found between right- and left-coiling fluxes (*r* = 0.37, 0.44, and 0.58 in *N. incompta*, *N. dutertrei*, and *N. pachyderma*, respectively).

4.2. Measured shell δ¹⁸O and predicted δ¹⁸O equilibrium value

Because the foraminiferal flux varied significantly with seasons, about half of the samples consist of less than 10 specimens per measurement. In order to assess the representativeness of the δ¹⁸O measurement with a small number of foraminiferal tests, we conducted replicate analyses using samples that contained enough foraminiferal tests. Figure 5 shows the results of the replicate analyses of *N. pachyderma* (s) and *N. pachyderma* (d). Each measurement consists of 4-13 specimens with mostly less than 10 specimens. The results show that the reproducibility is generally less than ±0.3‰ (1σ). This is much smaller than the seasonal δ¹⁸O variations (Fig. 6), confirming the reliability of δ¹⁸O measurements with a small number of tests.

Measured shell δ¹⁸O values for four species showed seasonal variation, with lighter values
obtained during summer and heavier values during winter and spring (Fig. 6). The $\delta^{18}O$ for all species was minimal in October, whereas the timing of the maximum value differed among species. More enriched values were observed in May for *G. bulloides* and *N. pachyderma* (*s*), in March for *N. incompta* (*d*), in late December for *N. pachyderma* (*d*), and in late June and February–March for *N. dutertrei*.

Predicted $\delta^{18}O$ values for equilibrium calcite calculated using GODAS temperature and salinity data showed clear seasonal succession, especially at shallower depths (Fig. 6). The seasonal amplitudes were 3.5‰ at 5 m, 0.6‰ at 105 m, and <0.3‰ at >155 m, reflecting larger temperature variation at shallower depth. The predicted $\delta^{18}O$ values at the end of winter were maximal and homogeneous for the upper 75 m due to deepening of the mixed layer. Minimum values at shallower depths (<15 m) were seen in August and September, whereas those at deeper depths (>25 m) lagged behind until October or November. This finding is explained by seasonal changes in the vertical thermal structure (Fig. 3g). The warming of surface water during summer produces strong stratification, which prevents subsurface warming in this season. Stratification decays gradually starting in October until isothermal conditions are achieved by late winter / early spring.

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5. Discussion

5.1. Seasonal flux variations

As mentioned above, the general seasonal patterns of the major foraminiferal species included two large maxima in summer (May–August) and early winter (December) and a small, broad maximum around autumn. In particular, *N. incompta* (both coiling directions), *G. quinqueloba*, and *G. bulloides* had almost the same seasonal peaks (May–June and December). These peak periods are consistent with the development and disruption of thermoclines (Fig. 3g), corresponding to periods before and after the TGC-dominant interval. Therefore, these results suggest that similar factors control seasonal fluxes in these three species (i.e., nutrients, light, food availability and/or water column structure). Similar seasonal flux patterns of *G. quinqueloba* and *G. bulloides* were also observed in the western North Pacific (Kuroyanagi et al., 2008). Concurrent increases with biogenic components (Fig. 3) and neritic radiolarian fluxes (Itaki et al., 2008) suggest that these species respond to nutrient-rich water. The supply of nutrients by vertical mixing and/or from coastal water might increase primary production and subsequent planktonic foraminiferal production.

*Neogloboquadrina dutertrei* (both coiling directions) showed a relatively large flux peak in
August. Hilbrecht (1997) reported two populations of *N. dutertrei*, tropical and subtropical. Plankton tow experiments also showed bimodal peaks in the abundance of *N. dutertrei* (at ~18°C and 8°C) around Japan (Kuroyanagi and Kawahata, 2004). Therefore, it is suggested that different populations contribute to bimodal distribution in seasonal flux at this site. The maximum flux in summer was reported from a sediment trap study at offshore site Sta. B (Fig. 1) (Itou and Noriki, 2002). In contrast, the Japan Sea sediment trap showed a distinct peak of this species in November–December (Park and Shin, 1998). These results suggest that the mid-summer and early winter peaks represent the Pacific and Japan Sea populations, respectively.

Right-coiling *N. pachyderma* showed a large peak in August that decreased until January with moderate fluctuations. In contrast, the left-coiling variety exhibited a large peak around June–August and a small peak around December. Darling et al. (2006) reported an aberrant sinistral morphotype of the dextral genotype in the North Atlantic. Although the distribution of genotypes is not known for the western North Pacific, 1) the higher right-coiling ratio (42%) than at the boundary of the North Atlantic (3%) and 2) a weak positive correlation ($r = 0.58$) between coiling types (Kuroyanagi, 2006) suggest that most individuals were probably dextral morphologically and genetically. Seasonal flux patterns for both coiling patterns of *N. pachyderma* differed from those of other major species. This finding supports the hypothesis that this species inhabits a different environment or that different factors control its fluxes. In particular, the lack of a prominent peak in August for *N.
incompta (both coiling directions) strongly suggests that it is distinct from *N. pachyderma*, at least in
the western North Pacific. This suggestion is supported by the different vertical distributions of these
species around the Japanese islands (Kuroyanagi and Kawahata, 2004).

*Globolatalia scitula* had a prominent peak in the stratified summer season. Sediment trap
results from Sta. B (Fig. 1) showed the maximum flux of this species in winter and early spring, with
a minimum in summer (Itou et al., 2001). The seasonality difference between the two neighboring
sites suggests that temperature and stratification are not major controlling factors because
hydrographic conditions at intermediate depth are uniform at this scale. A common feature of the two
sediment trap results is the rapid increase in *G. scitula* corresponding to a decline in particulate
organic matter (POM) (Fig. 3). The sinking particles during the low POM period consist of
disaggregated fine particles. Such particles have lower sinking speeds and are more likely to be
preyed upon by deep dwellers (Itou et al., 2001). Longer duration in surface productivity at Sta. B
probably delayed the increase in *G. scitula* until winter.

5.2. *Estimation of vital effect on shell δ¹⁸O*

The δ¹⁸O of planktonic foraminiferal shells is often offset from the equilibrium value, the
so-called vital effect. The vital effect includes disequilibria induced by ontogeny, respiration (Spero
and Lea, 1996), photosynthesis of symbionts (Spero and Lea, 1993), calcification and growth rates,
and carbonate chemistry (Spero et al., 1997). Because the influence of these factors on shell $\delta^{18}O$
largely depends on species, the magnitude of the vital effect differs among species (Niebler et al.,
1999). In this study, the vital effects for four species were estimated by comparing measured $\delta^{18}O$ to
predicted values.

Expansion of the depth of the mixed layer in January–March resulted in homogeneous
predicted $\delta^{18}O$ values for the upper 75 m (Fig. 6). If foraminiferal shells are calcified in this
well-mixed water, the disequilibrium can be calculated as an offset of measured $\delta^{18}O$ from the
predicted value. However, the calculation using $\delta^{18}O$ values from January–March was problematic.
The measured $\delta^{18}O$ values in February–March were comparable to those in December for all species
(Fig. 6). This result did not follow the predicted $\delta^{18}O$ values, which showed a continuous increase
until March. The discrepancy implies that shell $\delta^{18}O$ did not reflect the surface condition during this
period. Such discrepancies were also observed in the sediment traps moored in the subarctic North
Pacific (Kuroyanagi et al., 2011), the western South Pacific (King and Howard, 2005), and the
western subpolar North Atlantic (Jonkers et al., 2010) during small foraminiferal flux periods.
Therefore, we attribute these lighter $\delta^{18}O$ values to survival of the early winter population without
additional calcification in cold water as suggested by Jonkers et al. (2010). We decided to use $\delta^{18}O$
values from December and January to calculate the vital effect for the following reasons. First, the
predicted $\delta^{18}O$ for the upper 45 m was relatively homogeneous (Fig. 6). Second, all species analyzed
here calcify at depths < 45 m, which was deduced from the large seasonal amplitude (>1‰) in shell δ¹⁸O. An amplitude > 1‰ was seen only in predicted δ¹⁸O values for the upper 45 m. The shallower calcification depth is supported by the concordant timing of the minimum value between measured and predicted δ¹⁸O at shallower depths (Fig. 6). Third, all species showed maximum fluxes during this period, indicating that the shells trapped during this period were certainly calcified at this time. The average predicted δ¹⁸O value for the upper 45 m in December and January was 1.2‰. The offsets from this predicted value were 0.0‰ for N. pachyderma (s) and G. bulloides, –0.3‰ for N. pachyderma (d), –0.7‰ for N. dutertrei, and –1.0‰ for N. incompta (d) (Table 1).

Previous estimates of the vital effect have not been consistent. For instance, the vital effect for the most frequently reported species, N. pachyderma (s), has ranged from ± 0.0 to –1.3‰. Our result is consistent with the estimation of Jonkers et al. (2010), which was obtained from a sediment trap moored in the western North Atlantic. However, other studies reported negative offsets. Ortiz et al. (1996) reported a –0.7‰ offset from California. Simstich et al. (2003) reported –0.9 and –1.0‰ offsets for encrusted and non-encrusted specimens, respectively, in the Nordic Seas. An offset of –1.0‰ was also reported from the Arctic Ocean (Bauch et al., 1997), the Okhotsk Sea (Bauch et al., 2002), the Southern Ocean (Mortyn and Charles, 2003), and the western Subarctic Gyre (Kuroyanagi et al., 2011). A much larger offset of –1.3‰ was reported from the Arctic Ocean (Volkmann and Mensch, 2001). As discussed in Kuroyanagi et al. (2011), the δ¹⁸O temperature scale for calculating
the predicted $\delta^{18}O$ is an important factor. In this study, as in Jonkers et al. (2010), the $\delta^{18}O$
temperature scale of Kim and O'Neil (1997) was used because its calibrated temperature range (10, 25, and 40°C) corresponds to the temperature of the upper layer at this site. In contrast, other high-latitude studies used the scale of O'Neil et al. (1969), which is calibrated down to 0°C. These scales have different values, especially in the low temperature range. When calculated using the scale of O'Neil et al. (1969), the vital effect for *N. pachyderma* (s) was $-0.4 \%$.

Another possibility is a difference in morphotype and/or genotype. *Neogloboquadrina incompta* has often been classified as the *N. pachyderma* dextral form. Darling et al. (2006) suggested that the left- and right-coiling forms of *N. pachyderma* should be identified as *N. pachyderma* and *N. incompta*, respectively. However, both of these species have coiling forms. For our sediment trap samples, the sinistral and dextral forms of *N. pachyderma*, *N. incompta*, and *N. dutertrei* were identified separately; the sinistral form accounted for 42%, 23%, and 23% of the species, respectively. Comparing the $\delta^{18}O$ values for two species from identical sediment trap cups, the values of *N. incompta* were $-0.7$ and $0.6\%$ lighter than those of *N. pachyderma* for sinistral ($n = 3$) and dextral ($n = 12$) forms, respectively. These results suggest that the two species have different depth habitats and/or vital effects. If one identifies *N. pachyderma* and *N. incompta* only by coiling direction, the relative abundance of the two species significantly affects mean isotope values. The genetic difference may also influence shell $\delta^{18}O$ values. Bauch et al. (2003) reported two genotypes
for *N. pachyderma* (d) in the Nordic Sea, and their $\delta^{18}O$ values had a systematic offset that may have been due to the vital effect. Although the genotype data for *N. pachyderma* in the western North Pacific have not yet been reported, the genotype of *N. pachyderma* (d) in the eastern North Pacific is distinct from that in the Atlantic (Darling et al., 2006). Therefore, differences in morphotype and/or genotype between the basins are clear candidates for geographical divergence of the vital effect.

The vital effects for the other species are also influenced by other factors, as discussed above. The values estimated in this study generally agree with those from the literature, as summarized in Niebler et al. (1999), and we provide new data on *N. incompta* (d). Significant differences in the vital effect between two morphospecies (right- and left-coiling) of *N. pachyderma*, as well as between the right-coiling forms of *N. pachyderma* and *N. incompta*, suggest that $\delta^{18}O$ measurements based on incorrect identification of these species may be a source of bias when estimating paleoceanographic conditions.

### 5.3. Estimation of calcification depths

Calcification depths were estimated by comparing vital effect–corrected $\delta^{18}O$ values with predicted $\delta^{18}O$ values (Fig. 6). *Globigerina bulloides* $\delta^{18}O$ tracked to 45 m in June–August and to 25–35 m in October–January, with deeper values in May (Fig. 6a). Similar variation was seen in *N. pachyderma* (s) (Fig. 6d). The $\delta^{18}O$ values of *G. bulloides* and *N. pachyderma* (s) were positively
correlated ($r = 0.92$). Such seasonal $\delta^{18}O$ variations suggest changes in the calcification depth in response to physical or biological conditions. The large $\delta^{18}O$ changes eliminate the possibility of calcification at a specific temperature because this minimizes the amplitude of seasonal $\delta^{18}O$. Rather, biological conditions such as food availability probably constrained calcification depth. The chlorophyll maximum at PH-1 (41°30’N, 142°00’E), which is an observational station of the Japan Meteorological Agency near the study site, was ~20–30 m from May–July 2002 and 50 m from April–May 2003 (Fig. 3h) (Japan Meteorological Agency, 2002, 2003). The estimated calcification depths of *G. bulloides* and *N. pachyderma* (s) fell immediately below the chlorophyll maximum during high-chlorophyll periods. Such vertical distributions for these species were also reported around the study site using depth-discrete plankton tow experiments (Kuroyanagi and Kawahata, 2004) and agree with the observation that the abundance of many foraminiferal species corresponds to the deep chlorophyll maximum (Fairbanks and Wiebe, 1980).

The vital effect–corrected $\delta^{18}O$ values for *N. incompta* (d), *N. dutertrei* (d), and *N. pachyderma* (d) indicate calcification at 25–35-m depths throughout the year (Fig. 6b, c, e). The habitat depth of *N. dutertrei* is often observed in the mixed layer to thermocline depth (e.g., Fairbanks et al., 1982; Fairbanks et al., 1980). This is also the case at the study site, where the thermocline developed from 15–45 m (Fig. 2). The plankton tow experiment conducted in May–June 2002 showed a shallower habitat depth for *N. incompta* than for *N. pachyderma* (Kuroyanagi and...
Kawahata, 2004). This feature was also observed in our early summer results, but is not applicable for all seasons.

5.4. Paleoceanographic implications

Our sediment trap experiment revealed significant seasonal variation in shell flux and $\delta^{18}$O in the western North Pacific. The uneven distribution of foraminiferal flux implies that paleoceanographic records obtained from fossil foraminiferal $\delta^{18}$O trend toward specific seasons. Because the sedimentary $\delta^{18}$O should reflect the weighted average of flux variation, flux-weighted $\delta^{18}$O values were calculated using equation (3) (Table 1). The flux-weighted value of 1.0‰ for *G. bulloides* obviously reflects a large flux peak centered in December (Fig. 6a). If shells captured in February and March are assumed to be survivors of early winter calcified tests, as discussed above, the cumulative fluxes of the late autumn and early winter calcified shells exceeds 66% of the total flux. The flux-weighted values (vital effect–corrected) for *N. dutertrei* (d) and *N. incompta* (d) were 1.1 and 1.2‰, respectively. These values also reflect larger fluxes centered in December, as for *G. bulloides* (Fig. 6b, c). The cumulative fluxes from November to February reached 71% and 67‰ for each species. Therefore, the sedimentary $\delta^{18}$O values for three species, *G. bulloides*, *N. dutertrei* (d), and *N. incompta* (d), record surface temperatures mainly in early winter with species-specific vital effect offsets.
The case of *N. pachyderma* is more complicated owing to broad flux peaks. The flux-weighted value for *N. pachyderma (s)* was 1.4‰. Measured δ^{18}O values for June–August and December–March were around 1.4‰ (Fig. 6d). The cumulative fluxes of the former and latter periods account for 58% and 28% of the total flux, respectively, indicating that the sedimentary δ^{18}O value of this species reflects surface temperature primarily in summer and secondarily in early winter.

The flux-weighted value for *N. pachyderma (d)* was 0.8‰. The prominent peak in August accounts for 18.4% and the broad peak in October–January accounts for 63% of the total flux. The broad distribution of shell flux suggests that the sedimentary δ^{18}O value indicates mean annual temperature at 25–45 m.

The sedimentary Δδ^{18}O of foraminiferal species, according to differences in habitat depth or season, is often used to deduce past ocean stratification conditions or seasonality. The estimated calcification depths for the four species examined in this study ranged from 25 to 45 m (Table 1).

Small divergences in calcification depths suggest that the sedimentary Δδ^{18}O does not provide a proxy for past stratification in this region, unlike other areas (e.g., Southern Ocean) where depth habitat differences are large enough between species that stratification changes can be deduced (Mortyn and Charles, 2003; Mortyn et al., 2002). The only candidate for a temperature recorder at intermediate depth is *G. scitula*. Although the δ^{18}O for this species was not provided in this study because of discontinuous occurrence during the sampling period, the examination of depth habitat
and shell chemistry by Itou et al. (2001) suggested *G. scitula* as an intermediate depth indicator. If one combines the δ\(^{18}\)O values of *G. scitula* and *N. pachyderma* (s), which primarily reflect summer subsurface and surface temperature, respectively, Δδ\(^{18}\)O may provide a proxy for summer stratification. In contrast to the calcification depth, the seasonal flux differences among species are observed. The difference in seasonal preference of *N. pachyderma* (s) from other species may provide a seasonal contrast for surface to subsurface water in the western North Pacific. Namely, the Δδ\(^{18}\)O between *N. pachyderma* (s) and other winter species [*G. bulloides*, *N. dutertrei* (d), and *N. incompta* (d)] possibly records a contrast between summer and early winter. This study revealed that the seasonal variation of foraminiferal flux was strongly affected by the regional oceanographic variations. Therefore, added modern perspectives on a regional basis will help in more precise paleoceanographic reconstructions.

6. Summary

In this study, we investigated the seasonal variation in foraminiferal flux and δ\(^{18}\)O using a 1-year data set from a moored sediment trap in the northwestern North Pacific. The TFF had three distinct peaks centered in June, August, and December. Six major species (*N. incompta*, *N. dutertrei*, *N. pachyderma*, *G. quinqueloba*, *G. bulloides*, and *G. scitula*) constituted 97% of the TFF. All species except *G. scitula*, which had only one prominent peak in August, showed higher fluxes in June and
December. Additional peaks in August were observed for *N. dutertrei* and *N. pachyderma*. The seasonal successions of foraminiferal fluxes correspond to surface ocean stratification and food availability, which are closely related to local current circulation. Comparison of seasonal δ¹⁸O variations in foraminiferal shells with predicted values, calculated using temperature and δ¹⁸O of seawater, revealed species-specific vital effects and calcification depths. The vital effect estimations suggest that shells calcified in equilibrium for *G. bulloides* and *N. pachyderma* (s) and with a −0.7‰ offset for *N. dutertrei* (d), a −1.0‰ offset for *N. incompta* (d), and a −0.3‰ offset for *N. pachyderma* (d). Differences in seasonal flux pattern and the vital effect between *N. pachyderma* (d) and *N. incompta* (d) suggest that separation of these species only by coiling direction is a source of bias in the estimation of paleoceanographic conditions in this region. The flux-weighted δ¹⁸O values suggest that sedimentary δ¹⁸O in three species [*G. bulloides*, *N. dutertrei* (d), and *N. incompta* (d)] mainly record temperatures in the surface layer in early winter, with species-specific vital effect offsets. The sedimentary δ¹⁸O values of *N. pachyderma* (s) and (d) record summer subsurface and mean annual subsurface temperatures, respectively. The surface calcification of the four species implies the potential to reconstruct past seasonality, in particular via Δδ¹⁸O between *N. pachyderma* (s) and *G. bulloides*, *N. dutertrei* (d) or *N. incompta* (d). The prominent peak in summer for *G. scitula* implies that the δ¹⁸O difference compared to the subsurface species *N. pachyderma* (s) may provide a proxy for summer surface stratification.
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Figure captions

Figure 1. Maps showing the study site and surface current systems in the western North Pacific. (a) Major surface currents in the study region. The rectangle with broken line indicates the area shown in the inset. (b) The locations of the sediment trap used in this study and reference site Sta. B. Three rectangles are 1°×1° grids of NCEP GODAS used for the predicted δ¹⁸O calculation in Fig. 2 and Fig. 6. TWC: Tsushima Warm Current, TGC: Tsugaru Warm Current.

Figure 2. Seasonal variation in temperature (a), salinity (b), potential density (c), and predicted oxygen isotopic composition (δ¹⁸O) of equilibrium calcite (d) for the upper 200 m. The temperature and salinity data are averages of three grids in Fig. 1 obtained from the National Centers for Environmental Prediction Global Ocean Data Assimilation System (Behringer and Xue, 2004). The predicted δ¹⁸O values were calculated using the equation of Kim and O’Neil (1997) (see text for details).

Figure 3. Flux variation in major components of sediment trap samples. Fluxes in (a) total mass, (b) lithogenic, (c) biogenic opal, (d) organic matter, (e) carbonate, and (f) total foraminifera.
(g) Temperature variation to 200 m water depth during the mooring period (data from the Global Ocean Data Assimilation System). (h) Variation in chlorophyll-\(a\) concentration for the upper 100 m measured at station PH-1 (41\(^\circ\)30'N, 142\(^\circ\)00'E) on 27 April 2002, 19 July 2002, 5 October 2002, 2 December 2002, 8 February 2003, 2 May 2003, and 4 August 2003 by the Japan Meteorological Agency. Vertical white lines indicate observational dates during the mooring period. The data are temporally interpolated to intervals of one week with the surface tool in the Generic Mapping Tools. Data for (a)–(e) are from (Kawahata et al., 2009). Sample cup numbers are shown in (a).

Figure 4. Flux variation in total foraminifera and the six major species. The two morphospecies of *Neogloboquadrina pachyderma*, *N. incompta*, and *N. dutertrei* are shown in separate panels. Dark and light colors represent shell sizes > 250 \(\mu\)m and 125–250 \(\mu\)m, respectively.

Figure 5. The results of \(\delta^{18}O\) replicate analyses. Each data point consists of 4-13 specimens with mostly less than 10 specimens. The \(\delta^{18}O\) are normalized by subtracting average values for the purpose of comparison. The standard deviations (1\(\sigma\)) are shown on the right side of each data.

Figure 6. Seasonal variation in oxygen isotopes (dots) and shell flux (bars) for (a) *Globigerina bulloides*, (b) *Neogloboquadrina incompta* (dextral), (c) *N. dutertrei* (dextral), (d) *N. pachyderma* (sinistral), and (e) *N. pachyderma* (dextral) of small shell size (125–250 \(\mu\)m).
The vital effect-corrected oxygen isotopic composition ($\delta^{18}O$) values are also shown in (b), (c), and (e). Lines show seasonal variation of the predicted $\delta^{18}O$ values for the upper ~300 m. Error bars in (d) and (e) show the standard deviation (1$\sigma$) of replicate analyses.
Table 1. The estimations of vital effect, depth habitat, and flux–weighted δ¹⁸O value.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Species</th>
<th>Vital effect (‰)</th>
<th>Estimated depth habitat (m)</th>
<th>Flux–weighted δ¹⁸O value (‰)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G. bulloides</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>~45 (Jun-Aug)</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>25-35 (Oct-Jan)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. dutertrei (d)</td>
<td>-0.7</td>
<td>25-35</td>
<td>1.1*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. incompta (d)</td>
<td>-1.0</td>
<td>25-35</td>
<td>1.2*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. pachyderma (d)</td>
<td>-0.3</td>
<td>25-35</td>
<td>0.8*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>35-45 (Jun-Aug)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. pachyderma (s)</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>~35 (Oct-Jan)</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* vital effect corrected (see section 5.4)
Figure 1 Sagawa et al.
Figure 2 Sagawa et al.
Figure 4 Sagawa et al.

Flux (Shells m$^{-2}$ day$^{-1}$)

- **N. dutertrei (s)**
- **N. dutertrei (d)**
- **G. bulloides**
- **G. quinqueloba**
- **N. incompta (s)**
- **N. incompta (d)**
- **N. pachyderma (s)**
- **N. pachyderma (d)**
- **G. scitula**
Figure 5 Sagawa et al.
Figure 6 Sagawa et al.

(a) *G. bulloides*

(b) *N. incompta* (d)

(c) *N. dutertrei* (d)

(d) *N. pachyderma* (s)

(e) *N. pachyderma* (d)

Predicted $\delta^{18}O$

- 5 m
- 15 m
- 25 m
- 35 m
- 45 m
- 55 m
- 75 m
- 105 m
- 135 m
- 205 m
- 303 m