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Three-dimensional dispersion of neutral "plastic" particles in a global ocean model

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2 ABSTRACT

3 The fate of plastics entering the 3D ocean circulation from rivers discharge is examined through
4 the Lagrangian analysis of neutrally buoyant particles. Particles are released continuously over
5 1991-2010 at the surface along the coasts according to monthly estimates of rivers plastic waste
6 input. They are advected by daily currents from a state-of-the-art global ocean model at 1/12°
7 resolution. At the end of the simulation, particles remaining in the surface layer of 1 m thickness
8 represent less than 2% of the total particles released. These are concentrated in the center of
9 subtropical gyres, mostly in the South Indian Ocean and the North Pacific, in relation with the
10 large sources from Asia, and in good agreement with previous 2D numerical experiments in the
11 surface layer. These patterns remain similar down to about 30 m depth, this upper layer strongly
12 influenced by Ekman currents trapping about 20% of the total released particles. About 50% of
13 the total released particles remain in the upper 100 m, and up to 90% are found in the upper
14 400 m at the end of the experiment. Below the mixed layer, they are more widely dispersed
15 horizontally and follow the main global pathways of ocean ventilation of mode and deep water
16 masses. Plastic particles, neutrally buoyant because of their small size or biofouling, are thus
17 expected to be strongly dispersed in the global ocean thermocline following mode waters patterns,
18 and reach the deeper layers following the North Atlantic Deep Water formation path. Two major
19 source regions have a global impact. Particles from the western North Pacific spread over the
20 whole Pacific Ocean poleward of 20°S, whereas particles from Indonesia spread over the whole
21 latitude band from 60°S to 20°S.

22 **Keywords:** marine debris, microplastics, nanoplastics, Lagrangian analysis, dispersion, global ocean

1 INTRODUCTION

23 Plastic pollution of the environment is receiving growing attention as production increases at an exponential
24 rate (Geyer et al., 2017) and its harmful influence on living organisms is better documented (Wright et al.,

25 2013). Of the approximately 360 million tons of plastics produced each year (Plastics Europe, 2019),
26 the exact fraction that reaches the ocean is difficult to assess. Land-based sources are considered the
27 dominant input of plastic (GESAMP, 2015). For instance, Jambeck et al. (2015) estimated that 4.8 to
28 12.7 million tons of plastics entered the ocean in 2010 based on coastal population, waste production and
29 mismanagement, whereas Borrelle et al. (2020) estimated 18 to 23 million tons entered aquatic ecosystems
30 in 2016. The contribution of inland population through river systems is relatively lower, in the range 0.4–4
31 million tons (Lebreton et al., 2017; Schmidt et al., 2017). Yet, the total amount of plastics at the ocean
32 surface is estimated to be only a small fraction of the released plastic – between 14 and 270 thousand tons
33 – (Cózar et al., 2014; Eriksen et al., 2014; van Sebille et al., 2015), a paradox referred to as the 'missing
34 plastic problem'. Half of the plastic produced is not buoyant (Geyer et al., 2017) and accumulates in coastal
35 and deep-sea sediments (Woodall et al., 2014). The floating half is subject to a large range of ocean surface
36 processes that induce some vertical redistribution (van Sebille et al., 2020). Several studies also suggest that
37 floating plastics are simply washed ashore and accumulate in coastal waters and on the shoreline (Lebreton
38 et al., 2019; Onink et al., 2021; Chassignet et al., 2021). The most recent observations at depth report of a
39 larger fraction of small microplastics down to several hundred meters depth (Pabortsava and Lampitt, 2020;
40 Vega-Moreno et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2022), even in the Arctic Ocean (Tekman et al., 2020; Ross et al.,
41 2021). Egger et al. (2020) trace these deep plastics to the fallout from the surface convergence zones in the
42 North Pacific Garbage Patch.

43 Most Lagrangian studies of plastic particles have been conducted in two-dimensions at the ocean surface
44 (Maximenko et al., 2012; Lebreton et al., 2012; van Sebille et al., 2012; Maes et al., 2018; Dobler et al.,
45 2019; Chenillat et al., 2021), considering the floating fraction of plastics with density lower than seawater.
46 Due to converging wind-driven Ekman currents in the surface layers, plastics accumulate towards the
47 center of subtropical gyres (Kubota, 1994; Martinez et al., 2009; Onink et al., 2019). However, plastics
48 are also subject to surface-intensified vertical turbulence (Kukulka et al., 2012; Reisser et al., 2015) that
49 exports them to deeper layers where Ekman currents – hence convergence – are weaker. Wichmann et al.
50 (2019) analysed the trajectories of particles at different levels, from the surface to 120 m, and found less
51 convergence at deeper levels, in agreement with this theory. Nevertheless, they did not consider the vertical
52 velocities that continuously induce transfers between vertical layers, downward and upward. In fact, very
53 few Lagrangian studies have been performed in the three-dimensional ocean (Jalón-Rojas et al., 2019;
54 van Gennip et al., 2019; Lobelle et al., 2021), the latter addressing head first the influence of biofouling
55 on plastics density and their vertical displacement. Here we propose a more basic first level approach of
56 neutrally buoyant particles advected in a 3D ocean model. This is an intermediate step that has been lacking
57 so far in the hierarchy of simplified representations, and that helps to build up a better understanding of the
58 processes driving plastics distribution in the global ocean.

59 The fate of plastic particles at sea is extremely complex, mostly because of several weathering processes
60 like chemical degradation due to UV exposure, mechanical weathering and fragmentation, but also of
61 biological processes like biofouling (van Sebille et al., 2020). Because these processes modify the size,
62 shape, number, and buoyancy of the plastic particles, following their behaviour in a Lagrangian framework
63 is particularly challenging (Lobelle et al., 2021). However, this is not necessarily simpler in the Eulerian
64 framework, where most studies classify plastics by their buoyancy instead of by their size, as for instance
65 Mountford and Morales Maqueda (2019). So far, most Lagrangian studies have focused on the floating
66 plastics – the tip of the iceberg –, for which a global observational dataset is becoming available (Cózar
67 et al., 2014) and allows some validation. However, the behavior of very small microplastics, and even more
68 the nanoplastics, is much less affected by buoyancy because of their large surface/volume ratio (Poulain
69 et al., 2019). Other types of plastic debris like fibers, that are extremely abundant in waste waters, also

70 behave as neutral particles in the ocean, and are advected by the three dimensional currents (Gago et al.,
71 2018). Finally, the extreme complexity of biological processes that affect microplastics (Kooi et al., 2017;
72 Lobelle et al., 2021) suggests to consider a simplified approach as a first order approximation. Therefore,
73 the main question investigated in the present study is: What is the fate of neutrally buoyant particles
74 released according to major plastics sources in the global ocean?

75 To address this question, we will use a Lagrangian approach to follow the trajectories of a very large
76 number of particles using the daily three-dimensional currents from a state-of-the-art global ocean model
77 at 1/12° horizontal resolution. The particles will be considered neutrally buoyant and thus follow the water
78 masses. Particles will be released continuously at the coast according to a scenario of plastic emissions by
79 rivers (Lebreton et al., 2017). There are of course large uncertainties in the quantification of the sources of
80 plastics to the ocean from rivers and coastal population (Jambeck et al., 2015; Lebreton et al., 2018; Meijer
81 et al., 2021; Weiss et al., 2021), especially for the smaller classes of plastics like small microplastics and
82 nanoplastics. Given that these estimations are the basis of our study, one needs to be realistic and consider
83 our results as a first attempt at investigating the 3D dispersion of neutral plastics, looking at the results as
84 qualitative rather than quantitative. Plastics are a transient tracer in the ocean, they started to be produced
85 and released in the ocean in the 1950's and the amount of production – and very probably release in the
86 environment unfortunately – is doubling approximately every 20 yr (Geyer et al., 2017). Given the time
87 scales of ocean ventilation and water masses formation (hundreds of years), the amount of plastic found in
88 the ocean is not in steady state, but increasing with time, just like in our model experiment.

89 The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the numerical Lagrangian experiments. Section 3
90 presents the results in terms of initial dispersion, horizontal and vertical final distribution of particles,
91 before looking at their age and origin. Conclusions and their discussion follow in section 4.

2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

92 2.1 The Ariane Lagrangian analysis application

93 The Ariane application (Blanke and Raynaud, 1997) allows the exact calculation of 3D trajectories of
94 numerical particles in stationary and non-divergent transport fields, defined on a C-grid (Arakawa and
95 Lamb, 1977). The starting positions, in space and time, of the particles are defined by the user. Then the
96 application sequentially reads the current fields of a global ocean circulation model to advect the particles
97 and thus it computes their trajectories.

98 The Ariane application takes advantage of the properties of the currents discretization on a C-grid to
99 analytically compute the particle trajectories. Between two updates of the velocity field (here at daily
100 frequency), velocities are assumed to be stationary, such that the algorithm computes the actual trajectories
101 through the exact calculation of the three-dimensional streamlines. Under this assumption of stationarity,
102 these streamlines represent indeed the trajectories of the particles advected by the given velocity field
103 (Blanke and Raynaud, 1997). Considering therefore the exact conservation of mass and that the transport at
104 the land/sea interface is equal to zero, it is impossible for the particle trajectory to reach a land mesh and to
105 be, in particular, trapped at the coast.

106 In this study, particles are released continuously in time, following the monthly river plastic inputs
107 (Lebreton et al., 2017) as detailed later, over a 20-yr period (1991-2010). These decades were chosen to
108 allow sufficient time for the numerical ocean model spin up (integration started in 1979), and to obtain
109 final particle concentrations in a period where several observations we made, but statistically speaking, we

110 expect the results of a 20-yr long experiment to be reasonably independent of the time period chosen. The
111 particles have no dimension and are passively transported with the water mass. Their initial position is at
112 the surface, in the middle of the first level of the model, i.e. at a depth of 0.5 m, in oceanic coastal grid cells
113 of the model the closest to the river input positions. The number of particles per mesh is proportional to the
114 river plastic input and the horizontal positions of the particles are randomly chosen within the grid cell, so
115 that the particle trajectories are never exactly the same. Particles positions are recorded every month from
116 their release date to the end of the simulation (31 December 2010).

117 Unlike the 2D experiments conducted in previous studies (Maes et al., 2018; Dobler et al., 2019; Chenillat
118 et al., 2021), we use here the full 3D currents to advect the numerical particles. With the Ariane application
119 and its trajectory computation algorithm, when we restrict the particle trajectories to two dimensions, the
120 non-divergence of the transports in a mesh is no longer respected and particles at the coast can run aground.
121 On the other hand, here, when we use currents in three dimensions and because of the property of mass
122 conservation enforced by the model, the particles never run aground. This configuration of the model
123 would thus not be appropriate to estimate the amount of beaching for instance (van der Mheen et al., 2019;
124 Onink et al., 2021). For floating particles, the fraction of released particles blocked at or near the coast is
125 estimated between 36–77% (Chassignet et al., 2021; Chenillat et al., 2021; Onink et al., 2021), but this
126 fraction is unknown for neutral particles.

127 **2.2 The NEMO ORCA 1/12° global ocean simulation**

128 Particles are advected over the period 1991-2010 by daily-averaged three-dimensional velocities obtained
129 from a 1/12° global ocean/sea-ice/iceberg 1979-2019 simulation referred to as eORCA12.L75-GJM2020.
130 This simulation is based on the Nucleus for European Modeling of the Ocean (NEMO version 4.0.2, Madec,
131 2012) model, and was performed by the DRAKKAR group. Its grid spacing varies from 9.2 km at the
132 equator to 2.5 km at high latitudes with 75 geopotential levels (1 m vertical resolution near the surface
133 increasing up to 200 m in the deep ocean) and a partial step representation of topography. Compared to the
134 ORCA12 NEMO configuration used for instance by Mercator Ocean International for ocean circulation
135 reanalyses (GLORYS12, e.g. Artana et al., 2021), the eORCA12 configuration used in the present study is
136 extended toward Antarctica. This southward extension allows a better representation of the iceshelf front
137 location off the coast of Antarctica; freshwater fluxes from ice shelf melting (Mathiot et al., 2017) and
138 iceberg calving (Marsh et al., 2015) into the ocean are prescribed along this front.

139 The NEMO eORCA12 simulation is started from rest on January 1st, 1979 from temperature and salinity
140 fields derived from the ENACT-ENSEMBLE EN4 climatological fields (Good et al., 2013), and is forced
141 by the JRA55-do 1.4.0 atmospheric reanalysis (Tsujino et al., 2018). The model uses an energy and
142 enstrophy conserving momentum advection scheme (Barnier et al., 2006; Penduff et al., 2007; Le Sommer
143 et al., 2009). For the tracers, the model uses a total variance diminishing (TVD) advection scheme and an
144 isopycnal Laplacian diffusion operator. The vertical mixing scheme is based on the TKE turbulent closure
145 model (Blanke and Delecluse, 1993) with a convective adjustment scheme based on enhanced vertical
146 mixing in case of static instability.

147 The vertical velocities of the model are critical for the vertical spreading of the particles. These are
148 rarely examined in z-coordinate ocean models, where they are computed through the mass-conservation
149 (continuity) equation as a by-product of the integration of the horizontal momentum equations. They are
150 often considered to be noisy because of the bathymetric steps, and depending on advection and viscosity
151 parameterizations (Le Sommer et al., 2009). In addition, their amplitude vary considerably with the
152 horizontal and vertical model resolution, and their time averaging. We have chosen to use this global

153 model simulation precisely because of the availability of daily outputs over 40 decades. We have carefully
154 examined the vertical velocity fields and computed typical magnitudes from $\mathcal{O}(10^{-5} \text{ m s}^{-1})$ in the upper
155 layers to $\mathcal{O}(5 \cdot 10^{-5} \text{ m s}^{-1})$ in the water column, with maximum daily values up to $2\text{-}3 \cdot 10^{-2} \text{ m s}^{-1}$. The
156 mean values are in the range of vertical velocities computed from mooring observations at sea (for example,
157 Bryden, 1980; Arhan et al., 1989; Sévellec et al., 2015).

158 2.3 Continuous input from rivers

159 The release scenario is based on the amount of plastic entering the ocean from rivers estimated by
160 Lebreton et al. (2017) from population density, rates of mismanaged plastic waste production by country,
161 and monthly catchment runoff. Monthly quantities (in tons) are provided for 40,760 catchments input
162 points. We use their "midpoint estimate" that amounts to about 2 million tons of plastic waste entering
163 the ocean every year. The 20 top polluting rivers are mostly located in Asia and account for 67% of the
164 global total (Fig. 1A). Due to the seasonal catchment runoff, there are very large seasonal variations in
165 these inputs, the total amount for August being almost 5 times that of January for instance (Lebreton
166 et al., 2017). These variations were important to take into account in conjunction with the large seasonal
167 cycle of ocean currents, such as the monsoon in the Indian Ocean that severely affects plastic pollution
168 (van der Mheen et al., 2019; Pattiaratchi et al., 2022). These data were downloaded from the global model
169 inputs for monthly midpoint estimates (Lebreton and Reisser, 2018). A first step was to convert the mass
170 input into a number of particles, such that a total of about 10 million particles were released annually (all
171 particles represent the same amount of plastic). The rounding to an integer number of particles released
172 each month at source points reduces the number of effective sources to 5,676 (compared to 40,760), still
173 representing 99.9% of the total input. Particles were released at the nearest ORCA $1/12^\circ$ coastal ocean grid
174 cell of each catchment, based on its latitude and longitude provided in the input data. Their initial positions
175 were determined randomly within the coastal ocean grid cell, such that no particles have exactly the same
176 trajectory.

177 Particles were released continuously at the beginning of every month over the length of the simulation,
178 from January 1st, 1991 to the end of 2010 (20 yr). The maximum of the global river discharge is in
179 August and accounts for 1,619,932 particles in our simulation, 5 times the minimum of the rivers emission
180 occurring in January (327,014 particles). The number of particles released amounts to 9,994,234 every
181 year, and reach almost 200 million particles in total at the end of the 20-yr simulation. Particle positions
182 along their trajectory were recorded at a monthly frequency.

3 RESULTS

183 3.1 Initial horizontal spreading and vertical dispersion

184 The amount and location of particles released annually at river mouths is shown in (Fig. 1A). About 10
185 million particles are released annually in our simulation, the largest fraction being located in South-East
186 Asia – details of the source distribution are fully discussed in Lebreton et al. (2017). After their release,
187 particles follow the surface currents and spread neutrally from the source regions. The number of these
188 released particles remaining at the surface after 1, 3, 6, 12 and 24 months is shown in Fig. 1. These numbers
189 are averaged over particles released over the first 12 months of the simulation to filter out the seasonal
190 cycle, such that the patterns represent mostly the spread and eventually the influence of the annual-mean
191 surface currents, but not the instantaneous direction of surface currents. Each panel title indicates the total
192 number of particles at the surface relative to the total number of particles released in a year. During the

193 initial months, the Asian region exhibits the largest plastic concentrations in the surface, slowly spreading
194 from the major source regions, in the China Sea and around Indonesia first, towards the Bay of Bengal
195 and towards Australia, and by month 3 and 6 spreading eastward through the Kuroshio western boundary
196 current and its extension (Fig. 1). Surprisingly, although the Indonesian coastline has one the highest
197 input, there are no more of these particles at the surface around Indonesia after 6 months, they have been
198 advected southward in the South Indian basin and spread vertically in the mixed layer. In the Atlantic
199 Ocean, the major sources are in the Gulf of Guinea and around the Amazon, the former spreading offshore
200 and along the coast in both directions, whereas the latter spreads north-westward towards the Gulf of
201 Mexico following the Brazil current. The particles from the western North Atlantic coast are found in the
202 Gulf Stream after 3 months, in the North Atlantic Current after 6 months, and in the subpolar gyre within
203 one year.

204 At the time of their release, all particles are in the surface layer, but after a single month of advection,
205 about 78% of these particles have left the surface. This surface depletion does not continue at the same
206 rate afterwards, once particle concentrations is homogenized in the first layers – after 6 months at sea,
207 "only" 84% of the particles are missing from the surface. Within a single month, because of the strong
208 vertical velocities in the upper ocean layers associated mostly with downward Ekman velocities, particles
209 are distributed over the upper 10 m (not shown). This very fast sinking process is followed by a much
210 slower process exporting the particles to deeper regions, either through ventilation or deep water formation.

211 3.2 Final horizontal distribution

212 About 200 million neutral particles were advected by the oceanic current over the course of the 20-yr
213 long simulation with continuous input from river emissions. We now analyze the number of particles
214 averaged over the last year of the simulation, 2010, in order to filter out the seasonal variations due to both
215 the monthly variations of the input, and the seasonal cycle of the ocean currents. When looking at this
216 final distribution of particles, one must keep in mind that it consists of the sum of the particles of all ages,
217 from the ones released 19 years ago and having travelled long distances, to the ones released less than a
218 year ago and still close to their initial release location. The concentration of particles (number of particles
219 divided by the layer thickness, rather than the simple count since the model levels thickness increases
220 with depth) is shown for characteristic depths down the water column: surface, 20 m, 200 m, 600 m and
221 2000 m (Fig. 2). The patterns show very striking features, both on the horizontal and on the vertical, that
222 point to the different driving dynamical processes: wind-driven Ekman convergence in the surface layers,
223 ventilation in the thermocline (mode waters), intermediate and deep water formation at deeper levels.

224 The number of particles integrated over depth (Fig. 2A) – 90% of them in the upper 400 m (next
225 subsection) – strongly differs between the ocean basins. The peak amounts are at the largest emission river
226 mouths (South-East/East Asia, from the Bay of Bengal, the South China Sea, the Yellow Sea and East
227 China Sea), and immediately downstream (the Sea of Japan for instance). These Asian sources clearly
228 spread westward all across the North Pacific basin through the Kuroshio and its extension. Downstream of
229 the major Asian sources regions that show the highest amount of particles, the South Indian basin shows a
230 very large area with the second highest amounts of particles, and then the North Pacific basin shows the 3rd
231 largest amounts. The connection of the main source region with the convergence zone in the South Indian
232 basin is not as clear (Fig. 2A). Particles from continental Asia and Indonesia sources accumulate and end
233 up in the subtropical gyre all across the Indian basin from Madagascar to Australia, as explained by van der
234 Mheen et al. (2020). This convergence zone leaks toward the South Atlantic basin through the Agulhas
235 Current. With vertically-integrated amounts at least twice smaller than the top three regions just discussed,

236 the North Atlantic subtropical gyre shows more homogeneous amounts of particles, with the largest values
237 in the west of the basin, associated with the Gulf Stream and its southern recirculation, the North Atlantic
238 Current and the Azores current branches. Overall, this picture shows a very large dispersion of particles in
239 the global ocean, with particles present throughout the globe except in the Antarctic Circumpolar Current
240 (ACC) and southward as well as in the eastern South Pacific. The ACC remains a strong dynamical barrier
241 against plastic pollution spread, unless storm-driven Stokes drift events are taken into account (Fraser et al.,
242 2018).

243 At the end of the 20-yr long simulation, only 1.85% of the total released particles (3,658,340) are found
244 at the sea surface (Fig. 2B) – note the surface level thickness is 1 m such that the number of particles is
245 the same as its concentration in number of particles per m of depth. The South Pacific and the Antarctic
246 Current region show almost no particles at the surface, mostly because of the absence of sources within
247 the basin of attraction of these regions. In contrast, the highest concentrations are found along the Asian
248 rim, from the Bay of Bengal to the South China Sea and up to the Sea of Japan, in the South Indian Basin,
249 and in the Gulf of Guinea, i.e. associated with the major river inputs. The influence of surface currents in
250 the spread of the sources is obvious in several regions. The Kuroshio and its extension transport the large
251 coastal concentrations along the western boundary towards the central and eastern North Pacific, as nicely
252 illustrated by Lebreton and Borrero (2013) for tsunami debris. The Agulhas Current at the southern tip of
253 Africa exports the large concentrations of the South Indian basin towards the South Atlantic subtropical
254 gyre, a scenario that is evident here without the help of wave-induced Stokes drift (Dobler et al., 2019).
255 The equatorial current first and then the Brazil current transport the large inputs of the Gulf of Guinea
256 across the Atlantic towards the Gulf of Mexico and further along the Gulf Stream and North Atlantic drift.
257 These patterns remain more or less the same over the upper 30 m (as illustrated at 20 m in Fig. 2C), where
258 the plastic distribution is determined by the main source regions.

259 At around 200 m (Fig. 2D) and 600 m (Fig. 2E) depth, the patterns are strikingly different from the
260 upper layers (as objectively assessed by correlation analysis), with more widely extended areas of large
261 concentrations in subtropical and subpolar regions. These distribution patterns are clearly associated with
262 the main regions of ventilation and mode water formation (for example, Talley, 1999; Hanawa and Talley,
263 2001), with an intensity modulated by the particle input in the attraction basin of each mode water. For
264 instance, around 200 m depth (Fig. 2D), the plastic distribution largely follows the patterns of subduction
265 of SubAntarctic Mode Waters in the southern Indian Ocean. Important plastic concentration is also found
266 in the subtropical gyres of the North Pacific Ocean and in a lesser extent of the North Atlantic basin, where
267 Subtropical Mode Waters (STMW) are formed by subduction (Portela et al., 2020). The relatively higher
268 concentration of plastics in the Pacific basin than in the Atlantic basin must be related to the location of the
269 main sources. The lowest particles concentration are found in the weakest ventilated regions of the global
270 ocean, i.e. those associated with the oxygen minimum zones in the Eastern boundaries of all ocean basins
271 and in the northern Indian Ocean. At 600 m depth no plastic is found in the tropical band (Fig. 2E) and
272 the highest concentrations seem to be associated with the deepest limit of the mode waters and with the
273 spread of Intermediate waters (which spread from the Southern Ocean and reach a mean depth of 1000 m
274 northward).

275 The North Pacific is the largest reservoirs of neutral plastic particles, with a wider spatial distribution
276 at 200 m over the whole basin and a more focused concentration at 600 m following the contours of the
277 Subtropical Mode Waters (STMWs). Note that about 30% of the particles are found in the 200–700 m depth
278 range at the end of the simulation, such that these layers weight heavily in the water-column-integrated
279 number of particle discussed previously. In the South Indian Ocean, the patterns follow more or less the

280 upper layers, but shift 10° poleward at 600 m, where they follow the contours of STMWs and Subantarctic
281 Mode Water. In the North Atlantic ocean, large concentrations are found all over the basin, following the
282 contours of subtropical and subpolar mode waters, the concentrations shifting about 10° northward at 600 m
283 compared to 200 m. The concentration of the neutral 'plastic' particles in the thermocline waters below
284 the mixed layer are manifestly tied to the intrinsic ocean dynamics of the basins. Particle transport from
285 the surface to depth has been studied previously with Lagrangian analysis in relation with water masses
286 formation, subduction, ventilation and circulation (for example, Blanke et al., 2001). For instance, the high
287 concentrations found in the western Pacific between 30°N and 40°N are associated with the recirculation of
288 intermediate waters illustrated by Speich et al. (2007, their Fig. 1). The key qualitative difference between
289 the final concentrations at 200 and 600 m is the quasi-absence of particles in the tropics, such that the
290 distribution of the particles is much more localized at depth, and more dispersed at 200 m.

291 At 2000 m depth (Fig. 2F), the distribution pattern highlights the North Atlantic Deep Water (NADW)
292 formation and southward spreading along the deep western boundary current, in a way similar to man-made
293 Tritium and Chlorofluorocarbon (Rhein et al., 2002, 2015, for instance). Within 20 years, the NADW
294 tongue entraining neutral particles from the European and North American rivers has almost reached the
295 Zapiola seamount region in the Argentina basin, at the northern edge of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current.
296 Interesting smaller scale features show zonal spreading eastward at the equator and other latitudes, in the
297 form of zonal jets. This large-scale distribution pattern extends very clearly from about 1400 m to 3000 m
298 depth, i.e. the depth range of the different classes of NADW. Such NADW pathway is well documented in
299 previous Lagrangian analyses of the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation, oceanic ventilation and
300 water masses formation (Blanke et al., 2001, 2002a,b).

301 3.3 Vertical distribution

302 Averaged over the global ocean, the concentration of particles is monotonically decreasing with depth
303 (Fig. 3A). It decreases regularly over the thermocline, down to about 800 m, by about three orders of
304 magnitude, and then shows a plateau over the depth range of the North Atlantic Deep Water. Consequently,
305 the final vertical distribution of particles (Fig. 3B) shows that most of the neutrally buoyant particles either
306 remain in the upper layers of the ocean, with about 90% of the particles above 400 m depth, or it takes
307 longer for them to be transported to deeper layers. In the surface mixed layer, about 10% of the particles
308 are in the upper 10 m, 20% above 30 m, 30% above 50 m, and 50% above 114 m (Fig. 3B).

309 The evolution of these vertical concentrations with time (Fig. 3A) allows to track the particles on their
310 way downward. By the end of the first year, particles have barely reached the depth of about 600 m. By the
311 end of the fifth year, they have reached down to 4000 m, by year 10, down to about 4800 m, and by year
312 20, down the whole water column. Between year 10 and 20, the shape of the vertical distribution has not
313 fundamentally changed, but the whole distribution is shifted because of the doubling of the total number
314 of particles. An interesting feature of these final vertical distributions is the clear shift in the slope of the
315 concentration around 1000 m depth, probably linked to the 2 modes of ventilation of mode waters and deep
316 water formation, but its explanation will be left for future work.

317 A zonally-averaged meridional section of the particle concentrations (Fig. 4) provides a synthesis of our
318 results so far. In the upper 1000 m, the dumbbell structure of the larger concentration region reproduces
319 the characteristic bowl-shaped pattern of the oceanic thermocline (Huang, 2015), with vertical gradients
320 intensified in the equatorial region, and the thickness of the high-concentration regions following the
321 isopycnals deepening associated with the subtropical gyres. This points out the thermocline, and especially

322 the northern hemisphere one because of the location of the major plastic sources, as the largest reservoir of
323 particles.

324 Below 1000 m, particles in the global zonally-averaged section (Fig. 4A) clearly belong to the Atlantic
325 basin (Fig. 4B). In both panels, a region of minimum values is found around 1000 m from Antarctica
326 to about 25°N. Below, a thick tongue with higher concentrations (much lower than in the thermocline
327 though) extends between 1000 and 4000 m depth, and connects to the North Atlantic north of 25°N, where
328 large concentrations are found over the whole water column. This tongue shows decreasing concentrations
329 and thickness from 25°N southward. It is the prominent signature of the Atlantic Meridional Overturning
330 Circulation entraining neutral particles on its southward pathway along the western boundary (Fig. 2F).
331 North of about 60°N in the Atlantic, significant concentrations are found over the whole water column.
332 These are probably associated with the northward transport of particles by the Gulf Current and subsequent
333 sinking in the subpolar deep convection regions where NADW is formed. These waters with almost
334 homogeneous concentrations of particle are found over the northern North Atlantic and all over the Arctic
335 basin, in good agreement with recent observations (Ross et al., 2021).

336 3.4 Particles age

337 So far, we have only looked at particles concentrations, adding "young" particles released recently and
338 "older" particles that may have been released in remote areas. To investigate more accurately the history of
339 particles, we define the "age" of particles at the end of the simulation as the difference between the final
340 date (December 31st, 2010) and their release date, so this age is an integer number of months and cannot
341 exceed 20 yr. Then we can compute the mean age of the particles in each model grid cell by averaging the
342 age of all particles present at the final time. The mean age of the particles at different depths at the end of
343 the simulation is shown in Fig. 5. It provides a globally coherent information with respect to the expected
344 pathways of the particles. Particles are generally 'young' at the surface close to the large source regions of
345 Asia (Fig. 5BC), and much older deeper in the water column (Fig. 5EF) except for the strongly ventilated
346 regions (mostly the North Pacific, North Atlantic and South Indian at 220 m, Fig. 5D).

347 The globally-averaged particle age as a function of depth (not shown) is almost monotonically increasing
348 below a well-mixed upper layer, from 3.5 yr at the surface and 4.4 yr at 10 m, to 6.7 yr at 20 m, 11.8 yr at
349 220 m, 13.7 yr at 600 m, and 14.4 yr at 2000 m, and 17.0 yr at 5700 m. From the surface to about 20 m,
350 particles younger than 5 years are found close to the large sources regions (South-East Asia, Indonesia, Gulf
351 of Guinea) and downstream through the subpolar gyres anticyclonic circulation (Fig. 5BC), whereas older
352 particles are found in regions with very low sources (mostly the South Pacific basin, and the south-eastern
353 North Pacific). Between 200 and 600 m (Fig. 5DE), particles are generally older than 15 years, except for
354 the ventilated regions of the North Pacific, North Atlantic, and South Indian, associated with mode water
355 formation. There is a striking contrast between young particles above 20 m and older particles below 200 m
356 in the tropical and equatorial Atlantic and Indian basins, revealing the very shallow and sharp thermocline
357 separating mixed layer 'local' waters from particles advected from remote regions (as we shall see also
358 from the origin of the particles in Fig. 6). At 2000 m (Fig. 5F), there is clear age gradient from North to
359 South along the North Atlantic Deep Water pathway (from 10 years in the Greenland and Labrador Seas to
360 17 years offshore Argentina), but also eastward from the western boundary current.

361 3.5 Particles origin

362 Finally, we investigate the geographical origin of the particles at the end of the 20-yr long simulation.
363 For this purpose we have distinguished several regions based on somewhat arbitrary boundaries (Fig. 6F).

364 Then we have computed for each grid cell, at the end of the simulation, the number of particles originating
365 from each region. The grid cell is then flagged with the region of origin of the largest number of particles
366 (whatever the fraction of the total particles it represents). In general, particles in an ocean basin at the end
367 of the simulation originate in the same basin. This is particularly true at the surface, and for the North
368 Indian, Pacific and Atlantic basins. The most striking exception is the very wide spreading of particles
369 from Indonesia all over the Southern Hemisphere, most visible on Fig. 6A for the whole water column and
370 between 200 and 600 m (Fig. 6DE), highlighting the principal pathways from the Indian basin to the South
371 Atlantic basin through the Agulhas Current, and to the South Pacific south of Australia.

372 More than half of the total released particles (53.5% exactly) originate from the western North Pacific,
373 mostly from Chinese rivers. As described earlier, these particles are entrained by the North Pacific western
374 boundary current, the Kuroshio, and its eastward extension, all across the North Pacific basin (Maximenko
375 et al., 2018). Their vertical entrainment is also important, particularly in the subduction regions south of
376 the Kuroshio, such that the spreading of this particles extends down to more than 600 m. These particles
377 show the largest horizontal and vertical spreading.

378 Second in source amount and final spreading are the particles from the numerous Indonesian rivers
379 (17.2% of the total), that mostly cover the southern hemisphere, especially at depth from 200 to 700 m.
380 These particles mostly flow from the South Indian basin westward to the South Atlantic through the
381 Agulhas current in the upper 250 m, but also eastward to the South Pacific from 200 to 700 m within the
382 SubAntarctic Mode Water. The third source region in terms of released amount of particles is the North
383 Indian basin, including the rivers from the Bay of Bengal and from India (13.8%). Particles ending in the
384 upper 100 m in the North Indian basin mostly originate from this region, although some export is visible in
385 the surface layers along the East African Coast and Madagascar towards the South Atlantic basin (mixed
386 with particles from Indonesia).

387 In the Atlantic basin, sources from the Eastern North Atlantic (7.6%), including the Mediterranean Sea
388 and the Gulf of Guinea, and the Western North Atlantic (4.6%) are of comparable magnitude but spread
389 very differently. Particles found in the subtropical Atlantic largely originate from the Eastern region, mostly
390 the large rivers input from the Gulf of Guinea, but their vertical spreading remains limited to the surface
391 layers except in the North Atlantic subtropical gyre. Particles found in the subpolar gyre originate from
392 both coasts, with a dominant contribution from the western sources, especially at depth below 300 m. At
393 2000 m, particles following the North Atlantic Deep Water flow originate mainly from the western North
394 Atlantic, supplying most of the North Atlantic subpolar gyre waters through the Gulf Stream and North
395 Atlantic Drift, as highlighted at 600 m depth.

4 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

396 We have investigated herein the fate of particles released continuously at the coast according to river plastic
397 emissions, assuming their density is equal to the density of seawater (i.e. neutral buoyancy). About 200
398 million particles were released in total over a 20 yr long simulation, at the monthly rate of 327,014 to
399 1,619,932 particles according to the seasonal cycle. The 5,676 effective release points (river mouths), i.e.
400 emitting more than one particle per year, represented 99.9% of the total input estimated by Lebreton et al.
401 (2017). The particles trajectories are computed according to daily currents of a state-of-the-art global
402 ocean model at 1/12° resolution over the period 1991-2010 using the Lagrangian software Ariane. The
403 3D dispersion of these particles shows very non-isotropic features shaped by the ocean currents, in close
404 connection with the processes of ocean ventilation and water masses formation. At the end of the simulation,

405 less than 2% of the total released particles remained in the surface layer of 1 m thickness, about 50% are
406 found in the upper 114 m, and up to 90% in the upper 400 m.

407 Because of the rapid transfer of particles to shallow lower levels (over about 10 m) within the first month
408 after their release, the particle distribution at the surface down to 20 m reflects the large influence of the
409 sources, with the largest concentrations in the Asian rim from the Bay of Bengal to the China Sea up to
410 the Sea of Japan, but also in the Gulf of Guinea. In the subtropical gyres convergence zones, the largest
411 concentrations by far are found in the South Indian Basin, with particles originating partly from Indonesia
412 and Java and from mainland Asia. Second in rank are the South Atlantic Ocean and the North Pacific.
413 When looking at the number of particles integrated over the whole water column, the North Pacific is
414 second in rank after the South Indian Basin, far exceeding the other basins, but the particles are mostly
415 found at depth between 200 and 800 m.

416 Directly below the mixed layer, particles are no longer subject to the wind-driven Ekman currents
417 responsible for the surface convergence in the center of subtropical gyres. Particle concentrations are
418 thus lower but more widely spread than at the surface, with very large regions of almost homogeneous
419 concentrations – this feature has already been noted by Wichmann et al. (2019) in 2D Lagrangian
420 experiments performed at different levels down to 120 m. The most intense horizontal spreading occurs
421 around 200 m depth where all subtropical gyres except the South Pacific show significant concentrations.
422 Several dynamical processes contribute to this spreading: energetic western boundary currents and their
423 recirculations, and mode water formation. Around 600 m, the largest concentrations are found in the North
424 Pacific with maximum values in the western basin, following patterns of ocean ventilation and mode waters.
425 Below 1000 m, the prominent pattern is the Atlantic deep western boundary following the North Atlantic
426 Deep Water path with maximum values around 2000 m depth vertically, and in the Labrador Sea decreasing
427 southward down to the Antarctic Circumpolar Current horizontally. The latitude-depth structure of particles
428 concentration shows large concentrations in the bowl-shaped thermocline, decreasing with depth, except
429 for the prominent signature of North Atlantic Deep Water.

430 An intriguing aspect of the results is the relatively low concentrations in the North Pacific subtropical gyre
431 at the surface (aka the Great Pacific Garbage Patch in the media), compared to the Indian Ocean, the South
432 Atlantic or even the North Atlantic. As already illustrated by Chenillat et al. (2021, their Fig. 1), the amount
433 of plastic that enters the North Pacific from the Asian coastline is much larger than any other region, but
434 lower from the river input used here than from the coastal population mismanaged waste (Jambeck et al.,
435 2015; van Sebille et al., 2015), leading to a lower feeding of the GPGP. Work is underway to reproduce
436 these simulations with a coastal population mismanaged waste scenario and estimate its influence on the
437 concentrations in the North Pacific convergence zone. In addition, the model 3D dynamics used here is
438 such that these plastics rapidly disappear from the surface, and progressively feed deeper layers between
439 200 and 800 m. Another explanation may come from the influence of (wind-)wave-induced Stokes drift
440 that is not taken into account in these simulations, but ongoing work – albeit with lower resolution models –
441 seems to suggest Stokes drift has a significant influence on the retention of particles at the surface (Bajon
442 et al., manuscript in preparation).

443 For the particles transport in the Lagrangian framework, we have only taken into account the influence
444 of currents resolved by the ocean model, because of its limited spatial resolution in the horizontal and
445 vertical, and its temporal resolution. There are several other processes that should be estimated to validate
446 our results, the ones that come readily to mind being the vertical eddy diffusion due to energetic surface
447 turbulence (Kukulka et al., 2012; Fischer et al., 2021; Onink et al., 2022). The latter, as well as submesoscale
448 processes with large vertical velocities in the mixed layer are not resolved within our NEMO simulation at

449 1/12°. Investigating such processes requires even higher horizontal and vertical resolution, that are hardly
450 compatible with global simulations over decades. Nevertheless the influence of these processes will have to
451 be investigated in the future and compared to the advective signal.

452 In agreement with widespread, although few, deep observations of small microplastics in the Atlantic,
453 Pacific and Arctic Oceans (Egger et al., 2020; Pabortsava and Lampitt, 2020; Ross et al., 2021; Vega-
454 Moreno et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2022), our results show that the water column may be a very large reservoir
455 of neutrally buoyant plastics, either because of their very small size (nanoplastics), or shape (fibers), or
456 because of biofouling affecting their buoyancy (Kvale et al., 2020; Lobelle et al., 2021). Obviously, 3D
457 dispersion experiments lead to much lower plastic concentration levels than 2D surface simulations because
458 of the distribution of plastics throughout the water column, so probably less harmful to marine organisms
459 – however it challenges any attempt to collect plastics once they are released at sea, inciting initiatives
460 addressed to more efficient recovery at the source regions near river mouths. This very first step in the
461 3D physical dispersion of neutral plastics in the global ocean requires more elaborate studies to consider
462 particles (polymers) of different densities and to model the evolution of their buoyancy in the course of
463 plastics life at sea, especially in relation with biological processes as already initiated by Lobelle et al.
464 (2021) for instance – the complexity of the problem is definitely challenging!

CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

465 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial
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FIGURE CAPTIONS

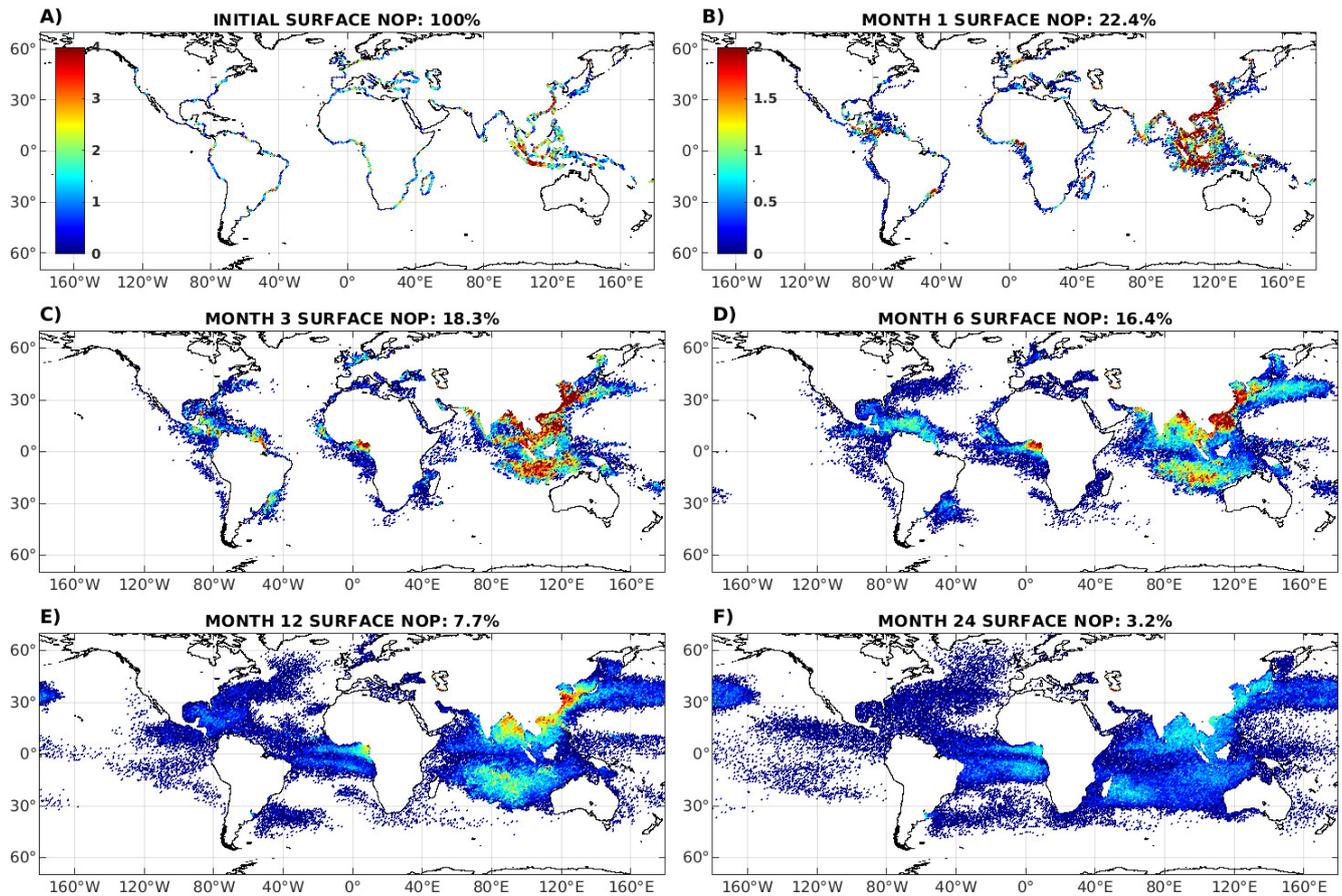


Figure 1. Initial dispersion of particles released according to the river input over the first years of simulation (averaged over the 12 monthly releases). (A) Total number of released particles on the NEMO ORCA 1/12° grid according to (Lebreton et al., 2017). (B,C,D,E,F) Number of particles in the surface grid cells 1, 3, 6, 12 and 24 months after their release, showing the horizontal dispersion. A logarithmic scale (\log_{10}) is used for the colorbars, and the colormap for panels BCDEF is the same and shown in panel B. The number in the figure title is the fraction of particles in the surface layer at the time after release. Only 22% of the particles remain at the surface after the first month of 3D advection because of vertical spreading. NOP stands for Number of Particles. The difference with the next figure is that here, only particles of the same age (N month) are shown, and not all the particles that have been released between initialisation and the month indicated in the title.

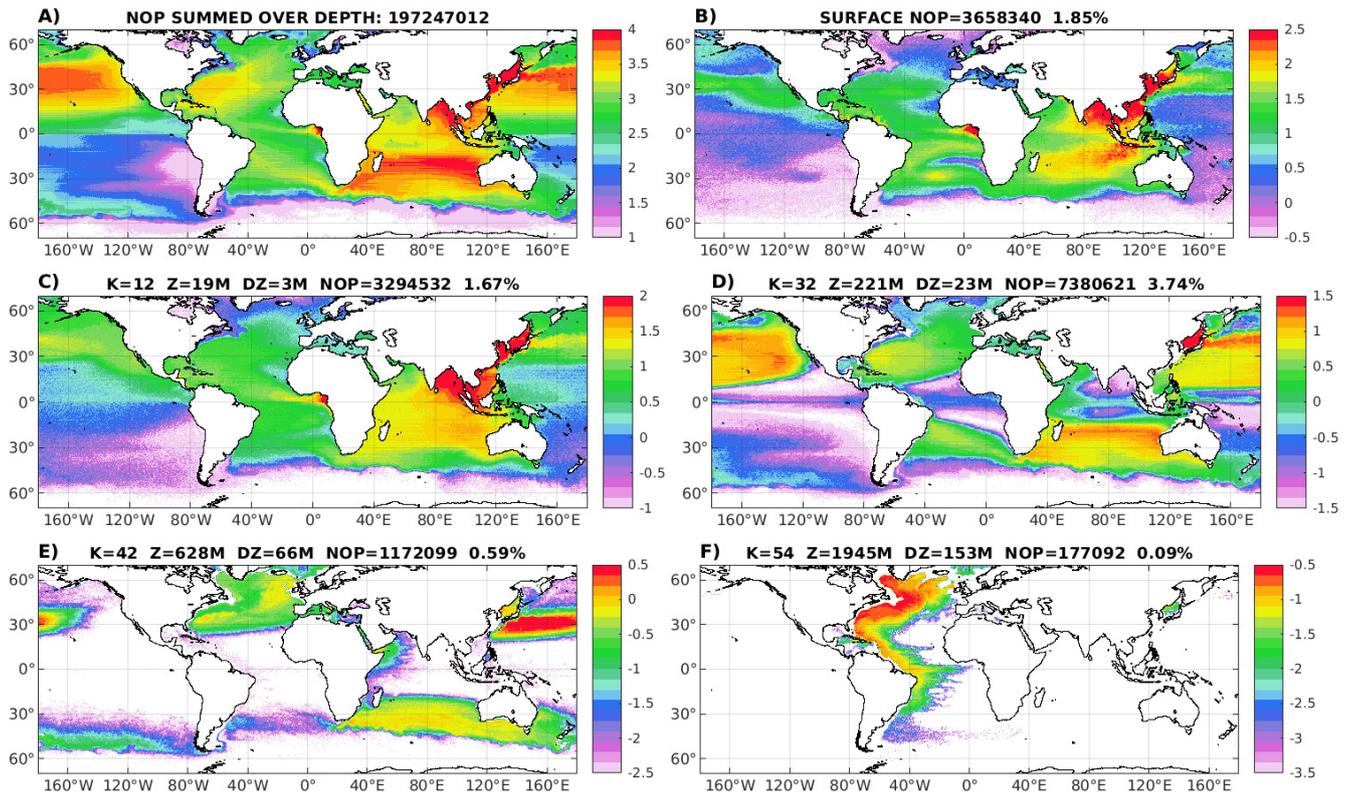


Figure 2. Horizontal distribution of particles at different depth at the end of the 20-yr long simulation, averaged over the last year (12 monthly outputs). (A) Horizontal distribution of particles summed over depth (in number of particles per $1/2^\circ \times 1/2^\circ$ grid cell). Number of particles per grid cell divided by the layer thickness (in #/m) (B) at the surface, (C) at 20 m depth, (D) at 220 m depth, (E) at 630 m depth, and (F) at 2000 m depth. The number of particles is computed on a regular $1/2^\circ \times 1/2^\circ$ to filter out the noise on the native irregular NEMO ORCA $1/12^\circ$ grid. Note the logarithmic scale covering 3 orders of magnitude to enhance lower concentration regions, and the colorscale varying with depth, as the concentration in particles/m decreases monotonically with depth. Every other color range, the particle concentration doubles. Panel titles indicate the vertical level index K, the mean depth Z, the layer thickness DZ, the total number of particle in the layer NOP and the fraction of the total particles it represents. Level 32 at 221 m, with a 22.5 m thickness, contains the largest number of particles (3.7%) and shows the strongest horizontal dispersion.

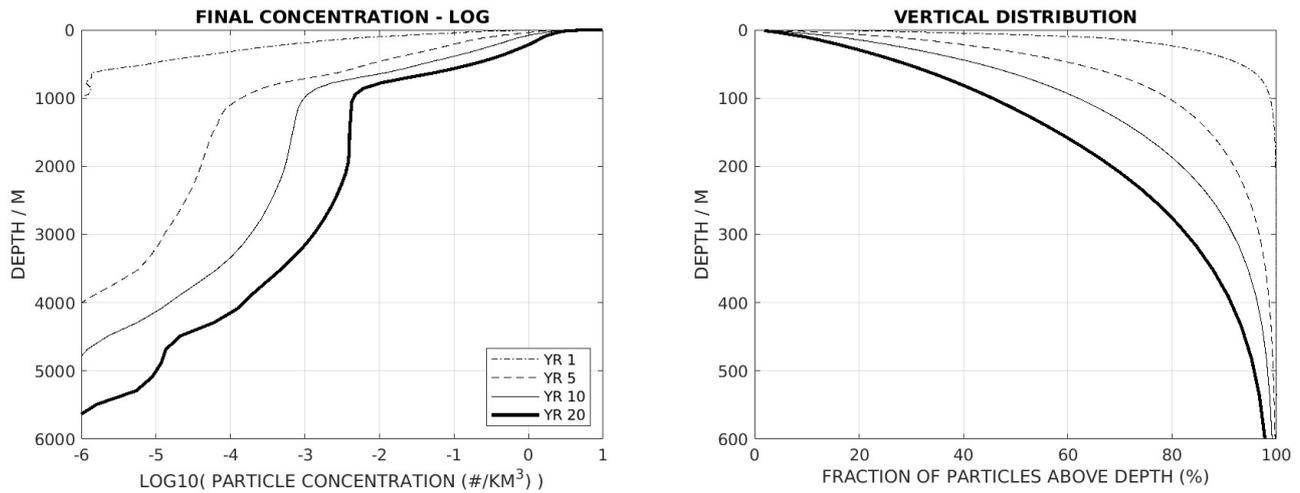


Figure 3. Vertical distribution of particles at different times of the 20-yr long simulation. **(left)** Concentration of particles as a function of depth – concentration is defined as the number of particles at each vertical level divided by the total ocean volume of each layer (in $\#/km^3$). Note the log10 scale for the concentrations. **(right)** Number of particles integrated from the surface, represented as the percent of the total amount of particles released as a function of depth (zoomed over the thermocline).

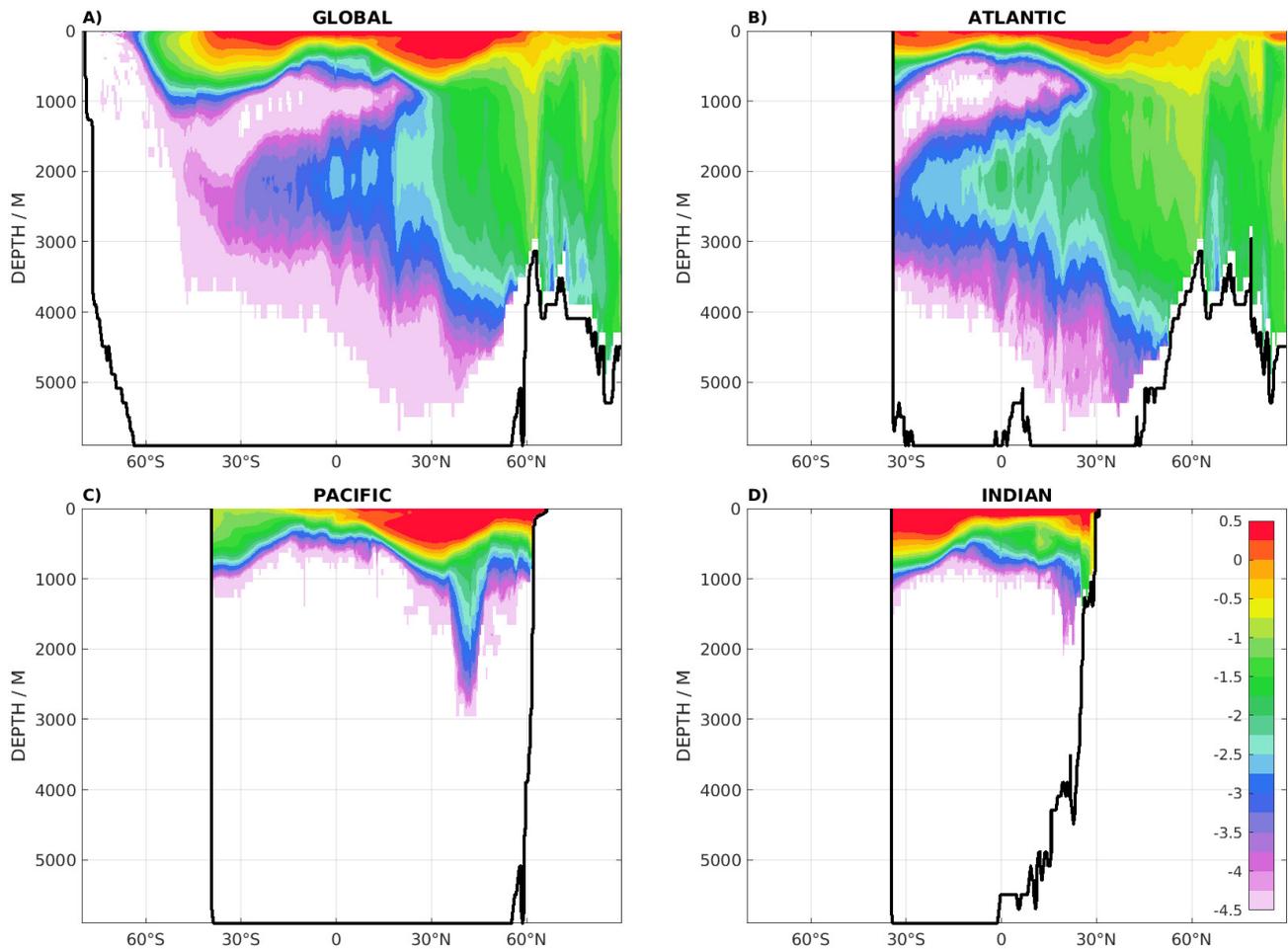


Figure 4. Concentration of particles (in $\#/km^3$) as a function of latitude and depth at the end of the 20-yr long simulation, for (A) the global domain, (B) the Atlantic, (C) Pacific and (D) Indian sectors. The number of particles is first integrated zonally over $1/2^\circ$ latitude bands for each vertical level, divided by the ocean volume for the same latitude band and vertical level, and represented as a function of latitude and depth, in log10 scale of the concentration to highlight the lower concentrations along the North Atlantic Deep Water path around 2000 m depth. The same color scale is used and shown in panel (D). The thick black line is the zero contour for the zonally integrated volume as a function of latitude and depth (below this depth, there is no ocean gridpoint at the given latitude).

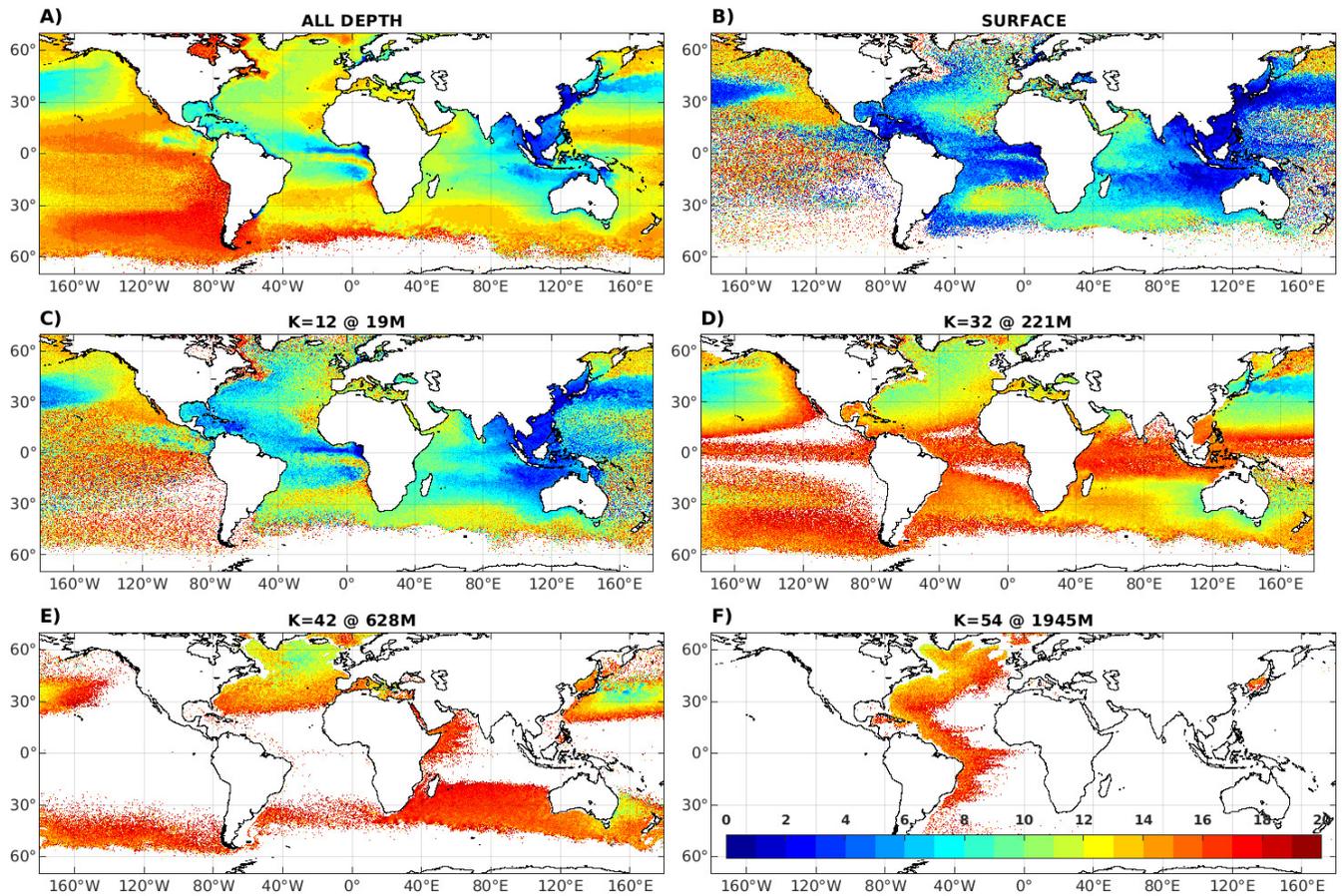


Figure 5. Mean age of the particles at different depth at the end of the 20-yr long simulation (in year), computed on a regular $1/2^\circ \times 1/2^\circ$ grid. **(A)** For all particles summed over depth. **(B)** For particles at the surface, **(C)** at 20 m depth, **(D)** at 220 m depth, **(E)** at 630 m depth, and **(F)** at 2000 m depth. The same color scale is used and shown at the bottom of the lower right panel **F**.

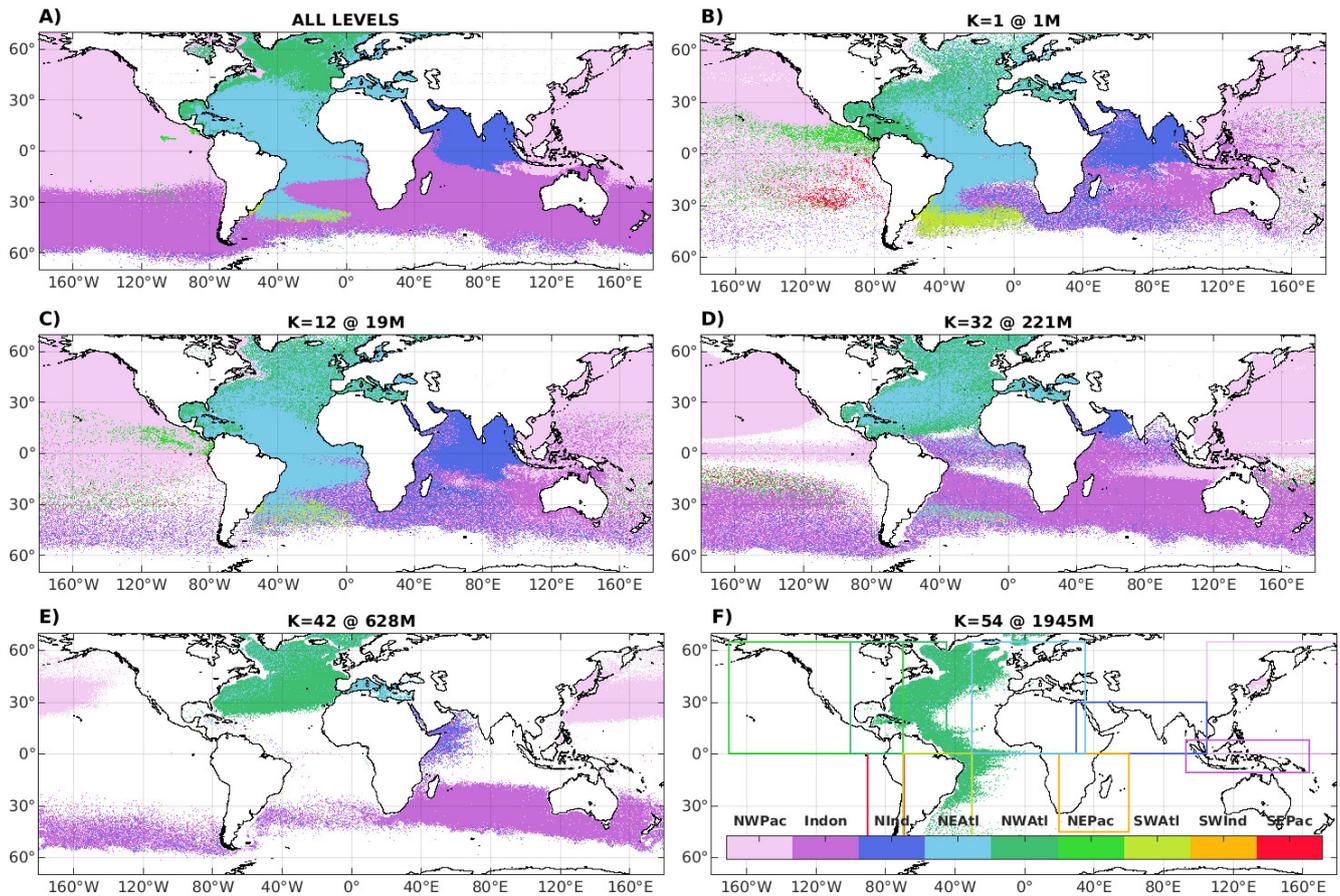


Figure 6. Region of origin of the particles at the end of the 20-yr long simulation, computed on a regular $1/2^\circ \times 1/2^\circ$ grid. **(A)** For all particles over the water column. **(B)** For particles at the surface, **(C)** at 20 m depth, **(D)** at 220 m depth, **(E)** at 630 m depth, and **(F)** at 2000 m depth. The color indicates the region from which the largest number of particles originates. The same color code is used and shown at the bottom of the lower right panel, with the regions defined according to the geographical boundaries drawn and the basin mask provided with NEMO ORCA $1/12^\circ$ configuration; Indonesia mask overrides other regions; gridcells belong to a single region (no overlap). The regions are ordered according to the total amount of particles released, the western North Pacific (53.5%), Indonesia (17.2%), the North Indian Basin (13.8%), the eastern North Atlantic including the Mediterranean Sea and the Gulf of Guinea (7.6%), the western North Atlantic (4.6%), the eastern North Pacific (0.6%), the western South Atlantic (0.4%), the western South Indian (0.1%), the eastern South Pacific and eastern South Atlantic (0.04%) – sources from Australia are too weak to be represented in our release scenario.