

1 Southern Ocean Isopycnal Mixing and Ventilation
2 Changes Driven by Winds

Ryan Abernathey¹ and David Ferreira,²

¹Lamont Doherty Earth Observatory of
Columbia University, Palisades, New York,
USA.

²Department of Meteorology, University
of Reading, Reading, UK.

3 Observed and predicted changes in the strength of the westerly winds blow-
4 ing over the Southern Ocean have motivated a number of studies of the re-
5 sponse of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current and Southern Ocean Merid-
6 ional Overturning Circulation (MOC) to wind perturbations and led to the
7 discovery of the “eddy-compensation” regime, wherein the MOC becomes in-
8 sensitive to wind changes. In addition to the MOC, tracer transport also de-
9 pends on mixing processes. Here we show, in a high-resolution process model,
10 that isopycnal mixing by mesoscale eddies is strongly dependent on the wind
11 strength. This dependence can be explained by mixing-length theory and is
12 driven by increases in eddy kinetic energy; the mixing length does not change
13 strongly in our simulation. Simulation of a passive ventilation tracer (anal-
14 ogous to CFCs or anthropogenic CO₂) demonstrates that variations in tracer
15 uptake across experiments are dominated by changes in isopycnal mixing,
16 rather than changes in the MOC. We argue that, to properly understand tracer
17 uptake under different wind-forcing scenarios, the sensitivity of isopycnal mix-
18 ing to winds must be accounted for.

1. Introduction

19 The steeply sloped isopycnal surfaces of the Southern Ocean, which outcrop at the
20 surface and rapidly deepen across the Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC), provide
21 an adiabatic pathway for exchange between the atmosphere and deep ocean. For this
22 reason, the Southern Ocean is believed to play a central role in regulating the ocean-
23 atmosphere exchange of carbon, heat and other tracers [*Broecker, 1997; Caldeira and*
24 *Duffy, 2000; Sabine et al., 2004; Gille, 2008; Anderson et al., 2009; Khatiwala et al.,*
25 *2009*]. The Southern Ocean is already a major region of uptake of anthropogenic carbon
26 and heat, and the future evolution of this carbon sink is one of the uncertainties in
27 forecasts of future climate change [*Le Quéré et al., 2009*]. A compelling hypothesis is that
28 interactions between wind forcing, Southern Ocean circulation, and atmospheric carbon
29 lead to important climate feedbacks with the potential to regulate both glacial cycles and
30 anthropogenic climate change [*Toggweiler and Russell, 2008; Toggweiler, 2009*]. However,
31 the puzzle posed recently by *Landschützer et al. [2015]* (i.e. that Southern Ocean CO₂
32 uptake has increased over the last decade, in contrast with previous estimates for the 80s
33 and 90s [*Le Quéré et al., 2007*]) highlights our incomplete understanding of the sensitivity
34 of the ventilation process.

35 Southern Ocean ventilation involves both advective and diffusive transport, and
36 mesoscale eddies participate in both aspects [*Lee et al., 1997, 2007*]. The advective part is
37 closely tied to the Meridional Overturning Circulation (MOC) [*Lumpkin and Speer, 2007;*
38 *Marshall and Speer, 2012*], and ocean circulation theory suggests that the Southern Ocean
39 westerly winds control the strength of the upwelling branch of the MOC [*Gnanadesikan,*

1999; Marshall and Radko, 2003; Nikurashin and Vallis, 2012; Rintoul and Naveira Garabato, 2013]. A large amount of recent research has probed the nature of this dependence, and, in particular, the role played by mesoscale eddies in advective transport. While some coarse resolution ocean models do demonstrate strong MOC dependence on winds, more realistic higher resolution models exhibit so-called “eddy compensation,” wherein changes in eddy-induced overturning largely cancel changes in wind-driven overturning [Hallberg and Gnanadesikan, 2006; Spence et al., 2009; Farneti et al., 2010; Abernathy et al., 2011; Farneti and Gent, 2011; Meredith et al., 2012; Farneti et al., 2015; Gent, 2015]. This behavior is compatible with hydrographic observations showing that isopycnal slopes in the Southern Ocean have not significantly steepened over the past decades despite the substantial intensification of the westerlies over the same period, implying that eddy-induced vertical advection has compensated for changes in Ekman pumping [Böning et al., 2008]. We therefore have some evidence from both observations and models that, in the present climate, the residual MOC is not as strongly sensitive to westerly wind changes as Ekman theory alone would suggest, although the sensitivity of the real ocean has not been measured and remains open to debate [see Rintoul and Naveira Garabato, 2013]. At the same time, there are indications that Southern Ocean ventilation has changed in recent decades. Using CFC data, Waugh et al. [2013] demonstrated a decrease in the age of subantarctic mode water and an increase in the age of circumpolar deep water [see also Waugh, 2014].

For tracers other than density, it is well known that eddy-diffusive transport along isopycnals can be as important as advection by the MOC, and, depending on the timescales and

62 tracer gradients, can act in opposition to advection [*Lee et al.*, 1997; *Lee and Williams*,
63 2000; *Lee et al.*, 2007]. Indeed, recent studies with a comprehensive climate model (in
64 which eddy mixing is parameterized following *Redi* 1982) have demonstrated that isopy-
65 cnal diffusivity exerts a strong control over Antarctic sea ice [*Pradal and Gnanadesikan*,
66 2014], trace elements [*Gnanadesikan et al.*, 2014], anthropogenic carbon uptake [*Gnanade-*
67 *sikan et al.*, 2015], and carbon pumps (*Gnanadesikan et al.*, submitted manuscript). De-
68 spite the dozens of papers on the advective response of mesoscale eddies to wind changes,
69 there has been no investigation into the *changes* in isopycnal mixing which occur in re-
70 sponse to wind changes in eddy-resolving models. This is the goal of our paper.

71 In this study, we use an eddy-resolving numerical model of an idealized circumpolar
72 channel to demonstrate that isopycnal mixing, unlike the MOC, is strongly sensitive to
73 wind changes. This analysis is enabled by a tracer-based technique which permits the
74 explicit diagnosis of isopycnal diffusivity as a function of depth and latitude [*Nakamura*,
75 1996]. We show how mixing-length theory can be used to explain the sensitivity of isopy-
76 cnal mixing to the winds, via the eddy-kinetic-energy dependence on wind power input.
77 We then demonstrate that these changes in isopycnal mixing lead to significant differences
78 in the uptake of a transient ventilation tracer (analogous to tracers such as anthropogenic
79 CO₂ or CFCs).

2. Model Description

80 The simulations are designed to qualitatively resemble the ACC in ways relevant for
81 mixing and ventilation. The model set-up is identical to that used by *Abernathey et al.*
82 [2011], *Hill et al.* [2012], and, *Abernathey et al.* [2013], which the reader should consult

83 for further details. The code uses the MITgcm [*Marshall et al.*, 1997a, b] to solve the
84 Boussinesq primitive equations. A linear equation of state with no salinity is employed.
85 The domain is a zonally reentrant channel on a β -plane, 1000 km x 2000 km x 2985 m.
86 Forcing consists of zonally symmetric zonal wind stress and fixed heat flux. The wind
87 stress forcing is a sinusoid which peaks in the center of the domain with a maximum value
88 of τ_0 (to be varied as described below). The heat flux contains alternating regions of cool-
89 ing, heating, and cooling, with an amplitude of 10 W m^{-2} . Spurious numerical diffusion is
90 minimized through the use of a second-order-moment advection scheme [*Prather*, 1986],
91 resulting in an effective diapycnal diffusivity of about $10^{-5} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ [*Hill et al.*, 2012]. Res-
92 olution is 5 km in the horizontal with 30 unevenly spaced vertical levels. With a Rossby
93 radius of approx. 20 km, this model can be considered “eddy resolving.”

94 The northern boundary is a sponge layer in which the temperature is relaxed to an
95 exponential stratification profile with an e-folding scale of 1000 m, similar to observed
96 profiles in the Southern Ocean [*Karsten and Marshall*, 2002]. The presence of the sponge
97 layer, together with the applied pattern of heating and cooling, allows a nonzero resid-
98 ual overturning, qualitatively resembling the real Southern Ocean [see e.g. *Marshall and*
99 *Radko*, 2003; *Lumpkin and Speer*, 2007], to emerge.

100 To explore the sensitivity of the system to wind stress, we conduct three experiments
101 with different values of τ_0 : 0.1, 0.2, and 0.3 N m^{-2} . This range represents a strong yet
102 plausible variation in Southern hemisphere westerly winds over climate timescales. As
103 shown in *Abernathey et al.* [2011], with the fixed-flux boundary condition employed here,
104 the residual MOC (averaged in density rather than depth space) depends rather weakly on

105 the winds compared to the Ekman / Eulerian-mean overturning: the upper cell increases
106 from about 0.4 Sv to 0.6 Sv as the winds (and associated Ekman transport) are tripled.

107 Although the model is highly idealized in its geometry, the eddy statistics and transports
108 in the $\tau_0 = 0.1 \text{ N m}^{-2}$ experiment are realistic. The surface eddy kinetic energy (EKE) of
109 roughly $300 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$ is comparable to that observed by satellite altimetry in the Southern
110 Ocean [Stammer, 1997], and the decay of EKE in the vertical has a similar profile to more
111 realistic global models [Vollmer and Eden, 2013]. If the 1000 km width is rescaled to the
112 zonal extent of the full ocean, the residual MOC transport would be 12 Sv, well within
113 the observational error bars [Lumpkin and Speer, 2007; Mazloff et al., 2010]. Likewise, the
114 eddy isopycnal diffusivities (described further below) have significant spatial variability
115 and reach a maximum magnitude of approx. $4000 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$, similar to estimates from more
116 realistic models [Abernathey et al., 2010; Lee et al., 2007].

117 The most unrealistic aspect of the model is its zonal symmetry. In the real Southern
118 Ocean, eddy activity and mixing are concentrated around topographic hotspots [Treguier
119 and McWilliams, 1990; Naveira-Garabato et al., 2011; Thompson and Sallée, 2012]. We
120 use a zonally symmetric model to isolate the fundamental parametric sensitivity of isopy-
121 cnal mixing to external forcing, and because isopycnal diffusivity is much harder to quan-
122 tify without zonal averaging due to the presence of non-local eddy fluxes. Abernathey
123 and Cessi [2014] examined the interaction between mesoscale eddies and topography in
124 similar idealized simulations. They concluded that topography enhances the overall ef-
125 ficiency of eddy mixing, but that eddy kinetic energy remains highly sensitive to winds.
126 Furthermore, they showed how the additional “stationary eddy” fluxes that arise due

127 to topographic meanders are only possible due to transient eddies, and that a transfor-
 128 mation to “streamwise” coordinates which follow the topographically induced meanders
 129 can remove the stationary component [*de Szoeke and Levine, 1981; Marshall et al., 1993;*
 130 *Viebahn and Eden, 2012*]. We therefore expect that our results here will apply quali-
 131 tatively to more realistic geometries, although the mixing would be more localized near
 132 topography.

3. Isopycnal Effective Diffusivity

133 We diagnose isopycnal mixing rates using the modified-Lagrangian-mean effective diffu-
 134 sivity framework of *Nakamura [1996]* [see also *Haynes and Shuckburgh, 2000; Shuckburgh*
 135 *and Haynes, 2003; Marshall et al., 2006; Abernathey et al., 2010*]. *Abernathey et al. [2013]*
 136 used this model configuration to conduct a detailed study of the spatial structure of isopy-
 137 cnal mixing and compare different methods of diagnosing isopycnal diffusivity, including
 138 Lagrangian diffusivity from simulated particles, passive tracer releases, and inversion from
 139 the eddy flux of potential vorticity. They concluded that, when properly executed, the
 140 different methods all produce a consistent estimate of the magnitude and spatial structure
 141 of isopycnal mixing.

Here, for simplicity, we focus on the effective diffusivity of *Nakamura [1996]*. It is computed by releasing a passive tracer with an initial meridional gradient, allowing it to be stirred by the model velocity field, and quantifying the resulting fine structure that is produced. The effective diffusivity is defined as:

$$K_{eff} = \kappa \frac{L_e^2}{L_{min}^2} \quad (1)$$

142 where κ is the grid-scale horizontal diffusivity, L_e is the “equivalent length” of a filamented
 143 tracer contour, and L_{min} is the minimum possible length of the contour (here equal to
 144 1000 km, the length of the domain). L_e is diagnosed, as described in *Nakamura* [1996],
 145 through a robust numerical method involving area integrals over the instantaneous tracer
 146 gradient. In the high Peclet-number regime considered here, K_{eff} becomes independent
 147 of κ , leading to a converged estimate of mixing rates [*Marshall et al.*, 2006].

148 Following the detailed procedure of *Abernathey et al.* [2013] for a robust estimate of
 149 K_{eff} , the passive tracer is released and allowed to evolve for two years, with snapshots
 150 output every month. At each snapshot, the tracer is interpolated to isopycnals and K_{eff} is
 151 calculated following (1). Five such two-year periods are repeated to produce an ensemble
 152 average of K_{eff} for each wind magnitude.

The results of the K_{eff} calculation are shown in Fig. 1, as functions of latitude and
 density (the native coordinate for the calculation, top row) and also latitude and depth
 (second row). The spatial structure of K_{eff} matches a now-well-understood paradigm,
 with reduced values near the surface and bottom and a maximum near 1000 m depth
 [*Abernathey et al.*, 2010; *Naveira-Garabato et al.*, 2011]. This spatial structure can be
 explained using mixing-length arguments which account for the mixing-suppression effect
 of eddy propagation relative to the mean flow [*Ferrari and Nikurashin*, 2010; *Klocker
 et al.*, 2012a, b; *Klocker and Abernathey*, 2014]. Specifically,

$$K_{eff} \simeq \Gamma v_{rms} L_{mix} \quad (2)$$

153 where Γ is an $O(1)$ constant called mixing efficiency, v_{rms} is the root-mean-square eddy
154 velocity, and L_{mix} is the mixing length, related to the eddy size and the eddy phase speed
155 relative to the mean flow.

156 The magnitude of K_{eff} clearly increases with increasing winds, while its spatial structure
157 remains mostly unchanged. These changes are driven almost entirely by changes in EKE.
158 As shown in Fig. 1, EKE also increases strongly with winds. We also calculate an
159 effective mixing length L_{mix} by inverting Eq. (2), using $\Gamma = 0.35$ and $v_{rms} = \sqrt{2EKE}$
160 [Kloeker and Abernathy, 2014]. The effective mixing length remains roughly constant in
161 magnitude and spatial structure as the winds change strength (Fig. 1, bottom row). The
162 spatial structure of L_{mix} is consistent with the mixing-suppression model of Ferrari and
163 Nikurashin [2010], in which eddy phase propagation relative to the (spatially variable)
164 zonal mean flow suppresses the mixing rate. The lack of sensitivity of L_{mix} to the winds
165 shows that such effects themselves do not depend strongly on winds in this scenario; both
166 eddy propagation and zonal mean flow change relatively little.

167 The strong dependence of EKE on winds can be understood based on the mechanical
168 energy balance. Wind work is the primary source of energy for the ocean, and there is
169 strong observational evidence that bottom drag is a dominant mechanism for mesoscale
170 energy dissipation [Sen et al., 2008; Wright et al., 2012, 2013]. If the wind forcing increases,
171 the eddy dissipation must also increase, which requires an increase in eddy amplitude.
172 Specifically, with the linear bottom drag employed in this model, one expects a linear
173 dependence of EKE on wind stress [Cessi, 2008; Abernathy et al., 2011]. If L_{mix} changes

174 weakly, this implies $K_{eff} \propto \tau_0^{1/2}$. Other types of bottom drag than linear (e.g. quadratic
 175 or lee wave) would have quantitatively different, but qualitatively similar, scalings.

176 We illustrate these scalings in Fig. 2 by plotting EKE, L_{mix} , and K_{eff} , averaged over
 177 a small mid-depth region indicated by the box in Fig. 1. (Using a small region avoids
 178 artifacts arising from compensatory spatial correlations of EKE and L_{mix} .) Fig. 2 shows
 179 that EKE does indeed have a linear relationship with τ_0 , L_{mix} remains constant, and
 180 K_{eff} increases roughly proportionally to $\tau_0^{1/2}$. Log-linear fits of the points in Fig. 2 give
 181 a scaling exponent of 1.0 for EKE and 0.57 for K_{eff} . Similar scaling holds at other points
 182 in the domain.

4. Transient Ventilation Tracer

183 Isopycnal mixing has a limited effect on the physical circulation because it does not affect
 184 density. However, it has a strong effect on other tracers. To illustrate this, we simulate
 185 an idealized ventilation tracer, meant as a crude analog of observed passive tracers such
 186 as CFCs or anthropogenic CO₂.

187 At the surface, the ventilation tracer is forced by a relaxation to a value of 1 unit/m³
 188 (with a restoring timescale of 6 hours), the simplest representation of air-sea exchanges
 189 with a large atmospheric reservoir. The ventilation tracer is also restored to zero in the
 190 northern boundary sponge layer, effectively assuming that the ventilation tracer leaves the
 191 domain at the northern boundary. The tracer is mixed near the surface by the mixed layer
 192 scheme, but no other explicit mixing is applied (i.e. it is treated the same as temperature).
 193 Note that the advection scheme of *Prather* [1986] is also used on the tracer, which therefore
 194 experiences a very low numerical diapycnal mixing [*Hill et al.*, 2012]. Thus, in the ocean

195 interior, the ventilation tracer is, to a good approximation, advected passively by the
196 turbulent flow and conserved on isopycnals.

197 The tracer is initialized uniformly to zero and its transient evolution simulated over
198 10 years; results are summarized in Fig. 3. It is readily seen that the uptake of tracer
199 is much larger with stronger winds (top row). After 5 years, the tracer occupies the
200 whole ventilated thermocline (above the 0.25°C isotherm) up to the Northern boundary
201 for $\tau_0=0.3 \text{ N m}^{-2}$. For a weaker wind (0.1 N.m^{-2}), the tracer barely extends across the
202 mid-channel in the ocean interior. Quantitatively, the total tracer uptake is about 50%
203 times larger with $\tau_0=0.3$ than 0.1 N.m^{-2} after 5 years (bottom left).

204 Local differences are also evident. The tracer uptake clearly follows the pattern of
205 the residual-mean overturning with maximum uptake along isotherms associated with
206 the downwelling branches. However, net uptake of tracer is also seen on isotherms with
207 upwelling. On these isotherms, the spreading of the tracer is due to isopycnal mixing
208 (recall the very small diapycnal mixing), working against the upwelling flow that brings
209 tracer-free water parcels upwards. We emphasize here that, on the isotherms with net
210 upwelling, the upwelling rate *increases* with increasing winds. Because the system is in an
211 eddy-compensated regime, changes in upwelling rates are not as large as those expected
212 from changes in the wind-driven circulation alone [see *Abernathey et al.*, 2011], but are
213 significant nonetheless. On the isotherm of maximum upwelling (1.5 , 1.1 and 0.9°C), the
214 upwelling flows (along the isotherm) are 7.8 cm s^{-1} , 11.4 cm s^{-1} , and 15.1 cm s^{-1} for
215 $\tau_0=0.1$, 0.2 , and 0.3 N.m^{-2} , respectively.

216 The advance of the 0.1 unit m^3 tracer contour along the isotherm of maximum upwelling
217 is shown in Fig. 3 (bottom right). We observe that the ventilation tracer penetrates much
218 faster into the ocean interior, against the upwelling flow, for larger winds. This is a key
219 point: despite the increased upwelling, the tracer uptake is larger with increased winds;
220 changes in isopycnal mixing dominate over changes of the residual MOC.

221 Our ventilation tracer is idealized (e.g. solubility effects have been neglected) and has
222 a fast air-sea flux time scale, and cannot readily be used to estimate the wind effect
223 on the uptake of observed tracers [see discussion in *Ito et al.*, 2004]. However, it illus-
224 trates that tracer uptake does increase with increasing winds (globally and locally) mainly
225 through the effects of intensified isopycnal mixing. These results are compatible with
226 *Gnanadesikan et al.* [2015], who found that increasing the isopycnal mixing coefficient in
227 a coarse-resolution model led to increased uptake of CO_2 by the ocean.

5. Discussion and Conclusions

228 The discussion of the Southern Ocean response to wind changes (motivated by recent
229 observed changes due to ozone depletion and CO_2 emissions or by a paleoclimate context)
230 has mostly been concerned with the response of the strength of the ACC and MOC. Early
231 suggestions were that changes in the MOC would scale with those of the wind-driven
232 component and would be relatively large, with large impacts on the uptake of tracers such
233 as anthropogenic CO_2 [*Toggweiler*, 2009; *Le Quéré et al.*, 2009]. Recent modeling studies
234 [*Hallberg and Gnanadesikan*, 2006], backed up by theoretical arguments [*Abernathey et al.*,
235 2011] and observations [*Böning et al.*, 2008] suggest a much more moderate impact of
236 winds on the residual-mean (or effective) MOC, accounting for the adjustment of the

237 eddy-induced MOC to wind changes – the so-called “eddy compensation” regime [see
238 also *Farneti et al.*, 2010; *Viebahn and Eden*, 2010; *Meredith et al.*, 2012; *Rintoul and*
239 *Naveira Garabato*, 2013; *Farneti et al.*, 2015; *Gent*, 2015]. This emphasis on the *advective*
240 component neglects the important role played by *diffusive* isopycnal eddy mixing in tracer
241 transport [*Lee et al.*, 1997, 2007]. In the present study, we demonstrate for the first time
242 that isopycnal mixing is strongly dependent on the strength of the westerly winds and,
243 further, that this dependence leads to different rates of uptake of a transient ventilation
244 tracer. More precisely, we illustrate that *changes* in the isopycnal mixing of a ventilation
245 tracer can be large enough to overcome *changes* in advection.

246 Coarse resolution ocean climate models represent the advective and isopycnal mix-
247 ing effects of mesoscale eddies through two separate parameterizations. The *Gent and*
248 *McWilliams* [1990] parameterization provides an eddy-induced advection velocity whose
249 strength is governed by the so-called “GM coefficient” K_{GM} , while the *Redi* [1982] pa-
250 rameterization provides along-isopycnal diffusion with diffusivity K_{Redi} . Although they
251 both parameterize unresolved mesoscale turbulence, the relationship between these two
252 coefficients is non-trivial [*Smith and Marshall*, 2009; *Abernathey et al.*, 2013]. Our K_{eff}
253 calculations here are comparable to K_{Redi} , while the eddy transfer coefficients in *Aber-*
254 *nathey et al.* [2011] were comparable to K_{GM} .

255 Because of its role in equilibrating the pycnocline and producing advective transport,
256 the GM coefficient is crucial to properly reproducing eddy saturation in coarse-resolution
257 models; *Farneti and Gent* [2011] showed that a coarse-resolution model with an interactive
258 K_{GM} was able to better (but not perfectly) match the response of a high-resolution model,

259 and an intercomparison of a large number of models with different treatments of K_{GM}
260 by *Farneti et al.* [2015] reached the same conclusion. In fact, the eddy-saturation regime
261 demands that the eddy-induced advection is strongly sensitive to wind changes, which, in
262 the limit of small changes in isopycnal slopes, requires a large wind-dependence of K_{GM}
263 [*Abernathey et al.*, 2011]. The present study shows that the isopycnal mixing coefficients
264 are similarly sensitive to wind changes. Although K_{Redi} is not particularly relevant for
265 eddy saturation or eddy compensation, it has a large impact on anthropogenic CO_2 uptake
266 and biogeochemical cycles [*Gnanadesikan et al.*, 2015]. Nearly all coarse-resolution models
267 employ a constant value of K_{Redi} , yet our experiments show that this parameter should
268 in fact change under different forcing scenarios.

269 The recent work by *Landschützer et al.* [2015], showing an increased CO_2 uptake in the
270 Southern Ocean since 2002, gives important context to our work. Their finding contrasts
271 with expectations that the CO_2 sink was weakening in response to the strengthening of
272 the Southern Hemisphere Westerly winds. Importantly, our results suggest that an in-
273 crease in winds could drive *increased* CO_2 uptake in the Southern Ocean through changes
274 in isopycnal mixing rates. Changes in ventilation rates of the Southern Ocean therefore
275 constitute a climate feedback of indeterminate sign, depending on the dominance of ad-
276 vective or diffusive changes in response to wind changes. Our results demonstrate that
277 a detailed understanding of the sensitivity of mesoscale eddy transports, advective and
278 diffusive, to wind changes is crucial to resolving this problem.

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280 Model setups, output data, and analysis code are all available on request.

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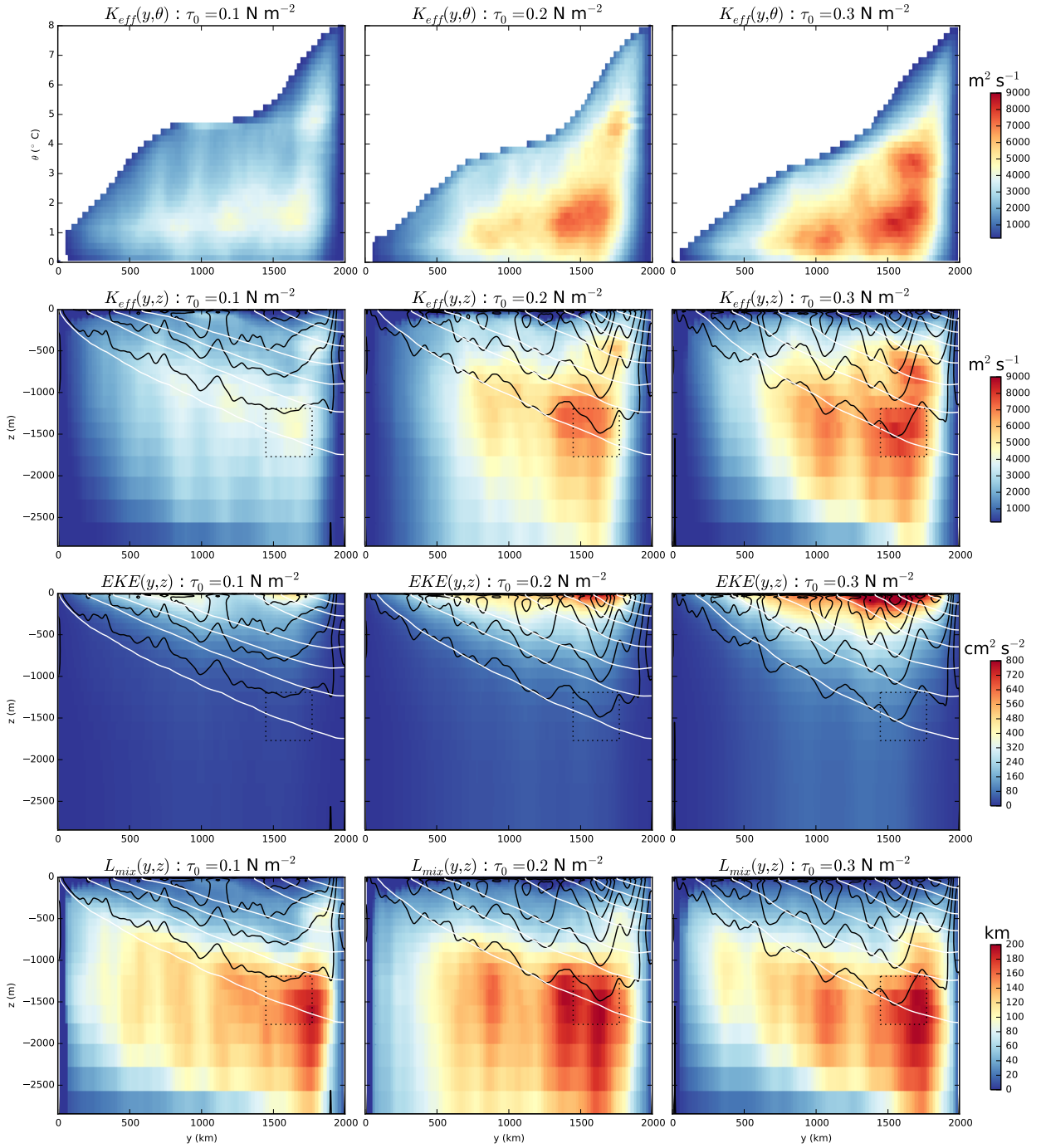


Figure 1. First row: K_{eff} in temperature coordinate for different values of wind strength. Second row: K_{eff} interpolated to depth coordinate. The white contours are isotherms and the black contours are isotachs of the zonal mean flow. Third row: zonal mean eddy kinetic energy. Fourth row: effective mixing length. The dotted-line box shows the region where the averages

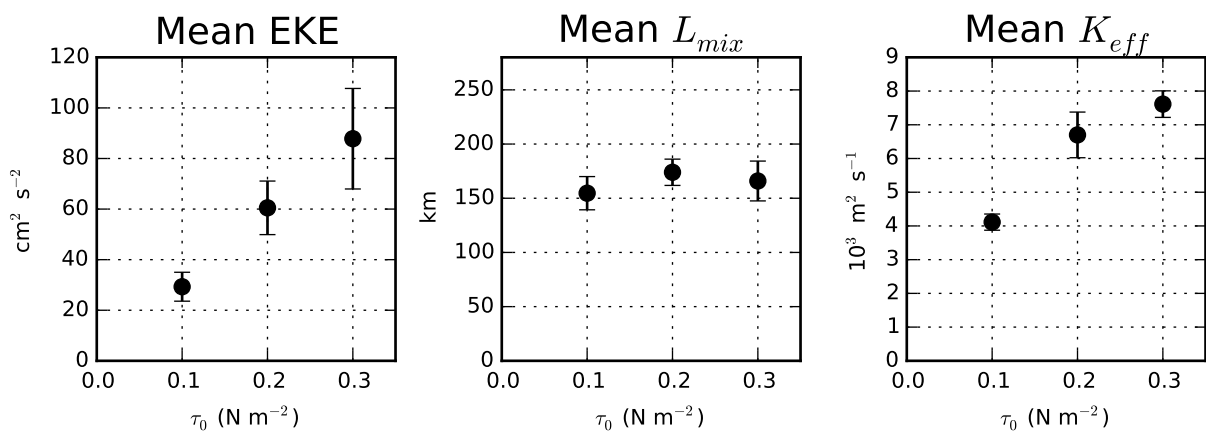


Figure 2. Average values of EKE, K_{eff} and L_{mix} from the boxed region indicated in Fig. 1. The error bars show the standard deviation for the spatial average.

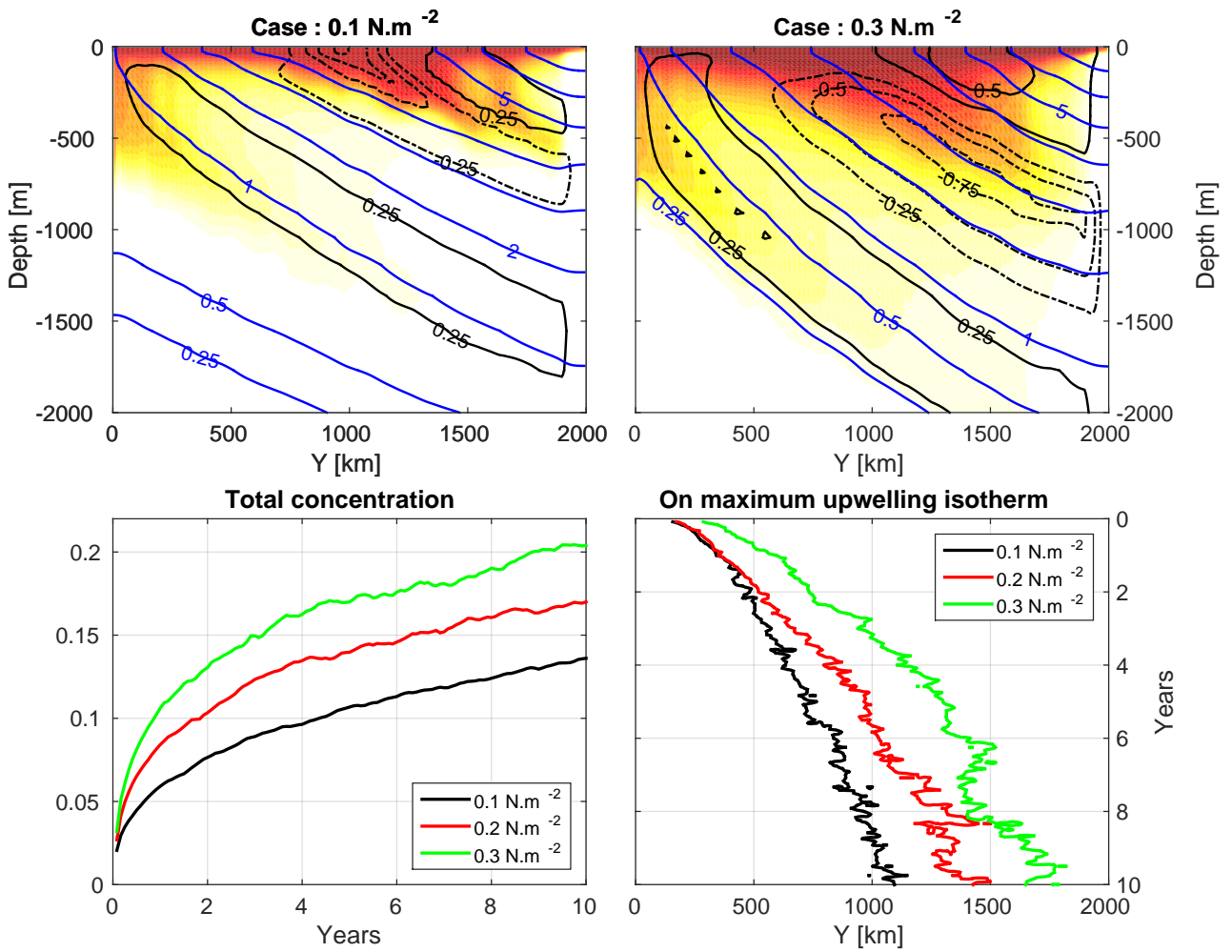


Figure 3. Top row: Distribution of the ventilation tracer after 5 years for wind stress $\tau_x=0.1 \text{ N m}^{-2}$ (left) and 0.3 N m^{-2} (right). The time mean isotherms and residual-mean MOC are shown in blue and black contours respectively (solid for clockwise, dashed for anti-clockwise). Bottom row: (left) Time evolution of the globally averaged tracer concentration for the three wind magnitudes. (right) Meridional location of the 0.1 unit/m^3 tracer value on the isotherms of maximum upwelling (1.5 , 1.1 and $0.9 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for $\tau_x=0.1$, 0.2 , and 0.3 N.m^{-2} , respectively).