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2 Dynamics of eddying abyssal mixing layers over rough topography

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ABSTRACT

The abyssal overturning circulation is thought to be primarily driven by small-scale turbulent mixing. Diagnosed watermass transformations are dominated by rough topography 20 "hotspots", where the bottom-enhancement of mixing causes the diffusive buoyancy flux 21 to diverge, driving widespread downwelling in the interior—only to be overwhelmed by an 22 even stronger upwelling in a thin Bottom Boundary Layer (BBL). These watermass transformations are significantly underestimated by one-dimensional sloping boundary layer solutions, suggesting the importance of three-dimensional physics. Here, we use a hierarchy of models to generalize this one-dimensional boundary layer approach to three-dimensional eddying flows over realistically rough topography. When applied to the Mid-Atlantic Ridge in the Brazil Basin, the idealized simulation results are roughly consistent with available observations. Integral buoyancy budgets isolate the physical processes that contribute to realistically strong BBL upwelling. The downwards diffusion of buoyancy is primarily balanced by upwelling along the canyon flanks and the surrounding abyssal hills. These flows 31 are strengthened by the restratifying effects of submesoscale baroclinic eddies on the canyon flanks and by the blocking of along-ridge thermal wind within the canyon. Major topographic sills block along-thalweg flows from restratifying the canyon trough, resulting in the continual erosion of the trough's stratification. We propose simple modifications to the onedimensional boundary layer model which approximate each of these three-dimensional effects. These results provide *local* dynamical insights into mixing-driven abyssal overturning, but a complete theory will also require the *non-local* coupling to the basin-scale circulation.

39 1. Introduction

Below the oceanic pycnocline, the vast volumes of the deep ocean are ventilated by two 40 interconnected cells of a global meridional overturning circulation (Gordon 1986). The lower cell of this circulation is sourced along the coast of Antarctica, where atmospheric cooling and brine rejection transform surface waters into the dense Antarctic Bottom Waters 43 (AABW) that fill the global abyssal ocean at a rate of approximately $30\,\mathrm{Sv}$ ($1\,\mathrm{Sv} \equiv 10^6\,\mathrm{m}^3/\mathrm{s}$) (Talley 2013). Since the buoyancy surface bounding AABW from above does not outcrop 45 elsewhere in the ocean, conservation of mass implies that in steady state an equal amount 46 of AABW must upwell across buoyancy surfaces (diabatically) from the abyss. Waters 47 below about 2000 m depth (corresponding to the crests of major topographic features, such as mid-ocean ridges) can upwell diabatically only in the presence of interior watermass 49 transformations (e.g. small-scale turbulent mixing) or fluxes across the seafloor boundary (geothermal heating) (Munk 1966; Walin 1982; Tziperman 1986; Ferrari 2014). 51

These basic inferences of a global diabatic upwelling from the abyss (e.g. Sverdrup et al. 1942) are also consistent with more detailed inverse modelling at regional scales (e.g. Talley et al. 2003). Most notably, Hogg et al. (1982) consider the fate of 4 Sv of AABW (colder than 0 °C) that enters the Brazil Basin from the Southern Ocean through the Vema Channel; since there are no other exits from the basin and since geothermal fluxes are relatively weak, they infer that turbulent mixing must diffuse heat downward at a rate of $\mathcal{O}(3 \,\mathrm{cm}^2/\mathrm{s})$ to balance the upwelling of these waters across the 0 °C isotherm.

Early in-situ turbulence measurements in the upper $\sim 1000\,\mathrm{m}$ of the interior ocean suggested turbulent diffusivities more than an order of magnitude smaller than those predicted by the large-scale abyssal tracer budgets described above (Gregg 1987; Ledwell et al. 1993).

A subsequent celebrated field campaign in the abyssal waters of the Brazil Basin reported similarly weak background diffusivities over the smooth topography of the abyssal plains, but revealed diffusivities that increased downwards by several orders of magnitude over the rough topography of the Mid-Atlantic Ridge (Polzin et al. 1997; Ledwell et al. 2000). Using regional inverse and forward approaches, respectively, St. Laurent et al. (2001) and Huang and Jin (2002) modelled the impacts of the observed bottom-enhanced mixing on the regional circulation: bottom-enhanced mixing drove interior downwelling while upwelling was restricted to a thin layer of buoyancy convergence near the bottom boundary (as opposed to Munk 1966's uniform upwelling model) and the basin-scale horizontal circulation was dominated by narrow mixing-driven flows along ridge flanks (as opposed to the interior geostrophic flow predicted by Stommel 1958).

The development of mixing parameterizations (e.g. St. Laurent and Garrett 2002; Kunze et al. 2006; Polzin 2009; Melet et al. 2014; de Lavergne et al. 2020) allowed these Brazil Basin results to be generalized to global abyssal watermass transformations (e.g. Nikurashin and Ferrari 2013; de Lavergne et al. 2016; Kunze 2017; Cimoli et al. 2019). Based on such estimates, Ferrari et al. (2016) and McDougall and Ferrari (2017) revised the conceptual model of the global mixing-driven abyssal upwelling: mixing-driven diabatic upwelling is confined to a thin Bottom Boundary Layer (BBL) just above the insulated (or geothermally heated) seafloor, while bottom-enhanced mixing drives diabatic downwelling in the Stratified Mixing Layer (SML) above; the net diabatic overturning is the small remainder of these two large opposing mixing layer flows. In this emerging framework, the global overturning circulation is modulated by the dynamics of thin BBLs (Callies and Ferrari 2018; Drake et al. 2020). Since these abyssal boundary layer flows are challenging to observe (Naveira Garabato et al. 2019; Spingys et al. 2021) and are too thin to be resolved by conventional general

circulation models, however, they remain poorly understood (Drake 2021 and Polzin and McDougall 2022 discuss outstanding questions).

The interpretation of the role of boundary mixing in the abyssal overturning circulation 88 (dating back to Munk 1966) has a contentious history: on the one hand, in-situ observations of weakly-stratified bottom mixed layers seemed to imply the existence of vigorous boundary mixing (Armi 1978); on the other hand, it was argued that mixing of already 91 well-mixed waters was inefficient and thus did not lead to significant watermass transformation (see Garrett's 1979 comment and Armi's 1979b reply). Garrett (1990) later formalized his criticism using sloping boundary layer theory (Phillips 1970; Wunsch 1970) and suggested that one-dimensional flows up the sloping bottom boundary—driven by the mixing itself—could provide sufficient restratification to resolve this conundrum. Based on observations of homogeneous layers detached from the bottom boundary (but carrying distinct 97 levels of suspended sediments), Armi (1978, 1979a) instead proposed a three-dimensional boundary-interior exchange process whereby layers are rapidly mixed when they impinge upon topographic features (e.g. seamounts or abyssal hills) and are eventually restratified 100 by along-isopycnal exchanges with the stratified interior. 101

In light of recent diagnostic evidence for boundary-control on the abyssal circulation (Ferrari et al. 2016), Callies (2018) revisited these ideas to test whether sloping BBL theory is
quantitatively consistent with observations. In his analysis of the sloping flank of the MidAtlantic Ridge in the Brazil Basin (where co-located measurements of both abyssal mixing
rates and stratification are available), he found that the steady state 1D boundary layer solution forced by the observed mixing exhibits a stratification an order of magnitude weaker
than observed. The watermass transformations sustained by 1D dynamics alone (Garrett

1990) are thus too inefficient to contribute significantly to the global abyssal overturning circulation.

To reconcile boundary layer dynamics with observations, Callies (2018) argued the stratification of abyssal mixing layers may be maintained by submesoscale baroclinic eddies, which act to slump sloping buoyancy surfaces back to the horizontal. Mixing-driven 1D boundary layer solutions are linearly unstable to submesoscale baroclinic modes (Wenegrat et al. 2018; Callies 2018), in a manner similar to the well-studied analagous problem in the surface mixed layer (Boccaletti et al. 2007; Fox-Kemper et al. 2008). Callies (2018) simulated the finite amplitude evolution of these instabilities in a 3D generalization of the 1D boundary layer framework and showed that the solutions converge on a substantially stronger quasi-equilibrium stratification that is more consistent with observations.

As acknowledged by Callies (2018), however, it is not clear to what extent such idealized so-120 lutions are directly applicable to the mid-ocean ridge, which is characterized by particularly rough topography. For example, many of the observations of bottom-enhanced mixing, strat-122 ification, and diabatic upwelling from the region are confined to $\mathcal{O}(500\,\mathrm{m})$ -deep fracture zone 123 canyons which cut across the ridge (Polzin et al. 1997; Ledwell et al. 2000; St. Laurent et al. 124 2001; Thurnherr and Speer 2003). To account for these leading-order topographic features, 125 Ruan and Callies (2020) ran simulations of mixing-driven flow over a sinusoidal mid-ocean 126 ridge incised by an idealized Gaussian fracture zone canyon. They confirm Thurnherr and 127 Speer's (2003) speculation that the canyon sidewalls suppress cross-canyon (or along-slope) flow and thus support a vigorous up-canyon (or cross-slope) mean flow. The restratifying 129 tendency of this up-canyon mean flow is much stronger than that of either the 1D up-slope 130 flow or the submesoscale eddies on the smooth ridge flanks, implying that abyssal watermass transformations are, per unit area, four times larger within the canyons than on the

ridge flanks. Ruan and Callies (2020) found, however, that the simulated stratification in the canyon is orders of magnitude larger than observed, suggesting their simulations are 134 still missing important physics. In addition to fracture zone canyons, mid-ocean ridges are 135 also characterized by smaller-scale anisotropic abyssal hills; these features have character-136 istic scales taller than 1D BBLs and comparable to those of the fastest growing baroclinic 137 mode (Callies 2018; Wenegrat et al. 2018), so we would expect them to affect both mean 138 and eddying circulations. Within the fracture zone canyons, abyssal hills often manifest 139 as sills that substantially block or constrain the deep up-slope flow (Thurnherr et al. 2005; 140 Dell 2013; Dell and Pratt 2015); hydraulic acceleration over the sill produces relatively large 141 velocities also associated with locally enhanced turbulence (Clément et al. 2017).

Here, we use a hierarchy of analytical and numerical solutions to bridge the gap between 143 idealized 1D BBLs and the complexity of observed flows in a region scarred by a fracture 144 zone canyon and dotted with abyssal hills. In Section 2, we review key insights from the 1D BBL buoyancy budget and derive a generalized buoyancy budget that permits topo-146 graphic variations and spatio-temporal eddy correlations. In Section 3, we describe the 147 "slope-aligned" simulation configuration which leverages a coordinate frame aligned with 148 the mean topographic slope to allow restratification by mean up-slope flow across a uniform 149 background vertical buoyancy gradient. In Section 4, we describe the simulated mixing 150 layer flows in a simulation with realistic topography and show they are qualitatively con-151 sistent with available observations. In Section 5, we present simulated buoyancy budgets, and show a balance between bottom-enhanced mixing, submesoscale eddy fluxes, and the 153 cross-slope mean flow. By progressively simplifying the configuration in a hierarchy of mod-154 els framework (Held 2005), we isolate the roles of individual physical processes in setting the near-boundary stratification. In Section 6, we discuss how our results bridge the gap between interpretations of in-situ observations (e.g. Armi 1978; Thurnherr and Speer 2003;
Thurnherr et al. 2020) and 1D BBL theory (e.g. Garrett 1979; Garrett et al. 1993), and
how they illustrate—at a regional scale—the control of abyssal mixing layers on an "upsidedown" abyssal overturning circulation (Ferrari et al. 2016). We conclude that a combination
of mixing-driven up-slope flows, submesoscale baroclinic eddies, and topographic control
are required to maintain a steady state near-boundary stratification consistent with in-situ
observations and a finite global abyssal overturning circulation.

164 2. Theory

We review the derivation and results of sloping boundary layer theory in Sections 2a,b in anticipation of our generalization to three-dimensional flows over rough sloping topography in Section 2c.

a. Slope-aligned equations

In sloping boundary layer theory (Wunsch 1970; Phillips 1970; Garrett et al. 1993; Thompson and Johnson 1996; Callies 2018; Holmes and McDougall 2020), analytical progress is 170 achieved by modelling the system in a coordinate frame aligned with its mean topographic 171 slope, rather than the typical coordinate frame $(\hat{x}, \hat{y}, \hat{z})$ with \hat{z} aligned with gravity. It is useful to decompose the buoyancy $B = N^2 \hat{z} + b$ into a background component $N^2 \hat{z}$, where 173 N^2 is a constant vertical buoyancy gradient, and a perturbation component $b(\hat{x}, \hat{y}, \hat{z}, t)$; the 174 background buoyancy is assumed to be in hydrostatic balance with a background pressure and we similarly decompose $P = \frac{1}{2}N^2\hat{z}^2 + p$. Then, we rotate the coordinate system to a 176 coordinate frame aligned with the mean-slope $(x, y, z) \equiv (\hat{x}\cos\theta + \hat{z}\sin\theta, \hat{y}, \hat{z}\cos\theta - \hat{x}\sin\theta)$, 177 where θ is the region's average slope angle in the \hat{x} -direction (e.g. dashed black lines in Figure 3b). For small slopes¹ $\tan \theta \ll 1$, the hydrostatic Boussinesq equations in the mean-slope coordinates are, at leading order, given by

$$u_t + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla u - f v \cos \theta = -p_x + b \sin \theta + \nabla \cdot (\nu \nabla u), \qquad (1)$$

$$v_t + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla v + f u \cos \theta = -p_y + \nabla \cdot (\nu \nabla v), \qquad (2)$$

$$p_z = b\cos\theta,\tag{3}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0, \tag{4}$$

$$b_t + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla b + N^2(w\cos\theta + u\sin\theta) = \nabla \cdot \left[\kappa \left(N^2\cos\theta \mathbf{z} + \nabla b\right)\right],\tag{5}$$

where subscripts represent partial derivatives, ∇ is the gradient operator, u is the alongcanyon (or cross-slope) velocity, v is the cross-canyon (or along-slope) velocity, w is the
slope-normal velocity, f is a constant Coriolis parameter, κ is an isotropic eddy diffusivity,
and $\nu = \sigma \kappa$ is an isotropic eddy viscosity determined by the turbulent Prandtl number σ . The rotated along-canyon \mathbf{x} -momentum equation is identical in form to the zonal $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ momentum equation with the exception of the small but dynamically significant projection
of the perturbation buoyancy force $b\hat{\mathbf{z}}$ on \mathbf{x} .

The anomalous seafloor depth, relative to the mean slope, is given by

$$d(x,y) = \hat{d}(\hat{x},\hat{y}) + \hat{x}\tan\theta \tag{6}$$

We set z=0 along the sloping plane that intersects the point with the greatest anomalous seafloor depth, $\max(d)$ (see Figure 2). Boundary conditions at the seafloor, $z=\max(d)$

¹While $\sin \theta \simeq \theta$ and $\cos \theta \simeq 1$ in this limit, we retain these geometric terms explicitly so they are not forgotten.

d(x,y), are $\mathbf{u}=0$ (no-slip² and no-normal-flow) and $\mathbf{n}\cdot(\kappa\nabla B)=0$ (insulating³), where \mathbf{n} is a unit vector normal to the boundary.

b. Smooth planar slopes and steady 1D dynamics

Assuming a constant topographic slope ($d \equiv 0$) and mixing rates that vary only in the slope-normal direction, the equilibrium solution reduces to

$$-fv\cos\theta = b\sin\theta + \partial_z\left(\nu u_z\right),\tag{7}$$

$$fu\cos\theta = \partial_z \left(\nu v_z\right),\tag{8}$$

$$p_z = b\cos\theta,\tag{9}$$

$$uN^{2}\sin\theta = \partial_{z}\left[\kappa\left(N^{2}\cos\theta + b_{z}\right)\right],\tag{10}$$

where the continuity equation $w_z = 0$ combines with the no-normal-flow bottom boundary condition at z = 0 to require $w \equiv 0$ everywhere (no slope-normal exchange). These equations can be solved analytically in the case of constant parameter values (Wunsch 1970; Phillips 1970; Thorpe 1987; Garrett 1990), or approximately for varying parameters in some asymptotic limits (Salmun et al. 1991; Callies 2018). In either case, the slope Burger number $S \equiv N^2 \tan^2 \theta / f^2$ and the BBL thickness

$$\delta \equiv q^{-1} = \sqrt{\frac{2\nu}{f}} (1 + S\sigma)^{-\frac{1}{4}},$$
(11)

emerge as key parameters. We recognize δ as the Ekman layer thickness $\delta_E \equiv \sqrt{\frac{2\nu}{f}}$, modified by buoyancy effects at the sloping boundary; for typical abyssal values, $S \ll 1$ and $\sigma = \mathcal{O}(1)$ such that buoyancy effects are weak (Thurnherr and Speer 2003).

(Thurnherr et al. 2020), so we ignore it for simplicity here.

²While applying a bottom drag to match the unresolved Reynolds' stresses in the turbulent log-layer would be a more defensible option (Taylor and Shaw 1920), we choose the no-slip condition for a closer correspondence to 1D BBL models.

³Geothermal heating is thought to contribute negligibly to abyssal watermass transformations in the BBTRE canyon region

Recalling the crucial assumption of a constant background vertical stratification N^2 , the slope-aligned buoyancy equation (10) describes a direct balance between slope-normal diffusion of heat downwards towards the boundary and cross-slope advection against the constant background buoyancy gradient; this balance is a near-boundary analog of Munk's (1966) classic interior ocean vertical balance. This is best illustrated by integrating (10) in the slope-normal direction,

$$\psi(z) \equiv \int_0^z u \, dz = \kappa \cot \theta \left(B_z / N^2 \cos \theta \right) = \kappa \cot \theta \left(1 + b_z / N^2 \cos \theta \right), \tag{12}$$

where ψ is the up-slope transport (per along-slope unit length) and we have invoked the insulating bottom boundary condition on the full stratification, $B_z = 0$ at z = 0.

Consider the case of exponentially bottom-enhanced mixing, $\kappa(z) = \kappa_{\text{BG}} + \kappa_{\text{BOT}} e^{-z/h}$ with $\kappa_{\text{BOT}}/\kappa_{\text{BG}} \gg 1$. Equation (12) reveals two keys insights:

1. The net up-slope transport, integrated over both the upwelling BBL and the downwelling SML, converges to the negligibly small value⁴

$$\psi_{\infty} \equiv \psi(z \to \infty) = \kappa_{\text{BG}} \cot \theta$$
 (the 1D integral constraint) (13)

since far from the boundary $b_z \to 0$ (Thorpe 1987) and both $\kappa(z) \to \kappa_{\rm BG}$ and $\cot \theta$ are small.

2. Maximal up-slope transport in the BBL is achieved when both κ is large (i.e. near the boundary) and B_z is large (strong restratification). If the stratification is maintained near the background value $N^2\cos\theta$ where the diffusivity is large (i.e. $z\ll h$) then the up-slope transport in the BBL reaches an upper bound $\max\{\psi\} \simeq \kappa_{\rm BOT}\cot\theta = \frac{\kappa_{\rm BOT}}{\kappa_{\rm BG}}\psi_{\infty} \gg \psi_{\infty}$.

⁴While $\psi_{\infty} \to \infty$ as $\theta \to 0$, the adjustment timescales also grows, $\tau_{\rm BBL} = \delta^2/\kappa_{\rm BG} \propto \cot\theta \to \infty$, making it more likely that other dynamics disrupt the approach to equilibrium.

Callies (2018) derives approximate but analytical boundary layer solutions to the steady 224 1D system (eqs. 7–10) for bottom-enhanced mixing. In the abyssal ocean regime with typical 225 values of $S\sigma \ll 1$, the equilibrium stratification B_z is approximately inversely proportional 226 to κ in the SML (their eq. 10; Figure 1a, solid lines), such that the diffusive buoyancy flux 227 $\kappa B_z \simeq \kappa_{\rm BG} N^2 \cos \theta$ is constant and finite buoyancy flux convergence occurs only within the thin BBL. Since the BBL stratification is reduced to roughly $B_z \approx \frac{\kappa_{\rm BG}}{\kappa_{\rm ROT}} N^2 \cos \theta$ (Figure 1a, 229 solid lines) and near-boundary mixing is thus inefficient, up-slope BBL transport is roughly 230 equal to the negligibly small integral constraint (13), $\max\{\psi\} \simeq \kappa_{BG} \cot \theta$ (Figure 8a, dotted and dashed lines). This weak BBL upwelling and negligible SML downwelling contrasts with 232 the strong bi-directional flows inferred from watermass transformation analyses (Ferrari et al. 233 2016; McDougall and Ferrari 2017).

235 c. Rough topography and eddy fluxes

We now derive the 3D BBL buoyancy budget, which allows for topographic and flow variations along the plane of the slope. Consider the buoyancy budget for a volume \mathcal{V} within a height z above the mean slope (Figure 2):

$$\iiint_{\mathcal{V}(z'$$

where we use the divergence theorem to rewrite the right-hand side terms in terms of fluxes normal to the bounding surface $\partial \mathcal{V}$ (Figure 2). Fluxes through the seafloor at $z' = \max(d) - d(x, y)$ vanish due to the no-flow and insulating bottom boundary conditions. Motivated by the simulations in Section 3, we assume fluxes through cross-slope and along-slope boundaries cancel due to periodicity (e.g. $b(x) = b(x + L_x)$), except for the up-slope flow across the background buoyancy gradient (recall $B=N^2\hat{z}+b$),

$$\iint_{\mathcal{A}(x+L_x;z'\leq z)} (-uB) \, \mathrm{d}y \mathrm{d}z' - \iint_{\mathcal{A}(x;z'\leq z)} (-uB) \, \mathrm{d}y \mathrm{d}z' = -N^2 L_x \sin\theta \iint_{\mathcal{A}(x;z'\leq z)} u \, \mathrm{d}y \mathrm{d}z'$$
(15)

This, combined with the slope-normal component of the flux through the z'=z surface, gives

where we define $\langle \phi \rangle \equiv \iint_{\mathcal{A}(z)} \phi \, \mathrm{d}x \mathrm{d}y$ as the slope-integral operation and $\Psi(z) \equiv$

$$\underbrace{\iiint_{\mathcal{V}(z'\leq z)} b_t \, dV}_{\text{LHS}} = \underbrace{-\langle -\kappa B_z \rangle}_{\text{Mixing}} \underbrace{-\langle wb \rangle}_{\text{Eddies}} \underbrace{-N^2 L_x \sin \theta \Psi}_{\text{Mean Flow}}, \tag{16}$$

 $\iint_{\mathcal{A}(x;z'\leq z)} u \, \mathrm{d}y \, \mathrm{d}z'$ as the up-slope transport across the periodic boundary (Figure 2a). At equilibrium, the form of the generalized volume-integral buoyancy equation (16) is simi-249 lar to the 1D transport equation (12), although there is now an additional eddy flux of buoyancy towards or away from the boundary, and the turbulent buoyancy flux may be 251 modified by along- and cross-slope correlations between κ and B_z . Assuming a steady state 252 and integrating up far into the interior, where $\kappa \to \kappa_{\rm BG}$ and the perturbations vanish, we recover the integral constraint (13) on the net up-slope transport from the 1D solution, 254 $\Psi_{\infty}/L_y = \kappa_{\rm BG} \cot \theta.$ 255 Callies (2018) proposes a simple parameterization of restratification by 3D submesoscale baroclinic eddies as a way to account for these missing physics in the 1D boundary layer 257 solution. The main effect of baroclinic eddies is to extract available potential energy from 258 the mean flow by slumping sloping buoyancy surfaces back towards the horizontal, thereby maintaining a realistically-large near-bottom stratification; this adiabatic process is most 260 conventionally parameterized as an eddy overturning circulation (Gent and McWilliams 261 1990; Fox-Kemper et al. 2008). Taking advantage of thermal wind balance $(fv_{\hat{z}} = b_{\hat{x}})$, the

slumping of isopycnals by baroclinic instability—which decreases horizontal buoyancy gra-263 dients $b_{\hat{x}}$ —can equivalently be parameterized as a reduction in the vertical shear $v_{\hat{z}}$, e.g. by 264 enhanced vertical momentum diffusion (Rhines and Young 1982; Greatbatch and Lamb 1990; 265 Young 2011). We provide a derivation of this closure in the Appendix, in which we apply 266 Andrews and McIntyre's (1976) Transformed Eulerian Mean and Gent and McWilliams's (1990)'s baroclinic eddy parameterization scheme to the slope-aligned framework. 268 Following Callies (2018), we thus parameterize submesoscale eddy restratification by arti-269 ficially increasing the vertical eddy viscosity $\nu = \sigma \kappa$. Unlike Callies (2018), who simply tune $\sigma = 230$ to match the mean behavior of their 3D model, however, we: 1) only enhance the 271 viscosity $\nu_v = \sigma_v \kappa$ acting on the along-slope thermal wind (as in Holmes et al. 2019) since 272 the available potential energy that fuels the instabilities is stored in cross-slope buoyancy gradients; 2) we allow the eddy viscosity to have vertical structure, $\sigma_v = \sigma_v(z)$, and 3) we 274 estimate the magnitude and structure of $\sigma_v(z)$ from the eddy fluxes resolved by a 3D model 275 (Figure 1b; see Appendix). We refer to $\Psi + \frac{\langle wb \rangle}{N^2 \sin \theta L_x}$ as the cross-slope residual transport (analogous to that of the Southern Ocean, e.g. Marshall and Radko 2003), since the eddy 277 flux term is equal to the eddy overturning streamfunction in the limit of stationary and 278 adiabatic eddies, which is applicable outside of the thin BBL (Figure 11c; see Appendix). Applying this simple closure to the 1D model results in weakening of the slope-normal 280 shear of the along-slope flow and, because of the approximate thermal wind balance $fv_z \simeq$ 281 $b_z \sin \theta$ that holds in the SML (eq. 8), results in a corresponding weakening of the negative perturbation stratification b_z (equivalent to a strengthening of the total stratification B_z ; 283 compare dash-dotted and solid lines in Figure 1a). In this context, the 1D model's up-slope 284 transport ψ is re-interpreted as the residual transport, since it also includes the eddy-induced 285 overturning. At equilibrium, this parameterized eddy restratification triples B_z and thus also

 κB_z and the residual flow ψ at the top of the 1D solution's BBL (Figure 1a and Figure 8a,b), bringing the watermass transformations of the 1D BBL more in line with the basin-scale overturning (Morris et al. 2001; Callies 2018).

3. Numerical model setup

We simulate 3D mixing-driven flows using the hydrostatic Boussinesq equations in the MIT General Circulation Model (MITgcm; Marshall et al. 1997). For simplicity, we assume a linear equation of state; because temperature units are more intuitive, we use temperature T and buoyancy $b \equiv g\alpha T$ interchangeably throughout, where $g = 9.81 \,\mathrm{m/s^2}$ is the gravitational acceleration and $\alpha = 2 \times 10^{-4} \,\mathrm{^{\circ}C^{-1}}$ is a constant thermal expansion coefficient.

296 a. Realistic bathymetry

Most of the results describe a core realistic-bathymetry simulation of the Brazil Basin sub-297 region sampled by both the Brazil Basin Tracer Release Experiment (BBTRE, Ledwell et al. 298 2000) and Dynamics of the Mid-Ocean Ridge Experiment (DoMORE, Clément et al. 2017), located on the western flank of the Mid-Atlantic Ridge. We extract the Brazil Basin's 300 seafloor topography from the Global Bathymetry and Topography at 15 Arc Sec dataset 301 (SRTM15+; Tozer et al. 2019), which includes many more multibeam measurements than previous products (e.g. Smith and Sandwell 1997) and thus better resolves both the BBTRE 303 fracture zone canyon at 21°30'S and the smaller-scale abyssal hills characteristic of mid-304 ocean ridges (Figure 3a). We interpolate the bathymetry onto a locally tangent Cartesian grid $(\hat{x}, \hat{y}, \hat{z})$ aligned with the BBTRE canyon, where \hat{x} denotes the along-canyon dimension 306 and \hat{y} denotes the cross-canyon dimension (Figure 3a), and produce a gridded bathymetry 307 field $d(\hat{x}, \hat{y})$. The simulated canyon stretches from a few km west of the Tracer Release Experiment site around 18.5 °W (Ledwell et al. 2000) to a few km east of the DoMORE sill that dramatically constrains the up-canyon flow at 14.5 °W (Clément et al. 2017).

b. Implementing the perturbation Boussiness equations in the mean-slope coordinate frame

Following Section 2a, we solve equations (1-5) in a coordinate frame aligned with the 312 domain's mean slope. Equations (1–5) are solved in terms of the perturbation variables, 313 with the background buoyancy field $N^2\hat{z}$ entering only indirectly via linear and inhomogeneous terms in the perturbation buoyancy equation, implemented as additional explicit 315 tendency terms in the MITgcm. To stabilize the numerical solution without damping sub-316 mesoscale eddies, we additionally implement horizontal (in the rotated frame) biharmonic hyper-diffusion of momentum and buoyancy which acts only at scales close to the grid res-318 olution. Horizontal hyper-diffusive tendencies vanish in the budgets presented here, so we 319 omit them in all of our analyses. We enforce an insulating boundary condition on the full 320 buoyancy at the seafloor: $\mathbf{n} \cdot (\kappa \nabla B) = 0$. 321 Relative to the mean slope, the anomalous seafloor topography $d(x,y) \equiv \hat{d}(\hat{x},\hat{y}) - \hat{x} \tan \theta$ is 322 nearly continuous across the periodic boundaries in the along-canyon direction \mathbf{x} and in the cross-canyon direction y; however, to eliminate any remaining discontinuities across these 324 boundaries, we join the two boundaries smoothly by linear interpolation in both \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} . 325 By 1) removing the uniformly-stratified background state from the prognostic variables, 326 2) formulating the model in the slope coordinate frame, and 3) making the boundary condi-327 tions and forcing terms periodic in the (x,y) plane, we are free to apply periodic boundary 328 conditions to the perturbation state variables u, v, b, and p in both \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} .

230 c. Forcing by observation-inspired bottom-enhanced turbulent mixing

Following the classic one-dimensional boundary layer configuration (Wunsch 1970), we parameterize small-scale turbulent mixing as a slope-normal⁵ diffusive buoyancy flux $-\kappa \partial_z B \mathbf{z}$.

We use Callies' (2018) self-similar height-above-bottom profile

$$\kappa(x, y, z) = \kappa(z; d) = \kappa_{\text{BG}} + \kappa_{\text{BOT}} \exp\left(-\frac{z+d}{h}\right),$$
(17)

with $\kappa_{\rm BOT}=1.8\times 10^{-3}\,{\rm m^2/s},~\kappa_{\rm BG}=5.3\times 10^{-5}\,{\rm m^2/s},~{\rm and}~h=230\,{\rm m};~{\rm these~parameter}$ values are chosen by performing a least-squares fit to the height-above-bottom-average of 335 126 microstructure profiles in the BBTRE region. The sparsity and noisiness of individual 336 mixing profiles, and disagreements in the literature about where mixing in strongest (Polzin et al. 1997; St. Laurent et al. 2001; Polzin 2009; Clément et al. 2017; Thurnherr et al. 2020), 338 prohibit the formulation of a robust parameterization with a richer spatial structure. We 339 imagine this imposed bottom-enhanced mixing to represent a variety of turbulent ocean processes (see Thorpe 2005), especially the breaking of internal waves (Whalen et al. 2020) 341 but also including unspecified boundary mixing processes (Armi 1978; Armi and D'Asaro 342 1980; Polzin et al. 2021).

344 d. Numerics

The horizontal grid spacing of $\Delta x = \Delta y = 600\,\mathrm{m}$ is fine enough to permit the anticipated submesoscale baroclinic turbulence, which for the 1D sloping BBL problem has a maximum linear growth rate near the local deformation radius $L \sim \frac{NH_{\mathrm{ML}}}{f} = 6\,\mathrm{km}$ (Stone 1966; Wenegrat et al. 2018), where $H_{\mathrm{ML}} \approx 250\,\mathrm{m}$ is the thickness of the weakly-stratified bottom layer (Callies 2018). Yet, the grid spacing is also coarse enough for a three-dimensional

⁵Vertical buoyancy gradients are generally much larger than horizontal gradients, so, assuming an isotropic diffusivity, the vertical (or, for small slopes $\theta \ll 1$, approximately slope-normal) components of the diffusive buoyancy flux dominate.

simulation of the entire 480 km by 60 km region to be computationally feasible. We set 350 the hyper-diffusivities $\kappa_4 \equiv \nu_4 = 2 \times 10^4 \, \mathrm{m}^4/\mathrm{s}$, the smallest value that maintains a stable 351 solution, so that hyper-diffusion interferes minimally with diapycnal buoyancy fluxes and 352 the growth of submesoscale instabilities (Callies 2018; Ruan and Callies 2020). In the ver-353 tical, a cell thickness of $\Delta z = 6 \,\mathrm{m}$ (with partial cells down to 1.2 m) marginally resolves the predicted $\mathcal{O}(10\,\mathrm{m})$ -thick BBL. A high-resolution 1D spin-up experiment confirmed this 355 vertical resolution is sufficient to accurately reproduce all features of the analytical solution 356 (using Burns et al.'s 2016 Dedalus package; not shown). Starting at about 1000 m above the mean slope, the cell thickness Δz is increasingly stretched (up to $\Delta z = 50 \,\mathrm{m}$ at the top 358 of the domain) to efficiently fit both the $h \log(\kappa_{BOT}/\kappa_{BG}) \approx 1300 \,\mathrm{m}$ vertical scale of abyssal 359 mixing layers (Callies 2018) and the $\mathcal{O}(800\,\mathrm{m})$ topography into a domain that spans a height $H = 2700 \,\mathrm{m}$ above the mean slope.

362 e. Parameter regime

Following Callies (2018), we assume a background far-field stratification $N=1.3\times 10^{-3}\,\mathrm{s}^{-1}$ and a local Coriolis parameter $f=-5.3\times 10^{-5}\,\mathrm{s}^{-1}$ characteristic of the BBTRE region. Applying a linear fit to the bathymetry $\hat{d}(\hat{x},\hat{y})$ yields the domain's average topographic slope angle $\theta=1.26\times 10^{-3}$ in $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$. We assume that small-scale turbulent mixing acts similarly to mix buoyancy and momentum, i.e. we assume a turbulent Prandtl number of $\sigma\equiv\frac{\nu}{\kappa}=1$. Because we resolve submesoscale instabilities, we do not need to parameterize their restratification by increasing σ . Mixing layers are thus characterized by weak stratification and gentle large-scale slopes, equating to a small slope Burger number, $S\equiv N^2\tan^2\theta/f^2=10^{-3}\ll 1$ and BBL thickness $\delta\approx 8\,\mathrm{m}$ (eq. 11).

We spin up the simulations from a uniformly-stratified rest state ($b = 0, p = 0, \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$). The BBL adjusts rapidly on a timescale $\tau_{\rm BBL} = \delta^2/\kappa_{\rm BOT} = 10$ hours. While the full equilibration of the solution occurs over a prohibitively long diffusive timescale characteristic of the abyssal ocean interior, $\tau_{\rm INT} = H^2/\kappa_{\rm BG} \approx 5000$ years, buoyancy tendencies are small enough by t = 13 years in the bottom t = 1000 m (see Section 5) that we consider the solution sufficiently equilibrated for the analyses presented here.

378 f. Hierarchy of progressively idealized simulations

The simulations in our model hierarchy differ only in their seafloor topography, domain 379 length, and dimensionality. We progressively idealize the BBTRE canyon configuration (Figure 3f): first, we remove the abyssal hills along the ridge flank and idealize the geometry 381 of the remaining canyon and sill features ("Canyon+Sill"; Figure 3e); second, we remove 382 the sill ("Canyon"; 3d); third, we remove the canyon entirely ("Smooth3D"; Figure 3c); 383 and finally, we eliminate variations along the plane of the slope, collapsing the solution 384 onto a single slope-normal dimension as in classical BBL theory ("1D"). For reference, we 385 also include some additional variants on the 1D model where we vary one parameter at a time: non-rotating (" $1D_{f=0}$ "), non-sloping (" $1D_{\theta=0}$ "), and parameterized submesoscale 387 eddies (" $1D_{\sigma_v(z)}$ "; see Appendix). Unless we specify otherwise, results refer to the realistic-388 topography BBTRE simulation.

4. Mixing-driven up-canyon flow, submesoscale turbulence, and stratification

At quasi-equilibrium, the time-mean flow (averaged over days 5000 to 5500) is dominated by a vigorous up-canyon jet along the canyon thalweg, banked along the steeper southern flank of the canyon (as in Dell 2013; Ruan and Callies 2020). The up-canyon jet exhibits a

maximum along-canyon-averaged velocity of $\overline{u}^x = 0.75 \,\mathrm{cm/s}$ about 400 m above the seafloor 394 (Figure 4a). This up-slope jet is non-uniform and partially compensated by a down-slope 395 jet on the gentler northern flank, such that the maximum cross-canyon-averaged up-canyon 396 velocity is reduced to $\overline{u}^y = \mathcal{O}(0.1\,\mathrm{cm/s})$ (Figure 4a,b). The up-slope jet accelerates as it 397 spills over two major cross-canyon sills: the BBTRE sill at $x = 110 \,\mathrm{km}$ and the DoMORE sill at $x = 420 \,\mathrm{km}$ (Figure 4a,b); this acceleration and the spilling over of isopycnals at both sills 399 is suggestive of hydraulic control⁶ (Pratt and Whitehead 2008). The vertically-integrated 400 cross-slope transport $\int_{z=0}^{H} u \, dz$ is dominated by standing eddy features above the canyon 401 (Figure 4c, recall z=0 at the deepest point relative to the mean slope), but prominently 402 features meandering up- and down-canyon jets when integration is restricted to just the 403 canyon itself, $\int_{z=0}^{800 \,\mathrm{m}} u \,\mathrm{d}z$ (Figure 4d). These simulated mixing-driven means flows can be compared against two in-situ mooring observations: the BBTRE mooring at $x = 110 \,\mathrm{km}$, 405 several km upstream of the BBTRE sill (Toole 2007; also analyzed by Thurnherr et al. 406 2005), and a DoMORE mooring at $x = 420 \,\mathrm{km}$, atop the DoMORE sill (Clément et al. 2017). At the DoMORE sill, horizontal and vertical constrictions accelerate the simulated 408 up-canyon flow to 5 cm/s over a layer $\delta z = 150$ m thick and $\delta x = 2.5$ km wide (Figure 5a). 409 The resulting velocities are roughly constant in time, also suggestive of hydraulic control (Pratt and Whitehead 2008), and are about 25% those measured by the mooring (half as 411 fast and half as thick; Figure 5b). By contrast, the simulated up-canyon flow at the BBTRE 412 mooring is much weaker ($u \approx 0.75 \,\mathrm{cm/s}$) but spread over a thicker ($\delta z \approx 600 \,\mathrm{m}$) and wider $(\delta x \approx 5 \,\mathrm{km})$ layer, such that the total up-canyon transports at the two sections are similar 414 (Figure 5c). It is impossible to compare against observed transports because single mooring 415 velocity profiles (e.g. Thurnherr et al. 2005) cannot be reliably extrapolated across the

⁶The DoMORE control section is evident from the canyon hydrography, but the BBTRE one is not (Thurnherr et al. 2005).

canyon, although such errors may be smaller at constrictions considerably narrower than the local deformation radius (Thurnherr 2000), as at the DoMORE sill. The simulated flow 418 at the BBTRE mooring has roughly the same vertical structure as in the moored current 419 meter velocities, but about half their magnitude (Figure 5d). The relative weakness of the 420 simulated flows suggest that either the imposed microstructure-based mixing rates are biased 421 low (as suggested by Thurnherr et al. 2005 and Clément et al. 2017, and by the in prep. 422 tracer analysis by Ledwell and modelling by Odgen et al.) or that the simulation fails to 423 capture important physics. 424 Averaging the BBTRE simulation in height-above-bottom (hab) coordinates reveals that 425

the stratification generally remains close to its background value, except in the $\mathcal{O}(10\,\mathrm{m})$ thick BBL (Figure 6a, solid blue line). Upon first inspection, this result appears inconsistent 427 with observations in the canyon which, when averaged in hab, exhibit much weaker stratifi-428 cation up to 600 m above the seafloor (Figure 6, dashed and dotted red lines). Most of this 429 discrepancy is resolved by sampling the simulation at the exact locations of the observational 430 profiles (Figure 6b), and comparing their sample mean to that of the observations (Figure 6a, 431 red lines). Since the BBTRE sampling strategy was to find as much tracer as possible, the 432 field campaign specifically focused on sampling the deep depressions in the BBTRE canyon, 433 which appear to exhibit unusually weak stratification compared to the canyon flanks, sills, 434 and the surrounding ridge flanks. However, several microstructure profiles from the 1996 435 cruise are available along the canyon crests—just north of the domain—and on average exhibit similarly strong near-bottom stratification as in the simulation's domain average 437 (Figure 6a, dashed blue line). This conditional averaging exercise clarifies the significant 438 disagreements in reported estimates of the BBTRE region's average stratification (Polzin et al. 1997; St. Laurent et al. 2001; Polzin 2009). But even accounting for sampling bias,

- the simulated canyon is more stratified by about a factor of two relative to the observations (see Section 6).
- The time-mean view of the up-canyon circulation above filters out a rich field of submesoscale eddies which have radii comparable to the deformation radius and are trapped within a few hundred meters of the seafloor, including within the $\mathcal{O}(10 \,\mathrm{km})$ -wide canyon (Figure 7). These eddies manifest themselves as spatial and temporal meanders of the mean up-canyon jet, which in the following section we show contribute significantly to the simulation's buoyancy budget and to maintaining its strong near-bottom stratification.

5. Buoyancy budgets: mixing, mean flow, and eddies

462

In this section, we use a hierarchy of models to elucidate the complicated dynamics that 450 support the up-canyon mean flows described in the previous section. Volume-integrated buoyancy budgets (eq. 16) provide the major insights and are presented in Figure 8 for each 452 model in the hierarchy. We further separate the contributions from time-independent stand-453 ing eddies and transient eddies. All of the solutions exhibit substantial residual tendencies several hundred meters above the topography; however, within a few hundred meters of the 455 ridge flanks and within the canyons, tendencies are an order of magnitude smaller than other 456 terms in the budgets because the dynamics (vigorous mixing and submesoscale processes) within the bottom few hundred meters are much faster than the weak diffusion in the inte-458 rior (Figure 8, black). The 1D and $1D_{\sigma_v(z)}$ simulations are computationally inexpensive, so 459 we also provide their fully equilibrated solutions for context (Figure 8a,b; dotted). 460 In the classical 1D solution, a weak up-slope transport in the BBL (Figure 8a, blue line) 461

maintains a weak near-boundary stratification, although it is already much stronger than

in the flat-bottom after 5000 days of spin-up (Figure 9a). The evolution of the Smooth3D

solution follows the 1D solution closely until about 800 days, at which point the laminar 464 solution becomes unstable to submesoscale baroclinic modes which rapidly grow and equi-465 librate at finite amplitude (Callies 2018; Wenegrat et al. 2018). At quasi-equilibrium, these 466 transient eddies advect denser waters from the SML back into the BBL (Figure 8b, orange), 467 effectively restratifying the BBL (Figure 9b) and thus strengthening the maximum diffu-468 sive buoyancy flux (Figure 8b, red). It is helpful to interpret the combination of the mean 469 flow and the eddy fluxes as the residual circulation that advects tracers (Ferrari and Plumb 470 2003; see Appendix). In this framing, the slope-normal eddy flux nearly doubles the resid-471 ual upwelling in the BBL (Figure 8b,a, green lines). The crude eddy parameterization in 472 $1D_{\sigma_v(z)}$ qualitatively captures this restratifying effect (Figure 9b, compare dash-dotted and 473 blue against solid grey) and enhances the residual BBL upwelling by a factor of 2–3 relative 474 to the 1D model, both transiently and at equilibrium (Figure 8b,c; solid and dotted green 475 lines, respectively). A more rigorous approach to parameterization is beyond the scope of 476 this paper. 477

The volume-integrated buoyancy budget is more complicated to interpret in the presence 478 of variable topography. In the Canyon solution, a substantial diffusive buoyancy flux con-479 vergence drives a vigorous up-slope mean flow within the bottom 200 m along the narrow 480 trough of the canyon, producing a transport of 5 mSv (Figure 8d, blue) which is already 481 larger than the total BBL transport in the 1D model (Figure 8a, blue). This strong mean 482 flow maintains a stratification near the large background value within the canyon trough (Figures 10b; 9c, orange line). Thurnherr and Speer (2003) hypothesizes this efficient re-484 stratification is due to the canyon sidewalls blocking the along-slope thermal wind, such that 485 the momentum is redirected into the cross-slope flow. The Canyon simulation's excellent agreement with the $1D_{f=0}$ model, in which rotation is turned off and thus the along-slope 487

thermal wind is suppressed by construction, supports their hypothesis (Figure 9c; orange and dotted lines). Ruan and Callies (2020) hypothesize that flow across the steep canyon flanks with $S = \mathcal{O}(1)$ also contributes significantly to the strong stratification in the canyon. However, this hypothesis does not explain the strong stratification along the canyon thalweg, where the cross-canyon slope goes to zero and local dynamics cannot sustain a finite stratification at equilibrium in the absence of an along-canyon topographic slope.

The turbulent buoyancy flux also converges around a Height Above the Mean Slope 494 (HAMS) of $z = 800 \,\mathrm{m}$, driving an additional residual upwelling of about $13 \,\mathrm{mSv}$ from $z = 600 \,\mathrm{m}$ to $800 \,\mathrm{m}$ dominated by the BBLs on the upper canyon flanks and on the smooth 496 ridge flank surrounding the canyon (Figure 8d, green line). The upwelling along the smooth 497 ridge flank of the Canyon simulation is about twice as large as that of the Smooth3D simulation, despite covering a smaller area, because along-slope buoyancy gradients above 499 the canyon flanks provide an additional energy source for submesoscale instabilities (Fig-500 ure 10d), driving an isopycnal thickness flux between the canyon and surrounding flanks and thus maintaining a much larger stratification on the flanks (Figures 9b). In the Canyon 502 simulation's quasi-equilibrium state, much of the turbulent buoyancy flux divergence in the 503 upper SML (far above the seafloor) is not yet equilibrated: the bottom-enhanced diffusion of buoyancy towards the boundary slowly cools the interior (Figure 8d, red and black lines; 505 MacCready and Rhines (1991)). 506

In the Canyon+Sill simulation, the sill blocks up-slope flow within the trough of the canyon (Figure 8e, d). This is expected, since the up-canyon flows of $\mathcal{O}(1\,\mathrm{cm/s})$ only carry sufficient kinetic energy to lift a parcel across a stratification of $N \sim \mathcal{O}(10^{-4}-10^{-3}\,\mathrm{s^{-1}})$ by a height $\delta_{\mathrm{Fr}} = U/N \sim 20-200\,\mathrm{m}$ (based on a topographic Froude number of Fr $\equiv N\delta_{\mathrm{Fr}}/U \sim 2$), much smaller than the sill height of $h_{\mathrm{sill}} = 800\,\mathrm{m}$ and resulting in a blocked flow layer of

thickness $h_{\text{sill}} - \delta_{\text{Fr}}$ (Baines 1979; Winters and Armi 2012), both up- and down-stream of the 512 sill (recall the cross-slope periodicity). No up-slope mean flow is available to restratify the 513 trough of the canyon, so it slowly homogenizes due to mixing (Figure 10c; as in Dell 2013). 514 In contrast, within a slope-normal displacement δ_{Fr} of the sill, mean flows along the upper 515 parts of the two canyon flanks are able to maintain a layer of strong stratification⁷ (Figures 8e, 10e,f). 517 The structure of the stratification in the BBTRE simulation is qualitatively similar to 518 that of the Canyon+Sill simulation, although the rougher abyssal hill topography acts to thicken the layer of enhanced stratification near the DoMORE sill height and supports a large 520 near-bottom stratification on the hilly ridge flanks surrounding the canyon (Figure 10g,h, 521 9b). The slope-normal structure of the BBTRE canyon's buoyancy budgets (Figure 8f) is 522 remarkably similar to that of the Canyon+Sill simulation and can thus be explained as the 523 combination of the processes described—only sightly blurred in the slope-normal direction 524 by the additional topographic roughness.

6. Conclusions and Discussion

525

By generalizing the methods of classical 1D sloping Bottom Boundary Layer (BBL) theory 527 (Garrett et al. 1993), we construct a hierarchy of mixing-driven flow simulations that bridge 528 the gap between three-dimensional (Armi 1978) and one-dimensional (Garrett 1979) concep-529 tual models of abyssal mixing layer restratification. Our choice to parameterize small-scale 530 turbulence as a bottom-enhanced turbulent diffusivity—inspired by local microstructure 531 measurements—considerably simplifies the analysis but may not adequately represent the 532

⁷Tidal velocities, omitted for simplicity here, would imply a larger excursion height, a thinner blocked flow layer, and the potential for restratification processes to penetrate deeper into the canyon trough (as hypothesized by Clément et al. 2017).

underlying small-scale physics (see Polzin and McDougall 2022). Nevertheless, in this conventional prescribed-diffusivity framework we demonstrate that the homogenizing tendency due to bottom-enhanced small-scale mixing is balanced by the restratifying effects of the residual overturning circulation, which is a combination of mean and submesoscale eddy flows (eq. 16). At equilibrium, the slow interior diffusion of heat into the abyss is balanced by a weak net upwelling (eq. 13), the result of substantial cancellation of up- and down-slope flows.

The simulations' steady states are never achieved here due to the prohibitively slow dif-540 fusive adjustment in the interior (MacCready and Rhines 1991); in more realistic contexts, 541 cross-slope pressure gradients due to coupling with the non-local circulation would support a much more rapid adjustment process (Peterson and Callies 2021). Despite the 543 non-equilibrated nature of our solutions, the slope-aligned framework permits simplified 544 buoyancy budgets which facilitate our dynamical interpretation and the derivation of an 545 eddy closure (see Appendix). Another advantage of the slope-aligned framework is that the solutions are less ambiguous than previous approaches, which either require ad hoc sponge 547 layers at distant horizontal boundaries (Dell 2013) or can only be analyzed transiently be-548 fore mixing completely homogenizes buoyancy (Ruan and Callies 2020). The slope-aligned framework also permits a consistent exploration of ever more realistic configurations: from 550 a constant topographic slope—well described by 1D BBL models (Garrett et al. 1993)— 551 to the complex geometry of the region surrounding the BBTRE canyon. While the local 552 nature of the sloping BBL framework is conceptually convenient for all of the above rea-553 sons, several important non-local factors have been ignored. For example, the inclusion of 554 cross-slope pressure gradients (Peterson and Callies 2021) or large-scale boundary currents (MacCready and Rhines 1991; Naveira Garabato et al. 2019) would fundamentally alter the

- transient spin-up problem. The periodic nature of the simulation may also overemphasize topographic blocking effects since upstream topographic sills also re-appear downstream.
- The results of our quasi-realistic simulation of the Brazil Basin Tracer Release Experiment

 (BBTRE) reconciles two dominant boundary mixing paradigms: yes, bottom-enhanced mix
 ing drives a restratifying up-slope flow in the BBL (Garrett 1979, 1990); but, this flow is

 much stronger than predicted by 1D theory due to net restratification by transient baro
 clinic eddies and topographic steering/blocking (Armi 1978, 1979a; Thurnherr and Speer

 2003; Callies 2018; Ruan and Callies 2020). The net restratifying effect can to a large extent

 be attributed to three distinct physical restratification/destratification processes:
- 1. slumping of isopycnals by finite-amplitude submesoscale baroclinic instabilities (Wenegrat et al. 2018; Callies 2018),
- 2. the blocking of cross-canyon thermal winds within narrow fracture zone canyons (Thurnherr and Speer 2003; Dell 2013; Ruan and Callies 2020), and
- 3. the effect of sills in blocking up-canyon mean flows and homogenizing depressions well below the sill height (Baines 1979; Winters and Armi 2012; Dell 2013).
- We propose a simple parameterization for the restratifying effects of submesoscale baroclinic eddies in terms of a vertically-varying enhancement of vertical momentum diffusion (see Appendix). The blocking of along-slope flow by canyon walls can be captured in the 1D model by inhibiting the development of along-slope thermal wind, such as by setting f = 0. Applied to the BBTRE model, the slope-averaged buoyancy budget (16) confirms Thurnherr et al.'s (2020) hypothesis that spatial averaging reconciles the thin *local* BBL transformations implied by vertical microstructure profiles and 1D models (e.g. Thompson and Johnson 1996) with the thicker *bulk* BBL transformations implied by a decreasing topo-

graphic perimeter—or mixing area—with depth (Polzin 2009; Kunze et al. 2012; Holmes 580 et al. 2018): water below the canyon crest upwells in the net, while water above downwells 581 (Figure 16f). The spatial heterogeneity of the simulated up-canyon flow (Figures 5,6) may 582 explain why the buoyancy fluxes estimated from microstructure profiles are much too weak 583 to balance the upwelling transports inferred by uniformly-extrapolated moored velocity estimates (Thurnherr et al. 2005). 585 Our quasi-realistic simulations provide the first BBL- and submesoscale-resolving simula-586 tions of the mixing-driven abyssal overturning in the Brazil Basin, complementing Huang and Jin (2002) and Ogden and Ferrari's (in prep) coarser-resolution basin-scale simulations. 588 Despite the idealization of our numerical set-up, we qualitatively reproduce key features of the observations: broad up-slope flow and near-boundary stratification of $B_z \approx \mathcal{O}(10^{-7} \text{s}^{-2})$ along the canyon trough (Toole 2007; Ledwell et al. 2000), stronger near-bottom stratifi-591 cation along the hills surrounding the canyon (Polzin 2009), hydraulically accelerated flow 592 over blocking sills (Clément et al. 2017), and the mean diapycnal downwelling and spreading of a tracer released in the SML (Ledwell et al. 2000; see companion manuscript Drake et 594 al., in prep.). Despite this qualitative agreement, the simulated diapycnal transports within 595 the canyon are too weak—and the stratification too strong—by roughly a factor of 2. These 596 remaining discrepancies could be explained by the previously mentioned limitations of the 597 inherently local slope-aligned modelling framework and the self-similar parameterization of 598 small-scale mixing. The lack of full equilibration of the simulations could explain the toostrong stratification—the 1D models become about half as stratified at equilibrium—but not 600 the too-weak up-canyon flow. Too-weak canyon mixing, on the other hand, could potentially 601 explain both biases: we speculate that microstructure-based estimates of the turbulent diffusivity may be biased low due to sampling biases (Watson et al. 1988; Voet et al. 2015; Cael

and Mashayek 2021; Whalen 2021) or biases in the mixing parameterization (Ijichi et al. 2020). Based on observations and basin-scale simulations of tracer spreading, respectively, Ledwell (in prep) and Ogden and Ferrari (in prep) similarly conclude that tracer observations are more consistent with diffusivities about 2 times larger than those inferred from microstructure⁸.

The characteristic topographic features in the BBTRE (large-scale slope, canyon, and hills) 609 are typical of mid-ocean ridges, such that the dynamics described here can be thought to 610 apply to the global mid-ocean ridge system (with the steepness of slopes and hills modulated by the age of the rift valley and the Coriolis parameter by its latitude). The BBTRE simula-612 tion exhibits an instantaneous diapycnal upwelling transport in the BBL of $\mathcal{E}_{BBL} = 60 \,\mathrm{mSv}$, 613 where $\mathcal{E} = \frac{1}{\Delta b} \int_{\mathcal{V}(|b-b'|<\Delta b/2)} \nabla \cdot (\kappa \nabla b') dV$ is the average watermass transformation rate within a volume \mathcal{V} for a layer of thickness Δb and \mathcal{E}_{BBL} confines this integral strictly to regions 615 of buoyancy flux convergence (see the companion manuscript Drake et al.). The upwelling 616 transport suggested by the bulk buoyancy budget presented here (Figure 8f) is smaller than $\mathcal{E}_{\mathrm{BBL}}$ by a factor of three due to substantial cancellation from temporal averaging and oppos-618 ing cross-slope flows at the same height above the mean slope (e.g. Figure 4a). Extrapolating 619 these BBL watermass transformations to the length of the Mid-Atlantic Ridge in the Brazil 620 Basin (about 55 times the domain width $L_y = 60 \,\mathrm{km}$), this 3.3 Sv of BBL upwelling⁹ would 621 alone balance much of the 3.7–4.0 Sv net inflow of Antarctic Bottom Water in the Brazil 622 Basin (Hogg et al. 1982; Morris et al. 2001). Extrapolating even further to a global mid-

⁸Given the uncertainties of the microstructure methods, agreement within a factor of 2 is generally considered to be good (e.g. Gregg et al. 2018).

⁹This is much larger than Ruan and Callies' (2020) estimate of 0.5 Sv because our near-bottom stratification on the ridge flanks is much stronger than theirs, due to a combination of restratification effect of abyssal hills and fundamental differences between the slope-aligned and transient model configurations (see Peterson and Callies 2021).

ocean ridge system of length 80×10^3 km (including both flanks of the ridge; Thurnherr et al. 2005) leads to a global BBL upwelling of 80 Sv due to upwelling along mid-ocean ridges, roughly consistent with global diagnostic estimates of BBL upwelling (Ferrari et al. 2016; McDougall and Ferrari 2017).

Global extrapolations of localized estimates of BBL upwelling, such as the above, have 628 been used to attribute the net abyssal overturning to individual mixing hotspots (e.g. Ferron 629 et al. 1998; Voet et al. 2015; Thurnherr et al. 2020; Spingys et al. 2021). These observa-630 tions, however, generally also imply significant downwelling in adjacent buoyancy classes, suggesting that their localized upwelling may be offset by a similar dynamical process oper-632 ating nearby—but centered on a different buoyancy surface. For example, Thurnherr et al. 633 (2020) argue that the observed turbulent buoyancy flux convergence in the BBTRE canyon, extrapolated to all of the fracture zone canyons in the Brazil Basin, is sufficient to transform 635 "the total inflow of AABW". Above the canyon, however, their own observations imply an 636 opposing buoyancy flux divergence of comparable magnitude; upwelling within the canyon is thus only half of the story. Consider the following heuristic argument which applies the 638 slope-aligned buoyancy budgets derived in Section 2c in buoyancy coordinates. Following 639 the $\gamma_n \in \{28.1, 28.15\} \,\mathrm{kg/m^3}$ neutral density class in Thurnherr et al.'s (2020) Figure 3, for example, we apply eq. (16) to their integrated buoyancy fluxes in Figure 7 to infer a bulk 641 upwelling of $\Psi(z_{\text{crest}}) \simeq \frac{\langle wb \rangle / L_x}{N^2 \sin \theta} \simeq \frac{\Gamma \int \epsilon \, dy}{N^2 \sin \theta} \approx \frac{0.2 \left(2 \times 10^{-5} \, \text{m}^3/\text{s}^3\right)}{\left(1 \times 10^{-6} \, \text{s}^{-2}\right) \left(2 \times 10^{-3}\right)} = 10 \, \text{mSv}$ within the canyon 642 at the DoMORE site¹⁰. This confirms Thurnherr et al.'s (2020) central conclusion that regardless of the shape of individual buoyancy flux profiles—the concave canyon topography 644 implies that the *integrated* flux peaks at the crest of the canyon and thus drives a substan-645 tial bulk upwelling within the canyon. A few hundred km down-canyon, however, this same

 $^{^{10}}$ Averaging the overflow and non-overflow profiles, for simplicity.

density class rests above the canyon and experiences a net buoyancy flux divergence, driving a downwelling of $\Psi(z_{\text{crest}} + 500\,\text{m}) - \Psi(z_{\text{crest}}) \approx -4\,\text{mSv}$ that partially compensates for the upwelling in the canyon and suggests a significantly weaker *net* upwelling of 6 mSv for the BBTRE canyon. This heuristic exercise serves as a cautionary tale for attributing abyssal upwelling to individual regions or processes: both strictly positive and strictly negative components of watermass transformations along a buoyancy surface must be accounted for to robustly characterize the net overturning circulation.

At a global scale, diagnostic estimates of watermass transformations suggest significant compensation is the norm, exhibiting typical amplification factors of $\mathcal{A} \equiv \mathcal{E}_{BBL}/\mathcal{E}$ of 2 to 655 5, where $\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{E}_{BBL} + \mathcal{E}_{SML}$ is the net diapyncal transport and \mathcal{E}_{SML} is the downwelling in 656 the stratified mixing layer (Ferrari et al. 2016; McDougall and Ferrari 2017; Cimoli et al. 657 2019). However, these diagnostic exercises do not provide any insight into the physics 658 underlying the observed density structure that supports these transformations. More prob-659 lematically, these results seem to contradict the weak upwelling with $A \simeq 1$ implied by 1D boundary layer dynamics (Section 2b). Building upon Callies (2018) and Ruan and Callies 661 (2020), our prognostic modelling approach demonstrates how three-dimensional eddy and 662 topographic effects conspire to provide sufficient restratification to support a significant upwelling/downwelling dipole, i.e. $A \gg 1$ (Figure 8a,f). Our results inspire two open questions: 664 1) which topographic regimes (e.g. ridges, slopes, plains) or topographic roughness features 665 (e.g. hills, canyons, channels, sills, or seamounts) contribute the most to abyssal watermass transformations (e.g. Armi and D'Asaro 1980; Bryden and Nurser 2003; Thurnherr et al. 667 2005; Legg et al. 2009; Nazarian et al. 2021; Mashayek et al. 2021) and 2) what are the dy-668 namics that support finite watermass transformations in these regions (Garrett 1979, 1990; Callies 2018; Drake et al. 2020)?

Our combined assumptions of constant background stratification and zero barotropic cross-671 slope pressure gradient assert that the net upwelling scales with the background diffusivity 672 (eq. 13) and thus that the net upwelling $\Psi_{\infty} = \mathcal{E}$ is very small. While our local model helps 673 explain the magnitude of bottom boundary layer upwelling \mathcal{E}_{BBL} , it does not meaningfully 674 constrain \mathcal{E}_{SML} or \mathcal{A} . Salmun et al. (1991) use asymptotic analysis to show that small perturbations away from a constant interior stratification drive an exchange flow between 676 the boundary and the interior, which then feeds back on the interior stratification. In the 677 context of the abyssal ocean, vertical variations in the basin-scale interior stratification are relatively large, such that they enter as leading-order terms in watermass transformations 679 (Spingys et al. 2021) and drive substantial exchange between the mixing layers and the 680 interior (Holmes et al. 2018). In Drake et al.'s (2020) idealized basin-scale simulations, 681 this boundary-interior coupling results in a substantial reduction of \mathcal{E}_{SML} , permitting an 682 amplification factor of A = 1.5 much smaller than the $A \gg 1$ governed by local dynamics. 683 These idealized prognostic model results are qualitatively consistent with the diagnostic approaches described above, but quantitative understanding of \mathcal{E}_{BBL} , \mathcal{E}_{SML} , and \mathcal{A} remains 685 incomplete. 686

Understanding of bottom-enhanced mixing has advanced considerably in recent years due
to a combination of breakthroughs in observation (e.g. Polzin et al. 1997; Ledwell et al.
2000), theory (e.g. Polzin 2009), and modelling (e.g. Nikurashin and Legg 2011). The
interpretation of these results in terms of broad diapycnal downwelling in the SML atop
vigorous diapycnal upwelling in a BBL (Ferrari et al. 2016), however, is challenged by higherresolution observations (van Haren 2018; Naveira Garabato et al. 2019; Polzin et al. 2021)
and simulations (Gayen and Sarkar 2011; Kaiser 2020) of mixing processes within the bottom
few dozen meters of the ocean. In addition to the debate on the nature of boundary mixing

itself (see Polzin and McDougall 2022), the role of the resulting boundary layer flows in the global overturning circulation remains shrouded by poor understanding of their coupling to the far-field interior (Drake et al. 2020; Peterson and Callies 2021).

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Data availability statement. The source code for the MITgcm simulations and all of the
Python code necessary to produce the figures will be publicly available at github.com/
hdrake/sim-bbtre upon acceptance (or earlier by requesting the corresponding author).
Our analysis of labeled data arrays is greatly simplified by the xarray package in Python
(Hoyer and Hamman 2017).

APPENDIX

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One-dimensional model of restratification by submesoscale baroclinic eddies along a sloping boundary

Our goal is to reformulate the 1D sloping BBL model using Transformed Eulerian Mean (TEM) theory (Andrews and McIntyre 1976) to facilitate the inclusion of submesoscale eddy restratification. We begin by assuming there are no large-scale variations in the perturbations, so that we can average in the along-slope (y) and cross-slope (x) directions and drop cross- and along-slope gradients. Then, averaging the slope-aligned equations (1–5) in both x and y, we have

$$\overline{u}_t - f\overline{v}\cos\theta - \overline{b}\sin\theta - \partial_z\left(\kappa\overline{u}_z\right) = -\partial_z\left(\overline{w'u'}\right),\tag{A1}$$

$$\overline{v}_t + f\overline{u}\cos\theta - \partial_z\left(\kappa\overline{v}_z\right) = -\partial_z\left(\overline{w'v'}\right),\tag{A2}$$

$$\overline{p}_z - \overline{b}\cos\theta = 0, \tag{A3}$$

$$\overline{b}_t + \overline{u} N^2 \sin \theta - \partial_z \left(\kappa \overline{B}_z \right) = -\partial_z \left(\overline{w'b'} \right), \tag{A4}$$

where the eddy fluctuations $\phi' \equiv \phi - \overline{\phi}$ are departures from the slope-average means $\overline{\phi}$, $\overline{w} = 0$ from continuity and the no-flux bottom boundary condition, and we assume $\sigma = 1$.

We introduce the residual velocities

$$(u^{\dagger}, w^{\dagger}) \equiv (\overline{u}, \overline{w}) + (-\partial_z, \partial_x) \psi_e, \tag{A5}$$

which add to the Eulerian mean flow $\overline{\bf u}$ an eddy-induced overturning $\nabla \times {\bf y} \psi_e$ in the (x,z) plane that is by definition also non-divergent.

Using a convenient definition of the eddy streamfunction—Plumb and Ferrari (2005) show that its definition is not unique—inspired by Andrews and McIntyre (1976) but in a rotated coordinate frame,

$$\psi_e \equiv \frac{\overline{u'b'}}{\overline{B}_z},\tag{A6}$$

we express the slope-averaged equations (A1—A4) in terms of the residual circulation $\mathbf{u}^{\dagger} = (u^{\dagger}, \overline{v}, w^{\dagger})$. Since, by assumption, the large-scale average solution is independent of x, we

have $\partial_x \psi_e = 0$ and thus $w^{\dagger} = \overline{w} = 0$. With this choice of eddy streamfunction (A6) and associated residual velocity, the momentum and buoyancy budget take the form,

$$\overline{v}_t + f u^{\dagger} \cos \theta - \partial_z \left(\kappa \overline{v}_z \right) = -\partial_z \left(\overline{w'v'} + f \cos \theta \, \frac{\overline{u'b'}}{\overline{B}_z} \right), \tag{A7}$$

$$\overline{b}_t + u^{\dagger} N^2 \sin \theta - \partial_z \left(\kappa \overline{B}_z \right) = -\partial_z \left[\frac{\overline{\mathbf{u}'b'} \cdot \nabla \overline{B}}{\overline{B}_z} \right], \tag{A8}$$

where we recall the total buoyancy is decomposed as $B \equiv N^2 \hat{z} + \bar{b} + b'$. The main advantage of working in terms of residual velocity is that only the eddy flux terms normal to density surfaces appears in the buoyancy budget. The mean slope of isopycnals in the rotated reference frame is given by $-\overline{B}_x/\overline{B}_z = -N^2 \sin\theta/(N^2 \cos\theta + \bar{b}_z)$ because \bar{b} is independent of x. Thus $\overline{\mathbf{u}'b'} \cdot \nabla \overline{B}$ is the dot product of the eddy buoyancy flux with the mean buoyancy gradient, which is punishingly small because the submesoscale eddies are characterized by large Richardson numbers and do not generate mixing across density surfaces, as illustrated in Figure 11b for our numerical solutions. Then, at leading order,

$$\bar{b}_t + u^{\dagger} N^2 \sin \theta - \partial_z \left(\kappa \overline{B}_z \right) = 0, \tag{A9}$$

This is the main advantage of working in terms of residual velocity, \mathbf{u}^{\dagger} , instead of Eulerian mean velocity. The residual velocity is the mean Lagrangian velocity that advects tracers, without additional contributions from eddy fluxes as can be seen in equation (A9).

Assuming quasi-geostrophic scaling for the eddy fluxes, the Reynolds flux term in (A7) is $\mathcal{O}(R_o)$ smaller than the buoyancy flux term and can be neglected. Closing the system then only requires a closure for the cross-slope eddy buoyancy flux $\overline{u'b'}$ that appears in the y-momentum equation. Following the argument proposed by Gent and McWilliams (1990); Gent et al. (1995), i.e. that quasi-geostrophic eddies generated through baroclinic instability act to fallten isopycnals and thus release available potential energy, we assume that the truly

and the eddy closure problem is confined to the residual along-slope momentum flux (A7).

horizontal buoyancy flux is down-gradient,

$$\overline{\hat{u}'b'} \simeq -K(z)\overline{B}_{\hat{x}}.\tag{A10}$$

This closure can be expressed in slope coordinates, $\overline{B}_{\hat{x}} = -\bar{b}_z \sin \theta$, such that

$$K(z) = -\frac{\overline{\hat{u}'b'}}{\overline{B}_{\hat{x}}} = -\frac{\overline{u'b'}\cos\theta - \overline{w'b'}\sin\theta}{-\overline{b}_z\sin\theta} = \frac{\overline{u'b'}}{\overline{B}_z}\frac{N^2 + \overline{b}_z\cos\theta}{\overline{b}_z\sin\theta},\tag{A11}$$

where we used the fact that the flux normal to density surfaces vanish and thus $\overline{w'b'}=$ $-\overline{u'b'}\,\overline{B}_x/\overline{B}_z$. It is worth noting that $\overline{B}_{\hat{z}}=N^2+\overline{b}_z\cos\theta$ is the true-vertical buoyancy gradient.

To clarify the role of this additional eddy-induced overturning, we focus on the stratified interior above the frictional bottom layer, where geostrophic balance applies to the mean along-slope flow in the mean cross-slope (\mathbf{x}) momentum equation (as in semi-geostrophic theories of frontogenesis),

$$-f\overline{v}_z\cos\theta = \overline{b}_z\sin\theta. \tag{A12}$$

Combining (A11) and (A12) and plugging back into (A7) yields

$$\overline{v}_t + f u^{\dagger} \cos \theta = \partial_z \left(\nu_e(z) \overline{v}_z \right), \tag{A13}$$

where we defined

$$\nu_e(z) \equiv \sigma_v(z)\kappa(z)$$
 with $\sigma_v(z) \equiv 1 + \frac{K(z)}{\kappa(z)} \frac{f^2}{\overline{B_z}} \cos^2 \theta$ (A14)

as an enhanced vertical momentum diffusion (as in Greatbatch and Lamb 1990 but modified by the geometric factor $\cos^2 \theta$, which approaches unity for shallow slopes).

Although we have shown that the slope-averaged equations can be closed through an enhanced eddy viscosity, the parameterization is incomplete since we have not specified the magnitude or structure of K(z) in terms of only resolved quantities and external parameters. Developing such a parameterization is beyond the scope of this paper; however, we can explore the impact of such a parameterization by diagnosing the cross-slope eddy flux—and the
resulting effective eddy diffusivity (A11)—from the Smooth3D simulation and substituting
it back into the corresponding 1D model given by

$$u_t^{\dagger} - f\overline{v}\cos\theta = \overline{b}\sin\theta + \partial_z\left(\kappa u_z^{\dagger}\right),\tag{A15}$$

$$\overline{v}_t + f u^{\dagger} \cos \theta = \partial_z \left(\sigma_v(z) \kappa \overline{v}_z \right), \tag{A16}$$

$$w^{\dagger} = 0 \tag{A17}$$

$$\overline{p}_z = \overline{b}\cos\theta,\tag{A18}$$

$$\bar{b}_t + u^{\dagger} N^2 \sin \theta = \partial_z \left[\kappa \left(N^2 \cos \theta + \bar{b}_z \right) \right]. \tag{A19}$$

This set of equations is identical to the canonical 1D sloping BBL model (8) through (10) for the Eulerian mean circulation except for the enhancement of vertical diffusion of alongslope momentum by a factor $\sigma_v(z)$. Figure 11a shows how the effective vertical Prandtl number can be approximated by a simple vertical structure, $\sigma_v(z) \propto z \exp\{-z/\eta\}$ with an optimal vertical scale of $\eta = 225 \,\mathrm{m} \approx h$ and a peak magnitude of $\sigma_v = \mathcal{O}(100)$, dramatically enhancing the vertical diffusion of the along-slope thermal wind. This form satisfies $\sigma_v \to 1$ as $z \to 0$, such that the eddy-induced flow does not interfere with the bottom boundary conditions on the Eulerian mean flow.

Figure 1 and Figures 8a,b,c show the impact of this momentum diffusion on the 1D BBL solution and its buoyancy budget, respectively. Callies (2018) and Holmes et al. (2019) propose conceptually similar parameterizations, but omit the derivation and assume a vertically-uniform enhancement of the Prandtl number $\sigma = 230$, which distorts the vertical structure of submesoscale eddy restratification.

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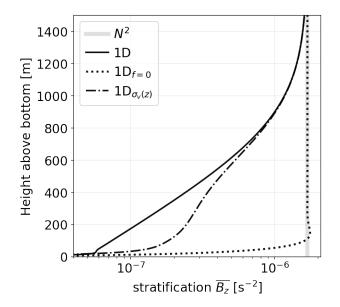


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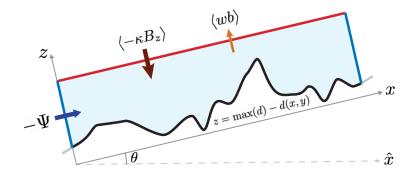


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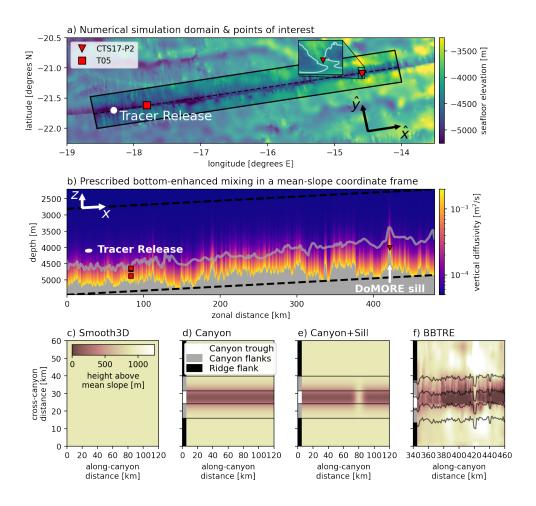


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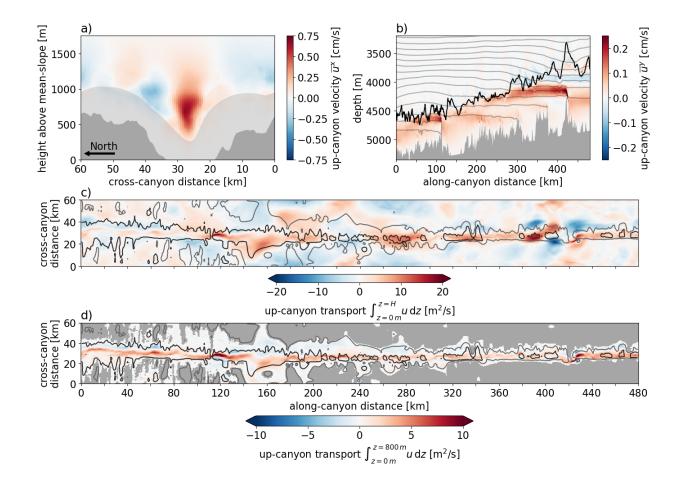


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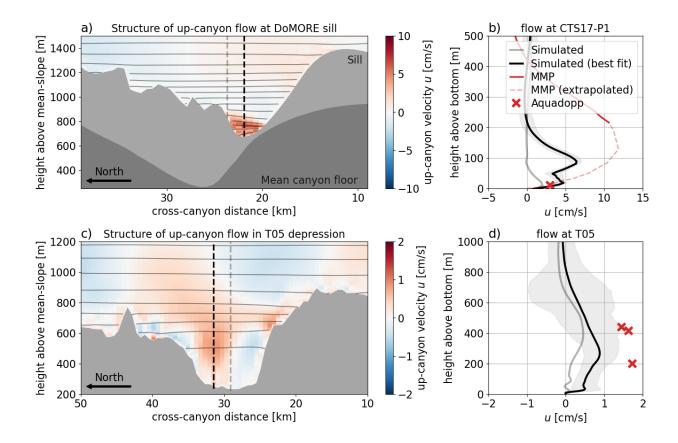


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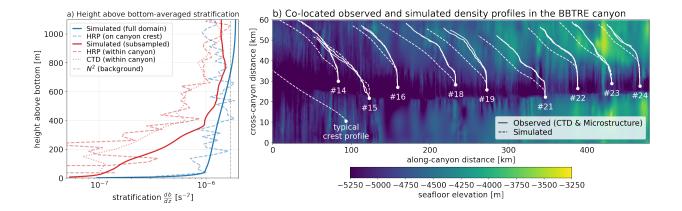


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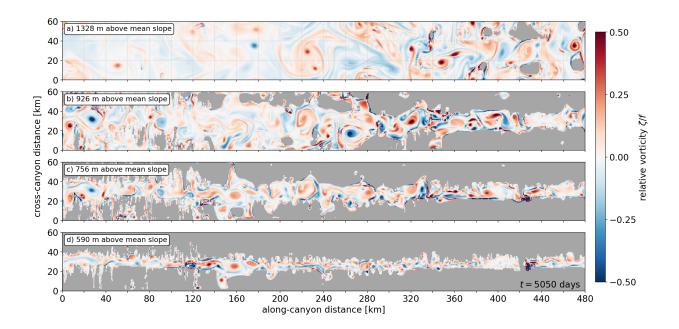


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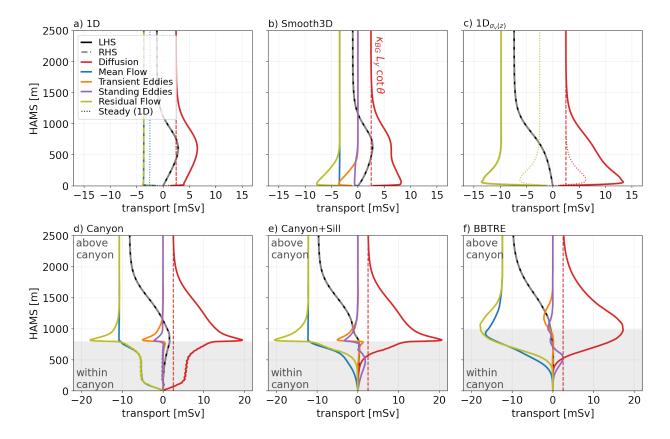


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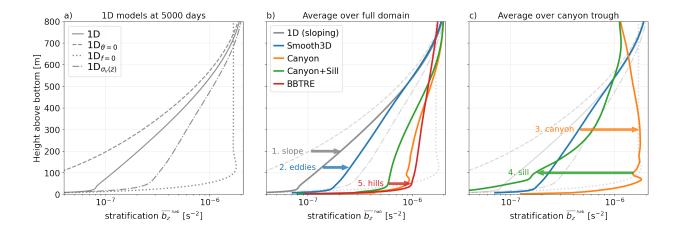


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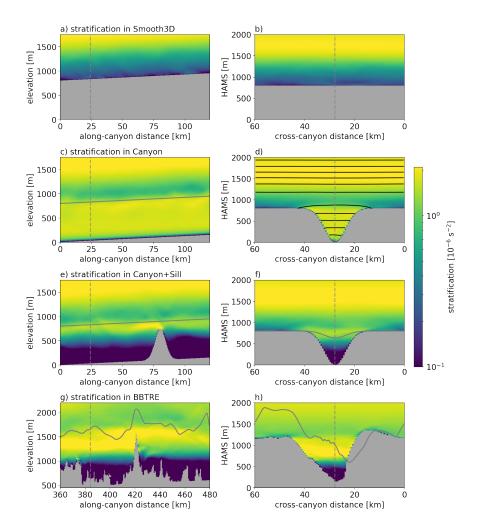


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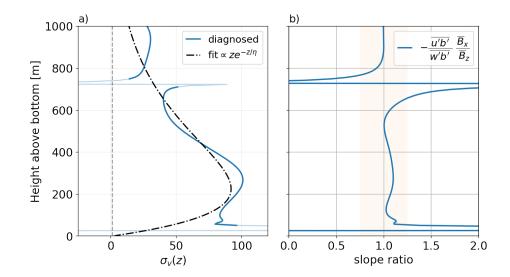


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