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1 **Pycnocline Stratification Shapes Submesoscale Vertical Tracer Transport**

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7 ABSTRACT: Pycnocline stratification is increasing across multiple ocean basins due to a warming
8 surface ocean and increasing sea ice melt. Pycnocline stratification plays a leading order role in
9 tracer transport, shaping capacity for heat and carbon uptake, making it a key parameter of interest
10 on timescales ranging from paleoclimate to plankton blooms. Part of the challenge in assessing
11 the role of pycnocline stratification in global models is the two-way connection between physical
12 processes at the (sub)mesoscale and stratification with important implications for tracer subduction.
13 Using a suite of numerical simulations of an idealized front, we find that the strength of pycnocline
14 stratification influences the formation and evolution of submesoscale structure and the resulting
15 tracer transport. The impact of changing stratification on tracer flux strongly depends on whether
16 frontal strength is also changed correspondingly by holding the isopycnal slope fixed. When a
17 constant isopycnal slope is initialized, tracers get efficiently transferred across the base of the
18 mixed layer and get trapped in anticyclonic submesoscale vortices below the mixed layer. This
19 leads to tracer concentrations below the mixed layer and fluxes through it to be stronger under
20 decreased stratification conditions. In contrast, when frontal lateral buoyancy gradient is held fixed
21 while stratification changes, the vertical flux of tracers and the concentrations at depth stay constant
22 across all examined stratification conditions. Understanding the relationship between pycnocline
23 stratification and fine-scale physical motions is necessary to diagnose and predict trends in carbon
24 uptake and storage, particularly in the Southern Ocean.

25 SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT: Due to climate change, the ocean is warming. As a result,
26 the stratification, or vertical layering of density, in the ocean is increasing. We use a numerical
27 model to investigate how this increasing stratification impacts motions that are approximately 0.1-
28 10 km in width. These motions are known to play a vital role in transporting properties from
29 the ocean surface (*e.g.* carbon stored in phytoplankton) into the interior ocean. Although these
30 processes may seem separate due to large differences in scale (ocean basin versus 1 km), the
31 small-scale motions are fueled by the large-scale background conditions. We find that there is
32 a relationship between background stratification and transport between the surface and interior
33 ocean; in particular, when the stratification is decreased, there is enhanced downward movement
34 of surface properties. However, despite an *a priori* expectation that increasing stratification may
35 reduce the ability of the ocean to take up and store surface ocean properties, we demonstrate that
36 uptake via these processes may “plateau” and there may not necessarily be a reduction in the
37 drawdown via small-scale motions.

38 1. Introduction

39 In an averaged view of a vertical column of the ocean, the surface mixed layer and the deep ocean
40 are separated by a region of enhanced density stratification. The strength of this stratification has
41 implications for the climate, as enhanced stratification can result in reduced exchange of oceanic
42 tracers between the surface and interior ocean with impacts on biological productivity (Behrenfeld
43 et al. 2006), air-sea gas exchange (Sallée et al. 2012), and ocean heat and carbon uptake and
44 storage (Newsom et al. 2023; Bourgeois et al. 2022). Investigations using numerical models and
45 observations have found that stratification in the surface ocean has increased globally by 5.3%-
46 8.9% since 1960 (Li et al. 2020; Sallée et al. 2021; Roch et al. 2023). The relationship between
47 subsurface stratification and surface buoyancy forcing is complex (Somavilla et al. 2017), but
48 overall, increasing pycnocline stratification is associated with surface warming and freshening at
49 high latitudes (Yamaguchi and Suga 2019) and mid to tropical latitudes (Luyten et al. 1983), as well
50 as through wind-driven processes responding to freshening at midlatitudes (Fedorov et al. 2004).
51 Stratification is a major uncertainty in climate models, with significant impact on future projections
52 of oceanic heat uptake and storage (Bourgeois et al. 2022). Significantly, the impact of pycnocline

53 stratification on smaller, surface-forced physical scales and mechanisms remains unattributed, and
54 these ubiquitous dynamics are not captured in climate models with insufficient resolution.

55 Density fronts in the global ocean play a fundamental role in shaping subsurface ocean properties
56 through subduction of surface ocean properties along sloping isopycnals. Subduction occurs
57 through both mesoscale stirring processes, submesoscale vertical advection, and the combination
58 of these processes (Freilich et al. 2024; Cao et al. 2024). Motions in the ocean surface boundary
59 layer can significantly alter upper-ocean stratification and exchange between the mixed layer and the
60 thermocline by frontal circulations (Klein and Lapeyre 2009) or mixing and turbulent entrainment
61 (Smith et al. 2016) with downstream implications for ocean biogeochemistry (Mahadevan 2016;
62 Lévy et al. 2018; McGillicuddy 2016). Mesoscale eddies shed off density fronts and work to
63 restratify the front. Sourcing energy from the mesoscale strain field, submesoscale fronts are
64 traditionally Rossby number and Richardson number of $O(1)$, dynamical regimes where rotation
65 and inertial forces are of comparable importance (McWilliams 2019). Submesoscale motions are
66 associated with elevated vertical velocities $O(100 \text{ m day}^{-1})$; Su et al. (2018)) that can penetrate up
67 to 100 m below the base of mixed layer (Siegelman et al. 2020; Siegelman 2020). These vertical
68 circulations can transport surface waters below the base of the mixed layer, sequestering surface-
69 enhanced organic carbon through the downwelling pathway (Boyd et al. 2019; Ruiz et al. 2009).
70 In addition, nutrients that have elevated concentrations at depth can be entrained into the mixed
71 layer through the restratification process (Brannigan 2016; Luo and Callies 2023). Submesoscale-
72 resolving observations from the last decade have confirmed predictions by numerical models (Rosso
73 et al. 2015; Balwada et al. 2018) that submesoscale structure is ubiquitous across the global ocean
74 and plays a key role in setting subsurface tracer distributions (Freilich and Mahadevan 2021),
75 particularly in energetically enhanced regions of the global ocean such as the Southern Ocean
76 (Dove et al. 2021).

77 The relationship between pycnocline stratification and mesoscale and submesoscale motions can
78 be explored with a thought experiment. If pycnocline stratification (N^2) at a front increases without
79 a requisite strengthening of the horizontal density gradient (M^2), the isopycnal slope (M^2/N^2) of
80 the front will decrease, reducing the available potential energy for mesoscale instability and the
81 submesoscale motions fueled by mesoscale strain (Rosso et al. 2015). However, if the horizontal
82 density gradient also increases, the isopycnal slope can remain constant. A real-world example

83 of a constant isopycnal slope under changing conditions is the major fronts of the Antarctic
84 Circumpolar Current (ACC). A poleward shift and intensification of westerly winds (Meredith
85 et al. 2012; Downes et al. 2011) and the north-south asymmetry of warming across the Southern
86 Ocean (Shi et al. 2021) both correlate with accelerations of the zonal flow. The “eddy saturation”
87 hypothesis suggests that despite these basin-wide changes, the additional energy is imparted to
88 mesoscale eddies (Morrison and Hogg 2013; Munday et al. 2013; Constantinou and Hogg 2019;
89 Hogg et al. 2015). The eddy kinetic energy across the Southern Ocean is increasing, suggesting
90 enhanced mesoscale eddy activity (Martínez-Moreno et al. 2021; Zhang et al. 2021) and the
91 isopycnal slope across the ACC is observed to be relatively constant (Böning et al. 2008).

92 Increased pycnocline stratification may reduce the capacity of mixed layer processes to source
93 energy from greater depths, as the wintertime mixed layer depth (MLD) tends to shallow with
94 reduced stratification. The wintertime MLD depth has long been considered critical for setting
95 potential primary productivity and nutrient entrainment (Sverdrup 1953). The relationship between
96 stratification and MLD is of particular interest to the polar community, as the two poles are
97 experiencing opposite responses. In the Arctic, there is decreasing stratification due to reduced
98 freshwater inputs, resulting in a deepening MLD and enhanced vertical mixing (Hordoir et al.
99 2022). In the Southern Ocean, despite increasing stratification due to surface warming and sea
100 ice melt, the MLD is deepening, attributed to increasingly strong westerly winds (Sallée et al.
101 2021). Increased available potential energy resulting from deepening MLDs can provide the
102 energy necessary for mesoscale instability and fuel submesoscale motions.

103 Here, we present output from a submesoscale-resolving process model with a density front
104 to investigate the relationship between initial pycnocline stratification and the vertical transport
105 of oceanic tracers. We demonstrate that the physical response to stratification changes, and
106 therefore the tracer transport, is dependent on the response of the isopycnal slope to changing
107 stratification. Tracers subducted from the mixed layer are captured in anticyclonic submesoscale
108 coherent vortices. The number of these features are enhanced in decreased stratification conditions,
109 particularly in conditions where the large-scale cross-front buoyancy gradient adapts to changing
110 stratification resulting in a constant isopycnal slope. However, increased stratification does not
111 necessarily result in decreased tracer at depth. This is in contrast to previous research which

112 suggests that increasing pycnocline stratification will reduce submesoscale activity and therefore
 113 tracer subduction.

114 2. Data and Methods

115 *Model setup*

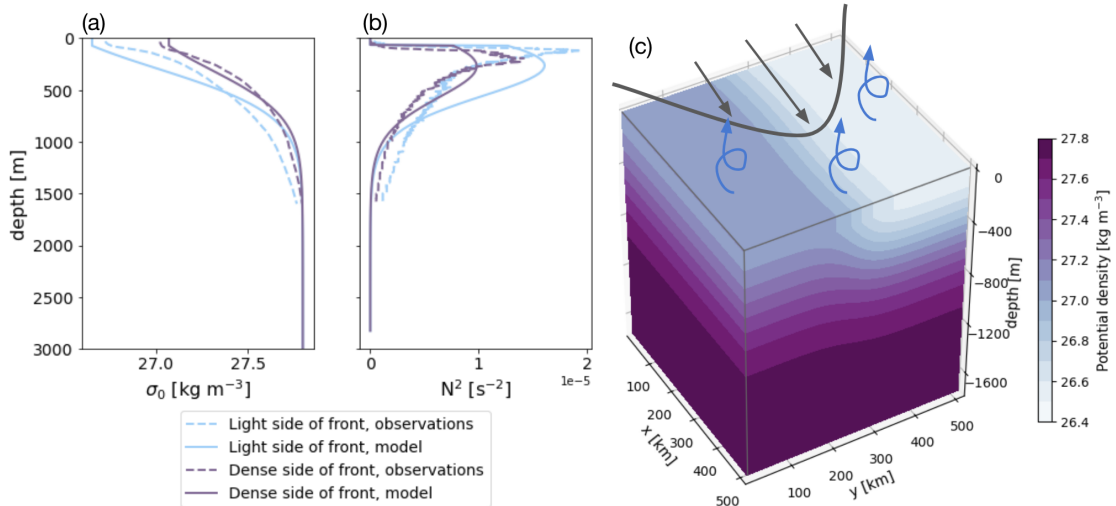
116 A series of numerical experiments were carried out using the Massachusetts Institute of Tech-
 117 nology general circulation model (MITgcm; Marshall et al. (1997)) (Figure 1). The model setup
 118 consists of a square channel of size 512 km by 512 km by 3000 m on a β -plane (centered at 50°S)
 119 and flat bottom topography. The southern edge is blocked by a vertical wall and the northern edge
 120 linearly restores to a set temperature profile. The surface has an additional buoyancy forcing of -50
 121 W m^{-2} (where negative values represent a loss of heat from the ocean to the atmosphere) and is
 122 forced by a zonal atmospheric jet centered at the middle of the domain. The atmospheric jet causes
 123 Ekman pumping to the north and Ekman suction to the south. There is no seasonal or tidal forcing,
 124 and buoyancy is controlled solely by temperature as an active tracer. The numerical viscosity is
 125 set by the modified 2D Leith viscosity (Fox-Kemper and Menemenlis 2008) and in the vertical
 126 direction, the K-Profile Parameterization (KPP) is used for boundary layer turbulent mixing. The
 127 vertical grid is the same as used in the LLC4320 simulations, with spacing of ≈ 1 m near the surface
 128 and increased spacing with depth (Rocha et al. 2016). We define an isolated front using an initial
 129 temperature relationship (Equation 1) that is in thermal wind balance with the along-front zonal
 130 wind velocity.

$$T_0 = (T_N - T_S) \tanh\left(\frac{y - \frac{L_y + y_{meander}}{2}}{L_f} + 1\right) + T_S \quad (1)$$

$$y_{meander} = 5 \sin\left(\frac{2\pi x}{L_y}\right) \quad (2)$$

131 where the T_0 is initial temperature, T_N is the temperature at the northern boundary, T_S is the
 132 temperature at the southern boundary, L_f is the frontal width, and L_y is the width of the domain
 133 (Stamper et al. 2018). To jump start eddy formation, a small (5 kilometer amplitude) meander is
 134 added to the front, defined by $y_{meander}$. The initial mixed layer depth (MLD) is set at 117 meters
 135 for all simulations, with the MLD calculated by a potential density difference criterion of 0.03 kg

136 m^{-3} from the potential density at 10 meters (Montégut et al. 2004; Treguier et al. 2023). Initial
 137 spin-up runs last for 220 days, reaching approximately steady state conditions around day 170, with
 138 some variance between initial conditions.



139 FIG. 1. Setup of the MITgcm. Observations from Argo floats upstream of Kerguelen plateau compared to
 140 initial conditions of the baseline simulation of (a) potential density (σ_0 , kg m^{-3}) and (b) vertical stratification
 141 (N^2 , s^{-2}). (c) Schematic of the simulation setup, plotting potential density. Gray line and arrows indicates the
 142 relative magnitude and direction of wind stress. Blue arrows represent constant surface cooling of -50 W m^{-2} .

143 The “baseline” conditions are set to mimic potential density across the Antarctic Polar Front
 144 in the ACC, informed by data from Argo float profiles upstream of the Kerguelen plateau (40 to
 145 60°E , 40 to 50°S ; Figure 1a,b). It should be noted that salinity plays a significant role in setting
 146 the density, and therefore stratification, distribution of the Southern Ocean, particularly south of
 147 the Polar Front (Stewart and Haine 2016). However, to maintain ease of comparison, we employ
 148 only temperature as an active tracer with a constant salinity of 35 g kg^{-1} across the whole domain.
 149 The surface buoyancy forcing mimics forcing experienced at this latitude in austral springtime.

150 *Experiment description*

151 Different pycnocline stratification conditions are tested (Figure 2), ranging from an initial max-
 152 imum $N^2 = 1.09 \text{ e}^{-5} \text{ s}^{-2}$ to $N^2 = 2.07 \text{ e}^{-5} \text{ s}^{-2}$. Under cases where the isopycnal slope (M^2/N^2)
 153 is held constant at $\Gamma = 4 \text{ e}^{-3}$ at the base of the mixed layer, the initial, large-scale lateral buoyancy

154 gradient, M^2 , is modified (Figure 2a). Where the changing isopycnal slope is considered, the
 155 surface M^2 is held constant (Figure 2b). The resulting simulations are referred to as “increased
 156 stratification” and “decreased stratification” conditions. In all constant slope conditions, the initial
 157 isopycnal slope is the same across all runs (Figure 2c,d,f). In changing slope conditions, the initial
 158 slope varies across runs (Figure 2c,e,g), where increased vertical stratification leads to a reduced
 159 isopycnal slope and decreased vertical stratification leads to an increased isopycnal slope. The
 160 terms “constant” and “changing” only apply to the initial conditions of the simulations; no nudging
 161 or forcing is used to maintain or change the slope. However, we use this terminology throughout
 162 to differentiate the two cases.

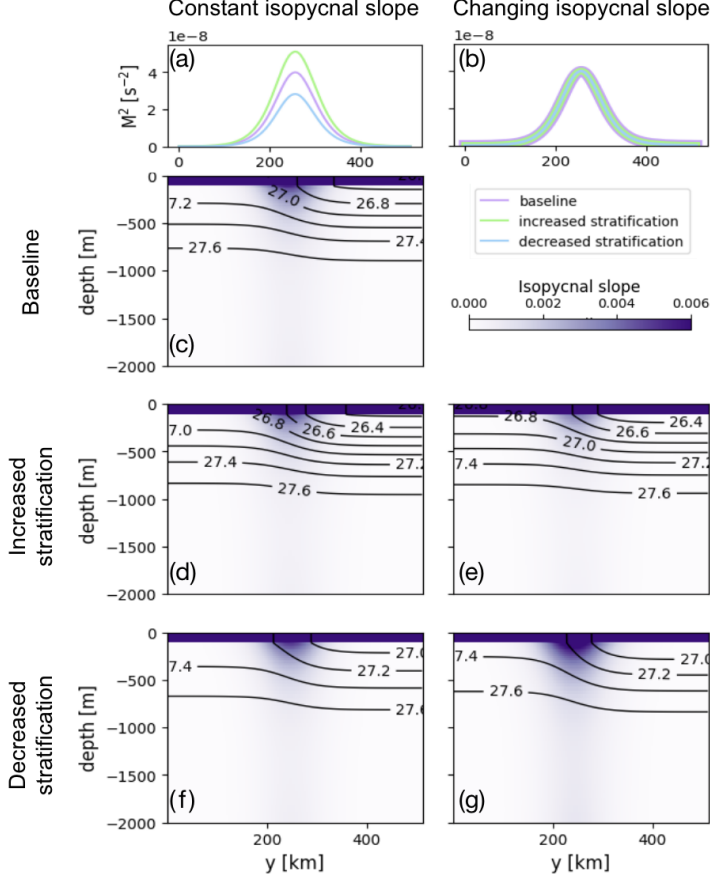
168 Tracers are seeded across the full domain at 5 meters depth upon the model reaching a steady
 169 state conversion of available potential energy to kinetic energy (Figure 3). The tracers were seeded
 170 evenly across the full domain with a value of 1 mol m^{-3} . For all cases, tracers were released on
 171 day 170 after initialization, with averages of tracer concentrations and fluxes considered between
 172 days 199-219.

177 *Non-dimensional numbers*

178 The Rossby number (Ro) is used to diagnose scales of motion, where processes that are near 0
 179 defined as geostrophic, and $Ro \mathcal{O}(1)$ being a typical definition of the submesoscale, particularly in
 180 the surface ocean. Using the horizontal velocities (u, v), Coriolis parameter (f), and the lateral and
 181 vertical buoyancy gradient scales (M^2, N^2), and the vertical shear (S), the dimensionless Rossby
 182 number can be written, and approximately scaled under geostrophy, as,

$$Ro = \zeta f^{-1} = \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \right) f^{-1} \sim \frac{M^2 H}{f^2 L}. \quad (3)$$

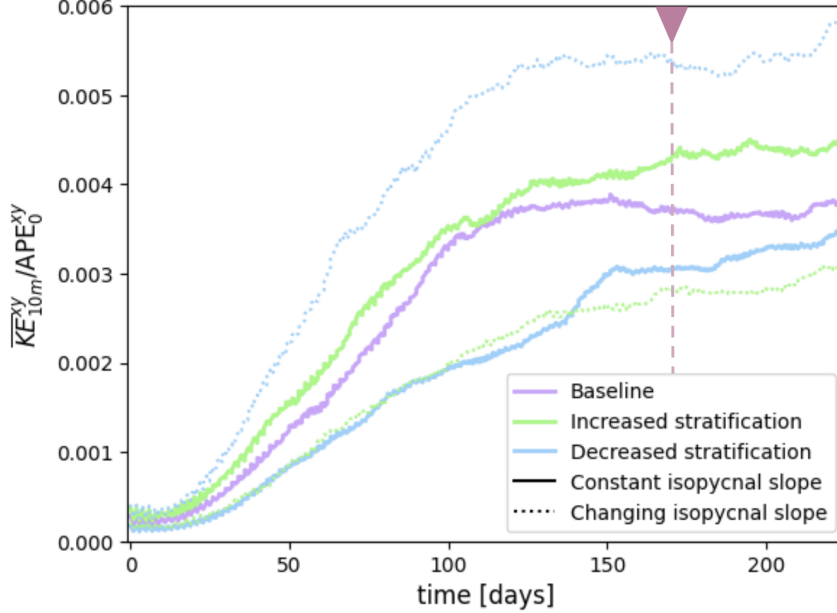
183 The gradient Richardson number (Ri_g) characterizes the stability of a flow in the presence of
 184 a density gradient. As the balance between potential energy associated the vertical buoyancy
 185 gradient to the kinetic energy associated with vertical shear, a $Ri_g < 1$ indicates the flow is
 186 potentially unstable and allowing for the development of turbulence. The Richardson number also
 187 scales under geostrophy with the lateral and vertical buoyancy gradients.



163 FIG. 2. Initial conditions for the MITgcm. Horizontal density gradient (M^2 , s^{-2}) for the (a) constant isopycnal
 164 slope and (b) changing isopycnal slope conditions. In (b), the lines are thickened to show how the the three
 165 conditions are “stacked” on top of each other. Isopycnal slope (M^2/N^2) for the (c) baseline conditions, increased
 166 stratification conditions for (d) constant slope and (e) changing slope, and decreased stratification conditions for
 167 (f) constant slope and (g) changing slope.

$$Ri_g = N^2 S^{-2} = \frac{\partial b}{\partial z} \left(\frac{\partial \bar{u}_h}{\partial z} \right)^{-2} \sim \frac{N^2 f^2}{M^4}. \quad (4)$$

188 Luo and Callies (2023) finds that the ratio of the Richardson numbers between the mixed layer
 189 and the pycnocline is a key metric for transport by submesoscales into the ocean interior. We do
 190 not revisit this hypothesis here, but instead examine two cases where the Richardson number of the
 191 mixed layer is altered in different directions. In one direction, where the isopycnal slope is held
 192 constant, we find results that seemingly disagree with those of Luo and Callies (2023), although it



173 FIG. 3. Evolution of surface kinetic energy in the model simulations. Kinetic energy at 10 m depth averaged
 174 over the full model domain is normalized by the initial available potential energy averaged over the full model
 175 domain. Solid lines are runs with constant isopycnal slope conditions while dashed lines are runs with changing
 176 isopycnal slope conditions. Pink triangle and line denote the time when tracers were released.

193 is important to note that there are distinct methodology and metrics distinctions between our study
 194 and theirs.

195 The isopycnal slope (Γ) is the final dimensionless parameter of note. Its magnitude is:

$$\Gamma = \left| \frac{M^2}{N^2} \right|. \quad (5)$$

196 Constant isopycnal slope will be a key option sometimes taken for the experimental design here.
 197 It is also important to note that the (Fox-Kemper et al. 2008) explicitly depends on M^2 , but not on
 198 N^2 in the mixed layer (it does so only indirectly through mixed layer depth), so the restratification
 199 by mixed layer eddies within the mixed layer is expected to strongly depend on whether M^2 varies
 200 across runs. This occurs in these experiments *only* under the constant isopycnal slope simulations.

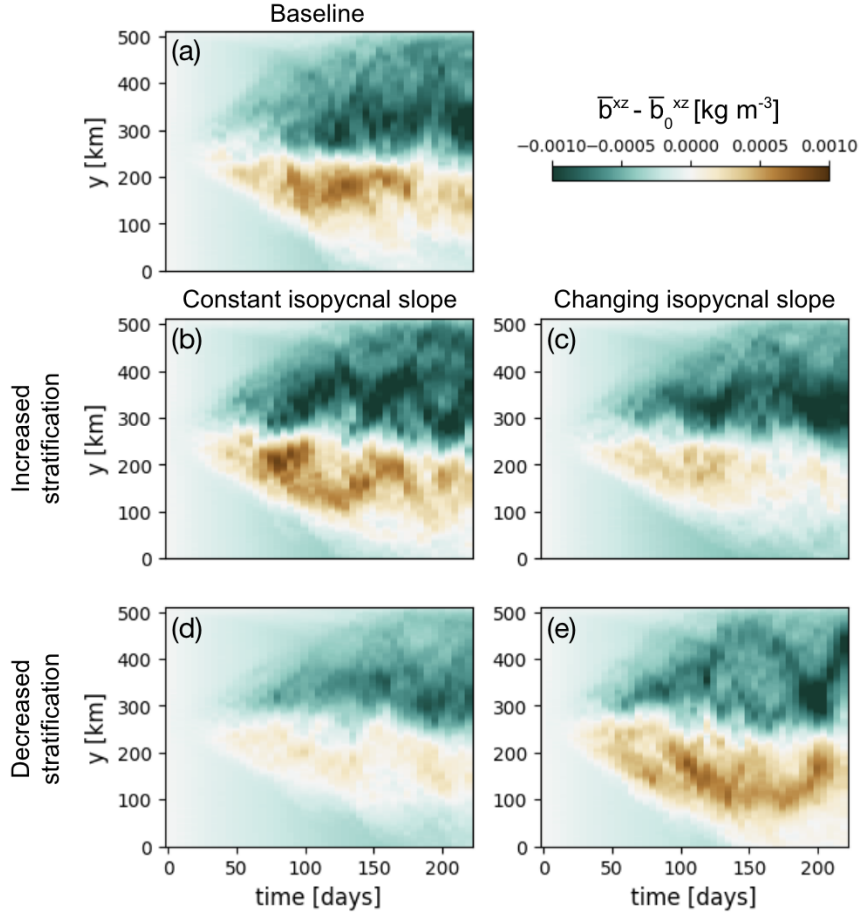
201 3. Results

202 *Frontal subsurface evolution*

203 The source of energy for the evolving mesoscale and submesoscale field is the available potential
204 energy from the density front. The evolution of the front with time is investigated by calculating
205 $\overline{b^{xz}} - b_0^{xz}$, or the difference between the average buoyancy the along-front and vertical directions
206 and the initial buoyancy conditions. Larger magnitudes of $\overline{b^{xz}} - b_0^{xz}$ suggest greater differences in
207 buoyancy from the initial condition. In all cases, the north (light) side of the front becomes less
208 buoyant while the south (dense) side of the front becomes more buoyant, the expected response for
209 a front that is restratifying through overturning. The reduced buoyancy across the whole domain
210 (light blue) at all timesteps is a result of the surface cooling initial condition.

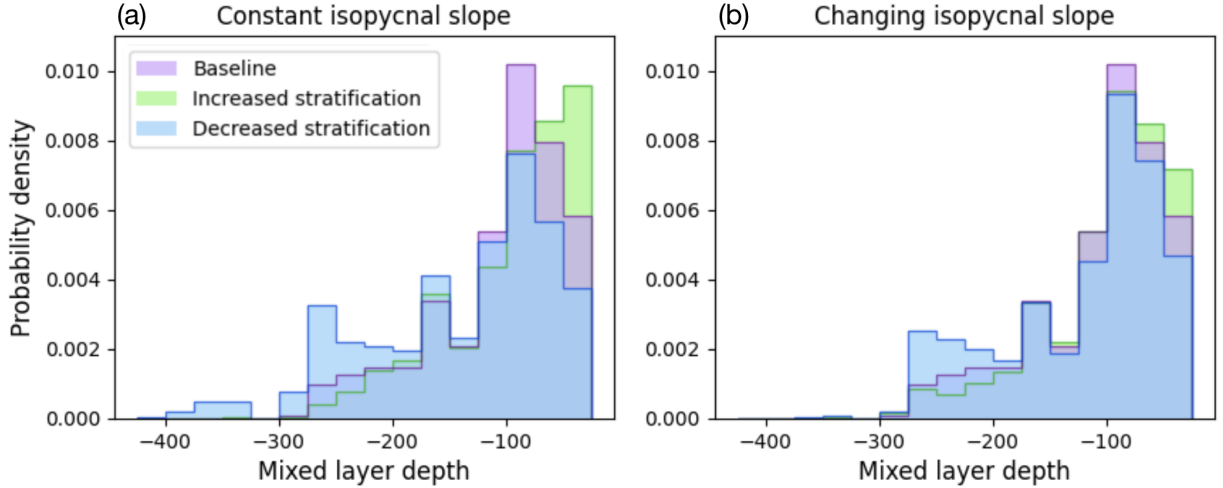
211 In the cases where the isopycnal slope of the front is held constant (Figure 4a,b,d), with increased
212 stratification, a large cross-front lateral buoyancy gradient (M^2 ; Figure 2a) is stirred out, resulting in
213 large magnitudes of $\overline{b^{xz}} - b_0^{xz}$. This results in enhanced potential energy to kinetic energy exchange
214 as compared to the baseline case (Figure 3, green solid line). The decreased stratification condition
215 produces the least variability in cross-front M^2 as a result of a weaker density gradient across the
216 front. As a result, the potential energy to kinetic energy conversion is reduced as compared to the
217 baseline (Figure 3, blue solid line).

218 For the changing isopycnal slope cases, increased stratification with fixed M^2 results in shallower
219 isopycnal slope (5), and the Eady growth rate ($\propto \frac{f}{\sqrt{Ri}}$) is slower (Figure 4c). The Eady growth
220 rate sets the timescales of mesoscale and submesoscale growth. reducing the amount of energy
221 available for mesoscale instability The inverse is true for the decreased stratification case, where
222 there is an increased Eady growth rate, and mesoscale instabilities evolve faster (Figures 3, blue
223 dotted line). Initial conditions with increased stratification additionally result in a less rapid
224 meridional frontal restratification as compared to the baseline initial conditions. This appears as
225 a less rapid meridional “spreading” of the front. The opposite is true for reduced stratification
226 conditions, where the Eady growth rate is increased (Figure 4e). There is also evidence of enhanced
227 meandering of the front under decreased stratification conditions, resulting in increased shedding
228 of mesoscale eddies carrying frontal properties away from the front and restratifying the upper
229 ocean (not shown).



230 FIG. 4. Time evolution of the front in buoyancy, where $\bar{b}^{xz} - b_0^{xz}$ is the difference between the average buoyancy
 231 in the along-front and vertical directions and the initial buoyancy conditions. (a) Baseline conditions, increased
 232 stratification conditions for (b) constant slope and (c) changing slope, and decreased stratification conditions for
 233 (d) constant slope and (e) changing slope.

234 Mixed layer depth (MLD) consistently has an inverse relationship with stratification, deepening
 235 with decreasing stratification (Figure 5). The range of the response of the MLD to stratification
 236 conditions is greater in the cases with a constant isopycnal slope. Under constant isopycnal slope
 237 conditions, the MLDs of the increased stratification case are shallower than those for the changing
 238 isopycnal slope conditions, and the MLDs of the decreased stratification case are deeper than those
 239 for the changing isopycnal slope conditions. The MLD of the decreased stratification cases for both
 240 slope conditions are both influenced by a longer tail of deep (> 200 m) MLDs, which are found on
 241 the north (light) side of the front.

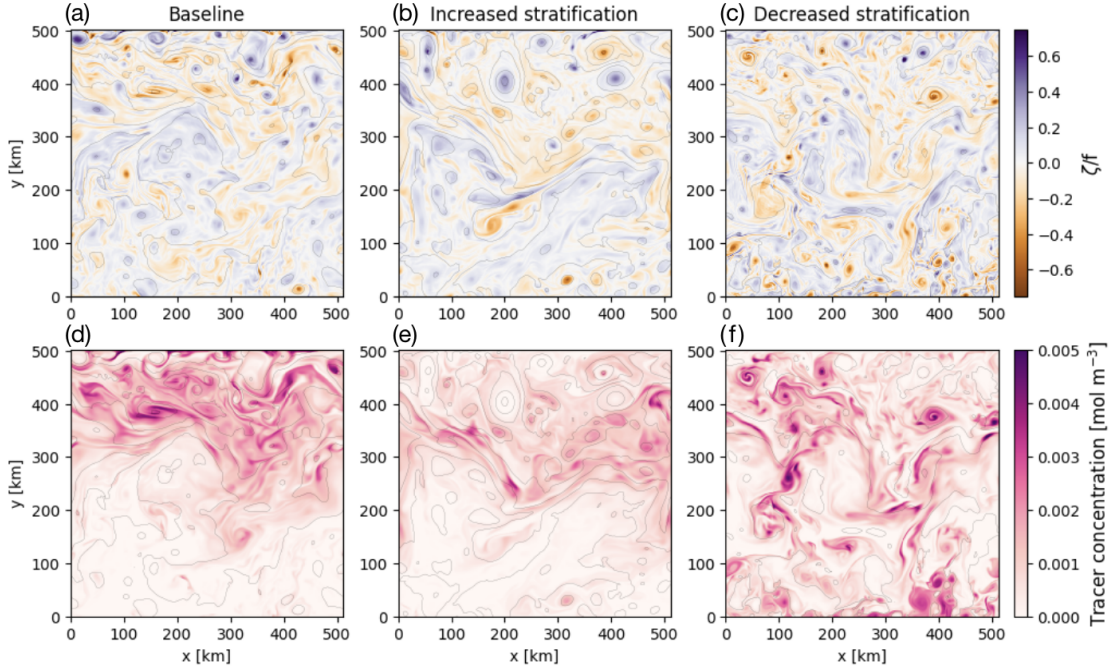


242 FIG. 5. Mixed layer depth (based on density difference criterion of 0.03 kg m^{-3} from 10 m depth value) for
 243 cases with (a) constant isopycnal slope and (b) changing isopycnal slope. MLD is over all gridpoints during
 244 tracer experiment (days 199-219).

245 *Subsurface tracer concentration and tracer flux distributions*

246 In the baseline and increased stratification cases, the tracer concentration at 350 m is preferentially
 247 located on the north (light) side of the front, while in the decreased stratification case, tracer is
 248 located at depth on both sides of the front (Figure 6). For all stratification and slope conditions,
 249 features with large ($Ro > |.5|$) magnitudes are found down to 500 m, consistent with observational
 250 evidence of large submesoscale vertical velocities below the base of the mixed layer (Siegelman
 251 et al. 2020; Yu et al. 2019). In all stratification cases, high tracer concentration is aligned with
 252 anticyclonic features. Specifically, at 350 m 100 days after tracer seeding, 68% of the tracer volume
 253 is found within features with $Ro < 0$ at all depths in the baseline case (Figure 7a, Figure S1a).
 254 Tracer is disproportionately associated with submesoscale features ($|Ro| > 0.5$), which are only
 255 0.5% of the domain area but account for 4% of the tracer volume, highlighting the importance of
 256 these filamentary structures in tracer transport. The relationship between submesoscale dynamics
 257 and tracer concentration appears to be shaped by Ro rather than by strain, and the more anticyclonic
 258 a feature, the greater the tracer concentration. Lines where $Ro = \sigma$ are pure shear regions, and
 259 there are relatively low tracer concentrations associated with these areas. A potential explanation is
 260 mean-flow suppression, where the strong horizontal flow at the large-scale front acts as a barrier to

261 along-isopycnal, cross-front eddy-induced transport at the mesoscale and submesoscale (Stamper
 262 et al. 2018). This mechanism has been observed in Drake Passage (Naveira Garabato et al. 2011;
 263 Dove et al. 2023).



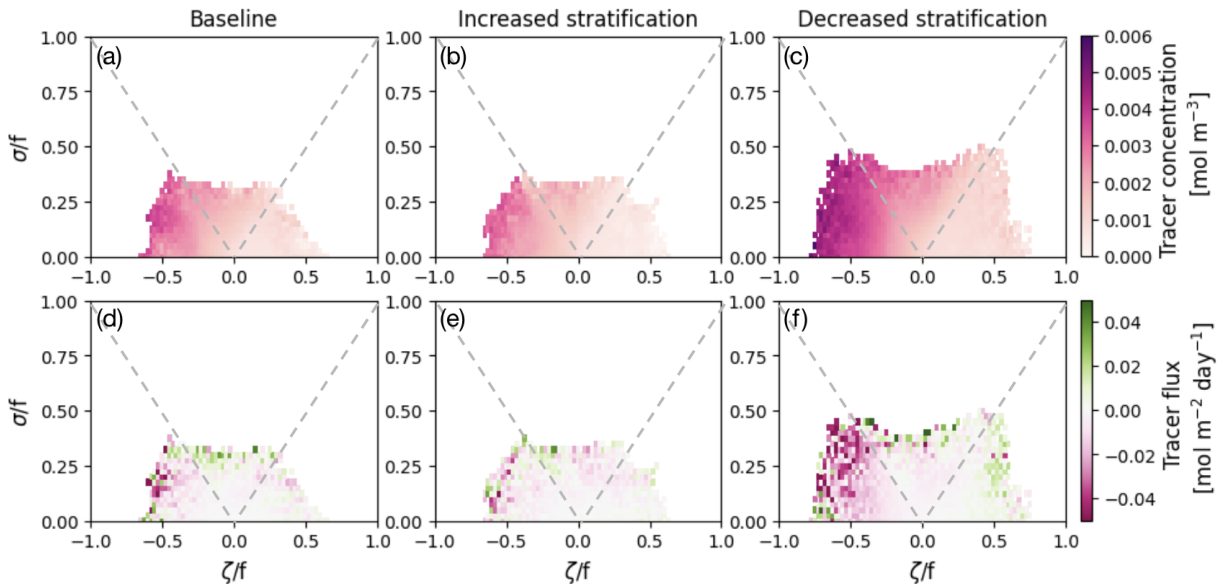
264 FIG. 6. Comparison of scales of motion across stratification conditions at 350 m at the same timestep (day
 265 219, 49 days after tracer seeding) for simulations under the constant slope conditions. (a)-(c) Rossby number
 266 (ζ/f), (d)-(f) tracer concentration [mol m^{-3}]. Gray lines are density contours.

267 The strongest mean negative (downward) tracer flux is found in anticyclonic features (Figure 7).
 268 This negative flux is especially notable in the decreased stratification case. There is less evidence of
 269 a preference towards negative flux associated with anticyclonic flow in the increased stratification
 270 case. It should be noted that the tracer flux distributions have long tails and are centered near zero,
 271 so taking averages reduces the observed strength. Tracer fluxes can in fact reach up to $\pm 0.2 \text{ mol}$
 272 $\text{m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$, 20% of the initially seeded tracer, particularly in the decreased stratification case. The
 273 vertical velocities associated with these large fluxes are of $O(10) \text{ m s}^{-1}$.

274 Under the condition where the isopycnal slope changes alongside changing N^2 , the patterns of
 275 tracer concentration and tracer flux look similar across stratification cases (Figure S1). However,
 276 the range of Ro in the decreased stratification case is reduced as compared to the constant isopycnal

277 slope case, potentially due to a reduced Eady growth rate (Figures 7c, S1c). There are also fewer
 278 points with large, anticyclonic Ro.

279 In all cases considered, there is evidence of positive tracer flux associated with the edges of the
 280 PDFs. There is also evidence of positive tracer flux associated with strong cyclonic features in the
 281 constant slope, decreased stratification case. This signature results from later in the simulation,
 282 once tracer has been relatively stirred out at depth. At this point, there is potential for the tracer to
 283 get upwelled, particularly at high strain regions where frontogenesis can induce vertical motions
 284 along sloping isopycnals.



285 FIG. 7. Joint PDFs of Rossby number (ζ/f) and strain (σ/f) at 350 m with a *constant isopycnal slope* over the
 286 tracer experiment (days 199-219). Colored by (a),(c),(e) average tracer concentration [mol m^{-3}] and (b),(d),(f)
 287 average tracer flux [$\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{day}^{-1}$] per ζ and σ pair. For flux, negative values indicate downwards flux. Grey
 288 dashed lines indicate 1:1 $\zeta/f : \sigma/f$. ζ/f and σ/f pairs with fewer than 10 points are not shown.

289 When the initial isopycnal slope does not vary, the depth profiles of tracer concentration and
 290 tracer flux indicate that stratification impacts the tracer penetration depth (Figure 8). The average
 291 concentration of tracer reaching over 500 m is greatest under the decreased stratification conditions,
 292 with no tracer reaching below 400 m in increased stratification conditions. More tracer remains
 293 within the mixed layer in the increased stratification case as compared to the baseline case. Within
 294 the mixed layer in all cases, there is a large, negative (downwards) tracer flux associated with

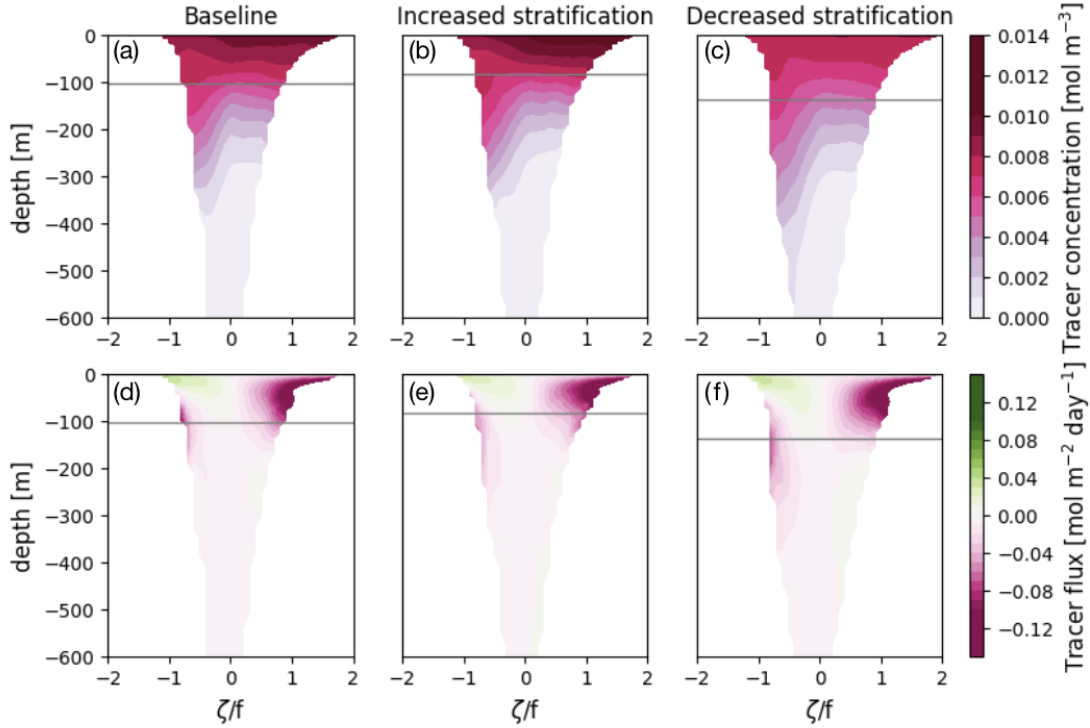
295 cyclonic features. In anticyclonic features within the mixed layer, there is an associated positive
296 (upwelling) tracer flux, although it is weaker than the positive flux associated with cyclones at the
297 same depth.

298 The strongest tracer fluxes that cross the average MLD occur at the largest anticyclonic features,
299 the fluxes of which are enhanced between 100 m and 250 m in all stratification cases (Figure 8d-f).
300 The flux associated with anticyclonic features is largest in the decreased stratification case, reaching
301 averaged values of up to $-0.05 \text{ mol m}^2 \text{ day}^{-1}$ at 400 m.

302 The depth distribution of the tracer concentration in the changing isopycnal slope conditions
303 varies less than that in the constant slope conditions (Figure S2a-c). Across all stratification
304 regimes, the tracer penetration reaches a maximum of 400 m, with no observable difference in
305 penetration depth. As compared to the constant isopycnal slope case, the decreased stratification
306 case has increased tracer concentration within the mixed layer (Figures 8c and S2c), suggesting
307 less efficient transport of tracer out of the surface layer. As in the constant slope cases, there are
308 strong fluxes within the mixed layer associated with cyclonic features. Although these fluxes are
309 primarily constrained to the mixed layer, there is some penetration of these fluxes below the average
310 MLD, particularly in the decreased stratification case. There are also the same strongest fluxes
311 below the base of the mixed layer associated with the most anticyclonic features.

316 *Mechanism for tracer transport under varying stratification conditions*

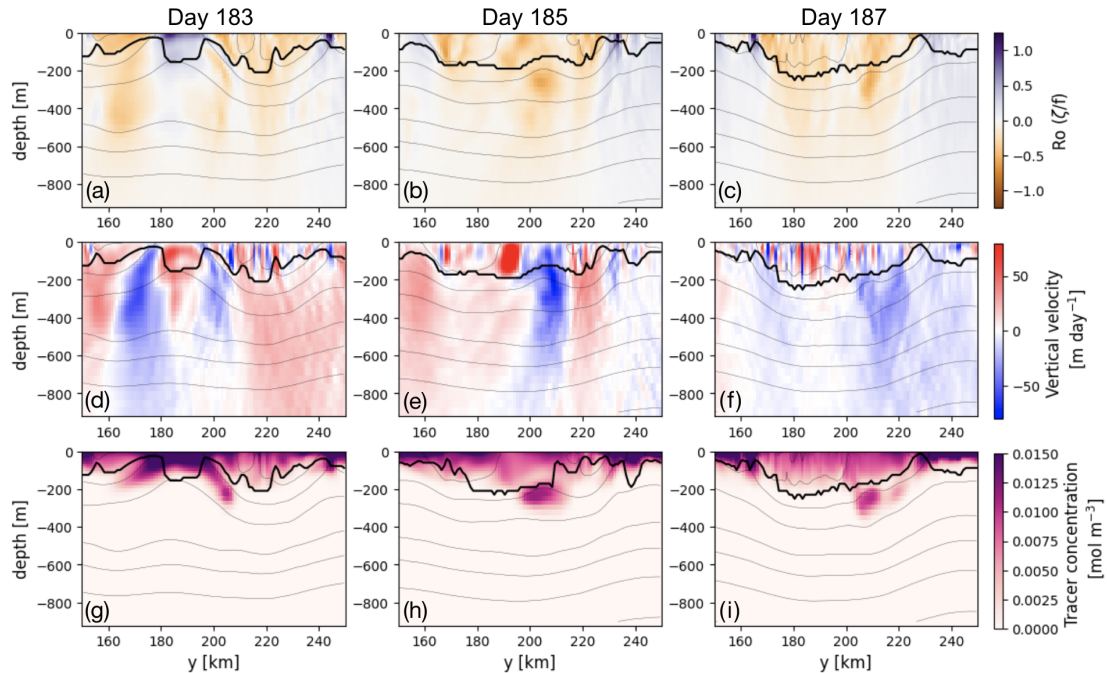
317 The anticyclonic features that are associated with strong tracer flux below the base of the mixed
318 layer are highly physically localized to submesoscale anticyclonic eddies that are energized in the
319 mixed layer (Figures 8 and 9). The resulting fluxes can result in “isolated” tracer concentration
320 below the base of the mixed layer (Figure 9h,i). Upon subduction, these boluses can appear
321 disconnected from the surface to the three-dimensional nature of the features, which transport
322 tracer along tilted density surfaces. The observed subduction occurs in regions with strong lateral
323 density gradients, which can be enhanced down to depths greater than 300 m. These subsurface
324 tracer anomalies hold properties akin to the surface (Figure 10a), and have been observed across the
325 global ocean in regions with strong submesoscale flows (Johnson and Omand 2021; Omand et al.
326 2015; Llort et al. 2018). In the model runs presented here there are larger-scale, weak anticyclonic
327 features ($-0.5 < Ro < 0$) that are associated with mesoscale eddies, which shape the surface



312 FIG. 8. Tracer concentration and tracer flux as a function of depth and Rossby number with a *constant isopycnal*
 313 *slope* over the tracer experiment (days 199-219). Colored by (a)-(c) average tracer concentration [mol m⁻³] per
 314 Rossby number (ζ/f), weighted by area covered by that Rossby number at that depth. (d)-(f) average tracer flux
 315 [mol m⁻² day⁻¹] per ζ/f . Gray lines represent the average MLD for each stratification case.

328 distribution of tracer (Figures 9, 10a,b). However, these features, unlike those associated with
 329 the strong anticyclonic features, do not necessarily align with subsurface intrusions. Upwelling
 330 velocities, which transport low tracer concentration water to the surface, are more diffuse than
 331 highly localized downward velocities (Figure 10).

336 The response of tracer concentration and tracer flux to changing stratification differs between the
 337 changing and constant isopycnal slope cases (Figure 11). At given depths, the tracer concentration
 338 in constant slope conditions (solid lines) depends on stratification, with decreased stratification
 339 resulting in greater tracer concentrations and enhanced negative tracer fluxes. This relationship
 340 practically disappears at 500 m depth, pointing towards a mechanism which has its roots in the
 341 upper ocean. As pycnocline stratification peaks at 400 m (Figure 1), this means that the majority
 342 of tracer transport occurs in the upper pycnocline and out of the mixed layer, but does not cross

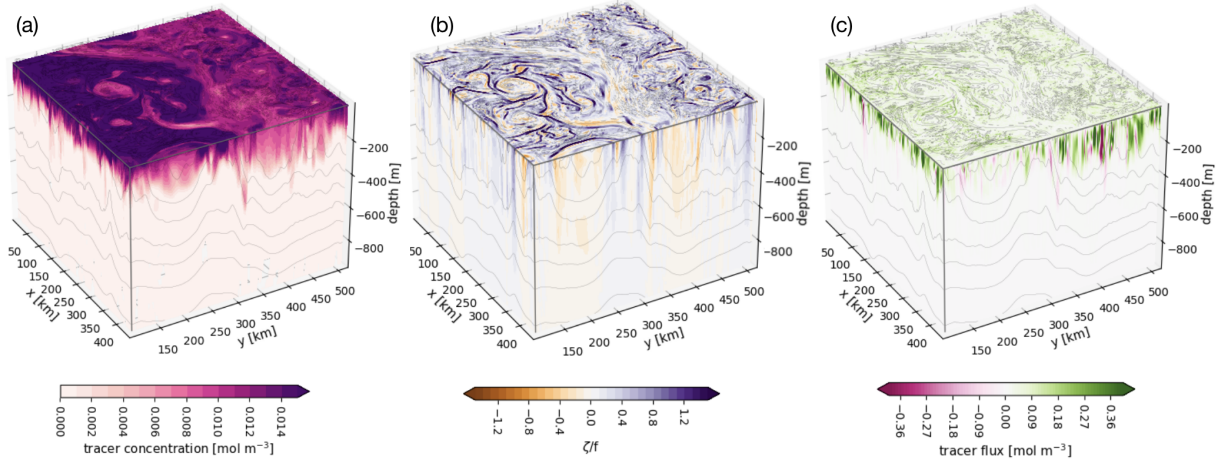


332 FIG. 9. Tracer subduction and trapping at day 183 (13 days after tracer seeding; column 1), day 185 (15 days
 333 after tracer seeding, column 2), and day 187 (17 days after tracer seeding, column 3). (a)-(c) Rossby number
 334 (ζ/f), (d)-(f) vertical velocity [m day^{-1}], and (g)-(i) tracer concentration [mol m^{-3}]. Gray lines are density
 335 contours. The black line is the MLD.

343 the pycnocline. This has important implications for the sequestration timescale of these tracers. In
 344 increased stratification conditions, tracer flux is not sensitive to further increases in stratification,
 345 with the average tracer concentration and tracer fluxes as a function of the initial maximum N^2
 346 plateauing.

349 Under changing isopycnal slope conditions (Figure 11, dotted lines), there is little to no rela-
 350 tionship between changing stratification and tracer concentrations and fluxes. At all depths, tracer
 351 concentrations and fluxes remain relatively constant across stratification cases.

352 The difference between the cases with changing and constant isopycnal slope is explained by
 353 investigating the patterns of the strongly anticyclonic features. Examining only features with a Ro
 354 < -0.5 at 350 m depth, (Figure 12), we find that these strongly anticyclonic features are associated
 355 with larger tracer fluxes than the domain average, demonstrating that downward tracer flux is
 356 largely performed within these features. This relationship is particularly pronounced in decreased

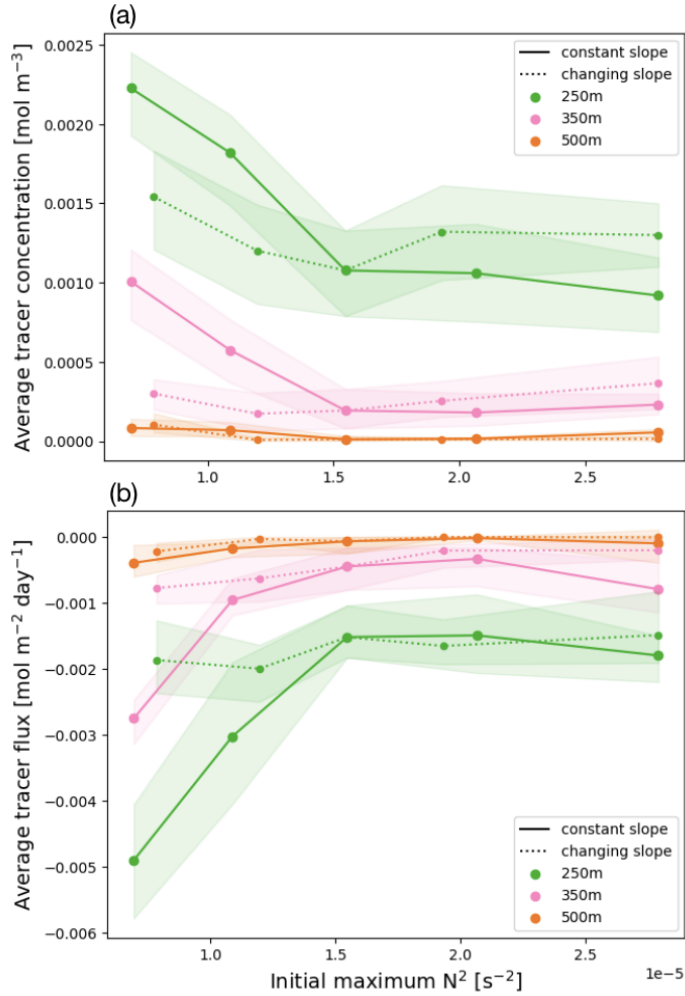


347 FIG. 10. Subdomain of modeled (a) tracer concentration [mol m^{-3}], (b) Rossby number (ζ/f), and (c) tracer
 348 flux [$\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{day}^{-1}$] on day 191 (21 days after tracer seeding) of the “baseline” conditions.

357 stratification conditions, where the weaker the stratification, the greater the magnitude of the
 358 associated tracer flux. There is a reduction in downward flux from the baseline to the increased
 359 stratification cases. However, as before, the flux reaches a “plateau”, although the magnitude of
 360 the plateau is still larger than the average across the full domain.

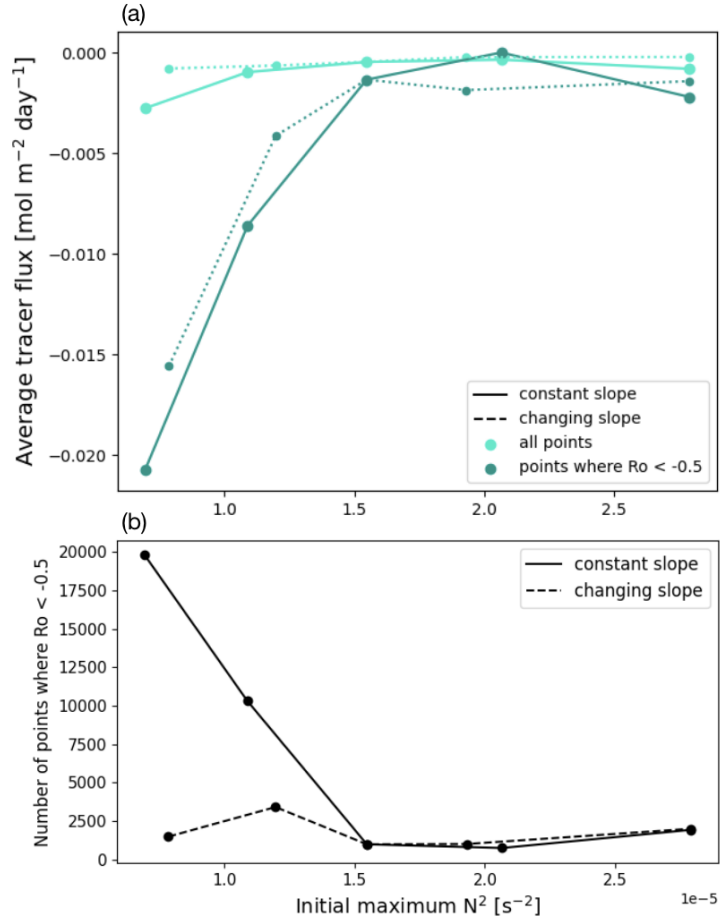
365 In both conditions where the isopycnal slope is constant and changes, the strongly anticyclonic
 366 features are associated with strong downward fluxes (Figure 12a). However, only in conditions
 367 with a constant isopycnal slope do the number of points across the domain associated with strongly
 368 anticyclonic features increase under decreased stratification conditions (Figure 12b). This is
 369 interesting as the available potential energy is actually lower, making the appearance of stronger
 370 anticyclones is in that sense counterintuitive. When the isopycnal slope changes, the number of
 371 these features does not increase under decreased stratification conditions, so the net tracer flux is
 372 significantly reduced as compared to the constant slope case.

373 The strong anticyclonic features at depth in the reduced stratification (constant initial isopycnal
 374 slope) cases are associated with $Ri_g \sim \mathcal{O}(1)$, values that indicate a submesoscale regime. Across
 375 the full set of model runs, there are few features where Ri_g is $\mathcal{O}(1)$ (Figure S3a,b). There is also
 376 evidence that increased stratification conditions in the changing slope conditions result in a shift
 377 towards larger Ri_g values, domains that are more shaped by buoyancy stratification rather than
 378 shear. It should be noted that the Ri_g distributions in Fig. S3a, b are at 350 m, well out of the



361 FIG. 11. Averages of tracer concentration and flux at 250 m, 350 m, and 500 m under both constant and
 362 isopycnal slope conditions. (a) Spatiotemporal average tracer concentration [$mol\ m^{-3}$] and (b) Spatiotemporal
 363 average tracer flux [$mol\ m^{-2}\ day^{-1}$]. Shaded regions represent the maximum and minimum spatially averaged
 364 values from each timestep during the tracer experiment.

379 average mixed layer; Ri_g distributions at the surface ocean have significantly longer tails into the
 380 $O(1)$ regime.



381 FIG. 12. Flux at 350 m contributed by the full domain and just strongly anticyclonic features. (a) Spatiotemporal
 382 average tracer flux per stratification condition performed by the full domain (light blue) and for just features
 383 with $Ro < -0.5$ (teal). (b) Number of points with $Ro < -0.5$ for both the constant and changing isopycnal slope
 384 conditions.

385 4. Discussion

386 *Sensitivity of tracer subduction to changing stratification*

387 The response of vertical tracer subduction to changing stratification is highly dependent on the
 388 response of the lateral buoyancy gradient (M^2) to vertical stratification change (N^2). Here, we test
 389 two scenarios: (a) where the initial isopycnal slope is held constant by changing M^2 with $M^2 \propto N^2$
 390 and (b) where M^2 is held constant while N^2 and the initial isopycnal slope therefore varies.
 391 Although subsurface anticyclonic vortical features (*i.e.* SCVs) are found to be the signature of

392 subduction across these scenarios, tracer fluxes only respond to changing stratification in conditions
393 where the isopycnal slope is held constant. This result highlights the importance of the lateral
394 buoyancy gradient in setting the response of a front to increasing vertical stratification.

395 We demonstrate that increasing stratification does not necessarily lead to reduced submesoscale
396 tracer transport. Specifically, when the isopycnal slope of an idealized front is initially constant,
397 the magnitude of the tracer flux under increased stratification conditions does not change. Tracer
398 transport reaches a “plateau” under constant slope conditions, suggesting that there may be a
399 point at which increasing stratification of the pycnocline does not have an inverse relationship with
400 downward tracer flux. These results contrast with previous work that has investigated how projected
401 warming scenarios impact submesoscale motions and associated tracer transport by increasing
402 numerical model horizontal viscosity. In these models, submesoscale motions are suppressed
403 (Richards et al. 2021; Wang et al. 2022) and advective carbon export (*i.e.* subduction) out of
404 the surface ocean is largely reduced (Brett et al. 2023). Our idealized model explicitly resolves
405 pycnocline stratification and resolves more submesoscale features due to its 1 km horizontal grid
406 scale (Balwada et al. 2018). Modifying vertical viscosity may not be an appropriate proxy for
407 representing pycnocline stratification change and can result in excessive damping of circulation
408 and mixing processes (Megann and Storkey 2021).

409 Regarding biogeochemistry, Lévy et al. (2024) recently highlighted the role of submesoscale
410 motions in buffering the negative impacts of climate change on oceanic biogeochemical cycles.
411 They point towards increased stratification decreasing the transport of nutrients to the euphotic
412 layer and the penetration of surface tracers to depth, therefore slowing the physical mechanisms that
413 enable biological productivity. However, our results may demonstrate that if the isopycnal slope will
414 change with increasing stratification, the downward tracer fluxes may already be “at capacity”, and
415 only decreasing stratification would modify tracer transport as a result of increased submesoscale
416 motions, at least under the baseline conditions we tested. The response of all regions to changing
417 stratification is highly dependent on how the lateral buoyancy gradient of ocean density fronts
418 respond to the increasing stratification, which additionally impacts the velocity at the front (Shi
419 et al. 2021). Not investigated in this work, but potentially of additional biogeochemical importance,
420 is the role of stratification in modifying upwelling, which has implications for the entrainment of
421 subsurface-enhanced nutrients into the mixed layer (Uchida et al. 2019; Simoes-Sousa et al. 2022).

422 *Anticyclonic submesoscale coherent vortices are a key subduction pathway*

423 Vertical tracer transport below 350 m preferentially occurs on the north (light) side of the front
424 as there are more anticyclonic features on this side of the front at depth. This is counter to what
425 would typically be expected with a density front, where the dense side of the front “subducts”
426 under the light side of the front and carry surface tracers to depth along isopycnals (Omand et al.
427 2015; Freilich and Mahadevan 2021). However, due to the deeper mixed layers on the light side
428 of the front, we find the subduction below the base of the mixed layer preferentially occurs here.
429 This aligns with formation of Sub-Antarctic Mode Water (SAMW), which forms to the north of
430 the Polar Front in certain regions of the Southern Ocean (Cerovečki et al. 2013; Naveira Garabato
431 et al. 2009) and points to the potential contribution of submesoscale motions to SAMW ventilation.

432 There are many physical processes at the submesoscale that can contribute to downward tracer
433 fluxes out of the ocean mixed layer that are not well-resolved in these simulations (*e.g.* Ekman
434 buoyancy flux and symmetric instability). Full reviews are available in Thomas et al. (2013) and
435 Taylor and Thompson (2023), parameterization in Bachman et al. (2017), and enhanced turbulent
436 entrainment guided by submesoscale structures described in Smith et al. (2016). In our simulations,
437 within the mixed layer, tracer is preferentially trapped in cyclonic eddies, primarily at the scale
438 of the mesoscale. However, at depth (*e.g.* 350m, Figures 6 and 7), tracer is preferentially found
439 within anticyclonic features at large Rossby number, so based on the dynamical definition these
440 are submesoscale features. At the surface, cyclones are predominantly associated with $w < 0$ and
441 anticyclones with $w > 0$. However, this trend reverses starting around 50 m, where anticyclones
442 can be associated with $w < 0$, and the downward flux by anticyclonic features reflects this shift
443 (Figures 8 and S2). Cyclonic features preferentially gather tracer at the surface and at intense
444 submesoscale fronts this tracer is subducted along steeply tilted isopycnals (Figure 9). During
445 this process, tracer moves from the dense side of the submesoscale front to the light side (Pham
446 et al. 2024), where it gets trapped. Because the isopycnal layer in which the subducted parcel
447 is trapped is thinner than the depth of the mixed layer from which it was subducted, the parcel
448 “spins down” and becomes anticyclonic (Spall 1995). The resulting anticyclonic submesoscale
449 coherent vortices (SCVs; McWilliams (1985); Dewar and Meng (1995)) are characterised by Ro
450 $O(1)$ and are retained in the interior until being stirred out by the mesoscale strain field that acts to
451 homogenize the tracer field at depth after subduction. The frontal generation mechanism contrasts

452 with previous work which has emphasized the role of flow-topography interactions (Vic et al. 2018;
453 Gula et al. 2019; Bosse et al. 2015), deep convection (Bosse et al. 2016; Lilly and Rhines 2002), and
454 eddy-wind interactions (Thomas 2008; McGillicuddy 2015) in the generation of SCVs, although
455 the latter two may play some role in this case. The observed vorticity decrease upon subduction
456 is slightly underestimated by quasi-geostrophic vorticity scaling, suggesting an important role for
457 ageostrophic dynamics in the generation of and tracer transport by SCVs.

458 The frequency of SCVs explains the relative sensitivity of the constant isopycnal case to strat-
459 ification. SCVs are preferentially formed in the modeled decreased stratification conditions as
460 compared to the baseline conditions (Figure 6). Deeper mixed layers associated with the decreased
461 stratification conditions provide deeper subduction of the surface tracer. Although there is not
462 necessarily more submesoscale structure in decreased stratification conditions (Figures 3 and 8),
463 surface-enhanced submesoscale vertical velocities can penetrate more deeply with low stratifica-
464 tion. This contrasts with the varying isopycnal slope case where reduced stratification does not
465 facilitate the formation of SCVs.

466 The result that coherent anticyclones transport tracers from the mixed layer to the interior appears
467 to be consistent with previous observations of tracer transport out of deep mixed layers in subpolar
468 regions (Omand et al. 2015). At the same time, our results are not inconsistent with recent results
469 that cyclonic features at fronts are vital for subduction across the mixed layer base, and play
470 a leading order role in transporting phytoplankton out of the photic zone (Freilich et al. 2024;
471 Freilich and Mahadevan 2021). Features with $Ro > |0.5|$ below of the mixed layer are rarely
472 described in the observational literature, partly due to the challenge of measuring Ro *in situ* and
473 partly due to the highly localized nature of these features (Buckingham et al. 2016). However,
474 recent observations of density gradients and subsurface velocity provide evidence of submesoscale
475 gradients at depth (Siegelman et al. 2020; Yu et al. 2019). Our results complement these findings,
476 highlighting the biogeochemical component of this exchange. However, previous research has
477 identified low stratification features in the ocean interior and attributed these to subduction from
478 the mixed layer by mixed layer eddies (Omand et al. 2015; Llort et al. 2018; Johnson and Omand
479 2021). These are consistent with being generated by the mechanisms discussed in this manuscript
480 and our results demonstrate their sensitivity to pycnocline stratification and the mean flow in the
481 Southern Ocean, factors which are not included in previous scaling estimates of the biogeochemical

482 flux by these features. SCVs do not penetrate the strongest pycnocline (peak at 500 m) in this
483 experiment. The surface cooling of our model is meant to resemble springtime; wintertime surface
484 forcing may provide more insight into the potential for sub-pycnocline tracer transport.

485 Increased attention should be paid to subsurface anticyclonic features in future field studies
486 focused on constraining and quantifying carbon export, with explicit focus on the sign of the
487 vorticity of the submesoscale eddy. SCVs are particularly of interest for tracer budgets due
488 to the capacity of these features to transport tracers away from the location of subduction and
489 biogeochemical property anomalies can be a characteristic of SCVs (McWilliams 1985). SCVs
490 and Deep Coherent Vortices (DCVs) of known origin, such as anticyclonic Meddies formed from
491 the Mediterranean Undercurrent as it enters the Atlantic, tend to have a preference for cyclonic or
492 anticyclonic rotation. These features may play a leading-order role in tracer sequestration below
493 the base of the mixed layer, particularly in highly energetic regions of the open ocean such as the
494 Gulf Stream (Gula et al. 2019) and Southern Ocean (Lazaneo et al. 2022). SCVs and DCVs do
495 not necessarily have a surface expression (Assassi et al. 2016), highlighting the continued need for
496 subsurface observations to estimate tracer fluxes by these processes that work both vertically and
497 laterally. It is additionally difficult to detect them using single profiles, such as from Argo floats,
498 because the relevant background stratification may be hard to estimate (McCaffrey et al. 2015).

499 The current parameterization primarily employed in climate models to restratify the ocean mixed
500 layer represents the physics of mixed layer instability (MLI; Fox-Kemper et al. (2008)). MLI
501 will occur in any region where lateral buoyancy gradients provide a source of potential energy;
502 however, the effectiveness of MLI in transporting tracers below the base of the mixed layer is
503 highly dependent on the background conditions. In particular, submesoscale motions are typically
504 strongest in wintertime (Callies et al. 2015; Su et al. 2018) when mixed layers are deep. The
505 stratification of the pycnocline can be expected to also play a role in the effectiveness of MLI for
506 tracer subduction, with stronger stratification resulting in a barrier to penetration; however, these
507 motions can still be important for transporting tracer to the base of the mixed layer, at which point
508 they can be stirred out by the mesoscale flow (Freilich et al. 2024). In the context of biology,
509 the base of the mixed layer may be out of the photic zone, halting further biological production.
510 The Fox-Kemper et al. (2008) parameterization uses a streamfunction parameterization for vertical
511 velocities in the mixed layer, which assumes vertical velocities approach zero at the base of the

512 mixed layer. Therefore, MLI as currently parameterized in global climate models cannot result
513 in tracer fluxes across the base of the mixed layer. This limitation may not present a problem
514 when there is strong stratification at the bottom limit of the streamfunction (*e.g.* the mixed layer
515 base), as demonstrated in our results. However, in conditions where background stratification is
516 low, capping the overturning streamfunction to only the mixed layer may result in an inaccurate
517 representation of the true tracer fluxes.

518 *Implications for future tracer subduction and applications to the Antarctic Circumpolar Current*

519 The impact of increasing pycnocline stratification on tracer subduction at fronts is highly depen-
520 dent on the response of the frontal lateral buoyancy gradient. When the lateral buoyancy gradient
521 “adjusts” to maintain a constant isopycnal slope, the impacts of increased stratification on tracer
522 subduction are minimal in the regime studied here, but the impacts of decreased stratification are
523 significant for tracer transport. The relationship between pycnocline stratification and tracer flux is
524 relatively linear when considering conditions with less stratification than the baseline case. With
525 decreased stratification, there is evidence of enhanced anticyclonic submesoscale motions below
526 the MLD, which readily transport tracers from the surface into the interior domain. However, there
527 appears to be a limit on the relationship between tracer flux and increasing stratification with a con-
528 stant isopycnal slope; increasing stratification beyond $1.5 \text{ e}^{-5} \text{ s}^{-2}$ in the context of our experiment
529 has minimal impacts on the tracer transport, observed by the “plateau” of tracer concentrations
530 and fluxes. Regardless of pycnocline stratification, when the isopycnal slope varies as a result of
531 holding the surface lateral buoyancy gradient constant, tracer fluxes are constant.

532 Given these modeled conditions were chosen to mimic the Antarctic Polar Front, this result
533 has implications for future tracer uptake at the Polar Front, which is a major location for surface
534 tracer subduction to depth by submesoscale motions (Dove et al. 2021; Balwada et al. 2024; Llorc
535 et al. 2018). Current observations across the Southern Ocean (Sallée et al. 2021) suggest an
536 increasing pycnocline stratification at a rate of $8.1 \pm 4.1\% \text{ dec}^{-1}$. With this rate of increase, it
537 would take 30 ± 20 years to reach the modeled increased stratification ($1.9 \text{ e}^{-5} \text{ s}^{-2}$ under changing
538 slope conditions). Our idealized model suggests that increased stratification may not change tracer
539 transport at the submesoscale, no matter how the slope of the ACC responds. Care should be
540 taken when extrapolating these results, however, as salinity is traditionally considered the primary

541 control on density south of the Polar Front and our model only uses temperature as an active tracer.
542 In addition, rate of stratification increase may change as a result of changing buoyancy forces (*e.g.*
543 changing location and magnitude of sea ice melt; Hobbs et al. (2016)). Our model is semi-idealized
544 and may not accurately capture the complexities of the ACC, where some regions have a reduced
545 “baseline” stratification. Moreover, our model only includes the upper ocean front and does not
546 represent the overturning circulation in the Southern Ocean.

547 Changes to the isopycnal slope across the ACC have been minimal in a basin-wide context (Böning
548 et al. 2008), suggesting that our scenario that holds the isopycnal slope constant is the relevant case
549 for observational comparisons. However, the response to increasing stratification may be more
550 local. Specifically, standing meanders of the ACC, resulting from flow-topography interactions,
551 are associated with enhanced eddy kinetic energy (Sokolov and Rintoul 2007; Klocker 2018; Yung
552 et al. 2022). These regions have been demonstrated to be areas where not only are mesoscale
553 eddies preferentially generated due to strongly sloped isopycnals (Thompson and Naveira Garabato
554 2014; Chapman et al. 2015), but also are areas where there is enhanced tracer variance on isopycnal
555 surfaces at the submesoscale (Dove et al. 2021; Balwada et al. 2024). High eddy kinetic energy
556 areas are also known to be regions where both tracer entrainment (Tamsitt et al. 2017; Brady
557 et al. 2021) and isolation from the surface mixed layer (Dove et al. 2022) occurs. Our idealized
558 model results suggest that these highly dynamical regions may be strongly impacted by increasing
559 stratification across the Southern Ocean, especially because the average pycnocline stratification is
560 reduced in these regions (Sallée et al. 2021).

561 **5. Conclusion**

562 Using a suite of idealized numerical simulations, we illustrate that decreased stratification across
563 the global ocean may increase the capacity for submesoscale motions to transport tracers from the
564 surface mixed layer into the interior ocean. This transport occurs disproportionately within strongly
565 anticyclonic submesoscale eddies, which regularly transports tracer from the mixed layer to >400 m.
566 The impact of the change in stratification is strongly dependent on whether oceanic fronts have
567 a corresponding response of their horizontal density gradient, with fronts that have a changing
568 isopycnal slope not demonstrating variability in fluxes by these submesoscale motions. Under
569 increased stratification conditions, as are underway with a warming ocean, the tracer transport

570 reaches a “plateau”, suggesting that there may be a point at which increasing stratification of the
571 pycnocline does not have an inverse relationship with downward tracer flux. The initial conditions
572 tested here mimic those of a relatively quiescent region of the ACC; the results suggest that
573 regardless of how the isopycnal slope of the ACC responds to increasing stratification, submesoscale
574 tracer transport may be saturated and not change in the coming century.

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586 (<https://doi.org/10.17882/42182>).

587 The model simulation files are available and documented at [doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.13937157)
588 [13937157](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.13937157).

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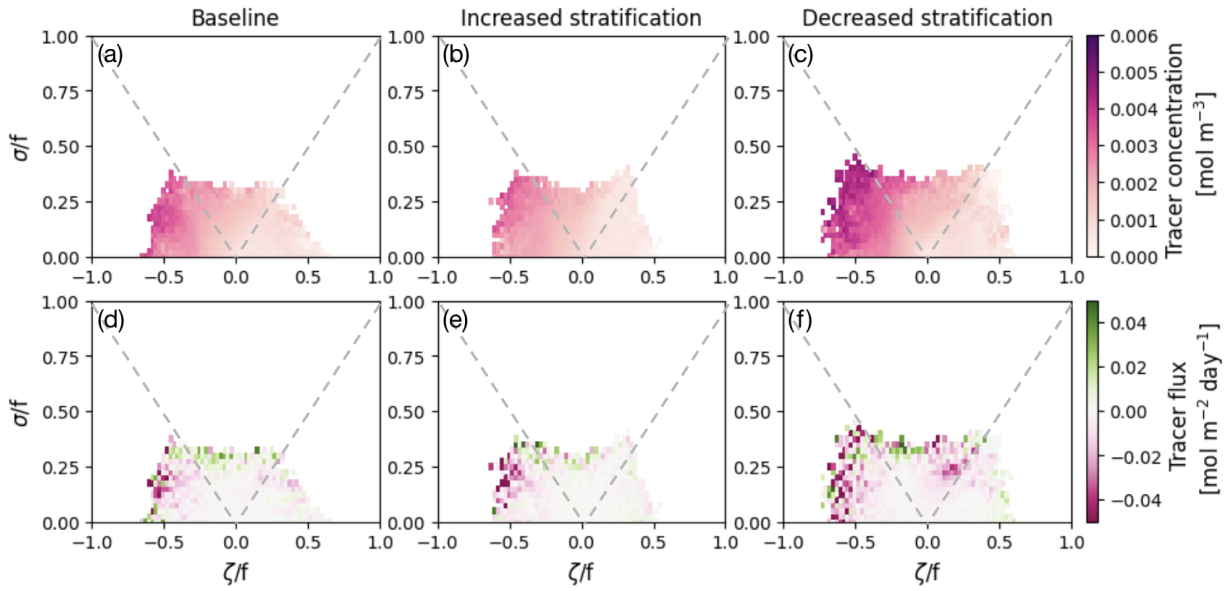
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1 **Supplemental Information: Pycnocline Stratification Shapes Submesoscale**
2 **Vertical Tracer Transport**

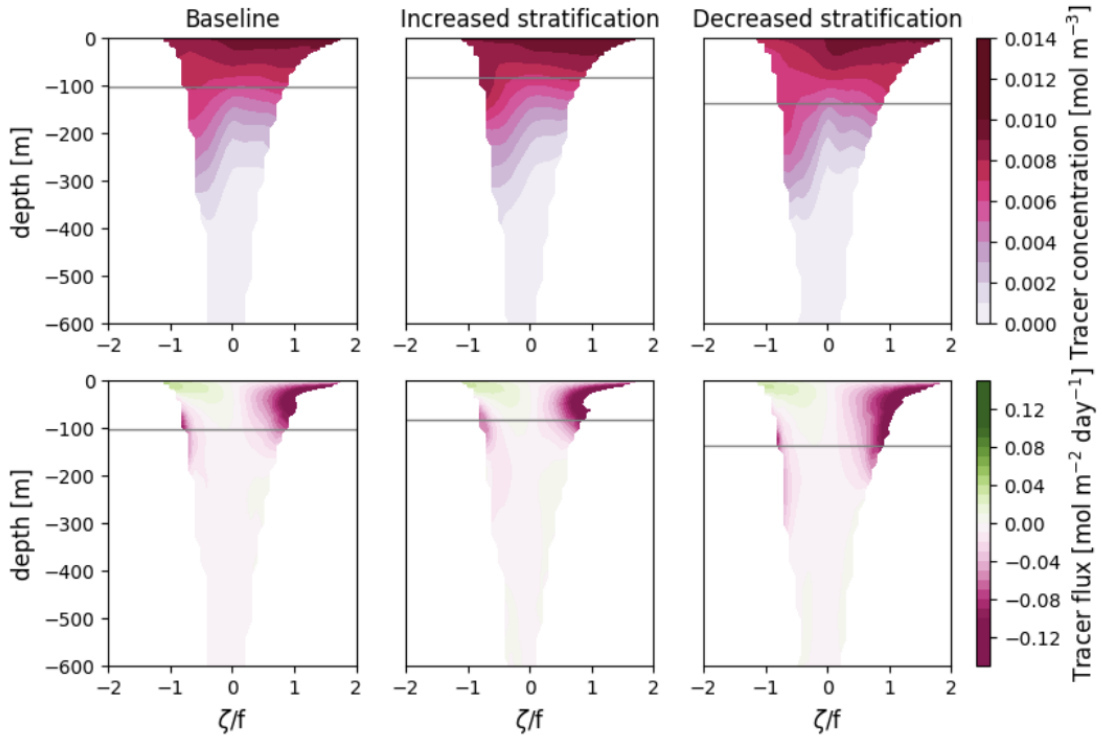
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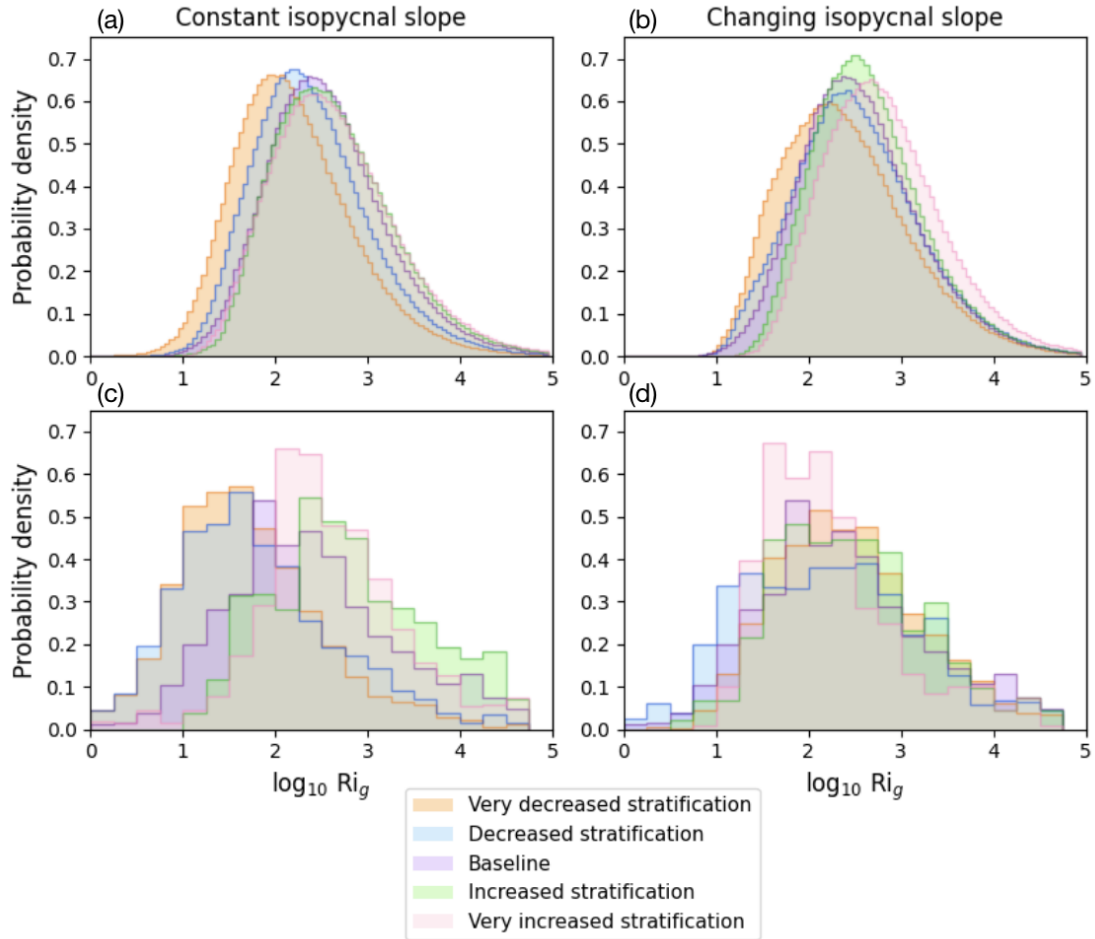
7 *Corresponding author: Lily Dove, dove@brown.edu*



8 FIG. 1. Joint histograms of Rossby number (ζ/f) and strain (σ/f) at 350 m with a *changing isopycnal slope*.
 9 Colored by (a),(c),(e) average tracer concentration [mol m^{-3}] and (b),(d),(f) average tracer flux [$\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{day}^{-1}$]
 10 per ζ and σ pair. For flux, negative values indicate downwards flux. ζ and σ pairs with fewer than 10 points
 11 were disincluded for averaging purposes.



12 FIG. 2. Tracer concentration and tracer flux over depth with a *changing isopycnal slope*. Colored by (a)-(c)
 13 average tracer concentration [mol m⁻³] per Rossby number (ζ/f), weighted by area covered by that Rossby
 14 number at that depth. (d)-(f) average tracer flux [mol m⁻² day⁻¹] per ζ/f . Gray lines represent the average mixed
 15 layer depth for each stratification case.



16 FIG. 3. Probability density functions of Ri_g at 350 m. Full distribution for (a) constant isopycnal slope and (b)
 17 changing isopycnal slope conditions. Just points with $Ro < -0.5$ for (c) constant isopycnal slope and (d) changing
 18 isopycnal slope conditions.