

Complexity of Mesoscale Eddy Diffusivity in the Ocean

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Key Points:

- Transports of oceanic tracers by mesoscale currents in climate models need to be represented using eddy diffusivity and tracer gradients
- Numerical simulations demonstrate that this diffusivity tensor is space-, time-, direction- and tracer-dependent
- These properties can lead to upgradient eddy fluxes and the importance of all tensor components

15 Abstract

16 Stirring of water by mesoscale currents (“eddies”) leads to large-scale transport of many
17 important oceanic properties (“tracers”). These eddy-induced transports can be related to the
18 large-scale tracer gradients, using the concept of turbulent diffusion. The concept is widely used
19 to describe these transports in the real ocean and to represent them in climate models. This study
20 focuses on the inherent complexity of the corresponding eddy diffusivity tensor, defined here in
21 all its spatio-temporal complexity. Results demonstrate that this comprehensive diffusivity tensor
22 is space-, time-, direction- and tracer-dependent. Using numerical simulations with both
23 idealized and comprehensive models of the Atlantic circulation, we show that these properties
24 lead to upgradient eddy fluxes and the potential importance of all tensor components.
25 Implications of all this complexity for the development of eddy parameterization schemes in
26 climate models and diffusivity estimates are discussed.

27 Plain Language Summary

28 Mesoscale eddies, loosely defined as ocean currents on the spatial scales of tens to hundreds of
29 kilometers, are ubiquitous in the World Ocean. Relentless stirring of water by these eddies leads
30 to large-scale transport and redistribution of many dynamically and climatically important
31 oceanic properties. The efficiency of this process has been conventionally quantified by turbulent
32 (“eddy”) diffusion. Our study focuses on the inherent complexity of the corresponding eddy
33 diffusivity tensor, defined here in all its spatio-temporal complexity, without any space and/or
34 time averaging. Results from this study demonstrate that this diffusivity tensor is space-
35 dependent (inhomogeneous), time-dependent (non-stationary) and direction-dependent
36 (anisotropic). Using numerical simulations with both idealized (quasigeostrophic) and
37 comprehensive (primitive-equation) models of the North Atlantic circulation, we show that these
38 properties lead to upgradient eddy fluxes, that is, to negative eigenvalues of the diffusivity
39 tensor. We also show that all components of the comprehensive tensor are potentially important
40 for tracer distributions, and, therefore, cannot be generally neglected. Our results further
41 demonstrate that the comprehensive diffusivity tensor is tracer-dependent and, therefore, non-
42 unique. Implications of all this complexity for the development of eddy parameterization
43 schemes and diffusivity estimates are discussed.

44 **1 Introduction**

45 Mesoscale eddies, loosely defined as ocean currents on the spatial scales of tens to hundreds of
 46 kilometers, are ubiquitous in the World Ocean (Chelton *et al.*, 2007). Relentless stirring of water
 47 by these eddies leads to large-scale transport and redistribution of many dynamically and
 48 climatically important oceanic properties (“tracers”), including heat, salinity and anthropogenic
 49 carbon. As a result, mesoscale eddies play a key role in determining the current and future states
 50 of the World Ocean and Earth Climate, as manifested by strong sensitivity of ocean and climate
 51 simulations to the magnitude and distribution of eddy transports (Gnanadesikan *et al.*, 2013;
 52 McWilliams, 2008; Wiebe & Weaver, 1999). At the same time, vast majority of ocean
 53 component in modern climate models either completely miss the eddies or only partially resolve
 54 them (Delworth *et al.*, 2012; Williams *et al.*, 2015). The eddy-induced transports in these models
 55 need to be expressed (“parameterized”) in terms of known large-scale properties. This task
 56 requires a thorough study of eddy transport properties and their significance for tracer
 57 distributions. This study reports several new properties of the eddy transport, using the
 58 framework of turbulent eddy diffusivity, which is defined next.

59 By analogy between this turbulent transport and molecular diffusion, the corresponding flux
 60 $\mathbf{F}(x,y,z,t)$ of a tracer c can be written as a linear function of the large-scale tracer
 61 gradient(Prandtl, 1925; Taylor, 1921; Vallis, 2017):

$$62 \quad \mathbf{F} = -\mathbf{K}\nabla\langle c \rangle \quad (1)$$

63 where \mathbf{K} is the eddy diffusivity tensor and the angle brackets denote the large-scale component
 64 of a field. This eddy diffusivity, with some common simplifications, has been traditionally used
 65 in numerical models to represent (“parameterize”) turbulent fluxes due to the important
 66 unresolved part of the flow. The divergence of the eddy flux enters the tracer equation, along
 67 with advection by the large-scale flow:

$$\frac{\partial c}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\langle \mathbf{u} \rangle \langle c \rangle) = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}, \quad \text{where } \mathbf{F} = \langle \mathbf{u} \rangle c' + \mathbf{u}' \langle c \rangle + \mathbf{u}' c' \quad (2)$$

68 The eddy flux divergence $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}$ can play a key role in determining tracer evolution and steady
 69 state. For simplicity, we assume that the tracer is conservative, thus ignoring sources and sinks,
 70 and focus only on dynamically passive tracers, thus assuming that the ocean currents are not
 71 affected by c .

72 Because of the joint effect of planetary rotation and ocean stratification, the stirring of water by
 73 mesoscale eddies is primarily along surfaces of constant density (isopycnals) in the interior
 74 ocean. Therefore, the main focus here is on the *lateral* material transport. The general eddy
 75 diffusivity tensor \mathbf{K} in a 2D flow can be written as a 2×2 matrix:

$$\mathbf{K}(x, y, t) = \begin{pmatrix} K_{xx} & K_{xy} \\ K_{yx} & K_{yy} \end{pmatrix}, \quad (3)$$

76 where the conventional Cartesian coordinates are used for convenience. Note that a pair of
 77 tracers is needed for a solution of Equation 1, and for that pair the solution is exact and unique.

78 The seeming simplicity of the flux-gradient relation (Equation 1) hides incredible complexity of
 79 the diffusivity tensor \mathbf{K} . Only in purely homogeneous, stationary and isotropic turbulence are the
 80 off-diagonal tensor zero ($K_{xy}=K_{yx}=0$) and the diagonal tensor elements equal to each other
 81 ($K_{xx}=K_{yy}$). In realistic oceanic flows, all \mathbf{K} -tensor elements are generally non-zero, distinct (i.e.,
 82 the diffusivity is *anisotropic*) and vary in space and time (i.e., the diffusivity is *inhomogeneous*
 83 *and non-stationary*). Observation- and model-based estimates of the simplified eddy diffusivity
 84 exhibit strong dependence on depth, geographical location (Abernathey & Marshall, 2013;
 85 Canuto *et al.*, 2019; Cole *et al.*, 2015; Griesel *et al.*, 2010; Lumpkin *et al.*, 2002; Marshall *et al.*,
 86 2006) and time (Busecke & Abernathey, 2019; Haigh *et al.*, 2020). These estimates usually
 87 involve some spatio-temporal averaging and can be based on either drifter (“particle”)
 88 trajectories or tracer distributions. Both particle-based statistics (Griesel *et al.*, 2010;
 89 Kamenkovich *et al.*, 2009; Kamenkovich *et al.*, 2015; McClean *et al.*, 2002; O’Dwyer *et al.*,
 90 2000; Rypina *et al.*, 2012; Sallee *et al.*, 2008) and tracer-based estimates (Bachman *et al.*, 2020;
 91 Bachman *et al.*, 2017; Eden, 2007; Haigh *et al.*, 2020) also exhibit significant anisotropy. This
 92 anisotropy is important in the typical oceanic case of strong eddies embedded in relatively weak
 93 large-scale circulation (Kamenkovich *et al.*, 2015).

94 The diffusion approach (Equation 1) is built on an inherent assumption that the \mathbf{K} -tensor is
 95 unique for any given turbulent flow. However, some model estimates report significant
 96 sensitivity of a simplified \mathbf{K} -tensor to the tracer field (Bachman *et al.*, 2015; 2020; Eden &
 97 Greatbatch, 2009; Haigh *et al.*, 2020). This sensitivity complicates interpretation of \mathbf{K} -tensor,
 98 because even the exact solution of (1) for one particular pair of tracers will lead to biases in \mathbf{F} for
 99 another set.

100 The other serious complication is that \mathbf{F} contains some large non-divergent ("rotational")
101 component (Haigh *et al.*, 2020; Jayne & Marotzke, 2002; Marshall & Shutts, 1981) that does not
102 affect tracer distribution, but influences \mathbf{K} in the flux-gradient relation (1). The rotational flux
103 can be expected to be tracer-dependent (Bachman *et al.*, 2015) and can lead to negative
104 diffusivities (Marshall & Shutts, 1981). The separation of \mathbf{F} into rotational and divergent
105 components via the Helmholtz decomposition is, unfortunately, not unique and depends on the
106 boundary conditions (Jayne & Marotzke, 2002; Maddison *et al.*, 2015; Roberts & Marshall,
107 2000), which are usually known for the total \mathbf{F} but not for its rotational and divergent
108 components, separately.

109 **2 Numerical Simulations**

110 Two types of simulations are used in this study. The first type is the idealized quasigeostrophic
111 (QG) double-gyre flow. This flow contains all essential elements of the mid-latitude North
112 Atlantic or North Pacific: large-scale subpolar and subtropical gyres, separated by a coherent
113 meandering jet, representing eastward extensions of the Gulf Stream and Kuroshio currents, and
114 an ambient eddy field. The model is formulated in a square-box flat-bottom ocean basin, which
115 is a classical idealization that facilitates the analysis and numerical simulations (Haigh *et al.*,
116 2020). The numerics employs the CABARET scheme (Karabasov *et al.*, 2009) on a uniform
117 Cartesian grid with 1025 by 1025 grid points and the grid spacing $\Delta x = \Delta y = 3.5$ km. The
118 model has 3 vertical layers. The length of the tracer simulations is 180 days.

119 The second model is a comprehensive, general circulation model (GCM) of the entire Atlantic,
120 used in the "offline" regime, which means that tracers are simulated using previously computed
121 physical fields, thus, making the model computationally very efficient (Kamenkovich *et al.*,
122 2017). The physical variables used in offline models are calculated in a separate "online"
123 simulation with the HYbrid Coordinate Ocean Model (HYCOM) (Bleck, 2002; Chassignet *et al.*,
124 2003), which uses isopycnal coordinates in the open ocean and below the mixed layer.
125 HYCOM's coordinate system dynamically transitions to other coordinate types (sigma- and z-
126 coordinates) to provide optimal resolution in the surface mixed layer, in high-latitude unstratified
127 regions, and near coasts. The online simulation has a global domain with $1/12^\circ$ spatial resolution;
128 the horizontal grid is rectilinear south of 47°N followed by an Arctic bipolar patch. The vertical
129 grid has 41 hybrid layers. Both model solutions are initialized with 2D tracer configurations

130 which initially are vertically uniform but have different horizontal profiles. The QG model is
 131 integrated for 180 days, while the GCM is used for 14 overlapping segments, 110 days each.

132 **3 Tensor calculation and basic properties**

133 The definition of the mean circulation and large-scale tracer field is not unique, and the resulting
 134 K-tensor depends significantly on it. The mesoscale is not clearly separated from the large-scale
 135 in ocean models and observations (McWilliams, 2008), and an unambiguous definition of the
 136 eddies is missing. The large scales are often defined as long-term time mean (Vallis, 2017),
 137 although the utility of this definition is far from clear for transient tracers. Thus, a fundamental
 138 uncertainty in defining the eddies leads to uncertainty in defining the eddy diffusivity. This study
 139 defines mesoscale using spatial filtering, which is relevant to the issue of spatial resolution of
 140 eddies in numerical models. For example, the QG analysis in this study employs the low-pass
 141 spatial filtering $\langle \dots \rangle$ intended to remove scales shorter than 112.5 km and does not use time
 142 averaging, while the GCM analysis uses a square filter width of approximately 2 degrees
 143 longitude and a 5-year mean for the time averaging.

144 The flux-gradient relation can be solved exactly for any pair of independent tracers. We use 6
 145 linear and 6 nonlinear tracers (15 independent pairs in each set). The linear tracers are linear
 146 functions of x and y (constant gradient) with a constant added, which means that solving (1)
 147 must produce a unique diffusivity tensor if the rotational component is properly removed (Sun,
 148 2020). This is because that any linear tracer can be expressed as a linear combination of only two
 149 independent tracers. In the GCM simulations, we use 4 independent tracers (6 tracer pairs). Each
 150 of these tracers decreases exponentially southward from 31°S and northward from the grid point
 151 1800 to 1954 (latitude varies due to curvilinear coordinates used in HYCOM).

152 The rotational component is removed from each tracer flux, using the Helmholtz decomposition
 153 (Lau & Wallace, 1979):

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} &= \nabla^2 \Phi, \quad \nabla \times \mathbf{F} = \nabla^2 \Psi, \\ \mathbf{F} &= \mathbf{F}_{div} + \mathbf{F}_{rot}, \\ \mathbf{F}_{div} &= \nabla \Phi, \quad \mathbf{F}_{rot} = \nabla \times \Psi. \end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

154 In the QG simulations, we adopt the approach of Maddison *et al.* (2015) and set $\Phi = 0$ at the
 155 lateral boundaries, which minimizes the magnitude of \mathbf{F}_{div} . GCM simulations have open

156 boundaries in the north and south, and a different approach is used. We chose to use the
 157 optimization technique with Tikhonov regularization (Li *et al.*, 2006), which minimizes the
 158 opposing non-rotational and non-divergent in \mathbf{F}_{div} and $(\mathbf{F} - \mathbf{F}_{div})$. Note that $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}_{div} = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}$
 159 regardless of the boundary conditions used in the Helmholtz decomposition, although the
 160 diffusivity tensor \mathbf{K} is derived from \mathbf{F}_{div} and, thus, is highly sensitive to the choice of the
 161 boundary conditions.

162 The diffusivity tensor \mathbf{K} can be decomposed into the symmetric and anti-symmetric components:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{K} = \mathbf{K}_s + \mathbf{K}_a &= \begin{pmatrix} K_{xx} & S_{12} \\ S_{12} & K_{yy} \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & A_{12} \\ -A_{12} & 0 \end{pmatrix}, & S_{12} &= \frac{1}{2}(K_{xy} + K_{yx}), \\ & & A_{12} &= \frac{1}{2}(K_{xy} - K_{yx}). \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

163 When the diffusivity is isotropic and inhomogeneous, these two components of the full tensor
 164 correspond to the divergent (zero curl and non-zero divergence) and rotational (zero divergence
 165 and non-zero curl) components, $-\mathbf{K}_s \nabla \langle c \rangle$ and $-\mathbf{K}_a \nabla \langle c \rangle$, respectively. It is, however, easy to see
 166 that the curl of the symmetric part is non-zero, $\nabla \times \mathbf{K}_s \nabla \langle c \rangle \neq 0$, if \mathbf{K}_s is anisotropic ($K_{xx} \neq K_{yy}$)
 167 or inhomogeneous. Because the rotational component is exactly zero in the full \mathbf{F}_{div} , the
 168 rotational components in symmetric and antisymmetric parts cancel each other. Similarly, the
 169 antisymmetric part has non-zero divergence for the inhomogeneous tensor: $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{K}_a \nabla \langle c \rangle =$
 170 $J(A, \langle c \rangle) \neq 0$. For example, our QG estimates show that the r.m.s. of the divergence of $\mathbf{K}_s \nabla \langle c \rangle$
 171 and $\mathbf{K}_a \nabla \langle c \rangle$ are both $2.5 \times 10^{-9} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (tracer is unitless), and the curl of these components is 6.5×10^3
 172 s^{-1} and $6.7 \times 10^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$, respectively.

173 The symmetric (“diffusive”) part of the that tensor can be conveniently diagonalized by rotating
 174 the local coordinate through an angle θ (Kamenkovich *et al.*, 2015; Rypina *et al.*, 2012):

$$\mathbf{K}_s = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad (6)$$

175 The angle θ defines the direction of the maximal tracer spreading, and the first eigenvalue is the
 176 spreading rate in this direction. The second eigenvalue corresponds to the spreading rate in the
 177 direction perpendicular to the maximal one. Both eigenvalues are real.

178 **4.1 Polarity and time dependence**

179 An intriguing new feature of the comprehensive \mathbf{K} -tensor is the persistence of pairs of positive
 180 and negative eigenvalues λ_1 and λ_2 (Figs. 1-2), which we will refer to as “polarity”. Many
 181 previous studies excluded negative diffusivities, either by using asymptotic estimates based on
 182 particle trajectories (Kamenkovich *et al.*, 2015; Rypina *et al.*, 2012) or by explicitly neglecting
 183 negative eigenvalues in the diffusivity tensor (Bachman *et al.*, 2020). Polar eigenvalues imply
 184 that the tracer concentration anomalies are being stretched in one direction and squeezed in the
 185 direction normal to that, leading to transient filamentation of the tracer field. Moreover, the
 186 polarity, which is ubiquitous in both QG and GCM solutions, is a robust feature of the
 187 instantaneous flow and is observed regardless of whether and how the rotational component of \mathbf{F}
 188 is removed.

189 All components of the comprehensive tensor have significant time dependence, with the standard
 190 deviations comparable with and exceeding the corresponding time-mean values (Fig.3). The
 191 uncovered time dependence has important implications not only for transient tracer behavior, but
 192 also for time-mean tracer structure. The latter point can be illustrated by the time-average eddy
 193 flux $\overline{\mathbf{F}_{div}}$. To see this, we can write the time average of (1) in two different ways:

$$\overline{\mathbf{F}_{div}} = -\overline{\mathbf{K}}\nabla\langle c \rangle - \overline{\mathbf{K}'}\nabla\langle c' \rangle, \quad \mathbf{K}' = \mathbf{K} - \overline{\mathbf{K}}, \quad c' = c - \bar{c} \quad \text{or} \quad \overline{\mathbf{F}_{div}} = -\tilde{\mathbf{K}}\nabla\langle c \rangle. \quad (4)$$

194 The above relation implies that (i) \mathbf{K}' is at least as important as $\overline{\mathbf{K}}$; and (ii) $\tilde{\mathbf{K}}$ is different from $\overline{\mathbf{K}}$.
 195 Both properties are confirmed by our calculations. The most practical approach for the
 196 parametrization is then unclear. If time-dependent $\mathbf{K}(x,y,t)$ is used, $\overline{\mathbf{F}_{div}}$ will depend on the
 197 accuracy of simulating tracer variance, whereas using $\tilde{\mathbf{K}}$ can distort the important variability in
 198 \mathbf{F}_{div} .

199 Due to the non-stationary nature of the \mathbf{K} -tensor, the sign of its eigenvalues and the
 200 corresponding angle θ both change in time. Although the polarity is reduced in $\overline{\mathbf{K}}$ and $\tilde{\mathbf{K}}$, it
 201 continues to be observed even in these fields (not shown), which implies that eddies lead to
 202 persistent filamentation. As the sharpening of tracer gradients cannot continue forever, the
 203 effects of eddies have to be eventually balanced by the large-scale advection and small-scale
 204 diffusion. Persistent upgradient eddy potential vorticity fluxes (negative diffusivity) have indeed
 205 been reported in the eastward extensions of the Kuroshio (Waterman *et al.*, 2011; Waterman &

206 Jayne, 2011) and Gulf Stream (Shevchenko & Berloff, 2015); these studies, however, did not
 207 report the diffusivity tensor and the sign of the along-flow diffusivity. Another possibility is that
 208 negative eigenvalues are associated with non-divergent, rotational component of $\mathbf{K}_s \nabla \langle c \rangle$.
 209 Regardless of the origin and interpretation of the polarity, neglecting the negative values can
 210 potentially lead to serious biases in the eddy fluxes and tracer distributions.

211 **4.3 Dependence on tracers**

212 Another unexpected property of the comprehensive K-tensor is the dependence of its symmetric
 213 (“diffusive”) component on the tracer field (Sun, 2020), which implies that $\mathbf{K}_s(x,y,t)$ is not
 214 uniquely determined by the flow and exists for each tracer pair separately; see also Bachman *et*
 215 *al.* (2020). As the manifestation of this property, the ensemble standard deviation for the first
 216 eigenvalue λ_1 of the symmetric tensor \mathbf{K}_s , calculated for among various pairs of tracers exceeds
 217 the ensemble mean in most of the domain (Figs. 4 and 5). Even more significantly, the spread in
 218 the values of the diffusive-flux divergence $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{K}_s \nabla \langle c \rangle$ is large (not shown).

219 The rotational component can be naturally suspected of being the cause of the above non-
 220 uniqueness of the K-tensor. Nevertheless, our results demonstrate that the non-uniqueness is not
 221 significantly reduced when the rotational component is removed for a general set of tracers: the
 222 non-uniqueness is similar in magnitude for \mathbf{F} and \mathbf{F}_{div} in both the QG and GCM simulations
 223 (Fig. 4c-f). On the other hand, any pair of initially linear (constant gradient) tracers must lead to
 224 the same diffusivity from \mathbf{F}_{div} (see Methods), which can conveniently serve as a test of how well
 225 the rotational component is removed. Indeed, in this case the ensemble spread is reduced
 226 dramatically (Fig.4a-b).

227 **5 Implications for eddy parameterization and diffusivity estimates**

228 Using the exact solution for $\mathbf{K}(x,y,t)$ from (1) would lead to an accurate representation of the
 229 eddy-flux divergence for the given tracer pair, regardless of how and whether the rotational
 230 component is removed. An ultimate goal of the diffusion-based description of the eddy-induced
 231 transports is, however, parameterization of $\mathbf{K}(x,y,t)$ in terms of large-scale currents and
 232 stratification, that is, arrival at some generalized “turbulence closure”. The corresponding
 233 approximate tensor $\mathbf{K}_p \approx \mathbf{K}(x,y,t)$ is intended to reproduce the most important effects of eddies
 234 on the large-scale tracer fields, without explicitly resolving the mesoscale. The uncovered

235 complexity of the diffusivity tensor implies that the parameterized eddy flux divergence $-\nabla \cdot$
236 $\mathbf{K}_p \nabla \langle c \rangle$ will inevitably contain biases with respect to $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}$, but the significance of these biases
237 for tracer distribution remains to be studied. These biases can be particularly hard to control,
238 since the diffusive flux will have a large rotational component which affects the \mathbf{K} -tensor
239 estimates, according to our analysis. Since an exact match between \mathbf{K}_p and \mathbf{K} is practically
240 impossible, it is important to estimate what properties of the diffusivity tensor are the most
241 important for tracer distribution. This study describes several examples of such properties.

242 \mathbf{K} -tensor depends on the flow decomposition (definition of the large-scale $\langle \dots \rangle$), which is
243 loosely defined in most cases. This study defines mesoscale based on spatial rather than temporal
244 scales, which is more directly relevant to the issue of its parameterization in numerical models.
245 The spatial filter characteristics cannot, however, be easily derived from model resolution alone,
246 since it is unclear to what extent different dynamical scales are actually resolved. \mathbf{K} -tensor is
247 also non-stationary, and a meaningful definition of \mathbf{K}_p will depend on the time scales of large-
248 scale tracer variability. The analysis of the dominant spatial and temporal scales will need to be
249 carried out in each particular case. Negative eigenvalues in the tensor and the potential
250 importance of all tensor components dramatically complicates the definition of the closure.

251 These negative diffusivities are, however, transient, and the corresponding direction of spreading
252 constantly changes in time. The importance of this variability needs to be assessed. In addition,
253 the effects of negative eigenvalues can be fully compensated by the skew part of the diffusivity
254 tensor, which is divergent and, thus, also plays a role in tracer distribution. Observation-based
255 estimates, on the other hand, present additional challenges. Given the discovered complexity,
256 obtaining accurate estimates of \mathbf{K} from drifter and float trajectories (Lagrangian observations)
257 appears highly problematic, because these asymptotic and spatially nonlocal methods will not be
258 able to accurately capture the spatial and temporal variability of the \mathbf{K} -tensor.

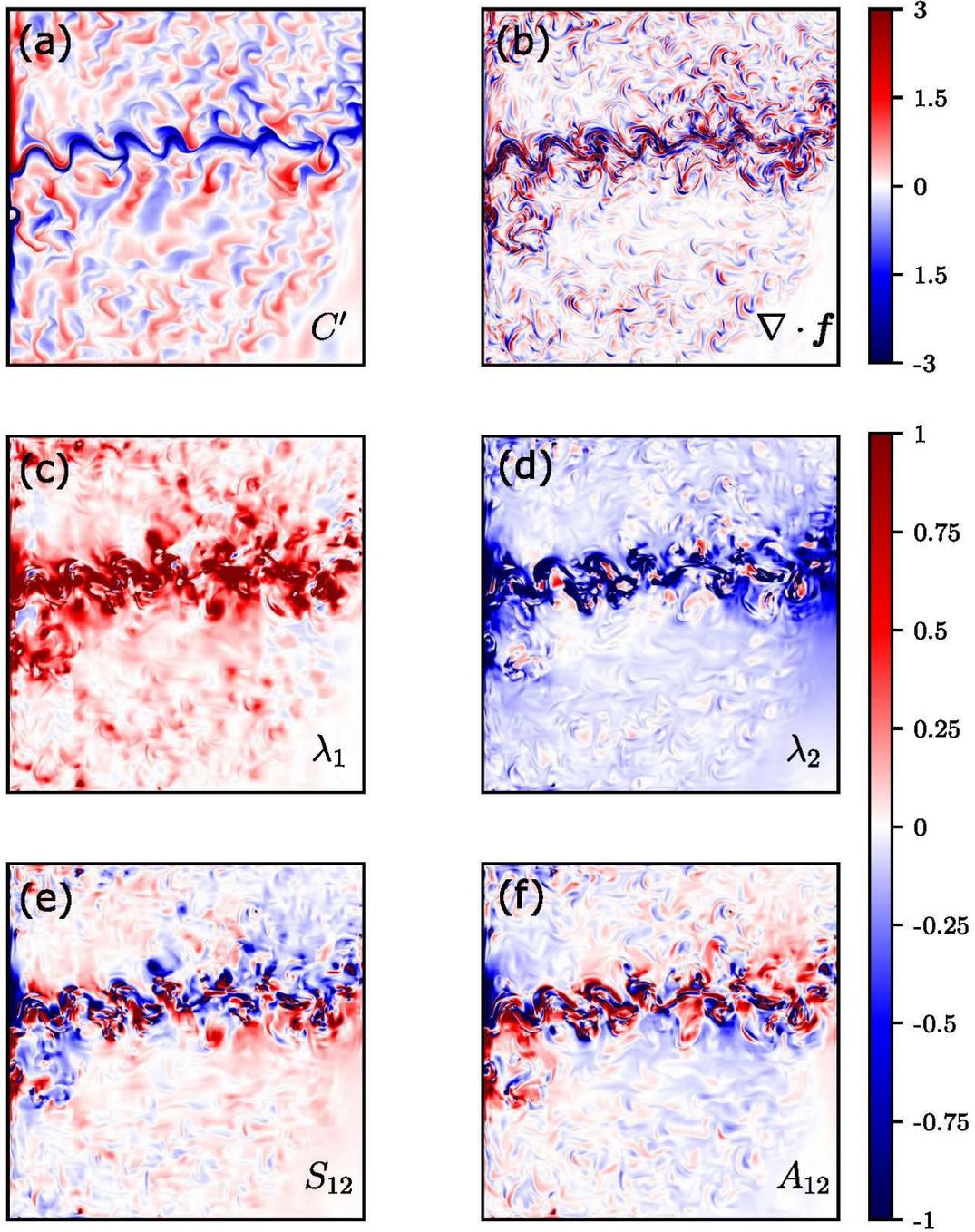
259 Finally, the comprehensive diffusivity tensor is a function of the tracer field, formally violating
260 assumptions of the classical, tracer-independent flux-gradient relation. A practical approach to
261 this problem is to use multi-tracer ensemble-averaged estimates of \mathbf{K} (Bachman *et al.*, 2020;
262 Bachman *et al.*, 2017), but the corresponding and unavoidable biases for each given tracer pair
263 remain to be assessed and understood. An alternative solution is to expand the traditional flux-
264 gradient representation of the eddy flux by adding new, non-diffusive terms. Such expansion can

265 involve terms that explicitly depend on either the tracer concentration or its curvature, as well as
266 purely stochastic components. Note that the latter stochastic component can be expected to be
267 effectively removed by using the multi-tracer method.

268 Since the most important properties and aspects of \mathbf{K}_p remain to be identified, we do not yet
269 know to what extent they are affected by the full tensor properties described in this study.
270 Although it is tempting to conclude that the only the direct resolution of the mesoscale can lead
271 to accurate tracer simulations, we must realize that the task of its parameterization will remain
272 relevant for some time.

273 **Acknowledgments and Data**

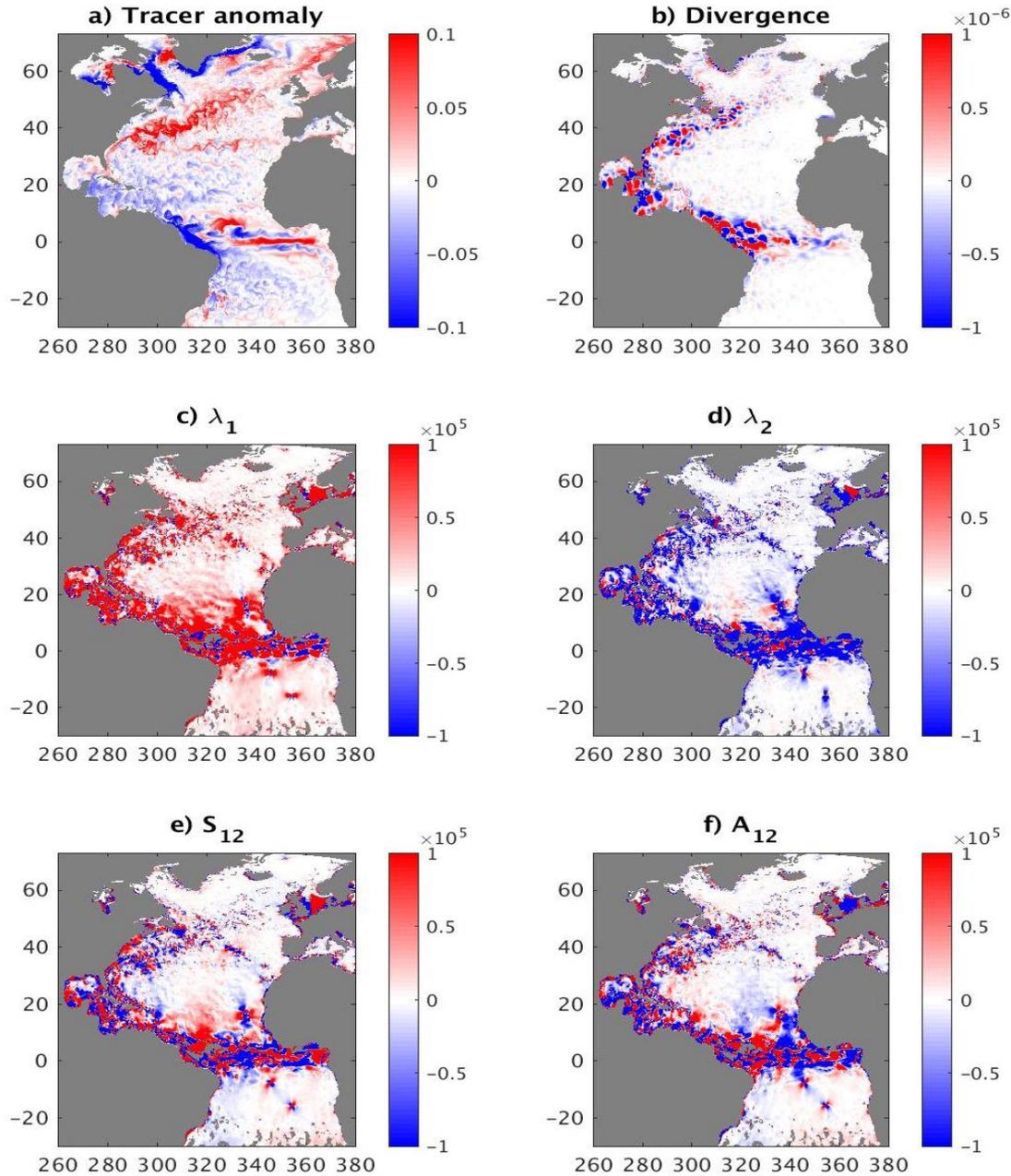
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282 produce figures in this study are available from (URL site will be included here); additional data
283 are available from the corresponding author upon request.



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Figure 1: Results of the QG simulations at day 183: (a) tracer anomaly $c'=c(x,y,t)-c(x,y,0)$; (b) divergence of the tracer flux (tracer units times 10^{-6} s^{-1}); (c)-(d) eigenvalues and (e)-(f) off-diagonal terms of the diffusivity tensor (units are $10^4 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$).

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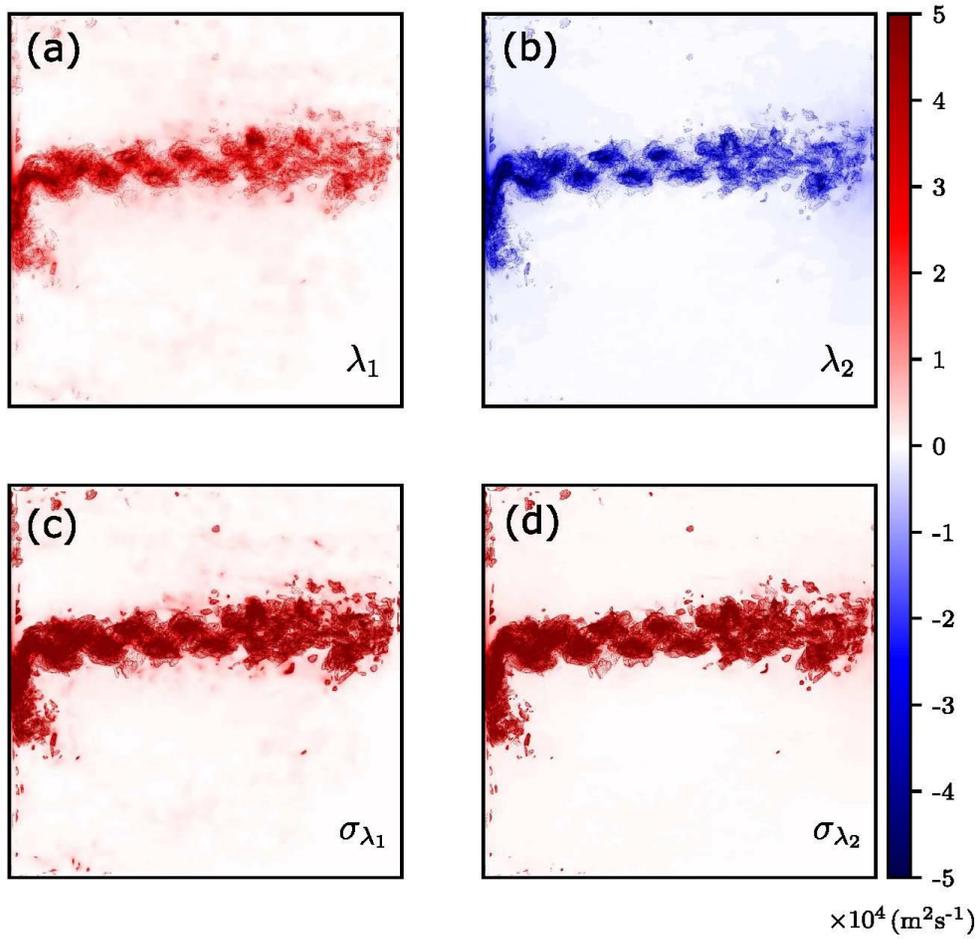
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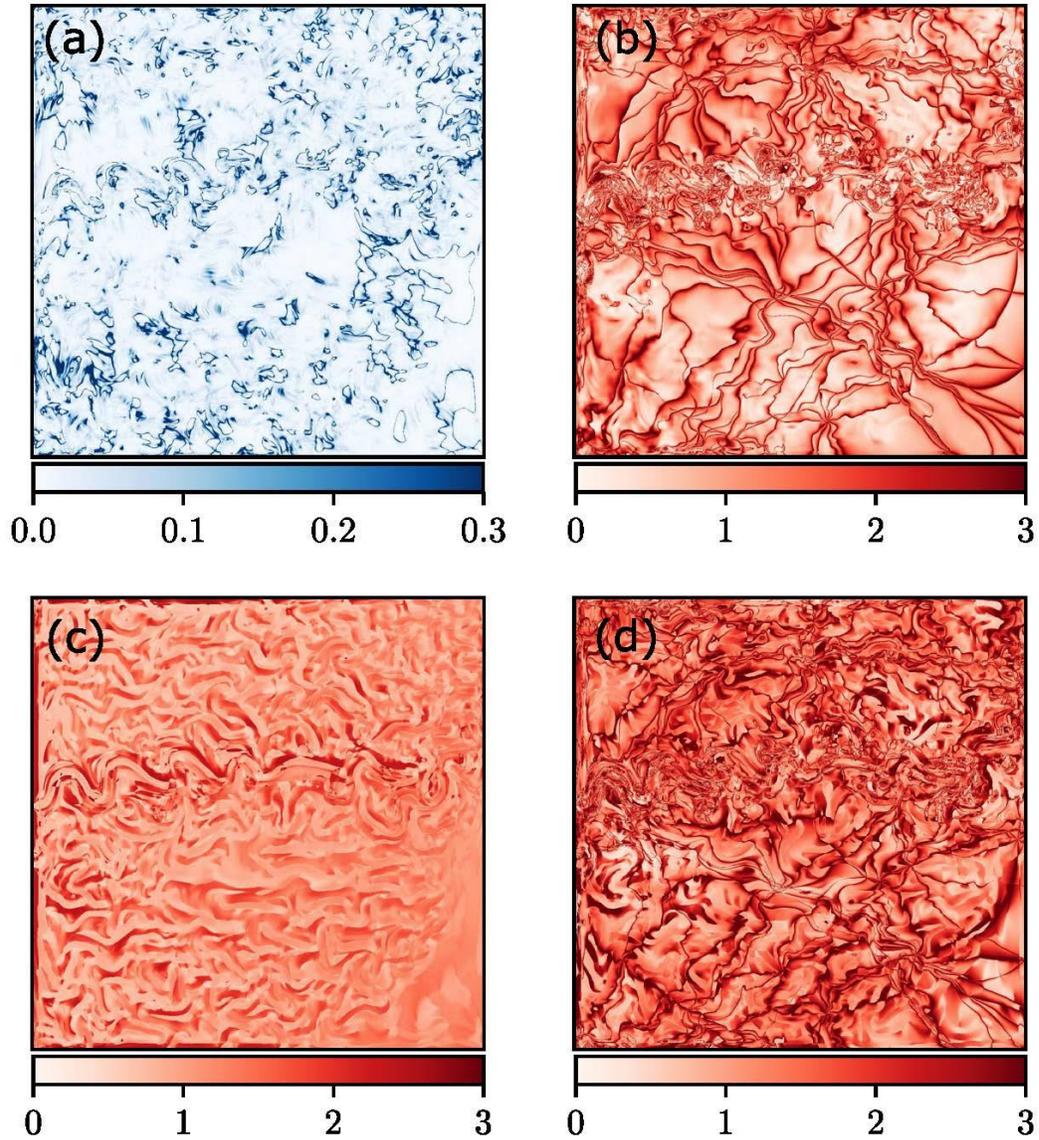
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Figure 2: Results of the GCM simulations, layer 17 (depth of approximately 300-600 m): (a) tracer anomaly $c' = c(x, y, t) - c(x, y, 0)$ (tracer is unitless); (b) divergence of the tracer flux (units are s^{-1}) averaged over days 341-350 of year 1; (c)-(d) eigenvalues and (e)-(f) off-diagonal terms of the diffusivity tensor (units are $m^2 s^{-1}$), derived from the eddy fluxes and tracer gradients averaged over days 341-350 of year 1. Note large values in the tropics due to weak tracer gradients and, possibly, long Rossby deformation radius. Regions near the open boundaries, where the tracer concentrations are initially set to zero are masked.



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Figure 3: Time-dependence in the eigenvalues λ_1 and λ_2 of the diffusivity tensor in the QG simulations over the period of 183 days. Panels (a-b) show the time-mean values, panels (c-d) – standard deviations. Time-means of eigenvalues over 183 days.



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Figure 4: Non-uniqueness of the K-tensor (tracer dependence) in the QG simulations (day 183), for the ensemble of 15 tracer pairs. It is shown as the ensemble standard deviation divided by the ensemble mean for the first eigenvalue λ_1 , calculated for \mathbf{F}_{div} (left column) and \mathbf{F} (right column): (a-b) Linear tracers in the QG model; (c-d) Nonlinear tracers in the QG model.

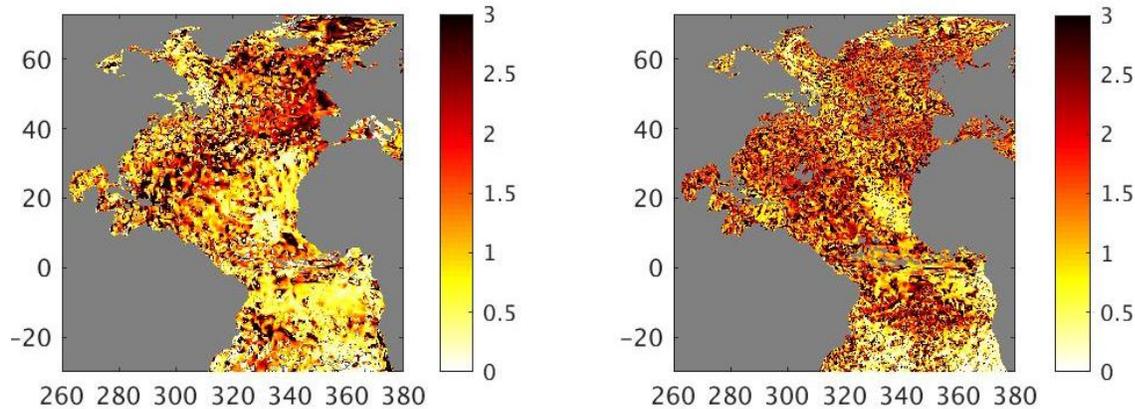


Figure 5: Non-uniqueness (tracer dependence) of the \mathbf{K} -tensor in the HYCOM simulations, for the ensemble of 6 tracer pairs. It is shown as the ensemble standard deviation divided by the ensemble mean for the first eigenvalue λ_1 , calculated for \mathbf{F}_{div} (left column) and \mathbf{F} (right column). The tensor is derived from the eddy fluxes and tracer gradients averaged over days 341-350 of year 1

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