

1
2
3
4
5 **Shallow Water Tidal Currents in Close Proximity to the Seafloor and**
6
7
8 **Boundary-Induced Turbulence**
9

10
11
12
13
14 I. Lozovatsky^a, Zhiyu Liu^{b, c, *}, H.J.S. Fernando^a, J. Armengol^d, and E. Roget^d
15
16

17
18 ^a Environmental Fluid Dynamics Laboratories, Departments of Civil Engineering & Geological
19 Sciences, University of Notre Dame, Notre Dame, IN, 46556, USA
20

21
22 ^b State Key Laboratory of Marine Environmental Science, College of Oceanography and
23 Environmental Science, Xiamen University, 422 Siming South Road, Xiamen 361005, China
24

25
26 ^c Physical Oceanography Laboratory, College of Physical and Environmental Oceanography,
27 Ocean University of China, 238 Songling Road, Qingdao 266100, China
28

29
30 ^d Environmental Physics Group, Department of Physics, University of Girona, Girona, E-17071,
31 Catalonia, Spain
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42

43 Submitted: March 1, 2011

44
45 Revised: May 26, 2011
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55

56
57 **Corresponding author:* Dr. Zhiyu Liu, State Key Laboratory of Marine Environmental Science, Xiamen University,
58 422 Siming South Road, Xiamen 361005, China. E-mail: zyliu@xmu.edu.cn
59
60
61

Abstract

ADCP velocity measurements with vertical resolution 0.02 m were conducted in the lowest 0.5 m of the water column at a test site in the western part of the East China Sea to investigate the applicability of the law-of-the-wall very near to the seafloor. The friction velocity u_* and the turbulent kinetic energy dissipation rate $\varepsilon_{wl}(\zeta)$ profiles were calculated using log-layer fits; ζ is the height above the bottom. During a semidiurnal tidal cycle, u_* was found to vary in the range $(1-7)\times 10^{-3}$ m/s. The law-of-the-wall dissipation profiles $\varepsilon_{wl}(\zeta)$ were consistent with the dissipation profiles $\varepsilon_{mc}(\zeta)$ evaluated using independent microstructure measurements of small-scale shear, except in the presence of westward currents. It was hypothesized that an isolated bathymetric rise (25 m height at a 50 m seafloor) located to the east of the measurement site, is responsible for the latter. Calculation of the depth integrated internal-tide generating body force in the region showed that the flanks of the rise are hotspots of internal-wave energy that may locally produce a significant turbulent zone while emitting tidal and nonlinear internal waves. This distant topographic source of turbulence may enhance the microstructure-based dissipation levels $\varepsilon_{mc}(\zeta)$ in the bottom boundary layer (BBL) beyond the dissipation $\varepsilon_{wl}(\zeta)$ due to purely locally generated turbulence by skin currents. Semi-empirical estimates for dissipation at a distance from the bathymetric rise agree well with the BBL values of ε_{mc} measured 15 km upslope.

1. Introduction

Substantial progress has been achieved recently in studying currents and turbulence in coastal marine bottom boundary layers (BBL) as a result of the development of high-frequency and high vertical resolution acoustic Doppler current profilers (ADCPs) as well as commercial microstructure instruments such as MSS (Prandke and Stips 1998) and Turbomap (Wolk et al. 2002). The profiling of currents in coastal oceans is mainly conducted using upward-looking, bottom-mounted ADCPs, whereas high frequency temporal variations of velocity components at a specific height above the bottom can be obtained by acoustic Doppler velocimeters (ADV). Field studies on BBL dynamics in shallow waters (Lueck and Lu 1997; Foster et al. 2000; Elliott 2002; Howarth and Souza 2005; Lozovatsky et al. 2008a,b; Liu, Wu et al. 2009) have confirmed the general applicability of log-layer approximation to the velocity profiles $U(\xi) = [u^2(\xi) + v^2(\xi)]^{1/2}$ in a well-mixed BBL, and therefore the possibility of law-of-the-wall dissipation estimation $\epsilon_{wl}(\xi) = c u_*^3 / \kappa \xi$ for near-bottom turbulence. Here u and v are horizontal components of the velocity vector, u_* the friction velocity, $\kappa \approx 0.4$ the von Karman constant, c a nondimensional constant of order to unity, and ξ the height above the seafloor. It was found, however, that in the presence of weak stable stratification velocity profile may exhibit a seemingly logarithmic structure, even though this log-layer may not support a constant vertical momentum flux, and u_* so deduced can be much larger than the actual friction velocity. Specific modifications to u_* obtained from shear profiles $dU(\xi)/d\xi$ have been suggested (e.g., Friedrichs and Wright 1997; Perlin et al. 2005; Taylor and Sarkar 2008) to account for the

1
2
3
4
5 influence of stratification. The u_* deduced from the modified formulae was approximately half
6
7
8 of its law-of-the-wall based counterpart.
9

10 In non-stationary boundary currents, such as reversing tidal flows, u_* can be considered
11
12 as constant for relatively short periods, during which the law-of-the-wall is assumed to be valid.
13
14 If the tidal vector rotates, tracing a circle or slightly stretched ellipse, the friction velocity u_*
15
16 can remain approximately constant (proportional to the mean velocity magnitude U) during the
17
18 entire tidal cycle. Lozovatsky et al. (2008b) found, however, that the log-layer estimates of u_*
19
20 in a rotating tidal flow are about twice as much as the u_* calculated via direct eddy correlations
21
22 $\langle u'w' \rangle$ and $\langle v'w' \rangle$. The difference was attributed to the failure of the log-layer model in
23
24 relatively thick (~ 10 m) boundary layers of rotating tidal flows. This together with weak
25
26 stratification effects may lead to erroneously high u_* values compared to those deduced from
27
28 the eddy correlation technique (Lueck and Lu 1997; Elliott 2002; Lozovatsky et al. 2008a,b).
29
30 Nevertheless, one can expect that velocity profiles in close proximity to the seafloor ($\zeta < 1$ meter
31
32 above bottom, mab) are unaffected by stratification and therefore exhibit a canonical log-layer,
33
34 but data to check this assumption were unavailable until recently. In the summer of 2006,
35
36 oceanographers of the Ocean University of China (OUC) conducted ADCP measurements in the
37
38 coastal zone of the East China Sea (ECS) starting from $\zeta = 0.04$ mab up to $\zeta = 0.48$ mab with a
39
40 vertical resolution of 0.02 m. These data allowed analysis of detailed velocity structure in a
41
42 rotating tidal flow and evaluation of u_* based on logarithmic velocity profiles (when exist) in
43
44 the absence of stratification. Note that stratification effects are unimportant at heights
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4
5 $\zeta < \zeta_s = c_N u_* / N$ (Kitaigorodskii 1992; Kitaigorodskii and Joffre 1988), and hence very near
6
7 the bottom dynamical effects of stratification are negligible; here N is the buoyancy frequency
8
9 and $c_N = 4 - 9$. In this depth range, u_* calculated from the log-layer model can be used to
10
11 estimate the law-of-the-wall dissipation rate $\varepsilon_{wl}(\zeta)$, which in turn could be compared with that
12
13 measured by a microstructure profiler $\varepsilon_{mc}(z)$ ($z = 0$ is at the sea surface; positive downward).
14
15
16 Such comparisons permit evaluation of the efficacy of log-layer method for dissipation estimates
17
18
19 near the seafloor.
20
21
22

23
24 The paper is structured as follows. Measurements and data processing are described in
25
26 Section 2. Section 3 presents background tidal flow and stratification. Logarithmic
27
28 approximation to the measured ADCP velocity profiles, averaged over various time scales, and
29
30 the corresponding u_* estimates are discussed in Section 4. Comparison between $\varepsilon_{wl}(\zeta)$ and
31
32 $\varepsilon_{mc}(z)$ in the BBL (ζ up to 5 mab) is given in Section 5, followed by a discussion in Section 6.
33
34
35 Section 7 summarizes the results.
36
37
38

39 40 41 42 43 44 **2. Measurements and data processing**

45
46 The CTD, ADCP, and microstructure (MSS-60) measurements were conducted in the
47
48 region of Changjiang (Yangtze) River Diluted Waters (CDW) of ECS at the mooring site P11
49
50 (30°49'N, 122°56'E; the mean depth of the water column was 38 m; see Fig. 1).
51

Fig. 1

52
53 A bottom-mounted downward-looking RDI 1200 kHz ADCP was deployed at 0.8 mab to
54
55 continuously record the along-beam velocities in mode 11 with a ping rate of 2 Hz. The mooring
56
57 setup was similar to that of Cheng et al. (1999). The bin size was set to 0.02 m and the data were
58
59
60
61

1
2
3
4 ensemble-averaged over $\Delta t = 1$ s (i.e. two pings) before being recorded. Reliable ADCP data
5
6 were obtained during the first 18 hours of the measurements; thereafter, because of an
7
8 unexpected shift of the mounting platform, the instrument was misaligned. The velocity
9
10 components u , v , and w were calculated from the original ADCP data for various averaging
11
12 periods. ADCP profilers cannot deliver accurate velocity data near their transducers and near the
13
14 seabed. Muste et al. (2010) found a difference between the undisturbed and the ADCP-disturbed
15
16 velocities at a distance up to approximately one and a half ADCP diameter from the transducer.
17
18 Mueller et al. (2007) analyzed errors of ADCP measurements depending on the deployment
19
20 configuration, the ADCP diameter, and the upstream flow velocity. At 5 cm from the transducers,
21
22 the bias was about 25%, but the error was less than 1% at a distance of about 50 cm. Thus, our
23
24 ADCP data are reliable (the bias is less than 10%) in the range $\xi = 0.04 - 0.48$ mab. The shear
25
26 stress was not calculated from along-beam velocities using the ‘variance method’ (Lu and Lueck
27
28 1999; Stacey et al. 1999), because the ADCP tilt angles (pitch and roll) exceeded the required
29
30 threshold level $\sim 2^\circ$ (Lu and Lueck 1999).
31
32
33
34
35
36
37

38
39 A free-falling MSS profiler carried two airfoil shear sensors, a fast-response temperature
40
41 sensor, three standard CTD sensors and an accelerometer. The sampling rate for all sensors was
42
43 1024 Hz, enabling the measurement of microscale shear with a vertical resolution of 0.006 m at a
44
45 typical profiler falling speed of 0.65 m/s. The MSS measurements started on September 3 at 9
46
47 am and ended on September 4 at 10 am (local time) covering two semidiurnal tidal cycles. The
48
49 hourly deployments of MSS consisted of two consecutive casts over 2 – 3 min time period. The
50
51 launches were taken at a distance of about 50 – 100 m from the ADCP mooring site. The ending
52
53 depth of the casts was $\sim 1 - 2$ mab.
54
55
56
57

58 The processing of MSS-60 data followed Liu et al. (2009) based on the recommendations
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4 of the MSS developer (Prandke and Stips 1998). High-amplitude spikes in all signals were
5
6 detected and removed using an iterative procedure, and the microscale shear signal was then
7
8 corrected with a second order Butterworth band-pass filter. The dissipation rate ε was evaluated
9
10 assuming local isotropy, i.e. $\varepsilon_{mc} = 7.5\nu\overline{(\partial u'/\partial z)^2}$. An iterative procedure was implemented for
11
12 the calculation of shear variance by integrating the shear spectra at consecutive 1-m depth
13
14 intervals in the wavenumber range $2 \text{ cpm} < k < k_K$, where $k_K = (\varepsilon/\nu^3)^{1/4}/2\pi$ is the
15
16 Kolmogorov wavenumber [see Roget et al. (2006) for detailed methodology]. The MSS
17
18 dissipation rate ε_{mc} varied mainly in the range $\varepsilon_{mc} = 3 \times (10^{-9} - 10^{-7})$ W/kg; the minimum
19
20 measured level of ε_{mc} was $\sim 10^{-9}$ W/kg. The accuracy of the method depends on the calibration
21
22 errors, frequency response limitations, variations of falling speed, non-linearity of the airfoil
23
24 sensor due to changes in the angle of attack and anisotropy of the turbulence, which is discussed
25
26 in detail, for example by Paka et al. (1999) and in numerous other publications (e.g., Oakey 1982;
27
28 Gargett et al. 1984; Prandke and Stips 1998; Wolk et al. 2002). A combined error of the profiling
29
30 measurements of ε_{mc} was about 50%.

3. Background tidal dynamics and stratification

44
45
46 The barotropic tidal ranges estimated from the bottom-mounted pressure gauge are shown
47
48 in Fig. 2a in the background of tidal elevation $\xi_{bt}(t)$ calculated for the first week of September
49
50 2006 using the OSU Tidal Inversion Software (OTIS; Egbert and Erofeeva 2002). The
51
52 measurements are in good agreement with simulations, indicating that during the period of
53
54 observations the surface tidal elevation ranged between - 0.7 and 0.9 m. Fig. 2

55
56
57 The OTIS barotropic tidal ellipse is shown in Fig. 2c along with the ellipses of currents
58
59

1
2
3
4 calculated using hourly averaged ADCP velocity components at several heights above the
5
6 seafloor $\zeta = 0.04 - 0.4$ mab. The measured ellipses show a semidiurnal tidal cycle (12.42 hr),
7
8
9 superimposed by oscillations of shorter periods. The main axis of the modeled barotropic tidal
10
11 ellipse is roughly oriented in the northwest-southeast direction approximately along the bottom
12
13 slope (see Fig. 1); its amplitude substantially decreased (almost in half) during the second
14
15 semidiurnal cycle (Fig. 2c). The bottom friction clearly affects the flow magnitude in the lower
16
17 0.4 m of the water column, but the orientation of mean flow near the seafloor remains almost the
18
19 same.
20
21
22

23
24 The contours of specific potential density σ_θ that overlay the plot of ε values are shown
25
26 in Fig. 3a; the distance from the sea surface z is given in the right axis and the height from the
27
28 seafloor ζ in the left axis. Note that the averaged (over the tidal cycle) depth of the water column
29
30 was 38 m. The squared buoyancy frequency across the sharp near-surface pycnocline ($z \approx 3 - 10$
31
32 m) was as high as $N^2 > 3 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-2}$, $\tau_N = 2\pi/N < 2$ min. In the main ($z \approx 10 - 30$ m)
33
34 pycnocline of seasonal origin, the amplitude of the semidiurnal internal tide (IT) was ~ 4 m with
35
36 only a minor phase shift at all depths during the first 14 hrs of the observations (Fig. 3a). Starting
37
38 from $t \approx 14$ hr, the main pycnocline splits at $z \approx 22$ m, forming a depression in deeper water and
39
40 an elevation at shallower levels. This could have resulted from an energetic second mode of
41
42 internal tide or advection of different water masses by tidal currents. Indeed, an intrusion of
43
44 warmer saltier water is well identifiable in isopycnal coordinates in Fig. 3b between $t = 15$ and
45
46 23 hrs above $\sigma_\theta = 23.0$, which is marked by a dashed horizontal line. Below $\sigma_\theta = 23.0$, T and
47
48 S at the isopycnal surfaces do not change during entire 25 hrs of profiling, suggesting internal
49
50 waves as the major mechanism that influences stratification in the lower part of the water
51
52 column.
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61

Fig. 3

1
2
3
4 The main features of the turbulent kinetic energy dissipation rate shown in Fig. 3a are
5
6 consistent with the details of stratification. Lee et al. (2006) and Matsuno et al. (2006) reported
7
8 first dissipation measurements along hydrographic transects in the outer shelf area of ECS about
9
10 150 miles to the north-east and south-east from the CDW region and Liu et al. (2009) first
11
12 analyzed temporal variations of the dissipation rate in the Yellow Sea at 35°N. The vertical
13
14 structure of turbulence observed at the test site is typical for shallow waters in tidal and non-tidal
15
16 coastal zones (e.g., Simpson et al. 1996; Lozovatsky and Fernando 2002; Rippeth and Inall 2002;
17
18 MacKinnon and Gregg 2003; Palmer et al. 2008). The near-surface turbulence with highest ε ($>$
19
20 $10^{-6} - 10^{-7}$ W/kg) sometimes penetrated to the pycnocline, much like “turbulent chimneys” at $t =$
21
22 $6 - 7$ and $16 - 17$ hrs. A clear minimum of ε existed at the mid depths, and this region was not
23
24 affected by the turbulence of surface and bottom boundary layers. The dissipation rate generally
25
26 increases from the mid-depth toward the seafloor, where rotating tidal flow generates turbulence
27
28 in the BBL at typical heights up to $2 - 5$ mab. The height of the turbulent boundary layer was
29
30 mainly governed by the magnitude of the tidal flow (Lozovatsky et al. 2008a), but it can also be
31
32 affected by other processes. A local maximum of the dissipation rate can be seen at $\zeta = 9 - 16$
33
34 mab, which is evident in individual dissipation profiles given in Section 5 (Fig. 8). It is possible
35
36 that this maximum is associated with enhanced local shear at the upper boundary of the weakly
37
38 stratified BBL. The BBL height h_B varied in time between $z = 27$ and 22 m ($\zeta = 11 - 16$ mab);
39
40 (see Fig. 3a and a combined plot of individual $T(z)$ and $S(z)$ profiles in Fig. 4). The enhanced
41
42 shear at h_B could also be related to a so-called near-bottom current ‘jet’ associated with a velocity
43
44 maximum that develops a few meters above the seafloor. Various processes potentially
45
46 responsible for a near-bottom ‘jet’ in ECS, including the interactions of tidal flow with internal
47
48 waves of various frequencies or inertial oscillations related to the rotating tidal vector, are
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

Fig. 4

1
2
3
4 discussed in Lozovatsky et al. (2008a).
5
6
7
8

9 **4. The log-layer approximation to the velocity profile U ($\xi = 0.04 - 0.48$ mab)**
10

11 The horizontal velocity $U(\xi)$ is assumed to satisfy the logarithmic model
12
13

$$14 \quad U(\xi) = (u_* / \kappa) \log(\xi / \xi_0) \quad (1)$$

15
16
17 near the bottom, provided that the flow is steady, fully developed, non-stratified and parallel. If
18

19 Eq. (1) fits experimental data, then the friction velocity u_* and aerodynamic roughness ξ_0 can
20

21 be estimated and the dissipation rate based on the law-of-the-wall
22
23

$$24 \quad \varepsilon_{wl}(\xi) = cu_*^3 / \kappa \xi, \quad (2)$$

25
26
27 can be calculated assuming a local balance between the shear production and viscous dissipation
28

29 of turbulent kinetic energy; $c \sim O(1)$.
30
31

32
33 A tidal current, being a non-steady flow, cannot formally satisfy many of these
34 requirements. In spite of such restrictions, logarithmic-like velocity profiles are often observed in
35 a variety of natural currents (e.g., Schauer 1987; Elliott 2002; Moum et al. 2002, 2004; Liu, Wu
36 et al. 2009), although, as pointed out earlier, u_* obtained via fitting velocity profiles to (1) and
37 that based on eddy correlations (Friedrichs and Wright 1997; Howarth and Souza 2005;
38 Lozovatsky et al. 2008b) do not agree for thick BBL ($h_B \sim 10$ m). This is probably due to the
39 violation of assumptions underlying the law-of-the-wall parameterization (Li 1994; Smith and
40 McLean 1977). In addition, the presence of stable stratification (e.g., Lien and Sanford 2004;
41 Perlin et al. 2005) and the details of bottom roughness and corresponding form drag (Li 1994;
42 Sanford and Lien 1999; Edwards et al. 2004) also contribute to the disparity. Lozovatsky et al.
43 (2008b) present further discussions on this issue with application to ECS shelf.
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
 2
 3
 4 In geophysical flows, the log-layer lies below a height where the effect of rotation begins to
 5
 6 be important (Lueck and Lu 1997). The lower boundary of the log-layer is proportional to ν/u_*
 7
 8 but the upper boundary is formally undefined, because the law-of-the-wall (2) is specified by a
 9
 10 single governing parameter u_* , which prevents formulation of a characteristic length scale. In a
 11
 12 reversing channelled tidal flow with semidiurnal tidal frequency ω_t , Lueck and Lu (1997) found a
 13
 14 departure of the velocity profile from the log-layer approximation (for boundary layers thicker
 15
 16 than 3.6 m) at the height $h_\omega = c_\omega(u_*/\omega_t)$, where $c_\omega = 0.04$. The height of log-layer is expected
 17
 18 to be less than the depth of the well-mixed bottom boundary layer, which in turn can be scaled as
 19
 20 $h_f = c_f(u_*/f)$ or $h_N = c_N(u_*/N)$, or $h_{Nf} = c_{Nf}(u_*/\sqrt{Nf})$, where f and N are the inertial and
 21
 22 buoyancy frequencies, respectively; see Lozovatsky et al. (2005). The most popular values for
 23
 24 the nondimensional constants are $c_f = 0.4$ (e.g., Weatherly and Martin 1978, and many others),
 25
 26 $c_{Nf} = 0.5 - 1.3$ (Zilitinkevich and Esau 2002; Weatherly and Martin 1978) and $c_N = 4 - 9$
 27
 28 (Kitaigorodskii 1992). The following estimates can thus be made on the upper limit of the
 29
 30 log-layer height at the test site: $h_f = 22$ m, $h_N = 4 - 7$ m, $h_{Nf} = 20 - 51$ m, and $h_\omega = 1.1$ m for
 31
 32 characteristic values $u_* \sim 0.004$ m/s, $N = 5 \times 10^{-3}$ s⁻¹, $f = 7.2 \times 10^{-5}$ s⁻¹, and $\omega_t = 1.4 \times 10^{-4}$
 33
 34 s⁻¹. Note that the estimate of h_ω may not be suitable for our measurements taken on the open shelf
 35
 36 in a rotating, but not oscillating channelled tidal flow, for which the formula $h_\omega = 0.04(u_*/\omega_t)$
 37
 38 was derived. A typical log-layer height reported for shallow tidal flows varies between 3 – 5 and
 39
 40 10 – 15 m, extending sometimes up to ~ 20 mab (Lueck and Lu 1997; Sanford and Lien 1999;
 41
 42 Elliott 2002; Lozovatsky et al. 2008a).
 43
 44
 45
 46
 47
 48
 49
 50
 51
 52
 53
 54
 55
 56

57 The original velocity data contained higher-frequency fluctuations caused by various
 58
 59 small-scale processes and noise. To obtain mean velocities uninfluenced by natural temporal
 60
 61

1
2
3
4 variations of smaller scales, the original records were run-averaged over consecutive overlapped
5
6 segments of the specified length $\tau/\Delta t$, where $\Delta t = 1$ min. Several examples of velocity
7
8 profiles $U_{(\tau=10)}(\xi)$ averaged over $\tau = 10$ min are given in Fig. 5. The measurements are well
9
10 approximated by the least-squared logarithmic fits especially for the periods of relatively large
11
12 velocity magnitudes. Note that the values of ξ_0 were very small (mainly in the range
13
14 $10^{-4} - 10^{-5}$ m) and so is the physical bottom roughness. The estimates of ξ_0 are very sensitive
15
16 to the accuracy of the fit. At several segments of the imperfect log fit ξ_0 became almost zero,
17
18 which is not unusual in oceanographic research (e.g., Bowden, 1978), but this may lead to higher
19
20 uncertainty of u_* estimates.
21
22
23
24
25
26
27

Fig. 5

28
29 To investigate the effects of the averaging time scale τ (Soulsby, 1980) on the
30
31 measurement of mean velocity near to the seafloor, $U_{\tau}(\xi) = [u_{\tau}^2(\xi) + v_{\tau}^2(\xi)]^{1/2}$ was evaluated
32
33 using a set of $\tau = 5, 10, 15$ min, which covers the time range between a pair of hourly MSS casts.
34
35 These short averaging periods are expected to present a quasi-stationary state of the barotropic
36
37 tide near the seafloor.
38
39
40

41
42 The goodness of the log-fits for individual $U_{\tau}(\xi)$ profiles was evaluated by the
43
44 coefficient of determination r^2 . The cumulative distribution functions CDF(r^2) (Fig. 6) indicate
45
46 that a logarithmic model with all selected τ is suitable ($r^2 > 0.8$) for almost all cases. Short
47
48 averaging scales $\tau = 5 - 15$ min led to a larger percentage of good ($r^2 > 0.8$), but not excellent
49
50 ($r^2 > 0.95$) fits, with $20\% < \text{CDF} < 40\%$ for $0.8 < r^2 < 0.95$.
51
52
53

Fig. 6

54
55 To estimate the time scales that start affecting the applicability of log-fits to the skin layer
56
57 flow of rotating tide of relatively small variability in magnitude, much longer $\tau = 30, 60, 90,$ and
58
59 120 min were used to calculate the corresponding r^2 . The $\tau = 30$ min averaging improves the
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
 2
 3
 4 goodness of the fits with $CDF < 10\%$ for $r^2 < 0.95$ and an approximate saturation of CDFs began
 5
 6 at $\tau = 60$ min with a very little change for $\tau = 90$ and 120 min. It is obvious that an increase
 7
 8 of the averaging time leads to a reduction of small-scale fluctuations in the mean velocity profile,
 9
 10 but on the other hand a tidal flow at 60 - 120 min segments, can hardly be considered as
 11
 12 quasi-steady. It is, however, plausible that the assumptions of parallel flow and stationarity are
 13
 14 less restrictive in determining force balance in the near-bottom skin layer of slowly rotating tidal
 15
 16 flow. The time scales of changes of mean velocity is also slow, several tens of minutes if not
 17
 18 hours for the vector magnitude (see the only slightly stretched empirical ellipses in Fig. 2b)
 19
 20 compared to turbulence time scales of several minutes. Thus the assumption $\partial U/\partial t \ll \partial \overline{u'w'}/\partial z$
 21
 22 facilitates the conditions necessary for the law-of-the-wall. Alternatively, one may argue that the
 23
 24 observed logarithmic profiles are corresponding to some yet-to-be identified dynamics and not
 25
 26 related to the canonical law-of-the-wall; however, if this hypothesis is correct, we expect the
 27
 28 coefficient κ to be very different from the classical value of the von Karman constant.
 29
 30
 31
 32
 33
 34
 35
 36
 37
 38

39 **5. Turbulence near the seafloor (MSS and ADCP-based dissipation profiles)**

40
 41
 42 The friction velocities u_* obtained from Eq. (1) vary in the range $\sim (1 - 7) \times 10^{-3}$ m/s for
 43
 44 cases where the principal semidiurnal tidal constituent is superimposed by irregular
 45
 46 shorter-period oscillations (period $\sim 40 - 50$ min and amplitude $\sim 0.5 \times 10^{-3}$ m/s; Fig. 7a). The
 47
 48 drag coefficient $C_D = u_*^2 / U_{(1)}^2$ is shown in Fig. 7b, where the mean velocity $U_{(1)}$ at $\xi = 1$ mab
 49
 50 (Ludwick 1975; Bowden 1978; Elliott 2002) was calculated based on that measured at $\xi = 0.48$
 51
 52 mab using the log-layer model (1). The mean value of $\overline{C_D} = 2.2 \times 10^{-3}$ is in general agreement
 53
 54 with common estimate $C_D = 2.5 \times 10^{-3}$ (e.g., Thorpe 2005). The mean ratio $\overline{u_* / U_{(0.48)}} = 0.046$
 55
 56
 57
 58
 59
 60
 61
 62
 63
 64
 65

Fig. 7

1
2
3
4
5 is close to the estimate of $\overline{u_* / U_{(0.45)}} = 0.041$ obtained on a shallow shelf near the Jiaozhou Bay
6
7 of ECS (Lozovatsky et al. 2008b) for $U(\zeta = 0.45 \text{ mab})$ as well as the ADV-based eddy
8
9 correlation estimates of u_* . It is not unusual that C_D varies substantially in tidal flows,
10
11 especially in rotating tidal currents (e.g., Green and McCave 1995; Elliot 2002; Lozovatsky et al.
12
13 2008b). Mobile bed forms, time-varying flow, and the lack of equilibrium between flow and
14
15 seabed (Ludwick 1975; Cheng et al. 1999) are some possible causes of non-constant C_D .
16
17
18
19

20
21 The estimates of u_* based on 10- and 30-min averaged velocity profiles were used to
22
23 calculate the law-of-the-wall dissipation profiles $\varepsilon_{wl}(\zeta)$ (Eq. 2) at the times of MSS casts. The
24
25 corresponding segments of $U_{(\tau=10)}$ and $U_{(\tau=30)}$ were centered at the beginning of each hour to
26
27 be consistent with the MSS measurements taken each hour 2 – 3 min apart. The dissipation
28
29 estimates from two consecutive MSS casts were averaged at each depth and the resulting
30
31 $\varepsilon_{mc}(\zeta)$ profiles were compared with $\varepsilon_{wl}(\zeta)$. Because the measurements were taken in a
32
33 rotating tidal flow, $c = 1.5$ was used in Eq. (2), following Lozovatsky et al. (2008b).
34
35
36
37
38

39 Eight of the 18 pairs of $\varepsilon_{mc}(\zeta)$ and $\varepsilon_{wl}(\zeta)$ profiles are shown as examples in Figs. 8 (a
40
41 – d) for the time periods where the flow was directed south, north, east, and west during one and
42
43 a half semidiurnal tidal cycles. For cases other than $t = 6, 7,$ and 17 hrs (westward upslope flow),
44
45 $\varepsilon_{mc}(\zeta)$ and $\varepsilon_{wl}(\zeta)$ are consistent at a specific height ζ close to the lower end of the MSS
46
47 profiles. In some cases ($t = 4, 9, 12, 15$ hrs) the two profiles are matching so that $\varepsilon_{wl}(\zeta)$ can be
48
49 construed as a continuation of $\varepsilon_{mc}(\zeta)$ down to the very bottom. For $t = 10$ and 13 hrs (Figs. 10b,
50
51 c) the profiles do not intersect, but the trends of MSS profiles indicate the possibility of
52
53 coincidence of $\varepsilon_{mc}(\zeta)$ and $\varepsilon_{wl}(\zeta)$. In general, the agreement between $\varepsilon_{mc}(\zeta)$ and $\varepsilon_{wl}(\zeta)$ is
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

Fig. 8

1
2
3
4 good, considering the myriad of uncertainties related to instrument accuracy, assumptions
5 involved, data processing methodology, and natural short-period intermittency of the dissipation
6 rate. This agreement corroborates the fairness of the assumptions of constant momentum flux
7 and the local equilibrium between shear production and viscous dissipation of turbulent kinetic
8 energy near the seafloor in rotating tidal flow over time scales 10 – 30 min. The height of
9 variability of the law-of-the-wall, which we defined as a point of the actual or expected
10 intersection of the MSS and ADCP dissipation profiles, varies from 2 – 3 mab ($t = 9$ and 10 hrs)
11 to 4 – 6 mab ($t = 4$ and 15 hrs) for $u_* = (4 - 6) \times 10^{-3}$ m/s.
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23

24 The shear induced turbulence near the seafloor dominates most of the rotating semidiurnal
25 cycle, but when the flow turns west (Fig. 8d) the shear production becomes weak due to
26 substantial reduction of tidal velocity (see Fig. 5, $t = 17, 6,$ and 7 hrs, where the mean U is less
27 than 0.06 m/s). When the ambient flow magnitude drops below this level, the log-layer
28 approximation ceases to be valid, so does the accuracy of friction velocity and dissipation
29 estimates. The worst agreement between $\varepsilon_{mc}(\xi)$ and $\varepsilon_{wl}(\xi)$ is seen in Fig. 8d, where almost
30 constant ε ($\sim (3 - 4) \times 10^{-8}$ W/kg at $t = 6$ hr and $\sim (6 - 8) \times 10^{-8}$ W/kg at $t = 17$ hr) extends up to 9
31 – 10 mab indicating an external source of turbulent kinetic energy in the middle of the water
32 column.
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48

49 **6. Discussion: A distant source of turbulence?**

50 **6a. Effect of internal waves**

51
52 The MSS measurements of ε and that calculated based on u_* using the law-of-the-wall
53 showed the applicability of the latter to CDW region of ECS shelf for all phases of the tidal flow
54 except for the periods when the flow was generally westward. During this phase ($t = 6, 7,$ and 17
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
 2
 3
 4 hrs), the smallest values of $u_* \approx 10^{-3}$ m/s (Fig. 7a) were noted and hence weak boundary layer
 5
 6
 7 turbulence [$\varepsilon_{wl}(\zeta = 0.04 \text{ mab}) = (3 - 8) \times 10^{-8}$ W/kg] was produced near the seafloor. The $\varepsilon_{mc}(\xi)$
 8
 9
 10 between the dissipation maximum near h_B and the seafloor in this case was more than an order
 11
 12 of magnitude larger than $\varepsilon_{wl}(\xi)$ (Fig. 8d). This could be related to the small bathymetric
 13
 14 irregularities of the area (about tens or hundreds meters wide and a few meters height) that are
 15
 16 not resolved by available bathymetric data (Fig. 1). The angle of the characteristics of IT
 17
 18 $\beta = \sqrt{\omega_T^2 - f^2 / N^2 - f^2} \approx 2.4 \times 10^{-2}$ is larger than the averaged bottom slope toward the coast,
 19
 20 $\alpha_{sl} \approx 1.4 \times 10^{-3}$, thus preventing direct generation of bottom turbulence by IT at the site (Kunze
 21
 22 and Llewellyn Smith 2004). However, a localized remote topographic rise over the main plain of
 23
 24 the seafloor (mean depth ~ 50 m), located at 30.75°N , 132.14°E with a summit $z = 25$ m below
 25
 26 the sea surface (Fig. 1), could have played a role in the generation of high dissipation at depths z
 27
 28 $= 25 - 35$ m. The approximate radius of this rise is about $2.5 - 3$ km between 25 and 35 m
 29
 30 isobaths. At this depth, the rise is located at a distance $dx \sim 15$ km to the test site (see details in
 31
 32 Fig. 1). The notion of the generation of a permanent turbulent zone surrounding the rise that
 33
 34 extends or shrinks depending on the phase of the tidal cycle is explored next. This turbulence can
 35
 36 be transported to the test site by the westward barotropic tidal and non-tidal currents.
 37
 38 Propagating tidal and shorter-period internal waves may also produce turbulence (e.g.,
 39
 40 Lozovatsky et al. 2003, Lee et al. 2006), and thus enhanced dissipation at the test site. Nonlocal
 41
 42 effects so induced cause violation of assumptions underlying the law-of-the-wall.
 43
 44
 45
 46
 47
 48
 49
 50
 51
 52

53 To substantiate this hypothesis, the depth (H) integrated internal tide generating body force
 54
 55
 56 $F = \frac{\bar{Q}}{\omega_T} \nabla \frac{1}{H} \int_0^H N^2 z dz$ (Baines 1982) was calculated to locate the likely hotspots of internal tide
 57
 58
 59
 60 generation in the region (e.g., Merrifield and Holloway 2002; Sherwin et al. 2002; Niwa and
 61
 62
 63
 64
 65

1
2
3
4 Hibiya 2004; Green et al. 2008); here $\bar{Q} = (Hu_T, Hv_T)$ is the barotropic tidal transport.
5
6
7 Analyzing SAR images, Azevedo et al. (2006) and da Silva et al. (2009) showed that not only IT
8
9 but also packets of non-linear internal waves (NLIW) are often generated at those bathymetric
10
11 hotspots where F is large ($F > 0.25 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2$). The IT generating body force F was calculated using
12
13 the OTIS tidal current vectors (<http://volkov.oce.orst.edu/tides>), the measured buoyancy
14
15 frequency profile at the test site and the water depth based on a high-resolution local bathymetry
16
17 database. The spatial variation of stratification was assumed to be insignificant within a
18
19 relatively small region surrounding the test site, and hence the tidally averaged buoyancy
20
21 frequency was taken as representative to the entire region. Historical hydrographical data in the
22
23 region support this assumption (not shown).
24
25
26
27
28

29 The results shown in Fig. 9 indicate that internal waves can be induced over the flanks of
30
31 the bathymetric rise and propagate away, which can be a likely source of topography-related
32
33 turbulence. Internal tidal waves that are generated at the ocean shelf break of ECS propagate
34
35 northwest toward shallower waters. Manifestation of intense NLIW packets with a phase speed
36
37 of about 1.6 m/s has been observed before the emergence of low tide in ECS, northeast of the
38
39 CDW region (Lee et al. 2006). Figure 9 affirms that IT and NLIW can be generated much closer
40
41 to the coast at localized topographic features such as a bathymetric rise near our test site, and
42
43 therefore the phenomenon reported by Lee et al. (2006) may very well exist there. As such,
44
45 topographic turbulence around the rise can be transported by NLIW (together with the westward
46
47 directed tidal current) to the test site (P11). In addition, the radiated internal waves can
48
49 degenerate at some distance from the rise, forming enhanced turbulence such as that seen near
50
51 P11. The latter has been observed in the Yellow Sea (Liu et al. 2009), where the dissipation rate
52
53 of NLIW-induced turbulence is increased by an order of magnitude. This scenario may explain
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

Fig. 9

1
2
3
4 the observations of enhanced dissipation (Fig. 8d) in the proximity of the low phase of barotropic
5 tide in ECS (Lee et al. 2006).
6
7

8 9 **6b. Topographic turbulence**

10
11 Because there are no microstructure measurements in the turbulent zone surrounding the
12 bathymetric rise, or as we call it a small ‘seamount’, the dissipation rate $\varepsilon(x)$ with distance x
13 from the source cannot be directly evaluated. Nevertheless, some estimates are possible using
14 indirect comparisons with similar turbulent zones elsewhere, wherein the dissipation
15 measurements have been taken at different distances from seamounts and small islands listed in
16 Section A1 of the Appendix.
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25

26
27 For example, a turbulent zone was observed in the upper ~ 100 m layer, west of the Baker
28 Island (Fig. 10a), in Equatorial Surface Current, while near the Castor seamount (Fig. 10b) it was
29 generated by a superposition of tidal flow and a weak southwestern non-tidal current (Korotenko
30 1995). East of the Howland Island (not shown here) turbulence was produced by the Equatorial
31 Undercurrent and the Irving seamount turbulent zone above and away from its summit was due
32 to the interaction of internal tide with bathymetry (Lavelle et al. 2004).
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41

Fig. 10

42 The estimates of $\bar{\varepsilon}$ averaged over the thickness of each turbulent zone (see Appendix,
43 Section A1 for details) are shown in Fig. 11 as a function of the distance x from the summits or
44 edges of the obstacles. In all five turbulent zones, $\bar{\varepsilon}(x)$ roughly follows $\bar{\varepsilon} \sim Cx^{-1}$, where the
45 dimension of C is $[\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-3}]$, which can be considered as cube of a characteristic velocity u_o .
46
47
48
49
50
51
52 Therefore,
53

Fig. 11

$$54 \quad \bar{\varepsilon}(x) = u_o^3 x^{-1}. \quad (3)$$

55
56
57 The characteristic velocity u_o depends on a number of factors, including velocity of the
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4 impinging flow, the dynamics of generated internal waves, small-scale topographic roughness
5
6 (Kunze and Toole 1997) and other factors. Figure 11 shows a high dissipation rate (approaching
7
8 $\sim 7 \times 10^{-9}$ W/kg), sometimes to a distance of ~ 20 km from all bathymetric features *regardless*
9
10 of the mechanism of turbulence generation (e.g., quasi unidirectional or rotating tidal flows).
11
12

13
14 A conservative estimate can be made using (3) with the lowest $u_o = 3.5 \times 10^{-2}$ m/s for the
15
16 “source dissipation” $\bar{\epsilon}_o$ (around the bathymetric rise) at approximately 15 km southeast from
17
18 the test site. For $\bar{\epsilon} \approx (3 - 7) \times 10^{-8}$ W/kg in the BBL at the slope (see Fig. 8d),
19
20 $\bar{\epsilon}_o \approx (5 - 10) \times 10^{-7}$ W/kg at $x = 1$ km from the approximate center of the rise. It is ten times
21
22 higher near ($x = 0.1$ km) the center. These are reasonable numbers for topographically induced
23
24 turbulence near the source, and consistent with Lueck and Mudge (1997), who showed
25
26 $\bar{\epsilon}_o > 10^{-6}$ W/kg near the summit of seamount Cobb and the dissipation rates above 10^{-7} W/kg at
27
28 a distance of 12 – 14 km from the summit. Therefore, reckoned topographically induced
29
30 turbulence around the bathymetric rise in the CDW region is high enough to explain the
31
32 observed enhancement of the dissipation rate at the test site in the presence of IT, non-linear
33
34 internal waves, and a westward directed barotropic tidal current.
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42

43 The empirical power law (3) shown in Fig. 11 can be supported by the following
44
45 theoretical consideration. Any property of a turbulent zone of thickness h_{tz} at a distance x
46
47 behind an obstacle (seamount or island) of diameter D , say it being the dissipation rate $\bar{\epsilon}$
48
49 (averaged over h_{tz}), can be written as
50
51

$$\bar{\epsilon} = \bar{\epsilon}(U_0, h_{tz}, D, x, N_0, z_r, \nu), \quad (4)$$

52
53 where x is the downstream distance, U_0 and N_0 are characteristic flow velocity and buoyancy
54
55 frequency, respectively, z_r is the roughness parameter and ν the kinematic viscosity (e.g.,
56
57
58
59
60
61

Brighton 1978). Note that h_{tz} itself is affected by the ratio between the obstacle height and the water depth. This general dimensional analysis allows relevant processes such as turbulence and internal wave generation. Therefore, it is possible to write

$$\bar{\varepsilon} = \frac{U_0^3}{x} f\left(\frac{U_0}{Nh_{tz}}, \frac{U_0 D}{\nu}, \frac{h_{tz}}{D}, \frac{h_{tz}}{z_r}, \frac{x}{D}\right) \quad (5)$$

where f is a function. The values of the first three variables are listed in Table 1 for the Baker Island and for the case in point. In the table, the present bathymetric feature is assumed to be subjected to $U_0 \approx 0.2 - 0.3$ m/s (velocity of the westward barotropic current at $t = 6, 7$, and 17 hrs; see U_{bt} in Fig. 2a), $N_0 = 2.2 \times 10^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$, $h_{tz} = 10$ m between $z = 25$ and 35 m, and $D \approx 6$ km (at $z = 30$ m). For the Baker Island $U_0 \approx 0.2$ m/s (Lilover et al. 1993), $N_0 \approx 8 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Lozovatsky 1996), $h_{tz} = 30$ m, $D = 2.6$ km in the depth range 50 – 80 m.

Table. 1

Note that the values of the turbulent zone Froude number $Fr_{tz} = U_0/Nh_{tz}$ are close to unity in both cases, suggesting strong internal wave activity. Because of large Reynolds numbers $Re_{tz} = U_0 D/\nu$ involved, dependence on it can be neglected (Reynolds number similarity). The ratio h_{tz}/D is very small suggesting little sensitivity of turbulence to this parameter at large x (e.g., Xu et al. 1995). Thus Eq. (5) for the present and Baker Island cases becomes

$$\bar{\varepsilon} = \frac{U_0^3}{x} f_1(x/D), \quad (6)$$

where f_1 in general depends on h_{tz}/D , Fr_{tz} , and h_{tz}/z_r , but this dependence is inconsequential for the cases considered here.

Measurements have shown that $\bar{\varepsilon} \sim x^{-1}$ (see Fig 11), indicating that f_1 is independent of x/D . Therefore

$$\bar{\varepsilon} = C \frac{U_0^3}{x}, \quad (7)$$

where $C = C(Fr_{tz}, h_{tz}/D, h_{tz}/z_r)$ is a constant that can be evaluated using the Baker Island data.

The normalized mean dissipation $\bar{\varepsilon}/(U_0^3/x)$, shown in Fig. 12 as a function of the normalized distance x/D west of the island, suggests $C = 0.03$, which can be used to estimate $\bar{\varepsilon}$ at the test site in ECS, west of the CDW ‘seamount’. The barotropic velocity of tidal flow $U_0 \approx 0.2 - 0.3$ m/s and constant C accounts for all other processes of turbulence generation, including internal tide and non-linear internal waves, its horizontal diffusion, and transport. Formula (7) gives $\bar{\varepsilon} \approx (1.6 - 5.4) \times 10^{-8}$ W/kg. These values of $\bar{\varepsilon}$ are in agreement with the MSS dissipation rates shown in Fig. 8d for $\zeta < 9 - 11$ mab (the depth range between $z = 27 - 29$ m and the seafloor). It was argued that turbulence therein is caused by nonlinear waves and to a lesser degree by wall/bottom shear. The analysis given above provides further support for this hypothesis, which is also supported by the observed alteration of temperature and salinity in the BBL (Appendix, Section A2) during the western and southwestern phases of tidal flow, which is a recurring process.

Fig. 12

7. Summary

The TKE dissipation rate profiles measured near the seafloor of the East China Sea (CDW region) by an MSS microstructure profiler over two semidiurnal cycles $\varepsilon_{mc}(\zeta)$ were compared with those evaluated using the law-of-the-wall $\varepsilon_{wl}(\zeta)$ (Eq. 2). In the latter, the friction velocity u_* was deduced by fitting the classical logarithmic velocity profile to the ADCP data very near the bottom ($\zeta = 0.04 - 0.4$ mab), thus ensuring the absence of stratification effects. The

1
2
3
4 sensitivity of u_* to various averaging time scales was tested, and averaging over 30 min
5
6 segments provided the highest coefficient of determination for log-layer fits, being at the same
7
8 time consistent with the assumption of quasi-stationary state of tidal flow over sufficiently short
9
10 time periods. The u_* during the tidal cycle was found to be in the range $(1 - 7) \times 10^{-3}$ m/s and
11
12 the mean value of the ratio $\langle u_*/U_{(\tau=30)} \rangle = 0.041$. The law-of-the-wall dissipation profiles
13
14 generally intersected with MSS profiles at $\zeta = 2 - 5$ mab, suggesting the applicability of the
15
16 law-of-the-wall for shallow tidally-affected waters with an averaging time of about 30 min.
17
18 When turbulence in the bottom boundary layer is influenced by external (non-local) sources, the
19
20 level of dissipation can be substantially higher than $\varepsilon_{wl}(\zeta)$. Assuming that non-local bathymetry
21
22 plays a role in enhancing $\varepsilon_{mc}(\zeta)$ [compared to $\varepsilon_{wl}(\zeta)$] in the lower 7 – 10 m of the water
23
24 column during the upslope (westward) phase of tidal currents in CDW region, it was
25
26 hypothesized that the interaction of tidal flow with a bathymetric rise to the east of the
27
28 observational site was responsible for producing and radiating energetic internal waves that
29
30 degenerate into turbulence. This leads to enhanced dissipation within BBL on the slope,
31
32 compared to that reckoned from the law-of-the-wall.
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42

43 The comparison of the present case with the dissipation measurements in turbulent zones
44
45 around other seamounts and small islands shows that enhanced dissipation in the BBL at the test
46
47 site could be interpreted quantitatively on the premise that the internal tide and nonlinear internal
48
49 waves, aided by the westward barotropic tidal component, generate and transport turbulence
50
51 upslope for distances as much as 15 km (to the test site). This is further supported by the
52
53 observations of Lee et al. (2006) that show how solitary internal waves in ECS generate
54
55 turbulence during the course of propagation, which can enhance dissipation levels over
56
57 substantial distances from the source. Examples given in Section 6b indicate that
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4 internal-wave-generated turbulence at isolated topographic features in deep or shallow oceans
5
6 can occupy extensive areas, where topography-related turbulence horizontally diffuses and can
7
8 be transported long distances. The flow around a small ‘seamount’ in the CDW region of ECS
9
10 may have a hydrodynamic similarity with those (Fig. 11), based on which $\bar{\epsilon}(x)$ were estimated
11
12 surrounding the seamount (rise) and infer its influence on the dissipation within the BBL upslope
13
14 to the west. Note that when the tidal currents change direction, the internal wave propagation
15
16 toward the test site is impeded so is the enhancement of turbulence at the test site. Under such
17
18 conditions, the log-law based dissipation estimates are expected to be valid.
19
20
21
22
23
24
25

26 **Appendix**

27 **A1.**

28
29 In section 6b, we explore the data obtained by Russian oceanographers with the
30
31 participation of the first author using a “Baklan” microstructure profiler (Paka et al. 1999) and a
32
33 lowered ADCP (Lilover et al. 1993; Lozovatsky 1996) at the seamounts Ampere ($\varphi = 12^{\circ}53'W$,
34
35 $\lambda = 35^{\circ}03'N$; the summit is at a depth $z_{sm} \sim 60$ m), Irving ($30.87^{\circ}N$, $28.65^{\circ}W$; $z_{sm} \sim 265$ m) and
36
37 Castor (a small pinnacle atop of the Great Meteor central summit plain at its southern tip,
38
39 $29.44^{\circ}N$, $29.26^{\circ}W$; $z_{sm} \sim 270$ m) in the Eastern Atlantic and two small equatorial islands in the
40
41 equatorial Pacific - the Baker ($0^{\circ}11.5'N$, $176^{\circ}29'W$) and the Howland ($0^{\circ}48.1'N$, $176^{\circ}38.05'W$)
42
43 islands. The summits of Ampere and Castor are also small, $\sim 2 - 3$ km in diameter (Nabatov and
44
45 Ozmidov 1988; Gibson et al. 1993; Korotenko 1995; Mohn and Beckmann 2002), but Irving
46
47 summit is larger, approximately 5 over 9 km (Lozovatsky 1999; Lavelle et al. 2004). The
48
49 diameter of the Baker Island at the sea surface is ~ 1 km; the short E-W axis of the Howland
50
51 Island is about the same size, but its long NNW-SSE axis is ~ 2 km (Lilover et al. 1993).
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59

60 Despite the differences of mesoscale dynamics around the selected bathymetric features
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4 (persistent currents in the Equatorial Pacific vs. dominant tidal flows in the Eastern Atlantic)
5
6
7 extended turbulent zone were always generated around these topographies.

8
9 To investigate how the averaged dissipation rate over the depth of a turbulent zone $\bar{\epsilon}$ vary
10
11 with the distance from these topographic features, we selected the depth range $\Delta z = 50 - 80$ m
12
13 for the Baker Island [the upper ~ 50 m of the water column were affected by surface processes,
14
15 Fig. 10a], $\Delta z = 120 - 170$ m for the Howland Island [from the upper boundary of the turbulent
16
17 zone to the maximum profiling depth], $\Delta z = 30 - 65$ m for Ampere seamount [between the
18
19 summit floor and the bottom of the wind-affected upper layer (Gibson et al. 1993)], $\Delta z = 145 -$
20
21 195 m for the Castor seamount (the choice is evident from Fig. 10b), and $\Delta z = 90 - 140$ m for
22
23 seamount Irving [mid portion of the turbulent column generated above the summit].
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31

32 **A2.**

33
34 The alteration of temperature and salinity in the BBL, which was observed during the
35
36 western and southwestern phases of tidal flow, is also consistent with the hypothesis of the
37
38 advective origin of the enhanced turbulence in the BBL observed at the test site during the phase
39
40 of the western directed tidal flow. Between $t = 13$ and 17 hrs, T and S in the BBL (below h_B ,
41
42 which is depicted in Fig. 4) continuously increased/decreased with time (from 21.17 to 21.34°C
43
44 and from 33.75 to 33.63 psu) indicating advection of warmer fresher water to the test site. This
45
46 water could not be transported onshore along the seafloor from deeper depths, where temperature
47
48 is lower and salinity is higher, although it could be advected from shallower depths. The
49
50 bathymetric rise shown in Fig. 1 to the east of the test side is the only region where warmer and
51
52 less saline water can be found near the bottom. For $\epsilon_{mc}(\xi)$ pertinent to other sectors of tidal
53
54 flow, this topographic effect does not influence the law-of-the-wall dissipation rate, which is
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4 consistent with the undisturbed dissipation values at upper levels. Note that it is a recurring
5
6 process, with approximately the tidal period, and thus the observed effect should not emerge
7
8 during one tidal excursion but exist in a quasi stationary state for the time of relatively persistent
9
10 stratification in the region.
11
12
13
14

15 16 **Acknowledgements**

17
18 The authors are grateful to scientists and students at Ocean University of China led by Prof. Hao
19
20 Wei for arranging logistics of data collection. The effort was supported by the Major State
21
22 Program of China for Basic Research (grant No. 2006CB400602). The analysis presented in this
23
24 paper was supported by the US Office of Naval Research (grant N00014-05-1-0245), the
25
26 National Natural Science Foundation of China (Z. Liu, grants 41006017 and 41076001), the
27
28 Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities (Z. Liu, grant No. 2010121031),
29
30 Arizona State University (J. Armengol as a visiting researcher), and by the Spanish Ministry of
31
32 Education and Science (E. Roget, grant FIS2008-03608).
33
34
35
36
37
38
39

40 41 **References**

- 42
43 Azevedo A, da Silva JCB, New AL (2006) On the generation and propagation of internal solitary
44
45 waves in the southern Bay of Biscay. *Deep-Sea Res I* 53:927–941.
46
47
48
49 Baines PG (1982) On internal tide generation models. *Deep-Sea Res A* 29:307–338.
50
51
52 Bowden KF (1978) Physical problems of the benthic boundary layer. *Geophys Surveys*
53
54 3:255–296.
55
56
57
58 Brighton PWM (1978) Strong stratified flow past three-dimensional obstacles. *Q J Roy Meteorol*
59
60
61

1
2
3
4
5 Soc 104:289–307.
6
7

8 Cheng RT, Ling CH, Gartner JW (1999) Estimates of bottom roughness length and bottom shear
9 stress in South San Francisco Bay, California. *J Geophys Res* 104:7715–7728.
10
11

12
13 da Silva JCB, New AL, Magalhaes JM (2009) Internal solitary waves in the Mozambique
14 Channel: Observations and interpretation. *J Geophys Res* 114:C05001. doi:10.1029/
15 2008JC005125.
16
17
18
19

20
21 Edwards KA, MacCready P, Moum JN, Pawlak G, Klymak JM, Perlin A (2004) Form drag and
22 mixing due to tidal flow past a sharp point. *J Phys Oceanogr* 34:1297–1312.
23
24
25

26
27 Egbert GD, Erofeeva SY (2002) Efficient inverse modeling of barotropic ocean tides. *J Atmos*
28 *Oceanic Tech* 19:183–204.
29
30

31
32 Elliott AJ (2002) The boundary layer character of tidal currents in the Eastern Irish Sea. *Estuar*
33 *Coast Shelf Sci* 55:465–480.
34
35
36

37
38 Foster DL, Beach RA, Holman RA (2000) Field observations of the wave bottom boundary layer.
39 *J Geophys Res* 105:19634–19647.
40
41
42

43 Friedrichs CT, Wright LD (1997) Sensitivity of bottom stress and bottom roughness estimates to
44 density stratification, Eckernförde Bay, Southern Baltic Sea. *J Geophys Res* 102:5721–5732.
45
46
47

48
49 Gargett AE, Osborn TR, Nasmyth PW (1984): Local isotropy and the decay of turbulence in a
50 stratified fluid. *J Fluid Mech* 144:231–280.
51
52
53

54 Gibson CH, Nabatov V, Ozmidov R (1993) Measurements of turbulence and fossil turbulence
55 near Ampere seamount. *Dynam Atmos Ocean* 19:175–204.
56
57
58

59
60 Green JAM., Simpson JH, Legg S, Palmer MR (2008) Internal waves, baroclinic energy fluxes
61
62
63
64
65

- 1
2
3
4
5 and mixing at the European shelf edge. *Cont Shelf Res* 28:937–950.
6
7
8 Green MO, McCave IN (1995) Seabed drag coefficient under tidal currents in the eastern Irish
9
10 Sea. *J Geophys Res* 100:16,057–16,069. doi:10.1029/95JC01381.
11
12
13 Howarth MJ, Souza AJ (2005) Reynolds stress observations in continental shelf seas. *Deep-Sea*
14
15 *Res II* 52:1075–1086.
16
17
18 Kitaigorodskii SA (1992) The location of thermal shelf fronts and the variability of the heights of
19
20 thermal boundary layers. *Tellus A* 44:425– 433.
21
22
23 Kitaigorodskii SA, Joffre SM (1988) In search of a simple scaling for the height of the stratified
24
25 atmospheric boundary layer. *Tellus A* 40:419– 433.
26
27
28 Korotenko KA (1995) On the formation of mesoscale inhomogeneities of the matter
29
30 concentration field in a local upwelling zone of the ocean. *Oceanology English Translation*
31
32 *34(4):445–451*.
33
34
35 Kunze E, Toole JM (1997) Tidally driven vorticity, diurnal shear, and turbulence atop Fieberling
36
37 Seamount. *J Phys Oceanogr* 27:2663–2693.
38
39
40 Kunze E, Llewellyn Smith SG (2004) The role of small scale topography in turbulent mixing of
41
42 the global ocean. *Oceanography* 17:51–60.
43
44
45 Lavelle JW, Lozovatsky ID, Smith IV DC (2004) Tidally induced turbulent mixing at Irving
46
47 Seamount—modeling and measurements. *Geophys Res Lett* 31:L10308.
48
49 doi:10.1029/2004GL019706.
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57 Lee JH, Lozovatsky I, Jang ST, Jang CJ, Hong CS, Fernando HJS (2006) Episodes of nonlinear
58
59 internal waves in the northern East China Sea. *Geophys Res Lett* 33:L18601.
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4
5 doi:10.1029/2006GL027136.
6

7
8 Li MZ (1994) Direct skin friction measurements and stress partitioning over movable sand
9
10 ripples. *J Geophys Res* 99:791–799.
11

12
13 Lien RC, Sanford TB (2004) Turbulence spectra and local similarity scaling in a strongly
14
15 stratified oceanic bottom boundary layer. *Cont Shelf Res* 24:375–392.
16
17

18
19 Lilover M, Lozovatsky ID, Gibson CH, Nabatov VN (1993) Turbulent exchange through the
20
21 Equatorial Undercurrent core of the Central Pacific. *J Mar Syst* 4:183–195.
22

23
24 Liu H, Wu C, Xu W, Wu J (2009) Contrasts between estuarine and river systems in near-bed
25
26 turbulent flows in the Zhujiang (Pearl River) Estuary, China. *Estuar Coast Shelf Sci*
27
28 83:591–601.
29

30
31
32 Liu Z, Wei H, Lozovatsky ID, Fernando HJS (2009) Late summer stratification, internal waves,
33
34 and turbulence in the Yellow Sea. *J Mar Syst* 77:459–472.
35
36

37
38 Lozovatsky ID (1996) Turbulence decay in stratified and homogeneous marine layers. *Dynam*
39
40 *Atmos Ocean* 24:15–25.
41

42
43 Lozovatsky ID (1999) Seamount turbulence: Generation and decay. Abstracts of XXII General
44
45 Assembly of IUGG, Birmingham, UK.
46
47

48
49 Lozovatsky ID, Fernando HJS (2002) Turbulent mixing on a shallow shelf of the Black Sea. *J*
50
51 *Phys Oceanogr* 32:945–956.
52

53
54 Lozovatsky ID, Morozov EG, Fernando HJS (2003) Spatial decay of energy density of tidal
55
56 internal waves. *J Geophys Res* 108:3201. doi:10.1029/2001JC001169.
57

58
59
60 Lozovatsky I, Figueroa M, Roget E, Fernando HJS, Shapovalov S (2005) Observations and
61

- 1
2
3
4
5 scaling of the upper mixed layer in the North Atlantic. *J Geophys Res* 110:C05013.
6
7 doi:10.1029/2004JC002708.
8
9
- 10 Lozovatsky ID, Liu Z, Wei H, Fernando, HJS (2008a) Tides and mixing in the northwestern East
11
12 China Sea Part I: Rotating and reversing flows. *Cont Shelf Res* 28:318–337.
13
14
15 Lozovatsky ID, Liu Z, Wei H, Fernando HJS (2008b) Tides and mixing in the northwestern East
16
17 China Sea Part II: Near-bottom turbulence. *Cont Shelf Res* 28:338–350.
18
19
20 Lu Y, Lueck RG (1999) Using a broadband ADCP in a tidal channel Part II: Turbulence. *J*
21
22 *Atmos Oceanic Tech* 16:1568–1579.
23
24
25 Ludwick JC (1975) Variations in the boundary-drag coefficient in the tidal entrance to
26
27 Chesapeake Bay, Virginia. *Mar Geol* 19:19–28.
28
29
30 Lueck RG, Mudge TD (1997) Topographically induced mixing around a shallow seamount.
31
32 *Science* 276:1831–1833.
33
34
35 Lueck RG, Lu Y (1997) The logarithmic layer in a tidal channel. *Cont Shelf Res* 17:1785–1801.
36
37
38 MacKinnon JA, Gregg MC (2003) Mixing on the late-summer New England Shelf – solibores,
39
40 shear and stratification. *J Phys Oceanogr* 33:1476–1492.
41
42
43 Matsuno T, Lee JS, Shimizu M, Kim SH, Pang IC (2006) Measurements of the turbulent energy
44
45 dissipation rate ε and an evaluation of the dispersion process of the Changjiang Diluted
46
47 Water in the East China Sea. *J Geophys Res* 111:C11S09. doi:10.1029/2005JC003196.
48
49
50 Merrifield MA, Holloway PE (2002) Model estimates of M_2 internal tide energetics at the
51
52 Hawaiian Ridge. *J Geophys Res* 107: 3179. doi:10.1029/2001JC00996.
53
54
55 Mohn C, Beckmann A (2002) The upper ocean circulation at Great Meteor Seamount. Part I:
56
57
58
59

- 1
2
3
4
5 Structure of density and flow fields. *Ocean Dyn* 52:179–193.
6
7
8 Moum JN, Caldwell DR, Nash JD, Gundersen GD (2002) Observations of boundary mixing over
9
10 the continental slope. *J Phys Oceanogr* 32:2113–2130.
11
12
13 Moum JN, Perlin A, Klymak JM, Levine MD, Boyd T, Kosro PM (2004) Convectively driven
14
15 mixing in the bottom boundary layer. *J Phys Oceanogr* 34:2189–2202.
16
17
18 Mueller, DS Abad JD, García CM, Gartner JW, García MH, Oberg KA (2007) Errors in acoustic
19
20 Doppler profiler velocity measurements caused by flow disturbance *J Hydr Engrg* 133(12):
21
22 1411-1420.
23
24
25
26
27 Muste M, Dongsu K., González-Castro JA (2010) Near-transducer errors in ADCP
28
29 measurements: experimental findings *J Hydr Engrg* 136(5): 275-289.
30
31
32
33 Niwa Y, Hibiya T (2004) Three-dimensional numerical simulation of M_2 internal tides in the
34
35 East China Sea. *J Geophys Res* 109:C04027. doi:10.1029/2003JC001923.
36
37
38 Nabatov VN, Ozmidov RV (1988) A study of turbulence over underwater mountains in the
39
40 Atlantic Ocean. *Oceanology* 28:210– 217 (in Russian).
41
42
43 Oakey NS (1982) Determination of the rate of dissipation of turbulent energy from simultaneous
44
45 temperature and velocity shear microstructure measurements. *J Phys Oceanogr* 12:256–271.
46
47
48
49 Paka VT, Nabatov VN, Lozovatsky ID, Dillon TM (1999) Oceanic microstructure measurements
50
51 by “Baklan” and “Grif”. *J Atmos Oceanic Tech* 16:1519–1532.
52
53
54
55 Palmer MR, Rippeth TP, Simpson JH (2008) An investigation of internal mixing in a seasonally
56
57 stratified shelf sea. *J Geophys Res* 113: C12005. doi:10.1029/2007JC004531.
58
59
60 Perlin A, Moum JN, Klymak JM, Levine MD, Boyd T, Kosro PM (2005) A modified
61
62
63
64
65

- 1
2
3
4
5 law-of-the-wall applied to oceanic bottom boundary layers. *J Geophys Res* 110:C10S10.
6
7 doi:10.1029/2004JC002310.
8
9
- 10 Prandke H, Stips A (1998) Test measurements with an operational microstructure-turbulence
11
12 profiler: Detection limits of dissipation rates. *Aquat Sci* 60:191–209.
13
14
- 15 Rippeth TP, Inall ME (2002) Observations of the internal tide and associated mixing across the
16
17 Malin Shelf. *J Geophys Res* 107:3028. doi:10.1029/2000JC000761.
18
19
- 20 Roget E, Lozovatsky I, Sanchez X, Figueroa M (2006) Microstructure measurements in natural
21
22 waters: Methodology and applications. *Prog Oceanogr* 70:123–148.
23
24
- 25 Sanford TB, Lien RC (1999) Turbulent properties in a homogeneous tidal bottom boundary layer.
26
27
28
29
30
31 *J Geophys Res* 104:1245–1257. doi:10.1029/1998JC900068.
- 32 Schauer U (1987) Determination of bottom boundary layer parameters at two shallow sea sites
33
34
35
36
37 using the profile method. *Cont Shelf Res* 7:1211–1230.
- 38 Sherwin TJ, Vlasenko VI, Stashchuk N, Jeans DRG, Jones B (2002) Along-slope generation as
39
40
41
42
43 an explanation for some unusually large internal tides. *Deep-Sea Res I* 49:1787–1799.
- 44 Soulsby R. 1980 Selecting record length and digitization rate for near-bed turbulence
45
46
47
48 measurements. *J. Phys. Oceanogr* 10(2):208-219.
- 49 Simpson JH, Crawford WR, Rippeth TP, Campbell AR, Cheek JVS (1996) The vertical structure
50
51
52
53
54 of turbulent dissipation in shelf seas. *J Phys Oceanogr* 26:1579–1590.
- 55 Smith JD, McLean SR (1977) Spatially averaged flow over a wavy surface. *J Geophys Res*
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65 82:1735–1746.
- 60 Stacey MT, Monismith SG, Burau JR (1999) Measurements of Reynolds stress profiles in tidal

1
2
3
4
5 flows. *J Geophys Res* 104:10933–10949.
6

7
8 Taylor JR, Sarkar S (2008) Stratification effects in a bottom Ekman layer. *J Phys Oceanogr*
9
10 38:2535–2555.
11

12
13 Thorpe SA (2005) *The turbulent ocean*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.
14

15
16 Weatherly GL, Martin PJ (1978) On the dynamics and structure of the oceanic bottom boundary
17
18 layer. *J Phys Oceanogr* 8:557–570.
19

20
21 Wolk F, Yamazaki H, Seuront L, Lueck RG (2002) A new free-fall profiler for measuring
22
23 biophysical microstructure. *J Atmos Oceanic Tech* 19:780–793.
24

25
26
27 Xu Y, Fernando HJS, Boyer DL (1995) Turbulent wake of stratified flow passed a cylinder. *Phys*
28
29 *Fluids* 7:2243–2255.
30

31
32
33 Zilitinkevich SS, Esau I (2002) On integral measures of the neutral barotropic planetary
34
35 boundary layers. *Bound-Layer Meteorol* 104:371–379.
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4
5 **Figure Captions**
6
7

8 Fig. 1. The measurement site (circled snowflake) and surrounding bathymetry. The double-head
9
10 arrow represents the radius of a bathymetric rise, which is about 2.5 – 3 km between 25
11
12 and 35 m isobaths. The distance from the rise to the site is shown by a single-head arrow.
13
14

15 Fig. 2. (a) The surface elevation ξ_{BT} of barotropic tide (OTIS calculation) at the test site [the
16
17 period of microstructure measurements is thickened and the pressure gauge data are
18
19 shown by diamonds]. (b) The 10-min running averaged time series of zonal u and
20
21 meridional v current components at various heights ζ above the seafloor. (c) The
22
23 clockwise rotating ADCP current ellipses at same heights as in (b) with 1 hr time step
24
25 (left and lower axes) and the OTIS barotropic tidal ellipse (right and upper axes). Time in
26
27 hours from the beginning of ADCP measurements [0, 3, 6, 9, 12, 15, 18] is depicted for ζ
28
29 = 0.4 mab (magenta) and for the OTIS ellipses.
30
31
32
33
34

35 Fig. 3. (a) Time-depth variation of the logarithm of the dissipation rate ε (color palette) overlaid
36
37 by contours of specific potential density σ_θ . Splitting of the main pycnocline is
38
39 highlighted by the rectangle between $t = 14$ and 23 hrs and $z > 14$ m.
40
41
42 (b) Temperature and salinity at isopycnal surfaces below the near-surface sharp
43
44 thermocline ($\sigma_\theta > 21$, $z > \sim 8 - 11$ m); an approximate central position of the pycnocline
45
46 splitting is marked by a dashed line ($\sigma_\theta = 23$) corresponding to the depth range $\sim 21 - 23$
47
48
49 m.
50
51
52
53

54 Fig. 4. Temperature (a) and salinity (b) profiles obtained during the first 18 hrs of
55
56 measurements (hourly casts started at 9:00 Sep 3, 2006); $\max(h_B)$ and $\min(h_B)$ are the
57
58 estimated maximum and minimum heights of a weakly-stratified BBL in all 18 profiles.
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4
5 Fig. 5. Examples of the 10-min averaged near-bottom ADCP velocity profiles $U(\xi)$. The
6
7 profiles are shown with a 3-hr time interval; two additional profiles (at 7 and 17 hrs) are
8
9 added for a phase of very weak western upslope flow. The least squared fits to the
10
11 logarithmic model are shown by continuous lines.
12
13
14
15

16 Fig. 6. The cumulative distribution functions $CDF(r^2)$ of the coefficient of determination r^2 for
17
18 the logarithmic fit to the velocity profiles $U(\xi)$ in the range $\xi = 0.04 - 0.48$ mab for
19
20 averaging with different time scales τ (note that $r^2 < 0.5$ for only 1% of the 5-min
21
22 averaged profiles).
23
24
25
26

27 Fig. 7. The friction velocities u_* obtained via logarithmic fits to the velocity profiles $U_\tau(\xi)$
28
29 averaged with different time scales τ (a), and the drag coefficient $C_D = u_*^2 / U_{(1m)}^2$ for
30
31 non-overlapping 10-min segments (b).
32
33
34

35 Fig. 8. The MMS dissipation profiles $\varepsilon_{mc}(\xi)$ and the law-of-the-wall profiles $\varepsilon_{wl}(\xi)$ for (a)
36
37 along-slope southward flow, (b) along-slope northward flow, (c) across-slope eastward
38
39 flow, and (d) across-slope westward flow ($\tau = 30$ and 10 min).
40
41
42
43

44 Fig. 9. The magnitude of the internal tide generating body force F near and to the east of the test
45
46 site (P11) in the background of a local bathymetry (the isobaths -30, ..., -60 are marked
47
48 in meters). The black curves encircle the areas with $F > 0.25 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2$.
49
50
51
52

53 Fig. 10. The dissipation rate ($\log_{10} \varepsilon$) west of the Baker Island (a) and to the southwest of the
54
55 summit of seamount Castor (b). The upper 100-m layer in (a) was occupied by a turbulent
56
57 zone of the Equatorial Surface Current. The shaded region in (a) and the area bounded by
58
59
60
61

1
2
3
4
5 dashed lines in (b) are the turbulent zones selected for calculating the respective averaged
6
7
8 dissipations $\bar{\varepsilon}(x)$.
9

10 Fig. 11. The averaged dissipation rate $\bar{\varepsilon}(x)$ at a distance x downstream from the summits of
11
12 the designated seamounts and islands. The inverse distance dependences $\bar{\varepsilon} = u_o^3 x^{-1}$ are
13
14 shown for three characteristic velocity scales u_o (straight and dashed lines) that span
15
16 variability of external forcing; the values of u_o are indicated.
17
18
19
20

21 Fig. 12. The averaged dissipation rate $\tilde{\varepsilon}(x/D)$ west of the Baker Island; x/D the
22
23 normalized distance westward of the island and $D = 2.6$ km the island diameter in the
24
25 depth range 50 – 80 m.
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

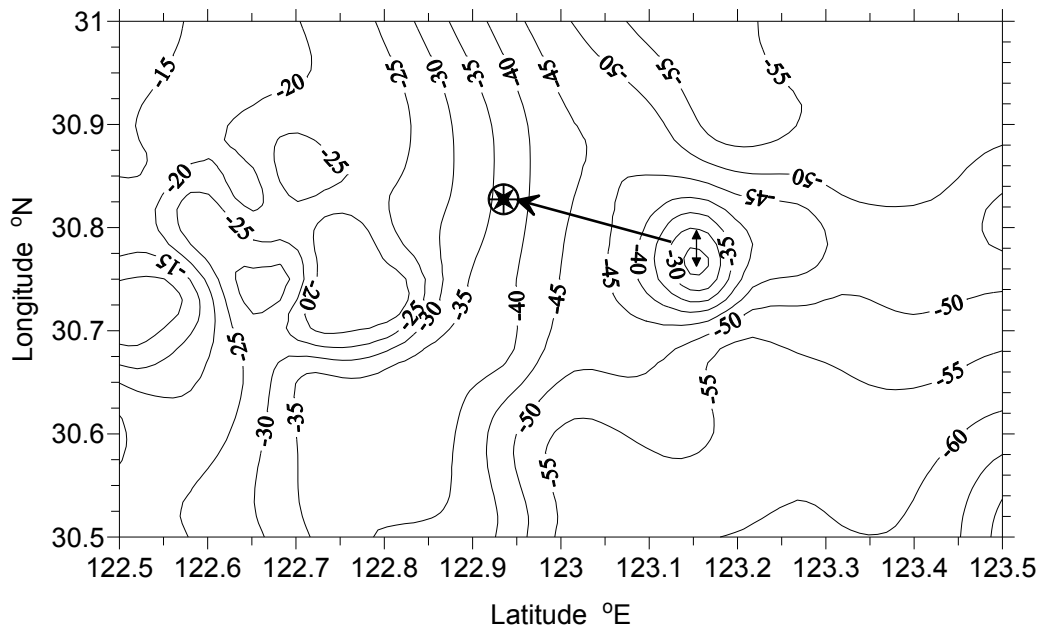
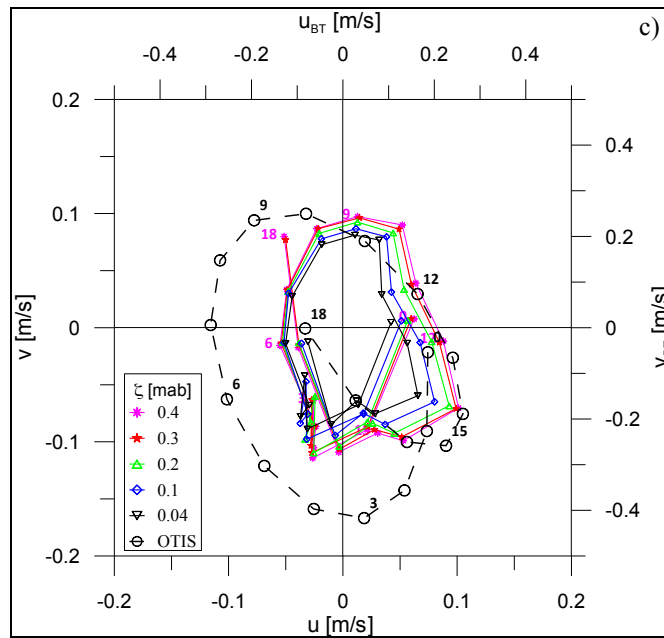
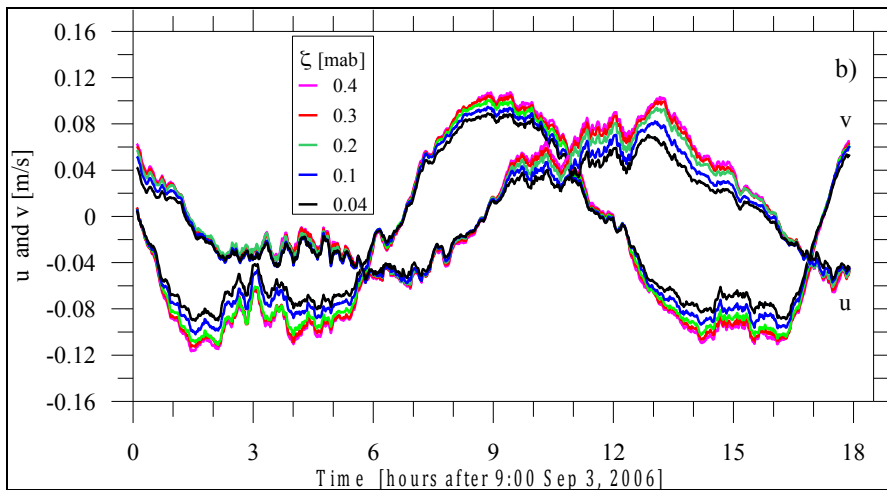
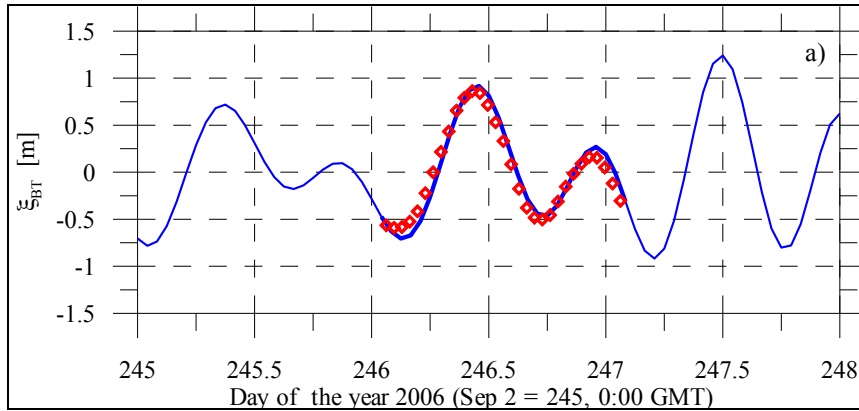


Fig.1. The measurement site (circled snowflake) and surrounding bathymetry. The double-head arrow represents the radius of a bathymetric rise, which is about 2.5 – 3 km between 25 and 35 m isobaths. The distance from the rise to the site is shown by a single-head arrow.

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65



1
2
3
4 Fig.2. (a) The surface elevation ξ_{BT} of barotropic tide (OTIS calculation) at the test site [the
5 period of microstructure measurements is thickened and the pressure gauge data are
6 shown by diamonds]. (b) The 10-min running averaged time series of zonal u and
7 meridional v current components at various heights ζ above the seafloor. (c) The
8 clockwise rotating ADCP current ellipses at same heights as in (b) with 1 hr time step
9 (left and lower axes) and the OTIS barotropic tidal ellipse (right and upper axes). Time in
10 hours from the beginning of ADCP measurements [0, 3, 6, 9, 12, 15, 18] is depicted for ζ
11 = 0.4 mab (magenta) and for the OTIS ellipses.
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49

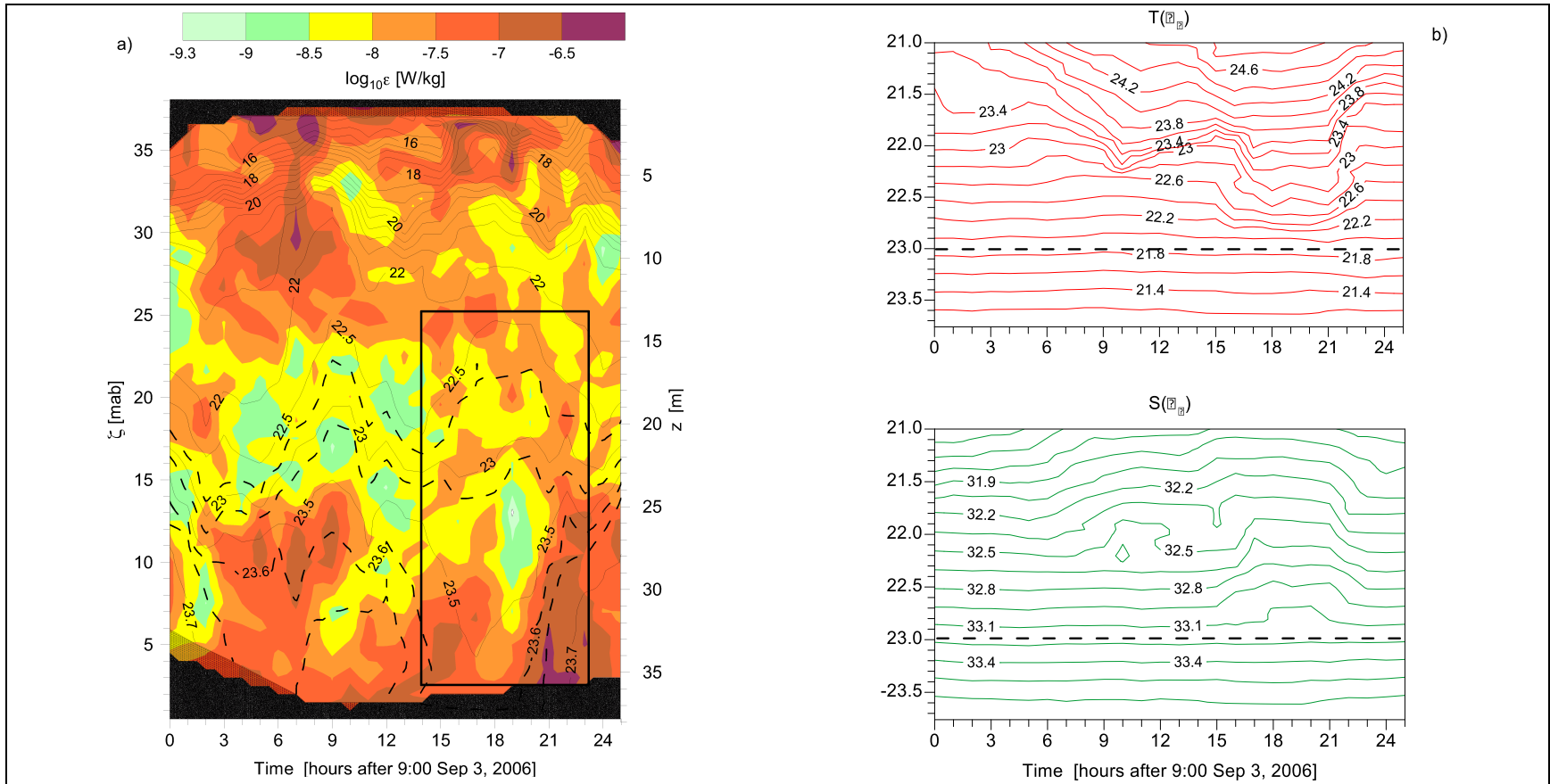


Fig.3. (a) Time-depth variation of the logarithm of the dissipation rate ϵ (color palette) overlaid by contours of specific potential density σ_θ . Splitting of the main pycnocline is highlighted by the rectangle between $t = 14$ and 23 hrs and $z > 14$ m. (b) Temperature and salinity at isopycnal surfaces below the near-surface sharp thermocline ($\sigma_\theta > 21$, $z > \sim 8 - 11$ m); an approximate central position of the pycnocline splitting is marked by a dashed line ($\sigma_\theta = 23$) corresponding to the depth range $\sim 21 - 23$ m.

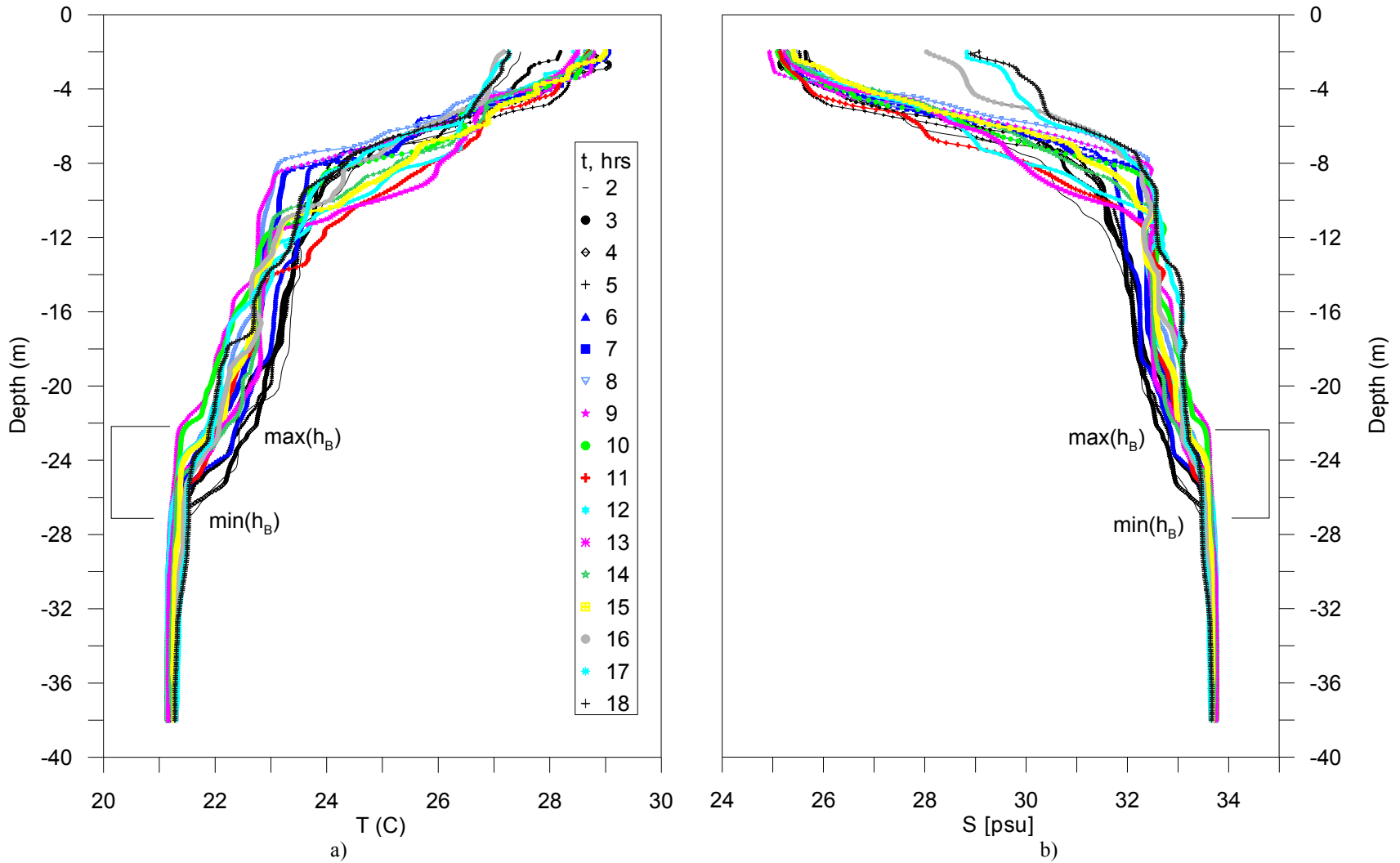


Fig.4. Temperature (a) and salinity (b) profiles obtained during the first 18 hrs of measurements (hourly casts started at 9:00 Sep 3, 2006); $\max(h_B)$ and $\min(h_B)$ are the estimated maximum and minimum heights of a weakly-stratified BBL in all 18 profiles.

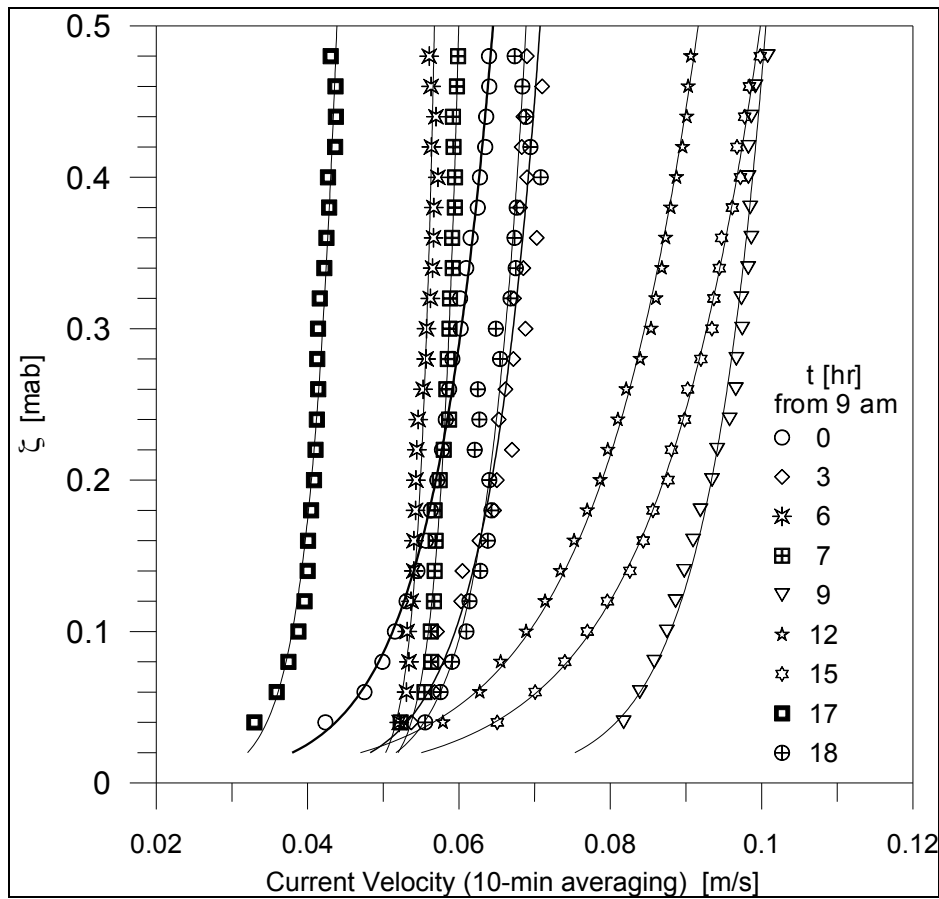


Fig.5. Examples of the 10-min averaged near-bottom ADCP velocity profiles $U(\zeta)$. The profiles are shown with a 3-hr time interval; two additional profiles (at 7 and 17 hrs) are added for a phase of very weak western upslope flow. The least squared fits to the logarithmic model are shown by continuous lines.

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

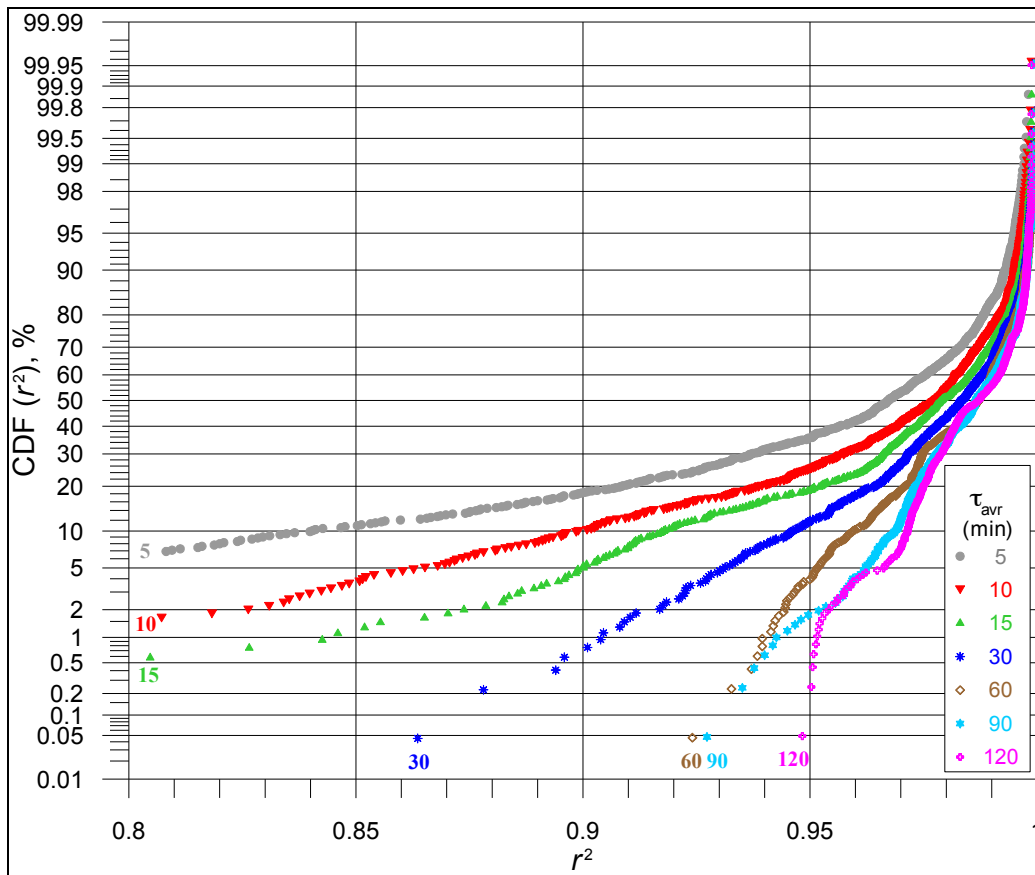


Fig.6. The cumulative distribution functions $CDF(r^2)$ of the coefficient of determination r^2 for the logarithmic fit to the velocity profiles $U(\xi)$ in the range $\xi = 0.04 - 0.48$ mab for averaging with different time scales τ (note that $r^2 < 0.5$ for only 1% of the 5-min averaged profiles).

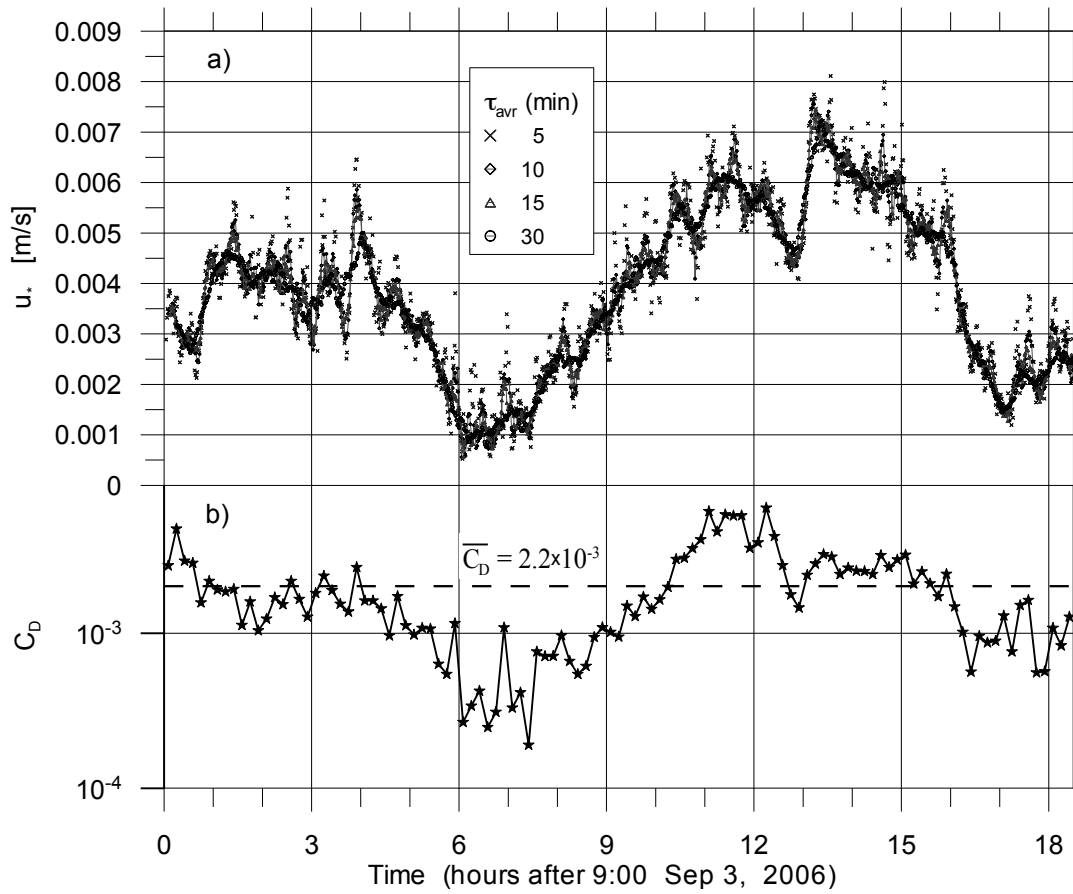


Fig.7. The friction velocities u_* obtained via logarithmic fits to the velocity profiles $U_\tau(\xi)$ averaged with different time scales τ (a), and the drag coefficient $C_D = u_*^2 / U_{(1m)}^2$ for non-overlapping 10-min segments (b).

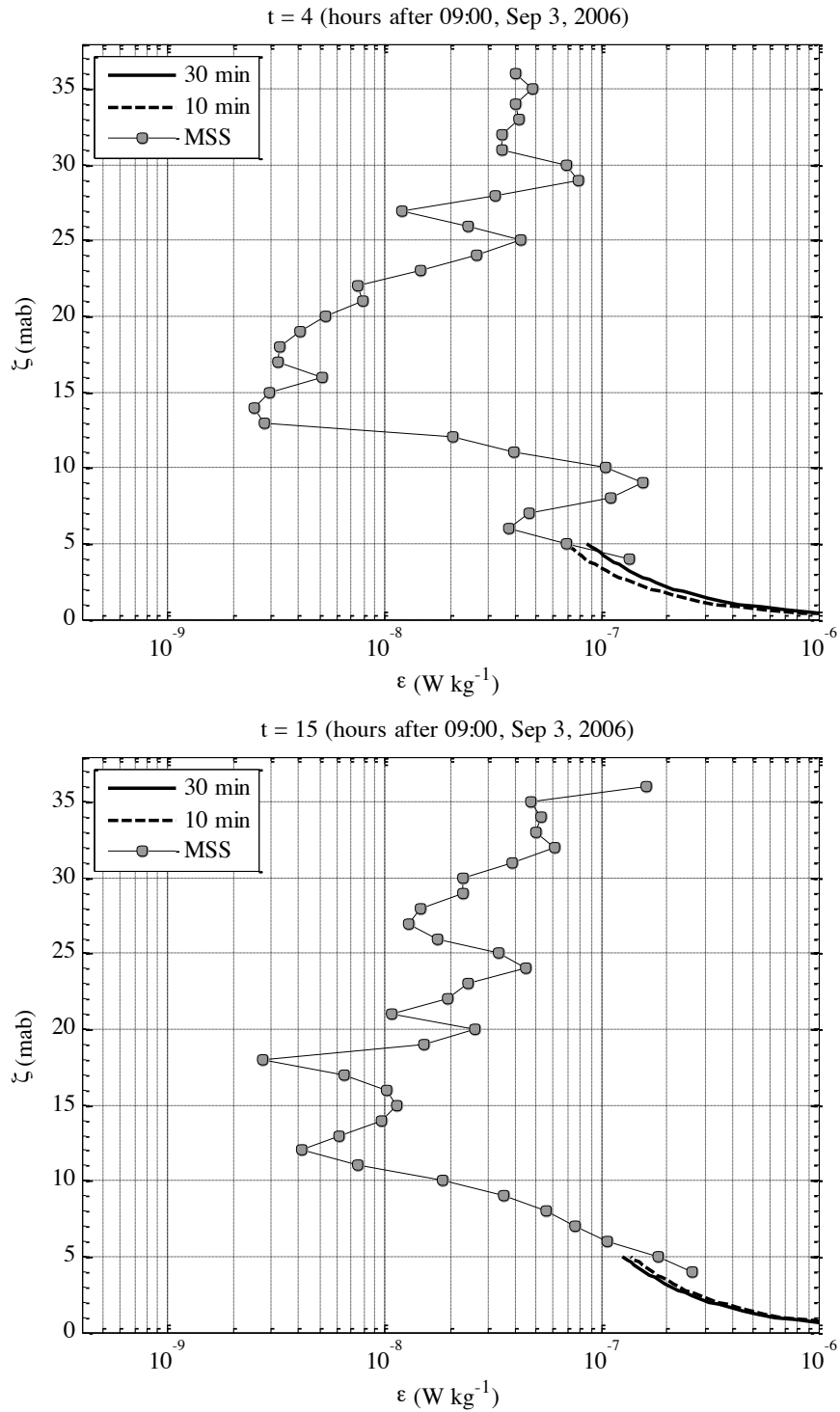


Fig.8a. The MSS $\varepsilon_{mc}(\zeta)$ and the law-of-the-wall $\varepsilon_{wl}(\zeta)$ dissipation profiles for along-slope southward flow ($\tau = 30$ and 10 min).

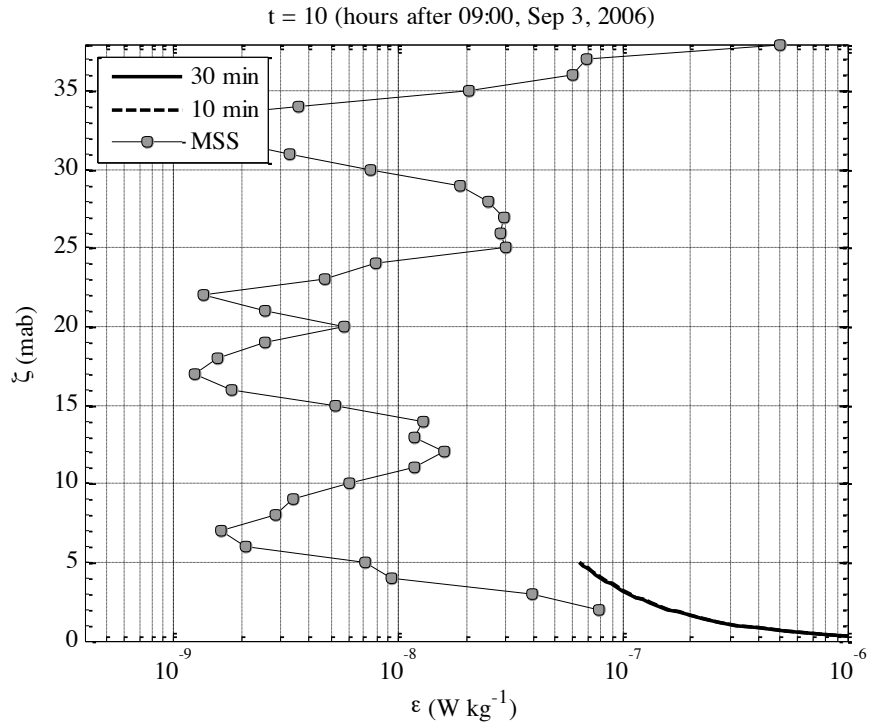
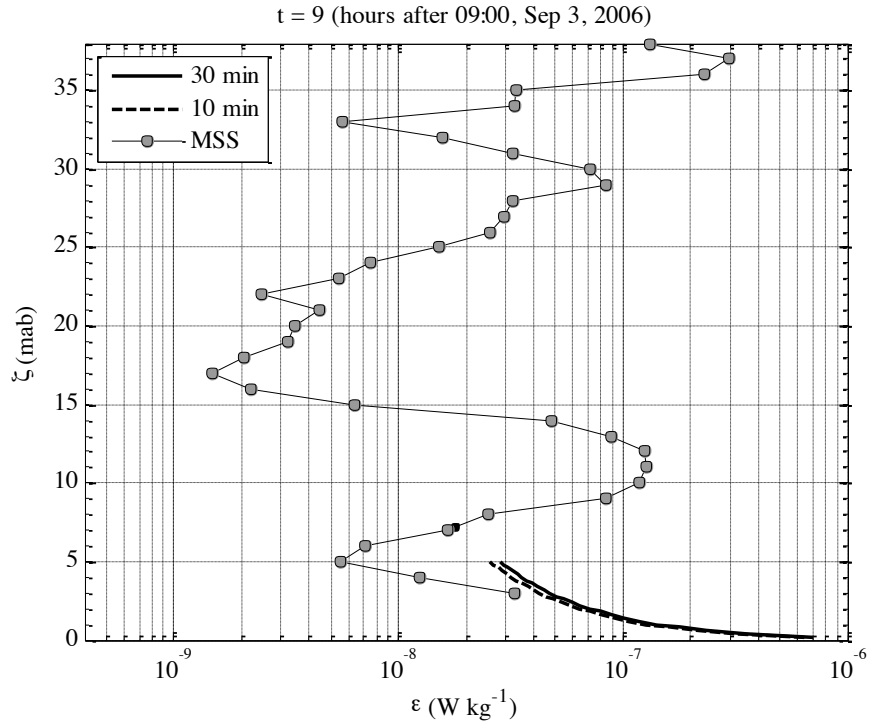
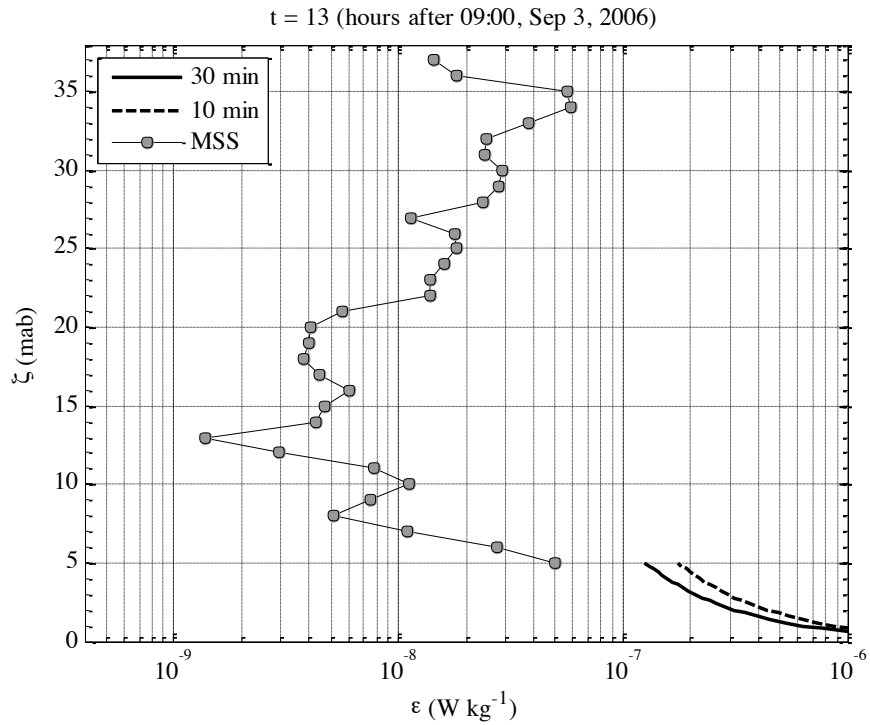
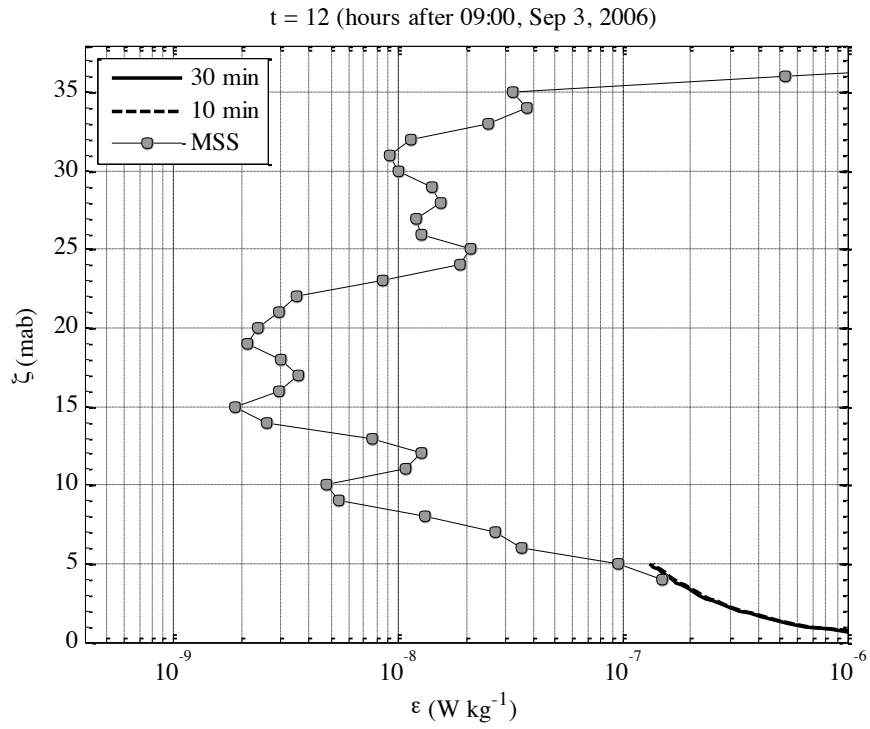


Fig.8b. The MSS $\varepsilon_{mc}(\zeta)$ and the law-of-the-wall $\varepsilon_{wl}(\zeta)$ dissipation profiles for along-slope northward flow.



57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

Fig.8c. The MSS $\epsilon_{mc}(\zeta)$ and the law-of-the-wall $\epsilon_{wl}(\zeta)$ dissipation profiles for across-slope eastward flow.

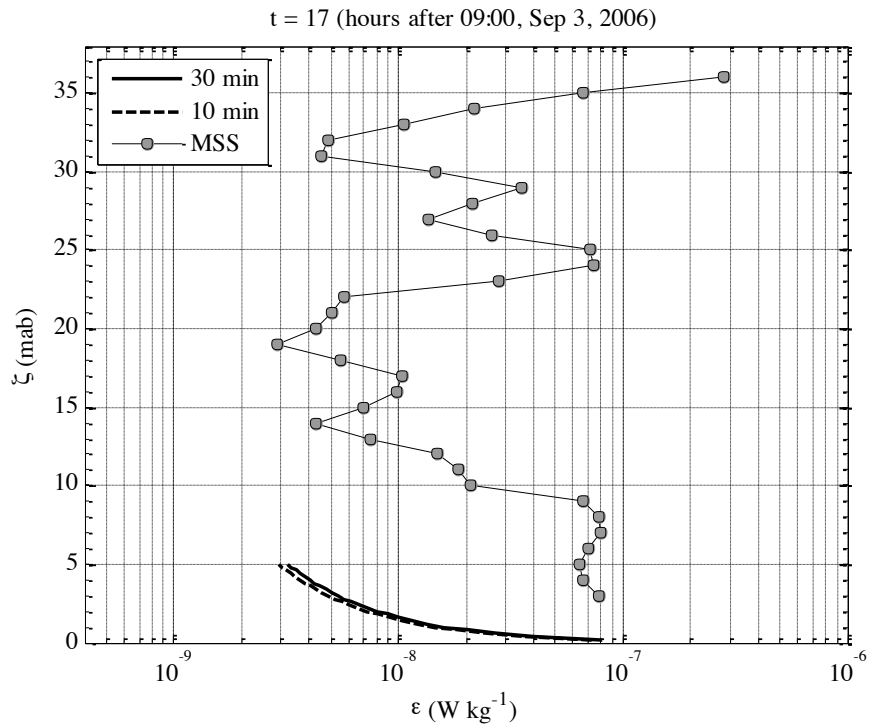
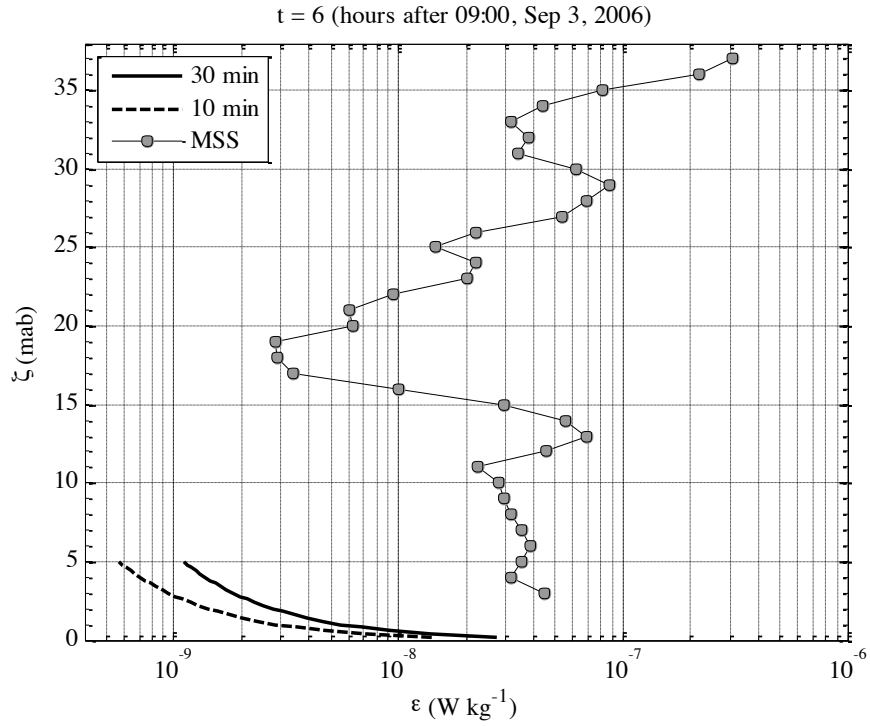


Fig.8d. The MSS $\varepsilon_{mc}(\zeta)$ and the law-of-the-wall $\varepsilon_{wl}(\zeta)$ dissipation profiles for across-slope westward flow.

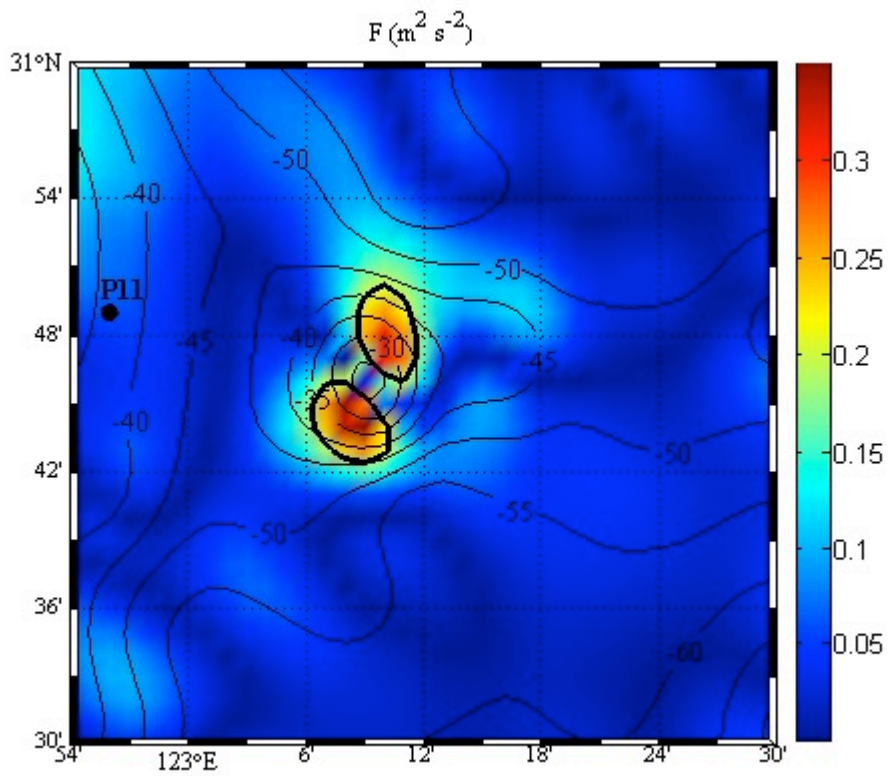


Fig.9. The magnitude of the internal tide generating body force F near and to the east of the test site (P11) in the background of a local bathymetry (the isobaths -30, ..., -60 are marked in meters). The black curves encircle the areas with $F > 0.25 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2$.

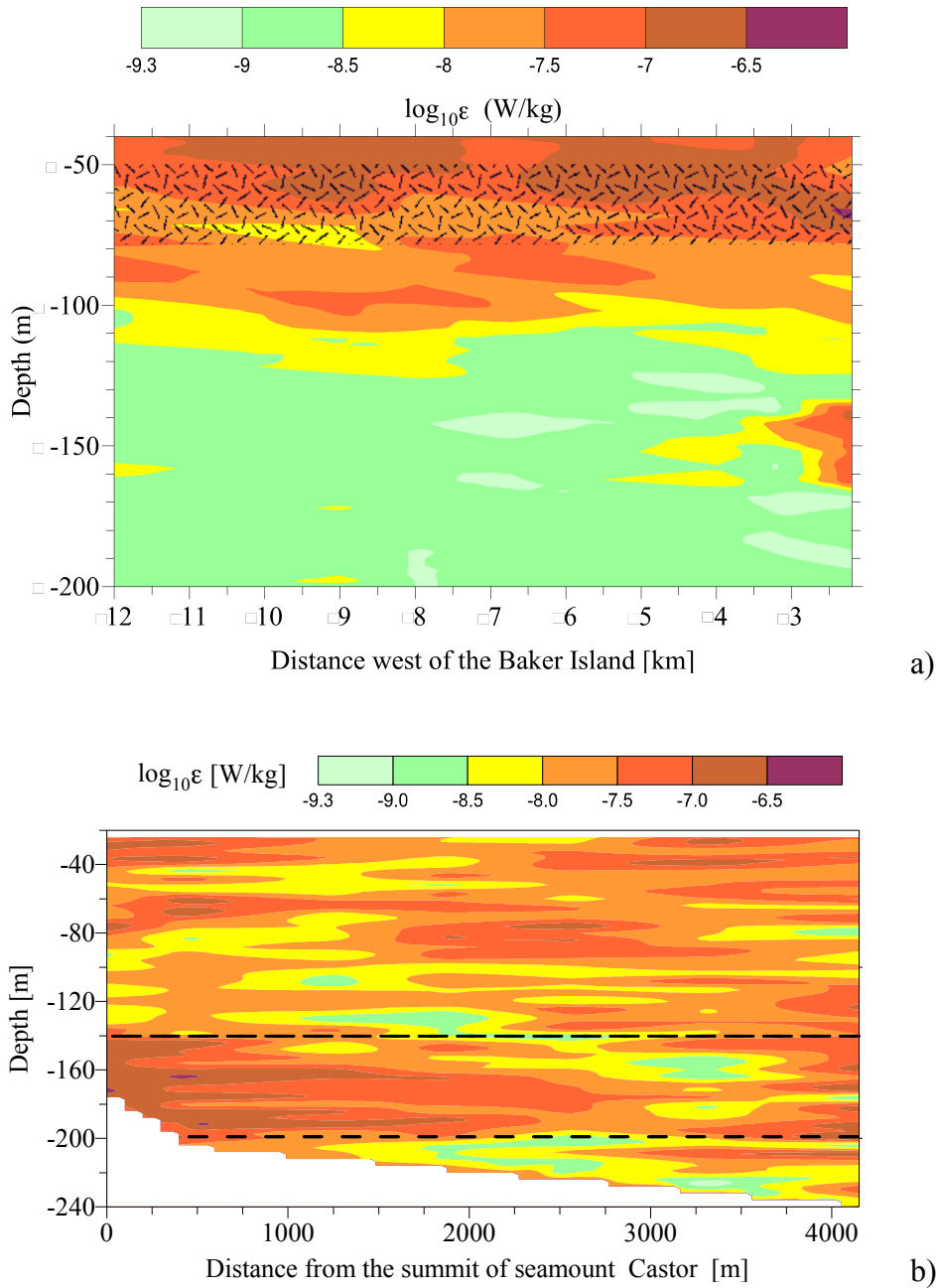


Fig.10. The dissipation rate ($\log_{10} \epsilon$) west of the Baker Island (a) and to the southwest of the summit of seamount Castor (b). The upper 100-m layer in (a) was occupied by a turbulent zone of the Equatorial Surface Current. The shaded region in (a) and the area bounded by dashed lines in (b) are the turbulent zones selected for calculating the respective averaged dissipations $\bar{\epsilon}(x)$.

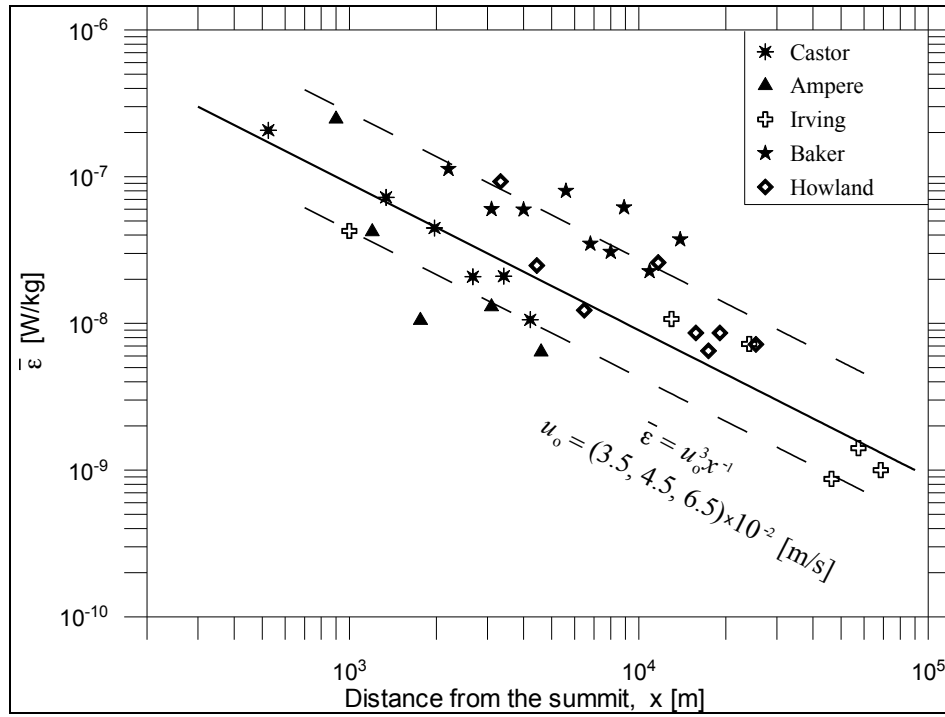


Fig.11. The averaged dissipation rate $\bar{\epsilon}(x)$ at a distance x downstream from the summits of the designated seamounts and islands. The inverse distance dependences $\bar{\epsilon} = u_o^3 x^{-1}$ are shown for three characteristic velocity scales u_o (straight and dashed lines) that span variability of external forcing; the values of u_o are indicated.

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

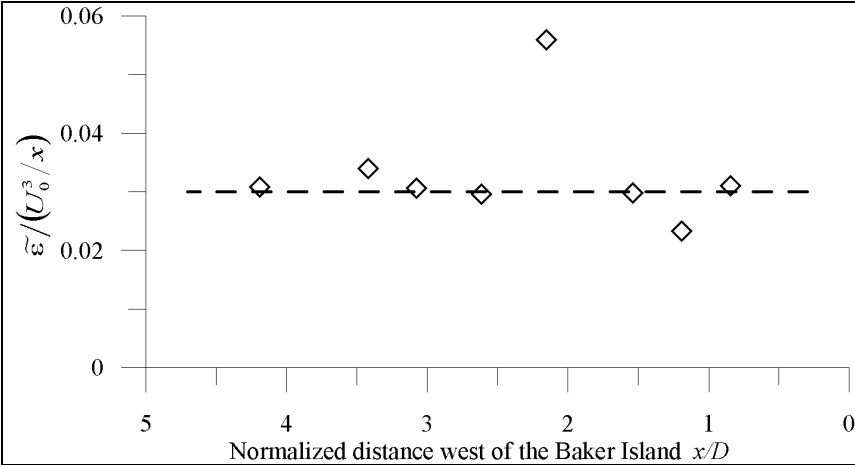


Fig.12. The averaged dissipation rate $\tilde{\epsilon}(x/D)$ in the wake of the Baker Island; x/D the normalized distance westward of the island and $D = 2.6$ km the island diameter in the depth range 50 – 80 m.

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

Table 1. Values of the turbulent zone Froude Fr_{tz} and Reynolds Re_{tz} numbers and the ratio h_{tz}/D , where h_{tz} is a thickness of the turbulent zone at a distance x behind an obstacle (seamount or island) of diameter D .

Topography	$Fr_{tz} = U_0/N_0h_{tz}$	$Re_{tz} = U_0D/\nu$	h_{tz}/D
Baker Island	0.83	5.2×10^8	1.2×10^{-2}
Present case	0.91 – 1.36	$(1.2 - 1.8) \times 10^9$	1.7×10^{-3}

Response to Reviewers' Comments

Two minor corrections have been made, as kindly pointed out by the two reviewers. We greatly appreciate the two reviewers for their critical reviews and very helpful comments. We thank the Editor, Dr. Alex Souza for his editorial work!

Lozovatsky, Liu, Fernando, Armengol, and Roget