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1 **Focusing of baroclinic tidal energy in a canyon**

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Abstract.

Strong three dimensional focusing of internal tidal energy in the Petite Sole Canyon in the Celtic Sea is analysed using observational data and numerical modelling. In a deep layer (500-800m) in the centre of the canyon shear variance was elevated by an order of magnitude. Corresponding large vertical oscillations of deep isotherms, and a local maximum of horizontal velocity were replicated numerically using the MITgcm. The elevated internal tidal activity in the deep part of the canyon is explained in terms of the downward propagation and focusing of multiple internal tidal beams generated at the shelf break. The near-circular shape of the canyon head and steep bottom topography throughout the canyon (steeper than the tidal beam) create favourable conditions for the lens-like focusing of tidal energy in the canyon's centre. Observations and modeling show that the energy focusing greatly intensifies local diapycnal mixing, that leads to local formation of a baroclinic eddy.

1. Introduction

17 Oceanic canyons are potential places for significant tidal energy conversion from the
 18 barotropic to baroclinic modes, with major implications for water mass mixing. According
 19 to *Hickey* [1995], nearly 20% of the shelf edge between Alaska and the equator is dominated
 20 by steep, narrow, and abrupt canyons. Historically, the first and most extensively studied
 21 canyon was La Jolla Canyon (California). The results by *Shepard* [1974] and *Gordon and*
 22 *Marshall* [1976] showed that steep canyons can act as a trap for tidally generated internal
 23 waves. Specifically, it was recognised that the dynamical processes occurring in canyons
 24 strongly depend on the ratio of the maximum bottom steepness ($S_{topo} = \partial H/\partial l$) (here
 25 $H(x, y)$ is the water depth, and l is the direction of the maximum bottom gradient) to
 26 the inclination of the characteristic paths of the internal wave energy propagation

$$27 \quad S_{wave} = dz/dl = \pm[(\omega^2 - f^2)/(N^2(z) - \omega^2)]^{1/2} \quad (1)$$

28 where ω is the tidal frequency, f is the Coriolis parameter, and $N(z)$ is the buoyancy
 29 frequency. In other words, in terms of the mechanism of internal wave dynamics, the
 30 following parameter

$$31 \quad \alpha(x, y, z) = \frac{S_{topo}}{S_{wave}} = \frac{|\partial H/\partial l|}{[(\omega^2 - f^2)/(N^2(z) - \omega^2)]^{1/2}} \quad (2)$$

32 is the principal measure of the bottom steepness that distinguishes two very different
 33 regimes of tidal energy conversion. Schematically they are presented in Figure 1. For
 34 specificity, the buoyancy frequency measured in a canyon of the Celtic Sea (reported in
 35 [*Vlasenko and Stashchuk*, 2015]) is used for the analysis, see Figure 1 a.

36 In a subcritical regime, when the condition $\alpha < 1$ is valid over the whole domain, it is
37 mostly the lower tidal baroclinic modes that are generated. This regime is presented in
38 Figure 1 b.

39 Over “steep” topographies, for which $\alpha > 1$ occurs at least for some fragments of a given
40 slope, the supercritical regime of tidal energy conversion, presented in Figure 1 c (below
41 point C), is fulfilled. In this regime internal tidal energy is concentrated in a narrow
42 internal tidal beam (magenta stripe in Figure 1 c) that radiates energy away from bottom
43 fragments where $\alpha = 1$. The energy propagates in the tidal beam upward and downward
44 along characteristic line (1) with group velocity C_g while the wave phase propagates across
45 the beam with the phase speed C_p , Figure 1 c. In fact, it is not only the point C with
46 $\alpha = 1$ is the place of the beam formation. A wider area A-B where the bottom inclination
47 is close to critical is the place of the beam generation. More on different regimes of tidal
48 energy conversion can be found in *Vlasenko et al.* [2005]).

49 Note that the tidal beam is a superposition of many baroclinic modes, and the presence
50 of a beam is evidence of higher mode excitation. For a typical “V”-shaped canyon with
51 $\alpha \geq 1$ the baroclinic tidal energy is trapped inside the canyon, being able only to propagate
52 downward reflecting many times from canyon’s steep flanks without any opportunity of
53 escape.

54 The importance of the relative bottom steepness α for internal wave dynamics in canyons
55 was acknowledged by *Petruncio et al.* [1998] in their interpretation of measurements con-
56 ducted in another well-studied canyon, - Monterey Submarine Canyon. Note, however,
57 that in further analyses (for example *Zhao et al.* [2012]) the focus was predominantly on

58 the investigation of the energetic characteristics of internal waves and turbulent mixing
59 without proper reference to the topographic steepness.

60 Some studies on the baroclinic dynamics in canyons were conducted for an idealized
61 bottom profile by *Baines* [1983]; *Grimshaw et al.* [1985]. A more realistic model set
62 up, specifically, the real bottom topography, was taken in a further series of numerical
63 experiments performed for Monterey Submarine Canyon area: *Petruncio et al.* [2002]
64 used POM, *Jachec et al.* [2006] operated with SUNTANS, and *Hall and Carter* [2011]
65 used POM to investigate internal tides in the canyon area. However, the specific role of
66 the relative steepness α of the canyon topography in the distribution of the baroclinic
67 wave energy was not investigated in any of these studies. Specifically, the structure of the
68 baroclinic tidal field in the areas where $\alpha > 1$, a common occurrence, has not hitherto
69 been discussed in detail.

70 The purpose of this paper is to interpret the three-dimensional effects of internal tidal
71 dynamics that are seen to occur in supercritical canyons. In particular, an original obser-
72 vational data set collected in a supercritical canyon in the Celtic Sea is analysed here in
73 terms of the focusing of internal tidal energy radiated from the areas with critical bottom
74 inclination.

2. Observations

75 The Celtic Sea is a 200 meter deep, wide shelf sea with a large number of headlands
76 and canyons along its shelf edge, Figure 2 a. Observations analysed here were conducted
77 on the 376-th cruise of the RRS “Discovery” (hereafter D376) in June 2012, as part of the
78 FASTNEt study to quantify the cross shelf transport on the NE Atlantic Ocean margin.
79 With relevance to this paper, 14 repeat “yo-yo” CTD profiles were conducted at a station

80 precisely in the middle of the Petite Sole Canyon presented in Figure 2 b. Vertical profiles
 81 were repeated with approximately one hour time interval to the depth of approximately
 82 1000 m. In addition to the CTD probe, a downward looking TRDI WHM 300kHz LADCP
 83 was mounted on the frame, so that each CTD profile was accompanied by a vertical profile
 84 of currents.

85 All 14 “yo-yo” temperature profiles $T_j(z)$ ($j = 1, 2, 3, \dots, 14$) are presented in Figure 3 a
 86 by blue lines. The red line shows an equilibrium temperature distribution calculated as an
 87 average temperature at each depth. Comparing all individual temperature profiles $T_j(z)$
 88 with the average $T(z)$ one can see that the largest deviations of every individual profile
 89 from the average take place in two zones: in the surface 150 m layer, and between 500 m
 90 and 900 m depth. Assuming that these deviations were caused by the dynamical processes
 91 developing in the canyon, the vertical displacement ζ_j of every individual isotherm on every
 92 profile from its equilibrium state (which the averaged temperature profile represents) can
 93 be calculated using the following formula:

$$94 \quad \zeta_j = \frac{|T_j - T|}{\partial T / \partial z}$$

95 An average profile of isotherms displacements, calculated as $1/14 \sum_{j=1}^{14} \zeta_j(z)$, is presented in
 96 Figure 3 b. It shows that the maximum vertical displacements of isotherms, up to 45 m,
 97 are located in deep water, between 600 and 800 m depth.

98 Note that the maximum baroclinic horizontal velocities at the “yo-yo” station were, as
 99 expected, recorded by the LADCP in the surface layer. However, Figure 3 b suggests that
 100 a comparable contribution of the 600-800 m depth layer to the internal wave energy is also
 101 expected. In order to quantify the kinetic energy of dynamical processes developing at
 102 the “yo-yo” station, an average profile of horizontal velocities for all 14 LADCP sampling

103 was calculated as follows

$$104 \quad U(z) = 1/14 \sum_{j=1}^{14} \sqrt{u_j^2(z) + v_j^2(z)}.$$

105 Here $u_j(z)$ and $v_j(z)$ ($j = 1, 2, \dots, 14$) are eastward and northward velocities.

106 The mean profile of $U(z)$ is presented in Figure 3 c (magenta line). It shows the velocity
107 maximum at the free surface as well as a secondary local maxima at the depth of 680 m
108 which coincides with the position the maximum vertical displacement and a broad region
109 of of elevated currents between 600 m and 800 m, produced presumably by the action of
110 internal waves.

111 As a proxy-measure for the relative strength of diapycnal mixing, we follow the method
112 of *Polzin et al.* [2002] in computing the buoyancy-normalised LADCP shear in overlap-
113 ping segments (50% overlap), each of 128 meters in vertical extent. The spectra for each
114 segment were then integrated between vertical wavelengths of 25 m to 128 m, to give 14
115 profiles of shear variance, a property that scales with the diapycnal eddy diffusivity. The
116 time averaged vertical profile of the shear variance (Figure 3 d) demonstrates a relative
117 7-fold increase below 700 m depth, with a broad maximum at 780 m. The necessary seg-
118 mentation of the data results in loss of vertical resolution in comparison with temperature
119 or velocity profiles, but nevertheless a consistent deep maximum in fine-structure derived
120 vertical mixing is clearly apparent.

121 In order to bring more clarity to the interpretation of these relatively sparse observations
122 and to understand the reasons for apparent internal wave energy and vertical mixing
123 intensification in the deep part of the canyon, a series of numerical experiments was
124 conducted.

3. Modelling

125 The fully non-linear non-hydrostatic MITgcm was used to model internal tides in the
 126 canyon and the surrounding area (see Figure 2 b). In the main part of the model domain
 127 the horizontal and vertical resolutions were 100 m and 10 m, respectively. In order to avoid
 128 any spurious boundary reflections, an exponentially increasing horizontal grid step near
 129 the lateral boundaries was used that guaranteed an accurate numerical solution within
 130 the internal model domain without any signals reflected from the boundaries during at
 131 least 10 tidal cycles.

132 The tidal forcing was set in the model by a tidal potential added to the right hand side
 133 of the momentum balance equations. Its intensity was chosen using [*Egbert and Erofeeva,*
 134 2002] in such a way as to reproduce tidal velocities recorded by moored ADCP current
 135 meters deployed during D376. Spatial distribution of tidal ellipses is shown in Figure 2 d.
 136 A vertical stratification was introduced into the model after setting the tidal forcing for
 137 a homogeneous fluid. The temperature and salinity profiles were taken from the direct
 138 CTD measurements at the yo-yo station.

139 The Richardson number dependent parameterisation for vertical viscosity ν and diffu-
 140 sivity κ introduced in [*Pacanowski and Philander, 1981*] was used:

$$141 \quad \nu = \frac{\nu_0}{(1 + \alpha \text{Ri})^n} + \nu_b, \quad \kappa = \frac{\nu}{(1 + \alpha \text{Ri})} + \kappa_b.$$

142 Here Ri is the Richardson number, $\text{Ri} = N^2(z)/(u_z^2 + v_z^2)$, u and v are the components of
 143 horizontal velocity; $N(z)$ is the buoyancy frequency $N^2(z) = -g/\rho(\partial\rho/\partial z)$ in which g is
 144 the acceleration due to gravity and ρ is the water density; $\nu_b=10^{-5} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ and $\kappa_b=10^{-5} \text{ m}^2$
 145 s^{-1} are the background viscosity, and diffusivity, respectively; $\nu_0=1.5 \cdot 10^{-2} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$, $\alpha=5$
 146 and $n=1$ are the adjustable parameters. Such a parametrisation increases ν and κ in

147 areas where the Richardson number is small. The horizontal viscosity and diffusivity were
 148 set to a constant value of $0.5 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$. More details on the model initialization and input
 149 parameters can be found in *Vlasenko et al.* [2014].

150 The model was forced by M_2 tidal harmonic which is predominant in the area (*Egbert*
 151 *and Erofeeva* [2002]). The principal question to be addressed by the modelling efforts is
 152 to identify the cause of the highly energetic internal wave activity in the centre of the
 153 canyon below 500 m depth. The modelling evidence of this intensification in deep water
 154 is seen in Figure 4 where the amplitude of the model-predicted horizontal velocities

$$155 U_{\max}(x, y, z) = \sqrt{u_{\max}^2(x, y, z) + v_{\max}^2(x, y, z)}.$$

156 is presented. Here $u_{\max}(x, y, z)$ and $v_{\max}(x, y, z)$ are amplitudes of the eastward and
 157 northward velocities found over one tidal cycle at the position (x, y, z) .

158 Nine horizontal slices of the velocity U_{\max} at depths of between 300 m and 700 m pre-
 159 sented in Figure 4 reveal quite a curious tendency. In the surface layers, i.e. shallower
 160 than 500 m, the wave energy is mostly concentrated at the periphery of the canyon corre-
 161 sponding to the shelf break area. However, below this depth the regions with high energy
 162 concentration are mostly located within the centre of the canyon, not around its edge.
 163 This finding is consistent with the observational profiles shown in Figures 3 b and c that
 164 reveal the energy maximum at approximately 700 m depth recorded at the CTD station
 165 in the middle of the canyon.

166 Such a focusing of internal wave energy in the canyon's centre can be explained in terms
 167 of a superposition of several tidal beams generated at the shelf edge on the periphery of
 168 the canyon and radiating downward toward the centre of the canyon, as it is shown in
 169 Figure 1 c. Indeed, analysis of the bottom steepness (2) has shown that $\alpha \ll 1$ in the

170 surrounding shelf area, but $\alpha > 1$ in the central part of the canyon, see Figure 5. The red
171 zones here, situated along the shelf break, separate the areas of subcritical shelf from the
172 supercritical abyssal part of the canyon.

173 Figure 5 demonstrates that the main part of the canyon topography is supercritical
174 for semi-diurnal internal tidal waves. As a result, according to theory [Vlasenko *et al.*,
175 2005], the internal tide in the canyon should take a form of tidal beams generated at the
176 shelf break around the canyon periphery which radiate downward toward the centre of
177 the canyon, as is shown in the scheme depicted in Figure 6. Bearing in mind that the
178 canyon head has a near-circular shape, it is expected that it can function like an optical
179 lens focusing wave energy into its centre. Evidence for that interpretation is presented
180 in Figure 7 a for the vertical cross-section depicted in Figure 2 b by a white line. Three
181 tidal beams can be identified in Figure 7 a (the characteristic lines, equation (1), are
182 shown here by thin white lines). The tidal beam $a-b-c$ is generated at the shelf break
183 point, at b , and propagates downward along characteristic line $b-c$. The tidal beam wave
184 system, resembling a St.Andrews cross, is generated at the saddle point e . The tidal
185 energy propagates from this point along four characteristic lines, $e-g$, $e-d$, $e-h$, and $e-f$.
186 It is interesting and relevant to note that the two tidal beams generated at the opposite
187 sides of the canyon, viz. $b-c$ and $e-f$ meet in the centre of the canyon in the layer between
188 600 and 800 m depths which is consistent with the position of the deep-water maxima in
189 vertical displacement, horizontal velocity and shear variance seen in Figures 3 d.

190 As seen from Figure 5, similar conditions of the energy focusing discussed above, i.e.
191 position of sub-, and supercritical areas, are valid also for many other cross-sections pass-
192 ing through the centre of the canyon. In other words, the tidal energy is converted at

193 many particular areas around the canyon periphery, and is then radiated towards its cen-
194 tre and accumulated there at the depths of between 500 and 800 m, as is observed in the
195 CTD/LADCP analysis.

196 Such focusing of wave energy in the canyon's centre should increase the associated level
197 of local water mixing there, since energy cannot accumulate indefinitely. Elevated shear
198 variance is testament to greater elevated mixing at depth (Figure 3 d). As a result of
199 intensified local diapycnal mixing in the centre of the canyon, a quasi stationary density
200 (temperature) gradient is formed across the canyon, as shown in Figure 7 b (the same
201 cross-section as in Figure 7 a). Convergence and divergence of isotherms at the depths of
202 between 500 m to 900 m is clearly seen here from two pairs of isotherms colored in white
203 and magenta. Initially (before the model run) the distance between both (parallel) isolines
204 was equal to 100 m: the upper and lower "white" isotherms were initially at depths of
205 650 m and 750 m, respectively; the upper and lower "magenta" isotherms were initially
206 at depths of 800 m and 900 m. After ten cycles of tidal action the distance between the
207 two groups of isotherms was modified: at some positions they converged, and at others
208 they diverged. Figure 8 shows the difference between isotherms initially centred at 700 m
209 (Figure 8 a) and at 850 m (Figure 8 b). It is interesting that the convergence and divergence
210 of isolines is opposite for the two depth pairs, Figure 8 a, b.

211 The formation by diapycnal mixing of quasi-stationary horizontal pressure gradients
212 suggests the existence of geostrophically balanced baroclinic eddies. Quasi-stationary
213 eddy features are clearly seen in Figure 9 in the velocity vectors at depths of 450 m, 600 m
214 and 700 m. The eddy around the topography bank is seen at a depth of 450 m where the
215 tidal beam is still located close to the canyon flank and the shelf edge. However vortical

216 motions are absent in the centre of the canyon at this depth (450 m). According to the
 217 findings presented above, the tidal energy is mostly concentrated beneath 450 m and in
 218 the centre of the canyon. Here a baroclinic eddy with cyclonic rotation at 600 m depth
 219 and anti-cyclonic rotation at 700 m depth is clearly seen.

220 To find observational evidence of the predicted baroclinic eddy generated in the middle
 221 of the canyon, the following analysis of the LADCP data was performed. First, the
 222 barotropic tidal velocities U_j^{bar} and V_j^{bar} were found by averaging of the instant velocity
 223 profiles:

$$224 \quad U_j^{\text{bar}} = \frac{1}{H_j} \int_0^{H_j} u_j(z) dz;$$

$$225 \quad V_j^{\text{bar}} = \frac{1}{H_j} \int_0^{H_j} v_j(z) dz.$$

226 $j = 1, 2, 3, \dots, 14$. Second, the barotropic tidal signal was removed from the sampling
 227 data using the following procedure:

$$228 \quad u_j^{\text{int}} = u_j - U_j^{\text{bar}};$$

$$229 \quad v_j^{\text{int}} = v_j - V_j^{\text{bar}},$$

230 The velocity vectors $(u_j^{\text{int}}, v_j^{\text{int}})$ at depths of 600 m and 750 m along with the model
 231 predicted vectors are presented in Figures 10 a and 10 b by black arrows.

232 It is clear that the remainder baroclinic signal contains both stationary currents and non-
 233 stationary internal waves. It is also not free from a random signal that always is present
 234 in any observational data set. Note however, that looking at the cluster of velocity vectors
 235 as a whole that was recorded in the very same place with one-hour time interval one can
 236 discern a consistent pattern. It seems that the general (average) direction of the black
 237 arrow clusters in Figures 10 a and 10 b is consistent with that predicted by the model,

238 i.e. the anti-cyclonic and cyclonic rotation in depths 600 m and 750 m layers, respectively.
239 This can be considered as further evidence that tidal energy focusing in the centre of the
240 canyon is responsible for the formation of baroclinic eddies there.

4. Discussion and conclusions

241 Submarine canyons are common bathymetric features at many of the world's shelf edge
242 regions. They can trap internal wave energy holding it towards the head of canyons in
243 a converging wave-guide that can lead to a high level of turbulent mixing there. This
244 mechanism was discussed by *Baines* [1983]; *Gardner* [1989]; *Gordon and Marshall* [1976];
245 *Hotchkiss and Wunsch* [1982]. Note, however, that the aforementioned papers appeal
246 predominantly to a two-dimensional concept of this mechanism. In reality one should
247 operate with three-dimensional characteristic surfaces of a 3D wave equation rather than
248 with the characteristic lines of its 2D counterpart. As a result of the three-dimensionality,
249 the characteristic lines emanating from flanks of a concave topography can focus in its
250 centre producing a spot with high levels of internal wave energy and mixing. This paper
251 deals with the three-dimensional aspects of these effects of the focusing mechanism.

252 The possibility of intensification of baroclinic tidal energy due to wave interference
253 was recently reported in a number of theoretical papers. *Carter* [2010] analysing model
254 output for baroclinic tide in the Monterey Bay region testified interference of internal
255 waves generated at different sectors of the bay. It was found that the model predicted up
256 to 5 times increase of the baroclinic tidal flux close to the Monterey canyon axis located
257 in the centre of the bay. It was hypothesized there that the effect was created thanks
258 to topographic focusing, although this fact was not clarified, specifically in terms of the
259 beam-like structure of baroclinic tides or supercriticality of the bottom topography.

260 In fact, the Monterey Bay area is much larger area than just the Monterey Bay canyon.
261 In light of the present study it is important that similar 3D focusing of baroclinic tidal
262 energy, even being mostly theoretically discovered, is reported for this and other areas.

263 Similar effect of the interference of baroclinic tidal energy radiated from scattered mul-
264 tiple sources was also reported by *Rainville et al.* [2010] for the Hawaiian Ridge area.
265 As distinct from the present study, mostly horizontal interference of the baroclinic tidal
266 waves was studied, however the effect of baroclinic tidal energy superposition was clearly
267 demonstrated.

268 The most recent model study conducted by *Zhang et al.* [2014] for an idealized and
269 supercritical for M_2 tide canyon confirmed an asymmetry of internal tide in the canyon,
270 which presumably is a consequence of the the along-shore effects of propagating internal
271 tidal wave. In fact, they focus mostly on resonant effects of internal tide generation in
272 the canyon, although some details on baroclinic tidal energy focusing are also reported.
273 With relevance to the present study, *Zhang et al.* [2014] reported the beamlike structure of
274 baroclinic tides near the supercritical canyon, with a difference in deepward and shoreward
275 structures, although their interference in the canyon area was not demonstrated

276 Model output always allows us to study the process of wave focusing in detail, however
277 in reality it is quite difficult to observe this effect in-situ. For the Celtic Sea we have found
278 not only theoretical but also observational evidence of the baroclinic tidal energy focusing
279 in the middle of the canyon. The measurements were conducted during D376 in the
280 centre of the Petite Sole Canyon situated at the shelf edge of the Celtic sea (see Figures
281 2). CTD and LDCP data collected at a station in the middle of the canyon revealed

282 large vertical oscillations of isotherms (up to 45 m, Figures 2 b) and local maximum of
283 horizontal currents (up to 0.12 ms^{-1} , Figures 3 c) in the layer between 500 and 800 m.

284 The possibility of such an inherently three dimensional focusing mechanism of baroclinic
285 tidal energy was confirmed in a series of numerical experiments conducted using the
286 MITgcm forced by M_2 tidal harmonic. The high internal tidal activity in the deep part of
287 the canyon (Figures 4) is treated here in terms of downward propagation and focusing of
288 internal tidal beam generated at the shelf break. The specific circular shape of the canyon,
289 coupled with the steep bottom topography below the shelf break (steeper than tidal beam)
290 in all parts of the canyon create favourable conditions for the tidal energy focusing in the
291 canyon's centre, see Figures 6. Both observations and MITgcm simulations have also
292 shown that the tidal energy focusing intensifies local diapycnal mixing, that can lead to
293 formation of a baroclinic eddy below 450 m depth in the central part of the canyon, see
294 Figures 9. Evidence consistent with the presence of the cyclonic and anti-cyclonic rotation
295 in the canyon centre was found also in in-situ data.

296 The importance of the results is that the effect of the focussing of baroclinic tidal energy
297 in 3D configuration is quite a typical situation in many areas. This means that the results
298 on the baroclinic tidal energy focusing reported here can have much wider application
299 rather than just circular-shape canyons.

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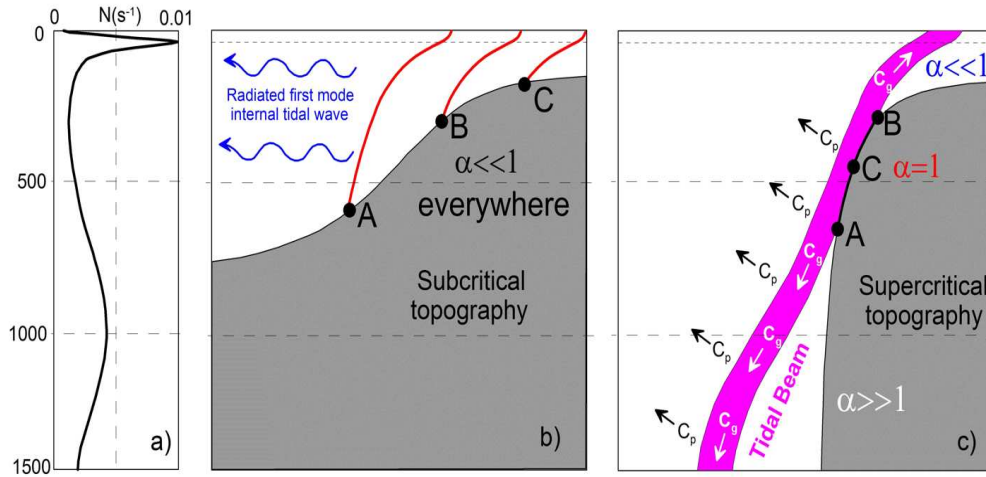


Figure 1. a) Buoyancy frequency measured in the Celtic Sea. b)-c) Schemes of the generation regime over subcritical (b) and supercritical (c) topographies. Red lines in panel (b) show characteristics (1). Magenta area in panel (c) depicts a tidal beam.

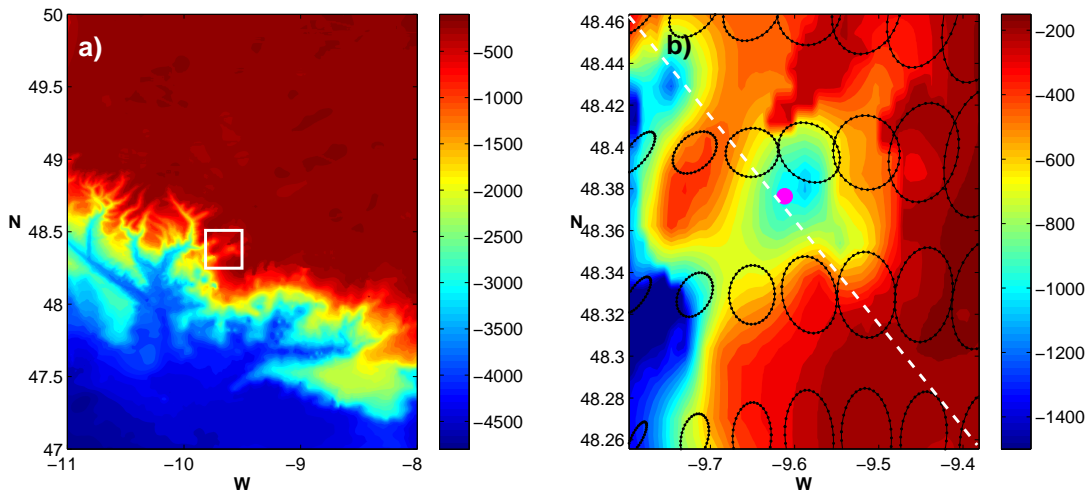


Figure 2. a) Bathymetry of the Celtic Sea. White rectangle shows the position of the canyon. b) Zoom of the Petite Sole Canyon area. The position of the yo-yo CTD station is depicted by a magenta dot. Tidal ellipses showing the intensity of the model forcing are presented by black contours.

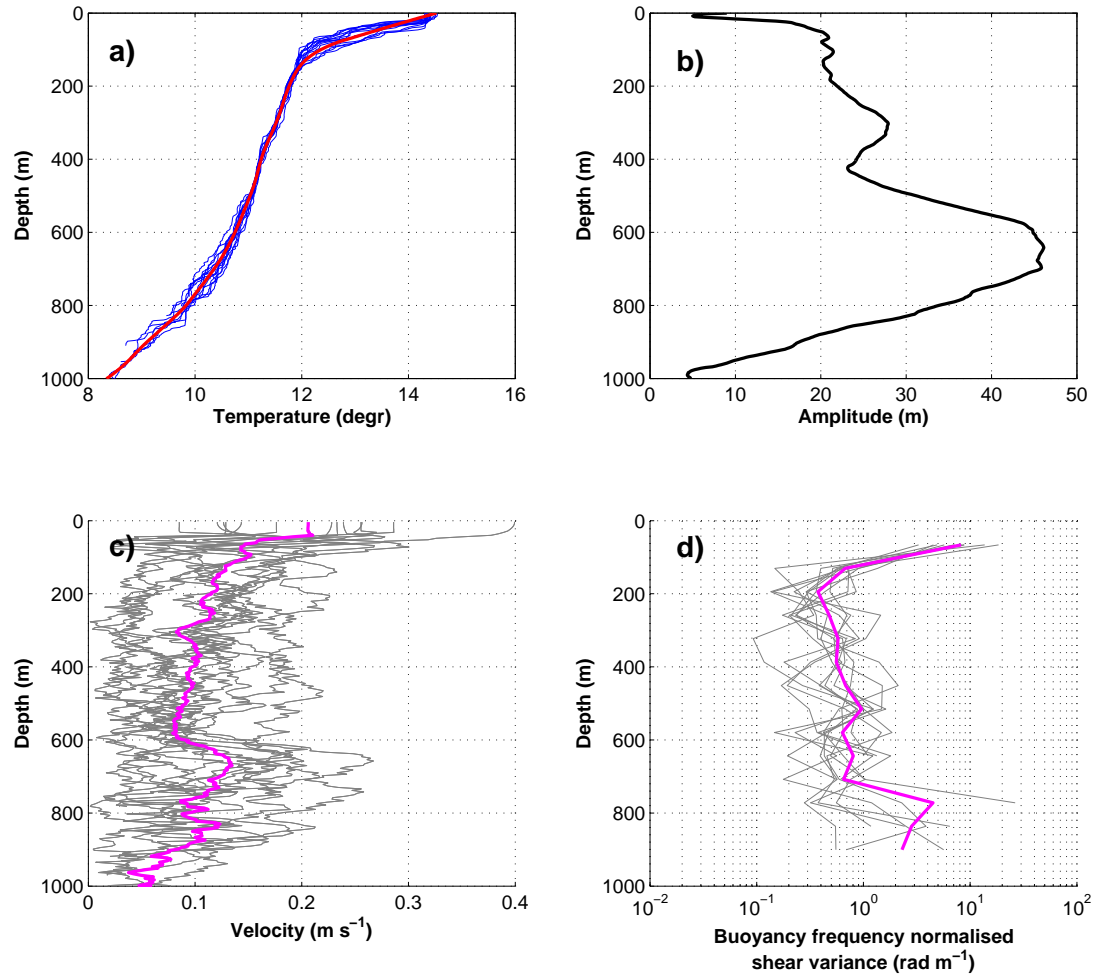


Figure 3. a) Temperature distribution for 14 “yo-yo” CTD mooring (blue lines) with averaged temperature (red line). b) Depth dependant amplitude of temperature deviation. c) Distribution of horizontal velocity from LADCP (grey lines) and mean profile (magenta line). d) Distribution of shear variance, all profiles shown by gray and mean profile with magenta.

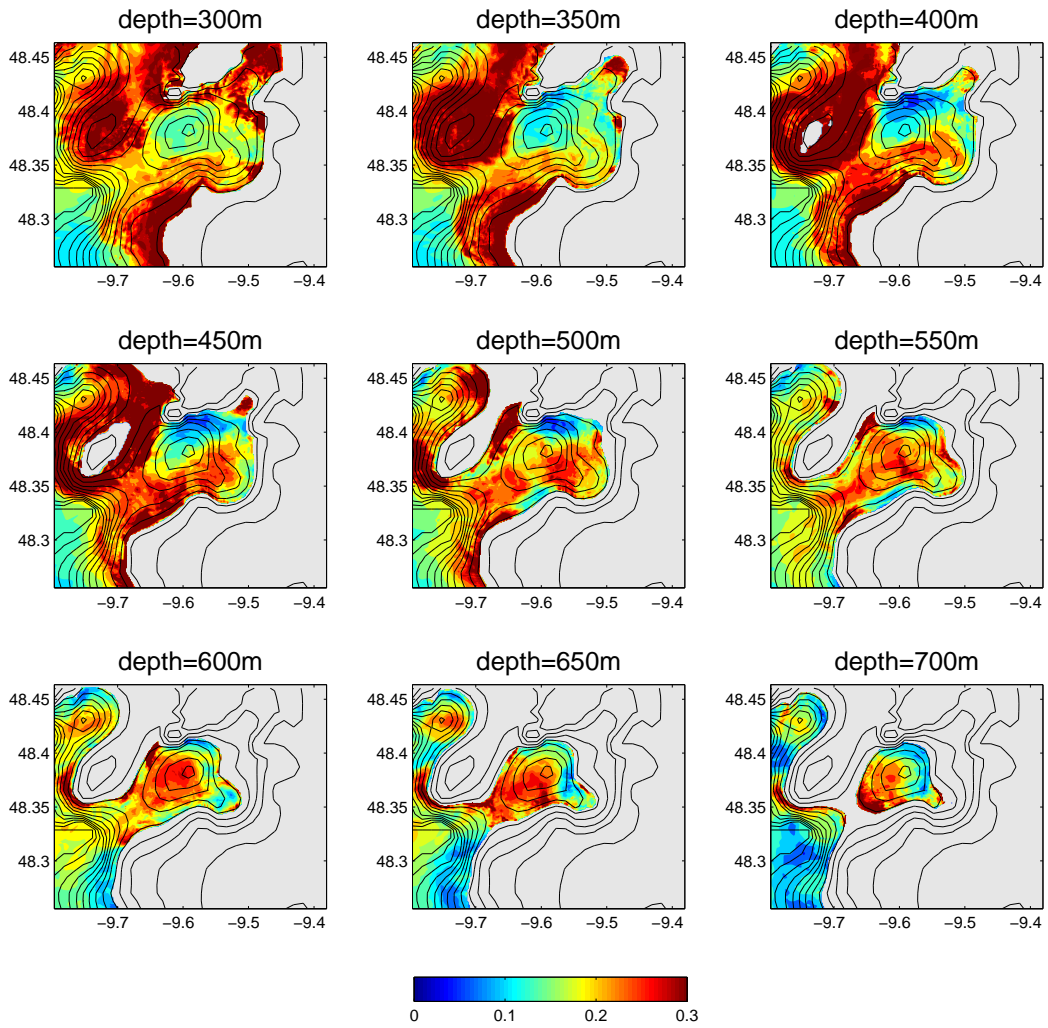


Figure 4. Horizontal distribution of the amplitudes of horizontal velocity at different depths.

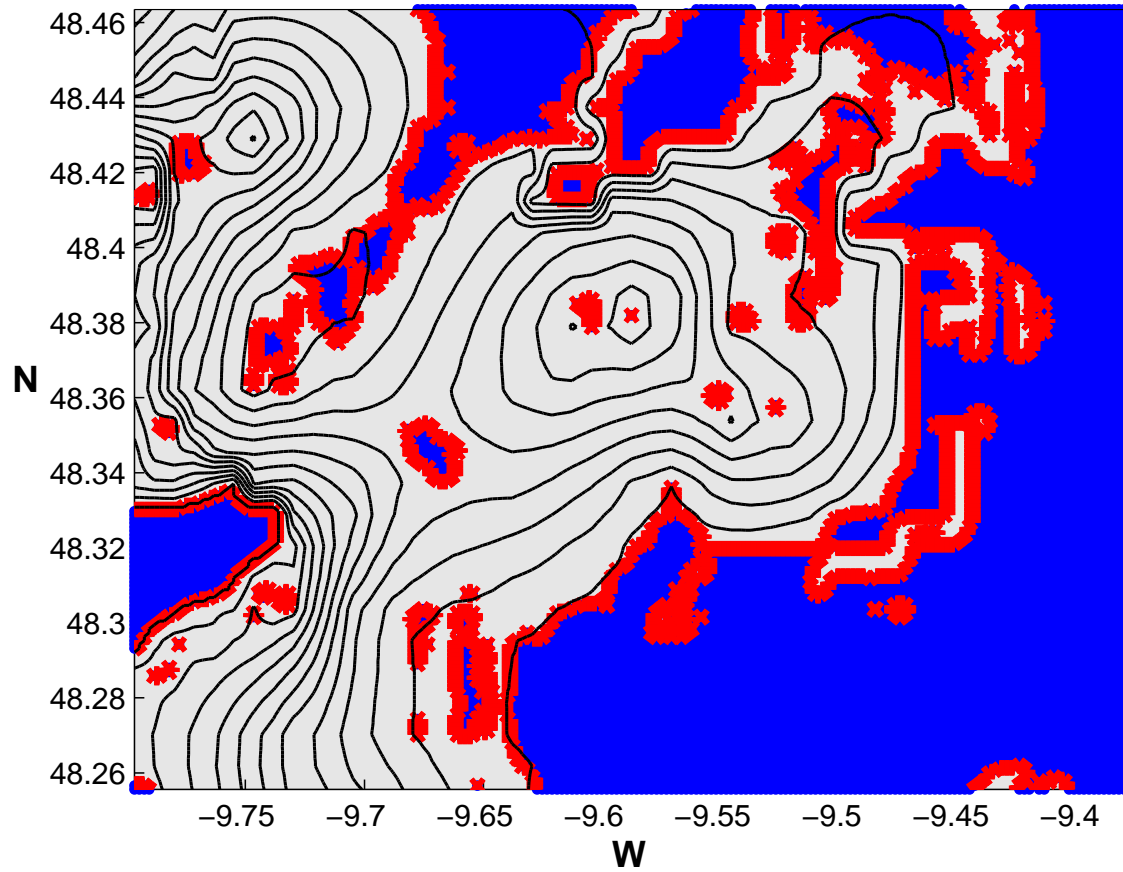


Figure 5. a) Spatial distribution of parameter α : blue areas $\alpha < 1$, red stripes $\alpha = 1$, and clear areas with $\alpha > 1$.

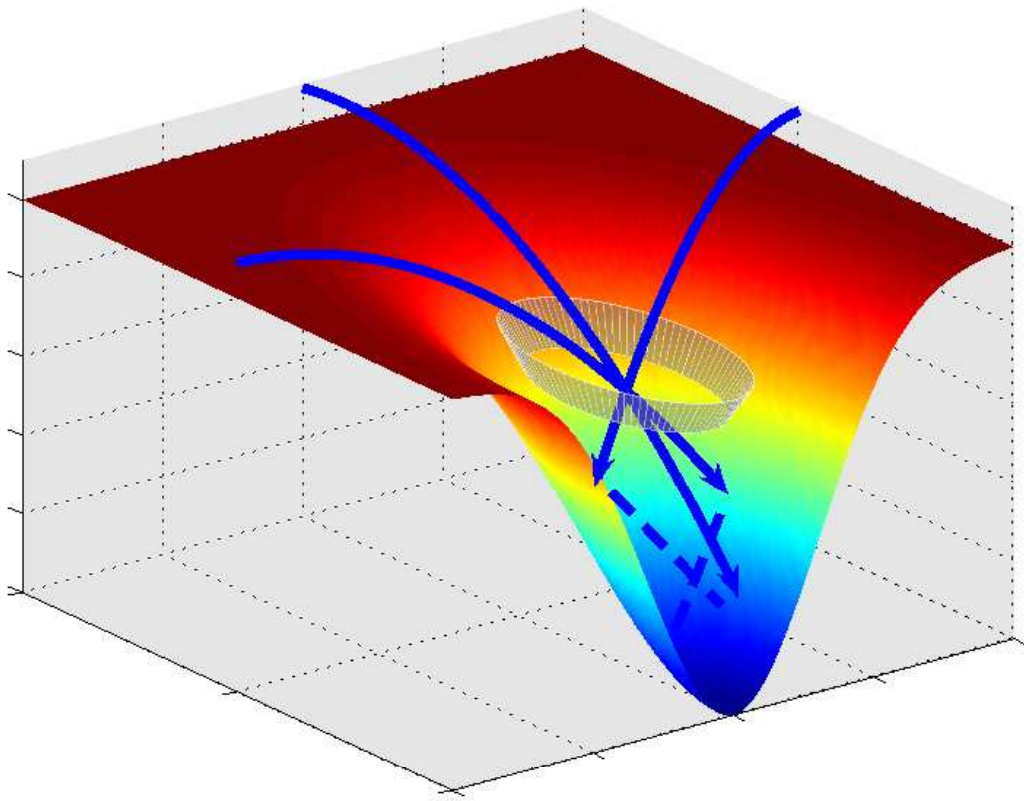


Figure 6. Scheme of intersection of characteristic lines inside idealized canyon and formation of eddy.

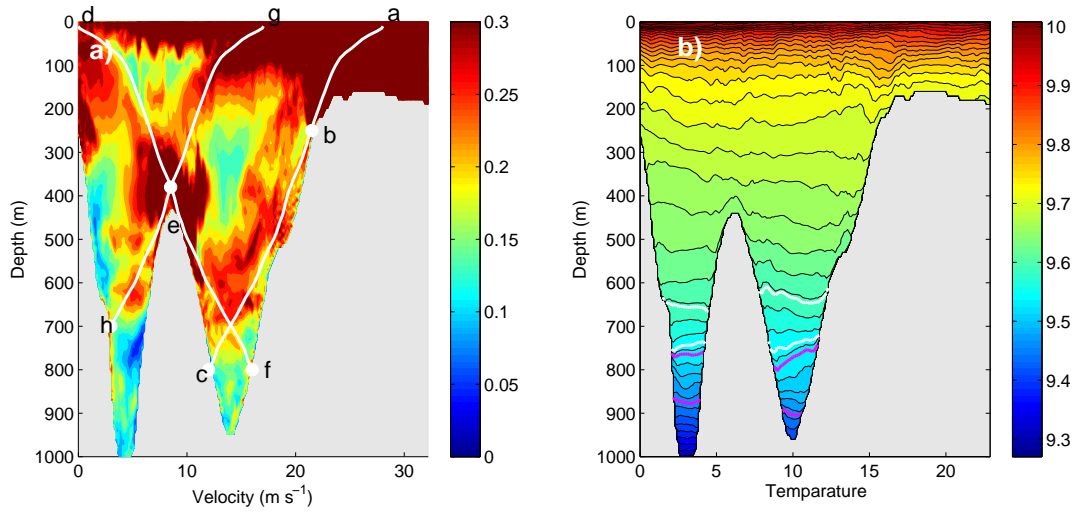


Figure 7. a) The largest values of horizontal velocity and b) averaged temperature distribution along the cross-section (white line in Figure 2 a). The upper white isotherm corresponds to temperature 10.55°C and the lower one to 10.1°C. Similar values for two magenta isolines are 10.0°C and 9.3°C.

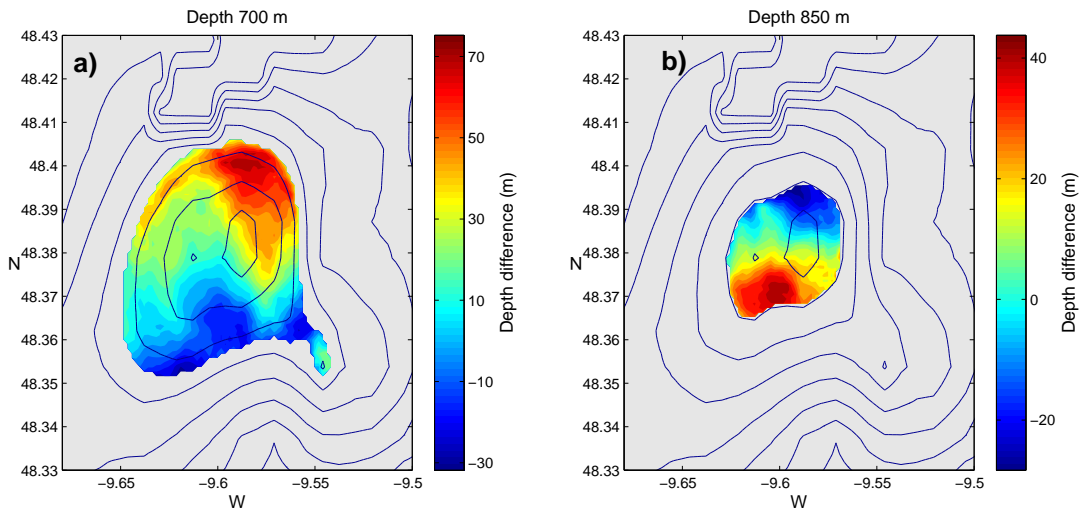


Figure 8. The distance between isotherms shown in Figure 7 b) in white (panel a) and in magenta (panel b).

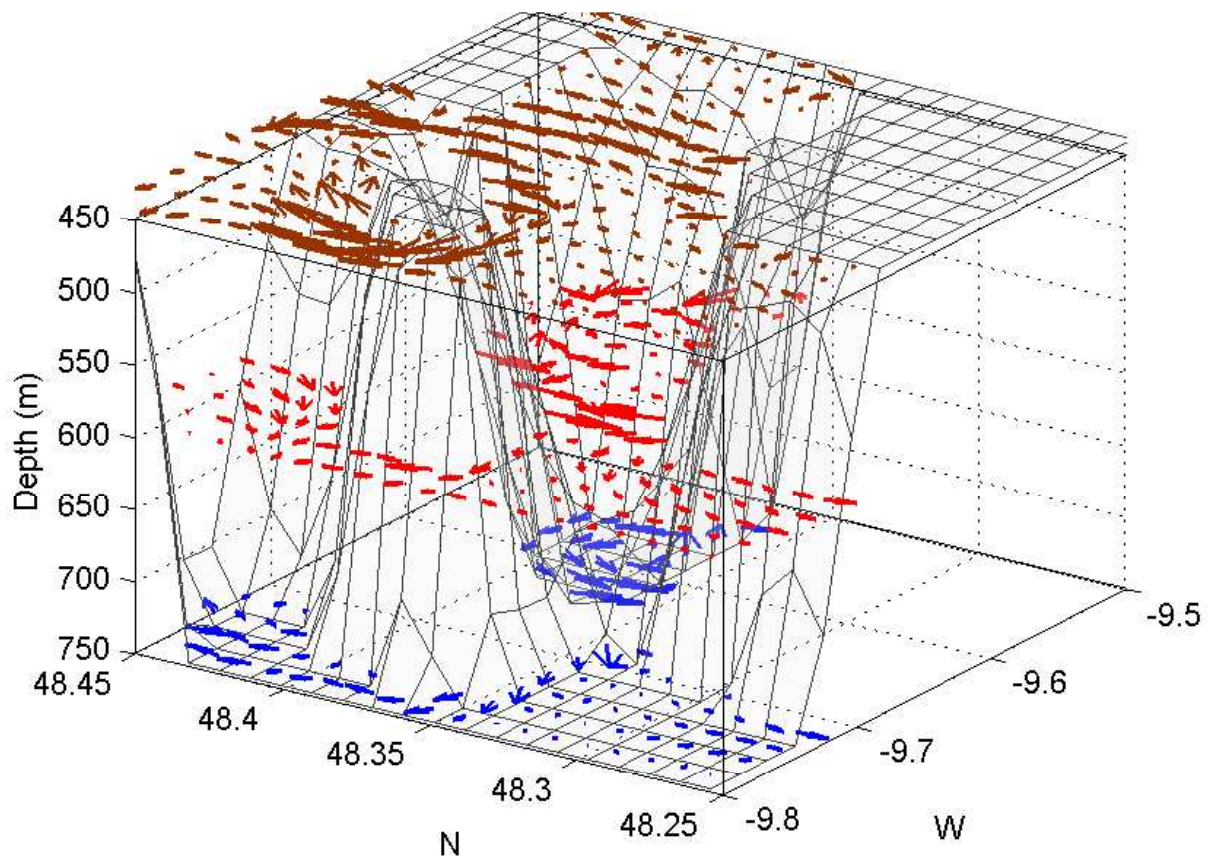


Figure 9. Velocity vectors of the model predicted baroclinic eddy generated inside the canyon.

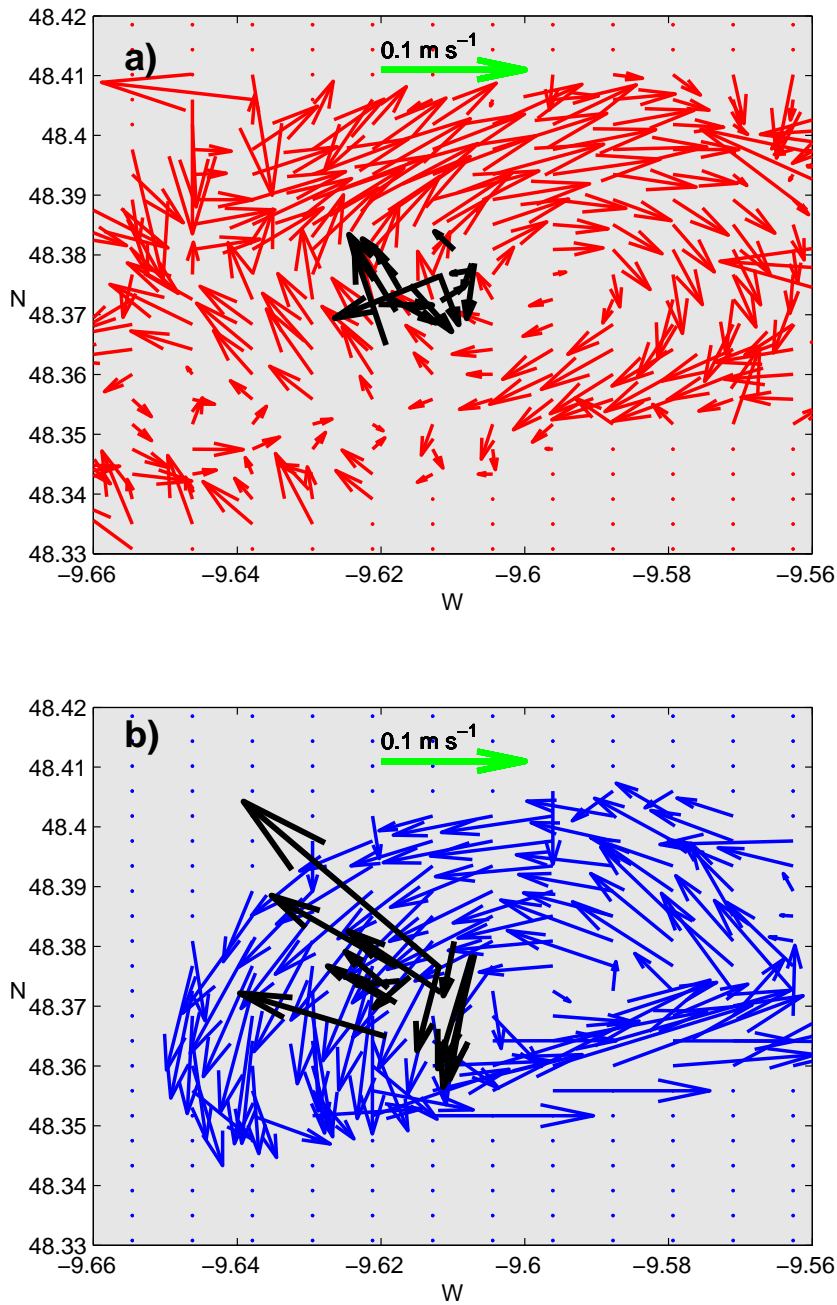


Figure 10. a) and b) Model predicted anti-cyclonic and cyclonic eddies at the depths of 600 m and 750 m (shown by red and blue arrows, respectively). Baroclinic currents recorded by LADCP at 14 “yo-yo” stations at the same depths are shown by black arrows.