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1 **Sub-inertial oscillations on the Amundsen Sea shelf, Antarctica**

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3

4 Abstract

5 Mooring data from the western flank of Dotson Trough, Amundsen Sea shelf region, show the
6 presence of barotropic oscillations with a period of 40-80 hours. The oscillations are visible in
7 velocity, temperature, salinity and pressure, and are comparable to tides in magnitude. The period
8 of the oscillations corresponds to topographic Rossby waves of low group velocity and wavelength
9 about 40 km, i.e. the half-width of the channel. It is suggested that these resonant topographic
10 Rossby waves cause the observed peak in the wave spectra. The observations show that sparse
11 CTD data from this region should be treated with caution and need to be complemented with
12 moorings or yo-yo stations in order to give a representative picture for the hydrography.

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27 **1. Introduction.**

28 Rapidly melting ice shelves and inflow of warm water on the continental shelf sea in the Amundsen
29 Sea have brought attention and increased research activity to the region, and the knowledge about
30 the circulation in the area has increased substantially over the last decade. Figure 1 shows a partial
31 map of the Amundsen shelf area. It is cross-cut by three deep troughs; the Pine Island trough which
32 branches out in two distinct exits and the Dotson trough with one main exit on the shelf break.
33 These troughs channel relatively warm and salty water southward (Wåhlin et al, 2010; Walker et
34 al, 2007) from the deep ocean towards the floating glaciers at the coast where it induces basal melt
35 (e.g. Jenkins et al, 2010; Jacobs et al, 2011). The focus of this paper is the Dotson trough, where
36 records from two current meter moorings (Fig 1. and Table 1) deployed on the flanks of the trough
37 reveal a persistent inflow of warm and salty deep water (Wåhlin et al, 2010; Arneborg et al, 2012;
38 Wåhlin et al, 2013; Ha et al, 2014) on the eastern flank, and an outflow of colder and fresher
39 product waters on the western flank (Ha et al, 2014). The circulation pathway of the deep water
40 (thick lines with arrows in Figure 1) was investigated by Ha et al (2014) and it was shown that the
41 inflow has velocity-weighted average temperature of about 0.75 °C and salinity 34.6 psu. From
42 budget calculations based on the mooring data it was found that the outflow current was 1.25°C
43 colder and 0.3 psu fresher than the inflow due to mixing with glacial melt water, which corresponds
44 to melting about 80 - 240 km³ glacial ice per year. The overturning time was estimated to 4 months.
45 In both moorings, a strong short-term variability dominates the time dependence in velocity,
46 temperature and salinity. On the eastern flank the velocity varied on time scales from sub tidal up
47 to monthly, was correlated with eastward wind at the shelf break (Wåhlin et al, 2013), and had no
48 pronounced seasonality. A weak wintertime maximum in the bottom temperature and CDW layer

49 thickness was however observed which was not related to the velocity (Wåhlin et al, 2013; Ha et
50 al, 2014).

51 The focus of this work will be the quasi-regular oscillations with a period of about 2.5 days that
52 are found at the site of a mooring located on the western flank of the trough, i.e. the outflow side.

53 The instantaneous velocity and hydrography is dominated by these oscillations. It is suggested that
54 the oscillations are due to resonant topographic Rossby waves, which have previously been
55 observed e.g. on the Scottish continental shelf (Gordon and Huthnance, 1987) and on the southern
56 slope of the Iceland-Faroe ridge (Miller, Lermusiaux, & Poulain, 1996).

57 Topographic Rossby waves are a manifestation of conservation of potential vorticity: A water
58 column forced to move across isobaths acquires relative vorticity (rotation) as it is stretched or
59 squeezed. In the southern hemisphere, the phase of topographic Rossby waves propagates with
60 shallow water on the left, while the energy of the wave follows the group velocity, which may be
61 directed either to the right or to the left depending on the wavelength (Gill, 1987; Rhines, P., 2014:
62 forthcoming textbook: [http://www.ocean.washington.edu/courses/oc512/rossby-waves-gfd109-
63 lec5a-07.pdf](http://www.ocean.washington.edu/courses/oc512/rossby-waves-gfd109-lec5a-07.pdf)). For lower modes of the wave the dispersion curve typically displays a local
64 maximum, with the group velocity of short waves directed with shallow water on the right and the
65 group velocity of longer waves with shallow water on the left. For some intermediate wave-length,
66 the group velocity is zero or close to zero. The energy of the latter waves will hence remain in the
67 forcing region. These zero-group-velocity waves are said to be resonant, and such waves have
68 been observed to be generated e.g. by strong winds (Gordon & Huthnance, 1987) or by tides
69 (Padman, Plueddemann, Muench, & Pinkel, 1992).

70 Rossby waves are not eddies, and they do not transport any fluid. The streamlines are per definition
71 closed. Hence they are not expected to influence transport of quantities such as heat or salt across

72 the topography. The exception is when the waves are broken e.g. by small-scale topography (e.g.
73 StLaurent et al, 2013) in which case a net flow can occur. Eddies on the other hand can translate
74 and move fluid parcels, and they are in some regions (e.g. the Antarctic fronts) the main
75 mechanism that induces horizontal mixing and transport properties such as heat and salt laterally
76 (e.g Thompson, 2008; Thompson et al, 2014). In similarity with Rossby waves, eddies can give an
77 oscillating signal in hydrographic measurements. Since they are fundamentally different with
78 regard to whether they induce net motion of the fluid or not, it is important to distinguish the two
79 mechanisms. The present results indicate that topographic Rossby waves are very frequently, in
80 fact almost constantly, present in the western part of the outer Amundsen shelf area. These waves
81 will likely contaminate any measurements made in this area indicating that single CTD and
82 LADCP measurements from this region are of limited value.

83

84

85 **2. Data.**

86 The data presented in this study were collected during two cruises with *IB Oden* during austral
87 summer 2009/2010 and 2010/2011 and two cruises with *RV Araon* during 2011/2012 and
88 2013/2014. Three bottom-mounted sub-surface moorings were placed in the western trough
89 (Dotson Trough) crossing the Amundsen Sea shelf. Figure 1 shows a map of the region, the
90 location of the three moorings (for exact position and times in water, see Table 1) and the mooring
91 set-up. The position of mooring S1 was in the center of the warm inflow while S2 and S3 were
92 positioned in the outflow zone on the western flank. The mooring lines contained between 3 and
93 7 MicroCATs (Seabird, SBE-37SMP) that measured temperature (with an accuracy of 0.002 K),
94 conductivity (with an accuracy of 0.0003 S m⁻¹) and pressure (with an accuracy of 0.1 dbar). Two

95 of the moorings also included an upward-looking 150-kHz Acoustic Doppler Current Profiler
96 (ADCP; RDI), deployed at the bottom to measure current velocity profiles. The observed velocity
97 data were processed using the WinADCP[®] software, removing data with error velocity exceeding
98 1.5 cm/s and beam correlation below 100. Fourier spectra were calculated using hourly time series
99 and 50% overlapping Hanning windows with a length of 1024 h. The wind data used was the 6
100 hour ERA interim reanalysis product (Dee et al, 2011), which according to Bracegirdle and
101 Marshall (2012) is the most accurate of the six major meteorological reanalysis products covering
102 the Amundsen Sea. Bracegirdle and Marshall (2012) found generally good agreement between the
103 ERA interim and independent data in the Bellingshausen Sea, and in Wåhlin et al (2013) a good
104 agreement was found between ERA interim and in situ data from Lindsey Island.

105

106

107 **3. Observations**

108 The primary focus here is mooring S2, deployed for one year and equipped with an ADCP and 5
109 MicroCATs. Figure 2 shows the S2 temperature, salinity and channel-rotated (i.e. with a rotation
110 angle of 30° counterclockwise) velocities. In similarity with S1 (Wåhlin et al, 2013) there is a
111 pronounced short-term variability in all these quantities that dominate the instantaneous fields. The
112 bottom temperature can vary by up to 1°C over less than a day, and the velocity by 15 cm/s in that
113 time span. The velocity fluctuations are nearly constant in the vertical, and there is a weak
114 wintertime maximum in bottom temperature. The long time mean along-channel velocity at S2 is
115 an outflow of 2.5 cm/s, while the cross-channel component is weaker with a mean south-westward
116 flow of less than 1 cm/s (Ha et al, 2014).

117 Figure 3 shows the Fourier spectra and the rotary spectra for the velocity at 100 m above bottom
118 at S2. The velocity spectrum has marked peaks at the tidal frequencies, at the inertial frequency
119 and a broad peak centered around period 40 - 80 hours. The shape and relative magnitude of the
120 broad peak is approximately equal for all measured parameters at S2 (velocity, temperature,
121 salinity). The oscillation is more energetic in the across trough direction and mainly clockwise
122 (Fig 3).

123 In order to illustrate the temporal variation of the spectrum, wavelet analysis (according to
124 Torrence and Compo, 1997) was used. Figure 4 shows the wavelet power spectra of bottom
125 temperature and the vertically averaged velocities at S2. The peak around 40-80 hours is present
126 in the vertically averaged velocities (Fig. 4a and 4b) as well as bottom temperature (Fig. 4c). The
127 energy peak is present during the whole measurement period, and a few shorter periods with
128 elevated energy can also be detected. The characteristics of these periods are largely similar. Figure
129 5 shows an example, a detailed view of the velocity and temperature starting at May 6th, 2011
130 (arrow in Figure 4). The oscillations are present in the whole water column below 330 m.
131 Temperature co-oscillates with velocity, with dropping temperatures associated with south-
132 westward currents across the channel and rising temperatures associated with north-eastward
133 velocities indicating that the warm water layer close to the bottom is being moved up and down
134 the slope by strong velocity oscillations. The oscillations have similar magnitude in both spatial
135 directions.

136 Figure 6 shows the temperature from the three MicroCATs at mooring S3. In similarity with the
137 temperature at S2, there is strong sub-inertial variability that dominates any instantaneous
138 temperature measurements. The lower panels of Fig. 6 show two examples of temperature
139 oscillations, resembling the event in Fig. 5. The power spectrum from the three MicroCATs show

140 a broad subinertial peak similar to the one in Fig. 3 but centered around somewhat longer periods,
141 around 70 - 100 hours.

142 In order to examine the coherence between wind and the S2 mooring velocity the spectral
143 coherence between the vertically averaged currents and the wind pseudostress was calculated using
144 the multi taper method (Thomson, 1982). The pseudostress was rotated in order to identify the
145 angle with largest coherence. The maximum coherence of 0.69 (with confidence level 0.43) was
146 found for frequency 67 hours and wind angle close to the local cross-shelf direction.

147

148 **4. Topographic Rossby waves**

149 Figure 7a shows the topography of the western flank of the trough, as measured by the multibeam
150 on IB Oden during a cruise to the region in 2010 (Arndt et al, 2013;
151 <http://www.ibcso.org/data.html>), together with a simplified topography $h(y)$ with a constant
152 bottom slope α , i.e.

$$153 \quad h(y) = H_0 - \alpha y, \quad (1)$$

154 where $h(y)$ is the bottom elevation as a function of across-slope distance y ; $H_0 = -250 \text{ m}$ and
155 $\alpha = 0.01$.

156 Free topographic Rossby waves can form and travel along sloping topography. The shape of the
157 wave (the eigenfunction) depends on the shape of the topography and the lateral boundary
158 conditions. For the simplified topography (1), plane waves on the form

$$159 \quad \Psi = \Psi_0 \sin(kx + ly - \omega t), \quad (2)$$

160 where (k, l) are the wave numbers in the (x, y) directions and ω is the frequency, are solutions to
161 the linear barotropic wave equation (Rhines, P., 2014: forthcoming textbook:

162 <http://www.ocean.washington.edu/courses/oc512/rossby-waves-gfd109-lec5a-07.pdf>). The
163 dispersion relation is given by

$$164 \quad \omega = -\frac{\beta k}{k^2 + l^2 + \frac{f^2}{gH}}, \quad (3)$$

165 where $\beta = \frac{f\alpha}{H}$, f is the Coriolis parameter, g is the gravity and $H = H_0 - \frac{\alpha L}{2}$ is the average depth
166 of the slope stretch. For the one-dimensional topography (1) the boundary conditions restrict which
167 wave numbers are possible in the y -direction (i.e. the eigenvalues). For the boundary conditions

$$168 \quad \begin{aligned} v &= 0 & \text{at } y = 0 \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} &= 0 & \text{at } y = L \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

169 the solution (2) is valid for

$$170 \quad l_n = \left(n + \frac{1}{2}\right) \frac{\pi}{L}, \quad (5)$$

171 where n signifies mode number starting at zero so that the first mode is given by $l_0 = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\pi}{L}$ and the
172 second by $l_1 = \frac{3}{2} \frac{\pi}{L}$.

173 A code for determining the eigenfunctions and modal structures numerically for a real topography
174 and stratification was presented in Brink (2006) (see also
175 <http://www.whoi.edu/page.do?pid=23361>), assuming an inviscid sea and a linear wave equation.
176 Figure 7b shows the surface signature of the first and second modes for the Brink model, using the
177 real topography in Fig. 7a and the measured stratification during a cruise to the region in 2010 (Ha
178 et al, 2014); together with the analytical solution (2) using boundary conditions (4).

179 The eigenfunction over the real topography (solid lines, Fig. 7a and 7b) has the surface signature
 180 of the wave concentrated to the steeper parts of the slope, while the simplified solution (dashed
 181 lines, Fig. 7a and 7b) has the wave spread evenly (sinusoidal) over the slope. Apart from this the
 182 surface signature is qualitatively similar for the two solutions. The introduction of stratification
 183 does not change the solution in any significant way and the surface signature for the solution with
 184 stratification and without are indistinguishable. This is expected since the Burger number, i.e.

$$185 \quad Bu = \frac{N^2 \alpha^2}{f^2} \quad (\text{where } N \text{ is the buoyancy frequency, } \alpha \text{ is the bottom slope and } f \text{ is the Coriolis}$$

186 frequency), is less than 0.1. It was shown in Brink (2006) that for $Bu < 1$ the relative importance
 187 of stratification is small compared to the shelf geometry and the solutions are similar to the
 188 barotropic solutions.

189 Expression (3) gives the dispersion relation for a free Rossby wave on a constant bottom slope.
 190 The corresponding relation can also be calculated numerically from the Brink (2006) model, using
 191 the boundary condition (4). Figure 8 shows the numerical solution together with expression (3) for
 192 the first two modes.

193 From the dispersion relation, the group velocity in the x-direction, C_x , is given by

$$194 \quad c_x = \frac{d\omega}{dk},$$

195 or (using (3))

$$196 \quad c_x = \frac{\beta(k^2 - l^2 - \frac{f^2}{gH})}{(k^2 + l^2 + \frac{f^2}{gH})^2}. \quad (6)$$

197 Since the topographic variations in the study region are of order 100 km or smaller, we have that

198 $k^2 \gg \frac{f^2}{gH}$ and $l^2 \gg \frac{f^2}{gH}$ (using $k, l \geq \frac{1}{10^5}$, $f \sim 1.4 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$, $H \sim 500 \text{ m}$). Equations (3) and (6)

199 can then be approximated by

200
$$\omega \simeq -\frac{\beta k}{k^2 + l^2} \tag{7}$$

201
$$c_x \simeq \frac{\beta(k^2 - l^2)}{(k^2 + l^2)^2}. \tag{8}$$

202 Expression (8) tells us that for short waves, energy propagates with the coast on the right-hand
 203 side, i.e. south-eastward in the present topography (Fig. 1). The energy in long waves (i.e., small
 204 k) propagates with shallow water on the left. When the wavelength in the x-direction is
 205 approximately equal to the wavelength in the y-direction we have that $k \approx l$ and $c_x = 0$. Then the
 206 energy does not move away and there will be resonance if waves are formed in, or transmitted
 207 into, the area. The approximate frequency ω_R of the resonant oscillations is given by (using (8)
 208 and (5))

209
$$\omega_R \approx \frac{\beta}{2l_n}, \text{ or } \omega_R \approx \frac{\beta L}{\pi(2n+1)}, \tag{9}$$

210 where $n = 0$ for the first mode and $n = 1$ for the second. Using $\beta = \frac{f\alpha}{H}$ the resonant frequency can
 211 hence be written

212
$$\omega_R \approx \frac{f\alpha}{\pi} \frac{L}{H} \tag{10}$$

213 for the first mode, where f is the Coriolis parameter, α the bottom slope, L the length of the slope
 214 stretch and H the average depth (Fig. 7c shows a sketch of the topographic parameters. Note that
 215 H/L is in general not equal to α).

216 The observed spectrum peak for the S2 mooring (Fig. 3) lies close to the frequency where
217 topographic Rossby waves have zero group velocity (Fig. 8) suggesting that the observed
218 oscillations might be resonant Rossby waves. These oscillations appear not to affect the average
219 North-Westward flow of water: the wavelet analysis (Fig. 4) shows that oscillations of period
220 around 64 hours or shorter have strong variability but that peaks of energy around this frequency
221 are not coinciding with peaks of energy in lower frequency.

222 Using the simplified expression (9) and topographic parameters (Fig. 7c) relevant for the three
223 moorings (Table 2), it is seen that the fastest resonant oscillations are occurring at S2 and slower
224 ones (period 83 hours) are expected at S3. The observations show broad sub-inertial peaks centered
225 on somewhat lower frequencies at S3 than S2, in qualitative agreement with the analytical
226 expression (Fig. 3). For S1 the first-mode resonant period is 157 h (6.5 days), likely too slow to
227 permit free waves to form. The wind forcing often changes sign during 157 hours, and in addition
228 the oscillations are slow enough for frictional damping to be effective (Brink, 2006). Nonetheless,
229 on occasion a slow oscillation resembling the persistent ones at S2 and S3 can be seen also in S1.

230

231 **4. Discussion**

232 The high coherence (0.69) between wind and cross-shelf velocity for a 67 hour period suggests
233 that the observed oscillations are resonant topographic Rossby waves triggered by the wind. A
234 similar resonant interaction has e.g. been observed on the Scottish continental shelf when storms
235 created topographic Rossby waves along the slope (Gordon and Huthnance, 1987) and on the
236 southern slope of the Iceland-Faroe ridge (Miller, Lermusiaux, & Poulain, 1996). The fact that
237 they are so clearly observed in the present study is somewhat surprising, given that no previous
238 reports of resonant topographic Rossby waves have been made from the Antarctic continental

239 shelf. An explanation can be that the topography in this area is steep and shallow such that the first
240 mode Rossby wave has a comparatively high resonant frequency. Semi-regular oscillations with
241 distinct sub-inertial periods have however been found e.g. in the Weddell Sea (Darelius et al, 2008;
242 Jensen et al, 2013) and are not inconsistent with the theory of resonant topographic Rossby waves.
243 The measurements at S2 shows (Fig. 2; see also Ha et al, 2014) that in addition to the resonant
244 waves there is a more slowly varying current out from the shelf, transporting water and heat away
245 from the continent (Ha et al, 2014). However, at any one time the velocity and temperature field
246 is completely dominated by the Rossby waves oscillating on a 60-80 hour time scale. The
247 oscillations are comparable, or even larger, in magnitude to tides (Fig. 3). Single CTD and LADCP
248 measurements are hence of limited value in this region. In order to get an estimate of quantities
249 important for oceanic heat flux to glaciers, such as warm layer thickness, heat transport or bottom
250 temperature it is imperative to measure during at least one Rossby cycle (i.e. about 80 hours). This
251 is particularly important when drawing conclusions of long-term trends based on sparse CTD
252 measurements.

253 It is also important to distinguish these resonant Rossby waves from eddies. Both waves and eddies
254 have oscillations in velocity and temperature/salinity, although eddies are less regular. However,
255 eddies arise from an instability in the main flow and act to transport fluid parcels across gradients
256 in depth, density or velocity to ultimately stabilize the flow. For example eddy-induced transport
257 is a primary contributor to mass and property fluxes across the slope in the West Antarctic
258 Peninsula (see e.g. Thompson et al, 2014; Moffat et al, 2009; Martinson and McKee, 2012). Single
259 linear Rossby waves on the other hand are triggered by external events, e.g. wind bursts, and have
260 no impact on the mean flow. Hence, although there is a clear correlation between velocity and
261 temperature, the waves found in the present study does not induce any net oceanic heat flux

262 towards or away from the coast. This is expected since waves per definition does not move any
263 fluid and have closed streamlines. If the waves break, e.g. when they encounter small-scale
264 topography, or if multiple waves occur at the same time, a net transport in the cross-shelf direction
265 (e.g. StLaurent et al, 2013). Such effects are however second order compared to the pronounced
266 lifting/dropping of the thermocline that the oscillations themselves induce.

267

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332

333 **Table 1:** Mooring: coordinates, depth, deployment periods and instrumentation. The ADCP's were
 334 both 150-kHz instruments from RDI deployed upward-looking at the bottom to measure current
 335 velocity profiles. The observed velocity data were processed using the WinADCP® software. The
 336 MicroCATs on S3 unfortunately stopped recording data in January 2013.

Mooring	Latitude	Longitude	Depth	Depl	Recov	ADCP	MicroCA Ts
S1	72° 27.279' S	116° 20.92' W	584 m	2010-02-15	2012-03-01	Y	5-7
S2	73° 0.94' S	117° 14.86' W	614 m	2010-12-25	2012-02-11	Y	6
S3	72° 55.60' S	117° 34.75' W	578 m	2012-03-01	2014-01-25	N	3

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338

339 **Table 2:** Approximate topographic parameters for the three mooring sites, based on bathymetric
 340 data from the IBCSO data base (Arndt et al, 2013). In the table, α denotes bottom slope, L denotes
 341 distance between the trough crest and the trough bottom and H_0 is the depth at the trough crest
 342 (see sketch in Fig. 7c). Also shown are the calculated frequencies ω_R for the first two modes of
 343 resonant topographic Rossby waves (expression (10)) and the corresponding periods T_R .

Mooring	α	L	H_0	H	ω_R^1 (rad/s)	ω_R^2 (rad/s)	T_R^1 (h)	T_R^2 (h)
S1	0.001	100 km	350 m	400 m	$1.1 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$3.7 \cdot 10^{-6}$	157 h	470 h
S2	0.01	45 km	250 m	475 m	$4.2 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.4 \cdot 10^{-5}$	41 h	124 h
S3	0.005	45 km	370 m	480 m	$2.1 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$6.7 \cdot 10^{-6}$	83 h	250 h

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348 **Figure captions**

349

350 **Figure 1:** Map of the region with all moorings, together with mooring setup (right panel)

351 Map of the study region with the moorings S1, S2 and S3. The orange arrows show the rotation of
352 the velocities to fit the orientation of the channel, with U as the along-trough velocity and V the
353 cross-trough velocity. The red and purple lines with arrows depict the general circulation pattern
354 and cooling of the warm deep-water (Ha et al., 2014). Bathymetry is from Arndt et al. (2013).

355

356 **Figure 2.** Velocity, temperature and salinity from mooring S2. The four panels show hourly
357 averaged data according to color bars as a function of time and depth. (a) detided along-channel
358 velocity (positive in the South-Eastward direction, i.e. towards the continent), (b) detided across-
359 channel velocity (positive in the North-Eastward direction, i.e. down the slope), (c) temperature
360 and (d) salinity. Black triangles in (c) and (d) show the approximate positions of the MicroCATs.

361

362 **Figure 3.** Fourier spectra (black lines) and rotary spectra (grey lines) of velocity data from S2, 100
363 mab. Red lines show the frequency for zero group velocity according to the numerical model in
364 Brink (2006)

365

366 **Figure 4:** Results from wavelet analysis of data from mooring S2 (a) Along-channel velocity,
367 vertical average (b) Across-channel velocity, vertical average (c) Temperature, bottom value. Red
368 color indicates high energy levels and blue low levels. The bold black contours are the 95%
369 confidence levels. Values outside cone of influence (parabolic black contour) are not plotted. The
370 arrow in panel (a) show the time of the oscillations in Fig. 5

371

372 **Figure 5.** Oscillations in velocity and temperature. (a) Detided across-trough velocity component
373 (b) Detided along-trough velocity component (c) Temperature (d) Quiver-plot showing lowpassed
374 velocity anomalies from S2, 100 mab. The velocity scale is given in the lower left corner and the
375 color of the arrow indicates the temperature at 100 mab. The dashed, black line indicates the
376 direction of the trough. Dates are given in the format month/day.

377

378 **Figure 6.** Time series of temperature from the three MicroCATs at mooring S3. For location of
379 the mooring see Figure 1 and Table 1. (a) Complete record (b) Example of oscillations occurring
380 between days 128 - 145 (c) Example of oscillations occurring between days 185 - 202. Color
381 indicate MicroCAT depth according to legend in (a).

382

383 **Figure 7.** (a) Real topography (shaded area) as measured by multibeam on the IB Oden during a
384 cruise to the region in 2010, together with a straight dotted line representing the simplified
385 topography used for analytical solutions. (b) The mode structures obtained from the analytical
386 solution (dotted lines) and the numerical solution obtained using the real bathymetry and
387 stratification (solid lines). The black lines show the first mode, the red lines show the second mode.
388 (c) Sketch showing the topographic parameters in the analytical expressions and for the
389 calculations of the resonant frequencies in Table 2.

390

391 **Figure 8.** Dispersion relation for the analytical solution (dotted lines) and the numerical solution
392 based on real topography and stratification (solid lines). Black lines show first mode, red lines
393 show second mode. The shaded square indicates the frequency boundaries of the observed

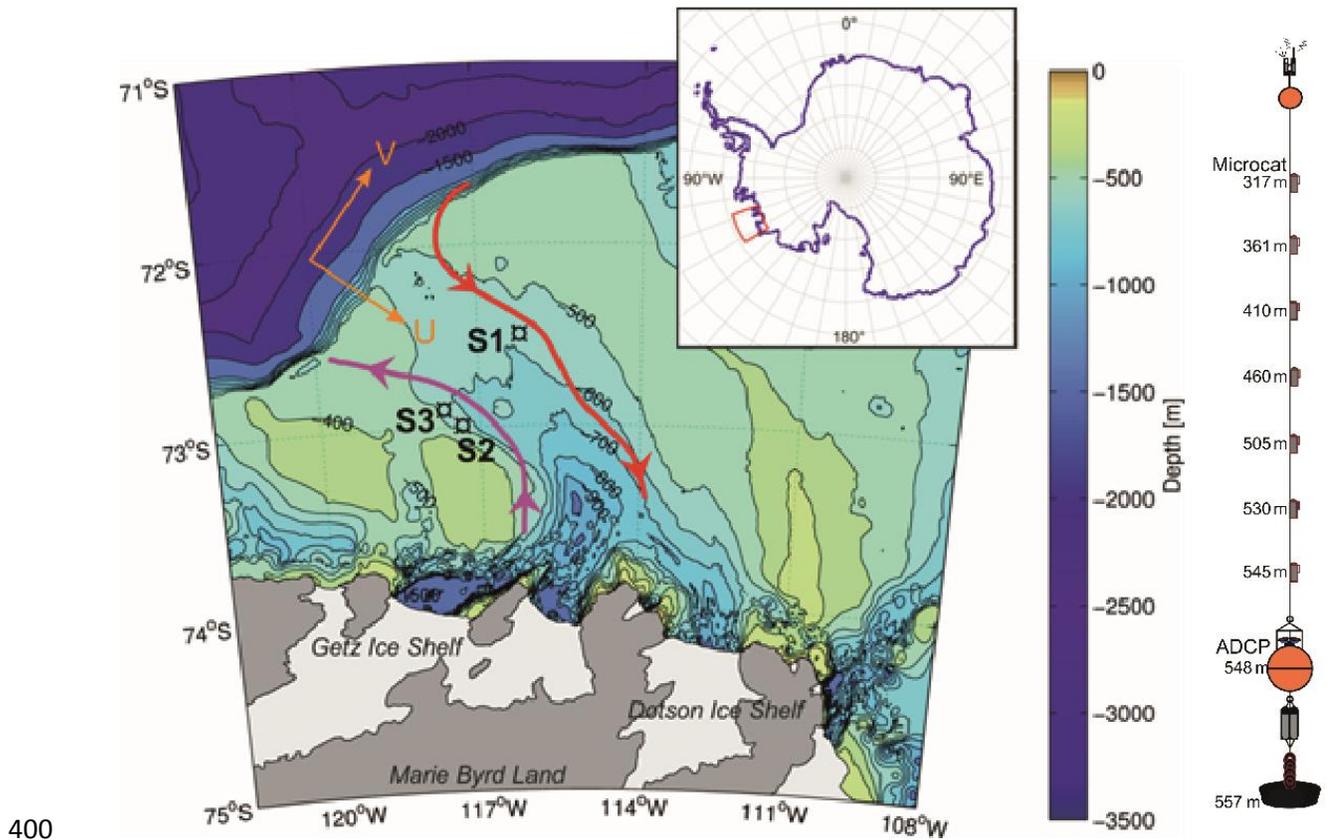
394 spectrum peak (see Fig. 3) and the wavelength boundaries (green lines in Fig. 7). Red circle
395 indicate the zero group velocity frequency-wavelength combination used.

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397

398 **Figures**

399 **Figure 1**



400

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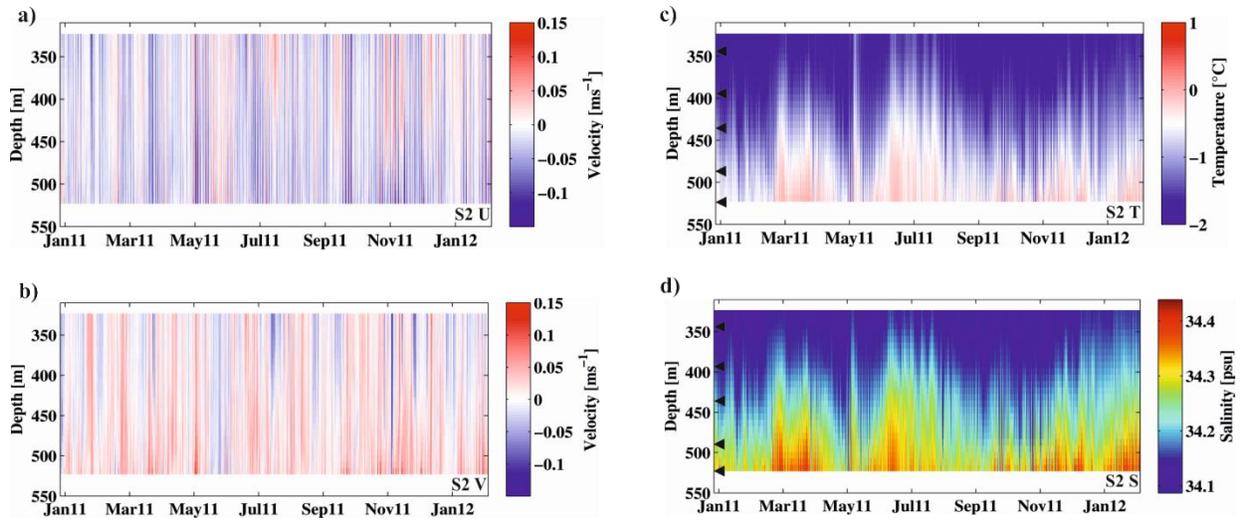
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405 and cooling of the warm deep-water (Ha et al., 2014). Bathymetry is from Arndt et al. (2013).

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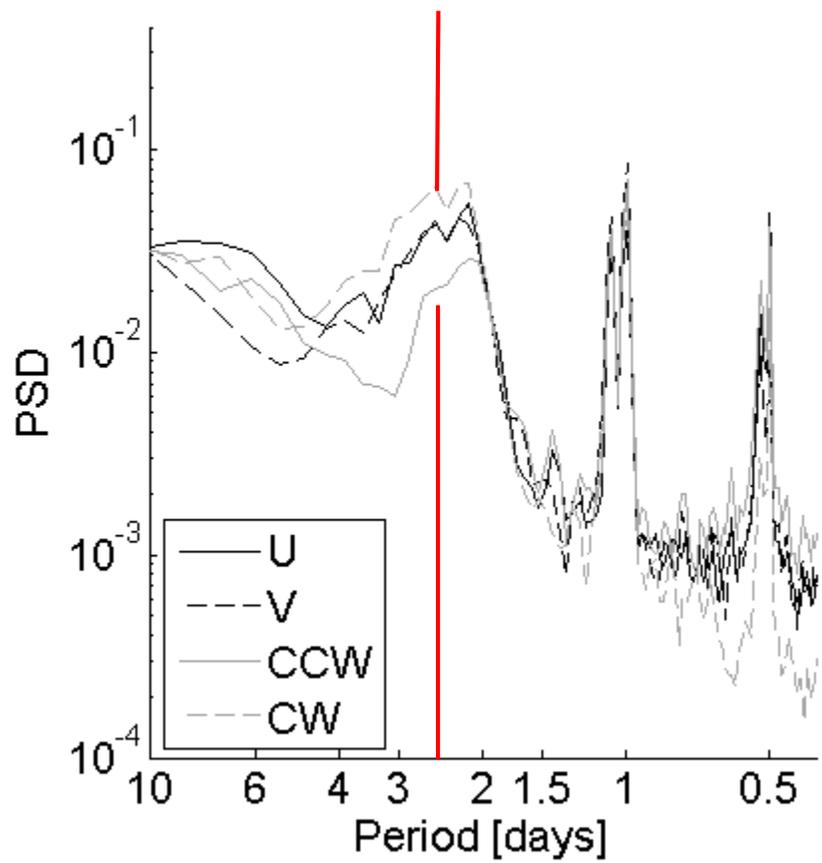
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413

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414 **Figure 3**

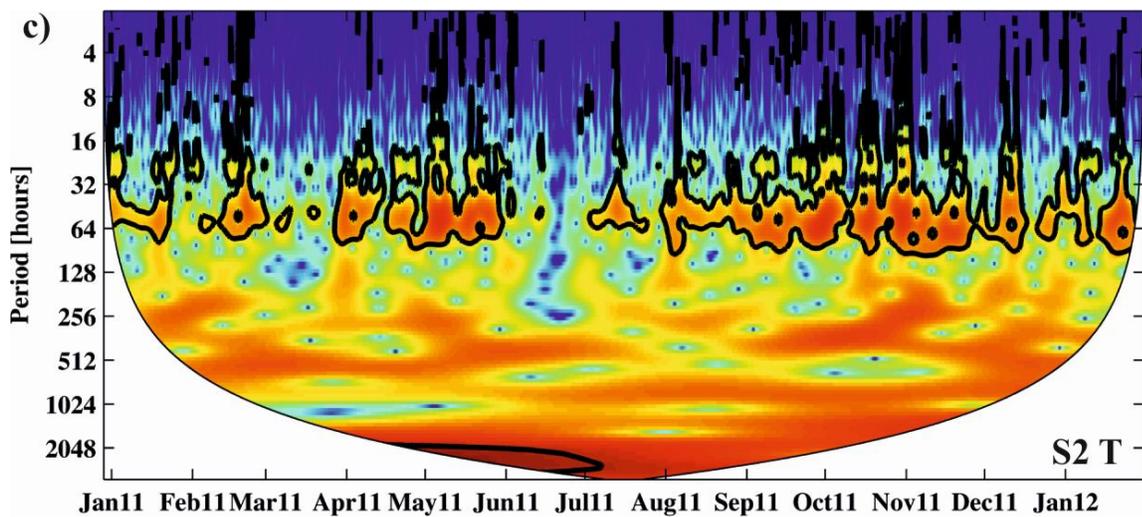
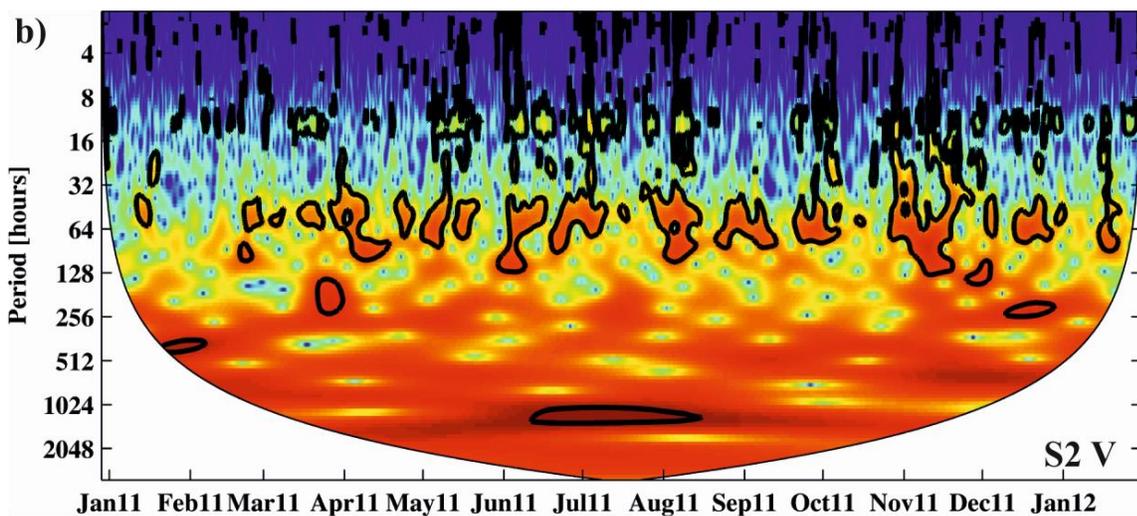
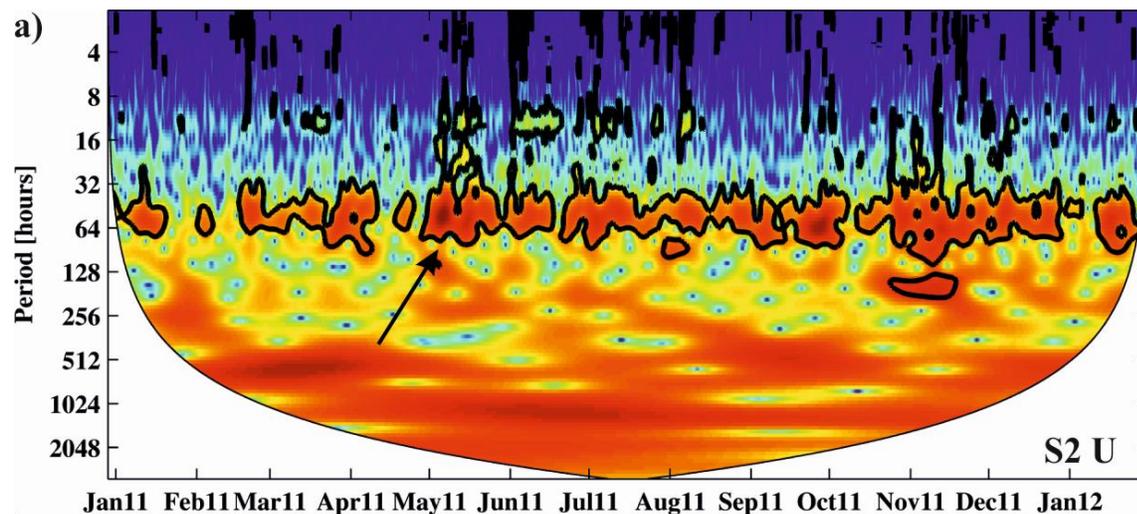


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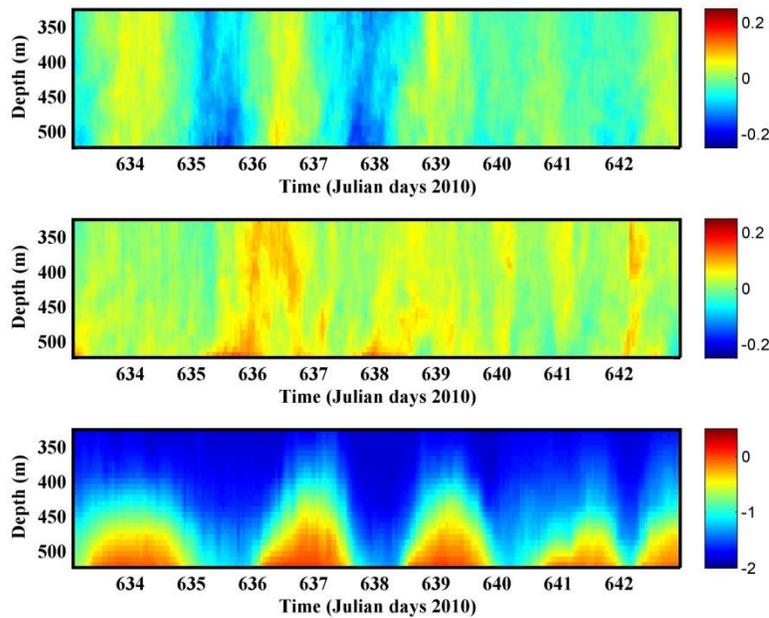
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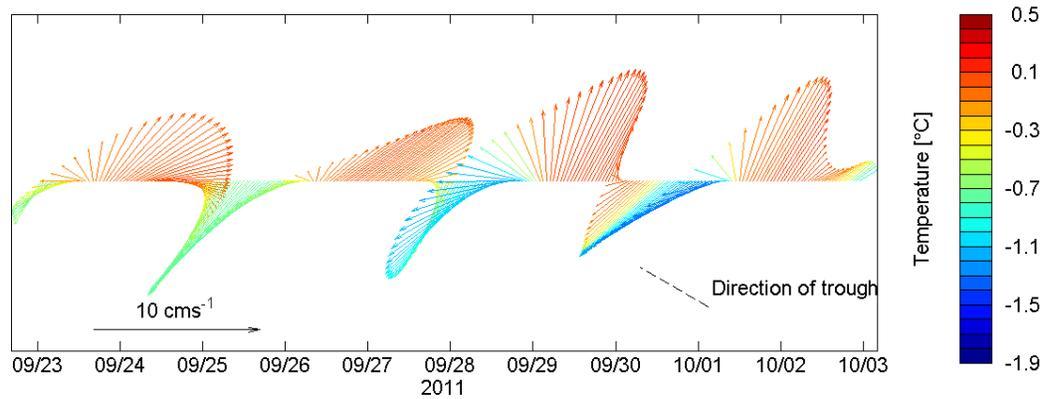


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430 Figure 5



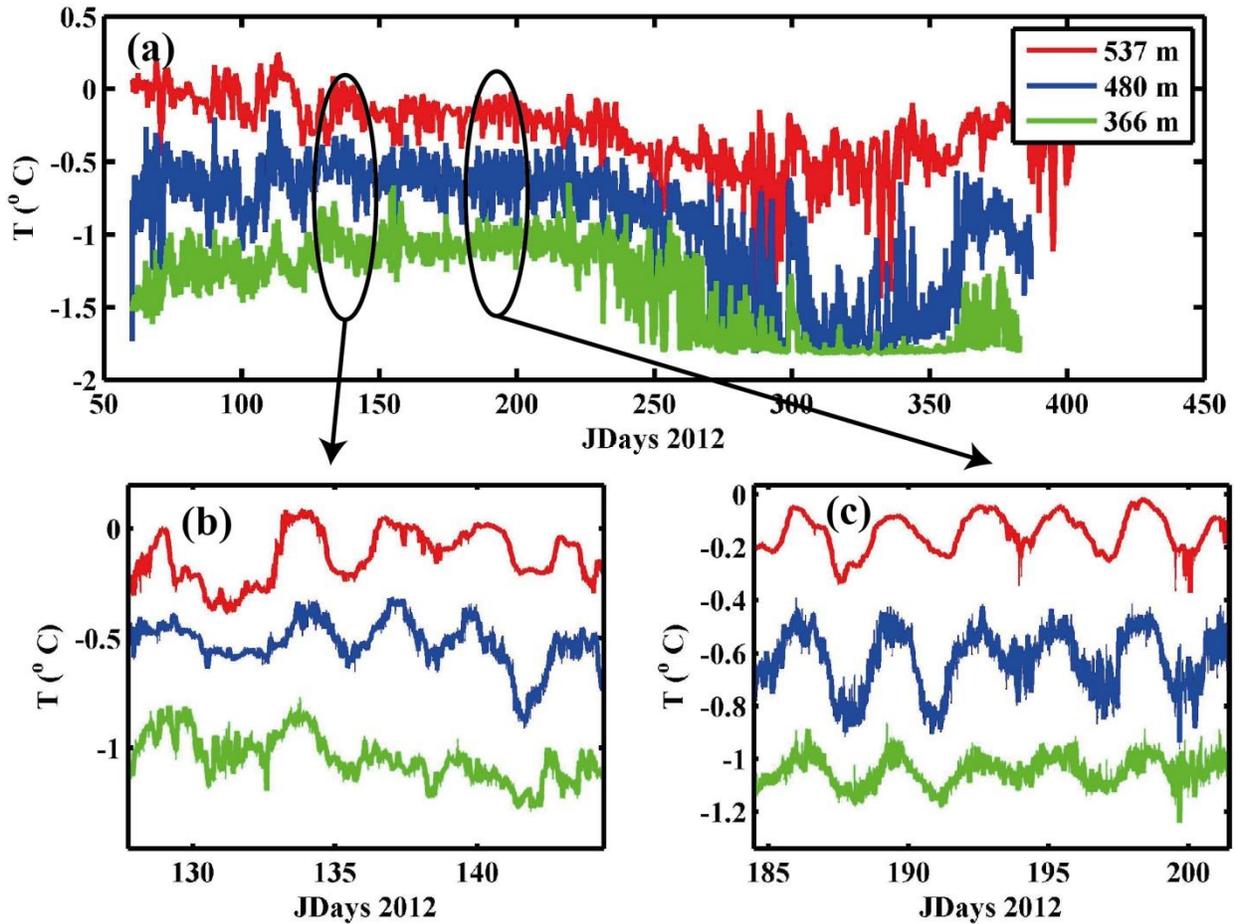
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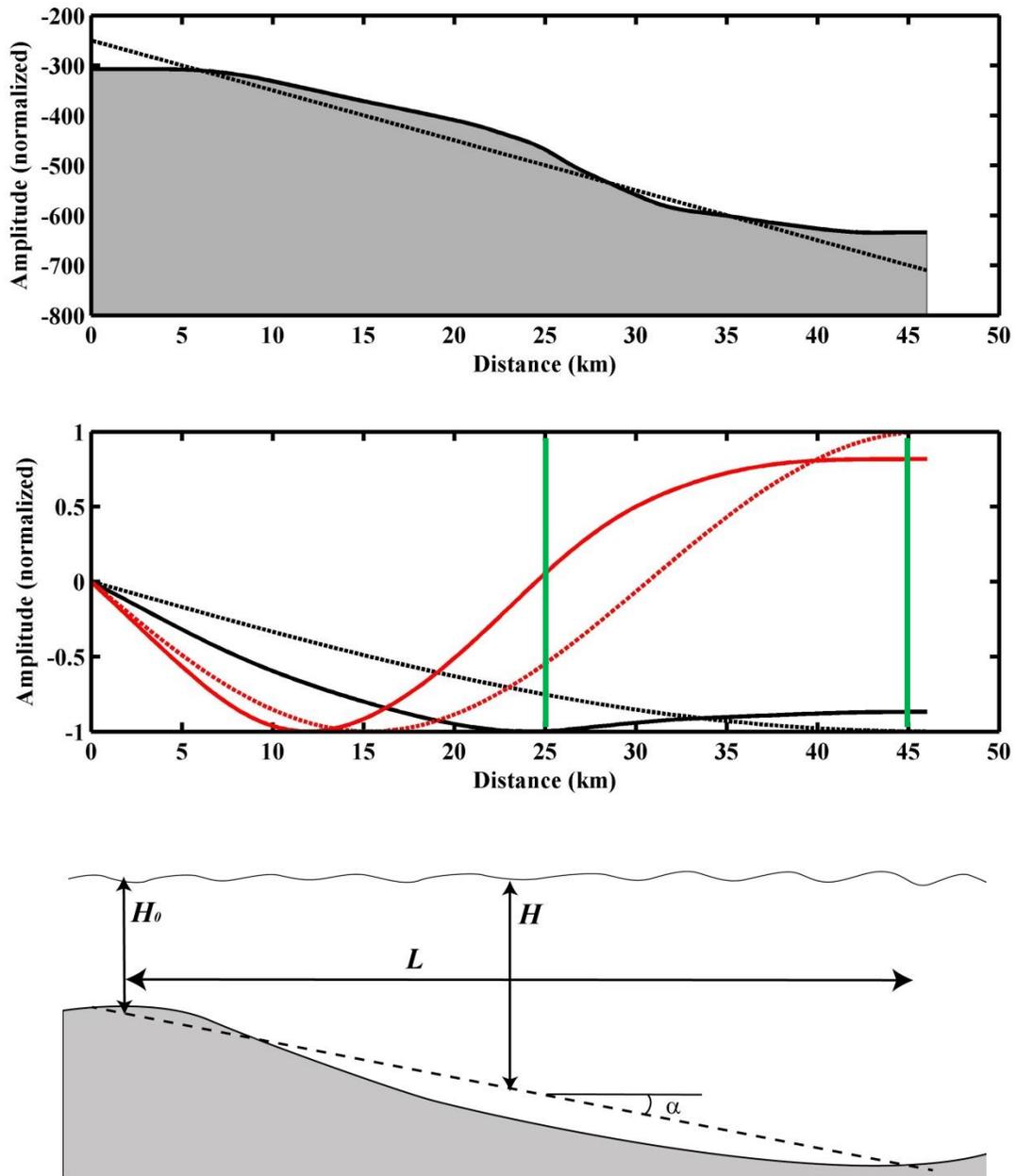
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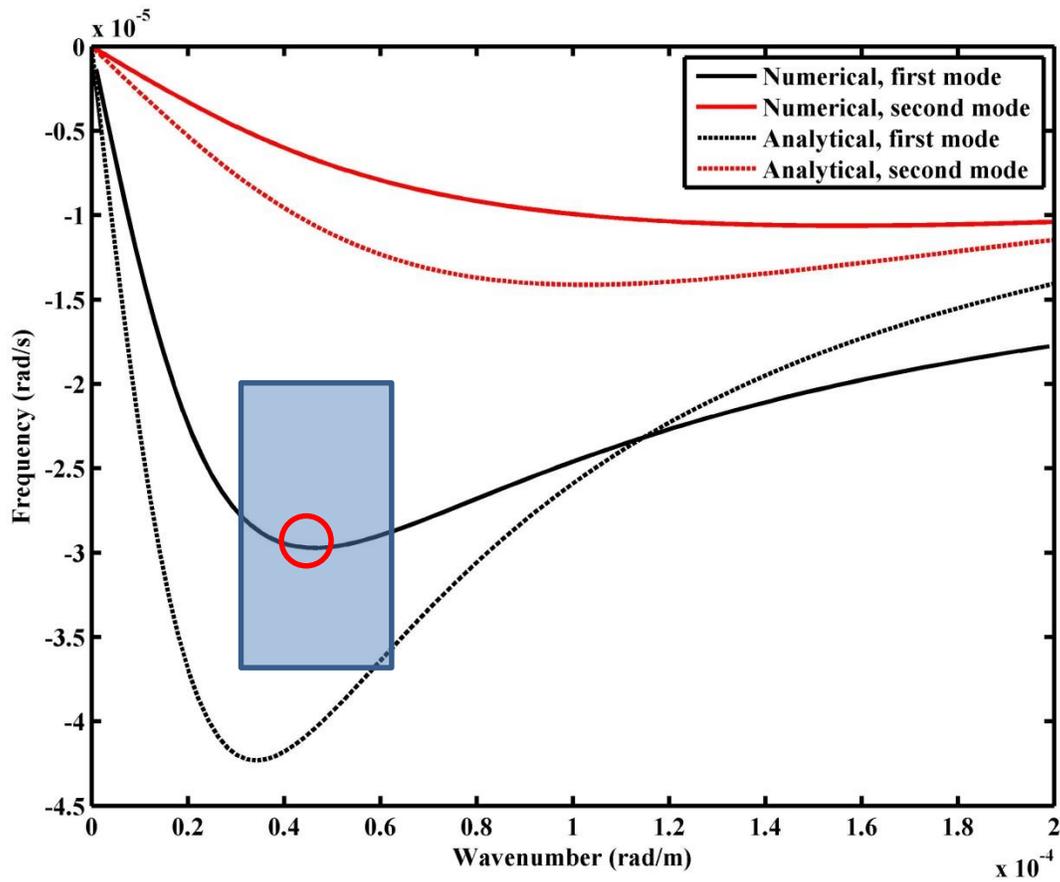
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459

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