1. Introduction

The ocean is one of the largest and least understood components of the global climate system. Being a player of fundamental importance in climate variability, the ocean still anchors the accuracy of climate models. One of the limiting factors is our inability to resolve oceanic submesoscale eddies characterised by the length scale $\mathcal{O}(1)$ km. For the time being, there are neither experimental facilities nor mathematical models of the ocean that could provide geoscientists with high-resolution and long-time data coverage permitting to study how different multiscale flow components interact. Whereas detailed global ocean measurements on all scales are out of the question for a long time to come, the leading-edge results in numerical modelling instill confidence that high-resolution eddy simulations may become feasible in the near future. Recently, ocean general circulation models (OGCMs) based on nested grids and operating at high resolutions started to appear (Gula et al., 2015). However, such a possibility is not yet within the reach of the modern OGCMs operating on the planetary scale due to their incapability to operate in fully Eddy-resolving regimes, that is, with resolved scales down to 1 km. Even with the cutting-edge model resolution of 1/12°, the eddies are still only marginally resolved and the simulation times are only tens of years (Marsh et al., 2009; Treguier et al., 2014). Although recent milestone simulations, used the MIT general circulation model, demonstrate the ability of the model to work at very high spatial resolutions (1/146° to 1/50° horizontal grid spacing and 90 vertical levels) and to resolve the eddies (Armstrong et al., 2014), the simulation times are short and systematic exploration of the solution convergence and parameter sensitivity studies are unfeasible (Armstrong et al., 2014). However, yet the lack of immense computational power corners OGCMs into unavoidable eddy parametrisation which, being so far largely inaccurate, remain an Achilles heel of the ocean modelling. This sets a favourable situation for lighter oceanic models to guide the research of ocean eddy dynamics until OGCMs can resolve all important length scales for long-time runs.
In this work we take this opportunity and consider dynamically viable and feature-energised quasi-geostrophic (QG) model, which simulates the mesoscale motions well beyond its formal limits of applicability (Mundt et al., 1997; Zurita-Gotor and Vallis, 2009). Our goal and the novelty of this work is to explore the eddy effects for a broad range of Reynolds numbers $Re$ so that the flow is increasingly controlled by the explicit nonlinear eddy dynamics rather than by diffusive eddy parameterisation. The other goal is to establish a set of benchmark double-gyre solutions and put forward a methodology for systematic analyses of eddy effects in more advanced, but also much more computationally expensive, primitive-equation ocean models.

There are three precursors to this work. The first one is the work by Holland (1978), who pioneered a two-layer eddy-permitting QG model with the horizontal grid resolution of $dx = 20$ km and showed that dynamically resolved fluctuations feedback on the ocean gyres. The second work is by Barnier et al. (1991) who studied the three- and six-layer double-gyre QG model with the horizontal grid resolution of $dx = 10$ km. The main conclusion of the authors is that the high baroclinic modes play a catalytic role in eddy-mean interactions and, thus, elongate the eastward-jet extensions of the western boundary currents such as the Gulf Stream and Kuroshio. The third study is the one by Siegel et al. (2001), in which a benchmark six-layer QG solution of ocean gyres with relatively large $Re$ was spun up for six years and run for another three years with the horizontal resolution of $dx = 1.6$ km. The authors concluded that at large $Re$ the time-mean kinetic energy is relatively independent of $Re$, but meridional eddy fluxes keep increasing with it. There are also some works studying QG surface dynamics requiring high horizontal and vertical resolutions (e.g. Roulet et al., 2012), but this dynamics is beyond the scope of our study, where we centre on vertical scales of motion related to the barocline and captured by the low baroclinic modes, since these motions are the most important ones for the Gulf Stream mesoscale eddy dynamics, which is the main focus of our work.

In our work we continue and extend the past studies by (i) considering much more realistic flow regimes, (ii) reaching much larger $Re$, (iii) refining the horizontal grid resolution down to $dx = 937$ m for more accurate representation of mesoscale eddies, and (iv) by significantly extending the simulation times for much more reliable statistics. Our use of the advanced numerics yields another gaining factor of 4 in terms of the finer spatial resolution (Karabasov et al., 2009), though this factor may be smaller at extremely high resolutions. To summarize, in terms of the dynamically resolved degrees of freedom and achieved simulation years, our benchmark solution is at least $1.5 \times 10^6$, 8500, and 500 times more expensive, in terms of the degrees of freedom and simulation time, than the ones in (Holland, 1978), (Barnier et al., 1991), and (Siegel et al., 2001), respectively. We also looked more thoroughly into the time-mean flow and eddy properties and their dependencies on $Re$ and studied the dynamic effects of high baroclinic modes.

2. Double-gyre Model

We consider the classical double-gyre QG model, describing idealised midlatitude ocean circulation, in three- and six-layer configurations (denoted as 3L and 6L). The multi-layer QG equations (Pedlosky, 1987; Vallis, 2006) for the potential vorticity (PV) anomaly $q_i$ in a domain $\Omega$ are

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} q_i + \mathbf{J} (\psi_i, q_i + \beta y) = \delta_{i1} F_w - \delta_{i1} \mu \Delta \psi_i + \nu \Delta^2 \psi_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, N,$$

(1)

where $\mathbf{J}(f, g) = \int_0^1 g(x) \partial_x f(x) \, dx$ and $\delta_{ij}$ is the Kronecker symbol; $N = (3, 6)$ is the number of stacked isopycnal fluid layers for the 3L and 6L setups with depths (from top to bottom): $H_1 = 0.25$ km, $H_2 = 0.75$ km, $H_3 = 3.0$ km; and $H_1 = H_2 = H_3 = H_4 = 0.25$ km, $H_5 = 1.0$ km, $H_6 = 2.0$ km, respectively. The computational domain $\Omega$ is a square, closed, flat-bottom basin of dimensions $L \times L \times 4$ km, with $L = 3840$ km. The asymmetric wind curl forcing (Ekman pumping) drives the double-gyre ocean circulation, and it is given by

$$F_w = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll}
-1.80 \pi t_0 \sin (\pi y/y_0), & y \in [0, y_0), \\
2.22 \pi t_0 \sin (\pi (y - y_0)/(L - y_0)), & y \in [y_0, L],
\end{array} \right.$$ 

with a wind stress $t_0 = 0.3$ N m$^{-2}$ and the tilted zero forcing line $y_0 = 0.4L + 0.2x$, $x \in [0, L]$. Notice that $\tau$ is chosen so that to avoid unrealistically strong eastward jet in low-viscosity (high Reynolds number) regimes. The planetary vorticity gradient is $\beta = 2 \times 10^{-11}$ m$^{-1}$ s$^{-1}$, the bottom friction parameter is $\mu = 4 \times 10^{-8}$ s$^{-1}$, and the lateral eddy viscosity $\nu$ is a variable parameter specified further below.

The layerwise PV anomaly $q_i$ and the velocity streamfunction $\psi_i$ are dynamically coupled through the system of elliptic equations:

$$q_i = \Delta \psi_i - (1 - \delta_{i1}) S_{1i} (\psi_i - \psi_{i-1}) - (1 - \delta_{i1}) S_{2i} (\psi_i - \psi_{i+1}), \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, N,$$

(2)

with the stratification parameters $S_{1i}, S_{2i}$ chosen so that the first and the second Rossby deformation radii for the 3L and 6L configurations are $R_d = 40$ km, $R_d = 23$ km; and $R_d = 40$ km, $R_d = 16$ km, $R_d = 11.6$ km, $R_d = 9.8$ km, $R_d = 7.8$ km, respectively. Note that $R_d$ is the same in both configurations as well as $H_1$. Systems (1 and 2) are augmented with the integral mass conservation constraints (McWilliams, 1977):

$$\partial_t \int_\Omega (\psi_i - \psi_{i+1}) \, dydx = 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, N - 1,$$

(3)

with the zero initial condition, and with the partial-slip lateral boundary condition:

$$\partial_n \psi_i - \alpha \psi_i - \alpha \psi_i = 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, N,$$

(4)

where $\alpha = 120$ km and $n$ is the normal-to-wall unit vector.

The QG model (1–4) is solved with the high-resolution CABARET method based on a second-order, non-dissipative and low-dispersive, conservative advection scheme (Karabasov et al., 2009). The distinctive feature of this method is its ability to simulate large-$Re$ flow regimes at much lower, compared to conventional methods, computational costs. An efficient parallelisation of the QG model allowed us to carry out high-performance computations on uniform horizontal grids of size $G = (129^3, 257^3, 513^3, 1025^3, 2049^3, 4097^3)$, where the grid of size $X \times X$ is abbreviated as $X^3$.

Our horizontal grid resolution is consistent with the vertical one so that the shortest deformation radius is at least marginally resolved with 5–10 grid points. Further simultaneous refinement of the horizontal and vertical resolutions is, of course, desirable, but remains beyond the scope of this paper due to the limit of our computational resources.

Finally, we would like to remind that QG approximation relies on several assumptions, and some of them (smallness of the vertical velocity and density anomalies) including the key one - smallness of the Rossby number - break down for submesoscale motions operating on the scales shorter than the relevant Rossby deformation radius. Given our finest nominal grid resolution of about one km and the fact that numerical schemes typically require 5–10 grid points to represent a length scale with reasonable accuracy (Karabasov et al., 2009), we model the length scales down to 5–10 km, which may be near the edge of formal QG applicability.

3. Analyses of the double-gyre solutions

In this section we describe various properties of the ocean model solutions, study main dependencies of the large-scale flow and mesoscale eddies on the Reynolds number $Re$ and define some diagnostics for the next sections. The total basin-average time-mean
potential $\mathcal{P}$ and kinetic $\mathcal{K}_i$ energies of the flow are given by

$$\mathcal{P} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \frac{H_i S_{ij}^2}{A} \int \int_{\Omega} (\psi_i - \psi_{i-1})^2 \, dydx, \quad i = 2, 3, \ldots, N,$$

$$\mathcal{K}_i = \frac{1}{2} \frac{H_i}{A} \int \int_{\Omega} (\nabla \psi_i)^2 \, dydx, \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, N,$$

where $A = L_x L_y H$, and $H = \sum_{i=1}^{N} H_i$. By decomposing $\psi_i = \overline{\psi}_i + \psi_i'$ into the time-mean (overbarred) and fluctuating (primed) components, we define the eddy potential energy $\mathcal{E}_P$ and the eddy kinetic energy $\mathcal{E}_K$ as

$$\mathcal{E}_P = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \frac{H_i S_{ij}^2}{A} \int \int_{\Omega} (\psi_i' - \psi_{i-1}')^2 \, dydx, \quad i = 2, 3, \ldots, N,$$

$$\mathcal{E}_K = \frac{1}{2} \frac{H_i}{A} \int \int_{\Omega} (\nabla \psi_i')^2 \, dydx, \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, N,$$

and the energies of the mean flow, denoted by angular brackets, are found as

$$\langle \mathcal{P} \rangle = \mathcal{P} - \mathcal{E}_P, \quad \langle \mathcal{K}_i \rangle = \mathcal{K}_i - \mathcal{E}_K, \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, N.$$

We also introduce the eddy PV flux divergence $J_i' = -(f(\psi, q) - f(\nabla \psi))$, referred to as the eddy forcing, its time mean $\mathcal{F}_i$ and standard deviation $\sigma_i'$, as well as the corresponding time-mean eddy PV flux $\overline{\mathcal{F}_i'} = \nabla \psi_i'$, where $\mathbf{v}_i = (\partial_y \psi_i, -\partial_x \psi_i)$. To compute the upper-layer time-mean eddy PV flux $\overline{\mathcal{F}_i'}$ between the gyres, we calculated the integral

$$\overline{\mathcal{F}_i'} = \frac{1}{S_i} \int_{\Omega} \mathcal{F}_i' \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS$$

over the separatix $S$ - the line with $\min_{\Omega} (\overline{\mathcal{F}_i'})$, where $\Omega'$ is a domain that includes the eastward jet and contains the most intensive eddy forcing; $\mathbf{n}$ is the unit normal vector pointing northward. The $\Omega$-average integral of a function $f(x, y)$ is denoted by $\int_{\Omega} f$, and $\overline{f^{(n)k}}$ stands for the time-mean value of $f$ computed on a $k^2$ grid for the $N$-layer model on the $j$th layer.

We define the maximum Reynolds number as

$$Re = URd_1/v,$$

where $U$ is the maximum speed in the time-mean eastward jet, and $Rd_1$ is the first baroclinic Rossby deformation radius, which is constant. Note that $Re$ can be defined differently, by using other velocity and length scales (e.g., (Siegel et al., 2001)); our definition emphasizes the eastward jet and mesoscale eddies. In the next sections, we study how different properties of the flow depend on $Re \in [96, 10368]$, which is inversely proportional to the eddy viscosity $\nu \in [62.5, 200] \text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$.

3.1. Numerical convergence study

This section focuses on the numerical convergence analysis and on the restrictions imposed by the eddy viscosity on the grid resolution for accurate approximation of the solution. The properly resolved flow is full of small-scale eddies concentrated around the western boundary currents and the eastward jet (Fig. 1). These eddies are responsible for the backscatter that maintains the eastward jet (Berloff, 2005), therefore, resolving them is crucial.

We identified two factors that substantially influence the quality of the solution. The first factor is statistical, and it deals with the solution spin-up and simulation times. We found that the six-year spin-up intervals (Siegel et al., 2001) do not allow the solutions to reach their statistical equilibria. Moreover, due to the interdecadal variability of the solutions (Berloff et al., 2007a; 2007b), the three-year-long records used for the analysis in (Siegel et al., 2001) cannot be statistically viable. Therefore, in all our numerical experiments, the model is initially spun up from the state of rest over the required time interval $T_{\text{spin}} = [50, 100]$ years, which depends on the eddy viscosity $\nu$ and the number of isopycnal layers $N$, until the model solution becomes statistically equilibrated. Then, the solution is computed for another $T_{\text{spin}} = 100$ years and saved for analyses. As an indicator of the spin-up stages and the achieved statistical equilibria, we used the energy time series (Fig. 2). We found that less viscous flows have longer $T_{\text{spin}}$ and $T_{\text{spin}}^{(3)} > T_{\text{spin}}^{(6)}$ for all the solutions studied. We attribute this to the longer and stronger eastward jet extension in the 3L case and discuss this further below.

The second factor is the grid resolution needed to ensure that statistically the numerical solution is sufficiently converged to the true solution. In order to test the convergence, we computed the solution for each $\nu$, studied in the paper, on progressively refined grids and compared the results. The grid size is assumed to be sufficient, if its halving produces only small change in the relative $l^2$-norm error $\delta(f, g) = \|f - g\|_2/\|g\|_2$ (Table 1), where $f$ and $g$ are solutions computed on the coarse and the fine grids, respectively. To study the error behaviour in the neighbourhood of the eastward jet, which is the most $Re$-dependent part of the solution, we introduced a similar $l^2$-norm error $\delta$ computed in the restricted domain around the jet ($\sim 20\%$ of the basin). Note that the precursors works by Barnier et al. (1991) and Siegel et al. (2001) did not estimate the convergence of their solutions.

The largest $\delta$ were found for the most viscous solutions with $v = 200 \text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$ and on the $257^2$ grid: $\delta(\nabla^3(129), \nabla^3(257)) = 20\%$ and $\delta(\nabla^6(129), \nabla^6(257)) = 15\%$. We hypothesize that these large numbers indicate the enhanced importance of marginally resolving $Rd_1$. In large-$Re$ solutions, which are in the main focus of this study, $\delta$ is $1 - 3\%$ and $\delta$ is $3 - 4\%$ (Table 1). Relative error is not computed for the 40972 solutions, since the 81932 solution is not available, but the dependency between the required grid resolution and the eddy viscosity suggests that the 40972 resolution is adequate. Note that the horizontal and vertical resolutions in the largest solutions are consistent as discussed in Section 2.

To guarantee numerical convergence of the solutions, we found that the horizontal grid spacing has to be halved in each direction in response to halving $\nu$. Note that this grid refinement halves the time step needed to maintain stable time integration. Overall, since $U$ tends to increase with $Re$, on the next refined grid the computation is 10 times more expensive. It may seem that the proposed convergence criterion is too tight and leads to unnecessarily highly-accurate solutions, which do not reveal new small-scale features of the flow (especially in less viscous regimes), but in terms of the restricted error $\delta$, which is significantly larger than $\delta$, the convergence criterion is not that strict.

The cumulative effect of properly resolved mesoscale eddies on the large-scale flow is illustrated by Figs. 3(a–c), where the underresolved solutions (i.e., when the large-scale flow on the coarser grid is significantly affected by the small-scale errors) on $257^2$ grid are compared with the properly resolved (i.e., converged) solutions computed on $1025^2$ grid. Each underresolved solution differs substantially from the converged one (Table 2): its eastward-jet penetration length $L_\nu$ (i.e., the distance from the western boundary to the most eastern point at the tip of the time-mean jet, where the time-mean flow speed is less than $0.1 \text{m} \text{s}^{-1}$) and volume transport $Q$ (i.e., the difference between the maximum and minimum of the time-mean barotropic transport streamfunction) are considerably smaller and the flow is less energetic. We also investigated how the grid resolution affects the eddy forcing, including its time mean $\overline{f}$ and standard deviation $\sigma_i' (- f')$. Comparison of $257^2$ and $1025^2$ solutions for $\nu = 25 \text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$ illustrates how much the eddy forcing is underestimated on the coarser grid (Fig. 4). The integrals of the underresolved
Fig. 1. A sequence of 3L and 6L solutions for increasing $Re$. Shown are an instantaneous upper-layer PV anomaly $q_1^{(3)}$ (first column) and $q_1^{(3)}$ (second column), as well as $q_1^{(6)}$ (third column) and $q_1^{(6)}$ (fourth column), all given in units of $[s^{-1} f_0^{-1}]$, for different $\nu$ [m$^2$ s$^{-1}$] and the eddy-resolving grids $G$. $f_0 = 0.83 \times 10^{-4}$ is the Coriolis parameter. Note that at lower $\nu$ the eddies and coherent vortices are more abundant and pronounced, and the eastward jet is always longer for the 3L solutions than for the 6L ones.
creases with decreasing time is larger for the low-
6L solutions for different values of viscosity

\[ \nu \]

Fig. 2. Time series of the non-dimensional total potential energy \( P \) for (a) 3L and (b) 6L solutions for different values of viscosity \( \nu \). Note that low-frequency variability increases with decreasing \( \nu \). Some time series are longer than others, since the spin-up time is larger for the low-\( \nu \) solutions while the simulation time is always kept equal to 100 years.

Table 2

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<tr>
<th>( G_1 )</th>
<th>( dx )</th>
<th>( \nu )</th>
<th>( \nu ) ( (3) )</th>
<th>( \nu ) ( (6) )</th>
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<td>129^2</td>
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<td>200</td>
<td>120</td>
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</tr>
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<td>332</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>50</td>
<td>1088</td>
<td>848</td>
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<td>25</td>
<td>2368</td>
<td>1984</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>4928</td>
<td>3848</td>
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<td>6.25</td>
<td>10368</td>
<td>8488</td>
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Table 3

<table>
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<th>( G_1 )</th>
<th>( I_2(\int J_{\omega}^2 , dt) )</th>
<th>( I_2(\int J_{\omega}^4 , dt) )</th>
<th>( I_2(\sigma(\int J_{\omega}^{12}) )</th>
<th>( I_2(\sigma(\int J_{\omega}^{14}) )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
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<td>1.09 \times 10^{-3}</td>
<td>0.75 \times 10^{-3}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1025^2</td>
<td>0.06 \times 10^{-3}</td>
<td>0.05 \times 10^{-3}</td>
<td>1.90 \times 10^{-3}</td>
<td>1.70 \times 10^{-3}</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Fig. 3. Effect of the resolution error. The time-mean transport velocity streamfunction \( \psi \) on 257^2 and 1025^2 grids for \( \nu = 25 \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-1} \). The upper and lower panels correspond to 3L and 6L solutions, respectively; contour interval is 0.5 Sv.

3.2. Parameter study

Sensitivity of the solutions to changes in problem parameters is an important issue that we addressed systematically. We carried out a parameter study by widely varying the main parameters of the problem: the bottom friction \( \mu \), the partial-slip parameter \( \alpha \), and the Rossby deformation radii. Not that the radii were varied proportionally so that the ratios between them remain unchanged. Only one...
where a small parameter was varied at a time, while all the others were fixed at their main values (Section 2), and focused on main flow characteristics such as the eastward jet penetration length \( L_p \), the volume transport \( Q \) and the relative difference \( \delta \) (Table 4, Fig. 5).

In the 3L and 6L configurations, the variation of the bottom friction \( \mu \) does not significantly influence the solution: \( \delta(\tilde{\psi}_1^{(3)}, \tilde{\psi}_1^{(3)}) = 15\% \) (Fig. 5a) and \( \delta(\tilde{\psi}_1^{(6)}, \tilde{\psi}_1^{(6)}) = 10\% \) (Fig. 5b), where \( \tilde{\psi} \) is a perturbed quantity as the parameter varies. We found that the smaller/larger is \( \mu \), the larger/smaller is the difference in the 3L/6L case, and \( \delta(\tilde{\psi}_1^{(3)}, \tilde{\psi}_1^{(3)}) \approx \delta(\tilde{\psi}_1^{(6)}, \tilde{\psi}_1^{(6)}) \) for the larger \( \mu \), whereas \( \delta(\tilde{\psi}_1^{(3)}, \tilde{\psi}_1^{(3)}) > \delta(\tilde{\psi}_1^{(6)}, \tilde{\psi}_1^{(6)}) \) for the smaller \( \mu \). The eastward penetration length and the volume transport are larger and smaller in the low- and high-\( \mu \) regime, respectively.

The situation is the opposite when the parameter \( \alpha \) is varied: the smaller is \( \alpha \), the smaller is \( \delta \) in both the 3L and 6L solutions, and \( \delta(\tilde{\psi}_1^{(3)}, \tilde{\psi}_1^{(3)}) < \delta(\tilde{\psi}_1^{(6)}, \tilde{\psi}_1^{(6)}) \) for all \( \alpha \) considered. Note that small and large \( \alpha \) make the partial-slip boundary condition closer to the no-slip and free-slip boundary condition, respectively.

Overall, the small \( \alpha \) greatly reduces \( L_p \) and \( Q \) in the 3L solutions and even more so in the 6L ones (Fig. 5c), but the large \( \alpha \) exerts a much smaller influence upon \( L_p \) and \( Q \) (Fig. 5d). For a systematic study on how \( \alpha \) influences the western boundary current, see (Berloff and McWilliams, 1999).

The variation of the Rossby deformation radii induces more noticeable changes relative to the other parameters. In 3L solutions, \( \delta(\tilde{\psi}_1^{(3)}, \tilde{\psi}_1^{(3)}) = 79\% \), and \( L_p \) and \( Q \) are considerably smaller (Fig. 5e). However, in 6L solutions \( \delta(\tilde{\psi}_1^{(6)}, \tilde{\psi}_1^{(6)}) = 19\% \), and changes in \( L_p \) and \( Q \) do not exceed 15\% (Figs. 5e and f). This therefore suggests that 6L solutions are less sensitive to changes in stratification, hence, more robust.

On the basis of the parameter sensitivity study, we concluded that the flow regime explored in this paper is extremely robust and characterised by the well-developed eastward jet and vigorous eddy field.

### 3.3. Time-mean and instantaneous flows

In this section we study how properties of the large-scale flow change with increasing \( Re \). In particular, we look at the penetration length of the eastward jet \( L_p \), volume transport \( Q \), and the qualitative eddy patterns. Figs. 1 and 6 show the instantaneous and
time-mean flows for the 3L and 6L cases. All these flows have a pronounced double-gyre pattern, with the well-defined eastward jet extension generating numerous transient eddies and coherent vortices. The larger is \( Re \), the stronger is the jet extension, and the richer and more intensive is the eddy field.

Our analysis is focused on the eastward jet and its adjacent recirculation zones, because this is the main eddy-driven part of the flow. The length and the volume transport of the jet echo each other: both quantities grow with \( Re \) and go to an asymptote in the 3L case, however, in the 6L case they tend to grow with no sign of approaching an asymptote (Fig. 7). The jet elongates at larger \( Re \), and this is accompanied by the amplification of its adjacent recirculation zones. Moreover, the inequality \( I_p^{(3)} > I_p^{(6)} \) holds for all \( Re \) studied, while \( Q^{(3)} > Q^{(6)} \) is valid only for low-\( Re \) flows, and in large-\( Re \) solutions \( Q^{(6)} > Q^{(3)} \) (Fig. 7). Our experiments with different basin sizes showed that \( I_p^{(3)} \) and \( Q^{(3)} \) approach an asymptote because of the size of the basin. On the other hand, no sign of tending to an asymptote for \( I_p^{(6)} \) and \( Q^{(6)} \) can be due to the large-\( Re \) activation of the smaller scales associated with the high baroclinic modes.

There is a remarkable difference between the 3L and 6L solutions: \( I_p^{(3)} \) is significantly longer than \( I_p^{(6)} \) for the whole range of \( Re \) (Fig. 7). This result is completely opposite to the findings of Barnier et al. (1991). This disagreement can partially be due to sufficient grid resolution in our case, but mostly it can be due to the profound difference between the explored flow regimes: Barnier et al. (1991) considered symmetric wind forcing that at large \( Re \) induces unrealistically strong and symmetric eastward jet. We found that high baroclinic modes in the 6L case weaken the gyres, slow down the development of the eastward jet, and \( I_p^{(6)} \) and \( Q^{(6)} \) do not approach an asymptote, as contrasted by comparison with 3L solutions.

The flow dependence on \( \nu \) (hence, on \( Re \)) is shown in Fig. 1. As \( Re \) grows, instantaneous PV anomaly snapshots illustrate how the blurry low-\( Re \) flow sharpens up and becomes full of eddies and coherent vortices. We found that the characteristic vortex size is in the range of 30–140 km, and the vortex lifespan varies from about 20 days to more than three years. Being generated by the jet meanders, some vortices drift westward in the recirculation zone, where they merge with each other and ultimately become reclaimed by the jet or annihilated by the strong shear near the western boundary. These vortices are short-living. Another active vortex-formation region is located at the eastern tip of the jet. The latter vortices are more copious and also long-living, since they propagate westward along the flanks of the recirculation zones, relatively far from the jet.

In the 3L configuration, some isolated coherent vortices penetrate far into the southern gyre, as the one seen near the southern boundary (Fig. 1f). Such vortices emerge in the neighbourhood of the western boundary current separation point, propagate far upstream, and linger for years. We regard them as a 3L QG approximation artifact emerging at large \( Re \) due to some idealisations of the boundary-layer dynamics (e.g. flat bottom, partial-slip boundary conditions, fixed stratification). No such long-living vortices are found in the more realistic 6L solutions.

To summarize, our work studies a different from (Siegel et al., 2001) flow regime in which the eastward jet is robust and well-developed. This explains many differences between the solutions, both in the time-mean and instantaneous fields.

### 3.4. Flow energy

This section deals with \( Re \)-dependencies of the potential and kinetic energies, defined in Section 3. We found that the energies do not approach an asymptote at large \( Re \). The only exception is the upper-layer mean-flow kinetic energy \( \langle K \rangle^{(3)} \) which tends to an asymptote in the 3L case, however, the upper-layer eddy kinetic energy \( \overline{EKE}^{(3)} \)
Fig. 6. A sequence of time-mean solutions for increasing $Re$. The time-mean transport velocity streamfunction $\bar{\psi}_1$ (left column), $\bar{\psi}_1^{(3)}$ (middle column), and $\bar{\psi}_1^{(3)} - \bar{\psi}_1^{(6)}$ (right column) for different grids $G$ and viscosities $\nu$ [m$^2$ s$^{-1}$]; contour interval is 0.5 Sv. Note that high baroclinic modes in the 6L solutions inhibit the development of the eastward jet and reduce the strength of the gyres as opposed to the 3L solutions.
The time-mean eastward jet penetration length $L_p$ (a) and volume transport $Q$ (b) as a function of the Reynolds number $Re$ for 3L and 6L solutions. Note, that $L_p^{(3)}$ and $Q^{(3)}$ tend to an asymptote, whereas $L_p^{(6)}$ and $Q^{(6)}$ do not.

Dependencies of (a) the non-dimensional mean-flow potential energy $\langle P \rangle$ and the eddy potential energy $EPE$; (b) the upper-layer mean-flow kinetic energy $\langle K \rangle_1$ and the eddy kinetic energy $EKE$; (c) the integral of the upper-ocean eddy forcing $I_{\Omega}(\langle J' \rangle)$ and (d) its standard deviation $I_{\Omega}(\sigma (\langle J' \rangle))$ on the Reynolds number $Re$ for the 3L and 6L solutions.

grows rapidly with $Re$ (Fig. 8b). In the 6L case, $\langle K \rangle_1^{(6)}$ moderately increases with $Re$ without approaching an asymptote, while $EKE_1^{(6)}$ rises fast akin to the 3L case. Overall, $\langle K \rangle_1^{(3)}$ and $\langle K \rangle_1^{(6)}$ increase 3.8 and 4.6 times, respectively, over the studied range of $Re$, while $EKE_1^{(3)}$ and $EKE_1^{(6)}$ rise 10.6 and 13.0 times, respectively. Note that save for the lowest-$Re$ solution, the upper-layer eddy-kinetic energy $EKE_1$ dominates over the mean-flow kinetic energy $\langle K \rangle_1$ and more so in the 3L configuration.

The situation with the potential energy is different. In both 3L and 6L solutions, the mean-flow potential energy $\langle P \rangle$ is three orders of magnitude smaller than the eddy potential energy $EPE$ (Fig. 8a). The increase of $\langle P \rangle^{(3)}$ and $\langle P \rangle^{(6)}$ is much weaker, compared to $\langle K \rangle_1^{(3)}$ and $\langle K \rangle_1^{(6)}$, namely 2.2 and 2.5 times, respectively. Not much larger grow $EPE^{(3)}$ and $EPE^{(6)}$: 2.4 and 2.6 times, respectively. For the whole range of $Re$ explored, $EPE^{(3)}$ is larger than $EPE^{(6)}$, $\langle P \rangle^{(3)} > \langle P \rangle^{(6)}$, $\langle K \rangle_1^{(6)}$ and $EKE_1^{(6)}$ increase with $Re$, but remain substantially smaller than $EPE^{(6)}$, which is dominated by the larger scales. These results do not corrobdate the conclusion of (Siegel et al., 2001) that $\langle K \rangle_1^{(6)}$ is relatively independent on $Re$. Instead, we found that $\langle K \rangle_1^{(6)}$ is very dependable on $Re$ (Fig. 8b). We attribute this to the above-discussed difference between the flow regimes and to the more reliable statistics in our case.

3.5. Eddy forcing and eddy PV flux

The focus of this section is on studying $Re$-dependencies of the eddy forcing and eddy PV flux, which are dynamically even more interesting quantities than the eddy energies, because they quantify mean flow/eddy interactions. These $Re$-dependencies are studied here for the first time.
As shown in the previous section, both the eddy kinetic and potential energies increase with \( \text{Re} \), and this is reflected by the basin-averaged eddy forcing \( l_2(\mathcal{F}_1) \) and its standard deviation \( l_2(\sigma(-\mathcal{F})) \) (Figs. 8(c and d)). Both measures also do not approach an asymptote with \( \text{Re} \).

We found that \( l_2(\mathcal{F}_1) \) is by one order of magnitude smaller than \( l_2(\sigma(-\mathcal{F})) \) and the difference increases with \( \text{Re} \). Thus, the transient part of the eddy forcing not only dominates over the time-mean part (Berloff, 2005; Li and von Storch, 2013), but its dominance even increases with \( \text{Re} \) (Figs. 8(c, d), and 11(gh)).

We also studied how the upper-layer time-mean eddy PV flux \( \mathcal{F}_1 \) depends on \( \text{Re} \) (Figs. 9(a, b, and c)). The flux is relatively large near the western boundary and along the eastward jet. However, its amplitude gradually attenuates as the flux transports PV from the western boundary into the interior of the basin. Using the Helmholtz decomposition we split the flux \( \mathcal{F}_1 \) into a divergent \( \mathcal{F}_{1,d} \) and a rotational \( \mathcal{F}_{1,r} \).
with the baroclinic modes or due to the jet length being shorter and less affected by the basin size.

The mean-flow potential energies $\langle P \rangle^3$ and $\langle P \rangle^6$ demonstrate a very moderate increase with $Re$ (Fig. 11c), whereas the eddy potential energies $\langle EPE \rangle^3$ and $\langle EPE \rangle^6$ grow rapidly (Fig. 11d). Due to the intensifying energy transfer from the large to small scales, $(K^1_p)$ and $(K^6_p)$, as well as $EKE^3_p$ and $EKE^6_p$, robustly increase with $Re$ (Figs. 11(e and f), but remain smaller than $\langle EPE \rangle^3$ and $\langle EPE \rangle^6$, which are dominated by the large-scale flow. The potential and kinetic 6L energies are smaller than the 3L ones, but their increase rates are higher (see Section 3.4). The eddy kinetic energy increases faster than the mean-flow energy, and as we found, this increase is associated with increasing eddy forcing (Fig. 11g).

We found that high baroclinic modes in 6L solutions slow down the development of the eastward jet, weaken the gyres, and preclude an asymptote for $L_p^6$ and $Q^6$, as contrasted with comparison 3L solutions. Besides, $L_p^3 > L_p^6$ for all $Re$ studied, whereas $Q^3 > Q^6$ in low-$Re$ regimes and $Q^3 > Q^6$ for high-$Re$ solutions (Fig. 7). The latter is due to the more intense deep-ocean circulation in the large-$Re$ 6L solution.

4. Conclusions and discussion

The purpose of this research is to analyse how different aspects of turbulent geostrophic flows, such as time-mean linear and quadratic properties, as well as instantaneous flow features depend on the Reynolds number $Re$. The motivation of the study is twofold: to understand the evolution of eddy/mean flow interactions as more and more degrees of freedom become dynamically available at progressively larger Reynolds numbers, and to establish a set of benchmark double-gyre solutions and put forward a methodology for systematic analyses of $Re$-dependencies. We propose to adopt this methodology for analyses of comprehensive general circulation models (GCMs).

We studied the classical quasi-geostrophic double-gyre model in the idealised closed-basin configuration, with both three and six isopycnal layers (3L and 6L models), for a broad range of Reynolds numbers $Re \in [96, 10368]$ achieved by varying the eddy viscosity $ν$ in the range from $200 \text{ m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$ to $6.25 \text{ m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$, and for long 100 year simulations, all carried out on the computational grids ranging from $129^2$ to $4097^2$ points. Despite the use of powerful supercomputers and efficient numerical methods, we could not exercise horizontal grid resolutions larger than $4097^2$ and penetrate the curtain of even larger $Re$. Moreover, increasing the number of vertical layers is also problematic, since using more than six layers will inevitably require denser horizontal grids to keep the vertical and horizontal resolutions consistent with solution convergence, as smaller length scales corresponding to the new deformation radii become available.

The primary criterion we were guided by in choosing the quasi-geostrophic model for study was the following: first, this is a classical oceanic model which simulates the mesoscale motions far beyond its formal limits of applicability, e.g. (Mundt et al., 1997; Zurita and Vallis, 2009); second, the relative simplicity of the model allows for its systematic exploration in eddy-resolving regimes, which is beyond reach of OGCMs; and third, this model offers a wide palette of dynamically viable and feature richly enriched oceanic flows available for exploration. For the sake of fairness, it is worth noting that although the QG model allows us to study various flow regimes it filters out gravity waves and other unbalanced motions, which, however, can be handled with OGCMs but in relatively small domains and on short simulation times.

The configuration of the model was chosen so that it enables one to work in eddy-resolving regimes and, most importantly, with converged solutions. We also adapted our parameters, as close as possible, to those used by our precursors (Barnier et al. 1991) and

#### Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Eddy characteristic</th>
<th>Three layers</th>
<th>Six layers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$L_p$ [km]</td>
<td>$-4 \times 10^3 Re^{-0.5} + 4 \times 10^3$</td>
<td>$-2 \times 10^2 Re^{-0.04} + 2 \times 10^4$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$Q$ [Sv]</td>
<td>$-5 \times 10^2 Re^{-0.04} + 10^5$</td>
<td>$-10^3 Re^{-0.02} + 10^5$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$(K)^1_p$</td>
<td>$20 Re^{0.03} - 20$</td>
<td>$0.1 Re^{0.3}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$(P)$</td>
<td>$0.2 Re^{0.02} - 0.2$</td>
<td>$0.01 Re^{0.3}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$EPE$</td>
<td>$4Re^{0.3} - 10$</td>
<td>$5Re^{0.3} - 2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$EPE(\frac{1}{2}</td>
<td>g</td>
<td>)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$l_1(σ − f)^2$</td>
<td>$10^{-6} Re^{0.4}$</td>
<td>$10^{-5} Re^{0.3}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$l_2(σ − f)^2$</td>
<td>$10^{-6} Re^{0.8}$</td>
<td>$10^{-5} Re^{0.3}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Fig. 11. Dependencies of different extrapolated flow characteristics in the 3L and 6L configurations on the Reynolds number \( Re \); the tilded functions indicate extrapolated quantities. Shown are (a) the penetration length \( L_p \) [km], (b) the volume transport \( Q \) [Sv], (c) the non-dimensional mean-flow potential energy \( \langle P \rangle \), (d) the non-dimensional eddy potential energy \( E_{PE} \), (e) the non-dimensional mean-flow upper-ocean kinetic energy \( \langle K \rangle \), (f) the non-dimensional upper-ocean eddy kinetic energy \( E_{KE} \), (g) the integral of the eddy forcing \( I_{\Omega} \) (evaluated as \( \int |J'| \)) and (h) its standard deviation \( I_{\Omega} \) (evaluated as \( \sigma (\int |J'|) \)).

Siegel et al. (2001), but also in a such way that our solutions operate in the robust flow regime characterised by the well-developed and coherent eastward jet extension of the western boundary currents, such as the Gulf stream and Kuroshio. The parameter study showed that both the 3L and 6L solutions are quite insensitive to changes in the governing parameters. Moreover, the 6L solutions demonstrate even less receptivity to the parameters alterations. The difference between our model and the ones used by Barnier et al. (1991) and Siegel et al. (2001) lies in the wind stress amplitude (which is about two times smaller in our case), the boundary conditions (we use the partial-slip condition instead of the no-slip in (Siegel et al., 2001) and free-slip in (Barnier et al., 1991), the horizontal resolution (360 × 320
in (Barnier et al., 1991) and 2048² in Siegel et al. (2001) against 4097² in our model, and both the spin up and simulation times ($T_{\text{spin}} = 6$ years and $T_{\text{sim}} = 7$ years in (Barnier et al., 1991); $T_{\text{spin}} = 3$ years and $T_{\text{sim}} = 6$ years in Siegel et al. (2001) compared with $T_{\text{spin}} = 100$ years and $T_{\text{sim}} = 100$ years used in our simulations). All these factors make the jet underdeveloped in Siegel et al. (2001) and overdeveloped in Barnier et al. (1991).

Our study continues and extends the earlier works by Barnier et al. (1991) and Siegel et al. (2001), and some of our findings and conclusions are different from the earlier ones. Let us review the novel aspects of our work. First, we conducted a thorough numerical convergence study and found the solutions converged on the proper grids. Second, we considerably increased the spatial resolution of the model, spin-up and simulation times to obtain more physically reliable flows and more accurate statistics. All this increased our computational costs by a factor of about 8500 and 550, in terms of the degrees of freedom and simulation time, compared to the works (Barnier et al., 1991) and (Siegel et al., 2001), respectively. Third, we studied the model solutions for both a much broader range and much larger values of $Re$, and thus reached dynamically more realistic flow regimes characterised by the robust eastward jet extension of the western boundary currents. Forth, we not only analysed the kinetic energy, as in (Siegel et al., 2001), but also the potential energy, the time mean and standard deviation of the eddy forcing as well as the penetration length and volume transport of the eastward jet. Instead of studying a longitudinal average of the eddy PV flux, as in (Siegel et al., 2001), we investigated the full eddy PV flux and computed its value through the separatrices between the gyres. Fifth, we studied the effect of the high baroclinic modes and came to the opposite to earlier work (Barnier et al., 1991) conclusions. Sixth, we obtained empirical power laws for the potential and kinetic energies, the jet penetration length and volume transport to study the behaviour of these flow properties for larger $Re$.

Our main findings about the flow dependencies on $Re$ are the following. First, the main feature of the $Re$-dependence is a progressive amplification of the eastward jet and its adjacent recirculation zones, all maintained by the eddy backscatter mechanism (e.g. Berloff (2005)). Second, from the solution convergence study, we found that halving the eddy viscosity $\nu$ requires approximately halving the grid spacing, in order to keep the large-scale effects of the small-scale numerical errors relatively small. By these standards a GCM with a resolution of 1/12° permits $\nu$ not less than 50 m² s⁻¹. Third, the parameter study suggests that the 6L-solutions are less influenced by changes in the governing parameters (the bottom friction $\mu$, the partial-slip parameter $\alpha$ in the boundary condition (4) and the Rossby deformation radii) than the 3L ones. Fourth, from the empirical power laws for the potential and kinetic energies, the jet penetration length and volume transport to study the behaviour of these flow properties for larger $Re$.

Summarising the main reasons for the differences between our study and the one by Siegel et al. (2001) we contend that they come from the following: the six year spin-up intervals in (Siegel et al., 2001) are too short to reach the statistical equilibrium; the three year solutions used for the analysis in (Siegel et al., 2001) are too short to average over the intrinsic interdecadal variability and, therefore, they contain statistical biases; the large-$Re$ solutions in (Siegel et al., 2001) do not have the coherent eastward jet extension due to the no-slip boundary condition even with the wind stress amplitude two times higher than ours, and, thus, operate in a less realistic regime.

Our results suggest the following future research avenues. First, our approach to understanding Reynolds number effects can be applied to primitive-equation GCMs in both idealised and realistic configurations, with the goal to understand dependencies of the eddies and their large-scale effects on $Re$. Second, we demonstrated that the eddy parameterisations should take into account the eddy backscatter mechanism and the resulting amplification of the eastward jet extension of the western boundary currents and its adjacent recirculation zones; development of such parameterisations may require completely new approaches. Third, our study left completely aside theoretical and practical questions about the passive-tracer transport and stirring induced by the eddies (e.g. estimates of the corresponding inhomogeneous and anisotropic eddy diffusivities).

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