

# 1 **A regime diagram for ocean geostrophic turbulence**

Andreas Klocker,<sup>1</sup> David P. Marshall,<sup>2</sup> Shane R. Keating,<sup>3</sup> Peter L. Read<sup>2</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>Institute for Marine and Antarctic  
Studies, University of Tasmania, Hobart,  
Tasmania, Australia

<sup>2</sup>Department of Physics, University of  
Oxford, Oxford, UK.

<sup>3</sup>School of Mathematics and Statistics,  
University of New South Wales, Sydney,  
New South Wales, Australia

2 A two-dimensional regime diagram for geostrophic turbulence in the ocean  
3 is constructed by plotting observation-based estimates of the nondimensional  
4 eddy radius and unsuppressed mixing length against a nonlinearity param-  
5 eter equal to the ratio of the root-mean square eddy velocity and baroclinic  
6 Rossby phase speed. For weak nonlinearity, as found in the tropics, the mix-  
7 ing length mostly corresponds to the stability threshold for baroclinic insta-  
8 bility whereas the eddy radius corresponds to the Rhines scale; it is suggested  
9 that this mismatch is indicative of the inverse energy cascade that occurs at  
10 low latitudes in the ocean and the zonal elongation of eddies. At larger val-  
11 ues of nonlinearity, as found at mid- and high-latitudes, the eddy length scales  
12 are much shorter than the stability threshold, within a factor of 2.5 of the  
13 Rossby deformation radius. However, better agreement is found with a tur-  
14 bulent  $\beta$  length scale across much of the ocean.

## 1. Introduction

15 The ocean is a turbulent fluid with transient motions on a plethora of spatial and tempo-  
16 ral scales. The large-scale circulation is dominated by the turbulent geostrophic eddy field,  
17 with an eddy spatial scale that correlates with the Rossby deformation radius [*Stammer*,  
18 1997]. Interactions between the turbulent geostrophic eddies and the large-scale flow have  
19 a profound impact on the circulation and stratification of the global ocean [e.g., *Rhines*  
20 *and Young*, 1982; *Gent et al.*, 1995; *Wolfe and Cessi*, 2010; *Munday et al.*, 2013], yet will  
21 need to be parameterized in many numerical ocean models for the foreseeable future [e.g.,  
22 *Fox-Kemper et al.*, 2013].

23 One common approach to eddy parameterization is to employ mixing length arguments  
24 to derive an eddy diffusivity proportional to an eddy velocity multiplied by an eddy length  
25 scale. This approach has been used to develop full eddy closures for both the atmosphere  
26 and the ocean (e.g., *Bretherton* [1966]; *Green* [1970]; *Stone* [1972]; *Held and Larichev*  
27 [1996]; *Visbeck et al.* [1997]; *Eden and Greatbach* [2008]; *Marshall and Adcroft* [2010]) but  
28 exactly what sets this eddy length scale remains an active topic of research.

29 The most comprehensive study of eddy length scales has been carried out by *Tulloch*  
30 *et al.* [2011] who found that observed eddy length scales exceed the energy injection scale  
31 at all latitudes, with the latter occurring at scales larger than the deformation radius  
32 at high latitudes, and at scales smaller than the deformation radius at low latitudes.  
33 Recently, *Klocker and Abernathy* [2014] have used two measures of the eddy length scale  
34 in order to estimate eddy diffusivities. The first is the eddy “radius” of *Chelton et al.*  
35 [2011]. The second is a mixing length scale inferred from a passive tracer field, modified

36 to remove the kinematic suppression of mixing by background mean flow [*Ferrari and*  
 37 *Nikurashin, 2010; Klocker et al., 2012*].

38 The aim of this short contribution is to introduce a *regime diagram* of geostrophic  
 39 turbulence in the ocean in which these two observation-based estimates of eddy length  
 40 scales correspond to different dynamical *regime transitions*. The manuscript is structured  
 41 as follows. In section 2, we summarize the method of data analysis and describe the  
 42 regime diagram. In section 3, we physically interpret the observation-based eddy length  
 43 scales in terms of dynamical regime transitions. A brief concluding discussion is given in  
 44 section 4.

## 2. The regime diagram

45 The regime diagram (Fig. 1) is constructed by plotting measures of a nonlinearity  
 46 parameter, defined as the ratio of the root-mean squared eddy velocity and the Rossby  
 47 phase speed [*Chelton et al., 2011*], against eddy length scales, normalized by the baroclinic  
 48 deformation radius. To calculate these variables we use nearly two decades worth of  
 49 satellite measurements of sea-surface height (SSH). We focus on a region in the Pacific  
 50 Ocean, ranging from 60°S to 50°N and 180°W to 230°W, which covers a wide parameter  
 51 space of the regime diagram. The geostrophic flow is close to zonal in this region, enabling  
 52 us to use zonal averages of flow properties.

53 The nonlinearity parameter, represented by the  $x$ -axis in the regime diagram, is defined  
 54 following *Chelton et al. [2011]* as

$$55 \quad r = \frac{U_{\text{eddy}}}{c}, \quad (1)$$

56 where  $U_{\text{eddy}}$  is the root-mean squared eddy velocity,  $c = \beta L_D^2$  is the long Rossby wave  
 57 speed at which nonlinear eddies propagate westward [*Cushman-Roisin et al.*, 1990; *Chelton*  
 58 *et al.*, 2007],  $\beta$  is the meridional gradient of the Coriolis parameter and  $L_D$  the deforma-  
 59 tion radius. Here  $U_{\text{eddy}}$  is calculated using SSH-derived geostrophic velocities. Since the  
 60 calculation of the deformation radius requires knowledge of the stratification, we employ  
 61 values for  $L_D$  from *Tulloch et al.* [2009] who used an ocean state estimate [*Forget*, 2010],  
 62 i.e., an ocean model strongly constrained to observations, to calculate the Rossby wave  
 63 speed in the long-wave limit. Note that these methods of estimating  $U_{\text{eddy}}$  and  $c$  are both  
 64 different to those used by *Chelton et al.* [2007, 2011].

65 The normalized eddy length scales, represented by the  $y$ -axis in the regime diagram,  
 66 can be written as  $L/L_D$ . Here  $L$  is either the observed eddy radius,  $L = R_{\text{obs}}$ , or the eddy  
 67 mixing length,  $L = L_{\text{mix}}$ .

68 Eddy radii  $R_{\text{obs}}$  are calculated using an eddy tracking algorithm based on the same  
 69 SSH field [*Chelton et al.*, 2011], with the eddy radius being defined as the radius of a  
 70 circle of area equal to that enclosed by contours of SSH within the eddy around which  
 71 the circum-average speed is maximum.  $R_{\text{obs}}/L_D$  is shown as red dots and crosses in Fig.  
 72 1, with dots representing the southern hemisphere and crosses representing the northern  
 73 hemisphere.

74 Since the unsuppressed eddy tracer diffusivity is proportional to the eddy velocity mul-  
 75 tiplied by the eddy length scale, the meridional mixing length  $L_{\text{mix}}$  is derived by advecting  
 76 a numerical tracer in the SSH-derived geostrophic velocity field and removing the sup-

77 pression effect [*Klocker and Abernathey, 2014*].  $L_{mix}/L_D$  is shown as blue dots and crosses  
78 in Fig. 1.

79 To understand the geographical distribution of the nondimensional variables in the  
80 regime diagram we distinguish tropics, mid-latitudes and the Southern Ocean in the panels  
81 on the bottom of Fig. 1. We also plot the nonlinearity parameter (Eq. 1) versus latitude  
82 in Fig. 2. Small values (less than 1) are found in the tropics, with larger values (greater  
83 than 1) at mid- and high-latitudes; the maximum values are found in the Southern Ocean.

84 The data used in the regime diagram are the same as used in *Klocker and Abernathey*  
85 [2014]; more detail on their calculation can be found there. The only slight difference to  
86 *Klocker and Abernathey* [2014] is that we plot the normalized eddy radius as opposed to  
87 the normalized eddy diameter (their Fig. 5).

### 3. Regime transitions

88 We now come to the main purpose of this manuscript, which is to interpret the  
89 observation-based eddy length scales on the regime diagram in terms of pertinent regime  
90 transition lines. These regime transitions refer to boundaries along which there is change  
91 in dynamical behavior. This change may be abrupt, e.g., through the crossing of a stabil-  
92 ity threshold, or gradual, through the dominance of different physical processes to either  
93 side of the transition.

#### 3.1. Transition from linear to nonlinear dynamics

94 Flow regimes can be categorized as predominantly linear or nonlinear depending on  
95 whether or not an eddy can be regarded as a linear wave disturbance propagating through

96 a nearly stationary flow. These regimes are distinguished using the *nonlinearity parameter*  
97 defined in Eq. (1) [Chelton *et al.*, 2011].

98 If  $r > 1$ , the rotational velocity of the eddy,  $U_{eddy}$ , exceeds its translational velocity,  
99 roughly approximated by the long Rossby wave speed,  $c$  [Chelton *et al.*, 2007]. Transform-  
100 ing coordinates into the co-moving frame results in closed streamlines within the eddy,  
101 i.e., an inner core that is able to advect tracers, and an outer ring that is capable of  
102 stirring tracers [Early *et al.*, 2011]. If  $r \leq 1$ , the translational velocity of the eddy ex-  
103 ceeds its rotational velocity and transforming coordinates into the co-moving frame does  
104 not result in closed streamlines within the eddy. The latitude corresponding to  $r = 1$   
105 is termed the *critical latitude* [Theiss, 2004] and can be used to distinguish regions of  
106 isotropic turbulence ( $r > 1$ ) from regions with anisotropic turbulence ( $r < 1$ ) in which  
107 turbulence induces alternating zonal jets [Okuno and Masuda, 2003; Theiss, 2004].

108 In the regime diagram (Fig. 1) the change from linear to nonlinear dynamics is repre-  
109 sented on the  $x$ -axis, with the line at the value of 1 (the magenta line in Fig. 1) being the  
110 regime transition line from linear dynamics (for values less than 1) to nonlinear dynamics  
111 (for values greater than 1).

112 The eddy length scales exhibit very different behavior to either side of the transition,  
113 with the two measures of eddy length departing from each other in the linear regime, but  
114 being broadly indistinguishable from each other in the nonlinear regime. In each of the  
115 linear and nonlinear regimes, a distinct functional variation of the eddy length scale with  
116 the nonlinearity parameter is obtained.

### 3.2. Transition from rotation- to stratification-dominated flow

117 Geophysical turbulence is strongly influenced by rotation and stable stratification with  
 118 small Rossby number,  $Ro = U/fL$ , and Froude number,  $Fr = U/c_{grav} = U/fL_D$ , where  
 119  $U$  is a characteristic velocity scale,  $f$  is the Coriolis parameter,  $L$  is a characteristic eddy  
 120 length scale and  $c_{grav} = fL_D$  is the speed of an internal gravity wave. The relative  
 121 importance of rotation and stratification is quantified by the *Burger number*,

$$122 \quad Bu = \frac{Ro^2}{Fr^2} = \frac{L_D^2}{L^2}. \quad (2)$$

123 In a rotation-dominated flow, typical length scales are larger than the deformation ra-  
 124 dius, whereas in stratification-dominated flow, typical length scales are smaller than the  
 125 deformation radius. In energetically favoured scales of motion in stably-stratified flow,  
 126 the Burger number is  $O(1)$  leading to length scales of  $O(L_D)$  [Read, 2001].

127 In the regime diagram (Fig. 1) the influence of rotation and stratification is represented  
 128 on the  $y$ -axis, with the line at the value of 1 (the green line in Fig. 1), i.e. length  
 129 scales equal to the deformation radius, being the regime transition line between rotation-  
 130 dominated flow (for values greater than 1) to stratification-dominated flow (for values less  
 131 than 1).

132 Note that the eddy scale at which the transition occurs from linear to nonlinear dynamics  
 133 coincides roughly with the transition from stratification- to rotation-dominated flow (more  
 134 precisely this occurs at  $L/L_D \approx 0.8$ ). In the nonlinear regime, the observed eddy length  
 135 scales exceed the deformation radius by only a modest amount (typically a factor between  
 136 1 and 2, with values of 2.5 in the Southern Ocean); we also observe a much greater spread  
 137 in both eddy length scales in the rotation-dominated regime ( $L/L_D > 1$ ).



### 3.3. Transition from stable to unstable flow

138 Mesoscale eddies derive their energy primarily from baroclinic instability. Using the  
 139 original argument for baroclinic adjustment [*Stone, 1978*], based on the condition for  
 140 marginal criticality for baroclinic zonal flow in the two-layer quasigeostrophic (QG) model  
 141 [*Phillips, 1951*], the *criticality parameter* can be written [*Held and Larichev, 1996*] as

$$142 \quad \xi = \frac{\bar{U}_{\text{thermal}}}{c} = \frac{\bar{U}_{\text{thermal}}}{\beta L_D^2}, \quad (3)$$

143 where  $\bar{U}_{\text{thermal}}$  is the mean zonal velocity from the thermal wind relation and  $\xi > 1$  is the  
 144 criterion or baroclinic instability in an inviscid flow. Equivalently, using the thermal wind  
 145 relation, this criticality parameter can be expressed as a critical value of the meridional  
 146 temperature gradient [*Stone, 1978*].

147 In supercritical mean states,  $\xi > 1$ , the flow is baroclinically unstable leading to turbu-  
 148 lent flow in the form of mesoscale eddies, possibly with an inverse energy cascade from the  
 149 scale of the instability towards the Rhines scale through nonlinear eddy-eddy interactions.  
 150 These mesoscale eddies then enhance the meridional eddy flux of temperature, bringing  
 151 the meridional temperature gradient towards its critical value – a process that has been  
 152 termed *baroclinic adjustment* [*Stone, 1978*].

153 The criticality parameter  $\xi$  is closely related to the deformation radius, the Rhines scale  
 154 and the nonlinearity parameter. To see this, we use the result from *Held and Larichev*  
 155 [1996] that the root-mean squared eddy velocity is related to the mean thermal wind by

$$156 \quad U_{\text{eddy}} \approx \frac{L}{L_D} \bar{U}_{\text{thermal}}, \quad (4)$$

157 derived by scaling the eddy potential vorticity flux and the implied eddy energy produc-  
 158 tion, and assuming an inverse cascade. Thus the condition for baroclinic instability in

159 this limit can be rewritten

$$160 \quad \frac{L}{L_D} \gtrsim r, \quad (5)$$

161 i.e., mesoscale eddies can only grow if their nondimensional length scale exceeds the  
 162 nonlinearity parameter. In the following we use the term *stability threshold* to describe  
 163 this transition between baroclinic unstable and stable flow, i.e., the state of marginal  
 164 criticality.

165 In the regime diagram (Fig. 1) the stability threshold is shown as a black dashed line,  
 166 with flow above this line being baroclinically stable and below this line being baroclinically  
 167 unstable.

168 For  $r < 1$  the unsuppressed eddy mixing length scale lies close to the stability threshold  
 169 over much of the data points (with some smaller values in the northern hemisphere).  
 170 However, for  $r > 1$  the stability threshold lies within the rotation-dominated regime in  
 171 which motion along the rotation axis, and hence release of available potential energy, is  
 172 inhibited by rotational constraints; instead, the energy release occurs on scales comparable  
 173 to the deformation radius consistent with baroclinic instability theory [*Charney, 1948;*  
 174 *Eady, 1949; Phillips, 1951*]. *Tulloch et al.* [2011] calculated the most unstable length  
 175 scales for the global ocean and finds that these slightly exceed the deformation radius at  
 176 mid- and high latitudes, consistent with Fig. 1 for  $r > 1$ .

### 3.4. Transition from weak to strong Rossby elasticity

177 Just as stable stratification inhibits vertical motion, so the variation of the Coriolis  
 178 parameter with latitude inhibits meridional motion. The Rossby restoring force arises  
 179 through considering the vorticity dynamics acting on a line of fluid parcels and gives rise

180 to westward propagation. See a standard text such as *Vallis* [2006] for discussion of the  
 181 Rossby wave mechanism and *Marshall and Pillar* [2011] for a physical interpretation of  
 182 the Rossby restoring force.

183 The efficiency of the Rossby restoring force or *Rossby elasticity* [*Dritschel and McIntyre*,  
 184 2008] is quantified by considering the ratio of planetary vorticity variations and relative  
 185 vorticity anomalies, with the transition occurring at the *Rhines scale*,

$$186 \quad L_{\text{Rhines}} = \sqrt{\frac{U_{\text{eddy}}}{\beta}} \quad (6)$$

187 [*Rhines*, 1975]. In the regime diagram (Fig. 1) the transition from weak to strong Rossby  
 188 elasticity is represented by the thick black line.

189 Below this transition, Rossby elasticity is insufficient to prevent turbulent mixing across  
 190 latitude circles, whereas above this transition, strong Rossby elasticity prevents significant  
 191 meridional displacements and Rossby waves dominate [although see *Sukoriansky et al.*,  
 192 2007, for a more careful discussion]. An alternative physical interpretation is that closed  
 193 potential vorticity contours can occur on scales shorter than the Rhines scale, but not  
 194 above.

195 For  $r < 1$ , we find that the two nondimensional eddy lengths diverge from each other,  
 196 with the mixing length coinciding with the stability threshold, but the eddy radius coin-  
 197 ciding with the Rhines scale. These results may be suggestive of an inverse energy cascade  
 198 following the ideas of *Kraichnan* [1967], with energy cascading upscale from the energy  
 199 injection scale at the stability threshold towards the Rhines scale at which Rossby waves  
 200 can induce alternating zonal flows [*Rhines*, 1975; *Theiss*, 2004].

201 For  $r > 1$ , the observed eddy scales coincide with each other and are much shorter than  
 202 the Rhines scale. The latter can be understood by rewriting the nonlinearity parameter,  
 203 using Eq. (6), as

$$204 \quad r = \left( \frac{L_{\text{Rhines}}}{L_D} \right)^2 \quad (7)$$

205 and recalling that the observed eddy length scales are roughly equal to (a small multiple  
 206 of) the deformation scale in this regime. Consistent with *Tulloch et al.* [2011], the observed  
 207 eddy scales are very much smaller than the Rhines scale in this regime. *Tulloch et al.*  
 208 [2011] identify a slight mismatch between the energy injection scale and observed eddy  
 209 length scale which they identify with a limited inverse cascade.

### 3.5. Turbulent $\beta$ scale

210 Finally, we discuss the relation of our results to the length scale formed from the turbu-  
 211 lent energy flux or injection rate,  $\epsilon$ , and the meridional gradient in the Coriolis parameter  
 212 [*Vallis and Maltrud*, 1993],

$$213 \quad L_\beta = \frac{\epsilon^{1/5}}{\beta^{3/5}}. \quad (8)$$

214 *Vallis* [2006] argues that this turbulent  $\beta$  scale is more fundamental than the Rhines scale  
 215 to the extent that the energy flux is less likely to depend on  $\beta$  than the root-mean squared  
 216 eddy velocity. Moreover *Sukoriansky et al.* [2007] have argued that the turbulent  $\beta$  scale  
 217 and Rhines scale can differ and that the latter is a more accurate measure of the threshold  
 218 of anisotropization of the inverse cascade through the transition from turbulent to Rossby  
 219 wave dynamics. A key nondimensional parameter describing a transition in turbulent  
 220 flows with a  $\beta$  effect is therefore the ratio of the Rhines scale to the turbulent  $\beta$  scale

221 [*Sukoriansky et al.*, 2007]

$$222 \quad R_\beta = \frac{L_{Rhines}}{L_\beta}. \quad (9)$$

223 Using the present definitions of  $L_{Rhines}$  and  $L_\beta$ , the zonostrophic regime of *Galperin*  
 224 *et al.* [2006] is characterized by  $R_\beta \gtrsim \sqrt{2}$  and the frictional regime is characterized by  
 225  $R_\beta \lesssim \sqrt{1.5}$ . As suggested previously by *Sukoriansky et al.* [2007], the ocean is close to  
 226 a transitional regime where  $\sqrt{1.5} \lesssim R_\beta \lesssim \sqrt{2}$ , which would point towards the inverse  
 227 cascade in the ocean being arrested short of the Rhines scale.

228 To test this hypothesis, in Fig. 3, we plot an estimate of the nondimensional turbulent  
 229  $\beta$  scale on the same regime diagram as in Fig. 1. We first rewrite this ratio as

$$230 \quad \frac{L_\beta}{L_D} = \frac{\epsilon^{1/5}}{\beta^{1/10} c^{1/2}} \quad (10)$$

231 where we have used that  $c = \beta L_D^2$ . The advantage of (10) is that the nondimensional  
 232 turbulent  $\beta$  scale depends weakly on both  $\epsilon$  and  $\beta$ : the variation in the latter is less  
 233 than 7% between the equator and 60°, and the variation in the former due to an order  
 234 of magnitude (factor of 10) uncertainty is by a factor of just 1.6. Thus the variation of  
 235  $L_\beta/L_D$  in (10) is dominated by the variation of the inverse square-root of the Rossby wave  
 236 speed,  $c$ . In Fig. 3, we have taken  $\epsilon = 4 \times 10^{-9}$ , which is in the range of  $\epsilon$  values estimated  
 237 from satellite observations and high-resolution ocean models by [*Arbic et al.*, 2014, their  
 238 Figs. 10 and 11], and chosen to give the best fit to the observation-based data.

239 We see in Fig. 3 that the theoretical prediction (10) captures much of the observed  
 240 variation of the observed eddy length scale with latitude, in particular when the latter  
 241 is identified as the unsuppressed mixing length. In the linear regime,  $r < 1$ , the ratio  
 242  $L_\beta/L_D$  is able to explain both the near-constant variation of  $L/L_D$  with  $r$  in the northern

243 hemisphere and the departures from this linear variation in the southern hemisphere. In  
244 the moderately nonlinear regime,  $1 < r \lesssim 3.5$ , the ratio  $L_\beta/L_D$  explains the systematic  
245 discrepancy between the Rhines scale and the observed eddy scale, with the latter being  
246 smaller by a factor not inconsistent with the transitional regime suggested by *Sukoriansky*  
247 *et al.* [2007]. At larger values of  $r > 4$ , the ratio  $L_\beta/L_D$  exceed the observed nondimen-  
248 sional eddy length scale, by a substantial amount at the very high values of  $r$  obtained  
249 in the Southern Ocean (not shown). Nevertheless there is sufficient qualitative similarity  
250 between the variation of  $L_\beta/L_D$  and  $L/L_D$  with  $r$  to suggest the two are closely related,  
251 notwithstanding that in reality  $\epsilon$  is far from spatially uniform.

#### 4. Concluding remarks

252 In this paper, we have introduced a two-dimensional regime diagram for geostrophic  
253 turbulence in the ocean. The axes correspond to the nonlinearity parameter and the eddy  
254 length scale, normalized by the deformation radius. Two observation-based measures of  
255 the eddy length scale are plotted on the diagram, corresponding to the eddy radius and  
256 the eddy mixing length (with suppression effects of the mean flow removed).

257 We have shown that the observed eddy length scales coincide roughly with different  
258 regime transitions on the diagram. In the linear regime, obtained in the tropics, the eddy  
259 radius corresponds to the Rhines scale whereas the eddy mixing length corresponds to  
260 the stability threshold. In the nonlinear regime, both the eddy radius and eddy mixing  
261 length correspond to (a small multiple of) the deformation radius. These results are  
262 consistent with previous studies, e.g., *Tulloch et al.* [2011] and references therein. However,  
263 good agreement is obtained between the observed eddy mixing scale and the turbulent  $\beta$

264 scale across a wide range of parameter space, albeit without taking into account spatial  
265 variations in the turbulent energy flux.

266 One limitation of this study is that the role of mean flows has only been taken into  
267 account in the calculation of unsuppressed mixing lengths, but effects of the mean flow  
268 on the mean potential vorticity gradient, as shown to be important by *Theiss* [2006],  
269 and the advection of baroclinic eddies by depth mean flow [*Klocker and Marshall*, 2014],  
270 have been ignored. A further limitation is that we have been unable to fully distinguish  
271 between the barotropic and baroclinic components of the flow, for which the properties  
272 of the turbulent cascade differ [e.g., *Salmon*, 1998]. These issues should be addressed in  
273 future studies.

274 The eddy length scale is an important quantity for constructing parameterizations of  
275 geostrophic eddies. Specifically mixing length arguments are used to express the eddy  
276 diffusivity as proportional to an eddy velocity multiplied by an eddy length scale. The  
277 variation of the eddy radius on the regime diagram is broadly consistent with the simple  
278 proposal of *Eden and Greatbach* [2008] that the eddy length scale is given by the minimum  
279 of the Rhines scale and the deformation radius. However, as noted by *Fox-Kemper et al.*  
280 [2013], small differences between the observed eddy length scale and the deformation  
281 radius (up to 2.5 in the nonlinear regime) can make a large difference when it comes  
282 to practical implementation of a parameterization. A more accurate predictor of the  
283 unsuppressed eddy mixing length scale appears to be provided by the turbulent  $\beta$  length  
284 scale. This length scale also agrees with the conjecture that the diffusion coefficient of

285 the poleward heat transport depends on the turbulent energy flux  $\epsilon$  [*Held and Larichev*,  
286 1996; *Held*, 1999; *Lapeyre and Held*, 2003].

287 An interesting avenue for future research would be to plot the observed eddy radii and  
288 mixing lengths for flows in other rotating, stratified fluids such as the atmospheres of the  
289 Earth and giant gas planets, to determine whether the regimes we find in the ocean occur  
290 more widely. Work in this direction by *Cho and Polvani* [1996] has shown that using  
291 a simple shallow-water model and the observed values of radius, rotation rate, average  
292 wind velocity, and mean layer thickness, all of which are used in the calculation of the  
293 deformation radius and the Rhines scale, it is possible to reproduce observations of the flow  
294 on Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus and Neptune. Additionally, *Theiss* [2006] showed that when  
295 taking into account a finite deformation radius and a zonal mean flow, the nonlinearity  
296 parameter is very successful in distinguishing regions with alternating zonal flows and  
297 storms on Jupiter. These results therefore suggest that the regime diagram introduced  
298 here might be more universal.

299 **Acknowledgments.** The authors thank Ross Tulloch for providing data and Dudley  
300 Chelton, Boris Gaplerin and Michael McIntyre for useful discussions which helped to im-  
301 prove this manuscript. This work started during a visit of AK to the University of Oxford  
302 supported by an Australian Bicentennial Fellowship. AK was supported by a Australian  
303 Research Council Discovery Early Career Researcher Award. SRK was supported by  
304 a UNSW Faculty Research Grant. DPM was partially supported by the Oxford Martin  
305 School.



## References

- 306 Arbic, B. K., M. Müller, J. G. Richman, J. F. Shriver, A. J. Morton, R. B. Scott,  
307 G. Sérazin, and T. Penduff (2014), Geostrophic turbulence in the frequency-wavenumber  
308 domain: Eddy-driven low-frequency variability, *J. Phys. Oceanogr.*, *44*, 2025–2069.
- 309 Bretherton, F. P. (1966), Critical layer instability in baroclinic flows, *Quart. J. Roy.*  
310 *Meteor. Soc.*, *92*, 325–334.
- 311 Charney, J. G. (1948), On the scale of atmospheric motions, *Geofys. Publ. Oslo*, *17*, 1–17.
- 312 Chelton, D. B., M. G. Schlax, R. M. Samelson, and R. A. de Szoeke (2007),  
313 Global observations of large oceanic eddies, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, *34*, L15,606,  
314 doi:10.1029/2007GL030,812.
- 315 Chelton, D. B., M. G. Schlax, and R. M. Samelson (2011), Global observations of nonlinear  
316 mesoscale eddies, *Prog. Oceanogr.*, *91*, 167–216.
- 317 Cho, J. Y.-K., and M. Polvani (1996), The morphogenesis of bands and zonal winds in  
318 the atmosphere on the giant outer planets, *Science*, *273*, 335–337.
- 319 Cushman-Roisin, B., E. P. Chassignet, and B. Tang (1990), Westward motion of mesoscale  
320 eddies, *J. Phys. Oceanogr.*, *20*, 758,768.
- 321 Dritschel, D. G., and M. E. McIntyre (2008), Multiple jets as PV staircases: The Phillips  
322 effect and the resilience of eddy-transport barriers, *J. Atmos. Sci.*, *65*, 855–874.
- 323 Eady, E. T. (1949), Long waves and cyclone waves, *Tellus*, *1*, 33–52.
- 324 Early, J. J., R. M. Samelson, and D. B. Chelton (2011), The evolution and propagation  
325 of quasigeostrophic ocean eddies., *J. Phys. Oceanogr.*, *41*, 1535–1555.

- 326 Eden, C., and R. J. Greatbach (2008), Towards a mesoscale eddy closure, *Ocean Modell.*,  
327 *20*, 223–239.
- 328 Ferrari, R., and M. Nikurashin (2010), Suppression of eddy diffusivity across jets in the  
329 Southern Ocean, *J. Phys. Oceanogr.*, *40*, 1501–1519.
- 330 Forget, G. (2010), Mapping ocean observations in a dynamical framework: A 2004-06  
331 ocean atlas, *J. Phys. Oceanogr.*, *40*, 1201–1221.
- 332 Fox-Kemper, B., R. Lumpkin, and F. O. Bryan (2013), Ocean circulation and climate:  
333 A 21st century perspective, in *Lateral Transport in the Ocean Interior*, edited by  
334 G. Siedler, S. M. Griffies, J. Gould, and J. A. Church, pp. 185–209, Elsevier.
- 335 Galperin, B., S. Sukoriansky, N. Dikovskaya, P. L. Read, Y. H. Yamazaki, and  
336 R. Wordsworth (2006), Anisotropic turbulence and zonal jets in rotating flows with  
337 a  $\beta$ -effect, *Phys. Scr.*, *13*, 83–98.
- 338 Gent, P. R., J. Willebrand, T. J. McDougall, and J. C. McWilliams (1995), Parameterizing  
339 eddy-induced tracer transports in ocean circulation models, *J. Phys. Oceanogr.*, *25*,  
340 463–474.
- 341 Green, J. S. A. (1970), Transfer properties of the large-scale eddies and the general circu-  
342 lation of the atmosphere, *Quart. J. Roy. Meteor. Soc.*, *96*, 157–185.
- 343 Held, I. M. (1999), The macroturbulence of the troposphere, *Tellus*, *51A*, 59–70.
- 344 Held, I. M., and V. D. Larichev (1996), A scaling theory for horizontally homogeneous,  
345 baroclinically unstable flow on a beta plane, *J. Atmos. Sci.*, *53*, 946–953.
- 346 Klocker, A., and R. Abernathey (2014), Global patterns of mesoscale eddy properties and  
347 diffusivities, *J. Phys. Oceanogr.*, *44*, 1030–1046.

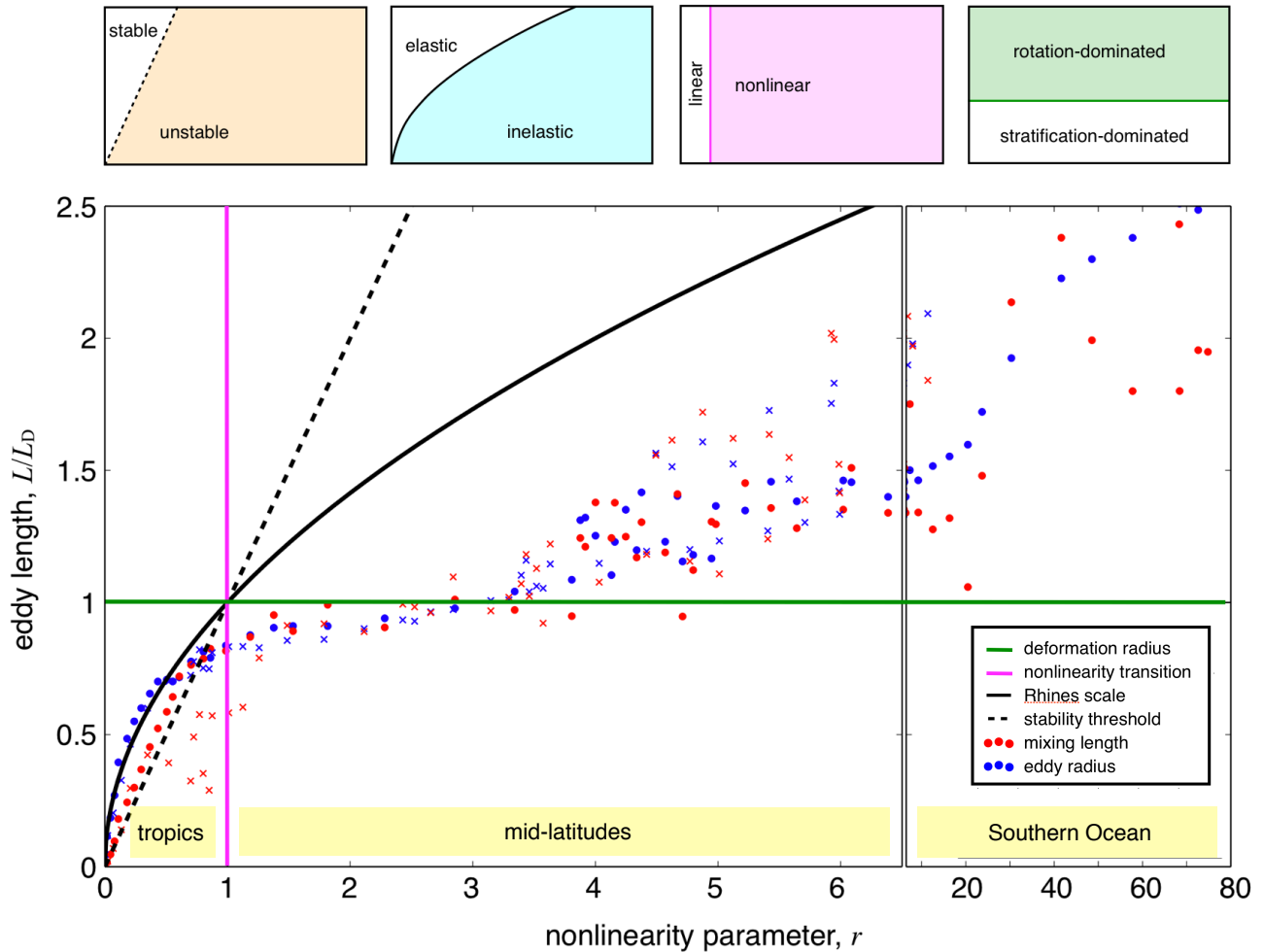
- 348 Klocker, A., and D. P. Marshall (2014), Advection of baroclinic eddies by depth mean  
349 flow, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, *41*, 3517–3521.
- 350 Klocker, A., R. Ferrari, and J. H. LaCasce (2012), Estimating suppression of eddy mixing  
351 by mean flows, *J. Phys. Oceanogr.*, *42*, 1566–1576.
- 352 Kraichnan, R. H. (1967), Inertial ranges in two-dimensional turbulence, *Phys. Fluids*, *10*,  
353 1417–1423.
- 354 Lapeyre, G., and I. M. Held (2003), Diffusivity, kinetic energy dissipation, and closure  
355 theories for the poleward eddy heat flux, *J. Atmos. Sci.*, *60*, 2907–2916.
- 356 Marshall, D. P., and A. J. Adcroft (2010), Parameterization of ocean eddies: Potential  
357 vorticity mixing, energetics and Arnold’s first stability theorem, *Ocean Modell.*, *32*,  
358 188–204.
- 359 Marshall, D. P., and H. R. Pillar (2011), Momentum balance of the wind-driven and  
360 meridional overturning circulation, *J. Phys. Oceanogr.*, *41*, 960–978.
- 361 Munday, D. R., H. L. Johnson, and D. P. Marshall (2013), Eddy saturation of equilibrated  
362 circumpolar currents, *J. Phys. Oceanogr.*, *43*, 507–532.
- 363 Okuno, A., and A. Masuda (2003), Effect of horizontal divergence on the geostrophic  
364 turbulence on a beta-plane: Suppression of the Rhines effect, *Phys. Fluids.*, *15*, 56–65.
- 365 Phillips, N. A. (1951), A simple three-dimensional model for the study of large-scale  
366 extratropical flow patterns, *J. Meteor.*, *8*, 381–393.
- 367 Read, P. (2001), Transition to geostrophic turbulence in the laboratory, and as a paradigm  
368 in atmospheres and oceans, *Survey Geophys.*, *22*, 265–317.

- 369 Rhines, P., and W. Young (1982), Homogenization of potential vorticity in planetary  
370 gyres, *J. Fluid Mech.*, *122*, 347–367.
- 371 Rhines, P. W. (1975), Waves and turbulence on a  $\beta$ -plane, *J. Fluid Mech.*, *69*, 417–443.
- 372 Salmon, R. (1998), *Lectures on Geophysical Fluid Dynamics*, Oxford University Press.
- 373 Stammer, D. (1997), Global characteristics of ocean variability estimated from regional  
374 TOPEX/POSEIDON altimeter measurements, *J. Phys. Oceanogr.*, *27*, 1743–1769.
- 375 Stone, P. H. (1972), A simplified radiative-dynamical model for the static stability of  
376 rotating atmospheres, *J. Atmos. Sci.*, *29*, 405–418.
- 377 Stone, P. H. (1978), Baroclinic adjustment, *J. Atmos. Sci.*, *35*, 561–571.
- 378 Sukoriansky, S., B. Galperin, and N. Dikovskaya (2007), On the arrest of inverse energy  
379 cascade and the Rhines scale, *J. Atmos. Sci.*, *64*, 3312–3327.
- 380 Theiss, J. (2004), Equatorward energy cascade, critical latitude, and the predominance of  
381 cyclonic vortices in geostrophic turbulence, *J. Phys. Oceanogr.*, *34*, 1663–1678.
- 382 Theiss, J. (2006), A generalized Rhines effect and storms on Jupiter, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*,  
383 *33*, doi:10.1029/2005GL025,379.
- 384 Tulloch, R., J. Marshall, and K. S. Smith (2009), Interpretation of the propagation of  
385 surface altimetric observations in terms of planetary waves and geostrophic turbulence,  
386 *J. Geophys. Res.*, *114*, C02,005, doi:10.1029/2008JC005,055.
- 387 Tulloch, R., J. Marshall, C. Hill, and K. S. Smith (2011), Scales, growth rates and spectral  
388 fluxes of baroclinic instability in the ocean, *J. Phys. Oceanogr.*, *41*, 1057–1076.
- 389 Vallis, G. K. (2006), *Atmospheric and Oceanic Fluid Dynamics*, 745 pp., Cambridge Uni-  
390 versity Press.

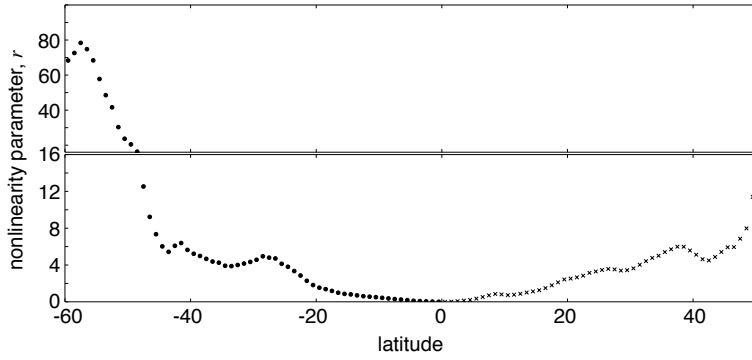
391 Vallis, G. K., and M. E. Maltrud (1993), Generation of mean flows and jets on a beta  
392 plane over topography, *J. Phys. Oceanogr.*, *23*, 1346–1362.

393 Visbeck, M., J. Marshall, and T. Haine (1997), Specification of eddy transfer coefficients  
394 in coarse-resolution ocean circulation models, *J. Phys. Oceanogr.*, *27*, 381–403.

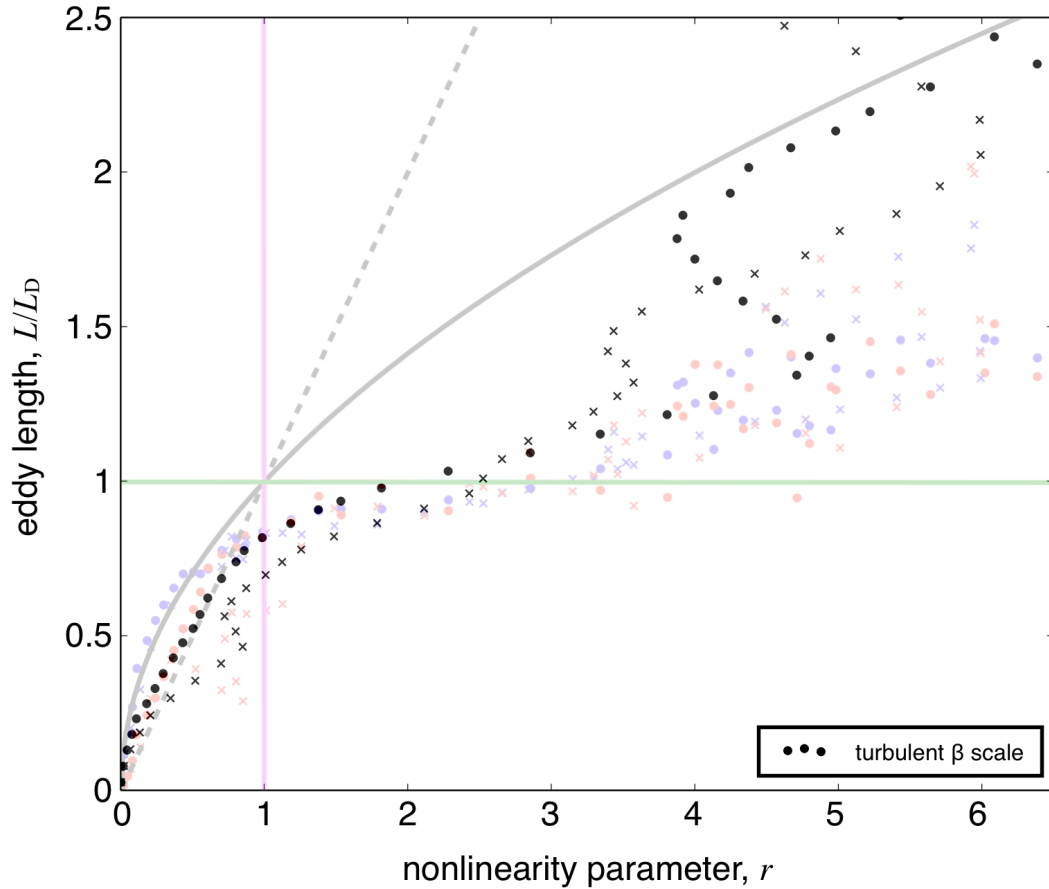
395 Wolfe, C. L., and P. Cessi (2010), What sets the strength of the middepth stratification  
396 and overturning circulation in eddy ocean models?, *J. Phys. Oceanogr.*, *40*, 1520–  
397 1538.



**Figure 1.** The regime diagram for ocean geostrophic turbulence. The axes correspond to the nonlinearity parameter,  $r$ , and the nondimensional eddy length scales,  $L/L_D$ . The blue symbols correspond to the nondimensional eddy radius and the red symbols to the nondimensional mixing length; dots are for the southern hemisphere and crosses for the northern hemisphere. The dashed black line is the stability threshold, the solid black line is the Rhines scale, the magenta line is the nonlinearity transition, and the green line is the deformation radius. These lines represent regime transitions from one dynamical regime to another as indicated in the upper panels. For further details, see the main text.



**Figure 2.** Variation of the nonlinearity parameter,  $r$ , with latitude. Dots correspond to the southern hemisphere and crosses to the northern hemisphere, as in Fig. 1.



**Figure 3.** The nondimensional turbulent  $\beta$  scale,  $L_\beta/L_D$ , with  $\epsilon = 4 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-3}$ , plotted on the same regime diagram as in Fig. 1 for  $r \leq 6.5$ . Black dots are for the northern hemisphere and black crosses are for the southern hemisphere. The data and regime transitions lines from Fig. 1 are shown in faint in the background.