Internal tides off the Amazon shelf Part I: importance for the structuring of ocean temperature during two contrasted seasons

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17 Abstract

18 The impact of the tides (internal and external) barotropic tides on the vertical and 19 horizontal structure of temperature structure off the Amazon River iswas investigated during 20 two highly contrasted seasons (AMJ-: April-May-June and ASO: August-September-October) 21 over a three-year period from 2013 to 2015. Twin regional simulations, with and without tides 22 are, were used to highlight the general effect of tides. The findings reveal that tides tend to cool downhave a cooling effect on the ocean from the surface ($\sim 0.3 \,^{\circ}$ C) to above the thermocline 23 24 (~1.2 °C), and to warmwhile warming it up below the thermocline (~1.2 °C). The heat budget 25 analysis leads to indicates that the conclusion that vertical mixing represents is the dominant 26 process that drives these driving temperature variations within the mixed layer, while it is 27 associated with both horizontal and vertical advection below to explain temperature variations 28 below. The intensified increased mixing in the simulation simulations including tides is 29 attributed to the breaking of internal tides (IT) on their generation sites over the shelf break and 30 offshore along their propagation pathways. While over Over the shelf, the mixing is driven by 31 the dissipation of the external barotropic tides. In addition, the vertical terms of the heat budget equation showexhibit wavelength patterns typical of mode-1 IT. The study highlights the key 32 role of tides and particularly how IT-related vertical mixing shapes the ocean temperature off 33 34 the Amazon. Furthermore, we found that tides impact the interactions between the upper ocean interface and the overlying atmosphere. They contribute significantly to increasing the net heat 35 flux between the atmosphere and the ocean, with a notable seasonal variation from 33.2% in 36

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37 <u>AMJ to 7.4% in ASO seasons. This emphasizes the critical role of tidal dynamics in</u>
 38 understanding regional-scale climate.

Moreover, we found that the tides can impact the interactions between the upper ocean interface and the overlying atmosphere. They account for a significant proportion of the net heat flux between the atmosphere and the ocean, with a marked seasonal variation of 33.2% in AMJ to 7.4% in ASO seasons. Tidal dynamics is therefore critical to understand the climate at regional scale. This study highlights the key role of tides and particularly how IT-related vertical mixing helps to shape ocean temperature off the Amazon.

Keywords: Amazon shelf break, <u>modeling</u>, internal tides, mixing, <u>temperaturecooling</u>, heat
flux, <u>modeling</u>, <u>satellite data</u>.

47 I. Introduction

48 Temperature and its spatial structure play a crucial role in ocean, includingIn the ocean, 49 many processes depend on temperature. These processes include water mass formation (Swift 50 and Aagaard, 1981; Lascaratos, 1993; Speer et al., 1995), the transport and mixing of other 51 tracers in the ocean and, exchanges with other biosphere compartments (Archer et al., 2004, Rosenthal et al., 1997), and, most importantly-on, surface heat exchange at the interface with 52 53 the atmosphere (Clayson and Bogdanoff, 2013; Mei et al., 2015) and can thus), which 54 significantly influence the climate (Li et al., 2006; Collins et al., 2010). This The oceanic thermal 55 structure can be modified at various spatial and temporal scales, through different external 56 processes external to the ocean likesuch as solar radiation, heat exchanges with the atmosphere, winds, precipitation, and freshwater inputs from rivers, and by itsas well as internal processes 57 58 such asincluding mass transport by currents and eddies (e.g., Aguedjou et al., 2021), mixing by turbulent diffusion (Kunze et al., 2012), and the dissipation of internal waves (Barton et al., 59 60 2001; Smith et al., 2004; Salamena et al., 2021). FinallyAdditionally, bottom friction of the barotropic tidal currents may also produce can lead to intensified mixing especially for, 61 62 particularly in shallow water conditions (e.g., over a shelf, (see Lambeck and Runcorn, 1977; Le Provost and Lyard, 1997), and significantly modify ocean temperature in surface layers (Li 63 64 et al., 2020).

The barotropic tides, also called external tides, <u>areserve as</u> the <u>mainprimary</u> source for <u>generating</u> internal waves <u>generation</u>. The <u>external</u>. When barotropic tides, when interacting <u>interact</u> with sharp topography (<u>e.g.,such as</u> ridge, sea mounts, shelf break) in a stratified ocean, <u>they</u> generate internal tides, <u>(IT)</u> that propagate and dissipate in the ocean interior causing 69 diapycnal mixing (Baines, 1982; Munk and Wunsch, 1998; Egbert and Ray, 2000). A number 70 ofSeveral observational and modelling studies have showndemonstrated that this dissipation 71 occurs at the generation sites, at thethrough reflection toat the ocean bottom, or close tonear the 72 surface when the energy rays interact with the thermocline and pycnocline (among others: 73 Laurent and Garrett, 2002; Sharples et al., 2007, 2009; Koch-Larrouy et al., 2015; Nugroho et 74 al., 2018; Whalen et al., 2012). IT also dissipate or lose energy bythrough wave-wave 75 interactions or when they interact with mesoscale or fine-scale structures (Vlasenko and 76 Stashchuk, 2006; Dunphy and Lamb, 2014).

77 The role of internal tides onIT in shaping the ocean's thermal structure has been the 78 subject of growinggarnered increasing interest and has been the focus of numerous studies in 79 recent years. In the Hawaii shallow shelf surface waters of Hawaii, Smith et al. (2016) 80 report reported that IT can induce surface cooling ranging from 1°C to 5°C. For Similarly, in the Indonesian region, IT induce an annual mean surface cooling of 0.5 °C (studies by Koch-81 82 Larrouy et al., (2007, 2008;), Nagai and Hibiya, (2015) and Nugroho et al., (2018) found 83 that decreases IT lead to an average surface cooling of 0.5 °C, which subsequently reduces local 84 atmospheric convection, which and results in turn reduces a 20% decrease in precipitation by 85 20%. They can therefore fulfil a relevant. Therefore, IT play a significant role on in the regional climate dynamics (Koch-Larrouy et al., 2010; Sprintall et al., 2014, 2019). Furthermore, in the 86 87 Andaman Sea, Jithin and Francis (2020) showed demonstrated that internal tides in the Andaman 88 Sea, IT can affect influence the temperature in of deep waters (> 1600 m), leading to resulting in 89 a warming effect of about 1–2 °C. ButHowever, the impact of IT on temperature off the Amazon 90 plateau, their impact on the thermal structure of the ocean is still poorlynot well understood.

91 Our study focuses on the oceanic region of northern Brazil off the Amazon River. This 92 region exhibits a variation experiences variations in the wind position patterns and hence the 93 position of the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) during throughout the year. This These 94 variations directly influencesimpact the discharge of the Amazon River, oceanic circulation, 95 eddy kinetic energy (EKE) and the stratification (Muller-Karger et al., 1988; Johns et al., 1990; 96 Xie and Carton, 2004). HenceConsequently, two very contrastingcontrasted seasons 97 form, emerge: April-May-June (AMJ) and August-September-October (ASO). The AMJ (vs. 98 ASO) is characterized by season features an increasing (vs. decreasing) river discharge, there is 99 a stronger (vs. smallerweaker) and shallower (vs. deeper) pycnocline. The, while the North 100 Brazilian Current (NBC) and eddy kinetic energy (EKE) are weaker (vs. stronger) (Aguedjou et al., 2019, Tchilibou et al., 2022). ForDuring AMJ season, NBC forms a weak equatorial 101

102 retroflection that contributes to the Equatorial Under-Current. In the ASO season, thewhen 103 NBC strengthens, it forms a stronger NBC develops a retroflection (NBCR) between 5° 8° N 104 that in the northwest, which feeds the North Equatorial Counter- Current (NECC) transporting 105 theand transports water masses towards the east of eastwards into the tropical Atlantic. The This 106 intensified retroflection also generates very gives rise to large anticyclonic eddies (called NBC 107 Rings) exceeding, which can exceed 450 km in diameter (Didden and Schott, 1993; Richardson 108 et al., 1994; Garzoli et al., 2003), which in turn transport). These eddies play a role in 109 transporting water masses towards the Northern Hemisphere (Bourles et al., 1999; Johns et al., 110 1998; Schott et al., 2003).

111 Internal tides In this region, IT are generated on at the sharp shelf break featured by a., 112 where the depth decreasing decreases from 200-2000 m over some few tens of kilometers 113 (Fig.1). Six main sites (A to F) have been identified, with the most intense sites, A and B, 114 located in the southern part of the region (Fig.1; Magalhaes et al., 2016, Tchilibou et al., 2022). 115 Previous studies have shownindicated that the propagation of IT in this region IT propagation 116 is modulated by the seasonal variation of thein currents (Magalhaes et al., 2016; Lentini et al., 117 2016; Tchilibou et al., 2022). In addition, seasonal variations in Moreover, changes in 118 stratification induce changes in throughout different seasons affect the activity of internal tide's 119 activity, with in-tides. In AMJ (vs. ASO) season, there is a stronger (vs. smaller) energy conversion and a stronger (vs. smaller) local dissipation of IT energy (Barbot et al., 2021, 120 121 Tchilibou et al., 2022). The interaction between the weaker (vs. stronger) background 122 circulation and IT leads to lessresults in fewer (vs. more) incoherent or non-stationary internal 123 tides (Tchilibou et al., 2022).

124 During the ASO season, cold water (< with temperature below 27.6 °C), associated with 125 the western extension of the Atlantic Cold-water Tongue (ACT) runs-), flows into the region 126 from the south and runruns along the edge of the continental shelf up to about 3°N, 127 establishingforming a cold cell often referred toknown as seasonal upwelling (Lentz and 128 Limeburner, 1995; Neto and da Silva, 2014). Modelling studies, with and without tides, have 129 shownBased on in situ observations, the latter suggest that this upwellingcooling is affectedbacked by the tides. Cooling is more realistic when tides are included (vertical 130 131 advection triggered by the NBC. Alternatively, Ruault et al., (2020). However, these analyses cannot determine what processes are at work. For example, it is not yet explicit whether the 132 133 tidal-induced cooling is due to mixing on the shelf produced by barotropic tides, or to the mixing 134 produced by baroclinic tides at their generation sites and propagation pathways. Based on in situ observations, Neto and da Silva (2014) suggest instead that it is the vertical advection triggered by the NBC that can explain the cooling observed at the surface.) conducted a modeling study, comparing simulations with and without tides, and demonstrated that the inclusion of tides resulted in a more realistic cooling effect on this upwelling. However, it remains unclear whether the cooling is a result of mixing on the shelf caused by barotropic tides or mixing caused by baroclinic tides at their generation sites and propagation pathways.

141 To answer the previous questions, we use a high-resolution model $(1/36^{\circ})$ with and without explicit tidal forcing and a satellite SST product, with the. Our aim of highlighting is to 142 143 examine the impact of tides on the temperature structure and quantify the associated processes-144 We distinguish the analysis for the two contrasted seasons (AMJ and ASO) described above. 145 TheSection II provides a description of the SST product, our model, and the methods used-are 146 described in section II. The validation of certaintidal characteristics of the barotropic and 147 baroclinic tides and of, as well as the temperature is presented in section III. The Section IV 148 focuses on the analysis of the impacts of IT tides on the temperature structure, and the associated 149 processes, as well as the influence of tides on heat exchange at the atmosphere-ocean interface, 150 and the processes involved, are analyzed in section IV... The discussion and the summary of the 151 obtained results are presented in sections V and VI, respectively.

152 II. Data and Methods

153 II.1. Satellite Data: TMI SST

154 This dataset is derived from Tropical Rainfall Measurement Mission (TRMM), which 155 performs measurements using onboard TRMM Microwave Imager (TMI). The microwaves can penetrate clouds and are therefore crucially important for data acquisition in low latitude 156 157 regions, cloudy covered during long periods of raining seasons. We use TMI data products v7.1, 158 which represents is the most recent version of TMI SST. It contains a daily mean of SST with a 159 0.25°×0.25° grid resolution (~25 km). This SST is obtained by through inter-calibration of TMI 160 data with other microwave radiometers. The TMI SST full description and inter-calibration 161 algorithm are detailed in Wentz (2015).

162 **II.2. The NEMO Model:** *AMAZON36* configuration

163 The numerical model used in this study is the Nucleus for European Modelling of the 164 Ocean (<u>NEMOv4NEMO v4</u>.0.2, Madec et al., 2019). The <u>specific</u> configuration designed for 165 <u>our purposethis study</u> is called *AMAZON36* and covers the western tropical Atlantic region from 166 the Amazon River mouth to the open ocean. Other configurations <u>exist</u> in this region, <u>but</u> either

167 they have a coarse grid $(\frac{1}{4^\circ})$, Hernandez et al., 2016), or, when the grid is fine $(\frac{1}{36^\circ})$ 168 they1/36°), do not extend very far enough eastwards and therefore exclude most of the site B 169 (Ruault et al., 2020). The current AMAZON36 configuration avoids overcomes these two limitations. The grid resolution is $\frac{1/36^{\circ}}{1/36^{\circ}}$ and the domain liesspans between 54.7°W-170 171 35.3°W and 5.5°S–10°N (Fig.1). In this way, we capture the internal tides radiating from all the 172 generating sites on the Brazilian shelf break. The vertical grid comprises consists of 75 vertically 173 fixed z-coordinates levels, with a narrower grid refinement near the surface-with, comprising 174 23 levels in the first 100 m. Cell, whereas cell thickness reaches 160 m when approaching near 175 the bottom. The horizontal and vertical resolutions of the grid are therefore fine enough to 176 resolve low-mode internal tides.IT. This grid resolution has already been previously used for 177 this similar purpose in this region (e.g., Tchilibou et al., 2022).

A third order upstream biased scheme (UP3) with built-in diffusion is used for 178 momentum advection, while tracer advection relies on a 2nd order Flux Corrected Transport 179 (FCT) scheme (Zalesak, 1979). A Laplacian isopycnal diffusion with a constant coefficient of 180 $\frac{20 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1} 20 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}}{1 \text{ s}}$ used for tracers. The temporal integration is achieved thanks to a 181 182 leapfrog scheme combined with an Asselin filter to damp numerical modes, with a baroclinic 183 time step of 150 s. The $k - \epsilon k - \epsilon$ turbulent closure scheme is used for vertical diffusion. Bottom friction is quadratic with a bottom drag coefficient of $\frac{2.5 \times 10^{-3}}{2.5 \times 10^{-3}}$, while lateral wall 184 185 free-slip boundary conditions are prescribed. A time splitting technique is used to resolve the 186 free surface, with the barotropic part of the dynamical equations integrated explicitly.

187 We use the 2020's 2020 release of the General Bathymetric Chart of the Oceans, which 188 has been interpolated onto the modelmodel's horizontal grid, with the minimal depth set to 12.8 189 m. The model is forced at the surface by the ERA-5 atmospheric reanalysis (Hersbach et al., 190 2020). The river discharges River runoff are based on monthly means from hydrology 191 simulation of the Interaction Sol-Biosphère-Atmosphère model (see details inISBA, 192 https://www.umr-cnrm.fr/spip.php?article146&lang=en) and are prescribed as surface mass 193 sources with null salinity, and we. We use a multiplicative factor of 90% of ISBA runoff based 194 on a comparison with the HYBAM interannual runoff timeseries (see details in (http://www.ore-195 hybam.org). The model is forced at its open boundaries by the fifteen major tidal constituents 196 (M₂, S₂, N₂, K₂, 2N₂, MU₂, NU₂, L₂, T₂, K₁, O₁, Q₁, P₁, S₁, and M₄) and barotropic currents, 197 derived from FES2014 atlas (Lyard et al., 2021). In addition, we prescribe to the open boundaries, we prescribe the temperature, salinity, sea level, current velocity and derived 198 199 baroclinic velocity from the recent MERCATOR-GLORYS12 v1 assimilation data (Lellouche et al., 2018) for temperature, salinity, sea level, current velocity and derived baroclinic velocity.
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The simulation was <u>simulations were</u> initialized on the 1st of January <u>1</u>, 2005, and ran for 11 years until December 2015. <u>In It was found that the model achieved a seasonal cycle</u> <u>equilibrium after two years. However, for</u> this study, <u>we use our focus lies on a</u> three-year model <u>outputsperiod</u> from January 2013 to December 2015. <u>Indeed, the model has reached an</u> <u>equilibrium in terms of seasonal cycle after 2 years. A twin model configuration without tides</u> <u>is used to To highlight the influence of tides on the temperature structure, we use a twin model</u> <u>configuration without tidal forcing.</u>

209 **II.3. Methods**

210 II.3.1. Tide energy budget

We follow Kelly et al. (2010) to separate barotropic and baroclinic tide constituents. There is no separation following vertical modes, then we analyze the total energy for all the resolved propagation modes for a given tidal frequency. Note that the barotropic/baroclinic tide separation is performed directly by the model for better accuracy. We have only analyzed the M_2 harmonic which is the major tidal constituent in this region (Prestes et al., 2018; Fassoni-Andrade et al., 2023), representing ~70% of the tidal energy (Beardsley et al., 1995; Gabioux et al., 2005).

The <u>energy budget equations of</u> barotropic and baroclinic <u>tide energy budget</u> equations<u>tides</u> are obtained assuming that the energy tendency, the nonlinear advection and the forcing terms are small (Wang et al., 2016). <u>Then, the The</u> remaining equations are reduced to the balance between the energy dissipation, the divergence of the energy flux, and the energy conversion from barotropic to baroclinic (e.g., Buijsman et al., 2017; Tchilibou et al., 2018, 2020; Jithin and Francis, 2020; Peng et al., 2021) :

$$D_{bt} + \nabla_h \cdot F_{bt} + C \approx 0 \tag{1}$$

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$$D_{bc} + \nabla_h \cdot F_{bc} - C \approx 0 \tag{2}$$

bt and bc indicate the barotropic and baroclinic terms, respectively, D is the depth-integrated energy dissipation, which can be understood as a proxy of the real dissipation since D may encompass the energy loss of non-linear terms and/or numerical dissipation (see Nugroho et al., 2018), $\nabla_h \cdot F$ represents the divergence of the depth-integrated energy flux, whilstwhile C is the depth-integrated barotropic-to-baroclinic energy conversion, i.e., the amount of incoming
barotropic energy converted into internal tides energy over the steep topography, with:

$$C = \langle \mathcal{P}H \cdot U_{bt} P_{bc}^* \rangle \tag{3}$$

$$F_{bt} = \langle U_{bt} P_{bt} \rangle \langle U_{bt} P_{bt} \rangle$$
(4)

$$F_{bc} = \frac{\int_{H}^{\eta} \langle U_{bc} P_{bc} \rangle d_{z}}{\int_{H}^{\eta} \langle U_{bc} P_{bc} \rangle d_{z}}$$
(5)

where the angle bracket $\langle \cdot \rangle$ denotes the average over a tidal period, *PH* is the slope of the bathymetry, *U* is the current velocity, P_{bc}^* is the baroclinic pressure perturbation at the bottom, *H* is the bottom depth, η the surface elevation, *P* is the pressure, then *F* is the energy flux and emphasizes indicates the path of the tides.

239 II.3.2. 3-D heat budget equation for temperature

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The three-dimensional temperature budget was computed online and further analyzed. It is the balance between the total temperature trend and the sum of the temperature advection, diffusion and solar radiative and non-solar radiative fluxes (e.g., Jouanno et al., 2011; Hernandez et al., 2017): <u>The three-dimensional heat budget equation for temperature is</u> expressed as follows:

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$$\partial_t T = \underbrace{-u\partial_x T - v\partial_y T - w\partial_z T}_{ADV} + LDF - \underbrace{\partial_z (K_z \partial_z T)}_{ZDF} - \underbrace{\partial_z (K_z \partial_z T)}_{ZDF} + Forcing + Asselin$$
246 (6)

247 <u>Herehere</u> T_{i} is the model potential temperature, (u, v, w) are the velocity components in the (x, 248 y, z) [respectively eastward, northward and upward] directions, ADV is the 3-D tendency term 249 from the advection routine of the NEMO code (from the left to right: zonal, meridional and 250 vertical terms). Note that in our model, ADV includes-nonlinear effect between the temperature 251 and the currents and leads to some diffusivity of the temperature due to numerical dissipation 252 of the FCT advection scheme (Zalesak, 1979) in contrast to some non-diffusive advection 253 scheme like in Leclair and Madec (2009). In previous studies, for lower resolution $(1/4^{\circ})$, this 254 mixing has been quantified to be responsible for 30% of the dissipation as part of the high-255 frequency workeffect of the diffusion (Koch-Larrouy et al., 2008). We expect here at 1/36° 256 resolution that this effect will be smaller but still non negligible. This will be discussed in the 257 last section. Note that explicit separation of this effect is beyond the scope of our study. 258 Furthermore, tides are primarily linear in surface water, however, non-linear effects intensify 259 due to bottom friction for barotropic tides or as a result of IT breaking. Consequently, we 260 <u>anticipate a corresponding increase in *ADV*. *ZDF* representsdenotes the vertical diffusion, *LDF* 261 is the lateral diffusion, *Forcing* is the sum of tendency of temperature due to penetrative solar 262 radiation, which includes a vertical decaying structure, and the non-solar heat flux (sum of the 263 latent, sensible, and net infrared fluxes) at the surface layer, and *Asselin* corresponds to the 264 numerical diffusion for the temperature.</u>

265 III. Model validation

In this subsection we assess the quality of our simulations by verifying whether they are in good agreement with the observations and other reference data. Firstly, for the barotropic and baroclinic characteristics of the M_2 tides for the year 2015, and finally for the temperature from 2013 to 2015.

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0 III.1. M₂ Tides in the model

271 We initially examined the barotropic SSH and there is a good agreement in both 272 amplitude (color shading) and phase (solid contours) between FES2014 and the model, Fig.2a and Fig.2b, respectively. NeverthelessHowever, near the coast, somefew differences in 273 274 amplitude are observed in amplitude. The model's SSH amplitude of the model is lower (~+50 275 cm) north of the mouth of the Amazon. However, shoreward and on the southern part of the mouth, the model, while it overestimates the amplitude by $\sim \pm 20$ cm and $\sim \pm 40$ cm, 276 277 respectively-, shoreward and on the southern part of the mouth. These biases are of the same 278 order of a similar magnitude as those reported in Ruault et al. (2020). The flux of the barotropic 279 tidal energy flowing inshore is represented by the black arrowsdepicted in Fig.2c and Fig.2d 280 for FES2014 and the model, respectively. A fraction portion of this energy is converted into baroclinic tidal energy over the steep slope of the bathymetry. We compared the depth-281 282 integrated barotropic-to-baroclinic energy conversion rate (C) between FES2014 and the 283 model, color shading in Fig.2c and Fig.2d, respectively. The model does reproduce successfully 284 reproduces the same conversion patterns of FES2014 over the slope, but hardlyless offshore between 42°W-35°W and 7°N-10°N. This leads to anAs a result, our model overall 285 underestimate of underestimates C of about 30% by our model. approximately 30%. Niwa and 286 287 Hibiya (2011) have showndemonstrated that C increases with higher bathymetry resolution, meaningindicating that there is more conversion with the FES2014 grid (~1.5 km) compared to 288 our grid (~3 km). In addition, FES2014 (vs. our model) is a barotropic (vs. baroclinic) model, 289 290 which may be a source of some differences since it solves different set of equations.

291 Another partportion of the barotropic energy is dissipated on the shelf by through bottom 292 friction and induces, leading to mixing from the bottom (Beardsley et al., 1995; Gabioux et al., 293 2005; Bessières, 2007; Fontes et al. (2008). Most of the dissipation of barotropic energy (D_{bt}) occurs in the middle and inner shelf between 3°S-4°N (Fig.2e) in good agreement with with a 294 295 mean value of about 0.25 W.m⁻² (Fig.2e). The location of this dissipation aligns well with 296 previous studies of Beardsley et al. (1995) and Bessières (2007). The remaining barotropic 297 energy propagates over hundreds of kilometers into the estuarine systems of this region (Kosuth 298 et al., 2009; Fassoni-Andrade et al., 2023).

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For the internal tides, their The energy flux of IT (F_{bc} , black arrows in Fig.2f) shows) 300 <u>indicates</u> that they <u>propagate</u> from the slope towards the open ocean. (Fig.2f). F_{bc} 301 highlightsindicates the existence of six main sites of IT generation on the slope. Two of these 302 are more important (, with sites A and B) regarding being particularly significant in terms of 303 their higher and far extended energy flux, in good agreement with previous studies (Magalhaes 304 et al. (., 2016); Barbot et al. (., 2021) and Tchilibou et al. (., 2022). From these two main sites, 305 internal tidesIT spread over nearly 1000 km, and dissipate their energy. Color shading in Figure 306 2f shows the The model's depth-integrated internal tides energy dissipation (D_{bc}). We found 307 that about) is at least two times weaker than barotropic energy dissipation, with a mean value 308 of 0.1 W.m⁻² (Fig.2f). Approximately 30% of theIT energy is dissipated locally over generation 309 sites (not shown), in good agreement consistent with the findings of Tchilibou et al. (2022). The 310 remaining partportion is dissipated offshore along the propagation path. This offshore 311 dissipation is more extended along path A, ~300 km from the slope, with two patterns beams 312 spaced approximately-by an average wavelengthdistance of 120-150 km corresponding to 313 mode-1 propagation. Whilewavelength. On the other hand, there is less offshore dissipation 314 along path B, occurring around 100-200 km from the slope (Fig.2f).

315 Another eritical important characteristic of IT is their SSH imprints along the propagation pathway. We compared an The estimate of this signature deduced from the 316 317 altimeter tracks (Fig.2g) produced by Zaron (2019) is compared with our model (Fig.2h), with 318 the shelf masked over 150 m depth. Our model is inshows good agreement with this product, <u>albeit</u> with <u>ana slight</u> overestimation of the order of $\sim \pm about \sim 1.5$ cm on the SSH maxima. It 319 320 is relevant to note worth noting that the model's baroclinic SSH of our model is an average over 321 the year 2015, whilstwhile the satellite estimate is an average over a longer period of about 20 322 years. This means that The longer period of the satellite estimate may introduce greater variability <u>ofin</u> the altimeter tracks is greater due to the longer period, which may reduce, <u>potentially reducing</u> the amplitude of the estimates and <u>explainexplaining</u> the <u>smallslight</u> differences <u>with the model</u> in the positioning and amplitude of the maxima.

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III.2. Temperature validation

327 Figure 3 shows the mean SST over the entire 2013–2015 period for TMI SST (Fig.3a), the tidal simulations (Fig.3b) and the non-tidal simulations (Fig.3c), 328 then,). We obtain the bias between TMI SST and the two simulations is obtained by linear 329 330 interpolation of the simulations data on the observation grid. The simulation simulations with 331 tides accurately reproduces reproduce the spatial distribution of the observations both for, as 332 indicated by the weak bias $(< +0.1^{\circ}C)$ with TMI SST. This is particularly evident for the cooling on the shelf around 47.5°W and to the southeast between 40°W–35°W and $2^{\circ}S-2^{\circ}N_{3}$ 333 as shown by the weak bias, $< \pm 0.1^{\circ}$ C, with TMI (Fig.3d). This cooling is inaccurately 334 335 reproduced by In contrast, the non-tidal simulation which exhibits simulations exhibit a warm 336 bias of about 0.3-°C in this cooling region (Fig. 3.e3e). To the northeast, between 50°W–54°W 337 and 3°N-8°N in the Amazon plume, the SST of the non-tidal simulations is in better 338 agreement with the observations, while the SST of the tidal simulation simulations is about \geq 339 0.6 °C cooler than TMI SST (Fig.3d). The same This bias is obtained consistent with other 340 models that include tides in this northern zone by other models including tides (e.g., Hernandez 341 et al., 2016, 2017; Gévaudan et al. (2022). Far offshore, between 50°W-40°W and 6°N-10°N, both simulations revealexhibit a negative bias of about 0.2–0.3 °C (Fig.3d–e). We averaged 342 343 the observations and the interpolated simulation data inwithin the dashed box (see Fig.3a-c), 344 with a depth <of less than 200 m masked. This location is around of the boxes comprises IT 345 generation sites and on-part of their pathways. Then, we compute We then computed the 346 seasonal cycle of the three products (Fig.3f). The tidal and non-tidal simulations of the model 347 reproduce accurately reproduce both the seasonal cycle and the standard deviation of the observations, with a low <u>RMSE</u>root mean square errors of $\sim 2.10^{-2} \circ C_{approximately} 2 \times 10^{-2} \circ C$ 348 and -4 10⁻² °C, between TMI SST and tidal and non-tidal simulation4×10⁻² °C, respectively, 349 350 indicating when compared to the TMI SST. This indicates the robustness of our model's the 351 model's simulations. Over the seasonal cycle, it appears that the tidal simulation is simulations 352 are closer to the observations from January to March, July to September, and November to December, while during. During the rest of the year, either the twoboth simulations are equally 353 354 close to the observations, or the non-tidal simulation issimulations are closer.

355 To gain an-insight into our model performance along the depth, we used the mean 356 WOA2018 climatology (2005–2017) and simulation data (salinity and temperature) for the 357 three years 2013-2015, averaged in the same region as in Fig.3f. Figure 3g shows the 358 Temperature-Salinity (T-S) diagram for WOA2018 and the two simulations. The data are 359 averaged in the box as before, and we use $\sigma_{\theta} \left[\rho - 1000 \right] \sigma_{\theta} \left[\rho - 1000 \right]$ to represent the density contours, with ρ the water density. Both simulations exhibit similar patterns withas WOA2018 360 361 for deeper waters, i.e., T < 17 °CT < 17 °C and $\sigma_{\theta} > \frac{25.6 \text{ kg.m}^{-3} 25.6 \text{ kg.m}^{-3}}{25.6 \text{ kg.m}^{-3}}$. However, there exist minor discrepancies for the surface layer waters, i.e., T > 17 °CT > 17 °C and $22.4 > \sigma_{H}$ 362 $< 25.6 \text{ kg.m}^{-3} \cdot 22.4 > \sigma_{\theta} < 25.6 \text{ kg.m}^{-3} \cdot 1.2 \text$ 363 reproduces reproduce the T-S profile of the observations. These smalls light differences between 364 365 observations the two simulations, especially WOA2018 and with the tidal 366 simulations further demonstrate the ability of our model to reproduce the observed 367 water mass properties.

368 IV. Results

In this section, we present the influence of tides on-the temperature, the associated processes, and the impact on the atmosphere-ocean net heat exchange. The analyses were performed on a seasonal scale between April-May-June (AMJ) and August-September-October (ASO) for the three years 2013–2015.

373 **Г**

IV.1. Tide-enhanced surface cooling

During the first season, warm waters, which are defined as > 27.6 °C, dominate near the 374 375 coast, especially in the middle shelf and in the south-east, and cold waters are present offshore 376 north of 6°N (Fig.4a-c). Off the mouth of the Amazon River, water colder than 28.2 °C spreads between 43°W–51°W for TMI SST (Fig.4a) and the tidal simulations imulations (Fig.4b), while 377 378 warmer waters are present in the same area for the simulations without the tides 379 (Fig.4c). Figures 4d--f show the SST, averaged over the ASO season. The-TMI SST 380 observations (Fig.4d) shows an upwelling cell represented by the extension of the 27.2 °C 381 isotherm (white dashed contour) along the slope to about 49°W–3°N towards the north-east of the region, which forms the extension of the ACT. This extension also exists in the tidal 382 383 simulations (Fig.4e), whereas ≤ 27.2 °C waters are not crossing 45.5°W and remain 384 in the southern hemisphere in the simulations imulations without the tides (Fig.4f). This means 385 that waters colder than 27.2°C can only extend further into the northeast because of tides. In 386 addition, we can note that the mean SST shows a very contrasting distribution between the two

seasons. There are warm waters along the shelf and cold waters offshore during the AMJ season
(Fig.4a-c). This is followed by warming along the Amazon plume and offshore, and an
upwelling cell in the south-east (Fig.4d-f).

The general impact of the tides, illustrated by the SST anomaly between the tidal and the non-tidal <u>simulationsimulations</u>, is a cooling over a large part of the study area with maxima up to 0.3 °C (Fig. 5a-_b). For ASO, tides induce a warming (> 0.3 °C) on the shelf at the mouth of the Amazon River (Fig.5b), while for AMJ it is a cooling of the same intensity (Fig.5a). That difference will be further discussed. Out of the shelf, the <u>structure of</u> temperature anomaly for each-varies depending on the season has different spatial structures. This is, probably due to a differentbecause of seasonal mesoscale variability between the two seasons.

IV.2. Impact of the tides inon the atmosphere-to-ocean net heat flux

398 The atmosphere--ocean net heat flux (Qt) reflects the balance of incoming and outgoing 399 heat fluxes across the atmosphere-ocean interface (see details on Moisan and Niiler, 1998; 400 Jayakrishnan and Babu, 2013). During AMJ, the tides mainly induce positive Qt anomalies over 401 the whole domain. The average values are around 25 W.m⁻² in the plume and the Amazon 402 retroflection to the northeast and along A and B (Fig.5c). Negative SST anomalies (~0.3°C) 403 occur throughout the domain in the same location. During the ASO season, at the mouth of the 404 Amazon, there are negative Qt anomalies but of the same magnitude as during the previous 405 season (Fig.5d). At this location, positive temperature anomalies (~0.3°C) are observed 406 (Fig.5b). Elsewhere, there are positive Qt anomalies and negative SST anomalies. It therefore 407 appears that negative SST anomalies induce positive Qt anomalies and vice versa. Hence, the 408 spatial structures of Qt anomalies and SST anomalies fit almost perfectly together for the two 409 seasonseasons. There is a strong negative correlation of 0.97 with a significance of $R^2 = 0.95$ 410 for the AMJ season. And roughly, and almost the same intensity and sign for thein ASO season 411 with 0.98 and 0.96, respectively for the correlation and its significance (Fig.5e). This is 412 consistent with the fact that the atmosphere and the underlying ocean are balanced. Then, the 413 SST cooling induced by upwelled cold water will try upset this balance. As a result of this, an 414 equivalent variation in the net heat flux from the atmosphere to the ocean will attempt to restore 415 it.

The Figure 5f the integral over the entire domain of the net heat flux for each season and for each simulation is shown in Figure 5f. During the AMJ season, Qt increases from 23.85 TW (1 TW = 10^{12} W) for the non-tidal simulation simulations to 35.7 TW for the tidal simulation simulations, i.e., an increase of 33.2 %. That is, the tides are responsible for a third of Qt variation. This is very large compared to what is observed elsewhere in other IT hotspots
(e.g., 15% in Solomon Sea, Tchilibou et al., 2020). During the second season, there is a smaller
increase in Qt of about 7.4% between the two simulations, i.e., from 73.03 TW to78to 78.83
TW for the non-tidal and tidal simulations respectively (Fig.5f).

It is also worth noting the significant difference in integrated Qt between the two seasons. The values are less than 36 TW during the AMJ season, whereas they are around twice as high, > 73 TW, during the ASO season. Given that colder SST induce a stronger Qt, these higher values are likely related to the arrival of <u>watercold waters</u> from ACT, which forms upwelling cells (Fig.4d—f) with a secondary tidal effect.

429 **IV.3.** Vertical structure of Temperature along internal tides pathway

430 To further analyze the temperature changes between both the two simulations, we made 431 vertical sections following the path of IT radiating from sites A and B (respectively black and 432 red line in Fig.2f). Hereunder, only the transects following the pathway A will be shownare 433 presented, since the vertical structure is similar following pathway B especially for AMJ season 434 and because some processes tend to be null along pathway B during the ASO season. The mixed 435 layer refers to a quasi-homogenous surface layer of temperature-dependent density that 436 interacts with the atmosphere (Kara et al., 2003). Its maximum depth, also known as mixed-437 layer depth (MLD), is defined as the depth where the density increases from the surface value, 438 due to temperature change of $\Delta T = 0.2 \ ^{\circ}C$ with constant salinity (e.g., Dong et al., 2008; 439 Varona et al., 2019).

440 Figure 6 shows the vertical sections of temperature for the two seasons following A. For 441 theIn AMJ season, over the slope and near the coast, cold waters (< 27.6 °C) remain below the 442 surface at ~20 m for the tidal simulations (Fig.6a) and deeper at ~60 m for the non-443 tidal simulations (not shown). Then, The cold waters rise to the surface more than 444 400 km offshore for both simulations. At the In surface layers (< 40 m), the SST temperature 445 anomaly is relatively small (~more than -0.3 °C, Fig.5a), because the SST anomalies are likely 446 damped by the heat fluxes, further8°C at the shelf beak and less than -0.2°C elsewhere (Fig.6b). 447 Further down (< 60m) the water column, this anomaly becomes much larger (Fig.6b). along the 448 transect. Above that thermocline (< 120 m), the simulation simulations with the tides is are 449 colder by 1.2 °C from the slope, where IT are generated to the open ocean and following their 450 propagation pathpathway. Conversely, below the thermocline, the tidal simulation 451 issimulations are warmer by approximately the same intensity (1.2 °C) up to ~300 m depth and 452 along the propagation path and down to ~300 m depth (Fig.6b). During this In AMJ season, the thermocline <u>depth</u> is $-about 100 \text{ m} \pm \pm 15 \text{ m}$ deep-and-the MLD is $-about 40 \text{ m} \pm \pm 20 \text{ m}$ deep (dashed white line, (Fig.6a). They both have a very weak slope between the coast and the open ocean. Over the whole domain, the thermocline is deeper by about 15 m on average in the nontidal <u>simulationsimulations</u>, following the propagation paths of internal tides, on the Amazon shelf and plume (Fig.6c). <u>Whilst Similarly, the MLD</u> in the non-tidal <u>simulationsimulations</u> is deeper by <u>an average of approximately</u> 10 m over the shelf, <u>-4</u> m <u>on average</u> along IT propagation paths and close to zero in the Amazon plume (Fig.6d).

460 During the In ASO season, cold waters previously confined below the surface during the 461 previous season (AMJ) rise to the surface. These cold waters extend over the slope and up to 462 about 150 km offshore in the non-tidal simulations (not shown) and up to 250 km 463 offshore in the tidal simulations (Fig.7a). The 27.2 °C isotherm only reaches the 464 surface above the slope in the tidal simulations imulations and remains below the surface (~30 465 m) in the non-tidal simulations (not shown). This aligns with the missingabsence of 466 that isotherm at this location in the corresponding SST map (Fig.4f). For the tidal simulations in the temperature anomaly in the ASO season is smaller (<- (~ -0.4 °C, 467 468 Fig.7b) in the surface layers (< 40 m) near the coast compared to the AMJ season (Fig.6b). In 469 contrast, during the ASO season, this cooling can drive more SST anomalies along A (-0.3 °C, 470 Fig.5b). A stronger cooling of ---about 1.2 °C occurs deeper between 60 and 140 m depth, and a warming of about 1.2 °C below, which extends less offshore than during AMJ season, 471 472 650 km vs. ~1000 km. During thisIn ASO season, the coastward slope of the thermocline and 473 MLD becomes somewhat steeper compared to the other AMJ season. In both simulations, there 474 is a dip of ~80 m, i.e., ~60 m offshore and ~140 m inshore, for the thermocline (dashed black 475 line, Fig.7a). And), and a dip of ~40 m, i.e., ~30 m offshore and ~70 m inshore, for MLD 476 (dashed white line, Fig.7a). Over the entire domain, the tides reduce the thermocline depth by 477 ~6 m on the shelf and ~12 m at the plume and far offshore along the propagation path of A 478 (Fig.7c). They reduce the MLD in the tidal run), and they MLD by about 10 m along the shelf 479 and ~4 m along the propagation path of A (Fig.7d).

Between the two seasons, there is also a change in the vertical density gradient between the coast and the open sea. In the tidal <u>simulationsimulations</u>, during the AMJ season, the isopycnals layers are <u>tightthin</u> near the coast and thicken towards the open sea (Fig.6a). This means that a strong stratification is present near the coast and decreases towards the open sea. In contrast, during the second ASO season, the isopycnals layers are thicker near the coast and tight offshore (Fig.7a). As the result of this, the stratification is weaker inshore than offshore. This clearly highlights a seasonality in the vertical density gradient profile in agreement with Tchilibou et al. (2022). Note that this behavior also appears in the <u>simulationsimulations</u> without the tides (not shown). The transects of the temperature anomaly, Fig.6b and 7b, show that the tides influence the temperature in the ocean from the surface to the deep layers, with a greater effect on the first <u>300three hundred</u> meters. One question we address in this paper is to better understand what processes are at work that explain these temperature changes.

492 IV.4. What are the processes involved?

To explain the observed surface and water column temperature changes, we computed and analyzed the terms of the heat balance equation (see Section II.3.2, Equation 6) for both seasons (AMJ and ASO).

496 IV.4.1. Vertical diffusion of Temperature

497 Figure 8 shows the vertical temperature diffusion tendency (ZDF). ZDF is averaged 498 between 2-20 m, i.e., within the mixed-layer. For the AMJ season, ZDF in the tidal 499 simulations (Fig.8a) shows a negative trend (i.e., cooling) in the whole domain. The maximum values $(> |0.4| \circ C.day^{-1})(> |0.4| \circ C.day^{-1})$ are located along the slope where IT are 500 501 generated and on their propagation path. There is a larger horizontal extent along A of ~700 km 502 from the coasts compared to B, where it is ~300 km from the coasts. Elsewhere, it remains very 503 $1 \text{ ow}, > -0.1 \text{ °C.day}^{-1}$.ZDF is weak (> -0.1 °C.day^{-1}). For the non-tidal simulations (Fig.8b), the ZDF is very weak over the entire domain (> $-0.1 \circ C.day^{-1}$). For 504 the (> -0.1 °C. day⁻¹). In ASO season, the tidal simulation simulations (Fig.8c) shows show a 505 decrease of the ZDF near the coast (< 100 km) and a strengthening offshore along A compared 506 507 to the previous season, but with the same cooling trend $(< -0.4 \circ C.day^{-1})$. $(< -0.4 \circ C.day^{-1})$. 508 Along B, it tends to be null, both at the coast and offshore (Fig.8c). In addition, the mesoscale 509 circulation and eddy activity intensify during this season. To the northeast, approximately between 4°N-8°N, and 47°W-53°W, there is a cooling on the shelf of -0.3 510 $^{\circ}C.day^{-1} \sim 0.3 \circ C.day^{-1}$ with eddy-like patterns in the tidal simulations (Fig.8c). The 511 512 processes by which these features might arise will beare discussed in more details in 513 section Section V. Unsurprisingly, ZDF is very weak elsewhere everywhere for the non-tidal 514 simulations (Fig.8d). Internal tides IT are the dominant driver of vertical diffusion of 515 temperature along the shelf break and offshore, while the mixing induced by barotropic tides 516 could prevail on the shelf.

517 On the vertical following A, there are opposite sign ZDF values, with mean magnitude of $\sim |0.4| \circ C.day^{-1} \sim |0.4| \circ C.day^{-1}$. These values are centered around the thermocline for the 518 519 simulations with tides in the two seasons AMJ and ASO (respectively Fig.8e and 8f). 520 There is a cooling trend above the thermocline and a warming trend below. The average vertical 521 extent is up to ~350 m depth for the maximum values but exceeds 500 m depth for the low 522 values $(< 0.1 \circ C.day^{-1})$. (< 0.1 $\circ C.day^{-1}$). As for the horizontal averages (Fig. 9a8a and 9c8c), 523 from one season to another there is a weakening of ZDF above the slope and a strengthening 524 offshore, Fig.8e and 8f, for AMJ and ASO, respectively. Furthermore, offshore ZDF maxima 525 seem to beare discontinuous and spaced of about 140–160 km during the AMJ season (Fig.8e) but are more continuous for the ASO season (Fig.8f). For the non-tidal simulations, 526 527 the mean ZDF tends to be null in the ocean interior but remains quite large (> -0.2) $^{\circ}C.day^{-1}$ (> -0.2 $^{\circ}C.day^{-1}$) in the thin surface layer during the two seasons (Fig.8g-h). 528

529 Furthermore, it is worth to noting that along IT propagation's pathway, the maximum 530 of the ZDF follows the maxima of the baroclinic tidal energy dissipation (color shading in 531 Fig.2f). Thus, This proves that the dissipation of IT causes vertical mixing that enhances the <u>SST</u> 532 cooling of the sea surface. In addition, this temperature diffusion contributes to greater 533 subsurface cooling within the mixed-layer and warming in the deeper layers beneath the 534 thermocline.

535 The seasonality of the stratification, highlighted above, could explain why the ZDF is 536 stronger along the slope and the near-coastal pathway B during the AMJ season (Fig.8a and 537 8e), and why in ASO season ZDF is weaker along the slope, close to zero following B, and 538 reinforce offshore of A during the ASO season (Fig.8c and 8f). Previous studies have shown 539 that stratification influences the generation of internal tides and controls their modal 540 distribution. Here we show that stratification also plays a role on the fate of these internal tides, 541 in this case on their dissipation. The stratification could determine where IT dissipate their 542 energy in the water column, as mentioned by de Lavergne et al. (2020).

- 543 IV.4.2. Advection of temperature
- 544 The vertical (z–ADV) and the horizontal (h–ADV) terms of the temperature advection 545 tendency are averaged in the same depth-range as above for the two seasons.
- 546 IV.4.2.a Vertical advection of Temperature

547 <u>Tides fail to generate vertical temperature advection within surface layers. As expected,</u>
 548 z-_ADV is almost null in these surface layers throughout the region in that depth-range (Fig.9a-

549 -d). For-Nevertheless, for both seasons, some weak there are extreme values are located in the northwest on the plateau between 54°W-50°W and 3°N-36°N and are forwith the same 550 551 intensity betweenin the two simulations with and without tides. This result suggests that, 552 overall, the tides fail to generate vertical temperature advection within these surface layers, 553 but(<0.3 °C.day⁻¹). But deeper, z ADV become higher. Vertical vertical sections (Fig.9a-h) show an intensification of z—ADV of about $\pm 0.8 \circ C.day^{-1} \pm 0.8 \circ C.day^{-1}$ located below the MLD 554 555 and seems to be centered around the thermocline, with a vertical extension from 20-200 m 556 depth. z-ADV is stronger in tidal simulations imulations during both seasons (Fig.9e- f_{1}) and 557 mainly-presents sparse extrema offshore (>-300 km) for the non-tidal simulations 558 (Fig.9g-h). For the simulation simulations with the tides, z-ADV appears to be rather 559 dominated by a cooling trend, with a marked hotspot on the slope followed by other hotspots 560 offshore. These extreme values are spaced about 120-150 km apart, i.e., a mode-1 wavelength 561 as for the baroclinic tidal energy dissipation (Fig.2f). Note that for both simulations (Fig.10e-9e-h), the extreme values are located within the narrow density (σ_{θ}) contours [23.8–26.2 kg.m⁻ 562 $^{3}23.8-26.2$ kg.m⁻³], i.e., within the pycnocline. The location of the extreme values of z-ADV 563 564 at the shelf break and along IT propagation's pathway propagation pathways and its negative 565 sign suggest that the diffusive part of the advection scheme might be the dominant process 566 compared to nonlinear effects.may account significantly in z-ADV.

567 IV.4.2.b Horizontal advection of temperature

568 Horizontal advection of temperature (h-ADV) is defined as the sum of the zonal (x-569 ADV) and meridional (y-ADV) terms of temperature advection tendency. As for z-ADV, the 570 mean of h-ADV tends to be null over the entire domain in the surface layers for both seasons 571 in both simulations (Fig.10a-d). Nevertheless, some weak extreme values are extremums exist in the northwest of the plateau between 54°W-50°W and 3°N-37°N, that. These intensify 572 during the ASO season in both simulations, $\sim \pm 0.2 \text{ °C.day}^{-1}$, Fig. $\sim \pm 0.2 \text{ °C.day}^{-1}$, Figure 10c 573 574 and 10d for the tidal and non-tidal simulations, respectively. During In AMJ season, h-ADV is slightly stronger, $-0.1 \circ C.day^{-1}$, $-0.1 \circ C.day^{-1}$, around sites A and B in the tidal 575 576 simulations (Fig.10a), which appears to be related to IT generated along the slope. 577 On the other hand, the small difference However, there is a slight distinction between the two 578 simulations in the surface layers shows, suggesting that the tides hardly generate have a minimal 579 effect on h-ADV. Then, as expected. Consequently, h-ADV hardlyhas a negligible influence 580 on the cold-water tongue observed overin the surface SST during the ASO season (Fig.4d-_f).

581 Along the vertical following A, h-ADV maxima remain essentially are confined below 582 the mixed-layer depth, with much. The tidal simulations (Fig.10e-f) exhibit significantly more intense values in the tidal simulation (Fig. 10e-f) compared to the non-tidal 583 584 simulations (Fig.10g-h). h-ADV contributes to both warming and cooling of the 585 temperature, with a magnitude of $\sim \pm 0.4 \,^{\circ}\text{C.day}^{-1}$ about $\pm 0.4 \,^{\circ}\text{C.day}^{-1}$, extending from the slope 586 to more thanover 500 km offshore. During In both seasons, the average vertical extension lies 587 between the surface and 400 m depth for the tidal simulations imulations, and a little less 588 extended between 20–300 m depth for the non-tidal simulation. As for simulations. Similarly 589 to z-ADV, h-ADV is also stronger within the pycnocline. For In the tidal simulation, there 590 issimulations, a warming effect is observed above the slope (0.4 °C.day⁻¹)(0.4 °C.day⁻¹), 591 reaching the surface in both seasons. This vertical excursion is also observed elsewhere for ZDF 592 and z-ADV, and it is probably a marker of local dissipation of IT at their generation site. This 593 local dissipation clearly affects both advection and vertical diffusion of the temperature but there are very low values along the slope when averaging h ADV or z ADV between 2 20 m 594 595 and much more strong values for the ZDF. This means sites. It is noteworthy that the energy 596 dissipated by internal tides is mostly transferred to mixing. In addition, unlike ZDF and z ADV, 597 the (horizontal)-location of h-ADV maxima mismatch IT does not coincide with the 598 dissipation hotspots- of IT, in contrast of ZDF and z-ADV.

599

9 IV.4.3. Heat budget balance

600 From the sections above, it is evident that IT-induced mixing within the mixed layer 601 emerges as the primary driver among the ocean's internal processes in explaining changes in 602 SST. However, below MLD, advective processes play a more significant role in structuring 603 temperature. Figure 10 showspresents the average of the terms of the heat balance equation 604 averaged below the MLDEquation 6 below MLD within the depth range of 60-400 m. The 605 analysis focuses on a specific region with latitude and longitude ranging between 60 and 400 m depth in a region around the IT trajectories emanating from A0°N-6°N and B between 40°W-606 607 -48°W-and 0°N-6°N, respectively. This region includes the two main IT paths, as well as a portion of the along-coast upwelling region. During the AMJ season, advection (ADV) 608 609 dominates is the dominant process over diffusion terms for in both tidal (Fig.11a) and non-tidal 610 (Fig.11b) simulations, while during. However, in the ASO season, advection dominates ADV 611 only dominate in tidal simulations (Fig.11c) and), while ZDF dominates in non-tidal 612 simulations (Fig.11d). We show here that advection terms dominate under the MLD, while from the two sections above, in the tidal simulation, ZDF dominates the advection terms at 613

614 It therefore appears that ADV only have a considerable influence on temperature below 615 MLD, contrasting with the study of Neto and da Silva (2014), which identify ADV as the 616 primary driver causing along-coast SST cooling. However, we can assume that advection and 617 mixing are interconnected. In other words, the water masses that are advected below MLD may 618 undergo mixing within the surface and within the mixed-layer and is the main contributor within 619 the layers due to the overall mixing occurring throughout the water column. Additionally, it is 620 worth mentioning that in our simulations, Asselin has a negligible impact on temperature. 621 Conversely, Forcing term does impact the temperature within the surface layers. However, we 622 have not discussed this aspect in our analysis as our primary focus was on understanding the 623 internal processes of the ocean-processes to explain SST changes. That vertical profile is 624 probably the case in the real ocean since the tidal simulation is more representative of reality.

625 V. Discussion

626 V.1. On the role of advection in coastal upwelling

627 To explain the cooling of the SST at the surface, Neto and da Silva (2014) indicated that the steady flow of the NBC induces northward transport of water masses. This transport is in 628 629 turn offset by a vertical advection of cool water towards the surface. We demonstrate with our model that the vertical advection hardly modifies the SST. But it is rather working below the 630 631 mixed layer (Fig.9e-h). The tides-induced vertical diffusion (mixing) extends from the mixedlayer to deeper layers (Fig.8e-f). It is possible that the vertical mixing upwells to the surface the 632 633 water masses that are advected into the layers below the mixed layer. The temperature change 634 at the surface and within the mixed-layer can then be influenced to first order by (i) the vertical diffusion of temperature and (ii) a cross effect between the latter and the advection (vertical and 635 636 horizontal) of temperature that mainly takes place below MLD.

⁶³⁷ V.2. The mode-1 wavelenthwavelength in the vertical terms of the heat ⁶³⁸ budget equation

Along the vertical and towardtowards the open ocean, both ZDF and z-ADV tendencies are found to have<u>exhibit</u> a wave-like structure. For z-ADV,, with patches that are spaced apart by about 120–150 km and 140–160 km for the AMJ and ASO seasons respectively. Whilst for z-ADV, this-120–160 km typical of mode-1 wavelength is about 140–160 km. However, during the AMJASO season-and, this pattern is not observed for ZDF. Instead, ZDF values appear more continuous patches for the ASO season. The wavelength ranges found in heat budget 645 terms are slightly wider (+ 10 - 20 km, for z-ADV in ASO season and for ZDF) than the purely dynamic tidal coherent wavelength (~ 120 150 km, see section III.1). The difference can be 646 understood as the effectalong the transect, likely due to additional mixing caused by the 647 breaking of incoherent IT that are not captured by the harmonic analysis because they are 648 649 deviated or diffracted by the currents and eddies, and for which dissipation occurs around where coherent IT dissipate. Hence, the total (coherent + incoherent) dissipation pattern of IT could 650 651 be wider than in Figure 2f. When integrating heat budget terms over the season, this cumulative effect is considered and therefore leads to diffusive patterns and wider wavelength. This 652 diffusive effect increases intensify during the ASO season when both background circulation 653 654 and eddy activity increase.

655 Recently that season. Furthermore, de Macedo et al. (2023) gaverecently provided a detailed 656 description of internal solitary waves (ISW) in this the same region frombased on remote 657 sensing data. These ISWISWs originate from instabilities and energy loss or dissipation of IT 658 radiating from the slope, mainly primarily along the pathways A and B (Magalhaes et al., 2016). 659 The first have shownstudy demonstrated that the inter-packet distance of ISWISWs corresponds 660 to the mode-1 wavelength. Interestingly, the positions of IT dissipation and deeper heat budget 661 termshotspots, as well as z-ADV patches of our simulations are colocalized horizontallyin both 662 seasons and ZDF patches, especially during the AMJ season, in our model align with the observed ISW packets.occurrences of ISWs (refer to Figure 2 in their study). This 663 meansprovides evidence that our model wellaccurately reproduces the location of IT 664 665 dissipation.

666 V.3. Tidal impact at <u>2. Temperature changes over</u> the mouth of the Amazon 667 River and on the southern shelf: two main competitive processes

In the simulation without the tides, there is a strong along-coast current exiting 668 669 northwesterly the mouth of the Amazon River (e.g., Ruault et al., 2020) with an average intensity > 0.5 m.s⁻¹ lower than 0.5 m.s⁻¹ in the first 50 meters for both seasons (Fig.12a-b). 670 671 When including the tides in the model, the latter study showed that there is an increase in the 672 vertical mixing in the water column due to stratified-shear flow instability, which weakens and 673 deflects the along-coast current north-eastwards at the mouth of the Amazon River (Fig.12c-674 d) and favours favors cross-shore export of water. We can therefore establish that there are at 675 least two processes at work: (i) vertical mixing and (ii) horizontal transport, backed respectively 676 by ZDF and h-ADV. We then looked at the latter two processes along the vertical following 677 the cross-shore transect (C-S) defined in Figure $\frac{10b10c}{10c}$. Hereinafter, "inner mouth" refers to the part of the transect before within 200 km from the shore, whereas "outer shelf" refers to the
part beyond.

680 During the AMJ season, in the inner mouth, river of the region, the flow dominates and of 681 the river becomes dominant. The tide-induced vertical mixing in the narrow water column leads 682 to-results in the warming and deepening of the thermocline (Fig.13a-b). On Conversely, on the 683 outer shelf, this mixing occurs in thea thicker water column leads, leading to cooling above the 684 thermocline and warming below (Fig.13a), which in turn). This pattern extends across the shelf 685 and along the pathways of IT internal tides, as shown in section Section IV.4.1 (see refer to Fig.8a and 8e). At the same time, the SST on the shelf is somewhat homogeneous (see Fig.4a-c) and 686 solar radiation is lower than 190 W.m⁻² (not shown). As a In this season, the weaker circulation 687 may result, waters of similar temperature are advected horizontally, i.e., h- in low values of h-688 689 ADV is low (Fig.13b). Thus, for Therefore, during the first season, vertical mixing seems to be 690 the dominant process explaining that explains the average negative SST anomaly on the 691 plateauover the shelf appears to be vertical mixing.

692 ForDuring the second season, there is a significant increase in solar radiation on the shelf rose sharply, with an average value of $\frac{60 \text{ W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}}{60 \text{ W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}}$, compared withto the previous season 693 694 (Fig.13c) and). Additionally, the average depth of the thermocline deepensdeepened further 695 offshore (Fig.13d and 13e). In this season, mixing leadsprocesses lead to warming in the thin surface layer (<, specifically in depths less than 2m, (Fig.13d). The NBC is stronger and can 696 697 influence, resulting in an increase of the transport over the shelf (Prestes et al., 2018) and). It 698 is also important to consider the small mean tidal residual transport should also be considered (Bessières et al., 2008). The region is , which reinforces the stronger current transport. These 699 700 factors contribute to a more dynamic, region and waters of distinct temperatures are advected 701 over the shelf.an increase in h-ADV (Fig.13e). Consequently, h-ADV is stronger and positive (Fig.13e) and then ADV plays a greater significant role in the fate of determining SST on the 702 703 shelf. For this season, ZDF and h-ADV add to explain the combination of these two processes 704 explains the observed positive SST anomaly on the shelf. In addition.

Additionally, from the AMJ to ASO, we noted the seasons, there is a notable deepening of the thermocline depth on the outer shelf. This wasobservation has previously been highlighted by Silva et al. (2005) from REVIZEE (Recursos Vivos da Zona Econômica Exclusiva–) campaign data and is a, further contribution to the validation validating of our simulations.

709 V.43. Mixing in the NBC retroflection area

710 To the north-west of the domain [3°N–9°N and 53°W–45°W], in the surface layers (2– 20m), eddy-like or circular patterns exist in ZDF during the ASO season for the simulation 711 712 including tides (Fig.8c). NBC intensifies and retroflects, and strong eddy activity takes place 713 there during ASO. We can assume that this intense mesoscale activity influences the mixing 714 and subsequent temperature diffusion. However, it is not yet clear how these mesoscale features 715 produce mixing. Fronts exist in such region and are associated with high horizontal temperature 716 gradient (∇T) and significant vertical mixing (see Chapman et al., 2020). We therefore examined the mean ∇T in the same depth range (2 - 20m) as ZDF (Fig.8a-d2-20 m). During the 717 AMJ season, it ∇T is on average equal to $4 \cdot 10^{-2} \circ C/10 \text{ km} \cdot 4 \times 10^{-2} \circ C/10 \text{ km}$. As expected, it 718 does not reveal any circular fronts for the two simulations (Fig.14a-b) since mesoscale activity 719 is low. Then (Fig.14a-b). ∇T increases during their ASO season (> 5 10⁻² °C/10 720 km [> 5x10⁻² °C/10 km] in the north-west and exhibits circular and filamentary fronts in both 721 722 the non-tidal simulations (Fig.14c) and tidal (Fig.14d) simulations. d). Therefore, one would 723 expect to see the same circular patterns in the ZDF for both simulations, this is not actually the 724 case (see Fig.8c-and-8d-d). Another hypothesis is that these circular patterns could be originated 725 from the interaction between IT and near-inertial oscillations, which can enhance mixing and 726 vertical transport processes in the ocean. But quantifying this interaction requires further 727 analysis and is beyond the scope of this study.

728

VI. Summary

The this This paper, we used twin oceanic simulations (with and without tides) from a realistic model to explore investigates the impact influence of internal tidal waves (IT) on temperature and associated processes. The impact on the atmosphere to ocean net heat fluxes is also covered.

The AMAZON36 through twin simulations including or excluding tidal forcing, using the NEMO model configuration cancalled AMAZON36. Our tidal simulations accurately reproduce the generation of IT from two most energetic sites A and B, in good agreement with previous studies. The model well reproduces their local, on shelf, and offshore and dissipation with two beams of mode-1 propagation (120–150 km). This dissipation occurs less than 300 km fromIT. When comparing the slope. Then, we assess the ability of the model to reproduce temperature structure. The simulations including tides to observations, there is ina better agreement with in sea surface temperature (SST observations) and better reproduce water mass
 properties along the vertical.

742 Our analyses were based on We then focus our analysis on a three-years-year period 743 (2013–2015) of data averaged over and two seasons, AMJ (April May June) and ASO 744 (August-September-October). That are highly contrasted in terms of, which have contrasting 745 stratification, background circulation and EKE. IT activity.

746 Results showdemonstrate that for both seasons, the tides create SST cause a cooling 747 effect in SST of about 0.3-°C in the plume of the Amazon offshore plume and along the paths 748 of internal tides. During IT in both seasons. In the ASO, the cold waters of the ACT enter our 749 domain along the coast and are affected by the tides. This enhances that season particularly, 750 tides enhance seasonal upwelling and leads, leading to cooler SST. Over the Amazon shelf, the 751 tides induce the same magnitude cooling in AMJ and in turn induce an opposite anomaly (warming) in ASO. These cooling/warming are responsible in the same location for an 752 increase/decrease in patterns over the region affect the net heat flux frombetween the 753 754 atmosphere toand the ocean (Qt). However, As the result, there is an overall effect of the tides is an increase of Qt, which lies between [from 33.2% -7.4%] from in AMJ to 7.4% in ASO 755 756 and is larger than in other regions. When increasing the atmosphere-to-ocean net heat flux. 757 Changes in Qt in such large atmospheric convection region, marked by the ITCZ, the tides regions can reduce the cloud convection into the atmosphere (Koch-Larrouy et al., 2010). 758 759 Therefore, this understanding changes in tidal effect on the climate might have a key importance 760 for the future, taking the activity become crucial to better assess climate change-into account 761 (Yadidya and Rao, 2022).

762 In the subsurface, <u>above in both seasons</u>, the <u>thermocline (< 120 m)</u>, <u>the findings reveal</u> 763 <u>that</u> tides induce <u>a</u>-stronger cooling (-1.2 °C) than at the surface. And an associated <u>above the</u> 764 <u>thermocline (<120m) and</u> warming of the same<u>below (> 120–300m)</u>, with a mean magnitude 765 <u>under the thermocline (> 120 300 m)</u>. We analyzed the terms <u>of about 1.2°C</u>.

The analysis of the heat budget equation to identify to processes that modify the temperature. We found that the vertical diffusion of temperature (ZDF) is mainly caused by the dissipation of the tides. Horizontal (h-ADV) and vertical (z-ADV) advection can be driven by non-tidal processes but increase when including the tides in the model.

770Over the shelf, barotropic tidal mixing increases ZDF (>|-0.4| $^{\circ}$ C.day⁻¹) and explain the771cooling of the water column in AMJ season. During the second season, it combines with h-772ADV and to cause a warming. Off the shelf, the (baroclinic) mixing takes place from the slope

773 to about 700 km following the path A, and 300 km following the path B. That mixing induces 774 ZDF with values of about -0.4 °C.day⁻¹, which is the main process in the upper layer 775 above reveals that within the mixed layer but could combine with advection terms (z-ADV and 776 h-ADV) to explain, the temperature changes are primarily influenced by the vertical diffusion of temperature (ZDF). This diffusion is driven by diapycnal mixing, which results from 777 778 barotropic tide bottom friction over the shallow shelf and the breaking of IT at their generation 779 sites and along their propagation pathways. It is noteworthy that the ZDF values are highest in 780 these latter two areas. In deeper layers below the mixed layer. Some, ZDF combines with vertical and horizontal advection terms (z-ADV and h-ADV) to explain temperature changes. 781 Notably, ZDF and z-ADV patches are colocalized coincide with dissipation hotspots along the 782 783 trajectory of IT. energy.

This study highlights the key roleimportance of internal tides in creatingthe intensified mixing which is importantof IT for temperature structure. Other analysis we performed with<u>We</u> focused hereabove on describing the impacts of tides in temperature on a seasonal scale. However, a companion paper will then analyze the variability of temperature at tidal and subtidal scales using our simulations show that this mixing can also impact salinity. and remote sensing data.

790 Furthermore, they might be seen as a other analysis from our simulations revealed a 791 significant impact on salinity. In addition, IT was reported to be a source of nutrient uptake at 792 tidal frequency and can have an and impact-on the spatial distribution of phytoplankton and 793 zooplankton, and therefore on the entire food chain (Sharples et al., 2007, 2009; Xu et al., 2020). 794 These other impacts can be studied through a combined model-in situ data approach. Long-795 term PIRATA (PredIction and Research moored Array in the Tropical Atlantic) mooring data are available for this goal (Bourlès et al., 2019). In addition, recently in late 2021, the AMAZOn 796 797 MIXing ("AMAZOMIX") campaign took place in this region. Among other things, this 798 campaign was dedicated to internal tides. It provided a huge set of data, with the aim of 799 understanding their impact on marine ecosystems (see details in https://en.ird.fr/amazomixcampaign-impact-physical-processes-marine-ecosystem-mouth-amazon). In the meantime, a 800 801 coupled physical/biogeochemistry simulation (NEMO/PISCES) is being analyzed and will 802 begin to answer these crucial questions. Ongoing investigations is conducted to assess the 803 impacts of tides on marine ecosystems using a combined approach including:

804	Finally, we focused hereabove on describing the impacts of tides on a seasonal scale. A
805	companion paper will then analyze the variability of temperature at tidal and subtidal scales
806	using our model simulations and two observational data.
807	
808	1- the new designed coupled physical/biogeochemistry simulations from NEMO/PISCES
809	called AMAZON36-BIO and;
810	2- in situ data, consisting of long-term PIRATA mooring data (Bourles et al., 2019) and
811	the recent Amazon mixing campaign (AMAZOMIX, Bertrand et al., 2021).
812	
813	Data availability statements
814	The 2020's2020 release of GEBCO bathymetry is publicly available online through:
815	https://www.gebco.net/data_and_products/gridded_bathymetry_data/gebco_2020/. The TMI
816	SST v7.1 data are publicly available online from the REMSS platform:
817	https://www.remss.com/missions/tmi/, was accessed onlast access: 27 June 2022. WOA2018
818	climatology is publicly available online at: https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/access/world-ocean-
819	atlas-2018/, was accessed onlast access: 27 June 2022. The model simulations are available
820	upon request by contacting the corresponding author.
821	Authors contributions. AKL: Funding acquisition; FA, AKL, and ID: Conceptualization and
822	methodology; GM and FA, with assistance from JC and AKL: Numerical simulations; Formal
823	analysis: FA with interactions from all co-authors; Preparation of the manuscript; FA with
824	contributions from all co-authors.
825	Funding acquisition, AKL; Conceptualization and methodology, FA, AKL and ID.
826	Numerical simulations, GM and FA. Formal analysis, FA; FA prepared the paper with
827	contribution from all co-authors.
828	Competing interests
829	. The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.
830	
831	Disclaimer. Publisher's note: Copernicus Publications remains neutral regarding jurisdictional
832	claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.
833	

834 Acknowledgements. The Authors would like to thank the Remote Sensing System (REMSS) for

835 providing TMI SST datasets, and the NASA's National Center for Environmental Information

- 836 (NCEI) for providing World Ocean Atlas 2018 (WOA2018) data. The Authors would like to
- thank the Editorial team for their availability and are grateful to the two Reviewers Clément
- 838 Vic and Nicolas Grisouard for their valuable comments, which helped to improve the quality
- 839 <u>of the present work.</u>
- 840

841 *Funding*

- 842 ._ This work is part of the PhD Thesis of FA, cofounded by Institut de Recherche pour le
- 843 Développement (IRD) and Mercator Ocean International (MOi), under the supervisionco-
- 844 <u>advising</u> of AKL and ID. The numerical simulations were founded by <u>CNES/CNRS/CNES</u>/IRD
- via the projects A0080111357 and A0130111357 and were performed thank to "Jean-Zay", the
- 846 CNRS/GENCI/IDRIS platform for modelling and computing.

847 Acknowledgments

- 848 The authors would like to thank the Editorial team for their availability,
- 849 <u>Review statement. This paper was edited by Rob Hall</u> and the two reviewersreviewed by
- 850 Clément Vic and Nicolas Grissouard for their valuable comments, which enhanced the quality
- 851 of the present workGrisouard.
- 852

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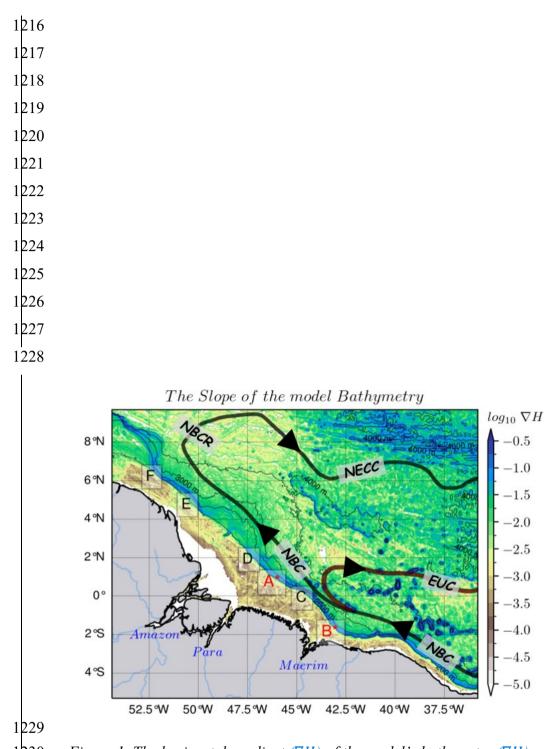
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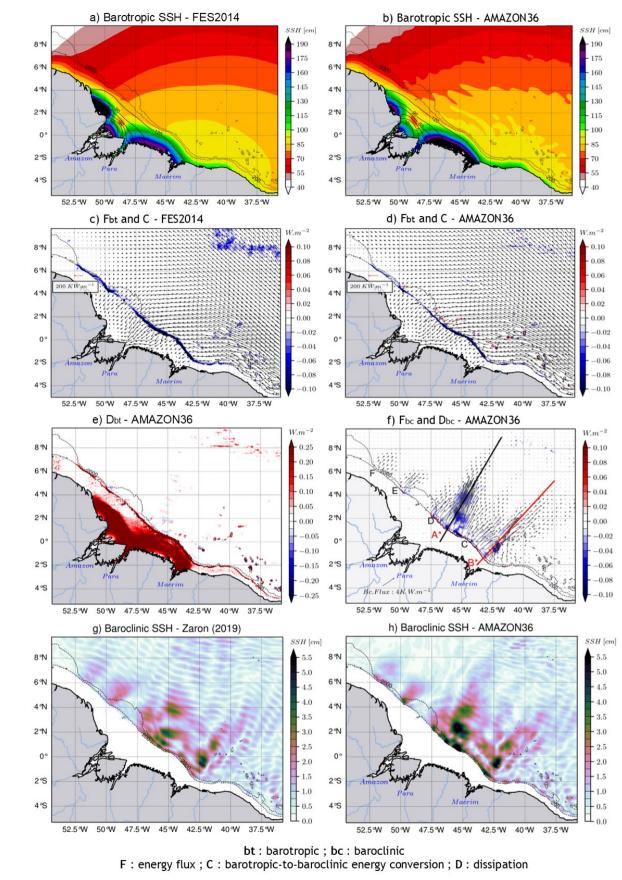
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1230 Figure 1. The horizontal gradient (∇H) of the model's bathymetry (∇H) with different internal 1231 tides generation sites (A*, B*, C, D, E and F) along the high slope of the shelf break (blue color shading) of the shelf break,), with the two main sites A^* and B^* (in red), as reported in 1232 1233 Magalhaes et al. (2016) and Tchilibou et al. (2022). Solid bold lines represent a schematic view 1234 of the circulation (as described by Didden and Schott, 1993; Richardson et al., 1994; Johns et 1235 al., 1998; Bourles et al., 1999a; Schott et al., 2003; Garzoli et al., 2004) with NBC, NBCR and 1236 NECC tracks in black, and the EUC track in brown red. Tin black contours are 200 m, 2000 m, 1237 3000 m and 4000 m isobaths from the model bathymetry. 1238

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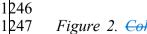
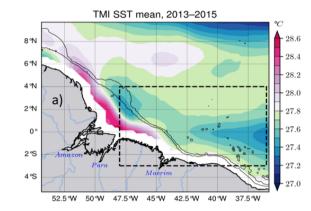


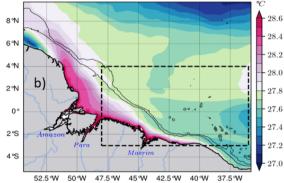
Figure 2. Coherent (or stationary) characteristics Characteristics of the M₂ coherent tides.

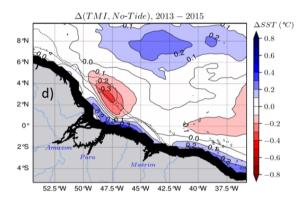
1248 1249 1250 1251	Barotropic sea surface height (color shading) and its phase (solid contours) for (a) FES2014 and (b) the model, barotropic energy flux (black arrows) with the energy conversion rate (color shading) for (c) FES2014 and (d) the model, (e) the model depth-integrated barotropic energy dissipation, (f) the model depth-integrated baroclinic energy flux (black arrows) and the depth-
1252 1253 1254 1255 1256	integrated baroclinic energy dissipation (color shading) with transect lines along IT trajectories A^* (black) and B^* (red), the baroclinic sea surface height from (g) Zaron (2019) and (h) the model. Data from the model are the mean value over the year 2015. For all panels, dashed black <u>linescontours</u> represent the 200 m and 2000 m isobaths of the model bathymetry.
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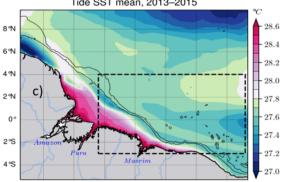


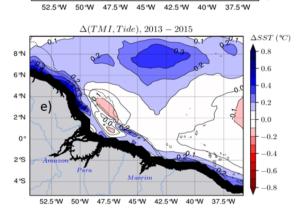


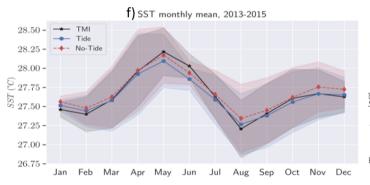


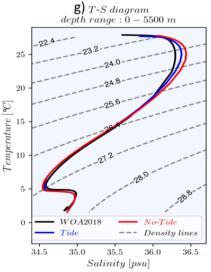


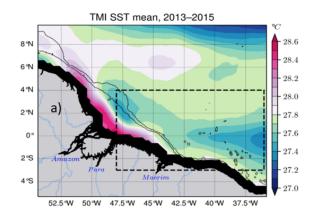


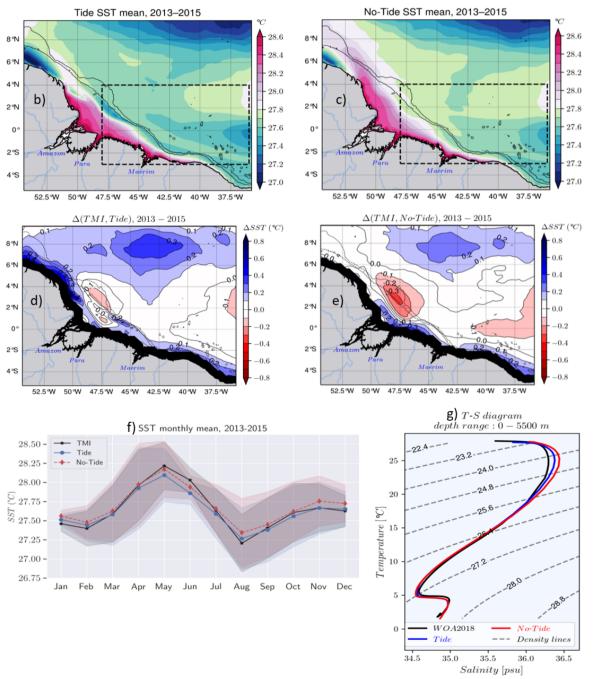




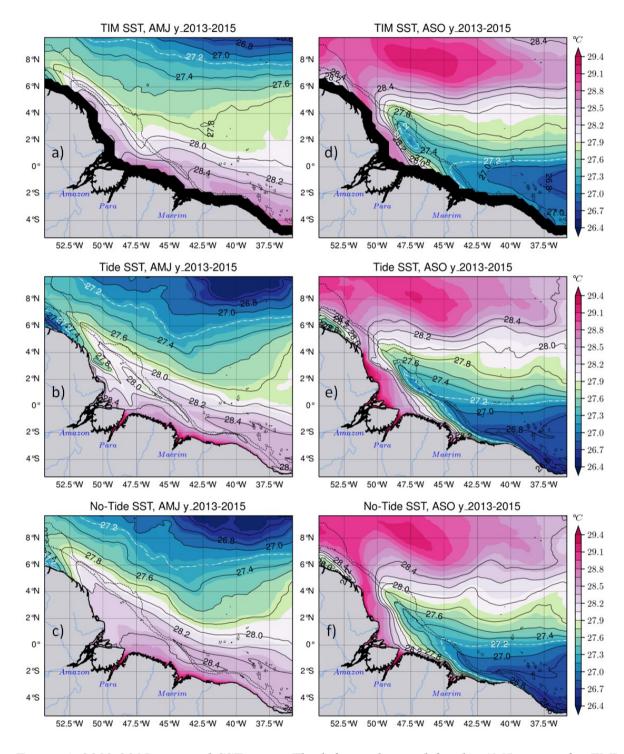






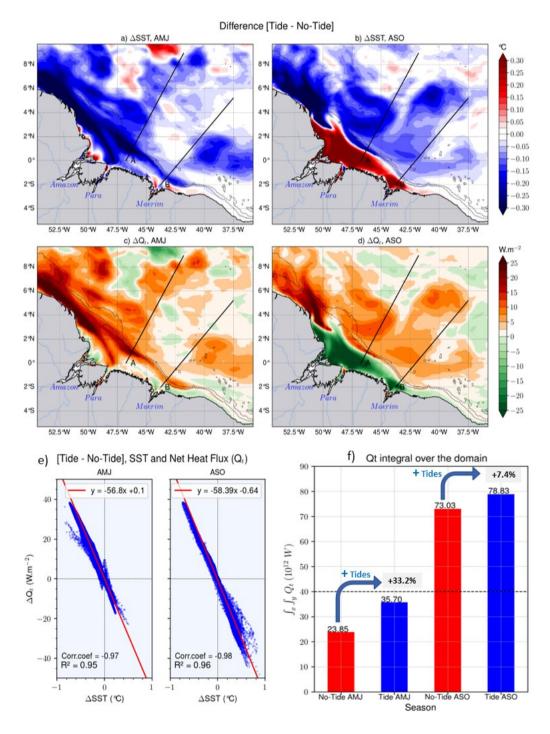


1281 1282 1283 1284 1285 1286 1287 1288 1289 1290 1291 1292 1293	Figure 3. Validation of the model temperature for the whole period 2013-2015. Mean SST -for (a) TMI with its black coastal mask, (b) the -tidal simulation, (c) the -non-tidal simulation, the difference (bias) in SST between TMI and (d) the tidal <u>simulationsimulations</u> and (e) the non-tidal simulation, (f) the seasonal cycle of the SST of the three products averaged within the dashed <u>line</u> -box in upper panels covering IT pathways with values masked below the 200 m isobath, bands indicate variability according to standard deviation. Solid black lines in panels $a_{-c} c$ and dashed black lines in panels $d_{-e} c$ represent the 200 m and 2000 m isobaths from the model bathymetry, while solid black lines in panels $d_{-e} c$ represent bias contours. (g) Temperature-Salinity (T-S) diagram of the mean properties in the same area as (f) from observed WOA2018 climatology (black line), the tidal <u>simulationsimulations</u> (blue line) and non-tidal <u>simulationsimulations</u> (red line) for the water column from surface to 5500 m depth, dashed gray lines represent density (σ_{θ}) contours.
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Figure 4. 2013-2015 seasonal SST mean. The left panels stand for the AMJ season for TMI with its black coastal mask, the tidal <u>simulationsimulations</u> and the non-tidal simulationsimulations, respectively for the upper-left, center-left and lower-left panel; the same in the panels on the right but for the ASO season. The dashed white and black solid lines represent the temperature contours. Dashed black lines in all panels stand for the 200 m and 2000 m isobaths from the model bathymetry.





1328Figure 5. Relationship between the SST and the atmosphere-to-ocean net heat flux (Qt): SST1329anomaly [Tide - No-Tide] in AMJ (a) and ASO (b) seasons, Qt anomaly in AMJ (c) and ASO1330(d) seasons, (e) correlation between Qt anomaly and SST anomaly for each season, (f) domain1331integrated Qt for both seasons of each simulation. Dashed black lines in panels a-d stand for1332the 200 m and 2000 m isobaths from the model bathymetry.

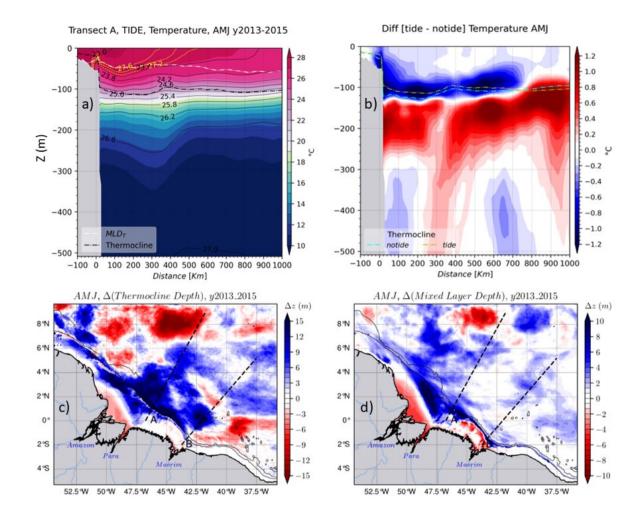


Figure 6. Some water Water mass properties for the AMJ season: (a) vertical section of the temperature of the tidal simulations imulations following the transect A, -the yellow dashed and the solid black lines are the temperature and density (σ_{θ}) contours, respectively, the black and white ticker dashed lines are the thermocline and MLD, respectively, (b) the temperature anomaly for the same vertical section, yellow and cyan dashed lines are the thermocline depth for the tidal and non-tidal simulations, respectively, (c) thermocline depth anomaly and (d) MLD anomaly for the whole domain. When The blue (vs red) color shading in the MLD or the Thermocline depth anomaly are colored in blue (vs red) it means that the tides rise (vs deepen) them. Solid black lines in lower panels stand for the 200 m and 2000 m isobaths from the model bathymetry.

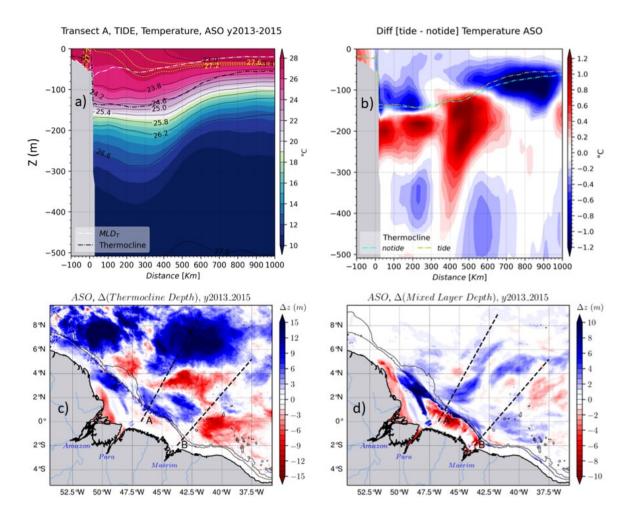
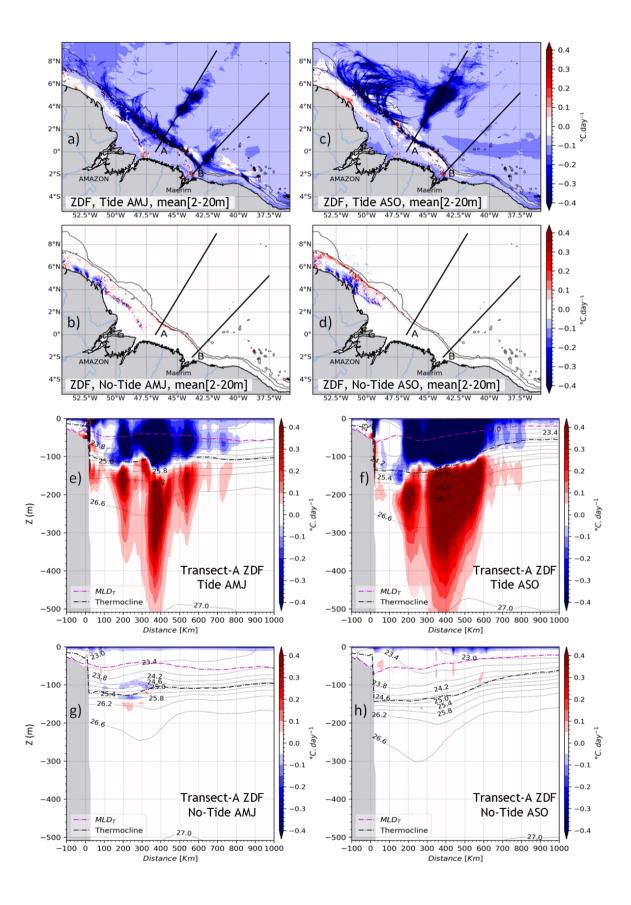


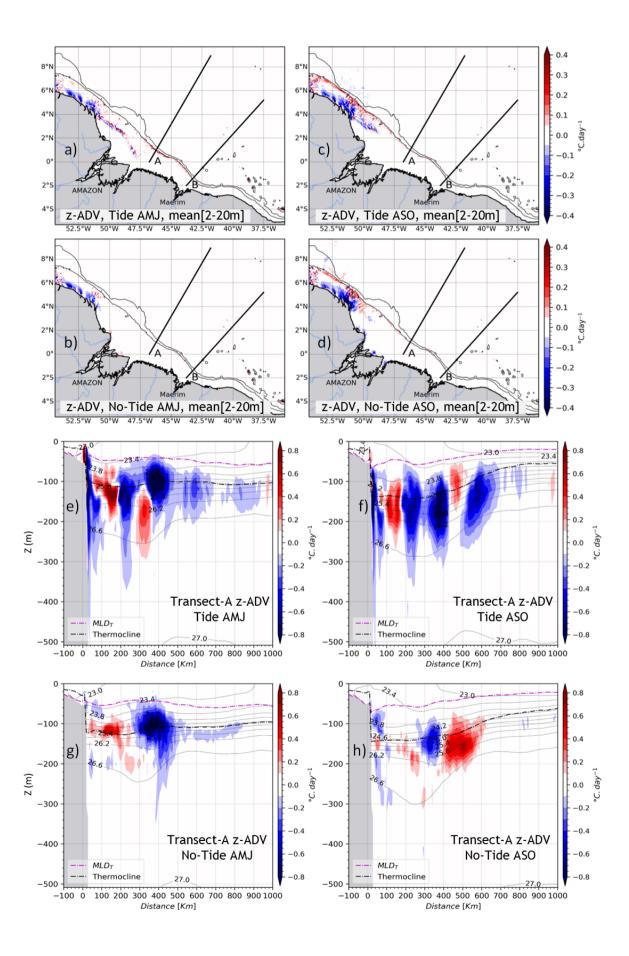
Figure 7. Same as figure 6 but for the ASO season.

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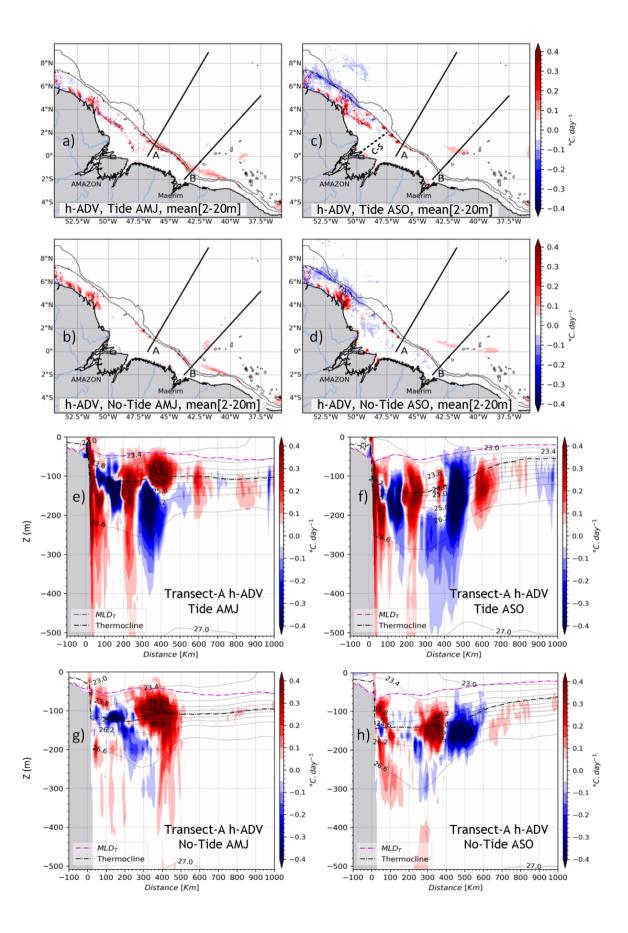
1374	Figure 8. The vertical diffusion tendency of temperature (ZDF) for both seasons. The vertical
1375	mean between 2–20 m for AMJ season in tidal (a) and non-tidal (b) simulations;
1376	then for ASO season in tidal (c) and non-tidal (d) simulations. Vertical sections of ZDF
1377	following the transect A for AMJ season in the tidal (e), for ASO season in non-tidal (f)
1378	simulations for (e) AMJ and (f) ASO seasons; then for AMJ season in the non-tidal simulations
1379 1380	for (g) <u>AMJ</u> and for(h) ASO season in the non-tidal (h) simulations. The black and magenta dashed lines are the thermocline depth and MLD respectively.seasons. Solid black lines in
1381	panels a_{-d} stand for the 200 m and 2000 m isobaths from the model bathymetry, while in
1382	panels e-h, they represent the density (σ_{θ}) contours in panels e-h. The magenta and black
1383	dashed lines in panels e-h represent MLD and the thermocline depth, respectively.
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1414	<i>Figure 9. Same as figure 8, but for the vertical advection <i>tendency</i> of temperature (<i>z</i>-ADV).</i>
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1|448Figure 10. Same as figure 8 but for the horizontal advection of temperature $(h_ADV = x_ADV)$ 1449 $+ y_ADV$). The dashed line from the Amazon River mouth toward the outer shelf in the panel1450(b) indicates the cross-shore transect (C-S) used further on.1451

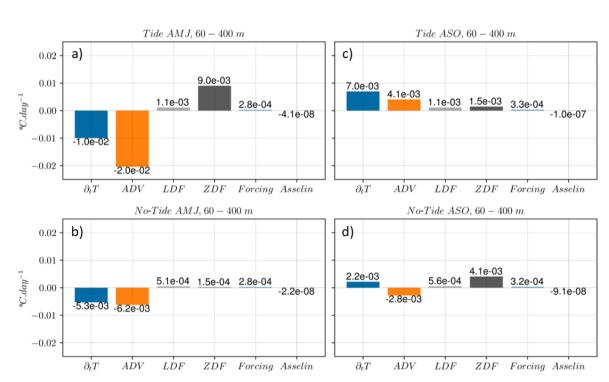


Figure 11. <u>Trends balance Three-dimensional heat budget equation terms</u> averaged in region around IT trajectories between 48°W–40°W and 0°N–6°N, and below the MLD between 60-400 m depth. Upper panels are for the tidal <u>simulationsimulations</u> and lower panels for the non-tidal <u>simulationsimulations</u>, while left and right panels are for the AMJ and ASO seasons, respectively. <u>ZDF is the dominant term of the heat budget equation (see section II.3.2) within</u> the mixed-layer to explain temperature changes in upper layers.

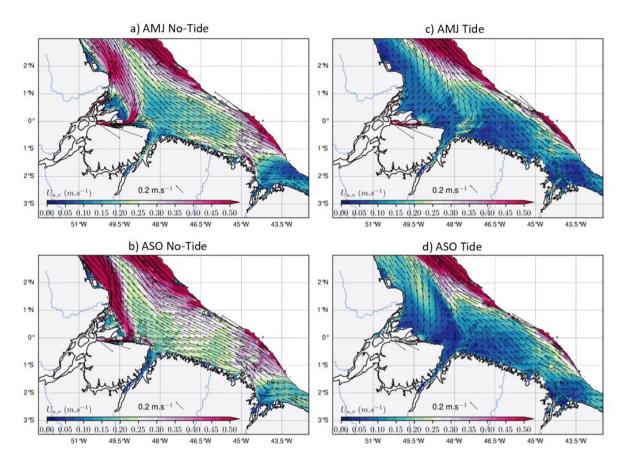
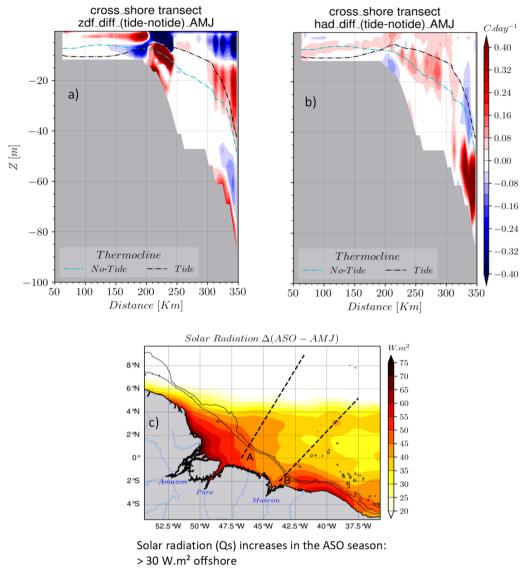
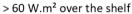
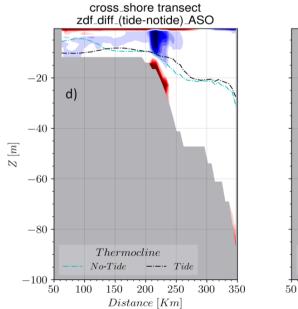


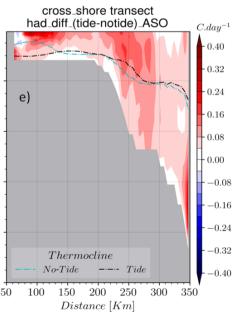
Figure 12. The seasonal Seasonal mean of the mean current $(U_{u,v})$ at the shelf averaged between the surface and 50 m: the non-tidal simulations in the left panels and the tidal simulations in the right panels. The upper panels stand for the AMJ season, while the lower stand for the ASO season. The color shading is the modulus of the current and the black arrows represent its direction. Values beyond the 200 m isobath are masked.

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- Figure 13. The cross-shore transect of ZDF anomaly for (a) AMJ and (b) ASO seasons, then
 for h-ADV anomaly for (d) AMJ and (e) ASO seasons; (c) Difference(c) difference in solar
 radiation between ASO and AMJ seasons. Solar radiation increases during the ASO season,
 with greater intensity on the shelf. The cross-shore transect of h-ADV anomaly for (d) AMJ
 and (e) ASO seasons.

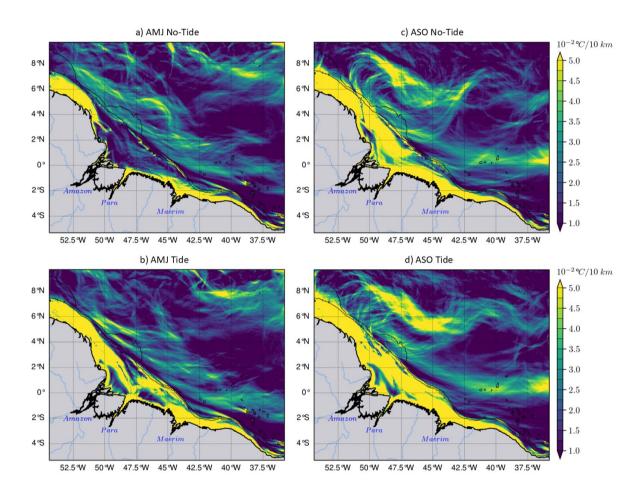


Figure 14. The horizontal gradient of the Temperature (∇T) averaged between 2–20 m-: the AMJ season in the left panels and ASO season in the right panels, the simulations without the tides in the upper panels, and with tides in the lower panels. During the ASO season, -the Stronger NBC retroflects in the north-west and eddy activity intensifies-in the north-west. Therefore, ∇T emphasizes eddy-like fronts at the same location as eddy-like patterns in -ZDF (see-Fig.9b).8c).