

1 **Enhanced radiation of near-inertial energy by frontal vertical circulations**

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ABSTRACT

7 Near-inertial waves (NIWs) radiate energy out of the mixed layer when they
8 develop small lateral scales. Refraction of these waves by gradients in plan-
9 etary and vertical vorticity has traditionally been invoked to explain this phe-
10 nomenon. Here, a new mechanism for the enhancement of NIW radiation is
11 described involving the interaction of NIWs with vertical circulations at fronts
12 undergoing frontogenesis. Frontal vertical circulations drive a Doppler shift
13 that is proportional to the wave's vertical wavenumber, m , and that changes
14 sign across a front, inducing large lateral differences in wave phase within
15 a few inertial periods. Theory predicts that the process should generate a
16 vertical energy flux that varies inversely with m in contrast to the m^{-3} de-
17 pendence expected from refraction. As a consequence, high-mode NIWs are
18 much more effective at radiating energy when fronts and their vertical circu-
19 lation are present. Numerical simulations initialized with fronts, an array of
20 eddies that drive frontogenesis, and NIWs of various modes are used to test
21 the theory. In the simulations, the interaction of the NIWs with the frontal ver-
22 tical circulations generates wave beams that radiate down from the fronts. The
23 resultant downward energy flux varies with m following the theoretical scaling
24 laws. In the beams, the Eulerian frequency is inertial within a few percent, yet
25 the waves' potential and kinetic energies are comparable, thus indicating a su-
26 perinertial intrinsic frequency. The downshift in Eulerian frequency from the
27 intrinsic frequency is due to horizontal advection of the waves by the eddies.

28 **1. Introduction**

29 It is thought that the mixing that sustains the abyssal stratification and circulation derives a
30 significant fraction of its energy from wind-driven near-inertial waves (NIWs) (Alford et al. 2016).
31 Generated at large lateral scales set by the wind’s footprint on the ocean, these NIWs are inherently
32 inefficient at radiating energy down to the abyss without a shift to smaller wavelengths. Hence the
33 conundrum: how can the lateral gradients in near-inertial motions initially set by the winds be
34 sharpened so as to hasten the propagation of NIW energy into the ocean interior?

35 The prevailing theory for how the lateral scales of NIWs are sharpened relies on gradients in the
36 Coriolis parameter f or the vertical vorticity, $\bar{\zeta}$, of the balanced flow field. The idea is that the
37 frequency of NIWs is modulated horizontally by variability in f and $\bar{\zeta}$, which in turn generates
38 lateral differences in wave phase and hence a horizontal wavenumber k_h . This mechanism, which
39 has been referred to as the β -effect (e.g. D’Asaro 1989) and NIW refraction in theory of Young
40 and Ben-Jelloul (1997), results in a linear increase of k_h with time at a rate that is proportional to
41 the lateral gradients of f or $\bar{\zeta}$ (D’Asaro 1995; van Meurs 1998). Once generated by refraction, the
42 horizontal wavenumber can be further strengthened by lateral strain in the balanced flow, until dis-
43 persion ultimately limits the growth of k_h (Rocha et al. 2018). These wave-mean flow mechanisms
44 only consider background flows with horizontal velocities. Vertical velocities in background flows
45 are ignored because they are either absent or their effects on the waves are negligible. Neither of
46 these conditions strictly hold for NIWs at ocean fronts and this has implications for the evolution
47 of their horizontal wavenumber and vertical propagation.

48 Ocean fronts are often accompanied by vertical circulations (e.g. Pollard and Regier 1992; Rud-
49 nick 1996). Driven by a variety of processes, frontal vertical motions typically form in response to
50 a disruption of the thermal wind balance, alternate sign across a front, and have magnitudes rang-

51 ing between 1 and 100 m day⁻¹ (Thomas et al. 2010). If an inertia-gravity wave were embedded
 52 in a front, these vertical motions would advect its flow perturbations. This could be especially dis-
 53 ruptive to the evolution of NIWs since they are characterized by strong vertical shears. To estimate
 54 the effect of this vertical advection on a NIW, a Doppler shift

$$\omega_{vDop} = \bar{w}m \quad (1)$$

55 (where \bar{w} is the vertical velocity of the background flow and m a vertical wavenumber characteriz-
 56 ing the depth dependence of the wave) can be calculated and compared to its intrinsic frequency.
 57 For example, for a vertical circulation of 10 m day⁻¹ acting on a wave with a vertical wavelength
 58 of $\mathcal{O}(100 \text{ m})$, typical of a low-mode NIW, the Doppler shift is $\omega_{vDop} \sim 7 \times 10^{-6} \text{ s}^{-1}$, which in
 59 mid-latitudes is nearly 10% of f . High-mode NIWs will experience even larger Doppler shifts.
 60 These adjustments to the NIWs' frequency are comparable to frequency shifts associated with
 61 vorticity in mesoscale and submesoscale flows, suggesting that it might not be justified to neglect
 62 vertical advection while retaining the effects of wave refraction by vorticity in a background flow
 63 with fronts.

64 Apart from being a significant fraction of f , the Doppler shift (1) changes sign across a front and
 65 this could affect the evolution of a NIW's lateral structure and vertical propagation. As \bar{w} switches
 66 from upwelling to downwelling across a front, a NIW should accumulate lateral differences in
 67 phase as the wave oscillates at different frequencies on either side of the frontal interface. This
 68 would sharpen the waves horizontal scale and increase k_h . Consequently, the vertical component
 69 of the group velocity, which for NIWs is well approximated by

$$c_{g,z} \approx -\frac{N^2 k_h^2}{f m^3} \quad (2)$$

70 (N is the buoyancy frequency) would increase in magnitude, enhancing the radiation of NIW
 71 energy in the vertical.

72 Motivated by the scaling arguments for the Doppler shift (1) and its potential to decrease the
73 lateral scale of NIWs, the objective of this article is to quantify how the interaction of NIWs with
74 frontal vertical circulations impacts the vertical radiation of NIWs. To this end both analytical
75 methods (e.g. §2) and numerical simulations (e.g. §3) will be used to illustrate the phenomenon
76 and highlight the dependence of vertical radiation on the key parameters of the frontal flow and
77 wave field. A particular emphasis will be placed on quantifying the dependence on the vertical
78 wavenumber of the NIWs given the sensitivity of the group velocity (2) and Doppler shift to m ,
79 and the potential implications for the dynamics of low and high mode NIWs will be highlighted.

80 **2. Evolution of a NIW's horizontal wavenumber in a vertical circulation**

81 The aim is to determine the conditions for which the Doppler shift (1) is the dominant mean
82 flow interaction that a NIW experiences and to derive an expression for the time-evolution of the
83 horizontal wavenumber, k_h , that results under these conditions. To do so, it will be assumed *a*
84 *priori* that these conditions are met and a solution for k_h will be derived. The solution will then be
85 contrasted to the horizontal wavenumber that results from refraction to determine when vertical
86 Doppler shifting dominates over refraction. When the vertical Doppler shift is the leading-order
87 wave-mean flow interaction, and the waves are linear (e.g. when a Rossby number based on the
88 wave's velocity and length scale is much less than one) the equations governing the NIWs is

$$\frac{\partial u_w}{\partial t} - f v_w + \bar{w} \frac{\partial u_w}{\partial z} = 0 \quad (3)$$

$$\frac{\partial v_w}{\partial t} + f u_w + \bar{w} \frac{\partial v_w}{\partial z} = 0. \quad (4)$$

89 where (u_w, v_w) is the horizontal velocity associated with the NIW and it has been assumed that
90 the lateral wavelength of the waves is very long and the frequency of the waves is very close to
91 f so that pressure gradients and horizontal advection play a negligible role in the dynamics. It

92 will also be assumed for simplicity that the background flow and waves are two dimensional (i.e.
93 invariant in the x -direction). It should be realized that the vertical velocity of the background
94 flow in (3) and (4) can be a function of space and time, potentially making it challenging to solve
95 these equations. However, if the temporal and vertical spatial scales of \bar{w} are long compared to
96 those of the waves, then the method of multiple scales can be used to solve the equations. That
97 is, new independent variables can be introduced, η and τ , that characterize the slow vertical and
98 temporal variations of the background flow, respectively, i.e. $\bar{w} = \bar{w}(y, \eta, \tau)$. If the NIW is defined
99 by a single vertical wavenumber m , then the leading-order solution to (3) and (4) takes the form
100 $u_w = A(y, \eta, \tau)e^{i\Phi} + \text{c.c.}$, where A is an amplitude function and

$$\Phi = mz - ft - m \int \bar{w} dt \quad (5)$$

101 describes the wave's phase. Defining a horizontal wavenumber as the lateral gradient of the wave's
102 phase, yields the key result that differential vertical motions integrated over time generate a hori-
103 zontal wavenumber:

$$k_{h,vDop} \equiv \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial y} = -m \int \frac{\partial \bar{w}}{\partial y} dt. \quad (6)$$

104 This mechanism can be contrasted to refraction, which for a vorticity field that varies only in the
105 y -direction results in a horizontal wavenumber

$$k_{h,ref} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial \bar{\zeta}}{\partial y} t \quad (7)$$

106 (van Meurs 1998).

107 Scaling the two expressions (6) and (7) and taking their ratio yields the following non-
108 dimensional parameter

$$\left[\frac{k_{h,vDop}}{k_{h,ref}} \right] \sim \frac{WL_b}{UH_w} \quad (8)$$

109 where U and W are scalings for the horizontal and vertical components of the background flow,
110 L_b scales the lateral variations of the background flow, and H_w is a measure of the wave's vertical

111 wavelength. If the background flow is quasi-geostrophic, then $W = \varepsilon U(H_b/L_b)$, where H_b is the
 112 vertical scale of the background flow and $\varepsilon = U/fL_b$ is the Rossby number (Pedlosky 1987). In
 113 this limit the ratio (8) becomes

$$\left[\frac{k_{h,vDop}}{k_{h,ref}} \right]_{QG} \sim \frac{\varepsilon}{\delta} \quad (9)$$

114 where

$$\delta = \frac{H_w}{H_b} \quad (10)$$

115 is a non-dimensional parameter that compares the vertical scales of the waves and the background
 116 flow. It therefore follows that vertical Doppler shifting will produce smaller horizontal wave scales
 117 than refraction, and will be the dominant wave-mean flow interaction for NIWs, when $\varepsilon/\delta > 1$.
 118 This condition is met when the vertical scale of the NIWs is small enough so that $H_w < \varepsilon H_b$. For
 119 currents with higher Rossby numbers (such as submesoscale flows), the appropriate scaling for the
 120 vertical velocity is $W = U(H_b/L_b)$ and (8) becomes

$$\left[\frac{k_{h,vDop}}{k_{h,ref}} \right]_{SG} \sim \frac{1}{\delta}, \quad (11)$$

121 in which case vertical Doppler shifting dominates when $H_w < H_b$. Regardless of the choice of
 122 scaling for the vertical velocity, however, it is clear that NIWs with smaller vertical scales tend to
 123 be more strongly affected by vertical Doppler shifting over refraction.

124 Apart from the relative scales of the two mechanisms, the essential difference between (6) and
 125 (7) is that $k_{h,vDop}$ depends on the vertical wavenumber of the wave, suggesting that high-mode
 126 NIWs are more susceptible to differential vertical motions, unlike refraction, which acts indis-
 127 criminately on both the low and high modes. This has important implications for the vertical
 128 radiation of NIW energy. Since $c_{g,z} \propto k_h^2/m^3$, the generation of a horizontal wave number by the
 129 Doppler shift should result in a vertical energy flux that follows a m^{-1} power law, in contrast to
 130 m^{-3} for refraction. As a consequence, high-mode NIWs should be much more effective at radiat-

131 ing energy when they interact with frontal vertical circulations versus vertical vorticity gradients.
132 To test this hypothesis, idealized numerical simulations were performed and are described in the
133 next section.

134 **3. Numerical simulations**

135 The simulations are configured with three flow components: fronts, an array of barotropic ed-
136 dies, and a NIW. The eddies provide vorticity and a strain field that drives frontogenesis. Dur-
137 ing frontogenesis, a frontal vertical circulation is generated, the strength of which depends on the
138 strain rate, stratification, and the frontal lateral density gradient (Hoskins et al. 1978; Thomas et al.
139 2008). This vertical circulation increases rapidly with time as the fronts intensify but in a manner
140 that can readily be controlled by varying the strain and the lateral and vertically gradients of the
141 density field at the start of each simulation. A NIW with no initial lateral variations is added to
142 this system and the development of a horizontal wavenumber through interactions with the frontal
143 vertical circulation or the vorticity can be evaluated. The simulations were run using the Regional
144 Ocean Modeling System (ROMS) which solves the fully three-dimensional, nonlinear, primitive
145 equations of motion (Shchepetkin and McWilliams 2005). Using a hydrostatic model like ROMS
146 to study the dynamics of NIWs is fully justified since the aspect ratio of the waves, H_w/L_w , is
147 quite small. The fronts used in the simulations similarly have small aspect ratios and therefore
148 their dynamics is captured by the primitive equations as well.

149 *a. Frontal flow and eddies*

150 The particular functional form of the initial density and eddy flow fields is described in the
151 appendix and is illustrated in Figures 1 and 2 (top panel) for one of the numerical simulations (i.e.
152 RUN1, see Table 1). There are two fronts centered at $y = 25$ and 75 km. The fronts are surface

153 intensified and are in geostrophic balance with a velocity in the x -direction (Fig. 2, top panel).
 154 The stratification is reduced near the surface, and increases with depth. The fronts are initially
 155 weak, more specifically they are characterized by a Richardson number, $Ri_o = N^2 f^2 / (\partial \bar{b} / \partial y)^2$,
 156 that is initially larger than 10 (e.g. Table 1). However, in regions of frontogenetic strain (such as
 157 near $x = 12.5$ km and $y = 25$ and 75 km) the fronts rapidly strengthen with time and the Richardson
 158 number in the center of the front drops to values close to one in less than 10 inertial periods.
 159 This is the case even though the maximum strain rate of the eddies, α_o is relatively modest, i.e.
 160 $\alpha_o / f < 0.1$. As the front sharpens, a vertical circulation is induced with velocities approaching
 161 10 m day^{-1} (Fig. 2, bottom panel). Consistent with the theory of frontogenesis, the secondary
 162 circulation is thermally direct, and thus characterized by downwelling and upwelling on the dense
 163 and light sides of the front, respectively.

164 *b. Simulations with idealized wave forms*

165 The frontal flow has all the elements to significantly modify the lateral structure of a NIW
 166 through the Doppler shift (1) and this was investigated by adding a NIW to the initial condi-
 167 tion. The NIW has no horizontal wavenumber initially, and consists of a plane wave with vertical
 168 wavenumber m and amplitude that is surface intensified, e.g. (A5) and Figure 3, top panel. The ver-
 169 tical wavenumber is discretized in terms of the depth of the domain, $H = 100$ m, i.e. $m = 2\pi n / H$
 170 where the integer n is the mode number. The NIW is surface intensified so as to highlight the
 171 downward radiation of wave energy. The form of the wave is highly idealized and was chosen be-
 172 cause using a well defined vertical wavenumber facilitates quantifying the dependence of the NIW
 173 evolution on m . Simulations with wave forms more representative of the ocean will be described
 174 in §3c.

175 To isolate the effects of the vertical Doppler shift from refraction, two sets of simulations are
176 performed with the same stratification and barotropic eddy field, but with and without fronts (e.g.
177 Table 1). The simulations without fronts have a variable vorticity field that can modify the hori-
178 zontal wavenumber of the waves through refraction, but the Doppler shift is not active. Therefore
179 by comparing the wave evolution in the two sets of simulations the effects of the vertical circula-
180 tion on the evolution of the wave field can be quantified. For each set of experiments the mode
181 number of the wave is varied between 1 and 7.

182 The evolution of a NIW with $n = 6$ in a background flow with and without fronts is strikingly
183 different (c.f. Figures 3 and 4).¹ In the former, wave phase lines tilt in the proximity of the fronts,
184 generating significant horizontal variability in the wave field within a few inertial periods, unlike
185 the simulations without fronts. Near fronts, phase lines are distorted into a "z"-like shape, tilting
186 against isopycnals in the center of a front and parallel to isopycnals on its flanks. This shape
187 appears to reflect advection by the frontal vertical circulation and the changing sign of $\partial\bar{w}/\partial y$
188 across the front. The shrinking of the NIW's horizontal scale clearly enhances wave radiation, as
189 evidenced by the internal wave beams that form beneath the fronts by 7 inertial periods and the
190 deficit in wave KE in the fronts left in their wake (e.g. Fig. 3 bottom panel). In contrast, in the run
191 without fronts, very little wave energy is evident in the stratified interior by this time (e.g. Fig. 4
192 bottom panel).

193 To test if the sharpening of NIW scales seen in the simulations with fronts is ultimately at-
194 tributable to the frontal vertical circulation, a wavelet analysis was performed to infer the distri-
195 bution of scales present in the wave field near the fronts, and the results were compared to the
196 theoretical prediction for the evolution of the wavevector by the Doppler shift, i.e. (6). To this end,

¹In the figures and subsequent analyses, wave quantities are isolated from frontal ageostrophic circulations and balanced flows by subtracting the output from simulations run without waves (but with the same eddy and density fields) from those with a NIW included in the initial conditions.

197 a continuous wavelet transform of the NIW y -component of the velocity, v_w , was calculated, i.e.
 198 $\mathcal{W}_v(y, a) = (1/\sqrt{a}) \int \psi((y - \xi)/a) v_w(\xi) d\xi$, using a complex Morlet wavelet of the form

$$\psi(s) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \exp(i3\pi s) \exp(-s^2)$$

199 where a is the scale of the wavelet. The wavelet transform was evaluated along $x = 12.5$ km
 200 and at various depths and times. The square of the amplitude of the wavelet transform, $|\mathcal{W}_v|^2$, at
 201 $z = -25$ m and $t = 5.1$ inertial periods for RUN1 illustrates how the finest scales in the wave field
 202 are found near the fronts at $y = 25$ and 75 km (e.g. Fig. 5(a)). A Hoevmuller diagram of the
 203 wavelet transform at the center of the fronts quantifies how the lateral variability in the wave field
 204 evolves (Fig. 5(b)). A range of scales develops, but the finest scales with the largest wavenumbers
 205 track the near-exponential growth of the theoretical prediction (6) (magenta line in Fig. 5). The
 206 theoretical prediction was calculated using a vertical wavenumber $m = 12\pi/H$ corresponding to
 207 the mode number $n = 6$ of the experiment and using $\partial\bar{w}/\partial y$ evaluated at $y = 25$ km and $z = -25$ m
 208 from the simulation run without the NIW. This differential vertical motion and hence (6) increases
 209 nearly exponentially with time due to the strain and the frontogenesis it induces. The theory also
 210 predicts the dominant wavenumber of the wave beam that emanates from the front (e.g. Fig. 5(c)).
 211 By seven inertial periods the wavelet transform at $z = -50$ m and $y = 27.5$ km has a peak near a
 212 wavenumber of $k_h = 3 \times 10^{-3}$ rad m⁻¹ that is intersected by the theoretical prediction (6).

213 The wave beam that forms underneath the front has fairly steep phase lines, suggesting that the
 214 wave is superinertial, however, time series of wave properties within the beam reveal oscillations
 215 with a frequency close to f (Fig. 6). To infer the intrinsic frequency of the wave more quantita-
 216 tively, the slope of phase lines within the beam were compared to wave rays of various intrinsic
 217 frequencies. The rays were calculated using the classical dispersion relation for inertia-gravity
 218 waves that does not account for modifications by the vorticity and baroclinicity of the background

219 flows which are negligible beneath the mixed layer and for superinertial waves. A ray with intrinsic
 220 frequency $\omega_i = 1.7f$ closely follows the slope of the wave beam (Fig. 6(a)). Further evidence
 221 of the superinertial nature of the waves is the non-circular velocity hodographs (Fig. 6(b)) and sig-
 222 nificant wave buoyancy anomalies (Fig. 6(c)) in the beam. According to classical theory for plane
 223 inertia-gravity waves, the strength of the wave buoyancy anomaly relative to its velocity (which is
 224 related to the ratio of the potential to kinetic energy in the wave) is given by the quantity

$$\frac{|b_w|}{N|v_w|} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{f^2}{\omega_i^2}}, \quad (12)$$

225 which for an intrinsic frequency $\omega = 1.7f$ is equal to 0.8. A time series of b_w/N within the beam
 226 is characterized by oscillations that are 10 – 20% weaker in magnitude than v_w , consistent with an
 227 intrinsic frequency of $\omega = 1.7f$ (e.g. Fig. 6(c)). In contrast, the Eulerian frequency, $\omega_E = 0.97f$,
 228 calculated by performing a harmonic analysis on the time series is much closer to inertial. The
 229 difference between the Eulerian and intrinsic frequencies is attributable to a Doppler shift as-
 230 sociated with the barotropic, confluent, meridional flow field associated with the eddies, that is
 231 $\omega_E - \omega_i \approx \bar{v}k_h$. At the location where the time series shown in Fig. 6(c) was made, $\bar{v} \approx -0.03$ m
 232 s^{-1} , which given the estimate of the horizontal wavenumber in the beam from the wavelet analy-
 233 sis, $k_h = 3 \times 10^{-3}$ rad m^{-1} , yields a Doppler shift, $\bar{v}k_h \sim -0.9f$, that can explain the difference
 234 between Eulerian and intrinsic frequencies.

235 1) DEPENDENCE ON VERTICAL WAVENUMBER

236 In simulations run with NIWs spanning a range of mode numbers, n , but with the same back-
 237 ground flow as in RUN1, wave beams emanate from the fronts and result in a peak in the wavelet
 238 transform, similar to what is seen in Fig. 5(c), however the dominant wavenumber and timing of
 239 the peak varies with n (e.g. Fig. 7). The dominant wavenumber increases with n , consistent with
 240 the theoretical prediction (6). The arrival of the wave beam at $z = -50$ m, $y = 27.5$ km is generally

241 earlier for the low modes even though their dominant horizontal wavenumber is smaller than those
 242 of the high modes. Presumably this is due to the stronger dependence of the group velocity (2) on
 243 the vertical wavenumber relative to the horizontal wavenumber, which using (6) should scale as
 244 $c_{g,z} \propto n^{-1}$.

245 The formation of the wave beams in the simulations indicates that NIW energy is radiated into
 246 the stratified interior. The magnitude of this radiation can be quantified by calculating the vertical
 247 component of the energy flux areally-integrated at a given level, z_o , in the stratified interior:

$$F_{e,z} = \frac{1}{\mathcal{A}} \int_{\mathcal{A}} p_w w_w \Big|_{z=z_o} dx dy \quad (13)$$

248 The energy flux was evaluated at $z_o = -75$ m over an area \mathcal{A} that covered the region between
 249 $0 < y < 100$ km and $0 < x < 25$ km (where the eddy driven strain field is frontogenetic) and its
 250 time-evolution and dependence on mode number was assessed (Fig. 8). The behavior of $F_{e,z}$ for
 251 the simulation with and without fronts was contrasted by comparing the fluxes from RUN1 and
 252 RUN1-NF. For mode numbers greater than $n = 1$, $F_{e,z}$ is stronger in the presence of fronts. The
 253 energy flux is downward and decreases with time, reaching a minimum value that depends on
 254 mode number. The magnitude of this minimum value plotted on a log scale versus mode number
 255 reveals that the energy flux follows different power laws in the presence and absence of fronts (Fig.
 256 9). In the figure the energy flux has been normalized by a scaling for the energy flux associated
 257 with a NIW with mode number n and a horizontal wavelength equal to the wavelength of the
 258 eddies, λ_y , i.e.

$$F_{e,scaling} = \left(\frac{N_{ml}^2 H^3 \rho_o u_o^2}{4\pi f \lambda_y^2} \right) n^{-3}, \quad (14)$$

259 where the values of u_o , λ_y , f and N_{ml}^2 are listed in the appendix and Table 1. With fronts, the nor-
 260 malized energy flux follows a square power law, while without fronts it is nominally constant. This
 261 finding is consistent with the theoretical prediction for the vertical component of the group veloc-

262 ity discussed in §2, verifying how Doppler shifting associated with frontal vertical circulations can
263 greatly enhance the radiation of wave energy especially for high mode NIWs.

264 The numerical experiments described thus far have explored the dependence of wave radiation
265 on the vertical structure of the NIWs. In these simulations the non-dimensional parameter $\delta =$
266 $H_w/H_b = 2/n$ (using the vertical scale of the lateral buoyancy gradient $h = H/2$, see the Appendix,
267 as a measure of H_b) varies between $2/7$ and 2 , suggesting that the Doppler shift is comparable in
268 strength to refraction for the low modes but dominates for high mode NIWs. Comparing the energy
269 fluxes between the simulations run with and without fronts (e.g. Fig. 9) confirms this inference
270 based on scaling arguments. Namely, for mode numbers greater than 3, where $\delta < 2/3$, $F_{e,z}$ is
271 over an order of magnitude larger in the simulations with fronts.

272 2) DEPENDENCE ON ROSSBY NUMBER

273 The other critical non-dimensional parameter in the problem is the Rossby number, ϵ , which
274 is a measure of both the vertical vorticity and strain rate of the background eddy field. To study
275 the dependence of wave radiation on the Rossby number, simulations with barotropic eddies of
276 varying intensity were performed. The strength of the front and stratification were identical in all
277 simulations and only the maximum strain rate, α_o , and hence Rossby number α_o/f , of the eddies
278 was varied. As before, two sets of simulations with and without fronts were run (see Table 1). Each
279 simulation was initialized with an inertial oscillation with mode number $n = 2$ and $\delta = 1$. With
280 $\delta = 1$, the scalings (9) and (11) suggest that refraction should dominate over the vertical Doppler
281 shift for lower Rossby numbers, while both processes should be equally important for higher
282 Rossby numbers. However, time series of the energy flux reveal that by the end of the record, $F_{e,z}$
283 is similar in magnitude in the runs with and without fronts regardless of the value of the Rossby
284 number (top panel of Fig. 10), implying that the waves in both types of simulations develop

285 comparable lateral scales and vertical propagation speeds, more in line with the scaling (11). The
 286 temporal evolution of the energy flux is however quite different in the two sets of simulations,
 287 as the waves radiate energy more quickly when fronts are present. This is especially evident in
 288 the simulations with $\alpha_o = 0.14f$ (RUN3 and RUN3-NF), where $F_{e,z}$ reaches its minimum several
 289 inertial periods earlier in RUN3 versus RUN3-NF. The net effect in the upper part of the water
 290 column is a greater reduction in the wave's kinetic energy in simulations with fronts since the
 291 energy flux is active for a longer length of time. This is quantified by calculating the wave kinetic
 292 energy integrated over the upper 75 m and averaged areally over the same area \mathcal{A} used to calculate
 293 the energy flux (13) (Fig. 10, bottom panel). The reduction in wave kinetic energy is larger for
 294 stronger strain rates and is enhanced in the presence of fronts. For example, for $\alpha_o = 0.14f$, by 7
 295 inertial periods the change in wave KE is around 20% larger in RUN3 relative to RUN3-NF.

296 *c. Simulations with slab-layer wave forms*

297 The idealized wave forms used in the numerical experiments described above yield results that
 298 can be more easily compared to the theoretical prediction for the horizontal wavenumber (6) since
 299 they are characterized by a single, dominant vertical wavenumber, e.g. (A5). To explore the
 300 effects of the Doppler shift in a more realistic wave field, a wave form emulating a slab-layer
 301 inertial oscillation with velocity $v_w = 0$ and

$$u_w = \frac{u_o}{2} \left[1 + \tanh \left(\frac{z + h_v}{L_z} \right) \right] \quad (15)$$

302 was used as an initial condition (where $h_v = 40$ m, $L_z = 10$ m, and $u_o = 0.01$ m s⁻¹). As before,
 303 simulations with and without fronts were contrasted to highlight differences in the wave dynamics
 304 caused by the Doppler shift.

305 Similar to the idealized wave forms, waves with a slab-layer initial condition develop finer lateral
306 scales when fronts are present (c.f. Figs. 11 and 12). On larger scales, however, the waves in the
307 simulations with and without fronts share common features. These features are associated with
308 low-mode NIWs which carry most of the energy in a slab-layer-like initial condition (e.g. Gill
309 1984). Low-mode NIWs are less affected by the Doppler shift (e.g. Fig. 9), explaining why their
310 evolution is nearly identical in the two types of simulations. The high-mode NIWs are however
311 affected by the frontal vertical circulation and tend to radiate energy away from the fronts in
312 beams that form on both sides of the fronts. Ray tracing was used to understand how this pattern
313 of wave propagation is established. A ray with intrinsic frequency $\omega_i = 1.8f$ emanating from a
314 single location appears to explain the two beams (Fig. 13). The location is on the dense side of
315 the front at a depth of 40 m. This is where the shear in the initial condition (15) is largest and
316 frontal downwelling extends to greater depths than upwelling (e.g. Fig. 2, bottom panel), thus
317 maximizing vertical advection and the Doppler shift. It appears that energy radiates from this
318 location in both directions along the ray path. In particular, an upward propagating wave transits
319 the mixed layer and reflects off the surface, returning back into the stratified interior and towards
320 the light side of the front following the ray trajectory and beam. Time series of the wave velocity
321 and buoyancy anomalies within the beam (not shown) reveal that the Eulerian frequency of the
322 waves is close to inertial while the ratio of wave potential to kinetic energy is consistent with the
323 superinertial intrinsic frequency $\omega_i = 1.8f$ inferred from ray tracing. A Doppler shift associated
324 with the barotropic velocity of the eddy field can account for this difference between Eulerian and
325 intrinsic frequencies, as was found in the simulations with the idealized wave forms (see §b).

326 Initializing the simulations with a slab-layer wave form is a simple way to represent wind-
327 forced inertial motions without the forcing. The findings from these simulations indicate that
328 such waves experience a more complex interaction with vertical circulations than the idealized

329 wave forms and highlight the importance of the vertical co-location of the inertial shear and up-
330 welling/downwelling. This suggests that NIWs that are actively being forced by winds will expe-
331 rience similar complex behavior at fronts, with potential implications for both the generation and
332 propagation of the waves. Studying the effects of vertical Doppler shifting on forced NIWs is thus
333 motivated and should be the focus of future work.

334 **4. Conclusions**

335 The dynamics of high-mode NIWs is not well understood. The small vertical scales of the high-
336 modes suggest that they should be susceptible to Doppler shifting by vertical motions. While
337 Doppler shifting by vertical velocities associated with the internal wave continuum has been con-
338 sidered and is thought to smear NIW shear signals across a wide range of frequencies (e.g. Kunze
339 et al. 1990; Sherman and Pinkel 1991; Pinkel 2014), Doppler shifting by frontal vertical circula-
340 tions has not been explored. Here it is shown that the process can lead to Doppler shifts that are
341 a significant fraction of the inertial frequency. They also introduce lateral phase differences in the
342 wave field and hence enhance vertical radiation. If the frontal vertical motions are driven by fron-
343 togenetic strain, the development of lateral phase differences is an exponentially-fast process and
344 leads to the rapid radiation of NIW beams away from the front and down into the stratified interior.
345 The mechanism results in a reduction of NIW kinetic energy in the upper ocean that increases with
346 the rate of strain. In addition, it can enhance the magnitude of NIW shear (c.f. Figs. 11 and 12)
347 and thus could facilitate the dissipation of NIW energy through the generation of turbulence.

348 Doppler shifting by frontal vertical motions is a mechanism for sharpening the lateral scales of
349 NIWs which is distinct from the traditional explanation involving refraction associated with gra-
350 dients in vertical and planetary vorticity (D’Asaro 1989; Young and Ben-Jelloul 1997; van Meurs
351 1998). In particular, the development of lateral phase differences by vertical Doppler shifting de-

352 pends on the vertical wavenumber m of the NIWs, unlike refraction. As a result, the downward
353 flux of NIW energy out of the upper ocean scales as m^{-1} with Doppler shifting, versus m^{-3} with
354 refraction (e.g. Fig. 9). Therefore high-mode NIWs are much more effective at radiating energy in
355 an eddy field when frontal vertical circulations are present. In this context, high-mode specifically
356 refers to waves with small vertical scales relative to the depth of the frontal vertical circulation.

357 The beams of NIWs that emanate from fronts through vertical Doppler shifting have character-
358 istics of superinertial waves yet Eulerian frequencies very near f . In particular, the waves' current
359 ellipses are far from circular and their potential energy (PE) and kinetic energy (KE) are com-
360 parable in magnitude, implying that their intrinsic frequency is superinertial (e.g. Fig. 6). This
361 apparent discrepancy is explained by a Doppler shift, which in this case is associated with the hor-
362 izontal rather than vertical component of the background flow. The short horizontal wavelengths
363 in the beam combined with the confluent flow of the barotropic eddies yield a Doppler shift that
364 keeps the Eulerian frequency near its initial value f while allowing the intrinsic frequency to be
365 superinertial. Conservation of Eulerian frequency might explain this phenomenon. According to
366 ray theory, if the medium in which a wave propagates does not change in time, the Eulerian fre-
367 quency is conserved along a ray (Gill 1982). Beneath the fronts, the stratification, background
368 currents, and hence wave medium experience minimal changes in time. Therefore inertial motions
369 should conserve their Eulerian frequency as they are converted to downward-propagating internal
370 waves by vertical Doppler shifting. Similar internal waves with near-inertial Eulerian frequencies
371 and elevated PE to KE ratios have been observed in the ocean but their generation has been a mys-
372 tery (e.g. Sherman and Pinkel 1991; Pinkel 2014). The interaction of inertial motions and fronts
373 undergoing frontogenesis, as described here, is one mechanism that could explain their formation.

374 Shear associated with high-mode NIWs is thought to play an important role in driving mixing
375 and deepening of the mixed layer, with implications for climate (Jochum et al. 2013). There-

376 fore parameterizing the energetics of these waves in coarse-resolution models, in particular their
377 vertical radiation out of the mixed layer is well motivated. The theory and numerical simula-
378 tions described in this article suggest that the physics of vertical Doppler shifting should be taken
379 into account when parameterizing the damping of high-mode NIWs in the upper ocean since the
380 process can greatly enhance their energy fluxes. Developing such a parameterization presents chal-
381 lenges given the submesoscale nature of the dynamics involved. However, based on the numerical
382 experiments describe here, it is clear that there are a few key factors that should be taken into
383 consideration, namely the distribution of the vertical scales of the waves and the fronts, and the
384 strength of the mesoscale strain and lateral density gradients. Having said this, there are certain
385 characteristics of the flow used in the experiments that are quite idealized, and more work should
386 be done in studying vertical Doppler shifting in a more realistic setting before formulating and
387 implementing a parameterization of its effects. In particular, the confluence associated with the
388 eddies that drives the frontal vertical circulations in the simulations does not vary in time and thus
389 results in a persistent and strengthening vertical Doppler shift. If the eddies and fronts were more
390 transient, the interaction of the NIWs with the frontal vertical circulation may not be as effective.
391 Investigating vertical Doppler shifting in simulations with an evolving, turbulent, baroclinic eddy
392 field and with inertial motions forced by winds (rather than imposed as an initial condition) are
393 especially needed, and will be the subject of future research.

394 *Acknowledgments.* This research was supported by the Office of Naval Research award N00014-
 395 18-1-2798.

396 APPENDIX

397 Initial conditions for numerical simulations

398 The numerical experiments are configured with surface-intensified fronts and a pycnocline. They
 399 are initialized with a lateral buoyancy gradient that alternates sign sinusoidally in the y -direction
 400 and that decays with depth

$$-\frac{\partial b_i}{\partial y} = \frac{S_o^2}{2} \left[1 + \tanh \left(\frac{z+h}{\lambda} \right) \right]^2 \sin \left(\frac{2\pi y}{L_y} \right) \quad (\text{A1})$$

401 and a stratification that increases linearly with depth below a certain level $z = -h_o$:

$$\frac{\partial b_i}{\partial z} = \begin{cases} N_{ml}^2 & z > -h_o \\ N_{ml}^2 - \frac{2N_{ml}^2}{\delta_s} (z + h_o) & z \leq -h_o \end{cases}, \quad (\text{A2})$$

402 where L_y is the width of the domain in the y -direction and $S_o^2, N_{ml}^2, \lambda, h_o$, and δ_s are constants. The
 403 front (A1) is accompanied by a geostrophic flow, $u_{g,i}$, that satisfies the thermal wind balance and
 404 that has no barotropic flow, i.e. $\int_{-H}^0 u_{g,i} dz = 0$, where H is the depth of the numerical domain.
 405 Strain is provided by an array of geostrophic, barotropic eddies with velocity

$$v_e = \frac{\alpha_o \lambda_y}{2\pi} \sin \left(\frac{2\pi x}{\lambda_x} \right) \sin \left(\frac{2\pi y}{\lambda_y} \right) \quad (\text{A3})$$

$$u_e = \frac{\alpha_o \lambda_x}{2\pi} \cos \left(\frac{2\pi x}{\lambda_x} \right) \cos \left(\frac{2\pi y}{\lambda_y} \right) \quad (\text{A4})$$

407 where α_o is the maximum strain rate, and λ_x and λ_y are the wavelengths of the eddies in the x
 408 and y direction, respectively, which are both set to half the domain width in the y -direction, i.e.
 409 $\lambda_x = \lambda_y = L_y/2$. Several of the constants in (A1) and (A2) are fixed for all of the numerical

410 experiments, namely $\lambda = 25$ m, $h = 50$ m, $h_o = 30$ m, and $\delta_s = 10$ m. The parameters that vary
411 are listed in Table 1.

412 A NIW is added to the background flow field as an initial condition. It has a wave form with the
413 following structure

$$\begin{pmatrix} u_w \\ v_w \end{pmatrix} = \frac{u_o}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \cos mz \\ \sin mz \end{pmatrix} \left[1 + \tanh \left(\frac{z + h_v}{L_z} \right) \right] \quad (\text{A5})$$

414 where (u_w, v_w) is the wave velocity at $t = 0$ with speed u_o , which is a plane wave with wavenumber
415 m modulated in the vertical by the function in the square brackets that confines the NIW to a layer
416 near the surface of depth h_v and decays in the vertical over a lengthscale L_z . In the experiments m
417 is varied, but the parameters of the envelope are fixed, i.e. $h_v = 40$ m and $L_z = 10$ m, as well as the
418 speed, $u_o = 0.01$ m s⁻¹.

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457 **LIST OF TABLES**

458 **Table 1.** Parameters used to construct the initial conditions for the numerical simulations
459 (see the Appendix for the definitions of the variables). 25

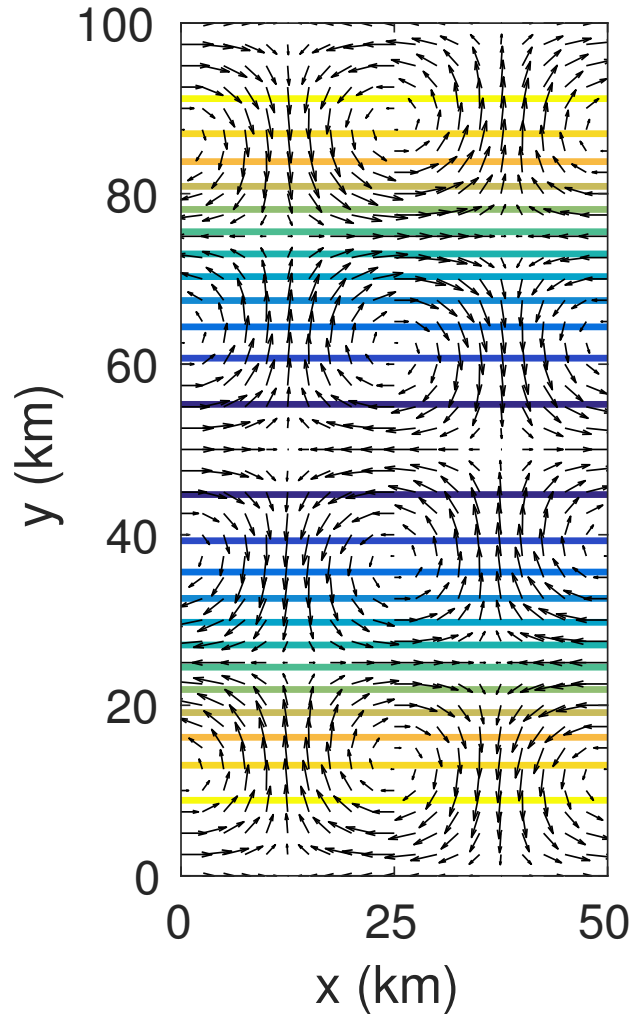
460 TABLE 1. Parameters used to construct the initial conditions for the numerical simulations (see the Appendix
 461 for the definitions of the variables).

Experiment	S_o^2 (s ⁻²)	f (s ⁻¹)	α_o (s ⁻¹)	N_{ml}^2 (s ⁻²)	$Ri_o = N_{ml}^2 f^2 / S_o^4$
RUN1	1×10^{-7}	1×10^{-4}	6×10^{-6}	3×10^{-5}	30
RUN1-NF	0	1×10^{-4}	6×10^{-6}	3×10^{-5}	∞
RUN2	1×10^{-7}	1×10^{-4}	1×10^{-5}	3×10^{-5}	30
RUN2-NF	0	1×10^{-4}	1×10^{-5}	3×10^{-5}	∞
RUN3	1×10^{-7}	1×10^{-4}	1.4×10^{-5}	3×10^{-5}	30
RUN3-NF	0	1×10^{-4}	1.4×10^{-5}	3×10^{-5}	∞

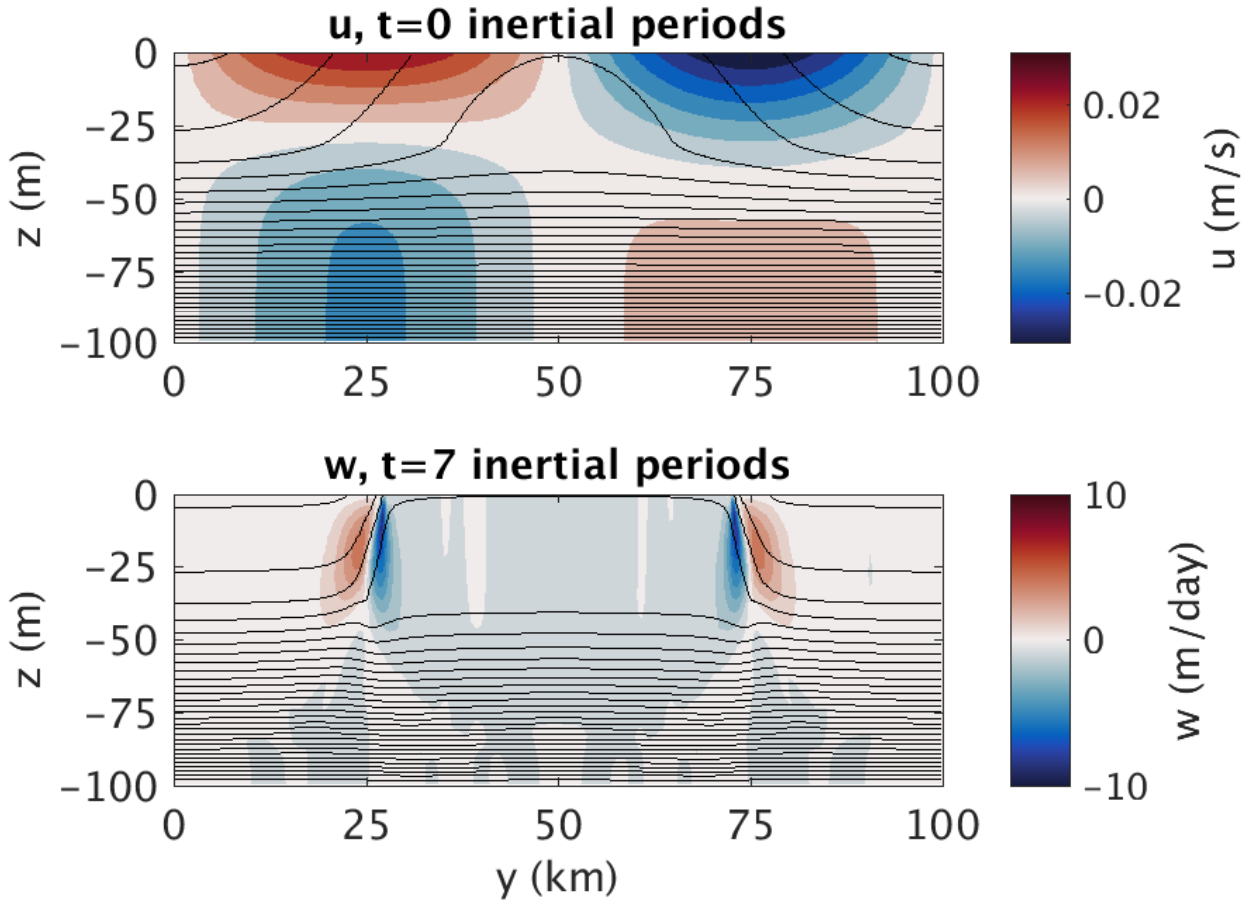
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467	Fig. 2.	Top panel: vertical cross-section at $x = 12.5 \text{ km}$ of the initial condition for RUN1 of the buoyancy (contours) and the x -component of the velocity (color). Bottom panel, cross-section of buoyancy (contours) and the vertical velocity at 7 inertial periods into the simulation illustrating the sharpening of the fronts by eddy-driven strain and the generation of a frontal vertical circulation with downwelling and upwelling on the dense and light sides of the fronts, respectively. The contour interval of buoyancy is $9.8 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m s}^{-2}$ 29
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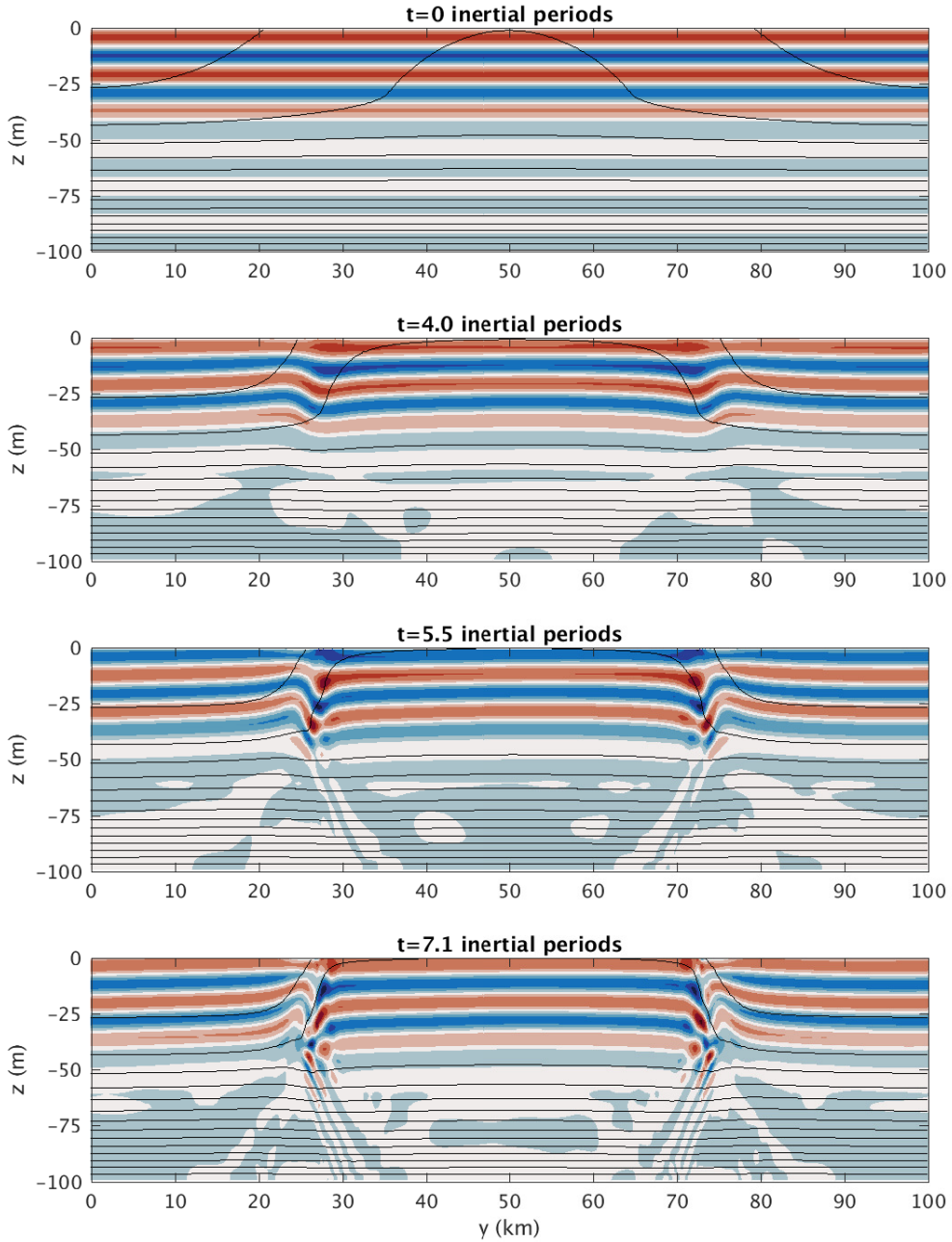
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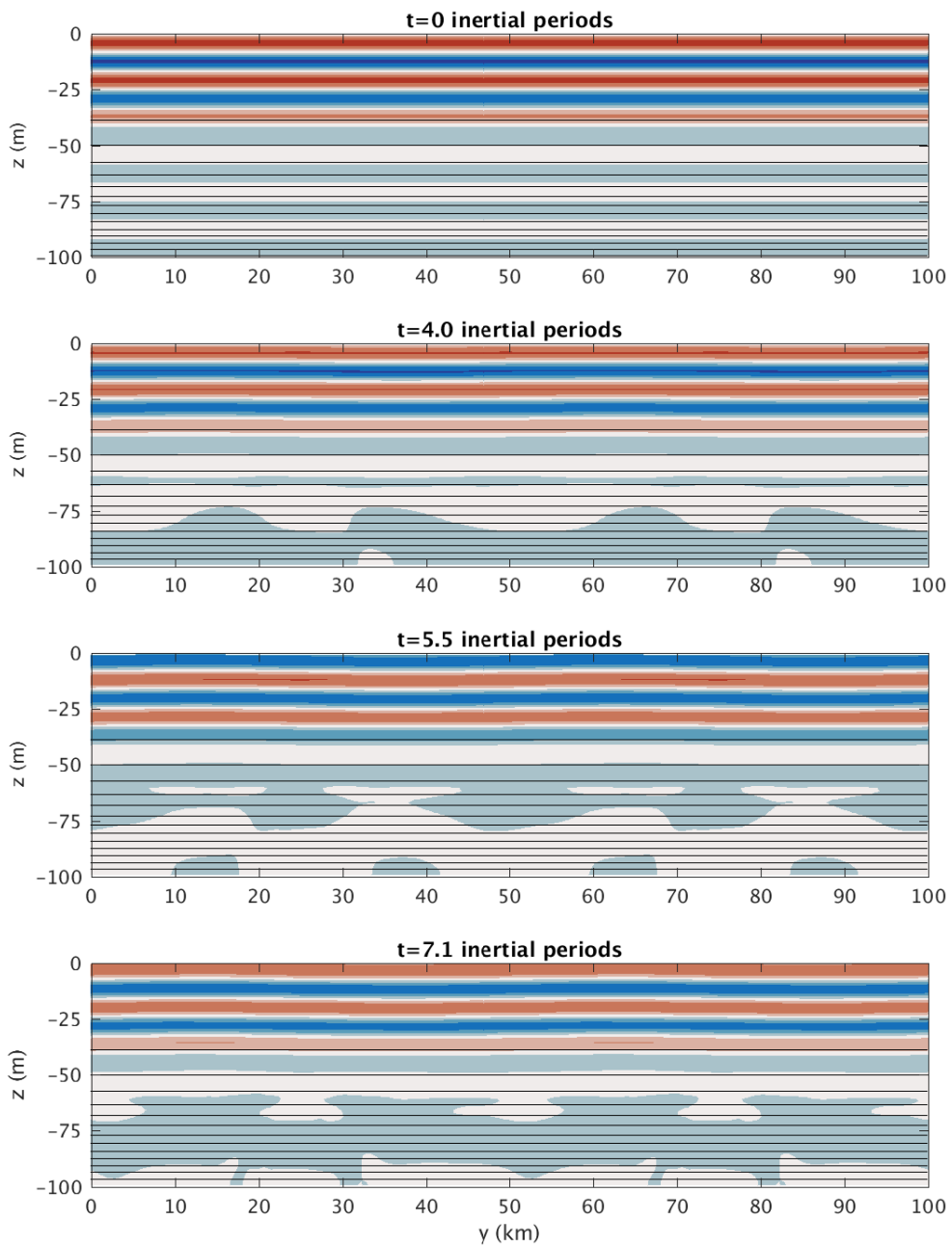
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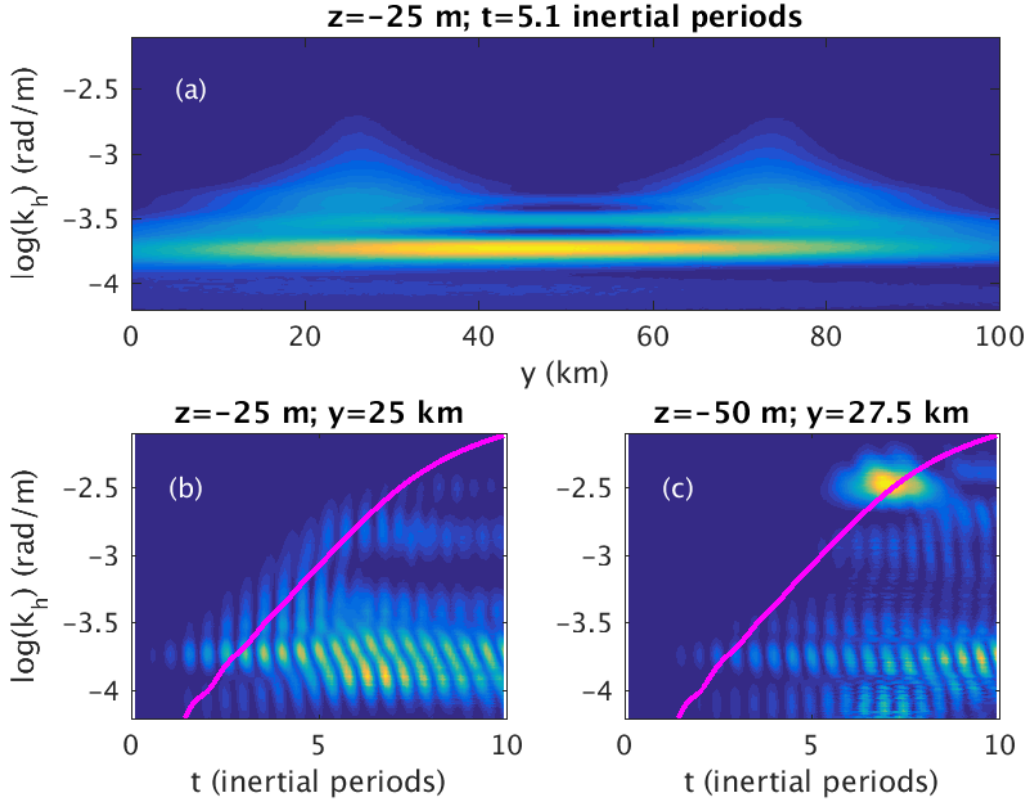
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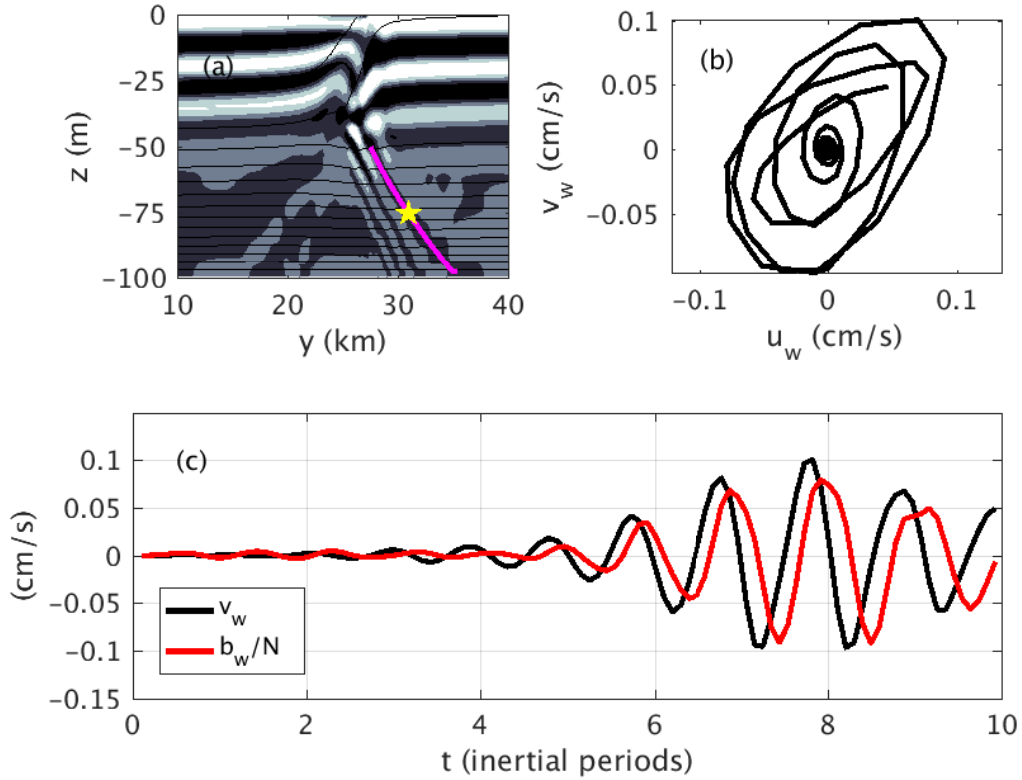
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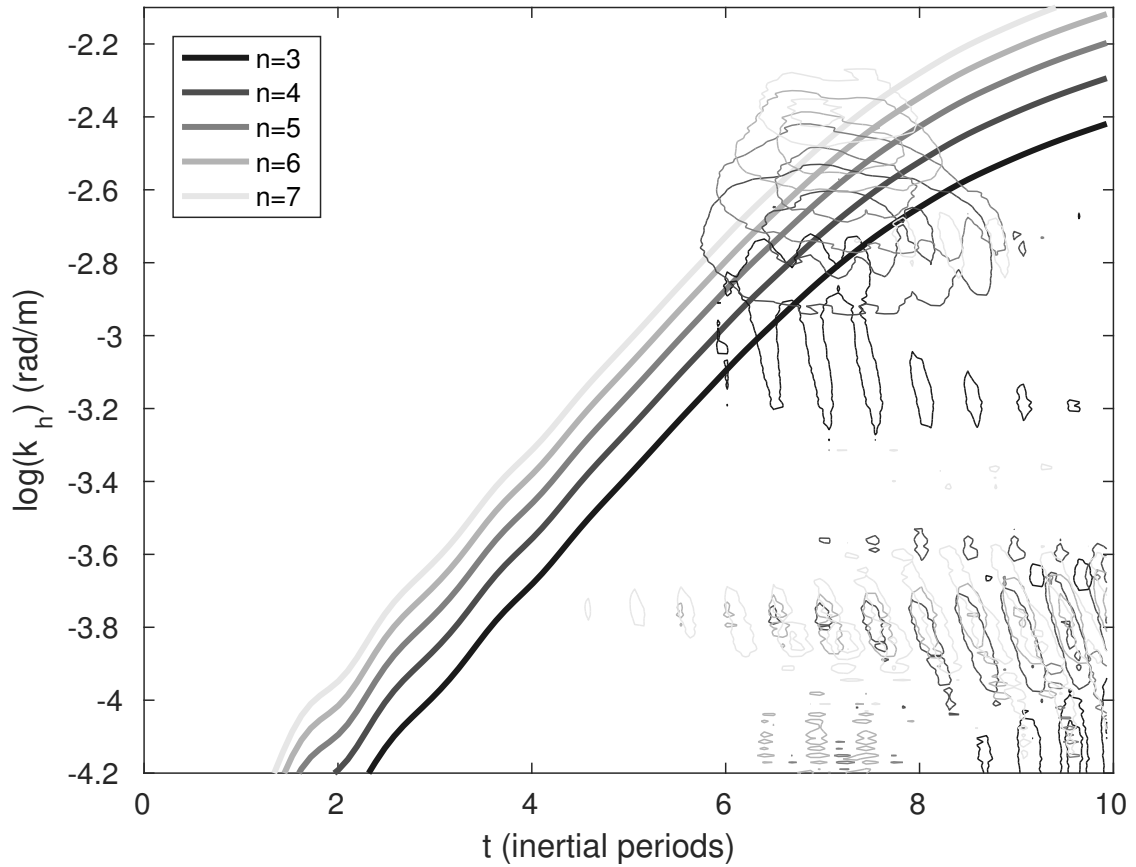
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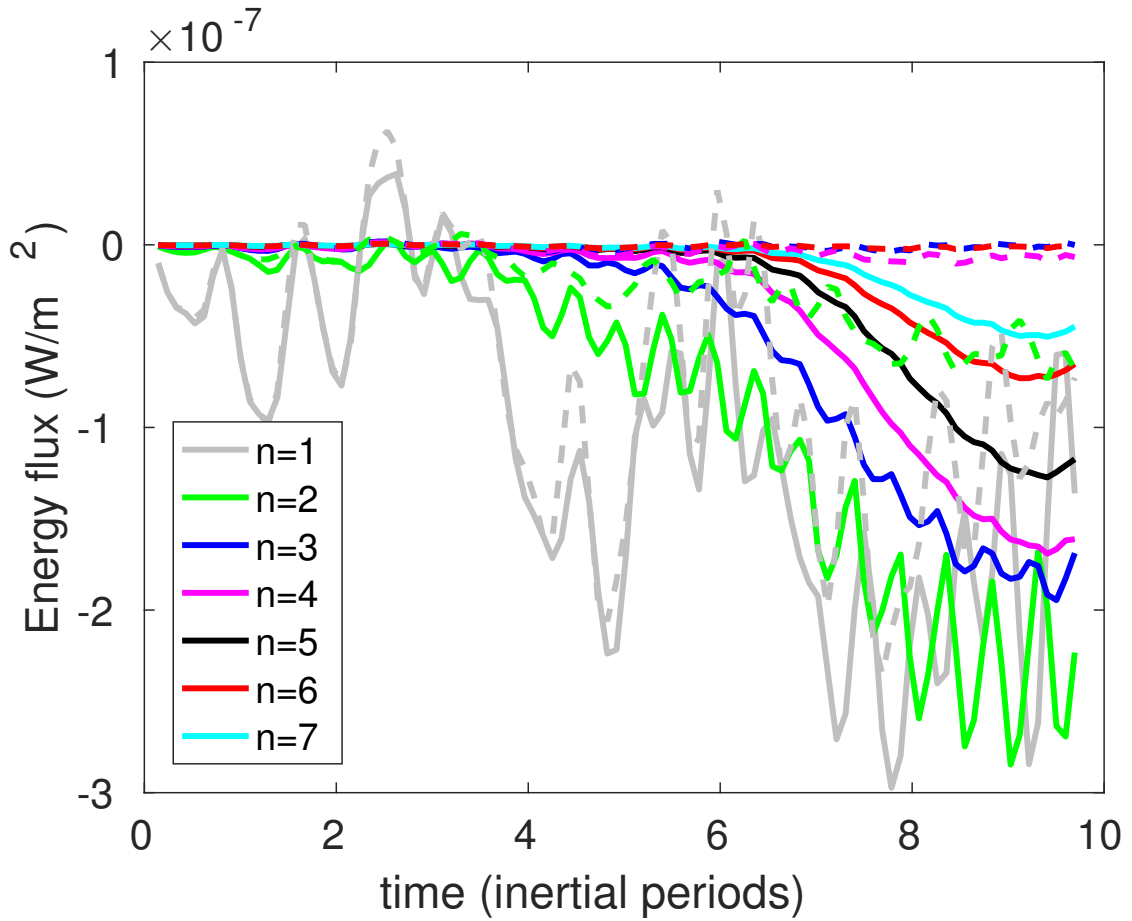
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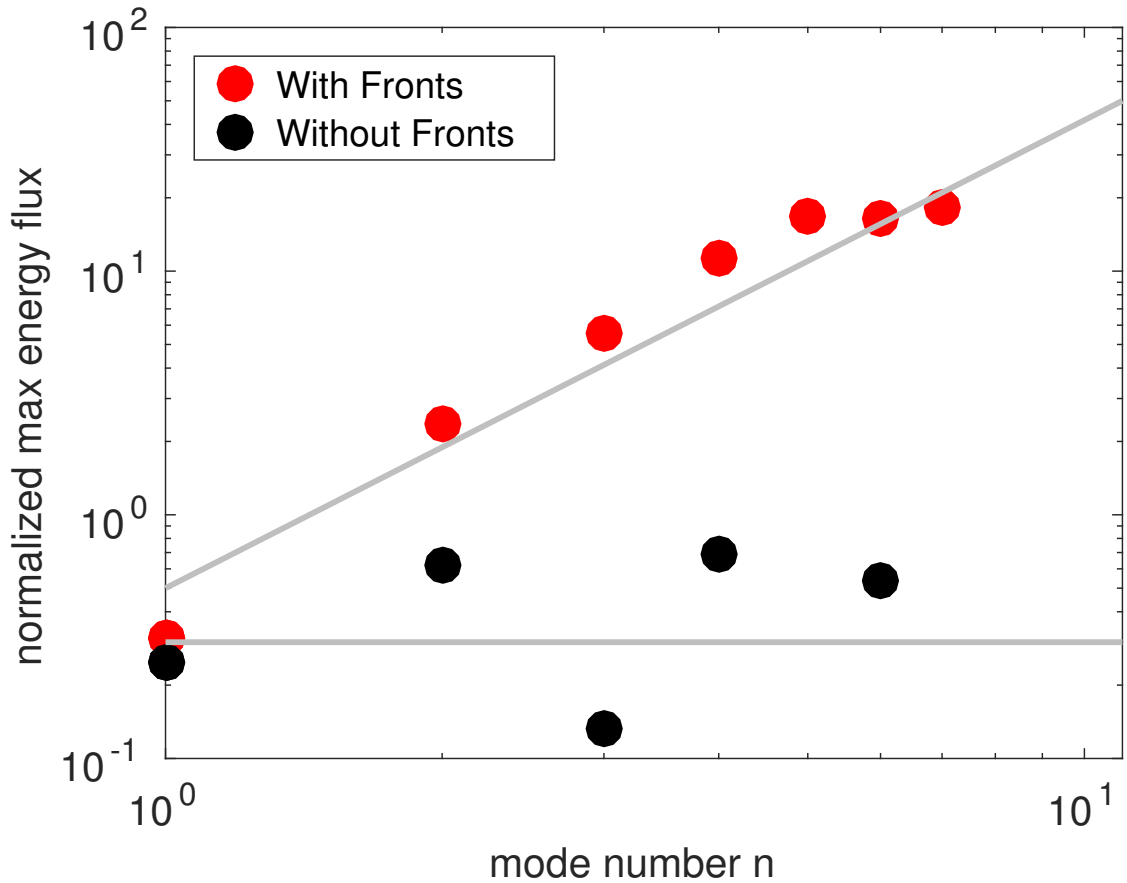
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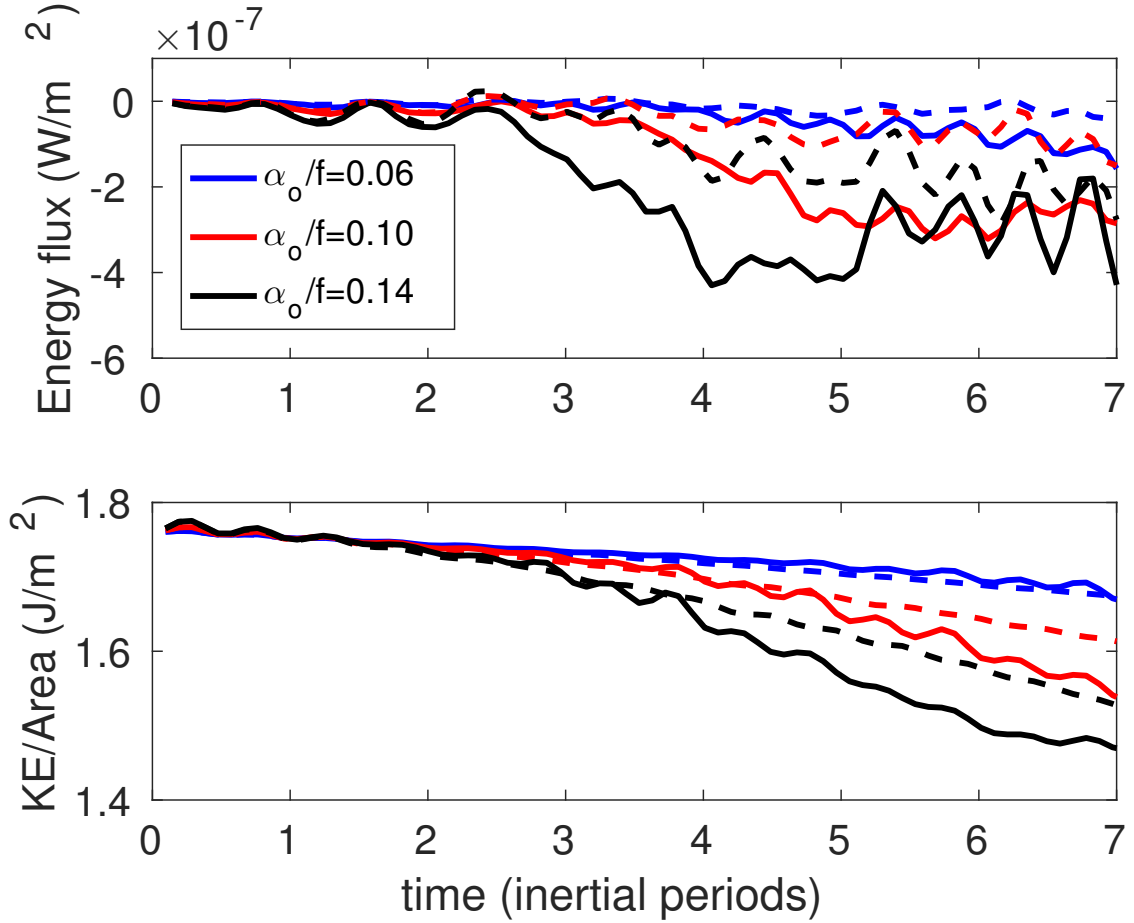
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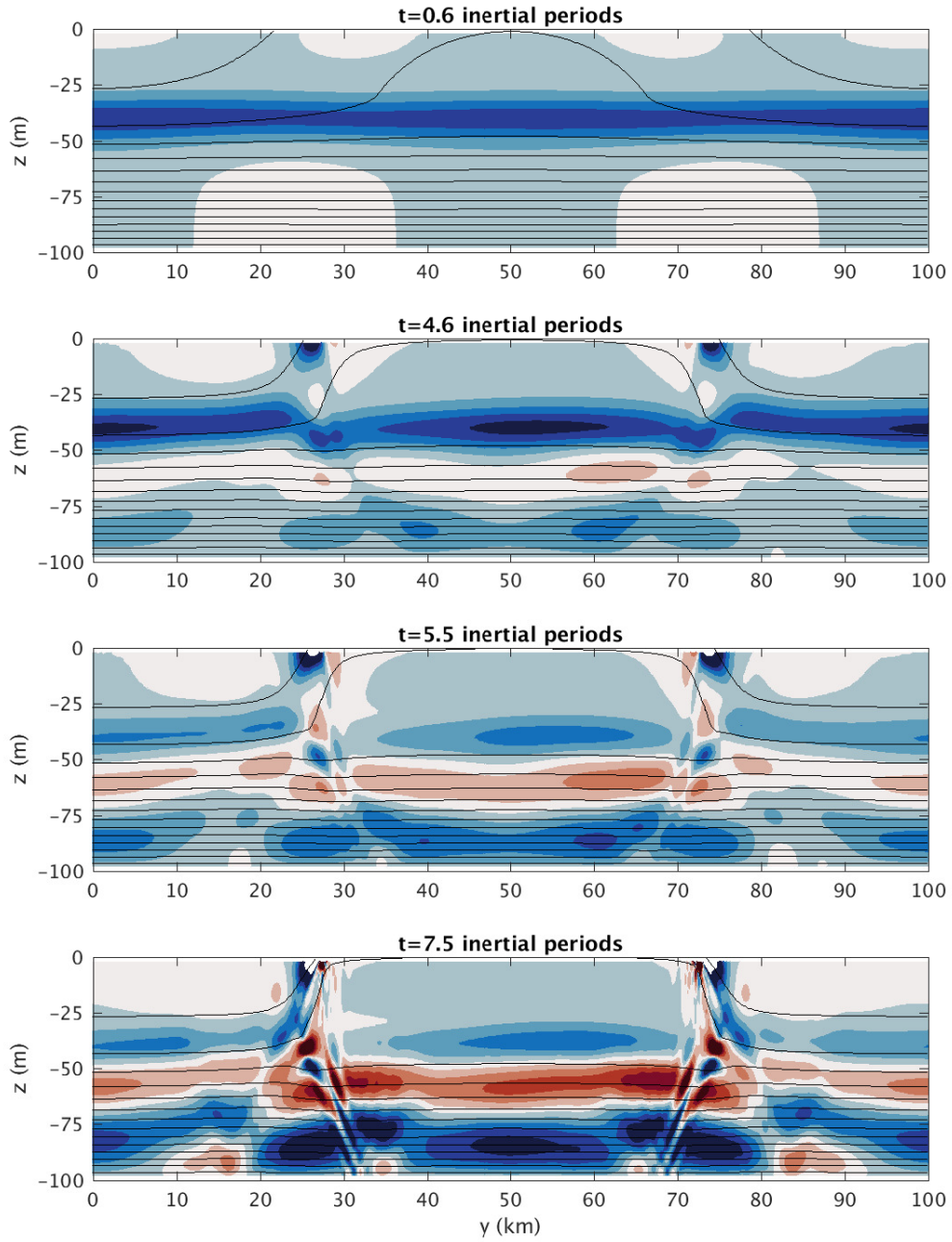
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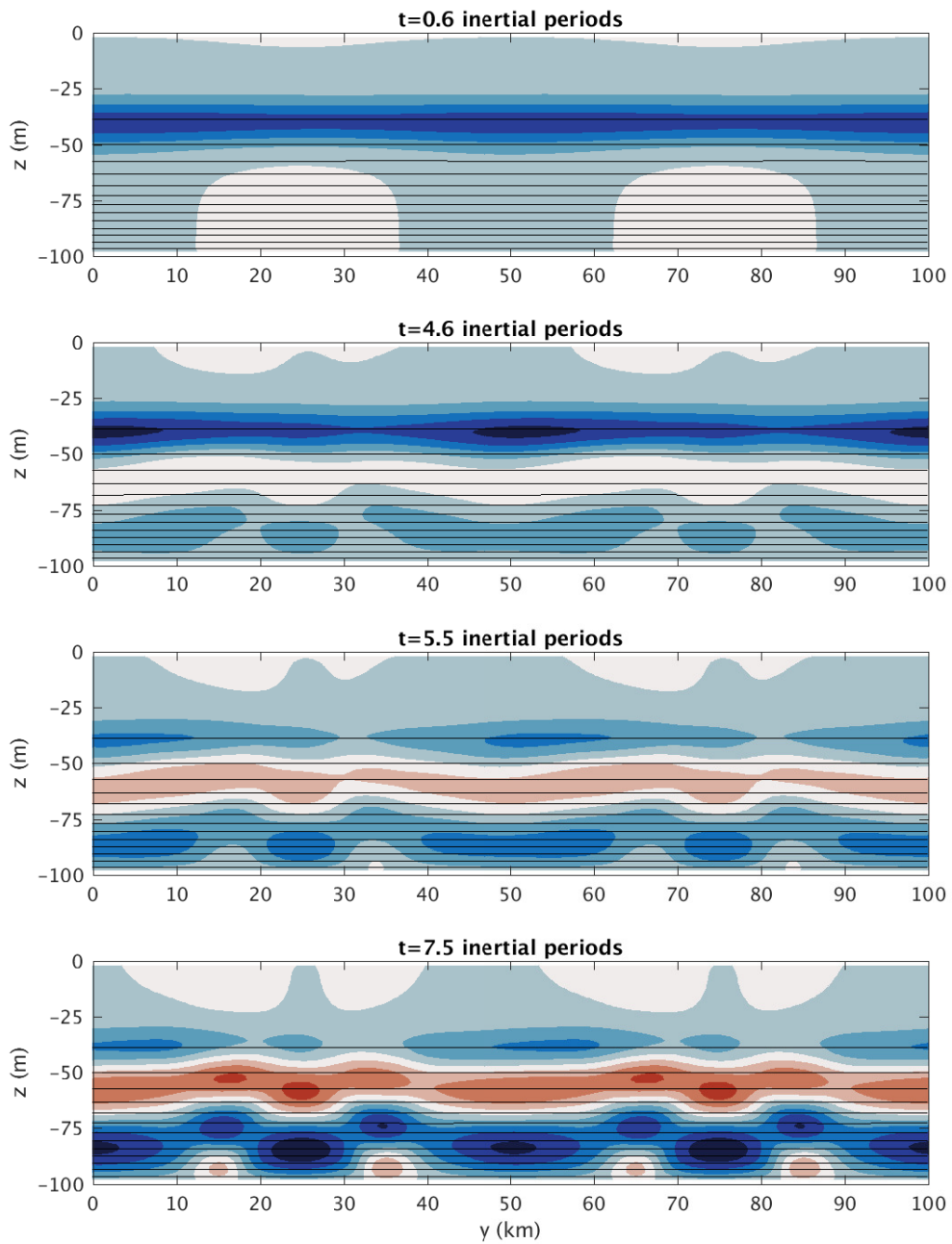
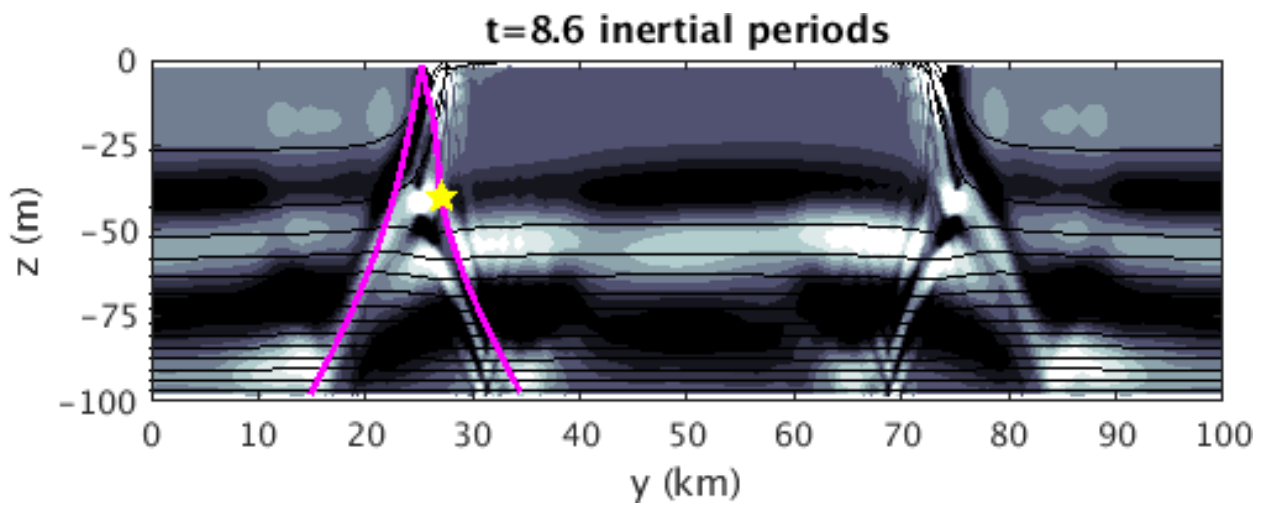


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