

1           **Estimation of oceanic sub-surface mixing under a severe cyclonic storm**  
2                           **using a coupled atmosphere-ocean-wave model**

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5  
6   **Abstract**

7           A coupled atmosphere-ocean-wave model used to examine mixing in the upper oceanic  
8 layers under the influence of a very severe cyclonic storm Phailin over the Bay of Bengal (BoB)  
9 during 10-14 October 2013. The coupled model found to improve the sea surface temperature over  
10 the uncoupled model. Model simulations highlight prominent role of cyclone induced near-inertial  
11 oscillations in sub-surface mixing up to the thermocline depth. The inertial mixing introduced by  
12 the cyclone played a central role in deepening of the thermocline and mixed layer depth by 40 m  
13 and 15 m, respectively. For the first time over the BoB, a detailed analysis of inertial oscillation  
14 kinetic energy generation, propagation, and dissipation was carried out using an atmosphere-  
15 ocean-wave coupled model during a cyclone. A quantitative estimate of kinetic energy in the  
16 oceanic water column, its propagation and dissipation mechanisms were explained using the  
17 coupled atmosphere-ocean-wave model. The large shear generated by the inertial oscillations  
18 found to overcome the stratification and initiate mixing at the base of the mixed layer. Greater  
19 mixing was found at the depths where the eddy kinetic diffusivity was large. The baroclinic  
20 current, holding a larger fraction of kinetic energy than the barotropic current, weakened rapidly  
21 after the passage of the cyclone. The shear-induced by inertial oscillations found to decrease  
22 rapidly with increasing depth below the thermocline. The dampening of mixing process below the  
23 thermocline explained through the enhanced dissipation rate of turbulent kinetic energy upon  
24 approaching the thermocline layer. The wave-current interaction, non-linear wave-wave  
25 interaction were found to affect the process of downward mixing and cause the dissipation of  
26 inertial oscillations.

## 30 **1. Introduction**

31           The Bay of Bengal (BoB), a semi-enclosed basin in the northeastern Indian ocean, consists  
32 of surplus near-surface fresh water due to large precipitation and runoff from the major river  
33 systems of the Indian subcontinent (Varkey et al., 1996; Rao and Sivakumar, 2003; Pant et al.,  
34 2015). Presence of fresh water leads to salt-stratified upper ocean water column and formation of  
35 barrier layer (BL), a layer sandwiched between bottom of the mixed layer (ML) and top of the  
36 thermocline, in the BoB (Lukas and Lindstrom, 1991; Vinayachandran et al., 2002; Thadathil et  
37 al., 2007). The BL restricts entrainment of colder waters from thermocline region into the mixed  
38 layer thereby, maintains warmer ML and sea surface temperature (SST). The warmer SST together  
39 with higher tropical cyclone heat potential (TCHP) makes the BoB as one of the active regions for  
40 cyclogenesis (Suzana et al. 2007; Yanase et al. 2012, Vissa et al. 2013). Majority of tropical  
41 cyclones generate during the pre-monsoon (April-May) and post-monsoon (October-November)  
42 seasons (Alam et al., 2003; Longshore, 2008). The number of cyclones and their intensity is highly  
43 variable in seasonal and interannual time scales. The oceanic response to the tropical cyclone  
44 depends on the stratification of the ocean. The BL formation in the BoB is associated with the  
45 strong stratification due to the peak discharge from rivers in the post-monsoon season. The  
46 intensity of the cyclone largely depends on the degree of stratification (Neetu et al. 2012; Li et al.  
47 2013). The coupled atmosphere-ocean model found to improve the intensity of cyclonic storm  
48 when compared to the uncoupled model over different oceanic regions (Warner et al., 2010;  
49 Zambon et al., 2014; Srinivas et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2016). Zambon et al. (2014) compared the  
50 simulations from the coupled atmosphere-ocean and uncoupled models and reported significant  
51 improvement in the intensity of storm in the coupled case as compared to the uncoupled case. The  
52 uncoupled atmospheric model produced large ocean-atmosphere enthalpy fluxes and stronger  
53 winds in the cyclone (Srinivas et al., 2016). When the atmospheric model WRF was allowed  
54 interactions with the ocean model, the SST found to be more realistic as compared to the stand-  
55 alone WRF (Warner et al., 2010; Gröger et al., 2015; Jeworek et al., 2017; Hagemann et al., 2017).  
56 Wu et al. (2016) demonstrated the advantage of using a coupled model over the uncoupled model  
57 in a better simulation of typhoon Megi's intensity.

58           Mixing in the water column has an important role in energy and material transference.  
59 Mixing in the ocean can be introduced by the different agents such as wind, current, tide, eddy,

60 and cyclone. Mixing due to tropical cyclones is mostly limited to the upper ocean, but the cyclone-  
61 induced internal waves can affect the subsurface mixing. Several studies have observed that the  
62 mixing in the upper oceanic layer is introduced due to the generation of near-inertial oscillations  
63 (NIO) during the passage of tropical cyclones (Gonella, 1971; Shay et al., 1989; Johanston et al.,  
64 2016). This mixing is responsible for deepening of ML and shoaling of the thermocline (Gill,  
65 1984). The vertical mixing caused by storm-induced NIO has a significant impact on the upper  
66 ocean variability (Price, 1981). The NIO are also found to be responsible for the decrement of SST  
67 along the cyclone track (Chang and Anthes, 1979; Leipper, 1967; Shay et al., 1992; Shay et al.,  
68 2000). This decrease in SST is caused by the entrainment of cool subsurface thermocline water in  
69 the mixed layer into the immediate overlying layer of water. This cooling of surface water is one  
70 of the reasons for the decay of cyclone (Cione and Uhlhorn, 2003). The magnitude of surface  
71 cooling differs largely depending on the degree of stratification at the rightward to the cyclone  
72 track (Jacob, 2003; Price et al., 1981).

73         The near-inertial process can be analyzed from the baroclinic component of currents. The  
74 vertical shear of horizontal baroclinic velocities that is interrelated to buoyancy oscillations of  
75 surface layers is utilized in various studies to have an adequate understanding of the mixing  
76 associated with high-frequency oscillations, i.e. NIO (Zhang et al., 2014). The shear generated due  
77 to NIO is an important factor for the intrusion of the cold thermocline water into the ML during  
78 near-inertial scale mixing (Price et al., 1978; Shearman, 2005; Burchard and Rippeth, 2009). The  
79 alternative upwelling and downwelling features of the temperature profile are an indication of the  
80 inertial mixing. The kinetic energy bounded with these components of current shows a rise in  
81 magnitude at the right side of cyclone track (Price et al., 1981; Sanfoard et al., 1987; Jacob, 2003).  
82 The reason for this high magnitude of kinetic energy is linked with strong wind and rotating wind  
83 vector condition of the storm. The spatial distribution of near-inertial energy is primarily controlled  
84 by the boundary effect for inertial oscillations (Chen et al., 2017). The NIO is found to decline  
85 with the decreasing depth and vanishes in the coastal regions (Schahinger, 1988; Chen et al., 2017).

86         The aim of this paper is to understand and quantify the near-inertial mixing due to the very  
87 severe cyclonic storm Phailin in the BoB. Phailin was developed over the BoB in the northern  
88 Indian ocean in October 2013. The landfall of Phailin occurred on 12 October 2013 around 15:30  
89 GMT near Gopalpur district of Odisha state on the east coast of India. After the 1999 super

90 cyclonic event of the Odisha coast, Phailin was the second strongest cyclonic event that made  
91 landfall on the east coast of India (Kumar and Nair, 2015). The low-pressure system developed in  
92 the north of the Andaman Sea on 7<sup>th</sup> October 2013, which transformed into a depression on 8<sup>th</sup>  
93 October at 12 °N, 96 °E. This depression got converted to a cyclonic disturbance on 9<sup>th</sup> October  
94 and further intensified while moved to east-central BoB and opted the maximum wind speed of  
95 200 km h<sup>-1</sup> at 03:00 GMT on 11<sup>th</sup> October. Finally, landfall occurs at 17:00 GMT 12<sup>th</sup> October.  
96 More details on the development and propagation of Phailin can be found in the literature (IMD  
97 Report, 2013; Mandal et al. 2015). The performance of the coupled atmosphere-ocean model in  
98 simulating the oceanic parameters temperature, salinity, and currents during the Phailin is  
99 discussed in Prakash and Pant (2017).

100 Most of the past studies on the oceanic mixing under cyclonic conditions were carried out  
101 using in-situ measurements, which are constrained by the spatial and temporal availability. To the  
102 best of our knowledge, the present study is first of its kind that utilizes a coupled atmosphere-  
103 ocean-wave model over the BoB to estimate the cyclone-induced mixing and associated energy  
104 propagation at the cyclone track and a location of maximum surface wind stress during the period  
105 of peak intensity of the cyclone. The study also focuses on analyzing the subsurface distribution  
106 of NIO with its vertical mixing potential. Further, the study quantifies the shear generated mixing  
107 and the kinetic energy of the baroclinic mode of horizontal current varying in the vertical section  
108 at a selected location during the active period of the cyclone. The dissipation rate of NIO and  
109 turbulent eddy diffusivity are quantified.

110

## 111 **2. Data and Methodology**

### 112 **2.1 Model details**

113 Numerical simulations during the period of Phailin were carried out using the coupled  
114 ocean-atmosphere-wave-sediment transport (COAWST), described in detail by Warner et al.  
115 (2010). COAWST modeling system couples the three-dimensional oceanic model ‘Regional  
116 Ocean Modeling System’ (ROMS), the atmospheric model ‘Weather Research and Forecasting’  
117 (WRF), and the wind wave generation and propagation model ‘Simulating Waves Nearshore’  
118 (SWAN). ROMS model used for the study is a free surface, primitive equation, sigma coordinate

119 model. ROMS is a hydrostatic ocean model that solves finite difference approximations of the  
120 Reynolds averaged Navier-Stokes equations (Chassignet et al., 2000; Haidvogel et al., 2000,  
121 Haidvogel et al., 2008; Shchepetkin and McWilliams, 2005). The atmospheric model component  
122 in the COAWST is a non-hydrostatic, compressible model ‘Advanced Research Weather Research  
123 Forecast Model’ (WRF-ARW), described in Skamarock et al. (2005). It has different schemes for  
124 representation of boundary layer physics and physical parameterizations of sub-grid scale  
125 processes. In the COAWST modeling system, appropriate modifications were made in the code of  
126 atmospheric model component to provide an improved bottom roughness from the calculation of  
127 the bottom stress over the ocean (Warner et al., 2010). Further, the momentum equation is modified  
128 to improve the representation of surface waves. The modified equation needs the additional  
129 information of wave energy dissipation, propagation direction, wave height, wavelength that are  
130 obtained from wave component of the COAWST model. The spectral wave model SWAN, used in  
131 the COAWST modeling system, is designed for shallow water. The wave action balance equation is  
132 solved in the wave model for both spatial and spectral spaces (Booij et al. 1999). The SWAN model  
133 used in the COAWST system includes the wave-wind generation, wave-breaking, wave-dissipation, and  
134 nonlinear wave-current-wind interaction. The ‘Model Coupling Toolkit’ (MCT) used as a coupler in the  
135 COAWST modeling system to couple different model components (Larson et al., 2004; Jacob et al., 2005).  
136 The coupler utilizes a parallel-coupled approach to facilitate the transmission and transformation of various  
137 distributed parameters among component models. MCT coupler exchanges prognostic variables from one  
138 model to another model component as shown in Figure 1. The WRF model receives sea surface temperature  
139 (SST) from the ROMS model and supplies the zonal (Uwind) and meridional (Vwind) components of 10-  
140 m wind, atmospheric pressure (Patm), relative humidity (RH), cloud fraction (Cloud), precipitation (Rain),  
141 shortwave (Swrad) and longwave (Lwrad) radiation to the ROMS model. The SWAN model receives  
142 Uwind and Vwind from the WRF model and transfers significant wave height (Hwave) and mean  
143 wavelength (Lmwave) to the WRF model. A large number of variables are exchanged between ROMS and  
144 SWAN models. The ocean surface current components (Us, Vs), free surface elevations ( $\eta$ ), and bathymetry  
145 (Bath) provided to the SWAN from ROMS model. The wave parameters, i.e. Hwave, Lmwave, peak  
146 wavelength (Lpwave), wave direction (Dwave), surface wave period (Tpsurf), bottom wave period  
147 (Tmbott), percentage wave breaking (Qb), wave energy dissipation (DISSwcap), and bottom orbit velocity  
148 (Ubot) provided from the SWAN to ROMS model through the MCT coupler. Further details on the  
149 COAWST modeling system can be found in Warner et al. (2010).

150

## 151 **2.2 Model configuration and experiment design**

152 The coupled model was configured over the BoB to study Phailin during the period of 00  
153 GMT 10 October – 00 GMT 15 October 2013. The setup of COAWST modeling system used in  
154 this study included fully coupled atmosphere-ocean-wave (ROMS+WRF+SWAN) models but the  
155 sediment transport is not included. A non-hydrostatic, fully compressible atmospheric model with  
156 a terrain-following vertical coordinate system, WRF-ARW (version 3.7.1) was used in the  
157 COAWST configuration. The WRF model used with 9 km horizontal grid resolution over the domain 65  
158 °E-105 °E, 1°N-34 °N and 30 sigma levels in the vertical. The WRF was initialized with ‘National Centre  
159 for Environmental Prediction’ (NCEP) ‘Final Analysis’ (FNL) data (NCEPFNL, 2000) at 00 GMT 10  
160 October 2013. The lateral boundary conditions in WRF were provided at 6-hour interval from the FNL  
161 data. We used the parameterization schemes for calculating boundary layer processes, precipitation  
162 processes, and surface radiation fluxes. The Monin-Obukhov scheme of surface roughness layer  
163 parameterization (Monin and Obukhov 1954) was activated in the model. The Rapid Radiation  
164 Transfer Model (RRTM) and cloud-interactive shortwave (SW) radiation scheme from Dudhia  
165 (1989) were used. The planetary boundary layer scheme YSU-PBL, described by Noh et al. (2003),  
166 was used. At each time step, the calculated value of exchange coefficients and surface fluxes off  
167 the land or ocean surface by the atmospheric and land surface layer models (NOAH) passed to the  
168 YSU PBL. The grid-scale precipitation processes were represented by WRF single-moment  
169 (WSM) six-class moisture microphysics scheme by Hong and Lim (2006). The sub-grid scale  
170 convection and cloud detrainment were taken care by Kain (2004) cumulus scheme.

171 A terrain following ocean model ROMS with 40 sigma levels in the vertical used in this  
172 study. The ROMS model domain used with zonal and meridional grid resolutions of 6 km and 4 km,  
173 respectively. This high resolution in ROMS enables to resolve mesoscale eddies in the ocean. The vertical  
174 stretching parameters, i.e.  $\theta_s$  and  $\theta_b$  were set at 7 and 2, respectively. The northern lateral boundary in  
175 ROMS was closed by the Indian subcontinent. The ROMS model observed open lateral boundaries in the  
176 west, east, and south in the present configuration. The initial and lateral open boundary conditions were  
177 derived from the ‘Estimating the Circulation and Climate of the Ocean, Phase II’ (ECCO2) data  
178 (Menemenlis et al., 2005). The ocean bathymetry was provided by the 2-minute gridded global relief  
179 (ETOPO2) data (National Geophysical Data Center, 2006). There was no relaxation provided to the  
180 model for any correction in the temperature, salinity, and current fields. The Generic-Length-Scale  
181 (GLS) vertical mixing scheme parameterized as the K- $\epsilon$  model used (Warner et al., 2005). Tidal

182 boundary conditions were derived from the TPXO.7.2 (<ftp://ftp.oce.orst.edu/dist/tides/Global>)  
183 data, which includes phase and amplitude of the M2, S2, N2, K2, K1, O1, P1, MF, MM, M4, MS4,  
184 and MN4 tidal constituents along the east coast of India. The tidal input was interpolated from  
185 TPXO.7.2 grid to ROMS computational grid. The Shchepetkin boundary condition (Shchepetkin,  
186 2005) for the barotropic current was used at open lateral boundaries of the domain which allowed  
187 the free propagation of astronomical tide and wind-generated currents. The domains of atmosphere  
188 and ocean models are shown in Figure 2. The ROMS and SWAN were configured over the  
189 common model domain shown with the shaded bathymetry data in Figure 2. The two locations  
190 used for the time series analysis are marked with stars in Figure 2. These two locations, one on-  
191 track and another off-track, were selected in the vicinity of the region of maximum surface cooling  
192 and wind-stress during the passage of Phailin. The wave model SWAN was forced with the WRF  
193 computed wind field. We used 24 frequency (0.04 - 1.0 Hz) and 36 directional bands in SWAN model. The  
194 boundary conditions for SWAN were derived from the 'WaveWatch III' model. In the COAWST system,  
195 the free surface elevations (ELV) and current (CUR) simulated by ocean model ROMS are provided to the  
196 wave model SWAN. The Kirby and Chen (1998) formulation was used for the computation of currents.  
197 The surface wind applied to the SWAN model (provided by WRF) used in the Komen et al. (1984) closure  
198 model to transfer energy from the wind to the wave field. The baroclinic time step used in ROMS model  
199 was 5 s. The SWAN and WRF models used with time steps of 120 s and 60 s, respectively. The coupled  
200 modeling system allows the exchange of prognostic variables among the atmosphere, ocean, and  
201 wave models at every 600 s. The SST simulation at high spatial and temporal resolutions enables  
202 accurate heat fluxes at the air-sea interface and exchange of heat between the oceanic mixed layer  
203 and atmospheric boundary layer. The surface roughness parameter calculated in the WRF model  
204 based on Taylor and Yelland (2001), which involved parameters from the wave model.

205

### 206 **2.3. Methodology**

207 The baroclinic current component was calculated by subtracting the barotropic component  
208 from the mean current with a resolution of 2 m in the vertical. The power spectrum analysis was  
209 performed on the zonal and meridional baroclinic currents along the depth section of the selected  
210 locations by using periodogram method (Auger and Flandrin, 1995). The continuous wavelet  
211 transform using Morlet wavelet method (Lilly and Olhede, 2012) carried out to analyze the

212 temporal variability of the baroclinic current at a particular level of 14 m. The near-inertial  
 213 baroclinic velocities were filtered by the Butterworth 2<sup>nd</sup> order scheme for the cutoff frequency  
 214 range of 0.028 to 0.038 cycle hr<sup>-1</sup>. The filtered zonal ( $u_f$ ) and meridional ( $v_f$ ) inertial baroclinic  
 215 currents were used to calculate the inertial baroclinic kinetic energy ( $E_f$ ) in m<sup>2</sup> s<sup>-2</sup> and inertial shear  
 216 ( $S_f$ ) following Zhang et al. (2014) using equation (1).

$$217 \quad S_f^2 = \left(\frac{\partial u_f}{\partial z}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial v_f}{\partial z}\right)^2 \quad (1)$$

218 As the stratification is a measure of oceanic stability, the buoyancy frequency (N) was calculated  
 219 using equation (2)

$$220 \quad N^2 = -\frac{g}{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial z} \quad (2)$$

221 Where  $\rho$  is the density of seawater and  $g$  is the acceleration due to gravity.

222 The analysis of generation of the inertial oscillations and their dissipation was performed  
 223 on the basis of turbulent dissipation rate ( $\epsilon$ ) and turbulent eddy diffusivity ( $k_\rho$ ). These parameters  
 224 were calculated by using following formula (Mackinnon and Gregg, 2005; van der Lee and  
 225 Umlauf, 2011; Palmer et al., 2008; Osborn, 1980)

$$226 \quad \epsilon = \epsilon_0 \left(\frac{N}{N_0}\right) \left(\frac{S_{lf}}{S_0}\right) \quad (3)$$

$$227 \quad k_\rho = 0.2 \times \left(\frac{\epsilon}{N^2}\right) \quad (4)$$

228 Where  $S_{lf}$  is the low shear background velocity, Values of  $N_0 = S_0 = 3$  cycle per hour and  $\epsilon_0 =$   
 229  $10^{-8}$  W kg<sup>-1</sup>.

230

### 231 **3. Results and Discussion**

#### 232 **3.1. Validation of coupled model simulations**

233 The WRF model simulated track of Phailin was validated against the India Meteorological  
 234 Department (IMD) reported best-track of the cyclone. A comparison of the model-simulated track  
 235 with the IMD track is shown in Figure 3. Solid circles marked on both the tracks represent the 3-



236 hourly positions of the cyclone's center, as identified by the minimum surface pressure. The daily  
237 positions of the centre of Phailin are labelled with the date. WRF model in the coupled  
238 configuration does a fairly good job in simulating the track, translational speed, and landfall  
239 location of Phailin. The positional track error was about 40 km when compared to IMD track of  
240 Phailin. The stand-alone WRF model (not shown here) was found to simulate Phailin track almost  
241 similar to the WRF in the coupled configuration. However, the intensity (surface wind speed) in  
242 WRF stand-alone model was higher as compared to the coupled model. Figure 4 shows the  
243 comparison of stand-alone and coupled WRF model simulated mean sea level pressure (MSLP),  
244 wind speed, and wind direction at a buoy (BD09) location (marked with a blue circle in Figure 3).  
245 It can be inferred from the figure that stand-alone WRF simulated a larger pressure drop and higher  
246 wind speed as compared to buoy measurements. In addition to the cyclone-induced pressure drop  
247 during 10-12 October, the semidiurnal variations in MSLP were observed in the buoy  
248 measurements. These semidiurnal variations in MSLP, primarily due to the radiational forcing  
249 (Pugh, 1987), were not captured by the model over the cyclone-influenced region. The WRF in  
250 coupled model configuration shows better performance in simulating the surface wind speed and  
251 pressure during Phailin. The exchange of wave parameters with the WRF model in coupled  
252 configuration provides realistic sea surface roughness that resulted in improvement of surface wind  
253 speed.

254 The SST simulated by the ROMS model in coupled and stand-alone configurations was  
255 validated against the Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR) satellite data on each  
256 day for the period of Phailin passage over the BoB. The stand-alone WRF simulated parameters  
257 were used to provide surface boundary conditions in the stand-alone ROMS model. Figure 5 shows  
258 that the coupled model captures the SST spatial pattern reasonably well with about  $-0.5^{\circ}\text{C}$  bias in  
259 northwestern BoB on 13-14 October. This order of bias in SST could be resulted from the errors  
260 in initial and boundary conditions provided to the model. The maximum cooling of the sea surface  
261 observed on 13<sup>th</sup> October in the northwestern BoB in both, coupled model and observations. This  
262 post-cyclone cooling primarily associated with the cyclone-induced upwelling resulting from the  
263 surface divergence driven by the Ekman transport. Thus, the coupled model is reproducing  
264 dynamical processes and vertical velocities reasonably well. The stand-alone ROMS model  
265 overestimates the cyclone-induced cooling with  $-2.2^{\circ}\text{C}$  bias in SST on 13-14 October (Figure 5).

266 The stronger surface winds in stand-alone WRF cause the larger cold bias in stand-alone ROMS  
267 model.

268

### 269 **3.2. Cyclone-induced mixing**

270 The coupled atmosphere-ocean-wave simulation is an ideal tool to understand air-sea  
271 exchange of fluxes and their effects on the oceanic water column. Surface wind sets up currents  
272 on the surface as well as initiate mixing in the interior of the upper ocean. In order to examine the  
273 strength of mixing due to Phailin, the model simulated vertical temperature profile together with  
274 the surface wind speed, zonal and meridional components of current, and kinetic energy at the on-  
275 track and off-track locations are plotted in Figure 6. Comparatively stronger zonal and meridional  
276 currents observed at the off-track location than the on-track location on 12 October. The larger  
277 kinetic energy available at the off-track location leads to greater mixing resulting into a deeper  
278 mixed layer on 12 October as compared to the on-track location. The surface wind speed at the on-  
279 track location shows a typical temporal variation of a passing cyclone. The wind speed peaks,  
280 drops, and attains second peak as the cyclone approaches, crosses over, and depart the location.  
281 The surface currents forced by these large variations in wind speed and direction at the on-track  
282 location results into comparatively weaker magnitude than the off-shore location.

283 The thermocline, defined as the depth of maximum temperature gradient, is usually  
284 referred to a location dependent isotherm depth (Kessler, 1990; Wang et al., 2000). Over the BoB  
285 region, the depth of 23°C isotherm (D23) found to be an appropriate representative depth of the  
286 thermocline (Girishkumar et al., 2013). Based on the density criteria, we calculated the oceanic  
287 mixed layer depth (MLD) as the depth where density increased by  $0.125 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$  from its surface  
288 value. The inertial mixing introduced by the cyclone play central role in deepening of D23 and  
289 MLD on 12<sup>th</sup> October 2013. The warmer near-surface waters mixed downward when the cyclone  
290 crossed over this location. After the passage of cyclone, shoaling of D23 and MLD observed as a  
291 consequence of cyclone induced upwelling that entrain colder waters from the thermocline into  
292 the mixed layer. The temperature of the upper surface water (25 -30 m) decreased by 3.5°C from  
293 its maximum value of 28 °C after the landfall of the cyclone on 12-13<sup>th</sup> October at the off-shore  
294 location (Figure 6g). In response to the strong cyclonic winds, the D23 deepening by 40 m (from  
295 50 m to 90 m) was observed during 04-12 GMT on 12 October. At the same time, the MLD,

296 denoted by a thick black line in Figure 6g, deepens by about 15 m. On the other hand, the on-track  
297 location showed cooling at the surface only for a short time on 13 October and the deepening of  
298 D23 and MLD were 20 m and 10 m, respectively. To examine the role of cyclone induced mixing  
299 in modulating the thermohaline structure of upper ocean, we carried out further analysis on the  
300 coupled model simulations as discussed in the following sections.

301

### 302 **3.2.1. Kinetic energy distribution**

303 During the initial phase of Phailin, the zonal and meridional currents were primarily  
304 westward and southward, respectively (Figures 6c, 6d, 6h, and 6i). However, on and after 12<sup>th</sup>  
305 October when cyclone attains peak intensity and crosses over the location, alternative temporal  
306 sequences of westward/eastward in zonal current and southward/northward in meridional current  
307 were noticed in current profiles (Figure 6). The frequency of these reversals in zonal and  
308 meridional currents are recognized as near-inertial frequency generated from the storm at these  
309 locations. The direction and magnitude of currents represent a variability that corresponds to the  
310 presence of near-inertial oscillations at the selected locations. The kinetic energy (KE) of currents  
311 at various depths is a proxy of energy available in the water column that becomes conducive to  
312 turbulent and inertial mixing. Time series of KE associated with the barotropic and depth-averaged  
313 baroclinic components of current at the two point locations are illustrated in Figure 6e (on-track)  
314 and 6j (off-track). The KE associated with the baroclinic component found to be much higher than  
315 the barotropic component of current at both on-track and off-shore locations. The depth-averaged  
316 baroclinic and barotropic current components' KE also depict the impinging oscillatory behavior.  
317 The peak magnitude of KE in baroclinic and barotropic currents at the off-shore location found to  
318 be  $1.2 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$  and  $0.3 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$ , respectively on 12<sup>th</sup> October at 08:00 GMT. Whereas the  
319 magnitude of KE in baroclinic and barotropic currents at the on-shore location was smaller than  
320 the off-shore location during the peak intensity of cyclone. The peak magnitude of kinetic energy  
321 in baroclinic current at the off-track location was more than double to that of on-track location.  
322 The comparatively smaller magnitude of KE at the on-shore location could be associated with the  
323 rapid variations in wind speed and direction leading to the complex interaction between subsurface  
324 currents in the central region of the cyclone. It is worth noting that the time of peak KE in baroclinic  
325 currents coincide with the deepening of MLD and D23. Therefore, the KE generated in NIO is

326 responsible for sub-surface mixing that acts to deepen the mixed layer. The analysis suggests that  
327 energy available for mixing process in the water column was mostly confined to the baroclinic  
328 currents at various depths.

329

### 330 **3.2.2. Primary frequency and depth of mixing**

331 The power spectrum analysis was performed on the time series profiles at the two selected  
332 locations - to get a distribution of all frequencies operating in the mixing process during the passage  
333 of Phailin. The power spectrum analysis performed on the zonal and meridional components of  
334 the baroclinic current profile and shown in the Figure 7. It is clear from the figure that the tidal  
335 (M2, the semidiurnal component of tide) and near-inertial oscillations (f) are the two dominant  
336 frequencies on the surface during the cyclone Phailin. Under the influence of cyclonic winds, the  
337 NIO signal was stronger ( $0.84 \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-2}$ ) at the off-track than the on-track location. The depth  
338 penetration of NIO was up to 50 m and 35 m at the off-track and on-track location, respectively.  
339 The tidal frequency (M2) and inertial frequency (f) bands shown in the Figure 7 implies that the  
340 inertial oscillations were dominant over the tidal constituent in zonal and meridional baroclinic  
341 currents. At the off-track location, the largest power of the NIO was noticed at 14 m depth, but the  
342 tidal oscillations were almost absent in the vertical section of baroclinic current (Figure 7). This  
343 finding motivated us to analyze the significance and distribution of this sub-surface variability that  
344 resulted in an anomalous deepening of MLD. The highest power of this signal at the off-track  
345 location was associated within 0-15 m with the magnitude of  $0.84 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$  in zonal baroclinic current  
346 and within 0-38 m with the magnitude of  $0.76 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$  in the meridional baroclinic current. These  
347 signals, however, weaken with increasing depth and almost disappeared around 120 m depth.  
348 These NIO were the strongest signals at the 14 m depth in the presence of local wind stress that  
349 dominated the mixing compared to any other process. Other processes include the background  
350 flows, the presence of eddies, variations in sea surface height, non-linear wave-wave and wave-  
351 current interactions (Guan et al., 2014; Park and Watts, 2005).

352 The second order butterworth filter was applied to the baroclinic current components to get  
353 the strength of NIO in the frequency range of 0.028 to 0.038 cycles  $\text{h}^{-1}$  at the selected locations.  
354 The filtered baroclinic current was further utilized to calculate the filtered inertial baroclinic KE  
355 ( $E_f$  in  $\text{m}^2\text{s}^{-2}$ ). The daily profiles of baroclinic KE were analysed at the two selected locations and

356 shown in Figure 8. The peak baroclinic KE differs from  $0.14 \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-2}$  at the on-track to  $0.23 \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-2}$  at  
357 the off-track location on 12 October. As shown in Figures 6 and 7, the filtered baroclinic KE  
358 profiles (Figure 8) confirm the dominant presence of NIO at the off-track location as compared to  
359 the on-track location. The decay of NIO with the increasing depth was noticed at both the locations.  
360 However, the NIO baroclinic KE penetrated up to 80 m in case of off-track as compared to only  
361 50 m at the on-track location. The analysis, therefore, suggests that the NIO generated during the  
362 Phailin were more energetic at the selected off-track location, which was also the location of  
363 maximum surface cooling as noticed in Figure 5. Therefore, the further analysis in the subsequent  
364 sections is limited to the off-track location only. To analyze the time distribution of the strong  
365 NIO, wavelet transform analysis applied on the zonal and meridional baroclinic currents at 14 m  
366 depth. The Scalogram, shown in Figure 9, depicts the generation of NIO signal at the off-track  
367 location on 12<sup>th</sup> October that subsequently got strengthen and attains its peak value on the mid of  
368 13<sup>th</sup> October. The energy percentage of the meridional component was always lower than the zonal  
369 component. The peak values of energy percentage were found in the time periods between 1-1.3  
370 days.

### 371 **3.2.3. Role of downward propagation of energy**

372 To investigate the energy propagation from the surface to the interior layers of upper-  
373 ocean, we derived the rotary spectra (Gonella, 1972; Hayashi, 1979) of near-inertial wave numbers  
374 and shown in Figure10. The daily averaged vertical wave-number rotary spectra provides a clear  
375 picture of wind energy distribution in the sub-surface water. The anticyclonic spectrum ( $A_m$ ) is  
376 dominating over the cyclonic spectra ( $C_m$ ) for the entire duration of the cyclone. This feature  
377 indicates that the energy is propagating downward generated by these inertial oscillations. The  
378 magnitude of these oscillations increased from initial stage up to 12<sup>th</sup> October and remained at high  
379 energy density for the rest of the cyclone period. This downward directed energy initiated a process  
380 of mixing between the mixed layer and the thermocline. This energy helps to deepen the mixed  
381 layer against oceanic stratification by introducing a strong shear. The buoyancy of stratified ocean  
382 was overcome to some extent by the shear generated that assist in mixing process during the very  
383 severe cyclone. Alford and Gregg (2001) highlighted that in most of the cases, the energy of inertial  
384 oscillations potentially penetrates the mixed layer but suddenly drops down as it touches the  
385 thermocline. The energy dissipation mechanism studied in few other studies (Chant, 2001; Jacob,

386 2003). The 2-layer model described by Burchard and Rippeth (2009) illustrated the process of  
387 generation of sufficient shear to start mixing near the thermocline. Their simple model ignored the  
388 effect of the lateral density gradient, mixing, and advection. Burchard et al. (2009) mentioned four  
389 important parameters for the shear generation, i.e. surface wind stress ( $P_s S^2$ ), bed stress ( $-D_b S^2$ ),  
390 interfacial stress ( $-D_i S^2$ ), and barotropic flow ( $P_m S^2$ ). Utilizing simulations from our coupled  
391 atmosphere-ocean-wave model, we calculated individual terms as suggested by Burchard et al.  
392 (2009) and presented in Figure 10. Surface wind stress found to be the most dominating term in  
393 modulating the magnitude of bulk shear during the stormy event. Rest of the terms were relatively  
394 weaker and, therefore, contributing only marginally to the variability of the bulk shear.

395 To examine the generation and dissipation of these inertial oscillations, the shear generated  
396 by the near-inertial baroclinic current ( $S_f^2$ ) and turbulent kinetic energy dissipation rate ( $\epsilon$ ) were  
397 calculated and analyzed. The shear produced by inertial oscillations increased at 20-80 m depth  
398 and higher magnitude was associated with peak wind speed of cyclone (Figure 12a). This shear  
399 overcome the stratification (Figure 12b), represented by buoyancy frequency  $N^2$ , and played  
400 important role in mixing and deepening of the thermocline and mixed layer on 12<sup>th</sup> October. The  
401 value of kinetic energy dissipation rate ( $\epsilon$ ) increased from  $4 \times 10^{-14}$  to  $2.5 \times 10^{-13}$   $W\ kg^{-1}$  on  
402 approaching the thermocline (Figure 12c). The increase in  $\epsilon$  indicates the weakening of the shear  
403 generated by the inertial waves leading to the fast disappearance of these baroclinic instabilities  
404 from the region. The non-linear interaction between the NIO and internal tides together with the  
405 prevailing background currents cause rapid dissipation of kinetic energy in the thermocline. Guan  
406 et al. (2014) also reported an accelerated dampening of NIO associated with the wave-wave  
407 interactions between NIO and internal tides. The background currents found to modify the  
408 propagation of NIO (Park and Watts, 2005). The magnitude of the turbulent eddy diffusivity ( $K_\rho$ ),  
409 shown in Figure 12d, implies that the greater mixing takes place within the mixed layer where  
410  $K_\rho$  was high ( $6.3 \times 10^{-11}$  to  $1.2 \times 10^{-11}$   $m^2\ s^{-1}$ ). The daily averaged values of  $\epsilon$  and  $K_\rho$  were  $1.2 \times 10^{-13}$   
411  $W\ kg^{-1}$  and  $1.5 \times 10^{-10}$   $m^2\ s^{-1}$ , respectively on 12<sup>th</sup> October, which were higher as compared to  
412 the initial two days of the cyclonic event. Results from the present study, as well as the conclusions  
413 from the past studies, indicate that wave-current interaction, mesoscale processes, and wave-wave  
414 interaction can affect the process of downward mixing and cause the dissipation of inertial  
415 oscillations.

416

#### 417 **4. Conclusions**

418 Processes controlling the sub-surface mixing were evaluated under the high wind speed  
419 regime of the severe cyclonic storm Phailin over the BoB. A coupled atmosphere-ocean-wave  
420 (WRF+ROMS+SWAN) model as part of the COAWST modeling system was used to simulate  
421 atmospheric and oceanic conditions during the passage of Phailin cyclone. A detailed analysis of  
422 model-simulated data revealed interesting features of generation, propagation, and dissipation of  
423 kinetic energy in the upper oceanic water column. Deepening of the MLD and thermocline by 15  
424 m and 40 m, respectively were explained through the strong shear generated by the inertial  
425 oscillations that helped to overcome the stratification and initiate mixing at the base of the mixed  
426 layer. However, there was a rapid dissipation of the shear with increasing depth below the  
427 thermocline. The peak magnitude of kinetic energy in baroclinic and barotropic currents found to  
428 be  $1.2 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$  and  $0.3 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$ , respectively. The power spectrum analysis suggested a dominant  
429 frequency operative in sub-surface mixing that was associated with near-inertial oscillations. The  
430 peak strength of  $0.84 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$  in the zonal baroclinic current found at 14 m depth at a location in  
431 northwestern BoB. The baroclinic kinetic energy remained higher ( $> 0.03 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$ ) during 11-12  
432 October and decreased rapidly after that. The wave-number rotary spectra identified the downward  
433 propagation, from the surface up to the thermocline, of energy generated by inertial oscillations.  
434 A quantitative analysis of shear generated by the near-inertial baroclinic current showed higher  
435 shear generation at 20-80 m depth during peak surface winds. Analysis highlights that greater  
436 mixing within the mixed layer takes place where the eddy kinetic diffusivity was high ( $> 6 \times 10^{-11}$   
437  $\text{m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ). The turbulent kinetic energy dissipation rate increased from  $4 \times 10^{-14}$  to  $2.5 \times 10^{-13} \text{ W kg}^{-1}$  on  
438 approaching the thermocline that dampened mixing process further down into the thermocline  
439 layer. The wave-current interaction, mesoscale processes, and wave-wave interaction increased  
440 the dissipation rate of shear and, thereby, limited the downward mixing up to the thermocline. The  
441 coupled model found to be a useful tool to investigate air-sea interaction, kinetic energy  
442 propagation, and mixing in the upper-ocean. The results from this study highlight the importance  
443 of atmosphere-ocean coupling for a better understanding of oceanic response under the strong  
444 wind conditions. The proper representation of kinetic energy propagation and oceanic mixing have

445 applications in improving the intensity prediction of a cyclone, storm surge forecasting, and  
446 biological productivity.

447

448 **Author contribution:** KRP and TN performed model simulations and analyzed data. VP prepared  
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450

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461

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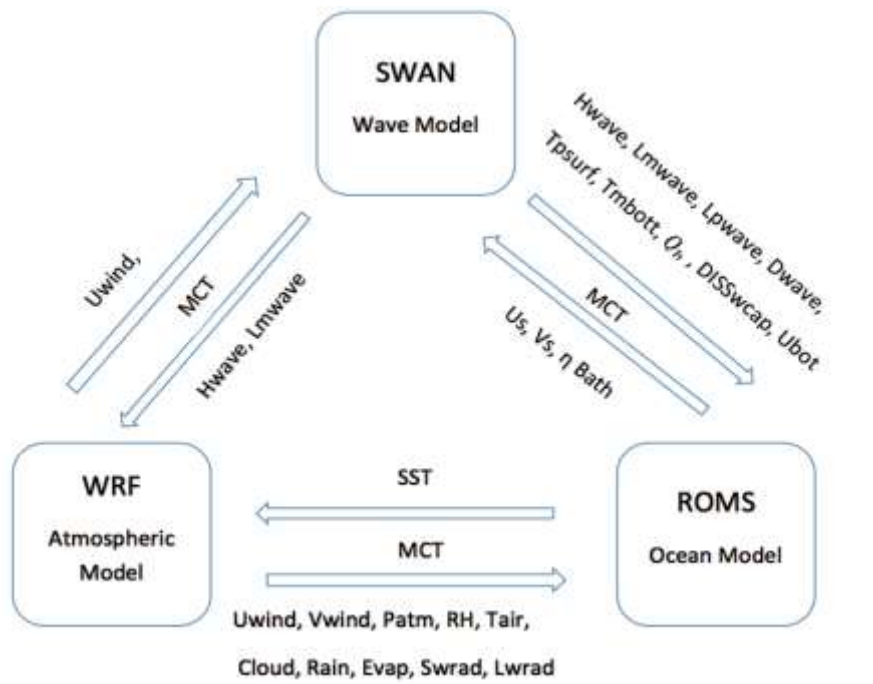
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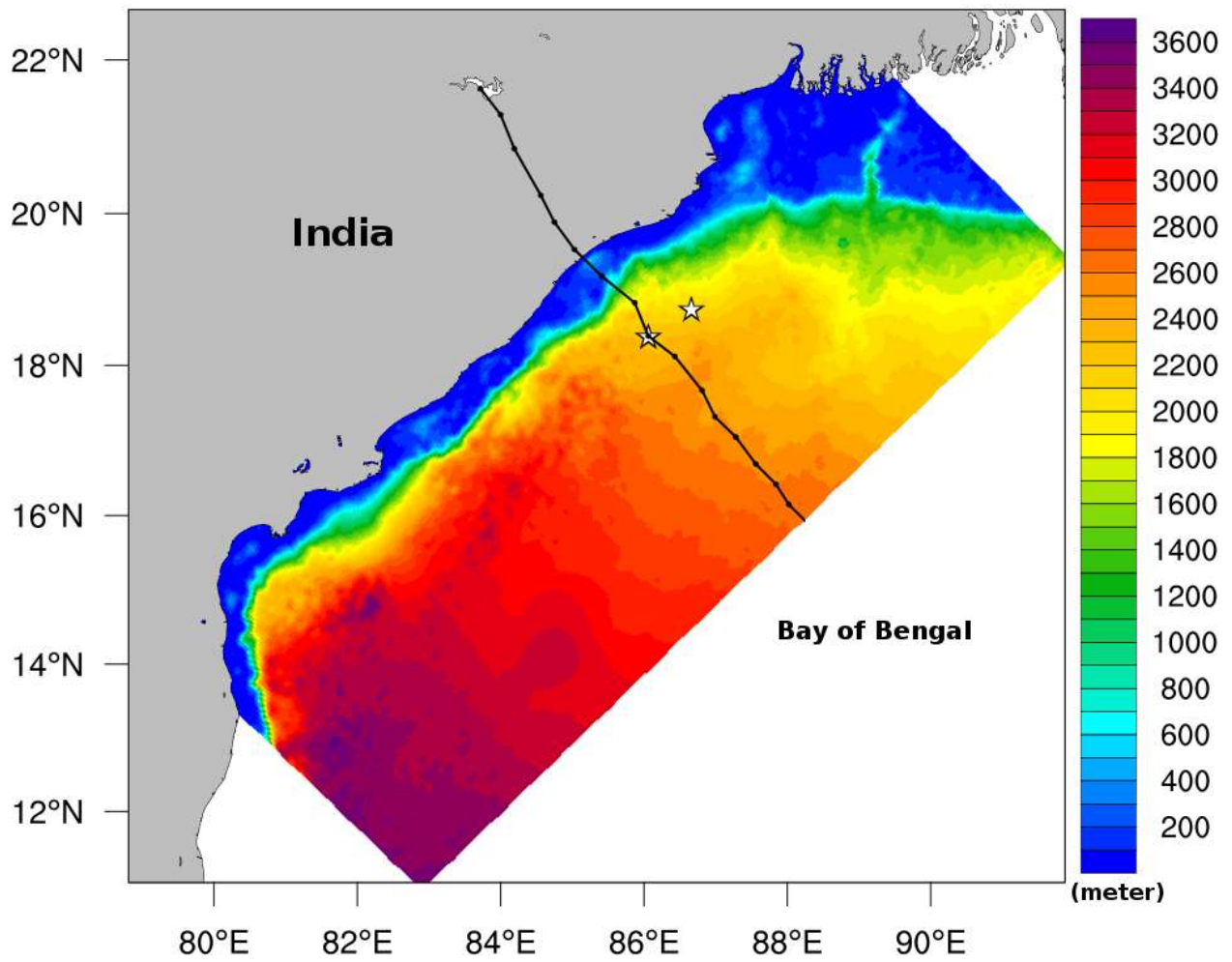
660 **Figure 1:-The block diagram showing the component models WRF, ROMS, and SWAN of the**  
661 **COAWST modeling system together with the variables exchanged among the models. MCT- the**  
662 **model coupling toolkit is a model coupler used in the COAWST system.**

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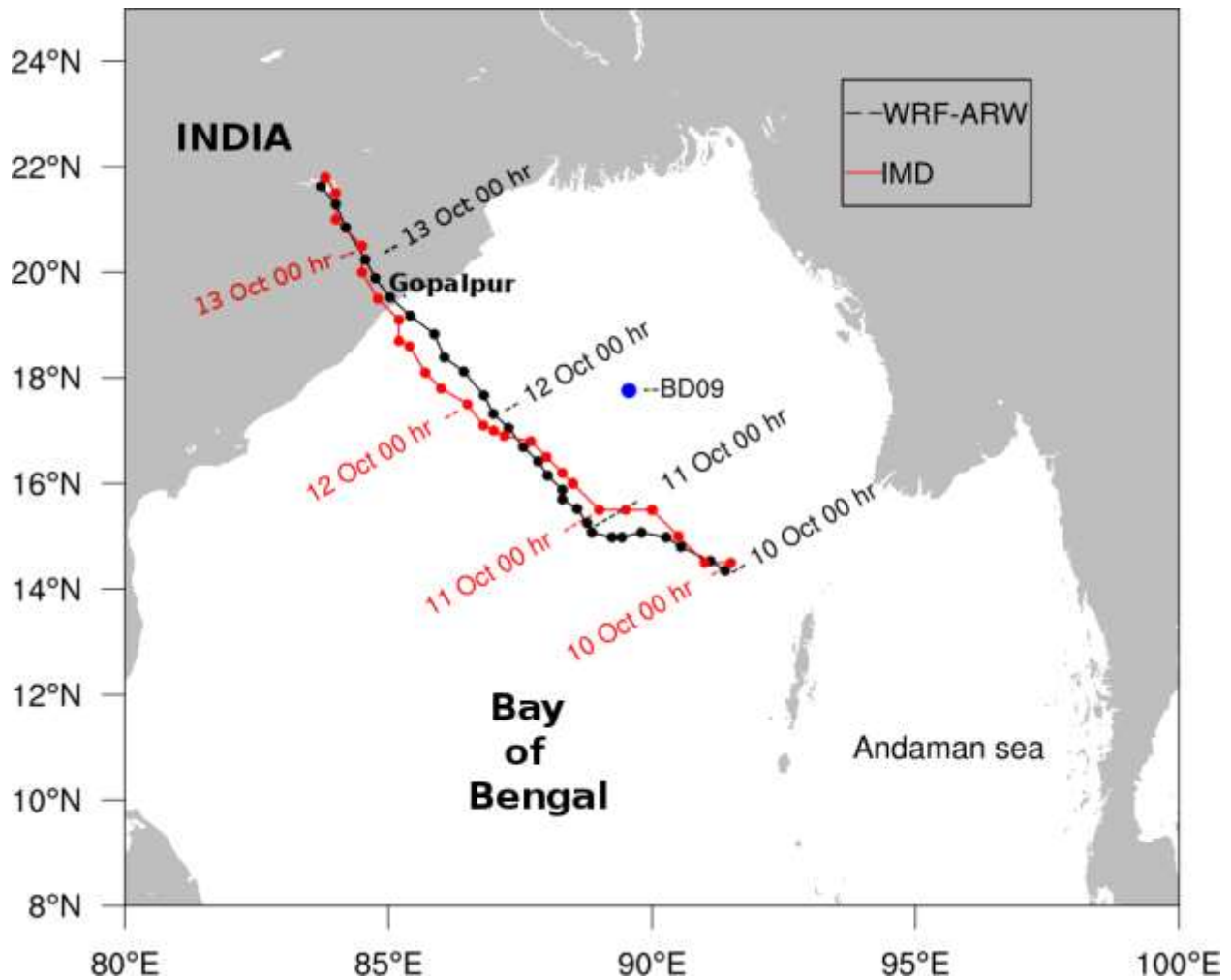
667 **Figure 2:-COAWST model domain (65°-105 °E, 1°-34 °N) overlaid with GEBCO bathymetry (m).**  
 668 **Locations used for time-series analysis are marked with stars.**

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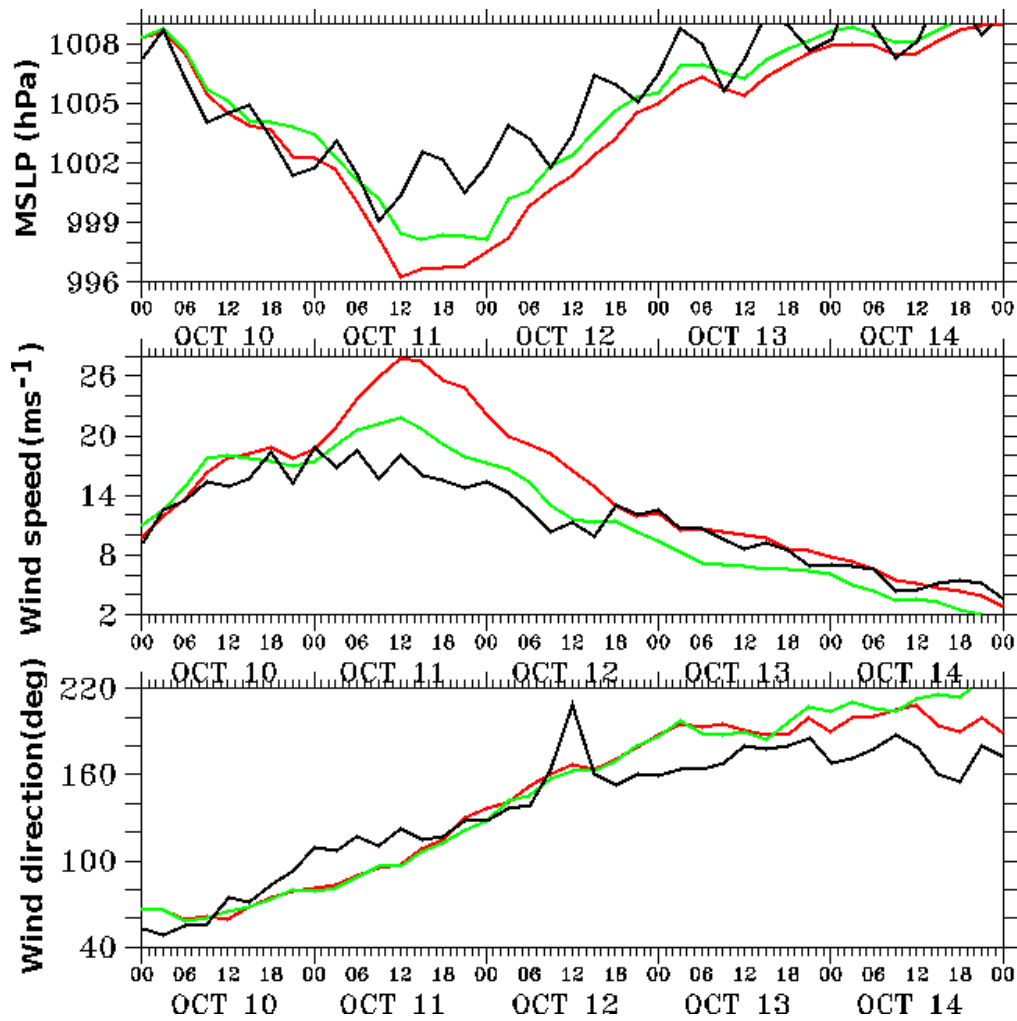
673

674 **Figure 3:-** Tracks of Phailin simulated by the coupled model (black) and IMD reported (red). The  
 675 3-hourly positions of the center of Phailin marked with solid circles and the daily position at 00 hr  
 676 are labelled with the dates. Location of buoy BD09 is marked with a blue circle.

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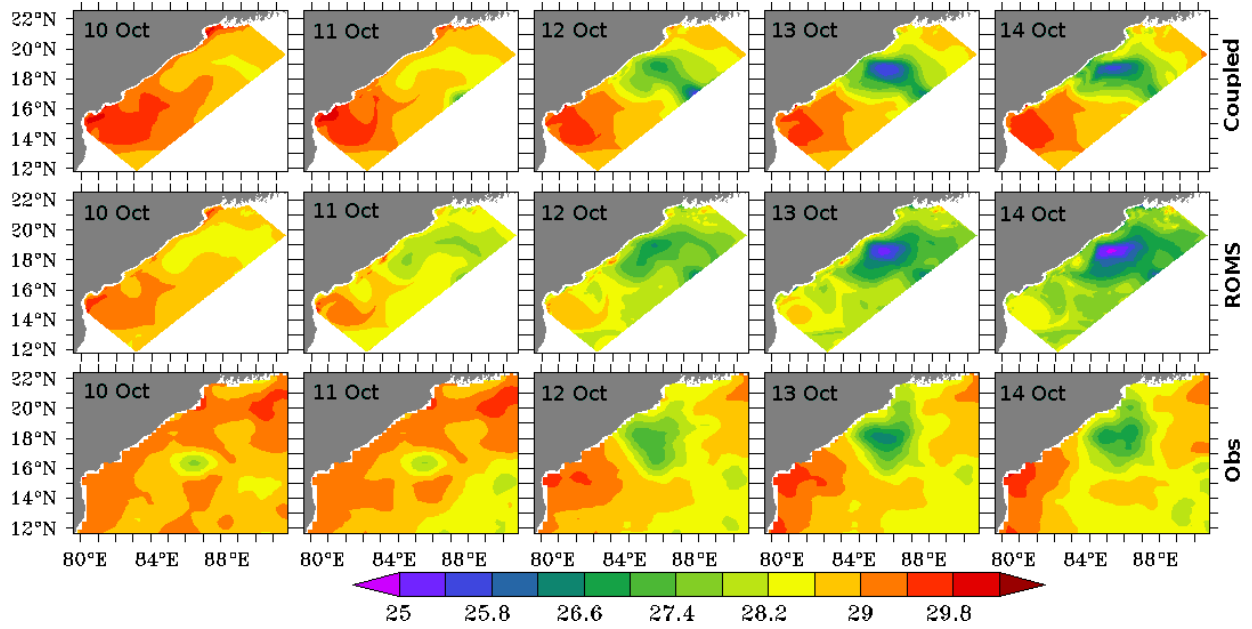


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681 Figure 4: Comparison of coupled model (green), stand-alone WRF model (red), and observations from a  
682 buoy BD09 (black) for the (top panel) mean sea level pressure (hPa), (middle panel) wind speed ( $\text{ms}^{-1}$ ),  
683 and (bottom panel) wind direction (degree).

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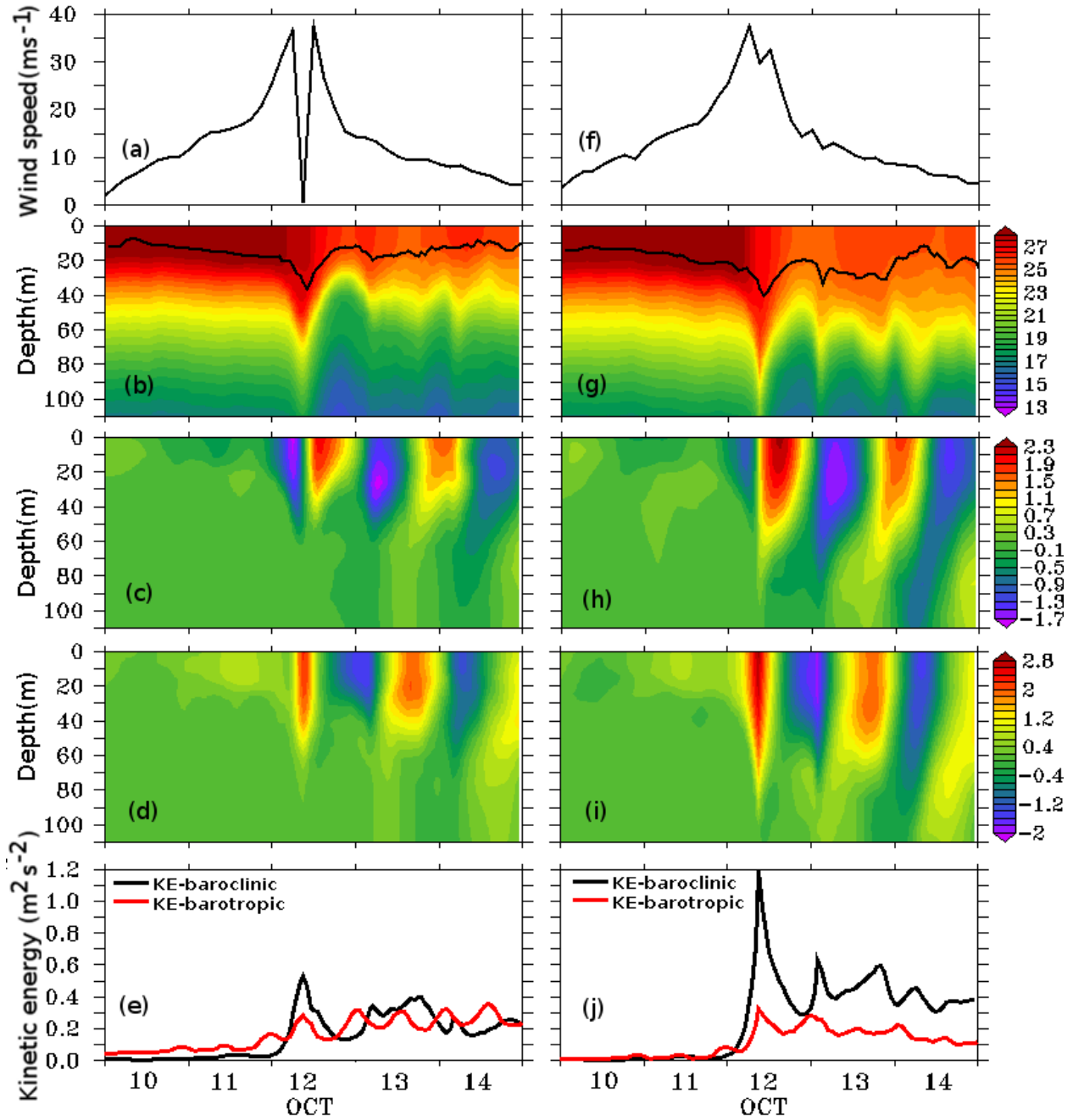


686

687 **Figure 5:- The daily averaged sea surface temperature (SST) in °C simulated by the coupled model**  
 688 **(upper panel), stand alone ROMS model (middle panel), and observed from AVHRR sensor on the**  
 689 **satellite (lower panel)..**

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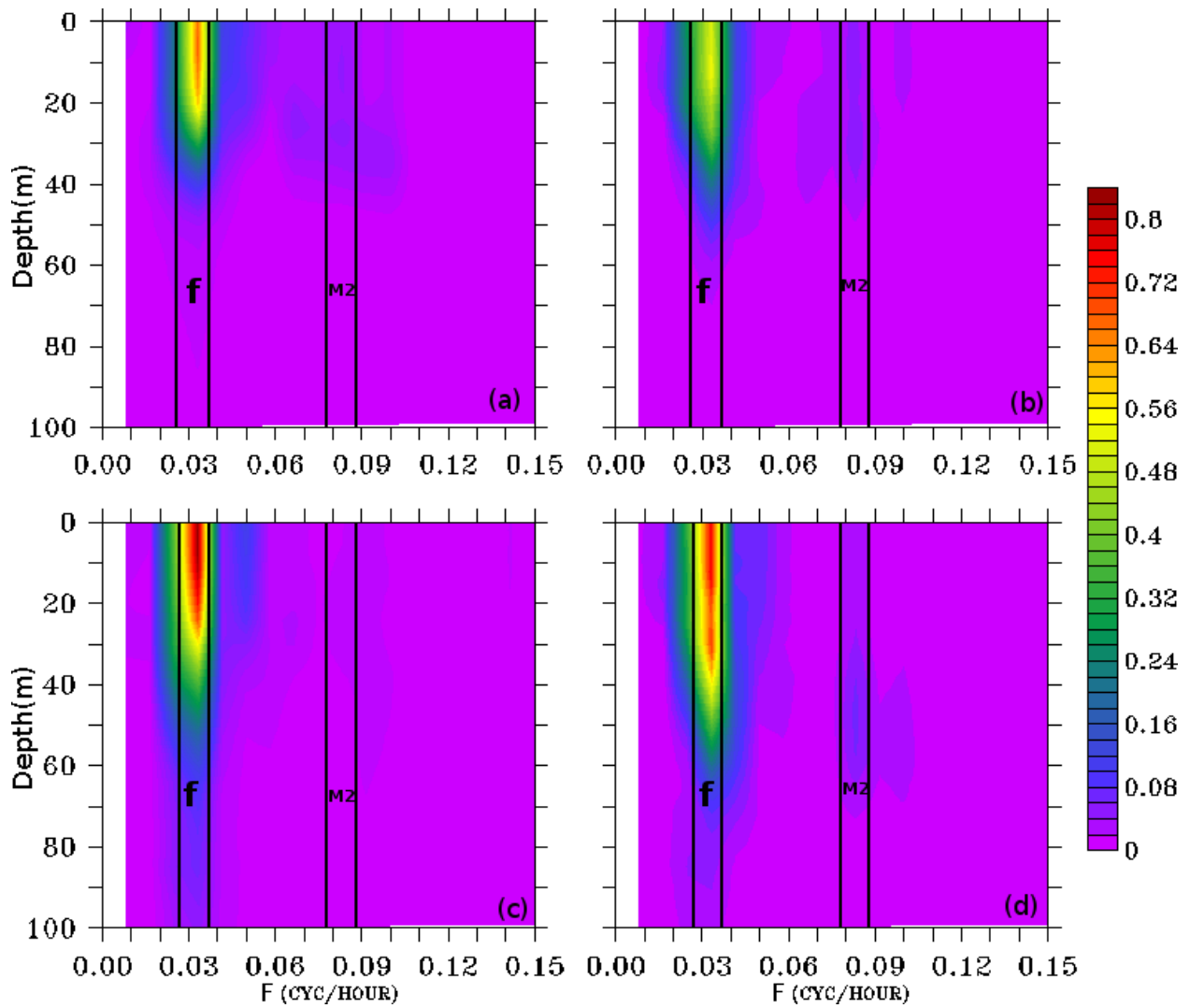
693 **Figure 6: Coupled model simulated and diagnosed variables at the on-track (left panel) and off-**  
 694 **track (right panel) locations. (a, f) Surface wind speed ( $\text{ms}^{-1}$ ), (b, g) temperature profile ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) and**  
 695 **mixed layer depth (black line), (c, h) u-component of current ( $\text{ms}^{-1}$ ), (d, i) v-component of current**  
 696 **( $\text{ms}^{-1}$ ), (e, j) Kinetic energy of baroclinic ( $\text{m}^2\text{s}^{-2}$ ) and barotropic ( $\times 10^{-2} \text{m}^2\text{s}^{-2}$ ) current.**

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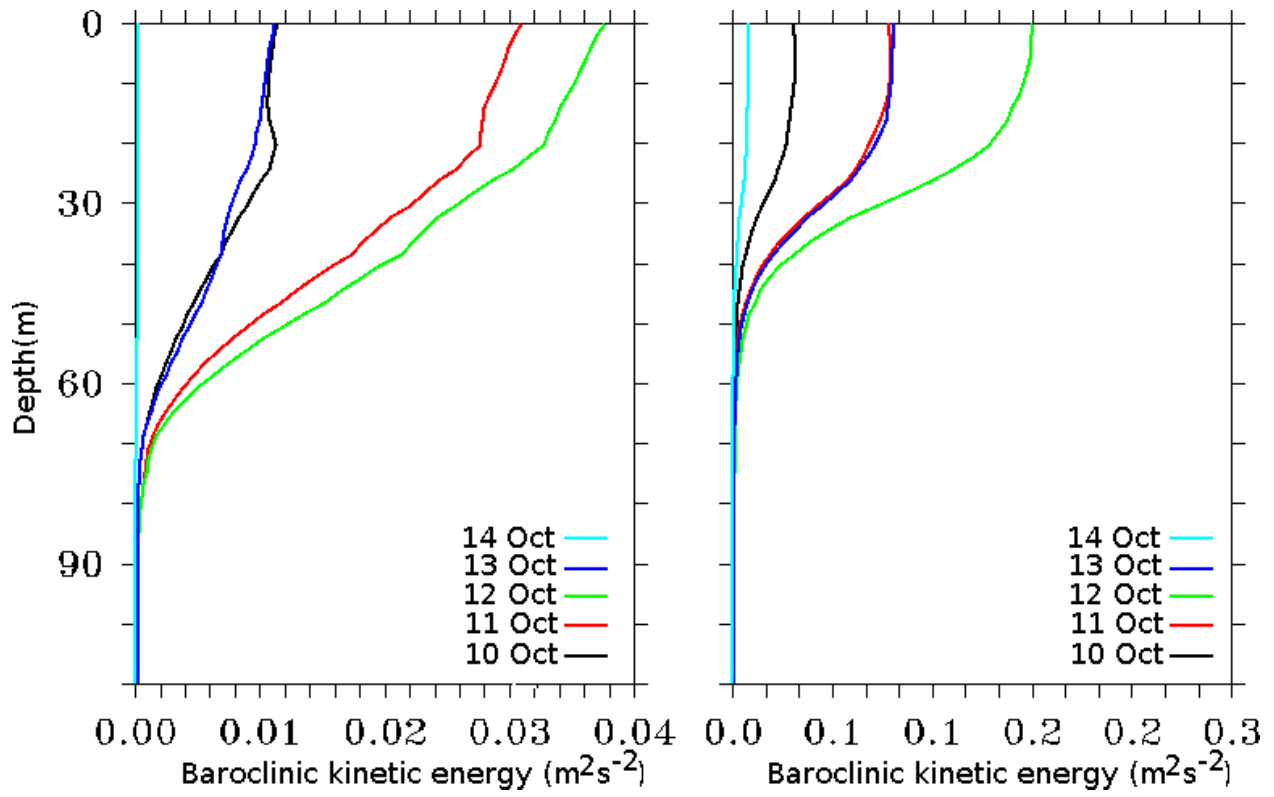
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702 **Figure 7:- The power spectrum analysis ( $m^2s^{-1}$ ) performed on the simulation period at the on-track**  
703 **(upper panel) and off-track (lower panel) locations for (a, c) baroclinic zonal current and (b, d)**  
704 **baroclinic meridional current.**

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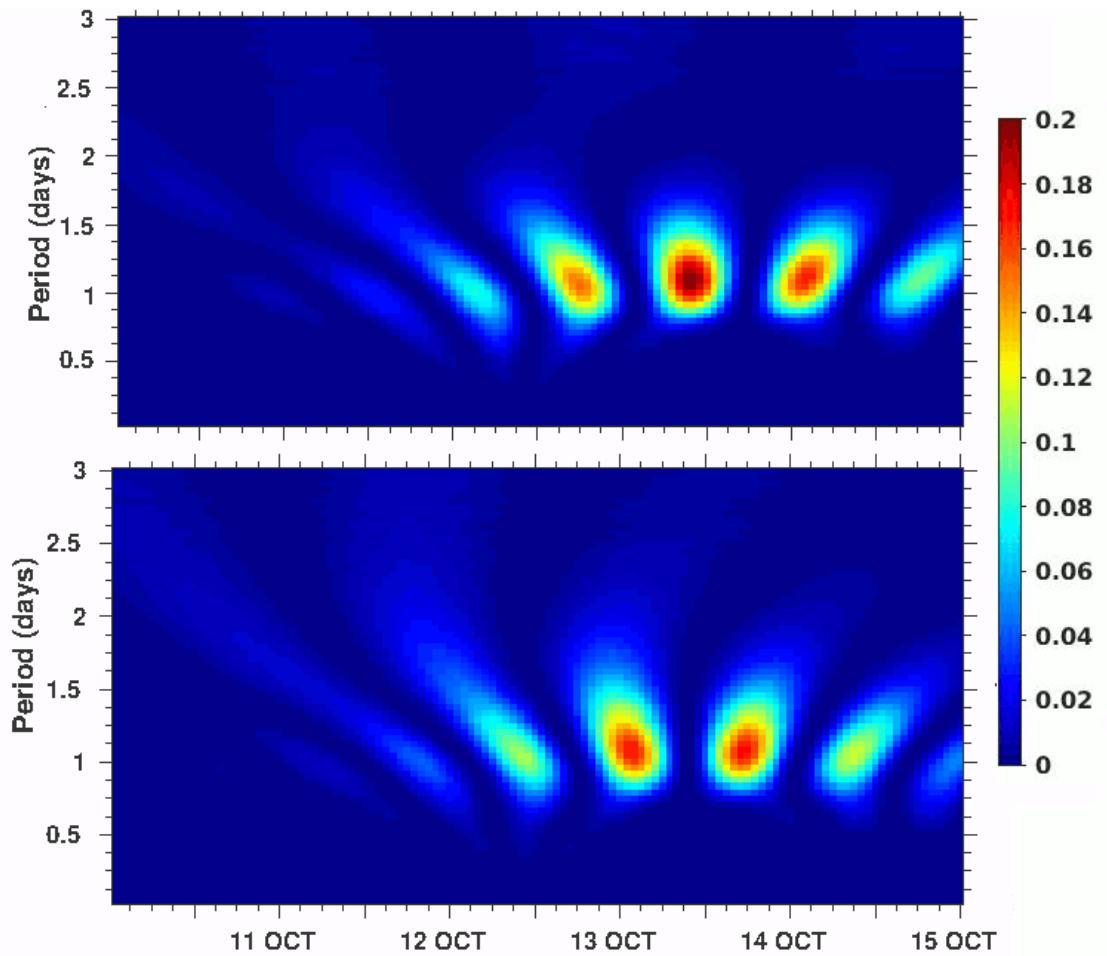


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707 **Figure 8: Daily averaged baroclinic kinetic energy (m<sup>2</sup>s<sup>-2</sup>) profile at the on-track (left) and off-track**  
 708 **(right) locations as marked with stars in Figure 2.**

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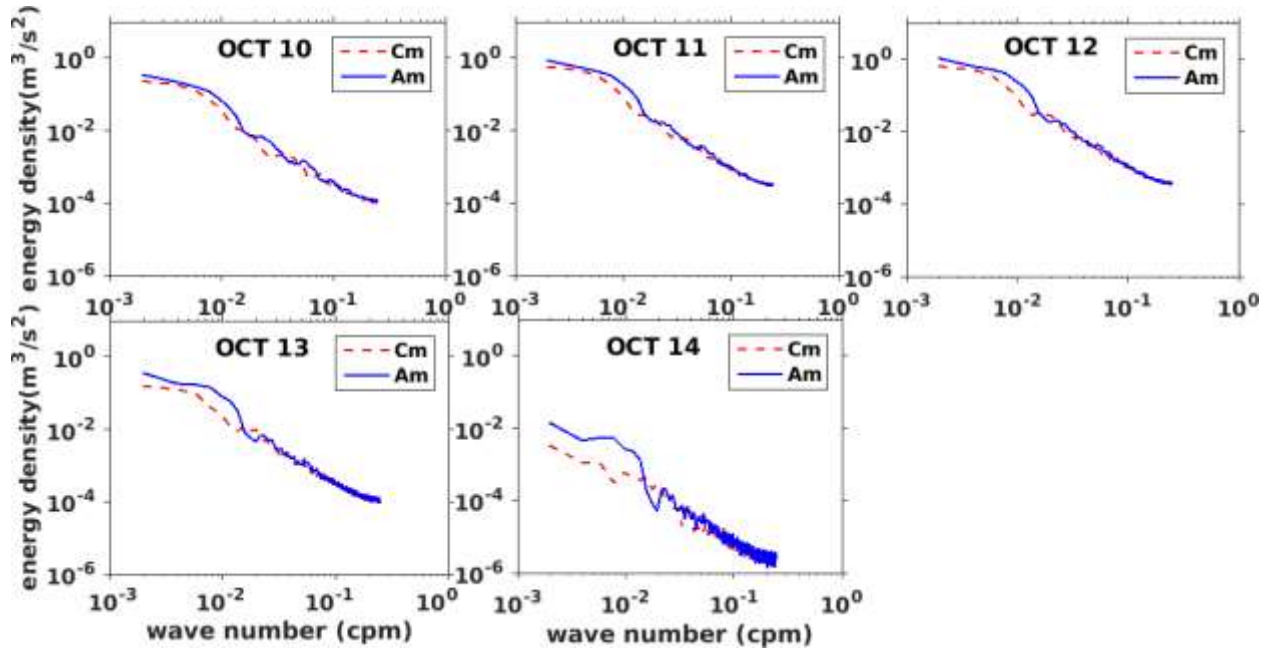
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 712 **Figure 9:- The scalogram in percentage at 14 m depth by continuous wavelet transform (CWT)**  
 713 **method. Wavelet scalogram shown for the zonal baroclinic current (upper panel) and for the**  
 714 **meridional baroclinic current (lower panel).**

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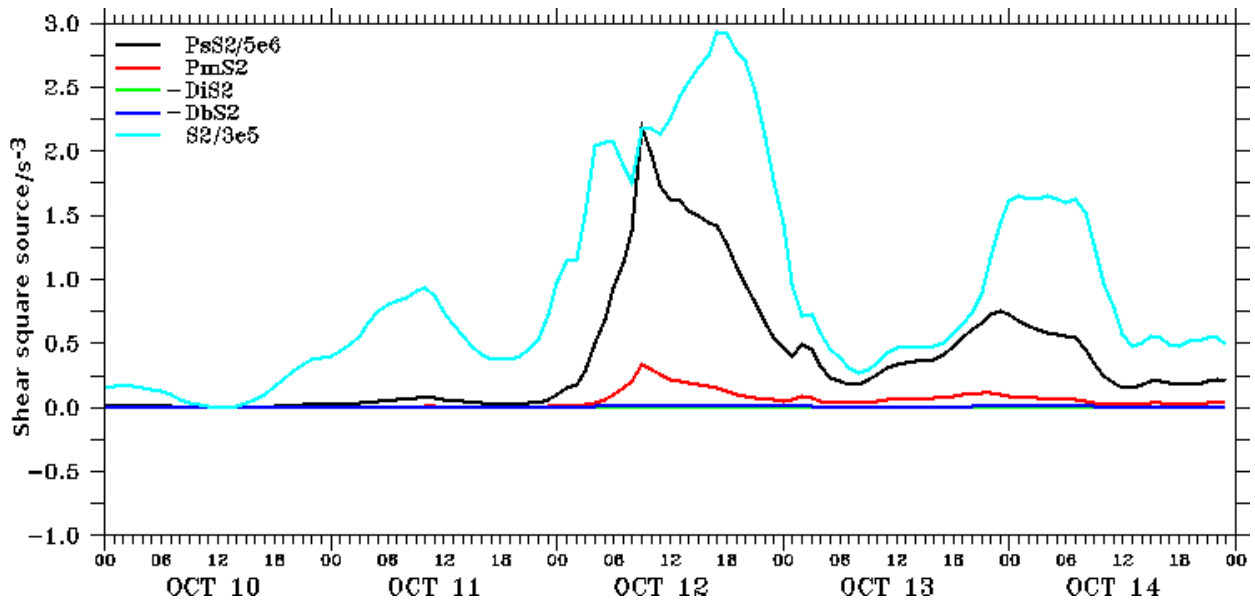




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723 **Figure 10:-** The daily averaged vertical wave-number rotary spectra of near inertial oscillations.  
 724 The anticyclonic and cyclonic spectra are represented in blue and dotted red lines respectively.

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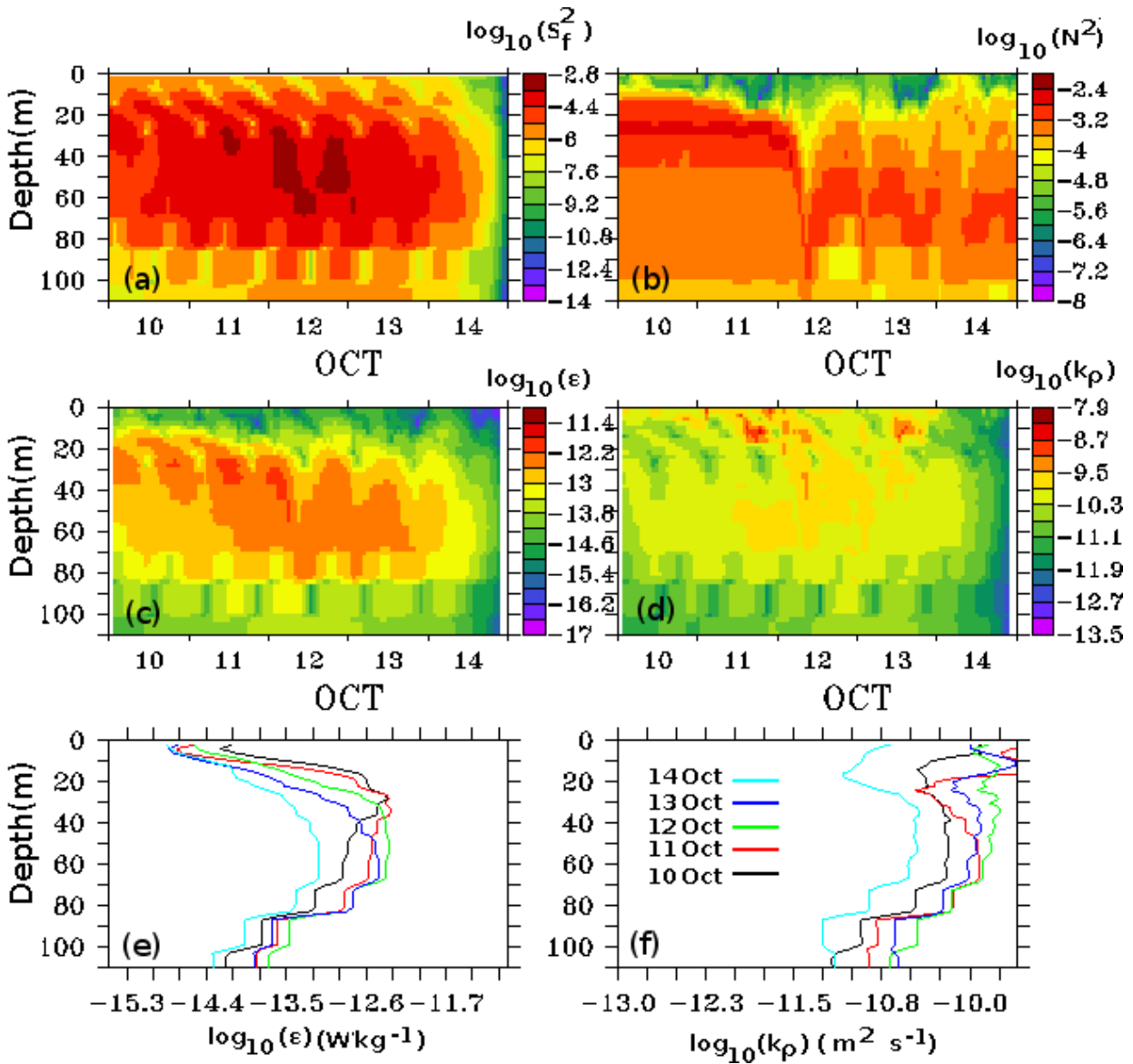


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727 **Figure 11:-** The model simulated bulk properties at the selected point location. The vertical shear  
 728 square axis is multiplied with a factor of  $10^{-6}$ . The magnitude of bulk shear squared  $S^2$  (cyan color),  
 729 surface wind stress  $P_s S^2$  (black color), barotropic effect  $P_m S^2$  (red color), bottom stress  $-D_b S^2$  (blue  
 730 color), interfacial friction  $-D_i S^2$  (green color)

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734 **Figure 12:- Profiles of (a) velocity shear  $\log_{10}(S^2)$ , (b) buoyancy frequency  $\log_{10}(N^2)$ , (c) turbulent**  
 735 **kinetic energy dissipation rate  $\log_{10}(\epsilon)$ , (d) turbulent eddy diffusivity  $\log_{10}(K\rho)$ , (e) and (f) are daily**  
 736 **averaged turbulent kinetic energy dissipation rate and turbulent eddy diffusivity respectively**

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