1	Effects of high-frequency and balanced motions on Lagrangian pair
2	dispersion at the ocean surface
3	Michael Maalouly ^a , Apolline Dekens ^a , Guillaume Lapeyre ^b , Aurélien Luigi Serge Ponte ^c ,
4	Stefano Berti ^a
5	^a Univ. Lille, ULR 7512 - Unité de Mécanique de Lille Joseph Boussinesq (UML), F-59000 Lille,
6	France
7	^b LMD/IPSL, CNRS, Ecole Normale Supérieure, PSL Université, 75005 Paris, France
8	^c Laboratoire d'Océanographie Physique et Spatiale, CNRS, IFREMER, IRD, IUEM, Université
9	de Brest, Brest, France

¹⁰ *Corresponding author*: Stefano Berti, stefano.berti@polytech-lille.fr

ABSTRACT: We investigate the properties of relative dispersion of Lagrangian particles in a 11 global-ocean simulation resolving both inertia-gravity waves (IGW) and meso and submesoscale 12 (M/SM) turbulence. More specifically, we test if the dispersion laws depend on the shape of the 13 Eulerian kinetic energy spectrum, as predicted from quasi-geostrophic turbulence theory. To this 14 end, we focus on two areas, in the Kuroshio Extension and in the Gulf Stream, for which the 15 relative importance of IGW compared to M/SM vary in summer and winter. In winter, Lagrangian 16 statistical indicators return a picture in overall agreement with the shape of the kinetic energy 17 spectrum. Conversely, in summer, when submesoscales are less energetic and higher-frequency 18 internal waves gain importance, the expected relations between dispersion properties and spectra 19 do not seem to hold. This apparent discrepancy is explained by decomposing the flow into nearly-20 balanced motions and internal gravity waves, and showing that the latter dominate the kinetic energy 21 spectrum at small scales. Our results are consistent with the hypothesis that high-frequency IGWs 22 do not impact relative dispersion, which is then controlled by the nearly-balanced, mainly rotational, 23 flow component at larger scales. These results highlight that geostrophic velocities derived from 24 wide-swath altimeters, such as SWOT, may present limits when estimating surface dispersion, and 25 that current measuring satellite missions may provide the complementary information to do so. 26

27 1. Introduction

Ocean flows at lengthscales smaller than few hundreds of kilometers are composed of a rich 28 variety of dynamical structures, e.g. fronts, eddies and internal gravity waves (IGW). On one 29 hand, fronts and eddies constitute the so-called meso and submesoscales (M/SM), which evolve 30 over timescales of days to weeks. On the other, IGWs are associated with more rapid (of the 31 order of hours) temporal dynamics, which tend to interact with, and dampen, lower-frequency 32 balanced motions (Barkan et al. 2017). Understanding these interactions is important, for instance 33 for the interpretation and exploitation of new, high-resolution satellite-altimetry data (Uchida et al. 34 2024) or the characterization of material transport at fine scales (Holmes-Cerfon et al. 2013; 35 Hernández-Dueñas et al. 2021). 36

Although high-frequency motions, such as internal tides and gravity waves, are often considered 37 to weakly contribute to the transport of tracers (see, e.g., Beron-Vera and LaCasce 2016), their effect 38 on the dispersion of Lagrangian drifters remains poorly explored (Lumpkin et al. 2017), and the 39 results do not seem completely conclusive. Relying on high-resolution numerical simulations in the 40 south Atlantic ocean, it was argued that high-frequency motions considerably increase Lagrangian 41 diffusivity, particularly at small scales (Sinha et al. 2019). However, Wang et al. (2018), using 42 a non-hydrostatic numerical model representing both an upper mixed layer and internal waves, 43 showed that while high-frequency motions may have an effect on pair dispersion rates, the details 44 of this effect depend on the specific features of the M/SM dynamics. 45

Beyond their interest for material transport, Lagrangian studies also reveal useful to characterize 46 the submesoscales, as shown in many regions of the world ocean. The link between Lagrangian 47 measurements and statistical properties, as those quantified by the kinetic energy spectrum of the 48 underlying flow, is then established through different bridging relations, obtained dimensionally 49 in the framework of classical fluid-turbulence theory. The utility of this approach for quasi-50 geostrophic (QG) meso and submesoscale dynamics is well documented (LaCasce 2008; Berti 51 et al. 2011; Poje et al. 2014; Corrado et al. 2017; Foussard et al. 2017). Assessing whether high-52 frequency motions affect particle dispersion regimes, and their possible impact on the validity of 53 these bridging relations, thus remains a question of prime scientific interest. 54

⁵⁵ If a possible limitation of Lagrangian data is their moderately sparse coverage, a global view of ⁵⁶ ocean-surface currents can be achieved through satellite-altimetry measurements. Conventional

instruments, however, were limited in spatial resolution to O(100) km (Morrow et al. 2023), which 57 has not permitted, so far, the observation of structures in the submesoscale range, or even in the 58 lower end of the mesoscale one. New-generation, wide-swath altimetry is pushing this limit to much 59 smaller scales. Indeed, the Surface Water and Ocean Topography (SWOT) mission has recently 60 started to provide sea surface height (SSH) data at an unprecedented resolution of (5-10) km (Fu 61 et al. 2024). While this represents a major advancement in our ability to access the fine-scale range, 62 the proper exploitation of these data also raises several important challenges. For instance, oceanic 63 currents are retrieved from SSH assuming geostrophic balance. However the latter is not granted 64 to hold at the smallest resolved scales, where ageostrophic and high-frequency motions may be 65 expected to have a non-negligible dynamical signature (Yu et al. 2021). Determining with what 66 accuracy (in terms of spatial scales) the velocity fields computed from SSH represent real surface 67 currents, and their turbulent properties, then seems crucial. An interesting approach to address this 68 point is to examine Lagrangian statistics, which reflect the temporal evolution of fluid parcels in 69 the flow and hence sample processes acting on different timescales. This can be done, for instance, 70 by comparing Lagrangian statistics from synthetic drifters advected by SWOT-derived velocities 71 and real drifters (Tranchant et al. 2025). Another avenue of efforts, which is the one undertaken 72 here, is to resort to high-resolution numerical simulations and to compare Lagrangian dispersion 73 properties with their predictions from QG turbulence theory. In this case, the availability of the 74 velocity field at high spatial and temporal resolution is expected to ease correlating Lagrangian 75 diagnostics and Eulerian flow properties and, in the end, to disentangle contributions from the 76 different physical processes at play. 77

In this work, we use high-resolution velocity fields from the MITgcm LLC4320 simulation (Forget 78 et al. 2015), resolving submesoscales and accounting for IGWs, to advect Lagrangian tracer 79 particles. We then characterize relative-dispersion statistics using different types of indicators, 80 namely computed either at fixed time or at fixed lengthscale. More specifically, we aim to 81 assess whether and how high-frequency motions impact the behavior of Lagrangian diagnostics, 82 particularly testing the relation of the latter with the spectral kinetic energy of the Eulerian flow. 83 We focus on the Kuroshio Extension region and examine the seasonal dependence of the results. 84 As winter and summer lead to distinct features in terms of meso and submesoscale energetics, this 85 will allow us to explore the sensitivity of the difference in intensity of M/SM motions compared to 86

⁸⁷ IGWs. In order to test the generality of our main results, we then perform the same analysis also
 ⁸⁸ in another energetic region, close to the Gulf Stream.

This study extends previous ones (Maalouly et al. 2023, 2024), conducted in the framework of the idealized SQG⁺¹ model, a quasi-geostrophic model including next-order corrections in the Rossby number (Lapeyre 2017; Hakim et al. 2002). Those studies showed that including the ageostrophic flow component into particle advection has quite marginal effects on relative dispersion over long times (Maalouly et al. 2023, 2024). However, by construction, the SQG⁺¹ model only accounts for weak deviations from geostrophic balance and, therefore, does not include internal waves, which motivates the present investigation.

This article is organized as follows. Section 2 describes LLC4320 simulation and the setup of the Lagrangian-advection numerical experiments. Section 3 provides a characterization of the flow properties from Eulerian diagnostics in Kuroshio Extension. In Sec. 4 we examine the related Lagrangian pair-dispersion statistics. We then interpret these results through a decomposition of fluid motions into their IGW and M/SM components, relying on the computation of frequencywavenumber energy spectra, in Sec.5. A discussion on the comparison with the results in the Gulf Stream region is provided in Sec. 6 and conclusions are drawn in Sec. 7.

2. Numerical simulations

To explore the impact of high-frequency motions and submesoscales on Lagrangian dispersion, 104 we use data from the global-ocean LLC4320 simulation (Forget et al. 2015) to simulate trajectories 105 of synthetic particles. LLC4320 was performed using MITgcm (Marshall et al. 1997) with a 106 horizontal spatial resolution of $1/48^\circ$, corresponding ≈ 0.75 km in polar regions to ≈ 2.2 km 107 in equatorial ones. This resolution allows to resolve mesoscale dynamics and, to good extent, 108 submesoscale ones. The model is tidally forced at different frequencies and was shown to reproduce 109 diurnal and semidiurnal tidal variances with moderate biases compared to surface drifters (Yu et al. 110 2019; Arbic et al. 2022; Caspar-Cohen et al. 2025). The output fields are available at hourly time 111 intervals for a 1-year period spanning from September 13, 2011 to November 15, 2012. The model 112 capabilities to realistically account for the above mentioned physical processes were extensively 113 discussed in previous studies (see, e.g., Torres et al. 2018, 2022; Yu et al. 2019, 2021). Here we focus 114 on the dynamics of Lagrangian tracer particles at the ocean surface. Particle advection is performed 115

offline by means of the Python OceanParcels package (Lange and van Sebille 2017; Zhang et al.
2024), using the surface velocity fields extracted from LLC4320 simulation. The Lagrangian
evolution equations are integrated using a fourth-order Runge-Kutta method and TRACMASS in
space of the velocity field at particle positions (Döös et al. 2017; Delandmeter and Van Sebille
2019).

In the following, we will examine two regions of the ocean (Kuroshio Extension and Gulf Stream). For each region, inside a square of side ≈ 500 km (as in Fig. 1a,c), N = 3600 particles are initially uniformly distributed in triplets, each arranged in an equilateral triangle inscribed within a circle of radius 1 km. After their seeding, particles are tracked in time for a 30-day period during both February and August 2012, with hourly temporal resolution. For the statistical analysis of the relative dispersion process we consider only original pairs, meaning having a prescribed separation distance R_0 at the seeding time.

3. Eulerian flow properties of the Kuroshio Extension region

We start our analysis by presenting the region we are focusing on. Figure 1 shows sea surface 129 temperature (SST) in both February (top row) and August (bottom row), at the beginning (left) and 130 at the end (right) of the particle advection experiments. In both seasons, the region encompasses 131 the Kuroshio current, as seen through its associated large-scale SST gradient with warm (cold) 132 waters on the equatorward (poleward) side of the jet. In February, large meanders of the SST front 133 indicate the presence of mesoscale structures, with a typical size of 150 to 400 km (Fig. 1a,b). In 134 addition, a wealth a smaller eddies of O(10) km size, due to submesoscale instabilities, can also 135 be seen along the large-scale SST front. On the contrary, in August (Fig. 1c,d) the latter fine scales 136 seem to fade out. These observations are confirmed by inspection of relative-vorticity snapshots, 137 shown in Fig. 2 at mid February and August (i.e. half the total Lagrangian integration time). While 138 in winter a dense population of submesoscale eddies and filaments is clearly visible, to the point 139 that larger scales are hardly detectable, in summer vorticity is mainly concentrated at mesoscales 140 and has a smoother, much more filamentary structure. Note, too, the weaker SST gradients in 141 August compared to February as well as smaller values of relative vorticity. Such seasonality is 142 consistent with past numerical (Sasaki et al. 2014) and observational studies (Callies et al. 2015). 143



FIG. 1. Snapshots of the SST field in the Kuroshio Extension region in February (top line) and in August (bottom line) at the beginning (a, c) and at the end (b, d) of the 30-day long Lagrangian experiments. The corresponding particle distributions are shown with black dots. The green rectangles in (b, d) indicate the largest area covered by particles on the latest day of the month.

Since we aim at understanding how the behaviors of Lagrangian-dispersion indicators depend on the Eulerian flow properties, it is important to properly select the spatial domain over which the latter are computed. Considering that particles spread in time and distribute over a wider region than the one in which they were released (see Fig. 1), for each month we decided to choose an area including all the 3600 particles at the end of the Lagrangian-tracking experiment (green rectangles in Fig. 1b and Fig. 1d). This ensures that Eulerian statistics reflect the properties of the velocity field sampled by Lagrangian tracers.

The wavenumber spectra of horizontal kinetic energy, averaged in time over February and August are presented in Fig. 3. They confirm that the flow in February is more energetic than in August, particularly at scales smaller than 100 km. The winter kinetic energy spectrum scales approximately as $E(k) \sim k^{-2}$, as often observed in the presence of energetic submesoscales (Klein et al. 2008; Capet et al. 2008), over slightly more than a decade of wavenumbers. Note, however, that due to the



FIG. 2. Snapshots of relative vorticity, normalized by the Coriolis parameter, ζ/f in the Kuroshio Extension region, for February 15, 2012 (a) and August 15, 2012 (b).

¹⁶² non-negligible uncertainties on E(k), particularly at small scales, the spectral slope β from a fit [for ¹⁶³ k between O(10) km and O(100) km] varies in the range $5/3 \le \beta \le 2.4$, depending on the specific ¹⁶⁴ extension of the fitting range. The summer spectrum is characterized by smaller uncertainties



FIG. 3. Wavenumber spectra of horizontal kinetic energy, averaged over February (blue squares) and August (red dots), in the Kuroshio Extension region. For each month, the shaded areas represent the temporal variability of the spectrum. The reference lines k^{-2} and $k^{-2.3}$ are also shown for comparison.

(except at the largest scales), and its scaling behavior is close to $k^{-2.3}$ over a wavenumber range of comparable width.

4. Lagrangian pair-dispersion statistics in Kuroshio Extension

After having described the main features of the Eulerian flow, we present in this section the results about Lagrangian pair-dispersion statistics. We recall that we consider only original pairs, with an initial separation distance $R_0 \approx 3.48$ km. Distances between particles at different times are computed on the sphere using Haversine formula. Uncertainties on the considered indicators are estimated as the 95% confidence interval of the bootstrapped mean of 1000 samples.

A natural approach to analyze pair-separation processes is to measure the mean-square relative displacement between two particles as a function of time, i.e. relative dispersion

$$\langle R^2(t) \rangle = \langle |\mathbf{x}_i(t) - \mathbf{x}_j(t)|^2 \rangle.$$
(1)

In the above expression, i = 1, ..., N labels a given particle among the *N* considered ones, whose position evolves according to $\dot{\mathbf{x}}_i = \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}_i(t), t)$, with $\mathbf{u} = (u, v)$ the horizontal surface velocity. The an¹⁸⁰ gular brackets indicate an average over all *i* and all corresponding particles *j* with initial separation ¹⁸¹ $|\mathbf{x}_i(0) - \mathbf{x}_j(0)| = R_0$, so that $\langle R^2(0) \rangle = R_0^2$.

We first recall the expected behavior of $\langle R^2(t) \rangle$ obtained from dimensional arguments, for homo-182 geneous isotropic incompressible two-dimensional turbulence. As extensively documented (see, 183 e.g., Babiano et al. 1990; Foussard et al. 2017) these expectations may be difficult to observe 184 for different reasons, such as a finite inertial range of the energy and enstrophy cascades, or the 185 sensitivity of $\langle R^2(t) \rangle$ to the distance of the initial pair separation. At short enough times, relative 186 dispersion is expected to grow in a ballistic way, $\langle R^2(t) \rangle \simeq R_0^2 + Z R_0^2 t^2$ (Batchelor 1950; Babiano 187 et al. 1990). Here $Z = \langle \zeta^2/2 \rangle_x$ is relative enstrophy, $\langle ... \rangle_x$ denotes a spatial average, and vorticity is 188 related to the horizontal flow by $\zeta = \partial_x v - \partial_y u$. Later in time, when the pair separation distance is 189 intermediate between the smallest and the largest eddy sizes, the temporal growth of $\langle R^2(t) \rangle$ can 190 be dimensionally linked to the shape of the kinetic energy spectrum E(k). Assuming a power-law 191 scaling $E(k) \sim k^{-\beta}$, if the spectrum is sufficiently steep ($\beta > 3$) relative dispersion should grow 192 exponentially in time, with a rate proportional to $Z^{1/2}$. Such fast decay of kinetic energy with 193 wavenumber, typical of weakly-energetic submesoscales, implies that strain is localized at large 194 scale and, hence, that the pair-separation process is controlled by the largest flow features (Fous-195 sard et al. 2017). If instead $1 < \beta < 3$, i.e. for energetic submesoscales, a power-law behavior 196 $\langle R^2(t) \rangle \sim t^{4/(3-\beta)}$ is expected. This is often called a local dispersion regime, because the growth of 197 $\langle R^2(t) \rangle$ is in this case driven by velocity differences over lengthscales comparable with the distance 198 between the two particles in a pair (see, e.g., LaCasce 2008). Clearly, this situation includes the 199 well-known Richardson dispersion regime, $\langle R^2(t) \rangle \sim t^3$, corresponding to $E(k) \sim k^{-5/3}$. At even 200 larger times, when the pair-separation distance overcomes the largest eddy size, particles experience 201 uncorrelated velocities and thus relative dispersion follows a slower, standard-diffusion behavior, 202 $\langle R^2(t) \rangle \sim t.$ 203

For the Kuroshio Extension region, relative dispersion as a function of time is shown in Fig. 4, after subtracting the initial value R_0 and normalizing by it. At short times, we observe a behavior close to the expected ballistic regime, $(\langle R^2 \rangle - R_0^2) / R_0^2 \approx Zt^2$, with Z independently computed from the Eulerian velocity field. The agreement with the theoretical prediction is better in February than in August (for which a slower initial growth is observed) but the prediction gives the right magnitude for both seasons. We do not have an interpretation of this deviation from the ballistic



FIG. 4. Normalized relative dispersion $(\langle R^2 \rangle - R_0^2)/R_0^2$ as a function of time, for February and August in the Kuroshio Extension region. Uncertainties, estimated as the 95% confidence interval from a bootstrapping procedure, are represented by the shading.

²¹⁰ behavior but remark that it only concerns a time range when the uncertainty on relative dispersion ²¹¹ is also larger. The larger values of relative dispersion at short times, and hence of enstrophy, in ²¹² winter than in summer align with the observation of generally more energetic small-scale flows in ²¹³ this season (see Fig. 2).

At intermediate times (1 days $\langle t \rangle$ 10 days), in February, $\langle R^2(t) \rangle$ follows a behavior not far from the Richardson t^3 law, before a transition to a linear, diffusive scaling at larger times. In August, within the same intermediate time range, relative dispersion increases more rapidly (with a slightly steeper slope) before eventually transitioning to what appears to be a t^3 scaling. If in terms of dispersion regimes the resulting picture qualitatively agrees with the spectra shown in Fig. 3, from a quantitative point of view the situation is less clear.

A connected metric of dispersion is relative diffusivity,

$$K_{rel} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d\langle R^2(t) \rangle}{dt}.$$
(2)

While clearly by definition K_{rel} is still a function of time, it is often useful to plot it as a function 224 of the distance $\delta = \langle R^2(t) \rangle^{1/2}$. The results are shown in Fig. 5. We preliminarily remark that at the 225 largest separations [$\delta > O(100)$ km], relative diffusivity approaches a constant value, as expected. 226 In this range, one finds that indeed $K_{rel} \approx 2K_{abs}$, where K_{abs} is absolute diffusivity (not shown). 227 In February, at intermediate scales (10 km < δ < 100 km), K_{rel} quite closely follows a $\delta^{3/2}$ scaling, 228 indicative of a local dispersion regime, and corresponding to a kinetic energy spectrum $E(k) \sim k^{-2}$, 229 in agreement with the measured one (Fig. 3). In August, for scales between approximately 10 and 230 40 km, relative diffusivity behaves similarly to the February scaling. In this range, taking into 231 account uncertainties, it is not possible to distinguish between this behavior and the $\delta^{1.65}$ behavior 232 corresponding to the spectral slope $\beta = 2.3$. Then K_{rel} decreases for increasing δ , in agreement with 233 Fig. 4 where a slow-down of relative dispersion can be seen at around 10 days. This seems to be 234 associated with a change in the regime of growth of $\langle R^2(t) \rangle$, which might be due to efficient particle 235 retention in mesoscale eddies. More importantly, when approaching submesoscales (particularly 236 for $\delta < 20$ km), we observe a tendency towards a steeper growth, compatible with $K_{rel} \sim \delta^2$. The 237 latter behavior points to nonlocal dispersion and, dimensionally, it corresponds to a smooth flow 238 with $\beta > 3$. Therefore, it is at odds with the spectral slope $\beta = 2.3$ measured in summer (Fig. 3), a 239 fact that deserves further investigation by means of other indicators. 240

Another indicator, equally based on a straightforward fixed-time analysis, useful to discriminate between different dispersion regimes, is the kurtosis of the probability density function (pdf) of the pair separation distance (LaCasce 2008, 2010; Foussard et al. 2017),

$$ku(t) = \frac{\langle R^4(t) \rangle}{\langle R^2(t) \rangle^2}.$$
(3)

In a nonlocal dispersion regime, the kurtosis is expected to display fast, exponential growth. For 249 local dispersion, it should level off around a constant value over a finite interval of time [e.g., 250 ku(t) = 5.6 for Richardson dispersion]. At larger times, in the diffusive regime, one expects 251 ku(t) = 2. As compared to relative dispersion and diffusivity, in the kurtosis temporal evolution 252 the differences between winter and summer are much more evident (Fig. 6). At short times, the 253 kurtosis grows to values an order of magnitude larger in August than in February, following a 254 quasi-exponential regime. In February, after a rapid increase, kurtosis attains an almost constant 255 plateau at around 15 days, with a value close to ku = 5.6, the Richardson expectation, before 256



FIG. 5. Relative diffusivity K_{rel} as a function of the separation distance $\delta = \langle R^2(t) \rangle^{1/2}$, for February and August in the Kuroshio Extension region. The $\delta^{3/2}$ (short-dashed line), $\delta^{1.65}$ (dashed-dotted line) and δ^2 (longdashed line) behaviors correspond to $\beta = 2$, $\beta = 2.3$ and $\beta > 3$, respectively. The horizontal black solid lines represent twice absolute diffusivity at large times, $2K_{abs}$ (in each month). Uncertainties are estimated as the 95% confidence interval from a bootstrapping procedure.

decreasing. These observations then support those from relative diffusivity, suggesting that in
 winter dispersion is local, while in summer it is nonlocal.

The computation of the previous diagnostics requires performing averages over pairs at any 261 given time along particle trajectories. It is known that such a procedure has some drawbacks, 262 due to the fact that dispersion regimes change in correspondence with lengthscales, not temporal 263 ones (Berti et al. 2011; Cencini and Vulpiani 2013). As a consequence, fixed-time statistics may 264 be biased by the superposition of different behaviors, due to distinct pairs experiencing different 265 dispersion regimes at the same, common time. Fixed-scale analyses, based on computing statistics 266 as a function of the length scales, instead, allow disentangling different dispersion regimes (see 267 Cencini and Vulpiani 2013, for a review). Therefore, we will now consider the finite-size Lyapunov 268 exponent (FSLE) (Aurell et al. 1997; Artale et al. 1997), namely a scale-by-scale dispersion rate 269



FIG. 6. Kurtosis of separation ku as a function of time, for February and August in the Kuroshio Extension region. Uncertainties are estimated as the 95% confidence interval from a bootstrapping procedure.

²⁷⁰ defined as

$$\lambda(\delta) = \frac{\ln r}{\langle \tau(\delta) \rangle},\tag{4}$$

where the average is over all particle pairs and $\tau(\delta)$ is the time needed for the separation distance 271 to grow from δ to a scale $r\delta$ (with r > 1). As for relative dispersion, dimensional arguments 272 allow to link the FSLE behavior and the kinetic energy spectrum of the underlying flow. In a 273 nonlocal dispersion regime, corresponding to a spectral exponent $\beta > 3$ and exponential particle 274 separation, the FSLE should be independent of δ . Its constant value provides an estimate of the 275 maximum Lagrangian Lyapunov exponent and should be proportional to $Z^{1/2}$. For more energetic 276 small-scale flows, when $1 < \beta < 3$, dispersion is local and the FSLE scales as $\lambda(\delta) \sim \delta^{(\beta-3)/2}$. In 277 particular, Richardson dispersion ($\beta = 5/3$) translates into $\lambda(\delta) \sim \delta^{-2/3}$. Finally, in the diffusive 278 regime, holding for separations larger than the largest eddies, one expects $\lambda(\delta) \sim \delta^{-2}$. 279

In February, from the smallest sampled separations up to $\delta \simeq 100$ km, the FSLE follows the scaling $\delta^{-\gamma}$, with $\gamma \simeq 0.29$ from a fit between $\delta = 4$ and 100 km (Fig. 7), further supporting the indication of local dispersion, associated with energetic submesoscales. From the value of the exponent γ one has $\beta \simeq 2.4$, larger than the mean value ($\beta = 2$) of the slope measured from the



FIG. 7. FSLE $\lambda(\delta)$ for February and August in the Kuroshio Extension region. The $\delta^{-0.29}$ scaling behavior (short-dashed line), from a fit in the range 4 km $\leq \delta \leq$ 100 km, corresponds to the spectral slope $\beta \simeq 2.4$ and the δ^{-2} scaling law (long-dashed line) to the diffusive limit. Uncertainties are estimated as the 95% confidence interval from a bootstrapping procedure.

spectrum, but compatible with its upper bound. In contrast, in August, in the same range of scales (5 km $\leq \delta \leq 100$ km), $\lambda(\delta)$ is virtually independent of δ . This confirms, once more, the essentially nonlocal character of dispersion in this season, in spite of the spectrum [$E(k) \sim k^{-2.3}$] being shallower than k^{-3} . Finally, in both winter and summer, the FSLE eventually approaches a diffusive regime, indicated by a δ^{-2} behavior, for $\delta \geq 300$ km. The latter scale is in reasonable agreement with the size of the largest eddies, $\ell_M \sim 1/k_M \approx 200$ km, estimated from the wavenumber k_M where the kinetic energy spectra peak (Fig. 3).

Summarizing, the picture emerging from this analysis indicates that seasonality has an important role on Lagrangian dispersion in this region. In particular, the overall coherence, in each season, of the different metrics considered highlights that in winter (February) dispersion is local, while in summer (August) it is nonlocal. In winter, the scaling behaviors of the Lagrangian diagnostics tend to align with the usual predictions from turbulence theory based on the slope of the kinetic energy power spectrum. Specifically, to reasonable extent, they match the dimensional expectations based ³⁰¹ on a power-law decay of the kinetic energy spectrum with an exponent $\beta \gtrsim 2$, as the one measured ³⁰² from the Eulerian velocity field. Relative dispersion is the only exception, presenting a slightly ³⁰³ different scaling perhaps more compatible with $\beta = 5/3$, which is however not too far from the ³⁰⁴ value estimated from other indicators. In summer, the kinetic energy spectrum has a (clearer) slope ³⁰⁵ $\beta \simeq 2.3$, which would predict local dispersion, in contrast with the Lagrangian results.

We conclude this section by noting that these findings appear in line with the visual inspection of Fig. 1, illustrating how particles disperse in the flow. After one month of simulation, Lagrangian particles tend to accumulate along fronts and inside large-scale vortices in summer (Fig. 1d) while they are more efficiently homogenized through the domain and at all scales in winter (Fig. 1b). Such a difference hints at Lagrangian transport driven by mesoscale fronts and eddies (i.e. nonlocal dispersion) in summer, and at smaller-scale fronts and eddies tending to disperse particles through the flow (as under local dispersion) in winter.

5. Lagrangian dispersion interpretation based on a slow-fast flow decomposition

The results in the previous section indicate that, in summer, there is a clear disagreement between relative dispersion indicators and their predictions from the kinetic energy spectrum, contrary to what one would expect within the theory of QG turbulence. Therefore, one question arises: what is the origin of such disagreement?

a. Lagrangian frequency spectra

One candidate to answer the above question is the presence of IGWs. A first way to determine 321 their importance for the Lagrangian dynamics is to compute the Lagrangian frequency spectrum 322 of kinetic energy $E(\omega)$. As observed in Fig. 8, for both February and August, the spectra peak 323 at low frequencies, suggesting that the advection of Lagrangian particles is governed by slow 324 (presumably quasi-balanced) motions. One can also clearly distinguish two peaks, corresponding 325 to the Coriolis (f) and tidal (M₂) frequencies with periods $T_f \approx 20.53$ h and $T_{M_2} \approx 12.65$ h, 326 respectively. In August, these peaks (most likely associated with IGWs) are more pronounced and 327 constitute a significant part of the Lagrangian energy. This result highlights the fact that Lagrangian 328 trajectories are sensitive to the high-frequency components of the flow. In February, on average, 329



FIG. 8. Lagrangian frequency spectra of kinetic energy $E(\omega)$ for February and August in the Kuroshio Extension region. The vertical lines indicate the Coriolis (*f*) and semidiurnal tidal (*M*₂) frequencies.

the scaling of the spectrum is not far from ω^{-2} , which corresponds to an exponential decay of the velocity autocorrelation function (not shown).

³³² b. Frequency-wavenumber energy spectra

We next analyze the respective contributions of M/SM motions and IGWs to the Eulerian kinetic 333 energy spectrum. Following the methodology of Torres et al. (2018, 2022), we compute the 334 frequency-wavenumber $(\omega - k)$ spectrum of kinetic energy, which is shown in Fig. 9a for February 335 and in Fig. 9b for August. The distinction between M/SM and IGWs can be made using the 336 dispersion-relation curve of IGWs, $\omega^2 = c^2 k^2 + f^2$ (Torres et al. 2018). Here c, k, and f are, 337 respectively, the phase speed of inertio-gravity waves, the isotropic horizontal wavenumber, and 338 the Coriolis frequency. This relation can be reformulated to incorporate the deformation radius 339 $L_R \approx c/|f|$, leading to $\omega^2 = f^2 (L_R^2 k^2 + 1)$ (Sutherland 2010). As seen in Fig. 9, using the dispersion 340 relation for the 10th vertical mode (dashed-dotted line) allows to make a clear distinction between 341 IGWs and balanced, M/SM motions. Indeed this mode corresponds to the highest baroclinic 342 mode resolved in the LLC4320 simulation and, hence, is the most relevant one for partitioning 343



FIG. 9. Frequency-wavenumber spectra of kinetic energy $E(k,\omega)$ in the Kuroshio Extension region during February (a) and August (b); here spectra are shown in variance-preserving form $k \omega E(k,\omega)$ with units in $m^2 s^{-2}$. The horizontal solid and dashed lines indicate the Coriolis (*f*) and semidiurnal tidal (*M*₂) frequencies, respectively, while the dashed-dotted line shows the dispersion-relation curve for the 10th baroclinic mode. The corresponding deformation radii are $L_R = 65$ km (a) and $L_R = 20$ km (b).

the flow into balanced and higher-frequency, wavy motions (Torres et al. 2018). In this region, its value is $L_R \simeq 65$ km in winter and $L_R \simeq 20$ km in summer. This partitioning method is essential because IGWs and high-frequency submesoscales share similar frequencies, making it difficult to distinguish between them using simpler techniques, as e.g. filtering based solely on frequencies, such as *f* or M_2 (Jones et al. 2023).

In winter (Fig. 9a), the energy is concentrated at frequencies below those of IGWs, while internal tides and inertial motions do not seem to contribute to it significantly. This suggests that the energy is essentially all contained in M/SM motions. In summer (Fig. 9b), the energetic content of high-frequency IGWs increases, with a marked concentration of energy around M_2 , while that of submesoscales considerably decreases. This is in line with the Lagrangian energy spectrum (Fig. 8), for which we observe a spectral gap between the energetic low-frequencies and the inertial and semidiurnal motions.

From the frequency-wavenumber spectrum $E(k,\omega)$, we can evaluate the IGW contributions to the wavenumber spectrum of kinetic energy E(k) by integrating $E(k,\omega)$ over frequencies satisfying only either $\omega^2 < f^2(1 + L_R^2 k^2)$ or $\omega^2 > f^2(1 + L_R^2 k^2)$. This procedure reveals that in February (Fig. 10a) IGWs are less energetic than M/SM motions by two orders of magnitude. The latter,



FIG. 10. Decomposition of the kinetic energy wavenumber spectra E(k) for February (a) and August (b) in the Kuroshio Extension region. The spectrum of the total kinetic energy (KE) is shown by black square points. The contribution from frequencies such that $\omega^2 < f^2(1 + L_R^2 k^2)$ corresponds to the green dots, while the blue triangles are for frequencies $\omega^2 > f^2(1 + L_R^2 k^2)$. The corresponding deformation radii are $L_R = 65$ km (a) and $L_R = 20$ km (b). The reference lines k^{-2} in (a), k^{-3} and $k^{-2.3}$ in (b), are also shown for comparison.

then, indeed account for most of the kinetic energy in the surface flow at all scales: the associated 365 spectrum is almost identical to that of the total kinetic energy, and both appoximately follow a 366 k^{-2} scaling. In August (Fig. 10b), instead, we observe that at small wavenumbers (lengthscales 367 > 100 km), mesoscale motions still dominate, but at larger wavenumbers (lengthscales < 50 km), 368 submesoscales become less energetic and IGWs provide the leading contribution to the kinetic 369 energy spectrum. The small-scale IGW spectrum scales as $k^{-2.3}$, while that of low-frequency 370 (M/SM) motions behaves as k^{-3} up to k = 0.04 km⁻¹. Such steeper spectrum (from M/SM) 371 corresponds theoretically to a regime of nonlocal particle dispersion. This result is thus consistent 372 with IGWs having little to no effect on relative dispersion, despite having a prominent signature 373 on the small-scale energetic content of the flow. 374

³⁸⁰ c. Decomposition into rotational and divergent motions

To obtain a finer picture of what dynamical processes affect Eulerian spectra, kinetic energy can be decomposed into rotational (KE_{ζ}) and divergent (KE_{Δ}) components, using Helmholtz decomposition (Bühler et al. 2014; Rocha et al. 2016; Torres et al. 2018):

$$KE_{\zeta}(k) = \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{\left|\hat{\zeta}(k,\omega)\right|^2}{k^2} d\omega$$
(5)

384 and

$$KE_{\Delta}(k) = \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{\left|\hat{\Delta}(k,\omega)\right|^2}{k^2} d\omega, \qquad (6)$$

where $\hat{\zeta}(k,\omega)$ and $\hat{\Delta}(k,\omega)$ are the spatiotemporal Fourier transforms of vorticity ζ and divergence $\Delta = \partial_x u + \partial_y v$, respectively. Mesoscale motions are typically close to geostrophic balance and hence nondivergent. On the other hand, in general, both submesoscales (induced by frontal dynamics) and IGWs contribute to the divergence field. We then further separate each component into $KE_{\zeta,\Delta}^-$, representing low-frequency processes such that $\omega^2 < f^2(1 + L_R^2 k^2)$, and $KE_{\zeta,\Delta}^+$, representing highfrequency processes such that $\omega^2 > f^2(1 + L_R^2 k^2)$.

Figure 11 shows the results of this partitioning for February [panels (a) and (b)] and August 391 [panels (c) and (d)]. In February, the flow is dominated by its rotational component, primarily from 392 M/SM motions (Fig. 11a). At all scales, the divergent component from both M/SM and IGWs 393 contributes little to the overall kinetic energy (Fig. 11b). In August, the situation is different. At low 394 wavenumbers [lengthscales > (50 - 100) km], rotational M/SM motions dominate (Fig. 11c), while 395 at higher wavenumbers the divergent contribution from IGWs becomes dominant in the kinetic 396 energy spectrum (Fig. 11d). Notably, the spectrum of slow motions associated with vorticity KE_{r}^{-} 397 has, in this season, a clear k^{-3} scaling over an extended wavenumber range. The corresponding 398 spectrum of fast IGWs KE_{ζ}^+ is generally shallower, with values smaller than those of KE_{ζ}^- , except 399 in a narrower range of scales where it is comparable (and behaves similarly) to KE_{ζ}^{-} . These 400 results clearly show that the full wavenumber kinetic energy is not necessarily representative of the 401 balanced dynamics. 402

6. Comparison with results in the Gulf Stream region

In order to test the generality of the results in Sec. 4 and Sec. 5, here we provide a discussion of the main picture emerging from the same approach in another energetic region, close to the Gulf Stream. Its exact location and a more extensive characterization of the Eulerian and Lagrangian properties for this case study are reported in Appendix A.



FIG. 11. Wavenumber spectra of kinetic energy E(k) in the Kuroshio Extension region. The spectrum of the total kinetic energy (KE) is shown by black square points. (a, c) Spectra of the rotational component KE_{ζ} ; (b, d) spectra of the divergent component KE_{Δ} . In each case, the flow is further partitioned into low and high-frequency motions as in Fig. 10. Panels (a) and (b) correspond to February, panels (c) and (d) to August.

As in Kuroshio Extension, the wavenumber kinetic energy spectrum (Fig. 12a), is in both seasons 418 quite energetic at submesoscales. We note, however, that in this region the February and August 419 spectra are remarkably close (indeed, they are equal, within error bars) and scale approximately 420 as $E(k) \sim k^{-2.4}$ over more than a decade. The summer spectrum is a bit more energetic and 421 steeper at large scales, while the winter one is slightly shallower, with a slope also compatible 422 with $\beta = 2$ over a shorter wavenumber subrange. To quantify the scale-by-scale intensity of the 423 pair-dispersion process, we focus on the FSLE (Fig. 12b). The power-law and constant behaviors in 424 February and August, respectively, clearly indicate that dispersion is local in winter and nonlocal 425 in summer. Interestingly, from a quantitative point of view, we observe here the same season-426 dependent agreement with the predictions from energy spectra as in Kuroshio Extension. Indeed, 427



FIG. 12. (a) Wavenumber spectra of horizontal kinetic energy in the Gulf Stream region, averaged over February (blue squares) and August (red dots). For both months, the shaded areas represent the temporal variability of the spectrum. (b) Corresponding FSLE $\lambda(\delta)$ in the same region and for the same months. The $\delta^{-0.3}$ scaling law (short-dashed line) corresponds the spectrum $E(k) \sim k^{-2.4}$, while the δ^{-2} scaling law (long-dashed line) corresponds the diffusive limit. Uncertainties are estimated as the 95% confidence interval from a bootstrapping procedure.

the winter scaling $\lambda(\delta) \sim \delta^{-0.3}$ quite nicely matches the spectrum-based expectation $\lambda(\delta) \sim \delta^{(\beta-3)/2}$ (with $\beta = 2.4$), but the extended plateau, $\lambda(\delta) \simeq \text{const}$, found in summer is in evident contrast with the corresponding spectrum, which would even indicate a different dispersion regime (local rather than nonlocal).

As before, we then resort to frequency-wavenumber kinetic energy spectra to assess the relative 432 importance of high and low frequency motions in each season (Fig. 13). The global picture returned 433 by such spectra is very similar to the one found in Kuroshio Extension, which also confirms that 434 these two energetic regions share the same qualitative dynamical features. Specifically, M/SM 435 motions dominate the energetic content of the flow in February; in summer IGWs are considerably 436 more energetic than in winter, and in parallel the intensity of the flow at submesoscales gets 437 reduced. Minor quantitative differences among the two regions can also be noticed. For instance, 438 here the flow is less energetic, particularly in the submesoscale range in winter (as also observed 439 from the slightly steeper February wavenumber spectrum), with respect to that found in Kuroshio 440 Extension. 441



FIG. 13. Frequency-wavenumber spectra of kinetic energy $E(k,\omega)$, defined as in Fig. 9, in the Gulf Stream region during February (a) and August (b). For the (dashed-dotted) curve representing the dispersion relation, the deformation radii are $L_R = 65$ km (a) and $L_R = 20$ km (b).

Using the spatiotemporal spectra $E(k, \omega)$, we next compute the contributions of low and high-448 frequency motions to the total wavenumber kinetic energy spectrum. The results, shown in Fig. 14 449 for both seasons, closely resemble those found in Kuroshio Extension. In winter, M/SM motions 450 [corresponding to frequencies $\omega^2 < f^2(1 + L_R^2 k^2)$] essentially account for the full kinetic energy 451 at all scales and their spectrum is then close to $k^{-2.4}$. The summer spectrum is dominated by 452 the slow M/SM at scales larger than 50-100 km and by IGWs [corresponding to frequencies 453 $\omega^2 > f^2(1 + L_R^2 k^2)$] at smaller scales. The M/SM spectrum scales as k^{-3} , the IGW one as $k^{-2.4}$. 454 Therefore, the winter and summer energy spectra, when temporally filtered to retain only the 455 contribution from low-frequency motions, are respectively compatible with the observed local and 456 nonlocal dispersion regimes. This illustrates that the picture found in Kuroshio Extension might 457 be more general and, thus, confirms that while contributing to the kinetic energy spectrum, IGWs 458 are unlikely to have a measurable impact on relative dispersion, at least in the range of separations 459 explored in this study. 460

461 7. Conclusions

We investigated Lagrangian particle transport at the ocean surface, using the high-resolution ocean general circulation model LLC4320, which incorporates internal tides in addition to meso and submesoscale dynamics. We examined in details particle pair dispersion in the Kuroshio



FIG. 14. Decomposition of the wavenumber spectra of kinetic energy E(k) as in Fig. 10 for February (a) and August (b) in the Gulf Stream region. The reference lines $k^{-2.4}$ in (a), k^{-3} and $k^{-2.4}$ in (b) are also shown for comparison. The deformation radii are $L_R = 65$ km (a) and $L_R = 20$ km (b).

Extension in two different seasons. We then extended our analysis to another study region, close to the Gulf Stream.

The surface velocities from the model were used to advect Lagrangian tracers over the months of February and August (representative of winter and summer, respectively). The pair-dispersion process was analyzed by means of two-particle statistical indicators, which allow to identify different dispersion regimes and, in principle, to link the Lagrangian results and the Eulerian flow properties via dimensional arguments developed in the framework of QG turbulence (LaCasce 2008; Foussard et al. 2017).

Our findings demonstrate that dispersion is local, meaning controlled by flow features having the 473 same size as the particle separation distance, in winter, and nonlocal, i.e. dominated by the largest 474 flow scales, in summer. This is most clearly revealed by the FSLE, measuring the scale-by-scale 475 dispersion rate, but it is also confirmed by other space or time-dependent diagnostics. In winter, 476 the observed behaviors of Lagrangian indicators, to fair extent, match the dimensional expectations 477 constructed from the slope of the wavenumber kinetic energy spectrum. In summer, however, 478 the predictions based on the spectrum are not confirmed by the actual Lagrangian statistics. The 479 disagreement is not only quantitative but also qualitative: based on the spectrum one would expect 480 local dispersion, while the analysis of particle trajectories indicates that dispersion is nonlocal. 481

Examination of spatiotemporal kinetic energy spectra revealed key to understand this apparent 482 discrepancy in summer. Computing how energy is distributed among both wavenumbers and 483 frequencies, indeed, allows to separate the contributions from the slower M/SM components of 484 the flow and faster IGWs. Through this approach, we could show that the observed dispersion 485 behaviors reasonably agree with the predictions based on the wavenumber kinetic energy spectrum 486 associated with the slow, nearly balanced (and mainly rotational) part of the velocity field. In 487 winter high-frequency motions marginally contribute to the spectrum. In summer, they dominate 488 energetically only at scales smaller than roughly 50 km, and our results are consistent with the 489 dispersion process being controlled by the more intense strain associated with the large-scale, 490 lower-frequency flow and not by the high-frequency flow. No evidence of an impact of internal 491 waves on pair dispersion was found in the LLC4320 simulation in the Kuroshio Extension region. 492 This picture is further supported by the same analysis conducted in another energetic region, close 493 to the Gulf Stream, sharing similar statistical properties of the Eulerian flow, where we essentially 494 observed the same Lagrangian phenomenology. 495

Understanding how general these conclusions are remains an open point, and examining the 496 geographic (and seasonal) variability of relative dispersion appears to us a valuable perspective 497 for future work. To our knowledge, to date only few studies have addressed the impact of IGWs 498 on Lagrangian tracer dispersion, and the conclusions appear varied. For instance, in a study using 499 in-situ and synthetic surface drifters in the Gulf of Mexico (Beron-Vera and LaCasce 2016) it was 500 argued that fixed lengthscale indicators, like the FSLE, should be affected by inertial oscillations, 501 which, however, is not the case in our findings. It might then be interesting to correlate the 502 Lagrangian dispersion properties observed in that region with the statistical features of the slow 503 and fast components of the associated Eulerian flow. Another study by Tranchant et al. (2025) 504 investigated drifter dispersion in an energetic meander of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current, over 505 a specific period of time, where waves seem to be rather weak. By comparing with virtual drifters 506 advected by SWOT velocities, the authors showed that balanced motions dominate dispersion at 507 scales larger than ≈ 10 km. Those results, to some extent, align with ours in winter. It would seem 508 to us interesting to complement them with an analysis over different periods and, again, perhaps 509 an examination of spatiotemporal spectra from a high-resolution numerical model. 510

Simplified models and PE simulations in smaller domains may also reveal useful to gain further 511 insight into the basic physical mechanisms and to estimate the critical lengthscale under which IGWs 512 may become important for dispersion. Following this approach, Wang et al. (2018) investigated the 513 destabilization of a circular front in the presence of a wealth on internal waves. While in that case 514 the FSLE is sensitive to inertial oscillations, this effect is only observed at scales smaller than an 515 inertial-oscillation scale V/f, where V is the typical velocity of Lagrangian particles. In our case, 516 in August such lengthscale (4.59 km) is very close to the first separation value ($\delta \approx 4.17$ km) used 517 in the FSLE computation. A similarly crude estimate based on the semidiurnal tidal frequency, 518 $M_2 > f$, would give an even smaller typical length. Resolving smaller scales in the Lagrangian 519 dispersion process would require quite a smaller initial pair separation (currently it is $R_0 \approx 3.48$ km). 520 For this, in turn, simulations at even higher spatial resolution than the present ones would be needed, 521 considering that the inertial-oscillation scale is close to LLC4320 horizontal grid spacing, where 522 numerical diffusivity smoothens the flow. These considerations explain, at least qualitatively, why 523 our summer FSLE is insensitive to possible effects due to internal waves. 524

We conclude by shortly commenting on the implications of our results for the interpretation 525 of the new, high-resolution altimetry data provided by SWOT. When high-frequency motions are 526 relatively weak, as in our winter situations, the theoretical links between the spectral kinetic energy 527 distribution of the Eulerian flow and relative-dispersion properties should reveal useful to predict 528 the latter. Pending the geostrophic approximation is sufficiently accurate, the satellite-derived 529 velocity field should enable more direct and local predictions of transport and dispersion via 530 Lagrangian advection by the geostrophic velocity field. Note that Yu et al. (2021) and Demol 531 et al. (2025) have quantified the validity of geostrophy at global scales from numerical models 532 and observations, respectively. More studies are required in order to identify general conditions of 533 validity, e.g. in terms of spatial/temporal scales and flow conditions, and hence verify our ability 534 to estimate dispersion properties from SWOT and the nature of the signal processing required 535 to do so. However, when internal waves are more important, as in summer in this study, it 536 is unlikely that such theoretical links remain meaningful to obtain information about dispersion, 537 unless high-frequency motions are filtered out from the satellite-derived velocities. Future missions 538 such as Odyssea (Torres et al. 2023) may bring useful complementary information to estimate the 539 low-frequency component of the flow required to assess ocean-surface Lagrangian dispersion. 540

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Data availability statement. The data that support the findings of this study are available from
 the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

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APPENDIX A

547

Eulerian and Lagrangian analysis in the Gulf Stream region

Here we present a more extensive characterization of the Eulerian flow properties and relative dispersion results in the Gulf Stream region, to contrast with those found in the Kuroshio Extension (see main text).

For both winter and summer, the particle distributions at the beginning and at the end of the 551 1-month advection period, superimposed over the simultaneous SST fields, are shown in Fig. A1. 552 In February (Fig. A1a), the flow is characterized by a lot of mixed-layer instabilities, which reveal 553 themselves in the roll-up of SST fronts at the smallest scales. In August, the spatial organization of 554 the temperature field is driven by the presence of mesoscale features, such as large-scale filaments 555 (Fig. A1c). The overall picture is analogous to the one in Kuroshio Extension. Concerning 556 the Lagrangian particle distribution, we see that, after one month, particles tend to spread more 557 homogeneously in February, while they are more affected by the large-scale structures of the flow 558 in summer (Figs. A1b, d). These patterns suggest that dispersion is more local (i.e. more affected 559 by smaller-scale flow features) in winter than in summer. 560

Figure A2 shows complementary results from Lagrangian indicators completing those presented 568 in Sec. 6, namely relative dispersion as a function of time, relative diffusivity versus the separation 569 distance $\delta = \langle R^2(t) \rangle^{1/2}$ and kurtosis versus time. The general trends are quite similar to those 570 found in Kuroshio Extension. Relative dispersion at short times here shows a clearer agreement 571 with the prediction Zt^2 also in summer. In August, it later slows down [after $t \approx (0.1 - 0.2)$ days], 572 before approaching a growth close to t^3 or slightly faster. In February, $\langle R^2(t) \rangle$ is generally larger 573 at intermediate times. Its subsequent behavior is not very far from that of August (roughly $\sim t^3$), 574 but less clear in terms of scaling. More generally, also in this region, it is not straightforward 575 to identify dispersion regimes from this indicator. Relative diffusivity K_{rel} , when plotted against 576



FIG. A1. Snapshots of the SST field in the Gulf Stream region in February (top line) and in August (bottom line) at the beginning (a, c) and at the end (b, d) of the 30-day Lagrangian advection experiments. The corresponding particle distributions are shown with black dots. The green rectangles in (b, d) indicate the largest area covered by particles on the latest day of the month.

the separation distance $\delta = \langle R^2(t) \rangle^{1/2}$ more clearly allows to distinguish the winter and summer 577 dispersion regimes. In February, K_{rel} fluctuates around a ~ $\delta^{3/2}$ law, between 10 and 100 km, 578 which would correspond to a spectrum $E(k) \sim k^{-2}$. Interestingly, however, in August we find a 579 rather clear δ^2 scaling from about 5 to 50 km, as one would expect for a spectrum steeper than k^{-3} 580 and pointing to nonlocal dispersion. Beyond this range, diffusivity shows slower growth, possibly 581 suggestive of local dispersion, and roughly compatible with $K_{rel} \sim \delta^{3/2}$ (or the close scaling 582 $K_{rel} \sim \delta^{1.7}$, corresponding to $\beta = 2.4$, over a smaller subrange of separations). Correspondingly, 583 while in winter kurtosis quite soon attains a constant value close to 5.6 [the expectation for local, 584 Richardson dispersion, for which $\langle R^2(t) \rangle \sim t^3$ and $K_{rel}(\delta) \sim \delta^{4/3}$] and stays close to it for almost 585 all the advection period, in summer ku initially grows to a value 5 or 6 times larger, before starting 586 a low decay after about 10 days of advection. In the second half of August, these data do not allow 587



FIG. A2. Normalized relative dispersion vs time (a), relative diffusivity vs the separation distance $\delta = \langle R^2(t) \rangle^{1/2}$ (b) and kurtosis vs time (c) in the Gulf Stream region, for February (blue squares) and August (red dots). Uncertainties are estimated as the 95% confidence interval from a bootstrapping procedure.

to draw a safe conclusion on the dispersion regime, a longer simulation would be needed to clarify
 this point.

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