



**HAL**  
open science

# Three-Dimensional Evolution of Mesoscale Anticyclones in the Lee of Crete

Artemis Ioannou, Alexandre Stegner, Franck Dumas, Briac Le Vu

► **To cite this version:**

Artemis Ioannou, Alexandre Stegner, Franck Dumas, Briac Le Vu. Three-Dimensional Evolution of Mesoscale Anticyclones in the Lee of Crete. *Frontiers in Marine Science*, 2020, 7, 10.3389/fmars.2020.609156 . hal-03028693

**HAL Id: hal-03028693**

**<https://hal.sorbonne-universite.fr/hal-03028693>**

Submitted on 27 Nov 2020

**HAL** is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

# Three-dimensional evolution of mesoscale anticyclones in the lee of Crete

Artemis Ioannou<sup>1,\*</sup>, Alexandre Stegner<sup>1</sup>, Franck Dumas<sup>2</sup> and Briac Le Vu<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Laboratoire de Météorologie Dynamique, CNRS, Ecole Polytechnique, Palaiseau, 91128, France

<sup>2</sup>Service Hydrographique et Océanographique de la Marine (SHOM), 13 rue du Chatellier, 29200 Brest, France

Correspondence\*:  
Artemis Ioannou  
innartemis@gmail.com

## 2 ABSTRACT

3 Motivated by the recurrent formation of mesoscale anticyclones in the southeast of Crete, we  
4 investigated with a high resolution model the response of the ocean to orographic wind jets  
5 driven by the Cretean mountain range. As shown in the dynamical process study of Ioannou  
6 et al. (2020) which uses a simplified shallow-water model, we confirm here, using the CROCO  
7 (Coastal and Regional Ocean COmmunity) model, that the main oceanic response to the Etesian  
8 wind forcing is the formation of mesoscale anticyclones. Moreover, we found that the intensity of  
9 the wind-induced Ekman pumping acting on the eddies, once they are formed, modulate their  
10 intensity. Among the various coastal anticyclones formed during summer and fall 2015, only one  
11 of them will correspond to a long lived structure which is similar to the Ierapetra Eddy detected in  
12 2015 (IE2015) on the AVISO/DUACS products. Thanks, to the DYNED-Atlas data base we were  
13 able to perform a quantitative comparison of the vertical structure of such long-lived anticyclone  
14 between the numerical model and the in-situ measurements of the various Argo profilers trapped  
15 inside the eddy core. Even without assimilation or any nudging, the numerical model was able to  
16 reproduce correctly the formation period, the seasonal evolution and the vertical structure of the  
17 IE2015. The main discrepancy between the model and the altimetry observations is the dynamical  
18 intensity of the anticyclone. The characteristic eddy velocity, derived from the AVISO/DUACS  
19 product for the IE2015 is much lower than in the numerical model. This is probably due to the  
20 spatio temporal interpolation of the AVISO/DUACS altimetry products. More surprisingly, several  
21 coastal anticyclones were also formed in the model in the lee of Crete area during summer  
22 2015 when the Etesian winds reach strong values. However, these coastal anticyclones respond  
23 differently to the wind forcing since they remain close to the coast, in shallow-waters, unlike the  
24 IE2015 which propagates offshore in deep water. The impact of the bottom friction or the coastal  
25 dissipation seems to limit the wind amplification of these coastal anticyclones.

26 **Keywords:** coastal eddies, wind-forced anticyclones, orographic wind forcing, Ierapetra eddies, Ekman pumping, island wakes

## 1 INTRODUCTION

27 Even if the generation of coastal eddies induced by orographic winds have been documented in several  
28 studies, it is still difficult to identify what are the main mechanisms that drive their dynamical characteristics  
29 (size and intensity) and their vertical extend. The simultaneous combination of several extra processes

30 (coastal currents, bottom friction, tides. . .) is often a source of complexity for the analysis of real wind-  
31 induced eddies. Such eddies could be very intense and/or long-lived, therefore they have a strong impact  
32 on the export of coastal nutrients or biogeochemical species into the open sea or the ocean.

33 The formation of both cyclonic and anticyclonic eddies was frequently observed in the lee of oceanic  
34 mountainous islands (Yoshida et al., 2010; Jia et al., 2011; Caldeira et al., 2014; Couvelard et al., 2012;  
35 Piedeleu et al., 2009; Kersalé et al., 2011; Barton et al., 2000; Jiménez et al., 2008; Caldeira and  
36 Marchesiello, 2002; Caldeira and Sangrà, 2012). The Hawaiian archipelago was one of the first case  
37 studies that required the use of high-resolution numerical models. The interaction between the North-  
38 Equatorial Current and the archipelago is enough to generate eddies, but the use of higher spatial ( $1/4^\circ$   
39 degrees instead of  $1/2^\circ$ ) and temporal (daily instead of monthly) resolution of wind forcing for the regional  
40 models was shown to capture eddy intensities in agreement with the observations (Calil et al., 2008; Kersalé  
41 et al., 2011; Jia et al., 2011). For Madeira Island, both numerical simulations (Couvelard et al., 2012)  
42 and oceanic observations (Caldeira et al., 2014) indicate that the wind wake, induced by the mountain  
43 orography, could be the dominant mechanism of coastal eddy generation. For larger mountain chains, gaps  
44 or valleys could locally amplify the upstream synoptic winds and lead to strong wind-jets on the sea. The  
45 numerical study of Pullen et al. (2008) has shown that intensified wind jets in the lee of Mindoro and  
46 Luzon Islands induce the generation and the migration of a pair of counter-rotating oceanic eddies. In a  
47 similar way, the complex orography of Crete island acts as an obstacle for the wind propagation inducing  
48 channeling and deflection of the Etesian winds that impact the regional circulation in the south Aegean Sea  
49 and the Levantine basin. This study focuses on this specific area where intense coastal anticyclones are  
50 formed recurrently during the summer months (Larnicol et al., 1995; Matteoda and Glenn, 1996; Hamad  
51 et al., 2005, 2006; Taupier-Letage, 2008; Amitai et al., 2010; Menna et al., 2012; Mkhinini et al., 2014;  
52 Ioannou et al., 2017).

53 Kotroni et al. (2001) performed simulations with and without Crete and they concluded that, the Crete  
54 mountain ranges (three mountains in the row with height around 2000 *m* in Figure 1(a)) modify the Etesian  
55 intensity and pathways. The work of Bakun and Agostini (2001) extracts and computes the composite  
56 mean wind stress estimates for each one-half degree latitude-longitude quadrangle for the long-term mean  
57 seasonal cycle. This observational data-set confirms that the wind-stress curl drives an intense oceanic  
58 downwelling at the southeast tip of Crete. Miglietta et al. (2013) simulated the influence of the orography  
59 in the same area, capturing the lee waves patterns in the wakes of the Crete, Karpathos, Kasos and  
60 Rhodes islands. The statistical analysis of the monthly surface wind of the ERA-Interim reanalysis (at grid  
61 resolution of  $1/12^\circ$ ) performed by Mkhinini et al. (2014) exhibits a seasonal correlation between strong  
62 negative wind stress curl and the formation of long-lived anticyclones in the eastern Mediterranean Sea.  
63 However, correlation does not imply causation and the recent work of Ioannou et al. (2020) provides a  
64 dynamical understanding for the formation of long-lived mesoscale anticyclones induced by a seasonal  
65 wind-jet that mimics the Etesian winds deflected by Crete island. This study shows that the oceanic response  
66 to a symmetric wind jet could be a symmetric dipole or a strongly asymmetric structure dominated by an  
67 intense and robust anticyclone. Since, the anticyclonic wind shear, for the mean summer Etesian wind  
68 jet, is two times larger than the cyclonic one, the asymmetry of the oceanic response is enhanced and  
69 the formation of large mesoscale anticyclones is expected to be favored in this area. Nevertheless, the  
70 reduce-gravity rotating shallow-water model used by Ioannou et al. (2020) might be too simple to reproduce  
71 the complexity of the oceanic response to the Etesian winds in the southeast of Crete. In order to better  
72 understand the different mechanisms involved in the formation of the real wind-induced anticyclones we  
73 performed a high-resolution numerical modelling, of the Mediterranean circulation, using the CROCO  
74 model forced by realistic winds from August 2012 to December 2016. The main advantage of such

75 high-resolution simulation is to describe the rapid dynamics of meso- and sub-mesoscale vortex structures  
76 and to have a precise view of their vertical structure. We focus especially on summer and fall 2015 when  
77 several Argo floats were present in this area and allowed for a quantitative comparison between the regional  
78 model and the in-situ observations. Our main goal is to investigate how the variability of the wind forcing,  
79 the complex bathymetry of the shelf or the local outflow impacts on the dynamical characteristics and the  
80 vertical extend of these coastal anticyclones.

81 The paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we describe the various data set-used in this study, the  
82 ARPEGE winds and the DYNED-Atlas eddy data base, and the CROCO ocean model used for our realistic  
83 numerical simulations of the Mediterranean Sea in 2015 and 2016. Section 3 presents the dynamical  
84 characteristics and the vertical structure of the robust coastal anticyclones which formed at the southeast tip  
85 of Crete during summer and fall 2015. Throughout comparisons are carried out between the regional model  
86 and remote sensing or in-situ observations. We then discuss, in Section 4, the impact of various forcing on  
87 the vertical extend of these coastal anticyclones. Finally, we sum up our results and conclude in Section 5.

## 2 DATA & METHODS

### 88 2.1 Regional Wind forcing

89 We used the ARPEGE data-set to provide the most realistic wind-forcing for our regional simulations of  
90 the Mediterranean Sea. This data-set is based on 4-D variational assimilation of wind observations into  
91 the Meteo-France system of Forecast and Analysis ARPEGE. This reanalysis provides the atmospheric  
92 fields at high spatial  $(1/10)^\circ$  and temporal (hourly 1 h) resolution. To test the accuracy of the ARPEGE  
93 data-set in the Crete area and especially in the Kasos strait we collected regional wind speed data from three  
94 Meteorological stations of the Hellenic National Meteorological Service (HNMS) located on the islands of  
95 Crete, Kasos and Karpathos at heights 15 m, 17 m and 114 m respectively. We first build the time series of  
96 the mean wind speed in the Kasos strait (inside the black circle of Figure 1(a)) and compare the temporal  
97 variability with the in-situ data of (HNMS). We found that the synoptic variability of the ARPEGE data in  
98 2015 and 2016 is in good agreement with the local observations (see Figure 1 for summer 2015). However,  
99 if we compare the wind intensities we could find some local discrepancies. There is a correct agreement  
100 with Sitia weather station, which is located at the southeast of Crete, but a slight overestimation is found  
101 with the Karpathos station and an underestimation with the Kasos station. Hence, if the main components  
102 of the synoptic wind variability in the Kasos area are accurate in the ARPEGE data-set the local intensities  
103 of the surface winds, which are strongly impacted by the complex orography of Crete, should always be  
104 taken with care. Nevertheless, as far as we know, this is the best wind data-set available at high resolution  
105 for this specific area in 2015 and 2016. The ALADIN data-set used by Mkhinini et al. (2014) have an  
106 slightly higher resolution but it ends in 2012.

107

### 108 2.2 CROCO Ocean Model

109 We use outputs of realistic numerical simulations that were carried out for the Mediterranean Sea using  
110 the CROCO numerical model (<http://www.croco-ocean.org>). We refer to (Shchepetkin and  
111 McWilliams, 2005), Debreu et al. (2012) as well as to (Auclair et al., 2018) for details regarding the  
112 CROCO inherited numerics from ROMS, its barotropic time-stepping set-up and its solver. The simulation  
113 under investigation, CROCO-MED60v40-2015, was forced at the ocean top with ARPEGE wind forcing,  
114 thanks to the classical bulk COARE formula (Fairall et al., 2003) that takes into account the wind stress  
115 acting on the ocean surface as

$$\underline{\tau}(x, y, t) = \rho_{air} C_d |\underline{U}|\underline{U} \quad (1)$$

116 where  $\rho_{air} = 1.25 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$  is the air density,  $C_d$  the drag coefficient that varies based on the exchanges  
 117 between the atmosphere-ocean turbulent surface heat fluxes and  $\underline{U}$  the surface wind. The model  
 118 configuration solves the classical primitive equations in an horizontal resolution of  $1/60^\circ$  in both  
 119 longitudinal and latitudinal directions, a well fitted resolution to capture the dynamics of interest. The  
 120 vertical coordinate used is a generalised terrain following one. It is a stretched coordinate that allows  
 121 to keep flat levels near the surface whatever the bathymetry gradient. Fourty unevenly distributed  
 122 vertical levels discretized the water column. They are closer one from each other next to the surface  
 123 and more spaced by the bottom where the vertical gradients of hydrology parameters (temperature  
 124 or salinity) are weak. This distribution was designed in order to properly catch the intense surface  
 125 dynamics. Moreover, the bathymetry has been produced at SHOM for modeling purposes (10.12770/  
 126 50b46a9f-0c4c-4168-9d1c-da33cf7ee188) and was built up from DTM at  $100m$  and  $500m$   
 127 resolution, that was optimally interpolated at first and then smoothed to control the pressure gradient  
 128 truncation error associated with the terrain following coordinate system (Shchepetkin and McWilliams  
 129 (2003)). The initial and boundary conditions were built from CMEMS global system analysis optimally  
 130 interpolated on the computational grid. CROCO-MED60v40-2015 is a result of a free run simulation  
 131 (no nudging nor assimilation of any kind) that started on the 1st of August 2012 when the water column  
 132 stability is at its maximum to avoid static instability in the spinning up phase of three years. It ran till  
 133 the end of December 2016. For the purposes of this paper, we extracted oceanic numerical fields for  
 134 the year 2015. To track and quantify full trajectories of mesoscale eddies reproduced in the model, we  
 135 used AMEDA eddy detection algorithm (Le Vu et al., 2018). Adapted to CROCO  $1/60^\circ$  numerical fields,  
 136 AMEDA can identify the eddy characteristics from the daily mean surface geostrophic velocities derived  
 137 from Sea Surface Height of the model averaged during 24h.

### 138 2.3 Eddy database DYNEDAtlas 139

140 In order to compare the mesoscale eddies formed in the southeast of Crete in the regional simulation  
 141 CROCO-MED60v40-2015 with both remote sensing and in-situ observations, we used the dynamical eddy  
 142 data-base DYNED-Atlas (<https://www.lmd.polytechnique.fr/dyned/>). This recent data-  
 143 base provides 17 years (2000-2017) of eddy detection and tracking in the Mediterranean Sea along with the  
 144 co-localisation of Argo floats for each detected eddy ([https://doi.org/10.14768/2019130201.](https://doi.org/10.14768/2019130201.2)  
 145 2). The dynamical characteristics of the eddies contained in the DYNED-Atlas database were computed by  
 146 the AMEDA eddy detection algorithm (Le Vu et al., 2018) applied on daily surface velocity fields. The  
 147 latter were derived from the Absolute Dynamic Topography (ADT) maps produced by Salto/Duacs and  
 148 distributed by CMEMS with a spatial resolution of  $1/8^\circ$  which is much coarser than the spatial resolution  
 149 of the numerical simulations. Hence, we will compare in this study only the characteristics of mesoscale  
 150 eddies having a characteristic radius  $R_{max}$  (i.e. the radius where the azimuthal velocity  $V_{max}$  is maximal)  
 151 higher than  $15 \text{ km}$ . In order to estimate the vertical structures of the detected eddies, DYNED-Atlas uses all  
 152 the Argo profiles available since 2000 in the Mediterranean Sea. Once all the detected eddies are identified  
 153 during the 2000-2017 period, we can separate the Argo profiles in two groups: the ones that are located  
 154 inside an eddy (i.e. inside the last closed streamline) and the ones which are outside of all the detected  
 155 eddies. With the second group we can build unperturbed climatological profiles (T,S and  $\rho$ ) around a given  
 156 position and a given date. We consider here all the Argo profiles (out of eddies) located at less than  $150 \text{ km}$   
 157 around the selected position and at  $\pm 30$  days from the target day during the 17 years. Such climatological



158 profiles (plotted in black) give a reference for the T,S and  $\rho$  profiles associated to an unperturbed ocean (i.e.  
159 without coherent eddies). Hence, the difference between this climatological density profile with the Argo  
160 profile taken inside an eddy allows us to compute the profile of the density anomaly  $\sigma_A(z)$  ( $kg\ m^{-3}$ ) and  
161 estimates its vertical extend as shown in Figure 2. We use the depth of the maximal density anomaly  $Z_{max}$   
162 to quantify the vertical extension of the eddy. A similar methodology was used to estimate the depth of  
163 the coastal anticyclones in the regional simulation CROCO-MED60v40-2015 and perform quantitative  
164 comparisons with the DYNED-Atlas data. Since all the physical fields are available in the numerical model,  
165 the core eddy density profile corresponds to an average of all profiles located at less than 10 km from the  
166 eddy center. The background profile corresponds to an average of all the vertical profiles located along the  
167 last closed streamline.

### 3 RESULTS

#### 168 3.1 Etesian wind-forcing and formation of coastal anticyclones

169 The Etesian winds blowing across the complex orography of Crete induce strong wind jets in its wake. As  
170 shown by Ioannou et al. (2020) such orographic winds could lead to the formation of long-lived mesoscale  
171 anticyclones in this area. We show in Figure 3 the seasonal variations of both the surface wind stress and  
172 the wind stress curl of the ARPEGE wind reanalysis for the year 2015. We note that the intensity of the  
173 negative wind stress curl in the Kasos strait (area inside the circle of Figure 3) is not strictly correlated to the  
174 wind intensity (Figure 3E,F). For this specific year, the maximum wind intensity occurs in February while  
175 intense negative wind stress curls occur in July. During the summer months, strong wind jets occur with a  
176 large area of negative Ekman pumping (deep blue area in Figure 3C) that extends a hundred of kilometers  
177 away from the Kasos strait and tends to favor the formation of coastal anticyclones. It can therefore be  
178 expected that the long-lived Ierapetra anticyclone (IE2015) will form in July or early August this year.  
179 However, this was not the case. Indeed, a long-lived anticyclone that survives more than six months was  
180 formed in late September in the numerical simulation CROCO-MED60v40-2015 while a similar eddy was  
181 detected in early October in the DYNED-Atlas database. Such long-lived and robust anticyclone, which is  
182 formed in the Southeast of Crete is usually called a Ierapetra anticyclone and will be labeled IE15 in what  
183 follows. Nevertheless, according to CROCO-MED60v40-2015, several other anticyclones were formed in  
184 the same area during summer 2015. These coastal anticyclones (labeled AE1, AE2 and AE3) were formed  
185 the 9 of June, the 14 of August and the 12 of September respectively (Figure 4). The lifetime of these  
186 robust eddies exceeds two months, but not three. This is still low compared to the IE15, which survives  
187 more than 15 months. Hence, the realistic simulation CROCO-MED60v40-2015 reveals that several coastal  
188 anticyclones are formed in the Kasos strait area when intense wind-jets, driven by the Etesian winds, occur.  
189 Among all these robust coastal anticyclones, only one will survive more than six months and will have the  
190 dynamical characteristics of an Ierapetra eddy.

#### 191 192 3.2 Comparison between the CROCO model and the DYNED-Atlas data-base

193 A regional model that runs without assimilation, such as the CROCO-MED60v40-2015 is very unlikely  
194 to reproduce the exact dynamics and trajectory of mesoscale eddies. However, if the wind forcing is correct  
195 in the Kasos strait (as shown in the Figure 1), the wind-induced coastal anticyclones should have similar  
196 characteristics both in the model and the observations. Therefore, a systematic comparison is made between  
197 the dynamical eddy characteristics of the CROCO-MED60v40-2015 numerical model and the observations  
198 compiled in the Mediterranean eddy data-base: DYNED-Atlas. Besides, such analysis will help to quantify  
199 the dynamical differences between the numerous coastal anticyclones, which are formed during summer

200 months, and the long-lived Ierapetra Eddy (IE2015).

### 201 202 3.2.1 Dynamical characteristics and trajectories

203 The Figure 5 compares the temporal evolution of the characteristic radius ( $R_{max}$ ) and the intensity  
204 ( $V_{max}$ ) of the long-lived IE15 formed in CROCO-MED60v40-2015 with the IE2015 detected in DYNED-  
205 Atlas. These two mesoscale anticyclones were formed mid-fall at the end of September or early October,  
206 respectively. Since the spatial resolution of the numerical model ( $1/60^\circ$ ) is seven times greater than that of  
207 merged altimetry products ( $1/8^\circ$ ), it makes sense that the initial formation of such coastal eddy is better  
208 detected in the regional simulation CROCO-MED60v40-2015. If we assume that the model simulates  
209 correctly the IE formation, the AMEDA algorithm will detect it earlier in the regional model than in the  
210 coarse AVISO/CMEMS data set. In both cases, the radius of the IE15 and the IE2015 exceeds the local  
211 deformation radius ( $R_d = 10 - 12 km$ ) by at least a factor three (Figure 5 B). Such large radius is in good  
212 agreement with previous observations of Ierapetra Eddies (Hamad et al., 2006; Matteoda and Glenn, 1996;  
213 Taupier-Letage, 2008; Mkhinini et al., 2014; Ioannou et al., 2017, 2019).

214 However, the eddy intensity seems to reach higher values in the numerical model than in the eddy  
215 database. The maximal azimuthal velocity  $V_{max}$  could reach up to  $70 cm/s$  in the CROCO-MED60v40-  
216 2015 while it never exceeds  $40 cm/s$  in the DYNED-Atlas data base (Figure 5A). The underestimation of  
217 the IE's intensity in AVISO/CMEMS products, in comparison with in-situ measurements, was previously  
218 documented in Ioannou et al. (2017) and typical velocity values of  $60 cm/s$  were confirmed by VMADCP  
219 measurements for IE eddies (Ioannou et al., 2017, 2019). The trajectory of the simulated IE15 and the  
220 observed one also differs even if both of them quickly propagate offshore  $60 km$  south of the Kasos strait  
221 (Figure 5C).

222 As in the numerical model, a shorter-lived coastal anticyclone, that remained close to the shore in the  
223 southeast of Crete, was also detected the 29 of July according to the DYNED Atlas data-base. Such coastal  
224 anticyclone was detected from altimetry despite its decreased accuracy near the coast. The formation and  
225 the location of the short-lived anticyclone was also confirmed by a careful analysis of SST images. Hence,  
226 both remote sensing data sets, visible images and altimetry maps, show that coastal anticyclones could  
227 be formed in this area earlier during the summer months. We compare in the Figure 6, the dynamical  
228 characteristics of this coastal anticyclone detected in the DYNED-Atlas with the three structures formed by  
229 the regional simulation in June, August and early September. These anticyclones are smaller and weaker  
230 than the IE2015, their characteristic radius  $R_{max}$  does not exceed  $25 km$  while the maximal azimuthal  
231 velocities  $V_{max}$  remain in the range  $20 - 40 cm/s$ . More striking, they all seem to follow the same type of  
232 trajectory. The centers of these eddies remain attached to the coastline of Crete and the anticyclone stays  
233 above shelf even if they propagate westward, far away from their formation area (Figure 6C). Hence, the  
234 dynamical characteristics of these wind-induced eddies differ significantly from the long-lived Ierapetra  
235 anticyclone.

### 236 237 3.2.2 Comparison of Vertical eddy characteristics

238 The growing number of Argo floats deployed in the Mediterranean Sea in recent years makes it possible to  
239 characterize more precisely the three-dimensional evolution of long-lived eddies. Fortunately, the Ierapetra  
240 Eddy was sampled by several Argo profiles in the autumn of 2015 just after its formation and later on  
241 during winter 2016. The Figure 7 shows the temporal evolution of the density anomaly in the core of the  
242 Ierapetra anticyclone according to the Argo profiles taken in November 2015, in January 2016 and in  
243 February 2016. We select here only the profiles that were located at a distance of less than  $35 km$  from

244 the eddy center (Figure 7A). The maximal density anomaly induced by the eddy on the climatological  
245 density background that contains no eddy signature was then estimated. As expected for an anticyclonic  
246 eddy, the density anomaly is negative. Moreover, we compute the depth of the maximal density anomaly  
247  $Z_{max}$  (black dots in Figure 7(B,C,D)) to quantify the vertical extend of the IE2015.

248 According to Figure 7B, one month after its first detection, the density anomaly is confined between 50 *m*  
249 and 125 *m*, with a maximum anomaly of  $\sigma_A = -1 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$  located at  $-100 \text{ m}$ . Few months later, in January  
250 and February 2016, the maximal density anomaly propagated in depth, down to  $Z_{max} = -150 \text{ m}$  and  
251  $Z_{max} = -225 \text{ m}$  respectively, but decreased in amplitude. The significant deepening of the IE2015, during  
252 the winter months, coincides with the seasonal deepening of the mixed layer depth in the Mediterranean  
253 Sea (Moschos et al., 2020)). During winter months, when the air-sea interactions are strong, the mixed  
254 layer could reach deeper value in the anticyclonic eddy core in comparison with the surrounding (Kouketsu  
255 et al., 2011; Dufois et al., 2017). We found that the mixed layer could go down to 200 *m* inside the Ierapetra  
256 eddy in February 2016. It is then very simple to quantify the vertical extend of the IE15 that is formed  
257 in the CROCO-MED60v40-2015 and compare them with the in-situ observations. Since we can track  
258 the eddy center with a high accuracy in the model, we can easily follow the temporal evolution of the  
259 density anomaly within the eddy core. The Figure 8 presents the monthly average of this anomaly for  
260 IE15 in comparison with the Argo profiles in November 2015, January 2016 and February 2016. The  
261 model is in correct agreement with the in-situ observations (Figure 8 B-D) and exhibits the same trend: a  
262 significant deepening of the IE15 during winter months. However, the maximal density anomaly reaches  
263 deeper values, down to  $Z_{max} = -220 \text{ m}$  and  $Z_{max} = -240 \text{ m}$  in January and February 2016, in CROCO-  
264 MED60v40-2015. The main advantage of such a realistic regional model is that it is possible to follow the  
265 three-dimensional evolution of all eddies and to compare them with each other. We could then check how  
266 the vertical structure of the coastal anticyclones, that are formed during summer months, differs from the  
267 long-lived Ierapetra anticyclone. The Figure 9 shows the temporal evolution of the size, the intensity and  
268 the vertical core density anomaly of one short-lived coastal anticyclone (AE3) in comparison with the IE15.  
269 We observe that during the initial stage of formation (the month that follows the first detection) these two  
270 types of anticyclones exhibit the same vertical structure and a moderate value of the radius  $R_{max}$  around  
271 20 *km*. It is about a month later (in November 2015) that the Ierapetra anticyclone changes its structure: it  
272 increases in size and intensity as it expands in depth. Hence, it appears that the deepening of this long-lived  
273 anticyclone is induced by a dynamical process which is independent from its initial generation. The initial  
274 structure and the dynamical characteristics of the Ierapetra eddy, few weeks after its formation, does not  
275 differ significantly from the coastal anticyclones that are generated in summer by the wind-jet channelized  
276 by the Kasos strait. It is later on, that another mechanism leads to a drastic change in the vertical and the  
277 horizontal extend of the IE15.

## 4 DISCUSSION

278 Several coastal anticyclones were formed during summer and fall 2015 at the southeast tip of Crete, but  
279 only one of them will evolve into a large, deep and long-lived Ierapetra Eddy. Distinct physical processes  
280 could lead to this dynamical evolution. On one hand, the orographic wind-jets that occur in the wake of  
281 Crete induce strong and localized Ekman pumping. These upwelling or downwelling could then re-intensify  
282 or attenuate some coastal eddies. The intensification of a pre-existing mesoscale anticyclone was confirmed  
283 by in-situ observations (Ioannou et al., 2017) and idealized numerical simulations (Ioannou et al., 2020). If  
284 all these coastal anticyclones seem to be wind driven, their lifetime does not seem to be correlated with the  
285 wind-jet intensity in the Kasos strait and probably some more complex mechanisms should be considered  
286 to explain the robustness and the lifetime of the IE15. On the other hand, the Aegean outflow through the



287 Kasos strait (Kontoyiannis et al., 1999, 2005) may also contribute to the formation of coastal eddies or  
 288 interact with them in this area and therefore modify their intensity and their vertical extend. Both processes  
 289 are discussed in what follows.

290

#### 291 4.1 Wind-eddy interactions

292 We first investigate the impact of local winds on coastal anticyclones once they are formed. We track  
 293 these eddies with the AMEDA algorithm and compute for each of them the evolution of the, daily averaged,  
 294 surface wind-stress inside the eddy contour. The local wind-stress curl will drive horizontal divergence  
 295 and convergence of the Ekman transport and induce a mean vertical Ekman pumping inside the eddy  
 296 (Ekman, 1905; Stern, 1965). The cumulative effect of this local Ekman pumping could lead to a significant  
 297 isopycnal displacement. In order to take into account the core vorticity of the coastal anticyclones we use  
 298 the non-linear relation derived by Stern (1965). Assuming a quasi-steady response (i.e. neglecting inertial  
 299 waves generation) the additional isopycnal displacement  $\Delta\eta$  induced by the cumulative wind-forcing is  
 300 given by the following relation:

$$\Delta\eta = \int_{t_0}^t W_E dt = \int_{t_0}^t \frac{1}{A} \iint -\frac{1}{\rho} \nabla \times \left( \frac{\underline{\tau}}{f + \zeta} \right) dA dt \quad (2)$$

301 where  $t = t_0$  is the beginning of the eddy detection,  $\rho$  the density of water,  $f$  the Coriolis parameter,  $\zeta$  the  
 302 vorticity within the eddy core and  $A$  the area enclosed by a radial distance of 1.5 of the maximum eddy  
 303 contour  $R_{max}$ . The surface wind stress  $\underline{\tau}$  is estimated by the bulk formula:

$$\underline{\tau} = \rho C_D V_{wind} \underline{V}_{wind} \quad (3)$$

304 where the drag coefficient  $C_d$  is set constant  $C_d = 1.6 \cdot 10^{-3}$  and  $V_{wind}$  is the 10 m wind speed. We plot in  
 305 Figure 10A the temporal evolution of the cumulative isopycnal displacement induced in the core of the  
 306 three coastal anticyclones (AE1, AE2 and AE3) in comparison with the Ierapetra anticyclone IE15. For  
 307 all the anticyclones, the vortex intensity  $V_{max}$  follows the temporal evolution of the cumulative Ekman  
 308 pumping (Figure 10A,B). Indeed, the azimuthal velocity  $V_{max}$  of AE1, AE3 and IE2015 reached their  
 309 highest values, respectively in July, November and December 2015 when the wind-induced isopycnal  
 310 displacement reaches its maximum value for each eddy. For AE2, the wind-stress curl, in the eddy core, is  
 311 zero or negative and therefore, unlike the other ones, the intensity of AE2 stays roughly constant in August  
 312 and starts to decay in September. However, if the short-lived anticyclones AE1 and AE3 experienced a  
 313 similar Ekman pumping than the long-lived IE2015, their intensity and their vertical extends differ strongly  
 314 from Ierapetra 2015. Thus, for the same wind-stress curl amplitude, the dynamic response can be very  
 315 different from one anticyclone to another. It seems that the intensity and vertical extent of the Ierapetra  
 316 anticyclone is more strongly intensified by local wind forcing than of the other eddies.

317 One of the main differences between IE15 and other coastal anticyclones lies in their trajectories. Quite  
 318 rapidly, after its formation, the Ierapetra eddy escapes from the shore and propagates into deep water  
 319 unlike other eddies that travel along the Crete coast. The seabed under the eddies AE1, AE2 and AE3  
 320 is between  $-600$  and  $-1000$  m, when the wind forcing is strong, while, in November-December 2015,  
 321 when Ierapetra anticyclone intensifies, the seabed stays below  $-2000$  m and may reaches  $-3000$  m depth  
 322 (Figure 10C). Hence, the bottom friction could be a possible explanation of the limitation of the intensity

323 and the isopycnal downwelling of these short-lived coastal eddies. Moreover, according to the Figure 10D,  
324 the characteristic eddy contours of AE1 and AE3 tangent the Crete coastline in July and November 2015  
325 when the cumulative Ekman pumping is maximum for these eddies. The alongshore dissipation could also  
326 attenuate the wind induced intensification of these coastal eddies.

327 The temporal evolution of the vertical density structure and the cumulative isopycnal displacement  
328  $\eta = Z_{max}(t_0) + \Delta\eta$ , induced by the local Ekman pumping, are shown in Figure 11 for AE1, AE2, AE3 and  
329 IE15 respectively. We find that the depth of maximal density anomaly  $Z_{max}$  follows roughly the evolution  
330 of  $\eta$ . Even if the numerical values are not strictly equal, these two characteristic depths are very close  
331 in the first months of the eddy lifetime. This correct agreement between the temporal evolution of  $\Delta\eta$   
332 (given by the Equation 2) and  $Z_{max}$  confirms that the local wind-stress curl drives the vertical structure  
333 of these anticyclones few months after their formation. However, we note for the Ierapetra eddy that  
334 during winter months (December, January and February) the density anomaly deepens while the isopycnal  
335 downwelling, induced by the wind-stress curl (i.e.  $\Delta\eta$ ), does not increase. We also notice, during this  
336 period, that the intensity of the maximal density anomaly weakens from  $\sigma_A = -1 \text{ kgm}^{-3}$  mid-November  
337 to  $\sigma_A = -0.3 \text{ kgm}^{-3}$  mid-February. Such an evolution is probably due to air-sea fluxes at the surface that  
338 tend to extract a significant amount of heat from the mixed layer that deepens into the anticyclonic core.  
339 Such heat fluxes are not taken into account in the Equation 2. Hence, in addition to the local wind-shear,  
340 the air-sea fluxes could have a significant impact, especially during winter months, on the vertical structure  
341 of long-lived mesoscale anticyclones.

342

## 343 4.2 Kasos strait outflow

344 Another forcing mechanism that could generate strong anticyclonic eddies is the density bulge induced  
345 by river or strait outflows. A well-know example, at the entrance of the Mediterranean Sea, is the intense  
346 Alboran gyre which is forced by the fresh Atlantic water which enters through the Gibraltar strait. Such  
347 anticyclone is mainly driven by the amplitude of the inflow rather than the local wind forcing. It is therefore  
348 questionable whether the flow out of the Kasos Strait can control the formation of the long-lived Ierapetra  
349 anticyclones. Some snapshots of the surface circulation show that the jet corresponding to the Kasos strait  
350 outflow, seems to be connected with the periphery of the Ierapetra anticyclone (Figure 12A). Therefore, we  
351 first quantify the Kasos strait outflow and its variability in CROCO-MED60v40-2015 (Figure 12C) both in  
352 the surface ( $0 - 200 \text{ m}$ ) and the subsurface layer (below  $-200 \text{ m}$ ). This outflow of lighter water coming  
353 from the Aegean Sea could be quite significant with a total flow rate that could exceed  $2.4 \text{ Sv}$  during few  
354 days, in July, August or November 2015. We then compare the variability of this outflow with the intensity  
355 of the coastal anticyclones (AE1, AE2, AE3) and the IE15 that stays in the vicinity of the Kasos strait (i.e.  
356 the area delimited by the black box in Figure 12A). We find that the intensification of the AE1 in July and  
357 the IE15 in November seems to be both correlated to the outflow intensity according to the Figure 12C,D.  
358 We should note that the eddy intensification is always associated to an amplification of the density anomaly  
359 (Figure 12E). However, the outflow is relatively strong during the whole period and we can also observe  
360 the intensification of AE3 without a significant change in the outflow of the Kasos strait. Hence, there is  
361 no systematic correlation between the variations of the outflow and the intensification (of  $V_{max}$  or  $\sigma_A$ ) of  
362 pre-existing anticyclones in this area.

363

## 5 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

364 Using high-resolution ( $1/60^\circ$ ) regional model CROCO-MED60v40, we analyzed the formation of a coastal  
365 eddy in the southeastern wake of Crete island. It is in this area that an intense, large -scale and long-lived

366 anticyclone is formed almost every year, commonly known as the Ierapetra eddy (Hamad et al., 2005,  
367 2006; Taupier-Letage, 2008; Amitai et al., 2010; Menna et al., 2012; Mkhinini et al., 2014; Ioannou  
368 et al., 2017). Our previous studies (Mkhinini et al., 2014; Ioannou et al., 2020) have confirmed that the  
369 intensity of the summer wind jets (i.e. Etesian winds) blowing through the Kasos strait is one of the  
370 main reasons for the formation of robust anticyclones in this area. Motivated by the fact that the regional  
371 model CROCO-MED60v40 was driven by the ARPEGE hourly wind reanalysis (at  $1/10^\circ$ ), which are  
372 the most accurate wind dataset in this region, we study the relation between the wind forcing and the  
373 dynamical characteristics of the wind-induced eddies. More specifically, we focus on the year 2015 where  
374 an Ierapetra eddy was formed both in the observational as well as in the numerical fields. During that year,  
375 Argo profilers were trapped for several months (October 2015 - April 2016) in the core of the Ierapetra  
376 anticyclone, allowing us to compare the evolution of the vertical structure of the anticyclone from the  
377 in-situ data with the numerical outputs.

378 Even without in-situ data assimilation, the numerical model was able to reproduce the formation and the  
379 dynamical evolution of a long-lived and robust anticyclone (IE15) similar to the Ierapetra eddy (IE2015)  
380 that was detected this specific year. The IE15 was formed at the end of September while the IE2015 was  
381 detected in early November according to the DYNED-Atlas eddy data-base. The temporal evolution of the  
382 characteristic radius and the vertical extend of the IE15 are also very close to the observations. However,  
383 the trajectories of these two eddies diverge after a few weeks and the eddy intensity reach higher values in  
384 the numerical model than in the eddy database. The latter could be due to a systematic under-evaluation of  
385 the eddy amplitude when we use the sea surface height or the surface velocity field derived from altimetry  
386 data-set. Indeed, similar under-evaluation in comparison with local VMADCP measurements were found  
387 by (Ioannou et al., 2017, 2019).

388 More surprisingly, according to CROCO-MED60v40-2015, several other anticyclones were formed in  
389 the same area during summer 2015 when the Etesian winds reach strong values. Three of them survive  
390 more than two months but their trajectories differ from the IE15. These coastal anticyclones travel along  
391 the Crete shelf while the Ierapetra eddy propagates offshore after its formation. A careful analysis of  
392 the DYNED-Atlas eddy data base reveals that a similar coastal anticyclone was also detected, during  
393 August and September 2015, on the standard AVISO/CMEMS Mediterranean altimetry data. Hence, such  
394 coastal anticyclones that propagate along the south coast of Crete are both present in the model and the  
395 observations. Thus, even if it does not exactly reproduce the observed ocean circulation (since there is  
396 no data assimilation), the regional simulation CROCO-MED60v40-2015 seems to provide a realistic  
397 description of the formation and the evolution of coastal eddies in the south of Crete island. Therefore, we  
398 can rely on this high-resolution model to study the impact of the orographic wind forcing on the formation  
399 and the subsequent evolution of realistic coastal anticyclones.

400 We do found that the intensity of the wind-induced Ekman pumping acting on the eddies, once they  
401 are formed, modulate their intensity. However, these coastal anticyclones respond differently to the wind  
402 forcing if they remain close to the coast, in shallow-waters, or if they propagate offshore in deep water. The  
403 impact of the bottom friction or the coastal dissipation seems to limit the wind amplification of coastal  
404 eddies. Among all the coastal anticyclones, which are formed by the summer intensification of the wind  
405 jet, only the one that escapes from the shelf will lead to a deep and long-lived eddy. Hence, a strong  
406 surface wind-jet is not enough to form an Ierapetra anticyclone and several others factors play a role. The  
407 wind-induced Ekman pumping should occur when the eddy is in deep waters and presumably the outflow  
408 from the Kasos strait reinforces this mechanism. However, these assumptions must be confirmed by a

409 longer numerical simulation that will allow to investigate the formation of different Ierapetra anticyclones  
410 several years in a row.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

411 This work and especially A. Ioannou and B.Le Vu were funded by the Shom with research contract Catoobs  
412 18CP01. The Hellenic National Meteorological Service (HNMS) is kindly acknowledged for providing the  
413 wind observations used in this study.

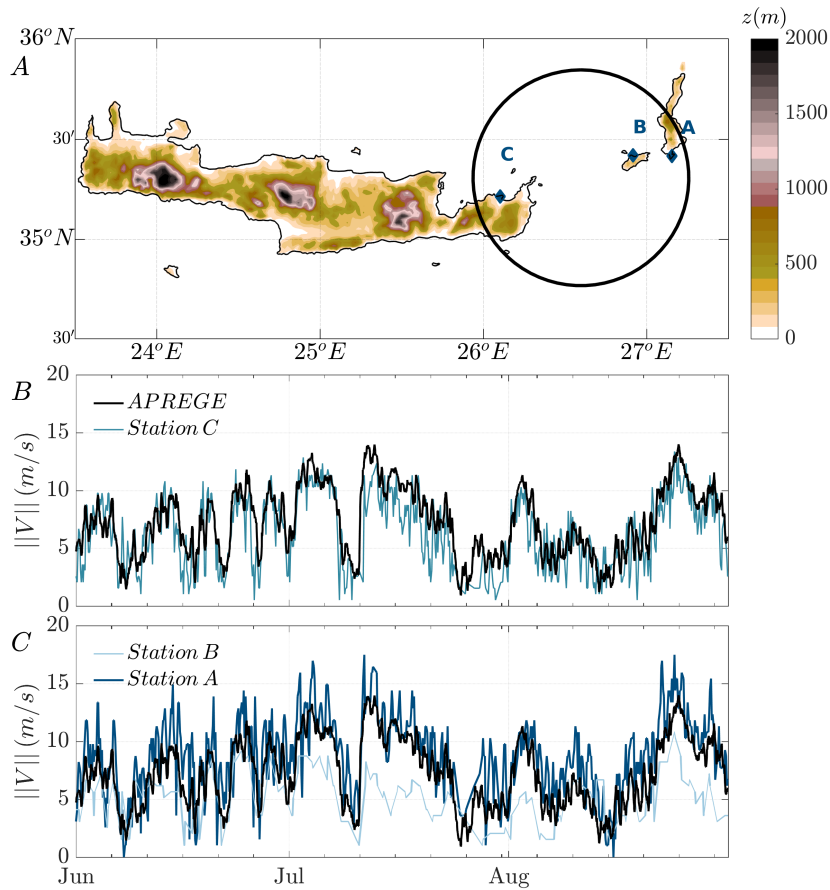
## DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

414 Wind datasets used in the current study are available by <http://www.meteo.fr/> for the ARPEGE  
415 dataset and by <http://www.hnms.gr> for the meteorological stations. The DYNED-Atlas data base for  
416 the Mediterranean Sea (<https://doi.org/10.14768/2019130201.2>) is available at <https://www.lmd.polytechnique.fr/dyned/>.  
417

## AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

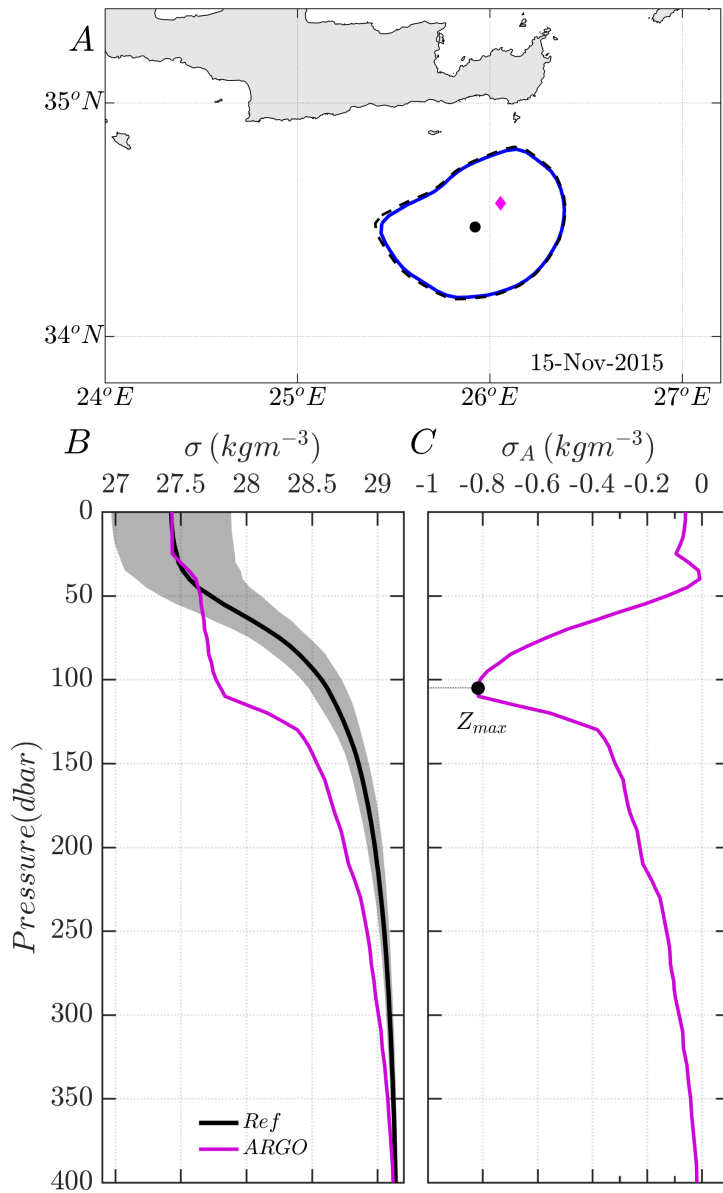
418 A.Ioannou and A.Stegner designed the study, performed the data analysis and contributed to the  
419 writing. F.Dumas performed the numerical simulation CROCO-MED60v40 and provided guidance in  
420 the interpretation of the results of the numerical simulation. B.Le Vu, adapted the AMEDA algorithm to  
421 perform the automatic eddy detection on the numerical simulations.

## FIGURE CAPTIONS

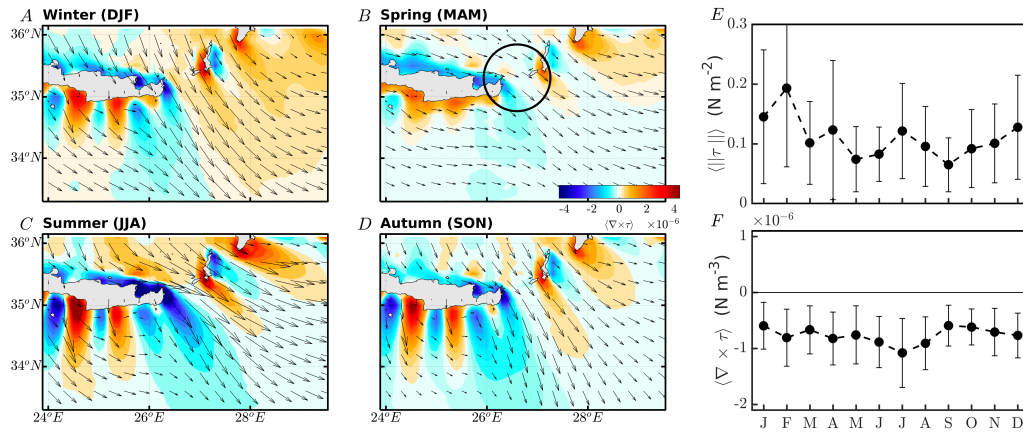


**Figure 1.** A) Elevation map (m) of Crete island from ETOPO2 dataset. The locations of the meteorological stations (HNMS) of the Karpathos (A), Kasos (B) and Sitia (C) islands are displayed with the blue diamond points. The selected area for analyzing the ARPEGE wind forcing climatology is illustrated with the black circle of  $R = 60 km$ . Time-series of wind speed ( $m/s$ ), as extracted from the 3 meteorological stations (Station A,B and C), are shown against the mean wind speed variations from ARPEGE data in panels B) and C).

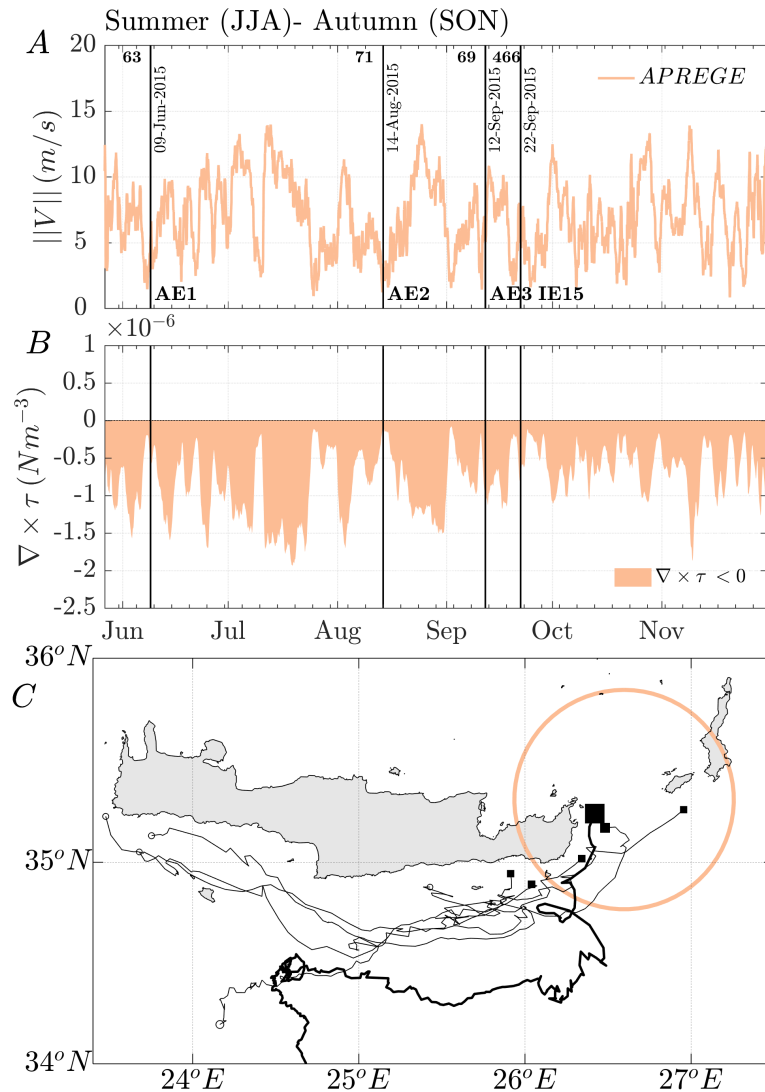




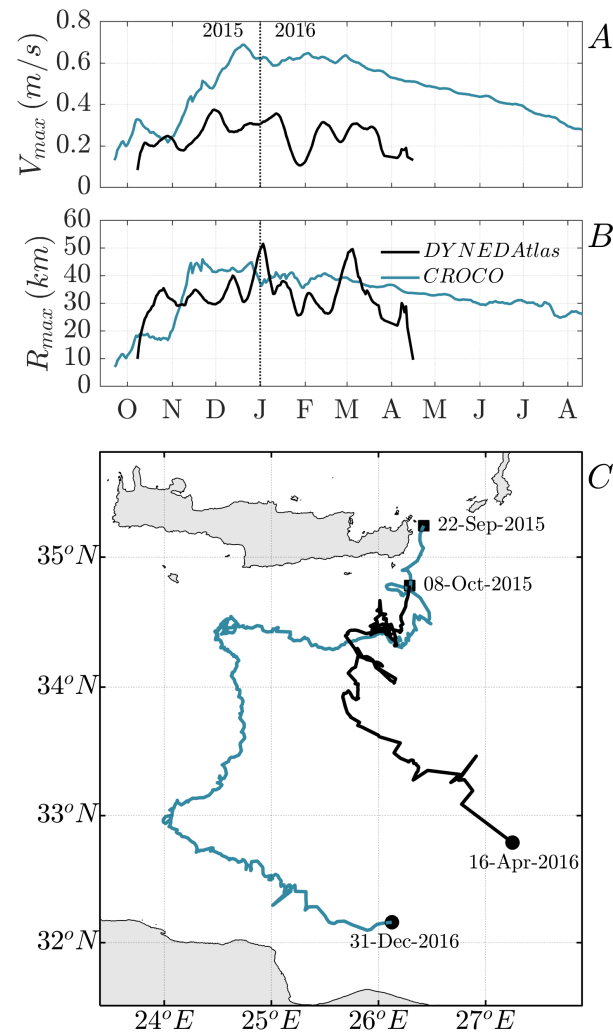
**Figure 2.** A) Position of the IE2015 in November 2015. The eddy characteristic and last contour are illustrated with the blue solid and black dashed lines. The position of an Argo float trapped inside the eddy is shown with the magenta diamond. Vertical B) density  $\sigma$  and C) density anomaly  $\sigma_A$  profile of the Argo float trapped inside the IE2015 (magenta color). The black line shows the mean climatological profile as computed by Argo profiles that are detected outside of eddies.



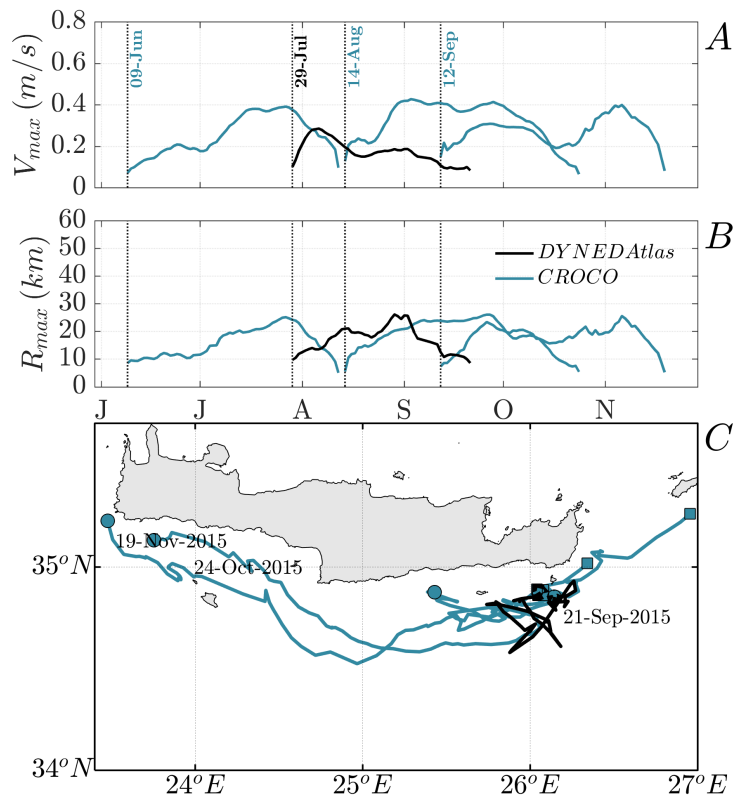
**Figure 3.** Climatological wind stress  $\langle \tau \rangle$  (vectors) and wind stress curl  $\langle \nabla \times \tau \rangle$  (colors) during 2015 for the winter (A), spring (B) summer (C) and autumn (D) months based on ARPEGE wind data. The selected area for analyzing the wind forcing climatology is illustrated with the black circle in panel (B). The mean monthly climatological variations of wind stress  $\langle \tau \rangle$  and wind stress curl  $\langle \nabla \times \tau \rangle$  are shown in panels (E) and (F) respectively.



**Figure 4.** Time-series of A) wind speed ( $m/s$ ) and B) negative wind stress curl ( $\nabla \times \tau$ ) are shown with the orange color as extracted from ARPEGE wind data. The selected area for analyzing the wind forcing climatology is illustrated with the orange circle in panel (C). Trajectories of long-lived ( $> 2$  weeks) eddies (gray colors) detected in CROCO model in the southeastern lee of Crete island during the summer & autumn of 2015. The first points of the eddy detection are plotted with the black square points while the points of last detection are illustrated with the open white circles. The longest-lived detected anticyclone is illustrated with the thick black line.

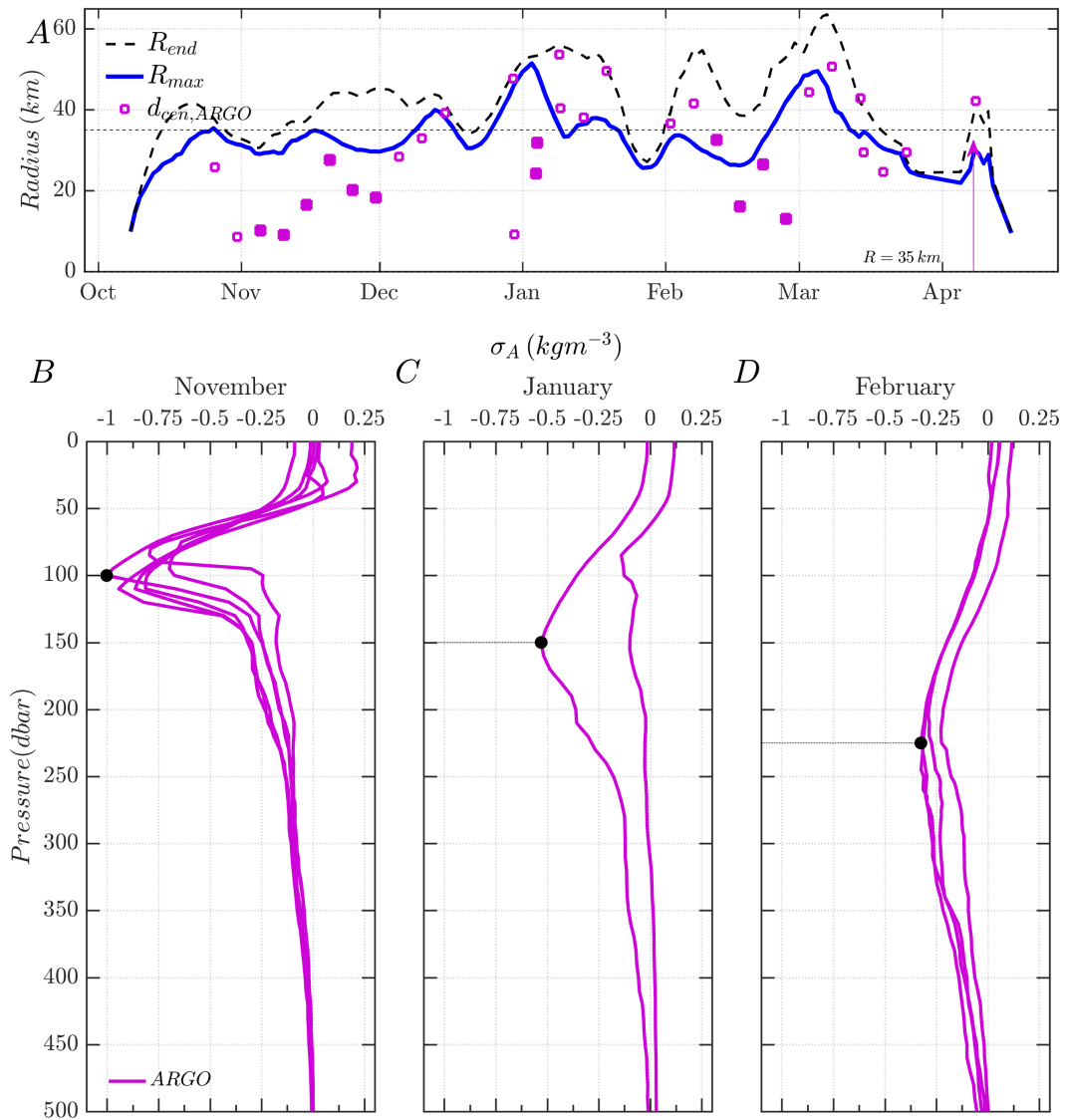


**Figure 5.** A) Temporal evolution of long-lived Ierapetra anticyclones as detected in 2015 with AMEDA algorithm from DYNED-Atlas eddy database and from CROCO-MED60v40-2015 simulation. The dynamical characteristics of the eddy velocity  $V_{max}$  (m/s) and eddy radius  $R_{max}$  (km) are shown in panels A) and B) respectively while their trajectories are illustrated in panel C).

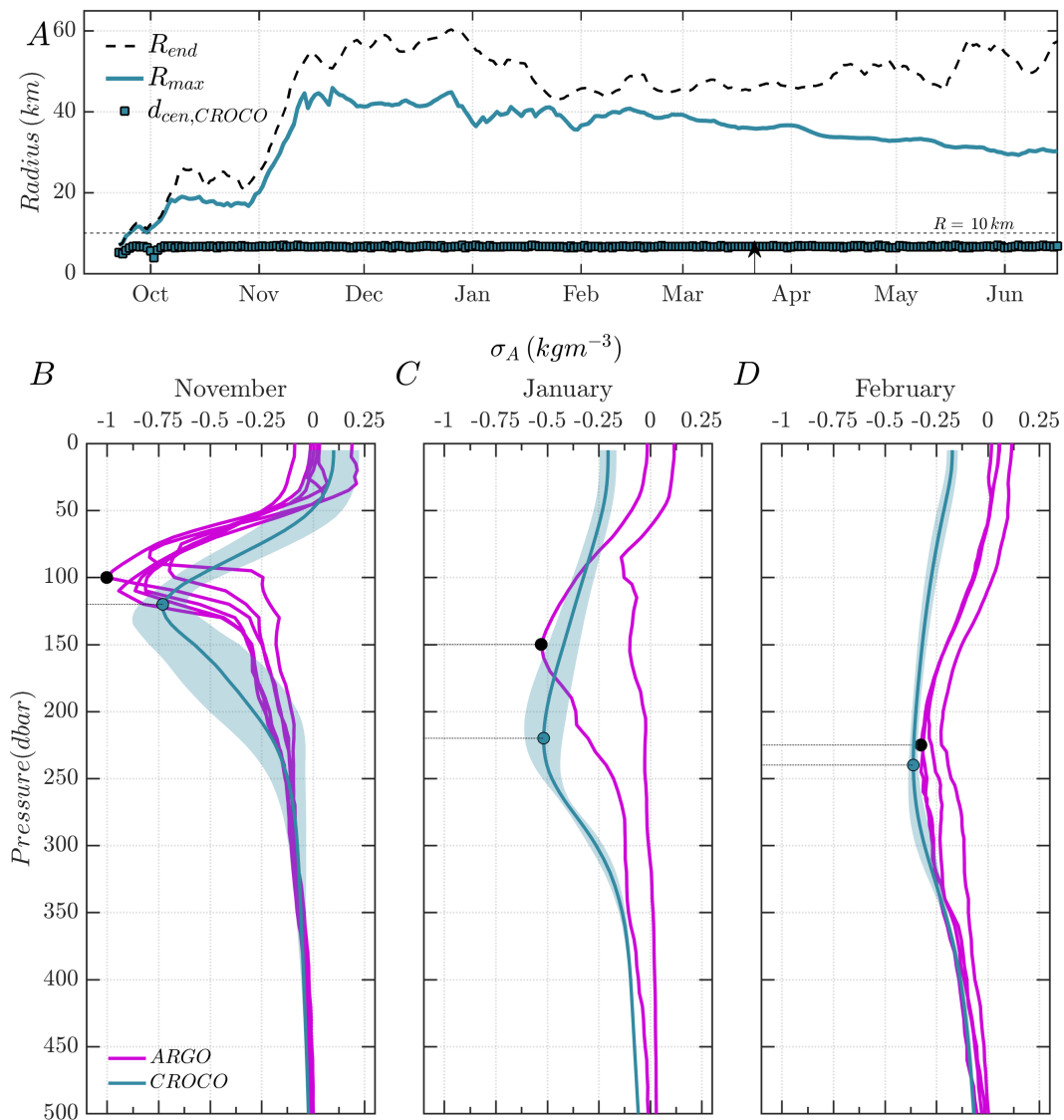


**Figure 6.** A) Temporal evolution of short-lived coastal anticyclones detected in 2015 with AMEDA algorithm from DYNED-Atlas eddy database and from CROCO-MED60v40-2015 simulation. The dynamical characteristics of the eddy, its velocity  $V_{max}$  ( $m/s$ ) and radius  $R_{max}$  ( $km$ ) are shown in panels A) and B) respectively while their trajectories are illustrated in panel C). The evolution and the trajectory of the anticyclones AE1, AE2 and AE3 tracked in the regional model are plotted with blue lines while the observed anticyclone (DYNED-Atlas data-base) is plotted with a black line.

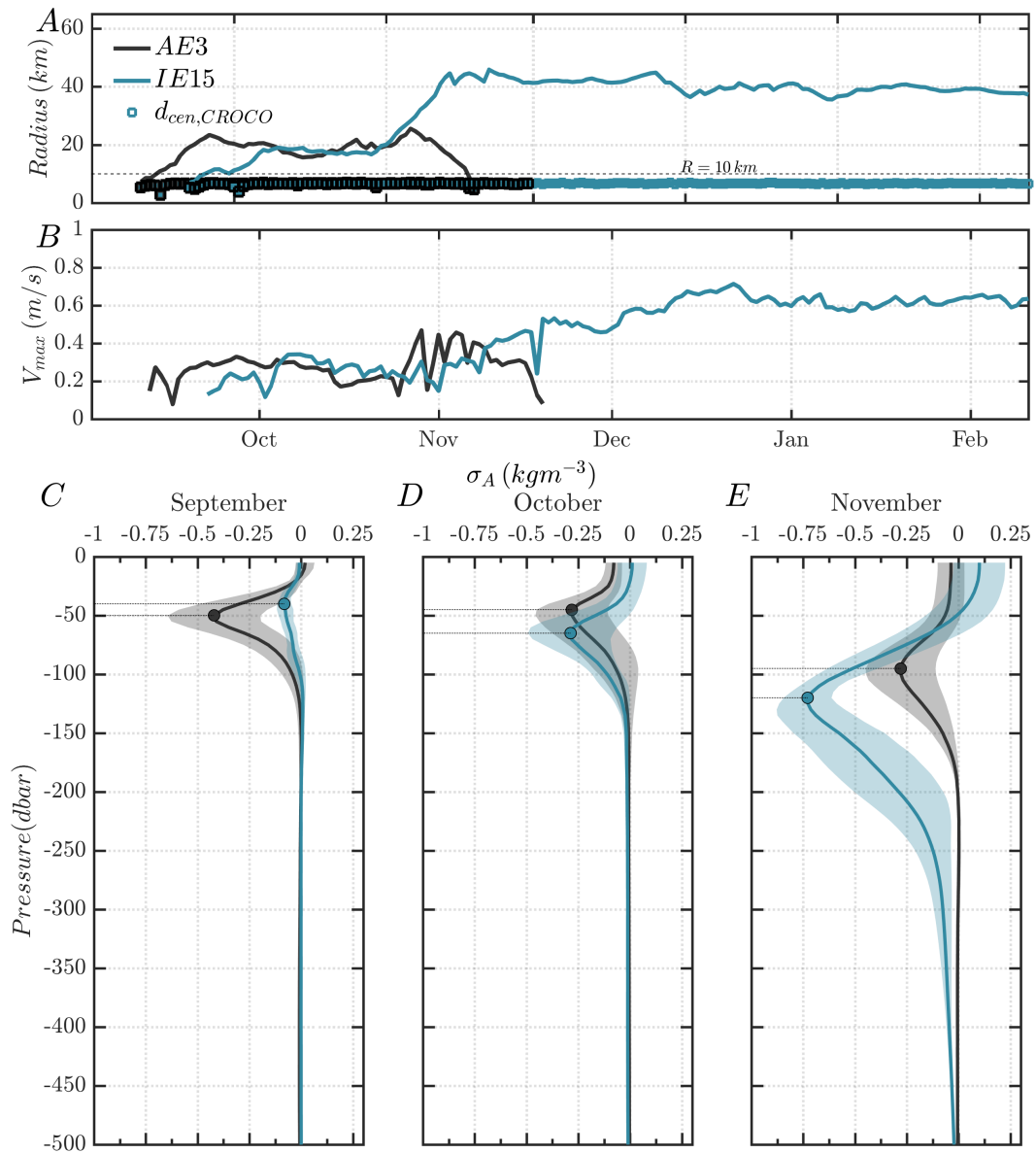




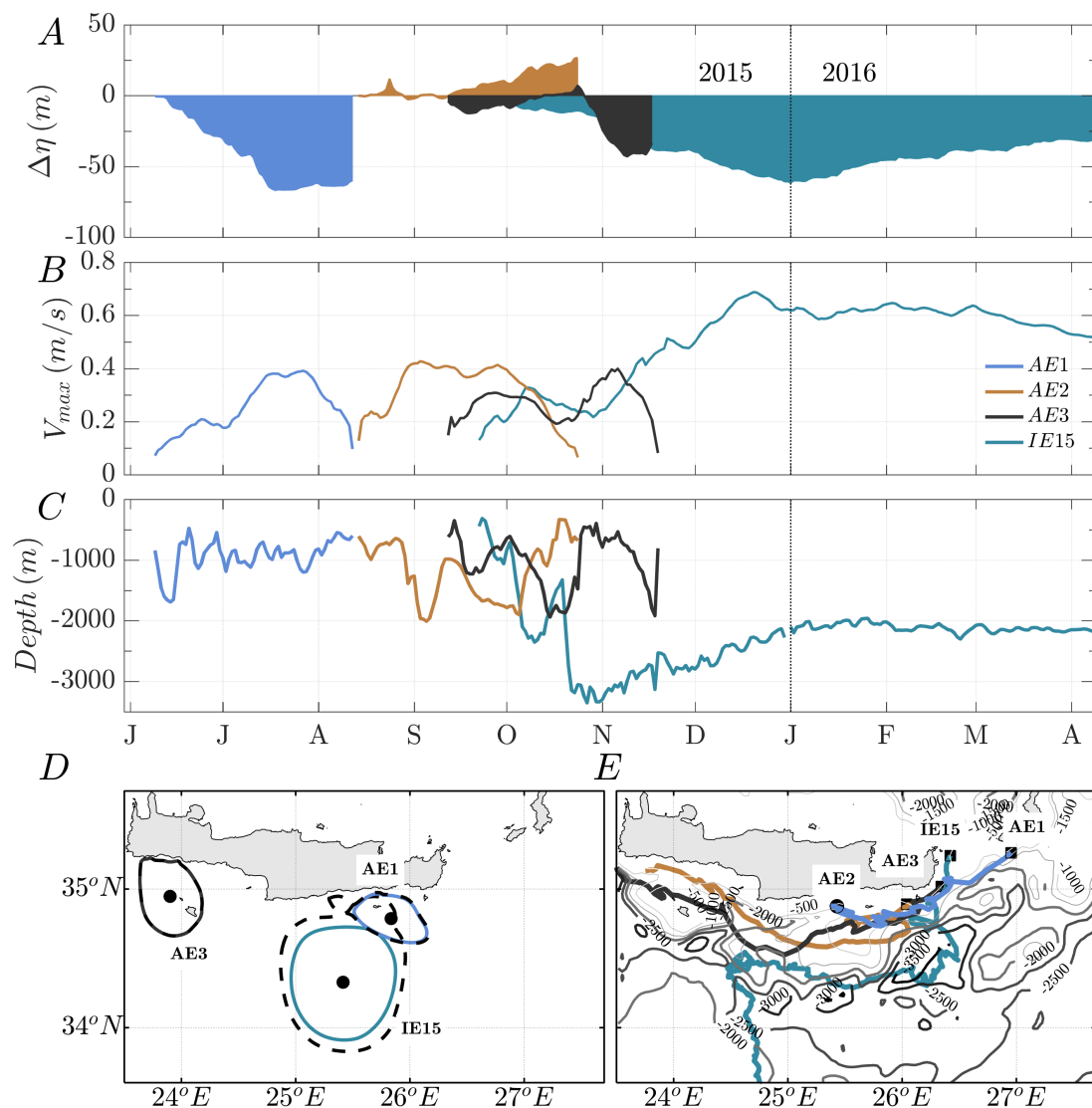
**Figure 7.** A) Temporal evolution of the IE2015 eddy characteristic contour (blue line) and the last contour (black dashed line) as extracted from the DYNED-Atlas eddy database. The squared points illustrate the position of the Argo profiles as a function of their distance from the eddy center. Vertical profiles of density anomaly  $\sigma_A$  ( $kgm^{-3}$ ) are shown for the months of November (B), January (C) and February (D) as obtained from the Argo float profiles that were trapped in the IE2015.



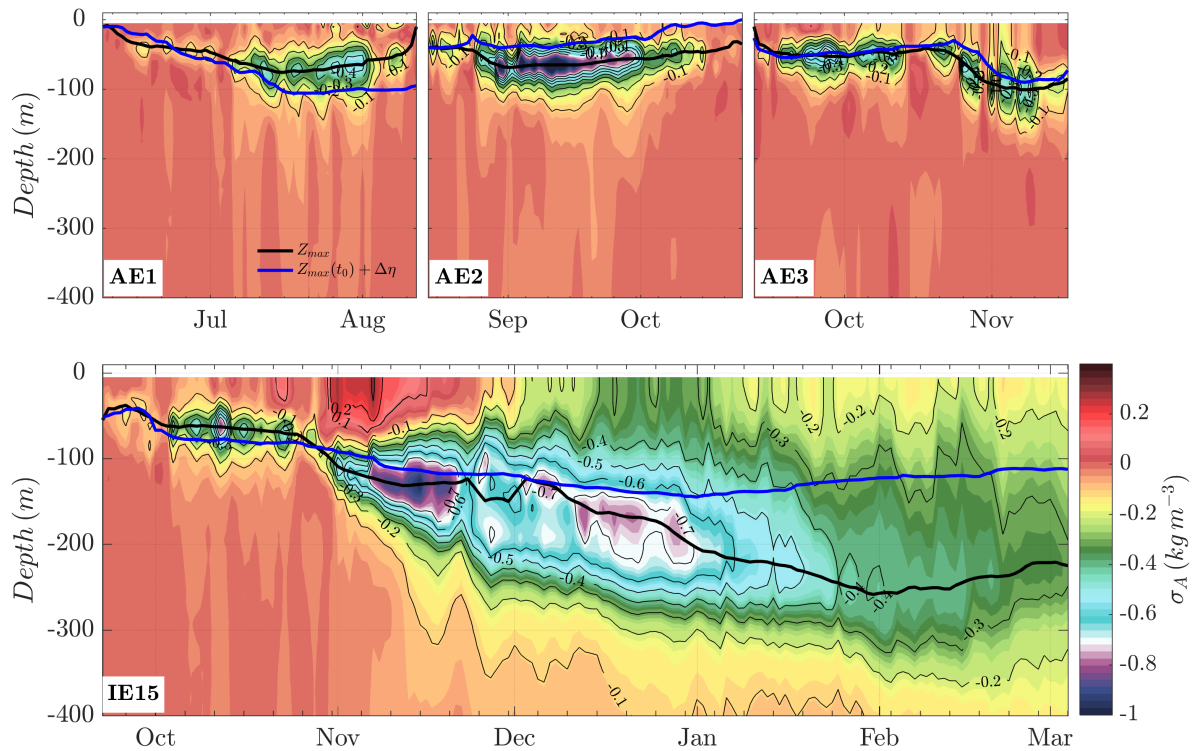
**Figure 8.** A) Temporal evolution of the IE15 eddy characteristic contour (solid line) and the last contour (black dashed line) computed with AMEDA algorithm applied on CROCO geostrophic fields. Vertical profiles of density anomaly  $\sigma_A$  ( $kgm^{-3}$ ) for the months of November (B), January (C) and February (D) as obtained from the Argo float profiles that were trapped in the IE2015 (shown with magenta color) and as obtained from the IE15 in CROCO-MED60v40-2015 simulation for the same period (shown with the blue color).



**Figure 9.** Temporal evolution of dynamical characteristics of A) velocity  $V_{max}$  (m/s) and B) radius  $R_{max}$  (km) for the coastal eddies AE3 and IE15 as computed with AMEDA algorithm applied on CROCO geostrophic fields. Comparison between the vertical profiles of density anomaly  $\sigma_A$  ( $kgm^{-3}$ ) are shown for the months of September (C), October (D) and November (D) for the two anticyclones AE3 and IE15 from the CROCO-MED60v40-2015 simulation.

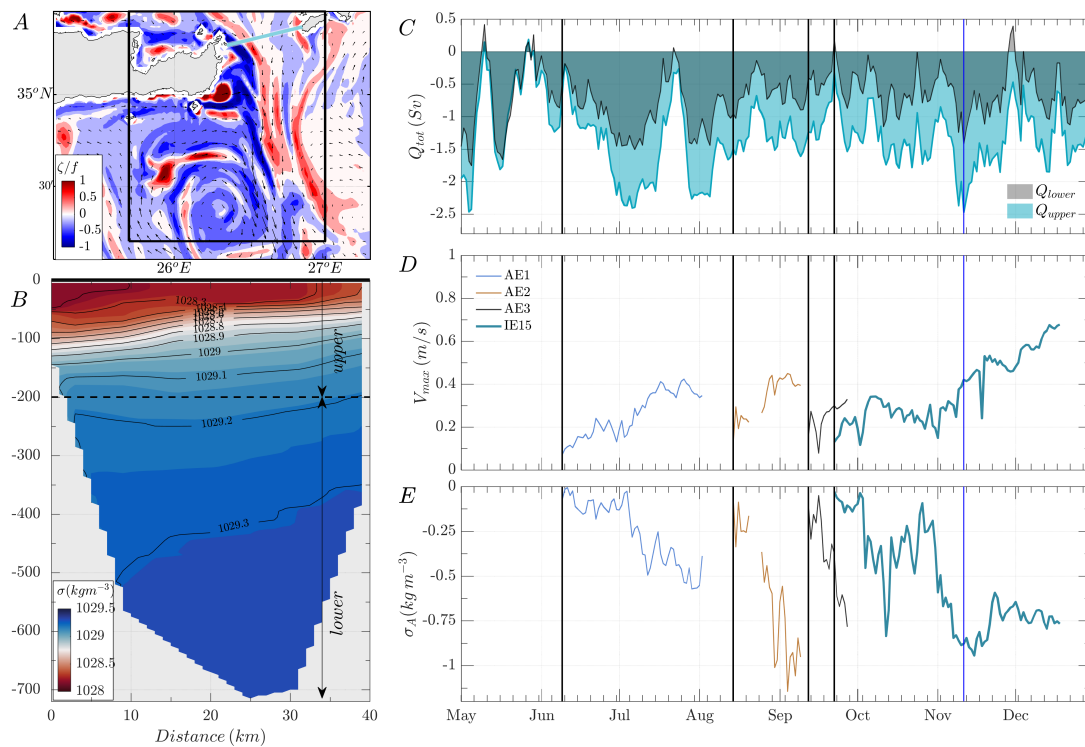


**Figure 10.** Comparison between the temporal evolution of the anticyclones AE1, AE2, AE3 and IE15. The isopycnal displacements after generation  $\Delta\eta$  (m), associated with the wind stress curl  $\langle \nabla \times \tau \rangle$  extracted above the eddies (in an area of 30 km from the eddy center) are illustrated in panel A). The temporal evolution of the eddy characteristic velocities  $V_{max}$  and the mean depth along the eddy trajectories are shown in panels B) and C) for the different anticyclones. The eddy trajectories of the different anticyclones are shown in panel D). The background map corresponds to the CROCO model bathymetry.



**Figure 11.** Comparison between the vertical profiles of density anomaly  $\sigma_A$  ( $\text{kg m}^{-3}$ ) for the AE1, AE2, AE3 and IE15 anticyclones generated during summer and fall period in the CROCO-MED60v40-2015 simulation southeast of Crete. The temporal evolution of the minimum density anomaly  $Z_{max}$  and the isopycnal displacement  $\Delta\eta$  associated with the wind stress curl above the eddies are illustrated with the black and blue lines respectively.





**Figure 12.** A) Surface vorticity fields  $\zeta/f$  and B) vertical section of the density  $\sigma$  ( $kg/m^{-3}$ ) in the Kasos Strait for the 11 November 2015. Temporal evolution of the Kasos Strait outflow  $Q$  separated in surface ( $0 - 200$  m) and subsurface outflow ( $200 - 700$  m) in panel C). The dates shown with the vertical black lines indicate the first detection of long-lived anticyclones during the same period. The temporal evolution of the eddy characteristic velocity  $V_{max}$  and the density anomaly  $\sigma_A$  is shown for the different anticyclones AE1, AE2, AE3 and IE15 in panels D) and E).

## REFERENCES

- 422 Amitai, Y., Lehahn, Y., Lazar, A., and Heifetz, E. (2010). Surface circulation of the eastern mediterranean  
423 levantine basin: insights from analyzing 14 years of satellite altimetry data. *Journal of Geophysical*  
424 *Research* 115, C10058. doi:10.1029/2010JC006147
- 425 Auclair, F., Bordoio, L., Dossmann, Y., Duhaut, T., Paci, A., Ulses, C., et al. (2018). A non-hydrostatic  
426 non-boussinesq algorithm for free-surface ocean modelling. *Ocean Modelling* 132, 12–29. doi:https:  
427 //doi.org/10.1016/j.ocemod.2018.07.011
- 428 Bakun, A. and Agostini, V. N. (2001). Seasonal patterns of wind-induced upwelling/downwelling in the  
429 mediterranean sea. *SCIENTIA MARINA* 65, 243–257. doi:10.3989/scimar.2001.65n3243
- 430 Barton, E., Basterretxea, G., Flament, P., Mitchelson-Jacob, E., B.Jones, Aristegui, J., et al. (2000). Lee  
431 region of gran ca-naria. *Journal of Geophysical Research* 105, 17173–17193
- 432 Caldeira, R. and Sangrà, P. (2012). Complex geophysical wake flows madeira archipelago case study.  
433 *Journal of Ocean Dynamics* 62, 683–700. doi:10.1007/s10236-012-0528-6
- 434 Caldeira, R. M. A. and Marchesiello, P. (2002). Ocean response to wind sheltering in the southern california  
435 bight. *Journal of Geophysical Research Letters* 29, 1–4. doi:10.1029/2001GL014563
- 436 Caldeira, R. M. A., Stegner, A., Couvelard, X., Araújo, I. B., Testor, P., and Lorenzo, A. (2014). Evolution  
437 of an oceanic anticyclone in the lee of madeira island: In situ and remote sensing survey. *Journal of*  
438 *Geophysical Research: Oceans* 119, 1195–1216. doi:10.1002/2013JC009493
- 439 Calil, P. H., Richards, K. J., Jia, Y., and Bidigare, R. R. (2008). Eddy activity in the lee of the hawaiian  
440 islands. *Deep-Sea Research II* 55, 1179–1194. doi:10.1016/j.dsr2.2008.01.008
- 441 Couvelard, X., Caldeira, R., Araújo, I., and Tomé, R. (2012). Wind mediated vorticity-generation and  
442 eddy-confinement, leeward of the madeira island: 2008 numerical case study. *Journal of Atmospheres*  
443 *and Oceans* 58, 128–149
- 444 Debreu, L., Marchesiello, P., Penven, P., and Cambon, G. (2012). Two-way nesting in split-explicit ocean  
445 models: Algorithms, implementation and validation. *Ocean Modelling* 49-50, 1–21. doi:10.1016/j.  
446 ocemod.2012.03.003
- 447 Dufois, F., Hardman-Mountford, N. J., Fernandes, M., Wojtasiewicz, B., Shenoy, D., Slawinski, D., et al.  
448 (2017). Observational insights into chlorophyll distributions of subtropical south indian ocean eddies.  
449 *Geophysical Research Letters* 44, 3255–3264. doi:10.1002/2016GL072371
- 450 Ekman, W. (1905). On the influence of the earth's rotation on ocean-currents. *Arkiv Fur Matematik*  
451 *Astronomi Och Fysik*. 11, 355–367
- 452 Fairall, C. W., Bradley, E. F., Hare, J. E., Grachev, A. A., and Edson, J. B. (2003). Bulk parameterization  
453 of air-sea fluxes: Updates and verification for the coare algorithm. *Journal of Climate* 16, 571–591
- 454 Hamad, N., Millot, C., and Taupier-Letage, I. (2005). A new hypothesis about the surface circulation in the  
455 eastern basin of the mediterranean sea. *Progress in Oceanography* 66, 287–298. doi:10.1016/j.pocean.  
456 2005.04.002
- 457 Hamad, N., Millot, C., and Taupier-Letage, I. (2006). The surface circulation in the eastern basin of the  
458 mediterranean sea. *SCIENTIA MARINA* 70, 457–503
- 459 Ioannou, A., Stegner, A., Dubos, T., Le Vu, B., and Speich, S. (2020). Generation and intensification of  
460 mesoscale anticyclones by orographic wind jets: The case of ierapetra eddies forced by the etesians.  
461 *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans* 125. doi:10.1029/2019JC015810
- 462 Ioannou, A., Stegner, A., Le Vu, B., Taupier-Letage, I., and Speich, S. (2017). Dynamical evolution  
463 of intense ierapetra eddies on a 22 year long period. *Journal of Geophysical Research:Oceans* 122,  
464 9276–9298. doi:10.1002/2017jc013158

- 465 Ioannou, A., Stegner, A., Tuel, A., Le Vu, B., Dumas, F., and Speich, S. (2019). Cyclostrophic corrections  
466 of AVISO/DUACS surface velocities and its application to mesoscale eddies in the mediterranean sea.  
467 *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans* 124, 8913–8932. doi:10.1029/2019jc015031
- 468 Jia, Y., Calil, P. H. R., Chassignet, E. P., Metzger, E. J., Potemra, J. T., Richards, K. J., et al. (2011).  
469 Generation of mesoscale eddies in the lee of the hawaiian islands. *Journal of Geophysical Research* 116.  
470 doi:10.1029/2011JC007305
- 471 Jiménez, B., Sangà, P., and Mason, E. (2008). A numerical study of the relative importance of wind and  
472 topographic forcing on oceanic eddy shedding by tall, deep water islands. *Journal of Ocean Modelling*  
473 22, 146–157. doi:10.1016/j.ocemod.2008.02.004
- 474 Kersalé, M., Doglioli, A. M., and Petrenko, A. A. (2011). Sensitivity study of the generation of mesoscale  
475 eddies in a numerical model of hawaii islands. *Ocean Science* 7, 227–291. doi:10.5194/os-7-277-2011
- 476 Kontoyiannis, H., Balopoulos, E., Gotsis-Skretas, O., Pavlidou, A., Assimakopoulou, G., and Papageorgiou,  
477 E. (2005). The hydrology and biochemistry of the cretan straits (antikithira and kassos straits) revisited  
478 in the period june 1997–may 1998. *Journal of Marine Systems* 53, 37–57. doi:10.1016/j.jmarsys.2004.  
479 06.007
- 480 Kontoyiannis, H., Theocharis, A., Balopoulos, E., Kioroglou, S., Papadopoulos, V., Collins, M., et al.  
481 (1999). Water fluxes through the cretan arc straits, eastern mediterranean sea: March 1994 to june 1995.  
482 *Progress in Oceanography* 44, 511 – 529. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/S0079-6611(99)00044-0
- 483 Kotroni, V., Lagouvardos, K., and Lalas, D. (2001). The effect of the island of crete on the etesian winds  
484 over the aegean sea. *Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society* 127, 1917–1937. doi:10.1002/qj.  
485 49712757604
- 486 Kouketsu, S., Tomita, H., Oka, E., Hosoda, S., Kobayashi, T., and Sato, K. (2011). The role of meso-scale  
487 eddies in mixed layer deepening and mode water formation in the western north pacific. *Journal of*  
488 *Oceanography* 68, 63–77. doi:10.1007/s10872-011-0049-9
- 489 Larnicol, G., Traon, P.-Y. L., Ayoub, N., and Mey, P. D. (1995). Mean sea level and surface circulation  
490 variability of the mediterranean sea from 2 years of TOPEX/POSEIDON altimetry. *Journal of*  
491 *Geophysical Research: Oceans* 100, 25163–25177. doi:10.1029/95JC01961
- 492 Le Vu, B., Stegner, A., and Arsouze, T. (2018). Angular momentum eddy detection and tracking algorithm  
493 (ameda) and its application to coastal eddy formation. *J. Atmos. Oceanic Technol* 35, 739–762.  
494 doi:10.1175/JTECH-D-17-0010.1
- 495 Matteoda, A. and Glenn, S. (1996). Observations of recurrent mesoscale eddies in the eastern mediterranean.  
496 *Journal of Geophysical Research* 101, 20687–20709. doi:10.1029/96JC01111
- 497 Menna, M., Poulain, P., Zodiatis, G., and Gertman, I. (2012). On the surface circulation of the levantine  
498 sub-basin derived from lagrangian drifters and satellite altimetry data. *Deep-Sea Research* 65, 46–58.  
499 doi:10.1016/j.dsr.2012.02.008
- 500 Miglietta, M. M., Zecchetto, S., and Biasio, F. D. (2013). A comparison of wrf model simulations with sar  
501 wind data in two case studies of orographic lee waves over the eastern mediterranean sea. *Journal of*  
502 *Atmospheric Research* 120-121, 127–146
- 503 Mkhinini, N., Coimbra, A. L. S., Stegner, A., Arsouze, T., Taupier-Letage, I., and Béranger, K. (2014).  
504 Long-lived mesoscale eddies in the eastern mediterranean sea: analysis of 20 years of AVISO geostrophic  
505 velocities. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans* 119, 8603–8626. doi:10.1002/2014JC010176
- 506 Moschos, E., Stegner, A., Schwander, O., and Gallinari, P. (2020). Classification of eddy sea surface  
507 temperature signatures under cloud coverage. *IEEE Journal of Selected Topics in Applied Earth*  
508 *Observations and Remote Sensing* 13, 3437–3447. doi:10.1109/JSTARS.2020.3001830

- 509 Piedeleu, M., Sangrà, P., Sánchez-Vidal, A., Fabrès, J., Gordo, C., and Calafat, A. (2009). An observational  
510 study of oceanic eddy generation mechanisms by tall deep-water islands (gran canaria). *Geophysical*  
511 *Research Letters* 36, 1–5. doi:10.1029/2008GL037010
- 512 Pullen, J., Doyle, J. D., May, P., Chavanne, C., Flament, P., and Arnone, R. A. (2008). Monsoon  
513 surges trigger oceanic eddy formation and propagation in the lee of the philippine islands. *Journal of*  
514 *Geophysical Research Letters* 35, L07604. doi:10.1029/2007GL033109
- 515 Shchepetkin, A. F. and McWilliams, J. C. (2003). A method for computing horizontal pressure-gradient  
516 force in an oceanic model with a nonaligned vertical coordinate. *Journal of Geophysical Research* 108.  
517 doi:10.1029/2001jc001047
- 518 Shchepetkin, A. F. and McWilliams, J. C. (2005). The regional oceanic modeling system (ROMS): a split-  
519 explicit, free-surface, topography-following-coordinate oceanic model. *Ocean Modelling* 9, 347–404.  
520 doi:10.1016/j.ocemod.2004.08.002
- 521 Stern, M. E. (1965). Interaction of a uniform wind stress with a geostrophic vortex. *Deep Sea Research*  
522 *and Oceanographic Abstracts* 12, 355–367
- 523 Taupier-Letage, I. (2008). On the use of thermal images for circulation studies: Applications to the eastern  
524 mediterranean basin. In *Remote Sensing of the European Seas*, eds. V. Barale and M. Gade (Springer  
525 Netherlands). 153–164. doi:10.1007/978-1-4020-6772-3\\_12
- 526 Yoshida, S., Qiu, B., and Hacker, P. (2010). Wind generated eddy characteristics in the lee of the island of  
527 hawaii. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans* 115, C03019. doi:10.1029/2009JC005417