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A Numerical Study of Submesoscale Processes in the  
Coastal Circulation of Madeira



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**A Numerical Study of Submesoscale  
Processes in the Coastal Circulation  
of Madeira**

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2022

Declaration of Authorship of Work

**A Numerical Study of Submesoscale Processes in the Coastal Circulation of Madeira**

I, Jonathan Gareau, declare I am the author of this work, which is original and unpublished. The sources consulted have been duly cited in the text and included in the list of references.

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Jonathan Gareau

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## Abstract

Submesoscale processes are defined geometrically by a lower length scale than the first baroclinic radius of deformation and dynamically by a Rossby number ( $Ro$ ) of  $O(1)$ , thus virtually unaffected by planetary forces. They have been widely studied in various environments using in-situ measurements, remote sensing, and numerical modelling. However, due to their unpredictable nature and relatively short spatial and temporal scales, identifying submesoscale patterns is a difficult task. Therefore, abundant ongoing research is continuously seeking new insight on their irregular behavior in the ocean. Recent observations of submesoscale structures have shown their efficiency in transporting particles horizontally and vertically in both the open ocean and coastal waters. Oceanographic studies concerning the deep-sea island of Madeira have mainly focused on mesoscale processes but have yet to describe features found at the submesoscale. Based on the recent discovery of a coastal current over Madeira's insular shelf, this study attempts to assess the role of submesoscale processes on the island's coastal circulation and the main physical forcings responsible for their generation. A coupled ocean-atmosphere model (COAWST) was used to simulate oceanic outputs within 1-km resolution grids, from which Eulerian properties of the flow field were calculated to detect submesoscale activity in the area. In addition, 4 simulations were run according to different forcing scenarios: (A) all forcings (wind, tides, geostrophic); (B) wind forcing; (C) tidal forcing; (D) geostrophic far-field forcing. Results show that submesoscale activity was generally concentrated near the coast and mostly attributed to wind and geostrophic forcings. Eddies with  $Ro$  larger than 1 were found in Madeira's wake and/or on the fringes of mesoscale eddies interacting with the island's shallow bathymetry, which is in line with the literature. These small-scale eddies were the dominant feature within the coastal circulation, suggesting their important contribution to the material transport along the shelf.

Keywords: Submesoscale, Eddies, Coastal circulation, Madeira, Deep-sea islands, Ocean modelling, COAWST.

## Sumário

Os processos de submesoscala são definidos geometricamente por uma escala de comprimento inferior ao primeiro raio de deformação baroclínico e dinamicamente por um número Rossby ( $Ro$ ) de  $O(1)$ , praticamente não afectado por forças planetárias. Estes têm sido amplamente estudados em vários ambientes utilizando medições in-situ, detecção remota, e modelação numérica. No entanto, devido à sua natureza imprevisível e escalas espaciais e temporais relativamente curtas, a identificação de padrões de submesoescala é uma tarefa difícil. Por conseguinte, existe muita investigação em curso à procura de uma melhor compreensão do seu comportamento irregular no oceano. Observações recentes de estruturas de submesoescala demonstraram a sua eficiência no transporte horizontal e vertical de partículas tanto no oceano aberto como nas águas costeiras. Focando nas águas profundas da ilha da Madeira, vários estudos oceanográficos centraram-se principalmente nos processos de mesoscala, mas ainda não descreveram as características encontradas na submesoscala. Com base na recente descoberta de uma corrente costeira sobre a plataforma insular da Madeira, este estudo tenta avaliar o papel dos processos de submesoescala na circulação costeira da ilha e os principais forçamentos físicos responsáveis pela sua geração. Foi utilizado um modelo numérico acoplado as interações oceano-atmosfera (COAWST) para simular saídas oceânicas dentro de grelhas de 1 km de resolução, a partir das quais foram calculadas as propriedades eulerianas do campo de fluxo para detectar a actividade de submesoescala na área. Além disso, foram efectuadas 4 simulações de acordo com diferentes cenários forçadores: (A) todos os forçamentos (vento, marés, geostróficos); (B) forçamento pelo vento; (C) forçamento pela maré; (D) forçamento pelo campo distante geostrófico. Os resultados mostram que a actividade de submesoescala foi geralmente concentrada perto da costa e atribuída principalmente aos forçamentos pelo vento e geostrófico. Foram encontrados eddies com  $Ro$  maior que 1 na esteira da Madeira e/ou nas franjas de eddies de mesoescala interagindo com a batimetria rasa da ilha, o que concorda com a literatura. Estes remoinhos de pequena escala foram a característica dominante na circulação costeira, sugerindo a sua importante contribuição para o transporte de material ao longo da plataforma continental.

Palavras-chave: Submesoescala, *Eddies*, Circulação costeira, Madeira, Ilhas de mar profundo, Modelação oceânica, COAWST.

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# Table of Contents

|   |            |
|---|------------|
| <b>Abstract</b> .....   | <b>IV</b>  |
| <b>Sumário</b> .....  | <b>V</b>   |
| <b>Acknowledgments</b> .....                                      | <b>VI</b>  |
| <b>Table of Contents</b> .....                                    | <b>VII</b> |
| <b>List of Figures</b> .....                                      | <b>IX</b>  |
| <b>1. Introduction</b> .....                                      | <b>1</b>   |
| <b>2. Literature Review</b> .....                                 | <b>4</b>   |
| 2.1. Observations of Submesoscale Features .....                  | 4          |
| 2.2. Submesoscale Circulation and Transport of Particles .....    | 5          |
| 2.2.1. Surface Processes and Transport.....                       | 5          |
| 2.2.2. Vertical Processes and Transport.....                      | 7          |
| 2.3. Ocean Processes in Madeira.....                              | 9          |
| <b>3. Geographic Setting</b> .....                                | <b>10</b>  |
| <b>4. Data and Methods</b> .....                                  | <b>12</b>  |
| 4.1. Numerical Models.....  | 12         |
| 4.2. Physical Parameters .....                                    | 13         |
| 4.3. Forcing Scenarios .....                                      | 14         |
| 4.4. Spatio-temporal Analysis.....                                | 14         |
| <b>5. Results</b> .....   | <b>16</b>  |
| 5.1. Submesoscale Activity under Different Forcing Scenarios..... | 16         |
| 5.1.1. Scenario A: All Forcings.....                              | 16         |
| 5.1.2. Scenario B: Wind Forcing.....                              | 16         |
| 5.1.3. Scenario C: Tidal Forcing .....                            | 20         |
| 5.1.4. Scenario D: Geostrophic Forcing .....                      | 22         |
| 5.2. Spatio-temporal Analysis of Submesoscale Features .....      | 25         |



|  |           |
|--|-----------|
| 5.2.1. All Forcings Scenario .....       | 25        |
| 5.2.2. Wind Forcing Scenario .....       | 27        |
| 5.2.3. Geostrophic Forcing Scenario..... | 29        |
| <b>6. Discussion .....</b>               | <b>32</b> |
| <b>7. Conclusion .....</b>               | <b>36</b> |
| <b>References .....</b>                  | <b>38</b> |

## List of Figures

|   |    |
|---|----|
| Figure 1. Topobathymetric maps of the study area. (A) Location of the Madeira Archipelago in the eastern Atlantic. The white box represents the boundaries for the ROMS and WRF models' 1 km resolution grids. (B) Madeira's island group within the extent of the 1 km resolution grid delimited in (A)..... | 11 |
| Figure 2. All parameters during scenario A. (A) Relative vorticity on 18-07 at 4:00; (B) Divergence on 14-07 at 23:00; (C) Strain on 18-07 15:00; (D) Okubo-Weiss on 18-07 at 4:00. Black line represents the 200 m isobath. ....   | 16 |
| Figure 3. Relative vorticity parameter during scenario B taken on: (A) 19-07 at 10:00; (B) 04-07 at 10:00; (C) 01-07 0:00; (D) 08-07 at 17:00. Black line represents the 200 m isobath. ....  | 17 |
| Figure 4. Divergence parameter during scenario B taken on: (A) 20-07 at 12:00; (B) 05-07 15:00. Black line represents the 200 m isobath. ....   | 18 |
| Figure 5. Okubo-Weiss parameter during scenario B taken on: (A) 19-07 at 16:00; (B) 01-07 0:00; (C) 08-07 16:00. Black line represents the 200 m isobath.....   | 19 |
| Figure 6. Strain parameter during scenario B taken on: (A) 19-07 at 18:00; (B) 01-07 0:00; (C) 09-07 5:00. Black line represents the 200 m isobath.....   | 19 |
| Figure 7. Relative vorticity parameter during scenario C taken on: (A) 19-07 at 10:00; (B) 04-07 at 10:00; (C) 01-07 0:00; (D) 08-07 at 17:00. Black line represents the 200 m isobath. ....  | 20 |
| Figure 8. Divergence parameter during scenario C taken on: (A) 26-07 at 23:00; (B) 21-07 0:00. Black line represents the 200 m isobath. ....  | 21 |
| Figure 9. Strain parameter during scenario C taken on: (A) 16-07 at 13:00; (B) 08-07 6:00. Black line represents the 200 m isobath. ....  | 21 |
| Figure 10. Okubo-Weiss parameter during scenario C taken on: (A) 15-07 at 0:00; (B) 10-07 0:00. Black line represents the 200 m isobath.....  | 22 |
| Figure 11. Relative vorticity parameter during scenario D taken on: (A) 18-07 at 11:00; (B) 20-07 at 13:00; (C) 01-07 0:00; (D) 06-07 at 0:00. Black line represents the 200 m isobath. ....  | 23 |

Figure 12. Divergence parameter during scenario D taken on: (A) 19-07 at 23:00; (B) 04-07 22:00. Black line represents the 200 m isobath..... 23

Figure 13. Strain parameter during scenario D taken on: (A) 1-07 at 18:00; (B) 20-07 20:00; (C) 18-07 15:00; (D) 07-07 at 15:00. Black line represents the 200 m isobath..... 24

Figure 14. Okubo-Weiss parameter during scenario D taken on: (A) 18-07 at 14:00; (B) 20-07 14:00; (C) 01-07 8:00; (D) 04-07 at 0:00. Black line represents the 200 m isobath..... 25

Figure 15. Submesoscale episode from scenario A, featuring vorticity (A-B-C), Okubo-Weiss (D-E-F), velocity (black arrows are instantaneous vectors at every third point) (G-H-I), and eddy kinetic energy (J-K-L). Left panels were taken on 18-07 at 20:00, center panels on 19-07 at 12:00, and right panels on 22-07 at 19:00. Black full line represents the 200 m isobath, and the black dotted line represents the 1000 m isobath..... 26

Figure 16. Average relative vorticity during July 19-23 from scenario B. Black full line represents the 200 m isobath, and the black dotted line represents the 1000 m isobath..... 27

Figure 17. Submesoscale episode from scenario B, featuring vorticity (A-B), Okubo-Weiss (C-D), velocity (black arrows are instantaneous vectors at every third point) (E-F), and eddy kinetic energy (G-H). Left panels were taken on 23-07 at 10:00, right panels on 25-07 at 18:00. Black full line represents the 200 m isobath, and the black dotted line represents the 1000 m isobath. .... 28

Figure 18. Submesoscale episode from scenario B, featuring vorticity (A-B-C), Okubo-Weiss (D-E-F), velocity (black arrows are instantaneous vectors at every third point) (G-H-I), and eddy kinetic energy (J-K-L). Left panels were taken on 24-07 at 22:00, center panels on 27-07 at 8:00, and right panels on 30-07 at 18:00. Black full line represents the 200 m isobath, and the black dotted line represents the 1000 m isobath..... 30

Figure 19. Submesoscale episode from scenario D, featuring vorticity (A-B-C), Okubo-Weiss (D-E-F), velocity (black arrows are instantaneous vectors at every third point) (G-H-I), and eddy kinetic energy (J-K-L). Left panels were taken on 10-07 at 23:00, center panels on 12-07 at 16:00, and right panels on 14-07 at 19:00. Black full line represents the 200 m isobath, and the black dotted line represents the 1000 m isobath..... 31

# 1. Introduction

Ocean processes and motions occur on a wide range of scales. Large scale dynamics, initiated by atmospheric winds, dictate the global ocean surface circulation. These large-scale motions then break into mesoscale processes  $O(10\text{ km}–100\text{ km})$ , which can be seen from space as they form eddies and meanders across oceans. These flows, where a significant amount of the ocean's kinetic energy reside, are mainly two-dimensional and dominated by horizontal advection. They most often remain in a state of hydrostatic and geostrophic balance from which energy is hardly dissipated by turbulence (Thomas *et al.*, 2008). Indeed, at these larger scales, the horizontal component of the flow usually exceeds the vertical component by 4-5 orders of magnitude (Mahadevan, 2006). This is due to the ocean geometry (small depth to length ratio) as well as the rotation of the earth and density stratification restraining vertical motion. Mesoscale eddies, which work similarly to atmospheric cyclones and anticyclones, are generally well understood and regularly observed with satellite altimeters (Stammer, 1997).

Recent studies, however, have shown that smaller scaled phenomena are very dynamic in the upper ocean and can drive much stronger vertical motions (1-2 orders of magnitude) than those associated with mesoscale flows (Capet *et al.*, 2008a). These small-scale oceanic processes are defined as submesoscale  $O(100\text{ m}–10\text{ km})$ , i.e., less than the first baroclinic deformation radius. Hydrographic features at this scale correspond to fronts, filaments and vortices, and are mainly generated through frontogenesis, baroclinic instabilities, and topographic wakes (McWilliams, 2016). Dynamically, submesoscale processes are characterized by  $O(1)$  Rossby ( $Ro$ ) and Richardson ( $Ri$ ) numbers, which differ from mesoscale processes ( $Ro \ll 1$ ,  $Ri \gg 1$ ) (Thomas *et al.*, 2008). In other words, currents at the submesoscale are less constrained by Coriolis force effects and instead governed by a higher degree of turbulence. The turbulent nature of submesoscale flows renders them irregular and without any clear spatial or temporal patterns.

Moreover, this submesoscale turbulence has important implications regarding the ocean's global circulation and energy budget. Baroclinic instabilities occurring at the submesoscale were first thought to be the transition between the non-dissipative mesoscale motions and the dissipative smaller-scale regime (McWilliams, 2003; Molemaker *et al.*, 2005; Müller *et al.*, 2005). In fact, submesoscale currents, despite being less energetic than mesoscale eddies, are associated with a loss of geostrophic and thermal wind balance, which translates into strong

ageostrophic effects in the mixed layer, thus generating greater vertical velocities (Mahadevan, 2016). This ageostrophic circulation can extract energy from the balanced state of mesoscales and transfer it to smaller, fully three-dimensional processes, typically  $\leq O(100 \text{ m})$ , such as convection and internal waves (Thomas *et al.*, 2008). While these very fine scales may be responsible for energy dissipation in the ocean (Mahadevan, 2006), they cannot account for the diapycnal mixing required to achieve tracer balance and energy equilibrium in the ocean (Wunsch, 2004). Consequently, the ongoing research on submesoscale dynamics is crucial to further understand its role on horizontal and vertical distribution of properties in the ocean.

The transport of particles in coastal waters can be attributed to many different oceanic features (e.g., tides, internal waves, upwelling, eddies, turbulent mixing). Submesoscale currents, by creating various nearshore transport pathways, substantially contribute to coastal transport (Dauhajre *et al.*, 2019). The coastal processes near Madeira Island, a deep-sea island located in the northeast Atlantic Ocean, have been widely investigated, although limited to the study of oceanic features found at the mesoscale, particularly within its wake (Alves *et al.*, 2021; Caldeira *et al.*, 2002, 2014; Caldeira & Sangrà, 2012; Couvelard *et al.*, 2012). The 2014 oceanographic campaign POS466, using ADCP data, allowed the observation of a current shear at the edge of Madeira's insular shelf, where there was a considerable difference in the current speed and direction between nearshore and offshore waters (Reis *et al.*, in preparation). Lagrangian drifter trajectories, deployed on the island's southern margin, further confirmed an alongshore transport over the shelf, leading to the hypothesis of particle retention inshore and particle dispersion offshore (Reis *et al.*, in preparation). However, submesoscale motions and their role on the local transport in this coastal area have yet to be explored. Considering the established link between the meso- and submesoscales, mainly by driving the energy cascade in the ocean, and the contribution of nearshore submesoscale currents to the coastal transport, there is a clear motive to complement previous studies on the mesoscale regime and insular shelf circulation in Madeira with a better understanding of submesoscale processes.

Using numerical simulations from a coupled ocean-atmosphere model and Eulerian submesoscale-detecting parameters, this study will attempt to describe the role of submesoscale surface activity on the coastal circulation of Madeira. Additionally, by isolating atmospheric and oceanic forcings (wind, tides, geostrophic currents) into different simulations,

a parallel objective is to determine the influence of each of these physical forcings on the intensity, duration, and location of the submesoscale phenomena observable in the area.

Section 2 will provide a review of literature on the topic of submesoscale processes globally and in Madeira. The study area is introduced in section 3. A description of the data and methods used can be found in section 4. Sections 5 and 6 present the results and discussion, respectively.

## 2. Literature Review

### 2.1. Observations of Submesoscale Features

Submesoscale features in the ocean are difficult to observe due to their small horizontal scales, spontaneous appearance, and short lifetime (McWilliams, 2016). SST and ocean color satellites reveal ubiquitous submesoscale structures at the ocean's surface but cannot measure the underlying velocity fields. Furthermore, while the current generation of satellite altimeters, which have a resolution near the deformation scale (100 km), routinely observe currents at the mesoscale, they are still unable to resolve them at the submesoscale (Gula *et al.*, 2021).

Early evidence of such submesoscale features came from photographs of the Apollo Mission in the 1970s, which revealed spiral eddies with horizontal scales of 10-25 km (Munk *et al.*, 2000). More recently, numerical modelling, both from high-resolution simulations (Capet *et al.*, 2008a; Dong & McWilliams, 2007; Klein *et al.*, 2008; Mahadevan & Tandon, 2006) and parametrization studies (Boccaletti *et al.*, 2007; Calvert *et al.*, 2020; Fox-Kemper & Ferrari, 2008), has been the main tool to adequately reproduce and understand submesoscale dynamics. Zhong & Bracco (2013), with high-resolution model runs, were able to resolve vertically the first 150 meters of the water column, capturing large vertical velocities and dispersion of Lagrangian particles. However, with increasingly complex and high-resolution models, there remains a gap in modern observations as they are unable to generate measurements of currents and wind vectors and waves with a high enough spatial and temporal resolution to serve as model validation and parametrization tools. A recent satellite mission, SEASTAR (Gommenginger *et al.*, 2019), proposes to fill this observational gap by generating 1-km resolution images of total ocean surface current vectors, wind vectors and wave direction spectra based on Synthetic Aperture Radar interferometry. Likewise, the Ocean Surface Current multiscale Observation Mission (OSCOM, Du *et al.*, 2021) satellite launch is expected to make headway in observing submesoscale structures over the global ocean surface using Doppler Scatterometer technology at a horizontal resolution of 5–10 km and a 3-day global coverage. Furthermore, the Surface Water Ocean Topography mission (SWOT, Morrow *et al.*, 2019) aims to provide a global coverage of sea surface height at a resolution of 15-30 km, but the presence of other motions at similar spatial scales, such as internal waves, makes it challenging to reconstruct surface velocity fields at the submesoscale. Nevertheless,

recent studies (Raschle *et al.*, 2017, 2020) have obtained promising results of sea surface roughness using airborne (optical and radar) and satellite measurements at unprecedented accuracy, which allow the monitoring of submesoscale fronts.

Progress in the observation and quantitative characterization of submesoscale motions in the upper ocean come from dedicated multiplatform in-situ campaigns: AESOP (Johnson *et al.*, 2020); LATMIX (Shcherbina *et al.*, 2015); LATEX (Petrenko *et al.*, 2017); OSMOSIS (Buckingham *et al.*, 2016); ASIRI (Wijesekera *et al.*, 2016); M-AUE (Jaffe *et al.*, 2017); CARTHE's LASER and SPLASH (D'Asaro *et al.*, 2020); and CALYPSO (Mahadevan *et al.*, 2020). These observational programs usually require a combination of different field instruments (e.g., moorings, buoys, autonomous underwater vehicles) and ships, which are budget-heavy and logistically complicated to operate (Gula *et al.*, 2021). Moreover, surface drifters and High-Frequency (HF) radars were deemed practical and accurate tools for oceanographic research in coastal areas (Carlson *et al.*, 2010; Ohlmann *et al.*, 2005). Numerous studies have observed nearshore submesoscale features in the surface layer using data from surface drifters (Alpers *et al.*, 2013; Esposito *et al.*, 2021; Krayushkin *et al.*, 2019; Nencioli *et al.*, 2011; Ohlmann *et al.*, 2017) or HF radars (Archer *et al.*, 2015; Chavanne *et al.*, 2010; Gildor *et al.*, 2009; Won *et al.*, 2019).

## 2.2. Submesoscale Circulation and Transport of Particles

### 2.2.1. Surface Processes and Transport

Submesoscale flows associated with coherent structures (e.g., fronts, filaments and vortices) are characterized by convergent surface currents, which concentrate buoyant material such as plankton, marine debris, and oil droplets (D'Asaro *et al.*, 2018). Through numerical simulations, Dauhajre *et al.*, (2017) demonstrated that these small-scale currents are ubiquitous on the Southern California shelf and are usually associated with fronts and filaments with strong cyclonic vorticity and daily time scales. The authors also discovered that surface material laterally advected within the shelf was preferentially trapped into the convergent lines of such frontal and filamentary structures and eventually driven into the ocean interior by the intense downwelling associated with convergence. Similar trapping patterns of surface particles were observed in submesoscale cyclonic eddies identified along the Eastern Australian Current from



in-situ and satellite data (Mantovanelli *et al.*, 2017; Schaeffer *et al.*, 2017). Furthermore, as shown by Gildor *et al.*, (2009) using high-resolution measurements of surface currents from HF radars and aerial photography, submesoscale barriers can halt horizontal mixing and trap passive scalars such as larvae or pollutants.

The control of Lagrangian trajectories by submesoscale currents has been commonly observed in both open-ocean (Berti *et al.*, 2011; Gula *et al.*, 2014; Lumpkin & Elipot, 2017) and coastal (Krayushkin *et al.*, 2019; Ohlmann *et al.*, 2017; Petrenko *et al.*, 2017) regimes. Modeling studies (Romero *et al.*, 2013; Uchiyama *et al.*, 2014) have shown that submesoscale coherent structures on the shelf are more responsible for material dispersion than the mean currents and tides. These simulations also revealed that the nearshore lateral transport is highly anisotropic and generally aligned with the coastline, limiting cross-shelf dispersion. Concurrently, Nencioli *et al.*, (2011), using surface drifter measurements during the LATEX campaign, identified Lagrangian coherent structures that were flowing relatively parallel to the coast. In turn, water masses moving along the coastal margin encountering such submesoscale structures can slow down and see their residence time increase, which can induce high chl-a concentrations (Bolado-Penagos *et al.*, 2020). By contrast, Kubryakov *et al.*, (2021), working with in-situ, satellite and aerial drone photography data, discovered submesoscale eddies on the coastal zone of Crimea that generated cross-shelf transport of accumulated total suspended matter. Moreover, while it was initially suggested that offshore waters were more isotropic than near the coast (Romero *et al.*, 2013), the anisotropy associated with the persistence of a submesoscale front was also observed offshore, where Carlson *et al.*, (2018) measured Lagrangian velocities at the ocean surface by tracking the dispersion of bamboo dinner plates using novel remote sensing technology in conjunction with drifters from the LASER experiment.

Surface currents down to 100 meter scales can produce strong local dispersion of tracers and are studied for a wide range of applications, including the tracking of oceanic pollutants (Poje *et al.*, 2014). Poje and co-authors were able to describe the trajectory and the submesoscale dispersion of the Deepwater Horizon spill in the Gulf of Mexico using 300 GPS-drifters as part of the Grand Lagrangian Deployment (GLAD) program in 2012. Their results allowed the quantification of the dispersion that were until then not included in operational circulation models and satellite altimeter-derived velocity fields.

### 2.2.2. Vertical Processes and Transport

Submesoscale processes are known to induce enhanced vertical velocities (Klein & Lapeyre, 2009; Mahadevan, 2006; Mahadevan *et al.*, 2012) and exchanges of heat (Siegelman *et al.*, 2020; Su *et al.*, 2018, 2020), buoyancy (McWilliams, 2017) and biogeochemical tracers (Bosse *et al.*, 2017) between the mixed layer and the ocean interior. This vertical flux of tracers is responsible for the rapid stratification and of the upper ocean, which increases light exposure and residence time of phytoplankton in the euphotic layer, stimulating primary production (Lévy *et al.*, 2018; Mahadevan, 2016). The effects of submesoscale eddies associated with mixed-layer stratification were studied namely in the case of phytoplankton blooms (Brody *et al.*, 2016; Mahadevan *et al.*, 2012).

Early simulations indicated that submesoscale vertical circulations increased phytoplankton production and subduction in the open ocean (Lévy *et al.*, 2001; McGillicuddy *et al.*, 2003; Oschlies, 2002). It was later suggested that in offshore oligotrophic regime, about 20% of new primary production could be explained by submesoscale dynamics (Lévy *et al.*, 2014). This concurred with recent model simulations revealing that improved horizontal grid resolution, thus higher sensitivity to submesoscale activity, led to greater vertical transport of nutrients supporting primary production in the open ocean (Balwada *et al.*, 2018; Uchida *et al.*, 2020). Contrastingly, other studies suggest that in nutrient-rich regions such as eastern boundary upwelling systems, submesoscale currents reduce nutrient abundance from the euphotic layer, limiting primary production (Gruber *et al.*, 2011; Hauschildt *et al.*, 2021; Lathuiliere *et al.*, 2011). In the California Current System, phytoplankton abundance is particularly intensified offshore during upwelling favorable winds (Kessouri *et al.*, 2020; Shulman *et al.*, 2015).

These effects are modulated by a seasonal cycle of submesoscale motions related to the depth of the mixed layer : they are much stronger in winter, when the mixed layer is deeper due to weaker thermal stratification, than in summer, and therefore increasingly energized by baroclinic instabilities (Gula *et al.*, 2021). Evidence of this seasonality in submesoscale flows come from both numerical simulations (Ajayi *et al.*, 2021; Brannigan *et al.*, 2015; Capet *et al.*, 2008; Kessouri *et al.*, 2020; Mensa *et al.*, 2013; Sasaki *et al.*, 2014) and in-situ observations (Callies *et al.*, 2015).

Moreover, frontogenesis at the submesoscale has strong contribution to the vertical transport of tracers near the surface (Lévy *et al.*, 2012; Zhong *et al.*, 2017). Initially, vertical flows associated with submesoscale fronts were described as physical processes responsible for the supply of nutrients to the euphotic zone, modulating biological production (Williams & Follows, 2003). As a result, submesoscale frontal dynamics have been widely studied over the past two decades (Capet *et al.*, 2008b; D'Asaro *et al.*, 2011; Giddy *et al.*, 2021; Lévy *et al.*, 2012; Liu & Levine, 2016). Recently, submesoscale-resolving simulations have been able to capture upwelling and downwelling patterns associated with density fronts (Hauschildt *et al.*, 2021; Jensen *et al.*, 2018) and their contribution to the vertical advection of phytoplankton (Ruiz *et al.*, 2019). In addition, submesoscale motions, through frontogenesis and baroclinic instabilities, can lead to the slumping of isopycnals and the generation of vertical density gradients in the surface mixed-layer, a process called restratification (Lapeyre *et al.*, 2006). This restratification induced by submesoscale fronts has been confirmed via in-situ observations (Johnson *et al.*, 2020; Thompson *et al.*, 2016) and models that either resolve (Lévy *et al.*, 2010; Yu *et al.*, 2019; Zhong & Bracco, 2013) or parametrize (Boccaletti *et al.*, 2007; Calvert *et al.*, 2020; Fox-Kemper & Ferrari, 2008) the submesoscale.

Much like frontogenesis, the generation of dense filaments – filamentogenesis – , form when two parallel fronts with opposite density gradients align, can also be an effect of small-scale processes (McWilliams *et al.*, 2009). The intensification of cold and dense waters at the surface can produce vertical velocities attributed to the baroclinic instabilities of the filament, reaching values of  $\sim 1 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$  when submesoscale flows are resolved (Gula *et al.*, 2014). Schubert *et al.* (2021), using submesoscale-permitting simulations, showed that the Agulhas leakage, the warm and salty inflow of Indian Ocean water into the Atlantic Ocean, is increased due to strong submesoscale-induced filaments. This study highlights the importance of submesoscale flows and mixing processes on the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation, and thus on the global climate.

### 2.3. Ocean Processes in Madeira

Mesoscale features developing around Madeira Island, particularly when originating from oceanic wakes, has been the focus of extensive research in the last two decades. Satellite images initially revealed the formation of a warm wake south of the main island of Madeira and geostrophically balanced eddies spinning off both insular flanks, with the western side being more dynamic (Caldeira *et al.*, 2002). Thereafter, ocean circulation models determined that the wake was in fact asymmetric at the ocean surface, with strong cyclonic eddies in the west and weak anticyclonic eddies in the east (Caldeira & Sangrà, 2012). This asymmetry in vorticity from Madeira's wake generation was further confirmed by a 35-year one-way coupling (atmospheric to ocean model) simulation (Alves *et al.*, 2021), which also revealed a deeper mixed-layer in the east downwelling region than in the west upwelling region, especially in the summer months. Using a similar modeling approach, Couvelard *et al.*, (2012) used a high resolution meteorological model that included Madeira's orography to force an oceanic model representing the region. This study showed that a wind-induced wake was highly contributing to the formation and containment of eddies in the lee of Madeira Island. Additionally, Caldeira *et al.*, (2014), using remote sensing data and measurements from a combination of field missions, presented the first clear evidence of a wind-induced mesoscale anticyclone in Madeira's sheltered leeward region. When comparing these results to historical records of drifter trajectories with similar spatial and temporal patterns, the authors suggested that anticyclonic eddies were regionally predominant during summer in the south of Madeira. Notwithstanding that these studies have exhaustively described Madeira's wake generation and its role in regulating mesoscale eddies, there is still a considerable lack of knowledge regarding submesoscale processes in this area.

### 3. Geographic Setting

Madeira is a volcanic island part of Macaronesia located in the northeast Atlantic Ocean, approximately 700 km off the western African coast (Morocco) and 850 km from the southwest Iberian Peninsula (mainland Portugal) (Fig. 1a). It is ~58 km in length and ~23 km in width and oriented in a northwest-southeast direction. Located at the eastern boundary of the North Atlantic Subtropical Gyre, intersecting the Azores Current northbound and the Canary Current eastbound, its climate is governed by the Azores subtropical high-pressure system. Madeira's high mountain ridge (reaching ~1800 m) (Fig. 1b), extending at the center and across the length of the island, is perpendicularly aligned to the incoming trade winds, which are predominately from the northeast and strongest during the summer months. This imposing orography, acting as a physical barrier to the prevailing winds, is namely responsible for the generation of atmospheric and oceanic wakes (Caldeira & Sangrà, 2012; Caldeira & Tomé, 2013; Couvelard *et al.*, 2012), which are in turn associated with high sea surface temperatures on the leeward side of the island (Caldeira *et al.*, 2002). Madeira's narrow shelf is characterized with a steep slope, and its width varies considerably, ranging between ~1 to 10 km from the shoreline (Mata *et al.*, 2013). The Madeira Archipelago also consists of the Desertas Islands and Porto Santo Island (Fig. 1b). Additionally, a submarine ridge between Madeira and the Desertas extends to 18 km in length and reaches up to 150 m in depth. Local tides are semidiurnal, with a tidal amplitude averaging 2 m (Canning-Clode *et al.*, 2008).

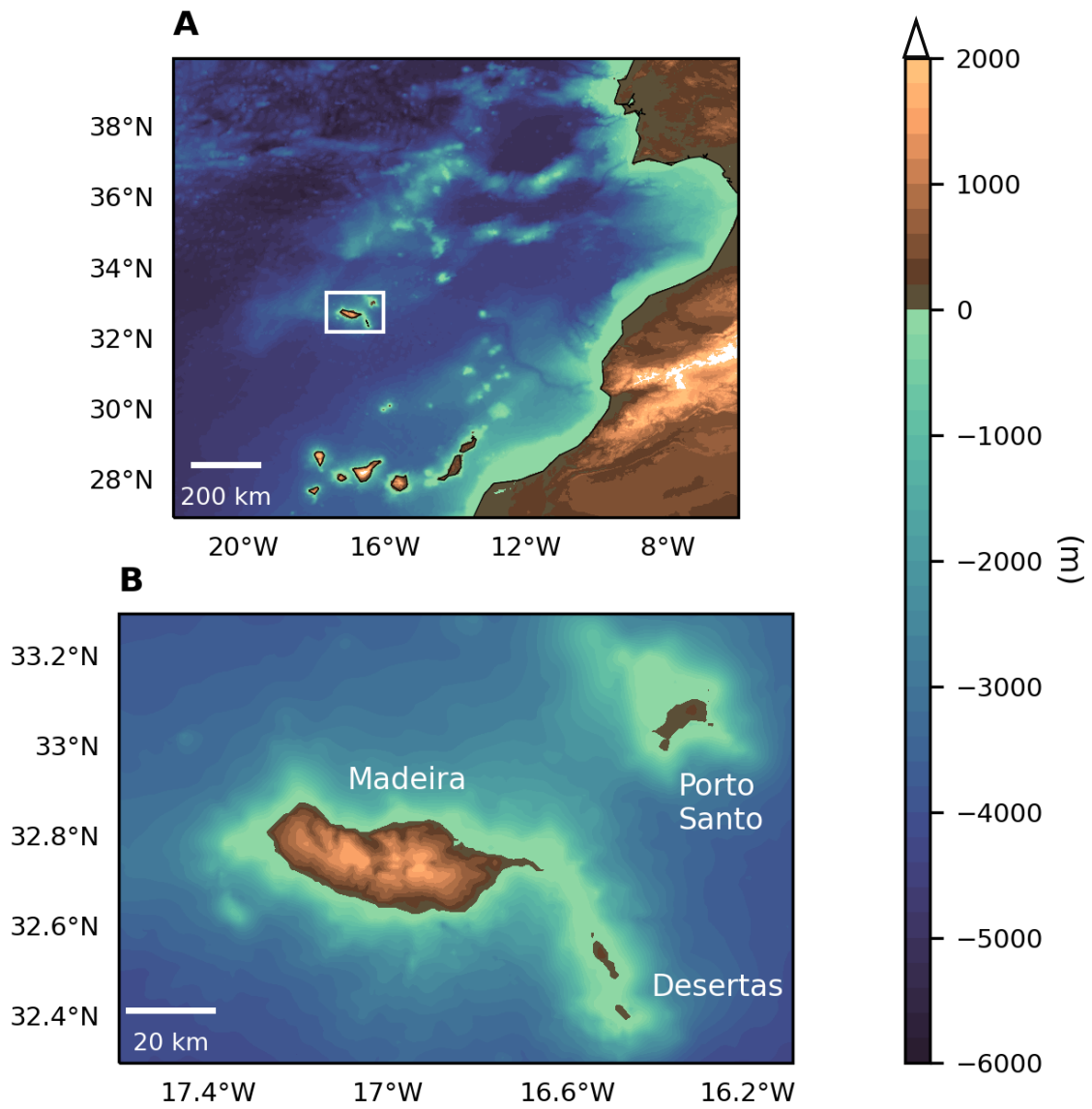


Figure 1. Topobathymetric maps of the study area. (A) Location of the Madeira Archipelago in the eastern Atlantic. The white box represents the boundaries for the ROMS and WRF models' 1 km resolution grids. (B) Madeira's island group within the extent of the 1 km resolution grid delimited in (A).

## 4. Data and Methods

### 4.1. Numerical Models

The modelling framework for this study was based on the two-way Coupled Ocean-Atmosphere-Waves-Sediment Transport (COAWST) system, which used the Regional Ocean Modelling System (ROMS) and the Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) models for oceanic and atmospheric simulation inputs, respectively. Given the strong ocean-atmosphere interactions, this model coupling proved to be effective in recent studies on the coastal dynamics of Madeira (Alves *et al.*, 2021; Azevedo *et al.*, 2021; Pullen *et al.*, 2017). Further explanation of the COAWST model implementation can be found in (Warner *et al.*, 2010). In this study, the ROMS and WRF models operated at a 1-km resolution, the result of a nested grid approach to improve results locally, thereby defining the spatial boundaries of the study area (Fig. 1). Numerical simulations were made using the COAWST modelling framework for the entirety of the month of July 2018, generating outputs with 1-hour time steps. A 15-day spin-up prior to July 1<sup>st</sup> was performed to ensure the stabilization and reliability of the model before producing results of the desired timeframe. From the simulation outputs, only the oceanic components and the ocean's surface layer were used for this study.

ROMS is a free-surface, terrain-following hydrodynamic model that uses primitive equations to quantitatively estimate oceanic parameters (Shchepetkin & McWilliams, 2005). For the operation of ROMS, the initial and boundary conditions were taken from the 24-hour intervals of the Mercator Ocean Model with a 1/12° resolution (Lellouche *et al.*, 2018). The input of tide conditions was parametrized based on the TPXO Global Model (Egbert & Erofeeva, 2002). The bathymetric data used as terrain for ROMS was extracted from the General Bathymetric Chart of the Oceans (GEBCO, Becker *et al.*, 2009), with a horizontal resolution of 30 arc seconds (~0.78 km).

WRF is a non-hydrostatic model useful for studying and forecasting atmospheric dynamics (Skamarock *et al.*, 2008). The initial and boundary conditions to force this model was based on the FNL (Final) Operational Model Global Tropospheric Analyses with a 6-hour interval product from National Center for Environmental Prediction (NCEP, 2000). The topography of the islands was acquired from the Shuttle Radar Topography Mission (SRTM) dataset at a 3 arc-second resolution (~90 m).

## 4.2. Physical Parameters

To detect general submesoscale activity in the area, Eulerian properties of flow kinematics were calculated. The Eulerian method, because it measures the instantaneous flow field, can be advantageous for its preserved spatial coverage and simple calculations. Therefore, it was deemed an adequate approach to identify small-scale and ephemeral processes within a specific domain. The following physical parameters, which have been successfully applied to characterize coastal submesoscale features in previous studies (Archer et al., 2015; Mantovanelli et al., 2017; Schaeffer et al., 2017; Zeiden et al., 2021), were selected:

Relative vorticity ( $\zeta$ ), defined by equation 1, has anticlockwise ( $>0$ , cyclonic) and clockwise ( $<0$ , anticyclonic) rotations in the Northern Hemisphere.

$$\zeta = \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \quad ; \quad (1)$$

Horizontal divergence ( $\delta$ ) is defined by equation 2. A positive value ( $>0$ ) implies locally divergent flows and upwelling, whereas a negative value ( $<0$ ) represents convergence and downwelling.

$$\delta = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \quad ; \quad (2)$$

Total strain ( $\varrho$ ), understood as the internal deformation at a given point, is defined by equation 3, which is a function of shearing strain and normal strain.

$$\varrho = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}\right)^2} \quad ; \quad (3)$$

Okubo-Weiss ( $W$ ), derived from Okubo (1970) and Weiss (1991), is commonly known as a parameter that informs on the relative importance of deformation and rotation. It is defined by equation 4, i.e., the difference between strain ( $\varrho$ ) and rotation ( $\zeta$ ).

$$W = \varrho^2 - \zeta^2 \quad (4)$$

These differentiation calculations were based on the horizontal components ( $u, v$ ) generated from the model outputs. To simplify their comparison, vorticity, divergence, and strain were normalized by the absolute value of Coriolis ( $|f|$ ). Also, the ratio of ( $\zeta / |f|$ ) estimated the Rossby number ( $Ro$ ), an indicator of geostrophic balance between relative vorticity and planetary



vorticity. This  $Ro$  will be the parameter used in this study to evaluate the relative vorticity. The parameters were calculated using Python programming language (Van Rossum, 2009).

### 4.3. Forcing Scenarios

To understand the influence of different forcings on submesoscale activity, 4 separate scenarios were configured and simulated for the one-month timeframe. Scenario A recreated the most complete portrayal of ocean circulation around Madeira by including three physical forcings: wind, tides, and geostrophic processes. For simulations B-C-D, the background geostrophic forcings implemented in ROMS were forced at the model's boundaries. In scenario B, the forcing of locally generated winds was included. Scenario C excluded the wind forcing and instead considered the effect of tides. Scenario D excluded both wind and tidal forcings, thus isolating the geostrophic far-field forcing.

Scenario A, representing the most realistic version of Madeira's coastal circulation, was previously applied and validated in earlier studies (Alves *et al.*, 2021; Caldeira & Tomé, 2013). Validation of wind speed and sea level calculations were done by comparing model results with in-situ measurements of the Observatório-Funchal meteorological station and a Funchal tide gauge, respectively. This case-based methodology was inspired by an ongoing study on the insular shelf circulation in Madeira of (Reis *et al.*, in preparation).

These configurations allowed the assessment of the intensity, frequency, duration, and spatial distribution of the submesoscale-detecting parameters associated with each forcing. Once the four simulations were executed, animations of the hourly time steps were created for each parameter at the surface layer to better visualize and discern submesoscale patterns. The most relevant observations were then plotted and described in detail.

### 4.4. Spatio-temporal Analysis

From the different scenarios, distinct submesoscale events were identified and analyzed in depth. A detailed characterization of the spatial and temporal evolution of these submesoscale features was made using the  $Ro$  and  $W$  parameters for each of them. In addition, the surface velocity and eddy kinetic energy (EKE) were included in this analysis to further describe the identified processes over time. Horizontal velocity ( $V$ ) is defined by the vector magnitude formula in equation 5.

$$V = \sqrt{u^2 + v^2} \quad (5)$$

The EKE, defined by equation 6, is a parameter used to quantify the energy generated from vortices in the ocean.

$$EKE = \frac{u^2 + v^2}{2} \quad (6)$$

These two parameters were directly calculated using the xroms package (Thyng *et al.*, 2022) made for Python which contains built-in functions for ROMS output.

## 5. Results

### 5.1. Submesoscale Activity under Different Forcing Scenarios

#### 5.1.1. Scenario A: All Forcings

In the scenario most representative of real conditions, the parameters were visible in many areas, though mostly near the island shelf. Relative vorticity, strain and Okubo-Weiss showed significant signatures on the western, southern, and eastern margins of Madeira Island, over the Desertas ridge (<200 m depth), and on the margins of the Desertas and Porto Santo islands (Fig. 2a-c-d). Surface divergence was generally less spread out, with strong values usually found on the west and east flanks of Madeira and over the ridge (Fig. 2b).

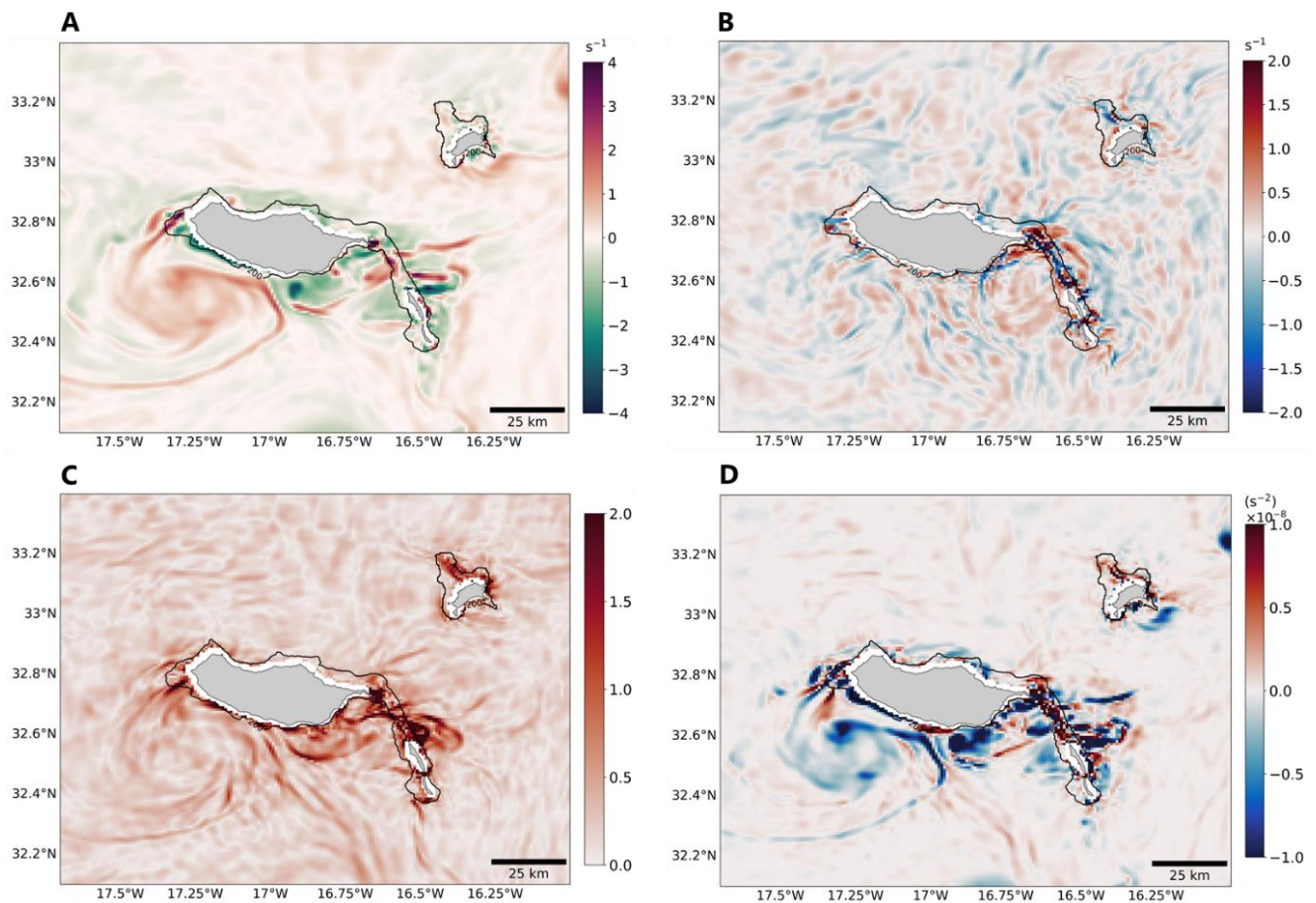


Figure 2. All parameters during scenario A. (A) Relative vorticity on 18-07 at 4:00; (B) Divergence on 14-07 at 23:00; (C) Strain on 18-07 15:00; (D) Okubo-Weiss on 18-07 at 4:00. Black line represents the 200 m isobath.

#### 5.1.2. Scenario B: Wind Forcing

Under the wind forcing scenario, the relative vorticity parameter appeared in various locations across the archipelago. While it was mainly concentrated near coastal waters, it also showed strong values offshore.

Instances of strong vorticity were prevalent off the western and eastern flanks of Madeira Island, with more consistency in the west, as well as along the northern and southern coasts. Indeed, relatively high positive values superposed onto high negative values were persistent on the west flank ( $Ro \sim 4/-4$ ), initially within the 200 m isobaths, then extending further away from the coast, for a duration of about 7 days (Fig. 3a). On the eastern side of the island, occurrences of high negative values near the coast ( $Ro \sim -2$ ) and high positive values further offshore ( $Ro \sim 2$ ) were seen regularly (Fig. 3b), though not as continuously, lasting never more than one day. South of the island, instances of intense positive vorticity, with  $Ro$  varying between 3 and 4, manifested parallel to the coastline and lasted over 4 days (Fig. 3a-c). East of Desertas Islands, intense areas of both positive and negative vorticity ( $Ro$  of up to 4 and -4 respectively) appeared constantly, stretching away from shore (Fig. 3d). In Porto Santo, areas of elevated positive and negative vorticity ( $Ro \sim 3/-3$ ) were observed regularly off the east and west tips of the island (Fig. b-d).

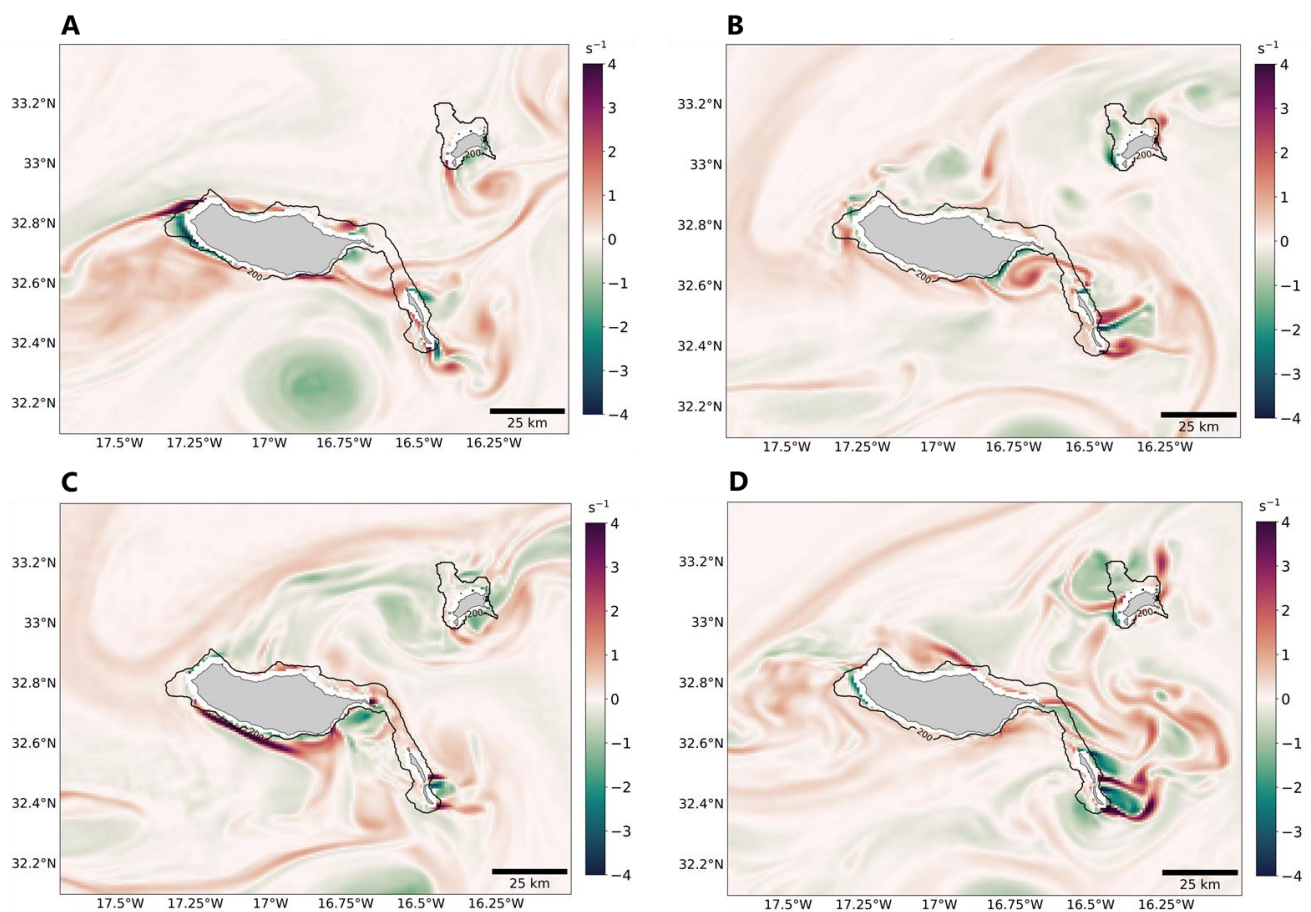


Figure 3. Relative vorticity parameter during scenario B taken on: (A) 19-07 at 10:00; (B) 04-07 at 10:00; (C) 01-07 0:00; (D) 08-07 at 17:00. Black line represents the 200 m isobath.

Surface divergence, overall, was not a significant parameter in the wind simulation, with the most notable values concentrated mainly on the western flank of Madeira Island (Fig. 4a) and over the Desertas ridge (Fig. 4b) and lasting generally only up to a few hours.

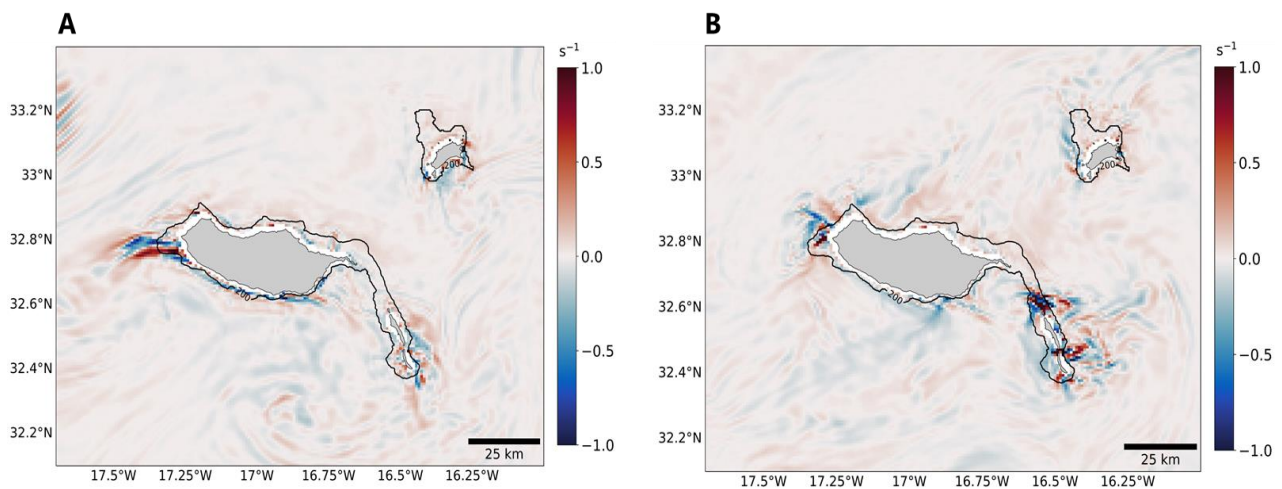


Figure 4. Divergence parameter during scenario B taken on: (A) 20-07 at 12:00; (B) 05-07 15:00. Black line represents the 200 m isobath.

Areas of high strain ( $\rho$  of up to 2) were observed on the west tip (Fig. 5a) and along the south coastline of the main island (Fig. 5a-b). In most cases, these strained areas behaved in a similar spatial and temporal way to the areas of strong vorticity. Others occurred recurrently North and East of the Desertas (Fig. 5c).

Regarding the  $W$  parameter, zones of relatively elevated negative values were prevalent across the study area under the isolated wind forcing. This was particularly the case by Madeira's western (Fig. 6a) and southern (Fig. 6b) shores, as well as on the margins of the Desertas and Porto Santo islands (Fig. 6c). Constant negative  $W$  in Madeira's west and south coasts and around the Desertas, where high values of both vorticity and strain were observed, indicated a clear dominance of rotation over strain in these areas.

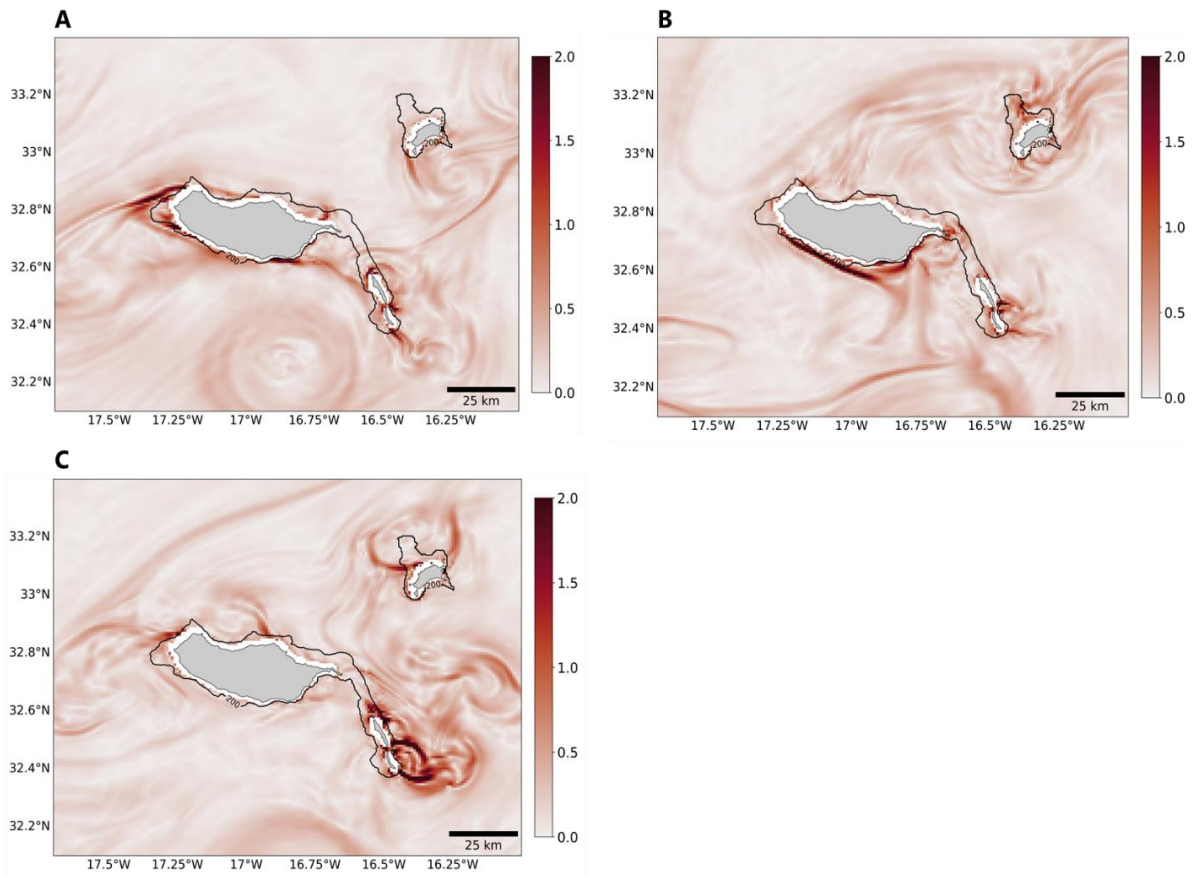


Figure 6. Strain parameter during scenario B taken on: (A) 19-07 at 18:00; (B) 01-07 0:00; (C) 09-07 5:00. Black line represents the 200 m isobath.

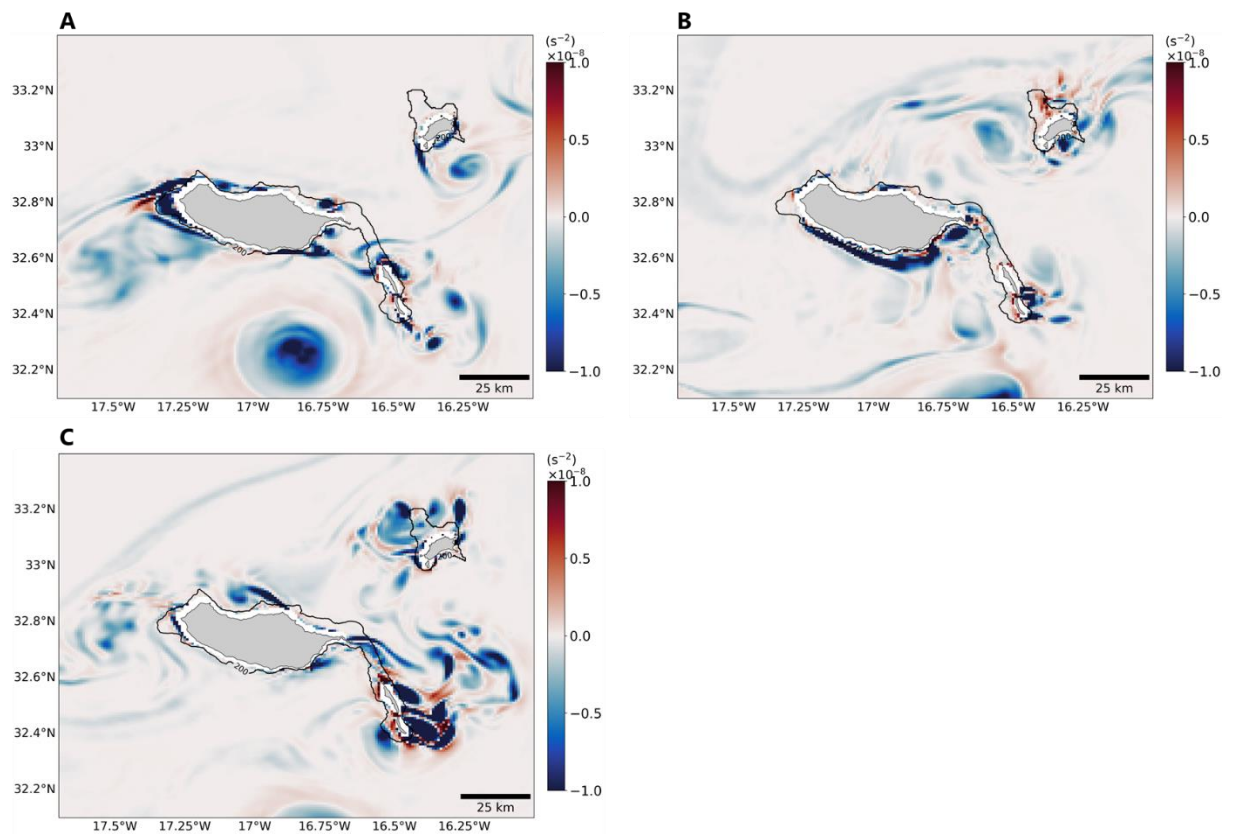


Figure 5. Okubo-Weiss parameter during scenario B taken on: (A) 19-07 at 16:00; (B) 01-07 0:00; (C) 08-07 16:00. Black line represents the 200 m isobath.

### 5.1.3. Scenario C: Tidal Forcing

When tides were isolated, the parameters were generally more intense in shallow or coastal waters than in deeper waters. The vorticity parameter mainly showed high values ( $Ro$  of  $\sim 4/-4$ ) along the eastern tip of Madeira Island and North of Desertas Islands (Fig. 7a-b). These areas were characterized by east-west moving patterns with periods of about 12 hours. Also, occasional clumps of negative vorticity with a  $Ro$  of around  $-2$  formed along the south coast of Madeira and remained near the shelf for approximately 1 day (Fig. 7b). On the southeastern margins of Porto Santo Island, other areas with high Rossby numbers ( $Ro$  of  $\sim 4/-3$ ) were observed, where both positive and negative vorticity were generated (Fig c).

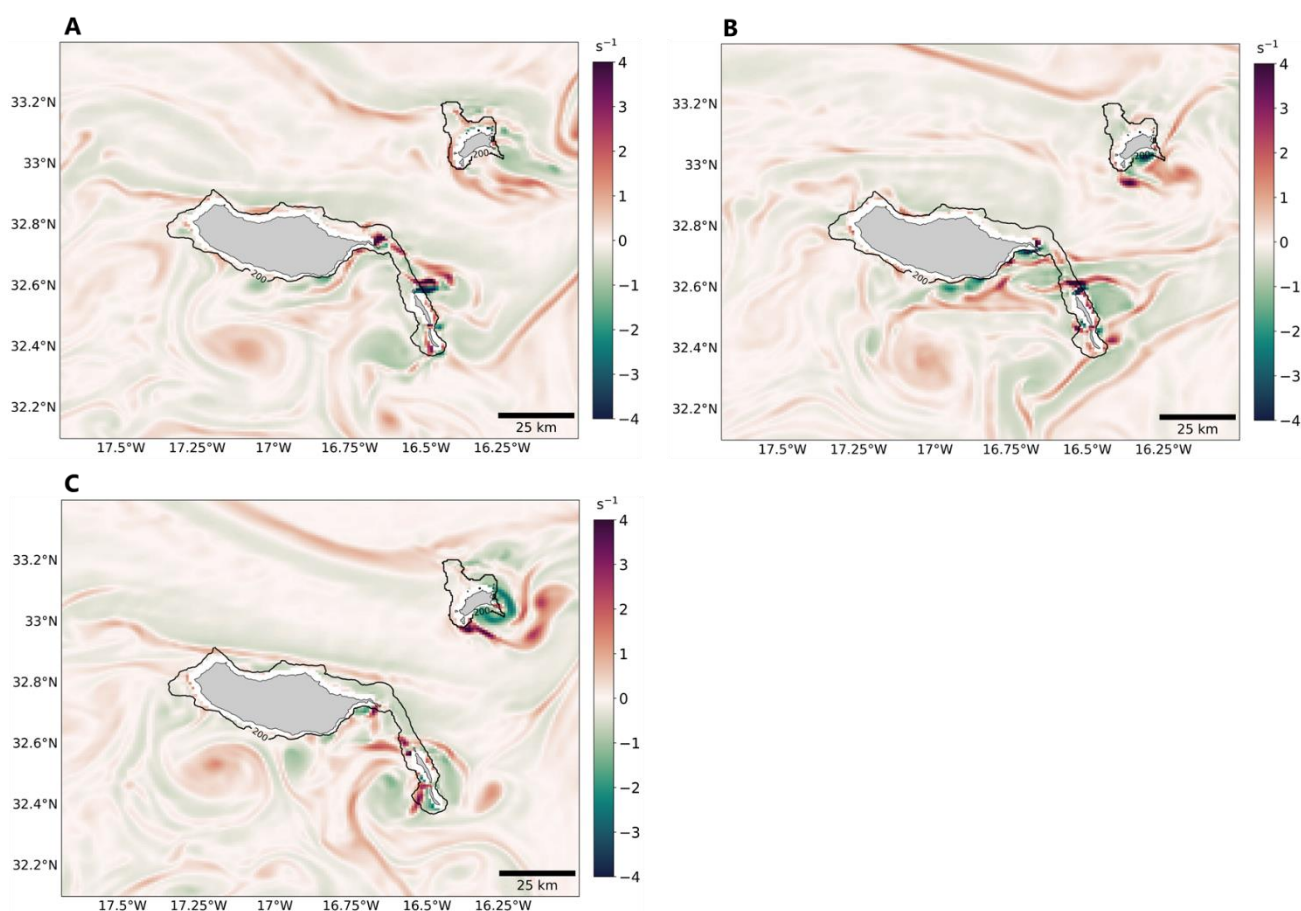


Figure 7. Relative vorticity parameter during scenario C taken on: (A) 19-07 at 10:00; (B) 04-07 at 10:00; (C) 01-07 0:00; (D) 08-07 at 17:00. Black line represents the 200 m isobath.

Moreover, zones of strong surface convergence ( $\delta$  of  $-2$ ) were periodically found over the Desertas Ridge ( $<200$  m depth) (Fig. 8a). Equally in periods of 12 hours, adjacent strips of relatively high convergence and divergence ( $\delta$  of  $-1/1$  respectively) drifted westwards parallel to the ridge (Fig. 8b).

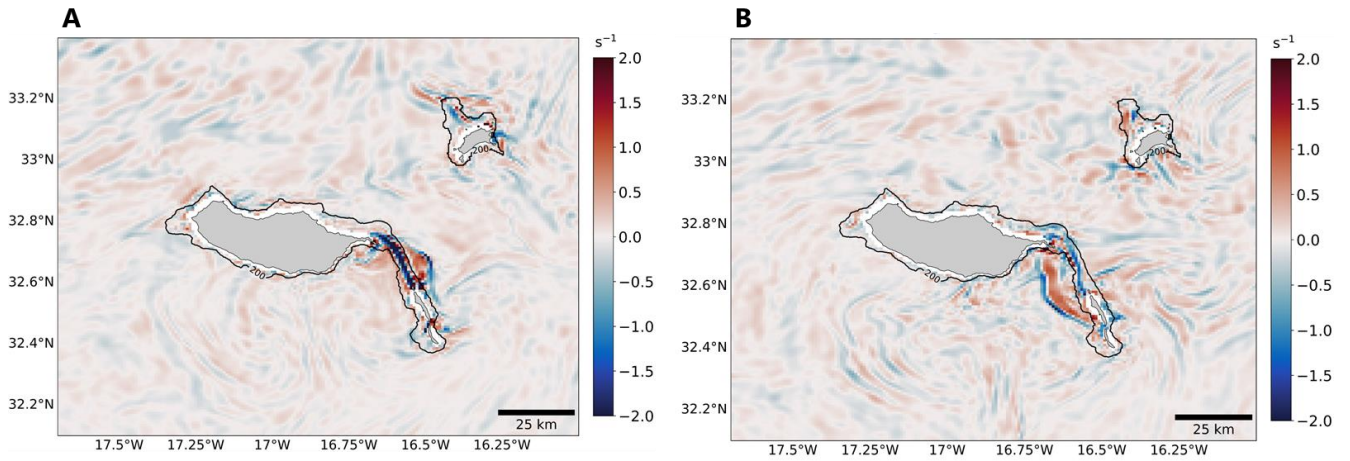


Figure 8. Divergence parameter during scenario C taken on: (A) 26-07 at 23:00; (B) 21-07 0:00. Black line represents the 200 m isobath.

Furthermore, considerably high values of strain ( $q$  of up to 2) were regularly observed over the Desertas ridge and very near the eastern and southeastern shores of Madeira (Fig. 9a). The Porto Santo surroundings did not show consistent strained areas, but when they did, they appeared mostly south of the island and lasted up to 12 hours (Fig. 9b).

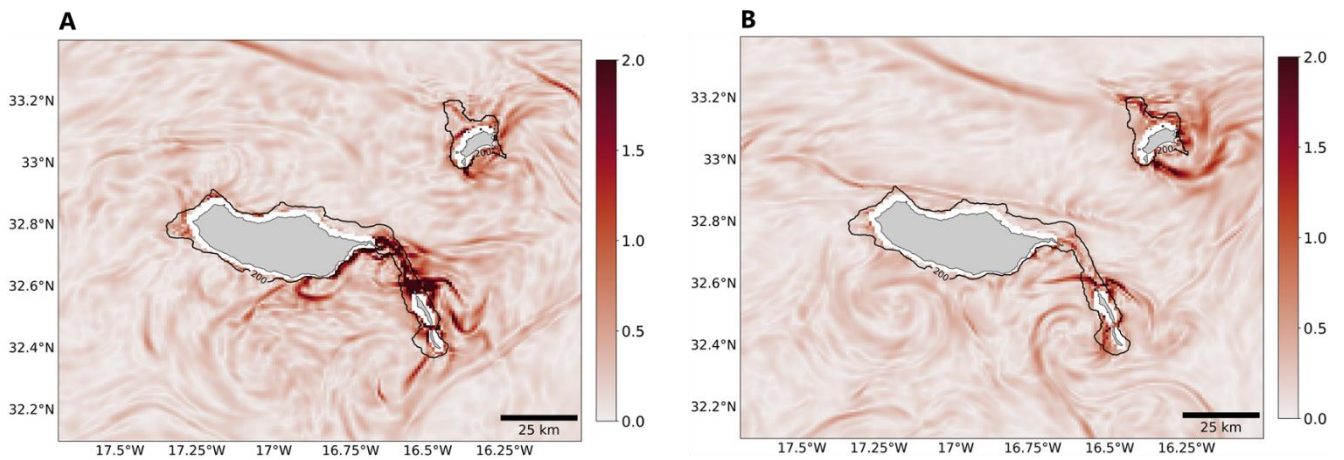


Figure 9. Strain parameter during scenario C taken on: (A) 16-07 at 13:00; (B) 08-07 6:00. Black line represents the 200 m isobath.

The  $W$  parameter alternated between significantly high positive and negative values over the ridge, but more often showed high positive indices (Fig. 10a), corresponding to a strain dominance over rotation. Near Porto Santo, off the south and east coasts, there was instead a large dominance of rotation over strain, dictated by predominant negative values (Fig. 10b).



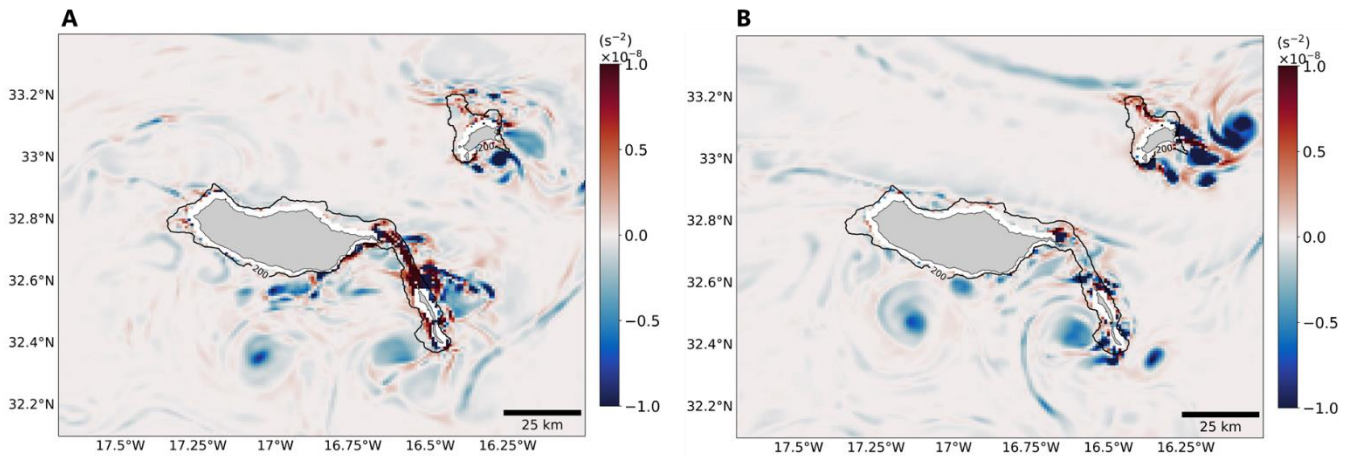


Figure 10. Okubo-Weiss parameter during scenario C taken on: (A) 15-07 at 0:00; (B) 10-07 0:00. Black line represents the 200 m isobath.

#### 5.1.4. Scenario D: Geostrophic Forcing

In the geostrophic forcing scenario, the parameters were generally more noticeable nearshore, but manifested offshore as well.

Significantly high vorticity occurred all around Madeira Island as well as East of Desertas Islands. Along the north coast, adjacent areas of moderately high positive and negative vorticity ( $Ro \sim 2.5/-2.5$ ) were regularly observed (Fig. 11a) for several hours. Additionally, marked features of negative vorticity were intensifying up to a  $Ro$  of  $-4$  at the tip of Ponto de São Lourenço, from where they continued moving along the southeastern shore (Fig. 11b). Along the southeastern margins of the island, various areas with a  $Ro$  of about  $3$  were seen forming and lasting from  $3$  to  $6$  days (Fig 11a-c). On the northwest coast, instances of strong positive ( $Ro \sim 3$ ) (Fig. 11b) and negative vorticity ( $Ro \sim -4$ ) (Fig. 11c) were observed. The former spread thinly towards the west, similarly to the strip of positive vorticity identified in the wind scenario (Fig. 3a) which persisted for a week, while the latter had northward movement and spread wider, lasting for approximately  $3$  days. Furthermore, on the eastern coastal area of the Desertas, considerably high values of negative vorticity ( $Ro \sim -4$ ) eventually gave way to anticyclonic eddies of up to  $7$ km in diameter (Fig. 11d). These eddies ( $Ro \sim -1$ ) propagated north towards Porto Santo and were active for over  $4$  days.

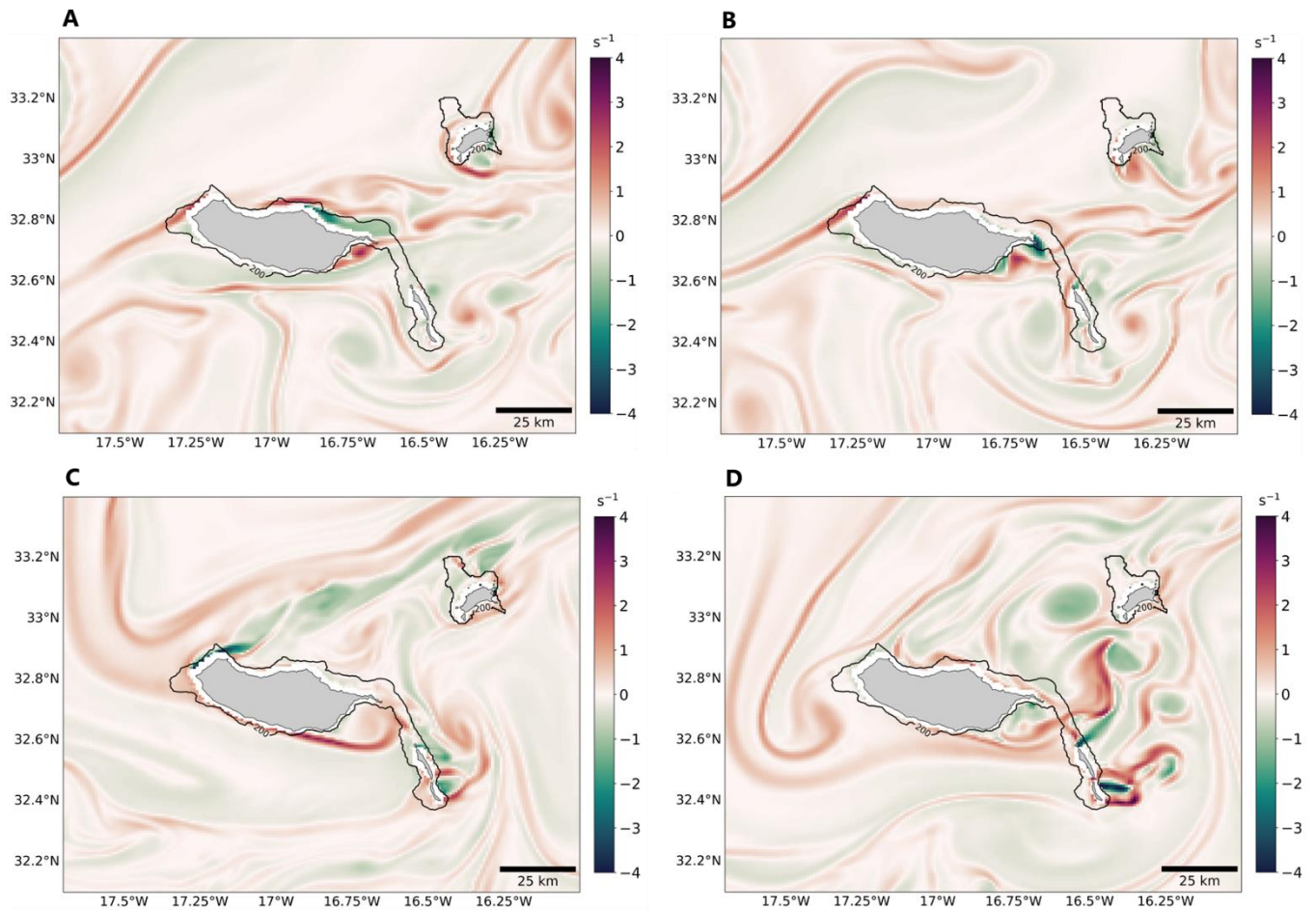


Figure 11. Relative vorticity parameter during scenario D taken on: (A) 18-07 at 11:00; (B) 20-07 at 13:00; (C) 01-07 0:00; (D) 06-07 at 0:00. Black line represents the 200 m isobath.

The divergence parameter only showed two significant areas of activity: by the east tip of Madeira (Fig. 12a) and over the Desertas ridge (Fig. 12b), where adjacent areas of both divergence and convergence were consistently observed.

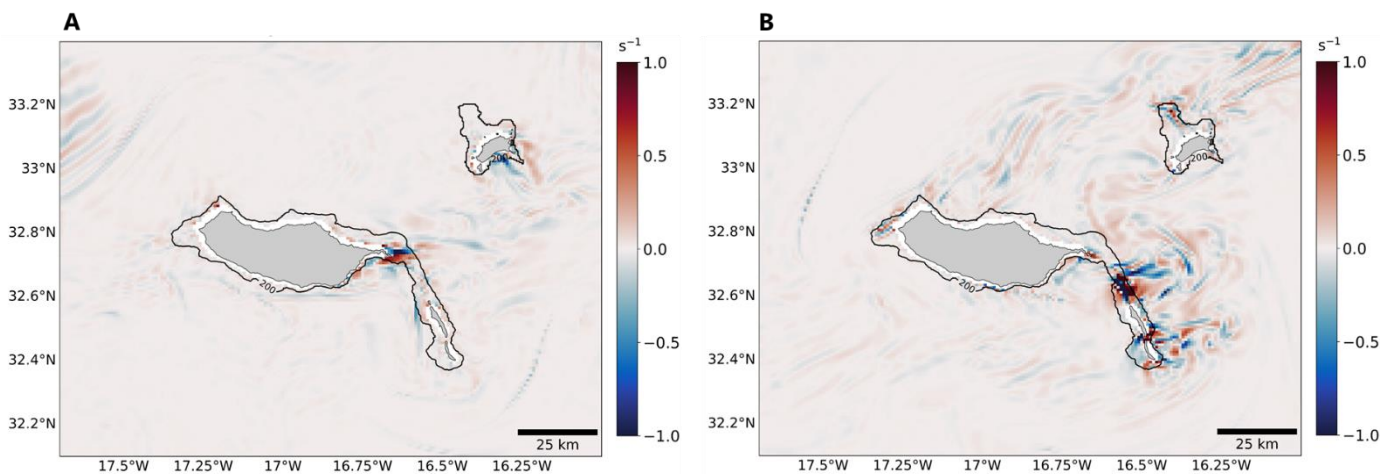


Figure 12. Divergence parameter during scenario D taken on: (A) 19-07 at 23:00; (B) 04-07 22:00. Black line represents the 200 m isobath.

Areas of considerably high strain ( $\rho$  of up to 2) were notably apparent around Madeira on its northwestern and southeastern (Fig. 13a-b) margins, as well as along its northern coast (Fig. 13c). South-East of the Desertas Islands, recurrent occurrences of high strain ( $\rho \geq 2$ ) were seen off the coast, while others were also visible over the ridge (Fig. 13d).

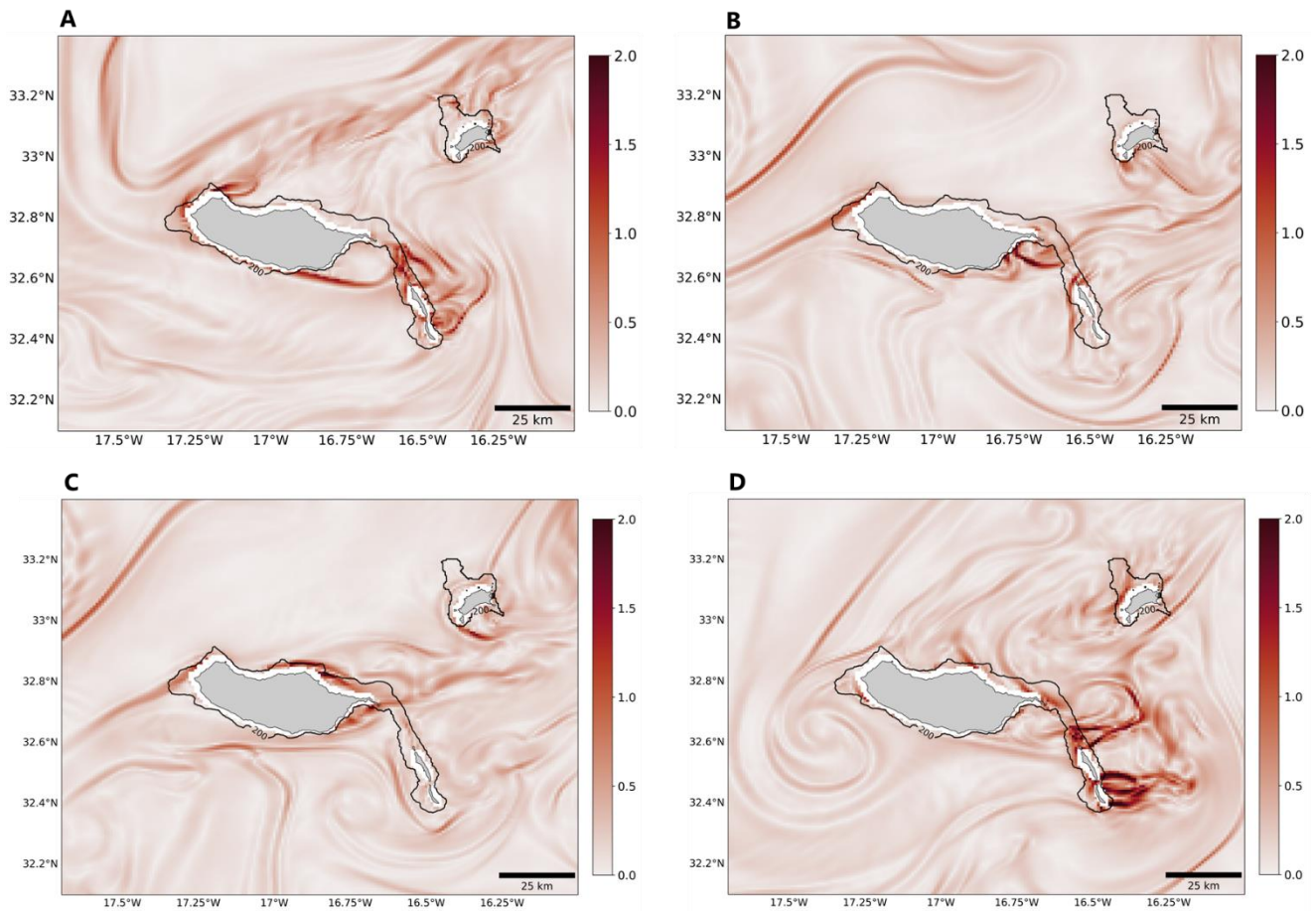


Figure 13. Strain parameter during scenario D taken on: (A) 1-07 at 18:00; (B) 20-07 20:00; (C) 18-07 15:00; (D) 07-07 at 15:00. Black line represents the 200 m isobath.

Finally, high negative values of  $W$  were observed in the same areas of vorticity and strain (Fig. 14), indicating once more a general tendency of a higher rotation over strain ratio.

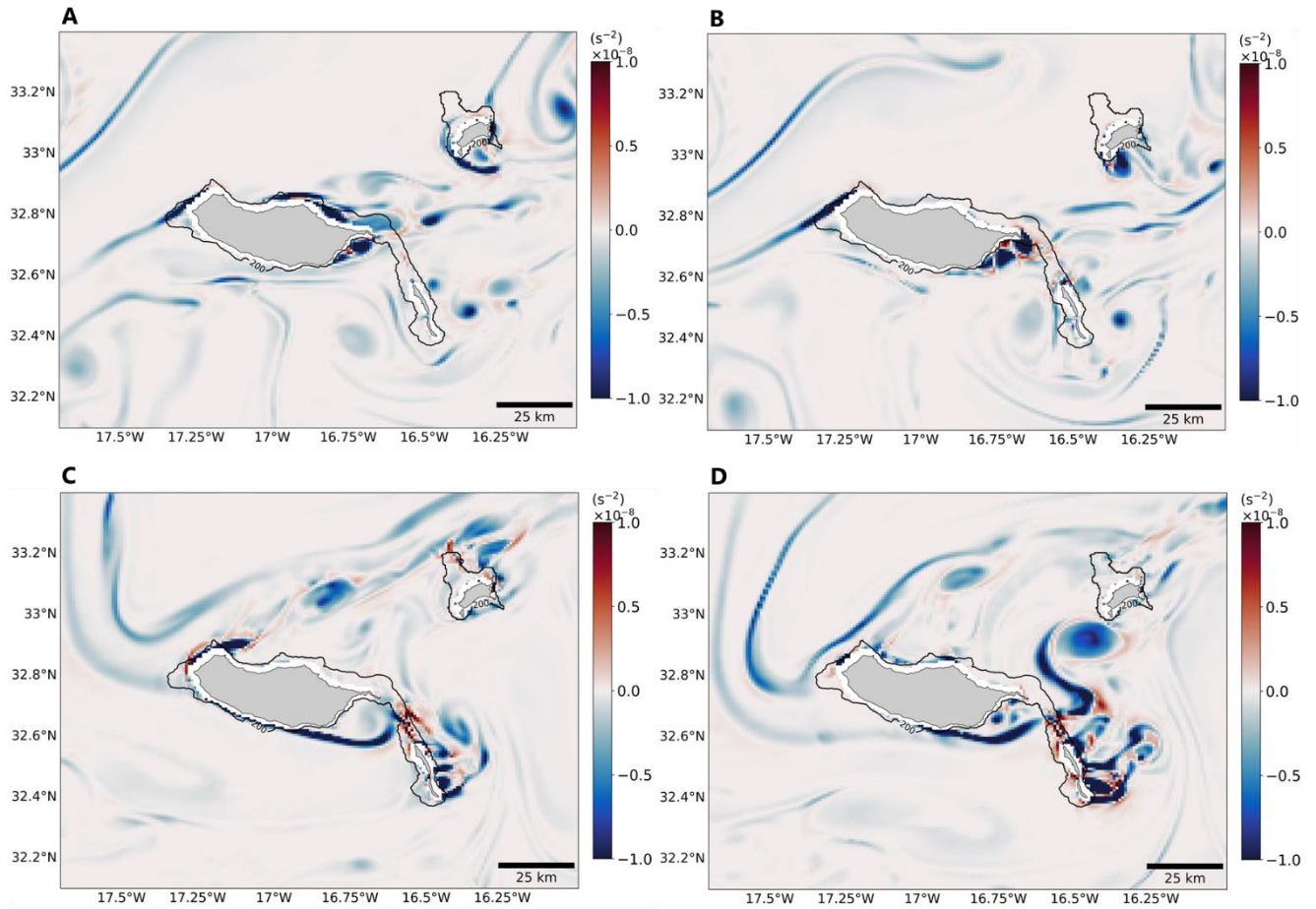


Figure 14. Okubo-Weiss parameter during scenario D taken on: (A) 18-07 at 14:00; (B) 20-07 14:00; (C) 01-07 8:00; (D) 04-07 at 0:00. Black line represents the 200 m isobath.

## 5.2. Spatio-temporal Analysis of Submesoscale Features

### 5.2.1. All Forcings Scenario

In the simulation combining all forcings, a submesoscale process was located on Madeira's south coast. On July 18, the feature manifested along the 1000 m isobath (Fig. 15a-d-g-j). The following day, on the 19<sup>th</sup>, a 12-km wide anticyclonic eddie was created, with considerably strong negative values of vorticity ( $Ro \sim -2.5$ ) and Okubo-Weiss ( $W \leq -1 \times 10^{-8}$ ), and a surface velocity of up to 0.6 m/s (Fig. b-e-h-k). As it expanded ( $\sim 15$ -km diameter at its peak), the eddie travelled slightly offshore towards the South-East but overall remained relatively near its original position, while being active for over 3 days (Fig. c-f-i-l). In relation to the values of the other parameters, the EKE was noticeably low within the vortex area through the entirety of the process (Fig. j-k-l).

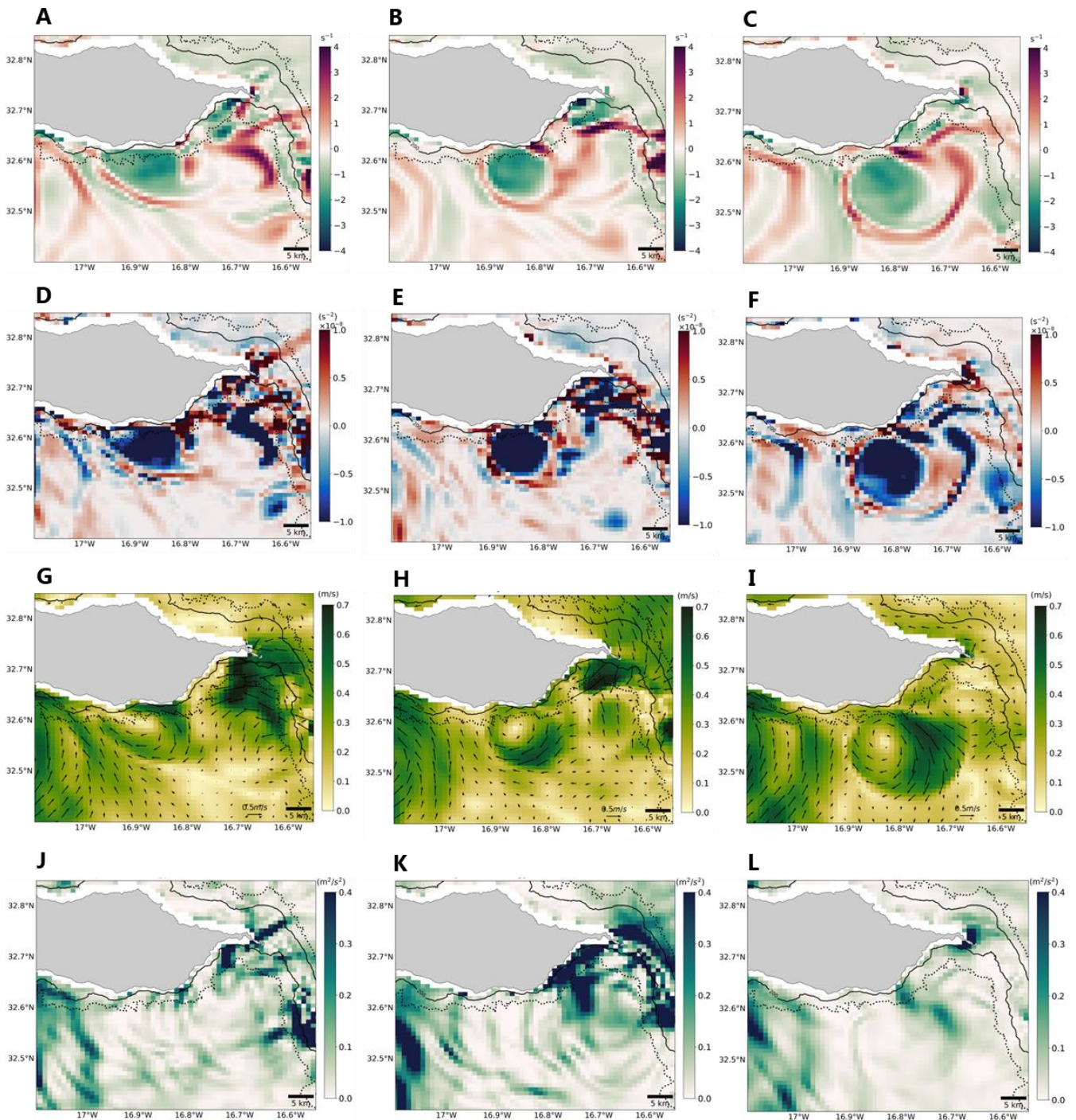


Figure 15. Submesoscale episode from scenario A, featuring vorticity (A-B-C), Okubo-Weiss (D-E-F), velocity (black arrows are instantaneous vectors at every third point) (G-H-I), and eddy kinetic energy (J-K-L). Left panels were taken on 18-07 at 20:00, center panels on 19-07 at 12:00, and right panels on 22-07 at 19:00. Black full line represents the 200 m isobath, and the black dotted line represents the 1000 m isobath.

### 5.2.2. Wind Forcing Scenario

Two distinct events were detected during the wind scenario, both featuring what seemed to be submesoscale eddies located on the southeast and north coasts of Madeira Island. They occurred after an intense period of positive vorticity, which started around July 19 and grew in intensity for several days, reaching Rossby numbers of approximately 3.5 (SE) and 2.5 (N) (Fig. 16).

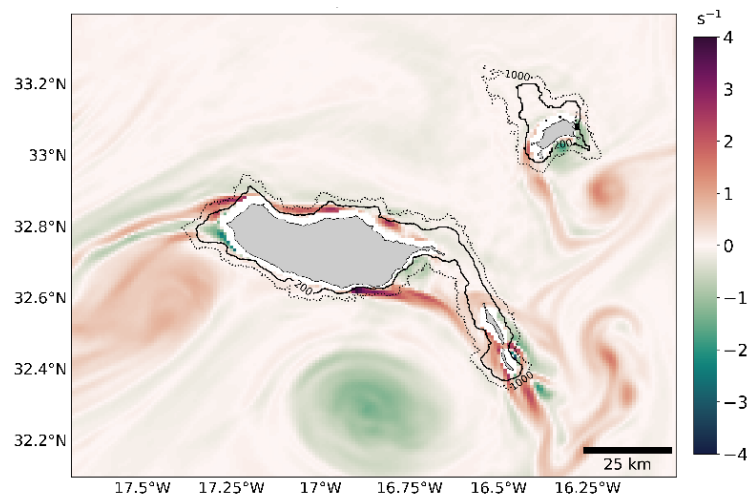


Figure 16. Average relative vorticity during July 19-23 from scenario B. Black full line represents the 200 m isobath, and the black dotted line represents the 1000 m isobath.

In the South-East, a long strip of persistent positive vorticity and negative  $W$  (rotation dominance) extended to the Desertas Islands. Then, from July 23, the strip got disrupted and formed a series of cyclonic eddies with diameters ranging from 3 to 5 km (Fig. 17a-c-e-g). These eddies propagated beyond Madeira's 1000 m isobath and towards the west coast of the Desertas, each lasting between 1-2 days. (Fig. 17b-d-f-h). They started with a  $Ro$  of around 3 (Fig. 17a) and lowered in vorticity intensity towards their end with a  $Ro$  between 1 and 2 (Fig. 17b). The EKE associated with these features reached approximately  $0.25 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2$  (Fig. 17g-h). Moreover, these submesoscale eddies were located on the northeastern fringes of a much larger process which possessed an area of relatively similar surface velocity ( $>0.5 \text{ m/s}$ ) (Fig. 17e-f). This large feature seemed to be an anticyclonic mesoscale eddy given its very wide radius and clockwise rotation.

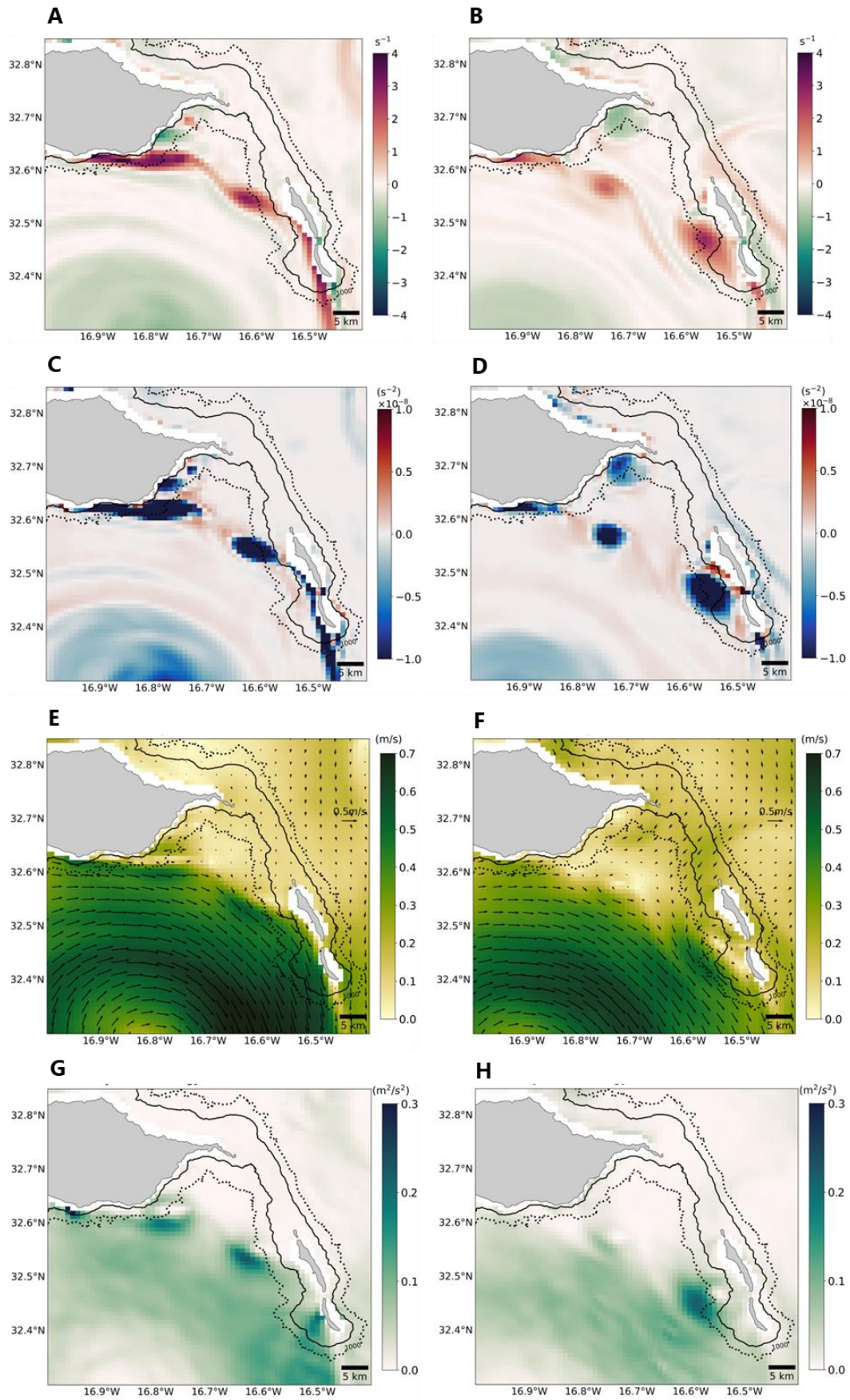


Figure 17. Submesoscale episode from scenario B, featuring vorticity (A-B), Okubo-Weiss (C-D), velocity (black arrows are instantaneous vectors at every third point) (E-F), and eddy kinetic energy (G-H). Left panels were taken on 23-07 at 10:00, right panels on 25-07 at 18:00. Black full line represents the 200 m isobath, and the black dotted line represents the 1000 m isobath.

On the north coast, two cyclonic eddies of approximately 3 km wide were formed on July 24 (Fig. 18a-d-g-j) and advanced eastwards along the 1000 m bathymetric line (Fig. 18b-e-h-k). They eventually reached northeast of Madeira and the Desertas Islands, respectively (Fig. 18d-f-i-l) and lasted over 6 days. These small-scale eddies started with a  $Ro$  of around 2 (Fig. 18a) and finished their journey with a  $Ro$  lower than 1 (Fig. 18c), while also declining in  $W$ , velocity, and EKE over time. Despite their weakening signatures throughout the event, these eddies were more discernable, longer lasting, and closer to the shelf than the previous set of eddies which ventured further away from the shelf (Fig. 17).

### 5.2.3. Geostrophic Forcing Scenario

Another submesoscale episode was identified in the isolated far-field forcing simulation. On the northeast coast of Madeira, an intense and elongated area of positive vorticity ( $Ro$  of  $\sim 3$ ) and negative  $W$  was spotted on July 10 in very shallow waters ( $< 200$  m depth) (Fig. 19a-d-g-j). This feature was created on the edges of a larger, mesoscale process, which appeared to have been an anticyclonic eddie due to its negative vorticity and clockwise rotation (Fig. 19b-e-h-k). The smaller-scaled process initially went in a northward direction. Then, on July 14, an 11-km wide cyclonic eddie (counterclockwise rotation) was formed over and beyond the 1000 m bathymetric line (Fig. 19c-f-i-l) and was directed eastward for a duration of 2 days. During its propagation, this eddie had a  $Ro$  of approximately 1.5 (Fig. 19c), a  $W \leq -1 \times 10^{-8}$  (Fig. 19f), a surface velocity of about 0.3 m/s (Fig. 19i) and an EKE nearing  $0.1 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2$  (Fig. 19l).



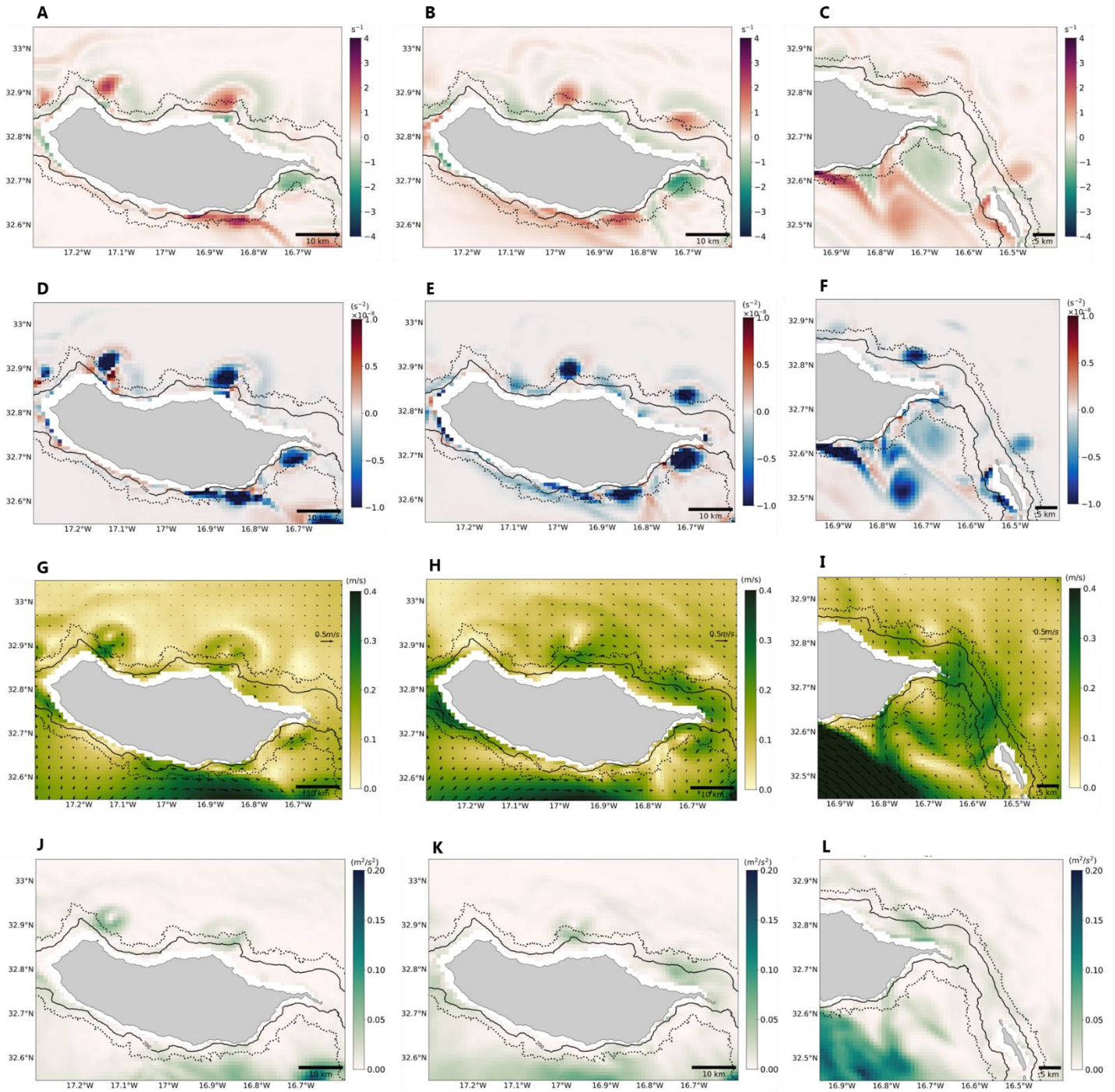


Figure 18. Submesoscale episode from scenario B, featuring vorticity (A-B-C), Okubo-Weiss (D-E-F), velocity (black arrows are instantaneous vectors at every third point) (G-H-I), and eddy kinetic energy (J-K-L). Left panels were taken on 24-07 at 22:00, center panels on 27-07 at 8:00, and right panels on 30-07 at 18:00. Black full line represents the 200 m isobath, and the black dotted line represents the 1000 m isobath.

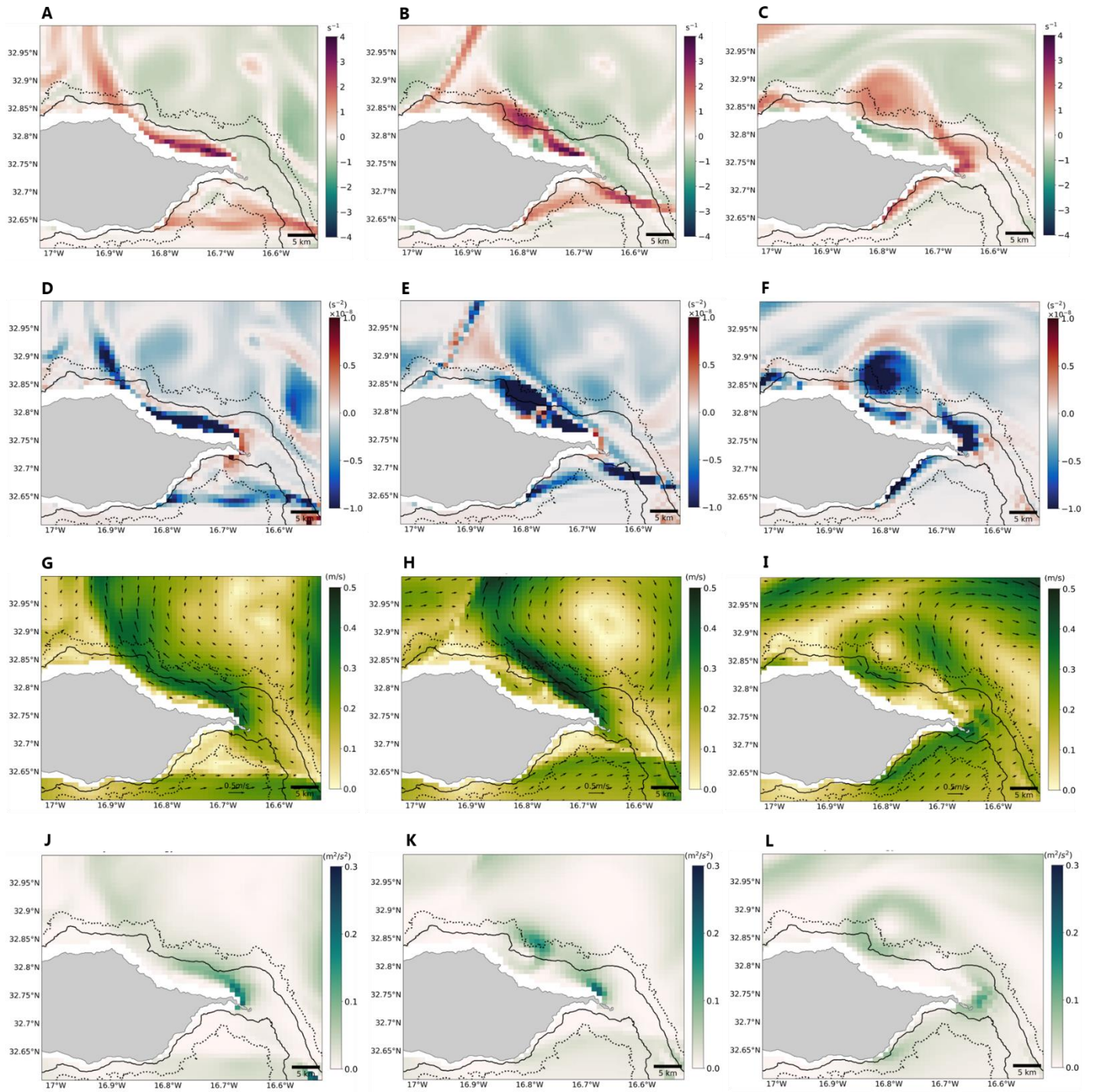


Figure 19. Submesoscale episode from scenario D, featuring vorticity (A-B-C), Okubo-Weiss (D-E-F), velocity (black arrows are instantaneous vectors at every third point) (G-H-I), and eddy kinetic energy (J-K-L). Left panels were taken on 10-07 at 23:00, center panels on 12-07 at 16:00, and right panels on 14-07 at 19:00. Black full line represents the 200 m isobath, and the black dotted line represents the 1000 m isobath.

## 6. Discussion

For all scenarios, the highest values for all parameters were mainly found close to the shore, near 200 m depth. This concurs with the conclusions of Reis et al. (in preparation), stating that there is a current shear between the inshore and offshore circulation. Therefore, the majority of submesoscale activity occurred over or near Madeira's shelf. However, the spread of this activity still varied between the isolated-forcings scenarios. For instance, in scenarios B and D, parameters showed more sparse values across the domain than in scenario C, indicating significant activity further offshore as well. This is likely due to generally higher wind speed and geostrophic velocity variability in both duration and intensity. Contrastingly, in scenario C, submesoscale processes were concentrated in shallow waters. Significant activity was particularly observed over the Desertas ridge, which coincides with the strong tidal signature in that area (Reis et al., in preparation). In addition, scenario C featured the most periodical instances for all parameters, most likely due to the influence of semidiurnal tides in the region. In turn, less irregularities associated with submesoscale turbulent flows were found in this scenario. Moreover, simulations B and D featured more irregular and persistent events, therefore suggesting a greater influence on submesoscale activity. In fact, similar patterns in comparable timeframes were observed between these two scenarios. For example, a strip of high positive vorticity located northwest of Madeira was seen during the same time in both cases (Fig. 3a, 11b). This pattern is related to the island's western tip-jet, which is caused by the constant northeasterly winds (Miranda et al., 2021) and characterized by geostrophic flow (Alves et al., 2020), thereby explaining its appearance under both wind and geostrophic forcing simulations. Furthermore, there was a clear dominance of rotation over strain in both scenarios B and D, whereas scenario C was rather strain-dominated, particularly over the ridge, where currents presumably experience higher bottom friction as a result of the shallow sea floor.

In the spatio-temporal analysis, eddies were the only detected submesoscale feature. The Okubo-Weiss parameter showed stronger negative values in the cores and relatively weaker positive values in the edges, further associating these patterns to an ocean eddie regime (McWilliams, 1984). The  $Ro$  values associated with these eddies ranged from  $\sim|1|$  to  $|2.5|$ , which compare to submesoscale eddies with  $Ro$  values of  $O(1)$  located near the deep-sea island of Palau (Johnston et al., 2019; Zeiden et al., 2021). However, these values are slightly lower than those previously obtained in July near Madeira ( $Ro \sim|4|$ ) from a similar numerical study

(Couvelard et al., 2012). Eddies observed in all scenarios had eastward movement, which is likely due to the geostrophic flow coming mainly from the West during the summer months (Caldeira & Sangrà, 2012). No distinct submesoscale feature was detected in scenario C (tidal forcing), which disagrees with previous studies who found submesoscale tidal eddies in the wake of islands (Delandmeter et al., 2017; MacKinnon et al., 2019). Although, the former obtained fine-scaled vortices as small as 10-20 m in size by largely increasing grid resolution up to 50 m near the coast, while the latter measured ~1 km eddies from in-situ instruments aboard a ship. In comparison, this present study was unable to resolve features at such small scales.

In scenario A, which considered all forcings, the coherent anticyclonic eddie spotted southeast of Madeira is consistent with the historical tendency of finding anticyclonic vortices leeward of the island's east flank, which are primarily due to the wake phenomenon (Alves et al., 2020; Caldeira & Sangrà, 2012; Couvelard et al., 2012). In fact, it was originally demonstrated with remote sensing and numerical modelling that island wakes were commonly generating submesoscale eddies in the upper ocean, notably in the Southern California Bight (Caldeira et al., 2005; Dong & McWilliams, 2007). Observational evidence of small-scale eddies was later provided in various island wake areas, including Lanai Island, Hawaii (Dong *et al.*, 2009), the Juan Fernández archipelago (Andrade *et al.*, 2014), Green Island, Taiwan (Chang *et al.*, 2013), and, more recently, Palau (Johnston et al., 2019). Thus, this simulated anticyclone may very well be induced by Madeira's wake processes, which are typically strong during summer (Caldeira et al., 2002; Couvelard et al., 2012). Moreover, the very limited propagation of this eddie from its coastal inception corresponds to the behavior of previously registered drifter trajectories, which were generally maintained over the insular shelf (Reis et al., in preparation). In addition, this suggests the possibility for this eddie to retain particles that follow the alongshore circulation established by the former study. This material retention near the shelf would be in accordance with Bolado-Penagos et al. (2020), who linked the interaction of coastal flows and submesoscale structures with higher chl-a residence time. Ultimately, since it evolved in the most realistic conditions, this eddie can be determined as the most reliable submesoscale feature among all observed herein.

Smaller cyclonic eddies found in the wind-driven scenario B (Fig. 17) occurred in a similar area than in scenario A (Fig. 15). This is in agreement with Alves et al. (2021) who, by forcing

atmospheric fields on an ocean simulation, concluded that Madeira's east tip-jet, being perpendicular to the island, reinforces the formation of shedded vortices. It is, however, inconsistent with their calculations of a predominantly negative mean vorticity in Madeira's southeastern margins during the summer months. Additionally, these wind-induced eddies reached the western shores of Desertas Islands, which differed from the more static motion of the eddie found in scenario A. The latter feature, which still showed a slight southeastward motion, was potentially prevented from reaching the same destination due to the interaction with strong tidal currents in the vicinity of the Desertas ridge (Reis et al., in preparation). Such tide-related processes were prominent in the simulation results of scenario C, hence also included in scenario A, but absent in scenario B where the identified eddies would not have been interfered with (Fig. 17). Also, it is important to note the influence of the adjacent anticyclonic mesoscale eddie in this episode. Because the geostrophic currents are still being forced on this simulation, this large eddie, with high surface velocity (Fig. 17e-f), could be a factor in the formation and propagation of the submesoscale eddies. Indeed, various studies have shown that submesoscale vortices can be generated along the turbulent margins of long-lived mesoscale eddies, particularly anticyclonic ones (Capet *et al.*, 2008b; Zatsepin *et al.*, 2019; Zhong & Bracco, 2013). It could also explain the higher EKE measured within the smaller eddies (Fig. 17 g-h).

In contrast, the northern set of small-scale eddies observed in scenario B (Fig. 18) does not correlate with previously stated hypotheses. These eddies at this location might be due to the interaction of the incident far-field flows with the island shelf. However, such eddies are not found at the same moment in scenario D, where only geostrophic forces are considered. Therefore, local winds most likely interact with the incoming current to generate this set of vortices. Moreover, being the longest-lasting event found in this study and its alongshore motion, these types of submesoscale eddies have the potential to transport coastal material further along the shelf. This finding improves our knowledge on the role of nearshore submesoscale eddies in the local coastal circulation.

Meanwhile, the submesoscale eddie identified on the north coast in scenario D could be a result of the larger nearby anticyclonic eddie and its interaction with the island's sloping topography (Fig. 19). Indeed, incoming far-field mesoscale eddies, when encountering the shallow bathymetry of deep-ocean islands, can be deflected or split, the latter result being

responsible for the generation of island-transformed eddies (Cardoso *et al.*, 2020). This theory also concurs with results from Morvan *et al.* (2019), who, using numerical simulations, discovered that submesoscale eddies were induced by the interaction of mesoscale eddies and the shelf break. The authors further concluded that this phenomenon was an effective mechanism to transfer kinetic energy from the larger to the smaller scales. Furthermore, as previously mentioned, it is well known that submesoscale vortices occur on the edges of larger, quasi-geostrophic anticyclonic eddies. This could explain the formation of such a perceivable submesoscale eddie at the periphery of a mesoscale anticyclone under purely geostrophic far-field forcing conditions. Moreover, the strain-dominant area between the meso- and submesoscale eddies could have biological implications since it is commonly associated with upwelling and downwelling motions capable of transporting nutrients vertically, thus affecting phytoplankton dynamics (Xiu *et al.*, 2022).

This study was limited by the available resolution of the model at the time of computation. Overall, model outputs of 1-km resolution were sufficient for a general overview of submesoscale activity in the region. However, given the COAWST's ability to produce 300-m (and higher) resolution grids, any improvement on the resolution would have greatly enhanced the accuracy of model results at the submesoscale. Another major limitation was the lack of real observations in the spatio-temporal analysis. Complementing in-situ data with model data in the context of short-lived and small-scale eddies would have allowed for a much more complete characterization of such features. The available data for this specific monthly timeframe, however, was not adequate to be included in the study.

## 7. Conclusion

The objective of this study was to investigate the role of submesoscale processes in the coastal circulation of Madeira and to evaluate the ocean response to various forcing scenarios. Overall, submesoscale activity was observed mostly near coastal waters. Relative vorticity and Okubo-Weiss were the best indicators of submesoscale features, while divergence and strain were not as relevant parameters. Various episodes of submesoscale eddies with  $Ro \sim O(1)$  were found on the north and southeastern coasts in scenarios A-B-D, which generally agrees with island wake and far-field current studies. These eddies were the dominant feature within Madeira's coast and were seen traveling along or sitting on the insular shelf, pointing towards a significant contribution in the coastal transport or retention of particles. Finally, wind and geostrophic currents were independently or cooperatively the most influential physical forcings in promoting submesoscale activity.

This was an exploratory study, merely opening the door to the topic of submesoscale processes in Madeira. However, these results only added a small piece to the puzzle that are the complex coastal dynamics of this deep-sea island. All in all, the study on submesoscale processes within this insular coastal area remains scarce and one to be broadened.

One way to remedy this would be to integrate Lagrangian techniques, such as drifting buoys and simulations of virtual particles, to get a better grasp of the dispersal behavior of submesoscale structures, particularly the ones discussed in the spatio-temporal analysis. In fact, the Lagrangian approach, which follows passively the motion of water parcels, is generally the preferred method to monitor submesoscale currents and their dispersion mechanisms at the ocean surface (Haza et al., 2010; Nencioli et al., 2011; Ohlmann et al., 2017; Petrenko et al., 2017). Understanding Lagrangian two-dimensional surface flows is particularly essential for tracking buoyant materials and passive tracers, such as oil spills (Poje *et al.*, 2014), marine plastic litter (Cardoso & Caldeira, 2021) and harmful algal blooms (Havens *et al.*, 2010; Olascoaga *et al.*, 2008), thus having great implications for operational oceanography and predictive modeling.

Future studies should also look at the depth signature of these types of events to obtain a broader picture of the scale at which various conditions affect submesoscale activity in the area. Additionally, information on the depth until which these features operate would

significantly improve our understanding of the vertical transport mechanisms associated with submesoscale processes and their potential interactions with the bottom boundary layer.



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