



1 **Ocean—atmosphere—wave characterization of a wind jet**  
2 **(Ebro shelf, NW Mediterranean Sea)**

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## 2 **Abstract**

3 In this contribution the wind jet dynamics in the northern margin of the Ebro River shelf (NW  
4 Mediterranean Sea) are investigated using coupled numerical models. The study area is  
5 characterized by persistent and energetic offshore winds during autumn and winter. During  
6 these seasons, a seaward wind jet usually develops in a 50km wide band offshore. The  
7 COAWST (Coupled Ocean—Atmosphere—Wave—Sediment Transport) modelling system  
8 was implemented in the region with a set of downscaling meshes to obtain high-resolution  
9 meteo-oceanographic outputs. Wind, wave and water current were compared with in situ  
10 observations and remote-sensing-derived products with an acceptable level of agreement.  
11 Focused on an intense offshore wind event, the modelled wind jet appears in a limited area  
12 offshore with a strong spatial variability. The wave climate during the wind jet is  
13 characterized by the developing of bimodal directional spectra, and the ocean circulation  
14 tends to present well-defined two-layer flow in the shallower region (i.e. inner shelf). The  
15 outer shelf tends to be dominated by mesoscale dynamics such as the slope current. Despite  
16 the limited fetch length, ocean bottom roughness considering sea state (wave-atmosphere  
17 coupling) modifies to a small extent the wind and significant wave height under severe cross-  
18 shelf wind events. However, the coupling effect in the wind resource assessment may be  
19 relevant due to the cubic relation between the wind intensity and power.

20 Keywords: wind jet, COAWST, ocean—atmosphere coupling, wind power assessment

## 21 **1 Introduction**

22 Coastal areas are often characterized by highly variable and heterogeneous wind, wave and  
23 current conditions, which make the numerical prediction of the meteo-oceanographic  
24 processes difficult. For instance, wind jets induced by orographic effects present strong spatial  
25 wind field variability due to the orographic characteristics (e.g. Shimada and Kawamura,  
26 2006; Zhai and Bower, 2013). Due to the persistence in wind intensity and direction, these are  
27 regions exposed to the installation of offshore wind farms (Nunalee and Basu, 2013), and the  
28 resultant offshore winds decisively influence the exchange of water mass and material along  
29 the shelf/slope (Jordà et al., 2005; Barton et al., 2009). Instead of the relatively limited fetch  
30 in the wind jet region, the wave height can be relevant, interacting with bimodal features  
31 (Shimada and Kawamura, 2006). In this sense, several contributions have highlighted the



1 influence of variable wind conditions in relatively small-scale areas (such as wind jet),  
2 influencing wind—wave generation (Shimada and Kawamura, 2006; Bolaños et al., 2007;  
3 Alomar et al., 2014) or modifying ocean circulation patterns (Csanady, 1980; Zhai and  
4 Bower, 2013; Schaeffer et al. 2011; Klaić et al., 2011).

5 In coastal zones the air—sea momentum transfer presents high complexity due to the  
6 dependence of wind intensity on sea bottom roughness. The relevance of the atmospheric  
7 bottom roughness increasing due to waves has been investigated in recent years (Janssen,  
8 1989; Janssen and Viterbo, 1996; Lionello et al. 1998; Taylor and Yelland, 2001; Oost et al.,  
9 2002; Drennan et al., 2003). In this sense, advanced computational tools have allowed to the  
10 feedback of meteo-oceanographic momentum and heat transfer to be addressed numerically  
11 (Warner et al., 2010; Zambon et al., 2014). Warner et al. (2010) developed a fully coupled  
12 numerical system (COAWST: Coupled Ocean—Atmosphere—Wave—Sediment Transport)  
13 to investigate the impact of storms on coastal systems. Using COAWST, Olabarrieta et al.  
14 (2012) and Renault et al. (2012) proved numerically that the wave-induced ocean bottom  
15 roughness is a key parameter in the air—sea momentum transfer. Under severe storm  
16 conditions (hurricanes and cyclones), this parameter influences the spatial and temporal  
17 evolution of the meteo-oceanographic variables. Other recent examples that use a fully  
18 numerical model to investigate the air—sea interaction and its effect on oceanographic  
19 processes are found in Nelson and He (2012) and Drews (2013).

20 The case of the Ebro River shelf (NW Mediterranean Sea; see Figure 1) is characterized by  
21 strong, dry and usually cold wind that blows from the north-west through the Ebro valley,  
22 induced by the lee of the Pyrenees mountains. The westerly wind, greatly affected by the  
23 orography, is channelized into a limited band, forming a wind jet (Jansà, 1985; Spanish  
24 Ministry of Energy, 2004). The synoptic situation is related to an anticyclone in the Bay of  
25 Biscay and a low-pressure area in the Mediterranean Sea (Riosalido et al., 1986; Font, 1990;  
26 Martín-Vide, 2005; Cerralbo et al., 2015). Offshore wind is more usual and intense during  
27 autumn and winter, when larger atmospheric pressure gradients take place and cause stronger  
28 winds with advection of cold air, but a small atmospheric pressure difference along the Ebro  
29 valley is sufficient to initiate wind during any season (Riosalido et al., 1986; Cerralbo et al.,  
30 2015).

31 The objective of this contribution is to describe the meteo-oceanographic processes associated  
32 with a wind jet developing at the northern margin of the Ebro River shelf. This work provides



1 insight into wind jet in a complex area from an orographic point of view, such as the Ebro  
2 delta shelf, describing the main wind, wave and current patterns and evaluating the feedback  
3 in the air—sea momentum transfer in terms of wave-induced ocean bottom roughness. After  
4 the introduction (Section 1), in Section 2 (Methods) we describe the study area, the COAWST  
5 model implementation and the wind jet event selected to investigate in detail the meteo-  
6 oceanographic dynamics. Then, in Results (Section 3) we show the most relevant meteo-  
7 oceanographic processes observed and a detailed skill assessment of the fields modelled,  
8 comparing with a set of available data (i.e. in situ observations and remote-sensing products).  
9 Also, the feedback in the air—sea momentum transfer in terms of wave-induced ocean bottom  
10 roughness is investigated with a set of simulations testing different air—sea momentum  
11 transfer formulations. Afterwards, we discuss (Section 4) the relevance and particularities of  
12 the dynamics of the wind jet area in terms of waves, winds and currents, comparing with  
13 previous investigations. The implications of the wind—wave coupling in terms of the wind  
14 resource assessment are highlighted. We close with the conclusions (Section 5).

## 15 **2 Methods**

### 16 **2.1 Study area and observations**

17 The meteorological patterns over the NW Mediterranean Sea exhibit sharp gradients  
18 associated with the topographic control on synoptic fluxes (Jansà, 1985; Martin-Vide and  
19 Olcina, 2001). Regional wind analysis reveals strong and persistent cross-shelf winds. A  
20 channelization effect associated with the Ebro valley triggers north-westerly winds (called  
21 “Mestral”), resulting in a wind jet. Previous studies based on long-term wind measurements in  
22 the proximity of the region showed that winds have a persistent seasonal pattern (Font, 1990;  
23 Cerralbo et al., 2015; Grifoll et al., 2015). During winter and autumn, a dominant north-  
24 westerly component caused by wind channelization was observed. For instance, recent wind  
25 measurements revealed that cross-shelf winds were observed more than 60 % of the time  
26 during these seasons (Grifoll et al., 2015). In this period, the energy is concentrated in the low  
27 frequencies associated with synoptic scales (periods of 2—5 days, corresponding with the  
28 passage of weather systems). However, the warmer period (spring and summer) is  
29 characterized by high variability with a dominance of south-westerly winds. This means that  
30 during spring and summer the relative contribution of the daily components (breezes) to the





1 variability increases with respect to the synoptic winds (Font, 1990; Cerralbo et al., 2015).  
2 The warmer seasons are less energetic than the cold seasons in terms of wind intensity.  
3 The Ebro River delta is located immediately to the south of the wind jet region, and the  
4 average annual river discharge ranges between 300 and 600m<sup>3</sup>·s<sup>-1</sup>. The curvature of the bay  
5 partially shelters it from southerly waves. Regional wave climate in this area is characterized  
6 by south-east and east sectors, the latter being the most energetic due to the largest fetches  
7 (Bolaños et al., 2007).  
8 Oceanographic investigations in the Ebro River region were focused primarily on the outer  
9 shelf and slope dynamics of the southern margin (Font, 1990; Palanques et al., 2002; Salat et  
10 al., 2002; Jordà, 2005) with relevant eddy activity (Redondo et al., 2013). The circulation in  
11 these regions is dominated by the inertial band, with a relevant signal of the slope current  
12 associated at the regional Northern Current (Jordà, 2005). Observational analyses have  
13 revealed that the inner and mid-shelf (less than 50m water depth) dynamics in the Ebro shelf  
14 are characterized by a strong influence of the frictional component of the flow (Jordà, 2005,  
15 Grifoll et., 2015). Furthermore, the regional response to wind jets is not clear due to the  
16 complex bathymetry and the spatial variability of the wind jet. Durand et al. (2002) and  
17 Mestres et al. (2003) showed that the effects of the salinity river plume are important only  
18 near the river mouth (order of 10km offshore from the river mouth).  
19 As a part of large effort to collect physical data and implement numerical tools for the  
20 development of offshore wind energy, a buoy was moored in the northern margin of the Ebro  
21 shelf where the wind jet develops (see Figure 1). The buoy was moored 3.1km from the coast  
22 at 43.5m bottom depth, measuring wind, waves and water currents for one year. A TRIAXYS  
23 directional wave sensor mounted on the moored buoy was used to record statistical wave  
24 spectra parameters. Wind speed and direction were measured at 4m height every 10min using  
25 an ultrasonic wind sensor (Gill Instruments) for one year (November 2011 to November  
26 2012). Water currents were measured with a SonTek acoustic Doppler currentmeter profiler  
27 (ADCP) at 500kHz every hour using 20 vertical layers (layer depth was 2m). The mooring  
28 period covered more than one year (from November 2011 to December 2012).  
29 Additionally, satellite-measured winds were used for the numerical model validation. Sea  
30 wind intensity and direction were obtained from the National Climatic Data Center (NCDC-  
31 NOAA, <http://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/oa/rsad/air-sea/seawinds.html>). This product is the result  
32 of a spatial and temporal interpolation of the data received from the different satellites passing



1 through the study area during a time interval, and it has 6h time resolution and 15km spatial  
2 resolution.

### 3 **2.2 Numerical model and meshes**

4 The COAWST modelling system (Warner et al., 2010) was used in this study. COAWST  
5 relies on the 3-D ocean modelling ROMS (Regional Ocean Modeling System; see Haidvogel  
6 et al., 2000), the phase-averaged wave model SWAN (Simulating WAves Nearshore; see  
7 Booij et al., 1999), the non-hydrostatic meteorological model WRF (Weather Research and  
8 Forecasting; Skamarock et al., 2005) and the sediment transport module CSTMS (Community  
9 Sediment Transport Modeling System; Warner et al., 2010). The ocean model ROMS is a  
10 free-surface, terrain-following numerical model which resolves the three-dimensional  
11 Reynolds-averaged Navier—Stokes (RANS) equations using hydrostatic and Boussinesq  
12 approximation. The WRF model (Advanced Research WRF version) is a non-hydrostatic,  
13 quasi-compressible atmospheric model with boundary layer physics schemes and a variety of  
14 physical parameterizations of sub-grid scale processes for predicting meso- and microscales  
15 of motion. The SWAN model solves the wave action balance equation simulating wind  
16 generation and propagation in deep and coastal waters. The modelling system COAWST  
17 includes the coupler Model Coupling Toolkit (MCT; Jacob et al., 2005) for the transmission  
18 and transformation of the physical variables using a parallel computing approach. The  
19 COAWST system also allows for the exchange of data fields on different grids using the  
20 Spherical Remapping Interpolation Package (SCRIP; Jones, 1998) to compute the  
21 interpolation weights. The nesting strategy consists of a set of different downscaling meshes  
22 (Figure 1c and Table 1). The ocean—atmospheric—wave online coupling was implemented  
23 in the finer domain (mesh O4 for the wave and circulation model, and mesh M4 for the  
24 meteorological model) where the scale of the coupling process due to cross-shelf winds may  
25 be more evident in the results.

26 The largest wave domain (mesh O1) covers the western Mediterranean Sea, which is  
27 considered enough to capture the wave generation in the study area. The SWAN model  
28 implementation used amends the underestimation in the wave growth rates reported by  
29 Alomar et al. (2014) and Rogers et al. (2003) in a low- and medium-frequency energy  
30 spectrum. The measure adopted was introduced by Pallares et al. (2014) and consists in  
31 modifying the whitecapping dissipation term (see Appendix 1).



1 The largest water circulation domain (mesh O3) is nested into the daily MyOcean-MEDSEA  
2 product (Tonani et al., 2009), with a horizontal resolution of  $1/16^\circ \times 1/16^\circ$  and 72 unevenly  
3 spaced vertical levels, in order to provide suitable boundary conditions for the oceanographic  
4 variables in terms of water velocity, sea level, temperature and salinity. The 3D ocean model  
5 implementation (ROMS) includes a generic length scale turbulent mixing scheme (Umlauf  
6 and Burchard, 2003), with coefficients selected to parameterize the K-epsilon scheme (Rodi,  
7 1987) and fourth-order biharmonic Laplacian viscosity and mixing terms on geopotential  
8 surfaces for velocity and tracers, respectively, both with constant coefficients of  $0.5\text{m}^4\text{s}^{-2}$ . The  
9 bottom boundary layer was parameterized using a log profile with bottom roughness equal to  
10 0.005m.

11 The atmospheric model is nested into the ECMWF ERA-Interim reanalysis product  
12 considering four downscaling meshes – M1, M2, M3 and M4 with resolutions of 27km, 9km,  
13 3km and 1km, respectively – to obtain suitable grid resolution for the complex orography of  
14 the region (see Figure 1). The WRF implementation uses a Mellor—Yamada—Nakanishi—  
15 Niino (MYNN) level 2.5 planetary boundary layer scheme.

### 16 **2.3 Episode description and numerical sensitivity test**

17 As we noted in the introduction, the air—sea momentum transfer presents high complexity  
18 due to the relation of wave characteristics and the sea bottom roughness, which in turns affect  
19 the wind field. In order to investigate the air—sea momentum transfer in the wind jet, a set of  
20 simulations have been designed applying different air—sea momentum transfer formulations  
21 included in the COAWST modelling system. The sensitivity tests pursue an evaluation of the  
22 “coupling” effects on two principal variables involved in the air—sea momentum transfer:  
23 wind intensity ( $W$ ) and significant wave height ( $H_s$ ). In this sense three different formulations  
24 have been tested (see Appendix 2), which consider the modification of the atmospheric  
25 bottom roughness due to the waves. In consequence, we compare directly the “coupled”  
26 results with an “uncoupled” simulation where the bottom roughness length is only a function  
27 of the wind stress. The sensitivity tests are as follows: CHK for the simulation considering the  
28 bottom roughness as a function of the wind stress (uncoupled with the wave sea state) using  
29 the Charnok coefficient equal to 0.016 (typical value for rapidly seas), T—Y simulation  
30 considering the Taylor and Yelland formulation (Taylor and Yelland, 2001), DRE using the  
31 Drennan formulation proposed by Drennan et al. (2003) and OOST simulation considering  
32 the formulation introduced by Oost et al. (2002). Two numerical points are chosen to compare



1 the results for the sensitivity test simulations. One point is near the buoy's moored position  
2 (where the numerical results are also compared with the measurements). The second point is  
3 located 30km offshore of the measurement point (see control point in Figure 1). This point  
4 has been chosen in order to capture the wave growth due to cross-shelf winds and evaluate  
5 properly the coupling—uncoupling differences.

6 We select a cross-shelf wind event in order to characterize in detail the meteo-oceanographic  
7 dynamics of the wind jet. The episode selected for the sensitivity tests lasted from the 19<sup>th</sup> of  
8 March 2012 to the 23<sup>rd</sup> of March 2012. The synoptic situation during the selected episode  
9 corresponds to a typical offshore wind event induced by atmospheric pressure differences (see  
10 Figure 2). A high-atmospheric-pressure area is centred over the North Atlantic Ocean, with  
11 the anticyclonic edge affecting part of the Iberian Peninsula. The low pressure is located in  
12 the centre of Europe. In this situation the cross-shore winds in the Ebro delta zone are  
13 intensified. The sequence of wind field modelled in the Catalan coast mesh during the wind  
14 jet period is characterized by a rise of wind intensity during the 20<sup>th</sup> and 21<sup>st</sup> of May, leading  
15 to a wind jet in the northern margin of the Ebro delta (see daily-averaged wind intensity in  
16 Figure 3). Then, the cross-shore winds remains strong during the 22<sup>nd</sup> of May, decreasing  
17 during the 23<sup>rd</sup> of May 2012.

### 18 **3 Results**

#### 19 **3.1 Description of meteo-oceanographic processes and skill assessment**

20 Modelled winds during the simulation period reproduce the main wind directions previously  
21 reported in the study area. Offshore wind prevails throughout the year, intercalated with  
22 southerly winds during spring and summer (i.e. sea breeze). The adjustment of the wind time  
23 series into a Weibull distribution is used to evaluate the statistical inter-comparison between  
24 wind observations (measured from the buoy and satellite) and the 3km WRF model results  
25 (mesh M3). Blended Sea Winds were used from the NCDC-NOAS SeaWinds project which  
26 contain 6-hourly globally gridded, high-resolution ocean surface vector winds and wind  
27 stresses on a global 0.25° grid. Figure 4 shows the Weibull distributions considering the wind  
28 intensity time series. Also the global model (i.e. ECMWF) used for WRF model downscaling  
29 is included. The results show that the numerical simulation presents better agreement with the  
30 wind measurements than the global model and the gridded satellite wind estimations.  
31 Although the global wind model assimilates the satellite information, the Weibull distribution



1 of the high-resolution model presents a better level of agreement than the observations. A  
2 snapshot of the SeaWinds product was compared with the numerical outputs in Figure 5.  
3 Wind patterns from both products present a significant level of agreement in both components  
4 assuming the coarser resolution of the SeaWinds. Additional verification is presented in Table  
5 2 using model—observation statistics in terms of wind intensity for the whole year of 2012. In  
6 summary, modelled winds show an acceptable level of agreement with the observations.

7 In Figure 6, time series comparing the results obtained from the coupled SWAN model (mesh  
8 O3) and the buoy measurements (see position in Figure 1) are shown. The time series  
9 comparison corresponds to the significant wave height ( $H_s$ ), the mean wave period ( $T_{m01}$ ) and  
10 the mean wave direction ( $\theta_w$ ). In general, the model reproduces the observations in terms of  
11 mean behaviour and variability. Table 2 presents the error statistics for the whole year for  
12 mesh O3 in terms of  $H_s$  and  $T_{m01}$ .

13 Figure 7a show a snapshot of the waves' directional spectra during the wind jet period  
14 selected at the measuring point; the results reveal the tendency to develop bimodal directional  
15 spectra due to the co-existence of sea and swell waves. Directional spectra presents a peak  
16 around  $-50^\circ$  mean wave direction associated with the growing wave due to the wind jet and  
17 another peak around  $150^\circ$  associated with the swell. Due to the limited fetch, larger wave  
18 frequencies (smaller wave period) are obtained for the  $-50^\circ$  wave direction peak than for the  
19  $150^\circ$  wave direction peak. In Figure 7b the directional spectra for a period without wind jet  
20 are also shown for comparison. In this case, unimodal wave spectra is obtained. In summary,  
21 the high-resolution mesh (O4) is able to capture the bimodal spectra during wind jet.  
22 Unfortunately, only the statistical spectra parameters were recorded in the buoy  
23 measurements, and full spectra comparison is not possible.

24 The water circulation observed at the buoy is characterized by an alignment of the flow  
25 following the isobaths. The principal component analysis of the flow for the observed depth-  
26 averaged currents reveals an angle similar to the coastline orientation ( $\sim 26^\circ$ ). As the cross-  
27 shelf flow is limited by the coastline, the variability in this direction is smaller than in along-  
28 shelf direction: standard deviation is  $2.3\text{cm}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$  in cross-shelf direction versus  $7.4\text{cm}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$  in  
29 along-shelf direction. However, the water circulation during the wind jet events shows a  
30 different pattern. During these events, the cross-shelf flow variability increases ( $3.8\text{cm}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$  for  
31 the wind jet event selected), with either two-layer flow or an offshore flow in the whole water  
32 column. As an example of water current response during wind jet event, the along-shelf and



1 cross-shelf velocities are shown in Figure 8 for May 2012 at the observational point (negative  
2 values mean south-westward and positive north-eastward). The surface currents in the cross-  
3 shelf direction intensify, causing an eventual two-layer flow during the peak of the wind  
4 intensity (21<sup>st</sup> of May). When the wind jet calms down, the cross-shelf velocities are small  
5 while the along-shelf flow intensity is larger than that of the cross-shelf. The along-shelf  
6 current observed during wind jet events tends to reverse from south-westward to north-  
7 eastward.

8 The skill assessment of the numerical results in terms of current (water velocity) was carried  
9 out following a similar scheme to the one used for winds and waves. The numerical model  
10 validation with ADCP observations shows an acceptable level of agreement according to the  
11 comparison for the wind jet event. For instance, Figure 8 shows a noticeable agreement  
12 between the observed and modelled currents in the water column for both along- and cross-  
13 shelf components. In addition, Table 2 presents the error statistics for the depth-averaged  
14 velocity measurements compared with the numerical model results for the wind jet event.

15 The spatial water circulation modelled during the wind jet event (21<sup>st</sup> of May) is shown in  
16 Figure 9 for two different depths: sub-surface (2m water depth) and intermediate (50m water  
17 depth). Depth-averaged velocities are also presented (Figure 9c). The surface current  
18 modelled at 1km (mesh O3) and 250m (mesh O4) grid resolution presents a relatively  
19 homogeneous offshore direction qualitatively that is well correlated with the spatial  
20 distribution of the wind intensity. In this case, the surface current is seldom affected by the  
21 topographic features such as the Ebro delta. At deeper layers the flow direction turns onshore,  
22 resulting in a two-layer flow in which the current intensity is lower than that of the surface  
23 layer. The depth-averaged flow is small due to the balance between the sheared two-layer  
24 flow; however, a flow component slightly appears that is aligned with the isobaths in the  
25 deeper areas of the continental shelf. Related to that, a clear signal of the slope current is  
26 observed in the results at -50m and depth-averaged currents.

### 27 **3.2 Ocean bottom roughness numerical experiments**

28 The wind intensity and the significant wave height during the selected wind jet event for the  
29 four simulations are shown in Figure 10 (for the control and observational points shown in  
30 Figure 1). Comparing the numerical results and the observations (Figure 10.a and 10.b), all  
31 the numerical simulations reproduces the wind intensity and the significant wave height with



1 a similar level of agreement. The uncoupled (CHK) and coupled simulations (e.g. T-Y, OOST  
2 and DRE) only present differences in the numerical outputs during the jointly occurrence of  
3 strong winds and wave peaks in the control point. Waves and wind intensity numerical results  
4 at the observational point do not presents significant changes among the four simulations due  
5 to the limited fetch conditions which means lower significant wave height in comparison to  
6 control point. During the calm period (at beginning and end of the wind jet event) the  
7 differences among the four simulations are not appreciable. Comparing the error statistics for  
8 the observational point among the three coupled numerical simulations we cannot assure  
9 which formulation ensures a better skill assessment (Table 3). Although OOST sensitivity  
10 case presents better agreement at the observational point, the relative size of the wind  
11 intensity and significant wave height limits the conclusions for the wind-jet event. At control  
12 point the magnitude of the wind intensity and the significant wave height is larger for the  
13 uncoupled simulation (CHK) in comparison to coupled simulations. Maximum differences of  
14  $3 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$  in wind intensity and 0.3 m in significant wave height are obtained if we compare  
15 OOST and CHK simulations.

#### 16 **4 Discussion**

17 The shape of the wind jet modelled is benefited by the high resolution meshes used in our  
18 investigation. According to our results, the wind jet approximately covers an area of 50 km  
19 width offshore. This area is in agreement with the wind intensity atlas provided by the  
20 Spanish Ministry of Energy (see Figure 11) obtained from a long-term reanalysis. In this  
21 sense, high-resolution meshes used in this investigations (i.e. 1 km and 3 km grid resolution)  
22 are suitable for an accurate wind jet modelling. As it was pointed out by Alomar et al. (2014)  
23 and Cerralbo et al. (2015), the relevance of winds in the ocean response in terms of waves and  
24 currents justifies the high-resolution in the modelling investigations in Ebre Delta region.

25 Our results have shown an acceptable representation of the bimodal structure of the  
26 significant wave height and support the conclusions highlighted by Alomar et al (2014),  
27 whose note that a high spatial resolution of wind field is required to represent acceptable  
28 numerical wave field in a very limited fetch conditions. The occurrence of bimodal wave  
29 features may also have different implications: the first one is that, because of the spatial  
30 resolution, the local northwesterly wind that produced the second peak of spectra may not  
31 have been detected in previous investigations (Bolaños et al., 2005, 2006; Sánchez-Arcilla et  
32 al., 2008; Alomar et al., 2014). The second implication is related to the momentum transfer,





1 where several authors have highlighted that under mixed wave-train conditions the drag  
2 coefficient may increase appreciably (Sánchez-Arcilla et al., 2008). Also, the wave modelling  
3 deserves a particular comment related to the good fitting of wave results thanks to the  
4 modification of a parameter relative to whitecapping dissipation (Pallarès et al., 2014).  
5 Statistical errors were reduced significantly due to the young sea developed in the wind jet  
6 region in comparison to previous investigations (Bolaños et al., 2007; Sánchez-Arcilla et al.,  
7 2008). In particular, smaller root mean square errors were obtained in the mean wave period  
8 variable, which presented a large uncertainty (Bolaños et al., 2007; Sánchez-Arcilla et al.,  
9 2008; Alomar et al., 2014).

10 As we noted in the Results section, the water circulation pattern showed differential behaviour  
11 for the long-term water circulation in comparison to the wind jet event. For the long-term  
12 circulation and in the shallow region, the frictional response prevails, with the along-shelf  
13 flow variability being larger than the cross-shelf flow, similar to other investigations in the  
14 inner and mid-shelf (see review in Lentz and Fewings, 2012). However, a different picture  
15 occurs during the wind jet event. In this case a characteristic surface current is high correlated  
16 to the offshore wind. According to the numerical outputs and in situ observations shown in  
17 Figure 8, a deeper onshore flow, opposing the surface layer flow offshore, is developed. This  
18 flow is relatively weak due to the prevalence of the along-shelf component which increases  
19 offshore. These circulation patterns are consistent with other investigations (e.g. Horwitz and  
20 Lentz, 2014; Fewings et al., 2008; Dzowonkowski et al., 2011) where a well-developed two-  
21 layer flow due to intense cross-shelf winds tends to occur when the turbulent layers overlap  
22 (water depth in the inner shelf is of the order of metres to tens of metres according to Lentz  
23 and Fewings, 2012). In the mid- and outer shelf, the flow tends to be oriented in the along-  
24 shelf direction due to the prevalence of the regional response to the wind jet and the slope  
25 current. In this sense, the frictional adjustment time due to the wind (inversely proportional to  
26 the depth) varies in the continental shelf section and may be of the order of days in the mid-  
27 /outer shelf (Csanady, 1982). In consequence, the expected response at deeper layers will also  
28 be dependent on processes acting at larger scales than wind jet (i.e., baroclinic forcing,  
29 mesoscale activity etc.) such as the slope current signal observed at 30m water depth and  
30 depth-averaged currents (Figure 9b and Figure 9c, respectively). The along-shelf flow in the  
31 inner shelf is presumably influenced by the regional response to the wind jet at the  
32 stratification in the water column and the barotropic pressure gradient adjustment due the  
33 variability of the spatial wind variability. These factors play an important role in the resultant





1 water circulation pattern and its variability deserves additional numerical efforts and extended  
2 local wind and sea level information. For instance, Oey et al. (2004) and Liu and Weisberg  
3 (2012) include extended measurements to investigate the water circulation' response to spatial  
4 wind and the particular role of the barotropic pressure gradients. Finally, it is worth noting  
5 that the interaction between offshore winds and regional circulation was filtered in previous  
6 investigations in the zone region (Font, 1990; Salat et al., 2002; Jordà, 2005).

7 Several investigations have found the importance of the sea state in the impact on the air—sea  
8 momentum flux; in particular the calculations based on the Charnock constant underestimated  
9 the air—sea momentum transfer (e.g. Janssen and Viterbo, 1996; Drennan et al., 2003) which  
10 can be significant under mixed seas (Sanchez-Arcilla et al., 2008). In the northern margin of  
11 the Ebro delta and during the wind jet, no relevant differences were found when comparing  
12 the significant wave period and the wind intensity between numerical model and observations  
13 for the observational point. During calm periods, the averaged conditions prevail over  
14 energetic events, so the feedback of the air—sea momentum does not show significant  
15 differences. The detailed analysis of the 21<sup>st</sup> -22<sup>nd</sup> of May event showed significant  
16 differences between the coupled and uncoupled cases for significant wave height and wind  
17 intensity offshore of the wind jet (e.g. control “offshore” point). When we compare the  
18 coupling numerical results (i.e. T—Y, OOST and DRE) versus CHK results, we observe that  
19 the wind intensity at the control point is affected significantly by the sea state during the  
20 energetic event. For the coupling simulations the wind intensity is reduced due to wave-  
21 induced ocean bottom roughness increasing. This behaviour is consistent with other coupling  
22 atmosphere—ocean investigations under a high level of meteorological energy (e.g.  
23 Olabarrieta et al., 2012). In parallel, the wave field is modified by the feedback between wave  
24 and wind stress. During the energetic wind event selected,  $H_s$  is lower in comparison to the  
25 uncoupled case (CHK), consistent with other numerical experiments (Webber, 1993; Warner  
26 et al., 2010; Olabarrieta et al., 2012) and observational investigations (Yelland et al. 1998;  
27 Edson, 2008) which found that the momentum flux is underestimated using the Charnock  
28 constant parameter.

29 Differences in the primitive variables between the coupled and uncoupled simulations during  
30 particular energetic events are relatively small in terms of wind intensity and significant wave  
31 height. Furthermore, the assessment of the wind energy resource is relevant in this region with  
32 a high potential for wind farm installation due to the large and persistent wind intensity and



1 the relatively large spatial extension of the continental shelf. A simple way to estimate turbine  
2 power from wind intensity is based on the idealized machine of blade diameter ( $D$ ) being  
3 equal to 100m (Manwell et al., 2011):

$$P = \rho(2/3D)^2 W^3 \quad (1)$$

4 Wind intensity ( $W$ ) simulations are taken at 10m height, so a log-law-based conversion is  
5 used to obtain wind values at 80m (typical value of turbine hubs). With the converted values  
6 of the numerical simulations, we estimate the idealized wind power for the period 21<sup>st</sup>–22<sup>nd</sup>  
7 of May 2012 at the control point. The power using the CHK wind value is 8.087kW (average  
8 wind speed of 11.41m/s); in contrast, using OOST formulations leads to a power of 7.207 kW  
9 (average wind speed of 10.98m/s). Intermediate values are obtained for T—Y and DREN  
10 formulations: 7.365kW and 7.346kW, respectively. The cubic relationship between wind  
11 power and wind velocity highlights the importance of accurate estimations of wind intensity  
12 for wind energy resources using coupling techniques (a maximum percentage of 10% is  
13 assessed). This example shows the relevance of coupled effects for an accurate wind power  
14 assessment for wind farm project plans.

15 The wave-limited fetches and the persistency of offshore winds represent particular ocean—  
16 atmosphere conditions never investigated before from a full-coupling perspective; only  
17 energetic cyclogenesis activity has been recently modelled and investigated (e.g. Warner et  
18 al., 2010, Olabarrieta et al., 2012; Zambon et al., 2014; Renault et al., 2012) where also the  
19 heat transfer plays a relevant role in the air—sea coupling. In the mentioned cases, extreme  
20 modelled waves and wind benefitted from the use of full-coupling systems. Our case presents  
21 less energetic conditions; however the cubic relationship between the potential wind energy  
22 and the wind intensity may justify for engineering purposes the use of coupled formulations  
23 between wind and waves. Further observational campaigns and the future use of high-  
24 resolution remote-sensing products (e.g. Sentinel-1 and Sentinel-3; Torres et al., 2012 and  
25 Malenovsky et al., 2012) will benefit the numerical results and extended physical  
26 investigations in such a complex process as wind jet, in particular the role of the air—sea  
27 transfer formulations. Our results are also relevant in that they may be useful for further  
28 physical investigations in similar domains where the wind jets control the ocean—atmosphere  
29 dynamics (Jiang et al., 2009; Barton et al., 2009; Shimada and Kawamura, 2006).



## 1    **5    Conclusions**

2    Wind jet events, investigated using numerical modelling and both in situ and remote-sensing  
3    data, present particular conditions in meteo-oceanographic variables in the northern margin of  
4    the Ebro delta. A fully coupled meteo-oceanographic numerical model was implemented,  
5    with a good level of agreement in terms of waves, currents and wind fields measured. The  
6    numerical results reveal a spatially varying wind pattern, forming a well-limited wind jet. The  
7    water current velocity pattern during wind jet is well correlated with the wind intensities in  
8    the surface layer. However, in deep layers the flow becomes complex, and other processes of  
9    larger temporal and spatial characteristic scales affect the water circulation. The wave  
10    modelling during the wind jet events is characterized by the developing of bimodal wave  
11    spectra: local wave generation due to wind jet and waves propagated from the open sea.  
12    Numerical results from sensitivity tests have shown the relatively small relevance of air—sea  
13    transfer formulations considering the significant wave height for the sea bottom roughness  
14    estimation. Furthermore, the accurate estimation of the wind energy resource may be  
15    benefitted by the coupled numerical modelling. The characteristics of the meteo-ocean  
16    variables during the wind jet in the northern Ebro delta may be useful for understanding  
17    processes in similar domains under severe cross-shelf wind conditions.

18



1 **Appendix 1. Modification of the whitecapping term in SWAN**

2 Pallarès et al. (2014) performed numerical experiments that aimed to improve the numerical  
 3 wave predictions in semi-enclosed bays, modifying the dissipation terms in the wave energy  
 4 balance equation. For this purpose two whitecapping formulations are considered in SWAN,  
 5 obtained from the pulse-based model of Hasselmann (1974) reformulated in terms of wave  
 6 number (the WAMDI group, 1988):

7 
$$S_{dsw}(\sigma, \theta) = -\Gamma \bar{\sigma} \frac{k}{\bar{k}} E(\sigma, \theta) \quad , \quad (A1.1)$$

8 where  $\bar{\sigma}$  and  $\bar{k}$  denote the mean frequency and the mean wave number, respectively, and the  
 9 coefficient  $\Gamma$  depends on the wave steepness (Janssen 1991):

10 
$$\Gamma = C_{ds} \left( (1 - \delta) + \delta \frac{k}{\bar{k}} \right) \left( \frac{\bar{\sigma}}{\bar{\sigma}_{PM}} \right)^p \quad . \quad (A1.2)$$

11 The coefficients  $C_{ds}$ ,  $\delta$  and  $p$  can be adapted to the study case;  $\bar{\sigma}$  is the overall wave steepness;  
 12 and  $\bar{\sigma}_{PM}$  is the value of  $\bar{\sigma}$  for the Pierson—Moskowitz spectrum (1964).

13 In SWAN the previously mentioned coefficients are obtained by adjusting the energy balance  
 14 for idealized wave growth conditions (fully developed wind seas in deep water), despite the  
 15 wave growth in semi-enclosed domains with highly variable wind fields differing  
 16 considerably from those idealized conditions. As a result of a calibration process in the NW  
 17 Mediterranean Sea, which led to a reduction of the wave forecast errors mainly present in the  
 18 wave period, the coefficients selected for the wind jet region were  $\delta=1$  ,  $C_{ds} = 2.36 \times 10^{-5}$  and  
 19  $p=4$ , achieving a notable fit between numerical outputs and wave observations.

20 **Appendix 2. Air—sea momentum transfer formulations (bottom roughness length)**

21 The standard bottom roughness length scale is expressed as a function of the Charnok  
 22 coefficient ( $C_a$ ; typical value of 0.016 for rapidly seas) and surface wind stress ( $u_s$ ):

23 
$$z_0 = C_a \cdot u_s^2 / g \quad , \quad (A2.1)$$



1 where  $g$  is the gravity. Coupling online simulations in COAWST allows three different  
2 formulations to be chosen to parameterize the bottom roughness considering the wave effects.  
3 The formulation of Taylor and Yelland (2001) considers the wave effects:

$$4 \quad z_0 = 1200 \cdot (H_s / L_p)^{4.5} \quad , \quad (A2.2)$$

5 where  $H_s$  is the significant wave height and  $L_p$  is the wavelength at the peak of the wave  
6 spectrum. Drennan et al. (2003) proposed a formulation to estimate  $z_0$  as a function of the  
7 phase-wave speed ( $C_p$ ) and wind friction velocity ( $u^*$ ):

$$8 \quad z_0 = 3.35 \cdot (u^* / C_p)^{3.4} \quad . \quad (A2.3)$$

9 Similar to Drennan's formulation, Oost et al. (2002) proposed the following formulation based  
10 on an experimental data set:

$$11 \quad z_0 = 25.0 / \pi \cdot (u^* / C_p)^{4.5} \quad . \quad (A2.4)$$

12 Conceptual differences arise from these formulations: Taylor and Yelland (2001) considers  
13 the wave steepness, Drennan et al. (2003) is based on the wave age and Oost et al. (2002)  
14 considers effects of both wave steepness and wave age.

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22



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- 26



1 Table 1. Resolution (in km) of the different domains/meshes used in the nested system as a  
2 function of each model and regional scale. In parentheses the mesh name shown in Figure 1 is  
3 shown.

Model	NW Mediterranean	Catalan—Balearic Sea	Catalan coast	Ebro delta
WRF	27 (M1)	9 (M2)	3 (M3)	1 (M4)
SWAN	9 (O1)	3 (O2)	1 (O3)	¼ (O4)
ROMS	-	-	1 (O3)	¼ (O4)

4



1 Table 2. Statistics for the comparison between buoy measurements and model outputs. W is  
2 the wind intensity (in  $\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ ), Hs is the significant waves height (in m),  $T_{m01}$  is the mean wave  
3 period (in s) and U and V are the depth-averaged along- and cross-shelf currents, respectively  
4 (in  $\text{cm}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ ). The statistical parameters are the root mean square error (RMSE), the bias and the  
5 correlation coefficient (R).

	Observed		RMSE	Bias	R
	Mean	Standard deviation			
W	6.59	4.52	2.70	0.68	0.79
Hs	0.62	0.42	0.29	0.09	0.76
$T_{m01}$	3.48	0.92	3.57	1.14	0.57
U	-4.60	3.90	3.07	2.14	0.82

6



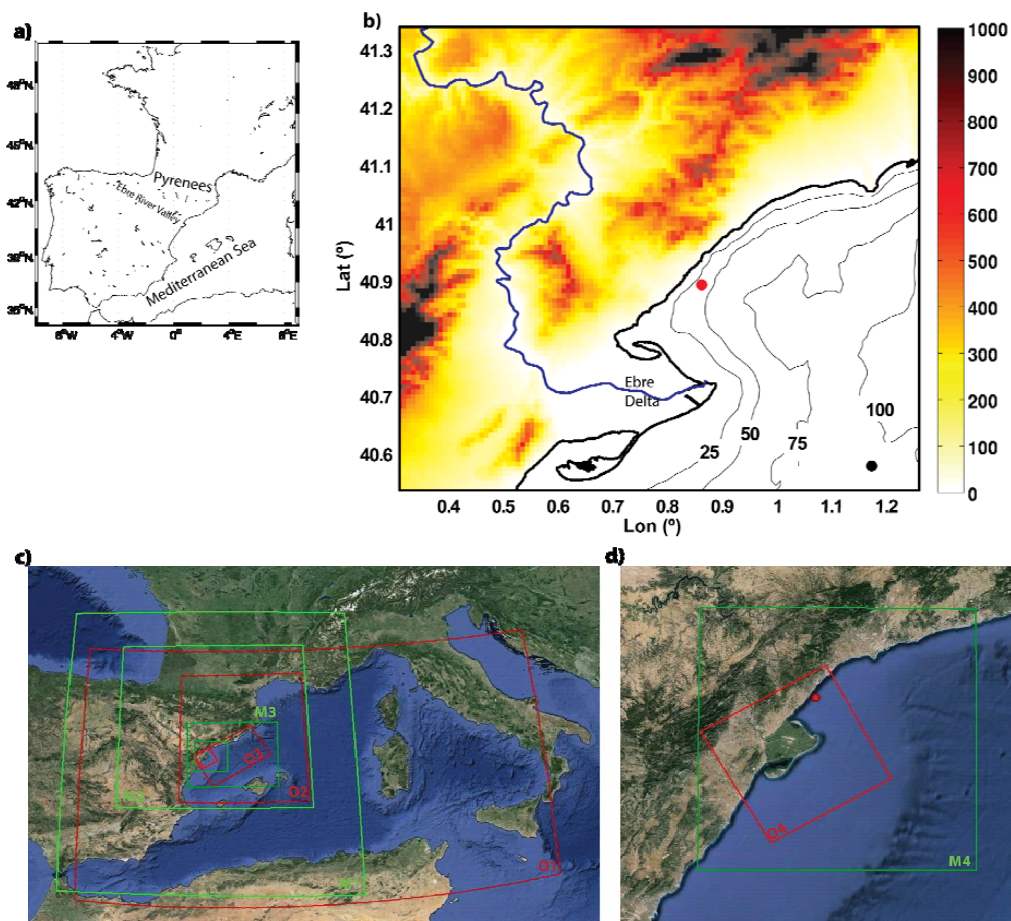
1 Table 3. Statistics for the comparison between buoy measurements and model outputs. W is  
 2 the wind intensity (in  $\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ ); Hs is the significant waves height (in m). Statistics are only for  
 3 the wind jet event.

		Mean	Standard deviation	RMSE	R
		obs/mod	obs/mod		
CHK	W	10.93/11.48	5.65/5.19	4.75	0.62
	Hs	0.74/0.73	0.27/0.32	0.25	0.61
T-Y	W	10.93/11.51	5.65/5.24	4.83	0.61
	Hs	0.74/0.72	0.27/0.31	0.26	0.61
DRE	W	10.93/11.46	5.65/5.24	4.79	0.61
	Hs	0.74/0.72	0.27/0.31	0.26	0.62
OOST	W	10.93/11.47	5.65/5.22	4.85	0.60
	Hs	0.74/0.72	0.27/0.31	0.26	0.61

4



1

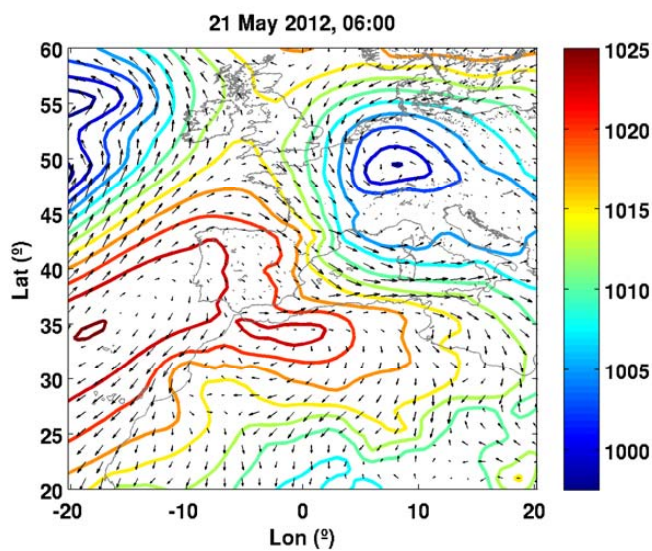


2

3 Figure 1. Localization map (a) and orography (coloured map) and bathymetry of the study  
4 area (b). The bathymetry lines are shown every 25m. The geographical position where the  
5 observational buoy was moored is shown with a red circle. The control point used in the  
6 analysis is shown with a black circle. (c, d) Geographical domains for the meteorological  
7 model (in green) and the wave and the water circulation model (in red).The mesh notation is  
8 also shown (its resolution is detailed in Table 1).



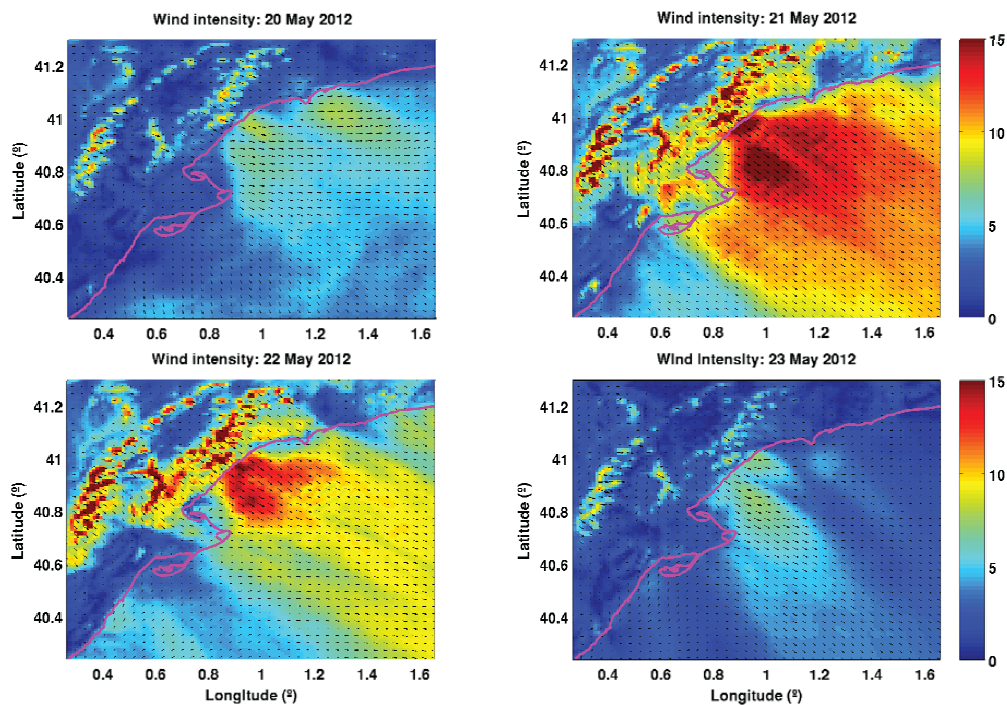
1



2

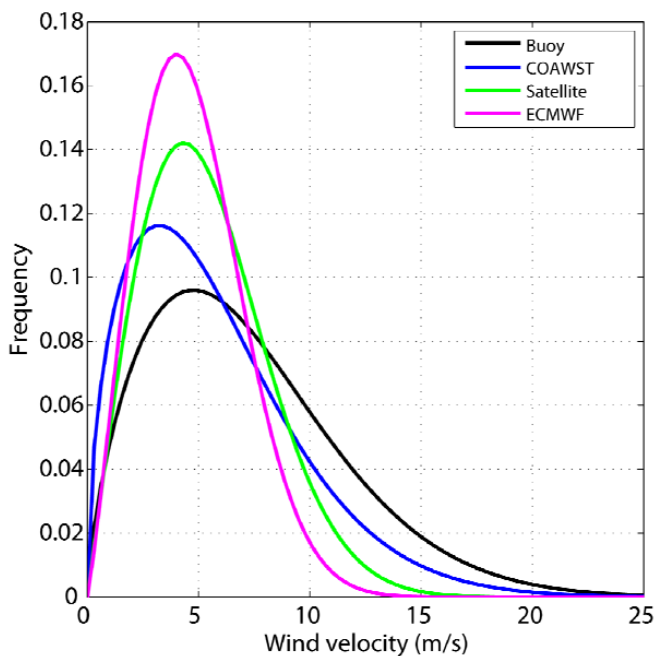
3 Figure 2. Regional chart of the mean sea level pressure (hPa) during the 21<sup>st</sup> of May at 06:00  
4 UTC (representative of the synoptic situation during the selected cross-shelf wind event).  
5 Data source: ERA-Interim global reanalysis from ECMWF. Arrows represent the wind field.

6



1

2 Figure 3. Sequence of the wind jet intensity on four days for a wind jet event in the domain of  
3 the Catalan coast. The quiver is shown each three points. COAWST represents the results  
4 obtained for the modelling at mesh M3.



1

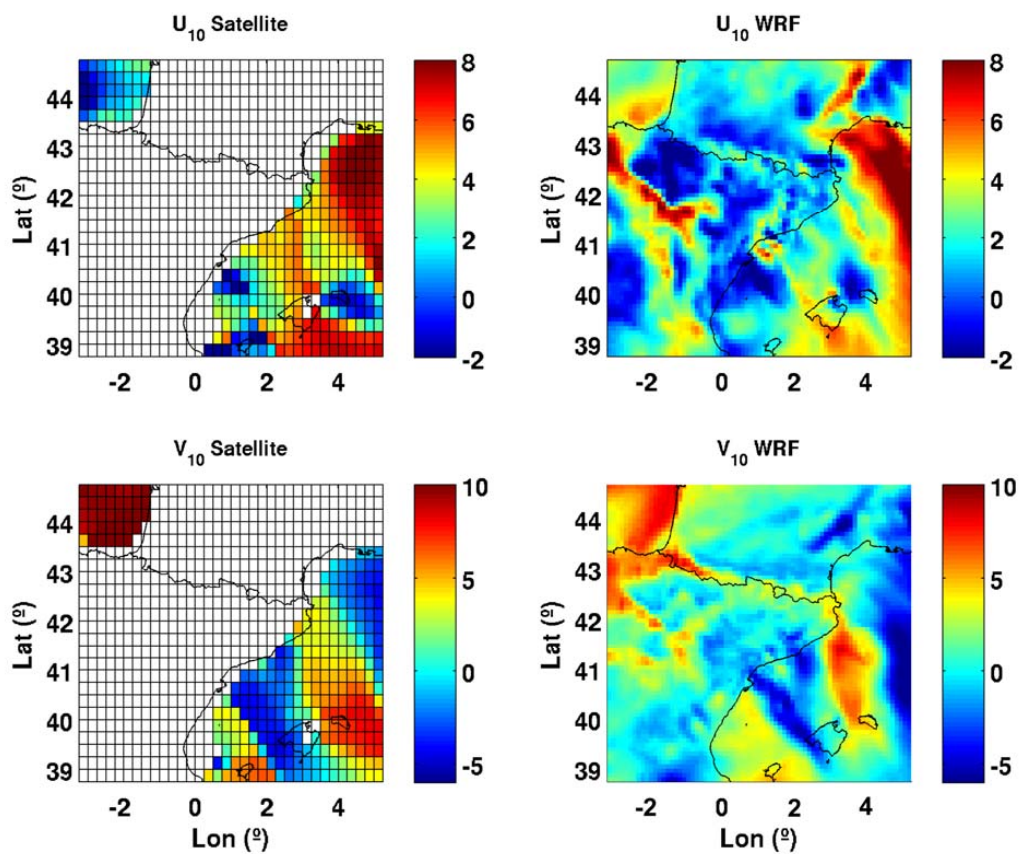
2 Figure 4. Weibull distribution adjustment for the wind velocities regarding the duration for  
3 the 12 months analysed.





1

2

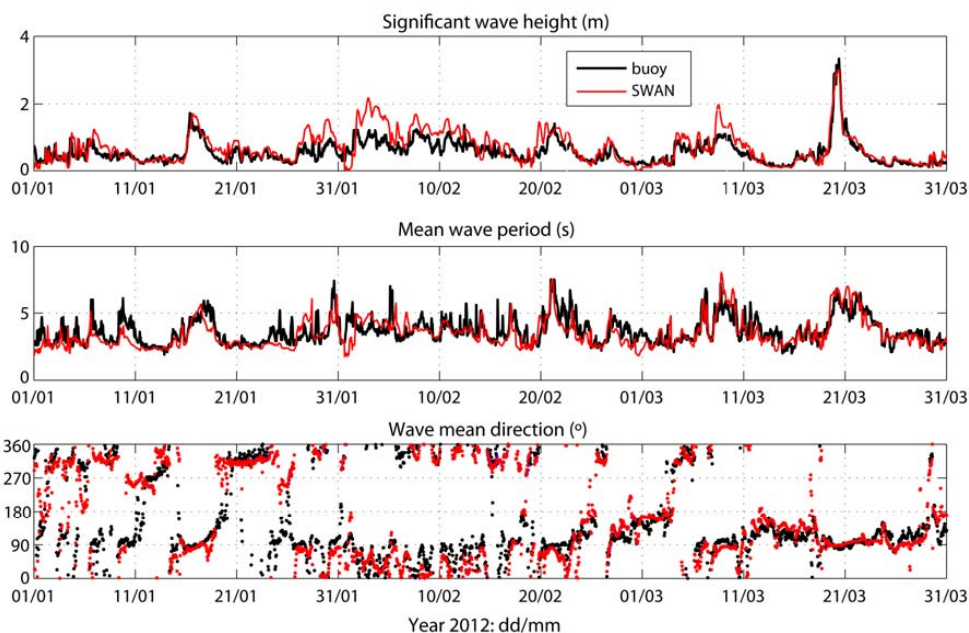


3

4 Figure 5. Wind components (top: east—west top; bottom: north—south) from the satellite  
5 gridded product for the study area (top) and from the results of the meteorological model. The  
6 figure corresponds to 01/01/2012 at 12:00 UTC.

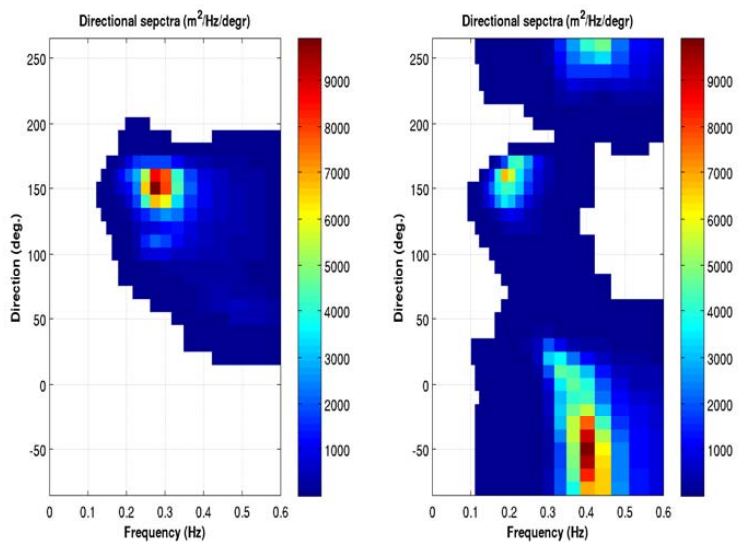


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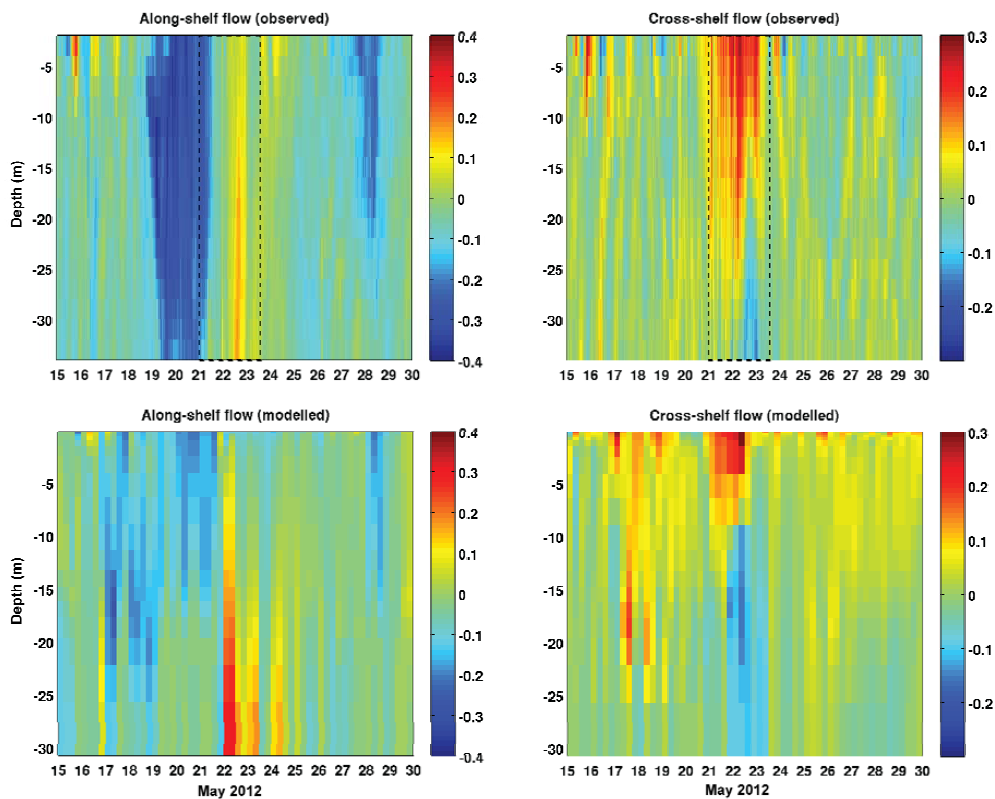
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3 Figure 6. Time series of the significant wave height (m), the mean wave period  $T_{m01}$  (s) and  
4 the mean wave direction for the first trimester of 2012. In black the buoy measurement is  
5 represented, in blue the results of the non-coupled SWAN model in the buoy location and in  
6 red the results of the coupled system.



1

- 2 Figure 7. Numerical wave spectra for two different instants at the observational point: the  
3 wind jet event (left; 5 March 2012) and without wind jet (right; 21 March 2012).

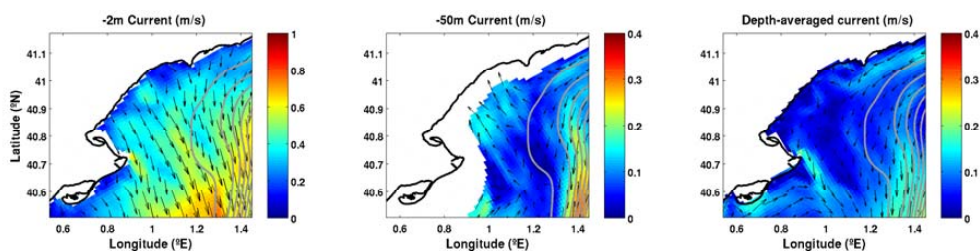


1

2 Figure 8. Along-shelf (left) and cross-shelf (right) velocity measured and modelled during  
3 May 2012. The wind jet period is marked as a dashed square in the observed values. Note the  
4 different velocity ranges between cross-shelf and along-shelf plots.

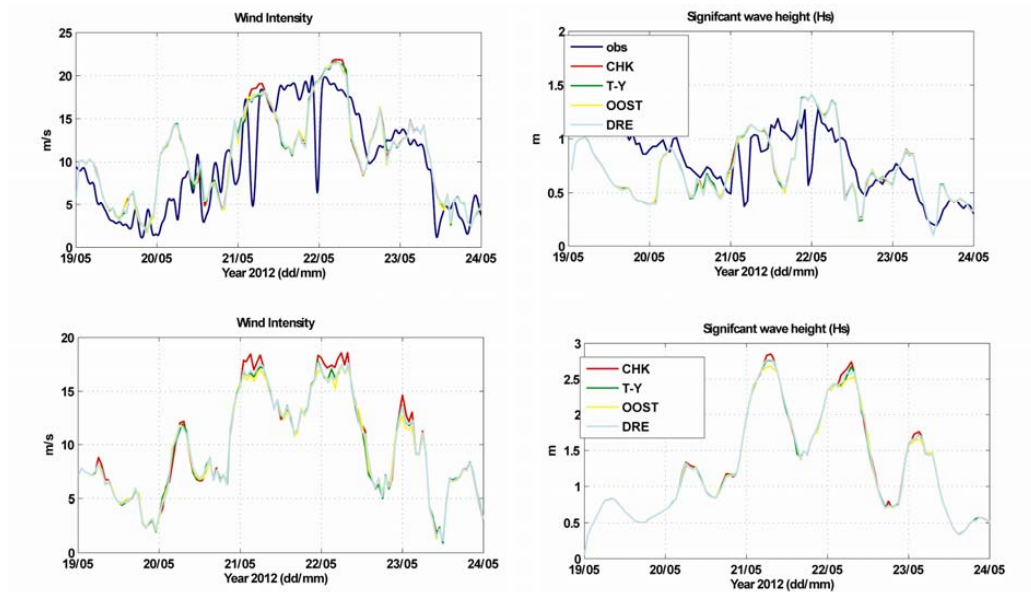


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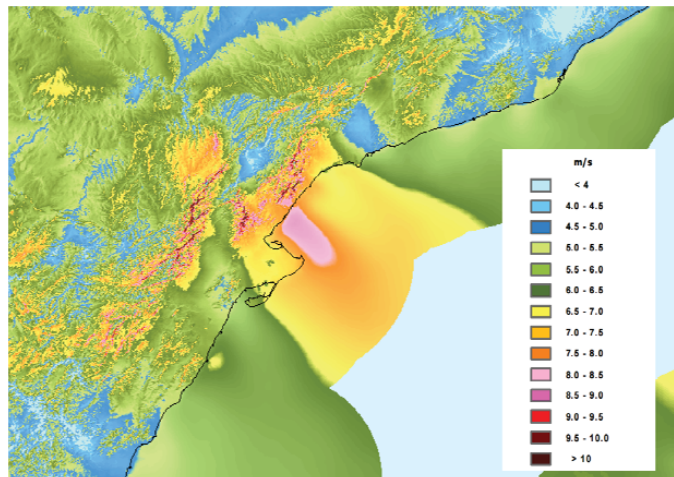
2

3 Figure 9. Modelled circulation at -2m (left), -50m (centre) and depth-averaged circulation  
4 (right) during the peak of the wind jet event (i.e. 21<sup>st</sup> of May 2012, 06:00 UTC). The quiver is  
5 shown each four computational points. Grey lines are shown each 100 isobaths. Note  
6 differences in the velocity ranges among the sub-plots.



1

2 Figure 10. Wind intensity (left) and significant wave height (right) for the wind jet energetic  
3 event for the observational (top) and control (bottom) points.



1

2 Figure 11. Wind atlas annual mean wind speed at 30m height from a reanalysis product  
3 (source: Spanish Ministry of Energy, 2014).

4