

1 **Generation of cold anticyclonic eddies and warm**
2 **cyclonic eddies in the tropical oceans**

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ABSTRACT

17

18 Mesoscale eddies are ubiquitous features of the global ocean circulation.
19 Traditionally, anticyclonic eddies are thought to be associated with positive temperature
20 anomalies while cyclonic eddies are associated with negative temperature anomalies.
21 However, our recent study found that about one fifth of the eddies identified from global
22 satellite observations are cold-core anticyclonic eddies (CAEs) and warm-core cyclonic
23 eddies (WCEs). Here we show that in the tropical oceans where the probabilities of
24 CAEs and WCEs are high, there are significantly more CAEs and WCEs in summer
25 than in winter. We conduct a suite of idealized numerical model experiments initialized
26 with composite eddy structures obtained from Argo profiles as well as a heat budget
27 analysis. The results highlight the key role of relative wind stress-induced Ekman
28 pumping, surface mixed layer depth and vertical entrainment in the formation and
29 seasonal cycle of these unconventional eddies. The relative wind stress is found to be
30 particularly effective in converting conventional eddies into CAEs or WCEs when the
31 surface mixed layer is shallow. The abundance of CAEs and WCEs in the global ocean
32 calls on further research on this topic.

33

34 **1. Introduction**

35 Mesoscale eddies, on the order of 100 km and rotating either anticyclonically (AEs)
36 or cyclonically (CEs), are energetic and widespread features throughout the world's
37 oceans (Stammer 1997; Chelton et al. 2007; Ni et al. 2021). These eddies play a vital
38 role in shaping the general ocean circulation, regulating air-sea exchanges, and
39 redistributing climatically important tracers such as heat, salt and carbon (Zhang et al.
40 2014; Gaube et al. 2015; Conway et al., 2018). Thanks to the availability of global
41 satellite and float observations, significant progress has been made in recent decades
42 on eddy statistics, dynamics and energetics (e.g., Zhai et al. 2010; Chelton et al. 2011;
43 Ni et al. 2020).

44 Mesoscale AEs (CEs) were traditionally thought to be associated with warm (cold)
45 eddy cores with positive (negative) temperature anomalies that extend from the sea
46 surface to a depth of at least a few hundred of meters (e.g., Roemmich and Gilson 2001;
47 Hausmann and Czaja 2012; Frenger et al. 2013). However, recent studies based on
48 satellite observations (e.g., Everett et al. 2012; Sun et al. 2019; Liu et al. 2020) reported
49 findings of a special subset of oceanic eddies in a number of regions which are
50 characterized by inverse sea surface temperature anomalies (SSTA), that is, cold-core
51 anticyclonic eddies (CAEs) and warm-core cyclonic eddies (WCEs). More recently,
52 using satellite and Argo float data, Ni et al. (2021) suggested that nearly 22% (19%) of
53 the AEs (CEs) detected in the global ocean are CAEs (WCEs) and that the percentages
54 are even higher in the tropical oceans and along the boundary currents. Furthermore,
55 they also found that these unconventional eddies play a distinct role in air-sea
56 momentum and heat exchange, mixed layer dynamics and primary productivity. Similar
57 abundance of CAEs and WCEs in the global ocean was also reported by Liu et al. (2021)
58 who applied deep learning technique to the satellite sea surface height and temperature
59 data.

60 The afore-mentioned studies demonstrate that CAEs and WCEs are widespread in

61 the global ocean, rather than a feature of curiosity as thought before. There are a few
62 candidate processes that may be responsible for the generation of CAEs and WCEs, for
63 example, boundary flow instability (Chaigneau et al. 2011), exchange of waters inside
64 and outside eddies (Itoh and Yasuda 2010; Sun et al. 2022), barrier layer thickening (He
65 et al. 2020), wind-eddy interaction (McGillicuddy 2015) and eddy-modulated mixing
66 (Moschos et al. 2022). However, none of the above processes have been shown to be
67 the dominant generation mechanism for CAEs and WCEs found in the global ocean. Ni
68 et al. (2021) hypothesized that the depth of surface mixed layer and Ekman pumping
69 due to wind-eddy interaction may be important for the large-scale distribution and
70 seasonal cycle of CAEs and WCEs in the open ocean. Specifically, they argued that
71 Ekman pumping associated with wind-eddy interaction (Gaube et al. 2015;
72 McGillicuddy 2015) acts to raise and depress the near-surface isotherms in AEs and
73 CEs respectively which may reverse the sign of near-surface temperature anomalies in
74 these eddies, especially when the surface mixed layer is shallow. Here, we investigate
75 the generation of CAEs and WCEs in the tropical regions using a combination of
76 observational analysis and numerical modeling, with a particular focus on the role of
77 wind-eddy interaction and mixed layer depth.

78 The present paper is organized as follows. The observed seasonal cycles of CAEs
79 and WCEs, surface wind speed and mixed layer depth in the tropical oceans are
80 described in section 2. The vertical structures of mesoscale eddies are composited and
81 reconstructed using Argo float profiles in section 3. In section 4 we explain the
82 configuration of an idealized model used to investigate the mechanism of the observed
83 CAEs and WCEs and in section 5 we perform the numerical experiments and conduct
84 a heat budget analysis to diagnose the key processes for generating CAEs and WCEs.
85 Finally, conclusions are given in section 6.

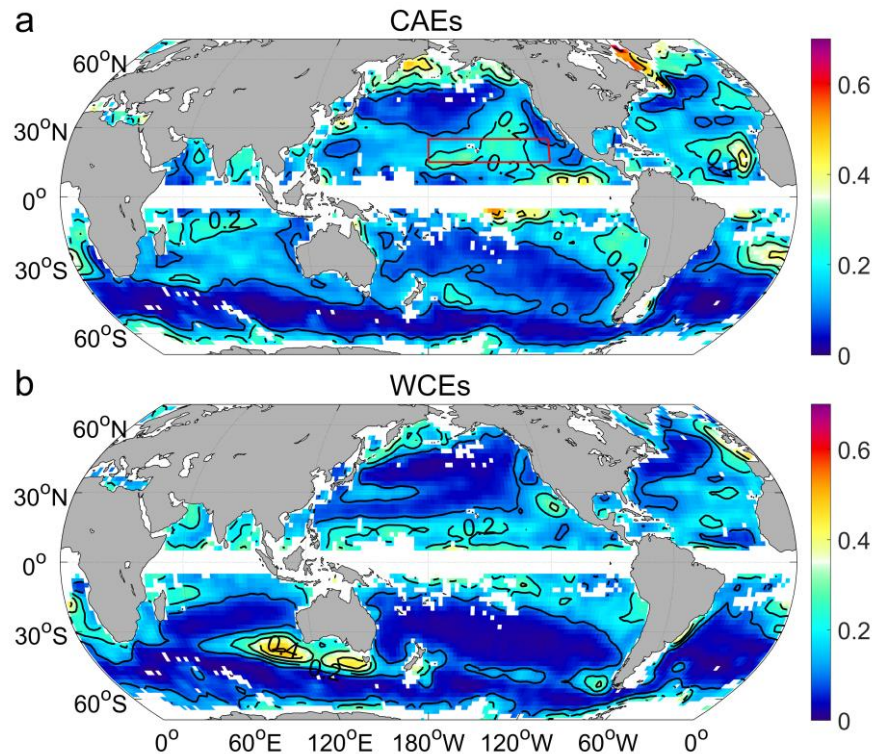
86 **2. Observed seasonal variations**

87 In this study, the global sea level anomaly (SLA) data during the period from 1998
88 to 2017 were obtained from the Copernicus Marine Environment Monitoring Service

89 (<http://marine.copernicus.eu/>), which merge the TOPEX/Poseidon, Jason-1, ERS-1/2
90 and Envisat altimetry records. The global microwave sea surface temperature (SST)
91 data for the same 20-yr period were obtained from the Remote Sensing Systems
92 (<http://www.remss.com/>). Both datasets are provided with a temporal resolution of 1
93 day and a spatial resolution of $1/4^\circ$. Before conducting the analysis of mesoscale eddies,
94 each SLA and SST map was high-pass-filtered using a spatial Gaussian filter with a
95 half-power cutoff wavelength of 10° to remove large-scale signals related to wind
96 forcing and surface heating/cooling (Ni et al. 2021). The eddy identification method
97 applied here is based on the SLA geometry (Chelton et al. 2011; Chaigneau et al. 2011),
98 the eddy tracking method is based on the dissimilarity parameter (Penven et al. 2005;
99 Souza et al. 2011) and the eddy classification method is based on the signs of SLA and
100 SSTA (Assassi et al. 2016; Ni et al. 2021). An eddy is regarded as a CAE or WCE if
101 the SLA and SSTA at the eddy center are of opposite signs; Otherwise, it is regarded
102 as a conventional eddy. Readers are referred to Ni et al. (2020; 2021) for detailed
103 descriptions of the eddy detection, tracking and classification methods. Globally, about
104 9.4 (9.6) million snapshots of 127,42 (133,780) anticyclonic (cyclonic) eddies with
105 lifetime longer than 4 weeks were identified over the 20-yr study period, among which
106 approximately one-fifth was classified as CAEs and WCEs (Ni et al. 2021).

107 The proportions of CAEs and WCEs are noticeably higher in the tropical regions,
108 forming a zonal belt of high probability of occurrence on either side of the Equator (Fig.
109 1). To shed light on the key factors responsible for these tropical belts of CAEs and
110 WCEs, we first examine the observed seasonal variations of these eddies in the low
111 latitude band from 5° to 25° in both hemispheres. Regardless of the hemisphere, both
112 CAEs and WCEs are found to occur more frequently during summer than during winter
113 (Figs. 2a and c). Similar seasonal variations in the occurrence of CAEs and WCEs have
114 also been found at mid latitudes of the Northern Pacific Ocean (Ni et al. 2021). In
115 addition, the proportion of CAEs is found to be consistently higher than that of WCEs
116 throughout the year. This systematic difference is likely related to the generation
117 mechanism of these unconventional eddies, which we will explore later in our

118 numerical experiments.

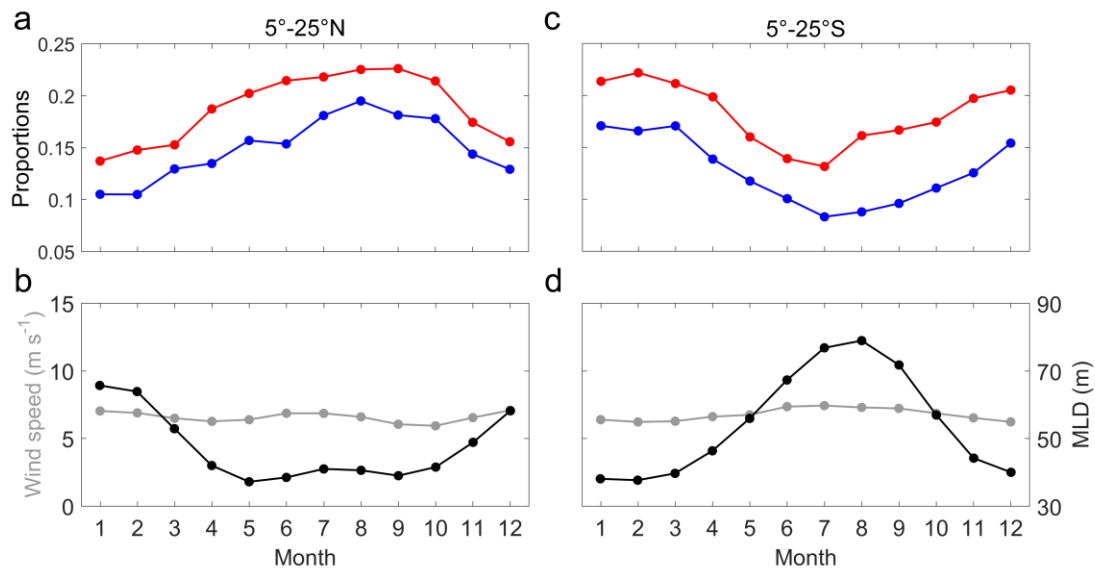


119

120 *FIG. 1. The proportions of the number of snapshots of (a) cold-core anticyclonic eddies*
121 *(CAEs) and (b) warm-core cyclonic eddies (WCEs) to the total number of snapshots of*
122 *eddies detected in global $2^\circ \times 2^\circ$ bins during the period from 1998 to 2017 (from Ni et*
123 *al. 2021).*

124 Next, we examine the observed seasonal cycle of the surface wind speed and mixed
125 layer depth in the tropical regions, two factors hypothesized to be important for the
126 generation of CAEs and WCEs (Ni et al. 2021). The daily $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ QuikSCAT
127 scatterometer wind speed data provided by the French Research Institute for
128 Exploitation of the Sea (<http://cersat.ifremer.fr/>) from 2000 to 2009 are used here. The
129 mixed layer depth is defined as the depth where the temperature differs by 0.2°C (de
130 Boyer Montégut et al. 2004) from the temperature at 10-m depth in Argo float profiles.
131 The Argo profile data are obtained from the China Argo Real-time Data Center
132 (<http://www.argo.org.cn/>) for the same period as the SLA data. Our results show that
133 the surface wind speed averaged over the tropical ocean latitude band remains relatively

134 constant throughout the year, with a mean magnitude of around 6.75 m s^{-1} (Figs. 2b and
 135 d). In contrast, the mixed layer depth exhibits a marked seasonal cycle. The mixed layer
 136 depth averaged over the low latitude bands increases from about 40 m in summer to
 137 about 65 m (80 m) in winter in the Northern (Southern) Hemisphere. The inverse
 138 relationship between the seasonal cycle of mixed layer depth and that of CAE and WCE
 139 percentages suggests that the surface mixed layer may play an important role in the
 140 formation of CAEs and WCEs in the tropical regions.

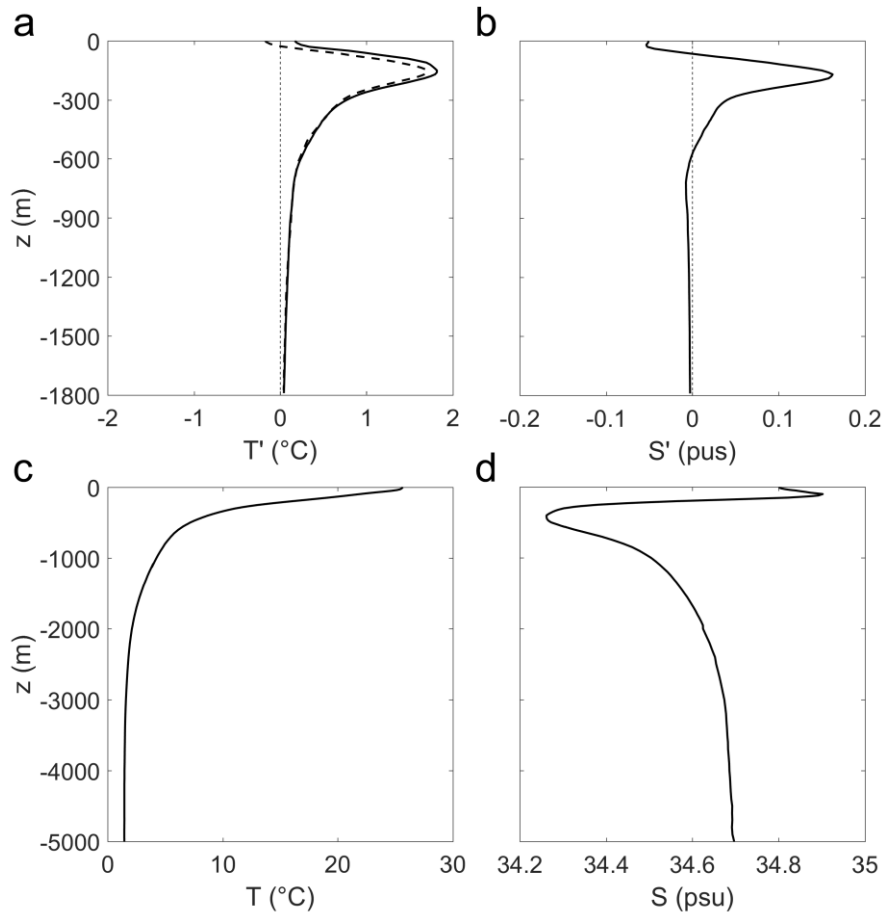


141
 142 *FIG. 2. Seasonal cycles of the proportions of (a) the CAEs (red) and WCEs (blue) and*
 143 *(b) the wind speed (grey; m s^{-1}) and mixed layer depth (black; m) averaged in the low*
 144 *latitude band of the Northern Hemisphere (5° - 25° N). (c, d) As Figs. 2a, b but averaged*
 145 *in the low latitude band of the Southern Hemisphere (5° - 25° S).*

146 3. Eddy structure

147 To characterize typical vertical eddy structures in the tropical oceans, here we make
 148 use of 25,149 quality-controlled Argo float profiles located in the red box in Fig. 1a.
 149 Only Argo profiles with temperature and salinity measurements available at depths
 150 from 10 m to 1800 m are selected. The temperature (T') and salinity (S') anomalies of
 151 an Argo profile are obtained by subtracting a local climatological profile from the
 152 temperature (T) and salinity (S) measurements. This climatological profile is produced
 153 by averaging all the Argo profiles inside an area of $5^{\circ} \times 5^{\circ}$ and within 45 days centered

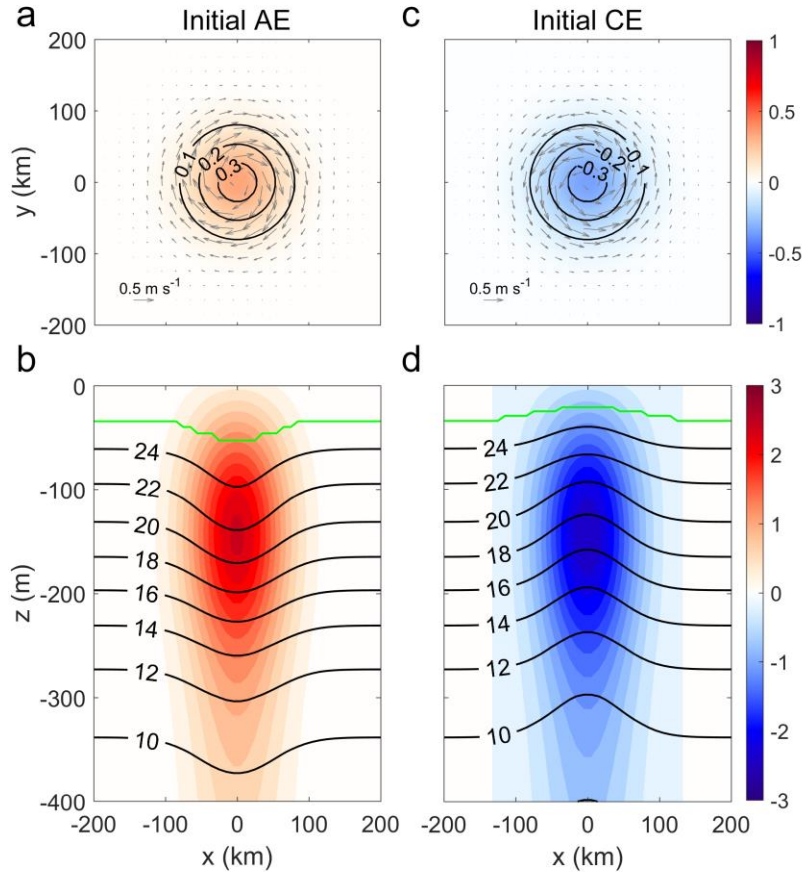
154 at the profile under consideration. Using these Argo profiles, we composite the eddy T'
 155 and S' after objectively interpolating them onto an eddy-centric coordinate system (Ni
 156 et al. 2021). Note that the sign of Argo profiles associated with CEs is reversed before
 157 the composite analysis procedure. Figures 3a and b show the composite vertical eddy
 158 T' and S' profiles (solid curves) at the center of the conventional eddies, respectively.
 159 For comparison, we also plot the composite eddy T' profile at the center of the
 160 unconventional eddies (dashed curve in Fig. 3a). It is found that T' associated with the
 161 CAEs and WCEs has an opposite sign to that associated with the conventional eddies
 162 in the upper ~ 30 m or so.



163
 164 *FIG. 3. (a, b) Vertical profiles of temperature anomaly (T' ; °C) and salinity anomaly*
 165 *(S' ; psu) at the center of the composite conventional (solid curves) and unconventional*
 166 *(dashed curve) eddies based on Argo float data in the region (180°-240°E, 15°-25°N)*
 167 *marked by the red box in Fig. 1a. Note that the sign of the Argo profiles associated with*
 168 *cyclonic eddies (CEs) is reversed before the composite analysis procedure. (c, d)*

169 *Vertical temperature (T ; °C) and salinity (S ; psu) profiles of WOA18 climatological*
170 *data averaged in the same region.*

171 We then combine the vertical eddy T' profile (T'_v) at the center of the composite eddy
172 with a horizontal Gaussian function (G_h ; McGillicuddy 2015) to reconstruct the 3D T'
173 structures of an idealized AE and an idealized CE via $T' = \pm T'_v \cdot G_h$. Since the
174 composite T' represents eddy temperature anomalies averaged over different stages of
175 eddy lifetime which already include imprints of various damping effects such as wind-
176 eddy interaction (Xu et al. 2016; Rai et al. 2019), we augment the magnitude of T' by
177 a factor of 1.5 before it is used further to construct the initial eddy conditions for the
178 numerical simulations. The 3D structure of eddy S' is constructed in the same way.
179 These eddy-induced T' and S' anomalies are then added to the climatological-mean
180 temperature and salinity profiles of the World Ocean Atlas 2018 (WOA18) data (Figs.
181 3c and d) averaged horizontally over the same red box in Fig. 1a to provide the full-
182 depth initial 3D eddy temperature and salinity fields for use in our idealized model
183 experiments. Figure 4 shows that the initial AE (CE) temperature field is axis-
184 symmetric, characterized by positive (negative) SSTA and depressed (raised)
185 isothermal surfaces inside the eddy. The initial eddy horizontal velocities are derived
186 from the eddy temperature and salinity fields via the thermal wind balance.



187

188 *FIG. 4. Initial eddy temperature and temperature anomaly fields used in the numerical*
 189 *experiments. (a) Sea surface temperature anomaly (SSTA; °C) of an anticyclonic eddy*
 190 *(AE). Gray arrows indicate eddy surface geostrophic currents calculated from the sea*
 191 *surface height. (b) Vertical T (contours; °C) and T' (colors; °C) structures of the AE*
 192 *across $y = 0$. The mixed layer depth (MLD) is marked by the green curve. (c, d) As Fig.*
 193 *4a, b but for a cyclonic eddy (CE).*

194 **4. Model configuration**

195 To further investigate the role of wind-eddy interaction in the generation of CAEs
 196 and WCEs in the tropical regions, we conduct a suite of idealized numerical
 197 experiments using the Massachusetts Institute of Technology General Circulation
 198 Model (MITgcm; Marshall et al. 1997). The model has a box-like domain that is 700
 199 km long, 700 km wide and 4266 m deep, with double periodic boundary conditions.
 200 The horizontal resolution of the model is a uniform 10 km. A variable vertical resolution
 201 is used ranging from 1 m near the surface to 250 m near the bottom (83 levels in total),

202 following the configuration of the Estimating the Circulation and Climate of the Ocean,
 203 phase 2 (ECCO2). The initial eddy has a radius of 100 km and is located at the center
 204 of the model domain. To avoid the complication of eddy propagation and dispersion,
 205 the model sits on an f plane at a latitude of 20°N . The horizontal mixing employs a
 206 Laplacian operator with a coefficient of $5 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ and the vertical mixing adopts the K-
 207 profile parameterization scheme (Large et al. 1994) with a background diffusivity of
 208 $10^{-5} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$.

209 Two types of wind stress are used in the numerical simulations: absolute wind stress
 210 $\tau_{abs} = \rho_{air} c_d \mathbf{u}_{air} |\mathbf{u}_{air}|$ and relative wind stress $\tau_{rel} = \rho_{air} c_d (\mathbf{u}_{air} - \mathbf{u}_{sea}) |\mathbf{u}_{air} -$
 211 $\mathbf{u}_{sea}|$, where ρ_{air} is the air density, c_d is the drag coefficient which is calculated online
 212 in the EXF package of MITgcm, \mathbf{u}_{air} is the surface wind velocity and \mathbf{u}_{sea} is the
 213 surface ocean current velocity. The absolute wind stress depends on surface winds alone,
 214 whereas the relative wind stress accounts for the relative motion between the surface
 215 winds and surface ocean currents. It is well known that the interaction between relative
 216 wind stress and ocean eddies leads to Ekman upwelling (downwelling) inside AEs (CEs)
 217 which acts to raise (depress) the upper ocean density surfaces of AEs (CEs) (Gaube et
 218 al. 2015; McGillicuddy 2015; Wilder et al. 2022), while no such Ekman pumping
 219 motion is induced by absolute wind stress (Fig. A1). Therefore, comparison between
 220 relative and absolute wind stress experiments can be used to highlight the role of
 221 relative wind stress-eddy interaction in the generation of CAEs and WCEs in the
 222 tropical regions. Here we use a spatially uniform wind speed with a magnitude of 6.75
 223 m s^{-1} as this is the average wind speed observed in the tropical regions (Fig. 2).
 224 Following McGillicuddy (2015), the wind direction rotates anticlockwise with a period
 225 of ~ 3 days which is about twice longer than the local inertial period. The reason for
 226 rotating wind direction is to maintain the symmetry of the simulated eddies by
 227 minimizing Ekman transport and choosing a 3-day rotation period avoids resonant
 228 excitation of significant inertial motions in the model experiments.

229 The surface mixed layer depth has been hypothesized to be an important factor in the
 230 formation of CAEs and WCEs (Ni et al. 2021). The mixed layer depth is strongly

231 influenced by both surface heat flux and wind stress (McGillicuddy 2015). While the
 232 wind stress acts to mix the upper ocean all year round, surface heat fluxes stratify the
 233 upper ocean via solar heating in summer and deepen the surface mixed layer via
 234 cooling-induced convective mixing in winter. As a result, the surface mixed layer depth
 235 in the tropical regions exhibits pronounced seasonal variations as shown in Fig. 2. Here
 236 we use surface heat flux forcing as a means of controlling the mixed layer depth in our
 237 model experiments to represent summer and winter conditions. For both the initial AE
 238 and CE, we conduct four numerical experiments. In the first three experiments, the AE
 239 or CE is subject to the relative wind stress together with surface heat fluxes with a
 240 magnitude of 50, 20 and -50 W m⁻², respectively. The fourth experiment is forced by
 241 the absolute wind stress and surface heat flux of 50 W m⁻² (Table 1). Note that the
 242 surface heat fluxes are spatially uniform in the model domain of all the experiments.

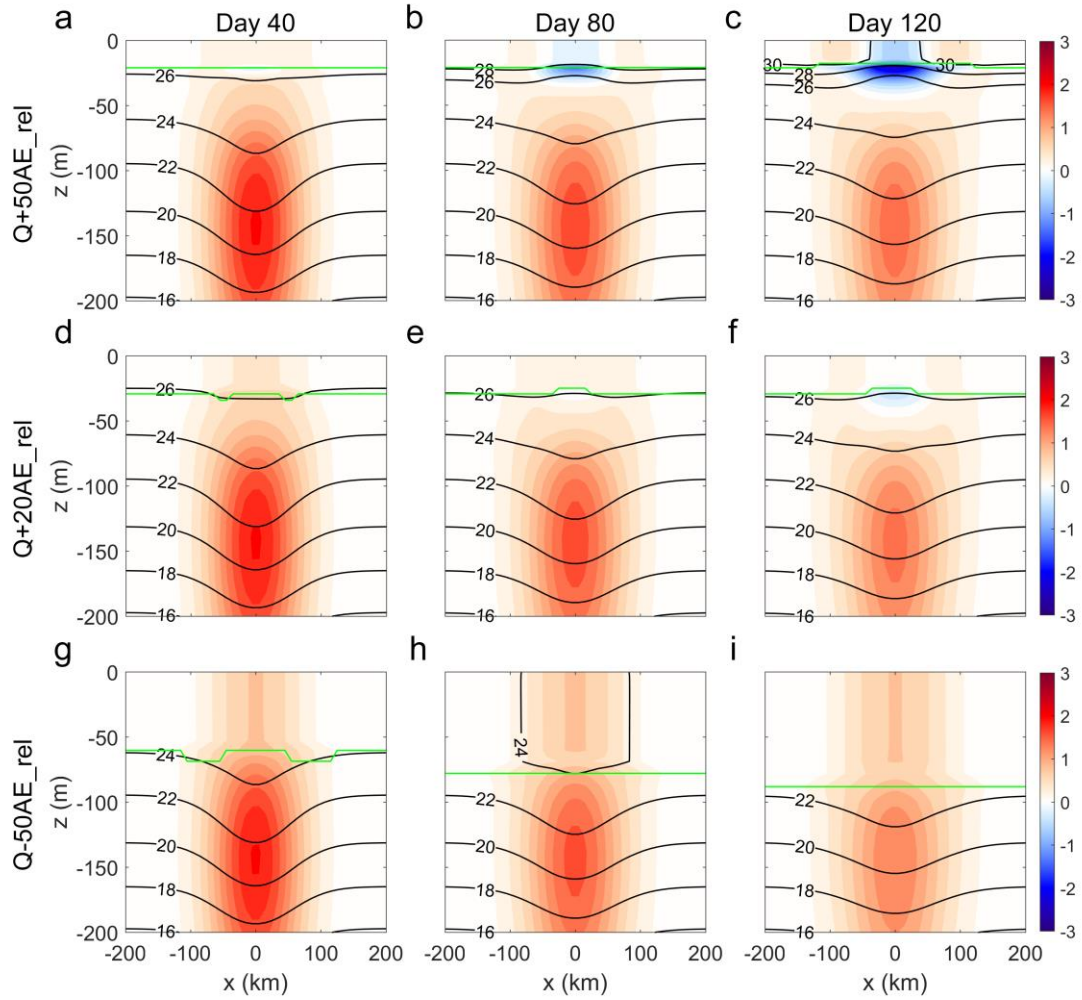
243 *TABLE 1. Idealized numerical experiments*

Experiment	Eddy polarity	Wind stress	Surface heat flux (W m ⁻²)
Q+50AE_rel	Anticyclonic	$\tau = \rho_{air} c_d (\mathbf{u}_{air} - \mathbf{u}_{sea}) \mathbf{u}_{air} - \mathbf{u}_{sea} $	50
Q+50CE_rel	Cyclonic		50
Q+20AE_rel	Anticyclonic		20
Q+20CE_rel	Cyclonic		20
Q-50AE_rel	Anticyclonic		-50
Q-50CE_rel	Cyclonic		-50
Q+50AE_abs	Anticyclonic	$\tau = \rho_{air} c_d \mathbf{u}_{air} \mathbf{u}_{air} $	50
Q+50CE_abs	Cyclonic		50

244 5. Results

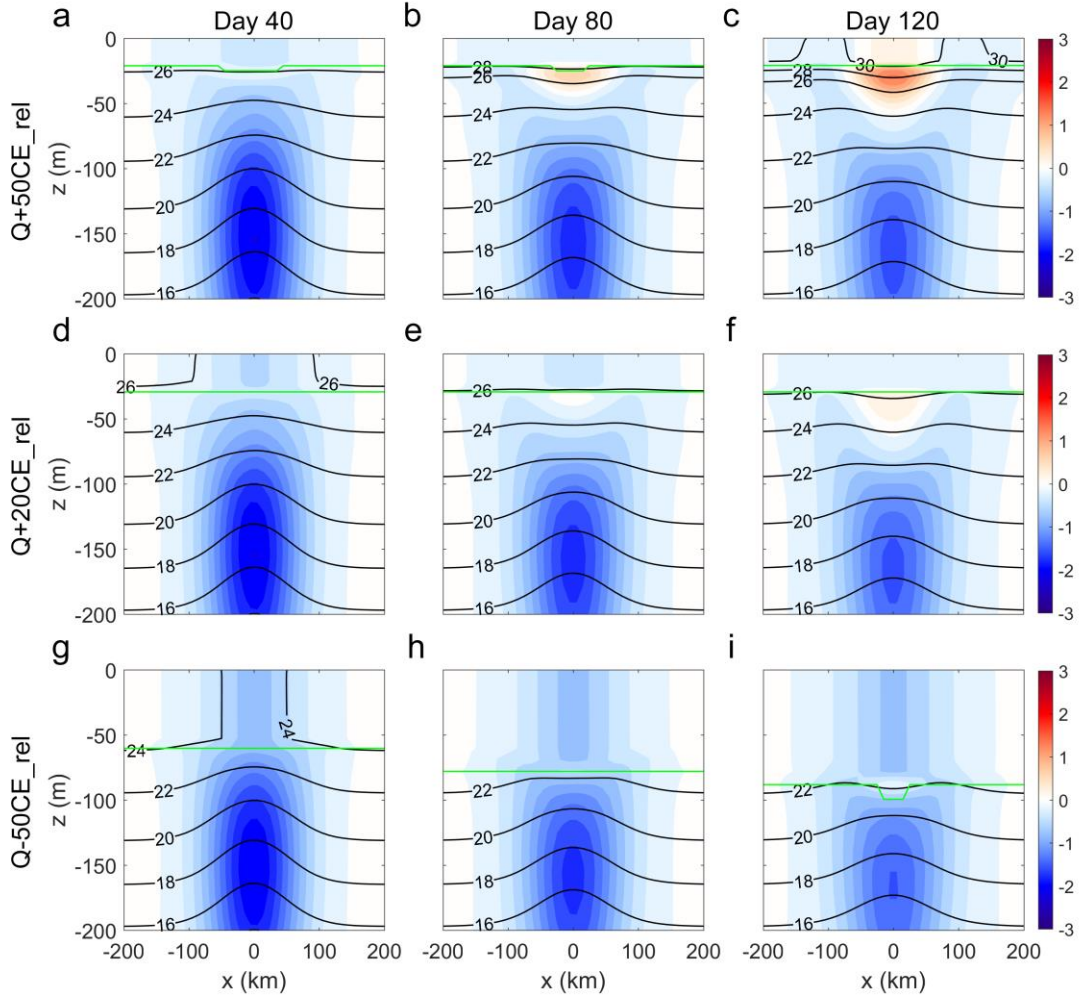
245 5.1 Generation mechanism

246 We start with experiments Q+50AE_rel and Q+50CE_rel, which are forced by
 247 relative wind stress and surface heat flux of 50 W m⁻². These experiments are designed
 248 to simulate the evolution of AE and CE under relative wind stress forcing in summer,
 249 respectively. In both experiments, the surface mixed layer is maintained at about 20 m
 250 by the combined effect of wind stress-induced mixing and surface heating, albeit the
 251 stratification at the base of the mixed layer continues to increase due to positive surface
 252 heat flux (Figs. 5a-c and 6a-c).



253

254 *FIG. 5. Vertical structures of temperature (contours; °C) and temperature anomalies*
 255 *(colors; °C) at $y=0$ (see Fig. 4a) in the AE experiments on day 40, 80 and 120 under*
 256 *relative wind stress and with surface heat flux of (a-c) 50 W m^{-2} , (d-f) 20 W m^{-2} and (g-*
 257 *i) -50 W m^{-2} . The green curves indicate the MLDs.*

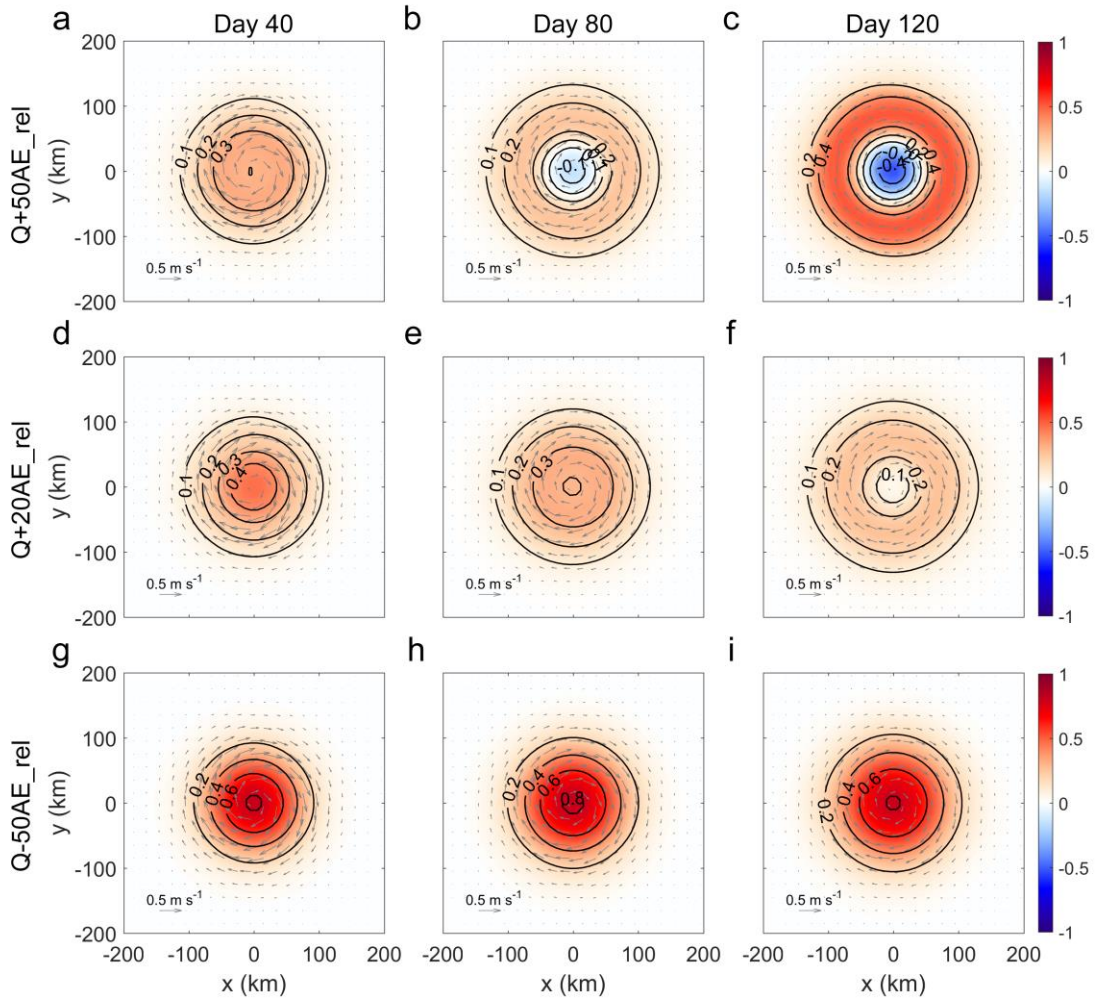


258

259 *FIG. 6. As Fig. 5 but for the CE experiments.*

260 Ekman divergence and upwelling induced by relative wind stress inside the AE is
 261 seen to gradually raise the depressed isotherms of the AE throughout the water column.
 262 As a result, the maximum temperature anomaly at ~ 150 m associated with the AE
 263 decreases from the initial 3°C to $\sim 1^{\circ}\text{C}$ on day 120. Note that temperature anomalies
 264 here refer to deviations from the background temperature, i.e., temperature away from
 265 the eddy at the edge of the model domain, rather than deviations from the initial
 266 condition. At the base of the shallow mixed layer in these two experiments where the
 267 Ekman pumping velocity is large and the initial positive temperature anomaly of the
 268 AE is relatively small, Ekman pumping is able to raise the isotherms of the AE and
 269 reverse the sign of temperature anomalies to negative at the base of the mixed layer
 270 (Fig. 5b). As vertical mixing mixes the surface water with the water below, these

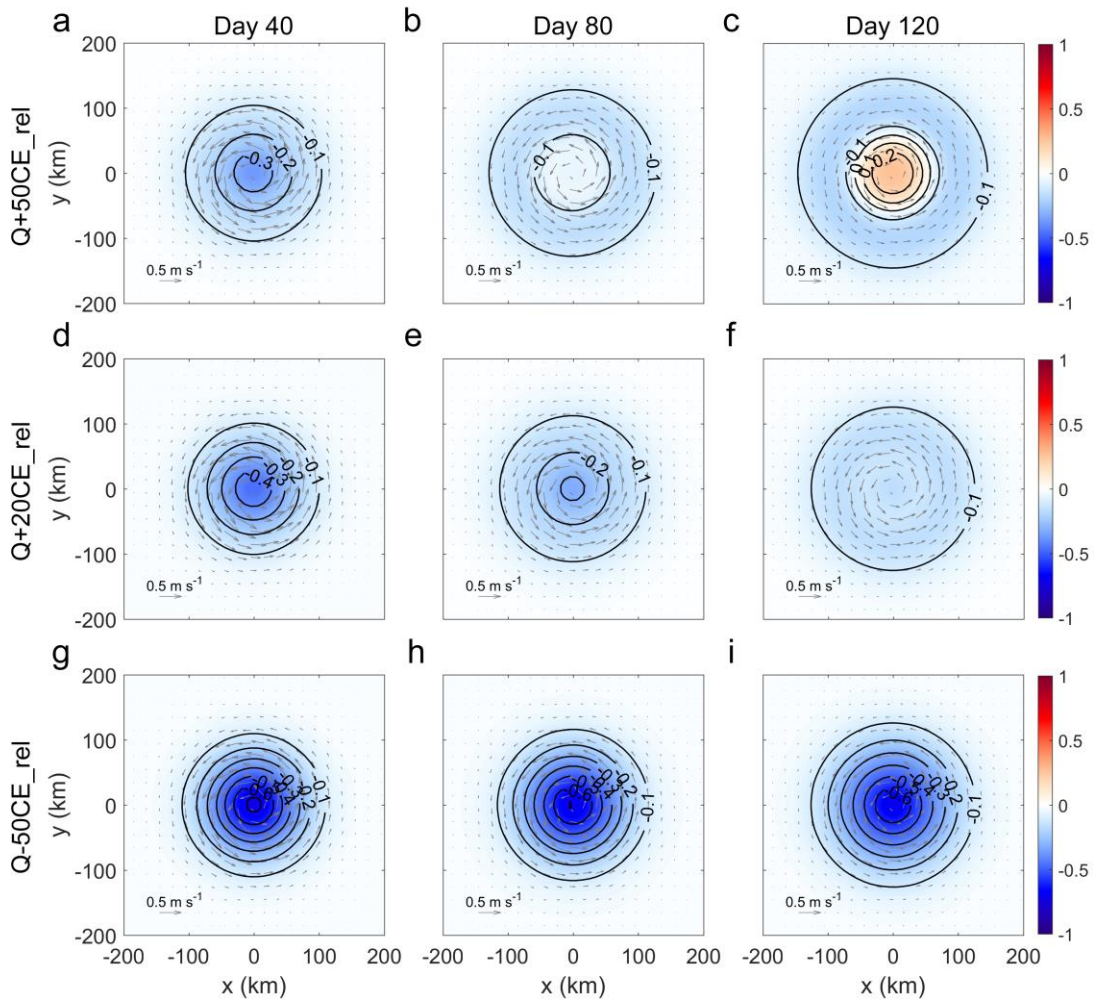
271 negative temperature anomalies at the base of the mixed layer are entrained into the
 272 mixed layer, generating negative SSTA (Fig. 7b). In this way, the initial AE evolves into
 273 a CAE. With further action of Ekman upwelling, the negative temperature anomalies at
 274 the base of the mixed layer intensify as well as expand in the vertical direction (Fig.
 275 5c). On day 120, the negative SSTA at the center of the CAE reaches a magnitude of -
 276 0.4°C (Fig. 7c).



277
 278 *FIG. 7. SSTA (°C) patterns in the AE experiments on day 40, 80 and 120 under relative*
 279 *wind stress and with surface heat flux of (a-c) 50 W m⁻², (d-f) 20 W m⁻² and (g-i) -50 W*
 280 *m⁻². The arrows indicate surface eddy geostrophic currents derived from sea surface*
 281 *height.*

282 Similarly, Ekman convergence and downwelling induced by relative wind stress
 283 inside the CE lowers the initially raised isotherms of the CE and build up positive

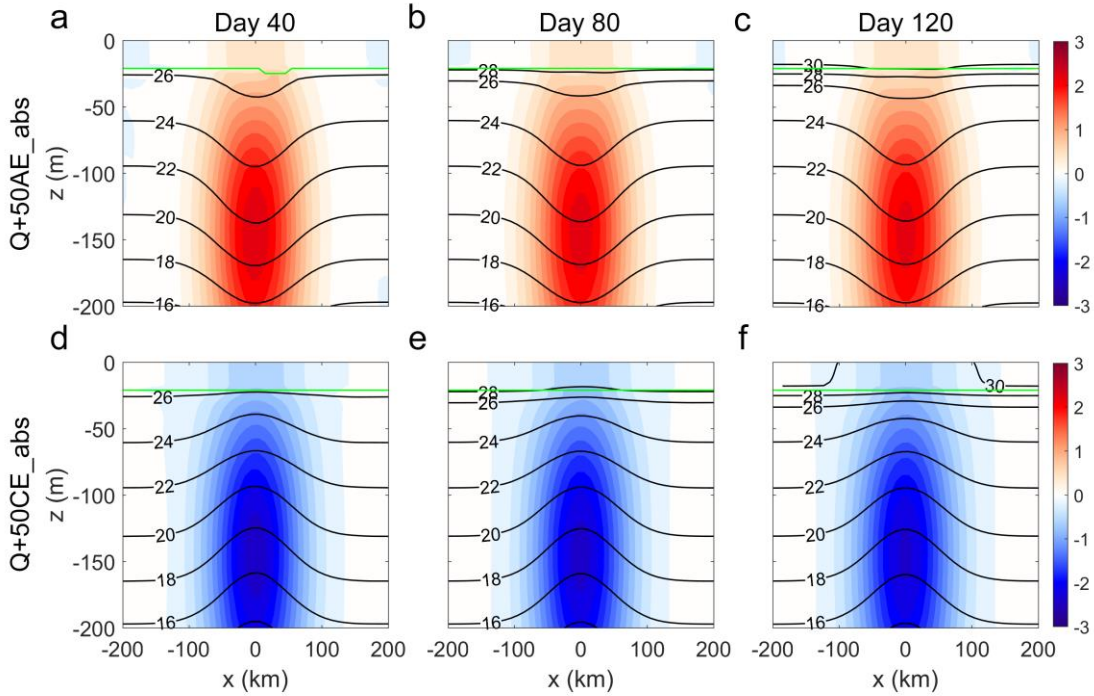
284 temperature anomalies near the base of the mixed layer (Fig. 6b). Surface turbulent
 285 mixing, in turn, entrains waters with these positive temperature anomalies and mix them
 286 with the surface water to produce positive SSTA (Fig. 8b). In this way, a WCE is
 287 generated. On day 120, the magnitude of positive SSTA at the center of the WCE
 288 increases to 0.2°C (Fig. 8c) which is about half of the magnitude of negative SSTA of
 289 the CAE.



290
 291 *FIG. 8. As Fig. 7 but for the CE experiments.*

292 A different picture emerges if the same AE and CE are subject to absolute wind stress.
 293 Experiments Q+50AE_abs and Q+50CE_abs are the same as Q+50AE_rel and
 294 Q+50CE_rel except that the relative wind stress is replaced by the absolute wind stress.
 295 In the absence of Ekman pumping induced by relative wind stress, the AE and CE are
 296 only slightly attenuated in the two absolute wind stress experiments (Fig. 9). There are

297 no negative (positive) temperature anomalies built up at the base of the mixed layer and
 298 no development of negative (positive) eddy SSTA in Q+50AE_abs (Q+50CE_abs).
 299 Comparison between the relative and absolute wind stress experiments highlights the
 300 central role of relative wind stress in the generation of CAEs and WCEs.



301
 302 *FIG. 9. (a-c) and (d-f) As Figs. 5a-c and Figs. 6a-c, but for the absolute wind stress*
 303 *experiments.*

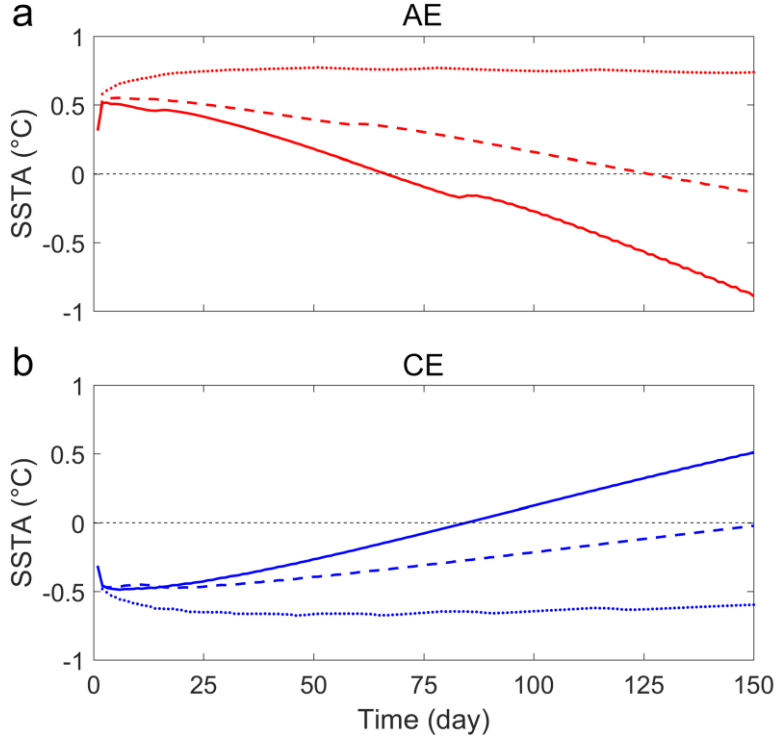
304 Next, we vary surface heat flux in the relative wind stress experiments to investigate
 305 the impact of surface mixed layer depth on the seasonal formation of CAEs and WCEs.
 306 Experiments Q+20AE_rel and Q+20CE_rel are the same as Q+50AE_rel and
 307 Q+50CE_rel, except that the surface heat flux is reduced from 50 W m^{-2} to 20 W m^{-2} .
 308 Due to the decrease in surface heating, the surface mixed layer becomes deeper (~ 30
 309 m) and the stratification at the base of the mixed layer is weaker in Q+20AE_rel and
 310 Q+20CE_rel (Figs. 5d-f and 6d-f). It takes longer time for Ekman pumping induced by
 311 relative wind stress to develop negative (positive) anomalies at the base of the mixed
 312 layer in AE (CE) that are of comparable magnitude as those in Q+50AE_rel and
 313 Q+50CE_rel. As a result, although the initial positive (negative) SSTA at the center of
 314 the AE (CE) decreases (increases) to close to zero on day 120, the sign of eddy SSTA

315 is not reversed (Figs. 7f and 8f).

316 In experiments Q-50AE_rel and Q-50CE_rel, we use a negative surface heat flux of
317 -50 W m^{-2} to simulate the evolution of eddies under relative wind stress in winter. Under
318 the combined influence of wind stress-induced mixing and surface cooling-induced
319 convection, the mixed layer in these two experiments deepens significantly to about 90
320 m on day 120 (Figs. 5g-i and 6g-i). Although the overall eddy temperature anomalies
321 are weakened in Q-50AE_rel and Q-50CE_rel as in the other four relative wind stress
322 experiments, there are no reversing the sign of temperature anomalies at the base of the
323 mixed layer and only slight weakening of SSTA at the center of the eddies by day 120
324 (Figs. 7g-i and 8g-i). Comparison of relative wind stress experiments forced with
325 different surface heat fluxes highlights the importance of the depth of the surface mixed
326 layer in regulating the seasonal cycle of the formation of CAEs and WCEs. Our results
327 also imply that there is likely a lower chance of observing CAEs and WCEs in regions
328 where the mixed layer is relatively deep all year round.

329 Figure 10 shows the temporal evolution of SSTA at the centers of the AE and CE in
330 all the relative wind stress experiments. It is evident that the more positive the surface
331 heat flux is, the shorter time it takes for the AE and CE to change sign of their SSTA,
332 that is, evolving into a CAE and WCE. Furthermore, with the same surface heat flux
333 forcing, it takes longer time for the CE to evolve into a WCE than for the AE to evolve
334 into a CAE. For example, the time it takes for SSTA of the AE and CE to change sign
335 in experiments Q+50AE_rel and Q+50CE_rel are 65 days and 88 days, respectively. A
336 similar difference is also found between the AE and CE in experiments Q+20AE_rel
337 and Q+20CE_rel. This result is consistent with the observations where the proportion
338 of CAE is found to be systematically higher than that of WCE in the tropical oceans
339 (Fig. 2). We explain this AE/CE asymmetry as follows. Although temperature
340 anomalies change sign near the base of the mixed layer in both AE and CE experiments
341 in response to Ekman pumping, the negative temperature anomalies in the AE
342 experiments are centered at a shallower depth (close to or at the base of the mixed layer)
343 than the positive temperature anomalies in the CE experiments due to the fact that

344 relative wind stress induces Ekman upwelling in AE and downwelling in CE.
 345 Consequently, waters with larger temperature anomalies are entrained and mixed with
 346 the surface water by vertical mixing in the case of AE which reduces the time it takes
 347 to reverse the sign of initial eddy SSTA.



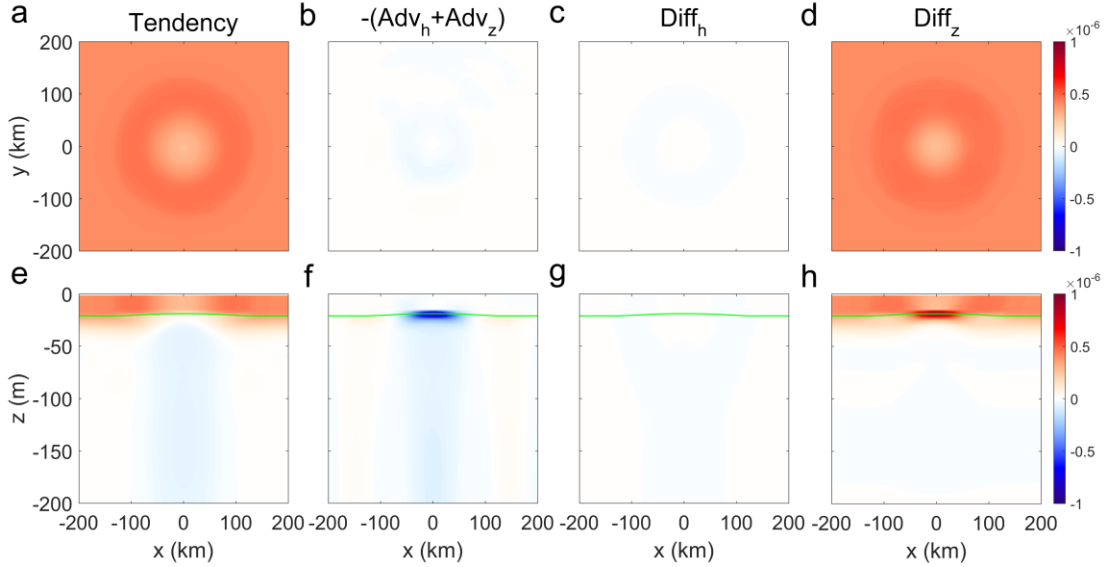
348
 349 *FIG. 10. Temporal evolution of SSTA (°C) at the centers of the simulated (a) AE and (b)*
 350 *CE with the relative wind stress. The solid, dashed and dotted curves represent results*
 351 *from experiments with surface heat flux of 50, 20 and -50 W m⁻², respectively.*

352 5.2 Heat budget

353 To further verify the role of relative wind stress-induced Ekman pumping and
 354 turbulent mixing in the formation of CAEs and WCEs, we diagnose contributions of
 355 individual term in the heat budget equation for the AE and CE in experiments
 356 Q+50AE_rel and Q+50CE_rel over a 60-day period from day 60 to day 120,
 357 respectively:

$$358 \quad \underbrace{\frac{\partial T}{\partial t}}_{Tendency} = - \underbrace{\left(u \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} + w \frac{\partial T}{\partial z} \right)}_{Adv_h} + \underbrace{K_h \left(\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2} \right)}_{Diff_h} + \underbrace{K_z \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2}}_{Diff_z}$$

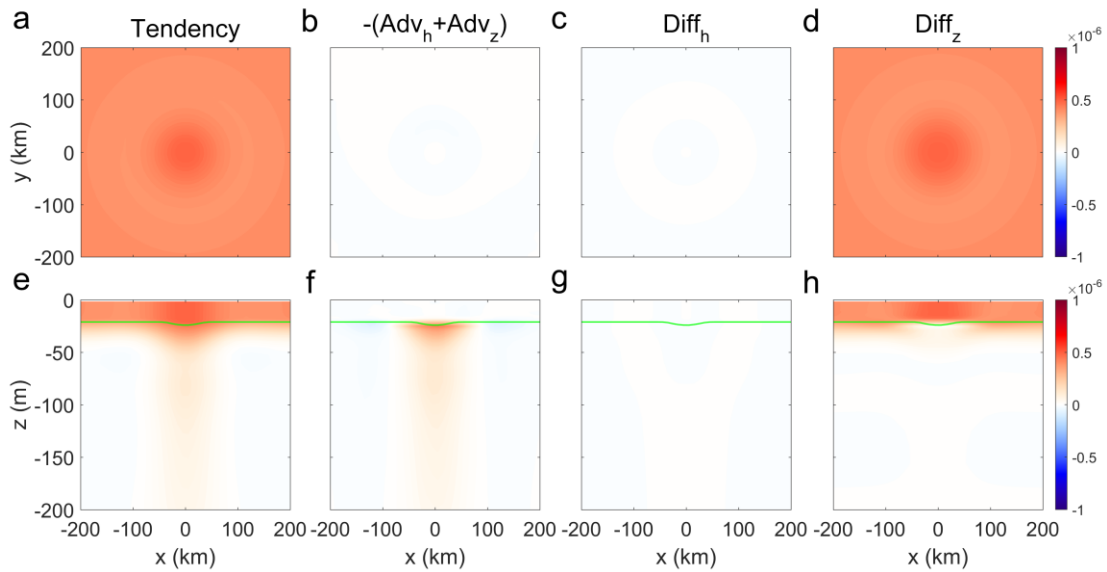
359 where K_h and K_z are the horizontal and vertical eddy diffusivities, respectively, Adv_h
 360 and Adv_z are the horizontal and vertical advection terms, and $Diff_h$ and $Diff_z$ are the
 361 horizontal and vertical diffusion terms. Note that the $Diff_z$ term at the surface is surface
 362 heat flux.



363
 364 *FIG. 11. Spatial patterns of individual term ($^{\circ}\text{C s}^{-1}$) in the temperature equation*
 365 *averaged between day 60 and day 120 of the AE experiment ($Q+50AE_rel$). (a-d) At*
 366 *the depth of 15 m and (e-h) across $y = 0$. Green curves indicate the mean MLDs during*
 367 *this 60-day period.*

368 Our analysis shows that the heat budget is almost closed for both experiments (Figs.
 369 11 and 12) and the residuals are at least one order of magnitude smaller than the
 370 dominate terms. As we can see from the tendency terms, the AE and CE are in the
 371 process of evolving into a CAE and WCE, respectively, during this 60-day period.
 372 Below the mixed layer, there is a cooling tendency in AE and a warming tendency in
 373 CE (Figs. 11e and 12e). Both tendencies can be explained by the advection term (Figs.
 374 11f and 12f) — the relative wind stress-induced Ekman pumping flattens the isotherms
 375 and weakens the initial temperature anomalies of the eddy. The maximum cooling and
 376 warming effect due to the advection term is located at the base of the mixing layer
 377 where the Ekman pumping velocity is large and the water is strongly stratified. Within
 378 the mixed layer, the overall tendency is for the water to become warmer (Figs. 11e and

379 12e) and this is due to surface heating which is included in the diffusion term in our
 380 diagnostics (Figs. 11h and 12h). However, this warming tendency is not spatially
 381 uniform. Owing to the large negative temperature anomalies developed at the base of
 382 the mixed layer of the AE as a result of Ekman upwelling, the water that is entrained
 383 upwards into the mixed layer by vertical mixing inside the AE is colder than that outside
 384 of the AE, which results in a minimum warming hole in the surface temperature of the
 385 AE (Figs. 11a and d) and hence the formation of the CAE. A similar process takes place
 386 in the mixed layer of the CE experiment which results in the formation of the WCE
 387 (Fig. 12). The horizontal diffusion term is small in both experiments and can be
 388 neglected in the heat budget. Our heat budget analysis confirms the important role of
 389 relative wind stress-induced Ekman pumping and vertical mixing in the generation of
 390 CAEs and WCEs.



391
 392 *FIG. 12. As Fig. 11 but for the CE experiment ($Q+50CE_rel$).*

393 **6. Discussion and conclusion**

394 Based on 20 years of satellite observations, we have shown that the probabilities of
 395 CAEs and WCEs are relatively high in the tropical oceans. Moreover, these
 396 unconventional eddies are found to occur more frequently in summer than in winter.
 397 Using composite eddy structures derived from Argo profiles in the tropical regions as
 398 initial conditions, we have conducted a suite of idealized numerical model experiments

399 to investigate the mechanism behind the formation and seasonal cycle of CAEs and
400 WCEs. It is found that when the surface mixed layer is shallow such as that at low
401 latitudes in summer, Ekman pumping induced by relative wind stress is able to reverse
402 the sign of eddy temperature anomalies at the base of the mixed layer. For example,
403 negative temperature anomalies develop at the base of the mixed layer of an AE
404 experiment (Q+50AE_rel) and positive temperature anomalies at the base of a CE
405 experiment (Q+50CE_rel). Because of this, water that is entrained into the mixed layer
406 from its base by vertical mixing is colder (warmer) inside the AE (CE) than that outside
407 of it, which leads to negative (positive) eddy SSTA compared to the surroundings. In
408 this way, the AE (CE) evolves into a CAE (WCE) under relative wind stress. When the
409 mixing layer is deep such as that in winter or at high latitudes, it is difficult for relative
410 wind Ekman pumping to reverse the sign of eddy temperature anomalies at the base of
411 the mixed layer and as such the eddy SSTA does not reverse its sign as is found in Q-
412 50AE_rel and Q-50CE_rel. The heat budget analysis and additional experiments with
413 absolute wind stress further confirm the important role of relative wind stress-induced
414 Ekman pumping and vertical mixing in the formation of CAEs and WCEs.

415 CAEs and WCEs have been found to be abundant in the global ocean and they
416 modulate air-sea exchanges in a way that is different from their conventional
417 counterparts (Leyba et al. 2017; Liu et al. 2020; Ni et al. 2021). Understanding how
418 CAE and WCE are generated is a necessary first step if we are to understand their
419 dynamics and properly represent their effects in the ocean climate models. Although
420 our idealized modelling approach allows us to highlight and diagnose the important role
421 of relative wind stress, surface mixed layer depth and vertical mixing in the generation
422 of CAEs and WCEs, other processes in the open ocean, such as temporal or spatial wind
423 stress and heat flux variability, eddy-atmosphere thermodynamic coupling, eddy-eddy
424 interaction and background flow instability, may also influence the generation of these
425 unconventional eddies but are not considered in this study. Furthermore, the mechanism
426 for generating CAEs and WCEs near the boundary currents are thought to be different
427 (e.g., Chaigneau et al. 2011; Itoh and Yasuda 2010; Sun et al. 2022). This recently-

428 discovered abundance of CAEs and WCEs in the global ocean calls on further research
429 on this topic.

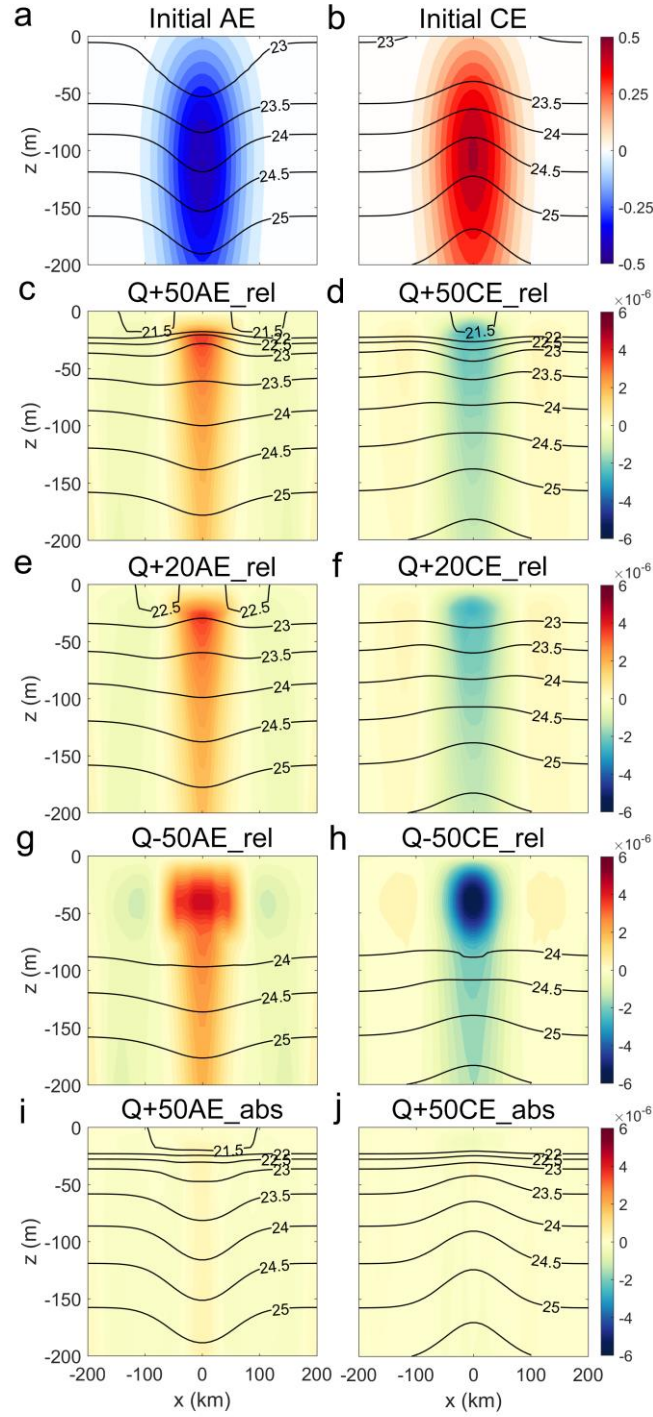
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437 Data Availability Statement. All the observational data used in this study are publicly
438 available. The altimeter SLA data are available at <http://marine.copernicus.eu/>. The
439 microwave SST data are available at <http://www.remss.com/>. The QuikSCAT wind
440 speed data are available at <https://cersat.ifremer.fr/>. The Argo profile data are available
441 at <http://www.argo.org.cn/>.

APPENDIX

442

443 To further investigate how the AE and CE respond to relative and absolute wind
444 stress forcing, we plot the eddy density structures and vertical velocities in our
445 numerical experiments. As expected, the initial density surfaces are depressed inside
446 the AE while they are raised inside the CE (Figs. A1a and b). In the relative wind stress
447 experiments, wind-eddy interaction leads to Ekman upwelling inside the AE and
448 downwelling inside the CE, which acts to raise the density surfaces in AE and depress
449 the density surfaces in CE (Figs. A1c-h). The spatial pattern and magnitude of vertical
450 velocity in the positive surface heat flux experiments are comparable (Figs. A1c-f). The
451 magnitude of vertical velocity in the surface mixed layer of the two surface heat loss
452 experiments is significantly enhanced (Figs. A1g-h) due to interaction with cooling-
453 induced convection. In contrast, in the absolute wind stress experiments where Ekman
454 pumping due to wind-eddy interaction is absent, vertical motions inside the eddies are
455 very weak (Figs. A1i-j). As a result, the density surfaces remain almost unchanged from
456 their initial condition, except that the stratification at the base of the mixed layer
457 becomes stronger due to positive surface heat flux. This analysis again confirms the
458 importance of relative wind stress and the vertical motions inside the eddies it induces
459 in the generation of CAEs and WCEs.



460
 461 *FIG. A1. (a, b) Initial eddy potential density (contours; kg m^{-3}) and potential density*
 462 *anomaly (colors; kg m^{-3}) fields at $y = 0$. (c-j) Vertical velocities (colors; m s^{-1}) at $y = 0$*
 463 *averaged between day 60 and day 120 and potential density (contours; kg m^{-3}) at $y =$*
 464 *0 on day 120 in all eight experiments.*
 465

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