

1 **A Characterization of the Meteorological Environment Associated with the**
2 **Tropical Transition of a Mediane in the Western Mediterranean Sea**

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ABSTRACT

11 In order to identify the distinctive characteristics of the meteorological en-
12 vironment supporting the tropical transition of the October 1996 medicane in
13 the western Mediterranean, its spatial and temporal evolution is investigated
14 on the basis of a 50-member ensemble of reanalyses-driven RCM atmospheric
15 simulations. As the cyclones undergo a warm seclusion-like process, the ini-
16 tial thermal asymmetries and vertical tilt are reduced while a warm core builds
17 upward from the lower troposphere. A comparison of the composite environ-
18 ments of transitioning and non-transitioning storms reveals that the former
19 feature enhanced convection and higher mid-to-low tropospheric relative hu-
20 midity, resulting in a stronger diabatic heat release aloft, along with increased
21 upper-level wind divergence. At the time of transition, vertical wind shear
22 is not significantly different, as it is reduced in both composites below the
23 thresholds typically found for tropical cyclogenesis. Upper-level wind diver-
24 gence and wind shear are positively correlated, hence the additional forcing
25 on convection due to stronger divergence could partially counteract the detri-
26 mental effects of larger shear. In the transitioning cyclones, surface sensible
27 and latent heat fluxes become significantly larger only in proximity of the tran-
28 sition. Finally, the upper-tropospheric warm core strength exhibits a strong,
29 negative linear correlation with wind shear. Moderately positive correlation
30 coefficients are instead found for latent and sensible heat fluxes while upper-
31 level divergence and mid-to-low tropospheric relative humidity show small
32 and negative correlations.

33 **1. Introduction**

34 Over the last years there has been a remarkable advance in our understanding of both mid-
35 latitude and tropical cyclones: used to be grouped in separate classes, they are now rather en-
36 visioned at each end of a continuum spectrum where, based on its location and meteorological
37 environment, a cyclone can acquire distinctive characteristics of each class (Hart 2003). For ex-
38 ample, during *extratropical transitions* tropical cyclones (TCs) usually move to higher latitudes
39 and undergo a series of structural changes resulting in the acquisition of features typical of baro-
40 clinic systems (Jones et al. 2003). Conversely, a *tropical transition* refers to the formation of a TC
41 from a well-defined baroclinic precursor or remnant baroclinic structure (Bosart and Bartlo 1991;
42 Davis and Bosart 2003, 2004). McTaggart-Cowan et al. (2012) estimated that baroclinic influences
43 account for nearly 30 % of the global tropical cyclogenesis and there is increasing evidence that
44 the tropical transition paradigm can be applied to understand the genesis of *medicanes* or *tropical-*
45 *like cyclones* in the Mediterranean Basin as well (McTaggart-Cowan et al. 2009a,b; Chaboureaux
46 et al. 2012).

47 Although forming in a highly cyclogenetic area (Trigo et al. 1999), only 1.6 ± 1.3 medicanes
48 are detected on average every year (Cavicchia et al. 2014). The synoptic setting associated with
49 their genesis is often characterized by an upper-level feature (Claud et al. 2010), either a fully
50 isolated cut-off (Reale and Atlas 2001) or an elongated trough (Pantillon et al. 2012), responsible
51 for the destabilization of the atmospheric column (Emanuel 2005; Fita et al. 2007; Cavicchia et al.
52 2014) and the quasi-geostrophic forcing on vertical motions (Chaboureaux et al. 2012). In the lower
53 troposphere, instead, enhanced vorticity is present (Cavicchia et al. 2014) along with consistent
54 heat fluxes from the sea surface (Pytharoulis et al. 2000; Reale and Atlas 2001).

55 Through observations and numerical modeling, several studies have investigated the relevance
56 of different processes in the evolution of medicanes. Surface heat fluxes appear to be involved
57 not only in maintaining the systems (Fita et al. 2007; Davolio et al. 2009; Lagouvardos et al.
58 1999; Pytharoulis et al. 2000; Moscatello et al. 2008b) but also in promoting the scale reduction
59 of the vortex (Reed et al. 2001) and in modifying the stability of the boundary layer (Moscatello
60 et al. 2008a). Diabatic effects, such as latent heat release by condensation, control medicanes'
61 intensification (Pytharoulis et al. 2000) as the strongest convective activity is found before the
62 storms' maturity (Chaboureau et al. 2012; Miglietta et al. 2013). In terms of the dynamics, the
63 interplay between a coherent tropopause disturbance, a diabatically-generated potential vorticity
64 (PV) anomaly and an orographically-generated PV banner was identified by McTaggart-Cowan
65 et al. (2009a,b) as the key mechanism in the cyclogenesis of a medicane in the Gulf of Genoa.
66 Chaboureau et al. (2012) pointed instead to the enhancement in convection due to the surface
67 cyclone crossing an upper-level jet as a major contributor to the tropical transition of the September
68 2006 medicane.

69 Tous and Romero (2011, 2013) used reanalysis data to investigate the meteorological environ-
70 ment associated with twelve medicanes by comparing it against that of the bulk of the Mediter-
71 ranean cyclones. Among the parameters examined, only heat fluxes, expressed as a diabatic con-
72 tribution to surface equivalent potential temperature, and an empirically-defined genesis index
73 proved to be moderately distinctive. An axisymmetric, cloud-resolving model was instead em-
74 ployed by Fita et al. (2007) to show that medicanes are highly sensitive to the relative humidity
75 (RH) profile while less sensitive to the sea surface temperature (SST), as also suggested by Tous
76 et al. (2013), even though a lower limit of 15° C seems necessary for their genesis (Tous and
77 Romero 2013). The geographical and seasonal frequency of medicane genesis is compatible to
78 that of the combination of low wind shear, large thermal contrast between the upper troposphere

79 and the sea surface, high column-integrated relative humidity and large low-level vorticity, accord-
80 ing to Cavicchia et al. (2014).

81 Our present study attempts at characterizing the meteorological environment associated with
82 the tropical transition of medicanes by focusing on the October 1996 event. In order to do so, an
83 ensemble of model realizations is obtained through a dynamical downscaling of the corresponding,
84 reanalysis-based, synoptic scale environment. This approach differs from previous studies in that
85 it is based on the spatio-temporal comparison of transitioning and non-transitioning ensemble
86 members. Moreover, the use of a full-physics, non-hydrostatic atmospheric model should allow
87 a better representation of any baroclinic influence that an axisymmetric model initialized with a
88 homogenous atmosphere can not account for, as suggested by Fita et al. (2007). The analysis
89 focuses on different parameters that have been often investigated in relation to extratropical and
90 tropical cyclones, namely vertical wind shear, upper-tropospheric wind divergence, surface heat
91 fluxes and relative humidity. The results are discussed with respect to similar studies on medicanes,
92 TCs as well as on the baroclinically-induced pathway (i.e. tropical transition) to TC formation.

93 The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: section 2 provides the case overview, section
94 3 describes the model set up and the methodology, in section 4 the results are presented. The
95 discussion and concluding remarks are included in section 5.

96 **2. Case description**

97 The October 1996 medicane is among the twelve cases detected by Tous and Romero (2011) and
98 was previously investigated by Reale and Atlas (2001) and Cavicchia and von Storch (2012). Its
99 precursor cyclone originated off the Algerian coast in the afternoon of 6 October and was initially
100 located under an upper level, cut-off low, associated with a moderately strong jet stream on its
101 southern edge (Reale and Atlas 2001), that moved from southern France to the Catalan Coast. It

102 later progressed northward between Sardinia and the Balearic Islands (Fig.1a) and by 1200 UTC
103 7 October it featured a 999 hPa sea-level pressure minimum, an incipient low-level warm core
104 and a well-defined, eye-like structure (Reale and Atlas, 2001). Subsequently, the system made
105 its first landfall over southern Sardinia (Cavicchia and von Storch 2012), temporarily weakening
106 and partially losing its tropical-like structure (Fig.1b). Soon after 00 UTC 8 October, the cyclone
107 moved over the Tyrrhenian Sea regaining strength and the eye-like structure (Fig.1c). According to
108 Reale and Atlas (2001) and Cavicchia and von Storch (2012) a ship located around 100 km off the
109 center recorded winds up to 25 m/s. On 9 October, the system moved south-eastward with wind
110 speeds reaching 22.5 m/s on the island of Ustica. Having traveled almost 3000 km (Cavicchia and
111 von Storch 2012), the medicane dissipated after making landfall over Calabria on 10 October 1996
112 (Fig.1d). The 0.6 μm visible channel imagery in Fig.1 provides also indications of the baroclinic-
113 like characters of its precursor cyclone (Fig.1a), such as remnant frontal structures, as well as
114 evidence of the axisymmetrization of the cloud pattern around the eye and the scale reduction of
115 the vortex during tropical transition (Fig.1b and Fig.1c).

116 **3. Data and methodology**

117 *a. Experimental set-up*

118 The numerical simulations are performed with the full physics, non-hydrostatic, limited area
119 model COSMO-CLM (Rockel et al. 2008) version *cosmo4.8 – clm19* in a double, one-way
120 nested configuration. A 288x192 points, 0.0625° resolution grid is nested in a 257x271 points,
121 0.165° resolution grid. In both settings, 40 vertical levels are used and lateral boundary condi-
122 tions are updated every 6 hours. For the inner grid the chosen set-up consists of: the extended
123 Kessler-type microphysics scheme, including cloud water and cloud ice for grid-scale precipita-

124 tion, the Ritter and Geleyn radiation scheme and the Tiedtke convection parametrization scheme
125 (Tiedtke 1989). The horizontal diffusion parameters are modified according to Akhtar et al. (2014).
126 Two sets of simulations are performed with initial and boundary conditions provided by the 1.125°
127 resolution version of the ERA–40 reanalysis (Uppala et al. 2005) and the 0.7° resolution ERA In-
128 terim reanalysis (Dee et al. 2011) respectively.

129 *b. Ensemble generation*

130 Indications exist that forecasts of medicanes are highly sensitive to the initial conditions (Davolio
131 et al. 2009; Chaboureau et al. 2012), therefore a simple technique, referred to as *domain shifting*
132 (DS), is here employed to generate a set of initial conditions for the ensemble of model simulations.
133 DS consists of performing the numerical integrations over domains that cover a common area of
134 interest but are shifted with respect to each other. A simplified representation of the modeling
135 scheme is provided in Fig.2. The procedure is applied to the first downscaling step of reanalysis
136 as follows:

- 137 • A central domain (ORIG - centered on 9.75°W, 49.68°N) is located (black box in Fig.2).
- 138 • Select the shifting distances: 68 km, 136 km and 184 km.
- 139 • Shift the central domain by each distance in cardinal and primary inter-cardinal directions
140 (e.g. North and North-West), obtaining a total of 25 different domains.
- 141 • Run the atmospheric simulation for each of the domains.

142 Using two reanalyses as driving data results in 50 simulations, each of them further down-
143 scaled to 0.0625° over a common nested domain covering the western and central Mediterranean
144 (magenta box in Fig.2). The simulations are initialized at 00 UTC 1 October 1996 for the first
145 downscaling and at 00 UTC 4 October 1996 for the second one.

146 *c. Cyclone Phase Space*

147 The tropical transition of the simulated cyclones is assessed by means of the Hart's cyclone
148 phase space (Hart 2003): a three dimensional diagnostic methodology that has already been ap-
149 plied to the study of medicanes (see Davolio et al. 2009; Cavicchia and von Storch 2012; Miglietta
150 et al. 2013). The parameters that define the phase space are:

- 151 • The thermal symmetry in the lower troposphere (B): the difference in storm-relative 600-900
152 hPa thickness between left and right semicircles with respect to the current cyclone's motion.
- 153 • The lower tropospheric thermal wind ($-\mathbf{V}_T^L$): the vertical derivative of the cyclone's height
154 perturbation between 900 and 600 hPa.
- 155 • The upper tropospheric thermal wind ($-\mathbf{V}_T^U$): the vertical derivative of the cyclone's height
156 perturbation between 600 and 300 hPa.

157 Due to the smaller scale of medicanes, these are calculated within a 300 km radius around the
158 SLP minimum, instead of the 500 km one used for TCs by Hart (2003). Nevertheless, consistent
159 results are obtained for radii ranging between 150 and 350 km. In our application, a cyclone is
160 said to be a medicane when it completes the tropical transition, meeting simultaneously all of
161 three requirements imposed by Hart (2003): $B < 10$ m, $-\mathbf{V}_T^L > 0$ and $-\mathbf{V}_T^U > 0$. The first hourly
162 time step in which all the conditions are met is termed Tropical Transition time (TT). For the non-
163 transitioning cyclones, the TT time is taken to be the time of maximum upper-tropospheric warm
164 core strength ($-\mathbf{V}_T^U$) provided that the other two conditions are met.

165 *d. Cyclone Composites*

166 Previous studies concluded that horizontal resolutions in the order of 7 km are appropriate for
167 correctly simulating sub-synoptic scale cyclones such as medicanes (Tous and Romero 2013;

168 Miglietta et al. 2013). Therefore, the analysis is entirely based on the results of the 0.0625°
169 resolution simulations as obtained from the second downscaling. Two methods are employed to
170 minimize the effect of the vortex's symmetric circulation on the values of wind shear: for the
171 spatial plots, it is calculated after having low-pass filtered the u and v fields via convolution with
172 a 21×21 gridpoint filter; for the time series, it is calculated as the difference in the composite
173 area-averaged wind vectors between 300 and 850 hPa, similarly to the method of Paterson et al.
174 (2005)

175 Cyclone compositing has been frequently applied to the study of extratropical and tropical cy-
176 clones (see Frank 1977; Bracken and Bosart 2000; Bengtsson et al. 2007; Catto et al. 2010) in order
177 to retain only those features that appear consistently in a given dataset. It is here implemented as
178 follows: each simulated cyclone is tracked using sea-level pressure (SLP) fields, requiring the as-
179 sociated minimum to be deeper than 1013 hPa. Subsequently, cyclone-centered hourly fields are
180 composited over a 280×280 km regular grid. The 0-hour offset is placed on the TT time and com-
181 posites are obtained in the time range from TT-12h to TT+12h. Given the similarity of the storm
182 tracks in the ensemble and the absence of relevant grid stretching due to the limited size of the
183 domain, the compositing procedure does not include any additional spatial transformation. Two
184 composites are built: *MED* for the medicanes and *NONMED* for the non-transitioning cyclones.

185 The statistical significance of the composite difference (MED-NONMED), standardized by the
186 50-member standard deviation, is tested at the 95% confidence interval by means of a bootstrap-
187 ping by resampling approach as in (Rios-Berrios et al. 2015), by randomly replacing composite
188 members. Using this method, the significance is tested both for individual grid point values and
189 area-averaged quantities without assuming a specific probability distribution for the variables in
190 the ensemble.

191 4. Results

192 a. Evolution of the composites

193 According to the phase space metrics, all the simulated 50 cyclones attain a state characterized
194 by negligible thermal asymmetry ($B < 10$ m) and a warm core in the lower troposphere ($-V_T^L > 0$),
195 as seen in Fig.3a. Among these, only 27 cyclones exhibit a warm core also in the upper troposphere
196 ($-V_T^U > 0$ - red markers in Fig.3b) and are identified as medicanes. For the remaining 23 non-
197 transitioning cyclones, $-V_T^U$ never exceeds 0 (blue markers in Fig.3b). In both composites, the
198 warm core formation appears to follow a bottom-up evolution: as the SLP minimum deepens
199 (solid lines in Fig.3c) a low-level warm anomaly develops, indicated by the positive $-V_T^L$ values
200 (solid lines with circular markers) in Fig.3c. As shown in the 900 hPa potential temperature fields
201 in Fig.4a, this thermal anomaly is located at the end of a bent-back warm front. This development
202 is reminiscent of warm seclusions and the stage 3 of the Shapiro and Keyser (1990) marine cyclone
203 model.

204 The baroclinic origin of the cyclones is clearly visible in the longitudinal cross sections through
205 the composites' centers (Fig.4b): both in MED and NONMED an upper level, geopotential height
206 anomaly (calculated as the difference from the zonal mean) encroaches on a near-surface hori-
207 zontal equivalent potential temperature gradient. In such a structure, the advection of cyclonic
208 vorticity by the thermal wind would promote upward vertical motions. During the seclusion, the
209 low-level asymmetry and the vertical tilt are reduced as the upper-level anomaly weakens. A sim-
210 ilar pathway has already been documented in several tropical transitions of Atlantic hurricanes
211 (Hulme and Martin 2006, 2009a,b).

212 Although the composites follow a very similar evolution, there exist remarkable differences in
213 the associated convective activity, both in terms of intensity and location. At 500 hPa, the MED

214 composite has stronger convection with peaks closer to the composite center (Fig.5a). Larger, pos-
215 itive vertical velocities are present in the transitioning cyclones throughout the troposphere, with
216 the largest difference located between 400-600 hPa (Fig.5b) over much of the period preceding
217 the TT. Such stronger convection contributes to a more intense warming in the mid-troposphere:
218 significantly larger latent heat release is in fact present between 400 and 700 hPa (Fig.5b). This
219 is consistent with the greater SLP fall seen in the MED composite and the subsequent formation
220 of the 300-600 hPa warm core, lagging approximately 6 hours behind the lower tropospheric one
221 (Fig.3c).

222 *b. Shear and divergence*

223 Vertical wind shear is believed to have detrimental effects on TCs (McBride and Zehr 1981;
224 DeMaria et al. 2001; Gallina and Velden 2002) as well as on medicanes (Reale and Atlas 2001;
225 Tous and Romero 2013). The time series of 300-850 hPa wind shear for MED and NONMED are
226 shown in Fig.6a. During tropical transitions a marked shear reduction is generally observed (Davis
227 and Bosart 2004; Hulme and Martin 2009a,b). In both composites the shear decreases from values
228 exceeding 15 m/s to less than 6 m/s at the TT, however in the transitioning cyclones it remains
229 significantly stronger until TT-3 hours. As shown in Fig.7a, the largest difference, standardized
230 by the ensemble standard deviation, exceeds 1σ and is located to the north-west of the composite
231 center. Conversely from previous studies (Davis and Bosart 2003; Kaplan et al. 2010) even in the
232 non-transitioning storms the shear weakens on average below 10 m/s. In the MED composite,
233 however, this reduction is more pronounced. Hulme and Martin (2009a,b) emphasized the role of
234 diabatic processes in reducing the vertical wind shear through a redistribution of PV.

235 Upper-level wind divergence can provide the forcing necessary to support convection during a
236 tropical transition (Chaboureau et al. 2012): for a 5-hour period extending for TT-4 to TT+1, the

237 transitioning cyclones are characterized on average by a significantly larger divergence at 300 hPa
238 (Fig.6b). As shown in Fig.7b, there is a well-defined divergence maximum to the north-west of
239 the cyclones center, whose amplitude exceeds 6×10^{-5} 1/s, in agreement with the NCEP analyses
240 presented by Reale and Atlas (2001). Associated with it, an extensive area of significantly larger
241 divergence characterizes the MED composite as soon as TT-8 hours and persists throughout the
242 transition process.

243 The scatter plot in Fig.6c indicates that in both composites tropospheric wind shear and upper-
244 level divergence are positively correlated: a linear fit between their respective area-averaged,
245 hourly values for each composite member yields very similar positive slopes (1.45×10^{-5} and
246 1.51×10^{-5}) and correlation coefficients of 0.37 and 0.4 respectively. Such compensation could
247 partially counteract the detrimental effects of the enhanced wind shear observed in the MED com-
248 posite by providing an additional forcing on convection, as suggested by Hendricks et al. (2010)
249 for rapidly intensifying TCs.

250 *c. Heat Fluxes and Humidity*

251 Medicanes obtain their energy from the thermodynamical disequilibrium between the atmo-
252 sphere and the sea surface (Emanuel 2005; Fita et al. 2007; Tous and Romero 2013): heat fluxes
253 from the sea can support their intensification through the so-called Wind Induced Surface Heat Ex-
254 change (WISHE) mechanism (Emanuel 1986; Rotunno and Emanuel 1987), according to Emanuel
255 (2005) and Fita et al. (2007). As shown by the time series in Fig.8a,b, latent and sensible heat
256 fluxes become significantly stronger in the MED composite only in proximity of the transition,
257 with anomalies that at TT+6 hours exceed 60 W/m^2 and 30 W/m^2 respectively. This result ques-
258 tions a causal relationship between heat fluxes and the tropical transition. Conversely, the evidence
259 seems to support latent and sensible heat fluxes as factors contributing to medicanes' intensifica-

260 tion after the storms reached a sufficient strength and axisymmetric structure, as Davis and Bosart
261 (2003) indicated in the case of baroclinically-induced TCs.

262 Relative humidity has often been investigated in relation to tropical cyclogenesis (see Hendricks
263 et al. 2010; Wu et al. 2012; Brown and Hakim 2015). Different measures of RH have been used
264 to assess its role in medicanes formation: Tous and Romero (2013) focused on its value at the
265 600 hPa level while Fita et al. (2007) and Cavicchia et al. (2014) considered vertically-integrated
266 RH. Nevertheless, medicanes appear to be associated with a very humid atmospheric column.
267 Fig.5b shows that the MED composite is more humid across a vast part of the troposphere, with
268 the greatest differences with respect to NONMED located in between 600 and 850 hPa. The time
269 series in Fig.9a shows that the 600-850 hPa mean relative humidity presents a significantly positive
270 anomaly across the entire 25-hour period, with peaks exceeding 5%. Spatially, the anomaly covers
271 a large portion of the composite area and wraps cyclonically around the center (Fig.9b). It is
272 characterized by azimuthal asymmetries throughout the transition process and by local maxima
273 exceeding $1.5/2 \sigma$.

274 *d. Influence on warm core formation*

275 So far, the analysis focused on describing the differences between the average meteorological
276 environments of transitioning and non-transitioning storms. To better understand how these might
277 influence the genesis of medicanes, i.e. the formation of a full tropospheric warm core, the rela-
278 tionship between each of the examined variables and the upper-tropospheric warm core metric of
279 the cyclone phase space ($-V_T^U$) is examined. The scatter plots of hourly, area-averaged values for
280 each composite member reveal a strong, negative linear correlation between the tropospheric wind
281 shear and the warm core strength, with Pearson correlation coefficients of -0.88 and -0.7 for MED
282 and NONMED respectively (Fig.10a). Negative but smaller correlation coefficients are also found

283 for 300 hPa wind divergence (Fig.10b). There appears to be instead a moderately strong positive
284 correlation between latent heat flux and warm core strength, with a coefficients equal to 0.58 for
285 MED and 0.43 for NONMED (Fig.10c), even though medicanes were not characterized by larger
286 heat fluxes before TT. Very similar findings hold also for the sensible heat flux (not shown). Con-
287 versely, despite the MED composite time series exhibiting a consistently significant and positive
288 anomaly, the correlation of mid-tropospheric relative humidity and warm-core strength is weak
289 and negative (Fig.10d).

290 **5. Discussion**

291 This study aims at characterizing the meteorological environment supporting the tropical transi-
292 tion of the October 1996 medicane by comparing the composite environments of 27 transitioning
293 and 23 non-transitioning cyclones obtained from a 50-member ensemble of reanalyses driven,
294 COSMO-CLM simulations.

295 Non-negligible baroclinicity, indicated by large vertical wind shear, characterizes the early
296 stages of the simulated cyclones. As these undergo a warm seclusion-like process, the initial
297 thermal asymmetries and vertical tilt are reduced while a warm core builds upward from the lower
298 troposphere in a manner consistent with the baroclinically-induced pathway to tropical cyclogen-
299 esis (Bosart and Bartlo 1991; Davis and Bosart 2003)

300 In the transitioning cyclones, significantly stronger convection is present in the mid-upper tropo-
301 sphere, resulting in larger release of latent heat by condensation. At the transition, the tropospheric
302 wind shear declines in both composites below 10 m/s, in agreement with the empirical thresholds
303 calculated for TCs of 15 m/s (DeMaria et al. 2001) and 10-12 m/s (Gallina and Velden 2002), and
304 within the 4-29 m/s range calculated for medicanes by Tous et al. (2013). Although the medicanes
305 feature on average a more pronounced shear reduction, even in the non-transitioning cyclones the

306 shear weakens to favorable values. This differs from the findings of previous studies on tropical
307 transitions (Davis and Bosart 2003) and on the intensification of TCs (Hendricks et al. 2010; Ka-
308 plan et al. 2010). Just like baroclinically-induced TCs (Davis and Bosart 2003) and a subset of all
309 North Atlantic TCs (Bracken and Bosart 2000), medicanes seem to benefit from an initial moder-
310 ate degree of shear. A significant, positive difference over a 5-period preceding TT suggests that
311 upper-level wind divergence can be relevant in supporting convection during the tropical transi-
312 tion, as also proposed by Chaboureau et al. (2012). Furthermore, the correlation analysis indicates
313 that a compensation exists between wind shear and divergence, as the detrimental effects of high
314 wind shear might be counteracted by an increased forcing on vertical motions.

315 Enhanced surface latent and sensible heat fluxes characterize only the post-transition stage, con-
316 sistent with the WISHE mechanism sustaining the intensification of medicanes during their mature
317 stage (Emanuel 2005; Fita et al. 2007). The layer between 600 and 850 hPa features significantly
318 higher relative humidity: somewhat in contrast with previous studies (Tous and Romero 2011;
319 Tous et al. 2013), enhanced mid-tropospheric relative humidity emerges here as a distinctive fea-
320 ture of the transitioning cyclones. Higher mid-tropospheric relative humidity, exhibiting azimuthal
321 asymmetries, has been also found in the near-environment of rapidly intensifying hurricanes (Hen-
322 dricks et al. 2010; Wu et al. 2012; Rios-Berrios et al. 2015). As suggested by Rios-Berrios et al.
323 (2015), a moister mid-troposphere would better support sustained convection, preventing dry air
324 entrainment as well as reducing the stabilizing effects of convective downdrafts.

325 Within the limitations posed by a single case study, these findings provide a more detailed
326 characterization of the meteorological environment in which tropical transitions can occur in the
327 Mediterranean Basin. Further investigations are required in order to assess the causal relationships
328 between the observed differences and the transition process. Nevertheless, the results presented in

329 this study might contribute to the current understanding of medicanes and also prove relevant for
330 the general community dealing with baroclinically-induced tropical cyclogenesis.

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490 **LIST OF TABLES**

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493 preceding the transition. 25

494 TABLE 1. Summary of the area-averaged parameters analyzed for the MED (left) and NONMED (right)
 495 composites at TT-12, TT and their average over the 12 hours preceding the transition.

	TT-12h	TT	$\langle TT \rangle_0^{-12}$
	MED NONMED	MED NONMED	MED NONMED
$\langle 600 - 850 \rangle$ hPa RH (%)	85.5 80.3	81.5 76.9	84.4 79.4
300-850 hPa Shear(m/s)	24.5 17.7	8.5 6.9	14.7 11.0
300 hPa Divergence ($\times 10^{-5}$ 1/s)	2.4 1.7	1.3 0.4	2.3 1.5
Latent Heat Flux (W/m^2)	144.9 131.3	278.9 233.9	189.9 184.7
Sensible Heat Flux (W/m^2)	42.8 38.4	112.4 91.9	66.7 67.7

496 **LIST OF FIGURES**

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498 UTC, October 7th; b) 1030 UTC, October 8th; c) 1030 UTC, October 9th; d) 1030 UTC,
499 October 10th. 28

500 **Fig. 2.** a) Elevation map and simplified example of the *domain shifting* set up used on the first
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516 ing rate are averaged within 70 km from the composite centre. Circular markers indicate
517 where the difference is significant at the 95% confidence interval. 32

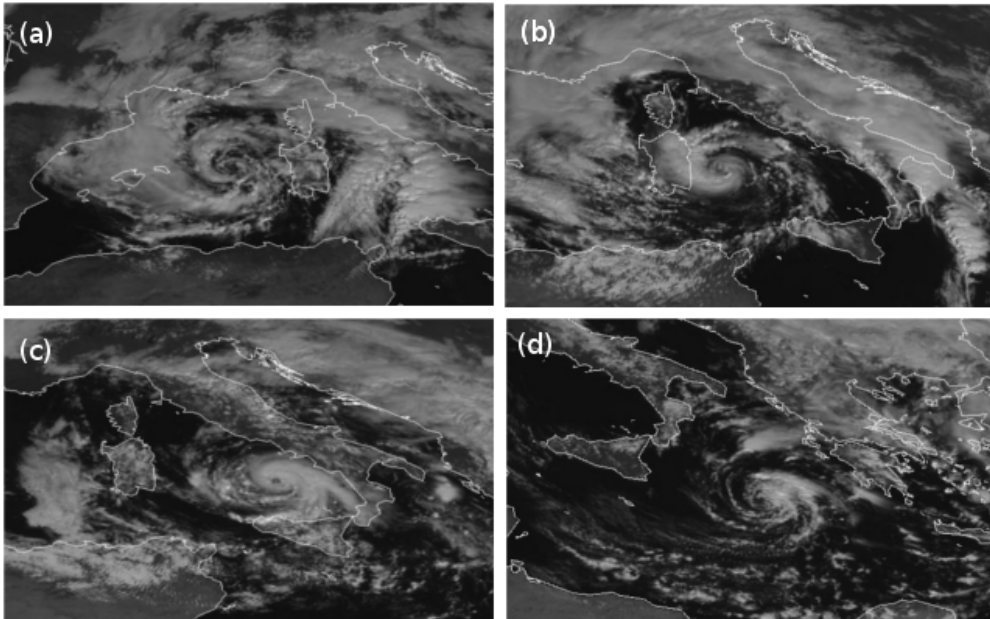
518 **Fig. 6.** Composite time series for MED and NONMED of area-averaged: (a) 300-850 hPa wind
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520 right hand axis). Circular markers indicate a statistically significant difference at the 95%
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526 $1 \times 10^{-5} \text{1/s}$). Grey dots indicate where the difference is statistically significant at the 95%
527 confidence interval. 34

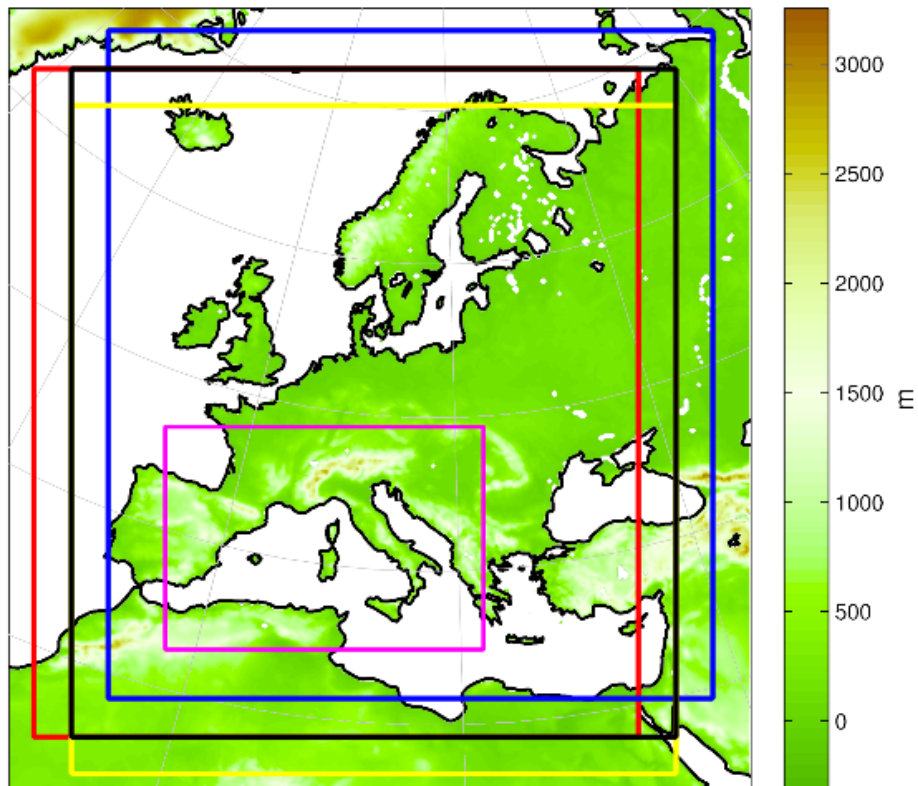
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535 denotes $\pm\sigma$. (b) Ensemble mean 600-850 hPa mean relative humidity (contoured every
536 4%) and normalized composite difference (colors) at -12h, -8h, -4h, -2h, 0, +2h. Grey dots
537 indicate where the difference is statistically significant at the 95% confidence interval. 36

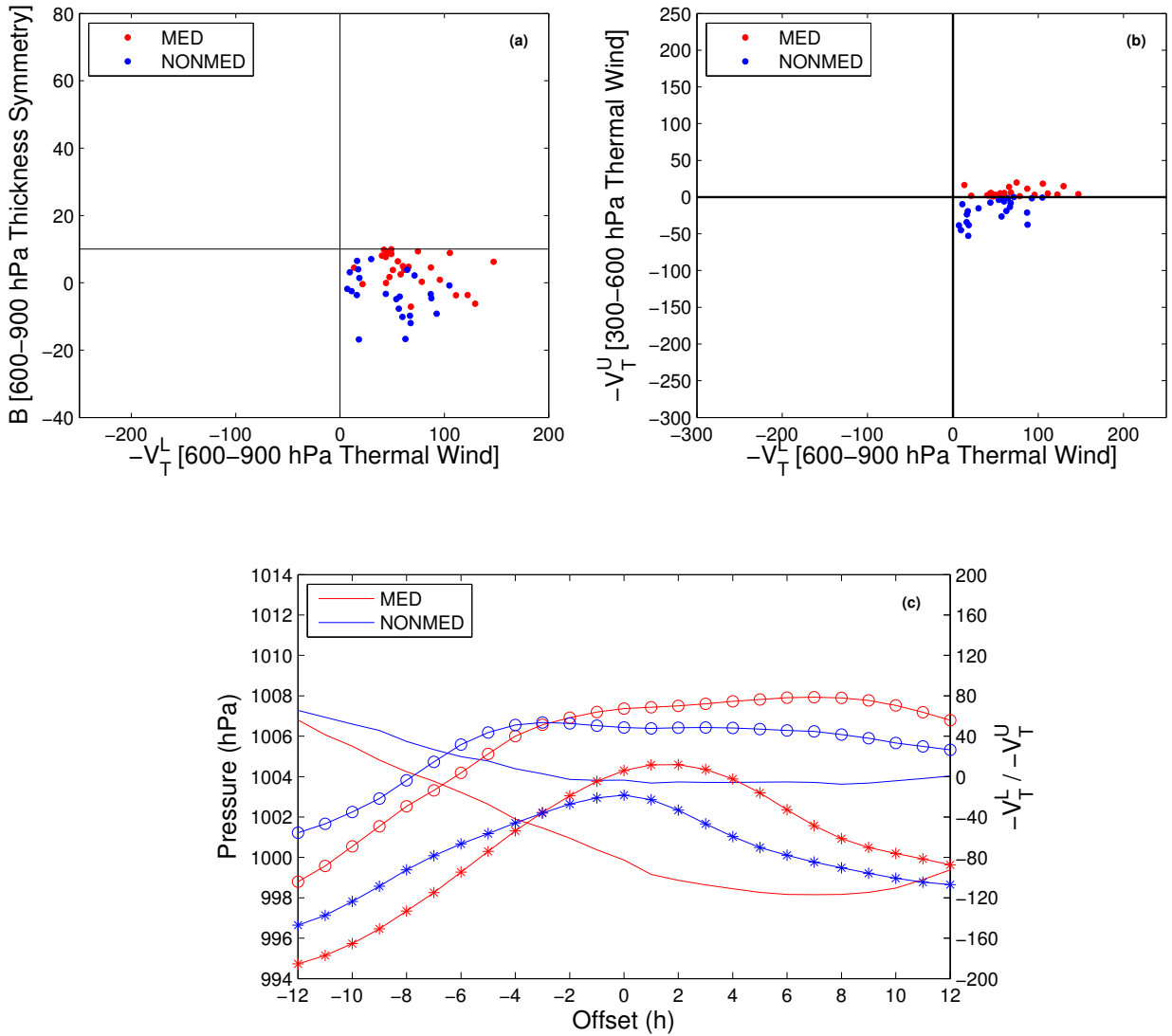
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541 Pearson correlation coefficients are provided in the legend boxes. 37



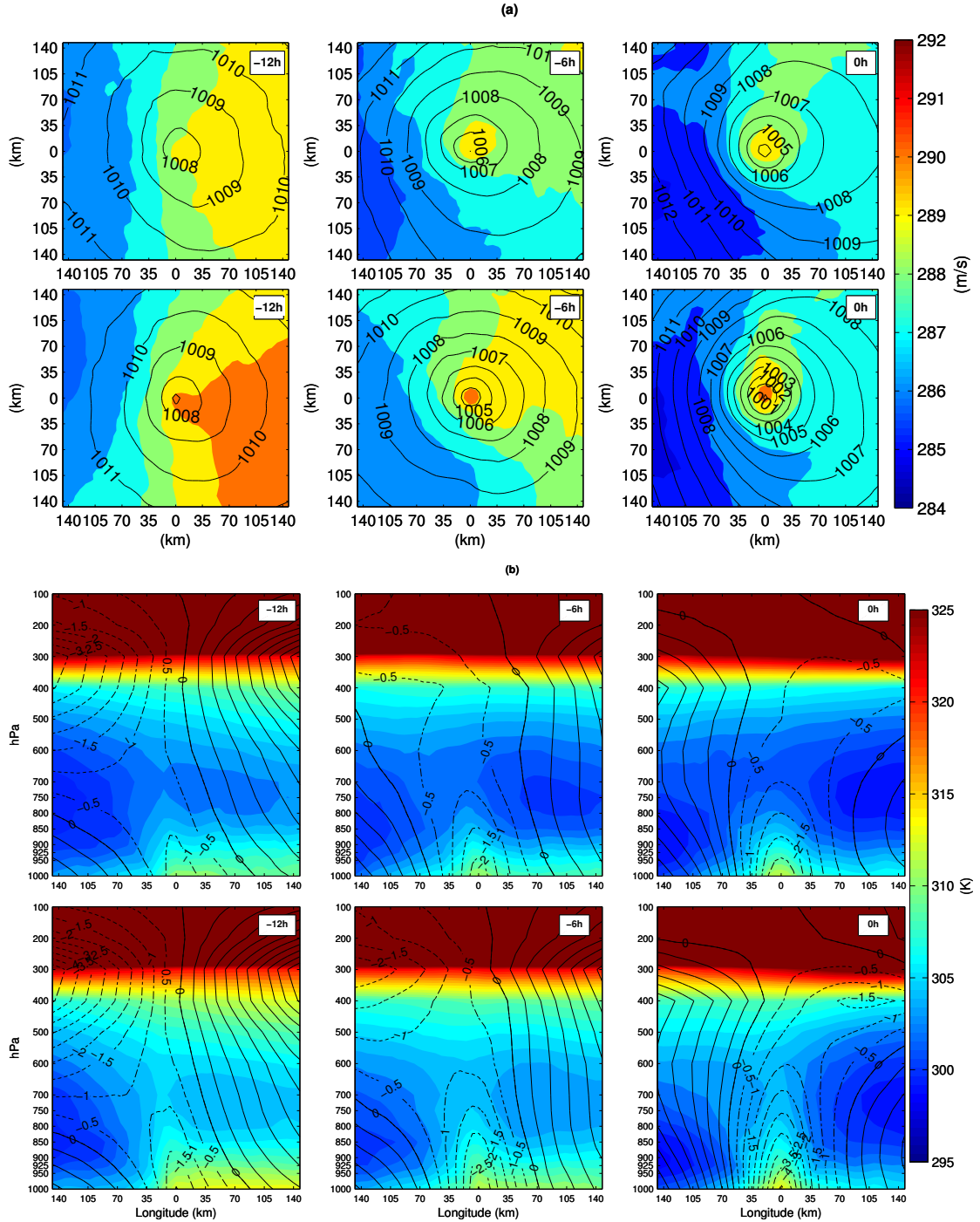
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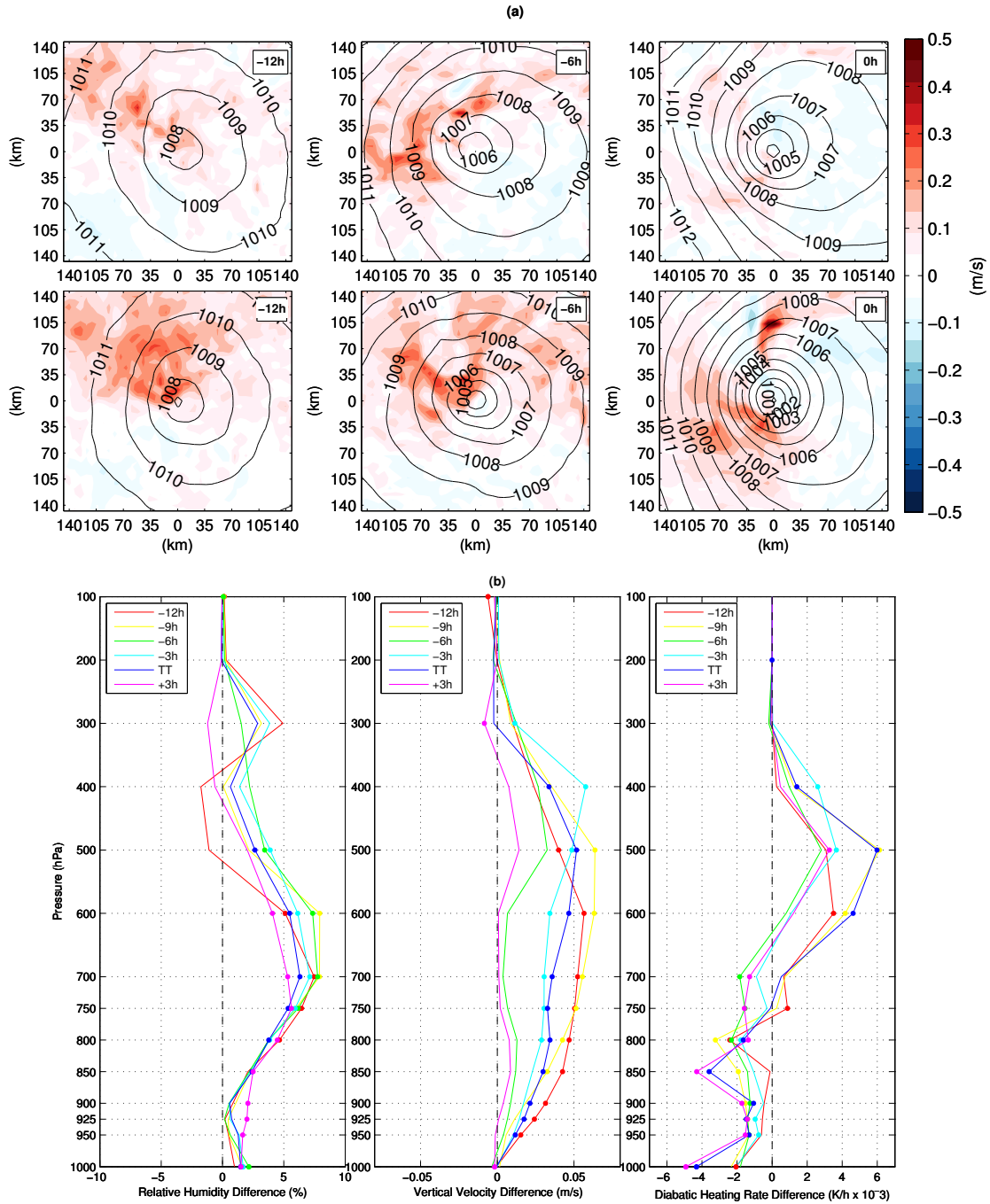
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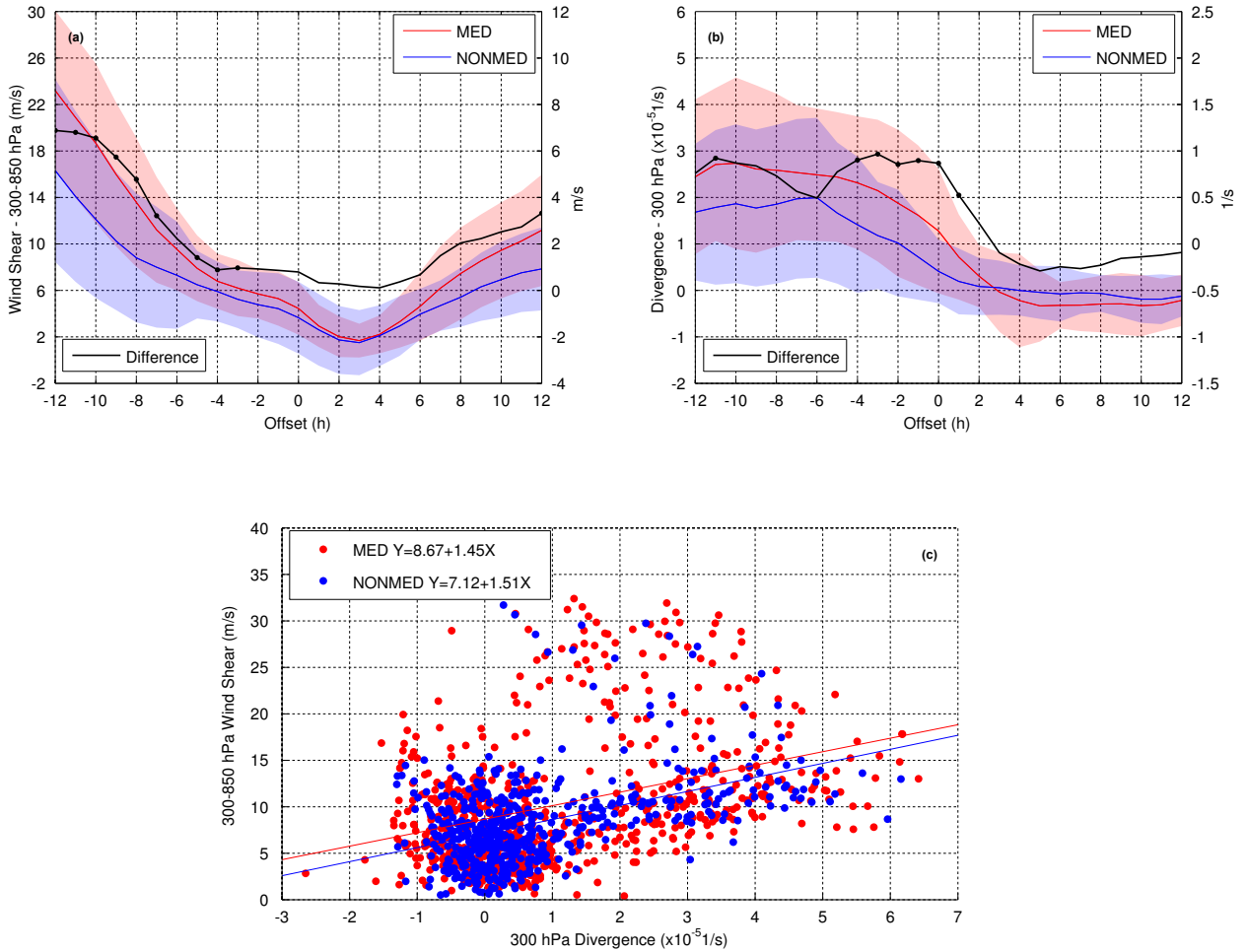
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 549 phase space warm core metrics (dashed line with circular markers for $-V_T^L$, with cross markers for $-V_T^U$ - values
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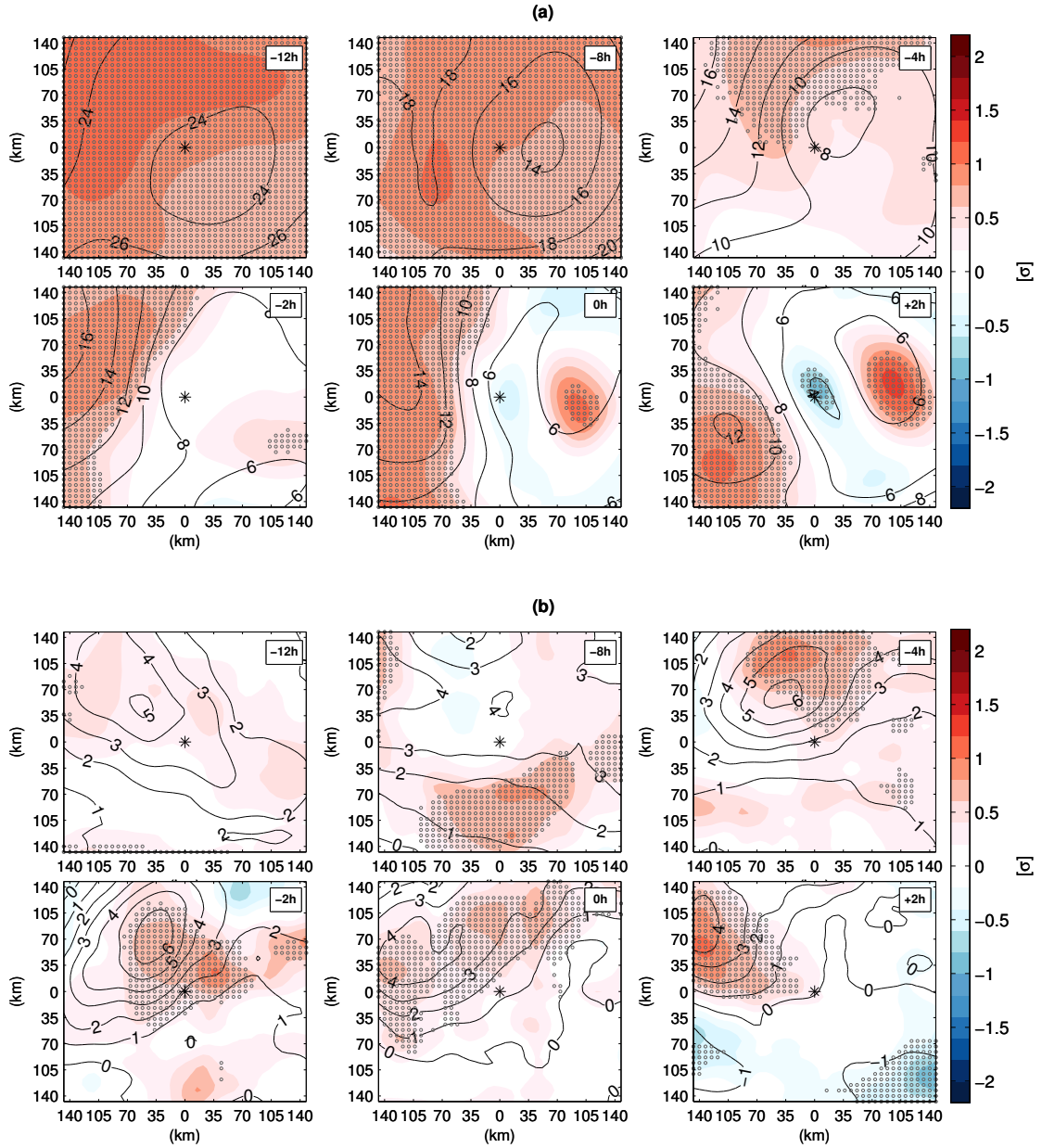
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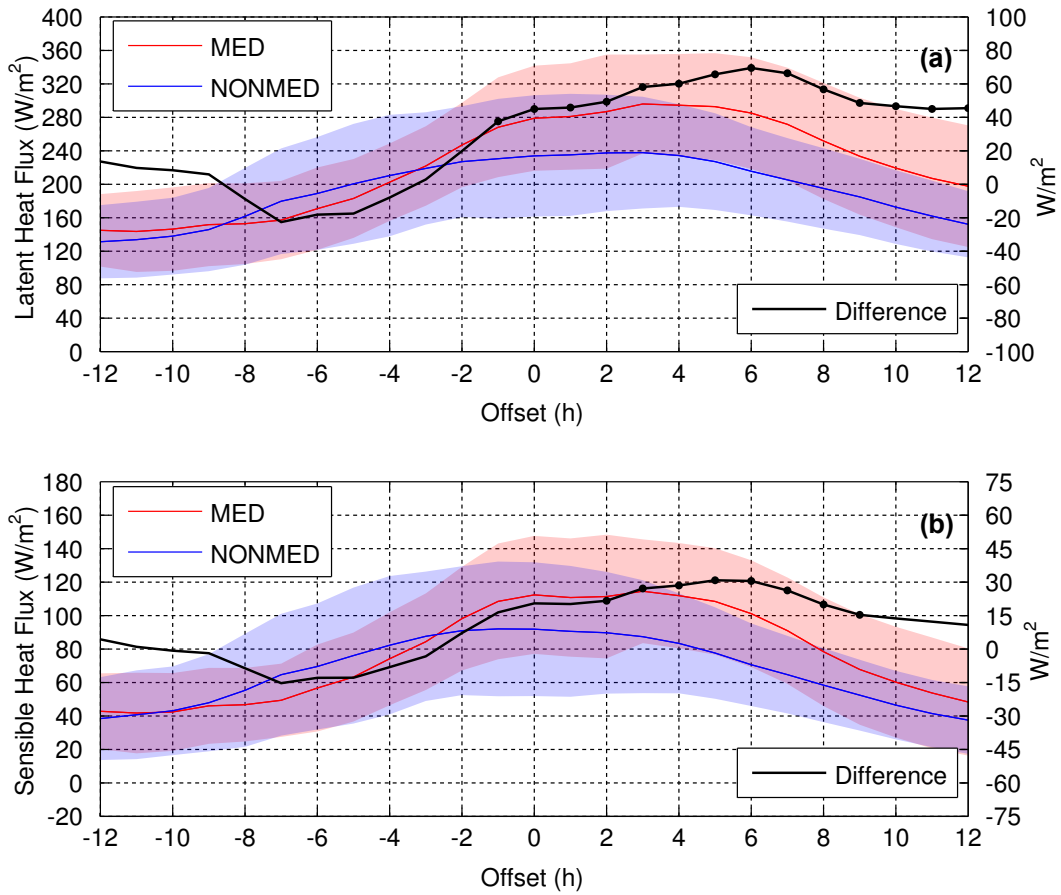
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 559 Circular markers indicate where the difference is significant at the 95% confidence interval.



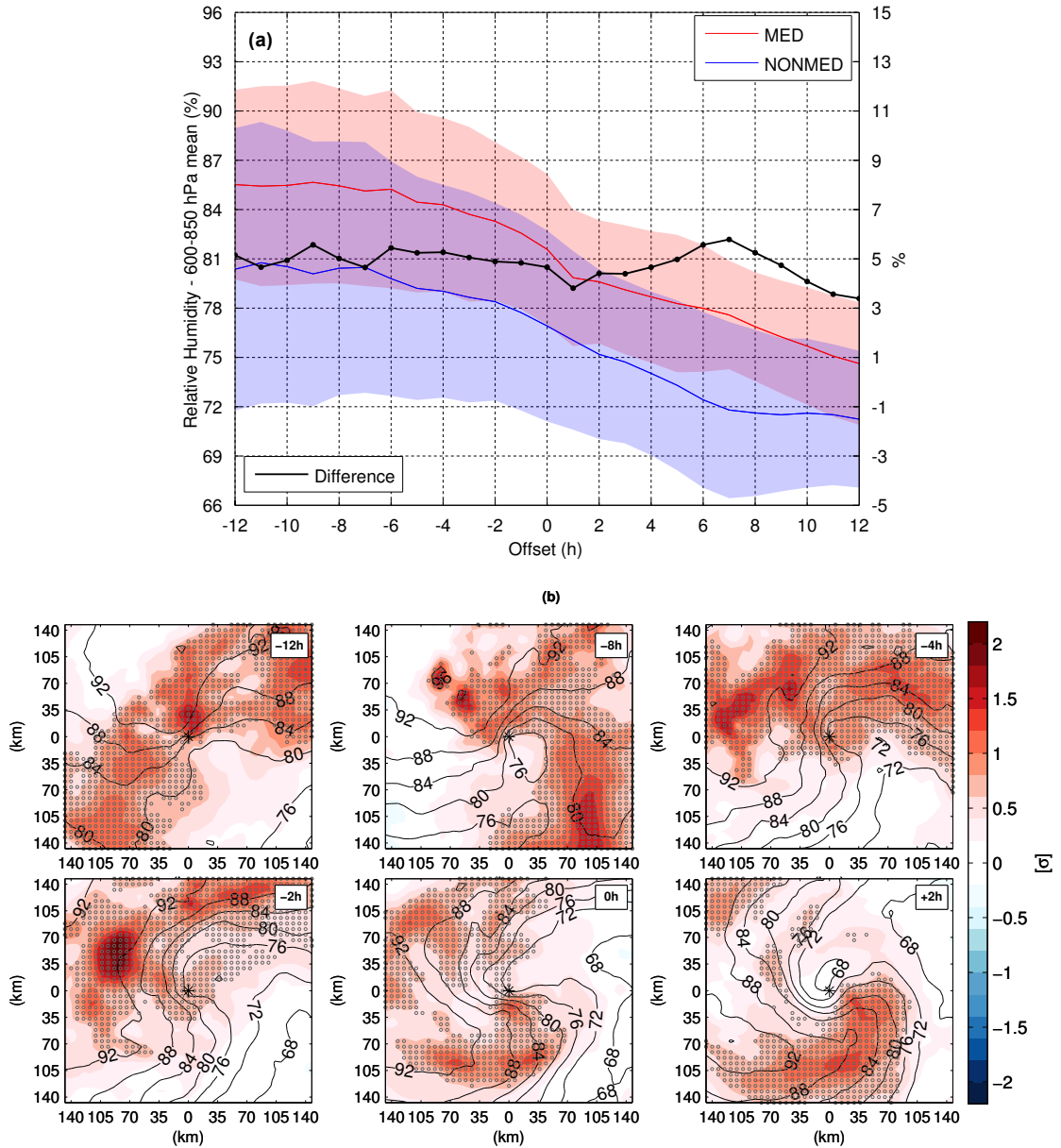
560 FIG. 6. Composite time series for MED and NONMED of area-averaged: (a) 300-850 hPa wind shear and (b)
 561 300 hPa wind divergence and corresponding differences (black line - refer to right hand axis). Circular markers
 562 indicate a statistically significant difference at the 95% confidence interval. Shading denotes $\pm\sigma$. (c) Scatter
 563 plot of 300-850 hPa and 300 hPa wind divergence for MED and NONMED composites and corresponding linear
 564 fits whose equations are provided in the legend box.



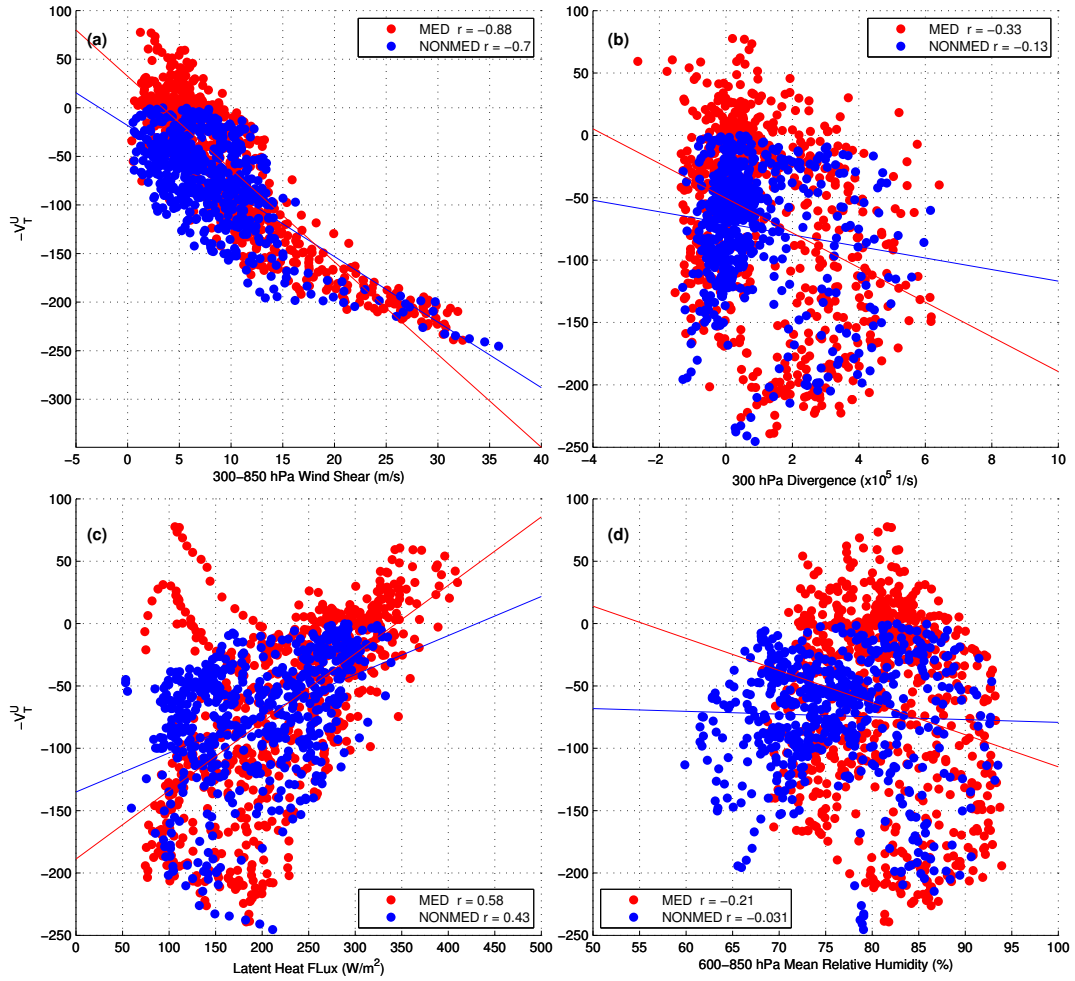
565 FIG. 7. Ensemble mean (contours) and normalized composite difference (colors) at -12h, -8h, -4h, -2h, 0,
 566 +2h. (a) 300-850 hPa wind shear; (b) 300 hPa wind divergence (contours every $1 \times 10^{-5} \text{1/s}$). Grey dots indicate
 567 where the difference is statistically significant at the 95% confidence interval.



568 FIG. 8. Composite time series for MED and NONMED of area-averaged: (a) latent heat and (b) sensible
 569 heat fluxes and corresponding differences (black line - refer to right hand axis). Circular markers indicate a
 570 statistically significant difference at the 95% confidence interval. Shading denotes $\pm\sigma$.



571 FIG. 9. (a) Composite time series for MED and NONMED of area-averaged 600-850 hPa mean relative
 572 humidity and corresponding differences (black line - refer to right hand axis). Circular markers indicate a
 573 statistically significant difference at the 95% confidence level. Shading denotes $\pm\sigma$. (b) Ensemble mean 600-
 574 850 hPa mean relative humidity (contoured every 4%) and normalized composite difference (colors) at -12h,
 575 -8h, -4h, -2h, 0, +2h. Grey dots indicate where the difference is statistically significant at the 95% confidence
 576 interval.



577 FIG. 10. Scatter plots of area averaged 300-850 hPa wind shear (a), 300 hPa divergence (b), latent heat flux
 578 (c), 600-850 hPa mean relative humidity (d) against the cyclone phase space upper-tropospheric warm core
 579 metric $-V_7^U$. Each set of points is linearly fitted, the corresponding Pearson correlation coefficients are provided
 580 in the legend boxes.