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WORKSHOP ON ATMOSPHERIC LIMITED AREA MODELLING
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"Parameterization of Convection"

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Please note: These are preliminary notes intended for internal distribution only.

Lecture Notes for the lecture "Parameterization of Convection"
for the workshop on Atmospheric Limited Area Modelling
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Part A : Generalities about parameterization

- 3 goals :
- ensure numerical stability of the model
 - simulate correctly the hydrological and energetical cycles
 - help the prediction of actual weather

problems : the dynamics only "sees" about 1% of the total energy cycled through the atmosphere between solar radiation input and terrestrial radiation output

errors in each of the energy conversion terms can be far higher than 1% \Rightarrow the problem looks hopeless

Fortunately there are many feed-back loops in the system / definition of a feed-back loop : question of its character : negative, i.e. effects working against causes or positive, i.e. the reverse) and most of them are negative

this helps modelisation but one has to take care to be very carefull with positive feed back modelling and, even more, not to transform natural negative feed-back in positive modelled ones (example)

phenomena to be parameterized :

- limitation to those of energetic importance
- many of them are concerned with cloud processes and we are not yet good at making the different

representation of clouds (associated with each of them) coherent or sometimes simply compatible

data problems : contrary to the adiabatic part a lot of extra information is needed:

- * New prognostic variables for land surface processes (at least 2 temperatures, 2 water amounts, 1 snow depth; and many many more in forthcoming "simple surface" model representation)

- * Information about the state of the land surface/vegetation: orographic variance, land cover mask, couphage lengths, proportion of vegetation covered area, albedo, emissivity, soil heat capacity, soil heat conductivity, soil water capacity, soil water conductivity, Here also the list will become far longer in coming years

- * Physical constants. They can be split into three categories:

- universal \Rightarrow take the most recent recognized value

- directly measurable \Rightarrow use laboratory or measurement campaign results

- tunable \Rightarrow tuning is a very delicate process.

For such constants one should first try to know the role of magnitude through influences from similar information to that used in the previous category. Then "tuning" (i.e. looking at the best value from the point of view of the overall behaviour of the whole model) can take place. But, as much as possible, the number of tuning constants should be kept low, and one should ensure, through the algorithm's construction that they are physically significant and understandable

Variety of "control-parametrisation" strategies

despite all the above-mentioned difficulties, what makes parameterization work very interesting (if one does not over-specialize) is the variety of approaches (when going from one phenomenon to the next) that one has to use to qualify and improve parameterization schemes. For example:

- * in radiation (cloud-free case, of course) the exact answer to a given situation can practically be obtained with a very very expensive algorithm; parameterization becomes then a kind of mathematical exercise to simplify the algorithm while keeping it reasonably accurate until the best compromise efficiency vs. accuracy has been found.
- * in cloud microphysics the situation would be even more complicated to describe than in radiation. But fortunately some microphysical experimental evidence (example = Marshall Palmer distribution law) comes to our help.
- * in other cases (example convection) measurements are difficult and cannot concentrate on all scales at the same time in a given situation; thus, for a mesh model, "tuned" on a few measured cases must be used to "infer" intermediate scale properties. This does not yet works as well as one would wish.
- * finally, diagnostic of systematic errors in the behaviour of operational forecasting models can indicate either deficiencies in the behaviour of one given parameterization scheme or the absence of a parameterized (or rather to-be-parameterized) process, like it was the case a few years ago for gravity wave drag. If a situation in the present status of knowledge seems either impossible or hazardous (like nowadays for mountain effects) one has to go back to nature and to mount a measurement.

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conclusion (Pyren as example in the latter case)

In short the ensemble of tools and the "pendulum-type" ~~break~~ work between measurements and models (several types of them as well) does not work too badly in atmospheric science.

2 "extreme" concrete modulation examples

- * one that went well : the tuning of a very simple first version of a gravity wave drag parameterization in the french NWP global model:
 - one single tuning parameter
 - one optimum in scores averaged over several cases
 - meaningful synoptic character of the improvement
 - consequences of the practical operational implementation as good as expected
- * one that went wrong : why, in two models with very similar parameterization sets, does the maximum of turbulent kinetic energy transfer quits the surface in the french LAM and not in the equivalent global model.
Answer: because of the basic differences between the Kuo-type and mass-flux-type convection schemes ! Generic and no way to go further before a mass flux scheme that works better at fine scales than the present one has been developed.

Part B : Special case = convection (especially deep convection)

Why is convection so special

- because no one has yet been successful in proposing a "stand alone" convective parameterization scheme, i.e. one that works only from a static description of the column (all current schemes also require some description of the so-called large scale forcing, in other words of dynamical tendencies)
- because deep convection is essentially a non-hydrostatic phenomenon that we try to parameterized inside an hydrostatic framework (for most models).
- because the definition itself of "parameterized convection" depends on the model's resolution. A given type of convective behavior might be resolved with a 10 km mesh model and unresolved (\Rightarrow to be parameterized in a 20 km mesh model). This is even more complicated for shallow and shallow convection where the scale of the actual motion is quite difficult to pin down.
- because, even for the most energetic deep convection, there is still controversy about the basic maintenance process (CISK or - CISK ~~that is the question!~~ that is the question!)

In fact, why do we need a parameterization of convection

- 1st (simple) answer: because at to-day's models' scales, most clouds are still subgrid scale (even when evenly distributed in the grid-box) and because, in that case, condensation/evaporation organizes its own subgrid scale induced motions
- 2nd (synthetic) answer: because, if one suppresses the parameterization of convection, the condensation/evaporation is taken over by the subgrid scale parameterization and the effects are over-done by it.
- 3rd answer: because without an explicit parameterization of convective behavior and the model cannot reproduce the delicate

(4)

balance between large scale forcing and convective response (or the other way round depending on which theory one favors!)

Controversy about the exact nature of this balance (the two lines)

- * CISK (Conditional Instability of the Second Kind)
 - atmosphere permanently unstable in convective regions
 - the convergence at low levels created by the cloud ascent "inputs" the moisture needed to maintain (or even sometimes amplify the convective activity)
 - surface evaporation is only a complement to that large scale "humidity convergence"
 - * CSEI (Convective Surface Evaporation Interaction - invented acronym for the sake of these notes)
 - the atmosphere is at neutrality and stays there
 - the large scale budget of moisture is a closed one (meaning that recirculated dry descending air is not a strong moisture source and can only balance the deficit required by the large scale continental condition) or nearly so.
 - the evaporation at the surface (especially over oceans) created by the converging winds is the extra-source of moisture that creates the driving energy for the convective circulation but it cannot be its primary cause.
- * What do the models say about it:

- at first glance the link between convective heating and drying (not at the same levels) and large scale ascent seems to be a well known phenomenon; so are also the famous (and undocumented) grid-point storms
- a more careful analysis (in the limited framework of the French large scale global model and its particular mass flux

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convective scheme) indicates the opposite for large scale motions: a comparison of two runs with and without parameterization of deep convection shows hardly any impact on zonally averaged values for moisture and temperature but a strong influence on the Hadley circulation: by preventing the exaggerated effects of large-scale parameterization's simulation of convection, the convective effects actually put a break on the Hadley cell. Thus they do not drive it like in a CISK idea.

- * a better understanding of the CSEI idea: if you are in a lift you are not going up because the counterweight is going down! (Kerry Emanuel's very imaginative way of describing it)

Main aspects of convective motions that a parameterization should treat

- * cloud, updrafts
- * compensating subsidence: needed to close the circulation of the parameterized phenomenon it is in fact not a subsidence. Since the mass-flux is the one required by the continuity equation (at least formally so in the CSEI case but practically also in the CISK case on average) or rather slightly more the environment of the clouds is quasi at rest, or rather slightly sinking (but by an order of magnitude less than the computed "compensating" subsidence that mainly compensates for the already accounted "large scale ascent", but in fact only takes place in clouds!). Since one can assume that the clouds have little impact on the total Bernoulli energy budget (remember they are important for the "dynamical budget") this slight sinking essentially balances radiative cooling.
- * cloud water or precipitating water induced downdrafts: very important and even so more as one goes to finer and finer scales of motions. Can be very active in case of tilted cloud accounts (small

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lines for example - cf. numerical example of the french South West coast on 7-6-87). Difficult to represent since then energy source (condensed water that will evaporate to drive the unstable sinking motion) requires some microphysical hypothesis to be assigned a portion inside the updraft (while the humidity convergence + evaporation from the surface vertically redistributed that would be assumed well known for the updraft problem)

- * compensating motion for downdrafts: can be either separated or treated together with the compensating subsidence / sinking "dry" environmental air). Same remarks as above - no distinction here --

Basic constituents of a convective parameterization scheme (deep convection)

- * a cloud(s) model: either single (averaged) cloud profile or many possible accounts (like in Alabama-Schubert). From simple adiabatic to complex microphysics and dynamics idea.
- * a closure assumption: relates in one way or another the large scale tendencies and the integral convective effects (rainfall to simplify). Kuo, Alabama-Schubert, weather time ... are the most commonly used
- * a set of equations (to describe how the effect will be partitioned vertically, i.e. how do the large scale variables "feel" parameterized deep-convection?). 3 categories here: Kuo (vertical mixing), adjustment sinks (very close to Kuo in fact), mass-flux-type schemes

A few basic truths about convection schemes

- "Kuo is not Kuo"; or: a closure scheme is not an ~~algorithm~~
- absolute link between three of the above-mentioned ingredients.

A Kuo closure assumption can very well work with a mass flux type scheme, for example.

- The mass-flux-type scheme is the most general of all three set of equations and should therefore be preferred to the others (it can represent more physics).
- A mass flux type scheme might not be complicated at all; or, it has not to be an adiabatic-shield scheme to get the mass-flux qualification.

Example : the most simple mass-flux scheme possible

- updraft only
- one single cloud
- steady cloud
- negligible area of updraft
- all detrained ~~water~~ liquid water evaporates
- no subcloud rainfall - evaporation

\Rightarrow one set of simple but physically sound and informative equations

Main pending problems

- how to soften the jump between parameterization of entrained and unentrained condensation/precipitation processes and how to do it without the resolution of the model?
- has to correctly "feel" the downdrafts; through which level of sophistication in the microphysics treatment?
- momentum transport, sources and sinks in convective motions (not mentioned anywhere else in this lecture; so only here for completeness at the end)

Possible extensions of the deep convection parameterization schemes

- to shallow convection: probably feasible and sound but the distinction between entrained and unentrained processes becomes even more difficult (if that is still possible!)
- to shallow convection: requires the fact that downdraft enters a negative mass flux (on absolute terms) near the top of the cloud (top entrainment); possible if the cloud is non-precipitating \Rightarrow not too deep. Yet to be demonstrated that this is technically feasible and produces realistic results. Up to now this kind of convection is usually treated separately.

GENERALITIES ABOUT PARAMETERIZATION OF PHYSICAL PROCESSES

3 needs (given in historical order)

- ensure numerical stability of the adiabatic "host" model
 - Ex: Eckman pumping
Convective adjustment
- simulate correctly the hydrological and energetical cycles of the atmosphere / land surface system
- pay attention to the accurate prediction of actual weather through products of the parameterization schemes

1st ex = GFDL and of 60^{ties}

- pay attention to the accurate prediction of actual weather through products of the parameterization schemes

2nd ex = ECHMF and of 70^{ties}

2 main problems

- only about 1% of the energy circulating in the system goes into the dynamics. And the parameterization has got to control the exact value of this small amount. Apparently impossible. Fortunately there are negative Feed-back mechanism

- but also positive Feed-back mechanism, either real or artificial.

A lot of phenomena to be parametrised

- Radiation
- * - Cloud / Radiation interaction
- Surface exchanges of heat, moisture and momentum
- Vertical redistribution of these fluxes
- Deep convection
- Shallow convection
- Slantwise convection
- Large scale precipitation
- Soil energetic and hydrology on land
- Surface roughness on sea

⇒ the problem of a unique consistent definition of clouds has yet to be solved

Extra data are needed

- Prognostic variables for T_a, T_d, W_a, W_d, S_n
- Land surface values of
 - orographic variance
 - roughness length
 - vegetation coverage
 - albedo
 - emissivity
 - -----
- Physical constants used into the schemes
 - universal (ex Karmen's constant)
 - measurable (ex $\frac{d\psi}{d(z/L)}(z/L \rightarrow 0)$ in M.O.'s theory)
 - tunable (ex asymptotic mixing length) ■

Variety of approaches

- in radiation we could in principle know the right answer but we have to simplify drastically the algorithms
- in turbulent transport we have to consider the statistical properties of the flow
- in convection studies we are still at the empirical stage and we do not control cleanly the feedback with the dynamical forcing
- in cloud microphysics we have to use simplifying averaging rules, that, fortunately exist in nature
- in land surface processes we are "guessing"

Thus The problem is - difficult

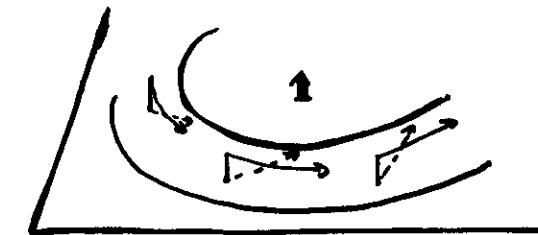
- challenging
- interesting to solve in a

"constant improvement" mode

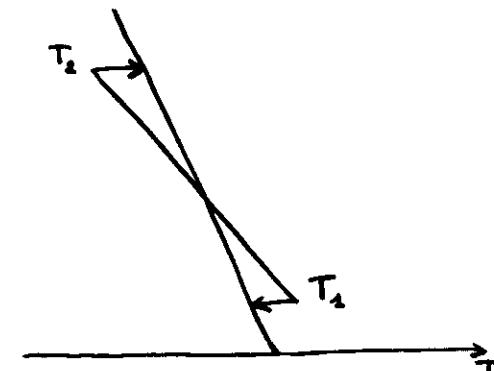
The conditions to work efficiently are

- generality
- consistency
- respect of basic equations

Les "ancêtres" de la paramétrisation

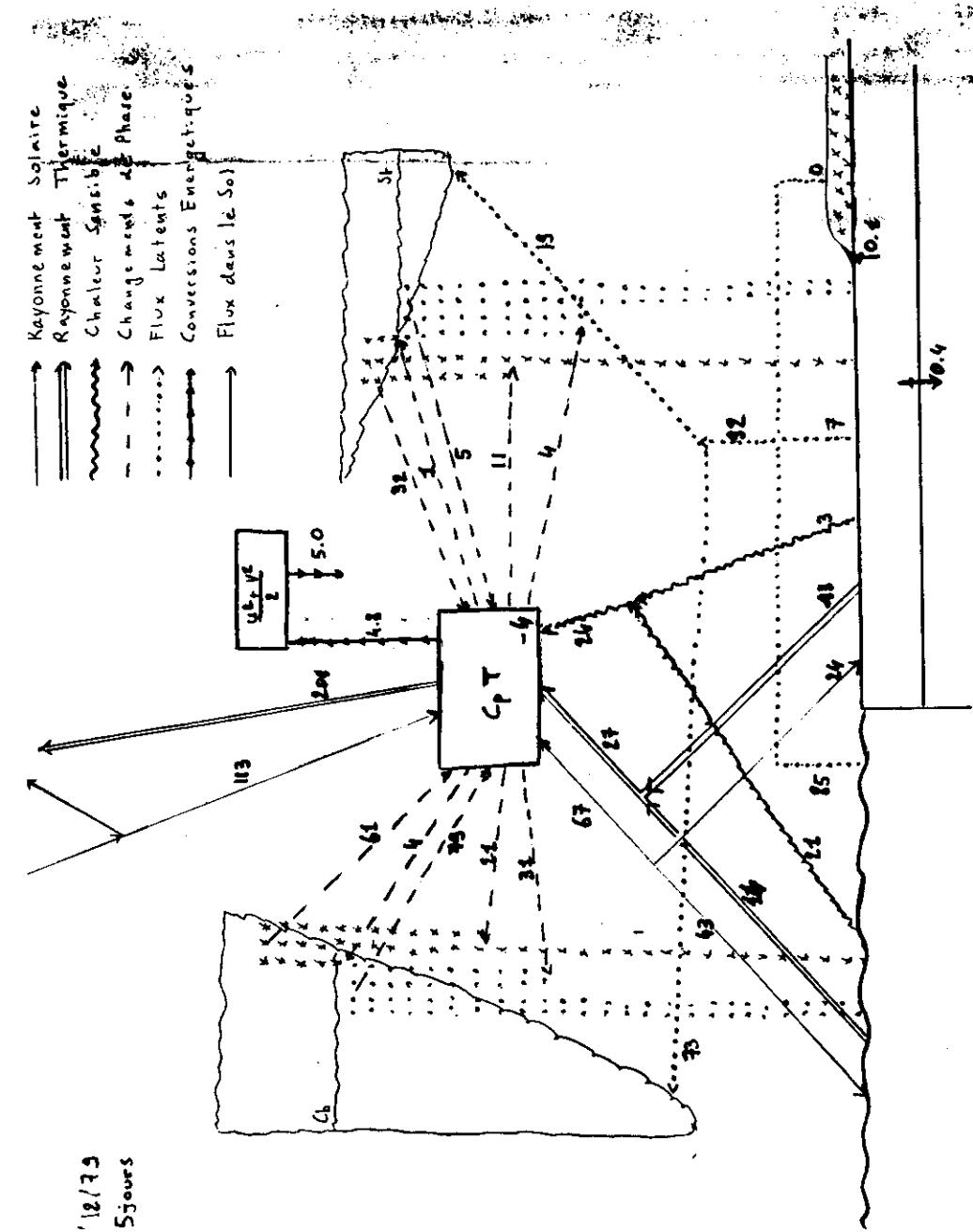


$$\partial T / \partial z = g / c_p$$

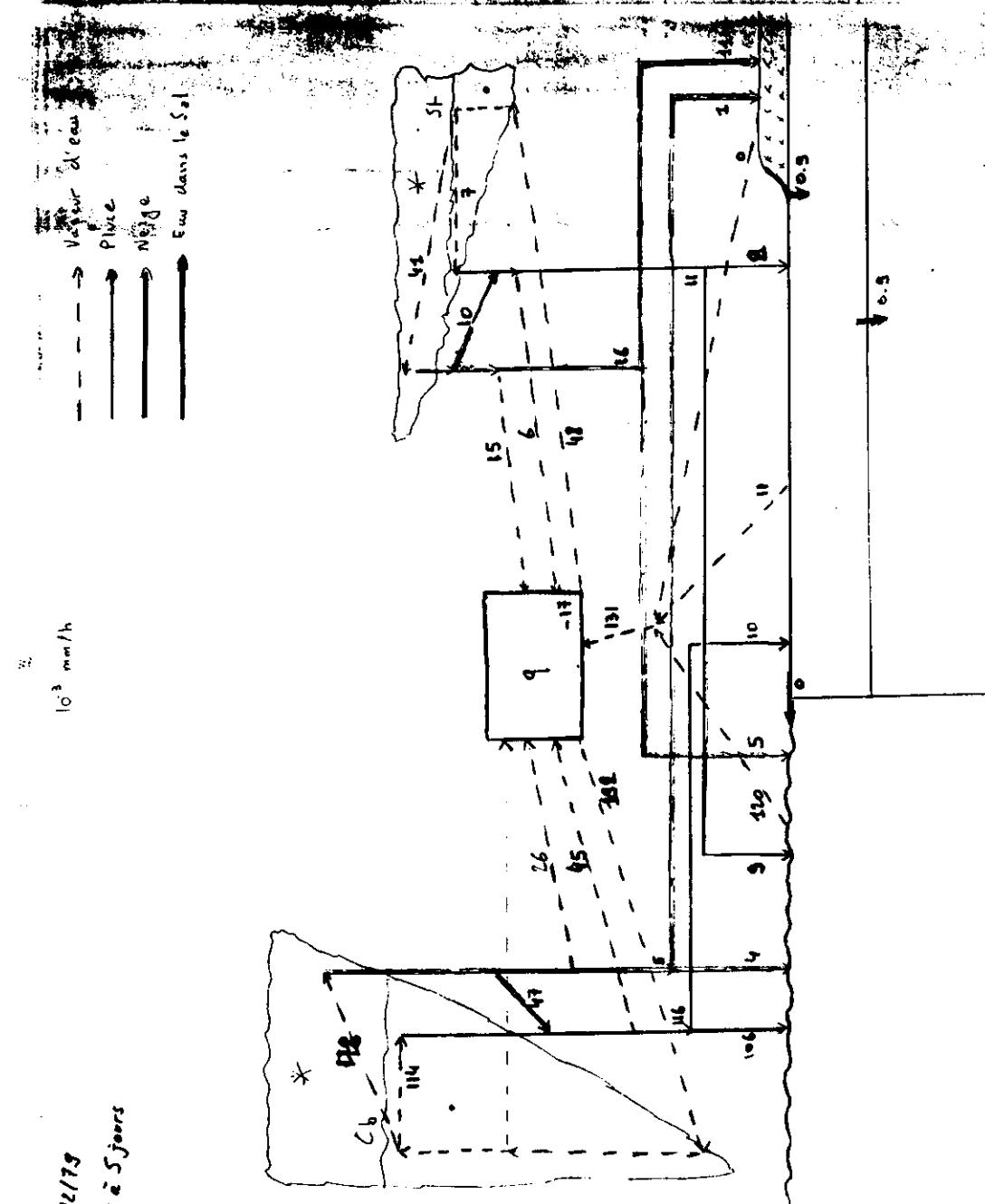


Rayonnement Solaire
 Rayonnement Thermique
 Chaleur Sensible
 Changements de Phase
 Flux Latents
 Convections Energétiques
 Flux dans le Sol

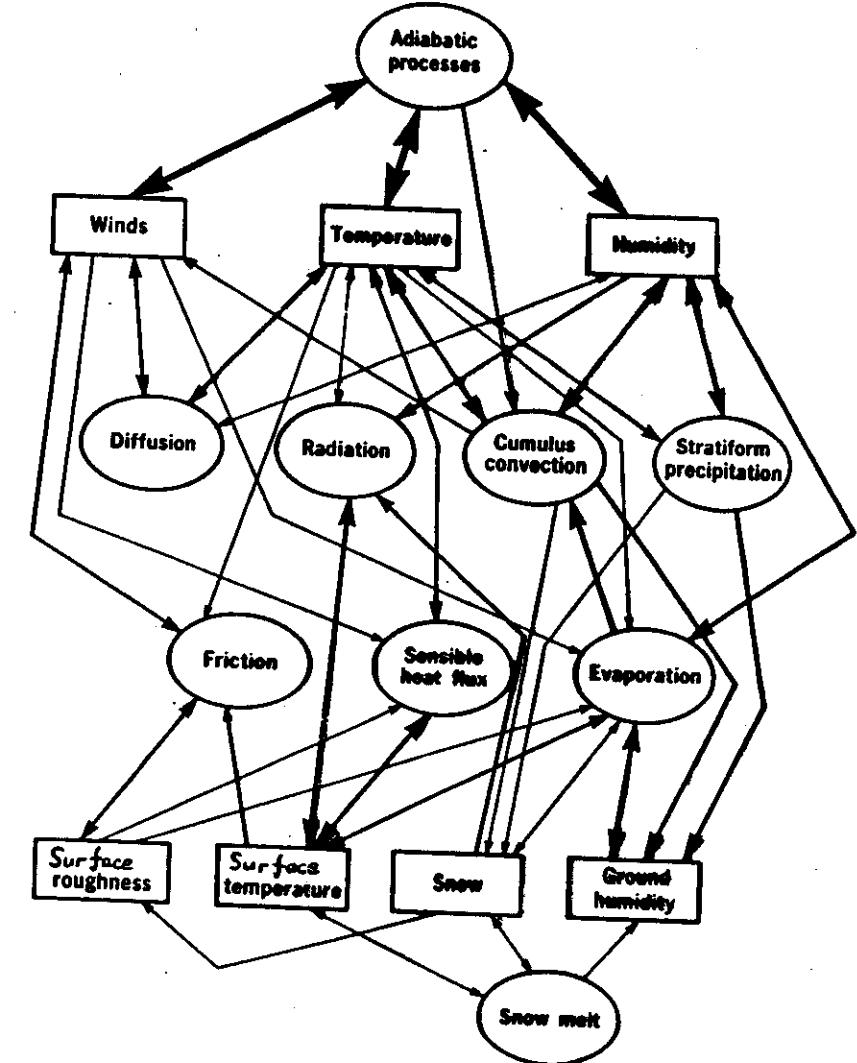
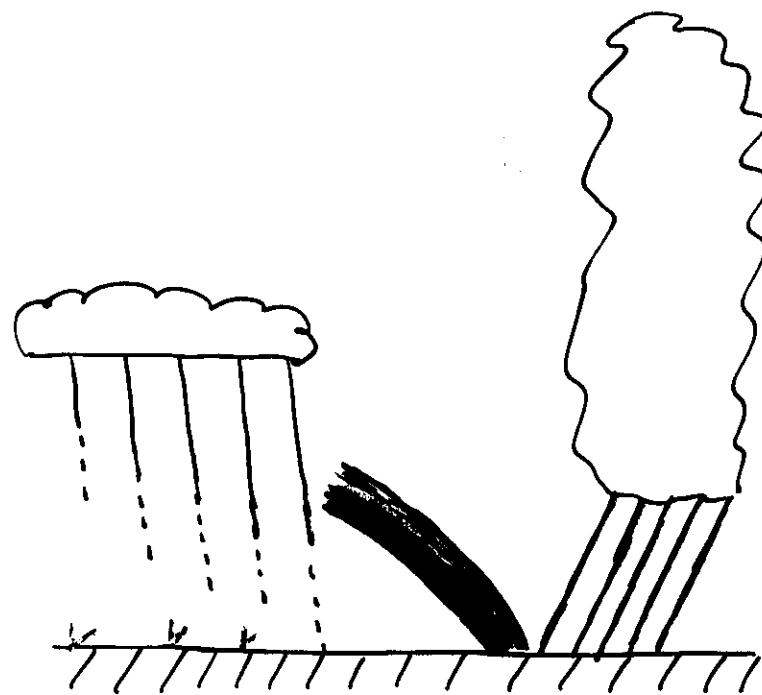
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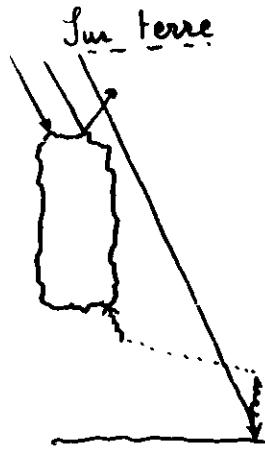


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Avri à Sjöors

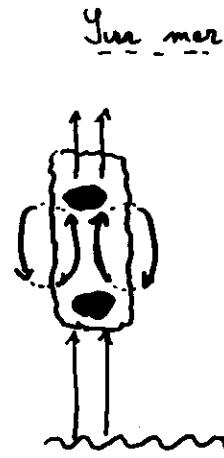


Le Futur ?

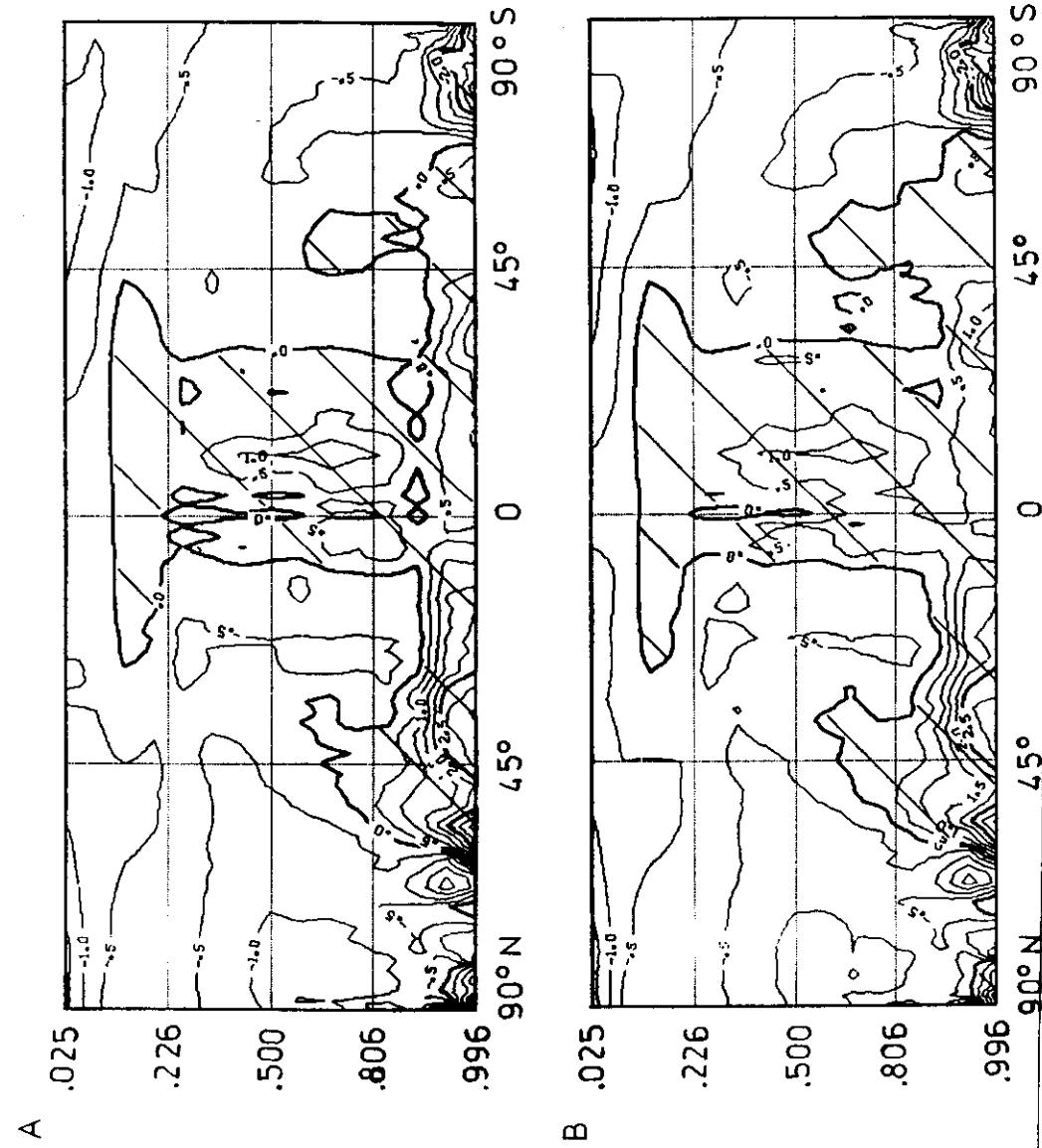
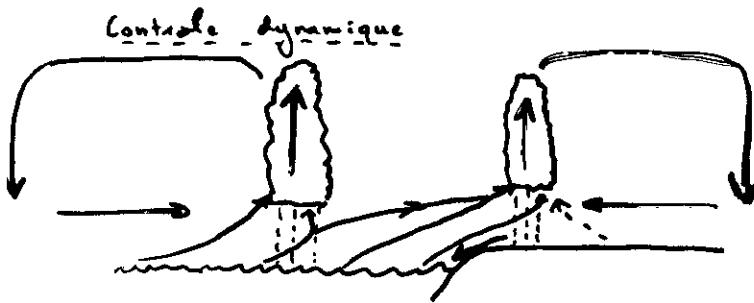


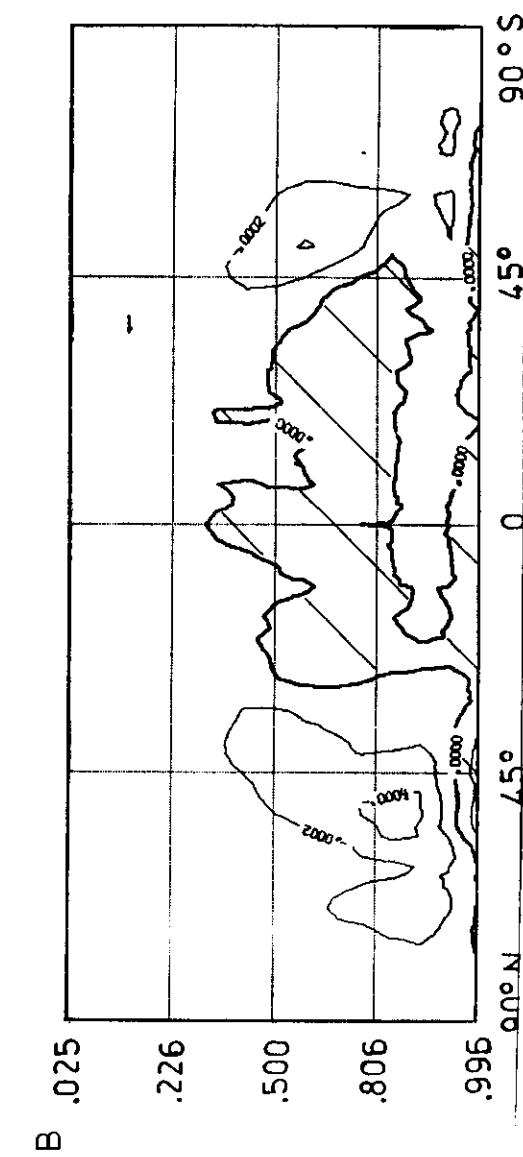
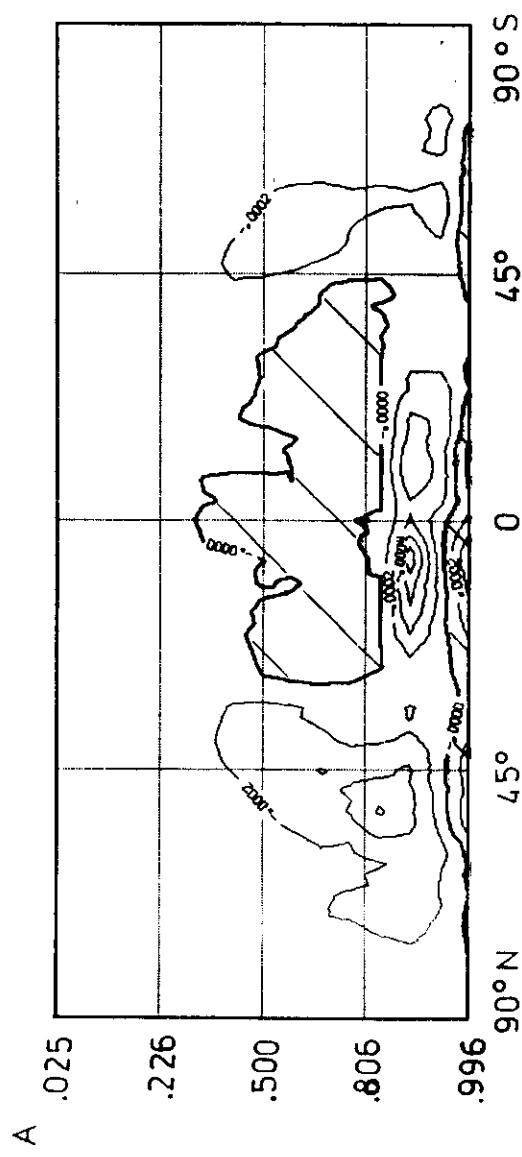
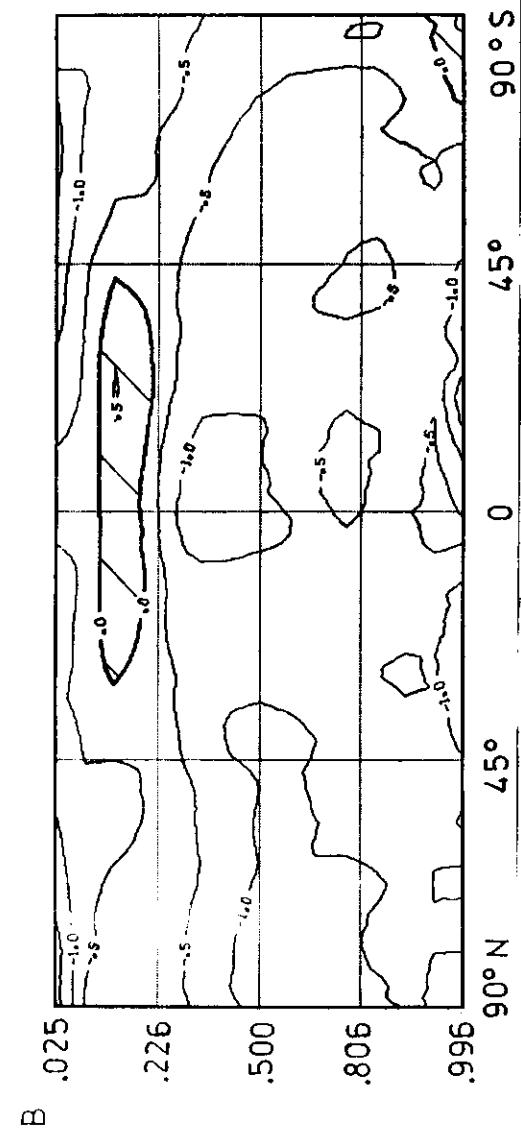
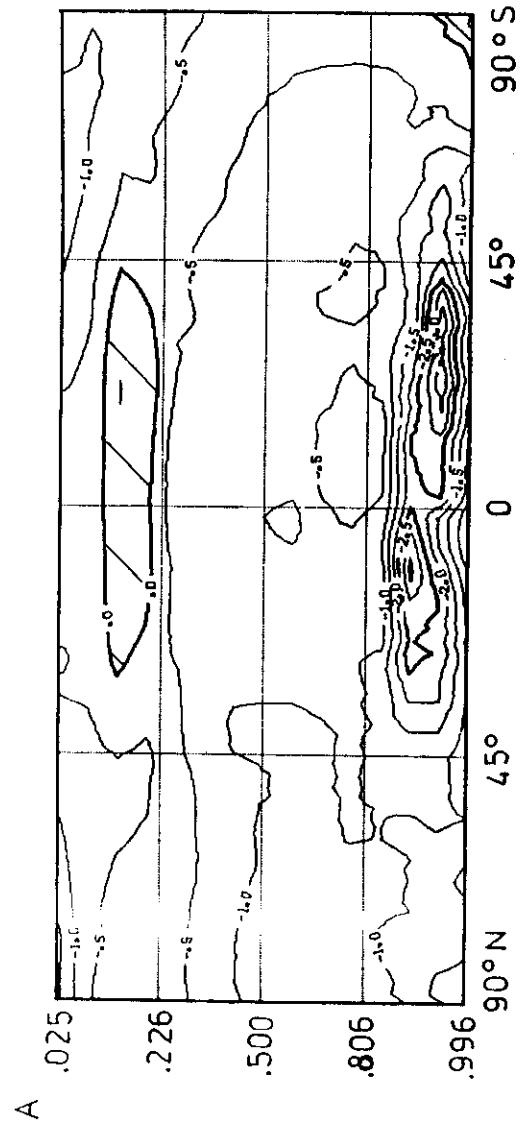


- + de nuage
- de rayonnement solaire en surface
- d'évaporation
- de convection
- de nuage

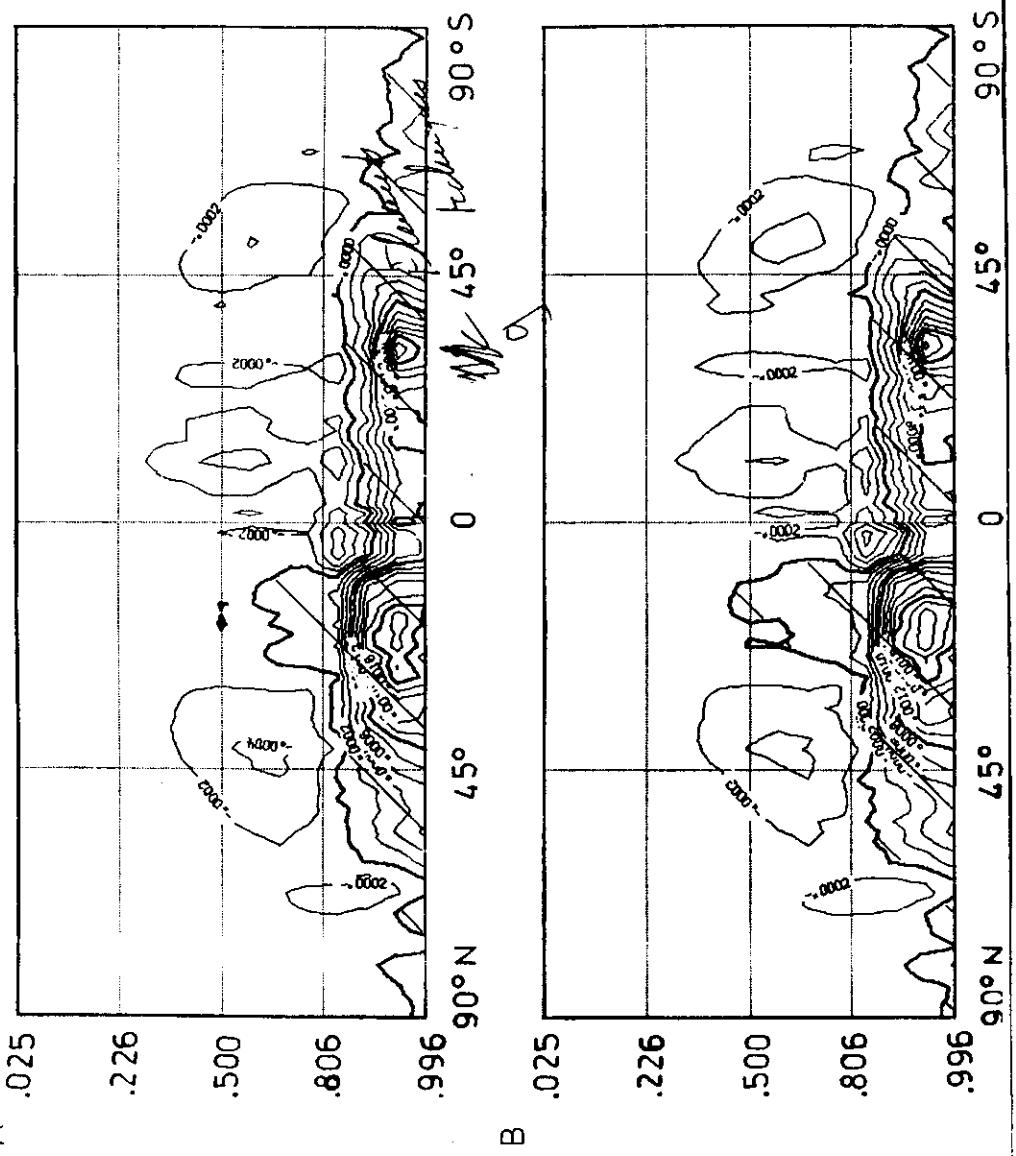


- + de nuage
- + de destabilisation par le rayonnement thermique
- + de convection
- + de nuage





PHYSICAL CONSTANTS



group

Strategy of use

To accept "mother nature's" choice!

Universals

$$C_{pa} = 1005.46 \quad R_a = 287.05$$

$$C_{pv} = 1868.46 \quad R_v = 461.51$$

$$L_v = 2500800. \quad L_d = 2834500.$$

$$g = 9.80665 \dots$$

Measurables (in principle and according to the mathematical framework of a given formulation)

examples

$$T_{ad}(u, v_r) = e^{-\left(\frac{au}{V_{ad} + buv_r} + cv_r\right)}$$

$$z_0 = c_x u_x^2 / g$$

.....

To find the best compromise between simple analytical formulae and good fits with in situ and laboratory measurements

Tunable: (and to be tuned)

$$l = \frac{x(2+\zeta)}{1+x(2+z_0)/\lambda}$$

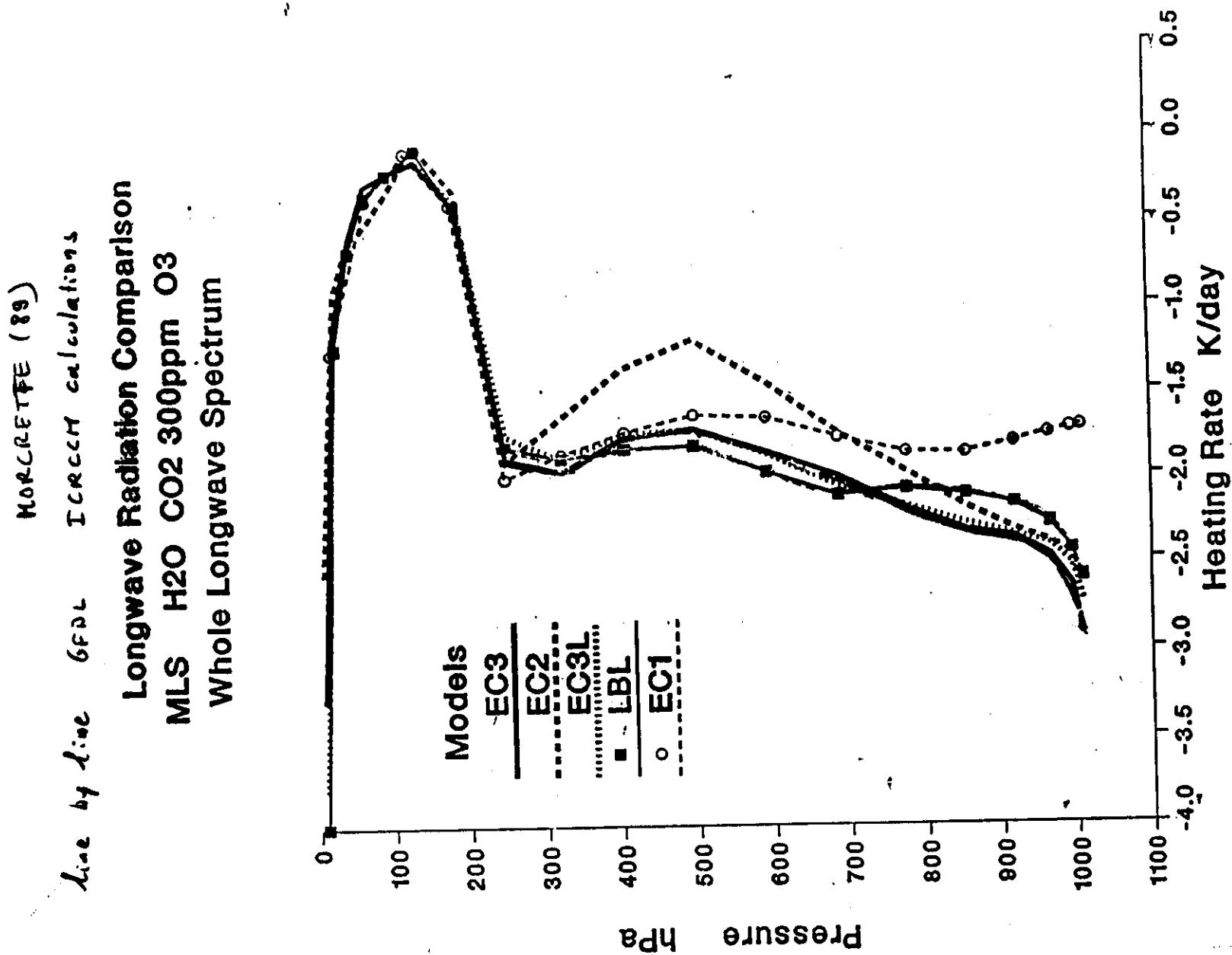
$$\frac{(q_0+q_e)}{\partial \Phi} = \frac{q_e}{\Phi_{crit.}}$$

$$\frac{\partial R}{\partial (1/f)} = A (q_{out} - q)$$

$$= -1.7 \cdot 10^{-3} \sqrt{f} \cdot K_{g,md.}$$

$$G_{de} = \max\left(0, \frac{H_U - H_{Uc}}{1 - H_{Uc}}\right)$$

To have as little as possible of them, but, given the choice, to take those that have the most "physical" meaning and are thus central to the behaviour of the scheme.



SHORTER CONTRIBUTIONS

THE DISTRIBUTION OF RAINDROPS WITH SIZE

By J. S. Marshall and W. McR. Palmer

McGill University, Montreal

(Manuscript received 26 January 1948)

Measurements of raindrop records on dry filter papers were made for correlation with radar echoes (Marshall, Langille, and Palmer, 1947). These measurements have been analyzed to give the distribution of drops with size (fig. 1). The distributions are in fair agreement with those of Laws and Parsons (1943).

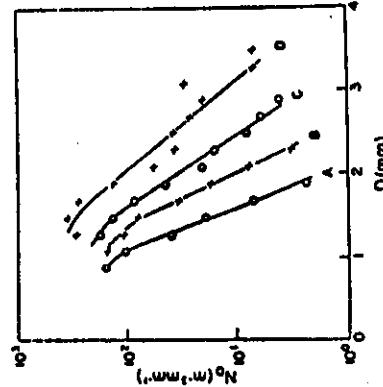


FIG. 1. Distribution of number versus diameter for raindrops recorded at Ottawa, summer 1946. Curve A is for rate of rainfall 1.0 mm hr^{-1} ; curves B, C, D, for $2.6, 4.3, 21.0 \text{ mm hr}^{-1}$. N_D is the number of drops per cubic meter of diameter between D and $D + \Delta D$ mm. Multiplication by 10^{10} will convert N_D to the units of equation (2).

Except at small diameters, both sets of experimental observations can be fitted (fig. 2) by a general relation,

$$N_D = N_0 e^{-\alpha D}, \quad (1)$$

where D is the diameter, $N_D D$ is the number of drops of diameter between D and $D + \Delta D$ in unit volume of space, and N_0 is the value of N_D for $D = 0$. It is found that

$$N_0 = 0.08 \text{ cm}^{-1} \quad (2)$$

for any intensity of rainfall, and that

$$\alpha = 41 R^{-0.21} \text{ cm}^{-1}, \quad (3)$$

where R is the rate of rainfall in mm hr^{-1} . For diameters less than about 1.5 mm, both sets of observations fall short of the value for N_D given by equation (1), and they disagree slightly with each other. Laws and Parsons' observations are better in

^a Thanks to a Library of the National Research Council of Canada.

FIG. 2. Distribution function (solid straight lines) compared with results of Laws and Parsons (broken lines) and Ottawa observations (dotted lines).

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The exponential distribution of equation (1) is the type that would obtain if growing drops were in continual danger of disintegrating, the likelihood of disintegration being proportional to the increment in diameter or in distance of fall through cloud. Such behavior might be explained by the random accumulation by each drop of electrical charge as more and more randomly charged cloud drops or smaller raindrops are acquired by coalescence, and the resultant disintegration of overcharged drops. Relevant calculations and experiments on coalescence are in progress.

REFERENCES

- Lawn, J. O., and D. A. Parsons, 1943: The relation of raindrop size to intensity. *Trans. Amer. Geophys. Union*, 24, part II, 452-460.
Marshall, J. S., R. C. Langille, and W. McR. Palmer, 1947: Measurement of rainfall by radar. *J. Meteor.*, 4, 186-192.
Wester, R., 1947: Radar detection of a frontal storm 18 June 1946. *J. Meteor.*, 4, 39-44.

Baptista (88)

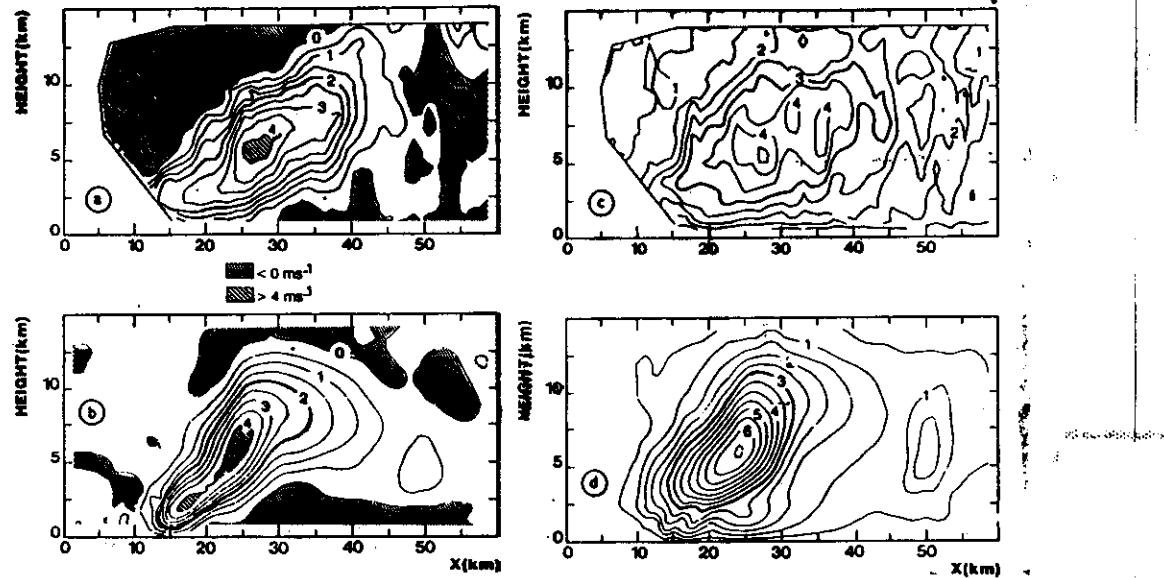
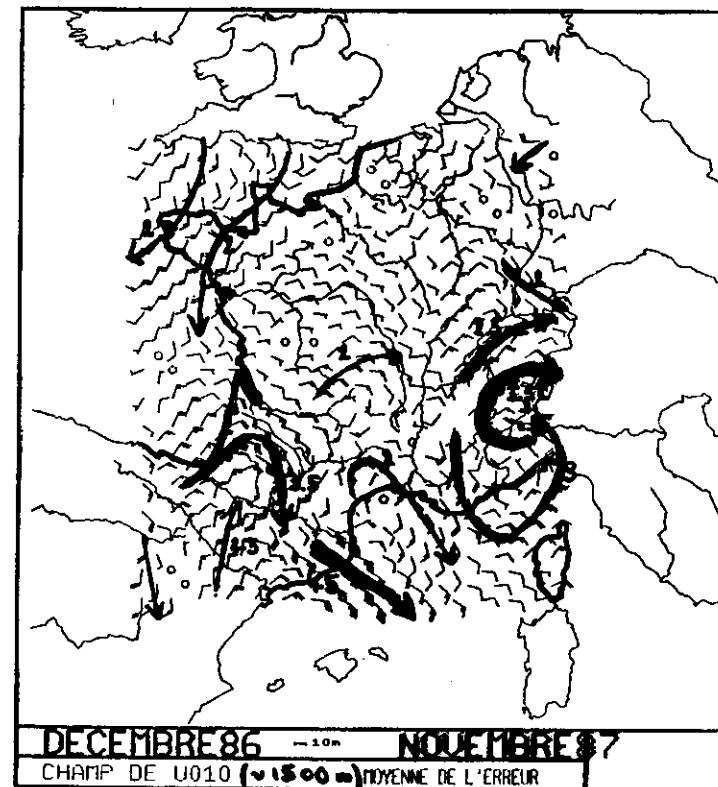


FIGURE 11 : Numerical simulation of a tropical squall line and two-dimensional analysis of the vertical velocity field, from [REDACTED] :

- (a) two-dimensional average for radars. Downdraft areas are dashed, and areas with values larger than 4 m s^{-1} are heavily dashed. The heavy line represents the 2 m s^{-1} isoline ;
- (b) as (a), but for the numerical simulation ;
- (c) total standard deviation for radars. The heavy line represents the 3 m s^{-1} isoline ;
- (d) as (c), but for the numerical simulation. The dotted line represents the crossover zone contour as identified by Redelsperger and Lafore (1988).

COPT 81 data



$\sigma = 0.864$ Wind : 24 h. Forecast

- corresponding analysis

1 year mean 00 UTC data

beware: basic arrows are counter oriented!

→ Wind Forecast error when
over 2 Knots in strength

$L = 350 \text{ Km}$

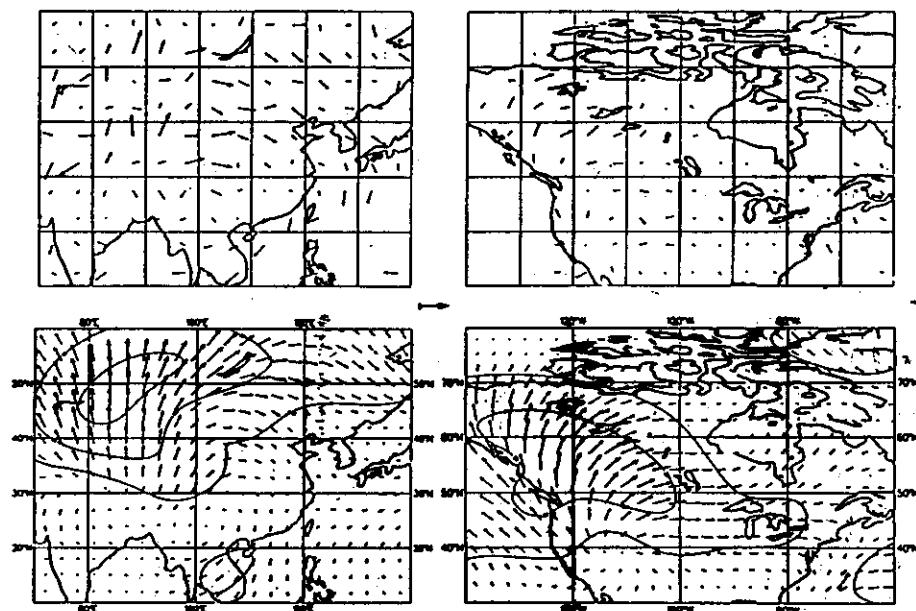
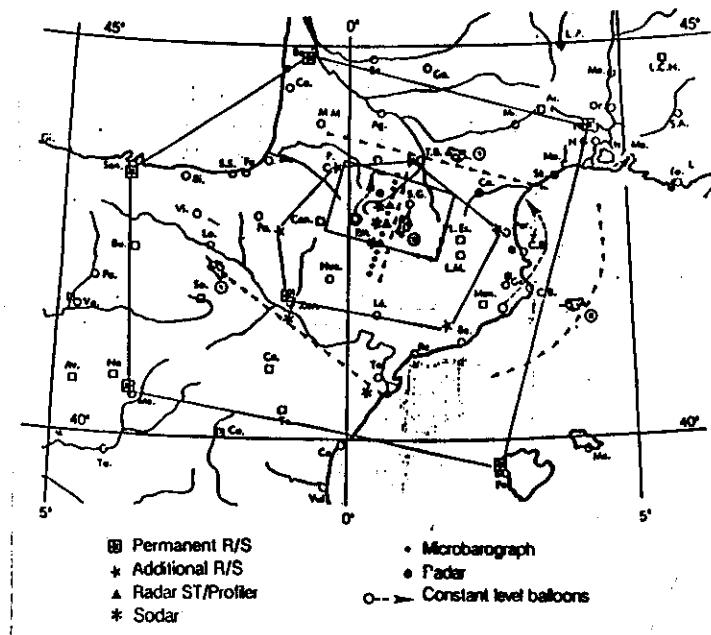
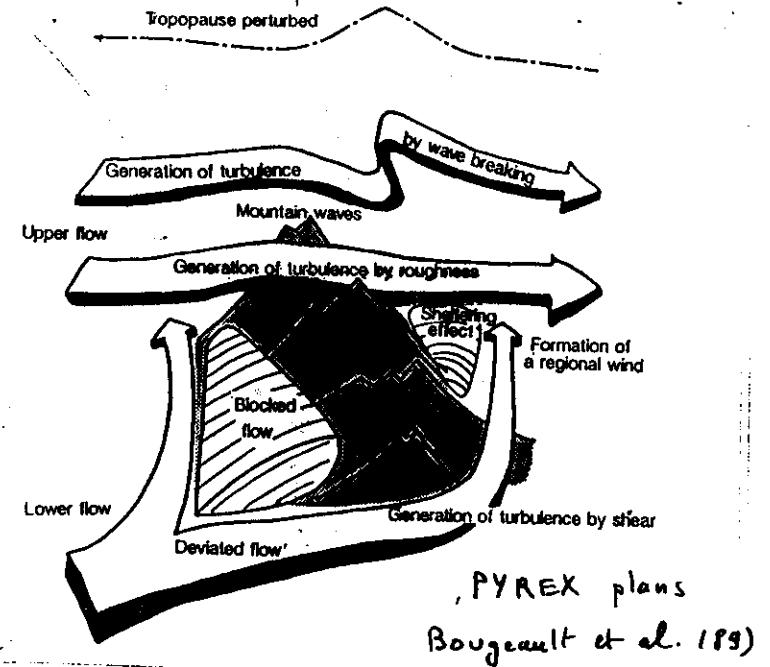
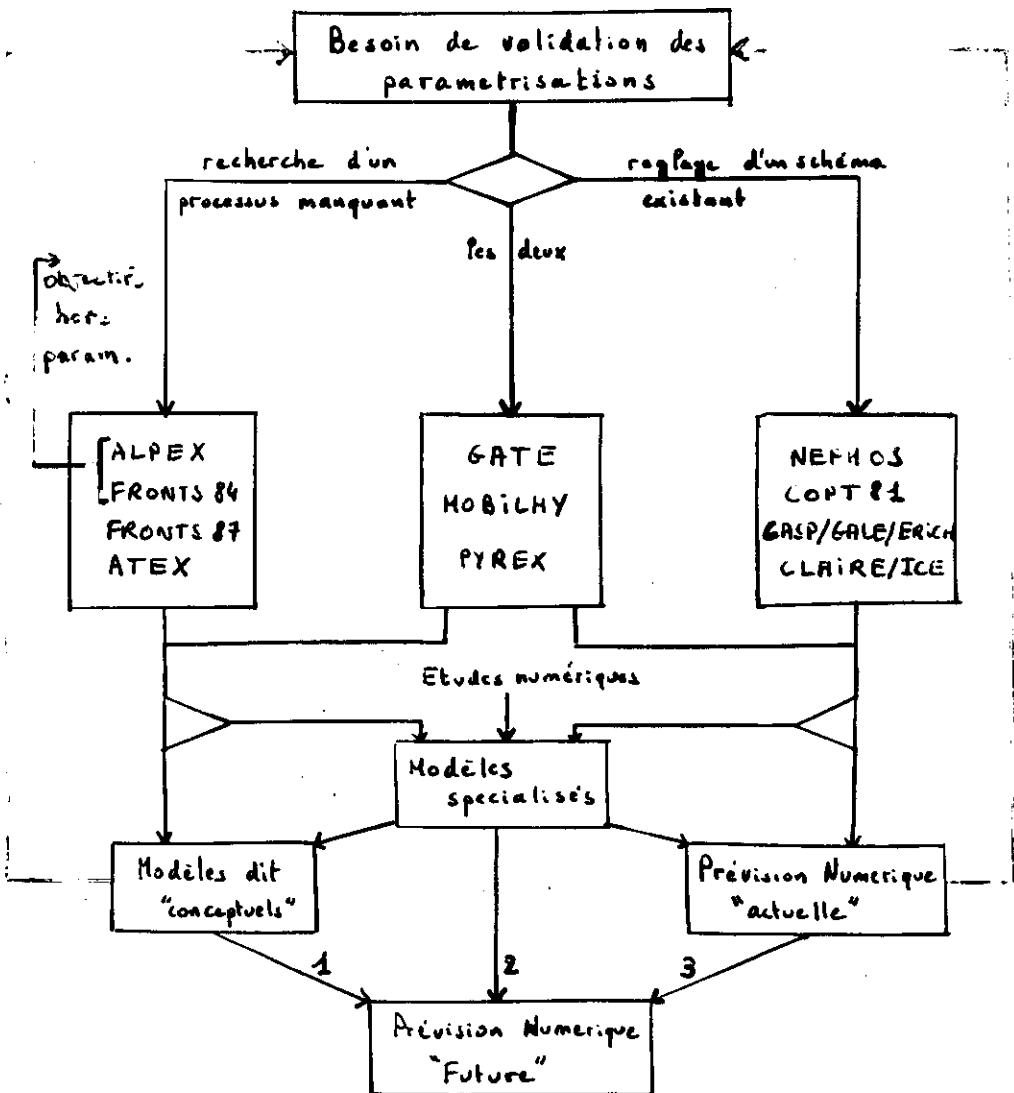


Fig. 6 The top panels show the 6-hour 10 metre wind forecast error verified against actual observations grouped in $5^\circ \times 5^\circ$ boxes. The mean initial tendency error at model level 19 is given at the bottom. The arrow in the middle of the figure represents 6 m/s in the top panels and 40 m/day in the bottom.

KLINKER and SAROFISHNUKH (1987)





Formulation

* A la surface (indice 0)

$$\vec{\tau}_0 = - \rho_0 \vec{V}_0 N_0 \left[\frac{E h_0}{l} \right] \sqrt{h_0} = k$$

tension densité Fréquence de B.V.
vent au niveau le + bas

paramètre adimensionnel de réglage

écart type de l'orographie non résolue

* Profil d'absorption atmosphérique

$$F_L = \text{nombre de Froude local}$$

$$(F_L = h_0 \sqrt{\frac{\rho_0 N h_0 U_0}{c U^3}})$$

$$T \sim 1/F_L$$

$$N S / U = C_L$$

Critère de saturation de Lindzen
(S = déplacement vertical)

$$\Rightarrow \vec{\tau}_i = - \rho_i \frac{N_i^2}{N_0} \vec{V}_0 k h_0 \left[\frac{U_i}{U_0} \right]^3 \quad \text{avec } U = \frac{\vec{V} \cdot \vec{V}_0}{\sqrt{\vec{V}_0 \cdot \vec{V}_0}}$$

$$\text{De plus } \vec{\tau}_i = 0 \text{ si } U_i < 0$$

$$\text{et } \vec{\tau}_i = \vec{\tau}_{i+1} \text{ si } |\vec{\tau}_i| > |\vec{\tau}_{i+1}|$$

$$\text{Enfin on discrétise } \frac{d\vec{V}}{dt} = +g \frac{d\vec{Z}}{dp}$$

$$\text{avec la limitation si } V_t = V^* + 2dt \frac{d\vec{V}}{dt}$$

$$0 < \frac{V_t \cdot \vec{V}_0}{\vec{V} \cdot \vec{V}_0} < 1$$

Figure 1

Variations des coefficients de corrélations sur les tendances
des différentes variables après 96h de prévision
en fonction du paramètre k (Géopotentiel et Température
à 1000, 850, 500, 250 et 100 hPa)

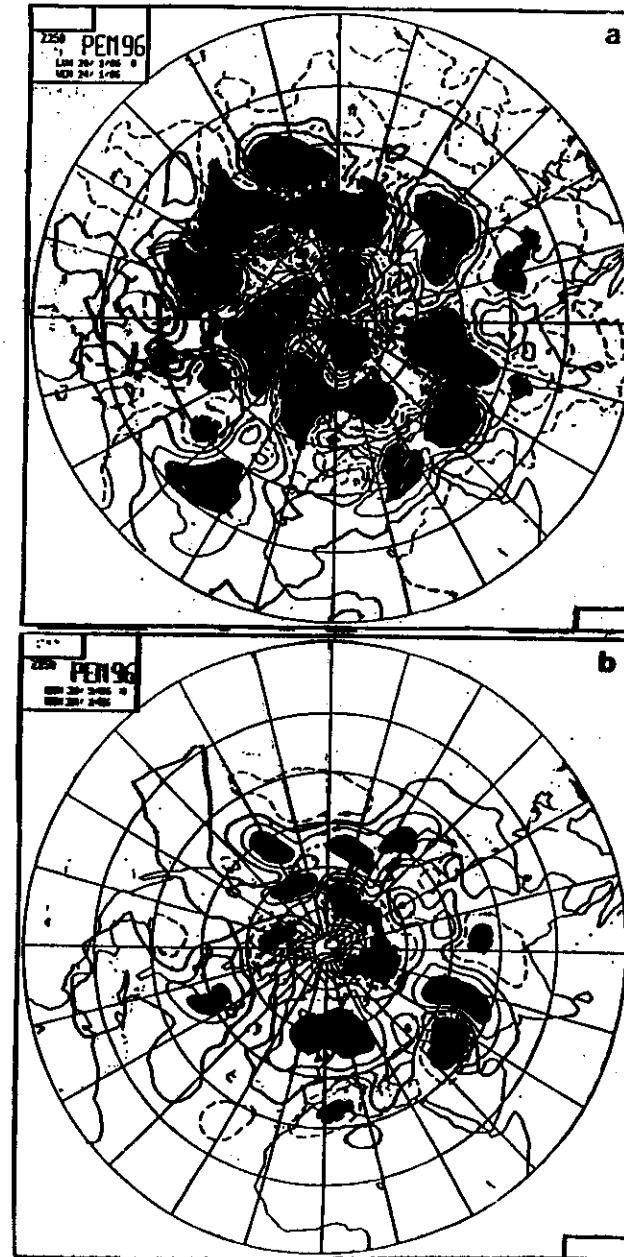
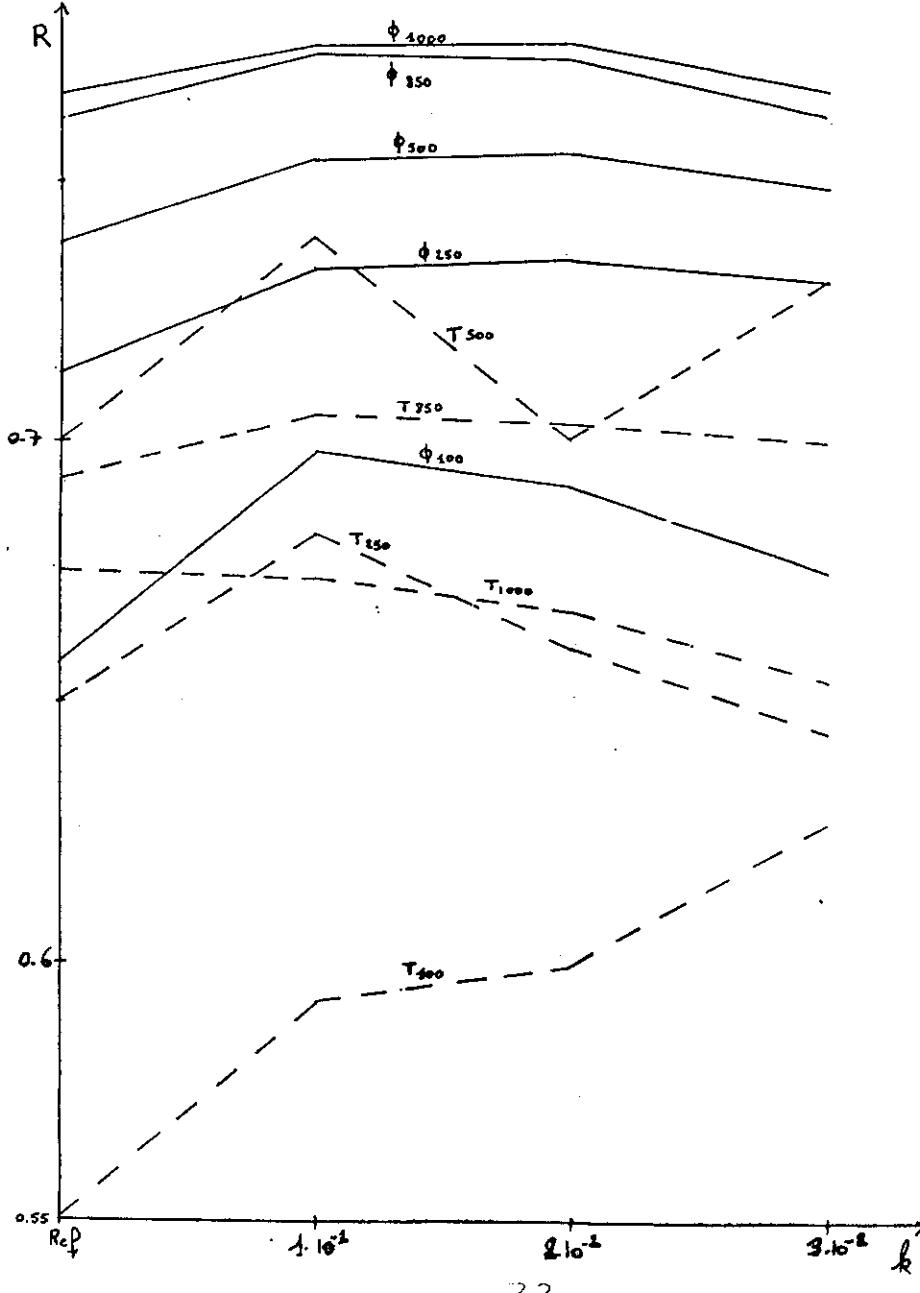


FIGURE 2 : Forecast from 20-1-1986 00Z.
a) 96 hour forecast error map of the 250 hPa height without parameterization of gravity wave drag. Reinforced zero line, negative values dotted, plotting interval 40 m.
b) The same but for the difference between two forecasts : with minus without g.w.d. parameterisation ($k = 0.03$). One notices the strong negative correlation of the two patterns especially upstream from the Rockies and the Himalaya.

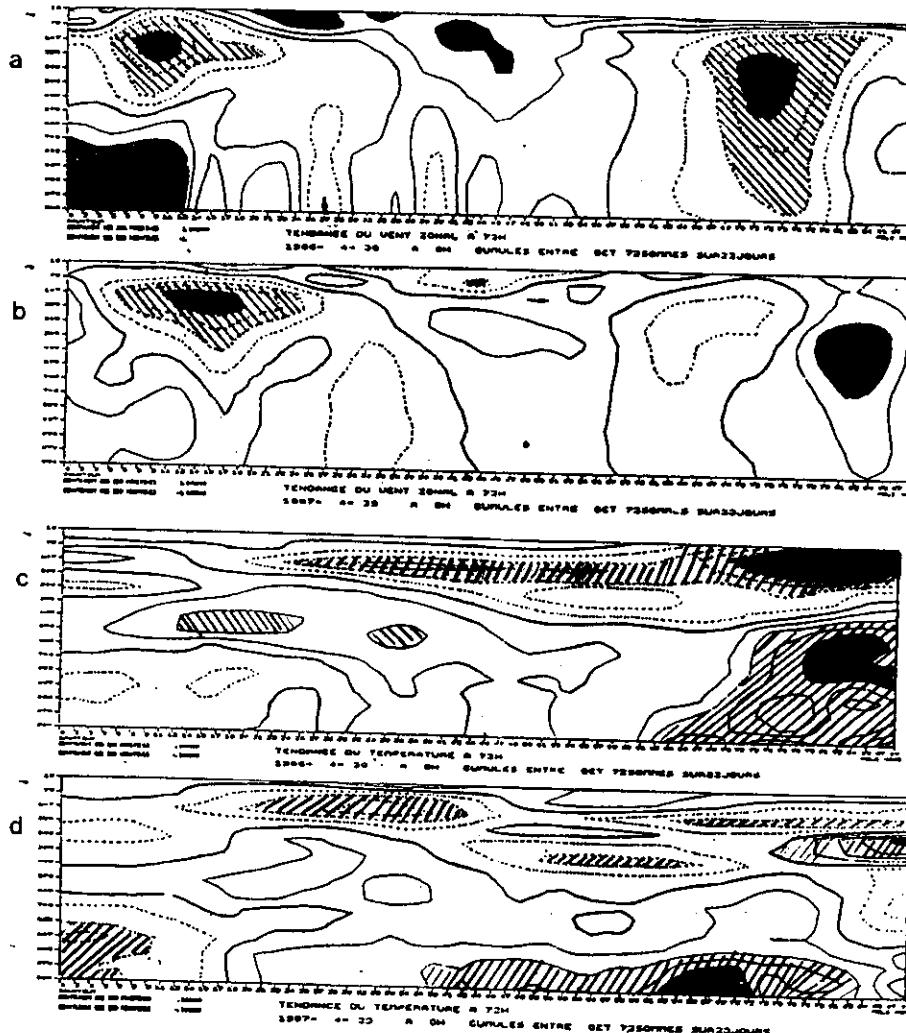
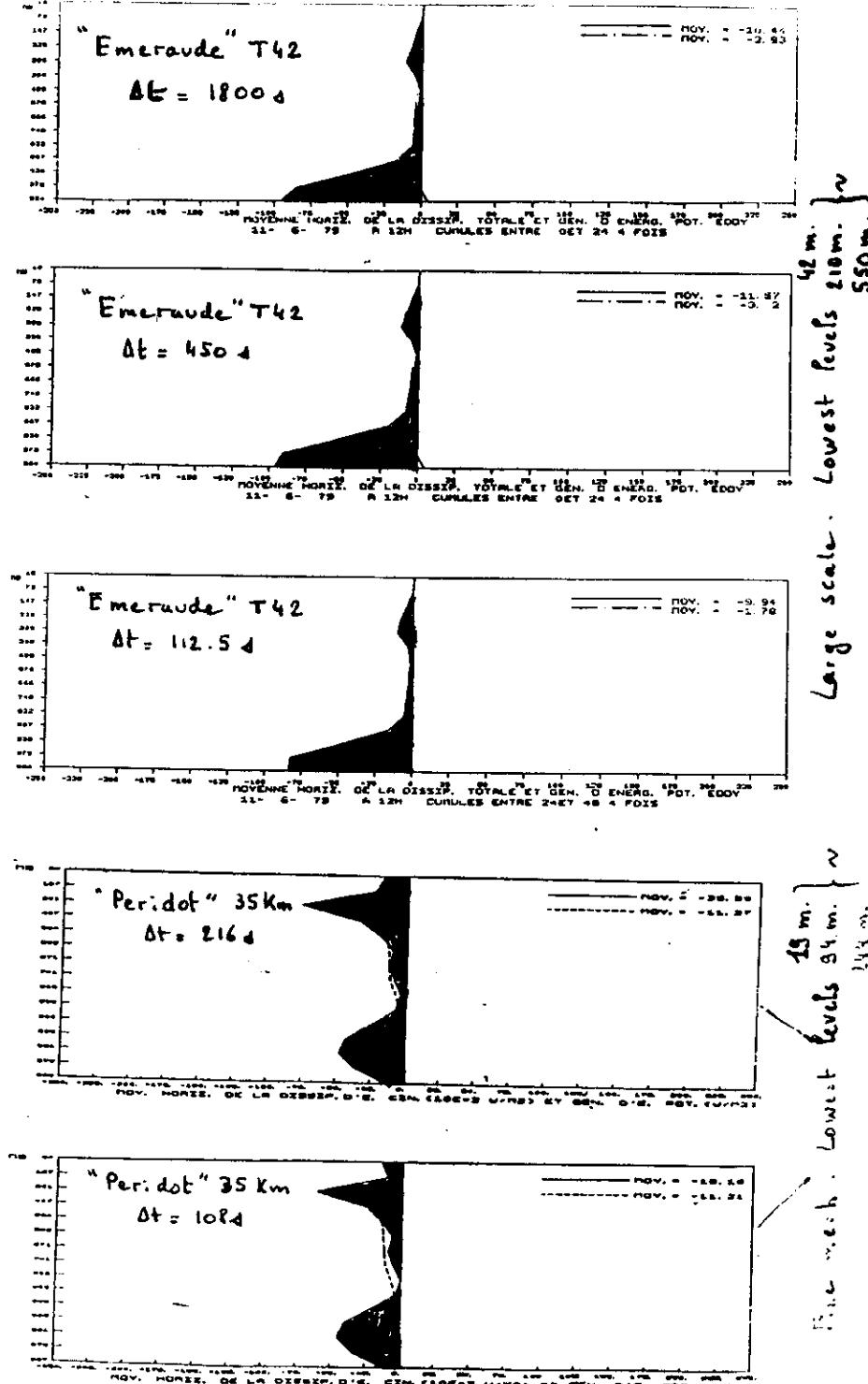


Figure 4 : Moyenne mensuelle de l'erreur zonale moyenne des prévisions opérationnelles.

- a) Avril 86 Vent zonal
- b) Avril 87 Vent zonal
- c) Avril 86 Température
- d) Avril 87 Température

DIABATIC DISSIPATION OF KINETIC ENERGY



6 BASIC QUESTIONS

- ① What is the best way to verify parameterization schemes?
- ② Can parameterization schemes be built in such a way that they can work at all scales?
- ③ Is it possible to eliminate both climate drift and deficiencies in the "transient part" of diabatic Forcing?
- ④ Where does the law of diminishing return starts in the search for a better direct weather Forecasting, given the constraints of a workable dynamics/physics interface?
- ⑤ What is more important: exact representation of individual processes or realistically working Feed-back loops; or, what are the important control parameters and test results?
- ⑥ Between the requirements of climate simulation and of improved data assimilation methods is there space for any original, forecast directly oriented, specific NWP work in parameterizations?

WHY DO WE NEED A PARAMETERIZATION OF CONVECTION?

- a) Because most clouds are sub-grid scale and
- b) Because condensation/evaporation organizes sub-grid scale motions (non chaotic behaviour)

Parameterization of convection = attempt to mimick what the model is doing when the phenomena are "resolved" not "any" model!

WHY DO WE SEPARATE THE TWO PARAMETERIZATIONS? ("resolved" and "convective")

Because we (wrongly) believe in a scale separation which:

- is not universal in nature
(stratocumulus !! slantwise convection!)
- shouldn't exist in a model that imposes its own critical scales to both parametrized and resolved phase changes

WE SHALL STOP CALLING IT!

But is it possible consistently and efficiently ??

GENERALITIES

Reading Apvl 21

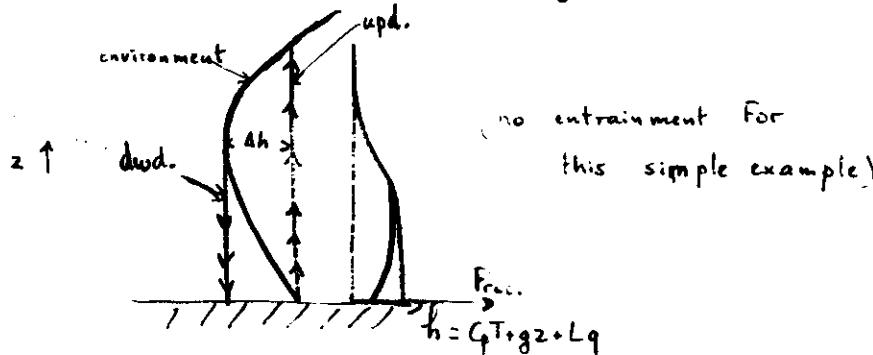
- Clouds without rain \Rightarrow condensed water may reevaporate in the atmosphere
 - case: (for the time being)
- stable situation: Falling droplets evaporate when crossing non saturated sub-cloud layers

relative evaporation $\Gamma \Leftrightarrow$ rel. humidity \downarrow

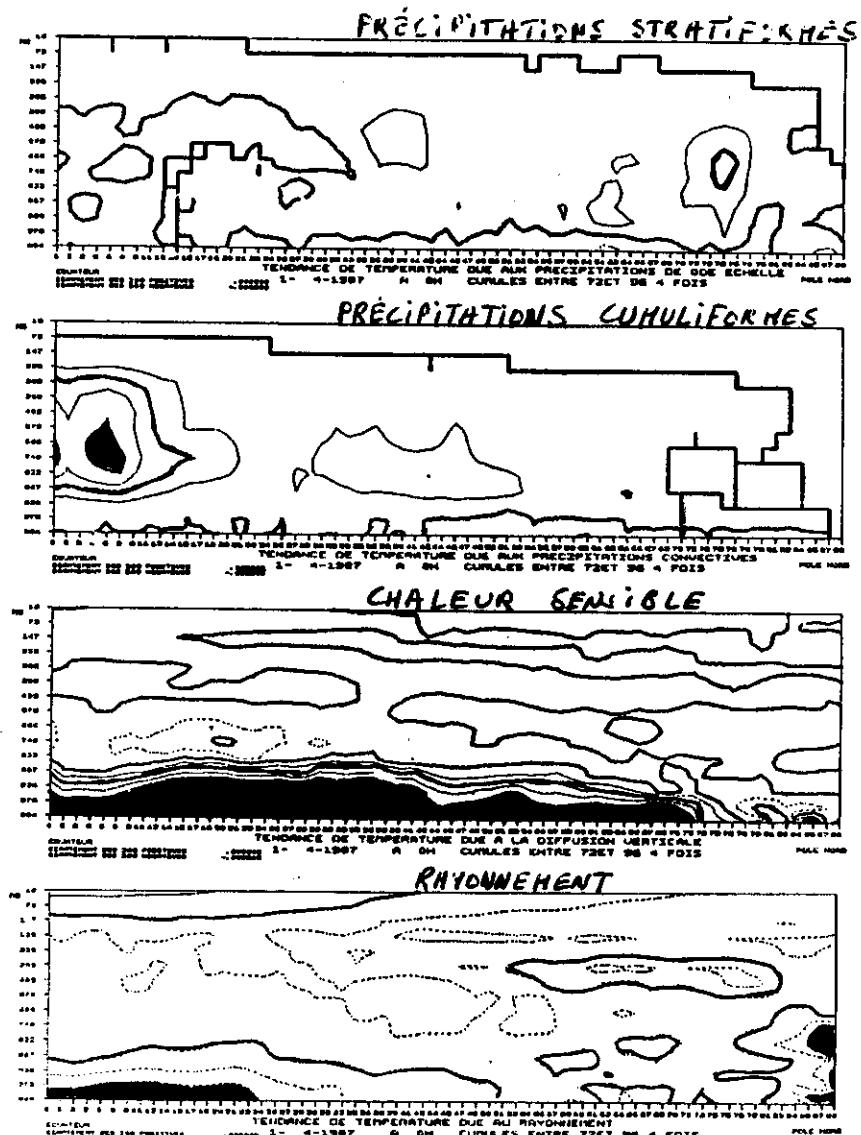
\Rightarrow rain Flux \downarrow (smaller drops)

Unstable situation

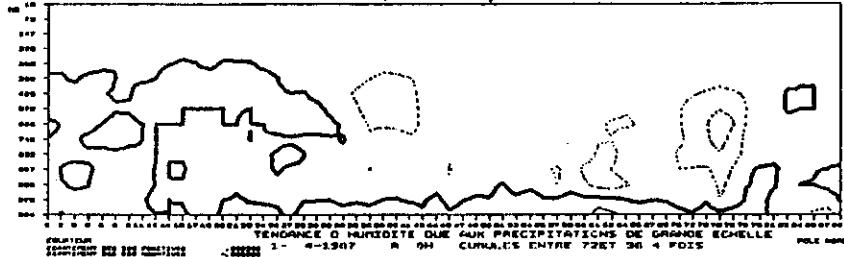
- ascent: condensation compensates adiabatic cooling
- descent: evaporation " " heating but only if liquid water is available to evaporate and to maintain the down draft just at saturation.



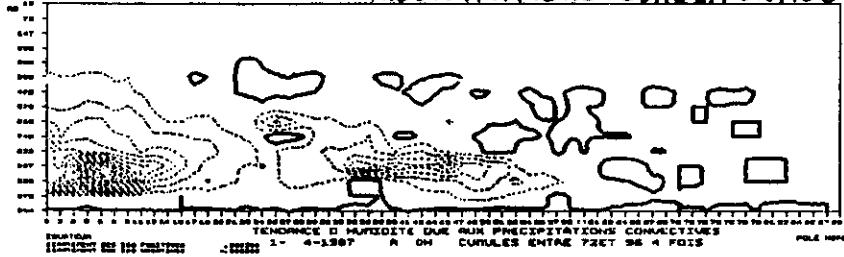
relative evaporation $\Gamma \Leftrightarrow$ buoyancy excess Ah
(more rain above more unstable layer!)



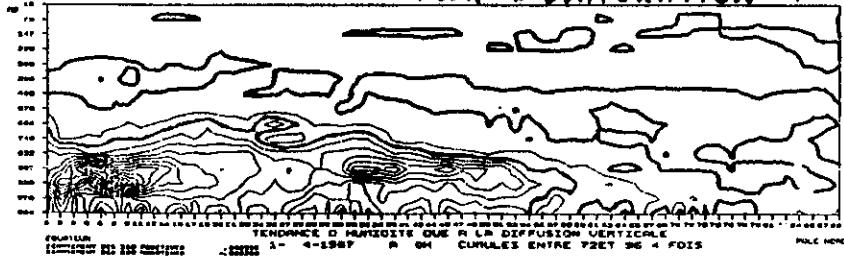
PRÉCIPITATIONS STRATIFORMES



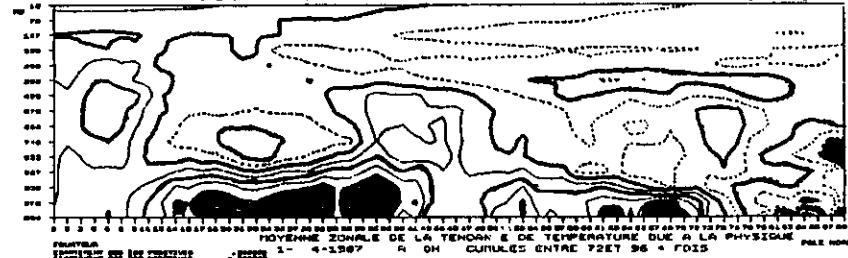
PRÉCIPITATIONS CUMULIFORMES



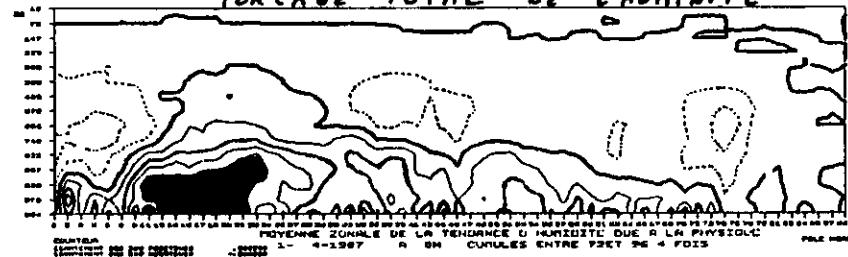
FLUX D'ÉVAPORATION



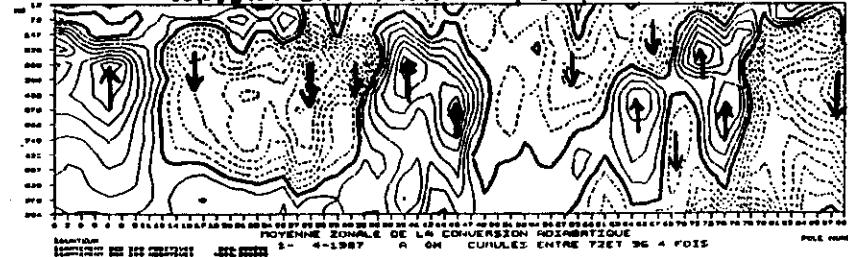
FORÇAGE TOTAL DE LA TEMPÉRATURE



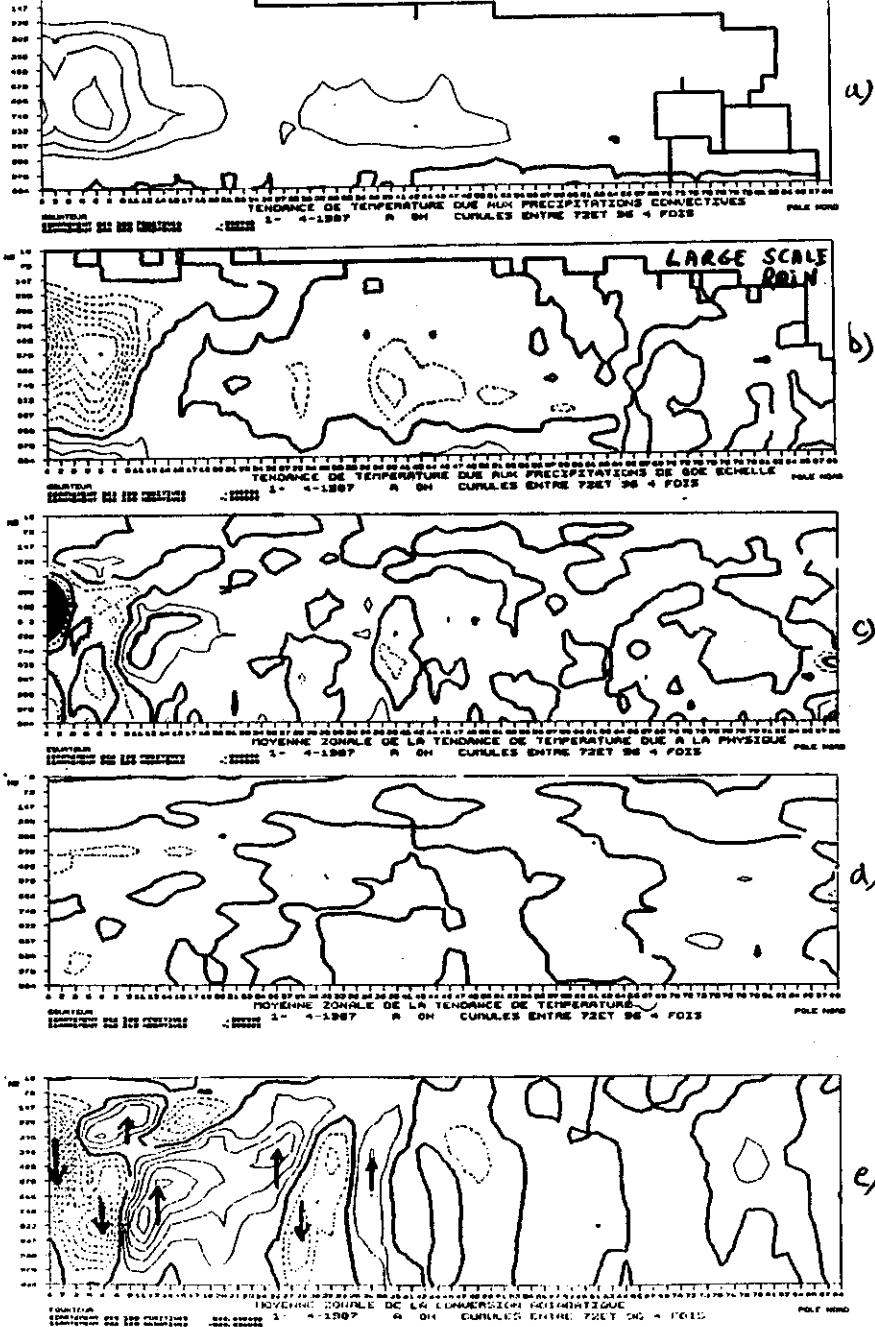
FORÇAGE TOTAL DE L'HUMIDITÉ



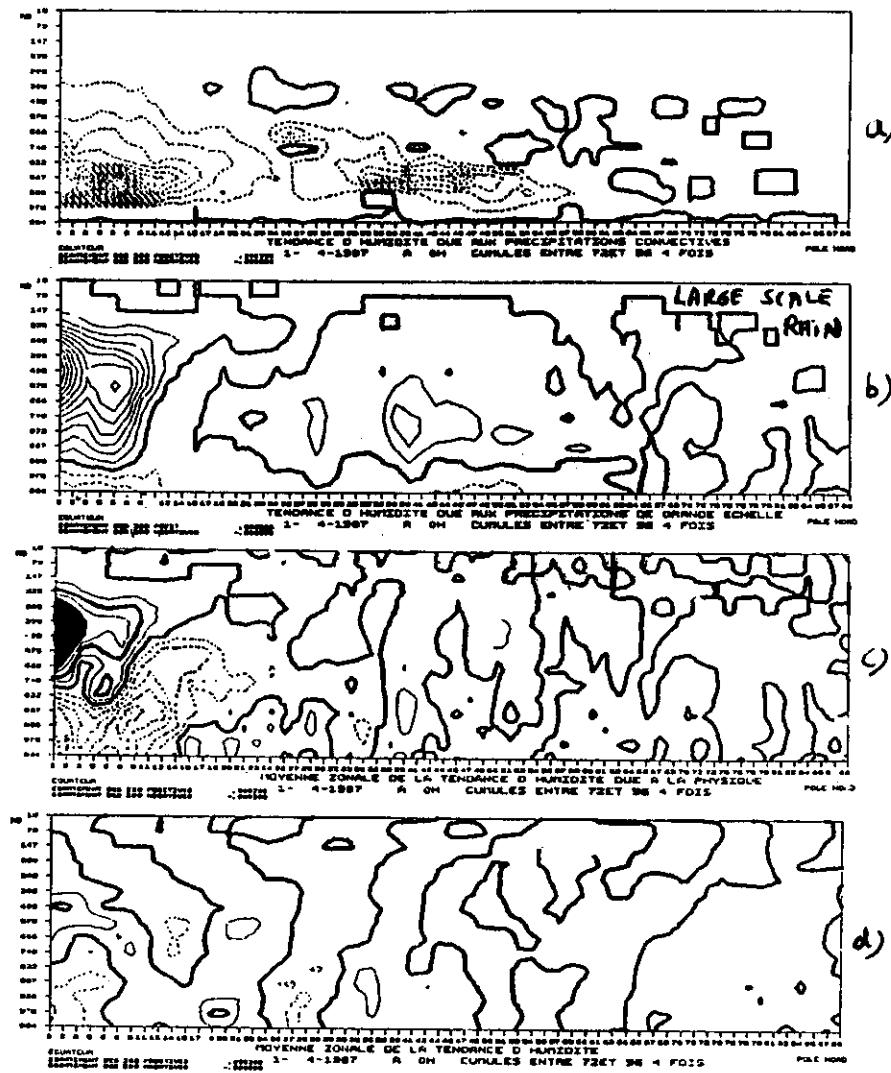
CONVERSION ENERGÉTIQUE (~ VITESSE VERTICALE)



CONVECTION



CONVECTION

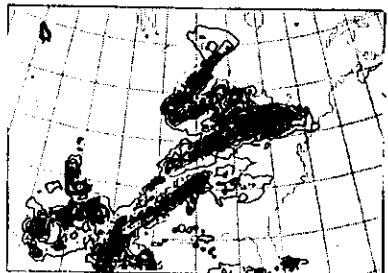
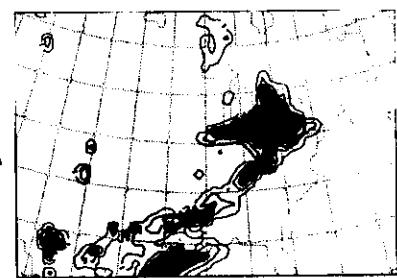
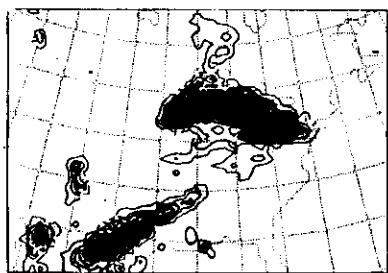
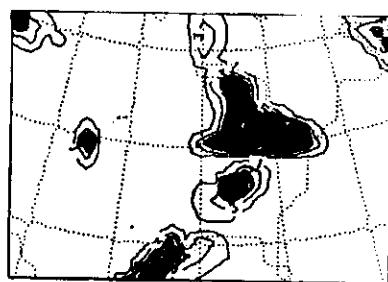


BOUGEAULT

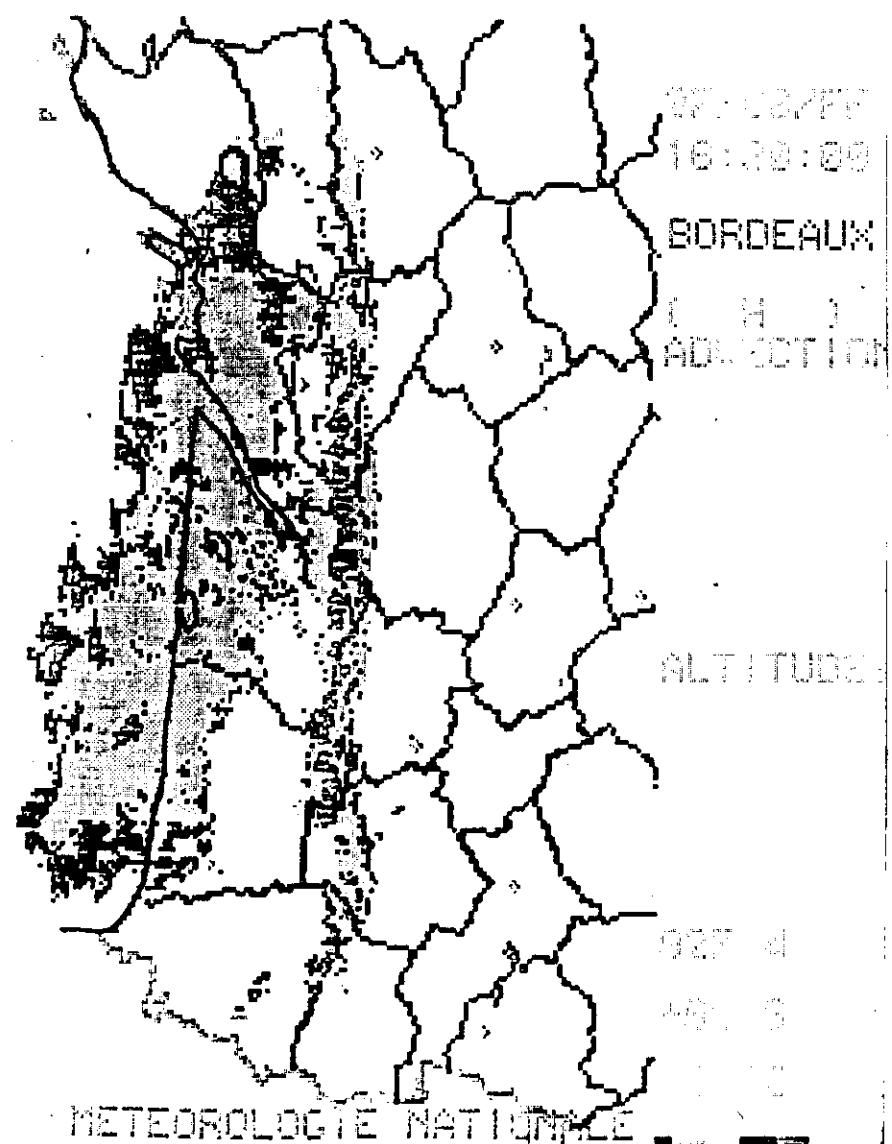
DEEP CONVECTION PARM.



KUO



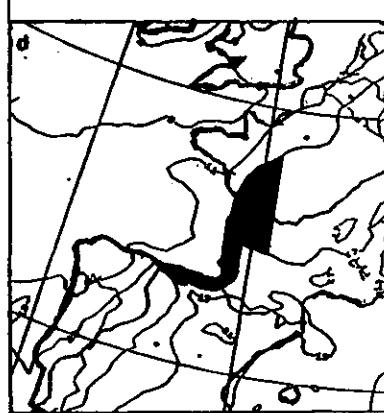
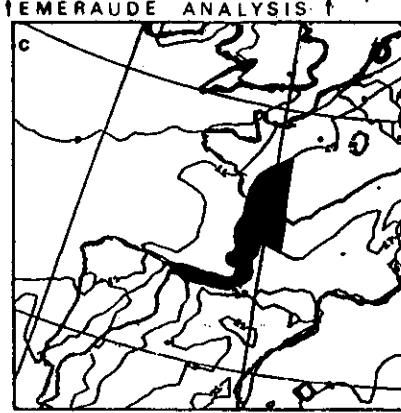
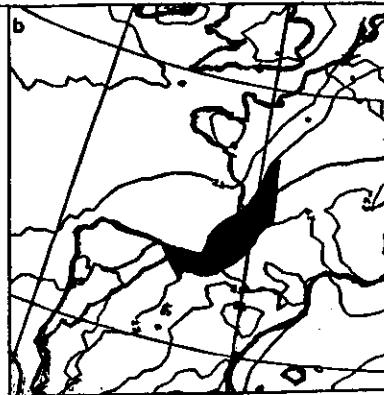
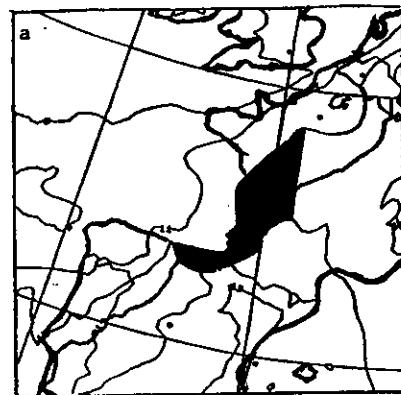
48 hour rain fall Forecast (12h accumulated)



7 JUIN 1987

0°W

H+6

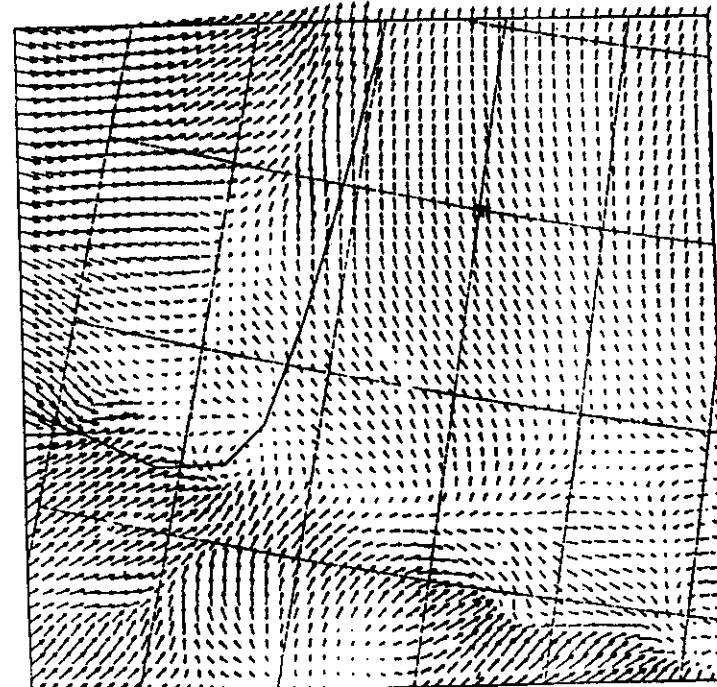


PERIODOT ANALYSIS †

Figure 22 : Maps of 6 hour forecasts of PBL moist equivalent potential temperatures verifying 87-06-07 18Z . The forecasts differ only by their initial states : a) interpolated large scale analysis ; b) fine mesh analysis with large scale forecast as background ; c) fine mesh analysis with fine mesh forecast as background (no satellite data included) ; d) as c) but with satellite data in the fine mesh analysis. Contouring interval 2° (reinforced 15°C isoline). Only part of the 95x95 integration area is shown here.

Integration 4 → grille 4x plus Fine
H+1

conditions initiales
conditions aux limites

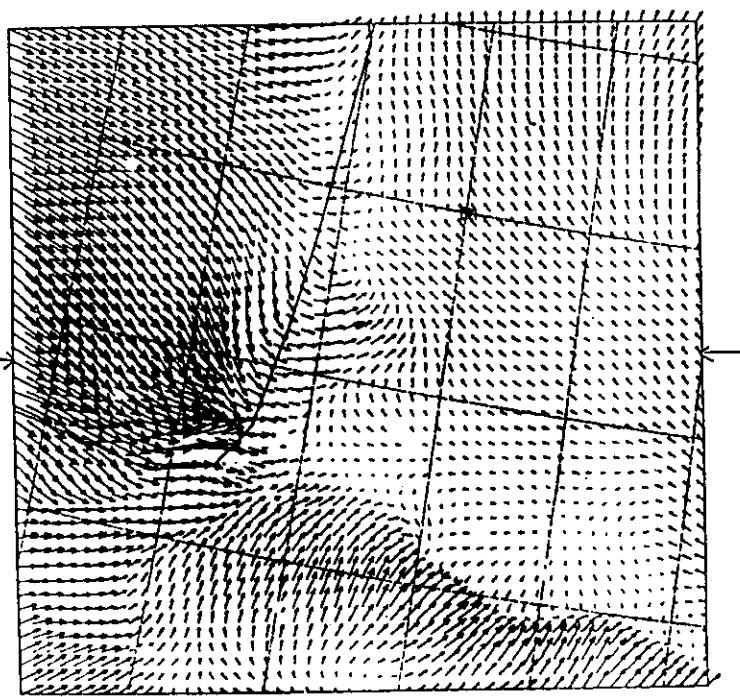


BASE 7/ 6/87 A 12HTU ECH. 1 EX 108 VENT 10M

modèle "identique"

→ ← axe de la coupe

H+3



BASE 7/6/87 A 12HTU ECH. 3 EX 108 VENT 10M

modèle "identique"

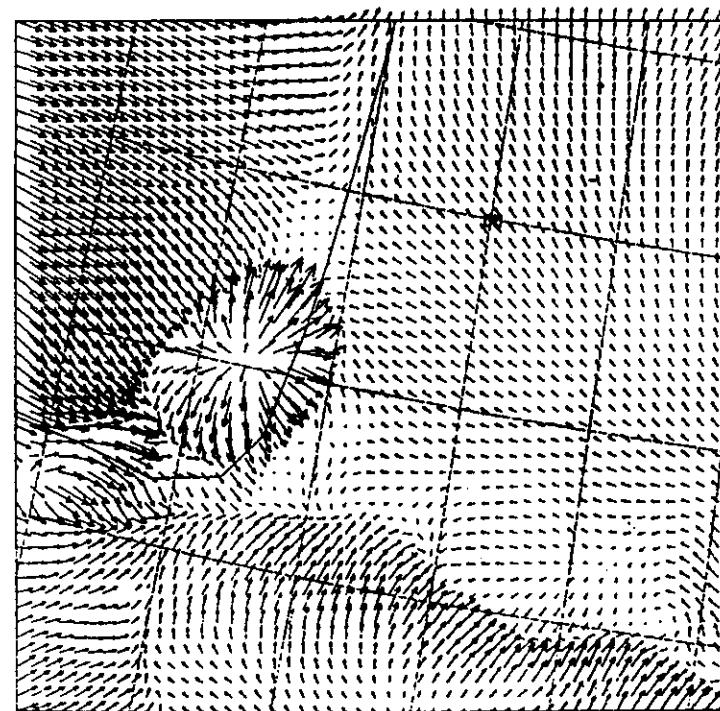
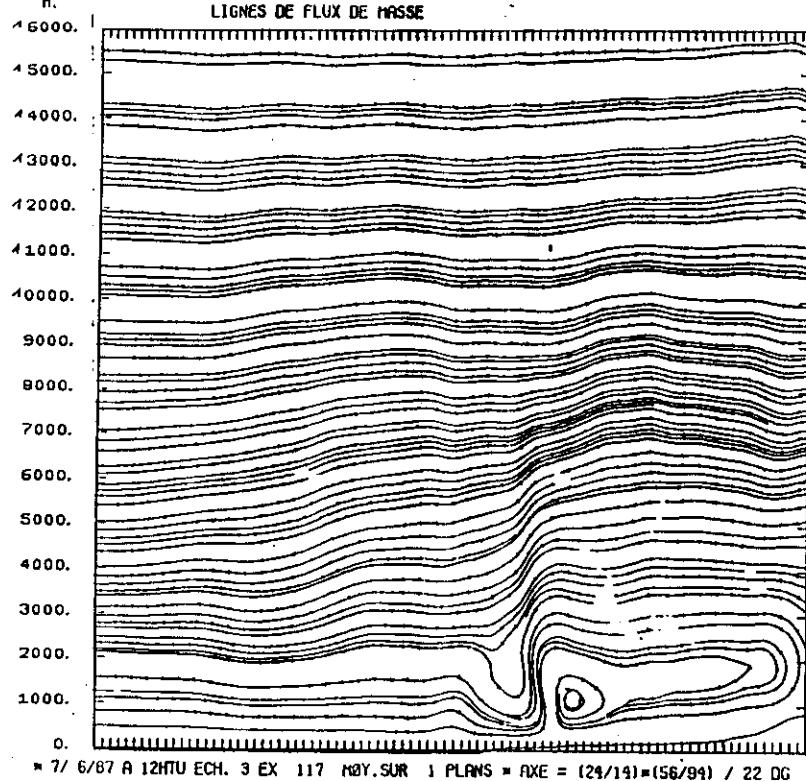
H+3



BASE 7/6/87 A .2HTU ECH. 3 EX 117 VENT 10M

prise en compte des "courants descendents"

LIGNES DE FLUX DE MASSE



BASE * / 6/87 A 12HTU ECH. 3 EX 111 VENT 1CM

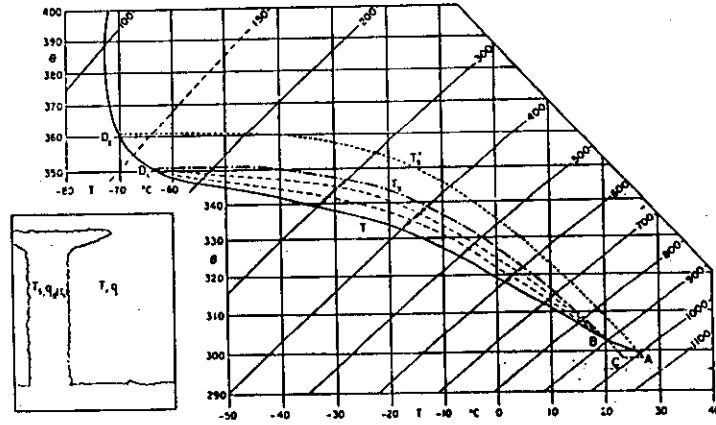


FIG. 1. Distributions of temperature and mixing ratio in the environmental air and inside a deep cumulus cloud.
Based on the mean tropical atmosphere for the hurricane season derived by [redacted]

KUO (65)

53

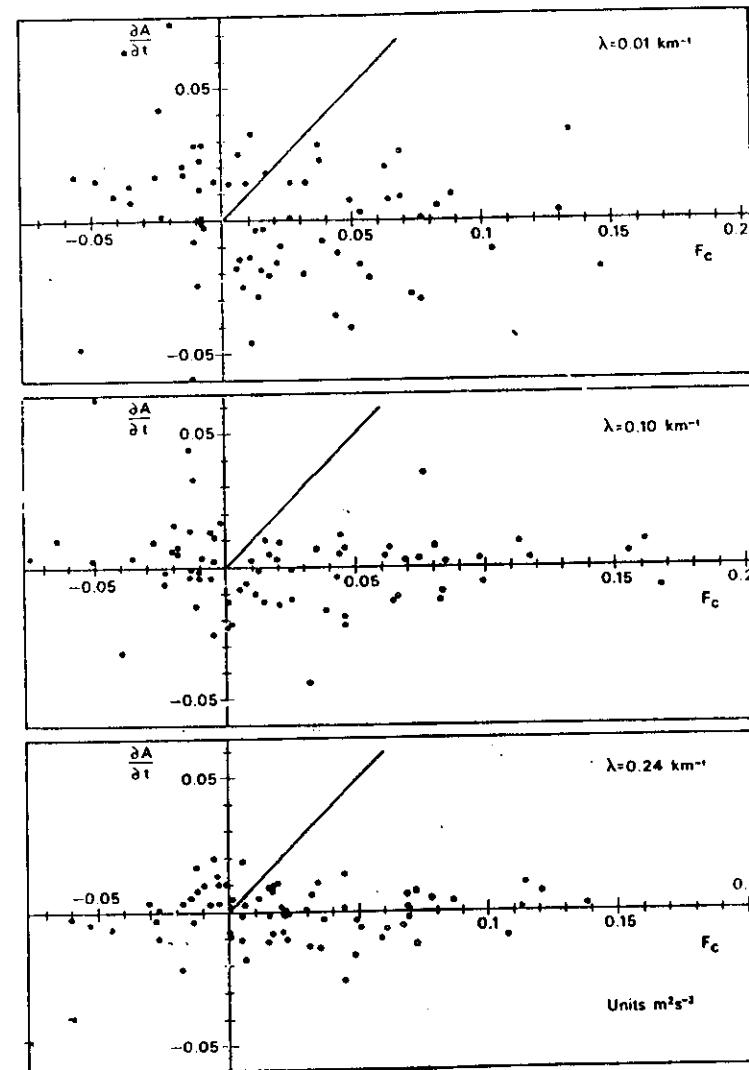


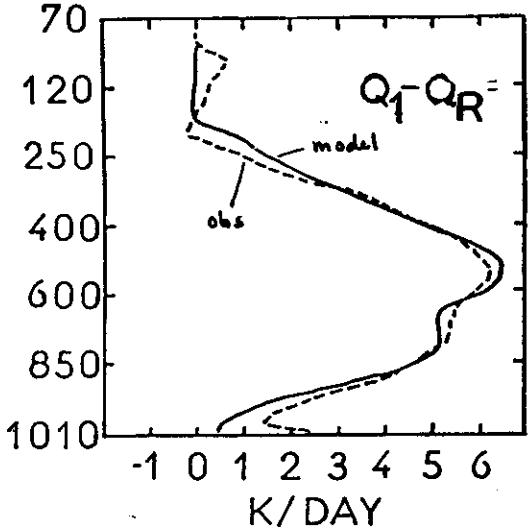
FIG. 6 Large-scale forcing $F_c(\lambda)$ and $dA(\lambda)/dt$ observed over a 3-hour interval (from König, 1982).

DUMESNIL (83)

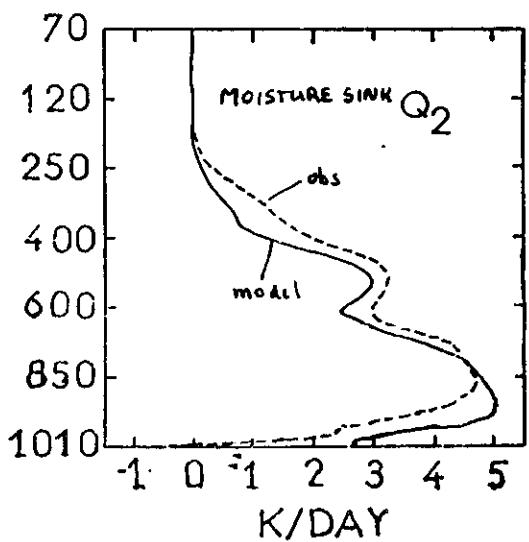
GATE - data

54

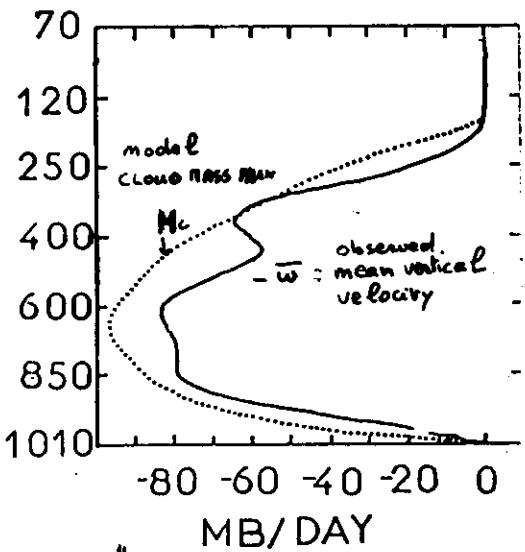
COMPARISON OF THE CLOUD MASS FLUX SCHEME
WITH OBSERVATIONS



HEAT SOURCE



BOUGEAULT (83)



GATE data

" ascent is mainly confined in convective regions which contain updraught and downdraught at different scales"

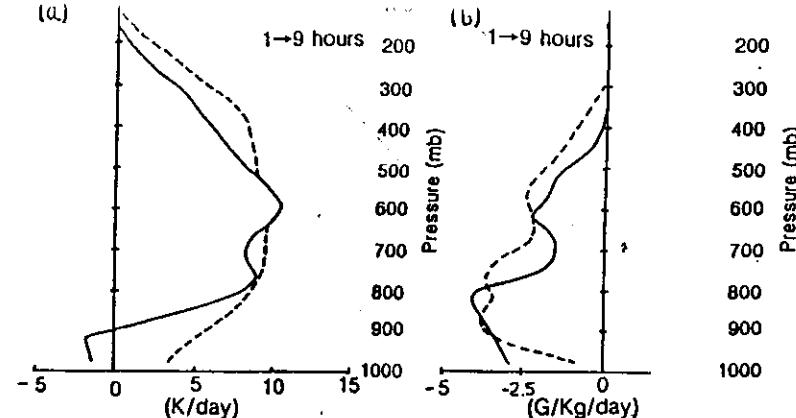
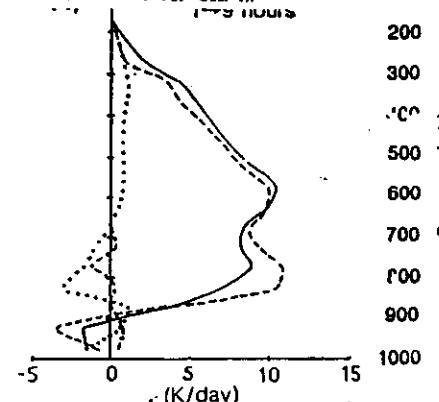


Fig. 4 Vertical distribution of the modelled (—) and observed (---) (a) $Q_{1\text{tot}}$ and (b) $Q_{2\text{tot}}$ for sim A.
— 1-9 hours



GREGORY
and
HILLER (83)

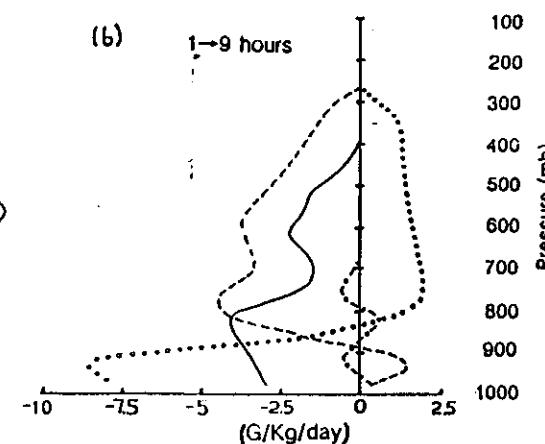


Fig. 5 Contribution of condensational heating/evaporative cooling (---), vertical eddy flux divergence (.....) and turbulent effects (- - -) to (a) $Q_{1\text{tot}}$ and (b) $Q_{2\text{tot}}$ (—) for sim A (contribution of boundary layer forcing not shown).

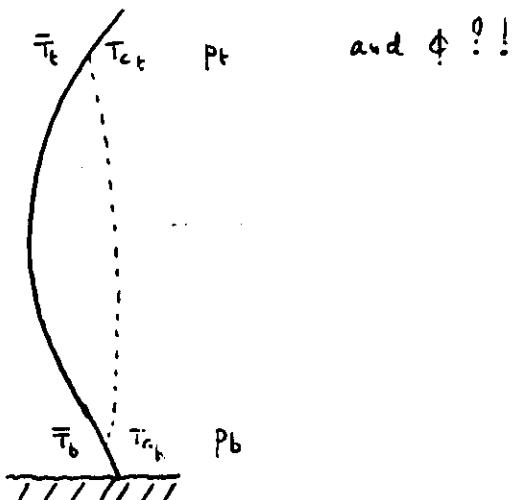
$KUO \neq KUO$

It is never "modelling" but always "parameterization"

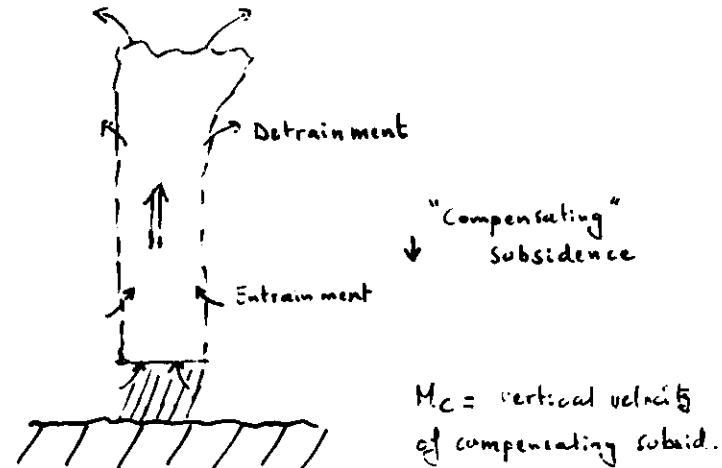
One should only write mass-flux-type schemes

Closure assumption \neq convective scheme

....> there exist mass-flux schemes with a
Kuo closure (Bougeault 85)



Updrafts only
For the sake of
simplicity



Hypothesis

- steady cloud
- negligible area of updraft
- $\tilde{\Psi} = \bar{\Psi}$ ~ "environment"
- "large-scale"
- all detrained liquid water evaporates
- no subcloud evaporation of rainfall

Equations

$$\frac{d\bar{\Psi}}{dt} = - \frac{d}{dp} [M_c(\bar{\Psi} - \Psi_c)]$$

$$\frac{d\bar{q}}{dt} = - \frac{d}{dp} [M_c(\bar{q} - (q_c + l_c))] - g \frac{dp_r}{dp}$$

$$\frac{dM_c}{dp} = D - E$$

$$M_c \frac{d\Psi_c}{dp} = E (\Psi_c - \bar{\Psi})$$

$$M_c \frac{d(q_c + l_c)}{dp} = E ((q_c + l_c) - \bar{q}) + g \frac{dp_r}{dp}$$

Choice of $q_c, l_c = f(\Psi_c, p, \phi)$
Fixes p_r

Ψ = any thermodynamic cloud variable
(h , for example)

Mass Flux \rightarrow Adjustment

$M_c = cte$ and $E \neq 0$ only where $\Psi_c = \bar{\Psi}$
and $q_c + l_c = \bar{q}$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d\bar{\Psi}}{dt} = -M_c \frac{\partial}{\partial p} (\bar{\Psi} - \Psi_c) ; \quad \Psi_c = cte$$

$$\frac{d\bar{q}}{dt} = -M_c \frac{\partial \bar{q}}{\partial p} ; \quad M_c \frac{\partial (q_c + l_c)}{\partial p} = g \frac{\partial r}{\partial p}$$

Mass Flux \rightarrow "KUO" scheme

A bit of rewriting

$$\frac{d\bar{\Psi}}{dt} = -M_c \frac{\partial \bar{\Psi}}{\partial p} + D (\Psi_c - \bar{\Psi})$$

$$\frac{d\bar{q}}{dt} = -M_c \frac{\partial \bar{q}}{\partial p} + D ((q_c + l_c) - \bar{q})$$

$$\frac{dl_c}{dp} = D - E$$

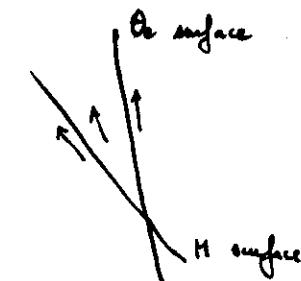
c_{tc}

$M_c = 0$ but $D = E \neq 0 \Rightarrow$ "KUO-65"

SLANT WISE ASPECTS

Want instability $\Leftrightarrow f, f_c < 0$

- buoyancy \rightarrow upright convection
- inertial instability (moisture independent)
- so called "symmetric instability"



Existing schemes :

"Mixing" of θ_c along M surface by modification of the cloud profile (Nordeng)

"Mixing" of M along θ_c surface by modification of the cloud profile (proposal Thorpe-Miller)

Proposal : any possible slope (choice to be optimized) by modification of the large scale "environment" of the ascent.

Advantages : - good link with upright convection; freedom of choice between different techniques

Problems : - this choice will not be easy ($\parallel M \# \theta_c$ between?)
- approximations needed

VITESSE VERTICALE EN COORDONNÉE Z

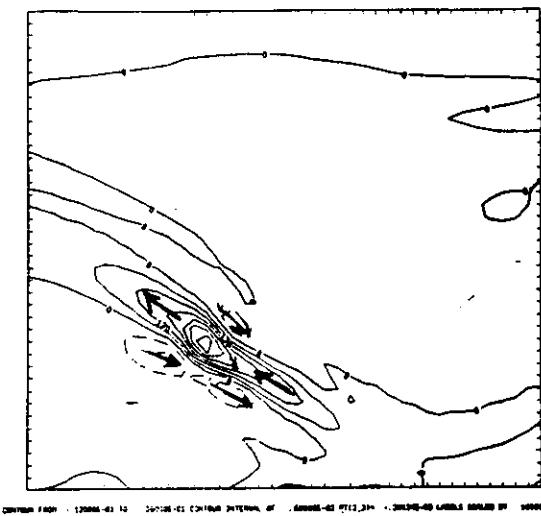


Figure III/23

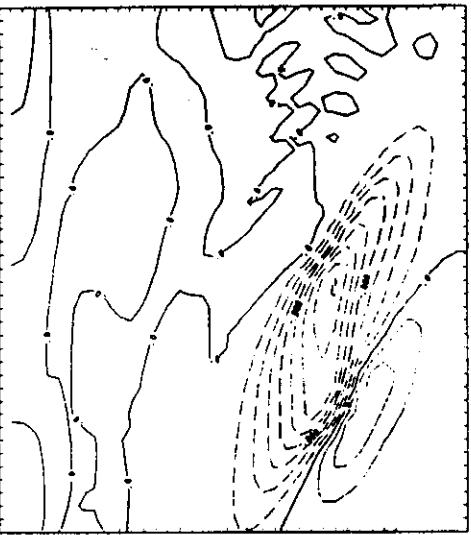
Vitesses verticales après 18 heures d'intégration
de la situation frontale 1.

Perturbation initiale à 105 %.

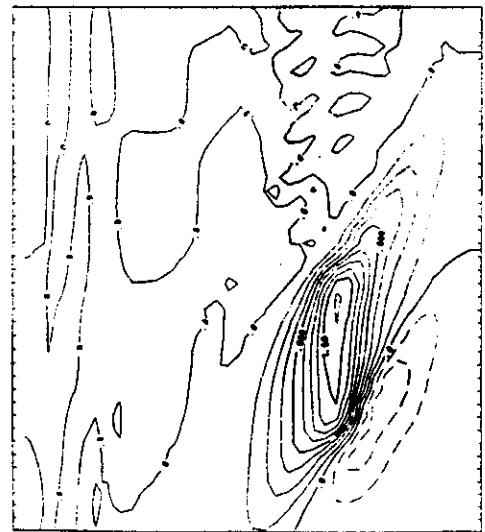
Troposphère saturée.

61-

-129-



-10 Q₁

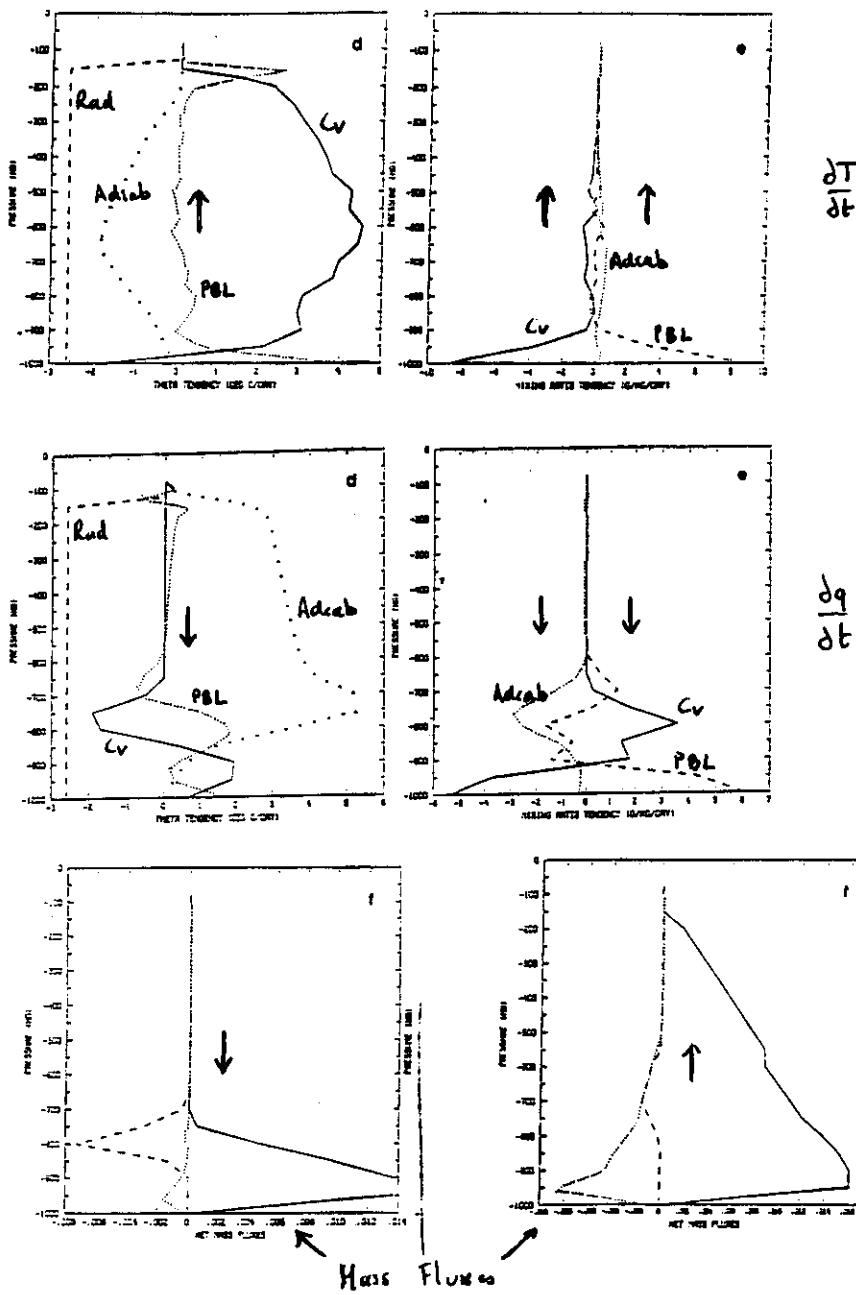


10 Q₂

Figure II/1

Q_1 : source de chaleur ; $Q_1 = c \frac{d\bar{s}}{dt}$
 Q_2 : puit d'humidité ; $-Q_2 = eL \frac{d\bar{q}}{dt}$
Après 18 heures d'intégration à partir de la situation frontale 1
Unité : K / h

(62)



32