

Ruscher

- ① westerly in troposphere (increase with height) and easterly in stratosphere → 3 questions.
- ② nuclear winter, global warming, acid rain, and the ozone hole → 2 questions
- ③ Jet stream dynamics. → 2 questions
- ④ QG dynamics → 5 questions
- ⑤ comma-shaped cloud (CG)
- ⑥ Vertical motion → 3 questions (including water vapor imagery method)
- ⑦ Petterssen development eq. → 3 questions.
- ⑧ Golder Tallahassee : PBL
- ⑨ InCrometer (Air quality) ; PBL
- ⑩ atmospheric chemistry studies given FSU/ISM. : PBL
- ⑪ baroclinic/barotropic instability & atmosphere.
- ⑫ K.E. eq & Rf#
- ⑬ Basic PBL question.

westerly in troposphere + easterly in stratosphere

Synoptic (4501)

MET? : Ruscher (1 hour, 1994) *

• Discuss, starting with hydrostatics, the gas law, and Newton's second law, why there are westerlies in the middle latitudes in the troposphere. Also, discuss why the speed of the westerly current increases with height in the troposphere. Also, why do we find easterlies in the stratosphere?

Sal)

Start with

Hydrostatic eq.

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial z} = -\rho g \Rightarrow \frac{\partial p}{\partial p} = -\alpha \text{ in } P \text{ coordinate (} \alpha = \rho / z \text{)}$$

Eq of state $\rightarrow p = \rho R T$

Newton's second law

$$\vec{F} = m \vec{a}$$

\rightarrow Applied to rotating spherical coordinate system of earth we obtain u, v, w momentum eqs. The u + v momentum eqs are

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + w \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} - f v = -\frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + F_x$$

$$\frac{\partial v}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + w \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} + f u = -\frac{\partial p}{\partial y} + F_y$$

In these eqs we have neglected the curvilinear terms and those controls terms involving ω and ω^2 .

Scale analysis shows that the large, synoptic scale motions to be in

QGF balance. We define the geostrophic wind χ_g as (in p coord.)

$$\chi_g = \frac{1}{f} \nabla p \times \hat{k}$$

Of interest is the vertical shear in χ_g

$$\frac{\partial \chi_g}{\partial p} = \frac{1}{f} \nabla p \times \nabla p \frac{\partial p}{\partial p} = \frac{1}{f} \nabla p \times \nabla p = -RT \frac{\partial}{\partial p} \left(\frac{1}{RT} \right) = -RT$$

In a hydrostatic atmosphere $\frac{\partial p}{\partial p} = -\frac{1}{RT}$ so since synoptic scale motions are largely hydrostatic we make this substitution and obtain

$$\frac{\partial \chi_g}{\partial p} = -\frac{1}{R} \nabla k \times \nabla p T$$

In the troposphere we find max zonally averaged temperatures in the tropics and cooler temperature poleward. The meridional temperature gradient is larger (in absolute magnitude) in the lower hemisphere. To a first order approx. the zonally averaged wind and temperature satisfy the thermal wind relation. Thus in the vertical the strongest shear in χ_g occurs at the level where $|\frac{\partial T}{\partial y}|$ is largest. This tends to be near the tropopause. With frontward drag at the pole and decreasing upward we expect the max $|\chi_g|$ in the upper troposphere. Consequence of eddy flux of eddy momentum in latitudinal waves (typical of mid-lats) supply westerly momentum which maintains a zonal jet in the free mean.

In the stratosphere there is a layer of heating due to O_3 and (Solen) O_3 absorbs incoming UV radiation. The reversal of the zonal mean temperature gradient in the vertical from cooling in the upper troposphere to warming in the stratosphere leads to a reversal in direction of the vertical shear in the geostrophic wind. Thus easterly

Jets are found in the stratosphere in regions where $\frac{\partial T}{\partial y} > 0$ (in contrast to NH.

the upper troposphere where $\frac{\partial T}{\partial y} < 0$)

Bad response;

→ Better response;

Consider the zonal component of the thermal wind relation $\frac{\partial \chi_g}{\partial p} = -\frac{1}{R} \nabla k \times \nabla p T$

$\frac{\partial u_g}{\partial p} = \frac{1}{R \alpha T} \frac{\partial p}{\partial y}$ → Vertical speed shear in u_g depends on meridional temperature gradient and Coriolis. Note that f changes sign between the hemispheres.

In the troposphere we have cold poles and a warm equator.

Thus $\frac{\partial u_g}{\partial p} > 0$ in N.H but $\frac{\partial u_g}{\partial p} > 0$ in S.H (take positive y in direction of North pole and so

$$\frac{\partial u_g}{\partial p} = \frac{1}{R \alpha T} \frac{\partial p}{\partial y} = \frac{1}{R} \frac{\partial \ln p}{\partial y} < 0 \text{ in N.H and } \frac{\partial u_g}{\partial p} = \frac{1}{R} \frac{\partial \ln p}{\partial y} < 0 \text{ (due to sign change in } f \text{)}$$

In both hemispheres the shear profiles for u_g is of the same sign. With $\frac{\partial \ln p}{\partial y} < 0$ we have $u_g \downarrow$ as $p \downarrow$ or max westerly winds in the upper troposphere. This is what we observe in long term means \Rightarrow westerly jets in the upper troposphere of both hemispheres.

In the stratosphere (above the influence of the troposphere) we find a temperature gradient predominantly directed from the cold winter pole to the warm summer pole \rightarrow go to same or \pm ns

There is no equatorial max in temperatures. The temp max is at the summer pole. Consider the NH winter. Then in the stratosphere

$$\frac{\partial u_g}{\partial p} > 0 \text{ in NH and } \frac{\partial u_g}{\partial p} < 0 \text{ in SH}$$

$$\frac{\partial u_g}{\partial p} = \frac{1}{R \alpha T} \frac{\partial p}{\partial y} > 0 \text{ in NH but since } f \text{ changes sign to } f < 0 \text{ in SH}$$

so we expect a westerly jet in the winter hemisphere and an easterly jet in the summer hemisphere. This is, indeed, what we observe in the upper stratosphere

we expect a westerly jet \uparrow a westerly jet \uparrow $u_g \downarrow$ as $p \downarrow$ or $u_g \uparrow$ as $p \downarrow$ \uparrow an easterly jet \uparrow $u_g \downarrow$ as $p \downarrow$ or $u_g \uparrow$ as $p \downarrow$ \uparrow an easterly jet

Westerly in troposphere

Synoptic (4501)

MET? : Ruscher (? , 1995)

- Using hydrostatics and basic arguments related to Newton's Laws of Motion, explain why winds aloft are westerly in the troposphere and why these westerly wind speeds increases with height in the troposphere. Include diagrams/sketches in your response.

Sol. for the previous + this question

Hydrostatic eq $\frac{\partial p}{\partial z} = -\rho g$ (as $dp = g dz$)

Eq. of state (ideal gas law) : $p = \rho R T$ or $\rho = \frac{p}{R T}$

Newton's 2nd law : $\vec{F} = m \vec{a}$: when applied in spherical coords \rightarrow eq of motion

$$\frac{du}{dt} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + w \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} = f_u - \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} + F_x$$

Scaled eqs of motion

$$\frac{dv}{dt} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + w \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} = f_v - \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} + F_y$$

(neglected vert. accel term)

$$\frac{dw}{dt} = \frac{\partial w}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} + w \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} = f_w - \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z} + F_z$$

Coriolis force, PGF, friction

Scale analysis for mid-latitude synoptic systems \rightarrow geostrophic approx

(balance between Co. force + PGF) $\rightarrow X_g = \frac{1}{f} k \times \nabla_p \phi$, a good approx

for the wind here.

What about the vertical shear? Differentiate X_g w.r.t p (pressure coord)

$\rightarrow \frac{\partial X_g}{\partial p} = \frac{1}{f} k \times \nabla_p \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial p} = \frac{1}{f} k \times \nabla_p (-\alpha)$ by hydrostatic eq.

$\rightarrow \frac{\partial X_g}{\partial p} = -\frac{1}{f} \frac{g}{R T}$ by ideal gas law

$\rightarrow \frac{\partial X_g}{\partial p} = -\frac{1}{f} k \times \nabla_p T$: Thermal wind eq.

The E-W component of this eq $\rightarrow \frac{\partial u}{\partial p} = + \frac{f}{R} \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \right)_p$

So the vertical shear of the zonal wind is related to the Coriolis and the meridional temp gradient. We observe in the troposphere that the poles are cold w.r.t the tropics. So for our coord. system where y increases from south \rightarrow north, we get $\frac{\partial T}{\partial y} < 0$ in N.H. and $\frac{\partial T}{\partial y} > 0$ in S.H. As $f > 0$ in N.H. and $f < 0$ in S.H., we have vertical wind shear of u as $\frac{\partial u}{\partial p} < 0$ in both N.H. + S.H. As u decreases as p increases $\rightarrow u$ increases with height in both N.H. + S.H. mid lats!

As u (defined positive for westerly) is small near sfc due to friction, we see wind is westerly and increases with height for mid-lat troposphere.

So what about the stratosphere? In the upper stratosphere (above the influence of tropopause) at $P \sim 1 \text{mb}$ ($Z = 40-50 \text{km}$), we observe a temp. gradient directed from cold winter pole to warm summer pole, where there is no equatorial max as in the troposphere. Hence $\frac{\partial T}{\partial y} < 0$ ($\frac{\partial T}{\partial y} > 0$) in the N.H. summer (N.H. winter) for both hemispheres. Again

as $f > 0$ for N.H. + $f < 0$ for S.H., then you have $\frac{\partial u}{\partial p} < 0$ for N.H. summer, and $\frac{\partial u}{\partial p} < 0$ for N.H. winter.

Assuming winds are light in this upper strath.(B.C.) and interestingly down,

\rightarrow N (westerly) max in the stratosphere in NH winter, and S (easterly) max in the stratosphere for NH summer

3

So, we expect an easterly max in the summer hemisphere, and a westerly max in the winter hemisphere for the stratosphere, which is observed!

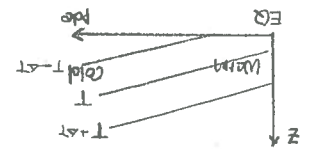
Westerly in troposphere & easterly in stratosphere

MET? (General question): Ruscher (1 hour, 1997) *

- Using arguments related to the general circulation of the atmosphere, hydrostatics, and radiation, explain (a) why we observe westerly winds in the middle latitudes of the troposphere; (b) why the westerlies increase with height; and (c) why we observe stratospheric easterlies.

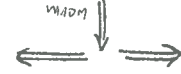
501

(a) In the troposphere, especially in the lower level, the atmosphere temperature possesses such distribution in general that it is higher in tropics and lower in high latitudes.



Such distribution is continuously maintained by radiation cooling in the high latitude and by heating in the tropics from solar radiation, convection and condensation.

The warm air in the tropics will become lighter because by $p = \rho RT$, when T , the density ρ , then the warm air must rise. At some altitude, the air must flow toward the poles by mass continuity requirement. This altitude is observed in upper level of troposphere.



When the flow moves toward the pole, the Coriolis effect will change its direction veer to the east (westerly).

By $\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} \approx f u$

Finally the wind will become totally westerly at middle latitudes. The air will then pile there and start move further north ($U \rightarrow 0$) and goes down to the ground. Thus, the westerly winds in the middle latitude are formed.

For synoptic scale motion, the atmosphere is quasi-geostrophic and quasi-hydrostatic. By the latter property, we can use p-coordinate system to describe the motion. So we have

$f u \approx -\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y}$ (1)

with accuracy of $O(R_0)$, R_0 : Rossby #

ϕ : geopotential

u : westerly

f : Coriolis parameter

Differentiate (1) with respect to p , we have

$\frac{\partial u}{\partial p} = -\frac{f}{\rho} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial p} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y}$ (2)

The hydrostatic gives

$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial p} = -\beta$ (3)

Substitute the state eq

$p = \rho R T$ (4)

4

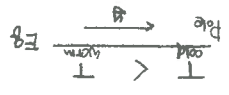
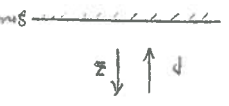
into (3) and then plug in result into (2), we have

$\frac{\partial u}{\partial p} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial p} \left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} \right) = \frac{f \beta}{2} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y}$ (5)

$\therefore \frac{\partial u}{\partial p} < 0$ at mid-latitude in the troposphere

$\therefore \frac{\partial u}{\partial p} > 0 \Rightarrow \frac{\partial z}{\partial p} > 0$

So the westerly increase with height.



(c) When it comes to the stratosphere, it is observed that $\frac{\partial T}{\partial z} > 0$ in the middle latitudes in some seasons. Thus $\frac{\partial u}{\partial p} > 0 \Rightarrow \frac{\partial z}{\partial p} < 0$. So that at some altitude in the stratosphere we may expect $u < 0$, i.e. easterlies.

MET? : Ruscher (1 hour, 1994)

• Discuss each of the following controversial ideas as related to the notion of anthropogenic factors influencing atmospheric changes. You do not have to present your own point of view, rather, I am interested here in seeing what the scientific arguments are related to each topic:

- a) nuclear winter
- b) global warming *
- c) acid rain
- d) the ozone hole *

2) Nuclear winter

Numerous studies indicate that a nuclear war involving hundreds or thousands of nuclear detonations would drastically modify the earth's climate. Researchers assume that a nuclear war would cause an enormous pall of thick, sooty smoke from massive fires that would burn for days, even weeks, following an attack. The smoke would drift higher into the atmosphere where it would be caught in the upper level westerlies and circle the midlatitude. Unlike soil dust which mainly scatters and reflects incoming solar radiation, soot particles readily absorb sunlight. Hence for several weeks after the war sunlight would virtually be unable to penetrate the smoke layer bringing darkness or, at least, twilight at midday.

Such a reduction in solar energy would cause surface air temperatures over land masses to drop below freezing, even during the summer, resulting in extensive damage to plants and crops and the death of millions of people. The dark, cold, and gloomy conditions that would be brought on by nuclear war is often referred to as nuclear winter.

As the lower troposphere cools, the solar energy absorbed by the smoke particles in the upper troposphere would cause this region to warm. The end result would be a strong, stable temperature inversion extending from the site up into the higher atmosphere. A strong inversion would lead to a number of adverse effects such as suppressing convection, altering precipitation processes, and causing major changes in the general wind patterns.

The heating of the upper part of the smoke cloud would cause it to rise upward into the stratosphere where it would then drift equatorward. Thus, about 1/3 of the smoke would remain in the atmosphere for a year or longer. The other 2/3 would be washed out in a month or two by precipitation. This smoke lofting, combined with persisting sea ice formed by the initial cooling would produce climatic change that would remain for several years.

Oxides of nitrogen produced by the nuclear explosions would be lofted into the stratosphere with the smoke where they would destroy ozone. The reduction of O₃ would allow excessive UV radiation to reach the site where it would have an adverse effect on plants, animals and humans.

Most research on this topic agrees with the above outcome. Observations of forest fires show a lowering of temps under the smoke. A three-

Year study (SCOPE) conducted by international scientists details the climatic, environmental, and agricultural effects of nuclear war.

b) Global warming

CO₂ is a trace gas which strongly absorbs LW radiation emitted by the earth and so plays a major role in warming the lower atmosphere. Similarly other trace gases such as methane (CH₄), nitrous oxide (N₂O), and CFCs all readily absorb IR radiation. The ability of these trace gases to absorb IR radiation and their role in warming the earth's atmosphere has led to the popular name "greenhouse" gases when referring to these chemical species. To be precise the way in which these gases lead to warming the atmosphere is not the same mechanism which is at work in a greenhouse. Nevertheless the name persists. Over the past century the concentration of these gases has been steadily increasing. This coupled with their ability to absorb outgoing terrestrial radiation has led to much discussion/research about warming of the global atmosphere. Observations suggest that the surface of the earth has warmed by about 1/2 °C since the start of this century. However there are uncertainties in the temperature record.

- movement of observing stations.
- new instruments & observing techniques.
- increased urbanization made in urban areas are anomalous.

right due to the urban heat island effect.

Is this warming due to anthropogenic causes? Is this warming merely a reflection of natural variability in the earth climate system? Other data records (precip, satellite measurements) show no significant trend on the data over the recent past. This uncertainty is reflected in modeling studies.

Oceans & clouds appear to have an important role in the earth climate system. Our understanding of the complex interactions between the ocean & atmosphere number definitive answers to questions of global warming. Oceans have a huge heat capacity and thus they may slow the rate of any possible warming, cooling of the global atmosphere. The oceans are huge storehouses for CO₂. Phytoplankton extract CO₂ from the atmosphere during photosynthesis and store some of it below the ocean site when they die.

→ a warmer earth might imply more phytoplankton ∴ reduce CO₂

→ a warmer ocean might increase atmospheric CO₂ since a warmer ocean can't hold as much CO₂ as a cooler one.

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has affected 1/3 of total trees, chemical erosion of man-made structures (monuments). While precip is naturally acidic (pH ~ 5.6) acid precip can have pH as low as 1.7 (LA region smog). Coal fired power plants in upper midwest US injects large amount of SO₂ into atmosphere → acid precip. downstream.

1) Ozone hole

Observations from satellites and balloon-borne instruments indicate that since the late 1970s, O₃ concentrations have diminished each year during Sep. Oct in the Antarctic stratosphere. O₃ diminished by as much as 40% in 1984 and shrink to the point of almost total depletion in certain regions of the lower stratosphere in 1987 and 1989. This decrease in stratospheric O₃ over Antarctica is known as the O₃ hole. In years of severe depletion (e.g. 1987, 1989) the O₃ hole covers almost twice the area of Antarctica. Data from high flying research aircraft showed that during 1987 significant amounts of O₃ were being destroyed outside the main hole. This result suggested that the area of O₃ loss could be much larger than thought. The same research showed O₃ destruction begins earlier in the year than expected.

Field experiments in 1986 & 1987 (NOZE-1, -2) gathered important data which help scientists understand aspects of the O₃ hole. The stratosphere above Antarctica has one of the world's highest O₃ concentrations. Most of this O₃ forms over the tropics and is brought to the Antarctic by stratospheric winds. During Sept & October (SH spring) a belt of stratospheric winds called the polar vortex encircles the Antarctic region near 60°S. These winds essentially isolate the cold stratospheric air from the warmer, mid-lat air. During the long dark Antarctic winter temperature inside the vortex can drop to -85°C. At these temps what little moisture there is in the air sublimates to form ice clouds → polar stratospheric clouds. These ice clouds are crucial in facilitating chemical reactions among N₂, H₂, and O₂ atoms. ⇒ the end result being destruction of O₃.

Data from NOZE-1, -2 point to the chlorine in CFCs as the main cause for the O₃ hole. But chemistry alone does not explain the O₃ hole. For example it does not explain the early decline in O₃ readings just as the O₃ hole is forming. Dynamics, not chemistry, may play a role here ⇒ mixing of stratospheric O₃ - rich air with tropospheric O₃ - poor air from below. White airborne instruments indicated the formation a small O₃ hole over the polar arctic during 1989, careful analysis of satellite data showed no O₃ hole. Apparently several factors inhibit massive O₃ loss in the Arctic. The stratospheric circulation over the Arctic differs from that over Antarctica. The Arctic stratosphere is too warm for widespread development of clouds that help activate Cl molecules (for destruction of O₃)

properties. → high thin cirroform clouds promote a net warming. → low stratiform clouds promote a net cooling. ERBE data show global cloudiness has a net cooling effect → possibly increased cloudiness brought on by global warming may experience negative feedback from increased cloudiness. Increased deep convection in a warmer atmosphere could actually lead to a warmer & drier atmosphere. The removal of atmospheric water vapor by deep convection could have a negative feedback on global warming (water vapor is a significant greenhouse gas).

Possible consequences of global warming include the following:
 • Weakening of and shift in position of jet stream and other global wind patterns. Due to a warmer surface, evaporations increases ⇒ greater worldwide precip but since land patterns have change the distribution of precip. changes. ⇒ could have significant impact on agriculture
 • Rise in oceanic sea levels → coastal flooding, contamination of coastal freshwater supply (salt water intrusion)
 • Response of warming in poles is very complex. Warming could actually lead to an increase in snow/ice pack due to more snowfall
 • Impact on plant & animal species
 → possibly more plant growth in warmer, moist climate but other dry weather-species could die. Some animals might become extinct; others thrive.
 • Impact on upper atmosphere → warming in troposphere coupled with cooling in stratosphere (this is just theory - one of many)
 → cooler stratosphere would reduce rate of O₃ destruction.

2) Acid rain

Air pollution emitted from industrial areas, especially products of combustion such as oxides of sulfur and nitrogen, can be carried many km down wind. Either these particles and gases slowly settle to the ground in the dry form (dry deposition) or they are removed from the air during the formation of cloud particles and then carried to the ground in rain & snow (wet deposition). Acid rain and acid precip. are common terms used to describe wet deposition. Acid deposition encompasses both dry and wet acidic substances.

Emissions of sulfur dioxide (SO₂) and oxides of nitrogen settle on the local landscape where they transform into acids as they interact with water, especially during the formation of dew & frost. The remaining airborne particles may transform into tiny sulfate drops of sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄) and nitric acid (HNO₃) during a complex series of chemical reactions involving sunlight, water-vapor, and other gases. These acid particles may then slowly fall to earth, or they may adhere to cloud droplets or to fog droplets producing acid fog. They may even act as nuclei on which the cloud droplets begin to grow. When precipitation occurs in the cloud, it carries the acids to the ground. Because of this, precipitation is becoming extremely acidic in many parts of the world, especially downwind (up to 600 km) of major industrial areas. (Note that acid precip can form naturally ⇒ exposed beds of coal in northern Canada which catch fire due to natural causes but vast amount of SO₂ into air). Acid precip can have a negative impact on plant & animal life when the soil/water is unable to neutralize the acid → "dead" lakes in eastern Canada & upper New England states. ③ Blight in trees of Germany

MET? : Ruscher (?)

General

• Two very important issues facing humankind today are commonly referred to as "global warming" and "the ozone hole". The popular press often confuses these issues or simply states the principles involved incorrectly. Based upon your knowledge of basic meteorology and atmospheric radiation, discuss these two issues separately. In particular, discuss how global warming might lead to sea level change. Also discuss the the proposed relationship between the ozone hole and skin cancer. Feel free to include sketches in your response.

look of the previous answers?

Solution for the previous question

(a) Nuclear winter

Basically, the process proceeds as follows:

① Massive nuclear exchange → ② lots of debris lifted high in the atmosphere

as well as lots of fires → ③ soot + smoke, which is also lifted into upper

atmosphere → ④ heavy smoke/soot in upper atmosphere → ⑤ absorption

of solar radiation → ⑥ drastic drop in surface temperatures, below freezing

even in summer (hence, the name, "nuclear winter") → ⑦ warm upper

atmosphere + cold surface → deep inversion → ⑧ suppressed convection +

major changes in global circulation. → ⑨ soot readily stratophere would

remain there for a long time (~year), while that in the troposphere would

eventually fall out due to rain → ⑩ sea ice would expand due to melted

cooling. This along with soot in stratosphere → ⑪ climatic changes which

could persist for years.

(b) Global warming

Global temp. records have shown an increase in average global temps during this

century. However, is this balance as ① observing stations have moved (local effects),

② New instruments and observing techniques (data consistency?) ③ Increased

urbanization near many observing sites → warm bias due to heat island?

So, is this anthropogenic? Those who say yes point to increase in greenhouse

gases (CFCs, CH₄, H₂O, and especially CO₂). These gases are almost

transparent to VIS solar radiation but highly absorb IR, which contributes

to heating of atmosphere. Increase in these gases is almost certainly

anthropogenic, but will it necessarily lead to long-term warming? Skeptics

have many reasons to say "who knows?"

① Recent warming preceded by "little ice age", so this period of warming

could simply be the climatic response

② Earth/Ocean feedback not totally understood. Warmer oceans could

→ more plankton → more CO₂ absorption → less greenhouse gas

→ cooling

③ Role of clouds not properly handled. Warmer temps → more clouds →

increased albedo → net cooling. This feedback not dealt with in

most models

(c) Acid Rain

Acid pollution from industry (especially, combustion products, such as

sulfur oxides + nitrogen oxides) are carried downward. They either simply

settle out (dry deposition), or they are carried down by precip. (wet

deposition). Interaction with H₂O, along with a complex series of chemical

reactions, can produce sulfuric (H₂SO₄) and nitric (HNO₃) acids. → "acid rain"

Areas along the site not capable of naturally neutralizing this acid can experience

build-up of acidity. This can lead to "dead" bodies of water, as well as damage

to vegetation + soil

(d) Ozone hole

Observations in the 70's and 80's discovered a depletion of O₃ over Antarctica

in SH winter. The area of depletion covers an area over the pole → the named

"O₃ hole". During SH summer, this area has the highest concentration of O₃.

O₃ formed in the tropics is transported there by stratospheric winds. However,

in winter, a belt of winds called "polar vortex" essentially isolates the cold

stratosphere over the south pole, during which time temps can drop to -85°C.

With little moisture there to sublimate → ice clouds, or polar stratospheric

clouds. These clouds are crucial in facilitating chemical interactions among

N₂, H₂, and O₃ (anthropogenic in nature) → destruction of O₃. Even though

presence of chlorine has been linked to anthropogenic factors, the nature +

location of the hole is dynamic in nature. For instance, there is no O₃ hole

in the tropics, mid-lats or even at the North Pole. The dynamics are different

in the arctic - also its too warm → widespread dev. of polar stratospheric clouds;

deemed essential for O₃ depletion. Note: O₃ is destroyed all the time

However, it is also produced as well. The concern is the artificial presence of

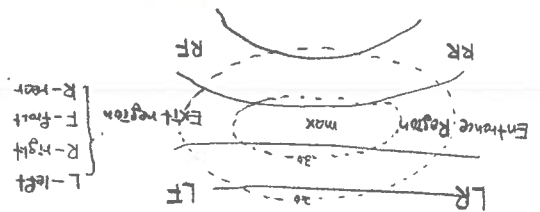
chlorine (from CFCs) which if unchecked could upset this balance.

Jet stream dynamics

• Discuss how jet stream dynamics can play a role in intensifying and/or weakening surface cyclones. In particular, discuss the importance of the placement of a jet streak with respect to the surface cyclone and its development. Include a discussion of front- and rear-quadrant jet dynamics and secondary horizontal circulations and associated induced vertical motion patterns. Include sketches or diagrams in your response.

MET? (General synoptic question): Ruscher (30 minutes) *

An isobaric maximum within a jet is called a jet streak. A jet streak normally propagates at a speed slower than the speed of the wind. Thus air parcels accelerate just upstream from the jet streak in the entrance region and decelerate just downstream from the jet streak in the exit region.



• Formation

We define the jet stream functions (assuming jet axes along x axis)

Jet stream $\rightarrow J = -f_0 \nabla^2 \psi - \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} - \nabla^2 \psi : V^2 = \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial y^2}$

Embedded jet $\rightarrow J_s = -f_0 \nabla^2 \psi - 2\beta \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} - \nabla^2 \psi : V^2 = \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2}$

$\beta = \frac{df}{dy} \rightarrow$ beta effect

$F_x \rightarrow$ friction in zonal direction

$V_a = f(V - V_g) \equiv$ ageostrophic meridional wind speed

1st term

The jet stream function is positive whenever there is a local maximum in the cross jet component of the ageostrophic wind (recall $-f_0 \nabla^2 \psi$ is perpendicular to the parcel acceleration in the N.H.

\rightarrow consider $\chi_a = \frac{f}{k} \chi \times (\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} + \chi_a \cdot \nabla) \chi_g$
 χ_a is perpendicular to $\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}$

Local parcel accelerations ($|\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}| > 0$) lead to local wind maxima. If $-f_0 \nabla^2 \psi$ is positive somewhere, then by continuity there must be at least one branch of V_a in the opposite direction above or below.

Thus vertical circulations are associated with the formation of jet and jet streaks. 2nd term \rightarrow usually negligible

3rd term $\rightarrow J \text{ or } F_x$

Important for jets which form in the boundary layer such as the low level jet. Explanations for the IJ include the following

• IJ behaves like an inertial oscillation driven by the diurnal oscillation of friction.

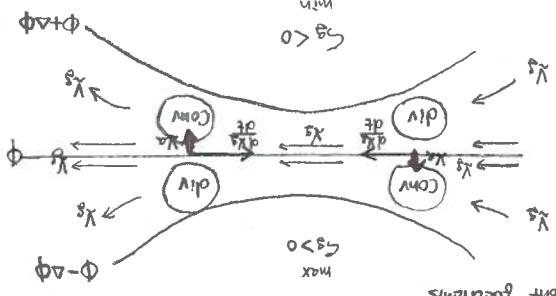
max cross isobar flow occurs during the day

and from sfc layer and so frictional drag

- IJ responds to diurnal variations in sfc temperature via thermal wind considerations given $\Delta T \neq 0$
- For Great Plains IJ, invoke western boundary interaction ideas used to explain Gulf Stream
- Vertical motion
- Recall AG momentum eq on an f plane

$\chi_a = \frac{f_0}{k} \chi \times \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} \chi_g$

As an air parcel enters a jet streak $\chi_g \uparrow$. Therefore, as the parcel accelerates an ageostrophic wind blows perpendicular to the acceleration vector (left in NH) and toward lower heights. As the parcel exits the jet streak, $\chi_g \downarrow$ and an ageostrophic wind blows toward greater height. In this discussion we assume that accelerations due to curvature are small \Rightarrow a straight jet streak. As a result of these cross jet ageostrophic motions we have convergence in the left rear + right front quadrants, divergence in the right rear + left front quadrants

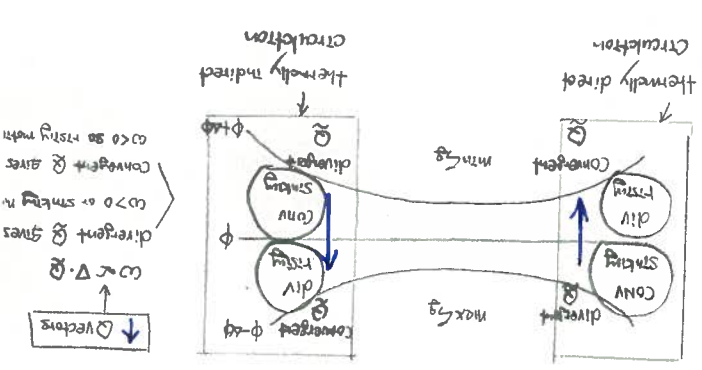


We find the same result if we apply the AG vort eq. $\frac{D^2 \psi}{Dt^2} (\zeta + f) = -f_0 (\nabla \cdot \chi)$ to the above (and assume constant f)

If the jet is near the tropopause and we apply the thermal tropopause BC on ω , namely $\omega = 0$, then according to continuity

$\nabla \cdot \chi = -\frac{\partial \omega}{\partial p} \rightarrow$ Conv. $\Leftrightarrow \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial p} < 0$ or $\omega \downarrow$ with $p \downarrow$
 \rightarrow div $\Leftrightarrow \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial p} > 0$ or $\omega \uparrow$ with $p \downarrow$

there must be rising motion below regions of divergence (sinking motion \rightarrow convergence)



$\omega < 0$ as rising motion
 Convergent \rightarrow gives
 $\omega > 0$ as sinking motion
 Divergent \rightarrow gives
 $\omega < 0$ as sinking motion
 $\omega > 0$ as rising motion

Propagation

The rate and direction of a jet streak can be determined from the field of height tendencies. Use the QG tendency eq

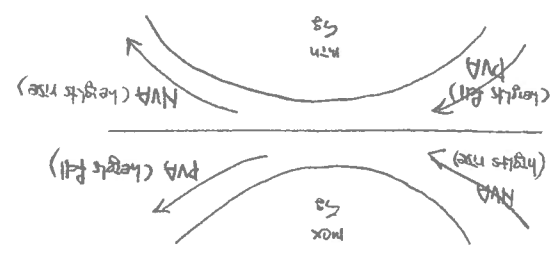
$$\left(\Delta z + \frac{\partial z}{\partial t} \right) \chi = -f_0 \chi_s \cdot \Delta(C_1 + f) - \frac{\partial f_0}{\partial t} \chi - \frac{\partial f_0}{\partial x} \Delta(-\frac{\partial z}{\partial x})$$

and neglect the temperature advection. We see

$\chi > 0$ where we have NVA
 $\chi < 0$ where we have PVA

with regards to the jet streak we have NVA in the LR & RF quadrants ($\chi > 0$), PVA in the LF & RR quadrants ($\chi < 0$)

Assume advection of planetary vorticity is negligible



Based on the above, it follows that the jet streak will propagate downstream from west to east (left to right). Betterment formula for the speed of a trough or ridge can be used to compute the actual QG speed since a jet streak is often defined by the junction of a trough and a ridge

Coupling Jet streak to wind below

Underneath the rising branch of the transverse vertical circulation, at the strc, there is convergence. Beneath the sinking branch is strc divergence. According to the vorticity eq, convergence increases cyclonic vorticity whereas divergence leads to more anticyclonic vorticity ($\frac{d\zeta}{dt} = -(C_1 + f) \cdot \nabla \cdot \vec{V} + \text{rising/sinking term}$). Via continuity of mass, strc pressure falls in the region of rising motion (lower div), increasing cyclonic vorticity. In the region of increasing anticyclonic vorticity, surface pressure rises. Between the strc pressure couplet will develop an ageostrophic flow from high to low pressure. This flow will be in the opposite direction of that at jet level. In the exit region of a jet streak in westerly flow the strc induced ageostrophic flow is toward the pole while that aloft is toward the equator.

the poleward surface flow transports heat north and thereby reduces equator.

the poleward surface flow transports heat north and thereby reduces the meridional temperature gradient \rightarrow this weakens the jet

\rightarrow the convergence of eddy flux of westerly momentum enhances the westerly jet together the ageostrophic circulation associated with the jet tend to partly balance the influence of the transient eddy fluxes in order to maintain the mean thermal and momentum balance.

Low level warm air advection north destabilizes the atmosphere. Furthermore, if there is a supply of moisture equatorward of the jet, poleward advection of this moisture increases potential instability. The intersection of an upper level jet and low level warm/moisture ridge is a preferred location for severe weather

See Holton, 3rd ed., p 349, Fig 10.16

Sol)

The evolution and effects of jet streak circulations before and during explosive cyclogenesis

- jet stream thinking -

Uccellini: The upper-tropospheric processes that lead to indirect ageostrophic circulations and low-level jets affecting the east coast cyclogenesis process.

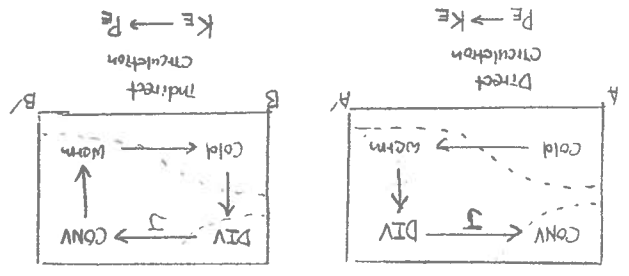
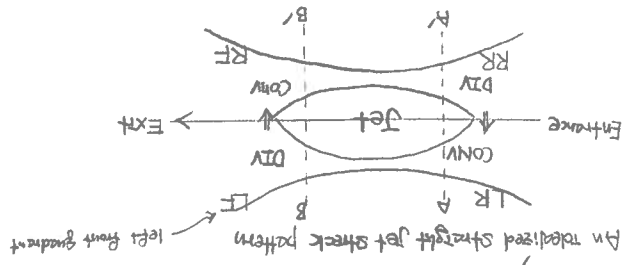
Shapiro: The formation of a jet streak can occur when the trough in the westerlies becomes in phase with a ridge of lower latitudes, to yield a flow configuration opposite of the high-over-low Rex block

Palmer and Newton:

A jet streak - an isotach maximum imbedded within a jet associated with strong vertical & horizontal shear

In short, the evolution of jet streaks can be brought about by a pre-existing positive vorticity center due to curvature in the wind field, a tightening of the pressure gradient in a trough-ridge interaction, or the existence of an upper-level front and baroclinicity creating a strong thermal wind component on the warm side of the upper-level front.

Methodology



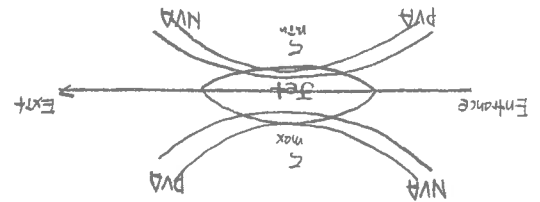
Vertical cross sections illustrating direct & indirect circulations in the entrance region (along A-A) and exit region (along B-B) of a jet streak (dotted lines denote isentropes). J marks upper-level jet location.

Shapiro (1982) suggested that

① if the thermally indirect circulation associated with the exit region of an upper level jet streak and upper level front are situated directly over the thermally direct circulation associated with a low level front, then there is subsidence over the warm, moist air mass east of the front and convection is suppressed.

② If the circulation of the exit region of the jet streak moves farther east, it becomes coupled to the frontal circulation and the air mass is destabilized.

see Bluestein vol II, Fig 2.105, p406



* maximum (cyclonic) and minimum (anticyclonic) relative vorticity centers and associated advection patterns are associated with a sheared jet streak

Due to cyclonic shear north of the isotach maximum, a positive vorticity center forms while a negative vorticity center forms south of the jet. PVA is found in the LF quadrant and NVA in the LR quadrant with a straight westerly flow superimposed over the vorticity pattern

From the vorticity eq.

$$\frac{D}{Dt}(\zeta + f) = -(\zeta + f)\nabla \cdot \mathbf{X}$$

An air parcel moving through the RR quadrant experiences a decrease in relative vorticity. Since the change in ζ is much greater than that in f , the air parcel must experience divergence. This can apply to all quadrants for a divergence pattern

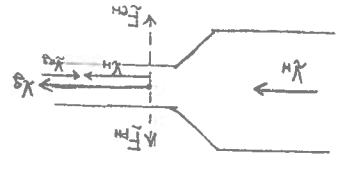
From the divergence pattern, and by the $\Omega \mathbf{g}$ omega eq, a secondary circulation pattern at the jet streak entrance and exit must develop to maintain the mass continuity in the atmosphere. (A transverse or cross-stream ageostrophic wind component blows from the warm to cold air representing the upper branch of the direct transverse circulation. As air parcels accelerate into the jet in this region of confluence, the ageostrophic wind increases faster than the actual wind (sidageostrophic). At the jet exit region the wind is superageostrophic because the actual wind is greater than the geostrophic wind.

$$\chi_{kg} = \chi_h - \chi_g : \chi_g = \frac{f}{g} k \cdot \nabla P$$

$$\tilde{F}_{ch} = f k \cdot \chi_h : \tilde{F}_{ch} = -\frac{f}{g} \nabla P$$

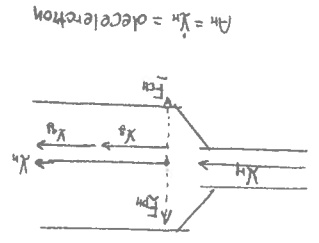
At the jet entrance, the ageostrophic wind component converts APE into KE for parcels accelerating into the jet. At the jet exit region, the ageostrophic component of the transverse indirect circulation is blowing from north to south towards lower heights

• Entrance - subgeostrophic.

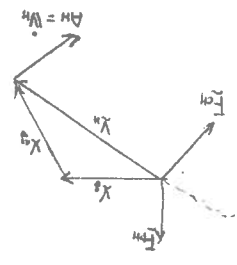


$H_h = \chi_h = \text{acceleration} : \text{CM/DT}$

• Exit - supergeostrophic.



$A_h = \chi_h = \text{deceleration}$



Supergeostrophic:

The pressure gradient is now less than experienced in the jet core. Therefore the PGF vectors white GF (slope to change) and horizontal wind component (χ_h) remain strong. The net effect is an deceleration and turn to the right or southward. The secondary circulation are the restoring forces that return the air parcel to geostrophic balance in this region, converting KE to PE as the system decelerates. The lower branch of the indirect circulation from warm to cold air is the low-level jet.

Ucellin:

- the combined interaction between the polar and sub-tropical jet streaks as well as their influence on the low-level east coast jet at the time of explosive cyclogenesis

- The surface map showed a strong surface high below the entrance region of the polar jet, the explosive cyclogenesis occurring in the exit region of the sub-tropical jet and heavy precipitation in between.

MET? : Ruscher (1 hour) : one figure!

• Question

- (1) Describe in very basic terms what is being displayed (i.e. fields and data plotted) on the chart below. (20%)
- (2) In the region outlined by the heavy "box" there is a jet entrance region. In terms of simple kinematic principles, relate how the two terms which contribute to divergence interact in the exit region, including what sign they take on. Discuss your answer in terms of whether they reinforce each other or oppose each other. (30%)
- (3) Discuss the secondary horizontal circulations and associated induced vertical motion patterns for this jet exit region and any reasons for the existence of secondary circulations in a jet exit region. Include additional sketches or diagrams in your response if you wish. (50%)

300 mb heights/isotachs 12Z SUN 8 NOV 92



0.0

MET? (Synoptic question): Ruscher (1 hour, 1996)

• The two equations below form the basis of a particular set of equations often used in synoptic and dynamic meteorology. Discuss the complete system of equations, their appropriate use and limitations, and relevant assumptions for their application. Discuss the details of each of the two equations below for diagnosis of weather systems.

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\Delta^2 + \frac{f_0}{f_2} \frac{\sigma}{\partial^2} \right) \omega &= \frac{f_0}{\sigma} \frac{\partial}{\partial p} \left[\mathbf{V}_s \cdot \Delta \left(\frac{f_0}{1} \Delta^2 \phi + f_0 \right) \right] + \frac{\sigma}{1} \Delta^2 \left[\mathbf{V}_s \cdot \Delta \left(-\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial p} \right) \right] \\ &\quad \text{A} \qquad \qquad \qquad \text{B} \qquad \qquad \qquad \text{C} \\ \left(\Delta^2 + \frac{f_0}{f_2} \frac{\sigma}{\partial^2} \right) \chi &= -f_0 \mathbf{V}_s \cdot \Delta \left(\frac{f_0}{1} \Delta^2 \phi + f \right) + \frac{f_0}{\sigma} \frac{\partial}{\partial p} \left(-\mathbf{V}_s \cdot \Delta \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial p} \right) \\ &\quad \text{A} \qquad \qquad \qquad \text{B} \qquad \qquad \qquad \text{C} \end{aligned}$$

Look at Holtsch's ch6

• Two fundamental relationships of quasi-geostrophic theory are shown in the following

two equations

$$\left(\Delta_z + \frac{f_0}{f_2} \frac{\sigma}{\partial p^2} \right) \omega = \frac{f_0}{f_2} \frac{\sigma}{\partial p} \left[\mathbf{V}^k \cdot \Delta \left(\frac{f_0}{1} \Delta_z \phi + f \right) \right] + \frac{\sigma}{1} \Delta_z \left[\mathbf{V}^k \cdot \Delta \left(-\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial p} \right) \right] \quad \text{C} \quad (1) \rightarrow \text{correct}$$

and

$$\left(\Delta_z + \frac{f_0}{f_2} \frac{\sigma}{\partial p^2} \right) \chi = -f_0 \mathbf{V}^k \cdot \Delta \left(\frac{f_0}{1} \Delta_z \phi + f \right) + \frac{f_0}{f_2} \frac{\sigma}{\partial p} \left(-\mathbf{V}^k \cdot \Delta \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial p} \right) \quad \text{B} \quad \text{C} \quad (2) \rightarrow \text{correct}$$

(a) Name these two equations and give complete physical interpretations for each term, including the level at which they are valid. (b) What assumptions are made in order to develop this set of diagnostic equations? That is to say, can we apply this equation to any synoptic situation and does it cover the importance of any and all physical processes which could have an influence on the terms on the left hand side? (c) Suppose we were interested in a situation of a developing wave cyclone. Show how each of the terms in each equation would be related in order that maximum intensification is likely. Include sketches or diagrams in your response. (d) Describe what a Q vector is, how it relates to quasi-geostrophic theory, and what kind of Q vector pattern would be associated with cyclogenesis.

MET? : Rüscher (1 hour)

4501

• The quasi-geostrophic system of equations include a static stability equation, a vorticity equation, an "omega" equation, and the following equation:

$$\left(\Delta^2 + \frac{f_0}{\sigma} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \right) \chi = -f_0 \mathbf{V}_g \cdot \Delta \left(\frac{1}{f_0} \Delta^2 \phi + f \right) + \frac{f_0}{\sigma} \frac{\partial}{\partial p} \left(-\mathbf{V}_g \cdot \Delta \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial p} \right)$$

A
B
C

- a. What is the name of this equation and at which vertical level is it generally applicable?
- b. What is χ ? Define it mathematically and tell what it means physically to have $\chi < 0$.
- c. According to this equation, χ is related to two physical processes; what are they and which terms do they respond to?
- d. What is required for terms **B** and **C** to be indicating $\chi < 0$? Discuss the processes and illustrate graphically the appropriate fields (sketch vertical profiles or map views).
- e. What kinds of assumptions are invoked to develop this equation from the primitive equation set? Give two atmospheric situations where use of this equation would not seem appropriate based on these assumptions.

look at Holton's ch 6

MET? : Ruscher (?)

• The quasi-geostrophic system of equations include a static stability equation, a vorticity equation, an "omega" equation, and the tendency equation given below:

$$\left(\Delta^2 + \frac{f_0}{\sigma} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \right) \chi = -f_0 \mathbf{V}_s \cdot \Delta \left(\frac{1}{\sigma} \Delta^2 \phi + f \right) + \frac{f_0}{\sigma} \frac{\partial}{\partial p} \left(-\mathbf{V}_s \cdot \Delta \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial \phi} \right)$$

Read the entire question before you attempt to answer any part.

a) Define the concept of a secondary circulation within the framework of quasi-geostrophic theory. You may appeal to the basic assumptions under which quasi-geostrophic theory is derived. (10%)

b) Given the following diagram (next page) from Holton (An Introduction to Dynamic Meteorology, fig 7.11 and table) and the tendency equation above, fill in the table (next page) with a + or - depending upon whether the sign of the item under "physical parameter" is positive or negative. (70%)

c) For the vorticity tendency, which term in the quasi-geostrophic vorticity equation is dominating the sign of terms in locations A, B, and C on the figure and in the table? Indicate which term in the table is the vorticity tendency as part of your response. (20%)

look at Holton's ch 6

MET? : Ruscher (1 hour)

• The quasi-geostrophic system of equations include a static stability equation, a vorticity equation, a tendency equation, and the following equation:

$$\left(\Delta^2 + \frac{\sigma}{f_0} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \right) \omega = \frac{\sigma}{f_0} \frac{\partial}{\partial p} \left[\mathbf{V}^s \cdot \Delta \left(\frac{f_0}{1} \Delta^2 \phi + f \right) \right] + \frac{\sigma}{1} \Delta^2 \left[\mathbf{V}^s \cdot \Delta \left(-\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial p} \right) \right]$$

A
B
C

(1) What is the name of this equation and at what vertical levels is it applicable?

(2) According to this equation, vertical motion is related to two physical processes; what are they and which terms do they correspond to?

(3) When does term A represent upward vertical motion (assume a wave-like solution here)? [Hint: it might be easier to define upward motion first, using the symbols above.]

(4) What is required for terms B and C to be indicating upward vertical motion? Discuss the process and illustrate graphically the appropriate fields.

(5) What kinds of assumptions are invoked to develop this equation from the primitive equation set? Give two atmospheric situations where use of this equation would not seem appropriate based on these assumptions.

Note for OG theory + Q vectors. from Russ.

Two fundamental relationship of OG theory are shown below

$$\omega - \text{eq.} \rightarrow \left(\Delta^2 + \frac{d}{2} \frac{d^2}{d\phi^2} \right) \omega = - \frac{d}{2} \frac{d^2}{d\phi^2} \left[\frac{f_0}{2} \Delta^2 \Phi + f \right] - \frac{d}{2} \frac{d^2}{d\phi^2} \left[-\chi_s \cdot \Delta \left(-\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial \phi} \right) \right]$$

tendency eq. \rightarrow

Approx. made for these eqs

Assumptions \rightarrow of these assumptions perhaps the neglect of diatomic effects and ageostrophic advection are most open to criticism in particular situations

(a) hydrostatic balance in the vertical

(b) neglect of smaller (scale wise of synoptic scales) terms associated with spherical coordinates and rotating reference frame \rightarrow vertical Coriolis term

(c) scale horizontal momentum eqs so that terms $O(R_0^2)$ or smaller are neglected.

(d) assume constant f geostrophy so that $\chi_s = \frac{f_0}{2} \Delta \Phi$

(e) apply eqs on mid-latitude beta plane: $f = f_0 + \beta y$

Assume meridional scale is small (compared to earth radius) $\left(\frac{R_0}{R_E} \sim O(R_0) \right)$

Approx $\frac{d\chi}{d\phi} = \frac{\partial \chi}{\partial \phi} + \chi \cdot \Delta \chi + \omega \frac{d\chi}{d\phi}$

as $\frac{d\chi_s}{d\phi} = \frac{\partial \chi_s}{\partial \phi} + \chi_s \cdot \Delta \chi_s$

but in the dynamic eqs return $\omega \frac{d\chi}{d\phi}$ (since adiabatic heating/cooling is important)

replace $\beta y - \Delta \Phi$ with $f_0 \Delta \Phi$

return fall into in Coriolis term $f_0 \Delta \Phi = (f_0 + \beta y) \Delta \Phi = f_0 \Delta \Phi + \beta y \Delta \Phi$

combine $f_0 \Delta \Phi + \beta y \Delta \Phi = f_0 \Delta \Phi + \beta y \Delta \Phi = f_0 \Delta \Phi + \beta y \Delta \Phi$

(3) The following is not necessary to OG system but simplifies the resulting system of eqs. Expand temperature as $T = T_0(\rho) + T(x, y, p, t)$

basic state \rightarrow deviation from basic state

Then $\left| \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} \right| \gg \left| \frac{\partial T}{\partial \rho} \right|$ and only T needs to be included in the static state $\nabla = -\frac{1}{R_0} \frac{d}{d\rho} \frac{d\theta_0}{d\rho}$

As a result of these assumptions, approximations, and simplifications we obtain the following OG momentum + thermodynamic one eqs

$$\frac{d\chi_s}{d\phi} = -f_0 \Delta \Phi + \beta y \Delta \Phi - \beta y \Delta \Phi + \chi_s \cdot \Delta \chi_s = \frac{d}{d\phi} \left(\frac{f_0}{2} \Delta \Phi \right) \omega = \frac{d}{d\phi} \left(\frac{R_0}{2} \right) \omega = \frac{d}{d\phi} \left(\frac{R_0}{2} \right) \omega$$

adiabatic heating/cooling

since we assume hydrostatic atmosphere $\frac{d\theta_0}{d\rho} = -\alpha = -\frac{1}{R_0}$ can be used to replace T

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tendency eq. \rightarrow

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Approx $\frac{d\chi}{d\phi} = \frac{\partial \chi}{\partial \phi} + \chi \cdot \Delta \chi + \omega \frac{d\chi}{d\phi}$

as $\frac{d\chi_s}{d\phi} = \frac{\partial \chi_s}{\partial \phi} + \chi_s \cdot \Delta \chi_s$

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As a result of these assumptions, approximations, and simplifications we obtain the following OG momentum + thermodynamic one eqs

$$\frac{d\chi_s}{d\phi} = -f_0 \Delta \Phi + \beta y \Delta \Phi - \beta y \Delta \Phi + \chi_s \cdot \Delta \chi_s = \frac{d}{d\phi} \left(\frac{f_0}{2} \Delta \Phi \right) \omega = \frac{d}{d\phi} \left(\frac{R_0}{2} \right) \omega = \frac{d}{d\phi} \left(\frac{R_0}{2} \right) \omega$$

adiabatic heating/cooling

since we assume hydrostatic atmosphere $\frac{d\theta_0}{d\rho} = -\alpha = -\frac{1}{R_0}$ can be used to replace T

If we now neglect diatomic effects (set $J=0$) we can obtain the hydrostatic thermodynamic eqs in the form

$$\text{OG system of equations} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{1} \quad \frac{\partial \chi}{\partial \phi} = -\chi_s \cdot \Delta \left(\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial \phi} \right) - \Delta \omega \\ \text{2} \quad \Delta^2 \chi = -f_0 \Delta \Phi + \beta y \Delta \Phi + f_0 \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial \phi} \end{array} \right.$$

and the vorticity eq.

Derivation of Tendency eqs

$$\frac{d\chi}{d\phi} = \frac{\partial \chi}{\partial \phi} + \chi \cdot \Delta \chi + \omega \frac{d\chi}{d\phi} = \frac{\partial \chi}{\partial \phi} + \chi \cdot \Delta \chi + \omega \frac{d\chi}{d\phi}$$

$$\frac{d\chi_s}{d\phi} = \frac{\partial \chi_s}{\partial \phi} + \chi_s \cdot \Delta \chi_s + \omega \frac{d\chi_s}{d\phi} = \frac{\partial \chi_s}{\partial \phi} + \chi_s \cdot \Delta \chi_s + \omega \frac{d\chi_s}{d\phi}$$

$$\frac{d\omega}{d\phi} = \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial \phi} + \omega \cdot \Delta \omega + \omega \frac{d\omega}{d\phi} = \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial \phi} + \omega \cdot \Delta \omega + \omega \frac{d\omega}{d\phi}$$

$$\left[\Delta^2 + \frac{d}{2} \frac{d^2}{d\phi^2} \right] \omega = - \frac{d}{2} \frac{d^2}{d\phi^2} \left[\frac{f_0}{2} \Delta^2 \Phi + f \right] - \frac{d}{2} \frac{d^2}{d\phi^2} \left[-\chi_s \cdot \Delta \left(-\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial \phi} \right) \right]$$

OG tendency eqs

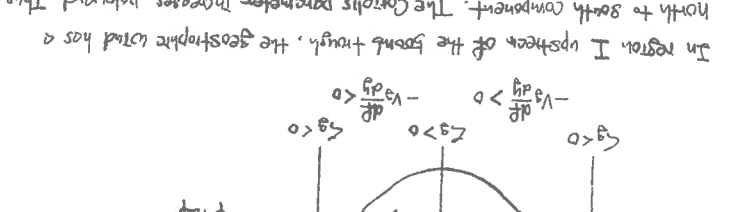
Term A: Material operator which spreads the response in the vertical so that forcing at one level influences other levels. For oscillating function the second order differential operator can be shown to return something proportional to $-\chi$. That is

$$\text{Term B: } -f_0 \Delta \Phi + \beta y \Delta \Phi + f \rightarrow \text{vorticity advection.}$$

This is generally the main forcing term in the upper troposphere. Break this up into two terms (neglect βy)

geostrophic advection \rightarrow Beta term due to meridional advection of planetary vorticity

For disturbances in the westerlies these terms tend to oppose each other as shown below



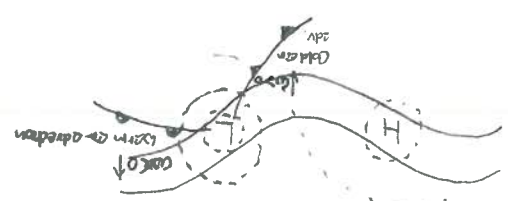
In region I upstream of the storm trough, the geostrophic wind has a north to south component. The Coriolis parameter increases poleward. Thus in region I, the northerly geostrophic wind component is advecting large planetary vorticity southward. That is, we have positive planetary vorticity. In region II downstream the storm trough, the situation is just opposite. With $\chi_s > 0$, $-\chi_s \cdot \Delta \left(-\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial \phi} \right) > 0 \Rightarrow$ negative planetary vorticity advection.

the sfc low there is PVA associated w/ falling SDBH height. Hence the 500-1000 mb thickness is decreasing. Since horizontal temperature advection is small over the center of the sfc low, the only way to cool the atmosphere as required by the thickness tendency is by adiabatic cooling through the vertical motion field. Thus, the vertical motion field maintains a hydrostatic temperature field in the presence of differential vertical advection. Without this compensating vertical motion either the vertical changes at 500mb could not remain geostrophic or the temperature changes in the 500-1000 mb layer could not remain hydrostatic.

Term C:

$$-\omega \propto -\frac{1}{\rho} \Delta^2 [-\chi_0 \cdot \Delta (\frac{dp}{\rho})] - \omega \propto -\frac{1}{\rho} \chi_0 \cdot \Delta (\frac{dp}{\rho})$$

So, warm air advection (localized) implies $\omega < 0 \rightarrow$ rising motion (localized cold air advection implies $\omega > 0 \rightarrow$ sinking) Term C represents the effects of localized horizontal temperature advection on the vertical motion field. Consider the idealized developing baroclinic wave below.



Rising motion occurs to the east of the sfc L in the warm frontal zone. Sinking motion occurs to the SW of the sfc L behind the cold front. This vertical motion field is required to keep the upper level westerly field geostrophic in the presence of height changes caused by the thermal advection. Geopotential height rises at the ridge and anti-cyclonic vorticity must increase if geostrophic balance is to be maintained. Since vorticity advection can not produce additional anticyclonic vorticity at the ridge, horizontal divergence is required to account for the negative vorticity tendency. Continuity of mass then requires that there be upward motion to replace the diverging air at upper level. By analogous arguments it can be shown that subsidence is required in the cold advection beneath the trough. For synoptic scale motions where vorticity is constrained to be geostrophic and temperature is constrained to be hydrostatic, the vertical motion field is uniquely determined by the geopotential field. The vertical motion field is just what is required to ensure that changes in the vorticity will be geostrophic and changes in temperature will be hydrostatic.

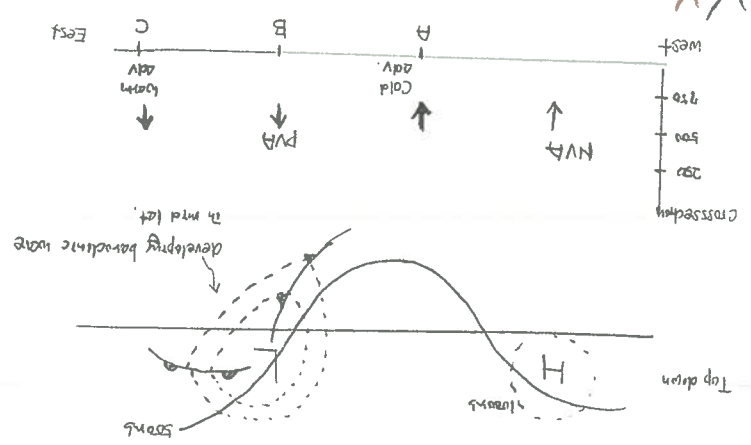
Idealized model of a baroclinic disturbance

Below are qualitative representations of the QG tendency of ω eggs. Tendency ω : $\omega \propto \left(\frac{1}{\rho} \right) \left(\text{fall} + \text{cold advection} + \text{warm advection} \right)$ with height.

Omega ω : $\omega \propto \left(\frac{1}{\rho} \right) \left(\text{fall} + \text{cold advection} + \text{warm advection} \right)$ with height of $\left(\frac{1}{\rho} \right)$ vorticity advection. Upper level advection.

In QG dynamics the vertical motion & divergence fields act to keep the temperature changes hydrostatic and vorticity changes geostrophic in order to preserve the thermal balance. We may regard the vertical and divergent geostrophic motions as constituting a secondary circulation imposed by the geostrophic motions as constituting a secondary circulation imposed by the simultaneous constraints of geostrophic & hydrostatic balance. It is interesting to note that the secondary circulation in a developing baroclinic system always acts to oppose the horizontal advection fields. Thus, the divergent motions tend to oppose the vorticity advection and the adiabatic temperature changes arising to vertical motion tend to cancel partly the thermal advection \rightarrow self-limiting mechanism.

The diagram below summarizes these effects.



A (SDBH trough)	negative but partially cancelled by adiabatic warming	Sinking	negative due to differential thickness advection (cold air adv)	negative due to PVA	positive due to W (SDBH)
B (sfc L)	negative due to adiabatic cooling	Rising	negative due to PVA	positive due to W (SDBH)	positive due to W (SDBH)
C (SDBH ridge)	positive but partially cancelled by adiabatic cooling	Rising	positive due to W (SDBH)	positive due to convergence	positive due to convergence
				but partially cancelled by divergence	

Q-vectors

Recall the QG ω eq.

$$\left(\Delta^2 + \frac{f}{\sigma} \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \right) \omega = -\frac{1}{\sigma} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \left(\chi_0 \cdot \Delta (\frac{dp}{\rho}) \right) - \chi_0 \cdot \Delta (\frac{dp}{\rho}) \right] - \frac{1}{\sigma} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \left(\chi_0 \cdot \Delta (\frac{dp}{\rho}) \right) - \chi_0 \cdot \Delta (\frac{dp}{\rho}) \right]$$

One problem in using the QG ω eq. as given above to estimate ω is that there often is a large degree of cancellation between the two forcing terms on the RHS.

Another problem to that the above eq is not invariant under a Galilean

transformer \Rightarrow adding a constant zonal velocity to X_3 changes the magnitude of two forcing terms without changing the net forcing of ω .

\uparrow Ω vectors developed to address these shortcomings.

The ω eq. on a f-plane using Ω vectors is

$$(\nabla^2 + f^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial p}) \omega = -\nabla \cdot \bar{\Omega}$$

\hookrightarrow so $\omega \propto \nabla \cdot \bar{\Omega}$

(converging $\bar{\Omega} \Rightarrow \omega < 0$ \uparrow motion
diverging $\bar{\Omega} \Rightarrow \omega > 0$ \uparrow motion)

where $\bar{\Omega} = (\Omega_1, \Omega_2) = (-\frac{p}{R} \frac{\partial X_2}{\partial t} \cdot \nabla T, -\frac{p}{R} \frac{\partial X_1}{\partial t} \cdot \nabla T)$

To estimate $\bar{\Omega}$ on traditional WX maps we rewrite the $\bar{\Omega}$ eq as follows.

\rightarrow View motion in a cartesian coordinate system in which the x axis is parallel to the local isotherm with cold air on the left. In this case

$$\bar{\Omega} = -\left(\frac{p}{R} \frac{\partial T}{\partial y}\right) \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial t} \cdot \hat{i} - \frac{\partial y}{\partial t} \cdot \hat{j}\right)$$

\hookrightarrow apply the fact that the geostrophic wind is nondivergent on an f-plane so

$$\frac{\partial x}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial t} = 0$$

$$\bar{\Omega} = -\frac{p}{R} \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \left(\hat{i} \times \frac{\partial x}{\partial t} \right)$$

minus comes from $-\left|\frac{\partial x}{\partial t}\right| = \frac{\partial y}{\partial t}$ since $\frac{\partial y}{\partial t} < 0$ by design.

From this form of the $\bar{\Omega}$ vector we see that we can estimate $\bar{\Omega}$ by

① evaluating the vectorial change of X_2 along an isotherm with cold air on the left.

② rotating the resulting change vector by 90° CW.

③ multiplying the resulting vector by $\left|\frac{\partial T}{\partial y}\right| \cdot \frac{p}{R}$

Only require T & ϕ on same isobaric sfc.

Again, where $\bar{\Omega}$ converge \Rightarrow rising motion \rightarrow \downarrow in column \downarrow

($\bar{\Omega}$ diverge \Rightarrow sinking motion \rightarrow \downarrow in column \downarrow)

\Rightarrow rising motion is associated with vorticity stretching in the column and so \downarrow . sinking motion is associated with vorticity

squashing and so \uparrow

\Rightarrow look at my Holton notes /

Comma-shaped cloud (CG)

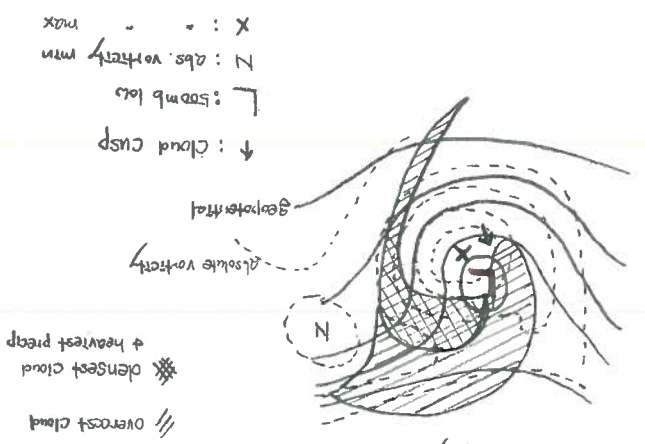
Synoptic (4501)

MET? : Ruscher (1 hour, 1994) *

• Provide the basic assumptions embodied within the quasi-geostrophic approximation. Next discuss, using QG-theory, why, when looking at a satellite picture of a mature extratropical cyclone, one sees a "comma"-shaped head, with a large expanse of cloudiness near and to the northeast of the low pressure system. In addition, cloudiness typically is confined to somewhat narrower bands to the southwest of the low center; explain why.

So1) → description of comma cloud
 • basic assumptions → look at other notes

Below is a schematic illustration of a typical comma cloud associated with a mature mid-late cyclone



The comma cloud possesses

- ① a comma tail narrowing equatorward
- ② a comma head bulging toward the west.

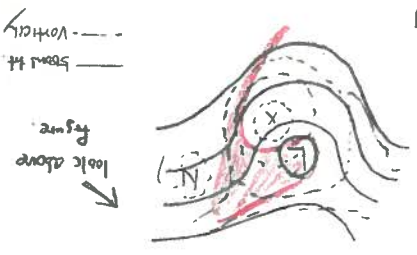
During the stage of incipient cyclogenesis, the cloud pattern tends to lie parallel to the upper wind flow in a band that sometimes referred to as a baroclinic cloud leaf, because it is associated with strong tropospheric horizontal temperature gradients. In the development stage, the cloud narrows along its equatorward "tail" but expands on the poleward side, eventually developing a bulge westward on the poleward side of the cyclogenesis (the comma head). The comma head is often surrounded by a circular area of lower cloud, constituting the frictionally forced stratocumulus cloud with tops below 700mb. The clear zone between the comma tail + cloud to the west is the "dry tongue". Dry tongues are typical of strong cold air advection and PVA along the poleward edge. NVA is found equatorward and west of the storm (C+T) max. The later is situated equatorward and east of closed contours in the ϕ field at 500mb. Consequently, air is descending over the equatorward side of the dry tongue and ascending on the poleward side of the vort. max. Because of the origins of the air entering the dry tongue (the high troposphere west of the trough), it is extremely dry at mid levels. The figure on the above shows that closed ϕ contours at 500mb are accompanied by the formation of a cusp of cloud at the end of the comma head (see the arrow). This cusp tends to be located very close to the storm low center and vorticity max. The cusp low, however, tends to be located at the point where the comma head joins the comma tail.

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Another aspect of cyclone development is the formation of a vorticity loca cloud. Strong absolute vorticity advection over the comma head region, except along the western edge where there is only frictionally forced ascent. Clouds are generally much higher over the eastern part of the comma head, with the diving line between very high + mid-level cloud tops lying close to the storm low speed max which crosses the comma head. Warm air advection occurs over the comma head except where there is only frictionally driven loca cloud. Further east of lower absolute vorticity over the poleward edge of the comma minimum along the poleward side of the comma head. There is a marked intrusion of lower absolute vorticity over the poleward edge of the comma head from the direction of the ridge. Accordingly, the poleward side of the comma head corresponds in this case to the limit of positive vorticity advection and to a region of developmental ϕ rises in this area. Separated wind speed maxima tend to form in regions of enhanced ϕ gradients between the max or min vorticity centers.

First, recall basics of QG theory. In it we assume (1) Hydrostatic balance, (2) Tidal gas law (3) $\zeta = \zeta_g$ * (4) $\chi = \chi_g$ in advection term (5) neglect vertical adv. + thing / first in vort. (6) assume atmosphere incompressible → use continuity eq. (7) β -plane approx. ($f = f_0 + \beta y$) → more β (less of my Holton's note) * note: χ is not replaced by χ_g in DIV term! We combine the TDE + vorticity eqs to eliminate $\chi = \frac{\sigma_0}{g} (\text{geopotential tendency})$ we get
$$\text{QG } \zeta_0 - \text{eq} \rightarrow \nabla^2 \zeta_0 = \alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (\chi_g \cdot \nabla(\zeta_0 + f)) + \alpha \nabla^2 (\chi_g \cdot \nabla T)$$
 (assuming periodic sol. $\rightarrow \nabla - \zeta_0 = \nabla - \zeta_0 - \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (-\chi_g \cdot \nabla(\zeta_0 + f)) + \alpha \nabla^2 (\chi_g \cdot \nabla T)$) \rightarrow rising motion \propto increase with height of (pos. vort. adv. + (cold) temp. adv.)

So what does a mature cyclone look like? Consider the following typical example at 500mb: Note the vort. max (X) just SE of the storm low. The ridge accompany the trough → vort. min (N) ahead. Hence we see an area of strong PVA shaded in red, which according to QG theory should contribute to strong upward vert. motion. This area is in fact where the densest cloud + heaviest precipitation is observed in a mature cyclone



The lack of cloudiness to the south of the vert. max is associated with strong cold temp. advection, which contributes to downward motion by O₃ theory. We notice a lack of cloudiness here; this area is often referred to as the "dry tongue", as the source of the air (upper troposphere west of trough) and descending → dry at mid levels. The thin area of clouds trailing to the south contribute to the cold front, and is associated with convection-triggered by narrow frontal boundary. Note - strong cold advection behind it → downward motion.

Vert. motion

MET? (Synoptic question): Ruscher (1.5 hour, 1997) *

• Explain quantitatively and qualitatively the following methods of determining vertical motion in the atmosphere:

- (a) the kinematic method
- (b) the adiabatic method
- (c) the Quasi-Geostrophic method
- (d) the Q-vector method

Be sure to include in your response a discussion of advantages, disadvantages, assumptions, and appropriate uses.

look at Fuellberg's study note!

Vertical-velocity
Q-vector

MET? : Ruscher (1 hour) *

• There are many ways in which vertical motion may be diagnosed in the troposphere. Some of the methods include the (a) kinematic method, (b) the adiabatic/isentropic method(s), (c) the vorticity method, (d) the infrared satellite photograph method, and (e) use of quasi-geostrophic theory.

(Part I) Pick one of the methods from (a)-(d) and give a full description of the method and how it can be used to estimate/diagnose vertical motion. (30%)

(Part II) A convenient method for determining the quasi-geostrophic forcing effects on vertical motion is to use so-called Q-vectors, where Q is defined as follows:

$$Q \equiv -\frac{\sigma p}{R} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \cdot \Delta^p T \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \cdot \Delta^p T \end{bmatrix} \quad (1)$$

Then the quasi-geostrophic omega equation becomes:

$$\left(\Delta^2 + \frac{f_0}{\sigma} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) \omega = -2 \Delta^p \cdot \bar{Q} - \frac{\sigma}{R} \beta \frac{\partial \bar{Q}}{\partial x} \quad (2)$$

Discuss each term in this equation and discuss how this equation can be used to diagnose vertical motion. (70%)

look at Holton's ch 6

* look at the following study note

Q-vectors

Recall QG omega eq

$$\left(\Delta^2 + \frac{f_0}{\sigma} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) \omega = - \frac{\sigma}{R} \beta \frac{\partial \bar{Q}}{\partial x} - \underbrace{2 \Delta^p \cdot \bar{Q}}_{\text{vert. adv. of vert. adv.}} - \underbrace{\Delta^2 \bar{\phi}}_{\text{vert. adv. of temp. adv.}} \approx \Delta^2 \bar{\phi} - \Delta^2 \bar{\phi} + \Delta^2 \bar{\phi}$$

1) often large degree of cancellation between vert. adv. + temp. adv. terms

2) Not invariant under a Galilean transform -> adding a constant velocity changes the magnitude of the terms, but does not change net forcing of ω !

If we combine terms, we get

$$\left(\Delta^2 + \frac{f_0}{\sigma} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) \omega = - \Delta^2 \bar{\phi} - \underbrace{\frac{\sigma}{R} \beta \frac{\partial \bar{Q}}{\partial x}}_{\text{Cov. of forcing adv. of earth's vert. adv.}} - \underbrace{\Delta^2 \bar{\phi}}_{\text{Cov. of forcing adv. of earth's vert. adv.}}$$

If we neglect adv. of earth's vert., we get Conv. (DIV) of Q -> forcing

(Sinking) motion / So rising (sinking) motion associated with vorticity

Stretching (squashing) in column, so $\zeta \downarrow$ ($\zeta \uparrow$)

The easiest way to evaluate this on WX maps is to transform local

Coord. system where X (ii) lies along isotherm with cold air to the left.

(as for V_T) $\rightarrow \frac{\partial \bar{\phi}}{\partial T} = 0 \rightarrow \Delta^p T = \frac{\partial \bar{\phi}}{\partial T}$ (Note as cold air to left, $\frac{\partial \bar{\phi}}{\partial T} < 0$ always)

$$\bar{Q} = - \frac{\sigma}{R} \frac{\partial \bar{\phi}}{\partial T} \left[\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \cdot \Delta^p T \right] = \frac{\sigma}{R} \frac{\partial \bar{\phi}}{\partial T} \left[\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \cdot \Delta^p T \right]$$

with direction $-k \times V_T \rightarrow$ direction 90° to right of $\frac{\partial \bar{\phi}}{\partial T}$

Evaluate Q on either side (\pm increment in x direction) of a point.

If components along x are toward (away) from each other

\rightarrow Conv. (div) of Q \leftarrow rising (sinking) motion

26

MET? : Ruscher (1 hour) *

• The diagnosis of vertical motion is one of the difficult problems which synoptic meteorologists must deal with in research and operational settings. This question deals with aspects of such diagnosis in the context of a very specific example. You must answer all three parts; weights are given for each part.

(a) [20%] One of the types of imagery available to meteorologists for the purpose of satellite interpretation is so-called "water vapor imagery". Discuss briefly the characteristics of the radiation involved, the meteorological variable and part of the atmosphere involved in the radiation, and the characteristics of the imagery (relationship of gray-scale to the weather element). Also, contrast water vapor imagery to visible and conventional infrared imagery in your answer.

(b) [60%] Water vapor imagery is widely used by meteorologists all over the world for various purposes. Some controversy about its use has been noted, however, regarding the inference of vertical motion just upstream of the mature middle-latitude cyclone; there is often a marked contrast in radiation intensity on the imagery in this region. Discuss how you would go about attempting to evaluate vertical motion (*without* the use of a numerical model) in this region of sharp gray-scale contrast (what kinds of analyses and calculations would be most useful?). In your answer, include some background on the problem (what are the expectations for vertical motion in this region based on observations and theory of synoptic scale cyclones?) and include at least one sketch.

(c) [20%] Discuss how a numerical model simulation might assist in the diagnosis of vertical motion upstream of the cyclone for individual cases of interest.

20.

Petterssen development eg.

4501

MET? : Ruscher (1 hour)

• A prognostic equation often used in synoptic meteorology is given by:

$$\frac{\partial Z_0}{\partial t} = A_z - \frac{f}{R} \Delta^2 \left(\frac{R}{8} A_{z\sigma} + S + H \right) - V_0 \cdot \Delta Z_0 - Z(\Delta \cdot V) \quad (1)$$

where

$$A_z \equiv -V \cdot \Delta Z$$

$$A_{z\sigma} \equiv -V \cdot \Delta(\Delta Z)_{\sigma=Z}$$

$$S \equiv \ln \left(\frac{p}{p_0} \right) \frac{d}{d\Gamma} (\omega(\Gamma) - \Gamma)$$

$$H \equiv \ln \left(\frac{p}{p_0} \right) \frac{d}{d\Gamma} \left(\frac{1}{c_p} \frac{d}{dt} \right)$$

Note: Z_0 refers to sfc, absolute vorticity / (little z is still vert. coord.)

and a subscript 0 refers to the surface and non-subscripted terms refer to some upper level in the troposphere.

(1) What is the name of this equation? (5%) Petterssen development eg.

(2) How is cyclogenesis defined with this equation? (10%)

(3) At what level in the troposphere do we evaluate the terms on the right-hand side of Eq. 1? (10%)

(4) What is the form of the equation which is used most typically? That is, show which terms are normally important and discuss why one or more other terms are not evaluated routinely. (20%)

(5) Define and discuss each of the remaining terms, and give an illustration of how each term may contribute to cyclogenesis, including the stage or part of the life cycle of the cyclone at which each term becomes involved typically. Include sketches or descriptions of processes which would lead to cyclogenesis. (55%)

look at the attached note

(1) Petterssen's development eg.

(2) A cyclone is considered to be developing when $\frac{\partial Z_0}{\partial t} > 0$

(3) At the level of non-divergence (LND), usually approx at 500h.

(4) By eval. at the LND, we assume $\Delta \cdot X$ is small so we drop the

we neglect vort adv. at sfc $[-X_0 \cdot \Delta Z_0]$. Hence the common form of

the eq. is

$$\frac{\partial Z_0}{\partial t} = A_z - \frac{f}{R} \Delta^2 \left(\frac{R}{8} A_{z\sigma} + S + H \right)$$

(2) $A_z = -X \cdot \Delta Z \rightarrow$ horizontal vorticity adv at LND.

PVA (NVA) $\rightarrow \frac{\partial Z_0}{\partial t} > 0 (< 0)$, which is just as one would expect from QG theory. Petterssen states this is the most important term for initial development. This is why forecasters often look for a

Shortwave (positive vorticity anomaly) migrating into the longer wave

disturbance \rightarrow development;

(3) $A_z = -X \cdot \Delta Z \rightarrow$ horizontal thickness advection.

This term is most important for maintenance of system, where

from advection $\rightarrow \frac{\partial Z_0}{\partial t} > 0$. Petterssen points out when this term gets large, it will be opposed by diabatic heating & adiabatic/

stratification terms, which also influence temperature.

$$C) S \equiv \ln \left(\frac{p}{p_0} \right) \frac{d}{d\Gamma} (\omega(\Gamma) - \Gamma) \Rightarrow \text{stratification or adiabatic terms}$$

(Amplified term, as several factors are included: vertical motion (+/-),

static stability, and moisture effects. The net effect of this term requires

significant amounts of moisture and vertical motion to exist to be a factor.

\rightarrow Impact during mature stage of cyclone. (Note: different in tropics, where

are conditionally unstable. There this term important during development stage

as well) $\frac{\partial Z_0}{\partial t}$ usually > 0

$$d) H \equiv \ln \left(\frac{p}{p_0} \right) \frac{d}{d\Gamma} \left(\frac{1}{c_p} \frac{d}{dt} \right) \Rightarrow \text{adiabatic heating term}$$

Heating must be differential for Δ^2 to exist. Good examples of different

heating include monsoon region, sea breezes, etc. This effect fall for

development & decay. One example of mid-late cyclones in winter cyclone

which move from over warm water to over cold land (eg. E Pacific \rightarrow NW US

development & decay).

look at the attached file

- and a subscript 0 refers to the surface and non-subscripted terms refer to some upper level in the troposphere.
- (1) How is cyclogenesis defined with this equation?
 - (2) At what level in the troposphere do we evaluate the terms on the right-hand side of Eq. (1)? One term in (1) can immediately be eliminated. Which one is it?
 - (3) Which other term in (1) is normally ignored for most synoptic scale situations?
 - (4) Discuss each of the remaining terms of the development equation, and give an illustration of how each term may contribute to cyclogenesis. Include sketches or descriptions of processes which would lead to cyclogenesis.

4561
MET? : Ruscher (1 hour)

• One form of the Petterssen development equation is given by:

$$\frac{\partial Z_0}{\partial t} = A_z - \frac{f}{R} \Delta^2 z + \frac{f}{8} A_{vz} + S + H \left(-V_0 \cdot \Delta Z_0 - Z(\Delta \cdot V) \right) \quad (1)$$

where

$$A_z \equiv -V \cdot \Delta Z$$

$$A_{vz} \equiv -V \cdot \Delta(\Delta Z)$$

$$S \equiv \ln \left(\frac{d}{p_0} \right) \frac{\omega(\Gamma^n - 1)}{\Gamma^n - 1}$$

$$H \equiv \ln \left(\frac{d}{p_0} \right) \frac{1}{\frac{d}{p_0} \frac{dp}{p_0}}$$

Pettersen development eq.

MET? (Mid-latitude Cyclones): Ruescher (40 minutes)

Pettersen speaks of cyclogenesis in terms of his well-known "development equation"

$$\frac{\partial Z_0}{\partial t} = A_z - \frac{R}{f} \nabla^2 A_{az} + S + H$$

where the following definitions are used:

vorticity advection: $A_z \equiv -V \cdot \nabla Z$
 thickness advection: $A_{az} \equiv -V \cdot \nabla(\Delta Z)$

stratification:

$$S \equiv \ln \left(\frac{p}{p_0} \right) \frac{d}{dt} (\Gamma^n - \Gamma)$$

heating:

$$H \equiv \ln \left(\frac{p}{p_0} \right) \frac{1}{c_p} \frac{d}{dt}$$

- (a) Define each of the terms separately, including symbols used, and including the level at which each term is valid. (b) How would you define cyclogenesis, based on the equation above? (c) Give a thorough physical explanation of each term in the development equation, and give an example of a situation where cyclogenesis is supported. Include diagrams or sketches of appropriate variables.

look at the attached note

note

The Sutcliffe-Pettersen Development equation

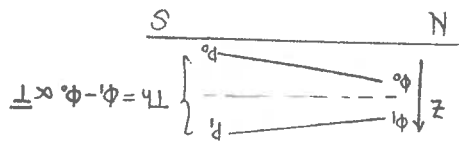
includes: formation
 changes of intensity
 propagation (motion) of the system

hyalostatic > approximation

Their development is due to geostrophic flow

(DIV + vertical motion)

Reduce from QG flow, only useful indications about geostrophic flow



$$\zeta \sim \zeta_0 = \frac{f}{R} \Delta \phi = \Delta^2 \psi \quad (\phi = \zeta z)$$

QG approx

Vorticity eq.

$$\frac{d\zeta}{dt} = -\eta \zeta + \text{div} \tau$$

$$\frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial t} = -\eta \zeta - \text{div} \tau$$

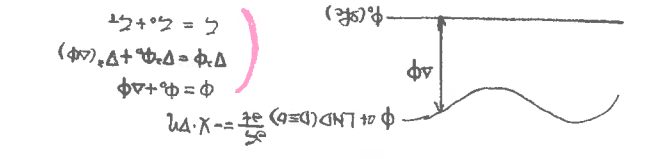
$$\frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial t} = -\eta \zeta - \text{div} \tau$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial t} \right) = -\eta \zeta - \text{div} \tau$$

1st law

$$\frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial t} = -\eta \zeta - \text{div} \tau$$

diabatic processes including
 adiabatic heating/cooling
 change of T with time
 rate



There is the eq for the vorticity tendency at sea-level. In this eq, the first term on RHS is vorticity advection at LND, 2nd term represents thickness advection

$$\frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial t} = -\eta \zeta - \text{div} \tau$$

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term represents the advection of thickness below LND

$A_{az} = -V \cdot \nabla(\Delta z)$: Δz is the thickness between LND and the LND. This term represents the advection of thickness below LND

If there is positive vorticity advection

$A_z = -V \cdot \nabla Z$: This represents the vorticity advection at the level of non-divergence (LND) which is one of the important terms for cyclone development

The forcing terms on the RHS of the eq contribute to cyclone development

tendency at the surface (LND level), where Z_0 is the vorticity at the surface

$\frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial t}$: this is the residual term in the equation. It represents the vorticity

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So, this term does not support cyclonic development

$$\ln\left(\frac{p}{p_0}\right) > 0$$

$$\omega < 0 \rightarrow \Delta^2 S > 0 \rightarrow -\frac{f}{R} \Delta^2 S < 0 \rightarrow \frac{\partial^2 \zeta}{\partial t^2} > 0$$

there is a saturated air $\Gamma_2 - \Gamma < 0$

This term tend to work against the development because $\Gamma_2 - \Gamma > 0$ unless

$\Gamma_2 - \Gamma > 0$ in the midlatitudes

$\omega < 0$ upward motion

$\omega > 0$ downward motion

$\ln\left(\frac{p}{p_0}\right) > 0$ since $p > p_0$

③ Strati fraction term: $-\frac{f}{R} \Delta^2 S = -\frac{f}{R} \Delta^2 [\ln\left(\frac{p}{p_0}\right) \omega (\Gamma_2 - \Gamma)]$

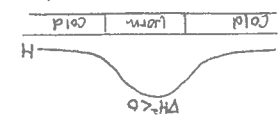


* This term supported cyclone to be explosive when it move over the Gulf water stream offshore of the east coast of the U.S.

* The low intensity when it moves over the Great Lakes (warm water) in winter

* The anti cyclone during winter move over the east coast of the U.S. So the heating of the air over the warm water change the negative vorticity to positive vorticity. So the anticyclone weakens or deforms due to the cyclonic vorticity.

* Monsoon circulation, see breeze, Katochic land where the heat generate circulation.



Supports the development as follows

So it is clear that heat contributes to the cyclonic development this term

$H > 0 \rightarrow \frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial t} < 0 \rightarrow$ anticyclonic development

$H < 0 \rightarrow \frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial t} > 0 \rightarrow$ cyclonic (development)

If heat is introduced to the lower troposphere

$H > 0 \rightarrow \Delta^2 H < 0 \rightarrow -\frac{f}{R} \Delta^2 H > 0 \rightarrow \frac{\partial^2 \zeta}{\partial t^2} > 0$ cyclonic (development)



④ Physical explanation of each term.

① Heating term: $-\frac{f}{R} \Delta^2 H$

② Vorticity advection term: $-\chi \cdot \Delta^2 \zeta$ at LND

③ Thickness advection term: $-\frac{f}{R} \Delta^2 \left(\frac{R}{g} \Delta \zeta \right)$

* The adiabatic and diabatic (term $S + H$) work against this term because in the * This term is not important of the initial development but it is important later to the region of warm advection of negative vorticity. So, the cyclone move to the rising cyclonic vorticity of cyclonic vorticity. At rear of cyclone with cold advection there is a maximum with warm advection ahead of cyclone in the warm frontal zone there is an increase so $\Delta^2 A_{\zeta} = \text{minimum} \rightarrow -\frac{f}{R} \Delta^2 A_{\zeta} = \text{maximum}$ and hence $\frac{\partial^2 \zeta}{\partial t^2} > 0$

* The adiabatic and diabatic (term $S + H$) work against this term because in the secondary circulation sense, the rising/sinking path, cancel the temperature advection

The vorticity adv term is very important for cyclonic development at the initial development (there is no thickness advection, no effect of strati fraction or diabatic). So the only term which contribute to the initial development is vorticity adv.

⑤ Cyclones is defined as any development or strengthening of cyclonic circulation in the atmosphere where this associated with upper-level vorticity advection and vertical distribution of convergence and divergence and change in surface pressure in the surface pressure tendency \rightarrow deepening

⑥) $H \equiv \ln\left(\frac{p}{p_0}\right) \frac{1}{\Delta \omega} \frac{d \Delta \omega}{d t}$: $\frac{1}{\Delta \omega} \frac{d \Delta \omega}{d t}$ represents the diabatic heating which could result from cooling or warming due to the surface differential heating and the heat released in the atmosphere

is logarithm of isomb/pressure of LND. This term represents dry lapse rate of the atmosphere and Γ is the sounding $\frac{d \Gamma}{d t}$, $\ln\left(\frac{p}{p_0}\right)$

vertical motion ($\omega < 0$: upward motion, $\omega > 0$: downward motion). $\Gamma_2 - \Gamma$ is the stability term, where Γ_2 is the strati fraction below LND

⑦) $S \equiv \ln\left(\frac{p}{p_0}\right) \omega (\Gamma_2 - \Gamma)$: this is the strati fraction term alone ω is the

* Ferhenssen's development eq.

Development

A simplified form of the vorticity eq is obtained after typical large

scale analysis is applied to the full eq

$$\frac{d(\zeta+f)}{dt} = -(\zeta+f)(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{V})$$

From the above eq we see that in the absence of divergence absolute vorticity is conserved. Convergence leads to vorticity production. Divergence leads to vorticity destruction. We may define vorticity as

$$\zeta = \frac{\text{circulation}(C)}{\text{enclosed area}(A)}$$

By the circulation theorem of Bjerknes

$$C = \oint \mathbf{V} \cdot d\mathbf{s}$$

component of motion along a streamline

If circulation increases the rate at which flows moving along the

contour increases. An increase in circulation also implies an increase in vorticity. A cyclonic system is said to be developing if $\frac{d\zeta}{dt} > 0$.

Development or cyclogenesis occurs along with production of vorticity (ir advection) and an increase of wind speed in the direction of the motion.

Dynamics of development

Some development is related to the time rate change of vorticity and divergence. It is useful to obtain expressions for these quantities. We can apply the vorticity eq at the level of non-divergence (LND) and sea level with the baroclinicity of the intervening layer being defined by the thermal wind relationships. Ferhenssen did this. Below we roughly outline how he obtained his development eq for surface cyclogenesis.

Ferhenssen began with

$$\frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial t} = -\nabla \cdot \nabla p (\zeta+f) = \frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial t}$$

(where unscripted variables refer to same level in the upper troposphere (LND) and "0" refers to the sfc. ζ is the thermal vorticity. If it is the vorticity of the thermal wind and may be written as

$$\zeta = \frac{f}{g} \nabla^2 (\Delta Z)$$

thickness of layer between sfc and specified upper level layer.

The vorticity at the upper level may be written as

$$\zeta = \zeta_0 + \zeta_1$$

Since $\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{V}_0 + \mathbf{V}_1 \rightarrow$ thermal wind relation

The next step is to use the relationship

$$\frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial t} = \frac{f}{g} \nabla^2 \left(\frac{\partial \Delta Z}{\partial t} \right)$$

and substitute for $\frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial t}$ the vertically integrated average thickness

eq shown below

$$\frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial t} (\Delta Z) = -\nabla \cdot \nabla p (\Delta Z) + \left(\frac{g}{R \Delta T \Delta p} \right) \omega + \left(\frac{g}{R \Delta T \Delta p} \right) \bar{\omega}$$

horizontal advection
adiabatic cooling/warming effects
diabatic effects

$$\frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial \zeta_0}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \zeta_1}{\partial t} = \frac{f}{g} \nabla^2 \left[\frac{\partial \Delta Z}{\partial t} \right] = -\nabla \cdot \nabla p (\zeta_0 + \zeta_1)$$

Solve for $\frac{\partial \zeta_1}{\partial t}$

$$\frac{\partial \zeta_1}{\partial t} = -\nabla \cdot \nabla p (\zeta_0 + \zeta_1) - \left(\frac{g}{R \Delta T \Delta p} \right) \omega - \left(\frac{g}{R \Delta T \Delta p} \right) \bar{\omega}$$

(the second term in this term is the same as the first term)

Recall that development is defined in terms of the sign of $\frac{d\zeta}{dt}$

$$\text{Since } \frac{d\zeta}{dt} = \frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial t} + \mathbf{V} \cdot \nabla (\zeta_0 + \zeta_1)$$

apply of LND so $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{V} = 0$
assume advection of vorticity at sfc is negligible

$$\frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial t} = -\nabla \cdot \nabla p (\zeta_0 + \zeta_1) - \left(\frac{g}{R \Delta T \Delta p} \right) \omega - \left(\frac{g}{R \Delta T \Delta p} \right) \bar{\omega}$$

Ferhenssen's development eq

$$\frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial t} = -\nabla \cdot \nabla p (\zeta_0 + \zeta_1) - \left(\frac{g}{R \Delta T \Delta p} \right) \omega - \left(\frac{g}{R \Delta T \Delta p} \right) \bar{\omega}$$

where $\bar{\omega} = -\nabla \cdot \nabla p (\Delta Z)$ low level thickness (homopneumic) advection

$$\bar{\omega} \equiv \frac{g \Delta p}{R \Delta T \Delta p} \omega \rightarrow \text{adiabatic effects}$$

$$\bar{\omega} \equiv \frac{g \Delta p}{R \Delta T \Delta p} \bar{\omega} \rightarrow \text{diabatic effects}$$

The development process is fairly complex. It depends on vorticity adv. + thermal terms.

$$\omega - \nabla \cdot \nabla p (\zeta_0 + \zeta_1) \equiv \text{vorticity advection at LND}$$

$$\omega - \frac{f}{g} \nabla^2 \Delta Z \equiv \text{localized thickness advection by surface wind}$$

$$\omega - \frac{f}{g} \nabla^2 \Delta Z \equiv \text{localized adiabatic cooling/heating}$$

$$\omega - \frac{f}{g} \nabla^2 \Delta Z \equiv \text{diabatic heating/cooling}$$

We note that $\frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial t} > 0$ (surface development) occurs when

$$\omega \text{ PVA at upper level (here, the LND)}$$

$$\omega \text{ low level warm air advection in localized regions}$$

$$\omega \text{ diabatic term} \rightarrow \text{complicated}$$

$$\omega \text{ localized regions of heating}$$

Now lets consider the thermal terms more carefully

$$\text{Diabatic effects: } H = \frac{g \Delta p}{R \Delta T \Delta p} \bar{\omega} \text{ and } -\frac{f}{g} \nabla^2 \Delta Z \Rightarrow +\frac{f}{g} H > 0 \text{ and } < 0 \uparrow$$

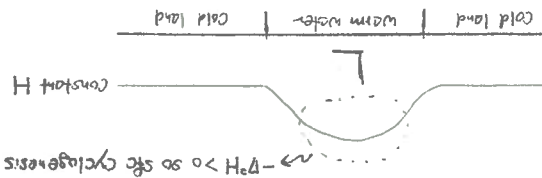
Heat sources generate cyclonic vorticity. Cold surfaces are regions of anticyclonic effects. We stress, however, that this heating/cooling must be nonuniform (for uniform fields the Laplacian is zero). Examples where diabatic effects can be large include monsoon regions and areas where land-sea breeze or mountain-valley breezes are common. This effect can also be important in air mass modification (eg, the transformation of CP into mT) as cold air moves down water resulting in late effect snows downwind in Great Lakes, coastal

Cyclogenesis over the western Atlantic + Pacific oceans near the Gulf Stream + Kuroshio current, respectively.

Anticyclones can be caused for the opposite case. Examples of cyclogenesis include wintertime cyclones over the Pacific NW and Europe as storms leave relatively warm waters and move over colder land. This effect also works for

Anticyclones as we often observe anticyclones shall as they move into the eastern US in winter, due to the fact that at their leading edge a heat source is being encountered, thus opposing anticyclone development.

The diagram below illustrates these effects

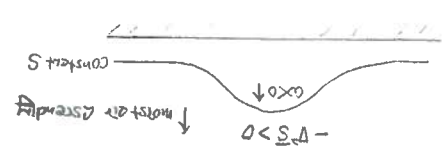


Hadronic effects $\bar{\omega} = \frac{g}{f} \frac{d}{dt} \bar{\omega} \Rightarrow +\frac{g}{f} \bar{\omega} > 0 < \omega < 0$

We often refer to this as the stratification term. For development to occur due to the stratification term, we must have non-zero vertical motion ($\bar{\omega} \neq 0$). Generally, we associate upward movement with cyclonic development ($\frac{d}{dt}(\bar{\omega} + f) > 0$) but this will not in general be the case. The atmosphere is normally stably stable ($\bar{\omega} > 0$) and so the product $\bar{\omega} < 0$ for rising motion. Negative $\bar{\omega}$ implies $\bar{\omega} < 0$ and so $\frac{d}{dt}(\bar{\omega} + f) < 0$. At first this seems incorrect, but recall that upward motion leads to adiabatic cooling \Rightarrow a damping effect.

Thus all changes in the atmosphere is saturated. Then the dry static stability is negative. For rising motion in a saturated environment $\bar{\omega} > 0$ so $(\bar{\omega} + f) \downarrow$ with time. The latent heat release that accompanies convection in a rising, saturated parcel leads $\bar{\omega}$ to be of the same sign as H . This will not happen until significant cloudiness has already been developed within the cyclone. Also, upward motion is usually not large in the incipient stages of cyclonic development. Therefore, the stratification term will not in general contribute to the initial development of a cyclone, but will be associated with its further strengthening later in time. (This remark applies to mid-lat. cyclones but not the equatorially unstable tropics. This term is necessary for the development of tropical cyclones)

The main effect of condensation is to minimize the negative effect of stability. Provided other terms in the development eq are favorable, cyclonic development will occur when there is a minimum instability, a maximum of moisture, and a low condensation level to get clouds started. The below diagram illustrates points made above.



Thickest advection $\frac{dH}{dt} = -\lambda_0 \nabla^2 (\bar{\omega} + f)$, $-\frac{g}{f} \nabla^2 \bar{\omega} \Rightarrow +\frac{g}{f} \bar{\omega} > 0 < \omega < 0$

In practice, this term is not important for initial development but is very important for maintenance of the cyclone storm. Max thickness advection (max warm air adv.) will foster the development of cyclonic systems. According to Fjellnessen, when this term becomes significantly large, this term will be opposed by the diabatic and adiabatic terms which also influence temperature.

Vertical advection $PVA \rightarrow \bar{\omega} \downarrow$; $NVA \rightarrow \bar{\omega} \uparrow$ (vertical adv at LND) PVA at the LND leads to development of sea level. According to Fjellnessen this term (upper level vorticity advection) is most important for providing for the initial development. To see why this is so, examine vorticity advection in natural coordinates

$$\text{Absolute } \bar{\omega} + f = V K_s - \frac{\partial \bar{\omega}}{\partial n} + f$$

where K_s is curvature of streamlines of flow $K_s = \frac{1}{R_s}$

The advection of $\bar{\omega} + f$ is $-V \frac{\partial}{\partial s} (\bar{\omega} + f)$ the streamline.

But we have an expression for $\bar{\omega} + f$. Thus

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\bar{\omega} + f) = \frac{g}{f} \bar{\omega} (V K_s - \frac{\partial \bar{\omega}}{\partial n} + f)$$

Thus advection of absolute vorticity in natural coord is approx. $-\frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\bar{\omega} + f) \approx -V \frac{\partial}{\partial s} (\bar{\omega} + f) = -V \frac{\partial}{\partial s} (V K_s - \frac{\partial \bar{\omega}}{\partial n} + f)$

The thing to notice is that vorticity advection is proportional to the wind speed squared. Providing the configuration of the contour is favorable, this term is crucial for initial development.

Progression: Self development
Whether or not self development may occur, we observe that cyclones experience a life cycle which includes their ultimate demise. The stratification term plays an important role in this regard. Look at the stratification (S) term. It involves the average correlation between $\bar{\omega}$ and $\bar{\omega}$. As we saw, normally in cyclonic systems $\bar{\omega} < 0$, $\bar{\omega} > 0$ so $S < 0$ and $\frac{d}{dt}(\bar{\omega} + f) < 0$ which opposes development. We visualize how this works by remembering that upward motion is associated with adiabatic cooling. Also, the magnitude of the divergence is proportional to the storm intensity, we know that vertical motion is related to divergence ($\frac{dH}{dt} = -\nabla \cdot \bar{V}$). So with amplification we get more upward motion which makes S more strongly negative and hence thickens generation of cyclonic vorticity of the SFC. Since $\frac{d}{dt}(\bar{\omega} + f) < 0$.

We see that in the very process of amplification there exist mechanisms (the stratification term) which limit development. That is, cyclonic development is a self limiting process.

$$\frac{\partial \bar{\omega}}{\partial t} = -\int_S \nabla \cdot \bar{V} dp$$

This implies a net divergence of mass out of the column over the storm interior. We have strong low-level convergence \Rightarrow generating cyclonic vorticity at the SFC and strong upper level divergence, via the continuity eq $\nabla \cdot \bar{V} = -\frac{d\bar{\omega}}{dz}$. We see that as the divergence increases in magnitude so must the magnitude of vertical velocity (rising motion here). Rising motion is associated with adiabatic cooling which opposes further development. We noted that latent heat release counteracts this cooling in saturated ascent. As the system matures the moisture supply can be exhausted or cut off and so adiabatic cooling dominates. This tends to occur in the later stages of the cyclone life cycle. We see the self limiting character of cyclones.

Development of Cyclones and Anticyclones

Petterssen/Sutcliffe Formulation

References

Palmén, E. and C. W. Newton, 1969: *Atmospheric Circulation Systems*. New York, Academic Press, Chapter 11.
 Petterssen, S., 1956: *Weather Analysis and Forecasting I*, New York, McGraw-Hill, Chapter 16.
 Sutcliffe, R. C., 1947: On the dynamics of development. *Quart. J. Roy. Meteorol. Soc.*, 73, 370-383.

Semantics

cyclogenesis[1]: Any development or strengthening of cyclonic circulation in the atmosphere; the opposite of cyclolysis. It is applied to the development of cyclonic circulation where previously it did not exist as well as the intensification of existing cyclonic flow.

The Meaning of Development

A very simplified form of the vorticity equation is obtained after a typical large-scale analysis is applied to the full equation, namely

$$\frac{1}{\sigma} \frac{d\zeta_a}{dt} = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{V} \quad (1) \quad \frac{1}{\sigma} \frac{d\zeta_a}{dt} = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{V} \cdot \chi$$

which says that in the absence of divergence, absolute vorticity is conserved. Also, convergence leads to vorticity production. Vorticity is defined as

$$\zeta \equiv \frac{\text{circulation (C)}}{\text{area (A)}} \quad (2)$$

By the Circulation Theorem of Birknes,

$$C \equiv \oint \mathbf{V} \cdot d\mathbf{s} \quad (3)$$

if the component of motion increases along a streamline, circulation increases, which leads to an increase in the vorticity. A (cyclonic) system is said to be developing if $d[\zeta_a]/dt > 0$. Development, or cyclogenesis, occurs along with production of vorticity (circulation) and an increase of wind speed in the direction of the motion.

The Dynamics of Development

Because development is related to the time rate of change of air circulating around a cyclone or anticyclone, we can express the concept of development in terms of quantities like surface pressure, vorticity, and divergence, it is useful to obtain expressions for these quantities. We will follow Petterssen in this treatment and develop a prognostic equation for the surface vorticity tendency. We can apply the vorticity equation at sea-level and at the level of non-divergence (LND), with the baroclinicity of the intervening layer being defined by the thermal wind relationship.

Without going into all the gory details, the Petterssen development equation may be written

$$\zeta_g = \frac{f}{R} \Delta^2 z \approx \zeta$$

Recall that the geostrophic vorticity (which is approximately the relative vorticity) may be written as

The Laplacian (a review?)

Vorticity production is the sum of the vorticity tendency (7) and the vorticity advection at sea-level ($-V_0 \cdot \nabla \zeta_0$) which is very small and usually neglected. The development process is thus fairly complicated, with one term involving vorticity advection at the LND and the other three terms (called thermal terms) interrelated. Development at sea-level occurs when there is an imbalance between vorticity advection at the LND and the Laplacian of the thermal terms. Cyclogenesis or development occurs when $\nabla \zeta_0$ is positive and the $\nabla^2 \zeta_0$ terms are negative (note the minus sign prefixing the term).

heating	$H \equiv \ln \left(\frac{d}{p_0} \frac{d}{dt} \right) \frac{d}{dt}$
stratification	$S \equiv \ln \left(\frac{d}{p_0} \right) \omega (\nabla^2 - \nabla^2)$
thickness advection	$\nabla_{V_0} \zeta_0 \equiv -\mathbf{V}_0 \cdot \nabla (\Delta z)$
vorticity advection	$\nabla_{V_0} \zeta_0 \equiv -\mathbf{V}_0 \cdot \nabla \zeta_0$

where the following definitions are used:

$$\frac{\partial \zeta_0}{\partial t} = \nabla_{V_0} \zeta_0 - \frac{f}{R} \Delta^2 z + S + H \quad (7)$$

By using the thermal wind relationship in (4), we can ultimately write the equation for vorticity tendency at sea-level as

$$\text{because } \nabla_T = \mathbf{V} - \mathbf{V}_0$$

$$\zeta = \zeta_0 + \zeta_T \quad (6)$$

where Δz is the thickness of the layer bounded by the LND and the surface. The vorticity at the LND (ζ_0) is simply the sum of the vorticity at the surface (ζ_T) and the thermal vorticity (ζ_0).

$$\zeta_T = \frac{f}{R} \Delta^2 (\Delta z) \quad (5)$$

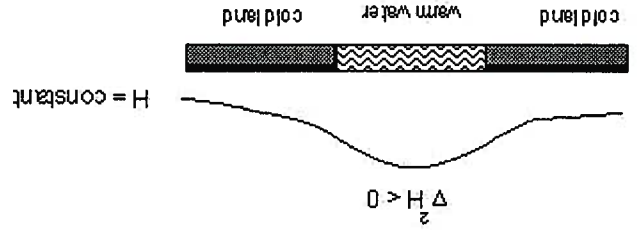
Thermal vorticity is interpreted as the vorticity of the thermal wind, and may be written as

where $\zeta_T = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{V}_T$ symbolizes divergence, subscript T refers to the thermal wind (on V) or thermal vorticity (on ζ_T), subscript 0 refers to sea level (actually 1000 mb), and no subscript refers to the LND.

$$\frac{d}{dt} \zeta_0 = -D_0 \zeta_0 - \mathbf{V}_0 \cdot \nabla \zeta_0 - \mathbf{V}_T \cdot \nabla \zeta_0 - \chi_T \cdot \nabla \zeta_0 - \chi_T \cdot \nabla \zeta_0 = -D_0 \zeta_0 - \mathbf{V}_0 \cdot \nabla \zeta_0 - \mathbf{V}_T \cdot \nabla \zeta_0 - \chi_T \cdot \nabla \zeta_0 \quad (4)$$

Remember $[\omega]$ and w have opposite signs. For development to occur due to the stratification term, we must have non-zero vertical motion ($[\omega] \neq 0$). We normally associate upward motion with cyclonic development ($d[\zeta]_0/dt > 0$), but this will not in general be the case! The atmosphere is normally statically stable ($[\Gamma]_a > [\Gamma]_s$), and the product of $[\omega]$ and $[\Gamma]_a$ - sense if you recall that upward motion leads to adiabatic cooling. If latent heat is being released upon ascent, however, we use $[\Gamma]_s$ rather than $[\Gamma]_a$, both factors are negative, and this term (S)

Effects of stratification



Anticyclogenesis can be caused for the opposite case. Examples of cyclolysis include wintertime cyclolysis over the Pacific Northwest and Europe as storms leave the (relatively) warm waters and move over colder land. This effect also works for anticyclones, as we often observe anticyclones to stall as they move into the eastern US in winter, due to the fact that at their leading edge, a heat source is being encountered, thus opposing anticyclonic development.

Heat sources generate cyclonic vorticity ($H > 0 \Rightarrow [\text{gradient}]^2 H < 0 \Rightarrow -[\text{gradient}]^2 H > 0 \Rightarrow d[\zeta]_0/dt < 0$) and cold surfaces are regions of anticyclogenesis. However, the heating (cooling) effect must not be uniform, otherwise the Laplacian is zero! Examples of areas where these influences are large include monsoon regions and areas where land-sea breezes or mountain-valley breezes are common. This effect can also be important in air mass modification (e.g. the transformation of cP into mT) as cold air moves over warm water (resulting in lake effect snows downwind of the Great Lakes, and coastal cyclogenesis over the western Atlantic and Pacific Oceans near the Gulf Stream and Kuroshio Current, respectively).

Diabatic effects

$$\begin{aligned} & * A_4 \\ & * A_1 * A_0 * A_3 \\ & * A_2 \end{aligned}$$

where d is the spacing between grid points.

$$\Delta^2 A = \frac{A_1 + A_2 + A_3 + A_4 - 4A_0}{d^2}$$

The finite difference form of the Laplacian applied to the grid below is

The relative vorticity is positive in troughs ($[\zeta] < 0$ when z is a minimum) and negative in ridges ($[\zeta] > 0$ when z is a maximum). A similar interpretation may be given to the Laplacian terms in (7), i.e. when the function A is a maximum, $[\text{gradient}]^2 A$ is positive. The Laplacian is a second derivative and so represents curvature. Therefore we must have some large change in magnitude of the function A for there to be a large Laplacian term.

where V is the wind speed, K_s is the curvature along a streamline and $\frac{\partial V}{\partial x}$ is the shear term. Usually the shear varies little along the streamline even though it is usually quite large in the region of interest. We can then write the advection of $[\zeta]$ as

$$Z = \frac{\partial K_s}{\partial x} + \dots \quad (8)$$

PVA at the LND leads to development at sea level, according to the development equation. This is the big one and is important for providing the initial development, according to Petterssen. The role this plays can be further explored by looking at an alternate expression for vorticity advection using natural coordinates:

The effects of vorticity advection

Look at the S term again; it involves the average correlation between $[\omega]$ and $[\zeta]$. Normally in cyclonic systems $[\omega] < 0$ and $[\zeta] > 0$ so that $S > 0$ and $\frac{d[\zeta]}{dt} > 0$ (which *opposes* development). We can visualize how this works by remembering that upward motion is associated with adiabatic cooling. Also, the magnitude of the divergence is proportional to the amplitude of the storm (from P&N Ch. 6), and we know that vertical motion is related to the divergence so with amplification, we get more upward motion, which makes S more strongly negative (minimum) and hence inhibits generation of cyclonic vorticity at the surface. In fact during the life cycle of the cyclone, the stratification term becomes more important such that cyclonic scale development is a self-limiting process.

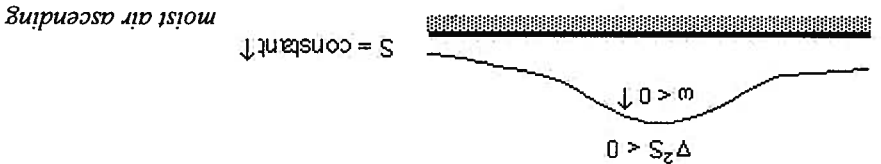
Whether or not self-development may occur, we observe that cyclones experience a life cycle which includes their ultimate demise. The stratification term plays an important role in this regard. How does the stratification term work to oppose the effects of development of a cyclonic storm? Or, why do cyclones die? Let's see ...

Discussion #2: The self-development process and the limitations of the stratification term (after Sutcliffe)

In practice, this term is very important for maintenance of the cyclonic storm, but not for initial development. Maximum thickness advection, maximum warm advection, $-\nabla \cdot \mathbf{V} * [\text{gradient}]_T > 0$ will foster development of cyclonic systems. According to Petterssen, when this term becomes significantly large, it will be opposed by the diabatic and adiabatic terms (H and S , respectively), which also influence temperature.

The effects of thickness advection

The main effect of condensation is to minimize the negative effect of stability. Provided other effects (terms in Eq. 7) are favorable, cyclonic development will occur when there is a minimum in stability, a maximum of moisture, and a low condensation level to help the clouds get started.



is of the same sign as H and contributes to development. This will not happen until significant cloudiness has already been developed within the cyclone. Also, upward motion is usually not large in the incipient stages of cyclonic development. Therefore, it will not in general contribute to the initial development of a cyclone, but will be associated with its further strengthening later in time. [All of this discussion works well for mid-latitude cyclones, but not for tropical cyclones, which *require* this term for development!]



* "... the appreciable amounts of vorticity advection aloft are limited to small areas, separated by vast areas of insignificant values of vorticity advection."
 * "Cyclone development at sea level occurs when and where an area of appreciable vorticity advection in the upper troposphere becomes superimposed upon a slowly moving or quasi-stationary front at sea level." (Ah, if were only that simple!)

To conclude we present two quotes from Pettersen (Ch. 16):
 Note the important result: vorticity advection is proportional to the wind speed *squared*! I wonder if this has applications for jet streams? Providing the configuration of the contours (streamlines) is favorable, this is *crucial* for initial development, according to the theory.

$$A_z = \left(V \frac{\partial K_s}{\partial s} + K_s \frac{\partial V}{\partial s} \right) = -\nabla^2 \left(\frac{\partial K_s}{\partial s} + K_s K_p \right) \quad (9)$$

Barotropic/baroclinic instability and atmosphere.

MET? : Ruscher (? , 1995)

- Explain and contrast barotropic and baroclinic instability as they pertain to synoptic scale disturbances. Be sure to include information about both the theoretical and practical aspects of these instability mechanisms. Also, describe the difference between a barotropic and baroclinic atmosphere.

look at other study notes!

MET? : Ruscher (60 minutes) *
 (general)

• Tallahassee has a reputation for being colder than the surrounding areas on certain nights. In fact, one can often what television weathercasts and hear the weathercaster state that "the temperature will be colder in the low spots like the airport." Do you agree with the above statement (quoted above)? Using your familiarity with the local area, and your knowledge of dynamic, physical, and synoptic meteorology, discuss the basis for your agreement or disagreement in terms that an introductory meteorology (Met 1010) student could understand. Include some sketches or diagrams that would be helpful.

Sol

The temperature at the TLH airport are often colder by several degrees than those at surrounding locations when the area is under clear skies and light variable

→ these synoptic conditions maximize the difference between TLH and surrounding area temperatures. The primary cooling mechanism under these conditions is radiational cooling. But why are TLH temp cooler?

① Land around airport has "stripped of trees & shrubs. The trees that surround the airport are largely pines. Pines, with their fewer branches, needles, and smaller canopy are less effective in intercepting LW from the sky. The absence of dense vegetation at the site also allow LW to more readily escape.

② Soil around airport is a sandy loam. Thus it is very porous to water. Water has a high heat capacity and is slower to change temperature. Moist soil heats & cools slower than dry soil. The sandy soil in & around the airport is more likely to be dry than very moist.

③ There are few manmade structures in and around the airport. Furthermore the airport is far enough southwest of the urban heat island towards downtown TLH that it is not warmed by advection.

→ Paved roads & concrete structures retain daytime heating and thereby slow cooling rates at night. The numerous roads and buildings in developed urban centers create local warm pools ⇒ urban heat islands

④ Cool air drainage. The airport is in a lower area relative to its surrounding. Thus the gravitational density current type drainage of cold air into the airport area reinforces the cool temperatures. As TLH is not mountainous ⇒ this effect may not be the dominant reason for cold temps at the airport but it is a factor.

→ manmade structures

→ moisture (sandy loam)

→ fewer vegetation

→ Cool air drainage

(general, PBL)

MET? : Ruscher (60 minutes)

• A very "hot" issue in Tallahassee right now involves the construction of small-scale medical waste incinerators. These incinerators burn waste around the clock at a temperature of approximately 1500°F. Some in state and local government have concerns about the prospects for local and regional impacts on air quality. Suppose that the county's emergency planning office wants to evaluate the impacts on air quality at the present incinerator site, off Springhill Road, and a possible additional site, near Lake Jackson. Discuss in detail the procedures you would recommend to accomplish this, considering likely sources of data. How much confidence do you feel should be ascribed to the results of the evaluation you describe and why?

← Hmmm ...

MET? : Ruscher (60 minutes)

• Suppose you were given the code for a three-dimensional numerical weather prediction model of the atmosphere (e.g., the FSU global spectral model). Your task is to adapt the model for use in atmospheric chemical studies. (a) What chemical species (or families) would you consider to be most important to include in short- and medium-range forecast (out to 10 days) runs. Discuss very briefly the significance of each species/family; (b) How would you like to parameterize boundary layer processes involving these chemical species, given that the current model uses standard K-theory? If using the existing K-theory, what assumptions would need to be made? If you would use a different method, describe it. (c) Describe in a paragraph or two a scientific problem which might be suitable for investigation with such a model. What kind of hypothesis would you be testing and what kinds of experiments might you devise?

Hmmm 000

MET? (Turbulence question): Ruscher (1 hour)

→ Try to simplify the answer!

• Derive the kinetic energy equation starting with the equation of motion (written as a local tendency of the zonal wind). Show how the Richardson number can be derived from terms of this equation, and give an interpretation for laminar, turbulent, and transitional flows in terms of the Richardson number.

look at my study note!

Sol) Following Einstein's summation notation, the eq. of motion can

be written as follows

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + u_j \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_j} = -\sigma z \rho + f \epsilon_{ij3} u_j - \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p}{\partial x_i} + \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial \tau_{ij}}{\partial x_j}$$

Using hydrostatic, incompressibility + Boussinesq approx,

The above eq. can be simplified as

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + u_j \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_j} = -\sigma z \rho + f \epsilon_{ij3} u_j - \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p}{\partial x_i} + \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial \tau_{ij}}{\partial x_j}$$

Here, we have to derive the eq. for mean winds in a turbulent

flow. $u_i = \bar{u}_i + u'_i$, $p = \bar{p} + p'$ etc.

Sub. the above and after applying the Reynolds averaging,

also utilizing the turbulent continuity eq., we have

$$\frac{\partial \bar{u}_i}{\partial t} + \bar{u}_j \frac{\partial \bar{u}_i}{\partial x_j} = -\sigma z \rho + f \epsilon_{ij3} \bar{u}_j - \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{p}}{\partial x_i} + \frac{\partial \tau_{ij}}{\partial x_j}$$

Next, the momentum eq. for the turbulent departure must

be obtained by subtracting the mean part eg. from the original,

$$\frac{\partial u'_i}{\partial t} + \bar{u}_j \frac{\partial u'_i}{\partial x_j} + u'_j \frac{\partial u'_i}{\partial x_j} = +\sigma z \rho + f \epsilon_{ij3} u'_j$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad - \left(\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial \tau_{ij}}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial \tau_{ij}}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial \tau_{ij}}{\partial x_j} \right)$$

By $\overline{u'_i u'_j} = 0$, Reynolds averaging and scale analysis,

the velocity variance eq. can be obtained.

$$\frac{\partial \overline{u'_i u'_i}}{\partial t} + \bar{u}_j \frac{\partial \overline{u'_i u'_i}}{\partial x_j} = +2\sigma z \rho + \frac{\partial \overline{u'_i u'_j}}{\partial x_j} - \frac{\partial \overline{u'_i u'_j}}{\partial x_j}$$

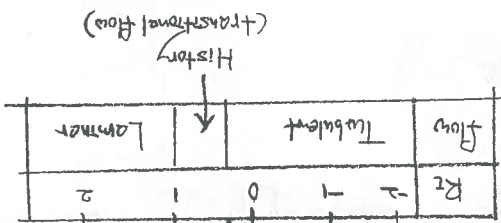
$$- \frac{\partial \overline{u'_i u'_i}}{\partial x_i} - \frac{\partial \overline{u'_i u'_i}}{\partial x_i}$$

Here, let define TKE

$$\frac{\text{TKE}}{m} = \bar{\epsilon} = \frac{1}{2} (\overline{u'^2} + \overline{v'^2} + \overline{w'^2})$$

$$\text{So } \frac{\partial \bar{\epsilon}}{\partial t} + \bar{u}_j \frac{\partial \bar{\epsilon}}{\partial x_j} = \sigma z \rho + \frac{\partial \overline{u'_i u'_j}}{\partial x_j} - \frac{\partial \overline{u'_i u'_j}}{\partial x_j} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial \overline{u'^2}}{\partial x_i} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial \overline{u'^2}}{\partial x_i}$$

← TKE budget eq.



$$R_i = 1$$

Turbulent flow becomes laminar when $R_i > R_c$

Laminar flow becomes turbulent when $R_i < R_c$

→ dynamical stability criteria

$$R_i = \frac{\frac{g}{\rho \theta} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z}}{\frac{\partial u}{\partial z} + \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial z} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial w}{\partial z} \right)^2}$$

We can define the gradient Richardson number.

S.D. employing K-theory, $-W \theta' \propto \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z}$, ...

Laminar flow will become turbulent.

determine whether turbulent flow will become laminar, but not what

can calculate its value only for turbulent flow. We can use it to

Here, a peculiar problem arises in the use of R_g : namely, we

(Flow becomes laminar (dynamically stable) when $R_g > 1$.)

(Flow is turbulent (dynamically unstable) when $R_g < 1$.)

Statically stable flows, R_g is positive.

For statically unstable flows, R_g is usually negative. For neutral flows, it is zero. For

denominator is usually negative. Remember that the

$$R_g = \frac{\frac{W \theta'}{\rho \theta} + \frac{W \theta'}{\rho \theta}}{\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial z} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial z} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial w}{\partial z} \right)^2}$$

Assume horizontal homogeneity and neglect subsidence,

$$R_g = \frac{\frac{W \theta'}{\rho \theta}}{\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial z} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial z} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial w}{\partial z} \right)^2}$$

$$R_g = \frac{\text{buoyancy term}}{\text{shear term}}$$

The ratio of term $\textcircled{1}$ to term $\textcircled{2}$ in TKE eq. defines flux $R_i \#$

PBL (6480)

MET? (Physical question): Ruscher (1.5 hour, 1997) *

- Define the planetary boundary layer. Describe the evolution of the height of the boundary layer over a typical diurnal cycle, under synoptic scale anticyclone conditions. Describe the growth mechanisms for such a boundary layer, and include definitions for stable, neutral, and unstable boundary layers, and include a quantitative discussion of the importance of the Richardson number on boundary layer studies. Discuss the role of variations of cloud cover, wind speed, and soil moisture on boundary layer evolution.

Sd) → see my notes.

PBL: that part of the troposphere that is directly influenced

by the presence of the earth's sfc and responds to sfc

forces with a timescale of about an hour or less.

o
v
o

Note for Isentropic Coordinates. (Ruscher)

Advantages

- ① Over synoptic spatial & temporal scales, isentropic surfaces act like material surfaces; for adiabatic processes, air parcel are thermodynamically bound to an isentropic sfc
- ② advection of pressure on θ sfc can be qualitatively determined by noting the cross isobar flow on θ sfc.
- ③ moisture transport on θ sfc includes the vertical advection component which is often missed in pressure coordinates.
- ④ narrow frontal bands are resolved in greater detail \leftarrow better resolution where you want it.
- ⑤ Vertical gradient of isentropic sfc ("thickness") is a measure of static stability
- ⑥ the slope of an isentropic sfc in the vertical is directly related to the thermal wind.
- ⑦ parcel trajectories can be computed on θ sfc using implicit/explicit scheme

Disadvantages

- ① θ sfc are ill defined in regions where the lapse rate is neutral or superadiabatic
- ② continuity of θ sfc is disrupted significantly by the presence of diabatic effects.
- ③ θ sfc can intersect the ground at large angles and thereby cause a problematic lower boundary condition
- ④ Choosing proper θ -sfc is not trivial.
- ⑤ Observations are not collected/routinely processed on θ sfc.
- ⑥ People are accustomed to the p-coordinate

Note for explosive cyclogenesis.

Explosive cyclogenesis is defined by Sanders and Gyakum (1980). It occurs when a low pressure systems central pressure decreases 1mb/hr for 24 hours at 60°N. This rate of decrease is known as a Beigenon. Most case studies of explosive cyclogenesis have focused on storms that form over the Western Atlantic and Pacific oceans.

"Wintime" and "land-based" bombs develop differently. How does the latent heat play a role in the kinematics and energetics of explosive cyclogenesis? The wintime bomb is related to the largest sea surface temperature gradient.

Keet (1979) believes that CISK (Cheney and Eliassen) may also play a major role in the formation and intensification of extratropical wintime bombs - as large role as baroclinic instability.

Latent heat release - another factor for an explanation of explosive cyclogenesis over land.

In the Sutcliffe - Fehsenfeld development equation the heating term incorporating latent and diabatic heating effects helps describe the increase in circulation of a surface low. This is to say, the heating term is responsible for the generation of low level vorticity.

Fehsenfeld (1956) emphasized that differential vorticity advection and the Laplacian of temperature advection are needed to intensify cyclogenesis, while latent and diabatic heating plays more of a

A role in sustaining and intensifying cyclogenesis.

In the area of the maximum rate of convection, upward vertical motion increased as well as downward motion surrounding the precipitation area. Latent heating influences the P field more slowly than ω field. A change in the thickness pattern due to latent heating indicates a warm in the lower troposphere and a dynamic cooling in the upper troposphere. In frontalogenesis, the effect of latent heating is that low-level convergence of warm and cold air masses causes frontalogenesis in the low-levels and set up a synoptically direct vertical circulation about the upper cold front.

Latent heat release obviously has an important role in the kinematics as well as the energetics of extratropical cyclogenesis.

EAPF can be changed by

- 1) thermally direct circulation that converts eddy APE to eddy KE
- 2) converting ZAPE to EAPF by destroying north-south temperature gradient and energetics of a major westerly-cyclone in the central U.S. He concluded that the release of latent heat should lessen the tendency for vertical cloud to destroy existing temperature contrasts.
- Bullock and Johnson (1971) found that the generation of APE is primarily dependent on the distribution of precipitation about the cyclone. They concluded this generation of APE compensates for the effect of friction within the storm.

Cyclogenesis over land

Gyakum & Barker (1988) claim that the initial phase of development is associated with mesoscale forcing. They state that the bulk diabatic effects of cumulus convection may directly affect incipient cyclogenesis.

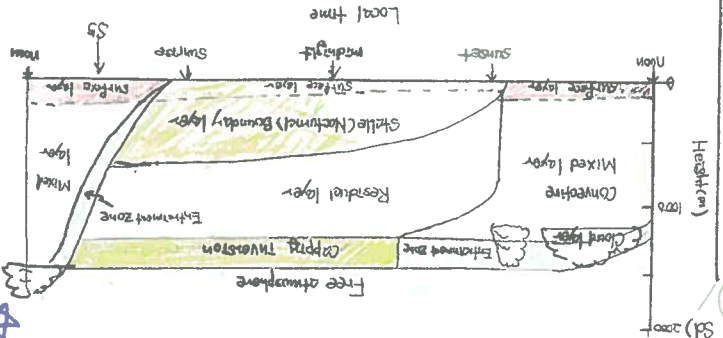
(Spring 1997)

Ruscher

MET6480 PBL

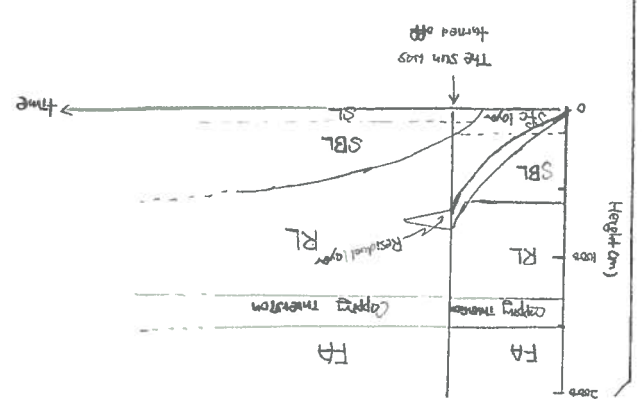
Boundary layer meteorology Exam

• Sketch the BL in high pressure regions over land.

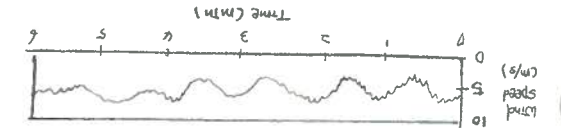


The free atmosphere is at least weakly stable, but certainly not neutral. Partly forget, this is a layer, too! The entrainment zone is weakly stable, as well. The surface layer is only superadiabatic during the daytime over land, when surface heating can force the lapse rate near the ground to be as large as the autoconvective lapse rate (in a thin layer, this is 3K/km). At night over land, the SBL or NBL is stable, and becomes strongly stable over time. Over the warm ocean at night, it is possible to have neutral or perhaps even superadiabatic layers, but the problem asks for a land-based PBL. The other strongly stable layer is the capping inversion.

• Given the BL evolution, sketch the modified evolution that would occur if the sun was turned off at time S_g.



Define the time scale here as T (period of record)/N (# of eddies). Then $t = 360s/6.5 = 55.6s$ (approximately, but less than 60 seconds).



• If you observed the following measurement of wind speed on a bluff chart, then what diameter (in meters) are the major eddies?

Primary result of this cutting off the insolation in the morning is the retardation of growth of the daytime mixed layer. Result: a shallower daytime PBL for one thing, and likely (comparing to the original), less if any cloud development. Potential causes: clouds above PBL, forest fires, or other anthropogenic or natural pollution sources such as volcanic eruptions or chemical plumes, solar eclipses.

The mean wind speed U is of order 6 m/s (more than 5'). Assuming Taylor's hypothesis holds (eg, eddies move with the mean wind speed), $L = T * U = 335m$

Suppose that the boundary layer can be approximated by a 1 km constant thickness layer over the whole continental United States. Above that, assume that a constant thickness (10 km) free atmosphere exists. Assume that each of these layers is well mixed for simplicity.

a) On the average, what fraction of the area of the continent United States is covered by cyclones (low pressure regions)? According to most synoptic climatology references, approximately 25%-40% of the United States may be covered with cyclones during the spring season (i.e. Peterson, Roebber, Whitaker and Horn, Zishka and Smith). Here, let's use 1/3 for calculations below.

b) What is the average vertical velocity magnitude out of the top of the BL in these cyclone regions? Low pressure systems → low level convergence (at PBL top, for example). If you integrate the continuity eq, you get $w(PBL) = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{V} * h$. Using appropriate values for a cyclone and h (given), $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{V} = -1 \times 10^{-5} s^{-1}$ and $h = 1 km$. $w = 1 cm/s$. Values of order 1/2 to 5 or 10 cm/s are widely quoted for synoptic scale vertical motion estimates in the absence of deep convection.

c) What is the average subsidence velocity acting on the top of the BL in anticyclonic (high pressure) regions? Since low covers 1/3, $w(1000) * (Area) + w(1000) * (Area) = 0$ for mass conservation. Solve for $w(1000)$ gives $-0.5 cm/s$. $10m/s \cdot \frac{1}{3} + w(1000) \cdot \frac{2}{3} = 0$

What are the average residence time, P, of air within the BL and the free atmosphere? (Neglect horizontal advection out of the U.S.) $P = \frac{V}{\dot{V}}$ (volume / volume/time). F (volume flow rate) = Area * Velocity for each, area is horizontal value (whether you pick or calculate), but it is the same for the PBL as it is for the FA, so it ends up cancelling out of the question. For the period, then, we have simply depth/vertical motion = Period. For the PBL, $P = \frac{W}{h} = \frac{1000m}{10^{-2}m/s} = 10^5 s (\sim 1 day)$. For the FA, $P = \frac{W}{H} = \frac{1000m}{10^{-2}m/s} = 2 \times 10^5 s \sim 2.3 days$ (seems large?) → seems about right... PBL recycles every day.

Compare these residence times with the typical Rossby wave time period (that is, the average time period between cyclone passage over a fixed point). Comment on the significance of these times. Relevance: The refresh rate for the FA is much larger than the Rossby time scale for cyclone passage, indicating that it is irrelevant for most real situations. The PBL turns over every day regardless of the synoptic situation. In cases where there are no cyclone passages (blocking situation) for many days, the FA can stagnate for long periods of time.

- a) Given air at a pressure height of 90 kPa with a temperature of 30°C and a mixing ratio of 20 g/kg, find the virtual potential temperature.

Sol) $P = 90 \text{ kPa}$, $T = 30^\circ\text{C} = 303.15 \text{ K}$, $r = 20 \text{ g/kg}$ ← for unsaturated air

potential temperature (using Poisson's eq.)

$$\theta = T \left(\frac{P}{P_0} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma}} = 303.15 \times \left(\frac{90}{100} \right)^{0.286} \approx 312.43 \text{ K}$$

The air is unsaturated, so the virtual potential temp is

$$\theta_v = \theta (1 + 0.61r)$$

$$= 312.43 \times [1 + 0.61 \times 0.02] \approx 316.24 \text{ K}$$

- b) Given saturated air at 850 hPa with a temperature of 20°C and a total water mixing ratio (i.e. sum of vapor and liquid mixing ratios) of 20 g/kg. Find the virtual potential temp.

Sol) $P = 85 \text{ kPa}$, $T = 20^\circ\text{C} = 293.15 \text{ K}$, $r_{\text{tot}} = 20 \text{ g/kg}$ ← for saturated air

We might employ a Skew-T-log-P diagram to find r_{sat} (saturation mixing ratio)

$$\rightarrow r_{\text{sat}} \approx 17.8 \text{ g/kg}$$

$$\text{So, } r_l = r_{\text{tot}} - r_{\text{sat}} = 20 - 17.8 = 2.2 \text{ g/kg}$$

potential temp

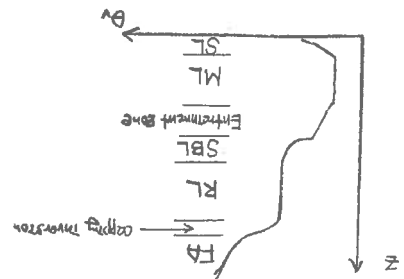
$$\theta = T \left(\frac{P}{P_0} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma}} = 293.15 \times \left(\frac{85}{100} \right)^{0.286} \approx 307.11 \text{ K}$$

The air is saturated, so

$$\theta_v = \theta (1 + 0.61 r_{\text{sat}})$$

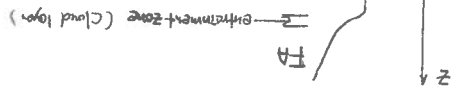
$$= 307.11 \times (1 + 0.61 \times 0.0178) \approx 309.77 \text{ K}$$

- Given the following virtual potential temp sounding, identify each layer. Estimate what time of day that sounding was made, and then sketch the θ_v profile that you might expect four hours later.



In the morning after sunrise.

4 hours later



Sol)

MFT6480: Boundary layer Meteorology
Ruscher

- Download an 18 Z weather map for any day in April and print it out. It must have fronts and features analyzed on it, and it would be a good thing to have surface weather observations on it, as well. Suppose I am interested in learning which locations are appropriate to run the 1D PBL model for, to retrieve boundary layer forecasts for 12-24Z tomorrow. Discuss.
 - a) a set of 10 stations appropriate for running the model today
 - b) how to do the runs (from which soundings, any other difficulties you might have to deal with)?
 - c) Why we can't run the model everywhere for any time

- Today at 14 Z, the sky was overcast (not according to ASOS, which reported

KTLH 141352Z 03008KT 10SM CLR 12/04 A3015 RMK AO2 SLP208
(T01220039=)

In any case, apparently, the clouds are at 12,000 ft. Winds are 8 knots, temperature is 54 F and the dew point is 39 F. How would you classify the stability of the boundary layer this morning, from this information, and any other information you care to use? Please define it using appropriate criteria!

- Please answer the following question from Stull: Problem 5.7.
- Please answer the following question from Stull: Problem 5.6 & 5.12 (counts as one problem).
- Please answer the following question from Stull: Problem 4.11
- Please answer the following question from Stull: Problem 3.19

- Describe the essential differences that must be taken into account when considering atmospheric boundary layer processes over the ocean (rather than the land). Consider the cases of both a warm sea surface and cool sea surface (relative to the air above it).

Discuss how spectra of atmospheric measurements may be used to diagnose boundary layer and turbulence processes. Include a discussion of how to recognize dominant processes, dissipation, and the "spectral gap."

Boundary Layer meteorology (Ruster)

- mean structure of the PBL
- turbulent structure of the PBL
- governing prognostic eqs.
- scaling techniques for PBL studies: budget studies.
- surface energy budget and radiative effects on PBL structure
- similarity theory
- atmospheric convection & the convective boundary layer
- the stable boundary layer
- boundary layer cloud processes
- boundary layer modelling and turbulence closure
- applications to air pollution meteorology.

notebook

Flow in the free atmosphere (above PBL)

gradient flow: horizontal frictionless flow, where the Coriolis acceleration and centrifugal acceleration together balance the pressure gradient acceleration

$$\frac{R}{V^2} + fV = -\frac{g}{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial n} = -\frac{\rho}{\rho_0} \frac{\partial \ln \rho}{\partial n}$$

where V: gradient wind speed
R: radius of curvature

geostrophic flow: PGF & Coriolis forces balance

$$V_g = -\frac{g}{f} \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial n}$$

Cyclostrophic flow: PGF & centrifugal force balance

$$\frac{R}{V^2} = -\frac{\rho}{\rho_0} \frac{\partial \ln \rho}{\partial n}$$

inertial flow: frictionless flow on a geopotential surface on which there is no PGF, i.e.

$$\frac{R}{V^2} + fV = 0 \rightarrow R = -\frac{f}{V^2}$$

Some common characteristics: frictionless (inviscid)

Some properties of turbulence

- Turbulence is characterized by irregularity or randomness: for practical purposes this aspect of turbulence must be treated statistically.
- Diffusivity: both passive & active properties are transported by turbulent motions in directions both parallel and normal to the mean flow.
- Turbulence generally transports properties "down the gradient"
- Turbulent flows are characterized by large Reynolds numbers
- $Re \equiv \text{advective terms} / \text{viscous terms}$

$$= \frac{U \frac{\partial U}{\partial x}}{\nu \frac{\partial^2 U}{\partial x^2}} \approx \frac{U^2 L}{\nu} = UL/\nu$$
- $Re > 1$ indicates advective transports (including turbulent transports) exceed molecular transport (viscosity)
- Vorticity is vector quantity once again (i.e. 3D): vortex stretching is necessary to maintain turbulence (vorticity is not just ζ in this class)
- Dissipation of K.E. (conversion to turbulence energy)
- Energy "cascades" down-scale, as energy is transferred from the larger scales to the smaller scales, ultimately leading to viscous dissipation

Dimensional analysis

- variables can be scaled as $O(1)$. In this way, one can formally eliminate many small scale terms in various eqs in the system of interest.
- e.g. $U \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} \approx U^2/L$: scale appropriately and then divide all terms in u-momentum eq. by U^2/L to get non-dimensional terms which are of same order and some which are smaller (OK if advective terms are dominant)
- Solutions are a function of a limited number of scales.
- The solutions may be functions of certain non-dimensional numbers (e.g. $Re, Ra, Ro, K\alpha, etc.$)
- \rightarrow Raster number

Methods of analysis for turbulence

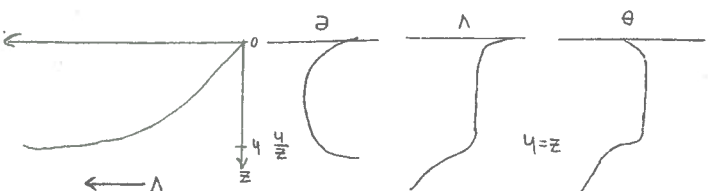
- Dimensional analysis
- variables can be scaled as $O(1)$. In this way, one can formally eliminate many small scale terms in various eqs in the system of interest.
- e.g. $U \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} \approx U^2/L$: scale appropriately and then divide all terms in u-momentum eq. by U^2/L to get non-dimensional terms which are of same order and some which are smaller (OK if advective terms are dominant)
- Solutions are a function of a limited number of scales.
- The solutions may be functions of certain non-dimensional numbers (e.g. $Re, Ra, Ro, K\alpha, etc.$)
- \rightarrow Raster number

Asymptotic invariance

The flow behavior may be well known in the limit as certain non-dimensional number approach zero or infinity. For example, as $Re \rightarrow \infty$, the direct influence of viscosity on the flow becomes negligible and the flow approaches a state in which any solution of turbulent flow should obey this condition as $Re \rightarrow \infty$; that is, we now have a constraint on the flow. This is sometimes referred to in the literature as "Reynolds number similarity theory".

Local invariance

Whenever flows are not in balance, an adjustment process will occur which will be associated with a given time scale. If the adjustment time scale of the turbulence is small compared to the adjustment time scale of the external variables (baric state) or the mean flow, then the turbulence can adjust fast enough to be in equilibrium with the local mean flow and external variables. Then the turbulence is said to have "no memory" of the earlier conditions.



If the flow is sufficiently heated, the turbulence is generated primarily by buoyancy effects and may be described by a convective velocity scale.

$W_* \equiv \left[\frac{g}{\theta_0} \frac{W_* \theta_0 h}{\nu} \right]^{1/3}$
 B: measure of energy (energy/time)
 buoyancy

For example, we could postulate $e/w_* = f(z/h) \Rightarrow \frac{e}{w_*^3}$ is non-dimensional
 where $e \equiv \text{turbulent K.E.} \equiv \frac{1}{2} [\overline{u'^2 + v'^2 + w'^2}]$, z is the height in the PBL, and h is the local value of the mixed layer depth. This type of ratio provides a normalization to the TKE as a function of normalized height within the PBL. An approach which characterizes many turbulence studies in the literature

At the mixed-layer interface itself, the turbulence is a function of the Richardson number, which we can define here as being somewhat informal (about that):

$$Ri = \frac{\rho_0 \Delta h / (\Delta V)^2}{\frac{\rho_0 \Delta z}{\Delta \theta}}$$

where Δh and ΔV are, respectively, the potential temperature and wind speed "jumps" across the interface of thickness Δh .

Near the surface, shear generation may still dominate even under buoyant convection so that the turbulence locally (in the surface layer) may depend on a different velocity scale, called the friction velocity.

$u_* \equiv [u_*^2]^{1/2}$: empirically

→ upward flux of westerly momentum perturbation as the turbulence is dominated primarily by shear effects.

These are two examples of determination of velocity scales from the dominant dynamical processes for given flow situations.

• The origin of turbulence

In the previous example, turbulence was generated by both buoyancy and shear. In the former case, heating generates convective currents & local shear which in turn generates turbulence.

Perturbation instability and generation of turbulence occurs if the local Reynolds number exceeds a critical value, which is typically over 1000. This value is lowest in the presence of disturbing mechanisms or a rough boundary.

Regardless of the value of the Reynolds number, turbulence is always dissipated by viscous effects. In stable stratification, such as the inversion interface of the previous example, buoyancy effect also destroy turbulence (here TKE is converted to P.E.).

• Under conditions of equilibrium, (shear dimensional analysis and local inversions) Should be valid, production and destruction of turbulence is in balance. For example, at the inversion interface, we might expect

$$Ri = \text{ratio of buoyancy destruction : shear generation}$$

to be fairly constant.

• Summary of shear development of Turbulence

Richardson number	Reynolds number	
	$Re < Re_{critical}$	$Re > Re_{critical}$
$Ri < 0$	turbulence is generated by buoyancy effects	turbulence is generated by buoyancy effects and generated mechanically
$0 < Ri < Ri_{critical}$	turbulence is generated mechanically	turbulence is generated mechanically
$Ri > Ri_{critical}$	no turbulence	no turbulence

• Time Scales

$P = P + P'$ ⇒ important in momentum transport and redistribution

1. External time scales

- Diurnal

- INTERNAL/Coriolis : $\frac{f}{\Omega} \sim 10^{-4}$ in mid-lat. momentum balance $(\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = -fu - f\frac{\partial z}{\partial t})$

→ PBL: Ekman balance; geostrophy + friction

$h \approx \sqrt{\frac{K}{f}}$ where K : eddy diffusivity ($m^2 s^{-1}$) or mixing coeff. or Austausch. coeff.

2. Velocity scale

U, V, W (large scale flows) : u, v (u, v turbulent velocity scales) : u', v'

$u^2 = u_*^2 = C_D U^2$ ∴ $C_D \equiv drag coefficient. (C_D = 7 \times 10^{-3} \text{ or } 1.5 \times 10^{-2})$

suppressed time scale $h \sim U^2 = G_D^2 U^2$

h assumes near-neutral ($\theta \sim const. \text{ wrt } z$)

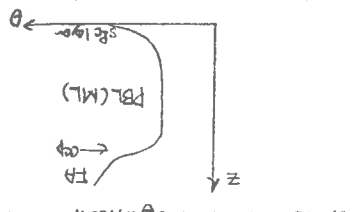
Energy cascade ⇒ energy moves from large scales → smaller scales

$K \propto u_* L$

$U \sim \frac{K}{L}$ ∴ $h \sim \frac{K}{u_*}$

→ applications $U \gg W, L \gg D$

1) sfc heat flux unimportant



h ∝ w_* : h is inversely proportional to stratification above the PBL

∴ $N = Brunt Vaisala frequency.$

• Surface energy balance (modelling aspects)

primitive eqs u, v : hydrostatic
 p : state
 F : continuity of mass
 δ : water vapor continuity
 T : thermodynamic energy

$\frac{d\theta}{dt} = \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} + \lambda \cdot \nabla \cdot \theta = \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} + \lambda \cdot \nabla \cdot \theta + w \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} + \lambda \cdot \nabla \cdot \theta + w \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z}$

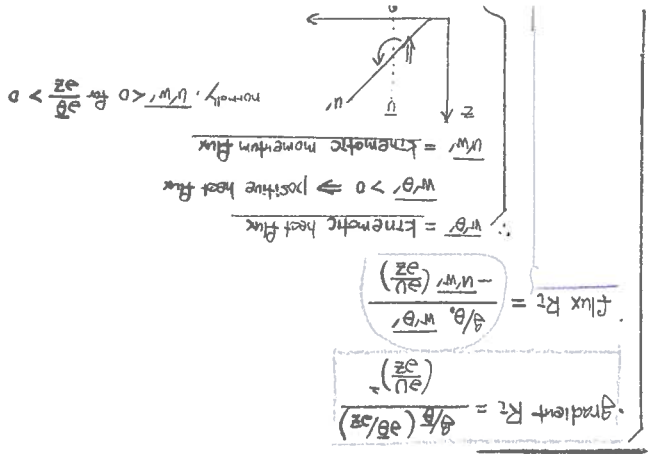
$\frac{d\theta}{dt} = \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} + \lambda \cdot \nabla \cdot \theta + w \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} + \lambda \cdot \nabla \cdot \theta + w \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z}$

where $\lambda = \text{diabatic heating rate } (K/s)$

∴ conservation of heat $Q = 0 (P = E) \Rightarrow \frac{d\theta}{dt} = 0$

$P, E \Rightarrow \theta, g$

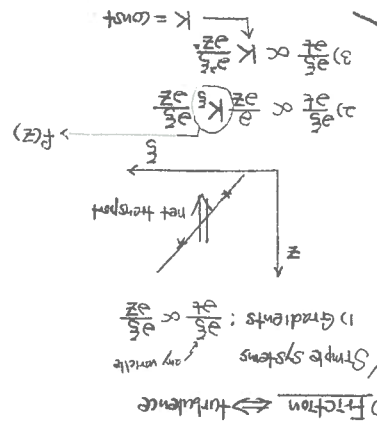
← unit (W/m^2)



flux $R_T = \frac{\partial/\partial z (w' \theta')}{\partial/\partial z (w' u')}$

gradient $R_T = \frac{\partial/\partial z (\partial \theta / \partial z)}{\partial/\partial z (\partial u / \partial z)}$

Richardson #



Friction ↔ turbulence

Positive flux ⇒ away from surface → atmosphere
 evaporation → increase θ → sensible heating → $\theta \uparrow$
 dry time heating → sensible heating → $\theta \uparrow$
 negative flux

$R_n = \dot{q} = Q_n$
 $H = Q_n =$ sensible heat flux (convection)
 $E = Q_E =$ latent heat flux (condensation, evaporation)
 $G = Q_G =$ soil heat flux (conduction)

$S \downarrow = \alpha S \uparrow$
 $(\alpha \cdot S \uparrow - S \downarrow = (1 - \alpha) S \uparrow)$
 albedo = % of visible light reflected from a surface.
 $R_n = \dot{q} = Q_n$
 $H = Q_n =$ sensible heat flux (convection)
 $E = Q_E =$ latent heat flux (condensation, evaporation)
 $G = Q_G =$ soil heat flux (conduction)

$\downarrow =$ terrestrial radiation: tree, water, soils, vegetation
 albedo → 12 types
 tree density, color, age, crystal characteristics
 $\downarrow =$ direct + diffuse, scattering
 radiation (cloud, aerosol)
 Simple sun-earth geometry
 $S \downarrow = S \uparrow$
 emission $E = \epsilon \sigma T^4$
 $\epsilon = \epsilon_0, \dots, \epsilon_n$
 $\uparrow =$ direct + diffuse, scattering
 radiation (cloud, aerosol)
 Simple sun-earth geometry
 $S \downarrow = \alpha S \uparrow$
 $(\alpha \cdot S \uparrow - S \downarrow = (1 - \alpha) S \uparrow)$
 albedo = % of visible light reflected from a surface.
 $R_n = \dot{q} = Q_n$
 $H = Q_n =$ sensible heat flux (convection)
 $E = Q_E =$ latent heat flux (condensation, evaporation)
 $G = Q_G =$ soil heat flux (conduction)

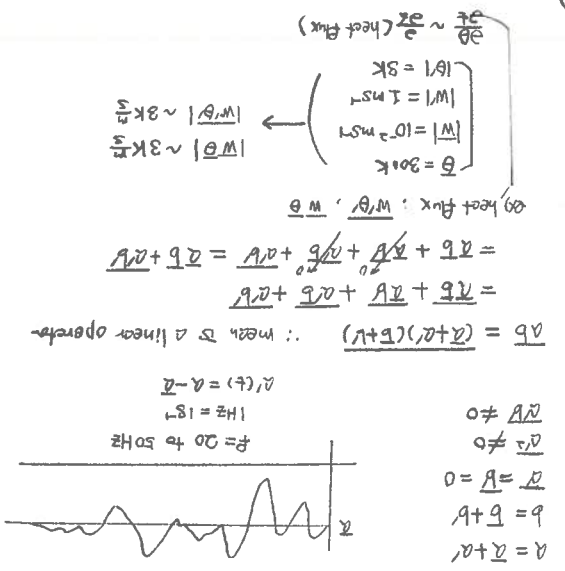
* Reynolds stresses ($u'w'$) ≫ viscous shear stresses
 $K \gg \nu$
 $1 \sim 100 \text{ m/s}$
 $10^{-2} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$
 eddy viscosity K
 bulk viscosity = μ_B
 $\nu = \frac{\sigma}{\rho} =$ kinematic viscosity

$T_{xz} = -\rho \int u'w'_s = T_{zx} = -\rho \int w'u'_s$
 $\Rightarrow u'w' = w'u'$
 $T_{xy} = \mu \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right) + \left(\mu_B - \frac{2}{3} \mu \right) \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}$
 $T_{xz} \propto \frac{\rho}{2} T_s$
 $T_{xy} \propto \frac{\rho}{2} T_s$
 $T_{xz} \propto \frac{\rho}{2} K \frac{\partial u}{\partial z}$
 $T_{xy} \propto \frac{\rho}{2} K \frac{\partial u}{\partial z}$
 penetration

Friction, fluxes & stress

$\text{var}(A) \equiv \sigma_A^2 = \overline{A^2}$
 $\sigma_A \equiv \sqrt{\overline{A^2}}$
 turbulence intensity $I_A = \frac{\sigma_A}{\overline{A}} = \left(\frac{\sigma_A}{\overline{A}} \right)^2$
 $\text{covar}(a, b) = \frac{1}{N} \sum a_i b_i = \overline{ab}$
 $\text{covar}(a, b) = \overline{ab} - \overline{a} \overline{b}$
 $\text{covar}(a, b) = \overline{ab} - \overline{a} \overline{b}$
 $\text{covar}(a, b) = \overline{ab} - \overline{a} \overline{b}$

Statistik



Reynolds averaging

$R_{TC} = \text{critical } R_T, \frac{1}{4} < R_{TC} < 1$
 Simplify $\frac{\partial z}{\partial z}$ as $U \rightarrow 0$ at $z=0$
 $\Delta z = z_1 - z_2$
 $R_{TB} (\text{Bulk } R_T) = R_T$ where $z_B = 0$
 $\frac{K}{\rho} R_T = R_T^{-1} R_T$
 $\therefore R_T \sim 0.74 \approx 1$

$$u = \bar{u} + u', \quad v = \bar{v} + v', \quad w = \bar{w} + w'$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + \bar{u} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x} + \bar{v} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial y} + \bar{w} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial z} + \bar{u}' \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x} + \bar{v}' \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial y} + \bar{w}' \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial z} + \bar{u} \frac{\partial u'}{\partial t} + \bar{u} \frac{\partial u'}{\partial x} + \bar{v} \frac{\partial u'}{\partial y} + \bar{w} \frac{\partial u'}{\partial z} + \bar{u}' \frac{\partial u'}{\partial t} + \bar{u}' \frac{\partial u'}{\partial x} + \bar{v}' \frac{\partial u'}{\partial y} + \bar{w}' \frac{\partial u'}{\partial z} + u' \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x} + u' \frac{\partial \bar{v}}{\partial y} + u' \frac{\partial \bar{w}}{\partial z} + u' \frac{\partial u'}{\partial t} + u' \frac{\partial u'}{\partial x} + u' \frac{\partial v'}{\partial y} + u' \frac{\partial w'}{\partial z} = 0$$

$$\bar{\rho} = \bar{\rho} + \rho', \quad \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial t} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{v}}{\partial y} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{w}}{\partial z} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial t} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{v}}{\partial y} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{w}}{\partial z} + \bar{\rho}' \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial t} + \bar{\rho}' \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x} + \bar{\rho}' \frac{\partial \bar{v}}{\partial y} + \bar{\rho}' \frac{\partial \bar{w}}{\partial z} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial t} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial x} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial y} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial z} + \bar{\rho}' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial t} + \bar{\rho}' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial x} + \bar{\rho}' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial y} + \bar{\rho}' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial z} + \rho' \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x} + \rho' \frac{\partial \bar{v}}{\partial y} + \rho' \frac{\partial \bar{w}}{\partial z} + \rho' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial t} + \rho' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial x} + \rho' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial y} + \rho' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial z} = 0$$

$$\bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial t} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{v}}{\partial y} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{w}}{\partial z} + \bar{\rho}' \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial t} + \bar{\rho}' \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x} + \bar{\rho}' \frac{\partial \bar{v}}{\partial y} + \bar{\rho}' \frac{\partial \bar{w}}{\partial z} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial t} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial x} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial y} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial z} + \bar{\rho}' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial t} + \bar{\rho}' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial x} + \bar{\rho}' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial y} + \bar{\rho}' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial z} + \rho' \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x} + \rho' \frac{\partial \bar{v}}{\partial y} + \rho' \frac{\partial \bar{w}}{\partial z} + \rho' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial t} + \rho' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial x} + \rho' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial y} + \rho' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial z} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\bar{\rho} \bar{u} + \bar{\rho}' \bar{u}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (\bar{\rho} \bar{u} \bar{u} + \bar{\rho}' \bar{u} \bar{u} + \bar{\rho} \bar{u}' \bar{u} + \bar{\rho}' \bar{u}' \bar{u}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (\bar{\rho} \bar{u} \bar{v} + \bar{\rho}' \bar{u} \bar{v} + \bar{\rho} \bar{u}' \bar{v} + \bar{\rho}' \bar{u}' \bar{v}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (\bar{\rho} \bar{u} \bar{w} + \bar{\rho}' \bar{u} \bar{w} + \bar{\rho} \bar{u}' \bar{w} + \bar{\rho}' \bar{u}' \bar{w}) + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial t} + \bar{\rho}' \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial t} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial t} + \bar{\rho}' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial t} + \rho' \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x} + \rho' \frac{\partial \bar{v}}{\partial y} + \rho' \frac{\partial \bar{w}}{\partial z} + \rho' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial t} + \rho' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial x} + \rho' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial y} + \rho' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial z} = 0$$

Take the ensemble mean of eqs (A) and (B) and make the following assumptions

$\bar{\rho}' = 0$, $\bar{u}' = 0$, $\bar{v}' = 0$, $\bar{w}' = 0$ (no $\rho w'$ term)

$$\bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial t} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{v}}{\partial y} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{w}}{\partial z} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial t} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{v}}{\partial y} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{w}}{\partial z} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial t} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial x} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial y} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial z} + \rho' \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x} + \rho' \frac{\partial \bar{v}}{\partial y} + \rho' \frac{\partial \bar{w}}{\partial z} + \rho' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial t} + \rho' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial x} + \rho' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial y} + \rho' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial z} = 0$$

$$\bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial t} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{v}}{\partial y} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{w}}{\partial z} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial t} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{v}}{\partial y} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{w}}{\partial z} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial t} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial x} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial y} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial z} + \rho' \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x} + \rho' \frac{\partial \bar{v}}{\partial y} + \rho' \frac{\partial \bar{w}}{\partial z} + \rho' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial t} + \rho' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial x} + \rho' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial y} + \rho' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial z} = 0$$

So,

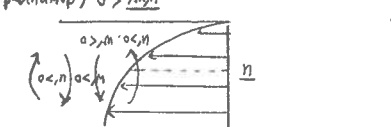
$$\bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial t} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{v}}{\partial y} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{w}}{\partial z} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial t} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{v}}{\partial y} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{w}}{\partial z} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial t} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial x} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial y} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial z} + \rho' \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x} + \rho' \frac{\partial \bar{v}}{\partial y} + \rho' \frac{\partial \bar{w}}{\partial z} + \rho' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial t} + \rho' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial x} + \rho' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial y} + \rho' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial z} = 0$$

Let's define the viscous stress

$$\tau_{ij}^* = \begin{bmatrix} \tau_{xx}^* & \tau_{xy}^* & \tau_{xz}^* \\ \tau_{xy}^* & \tau_{yy}^* & \tau_{yz}^* \\ \tau_{xz}^* & \tau_{yz}^* & \tau_{zz}^* \end{bmatrix} = \tau_{ij} \text{ for } i \neq j$$

Reynolds stress tensor

$$\tau_{ij}^* = \begin{bmatrix} -\rho \overline{u'u'} - \rho \overline{v'u'} - \rho \overline{w'u'} \\ -\rho \overline{u'v'} - \rho \overline{v'v'} - \rho \overline{w'v'} \\ -\rho \overline{u'w'} - \rho \overline{v'w'} - \rho \overline{w'w'} \end{bmatrix}$$



* Final eqs by using the Reynolds stress (drop -)

$$\bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial t} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{v}}{\partial y} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{w}}{\partial z} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial t} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{v}}{\partial y} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \bar{w}}{\partial z} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial t} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial x} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial y} + \bar{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial z} + \rho' \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x} + \rho' \frac{\partial \bar{v}}{\partial y} + \rho' \frac{\partial \bar{w}}{\partial z} + \rho' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial t} + \rho' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial x} + \rho' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial y} + \rho' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial z} = 0$$

Eddy viscosity (mixing coefficient, Austausch coefficient)

$$\tau = \mu \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x} \text{ and } \tau^* = k_m \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x}$$

Shows how strong the turbulence is

Surface layer

In general, the surface layer involves 10% of the PBL. In the surface layer $\tau \neq \tau(z)$ while $\tau = \tau(z)$ in the PBL. Constant flux or constant stress layer -> Bad!

$$\tau = \rho k_m \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial z} \text{ and } \tau^* = k_m \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial z}$$

Ekan layer

Assumptions for Ekman layer

- Horizontal mean motion is unaccelerated, i.e. $\frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial t} = 0$
- $\frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x}$, $\frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial y}$ are small compared to vertical wind shear ($\frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial z}$, $\frac{\partial \bar{v}}{\partial z}$)
- At all levels, force balance is Coriolis force, ρg , eddy viscous effects.
- Eddy viscosity k_m is independent of height. $k_m \neq k_m(z)$
- The large scale pressure gradient + density do not vary significantly with height and may be considered constant.

$$0 = -\rho \frac{\partial \bar{v}}{\partial z} + \rho \tau + \rho \frac{\partial \tau}{\partial z}$$

$$0 = -\rho \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial z} + \rho \tau + \rho \frac{\partial \tau}{\partial z}$$

$$0 = -\rho \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial z} + \rho \tau + \rho \frac{\partial \tau}{\partial z}$$

$$0 = -\rho \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial z} + \rho \tau + \rho \frac{\partial \tau}{\partial z}$$

$$0 = -\rho \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial z} + \rho \tau + \rho \frac{\partial \tau}{\partial z}$$

$$\text{Note } V = \bar{u} + \bar{v}, \quad \tau = \tau^*$$

$$0 = -\rho \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial z} + \rho \tau + \rho \frac{\partial \tau}{\partial z}$$

$$0 = -\rho \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial z} + \rho \tau + \rho \frac{\partial \tau}{\partial z}$$

$$0 = \rho \tau + \rho \frac{\partial \tau}{\partial z}$$

$$\text{Let } W = V - V_0 = V - V_0$$

Stull's book

Ch 1 mean boundary layer characteristics

1.1 A boundary-layer definition
 We can define the boundary layer as that part of the troposphere that is directly influenced by the presence of the earth's surface and responds to surface forcing with a timescale of about an hour or less.

Surface forcings: ① frictional drag, ② evaporation, ③ transpiration, ④ heat transfer, ⑤ pollutant emission, ⑥ terrain induced flow modification
 → Turbulence is one of the important transport processes.
 farm-weather invulus cloud (fog)
 stratocumulus cloud (fog)

1.2 Wind and flow
 → wind mean wind
 → each can exist in the BL.
 → transport of quantities (eg moisture, heat, momentum + pollutants)
 → is dominated in the horizontal by the mean wind
 → in the vertical by turbulence
 → waves (usually nighttime BL)
 transport little heat, humidity, and other scalars such as pollutants.
 However, effective at transporting momentum and energy.

1.3 Turbulent transport.
 The relative strengths of different scale eddies define the turbulence spectrum
 of irregular swirls of motion called eddies.
 BL turbulence by forces from ground.
 solar heating → thermals
 frictional drag → wind shears
 obstacles → turbulent wakes

Turbulence is several orders of magnitude more effective at transporting quantities than its molecular diffusivity.
 Taylor's hypothesis

1.4 Taylor's hypothesis
 Taylor (1938) suggested that for some special cases, turbulence might be considered to be frozen as it advects past a sensor.
 Taylor's simplification is useful for only those cases where the turbulent eddies evolve with a timescale longer than the time it takes the eddy to be advected past a sensor.
 M (total wind magnitude) → $M^2 = U^2 + V^2$
 $p = \lambda / M$ ← eddy diameter
 → time period

For any variable ξ , Taylor's hypothesis states that turbulence is frozen when $\frac{d\xi}{dt} = 0$ ⇒ the general form of Taylor's hypothesis
 $\frac{\partial \xi}{\partial t} = -U \frac{\partial \xi}{\partial x} - V \frac{\partial \xi}{\partial y} - W \frac{\partial \xi}{\partial z}$
 Using wavenumber k + frequency f
 $k = \frac{M}{\lambda} = \frac{f}{2\pi}$

Condition: To satisfy the requirements that eddy have negligible change as it advects past a sensor $\Delta t < 0.5M$
 * standard deviation ⇒ a measure of the magnitude of turbulence

END Note book

⇒ $\frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial z^2} - (2+1)^2 w = 0$

↑ solution
 $w = a e^{(2+1)z} + b e^{-(2+1)z}$

B.C. ① $Z \rightarrow \infty, V \rightarrow V_g$ and $w = 0$ at $Z \rightarrow \infty$
 $0 = a e^{(2+1)\infty} + b e^{-(2+1)\infty}$

Since $e^\infty \rightarrow \infty$, b must be zero.
 $w = b e^{-(2+1)z}$

B.C. ② $Z \rightarrow 0, V \rightarrow 0$ and $w = -V_g$ at $Z = 0$
 and so $w = -V_g e^{-(2+1)z}$

⇒ $w = -V_g e^{-(2+1)z}$

Since $V = u + i v + V_g = \bar{u} + i \bar{v} + V_g$

$(\bar{u} + i \bar{v}) - (\bar{u}_g + i \bar{v}_g) = -(\bar{u}_g + i \bar{v}_g) e^{-(2+1)z}$

∴ the Ekman solution

$\bar{u} = \bar{u}_g (1 - e^{-mz}) - \bar{v}_g e^{-mz}$
 $\bar{v} = \bar{v}_g (1 - e^{-mz}) + \bar{u}_g e^{-mz}$

if $\bar{v}_g = 0$.

$\bar{u} = \bar{u}_g (1 - e^{-mz})$
 $\bar{v} = \bar{u}_g e^{-mz}$

⇒ The classical Ekman spiral solution

$\frac{\bar{u}}{\bar{u}_g} = (1 - e^{-mz})$
 $\frac{\bar{v}}{\bar{u}_g} = e^{-mz}$

% If $\bar{v}_g \neq 0$ → warm advection

∴ Turbulent eqs

$\frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial z} + \bar{u} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x} = -\delta z \bar{g} + F_{\partial \bar{u}} - \frac{\partial \bar{p}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial x} \bar{u} + \frac{\partial \bar{v}}{\partial x} \bar{v}$
 must close

$p + v' = R(\bar{p} + p')(T' + T)$
 $= R(\bar{p} T' + \bar{p}' T + \bar{p}' T' + p' T')$
 Reynolds average

$p' = R(\bar{p} T' + \bar{p}' T + \bar{p}' T' + p' T')$
 ∴ $\bar{p}' T' \gg \bar{p}' T$

$\frac{\bar{p}'}{\bar{p}} = \frac{\bar{p}'}{\bar{p}} + \frac{T'}{T} + \frac{p'}{p} + \frac{p' T'}{p T}$

look at Stull's book

1.5 Virtual potential temperature

- Buoyancy is one of the driving forces for turbulence in the BL.
- Thermals: positively buoyant
- Virtual temperature: temperature that dry air must have to equal the density of moist air at the same pressure
- Water vapor is less dense than dry air.
 - moist unsaturated air is more buoyant than dry air of the same T
 - moist unsaturated air is more buoyant than dry air of the same T
- definition
 - For saturated (cloudy) air: $\theta_v = \theta(1 + 0.61r)$
 - For unsaturated air: $\theta_v = \theta(1 + 0.61r)$

1.6 Boundary layer depth and structure

- Over oceans, the boundary layer depth varies relatively slowly in space & time (due to a slowly varying SST)
- The general nature of the BL is to be thinner in high-pressure regions than in low-pressure regions.
- In low pressure regions, cloud base is often used as an arbitrary cut-off for BL studies.
- * look at the figure of boundary layer structure. (in exam)
- Surface layer: the region at the bottom of the boundary layer where turbulent fluxes & stress vary by less than 10% of their magnitude
- BL: boundary layer = PBL = ABL
- CL: cloud layer
- FA: free atmosphere
- IBL: internal boundary layer
- ML: mixed layer = CBL (convective boundary layer)
- RL: Residual layer
- SBL: Stable boundary layer = NBL (nocturnal BL)
- SCL: subcloud layer
- SL: surface layer (the bottom 10% of the BL)
- more notations

1.7 Micro-meteorology

- Stochastic methods: the average statistical effects of the eddies.
- Similarity theory: the apparent common behavior exhibited by many empirically-observed phenomena, when properly scaled.
- phenomenological classifications: the largest scale structures such as thermals are classified and sometimes approached in a partially deterministic manner.
- air-pollution meteorology & agricultural meteorology.

1.8 Significance of the BL

- Comparison of BL & FA characteristics.

Property	BL	FA
Turbulence	Almost continuously turbulent over its whole depth.	turbulence in convective clouds, and sporadic CAT in thin layers of large horizontal extent.
Friction	Strong drag against the earth's surface. Large energy dissipation	Small viscous dissipation

Typical daytime profiles

1.9 Residual layer

- The entrainment zone is frequently called an inversion layer
- wind speeds are subgeostrophic throughout the ML.

(2) Stable Boundary Layer

- Coning (cone-shaped plane)
- neutrally stratified.

(3) Residual layer

- An idealized stable boundary layer in a high-pressure region profiles
- winds exhibit a very complex behavior at night
- poorly defined top.
- get enhances wind shears that tend to generate turbulence.
- The stably stratified air tends to suppress turbulence, while the developing nocturnal

(4) θ_v evolution

The strongly stable NBL not only supports gravity waves, but it can trap many of the higher-frequency waves near the ground.

more notations are a frequent occurrence in the SBL

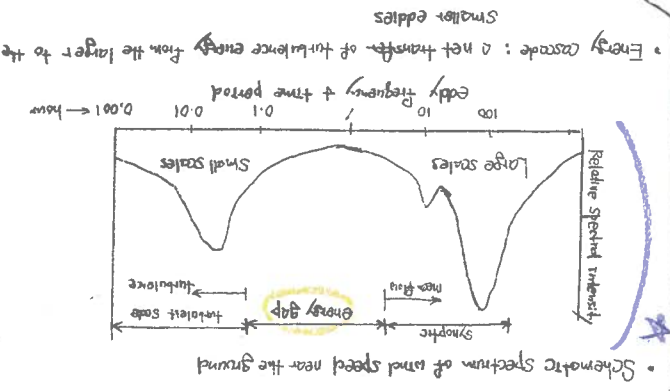
Knowledge of the θ_v profile is usually sufficient to identify the parts of the BL.

- lifting & fumigation
 - in mixed layer (right plane - no. plane)

Ch2 Some mathematical & conceptual tools: Statistics

Dispersion	Rapid turbulent mixing in the vertical and horizontal	Small molecular diffusion, often rapid horizontal transport by mean wind	winds near logarithmic wind speed profile in the surface layer. Subgeostrophic, cross-isobars flow common
Vertical transport	turbulence dominates. Mean wind and Coriolis-scale dominate.		
Thickness	Varies between 100 m to 3 km in time and space. Diurnal oscillations over land	Slow time variations	

- 2.0
- The randomness of turbulence makes deterministic description difficult.
 - Statistics.
 - Variances: measures of turbulence intensity or TKE.
 - Covariances: measures of flux or stress.
- 2.1 The signature of turbulence and its spectrum.
- If we look at anemograph (wind speed measurement), we can find.
 - Wind speed varies in an irregular pattern.
 - The ability to find a statistically-stable mean value suggests that turbulence is not completely random.
 - We can use statistics such as the variance or standard deviation to characterize the turbulence intensity.
 - Evidence of the spectrum of turbulence.



- 2.2 The spectral gap
- In the microscale sense, the spectral gap provides a means to separate the turbulent from the non-turbulent influences on the BL.
 - Mean and turbulent parts.
- 2.3 Mean and turbulent parts.
- The existence of a spectral gap allows us to partition the flow field like above.
- partition each of variables into mean & turbulent parts.
- $$\begin{aligned}
 U &= \bar{U} + u' \\
 V &= \bar{V} + v' \\
 W &= \bar{W} + w' \\
 b &= \bar{b} + b' \\
 c &= \bar{c} + c'
 \end{aligned}$$

2.4 Some basic statistical methods

- (1) The mean
- Time average: $\bar{A}(t) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N A(t_i, S)$
 - Spatial average: $\bar{A}(S) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N A(t, S_i)$
 - Ensemble average: $\bar{A}(t, S) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N A_i(t, S)$
- If the turbulence is homogeneous → make a spatial average meaningful
- For turbulence that is both homogeneous and stationary (statistically not changing over time), the time, space, and ensemble averages should all be equal.
- ergodic condition

- (2) Rules of averaging
- $\overline{A+B} = \bar{A} + \bar{B}$, $\overline{cA} = c\bar{A}$, $\overline{A^2} = \bar{A}^2 + \sigma_A^2$
 - $\frac{d\bar{A}}{dt} = \bar{\frac{dA}{dt}}$, $\frac{d\bar{A}}{dt} = \frac{d\bar{A}}{dt}$
- (3) Key holds averaging
- $\bar{A} = \overline{A + a'}$ → $\bar{a}' = 0$
 - $\overline{A \cdot B} = \overline{(A + a')(B + b')} = \bar{A}\bar{B} + \overline{a'b'} + \overline{A b'} + \overline{a' B}$
- (4) Variance, standard deviation and turbulent intensity.
- $\overline{A^2} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N A_i^2$ → biased variance → usually used
 - $\overline{A^2} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (A_i - \bar{A})^2 + \bar{A}^2$ → unbiased variance
 - $\sigma_A^2 = \overline{(A')^2}$ → standard deviation
 - $I = \sigma_A / \bar{A}$ → mean wind speed
 - a dimensionless measure of the turbulence intensity (I)
 - $I < 0.5$ is required for Taylor's hypothesis to be valid.

- (5) Covariance and correlation
- $\text{COVAR}(A, B) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (A_i - \bar{A})(B_i - \bar{B})$
 - $\rho_{AB} = \frac{\text{COVAR}(A, B)}{\sigma_A \sigma_B}$
 - linear correlation coefficient (ρ_{AB}) → a normalized covariance
- 2.5 Turbulent kinetic energy (TKE)
- $\text{KE} = 0.5 M^2$ → KE/unit mass = $0.5 M^2$
 - $\overline{\text{MKE}} = \frac{1}{2} \overline{(u'^2 + v'^2 + w'^2)}$
 - $\overline{\text{KE}} = \frac{1}{2} \overline{(u'^2 + v'^2 + w'^2)}$ → instantaneous TKE per unit mass

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2.6 Kinematic flux

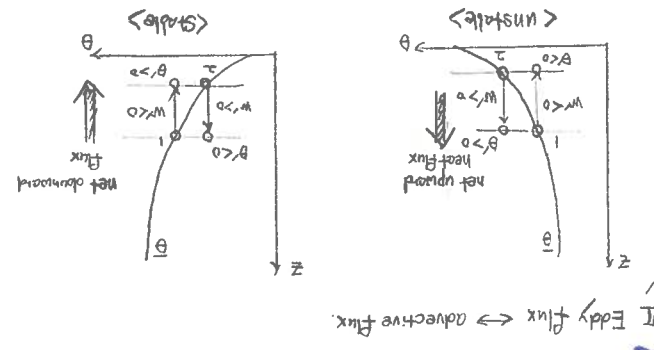
Flux	Symbol	Equation	Units
mass	M	$M = \frac{\rho}{\Delta t} \int V dV$	$\frac{kg}{s}$
heat	QH	$QH = \frac{\rho \cdot c_p \cdot \Delta T}{\Delta t} \int V dV$	$\frac{kg \cdot K}{s}$
moisture	R	$R = \frac{\rho \cdot \Delta c}{\Delta t} \int V dV$	$\frac{kg}{m^2 \cdot s}$
momentum	T	$T = \frac{\rho \cdot \Delta v}{\Delta t} \int V dV$	$\frac{kg \cdot m \cdot s^{-1}}{m^2}$
pollutant	X	$X = \frac{\rho \cdot \Delta c}{\Delta t} \int V dV$	$\frac{kg \cdot pollutant}{m^2 \cdot s}$ or $\frac{kg \cdot pollutant}{m^3 \cdot s}$

Unfortunately, we rarely measure quantities such as heat or momentum directly. Instead we measure things like temperature or wind speed.

Kinematic flux	Symbol	Equation	Units
mass	M	$M = \frac{\rho}{\Delta t} \int V dV$	$\frac{kg}{s}$
heat	QH	$QH = \frac{\rho \cdot c_p \cdot \Delta T}{\Delta t} \int V dV$	$\frac{kg \cdot K}{s}$
moisture	R	$R = \frac{\rho \cdot \Delta c}{\Delta t} \int V dV$	$\frac{kg}{m^2 \cdot s}$
momentum	T	$T = \frac{\rho \cdot \Delta v}{\Delta t} \int V dV$	$\frac{kg \cdot m \cdot s^{-1}}{m^2}$
pollutant	X	$X = \frac{\rho \cdot \Delta c}{\Delta t} \int V dV$	$\frac{kg \cdot pollutant}{m^2 \cdot s}$ or $\frac{kg \cdot pollutant}{m^3 \cdot s}$

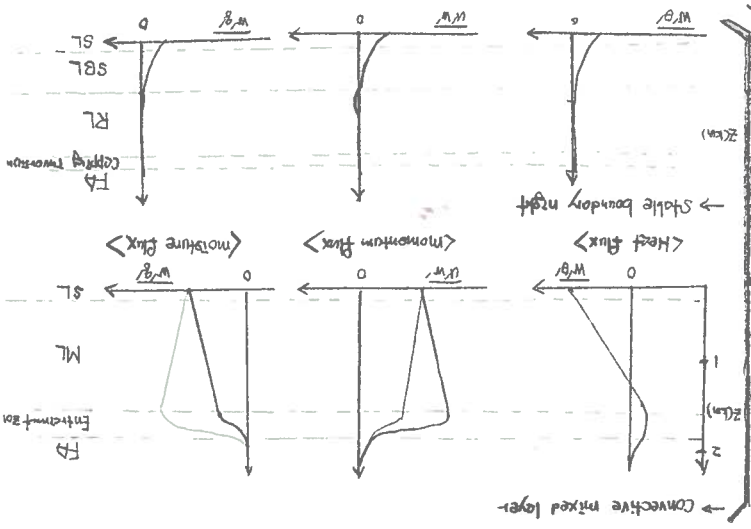
- Wind speed → mass & momentum flux
- Temp & wind speed → heat flux
- Specific humidity (q) & wind speed → moisture flux
- Concentration and wind speed or mass velocity and wind speed → pollutant flux

- Fluxes are vectors → momentum flux is a tensor.
- The flux associated with the mean wind (i.e. advection)
 - Vertical kinematic advective heat flux = $\frac{W}{\theta}$
 - Vertical " " moisture flux = $\frac{W}{q}$
 - X-direction kinematic advective heat flux = $\frac{U}{\theta}$
 - Vertical kinematic advective flux of U-momentum = $\frac{W}{U}$



- Various kinds of eddy flux
 - Vertical kinematic eddy heat flux = $\frac{w\theta}{\theta}$
 - moisture flux = $\frac{wq}{q}$
 - X-direction kinematic eddy heat flux = $\frac{u\theta}{\theta}$
 - Vertical kinematic eddy flux of U-momentum = $\frac{wU}{U}$
- * below we drop the "kinematic"

Idealized vertical soundings of turbulent fluxes



- 2.8 Summation notation (Einstein's summation notation)
 - m, n, q: Integer variable indices (1, 2, or 3)
 - A_m: a generic velocity vector → A₁=U, A₂=V, A₃=W
 - X_m: a generic component of distance → X₁=x, X₂=y, X₃=z
 - δ_m: a generic unit vector → δ₁=i, δ₂=j, δ₃=k
- A variable with: no free (unsummed) indices = scalar
- 1 free index = vector
- 2 free indices = tensor
- Kronecker delta (scalar)
 - δ_{mn} = { 1 for m=n, 0 for m≠n}
- Alternating unit tensor (scalar)
 - ε_{mng} = { 1 for mng = 123, 231 or 312, -1 for mng = 213 or 132, 0 for any two or more indices alike}
- Three rules
 - (a) Whenever two identical indices appear in the same one term, it is implied that there is a sum of that term over each value (1, 2 and 3) of the repeated index
 - (b) Whenever one index appears unsummed (free) in a term, then that same index must appear unsummed in all terms in that eq. Hence, that eq. effectively represents 3 eqs for each value of the unsummed index.
 - (c) The same index cannot appear more than twice in one term.
- Ex: eq of motion
 - $\frac{\partial^2 h_m}{\partial t^2} + B_n \frac{\partial h_m}{\partial x_n} = -\delta_{m3} g + f_c \epsilon_{m3n} B_n - \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[\frac{\partial \tau_{m3}}{\partial x_n} + \frac{\partial \tau_{m3}}{\partial x_n} \right]$
 - $\frac{\partial h_m}{\partial t} + B_n \frac{\partial h_m}{\partial x_n} + B_3 \frac{\partial h_m}{\partial x_3} = -\delta_{m3} g + f_c \epsilon_{m3n} B_n + f_c \epsilon_{m3n} B_n$
 - $\frac{\partial h_m}{\partial t} + B_n \frac{\partial h_m}{\partial x_n} + B_3 \frac{\partial h_m}{\partial x_3} = -\delta_{m3} g + f_c \epsilon_{m3n} B_n + f_c \epsilon_{m3n} B_n$

For m=3

$$\frac{\partial^2 h_3}{\partial t^2} + B_n \frac{\partial^2 h_3}{\partial x_n^2} + B_3 \frac{\partial^2 h_3}{\partial x_3^2} = -\delta_{33} g$$

For m=2

$$\frac{\partial^2 h_2}{\partial t^2} + B_n \frac{\partial^2 h_2}{\partial x_n^2} + B_3 \frac{\partial^2 h_2}{\partial x_3^2} = f_c \epsilon_{213} B_1$$

For m=1

$$\frac{\partial^2 h_1}{\partial t^2} + B_n \frac{\partial^2 h_1}{\partial x_n^2} + B_3 \frac{\partial^2 h_1}{\partial x_3^2} = -\delta_{13} g + f_c \epsilon_{123} B_2 + f_c \epsilon_{132} B_3$$

Ch 3 Application of the governing eqs to turbulent flow

- 3.1 Methodology**
- Identify the basic governing eqs that apply to the BL
 - Expand the total derivatives into local and advective contributions
 - Expand dependent variables within those eqs into mean and turbulent (perturbation) parts
 - Apply Reynolds averaging to get the eqs for mean variables within a turbulent flow
 - Apply the continuity eq. to put the result into flux form
 - Subtract the eqs of step 5 from the corresponding ones of steps 4 to get eqs for the turbulent departures from the mean
 - Multiply the results of step 6 by other turbulent quantities and Reynolds average to yield prognostic eqs for turbulence statistics such as kinetic flux or TKE

- 3.2 Basic governing eqs**
- Eqs of state (ideal gas law) $p = \rho_{air} R T$
 - Conservation of mass (continuity eq.) $\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{U}) = 0$ or $\frac{d\rho}{dt} + \rho \frac{dU_i}{dx_i} = 0$ (incompressibility approximation $\frac{\partial U_i}{\partial x_i} = 0$)
 - Conservation of momentum (Newton's Second Law) $\rho \frac{dU_i}{dt} = \rho (-S_i g + \tau_{ij} \frac{\partial U_j}{\partial x_i} - \frac{\partial \pi}{\partial x_i})$
- Term I: storage of momentum (inertia)
 Term II: advection
 Term III: gravity, act vertically
 Term IV: Coriolis effect
 Term V: ρg
 Term VI: influence of viscous stress
- Term VI: To a close approx
- Term VI = I = $\rho \frac{\partial U_i}{\partial t}$ (assuming incompressibility)
- Term VI = II = $\rho U_j \frac{\partial U_i}{\partial x_j}$ (kinematic viscosity)
- Term VI = III = $\rho (-S_i g + \tau_{ij} \frac{\partial U_j}{\partial x_i} - \frac{\partial \pi}{\partial x_i})$ (momentum tensor)

- (4) Conservation of moisture**
- $\rho \frac{dQ}{dt} = \rho (S_g \frac{dQ}{dt} + U_j \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x_j} - \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} (E_{ij} Q))$
- Term I: $\rho \frac{dQ}{dt}$
 Term II: $\rho U_j \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x_j}$
 Term III: $\rho \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} (E_{ij} Q)$
- Term III: total specific humidity, assuming incompressibility
- Term III = I = $\rho \frac{dQ}{dt}$ (molecular diffusivity for water vapor in the air)
- Term III = II = $\rho U_j \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x_j}$ (net moisture source term (sources - sinks))
- Term III = III = $\rho \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} (E_{ij} Q)$ (by a phase change from liquid or solid)
- Term VII: a net body source term
- Term VIII: the conversion of solid or liquid into vapor

- 2.9 Stress** (Three types: pressure, Reynolds stress, viscous shear stress)
- momentum flux is analogous to a stress.
 - Stress: the force tending to produce "deformation" in a body.
 - force/unit area
 - Pressure (a fluid at rest) \rightarrow scalar
 - Reynolds stress \rightarrow tensor \rightarrow scalar
 - exists only when the fluid is in turbulent motion
 - turbulent momentum flux
 - Viscous stress \rightarrow tensor \rightarrow scalar
 - exists when there are shearing motions in the fluid
- Initial state
- Pressure
- Reynolds stress
- Viscous stress
- Inter-molecular forces

- 2.10 Friction velocity**
- forced-convection scales variables
- During situations where turbulence is generated or modulated by laminar shear near the ground, the magnitude of the surface Reynolds stress proves to be an important scaling variable.
- Friction velocity (U_*): velocity scale
- $U_*^2 \equiv [U_*^2 + V_*^2] V_* = |\tau_{Reynolds}| / \rho$
- Surface layer temperature scale $\theta_{SL} = -W_* \theta'_s / U_*$
- Surface layer humidity scale $q_{SL} = -W_* q'_s / U_*$

- 3.1 Methodology**
- Step 1. Identify the basic governing eqs that apply to the BL
- Step 2. Expand the total derivatives into local and advective contributions
- Step 3. Expand dependent variables within those eqs into mean and turbulent (perturbation) parts
- Step 4. Apply Reynolds averaging to get the eqs for mean variables within a turbulent flow
- Step 5. Apply the continuity eq. to put the result into flux form
- Step 6. Subtract the eqs of step 5 from the corresponding ones of steps 4 to get eqs for the turbulent departures from the mean
- Step 7. Multiply the results of step 6 by other turbulent quantities and Reynolds average to yield prognostic eqs for turbulence statistics such as kinetic flux or TKE

(5) Conservation of heat (first law of thermodynamics) in the \$z\$ direction
 component of net radiation in the \$z\$ direction
 latent heat associated with phase change of \$E\$

$$\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} + U \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} \left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} \right) - \frac{1}{\rho_0} \left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} \right) - \frac{1}{\rho_0} \left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} \right) - \frac{1}{\rho_0} \left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} \right)$$

(6) Conservation of a scalar quantity
 \$C\$: concentration (mass per volume)
 body source term
 molecular diffusivity of constituent \$C\$

3.3 Simplifications, Approximations and Scaling Arguments
 Shallow motion approximation
 1) the vertical depth scale of density variations in the BL is much shallower than the scale depth of the lower atmosphere.
 2) advection and divergence of mass at a fixed point approximately balance, leaving only slow or zero variations of density with time.
 3) the perturbation magnitudes of \$S, T\$ and \$p\$ are much less than their respective mean values.
 Shallow convection approximation
 requires all of the conditions above

(1) Eq. of state
 \$p = \bar{p} + p', \quad T_v = \bar{T}_v + T'_v, \quad p = \bar{p} + p'\$
 \$\frac{p}{\bar{p}} = \frac{\bar{p} + p'}{\bar{p}} = \left(\frac{\bar{p}}{\bar{p}} + \frac{p'}{\bar{p}} \right) (T_v + T'_v)\$
 \$\frac{p}{\bar{p}} = \frac{p'}{\bar{p}} + \frac{T'_v}{\bar{T}_v} + \frac{p'}{\bar{p}} \frac{T'_v}{\bar{T}_v}\$ (divided by \$\bar{p}\$)
 \$\frac{p}{\bar{p}} = \frac{p'}{\bar{p}} + \frac{T'_v}{\bar{T}_v} + \frac{p'}{\bar{p}} \frac{T'_v}{\bar{T}_v}\$ (small)
 \$\frac{p}{\bar{p}} = \frac{p'}{\bar{p}} + \frac{T'_v}{\bar{T}_v}\$ (small)
 \$\frac{p}{\bar{p}} = \frac{p'}{\bar{p}} + \frac{T'_v}{\bar{T}_v}\$ (small)

(2) Flux form of advection terms.
 Advection term = \$U_j \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x_j}\$
 using Parsons' relationship
 \$\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x_j} = - \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x_j}\$
 \$\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x_j} = - \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x_j}\$
 using the shallow convection approx. (\$\frac{p'}{\bar{p}}\$ small)
 \$\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x_j} = - \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x_j}\$
 integrated perturbation ideal gas law
 \$\frac{p}{\bar{p}} = \frac{p'}{\bar{p}} + \frac{T'_v}{\bar{T}_v} + \frac{p'}{\bar{p}} \frac{T'_v}{\bar{T}_v}\$ (small)
 \$\frac{p}{\bar{p}} = \frac{p'}{\bar{p}} + \frac{T'_v}{\bar{T}_v}\$ (small)

(3) Conservation of momentum
 Advective term = \$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} (U_j \theta)\$
 Vertical component
 \$\frac{dW}{dt} = -g - \frac{\partial p}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial \tau_{xz}}{\partial x}\$

multiply by \$\rho_0\$
 \$\rho_0 (\bar{p} + p') = -(\bar{p} + p') \rho_0 - (\bar{p} + p') \rho_0 - (\bar{p} + p') \rho_0\$
 divide by \$\rho_0\$
 \$\frac{1}{\rho_0} \left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} \right) = -\frac{1}{\rho_0} \left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} \right) - \frac{1}{\rho_0} \left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} \right) - \frac{1}{\rho_0} \left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} \right)\$

Boissessier approximation
 The process of neglecting density variations in the inertial term, but retaining it in the buoyancy (gravity) term.
 \$\frac{d(W+W')}{dt} = -\frac{p'}{\rho_0} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial \tau_{xz}}{\partial x}\$

Practical application of the Boissessier approximation
 \$\rho \left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} + U \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x} \right) = -\frac{\partial p}{\partial z} \left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} \right) + \frac{\partial \tau_{xz}}{\partial x}\$
 \$\frac{dW}{dt} = 0\$
 \$\frac{dW'}{dt} = -\frac{1}{\rho_0} \frac{\partial p'}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial \tau_{xz}}{\partial x}\$

(4) Horizontal homogeneity
 \$\frac{\partial x}{\partial t} = 0 + \frac{\partial x}{\partial z} = 0 \rightarrow\$ horizontal homogeneity
 Reentering and rotating the coord. system
 Eqs for mean variables in a turbulent flow
 (1) eq of state
 (2) continuity eq
 (3) conservation of momentum

(3) Conservation of momentum
 Boussinesq approx.
 \$\frac{\partial U_i}{\partial t} + U_j \frac{\partial U_i}{\partial x_j} = -\epsilon_{ij3} f_c (U_j - U_j) + \delta_{i3} \rho_0 \left[\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} \right] + \frac{\partial \tau_{ij}}{\partial x_j}\$
 Combined momentum eq.
 \$\frac{dU}{dt} = -f_c (V_g - V) + \frac{\partial \tau_{xz}}{\partial x}\$
 \$\frac{dV_g}{dt} = -\frac{1}{\rho_0} \frac{\partial p}{\partial z} + f_c V_g + \frac{\partial \tau_{xz}}{\partial x}\$

(2) Continuity eq
 \$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} (U_i + u'_i) = 0\$
 \$\frac{\partial U_i}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial u'_i}{\partial t} = 0\$
 \$\frac{\partial U_i}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial u'_i}{\partial t} = 0\$
 (3) Conservation of momentum
 Boussinesq approx.
 \$\frac{\partial U_i}{\partial t} + U_j \frac{\partial U_i}{\partial x_j} = -\epsilon_{ij3} f_c \left[\rho \left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} \right) - \delta_{i3} \rho_0 \right] + \frac{\partial \tau_{ij}}{\partial x_j}\$
 \$\frac{\partial U_i}{\partial t} + U_j \frac{\partial U_i}{\partial x_j} = -\epsilon_{ij3} f_c \left[\rho \left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} \right) - \delta_{i3} \rho_0 \right] + \frac{\partial \tau_{ij}}{\partial x_j}\$
 \$\frac{\partial U_i}{\partial t} + U_j \frac{\partial U_i}{\partial x_j} = -\epsilon_{ij3} f_c \left[\rho \left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} \right) - \delta_{i3} \rho_0 \right] + \frac{\partial \tau_{ij}}{\partial x_j}\$

Keyhole's averaging
 \$\frac{\partial U_i}{\partial t} + U_j \frac{\partial U_i}{\partial x_j} = -\epsilon_{ij3} f_c \left[\rho \left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} \right) - \delta_{i3} \rho_0 \right] + \frac{\partial \tau_{ij}}{\partial x_j}\$
 \$\frac{\partial U_i}{\partial t} + U_j \frac{\partial U_i}{\partial x_j} = -\epsilon_{ij3} f_c \left[\rho \left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} \right) - \delta_{i3} \rho_0 \right] + \frac{\partial \tau_{ij}}{\partial x_j}\$

- I: local storage of variance
- II: advection of variance by the mean wind
- III: production or loss term, depending on buoyancy flux
- IV: production term (momentum flux $u'w'$ is usually negative in BL)
- V: turbulent transport term
- VI: how variance is redistributed by pressure perturbations (buoyancy or gravity wave variance)
- VII: viscous dissipation of velocity variance

$$\frac{\partial u'^2}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial u'v'}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u'w'}{\partial z} = +2\epsilon_{11} + 2\epsilon_{22} + 2\epsilon_{33} - 2u'w' \frac{\partial u'}{\partial z} - 2u'v' \frac{\partial u'}{\partial x} - 2u'w' \frac{\partial w'}{\partial z} - 2u'v' \frac{\partial v'}{\partial x} - 2u'w' \frac{\partial w'}{\partial z} - 2u'v' \frac{\partial v'}{\partial x} - 2u'w' \frac{\partial w'}{\partial z} - 2u'v' \frac{\partial v'}{\partial x} - 2u'w' \frac{\partial w'}{\partial z}$$

Simplified velocity variance budget eg. Coriolis force can not generate TKE. $2f\epsilon_{13} u'v' = 2f\epsilon_{23} u'w' + 2f\epsilon_{33} u'w' = 0$ (Coriolis term = 0)

Smaller size eddies are more isotropic than larger ones. Pressure redistribution term or return-to-isotropy term. $\epsilon_{11} = \epsilon_{22} = \epsilon_{33} = \frac{2}{3}\epsilon$

where ϵ : viscous dissipation

$$\epsilon_{11} = \frac{\partial u'}{\partial x} \frac{\partial u'}{\partial x} = -2\nu \frac{\partial^2 u'}{\partial x^2}$$

$$\epsilon_{22} = \frac{\partial v'}{\partial y} \frac{\partial v'}{\partial y} = -2\nu \frac{\partial^2 v'}{\partial y^2}$$

$$\epsilon_{33} = \frac{\partial w'}{\partial z} \frac{\partial w'}{\partial z} = -2\nu \frac{\partial^2 w'}{\partial z^2}$$

disipation - need more simplification. general form of the prognostic eq. for the variance of wind speed.

$$\frac{\partial u'^2}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial u'v'}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u'w'}{\partial z} = 2\epsilon_{11} + 2\epsilon_{22} + 2\epsilon_{33} - 2u'w' \frac{\partial u'}{\partial z} - 2u'v' \frac{\partial u'}{\partial x} - 2u'w' \frac{\partial w'}{\partial z} - 2u'v' \frac{\partial v'}{\partial x} - 2u'w' \frac{\partial w'}{\partial z}$$

Reynolds averaging. $\overline{u'v'} = 0$. turbulent continuity eq. multiplied by u' and Reynolds averaging.

$$\frac{\partial u'^2}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial u'v'}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u'w'}{\partial z} = 2\epsilon_{11} + 2\epsilon_{22} + 2\epsilon_{33} - 2u'w' \frac{\partial u'}{\partial z} - 2u'v' \frac{\partial u'}{\partial x} - 2u'w' \frac{\partial w'}{\partial z} - 2u'v' \frac{\partial v'}{\partial x} - 2u'w' \frac{\partial w'}{\partial z}$$

Basin derivation. Momentum variance. Prognostic eqs for variances.

Temperature scale for the mixed layer, $\theta_{ML}^* = \frac{\theta_{ML}}{(w'\theta')_s} = \frac{\theta_{ML}}{w_s}$

Humidity scale mixed layer humidity scale $q_{ML}^* = \frac{q_{ML}}{(w'q')_s} = \frac{q_{ML}}{w_s}$

free convection time scale $t_c^* = \frac{z_i}{w_s}$

Time scale $\tau_c^* = \frac{z_i}{w_s} = \frac{\theta_{ML}}{g z_i} \frac{g}{w_s} = \frac{\theta_{ML}}{w_s} \frac{g}{w_s}$

free convection scaling velocity (= convective velocity scale) $w_c^* = \frac{g z_i}{w_s}$

buoyancy flux $\frac{g}{w_s} \frac{\theta_{ML}}{w_s}$

Velocity scale: $\frac{g}{w_s} \frac{\theta_{ML}}{w_s}$

Length scale: thermal size scales to z_i with respect to surface values of the fluxes. changes (normalized with respect to the top of the mixed layer (z_i) and and moisture flux can be made nondimensional to remove these dimensional a pronounced diurnal cycle in turbulence and ML depth. Profiles of heat For the free-convection case, strong solar heating at the surface creates forced convection: mechanical processes dominate. free convection: buoyant convective processes dominate. learn how to experimental data is scaled for presentation.

4.2 Free convection scaling variables

(4) A scalar quantity $\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial u \theta}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v \theta}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial w \theta}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial z^2} + \frac{\partial (u' \theta')}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial (v' \theta')}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial (w' \theta')}{\partial z}$

(5) Heat $\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial u \theta}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v \theta}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial w \theta}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial z^2} + \frac{\partial (u' \theta')}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial (v' \theta')}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial (w' \theta')}{\partial z}$

(6) $\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial u \theta}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v \theta}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial w \theta}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial z^2} + \frac{\partial (u' \theta')}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial (v' \theta')}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial (w' \theta')}{\partial z}$

(7) Moisture (only vapor) $\frac{\partial q}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial u q}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v q}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial w q}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial^2 q}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 q}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 q}{\partial z^2} + \frac{\partial (u' q')}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial (v' q')}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial (w' q')}{\partial z}$

(8) $\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial u \theta}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v \theta}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial w \theta}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial z^2} + \frac{\partial (u' \theta')}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial (v' \theta')}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial (w' \theta')}{\partial z}$

Subtract mean part. a prognostic eq. for just the turbulent part, u' . $\frac{\partial u' \theta'}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial u' v' \theta'}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u' w' \theta'}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial^2 u' \theta'}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u' \theta'}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u' \theta'}{\partial z^2} + \frac{\partial (u' u' \theta')}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial (u' v' \theta')}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial (u' w' \theta')}{\partial z}$

4.1 Prognostic eqs for the turbulent departures.

Component eqs

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial t} + U_j \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} &= \frac{\partial \tau_{ij}}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial \tau_{ij}'}{\partial x_j} \\ \frac{\partial \tau_{ij}}{\partial x_j} &= -2 \rho u_i u_j \frac{\partial U}{\partial x_j} - \frac{\partial (u_i u_j)}{\partial x_j} \\ \frac{\partial \tau_{ij}'}{\partial x_j} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left(\frac{\rho u_i u_j}{2} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left(\frac{\rho u_i' u_j'}{2} \right) \end{aligned}$$

VIII: pressure redistribution (return-to-isotropy term)

(2) Moisture variance

Budget equation
 2g * moisture eq =>

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial t} + U_j \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_j} + 2g \frac{\partial U}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_j} = 2g \frac{\partial U}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_j} + 2g \frac{\partial U}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_j}$$

=> Reynolds average

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial t} + U_j \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_j} + 2g \frac{\partial U}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_j} = 2g \frac{\partial U}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_j} + 2g \frac{\partial U}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_j}$$

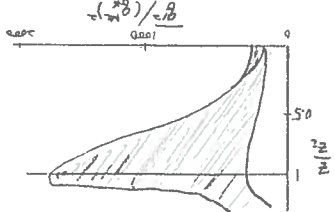
∴ averaged turbulent continuity eq multiplied by g

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial t} + U_j \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_j} + 2g \frac{\partial U}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_j} = 2g \frac{\partial U}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_j} + 2g \frac{\partial U}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_j}$$

∴ the prognostic equation for specific humidity variance

$$\frac{\partial g^2}{\partial t} + U_j \frac{\partial g^2}{\partial x_j} = -2g \frac{\partial U}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_j} - \frac{\partial (u_i u_j g^2)}{\partial x_j} - 2g \frac{\partial U}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_j}$$

- I: local storage of humidity variance
- II: advection of humidity variance by the mean wind
- III: production term (turbulent motions occurring within a mean moisture gradient)
- IV: turbulent transport of humidity variance
- V: turbulent transport of humidity variance
- VII: molecular diffusion



modeled vertical profiles of dimensional specific-humidity variance

(3) Heat (potential temperature variance)

Budget eqs
 Same as before, 2θ * turbulent heat eq. and use the product rule of calculus, Reynolds average, put into flux form, neglect molecular diffusion but retain the molecular diffusion =>

$$\frac{\partial \theta^2}{\partial t} + U_j \frac{\partial \theta^2}{\partial x_j} = -2\theta \frac{\partial U}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x_j} - \frac{\partial (u_i u_j \theta^2)}{\partial x_j} - 2\theta \frac{\partial U}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x_j}$$

VIII: the radiation destruction term (Eq)

(4) A scalar quantity (Tracer concentration variance)

2c * eq => (same as above)

$$\frac{\partial c^2}{\partial t} + U_j \frac{\partial c^2}{\partial x_j} = -2c \frac{\partial U}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial c}{\partial x_j} - \frac{\partial (u_i u_j c^2)}{\partial x_j} - 2c \frac{\partial U}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial c}{\partial x_j}$$

4.4 Prognostic eqs for turbulent fluxes

(1) Momentum flux

Budget eqs: Two perturbation eqs are combined to produce flux eqs.

$$U_k \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left(\frac{\rho u_i u_j}{2} \right) + U_k \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left(\frac{\rho u_i' u_j'}{2} \right) = \dots$$

For the second eq, interchange the i and k indices.

$$U_k \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left(\frac{\rho u_i u_j}{2} \right) + U_k \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left(\frac{\rho u_i' u_j'}{2} \right) = \dots$$

=> add these two eqs together & use the product rule of calculus

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left(\frac{\rho u_i u_j}{2} + \frac{\rho u_i' u_j'}{2} \right) = \dots$$

$$= \dots$$

$$- \dots$$

∴ turbulent continuity eq =>

∴ final form for the momentum flux budget equation

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\frac{\rho u_i u_j}{2} + \frac{\rho u_i' u_j'}{2} \right) + U_k \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \left(\frac{\rho u_i u_j}{2} + \frac{\rho u_i' u_j'}{2} \right) = \dots$$

- I: Storage of momentum flux $U_i U_k$
- II: Production of momentum flux by the mean wind
- III: Production of momentum flux by the mean wind shears
- IV: Transport of momentum flux by turbulent motions (turbulent diffusion)
- V: Buoyant production or consumption
- VI: Coriolis effects
- VII: Transport by the pressure conduction term (pressure diffusion)
- VIII: Redistribution by the return-to-isotropy term
- IX: molecular diffusion of turbulent momentum flux
- X: viscous dissipation term = $2\epsilon u_i u_i$

=> 9 separate eqs -> 6 eqs (by symmetries)

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\frac{\rho u_i u_j}{2} + \frac{\rho u_i' u_j'}{2} \right) + U_k \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \left(\frac{\rho u_i u_j}{2} + \frac{\rho u_i' u_j'}{2} \right) = \dots$$

(2) Moisture flux

Budget eqs

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\frac{\rho u_i u_j}{2} + \frac{\rho u_i' u_j'}{2} \right) + U_k \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \left(\frac{\rho u_i u_j}{2} + \frac{\rho u_i' u_j'}{2} \right) = \dots$$

For the first eq, start with the momentum perturbation eq. * g + Reynolds average

$$\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} = -\frac{\rho c_p}{\rho c_p} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(\frac{\theta}{1} \right) + \left(\frac{\theta}{\theta_0} \right) \right] + \dots$$

$$\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} = -\frac{\rho c_p}{\rho c_p} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(\frac{\theta}{1} \right) + \left(\frac{\theta}{\theta_0} \right) \right] + \dots$$

Flux of a scalar (pollutant or tracer flux) Using the same procedures as before, the pollutant flux budget eq is

$$\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} = -\frac{\rho c_p}{\rho c_p} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(\frac{\theta}{1} \right) + \left(\frac{\theta}{\theta_0} \right) \right] + \dots$$

Term VII often approximated by $\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} \theta$ with radiation fluctuations Term VIII describes the correlation between velocity fluctuations and

$$\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} = -\frac{\rho c_p}{\rho c_p} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(\frac{\theta}{1} \right) + \left(\frac{\theta}{\theta_0} \right) \right] + \dots$$

Budget eqs: similar to that of the moisture flux

Heat flux the production of moisture flux Term V relates the correlation (covariance) between moisture and temperature to

$$\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} = -\frac{\rho c_p}{\rho c_p} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(\frac{\theta}{1} \right) + \left(\frac{\theta}{\theta_0} \right) \right] + \dots$$

After scaling arguments perturbations to an additional term must be added if the body source is assumed to have

$$\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} = -\frac{\rho c_p}{\rho c_p} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(\frac{\theta}{1} \right) + \left(\frac{\theta}{\theta_0} \right) \right] + \dots$$

Split the pressure term into two parts, assume $w' \approx 2g$ add above two eqs, and rearrange (turbulent continuity eq)

$$\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} = -\frac{\rho c_p}{\rho c_p} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(\frac{\theta}{1} \right) + \left(\frac{\theta}{\theta_0} \right) \right] + \dots$$

- Term I: Storage.
- The vertical profile of TKE can sometimes increase to a maximum at a height of about $z/z_0 = 0.3$ when free convection dominates.
- When strong winds are present, the TKE might be nearly constant with height within the BL, or might decrease slightly with height.
- At night, the TKE often decreases very rapidly with height, from a maximum value just above the surface.
- Term II: advection
- Term III: known about this term.
- negligible in larger scale
- important in smaller scale

5.2 Contributions to the TKE budget

Turbulence is dissipative. TKE is not a conserved quantity.

$$\frac{\partial \epsilon}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(\overline{w' \epsilon'} \right) - \overline{w' \epsilon'} - \frac{\partial \epsilon}{\partial z} - \epsilon$$

If we choose a coordinate system aligned with the mean wind, assume horizontal homogeneity and neglect subsidence

- I: local storage or tendency of TKE
- II: advection of TKE by the mean wind
- III: buoyant production or consumption term
- IV: mechanical or shear production/loss term
- V: turbulent transport of TKE
- VI: pressure correlation term
- VII: viscous dissipation of TKE (conversion of TKE into heat)

$$\frac{\partial \epsilon}{\partial t} + \overline{w' \epsilon'} = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(\overline{w' \epsilon'} \right) - \overline{w' \epsilon'} - \frac{\partial \epsilon}{\partial z} - \epsilon$$

Summed velocity variances divided by two

Setting parameter

pl. eq.

5.1 The TKE budget derivation

TKE: a measure of the intensity of turbulence

a starting point for approximations of turbulent diffusion

5.0

Ch5. TKE, stability and scaling

buoyancy flux $\overline{w' \theta'}$

The flux of virtual potential temperature $\overline{w' \theta'}$ is different than the heat flux $\overline{w' \theta}$

$$\overline{w' \theta'} = \overline{w' \theta} + \dots$$

$$\overline{w' \theta'} = \overline{w' \theta} + \dots$$

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$$\overline{w' \theta'} = \overline{w' \theta} + \dots$$

Production
 - $\overline{w'\theta'}$ is positive and decreases roughly linearly with height within the bottom 2/3 of the convective ML
 - below positive, it represents the effects of thermals in the ML
 - sunny days over land or cold air advection over a warmer underlying surface
 - for cloudy days over land, it can be much smaller
 - because this term is so important on days of free convection, it is often used to normalize all the other terms.

Term III = (w'^3/z) at the surface

→ 5.1 eq (2) (w'^3/z) → dimensionless form of the TKE budget eq. (use BFL for free convection situations)

I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII
$\frac{z}{z_0} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} = \frac{g z}{z_0} \frac{\partial}{\partial z}$	$\frac{z}{z_0} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} = \frac{z}{z_0} \frac{\partial}{\partial z}$	$\frac{z}{z_0} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} = \frac{z}{z_0} \frac{\partial}{\partial z}$	$\frac{z}{z_0} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} = \frac{z}{z_0} \frac{\partial}{\partial z}$	$\frac{z}{z_0} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} = \frac{z}{z_0} \frac{\partial}{\partial z}$	$\frac{z}{z_0} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} = \frac{z}{z_0} \frac{\partial}{\partial z}$	$\frac{z}{z_0} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} = \frac{z}{z_0} \frac{\partial}{\partial z}$

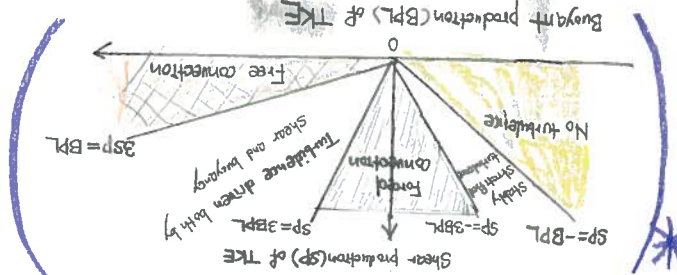
→ by definition, the dimensionless term II is unity at the surface.
 - Eq. that are made dimensionless by dividing by scaling parameters are said to be normalized.
 - only vertical component TKE → "anisotropic"
 - consumption
 - static stability tends to suppress, or consume, TKE.
 - SBL at night over land

(4) Term IV: Mechanical (Shear) Production

when there is a turbulent momentum flux in the presence of a mean wind shear, the interaction between the two tends to generate more turbulence. Even though a negative sign precedes Term IV, the momentum flux is usually of opposite sign from the mean shear → production of turbulence. The greatest wind shear magnitude occurs at the surface. Hot surging, the maximum shear production rate also occurs here. The wind speed frequency varies little with height in the ML above the surface layer, resulting in near zero shear and near zero shear production of turbulence.

The relative contributions of the buoyancy and shear terms can be used to classify the nature of convection.

→ free convection scaling is valid when the buoyancy term is much larger than the mechanical term, forced convection scaling is valid when the opposite is the case.



(5) Term V: turbulent transport
 - $\overline{w'\epsilon'}$ represents the vertical turbulent flux of TKE.
 - when integrated over the depth of the ML, term V becomes identically zero.
 - this term neither creates nor destroys TKE, it just moves or redistributes TKE from one location in the BL to another.

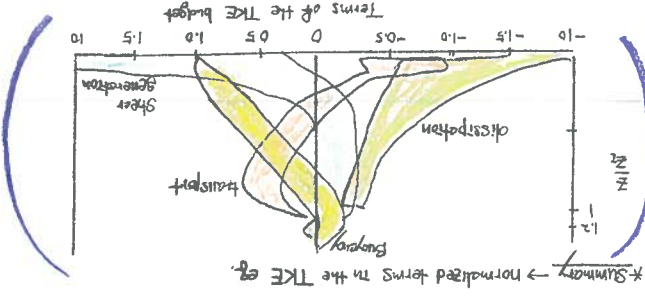
(26) Term VI: Pressure correlation

Turbulence
 - static pressure fluctuations are exceedingly difficult to measure in the atmosphere.
 - residual
 - work in linear gravity wave theory shows that $\overline{w'p'}$ is equal to the upward flux of wave energy for a vertically propagating internal gravity wave within a stably stable environment. → turbulence energy can be lost from the ML top in the form of internal gravity waves.

→ the pressure correlation term not only acts to redistribute TKE within the BL but it can also drain energy out of the BL.

(17) Term VII: Dispersion

• molecular destruction of turbulent motions is greatest for the smallest size eddies.
 • TKE ↓ → $\epsilon \downarrow$



(8) Example

at a height of $z = 300m$ in a 100m thick mixed layer, the following conditions were observed: $\partial \overline{w'p'}/\partial z = 0.01 s^{-1}$, $\theta_0 = 25^\circ C$, $\overline{w'\theta'} = 0.15 K m/s$, $\overline{w'w'} = -0.03 m^2/s^2$. Also, the surface virtual heat flux ($\overline{w'\theta'_v}$) is $0.24 K m/s$. If the pressure and turbulent transports are neglected, then (a) what dispersion rate is required to maintain a locally steady state at $z = 300m$! and (b) what are the values of the normalized TKE terms?

Sol (a) mean wind → x-axis
 plot eq (2) → $\epsilon = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \overline{w'w'}$
 $\epsilon = \frac{0.01}{0.15} = 6.67 \times 10^{-3} m^2/s^3$

(b) $\overline{w'^3} = \frac{2}{3} \overline{w'\theta'_v}$
 $\overline{w'^3} = \frac{2}{3} (0.24) = 0.16 m^3/s^3$
 $\frac{\overline{w'^3}}{\epsilon} = \frac{0.16}{6.67 \times 10^{-3}} = 24 m^2$

5.3 TKE budget contributions as a function of eddy size

5.4 Mean kinetic energy and its interaction with turbulence
 • the production of TKE is accompanied by a corresponding loss of KE from the mean flow
 • mean KE per unit mass $[MKE/m = 0.5(\overline{u^2} + \overline{v^2} + \overline{w^2}) = 0.5 \overline{U^2}]$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(\overline{w' \left(\frac{1}{2} \overline{u^2} + \frac{1}{2} \overline{v^2} + \frac{1}{2} \overline{w^2} \right)'} \right) = -g \frac{\partial \overline{z}}{\partial z} - \overline{w' \epsilon'}$$

X: the interaction between the mean flow and turbulence
 $\left(-\overline{w' \left(\frac{1}{2} \overline{u^2} + \frac{1}{2} \overline{v^2} + \frac{1}{2} \overline{w^2} \right)'} \right) = \overline{w' \left(\frac{1}{2} \overline{u^2} + \frac{1}{2} \overline{v^2} + \frac{1}{2} \overline{w^2} \right)'} - \overline{w' \left(\frac{1}{2} \overline{u^2} + \frac{1}{2} \overline{v^2} + \frac{1}{2} \overline{w^2} \right)'} = -g \frac{\partial \overline{z}}{\partial z} - \overline{w' \epsilon'}$

→ The energy that is mechanically produced as turbulence is lost from the mean flow, and vice versa
 Compare with pit eq (1)

5.5 Stability concepts

(1) Static stability and convection
 Static stability is a measure of the capability for buoyant convection.
 Local definitions

→ the static stability is determined by the local lapse rate.
 The local definition frequently falls in convective MIs, because the rise of thermals from near the surface or their descent from cloud top depends on their excess buoyancy and not on the ambient lapse rate

→ adiabatic lapse rate (in the virtual potential temp. sense)
 → may be statically stable, neutral, or unstable, depending on convection and the buoyancy flux.

→ neutral stability → adiabatic lapse rate AND no convection
 → measurement of the local lapse rate alone is insufficient to determine the static stability.

Nonlocal definitions → examine the stability of the whole layer
 → If $w' \theta'$ at the surface is positive, or if displaced air parcels will rise from the ground or sink from the cloud top as thermals traveling across a BL, then the whole BL is said to be unstable or convective.

→ If $w' \theta'$ is negative at the surface, or if displaced air parcels return to their starting point, then the BL → stable

→ If, when integrated over the depth of the BL, the mechanical production term in the TKE eq is much larger than the buoyancy term, or if the buoyancy term is near zero, then the BL → neutral (Ekman BL)

→ An alternative determination of static stability is possible if the BL profile over the whole BL is known.

(2) Dynamic stability & Kelvin-Helmholtz waves

→ related with wind

→ Schematic diagram of Kelvin-Helmholtz instability



category

5.6 The Richardson number

(1) Flux Richardson number

→ in a statically stable environment

→ buoyant production term of the TKE budget eq is negative, while the mechanical production term is positive

→ The ratio of Term III to Term IV in TKE eq. → Flux Richardson # (R_f)

$$R_f = \frac{\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial z}\right) w' \theta'}{w' \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} + v' \frac{\partial v}{\partial z}}$$

Assume horizontal homogeneity and neglect subsidence

$$R_f = \frac{\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial z}\right) w' \theta'}{\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial z}\right) w' \theta' + v' \frac{\partial v}{\partial z}}$$

For statically unstable flows, R_f is usually negative (remember that the denominator is usually negative). For neutral flows, it is zero. For statically stable flows, R_f is positive

R_f = +1 is a critical value.

Flow is turbulent (dynamically unstable) when R_f < +1.

Flow becomes laminar (dynamically stable) when R_f > +1.

Statically unstable flows is, by definition, always dynamically unstable.

(2) Gradient Richardson #

A peculiar problem arises in the use of R_f: namely, we can calculate its value only for turbulent flows. We can use it to determine whether turbulent flow will become laminar but not whether laminar flow will become turbulent.

$$-w' \theta' \propto \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} - v' w' \propto \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} - v' w' \propto \frac{\partial v}{\partial z}$$

→ basis for K-theory or eddy diffusivity theory

gradient Richardson # (R_g)

$$R_g = \frac{\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left[\frac{\partial \theta'}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial v'}{\partial z} \right]}{\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left[(\frac{\partial u'}{\partial z})^2 + (\frac{\partial v'}{\partial z})^2 \right]}$$

dynamical stability criteria

Laminar flow becomes turbulent when $R_i < R_c$

" " laminar when $R_i > R_t$

critical R_i

$$R_c = 0.21 \text{ to } 0.25$$

$$R_t = 1.0$$

Bulk Richardson #

$$R_b = \frac{\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \theta'}{\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left[(\frac{\partial u}{\partial z})^2 + (\frac{\partial v}{\partial z})^2 \right]}$$

most frequently used in meteorology.

$$R_b = \frac{\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \theta'}{\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left[(\frac{\partial u}{\partial z})^2 + (\frac{\partial v}{\partial z})^2 \right]}$$

Signs are defined by $\Delta U = U(z_{top}) - U(z_{bottom})$

require arbitrarily large value of R_c.

Richardson # itself says nothing about the intensity of turbulence, only about the yes/no presence of turbulence

Examples

$$R_f = \frac{\text{buoyancy term}}{\text{shear term}}$$

Problem: Given a frictionless SBL above $\theta/\theta_s = 0.033 m s^{-2} z^{-1}$, $\partial v/\partial z = U_s/z$

height such that there is 6°C θ increase with each 200 m of altitude gain.

How deep in the turbulence?

So let us use the gradient Richardson # as an indicator of dynamic stability and turbulence

turbulence

$$R_f = \frac{\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \theta'}{\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left[(\frac{\partial u}{\partial z})^2 + (\frac{\partial v}{\partial z})^2 \right]}$$

If we use R_c = 0.25

$$z = \sqrt{(1010 m^2) R_c} = \sqrt{252.5 m^2} = 15.9 m$$

⇒ If we had used a critical Richardson value of R_t = 1.0, then we would have found a critical height of 31.8 m. Thus, below 15.9 m we expect turbulence,

write above 31.8 m we expect laminar flow. Between these heights the turbulence state depends on the past history of the flow at that height. If previously turbulent it is turbulent now.

5.7 The Obukhov length (L)

a scaling parameter that is useful in the surface layer.

One definition of the SL is that region where turbulent fluxes vary less than 10% of their magnitude with height.

By making the constant flux (with height) approx., one can use surface values of heat and momentum flux to define turbulence scales and nondimensionalize the TKE eq.

(K $\frac{\partial}{\partial z}$) * TKE eq. (section 5.1) & assume all turbulent fluxes equal their respective surface values.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(\frac{\partial w' \theta'}{\partial z} \right) \right] = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(\frac{\partial u' u'}{\partial z} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(\frac{\partial v' v'}{\partial z} \right) \right]$$

where K: von Karman constant (0.35 ~ 0.42) → usually 0.4

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(\frac{\partial w' \theta'}{\partial z} \right) \right] = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(\frac{\partial u' u'}{\partial z} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(\frac{\partial v' v'}{\partial z} \right) \right]$$

Flow will become laminar but not whether laminar flow will become turbulent.

Flow is turbulent (dynamically unstable) when R_f < +1.

Flow becomes laminar (dynamically stable) when R_f > +1.

Statically unstable flows is, by definition, always dynamically unstable.

(2) Gradient Richardson #

A peculiar problem arises in the use of R_f: namely, we can calculate its value only for turbulent flows. We can use it to determine whether turbulent flow will become laminar but not whether laminar flow will become turbulent.

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A peculiar problem arises in the use of R_f: namely, we can calculate its value only for turbulent flows. We can use it to determine whether turbulent flow will become laminar but not whether laminar flow will become turbulent.

Flow is turbulent (dynamically unstable) when R_f < +1.

Flow becomes laminar (dynamically stable) when R_f > +1.

Physical interpretation: It is proportional to the height above the surface at which buoyant factors first dominate over mechanical (shear) production of turbulence. For convective situations, buoyant and shear production terms are approximately equal at $z = -0.5L$.

Parameter L_n : a stability parameter \rightarrow important in surface layer. Only the sign relates to static stability.

Dimensionless gradients: Term IV of the dimensionless TKE eq (5.7). Choosing a coord. system aligned with the mean wind, assuming horizontal homogeneity, neglecting subsidence, and using $u' = -(w'v')$.

Stability, dimensionless lapse rate, Φ_n and dimensionless humidity gradient, Φ_E .

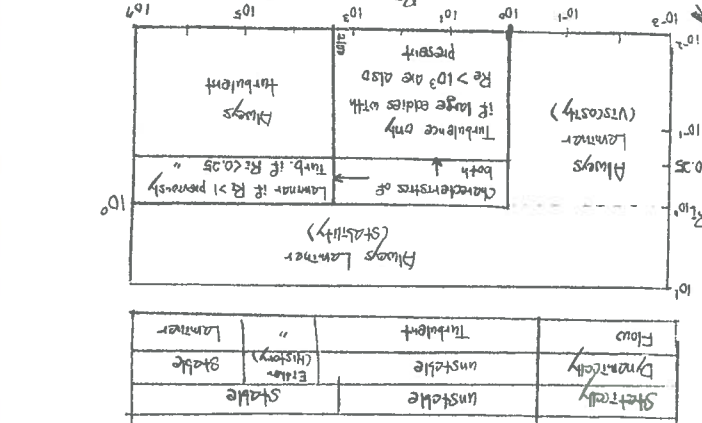
Miscellaneous scaling parameters \rightarrow eqs

$$\Phi_E = \frac{g}{K^2} \frac{\partial z}{\partial \theta}$$

$$\Phi_n = \frac{K^*}{K^2} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z}$$

Combined stability tables (static & dynamic)

Flow	Turbulent	"	Laminar
Dynamically	unstable	static	stable
Statically	unstable	stable	stable
R_i	-2	-1	0



Ch. 6 Turbulence closure techniques

The closure problem: The number of unknowns in the set of equations for turbulent flow is larger than the number of eqs. For any finite set of eqs, the description of turbulence requires an infinite set of eqs. \rightarrow Closure problem.

Local closure: an unknown quantity of any point in space is parameterized by values and/or gradients of known quantities at the same point. \rightarrow Assumes turbulence is analogous to molecular diffusion.

Nonlocal closure: an unknown quantity of one point is parameterized by values of known quantities at many points in space. \rightarrow Assume turbulence is a superposition of eddies.

6.2 Parameterization rules

- The parameterization for all unknown quantity should be physically reasonable. It must
- have the same dimensions as the unknown
- have the same tensor properties
- have the same symmetries
- be invariant under an arbitrary transformation of coord systems.
- " " " a Galilean (ie inertial or Newtonian) transformation.
- Satisfy the same budget eqs and constraints.

6.3 Local closure - zero & half order \rightarrow eqs

6.4 Local closure - first order

(1) definition

First-order closure retains the prognostic eqs for only the zero-order mean variables such as wind, temp, and humidity. Consider the idealized scenario of a dry environment, horizontally homogeneous, with no subsidence, geostrophic wind as known as B.C. \rightarrow governing eq (3.5)

Let ξ be any variable. \rightarrow One possible first-order closure approx. for flux $u'\xi'$

$$\overline{u'\xi'} = -K \frac{\partial \xi}{\partial z}$$

where K is called eddy viscosity (for momentum), eddy diffusivity (for heat & moisture), eddy transfer coefficient, eddy - transfer coefficient, turbulent-transfer coefficient, gradient-transfer coefficient.

gradient transport theory or K-theory \rightarrow small-eddy closure technique (eqs for large-eddy)

(2) analogy with viscosity $\int \frac{\partial u}{\partial z}$ for a Newtonian fluid. molecule stress, $\tau_{m1} = \rho \nu \frac{\partial u}{\partial z}$ for a Newtonian fluid. turbulent Reynolds stress $\tau_{t1} = \rho K_m \frac{\partial u}{\partial z}$ \rightarrow Austausch coefficient

(3) Mixing-length theory

Assume that there is turbulence in a statically neutral environment, with a linear mean humidity gradient in the vertical

Local closure - first order

Let $w' = -cu'$ for $\partial \theta / \partial z > 0$

Similarly, $u' = -\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial z}\right) z'$

$w' = cu'$ for $\partial \theta / \partial z < 0$

$\overline{w'u'} = c \left| \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} \right| z'$

R (Kronecker eddy flux of moisture) $= \overline{w'u'}$

6.1 The closure problem

The number of unknowns in the set of equations for turbulent flow is larger than the number of eqs. For any finite set of eqs, the description of turbulence requires an infinite set of eqs. \rightarrow Closure problem.

Local closure: an unknown quantity of any point in space is parameterized by values and/or gradients of known quantities at the same point. \rightarrow Assumes turbulence is analogous to molecular diffusion.

Nonlocal closure: an unknown quantity of one point is parameterized by values of known quantities at many points in space. \rightarrow Assume turbulence is a superposition of eddies.

$$R = -C(z) \left| \frac{\partial U}{\partial z} \right| \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial z} \right)$$

↳ the variance of panel displacement distance

⇒ mixing length (l): $l^2 = C z^2$

$$\therefore R = -l^2 \left| \frac{\partial U}{\partial z} \right| \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial z} \right)$$

This is directly analogous to K-theory if

$$R = -K_E \frac{\partial U}{\partial z}$$

⇒ mixing-length theory tells us that the magnitude of K_E should increase as the shear increases (i.e. a measure of the intensity of turbulence) and as the mixing length increases (i.e. a measure of the ability of turbulence to cause mixing)

• In surface layer → $l^2 = K^2 z^2$

⇒ eddy viscosity in surface layer

$$K_E = K^2 z^2 \left| \frac{\partial U}{\partial z} \right|$$

⇒ small-eddy theory

• K-theory is not recommended for use in convective mixed layers.

• Ekman pumping: The process of inducing vertical motions by BL friction

(skt ...)

Ch. 7. Boundary Conditions & Surface forcings

• effective turbulent flux: the sum of the molecular and turbulent fluxes

END