

Where is the water?

97%

2% Ice Caps

~1%

Lakes/Rivers

0.001%

Atmosphere

(13,000 km³, 2.5cm depth)

0.00001%

Clouds

Ocean

Global precipitation

500,000 km³ per year

≈ 1 m/year

≈ 3 mm/day

Cloud Lectures - Outline

- 1a. Overview of cloud parametrization issues (Lecture 1)
- 1b. Liquid-phase microphysical processes (Lecture 1)
- 2. Ice and mixed-phase microphysical processes (Lecture 2)
- Sub-grid heterogeneity (Lecture 3)
- 4. Model evaluation of clouds and precipitation (Lecture 4)



Cloud Lecture 1 - Overview of cloud parametrization issues and liquid-phase microphysical processes

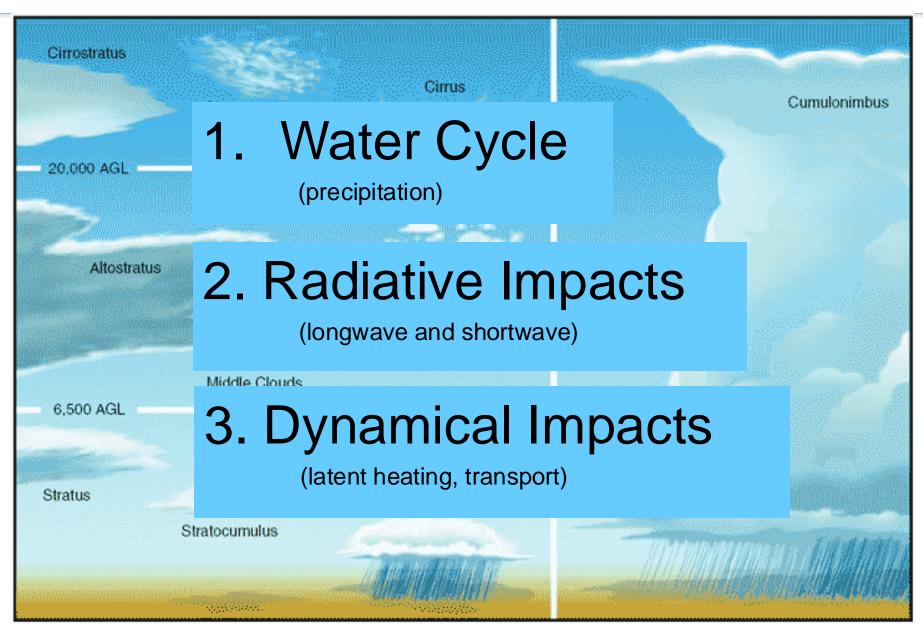
Learning Objectives

- 1. Describe the basic concepts for the design of a microphysics parametrization
- 2. Understand the key microphysical processes for warm-phase cloud and precipitation in the atmosphere
- 3. Recognise the important warm-phase microphysical processes that need to be parametrized in a numerical weather prediction model



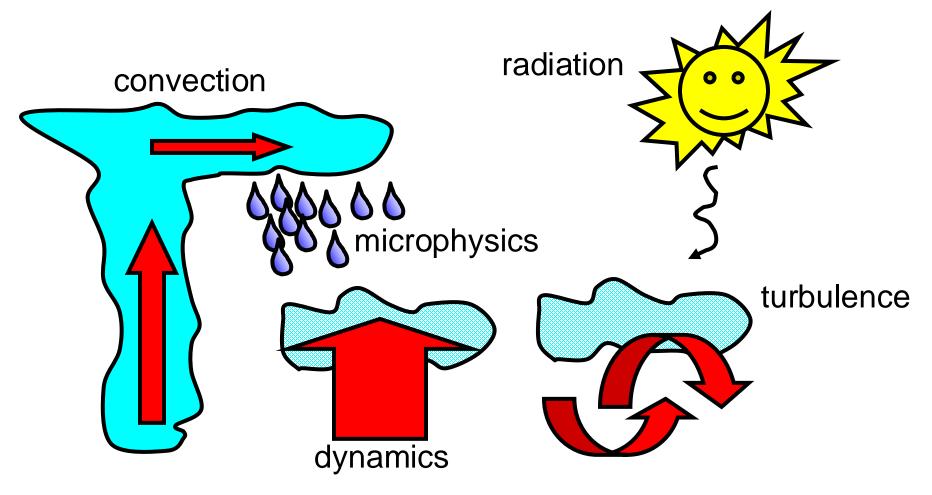


The Importance of Clouds





Representing Clouds in GCMs - What do we need to consider?

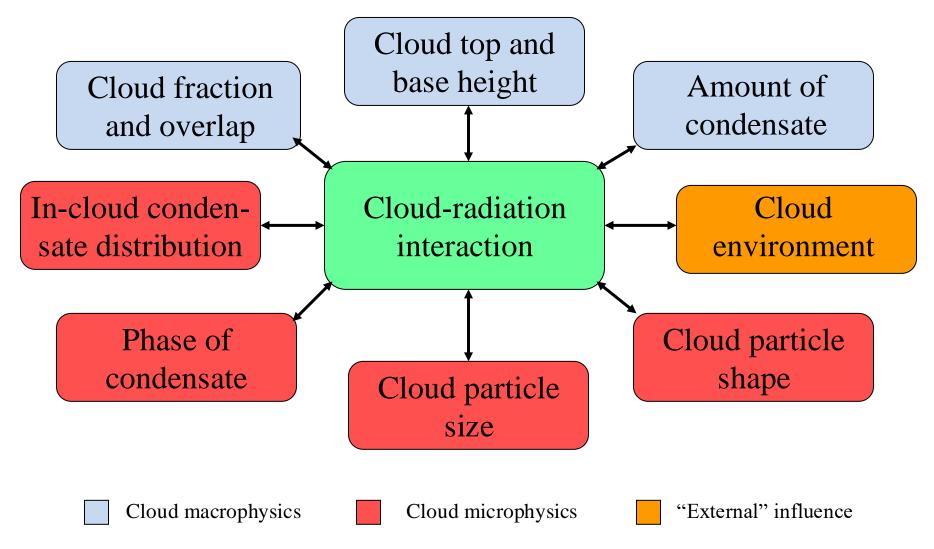


Clouds are the result of complex interactions between a large number of processes



Representing Clouds in GCMs - What do we need to consider?

Example: cloud-radiation interaction – many uncertainties



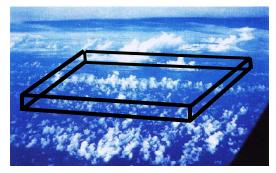


Cloud Parametrization Issues:

Microphysical processes



- Macro-physical
 - subgrid heterogeneity



Numerical issues

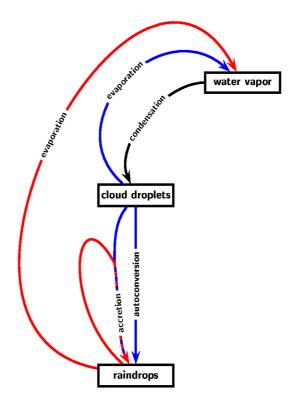
$$\frac{\partial q_l}{\partial t} = A(q_l) + S(q_l) - D(q_l)$$

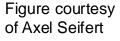
(1) Which quantities (categories) to represent?

Water vapour

Warm-phase:

- Cloud water droplets
- Rain drops







(1) Which quantities (categories) to represent?

Water vapour

Warm-phase:

- Cloud water droplets
- Rain drops

Cold-phase

- Pristine ice crystals
- Snow particles
- Graupel pellets
- Hailstones

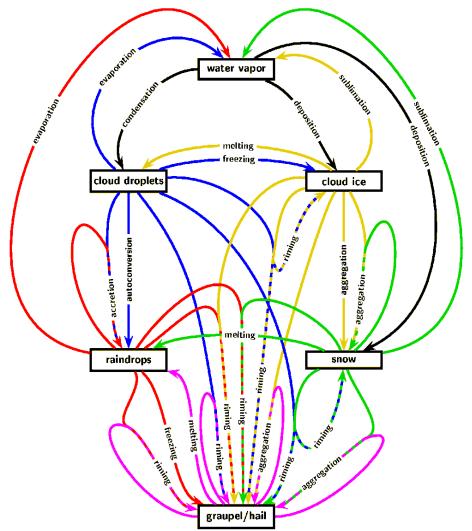
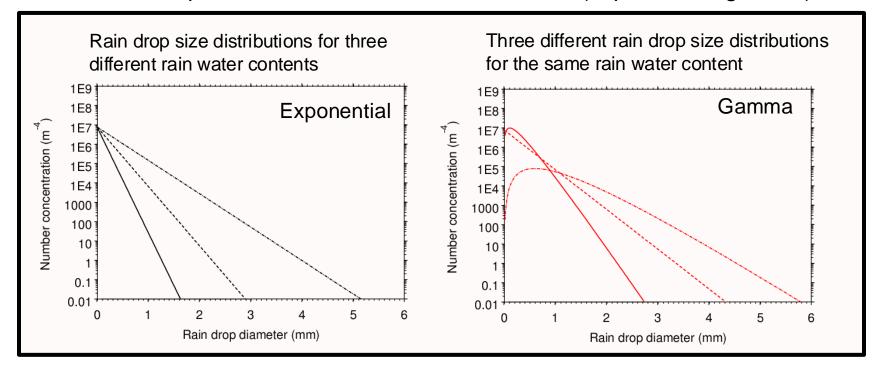


Figure courtesy of Axel Seifert



(2) Particle size distributions

- Each category represents a range of particle sizes defined by its particle size distribution
- This can be represented with some functional form (exponential, gamma)



 The particle size distributions and their evolution can be modelled with different complexities and degrees of freedom...



(2) Particle size distributions – PDF moments

The *nth* moment of the particle size distribution f(D) across a range of particle sizes with diameter, D, is defined as

$$M_n = \mathop{\circ}\limits_{0}^{*} D^n f(D) dD$$

The zeroth moment is the number concentration, N,

$$N = \mathop{\circ}\limits_{0}^{\cancel{Y}} D^{0} f(D) dD = \mathop{\circ}\limits_{0}^{\cancel{Y}} f(D) dD$$

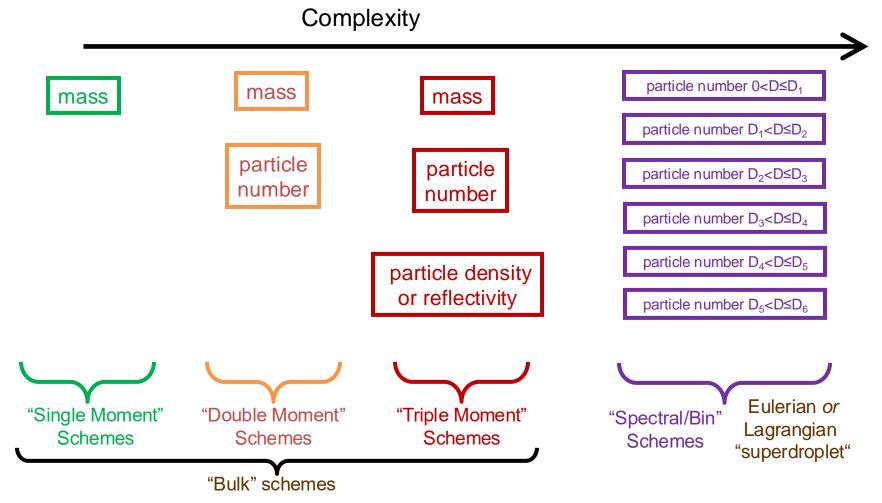
The third moment is the liquid water mass mixing ratio, L, (where ρ_w is the density of water)

$$L = \frac{pr_{w}}{6} \mathop{\circ}\limits_{0}^{4} D^{3} f(D) dD$$

Other moments can be useful, e.g. the sixth moment D⁶ is relevant for radar reflectivity



(3) Complexity?



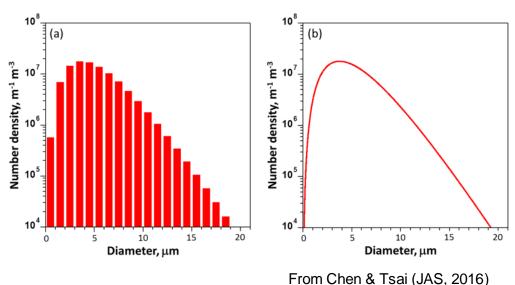
GCMs typically have single-moment or double-moment schemes



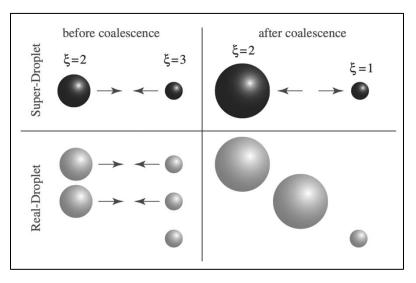
(3) Complexity

- Spectral (bin) microphysics divide particles into different size bins and compute evolution of each bin.
 Particle size distribution free to evolve rather than be subscribed. Computationally expensive.
- **Super Droplet Method** (SDM) lagrangian representation. Each super-droplet represents a multiple number of droplets with the same attributes (size) and position. Stochastic collision-coalescence.

Spectral bin microphysics



Super droplet method (SDM)



From Shima et al. (QJRMS, 2009)



(4) Predict or diagnose quantities?

For a bulk microphysics scheme with hydrometeor mass, q_x

Prognostic approach (parametrized sources and sinks)

$$\frac{\partial q_x}{\partial t} + \vec{v} \cdot \nabla q_x - \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (\rho v_x q_x) = S(q_x)$$
Advection Sedimentation Sources and sinks

Diagnostic approach (equilibrium assumed)

$$\frac{\partial q}{\partial t} + \vec{v} = \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (\rho v_x q_x) = S(q_x)$$

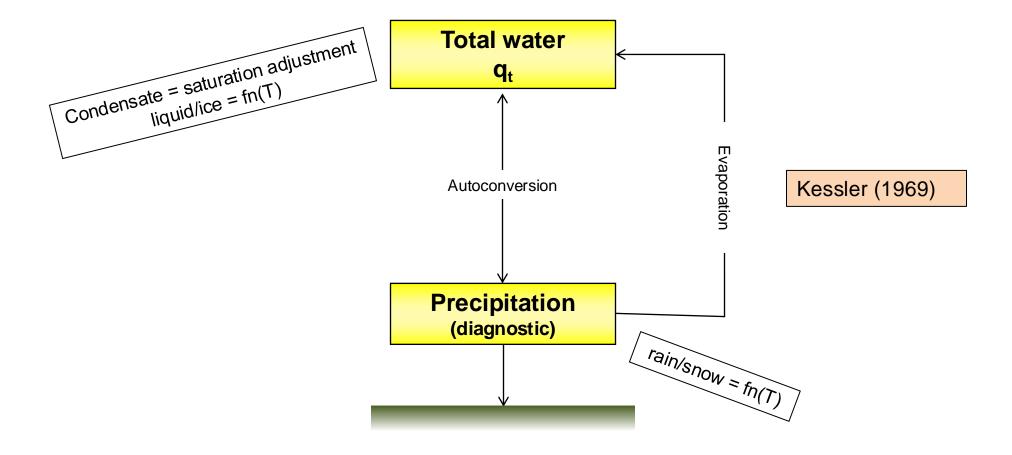
e.g. rain in models with long timestep (1hr): timescale for fallout of rain << model timestep therefore can assume rain profile is in equilibrium and can diagnose the rain flux locally every timestep

Can have a mixture of approaches for different hydrometeors



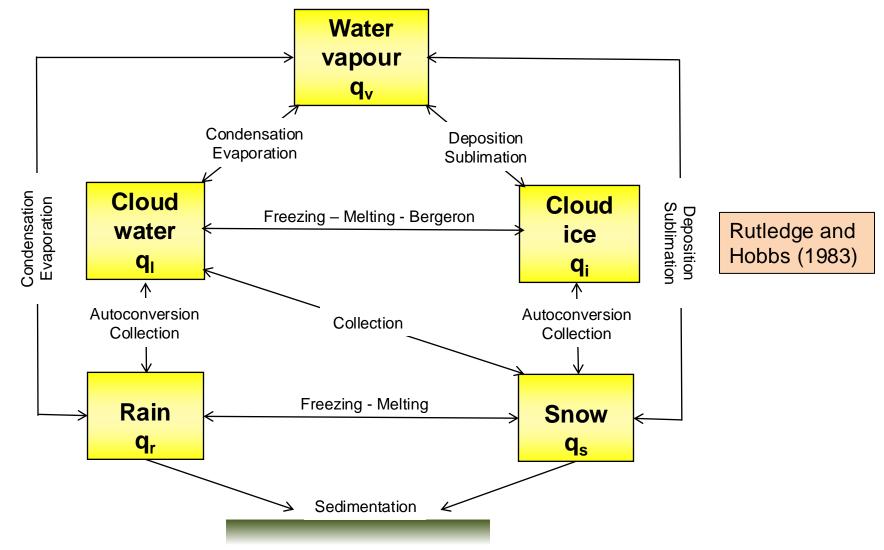
Microphysics parametrization: Simple schemes

...in many GCMs not that long ago, still some now, and in many convection parametrizations!



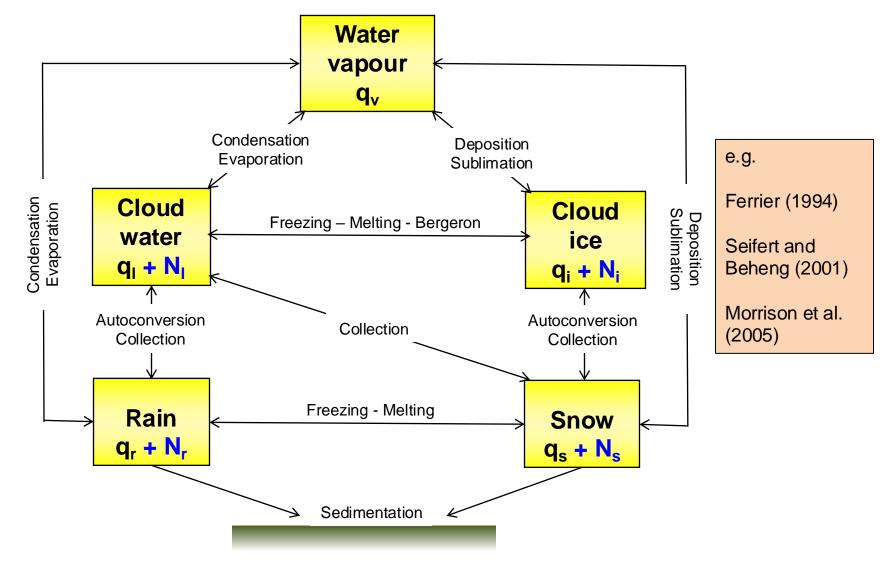


Single moment schemes



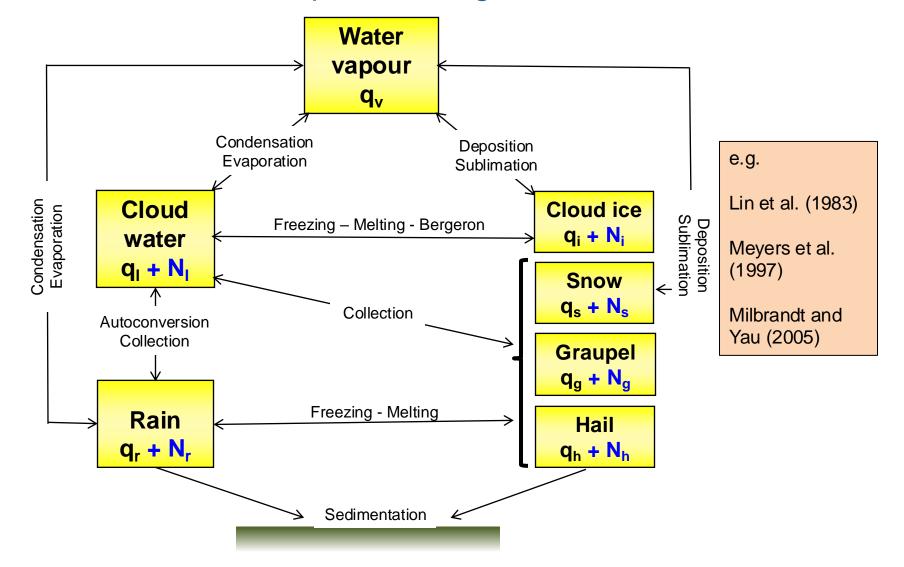


Double moment schemes



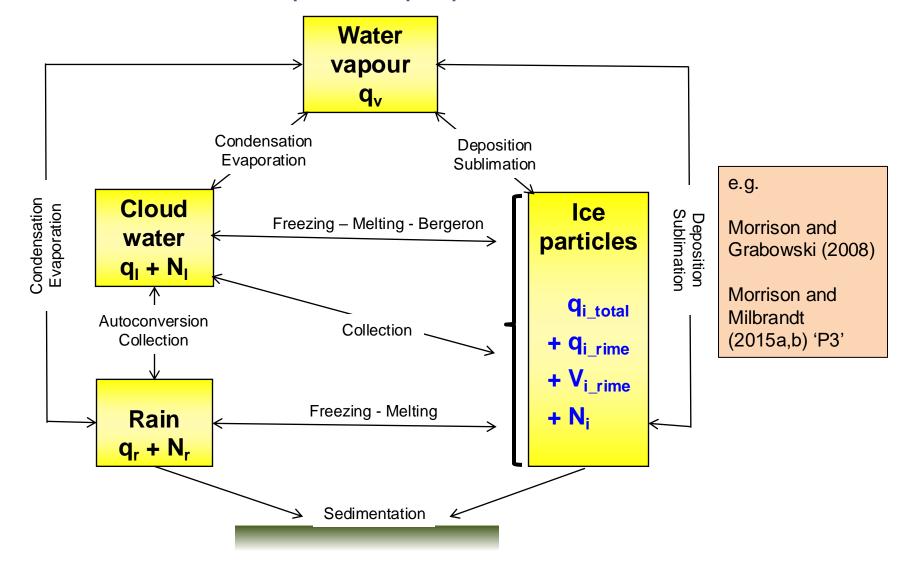


Double moment schemes – multiple ice categories



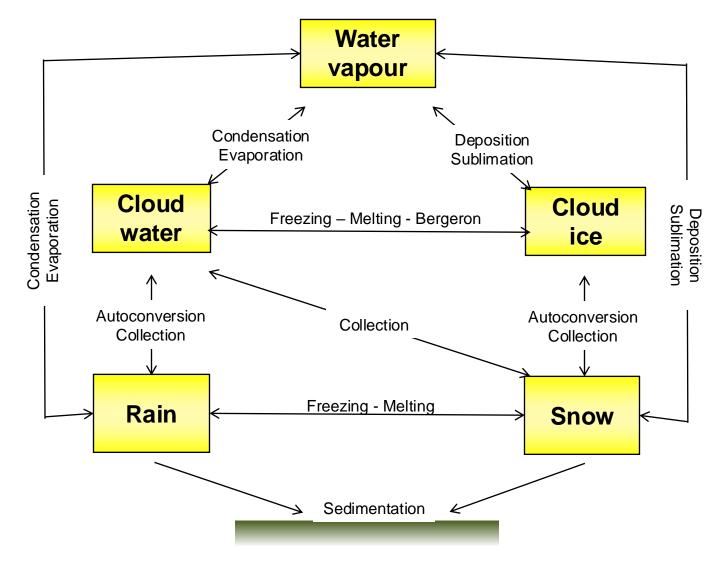


Double moment schemes + ice particle properties



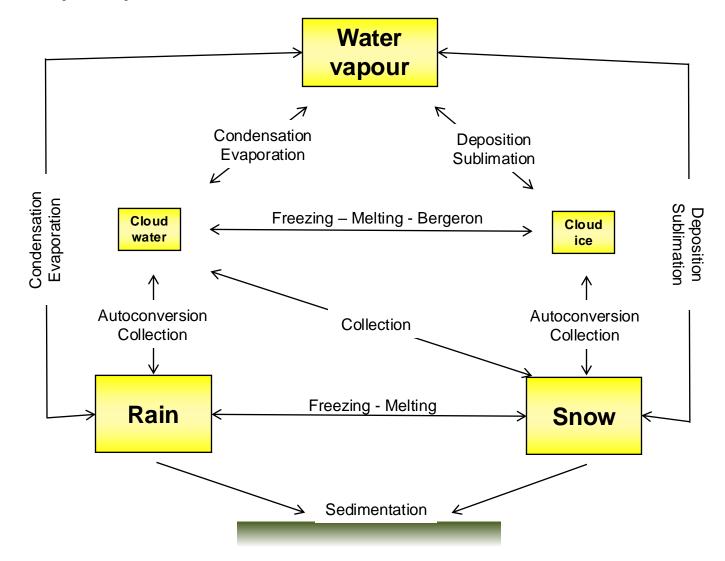


What is important?





The hydrological perspective

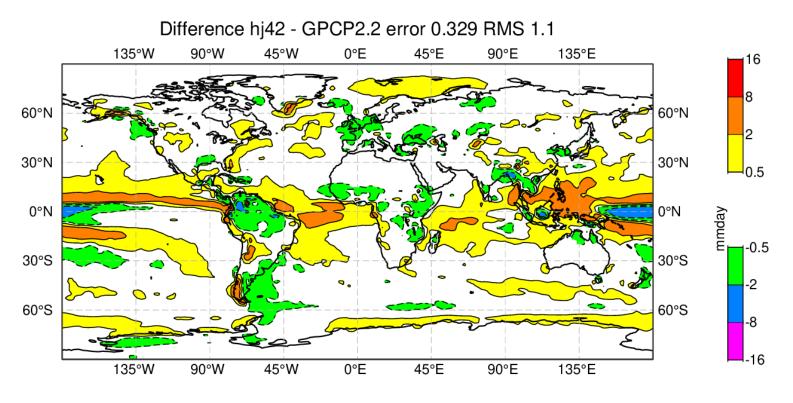




The hydrological perspective

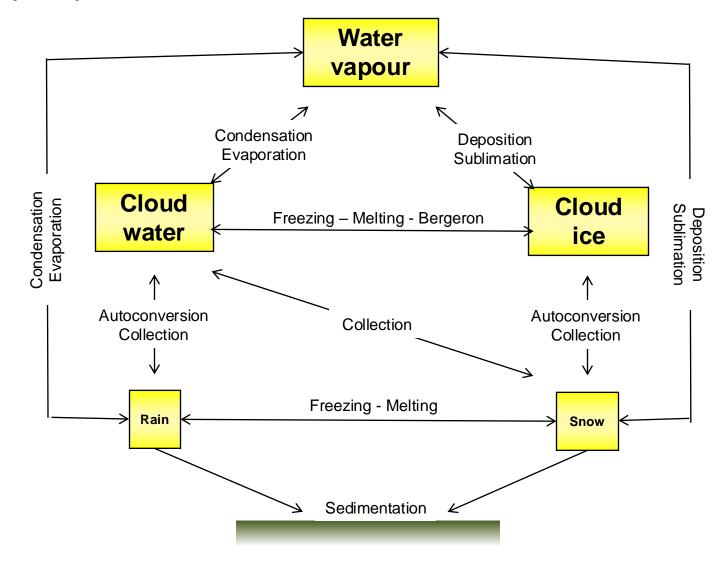
Annual mean IFS model climatological surface precipitation bias versus GPCP observational dataset

(from an IFS Cycle several years ago)





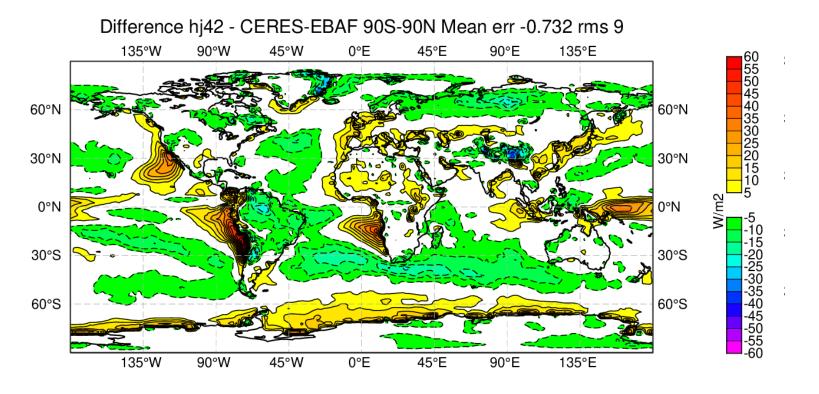
The radiative perspective





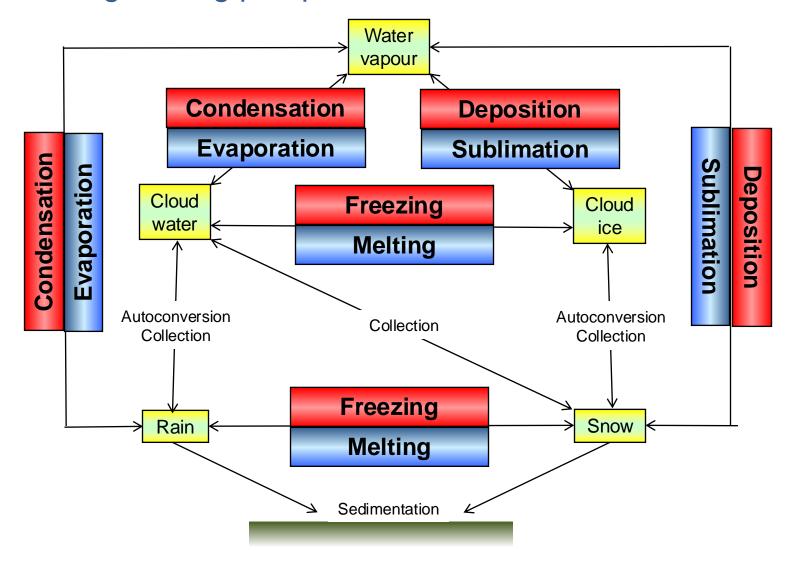
The radiative perspective

Annual mean IFS model climatological top-of-atmosphere net shortwave bias versus CERES-EBAF observations (from an IFS Cycle several years ago)





The diabatic heating/cooling perspective



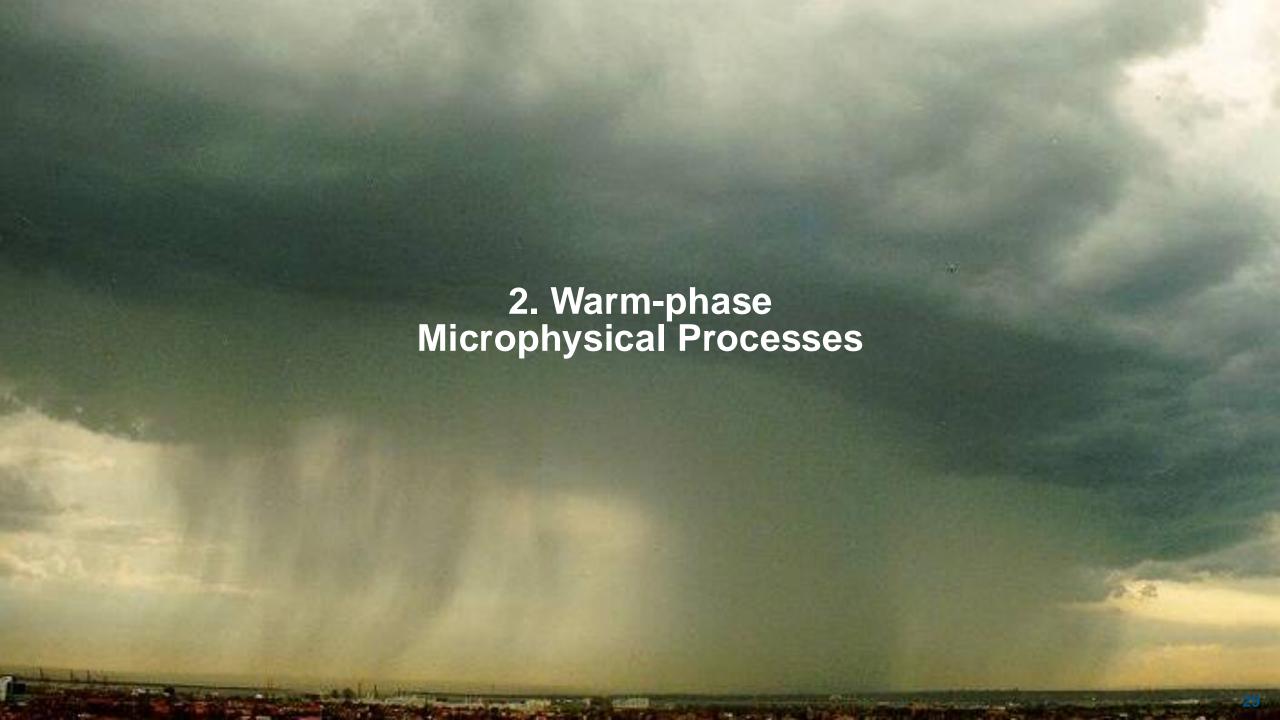


The diabatic heating/cooling perspective

24 hour forecast mean temperature error versus analysis at 500hPa, from the operational TCo1279 IFS (from an IFS Cycle several years ago)

Forecast Error. T at 500 hPa. Mean for DJF 2021. Deep colours = 5% sig. (AR1) Day 1 0.8 ms Unit: 0.01K Mean: -0.23 RMS: 8.12 Sig: 34%





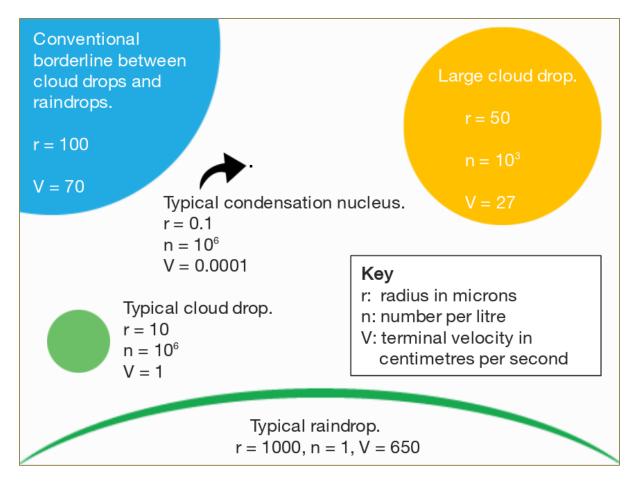
Cloud microphysical processes

To describe warm-phase cloud and precipitation processes in our models we need to represent:

- Nucleation of water droplets
- Diffusional growth of cloud droplets (condensation)
- Collection processes for cloud drops (collision-coalescence), leading to precipitation sized particles
- the advection and sedimentation (falling) of particles
- the evaporation of cloud and precipitation size particles



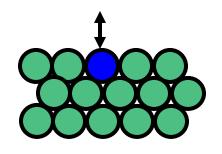
Droplet Classification



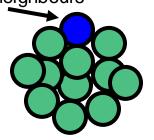
Comparative sizes, concentrations and terminal fall velocities of some of the particles involved in cloud and precipitation processes (after McDonald 1958)



Nucleation of cloud droplets: Important effects for particle activation



Surface molecule has fewer neighbours



<u>Planar surface</u>: Equilibrium when atmospheric vapour pressure = saturation vapour pressure $(e=e_s)$ and number of molecules impinging on surface equals rate of evaporation

<u>Curved surface</u>: saturation vapour pressure increases with smaller drop size since surface molecules have fewer binding neighbours.

$$\frac{e_s(r)}{e_s(\infty)} = \exp\left(\frac{2\sigma}{rR_v \rho_l T}\right)$$

i.e. easier for a molecule to escape, so e_s has to be higher to maintain equilibrium

 σ = Surface tension of droplet r = drop radius



Nucleation of cloud droplets: Homogeneous Nucleation

- To get a drop of pure water to form from vapour requires a high supersaturation.
- Kelvin's formula for critical radius (R_c) for initial droplet to "survive".
- Strongly dependent on supersaturation (e/e_s)
- Would require several hundred percent supersaturation (not observed in the atmosphere).
- So how do cloud droplets forming?

$$R_c = \frac{2\sigma}{R_v \rho_l T \ln\left(\frac{e}{e_s}\right)}$$

 R_c = Critical radius

 σ = Surface tension of droplet

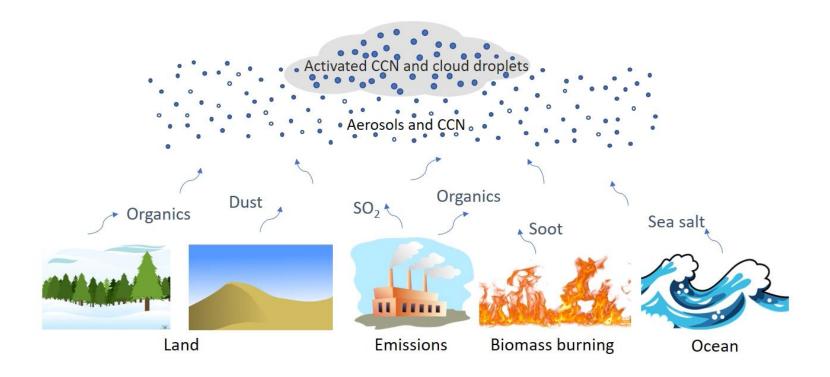
Nucleation of cloud droplets: Heterogeneous Nucleation

- Collection of water molecules on a foreign substance, RH > ~80% (Haze particles)
- These (hygroscopic) soluble particles are called Cloud Condensation Nuclei (CCN)
- CCN almost always present in sufficient numbers in lower and middle troposphere
- Nucleation of droplets (i.e. from stable haze particle to unstable regime of diffusive growth)
 can occur at much smaller supersaturations (e.g. < 1%)



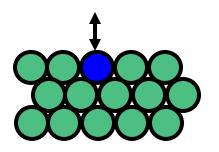
Nucleation of cloud droplets: Heterogeneous Nucleation

Aerosol particles are abundant in the atmosphere and many are hygroscopic (e.g. sea salt, sulphates) and readily form solute particles that become cloud condensation nuclei



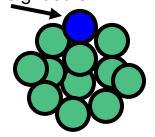


Nucleation of cloud droplets: Important effects for particle activation



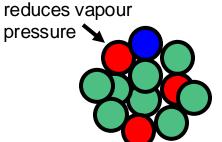
Planar surface: Equilibrium when e=e_s and number of molecules impinging on surface equals rate of evaporation

Surface molecule has fewer neighbours



<u>Curved surface</u>: saturation vapour pressure increases with smaller drop size since surface molecules have fewer binding neighbours. Effect proportional to 1/r (curvature effect or "Kelvin effect")

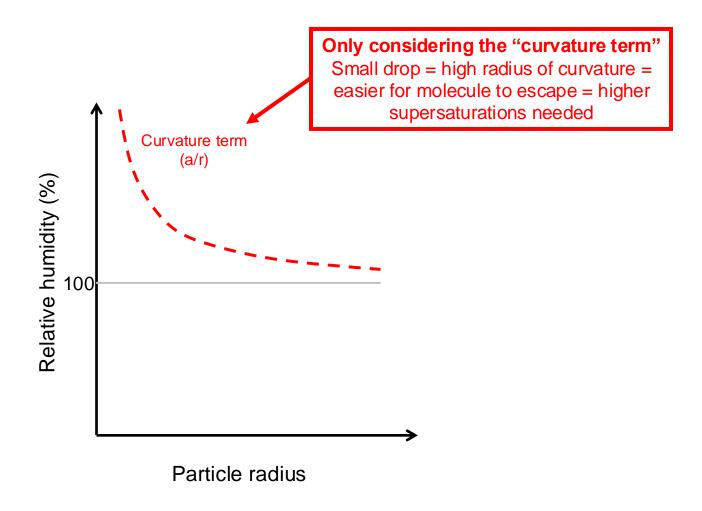
Dissolved substance reduces vapour



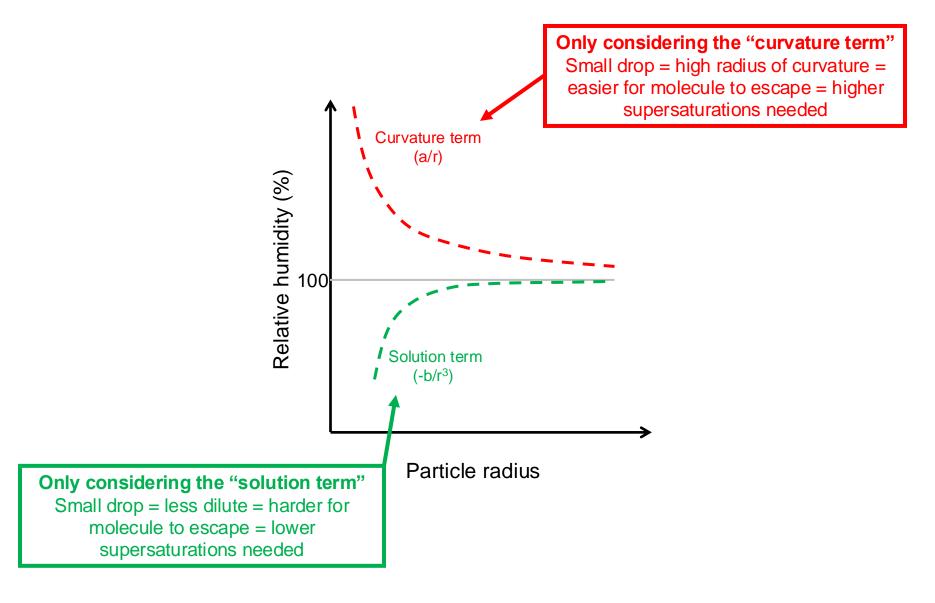
<u>Presence of dissolved substance</u>: saturation vapour pressure reduces with smaller drop size due to solute molecules replacing solvent on drop surface (assuming e_{solute}<e_v)

Effect proportional to -1/r³ (solution effect or "Raoult's law")

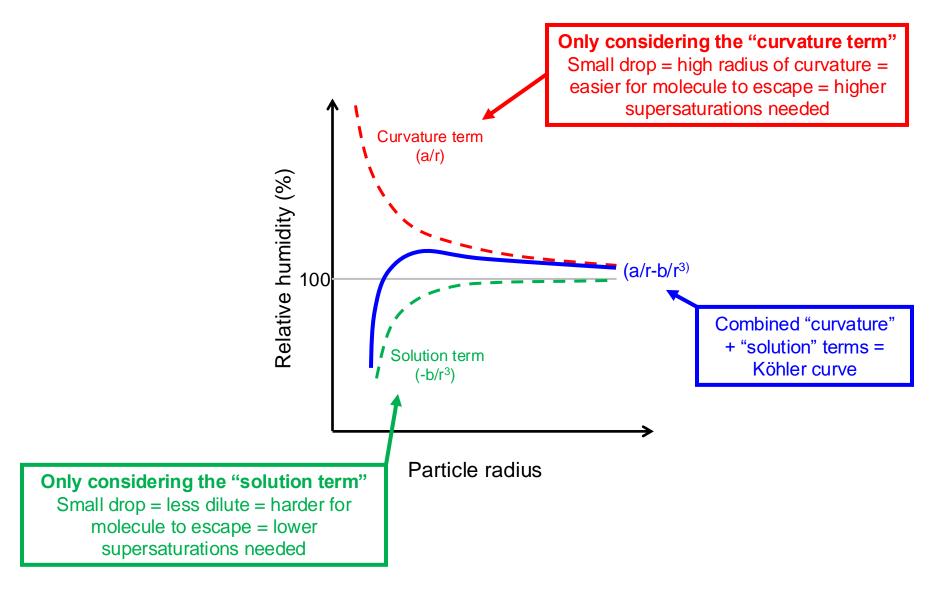




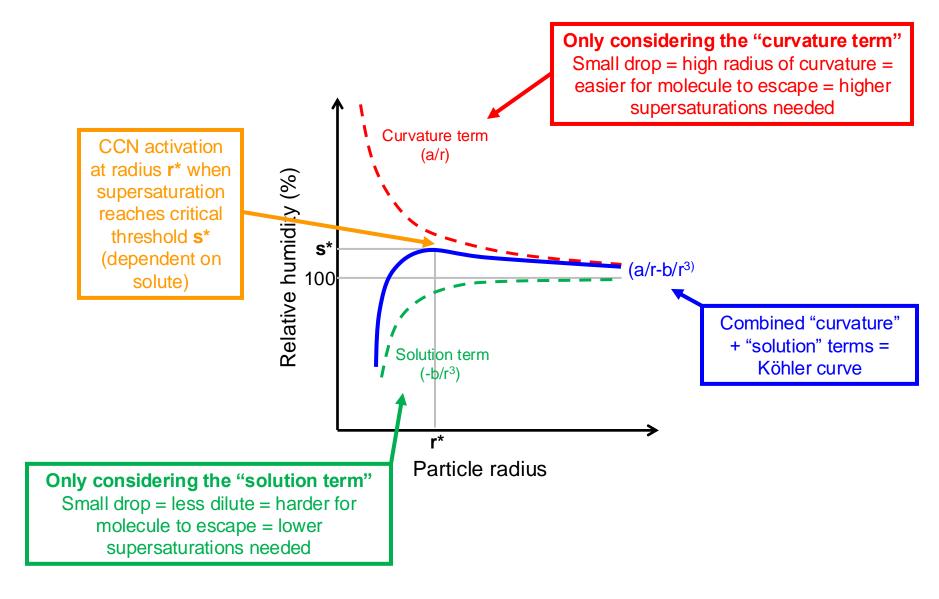






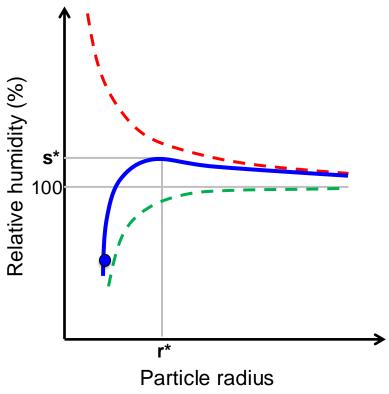






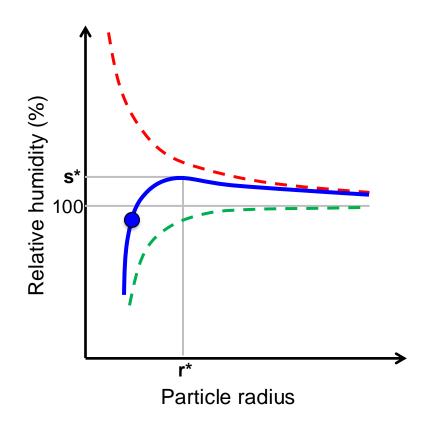






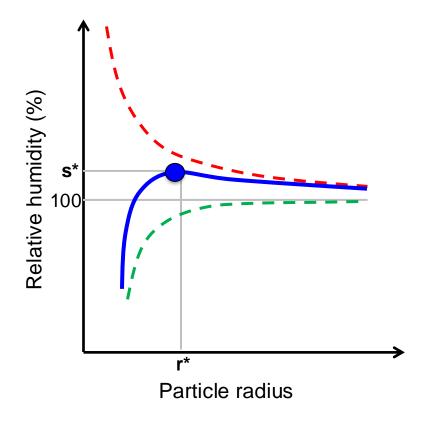


Relative humidity increases, particle grows but still in equilibrium with environment

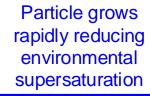


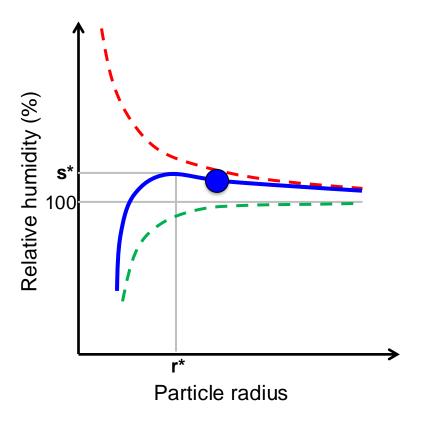


Relative humidity increases above saturation to critical threshold (<101%), particle "activated"



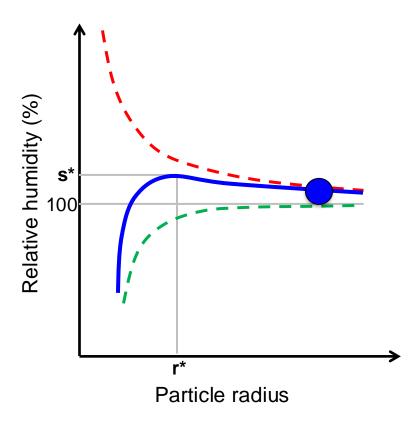








Particle grows more slowly as radius increases and supersaturation decreases





Diffusional growth of cloud water droplets

- Once droplet is activated, water vapour diffuses towards it = condensation
- Reverse process = evaporation
- Droplets that are formed by diffusion growth attain a typical size of 0.1 to 10 μm
- Rain drops are much larger

drizzle: 50 to 100 μm

• rain: >100 μm

- So how do rain drops form?
- Other processes must also act in precipitating clouds

Droplet growth – diffusion equation:

$$\frac{dr}{dt} \approx \frac{1}{r} \frac{De_s^{\infty}}{\rho_L R_v T} (S - 1)$$

For $r > 1 \mu m$ and neglecting diffusion of heat

r = droplet radius

D = diffusion coefficient,

(S-1) = supersaturation

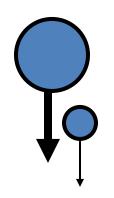
T = temperature

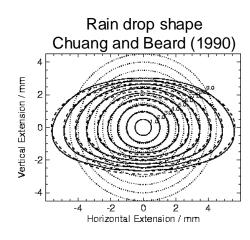
Note inverse radius dependency

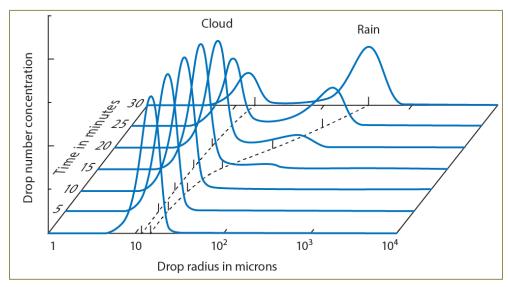


Collection processes: Collision-coalescence of water droplets

- Drops of different size move with different fall speeds
 collision and coalescence
- Large drops grow at the expense of small droplets
- Collection efficiency is low for small drops
- Process depends on width of droplet spectrum and is more efficient for broader spectra – paradox – how do we get a broad spectrum in the first place?
- Large drops can only be produced in clouds of large vertical extent – Aided by turbulence (differential evaporation), giant CCNs?







(After Berry and Reinhardt 1974)



Parametrizing nucleation and water droplet diffusional growth

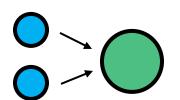
- Nucleation: Since CCN "activation" occurs at water supersaturations less than 1% and condensation is fast
 A good approximation is therefore to assume all supersaturation with respect to water is immediately removed to form water droplets. This is called "saturation adjustment"
 Many models use this simple assumption...but....
- ...this doesn't provide information on cloud droplet sizes, number concentrations or the dependence on aerosol.
- In single-moment schemes (only predicting mass of cloud water), assumptions are made concerning the droplet number concentration/effective radius when needed (e.g. radiation).
- More complex schemes can explicitly represent nucleation and solve the droplet growth equation and depend on predictions of aerosol type and number concentrations and subgrid vertical velocity for activation (important for climate change, but lots of complexities and uncertainties)



Parametrizing collision-collection process: "Autoconversion" and "Accretion"

For a bulk microphysics scheme with two warm-phase hydrometeor categories "cloud liquid droplets" (q_l) and "rain drops" (q_r)

General form of "autoconversion"



$$\frac{\partial q_r}{\partial t} = aq_l^b N^c$$

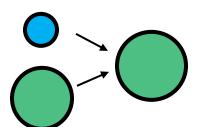
 $\partial q_r / \partial t$ = rate of change of rain water content

 q_l = cloud liquid water content

N =droplet number concentration

a,b,c = parameters

General form of accretion parametrization equation



$$\frac{\partial q_r}{\partial t} = dq_l^e q_r^f$$

 $\partial q_r / \partial t$ = rate of change of rain water content

 q_l = cloud liquid water content

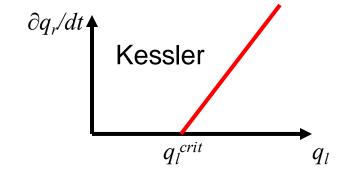
 q_r = rain water content

d,e,f = parameters

Parametrizing collection processes: "Autoconversion" of cloud drops to raindrops

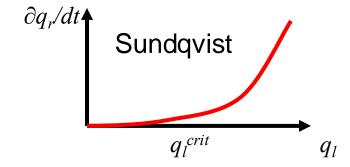
• Linear function of q_I (Kessler, 1969)

$$\frac{\partial q_r}{\partial t} = a_0 \left(q_l - q_l^{crit} \right) \qquad \text{for } q_l > q_l^{crit}$$



 Function of q_I with additional term to avoid singular threshold (Sundqvist 1978)

$$\frac{\partial q_r}{\partial t} = a_0 q_l \left(1 - e^{-\left(q_l / q_l^{crit}\right)^2} \right)$$



 Or more non-linear, double moment functions such as Khairoutdinov and Kogan (2000), or Seifert and Beheng (2001) derived directly from the stochastic collection equation.

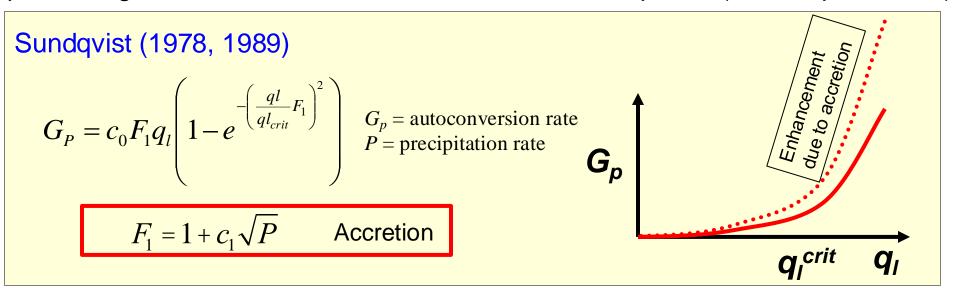
$$\longrightarrow \frac{\partial q_r}{\partial t} = a_0 q_l^{2.47} N^{-1.79}$$

 Or detailed bin microphysics model → machine learning/neural network (Gettelman et al. 2021)



Parametrizing collection processes: "Accretion" of cloud drops by raindrops

Representing autoconversion and accretion in the warm phase (cloud liquid to rain).



In the IFS pre-2010

Khairoutdinov and Kogan (2000)

$$G_{aut} = 1350q_l^{2.47}N_c^{-1.79}$$

$$G_{acc} = 67q_l^{1.15}q_r^{1.15}$$

$$G_{acc} = 67q_l^{1.15}q_r^{1.15}$$

- Functional form is different
- More non-linear process
- Slower autoconversion initially, then faster
- With prognostic rain, have memory in q_r
- Then faster accretion for heavier rain.

In the IFS after 2010 and now

Parametrizing evaporation - cloud and precipitation

Evaporation of cloud droplets is generally assumed to be fast as cloud particles are small, so as soon as the air becomes subsaturated, the cloud evaporates in the model.

However, larger precipitation size particles take longer to evaporate, so precipitation may fall into drier air below cloud base before it evaporates.

Rain evaporation is parametrized by integrating over an assumed droplet size spectrum (exponential or gamma), proportional to the subsaturation:

For a single rain drop of radius *r*,

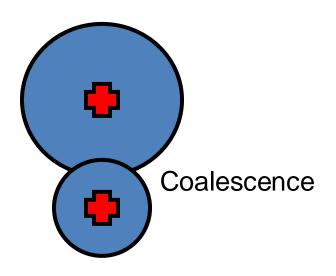
$$\frac{dr}{dt} \approx \frac{1}{r} \frac{\psi e_s^{\infty}}{\rho_l R_v T} (S - 1)$$

```
r = \text{rain drop radius}
\psi = \text{diffusivity of water in air}
e_s^{\infty} = \text{saturation vapour pressure for a planar surface}
\rho_l = \text{density of liquid water}
R_v = \text{gas constant for water vapour}
T = \text{temperature}
S = \text{saturation ratio} = e/e_s^{\infty}
```

Same as the growth (condensation) equation for a droplet with radius r (shown earlier), but dr/dt is negative because the air is subsaturated (S < 1)



Schematic of Warm Rain Processes





Summary

- Cloud is important for it's radiative, hydrological and dynamical impacts (also associated with transport)
- Different complexities of microphysics parametrization
- Microphysics doesn't occur in isolation dynamics, turbulence, convection
- Warm rain nucleation, collision-coalescence
 Parametrization: autoconversion, accretion, evaporation

Next Lecture:

Ice and mixed-phase processes



References

Reference books for cloud and precipitation microphysics:

Pruppacher. H. R. and J. D. Klett (1998). *Microphysics of Clouds and Precipitation (2nd Ed)*. Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Rogers, R. R. and M. K. Yau, (1989). A Short Course in Cloud Physics (3rd Ed.) Butterworth-Heinemann Publications.

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