A Lagrangian Model to Predict Modification of

2 Near-Surface Scalar Mixing Ratios and Air-

3 Water Exchange Fluxes in Offshore Flow

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20 Abstract

21 A model was developed to predict the modification with fetch in offshore flow 22 of mixing ratio, air-water exchange flux, and near-surface vertical gradients in 23 mixing ratio of a scalar due to air-water exchange. The model was developed for 24 planning and interpretation of air-water exchange flux measurements in the 25 coastal zone. The Lagrangian model applies a mass balance over the internal boundary layer (IBL) using the integral depth scale approach, previously applied 26 27 to development of the nocturnal boundary layer over land. Surface fluxes and 28 vertical profiles in the surface layer were calculated using the NOAA COARE 29 bulk algorithm and gas transfer model (e.g., Blomquist et al., 2006, Geophys. Res. 30 Lett., 33: L07601). IBL height was assumed proportional to square-root of fetch,

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1 and estimates of the IBL growth rate coefficient, α , were obtained by three 2 methods: 1) calibration of the model to a large dataset of air temperature and 3 humidity modification over Lake Ontario, 1973, 2) atmospheric soundings from 4 the 2004 New England Air Quality Study, and 3) solution of a simplified diffusion 5 equation and an estimate of eddy diffusivity from Monin Obukhov similarity 6 theory (MOST). Reasonable agreement was obtained between calibrated and 7 MOST values of α for stable, neutral, and unstable conditions, and estimates of α 8 agreed with previously published parameterizations that were valid for the stable 9 IBL only. The parameterization of α provides estimates of IBL height, and the 10 model estimates modification of scalar mixing ratio, fluxes, and near-surface 11 gradients, under conditions of coastal offshore flow (0 - 50 km) over a wide range 12 in stability.

13 Keywords

14 Air-sea gas exchange, Bulk Richardson number, Coastal, Internal boundary layer,15 Stability

16 **1 Introduction**

17 Quantification of air-water exchange fluxes of trace gases such as carbon 18 dioxide (McGillis et al. 2004), dimethyl sulphide (Blomquist et al. 2006), and 19 semivolatile organic compounds (Perlinger et al. 2005; Perlinger et al. 2008) are 20 important to understand and predict climate change and ecosystem health. 21 Measurements of air-water exchange fluxes in the coastal zone are conducted 22 within a complex environment of an evolving internal boundary layer (IBL) as air 23 advected from land adjusts to the change in surface forcing caused by transition to 24 the water surface. Bulk algorithms that assume horizontal homogeneity may not 25 agree with flux measurements made at a significant fraction of the IBL height 26 (Fairall et al. 2006). 27 A model framework is necessary to plan and interpret coastal air-water 28 exchange flux measurements, to evaluate the reasonableness of flux 29 measurements, and to predict the values of fluxes as a function of bulk 30 meteorological variables. Models of IBL development range from complex 31 numerical turbulence models (Angevine et al. 2006b; Garratt 1987; Smedman et

al. 1997) to relatively simple Lagrangian models (Garratt 1987; Hsu 1989; Melas

1 1989). Angevine et al. (2006b) applied a high-resolution numerical model to 2 investigate pollutant transport in offshore, coastal flow associated with the 2002 3 New England Air Quality Study, and found that some, but not all, of the important 4 phenomena were captured: the stable boundary layer predicted by the model 5 formed further from shore, was less stable, and was thicker than observations. 6 Fine-scale phenomena near the coast can be challenging for numerical models to 7 capture. IBL growth is difficult to establish from first principles, so empirical 8 formulae are often used. For example, Mulhearn (1981) provided a simple 9 formula for IBL depth applicable for stable surface layers. Previous investigation 10 of IBL formation in coastal offshore flow focused primarily on the thermal IBL 11 under stable conditions. The full range of stable, neutral, and unstable conditions 12 is of interest with respect to air-surface exchange of trace gases. Here, the 13 objective is to develop a simple model to predict modification of scalar mixing 14 ratio, fluxes, and near-surface gradients resulting from air-water exchange in 15 coastal offshore flow over a wide range in stability that is useful for planning and 16 interpretation of coastal air-water exchange flux measurements. 17 We apply the coupled ocean-atmosphere response experiment (COARE) bulk 18 algorithm (Fairall et al. 2003) and gas transfer model (Fairall et al. 2000; 19 Blomquist et al. 2006) within a Lagrangian framework, referred to here as the 20 internal boundary layer transport and exchange (IBLTE) model, to estimate the 21 height to which an air mass is modified by the water surface in offshore flow (i.e., 22 the height of the internal boundary layer (IBL)), and to estimate the modification 23 of gas mixing ratio, potential temperature, surface fluxes, and near-surface vertical 24 profiles with fetch. We develop a parameterization to quantify IBL growth under 25 stable, neutral, and unstable conditions by calibration of the IBLTE model to 26 observations of air temperature and humidity modification in offshore flow, and 27 compare to a parameterization based on Monin Obukhov similarity theory 28 (MOST) and previously published parameterizations that are valid only for the 29 stable IBL.

30 2 Model Description

An IBL forms in the atmosphere whenever flow passes over a change in
surface properties such as roughness, temperature, or moisture (Garratt 1990).
Except in nearly calm or very unstable conditions, the influence of the new

1 surface is propagated upward by turbulent diffusion more slowly than it is 2 advected horizontally, thus some time (distance) is required to establish new 3 steady-state vertical profiles of temperature and mixing ratio (Fig. 1). In the case 4 of cool air flowing over a warmer surface, a statically unstable, or convective IBL 5 is formed. Turbulence is enhanced by convection, thus the convective IBL grows 6 rapidly and reaches equilibrium in tens of kilometres (Garratt 1987). In contrast, 7 when warm air flows over a cooler surface, turbulence is suppressed by thermal stratification and a statically stable IBL is formed. The growth rate of a stable IBL 8 9 is low, and fetch of several hundred kilometres is required to develop an IBL of 10 several hundreds of meters deep (Garratt 1987).

11 **2.1** A mass/heat balance over the internal boundary layer (IBL)

12 A mass balance is performed over the IBL taking a Lagrangian perspective, 13 moving with an air mass advected from land to water in a direction aligned with 14 the mean wind. The IBL is defined as the vertical distance above the water surface 15 that is affected by exchange with the surface. The IBL grows by entrainment of air 16 from above, which is assumed to be unmodified from the original vertical profiles 17 of scalar quantities incident at the coast. The IBLTE model assumes non-zero 18 mean wind speed, an initial scalar profile incident at the coast that is constant or 19 linear (increasing or decreasing) with height, neglects directional wind shear, 20 subsidence, and body sources. Sea surface temperature and dissolved gas 21 concentration are assumed constant with fetch.

The mass balance is written by setting the vertical integral of the profile modification equal to the horizontal integral of flux through the surface at the fetch of interest. This approach yields a quantity with units of length, H(x), which is called the integral depth scale (Stull 1988):

$$H(x) \equiv \int_0^h (r(z) - r_l) dz = \int_0^x \frac{F}{\overline{U}} \frac{RT}{P} dx$$
(1)

where *h* is the height of the internal boundary layer, r(z) is the mixing ratio as a function of height at the fetch of interest, r_1 is the mixing ratio over land (assumed to be constant or a linear function of *z*), *F* is the flux at the surface, \overline{U} is the wind speed averaged vertically over the IBL, *R* is the gas constant, *T* is the average absolute air temperature, *P* is the atmospheric pressure, and *x* is the horizontal dimension aligned with fetch. A full list of symbols is given in Appendix A. The 1 concept of performing a mass balance by integration of the scalar profile

2 modification over the IBL is illustrated in Fig. 2.

3 Once the integral depth scale has been determined by evaluating the horizontal 4 integral in Eq.1, the modification to the mixing ratio as a function of height can be 5 found if profile functions are defined. To this end a relatively thin surface layer is 6 defined within the IBL where the flux can be assumed to depart minimally from 7 the surface value, F, and thus the stability-dependent Monin-Obukhov similarity 8 theory (MOST) profile functions used in the COARE algorithm apply. This 9 approach is modelled after the concept of Mahrt (1999, Fig. 1), which indicates that the height within the IBL over which z/L (MOST) scaling is appropriate 10 11 decreases with increasing stability. Over the remainder of the IBL, above the 12 constant-flux surface layer, the IBL profile function of Garratt (1990), z/h scaling, 13 is applied, as illustrated in Fig. 2. 14 The approach to evaluate the vertical integral in Eq. 1 begins with specifying

15 *h*. The magnitude of *h* is assumed to increase as the square root of fetch, *X*:

$$h = \alpha X^{0.5} \tag{2}$$

16 Garratt (1990) reported that the square-root-of-fetch dependence is a reasonable 17 approximation for both stable and unstable IBLs. At long fetch, h approaches a 18 limiting value and Eq. 2 no longer applies. The studies cited by Garratt (1990) are 19 generally limited to X < 100 km for stable cases and X < 50 km for unstable cases. 20 In any case, h predicted by Eq. 2 should be limited to values less than the depth of 21 the mixed layer advected from land. Parameterization of α as a function of the 22 bulk Richardson number is discussed subsequently. 23 The constant-flux surface layer is defined as a constant fraction of *h*:

$$z_m = fh \tag{3}$$

24 where z_m is the matching height at which the surface layer and IBL profile 25 functions match, and f is a fraction of the IBL height. A value of 0.1 was selected 26 for f. Evidence for f = 0.1 can be found (Fairall et al. 2006, Fig. 9), where it is 27 shown that momentum flux measured at 18-m height is representative of the 28 expected surface flux when h exceeds 200 m. 29 Within the surface layer, vertical profiles of potential temperature and specific 30 humidity are obtained from the MOST profile functions in the COARE algorithm. 31 For gas mixing ratio, a vertical profile is constructed through use of the

1 atmospheric transfer velocity given by the COARE algorithm (after Blomquist et

2 al. 2006; Fairall et al. 2000):

$$r(z) = r_{z_r} + \frac{RT}{P} F_s \left[\frac{1}{k_{az_r}} - \frac{1}{k_{az}} \right]$$
(4)

3 where r(z) is the mixing ratio at the height of interest, r_{z_r} is the known value of the 4 mixing ratio at some reference height, and k_{az_r} and k_{az} are the atmospheric 5 transfer velocities for the gas of interest at the reference height and the height of 6 interest, respectively.

7 Within the range $z_m < z < h$, the vertical profile of mixing ratio or potential 8 temperature is described by the IBL dimensionless profile function of Mulhearn 9 (1981):

$$\frac{(r-r_s)}{(r_l-r_s)} = \left(\frac{z}{h}\right)^n \tag{5}$$

10 where r_s is the mixing ratio at the surface. As it is applied here, r_s does not 11 correspond to the value of the mixing ratio at the surface because the (z/h) profile 12 is only applied above $z_{\rm m}$. The value of $r_{\rm s}$ is determined so that the profiles described by Eqs. 4 and 5 match at z_m , as described in Appendix B. The exponent 13 14 *n* is a constant that determines the shape of the profile. For the stable, thermal 15 IBL, Garratt (1990, p196) cited earlier studies that found n = 0.25 at $X \approx 30$ km 16 and n = 2 for 45 < X < 300 km, and speculated that the profile curvature changes 17 rapidly at short fetch. Analysis of 35 profiles from NEAQS (explained 18 subsequently) at 2 < X < 190 km did not reveal a consistent value of *n* for short or 19 long fetch. A value of n = 1 was selected for stable and neutral conditions, while a value of n = 10 was found to give a slightly better fit to air temperature and 20 21 humidity modification data for unstable conditions in the calibration. The IBL 22 profile function, Eq. 5, serves as a means to close the mass balance over the IBL 23 by providing a transition from the MOST profile to the unmodified profile 24 advected from land, but is not expected to accurately predict scalar mixing ratios 25 and gradients above $z_{\rm m}$. This is consistent with the objective of the IBLTE model, 26 which is to predict modification of fluxes, mixing ratio, and vertical gradients 27 within the constant-flux surface layer where the MOST profiles are valid (z < 0.128 h). Additional mathematical details of the model are provided in Appendix B.

2.2 Estimation of the IBL growth rate coefficient from air temperature and humidity modification data

3 The IBL growth rate coefficient, α , was calibrated using a large dataset of 4 over-water temperature and humidity modification (Phillips and Irbe 1978). The 5 Phillips and Irbe data are unique in spatial and temporal coverage, although they 6 do not directly quantify IBL height. Thus we used the IBLTE model in an 7 iterative process to find values for α that best fit the temperature and humidity 8 modification data. The dataset, derived from 6,926 pairs of land and over-water 9 measurements of temperature, dewpoint temperature, and wind speed, was 10 collected over the 12-month period of the International Field Year of the Great 11 Lakes, 1973, using an array of 20 data buoys installed in Lake Ontario especially 12 for the purpose. The data cover a range in wind speed, air-water temperature 13 difference, and stability that is representative of an annual cycle over the Great 14 Lakes. The data were reported in the form of the average, standard deviation, and 15 number of measurements of air temperature and dewpoint temperature modification for measurements grouped into classifications of over-land wind 16 17 speed, over-land air-water temperature difference, and fetch. Empirical 18 correlations derived from the same dataset are currently used to adjust over-land 19 meteorological data for over-water modification in an evaporation model for the 20 Great Lakes (Croley II 1989). 21 To calibrate α using the IBLTE model, it was necessary to compile a set of

22 over-land meteorological data that were representative of the over-land 23 meteorological data of Phillips and Irbe, which are no longer available. Phillips 24 and Irbe classified the data based on stability, characterized by air-water 25 temperature difference at the coast, and wind speed. Stability is more correctly 26 indicated by the Richardson number than by air-water temperature difference 27 alone. Some of the thirty Phillips and Irbe classes of air-water temperature 28 difference and wind speed covered a wide range of Richardson number. The 10-m 29 bulk Richardson number was used here to characterize stability at the coast:

$$Ri_{b10} = \frac{g10(\theta_{vl} - \theta_{vs})}{\theta_{vl}U_{10}^{2}}$$
(6)

30 where θ_{vl} and θ_{vs} are the virtual potential temperature of the mixed-layer over land 31 and of air at equilibrium with the water surface, respectively, U_{10} is the 10-m wind 32 speed over land and g is the acceleration due to gravity. 1 An objective in compiling the calibration set of meteorological conditions was 2 to simulate as closely as possible the distribution of Richardson numbers, as well 3 as the actual ranges of meteorological conditions, within each of the Phillips and 4 Irbe classes. To this end, historical data for Lake Ontario, 1973, were obtained 5 from the Toronto International Airport (Environment Canada 2009), one of the 6 stations used by Phillips and Irbe, to obtain over-land air temperature, dewpoint 7 temperature, and wind speed. Monthly mean water-surface temperatures (Croley 8 and Hunter 1996) for Lake Ontario, 1973 were interpolated to the hourly data 9 from Toronto.

10 A calibration dataset of 937 sets of input data was compiled by randomly 11 selecting records from the time series on the synoptic hours (06, 12, 18, and 00 12 UTC), then assigning them to the 30 Phillips and Irbe classes. Phillips and Irbe 13 also sampled their data only on the synoptic hours. The number of records assigned to a class was arbitrarily capped at 50, which was considered to produce 14 15 a representative sample while maintaining a reasonable model calibration time (~6 16 hr). The median Ri_{b10} value and calibrated value of α for each class was not 17 sensitive to repeated random samples. All records in the time series were used for 18 22 of 30 classes because the time series, sampled on the synoptic hours, contained 19 fewer than 50 records. These classes represent relatively infrequent 20 meteorological events. Furthermore, since all of the synoptic hour records were 21 used for 22 of the 30 classes, it is likely that many of these records represent the 22 same relatively infrequent meteorological events from 1973 that were sampled by 23 Phillips and Irbe.

To indicate the frequency of occurrence of the values of Ri_{b10} , frequency distributions of Ri_{b10} from the time series are presented in Table 1. The frequency of occurrence of Ri_{b10} values decreases rapidly with increasing absolute value of Ri_{b10} . Sampling the time series on the synoptic hours resulted in a similar frequency distribution to the full dataset. The calibration set captured all of the extreme values of the synoptic hour sample, and a random sub-sample of the frequently-occurring values.

To obtain a calibrated value of α for each class, the model was run repeatedly for each record in the calibration dataset using a routine to find the value of α that minimized the sum of squared error, inverse weighted by the standard error of the Phillips and Irbe data, between modelled and measured air temperature and

8

dewpoint temperature modification. Upon completion of the calibration, the
 median of the several values of *α* within each class was taken to obtain a single
 value of *α* for each class.

4 To verify the calibration, the model was run for the calibration dataset, using 5 the median value of α for each class, and the RMS errors for air temperature and 6 dewpoint temperature modification were calculated; the RMS errors were 1.3 and 7 1.6 °C, respectively. Modelled and measured air temperature and dewpoint 8 temperature modification for the 30 Phillips and Irbe classes and for each record 9 in the calibration set of meteorological data are shown in Fig. 3 and 4,

10 respectively.

2.3 Estimation of the IBL growth rate coefficient from atmosphericsoundings

13 Rawinsonde profiles collected off the East Coast of North America as part of 14 the 2004 New England Air Quality Study (NEAQS) (Fairall et al. 2006; Angevine 15 et al. 2006a) provide additional estimates of α . The NEAQS rawinsonde profiles 16 were used to estimate values of α using Eq. 2 with h estimated from the sounding 17 and fetch estimated using a HYSPLIT model (Draxler et al. 2009) backward air 18 parcel trajectory. First, 48 soundings were selected from the maps described by 19 Fairall et al. (2006) that had wind vectors at 17.5 and 250 m height that both 20 indicated flow from land. HYSPLIT backward trajectories were run for each of 21 these soundings (24 hr, 10-m starting height, constant pressure height, FNL 22 archive meteorological data). Several soundings were then eliminated because 23 flow from the sea was indicated by the back trajectory, leaving 35 soundings. 24 Fetch was summed along the back trajectory from the location where it crossed 25 the coast. 26 The IBL height, *h*, was estimated from the sounding by the mixing diagram 27 approach (Craig 1946; Angevine et al. 2006a) as well as by using an Ri_b threshold 28 of 0.10, 0.25, and 0.50, as was done by Fairall et al. (2006). Upstream, over-land 29 meteorology to calculate Rib10 values for the NEAQS soundings was estimated 30 from the sounding data using temperature and humidity taken from the next level

31 above h in the sounding (assumed to be unmodified over the fetch), and the 10-m

32 wind speed was estimated using the stability-dependent MOST relationship after

calling the COARE algorithm with inputs from the second level in the rawinsonde

data (change in wind speed on movement of the air mass from land to sea was
 neglected). The first level in the rawinsonde data was considered to be unreliable
 because it may have been affected by the ship's wake.

4 2.4 Parameterization of the IBL growth rate coefficient, α

5 A parameterization of α is derived here by drawing upon estimates of eddy 6 diffusivity from MOST. There are reasons why MOST may have limited 7 application in the coastal IBL, which are discussed in detail subsequently. Even 8 so, it is interesting to investigate the extent to which the state of turbulence at 9 equilibrium with the water surface can explain estimates of α from observations. In the simplest case, modification of temperature or mixing ratio in the IBL 10 11 can be considered as a function of the rate of horizontal advection and the rate of 12 vertical transport of the thin layer of air equilibrated with the surface. Fick's 13 second law of diffusion is written with the Lagrangian transformation of time to 14 distance as a function of wind speed, U, and turbulent diffusion coefficient, K:

$$U\frac{\partial(\theta - \theta_s)}{\partial x} = K\frac{\partial^2(\theta - \theta_s)}{\partial z^2}$$
(7)

15 A solution to this equation for *K* and *U* constant in *x* and *z*, and for initial and 16 boundary conditions of a uniform mixed layer temperature advected from land, θ_1 , 17 and $\theta = \theta_s$ at the surface, is (Taylor 1915; Garratt 1987):

$$(\theta - \theta_s) = (\theta_l - \theta_s) erf\left(z\left(\frac{U}{4Kx}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}\right)$$
(8)

18 If the internal boundary layer height, h, is defined at height z where

$$\frac{(\theta - \theta_s)}{(\theta_l - \theta_s)} = 0.9 \tag{9}$$

19 then Eq. 8 can be re-written as

$$h = 2 \, erf^{-1}(0.9) \left(\frac{K}{U}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} x^{\frac{1}{2}} \tag{10}$$

20 which is equivalent to Eq. 2, where

$$\alpha = 2.3 \left(\frac{K}{U}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \tag{11}$$

in which the substitution, $2 er f^{-1}(0.9) = 2.3$ has been made. To estimate the

22 dependence of α on stability, the stability-dependent forms of the MOST

23 similarity relations are inserted:

$$K = \frac{\kappa z u_*}{\phi_H \left(\frac{z}{L}\right)} \tag{12}$$

$$\frac{u_*}{U} = \frac{\kappa}{\left[ln\left(\frac{Z}{Z_0}\right) - \Psi_{\rm M}\left(\frac{Z}{L}\right)\right]}$$
(13)

1 Combining Eqs. (11), (12), and (13)

$$\alpha = 2.3\kappa \left(\frac{z}{\phi_H(\frac{z}{L}) \left[ln(\frac{z}{z_0}) - \Psi_M(\frac{z}{L}) \right]} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$
(14)

The gradient profile function for potential temperature, $\phi_H(\frac{z}{L})$, is used in Eq. 12 2 3 because an eddy diffusivity for potential temperature and gas mixing ratio is needed. It is often assumed that $K_{\rm H}$ and $\phi_H(\frac{z}{L})$ apply to water vapor and trace 4 5 gases as well as to potential temperature (Stull 1988, p. 384). The integral profile function for wind speed, $\Psi_{M}(\frac{z}{L})$, is used in Eq. 13 because this is a re-arrangement 6 7 of the stability-dependent logarithmic wind speed profile function, used here to 8 obtain a relationship between the 10-m wind speed and the friction velocity. In 9 Eq. 13, it is appropriate to use z = 10 m if U_{10} is used. In Eq. 12, z should be 10 selected to be the height that produces a representative, effective K for the IBL 11 growth, which is unknown, and so z = 10 m is used throughout Eq. 14 for the 12 purposes of these calculations. The functions $\phi_H(\frac{z}{L})$ and $\Psi_M(\frac{z}{L})$ were taken from the COARE algorithm; original references are cited in Fairall et al. (2003). 13

14 **3. Results and Discussion**

15 For comparison, the various estimates of α are plotted as a function of Ri_{b10} in 16 Fig. 5. The MOST estimate of α was calculated using Eq. 14 for the set of 17 meteorological data that was used to obtain the calibrated values of α from the 18 Phillips and Irbe (1978) data. The COARE 3.0 algorithm was used to obtain L and 19 z_0 in Eq. 14. The calibrated values of α obtained from application of IBLTE model 20 to the Phillips and Irbe data are also plotted along with the Mulhearn (1981) 21 parameterization of α , with a constant of 0.02 (Garratt 1990): $h = 0.02U(\frac{g}{\theta_{\nu}}\Delta\theta_{\nu})^{-0.5}X^{0.5} = 0.02z^{0.5}Ri_{bz}^{-0.5}X^{0.5}$ (15)

22 Empirical functions having the form of Eq. 16 were fitted to the calibrated 23 values of α (in units of m^{0.5}) for stable and unstable conditions.

$$\alpha = 0.86 \left(\frac{B}{B + Ri_{b10}}\right)^{c} + (DRi_{b10} + E) \left[1 - \left(\frac{B}{B + Ri_{b10}}\right)^{c}\right] \quad (16)$$

where 0.86 m^{0.5} is the value of Eq. 14 at the limit of neutral stability ($Ri_{b10} = z/L =$ 1 2 0) and B, C, D, and E are fitting coefficients. For stable conditions $(Ri_{b10} > 0), B =$ 0.0167, C = 0.635, $D = -5.4 \ 10^{-4}$, and E = 0 provided a good fit to α calculated 3 from Eq. 14 for the calibration set ($R^2 = 0.982$). For unstable conditions ($Ri_{b10} <$ 4 0), B = -0.0212, C = 0.0957, D = 0, and E = 7.248 m^{0.5} provided a good fit to α 5 calculated from Eq. 14 for the calibration set ($R^2 = 0.998$). Eq. 16 provides a 6 simple means to calculate the MOST estimate of α if it is not convenient to run a 7 8 bulk algorithm such as COARE to determine z/L and to evaluate the Φ and Ψ 9 functions. 10 For stable values of Ri_{b10} , there is good agreement among the calibrated values of α , the Mulhearn parameterization, and the MOST estimate of α . Fitting the 11 12 Mulhearn parameterization to the calibrated values of α results in a coefficient of 13 0.02, identical to that determined by Garratt (1990), Eq. 15. The coefficient of determination, R^2 , was 0.586, indicating that 59 % of the variance in the calibrated 14 values of α was explained by the Mulhearn parameterization, and the probability 15 16 of obtaining an equally high correlation by chance, P, was 0.001. Thus, the 17 approach of obtaining α by calibration of the IBLTE model to the Phillips and 18 Irbe data produced values of α that are consistent with previous investigations in 19 which *h* was measured from interpretation of soundings. 20 While Mulhearn and others were primarily interested in the thermal IBL, 21 which does not exist at the neutral stability limit, the focus here is on estimation of 22 α for gas mixing ratio, which means that the entire range of stability is of interest. The Mulhearn (1981) expression approaches infinity as Ri_{b10} approaches zero, 23 which reduced the value of R^2 for the correlation between the Mulhearn 24

25 expression and the calibrated values of α . Based on interpretation of α as a

26 function of the eddy diffusivity (Eq. 11) it is intuitive that α should have a finite

27 value at the neutral limit. The average (\pm std. error) of the median values of α

calibrated to the neutral Phillips and Irbe classes was $0.87 \pm 0.06 \text{ m}^{0.5}$, which is

29 nearly identical to the value of $0.86 \text{ m}^{0.5}$ that results when Eq. 14 is evaluated at

30 z/L = 0. The MOST estimate of α was more highly correlated to the calibrated

31 values of α than the Mulhearn parameterization for stable conditions, $Ri_{b10} > 0$ (R^2

32 = 0.785, P < 0.001).

1 Prior literature on development of the IBL in coastal offshore flow has 2 focused on the stable IBL. The approach of estimating α by calibration of the 3 IBLTE model to the Phillips and Irbe data also allows estimation of α over the 4 unstable range of Ri_{b10} . Very unstable conditions occur during cold air outbreaks 5 in the Great Lakes in late fall and winter under conditions that are not favourable 6 for field measurements over water. Therefore, the Phillips and Irbe data provide a 7 rare and valuable opportunity to investigate these conditions. For unstable 8 conditions, the MOST estimate of α was less highly correlated to the calibrated 9 values of α than for stable conditions, but the correlation was still significant (R^2 = 0.607, *P* < 0.001). 10

11 Values of α estimated from the NEAQS data were weakly correlated to the 12 Mulhearn and MOST estimates of α . The most significant correlation was found when h was determined from the mixing diagram approach ($R^2 = 0.340$, P < 0.340) 13 14 0.001), rather than from the critical bulk Richardson number approach of Fairall et 15 al. (2006). The NEAQS data presented challenges in defining h from the 16 rawinsonde profiles and in estimating the upstream meteorological variables over 17 land to calculate Ri_{b10} . The dataset was not as large as that of Phillips and Irbe, 18 and represented individual measurements rather than binned and averaged values 19 that might display less variability. The NEAQS analysis suggests that the values 20 of α derived from the binned and averaged data of Phillips and Irbe may be 21 interpreted as ensemble mean values. Variability in α is expected for individual 22 cases depending on the extent to which the simplifying assumptions made here are 23 met. Furthermore, h, defined as the height to which air has been modified by air-24 water exchange, is not always distinctly identifiable from features in a sounding. 25 Even so, the IBL concept and parameterization of α are useful to predict 26 modification of scalar mixing ratios and fluxes with fetch. 27 A reasonably good correlation was observed between the MOST and 28 Mulhearn parameterizations of α and the calibrated values of α , but there were 29 large discrepancies for some of the Phillips and Irbe classes. The discrepancies 30 could be an artefact resulting from the classification scheme of Phillips and Irbe, 31 or could result from contributions to IBL growth that are not accounted for by the 32 turbulent flow at steady state with the water surface described by MOST. There 33 are several reasons why IBL growth rate may differ from the MOST 34 parameterization: 1) the assumption of U and K constant with z in the MOST

1 derivation is not realistic, and may be less appropriate for unstable than stable 2 conditions because of greater h; 2) at short fetch, turbulence advected from the 3 land may be more or less intense than the turbulence at steady state with the water 4 surface that is assumed in the MOST estimate of K; 3) turbulence at h may be 5 decoupled from the surface under stable conditions; 4) selection of z = 10 m to 6 calculate the eddy diffusivity may be less appropriate for unstable than for stable 7 conditions; 5) dependence of h on square root of fetch is expected to be valid over 8 a limited range of fetch because h approaches a steady-state value at some fetch, 9 which likely occurs at a shorter fetch under unstable conditions than for stable conditions. With these considerations in mind, it is interesting that the MOST 10 11 parameterization of α is in reasonably good agreement with observations. This 12 finding suggests that bottom-up turbulence generation from the water surface is 13 capable of explaining much of the observed variation in IBL growth rate. 14 In an effort to investigate whether discrepancies between MOST and 15 calibrated α were caused by the classification scheme of Phillips and Irbe or by 16 variables not accounted for in derivation of the MOST parameterization, the 17 relative error between MOST and calibrated α was analyzed for correlation to 18 other variables. The Phillips and Irbe data were classified by wind speed and air-19 water temperature difference at the coast, then averaged. Some of the classes include a wide range in Ri_{b10} , which may have corrupted the dependence of the 20 21 calibrated α values on Ri_{b10} , particularly for classes in which α has a non-linear 22 Ri_{b10} dependence over the range in Ri_{b10} . There was a weak but significant 23 correlation between relative error in α estimation and the range in Ri_{b10} normalized to the median Ri_{b10} of the class ($R^2 = 0.392$, P = 0.050). The relative 24 25 error in α estimation was not significantly correlated to the midpoint wind speed $(R^2 = 0.032, P = 0.405)$ or the air-water temperature difference $(R^2 = 0.037, P =$ 26 0.370) of the Phillips and Irbe classes. These results suggest that discrepancies 27 28 between MOST and calibrated α values may have been at least partially caused by 29 the classification scheme of Phillips and Irbe. Their classification scheme might 30 have been improved using classes based on Ri_{b10} , and by using as the dependent 31 variable temperature and dewpoint temperature modification relative to the initial 32 air-water temperature or dewpoint temperature difference, as in Eq. 9. Still, the 33 data of Phillips and Irbe represent an intensive field investigation of air 34 temperature and humidity modification in the Great Lakes that is unique in its

spatial and seasonal coverage, and it was possible to extract useful information on
 IBL development from it through application of the IBLTE model. If a similar,
 unbinned dataset should become available in the future, it may be possible to
 obtain a more accurate parameterization of *α* by applying the classification
 approach described here.

6 **4. Conclusion**

7 A Lagrangian internal boundary layer model was developed and applied to 8 measurements of air temperature and humidity modification over water to obtain 9 estimates of the internal boundary layer growth rate coefficient, α , in coastal 10 offshore flow under stable, neutral, and unstable conditions. A parameterization 11 for α was developed using Monin-Obukhov similarity theory. The MOST 12 parameterization of α explained 78 % and 61% of the variation in α obtained from 13 the model under stable and unstable conditions, respectively, and was in close 14 agreement under neutral conditions. Values of α obtained from both the model 15 and the MOST parameterization were consistent with the Mulhearn (1981) 16 parameterization, which is valid only for stable conditions. The parameterization 17 described here is valid over a wide range in stability. 18 The MOST parameterization of α provides a means to estimate h in 19 applications in which the complexity of a high-resolution numerical turbulence 20 model is not warranted, or when the spatial resolution of a numerical scheme is 21 too coarse to resolve the fine spatial scale of IBL development. For example, 22 when making flux measurements in the coastal zone it is useful to estimate 23 whether the measurement platform is at a significant fraction of the IBL height to 24 ensure that the flux is representative of the surface flux (e.g., Fairall et al. 2006). 25 Additionally, parameterization of α in a model such as the IBLTE model can be 26 used to estimate near-surface modification of gas mixing ratio and temperature as 27 well as the variation of surface fluxes and vertical gradients in gas mixing ratio 28 and temperature in coastal offshore flow.

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- 1 Honrath contributed to the early development of the IBLTE model. David Phillips
- 2 responded to inquiries regarding the availability of original data from the Phillips
- 3 and Irbe (1978) report.

4 Appendix A: List of Symbols

5	$dT_{\rm a}$	land-lake air temperature modification	
6	$dT_{\rm d}$	land-lake dewpoint temperature modification	
7	f	fraction of h that defines the top of the surface layer	
8	F	flux per unit area at the surface	
9	g	acceleration due to gravity	
10	H(x)	integral depth scale	
11	$H(x)_{\rm u}$	upper portion of the integral depth scale above the surface layer	
12	$H(x)_1$	lower, surface layer portion of the integral depth scale	
13	h	height of the internal boundary layer	
14	Κ	turbulent eddy diffusivity	
15	ka	atmospheric gas transfer velocity	
16	L	Obukhov length	
17	n	exponent that determines the shape of the IBL mixing ratio profile	
18	Р	atmospheric pressure	
19	R	gas constant	
20	Ri_b	bulk Richardson number	
21	Ri_{b10}	bulk Richardson number defined using upstream, over-land meteorological	
22		variables at 10-m reference height	
23	r(z)	gas mixing ratio as a function of height	
24	$r_{\rm l}$	upstream, over-land mixed layer gas mixing ratio	
25	r _s	gas mixing ratio at the surface	
26	Т	absolute temperature	
27	U	mean wind speed in the x direction	
28	U_{10}	wind speed at 10-m height	
29	\overline{U}	wind speed averaged vertically over the IBL	
30	u_*	friction velocity	
31	x	horizontal dimension aligned with the mean wind	
32	X	fetch: distance travelled by the air mass over water from the coast	
33	Z.	vertical dimension, positive upward	

1	$z_{\rm m}$	profile matching height; border between surface layer and IBL
2	Z_{0}	aerodynamic roughness length
3	Zr	reference height at which wind speed or scalar has a known value
4	α	IBL growth rate coefficient
5	γ	lapse rate: deviation of temperature or mixing ratio vertical profile from
6		well-mixed condition
7	γ_d	dry adiabatic lapse rate, $\gamma_d = -0.0098 \text{ K m}^{-1}$
8	γe	environmental lapse rate
9	θ	potential temperature
10	$ heta_{ m v}$	virtual potential temperature
11	$ heta_{ m vl}$	upstream, over-land mixed layer $\theta_{\rm v}$
12	$ heta_{ m vs}$	$\theta_{\rm v}$ of air at equilibrium with the water surface
13	к	von Kármán constant, assumed to have a value of 0.4
14	$\Phi_{\rm H}(z/L$) MOST gradient profile function for potential temperature
15	$\Psi_{\rm M}(z/l$	D) MOST integral profile function for wind speed

16 Appendix B: Mathematical details of the IBLTE

17 model

18 The horizontal integral in Eq. 1 is evaluated numerically, applying the 19 trapezoid rule, at each fetch increment using the COARE algorithm to estimate 20 the sensible and latent heat flux and gas flux. The model is written here for a trace 21 gas mixing ratio, but it is similarly applied to potential temperature and water 22 vapor. It is necessary to model potential temperature to account for varying 23 stability with fetch and also to calibrate the *h* parameterization using temperature 24 and humidity modification data.

25 Wind speed determines the time required to travel a given fetch, and is 26 therefore an important parameter in the integral depth scale. The 10-m wind speed 27 over land is input into the model. Wind speed over water at 3-m height is 28 determined using the empirical correlations for wind ratio of Phillips and Irbe 29 (1978) as a function of fetch and initial air-water temperature difference. \overline{U} is 30 evaluated at each fetch increment by numerically integrating (five-point Gauss 31 quadrature) the vertical profile of wind speed, U(z) (roughness and stability 32 dependent), given by the COARE algorithm:

$$\overline{U} = \frac{1}{h} \int_0^h U(z) dz \tag{B1}$$

1 **B.2** Initial vertical profiles over land

The IBLTE model is intended to be implemented using surface-based
measurements of over-land temperature, humidity, and gas mixing ratio; therefore
it is necessary to make assumptions regarding the initial vertical profiles of these
variables over land. A lapse rate, γ, was added to allow for a non-adiabatic initial
lapse rate for potential temperature or a linear gradient in mixing ratio across the
mixed layer, as illustrated in Fig. 2:

$$\gamma = \gamma_e - \gamma_d \tag{B2}$$

8 where γ_e is the environmental lapse rate and γ_d is dry adiabatic lapse rate. For the 9 general case in which soundings over land are not available, it is more reasonable to assume $\gamma_e = -0.006 \text{ K m}^{-1}$ for potential temperature and $\gamma = -0.001 \text{ g kg}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1}$ for 10 specific humidity, after the lowest two kilometres of the U.S. Standard 11 12 Atmosphere, which is derived from many averaged soundings (reported in 13 Seinfeld and Pandis 1998), than to assume the dry adiabatic lapse rate and a 14 constant specific humidity with height. In application of the IBLTE model to 15 other gases, a non-zero value of γ may be used, as for the example of water 16 vapour, when the initial mixing ratio of the gas is height-dependent.

17 **B.3 Mathematical approach to profile matching**

18 The integral depth scale was divided into two parts, a lower and upper profile 19 contribution (illustrated as the lower and upper shaded areas in Fig. 2).

$$H(x) = H(x)_l + H(x)_u \tag{B3}$$

The MOST profile contribution to the integral depth scale (lower shaded area inFig. 2) is

$$H(x)_{l} = \int_{0}^{z_{m}} (r(z) - r_{l}) dz + \frac{1}{2} \gamma z_{m}^{2}$$
(B4)

- 22 in which the integral term was evaluated by numerical integration (Gauss
- 23 quadrature) of the MOST profile. The term containing γ accounts for the
- 24 contribution of the shaded area *A* at $z \le z_m$ in Fig. 2.
- The upper profile contribution is evaluated by re-arranging the z/h profile function and integrating after applying Eq. 3:

$$H(x)_{u} = h(r_{s} - r_{l}) \int_{z_{m}}^{h} \left[1 - \left(\frac{z}{h}\right)^{n}\right] d\left(\frac{z}{h}\right)$$
(B5)

1 which yields the following, after adding the lapse rate contribution (shaded area A 2 in Fig. 2):

$$H(x)_{u} = h(r_{s} - r_{l}) \left[\frac{n - nf - f + f^{n+1}}{n+1} \right] + \frac{1}{2} \gamma (h^{2} - z_{m}^{2})$$
(B6)

3 Eq. B6 can be re-arranged to obtain r_s as a function of $H(x)_{\mu}$ and known variables. 4

- In summary, prediction of state variables (θ , water vapour, and gas mixing
- 5 ratio) as a function of x and z involves an iterative determination of r_s to define the
- 6 shape of the profile at $z_m < z < h$, subject to two constraints: 1) the profile
- 7 modification integrated from 0 < z < h, is equal to the surface flux integrated over
- 8 the fetch, as in Eq. 1 and Fig. 2, and 2) a matching value of θ is given at $z_{\rm m}$ by the
- 9 MOST flux-profile relations and Eq. 5. The approach is outlined below:
- 10 1) Inputs: water surface temperature, over-land values of state variables and U
- 11 a) Trace gas inputs: aqueous concentration, Henry's Law constant, molecular 12 mass, molar volume
- 13 b) Ancillary estimated inputs: downwelling long-wave and short-wave irradiance, environmental lapse rate, Eq. B2, for state variables 14
- 15 2) Assign a value for α
- 3) Fetch loop 16
- 17 a) Update fetch, update h (Eq. 2), update U using empirical correlations (Phillips and Irbe 1978) 18
- 19 b) Call the COARE algorithm to determine the surface fluxes and turbulence 20 scaling parameters, and determine \overline{U} (Eq. B1)
- 21 c) Determine H(x) for state variables by Eq. 1, right-hand side.
- 22 d) Profile matching loop (iterate until θ given by MOST flux-profile relations 23 and Eq. 5 converge at z_m)
- 24 i) Evaluate $H(x)_1$, Eq. B4
- 25 ii) Determine $H(x)_{u}$ by difference, Eq. B3.
- iii) Determine r_s by Eq. B6, written for θ . 26
- 27 iv) Determine θ at $z_{\rm m}$, Eq. 5.
- 28 v) Repeat steps i through iv for additional state variables.
- 29 vi) Call COARE using updated values of state variables at $z_{\rm m}$.
- 30 vii) Test for convergence among MOST profile and Eq. 5 at z_m
- 31 e) Update the state variables at z_m , repeat fetch loop.

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6 Figure captions

Fig. 1 Modification of the vertical profile of gas mixing ratio, r, with increasing fetch, X, as a
well-mixed atmospheric boundary layer is advected from land to water with a gas flux directed
upward from the surface. The internal boundary layer is defined as the height to which mixing
ratio is modified through exchange with the surface.

11 Fig. 2 Modification of the vertical profile of gas mixing ratio within the internal boundary layer in

12 an air mass advected from land to water at a specific fetch, X. In this scenario, the initial mixing

13 ratio profile over land is $r(z) = r_1 + \gamma z$ and there is an upward gas flux from the water. The areas

- 14 $H(x)_{u}$, $H(x)_{l}$, and A correspond to components of the mass balance discussed in the text and in
- 15 Appendix B.
- 16 Fig. 3 Results of calibration of the IBLTE model to observations of land-lake air temperature

17 modification, dT_a °C, by finding the value of the IBL growth rate coefficient, α , for each class that

18 gave the best fit of modelled to measured dT_a . The panels in the figure show dT_a versus fetch for

19 the thirty classes of Phillips and Irbe (1978), classified by air-water temperature difference, $T_{\rm a}$ –

20 $T_{\rm w}$, and wind speed, U, incident at the coast. Colored lines represent model output for each record

21 in the calibration set of over-land meteorological conditions. Circles and error bars represent the

22 mean and standard error of the binned observations of Phillips and Irbe (1978).

Fig. 4 Same as Fig. 3, but for the dewpoint temperature modification observations of Phillips and Irbe (1978). Each panel in the figure corresponds to a unique value of α , and the same calibrated values of α were used in Fig. 3 as in Fig. 4.

- Fig. 5 The IBL growth rate coefficient, α m^{0.5}, versus the 10-m bulk Richardson number for 26 27 unstable (left) and stable (right) conditions. Values of α obtained by calibration of the IBLTE 28 model to the Phillips and Irbe (1978) dataset are plotted as circles for each of the thirty classes 29 shown in Figs. 3 and 4. Vertical error bars indicate the standard error on the mean of the α values 30 resulting from the range of meteorological conditions in the calibration set for each class. The 31 horizontal error bar represents the range in Ri_{b10} from the calibration set that fell within each class. 32 Horizontal error bars that cross $Ri_{b10} = 0$ extend into the other panel of the plot. The symbol is 33 plotted at the median Ri_{b10} . Red points represent the MOST estimate of α , Eq. 14, calculated for 34 each record in the calibration set. The solid black line is a curve fit to the MOST values of α , Eq. 35 16. The dotted black line is the Mulhearn (1981) parameterization of α , Eq. 15. Green plus 36 symbols represent α obtained from the NEAQS soundings.
- 37

1 Tables

- 2 Table 1 Frequency distribution of the 10-m bulk Richardson number based on hourly
- 3 meteorological data from Toronto and interpolated water surface temperatures for Lake Ontario
- 4 for 1 January to 31 December, 1973.
- 5

	Toronto 1973 all	Toronto 1973	
Percentile rank	hours	synoptic hours	Calibration set
Maximum	13.8	13.8	13.8
99	1.83	1.76	2.28
95	0.390	0.451	0.667
75	0.0652	0.0590	0.0578
Median	-0.0080	-0.0087	-0.0200
25	-0.117	-0.125	-0.146
5	-0.782	-0.834	-1.18
1	-2.75	-3.33	-4.96
Minimum	-22.0	-11.4	-11.4
n	8760	1759	937

6 7