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2	The Atmospheric Boundary Layer and the Initiation of the MJO
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ABSTRACT: The Indian Ocean is a frequent site for the initiation of the 30-60 day Madden-8 Julian Oscillation (MJO). A prominent feature during boreal fall is the climatological sea-surface 9 temperature (SST) maximum in the central part of the basin. This maximum has been shown to 10 play an important role in MJO initiation by driving low-level moisture convergence and subsequent 11 convection. While the SST distribution itself can impact the evolution of convection, cumulus 12 cloud initiation is most directly related to the subcloud atmospheric mixed layer (SAML). Much 13 of the air entering developing cumulus clouds passes through cloud base; hence, the properties 14 of the SAML are critical in determining the nature of cloud development. These properties can 15 be significantly influenced by horizontal advection and by the effects of convective systems and 16 their precipitation-driven cold pools. To address this aspect of MJO initiation, the evolution of the 17 atmospheric boundary layer during the initiation of the October MJO during the 2011-12 Dynamics 18 of the MJO Experiment (DYNAMO) is investigated. DYNAMO observations, especially from the 19 research vessel *Revelle*, are used to document the SAML and its modification during the time 20 leading up to the onset phase of the October MJO. The mixed layer depth increased from ~500 21 to ~700 m during the 1-12 October suppressed period, allowing a greater proportion of boundary 22 layer thermals to reach the lifting condensation level and hence promote cloud growth. The SAML 23 heat budget defines an equilibrium mixed layer depth that accurately diagnoses the mixed layer 24 depth over the DYNAMO convectively suppressed period, provided that horizontal advection is 25 included. The advection at the *Revelle* is significantly influenced by low-level convective outflows 26 from the Southern ITCZ. The emergent behavior of the equilibrium mixed layer has implications 27 for simulating the MJO with models with parameterized cloud and turbulent-scale motions. 28

# 29 1. Introduction

The 2011-12 Dynamics of the MJO (DYNAMO: Yoneyama et al. 2013; Zhang et al. 2013) field 30 campaign provided an unprecedented array of observations directed at the initiation of the Madden-31 Julian Oscillation (MJO: Madden and Julian 1972). During the months of October and November 32 2011, two prominent MJOs developed and subsequently moved eastward across the Indian Ocean. 33 These events were associated with global circumnavigating Kelvin waves (Gottschalck et al. 2013; 34 Powell and Houze 2015a; Zhang et al. 2017; Chen and Zhang 2019). Evidence is accumulating to 35 indicate that such planetary Kelvin waves are linked to a large class of MJOs that initiate over the 36 Indian Ocean (Kikuchi and Takayabu 2003; Matthews 2008; Haertel et al. 2015; Powell and Houze 37 2015a). It is postulated that the Kelvin waves force anomalous lifting, thereby reducing large-scale 38 subsidence and promoting mid-tropospheric moistening and cloud development during the onset 39 phases of the MJOs (Powell and Houze 2015a; Powell 2016, 2017; Snide et al. 2021). 40

In addition to global-scale Kelvin waves, localized processes over the Indian Ocean have been 41 found to play a key role in MJO initiation. In large part these processes involve ocean-atmosphere 42 coupling. During periods of suppressed convective activity, insolation warms the upper ocean, 43 resulting in a gradual buildup of convective instability and an increase in shallow cloud populations 44 (Weller and Anderson 1996; Vialard et al. 2009; Johnson and Ciesielski 2013; Moum et al. 2014; Xu 45 and Rutledge 2014; de Szoeke et al. 2015; DeMott et al. 2015). Over time, shallow cumulus evolve 46 into congestus clouds that organize into mesoscale cellular patterns as precipitation-generated cold 47 pools develop (Johnson et al. 1999; Rowe and Houze 2015; Ruppert and Johnson 2015; Powell 2016; 48 de Szoeke et al. 2017). Additionally, diurnal warm layers in the upper ocean during suppressed, 49 light-wind periods serve to accelerate the transition of congestus clouds into deep convection in 50 the onset phase of the MJO (Bellenger et al. 2010; Ruppert 2016; Ruppert and Johnson 2016). The 51 inclusion of the effects of air-sea coupling and diurnal warm layers in numerical simulations of 52 the MJO have yielded improved simulated characteristics of this phenomenon (Bernie et al. 2008; 53 Klingaman and Woolnough 2014; DeMott et al. 2015; Wu et al. 2021). 54

An important aspect of the Indian Ocean related to MJO initiation is the climatological warm pool that spans much of the basin in boreal fall and winter. Figure 1 shows the 10-year 1999-2009 October mean sea-surface temperature and wind field over the Indian Ocean along with the 2011 DYNAMO sounding arrays. Nearly basin-wide southeasteries flow across strong sea-surface

- <sup>59</sup> temperature (SST) gradients just south of the equator. This flow configuration implies significant
- <sup>60</sup> atmospheric boundary layer air mass modification. Changes in boundary layer



FIG. 1. October 1999-2009 mean SST (C) and QuikSCAT winds. Sounding sites in DYNAMO northern sounding array (NSA) and southern sounding array (SSA) are indicated.

turbulent kinetic energy and hydrostatic pressure across SST gradients can drive low-level con-63 vergence, favoring the development of convection (Lindzen and Nigam 1987; Hayes et al. 1989; 64 Wallace et al. 1989). Li and Carbone (2012) showed that low-level convergence or divergence is 65 related to the Laplacian of the SST field. They applied this criterion to the SST distribution in the 66 Indian Ocean demonstrating that this concept is relevant to the initiation of the MJO in that region 67 (Carbone and Li 2015). The air-sea coupling study of Rydbeck et al. (2017) also related low-level 68 convergence to SST gradients in the Indian Ocean warm pool associated with downwelling equa-69 torial oceanic Rossby waves in the eastern Indian Ocean forced by the MJO, which subsequently 70 reemerge in the western Indian Ocean  $\sim$ 70 days later. De Szoeke and Maloney (2020) used a 71 simple mixed layer wind model to show that the Indian Ocean SST warm pool acts to increase the 72 moist static energy in the lower troposphere to assist initiation of the MJO. 73

While the aforementioned processes are important for preconditioning the lower-tropospheric environment, cumulus cloud development associated with SST during the MJO initiation phase is mediated through the atmospheric boundary layer. This aspect of MJO initiation that is addressed in this paper. The bases of cumulus clouds are near the top of the mixed layer and air ascending through cloud base comes from the mixed layer. Therefore, modification of mixed layer properties

by horizontal advection can be expected to affect the nature of the cloud populations that develop. 79 The low-level flow from cold to warm SSTs along 5°S in Fig. 1 leads to a modification of boundary 80 layer air, enhanced surface buoyancy fluxes, and a deepening atmospheric mixed layer (Schubert 81 et al. 1979; de Szoeke and Bretherton 2004; Small et al. 2008). In addition, cold pools associated 82 with precipitation downdrafts impact the boundary layer (Feng et al. 2015; de Szoeke et al. 83 2017). Cold pools occurred during DYNAMO in association with isolated convection, organized 84 convective systems, and the ITCZ, the last being a prominent feature  $\sim 5^{\circ}$  south of the equator 85 during the early-October suppressed period (Moteki 2015; Ciesielski et al. 2018). 86

Using observations from the research vessel *Revelle* during DYNAMO, the role of horizontal 87 advection in the deepening of the mixed layer during the MJO suppressed period in the first part 88 of October is investigated. *Revelle* is the most appropriate DYNAMO site for this analysis since it 89 best represents open-ocean conditions along the equator. The other near-equatorial site Gan Island 90 (Addu Atoll), which is significantly influenced by land/atoll effects (Johnson and Ciesielski 2017; 91 Ciesielski and Johnson 2021). A simple heat budget is used as a diagnostic for the mixed layer 92 depth taking into account horizontal advection, observations of the surface buoyancy flux, and 93 estimates of the mixed layer net radiative cooling rate. 94

# **2.** Quasi-equilibrium mixed layer heat budget

<sup>96</sup> During the suppressed periods, cumulus clouds are widely scattered and to a first approximation, <sup>97</sup> we neglect cloud effects and assume that radiative heating is the only mixed layer (ML) diabatic <sup>98</sup> process. The Reynolds-averaged expression for the virtual potential temperature  $\theta_{\nu} = \theta(1+0.61q)$ <sup>99</sup> is then

$$\frac{\partial \bar{\theta}_{\nu}}{\partial t} + \bar{\mathbf{v}} \cdot \nabla \bar{\theta}_{\nu} + \bar{w} \frac{\partial \bar{\theta}_{\nu}}{\partial z} = -\frac{\partial \overline{w' \theta_{\nu}'}}{\partial z} + Q_R , \qquad (1)$$

where  $Q_R$  is the radiative heating rate, overbar is a time average, and prime a deviation from that average. The time rate of change of daily-averaged values of  $\bar{\theta}_v$  is ~0.1 C day<sup>-1</sup> while  $Q_R$  is ~1-2 C day<sup>-1</sup>, so we neglect the local change term in (1).<sup>1</sup> However, horizontal advection cannot be neglected due to flow across strong SST gradients and temperature fluctuations due to nearby

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>This approximation will shown to be valid with reference to later Fig. 8

<sup>104</sup> convection. Integration of (1) from the ocean surface to the top of the ML  $z_i$  assuming constant **v**, <sup>105</sup>  $\theta_v$ , and  $Q_R$  in the ML yields

$$\bar{\mathbf{v}} \cdot \nabla \bar{\theta}_{v} = \frac{F_{s} - F_{i}}{\bar{\rho}c_{p}z_{i}} + Q_{Rm} , \qquad (2)$$

where  $F_s$  and  $F_i$  are the buoyancy fluxes [ $\approx \bar{\rho}c_p(\overline{w'\theta'}+0.61\bar{\theta}\overline{w'q'})$ ; in W m<sup>-2</sup>] at the surface and  $z_i$ , respectively;  $\bar{\mathbf{v}}$ ,  $\bar{\theta}_v$ , and  $Q_{Rm}$  are ML-mean values; and  $\rho$  is air density. Equation (2) is a statement that under steady-state and cloud-free conditions the eddy flux convergence of heat in the ML is balanced by the combined effects of advection and radiative cooling of that layer. The value of  $z_i$  in (2) can be considered an equilibrium ML depth for a quasi-steady and cloud-free boundary layer, referred to here as  $z_{ieq}$ .<sup>2</sup> Using the closure  $F_i = -kF_s$  for free convection,

$$\bar{\mathbf{v}} \cdot \nabla \bar{\theta}_{v} = \frac{(1+k)F_{s}}{\bar{\rho}c_{p}z_{ieq}} + Q_{Rm} , \qquad (3)$$

where *k* is a positive constant, here taken to be 0.2 (Deardorff et al. 1969). From (3),

$$z_{ieq} = \frac{(1+k)F_s}{\bar{\rho}c_p(\bar{\mathbf{v}}\cdot\nabla\bar{\theta}_v - Q_{Rm})} .$$
(4)

The diagnostic relationship (4) represents an alternative to predicting  $z_i$ , thereby eliminating the need for an entrainment parameterization. The convective boundary layer heat budget evolves towards this equilibrium state, for example, during the ML recovery following a cool precipitation downdraft wake. The equilibrium should be attained on the entrainment time scale  $T_{ent} \sim (\Delta \theta_v)^2 / [\Gamma_{\theta_v} k F_s] \approx 6$  h (derived in the appendix). The SAML equilibrium heat budget  $z_{ieq}$ also defines a subcloud equilibrium heat content.

We exploit the concept of the equilibrium mixed layer and whether it is coupled to the cloud layer. Clouds will develop when the mixed layer depth reaches the lifting condensation level (LCL) of the mixed layer air. Under this scenario, if  $z_i < \text{LCL}$ , the mixed layer warms and entrains and  $dz_i/dt > 0$  until  $z_i = z_{ieq}$  and  $d\theta_v/dt = dz_i/dt = 0$ , where  $z_{ieq}$  is given by eq. (4). If  $z_{ieq} \ge z_i \ge$ 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>A related argument has been made for the momentum balance of a steady boundary layer (Samelson et al. 2006), where a quasi-equilibrium analytical model shows the surface stress (as opposed to the surface buoyancy flux in our case) to be directly proportional to the boundary layer depth  $z_i$ .

LCL, assumptions leading to eq. (4) are no longer valid and the mixed layer conditions already favor moist convection.

Changes to advection and radiation have implications on  $z_{ieq}$  through (4), which may act to 126 strengthen the development of the MJO. Advection of warm, moist air  $(\bar{\mathbf{v}} \cdot \nabla \bar{\theta}_{\mathbf{v}} < 0)$  also has the 127 effect of reducing the denominator in (4), resulting in a deeper mixed layer. Since  $Q_{Rm} < 0$ , a 128 reduction in the radiative cooling rate yields a deeper mixed layer, everything else being the same. 129 This situation could occur, for example, if cirrus clouds were to advance into the region late in the 130 suppressed period, which is supported by observations during DYNAMO (Johnson et al. 2015) 131 and found to be a characteristic feature of MJOs in composite studies (Virts and Wallace 2010; Del 132 Genio et al. 2012). 133

### **3. Data and Methods**

#### <sup>135</sup> a. Sounding observations

Radiosonde data from five stations in the DYNAMO sounding arrays are used to document the 136 boundary layer structure and determine the mixed layer (ML) depth when well-mixed profiles in 137 potential temperature and specific humidity existed (Johnson and Ciesielski 2017). Soundings are 138 identified as having MLs if both of the following conditions are met:  $\theta$  is approximately constant 139 with height from the surface (or the top of a superadiabatic layers when it exists) up to a height 140  $z_i$ , the ML top, with an abrupt increase in stability above  $z_i$ ; and q is constant or decreases only 141 slightly from the surface up to  $z_i$  and then decreases rapidly above. A comparison of ML depths 142 determined by this procedure with those based on turbulent kinetic energy dissipation rates (next 143 subsection) is presented in Section 4b. 144

## <sup>145</sup> b. Turbulent kinetic energy dissipation rate

The depth of the atmospheric boundary layer is also determined from turbulent kinetic energy dissipation rate ( $\epsilon$ ) data from the NOAA High-Resolution Doppler Lidar aboard the *Revelle*. These data have been used by de Szoeke et al. (2020) to investigate the diurnal variation of the ML during the November suppressed period. We employ their procedure to determine the ML depth as the lowest height at which  $\epsilon$  is less than the mean below that height by a factor of three.

### <sup>151</sup> c. Radiative heating rates

Direct measurements of the radiative heating rates in the boundary layer at the *Revelle* are 152 not available, so we have used a procedure that translates the Combined Retrieval (CombRet) 153 radiative heating rates from Gan Island (Feng et al. 2014) to the Revelle location with appropriate 154 modifications that involve the use of the Clouds and Earth's Radiant Energy System (CERES) 155 product at 3-hourly intervals on a 1° grid (Wielicki et al. 1996). The CombRet data are available 156 at 5 hPa vertical resolution while the CERES data are available at only six levels, two of which 157 are the surface and 850 hPa. Average radiative heating rates  $Q_R$  for the surface to 850-hPa layer at 158 Gan are computed using radiative fluxes from CERES and then compared to CombRet values for 159 that layer. The plan was to use this comparison of  $Q_R$  for the October suppressed period at Gan 160 and then, assuming the CombRet values are more accurate, adjust CERES-based  $Q_R$  estimates at 161 the *Revelle* by the average bias for that period. Since our study involves the boundary layer, whose 162 depth is closer to the surface-950 hPa layer than the surface-850 hPa layer, there is an additional 163 adjustment of the biases to the shallower layer based on a comparison of average CombRet  $Q_R$ 164 for the two layers. Since the CombRet product is not available prior to 10 October, we instead 165 use the bias estimate for the November suppressed period (4-15 November) assuming the all-sky 166 conditions then most closely equate to those during the October suppressed period. The net effect 167 is to add a small amount of cooling (0.21 K day<sup>-1</sup>) to the CERES flux-based estimates of  $Q_R$  for 168 the surface to 950-hPa layer. This adjustment agrees with the conclusions of Shell et al. (2020). 169

### 170 d. Gridded satellite and analysis products

Large-scale fields over the Indian Ocean and computations of ML depth at the Revelle from 171 (4) are based the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) Operational 172 Analysis (OA) product at 0.25° horizontal resolution, with 18 vertical levels from the surface 173 to 50 hPa, and at 6-hourly intervals (Johnson and Ciesielski 2013). The ECMWF OA dataset 174 incorporates the majority of the soundings from the DYNAMO arrays and is found to be in good 175 agreement with the CSU gridded dataset based on quality-controlled soundings (Johnson and 176 Ciesielski 2013; Ciesielski et al. 2014). The choice of the ECMWF OA product over the CSU 177 gridded analyses to compute the heat budget at the *Revelle* is based on its ability to better resolve 178 localized gradients and hence provide superior estimates of advective effects. Observed sounding 179

ML profiles are compared to two reanalysis products: the ECMWF OA and the ERA5 Global 180 Reanalysis (Hersbach et al. 2020), both at 0.25° horizontal resolution. Rainfall data are from the 181 Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission (TRMM) 3B42v7 3-hourly,  $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$  product (Huffman 182 et al. 2007), and rainfall and radar reflectivity data are from the TOGA radar aboard the Revelle (Xu 183 and Rutledge 2014). The climatology of the surface winds over the Indian Ocean is based on the 184 National Aeronautic and Space Administration Quick Scatterometer (QuikSCAT), which provides 185 twice per day wind estimates at 25-km horizontal resolution. Basin-wide sea surface temperature 186 (SST) data are from the Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution (WHOI) OAFlux product (Yu 187 and Weller 2007) available daily at 1° horizontal resolution. The CERES product is also used 188 to obtain fractional cloudiness data. Surface fluxes and SST data at the Revelle are from in situ 189 measurements aboard the ship (de Szoeke et al. 2015). 190

### 191 **4. Results**

# <sup>192</sup> a. Initiation of October MJO

Figure 2 shows the 1-12 October mean TRMM rainfall, precipitable water, and mixed layer (ML) 193 depths at five sounding sites over the Indian Ocean. This time period corresponds to the developing 194 phase of the October MJO when the southern ITCZ was active and dry air was present over the NSA 195 (Ciesielski et al. 2018). Correspondingly, the mean ML depths at Diego Garcia and the research 196 vessel *Mirai* were relatively low as a result of numerous incidences of precipitation downdraft wake 197 recovery, while deep MLs were observed at Malé in association with dry conditions there. ML 198 depths at Gan and the *Revelle* were close to their DYNAMO means. The study by Moteki (2015) 199 showed that the initiation of the MJO was associated with a shift in the southern Indian Ocean 200 ITCZ in Fig. 2 toward the equator by the middle of October. 201

<sup>205</sup> The mean boundary layer (surface to 950 hPa) wind and  $\theta_{\nu}$  fields and sea surface temperature <sup>206</sup> (SST) for 1-12 October are shown in Fig. 3. A warm SST anomaly was centered in a region of <sup>207</sup> cross-equatorial, converging surface airflow just north of the equator between 60 and 70°E. Air <sup>208</sup> entering this region from both sides of the equator passed from cooler to warmer water, enhancing <sup>209</sup> surface buoyancy fluxes. This flow configuration also promotes mixed layer growth, assuming <sup>201</sup> lower-tropospheric subsidence does not change significantly. While surface fluxes directly impact <sup>211</sup> boundary layer properties, the mean boundary layer  $\theta_{\nu}$  field does not conform exactly to the SST



FIG. 2. 1-12 October mean TRMM rainfall (mm day<sup>-1</sup>) and precipitable water PW (mm) over Indian Ocean DYNAMO array. Values at vertices of sounding array quadrilaterals indicate 1-12 October mean mixed layer depths (m) for the approximately two-thirds of the time that well-mixed boundary layers were observed.

distribution. In particular, a departure from the SST field exists around the Indian subcontinent where that heated landmass has apparently warmed the surrounding atmosphere.



FIG. 3. October 1-12 mean SST (color; C), boundary layer (surface to 950 hPa mean) wind (m s<sup>-1</sup>), and virtual potential temperature  $\theta_{\nu}$  (C) over Indian Ocean. Polygons denote DYNAMO sounding arrays.

<sup>219</sup> Beginning around 15 October, precipitation started developing over the equatorial region within <sup>220</sup> 55-75°E (Fig. 4). This longitude span marks the location of the initiation of the October MJO <sup>221</sup> (Gottschalck et al. 2013; Yoneyama et al. 2013; Johnson and Ciesielski 2013). Broadly speaking,



FIG. 4. Time-longitude plot of TRMM 3B42 precipitation (mm day<sup>-1</sup>) from 35° to 155°E averaged from 5°N to 5°S for the period 1 October-15 December 2011. Vertical dashed line denotes center of DYNAMO sounding arrays.

this region coincides with an area where the surface flow was converging into the equatorial SST
maximum (Fig. 3). This surface convergence is directly related to the SST gradients in the region
(Carbone and Li 2015; Rydbeck et al. 2017; de Szoeke and Maloney 2020).

### *b. Mixed layer evolution at Revelle*

A time series of sounding-based atmospheric ML depths at the *Revelle* is shown in Fig. 5a. 231 ML depths increased during a suppressed, light-rain period from 1 to 12 October, then decreased 232 rapidly as rain began to ramp up in the middle of the month (Fig. 5c). The shallower MLs are a 233 reflection of recovering mixed layers following precipitation downdrafts (de Szoeke et al. 2017). 234 The October suppressed period was marked by gradually increasing SST having a  $\sim 0.5$  C amplitude 235 diurnal cycle (Fig. 5b). There was another suppressed period leading up to the second MJO in 236 early November; however, the *Revelle* was off station during that period. There was also a  $\sim 5$ 237 day period with little-to-no rainfall in mid-November characterized by relatively deep mixed layers 238 a large-amplitude diurnal SST cycle (Ruppert and Johnson 2015; Johnson and Ciesielski 2017; 239 de Szoeke et al. 2020). However, given the shortness of this latter suppressed period and the data 240 gap for the early-November period, we focus in this study on the October suppressed period. While 241



FIG. 5. Time series from 1 October to 3 December at *Revelle* of (a) sounding-based atmospheric mixed layer depths (red bars; m), solid line indicates mean value; (b) 3-hourly SST (C); and (c) precipitable water (mm) and precipitation rate (mm day<sup>-1</sup>) from TRMM and the TOGA radar. Gray bars at bottom of (a) indicate times at which soundings were taken. Color bars at bottom of figure indicate phases of Wheeler and Hendon (2014) RMM index.

there was minimal rainfall during this period, there were moderately strong surface winds (~5 m s<sup>-1</sup>). Nevertheless, there was a SST diurnal cycle and the development of a diurnal warm layer in the upper ocean (Moulin et al. 2018). The average ratio of the ML depth to the negative of the Monin-Obukhov length ( $-c_p \bar{\rho} \theta_{vs} u_*^3/kgF_s$ , where  $u_*$  is the friction velocity and k is the von Kármán constant) during this period was ~10, indicating the dominance of buoyancy over shear in producing turbulent kinetic energy (TKE) throughout most of the the depth of the ML.

TKE dissipation rate  $\epsilon$  at the *Revelle* for the early-October suppressed period is shown in Fig. 6a. Consistent with sounding-based ML data (Fig. 5a), the turbulence data indicate a gradually deepening boundary layer up until October 11 followed by a reduction of depths with the onset of rainfall. Comparison of daily-averaged ML depths determined from soundings and TKE dissipation rate data (Fig. 6b) shows that the two agree well up until the onset of rainfall (correlation coefficient = 0.83).

ML potential temperature and specific humidity profiles during the first part of October are shown in Fig. 7. The *Revelle* soundings (black) show a deepening ML over this one-week period,



FIG. 6. a) TKE dissipation rate  $\epsilon$  (log<sub>10</sub> $\epsilon$ , m<sup>2</sup> s<sup>-3</sup>), (b) ML depths determined from sounding data (black dots) and comparison of daily-average ML depths from soundings (black curve) and TKE dissipation rates (red curve), and (c) daily-average rainfall from TRMM (green) and TOGA radar (blue) for 1-15 October.



FIG. 7. Vertical profiles of (a) potential temperature (K) and (b) specific humidity (g kg<sup>-1</sup>) on October 4, 7, and 11 from soundings (black), ECMWF OA (red), and ERA5 (blue). Tick mark intervals are 1 K in (a) and 1 g kg<sup>-1</sup> in (b). Times after dates at top are in UTC. Dotted lines denote estimates of ML top.

accompanied by a slight surface warming and progressively less-distinct, well-mixed profiles. The
 ML structures represented by ECMWF OA and ERA5 agree reasonably well with the observed on

October 4, but later diverge as the observed soundings warm while the ECMWF profiles do not. The departures are significant even considering the coarse vertical resolution of ECMWF data, indicating shortcomings in the reanalysis products in capturing the evolving boundary layer during the October MJO initiation. In addition to differences in the vertical structures, rather substantial boundary layer cool and dry biases are apparent in the ECMWF data, as pointed out by Ciesielski et al. (2021).



FIG. 8. Time series from 1 to 15 October at *Revelle* of daily-averaged (a) CERES high cloud fraction (%) and TRMM and TOGA rainfall rate (mm day <sup>-1</sup>); (b) surface buoyancy flux (W m<sup>-2</sup>) and boundary layer specific humidity  $q_{BL}$  (g kg<sup>-1</sup>); and (c) local and horizontal advective changes in  $\theta_{v}$ : dotted and dashed red curves represent  $\theta$  and q contributions to  $\theta_{v}$  advection, respectively; surface to 950 hPa radiative heating rate  $Q_{R}$ .

An expanded view of the early October suppressed period is shown in Fig. 8. The first four days of October were characterized by light rain and some high clouds, followed by a mostly dry period until about 9-10 October, then concluding with increased rainfall and high clouds (Fig. 8a). Cloud development during this suppressed period transitioned from shallow cells organized in shear-parallel lines to progressively deeper convection organized along cold pool boundaries (Rowe and Houze 2015). Until about 12 October, the surface buoyancy flux was roughly constant (Fig. 8b). Throughout the period, the local change in  $\theta_{\nu}$  was small compared to horizontal advection and radiative cooling (Fig. 8c). During the most suppressed conditions (4-9 October), lower  $\theta_{\nu}$ was being advected into the region, then higher  $\theta_{\nu}$  was advected in after 9 October (Fig. 8c).



FIG. 9. Time series from 1 to 15 October at *Revelle* (a) mixed layer depths from soundings (red bars; m), computed daily-average mixed layer depth  $z_i$  including horizontal advection (solid blue) and excluding horizontal advection (dashed blue), daily-average lifting condensation level LCL based on mixed layer mean conditions (black). and (b) TOGA radar echo area coverage (black curve, %, scale on right axis) and 0 dBZ echo top height frequency (color, %, mean value shown by red curve). The echo top frequency is computed such that at each time (10-min resolution) the total percentage of all vertical levels is equal to one. Gray dashed line denotes 0°C level.

<sup>290</sup> Computations of ML depth from (4) using k = 0.2 are carried out for the 4-11 October light-rain <sup>291</sup> period (TOGA rain rate < 5 mm day<sup>-1</sup>) with and without effects of advection included. Inclusion of <sup>292</sup> advective effects brings the diagnosed ML depth into better agreement with the observed evolution <sup>293</sup> over the course of this dry period (Fig. 9a). The increase in the ML depth after the 9th corresponded <sup>294</sup> to the start of reduced radiative cooling rates (Fig. 8c), which from the balance condition (4) would <sup>295</sup> lead to an increased  $z_i$ .

The interpretation of these results is as follows. The concurrent increase in ML depth and reduction in the LCL resulted in a greater number of boundary layer eddies reaching the condensation level and forming cumulus clouds. Figure 9b depicts the evolution of the SPOL radar echo area

and 0 dBZ echo top heights. Intermittent deep convection occurred during the first 4-5 days of 299 October, followed by scattered, mostly shallow convection over the next week, then a resurgence 300 of deep convection after the 11th. At the start of this latter period, gradual lowering of the LCL 301 commenced as a result of increasing moistening (Fig. 8b), such that mixed layers depths began to 302 rise above the LCL (Fig. 9a), resulting in an enhancement of convective activity. The increase in 303 deep convection was also aided by a substantial increase in column moisture starting on October 304 9 (Fig. 5c) that took place in the lowest 5 km over the following 4-5 days (Johnson and Ciesielski 305 2013; de Szoeke et al. 2015; Powell and Houze 2015b). Moreover, the early-October period was 306 accompanied by steadily increasing SSTs, leading to increased CAPE (Xu and Rutledge 2014), 307 as well as a modest SST diurnal cycle, which can act to accelerate the onset of deep convection 308 (Ruppert 2016). 309



FIG. 10. October 6-8 surface to 950 hPa mean  $\theta_{\nu}$  (C), surface wind (m s<sup>-1</sup>), and TRMM rainfall (mm day<sup>-1</sup>) over the Indian Ocean.

The computations from (4) shown in Fig. 8a of the mixed layer depth during the early-October suppressed period show that the boundary layer properties were significantly influenced by advective effects. From 4 to 9 October, cool (low  $\theta_v$ ) air advection was present at the *Revelle*, followed by weak warm air advection (Fig. 8c). The flow configuration during the period of peak cool air advection is shown in Fig. 10. During this time, cool air was advected into the *Revelle* area from the ITCZ region in the Southern Hemisphere, which required a shallower ML depth than would otherwise be diagnosed without advection (Fig. 8a).

<sup>319</sup> Following this period, from 9-12 October, the advective term decreased to near zero (Fig. 8c). <sup>320</sup> Winds in proximity to the *Revelle* shifted to more westerly (Fig. 11) leading to weaker  $\theta_v$  advection. <sup>321</sup> Therefore, the increase in the diagnosed ML depths from 9 to 12 October (Fig. 9a) are primarily <sup>322</sup> attributable to the decrease in radiative cooling rate (Fig. 8c). This reduction in radiative cooling <sup>323</sup> was accompanied by an increase in high clouds, i.e., cirrus (Fig. 8a). Assuming the reduced <sup>324</sup> radiative cooling was caused by the clouds, we have a remarkable situation where the  $z_{ieq}$  of the <sup>325</sup> boundary layer is modified by increasing high clouds vertically far removed from it.



FIG. 11. October 9-11 surface to 950 hPa mean  $\theta_v$  (C), surface wind (m s<sup>-1</sup>), and TRMM rainfall (mm day<sup>-1</sup>) over the Indian Ocean.

## **5.** Parsing the contributions to boundary layer horizontal advection

The boundary layer advection of  $\theta_v$  at the *Revelle* can be attributed to (1) flow across gradients in SST, to the extent those gradients are communicated to the boundary layer air, and/or (2) low-level  $\theta_v$  gradients due to convective activity and associated cold pools. Moteki (2015) investigated the relationship between gradients in both SST and surface potential temperature for the 9-14 October period and found that the meridional gradients of these quantities mirrored each other over the <sup>334</sup> DYNAMO domain between the equator and ~5°S. His findings suggest that the advection of  $\theta_{\nu}$  at <sup>335</sup> low levels in the boundary layer is principally related to SST gradients.

However, closer examination of Fig. 10 suggests another factor may be at play. The figure 336 indicates that the ITCZ was relatively close to the *Revelle* during 6-8 October compared its 1-12 337 October mean position (Fig. 2) or its position on 9-11 October (Fig. 11). Cold advection increased 338 during 6-8 October (Fig. 8c), suggesting that the cooler air was likely associated with precipitation 339 downdrafts from the nearby ITCZ band. A comparison of advections from boundary layer  $\theta_{v}$  and 340 SST is shown in Fig. 12. Cool advection exists in both fields over much of the Indian Ocean south 341 of the equator due to flow from cooler to warmer waters (Fig. 3). However, just south of the Revelle, 342  $\theta_{\nu}$  cool advection exceeds that associated with SST, indicating that cool low-level outflow from 343 the ITCZ band is the dominant advective process during this period. A comparison of  $\theta_{v}$  and SST 344 advection for the entire 1-12 October period (Fig. 13a) shows that the boundary layer advection at 345 the *Revelle* is largely independent of SST gradients, indicating that transient convective activity is 346 the primary driver of advective effects there. A similar behavior is seen farther south at the *Mirai* 347 (Fig. 13b) where there was considerable short-term variability in  $\theta_v$  advection. However, at this 348 location there was persistent cold advection due to flow across the strong SST gradients south of 349 the Mirai (Fig. 3). 350

### **6.** Summary and conclusions

This study has investigated the evolution of the atmospheric mixed layer at the *Revelle* during 357 the lead-up to increased convective activity over the Indian Ocean associated with the October 358 2011 MJO. The first third of October was a period of generally suppressed convection with cloud 359 development increasing toward the end of this period. The mixed layer depth grew from  $\sim 500$  to 360  $\sim$ 700 m from 1 to 11 October. A heat budget that defines an equilibrium mixed layer is developed 361 and applied to the quasi-steady, mostly clear conditions that existed during the most suppressed 362 portion of this early October period. The diagnostic relationship that is developed shows that 363 horizontal advection was an important factor in explaining the mixed layer evolution at the *Revelle* 364 from 4 to 9 October. While cold advection due to SST gradients was a dominant feature over much 365 of the Indian Ocean south of the equator, low-level cold outflow from a band of ITCZ convection 366 between 0 and  $5^{\circ}$ S was primary contributor to cold advection at the *Revelle* during this period. 367



FIG. 12. October 6-8 mean surface wind (m s<sup>-1</sup>) and advection (C day<sup>-1</sup>) associated with (a) surface-950 hPa  $\theta_{v}$ , i.e.,  $-\mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla \theta_{v}$  and (b) SST, i.e.,  $-\mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla SST$ . Black star denotes position of *Revelle*.



FIG. 13. October 1-12 daily-averaged (D-A) advection associated with boundary layer  $\theta_{\nu}$  (red) and SST (black) (C day<sup>-1</sup>) at the (a) *Revelle* and (b) *Mirai*. Advection is computed within 1° radius of each ship. Numbers in parentheses represent the period means for the SST and  $\theta_{\nu}$  advection, respectively.

The following 9-12 October period saw much reduced horizontal advective effects, so the increase 368 in the equilibrium ML depth during that time was related to decreased radiative cooling in the 369 boundary layer. This reduction in radiative cooling coincided with increasing cirrus clouds in 370 advance of the active phase of the MJO. This finding reveals a rather unique influence cirrus had 371 during this period, namely, its radiative impact led to an increase in the equilibrium ML depth far 372 from it. Toward the end of the suppressed period, the deepening mixed layer eventually reached 373 the lifting condensation level of the boundary layer, resulting in an increasing number of cumulus 374 clouds prior to the active phase of the October MJO. 375

The mixed layer depth is a valve for initiating shallow convection as it approaches the lifting 376 condensation level, and air entering the bases of cumulus clouds comes from the subcloud mixed 377 layer. Accurate representation of the boundary layer in global models is thus needed to properly 378 handle cloud evolution and MJO convective initiation, especially as model resolution continues 379 toward explicit treatment of convection. The results here indicate that the inversion height is 380 attracted to an equilibrium inversion height that balances the heat budget. This equilibrium 381 inversion height varies on intraseasonal rather than hourly time scales. Models should be able to 382 reproduce this inversion height, and how fast it re-establishes itself if conditions such as surface 383 flux or advection change. The nearly constant ML depths seen in the ECMWF OA and ERA5 384 reanalyses during the October early-onset period as opposed to the observed ML depth increase 385 (Fig. 7) indicate that mixed layer properties remain a modeling problem. The results suggest the 386 use of the expression for equilibrium mixed layer depth  $z_{ieq}$  as a metric for readily evaluating 387 large-scale mixed layer evolution in models, and the sensitivity of their convection to the mixed 388 layer. 389

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The CERES Data availability statement. cloud microphysical oband data were 395 tained http://ceres.larc.nasa.gov/products.php?product=SYN1deg, CombRet from the 396 microphysical cloud https:/www.arm.gov/data/pi/71, data from the SPOL legacy 397

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https://data.eol.ucar.edu/project/DLDP, radar data from the TRMM rainfall data 398 from https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets/TRMM 3B42 7/summary, **OAFlux** the sur-399 https://researchdata.edu.au/woods-hole-oceanographic-v3-daily/15322, face fluxes from 400 gridded CSU diagnosed fields from https://data.eol.ucar.edu/dataset/347.240, the 401 **ECMWF** ERA5 data from https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/datasets/reanalysisthe 402 the TKE dissipation rate data from NOAA Chemical Sciences Division: datasets/era5, 403 https://csl.noaa.gov/groups/csl3/measurements/2011dynamo/calendar.php, and the QuikSCAT 404 data from https://podaac.jpl.nasa.gov/QuikSCAT. 405

# APPENDIX

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#### **Equilibrium time scale**

Without considering time dependence, we defined the equilibrium inversion height  $z_{ieq}$  that 408 balances the heat budget. This is like assuming that the inversion  $z_i$  adjusts very fast to changes in 409 the heat budget. If the mixed layer is shallow, then the turbulence flux divergence  $(1+k)F_s/(\overline{\rho}c_p z_i)$ 410 warms it up quickly. Yet  $z_i$  also deepens in this process, as entrainment outpaces mean subsidence, 411 until  $z_i$  reaches  $z_{ieq}$ . Any change in the turbulent heat flux  $(1+k)F_s$ , radiative heat source  $Q_R$ , or 412 advective heat source  $\mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla \theta_{\mathbf{v}}$  results in a transient imbalance that is restored by entrainment. The 413 equilibrium inversion height is obtained on the timescales of interest if  $z_i$  adjusts much faster by 414 entrainment than intraseasonal changes in the heat budget. 415

How quickly does  $z_i$  adjust? In this appendix, we show that entrainment across a discontinuous zero-order jump of virtual potential temperature  $\Delta \theta_v$  overlain by moist adiabatic stratification tends toward an inversion height on a time scale of about 6 hours, much faster than the variations of  $z_{ieq}$ that are shown to be correlated to daily to intraseasonal convective variability.

The equation for virtual (density) potential temperature flux continuity across an inversion at height  $z_i$  (e.g., Lilly 1968) is

$$(\partial z_i/\partial t - w)\Delta\theta_v + F_{i-} = R_+,\tag{A1}$$

where  $\Delta \theta_v = \theta_{v+} - \overline{\theta_v}$  is the virtual potential temperature jump, above  $(\theta_{v+})$  minus below  $(\overline{\theta_v})$  the inversion, and *w* is the mean vertical velocity. Equation A1 states that the decrease in temperature due to entrainment and the upward turbulent heat flux from below the inversion  $F_{i-}$  are balanced by the upward radiative heat flux  $R_+$ . The radiative flux below the inversion  $R_-$  and the turbulent flux above the inversion  $F_{i+}$  are assumed to be zero. Assuming clouds are not found below the inversion, the net flux above the inversion  $R_+$  will also be neglected henceforth. The turbulent virtual potential temperature flux below the inversion is proportional to the surface flux as above,  $F_{i-} = -kF_s$ , with k = 0.2.

430 The equation for the inversion height  $z_i$  becomes

$$\partial z_i / \partial t = w + k F_s / \Delta \theta_v. \tag{A2}$$

<sup>431</sup> The jump  $\Delta \theta_v$  evolves with the lapse rate of virtual potential temperature above the inversion  $\Gamma$  as

$$\frac{\partial(\Delta\theta_{\nu})}{\partial z_{i}} = \frac{\partial\theta_{\nu}}{\partial z} = \Gamma.$$
(A3)

Then linearizing  $(\Delta \theta_{\nu})^{-1} \approx (\Delta \theta_{\nu})_{ent}^{-1} + (\Delta \theta_{\nu})_{ent}^{-2} \Gamma(z_i - z_{ient})$  as a perturbation  $z'_i = z_i - z_{ient}$  about an equilibrium inversion height  $z_{ient}$  with inversion strength  $(\Delta \theta_{\nu})_{ent}$ , the  $z_i$  equation becomes

$$\frac{\partial z_i}{\partial t} = w + \frac{kF_s}{(\Delta\theta_v)_{\text{ent}}} - \frac{kF_s}{(\Delta\theta_v)_{\text{ent}}^2} \Gamma(z_i - z_{i\text{ent}}).$$

Note for  $\partial z_i / \partial t \to 0$ ,  $z_i \to z_{ient}$  and  $(\Delta \theta_v)_{ent} = -kF_s/w$  Dropping the subscript from  $(\Delta \theta_v)_{ent}$ , the time-dependent equation is

$$\frac{\partial z_i'}{\partial t} = -\frac{kF_s\Gamma}{(\Delta\theta_v)^2} z_i'.$$

and the inversion height  $z_i$  approaches  $z_{ient}$  with a time scale

$$\tau_i = \frac{(\Delta\theta_v)^2}{\Gamma k F_s}.$$
(A4)

To make things concrete, we take reasonable values  $\Gamma = 3 \times 10^{-3}$  for a moist adiabat,  $\Delta \theta_v = 0.5$ K, k = 0.2, and  $(\overline{w'\theta'_v})_0 = 2 \times 10^{-2}$  K m s<sup>-1</sup>, corresponding to a sensible heat flux of 10 W m<sup>-2</sup> and the density effect of latent heat flux of 200 W m<sup>-2</sup>. For these values the time scale for the inversion height adjustment is  $\tau_i = 5.6$  h.

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