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3 **Introducing Subgrid-scale Cloud Feedbacks to Radiation for**
4 **Regional Meteorological and Climate Modeling**

5
6 Kiran Alapaty¹, Jerold A. Herwehe¹, Tanya L. Otte¹, Christopher G. Nolte¹, O. Russell Bullock¹,
7 Megan S. Mallard¹, John S. Kain², and Jimy Dudhia³
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12 ¹National Exposure Research Laboratory, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Research
13 Triangle Park, North Carolina, USA.

14 ²National Severe Storms Laboratory, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration,
15 Norman, Oklahoma, USA.

16 ³National Center for Atmospheric Research, Boulder, Colorado, USA.
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31 **Key points: Convective cloud and radiation interaction parameterization improves**
32 **regional simulations**
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46 **Abstract**

47 Convective systems and associated cloudiness directly influence regional and local
48 atmospheric radiation budgets, as well as dynamics and thermodynamics, through feedbacks.
49 However, most subgrid-scale convective parameterizations in regional weather and climate
50 models do not consider cumulus cloud feedbacks to radiation, resulting in biases in several
51 meteorological parameters. We have incorporated this key feedback process into a convective
52 parameterization and a radiation scheme in the Weather Research and Forecasting model, and
53 evaluated the impacts of including this process in short-term weather and multiyear climate
54 simulations. Introducing subgrid-scale convective cloud-radiation feedbacks leads to a more
55 realistic simulation of attenuation of downward surface shortwave radiation. Reduced surface
56 shortwave radiation moderates the surface forcing for convection and results in a notable
57 reduction in precipitation biases. Our research reveals a need for more in-depth consideration of
58 the effects of subgrid-scale clouds in regional meteorology/climate and air quality models on
59 radiation, photolysis, cloud mixing, and aerosol indirect effects.

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62 **1. Introduction**

63 Clouds and their feedbacks play an important role in the climate system modulating not only
64 the regional and global radiation budgets but also the hydrological cycle [*Stephens, 2005*]. It has
65 been long recognized that radiative feedbacks from clouds affect several meteorological
66 parameters at the surface and aloft through changes in shortwave and longwave radiation locally
67 and globally on short and long timescales [*Shukla and Sud, 1981*]. Also, clouds directly impact
68 air pollutant concentrations by modulating photolysis rates and vertical mixing. Studies on the
69 radiative impacts of cumulus clouds in global climate models emerged in the 1980s [e.g.,
70 *Herman et al., 1980*], while the investigation of the observed nature of the fractional cloudiness

71 of cumulus convection began at least two decades earlier [*Malkus*, 1958; *Krishnamurti*, 1968].
72 While explicitly-simulated, resolved-scale clouds were allowed to impact radiation, subgrid-
73 scale cumulus clouds (or parameterized convective clouds) were not. Such radiatively-passive
74 cumulus clouds were prolific at the horizontal resolution used by most global climate models, yet
75 several studies recognized the importance of the radiative impacts of these clouds on the climate
76 system and were unable to model them properly due to lack of a suitable way to estimate
77 fractional cloudiness as a function of parameterized clouds. Based on cloud-resolving modeling
78 studies, *Xu and Krueger* [1991] suggested an empirical formulation to estimate fractional
79 cumulus cloudiness, and it was successfully used in global climate models [e.g., *Collins et al.*,
80 2006; *Neale et al.*, 2010]. *Kvamstø* [1993], the first regional modeling study to include cumulus
81 cloudiness, highlighted the advantages of the *Xu and Krueger* [1991] formulation over two other
82 formulations based on grid-scale relative humidity [*Kvamstø*, 1991] and intensity of convection
83 [*Sundqvist et al.*, 1989]. *Pal et al.* [2000] embedded a grid-scale relative humidity based scheme
84 [*Sundqvist et al.*, 1988] directly into a grid-scale cloud and precipitation scheme to implicitly
85 account for subgrid cloud variability impacts in a regional climate modeling study. Based on
86 deep cloud resolving modeling studies, *Xu and Krueger* [1991] showed that the relative humidity
87 is not a suitable parameter to diagnose cumulus cloudiness. *Liang et al.* [2004] proposed an
88 empirical formulation to estimate subgrid-scale cloudiness using a sliding scale approach that
89 accounts for grid resolutions ranging from 200 to 10 km, number of convective layers, and
90 changing some empirical constants. Also, they estimated subgrid-scale condensates independent
91 of the convection scheme used in their study. Despite important findings from these studies,
92 several regional weather models, including Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF), have
93 neglected subgrid-scale cumulus cloudiness and associated radiative impacts. Perhaps it may be

94 because the overall radiative impacts of subgrid cumulus clouds were thought to be insignificant,
95 at least from a mesoscale weather prediction perspective. Thus, the study focuses on the utility of
96 a robust scheme for estimation of convective cloudiness linked directly to convective cloud
97 dynamical parameters such as suggested by *Xu and Krueger* and an evaluation of impacts of
98 subgrid-scale cloudiness at regional weather and climate scales.

99
100 The WRF model [*Skamarock et al., 2008*] is commonly used for retrospective air quality
101 modeling studies [e.g., *Appel et al., 2010*] and is being applied with increasing frequency for
102 historic and future climate studies [e.g., *Otte et al., 2012; Nolte et al., 2012*]. Our regional
103 climate research indicates that the summertime convective systems simulated by the WRF model
104 are highly energetic and often lead to excessive precipitation. We hypothesize that the radiatively
105 passive cumulus clouds result in excessive surface radiant energy. This could manifest as
106 relatively high moist static energy and correspondingly high convective instability and/or
107 unrealistically rapid boundary-layer recovery following parameterized convective events,
108 resulting in more frequent activation of parameterized convection. Given this premise, we
109 further hypothesize that including the effects of subgrid-scale cloudiness in the radiation
110 calculations will alleviate the large precipitation biases in the WRF model by properly reducing
111 shortwave radiation reaching the surface and leading to more appropriate levels of instability and
112 time between parameterized convective episodes in both regional weather and climate
113 simulations.

114 115 **2. Methodology and Numerical Simulations**

116 In the original WRF (version 3.3.1) model, the grid-scale cloudiness is estimated in a two-
117 stage process. First, if a grid cell is saturated (with respect to water or ice) then that grid cell is
118 assigned 100% cloudiness. Otherwise, that grid cell is assigned 0% cloudiness. Then, the impacts

119 of other physical and dynamical processes (such as cumulus detrainment, 3-D advection, etc.) on
120 the grid-scale saturation alter the saturation value. This modified saturation value for each grid
121 cell is then utilized to re-estimate partial grid-scale cloudiness using an empirical formulation.
122 Thus, modified grid-scale cloudiness can vary anywhere between 0 to 100% instead of being
123 simply set to binary values. Our analysis has indicated that the modified grid-scale cloudiness
124 still hovers close to either 0% or 100%. This modified grid-scale cloudiness is then taken as
125 input for our research in the estimation of total cloudiness due to all clouds. The subgrid-scale
126 cumulus cloudiness formulation used in the Community Atmosphere Model version 5 (CAM5)
127 [Neale *et al.*, 2010], originally suggested by Xu and Krueger [1991], is selected for
128 implementation into the Kain-Fritsch (KF) convection parameterization scheme [Kain, 2004] in
129 the WRF model. Following the CAM5 methodology, KF cloud updraft mass fluxes are used to
130 estimate the fractional three-dimensional cloudiness associated with shallow and deep cumulus
131 clouds. Since convection is penetrative, it is allowed to punch through the existing grid-scale
132 clouds. Also, subsidence associated with convection will affect the grid-scale saturation leading
133 to reduction/dissipation of existing grid-scale clouds. The CAM5 formulation accounts for these
134 two types of convection impacts on the grid-scale cloudiness. Finally, grid-scale cloudiness is
135 further modified to ensure that the total cloudiness composed of contributions from grid-scale
136 and subgrid-scale clouds cannot exceed 100%. To maintain consistency, we also adjust grid-
137 scale condensates according to changes made to the grid-scale cloudiness. The standard WRF
138 considers cloudiness only from the grid-scale clouds and associated liquid and ice water paths in
139 radiative transfer calculations. However, to include the radiative contributions by the convective
140 clouds, liquid and ice water condensates associated with the KF subgrid clouds are added to
141 corresponding adjusted grid-scale condensates. Finally, total liquid and ice water paths and

142 cloudiness values for all clouds are then used in the Rapid Radiative Transfer Model for global
143 (RRTMG) models [*Iacono et al., 2008*] to affect the shortwave and longwave radiative
144 processes. Thus, the modified RRTMG used in the study considers radiative effects of grid-scale
145 as well as subgrid-scale clouds consistent with respective cloud physical formulations.

146
147 To understand the effects of radiatively active subgrid clouds, we conducted both weather
148 and regional climate simulations for the continental U.S. using the standard (unmodified) WRF
149 model (“STD”) and a version with the subgrid-scale cloudiness feedbacks to radiation (“NEW”).
150 The WRF model configuration included 34 vertical layers extending up to 50 hPa, the Yonsei
151 University planetary boundary layer (PBL) scheme, the Noah land-surface model, and the
152 WSM6 grid-scale microphysics. Two one-week simulations were initialized at 0000 UTC 24
153 July 2010 to examine model behavior in NWP mode. For these short-term simulations, a single
154 domain with 36-km horizontal grid spacing was used, no data were assimilated (i.e., no interior
155 nudging), and the initial and lateral boundary conditions were derived from the National Centers
156 for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) North American Mesoscale model analyses. Two
157 additional simulations were conducted for a three-year period (1988–1990) to study the subgrid-
158 scale cloudiness effects on regional climate. For the three-year simulations, two-way nested
159 simulations were performed using 108- and 36-km grids. Analysis nudging was applied to
160 horizontal wind components, potential temperature, and water vapor mixing ratio above the PBL
161 toward fields from $2.5^\circ \times 2.5^\circ$ NCEP-Department of Energy Atmospheric Model
162 Intercomparison Project (AMIP-II) Reanalysis (R-2) [*Kanamitsu et al., 2002*] to reduce errors in
163 predictions of means and extremes [*Otte et al., 2012*] and to minimize drift in the large-scale
164 circulation [*Bowden et al., 2012*] for multiyear regional climate simulations.

165

166 **3. Results**

167 Estimated subgrid cloudiness for the NWP simulations is compared to Geostationary
168 Operational Environmental Satellite (GOES) imagery and against observations from the Surface
169 Radiation (SURFRAD) network. Figure 1a shows the infrared satellite image from GOES-13
170 valid at 2045 UTC 29 July 2010 and vertically-integrated and normalized (by number of vertical
171 layers) cloudiness for the STD and NEW cases valid at 2100 UTC 29 July 2010. The time
172 shown is about 5 days into the 7-day simulations when the convective activity is predominant as
173 compared to all other days. GOES-13 indicates widespread cloud cover throughout the Sierra
174 Madre Occidental in Mexico and the Rocky Mountain region, in the Upper Midwest, Missouri,
175 southeastward into the Mid-South, along the southwestern Gulf coast of Florida, in the Mid-
176 Atlantic, and off the Atlantic coast. In the STD output cloud coverage is limited to portions of
177 the Upper Midwest, southern Florida, and in the Sierra Madre Occidental (Fig. 1b) where the
178 model produces grid-scale saturation. However, in the NEW output (Fig. 1c) cloud coverage is
179 not limited to those grid points with grid-scale saturation, thus coverage is considerably larger
180 and in much better agreement with observations, particularly through the Rocky Mountains,
181 Missouri, western Tennessee, and offshore in the southern Atlantic Ocean (Figs. 1a, b, c). This
182 comparison indicates that the NEW configuration greatly improves the representation of cloud
183 cover compared to the STD configuration. Improvements in cloud cover with the NEW
184 representation of subgrid-scale clouds occur throughout the simulation period, even for nighttime
185 convective conditions (not shown).

186

187 The improved representation of clouds leads to a more realistic depiction of temporal
188 variations in radiative impacts in the NEW. For example, measured surface net shortwave flux at
189 Bondville, Illinois, for 29 July 2010 (Fig. 2a) indicates transient convective cloudiness

190 throughout the day, resulting in oscillations of more than 200 W m^{-2} . The STD shows an
191 unrealistic smoother distribution with no periods of short-term attenuation during the day
192 because the effect of subgrid cloudiness on radiation is absent. Though the modulation of
193 shortwave radiation in the NEW case is slightly different from observations, it indicates an
194 overall improvement in the temporal variability of shortwave flux. Modulation of surface net
195 longwave flux (Fig. 2b), occurring at an order of magnitude lower than that for shortwave flux,
196 reveals temporal features similar to those of Fig. 2a with a subtle ($10\text{-}20 \text{ W m}^{-2}$) over-prediction
197 of longwave cooling at this site during the nighttime of 29 July 2010 compared to the STD case
198 and the SURFRAD observations. Further evaluation of short- and long-wave radiative fluxes for
199 all seven SURFRAD sites revealed that these fluxes are better simulated in the NEW case for all-
200 sky conditions while for clear sky conditions fluxes in both the STD and NEW cases are quite
201 similar. Additionally, we have compared the monthly-averaged surface shortwave radiation in
202 STD and NEW at the Bondville site for all three years with the SURFRAD measurements for 15-
203 year monthly climatology. This statistically significant comparison indicated that the surface
204 shortwave radiation in the NEW improves upon STD as NEW is closer to the SURFRAD
205 climatology.

206
207 Here we discuss some further prominent results from the STD and NEW cases though
208 space considerations do not permit supporting figures. Since summertime convection is
209 predominant over the eastern U.S., area-averaged differences of surface insolation between the
210 NEW and STD cases were analyzed, revealing local differences of about -80 W m^{-2} that impact
211 simulated surface and PBL parameters. To illustrate the impact of the size of the temperature
212 differences (NEW–STD) on biogenic emissions from an air quality modeling perspective, we
213 chose a small area ($400\text{X}400 \text{ km}$) over the central North Carolina. For this small area, surface

214 temperature differences (NEW–STD) indicated a cooling of about 3 K over land, thus indicating
215 the importance of including cloudiness variability and its impact on surface temperatures and
216 related meteorological and air quality parameters. Air pollution can be affected through changes
217 in biogenic emissions, for example, which are controlled by near-surface temperatures. Also, for
218 this seven-day period, eastern U.S. area-averaged PBL depth differences (NEW–STD) range
219 from –100 m to –1200 m indicating cloudiness-radiation impacts on meteorology which would
220 be expected to affect air pollutant concentrations. The NEW case also resulted in a warming (by
221 about 1-3 K with a maximum of about 5 K) of high altitude atmospheric layers (e.g., for the layer
222 33, which is ~15 km AGL) compared to STD. Temporal variation of domain-averaged (all land
223 grids) layer 33 air temperature differences (NEW–STD) indicates a warming of atmosphere by
224 about 0.2 to 0.4 K starting from the third day of model simulations with a weaker warming
225 during the first two days.. The persistent warming in NEW may be attributed to the introduction
226 of longwave radiative cooling of the deep cumulus clouds acting to warm surrounding regions,
227 which was absent in the STD. Further, warming in NEW can also be attributed to changes in
228 advection patterns because the large-scale dynamics have been altered due to feedbacks
229 associated with the longwave cooling of towering cumulus clouds. Our ongoing research
230 indicates that historical regional climate simulations with WRF for similar periods are biased
231 with excessive areas of cirrus clouds compared with satellite measurements. In the NEW case,
232 upper-level atmospheric warming variably reduced the overprediction of cirrus clouds. After
233 diluting to the resolved scale, domain-maximum subgrid cloud condensate (liquid and solid) in
234 the NEW case is about 1.2 g kg^{-1} (absent in the STD case), an amount that can noticeably alter
235 radiation calculations and saturation levels in the atmosphere. Finally, on average, the NEW
236 case reduced surface precipitation (by about 1 to 20 mm day^{-1} depending up on region and day)

237 and compares favorably with National Weather Service surface precipitation measurements
238 (Advanced Hydrologic Prediction Service product). Also, the orientation and location of cloud
239 bands (associated with large-scale forcing) corresponded better with satellite imagery than STD
240 (Fig. 1). We now present results obtained from the three-year regional climate simulations.

241
242 The 3-year regional climate simulations are evaluated over the southeastern U.S. (where
243 summertime convection is predominant) on a 36-km grid. Prior studies [e.g., *Otte et al.*, 2012]
244 indicate that the Southeast is a region with consistent overprediction of summertime precipitation
245 in similar multi-decadal simulations with WRF. Figure 3 compares monthly-averaged surface
246 precipitation for the Southeast from the STD and NEW runs to the North American Regional
247 Reanalysis (NARR; *Mesinger et al.* [2006]). Incorporating subgrid cumulus cloud and radiation
248 interactions mitigates the overprediction of precipitation in all three summers and results in
249 monthly predictions that more closely follow the NARR. The overprediction in the STD case is
250 attributed to radiatively passive subgrid clouds leading to high moist static energy via excessive
251 surface shortwave radiation, which caused strong convective instabilities and increased soil
252 moisture through excessive precipitation. These effects have a positive feedback on the moist
253 static energy and convective kinetic energy leading to overly-intense subgrid convection. The
254 net result is that subgrid convection is highly energetic, leading to an overestimation of surface
255 precipitation in the STD case. This feature becomes evident in the monthly-averaged number of
256 days with surface precipitation exceeding 0.5 inches (12.7 mm) (Fig. 4). Since heavy
257 precipitation is typically associated with intense deep convection, including cumulus cloudiness-
258 radiation interactions has the largest impact on the less frequent heavy precipitation events.
259 Furthermore, the extreme heat events, as measured by the number of days exceeding 90°F, are

260 higher in NEW than that in STD yet are closer to observations because of smaller surface latent
261 heat fluxes and less soil moisture in NEW.

262
263 **4. Conclusions**

264 The impacts of including the effects of subgrid-scale cloudiness on radiation fields were
265 examined for weather and climate simulations. For the summertime, we find that including
266 subgrid-scale cloud-radiation interactions improves the simulation of several meteorological
267 parameters at both the weather and climate timescales. Overall, including these effects creates
268 more realistic longwave and shortwave radiation variability, results in cloud patterns which more
269 closely resemble observations, and reduces the overprediction of precipitation (in both monthly
270 averages and for extreme events). This research will directly benefit the regional climate and air
271 quality modeling communities. Radiative feedbacks from subgrid cumulus clouds affect several
272 meteorological parameters important to air quality modeling; such as biogenic emission rates via
273 changes in surface temperature; pollutant concentrations via changes in PBL depth; and
274 peroxide-related reactions through changes in surface humidity levels. Additionally, subgrid
275 cumulus clouds directly impact air pollutant concentrations by modulating photochemistry and
276 vertical mixing. Including the subgrid-scale cloudiness-radiation interactions will also assist the
277 modeling of aerosol indirect effects on parameterized cumulus clouds. In a future study, the
278 impacts of modeling subgrid-scale cloud-radiative feedbacks will be evaluated for air quality
279 simulations with the goal of enhancing the credibility of air quality simulations for retrospective
280 and future periods.

281
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290
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348
349 **Figure Captions:**

350
351 Figure 1: (a) Infrared satellite image from GOES-13 valid at 2045 UTC 29 July 2010; (b) and (c)
352 Vertically integrated and normalized (by number of vertical layers) cloudiness for the STD and
353 NEW cases valid at 2100 UTC 29 July 2010.

354

355 Figure 2: (a) Diurnal variation of surface net shortwave radiation (W m^{-2}) at Bondville, IL, from
356 SURFRAD measurements and corresponding simulations in STD, and NEW cases for July 29.

357

358 Figure 2: (b) Diurnal variation of surface net longwave radiation (W m^{-2}) at Bondville, IL, from
359 SURFRAD measurements and corresponding simulations in the STD, and NEW cases for July
360 29.

361

362 Figure 3: Temporal variation of monthly area averaged surface precipitation for the southeastern
363 region obtained from the NARR and corresponding simulations in the STD, and NEW cases for
364 three years starting from January 1988.

365

366

367 Figure 4: Temporal variation of monthly area averaged days with surface precipitation exceeding
368 0.5 inches for the southeastern region obtained from the NARR and corresponding simulations in
369 the STD, and NEW cases for three years starting from January 1988.

370

Figure 1

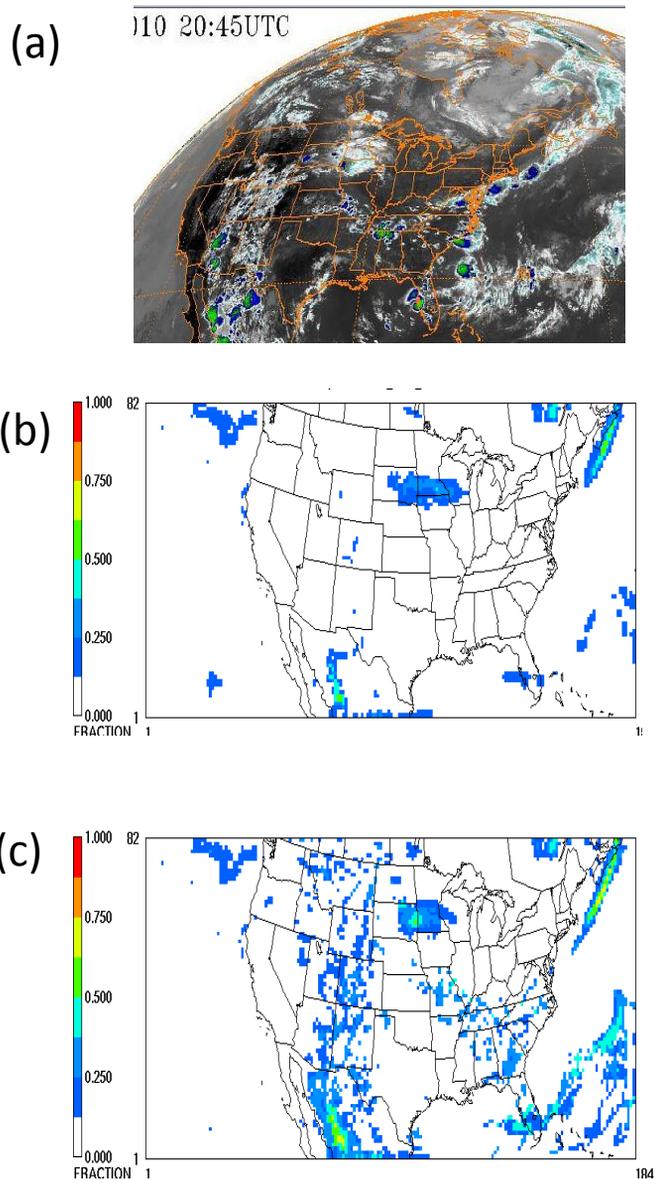
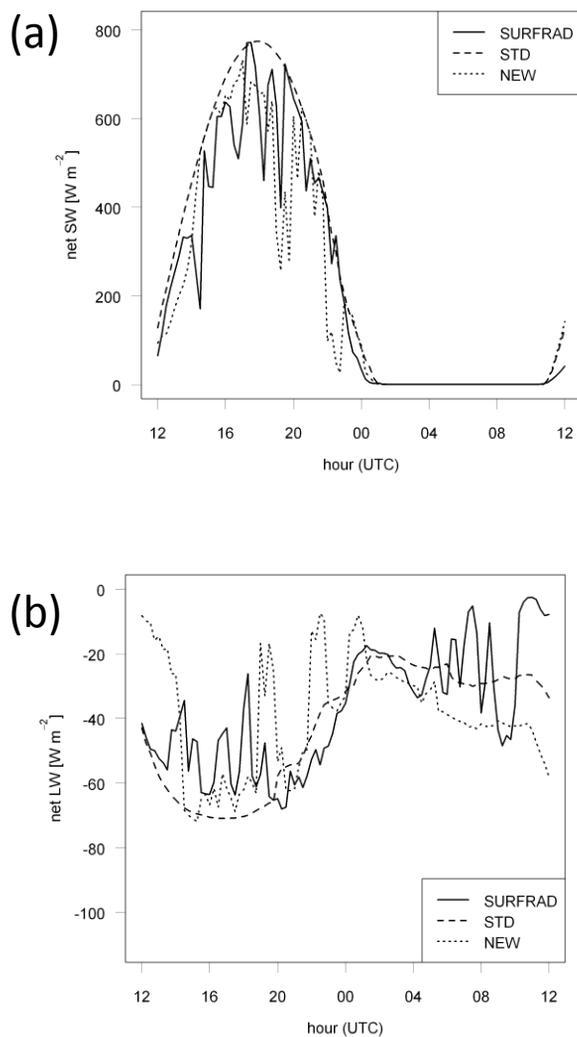


Figure 2



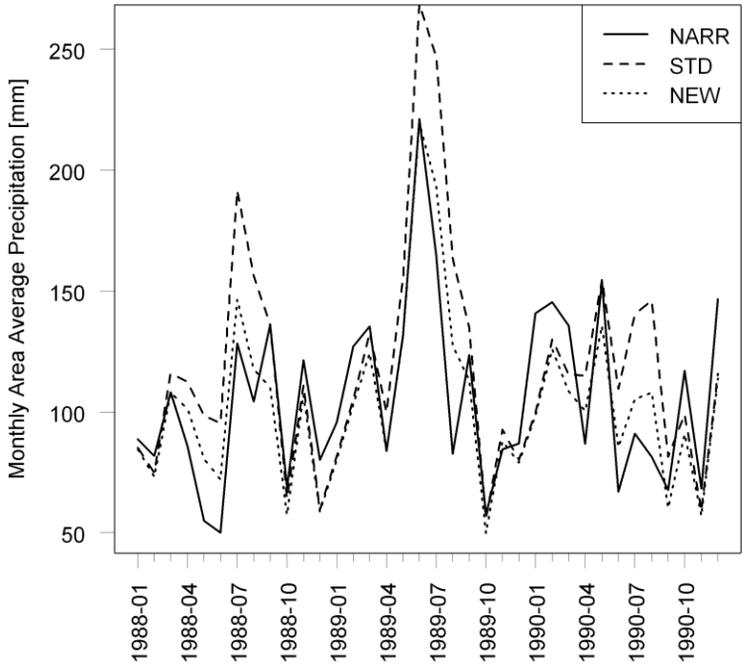


Figure 3

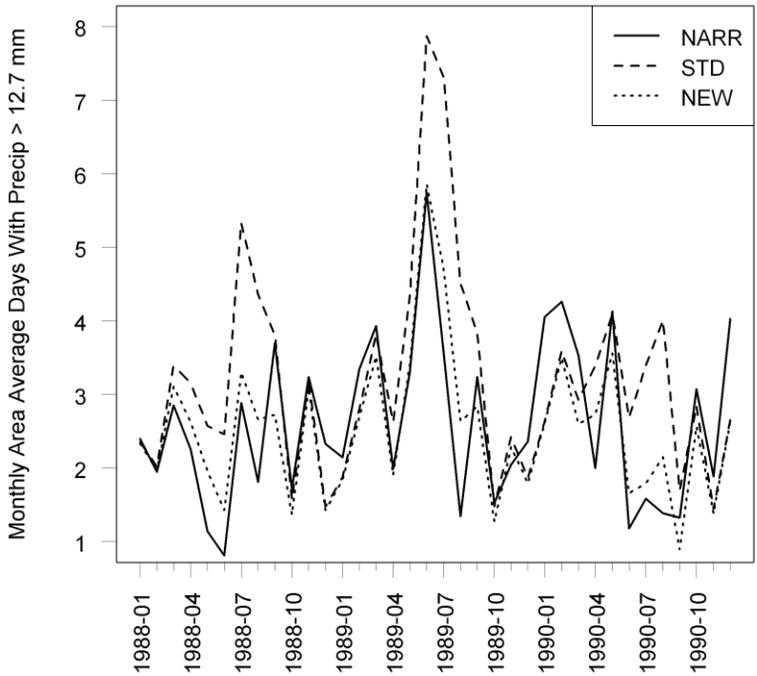


Figure 4