

Frictional Convergence in a Decaying Vortex

Željka Fuchs¹

*Physics Department, Faculty of Science, University of Split, Split, Croatia; Physics
Department and Geophysical Research Center, New Mexico Institute of Mining and
Technology, Socorro, New Mexico, 87801 USA*

Michael J. Herman and David J. Raymond

*Physics Department and Geophysical Research Center, New Mexico Institute of Mining and
Technology, Socorro, New Mexico, 87801 USA*

¹ *Corresponding author address:* Željka Fuchs, Physics Department and Geophysical Research Center, New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology, Socorro, New Mexico, 87801. E-mail: zeljka@kestrel.nmt.edu

Abstract

Cross-isobaric flow and Ekman pumping are investigated in a frictionally decaying vortex in a stratified atmosphere. Consistent with early work by Holton and others, it is found that the stratification limits the vertical penetration of the secondary circulation driven by friction, resulting in a more rapid spin down than is conventionally assumed. As a result the cross-isobaric flow and Ekman pumping are weaker and shallower than classical calculations would lead one to believe. The effect becomes stronger as the vortex becomes smaller. For vortices with horizontal scales of several hundred kilometers or less, the reduction is particularly pronounced, which raises questions about the efficacy of Ekman pumping in forcing convection in such vortices. The theory as it stands is limited to weak, linear vortices in which geostrophic balance holds approximately, though extensions of the analytical theory to stronger vortices may be possible.

1 Introduction

The idea that deep atmospheric convection may be forced by frictionally induced convergence and lifting in the atmospheric boundary layer (Ekman pumping) is a nearly uncontested staple of modern meteorological theory. Its modern application in idealized models appears to have originated in Charney and Eliassen (1949) and was used in the context of tropical meteorology by Charney and Eliassen (1964), Ooyama (1969), Holton et al. (1971), Charney (1971, 1973), Holton (1974), Wang (1988), Wang and Rui (1990), etc.

The simple, most widely used version of the model was challenged by Raymond and Herman (2012). In this version, Charney and Eliassen (1964) assumed that the secondary circulation arising from surface friction would extend through most or all of the troposphere, which means that the time constant for global spin down would be large compared to the time required to bring the boundary layer alone to a halt by friction. Holton (1965) pointed

33 out a potential flaw in this argument, noting that the upward penetration depth of the sec-
34 ondary circulation is limited by the stratification of the atmosphere. In particular, for a
35 horizontal scale L of the boundary layer flow, and hence of the secondary circulation, the
36 vertical penetration depth of this circulation scales as $Z = fL/N$, where f is the Coriolis
37 parameter and N is the Brunt-Väisälä frequency. Thus, for small to mesoscale disturbances
38 in the tropics where $N/f \approx 300$ and $L \leq 300$ km, $Z \leq 1$ km, or much less than the depth
39 of the troposphere, contrary to the assumption of Charney and Eliassen (1964). As a con-
40 sequence, the time for spin down is small enough that the steady state idealization behind
41 the usual Ekman pumping formula may be invalid. Raymond and Herman (2012) showed
42 in a linearized, slab-symmetric model that this effect has major consequences for Ekman
43 pumping in weak (i.e., linear) disturbances in the tropics with horizontal scales less than a
44 few hundred kilometers.

45 Aside from possible non-linearity, two situations could invalidate the analysis of Raymond
46 and Herman (2012). First, if the boundary layer flow is driven directly by some external
47 mechanism, then it could be maintained as a steady flow in the face of the rapid spin down
48 tendency produced by surface friction. An example of this is the case in which surface
49 temperature gradients drive the boundary layer, as envisioned by Lindzen and Nigam (1987).
50 Spatial variations in these gradients could then result in quasi-steady regions of convergence
51 and divergence. Though friction plays an important role in determining the structure of such
52 convergence patterns, it is not correct to ascribe the convergence to the friction per se, as
53 the prime mover in this case is the pattern of surface temperature gradient.

54 The second possibility is that deep convection operates in a manner that can be idealized
55 by an effective reduction in the Brunt-Väisälä frequency of the atmosphere. This would result
56 in an increase in the penetration depth of the secondary circulation and a corresponding
57 increase in its spin down time. Yano and Emanuel (1991), Emanuel et al. (1994), and Neelin

58 and Yu (1994), among others, have postulated such a model, with a typical reduction in the
59 Brunt-Väisälä frequency to approximately 30% of its dry value.

60 In their idealized model, Emanuel et al. (1994) assumed that convective inhibition is neg-
61 ligible over the tropical oceans. Actual measurements of convective inhibition over the ocean
62 (e.g., Raymond et al., 2003) show convective inhibition values that are undoubtedly much less
63 than they are over, say, the American high plains in the spring, but are nevertheless large
64 enough to play a significant role in tropical convective dynamics. Furthermore, Raymond
65 (1995) showed that surface heat and moisture fluxes were often more effective in reducing
66 convective inhibition than lifting by the weak mesoscale vertical motions typical of oceanic
67 regions. In such a situation, the initiation of deep convection by Ekman pumping may not
68 occur at all, especially if the Ekman pumping is being weakened by the low-level spin down
69 of the parent disturbance.

70 One might argue that the low-level convergence produced by a pre-existing region of con-
71 vection is a result of Ekman pumping; if the convection is in a statistically steady state, then
72 the steady relationship between friction, pressure gradient, and Coriolis force characteristic
73 of Ekman pumping must exist. However, this diagnostic relationship does not prove that the
74 Ekman pumping “caused” the convection. If Ekman pumping in the absence of convection is
75 insufficient to get the convection started in the first place, then the origin of the convection
76 must be sought elsewhere.

77 In modern numerical models of the atmosphere, no assumptions are made about the
78 nature of frictionally-induced convergence, so the considerations raised here do not apply
79 directly to the model results. However, they potentially apply to the interpretation of these
80 results. Such interpretations may not matter to the producers of model forecasts, but they
81 are important for understanding the physics of such models and attempts to make the models
82 better. Thus, we believe that it is of practical as well as of theoretical importance to sort out

83 issues of causality in the frictional atmospheric boundary layer.

84 As noted above, Raymond and Herman confined themselves to slab symmetry and to
85 the frictional convergence in single spectral modes. The present paper extends this work
86 to boundary layer flows in decaying, axisymmetric vortices. Axial symmetry is important
87 because tropical cyclones are often idealized as being axisymmetric and frequently have Ek-
88 man pumping, i.e., cloud base mass fluxes matched to frictionally converged mass, invoked
89 as a forcing mechanism for convection, e.g., Charney and Eliassen (1964), Ooyama (1964,
90 1969). Zhu et al. (2001) and Zehnder (2001) admit more complex convective closures in their
91 minimal cyclone models, comparing pure Ekman pumping closures with schemes based on
92 surface heat and moisture fluxes. Not surprisingly, significant differences in tropical cyclone
93 development exist among their various alternatives.

94 Mathematical tractability still limits us to the linear case, which imposes significant re-
95 strictions on the direct comparison with tropical cyclone observations. Nevertheless, the
96 results are interesting in their own right and can form the basis for future numerical calcu-
97 lations not limited by the constraints of linearization.

98 **2 Model for spin down in axisymmetry**

99 The hydrostatic, rotating Boussinesq equations linearized about a state of rest in cylindrical
100 coordinates (r, θ, z) for a stably stratified atmosphere in axisymmetry ($\partial/\partial\theta = 0$) are

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} - fv = -\frac{\partial \pi}{\partial r} + F_r \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{\partial v}{\partial t} + fu = F_\theta \quad (2)$$

$$\frac{\partial \pi}{\partial z} - b = 0 \quad (3)$$

$$\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial r u}{\partial r} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} = 0 \quad (4)$$

$$\frac{\partial b}{\partial t} + N^2 w = 0. \quad (5)$$

101 The velocity vector in the radial, azimuthal and vertical directions is (u, v, w) , the buoyancy
 102 perturbation is b , the kinematic pressure perturbation (the mean potential temperature times
 103 the Exner function) is π , f is the Coriolis parameter, and N is the Brunt-Väisälä frequency,
 104 assumed to be constant. Surface friction enters in the radial and azimuthal directions (F_r ,
 105 F_θ) as a frictional force per unit mass, assumed to be linear in velocity and decreasing
 106 exponentially with height:

$$F_r = -\lambda u_s \exp(-\mu z) \quad (6)$$

$$F_\theta = -\lambda v_s \exp(-\mu z). \quad (7)$$

107 The vector (u_s, v_s) is the surface wind, $\lambda = \mu C_D U_0$ is the inverse of the spin down time scale,
 108 where $C_D \approx 10^{-3}$ is the drag coefficient, U_0 is a characteristic velocity, and $\mu^{-1} = h_\mu$ is the
 109 depth over which surface friction acts.

110 The system of equations (1)-(5) can be combined into a differential equation for the time
 111 tendency of the kinematic pressure perturbation. Incorporating equations (6) and (7) leads
 112 to

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} + f^2\right) \frac{\partial^2 \pi_t}{\partial z^2} + N^2 \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left[r \left(\frac{\partial \pi_t}{\partial r} \right) \right] = \\ -N^2 \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left[r \lambda \left(f v_s + \frac{\partial u_s}{\partial t} \right) \exp(-\mu z) \right], \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

113 where $\pi_t = \partial\pi/\partial t$. To solve equation (8), we use the initial condition that $\pi(r, z) = \pi_G(r)$
 114 at all levels and assume that the surface wind (u_s, v_s) , surface pressure perturbation π_s , and
 115 time tendency of kinematic pressure perturbation π_t decay exponentially to zero with time
 116 according to $u_s, v_s, \pi_s, \pi_t \sim \exp(-\sigma t)$, as in Raymond and Herman (2012). Substituting the
 117 above mentioned time dependence into (8) results in

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2 \pi_t}{\partial z^2} + \frac{N^2}{\sigma^2 + f^2} \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r \frac{\partial \pi_t}{\partial r} \right) = \\ -\frac{N^2}{\sigma^2 + f^2} \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} [r \lambda (f v_s - \sigma u_s) \exp(-\mu z)]. \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

118 Evaluating equations (1)-(2) at the surface and solving them for surface winds u_s and v_s in
 119 terms of the surface pressure perturbation, we obtain:

$$u_s = -\frac{\lambda - \sigma}{f^2 + (\lambda - \sigma)^2} \frac{\partial \pi_s}{\partial r} \quad (10)$$

$$v_s = \frac{f}{f^2 + (\lambda - \sigma)^2} \frac{\partial \pi_s}{\partial r}. \quad (11)$$

120 Substituting these into (9), we find

$$\frac{\partial^2 \pi_t}{\partial z^2} + \frac{N^2}{\sigma^2 + f^2} \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r \frac{\partial \pi_t}{\partial r} \right) = -\frac{N^2 \lambda G(\sigma) \exp(-\mu z)}{\sigma^2 + f^2} \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r \frac{\partial \pi_s}{\partial r} \right), \quad (12)$$

121 where

$$G(\sigma) = \frac{f^2 + \sigma(\lambda - \sigma)}{f^2 + (\lambda - \sigma)^2}. \quad (13)$$

122 The solution to this equation can be written as the sum of homogeneous π_{ht} and in-
 123 homogeneous π_{it} parts. For the homogeneous part we assume z dependence of the form
 124 $\pi_{ht} \propto \exp(-mz)$, which allows the equation for π_{ht} to be written in the form

$$\frac{\partial^2 \pi_{ht}}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial \pi_{ht}}{\partial r} + \frac{(\sigma^2 + f^2)m^2}{N^2} \pi_{ht} = 0. \quad (14)$$

125 This is an unscaled form of Bessel's equation for the Bessel function of order zero. It has the
 126 solution

$$\pi_{ht} \propto J_0(kr) \quad (15)$$

127 where J_0 is the zeroth order Bessel function and

$$k = \frac{(\sigma^2 + f^2)^{1/2} m}{N} \quad (16)$$

128 is the radial wavenumber k . Note that σ will be determined later.

129 We write the full surface pressure distribution as a superposition of Bessel functions with

130 different radial wavenumbers k , i.e., in the form of an inverse Hankel transform

$$\pi_s = \int_0^\infty D(k) \exp(-\sigma t) J_0(kr) k dk \quad (17)$$

131 with the expectation that this form will lead to an analytical solution to the full problem.

132 The assumed time dependence $\exp(-\sigma t)$ is included explicitly. Note that σ in general is a

133 function of k . The inhomogeneous part of the solution for π_t can therefore be written as an

134 inverse Hankel transform as well,

$$\pi_{it} = \exp(-\mu z) \int_0^\infty C(k) \exp(-\sigma t) J_0(kr) k dk, \quad (18)$$

135 where C is proportional to D , but remains to be determined. The homogeneous part of the

136 solution can then be written

$$\pi_{ht} = \int_0^\infty A(k) \exp(-mz - \sigma t) J_0(kr) k dk \quad (19)$$

137 where the inverse of the vertical penetration depth of secondary circulation m is obtained

138 from (16):

$$m(k) = \frac{kN}{(\sigma^2 + f^2)^{1/2}}. \quad (20)$$

139 Putting these together results in

$$\pi_t(r, z) = \int_0^\infty [C(k) \exp(-\mu z - \sigma t) + A(k) \exp(-mz - \sigma t)] J_0(kr) k dk. \quad (21)$$

140 We determine $C(k)$ by noting that

$$-\sigma \pi_s(r) = \pi_t(r, 0), \quad (22)$$

141 which implies $-\sigma D(k) = C(k) + A(k)$, or

$$C = -A - \sigma D. \quad (23)$$

142 Hence,

$$\pi_t = \int_0^\infty [A(k) \exp(-mz) - (A(k) + \sigma D(k)) \exp(-\mu z)] \exp(-\sigma t) J_0(kr) k dk. \quad (24)$$

143 Requiring zero buoyancy perturbation at the surface implies that

$$\left(\frac{\partial \pi_t}{\partial z} \right)_{z=0} = 0, \quad (25)$$

144 which yields $A(k) = -\sigma \mu D(k) / (\mu - m)$ and hence

$$\pi_t = \int_0^\infty \sigma D(k) \left[\frac{m \exp(-\mu z) - \mu \exp(-mz)}{\mu - m} \right] \exp(-\sigma t) J_0(kr) k dk. \quad (26)$$

145 Plugging the solution (26) into the differential equation (12) leads to a dispersion relation
 146 that is identical to the one found using slab-symmetry in RH12:

$$\sigma(k) = \frac{\lambda m G(\sigma)}{m + \mu}. \quad (27)$$

147 Finally, our solution for the kinematic pressure perturbation is obtained by integrating (26)
 148 in time and requiring that $\pi = \pi_s(r, 0) = \pi_G(r)$ at $t = 0$:

$$\pi = \int_0^\infty D(k) \left\{ 1 - \frac{m \exp(-\mu z) - \mu \exp(-mz)}{m - \mu} [1 - \exp(-\sigma t)] \right\} J_0(kr) k dk. \quad (28)$$

149 The initial state of the flow is therefore unshered in the vertical with arbitrary radial struc-
 150 ture. Setting $z = 0$ reduces this to the assumed surface pressure perturbation (17).

151 The buoyancy and vertical velocity are obtained from (3) and (5):

$$b = \int_0^\infty D(k) \frac{m\mu [\exp(-\mu z) - \exp(-mz)]}{m - \mu} [1 - \exp(-\sigma t)] J_0(kr) k dk \quad (29)$$

$$w = - \int_0^\infty D(k) \frac{\sigma m \mu [\exp(-\mu z) - \exp(-mz)]}{N^2 (m - \mu)} \exp(-\sigma t) J_0(kr) k dk. \quad (30)$$

152 Using the identity

$$\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial r J_1(kr)}{\partial r} = k J_0(kr), \quad (31)$$

153 where J_1 is the Bessel function of order one, plus the mass continuity equation (4), we get
 154 an equation for the radial velocity component:

$$u = - \int_0^\infty D(k) \frac{\sigma m \mu [\mu \exp(-\mu z) - m \exp(-mz)]}{N^2 (m - \mu)} \exp(-\sigma t) J_1(kr) k dk. \quad (32)$$

155 The azimuthal velocity component is obtained from (1):

$$v = \frac{1}{f} \left[\lambda u_s \exp(-\mu z) + \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \pi}{\partial r} \right], \quad (33)$$

156 where

$$\frac{\partial \pi}{\partial r} = - \int_0^\infty D(k) \left\{ 1 - \frac{m \exp(-\mu z) - \mu \exp(-mz)}{m - \mu} [1 - \exp(-\sigma t)] \right\} J_1(kr) k^2 dk, \quad (34)$$

157 and

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \int_0^\infty D(k) \frac{\sigma^2 m \mu [\mu \exp(-\mu z) - m \exp(-m z)]}{N^2 (m - \mu)} \exp(-\sigma t) J_1(kr) dk. \quad (35)$$

158 Equation (33) can be written explicitly with help of (32), (34), and (35), but is not shown
 159 here due to its complexity.

160 3 Results and interpretation

161 We first analyze the surface winds derived in the previous section by invoking a simplified
 162 form of the dispersion relation. We then present computations of the radial structure of the
 163 radial and vertical winds for a specified radial distribution of surface pressure, given this
 164 simplified analysis.

165 3.1 Surface wind analysis

166 Our primary circulation is a rotating disturbance on which frictionally induced cross-isobaric
 167 flow acts, creating a secondary circulation. Friction is assumed to have an exponential decay
 168 in z : $F_{r,\theta} \propto \exp(-z/h_\mu)$ where we call $h_\mu = 1/\mu$ the surface friction depth. The charac-
 169 teristics of secondary circulation of interest in this analysis are the penetration depth of the
 170 secondary circulation $h_m = 1/m$ and the cross-isobaric wind u .

171 We simplify our system of equations by assuming a typical tropical boundary layer in a
 172 weakly disturbed region where winds are not too strong, i.e., $\lambda \ll f$. We note that $G(\sigma) \leq 1$
 173 for spin down times σ^{-1} greater than the rotational time scale f^{-1} , which constrains $\sigma \leq \lambda$
 174 for all positive real values of m .² Since $\lambda \ll f$, $G(\sigma) \approx 1$, resulting in $m(k) \approx Nk/f$ and
 175 $\sigma(k) \approx \lambda m/(m + \mu)$. The penetration depth of our secondary circulation is then $h_m \approx fL/N$,

²Solving the transcendental system (13), (20), and (27) reveals 6 distinct complex pairs of $\sigma(k)$ and $m(k)$. Only one pair is positive real with $\sigma(k) \leq \lambda$ for all values of k . The other pairs will be explored in a future work.

176 where L is the horizontal scale of the primary disturbance, $L = 1/k$. Thus, the secondary
 177 circulation depth increases in proportion to the horizontal scale of the disturbance.

178 We now compare the surface radial wind u_s predicted by our model with that for the
 179 steady state surface wind u_{ss} arising from classical Ekman pumping analysis. From (10) and
 180 (11) we infer that

$$u_s = - \left(\frac{\lambda - \sigma}{f} \right) v_s = - \frac{\lambda}{f} \left(\frac{\mu}{m + \mu} \right) v_s. \quad (36)$$

181 Neglecting the time derivative in (2) corresponds to setting $\sigma = 0$ in (36), so the steady state
 182 radial velocity is just

$$u_{ss} = - \left(\frac{\lambda}{f} \right) v_{ss} = - \frac{\lambda}{f^2 + \lambda^2} \frac{\partial \pi_s}{\partial r}, \quad (37)$$

183 where we have inferred the steady tangential surface wind v_{ss} by setting $\sigma = 0$ in (11):

$$v_{ss} = \frac{f}{f^2 + \lambda^2} \frac{\partial \pi_s}{\partial r}. \quad (38)$$

184 Taking the ratio of u_s to u_{ss} and employing the definitions of h_μ and h_m results in

$$u_s = \frac{h_m}{h_m + h_\mu} u_{ss}. \quad (39)$$

185 Since Ekman pumping is related to the cross-isobaric flow u , we conclude that

$$h_\mu \ll h_m \Rightarrow u_s \approx u_{ss} \Rightarrow \text{normal Ekman pumping} \quad (40)$$

$$h_\mu \gg h_m \Rightarrow u_s \ll u_{ss} \Rightarrow \text{suppressed Ekman pumping.} \quad (41)$$

186 Assuming that $h_m = fL/N$ with $f = 3 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and $N = 10^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and taking a plausible
 187 tropical boundary layer value of $h_\mu = 600 \text{ m}$, we find that $h_m \approx 300 \text{ m}$ for $L = 300 \text{ km}$ while

188 $h_m \approx 2900$ km for $L = 3000$ km. Thus at the smaller scale, $u_s \approx (1/3)u_{ss}$, while $u_s \approx u_{ss}$ for
 189 the larger scale. The steady state assumption for the cross-isobaric flow is therefore poor for
 190 scales smaller than several hundred kilometers.

191 3.2 Comparison with steady state case aloft

192 The steady state solutions for u and w aloft are relatively simple to compute from (2) and
 193 (4):

$$194 \quad u_{steady} = u_{ss} \exp(-\mu z) \quad (42)$$

$$w_{steady} = -\frac{1}{\mu r} \frac{\partial r u_{ss}}{\partial r} \quad (43)$$

195 where $u_{ss}(r)$ is the steady surface radial wind defined above. However, the full solutions,
 196 as represented by (30) and (32) are non-local and require the specification of the surface
 197 pressure as a function of radius at the initial time $t = 0$, which we assume to have the form

$$\pi_s(r, 0) = \pi_G(r) = -\frac{p'}{\rho_0 [1 + (r/L)^2]} \quad (44)$$

198 where p' is the initial pressure deficit in physical units at the center of the vortex, ρ_0 is the
 199 air density, and L is the scaling radius scaling the pressure anomaly. Since $\pi_s = \pi_G$ at time
 200 $t = 0$, we invert (17) to obtain $D(k)$,

$$D(k) = \int_0^\infty \pi_G(r) J_0(kr) r dr, \quad (45)$$

201 from which the full $u(r, z, t)$ and $w(r, z, t)$ may be computed using (30) and (32). The asso-
 202 ciated integrals are computed numerically and the validity of these computations is verified
 203 by showing that the inverse Hankel transform of a function followed by the corresponding
 204 forward transform returns the original function to acceptable accuracy.

205 We select values of p' such that the maximum tangential wind at $t = 0$ and $z = 0$
206 equals 5 m s^{-1} for values of L shown in table 1. The maximum wind occurs at radius
207 $r = r_{max} = L/3^{1/2}$ and we let $f = 3 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$, $\lambda = 8.3 \times 10^{-6} \text{ s}^{-1}$, and $\rho_0 = 1.2 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$.
208 The same simplified assumptions about the forms of m and σ used above are employed here.

209 The third column in table 1 gives the ratio of radial Coriolis force fv to the centrifugal
210 force v^2/r at the radius of maximum winds. A large value of this ratio means that geostrophic
211 balance in the tangential flow (as assumed here) is a good approximation. As table 1 shows,
212 geostrophic balance is a good approximation for the assumed maximum tangential wind of
213 5 m s^{-1} for L equal to 3000 km and 1000 km, marginal for 300 km, and poor for 100 km.
214 The rightmost column shows the vertical scale h_m of the secondary circulation.

215 Figure 1 shows the actual radial surface winds for the decaying vortex and for the steady
216 state approximation to these winds at time $t = 0$ for the cases listed in table 1. The actual
217 radial winds are always less than the steady state approximation, with a significant deficit
218 for the $L = 300 \text{ km}$ and $L = 100 \text{ km}$ cases. The radius of maximum radial inflow is also
219 slightly greater for the actual winds in comparison to the steady state.

220 Figure 2 shows the vertical velocity profile in the secondary circulation at a radius of
221 $r = L/10$ for the cases of table 1. The vertical velocity for the decaying vortex is significantly
222 less than that arising from the steady state assumption particularly at levels above the pen-
223 etration depth of the secondary circulation in the decaying case. Furthermore, the elevation
224 of maximum upward motion decreases drastically as L decreases, reflecting the decrease in
225 the penetration depth h_m .

226 4 Conclusions

227 The idea of Ekman pumping as a forcing mechanism for convection in the tropics is deeply
228 embedded in the conceptual structure of tropical meteorology. The classical formulation
229 of Ekman pumping assumes that the free tropospheric secondary circulation induced by
230 surface friction has a time scale for spin down that is long compared to the spin down
231 time of an isolated boundary layer. As a consequence of this, the time derivatives in the
232 horizontal components of the momentum equation are ignored in the boundary layer, resulting
233 in the classical expression for the cross-isobaric flow there and the associated vertical motion
234 (Ekman pumping).

235 Holton (1965) showed that the vertical scale of the secondary circulation resulting from
236 surface friction is limited by the stable stratification of the free troposphere, resulting in a
237 free tropospheric spin down time much smaller than is normally assumed. This result implies
238 that the momentum equation time derivatives cannot be ignored for a decaying vortex in the
239 derivation of the cross-isobaric flow in the boundary layer. As a consequence, the classical
240 Ekman pumping equation is incorrect and the vertical motion can actually be much smaller
241 than estimated by classical theory.

242 Raymond and Herman (2012) put numbers to this result for a zonal jet structure periodic
243 in the meridional direction and found that the actual cross-isobaric flow and secondary cir-
244 culation are much shallower and weaker than the classical result for lateral jet scales of order
245 several hundred kilometers or less. We extend this analysis to axisymmetric vortices with
246 arbitrary radial structure, with similar consequences. A particularly interesting result illus-
247 trated here is that the vertical velocity is not only weaker than the classical Ekman pumping
248 result, but it also exhibits a vertical scale that decreases with vortex size. This reflects the
249 vertical scale of the secondary circulation.

250 These results are applicable, at least approximately, to weak tropical waves with radial
251 scales of several hundred kilometers. They are technically limited to weak disturbances
252 because of the linearization of the governing equations about a state of rest.

253 We point out that the current results would be modified in the direction of the classical
254 Ekman pumping result if the disturbances of interest were coupled to moist convection in
255 a manner that results in a reduction of the effective Brunt-Väisälä frequency. However,
256 we argue in the introduction of this paper that such a model for the interaction of moist
257 convection with the boundary layer flow is oversimplified. Our experience in the tropics
258 argues for a much looser relationship between weak, large-scale vertical motion and moist
259 convection, a relationship in which it is easier to separate cause from effect. If convection
260 exists in association with frictionally modulated convergence in the boundary layer, then the
261 convection cannot be thought of as being caused by this convergence unless the convergence
262 would have existed initially in the absence of the convection. Unless this is so, the convergence
263 is more likely to be a consequence of the convection rather than vice versa, and what is naively
264 perceived as convection being forced by Ekman pumping in fact often is not.

265 This result is important, since it gives us a completely different conceptual picture of
266 the forcing of moist convection in the tropics than exists in tropical meteorology today. An
267 incorrect picture can lead us to causally incorrect choices in such things as the construction
268 of cumulus parameterizations in large-scale atmospheric models.

269 A technical limitation of the current results and those of Raymond and Herman (2012) is
270 that associated with the linearization of the governing equations. Overcoming this limitation
271 is needed to extend the results to more realistic situations such as the behavior of convection
272 in a developing tropical cyclone.

273 Another limitation is that the primary circulation (vortical or linear in structure) must
274 actually spin down in the absence of deep convection. In other words, the circulation must

275 not have an external energy source exclusive of deep convection that keeps frictional dissipa-
276 tion from spinning it down. An example in which such an energy source exists is a circulation
277 driven by gradients in sea surface temperature. In such a circulation, boundary layer con-
278 vergence modulated by friction may coexist with deep convection, but one cannot argue that
279 friction causes this convection; the sea surface temperature gradient is the prime mover here.

280 *Acknowledgments.* This work was sponsored by National Science Foundation grant num-
281 ber ATM-1021049.

282 5 References

283 **Charney, J.**, 1971: Tropical cyclogenesis and the formation of the intertropical convergence
284 zone. *Lectures in Applied Mathematics*, **13**, American Mathematical Society, 355-368.

285 **Charney, J.**, 1973: Movable CISK. *J. Atmos. Sci.*, **30**, 50-52.

286 **Charney, J. G.**, and A. Eliassen, 1949: A numerical method for predicting the perturbations
287 of the middle-latitude westerlies. *Tellus*, **1**, 38-54.

288 **Charney, J. G.** and A. Eliassen, 1964: On the growth of the hurricane depression. *J.*
289 *Atmos. Sci.*, **21**, 68-75.

290 **Emanuel, K. A.**, J. D. Neelin, and C. S. Bretherton, 1994: On large-scale circulations in
291 convecting atmospheres. *Quart. J. Roy. Meteor. Soc.*, **120**, 1111-1143.

292 **Holton, J. R.**, 1965: The influence of viscous boundary layers on transient motions in a
293 stratified rotating fluid: Part I. *J. Atmos. Sci.*, **22**, 402-411.

294 **Holton, J. R.**, J. M. Wallace, and J. A. Young, 1971: On boundary layer dynamics and the
295 ITCZ. *J. Atmos. Sci.*, **28**, 275-280.

- 296 **Holton**, J. R., 1974: On the influence of boundary layer friction on mixed Rossby-gravity
297 waves. *Tellus*, **27**, 107-115
- 298 **Lindzen**, R. S., and S. Nigam, 1987: On the role of sea surface temperature gradients in
299 forcing low-level winds and convergence in the tropics. *J. Atmos. Sci.*, **44**, 2418-2436.
- 300 **Neelin**, J. D., and J.-Y. Yu, 1994: Modes of tropical variability under convective adjustment
301 and the Madden-Julian oscillation. Part I: Analytical theory. *J. Atmos. Sci.*, **51**,
302 1876-1894.
- 303 **Ooyama**, K., 1964: A dynamical model for the study of tropical cyclone development.
304 *Geofisica Internacional*, **4**, 187-198.
- 305 **Ooyama**, K., 1969: Numerical simulation of the life cycle of tropical cyclones. *J. Atmos.*
306 *Sci.*, **26**, 3-40.
- 307 **Raymond**, D. J., 1995: Regulation of moist convection over the west Pacific warm pool.
308 *J. Atmos. Sci.*, **52**, 3945-3959.
- 309 **Raymond**, D. J. and M. J. Herman, 2012: Frictional convergence, atmospheric convection,
310 and causality. *Atmósfera*, **25**, 253-267.
- 311 **Raymond**, D. J., G. B. Raga, C. S. Bretherton, J. Molinari, C. López-Carrillo, and Ž.
312 Fuchs, 2003: Convective forcing in the intertropical convergence zone of the eastern
313 Pacific. *J. Atmos. Sci.*, **60**, 2064-2082.
- 314 **Wang**, B., 1988: Dynamics of tropical low-frequency waves: An analysis of the moist Kelvin
315 wave. *J. Atmos. Sci.*, **45**, 2051-2065.
- 316 **Wang**, B., and H. Rui, 1990: Dynamics of the coupled moist Kelvin-Rossby wave on an
317 equatorial beta plane. *J. Atmos. Sci.*, **47**, 397-413.

318 **Yano**, J.-I., and K. Emanuel, 1991: An improved model of the equatorial troposphere and
319 its coupling with the stratosphere. *J. Atmos. Sci.*, **48**, 377-389.

320 **Zehnder**, J. A., 2001: A comparison of convergence- and surface-flux-based convective pa-
321 rameterizations with applications to tropical cyclogenesis. *J. Atmos. Sci.*, **58**,
322 283-301.

323 **Zhu**, H., R. K. Smith, and W. Ulrich, 2001: A minimal three-dimensional tropical cyclone
324 model. *J. Atmos. Sci.*, **58**, 1924-1944.

L (km)	p' (hPa)	$(fv)/(v^2/r_{max})$	h_m (km)
3000	8.40	10.4	9.0
1000	2.80	3.46	3.0
300	0.84	1.04	0.9
100	0.28	0.35	0.3

Table 1: Parameters used in the numerical computations and the resulting value of h_m . L is the scaling radius for the initial pressure distribution. The pressure deficit at the center of the distribution p' is chosen so that the maximum tangential wind is 5 m s^{-1} . The next column shows the ratio of Coriolis force to centrifugal force at the radius of maximum wind $r = r_{max} = L/3^{1/2}$. The rightmost column is h_m , the vertical scale of the secondary circulation.

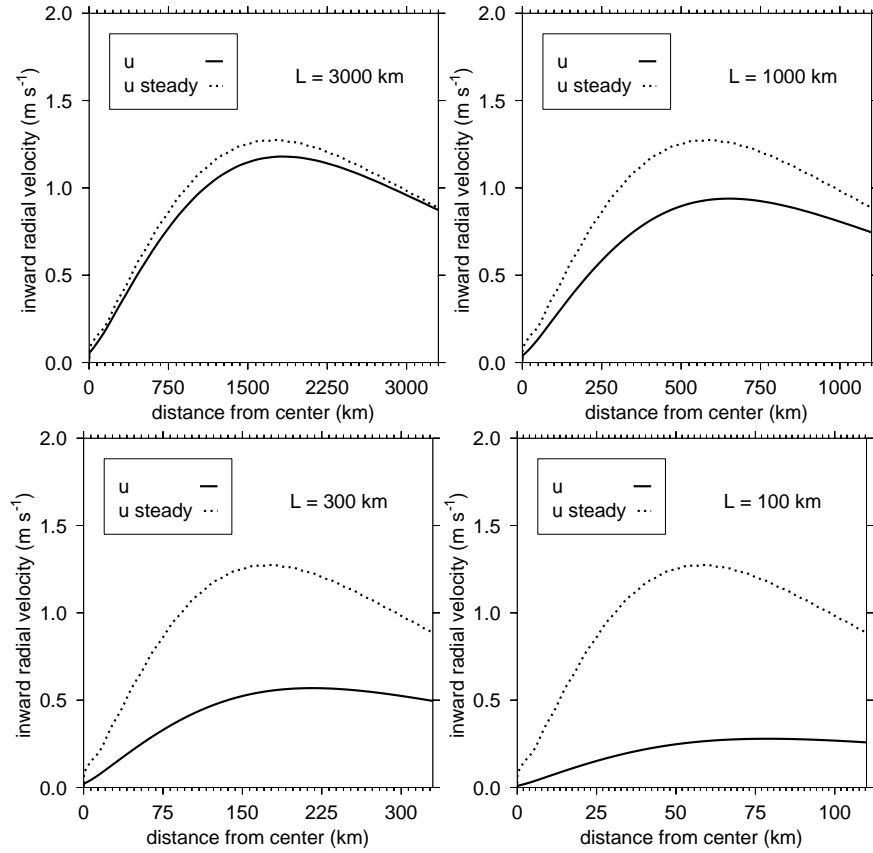


Figure 1: Surface radial velocity (solid) and corresponding steady state radial velocity (dotted) profiles for the initial radial distributions of perturbation pressure given in table 1. An inward velocity is taken as positive here.

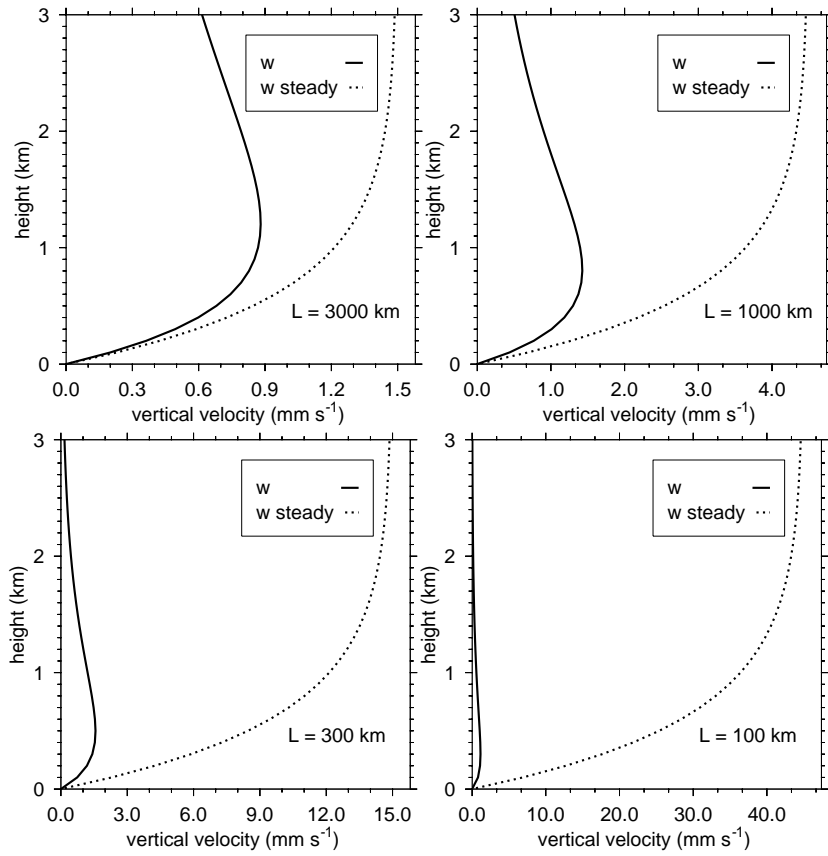


Figure 2: Vertical velocity (solid) and corresponding steady state vertical velocity (dotted) profiles at time $t = 0$ and radius $r = L/10$ corresponding to the cases illustrated in figure 1.