On the dynamical causes of variability in the rain-shadow effect: A case study of the Washington Cascades

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### Rain shadow variability

• December precipitation in the Washington Cascades



- Large interannual variability
- Significant economic impacts
  - Fish, farmers, utilities and communities depend on leeside precipitation

## Snowfall Telemetry (SNOTEL) Data

- 6 stations
- 29 years of data
- 2 degrees of freedom across transect
- Well characterized by stations 1 & 6 alone



#### An orthogonal basis set for wintertime precip

- P<sub>1</sub> = normalized DJF precipitation at station 1
- P<sub>6</sub> = normalized DJF precipitation at station 6
- 2 orthogonal indices:

 $P_1 + P_6$ : Total Precipitation Index (*T*)  $P_1 - P_6$ : Rain Shadow Index (*R*)

• *R* explains ~30% of interannual variability

## Motivating questions

- 1) How is variability in *T* and *R* related to the large-scale circulation?
- 2) How do storm dynamics influence rain-shadow strength?

#### Circulation anomalies associated with T and R





Total precipitation pattern

- High total precip = WSW flow anom
- Strong rain shadow = NNW flow anom

Rain shadow pattern

500mb height anomalies regressed on T and R. Solid (dotted) lines represent positive (negative) height anomalies. Shaded areas are statistically significant at 95% confidence level.

#### Rain shadow strength is related to ENSO

- Rain-shadow pattern closely resembles the ENSO teleconnection pattern
- Correlation table:
- T
   R

   DJF Niño 3 index
   0.03
   -0.50
- ENSO affects the rain shadow but not total precipitation



Niño 3 pattern (inverted)



Rain shadow pattern

#### **Relevance for predictability**

- ENSO is the only source of predictability beyond ~1 month
- Consequences:
  - 1) *R* has some predictability; *T* does not

Correlation b/t **Nov** Nino 3 index & **DJF** rain shadow = -0.54

2) The pattern is more predictable than the amount

## Why does ENSO do this?

- Spillover?
  - Not consistent with ENSO wind anomalies
- Storms provide clues...









- Identified 100 strongest storms b/t 2005 and 2010
  - Based on MM5/WRF 24-hour precipitation totals in Cascades (defined as region inside pink box below)



- Calculated rain-shadow index as before
- 3 categories
  - 33 Weak-rain-shadow storms
  - 33 Strong-rain-shadow storms
  - 34 Neutral-rain-shadow storms

 Weak-rain-shadow storms bring more precip to south



Difference in average precipitation between strong-rain-shadow storms and weak-rain-shadow storms (cm)

2. Weak-rain-shadow storms are more common in winter, when the storm track is further south



 Weak-rain-shadow storms more warm-air advection (0.62 K s<sup>-1</sup> vs. 0.31 K s<sup>-1</sup>)

Weak-rain-shadow storms
 Strong-rain-shadow storms
 Neutral-rain-shadow storms



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• Case studies provide some clues...

#### MM5 case studies

- Strong-rain-shadow case
  - Dec. 2-3, 2007
  - Cascades in warm sector

- Weak-rain-shadow case
  - Jan. 31-Feb. 1, 2006
  - Warm front crosses Cascades



Sea level pressure (solid contours) and 1000-850 hPa thickness (colors)

#### **Precipitation patterns**



#### **Precipitation patterns**



In both cases, winds are parallel to transect at 775 hPa

### Synoptic-scale w ( $\lambda > 240$ km)

- Synoptic-scale ascent is inconsistent with rainshadow differences
- Implicates smaller-scale processes



#### **Mesoscale Dynamics**



#### Summary

- 2 degrees of freedom in wintertime Cascade precipitation
  - Total precipitation (*T*)
  - Rain shadow (R)
- ENSO influences R via storm-track latitude
  - El Niño = southern storm track = weaker rain shadow
  - -R is more predictable than T
- Warm-air advection is key to weak rain shadows
  - Mountain-wave influence is strongly suggested

#### The End



#### **ENSO** and storm-track latitude



 El Niño (La Niña) = southern (northern) storm track

#### Weak RS case study



#### Strong RS case study



#### $P_1$ and $P_6$ circulation anomalies



#### 4. Synoptic controls

#### Mountain-wave primer

From the linearized Boussinesq equations, the 2-D **steady** solution for vertical velocity in **Fourier space** is

$$\widehat{w}_{zz} + (l^2 - k^2)\widehat{w} = 0,$$

where k is the horizontal wavenumber and  $l^2$  is the 'Scorer parameter':

$$l^2 = \frac{N^2}{\overline{U}^2} - \frac{\overline{U}_{zz}}{\overline{U}}$$

Condition for waves to propagate vertically:

$$l^2 > k^2$$
.

Lower boundary condition:

$$w = \overline{U} \cdot \frac{\partial h}{\partial x}, \qquad \widehat{w} = i \overline{U} k \widehat{h}(k)$$

#### 4. Synoptic controls

#### Mountain-wave primer



Source: Durran 1990

#### 4. Synoptic controls

#### Mountain-wave primer

- Important points:
  - 1) The mountain height affects the amplitude of the vertical velocity field
  - 2) If  $l_z < 0$ , waves can become evanescent, leading to decay or reflection
  - 3) Waves break at a critical level where  $\overline{U} \to 0$

4. Synoptic controls How might warm fronts lead to weaker mountain waves?

- Mechanism # 1: Blocking
  - High low-level stability can prevent the flow from ascending to the crest, and it is diverted poleward
  - Effective mountain height is reduced, leading to lower-amplitude waves (Smith 2002)



4. Synoptic controls How might warm fronts lead to weaker mountain waves?

- Mechanism # 2: Directional critical level
  - Veering results in the cross-barrier component of the flow approaching zero
  - Waves cannot propagate through critical level



4. Synoptic controls How might warm fronts lead to weaker mountain waves?

- Mechanism # 3: Transition to evanescent waves
  - A sharp decline in static stability above the frontal zone can result in  $l^2 < k^2$
  - Waves decay or reflect back to the surface

