



1           **Effects of longwave radiative cooling on advection fog over the**  
2           **Northwest Pacific Ocean: Observations and large eddy simulations**

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## Abstract

11 During the boreal summer, the prevailing southerlies traverse the sharp sea surface  
12 temperature (SST) front in the Northwest Pacific (NWP) Ocean, creating a stable air-  
13 sea interface characterized by surface air temperature (SAT) higher than SST, which  
14 promotes the frequent occurrence of advection fog. However, long-term shipborne  
15 observations reveal that during episodes of advection fog, SAT usually decreases below  
16 SST, with a peak relative frequency (~34.5%) to all fog observations before sunrise and  
17 a minimum relative frequency (~18.8%) before sunset. From a Lagrangian perspective,  
18 this study employs a turbulence-closure large-eddy simulation (LES) model to trace a  
19 fog column across the SST front and investigates how SAT drops below the SST during  
20 an advection fog event. The LES model, incorporating constant solar radiation,  
21 successfully simulates the evolution of advection fog and the negative SAT-SST.  
22 Simulation results show that once the near-surface air condenses, the thermal  
23 turbulence is generated by strong longwave radiation cooling (LWC) at the fog top. The  
24 influence of LWC on the fog layer surpasses the cooling effect of the near-surface  
25 mechanical turbulence ~2 hours after the fog formation, while the fog column is still  
26 positioned over the SST front. When the fog column arrives the cold flank of the SST  
27 front, the top-down developing mixed layer induced by the LWC reaches the surface,  
28 causing the SAT to drop below SST. The LES model with diurnal solar radiation well  
29 simulates the diurnal variation in SAT-SST during the fog event, suggesting that the  
30 model captures the essential processes responsible for negative SAT-SST. This study  
31 highlights the significance of fog-top cooling and its associated thermal turbulence in  
32 the evolution of advection fog. Given the challenges faced by numerical weather  
33 prediction models in forecasting sea fog, our findings suggest that observations of  
34 negative SAT-SST during advection fog episodes present an opportunity to enhance the  
35 performance of these models in simulating the thermal turbulence induced by the LWC  
36 at the fog top.

37



## 38 **1. Introduction**

39 The northwest Pacific Ocean experiences heavy sea fog during summer (Wang,  
40 1985; Koračin and Dorman, 2017), which is of great importance due to its significant  
41 impact on maritime activities (Gultepe et al., 2007; Trémant, 1987). However, present  
42 numerical weather prediction models struggle to accurately forecast sea fog (Gao et al.,  
43 2007), partly because their coarse resolutions inadequately resolve boundary-layer  
44 processes within the thin fog layer with depths of hundreds of meters (Yang et al., 2019).  
45 Therefore, enhancing our understanding of turbulent boundary-layer processes  
46 becomes imperative for refining the accuracy of sea fog predictions.

47 The sea surface temperature (SST) gradient related to the Kuroshio Extension  
48 often triggers advection fog under summertime warm advection (Wang, 1985; Koračin  
49 and Dorman, 2017). The prevailing southerlies on the western flank of the subtropical  
50 high transport warm, humid air across the Kuroshio Extension front (Zhang et al., 2014;  
51 Long et al., 2016; Koracin and Dorman, 2017). The abrupt decline in SST effectively  
52 cools the near-surface humid air through mechanical turbulence, resulting in air  
53 saturation and fog formation (Taylor, 1917; Rodhe, 1962; Lewis et al., 2004; Gao et al.,  
54 2007; Yang et al., 2020). However, the near-surface cooling induced by mechanical  
55 turbulence appears to be important in the initial phase of advection fog (Hu et al., 2006).

56 Once fog forms, the longwave radiation cooling (LWC) effect at the fog top  
57 commences to influence fog evolution. Earlier observational studies conjectured that  
58 the LWC at the fog top plays an important role in the fog's development and  
59 maintenance (Douglas, 1930; Lamb, 1943; Petterssen, 1938; Findlater et al., 1989). The  
60 LWC at the fog top induces negative buoyancy and thermal turbulence (Bretherton and  
61 Wyant, 1997; Gerber et al., 2005, 2013; Guan et al., 1997; Yamaguchi and Randall,  
62 2008; Koračin and Dorman, 2017). This thermal turbulence further promotes vertical  
63 mixing and cools the fog layer (Rogers and Koračin, 1992; Koracin et al., 2001, 2005;  
64 Yang et al., 2018). Huang et al. (2015) identified a so-called thermal turbulence  
65 interface, which separates the thermal turbulence induced by the fog-top LWC and near-  
66 surface mechanical turbulence. Despite previous studies recognizing the significance



67 of the LWC at the fog top, its relative importance to the near-surface cooling by the  
68 mechanical turbulence remains to be determined.

69 Observational evidence underscores the significance of the LWC at fog top, as  
70 surface air temperature (SAT) occasionally falls below SST during advection fog  
71 episodes. This means that the sea surface acts to heat the fog layer (referred to as sea  
72 fog with sea surface heating [ssH] hereafter). Instances of ssH fog have been reported  
73 in advection fog events over the Yellow Sea (Zhang et al., 2012; Zhang and Ren, 2010),  
74 during the haar peak over the North Sea (Lamb et al., 1943), and in the fog off the  
75 California coast (Leipper, 1948, 1994), as well as off the northeastern coast of Scotland  
76 (Findlater et al. 1989). Based on long-term buoy observations, Yang et al. (2018) found  
77 that the relative frequency of ssH fog to advection fog reaches up to ~30% over the  
78 Yellow Sea in summer. Their composite analysis revealed that ssH fog is associated  
79 with stronger atmospheric subsidence, a drier free atmosphere, and sharper capping  
80 inversions, indicative of a crucial role of the fog-top LWC for ssH fog. However, limited  
81 observations of the boundary-layer vertical structure over the sea inhibit the  
82 understanding of how fog-top LWC influences advection fog and leads to a negative  
83 SAT-SST.

84 In comparison to numerical weather prediction models, large eddy simulations  
85 (LES) with higher resolutions are capable of explicitly resolving larger thermal  
86 turbulent eddies within the boundary layer. LES has been successfully employed in  
87 studies related to clouds (Bretherton and Wyant, 1997; Wyant et al., 1997; Stevens 2000,  
88 2007; Savic-Jovci and Stevens, 2008; McGibbon and Bretherton, 2017) and continental  
89 fog (Nakanishi, 2000; Bergot, 2013, 2016; Mazoyer et al. 2016; Maronga and Bosveld  
90 2017; Schwenkel and Maronga 2019). Recently, the application of LES has extended  
91 to sea fog (Yang et al., 2021; Wainwright and Richter, 2021). Yang et al. (2021) used  
92 the climatological subsidence to force a LES model to study an advection fog event  
93 over the NWP. They found that the fog-top thermal turbulence induced by the LWC  
94 entrains the drier free atmospheric air into the boundary layer, which evaporates near-  
95 surface fog droplets, leading to a transition of fog into stratus. This simulated fog-to-  
96 stratus transition based on LES is consistent with that in long-term observations.



97 Wainwright and Richter (2021) attempted to use LES to examine the sensitivity of sea  
98 fog to the cloud-droplet number concentration, turbulent mixing, and SAT-SST.

99 The present study primarily focuses on the ssH fog during advection fog episodes.  
100 We first analyze the statistical features of the ssH fog over the NWP using long-term  
101 shipborne observations. ssH fog was observed during the advection fog episode studied  
102 by Yang et al. (2021). Thus, this study extends the LES simulation conducted by Yang  
103 et al. (2021) by forcing the LES with more realistic free-atmospheric subsidence to  
104 specifically investigate the boundary-layer processes responsible for ssH fog. We  
105 quantify the heat budgets of the fog layer based on the LES results to compare the  
106 effects of fog-top LWC and near-surface cooling and identify the interface between the  
107 thermal and mechanical turbulence. The results highlight the importance of the fog-top  
108 cooling and its induced thermal turbulence on the evolution of advection fog.

109 The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the data sets and methods  
110 used in this study. Section 3 analyzes the observational characteristics of sea fog with  
111 ssH over the NWP. Section 4 presents the simulation results obtained using constant  
112 solar radiation and diurnal cycle radiation. Section 5 provides a summary and  
113 discussions.

114

## 115 **2. Data and method**

### 116 **2.1 ICOADS and ERA5**

117 We use shipborne observations provided by the International Comprehensive  
118 Ocean–Atmosphere Data Set (ICOADS) to investigate the occurrence of sea fog over  
119 the summer NWP. Fog is identified when the present-weather code is between 10 and  
120 12 or between 40 and 49, and the visibility is lower than 1 km (Bari et al., 2016; Yang  
121 et al., 2021). In addition, we also use the SST, SAT, and 10 m winds to examine the sea-  
122 air interface conditions during sea fog. We include  $\sim 6 \times 10^4$  fog reports over the NWP  
123 between 1998 and 2018 to explore the sea fog climatologies and select a fog case that  
124 took place during 1- 4 July 2013 for further analysis and simulation.

125 To construct the idealized initial conditions for the sea fog simulation, we use the



126 fifth generation of the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts  
127 atmospheric reanalysis (ERA5, Hersbach et al., 2020). ERA5 fields are on a  $0.25^\circ \times$   
128  $0.25^\circ$  grid with 16 levels below 500 hPa.

## 129 **2.2 UCLA-LES model**

130 UCLA-LES is a three-dimensional, turbulence-closure boundary layer model,  
131 which has prognostic variables such as total water mixing ratio  $q_t$ , liquid water potential  
132 temperature  $\theta_l$ , three components of wind, and turbulent fluxes. This model is often  
133 used to simulate stable, neutral, and convective boundary layers (Stevens et al., 2005).

134 The parameterization for subgrid fluxes in UCLA-LES is based on the  
135 Smagorinsky–Lilly model (Smagorinsky, 1963; Lilly, 1967) to satisfy the model  
136 closure. This model can explicitly compute the thermal turbulent flux and appropriately  
137 describe the turbulent mixing process within the boundary layer (Stevens et al., 2005;  
138 Jiang et al., 2006). The radiative transfer is calculated by the  $\delta$ -four-stream method (Fu  
139 and Liou, 1993; Pincus and Stevens, 2009). The radiative fluxes are calculated based  
140 on the background profiles of pressure, temperature, humidity, and ozone content  
141 (Stevens et al., 2003). The model has a warm-rain microphysical scheme (Seifert and  
142 Beheng, 2001) that assumes that cloud droplets are in equilibrium at a fixed  
143 concentration. The microphysics process is expressed by including the interaction  
144 within the same type and between different types of cloud and raindrops. We set a  
145 specified  $100 \times 10^6$  g kg<sup>-1</sup> cloud-droplet mixing ratio in our simulations.

## 146 **2.3 Diagnostic equations**

147 We analyze the budget of domain-averaged heat and water vapor to investigate the  
148 related physical processes responsible for sea fog evolution. The heat budget is  
149 calculated using

$$150 \quad \frac{\partial \bar{\theta}}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial \overline{w'\theta'}}{\partial z} - \frac{L_v E}{\bar{\rho} C_p} - \frac{1}{\bar{\rho} C_p} \frac{\partial \bar{Q}}{\partial z}, \quad (1)$$

151 where  $\theta$  is potential temperature. The term on the right-hand side (RHS) describes the  
152 heat change from turbulent mixing, latent heat releasing, and the radiation effect.  $\overline{w'\theta'}$   
153 is the sum of resolved and sub-scale parameterized turbulent heat flux.  $L_v$  is the latent  
154 heat release of condensation or evaporation.  $\rho$  is air density.  $C_p = 1004.67$  J kg<sup>-1</sup> K<sup>-1</sup> is



155 specific heat of moist air.  $Q$  is radiation flux. The water vapor budget equation is

$$156 \quad \frac{\partial \bar{q}_v}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial \overline{w'q_v'}}{\partial z} - \frac{E}{\bar{\rho}}, \quad (2)$$

157 where  $q_v$  is water vapor mixing ratio. The terms on the RHS describe the  $q_v$  change from  
158 turbulent mixing effect and evaporation/condensation.  $\overline{w'q_v'}$  is the sum of resolved and  
159 sub-scale turbulent water vapor flux.

160 To diagnose the turbulent mixing process responsible for heat and moist variation,  
161 we compute the turbulent kinetic energy (TKE) budget using

$$162 \quad \frac{\partial \overline{TKE}}{\partial t} = +\frac{g}{\bar{\theta}_v} \left( \overline{u_i' \theta_v'} \right) - \overline{u_i' u_3'} \frac{\partial \bar{u}_i}{\partial x_3} - \frac{\partial (\overline{u_3' TKE})}{\partial x_3} - \varepsilon, \quad (3)$$

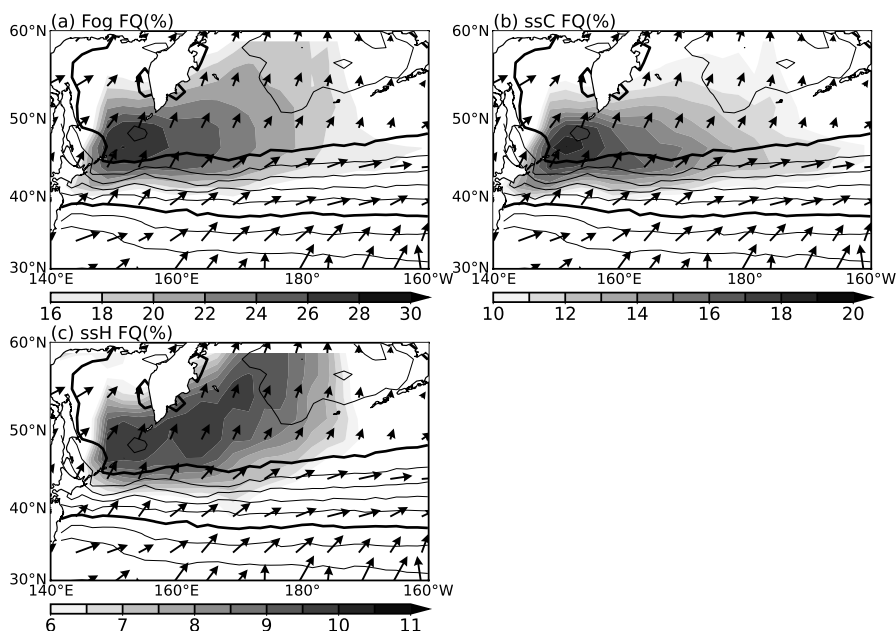
163 where subscripts  $i = 1, 2,$  and  $3$  represent  $x, y,$  and  $z$  coordinates. The four terms on the  
164 RHS represent buoyancy production, mechanical production from wind shear, the  
165 vertical transport of TKE, and TKE dissipation due to friction, respectively.

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### 167 **3. Advection fog with ssH in ICOADS observations**

#### 168 **3.1 Statistical features of ssH fog**

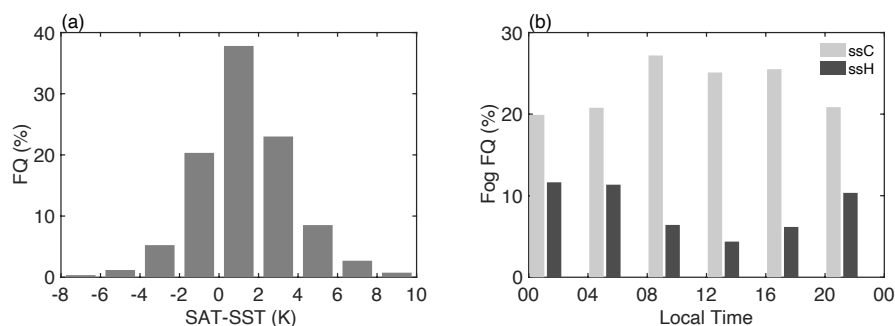
169 To isolate advection fog, we trace back each ICOADS fog observation for 48 hours,  
170 using the 6-hourly horizontal wind fields ERA5 at 10 m. Our analysis includes 43,105  
171 fog observations originating from warmer waters during the period of 1998-2018.  
172 Figure 1 shows the climatological frequency of advection fog, fog with sea surface  
173 cooling (ssC, SAT-SST > 0), and fog with ssH over the NWP during June-July-August  
174 (JJA). Advection fog is frequently observed on the cold flank of the Kuroshio Extension  
175 front, with a peak frequency of ~30% near the Kuril Islands, where intense tidal mixing  
176 results in SSTs below 10°C (Fig. 1a; Tokinaga and Xie, 2009). Advection fog with ssC  
177 primarily appears in a band-shaped region between 40°N and 52°N, a distribution  
178 similar to that of all advection fog (Fig. 1a, b). The frequency of ssH fog also peaks at  
179 ~10% near the Kuril Islands (Fig. 1c), but its region of maximal occurrence extends  
180 further downstream to the north of 52°N. A detailed comparison of Figs. 1a and 1b  
181 suggests that approximately half of the ssC fog transitions into ssH fog as the fog  
182 column migrates northward under prevailing southwesterlies.



183  
184 FIG. 1 Climatological SST (contours with 2-K intervals), surface winds (vectors,  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ), and  
185 frequencies (shading, %) of fog with (a) ssC and (b) ssH during June-July-August for 1998-2018. 283  
186 K and 293 K SST contours are thickened. The SST and winds are based on ERA5, and the fog  
187 frequencies are obtained from ICOADS.

188 Figure 2 illustrates the probability density function (PDF) of the simultaneous  
189 SAT-SST values concurrent with advection fog over the NWP during JJA. The  
190 majority of these SAT-SST values exceed  $0^\circ\text{C}$  (Fig. 2), which is consistent with the  
191 observational results of Fu and Song (2014). However, a substantial proportion  
192 ( $\sim 27.5\%$ ) of advection fog in the NWP is associated with ssH fog. Based on coastal  
193 buoy observations, Yang et al. (2019) reported that  $\sim 30\%$  of SAT falls below SST  
194 during fog events in the Yellow Sea. Li et al. (2022) also observed  $\sim 32\%$  fog is with  
195 ssH over the northeast Pacific during winter. The consistent observations of advection  
196 fog with ssH imply that cooling mechanisms other than near-surface turbulent cooling  
197 have a substantial impact on the evolution of advection fog.





198

199 FIG. 2 (a) Probability density function (%) of SAT-SST ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) concurrent with fog observations over the  
200 NWP ( $30\text{-}60^{\circ}\text{N}$ ,  $140\text{-}200^{\circ}\text{E}$ ) during June-July-August based on ICOADS. (b) The frequencies of fog  
201 with ssH (dark grey bars) and ssC (light grey) as functions of local time.

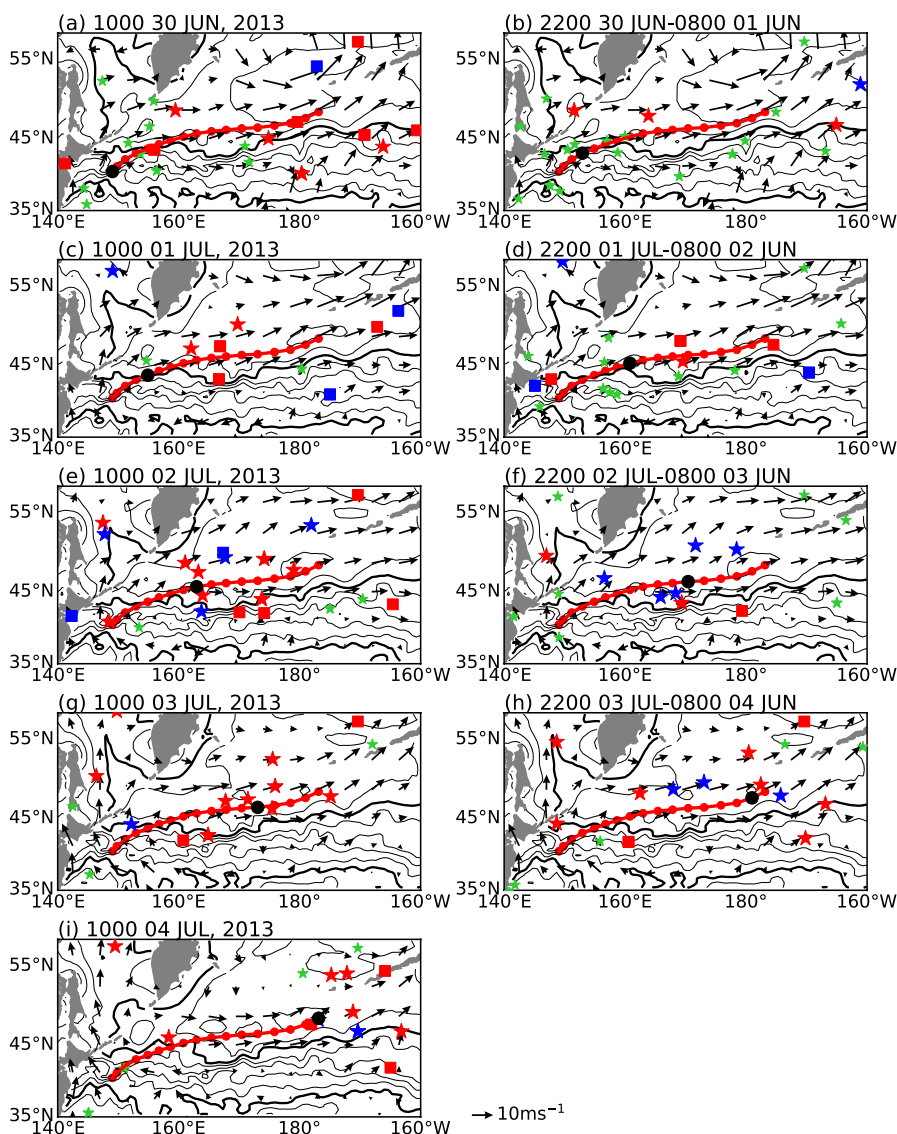
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203 There is a noticeable diurnal variation in ssH fog over the NWP (dark grey bars  
204 in Fig. 2b). Local time is determined based on the universal time of fog observations  
205 and their respective longitudes. The frequency of ssH fog reaches its maximum  
206 ( $\sim 11.5\%$ ) and minimum ( $\sim 4\%$ ) during 0000-0400 and 1200-1600 local time,  
207 respectively (the dark grey bars in Fig. 2b). Relative to all advection fog occurrences,  
208 the frequency of ssH fog is  $\sim 18.8\%$  during the daytime and increases to  $\sim 34.5\%$  at  
209 night. In contrast, the frequency of ssC fog is highest around sunrise (the light grey  
210 bars in Fig. 2b) and does not exhibit a clear diurnal variation. The evident diurnal  
211 cycle of ssH fog over the open sea is new to our knowledge and suggests that the  
212 radiative balance over fog top significantly alters the evolution of advection fog.

### 212 3.2 An ssH fog case

213

214 We examine the advection fog event during 01- 04 July 2013 over the NWP. The  
215 synoptic steady southwesterlies over the SST front caused the fog event (Fig. 4), and  
216 ICOADS observations reported no precipitation during this period. Further information  
217 regarding this fog event can be found in Yang et al. (2021). Our primary focus is on the  
218 negative SAT-SST observations during this fog episode (Fig. 4). Fog was first reported  
219 near the Kuril Islands at the night of 30 June (red stars in Figs. 2b), concurring with  
220 positive SAT-SST. The southwesterly winds, along with positive SAT-SST, signify the  
221 event as advection fog. As the saturated air moved northeastward, negative SAT-SST  
222 was detected within the fog patch during 02-04 July (blue stars in Figs. 4e-h). Notably,  
most of the ssH fog occurred at night.



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FIG. 4 ICOADS observations of the advection fog event during 30 June - 03 July, 2013. The blue and red stars represent ssH and ssC fog, respectively, and squares indicate stratus, and green stars indicate other cloud types or clear sky. The ICOADS observations and ERA5 10-m winds near 1000 LST from 30 June to 04 July are shown in (a), (c), (e), (g), and (i), respectively. The ICOADS reports and ERA5 winds between 2200-0800 (+1 day) LST are shown in (b), (d), (f), (h), respectively, to include more nighttime observations. The thick red line in each panel demonstrates the 4-day back trajectory from the ssH fog observation at 49.6°N 183.2°E, and the red dots are the location of the trajectory every 6 hours, and larger black dot indicating the location at the corresponding time of the panel. The contours are averaged ERA5 SST during 30 June-03 July, and the thick contours indicate 293 and 303 K, respectively.

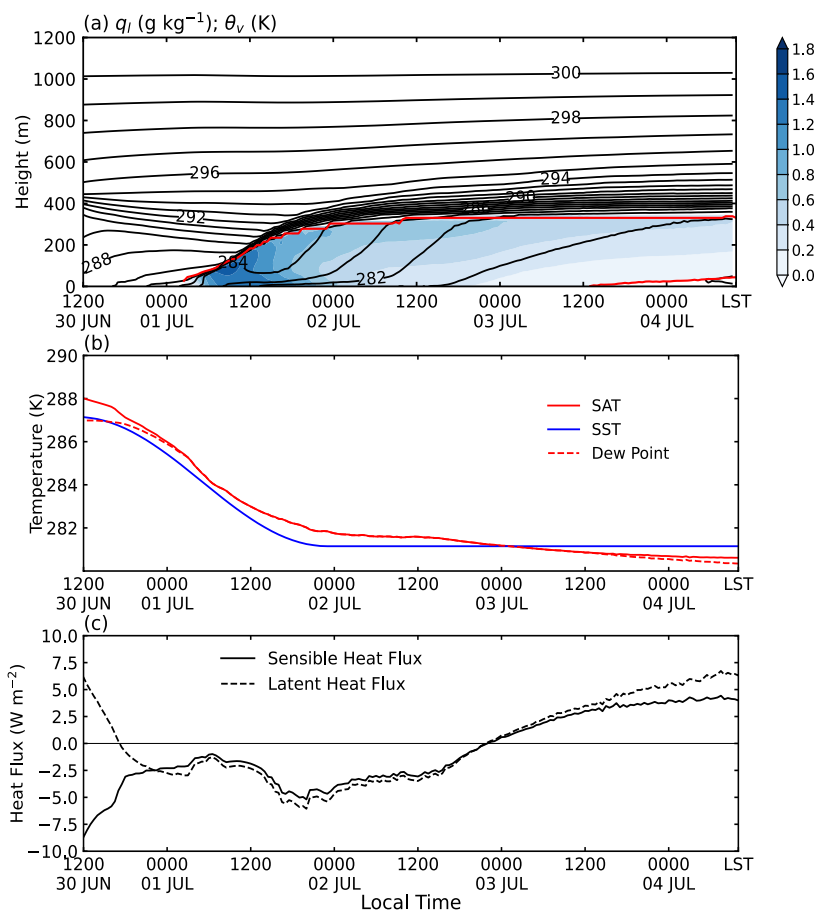


## 234 **4 Simulation with constant solar radiation**

235 The synoptic processes associated with the fog event detailed in subsection 3b  
236 align closely with the climatological characteristics of ssH and ssC fog (Figs. 1 and 2).  
237 To uncover the boundary-layer processes responsible for the ssH fog, we use the  
238 UCLA-LES model to simulate this typical fog event from a Lagrangian perspective.  
239 We trace back an ssH fog observation at 49.6 °N 183.2 °E in Fig. 4i, which had an SAT-  
240 SST value of -1.2 °C. The air column consecutively experienced no fog, ssC, and ssH  
241 fog along the trajectory from 30 June to 04 July, 2013 (Fig. 4). The simplified SST  
242 along the trajectory and the simulation setups are the same as those in Yang et al. (2021),  
243 except for the divergence forcing in the free-atmosphere. Here, we apply a realistic  
244 divergence of  $2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , which is double the climatological value in Yang et al. (2021).  
245 We first perform a simulation with fixed solar radiation.

### 246 **4.1 Evolution in boundary-layer structure**

247 Figure 5a depicts the time-height section of the liquid water mixing ratio ( $q_l$ ) and  
248 virtual potential temperature ( $\theta_v$ ) for the air column in the simulation with constant solar  
249 radiation. We exclude the first 2 hours of results due to the model's spin-up. Liquid  
250 water initially appears near the surface (~20 m) at 0400 local standard time (LST) 01  
251 July and rapidly extends to the surface within 1 h, resulting in fog formation. We define  
252 fog when  $q_l$  exceeds  $0.02 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$  (Kunkel, 1984). The fog persists until 1300 LST on 3  
253 July, transitioning into stratus as the near-surface droplets evaporate. This transition  
254 results from the entrainment of the free-atmospheric dry air caused by the fog-top LWC  
255 (Yang et al., 2021). The height of the fog top grows rapidly from 20 to 330 m until 1000  
256 LST 02 July and rarely varies thereafter. The capping inversion intensifies from 5 to 12  
257 K after fog formation (Fig. 5a).

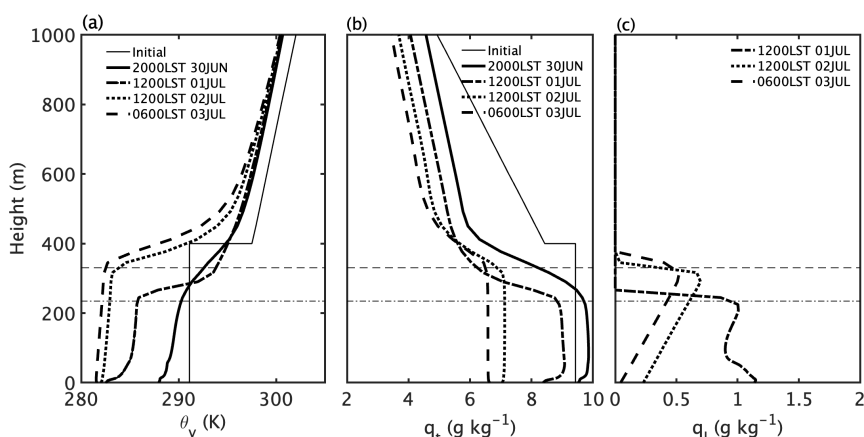


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259 FIG. 5. (a) Time-height section of simulated liquid water mixing ratio (shading,  $\text{g kg}^{-1}$ ), virtual potential  
260 temperature (contours, K) for constant solar radiation simulation. Red lines indicate the fog/cloud top  
261 and bottom, respectively. (b) SAT (red line, K), SST (blue, K) and surface dewpoint temperature (dashed  
262 red, K). (c) Same as (b) but for surface sensible heat flux (solid,  $\text{W m}^{-2}$ ) and latent heat flux (dashed,  $\text{W}$   
263  $\text{m}^{-2}$ ). Upward sensible and latent heat fluxes are positive.

264 The model successfully reproduces the ssH fog. Over the SST front, SAT follows  
265 the underlying SST with a difference of 0.8 K, resulting in strong downward sensible  
266 heat flux between  $-10$  and  $-2 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  (Figs. 5b and 5c). At 0500 LST on 01 July, SAT  
267 drops to the dewpoint at 285.6 K. After crossing the SST front, SAT is almost constant  
268 during the period of 0000-1200 LST on 02 July but quickly decreases afterward, falling  
269 below SST at 0000 LST on 03 July. From this time, both sensible and latent heat fluxes  
270 change their directions, indicating that the ocean begins to heat and moisten the surface  
271 air (Figs. 5b and 5c). The ssH fog sustains for 12 hours.



272 We divide the simulation into four phases: fog formation (from 1200 LST on 30  
 273 June to 0500 LST on 01 July) and development (from 0500 LST on 01 July to 0000  
 274 LST on 02 July) over the SST front, followed by fog maintenance with ssC (from 0000  
 275 LST on 02 July to 0000 LST on 03 July) and ssH (from 0000 to 1200 LST on 03 July)  
 276 to the north of the SST front. Figure 6 shows boundary layer structure for the above  
 277 four phases. The soundings of  $\theta_v$ , total water mixing ratio ( $q_t$ ), and  $q_l$  are domain-  
 278 averaged and 2 h-averaged, centered at the selected times.



279  
 280 FIG. 6. Horizontal mean soundings for constant solar radiation simulation at 1000 LST on 30 June  
 281 (thin solid line), 2000 LST on 30 June (solid), 1200 on LST 01 July (dot-dashed), 1200 LST on 02 July  
 282 (dot) and 0600 LST on 03 July (dashed). (a) Virtual potential temperature (K), (b) total water mixing  
 283 ratio ( $\text{g kg}^{-1}$ ) and (c) liquid water mixing ratio ( $\text{g kg}^{-1}$ ). Horizontal dot-dashed line represents fog top  
 284 height at 1200 on 01 July, and the horizontal dashed line represents fog top heights at 1200 on 02 July  
 285 and 0600 on 03 July.

286 Before the fog formation, the cold sea surface efficiently cools the near-surface air,  
 287 creating a stable boundary layer (Figs. 5a and 6a).  $q_t$  increases with height below 20 m  
 288 and remains nearly constant within the boundary layer (Fig. 6b). The upward decrease  
 289 in air temperature and increase in  $q_t$  result in the maximal relative humidity and  
 290 saturation occurring near 20 m (Fig. 6a). Once fog forms, a mixed layer develops  
 291 downward from the fog top to 50 m, capping the original stable layer produced by the  
 292 cold sea surface (Fig. 6a).  $\theta_v$  and  $q_t$  of the boundary layer decrease by  $\sim 6$  K and  $\sim 1.5$  g  
 293  $\text{kg}^{-1}$ , respectively, from 2000 LST on 30 June to 1200 LST on 01 July (Figs. 6a and 6b).  
 294  $q_l$  peaks near the surface and at fog top, respectively, and decreases with height within  
 295 the stable layer below 50 m (Fig. 6c). The stratifications of  $\theta_v$ ,  $q_t$  and  $q_l$  indicate a

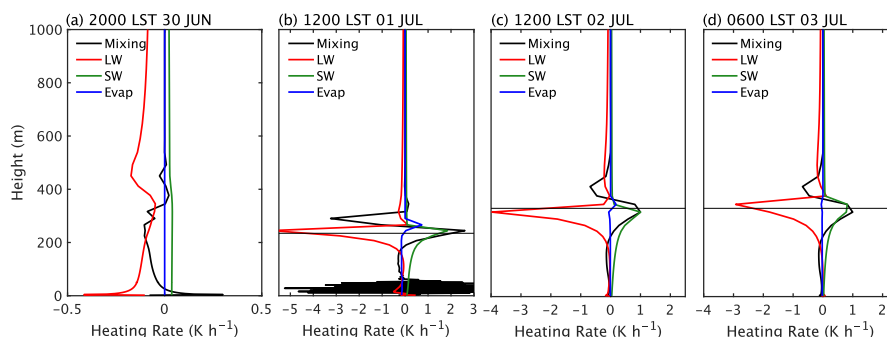


296 different cooling mechanism at the fog top from that at its bottom (Fig. 6a).

297 During the ssC fog phase, a well-mixed boundary layer develops, and  $\theta_v$  decreases  
298 by 2 K from 1200 LST on 01 July to 1200 LST on 02 July (Figs. 6a and 6b).  $q_l$  peaks  
299 near the fog top (Fig. 6c). During the ssH fog phase, the sea surface heats and moistens  
300 the fog layer (Fig. 5b), while the fog layer keeps cooling and drying at a much slower  
301 rate (Fig. 6a), indicating that the LWC effect at the fog top dominates the fog cooling  
302 and maintenance. The thermal and moisture stratifications of ssH fog share a similar  
303 structure to those of ssC fog but with a deeper well-mixed layer (the long dashed lines  
304 in Fig. 6).

#### 305 4.2 Heat and moist budgets

306 Figure 7 shows the profiles of heat and water vapor budgets at different phases.  
307 Figures 8a and 8b show the time series of surface heat and water vapor budget terms,  
308 respectively. Over the SST front, the turbulent mixing and longwave radiation effects  
309 cool the air near the surface and within the whole boundary layer due to the SST  
310 decrease (Figs. 7a and 8a). Fog forms due to the cooling of the air near the surface (Fig.  
311 7a).



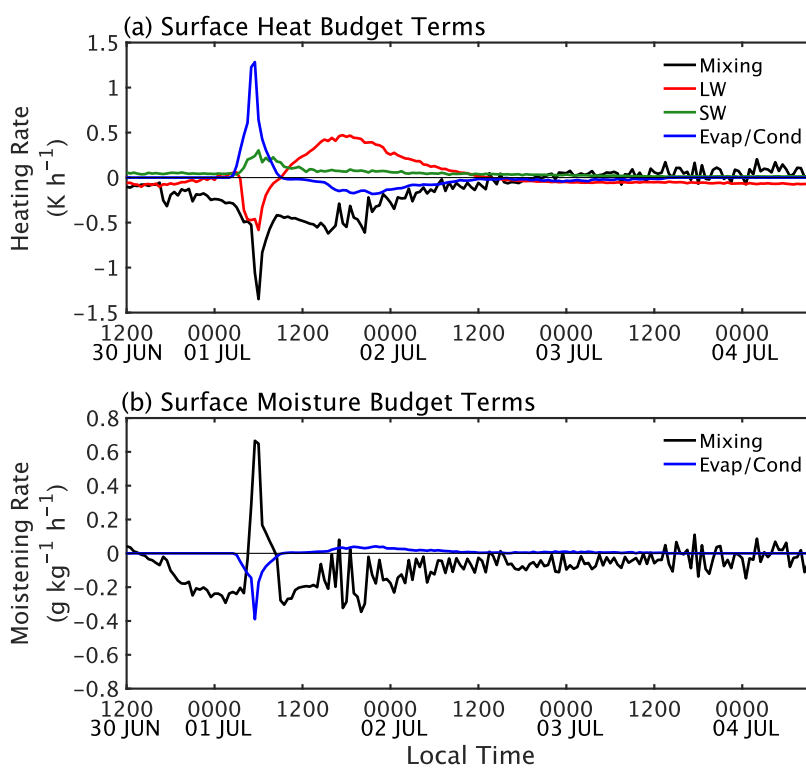
312  
313 FIG. 7 Profiles of horizontal mean budget terms for heat ( $\text{K h}^{-1}$ ) at (a) 2000 LST on 30, (b) 1200 LST on  
314 01 July, (c) 1200 on 02 July and (d) 0600 LST on 03 July in the constant solar radiation simulation. The  
315 horizontal lines indicate fog/cloud top.

316 After the fog formation, the surface turbulent cooling intensifies dramatically,  
317 peaking at  $-1.35 \text{ K h}^{-1}$ , leading to a marked decrease in SAT (Fig. 8a). The rapid growth  
318 of  $q_l$  releases latent heat through condensation, which partly offsets the cooling effect  
319 from turbulent mixing. Turbulent mixing keeps drying the surface air except for a brief  
320 period around 0900 on 1 June (Fig. 8b). Within the boundary layer, the longwave



321 radiation effect induces strong cooling at the fog top, and the resultant turbulent mixing  
322 cools the upper boundary layer (the red line in Fig. 7b). Additionally, the thermal  
323 turbulence helps entrain the warm, dry air from the free atmosphere, warming the air at  
324 the fog top while cooling the air above the fog layer (the black line in Fig. 7b).

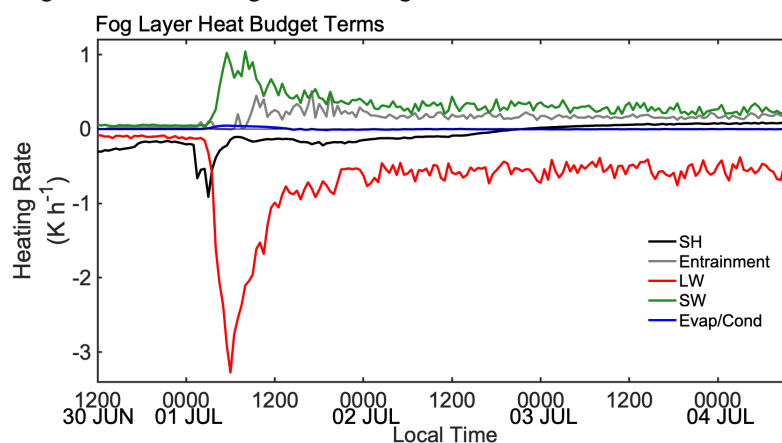
325 When the fog volume moves north of the SST front (0000 LST on 02 July onward),  
326 the surface cooling and drying effects become weak due to the fixed SST (Fig. 8).  
327 However, the strong LWC persists at the fog top, inducing turbulent mixing that cools  
328 the entire fog layer (Figs. 6a and 7c). In this case, the effect of the fog-top LWC  
329 overcomes the surface cooling effect, causing SAT to drop below the SST. During the  
330 ssH phase, the LWC at the fog top slightly weakens and dominates the turbulent mixing  
331 cooling within the fog layer, causing the SAT to continuously decrease (Figs. 5b and  
332 7d).



333  
334 FIG. 8 Time series of horizontal mean budget terms at the surface for the constant solar radiation  
335 simulation: (a) heat ( $\text{K h}^{-1}$ ) and (b) water vapor ( $\text{g kg}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ ).



336 We quantify the heat budget for the integral fog layer (Fig. 9). We determine the  
337 turbulent mixing term by calculating the difference between the turbulent heat fluxes at  
338 the surface and fog top, representing the surface sensible heat transport and the effect  
339 of the fog-top entrainment, respectively (the black and grey lines in Fig. 9). Prior to fog  
340 formation, the surface sensible heat transport drives the boundary layer cooling (the  
341 black line in Fig. 9). After the fog forms, the effect of longwave radiation acts to cool  
342 the boundary layer due to the longwave heat loss at fog top (the red line). The LWC  
343 effect rapidly exceeds surface cooling 2 hours after fog formation. Both shortwave  
344 radiation and entrainment at the fog top warm the fog layer, partially offsetting the  
345 effects of surface cooling and LWC. As the fog moves to the cold flank of the SST front,  
346 the surface cooling weakens and reverses, slightly heating the fog layer after the SAT  
347 drops below the SST. Overall, the persistent and strong LWC at the fog top dominates  
348 the fog evolution, resulting in the ssH fog.



349  
350 FIG. 9 Time series of horizontal mean heat budget terms ( $\text{K h}^{-1}$ ) of the integral boundary layer for the  
351 constant solar radiation simulation.

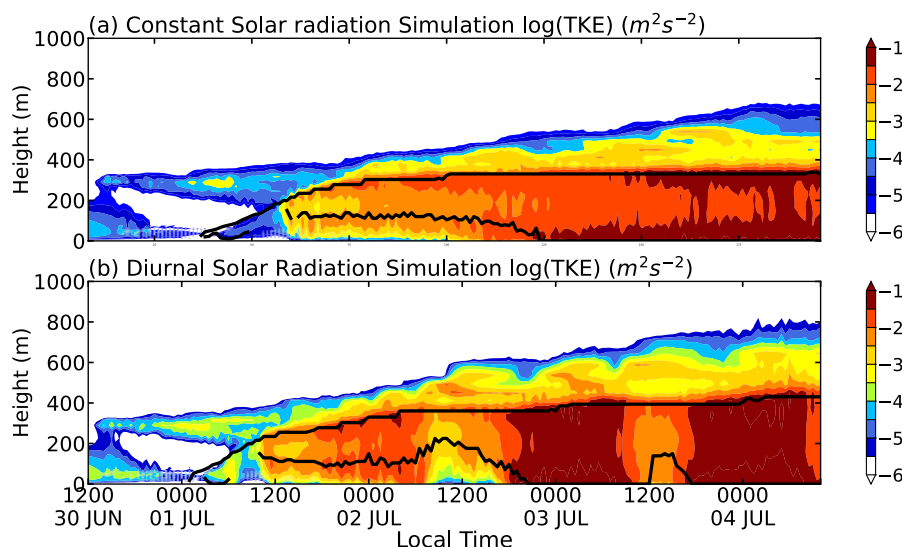
### 352 4.3 TKE and its budget

353 Figure 10a presents the time-height cross section of TKE for the simulation with  
354 constant solar radiation. Prior to the fog formation (0400 LST on 01 July), TKE exhibits  
355 a relatively low magnitude below 200 m (Fig. 10a), produced by the near-surface wind  
356 shear and dissipated by friction and buoyancy (Fig. 11a). Mechanical turbulence  
357 facilitates the transport of cooling from the surface, contributing to the fog formation.  
358 Following the fog formation, the LWC at the fog top induces buoyancy production of

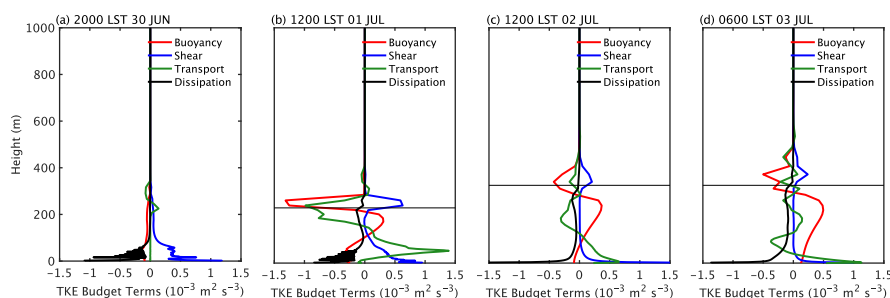




359 turbulence over the upper boundary layer (Fig. 11b), leading to a noticeable peak in  
 360 TKE near the fog top ~10 hours after its formation (Fig. 10a).



361  
 362 FIG. 10 Time-height section of  $\log_{10}(\text{TKE})$  (shading in  $\text{m}^2\text{s}^{-2}$ ), and time series of fog/cloud top height  
 363 (upper black lines in m) and thermal turbulence interface (lower black lines in m) for the simulations  
 364 with constant (a) and diurnal (b) solar radiations.



365  
 366 FIG. 11 Profiles of horizontal mean TKE budget terms ( $10^{-3}\text{m}^2\text{s}^{-3}$ ) for the constant solar radiation  
 367 simulation at (a) 2000 LST on 30, (b) 1200 LST on 01 July, (c) 1200 on 02 July and (d) 0600 LST on  
 368 03 July. Thin black lines indicate fog/cloud tops.

369 The turbulence in the ssC fog intensifies after its formation at 1200 LST on 02  
 370 July (Fig. 10a). However, the terms in the TKE budget exhibit a general weakening  
 371 trend from fog formation to the ssC fog (Fig. 11c), possibly due to the reduced  $q_1$   
 372 gradient near the top of the fog layer (Fig. 6c). TKE exhibits a significant increase from  
 373 the ssC fog to ssH fog, particularly near the surface. This is because the air-sea interface  
 374 becomes unstable ( $\text{SAT-SST} < 0$ ), leading to the buoyancy production of turbulence



375 (Fig. 11d). During this period, both buoyancy-induced and mechanically-induced  
376 turbulence contribute significantly to the maximum TKE near the surface.

377 The vertical structure of turbulence can be elucidated by employing the thermal  
378 turbulence interface, which distinguishes between the layers characterized by thermal  
379 and mechanical turbulence (Huang et al., 2015). The thermal turbulence interface is  
380 defined as the lowest altitude within the fog layer where the buoyancy production of  
381 turbulence is positive (the black lines in Fig. 10). Following the formation of fog, a  
382 thermal-turbulence mixing layer forms beneath the fog top and extends across the upper  
383 half of the fog layer from 0000 LST on 02 July (Fig. 10a). After 1200 LST on 02 July,  
384 the mixing layer continues to develop downward, eventually reaching the sea surface  
385 by 2200 LST on the same day, thus establishing a well-mixed boundary layer.  
386 Subsequently, the thermal turbulence cools the near-surface air and causes SAT to drop  
387 below SST after a 2-hour interval (Fig. 5b).

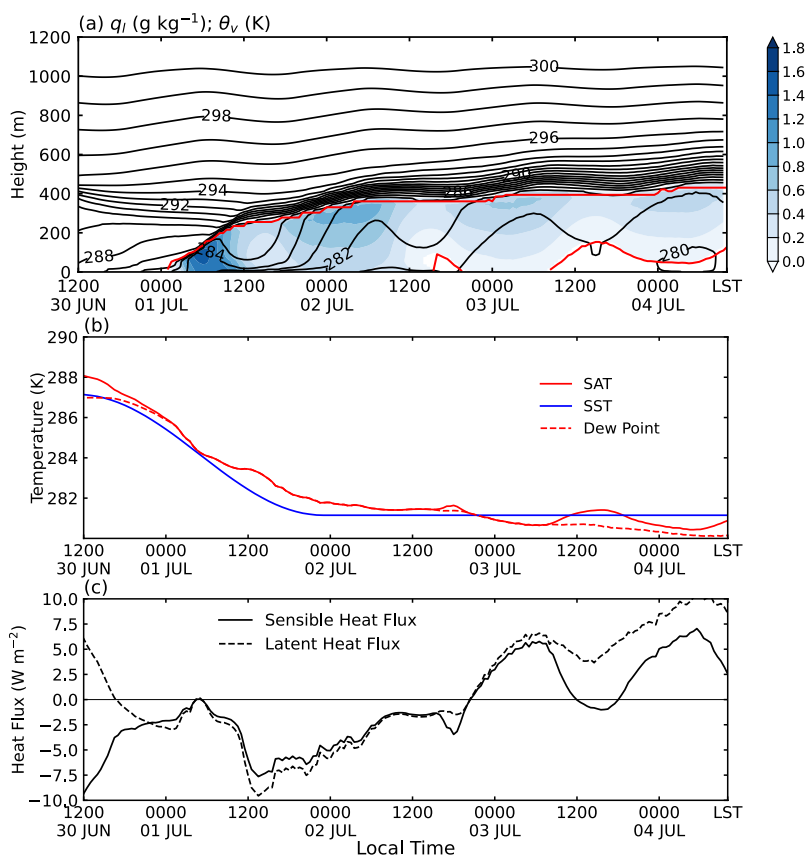
## 388 **5 Simulation with diurnal solar radiation**

389 We conduct an additional simulation that incorporates diurnal solar radiation.  
390 Overall, the simulated fog with diurnal solar radiation exhibits similar behavior to that  
391 in the simulation with constant solar radiation, but with clear diurnal variations. Fog  
392 forms at 0200 LST on 01 July, followed by a brief transition into stratus at 1600 LST  
393 on 02 July (Fig. 12a). Within 1 hour, the cloud base height rapidly rises to 80 m, but  
394 then decreases due to the weakening and disappearance of solar radiation. Subsequently,  
395 fog reoccurs at 2000 LST and eventually transitions into stratus at 0900 LST on 03 July.

396 The simulation incorporating diurnal solar radiation also generates ssH fog, which  
397 exhibits significant diurnal variation. During the nights of 03 July and 04 July, SAT  
398 rapidly drops below SST after sunset and recovers above SST after sunrise. Surprisingly,  
399 the UCLA-LES successfully simulates the diurnal variation in SAT-SST during the  
400 advection fog episode, indicating that the diurnal variation in the radiative balance over  
401 the fog top considerably alters the transitions between ssC and ssH fog (Fig. 2b).  
402 Additionally, both TKE and the thermal-turbulence mixing layer exhibit distinct diurnal  
403 variations. The pronounced radiative cooling at the fog top results in increased TKE



404 and a thicker thermal-turbulence mixing layer at nighttime compared to daytime (Fig.  
405 10b).



406

407 FIG. 12 As in Fig. 5, but for the simulation with diurnal cycle radiation.

## 408 6 Summary and discussion

409 Sea fog is of great importance due to its significant impact on maritime activities.  
410 The present study synthesizes the long-term shipborne observations and a LES model  
411 to explore the phenomena of negative SAT-SST during advection fog over the NWP  
412 (referred to ssH fog). The UCLA-LES successfully simulates a fog event with ssH fog  
413 and captures the diurnal variation in SAT-SST during the fog episode. The simulation  
414 results highlight the strong influence of the LWC effect at the fog top on the formation  
415 of ssH fog.

416 Long-term shipborne observations reveal the prevalence of advection fog along



417 the cold flank of the SST front in the NWP during the boreal summer. The ssH fog often  
418 occurs downstream of the regime of the advection fog with positive SAT-SST. The  
419 relative frequency ssH during episodes of advection fog is ~27.5% in JJA, which is  
420 roughly consistent with the results over the summertime Yellow Sea (Yang et al. 2021)  
421 and wintertime northeast Pacific (Li et al. 2022). Furthermore, our findings reveal, for  
422 the first time, that the relative frequency of ssH fog exhibits a distinct diurnal cycle,  
423 with a peak occurrence (~34.5%) before sunrise and a trough occurrence (~18.8%) in  
424 the afternoon (Fig. 2b). This suggests that the thermal dynamics and associated  
425 turbulence structure of advection fog exhibit significant diurnal variation.

426 From a Lagrangian perspective, we utilize the turbulence-closure UCLA-LES  
427 model to simulate an advection fog event over the NWP from 01 to 04 July 2013, which  
428 exhibits similar characteristics to the long-term features of ssH fog. Surprisingly, the  
429 LES model successfully reproduces the diurnal variation in SAT-SST during the fog  
430 episode when incorporating diurnal solar radiation (Fig. 12), indicating that the model  
431 captures the essential processes responsible for ssH fog.

432 We detailed analyze the LES simulation with constant solar radiation, which also  
433 produces ssH fog during the advection fog episode. Before the fog formation, the  
434 decreased SST over the oceanic front cools the near-surface air through the mechanical  
435 turbulence and triggers fog occurrence. Around the fog initiation, the cold sea surface  
436 drives a stable layer below 40 m in altitude, which decouples the fog layer from the sea  
437 surface. Once the surface vapor condenses, in the perspective of the fog layer, the fog-  
438 top LWC effect rapidly exceeds the near-surface mechanical cooling within ~2 hours  
439 after the fog formation (Fig. 9), when the air volume is still on the SST front. A thermal  
440 turbulence interface, separating the layers characterized by thermal and mechanical  
441 turbulence, well depicts the evolution of the vertical turbulence structure (Fig. 10a).  
442 The thermal turbulence from the fog top gradually develops downward to transport the  
443 fog-top LWC effect and reaches the surface 43 hours after the fog formation.

444 Our LES results indicate that ssH fog occurs when the thermal turbulent layer  
445 generated by the LWC at the fog top extends throughout the entire fog layer, causing  
446 the near-surface air to cool below the sea surface temperature (SST). Previous studies



447 have primarily focused on the near-surface liquid water in sea fog to validate the  
448 performance of models in simulating sea fog (e.g., Gao et al. 2007; Yang et al. 2018;  
449 2019). Considering the limited availability of observations on the vertical structure of  
450 fog over the open sea (e.g., Huang et al. 2015), the occurrence of ssH fog during  
451 advection fog episodes provides valuable additional observations for improving the  
452 modeling of the thermal turbulence induced by the LWC at the fog top.

453 The comparison with the results from Yang et al. (2021) demonstrates that  
454 increased descending motion plays a significant role in intensifying the cooling of the  
455 fog layer by enhancing the LWC at the fog top. Moreover, stronger descending motion  
456 leads to longer fog duration and lower fog top height. These findings indicate that large-  
457 scale descending motion modulates the characteristics of fog by altering the LWC at  
458 the fog top.

459

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465

#### 466 **Open Research**

#### 467 **Data Availability Statement**

468 The data used in this study are obtained from the ECMWF which is available at  
469 <https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/datasets/reanalysis-datasets/era5> and the ICOADS  
470 data at <https://icoads.noaa.gov/>.

471

#### 472 **Competing interests**

473 The contact author has declared that neither they nor their co-authors have any  
474 competing interests.

475



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