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2 **Severe convective weather in Italy: Current understanding and**
3 **Research Priorities in the TIM campaign**

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44 **Abstract.** The status and priorities of research on severe convective storms in Italy are outlined here, with particular
45 attention to the upcoming Thunderstorm Intensification from Mountains to Plains (TIM) observation campaign. The
46 increased intensity of events induced by climate change is attracting growing attention from the Italian scientific
47 community on this topic. While northern Italy is the most studied, with numerous papers analyzing intense events such
48 as tornadoes, hailstorms, and flash floods, the central and southern regions are less explored, even though they are also
49 occasionally subject to intense events modulated by mesoscale circulations, sea-land interactions, and complex orography.
50 The TIM campaign represents a unique opportunity to improve the understanding, monitoring, and forecasting of severe
51 storms. The campaign, led by the European Severe Storm Laboratory, represents a first-of-this-kind pan-European
52 campaign aimed at obtaining coordinated data on severe convective storms, and is a key step toward improving warnings,
53 forecasts, climate change impact estimation, and adaptation measures. The value of the campaign for Italy is indicated by
54 the participation of several institutions, both from the academic and the operational community. Among the planned
55 initiatives, the use of two Italian airborne platforms will allow for a more complete characterization of the environments
56 associated with convective storms, including an improvement in our understanding of the role of aerosols and storm-scale
57 modeling.

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90 **1. Introduction**

91 Convective storms result from a complex interplay between thermodynamics and dynamical processes at different scales,
92 ranging from the synoptic scale to the microscale. Therefore, their forecast is still challenging due to the complexity of
93 the physical processes, which are still only approximately accounted for in numerical weather prediction models, and the
94 scarcity of high-resolution observations within the pre-storm environment, which limits the representativeness of the
95 initial conditions in model simulations. Improving our understanding of these processes requires a coordinated strategy
96 that combines in-situ microphysics observations, thermodynamic profiling, remote sensing of clouds, precipitation, winds
97 and aerosols, turbulence measurements, together with modelling activities.

98 Severe convective storms are responsible for injuries and even fatalities (e.g., De Martin et al., 2025b), as well as for a
99 substantial amount of damage across Europe. Their growing impact (Battaglioli et al., 2025) highlights the importance of
100 research and a better understanding of their effects to adopt appropriate loss mitigation measures.

101 Unfortunately, focused field campaigns in Europe were relatively small (Kunz et al., 2022). Conversely, several
102 observational campaigns on severe convection have been performed for several decades in the USA. Considering the
103 complex morphology of the Italian territory, where land-sea transitions and complex orography may especially affect the
104 meso-gamma scale circulation, the conceptual models developed for the USA should be at least modified or adapted to
105 the peculiar Mediterranean environment. This was shown, for example, in Miglietta et al. (2016) or, more recently, in De
106 Martin et al. (2024), in which the triple point configuration typical of tornadogenesis in US Midwest was observed in the
107 Po Valley, but with very different time and spatial scales. In particular, the role of the increasingly warmer Mediterranean
108 Sea and the presence of a very long and complex coastline should be properly included in this framework, together with
109 the complex orography of the region, as demonstrated in recent studies of extreme convective weather (e.g. De Martin et
110 al., 2025a).

111 In the Mediterranean region, only a limited number of extensive observational campaigns was performed, but none was
112 focused on small-scale convective storms. In northern Italy (and partly central Italy), severe weather was investigated
113 during the Mesoscale Alpine Program (Bougeault et al., 2001) and the HyMeX program (Ducrocq et al., 2012), but both
114 projects were mainly focused on the large scale and mesoscale conditions conducive to severe weather, heavy rain in
115 particular (Miglietta and Davolio, 2022).

116 In recent years, one major observational effort was the observational campaign on Monte Baldo (Italian Alps), managed
117 by the University of Trento under the DECIPHER project. This activity was part of the summer Extended Observation
118 Period of TEAMx (Serafin et al., 2020; Rotach et al., 2022), during which nine research teams from various European
119 countries provided a remarkable number of different instruments and personnel to the observational activities from June
120 to October 2025. The Adige valley target area and its experimental setup are shown in Figure 1. Although the project
121 focused on planetary boundary layer (PBL) processes in a complex Alpine environment, some attention was posed to air-
122 surface exchange processes and ventilation mechanisms towards the free atmosphere, possibly conducive to the initiation
123 of atmospheric convection. Through in situ observations-including flux towers, Doppler and Raman Lidar, ceilometer,
124 aerosol sensors and disdrometers-, the TEAMx-DECIPHER campaign was a great opportunity to consolidate a high level
125 of logistical and organizational expertise in the management of complex observation campaigns with many partners
126 involved. Various turbulence regimes, slope and valley circulations were observed, allowing to investigate their role in
127 transport and mixing, and indirectly their potential influence on convective initiation through the distribution of humidity,
128 aerosols and atmospheric tracers, leading to a rich dataset in the Alpine area.

129 Together with convective initiation, another important issue is the predictability of severe thunderstorms. In the Po valley,
130 it is known that predictability is generally high in the presence of a strong synoptic forcing (e.g., a cold front advancing

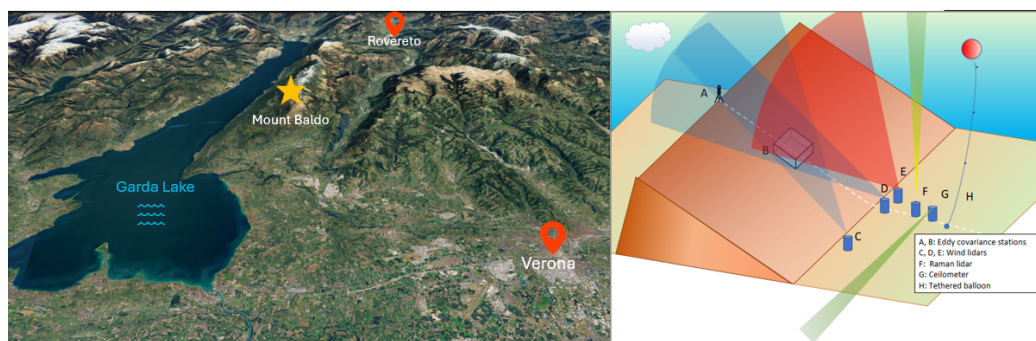


131 from the northwest), but it is much lower during the convective season, when severe storms may locally occur without
132 any substantial large-scale driver. To make the picture more complex, storms over the Alps and Prealps follow a strong
133 diurnal cycle, associated with diurnal heating, while those near the coasts or offshore are mostly associated with the
134 annual cycle of sea surface temperature (SST; Manzato et al., 2022a). Consequently, the distribution of thunderstorms is
135 not uniform in the area, showing a strong maximum in the northeastern Prealps (Fig. 2).

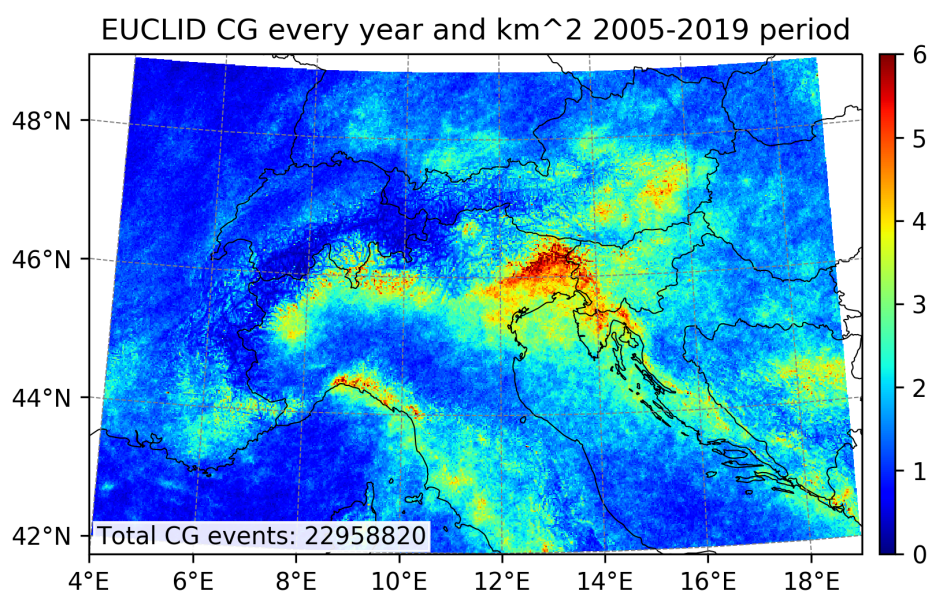
136 Any approach based uniquely on synoptic analysis (e.g., a simple “weather-type” classification) is insufficient for severe
137 weather forecasting in the Po Valley. Even any approach based on simple mesoscale “environmental conditions” would
138 not be very helpful, because potential instability is present on most summer days in the Po Valley (Manzato, 2003;
139 Manzato, 2023); hence, it is not obvious that the instability (e.g., estimated by CAPE) has a direct proportionality to the
140 storm probability or even to the storm intensity (Manzato et al., 2025).

141 Finally, severe convective weather events, particularly supercell thunderstorms and hailstorms, constitute a significant
142 hazard and have accounted for the costliest natural disasters in recent years (Bowen et al., 2023). These phenomena pose
143 substantial risks to populations, infrastructure, and sectors such as agriculture and transport. These issues illustrate how
144 timely is the planning of the field campaign on Thunderstorm Intensification from Mountains to plains (TIM; see Fischer
145 et al., 2025 for further details on the motivation of the campaign and its research topics). The campaign, led by the
146 European Severe Storm Laboratory (ESSL), represents a first-of-its-kind pan-European campaign on severe convective
147 storms aimed at obtaining coordinated and dense data on orographically driven storms, and is a key step toward improving
148 warnings, forecasts, climate change impact estimation, and adaptation measures. The value of the campaign for Italy is
149 indicated by the participation of several institutions, both from the academic and the operational community.

150 This paper represents a summary of the contribution that the Italian community could and is willing to provide to the
151 forthcoming TIM campaign, planned in the 2027-2029 years. Section 2 presents the state of the art of severe convective
152 weather research in Italy. Issues worth studying during the campaign are reported in Section 3. Section 4 describes which
153 tools are available or would be necessary for better understanding the dynamics and microphysics of severe convective
154 storms. Conclusions are drawn in Section 5.



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156 **Figure 1: Geographical location of Monte Baldo (left; Imagery © 2025 NASA, Map data © 2025 Google); sketch of the**
157 **experimental setup on the Monte Baldo slope during the TEAMx campaign (right).**



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Figure 2: Spatial distribution of Cloud-to-Ground lightning (per km² yr) based on EUCLID data from 2005 to 2019 (adapted from Manzato et al., 2022a).

161 **2. State of the Art**

162 **2.1 Northern Italy**

163 The Liguria region, characterized by complex orography and proximity to the sea, every year experiences intense meteo-
164 hydrological events, such as flash floods, severe thunderstorms, hail, downbursts and strong winds. These events are
165 generally localized and typically develop in correspondence with the convergence between the southerly flow over the
166 Ligurian Sea with the northerly cold outbreak from the Po valley across the gaps in the orography (Buzzi et al., 2014;
167 Fiori et al., 2017). They can cause significant socio-economic impacts, occasionally even casualties, while their
168 predictability is still quite limited. The available observations from the Regional Agency for the Environmental Protection
169 of Liguria region (ARPAL), including a dense network of weather stations, enriched by open hardware
170 ACRONETWORK stations (Loglisci et al. 2024), operational radars, and continuous satellite monitoring, combined with
171 numerical simulation analysis, have highlighted the key role of orography, sea-breeze interactions and SST patterns in
172 enhancing convective activity (e.g., Cassola et al., 2016, Meroni et al. 2018), but the understanding of small-scale
173 processes remains limited. In particular situations to be further investigated, storms originating from mesoscale
174 convergence over the Ligurian Gulf or northern Tyrrhenian Sea can move further inland in the Tuscan hinterland and,
175 more rarely even downwind the main orographic barrier, even affecting the Emilia-Romagna region, as happened on 13-
176 14 September 2015 during the devastating flash floods in Val Trebbia and Val di Nure (Segadelli et al., 2020).

177 In the Veneto and Friuli Venezia Giulia (FVG) regions, a series of particularly intense phenomena, such as supercells and
178 intense convective systems, have occurred in the last decades. Remarkable examples are shown in Fig. 3: the EF4 Mira-
179 Dolo tornado of July 2015 (Zanini et al., 2017); the violent downburst in Verona in August 2020; the recurrent summer
180 hailstorms, which peaked in July 2023, when the European record for hailstone size was broken (De Martin et al., 2025a).



181 Other severe weather events were directly or indirectly related to cyclonic activity, such as the famed Vaia storm of 2018
182 (Davolio et al., 2020; Sioni et al., 2023), the impressive “acqua alta” in Venice on November 12, 2019 (the second highest
183 level in the historical record; Ferrarin et al., 2021; Miglietta et al., 2023), the intermediate-duration floods (12-24 hours
184 long) over the pre-Alpine area near Vicenza that tested the efficiency of the recently implemented operational detention
185 basins, and the back-building storms responsible for flash floods in eastern FVG in November 2025. A statistical study
186 by the Regional Agency for the Environmental Protection of Veneto region (ARPAV) has identified a marked increase
187 in high precipitation threshold exceedances during the last 30 years for what concerns the short and very short
188 accumulation timescales (5 min - 12 hours), while no significant trend was found in extreme precipitations in FVG
189 (Manzato et al., 2025). The increased interest in intense events has brought ARPAV to maintain a register of intense
190 rainfall events and tornadoes in the region, as part of its weather forecasting practice. ARPAV continuously monitors
191 these episodes with its ground-based high-resolution observational network, including over 300 hydro-meteorological
192 stations, 2 C-band radars, 8 disdrometers, a 10-km temperature and humidity profiler, and a historical archive of images
193 from installed webcams.
194 Overall, the Alpine region appears to exhibit increased hydrogeological sensitivity, emerging during several heavy
195 downpours during the summer season in the form of recurrent debris flows. In fact, the increased frequency and intensity
196 of extreme weather events (e.g., Dallan et al., 2022) resulted in a rise in hydrogeological risk and in the vulnerability of
197 ecosystems and infrastructure. These phenomena, often characterized by strong spatial and temporal variability and very
198 difficult to predict, are particularly impactful in urban areas (Gambini et al., 2025). For example, the Milan hydraulic
199 node represents an emblematic case, where the Seveso, Olona, and Lambro rivers cause recurrent inundations in the
200 metropolitan area, leading to widespread damage to infrastructure and urban mobility (Ceppi et al., 2022). Furthermore,
201 wide urban areas (such as Milan) may alter the dynamics of local severe storms, by intensifying updrafts and shifting
202 storm tracks (De Martin et al., 2025c), thus adding an additional level of complexity.

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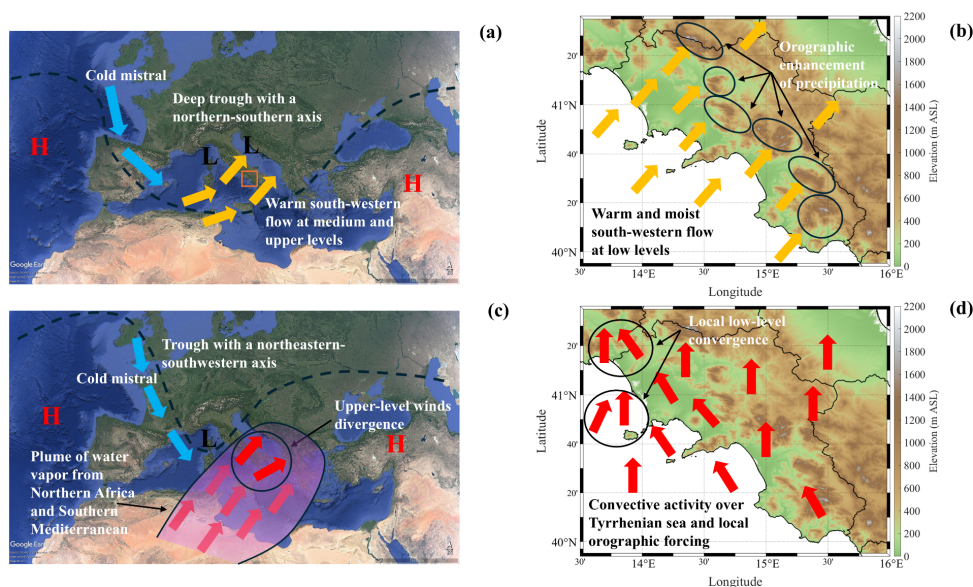


205 **Figure 3: Photos of recent severe weather events in northern Italian regions: supercell with downburst in Verona – hundreds**
 206 **of trees fallen in urban areas (August 23, 2020; top left); Mira-Dolo F4 tornado (July 8, 2015; top right; Photo: Alberto Gobbi);**
 207 **hailstorm (hailstone diameter: 16 cm) in Carmignano del Brenta (July 19, 2023; bottom left; Photo: “Associazione Meteo in**
 208 **Veneto”); flash flood in Meda due to severe rainfall in Brianza province (September 22, 2025; bottom right).**

209 **2.2 Central and Southern Apennines**

210 While northern Italy has been the subject of several studies and some conceptual models are now available to identify
 211 conditions conducive to severe weather, the central and southern Apennine range remains largely under-researched,
 212 although they constitute a steep, coastal-proximal mountain range occasionally subject to heavy precipitation, strongly
 213 modulated in terms of timing and persistence by mesoscale circulations, land-sea contrasts and complex topography. In
 214 the Apennine setting, modest but steep relief modulates convective initiation by: (i) channeling low-level flow through
 215 gaps and valleys, (ii) forcing ascent on the windward flanks, and (iii) focusing near-shore convergence where the marine
 216 boundary layer impinges on the coastal range. The efficacy of these pathways depends on the synoptic flow, boundary-
 217 layer stability, shear, and sea-land thermal contrasts, which together set diurnal phasing and storm organization. The
 218 available literature clearly documents how the interaction between coastal orography and marine inflows over Italy
 219 prolongs event duration and shifts precipitation peaks relative to the upstream forcing (see Miglietta and Davolio, 2022,
 220 for a review), leading to intense inland flooding (Rosso and Ceppi, 2022).

221 Across the Apennines, orographic precipitation encompasses both cold-season events, driven by moisture transported
 222 from the sea (stratiform or embedded convection in the presence of long-fetch advection) and warm-season events,
 223 characterized by convection initiated by the orography, including hail-producing storms. Capozzi et al. (2023a) identified
 224 a limited set of recurrent heavy-precipitation spatial patterns for Campania region (southern Italy) that are systematically
 225 associated with synoptic types and the regional orography; importantly, such patterns occur in autumn-winter under long-
 226 fetch maritime moisture transport impinging on the mountain ranges, highlighting the key role of moisture-fluxes in
 227 organizing and sustaining heavy rainfall events (Fig. 4).



228 **Figure 4: Schematic illustration of two of the six large-scale configurations associated with heavy-precipitation events in the**
 229 **Campania Region (southern Italy) identified by Capozzi et al. (2023a). Panels (a)–(b) show Pattern 1 (warm and moist**
 230 **southwesterly flow and orographic enhancement of precipitation along the main Apennine ranges); panels (c)–(d) represent**
 231 **Pattern 6 (convective activity over the Tyrrhenian Sea and the northern sector under local low-level convergence). In (a) and**
 232 **Pattern 6 (convective activity over the Tyrrhenian Sea and the northern sector under local low-level convergence). In (a) and**



233 (c), the black dashed line marks the approximate position of the 552-dam 500-hPa geopotential-height contour, while the orange
234 box in (a) locates the Campania region, zoomed in b) and in d). Images credit: © Google Earth, Data Sio, NOAA, U.S. Navy,
235 NGA, GEBCO.

236 2.3 Atmospheric Rivers

237 Atmospheric rivers (ARs) have emerged as one of the most relevant global drivers for extreme hydro-meteorological
238 events in many areas of the globe. Defined as narrow corridors of enhanced horizontal transport of low-level moisture,
239 ARs typically form over midlatitude regions pulling up water vapor charge also from subtropics and feeding precipitation
240 systems in the areas where they make landfall and are forced to raise over the orography. Whilst the science of ARs is
241 well developed in the US, where they have been recognized as responsible for extreme precipitation especially along the
242 Pacific coast, only in the last decade the role of ARs has become evident over Europe (Lavers and Villarini, 2015). Over
243 the Mediterranean basin, ARs were found relevant for recent extreme rainfall and major floods over southern Spain
244 (Lorente-Plazas et al., 2019), southern France (Francis et al., 2022), the Dinaric Alps (Martinković et al., 2017), the
245 eastern basin (Bozkurt et al., 2019) and over northern and central Italy (Davolio et al., 2020; Davolio et al., 2023; Sioni
246 et al., 2023).

247 Focusing on the Alpine chain southern slopes, the presence of moisture transport, which may originate from either remote
248 or local sources, is critical for the development of orographic rainfall and convection. Heavy precipitation often develops
249 eastward of an advancing upper-level disturbance, a trough or a cyclone deepening over the basin. The latter is responsible
250 for steering warm and moist low-level (unstable) air from the sea towards the steep slopes of the Alps and the Apennines
251 (Miglietta and Davolio, 2022). At the mesoscale, precipitation systems are likely triggered by the direct orographic uplift
252 or by the deflection or blocking action exerted by the orography (Miglietta and Buzzi, 2004), which can also renew
253 convection triggering at the same location.

254 2.4 Tornadoes and downbursts

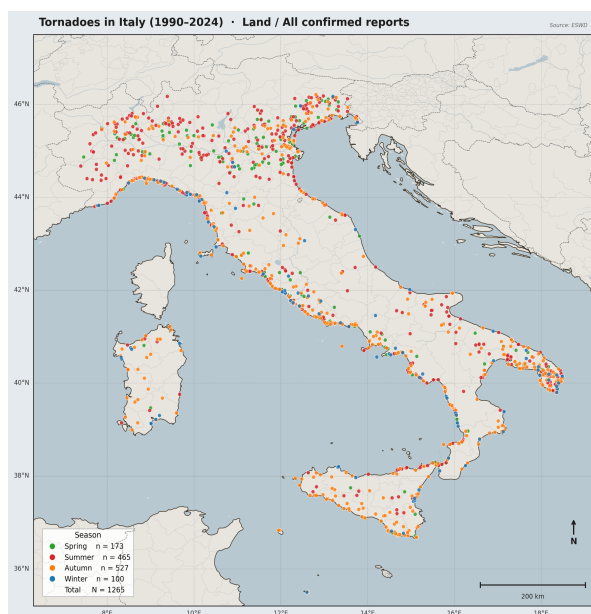
255 Italy is among the European countries with the highest tornado occurrence and intensity. Most Italian tornadoes fall within
256 the categories of damage EF0 and EF2 of the Enhanced Fujita scale, but intense cases (EF3, EF4 or even EF5) have also
257 been reported, as documented by the European Severe Weather Database (ESWD; Dotzek et al., 2009). Some
258 climatological studies (Miglietta and Matsangouras, 2018; Avolio and Miglietta, 2022) have shown that the Italian areas
259 most prone to tornado development include some southern areas (Ionian regions and Sicily), the Po Valley (in particular,
260 its eastern part), and the Tyrrhenian coasts (Fig. 5). These events occur predominantly in autumn (in the southern regions)
261 and summer (in the northern regions).

262 Some recent studies have improved our understanding of tornadic environments in Italy. The conditions typically
263 identified include the presence of strong wind shear (especially in the low-level) and significant Convective Available
264 Potential Energy (CAPE) (Ingrosso et al., 2020). In southern Italy, SST anomalies also play a key role (Miglietta et al.,
265 2017a; Bagagli et al., 2021; Avolio and Miglietta, 2021) as well as the convective initiation by the orography (Miglietta
266 et al., 2017b). More recently, a conceptual model based on the proximity of three air masses with different characteristics
267 has been proposed for the Po valley (De Martin et al., 2024), showing some similarities with the US Midwest tornadic
268 environments, although at a much smaller spatial scale. Due to its small-scale, this feature was not identified earlier in
269 reanalysis studies. A detailed analysis of a recent EF3 tornado in the same area reaffirmed the applicability of this
270 conceptual model (De Martin et al., 2025d).

271 Significant field campaigns in Italy, focused on observations of high-resolution surface wind fields during thunderstorms,
272 has been conducted using a wind monitoring network, which integrates ultrasonic anemometers, three LiDAR profilers,



273 and one scanning LiDAR, installed in the commercial ports of the Ligurian Sea (Solari et al., 2012; Repetto et al., 2018).
274 This system has captured numerous thunderstorm-related wind events over the past few decades (e.g., Burlando et al.,
275 2017, 2018, 2020; Canepa et al., 2020; Solari et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2018). Canepa et al. (2024) include a database of
276 29 thunderstorm wind records acquired by ultrasonic anemometers within the monitoring network. Several of these events
277 were simultaneously captured by multiple instruments located within the same area, enabling spatiotemporal cross-
278 correlation analyses and providing a depiction of different thunderstorm outflows. This level of spatial and temporal
279 resolution makes the dataset unique in the national context.
280 However, in terms of direct measurements of thunderstorm outflows and their potentially destructive impacts on the
281 ground, full-scale wind observations remain scarce due to the limited spatial and temporal extent of the phenomenon.
282 When available, high-sampling anemometric records capture only a single, event-specific realization, shaped by both the
283 intrinsic characteristics of the downburst (e.g., size, intensity, duration, and interaction with background flow) and the
284 relative position of the measuring instrument with respect to the evolving phenomenon. Consequently, field data seldom
285 provide a complete description of the spatial flow structure or of its temporal evolution, particularly when the parent
286 storm moves relative to the sensor. In-situ measurements alone do not permit a quantitative reconstruction of the interplay
287 between the various flow components that collectively define the downburst system. As a result, much of the research on
288 downburst dynamics relies on laboratory-scale physical modelling and numerical simulations. Recent large-scale
289 experimental campaigns have produced valuable datasets, enabling statistical analyses of the spatiotemporal evolution of
290 downburst flows and their interaction with the near-surface PBL and the translating storm system. Subsequent
291 experiments incorporated thermodynamic effects by imposing temperature differentials between the downdraft and
292 ambient air, highlighting the key role of thermal gradients in shaping the downburst structure and dynamics (Canepa et
293 al., 2025). Nevertheless, the quantitative influence of thermal processes in natural conditions remains largely unresolved.



294 Figure 5. Map of selected Italian tornadoes crossing "land" for the period 1990–2024; different colors represent the seasons
295 (data derived from ESWD).
296

297 2.5 Role of aerosols



298 Aerosol particles play an important role in the climate by controlling the radiative budget of the atmosphere (aerosol-
299 radiation interaction; ARI) and by directly modifying the microphysical properties of clouds (aerosol-cloud interaction;
300 ACI). The high uncertainty of the latter leads to a limited consensus on the impacts of aerosol particles on precipitation,
301 making microphysics parametrization in numerical models a critical issue (Stier et al., 2024).

302 Aerosols are the seeds upon which cloud droplets and ice crystals form. Their ability to act as ice-nucleating particles
303 (INPs) or cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) regulate microphysical processes, e.g. increasing the number of liquid droplets
304 (Twomey, 1977) or initiating cloud glaciation (Murray et al., 2021). However, the impact of ACI on cloud formation and
305 precipitation is nonlinear (Zhao et al., 2024), leading to contrasting effects, invigorating or weakening microphysics
306 effects at cloud base accelerating or delaying precipitation. Overall, the microphysical effect of aerosol on cloud formation
307 and precipitation is ultimately controlled by atmospheric dynamics, being the complex interplay of aerosol and dynamics
308 extremely sensitive to local perturbations (Stier et al., 2024).

309 Within the Mediterranean, climate-change induced desertification and heatwaves modify the local concentration of
310 aerosols (e.g. Cristofanelli et al., 2013; Vogel et al., 2025), hence the availability of CCN and INPs. Even though
311 numerical modelling studies correlate these aerosol perturbations with changes in convective systems (Ferrari et al.,
312 2024), the inability of reconciling observations and modelling data complicates the attribution of observed changes to
313 aerosol-cloud interactions (Stier et al., 2024).

314 **2.6 Hail**

315 Currently, there is considerable interest within the research community in hail over Italy for several reasons. While Italy
316 has emerged as a hail hotspot in Europe over the last decade (e.g., Punge et al., 2017), the most recent hail climatologies
317 show remarkable differences across the country. Some studies indicate a frequency peak over the foothills of Northern
318 Italy (e.g., Giordani et al., 2023; Cui, 2025; Manzato et al., 2022b), while others show a maximum over the sea (e.g.,
319 Laviola et al., 2022; Kahraman et al., 2024), suggesting that further work is needed to clarify the spatial distribution of
320 hailstorms. Furthermore, there has been growing awareness of the substantial economic damage caused by hail to crops,
321 buildings, and vehicles (Púčík et al., 2019; Panosetti and Tomassetti, 2023). Extending hail climatologies to include
322 economic hail damage in Italy —potentially involving insurance companies— is therefore encouraged, both to improve
323 hail risk maps and to lay the groundwork for impact-oriented hail warnings.

324 **2.7 Numerical weather prediction models and data assimilation**

325 Despite the progress made in the model resolution and physical parameterizations, the forecast of convective events is
326 challenging for numerical weather prediction (NWP) models because of the multitude of physical processes and scales
327 involved (Hu and Franzke, 2020) and the intrinsic limited predictability of convection.

328 Improved model performance can be achieved by advancing the physics of the model and/or steering the model using
329 observations, such as by applying data assimilation. The purpose of data assimilation (DA) is to accurately describe the
330 state of the atmosphere using observations and a gridded data field coming from a NWP model (Kalnay et al., 2024).

331 Current weather and climate models are progressing towards ever finer spatiotemporal scales, which is largely due to the
332 increased computational capabilities that have become available. In many cases, DA is applied at convective scales.
333 Convection permitting DA refers to DA at regional scale with horizontal grid-length at around 1-4 km, where convection
334 is explicitly resolved rather than parametrized. There are several operational systems around the world using convection
335 permitting DA (e.g. Ballard et al., 2016). These systems provide improved nowcasts and short-term (0-24h) forecasts
336 particularly suitable for convective storms (Milan et al., 2020).



337 Several studies have been conducted over Italy focusing on the assimilation of different data sources, often at the
338 convection resolving resolution, as radar (Gastaldo et al., 2021; Maiello et al., 2017; Lagasio et al., 2019b; Mazzarella et
339 al., 2020), GNSS (Lagasio et al., 2019a; Torcasio et al., 2023; Faccani et al., 2005), lightning (Federico et al., 2024; 2026),
340 weather stations (Maggioni et al., 2023), rain-rate (Davolio et al., 2017; Torcasio et al., 2024), among others. These studies
341 used different DA techniques namely 3DVar, 4DVar, nudging, and Ensemble Kalman filter.

342 3. Open Issues

343 Observational networks in Italy are mostly managed at regional scale. Although some fields (e.g. precipitation), especially
344 in northern Italy, are densely monitored, several challenges and significant limitations persist, due to sparse and
345 heterogeneous observational coverage and reporting (e.g., for tornadoes and hail) and the complex topography.

346 For example, flash floods in small catchments are often poorly observed because of their rapid and highly localized nature.
347 Existing observational networks may miss peak showers because measurements are either insufficiently frequent or too
348 sparse to adequately cover the affected areas, and the accuracy of numerical models is not always satisfactory (Ceppi et
349 al., 2023). These limitations, together with the lack of specific measurements needed to better understand convective
350 initiation and development, make the need for a dedicated field campaign urgent. Some key issues are outlined below.

351 3.1 Convective initiation

352 The difficulty in predicting localized convective storms requires a better understanding of the local conditions leading to
353 *convective initiation*. Although some recurrent patterns for heavy rain have been recently identified in Italy (e.g., Capozzi
354 et al., 2023b; Grazzini et al., 2020, 2021; Iacomino et al., 2025), and the role of equilibrium and non-equilibrium
355 conditions has been analyzed (Molini et al. 2011), the characteristics of the synoptic and mesoscale conditions associated
356 with other severe storms should be clarified, identifying the observational/model-based precursors for intense convection
357 in the different regions. This investigation will allow improving the capacity of forecasting severe thunderstorms and
358 combined with observational analysis, should help identify the typical trajectories followed by the storms in their
359 evolution.

360 Within the framework of orographic convection in the Alpine areas, the experience gained during the TEAMx–
361 DECIPHER campaign has emphasized the need to better understand the PBL mechanisms leading to convective initiation
362 and, in particular, any mechanism that may produce vertical motion sufficient to lift high- θ_e air mass to the level of free
363 convection. In particular, Manzato et al. (2022a) provided the first climatology of convective initiation over northern Italy
364 based on lightning strikes.

365 The campaign stimulated several scientific questions, both methodological and operational: which dynamic and
366 thermodynamic preconditions govern the initiation and lifecycle of *orographic cumulus clouds*? which atmospheric and
367 terrain factors govern their location and persistence? how do local slope/valley circulations, atmospheric stability, and
368 direction of the synoptic flow interact to determine the stationarity or propagation of convective clouds?

369 Different initiation mechanisms may favor the development of convective systems, such as convergence induced by local
370 breeze systems, land-coast gradient boundaries, sunrise-sunset induced thermal gradients, moisture gradients due to
371 advection (e.g., from the Adriatic Sea). In addition, cold-pools, bores and gravity waves may trigger new convective
372 events (the so-called “secondary convection”). However, it is difficult to discriminate which initiation mechanism is
373 effective. This issue is related to a key question: why on days with similar instability and “weather-type” conditions, do
374 severe storms sometimes occur and sometimes not? This point should be analyzed for heavy rain events both in the
375 convective season (summer), in the period characterized by “strong flux of rain” (autumn), and in the transition between



376 the two regimes (Manzato, 2007a; Davolio et al., 2016). In the past, Manzato (2007b) and Manzato et al. (2019) developed
377 a neural network–based scheme to perform a multivariate analysis for forecasting the occurrence and intensity of rainfall
378 events using multiple sounding-derived indices in the Friuli-Venezia-Giulia region. Building on this work, the present
379 research project aims also to better understand whether a relationship between instability indices and severe precipitation
380 that can lead to flash flood episodes may exist. Given the limitations identified in this kind of studies, new aspects should
381 probably be incorporated in research, in particular the role of aerosol concentration and of warm rain in enhancing storm
382 dynamics and rain efficiency. At a later stage of development, another issue is the transition of convective storms from
383 mountains to plains, which seems neither well understood from a storm-dynamics perspective nor generally well predicted
384 by numerical models (Fischer et al., 2025).

385 The presence of the *Mediterranean Sea* introduces an additional degree of complexity, making the prediction of
386 convective initiation and evolution particularly challenging, especially in the case of stationary or back-building
387 convective systems, as identified in some heavy rain events in the Liguria region (Cassola et al., 2016). A better
388 understanding of the role of SST anomalies has implications not only for a better detection of observed events, but also
389 in terms of reduction of false alarms.

390 3.2 Role of aerosols

391 Variations in *aerosol properties* can dramatically affect convective storms as they may: modify droplet activation and
392 warm-rain formation; shift the height and temperature of primary glaciation; influence secondary ice processes such as
393 rime-splintering; determine the number and type of ice particles, graupel, and hail embryos; affect latent heating profiles,
394 updraft strength, and storm intensity; control the rate and efficiency of precipitation development; modulate storm
395 electrification and lightning activity. Extreme convective storms often form in environments characterized by strong
396 horizontal and vertical aerosol gradients—for example, dust intrusions, biomass-burning plumes, polluted boundary
397 layers, or marine aerosol inflow. The ability to detect these gradients over large areas is essential for interpreting storm
398 initiation and spatial evolution.

399 Unfortunately, the understanding of *microphysical processes* leading to hail formation and extreme precipitation is still
400 incomplete. Despite recent progress, wide observational gaps limit our knowledge of aerosol-cloud interaction and their
401 influence on Mediterranean severe storms: do aerosols act as CCN and/or as INP? Do they promote the formation of rain
402 and/or graupel, and if so, through which mechanisms and relationships? Recently, the role of aerosols was identified in
403 modulating the precipitation in Mediterranean areas exposed to Saharian dust advection (e.g., Ferrari et al., 2024);
404 however, the generality of these results is still uncertain and requires further investigation.

405 Along similar lines, Napoli et al. (2022) showed through cloud-permitting simulations over the Great Alpine Region
406 (GAR) that the lifetime of low-pressure-system clouds and orographic clouds is generally increased at high levels of
407 aerosols, while convective clouds (typical of the summer season) can decrease at high levels of pollution as a result of the
408 reduction in strong updrafts associated with an increased air column stability. All in all, it is crucial to study observations
409 related to the 3D distribution of aerosol in connection with convective initiation (e.g., Brennan and Wilhelm, 2025 for
410 hail in Switzerland, have identified an “optimal concentration” of aerosol to maximize hail probability).

411 A central challenge is to disentangle aerosol-driven microphysical effects from dynamic forcing. Accordingly, open
412 questions are: what are the background aerosol states (composition, CCN/INP abundance, vertical structure) that do not
413 promote storm intensification, and how do they differ from perturbations associated with Mediterranean severe convective
414 weather? Under which dynamical and thermodynamic conditions (CAPE, shear, humidity, synoptic forcing) do



415 Mediterranean aerosol perturbations transition from weakening to invigorating convective storms? How can in-situ
416 observations be used to attribute observed storm variability to aerosol–cloud interactions rather than to meteorological
417 dynamics alone?

418 **3.3 Convective storm changes in future climate**

419 The potential changes in storm frequency and intensity under future climate scenarios is an open question that is still
420 subject of strong debate in the scientific community. While there are strong evidences that potential instability increased
421 in recent years (Cavalleri et al., 2026), and will be enhanced in a warmer climate, the signal in rainfall observations from
422 regional network is not so clear (e.g. Manzato et al., 2025 found no significant trend of precipitation during the convective
423 season), emphasizing the need for the analysis of multi-decadal trends in different data to detect possible shifts in
424 precipitation regimes (Mazzoglio et al., 2025). Conversely, attribution studies based on pseudo-global warming
425 simulations have clearly identified the role of a warmer atmosphere and sea in enhancing the intensity of severe convective
426 events (Gonzalez-Aleman et al., 2023; Calvo-Sanchez et al., 2026). The fact that the observed super-Clausius–Clapeyron
427 scaling of extreme precipitation may be explained by a shift from stratiform to convective rain type (Da Silva and Haerter,
428 2025; Haslinger et al., 2025) opens new questions on the role of climate change in modifying the precipitation formation
429 pathways (Hawkins et al., 2023). In this framework, and following recent evidence for the Apennine areas that the
430 intensity and frequency of heavy precipitation events are increasing, particularly during autumn (Capozzi et al., 2023b),
431 it is worth investigating how this result applies to different types of precipitation (e.g., autumn-winter orographic rainfall
432 episodes driven by long-fetch maritime moisture transport in the Apennines).

433 Some studies report a marked increase in large hail events in the Po Valley (Battaglioli et al., 2023), others over the Alps
434 (Cui et al., 2025), while in the plain of Friuli Venezia Giulia region, located in north-eastern Italy, no significant hail
435 trends were observed from 29 years of data, collected by a network of about 300 hailpad stations, except for hail size
436 (Manzato et al., 2025). These inconsistencies may ultimately be related to the scarcity of systematic ground-based hail
437 observations, a limitation that could only be addressed through an extensive and dense network of automated hailpads
438 (e.g., Kopp et al., 2023) and disdrometers (Jameson et al., 2015).

439 **3.4 Conceptual models for central Italy**

440 While conceptual models for precipitation have been developed in the Alpine areas, for other regions specific conceptual
441 models need to be developed. The open issues include: (i) better investigating the convective initiation along the
442 Adriatic/Tyrrhenian flanks, discriminating between terrain-forced convergence versus synoptically-forced cases; (ii)
443 identifying under which combinations of SST anomalies, stability and shear, orographic channeling most effectively
444 trigger convection and favors hail growth in central Italy; (iii) assessing the transferability of hail proxies calibrated in
445 other Mediterranean regions, such as the Alps and northeastern Italy (Manzato, 2012; Giordani et al., 2024), to the interior
446 Apennine basins with different relief scales and coastal geometry.

447 **3.5 Atmospheric rivers and severe convection**

448 The role of ARs in heavy precipitation has been recently disclosed in a climatological framework over northern Italy
449 (Davolio et al., 2025), as well as in case study analyses (Davolio et al., 2020, Sioni et al., 2023), providing evidence of a
450 strict connection between extreme organized water vapor transport and extreme events affecting both the Alps and the
451 Apennines (Grazzini et al., 2020). Conversely, it is well known that the thermodynamic characteristics of the impinging
452 moist flow are fundamental to determine the interaction with the orography (Miglietta and Rotunno, 2014, among others),
453 thus the intensity and distribution of rainfall.



454 In this context, ARs have been so far described as characterized by moist-neutral stratification in the lowest layers (~ 3
455 km) of the atmosphere, as observed from dropsondes released during many field campaigns over the Pacific (Ralph et al.
456 2020). This weak stability makes AR prone to rise over mountain barriers, producing orographic precipitation where
457 convection is likely embedded, which can greatly amplify the amounts of precipitation. However, ARs associated with
458 severe organized convective storms, over or at some distance from the orography, have been rarely documented. For
459 example, Moore et al. (2012) analyzed a heavy rainfall event that occurred over the Central US, where an AR fed two
460 quasi-stationary MCSs, linearly organized and exhibiting back-building mechanisms. Recent events affecting the
461 Mediterranean basin revealed the presence of intense convection associated with ARs, as in the case of the dramatic flood
462 in Valencia in October 2024 or the record-breaking rainfall over Liguria and Piedmont in October 2020 (Davolio et al.,
463 2023). Therefore, given the availability of various AR datasets, both global and Mediterranean-specific, it is timely and
464 worthy to investigate whether, and to what extent, ARs are associated with severe convective storms that develop near
465 the Alpine chain during different seasons.

466 3.6 Tornadoes and downbursts

467 Significant limitations persist in monitoring and predicting rapidly evolving storms, such as tornadoes or downbursts,
468 hence raising key challenges. These include: i) sparse and heterogeneous observational coverage, including radar gaps
469 and non-uniform scanning strategies, that limit the monitoring of mesocyclones and small-scale storms; ii) underreporting
470 and inconsistent intensity classification; iii) the intricate geomorphology of Italy and the Mediterranean, which can
471 enhance or hinder small-scale circulations, including sea–land and orographic interactions; iv) the absence of tornado-
472 specific forecasting or warning systems in Italy, as discussed in Miglietta and Rotunno (2016).

473 While some progress has been made in identifying the tornadic environment (Bagagnoli et al., 2021; De Martin et al.,
474 2024), more attention should be paid to radar patterns associated with severe convection. A climatology and a systematic
475 analysis of the environments conducive to downbursts is also missing, although they represent a significant cause of
476 damage in some Italian regions (Burlando et al., 2025). Future advances in downburst understanding will require
477 integrated observational networks combining high-frequency anemometry, Doppler LiDAR and radar systems, and
478 thermodynamic profilers capable of resolving temperature, humidity, and pressure gradients at fine spatial and temporal
479 scales. The coupling of these measurements with numerical weather prediction (NWP) models and Computational Fluid
480 Dynamics (CFD) simulations could enable real-time reconstruction and nowcasting of downburst structures.

481 3.7 Hail

482 Understanding of the physical processes leading to hail formation remains limited, particularly for giant hail events (Allen
483 et al., 2020). In Italy, this issue is further complicated by complex topography, as recently demonstrated by De Martin et
484 al. (2025a) for northeastern Italy, and Ricchi et al. (2023a, 2023b) for a giant hail event in Central Italy, where the
485 Apennine topography, together with SST anomalies, guided the low-level flow and focused coastal convergence,
486 effectively preconditioning convective initiation. This uncertainty has important implications. For instance, why does
487 large hail appear to be a rare phenomenon along the Ligurian and Tyrrhenian coasts, despite the very high frequency of
488 severe thunderstorms? Conversely, why is large hail so common along the Alpine foothills? Uncertainty in the
489 mechanisms leading to large hail production also affects hail forecasting. For example, how important are environmental
490 kinematics with respect to thermodynamics? Generally, hail is not explicitly forecast by regional and national weather
491 services and is generally treated as one of several possible hazards associated with severe storms. While this approach is
492 partly justified by the uncertainty in hail prediction, other weather services (e.g., NOAA in the United States) issue daily
493 hail outlooks, suggesting that such forecasts are feasible and could be tested during the TIM campaign. Notably, OSMER-



494 ARPA FVG mentioned in their forecast for 24 July 2023 the possible occurrence of severe hailstorms, a few hours before
495 a record-breaking hail event occurred.

496 Beyond direct hail observation and forecasting, substantial effort is currently devoted to estimating hail size using remote
497 sensing, like radar data (Allen et al., 2020; Aregger et al, 2025). An effective hail size detection algorithm, combined
498 with a tracking algorithm, could represent a powerful tool for early warnings of severe hailstorms. Regional weather
499 services in Emilia-Romagna and Piedmont are testing several algorithms for this purpose (Fornasiero et al., 2024), and
500 the data collected during the TIM campaign could significantly support their calibration.

501 **3.8 Numerical weather prediction models and data assimilation**

502 As stated, there are some publications over Italy addressing the problem of DA at the convective scale. However, there
503 are many challenges requiring further work and the TIM campaign can help to cope with some of them: i) quantifying
504 the observation impact of different data sources to guide future observing network design for the prediction of convection;
505 b) quantifying the impact of a background correlation matrix, which is aware of the “error of the day”, compared to
506 climatological approaches in order to better designing DA system for the convective scale; c) using different observations
507 at high spatio-temporal resolution to consider explicitly the correlation among observations; d) refining the use of
508 currently available observations, and assimilating new observation types.

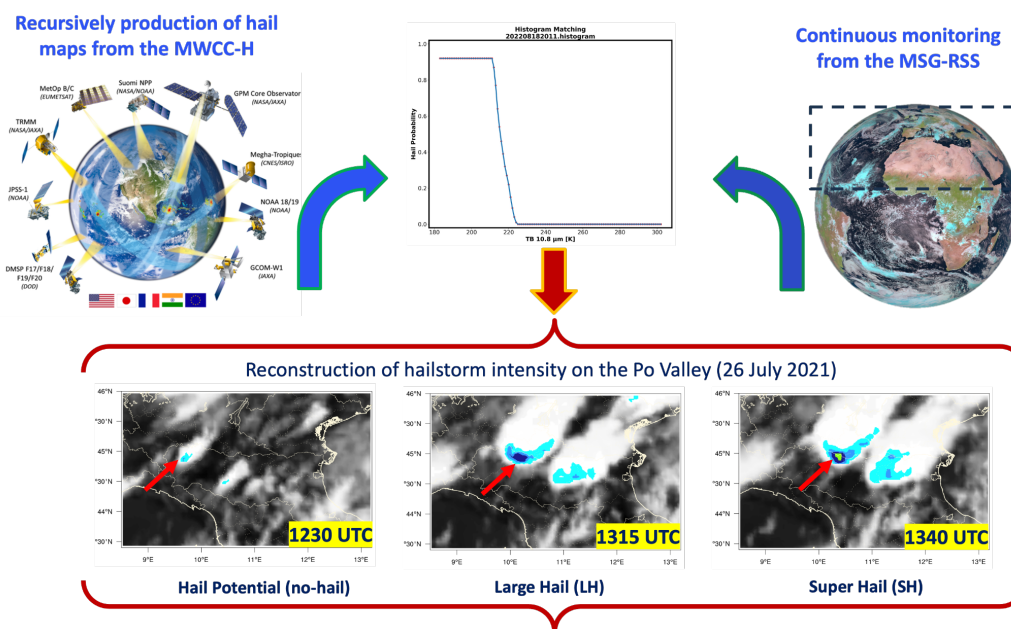
509 **4. Required Tools**

510 Observational tools and modelling techniques available nowadays make it possible to better investigate at unprecedented
511 resolution severe convective weather features.

512 **4.1 Satellite data**

513 Satellite observations are limited by their relatively coarse space and time resolution; however, the integration of
514 geostationary and polar data remain a privileged tool to explore and monitor storm evolution, from pre-storm conditions
515 and convection initiation to the mature and decaying stages of the systems. The data provided by the new satellite
516 constellations (e.g., Meteosat Third Generation, MTG), including vertical profiling, represent a tremendous opportunity
517 to better characterize the environment where convective storms develop and to track their evolution. In addition, flash
518 observations from the Lightning Imager onboard MTG are very useful to identify, track and forecast convective storms.

519 New satellite techniques are available to identify and monitor hailstorms. The Multi-sensor Approach for Satellite Hail
520 Advection (*MASHA*) is a new multi-instrument blended technique conceived for real-time detecting of hail-bearing
521 clouds. *MASHA* (Fig. 6) identifies hail clouds from satellite measurements and monitors the evolution of hail-bearing
522 systems every 5 min by combining the strength of the MicroWave Cloud Classification-Hail (MWCC-H) method, which
523 detects hail through the whole Global Precipitation Measurement (GPM) sensor constellation (Laviola et al., 2020a,b),
524 with the high temporal rate of the Meteosat Rapid Scan Service (MSG-RSS). *MASHA* has been applied to various case
525 studies demonstrating strong capability in identifying severe events and high robustness to detect small-scaled hailstorms
526 in mountain catchments. These results open new perspectives for investigating hailstorms and hydro-meteorological
527 events in mountain areas, whereas traditional methodologies often miss events or underestimate their severity. Although
528 further experiments are needed, *MASHA*'s performance paves the way towards pseudo-operational applications in
529 support to hailstorm nowcasting and assimilation in regional numerical weather predictions and appears mature for
530 application during the TIM campaign.



531

532 **Figure 6: MASHA conceptual scheme (top images; Credit: NASA and EUMETSAT) and highlights of hailstorm evolution**
 533 **affecting Northern Italy on 26 July 2021 (bottom bracketed images).**

534

535 4.2 Radar

536 Investigating convective initiation requires high-temporal resolution observations of the vertical velocity and moisture
 537 distribution in the lowest part of the troposphere (first 2-3 km). *Doppler radar* wind data with overlapping scan domains
 538 (at least every 5 minutes) would be necessary to estimate the *vertical* velocity spatial distribution using the classical
 539 continuity equation method (Dual-Doppler Analysis, DDA) or more modern techniques (e.g. Lopez-Carrillo et al. 2011,
 540 Tsai et al. 2025). For northeastern Italy, these techniques can be applied to the Loncon and Fossalon C-band Doppler
 541 radars. In the Emilia-Romagna region, an X-band radar will be soon installed and two C-band radar sites updated.

542 The Italian Civil Protection Department (DPC) expressed its willingness to join the TIM campaign, being particularly
 543 interested in analyzing the ground impact of severe convective storms and in integrating the damage surveys with radar
 544 data. A mobile X-band radar (2m high antenna) may be made available for the campaign but requires power supply
 545 stations in the target areas and some funds to assure the transport of the instrument. Also relevant for the campaign will
 546 be a radar situated on mount Zoufplan at 2000 m height, at the border with Austria.

547 The recent installation of two X-band dual-polarization radars in the Lombardy Region (Desio and Flero) aims to
 548 strengthen the regional monitoring network and enhance nowcasting capabilities using machine learning models (Franch
 549 et al., 2025). In addition to supporting operational forecasts (Xu et al., 2025), these radar-based estimates can serve as
 550 inputs for hydrological models, whether physically based and spatially distributed (hybrid systems) or entirely AI-driven
 551 (full AI systems). Consequently, integrating AI-based radar nowcasting with hydrological models represents a significant
 552 advancement in improving the effectiveness of operational warning systems and the dynamic management of structural
 553 mitigation measures, providing reliable and accurate short-term forecasts, particularly for summer convective events
 554 (Ceppi et al., 2025).



555 AEROLAB (AERosol mOBile LABoratory) is a CNR-ISAC mobile platform designed for deployment in remote and
556 non-instrumented areas for the study and characterization of atmospheric particulate matter through in situ sampling.
557 AEROLAB is housed in an ISO10 container, certified for operation also on-board research vessels, temperature-
558 controlled, and equipped with dedicated sampling lines for multiple instruments. The remote sensing operational
559 observational capability of the mobile platform consists of a co-located Doppler wind lidar, a 35-GHz cloud radar, and a
560 lidar, enabling an integrated characterization of convection-relevant processes from the surface layer to the cloud column.
561 Together, the suite links aerosol structure, inflow kinematics, and near-cloud vertical motions to the cloud and
562 precipitation response, enabling process studies and model evaluation of triggering, microphysics–dynamics feedbacks,
563 and aerosol-mediated convective intensification.

564 **4.3 Integration of remote sensing and surface data**

565 A possible correspondence between severe storms and ARs can be identified based on the exploitation of satellite analysis
566 and ground-based observations. Being characterized by large-scale moisture transport, ARs can be identified using
567 analysis fields and detection algorithms. However, to describe precisely the low-level thermodynamic profiles of the
568 impinging moist flow and infer the precipitation characteristics, the availability of on-demand *radio-soundings*,
569 *dropsondes* and vertical moisture/wind measurements, including weather *drones*, especially upstream of convection,
570 would be critical. Additional instruments, like *optical lidar* and powerful *wind profilers*, which have been extensively
571 employed during the TEAMx campaign, should monitor the PBL at high-resolution, and the low-level wind, including
572 its vertical component.

573 A substantial upgrade of in-situ observations is also needed, mainly in areas which have been excluded from the
574 mainstream scientific interest, such as the Apennines. Dense, elevation-stratified *raingauges* with ≤ 10 -min logging along
575 coastal-to-ridge transects and windward crests should be complemented by a disdrometer network (Adirosi et al., 2023)
576 to resolve drop size distributions, phase and fall speeds in mixed-phase and convective events. An extensive *hail*
577 *monitoring network* is also necessary to document occurrence, size spectra and kinetic energy, ideally co-located with
578 disdrometers for cross-validation.

579 **4.4 Aerosol and cloud in-situ observations**

580 ACI in-situ observations are rarely coordinated with large scale dynamic campaigns (Kunz et al., 2022). The Italian
581 contribution to TIM aims to provide systematic observations of both aerosol properties and cloud microphysics at the
582 WMO/GAW observatory of Monte Cimone (CNR-ISAC), a facility representative of the Mediterranean troposphere.
583 However, without vertical profiles of wind, stability, humidity, and aerosol distribution (Fig. 7), it remains impossible to
584 separate microphysical aerosol effects from dynamical forcing. Implementing remote-sensing and profiling capabilities
585 in parallel to in-situ aerosol-microphysical observations during the TIM campaign is therefore essential to enable robust
586 attribution of aerosol impacts on Mediterranean severe storms.

587 Airborne platforms are the only way of providing vertically and horizontally resolved observations of aerosol properties,
588 thermodynamic structure, and cloud development in the vicinity of convective systems. To address this need, we propose
589 the integrated deployment of two Italian research aircrafts: the SkyArrow ERA and the Piper Seneca III in coordination
590 with aerosol remote sensing (Lufft CHM – Nimbus 15k).

591 Used in combination, the Cimone observatory and the two mobile platforms may characterize the environmental
592 conditions from the surface to the mid-upper troposphere with complementary measurements. This yields a 3D, multi-
593 scale picture of the storm environment over a wide geographic domain, capturing horizontal gradients in aerosol



594 concentration, shifts in aerosol types, thermodynamic stability, moisture and temperature gradients, all of which are
595 critical for convective initiation and strongly modulate the spatial evolution and intensity of convective storms.

596 5. Conclusions

597 The TIM campaign offers a unique opportunity to improve our understanding of severe weather in Italy. This objective
598 needs, however, a fine data coverage, which includes: high-resolution dual-polarization radars, with short scan times, and
599 improved overlapping coverage for storm detection and tracking; integration of high-frequency satellite and radar data to
600 support effective nowcasting; dense networks of rain gauges and hydrological sensors for real-time monitoring of flash
601 floods; radiosondes and weather drones to better understand the local conditions favorable to deep convective initiation;
602 convection-permitting numerical limited-area models, either deterministic or probabilistic, potentially combined with
603 advanced convective-scale data assimilation methods, providing severe convection indices as outputs to give sufficient
604 guidance in forecasting localized severe convection and in concentrating the observational capabilities in specific areas;
605 post-event damage survey analysis techniques for correlating storm dynamics and ground impacts; development and
606 improvement of nowcasting algorithms in identifying and reproducing the dynamics of propagating, stationary and back-
607 building systems, including the use of data-driven AI algorithms.

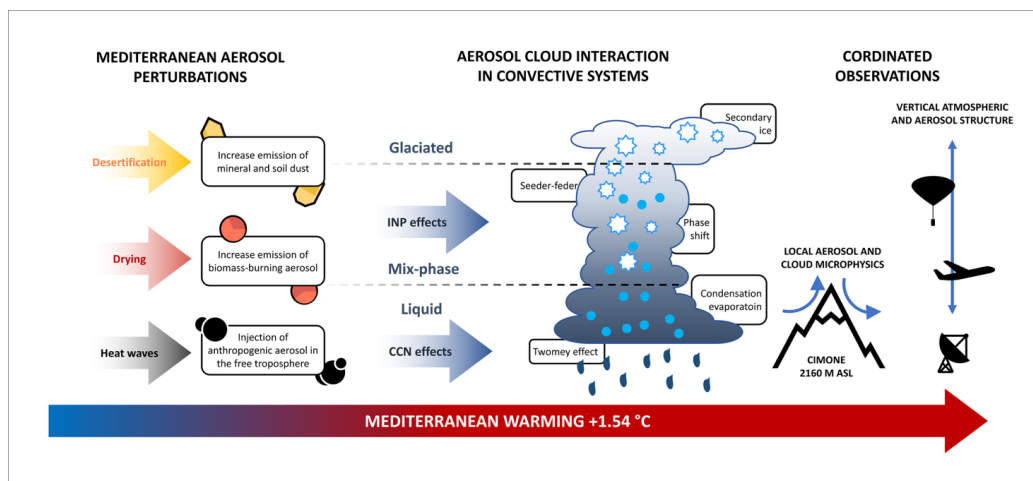
608 The national radar reflectivity mosaic, of which we will encourage the full integration in the OPERA European mosaic,
609 may be combined with the data from the available mobile radar and (hopefully) from weather drones (Leuenberger et al.,
610 2020), representing a great opportunity to discover signatures and monitor the detailed evolution of severe weather
611 directly in the areas affected by the most intense events, solving the weaknesses over complex terrain, due for example
612 to radar beam blocking. The recent development of AI methods paves the way to new applications, in terms of both
613 nowcasting and forecasting capabilities, and of pattern-recognition tools trained on radar, satellite, and reanalysis datasets.
614 Finally, the campaign can be crowdsourced, using the platforms where weather amateurs already share the information
615 in real-time (e.g., PRETEMP, De Martin et al., 2023, and Meteonetwork, Giazzi et al., 2022).

616 The proposed dual-aircraft strategy will allow, for the first time in Italy, to deliver one of the most comprehensive
617 environmental characterizations ever obtained for European deep convective storms. This combination will allow to
618 directly link aerosol spatial gradients to microphysical evolution (glaciation, hail, precipitation); to improve storm-scale
619 modelling, especially microphysical parameterizations; to advance the understanding of aerosol–convection coupling, a
620 major climate uncertainty. The dedicated airborne measurements, combined with the data from the observatory of Monte
621 Cimone, offers a unique opportunity to better investigate the troposphere during severe convective events and to improve
622 our understanding of the role of aerosols in enhancing or reducing severe storm activity.

623 Therefore, we believe that the TIM campaign, under the coordination of ESSL and the involvement of many institutions
624 across Europe, may represent a tremendous boost for: (i) moving ahead the understanding of severe weather over Italy;
625 (ii) improving the monitoring and forecasting capabilities; (iii) creating more comprehensive, and generate detailed and
626 (iv) accurate statistics for the intensity and distribution of severe convective events, which is partially missing over Italy
627 (e.g., downbursts); enhancing resilience of the population.

628 Finally, the communication activities planned aside the campaign should be able to increase the awareness about severe
629 weather in the framework of climate change and to explain to the population how to deal with alerts. While the recurring
630 floods over Italy in the last few years have surely improved the situation and made clear the need to adopt more
631 precautionary behavior, unfortunately public education on severe convection storms is still limited, and there is a long
632 way to go to reach an acceptable level.

633



634

635 **Figure 7. Schematic representing the aerosol cloud interactions (ACI) under the warming scenario in the Mediterranean. The**
 636 **cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) and ice nucleating particles (INPs) trigger different processes during severe storm**
 637 **development. To isolate the ACI contribution, observations of aerosol and cloud microphysics must be coordinated with**
 638 **vertically resolved dynamics observations.**

639 **Data availability**

640 Not relevant for the present paper.

641 **Authors contributions**

642 All Authors contributed to the writing of the paper.

643 **Conflicts of interest**

644 The contact author declares that none of the authors has any competing interests.

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