Impact of surface turbulent fluxes on the formation of convective rolls in a Mediterranean windstorm

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Abstract

Convective rolls contribute largely to the exchange of momentum, sensible heat and moisture in the boundary layer. They have been shown to reinforce air-sea interaction under strong wind conditions. This raises the question of how surface turbulent fluxes can, in turn, affect the rolls. Representing the air-sea exchanges during extreme wind conditions is a major challenge in weather prediction and can lead to large uncertainties in surface wind speed. The sensitivity of rolls to different representations of surface fluxes is investigated using Large Eddy Simulations. The study focuses on the Mediterranean windstorm Adrian, where convective rolls resulting from thermal and dynamical instabilities are responsible for the transport of strong winds to the surface. Considering sea spray in the parameterization of surface fluxes significantly influences roll morphology. Sea spray increases heat fluxes and favors convection. With this more pronounced thermal instability, the rolls are $30\$ narrower and extend over a greater height, and the downward transport of momentum is intensified by $40\$, resulting in higher wind speeds at the surface. Convective rolls vanish within a few minutes in the absence of momentum fluxes, which maintain the wind shear necessary for their organization. They also quickly weaken without sensible heat fluxes, which feed the thermal instability required for their development, while latent heat fluxes play minor role. These findings emphasize the necessity of precisely representing the processes occurring at the air-sea interface, as they not only affect the thermodynamic surface conditions but also the vertical transport of momentum within the windstorm.

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5	Key Points:
6	• Large eddy simulations reveal the existence of convective rolls transporting
7	strong winds to the surface in a Mediterranean windstorm
8	• The inclusion of spray in surface fluxes results in a 30% reduction in the size
9	of convective rolls and a 40% increase in momentum transport
10	• The results may constrain the representation of turbulent fluxes at the air-sea
11	interface, which is uncertain under strong wind conditions

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12 Abstract

Convective rolls contribute largely to the exchange of momentum, sensible heat and 13 moisture in the boundary layer. They have been shown to reinforce air-sea interac-14 tion under strong wind conditions. This raises the question of how surface turbulent 15 fluxes can, in turn, affect the rolls. Representing the air-sea exchanges during ex-16 treme wind conditions is a major challenge in weather prediction and can lead to 17 large uncertainties in surface wind speed. The sensitivity of rolls to different repre-18 sentations of surface fluxes is investigated using Large Eddy Simulations. The study 19 focuses on the Mediterranean windstorm Adrian, where convective rolls resulting 20 from thermal and dynamical instabilities are responsible for the transport of strong 21 winds to the surface. Considering sea spray in the parameterization of surface fluxes 22 significantly influences roll morphology. Sea spray increases heat fluxes and favors 23 convection. With this more pronounced thermal instability, the rolls are 30% nar-24 rower and extend over a greater height, and the downward transport of momentum 25 is intensified by 40%, resulting in higher wind speeds at the surface. Convective rolls 26 vanish within a few minutes in the absence of momentum fluxes, which maintain the 27 wind shear necessary for their organization. They also quickly weaken without sen-28 sible heat fluxes, which feed the thermal instability required for their development, 29 while latent heat fluxes play minor role. These findings emphasize the necessity of 30 precisely representing the processes occurring at the air-sea interface, as they not 31 only affect the thermodynamic surface conditions but also the vertical transport of 32 momentum within the windstorm. 33

³⁴ Plain Language Summary

Convective rolls are coherent and organized swirls that are often observed in 35 the atmospheric boundary layer. Here, they are simulated with fine resolution in 36 a numerical model for a Mediterranean windstorm, where they carry strong winds 37 through the boundary layer towards the surface. Their existence requires two ele-38 ments: significant exchange of both heat and momentum between the sea and the 39 atmosphere. The morphology of convective rolls is highly dependent on air-sea ex-40 changes, which representation in numerical models is uncertain under strong wind 41 conditions. In particular, the evaporation of water droplets ejected by wind action 42 on the waves may reinforce heat exchanges. When this effect is taken into account, 43 the rolls are stronger, taller and narrower. Consequently, the wind speed increases 44 near the surface. These findings highlight the need to better understand the inter-45 actions at the air-sea interface under windstorm conditions, because they act on the 46 formation of damaging winds. 47

48 1 Introduction

In late October 2018, a mid-tropospheric trough formed over the eastern At-49 lantic, extending from Scandinavian to the Iberian Peninsula. At the surface, a 50 broad cyclonic area developed over the western Mediterranean, to the east of the 51 trough axis. On October 29, the strongly baroclinic environment led to the forma-52 tion of windstorm Adrian (also known as Vaia) (Cavaleri et al., 2019; Davolio et 53 al., 2020; Giovannini et al., 2021). Owing to a strong contrast between the cold air 54 and the warm sea surface, the low-pressure system rapidly intensified and reached 55 a minimum pressure of 977 hPa as it moved between Corsica and northwest Italy. 56 In Corsica, Adrian caused wind gusts of up to 180 km h^{-1} , resulting in extensive 57 damage to infrastructure and considerable economic losses. 58

Recent research reveals that the strong winds of windstorm Adrian have their origin from a mesoscale cold conveyor belt, which refers to a cold air flow in the lower levels of the troposphere (Lfarh et al., 2023). The fine-scale processes leading to the downward transport of strong winds were examined using a Large Eddy
Simulation (LES), for which the strong winds are located in a convective boundary
layer. The phase of maximum intensity of Adrian is marked by a combination of
thermal instability resulting from a strong air-sea temperature contrast, and dynamic instability due to strong vertical wind shear. Such thermodynamic conditions
foster the formation of convective rolls in the boundary layer.

Convective rolls are defined as quasi-two-dimensional vortices, oriented in the 68 wind direction, creating alternating upward and downward air motions (Etling & 69 70 Brown, 1993). These structures are also observed in different meteorological conditions from those of Mediterranean windstorms, such as cold-air outbreak events 71 (Gryschka & Raasch, 2005; Chen et al., 2019) and hurricanes (Foster, 2005; Li et al., 72 2021). Convective rolls are known for transporting momentum, heat and moisture 73 through their descending and ascending branches between the top of the boundary 74 layer and the sea surface (Weckwerth et al., 1999). Previous studies have shown that 75 convective rolls contribute half, or even much more, of the total momentum flux in 76 hurricanes, and can reinforce air-sea interactions (Morrison et al., 2005). In Adrian, 77 the wind is stronger along downward branch of the rolls due to higher momentum 78 air transport from the cold conveyor belt (Lfarh et al., 2023). 79

The transport of momentum, heat and moisture by convective rolls in the 80 boundary layer could influence surface fluxes. This raises the question of how these 81 fluxes in turn affect the characteristics of the rolls. Exchanges at the air-sea in-82 terface strongly influence the thermodynamic conditions of the atmosphere. Heat 83 fluxes, in particular, are among the diabatic processes involved in the development of 84 extra-tropical cyclones. Previous studies have shown that the release of latent heat 85 during condensation processes can strengthen vorticity at lower levels, and therefore 86 contribute to the cyclogenesis (Booth et al., 2012; Ludwig et al., 2014). As well as 87 their mesoscale impact, air-sea interactions play a significant role in modulating sur-88 face wind speeds during windstorms. Schultz and Sienkiewicz (2013) suggested that 89 heat fluxes promote shallow convection and facilitate wind mixing from the upper 90 boundary layer towards the surface. 91

Turbulent fluxes at the air-sea interface occur on spatial and temporal scales 92 too small to be explicitly resolved in numerical weather prediction models, and 03 are therefore parameterized. The importance of air-sea interactions has led to widespread interest in improving their representation in numerical weather pre-95 diction systems (Lewis et al., 2019). To date, many uncertainties persist in flux 96 measurements at the air-sea interface, particularly in high wind situations. Flux 97 measurements are limited to a wind speed of about 20 m s⁻¹. This may explain the 98 underestimation of near-surface wind speed in windstorms compared to in situ and 99 satellite observations (Pineau-Guillou et al., 2018). Although direct measurements 100 from ocean buoys, GPS dropsondes and airborne radar can be employed to quan-101 tify surface fluxes under strong wind conditions, the scarcity of such observations 102 presents major challenges for model validation (Richter & Stern, 2014; Zou et al., 103 2018). In addition, the air-sea interface becomes more complex under strong wind 104 conditions, with the presence of foam and sea spray resulting from breaking waves. 105 These factors make measuring and modeling turbulent fluxes all the more difficult 106 (Emanuel, 2003; Sroka & Emanuel, 2021). 107

Theoretical studies and numerical simulations have shown that the microphysical processes governing the generation and evaporation of sea spray can have a significant impact on air-sea exchanges. In strong winds, breaking waves at the air-sea interface can produce large quantities of spray droplets. As they float in the air, spray droplets carry a large amount of energy due to their speed and abundance, generating more intense momentum fluxes (Veron et al., 2012; Sroka & Emanuel, 2022). In addition, sea spray has the effect of cooling the air and transferring latent heat to the atmosphere when it evaporates, creating favorable conditions for more
powerful heat exchange between the sea surface and the atmosphere (Andreas et al.,
2015; Jeong et al., 2012). Using a coupled ocean-wave-atmosphere model, Zhao et al.
(2017) found that sea spray caused an increase in cyclone intensity by strengthening
air-sea fluxes. Sroka and Emanuel (2021) concluded that the inclusion of sea spray
in turbulent flux parameterizations is crucial in extreme wind situations.

The Mediterranean is an ideal test-bed for investigating these complex surface 121 processes under strong wind situations. Regional winds bring cold, dry continental 122 123 air over the warm waters of the Mediterranean, leading to intense air-sea interactions (Flamant, 2003). In this cyclogenesis-prone region, low-pressure systems are 124 not only maintained, but also reinforced by exchanges resulting from variations in 125 temperature and humidity between the atmosphere and the sea (Jansà et al., 1994). 126 Unlike tropical cyclones and Atlantic windstorms, there are few studies devoted 127 to the role of surface turbulent fluxes in the mesoscale dynamics of Mediterranean 128 windstorms. Furthermore, the impact of these fluxes on fine-scale processes is largely 129 unknown for extra-tropical cyclones. The main objective of this study is to examine 130 how turbulent fluxes at the air-sea interface affect the formation and organization 131 of convective rolls and, hence, surface winds during the Mediterranean windstorm 132 Adrian. To achieve this purpose, sensitivity tests to different parameterizations of 133 turbulent fluxes are carried out using LES. 134

The paper is structured as follows: Section 2 briefly presents the modeling strategy, the parameterizations used to calculate turbulent fluxes and the analysis tools. Section 3 examines the influence of turbulent fluxes at the mesoscale, particularly on changes in the trajectory and intensity of the windstorm. Section 4 investigates the effects of parameterizations on fine scale convective rolls and surface winds before discussing the impact of each turbulent flux independently of the others. Finally, section 5 summarizes the main results.

142 2 Methods

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2.1 Numerical configuration and sensitivity experiments

Two reference simulations, a mesoscale one and the other a LES, are carried 144 out with the Meso-NH non-hydrostatic atmospheric model (Lac et al., 2018) to 145 study the strong mesoscale winds in windstorm Adrian and the fine-scale processes 146 responsible for their transport to the surface, respectively. Both simulations share 147 the same vertical grid with 72 levels reaching 22 km and a finer grid spacing near 148 the surface (10 m at the first level). They are initialized at 0600 UTC on October 149 29, 2018 from the operational analysis of the European Centre for Medium-Range 150 Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) and run for 15 h. 151

The mesoscale simulation covers a domain centered on the western Mediter-152 ranean (domain D1 in Figure 1a) with a horizontal grid spacing of 1000 m allowing 153 explicit representation of deep convection. The LES is nested in the mesoscale sim-154 ulation using a one-way nested method. It has a horizontal grid spacing of 200 m 155 over a large domain covering part of the Mediterranean Sea and the whole of Corsica 156 (domain D2 in Figure 1b). Both simulations are based on the same parameteriza-157 tion schemes, except for three. The mesoscale simulation uses the fifth-order WENO 158 (weighted essentially non-oscillatory) advection scheme for momentum variables 159 (Shu & Osher, 1988), the EDMF (eddy-diffusivity mass flux) parametrization of 160 Pergaud et al. (2009) for shallow convection, and the 1D version of the scheme of 161 Cuxart et al. (2000) for turbulence. In the LES, the EDMF parameterization is de-162 activated, as convection is explicitly represented, and a more accurate fourth-order 163 centered advection scheme is used along with a 3D version of the turbulence scheme. 164



Figure 1: Wind speeds at 10 m height at 1530 UTC, from reference simulations at 1000 m (a) and 200 m (b) horizontal resolution. The black squares represent the D1 and D2 domains in(a). The wind direction at 10 m is represented by the green arrows. In (b), the white square indicates the zoomed-in area of 20 by 20 km shown in Figure 5.

For further details on the simulation configuration, the reader is referred to Lfarh et al. (2023).

Sensitivity experiments to turbulent fluxes at the air-sea interface are carried 167 out at both scales based on the two reference simulations. In order to assess the 168 impact of turbulent flux parameterizations on the evolution of the Adrian storm at 169 mesoscale, a first series of sensitivity experiments are performed with a horizontal 170 grid spacing of 1000 m on the D1 domain. These simulations are initialized at 1200 171 UTC from the reference simulation and run for 6 h, including the development and 172 intensification phase of windstorm Adrian. To shed light on the impact of turbu-173 lent exchanges between the air and the sea on the convective rolls that bring strong 174 winds to the surface, a second series of sensitivity experiments is performed at a hor-175 izontal resolution of 200 m on the D2 domain. These experiments are also initialized 176 from the reference simulations and conducted over a short period from 1500 UTC to 177 1530 UTC, when the windstorm reached its maximum intensity. 178

Surface-atmosphere interactions are managed by a surface modeling platform 179 called SURFEX (Surface Externalised), which is coupled to Meso-NH (Masson et 180 al., 2013). This platform integrates several physical models that deal with the dif-181 ferent characteristics of the surface of the Earth. In reference simulations, turbulent 182 air-sea exchanges are represented by default using the COARE3 (Coupled Ocean-183 Atmosphere Response Experiment) parameterization (Fairall et al., 2003). Other 184 parameterizations of air-sea exchanges widely used are tested at both 1000 m and 185 200 m resolutions and are described hereinafter. In addition to the different param-186 eterizations, three other sensitivity experiments to momentum and heat fluxes are 187 performed in this study. The aim is to isolate the impact of each type of fluxes on 188 convective rolls and surface winds. Using the COARE3 reference parameterization, 189 the NoM, NoH and NoLE simulations are performed at a horizontal resolution of 190 200 m, with momentum, sensible heat and latent heat fluxes set to zero, respectively. 191 The simulations are labelled according to the name of the parameterization used, 192 followed by "1" and "2" to refer to the horizontal resolutions of 1000 and 200 m. 193 The model configuration for each simulation is summarized in Table 1. 194

Simulation	Grid mesh (m)	Advection	Shallow convection	Turbulence	Air-Sea fluxes
Coare1	1000	WENO	Yes	1D	COARE
Andreas1	1000	WENO	Yes	1D	ANDREAS
Ecume1	1000	WENO	Yes	1D	ECUME6
Wasp1	1000	WENO	Yes	1D	WASP
Coare2	200	CEN4TH	No	3D	COARE
Andreas2	200	CEN4TH	No	3D	ANDREAS
Ecume2	200	CEN4TH	No	3D	ECUME6
Wasp2	200	CEN4TH	No	3D	WASP
NoM	200	CEN4TH	No	3D	No momentum fluxes
NoH	200	CEN4TH	No	3D	No sensible heat fluxes
NoLE	200	CEN4TH	No	3D	No latent heat fluxes

Table 1: Configuration of air-sea turbulent flux sensitivity experiments including the main parameterization schemes used.

2.2 Parameterizations of turbulent fluxes at the air-sea interface

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Parameterizing turbulent fluxes consists in defining a formulation of turbulent 196 fluctuations close to the surface. The formulation takes into account all processes 197 at the air-sea interface that can impact the fluctuations, such as waves, sea spray, 198 etc. Air-sea fluxes are calculated on the basis of the Monin and Obukhov (1957) 199 similarity theory, enabling the estimation of fluxes generated by complex turbulent 200 processes in the boundary layer as a function of mean model parameters. These pa-201 rameters are based on global or bulk aerodynamic algorithms (Liu et al., 1979). The 202 parameterizations calculate turbulent fluxes as follows: 203

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$$\tau_{\text{bulk}} = \rho \overline{w'u'} = -\rho u_*^2$$

$$H_{\text{bulk}} = \rho c_p \overline{w'\theta'} = -\rho c_p u_* \theta_*$$

$$LE_{\text{bulk}} = \rho L_v \overline{w'q'} = -\rho L_v u_* q_*$$
(1)

where τ is the momentum flux, H the sensible heat flux and LE the latent heat flux. ρ is the air surface density, c_p the heat capacity of air at constant pressure and L_v the latent heat of vaporization. u_* , θ_* and q_* are scaling parameters for momentum, potential temperature and humidity, respectively. Bulk algorithms are based on the determination of constants called exchange coefficients (or aerodynamic coefficients), which establish a relationship between turbulent fluxes and mean parameters. Turbulent fluxes are defined as a function of vertical gradients of wind speed ΔU , potential temperature $\Delta \theta$ and humidity Δq , with C_D , C_H and C_E the exchange coefficients for momentum, sensible heat and latent heat, respectively :

$$\tau = -\rho C_D \Delta U^2 = -\rho C_D (U_a - U_s)^2$$

$$H = -\rho c_p C_H \Delta U \Delta \theta = -\rho c_p C_H (U_a - U_s) (\theta_a - \theta_s)$$

$$LE = -\rho L_v C_E \Delta U \Delta q = -\rho L_v C_E (U_a - U_s) (q_a - q_s)$$
(2)

where the a index corresponds to the first atmospheric level, and the s index to the sea surface.

Even though all parametrizations are based on the same theory, they differ from one another. Each parametrization uses its own stability function and closure assumption, allowing simplified consideration of complex variations in the nearsurface atmosphere. The formulations of turbulent flux parametrizations differ in



Figure 2: Turbulent fluxes of (a) momentum, (b) sensible and (c) latent heat as a function of wind speed at 10 m from the Coare2 (green), Andreas2 (blue), Ecume2 (pink) and Wasp2 (orange) simulations at 1530 UTC. Turbulent fluxes are calculated at each grid point on the zoom represented by the white square on Figure 1b.

their expressions of exchange coefficients and roughness length calculations, and 210 also in the way they do or do not take into account the effects of specific physical 211 processes (Brunke et al., 2003). In this article, four well-established parameteriza-212 tions are used: COARE3.0 (Fairall et al., 2003), ANDREAS (Andreas et al., 2015), 213 ECUME6, the sixth version of Exchange Coefficient Unified Multi-campaign Experi-214 ments used operationally by Météo-France (Belamari, 2005), and WASP (Wave-Age 215 Stress dependant Parametrization) (Sauvage et al., 2020). They are detailed in 216 Appendix A. 217

Differences between parameterizations are illustrated at 1530 UTC, when wind 218 speeds reaching 40 m s⁻¹ occur in a narrow belt along the south flank of the low-219 pressure center (white square in Figure 1b). The momentum, sensible and latent 220 heat fluxes are represented in Figure 2 as a function of wind speed at 10 m. For all 221 four parametrizations, momentum fluxes show a similar increase with wind speed for 222 speeds below 30 m s⁻¹ (Figure 2a). At speeds above 30 m s⁻¹, they diverge depend-223 ing on the parameterization used. The strongest momentum fluxes are produced by 224 the COARE and ANDREAS parametrizations. In contrast, ECUME and WASP 225 show a relatively similar evolution under strong wind conditions, characterized by 226 lower fluxes of momentum, with a tendency to saturation at speeds above 30 m s^{-1} . 227 This contrast shows the impact of accounting or not for the saturation of the drag 228 coefficient when wind speed exceeds 30 m s⁻¹. The differences between sensible 229 and latent heat flux parameterizations become apparent at speeds of 20 m s^{-1} and 230 above. The COARE, ECUME and WASP parametrizations show similar heat fluxes 231 at high speeds, varying between 200 and 500 W m^{-2} for sensible heat fluxes, and 232 between 500 and 1500 W m^{-2} for latent heat fluxes. ANDREAS reveals large devia-233 tions for wind speeds in excess of 20 m s^{-1} , illustrating the impact of the sea spray 234 included in the parametrization. This translates into fluxes in excess of 2000 W m^{-2} 235 and 4000 W m⁻² for sensible and latent heat respectively, at wind speeds in excess 236 of 45 m s^{-1} . 237

2.3 Auto-correlation function

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As in Lfarh et al. (2023) fine-scale wind speed structures associated with the
Adrian storm are characterized using the spatial auto-correlation function (ACF).
The ACF is a statistical approach commonly used to assess the spatial variability
of turbulence organization in the atmospheric boundary layer, defining the main
shape, direction and characteristic size of structures (Lohou et al., 1998; Brilouet et

al., 2023). In practice, ACF measures the correlation of a variable with itself at spa-

tial positions shifted along the x and y directions. In this case study, the 2D ACF

 $R_F(\delta_x, \delta_y)$ is calculated from the vertical wind speed fields F(x, y) at lags δ_x and δ_y ,

using the method of Granero Belinchon et al. (2022) as follows:

$$R_F(\delta_x, \delta_y) = \langle F(x, y) \times F(x + \delta_x, y + \delta_y) \rangle$$
(3)

where F(x, y) is the field value at position (x,y), $F(x + \delta_x, y + \delta_y)$ is the field value at a position lagged by (δ_x, δ_y) from (x,y) and $\langle ... \rangle$ denotes the spatial average.

The first step is to extract the main shape of the structures, which can be ei-250 ther elliptical, suggesting the presence of convective rolls, or circular, as in the case 251 of convective cells. The analysis is based on the integral length L_{es} , defined as the 252 integral of the ACF where the field F(x, y) remains correlated with itself. L_{es} is 253 calculated in different directions to detect possible anisotropy (Lohou et al., 2000). 254 The geometry of the structures can be determined by fitting the set of points corre-255 sponding to L_{es} . An elliptical fit indicates an elongated, elliptical structure, while a 256 circular fit suggests a circular structure. In a second step, the geometric parameters 257 of the structure are determined, including the major axis r_a and the minor axis r_b . 258 These two axes are used to quantify the flatness parameter f calculated as follows: 259

$$f = \frac{r_a - r_b}{r_a} \tag{4}$$

where r_a and r_b are the major and minor radii of the structure, respectively. This parameter is used to distinguish the roll structures, where f tends towards 1, from the cellular structures, where the parameter tends towards 0. The third step is to estimate the length scale of the organized structure L_{os} , which represents its characteristic size. This length is defined as the distance between two correlation maxima in the ACF.

²⁶⁶ 3 Impact of surface fluxes on the mesoscale dynamics

The effects of the four parameterizations are assessed here on the evolution of 267 windstorm Adrian at mesoscale. On the morning of October 29, 2018, a large low-268 pressure system intensified into windstorm Adrian in the western Mediterranean as 269 a result of baroclinic interaction. The observed (best-track) and simulated trajec-270 tories from the Coare1, Andreas1, Ecume1 and Wasp1 simulations are shown over 271 the D2 domain from 1200 to 1700 UTC (Figure 3a), until the cyclone moves out of 272 the domain and arrives on land. At 1200 UTC, Adrian is located to the west of Sar-273 dinia, then moves northwards along a meridional trajectory. It approaches Corsica 274 between 1500 and 1600 UTC. All simulated trajectories remain close to the best 275 track, demonstrating the ability of the model to capture the trajectory of Adrian. 276 Furthermore, the simulated trajectories remain close to each other despite slight po-277 sitional shifts. This suggests that the track of Adrian over this short period does not 278 depend much on the air-sea flux parameterization used, but is mainly determined by 279 the baroclinic interaction. 280

Temporal evolutions of mean sea level pressure (MSLP) and 99th percentile wind speeds at 10 m over the sea are calculated from 1200 to 1800 on the D2 domain (Figures 3b and 3c). The evolution of pressure indicates that Adrian intensified rapidly, reaching its maximum intensity between 1500 and 1600 UTC, i.e.,



Figure 3: (a) Trajectories of Adrian as observed (black line) and simulated by Coare1, Andreas1, Ecume1 and Wasp1 (colored lines) every 15 min between 1200 and 1700 UTC. The black circular markers indicate the position observed every hour. Terrain height is shown in color. The best observed track is estimated from the center of the cyclonic cloud roll-up on the Spinning Enhanced Visible and InfraRed Imager (SEVIRI) High Resolution Visible (HRV) satellite image, while simulated trajectories are estimated from the position of the lowest mean sea-level pressure. (b) Temporal evolution of minimum pressure at sea level and (c) 99th percentile wind speed at 10 m over sea. The evolutions are calculated over the sea part of the D2 domain between 1200 and 1800 UTC.

975 hPa in Coare1 (Figure 3b). Sensitivity tests in LES are performed during this 285 period, and in the following section, figures will be presented at 1530 UTC. The 286 MSLP begins to rise gradually from 1600 UTC, indicating the beginning of the 287 weakening of Adrian. During the first two hours of pressure evolution, all simula-288 tions show a similar tendency. The differences become perceptible from the moment 289 of maximum intensity of the depression. The Ecume1 and Wasp1 simulations show a 290 similar evolution to that of Coare1, despite a slightly more pronounced deepening in 291 Ecume1. And reas1 shows a distinct evolution and a deeper depression. The pressure 292 difference with the reference simulation does not exceed 0.5 hPa between 1500 and 293 1600 UTC, but reaches 1.5 hPa at 1800 UTC. 294

In the early afternoon, wind speeds exceed 25 m s^{-1} due to the intensifica-295 tion of the low-pressure system and increase rapidly to reach a peak at around 1500 296 UTC, with 99th percentile values of 29 m s⁻¹ for Coare1 (Figure 3c). As Adrian 297 weakens, wind speeds gradually decrease until 1800 UTC. Unlike the MSLP, wind 298 speed evolutions show immediate differences at the start of the simulations, be-299 coming more noticeable during the maximum intensification of the depression. 300 The difference reaches 1 m s^{-1} in Ecume1 and Wasp1 compared with Coare1, 301 and rises to 2 m s^{-1} in Andreas1. The intensity differences obtained with the AN-302 DREAS parametrization are consistent with the results of Perrie et al. (2005) and 303 Zhang2006, who found that including sea spray in the surface fluxes leads to a de-304 crease in surface pressure during windstorms by a few hPa and an increase in surface 305 wind speed by a few m s^{-1} . Moreover, as in the case of Adrian, the authors found 306 that sea spray has a minor effect on the windstorm trajectory. As saturation of the 307 drag coefficient is not taken into account in the COARE parameterization, it is not 308 surprising that the Coare1 simulation produces the lowest wind speeds compared 309 with the other simulations. After 1600 UTC, the differences become negligible and 310 reflect an almost identical evolution of wind speeds. 311

³¹² Due to the passage of Adrian near Corsica, stations recorded high wind speeds, ³¹³ particularly in the western and northern coastal stations, where measurements ex-³¹⁴ ceeded 30 m s⁻¹ (Figure 4a). To assess the impact of the parameterizations on



Figure 4: (a) Maximum wind speed at 10 m observed between 1200 and 1800 UTC at stations in Corsica. Markers with large circles correspond to coastal stations recording wind speeds exceeding 20 m s⁻¹. (b) Box plots of the bias and root-mean-square error (RMSE) between simulated and observed wind speeds at the 11 coastal stations, calculated over a period from 1200 to 1800 UTC every 6 min. Boxes represent simulations Coare1, Andreas1, Ecume1 and Wasp1 in green, blue, pink and orange colors, respectively.

the capacity of the model to reproduce the observations, a comparative analysis of 315 the different turbulent fluxes parametrizations is performed on 11 coastal stations 316 (markers with large circles on Figure 4a). These 11 stations are selected on the 317 basis of two criteria: proximity to the sea and wind speeds exceeding the critical 318 threshold of 20 m s^{-1} , at which parameterizations begin to diverge from one an-319 other. Wind speed measurements at 10 m are recorded by the Météo-France surface 320 weather network at 6-min intervals. To ensure a fair comparison, instantaneous wind 321 speeds from the sensitivity tests are also averaged over a 6-min period, from 1200 322 to 1800 UTC. For the 11 stations, the simulations show a median bias of around 323 -1.7 m s^{-1} , indicating a small underestimation of observed wind speeds. Minor 324 differences are noted in root-mean-square error (RMSE). The median RMSE values 325 are 4.09, 4.93, 4.37 and 4.06 m s⁻¹ for Coare1, Andreas1, Ecume1 and Wasp1, re-326 spectively (Figure 3b). These results suggest that simulations are somewhat more 327 realistic with the COARE and WASP parameterizations and slightly less with AN-328 DREAS compared to ECUME. 329

In conclusion, the four simulations reproduce station observations in a similar 330 way, demonstrating that turbulent fluxes at the air-sea interface have little impact 331 on wind speed over land. Over the short 6-h period, the trajectory of the windstorm 332 is unaffected by the choice of surface flux parameterization. This confirms that 333 the trajectory is mainly determined by large-scale flow. Regarding the intensity of 334 Adrian, the ANDREAS parameterization generates a more pronounced low-pressure 335 system, resulting in slightly higher wind speeds compared to the reference simulation 336 Coare1, due to the inclusion of sea spray. Consequently, LES sensitivity tests can 337 be carried out over short periods to assess the impact of turbulent exchanges at the 338 air-sea interface on convective rolls, while preserving mesoscale characteristics of the 330 windstorm. 340

4 Impact of turbulent fluxes on the finescale

4.1 Morphology of convective rolls

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In the following, the study focuses on a 20 km by 20 km region, represen-343 tative of the narrow band of strong winds generated on the southern flank of the 344 low-pressure center (white square in Figure 1b). Wind speeds lie above 20 m s⁻¹, 345 a threshold at which turbulent flux parameterizations begin to diverge (Figure 2). 346 The analysis is based on LES simulations, inspecting horizontal and vertical cross-347 sections of wind speeds (Figure 5). In the reference simulation Coare2, the hori-348 zontal section (Figure 5a) illustrates band-like wind structures where speeds exceed 349 48 m s^{-1} . The structures are approximately oriented in the wind direction from the 350 southwest (red arrows). Horizontal sections are shown at z = 200 m, because the 351 structures are well marked at this altitude. The vertical extent of the structures 352 is roughly equivalent to the height of the boundary layer z_i , which reaches around 353 700 m (Figure 5b). A regular alternation of upward and downward velocities can be 354 seen on vertical winds (black contours), which is a signature of rolls in the boundary 355 layer. This result is in line with the findings of Lfarh et al. (2023), who showed that 356 the boundary layer in strong wind regions is organized into convective rolls at 1515 357 UTC in windstorm Adrian. Such structures are observed throughout the narrow belt 358 of strong winds and persist until the weakening phase of the windstorm. 359

The boundary layer organization in Ecume2 and Wasp2 simulations is similar to the reference simulation (Figures 5e-5h). The Andreas2 simulation stands out the most. The horizontal section shows coherent structures that are narrower than in Coare2 (Figure 5c). The upward and downward motions are more pronounced and extend over a greater vertical distance (Figure 5d). Accordingly, the boundary layer height is higher, showing marked fluctuations between 1000 and 1500 m. ntation and characteristic size of convective rolls.

The spatial characteristics of the convective rolls are examined in the four simulations using the ACF calculated from the vertical wind speed field at 1530 UTC over the zoomed area shown in Figure 5. Figure 6 presents vertical profiles of the flatness parameter, orie

According to Brilouet et al. (2023) a threshold on the flatness parameter is 371 chosen to distinguish roll structures with f0.7 from disorganized structures >372 with f < 0.7. In Coare2, the flatness parameter reveals the presence of rolls up to 373 z=400 m and a transition into disorganized structures above (Figure 6a). The mean 374 wind direction varies slightly with height, from 60° to 50° clockwise, while the roll 375 direction evolves counter-clockwise from 50° to 70° . Below z=400 m, this results in 376 rolls mainly oriented in the wind direction, with a minor difference of around 10° 377 (Figure 6b). Accordingly, observational studies have shown that convective rolls 378 are often aligned within 10 to 20° from the mean wind direction (Atkinson & Wu 379 Zhang, 1996; Foster, 2005). Finally, the size of rolls can be determined up to 400 m 380 height and reaches 2000 m mostly, giving an aspect ratio λ/z_i of 2.73. Altogether, 381 this implies that elliptical roll structures are present below 400 m in Coare2. The 382 morphological characteristics of the convective rolls at 1530 UTC are comparable to 383 those found at 1515 UTC in Lfarh et al. (2023), except that the size of the rolls was 384 slightly larger, reaching 2400 m. 385

In the Ecume2 and Wasp2 simulations, the size of the convective rolls vary slightly, between 2200 and 2400 m, but remain comparable to that in the reference simulation (Figure 6c). The other morphological characteristics are similar (Figure 6a, b). For Andreas2, the flatness parameter remains more constant with height, the direction of the rolls is closer to the mean wind direction and their smaller size of 1400 m is uniform over a longer vertical extent of 500 m. The aspect ratio in An-



Figure 5: (left) Horizontal sections at z=200 m and (right) vertical sections of horizontal wind speed at 1530 UTC from (a, b) Coare2, (c, d) Andreas2, (e, f) Ecume2 and (g, f) Wasp2. The black lines in the horizontal sections shows the location of the vertical sections. The wind direction is shown by the red arrows. The thick red line in the vertical sections corresponds to the height of the boundary layer. Black contours indicate vertical velocity, solid lines correspond to 1 m s⁻¹ and dotted lines to -1 m s^{-1} .



Figure 6: Vertical profiles of (a) flatness parameter f, (b) mean wind direction dotted curves) and structure direction (solide curves), (c) convective roll size identified from the auto-correlation function at 1530 UTC. Dashed lines in (a) indicate the boundary layer height averaged over the zoomed domain in Figure 5 for each simulation.

drea2 is 1.27, which indicates that the rolls are narrower in comparison to the height of the boundary layer. Table 2 summarizes the descriptive parameters of convective rolls in the different simulations. Altogether, the number of rolls over the narrow band of strong winds (distance of about 20 km) is $n \approx 10$ in Coare2, $n \approx 8$ in Ecume2 and Wasp2, and $n \approx 14$ in Andreas2.

4.2 Vertical wind transport by convective rolls

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Over the same region shown in Figure 5, the wind speed increases progressively 398 from z=1200 m downward and reaches a maximum near z=400 m, then decreases 399 as approaching the surface (Figure 7a). Compared to the other simulations, An-400 dreas2 shows slower winds near z=400 m and above. At the surface, the wind speed 401 ranges from 30 m s⁻¹ in Coare2 to 33 m s⁻¹ in Andreas2, while values in Ecume2 402 and Wasp2 fall between these two extremes. In the Coare2 reference simulation, 403 the virtual potential temperature profile shows a decrease from the surface up to an 404 altitude of 200 m, indicating instability characterized by a warm, moist surface layer 405 favorable to convection (Figure 7b). Ecume2 and Wasp2 show a similar profile, with 406 slightly higher temperatures in Ecume2. The surface temperature is higher and the 407 vertical gradient is more pronounced in Andreas2, showing a rapid decrease with al-408 titude. This is due to the enhanced surface fluxes of sensible and latent heat, which 409 increase air temperature and humidity. 410

The boundary layer stability can be assessed with the instability parameter ζ = - z_i/L , where L is the length of Monin and Obukhov (1957) and represents the distance above the surface where the production of buoyancy turbulence exceeds that of shear turbulence. Previous studies revealed that in a fully convective boundary, i.e. $\zeta \gg 1$, buoyancy dominates turbulence generation throughout the boundary layer (Khanna & Brasseur, 1998; Salesky et al., 2017). The ζ values are 0.5, 1.56, 0.71 and 0.52 for Coare2, Andreas2, Ecume2 and Wasp2 respectively (Table 2).

Simulation	L (m)	z_i (m)	$\zeta = -z_i/L$	λ	λ/z_i
Coare2	-1453	732	0.50	2000	2.73
Andreas2	-701	1098	1.56	1400	1.27
Ecume2	-1089	780	0.71	2400	3.07
Wasp2	-1331	703	0.52	2400	3.41
NoLE	-1372	692	0.50	1600	2.31
NoH	-1938793	509	0.0002	-	-
NoM	0	854	-	-	-

Table 2: Descriptive parameters of the boundary layer and of convective rolls in the LES sensitivity tests.

Therefore, as opposed to other simulations where shear dominates turbulent gen-418 eration, the enhanced thermal instability by a factor 2–3 in Andreas2 means that 419 turbulence is mostly generated by buoyancy. Furthermore, the instability param-420 eter is widely used to predict roll convection and quantify the effects of shear and 421 buoyancy on roll formation. The obtained values of ζ are consistent with results 422 from Weckwerth et al. (1999), which indicate that roll structures appear for $\zeta <$ 10,423 and with the recent study of Stopa et al. (2022), which reveals that coherent roll 424 structures occur in a slightly unstable but nearly neutral atmosphere. 425

While convective rolls pilot vertical motion in the boundary layer, turbulence 426 consisting of irregular eddies is one of the most important transport processes near 427 the surface. This raises the question of the respective roles of convective rolls and 428 turbulent motion in vertical momentum transport. The distinction is estimated 429 here by the separation between resolved motion, which has been shown to consist 430 in organized roll structures, and subgrid-scale motion represented by the turbulence 431 scheme. This assumption likely overestimates the turbulent contribution, because 432 convective rolls are not fully resolved with 200 m horizontal grid spacing (Lfarh et 433 al., 2023). 434

In Coare2, the sum of resolved momentum fluxes and subgrid-scale momen-435 tum fluxes (solid green line in Figure 7c), which corresponds to the total momentum 436 transport, shows a gradual strengthening with decreasing height. Resolved momen-437 tum fluxes dominate at altitudes above $z \approx 200$ m (dashed lines), while they decrease 438 progressively toward the surface and subgrid-scale motion becomes responsible for 439 most of the momentum transport. Vertical profiles in Ecume2 and Wasp2 remain 440 similar to those observed in Coare2. In contrast, vertical profiles in Andreas2 reveal 441 a clear distinction from the other simulations. The total transport is much greater 442 both near the surface and aloft due to stronger resolved momentum fluxes, which 443 dominate down to $z\approx100$ m. At z=200 m, resolved fluxes are enhanced by 40% com-444 pared to the reference simulation. This enhanced downward transport in Andreas2 445 is consistent with the larger vertical extent of convective rolls and can explain the 446 weaker winds in the middle boundary layer and the stronger winds near the sur-447 face compared to the other simulations (Figure 7a). Interestingly, the enhancement 448 of vertical momentum transport by 40% in Andreas2 compared to Coare2 roughly 449 matches the increase from $n\approx 10$ to $n\approx 14$ in the number of rolls over the narrow 450 band of strong winds (or the decrease in their size from $\lambda = 2000$ m to $\lambda = 1400$ m). 451



Figure 7: Vertical profile of (a) horizontal wind speed, (b) virtual potential temperature and (c) vertical fluxes of zonal momentum at 1530 UTC. The dotted horizontal lines indicate the boundary-layer height in (a). The dashed, dotted and solid lines show the resolved, subgrid and total contributions in (c). The profiles are averaged over the area shown in Figure 5.



Figure 8: Probability density functions (PDFs) of (a) vertical wind speed at 400 m height and horizontal wind speed at heights (b) 400 m and (c) 10 m. The vertical lines indicate the mean values in (b, c). The PDFs are calculated over the area shown in Figure 5.

Thus, the transport of momentum per roll is equivalent between the two simulations and the smaller but more numerous rolls in Andreas2 imply a stronger total transport. In contrast, simulations Ecume2 and Wasp2 show values of resolved vertical momentum transport similar to Coare2 but with less, larger rolls (n≈8 and $\lambda=2400$ m), which also increases the transport of momentum per roll. The contrast can be explained by the stronger surface momentum fluxes in ECUME and WASP compared to the COARE and ANDREAS parameterizations (Figure 2a).

To assess the impact of the different parameterizations on horizontal and vertical winds in the middle of the boundary-layer and near the surface, Figure 8 shows probability density functions at 400 m, where convective rolls begin to form, and at 10 m. As in the reference simulation, Ecume2 and Wasp2 show narrow distributions

of vertical wind speeds at z=400 m (Figure 8a). The standard deviation values of 463 0.9 in Coare2 and 0.7 m s^{-1} in Ecume2 and Wasp2 indicate moderate vertical mo-464 tion. And reas2 shows a broader distribution and a standard deviation of 1.5 m s^{-1} 465 with a peak shifted towards negative velocities. This shows higher variability in 466 vertical velocities, marked by more pronounced upward and downward motions. At 467 z=400 m, the horizontal wind speed is lower in Andreas2 compared to the other 468 parameterizations, with a mean value of 46 instead of 47 m s⁻¹ (Figure 8b). The 469 slower wind is explained by the enhanced downward transport of momentum at this 470 altitude. Near the surface, the distribution of wind speeds differs between the sim-471 ulations. For Coare2, wind speeds are relatively low and this is consistent with the 472 strong surface fluxes of momentum with the COARE parameterization. In contrast, 473 they are significantly higher in Andreas2, averaging 3 m s^{-1} more than in Coare2. 474 This difference can be explained by the more intense transport in Andreas2 (Fig-475 ure 8c), which thus largely compensates for the strong surface momentum fluxes 476 with the ANDREAS parameterization (Figure 2). 477

In summary, the increase in heat fluxes due to sea spray led to a more important thermal instability at the air-sea interface. This instability generates more intense vertical circulations in the boundary layer, leading to the formation of more and smaller convective rolls, over a larger vertical extent than in the reference simulation. As a result, momentum transport to the surface increases significantly, leading to stronger surface wind speeds than those found with other parameterizations.

4.3 Individual contribution of surface fluxes

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The findings presented in the previous section suggest that surface heat fluxes 486 contribute significantly to the organization of convective rolls and surface winds in 487 combination with surface momentum fluxes. This section focuses on the NoH, NoLE 488 and NoM simulations to determine the role of each kind of turbulent flux separately 489 from the others. Without latent heat flux (NoLE), the boundary layer organization 490 into convective rolls (Figures 9c and 9d) is similar to that of Coare2 (Figures 9a 491 and 9b). In the absence of sensible heat flux (NoH), strong wind speeds in the form 492 of a large packet are confined between z=250 m and a lower boundary layer height 493 of around z=500 m (Figures 9e and 9f). The boundary layer is devoid of alternat-494 ing upward and downward motions. This is due to reduced heating of the surface 495 layer, which is typically responsible for convection and thus affect vertical motion. 496 Without momentum flux (NoM), the wind speed is strongly enhanced (higher locally 497 than 55 m s⁻¹) and disorganized, reaching lower levels because friction forces are not 498 taken into account (Figures 9g and 9h). 499

The evolution of roll morphological parameters in Coare2, NoH, NoLE and 500 NoM is evaluated every minute for the full 30-min duration of the simulations to 501 assess their persistence in response to surface fluxes. The elliptical shape of the 502 coherent structures is retained over time in Coare2 with a flatness parameter f supe-503 rior to 0.7 (Figure 10a). The difference between wind and structure directions does 504 not exceed 20° (Figure 10b). Overall, characteristic roll sizes fluctuate between 2000 505 and 3000 m, with an average of around 2100 m over 30 min (Figure 10c). Note that 506 roll sizes are calculated with an accuracy of 200 m, i.e., the resolution of the sim-507 ulations. The NoLE simulation shows a similar evolution for all parameters, albeit 508 with a modest deviation from Coare2, particularly at 1530 UTC. Convective rolls in 509 NoLE are on average slightly larger than in Coare2 with a size of around 2300 m. 510 The divergences from the reference simulation are immediately apparent in NoM, 511 whereas they appear after about 5 min in NoH. In both simulations, the flatness 512 parameter tends towards very low values, and the structures become misaligned with 513 the wind direction. Given that characteristic sizes are defined for structures with a 514

flatness parameter greater than 0.7, the ACF indicates that there is no spatial periodicity in the vertical velocity field. Consequently no roll structures are present after a few minutes of simulation.

Vertical wind speed profiles in the NoH and NoLE simulations are compara-518 ble to the reference simulation Coare2, with a slightly sharper decrease toward the 519 surface in NoH (Figure 11a). In contrast, the NoM profile remains clearly distinct, 520 with high wind speeds remaining almost uniform in the lower boundary layer. Un-521 like NoLE, which shows a decrease with height in virtual potential temperature in 522 523 the first levels similar to Coare2, NoH is distinguished by a profile that maintains an almost constant virtual potential temperature, reflecting a nearly neutral atmo-524 sphere (Figure 11b). The instability parameter ζ tends to zero in that case, implying 525 that shear is the main source of turbulence in the boundary layer (Table 2). ζ is 526 no longer relevant in NoM. A value of $\zeta = 0.50$ in NoLE, as in Coare2, suggests that 527 latent heat fluxes have weak impact on atmospheric instability and therefore on 528 the formation of convective rolls. Although stability conditions are comparable, the 529 momentum transport is somewhat weaker in NoLE (Figure 11c). This is attributed 530 to the slightly higher roll size in NoLE, which results in fewer rolls in the region. In 531 NoH, resolved fluxes remain limited compared to the Coare2 simulation and result 532 in lower total transport, particularly at altitudes below 400 m where convective roll 533 structures are more pronounced in the reference simulation. Moreover, turbulence 534 becomes dominant in transport at higher altitude than in Coare2. Finally, the ver-535 tical transport profile in NoM is completely different from other simulations and 536 vanishes near the surface due to the absence of momentum fluxes. 537

In short, the absence of sensible heat flux results in nearly neutral atmospheric conditions, inhibiting convection and hence the formation of convective rolls even in the presence of strong winds and intense shear. Consequently, momentum transport is considerably reduced, and is mainly controlled by subgrid-scale fluxes. Likewise, without momentum fluxes, wind shear is impacted, rapidly slowing down the formation of rolls. However, in the absence of latent heat fluxes, the convective rolls characteristics remain similar to the reference simulation.

545 5 Conclusions

Ensuring an accurate representation of air-sea fluxes is crucial to a better 546 understanding of the marine atmospheric boundary layer dynamics. However, un-547 certainties persist in the parameterization of fluxes during windstorms, due to the 548 lack of observations for wind speeds above 20 m s⁻¹. Such strong winds occurred 549 during the passage of the Mediterranean cyclone Adrian studied here. The main 550 objective of this study is to investigate the role of air-sea fluxes in the formation of 551 fine-scale convective rolls using large eddy simulations (LES) run with the Meso-NH 552 atmospheric model. Convective rolls, rarely studied in mid-latitude windstorms, 553 have been shown to be involved in the downward transport of strong winds and the 554 formation of maximum surface wind gusts associated with Adrian. 555

First, the impact of four air-sea flux parameterizations on mesoscale windstorm 556 development is examined, using convection-permitting simulations over a period of 557 6-hours. The parameterizations used differ in the formulation of surface fluxes of 558 latent heat, sensible heat and momentum, and also in the way they take into ac-559 count the effects of physical processes such as sea spray. The choice of surface flux 560 parameterization does not affect the windstorm trajectory. This shows that, on this 561 relatively short time scale covering the mature phase of cyclogenesis, the windstorm 562 trajectory is mostly driven by the large-scale flow. However, the windstorm intensity 563 shows a slight sensitivity to the inclusion of sea spray effects in heat fluxes, which 564

reinforce heat fluxes. As a result, surface pressure drops by a few hPa more than in the other simulations, leading to a slight increase in surface wind speed.

Second, the impact of the four parameterizations on the development and or-567 ganization of the convective rolls is examined through LES performed at a horizontal 568 grid spacing of 200 m. Convective rolls are systematically formed in the strong wind 569 region due to dynamic and thermal instabilities, whatever the air-sea flux param-570 eterization used. A schematic (Figure 12) summarizes the main results relative to 571 the sensitivity of convective rolls to surface fluxes. When heat fluxes are moderate, 572 573 rolls are characterized by sizes of around 2000 m and extend vertically to the middle of the boundary layer (Figure 12, left panel). However, the morphological charac-574 teristics of the rolls are significantly influenced by surface fluxes, in particular the 575 increased heat fluxes resulting from sea spray. Stronger heat fluxes lead to more 576 important thermal instability at the air-sea interface. Hence, convection-induced 577 vertical motions become more pronounced in the boundary layer. The convective 578 rolls formed in such conditions are of reduced size, greater in number, and exhibit a 579 higher vertical extent (Figure 12, middle panel). With this organization, the verti-580 cal transport of momentum by the convective rolls is increased by 40% and persists 581 closer to the surface, before turbulence takes over. This results in higher surface 582 wind speeds, although surface momentum fluxes are also strengthened by sea spray. 583 This increase in vertical momentum transport approximately matches the increase 584 in roll number, which leaves the transport per roll unaltered. Hence, it is assumed 585 that the transport in the presence of sea spray is enhanced by the larger number of 586 rolls. Furthermore, the stronger atmospheric instability results in a deeper boundary 587 layer. This allows the rolls to form over a wider vertical extent and, consequently, to transport additional momentum from higher altitudes. 589

Third, the respective role of surface latent heat, sensible heat and moment 590 fluxes is disentangled by performing LES sensitivity tests. Even in the absence of 591 latent heat flux, convective rolls continue to form and retain similar characteristics, 592 although their size is slightly affected. This indicates that latent heat fluxes have 593 little impact on roll organization. In contrast, convective rolls quickly disappear 594 without sensible heat fluxes (Figure 12, right panel). They also disorganize within 595 a few minutes without surface momentum fluxes. Both of these fluxes are directly 596 responsible for the combination of thermal and dynamic instability required to form 597 and maintain convective rolls. 598

As shown in previous studies (Li et al., 2021; Lfarh et al., 2023), a large-scale 599 simulation approach is indispensable for understanding the fine-scale processes re-600 sponsible for transporting strong winds to the surface, such as the convective rolls 601 in this study. The findings here highlight that, despite sufficient resolution to re-602 solve such processes, an incomplete representation of the physical mechanisms at 603 the air-sea interface under strong wind conditions can lead to significant discrepan-604 cies, which can have an impact on wind forecast and, consequently, on the safety of 605 people and property. 606

The contribution of additional surface processes other than sea spray might 607 be considered in future work. Although foam is regularly observed at the air-sea 608 interface in strong winds, experiments to measure its impact on surface fluxes are 609 relatively recent (Sroka & Emanuel, 2021). The role of foam in convective rolls and 610 surface winds should be assessed and probably a contribution to consider in improv-611 ing surface flux parameterizations. Apart from the turbulent exchange of air-sea 612 613 fluxes, wind-wave interactions modify atmospheric and oceanic conditions, which can impact winds during windstorms. Considering the dynamic effects of waves can lead 614 to improved forecasting of wind speeds in storms (Wahle et al., 2017). A first task 615 for further studies is to couple the atmospheric model with a wave model. While 616 surface latent heat exchange does not appear to be crucial for the development of 617

convective rolls, another approach would be to investigate the impact of cloud microphysics, focusing on the effect of evaporative cooling on roll formation and wind
transport. It has been shown that evaporative cooling can reduce the buoyancy of
air parcels in windstorms, facilitating their descent to the surface and contributing
to the amplification of surface wind gusts (Browning et al., 2015; Ludwig et al.,
2015).

In this study, all available data, including in-situ observations and satellite 624 images, are exploited to evaluate the different simulations. However, when it comes 625 to winds at sea, these data proved insufficient. Measurements from buoys at sea are 626 lacking in the region of strong winds, and would be extremely useful for completing 627 the validation of the simulations. Although large eddy simulations provide detailed 628 information on fine-scale processes, their evaluation is hampered by the lack of 629 high-resolution observations. In this context, synthetic aperture radar (SAR) satel-630 lite images have potential to reveal the details of convective rolls, as demonstrated 631 by Brilouet et al. (2023); Stopa et al. (2022). Such observation may constrain pa-632 rameterizations of surface fluxes via their control on roll characteristics. Thus, the 633 methodology of LES over large domain developed here should be extended to other 634 case studies. This would be essential to reach more general conclusions about the 635 impact of air-sea fluxes on the transport of strong winds to the surface. 636

⁶³⁷ Appendix A Description of the turbulent flux parameterizations

The Coupled Ocean–Atmosphere Response Experiment (COARE3.0) (Fairall 638 et al., 2003) used in the reference simulations, is one of the most commonly used 639 parameterizations for interactions at the air-sea interface. COARE3.0 is derived 640 from the COARE2.6 algorithm (Fairall et al., 1996) initially developed from observa-641 tions made during the TOGA COARE experiment in the North Pacific (Webster & 642 Lukas, 1992). COARE3.0 uses a new formulation for roughness length which slightly 643 increases the fluxes for wind speeds above 10 m s^{-1} . The wave effect is taken into 644 account through the roughness length. However, COARE3.0 is mainly valid for wind 645 speeds up to 20 m s⁻¹ due to the lack of observations for strong wind conditions. 646

ANDREAS (Andreas et al., 2015) is the only parameterization that distin-647 guishes two different contributions to turbulent heat fluxes: standard air-sea interfa-648 cial fluxes and spray fluxes controlled by microphysical processes around the spray 649 droplets. The small droplets are ejected into the atmosphere by bubble bursting 650 at the air-sea interface during wave breaking or by the wave clipping mechanism 651 of strong winds (Veron, 2015). The contribution to heat exchange becomes signif-652 icant for wind speeds above 13 m s⁻¹. The total flux in the presence of sea spray 653 is therefore the sum of the interfacial flux calculated by the bulk method and the 654 flux related to sea spray calculated using the microphysical algorithm described in 655 Andreas (2005). The ANDREAS parameterization was developed with observations 656 including wind speeds up to 25 m s^{-1} . 657

ECUME6 is the new version of Exchange Coefficient Unified Multi-campaign 658 Experiments. This parameterization is developed and used operationally by Météo-659 France (Belamari, 2005). ECUME6 is based on in-situ measurements of ocean-660 atmosphere fluxes from different field campaigns, considering strong wind conditions. 661 Contrary to the COARE algorithms, the turbulent exchange coefficients are com-662 puted directly from the observations, which makes it impossible to take into account 663 the effect of waves explicitly in the roughness length calculation. In ECUME6, mea-664 surements realized by Powell et al. (2003), Donelan et al. (2004) and French et al. 665 (2007) allowed to consider the saturation and decrease of the exchange coefficients 666 for wind speeds higher than 30 m s^{-1} . 667

WASP (Wave-Age Stress dependent Parametrization) (Sauvage et al., 2020) 668 is based on the Coare 3.0 and Coare 3.5 parameterizations and allows wave growth 669 to be explicitly taken into account in the calculation of roughness length in a wind 670 range between 5 and 20 m s⁻¹. Above 20 m s⁻¹, the contribution of wave breaking 671 is dominant, so wave age is no longer a sufficient parameter to represent the effect 672 of sea state on surface roughness. Since different mechanisms are involved at low, 673 moderate and high wind speeds, a piecewise continuous description is adopted to 674 describe the Charnock parameter that relates waves and wind stress as a function of 675 sea state. This approach makes it possible to represent the observed decrease in drag 676 coefficient under intense wind conditions. 677

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Figure 9: As in Figure 5, for (a, b) Coare2 (c, d) NoLE, (e, f) NoH and (g, h) NoM. For clarity, the color bar of wind speeds is scaled differently in NoM.



Figure 10: Temporal evolution of (a) flatness parameter, (b) direction and (c) structure size at z=200 m, for Coare2 (green), NoH (red), NoLE (blue) and NoM (gold).



Figure 11: As in Figure 7, for Coare2, NoH, NoLE and NoM.



Figure 12: Summary of the main results of the paper. Red and blue vertical arrows represent surface sensible and latent heat fluxes, respectively, while green horizontal arrows represent the background wind shear and circling arrows represents convective rolls. See text for details.