



# The bulk parameterizations of turbulent air-sea fluxes in NEMO4: the origin of Sea Surface Temperature differences in a global model study

Giulia Bonino<sup>1\*</sup>, Doroteaciro Iovino<sup>1</sup>, Laurent Brodeau<sup>2</sup>, and Simona Masina<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Ocean Modeling and Data Assimilation Division, Centro Euro-Mediterraneo sui Cambiamenti Climatici, Bologna, Italy.

<sup>2</sup>Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique, IGE/MEOM, Grenoble, France

**Correspondence:** Giulia Bonino (giulia.bonino@cmcc.it)

## Abstract.

Wind stress and turbulent heat fluxes are the major driving forces which modify the ocean dynamics and thermodynamics. In the NEMO ocean general circulation model, these turbulent air-sea fluxes (TASFs), which are components of the ocean model boundary conditions, can critically impact the simulated ocean characteristics. This paper investigates how the different bulk parametrizations to calculated turbulent air-sea fluxes in the NEMO4 (revision 12957) drives substantial differences in sea surface temperature (SST). Specifically, we study the contribution of different aspects and assumptions of the bulk parametrizations in driving the SST differences in NEMO global model configuration at  $\frac{1}{4}$  degree of horizontal resolution. These include the use of the skin temperature instead of the bulk SST in the computation of turbulent heat flux components, the estimation of wind stress and the estimation of turbulent heat flux components which vary in each parametrization due to the different computation of the bulk transfer coefficients. The analysis of a set of short-term sensitivity experiments, where the only experimental change is related to one of the aspects of the bulk parametrizations, shows that parametrization-related SST differences are primarily sensitive to the wind stress differences across parametrizations and to the implementation of skin temperature in the computation of turbulent heat flux components. Moreover, in order to highlight the role of SST-turbulent heat flux negative feedback at play in ocean simulations, we compare the TASFs differences obtained using NEMO ocean model with the estimations from Brodeau et al. (2017), who compared the different bulk parametrizations using prescribed SST. Our estimations of turbulent heat flux differences between bulk parametrizations is weaker with respect to Brodeau et al. (2017) differences estimations.

## 1 Introduction

Ocean and atmosphere circulations are highly influenced by the transfer of momentum and heat at the air-sea interface (e.g., Gill, 1982; Siedler et al., 2013). These transfers of energy are primarily driven by turbulent air-sea fluxes (TASFs), which include wind stress and the turbulent heat flux components (THFs, latent and sensible heat fluxes). In the upper ocean, the wind stress is a major driving force for basin-scale circulation (e.g., Chen et al., 1994; Shriver and Hurlburt, 1997), and the THFs are important for determining its thermal properties (e.g., Yuen et al., 1992; Swenson and Hansen, 1999). Therefore,



both wind stress and THFs are important for the evolution of sea surface temperature (SST), because of their contribution to  
25 turbulent mixing within the ocean surface mixed layer (e.g., Barnier, 1998).

Since direct observations of TASFs are sparse in space and time, the estimates of TASFs are derived using bulk formulas,  
which relate each component of turbulent air-sea flux to more easily measurable and widely available meteorological surface  
state variables (e.g. wind speed, air temperature, air specific humidity) through bulk transfer coefficient. These bulk transfer  
coefficients are estimated using bulk parametrizations. Different bulk parametrizations are currently used and they are tradi-  
30 tionally developed statistically, comparing in situ meteorological observations of surface state variables with TASFs derived  
from ship and buoy measurements (Large and Pond, 1981, 1982; Smith, 1988; Fairall et al., 1996, 2003; Bradley and Fairall,  
2007).

In NEMO ocean general circulation model, TASFs, which are components of the ocean boundary conditions, are computed  
by means of bulk formulas using prescribed surface atmospheric state variables (air temperature, air humidity, wind) and the  
35 prognostic SST of the model (hereinafter online prognostic SST approach). The online prognostic SST approach allows that the  
response of the ocean (i.e. SST) to atmospheric events is incorporated into the estimation of the THFs and of longwave radiation  
(i.e. non solar heat flux components, NSHF) at every time step of the numerical experiment. The possibility of feedback  
mechanisms between the ocean and the atmosphere partially simulate the energy exchange between the atmosphere and ocean  
(Kara et al., 2000). The approach requires the choice of a given bulk parameterization, which influences the magnitude of the  
40 wind stress and of the THFs (Kara et al., 2000). These TASFs affect the simulated ocean characteristics and in particular the  
evolution of the SST (Torres et al., 2019).

Brodeau et al. (2017) compared a set of bulk parametrizations computing TASFs using prescribed SST (hereinafter offline  
prescribed SST approach) rather than prognostic SST of the model. Based on their approach Brodeau et al. (2017) report  
that the use of different bulk parametrizations to estimate TASFs can typically produce differences in total turbulent heat flux  
45 ( $Q_T$ , i.e. the sum of the THFs, latent and sensible heat fluxes) of about  $10W/m^2$  and in wind stress of about  $20mN/m^2$ .  
The online prognostic SST approach, used by the NEMO experiments performed for this study, can substantially modify  
these estimations. The SST feeds back negatively on the  $Q_T$  likely damping the  $Q_T$  discrepancies across the different bulk  
parametrizations (Seager et al., 1995).

The purpose of this work is to better understand the response of the prognostic SST to the TASFs and to their parametrization  
50 in NEMO version 4.0 at  $1/4^\circ$  of horizontal resolution, and to discuss the role of the SST- $Q_T$  negative feedback at play in the  
online prognostic SST approach. We address the sensitivity of the SST to various aspects of the different bulk parametrizations  
such as the inclusion of the skin temperature in the computation of the THFs and the role of the bulk transfer coefficients in  
the estimation of the wind stress and the THFs. In order to do that, we analysed differences between short-term sensitivity  
experiments where bulk assumptions are excluded (e.g skin temperature) or bulk transfer coefficients are computed mixing the  
55 different bulk parametrizations. Lastly, in order to highlight the role of the SST- $Q_T$  negative feedback at play in our online  
prognostic SST approach, we compare the TASFs with the estimations from Brodeau et al. (2017). The validation of modeled  
SST against observed datasets is beyond the scope of this study. Here, the main objective is to investigate the impact of a set  
of bulk parametrizations on the SST generated by NEMO rather than evaluate their accuracy in reproducing it.



This paper is organized as follows: in section 2, we present the model used for this study, a short overview of the bulk formulas implemented in NEMO4, the experimental set-up and the modifications introduced in the bulk parametrizations to performed sensitivity experiments. In section 3 we present the parametrization-related SST discrepancies, we quantify SST discrepancies related to various aspects of the different bulk parametrizations and we compare and discuss our finding in relation to existing works. Our conclusions are summarized in section 5.

## 2 Model configuration, bulk forcing and experimental set-up

### 2.1 NEMO4 model configuration

The sensitivity of prognostic SST to bulk parametrizations is investigated in a numerical study using the Nucleus for European Modelling of the Ocean<sup>1</sup> (NEMO, version 4.0, revision 12957). NEMO is a three-dimensional, free-surface, hydrostatic, primitive-equation global ocean general circulation model (Madec G. and NEMO System Team, 2019) coupled to the Sea Ice modelling Integrated Initiative (SI<sup>3</sup>, NEMO Sea Ice Working Group, 2020). Our configuration uses the global ORCA025 tripolar grid (Madec and Imbard, 1996) with  $1/4^\circ$  horizontal resolution (27.75km) at the Equator, which increases with latitudes, e.g. 14km at  $60^\circ$ . The vertical grid has 75 levels, whose spacing increases with a double hyperbolic tangent function of depth from 1 m near the surface to 200 m at the bottom, with partial steps representing the bottom topography (Bernard et al., 2006). The model bathymetry is based on the combination of ETOPO1 data set (Amante and Eakins, 2009) in the open ocean and GEBCO (IOC, 2003) in coastal regions. The horizontal turbulent viscosity is parameterized by means of a biharmonic function with a value of  $1.8 \times 10^{11} m^4 s^{-1}$  at the Equator, reducing poleward as the cube of the maximum grid cell size. The advection of the tracers uses a total variance dissipation (TVD) scheme (Zalesak, 1979). The laplacian lateral tracer mixing is along isoneutral surfaces with a coefficient of  $300 m^2 s^{-1}$ . The vertical mixing of tracers and momentum is parameterised using the turbulent kinetic energy (TKE) scheme (Marsaleix et al., 2008). Subgrid-scale vertical mixing processes are represented by a background vertical eddy diffusivity of  $1.2 \times 10^{-5} m^2 s^{-1}$  and a globally constant background viscosity of  $1.2 \times 10^{-4} m^2 s^{-1}$ . The bottom friction is quadratic and a diffusive bottom boundary layer scheme is included. The continental runoff data are a monthly climatology derived from the global river flow and continental discharge data set for the major rivers (Dai and Trenberth, 2002; Dai et al., 2009), and estimates by Jacobs et al. (1996) for the Antarctic coastal freshwater discharge. The initial conditions for temperature and salinity are provided by World Ocean Atlas 2013 (Levitus et al., 2013). All the experiments are forced with the hourly ERA5 Reanalysis of the ECMWF (Hersbach, 2016).

<sup>1</sup><https://www.nemo-ocean.eu/>



## 85 2.2 The bulk formulas and their parametrization in NEMO4.0

As stated in the introduction, NEMO uses the online prognostic SST approach to compute TASFs, which are calculated using the prognostic SST and prescribed atmospheric surface state variables by means of aerodynamic bulk formulas:

$$\tau = \rho C_D u \mathbf{u}_z \quad (1a)$$

$$90 \quad Q_H = \rho C_p C_H (\theta_z - T_s) U \quad (1b)$$

$$E = \rho C_E (q_0 - q_z) U \quad (1c)$$

$$Q_L = -L_v E \quad (1d)$$

95 where  $\tau$  is the wind stress,  $Q_H$  is the turbulent flux of sensible heat,  $E$  is the evaporation, and  $Q_L$  is the turbulent flux of latent heat. Throughout this paper, we use the convention that a positive sign of  $\tau$ , of THFs  $Q_H$  and  $Q_L$ , and of the total turbulent heat flux  $Q_T$  ( $Q_T = Q_H + Q_L$ ) means a gain of the relevant quantity for the ocean. The term  $\rho$  is the density of air;  $C_p$  is the heat capacity of moist air, and  $L_v$  is the latent heat of vaporization.  $\mathbf{u}_z$  is the wind speed vector at height  $z$ , possibly referred to the ocean currents. The bulk scalar wind speed  $U$  is the scalar wind speed  $|\mathbf{u}_z|$  with the potential inclusion of a  
100 gustiness contribution. The convective gustiness is a temporary increased of the wind speed due to the friction and the free convection and it is active and significant in very calm wind conditions with unstable near-surface atmosphere. It is added to the wind speed and it avoids the zero wind singularity.  $\theta_z$  and  $q_z$  are the potential temperature and the specific humidity of air at height  $z$ , while  $T_s$ ,  $q_0$  are the potential temperature and specific humidity at surface. Depending on the bulk parametrization used,  $T_s$  can be the temperature at the air-sea interface (sea surface skin temperature, SSTskin) or at typically 1 meter deep  
105 (bulk sea surface temperature, SST). The SSTskin differs from the SST due to the contributions of two effects of opposite sign: the cool skin and warm layer (CSWL). The cool skin is millimeter-scale uppermost layer of the ocean where a vertical gradient of temperature exists to sustain the heat flux continuity between ocean and atmosphere. The warm layer is the warming of the upper few meters of the ocean under day and sunny conditions.  $C_D$ ,  $C_H$ , and  $C_E$  are the Bulk Transfer Coefficients (BTCs) for wind stress, sensible heat, and moisture, respectively.

110 Therefore, the main differences among bulk parametrizations are usually related to:

1. The use of the skin temperature (hereinafter SSTskin) rather than the bulk SST in the estimation of near surface atmospheric stability and bulk formulas.
2. Inclusion of convective gustiness in wind calculation

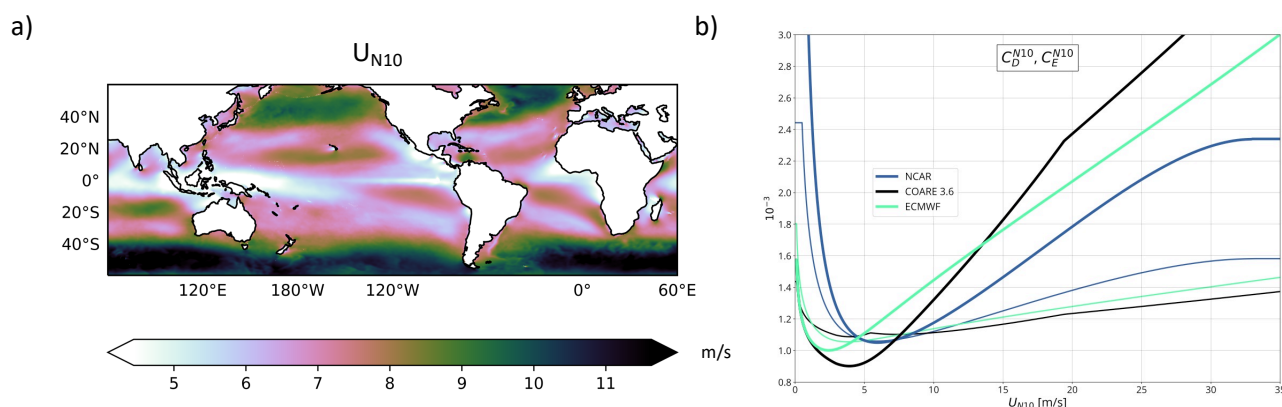


### 3. The bulk transfer coefficients

115 The online prognostic SST approach of NEMO allows the air-sea feedback mechanism. The estimation of the NSHFs is indeed influenced by the prognostic SST at each time step. In our experiments, we only focus on the NSHFs computed by bulk formulas, namely the THFs. The SST is responding to the total turbulent heat flux  $Q_T$  at each time step: the  $Q_T$  generate SST anomalies, and SST anomalies, in turn, can modulate  $Q_T$ . Specifically, SST and  $Q_T$  feedback negatively: when the SST gets anomalously cold, then  $Q_T$  increases, and that means that as a response to increased  $Q_T$ , the SST will tend to increase and  
 120 the  $Q_T$  to decrease and so on. This negative feedback of the online prognostic SST works to reduce the heat fluxes divergence across the different bulk parametrizations. On the other hand, the wind stress is not affected by the this type of first-order feedback at play for the  $Q_T$ .

In this study we focus on three of bulk parametrizations implemented in NEMO4: NCAR (Large and Yeager, 2009), COARE 3.6 (Edson et al., 2013) (hereinafter referred to as "COARE"), and ECMWF as the version of the bulk parametrization used in  
 125 the recent cycles of the Integrated Forecast System (IFS) developed at ECMWF, such as cycle 41 (ECMWF, 2015).

COARE and ECMWF parametrizations are meant to be used with the SSTskin, so that the two algorithms include a CSWL parameterization to estimate SSTskin. NCAR uses the bulk SST in heat fluxes calculation and the zero wind singularity is avoided by simply setting a minimum value for the scalar wind speed to  $0.5\text{ m/s}$ . To calculate the BTCs, the bulk parametrizations rely on an empirical closure. More specifically, in COARE and ECMWF parametrizations, the computation of BTCs  
 130 relies on the Monin-Obukhov similarity theory (MOST, Monin and Obukhov, 1954). As such, BTCs are function of the roughness lengths and of the stability of the atmospheric surface layer. The NCAR parametrization, instead of parametrizing the roughness lengths, parametrizes the BTCs directly as functions of neutral wind speed (e.g. the wind speed at neutral stability condition and at 10m reference level,  $U_{N10}$ ) before shifting them to the current atmospheric stability. Figure 1 shows the



**Figure 1.** a) Annual mean of  $U_{N10}$  from NCAR parametrization b) Neutral drag and moisture transfer coefficients for COARE (black), NCAR (blue), and ECMWF (green) bulk parametrizations (thick and thin lines, respectively), as functions of the neutral wind speed at 10 m.



$U_{N10}$  annual mean and the neutral BTCs as a function of  $U_{N10}$  for the selected bulk formula parametrizations. Due to the stronger neutral drag coefficient  $C_D^{N10}$ , NCAR parametrization tends to promote wind stress with respect to COARE and to lower extend to ECMWF under light wind condition ( $u < 5m/s$ ). On the other hand, ECMWF parametrization promotes wind stress with respect to NCAR and COARE for wind speed above  $5m/s$ , while COARE enhances it for wind speed above  $13m/s$ . For the discussion of the following results, it is important to highlight the wind speed range where the NCAR  $C_D^{N10}$  function intersect with ECMWF and COARE  $C_D^{N10}$  functions. In the range of 7-9 m/s the  $C_D^{N10}$  of COARE is smaller than ECMWF, but slightly higher or approximately equal (around 7 m/s) than NCAR  $C_D^{N10}$ . In the range of 4-5 m/s the  $C_D^{N10}$  of ECMWF is slightly smaller or approximately equal than NCAR, but higher than COARE  $C_D^{N10}$ . Under all conditions NCAR parametrization tends to enhance evaporation with respect to COARE and ECMWF, due to the stronger  $C_E^{N10}$  (see Figure 1). For detailed explanation of BTCs derivation for each bulk parametrizations please refer to the technical report by Bonino et al. (2020).

### 2.3 Experimental set-up

In order to investigate the role of different aspects of bulk parametrizations in driving prognostic SST, we performed five numerical experiments (Table 1). All the experiments are 1 year long experiments, forced by the hourly surface atmospheric state of the ERA5 Weather Reanalysis (Hersbach, 2016). We first performed three experiments (hereinafter 'control experiments') in order to quantify the bulk parametrization-related SST discrepancies:

1. Experiment **ECMWF\_S**: uses the ECMWF parametrization. THFs are computed with the SSTskin estimated from CSWL scheme. The parametrization uses the absolute wind speed.
2. Experiment **COARE\_S**: uses the COARE parametrization. THFs are computed with the SSTskin estimated from CSWL scheme. The parametrization uses the absolute wind speed.
3. Experiment **NCAR**: uses the NCAR parametrization. The parametrization does not include the currents correction in the wind calculation. THFs are computed with the bulk SST, as opposed to **ECMWF\_S** and **COARE\_S** that use the SSTskin (through their respective CSWL scheme).

In order to disentangle the contribution of the skin temperature and the contribution of the different wind stress and THFs in driving sea surface temperature differences, we performed two sensitivity experiments (hereinafter 'mixed experiments'):

1. Experiment **ECMWF\_NS**: uses the ECMWF parametrization. THFs are computed with the bulk SST rather than SSTskin. The parametrization uses the absolute wind speed.
2. Experiment **CdNCAR\_CeEC**: uses the ECMWF parametrization to calculate  $C_H$  and  $C_E$  BTCs and the NCAR bulk formula to calculate  $C_D$  BTC. The parametrization do not include the Cool Skin Warm Temperature scheme. The parametrization uses the absolute wind speed.



165 First, the comparison between ECMWF\_S and ECMWF\_NS is used to determine the Skin Temperature contribution in driving THFs differences and in turn SST differences. Second, the comparison between CdNCAR\_CeEC and ECMWF\_NS, which differ only for the  $C_D$  BTC computation, and between CdNCAR\_CeEC and NCAR, which differ only for the  $C_H$  and  $C_E$  BTCs computation, teach us about the wind stress and the THFs differences contribution in driving SST differences, respectively. We analyze annual mean differences between experiments. We use the absolute wind (e.g. the parametrizations do not include the currents feedback to calculate wind in equation 1a) for the sake of simplicity.

170

	sea surface temperature used ( $T_s$ )	computation of $C_D$	computation of $C_E$ and $C_H$
COARE_S	SSTskin	COARE3.6	COARE3.6
ECMWF_S	SSTskin	ECMWF	ECMWF
NCAR	SST	NCAR	NCAR
ECMWF_NS	SST	ECMWF	ECMWF
CdNCAR_CeEC	SST	NCAR	ECMWF

**Table 1.** Summary of the numerical experiments.

### 3 Results

In the following sections we discuss the parametrization-related SST discrepancies in the "control experiments" (section 3.1) and we describe the sensitivity of the prognostic SST of the model to various aspects of the bulk parameterizations. These include the use of the skin temperature instead of the bulk SST in the computation of the turbulent heat flux components (section 3.2), the estimation of wind stress (section 3.3), and the estimation of THFs (section 3.4) which vary in each parametrization due to the different computation of the bulk transfer coefficients. Then we discuss the role of the SST- $Q_T$  negative feedback at play in the online prognostic SST approach comparing our results with Brodeau et al. (2017) (section 3.4). Except for sections 3.1 and 3.2, we consider only experiments which estimate the NSHFs using  $T_s = SST$  in order to disentangle the THFs and wind stress differences contribution to the prognostic SST without the effect of the CSWL implementation.

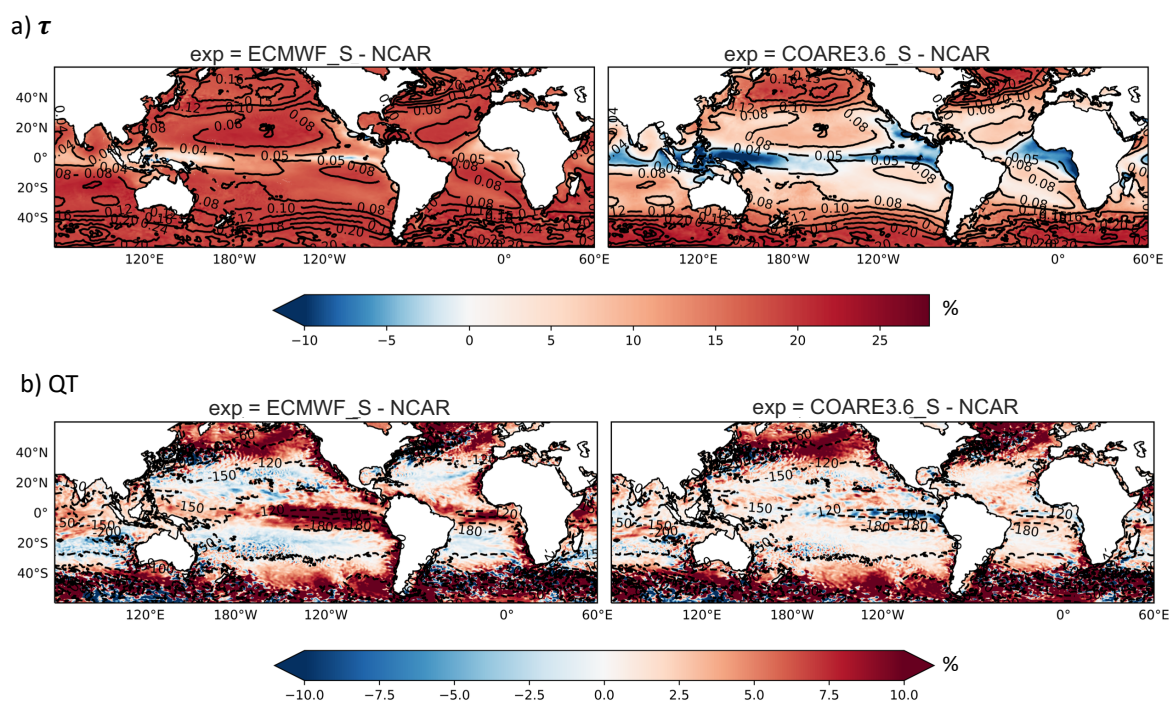
180

#### 3.1 Parametrization-related SST discrepancies

Figure 2 shows the differences in the TASFs, total turbulent heat fluxes  $Q_T$  and wind stress  $\tau$ , from ECMWF\_S and COARE\_S with respect to NCAR. The TASFs drive substantial SST differences between experiments (Figure 3). While the SST in



COARE\_S is warmer than in NCAR everywhere, the SST in ECMWF\_S is overall warmer than in NCAR, but with a colder  
185 area (down to  $-0.6^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) over Eastern Boundary Upwelling Systems (EBUS) and over Pacific and Atlantic equatorial regions. In  
these experiments, which differ only in the bulk parametrization, the SST differences can arise from the differences in the wind  
stress and in the THFs as computed by the chosen bulk parametrization. In particular, the wind stress discrepancies, due to the  
computation of  $C_D$  and to the inclusion of the convective gustiness, may impact on the ocean dynamics by modifying the 3D  
ocean circulation and hence the pattern of the SST. The differences in THFs, due to the  $C_E$  and  $C_H$  computation and to the  
190 cool-skin/warm layer CSWL scheme, may affect the SST through modification of the heat loss to the atmosphere (dominated  
by evaporation in this region). Furthermore, differences in the wind stress and in THFs may also act together by amplifying  
or damping their single effect on the SST. Hereinafter, we focus on the differences between NCAR and ECMWF\_S due to the  
substantial differences in SST between the two experiments (Figure 3).

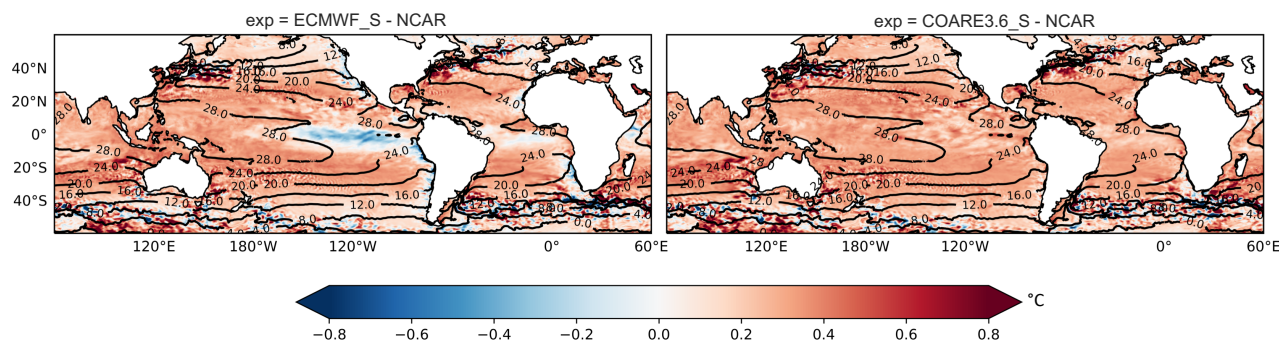


**Figure 2.** Annual mean differences between experiments of a) wind stress and b) total heat fluxes between ECMWF\_S and NCAR experiments (left) and COARE\_S and NCAR experiments (right). Contours are annual mean from NCAR experiment.

### 3.2 Skin temperature

195 The ECMWF and COARE parametrizations, in contrast to NCAR, expect SST<sub>skin</sub> as the surface temperature input in order  
to estimate the near surface atmospheric stability and to compute the THFs. The SST<sub>skin</sub> is also used to estimate the upward





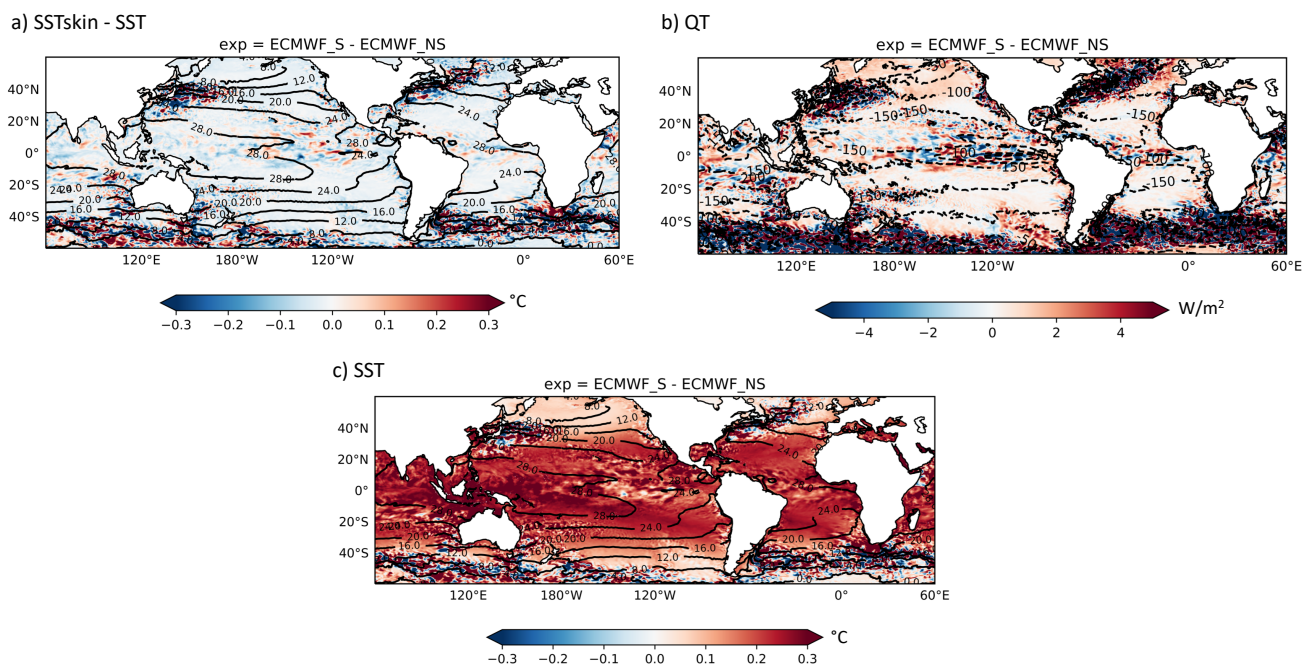
**Figure 3.** Annual mean SST differences between experiments (ECMWF\_S-NCAR and COARE\_S - NCAR, from left to right). Contours are annual mean SST from NCAR experiment.

long wave flux, needed by the CSWL scheme as components of the non solar heat flux. Here, we compare the results between ECMWF\_S and ECMWF\_NS to understand the impact of the CSWL implementation in driving the differences in the heat fluxes and by consequence in the SST shown in Figure 3 (see Table 1 for experiments details). We discuss the impact of the use of skin temperature for ECMWF parametrization, but similar results are found using COARE (not shown). The ECMWF\_S experiment uses the CSWL scheme, so that  $T_s \equiv SST_{skin}$  is used to compute THFs, as opposed to ECMWF\_NS in which  $T_s \equiv SST$ . Consideration of the CSWL effect yields a SST global mean warming of  $0.2^\circ\text{C}$  (Figure 4c), with a maximum of  $0.3^\circ\text{C}$  over the western equatorial Pacific Ocean, in the Indo-Pacific Warm Pool. In the tropical eastern and Northern Pacific Ocean, and over Antarctic Circumpolar Current (hereinafter ACC), the differences are below  $0.1^\circ\text{C}$ . The global-mean SST<sub>skin</sub> tends to be about  $0.1^\circ\text{C}$  colder than the SST (Figure 4a). On a global average basis, the cool skin process dominates over to the warm layer effect. Specifically, evaporation occurs almost everywhere and most of the time, while the warm layer builds up under sunny and low wind conditions.

The colder  $T_s$  in ECMWF\_S with respect to ECMWF\_NS yields a slightly weaker heat loss to the atmosphere due to the decreased NSHFs (mostly evaporation). In ECMWF\_S the weaker heat loss to the atmosphere implies a gain of heat by the ocean (positive regions in Figure 4b) of approximately  $1\text{W}/\text{m}^2$  on global average compared to ECMWF\_NS. The negative SST discrepancies between parametrizations noted in Section 3.1 (Figure 3a) are not explained by the use of the CSWL scheme in the ECMWF parametrization. In particular, the SST differences between ECMWF\_NS and NCAR (Figure 5a) with respect to the SST differences between ECMWF\_S and NCAR (Figure 3) present a reduction of the overall warm temperature differences, but maintaining the cold temperature difference over the tropical Pacific and Atlantic and over the EBUS .

### 215 3.3 Turbulent Heat fluxes

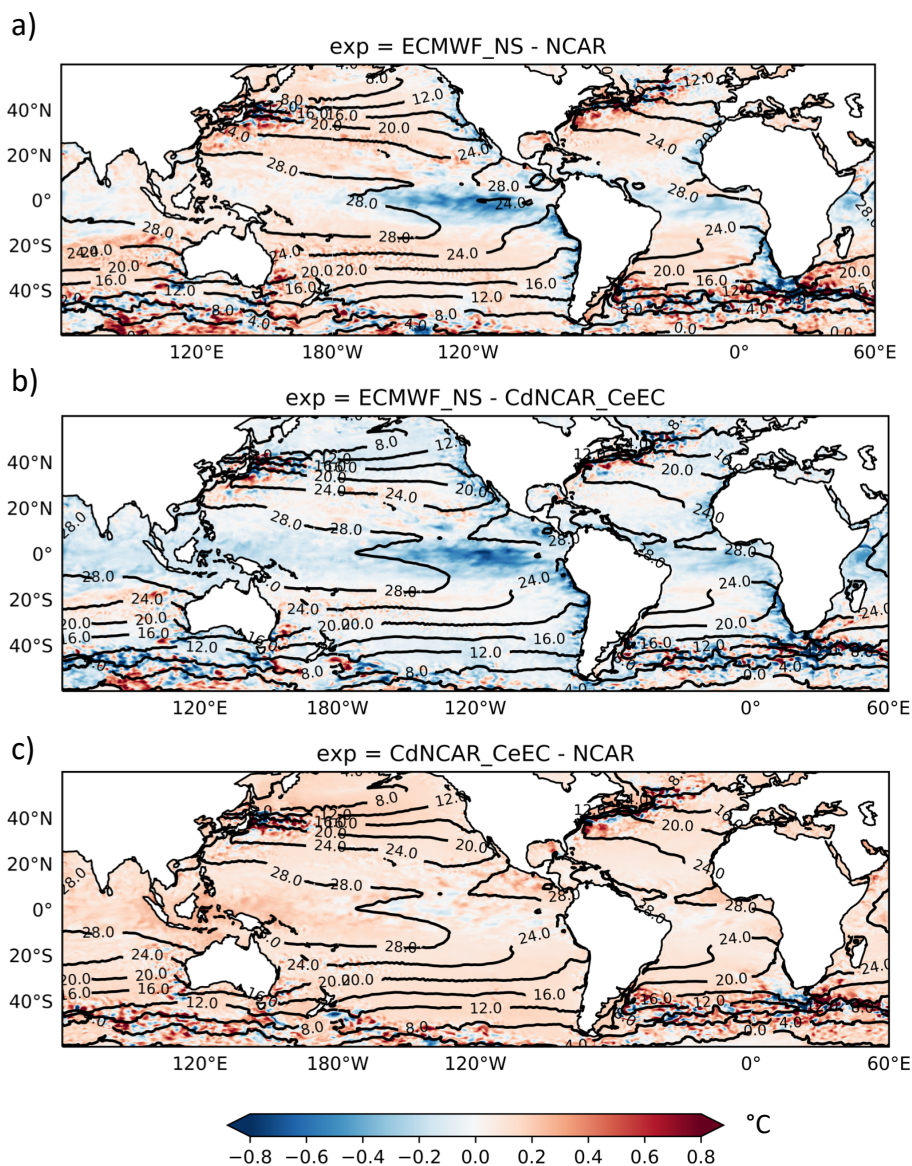
In order to investigate the effect of the different computation of the THFs between ECMWF\_S and NCAR in driving SST differences (Figure 5a), we compare the results between CdNCAR\_CeEC and NCAR (see Table 1 for experiments details).



**Figure 4.** Annual mean differences of a) SSTskin-SST, b) total heat fluxes and c) SST between ECMWF\_S- ECMWF\_NS. Contours are annual mean from ECMWF\_NS experiment

The SST differences between CdNCAR\_CeEC and NCAR does not show SST differences pattern over EBUS and over equatorial Atlantic and Pacific ocean of the magnitude that we found between experiments ECMWF\_S and NCAR (compare 220 Figure 3a with Figure 5c). Over those areas, the SST in CdNCAR\_CeEC is warmer than in NCAR of about  $0.3^{\circ}\text{C}$  on average. As shown in Figure 6a, CdNCAR\_CeEC receives an excess of  $Q_T$  of about  $10\text{ W}/\text{m}^2$  on average with respect to NCAR. The main contributor to this difference is the latent heat (compare Figure 6a with Figure 7b), resulting from the difference in  $C_E$  in the two experiments. As previously discussed in section 2.2, the  $C_E$  of CdNCAR\_CeEC, which is estimated by means of the ECMWF parametrization, underestimates the evaporation with respect to the  $C_E$  of NCAR (Figure 7a). This leads to an 225 increased input of heat to the ocean in CdNCAR\_CeEC. The differences in  $Q_T$  and SST have the same sign, which suggests that the  $Q_T$  drive the SST differences. As it is clearly shown by the annual zonal-mean differences time-series (Figure 6b): the higher the heat input in CdNCAR\_CeEC along the latitude, the warmer the ocean modeled by CdNCAR\_CeEC experiment with respect to NCAR.

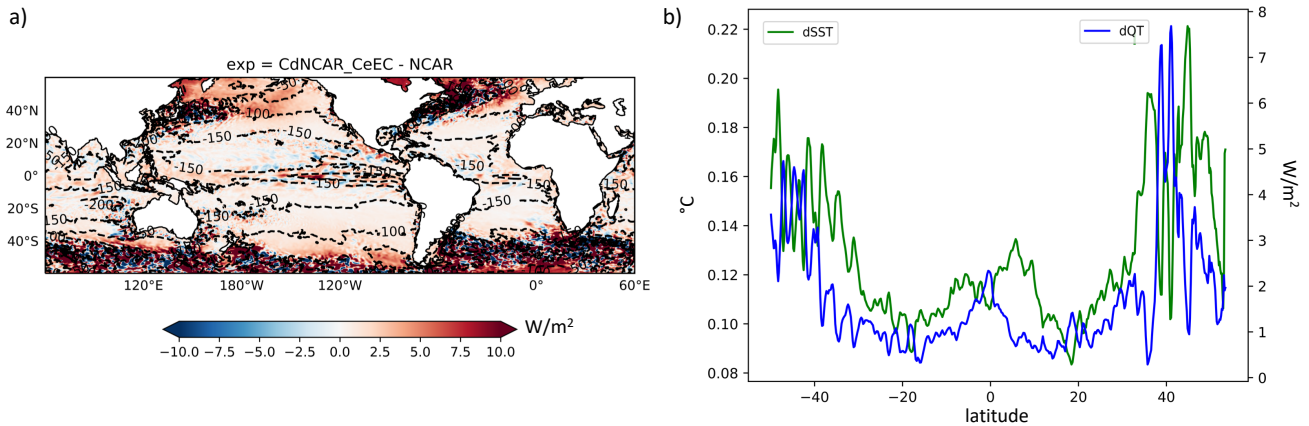
In summary, weak evaporation, and by consequence, higher heat absorption in CdNCAR\_CeEC generates an ocean surface 230 that is warmer than NCAR. This result suggests that the wind stress differences between ECMWF\_S and NCAR is the main driver of the cold SST pattern differences in Figure 3a.



**Figure 5.** Annual mean SST differences between a) ECMWF\_NS - NCAR, b) ECMWF\_NS - CdNCAR\_CeEC, c) CdNCAR\_CeEC - NCAR . Contours are annual mean SST from NCAR experiment.

### 3.4 Drag coefficient and Wind stress

The impact of the wind stress computing by ECMWF\_S and NCAR bulk parametrizations in driving the SST differences is here investigated by comparing results from ECMWF\_NS and CdNCAR\_CeEC simulations (see Table 1 for experiments details).

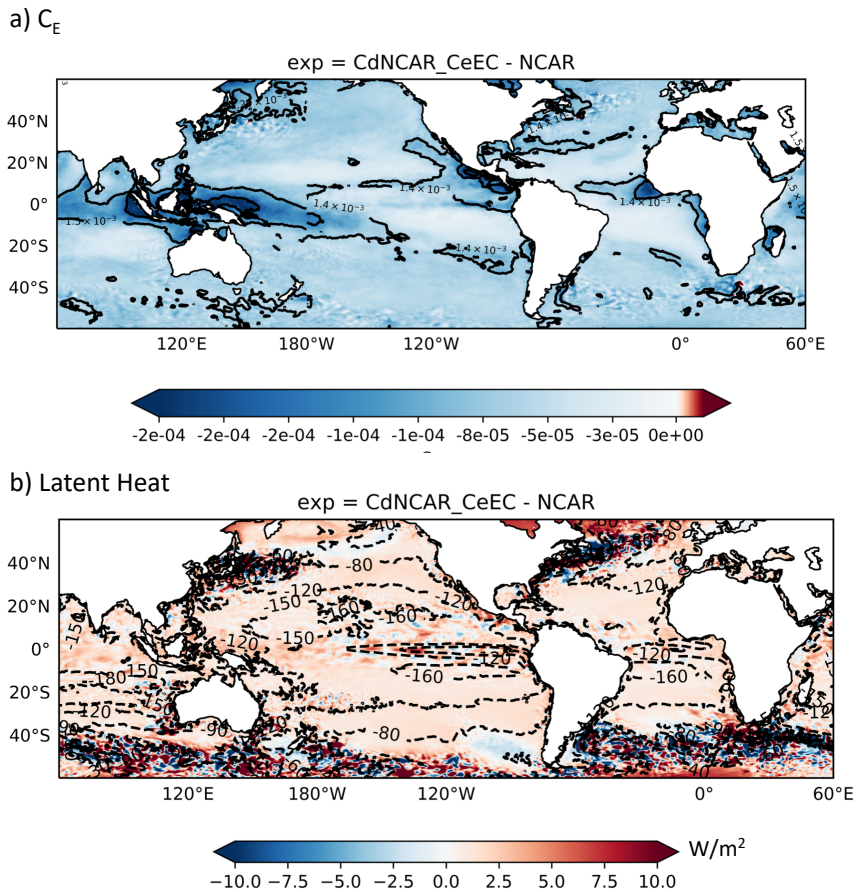


**Figure 6.** a) Annual mean differences of total heat fluxes  $Q_T$  between CdNCAR\_CeEC and NCAR experiments. Contours are annual mean from NCAR experiment; b) time-series of differences in the annual zonal-mean of SST (green) and  $Q_T$  (blue) between CdNCAR\_CeEC and NCAR experiments.

235 The SST simulated by ECMWF\_NS is colder than CdNCAR\_CeEC over EBUS and the tropical Pacific and Atlantic oceans (Figure 5a), regions characterized by wind driven upwelling. This suggests that wind stress is a major driver of the SST differences (Figure 3a). Referring to Equation 1a, the bulk formula estimates the wind stress as proportional to the wind speed vector at height  $z$  ( $\mathbf{u}_z$ ), the bulk scalar wind speed  $|\mathbf{u}_z|$  (with the potential inclusion of a gustiness contribution  $u$ ), and the drag coefficient ( $C_D$ ). Including gustiness in the ECMWF calculation produces the scalar wind differences in Figure 8a. As  
 240 expected, the differences caused to gustiness emerge in regions with calm and unstable conditions. They are indeed located in the ( $5^\circ\text{N} - 10^\circ\text{N}$ ) latitude band, in the eastern Pacific and Atlantic oceans, in the tropical western Pacific including the southern China Sea and the tropical Indian Ocean (compare contours and shaded areas in Figure 8a). These differences do not exceed  $0.3\text{m/s}$ .

Differences of  $C_D$  and  $C_D^{N10}$  fields between experiments show similar patterns (Figure 8b-c), suggesting that the differences  
 245 in  $C_D$  between parametrizations are related to the neutral coefficient ( $C_D^{N10}$ ) calculation rather than to its stability correction (term to add to  $C_D^{N10}$  to get  $C_D$  coefficients). Indeed, as discussed in section 2.2 for  $C_D^{N10}$ , the ECMWF  $C_D$  is larger than NCAR for wind speeds above 5 m/s, smaller than NCAR for calm up to light breeze conditions ( $U < 5$  m/s). In the areas where  $U$  is approximately 4-5 m/s, such as in the north-west Pacific and Atlantic ocean (between  $20^\circ\text{N}$  and  $30^\circ\text{N}$ ) and in the south-east Pacific and Atlantic ocean (between  $20^\circ\text{S}$  and  $30^\circ\text{S}$ ), the ECMWF  $C_D$  is similar or slightly smaller than NCAR.

250 Since the wind stress is not affected by the type of first-order feedback at play for the NSHF's (SST- $Q_T$  negative feedback driven, see section 2.2), differences of  $U$  and the  $C_D$  between experiments are reflected onto the resulting different fields after bulk calculation (i.e.  $\tau$  and  $\text{curl}(\tau)$ , Figure 9). In particular, over the ACC, the northern and southern mid-latitudes (e.g. EBUS), and the Atlantic storm track (i.e regions characterized by wind speeds above  $5\text{m/s}$  and ECMWF\_NS  $C_D$  larger than



**Figure 7.** Annual mean differences of a) specific humidity transfer coefficient ( $C_E$ ) and b) latent heat between CdNCAR\_CeEC and NCAR experiments. Contours are annual mean from NCAR experiment.

CdNCAR\_CeEC  $C_D$ , see Figure 8), the ECMWF\_NS wind stress is stronger by about 20% with respect to NCAR. In the (5°N -  
 255 10°N region, latitudinal band characterized by mean winds below 5m/s and  $C_D$  larger in CdNCAR\_CeEC than ECMWF\_NS  
 (Fig. 8), ECMWF\_NS shows a wind stress reduction of about 3% with respect to NCAR. In regions where the differences in  $C_D$   
 are very small (i.e. the north-west and south-west Pacific and Atlantic ocean), the inclusion of convective gustiness in the  $U$   
 calculation generates the wind stress differences, leading an increase of the wind stress in ECMWF\_NS. Therefore, the stronger  
 wind stress along EBUS in ECMWF\_NS compared to CdNCAR\_CeEC, likely enhances coastal upwelling, explaining most of  
 260 the SST differences over these regions. Part of the SST difference could be also related to Ekman suction, which is driven by  
 the positive (negative) wind stress curl in the northern (southern) hemisphere. ECMWF\_NS shows stronger positive (negative)  
 wind stress curl in the northern (southern) hemisphere EBUS compared to CdNCAR\_CeEC (Figure 9b). The SST differences  
 between ECMWF\_NS and CdNCAR\_CeEC over the tropical Pacific and Atlantic Oceans (Figure 5) are instead related only to



Ekman suction. Substantial differences are found in ECMWF\_NS compared to CdNCAR\_CeEC, characterized by greater mean  
265 wind stress both north and south of the tropical band and weaker wind stress along the equator (Figure 9a). These latitudinal  
differences of the wind stress between experiments reflect in the differences in the wind stress curl patterns (Figure 9b). Indeed,  
a stronger acceleration (deceleration) of southeast trades north (south) of the equator in ECMWF\_NS may lead to a stronger  
positive (negative) curl north (south) of the Equator (Chelton et al., 2001).

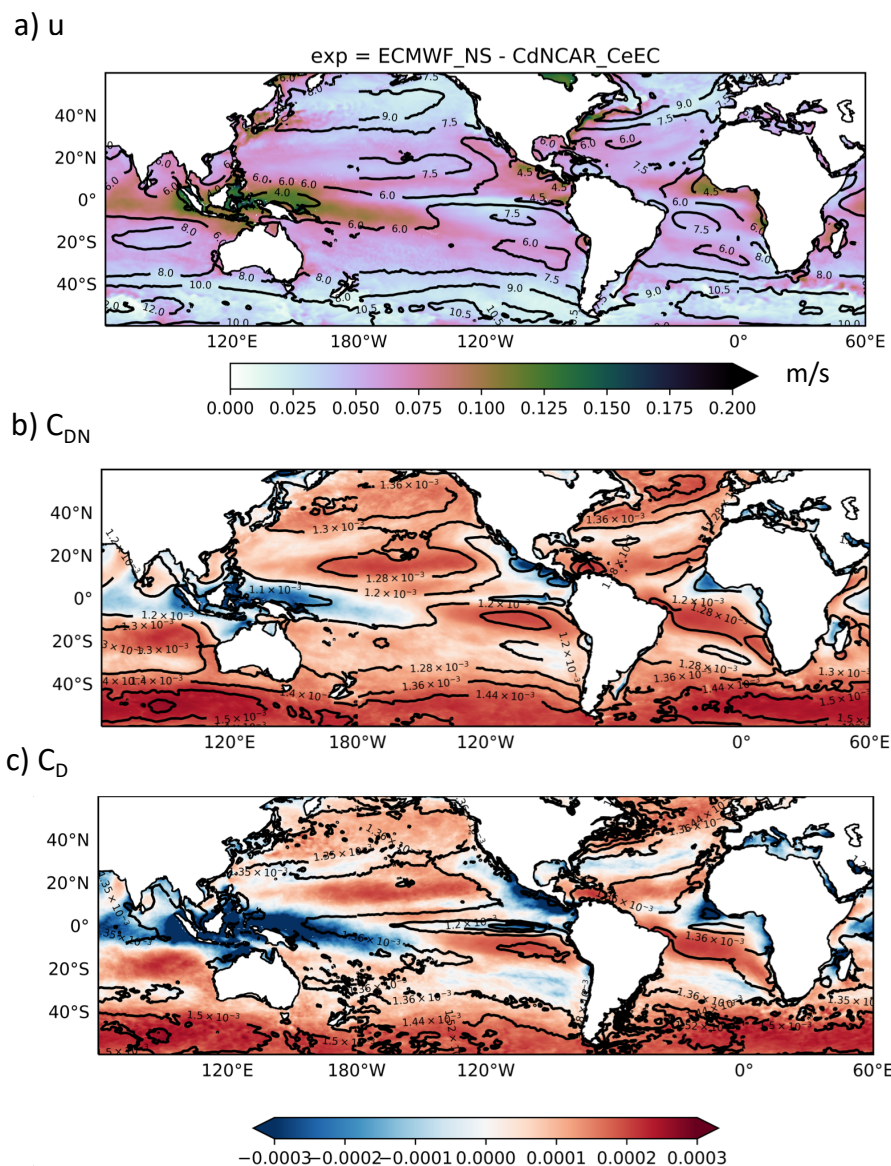
Even though the two experiments use the same  $C_E$  and  $C_H$ , the dependence of  $Q_L$  and  $Q_H$  to the prognostic SST at each  
270 time-step generates differences in  $Q_T$  (Figure 10a). The ocean gains heat in ECMWF\_NS compared to CdNCAR\_CeEC (i.e.  
positive  $Q_T$  differences) over the EBUS and the Equatorial region. In contrast to the previous finding, the differences in  $Q_T$   
and SST have opposite sign, indicating that SST differences drives the  $Q_T$  differences: the colder the temperature produced by  
ECMWF\_NS wind stress with respect to CdNCAR\_CeEC, the higher the heat gained by ECMWF\_NS along the latitudes (Figure  
10b).

275 In summary, ECMWF\_NS reproduces stronger wind stress and wind stress curl along EBUS, and stronger cyclonic wind stress  
curl along the Equator, that generates colder SST with respect to CdNCAR\_CeEC, through enhanced upwelling processes.

In light of the importance of the wind stress in driving the SST differences between ECMWF and NCAR parametrizations,  
we discuss why COARE\_S does not display the cold SST differences in comparison to NCAR over EBUS and equatorial Pacific  
(Figure 3b). With wind speed ranging from 7 to 9 m/s (e.g. over EBUS) the  $C_D$  in COARE parametrization is smaller than  
280 that of ECMWF parametrization, but slightly higher or almost identical (around 7 m/s) to the  $C_D$  of NCAR (refer to Figure 1).  
Moreover, over the northern equatorial band the  $C_D$  of COARE is smaller than that of ECMWF and NCAR. As a consequence,  
the COARE\_S differences in wind stress (Figure 2b) in comparison with NCAR are characterized by a strong decrease, roughly  
10%, over the northern equatorial band and a slightly increase of the wind stress, roughly 2%, over EBUS. The increase of wind  
stress over EBUS in COARE\_S (2% in comparison to 25% in ECMWF\_S) is not enough to promote stronger coastal upwelling  
285 in the annual mean, and in turn colder SST with respect to NCAR. As regard the equatorial upwelling, the missed increasing  
of the wind stress north to the equator (e.g. northern equatorial cold front, Figure 2b) compared to NCAR wind stress, as we  
instead noticed for ECMWF\_S (Figure 2a or Figure 9a), prevents the enhancement of the positive wind stress curl north to  
the equator. These considerations confirm that the wind stress differences, which derive from  $C_D$  differences, drive the SST  
differences across experiments, especially along wind driven areas.

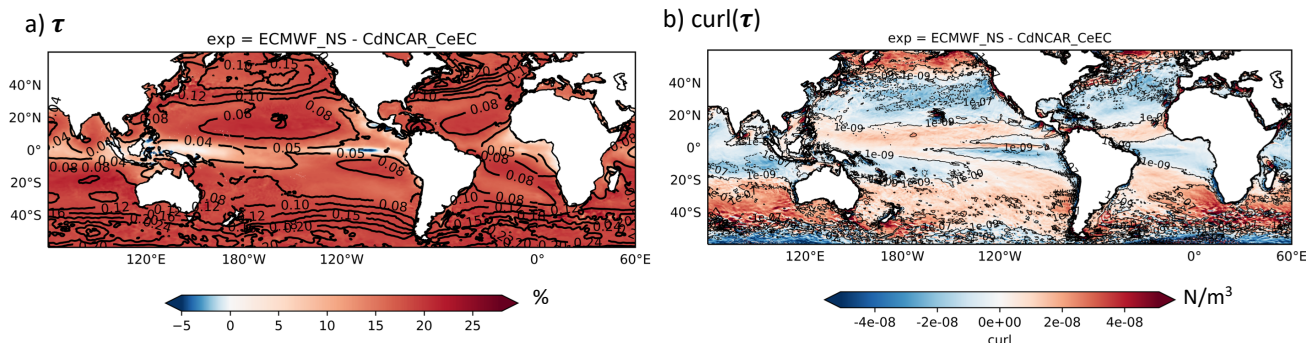
### 290 3.5 Online prognostic SST approach vs offline prescribed SST approach

In order to discuss the role of the SST- $Q_T$  negative feedback at play in the online prognostic SST approach, we compare our  
results with Brodeau et al. (2017), who compared the different bulk parametrizations using the offline prescribed SST approach  
(i.e. TASFs are computed by means of bulk formulas using prescribed surface atmospheric state variables and prescribed  
SST). They report a mean global increase of the wind stress of  $20mN/m^2$  using ECMWF parametrization instead of NCAR  
295 parametrization. The computation of the wind stress is not affected by the SST- $Q_T$  negative feedback (see equation 1a), so  
that our results of  $20mN/m^2$  global mean increase of wind stress is completely in line with the prescribed SST comparison  
by Brodeau et al. (2017). Our findings do not follow Brodeau et al. (2017) in terms of the  $Q_T$  differences between ECMWF\_S

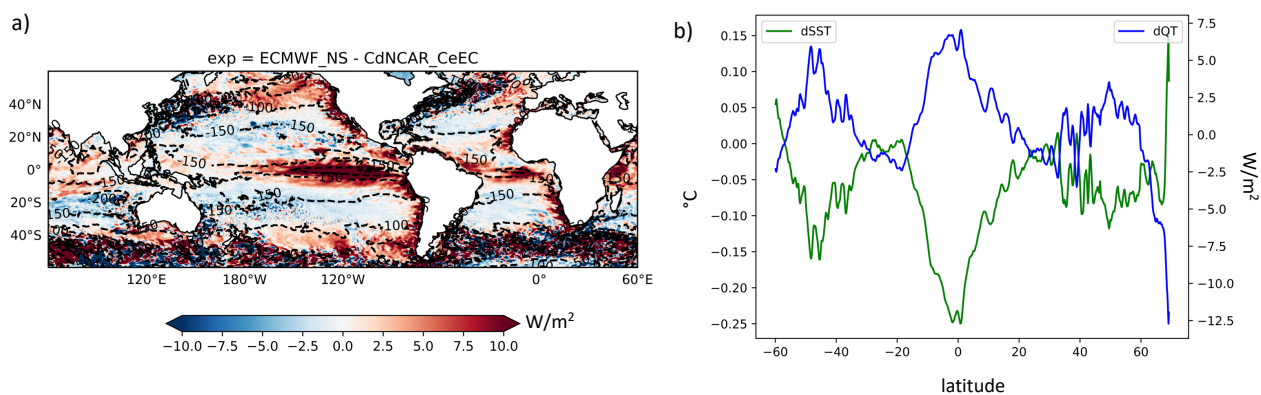


**Figure 8.** Annual mean differences of a) wind speed ( $U$ ), b) neutral wind stress transfer coefficient ( $C_{DN}$ ) and c) wind stress transfer coefficient ( $C_D$ ) between ECMWF\_NS - CdNCAR\_CeEC. Contours are annual mean from CdNCAR\_CeEC experiment.

and NCAR parametrizations. They find a global mean increase of  $Q_T$  of  $13W/m^2$  for ECMWF\_S, while in our experiments ECMWF\_S displays a mean global increase of  $5W/m^2$  with respect to NCAR. Moreover, they report an increase of  $7W/m^2$  considering SST<sub>skin</sub> rather than SST in COARE parametrization, while in our experiments ECMWF\_S displays a mean global increase of  $1W/m^2$  with respect to ECMWF\_NS. The negative feedback between the SST and the  $Q_T$  which is active in



**Figure 9.** Annual mean differences of a) wind stress ( $\tau$ ) and b) curl of the wind stress ( $curl(\tau)$ ) between ECMWF\_NS - CdNCAR\_CeEC. Contours are annual mean from CdNCAR\_CeEC experiment.



**Figure 10.** a) Annual mean differences of total heat fluxes ( $QT$ ) between ECMWF\_NS - CdNCAR\_CeEC. Contours are annual mean from CdNCAR\_CeEC experiment; b) Annual zonal-mean differences time-series of SST (green) and  $QT$  (blue) between ECMWF\_NS - CdNCAR\_CeEC.

our experiments reduces the differences in the total turbulent flux across parametrizations compared to the prescribed SST comparison.

#### 4 Summary and conclusions

305 In this work we have investigated how the implementation of different bulk parametrizations in NEMO4 ocean general circulation model drives substantial differences in prognostic sea surface temperature. Specifically, we studied the contribution of distinct aspects and assumptions of the different bulk parametrizations in driving the SST differences across numerical ex-





periments performed using NEMO global model configuration with  $1/4^\circ$  of horizontal resolution. Namely, we analyzed and quantified the role of the inclusion of the skin temperature in the computation of the turbulent heat flux components, and we also  
310 studied the role of the turbulent heat flux components and of the wind stress in driving the SST differences between parametriza-  
tions. In order to do that, we analysed differences between 'control experiments', short-term numerical experiments which used the different bulk parametrizations implemented in NEMO4, and 'mixed experiments', short-term sensitivity experiments where bulk assumptions are excluded (e.g skin temperature) or bulk transfer coefficients are computed mixing the different bulk parametrizations (e.g.  $C_D$  from NCAR parametrization and  $C_E$  and  $C_H$  from ECMWF parametrization). Moreover, the  
315 relevance of this work, other than highlighting the sensitivity of the sea surface temperature to the bulk parametrizations, is also to discuss the role of the SST- $Q_T$  negative feedback at play in the simulations. As such, we compared the modeled turbulent air-sea fluxes with the estimations from Brodeau et al. (2017), who analyzed the same bulk parametrizations, but using offline prescribed SST approach. The findings can be summarized as follow:

1. The implementation of skin temperature in the bulk parametrizations reduces evaporation and decrease the turbulent  
320 heat flux to the atmosphere, promoting ocean warming (about  $0.3^\circ\text{C}$  on global average). The skin temperature is usually colder than the sea surface temperature. The skin temperature contribution in terms of turbulent heat flux is weaker with respect to the Brodeau et al. (2017) estimations. This is due to the SST feedback to the turbulent heat flux, in particular the negative feedback between the SST and the  $Q_T$ . In our experiments the SST is free to evolve and feeds back negatively with respect to  $Q_T$ .
2. The turbulent heat flux differences between experiments are dominated by the latent heat flux contribution, which derives  
325 from  $C_E$  differences between bulk parametrizations. Less evaporative ocean gains heat, which tends to promote ocean warming (about  $0.1^\circ\text{C}$  on global average). The turbulent heat flux differences are weaker with respect to the estimations of Brodeau et al. (2017) and they can be attributed to the SST- $Q_T$  negative feedback.
3. The wind stress differences between bulk parametrizations are attributable to the  $C_D$  differences. The  $C_D$  differences  
330 result crucial especially along wind driven areas. In particular, strong wind stress or wind stress curl over EBUS and over Equatorial Pacific promote upwelling processes and consequent cooling of the sea surface temperature (about  $0.4^\circ\text{C}$  on global average). The wind stress differences across the bulk parametrizations implemented in NEMO4 result of the same magnitude of the wind stress differences calculated by Brodeau et al. (2017). This is due to the fact that, at the first order, the wind stress computation is not affected by the SST.

335 It is worth underlining that we are using forced ocean experiments in which the atmospheric fields (e.g. wind, air temperature, air humidity) given to the ocean model and seen in the online prognostic SST approach come from an atmospheric reanalysis, and do not respond back to the ocean variability. Introducing the air-sea feedback in the system might substantially impacts the turbulent fluxes and modify our finding in comparing the SST response among the bulk parametrizations. In the prospective of improving the representation of air-sea interaction in the NEMO framework, an atmospheric boundary layer (ABL) will be  
340 integrated in the NEMO release 4.2 (release scheduled for the end of 2021) and it will improve the representation of feedbacks



between the two components (Lemarié et al. (2020)). Currently, the ABL implementation is in a preliminary stage and the current online prognostic SST approach is still the favourite.

## Appendix A: List of Acronyms

Acronym	Expansion
TASFs	Turbulent Air-Sea Flux components
THFs	Turbulent heat flux components
NSHFs	Non solar heat flux component
$Q_T$	Total turbulent heat flux
BTC	Bulk Transfer Coefficient
SSTSkin	Sea Surface Skin Temperature
CSWL	Cool Skin and (diurnal) Warm Layer
EBUS	Eastern Boundary Upwelling Systems

345 *Code and data availability.* The NEMO code used in this work is available at <https://forge.ipsl.jussieu.fr/nemo/wiki/Users>, version number: 12957. Model output is available upon request from Giulia Bonino ([giulia.bonino@cmcc.it](mailto:giulia.bonino@cmcc.it))

*Author contributions.* GB, DI and LB conceived the study. GB set up the experiment and improved the model. GB performed the analysis and wrote the manuscript. GB, DI and LB interpreted the results. All authors contributed to improving the manuscript.

*Competing interests.* The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

350 *Acknowledgements.* We acknowledge the CMCC Foundation for having provided computational resources.



## References

- Amante, C. and Eakins, B. W.: ETOPO1 arc-minute global relief model: procedures, data sources and analysis, 2009.
- Barnier, B.: Forcing the ocean, in: *Ocean modeling and parameterization*, pp. 45–80, Springer, 1998.
- Bernard, B., Madec, G., Penduff, T., Molines, J.-M., Treguier, A.-M., Le Sommer, J., Beckmann, A., Biastoch, A., Böning, C., Dengg, J.,  
355 et al.: Impact of partial steps and momentum advection schemes in a global ocean circulation model at eddy-permitting resolution, *Ocean dynamics*, 56, 543–567, 2006.
- Bonino, G., Iovino, D., and Masina, S.: Bulk Formulations in NEMOv4: algorithms review and sea surface temperature response in ORCA025 case study, Technical Notes No. 289, [https://doi.org/10.25424/cmcc/bulk\\_formulas\\_nemo\\_report](https://doi.org/10.25424/cmcc/bulk_formulas_nemo_report), 2020.
- Bradley, E. and Fairall, C.: A guide to making climate quality meteorological and flux measurements at sea, 2007.
- 360 Brodeau, L., Barnier, B., Gulev, S. K., and Woods, C.: Climatologically significant effects of some approximations in the bulk parameterizations of turbulent air–sea fluxes, *Journal of Physical Oceanography*, 47, 5–28, 2017.
- Chelton, D. B., Esbensen, S. K., Schlax, M. G., Thum, N., Freilich, M. H., Wentz, F. J., Gentemann, C. L., McPhaden, M. J., and Schopf, P. S.: Observations of coupling between surface wind stress and sea surface temperature in the eastern tropical Pacific, *Journal of Climate*, 14, 1479–1498, 2001.
- 365 Chen, D., Busalacchi, A. J., and Rothstein, L. M.: The roles of vertical mixing, solar radiation, and wind stress in a model simulation of the sea surface temperature seasonal cycle in the tropical Pacific Ocean, *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, 99, 20 345–20 359, 1994.
- Dai, A. and Trenberth, K. E.: Estimates of freshwater discharge from continents: Latitudinal and seasonal variations, *Journal of hydrometeorology*, 3, 660–687, 2002.
- Dai, A., Qian, T., Trenberth, K. E., and Milliman, J. D.: Changes in continental freshwater discharge from 1948 to 2004, *Journal of climate*,  
370 22, 2773–2792, 2009.
- ECMWF: Part IV: Physical Processes, no. 4 in IFS Documentation, ECMWF, <https://www.ecmwf.int/node/9211>, operational implementation 12 May 2015, 2015.
- Edson, J. B., Jampana, V., Weller, R. A., Bigorre, S. P., Plueddemann, A. J., Fairall, C. W., Miller, S. D., Mahrt, L., Vickers, D., and Hersbach, H.: On the exchange of momentum over the open ocean, *Journal of Physical Oceanography*, 43, 1589–1610, 2013.
- 375 Fairall, C. W., Bradley, E. F., Rogers, D. P., Edson, J. B., and Young, G. S.: Bulk parameterization of air–sea fluxes for tropical ocean–global atmosphere coupled–ocean atmosphere response experiment, *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, 101, 3747–3764, 1996.
- Fairall, C. W., Bradley, E. F., Hare, J., Grachev, A. A., and Edson, J. B.: Bulk parameterization of air–sea fluxes: Updates and verification for the COARE algorithm, *Journal of climate*, 16, 571–591, 2003.
- Gill, A. E.: *Atmosphere–ocean dynamics*, Int. Geophys. Ser., 30, 662p, 1982.
- 380 Hersbach, H.: The ERA5 Atmospheric Reanalysis., AGU FM, 2016, NG33D–01, 2016.
- IOC, I.: BODC. Centenary edition of the gebco digital atlas, Digital Media, 2003.
- Jacobs, S. S., Hellmer, H. H., and Jenkins, A.: Antarctic ice sheet melting in the Southeast Pacific, *Geophysical Research Letters*, 23, 957–960, 1996.
- Kara, A. B., Rochford, P. A., and Hurlburt, H. E.: Efficient and accurate bulk parameterizations of air–sea fluxes for use in general circulation  
385 models, *Journal of Atmospheric and Oceanic Technology*, 17, 1421–1438, 2000.
- Large, W. and Pond, S.: Open ocean momentum flux measurements in moderate to strong winds, *Journal of physical oceanography*, 11, 324–336, 1981.



- Large, W. and Pond, S.: Sensible and latent heat flux measurements over the ocean, *Journal of physical Oceanography*, 12, 464–482, 1982.
- Large, W. and Yeager, S.: The global climatology of an interannually varying air–sea flux data set, *Climate dynamics*, 33, 341–364, 2009.
- 390 Lemarié, F., Samson, G., Redelsperger, J.-L., Giordani, H., Brivoal, T., and Madec, G.: A simplified atmospheric boundary layer model for an improved representation of air–sea interactions in eddying oceanic models: implementation and first evaluation in NEMO (4.0), *Geoscientific Model Development Discussions*, pp. 1–44, 2020.
- Levitus, S., JI, A., OK, B., TP, B., CL, C., HE, G., AI, G., RA, L., AV, M., JR, R., et al.: The world ocean database, *Data Science Journal*, 12, WDS229–WDS234, 2013.
- 395 Madec, G. and Imbard, M.: A global ocean mesh to overcome the North Pole singularity, *Climate Dynamics*, 12, 381–388, 1996.
- Madec G. and NEMO System Team: NEMO ocean engine, <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1464816>, 2019.
- Marsaleix, P., Auclair, F., Floor, J. W., Herrmann, M. J., Estournel, C., Pairaud, I., and Ulses, C.: Energy conservation issues in sigma-coordinate free-surface ocean models, *Ocean Modelling*, 20, 61–89, 2008.
- Monin, A. S. and Obukhov, A. M.: Basic laws of turbulent mixing in the surface layer of the atmosphere, *Contrib. Geophys. Inst. Acad. Sci. USSR*, 151, e187, 1954.
- 400 NEMO Sea Ice Working Group: Sea Ice modelling Integrated Initiative (SI<sup>3</sup>) – The NEMO sea ice engine, <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1471689>, 2020.
- Seager, R., Blumenthal, M. B., and Kushnir, Y.: An advective atmospheric mixed layer model for ocean modeling purposes: Global simulation of surface heat fluxes, *Journal of climate*, 8, 1951–1964, 1995.
- 405 Shriver, J. F. and Hurlburt, H. E.: The contribution of the global thermohaline circulation to the Pacific to Indian Ocean throughflow via Indonesia, *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, 102, 5491–5511, 1997.
- Siedler, G., Griffies, S. M., Gould, J., and Church, J. A.: *Ocean circulation and climate: a 21st century perspective*, Academic Press, 2013.
- Smith, S. D.: Coefficients for sea surface wind stress, heat flux, and wind profiles as a function of wind speed and temperature, *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, 93, 15 467–15 472, 1988.
- 410 Swenson, M. S. and Hansen, D. V.: Tropical Pacific Ocean mixed layer heat budget: The Pacific cold tongue, *Journal of Physical Oceanography*, 29, 69–81, 1999.
- Torres, O., Braconnot, P., Marti, O., and Gentil, L.: Impact of air–sea drag coefficient for latent heat flux on large scale climate in coupled and atmosphere stand-alone simulations, *Climate Dynamics*, 52, 2125–2144, 2019.
- Yuen, C., Cherniawsky, J., Lin, C., and Mysak, L.: An upper ocean general circulation model for climate studies: Global simulation with seasonal cycle, *Climate dynamics*, 7, 1–18, 1992.
- 415 Zalesak, S. T.: Fully multidimensional flux-corrected transport algorithms for fluids, *Journal of computational physics*, 31, 335–362, 1979.