

1 Triggering effects of large topography and boundary layer turbulence on  
2 convection over the Tibetan Plateau

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15 **Abstract**

16 In this study, we analyze the diurnal variations and formation mechanism of low  
17 clouds at different elevations. We further discuss whether there exist triggering  
18 mechanism for convection over the Tibetan Plateau (TP), and whether there is an  
19 association among low air density, strong turbulence and ubiquitous “popcorn-like”  
20 cumulus clouds. The buoyancy term (BT) and shear term (ST) over the TP are  
21 significantly greater than those at the low elevation, which is favorable for the  
22 formation of increasing planetary boundary layer height (PBLH), and also plays a key  
23 role in the convective activities in the lower troposphere. The lifting condensation  
24 level (LCL) increases with the increasing of PBLH-LCL over the TP. From the  
25 viewpoint of global effects, the triggering effects of the dynamical structure within the  
26 boundary layer on convective clouds in the ~~northern~~Northern hemisphereHemisphere  
27 are analyzed. There are strong ST and BT at two high elevation regions (TP and  
28 Rocky Mountains), and the strong thermal turbulence results in obvious positive value  
29 of PBLH-LCL at high elevation regions under low RH condition in the  
30 ~~northern~~Northern hemisphereHemisphere. The values of PBLH-LCL slightly greater  
31 than zero correspond spatially to more low cloud cover (LCC) in the central part of  
32 Rocky Mountains, but obvious large-scale subsidence on both sides of the mountain  
33 leads to strong inversion above PBL and lower RH in PBL, which further lead to less  
34 LCC in these areas. Thus ~~less~~ LCC is generated at Rocky Mountains compared to  
35 the TP.

## 36 Introduction

37 The Tibetan Plateau (TP), which resembles a "third pole" and a "world water  
38 tower", plays an important and special role in the global climate and energy–water  
39 cycle (Xu et al., 2008; Wu et al., 2015). The TP covers a quarter of China.  
40 Additionally, the average altitude of the TP is 4000 meters, reaching 1/3 of the  
41 tropopause height, so it is called the "World Roof". Cumulus convection over the TP  
42 transfers heat, moisture and momentum into the free troposphere, which can impact  
43 the atmospheric circulation regionally and globally (Li and Zhang, 2016; Xu et al.,  
44 2014) and reveals the important "window effect" for the transfer and exchange of  
45 global energy and water vapor over the TP. The special heat source dynamic effect  
46 constitutes the "window effect" and "thermally driven" mechanism over the TP.

47 The results of the TIPEX II, which was carried out in 1998, showed that the strong  
48 convective plumes within PBL observed by sodar and a frequently occurred deep  
49 mixed layer (>2 km) can lead to ubiquitous "popcorn - like" cumulus clouds in  
50 Dangxiong, and Xu et al. (2002) proposed a comprehensive physical pattern of  
51 land-air dynamic and thermal structure on the Qinghai-Xizang Plateau (Xu et al.,  
52 2002; Zhou, 2000). The previous studies have done many valuable researches on the  
53 triggering mechanism of moist convection over moist and dry surfaces based on  
54 atmospheric observations and simulations (Ek and Mahrt, 1994; Findell and Eltahir,  
55 2003; Gentine et al., 2013). For dry surface, the weak stratification and strong  
56 sensible heat flux result in the rapid growth of PBLH so that the relative humidity at  
57 the top of the boundary layer  $RH_{top}$  ~~decreases~~ increases rapidly, which favors the  
58 formation of clouds. For moist surface, strong stratification and evaporation (small  
59 bowen ratio) result in slow growth of PBLH, also increase the mixed layer specific  
60 humidity and  $RH_{top}$ , which favor the formation and development of clouds. Taylor et  
61 al. (2012) found that the afternoon rain falls preferentially over soils that are relatively  
62 dry compared to the surrounding area, especially for semi-arid regions. Guillod et al.  
63 (2015) reconciled spatial and temporal soil moisture effects on the afternoon rainfall.  
64 They showed that afternoon precipitation events tend to occur during wet and  
65 heterogeneous soil moisture conditions, while being located over comparatively drier  
66 patches. Tuttle et al. (2016) showed the empirical evidence of contrasting soil  
67 moisture–precipitation feedbacks across the United States, and they found that soil  
68 moisture anomalies significantly influence rainfall probabilities over 38% of the area  
69 with a median factor of 13%. According to the model results over dry and wet soils in  
70 Illinois, Findell et al. (2003) summarized the predictive capability of rain and shallow  
71 clouds gained from use of the convective triggering potential (CTP) and a low-level  
72 humidity index,  $HI_{low}$  as measures of the early morning atmospheric setting. Our  
73 previous studies pointed out that the developments of these cumulus clouds are related  
74 to the special large scale dynamic structure and turbulence within PBL over the TP  
75 (Xu et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2020). All the above results indicate the topography of  
76 the TP plays a major role in increasing the occurrence frequency of the strong

77 convective clouds (Luo et al., 2011). This conclusion is consistent with the viewpoint  
78 of Flohn (1967) who emphasized the chimney effect of the huge cumulonimbus  
79 clouds on heat transfer in the upper troposphere.

80 The TP is one of the regions in China where high frequency of cumulus clouds  
81 occurs, and the development of cumulus system is related to both the turbulence and  
82 special dynamical structure in PBL over the TP. The vertical motion over the TP is  
83 associated with the anomalous convective activities. However, as Li and Zhang (2016)  
84 mentioned, the details of PBL process are not very clear, and also the diurnal  
85 variations and formation mechanism of low clouds over the TP and low elevation  
86 regions are still not very clear. The different variation characteristics of these low  
87 clouds at different elevations also need to be discussed and analyzed. We further need  
88 to discuss whether there exist “high efficiency” triggering mechanisms for convection  
89 over the TP, and whether there is an association among low air density, strong  
90 turbulence and ubiquitous “popcorn-like” cumulus clouds. Is there also strong  
91 turbulence at higher elevation region with lower air density in the globe? Because  
92 both the TP and Rocky Mountains are high elevation regions with huge area in  
93 mid-latitude, in this study we mainly focus on these two regions to analyze the above  
94 scientific questions.

## 95 2 Observational and reanalysis data

96 We use in situ measurements of temperature (T) and relative humidity (RH) at 2 m  
97 height, surface pressure data every hour, and low cloud cover (LCC) every three  
98 hours from 2402 automatic weather stations from June to August of 2010-2019 in  
99 China. LCC here refers to the fraction of the sky ~~covered~~<sup>observed</sup> by low clouds as  
100 estimated by human observers, including five cloud types: nimbostratus (Ns),  
101 stratocumulus (Sc), stratus (St), cumulus (Cu), and deep convection (DC). These  
102 surface observation datasets are provided by China National Meteorological  
103 Information Center.

104 In addition, we use the hourly  $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$  ERA5 reanalysis surface-layer data  
105 in summer (June 1 to August 31) from 2010 to 2019 (Hersbach et al., 2020).

106 We use more than 4 years (from June 15 2006 to August 31 2010) of the satellite  
107 (CloudSat radar and Calipso lidar)-merged cloud classification product  
108 2B-CLDCLASS-lidar to calculate the mean LCC with  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$  resolution at about 2:00  
109 pm and 2:00 am LT in summer. The introduction of this product and details of the  
110 LCC calculation methods are summarized in Sassen and Wang (2008) and Wang et al  
111 (2020).

112 We use a Gaofen 4 (GF 4) visible satellite image with spatial resolution of 50 m  
113 on August 4 in 2020 to show the organized structures (cellular convection) in  
114 southeastern TP. GF 4 is a geostationary earth observation satellite in the Gaofen  
115 series of Chinese civilian remote sensing satellites. We also use the 1 year (from June  
116 1 to August 31 in 2016) geostationary satellite himawari-8 retrieval product (cloud top  
117 height) over land in East Asia.

118 In this study, we also use monthly mean temperature (T) and relative humidity

119 [\(RH\) at 2 m height, surface pressure, planetary boundary layer height \(PBLH\) every](#)  
 120 [hour from ERA5 reanalysis data from 2010 to 2019. The lifting condensation level](#)  
 121 [\(LCL\) is calculated by method proposed by \(Romps, 2017\).](#)

122 ~~using~~ [Using sensible heat flux  \$H\$ , Northward turbulent surface stress  \$\tau\_y\$  and](#)  
 123 [Eastward turbulent surface stress  \$\tau\_x\$  from ERA5 reanalysis data, then](#) we calculate the  
 124 buoyancy term (BT) ( $g/\theta_v \overline{w'\theta'_v}$ ) and shear term (ST) ( $-\partial\bar{u}/\partial z \overline{u'w'}$ ) in the TKE  
 125 equation for each grid. Both of these two terms can be used to analyze the effect of  
 126 boundary layer turbulence in surface layer on convection. The details of the method  
 127 for computing BT and ST are as follows:

128 The shear term (ST) ( $-\partial\bar{u}/\partial z \overline{u'w'} - \partial\bar{v}/\partial z \overline{v'w'}$ ) and buoyancy term (BT) ( $g/\theta_v \overline{w'\theta'_v}$ )  
 129 in the TKE equation maintain the turbulent motions. In order to simplify calculations,  
 130 the x-axis is directed along the average wind. Assuming horizontal homogeneity and  
 131 no mean divergence, the TKE equation is written as

$$132 \quad \frac{\partial \bar{e}}{\partial t} = \frac{g}{\theta_v} \overline{w'\theta'_v} - \overline{u'w'} \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial(\overline{w'e})}{\partial z} - \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial(\overline{w'p'})}{\partial z} - \varepsilon. \quad (1)$$

133 The left side of eq. (1) is the local time variation  $\partial\bar{e}/\partial t$ , and the terms on the  
 134 right-hand side of eq. (1) describe the buoyancy and shear energy production or  
 135 consumption, turbulent transport of  $\bar{e}$ , pressure correlation and viscous dissipation  
 136 (Stull, 1988).

137 Here we use eq. (2) to calculate virtual potential temperature  $\theta_v$ , and  $\overline{w'\theta'_v}$  is  
 138 derived from eq. (3). Finally, we derive BT.

$$139 \quad \theta_v = T(1 + 0.608q) \left( \frac{p_0}{p} \right)^{\frac{R}{c_p}}, \quad (2)$$

$$140 \quad H = \rho c_p \overline{w'\theta'_v}, \quad (3)$$

141 Where  $g = 9.8 \text{ m s}^{-2}$  is the gravitational constant, and  $H (\text{W m}^{-2})$  is the sensible heat  
 142 flux,  $\rho (\text{kg m}^{-3})$  is the air density,  $R$  is the specific gas constant for dry air,  $c_p (=1004 \text{ J}$   
 143  $\text{kg}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1})$  is the specific heat of air at constant pressure,  $T$  is the air temperature at 2 m  
 144 height,  $q$  is the specific humidity at 2 m height,  $p_0$  and  $p$  are standard atmospheric  
 145 pressure and surface pressure, respectively.

146 The  $\partial\bar{u}/\partial z$  in the surface layer is estimated as

$$147 \quad \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial z} = \phi_m(\zeta) \frac{u_*}{kz}, \quad (4)$$

148 and the non-dimensional wind profiles  $\phi_m$  (Dyer, 1974) is :

149  $\phi_m = 1 + 5\zeta, (\zeta > 0)$  (5)

150  $\phi_m = (1 - 16\zeta)^{-1/4}, (\zeta < 0)$  (6)

151  $\zeta = \frac{z}{L}, L = \frac{-u_*^3}{\kappa \frac{g}{\theta_v} w' \theta'_v}$  (7)

152  $\tau = \sqrt{\tau_x^2 + \tau_y^2}$ , (8)

153  $\tau = \rho u_*^2$ , (9)

154  $\tau = -\overline{\rho u' w'}$ . (10)

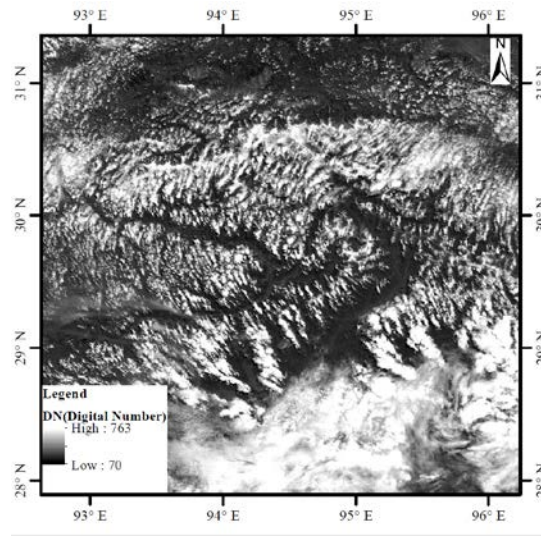
155 Where the von Karman constant  $\kappa=0.4$ , and  $z = 10$  m.  $\bar{u}$  is the horizontal wind  
 156 speed at level  $z$  and  $u_*$  is the frictional velocity. The stability parameter  $z/L$  is defined  
 157 in eq. (7).  $\tau_x$  and  $\tau_y$  are the Eastward and Northward turbulent surface stress,  
 158 respectively.  $\tau$  is turbulent fluxes of momentum, which can be calculated by using eq.  
 159 (8). Then we use eq. (9) to derive  $u_*$ . We also use eq. (10) to derive  $-\overline{u'w'}$ . Finally,  
 160 we derive ST.  
 161

### 162 3 Results

163 Figure 1-2 (a) shows the spatial distribution of over-land low cloud cover (LCC)  
 164 in China from June to August of 1951-2019-. The high value areas of LCC ~~that~~  
 165 ~~present in~~ “ribbon pattern” are mainly located in the eastern TP and the area of the  
 166 upper Yangtze River Valley. Using four years of CloudSat-Calipso satellite data, Li  
 167 and Zhang (2016) also confirmed that the climatological occurrence of cumulus over  
 168 the TP is significantly greater than that in mid-eastern China on the same latitude. The  
 169 elevated land surface with strong radiative heating makes the massive TP a favorable  
 170 region for initiating convective cells with a high frequency of cumulonimbus and  
 171 mesoscale convective systems (Sugimoto and Ueno, 2012). As a strong heat source,  
 172 the TP has frequent convective activities in summer. During the TIPEX II in 1998,  
 173 the long and narrow thermal plume corresponding with vigorous cellular convection  
 174 on micro-scale was observed by sodar in Dangxiong. As shown in Figure 1, ~~t~~  
 175 the convective plume and “raised” cloud on a horizontal scale from hundreds of meters to  
 176 several kilometres over the southeastern TP (above latitude 30N) are probably related  
 177 to the organized eddies on the meso-scale and micro-scale over the TP.

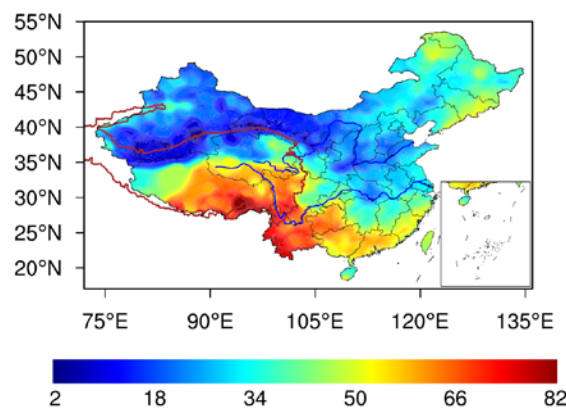
178 As shown in Figure 23, in general, LCC increases with the increasing elevation.  
 179 The median of LCC<sub>HS</sub> are significantly greater than those of LCC<sub>L</sub> and LCC<sub>M</sub>  
 180 throughout the day. The diurnal variations of LCC<sub>L</sub> and LCC<sub>M</sub> are generally  
 181 distributed in unimodal pattern with the maximum appearing at 2:00 pm BT (median

182  $LCC_L = 37\%$ ,  $LCC_M = 38\%$ ) and low values ( $\sim 20\%$ ) are maintained during the night.  
 183 The diurnal variation of  $LCC_H$  presents a bimodal curve with the maximum appearing  
 184 at 5:00 pm BT (median  $LCC_H = 69\%$ ) and the secondary local maximum appearing at  
 185 8:00 am BT (median  $LCC_H = 61\%$ ). Compared to the low elevation, the interquartile  
 186 ranges (IQRs) of  $LCC_H$  are less than those of  $LCC_L$  and  $LCC_M$ , which imply the  
 187  $LCC_H$  maintains high values during the day. [To further confirm and compare the](#)  
 188 [above results from in situ measurements, using ERA5 LCC data, we also add Figure](#)  
 189 [S1 to show the diurnal cycle of LCC in summer in East Asia and North America in](#)  
 190 [supplementary material.](#)



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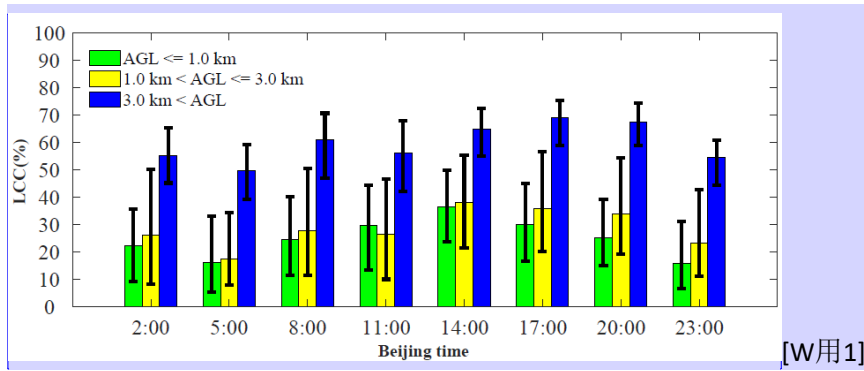
192 [Figure 1. The digital number of geostationary earth observation satellite Gaofen 4](#)  
 193 [\(GF4\) at 12:00 pm Beijing time \(about 10:20 am local time\) on August 4 in 2020 in](#)  
 194 [southeastern TP.](#)



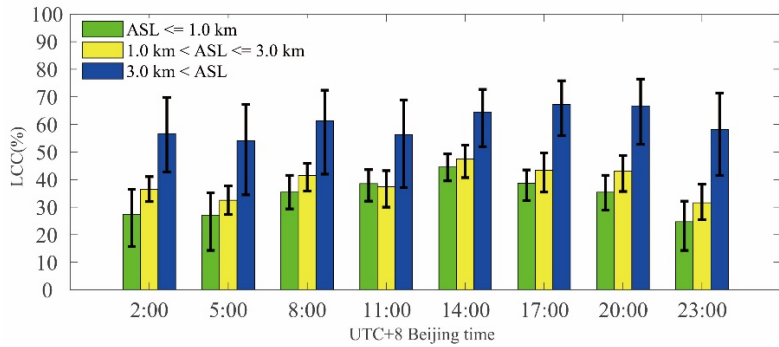
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196 [Figure 12. The monthly-summer mean LCC derived from surface observations in](#)  
 197 [summer from 1951 to 2019 in China. The thick](#)  
 198 [red contour denotes the 2.5 km topography height referred to as the TP. The blue lines](#)  
 199 [located in northern and southern part of China denote the Yellow and Yangtze River,](#)  
 200 [respectively.](#)





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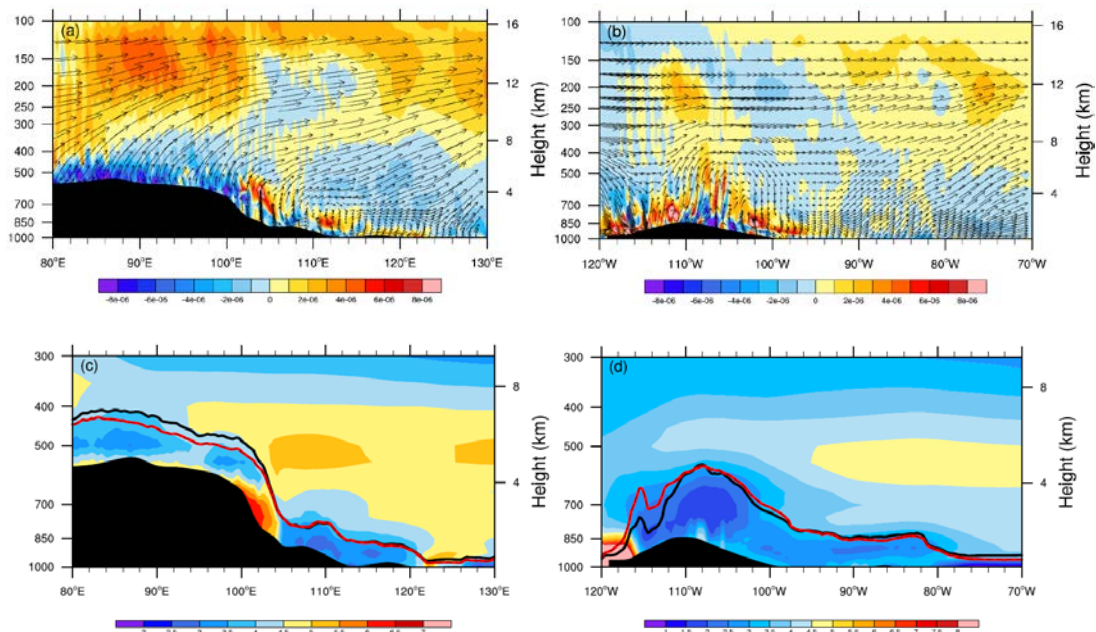


202

203 Figure 23. The diurnal cycle of LCC in summer from 2010 to 2019 at different  
 204 altitudes above sea level (ASL) elevations:  $ASL \leq 1.0$  km ( $LCC_L$ ),  $1.0$  km  $< ASL \leq 3.0$   
 205 km ( $LCC_M$ ), and  $3.0$  km  $< ASL$  ( $LCC_H$ ). It should be noted that all the sites are ranged  
 206 from 27N to 40N in China, and each sample is derived from monthly mean LCC at  
 207 a particular time in summer for each site. The bar and error bar represent the median  
 208 values and interquartile ranges (IQRs) of LCC, respectively.

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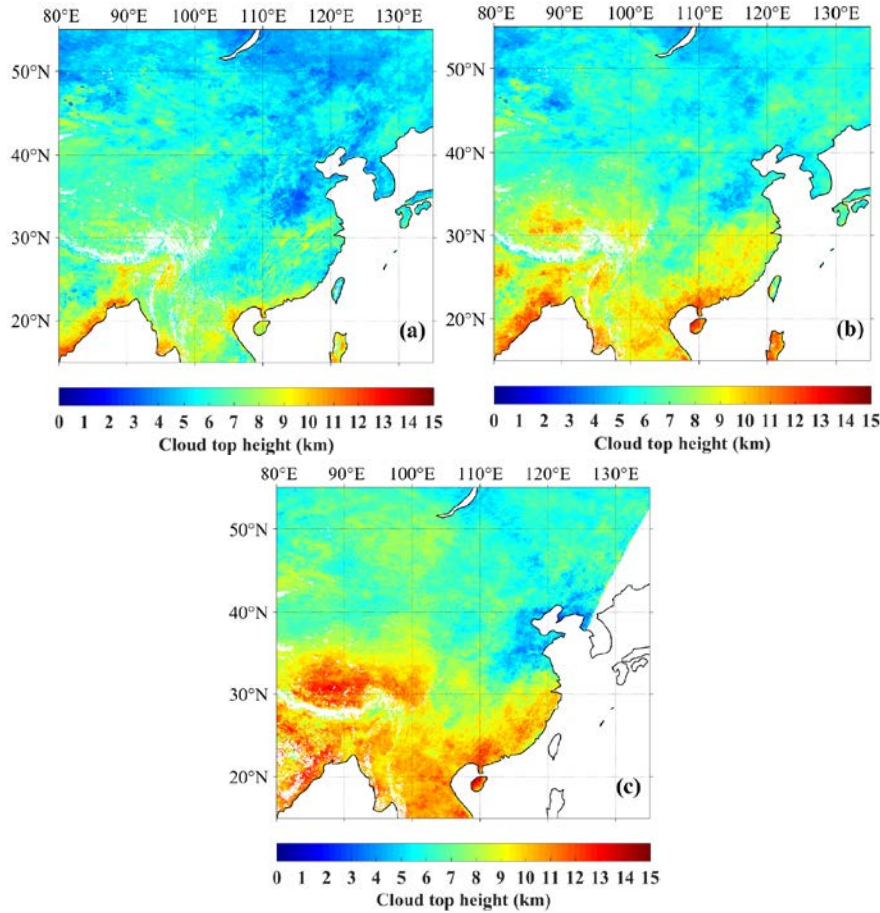


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213 Figure 34. Vertical distribution of divergence ( $s^{-1}$ ) (shaded) at the latitude across  
 214 sections from 30N to 35N in (a) East Asia, (b) North America. The summer mean

215 | vectors of ~~daily~~ U- and W- wind components at local time 2:00 pm from 2010 to 2019  
 216 | in summer along 30N–35N with the zonal circulations. The black shaded area  
 217 | represents topography. The red and black lines in Figure (c) and (d) denote the LCL  
 218 | and PBLH, respectively. The shaded colors— except black in Figure (c) and (d)  
 219 | represent the vertical gradients of virtual potential temperature  $d\theta_v/dz$ .



220

221

222 | Figure 45. The median cloud top height derived from himawari-8 retrieval product at  
 223 | three Beijing times: (a) 2:30 pm±0.5h (b) 4:30 pm±0.5h (c) 6:30 pm±0.5h from June  
 224 | to August in 2016 over land in East Asia. Missing data are shaded in white color.

225

226 | On the other hand, we note that, compared to— eastern China, there is no obvious  
 227 | decrease trend for the LCC over the TP from late afternoon to evening as shown in  
 228 | Figure 23. Based on the spatial distribution of topography in the Northern Hemisphere  
 229 | as shown in Figure 7 (a), it is clear that both the TP (27-40N, 70-105E) and Rocky  
 230 | Mountains (27-40N, 103-120W) in North America are two large area with high  
 231 | elevations in mid-latitude region in the Northern Hemisphere, so here we select these  
 232 | two typical large topography regions to analyze the triggering effects of large  
 233 | topography and related dynamical structure within the boundary layer on convective  
 234 | clouds. The Figure 3-4 (a) shows there are obvious large scale ascending motions  
 235 | from near surface layer to upper troposphere over the TP, which correspond with the  
 236 | convergence at 500 hPa and the divergence at 200 hPa. Figure 3-4 (c) shows there are  
 237 | deep weak inversion layer (about 2 km with  $d\theta_v/dz < 3 \text{ K km}^{-1}$ ) and positive  
 238 | PBLH-LCL over the TP. These results are consistent with the conclusions proposed



239 | by Xu et al. (2014) and Wang et al. (2020). In contrast, Figure 3-4(b) shows there are  
240 | only weak large scale ascending motions from near surface layer to middle  
241 | troposphere over the Rocky Mountains, while the large-scale subsidence on both sides  
242 | of the Rocky Mountains leads to strong inversion above PBL and lower RH in near  
243 | surface layer. The former restricts the growth of PBLH during the day, and the latter  
244 | leads to the increased LCL. Thus negative PBLH-LCL is identified on both sides of  
245 | the Rocky Mountains, especially for the western Rocky Mountain with strong  
246 | large-scale subsidence, as shown in Figure 3-4(d). With its thermal structure, the TP  
247 | leads to dynamic processes of vapor transport, similar to the [conditional instability of](#)  
248 | [the second kind \(CISK\)](#) mechanism of tropical cyclones.

249 | Figure 4-5 shows the spatial distribution of day time variations of cloud top  
250 | height in summer. Compared to eastern China at the same latitude, the cloud top  
251 | height has a significant increase from 2:30 pm (~7 km) to 6:30 pm (~14 km) over the  
252 | TP. The cloud top height approaches the tropopause (~14 km) in the evening over the  
253 | TP, which implies the frequent deep convective clouds at this time. This result is  
254 | consistent with the observation of millimeter-wave radar in Naqu (Yi, 2016).

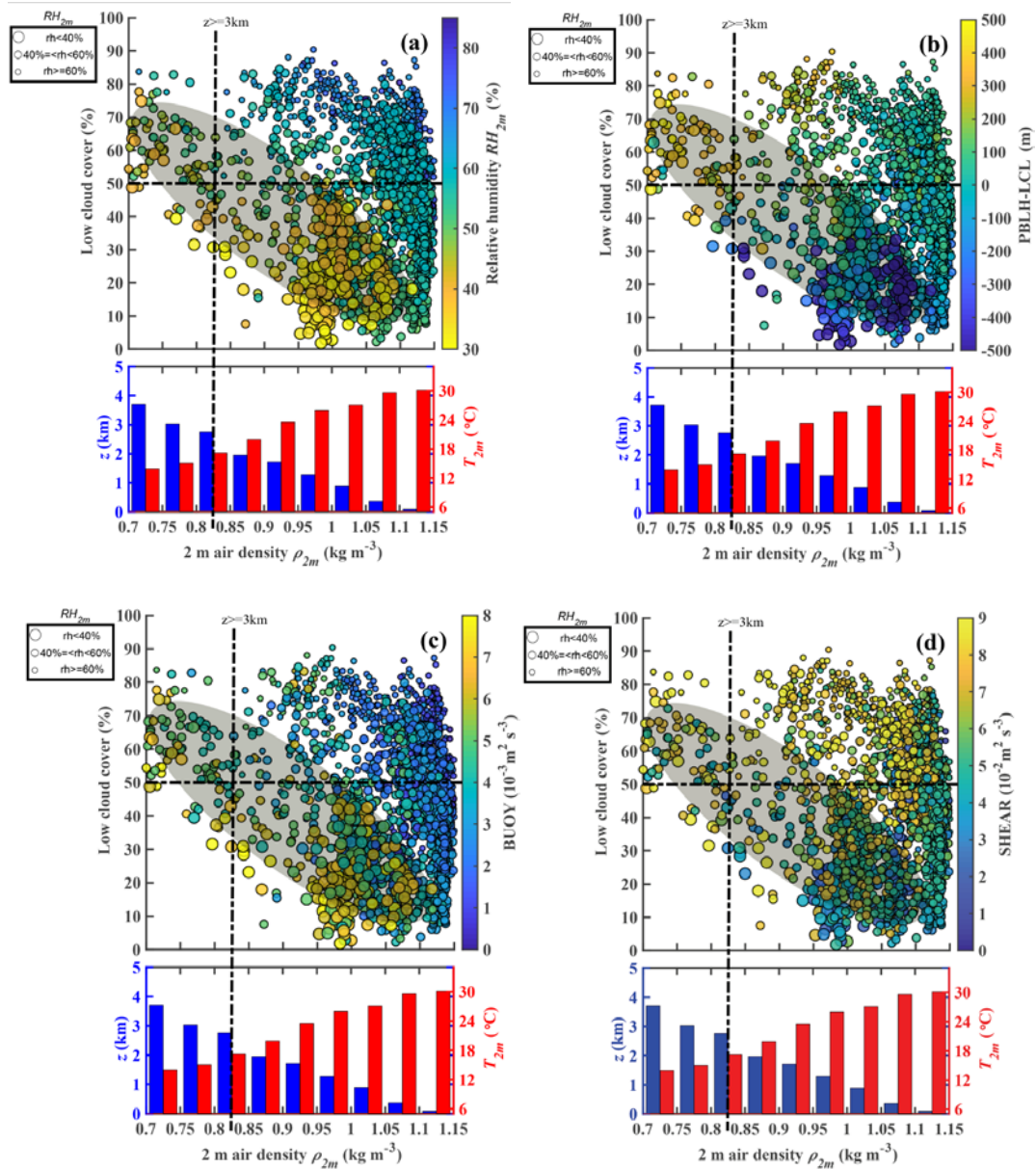
255 | By comprehensively analyzing the second Tibet Plateau Experiment (TIPEX II)  
256 | sodar data, Xu et al. (2002) and Zhou et al. (2000) found that, with narrow upward  
257 | motion and time scale from 1.2 h to 1.5 h, the maximum upward motion of the  
258 | thermal turbulence was identified at the height of about 120 m above the surface, its  
259 | vertical speed up to  $1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ . They also found symmetrical and wide downward  
260 | motion area on either side of the narrow upward motion zone. The question arises as  
261 | to whether there is a relationship between the formation and evolution of frequent  
262 | "pop-corn-like" convective clouds and micro-scale thermal turbulence in the  
263 | atmospheric convective boundary layer over the TP. Xu et al., (2012) speculate these  
264 | low clouds are probably initiated by strong thermal turbulence under low air density  
265 | condition. Compared to the low elevation in eastern China, the increased thermal  
266 | turbulence associated with low air density over the TP leads to the different  
267 | turbulence characteristics of [convective boundary layer \(CBL\)](#). The CBL is mainly  
268 | driven by buoyancy heat flux, and thermal turbulence with organized thermal plume  
269 | is not totally random (Young, 1988a; Young, 1988b). The BT and ST over the TP are  
270 | significantly greater than those at the low elevation, which play key roles in the  
271 | convective activities in lower troposphere.

272 | By using the statistical results from sodar data in the second Tibetan Plateau  
273 | Experiment for atmospheric sciences (TIPEX II), Zhou et al. (2000) calculated the BT  
274 | and ST at the height of 50 m under strong convection condition in Dangxiong (located  
275 | at central TP). The results indicate that the BT is comparable to ST. Both the  
276 | thermodynamic and dynamic processes have important influences on the convective  
277 | activities. Both the BT and ST in the surface layer in Dangxiong are almost an order  
278 | of magnitude greater than those at low elevation given by Brummer (1985) in North  
279 | Sea and Weckwerth et al. (1997) in Florida. Direct measurements from the Third  
280 | Tibetan Plateau Experiments (TIPEX III) also confirmed that surface buoyancy flux  
281 | over the TP is significantly larger than that in eastern China (Zhou, 2000; Wang et al.,  
282 | 2016). Both the sodar data in TIPEX II and boundary layer tower data in TIPEX III

283 showed contributions of BT and ST to the turbulent kinetic energy in the lower  
284 troposphere are larger over the TP than over the southeastern margin of the TP and the  
285 low-altitude Chengdu Plain (Zhou, 2000; Wang et al., 2015). What is the relationship  
286 between high frequent low cloud and the above physical quantities (e.g. turbulence  
287 structure, temperature and humidity) under low air density condition over the TP? The  
288 physical mechanism should be discussed and analyzed. In addition, at low elevation in  
289 eastern China, the question arises as to whether or not the variations of PBLH and  
290 LCL favor the formation and development of low clouds.

291 As shown in Figure 5-6 (a), compared to the low elevation, for low  $RH_{2m}$   
292 condition ( $RH_{2m} < 40\%$ ), there is larger LCC ( $LCC > 50\%$ ) over the TP ( $AGL-ASL >$   
293  $3$  km). In contrast, larger LCC mostly corresponds to higher  $RH_{2m}$  condition at low  
294 elevation, which is consisted with our common sense. The above interesting  
295 phenomenon can be explained by the differences of PBLH-LCL between TP and low  
296 elevation on summer afternoons, which are mainly attributed to two mechanisms.  
297 With a similar sensible heat flux, the lower air density over the TP leads to greater  
298 surface buoyancy flux (or BT) as shown in Figure 5-6 (c), which is conducive to the  
299 increase of PBLH over the TP. Figure 5-6 (d) shows great ST over the TP, which is  
300 mainly attributed to large wind speed. Although here we only show the ST in surface  
301 layer, strong wind shear in boundary layer probably also plays a role in increasing  
302 PBLH over the TP. On the other hand, with a similar RH, Wang et al. (2020) have  
303 indicated that, compared to the low elevation in eastern China, the lower temperature  
304 over the TP leads to a lower LCL. Together these mechanisms lead to a greater  
305 (PBLH-LCL) difference over the TP on summer afternoons, which increase the  
306 probability of air parcels reaching the LCL and forming clouds as shown in Figure 5-6  
307 (b). For the TP, in most cases, the positive value of PBLH-LCL, great BT and ST  
308 correspond larger LCC ( $LCC > 50\%$ ) for low  $RH_{2m} < 60\%$ , which implies the local  
309 more LCC is relevant to the diurnal variation of the PBL process. In contrast, for the  
310 eastern China, in most cases, the larger LCC ( $LCC > 50\%$ ) generally correspond the  
311 high  $RH_{2m} > 60\%$ , and the LCC is not significantly correlated with PBLH-LCL, BT  
312 and ST, which implies the other factors besides the PBL process (e.g. large scale  
313 ascending motion) play a more important in LCC.

314



315

316

317 Figure 56. The relationships among monthly means of low cloud cover LCC,  $\rho_{2m}$  and  
 318 (a)  $RH_{2m}$ , (b) PBLH-LCL, (c) BT and (d) ST at 2:00 pm (BT) from 2010 to 2019 in  
 319 summer in China. The samples are divided into three groups:  $RH_{2m} \geq 60\%$  (small  
 320 size dots),  $60\% > RH_{2m} \geq 40\%$  (median size dots) and  $RH_{2m} < 40\%$  (large size dots).  
 321 The LCC,  $T_{2m}$  and  $RH_{2m}$  are observed by in situ measurements, and PBLH, LCL, BT  
 322 and ST are derived from ERA5 reanalysis data. Here we use the nearest neighbor  
 323 gridding method to derive the PBLH, LCL, BT and ST at each site. The blue and red  
 324 histograms show an approximate relationship between  $\rho_{2m}$  and surface elevation  
 325 above sea level  $z$ , air temperature at 2 m ( $T_{2m}$ ) at the bottom of Figure 4a2a,  
 326 respectively. The dots with lower  $RH_{2m}$  ( $RH_{2m} < 40\%$ ) are mostly distributed within  
 327 grey shaded elliptic region as shown in Figure 5-6 (a)-(d).

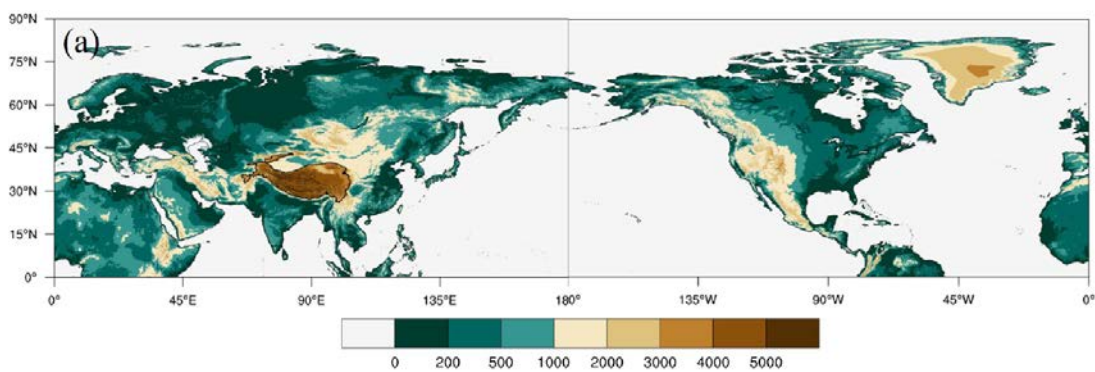
328 ~~Based on the spatial distribution of topography in the northern~~  
 329 ~~hemisphere~~ ~~as shown in Figure 6 (a), it is clear that both the TP and~~  
 330 ~~Rocky Mountains in North America are typical large topography regions. From the~~

331 ~~viewpoint of global effects, the triggering effects of dynamical structure within the~~  
 332 ~~boundary layer on convective clouds in the northern hemisphere~~  
 333 ~~are discussed.~~ Figure 6-7 (d) shows the mean spatial distribution of PBLH – LCL in the  
 334 ~~northern~~Northern hemisphere from June to August of 2010-2019. The TP  
 335 (27-40N, 70-105E) and Rocky Mountains (27-40N, 103-120W) are two typical high  
 336 value regions in the ~~northern~~Northern hemisphere, and the mean PBLH –  
 337 LCL over the TP and Rocky Mountains are 376.7 m and -101.9 m, respectively.

338 Figure 6-7 (b)-(c) show the spatial distribution of ST and BT in the  
 339 ~~northern~~Northern hemisphere from June to August of 2010-2019,  
 340 respectively. The effect of strong thermal turbulence results in obvious positive value  
 341 of PBLH – LCL at high elevation regions under low air density condition in the  
 342 ~~northern~~Northern hemisphere (BT =  $0.008 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-3}$ , PBLH – LCL = 376.7  
 343 m over the TP and BT =  $0.011 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-3}$ , PBLH – LCL = -101.9 m over the Rocky  
 344 Mountains). Figure 6-7 (b) also shows that there are strong STs at these two high  
 345 elevation regions (ST =  $0.087 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-3}$  over the TP and ST =  $0.085 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-3}$  over the Rocky  
 346 Mountains). Both the BT and ST increase significantly at high elevation due to low air  
 347 density compared to those at low elevation. The above results enlighten us on thinking  
 348 about whether the triggering effects of large topography and boundary layer  
 349 turbulence, which reflect the special turbulence characteristics in boundary layer at  
 350 high elevation regions under low air density condition, can be applicable for any large  
 351 topography in the globe, including TP and other regions (e.g. Rocky Mountains).

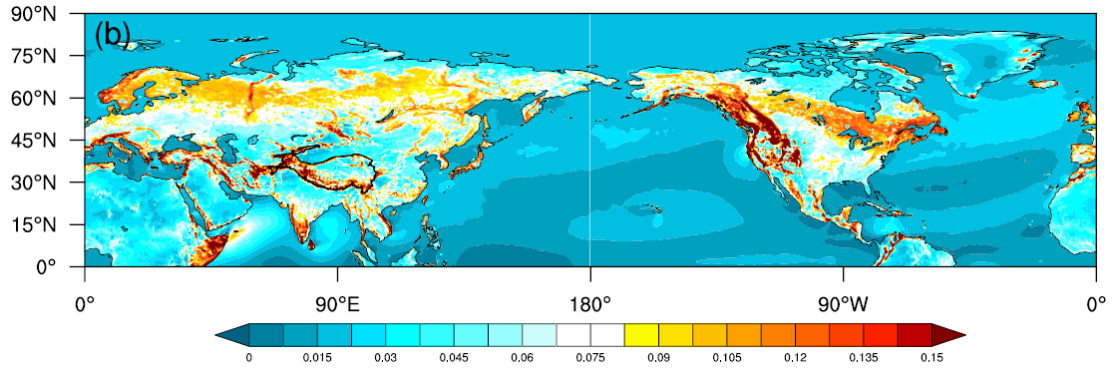
352 Figure 87 shows the conceptual model of atmosphere from the near-surface to  
 353 upper troposphere over the TP. Compared to the low elevation, the TP is characterized  
 354 by higher PBLH and lower LCL because of strong BT and ST, which is favorable for  
 355 the formation of shallow clouds in the afternoon. Meanwhile, the large scale  
 356 ascending motion over the TP results in the transition from shallow clouds to deep  
 357 convective clouds in the late afternoon and evening.

358

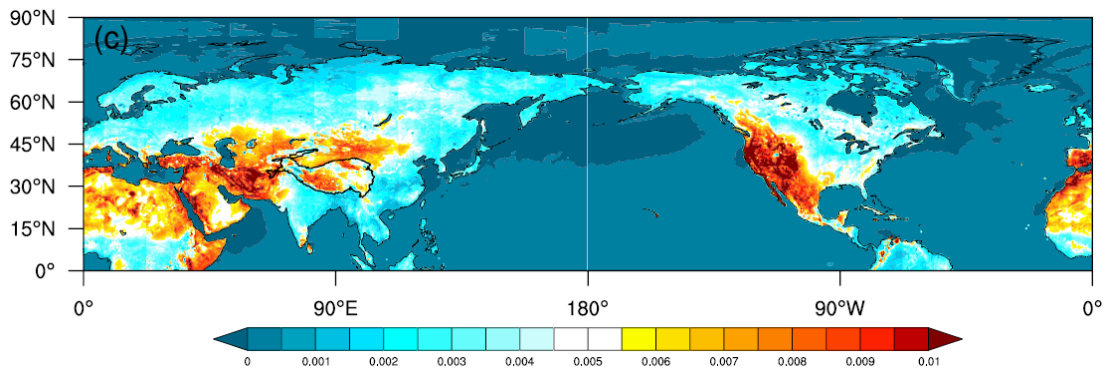


359

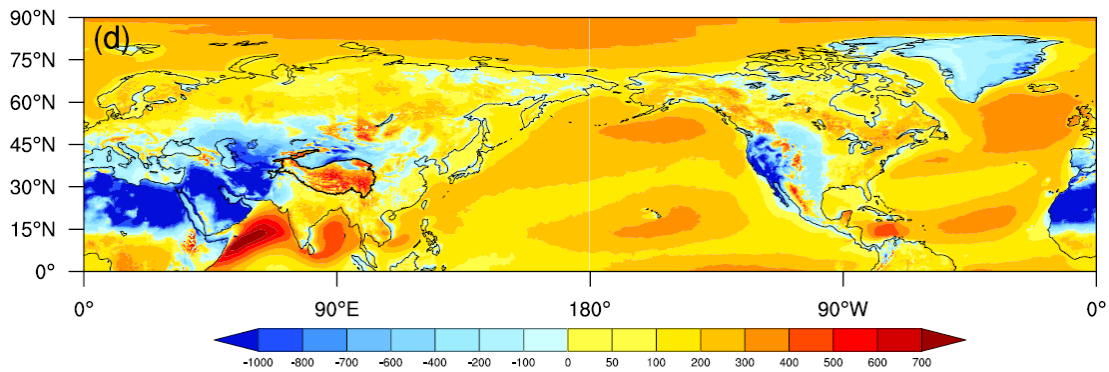




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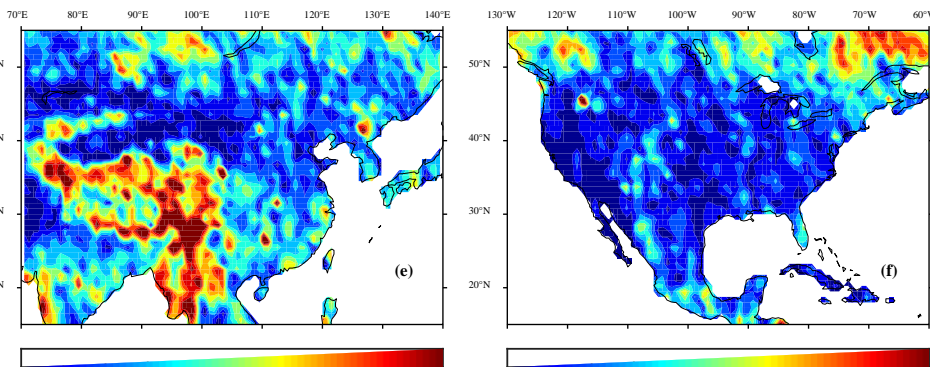


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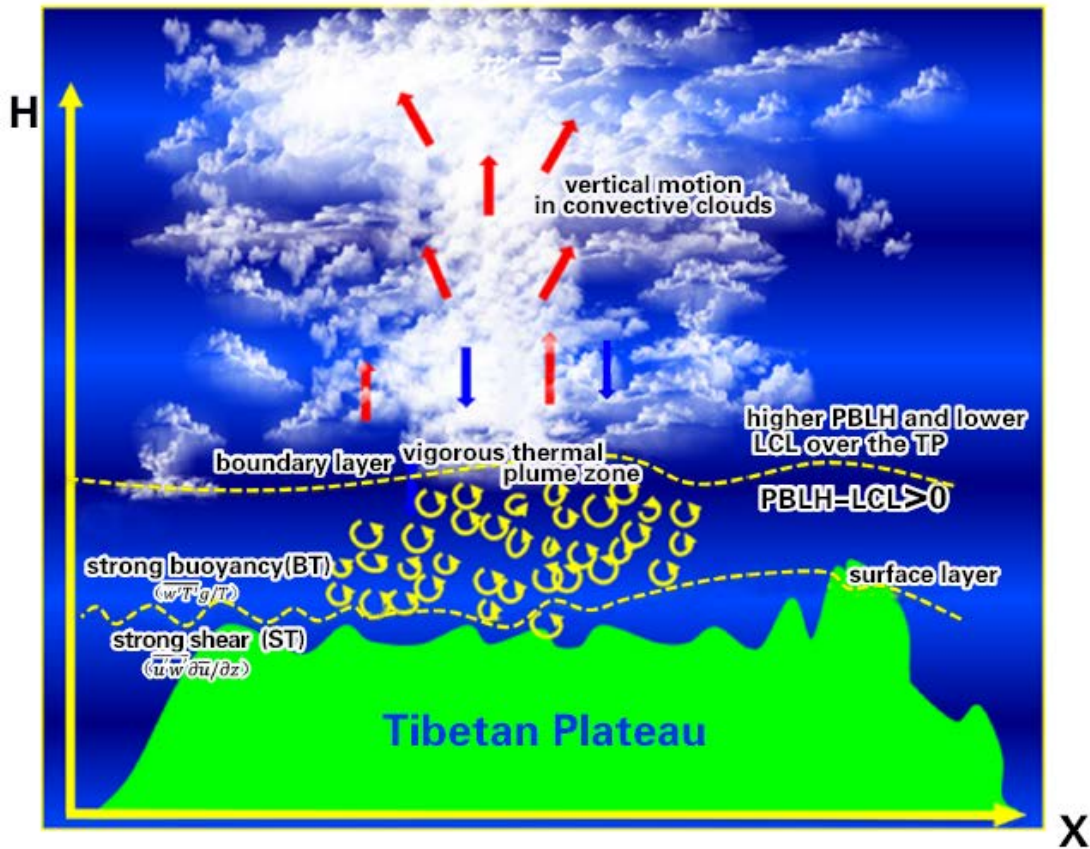
366

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Figure 67. The spatial distribution of (a) [AGL ground level elevation](#), (b) ST, (c) BT, and (d) PBLH-LCL, and (e) LCC derived from [ERA5 reanalysis data](#) [cloudsat satellite data](#) at local time 2:00 pm in the Northern [Hemisphere](#) [Hemisphere](#) in summer.



368 | [Figure \(e\) and \(f\) are the summer mean LCC derived from cloudsat satellite data at](#)  
 369 | [local time 2:00 pm in eastern China and North America, respectively.](#)



370 |  
 371 | Figure 78. The characteristics model of boundary layer turbulence related to “high  
 372 | efficiency” triggering mechanisms for convection over the TP.

#### 373 4 Conclusions and further discussion

374 In this study, we focus on the triggering effects of large topography and  
 375 boundary layer turbulence over the Tibetan Plateau on convection. The topography of  
 376 TP also has a major role in the increasing of occurrences of convective clouds. Our  
 377 results further confirm the conclusions from Wang et al. (2020), which found that  
 378 PBLH-LCL over the TP is greater than that in eastern China. Compared to the eastern  
 379 China, with the same relative humidity, lower temperature over the TP results in a  
 380 lower lifting condensation level. With the same surface sensible heat flux, lower air  
 381 density over the TP results in a larger buoyancy flux and a deeper boundary layer. The  
 382 observational results show that, under low relative humidity condition ( $RH < 40\%$ ),  
 383 | the low cloud cover (LCC) is higher than 60%— over the TP. In contrast, the high  
 384 LCC ( $LCC > 60\%$ ) only appears under conditions with high RH ( $RH > 60\%$ ) at low  
 385 elevation.

386 In general, LCC increases with the increasing elevation. The median of LCCs at  
 387 high elevation (TP) are significantly greater than those at low elevation (eastern China)

388 throughout the day. The diurnal variations of LCC in eastern China are generally  
389 distributed in unimodal pattern with the maximum appearing at 2:00 pm BT and low  
390 values during the night. The diurnal variations of LCC at high elevation (TP) present  
391 a bimodal curve with the maximum appearing at 5:00 pm BT and the secondary local  
392 maximum appearing at 8:00 am BT. In addition, LCC maintains at high values at high  
393 elevation (TP) during the day. The median cloud top height derived from himawari-8  
394 retrieval product shows the transition from shallow clouds to deep convective clouds  
395 in the late afternoon and evening over the TP, which is attributed to the strong  
396 large-scale ascending motion from the near surface to upper troposphere over the TP.

397 The buoyancy term (BT) and shear term (ST) over the TP are significantly greater  
398 than those at the low elevation, which is favorable for the formation of increasing  
399 PBLH. Similar phenomenon occurs at other high elevation area (e.g. Rocky  
400 Mountains). The strong thermal turbulence results in positive value of PBLH-LCL at  
401 high elevation regions under low RH condition in the ~~northern~~Northern  
402 ~~hemisphere~~Hemisphere. The slightly greater than zero PBLH-LCL corresponds  
403 spatially to more LCC in the central part of Rocky Mountains, but obvious large-scale  
404 subsidence on both sides of the mountain leads to strong inversion above PBL and  
405 lower RH in PBL, which further lead to less LCC in these areas. Thus less LCC is  
406 generated at Rocky Mountains compared to the TP.

407

#### 408 **Data availability**

409 All reanalysis data used in this study were obtained from publicly available sources:  
410 ERA5 reanalysis data can be obtained from the ECMWF public datasets web interface  
411 (<http://apps.ecmwf.int/datasets/>). The satellite (CloudSat radar and Calipso  
412 lidar)-merged cloud classification product 2B-CLDCLASS-lidar were obtained from  
413 Colorado State University  
414 (<http://www.cloudsat.cira.colostate.edu/data-products/level-2b/2b-cldclass-lidar>). The  
415 himawari-8 retrieval products were obtained from JAXA Himawari Monitor  
416 (<https://www.eorc.jaxa.jp/ptree/>).

#### 417 **Code Availability**

418 The data in this study are analysed with MATLAB. Contact Y.W. for specific code  
419 requests.

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425 **Author Contributions**

426 X.X. and Y. W. led this work with contributions from all authors. Y.T. and Y. W.  
427 made the calculations and created the figures. X.X, Y.W. and S.Z. led analyses,  
428 interpreted results and wrote the paper.

429 **Competing interests**

430 The authors declare no competing interests.

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