

Reviewer #1

The paper describes the application of a methodology for the assimilation of lightning data into RAMS in 20 case studies characterized by widespread convection and lightning activity. First, the analysis focuses on a case study of intense convection during the HyMeX SOP1 campaign, then statistical indices are derived for all the cases analyzed. Results show a clear improvement due to use of assimilation technique compared to the control run (without assimilation). The paper is well written and appropriate for NHESS, thus I recommend publication after minor revisions.

Line 120: why did you choose 4 km as inner grid spacing? This corresponds to the grey area for convection and it is slightly below actual standards (2-3 km). For future studies, I suggest to test your assimilation technique at higher resolution;

-This point is of great interest because of the important role that the horizontal resolution plays in mesoscale models, including the impact that the horizontal resolution has on the resolved vs not resolved, i.e. convective, precipitation. The reason for choosing 4 km horizontal resolution is motivated by operational reasons. The methodology of this paper is implemented in a real-time weather forecasting system at ISAC-CNR and we study the performance of this specific system. A finer horizontal resolution cannot be implemented operationally with the current computing power.

Nevertheless, the impact of the horizontal resolution is notable. To better quantify this point we increased the horizontal resolution from 4 km (the resolution of the paper) to 2.5 km for the 15 October 2012 and 27 October case studies.

Figures 1 and 2 show the precipitation of the simulations F3HA6 (the assimilation scheme was tuned for the new resolution as stated in the paper) for the 27 October case study. The impact of the resolution is notable because the precipitation patterns, especially at high thresholds (>50 mm/day), are less spread in the 2.5 km horizontal resolution experiment. This behavior is apparent all along the Apennines, but it is especially important in NE Italy, where the precipitation area for thresholds larger than 90 mm is reduced in the 2.5 km horizontal resolution forecast compared to 4 km. The impact could be beneficial for the scores of the F3HA6 because it has the tendency to overestimate the precipitation, especially at high thresholds. A similar behavior was found for the CNTRL forecast of the 27 October (not shown).

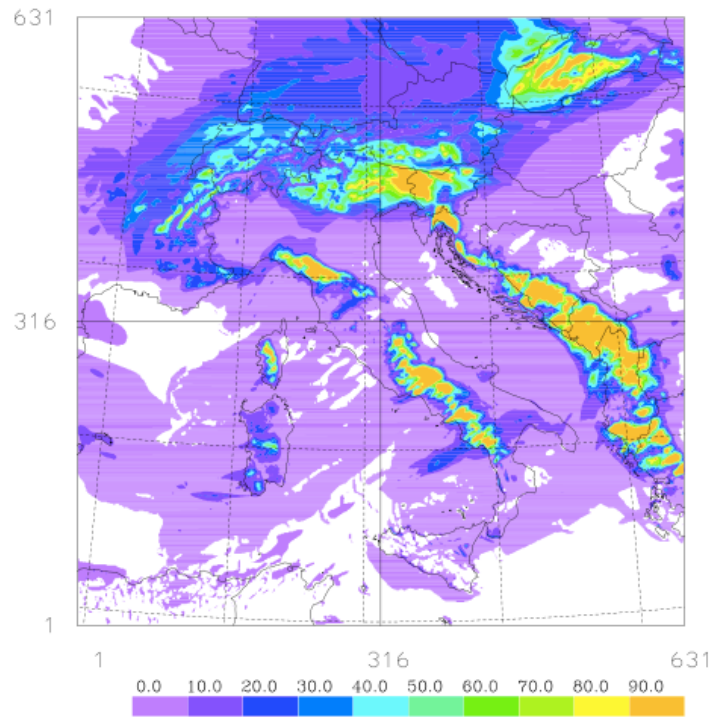


Figure 1: Precipitation [mm] accumulated for the 27 October 2015 for the simulation F3HA6 at 2.5 km horizontal resolution.

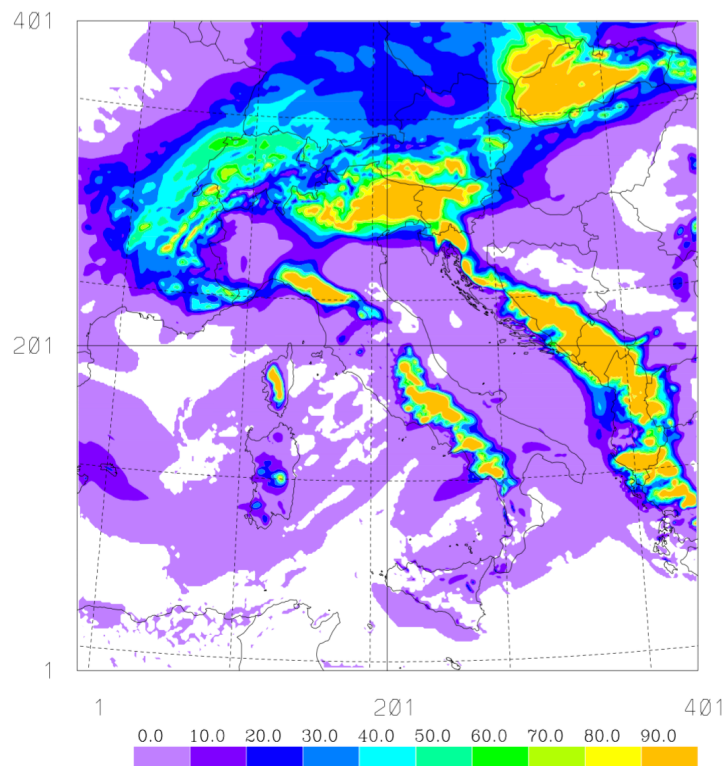


Figure 2: Precipitation [mm] accumulated for the 27 October 2015 for the simulation F3HA6 at 4 km horizontal resolution (as in the paper, Figure 5b).

For the 15 October case, the Figures 3 and 4 show the results of the CNTRL forecast, i.e. without lightning assimilation.

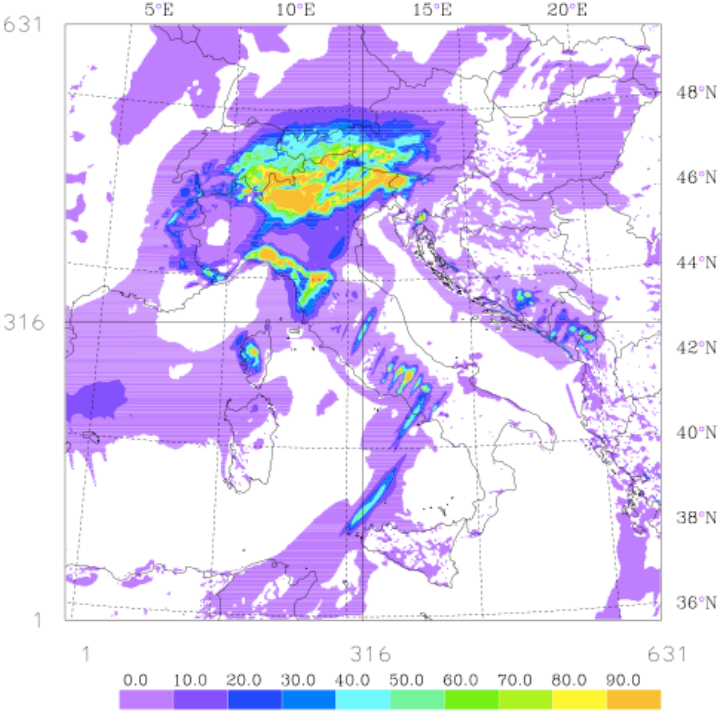


Figure 3: Precipitation [mm] accumulated for the 27 October 2015 for the simulation CNTRL at 2.5 km horizontal resolution.

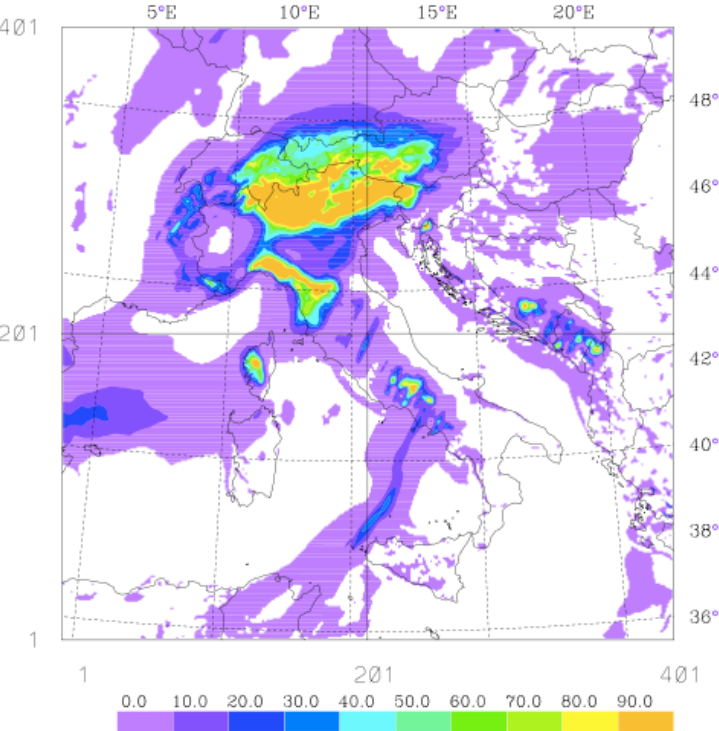


Figure 4: Precipitation [mm] accumulated for the 15 October 2015 for the simulation CNTRL at 4km horizontal resolution.

Also for this case study, it is apparent the less spread of the precipitation for the larger threshold (>50 mm/day) both over NE of Italy and over the Apennines for the 2.5 km horizontal resolution, caused by the more realistic representation of the interaction between air masses and local orography. A similar behavior was found comparing F3HA6 forecast at 4 km and 2.5 km horizontal resolutions for the 15 October case study (not shown).

Considering the number of stations where the forecast is improved by the lightning data assimilation we noted again an important improvement at 2.5 km horizontal resolution. Nevertheless, the number of stations where the forecast is improved by the lightning data assimilation decreases in the 2.5 km horizontal resolution compared to 4 km horizontal resolution. This is mainly caused by an improvement of the CNTRL forecast at 2.5 km compared to that at 4 km. Also, the number of false alarms are reduced at finer horizontal resolution.

It is finally noted that the above results, while interesting, are preliminary and will be further investigated in future studies.

A discussion about this point will be included at the end of section “4. Discussion and conclusions”, summarizing the above considerations.

We will write: “Finally, horizontal resolutions higher than that of this paper are needed to better resolve the orography and its interaction with air masses. To quantify this point preliminary, we increased the horizontal resolution of the second domain from 4 km to 2.5 km for the 15 October and 27 October case studies. Results for the two cases show that the impact of the horizontal resolution is notable because the precipitation patterns, especially for larger thresholds (>50 mm/day), are less spread at 2.5 km horizontal resolution compared to 4 km forecast (see the discussion of this paper for the daily precipitation maps for the two cases, Federico et al., 2016). This impact could be beneficial for the scores of the F3HA6 forecast because it has the tendency to overestimate the precipitation area at high thresholds, as shown in this paper. However, these results are preliminary, and future studies are needed to quantify the important impact of the horizontal resolution on the lightning data assimilation forecast.”

Also, at the end of section 2.1 we will write: “Before concluding this section it is important to note that 4 km horizontal resolution of the finer grid corresponds to the grey area for convection and it is slightly below actual standards (2-3 km). This resolution was motivated by operational purposes: the methodology of this

paper is implemented in a real-time weather forecasting system at ISAC-CNR and we study the performance of this specific system. Preliminary results of the impact of the horizontal resolution on the lightning assimilation are discussed in Section 4.”

Line 181: I understand you increased the water content only in the charged zone (0°C - -25°C): is there a relaxation region above and below this area, or did you just change the values only in that zone? In the latter case, did you notice whether the discontinuity in water vapour generated a perturbation affecting the lower and upper regions?

-We change the water vapour in the charging zone between 0°C and -25°C , without relaxing zone. The water vapour, however, is redistributed by the model advection/diffusion and is changed also outside the charging zone.

Figure 5 shows the difference between the water vapour mixing ratio at 760 m above the ground level in the terrain following coordinate system of RAMS for the 22 UTC of 15 October 2012.

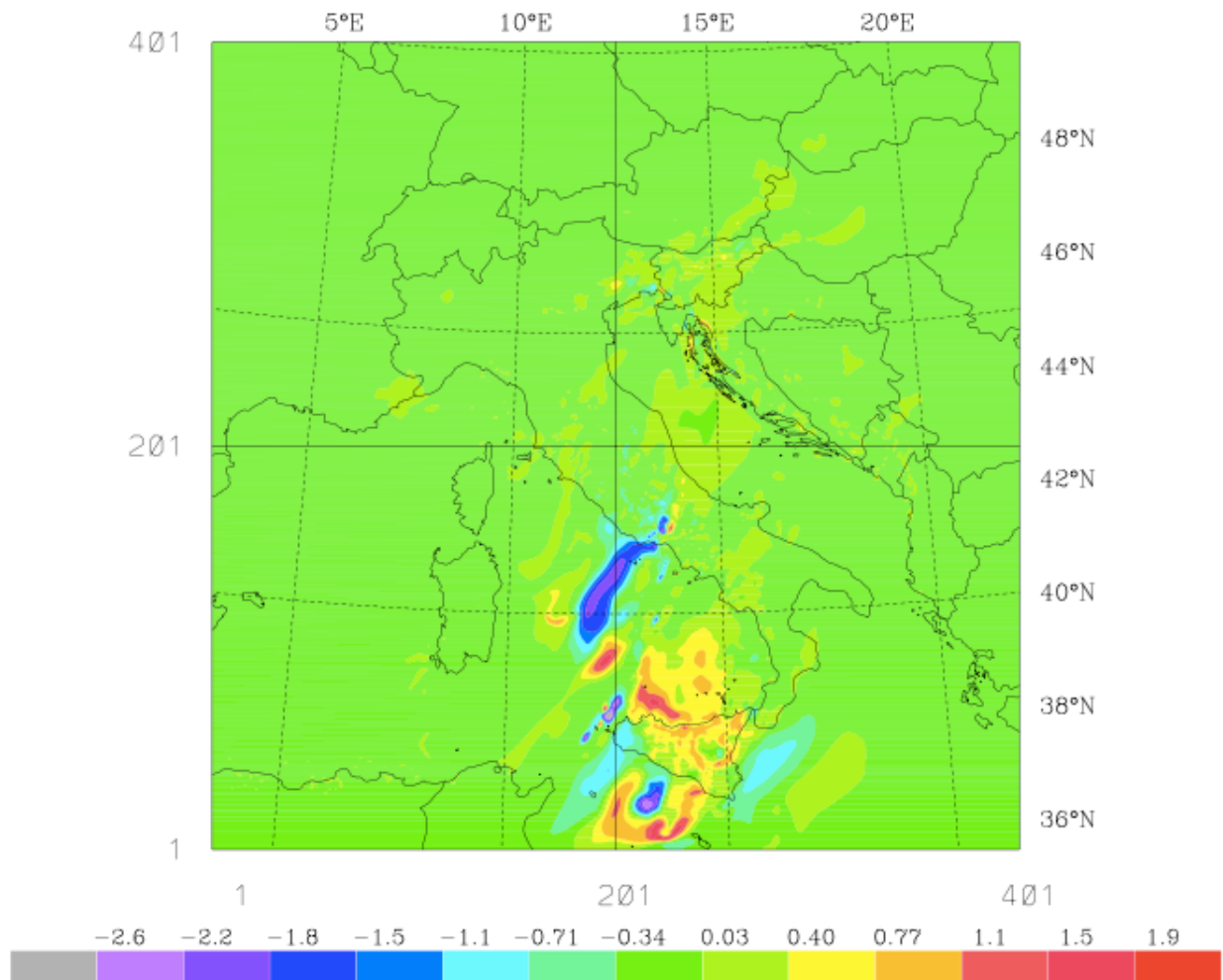


Figure 5: Difference [g/kg] of the water vapor at 760 m in the terrain-following coordinate system of RAMS of the F3HA6 and CNTRL simulations at 22 UTC on 15 October 2012.

Differences are well evident over the Tyrrhenian Sea. Over the sea, the 760 m level is well below the charging zone (0; -25°C ; roughly between 3000 and 6500 m a.s.l. for the time shown in Figure 5), showing the impact of the lightning data assimilation on the water vapour distribution outside the charging zone.

During the hour preceding the time of Figure 5, 3315 were observed by LINET (Figure 6). Most of them are over Sicily showing the direct effect of lightning in the redistribution of the water vapour. Also, the differences over the Tyrrhenian Sea North of 40°N are mainly caused by the differences in the storm evolutions of the two simulations.

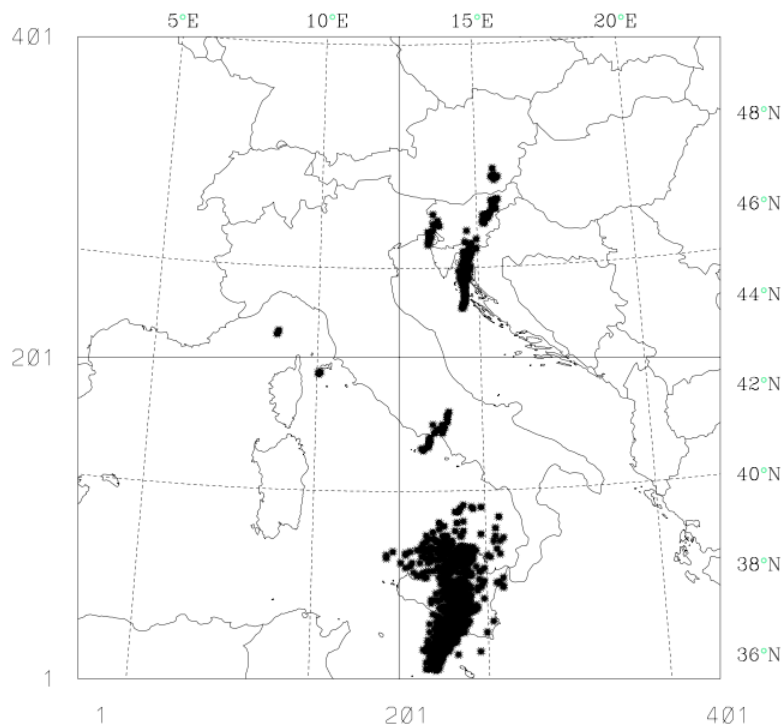


Figure 6: Flashes observed between 21 and 22 UTC on 15 October 2012.

We will add a sentence about this point in the Section “2.2 *Lightning data and assimilation procedure*”.

We will write: “It is noted that we change the water vapour in the charging zone between 0°C and -25°C, without a relaxing zone. The water vapour, however, is redistributed by the model advection, diffusion and diabatic processes, and it is changed also outside the charging zone (see the discussion of this paper; Federico et al. 2016).”

Line 213: please write explicitly that the “previous R4 forecast” belongs to the F3HA6 set of simulations;

-Done. We will write: “The second F3HA6 simulation starts at 21 UTC of the day before the actual day using as initial conditions the previous R4 forecast, belonging to F3HA6 set of simulations, and as BC the R10 forecast.”

Lines 216-217: please change into “Please note the switch of the initial conditions ...”;

-This sentence will be changed.

Lines 266-281: I suggest to remove this part from here and put in a specific

Appendix, possibly explaining the resampling technique more in detail;

- We will move this specific part of the paper to the Appendix A and we will extend the discussion on the statistical test in this Appendix. Here is the new Appendix A:

“Appendix A

We use the resampling method introduced by Hamill (1999) for the comparison of the scores of CNTRL and F3HA6 forecasts (see also Accadia et al. (2003) and Federico et al. (2003)).

The null hypothesis is that the difference of the scores of the two competing models, CNTRL and F3HA6, is zero:

$$H_0: S_1 - S_2 = 0 \quad (A1)$$

Where S is the generic score (Bias, ETS, POD and FAR), 1 is the CNTRL forecast and 2 is the F3HA6 forecast. The scores are computed from the sum of the contingency tables of the CNTRL and F3HA6 forecasts to minimize the sensitivity of the test to small changes of the contingency table elements.

In this paper the number of contingency tables available is 8 multiplied the number of days, i.e. $n=20*8=160$ for the 3h precipitation forecast, and $n=20$ for the daily precipitation forecast. Indicating the contingency tables by the vector x :

$$x_{ij} = (a, b, c, d)_{ij} \quad (A2)$$

where i is the competing model ($i=1$ for CNTRL, $i=2$ for F3HA6) and j is the contingency table ($j=1, \dots, 180$ for 3h forecast, and $j=1, \dots, 20$ for daily precipitation), the scores are computed from the sum of the contingency tables:

$$S_i = f\left(\sum_{j=1}^n x_{i,j}\right) \quad (A3)$$

and the test statistic is given by the difference between S_1 and S_2 .

The bootstrap method is applied by resampling the contingency tables in a consistent way. For this purpose, a random number I_j is generated, which can assume the values 1 or 2. If I_j is 1 the contingency table of CNTRL is selected, if $I_j = 2$ the F3HA6 table is selected. The process is repeated for each contingency table ($j=1, \dots, 180$ for 3h forecast, and $j=1, \dots, 20$ for daily precipitation) and the scores S_1^* and S_2^* are computed:

$$S_1^* = f\left(\sum_{j=1}^n x_{I_j,j}\right); \quad S_2^* = f\left(\sum_{j=1}^n x_{3-I_j,j}\right) \quad (A4)$$

So, the two j -th contingency tables are swapped if $I_j=2$, while the swapping is not

performed for $I_j=1$.

This random sampling is performed a large number of times (10.000 in this paper). Each time the scores are computed from the sum of the elements of the resampled contingency tables, Eqn. (A4), to make the null distribution ($S_1^*-S_2^*$) of the difference between the scores of the competing forecasts.

Then we compute the t_L and t_U that represent the $\alpha/2$ and $(1-\alpha)/2$ percentile of the null distribution ($S_1^*-S_2^*$). The null hypothesis that the score difference between the two competing forecasts is zero is rejected at the level 90 % ($\alpha =0.1$) or 95% ($\alpha =0.05$) if:

$$(S_1 - S_2) < t_L \quad \text{or} \quad (S_1 - S_2) > t_U \quad (\text{A5})$$

where S_1 and S_2 are the generic scores of the actual distributions (not resampled)."

Line 306: please change into "From Fig. 3a, convection is apparent over the Tyrrhenian Sea and is enhanced over land because of . . .";

-Ok.

Lines 319: "for the largest threshold": do you mean "above 90 mm/day"?

-We will change the sentence to be more clear: "However, the precipitation is overestimated by both CNTRL and F3HA6, especially above 30 mm/day."

Line 355: delete "a" or change "spells" in singular;

-ok.

Line 385: in how many stations was the precipitation "subtracted where it did not occur"?

- In the revised version of the paper, this will be quantified by counting the number of stations where the precipitation is lowered by at least 1 mm/3h (110 stations), 5 mm/3h (20 stations), and 10 mm/3h (7 stations) between the 03 and 06 UTC of 27 October, when the lightning data assimilation is used. We will write: " For example, between 03 and 06 UTC there are 110 stations where the precipitation is reduced by more than 1 mm/3h, 20 stations where it is reduced by more than 5 mm/3h and 7 stations for which the precipitation is reduced by more than 10 mm/3h."

Line 399: ". . . increases with the threshold from . . ."; Figure 7: since the lower

threshold you consider is 1 mm/day, I believe showing also 0 mm in the x-axis is not proper;

- The reviewer is referring to Figures 8 and 9 of the revised version of the paper. We will redraw these figures (8 and 9) according to this comment.

Lines 436-441: the assimilation increases the rainfall amount, thus the hit rate and POD are better, but there is a general overestimation (thus, the bias is higher and there is an increase of false alarms). Anyway, I agree with you that, even with these limitations, the result is overall helpful for operational purposes. I suggest you should speculate more on this point;

-Thank you for suggesting this point. We will write: “The inspection of the contingency tables shows that the improvement of the FAR for those thresholds is attained by a larger number of hits but there is also an increase of the false alarms. In general, the lightning assimilation increases the precipitation, which is already overestimated for the larger thresholds by CNTRL. So, the POD and the hit rate are increased by lightning data assimilation, but also the false alarms, which were already reported in CNTRL, especially for larger thresholds. Anyway, we believe that the result is overall helpful for operational purposes.”

Lines 442-462: the description of Fig. 8 is too long: you can reduce this part referring to the similarities with Fig. 7;

-The discussion of Figure 8 (Figure 9 in the revised paper) will be shortened.

Line 475 and elsewhere: convection without “the”;

-This will be corrected.

Lines 474-479: are the results for the other cases similar to those for October 27?

-The impact of the lightning data assimilation on convection over the sea is significant and has an important role in most cases. For example, a similar behaviour to the 27 October was found for the 15 October and 12 October case studies with impacts on the Tuscany and Lazio regions, i.e. the central Western coast of the Italian peninsula. Other cases are evident in the Western coast of Southern Italy (for example the 31 October 2012 but also others). There are occasions, however, where convection over the Sea is less important. For example, the 12 September was characterized by a severe storm over Friuli Venezia Giulia (Manzato et al., 2014). For this case study, the difference between the precipitation of the CNTRL forecast and that of F3HA6 (i.e. the lightning assimilation forecast), in this order, is shown below:

NOASSIM-FCST_6H

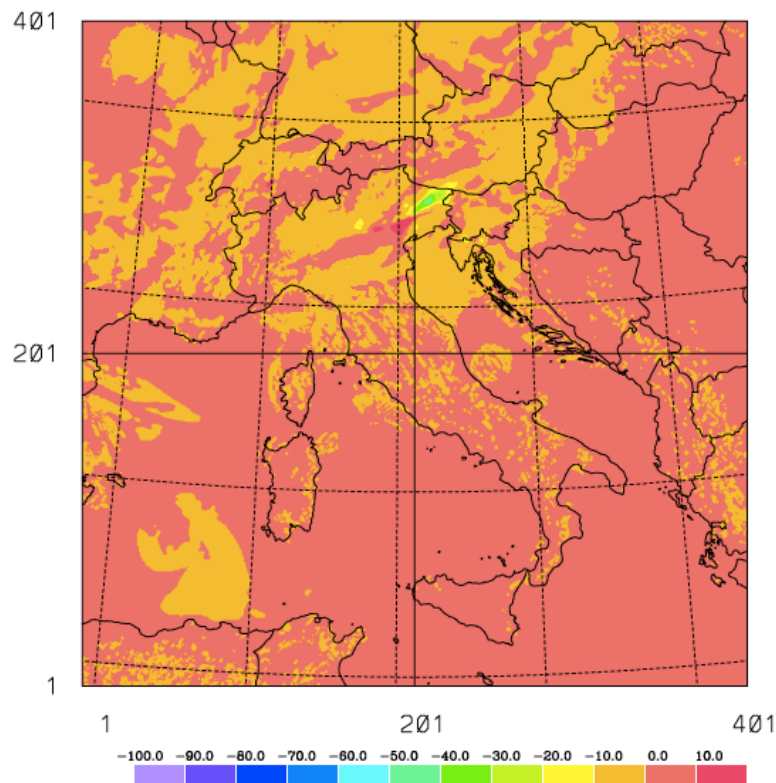


Figure 7: Difference of daily precipitation [mm] between CNTRL and F3HA6 for the 12 September case study.

In this case, the difference is confined over the land (NE of Italy), and the role of convection over the sea is less important, at least as the initiation mechanism for convection over land. However, air masses advected from the Adriatic Sea toward the storm centre play an important role in feeding the storm with latent heat. We will add a comment about this point in Section “4 Discussion and conclusions”.

We will write: “The advection of convection from the sea to the land was important in most case studies considered in this paper, and we can conclude that it plays a fundamental role. There are cases, however, when it is less important, as for the severe and localized storm that occurred in NE Italy on 12 September 2012 (Manzato et al., 2014). For this case, the storm developed and evolved over land, and the difference between the precipitation fields of the CNTRL and F3HA6 is confined inland, over NE Italy, and it is larger than 40 mm (see the discussion of this paper for the map of the precipitation difference between CNTL and F3HA6; Federico et al., 2016).”

Line 511: “. . . improvement in some statistical scores, . . .”;

-Ok.

Line 519: please rephrase into “. . . the performance of the precipitation forecast is clearly dependent on the type of event . . .”;

-This sentence will be rephrased.

Figure 3: apparently, the maximum threshold of 90 mm is too small, thus the peak in simulated rainfall cannot be clearly estimated; please, could you add the information about the maximum precipitation simulated by the model at least in the text?

-The Figure 3 is Figure 4 in the revised paper. We will add this information in the Figure 4 caption (the maximum value is 320 mm in Southern Italy; over NE Italy the maximum simulated value is 132 mm). Also, we will add the largest value observed in the text, when commenting Figure 4b. We will write: "The largest precipitation recorded in NE Italy is 141 mm (13.54E, 45.85N), while more than 200 mm are reported in two stations in Southern Italy (15.84E, 40.31N; 207 mm) and (15.98E, 40.16N; 220 mm).".

References (added to the paper):

Manzato, A., S. Davolio, M. M. Miglietta, A. Pucillo, and M. Setvák, 2014: 12 September 2012: A supercell outbreak in NE Italy?. *Atmos. Res.*, 153, 98-118.

Federico, S., Petracca, M., Panegrossi, G., and Dietrich, 2016: Improvement of RAMS precipitation forecast at the short-range through lightning data assimilation. *Nat. Hazards Earth Syst. Sci. Discuss.*, doi:10.5194/nhess-2016-291.