



(Low)* Cloud feedbacks

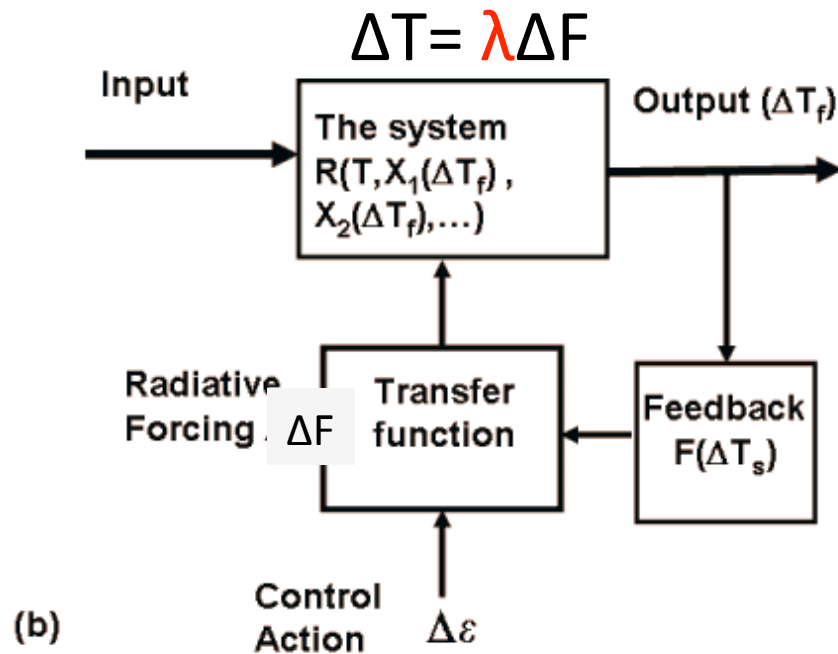
Graeme Stephens

- Perspective from observations - that a necessary test of feedbacks (in models) is that the key processes be realistic
- ΔT_s centric low cloud radiative feedbacks – key process I will highlight is the cloud (and precipitation) - radiation process
- ΔP centric high cloud radiative feedbacks – radiative heating of the atmosphere by high cloud serves to regulate convection and acts as a control on precipitation
- Toward a blue print for studying feedbacks

* Whimpy clouds



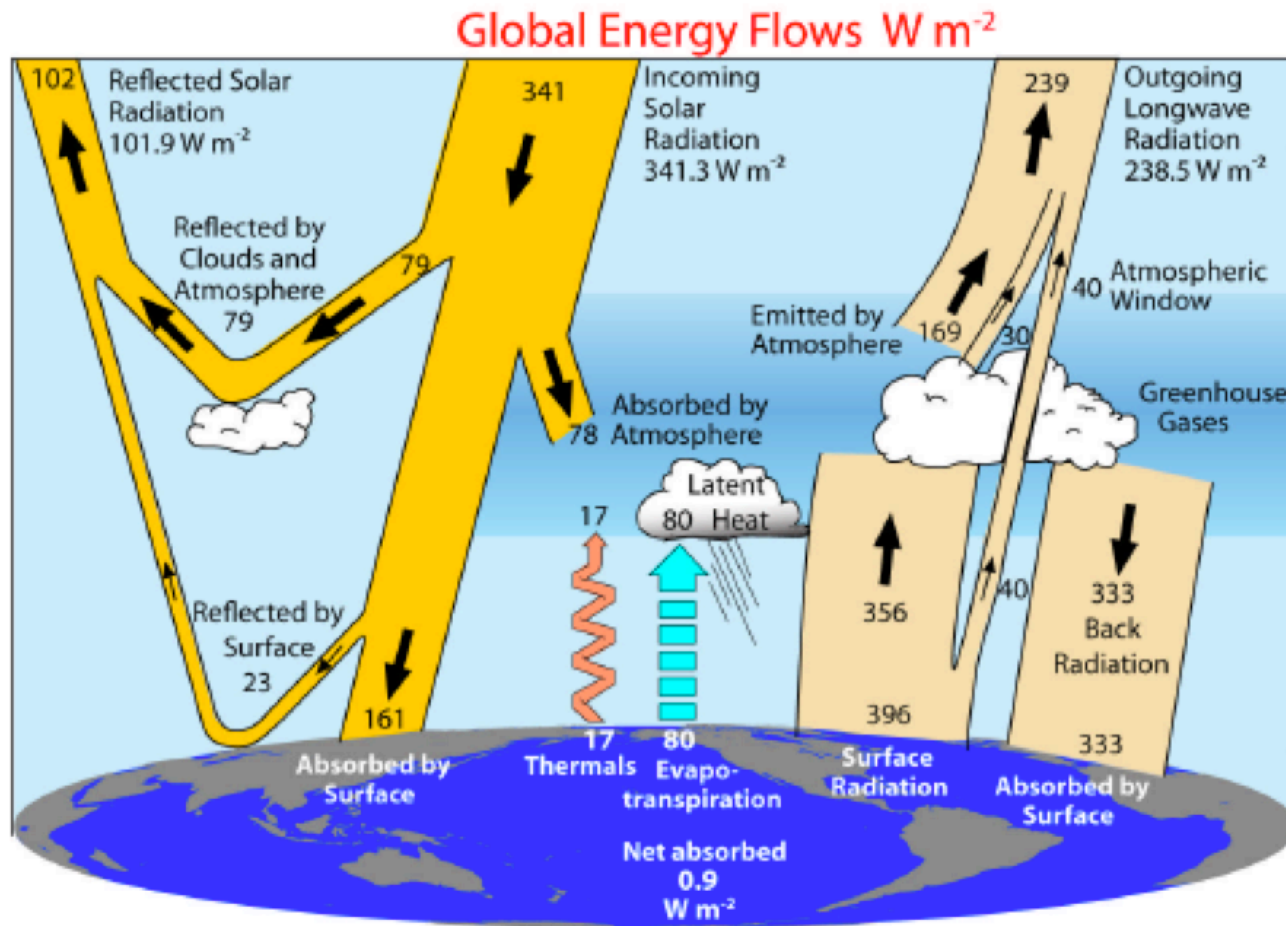
A global system with global feedbacks



There are many issues to ponder:

- What is the real 'system' - most simple feedbacks (e.g. iris, thermostat) are postulated in terms of very simple systems, the validity to real Earth never justified.
- Why should physical feedback mechanisms be controlled by global mean temperature?
- How might we define the system for a different output like ΔP , and does this imply the existence of other (radiative) feedbacks?

The planet's energy balance



Cloud radiative effects

-20 W/m^2

+8 W/m^2

A-Train
cloud-profile
resolved data

Trenberth et al., 2009



Cloud Radiative Effects (CREs)

$$\begin{aligned} F_{observed} &= F_{clear} (1 - A_{cld}) + A_{cld} F_{cldy} \\ &= F_{clear} + A_{cld} (F_{cldy} - F_{clear}) \end{aligned}$$

$$C_{SW,LW} = -(F_{observed} - F_{clear}) \sim -A_{cld} (F_{cldy} - F_{clear})$$

Cloud radiative effects and feedbacks involving changes to CRE are influenced by changes in:

1) cloud amount A_{cld}

and/or

2) cloudy sky radiative fluxes F_{cldy}

Cloud radiative effects

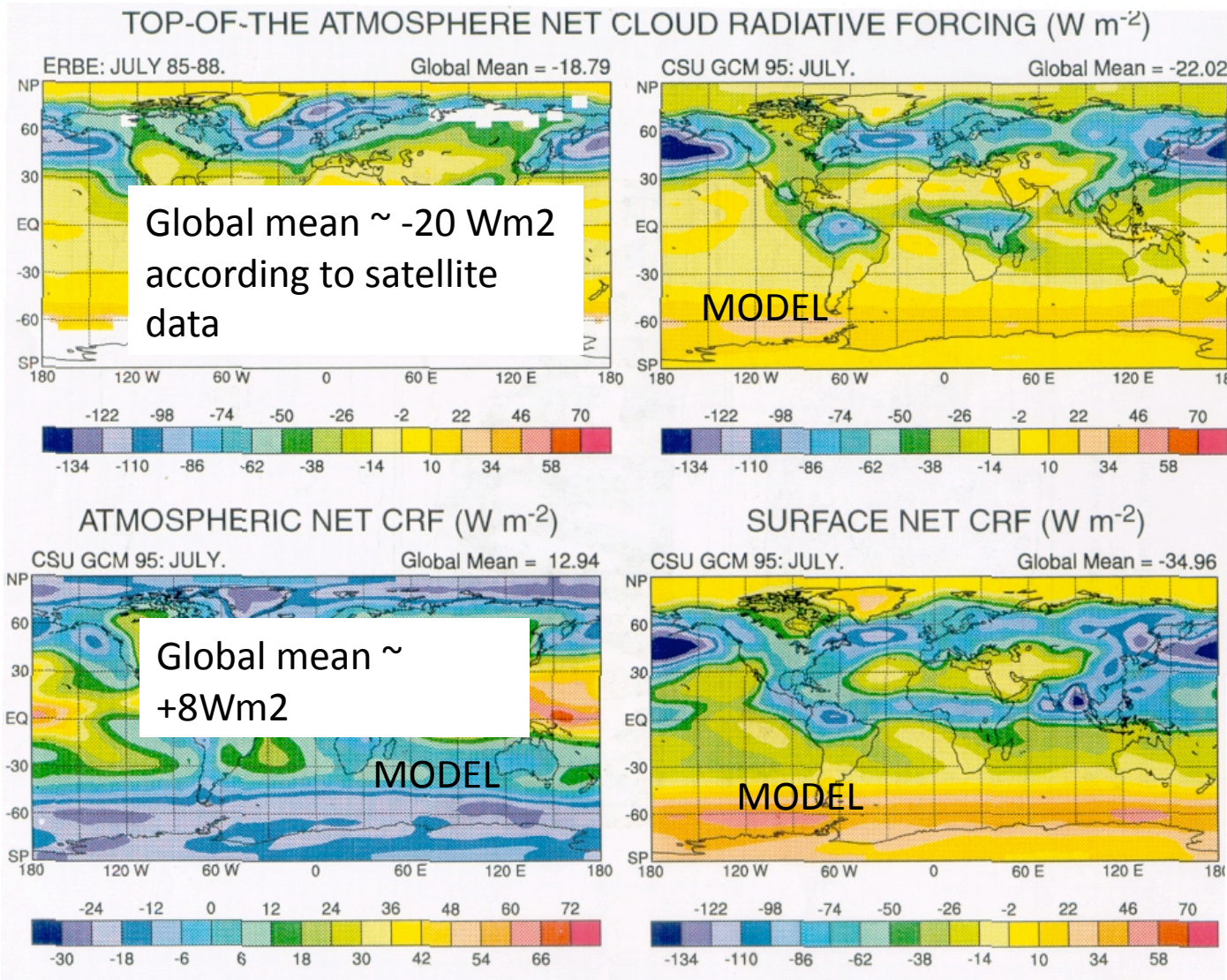
$$CTOA = CATM + CSURF$$

CTOA is formed as a reciprocal of $CATM$ and $CSURF$ (at least in low latitudes).

Solar effects dominate at surface

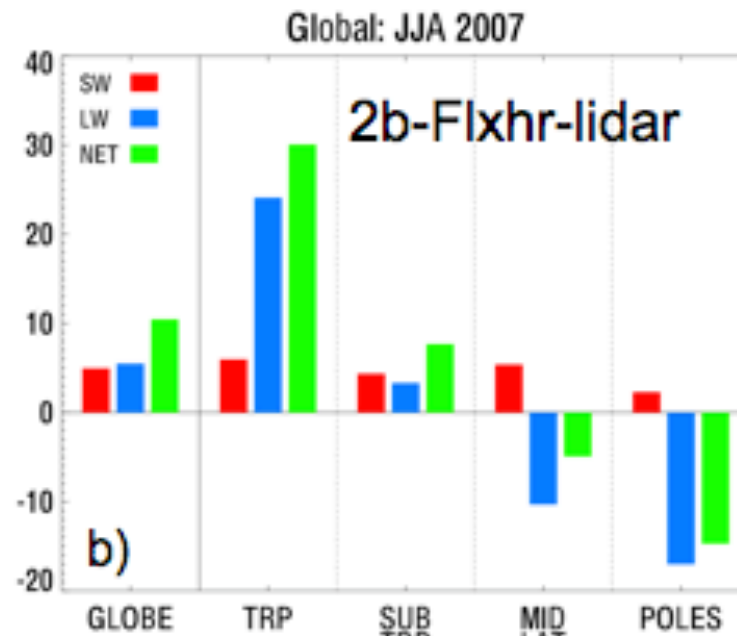
LW effects mostly in the atmosphere

clouds partition their effects between the atmosphere and surface



Atmospheric CREs

A-train observations now provide the means to determine/confirm the atmospheric CRE (>0)



Stephens et al. 2008

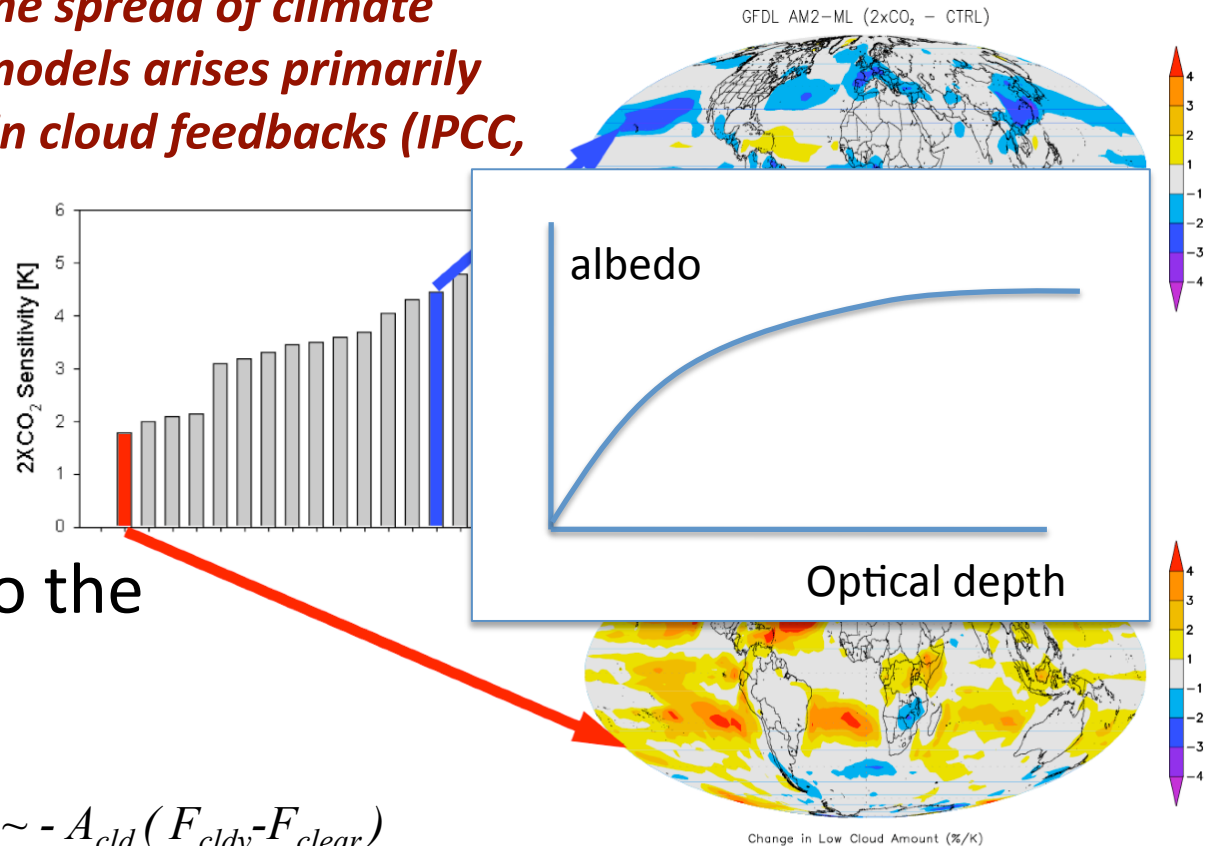
In contrast to TOA effects, globally clouds radiatively heat the atmospheric column and this heating is dominated by high clouds in the tropics – and this heating in turn is an important ingredient to other key cloud-radiative feedbacks



Low cloud feedbacks

Low cloud radiative feedbacks

Recent studies reaffirm that the spread of climate sensitivity estimates among models arises primarily from inter-model differences in cloud feedbacks (IPCC, 2007).



There are two parts to the low cloud feedback:

$$CRE_{SW,LW} = -(F_{observed} - F_{clear}) \sim -A_{cld} (F_{cldy} - F_{clear})$$

$$\frac{\Delta CRE}{\Delta T_s} \sim - \frac{\Delta A_c}{\Delta T_s} F_{cldy} - A_c \frac{\Delta F_{cldy}}{\Delta T_s} \approx 0$$

This is the cloud optical depth feedback factor

Thermodynamic? (EIS, Bretherton, Clement..)





Cloud radiative effects and low cloud feedbacks

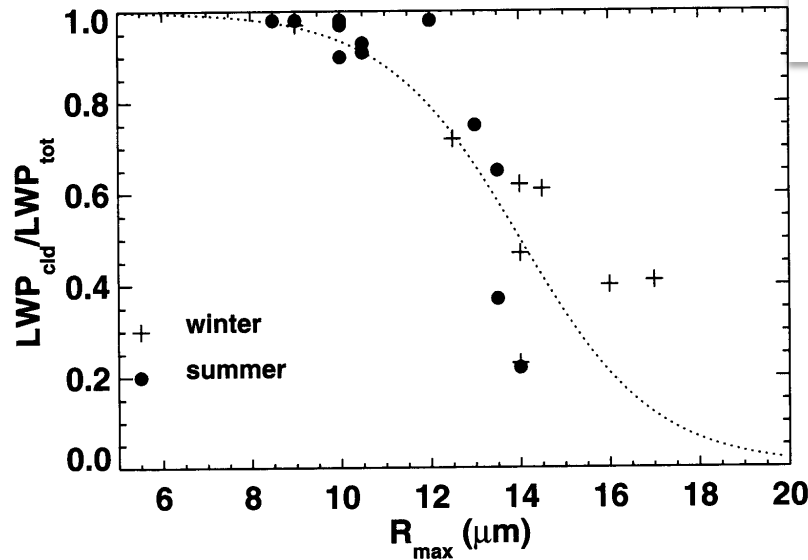
Solar fluxes (ie cloud albedo) are governed by cloud optical depth (and other factors) - Low cloud (radiative) feedbacks have been hypothesized as occurring via changes in A_{cld} , LWP and r_e

Stephens (1978) introduced

$$\tau = C_2 \frac{LWP}{r_e}$$

So two factors govern the low cloud optical depth feedback

Another complication - drizzle



$$\tau = C_2 \frac{LWP}{r_e}$$

Boers and Rotstayn propose

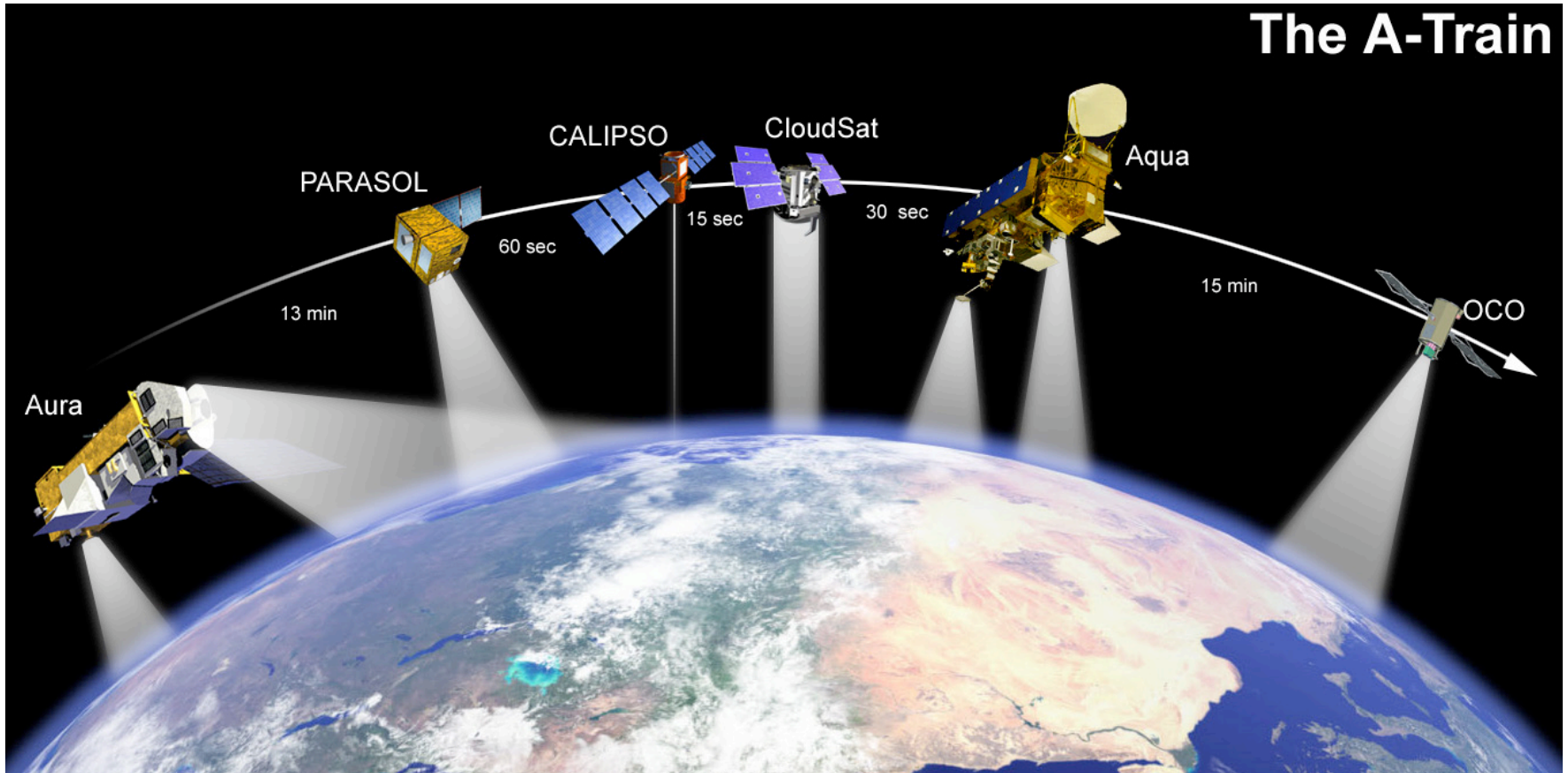
$$LWP_{cld} = LWP_{drizzle_cld} f(R_{max})$$

and an empirical relation

$$f(R_{max}) = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ 1 - \tanh \left(\frac{R_{max} - R_{crit}}{R_{rel}} \right) \right\}$$

But what about the radiative effects of drizzle itself?

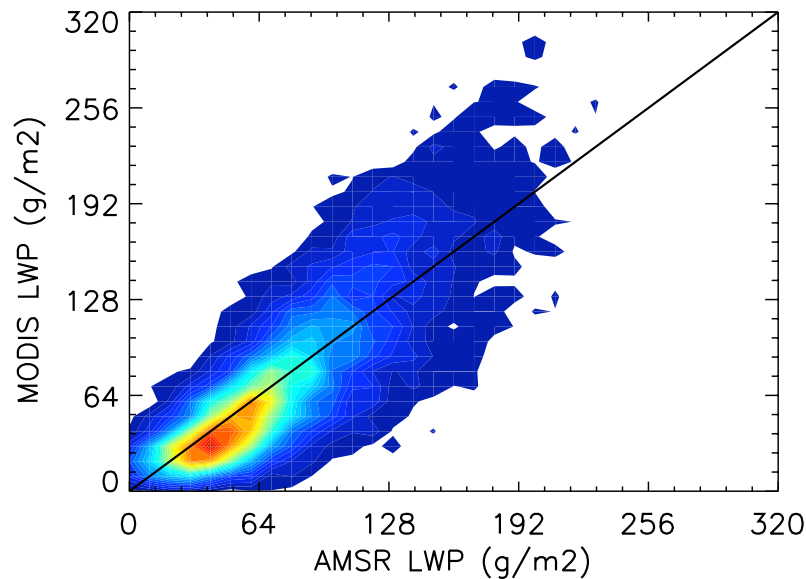
What do Earth observations tell us?



Focus on just two properties: LWP and r_e
This material is being documented in a paper that is in preparation

In-cloud LWP statistics of low clouds

Non raining clouds



Using combined MODIS and CloudSat observations, we can separate the properties for:

- All clouds (raining, non raining_) TWP
- Clouds only (non-raining, no drizzle) – CLWP
- Drizzle ($Z > -15$ dBZ)
- Raining ($Z > -7.5$ dBZ)

For the sampling applied, LWP derived from two different approaches methods agree over the range 20 - 200 g/m² - ie I suggest we know the LWP of low clouds (and furthermore I suggest the 'reference' be MODIS)



	Observations 2007	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Global	129	224		183
Oceans	77	161	194	150
Tropics (35N/S)	130	271	170.	230
	87	196		185
SH (35S-60S)	122	144		95
	79	98	240	86
NH (35N-60N)	130	204		96
	80	132	202	87

Total hydrometeor water path (TWP) in g/m²

Cloud liquid water path (CLWP) in g/m²

*** Range of CLWP AR4 53-434 g/m² with ensemble mean of 200 g/m²**

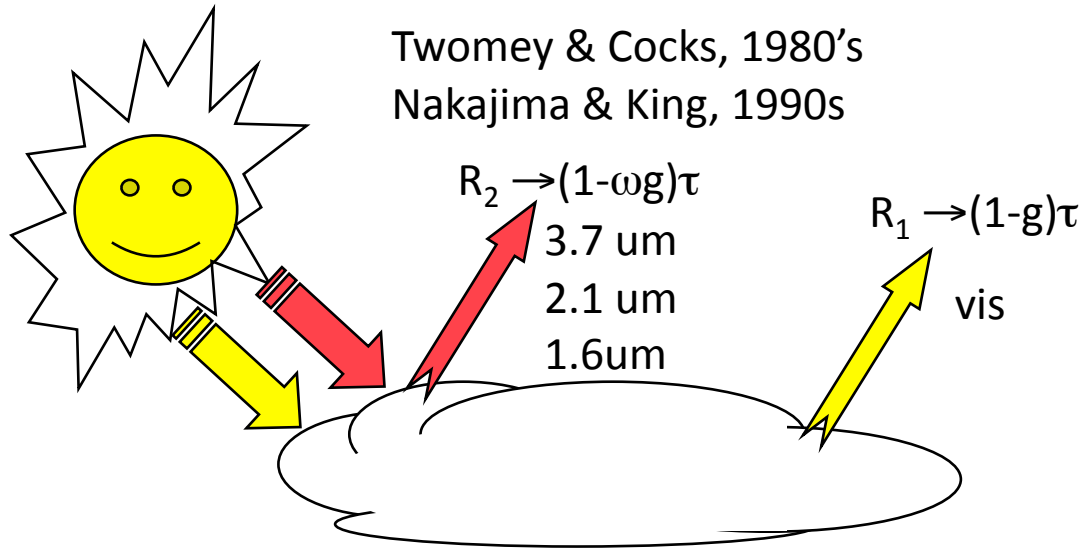
Model 1= ECMWF IFS

Model 2=CAM (AR4) – rain has no water content

Model 3=NICAM (@7km)

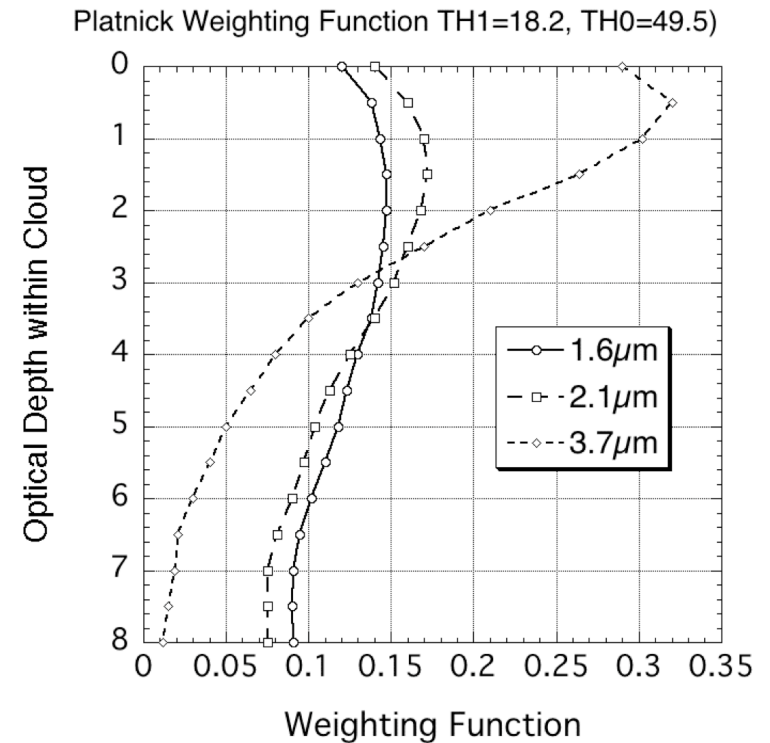


What about particle size?



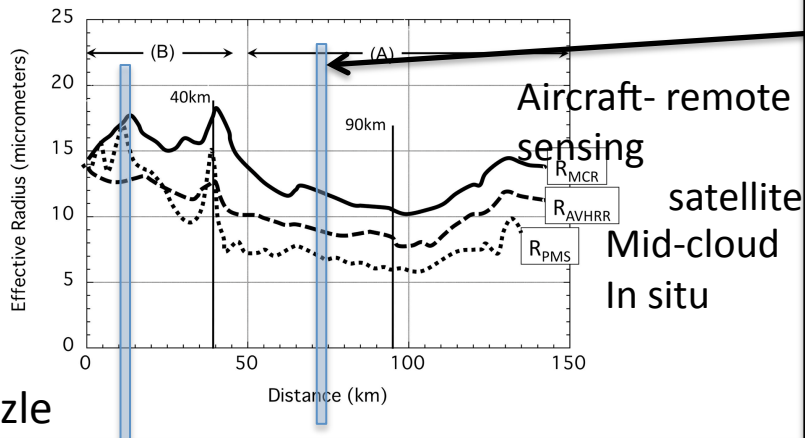
Twomey & Cocks, 1980's
Nakajima & King, 1990s

Measurements of reflection at two wavelengths (or spectral bands) returns the pair of parameters τ and r_e and LWP

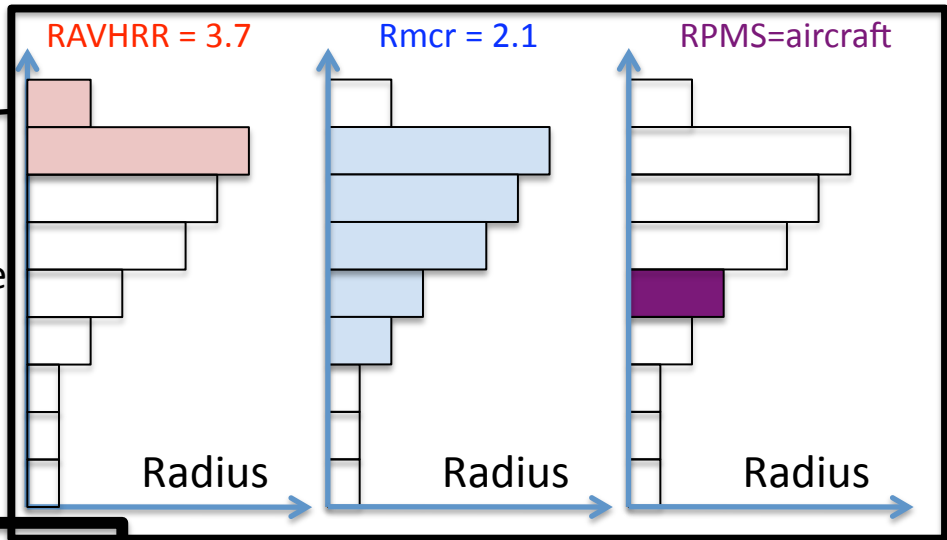


What about particle size - resolving a 20+ year conundrum

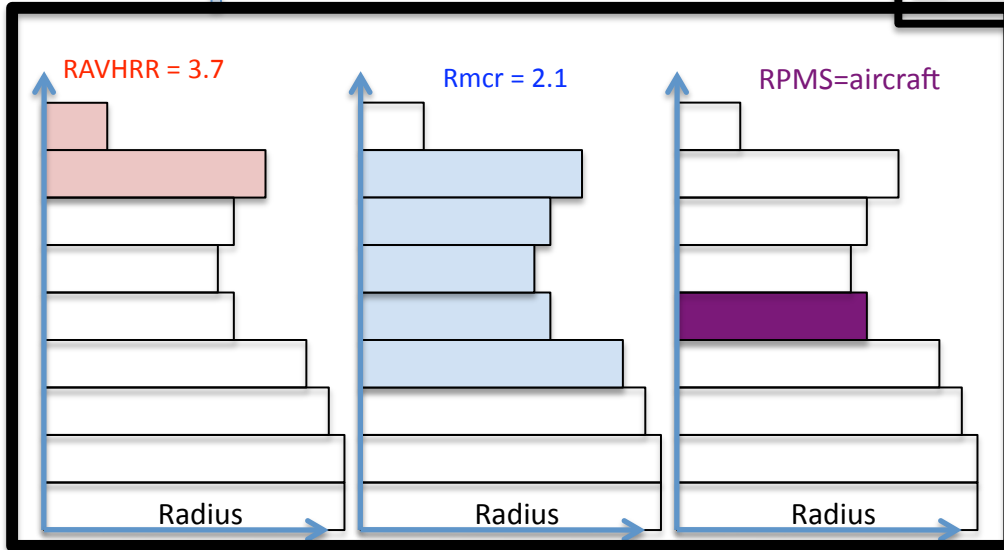
Results from FIRE, 1987 Nakajima et al., 1990



Drizzle



Cloud



Nakajima, Suzuki and Stephens, 2009

Particle sizes, drizzle and rain

Sampled only Tau_modis>1

Nakajima, Suzuki, Stephens (2009) in progress

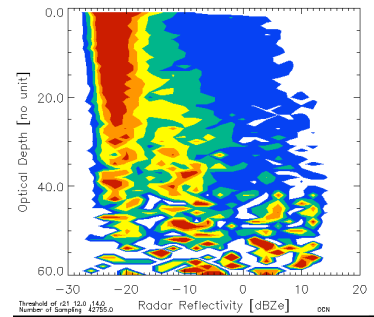
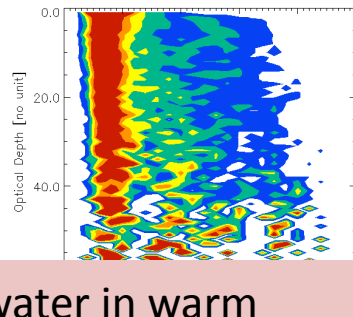
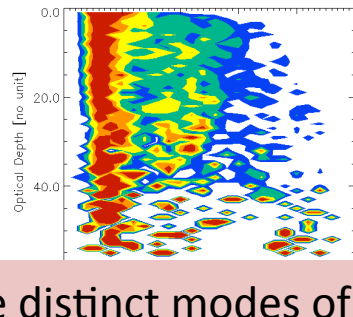
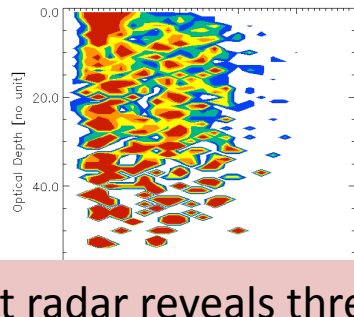
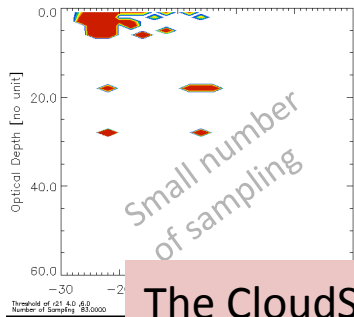
4<R21<6μm

6<R21<8μm

8<R21<10μm

10<R21<12μm

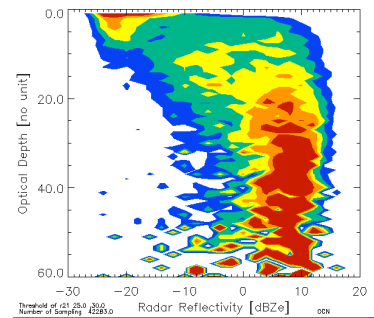
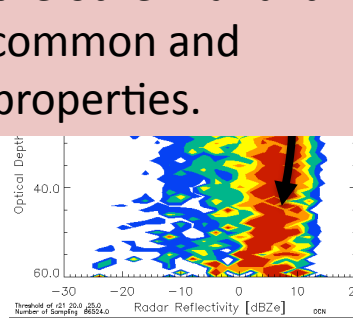
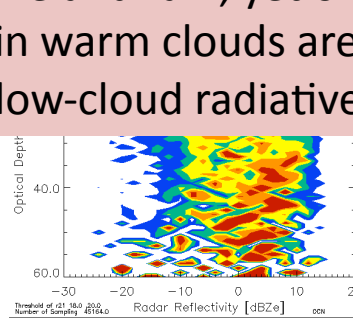
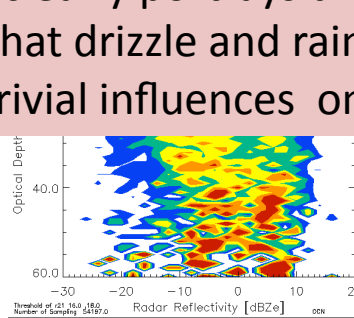
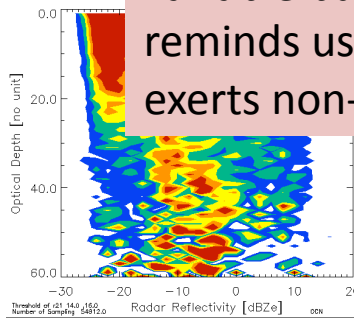
12<R21<14μm



The CloudSat radar reveals three distinct modes of water in warm clouds (drop, drizzle and rain) that correlate to 2.1 μm particle sizes – on the one hand the 2.1 μm particle size is not just a ‘radiation’ variable but clearly portrays drizzle and rain, yet on the other hand it reminds us that drizzle and rain in warm clouds are common and exerts non-trivial influences on low-cloud radiative properties.

R21=14μm

25<R21<30μm



Drizzling

Drizzle to Rain

R21=20μm

Rain

Decay

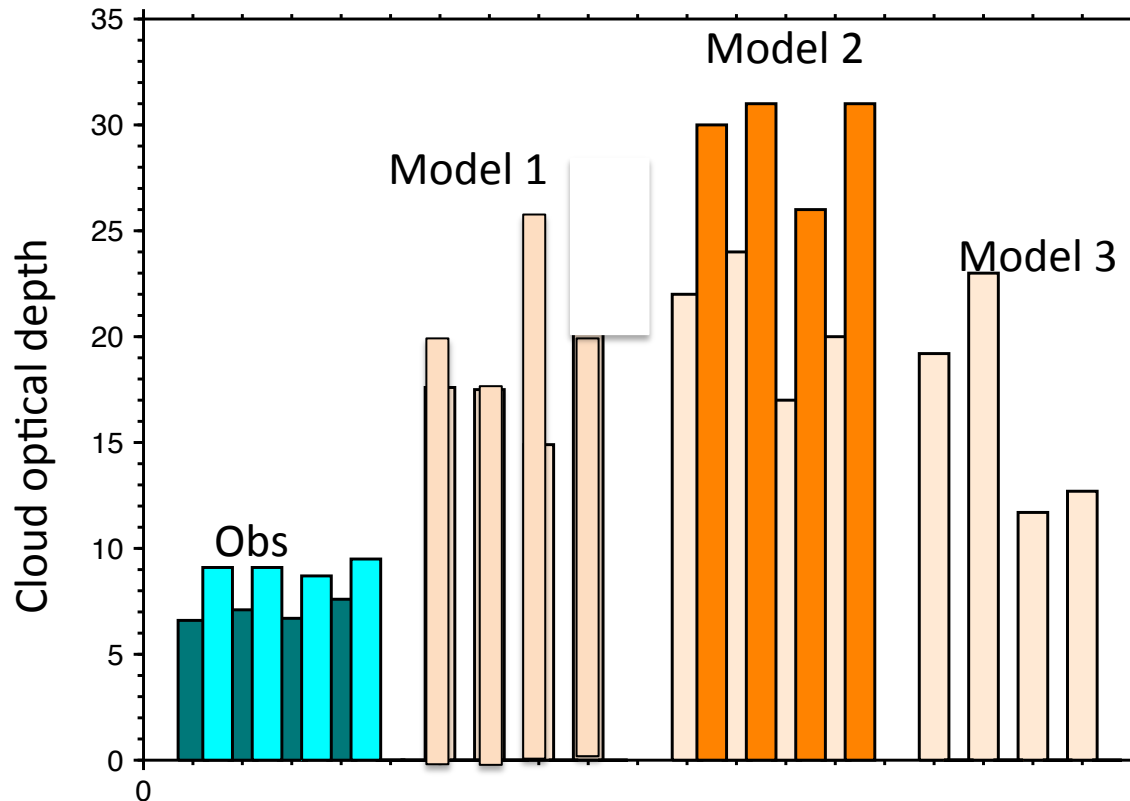


This particle size is a deeper layer average and reflects the significant effects of drizzle and rain on low cloud radiative properties

	All clouds	Clouds	Dizzle	Rain
LWP (g/m ²)	123	81.4	276.7	332
Optical depth	10	7.9	17.6	19.6
CDR (um) MODIS	16.3	14.6	22.6	24.6
CDR (um) (AVHRR)	11.54			
Cloud top height (km)	1.44	1.26	2.02	2.28

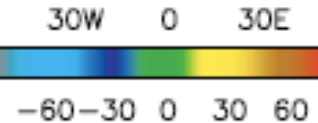
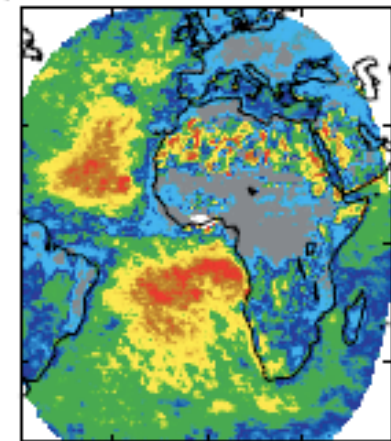
Models assume values between about 8-12 um

Low cloud optical depth.....



Yet another model

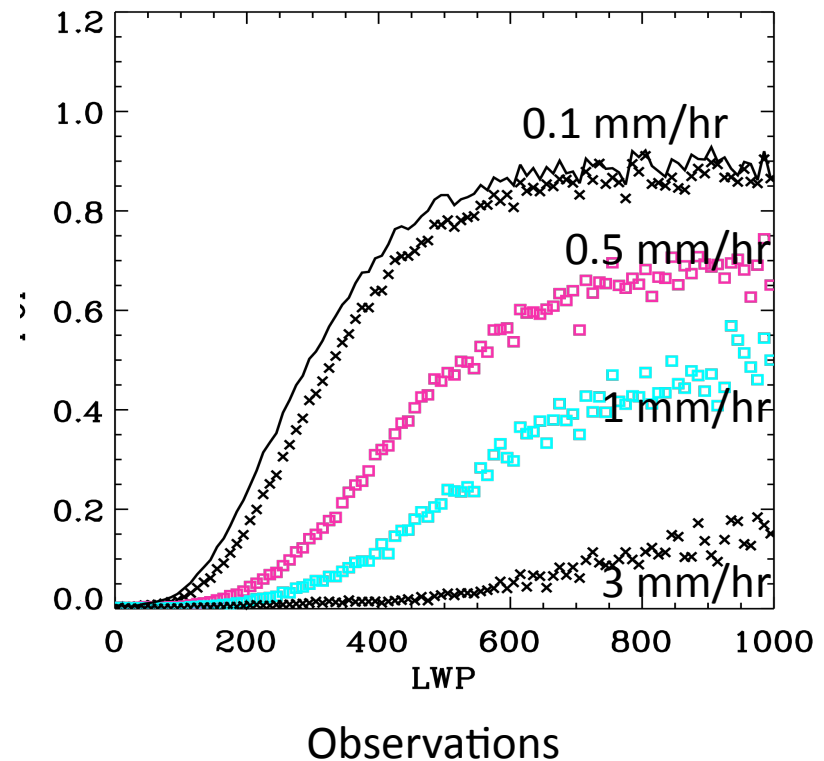
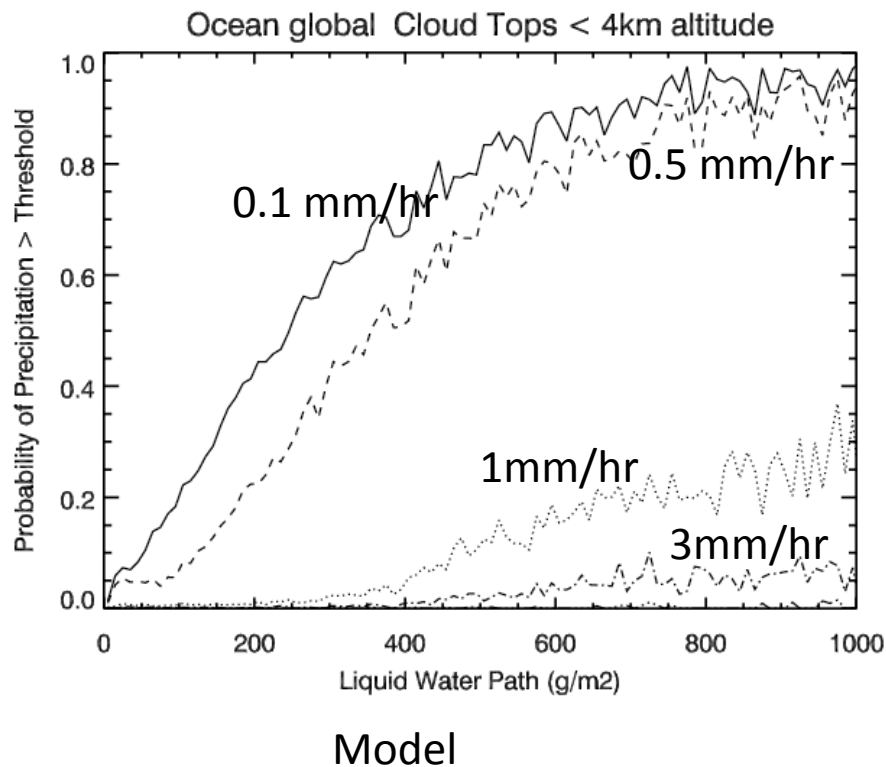
(d) Model-GERB RSR



Model low, warm cloud optical and radiative properties are significantly different (biased) compared to those observed – two factors contribute to this extreme (bright) bias - the LWP is one, particle size is another.

Probability of rain in warm clouds

This and other results are beginning to reveal the issues in the way warm rain is parameterized in models – this process significantly affects the water balance in clouds and thus their radiative effects – this is clearly of some relevance to low cloud feedback





Summary

- The optical properties of low clouds, in the mean, are affected (@ the 25% level) by the existence of rain and drizzle. This is not trivial and low cloud feedbacks are likely to involve these precipitation processes
- Model representation of low clouds contain serious biases (in both LWP and particle size) – the optical depths of low clouds appears to be more than a factor of 2 too large – resulting in and albedo –optical depth sensitivity that is artificially too small (by almost a factor of 4)
- Precipitation from low clouds occurs too frequently (drizzle/rain tends to be turned on immediately) with serious consequences to the water budget of model clouds and their radiative properties generally.
- This is a real time of opportunity to study feedbacks - we have very rich Earth observations that is begin to reveal aspects of key processes, a growing record in time capturing important climate variability.



A blue-print

Such a blue print might involve:

- 1 Hypothesis driven concept about feedback - e.g. that low cloud feedback in a warming climate occurs primarily as a consequence of atmospheric thermodynamic adjustments to the the warming (e.g. EIS) that then alter the planetary albedo – I frankly don't believe such hypotheses can be meaningfully tested/refuted using current GCMs alone.
2. Construct/use simple models that address different aspects of this feedback - for example a simple RCE model with a cloud water path –temperature feedback will give you a sense for the importance of other processes that might contribute to albedo changes that might refute such an hypothesis.
3. Build on this exploring the extent that the salient features of these feedbacks (like the thermodynamic shifts if temperature, inversion strength etc) appear in more complex (realistic?) models. Convince yourself that such models are realistic by appealing to observations.
4. Examine observations, LWP from satellites and its relation to temperature as an example , the Clement et al type correlated trend study as another when possible, and develop other ways of gleaning tests of key processes (including surrogate natural climate change experiments when possible) all aimed at determining if key aspects of the hypothesized feedbacks reveal themselves in measurements.

Don't constrain yourself to flavor of the month themes – think outside the box

Radiative convective equilibrium as a paradigm for understanding feedbacks

Manabe & Moller, 1961
Manabe & Strickler, 1964
Manabe and Wetherald, 1967

Important studies that demonstrated how changes to GHG, solar forcings and water vapor feedbacks operate in a climate-like system. Some early ideas about cloud effects began to emerge.

Stephens and Webster, 1980

Demonstrated how clouds shape RCE state – introduced the important role of cloud water/ice path and the important differences between high and low clouds

Sommerville and Remer, 1984
Stephens et al., 1990

With water path now understood as pre-eminent, examined the water and ice path-Ts feedbacks first hypothesized by Paltridge (1980)

Held et al., 1994

Introduced a new paradigm – RCE with explicit convection using a cloud resolving model, on a small domain (100's of km) and O(4km) resolution

Radiative convective equilibrium

Grabowski et al ,2000s

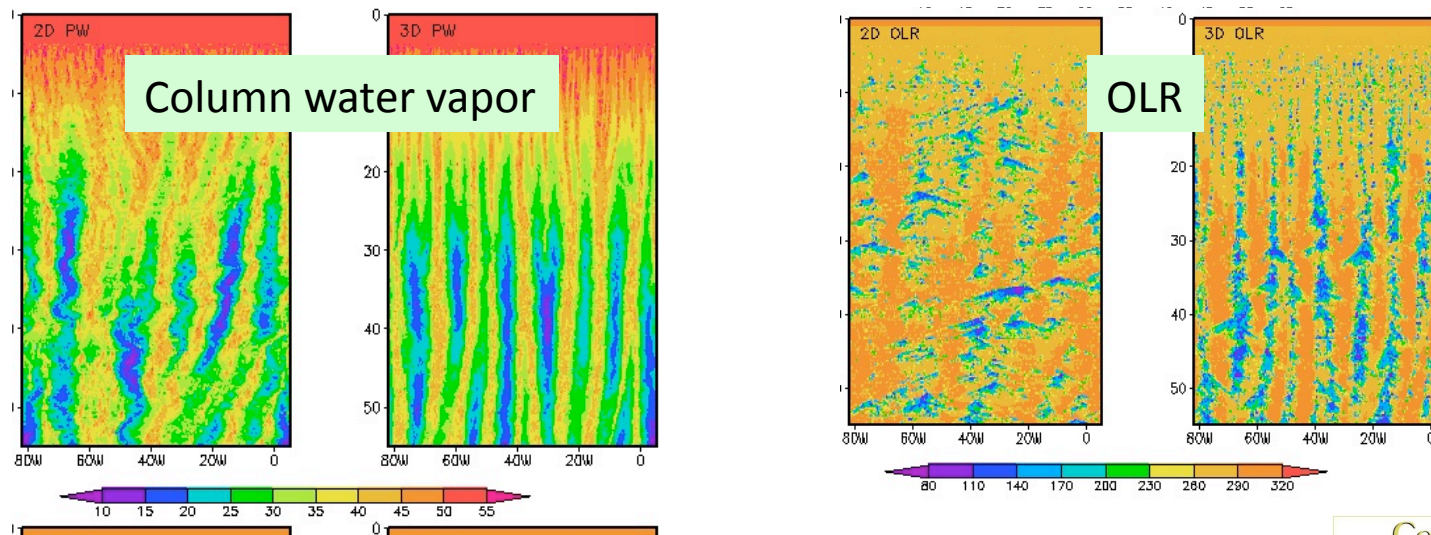
Larger domain studies mostly in 2D – reaffirming the self aggregation of convection, hinting at cloud radiation feedbacks

Tompkins – 1998-2002

Tompkins performed a number of studies over this period, examining effects of shear, SST, and other factors on RCE.

Stephens et al., 2004

First use of the RCE-CRM to examine effects of cloud-aerosol interactions on RCE



Stephens et al. 2008

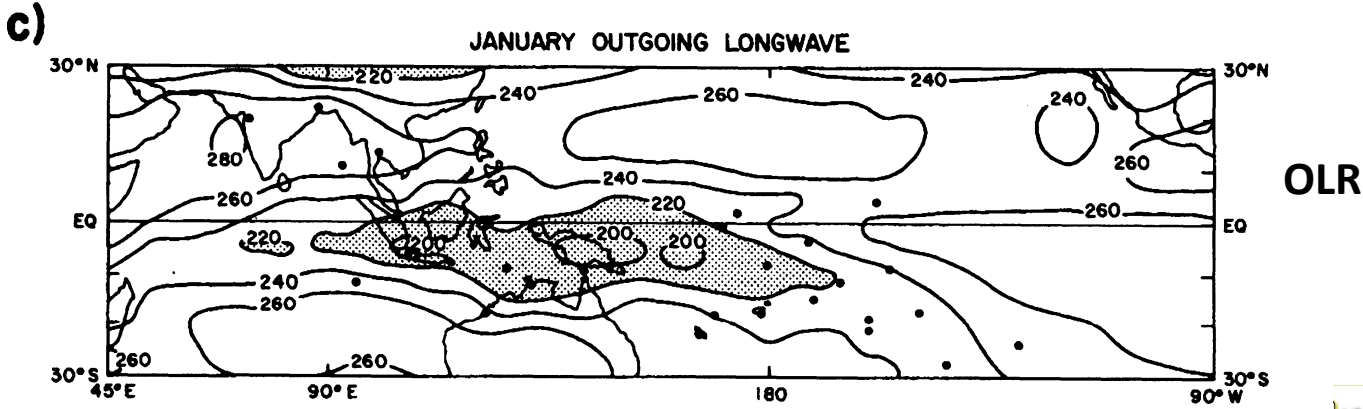
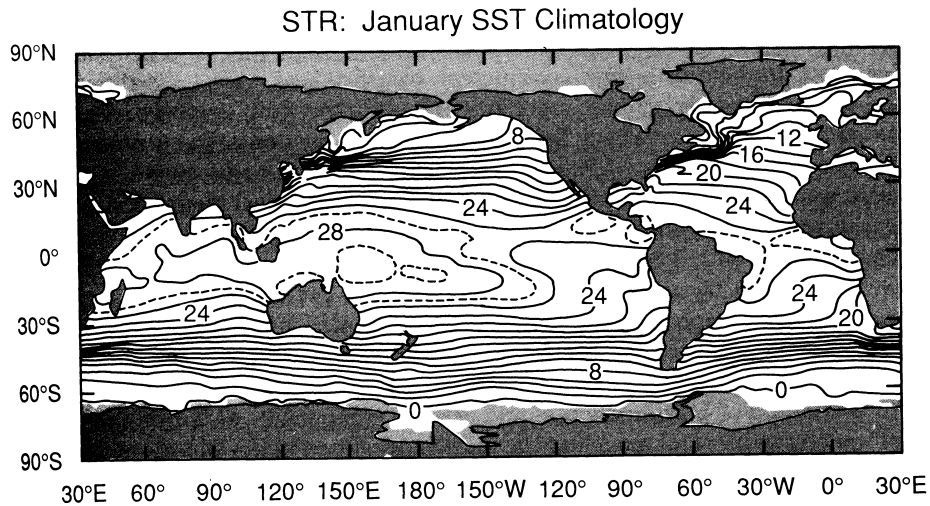


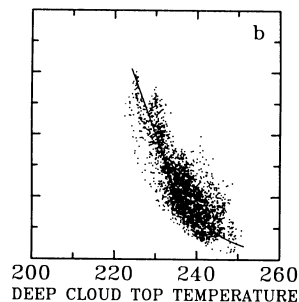
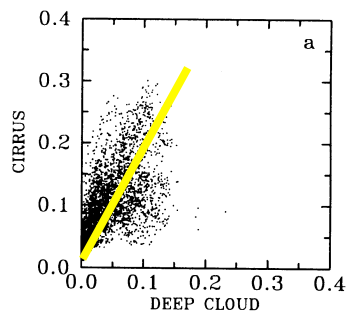
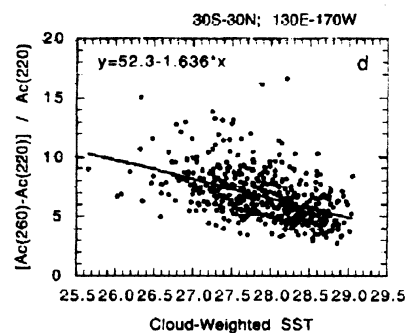
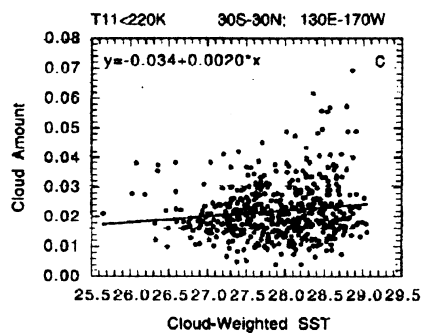
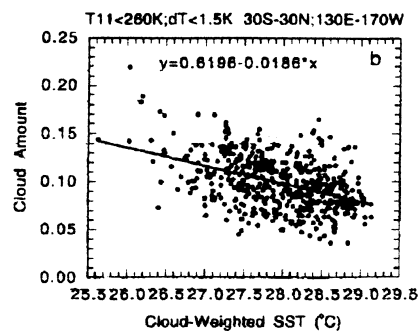
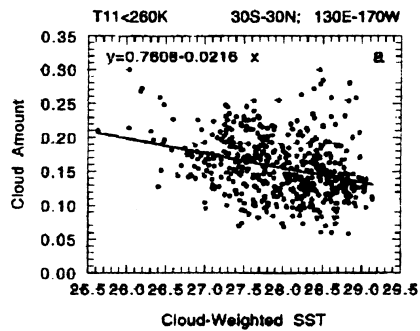


Backups



Cirrus detrainment –surface temperature feedbacks (e.g Chou & Neelin, 1999; Lindzen et al., 2001; Ramanathan and Collins, 1991)





(i) Increasing SST

→ Increasing Convection

(ii) Increasing Convection

→ Increasing/decreasing cirrus/CsCu

(iii) Increasing cirrus →

decreasing SST (R&C- negative feedback)

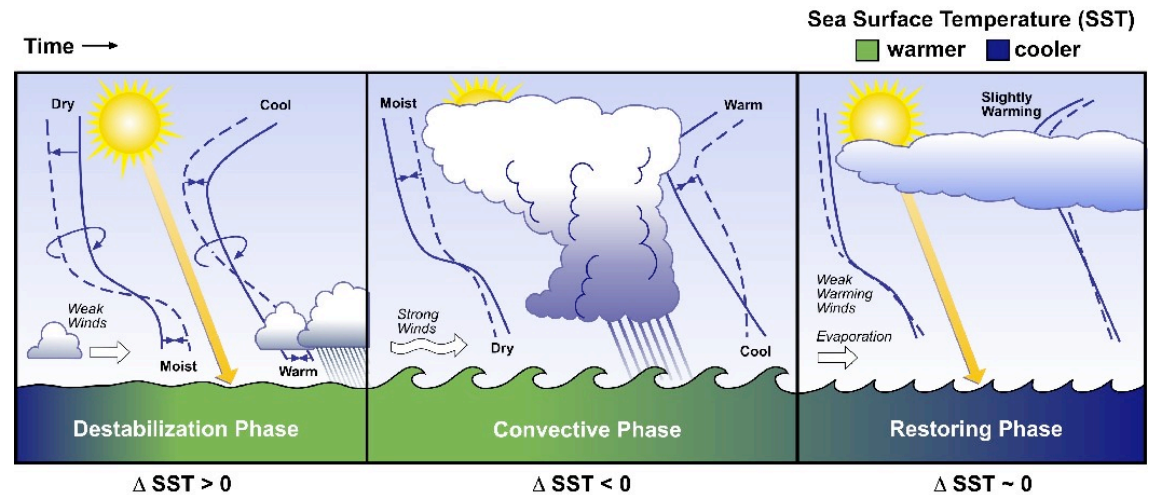
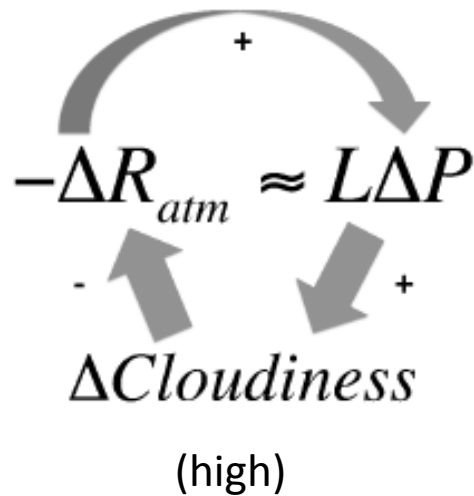
(iv) Decreasing cirrus →

decreasing SST (IRIS negative feedback)

????????????????????

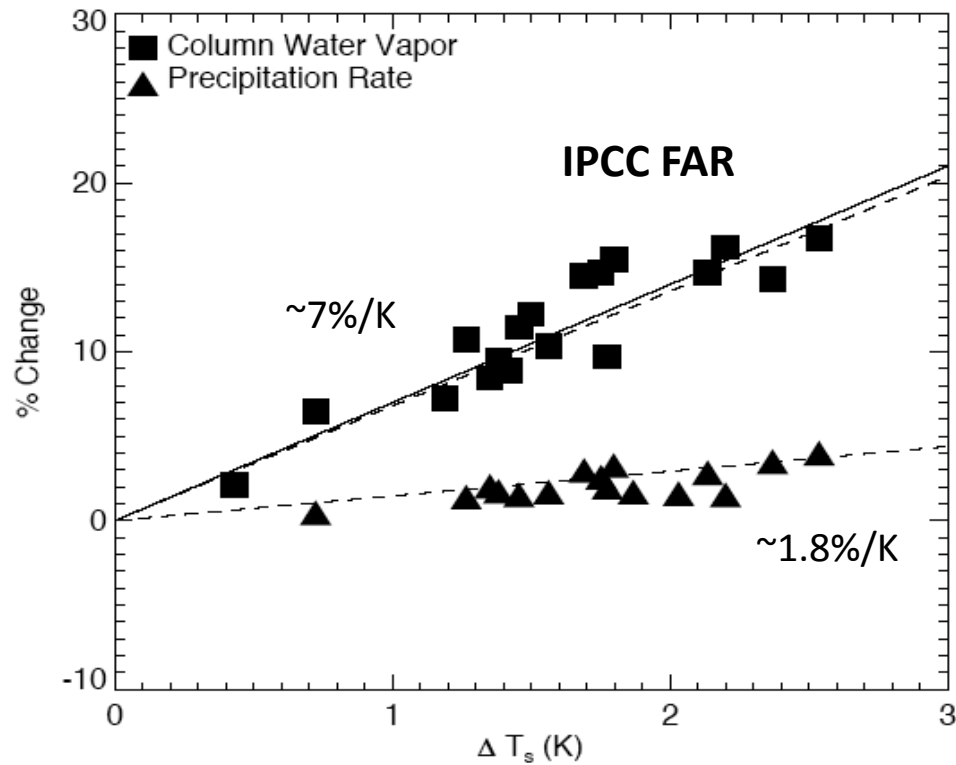
High clouds and convective feedbacks

A number of studies have hypothesized on the importance of cloud radiative heating of the atmosphere and feedbacks related to it (Slingo and Slingo, 1988; Fowler and Randall, 1993; Stephens et al. 2004).



e.g. Humidistat feedback of Stephens et al (2004)

Convective feedbacks and the control on global precipitation?



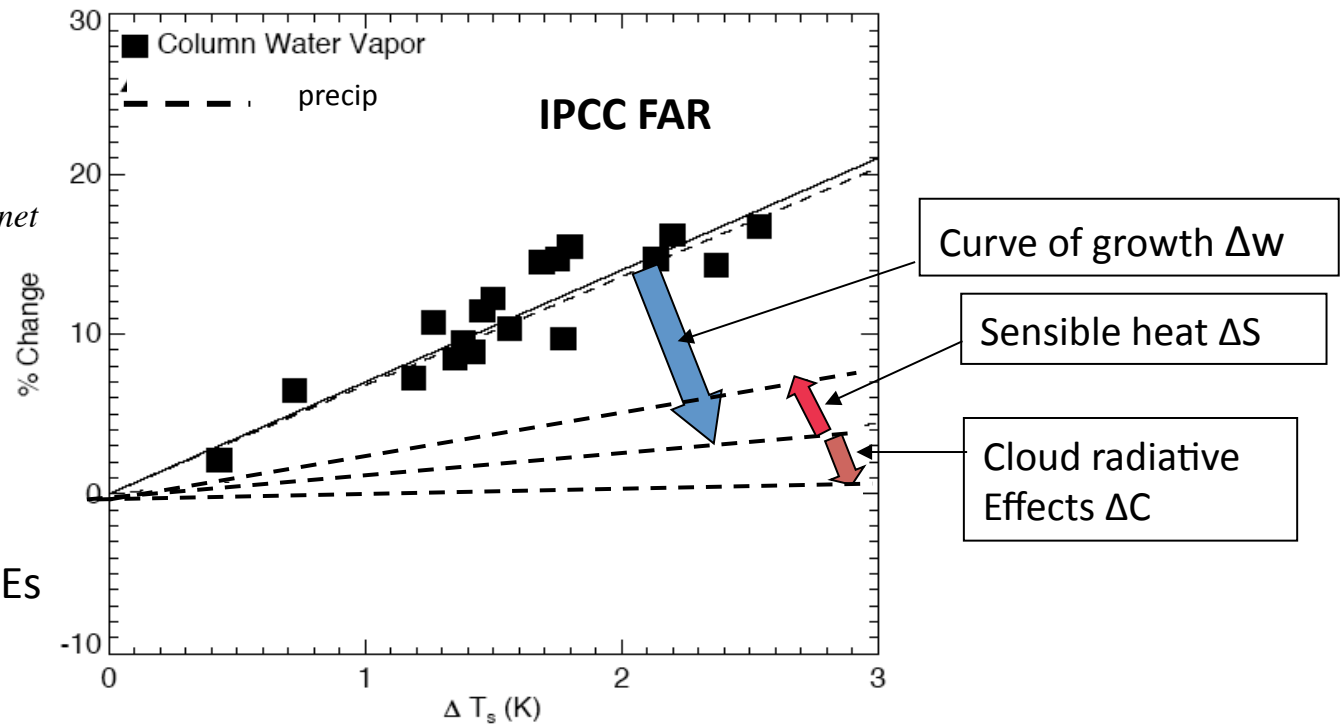
Convective feedbacks and the control on global precipitation?

$$\Delta R_{net,atm} = L\Delta P + \Delta S$$

$$\Delta R_{net,atm} = \Delta R_{net,clr} - \Delta C_{net}$$

Controlled by
water vapor
changes Δw

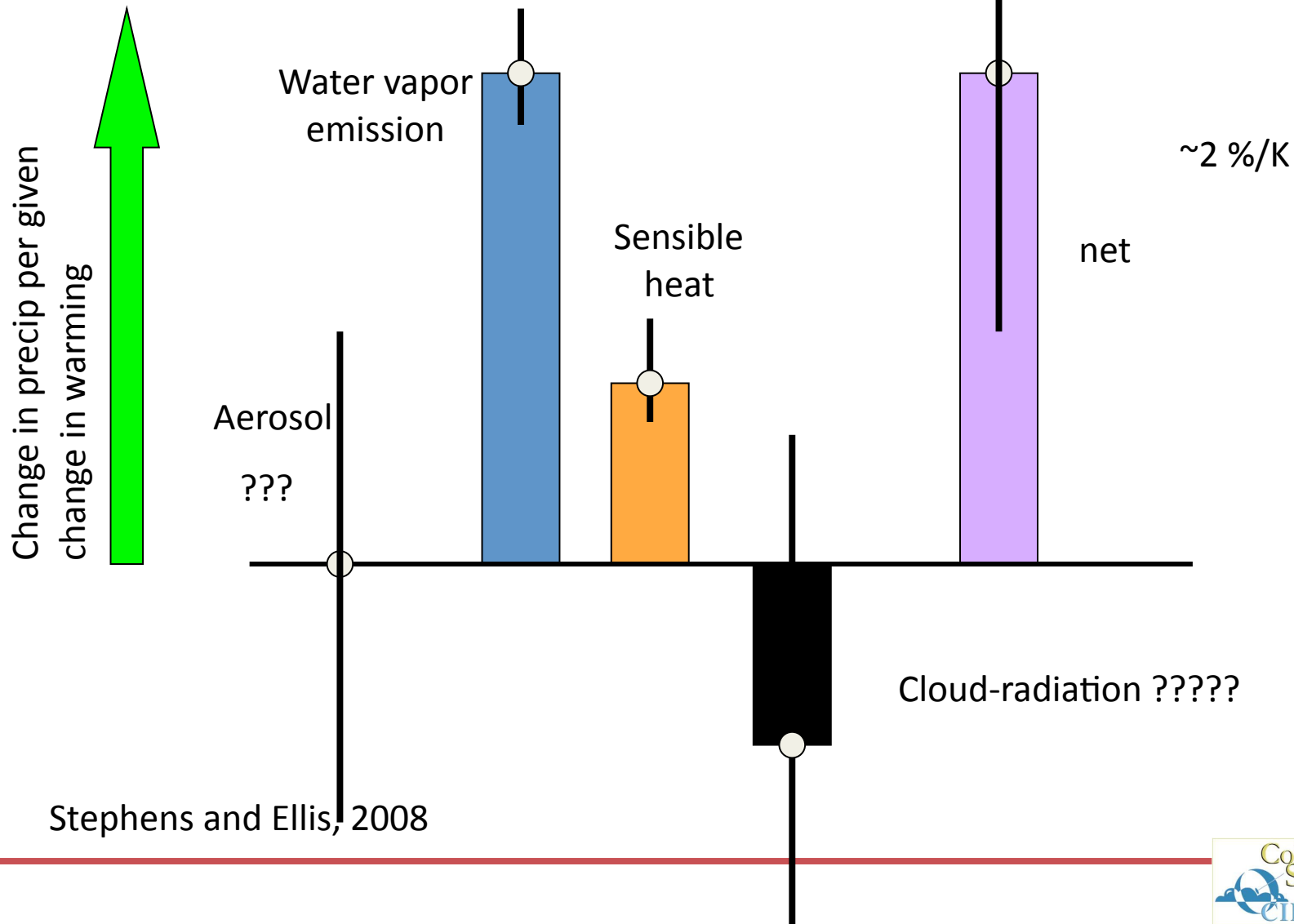
Changes in atmospheric CREs



Cloud - radiative processes, sensible heating changes tug at the magnitude of the global change of precipitation which is to first order set by the water vapor feedback

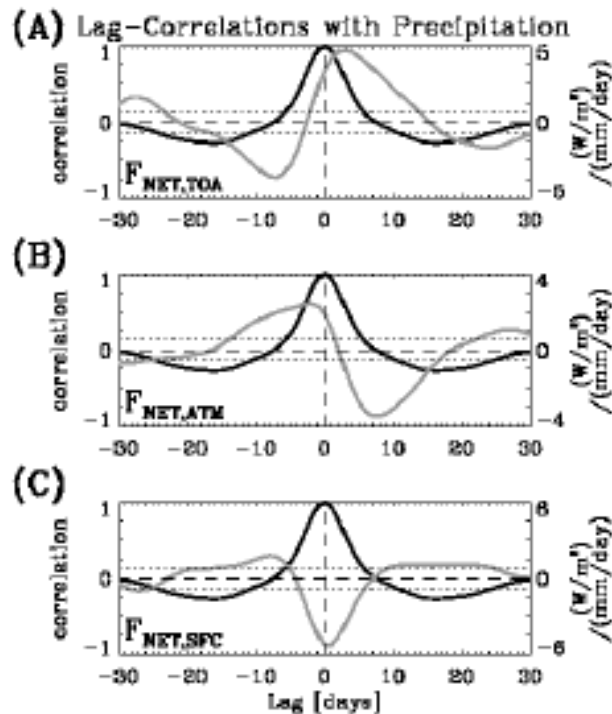
Stephens and Ellis, 2008; J Climate

cloud radiation feedbacks are also a major source of uncertainty & aerosol effects are unknown

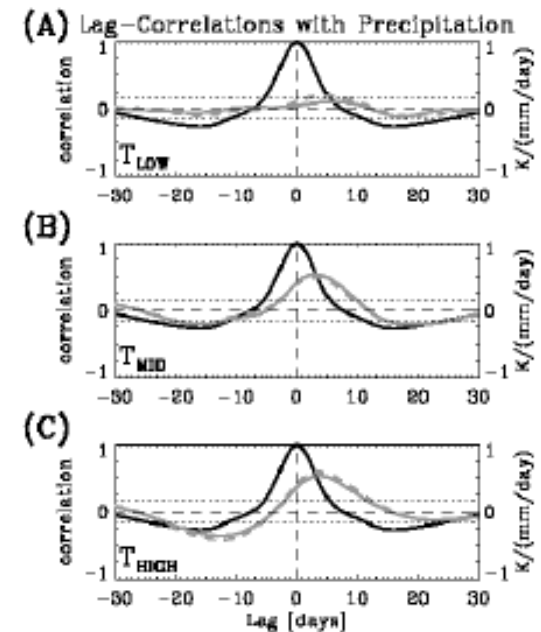


High clouds and convective feedbacks

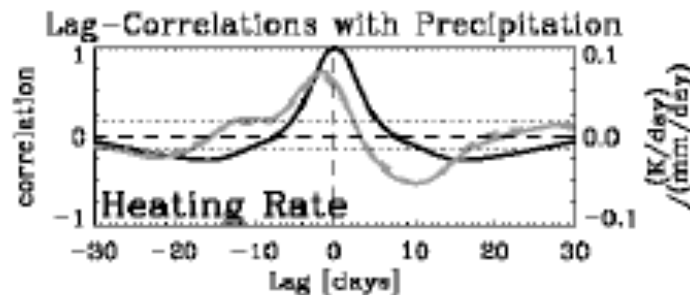
Lebsock et al (2009) use A-Train observations to show tropic-wide radiative heating anomalies correlate with UT temperature anomalies and how the temps lags the heating – further hints at the existence of a radiation-convective feedback

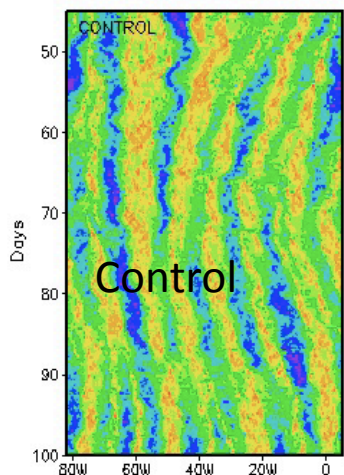


CERES based
CREs

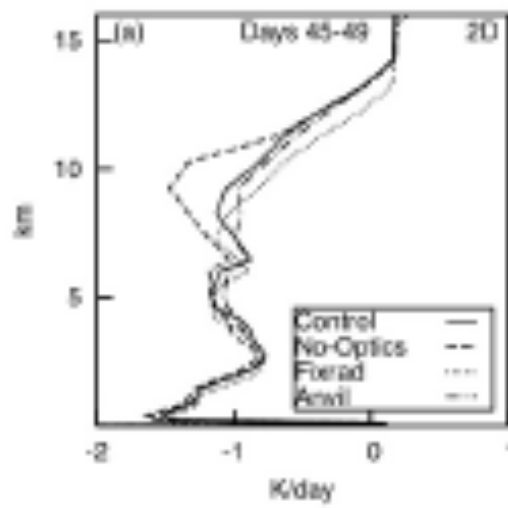
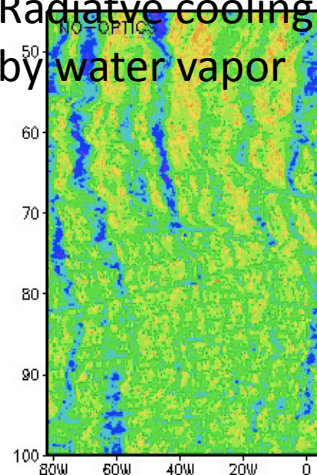


AIRS inferred heating rate

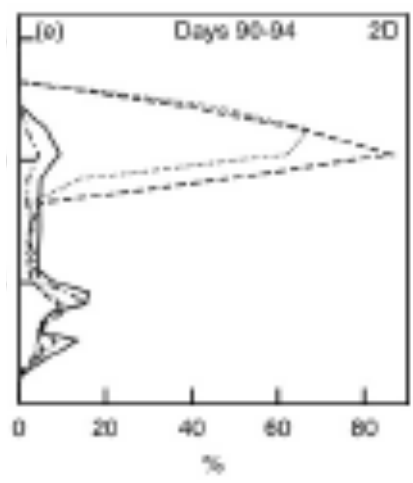




Radiative cooling by water vapor

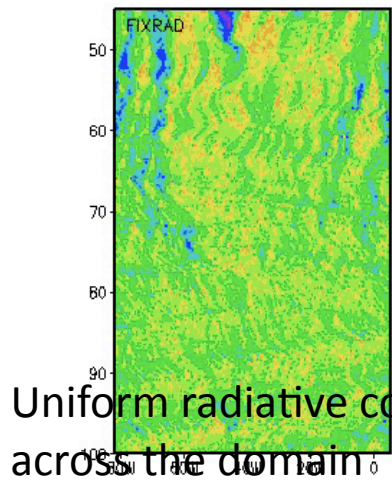
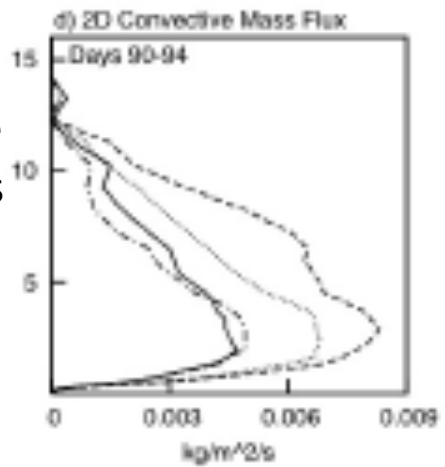


Domain average Radiative column

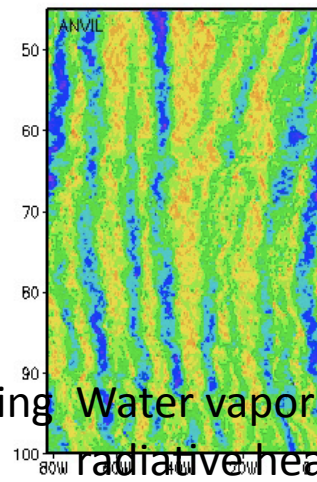


Domain average cloud fraction

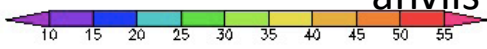
Domain average convective mass flux



Uniform radiative cooling across the domain



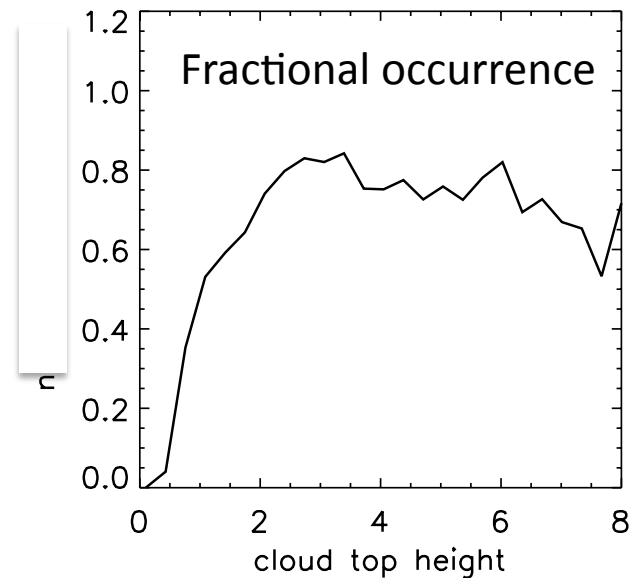
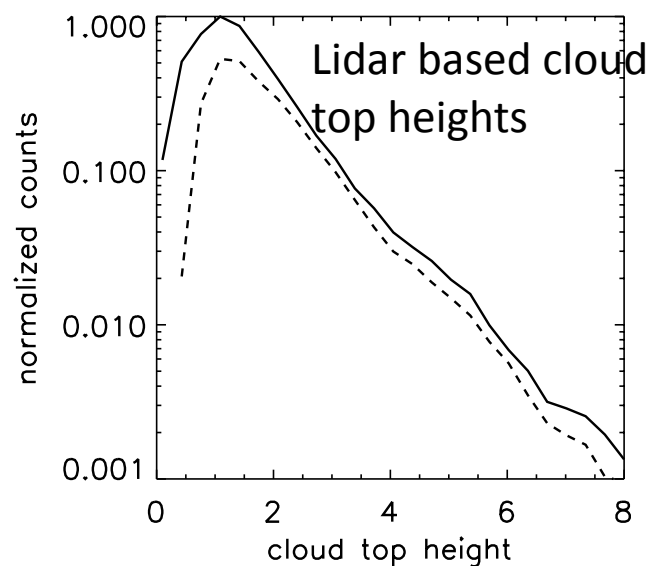
Water vapor plus radiative heating by anvils



Steohens et al., 2008

Properties of Low oceanic clouds as revealed by the A-Train

- Low oceanic clouds = identified by MODIS low cloud mask (uses cloud top temp and other properties)
- Only single layer clouds (as determined by lidar info) analyzed
- Statistics accumulated over JJA and DJF seasons

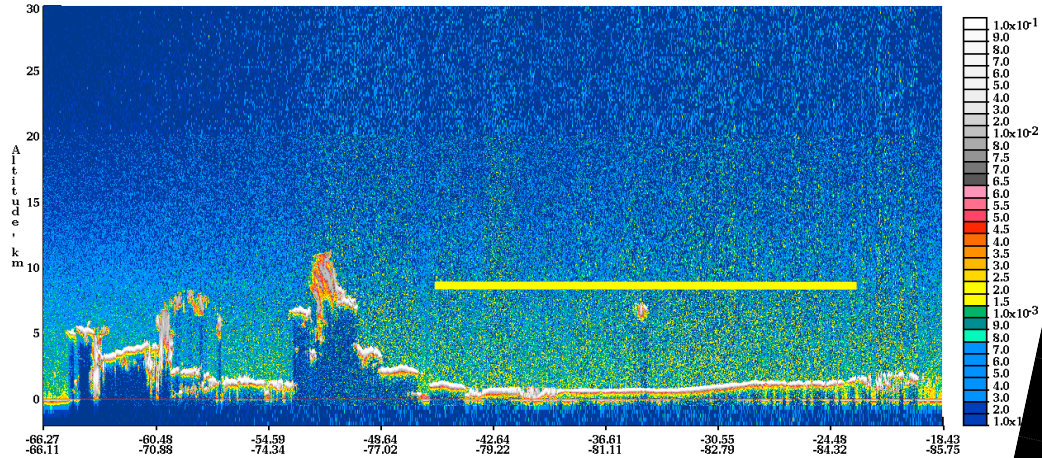


- These low clouds lie below 4km

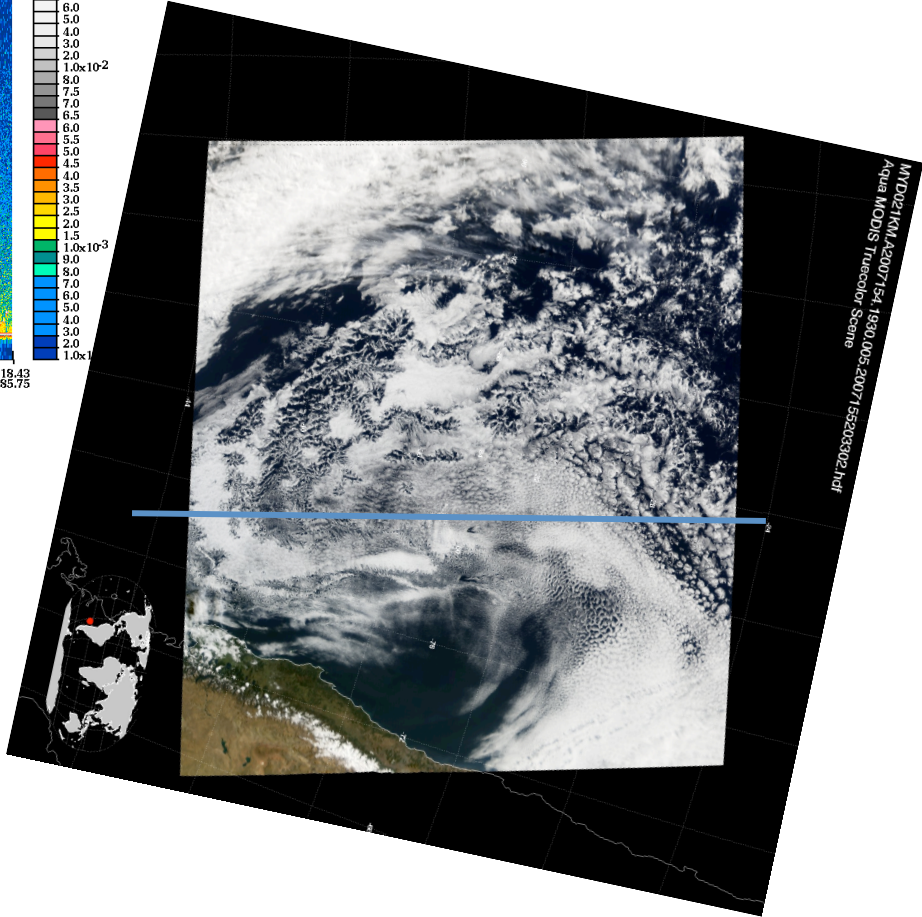
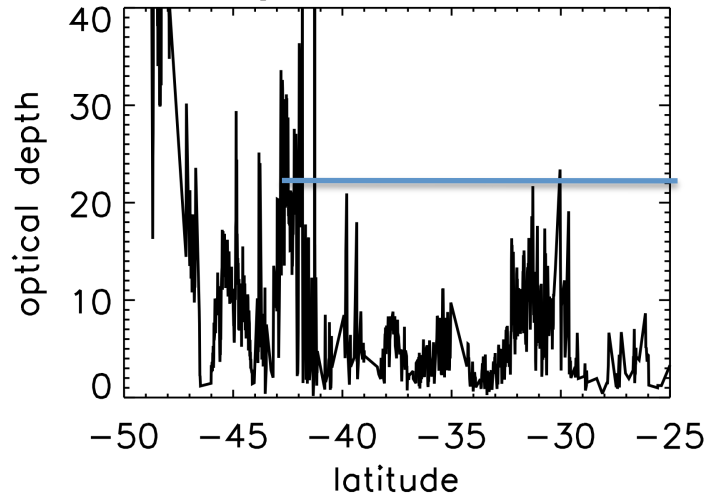
Example orbit

532 nm Total Attenuated Backscatter, /km /sr Begin UTC: 2007-06-03 19:24:48.8861 End UTC: 2007-06-03 19:38:17.5331

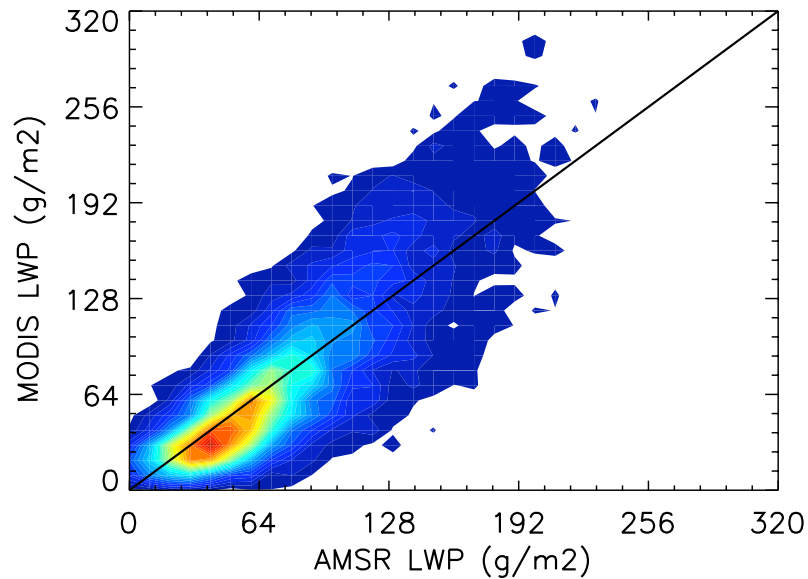
Version: 2.01 Image Date: 02/21/2008



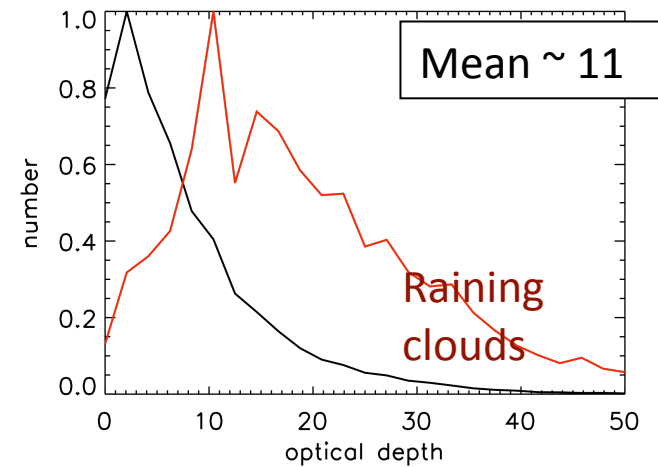
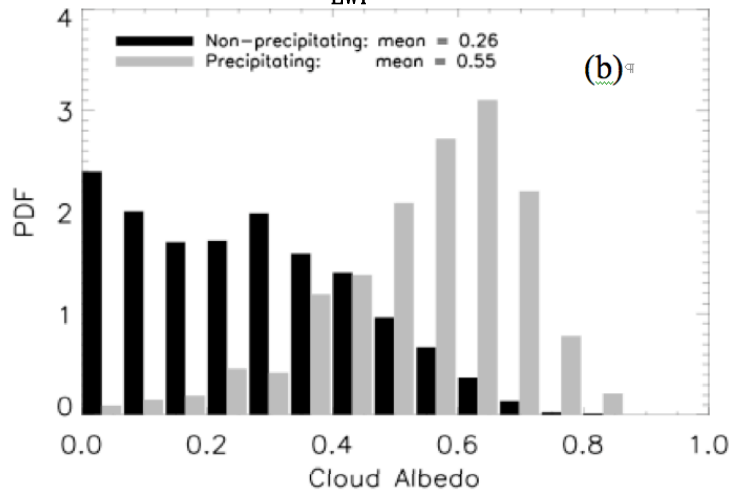
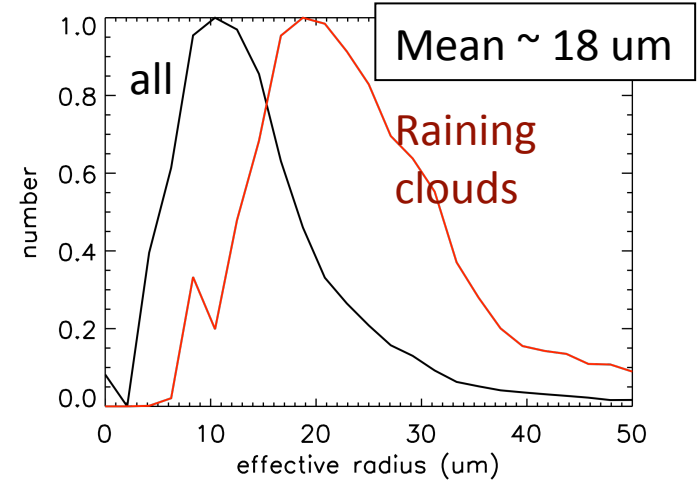
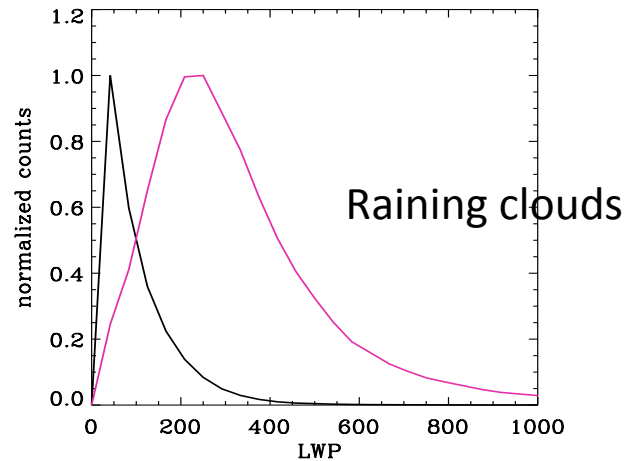
granule 5846



In-cloud LWP statistics of low clouds



For the sampling applied, LWP derived from two different approaches methods agree over the range 20 - 200 g/m2



Drizzling/raining low clouds are wetter, contain larger particles are optically thicker and and reflect significantly more solar energy than non-raining low clouds



Summary:

- 1) Low clouds dominate the global TOA CRE via their influence on sunlight reflected to space.
- 2) The reflection of solar energy by a cloudy atmosphere is controlled by cloud amount, the water path and particle size and changes to these properties underlie hypothesized cloud-climate feedbacks.
- 3) The presence of drizzle in low clouds is prevalent enough that it has an observable consequence on the *mean* radiative properties of clouds (e.g. 18 μm mean particle size).
- 4) There are preliminary hints that the representation of low cloud radiative effects in models may be significantly biased high (water contents too large, particle sizes too small, optical depths too large and the amount of sunlight reflected by a given volume of cloud too large).

2) The nature of rain

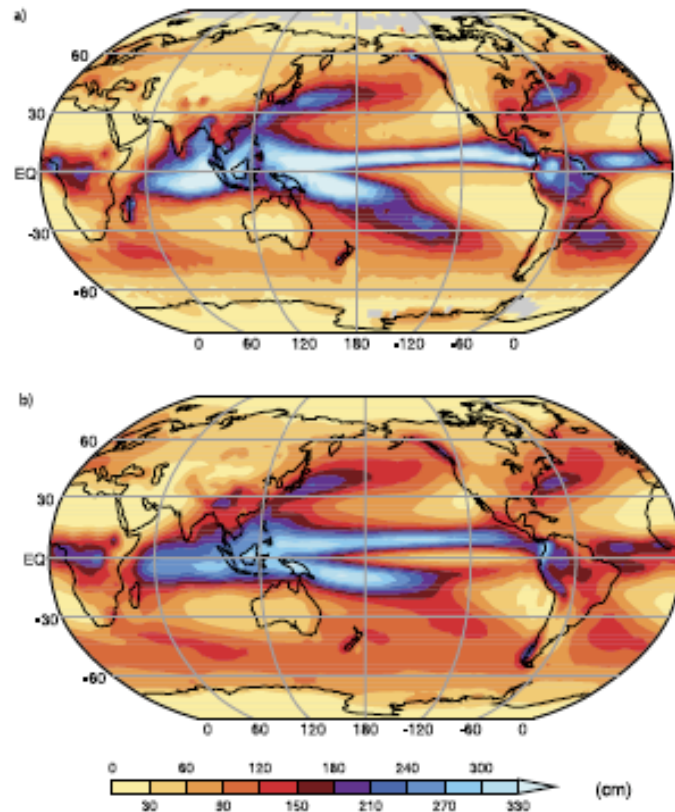


Figure 8.5. Annual mean precipitation (cm), observed (a) and simulated (b), based on the multi-model mean. The Climate Prediction Center Merged Analysis of Precipitation (CMAP; Xie and Arkin, 1997) observation-based climatology for 1980 to 1999 is shown, and the model results are for the same period in the 20th-century simulations in the MMD at PCMDI. In (a), observations were not available for the grey regions. Results for individual models can be seen in Supplementary Material, Figure S8.9.

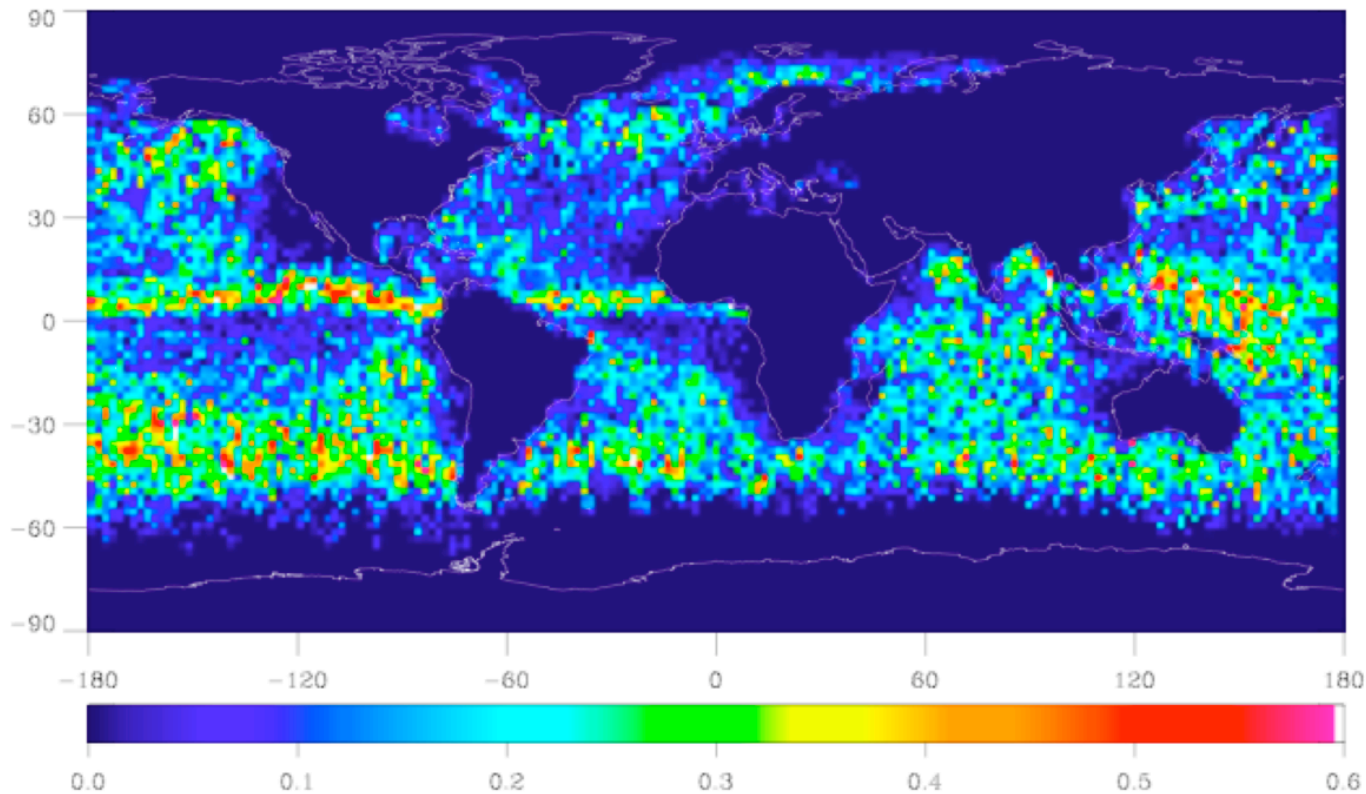
- 1. Accumulation** - amount of precip accumulated over some time period – typically expressed as a rain rate – in climatological applications this is the most frequently analyzed form of precip used to compare to models – the accumulated precip on large space and long time scales is controlled (constrained) by energetics - ie it has to be $\sim 3\text{mm/day}$ globally
- 2. Character of precipitation** (accum = frequency X intensity) much less focus but essential to most hydrological applications and to many precip-related climate processes. There is no obvious constraint on this pair of characteristics.



- We use CloudSat observed frequency and intensity for JJA (2006)
- Special experiments performed using ECMWF forecast model (JJA 2006) and UMKO climate model (JJA 5 yr seasonal)
- Upscale CloudSat (1.7km) to model resolution (ECMWF, 0.5 degree, UKMO 1.25 degrees, 2 degrees for two models) via averaging along track
- Compare to model properties employing the lower CloudSat threshold of 0.05mm/hr also up-scaled to model resolution

Work in progress

Properties: JJA frequency (all sky) of liquid precipitation
– ‘upscaled’ to 0.5 degrees



Frequency ~ 0.21 Mean rain rate slightly lower than model – obs slightly under represent the heaviest rain)

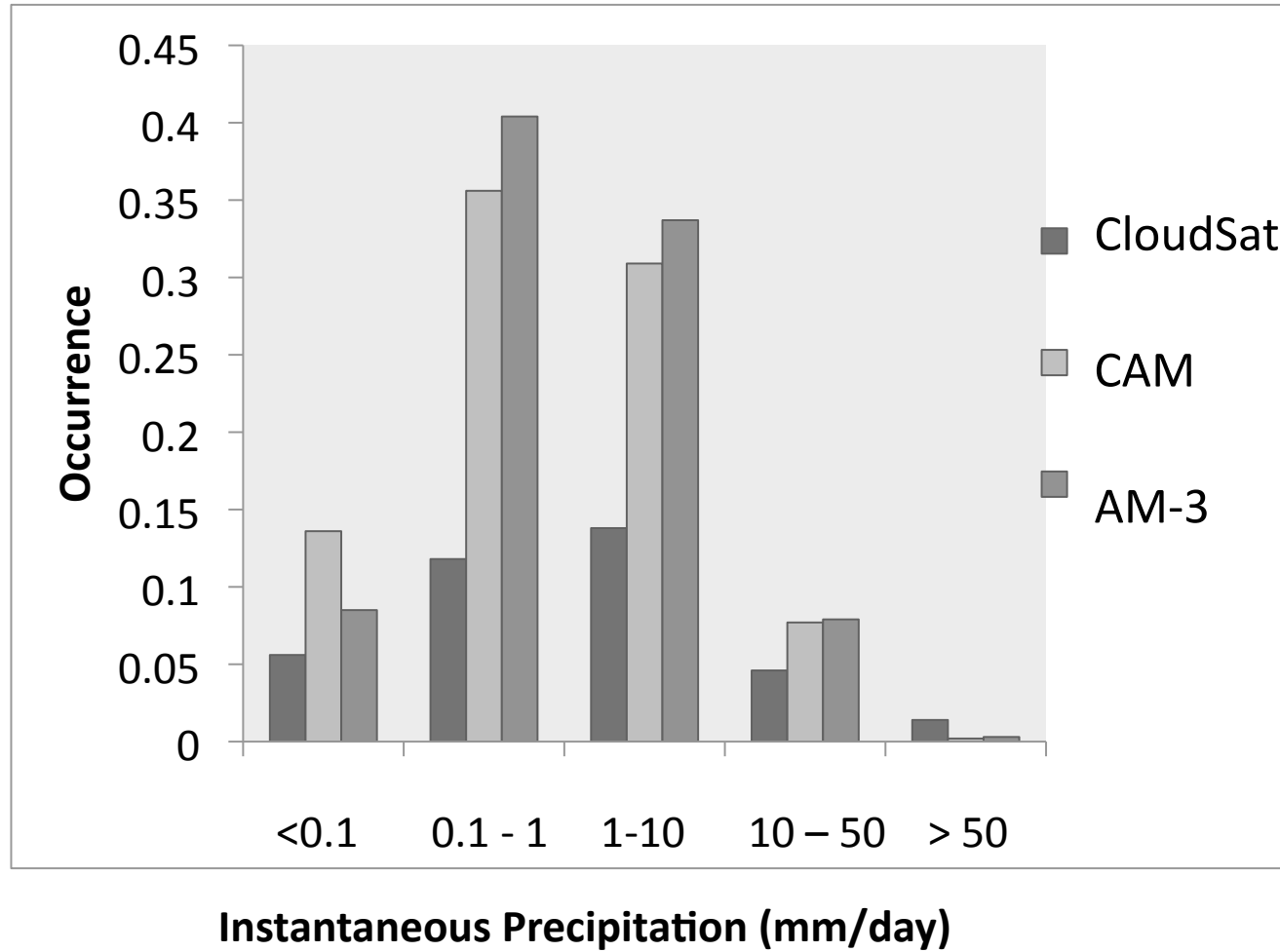
JJA Oceanic Precipitation Model Comparison Summary

Data Source	Incidence	Mean Rain rate mm/day
CloudSat (native)	0.11	2.86
CloudSat (0.5)	0.212	
ECMWF	0.679	2.83
CloudSat (1.25)	0.309	
UKMO	0.493	2.65
CloudSat (2)	0.372	
CAM	0.880	2.71
AM-3	0.908	2.94

How often it rains at any CS footprint or model grid point

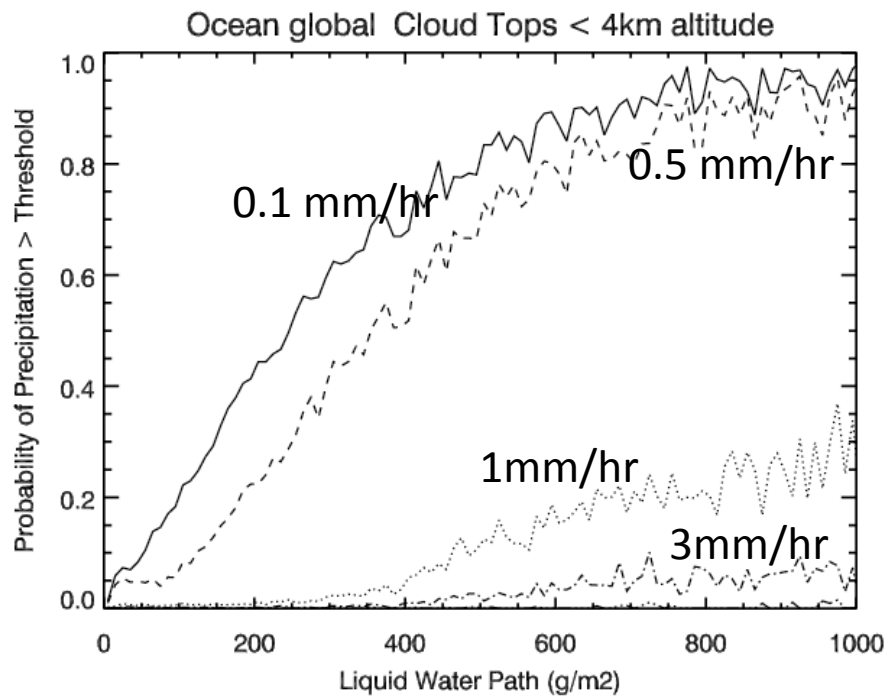


CloudSat 2 degrees

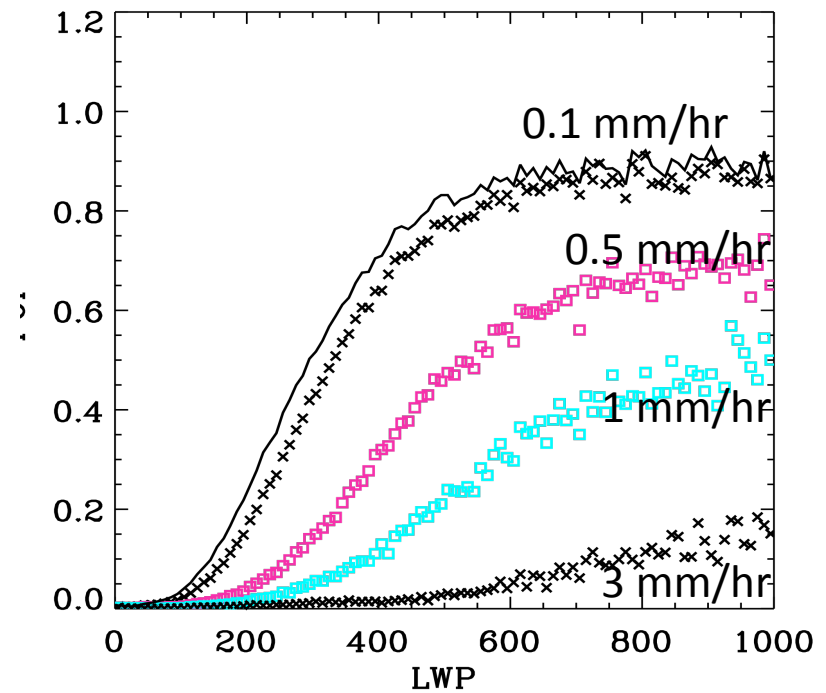



Probability of rain in warm clouds

Model



Observations

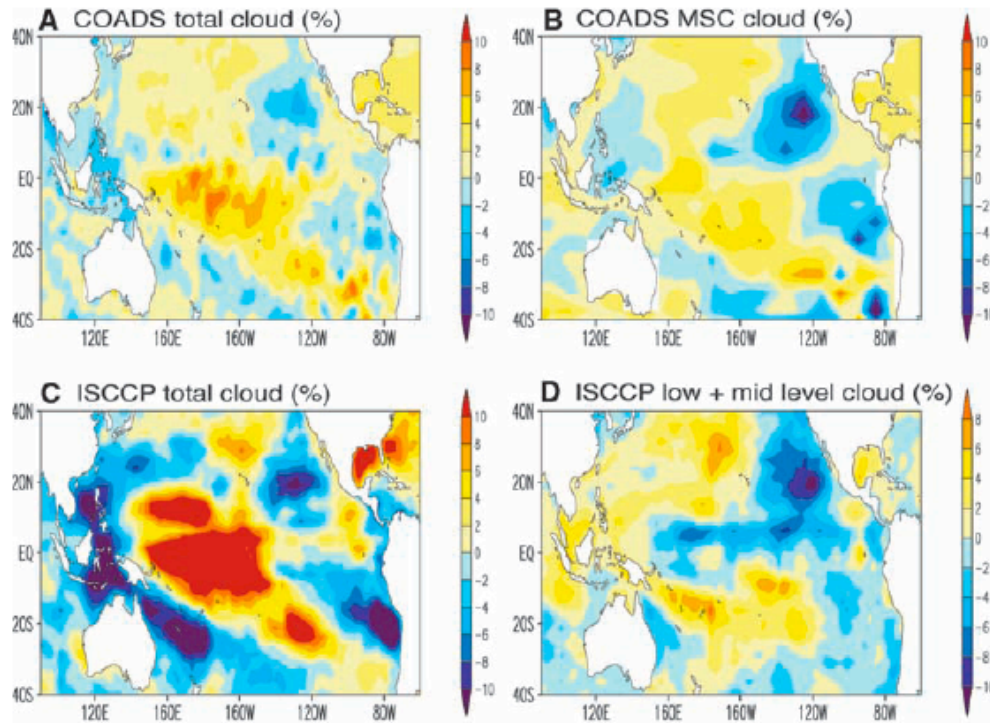




Many studies attempted to deduce $\frac{\partial C_{TOA}}{\partial A_c} = ?$

where A_c is the total cloud amount based on observations (Cess, 1976, Ohring & Clapp, 1980, Hartman and Short, 1980,) but these early estimates all suffered in one way or another -

An important step forward in TOA derived quantities came with ERBE and the improved ability to discriminate clear and cloudy schemes via the broad-band scanner instrument



$$\frac{\Delta A_c}{\Delta T_s} \text{ \%/K}$$

Cloud trends correlated with SST changes (Clement et al., 2009) – a very gross synopsis of cloud changes – this doesn't test feedbacks in models because these hinge on mechanisms and we need more quantitative understanding of how the processes of these mechanisms change