

# A possible correlation between satellite-derived cloud and aerosol microphysical parameters

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**Abstract.** The column aerosol particle number and low cloud microphysical parameters derived from AVHRR remote sensing are compared over ocean for four months in 1990. There is a positive correlation between cloud optical thickness and aerosol number concentration, whereas the effective particle radius has a negative correlation with aerosol number. The cloud liquid water path (LWP), on the other hand, tends to be constant with no large dependence on aerosol number. This result contrasts with results from recent model simulations which imply that there is a strong positive feedback between LWP and aerosol number concentration. Estimates for indirect forcing over oceans derived from the satellite data/model comparison range from -0.7 to -1.7 Wm<sup>-2</sup>.

## 1. Introduction

Anthropogenic aerosols can significantly affect the earth's climate [Twomey *et al.*, 1984; Charlson *et al.*, 1992]. Yet the assessed magnitude of the radiative forcing due to anthropogenic aerosols is quite uncertain because the mechanisms which determine the forcing are complex [IPCC95, 1996]. This is especially true for the indirect effect of aerosols which occurs because aerosols act as cloud condensation nuclei (CCN). Two kinds of indirect effects have been recognized. The first effect is a change in the cloud radiative properties due to cloud particle radius reduction, and the second effect is a change in cloud drop number concentration which further produces change in LWP, cloud amount, and radiative properties. The evaluated magnitude of the first indirect effect ranges from -2 W/m<sup>2</sup> to 0 W/m<sup>2</sup> [Charlson *et al.*, 1992; IPCC95, 1996; Hansen *et al.*, 1998]. Climate models have shown that the second indirect effect can more than double the forcing calculated for the first indirect effect [e.g. Jones *et al.*, 1994; Chuang *et al.*, 1997; Rotstayn, 1999; Lohmann *et al.*, 1999; Kiehl *et al.*, 2000].

There have been several observations of the indirect effect from satellite for contamination of clean marine air by ship

effluence [Coakley *et al.*, 1987; Radke *et al.*, 1989] and city pollution [Rosenfeld, 2000]. The global retrieval by Han *et al.* [1994] shows a noticeable decrease in the effective radius of low clouds around land regions compared to that in ocean regions that is highly suggestive of an indirect effect. An important unresolved issue, however, is whether or not the liquid water path increases when aerosol concentrations increase. A significant increase in LWP has been observed by several researchers [Radke *et al.*, 1989; Nakajima and Nakajima, 1995], but there are other observations that suggest this effect is insignificant [Platnick *et al.*, 2000]. Wetzel and Stowe [1999] have compared the aerosol optical thickness and cloud properties, but their forcing estimates have a large uncertainty because they could not estimate aerosol number.

In this paper, we present a simultaneous analysis of cloud and aerosol parameters from a newly developed algorithms for AVHRR remote sensing.

## 2. Remote sensing of cloud and aerosol fields

There are several pioneering studies for deriving the global distribution of aerosol parameters [Husar *et al.*, 1997; Nakajima and Higurashi, 1998; Goloub *et al.*, 1999]. In this study we adopt the AVHRR algorithm of Higurashi and Nakajima [1999] to derive the optical thickness  $\tau_a$  and

ngstr m exponent  $\alpha$ . The optical thickness dependence on wavelength of light  $\lambda$  is fitted to

$$\tau_\lambda = \tau_a (\lambda / \lambda_0)^{-\alpha} \quad (1)$$

and the reference wavelength is set as  $\lambda_0 = 0.5 \text{ m}$ . The

ngstr m exponent can be related to the shape of the size distribution and hence can be used as a size index. This information is extremely important for evaluating the column number of aerosol particles and CCN. The algorithm retrieves the peak volume values  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  of a bimodal log-normal size distribution from red and near-infrared channels of a sensor, such that,

$$\frac{dV}{d \ln r} = \sum_{n=1}^2 \frac{V_n}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_n} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\ln r - \ln r_n}{\sigma_n}\right)^2\right], \quad (2)$$

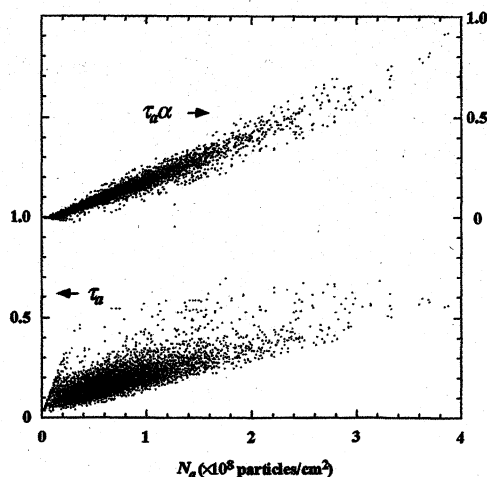
where the mode radii and log-dispersions  $\{r_n, \sigma_n | n=1,2\}$  are constant during the inversion with  $r_1=0.17 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $r_2=3.44 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $\sigma_1=0.26$  and  $\sigma_2=1.01$ . The retrieved  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  are further used for calculating the ngstr m parameters  $\tau_a$  and  $\alpha$ . The column aerosol number  $N_a$  is approximately given from Eq. (2) as

$$N_a \approx \tau_a \alpha \frac{\sigma_1}{\sqrt{2\pi}r_1^2} \exp\{4\sigma_1^2 + \frac{1}{2\sigma_1^2} [\ln(\frac{1.4\lambda}{2\pi r_1}) + \sigma_1^2]^2\}. \quad (3)$$

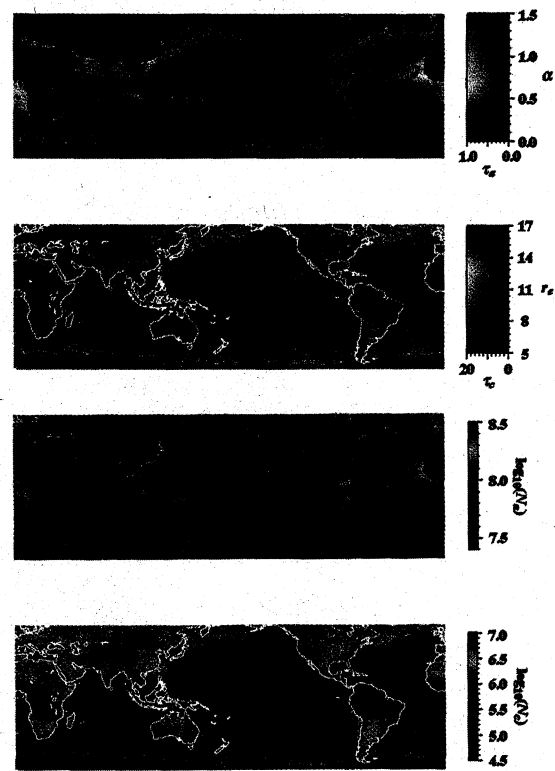
The equation shows that  $N_a$  is proportional to the product of two observables of remote sensing  $\tau_a \alpha$ . More accurate formula can be derived from analyzing actual satellite-data as  $N_a = 4.57 \times 10^8 (\tau_a \alpha)^\gamma$  (particles/cm<sup>2</sup>) with  $\gamma = 0.869$  with relative error of 20% (see Fig. 1). The figure shows that use of  $\tau_a$  alone will cause a large error in estimated  $N_a$ . The present algorithm can retrieve  $\tau_a$  and  $\alpha$  with errors less than 0.05 and 0.1, respectively [Goloub *et al.*, 1999; Higurashi *et al.*, 2000]. The error in the estimated number is then caused mostly from assumed values of  $r_1$  and  $\sigma_1$ . This error can reach a factor of 10 if the assumed values of  $r_1$  and  $\sigma_1$  are incorrect. The characteristic values of  $r_1$  and  $\sigma_1$ , however, are similar for continental and marine aerosols, so that the relative change in the anthropogenic aerosol number can be accurately calculated as  $\Delta N_a / N_a \approx \Delta(\tau_a \alpha)^\gamma / (\tau_a \alpha)^\gamma$ .

In the present study, we use the global distribution of cloud optical thickness  $\tau_c$  and effective particle radius  $r_e$ , obtained by analysis of channel 1, 3 and 4 of AVHRR with the algorithm of Kawamoto *et al.* [2000]. Errors in  $\tau_c$  and  $r_e$  have been estimated as less than 15% [Nakajima *et al.*, 1991; Nakajima and Nakajima, 1995; Kawamoto *et al.*, 2000], so that the column cloud particle number  $N_c$  (particles/cm<sup>2</sup>) and  $LWP (=2\pi r_e \tau_c / 3$  with water density  $\rho$ ) are accurately estimated from  $\tau_c$  and  $r_e$ .

Figure 2 shows the annual mean global distributions of aerosol and cloud parameters thus obtained for  $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$  latitude-longitude segment boxes by averaging four months (Jan., April, July, and Oct.) in 1990. A pixel for low level clouds are selected with a brokenness test and cloud top temperature  $> 273\text{K}$ . It is found that there is a correlation



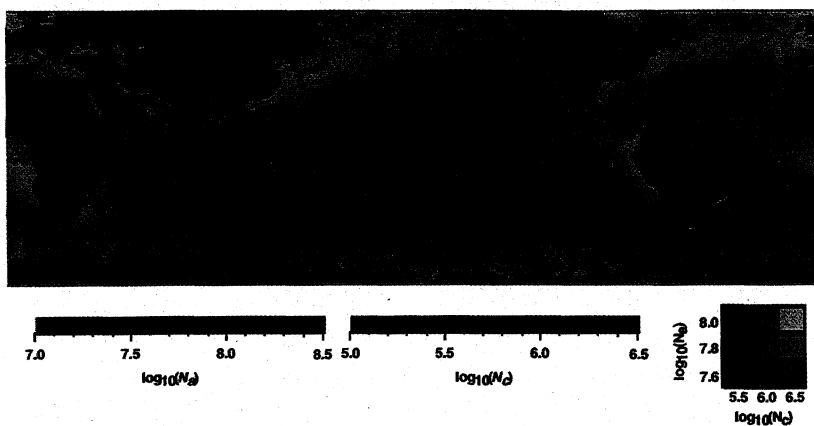
**Figure 1.** Scatter plots between  $N_a$  versus  $\tau_a$  and  $\tau_a \alpha$  for daily global retrieval results of AVHRR data in April 1990.



**Figure 2.** Global distribution of aerosol and cloud parameters. Four months average of  $\tau_a$ ,  $\alpha$ ,  $N_a$  (particles/cm<sup>2</sup>),  $\tau_c$ ,  $r_e$  (m), and  $N_c$  (particles/cm<sup>2</sup>). Color hue is assigned to  $\alpha$  and  $r_e$ , and brightness to  $\tau_a$  and  $\tau_c$  for indicating features of small/large particles of aerosols and clouds, respectively.

between fine particle aerosol distributions characterized by large  $\alpha$  and area for small  $r_e$  of low clouds in middle and high latitudes. Figure 3 compares values of  $N_a$  and  $N_c$  by assigning red and blue color, respectively. Regions adjacent to the east coasts of the continents and along the west coasts of South Africa, South America, and California are characterized by yellow color, indicating a positive correlation between  $N_a$  and  $N_c$ , as also pointed out by several investigators [Coakley *et al.*, 1987; Han *et al.*, 1994; Nakajima and Nakajima, 1995]. Most of the tropical region, on the other hand, is characterized by red color, i.e. small  $N_c$  in spite of large  $N_a$ . The main reason for this feature is that low clouds interacting with aerosols are not dominant in this region. It is also known that dust particles, one of dominant tropical aerosols, are not effective as CCN.

Aside from the moderately active region along the east coasts of continents and the inactive tropical regions (yellow and red colors, respectively), there are two other interesting regions. One is off the coast of California, where the greenish color shows large  $N_c$  in spite of small  $N_a$ , indicating that this region is an especially active region of cloud-aerosol interaction. This region is characterized by shallow stratocumulus clouds formed in the stable atmosphere of the subsiding Hadley cell over cold ocean currents. Ship trail clouds are frequently observed in this region [Coakley *et al.*, 1987; Radke *et al.*, 1989; Platnick *et al.*, 2000]. The other region of specific correlation is off the tropical west coast of Africa, where the yellow-colored area is mixed with red-colored area showing an active region mixed with an inactive region in Fig. 3. Satellite remote sensing and model calculation suggest that biomass burning aerosols as well as mineral dust aerosols are contributing to the atmospheric



**Figure 3.** Global distribution of the correlation between  $N_a$  and  $N_c$  (particles/cm<sup>2</sup>) as a four month average of 1990. Red color is assigned to  $N_a$  and green color to  $N_c$ . Bright yellow color shows both  $N_a$  and  $N_c$  are large, whereas bright red color shows  $N_c$  is small in spite of large  $N_a$ .

turbidity in this region [Takemura *et al.*, 2000]. Figure 4 shows global mean cloud parameters as a function of  $N_a$  for four seasons. In spite of a large variability, the figure shows a systematic negative correlation between  $r_e$  and  $N_a$  in a range of  $10^{7.8} \pm N_a \pm 10^{8.5}$ . The scatter plot between  $\tau_c$  and  $N_a$ , on the other hand, shows a positive correlation in the same range of  $N_a$ . The tendency of the correlation from Fig. 4 can be summarized as

$$r_e^- a_r + b_r \log_{10} N_a; \tau_c^- a_\tau + b_\tau \log_{10} N_a; \log_{10} N_c^- a_N + b_N \log_{10} N_a \text{ for } 7.8 \pm \log_{10} N_a \pm 8.5, \quad (4)$$

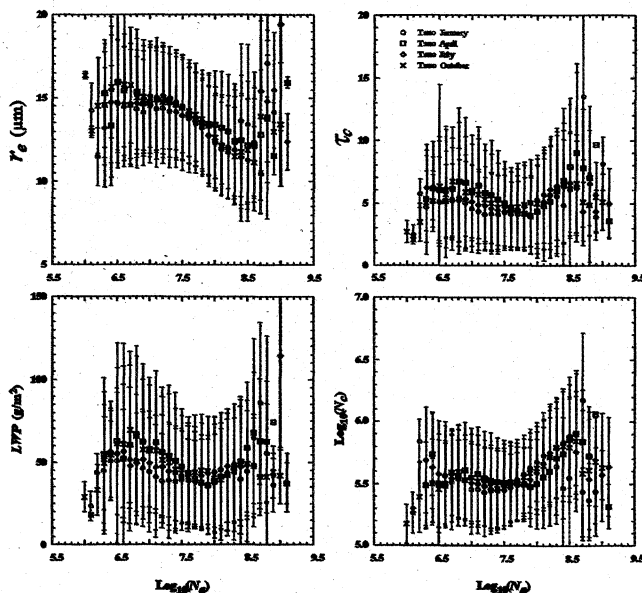
with  $a_r = 34.0-4.3$  and  $b_r = -2.65-0.50$ ;  $a_\tau = -21.4-9.4$  and  $b_\tau = 3.30-1.32$ ;  $a_N = 1.80-0.43$  and  $b_N = 0.50-0.07$ . Indicated uncertainties were evaluated by results from various sampling methods of clear and cloudy pixels with changing average period as a day, three days, and one month. Small uncertainties in the regression coefficients suggest these characteristic correlations are a persistent signature of the

indirect effect. On the other hand, LWP does not show a large trend. This behavior results from a cancellation of the negative and positive correlation of  $r_e$  and  $\tau_c$  with  $N_a$ . Thus, the increase of LWP on a global scale is not as significant as that observed for ship trails off the California coast which was as large as 200% for a doubling of the aerosol concentration [Radke *et al.*, 1989].

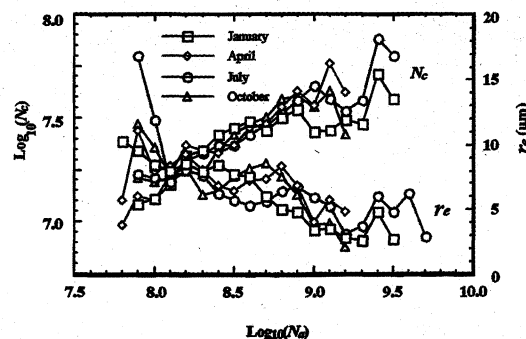
The linear relationship between  $\log_{10} N_a$  and  $\log_{10} N_c$  in Fig. 4 is consistent with Twomey's formula [Twomey, 1977; Kaufman *et al.*, 1991] with a slope of  $b_N = 0.50$ . This log-slope relation is smaller than the range of 0.7 to 0.8 summarized by Kaufman *et al.*, [1991], but larger than proposed value of fitting the data of Martin *et al.*, [1994]. (e.g. 0.26; c.f. Jones *et al.*, [1994]). Figure 5 shows a scatter plot of the relationship between  $\log_{10} N_c$  and  $\log_{10} N_a$  from a model simulation using the Grantour/CCM1 model [Penner *et al.*, 1999]. The present simulation does not include feedbacks to LWP from changes in droplet number. The figure shows that the Grantour/CCM1 model has a response for  $N_c$  that is positive throughout most of the range of  $\log_{10} N_a$  with  $a_r = 39.9$  and  $b_r = -3.85$ ;  $a_N = 3.25$  and  $b_N = 0.49$ . These values are comparable with those from the satellite results.

### 3. Discussion and conclusions

The correlation between satellite-derived aerosol number and cloud droplet number tells us that low clouds increase their shortwave reflectance with increasing cloud optical



**Figure 4.** Scatter plots of the cloud parameters,  $r_e$ ,  $\tau_c$ , LWP, and  $N_c$  as a function of  $N_a$ .  $N_a$  and  $N_c$  are in particles/cm<sup>2</sup>.



**Figure 5.** Scatter plots of  $N_c$  and  $r_e$  as a function of  $N_a$  determined from the model calculation.  $N_c$  and  $N_a$  are in particles/cm<sup>2</sup>.

thickness when the aerosol number increases above a critical value around  $N_a=1.0^{7.8}$ . This increase in  $\tau_c$  is caused mainly by the reduction in the effective cloud particle radius since on average there are insignificant changes in the LWP. The power law dependence of the cloud drop number concentration on aerosol number concentration is similar to that from the model calculation.

From the correlation presented by Eq. (4) and with a four-stream radiative transfer calculation, the perturbed shortwave cloud radiative forcing over ocean due to an aerosol increase is estimated as

$$\Delta crf = \Delta CRF/n - b_R \Delta \log_{10} N_a, \quad (5)$$

where  $n$  is the analyzed low level cloud amount over ocean. The slope is estimated as  $b_R = -30 - 8 \text{ W/m}^2$ . Using this relationship and normalizing by the ocean area results in a total estimated forcing over oceans of  $\Delta CRF = -0.7 - 0.2 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$  if we assume  $n=0.38$  and a 15% increase of anthropogenic aerosol particles [Charlson *et al.*, 1992]. Using the model estimated increase in aerosol number, e.g. 40% yields  $\Delta CRF = -1.7 - 0.4 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ . These values are comparable to model values from  $-1.69 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$  for the model results from Penner *et al.* [1999] to  $-0.73 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$  for the same model applied to the IPCC estimates for emissions [Penner and Zhang, 2000].

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