

Satellite-based Assessment of Possible Dust Aerosols Semi-Direct Effect on Cloud Water Path over East Asia

Jianping Huang¹, Bing Lin², Patrick Minnis², Tainhe Wang¹, Xin Wang¹,

Yongxiang Hu², Yuhong Yi³, and J. Kirk Ayers³

¹College of Atmospheric Sciences, Lanzhou University, Lanzhou, 730000

²NASA Langley Research Center, Hampton, VA, 23666

³AS & M, Hampton, One Enterprise Parkway, Hampton, VA, 23666

Abstract

The semi-direct effects of dust aerosols are analyzed over eastern Asia using 2 years (June 2002 to June 2004) of data from the Clouds and the Earth's Radiant Energy System (CERES) scanning radiometer and MODerate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) on the Aqua satellite, and 18 years (1984 to 2001) of International Satellite Cloud Climatology Project (ISCCP) data. The results show that the water path of dust-contaminated clouds is considerably smaller than that of dust-free clouds. The mean ice water path (IWP) and liquid water path (LWP) of dusty clouds are less than their dust-free counterparts by 23.7% and 49.8%, respectively. The long-term statistical relationship derived from ISCCP also confirms that there is significant negative correlation between dust storm index and ISCCP cloud water path. These results suggest that dust aerosols warm clouds, increase the evaporation of cloud droplets and further reduce cloud water path, the so-called semi-direct effect. The semi-direct effect may play a role in cloud development over arid and semi-arid areas of East Asia and contribute to the reduction of precipitation.

INDEX TERMS: 0320 Atmospheric Composition and Structure: Cloud physics and chemistry; 3359 Meteorology and Atmospheric Dynamics: Radiative process; 1620 Global Change: Climate dynamics (3309).

1. Introduction

Dust aerosols not only have direct effects on the climate through reflection and absorption of short and long wave radiation but also modify cloud properties, such as the number concentration and size of cloud droplets. This change in cloud properties, which could alter both cloud albedo and cloud lifetime [Twomey *et al.*, 1984; Ackerman *et al.*, 2000; Liu *et al.*, 2003] if the total cloud water content remained unaffected constitutes the indirect effect on climate [Penner *et al.*, 1992; Twomey, 1977]. Another important aspect of aerosols, especially absorbing aerosols, such as black carbon and mineral dust, is their semi-direct effect. Aerosol absorption at solar wavelengths could contribute to high diabatic heating in the atmosphere and enhance cloud evaporation [Ackerman *et al.*, 2000, Koren *et al.*, 2004; Kruger and Graßl, 2004].

The term ‘semi-direct effect’ was introduced by Hansen *et al.* [1997] to describe the impact of absorbing aerosols on clouds. A series of experiments with a simple general circulation model (GCM) showed that increased shortwave absorption could reduce relative humidity and subsequently decrease cloud cover. Similar results were later obtained by Cook and Highwood [2003] who used a more sophisticated GCM. When the aerosol-induced cloud feedbacks were included, the GCM-predicted warming increased from 2.5K to 2.9K. The additional warming was related to decreases in the fractional coverage of large-scale clouds, particularly at mid and high latitudes. The semi-direct aerosol effect was also investigated by Ackerman *et al.* [2000] using Large-Eddy-Simulations (LES) and observations from the Indian Ocean Experiment (INDOEX) during 1998-99. They found that absorbing aerosols reduced the relative humidity in the boundary layer and caused a 5 - 10 % reduction in cumulus cloud fraction. Lohmann and

Feichter [2001] provided the first assessment of the global annual mean aerosol semi-direct forcing using the European Center HAMburg 4 General Circulation Model (ECHAM4 GCM). The strong warming influence of absorbing aerosols was also emphasized by *Jacobson* [2002], who found a decrease in global averaged column liquid water and ice associated with the semi-direct effect.

Recently, special attention has been dedicated to cloud interactions with desert aerosol particles [*Rosenfeld et al.*, 2001; *Bréon et al.*, 2002; *DeMott et al.*, 2003; *Kawamoto and Nakajima*, 2003; *Huang et al.*, 2006]. However, the knowledge of the indirect and semi-direct effects of Asian dust aerosols on clouds is still very limited due to the lack of observations. A difficulty in substantiating aerosol effects on clouds is that cloud evolution can be profoundly affected not only by aerosols but also by cloud dynamics and thermodynamics. Since aerosol amounts and dynamical factors are often correlated, distinguishing between them requires either special circumstances, e.g., a uniform cloud field that is only perturbed in certain locations by aerosol sources, or statistical analysis of a sufficiently large amount of data in specific cloud dynamic regimes. This study follows both courses. Long term, multi-sensor and multi-platform satellite data are analyzed to evaluate the semi-direct effect of Asian dust aerosols on cloud properties.

2. Data

Two years (June 2002 to June 2004) of CERES Aqua Edition 1B SSF (Single Scanner Footprint) data are used here. CERES SSF data sets combine CERES radiation measurements, MODIS cloud microphysical retrievals, and ancillary meteorology fields to form a comprehensive, high-quality compilation of satellite-derived cloud, aerosol, and

radiation budget information for radiation and climate studies. There are about 140 parameters in the SSF data set. The current analysis uses three of the SSF parameters, IWP, LWP, and cloud top effective temperature (T_e), which were derived with the Visible-Infrared-Solar-infrared-Split-window Technique (VISST) [Minnis *et al.*, 2004].

The monthly mean cloud amounts from the ISCCP D2 dataset from 1984–2002 [Rossow and Schiffer, 1991] are also analyzed here. To combine the effect of the cloud optical depth (τ) and cloud amount (cloud fraction), the composite cloud albedos (CCA) [Matsui *et al.*, 2006, personal communication] are estimated using the formula:

$$CCA = \sum_i CF^i * \alpha_{cloud}^i, \quad (1)$$

where CF^i is the cloud amount for specific cloud type i , such as cirrus cloud in a $2.5^\circ \times 2.5^\circ$ box from ISCCP D2 dataset, and α_{cloud}^i is the cloud albedo, expressed as $\alpha_{cloud}^i = \tau^i / (\tau^i + 6.7)$ obtained from a two-stream radiative transfer model [Hobbs *et al.*, 1993].

Similar to Eq. (1), we can define the composite cloud water path (CWP) as

$$CWP = \sum_i CF^i * WP^i \quad (2)$$

where WP represents either the liquid water path for water clouds or ice water path for ice clouds.

3. Analysis and Results

To detect cloud modification induced by dust aerosols, the dusty cloud properties from CERES are compared with those from dust-free cases. The discrimination of dust storms and dust-free weather conditions is based on surface station observations over Northwest China (30°N - 50°N and 80°E - 110°E). If the surface station observed a dust storm in the region, the clouds in this region are defined as dusty clouds (hereafter, COD).

The clouds in the same weather system, without dust storms reported at the cloud site, are classified as dust-free cloud (hereafter, CLD). A total of 33 dust storm cases for January to May during the 2-year CERES period were selected based on the surface observations. During those months, the environment was generally cold with low-level ($< 2\text{km}$) clouds as cold as $\sim 260\text{K}$. The averaged surface skin temperature of the CLD regions for the 33 selected cases was 6.1°C less than that for the COD region since the dust storms were generally at the edges of cold fronts where surfaces are warmer than behind the fronts.

Figure 1 shows the IWP and LWP histograms derived from the CLD (black bar) and the COD (gray bar) datasets. . On average, the COD mean IWP and LWP are less than the corresponding CLD values by 23.7 and 49.8%, respectively. Another difference between these two categories is that 55% of the COD pixels have $\text{LWP} \leq 50 \text{ g/m}^2$ (Fig. 1b), while only 22% of the CLD pixels meet this condition. For $\text{LWP} > 50 \text{ g/m}^2$ (Fig. 1b), the COD frequencies are less than their CLD counterparts in most LWP bins. Since the CLD and COD regions were in the same cold frontal systems, and the CLD regions were colder than COD regions, and located in drier places (even within deserts), the moisture supply for cloud formation in CLD regions could not be larger than that in COD regions. Except that the COD occur at leading edge of fronts and therefore might have different characteristics than behind the front. The clouds formed in the CLD region should be thinner and with less water amount than that in the COD region. But observed results here are significantly different from the classical meteorology picture. Thus, the large decrease in IWP and LWP values of COD clouds cannot be explained by insufficient water vapor in the atmosphere or by moisture transports during the cloud formation. This difference suggests that the lower layer cloud evaporation caused by dust aerosol heating,

due to the aerosol absorption of solar radiation, plays a critical role in the cloud development.

To compare cloud properties at similar meteorological conditions the cloud water path in the CLD and COD categories were plotted as a function of T_e (Figure 2). Both the COD IWP (Fig. 2a) and LWP (Fig. 2b) are less than the corresponding values for dust-free clouds over the full range of observed cloud top temperatures ($225\text{ K} < T_e \leq 260\text{ K}$). In Fig. 2a, the variation of IWP shows that the ice cloud water path decreases with increasing T_e . The significant IWP difference between the CLD and COD clouds occurs throughout the full range of the ice cloud temperatures. For example, the CLD IWP is around 250 g/m^2 when $T_e = 245\text{ K}$, while the COD value is about 200 g/m^2 . For water clouds, the large difference between dust-free and dusty cloud water path can be found in middle layer clouds ($T_e \sim 250\text{ K}$). The LWP values in the COD category increase with T_e while the variations of CLD LWP are generally similar to those for CLD IWP and only decrease with increasing T_e . This indicates that the effects of dust aerosols are more significant on LWP in middle layer clouds, where upper layer aerosol heating due to the absorption of solar radiation may be strong and directly affect the cloud evaporation. Figures 1 and 2 suggest that the dusty cloud water paths are considerably smaller than those of dust-free clouds, which may be due to cloud evaporation caused by dust aerosol absorption or wet precipitation of dusts.

To study the long-term statistical relationship between dust storms and cloud properties, the dust storms index for the Taklamakan desert (38°N - 48°N , 78°E - 88°E) is studied and compared to ISCCP cloud properties. For each given month at each surface site, the index is defined as the number of days when dust storms occur during the month.

The Taklamakan dust storm index (TDI) used here is the averages index for 4 surface stations around Taklamakan. Because the Taklamakan is the major source of dust storms, the TDI can explain more than 60% of the dust storm activity over East Asia. The index increases with increased frequency and strength of the dust storms. Because both dust aerosol and cloud datasets contain large seasonal cycles, we have removed the climatological monthly means and considered only the monthly anomalies in this analysis.

For the 18 years of ISCCP and surface data, this analysis reveals that the composite cloud albedos (CCA) from ISCCP have statistically significant (correlation coefficient, r less than -0.26 for 95% significance and -0.33 for 99% significance) negative correlations with TDI in a large part of the studied area for total clouds (Fig. 3). The areas with significant negative correlation are basically in the north or northeast Asia where the atmosphere is generally dry and cold and rainfall is infrequent. In these areas, dust aerosol storms can have long lifecycles and significant interactions with cloud systems. In contrast, over wet and humid regions such as Southeast China, especially over Yangtze River basin, the ISCCP clouds and dust aerosols are generally uncorrelated. An explanation for this phenomenon is that the dust was either not transported to these regions or washed out quickly by local precipitation. The statistical analysis of TDI with CWP shows similar results to those with CCA suggesting that the dust aerosols may statistically reduce the cloud albedo due to changes in cloud water path (Fig. 4). These statistics may be explained by two potential causes. The first is that the mixture of dry air masses associated with dust storms in moist cloudy air masses could reduce relative humidity of the atmosphere and lower the condensed water amount. In this case, the dry

dust aerosols could also absorb moisture from cloudy layers, and become heavy particles that produce wet dust precipitation [Huang *et al.*, 2006]. The second could be that dust aerosols absorb incoming solar short wave radiation, which heats the cloud layer and increase evaporation, as previously discussed. The observed results may be a combination of the two causes. It can also be seen that significant positive correlations ($r > 0.26$, 95% significance level) between CCA and TDI exist in portions of Northeast Asia. The positive relationship tends to be strongest ($r > 0.33$, 99% significance level) for low-level clouds over the region bounded by 35°N - 45°N and 100°E - 110°E . The region of positive correlation contains areas typically behind dust storm cold frontal systems, where more clouds would be produced when more frequent and/or stronger cold frontal systems were passing through without dust formation.

Although the correlations seen in Figs. 3 and 4 can be explained by the two causes mentioned previously, we cannot eliminate the possibility that some meteorological factors are simultaneously forcing both dust aerosol and cloud changes. Our monthly anomaly analysis for long term and large regional datasets reduces the impact of potential meteorological factors in the explanation of the correlations. It is unlikely that the variability of these factors is similar to that of dust storms in basin size, and spatial and decadal temporal scales.

4. Conclusions and Discussions

Aerosols are generally believed to exert a cooling influence on climate directly by scattering solar radiation and through their indirect effects on clouds. However, the semi-direct effect has the potential to offset this cooling by reducing low cloud cover and water path. Although the potential importance of the semi-direct effect has been addressed by

model simulations, there are few reports discussing the semi-direct effect as seen from observational data. This study shows some evidence of the semi-direct effect of Asian dust aerosols on cloud properties. Analysis of the satellite observations indicates that, on average, the water path of dusty clouds is considerably smaller than that from dust-free clouds in the same frontal systems. The key issue may be related to the dust aerosol warming effect through the absorption of solar radiation. This effect may be less important for Saharan dust and unique to Asian dust because of differences in their compositions. The absorption or diabatic heating of Asian dusts can cause the evaporation of cloud droplets and reduce cloud water path. The observed reduction in cloud water amount is consistent with our previous case study [Huang *et al.*, 2006]. Due to the large spatial and temporal extent of desert dust in the atmosphere, the interactions of desert dust with clouds can have substantial climatic impacts. The decrease of cloud optical depth and water path partially reduces cloud cooling effect. Previous study indicates that the desert dust might contribute significantly to the observed reductions in cloud droplet size and precipitation over Africa [Rosenfeld *et al.*, 2001]. However, this study shows that semi-direct effect may be the dominating factor of dust aerosol-cloud interaction over arid and semi-arid areas in East Asia, and contribute to the reduction of precipitation via a significantly different mechanism as compared to that in Africa. Dust storms may have contributed to the desertification of the Northwest China during recent decades. The results presented here represent only a first step in better understanding the effect of Asian dust on climate. Further research should be focused on measurements of physical processes of aerosol-cloud interactions.

5. Acknowledgments

This research is supported by National Basic Research Program of China (2006CB400501) and NASA Science Mission through the CERES Project. The CERES SSF and ISCCP data were obtained from the NASA Earth Observing System Data and Information System, Distributed Active Archive Center (DAAC) at the Langley Research Center.

6. References

- Ackerman A. S., et al. (2000), Reduction of tropical cloudiness by soot, *Science*, 288, 1042 – 1047.
- Bréon, F.-M., D. Tanré, and S. Generoso (2002), Aerosol effect on cloud droplet size monitored from satellite, *Science*, 295, 834-838.
- Cook, J. and E.J. Highwood (2003), Climate response to tropospheric absorbing aerosol in an intermediate general-circulation model, *Q. J. R. Meteorol. Soc.* 130(596), 175-191, doi: 10.1256/qj.03.64
- DeMott, P. J., K. Sassen, M. Poellot, D. Baumgardner, D. C. Rogers, S. Brooks, A. J. Prenni, and S. M. Kreidenweis (2003), African dust aerosols as atmospheric ice nuclei. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 30, 1732, doi:10.1029/2003GL017410.
- Hansen, J. E., M. Sato, and R. Ruedy (1997), Radiative forcing and climate response, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 102, 6831–6864.
- Hobbs, P.V. (1993), Aerosol-Cloud Interactions, Elsevier Science & Technology Books Series: International Geophysics Series, 235 pp.
- Huang, J., et al. (2006), Possible influences of Asian dust aerosols on cloud properties and radiative forcing observed from MODIS and CERES, *Geophys Res. Lett.*, 33, 2005GL024724.

- Jacobson, M. Z. (2002), Control of fossil-fuel particulate black carbon and organic matter, possibly the most effective method of slowing global warming, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *107* (D19), 4410, doi: 10.1029/2001JD001376.
- Kawamoto, K., and T. Nakajima (2003), Seasonal variation of cloud particle size from AVHRR remote sensing, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, *30*, 1810-1813.
- Kruger, O., and H. Graßl (2004), Albedo reduction by absorbing aerosols over China, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, *30*, doi: 10.1029/2003GL019111
- Koren I., Y. J. Kaufman, L. A. Remer, and J. V. Marins (2004), Measurement of the Effect of amazon smoke on inhibition of cloud formation. *Science*, *303*, 1342-1345
- Liu, G., H. Shao, J. A. Coakley, J. A. Curry, J. A. Haggerty, and M. A. Tschudi (2003), Retrieval of cloud droplet size from visible and microwave radiometric measurements during INDOEX: Implication to aerosols' indirect radiative effect, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *108*(D1), 4006, doi:10.1029/2001JD001395.
- Minnis, P., D. F. Young, S. Sun-Mack, Q. Z. Trepte, R. R. Brown, S. Gibson, and P. Heck, 2004: Diurnal, seasonal, and interannual variations of cloud properties derived for CERES from imager data. *Proc. 13th AMS Conf. Satellite Oceanogr. and Meteorol.*, Norfolk, VA, Sept. 20-24, CD-ROM, P6.10
- Penner, J. E., R. E. Dickinson, and C. A. O'Neill (1992), Effects of aerosol from biomass burning on the global radiation budget, *Science*, *256*, 1432-1434.
- Rosenfeld, D., et al. (2001), Desert dust suppressing precipitation: A possible desertification feedback loop, *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, *98*(11), 5975–5980.

Rossow, W. B., and R. A. Schiffer (1991), ISCCP cloud data products, *Bull. Amer. Meteor. Soc.*, 72, 2–20.

Twomey, S. (1977), The influence of pollution on the shortwave albedo of clouds, *J. Atmos. Sci.*, 34, 1149– 1152.

Twomey, S., M. Piepgrass, and T. L. Wolfe (1984), An assessment of the impact of pollution on global cloud albedo, *Tellus, Ser. B*, 36, 356-366.

Lohmann, U. and J. Feichter (2001), Can the direct and semi-direct aerosol effect compete with the indirect effect on a global scale? *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 28, 159–161.

Figures Caption

Figure 1. Histogram comparison of the cloud water path over the dust-free cloud region (CLD, black bar), and overcast clouds over the dust region (COD, gray bar) for (a) IWP and (b) LWP. The histogram intervals are 50 g/m^2 for (a) and 25 g/m^2 for (b).

Figure 2. Comparison of the cloud water path over the CLD region with the COD region as a function of effective cloud top temperature T_e for (a) IWP and (b) LWP.

Figure 3. Distribution of correlation coefficients between monthly anomalies of Taklamakan dust storm index (TDI) and ISCCP composite cloud albedo (CCA) for total cloud.

Figure 4. Same as Figure 3 but for the composite water path (CWP) of total cloud.

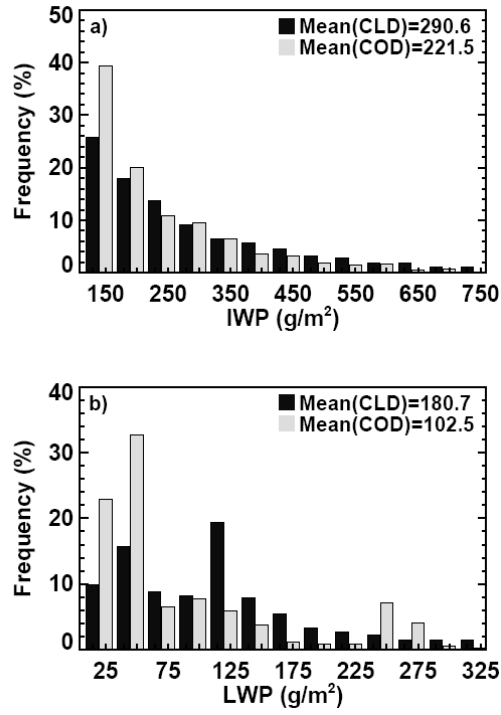


Figure 1. Histogram comparison of the cloud water path over the dust-free cloud region (CLD, black bar), and overcast clouds over the dust region (COD, gray bar) for (a) IWP and (b) LWP. The histogram intervals are 50 g/m² for (a) and 25 g/m² for (b).

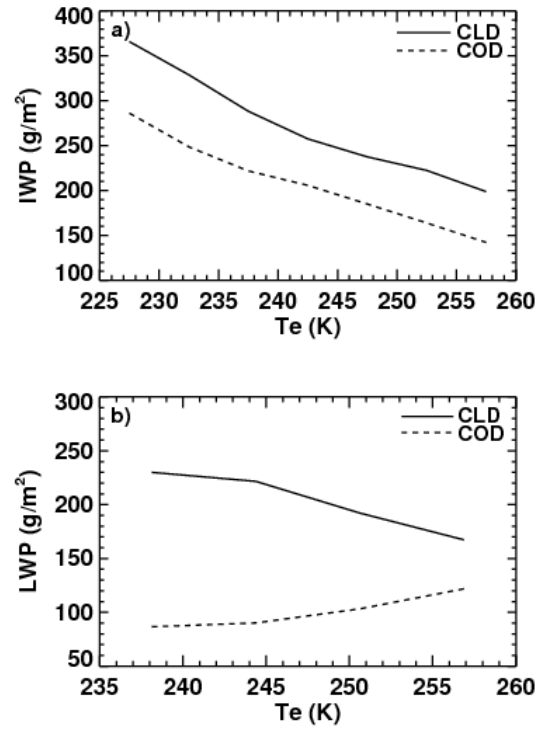


Figure 2. Comparison of the cloud water path over the CLD region with the COD region as a function of effective cloud top temperature T_e for (a) IWP and (b) LWP.

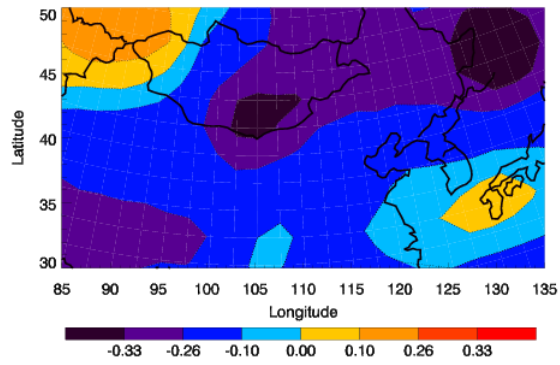


Figure 3. Distribution of correlation coefficients between monthly anomalies of Taklamakan dust storm index (TDI) and ISCCP composite cloud albedo (CCA) for total cloud.

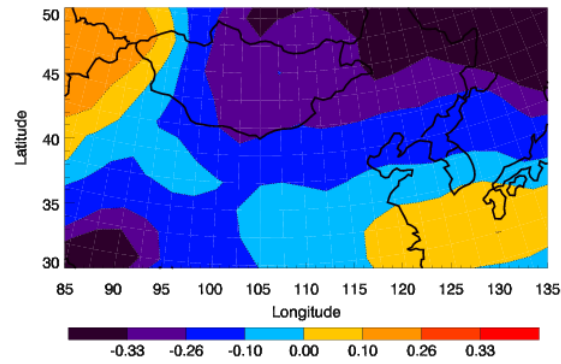


Figure 4. Same as Fig. 3 but for the composite water path (CWP) of total cloud.