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Aerosol specification in single-column CAM5

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Abstract

The ability to run a global climate model in single-column mode is very useful for testing model improvements because single-column models (SCMs) are inexpensive to run and easy to interpret. A major breakthrough in Version 5 of the Community Atmosphere Model (CAM5) is the inclusion of prognostic aerosol. Unfortunately, this improvement was not coordinated with the SCM version of CAM5 and as a result CAM5-SCM initializes aerosols to zero.

In this study we explore the impact of running CAM5-SCM with aerosol initialized to zero (hereafter named Default) and test three potential fixes. The first fix is to use CAM5's prescribed aerosol capability, which specifies aerosols at monthly climatological values. The second method is to prescribe aerosols at observed values. The third approach is to fix droplet and ice crystal numbers at prescribed values. We test our fixes in four different cloud regimes to ensure representativeness: subtropical drizzling stratocumulus (based on the DYCOMS RF02 case study), mixed-phase Arctic stratocumulus (using the MPACE-B case study), tropical shallow convection (using the RICO case study), and summertime mid-latitude continental convection (using the ARM95 case study).

Stratiform cloud cases (DYCOMS RF02 and MPACE-B) were found to have a strong dependence on aerosol concentration, while convective cases (RICO and ARM95) were relatively insensitive to aerosol specification. This is perhaps expected because convective schemes in CAM5 do not currently use aerosol information. Adequate liquid water content in the MPACE-B case was only maintained when ice crystal number concentration was specified because the Meyers et al. (1992) deposition/condensation ice nucleation scheme used by CAM5 greatly overpredicts ice nucleation rates, causing clouds to rapidly glaciate. Surprisingly, predicted droplet concentrations for the ARM95 region in both SCM and global runs were around 25 cm^{-3} , which is much lower than observed. This finding suggests that CAM5 has problems capturing aerosol effects in this climate regime.

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1 Introduction

The Single Column Model (SCM) version of Community Atmospheric Model (CAM) is a very important tool efficient development of model numerics and physics. Based on observed test cases, many SCM intercomparison studies of stratocumulus and cumulus cloud-top boundary layers have been undertaken with the goal of improving physical parameterizations of clouds and cloud-related processes and their interactions. A number of SCM intercomparison studies by the Global Energy and Water Experiment (GEWEX) Cloud Systems Study (GCSS) Boundary Layer Cloud Working Group (BLCWG) have been conducted to understand common biases in climate models. For example, one of the early SCM intercomparison studies (Moeng et al., 1996) simulated nocturnal non-precipitating stratocumulus clouds and showed that the LWP decreased substantially during the initial period of the simulation, which was explained by excessive dry air entrainment. Another SCM intercomparison simulations of the Second Dynamics and Chemistry of the Marine Stratocumulus field study (DYCOMS II) research flight RF01 (DYCOMSRF01) also showed low liquid water path (LWP) despite improvement of entrainment rates in the models (Zhu et al., 2005). SCM intercomparison of drizzling stratocumulus from the DYCOMS II research flight 02 (DYCOMSRF02) by vanZanten and Stevens (2005) tested the impact of drizzle in SCMs and found that drizzle decreased LWP substantially in most of the models. Another SCM study by Wyant et al. (2007) also carried out SCM intercomparison simulations for the DYCOMSRF02 case. They found that models need improvement in drizzle, sedimentation, and sub-cloud evaporation parameterizations. A recent SCM and cloud-resolving model intercomparison study by Klein et al. (2009) simulated the mixed-phase stratocumulus cloud observed during the Atmospheric Radiation Measurement (ARM) program's Mixed-Phase Arctic Cloud Experiment (MPACE-B). They found that models generally showed ice water path (IWP) in good agreement with observations while LWP was severely under predicted. This was attributed to the interaction between liquid and ice-phase microphysics suggesting the need to improve the representation of

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5 mixed-phase microphysics. Previous SCM and LES intercomparison studies were also undertaken for deep (ARM southern Great Plain (ARM SGP) site) and shallow (Rain in Cumulus over the Ocean (RICO)) convective cases. Ghan et al. (2000) performed an SCM intercomparison study for ARM SGP using eleven SCMs and found that no individual models stood out as superior, and the model ensemble showed close agreement with observations. A recent study by VanZanten et al. (2011) used twelve LES simulations to study the interplay between micro and macro physics processes in the evolution of clouds and precipitation, with a wide range of microphysical representations, during the undisturbed period of the RICO field study. Many features of their LES simulations generally agreed with observations. Similar thermodynamic and energetic behavior was produced as compared to previous studies based on SCMs.

10 A significant fraction of the uncertainties in climate projections results from the representation of aerosol (Houghton et al., 1996; Haywood and Boucher, 2000; Forster et al., 2007). Aerosols affect climate by directly absorbing and reflecting atmospheric radiation (known as the direct effect) and by changing cloud optical properties and lifetimes (known as aerosol indirect effects). As a result, development and testing of aerosol parameterizations have been a high priority in the climate modeling community.

15 The inclusion of the prognostic aerosol model in CAM had been a major breakthrough in its development (Abdul-Razzak and Ghan, 2000; Liu et al., 2012). However, CAM5-SCM has not been updated appropriately to handle the addition of prognostic aerosol in CAM. In particular, it initializes aerosol mass mixing ratios to zero. As a result, the default SCM release substantially underestimates IWP and LWP of the SCM simulations for a variety of cloud regimes.

20 In this study we test the impact of the zero aerosol initialization problem, and we introduce fixes for this issue. To ensure representativeness, we test SCM simulations for a variety of cloud regimes. The SCM cases used for this study include summertime mid-latitude continental convection (ARM95), shallow convection (RICO), subtropical drizzling stratocumulus (DYCOMSRF02), and multi-level Arctic clouds (MPACE-B). Results are analyzed and compared to observations and previous LES results.

2 Methods

2.1 SCAM5 setup

In this study we employed the SCM version of CAM5 (SCAM5), which consists of physics parameterizations driven by prescribed advective tendencies (Hack and Pe-

5 dretti, 2000). There are two types of clouds in SCAM5: stratus clouds with symmetric turbulent properties and cumulus clouds with vertically stretched shapes and asymmetric turbulence properties. We use the Morrison and Gettelman stratiform cloud microphysics scheme (Morrison and Gettelman, 2008) and the Park et al. (2014) macro-

10 physics scheme to model stratiform clouds. Deep convection is handled by the modified Zhang–McFarlane parameterization scheme (Zhang and McFarlane, 1995), and shallow convection is parameterized by the University of Washington shallow convection parameterization scheme (Park and Bretherton, 2009). Turbulence is handled fol-

15 lowing Bretherton and Park (2009). Radiation is calculated using the Rapid Radiative Transfer Model (RRTMG) radiation scheme (Mlawer et al., 1997).

CAM5 is the first version of CAM that was designed to simulate aerosol-cloud interactions. It has a three mode simplified modal aerosol model (MAM3) (Easter et al., 2004; Ghan et al., 2012) with Accumulation, Aitken, and Coarse modes. MAM3 is capable of treating complex aerosol physical, optical, and chemical processes and simulating

20 aerosol size, mass and number distributions. The aerosol size distribution is lognormal, and internal and external mixing between aerosol components is assumed in the model. As mentioned previously, this prognostic aerosol model in SCAM5 mode initializes the mass-mixing ratio of the different aerosol species to zero. Hence we test other

fixes to solve this problem as described below.

- 25 1. The first method we employed is to fix cloud droplet (N_d) and ice crystal (N_i) concentration (hereafter called FixHydro). This case is the setup in default SCAM5 with prognostic MAM3 but N_d and N_i values are prescribed before the

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microphysics call. We then set N_d and N_i tendencies inside the microphysics to zero, which keeps the value of N_d and N_i to their corresponding prescribed values.

- The second method (hereafter called PrescAero) uses the new prescribed aerosol capability included in Community Earth System Model (CESM) version 1.2. PrescAero prescribes mass mixing ratios of aerosol species using mean climatological values for each month of the year and for each grid cell (based on results from a long prognostic aerosol run). By default prescribed aerosol values are actually specified by daily random draws from a lognormal distribution centered on climatological average values. We turn this random sampling off for SCAM5 because this sampling makes SCAM runs irreproducible and provides occasionally odd values. Random sampling is not needed in the tropics, but may be required to reproduce CAM5 polar climate, in which case ensembles of SCAM5 runs are probably needed.
- The last method we employed is the observed aerosol case where we use observed mixing ratios and size distributions of the aerosols in MAM3. This method (hereafter named obsAero) modifies the PrescAero methodology to instead use observed mass mixing ratios of the different aerosol species for all the modes. To use this mode, observed values are needed for parameters N_j , a_{mj} , and σ_j for the multimode lognormal aerosol size distribution given by the following equation (Abdul-Razzak and Ghan, 2000):

$$\frac{dn}{da} = \sum_{j=1}^l \frac{N_j}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_j} \exp \left\{ -\frac{\ln^2 \left(\frac{a}{a_{mj}} \right)}{2\ln^2 \sigma_j} \right\}, \quad (1)$$

where N_j , a_{mj} , and σ_j are the number concentrations of the aerosol mode, the geometric mean dry radius, and the geometric standard deviation of aerosol mode j , respectively.

2.2 SCAM cases

In an attempt to test aerosol effects over the full range of cloud types, we tested our fixes using case studies from four different cloud regimes. We set up four SCAM5 case simulations using the Default configuration and each of the three different fixes discussed in the previous section. The idealization and setup of each case is based on several SCM and LES intercomparison studies conducted for each of the four different cloud regimes. The details of the experiments conducted are summarized below.

a. a.DYCOMS RF02 case

On 11 July 1999, DYCOMSRF02 sampled drizzling stratocumulus off the coast of California. Measurements from this flight formed the basis for large eddy simulation (LES) and SCM intercomparisons by Ackerman et al. (2009) and Wyant et al. (2007), respectively. For this paper we used an experimental configuration similar to Wyant et al. (2007). Subtropical stratocumulus are important because of all cloud types they have the biggest impact on the planetary radiation budget (Hartmann et al., 1992), and difficulty in simulating them is the leading source of uncertainty in climate sensitivity (Bony and Dufresne, 2005).

Like Wyant et al. (2007), for maintaining an approximate balance between radiative cooling and subsidence warming above the inversion, a constant divergence with a value $3.75 \times 10^{-6} \text{ s}^{-1}$ was used to create an omega profile in the DYCOMSRF02 case, the RRMTG shortwave radiation was turned off, and we ran our simulations for 6 h. Constant surface latent and sensible heat flux values of 93 and 16 W m^{-2} (respectively) were imposed based on observed mean values from vanZanten and Stevens (2005).

Unlike Wyant et al. (2007), the default RRMTG longwave radiation code was used instead of applying an idealized radiation scheme. We also kept u and v for our simulations constant. Cloud processes were turned off above 700 hPa in order to

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balanced. Like vanZanten et al. (2011), piecewise linear profiles of u , v , ω , and large-scale forcings of heat and moisture were used. The u value used was -1.9 ms^{-1} near the surface linearly increasing to -9.9 ms^{-1} at the top of the boundary layer. The v value was kept constant to -3.8 ms^{-1} . We used a subsidence rate (w_s), which linearly increased from 0 to -0.5 cm s^{-1} to about 2.2 km and was constant from this level to 4 km , then decreased linearly to zero at the TOA. The large-scale heat forcing was kept constant at a value of -2.5 K day^{-1} , and the moisture forcing profile increased from $-1 \text{ g kg}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$ close to the surface to $0.3456 \text{ g kg}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$ at about 3 km and was fixed at that value throughout the free troposphere. The driving conditions were created by averaging observations over 16 December 2004 to 8 January 2005.

For the FixHydro case, an observed N_d value of 70 cm^{-3} was used (vanZanten et al., 2011). For the ObsAero case, the aerosol mass mixing ratios of the three modes were diagnosed from the number mixing ratio and two log-normal size distributions (Eq. 1) assumed to consist of SO_4 with dry density of 1.77 g cm^{-3} . We also used a total number, mode radius, and geometric standard deviation 90 cm^{-3} , $0.03 \mu\text{m}$, and 1.28 for the aiten mode; 150 cm^{-3} , $0.14 \mu\text{m}$, and 1.75 for the accumulation mode. Coarse aerosol mass is assumed to be zero. This specification is recommended by vanZanten et al. (2011).

d. d.ARM95

The ARM95 included because it is the default case, which has long been included with CAM releases. It is also an example of continental convection, which is an important climate regime. The ARM95 case tests the deep convection scheme and to some extent the mixed-phase cloud processes. The case spans 18 July to 3 August 1995, and we used the full shortwave and longwave radiation. Advection forcing was generated by the State University of New York (SUNY) objective analysis method and the surface fluxes were estimated using Doran et al. (1998) surface analysis technique by the Simple Biosphere (SiB2) model (Ghan et al.,

2000). For this case we only simulated the Default and PrescAero cases because N_d/N_i , and aerosol concentration are unknown.

All the cases were run at the default time step of 1200 s and 30 vertical grid levels with 20 levels in the free troposphere. We carried out four simulations each for DYCOMSRF02, MPACE-B, and RICO and two simulations for ARM95. Results from each method and each case are discussed in the four sections below.

3 Results and discussion

a. a.DYCOMS RF02

Table 1 shows observed and modeled cloud-related variables averaged during the last two hours of the six hour DYCOMS RF02 simulations. In addition to N_d , and surface precipitation (Pr), we include the liquid water path both before and after microphysics was called (LWP_{pre} and LWP_{post} , respectively). These values are different because CAM5 sequentially updates the model state after each parameterization is applied. As described in Gettelman et al. (2014), LWP_{pre} is often much bigger than LWP_{post} because sequential updating leaves microphysical depletion acting over an inappropriately long time step. We also include cloud base z_b computed by interpolating the level where cloud fraction first rises about 0.5 and cloud top height z_i computed by interpolation the highest level where the total water mixing ratio drops below 8 g kg^{-1} . Cloud top entrainment velocity $w_e = \delta z_i / \delta t - w_s$ was also computed.

The Default case underestimated the observed N_d (which was 55 cm^{-3}), while ObsAero and particularly PrescAero overestimated N_d . As expected, runs with higher N_d tend to precipitate less and as a result have higher LWP. LWP computed before microphysics is too high except for the Default case. Values after microphysics show more variability, with the Default case being too low and the FixHydro and PrescAero being too high. Difference between pre- and post-microphysics

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values illustrate the difficulty of interpreting output from sequentially-split climate models.

Cloud base and cloud top were both slightly higher than observed yet entrainment was much smaller than observed. This suggests that the subsidence we imposed may be too weak. Surface precipitation is too weak when realistic N_d is used. This could be due to excessive re-evaporation of precipitation below the cloud base. This is consistent with the fact that the ObsAero and FixHydro models have the highest below-cloud base evaporation of precipitation given by 5.85×10^{-8} and $4.45 \text{ kg kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ respectively, while the Default and PrescAero have lower values (3.62×10^{-8} , and $1.33 \times 10^{-8} \text{ kg kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, respectively).

Figure 1a shows N_d profiles of the different aerosol specification cases averaged over the last two hours of the simulation period. We have also included the 10 year July average N_d profile of the corresponding 3-D CAM5 run in which N_d values were extracted at the closest grid point to the DYCOMSRF02 location. All SCM cases showed higher N_d values at the cloud base and slightly lower values at the cloud top. This is inconsistent with observations, which tend to show constant values throughout the cloud (e.g. Martin et al., 1994). The Default model showed the lowest N_d values (an average of 33 cm^{-3}). This is probably due to the zero aerosol initialization; aerosol in the run increased as the simulation progressed due to emission sources. The PrescAero case showed highest N_d values (an average of 139 cm^{-3}) and the highest total aerosol burden, while the obseAero case showed slightly higher N_d values (an average of 74 cm^{-3}) as compared to the observations (an average of 55 cm^{-3}), even though it had lower aerosol burden. The 3-D model N_d values are as high as the PrescAero case; however, there is a shift of the whole profile towards the surface, suggesting a collapsed boundary layer.

Even though stratocumulus are non-convective clouds, shallow convection is triggered occasionally, with higher frequency in the Default case than the other cases.

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Detrainment from this convection is a major source of N_d in some simulations. This occurs because CAM5 detrains droplet numbers according to a fixed droplet mean volume radius assumption rather than considering the actual droplet or aerosol availability. As a result, the convective detrainment from cloud top increased the in-cloud N_d values. In order to separate the number of droplets generated by activation and convective detrainment we conducted another set of sensitivity experiments where vapor rather than condensate is detrained from convection. N_d profiles from these experiments are shown in Fig. 1b. This figure reveals that almost all the droplets in the Default case are created by convective detrainment due to zero aerosol initialization. In the PrescAero and ObsAero cases activation dominates, though detrainment increases the total N_d in all cases, especially near the cloud top.

N_d of DYCOMSRF02 case correlates well with the total aerosol burden. The PrescAero case has the highest aerosol burden resulting in high values of N_d , while the zero-aerosol initialized Default case has the lowest. The ObsAero case has higher aerosol burden in the accumulation and aiten modes resulting in N_d values slightly higher than observed.

Figure 2 shows the temporal evolution of the LWP_{pre} and LWP_{post} of the DYCOMSRF02 case. There is high variability of LWP during the first few hours in all cases, with the highest variability in the Default case. During the last two hours this case performed worst and showed low LWP due to low N_d that caused clouds to precipitate out. The FixHydro and ObsAero cases showed good agreement as compared to the observational ranges. The PrescAero case had higher LWP due to higher N_d values.

In summary, the DYCOMSRF02 case shows strong sensitivity to aerosol specification. In the Default case, detrainment from shallow convection is a major source of N_d , which limits sensitivity to aerosol burden. In other cases, higher aerosol burden translates to higher droplet concentration.

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b. b.MPACE-B

Table 2 shows the observed and modeled cloud-related variables averaged during the last four hours of the MPACE-B case. The variables are N_i , N_d , LWP, IWP, w_e , z_b , z_i , and surf Pr. The N_i values for the Default, PrescAero, and ObsAero cases are 0.4, 0.7, and 0.6 L^{-1} , respectively. All of these cases overestimated the observed N_i value (0.16 L^{-1}). Aircraft and ground based remote sensors observed the existence of boundary layer mixed-phase clouds, which contained liquid and ice and were capped by a weak inversion with a cloud top temperature of about -15°C (Klein et al., 2009). However, except for the FixHydro case all simulations produced not liquid. This is because ice removes all supersaturated vapor (and liquid) when crystal numbers are too high. The FixHydro case showed reasonable LWP (133 g m^{-2}) and w_e ($12.37 \text{ mm day}^{-1}$) due to the realistic use of N_d and N_i ; however, it underestimated the IWP (0.63 g m^{-2}) and overestimated z_b (1783 m) and surf Pr (0.5 mm day^{-1}).

Figure 3 shows MPACE-B profiles of liquid water content (LWC) and ice water content (IWC) including and excluding snow mass as a function of scaled height, before and after micro-physics. The dark-shaded region, light-shaded region, and black solid line depict the median value, the inner 50%, and the outer 50% envelope of the high frequency observed aircraft data respectively, from Klein et al. (2009). Before microphysics, a reasonable amount of liquid water is shown by the FixHydro case, while the other cases showed shallower cloud and smaller amounts of liquid water (Fig. 3a). After the execution of microphysics, except for the FixHydro case, the microphysics physics removed all the liquid water in the other three models, resulting in complete depletion of liquid water. All cases showed good agreement of IWC as compared to aircraft observations (Fig. 3b and c), with some overestimation of IWC by the FixHydro case. The microphysics slightly removed some IWC from the Default case but did not make any change to the three other cases (Fig. 3b and c). However, IWC consists entirely of snow

except for the FixHydro case, which showed some cloud ice before microphysics (Fig. 3d).

Figure 4 shows the N_i profiles of the different cases averaged over the last four hours of the MPACE-B period. We have also included the 10 years October 2004 average N_i profile values of the 20 min timestep, 30 levels, 3-D CAM run, and values extracted at the closest grid point to the MPACE-B location. Except for the FixHydro case all the other cases overestimated N_i . Despite the difference in the aerosol burden, the Default, PrescAero, and ObsAero cases showed no sensitivity to the aerosol specification except for slightly higher N_i values for the ObsAero case. Similarly, except for the FixHydro case, which had N_d value of 50 cm^{-3} , all the other cases showed N_d value of zero due to the complete depletion of liquid water by the microphysics discussed above. However, all the cases simulated cloud fraction well as compared to aircraft and remote sensing observation (Fig. 5). Reasonable cloud fraction yet zero cloud condensate is possible in CAM5 because cloud fraction is computed before microphysics and is unchanged by physical processes, while cloud mass is affected by subsequent processes.

There exist large uncertainties in the representation of the ice nucleation processes in climate models. In CAM, homogeneous and heterogeneous (deposition, condensation freezing, contact freezing, and immersion freezing) ice nucleation processes in the mixed-phase regime ($-40 < T < -3^\circ\text{C}$) are represented as follows.

Deposition/condensation freezing ice nucleation process is represented by the Meyers et al. (1992) empirical formulation, which only depends on temperature and saturation vapor pressure. Similarly, immersion freezing is prescribed using the formulation of Bigg (1953) and contact freezing on dust is represented using the formulation of Young (1974). Detailed literature of ice nucleation formulation and parameterization for cirrus and mixed phase clouds can be found in Gettelman et al. (2012).

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In our SCM simulation of MPACEB, N_i did not show any sensitivity to aerosol specification. This is due to the dominance of the Meyers et al. (1992) deposition/condensation freezing ice nucleation, which does not use explicit aerosol information but only depends on an empirical formulation using temperature and saturation vapor pressure. The other ice nucleation processes did not produce any N_i . The Meyers deposition/condensational freezing depleted all the liquid to form overestimated N_i regardless of the aerosol specification. As a result, activation did not produce any liquid droplets due to the total liquid water depletion.

c. c.RICO

Table 3 shows the averages of N_d , SHF, LHF, Cloud Base Mass Flux (CBMF), Cloud Cover (CLC), and LWP during the last four hours of the 24 h simulation of the RICO case for the four model simulations and from vanZanten et al. (2011) LES results. We use LES as a proxy for truth here because this case is idealized and thus not comparable to observations from any particular time. All the model runs from this study showed similar N_d , SHF, LHF, CBMF, CLC, and LWP values when compared to one another. The Default, PrescAero, and ObsAero cases showed an average N_d value of 51 cm^{-3} , which slightly underestimated the LES value (70 cm^{-3}), which is a best estimate of an average value from flight measurements using the Fast Forward Scattering Spectrometer Probe (FFSSP) during four flights, with measurements ranging from 50 to 100 cm^{-3} (vanZanten et al., 2011; Brenguier et al., 1998). On average all the runs overestimated the LHF (12.7 W m^{-2}), LHF (207.9 W m^{-2}), and CBMF (0.06 m s^{-1}) as compared to the LES value (8.5 W m^{-2} , 158 W m^{-2} , 0.026 m s^{-1}), respectively. All the models simulated CLC (0.18), and LWP (19.4 g m^{-2}) very well as compared to LES, (0.19) and (19 g m^{-2}), respectively. The time series of the LWP shown in Fig. 6 also depicts high variability during the spin-up period and good agreement with LES after 15:00 UTC for all models.

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because deep convection is being triggered and the runs showed deeper clouds due to the deep convective cloud fraction (Fig. 9). Non of the runs show sensitivity of mass flux, condensate, and cloud fraction to aerosol specification.

In summary, the RICO runs did not show sensitivity to aerosol specification except at the cloud base where activation dominates and more droplets are formed as the aerosol burden increases. At the cloud top, detrainment is dominant and regardless of the aerosol burden the N_d profiles are similar.

d. d.ARM95

The last case is based on ARM SGP site and spans 17 days starting 18 July to 4 August 1995. It was chosen because it is the default SCM case distributed with CAM5. This case is the basis of the Ghan et al. (2000) SCM intercomparison. Only the Default and the PrescAero cases are simulated due to lack of observed N_d , N_i and aerosol data.

This case spans 3 different weather regimes. Due to the existence of a large-scale stationary upper-level trough over the continental US during the first ten-day period, there existed variable cloud cover and precipitation every other day. There followed a 3 day period of high pressure and clear skies, and the final 7 days consisted of stormy weather with high cloud cover and intense precipitation.

Figure 10 shows the time series of LWP and IWP for the Default and PrescAero cases. The time series of the LWP observations are also plotted from Xu and Randall (2000). Generally, SCAM over estimated LWP at all periods. Both runs showed comparable LWP, IWP, and surface precipitation (Fig. 10) as well as N_d (Fig. 11). Aerosol optical depth in the visible range was 0.163 for PrescAero and only 0.081 for the Default case, however, indicating that the ARM95 case is insensitive to aerosol specification. As noted above, this result is not surprising since CAM's convective schemes do not use aerosol information. More surprising, however, is the fact that N_d for the SGP region from both SCM and GCM simulations is $\sim 25 \text{ cm}^{-3}$, a factor of 8 smaller than typically observed in this region (e.g.

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Iacobellis and Somerville, 2006). This is a major bias in cloud properties which likely has significant negative effects on climate simulations.

4 Summary and conclusions

In this study we identified a problem with SCAM5 in its default configuration and introduced fixes to the identified problem. We used three new aerosol specification methods in our SCM simulations. The aerosol cases considered are Default case (with prognostic aerosol, initialized to zero), PrescAero case (with monthly climatological aerosol values), ObsAerosol case (with aerosols from observations), and the FixHydro case (with fixed droplet and ice crystal concentrations). We use SCM simulations for a variety of cloud regimes. The sites used for these studies include summertime mid-latitude continental convection (ARM95), shallow convection (RICO), subtropical drizzling stratocumulus (DYCOMSRF02), and multi-level Arctic clouds (MPACE-B).

The DYCOMSRF02 case shows strong sensitivity to aerosol specification. Activation dominates over convective detrainment so a number of droplets are formed when you have higher aerosol burden. Convection does occur in all runs, however, and convective detrainment is source of N_d in all cases, regardless of the aerosol specification. Default aerosol treatment in DYCOMSRF02 produced greatly underestimated N_d and LWP. All proposed fixes substantially improve N_d and LWP.

In MPACE-B, N_i was too large and was insensitive to aerosol specification in all cases except FixHydro. This is due to the dominance of the Meyers et al. (1992) deposition/condensation freezing ice nucleation, which does not use aerosol information but only depends on empirical formulation using temperature and saturation vapor pressure. The other ice nucleation processes did not produce any N_i . The Meyers deposition/condensational freezing was also too strong, causing all supersaturated vapor to freeze. This resulted in zero LWP for all cases except FixHydro, which had LWP value of 30 g m^{-2} (in agreement with observations).

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The RICO case did not show sensitivity to aerosol specification except at the cloud base where activation dominates and more droplets are formed as the aerosol burden increases. At the cloud top, convective detrainment is the dominant source of droplets, and regardless of the aerosol burden the number of droplets is similar. Detrainment seems to be too strong near cloud base, resulting in profile with too much cloud near cloud base and too little above.

The deep-convection ARM95 case also did not show any sensitivity to aerosol specification. Droplet number for both SCM and GCM runs at ARM95 were consistently 25 cm^{-3} , which is much lower than expected over land. This indicates a problem with aerosol specification in this region.

In summary, stratiform cloud cases (DYCOMS RF02 and MPACE-B) were found to have a strong dependence on aerosol concentration, while convective cases (RICO and ARM95) were relatively insensitive to aerosol specification. This is perhaps expected because convective schemes in CAM5 do not currently use aerosol information. Adequate liquid water content in the MPACE-B case was only maintained when ice crystal number concentration was specified because the Meyers et al. (1992) deposition/condensation ice nucleation scheme used by CAM5 greatly overpredicts ice nucleation rates, causing clouds to rapidly glaciate. Surprisingly, predicted droplet concentrations for the ARM95 region in both SCM and global runs were around 25 cm^{-3} , which is much lower than observed. This finding suggests that CAM5 has problems capturing aerosol effects in this region.

Acknowledgements. We thank the Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory (LLNL) for providing funding through the Scientific Discovery through Advanced Computing (SciDAC) project. The SCM simulations were performed using computing resources provided by LLNL. The research reported here was supported by DOE award 33871/SCW1316-BER and was performed under the auspices of the United States Department of Energy by Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory under contract DE-AC52-07NA27344.

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Table 1. Averages of N_d , N_i , w_e , z_b , z_i , and Surf Pr during the last two hours of the 6 h DY-COMSRF02 simulations. The observations are from Wyant et al. (2007).

	N_d (cm^{-3}), N_i (L^{-1})	LWP_{pre} (g m^{-2})	LWP_{post} (g m^{-2})	w_e (mm s^{-1})	z_b (m)	z_i (m)	Surf Pr (mm day^{-1})
Observation	55, 0	80–120	80–120	6–7.6	~ 450	~ 800	0.35
Default	33, 0	103	73	4.2	475	803	0.31
PrescAero	139, 0	137	126	4.0	473	816	0.04
ObsAero	74, 0	146	119	3.4	492	815	8.5×10^{-6}
FixHydro	55, 0	174	145	3.6	465	818	6.9×10^{-6}

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Table 2. Averages of N_d , N_i , w_e , z_b , z_i , and Surf Pr during the last four hours of the 12 h MPACED case simulations. The observations are from Klein et al. (2009).

	N_i (L^{-1}), N_d (cm^{-3})	LWP ($g\ m^{-2}$)	IWP ($g\ m^{-2}$)	w_e ($mm\ s^{-1}$)	z_b (m)	z_i (m)	Surf Pr ($mm\ day^{-1}$)
Observation	0.16, 50	110–210	8–30		600	1500	0.25
Default	0.4, 0	3.96×10^{-9}	0.022	11.46	918	1476	0.82
PrescAero	0.7, 0	3.69×10^{-9}	0.018	15.37	984	1537	0.69
ObsAero	0.6, 0	3.64×10^{-9}	0.014	15.37	985	1537	0.68
FixHydro	0.16, 50	133	0.63	12.37	872	1783	0.50

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Table 3. Averages of N_d , SHF, LHF, CBMF, Cloud Cover, and LWP during the last four hours of the 24 h simulations at RICO. LES data are from vanZanten et al. (2011).

	$N_d(\text{cm}^{-3})$	SHF (W m^{-2})	LHF (W m^{-2})	CBMF (m s^{-1})	Cloud Cover	LWP (g m^{-2})
LES	70	8.5	158	0.026	0.19	19
Default	30	12.29	207.81	0.06	0.18	19.0
PrescAero	32	12.41	207.94	0.06	0.18	19.2
ObsAero	14	12.42	207.83	0.06	0.18	19.8
FixHydro	70	12.37	207.83	0.06	0.18	19.6

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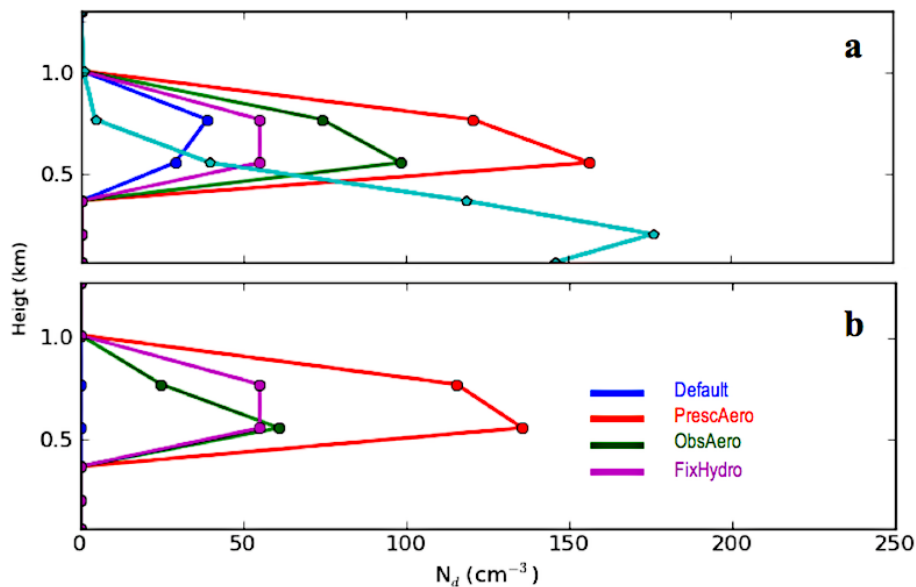


Figure 1. Profiles of in-cloud droplet number concentrations (N_d) for DYCOMSRF02. 3-D CAM values are 10 years July average global CAM extracted at the location of DYCOMSRF02. **(a)** Convective detrainment turned on **(b)** convective detrainment turned off.

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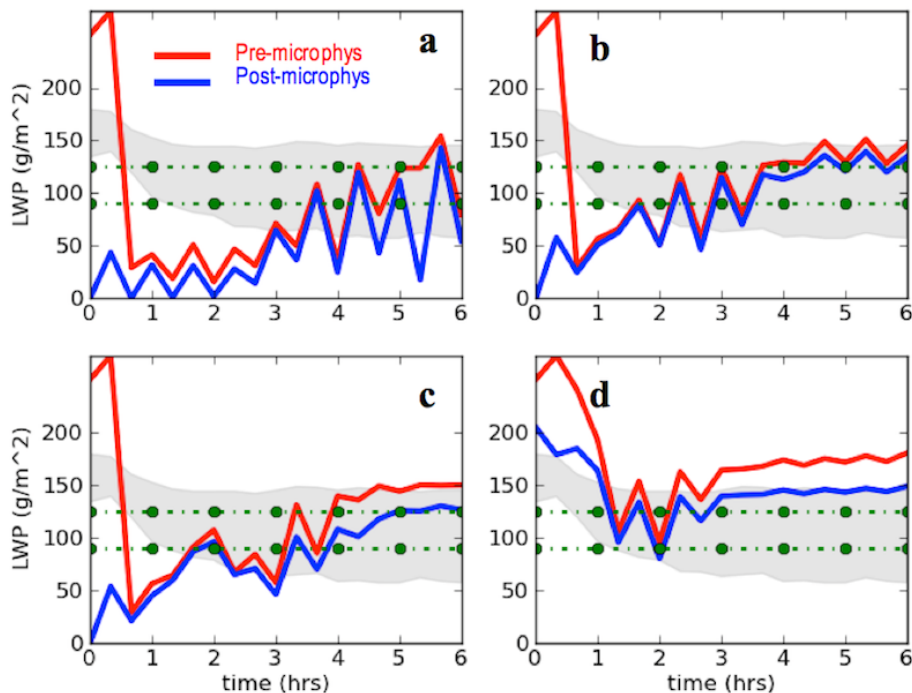


Figure 2. Time series of liquid water path (LWP) for DYCOMSRF02 case for the 6 h simulation period. Red = before microphysics; Blue = after microphysics. The shaded area indicates the range of the LES values averaged over the last 4 h of the simulation period (Stevens and Seifert, 2008). The dots indicate the approximate measurement (what the measurements are) ranges (from Stevens et al., 2003). **(a)** Default case, **(b)** PrescAero case, **(c)** ObsAero case and **(d)** FixHydro case.

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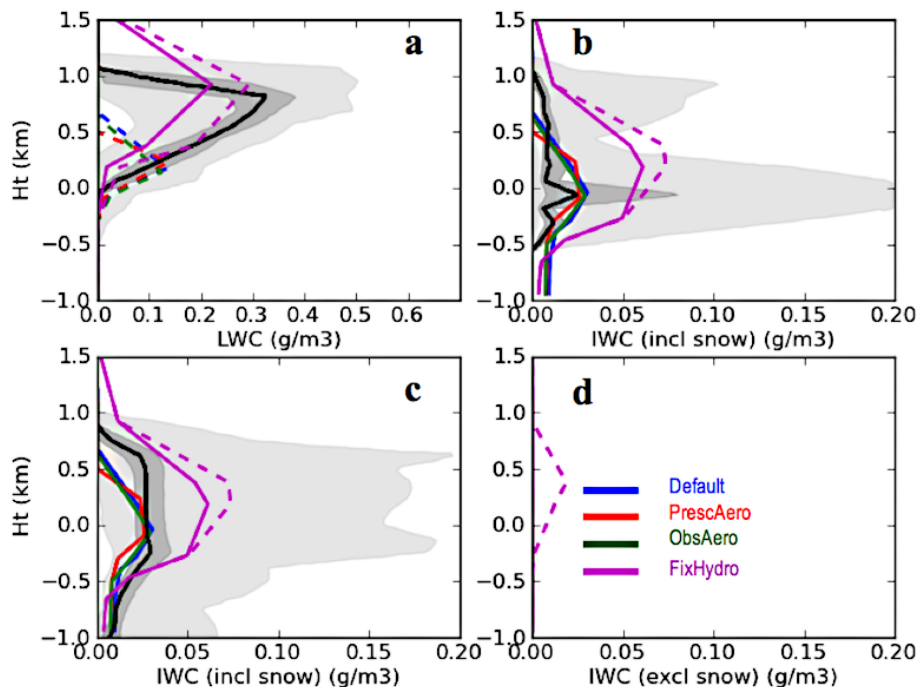


Figure 3. Profiles of liquid water content (LWC) and ice water content (IWC) as function of scaled height ($z/z_b - 1$) for MPACEB. Dashed lines indicate values before microphysics and solid lines indicate values after microphysics. **(a)** LWC profiles as function of scaled height. Dark shaded region ranges, light shaded region and black solid line depict the median value, the inner 50 % and the outer 50 % the envelope of the high frequency observed aircraft data respectively (from Klein et al., 2009). **(b)** The same as Fig. 3a but for IWC (including snow). **(c)** Same as Fig. 6a but using radar data as observations. **(d)** Same as Fig. 3a but excluding snow.

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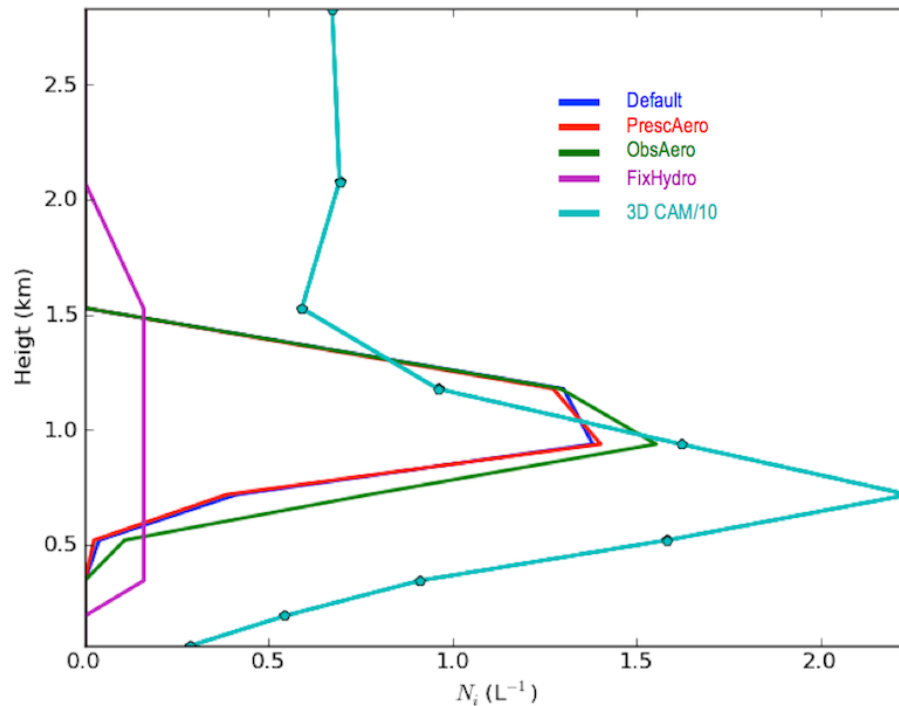



Figure 4. Profiles of in-cloud N_i values for MPACE-B case. 3-D CAM values are 10 years July average global CAM extracted at the location of MPACE-B. Note: N_i values (3-D CAM N_i are divided by 10 to fit in the plot).

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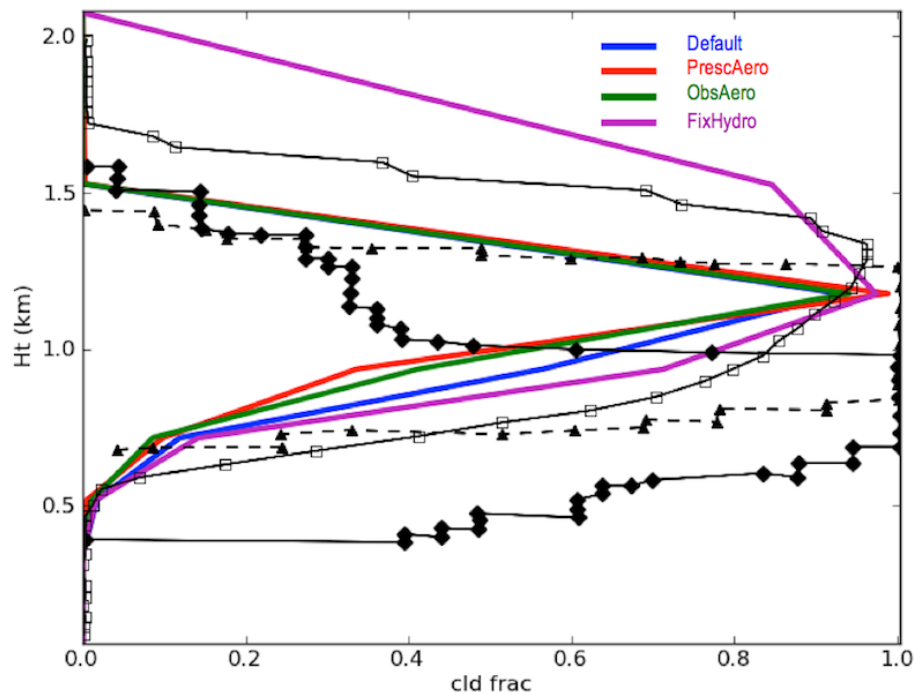


Figure 5. Time-averaged profiles of cloud cover from models and observations as function of height during the MPACE IOP period. The observations panel depicts the fraction of time at each height that cloud was observed from remote sensors (black line with open squares) at Barrow (SHUPE-TURNER) and the two aircraft flights (aircraft 1 dashed line with solid triangle, aircraft 2 solid line with solid diamond). Observations are from Klein et al. (2009).

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Aerosol specification in single-column CAM5

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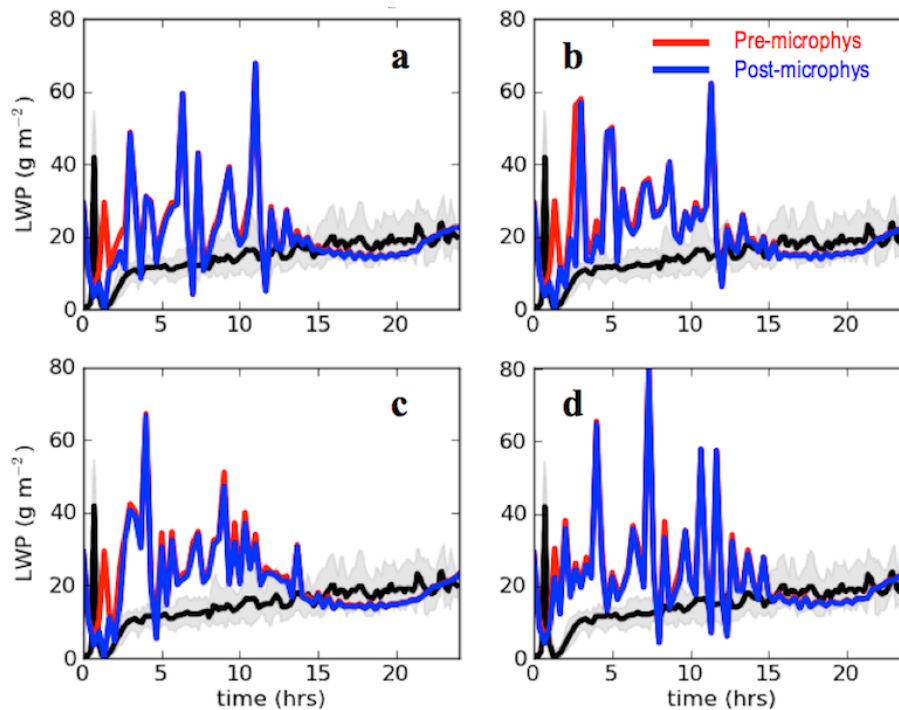


Figure 6. Time series of liquid water path (LWP) during the RICO IOP period. Red = before microphysics and Blue = after microphysics. (a) Default case, (b) PrescAero case, (c) ObsAero case and (d) FixHydro case.

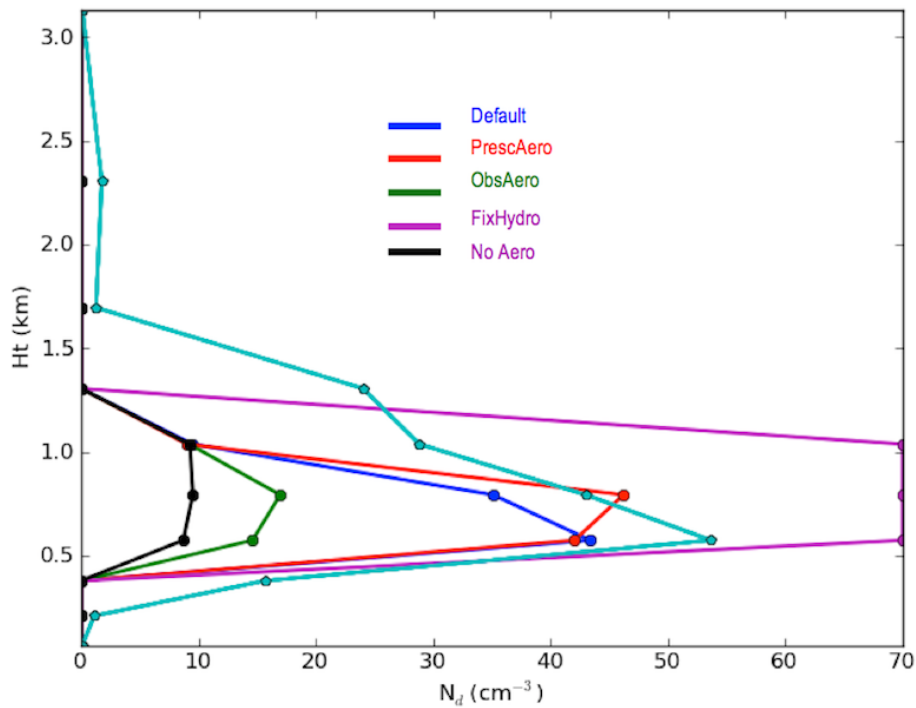


Figure 7. The same as Fig. 1 but for RICO case.

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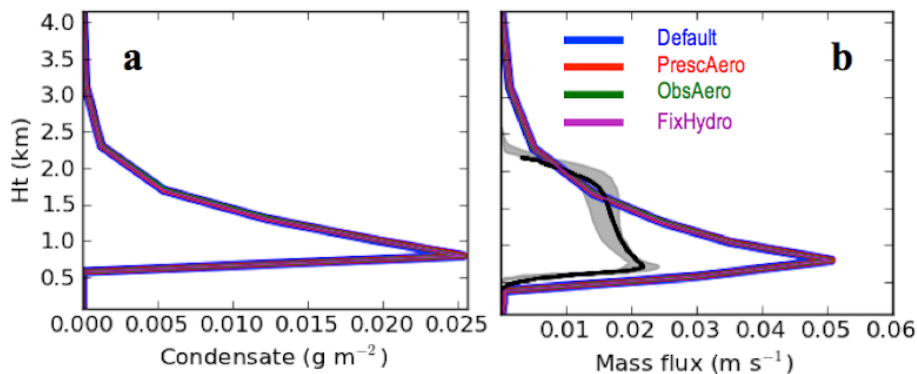


Figure 8. Time-averaged profiles of condensate amount (a), and mass-flux profile (b) during RICO IOP. Colors indicate the four cases (but are not all visible because they lay on top of one another). Shading in (b) indicates ensemble inter quartile range and the solid black line is the ensemble mean. LES data are from vanZanten et al. (2011).

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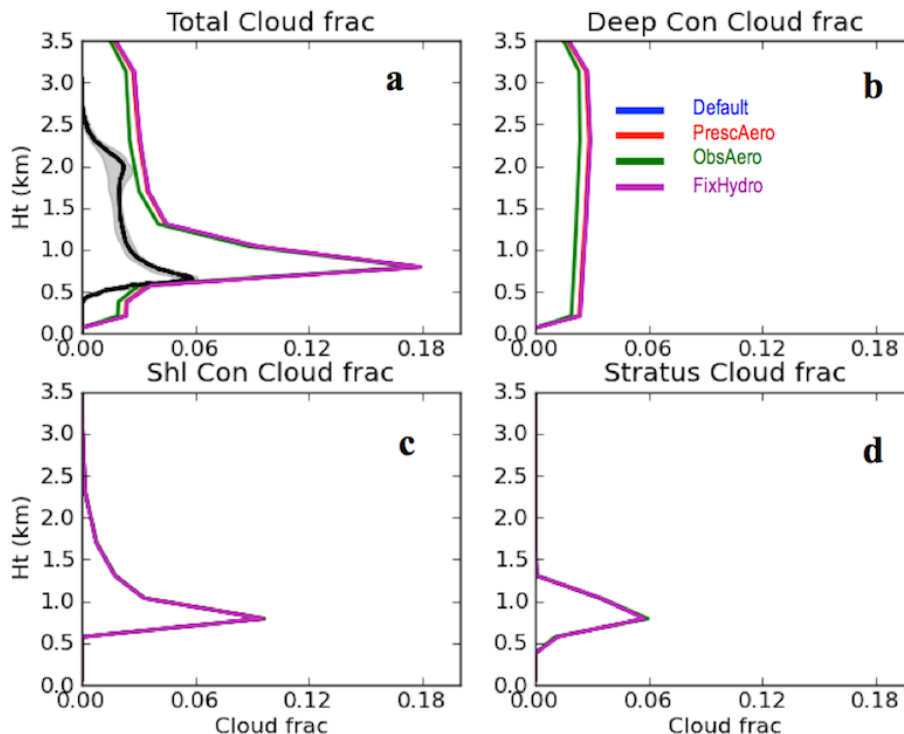


Figure 9. Time-averaged profiles of: **(a)** total cloud cover, **(b)** deep convective cloud fraction, **(c)** shallow convective cloud fraction, and **(d)** stratiform cloud fraction from models and LES as function of height during the RICO IOP period (but are not all visible because they lay on top of one another). Shading indicates total cloud cover ensemble inter quartile range and the solid black line is the ensemble mean. LES data are from vanZanten et al. (2011).

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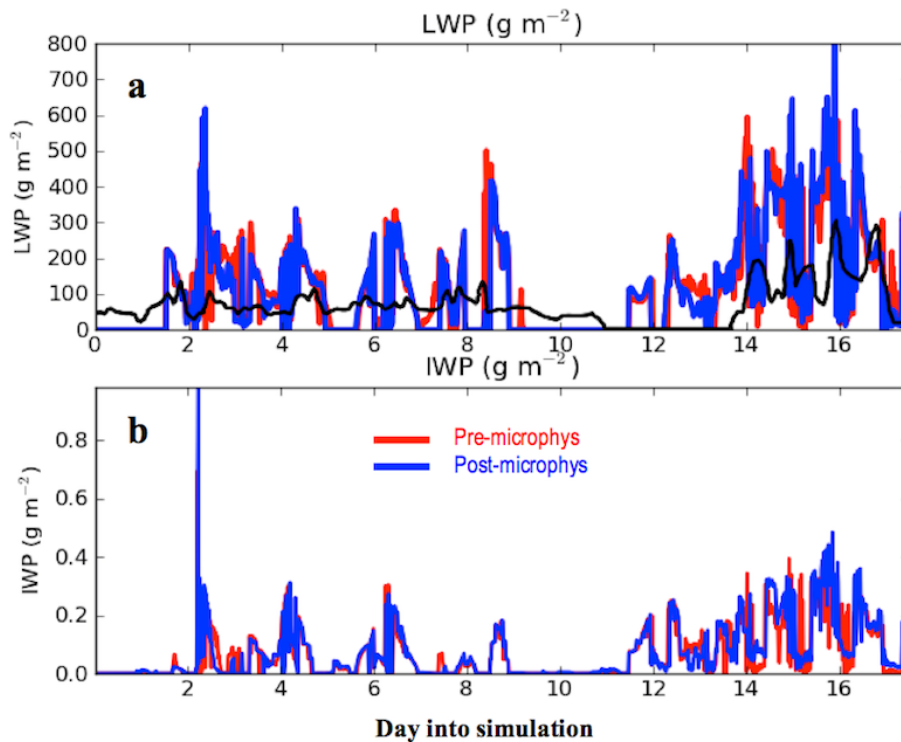


Figure 10. Time series of: (a) LWP and (b) IWP during the ARM95 IOP period. Red = Default and Blue = PrescAero. The solid black line is observations from Xu and Randall (2000).

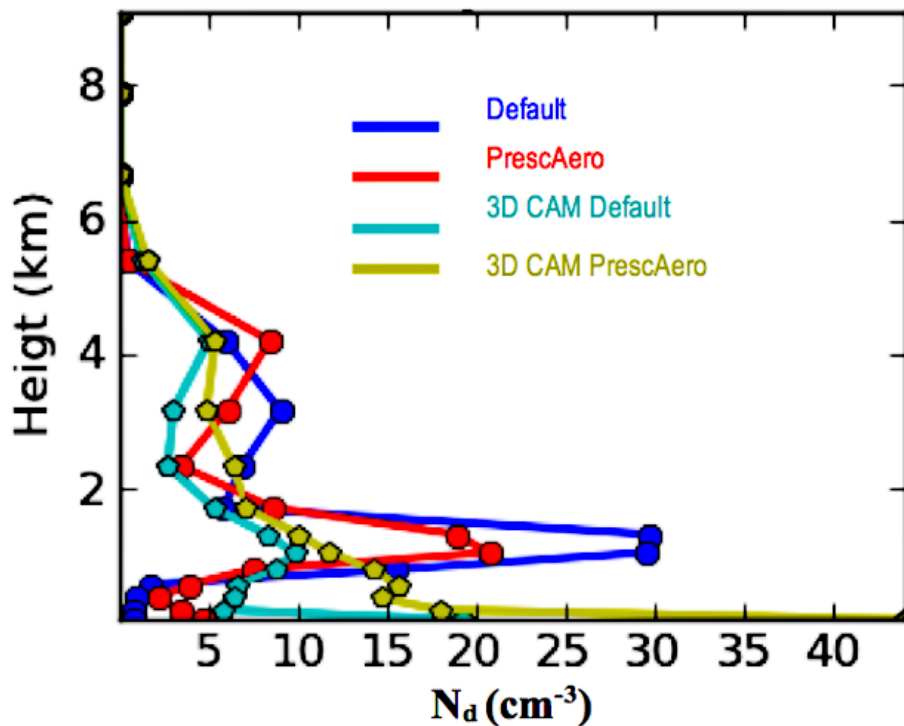


Figure 11. Profiles of in-cloud droplet number concentrations (N_d) during the ARM95 IOP period. Blue = Default case and Red = PrescAero case; Cyan = 10 years July average default global CAM extracted at the location of ARM95; Yellow = 10 years July average PrescAero global CAM extracted at the location of ARM95.

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