Thermodynamic constraint on the depth of the global tropospheric circulation

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The troposphere is the region of the atmosphere characterized by low static stability, vigorous diabatic mixing, and widespread condensational heating in clouds. Previous research has argued that in the tropics, the upper bound on tropospheric mixing and clouds is constrained by the rapid decrease with height of the saturation water vapor pressure and hence radiative cooling by water vapor in clear-sky regions. Here the authors contend that the same basic physics play a key role in constraining the vertical structure of tropospheric mixing, tropopause temperature, and cloud-top temperature throughout the globe. It is argued that radiative cooling by water vapor plays an important role in governing the depth and amplitude of large-scale dynamics at extratropical latitudes.

climate dynamics | climate change | cloud feedbacks | extratropical dynamics | general circulation

The defining difference between the troposphere (the turning sphere) and the stratosphere (the layered sphere) is the amplitude of mixing within each region. The troposphere is marked by vigorous diabatic motions (i.e., motions that flux heat across isentropic surfaces); the stratosphere is characterized by relatively weak diabatic mixing.

The top of the troposphere coincides closely to the level above which clouds rarely penetrate. In the tropics, the upper bound on tropospheric clouds is believed to be strongly constrained by the unique vertical structure of radiative cooling by water vapor. Saturation vapor pressure decreases rapidly with temperature in the tropical upper troposphere in accordance with the Clausius–Clapeyron relationship. As the saturation vapor pressure decreases, so do water vapor concentrations, and hence so does the amplitude of the clear-sky radiative cooling (1, 2) and its associated downward mass flux (3). From continuity, the thermodynamic limit on sinking motion in clear-sky regions extends to rising motion in regions of deep convection (3). Because the rising motion in regions of deep convection is limited by saturation vapor pressures (and thus temperatures) in clear-sky regions and the static stabilities in clear-sky and cloudy regions of the tropics are comparable, it follows that cloud-top temperatures in the tropics are strongly constrained by the basic thermodynamics that govern clear-sky water vapor concentrations (3, 4).

The physical linkages between clear-sky radiative cooling, the depth of tropospheric mixing, and clouds have been applied specifically to the case of tropical anvil clouds. Here we contend that the same physical linkages play an even broader role in the global atmosphere circulation. It is argued that clear-sky cooling by water vapor constrains the depth of tropospheric mixing, cloud-top temperatures, and the amplitude of large-scale atmospheric dynamics throughout the global atmosphere.

A Thermodynamic Constraint on the Depth of the Troposphere

At steady state, the thermodynamic energy equation can be expressed in pressure coordinates as

$$V \cdot \nabla_h T - \omega S = Q, \quad [1]$$

Where $V \cdot \nabla_h T$ is the horizontal advection of temperature, ω is the vertical velocity in pressure coordinates, S is the static stability (see [Supporting Information](#) for definition), and Q denotes heating due to diabatic processes.

The vertical motion term in [1] can be divided into two components: (i) an adiabatic component that balances the horizontal temperature advection and (ii) a “residual” component that balances diabatic heating. Hence,

$$\omega_A \equiv \frac{V \cdot \nabla_h T}{S} \quad [2]$$

is the adiabatic vertical motion required to balance temperature advection by the horizontal flow and

$$\omega_D \equiv \omega - \omega_A = -\frac{Q}{S} \quad [3]$$

is the cross-isentropic vertical motion required to balance diabatic heating. The zonal average of ω_D is analogous to the residual circulation in the transformed Eulerian mean (TEM) (e.g., ref. 5).

In the Tropics. At tropical latitudes, horizontal temperature advection is very small, and thus $|\omega_A| \sim 0$ and the dominant balance in the thermodynamic energy equation is between diabatic vertical motion and heating ($\omega \sim \omega_D = -\frac{Q}{S}$). In regions of rising air, the diabatic motion is balanced predominantly by condensational heating; in regions of sinking air, it is balanced mainly by the emission of thermal infrared radiation to space by water vapor.

Significance

The study explores two fundamental problems in climate science: (i) The physical factors that govern the depth of the troposphere, and (ii) the response of clouds to climate change. Previous research has argued that tropical anvil temperatures are strongly constrained by the fundamental thermodynamic properties of water vapor. Here we argue that the same basic thermodynamic properties strongly constrain the depth of the troposphere, the temperature of high clouds, and the amplitude of large-scale dynamics throughout the globe. The results suggest that the positive climate feedbacks associated with tropical high clouds also operate in the extratropics, and that the top of the troposphere should remain at roughly the same temperature throughout the globe as the climate system warms.

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Fig. 2. Clear-sky diabatic vertical mass flux (shading) for indicated latitude bands as a function of calendar month and altitude. The black lines indicate the 220K isotherm (*Top and Bottom*) and 210K isotherm (*Middle*). The blue lines on all panels indicate the 20 ppmv water vapor isopleth. Results in the *Left* are derived from observations. Results in the *Right* are derived from the IPSL general circulation model (GCM).

free troposphere $< \sim 9$ km in the tropics and $< \sim 6$ km in the extratropics, where regions of relatively low static stability (e.g., ref. 14) are associated with regions of relatively high mass fluxes.

For the most part, the observed clear-sky radiative heating rates and vertical mass fluxes are noisier and larger than their climate simulation counterparts. The differences between the observed and simulated results may arise from a variety of factors including, for example, the effects of orbital and clear-sky sampling on the observations, the limitations of the general circulation model, and the limitations of the *CloudSat* flux algorithm. What is important is that the global-scale features in the clear-sky mass fluxes are qualitatively similar in both the observations and climate model output.

The most prominent features in the clear-sky diabatic vertical mass fluxes are the negative vertical gradients found between

7 and 9 km at middle latitudes and 12 and 14 km in the tropics. The vertical gradients in the annual-mean mass fluxes are larger in the tropics than in the extratropics. However, the differences in amplitudes between the vertical gradients in tropical and extratropical mass fluxes are in part an artifact of the annual averaging: The largest gradients in the mass fluxes occur at roughly the same altitude throughout the year in the tropics, whereas they rise and fall with the seasonal cycle in the extratropics and are thus smeared out in the annual mean there (Fig. 2).

As reviewed earlier, the large vertical gradients in the clear-sky mass fluxes in the upper troposphere arise in part from the temperature dependence of the water vapor mixing ratio (1, 2). The clear-sky mass fluxes become very small (e.g., drop below ~ 5 hPa/day) at comparably low water vapor concentrations (volume mixing ratios of roughly 20 ppmv) at both tropical and extratropical latitudes (Fig. 1, *Bottom Left*) and throughout the calendar year (Fig. 2, *Left*), which hints at the importance of water vapor cooling for constraining the clear-sky diabatic vertical motion across the globe. Interestingly, the clear-sky mass fluxes drop below ~ 5 hPa/day at roughly the same water vapor volume mixing ratio (and likewise, specific humidity) at tropical and extratropical latitudes, but at notably different temperatures: ~ 210 K in the tropics but ~ 220 K in the extratropics (Fig. 1, *Bottom*; Fig. 2).

Why does the top of the tropospheric mixing layer (i.e., the level where the clear-sky mass fluxes decrease rapidly with height) occur at different temperatures in the tropics and extratropics? Relative to the tropical upper troposphere, the extratropical upper troposphere is marked by comparatively high static stabilities ([Supporting Information](#); ref. 14) and low relative humidities (15), in part due to the efficiency of extratropical eddies in entraining stable, dry air from the extratropical lower stratosphere. Both factors should contribute to relatively warm conditions at the top of the tropospheric mixing layer at extratropical latitudes: (i) the clear-sky sinking motion required to balance water vapor cooling is smaller—and thus the level of rapidly decreasing mass fluxes is shifted downward to warmer temperatures—in regions of comparatively high static stability (4, 16, 17). (ii) It is the concentration of water vapor (and thus the specific humidity) that matters most for water vapor cooling. Because the relative humidity of the extratropical upper troposphere is relatively low, water vapor concentrations at the 220 K isotherm are somewhat lower in the extratropics than they are in the tropics (Figs. 1, *Bottom*, and 2).

How do the clear-sky diabatic vertical mass fluxes relate to the depth of the troposphere? The depth of the troposphere—and thus the height of the tropopause—can be defined in a variety of ways, all of which give slightly different results (e.g., see discussions in refs. 18–20). Lapse-rate definitions are widely used and simple to calculate, but are not necessarily physically meaningful; potential vorticity definitions are dynamically meaningful at extratropical latitudes, but not at the equator. One simple definition

Fig. 3. Clear-sky diabatic vertical mass flux divergence (shading) superposed on cloud incidence (contours). Results in the *Left* are derived from observations. Results in the *Right* are derived from the IPSL general circulation model (GCM). Cloud incidence is derived from *CloudSAT*.

Fig. 4. Scatter plots of the altitudes of maximum clear-sky diabatic vertical mass flux divergence and maximum cloud incidence. Each dot represents a different latitude band. Results in the *Left* are derived from observations. Results in the *Right* are derived from the IPSL general circulation model (GCM).

is the top of the well-mixed layer where convection and radiation are the dominant terms in the thermodynamic energy equation. As such, the top of the majority of latent heating—and thus cloud incidence—can be viewed as a proxy for the depth of the troposphere.

Fig. 3 shows annual-mean cloud incidence superposed on the clear-sky vertical mass flux divergence (i.e., $\frac{\partial}{\partial p}(-\frac{Q}{S})$). Fig. 4 shows the scatter plot of the altitudes of maximum clear-sky vertical mass flux divergence (abscissa) and maximum cloud incidence (ordinate) as a function of latitude. (Note that positive values of the clear-sky vertical mass flux divergence indicate regions where the clear-sky downward mass fluxes decrease rapidly with height, and thus where the horizontal mass fluxes are converging in clear-sky regions and diverging in cloudy regions). The largest vertical mass flux divergences clearly coincide with the region of largest cloud incidences at all latitudes. The close correspondences highlighted in Fig. 3 are important, because they imply that the static stability in the clear and cloudy regions of the extratropics are sufficiently similar to link the diabatic vertical mass fluxes (Eq. 3) in both regions. The strong collocation shown in Fig. 3 highlights a key aspect of the extratropical circulation that has not been appreciated in previous work: Cloud-top height—and thus the depth of the troposphere—is coincident with the large vertical gradients in the clear-sky diabatic mass flux not only in the tropics, but in the extratropics as well.

If clear-sky cooling by water vapor constrains cloud fraction throughout the globe, then the temperature of the maximum in cloud fraction should be largely decoupled from surface temperature at all latitudes. The black lines in Fig. 5 show the pressure (*Left*) and temperature (*Right*) of the maximum in cloud fraction as a function of latitude for the same climate model output shown in Fig. 3, *Right*. The red lines show the pressure and temperature of the maximum in cloud fraction when surface temperatures are increased uniformly by 4 K (see [Supporting Information](#) for simulation details). As expected from ref. 3, the cloud fraction maximum moves to notably lower pressure but stays at roughly the same temperature in the tropics. As demonstrated in Fig. 5, the same basic physical responses are found at extratropical latitudes as well. (The small increases in cloud temperatures in the tropics are consistent with the attendant changes in tropospheric static stability, which act to move the level of largest clear-sky vertical mass fluxes to a slightly warmer level; ref. 4).

Implications for Large-Scale Extratropical Dynamics

The thermodynamic constraints placed on clear-sky radiative cooling also have potential implications for large-scale extratropical dynamics. The steady-state, zonally averaged zonal momentum and thermodynamic energy equations can be expressed as:

$$f\bar{v}^* = -\overline{v'q'} \quad [4]$$

$$\bar{\omega}^* = -\frac{\bar{Q}}{S}, \quad [5]$$

where overbars denote zonal averages, primes denote departures from the zonal average, $\bar{\omega}^* \equiv \bar{\omega} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \frac{\bar{v}'q'}{S}$ is the TEM vertical wind, $\bar{v}^*$ the TEM meridional wind, and q is the quasigeostrophic (QG) potential vorticity (PV). In the QG approximation, the meridional fluxes of potential vorticity are equivalent to the divergence of the Eliassen–Palm (EP) flux (southward PV fluxes correspond to regions of EP-flux convergence and thus wave breaking). The residual vertical velocity $\bar{\omega}^*$ is expressed in pressure coordinates and is the zonal-mean analog of ω_D in Eq. 3.

By construction, the TEM vertical motion $\bar{\omega}^*$ is the component of the zonal-mean vertical velocity that is balanced entirely by diabatic processes and thus approximates the zonal-mean diabatic vertical mass flux. In the long-term mean, $\bar{\omega}^*$ is downward over the high latitudes of both hemispheres (e.g., ref. 21). At tropospheric levels, the downward motion in $\bar{\omega}^*$ at high latitudes is balanced primarily by radiative cooling by water vapor, and is thus subject to the same thermodynamic constraints that limit the clear-sky mass flux.

The TEM vertical motion is connected to the TEM meridional motion through continuity. Taking the meridional derivative of Eq. 4, the vertical derivative of Eq. 5, and combining through the mass-continuity equation yields:

$$-\frac{\partial}{\partial y} \frac{\bar{v}'q'}{f} = \frac{\partial}{\partial p} \frac{\bar{Q}}{S}. \quad [6]$$

Eq. 6 states that the divergence of the meridional PV flux is balanced by the divergence of the diabatic vertical mass flux. If the meridional scale of the wave motions is comparable at all levels, then the divergence of the meridional PV flux will have largest amplitude at the same altitude that the PV flux does. Thus, the level of largest PV fluxes should coincide with the level of largest diabatic vertical mass flux divergence, i.e., the top of the layer in which infrared cooling by water vapor is important. As shown in Fig. 6, there is, in fact, strong correspondence between the clear-sky diabatic vertical mass flux divergence and wave breaking throughout the extratropics. Some level of agreement between the divergence of the clear-sky vertical mass fluxes

Fig. 5. The pressure (*Left*) and temperature (*Right*) of the maximum in cloud fraction as a function of latitude for climate model output from the IPSL general circulation model (GCM). The black lines indicate results from a simulation forced with time-varying sea surface temperatures (SST) from 1979 to 2008 (observed SSTs; AMIP). The red lines indicate results from a simulation where sea surface temperatures are increased everywhere by 4 K relative to their 1979–2008 values (AMIP+4K). Results are smoothed with a latitudinal running mean filter for display purposes only.

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