

**Global surface cooling: the atmospheric fast feedback response to a collapse of the thermohaline  
2 circulation**

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## Abstract

26           In the ECHAM5/MPI-OM model a collapse of the Atlantic thermohaline circulation results in a  
global surface cooling of 0.72 K. The mechanisms that are responsible for this cooling are investigated.  
28 Additional experiments were performed with a one-dimensional radiative convective model in which  
anomalies from the climate model were prescribed. Fast atmospheric feedbacks are essential to maintain  
30 and strengthen the global surface cooling caused by a THC collapse. Reduced downward long wave  
radiation exceeds the decreased upward long wave radiation. This decreased downward long wave  
32 radiation is caused by reduced water vapor content rather than by ice-albedo feedbacks. Also, the  
decrease in water vapor is much stronger than suggested by the water vapor feedback expected from the  
34 simulated albedo change. The large decrease in water vapor is the main feedback. On the regional scale,  
changes in cloud water and cloud radiative forcing further modify the surface cooling.

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## 1. Introduction

50 Climate models show that a collapse of the Atlantic thermohaline circulation (THC) leads to a  
reduction in northward oceanic heat transport (OHT) and a strong cooling in the Northern Hemisphere, in  
52 particular in the North Atlantic Ocean (*Manabe and Stouffer, 1994; Vellinga and Wood, 2002; Stouffer et al., 2006*). The reduced northward OHT in the Atlantic causes a dipole pattern in the surface temperature  
54 response with a slight warming in the Southern Hemisphere. Evidence of this dipole pattern has been  
found in paleodata, probably associated with a reduction of the THC (*Bond et al., 1992; Blunier and*  
56 *Brook, 2001*). The atmospheric heat transport (AHT) increases to compensate for the decreased OHT but  
this compensation is far from complete at mid-high latitudes (*Cheng et al., 2007; Vellinga et Wu, 2008*).  
58 Bjerknes compensation between OHT and AHT does not apply for this large fluctuation of the THC  
because the ocean heat content changes. A readjustment of the global energy budget occurs to account for  
60 the change in net meridional energy transport. Over a large part of the globe the top of the atmosphere  
(TOA) and surface flux anomalies resulting from the new equilibrium are of comparable magnitude,  
62 except in the North Atlantic where the anomalous surface cooling is strongest (*Vellinga and Wu, 2008*).

In this paper we investigate how a collapse of the THC can lead to a fast global surface cooling.  
64 The THC collapse was induced by freshwater hosing in the northern North Atlantic. We study the  
response of the surface energy budget, albedo, cloud cover and water vapor. Using a one-dimensional  
66 radiative convective model in which anomalies from the climate model were prescribed, sensitivity  
experiments were performed to assess the role of water vapor, ice/albedo feedback and cloud cover in  
68 causing the global surface cooling.

## 70 2. Models and experiments

### 2.1. Hosing experiments with the ECHAM5/MPI-OM climate model

72 The ECHAM5/MPI-OM climate model is described in *Roeckner et al. (2003)* and *Marsland et al.*

(2003). The ocean model has a horizontal resolution of about  $1.4^\circ$  by  $1.4^\circ$  away from the poles, it is  
74 highest near the poles (O(20-40 km)) and the meridional resolution is refined near the equator to  $0.5^\circ$ . It  
has 40 vertical levels. The atmospheric model has 31 vertical levels and a horizontal resolution of T63.

76 We use a five-member ensemble simulation out of a 17-member ensemble that was performed  
over the period 1950-2100 (*Sterl et al.*, 2008). From 1950 to 2000 the simulations were forced by the  
78 concentrations of greenhouse gases (GHG) and tropospheric sulfate aerosols specified from observations.  
From 2001 to 2100 the simulations followed the SRES A1b scenario (*Nakicenovic et al.*, 2000). Each  
80 simulation was initialized from a single long simulation in which historical GHG concentrations have  
been used until 1950. In an additional ensemble, a freshwater anomaly of 1 Sv ( $1 \text{ Sv} = 10^6 \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ ) was  
82 uniformly applied in the northern North Atlantic Ocean between  $50^\circ\text{N}$  and  $70^\circ\text{N}$  from 2001 onwards,  
starting from the five initial states of the first ensemble. Here we address the global surface cooling due  
84 to a THC collapse by comparing the ensemble means of the perturbed simulations (called HOSING) to  
the associated control simulations (called ENSMALL) over the period 2091-2100.

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## 2.2. Sensitivity experiments using a radiative convective model

88 The role of water vapor and ice/albedo feedbacks in accounting for the global surface cooling was  
investigated using a one-dimensional radiative convective model (RCM). This RCM (*Van Dorland*,  
90 1999) is based on original concepts of *Manabe and Strickler* (1964) and *Manabe and Wetherald* (1967).  
Clouds are specified at three levels representing low, middle and high clouds. The non-radiative fluxes  
92 (sensible and latent heat) are computed from the surface energy balance.

Sensitivity experiments were performed by adding anomalous water vapor, albedo and cloud  
94 cover due to a THC collapse to the equilibrium values in the RCM. In some experiments the relative  
humidity (RH) was kept fixed to study the effect of water vapor feedback on prescribed changes in  
96 albedo and cloud cover.

### 98 3. Global responses to a THC collapse

#### 3.1. Two-meter air temperature response

100 The two-meter cooling pattern resulting from a THC collapse is shown in Fig. 1 (left panel). An  
interhemispheric dipole pattern is evident with strong cooling in the Northern Hemisphere and lesser  
102 warming in the Southern Hemisphere. Often this dipole pattern is explained by a reduction of northward  
OHT by the THC. Here we show that atmospheric processes play a crucial role in maintaining and  
104 strengthening the global surface cooling due to the THC collapse. The globally averaged cooling is 0.72  
K which is consistent with the 1°C cooling found by *Stouffer et al.* (2006). The cooling is accomplished  
106 in twenty years (Fig. 1, right).

#### 108 3.2. Surface radiation budget response

The radiation budget at the surface is:

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$$\text{SW up} + \text{LW up} + \text{LH} + \text{SH} = \text{SW down} + \text{LW down}$$

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where SW (LW) stands for short (long) wave radiation, LH (SH) stands for latent (sensible) heat, and up  
114 and down stand for upward and downward. These budget terms are shown for the ENSMALL and  
HOSING ensemble means (Fig.2, left) and for the difference between HOSING and ENSMALL (Fig.2,  
116 right).

The global decrease in LH ( $1.42 \text{ W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$ ; Fig. 2, right) has a spatial pattern shown in Fig.3  
118 (upper left). It is very similar to that of the evaporation response (not shown), suggesting the important  
role of the water vapor response for the surface radiation budget change. The upward LW radiation is set  
120 by the ocean-driven surface cooling via Stefan-Boltzmann's law (see Fig. 1, left). Its global decrease of

3.59  $W \cdot m^{-2}$  is more than balanced by decreased downward LW radiation ( $4.03 W \cdot m^{-2}$ ; Fig. 2, right).  
122 The pattern of downward LW is rather similar to that of upward LW (Fig. 3, upper right), but it features  
no change over the Alps and a stronger increase over the Sahel (not shown). Because decreased upward  
124 LW is overcompensated by decreased downward LW, the LW response results in a net surface cooling.  
This net cooling is balanced by heating due to decreased LH. Both LH and LW responses are dominated  
126 by water vapor content.

The colder surface temperatures associated with a THC collapse in ECHAM5/MPI-OM lead to a  
128 4.8% increase in albedo. This albedo response plays a role in the global surface cooling and in the surface  
energy budget response at high latitudes. The increased upward SW radiation ( $0.45 W \cdot m^{-2}$ ) is therefore  
130 strongest at high latitudes where ice cover and albedo increase (Fig. 3, lower left). The pattern of the  
downward SW response ( $0.36 W \cdot m^{-2}$  decrease) is associated with the change in cloud water (Fig. 3,  
132 lower right; Fig. 4, lower left). The net response in SW is small and unimportant.

The dominant terms in the surface energy budget are the decreased upward and downward LW  
134 radiation (Fig. 2, right). Both terms are related to ice/albedo, cloud cover, and water vapor responses. To  
disentangle these responses and assess their respective contribution to the global surface cooling,  
136 sensitivity experiments were performed using a one-dimensional radiative convective model.

#### 138 **4. Sensitivity experiments with the RCM**

The sensitivity experiments are detailed in Table 1. The reference experiment has prescribed  
140 albedo, cloud cover and water vapor to reproduce the 20<sup>th</sup> century's climate. The prescribed water vapor  
anomaly (experiments q\_NoFb, Alb-q\_NoFb, and Cld-Alb-q\_NoFb) is taken from the difference between  
142 the HOSING and ENSMALL ensembles interpolated on the RCM levels and added to the RCM  
reference profile. The prescribed albedo change (experiments Alb\_NoFb, Alb\_Fb, Alb-q\_NoFb and Cld-  
144 Alb-q\_NoFb) is taken to be consistent with the surface upward SW response to a THC collapse (2%

increased albedo, rather than the globally averaged increase in albedo of 4.8%). This difference is due to  
146 the fact that an albedo change in the tropics has a much larger effect on the surface radiation balance than  
a similar change in an equally large area near the poles, because the incoming solar radiation is much less  
148 near the poles. The prescribed cloud cover anomalies (experiments Cld\_Fb and Cld-Alb-q\_NoFb) are  
taken from the difference between HOSING and ENSMALL. The globally averaged cloud cover  
150 increases by 0.33%. One third of this anomaly was added to the low-level cloud cover and two-third to  
the mid-level cloud cover, consistent with the vertical profile in the climate model. Cloud water content  
152 was prescribed in a similar way, with a decrease of  $0.003 \text{ g} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$  at mid-level and a decrease of  $0.007$   
 $\text{g} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$  at low-level. When the water vapor is prescribed and RH is free to adjust, no water vapor  
154 feedback is operational, and conversely. Table 1 also shows the anomalous surface temperature and water  
vapor content, computed as the difference between an experiment and the reference run.

156 The combined effects of decreased water vapor and increased albedo are necessary to account for  
a surface cooling of 0.62 K, close to the 0.72 K cooling due to a THC collapse (Table 1, Alb-q\_NoFb).  
158 The effect of increased albedo alone, even with water vapor feedback switched on, is much too weak to  
account for the surface cooling (Alb\_NoFb: -0.08 K and Alb\_Fb: -0.15 K). On the other hand, the effect  
160 of decreased water vapor already explains the largest part of the net surface cooling (q\_NoFb: -0.53 K).  
These results indicate that the reduced LW is a response to decreased water vapor and reduced GHG  
162 trapping, rather than a response to the increased albedo. This is further corroborated by the changes in  
surface specific humidity which correlate perfectly with the changes in surface temperature (Fig. 4, upper  
164 left). Note that the anomalous surface upward and downward LW and SW radiation related to the  
prescribed anomalies described in Table 1 are of the order of magnitude of those due to the THC collapse  
166 in the climate model (not shown). The increased cloud cover (and decreased liquid water content) results  
in a weak surface cooling of 0.01 K (Cld\_Fb). The cloud response in the RCM does not play an important  
168 role in the global surface cooling (compare Alb-q\_NoFb and Cld-Alb-q\_NoFb). However, the vertical

distribution is rudimentary in the RCM and only the net global effect of clouds can be assessed. Regional  
170 differences and nonlinearities associated with cloud feedbacks require further analysis of the climate  
model rather than the RCM.

172 In addition to the primary ocean-driven surface cooling, changes in cloud water and cloud  
radiative forcing (CRF) further modify the surface temperature response on the regional scale. The  
174 globally averaged CRF decreases by  $0.04 \text{ W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$  but it decreases by up to  $30 \text{ W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$  over the eastern  
North Atlantic, in association with an increase in cloud water (Fig. 4, lower panels). The increased  
176 surface RH (up to 6%; not shown) is temperature-driven (*Laurian et al.*, 2009). It is associated with  
enhanced surface cooling driven by the cloud response, via the Clausius-Clapeyron relation. Moist static  
178 energy (MSE) decreases in the Northern Hemisphere (Fig. 4, upper right). Drier and colder air is brought  
from western and northwestern Europe to Siberia, leading to reduced cloud cover (6%; not shown) and  
180 cloud water (Fig. 4, lower left) which act to cut the surface energy supply. Decreased soil wetness and  
associated increased snow cover (not shown) in Siberia also lead to decreased evaporation (about  $0.4$   
182  $\text{kg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ; not shown), because more energy is needed to sublimate snow than to evaporate liquid  
water. Over the Sahel, less MSE is brought from the tropical Atlantic resulting in decreased evaporation  
184 and cloud water (Fig. 4, lower left). In the equatorial Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, changes in cloud water  
and CRF are associated with a different sampling of ENSO signals in the two ten-year averages.

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## 5. Conclusion

188 A THC collapse simulated in the ECHAM5/MPI-OM climate model induces a dipole pattern in  
surface temperature, with strong cooling in the Northern Hemisphere and lesser warming in the Southern  
190 Hemisphere, resulting in a global surface cooling of 0.72 K. Evidence of a similar pattern has been found  
in paleodata. It has been associated with a reduction of the northward OHT by the THC, driven by  
192 freshwater sources in the Northern Hemisphere (*Bond et al.*, 1992; *Blunier and Brook*, 2001). The

mechanisms responsible for the global surface cooling in the ECHAM5/MPI-OM climate model were  
194 investigated from a global energy budget point of view. We have shown that fast atmospheric feedbacks  
are essential to maintain and enhance the global surface cooling due to a THC collapse, as well as for  
196 explaining the strong asymmetry in the dipole pattern with Northern Hemisphere anomalies being much  
larger than opposite Southern Hemisphere anomalies.

198         The primary ocean-driven surface cooling in the Northern Hemisphere leads to decreased water  
vapor in the atmosphere. Reduced surface downward long wave radiation results from decreased water  
200 vapor and GHG trapping. The increased albedo leads to increased surface upward short wave radiation  
which acts to cool the surface at high latitudes, but this mechanism is too weak to cause the global  
202 surface cooling. Reduced water vapor and increased albedo are necessary to account for the global  
surface cooling, and the inclusion of both effects can explain the simulated surface cooling in a one-  
204 dimensional radiative convective model. The effect of water vapor reduction, however, is much larger  
than the effect of albedo increase. The water vapor feedback is responsible for maintaining and  
206 strengthening the global surface cooling caused by a THC collapse. On the regional scale, changes in  
cloud water and cloud radiative forcing further modify the surface cooling. A slower ice/albedo feedback  
208 and changes in  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration may further enhance the global surface cooling on a longer timescale.  
Asymmetries in time-scale and amplitude between Northern and Southern Hemispheres can thus be  
210 understood from the fast atmospheric water vapor response described in this paper.

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**List of tables**

290 Table 1. Sensitivity experiments performed with the RCM. The first line gives the anomalous surface  
 temperature (K) and water vapor ( $q; g \cdot kg^{-1}$ ) in the climate model (H-E stands for HOSING-  
 292 ENSMALL). Cloud stands for cloud cover, RH stands for relative humidity, and Fb for water vapor  
 feedback. Pr stands for prescribed: the value or profile is fixed with a prescribed anomaly due to a THC  
 294 collapse. Fx stands for fixed: the value is fixed to the RCM reference value. Adj stands for adjusted: the  
 profile is free to adjust. The anomalous surface temperature and water vapor (noted dT and dq),  
 296 computed as the difference between a given experiment and the reference run, are also shown.

Name of experiment	Albedo	Cloud	q	RH	Fb	dT	dq
H-E	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-0.72	-0.33
Ref	Fx	Fx	Fx	Fx	-----	0	0
Alb_NoFb	Pr	Fx	Fx	Adj	off	-0.08	0
Alb_Fb	Pr	Fx	Adj	Fx	on	-0.15	-0.08
q_NoFb	Fx	Fx	Pr	Adj	off	-0.53	-0.33
Alb-q_NoFb	Pr	Fx	Pr	Adj	off	-0.62	-0.33
Cld_Fb	Fx	Pr	Adj	Fx	on	-0.01	0
Cld-Alb-q_NoFb	Pr	Pr	Pr	Adj	off	-0.62	-0.33

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306 **Figure captions**

Fig. 1. Left: annual change in two-meter air temperature computed as the difference between HOSING  
308 and ENSMALL (K). Right: globally averaged annual change in two-meter air temperature (K).

310 Fig. 2. Left: Annual mean surface radiation budget ( $W.m^{-2}$ ) in ENSMALL (orange) and HOSING  
(purple) over the period 2091-2100. Right: Same for the difference between HOSING and ENSMALL.

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Fig. 3. Annual change in LH (upper left), surface downward LW (upper right), upward SW (lower left),  
314 and downward SW (lower right), computed as the difference between HOSING and ENSMALL. Note  
the different color scales ( $W.m^{-2}$ ).

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Fig. 4. Upper left: annual mean change in surface specific humidity ( $g.kg^{-1}$ ) computed as the  
318 difference between HOSING and ENSMALL. Upper right: same for the column-integrated moist static  
energy ( $km^3 s^{-2}$ ). Lower left: annual mean change in column-integrated cloud water ( $g.m^{-2}$ ). Lower  
320 right: annual mean change in cloud radiative forcing, computed as the difference between the radiative  
fluxes at the top of the atmosphere with clouds and under clear-sky conditions ( $W.m^{-2}$ ).

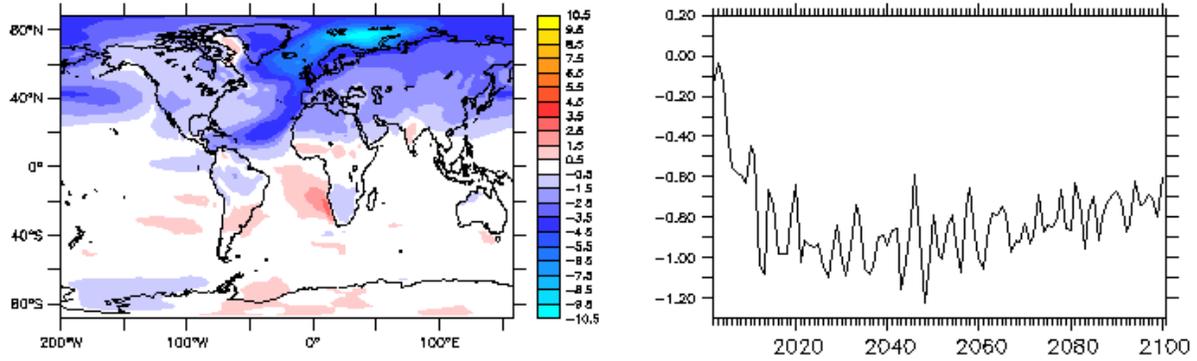
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330 List of figures



332 Fig. 1. Left: annual change in two-meter air temperature computed as the difference between HOSING  
333 and ENSMALL (K). Right: globally averaged annual change in two-meter air temperature (K).

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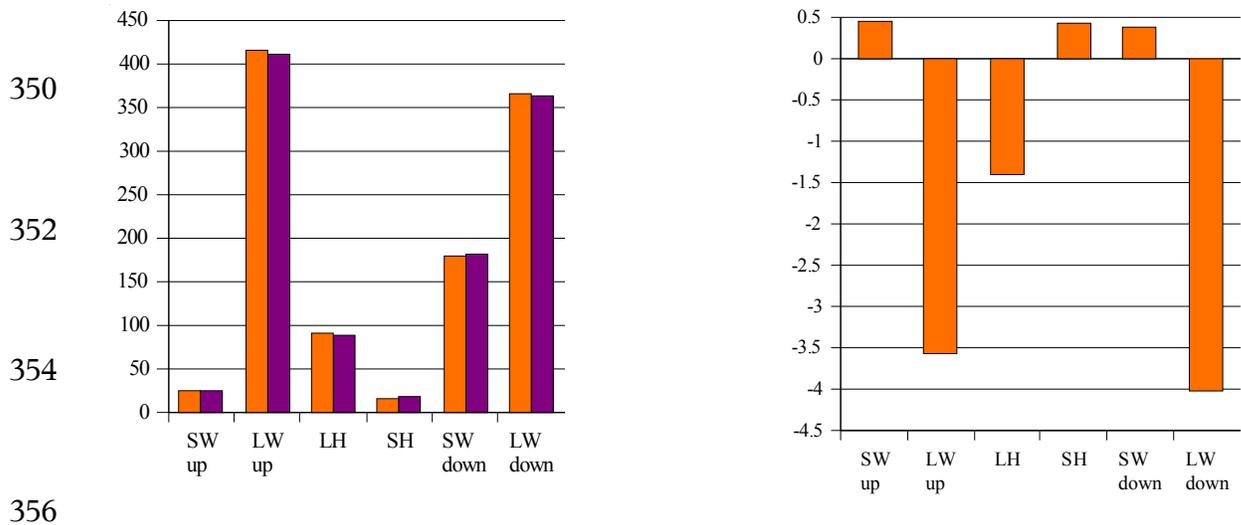


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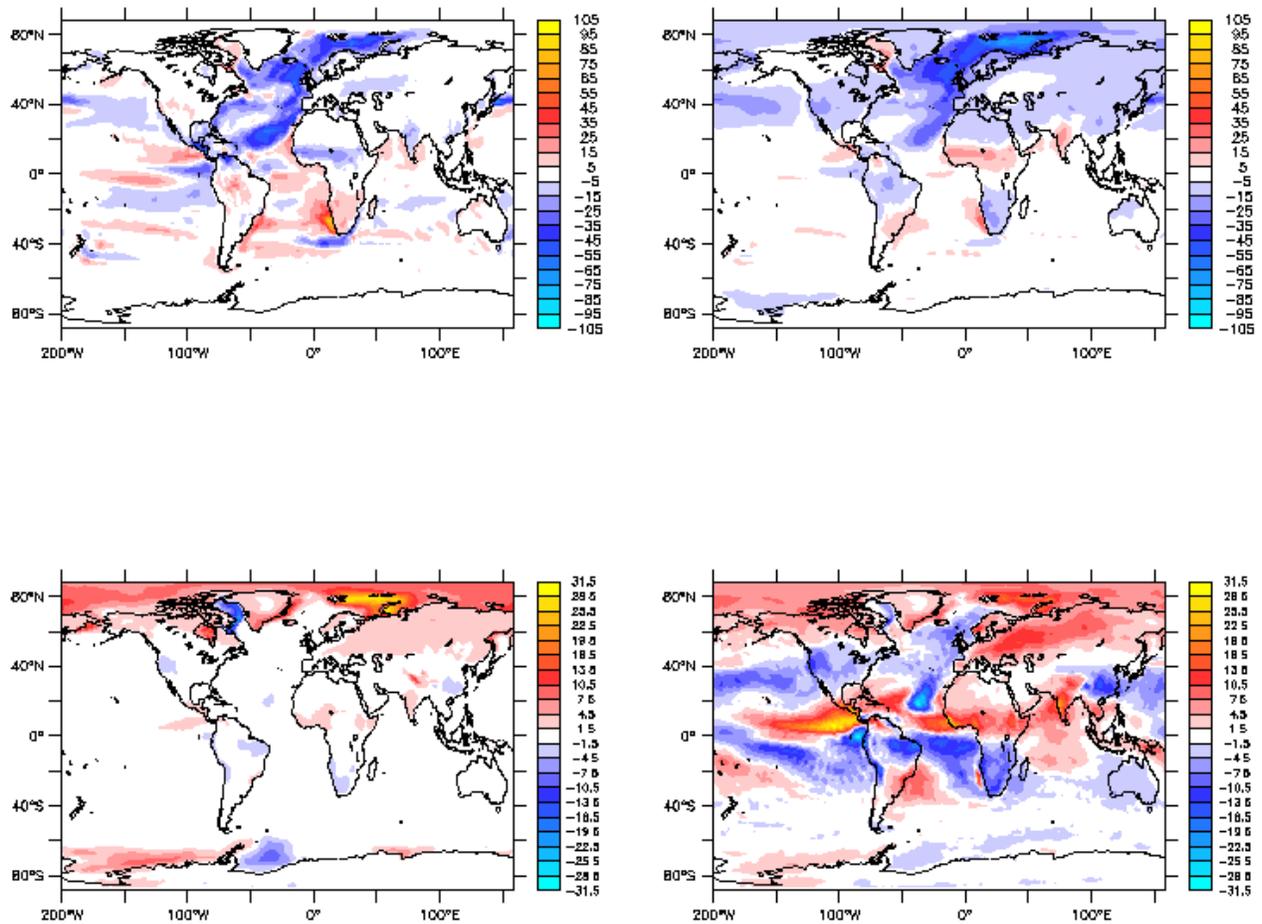


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 362 and downward SW (lower right), computed as the difference between HOSING and ENSMALL. Note  
 the different color scales (  $W \cdot m^{-2}$  ).

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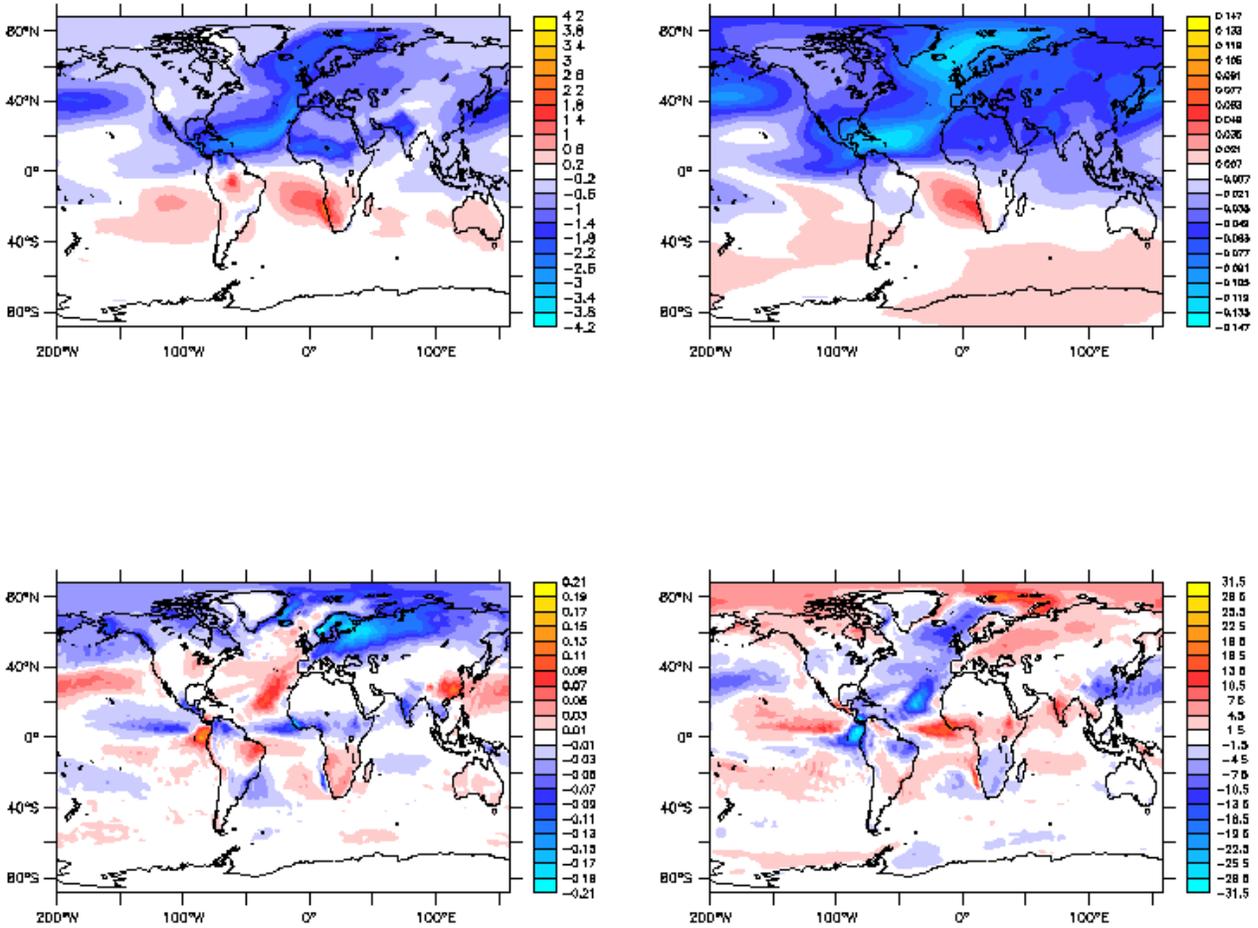


Fig. 4. Upper left: annual mean change in surface specific humidity ( $g \cdot kg^{-1}$ ) computed as the  
 370 difference between HOSING and ENSMALL. Upper right: same for the column-integrated moist static  
 energy ( $km^3 s^{-2}$ ). Lower left: annual mean change in column-integrated cloud water ( $g \cdot m^{-2}$ ). Lower  
 372 right: annual mean change in cloud radiative forcing, computed as the difference between the radiative  
 fluxes at the top of the atmosphere with clouds and under clear-sky conditions ( $W \cdot m^{-2}$ ).