TCC training seminar (Nov 25, 2019)

Introduction to Climate
for experts on climate analysis information

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Outline of the lecture

1. Climate System (45 min. + α)
   1.1 Introduction
   1.2 Radiative Balance
   1.3 Horizontal Radiative Imbalance and Circulations
   1.4 Seasonal Change
   1.5 Role of Orography on Climate
2. Climate Variability (90 min. + α)
   2.1 Introduction
   2.2 Intraseasonal Variability: Quasi-stationary Rossby wave, MJO and equatorial waves
   2.3 Interannual Variability: ENSO, El Nino Modoki, IOD
   2.4 Decadal Variability: PDO, ENSO-Monsoon relation
3. Climate change due to anthropogenic forcing (30 min. + α)

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1.1 Introduction

Climate and Climate System

From WMO HP

What is Climate?

Climate, sometimes understood as the "average weather," is defined as the measurement of the mean and variability of relevant quantities of certain variables (such as temperature, precipitation or wind) over a period of time, ranging from months to thousands or millions of years.

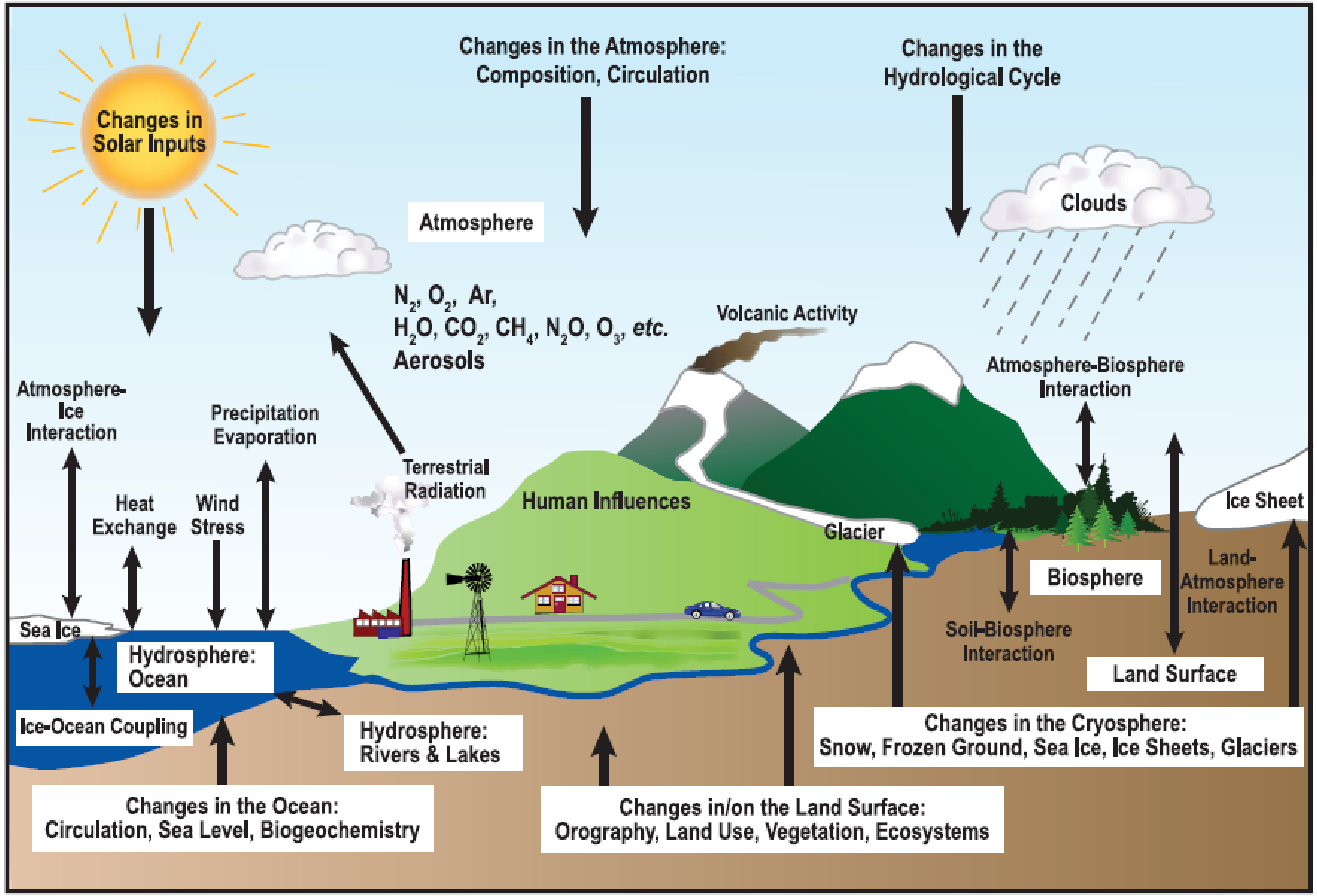
Climate in a wider sense is the state, including a statistical description, of the climate system.

What is the Climate System?

The climate system consists of five major components: the atmosphere the hydrosphere, the cryosphere, land surface, and the biosphere.

The climate system is continually changing due to the interactions between the components as well as external factors such as volcanic eruptions or solar variations and human-induced factors such as changes to the atmosphere and changes in land use.

- The climate system is complicated!



FAQ 1.2, Figure 1. *Schematic view of the components of the climate system, their processes and interactions.*

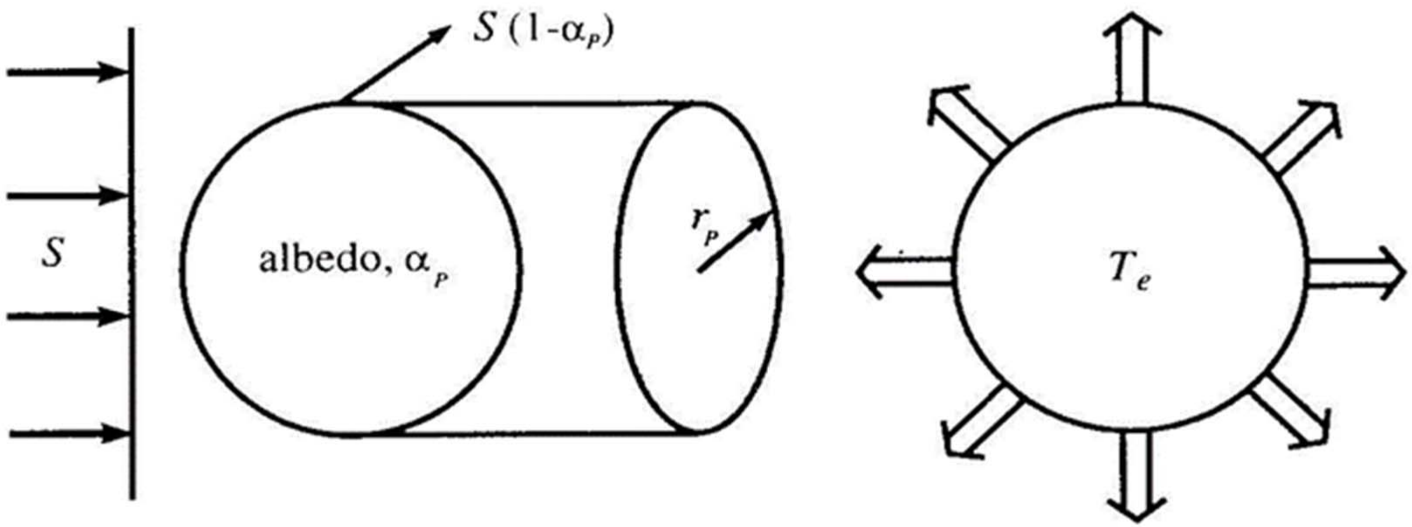
(IPCC AR4)

1.2 Radiative Balance

Solar radiation

Earth

Terrestrial Radiation



$\text{Absorbed} = S\,(1-\alpha_p)\,\pi r_p^2$

$\text{Lost} = \sigma T_e^4 4\pi r_p^2$

Absorption = Emission

\> Warming of Climate System

< Cooling of Climate System

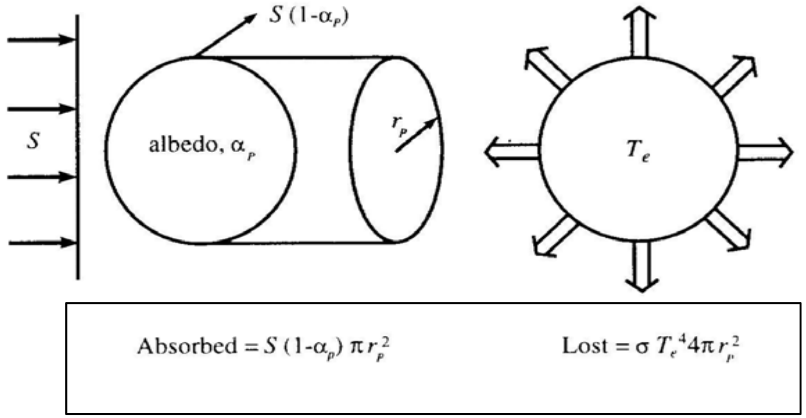
Radiative Balance between Earth and Space

Solar Radiation

- **Solar constant :** $S \approx 1370\ Wm^{-2}$
- **insolation :** $\frac{S}{4} \approx 342 Wm^{-2}$
- **planetary albedo :** $\alpha_P \approx 0.31$
- **absorption :** $\frac{S}{4}(1-\alpha_P) \approx 235 Wm^{-2}$

Terrestrial Radiation

- **equilibrium radiative temperature :** T_e^*
- **emission :** σT_e^{*4}



Radiation Balance

- **Balance between absorbed solar radiation and terresitrial emission**

$$T_e^* = \sqrt[4]{\frac{S(1-\alpha_P)}{4\sigma}} \approx 254\,K \approx -19°C$$

Earth's temperature observed from the cosmic space

Surface Temperature = 15° C

Energy Budget

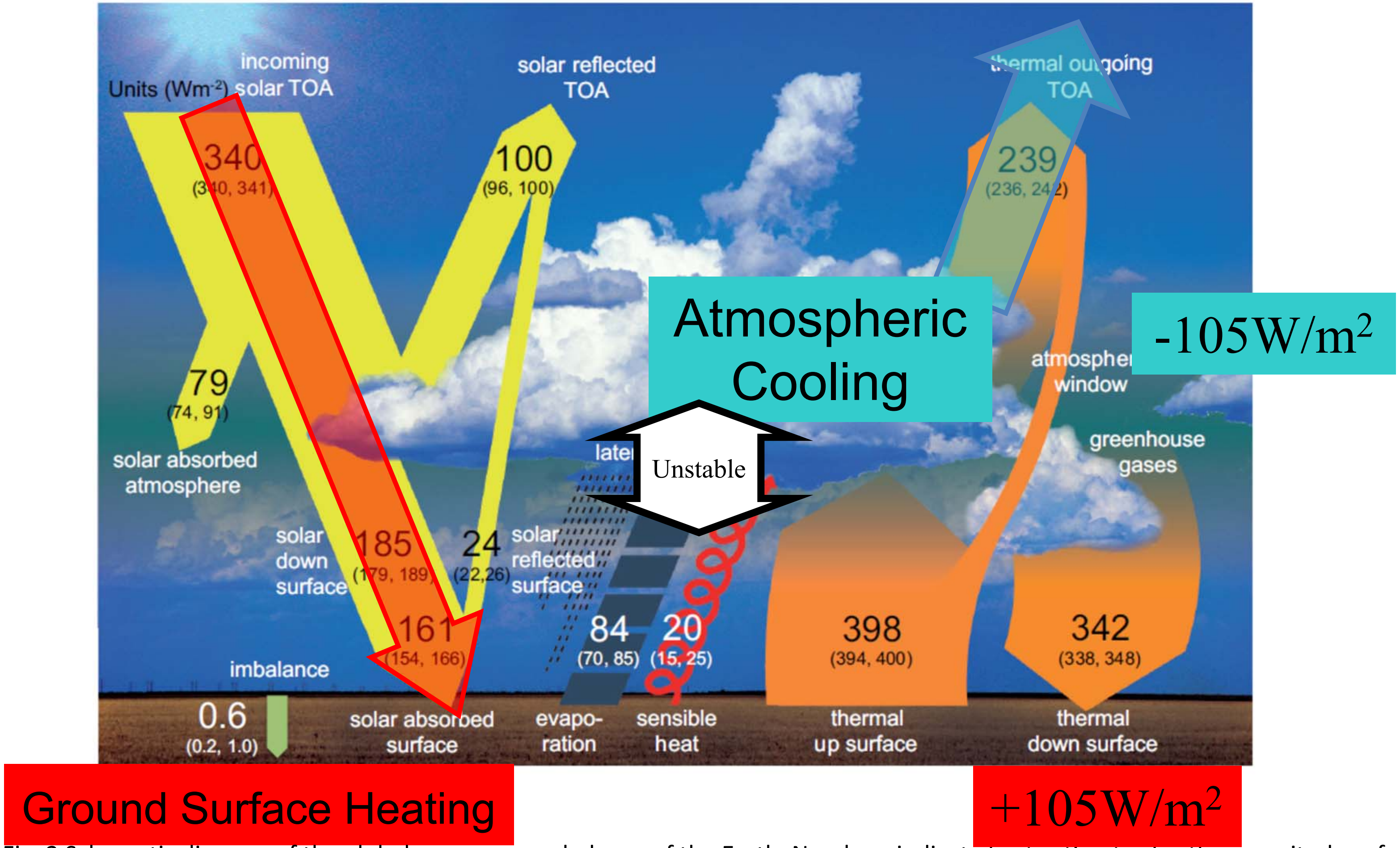
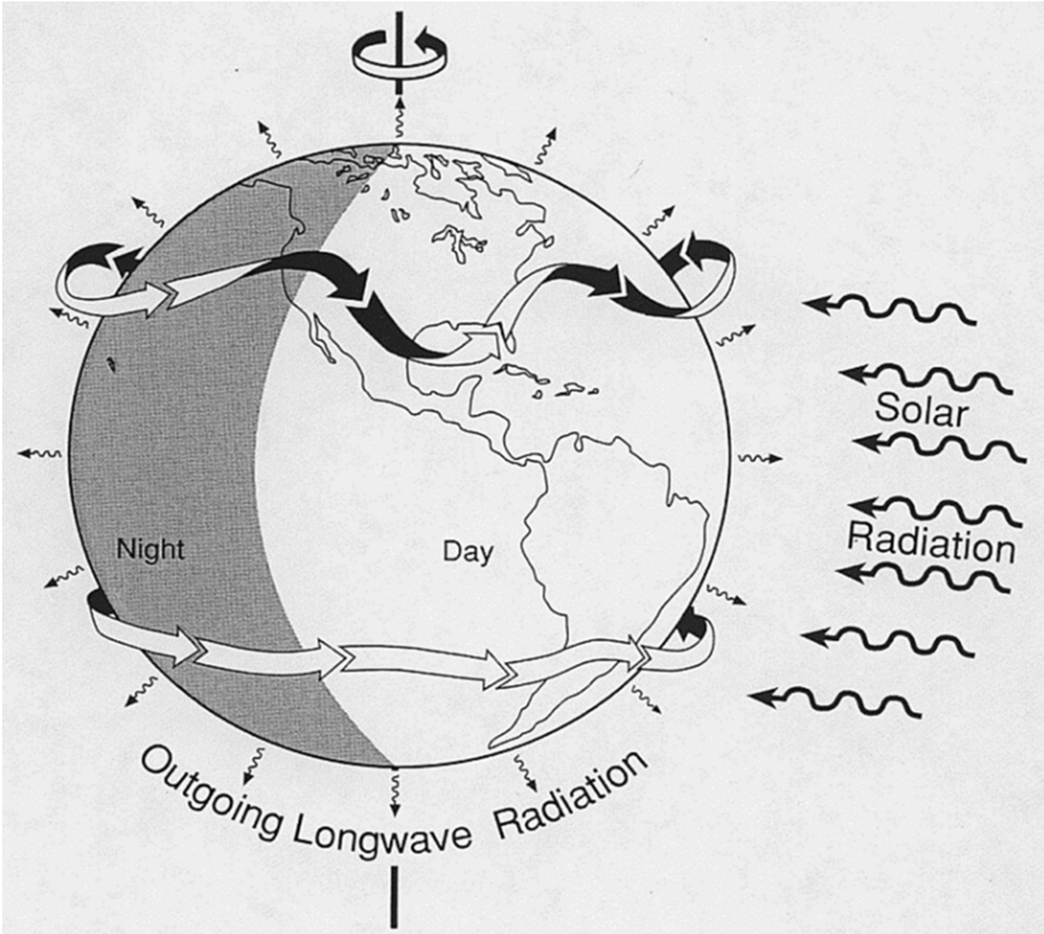
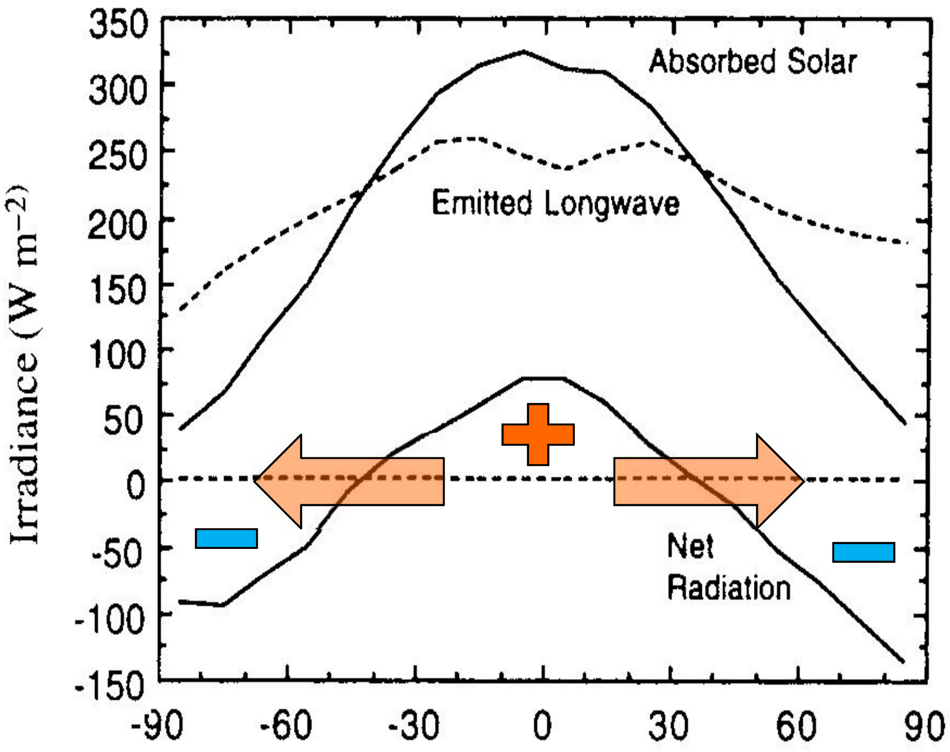


Fig. 2 Schematic diagram of the global mean energy balance of the Earth. Numbers indicate best estimates for the magnitudes of the globally averaged energy balance components together with their uncertainty ranges, representing present day climate conditions at the beginning of the twenty first century. Units Wm-2. Source: Wild et al.(2013.)

1.3 Horizontal Radiative Imbalance and Circulations



Meridional distribution of Annual mean radiation balance

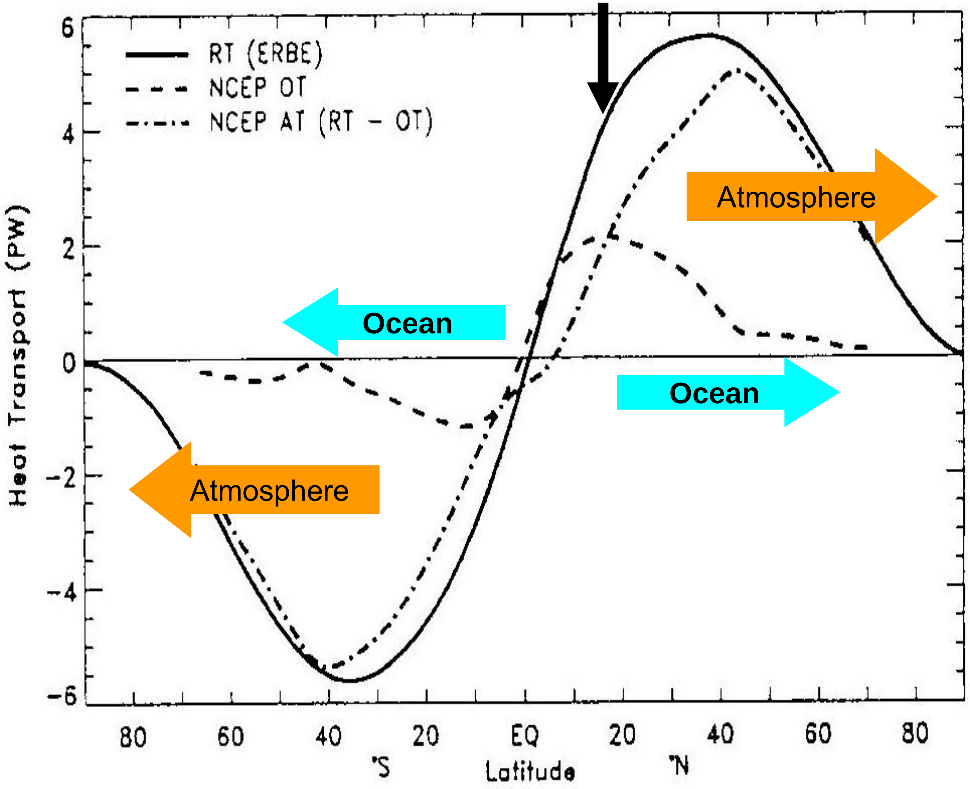


Hartmann (1994)

- Solar radiation
  - Global mean : 235 Wm^{-2}
  - Low latitude : over 300 Wm^{-2}
  - Poles : about 50 Wm^{-2}
- Terrestrial radiation
  - Global mean : 235 Wm^{-2}
  - Less gradient between low latitudes and poles compared to that in solar radiation
- Net radiation
  - Global mean : 0 Wm^{-2}
  - Positive in low latitudes, negative in high latitudes
- **Poleward heat transport by the atmosphere and ocean balances this meridional heat imbalance**

Energy transport by the atmosphere and ocean

Integration from the South Pole of Net radiation absorbed in the Earth



Trenberth and Caron (2001)

- **Both the atmosphere and ocean are responsible for energy transport**
- Atmospheric transport is larger, particularly in the mid and high latitudes
- Oceanic transport is large in low-latitudes

General atmospheric circulation from a state of rest in a climate model

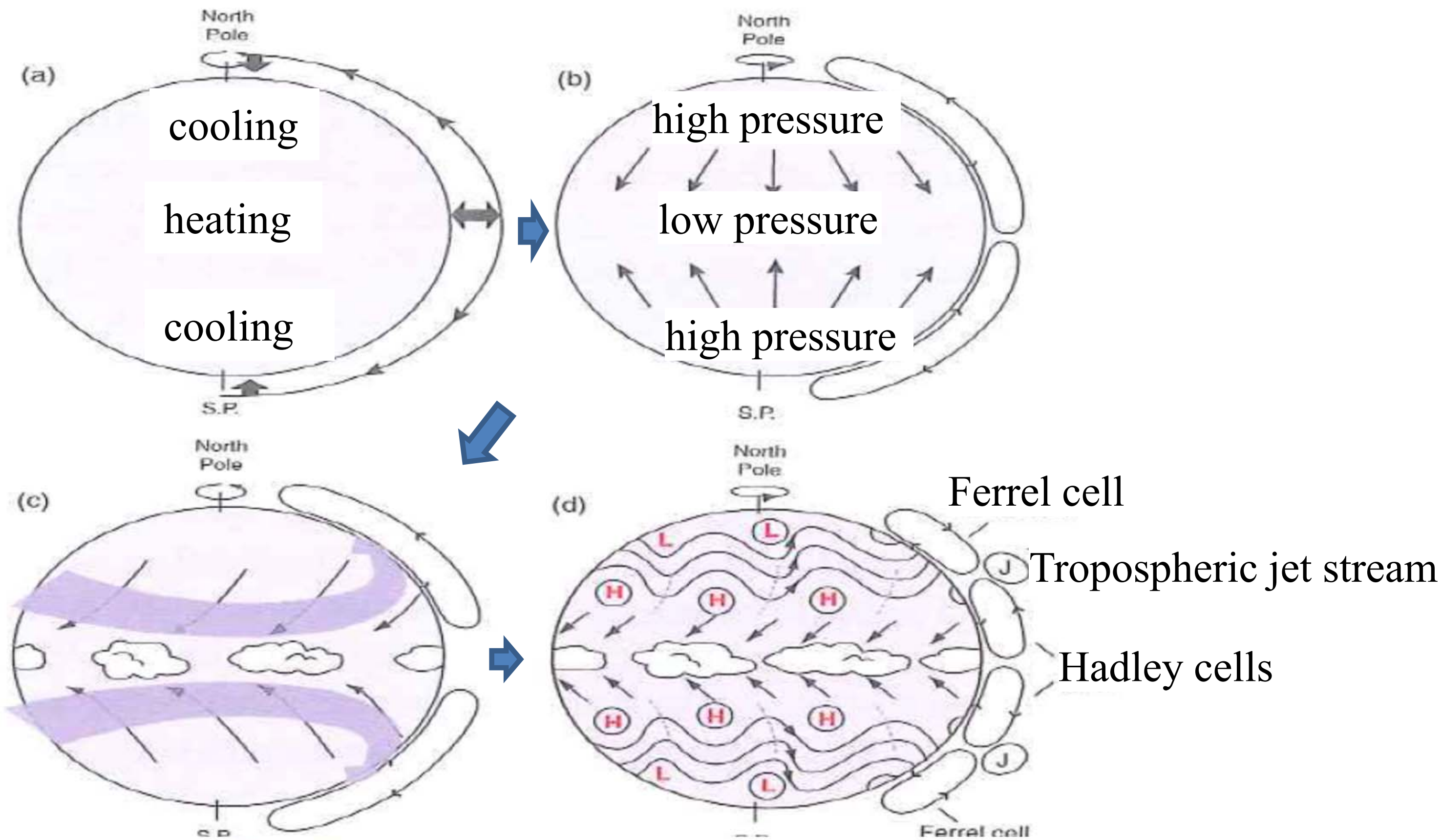


Fig. 7.21 Schematic depiction of the general circulation as it develops from a state of rest in a climate model for equinox conditions in the absence of land–sea contrasts. See text for further explanation.

From Wallace, J.M. and P. V. Hobbs, 2006: Atmospheric Science. Academic Press, 483pp.

Energy Transport by Atmospheric Circulation in the tropics

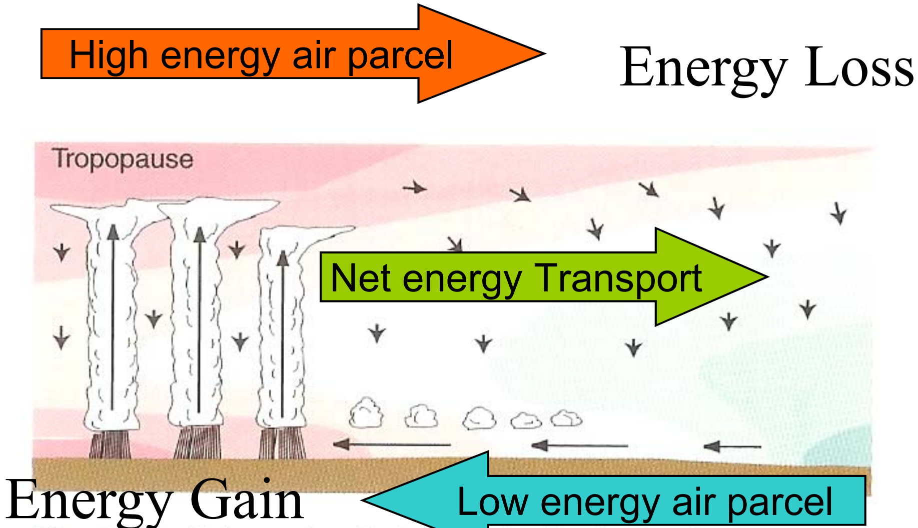


Fig. 10.3 Schematic of air parcels circulating in the atmosphere. The Colored shading represents potential temperature or moist static energy, with pink indicating higher values and blue lower values. Air parcels acquire latent and sensible heat during the time that they reside within the boundary layer, raising their moist static energy. They conserve moist static energy as they ascend rapidly in updrafts in clouds, and they cool by radiative transfer as they descend much more slowly in clear air.

- Moist Static Energy

  $$H=CpT+gZ+Lq$$

  T: Temperature

  Z: Height

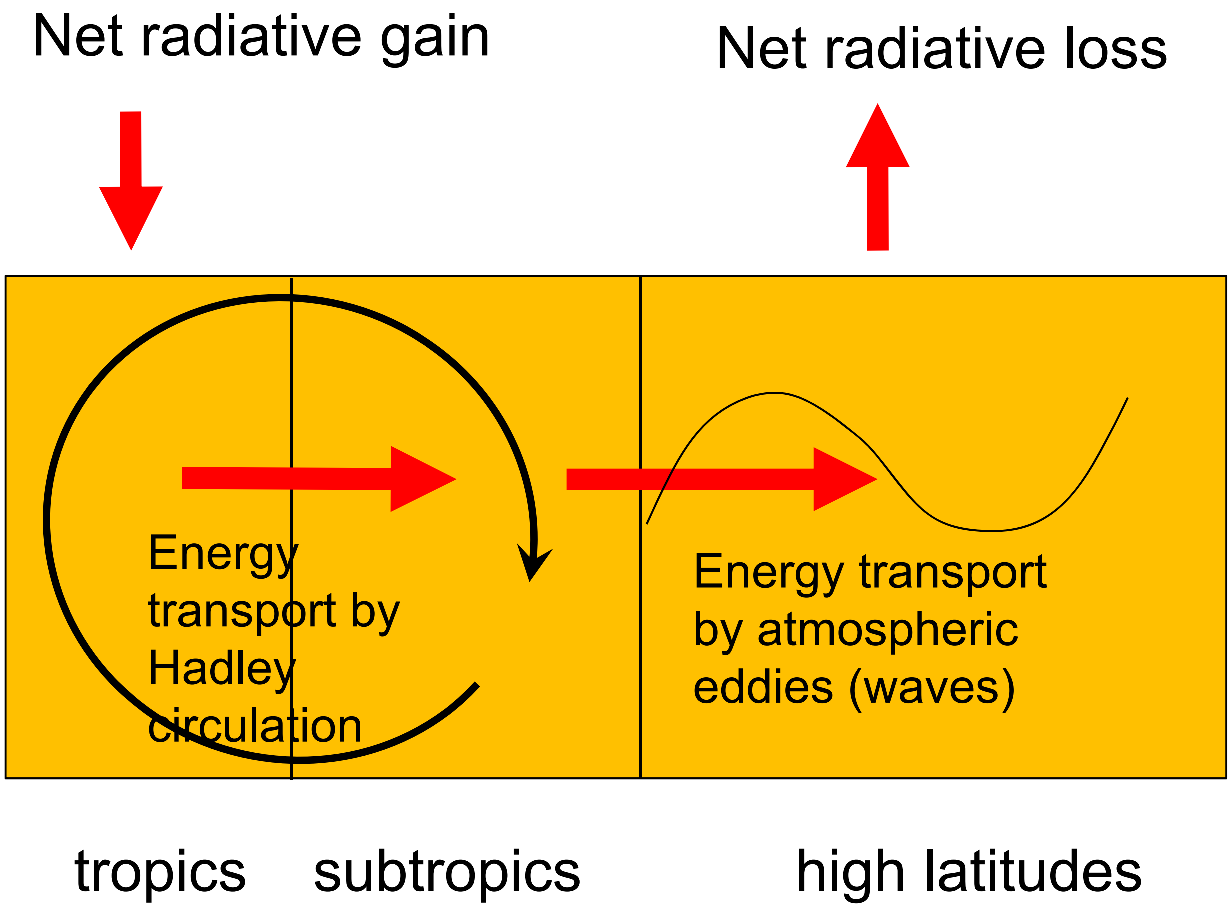
  q: Specific Humidity

H of air parcels is conserved even through adiabatic process and/or condensation process,

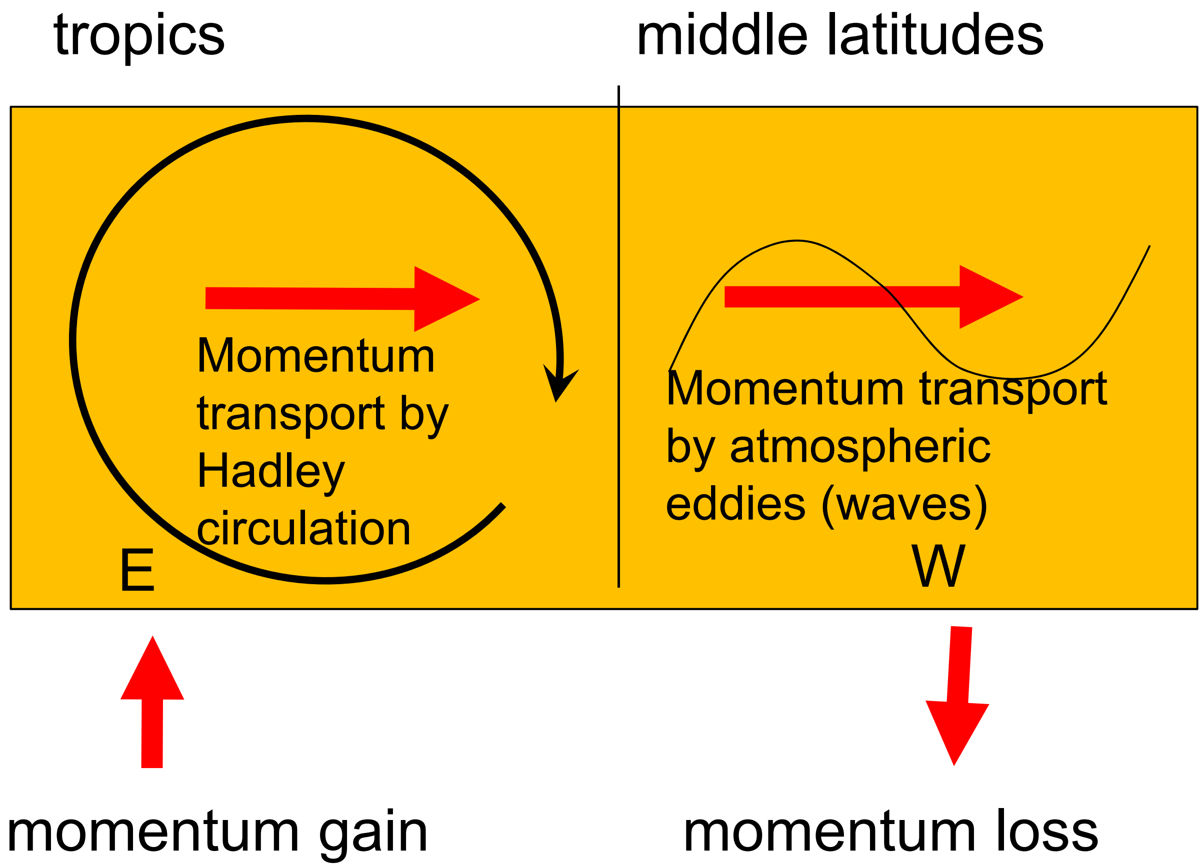
but, not conserved through the processes of radiation, heat and moisture supply from ground surface.

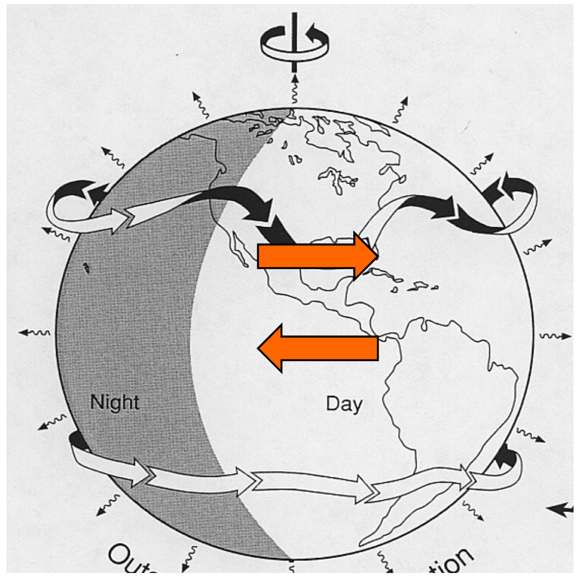
From Wallace, J.M. and P. V. Hobbs, 2006: Atmospheric Science. Academic Press, 483pp.

- Energy transport by atmospheric general circulation

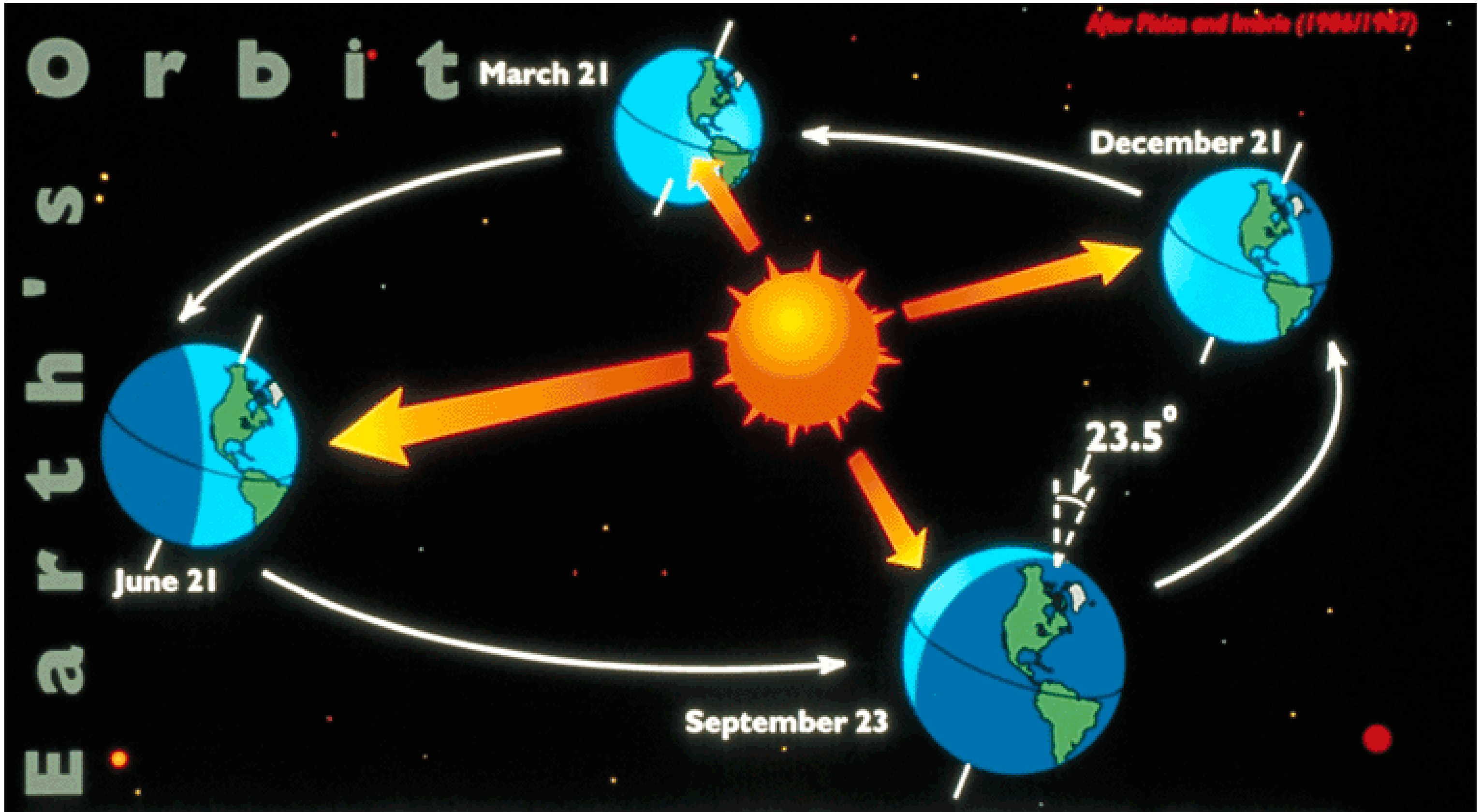


Momentum transport by atmospheric general circulation



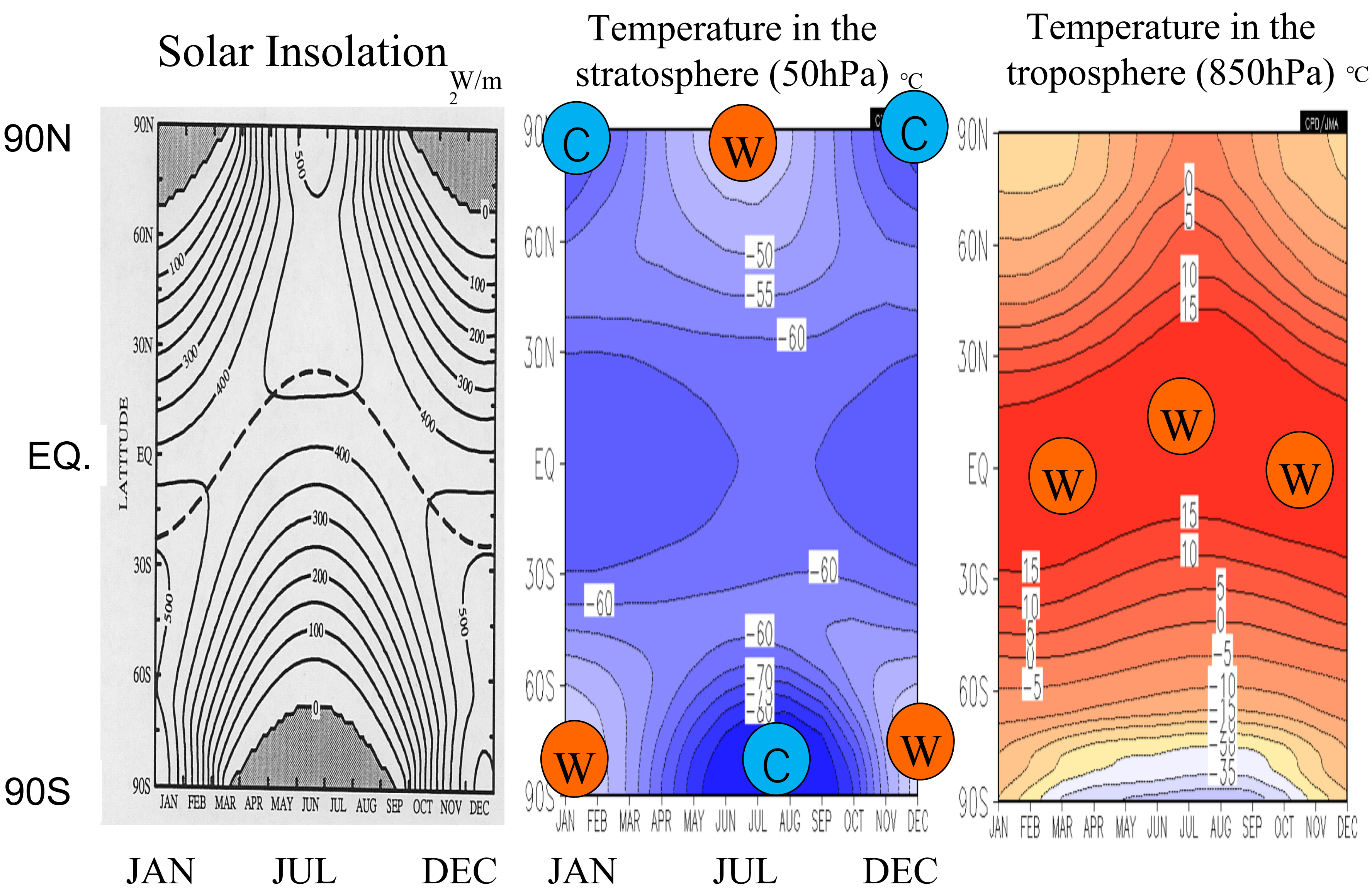


1.4 Seasonal Change

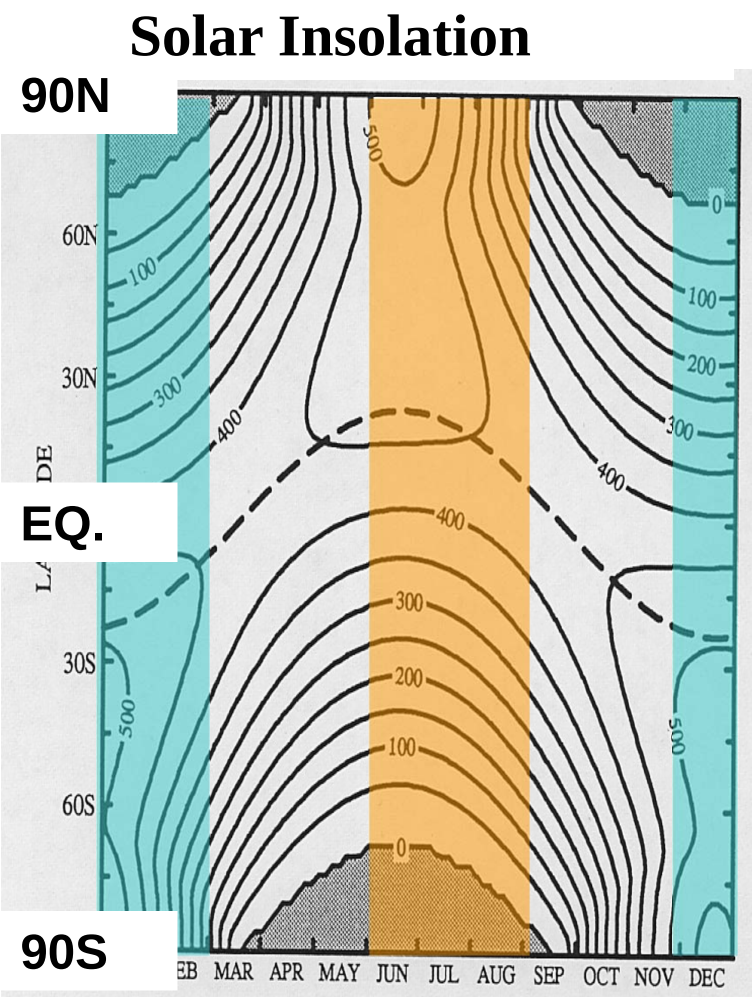


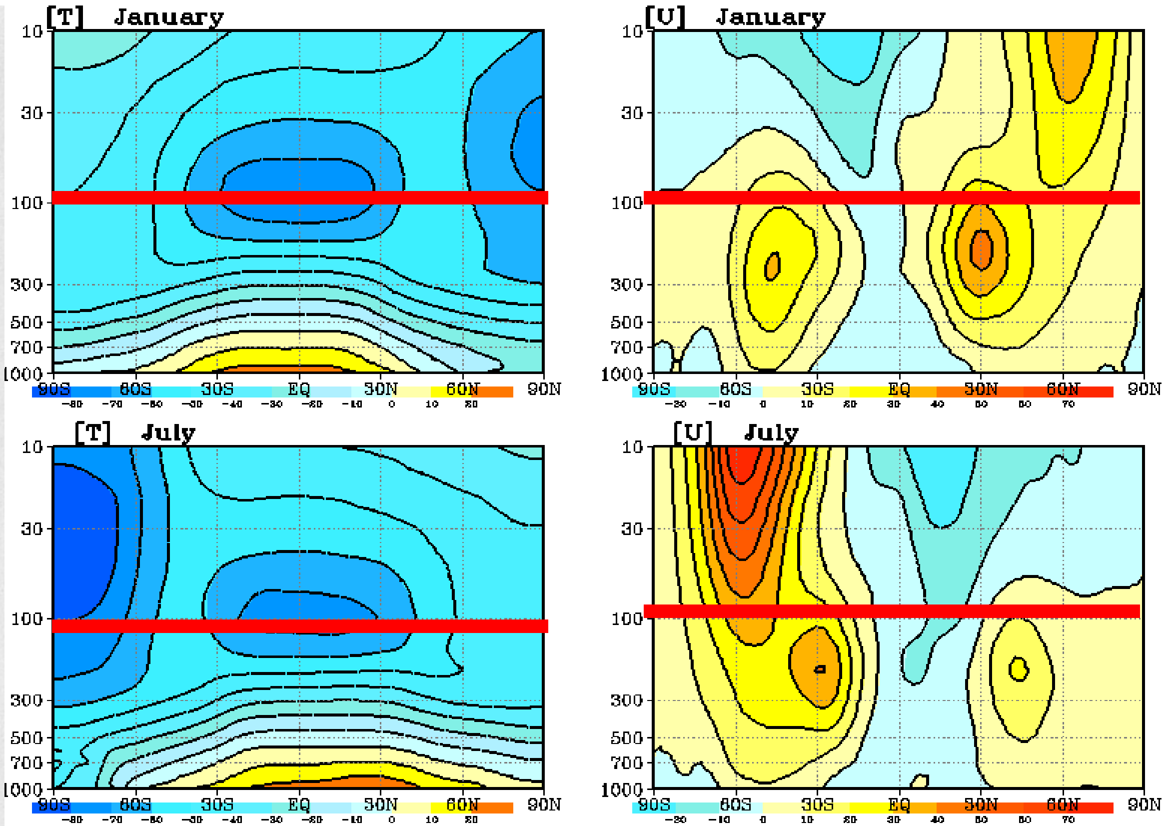
Viewed in the present, the tilted Earth revolves around the Sun on an elliptical path. The orientation of the axis remains fixed in space, producing changes in the distribution of solar radiation over the course of the year. These changes in the pattern of radiation reaching Earth's surface cause the succession of the seasons. The Earth's orbital geometry, however, is not fixed over time. Indeed, long-term variations in the Earth's orbit help explain the waxing and waning of global climate in the last several million years.

Seasonal Change of Solar Insolation and Temperature



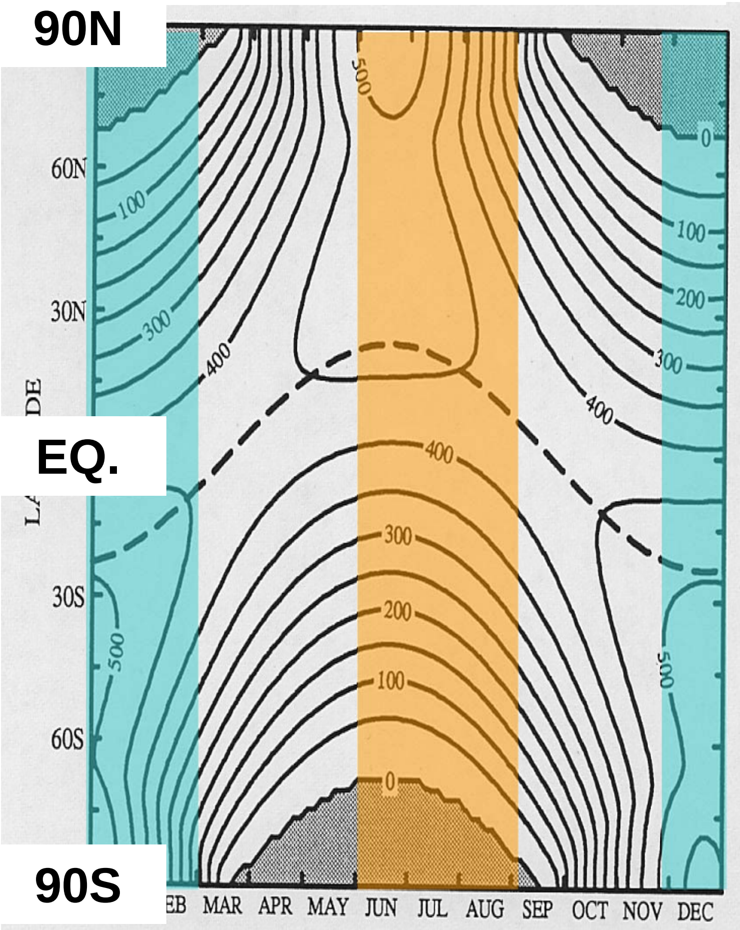
Seasonal Change of Temperature and Zonal Wind





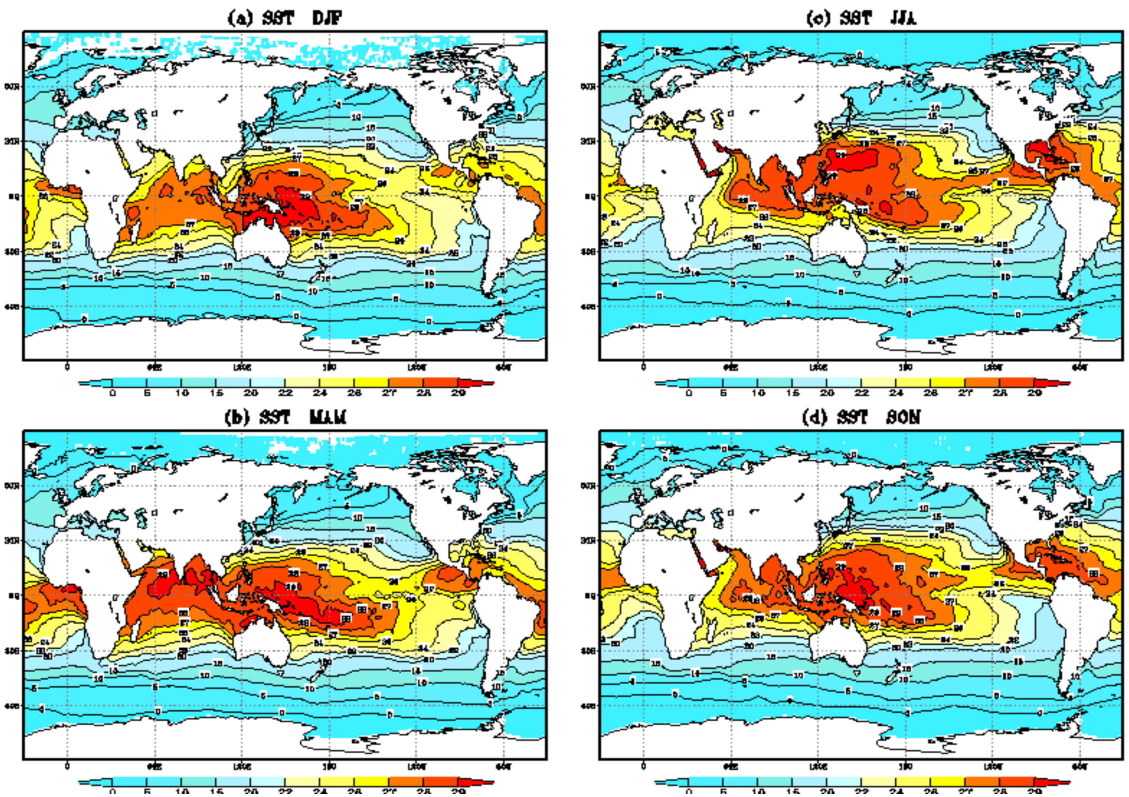
Seasonal Change of Sea Surface Temperature (SST)

Solar Insolation



Dec.-Jan.-Feb.

Jun-July-August



Mar.-Apr.-May

Sep.-Oct.-Nov.

Heat Capacity of atmosphere and ocean

	Atmosphere	Ocean
Density	1.2-1.3kgm^{-3}	10^3kgm^{-3} ：atom. X 800
Mass(per 1 m^2)	（Top ～ Surface） 10^4kgm^{-2}	（Surface ～10m depth） 10^4kgm^{-2} ：Mass of the atmosphere is the same as that of ocean with 10m depth
Specific heat	10^3Jkg^{-1}K^{-1}	4 ×10^3Jkg^{-1}K^{-1} ：atom. X 4
Heat capacity (per 1 m^2)	（Top ～ Surface） 10^7JK^{-1}m^{-2}	（Surface ～2.5m depth） 10^7JK^{-1}m^{-2} ：Heat capacity of the atmosphere is the same as that of ocean with 2.5m depth

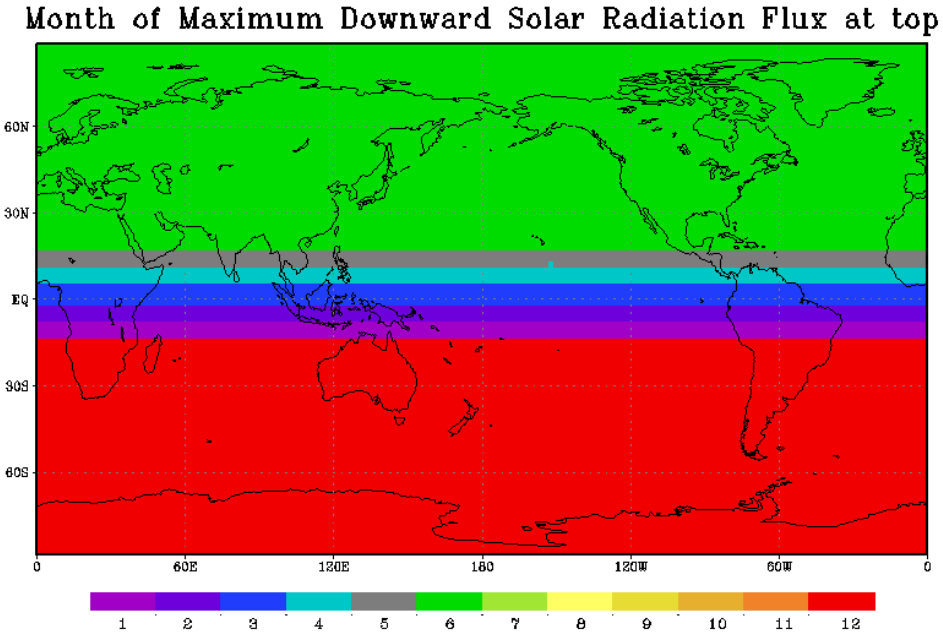
"1K in 250m depth ocean" is near equal to "100K in the atmosphere"

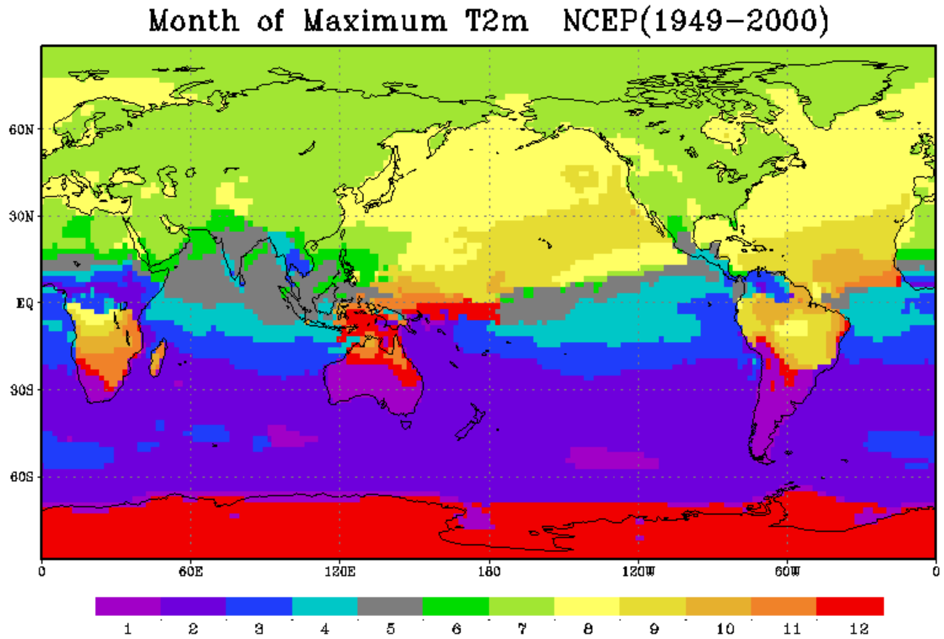
＊from Gill 1982

Month of maximum monthly mean temperature

Solar max/min = Dec/Jun

Temperature max/min = Jan,Feb/Jun,Jul



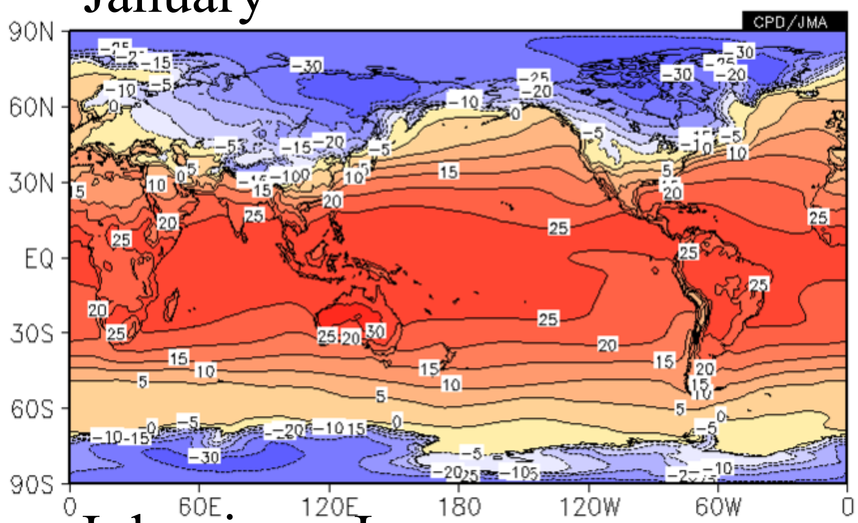


(Left) Downward solar radiation at the top of the atmosphere is maximum in June (December) poleward of about 15° latitude in the NH (SH). In the tropics, it is January, February, March, April and May at 10° S, 4° S, 2° N, 8° N and 14° N, respectively.

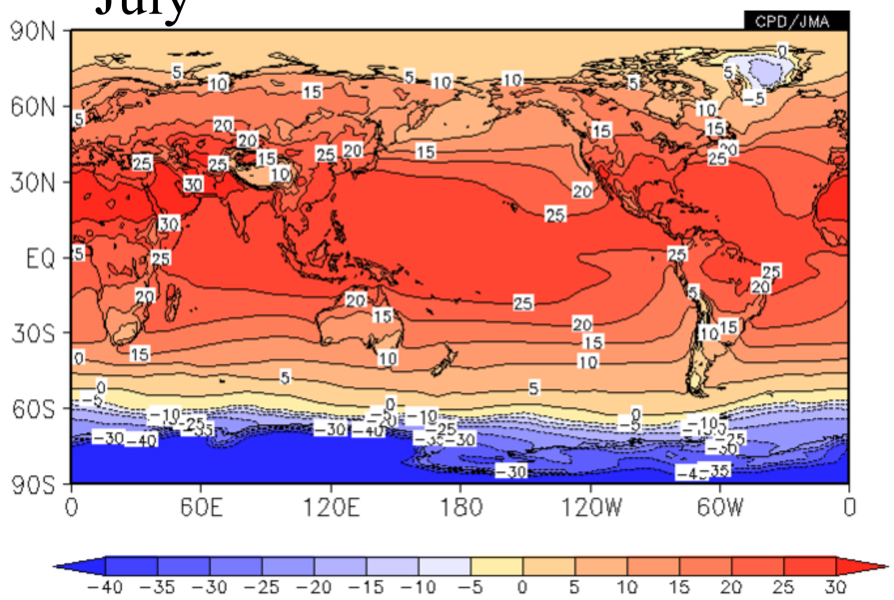
(Right) Actual month of maximum monthly mean temperature is quite different due to inertia of atmosphere, land and ocean. It is July over the continents and August over the oceans in the NH, but its distribution is not simple.

Jan-Jul contrast of surface temperature (°C)

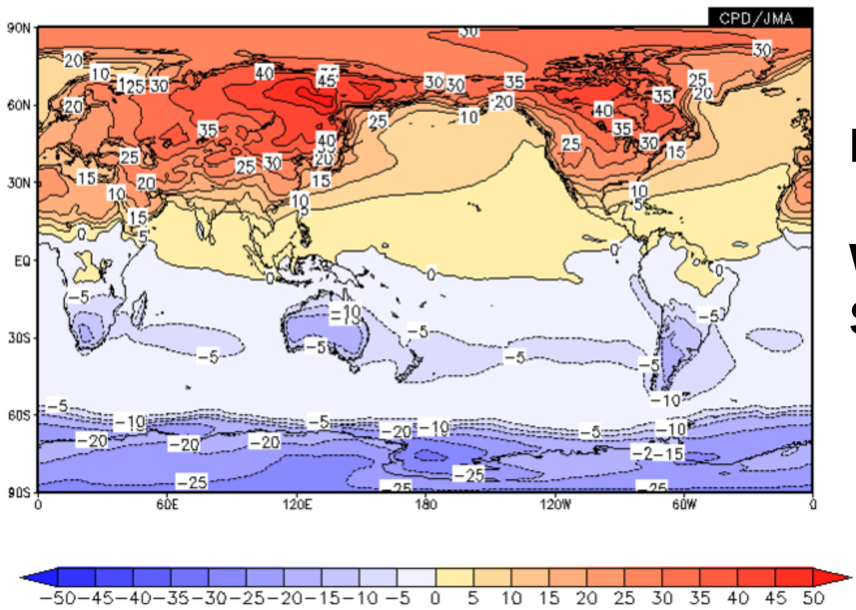
January



July



Jul. minus Jan.



Larger temperature contrast over lands

Winter: land temp. < ocean temp.
Summer: land temp. > ocean temp.

Monsoon circulation

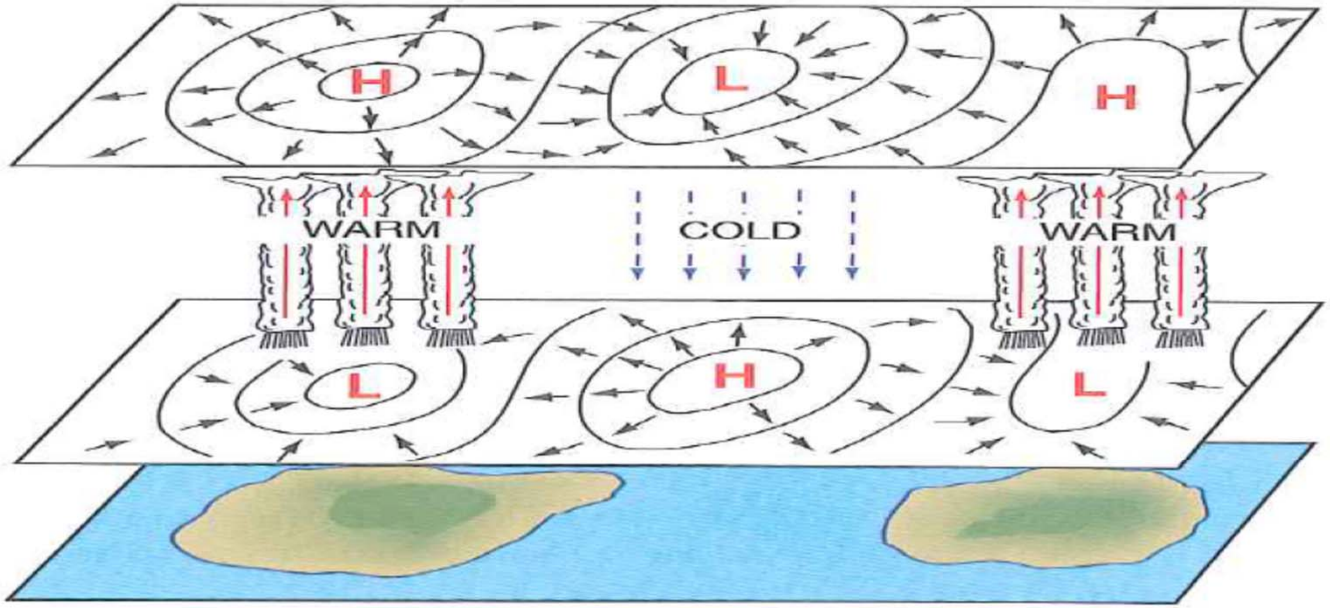
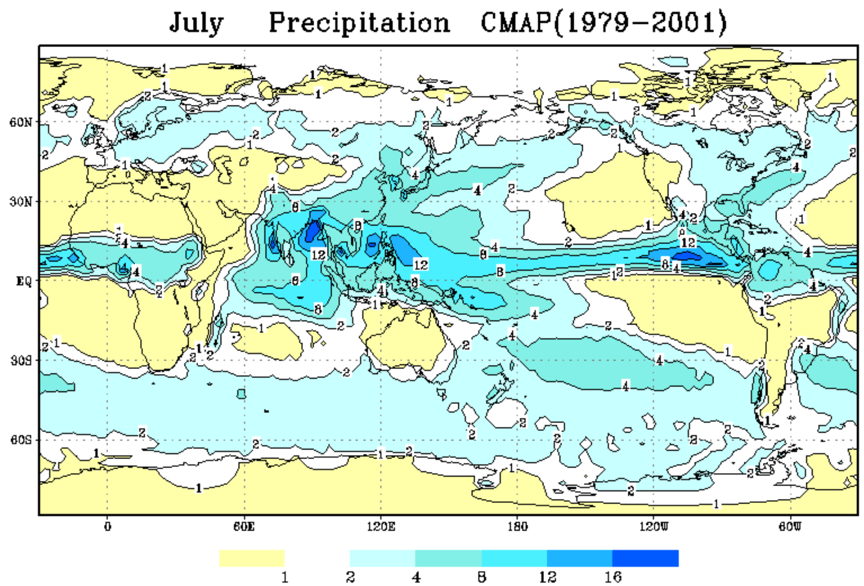
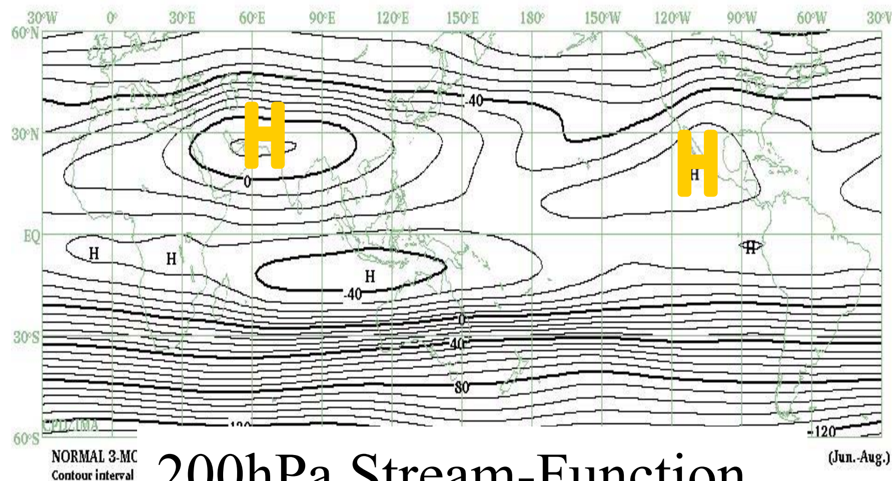


Fig. 10.9 Idealized representation of the monsoon circulations. The islands represent the subtropical continents in the summer hemisphere. Solid lines represent isobars or height contours near sea level (lower plane) and near 14 km or 150 hPa (upper plane). Short solid arrows indicate the sense of the cross-isobar flow. Vertical arrows indicate the sense of the vertical motions in the middle troposphere. Regions that experience of summer monsoon rainfall are also indicated.

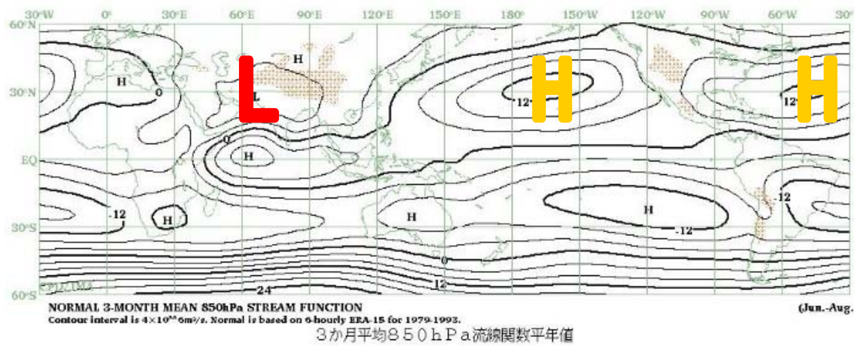
From Wallace, J.M. and P. V. Hobbs, 2006: Atmospheric Science. Academic Press, 483pp.

Northern Summer Monsoon



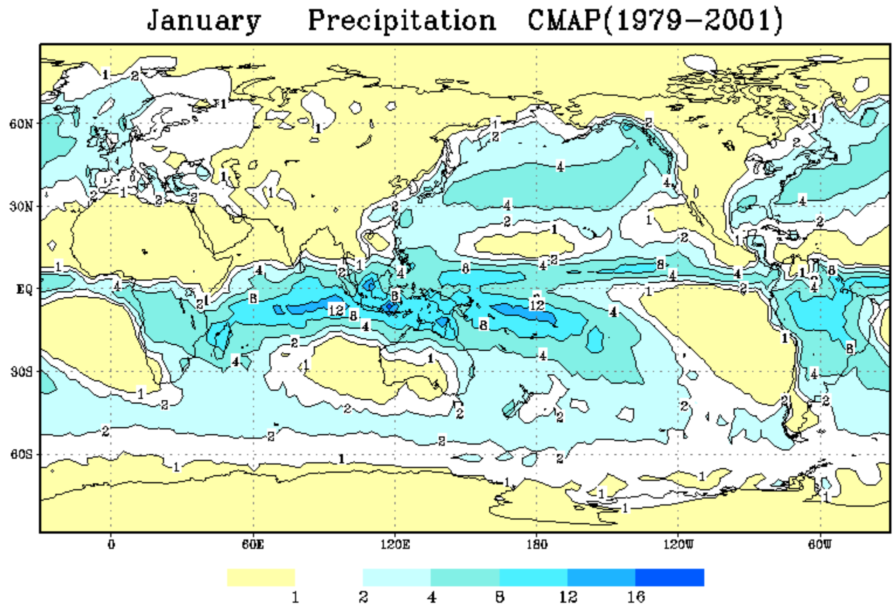


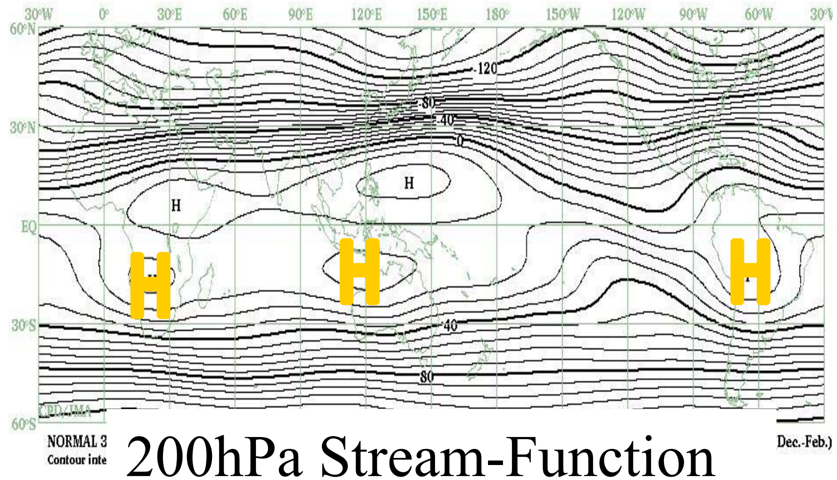
200hPa Stream-Function



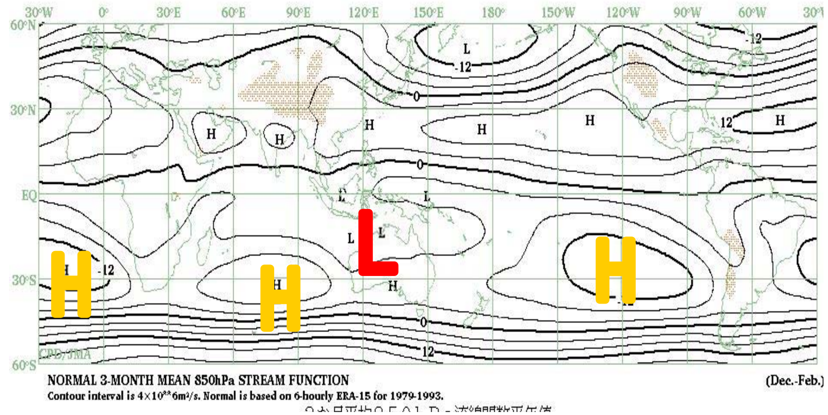
850hPa Stream-Function

Southern Summer Monsoon





200hPa Stream-Function



850hPa Stream-Function

Local heating in the tropics forces stationary waves

Diabatic heating in Jan.

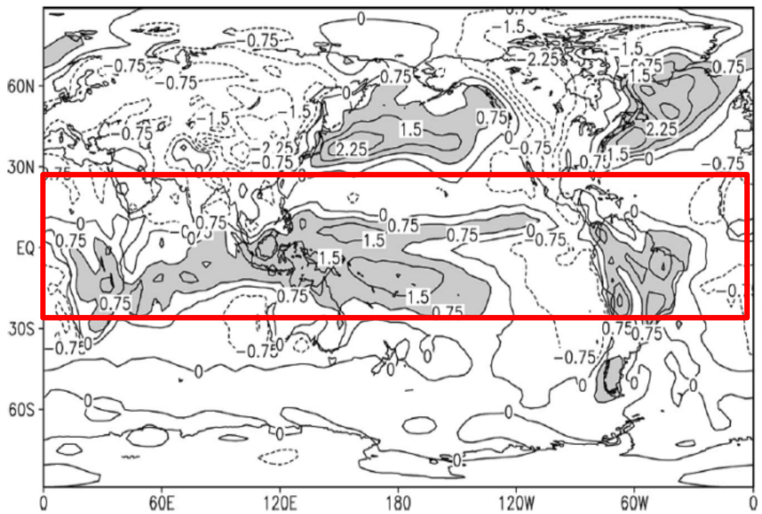
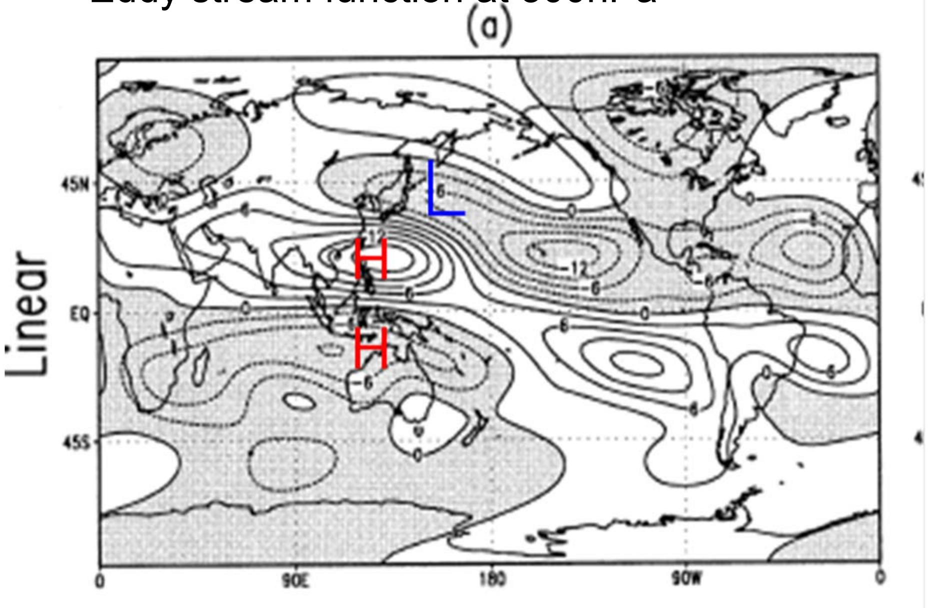


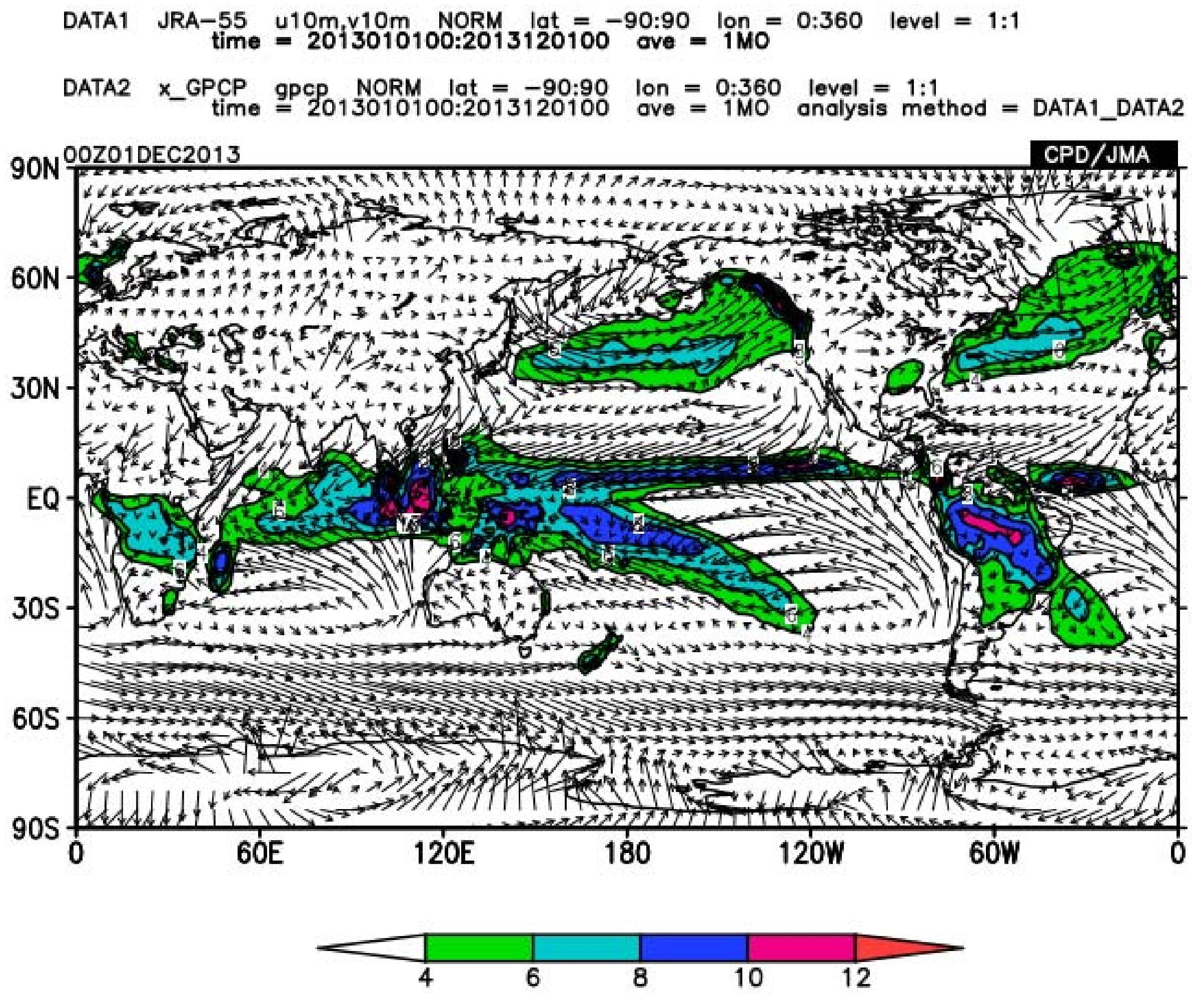
FIG. 8. The column-averaged diabatic heating field in Jan obtained from the NCEP–NCAR reanalysis as described in the appendix. The contour interval is 0.5 K day^{-1}.

Linear response to the heating in the left panel
Eddy stream function at 300hPa

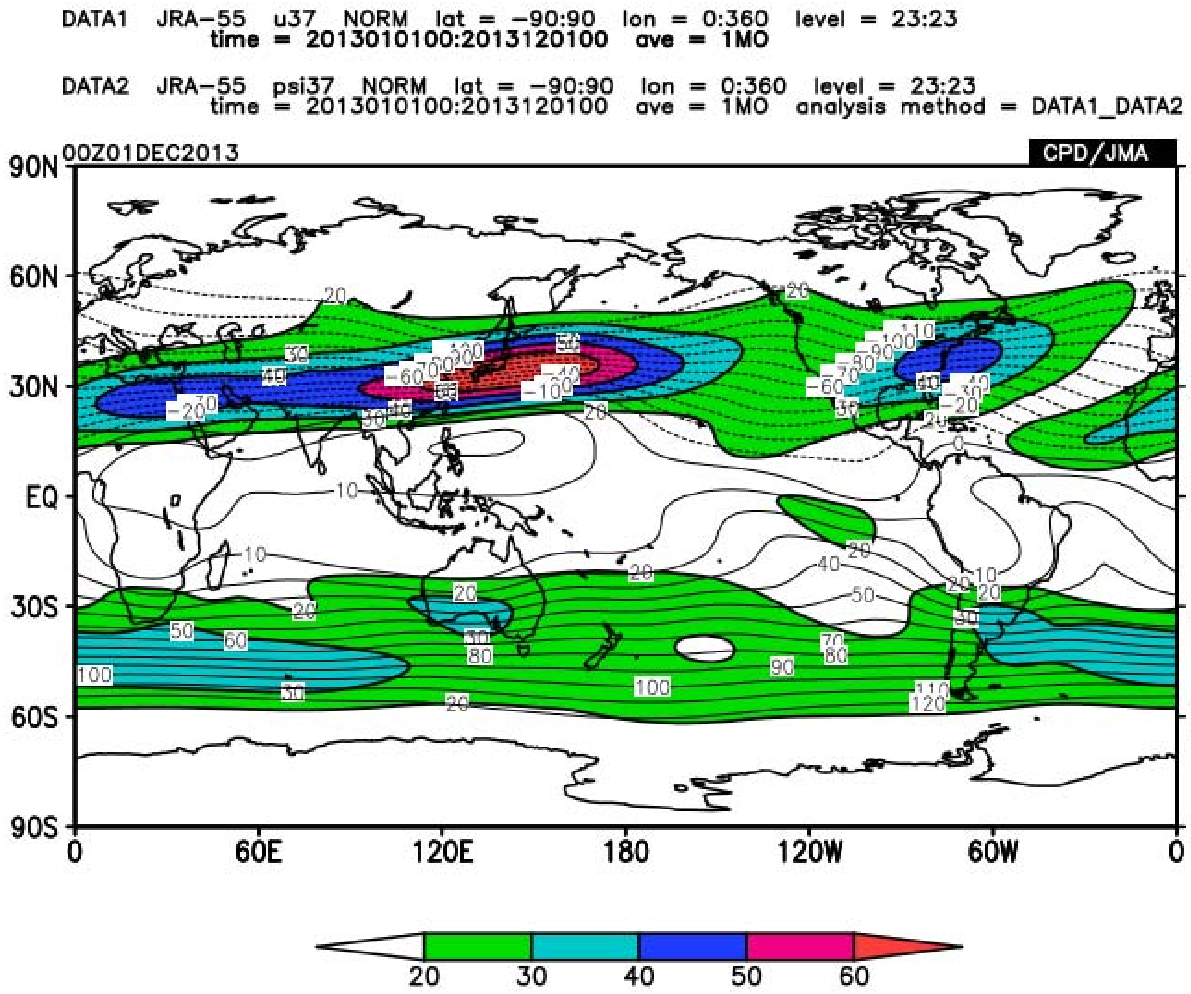


Held et al. (2002)

■ Seasonal change of precipitation and surface wind



■ Seasonal change of zonal wind and stream function at 200hPa



1.5 Role of orography on climate

Effect of mountains on climate

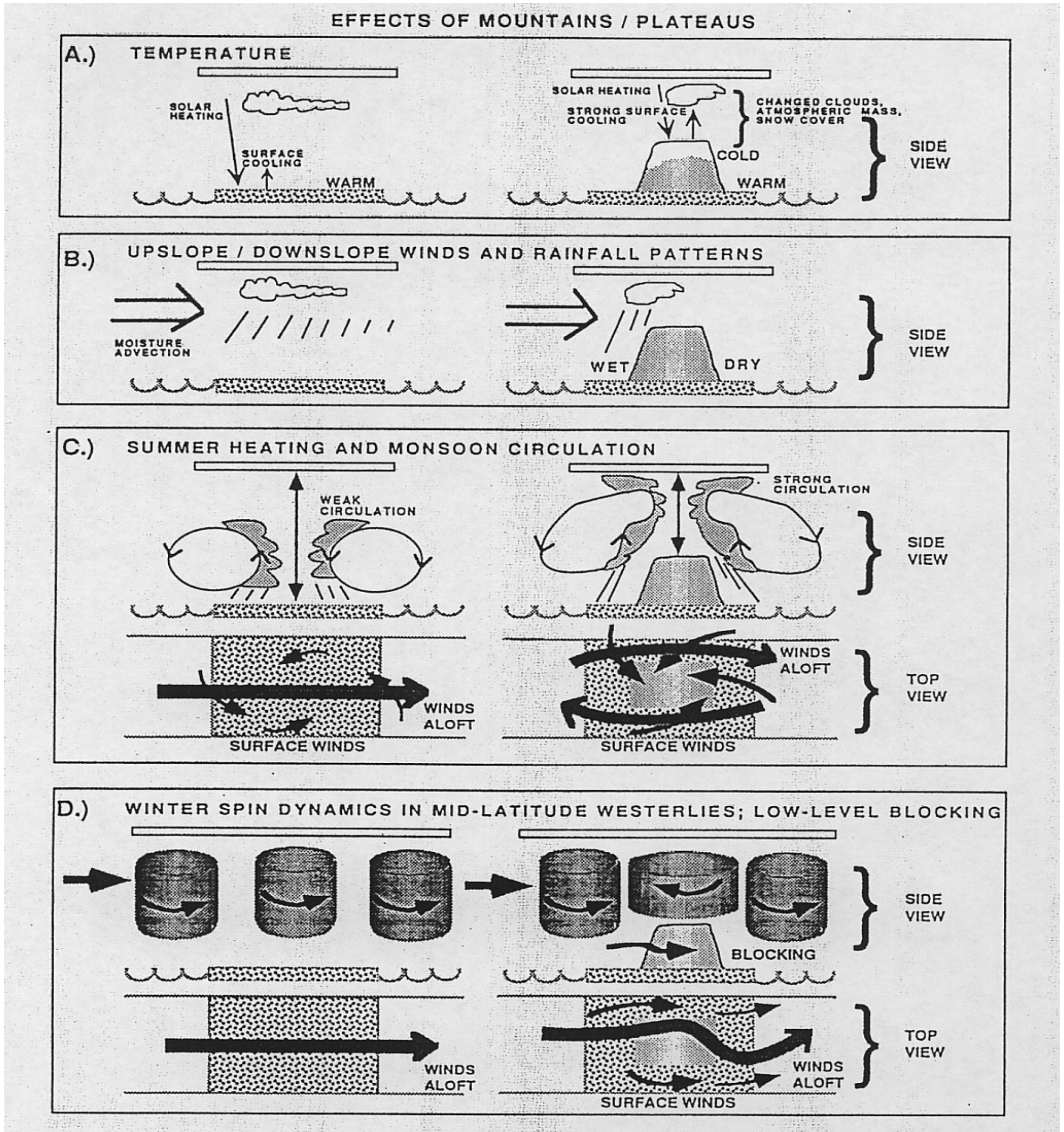
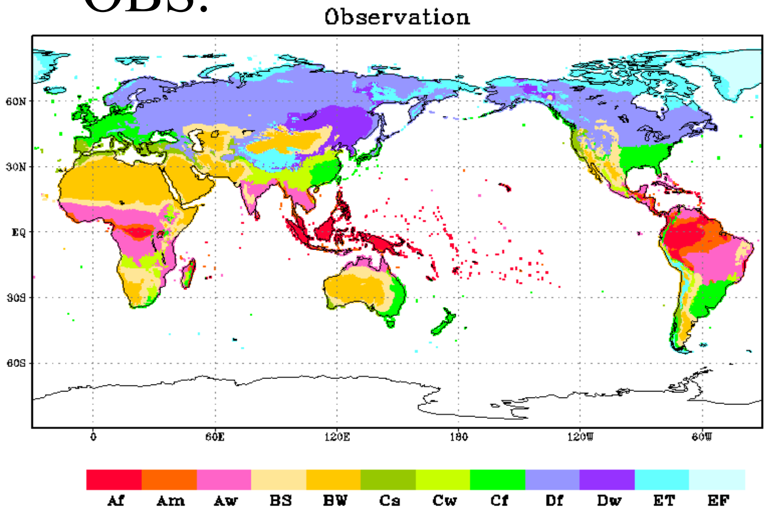


Figure 1. Effects of mountains/plateaus on climate: (*a*) temperature, (*b*) upslope/downslope winds and rainfall patterns, (*c*) summer heating and monsoon circulation, and (*d*) winter spin dynamics in mid-latitude westerlies, and low-level blocking. See text for explanation.

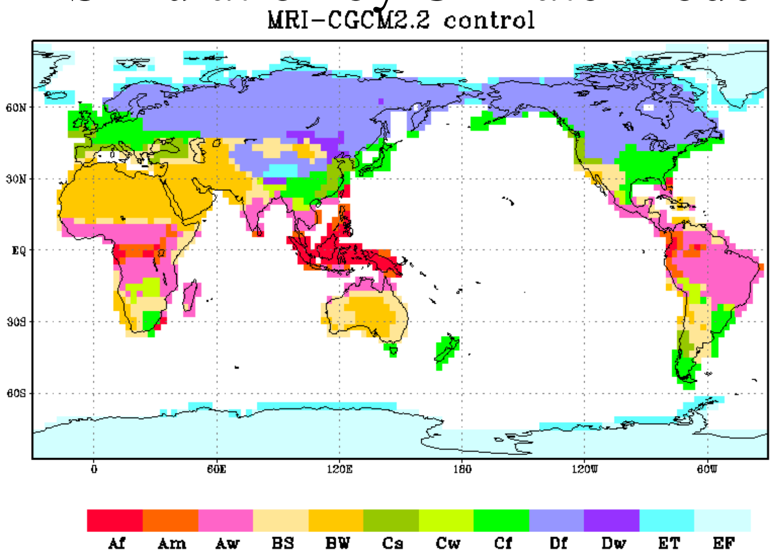
Kutzbach et al. (1993) J.Geology

Effect of mountain: Koppen climate

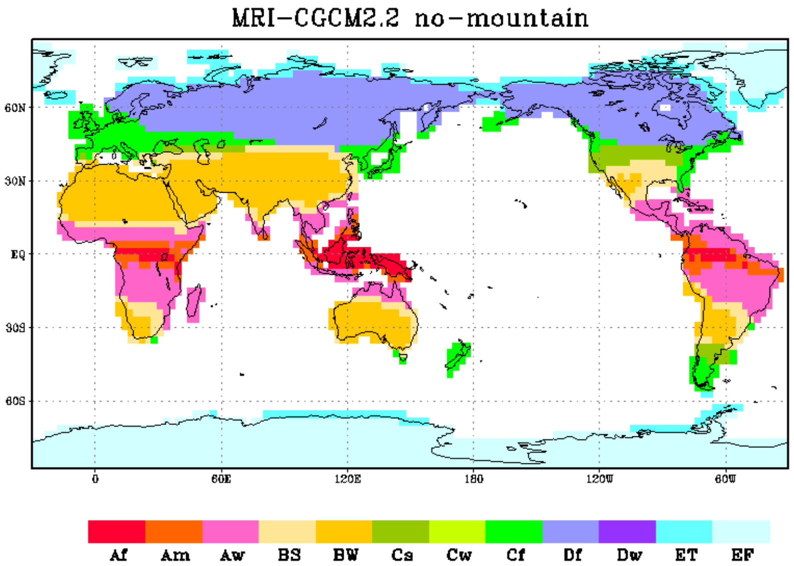
OBS.



Simulation by Climate Model



Simulation by Climate Model without mountain



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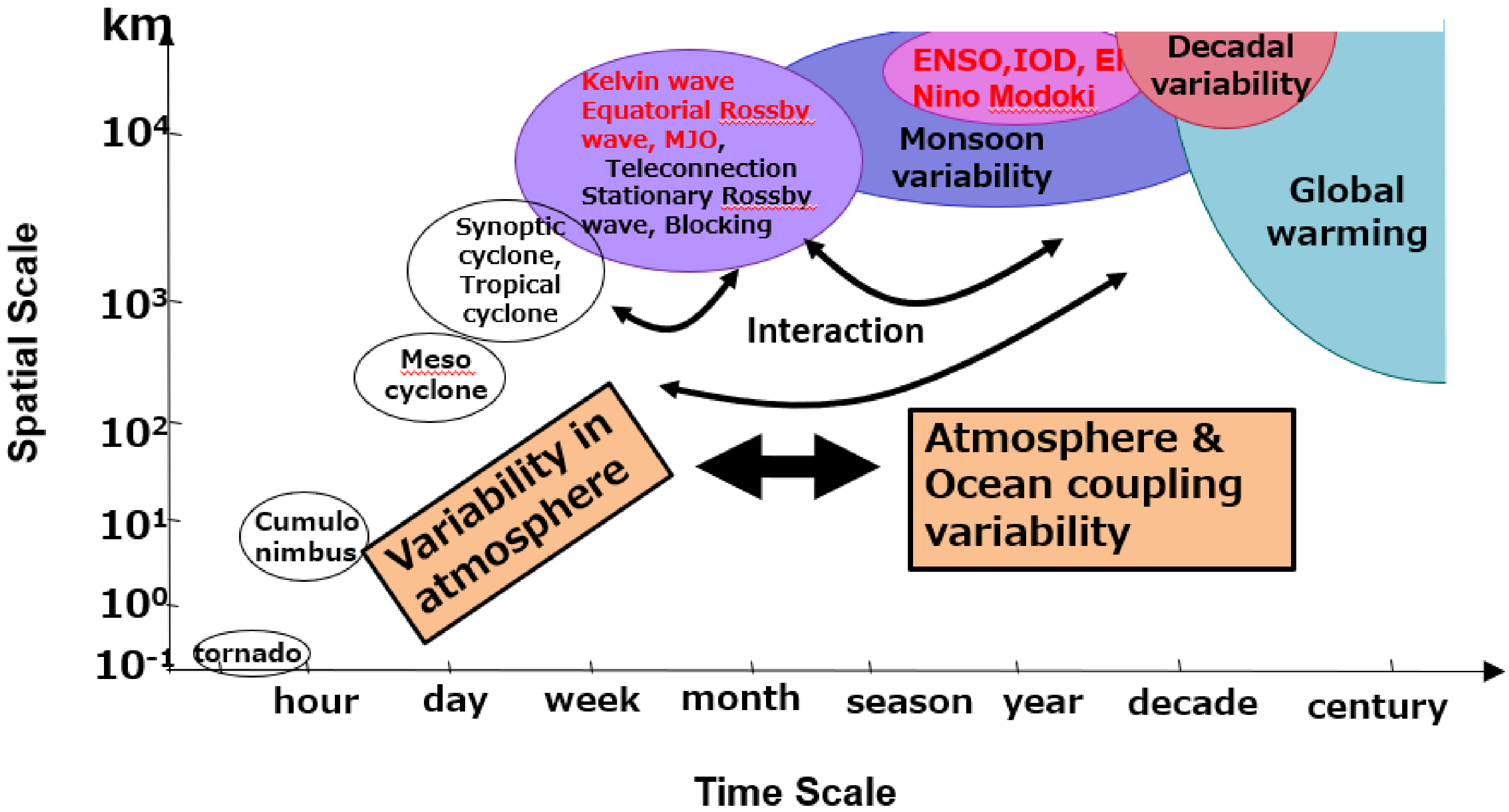
2.1 Introduction

Atmospheric and Oceanic variability



Causes of Climate Variability

- Natural origin

  external: land-sea distribution, orography

  solar constant, orbital variations, volcano

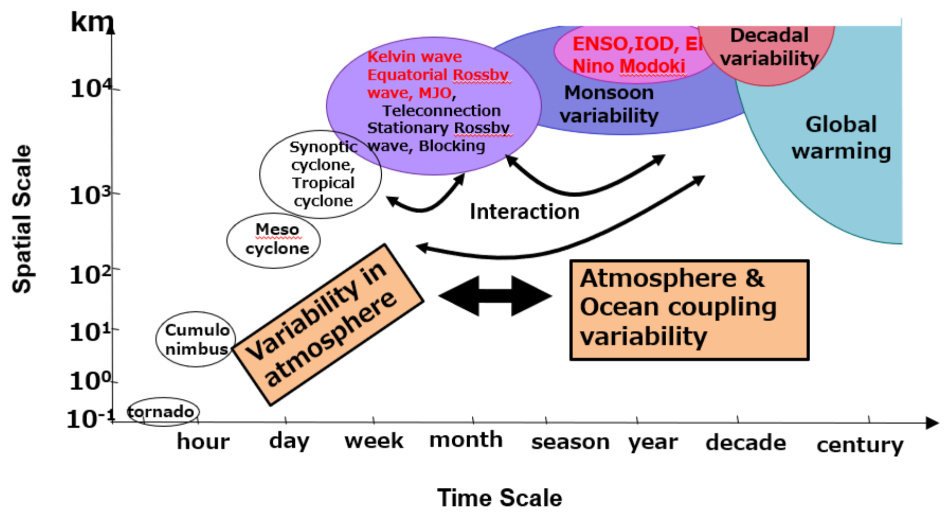
  internal variability of the climate system

  (e.g., air-sea interaction,,,)

- Anthropogenic origin

  emission of greenhouse gases, destruction of ozone layer, land surface modification,,, (= climate change)

Atmospheric and Oceanic variability



Various time scales of climate variability

- days to intraseasonal variability
  Blocking, Quasi-stationary Rossby wave
  Madden-Julian Oscillation (MJO)

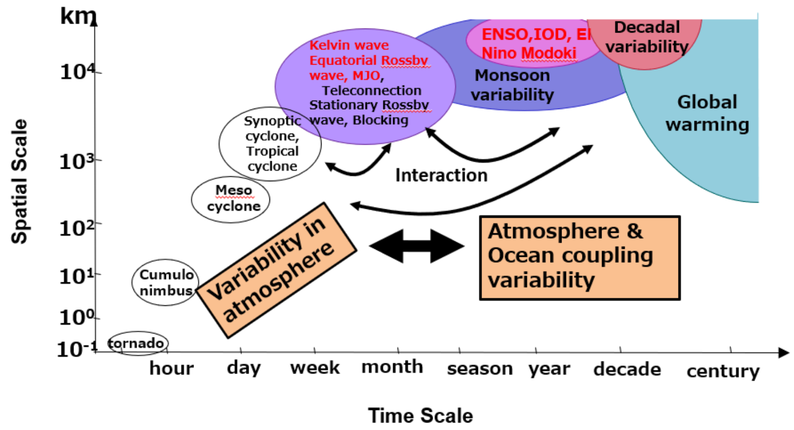
- seasonal to interannual climate variability
  El Nino/Southern Oscillation (ENSO)
  monsoon variability
  modes of variability (NAO, PNA, WP patterns)

- decadal to interdecadal climate variability

- ocean thermohaline circulation

- glacial and interglacial

Atmospheric and Oceanic variability

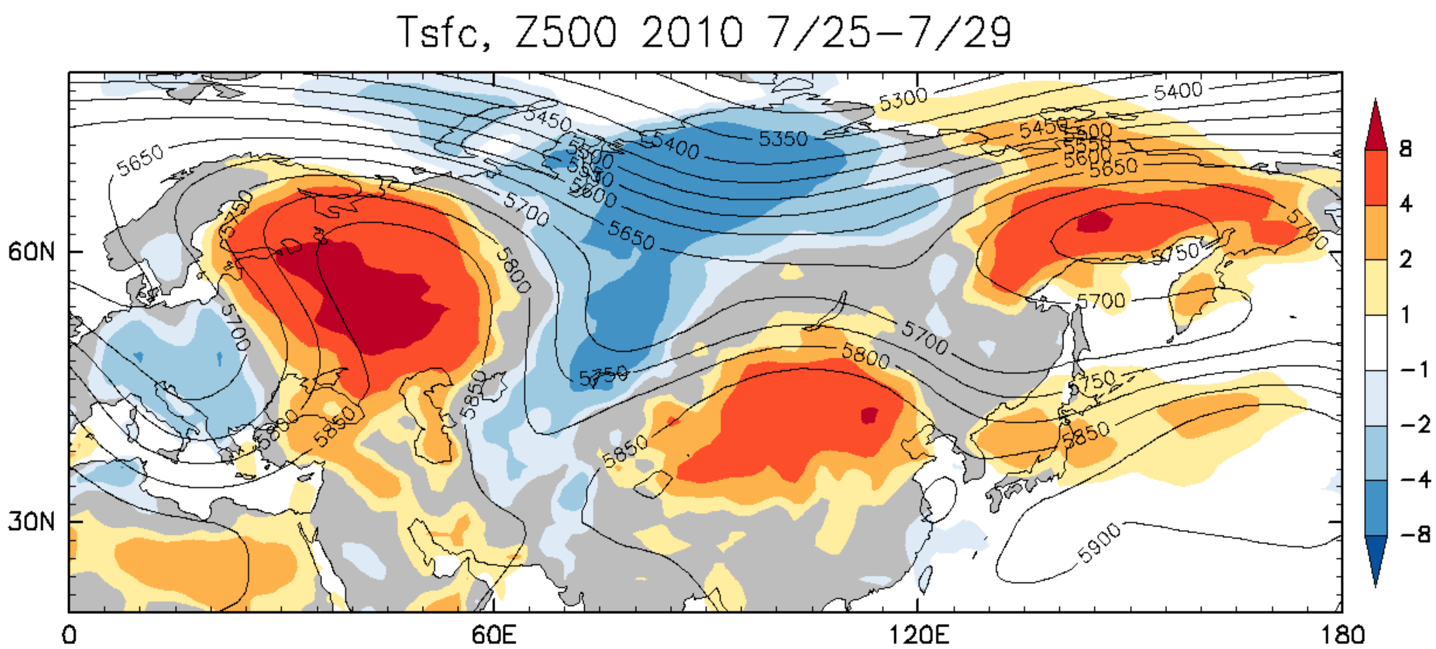


N.B. climate system is not in equilibrium

2.2 Intraseasonal Variability

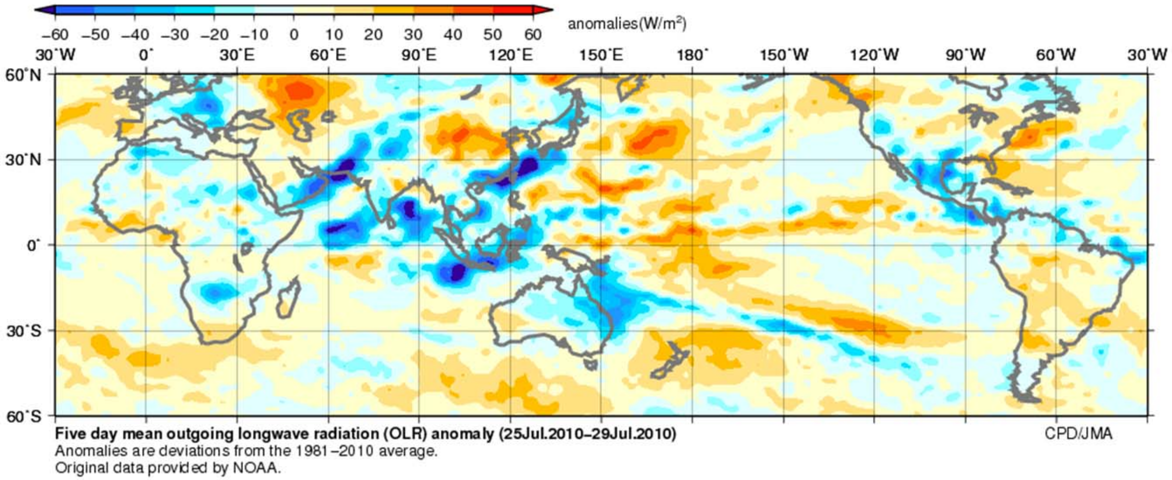
Blocking

- Example: Heatwave by blocking in 2010
- Eastern Europe: late June to late July
- Western Russia: late July to mid August
  - 38.2℃ at Moscow on July 30 (15℃ higher than climatology)
  - Heavy rainfall and floods over Pakistan
- Hot summer also over Japan



Heavy rainfall and floods over Pakistan

OLRa



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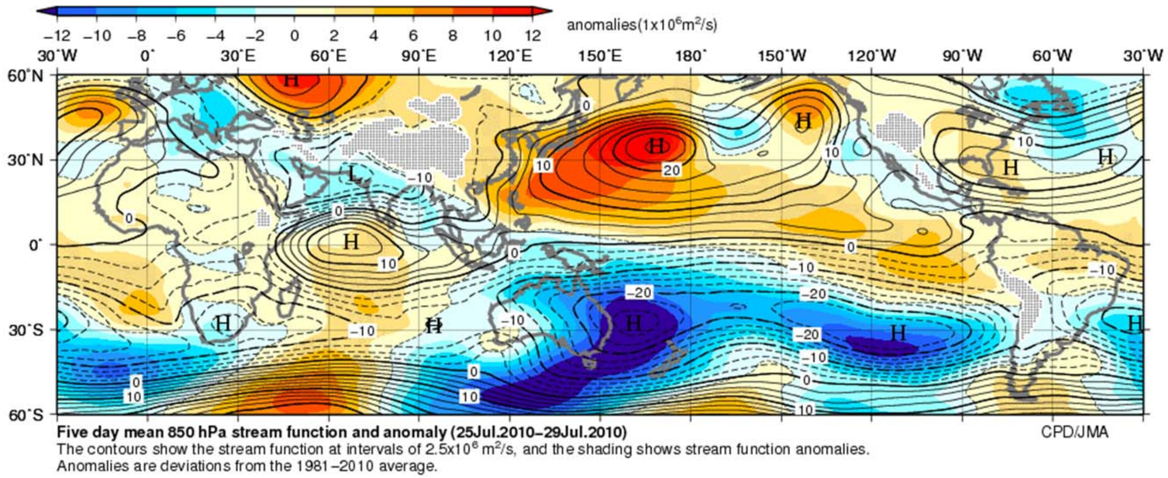
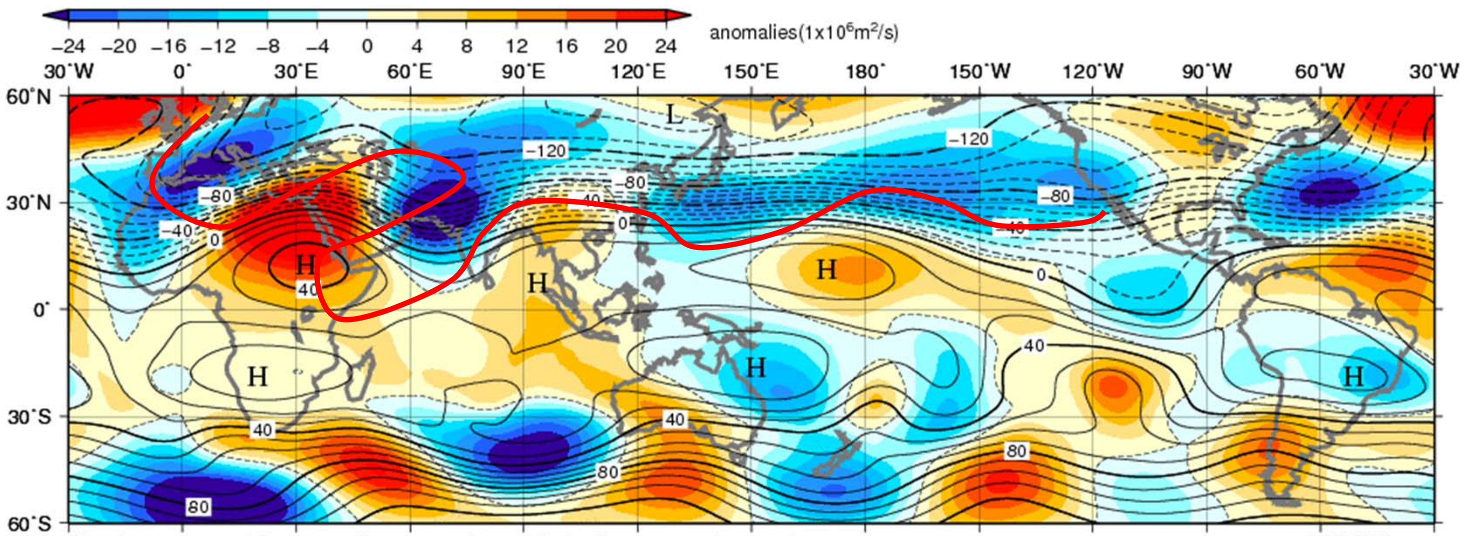


Quasi-stationary Rossby waves

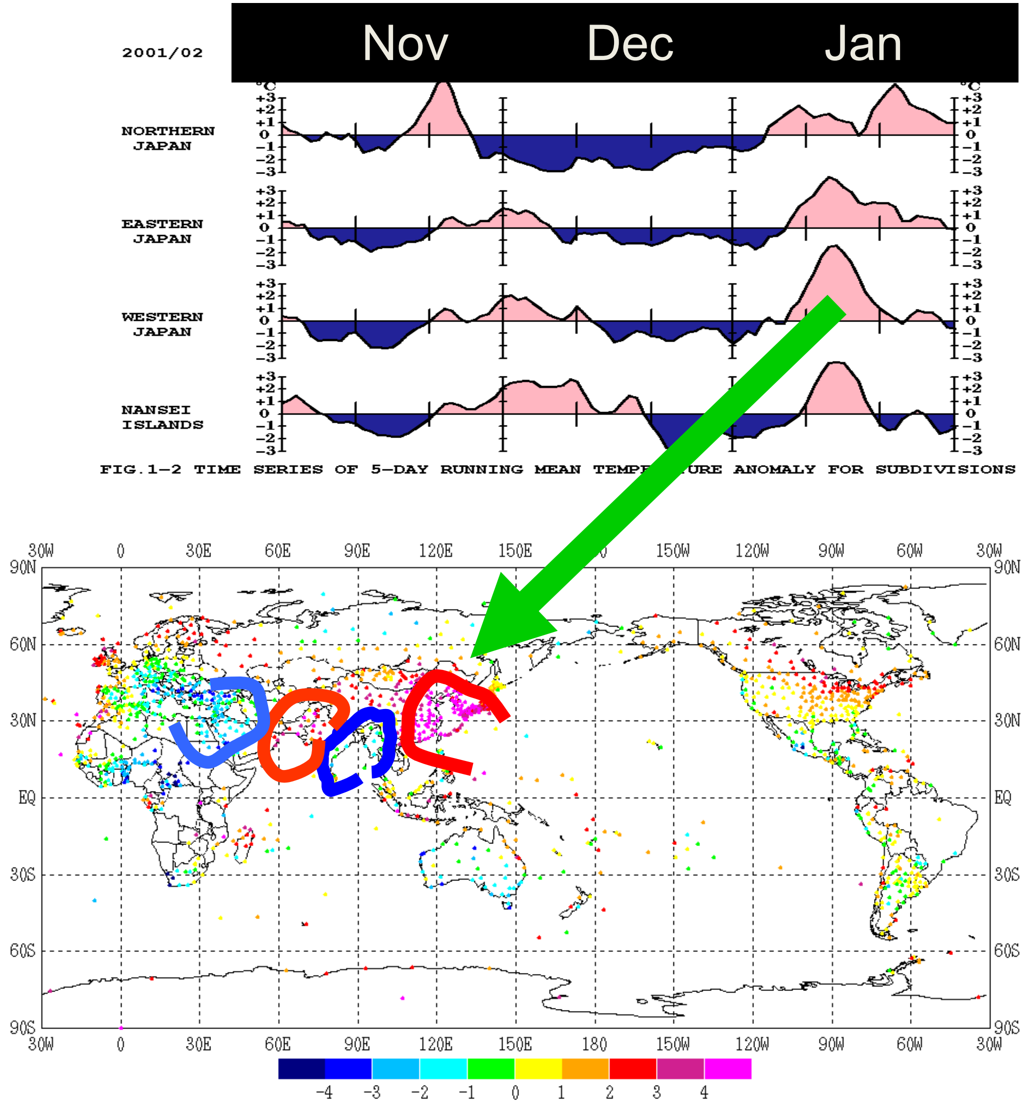
Rossby waves:
- are large scale (synoptic and planetary scale) waves in the atmosphere and ocean.
- obey the conservation law of potential vorticity.
- are dispersive and propagate westward (longer wave is faster).
- are stationary if phase speed is the same as westerly wind which advect the waves.

Group velocity of stationary Rossby wave packet is eastward.
Stationary Rossby wave packet tends to propagate trapped by Jet streams.



Five day mean 200 hPa stream function and anomaly (26Jan.2005–30Jan.2005) CPD/JMA
The contours show the stream function at intervals of 10×10^6 m^2/s, and the shading shows stream function anomalies.
Anomalies are deviations from the 1981–2010 average.

Examples of Quasi-stationary Rossby waves: 2002/1



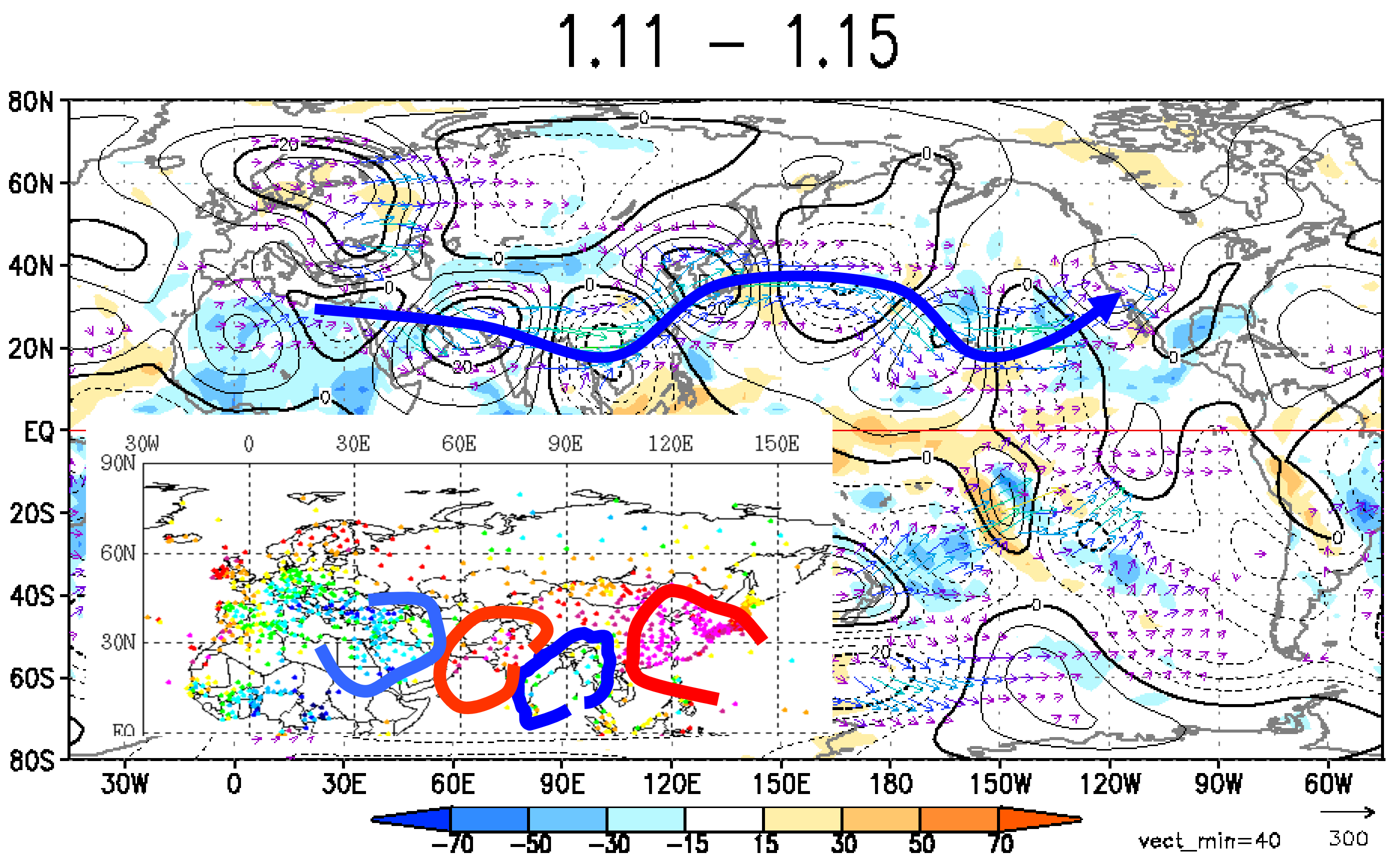
Time sequences of temperature anomalies in Japan (5 day running mean)

2001.11-2002.2

Observed normalized temperature anomalies

2002.1.11-15

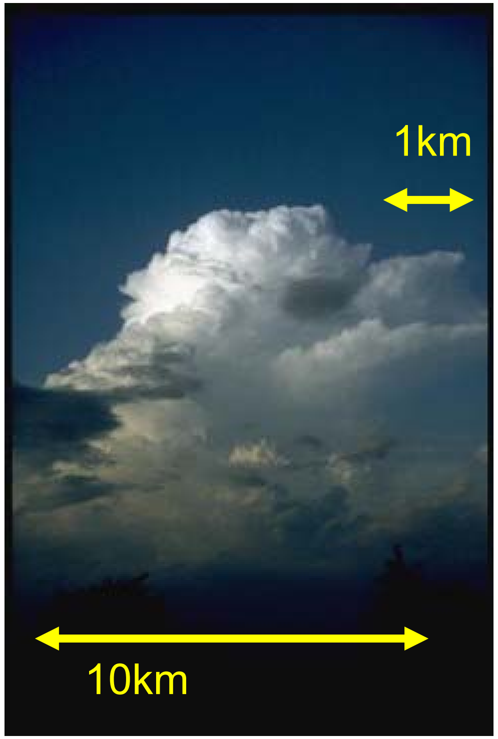
Wave train along the Asian jet



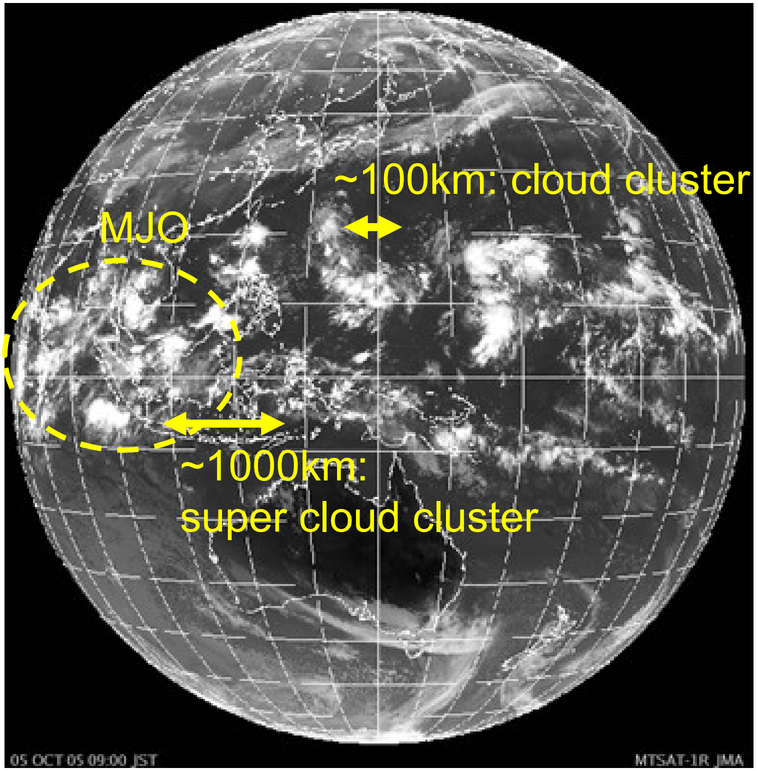
Observed 5-day mean stream function anomalies at 200hPa (contours) 2002.1.11-1.15

- Madden-Julian Oscillation (MJO) and equatorial waves

Multi-scale clouds in the tropics



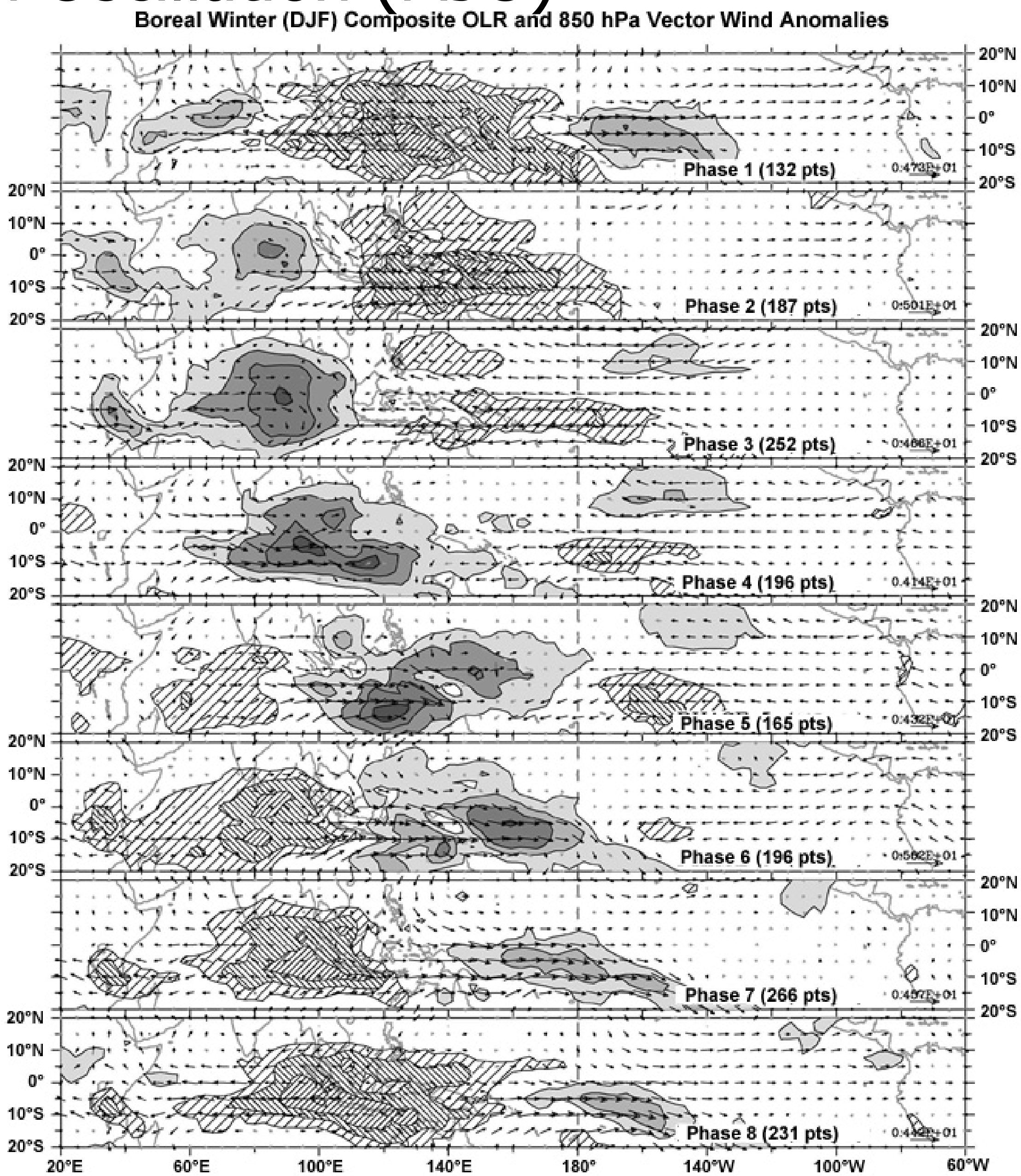
Outgoing Longwave Radiation (OLR) from
MTSAT JMA at 00 UTC Oct. 5, 2005



In the tropics, Heavy precipitation -> Deep cloud -> Low cloud-top temperature -> Low OLR

Madden-Julian Oscillation (MJO)

A broad area of active cloud and rainfall propagates eastwards around the equator at intervals of between about 30 to 60 days.



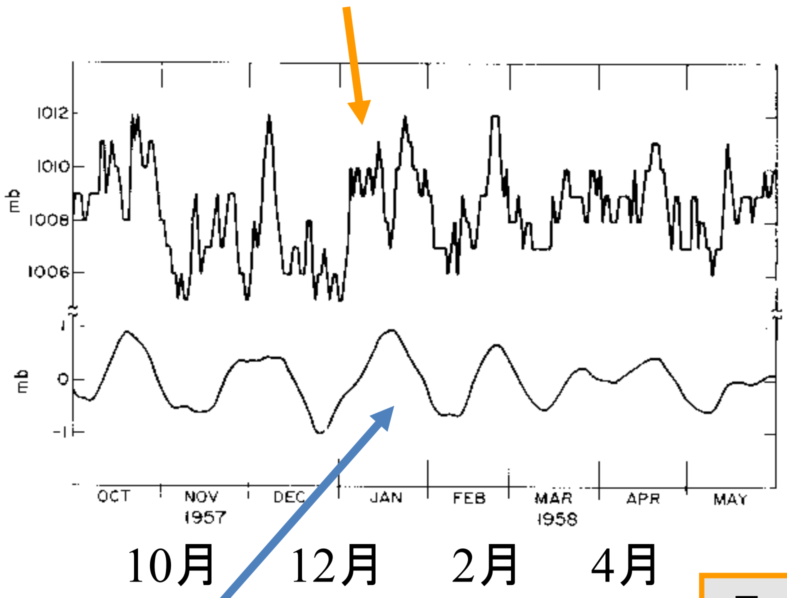
Wheeler and Hendon 2004

30-60 day Period

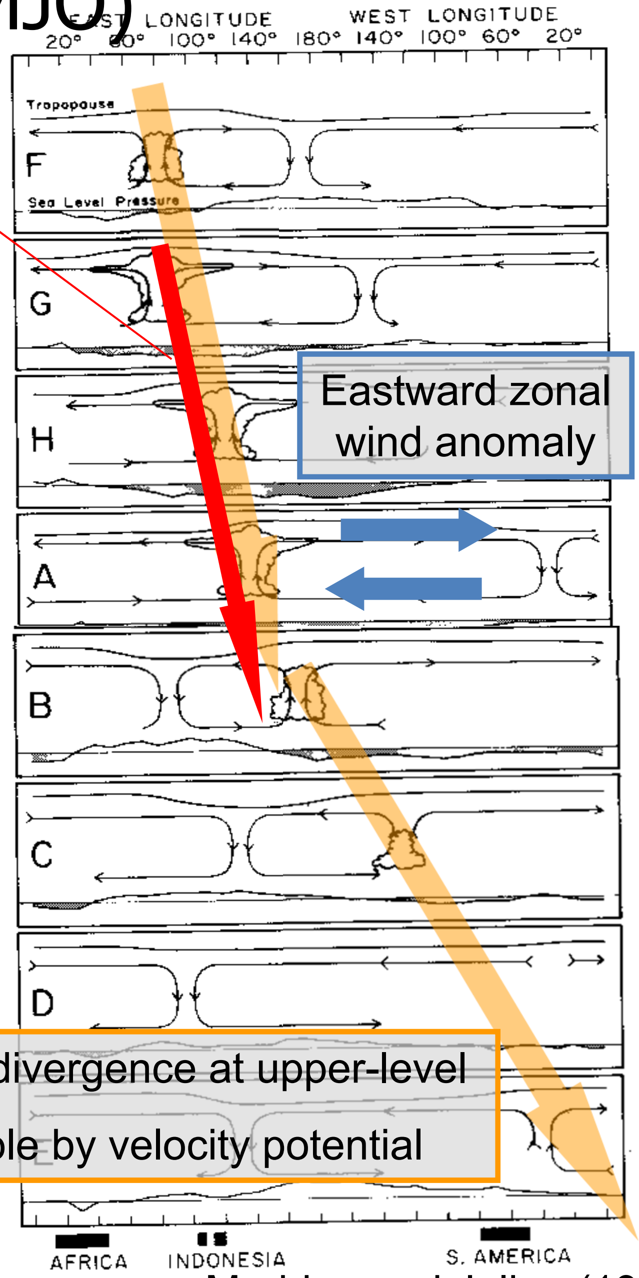
Madden-Julian Oscillation (MJO)

Eastward super cloud cluster detectable by OLR

Surface pressure at Canton Iceland (3S, 172W)



After applying band-pass filter around 45 days



Eastward zonal wind anomaly

Eastward divergence at upper-level detectable by velocity potential

30-60 day Period

Madden and Julian (1972)

Schematic structure of MJO

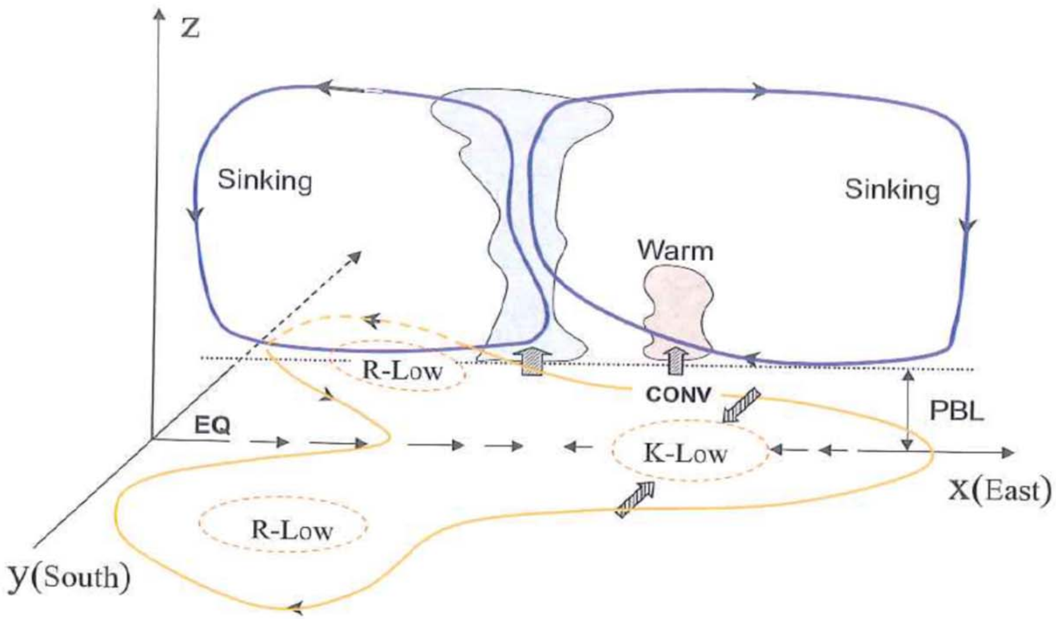
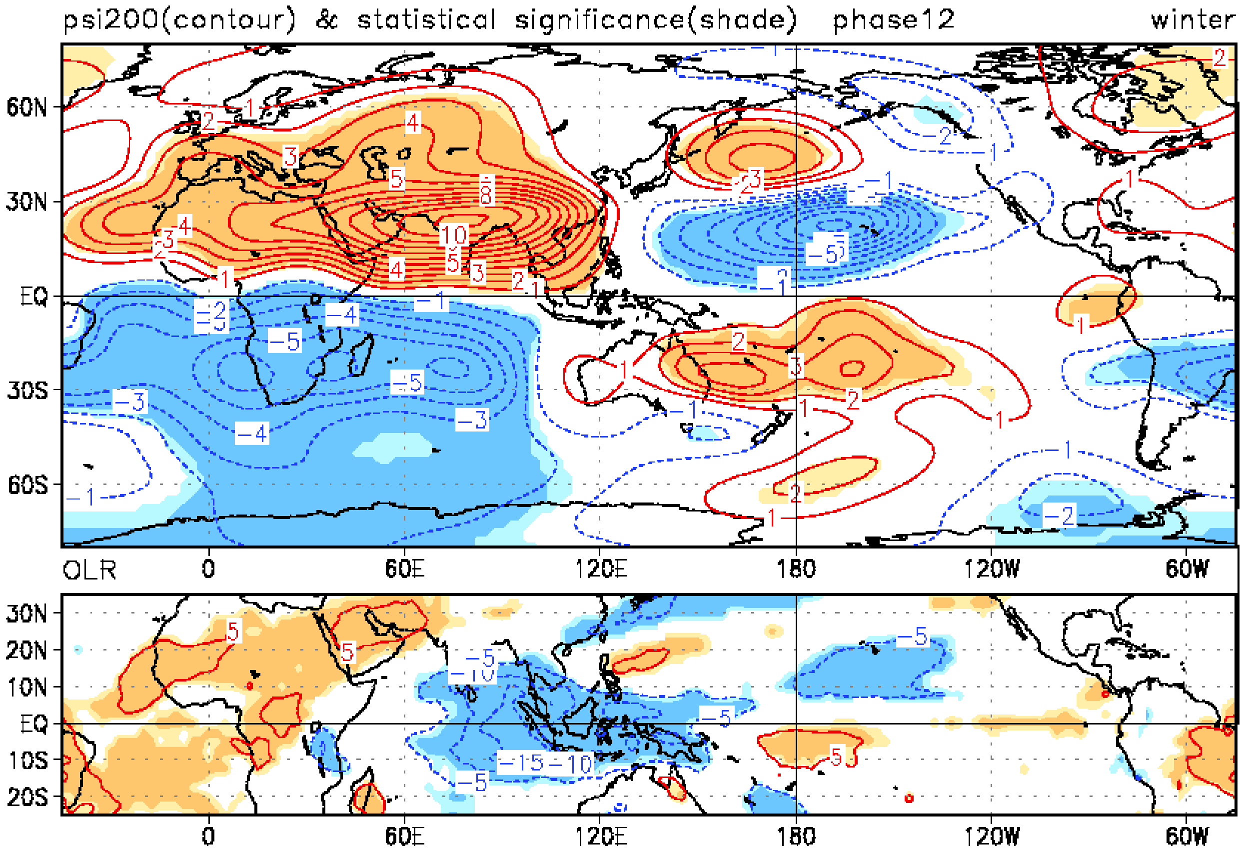


Figure 10.13. Schematic structure of the frictional CID mode, which is the counterpart of observed MJO mode. In the horizontal plane the "K-low" and "R-low" represents the low-pressure anomalies associated with the moist equatorial Kelvin and Rossby waves, respectively. Arrows indicate the wind directions. In the equatorial vertical plane the free-tropospheric wave circulation is highlighted. The wave-induced convergence is in phase with the major convection, whereas the frictional moisture convergence in the "K-low" region is ahead of the major convection due primarily to meridional wind convergence.

From Wang (2005)

Composition maps of stream function at 200hPa and OLR at each phase (1-12) of MJO in winter (DJF)



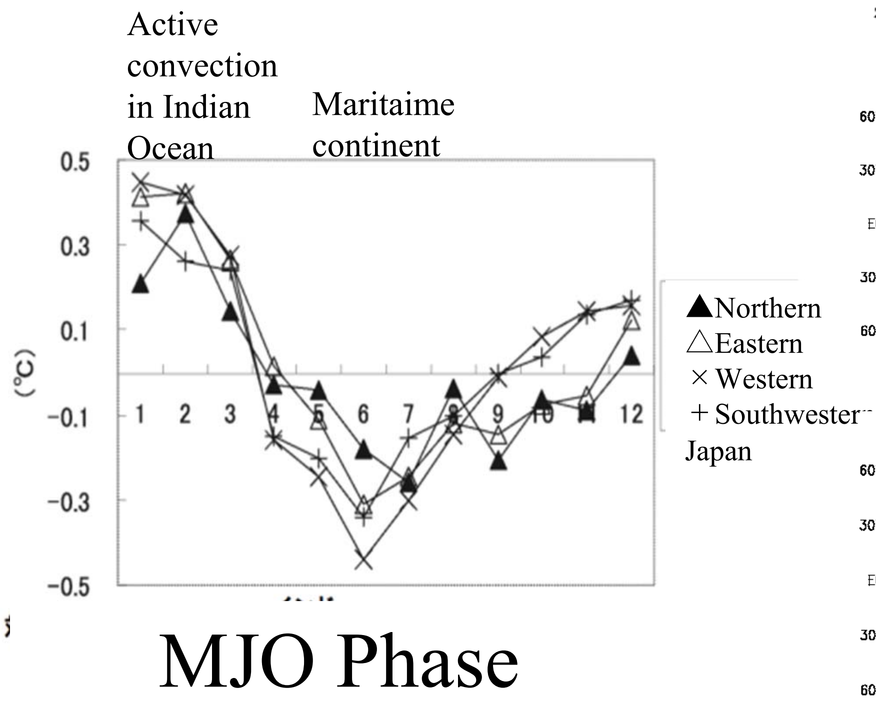
Stream function at 200hPa

OLR

Endoh and Harada (2005)

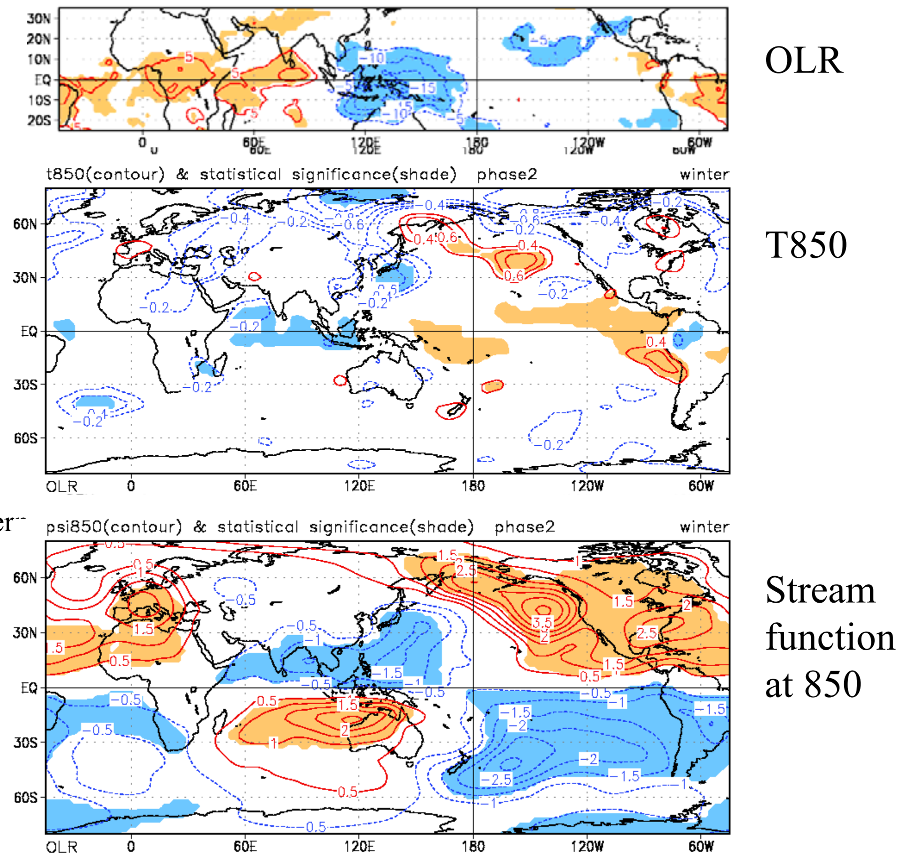
Impact of MJO (Example for Japan)

DJF Temperature Anomaly over Japan



Endo and Harada (2008)

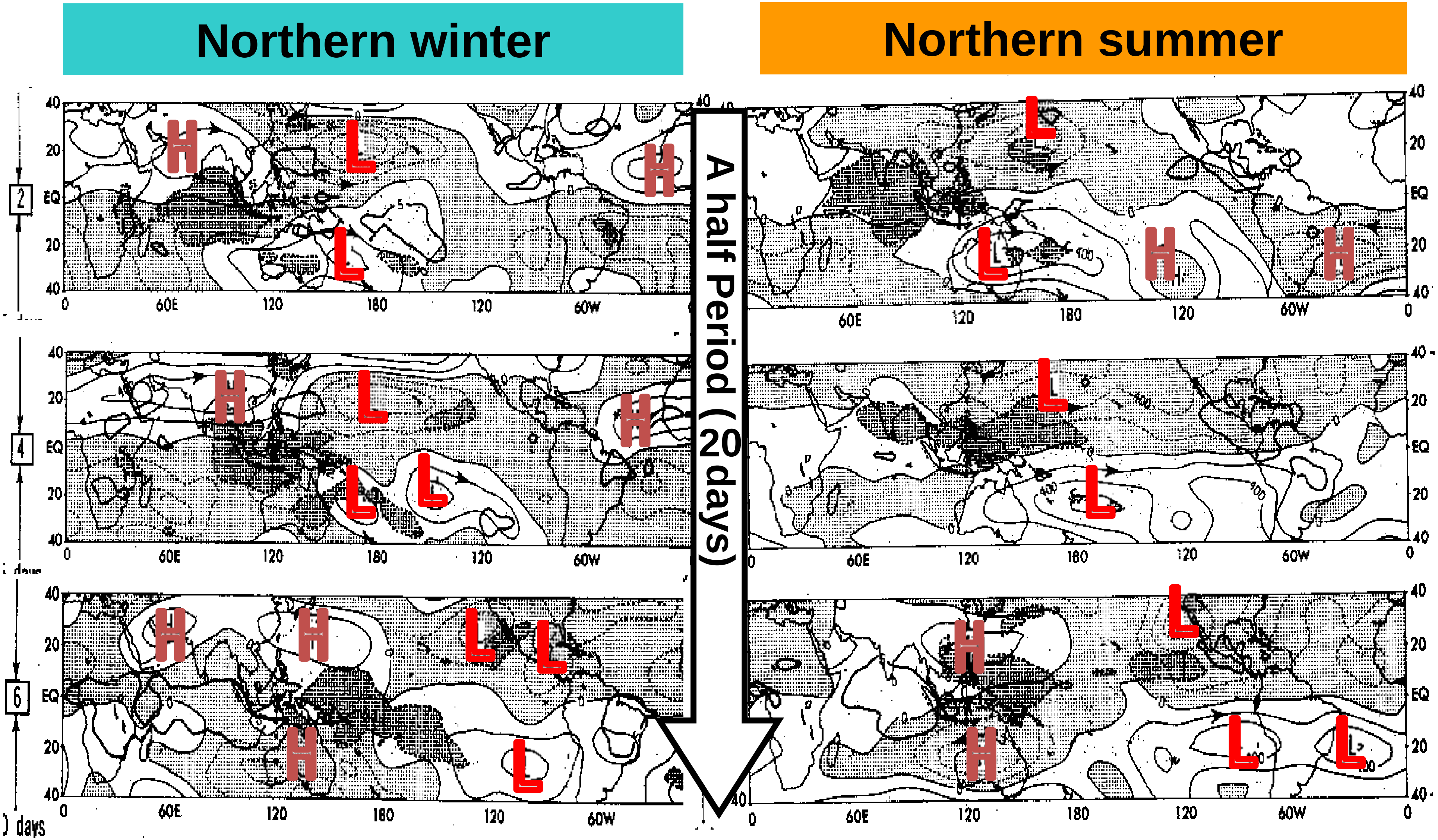
Composition maps of MJO in DJF



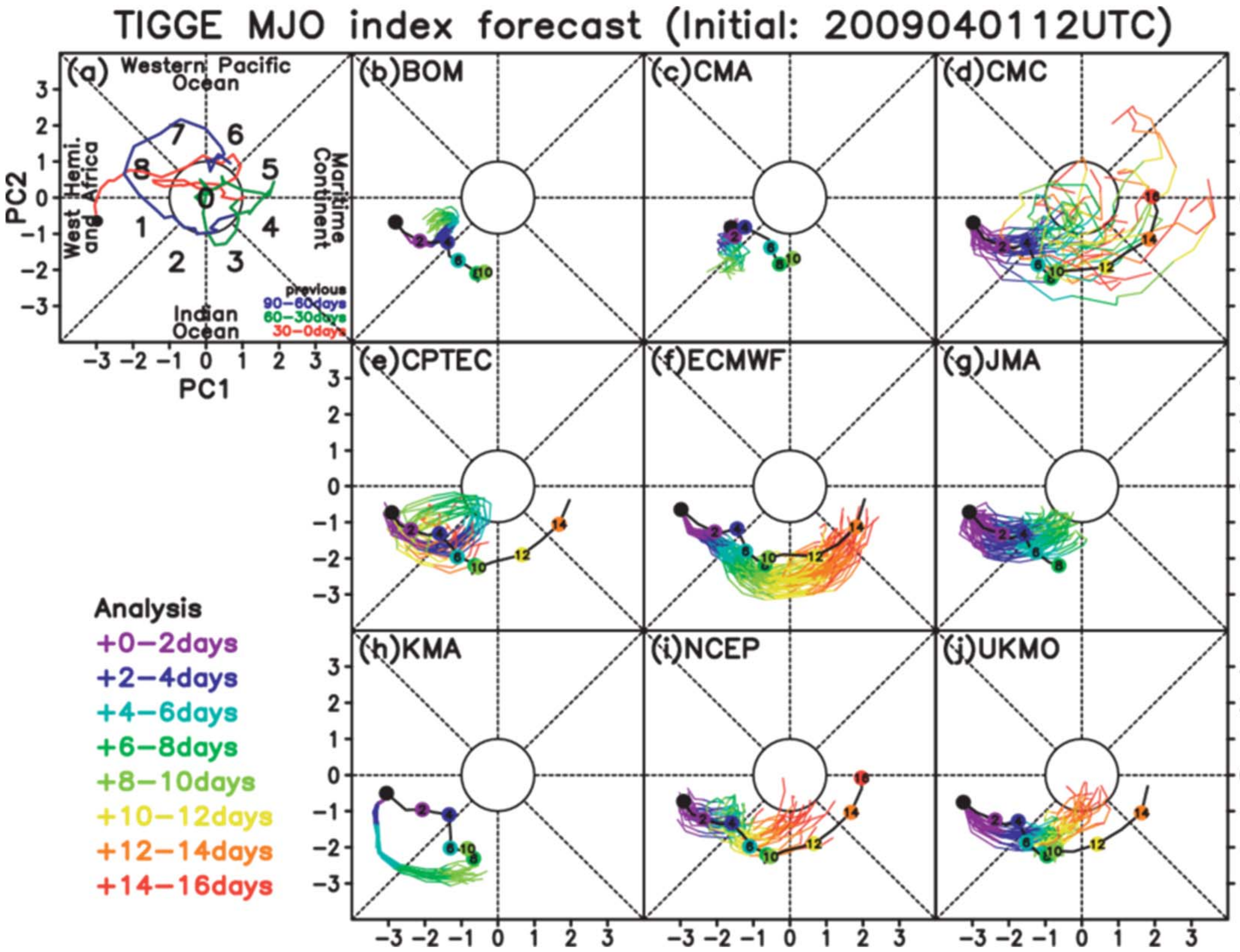
Endoh and Harada (2005)

Knutson and Weickmann (1987)

Statistics for 250 hPa stream-function and OLR composites at phases of MJO



MJO predictability is not so much.



Matsueda and Endo (2011)

Wheeler, M., and G. N. Kiladis, 1999

Decomposition of the equatorial OLR anomalies

OLR from NOAA 10S-2.5N

1992
SEP 1

OCT 1

NOV1

DEC 1

1993
JAN 1

FEB 1

MAR 1

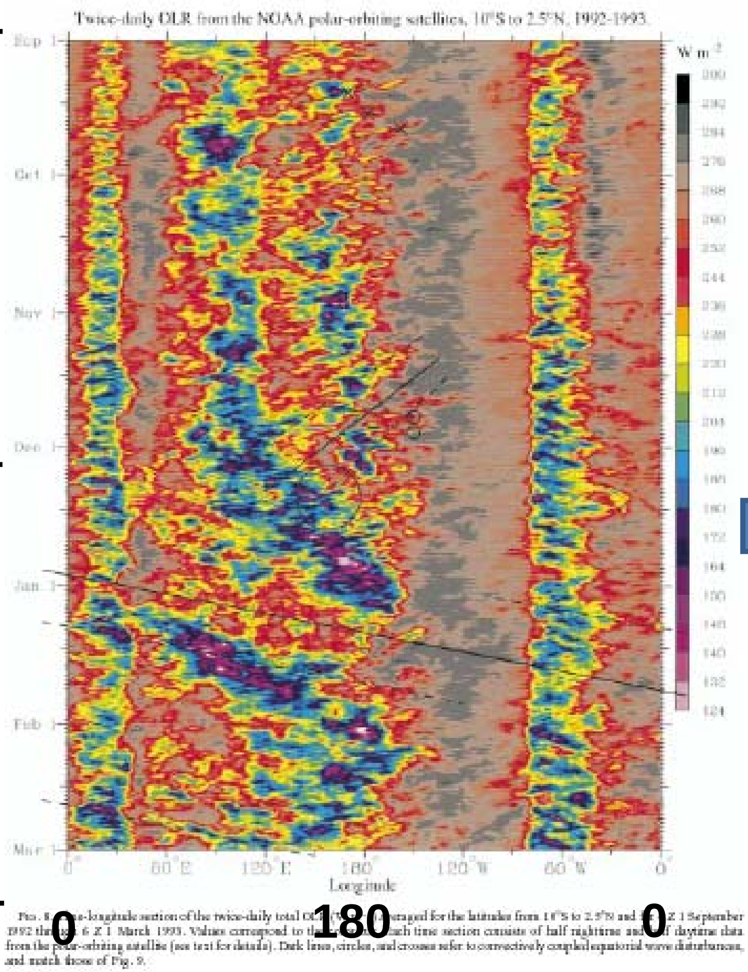
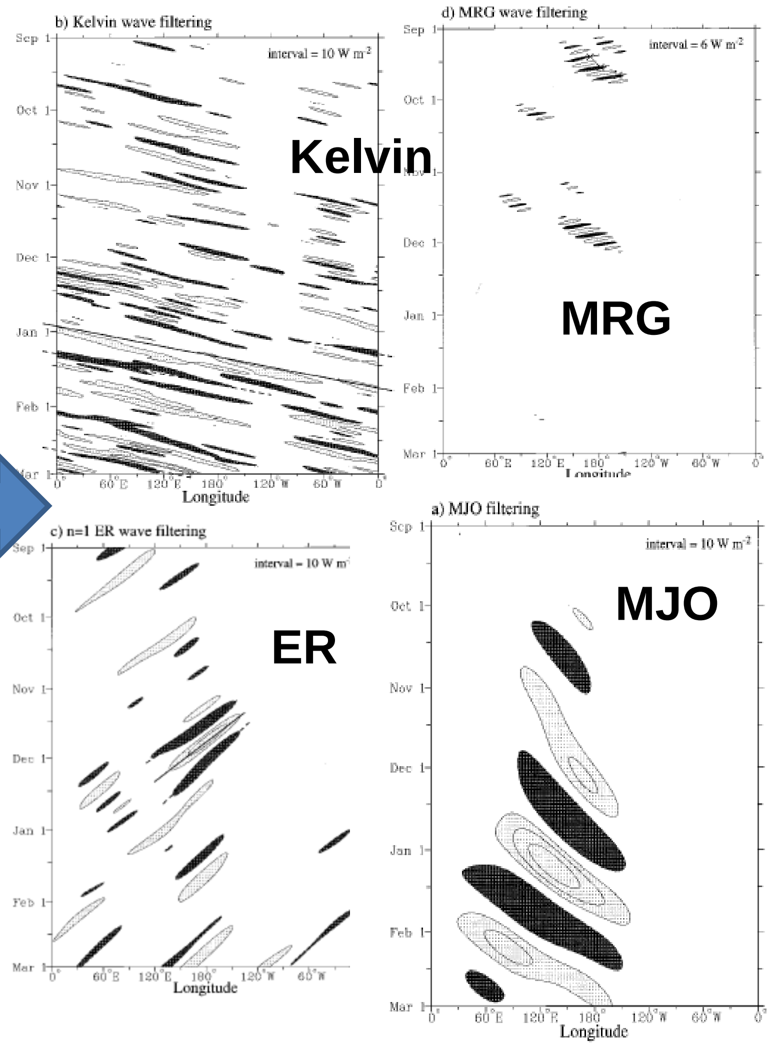
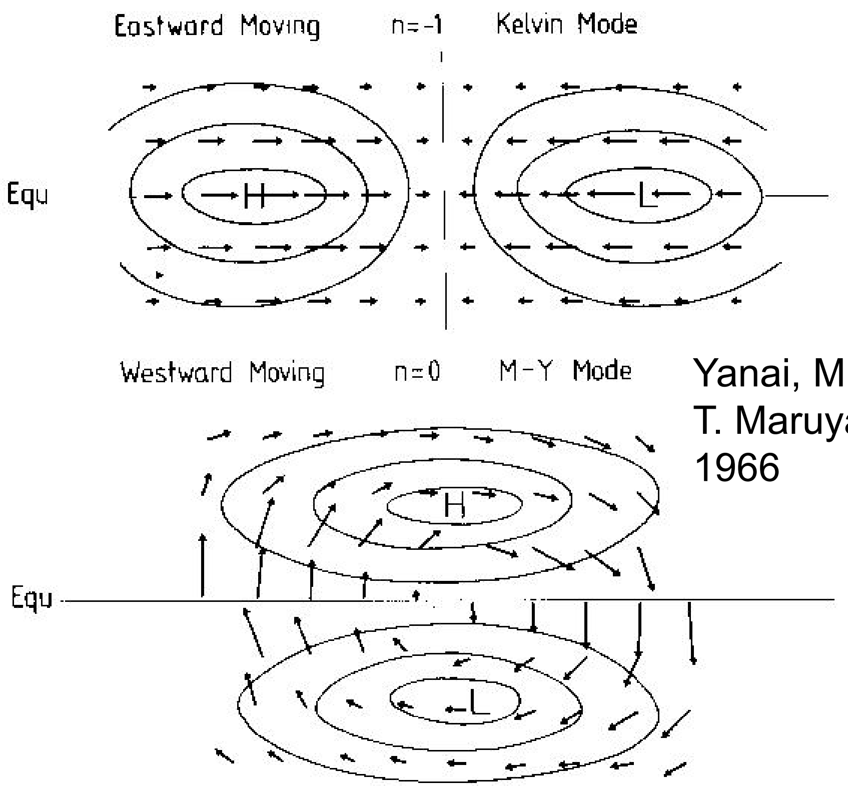


FIG. 9. (a) Time-longitude section of the OLR anomalies for the MJO-filtered band for the same 6-month sample period as Fig. 8, averaged for the latitudes from 10°S to 2.5°N. The zero contour has been omitted. Light shading for positive anomalies and dark shading and dashed contours for negative anomalies. (b) Same as in panel a except for the Kelvin wave–filtered band. (c) The $n = 1$ ER wave–filtered band. (d) The MRG wave–filtered band.



Equatorial Waves

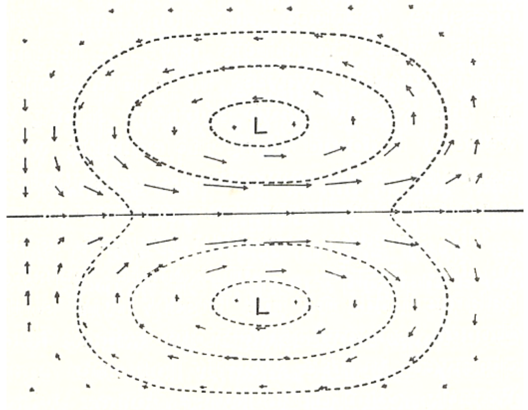
Kelvin wave

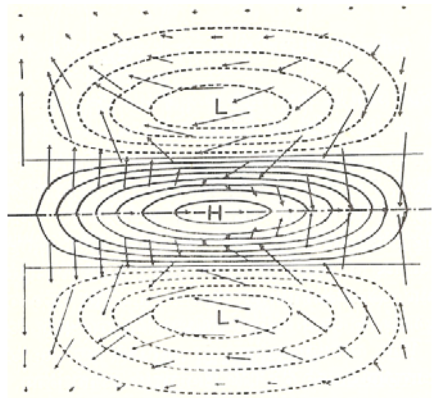


Yanai, M. and T. Maruyama, 1966

MRG : mixed Rossy-Gravity wave

ER: Rossby wave (n=1)



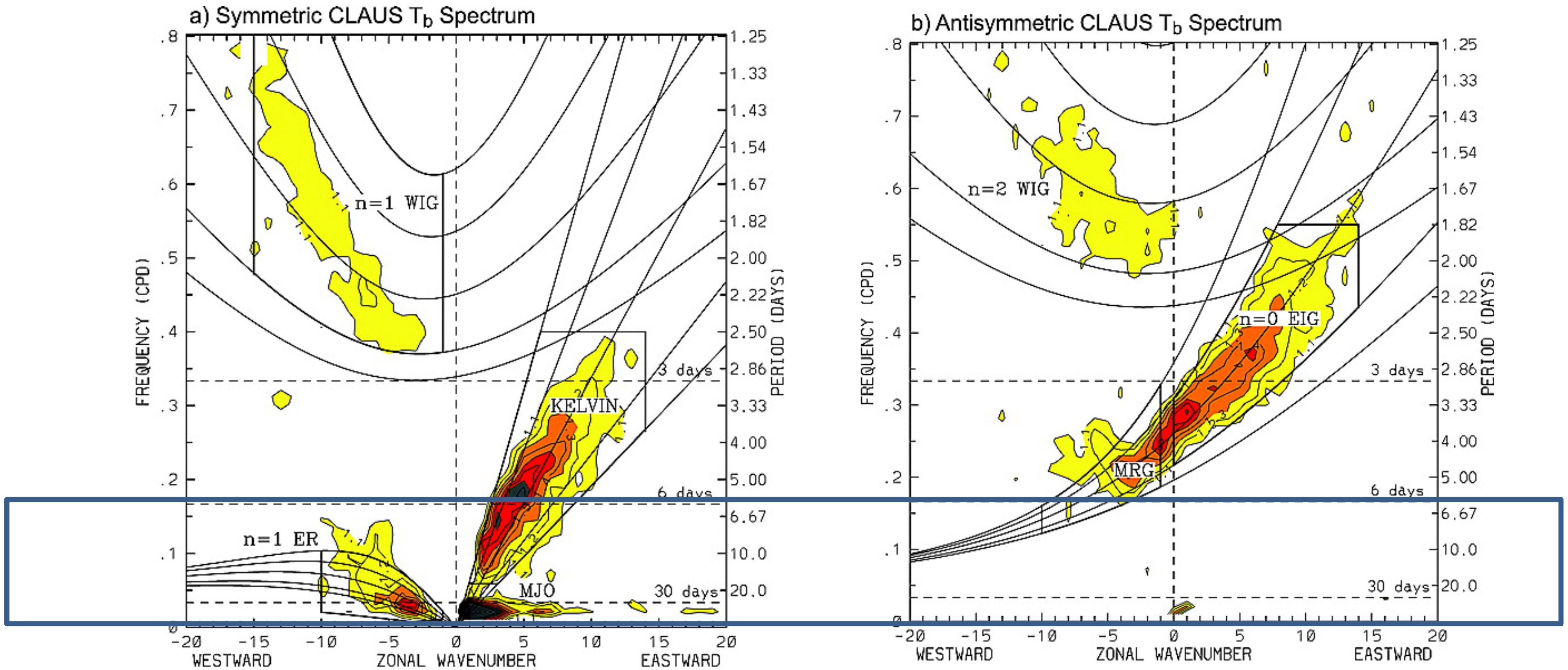


EIG: eastward propagating inertio-gravity wave (n=1)

Matsuno, T., 1966: Quasi-geostrophic motions in the equatorial area. *J. Meteor. Soc. Japan,* **44,** 25–43.

Convectively coupled equatorial waves

Wave number–frequency power spectrum of the (a) symmetric and (b) antisymmetric component of Cloud Archive User Services (CLAUS) T_b



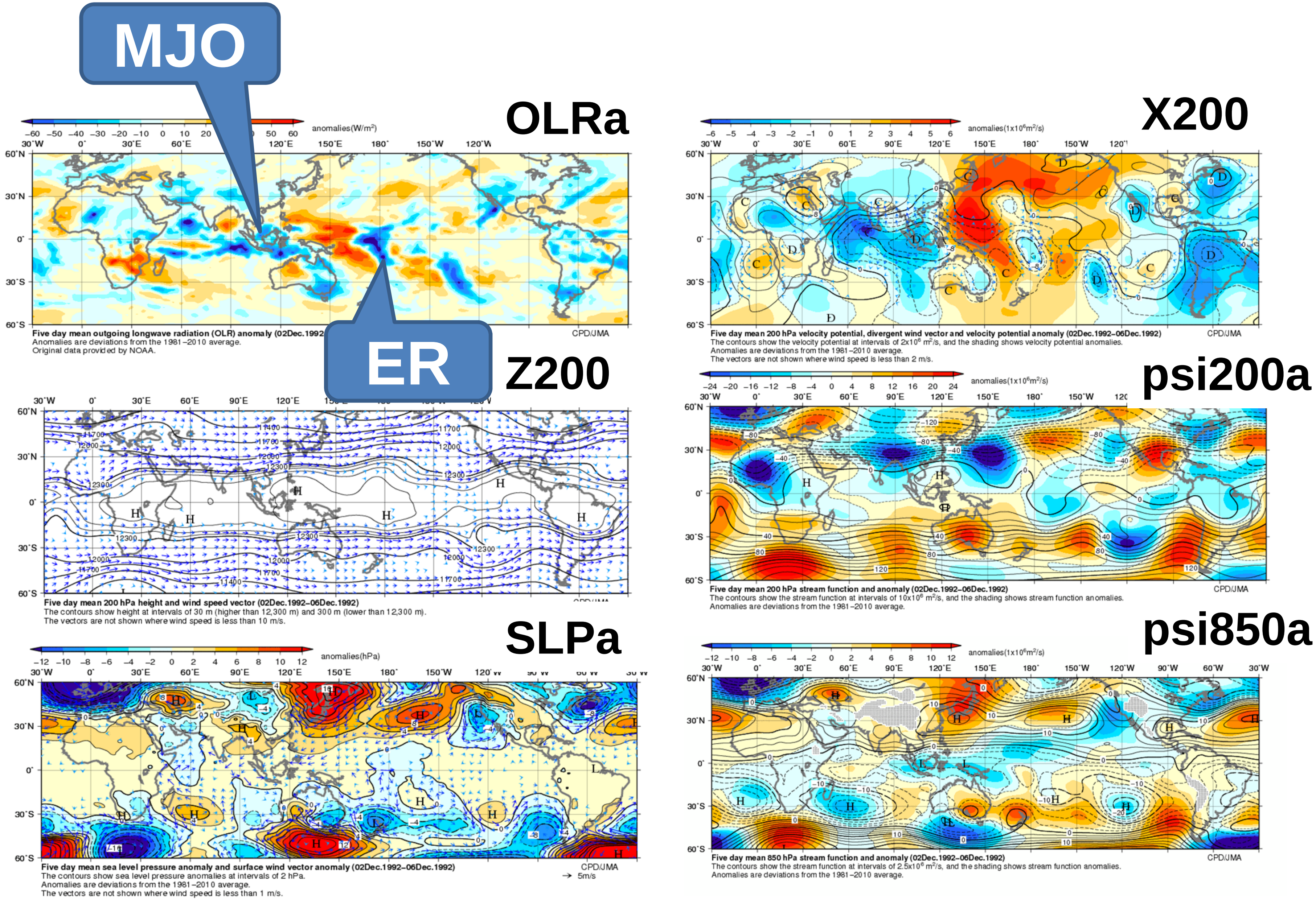
Slow moving

Wave number–frequency power spectrum of the (a) symmetric and (b) antisymmetric component of Cloud Archive User Services (CLAUS) T_b for July 1983 to June 2005, summed from 15° N to 15° S, plotted as the ratio between raw T_b power and the power in a smoothed red noise background spectrum (see WK99 for details). Contour interval is 0.1, and contours and shading begin at 1.1, where the signal is significant at greater than the 95% level. Dispersion curves for the Kelvin, n = 1 equatorial Rossby (ER), n = 1 and n = 2 westward inertio-gravity (WIG), n = 0 eastward inertio-gravity (EIG), and mixed Rossby-gravity (MRG) waves are plotted for equivalent depths of 8, 12, 25, 50, and 90 m. Heavy solid boxes represents regions of wave number–frequency filtering

Kiladis et. al.(2009)

Reviews of Geophysics
Volume 47, Issue 2, RG2003, 10 APR 2009 DOI: 10.1029/2008RG000266
http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1029/2008RG000266/full#rog1687-fig-0001

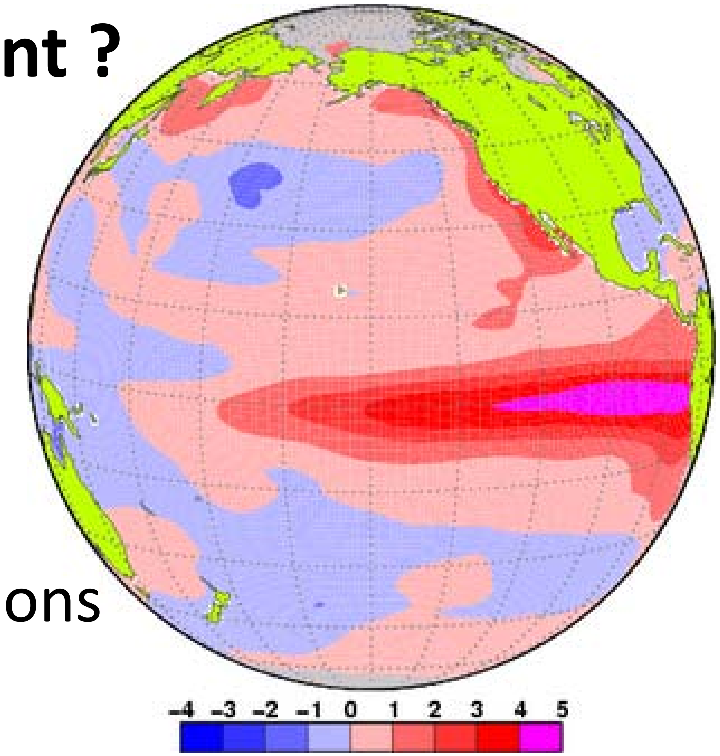
Dec 2 – Dec 6 in 1992



2.3 Interannual Variability

El Niño and Southern Oscillation (ENSO)

Why is El Niño/La Niña important ?

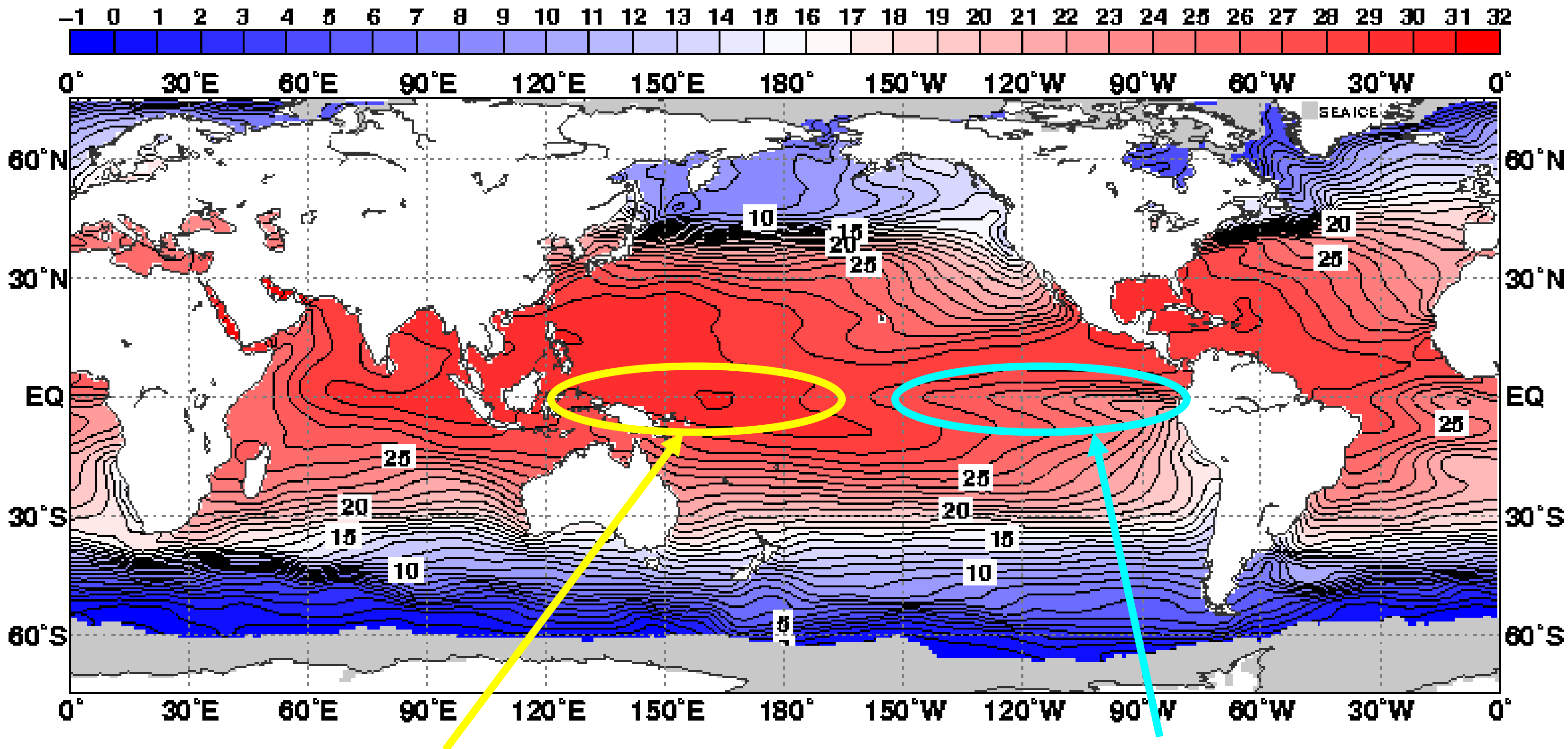


1. Predominant inter-annual climate variability
2. Big Impact on the world climate
3. Predictable with one or two seasons lead time

The prediction of El Niño or La Niña is a base of our long range forecast. First, we check the ENSO conditions and then discuss our long range forecast.

気象庁
Japan Meteorological Agency

Sea surface temperature (SST)



warmer in the west
(typically around 30ºC)

cooler in the east
(typically around 22ºC)

1-month mean sea surface temperature observed in July 2005 when the conditions in the equatorial Pacific Ocean stayed close to normal.

気象庁
Japan Meteorological Agency

"El Niño"("La Niña") refers to:

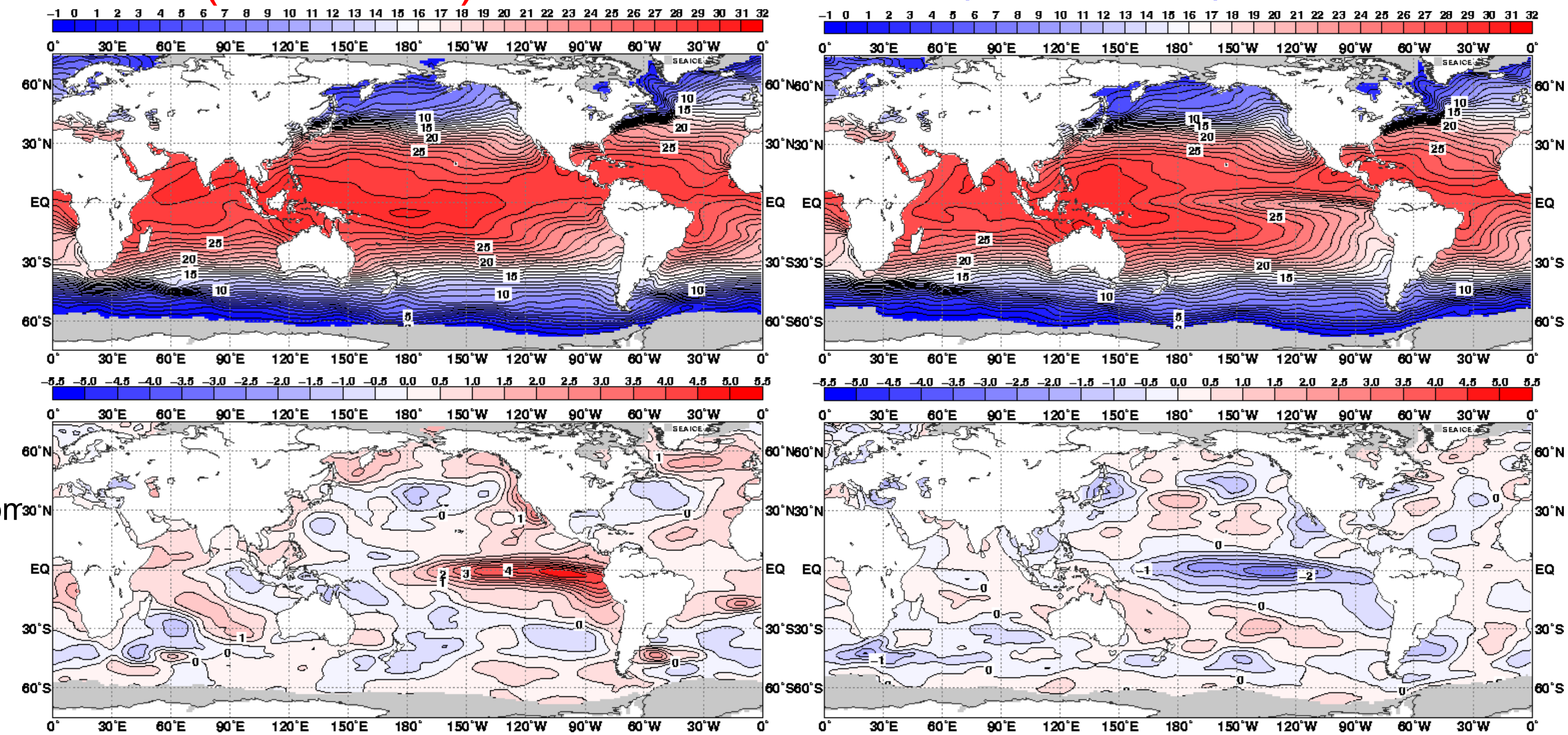
A large-scale ocean climate phenomenon linked to a periodic rise (fall) in sea surface temperatures across the central to east equatorial Pacific

El Niño (NOV1997)

La Niña (NOV1988)

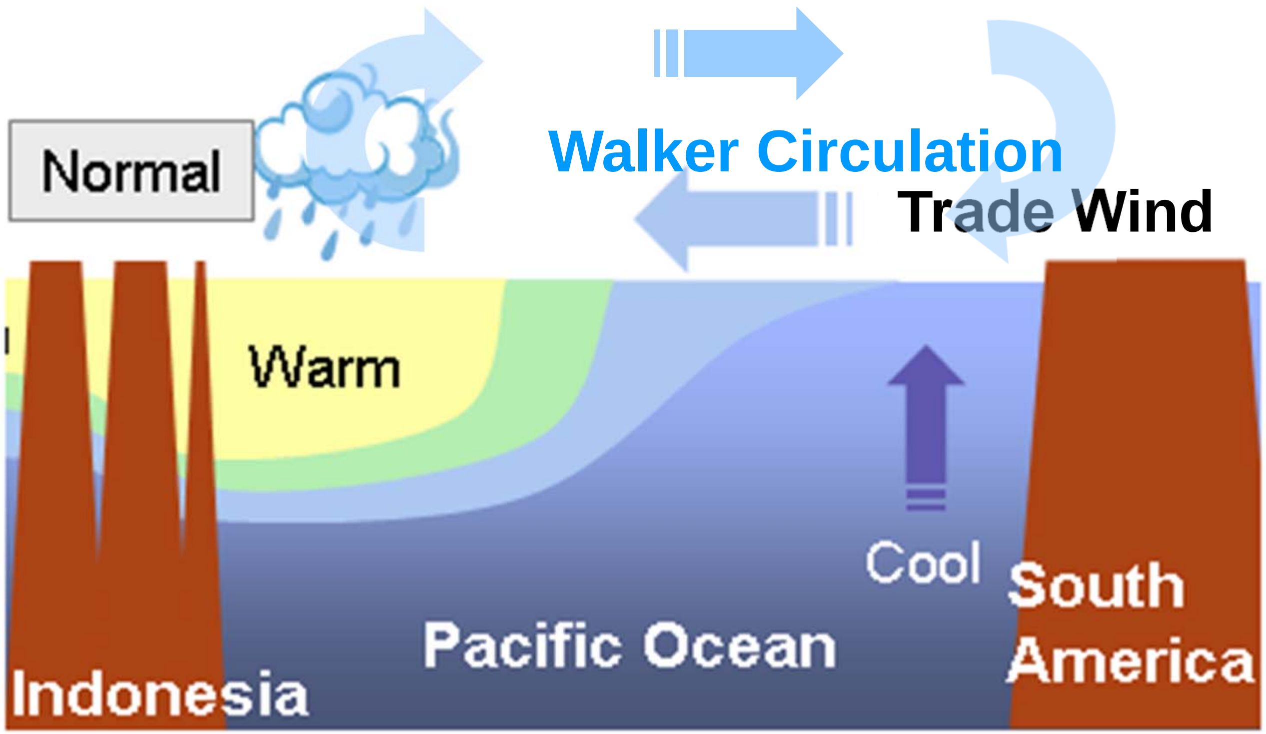
sea surface temperature

departure from normal



Normal condition in the equatorial Pacific Ocean

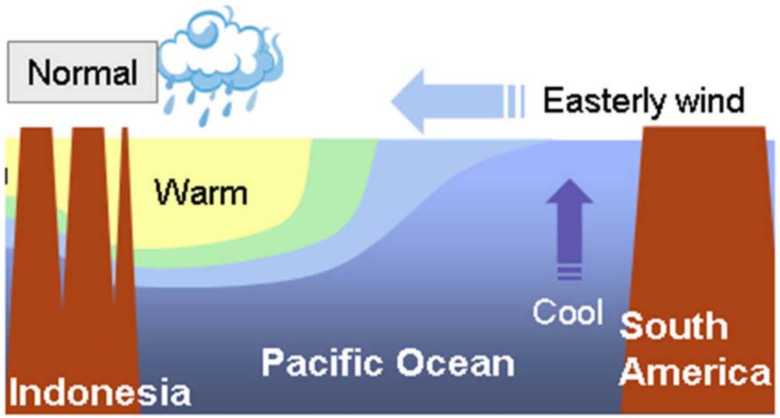
Trade wind, a persistent easterly atmospheric flow blowing over the equatorial Pacific Ocean, sustains warmer-western, cooler-eastern sea surface condition.



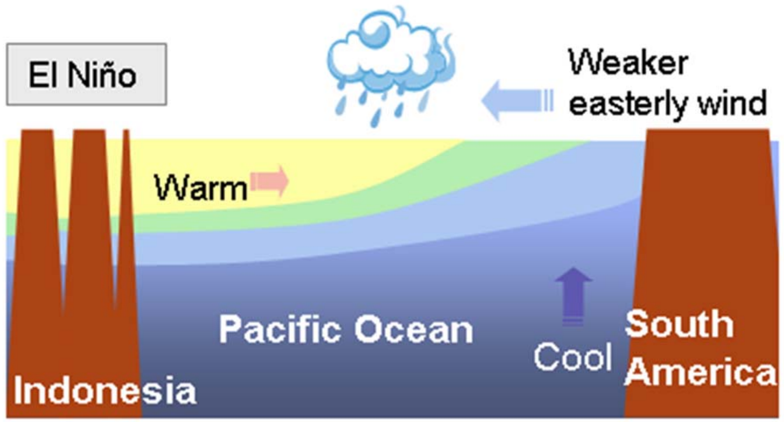
Atmosphere-ocean interaction during El Niñ

気象庁
Japan Meteorological Agency

Normal condition



El Niño condition



Warmer SST in the eastern Pacific → Eastward shift of active convection

↑ ↓

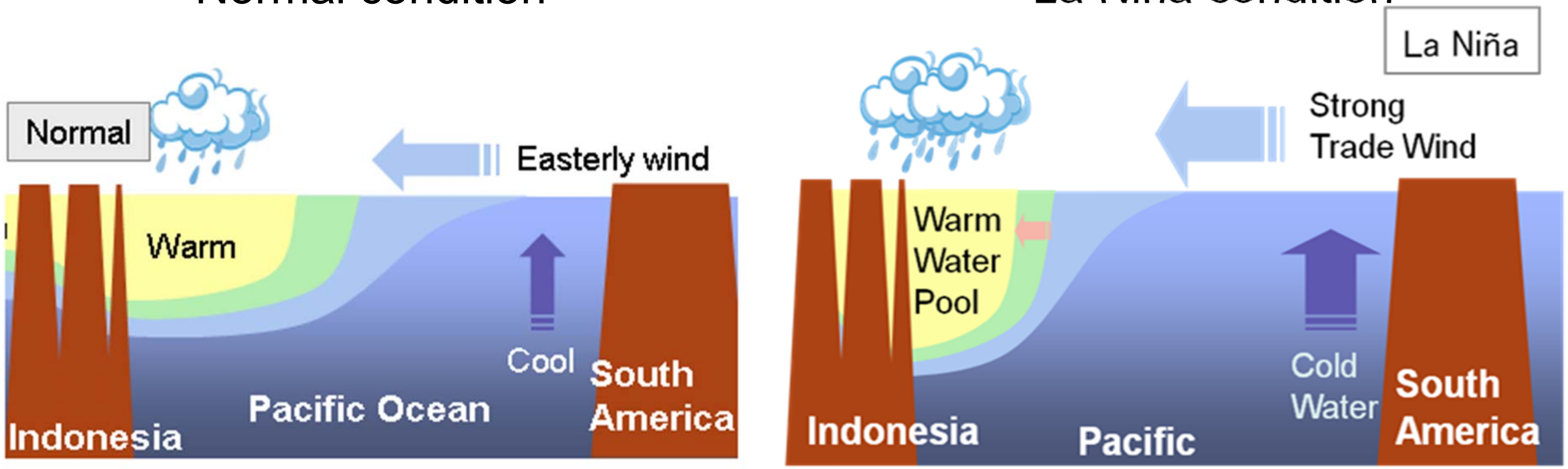
Eastward shift of warm water ← Weaker easterly trade wind

El Niño + Southern Oscillation = ENSO

Atmosphere-ocean interaction during La Niñ

気象庁
Japan Meteorological Agency

Normal condition　　　　La Niña condition



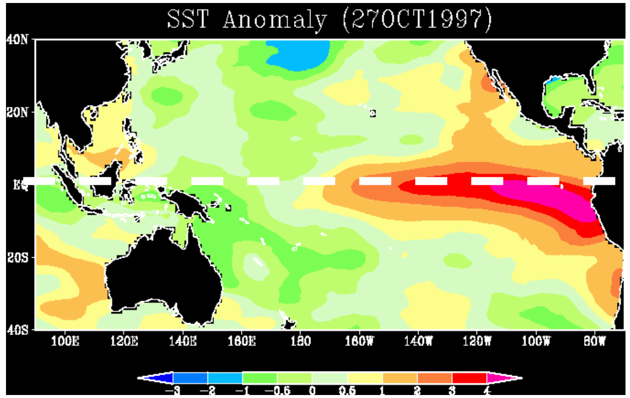
Colder SST in the eastern Pacific → Westward shift of active convection

↑　　　　↓

Westward shift of warm water ← Stronger easterly trade wind

Look deep into the sea

SST anomaly in 27OCT1997

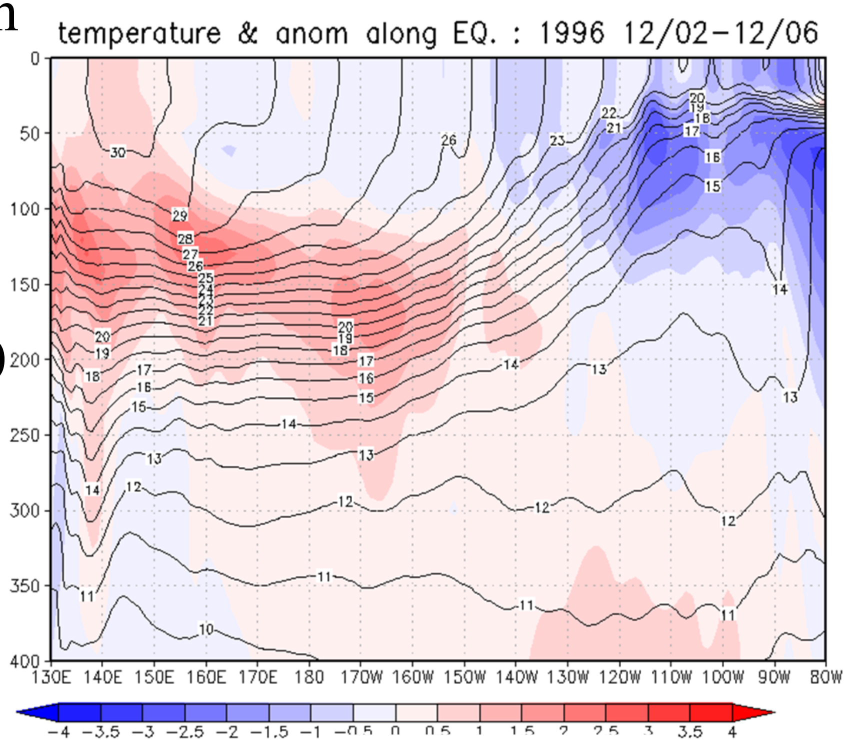


Subsurface temperatures in the equatorial Pacific in 1996/12-98/12

m

depth

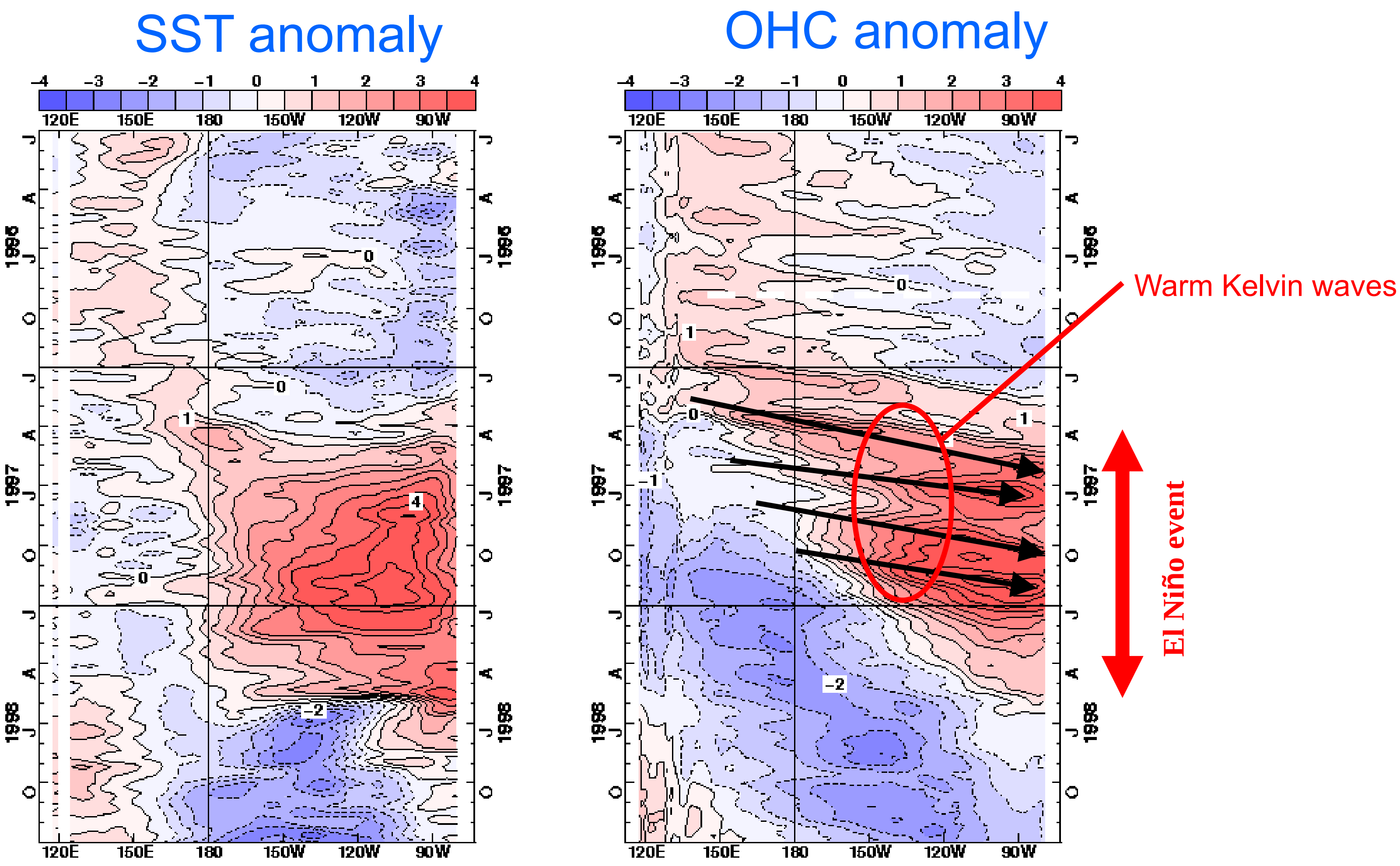
200



Longitude

Contour: sea temperature（℃）
Shade:anomaly（℃）

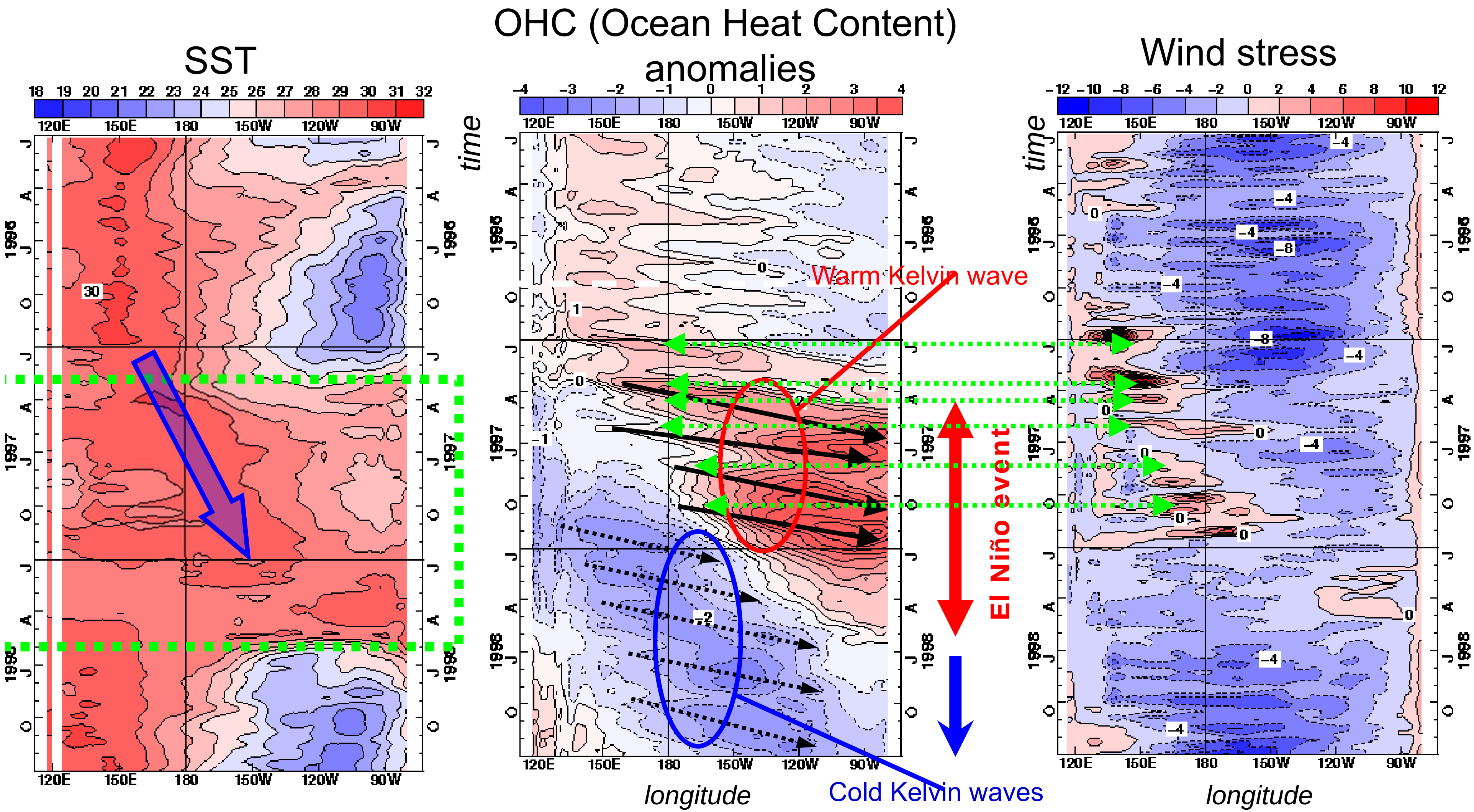
1997/98 El Niño development and decay – hovmoeller plots



OHCs are defined as vertically averaged temperatures of top 300m.

Positive feedback

Hövmoeller (Longitude-time section) in equatorial Pacific



OHCs are defined as vertically averaged temperatures from sea surface to 300-m depth

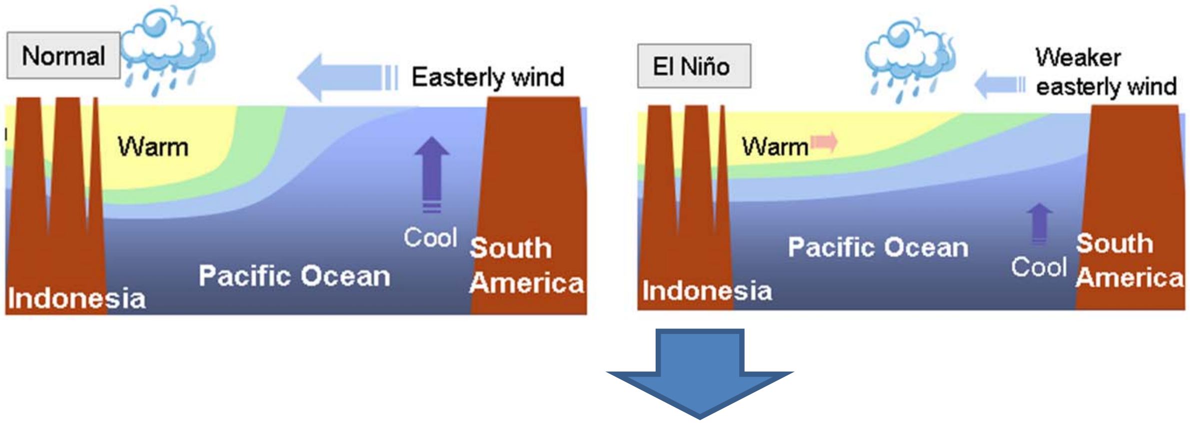
ENSO is huge heat variation in the climate system

	Atmosphere	Ocean
Density	1.2-1.3kgm^{-3}	$10^3 kgm^{-3}$ ：atom. X 800
Mass(per 1 m^2)	（Top ～ Surface） $10^4 kgm^{-2}$	（Surface ～10m depth） $10^4 kgm^{-2}$ ：Mass of the atmosphere is the same as that of ocean with 10m depth
Specific heat	$10^3 Jkg^{-1}K^{-1}$	$4\times10^3 Jkg^{-1}K^{-1}$ ：atom. X 4
Heat capacity (per 1 m^2)	（Top ～ Surface） $10^7 JK^{-1}m^{-2}$	（Surface ～2.5m depth） $10^7 JK^{-1}m^{-2}$ ：Heat capacity of the atmosphere is the same as that of ocean with 2.5m depth

“1K in 250m depth ocean” is near equal to “100K in the atmosphere”

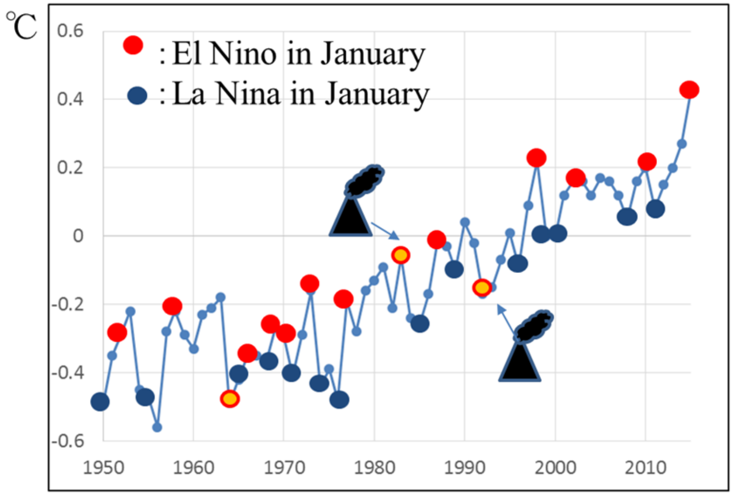
＊from Gill 1982

Impact of ENSO on Global average surface temperature



Sub-surface sea temperature in the equatorial Pacific is warmer than normal during El Nino

Global average surface temperature anomalies (1950-2015)



Global average monthly surface temperature tends to raise 0.09 °C per Nino3.4 with three months lag (Trenberth, 2002).

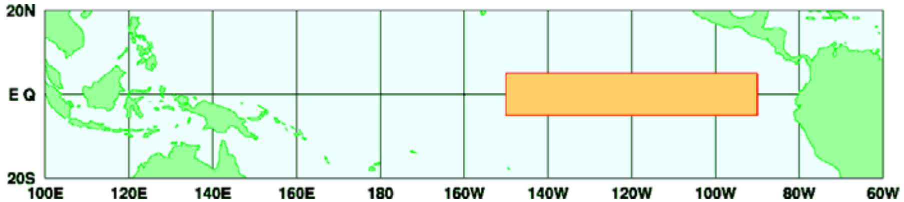
■ Historical look at SST variations

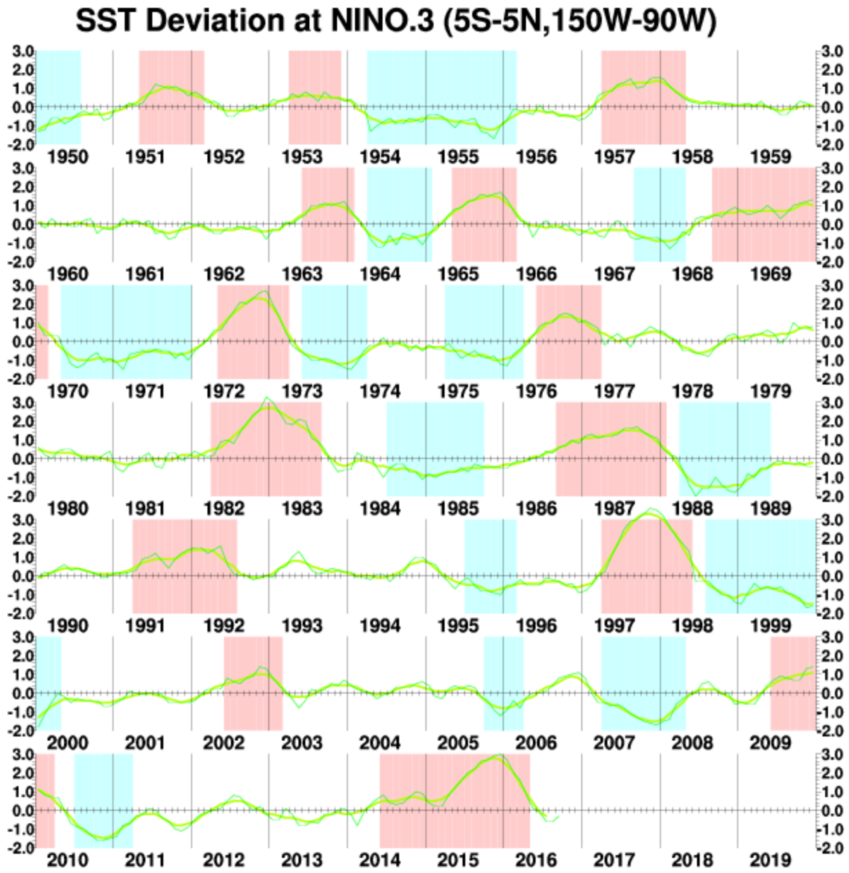
気象庁
Japan Meteorological Agency

5-month running mean SST departures from normal in the JMA's El Niño monitoring region for 1950-2016

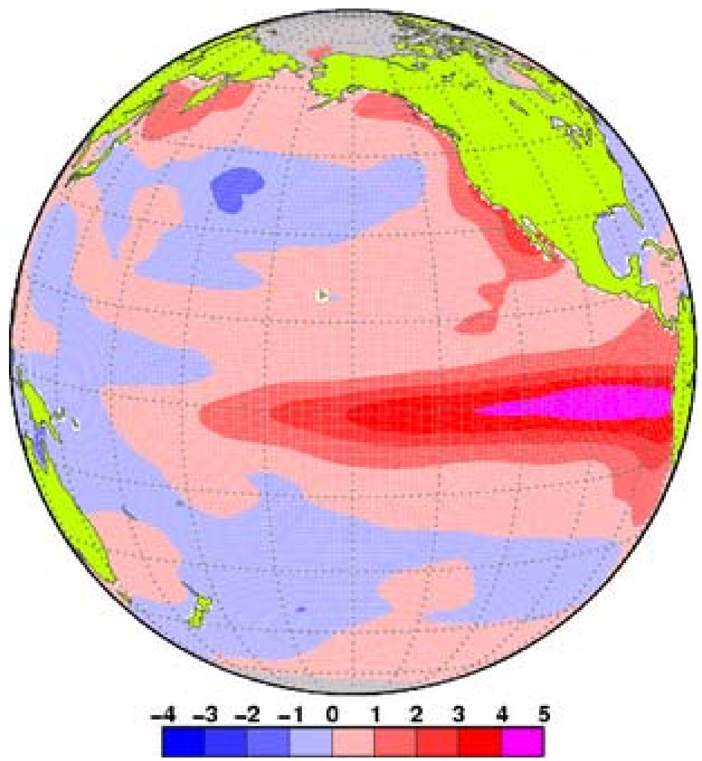
red: El Niño period

blue: La Niña period





El Niño and La Niña impact on the world climate



El Niño and La Niña impact on the world climate

Walker Circulation along the equator during El Nino (lower panel) and La Nina (upper panel)

Webster and Chang 1988

La Nina

El Nino

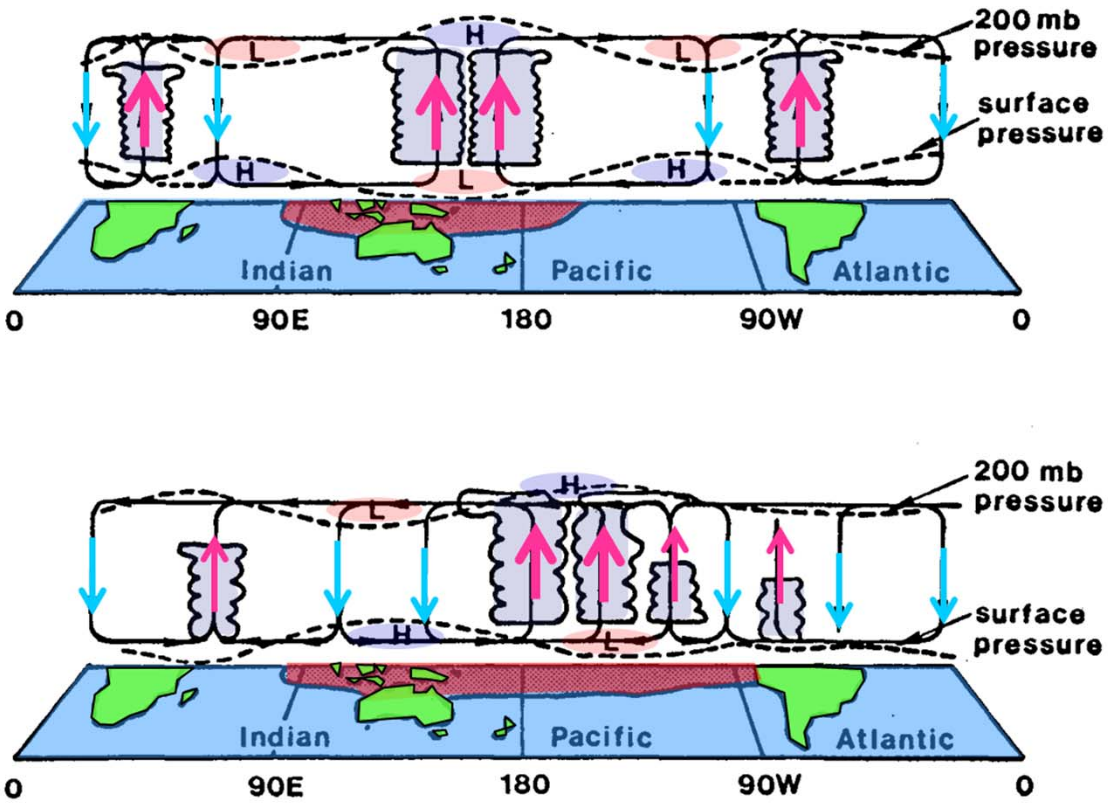
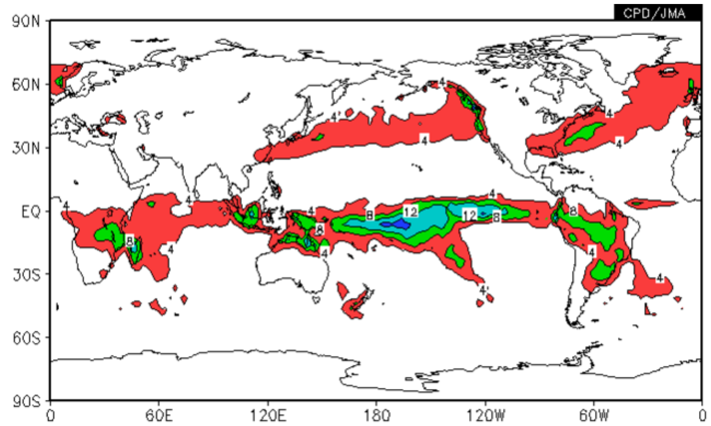


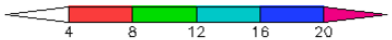
FIG. 1. Schematic view of the Walker Circulation along the equator during El Niño (lower panel) and La Niña (upper panel) periods that occur at the extremes of the Southern Oscillation. The shaded areas indicate sea surface temperatures warmer than 27°C and the dashed lines show relative horizontal pressure variations in the lower and upper troposphere. (From Webster, 1983)

Precipitation in 1997/98 winter(DJF)

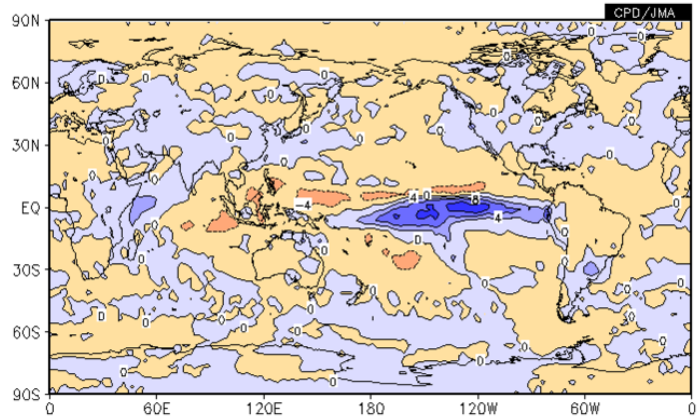
Upper：1997/98, lower：normal

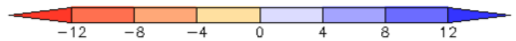
Anomalies in 1997/98



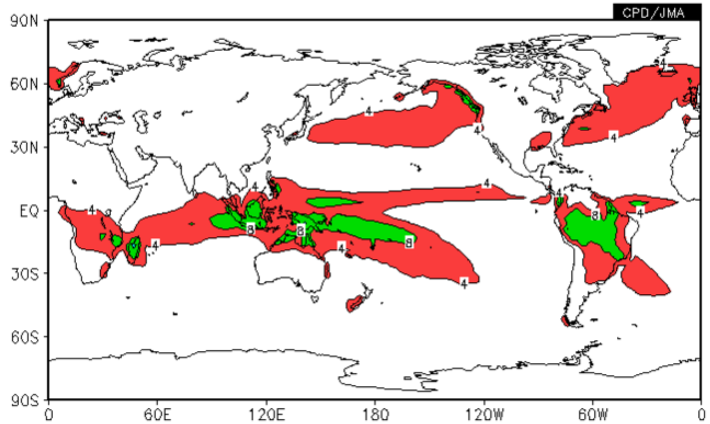


mm/day





mm/day



<u>Atmospheric heating by condensation</u>

Latent heat

：　$2.5 \times 10^6 Jkg^{-1}$

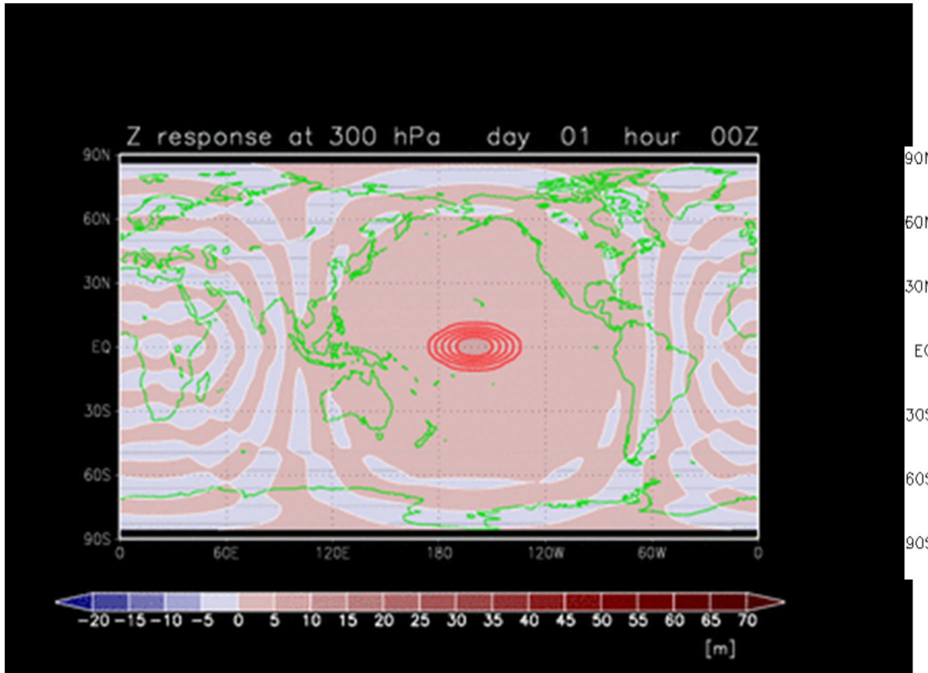
Heat capacity of the atmosphere (per $1m^2$)

:　$10^7 JK^{-1}m^{-2}$

→

4kg/day(=4mm/day) condensation heats the atmosphere 1K/day

■ Global atmospheric response to condensation heating in the central equatorial Pacific

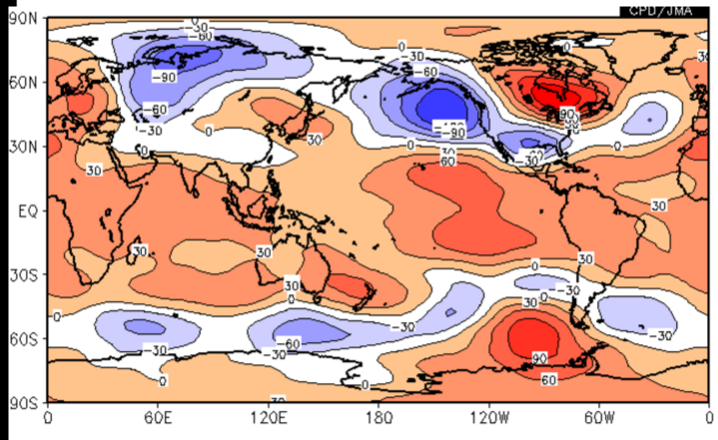


Watanabe,2011 *

LBM simulation of response to condensation heating in the central equatorial Pacific.

Geopotential height at 300hPa

* from his presentation in "Twelfth Joint Meeting for the Seasonal Prediction of the East Asian Winter Monsoon"

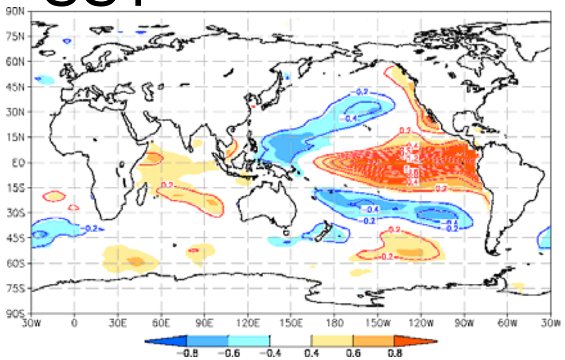


Geopotential height anomalies at 300hPa in 1997/98 winter (DJF).

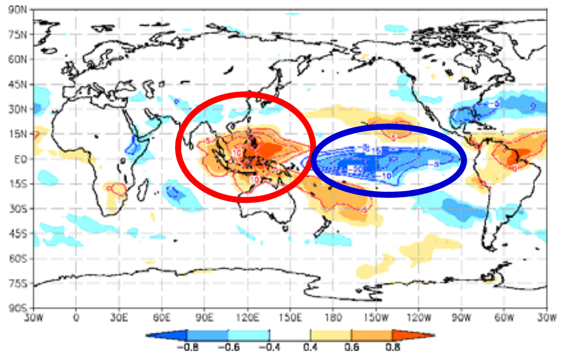
Localized condensation heating in the tropics force stationary Rossby waves which propagate to the mid-high latitudes.

Statistical relationship between NINO.3 and atmospheric circulation fields in DJF

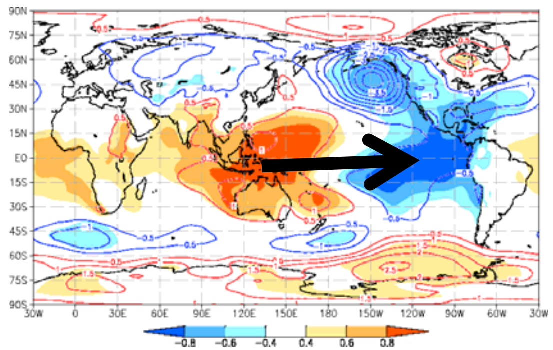
SST



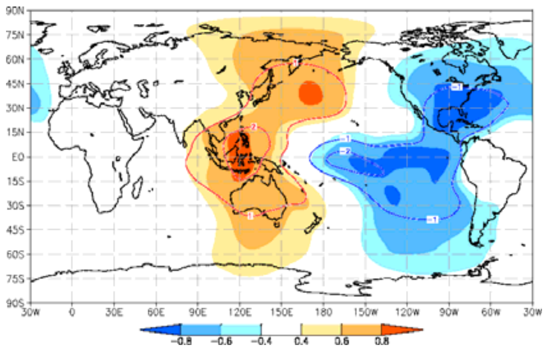
OLR



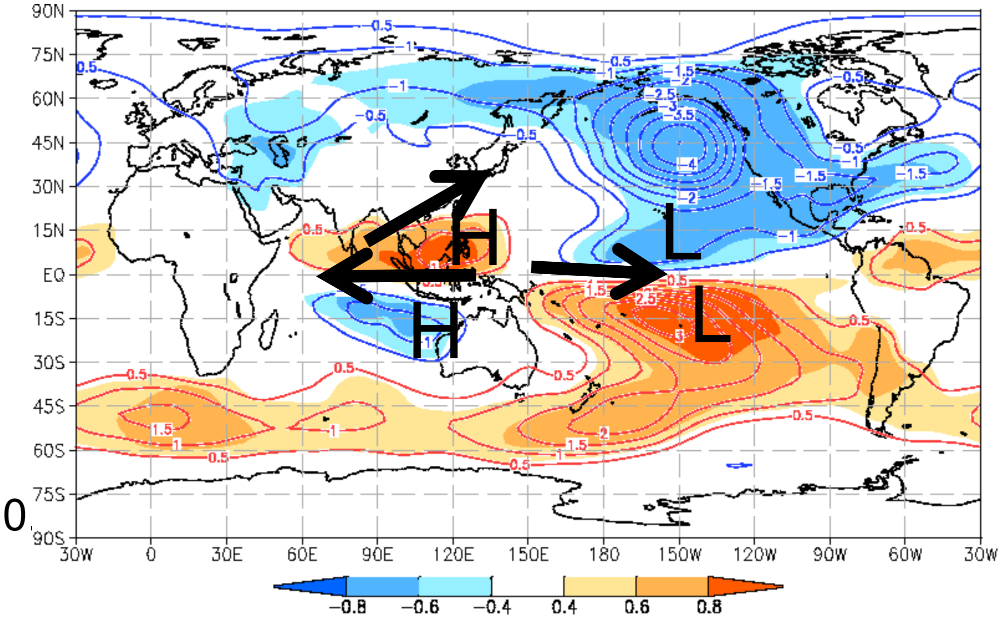
Sea Level Pressure



Velocity Potential at 200hPa



Stream Function at 850hPa

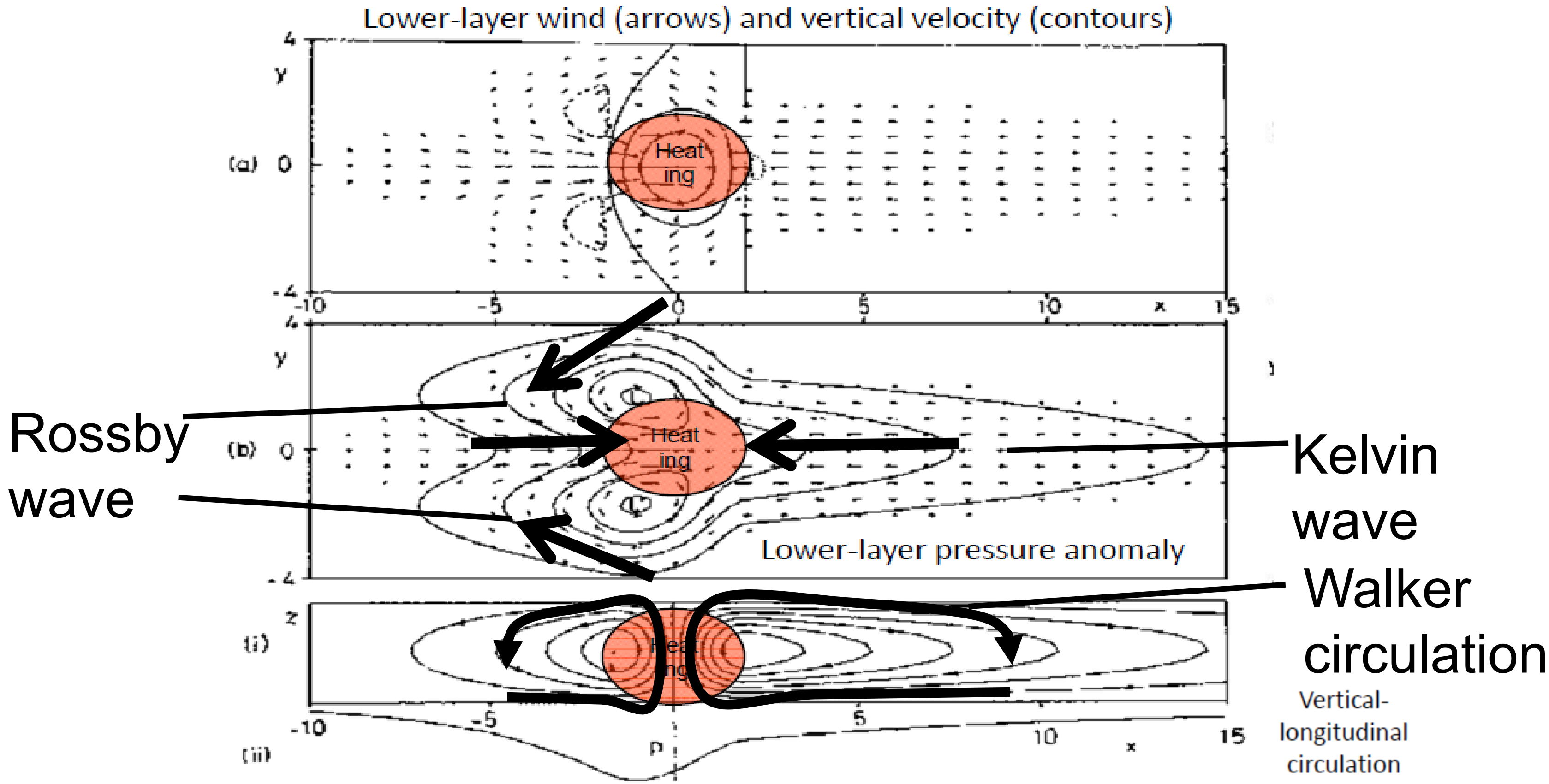


Contours show atmospheric circulation anomalies when normalized NINO.3 is+1.0.
Shadings show correlation coefficients.

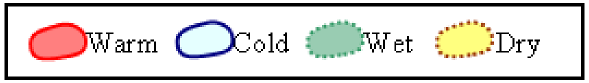
Some simple solutions for heat-induced tropical circulation

Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society
Volume 106, Issue 449, July 1980, Pages: 447–462, A. E. Gill

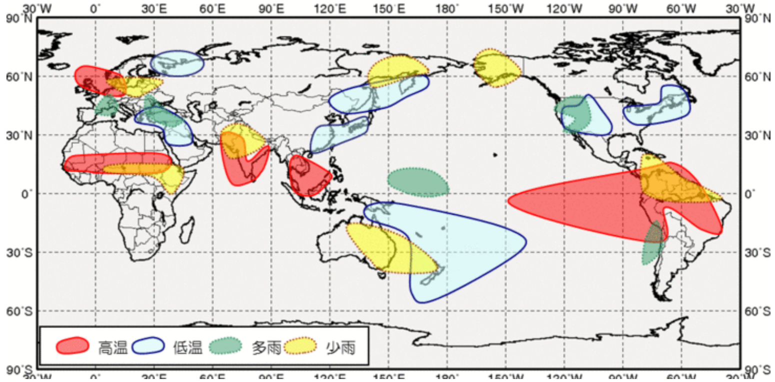
Symmetric Heating Anomaly about the equator



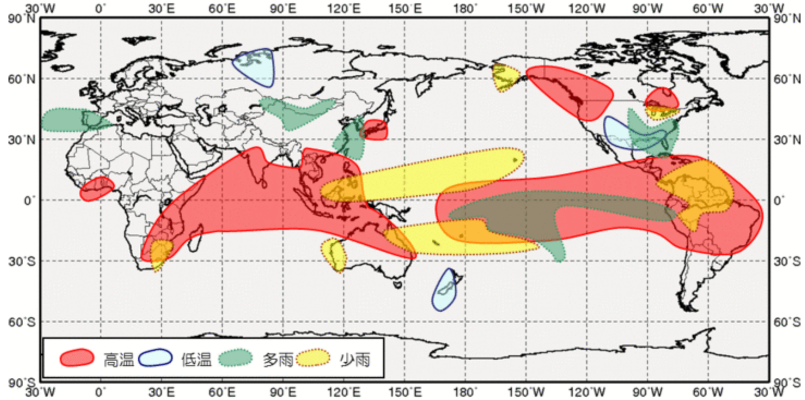
Climate tendencies during El Nino/La Nina



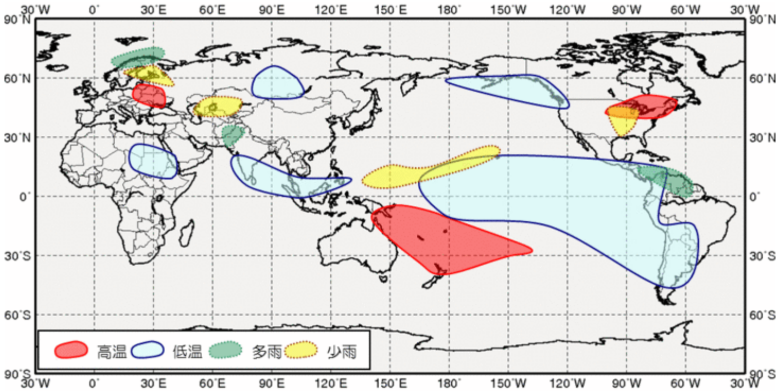
EL in boreal summer



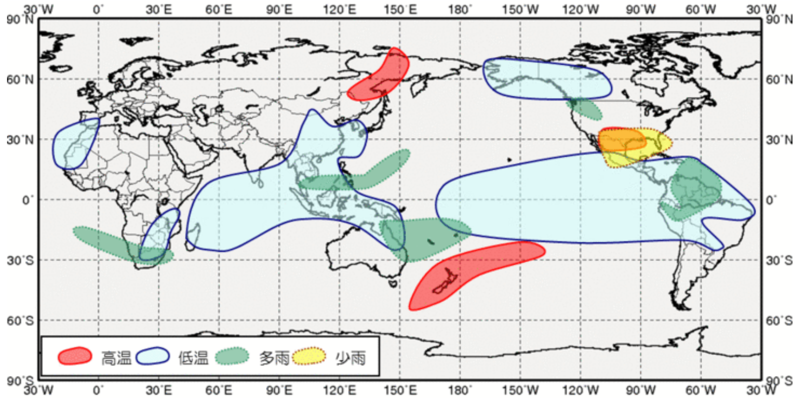
EL in boreal winter



LA in boreal summer

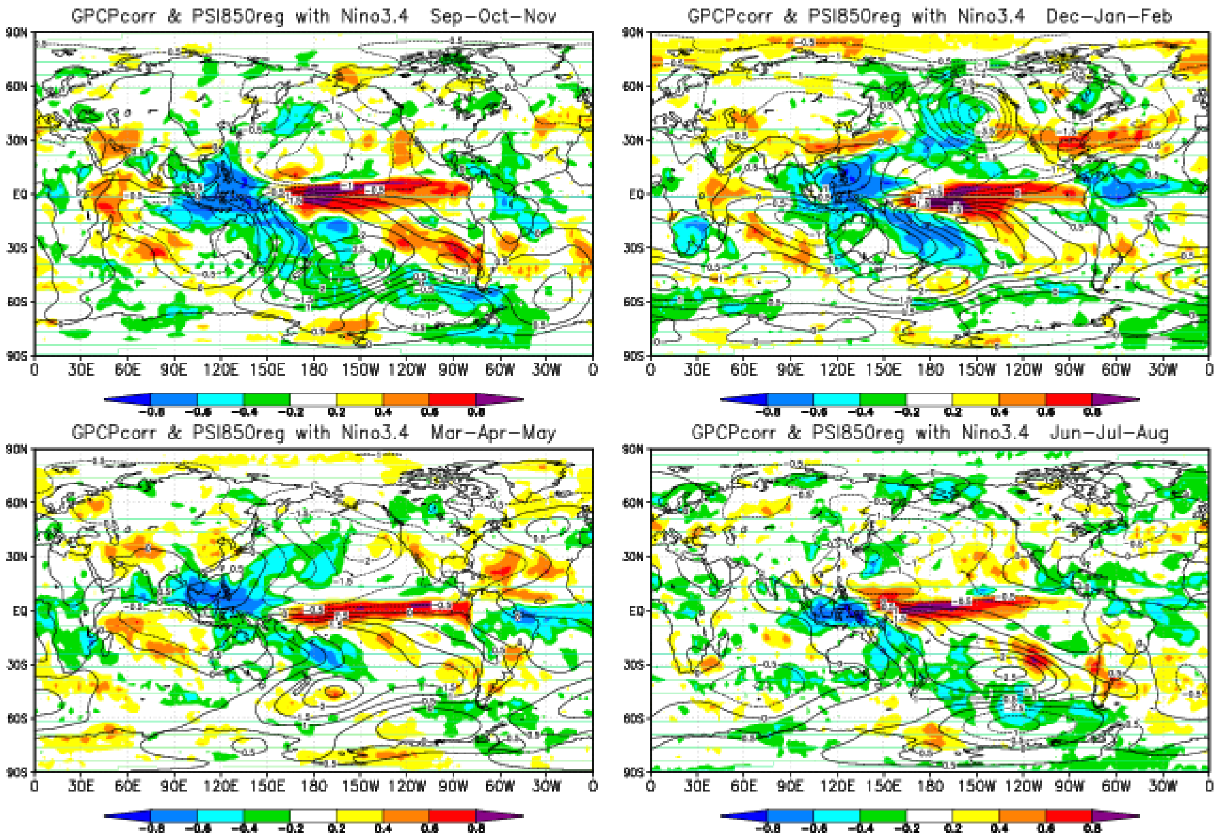


LA in boreal winter



The maps show the regions where climate tendencies observed during El Niño/La niña episodes are statistically significant in boreal summer/winter.

Seasonal and Regional Dependence of ENSO impact

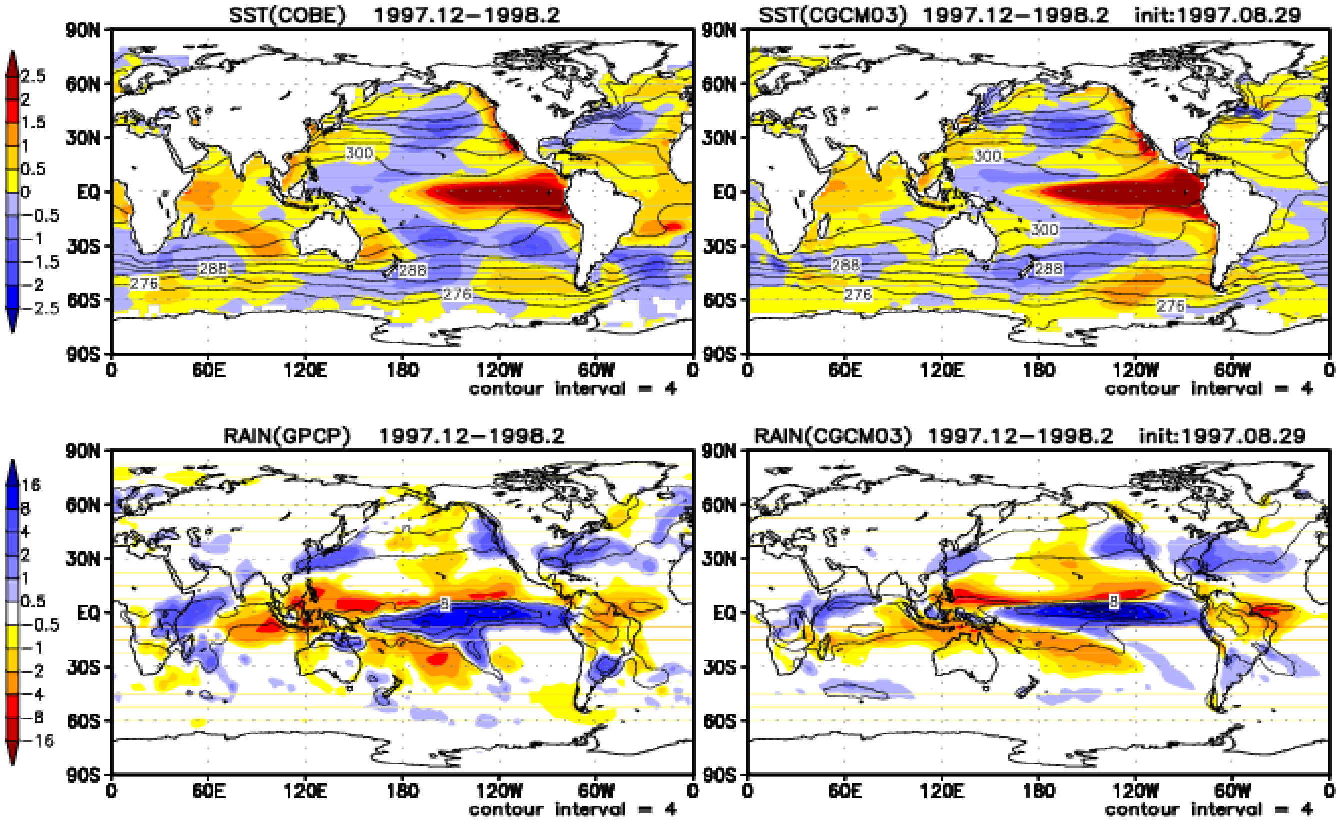


(Shades) statistical correlations between 3-month-mean precipitation anomaly and Nino3.4 SST anomaly for September to November (upper-left), December to February (upper-right), March to May (lower-left) and June to August (lower-right). Contours indicate the statistical regression of 850hPa stream-function anomaly onto Nino3.4 SST anomaly. The JRA-25(Onogi et al. 2006), GPCP (Adler et al. 2003) and COBE SST (Ishii et al. 2005) data during 25 years of Sep1979 to Aug2004 is used. The 95% significance for the correlations corresponds to roughly more than 0.4 or less than -0.4.

Example of ENSO prediction

Initial :1997.8.29,　Valid time : 1997.12～1998.2

OBS.　　　　　　　　**Prediction**



Contour : SST
Shade:
SST anomaly

Contour :
Precipitation
Shade:
Precipitation
anomaly

- Various ENSO impacts

Lingering impacts of ENSO through change in SST in Tropical Indian Ocean (TIO)

SST in TIO tends to raise associated with El Nino with one-season lag

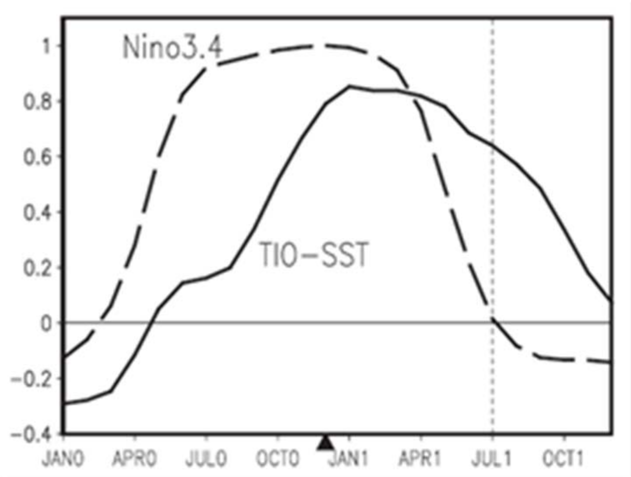
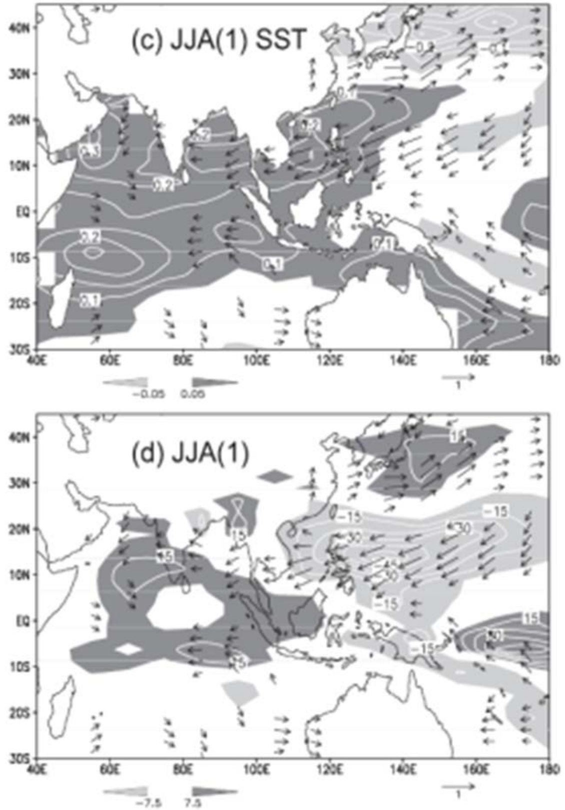


Fig. 1. Correlation of tropical Indian Ocean (40-100°E, 20°S-20°N) SST (solid) with the Nino3.4 (170°W-120°W, 5°S-5°N) SST index for Nov(0)-Dec(0)-Jan(1). Numerals in parentheses denote years relative to El Nino: 0 for its developing and 1 for decay year. The dashed curve is the Nino3.4 SST auto-correlation as a function of lag. The black triangle denotes Dec(0), the peak phase of ENSO.

Warm SST in TIO has impact on atmospheric circulation in Asia Pacific region in JJA



Precipitation anomaly (mm/month)

Xie et al.(2009)

El Niño Modoki & CP El Niño

Nature,2009

The El Niño with a difference

Karumuri Ashok and Toshio Yamagata

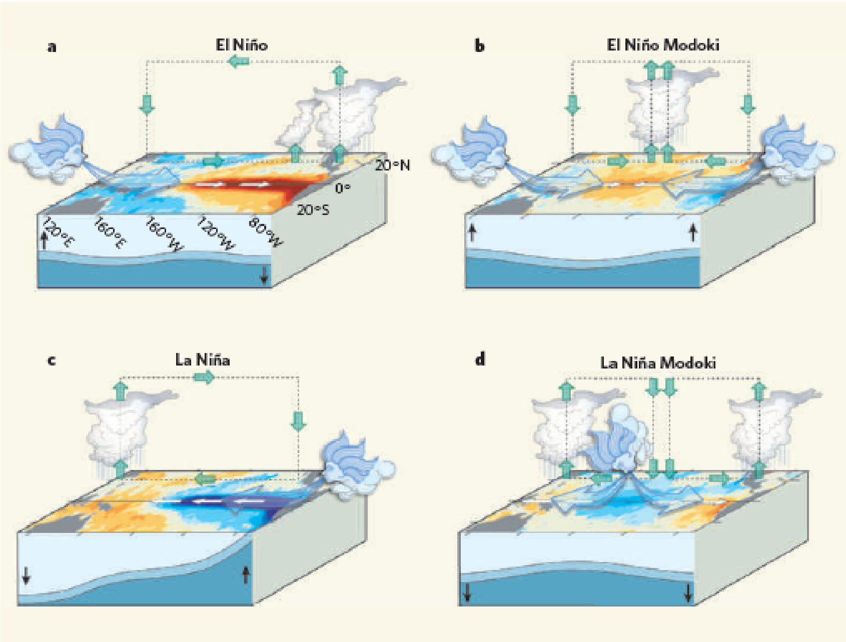


Figure 2 | Anomalous conditions in the tropical Pacific. **a,** An El Niño event is produced when the easterly winds weaken; sometimes, in the west, westerlies prevail. This condition is categorized by warmer than normal sea surface temperatures (SSTs) in the east of the ocean, and is associated with alterations in the thermocline and in the atmospheric circulation that make the east wetter and the west drier. **b,** An El Niño Modoki event is an anomalous condition of a distinctly different kind. The warmest SSTs occur in the central Pacific, flanked by colder waters to the east and west, and are associated with distinct patterns of atmospheric convection. **c, d,** The opposite (La Niña) phases of the El Niño and El Niño Modoki respectively. Yeh *et al.*[3] argue that the increasing frequency of the Modoki condition is due to anthropogenic warming, and that these events in the central Pacific will occur more frequently if global warming increases.

Nature,2009

El Niño in a changing climate

Sang-Wook Yeh[1], Jong-Seong Kug[1], Boris Dewitte[2], Min-Ho Kwon[3], Ben P. Kirtman[4] & Fei-Fei Jin

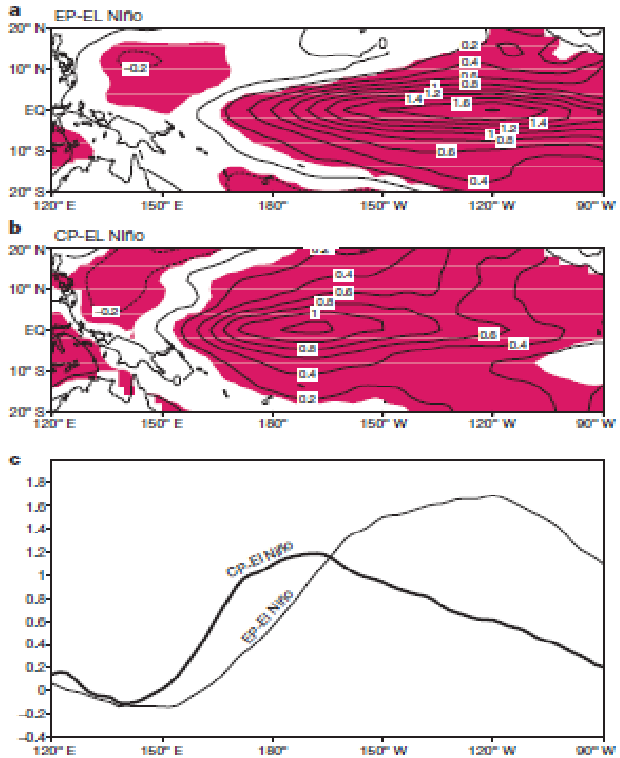
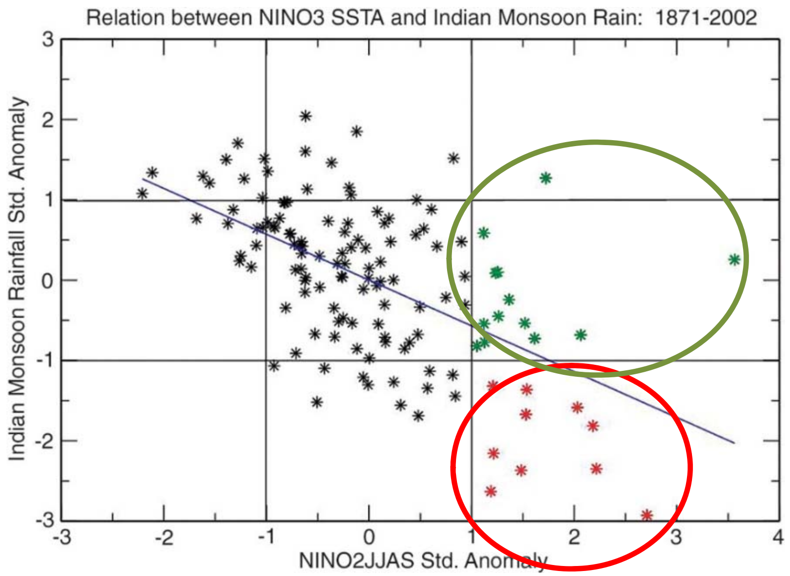


Figure 1 | Deviations of mean SST for the two characteristics of El Niño from the 1854–2006 climatology. **a,** The EP-El Niño; **b,** the CP-El Niño. The contour interval is 0.2 °C and shading denotes a statistical confidence at 95% confidence level based on a Student's *t*-test. **c,** The zonal structure for the composite EP-El Niño (thin line) and CP-El Niño (thick line) averaged over 2 °N to 2 °S.

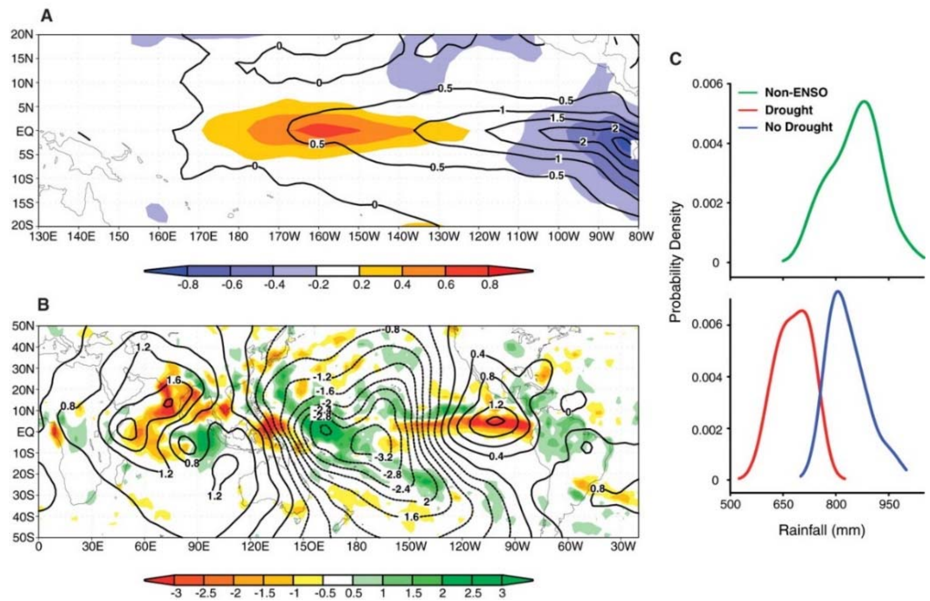
ENSO-Monsoon relation

Severe droughts in India have always been accompanied by El Niño events. SST anomalies in the central equatorial Pacific are more effective in focusing drought-producing subsidence over India.



Plot of standardized, all-India summer [June to September (JJAS)] monsoon rainfall and summer NINO3 anomaly index. Severe drought and drought-free years during El Niño events (standardized NINO3 anomalies > 1) are shown in red and green, respectively.

Kumar et al.(2006)



(**A**) Composite SST difference pattern between severe drought (shaded) and drought-free El Niño years. Composite SST anomaly patterns of drought-free years are shown as contours. (**B**) Composite difference pattern between severe drought and drought-free years of velocity potential (contours) and rainfall (shaded). (**C**) PDF of all-India summer monsoon rainfall from severe-drought (red curve) and drought-free (blue curve) years associated with El Nino occurrence and from the non-ENSO years (green curve). SST and velocity potential composite differences are based on 1950 to 2004, rainfall composites are based on 1979 to 2004, and PDFs are based on 1873 to 2004.

A dipole mode in the tropical Indian Ocean

N. H. Saji*, B. N. Goswami†, P. N. Vinayachandran* & T. Yamagata*‡

Saji et al., Nature 1999

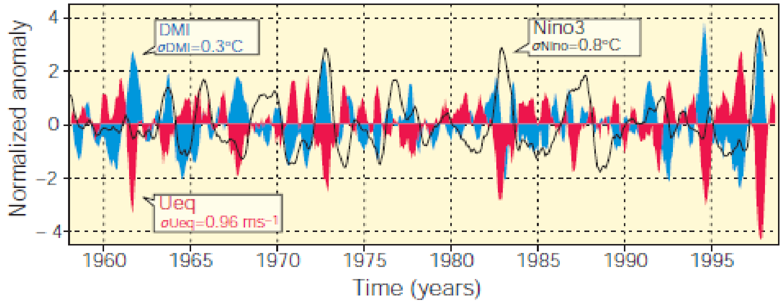


Figure 1 Dipole mode and El Niño events since 1958. Plotted in blue, the dipole mode index (DMI) exhibits a pattern of evolution distinctly different from that of the El Niño, which is represented by the Nino3 sea surface temperature (SST) anomalies (black line). On the other hand, equatorial zonal wind anomalies U_{eq} (plotted in red) coevolves with the DMI. All the three time series have been normalized by their respective standard deviations. We have removed variability with periods of 7 years or longer, based on harmonic analysis, from all the data sets used in this analysis. In addition, we have smoothed the time series using a 5-month running mean.

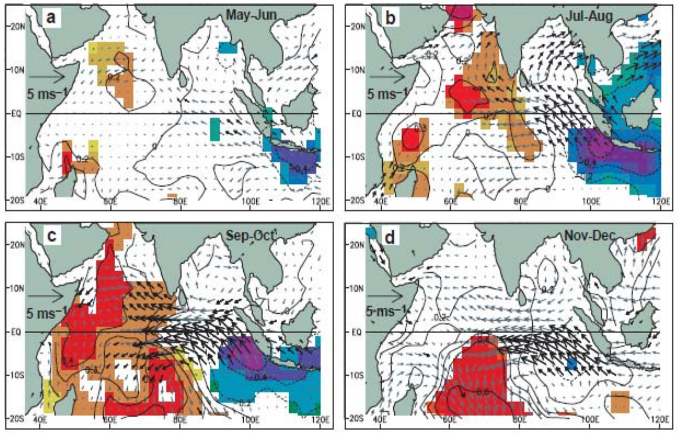


Figure 2 A composite dipole mode event. **a–d**, Evolution of composite SST and surface wind anomalies from May–June (**a**) to Nov–Dec (**d**). The statistical significance of the analysed anomalies were estimated by the two-tailed *t*-test. Anomalies of SSTs and winds exceeding 90% significance are indicated by shading and bold arrows, respectively.

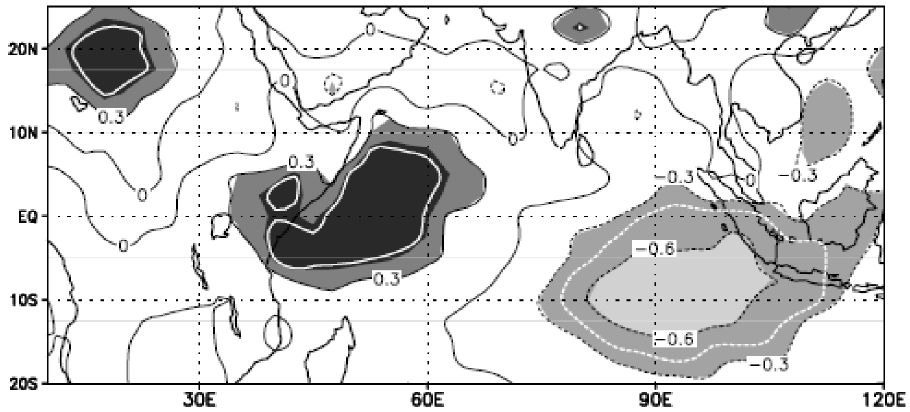


Figure 4 Rainfall shifts northwest of the OTCZ during dipole mode events. The map correlates the DMI and rainfall to illustrate these shifts. The areas within the white curve exceed the 90% level of confidence for non-zero correlation (using a two-tailed *t*-test).

Vol. 25: 151–169, 2003 | CLIMATE RESEARCH Clim Res | Published December 5

Possible impacts of Indian Ocean Dipole mode events on global climate

N. H. Saji[1,3,*], T. Yamagata[1,2]

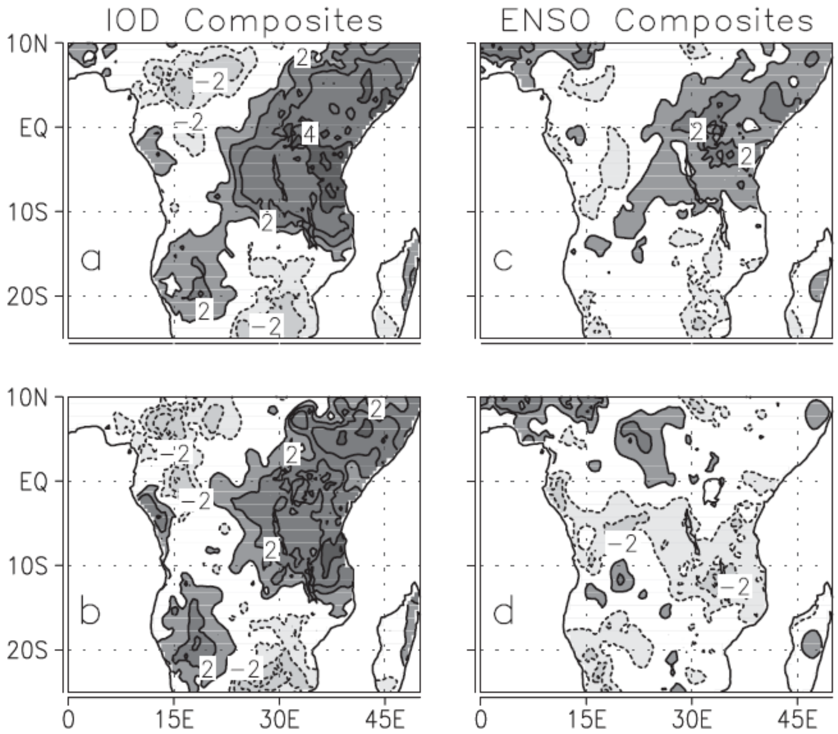


Fig. 1. Composite OND rain anomaly over Africa for (a) 19 IOD events, (b) 11 ENSO-independent IOD events, (c) 20 ENSO events and (d) 12 IOD-independent ENSO events. The composite anomaly was normalized by the standard deviation of rain during OND. Contours given at ±1, ±2, etc.

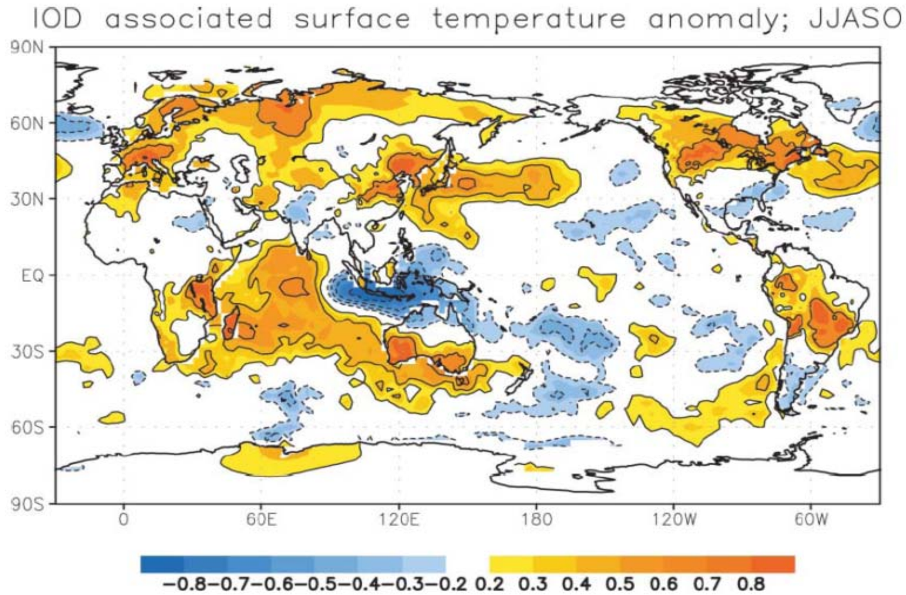
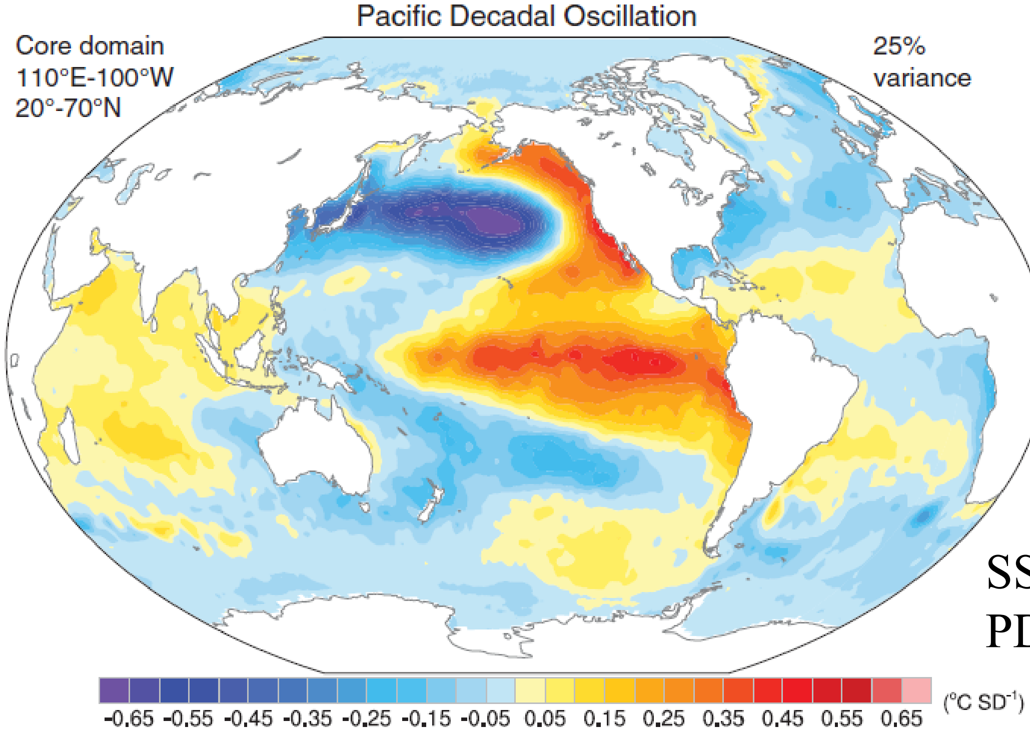


Fig. 21. Partial correlation of land and sea-surface temperature on DMI independent of Nino3 during JJASO

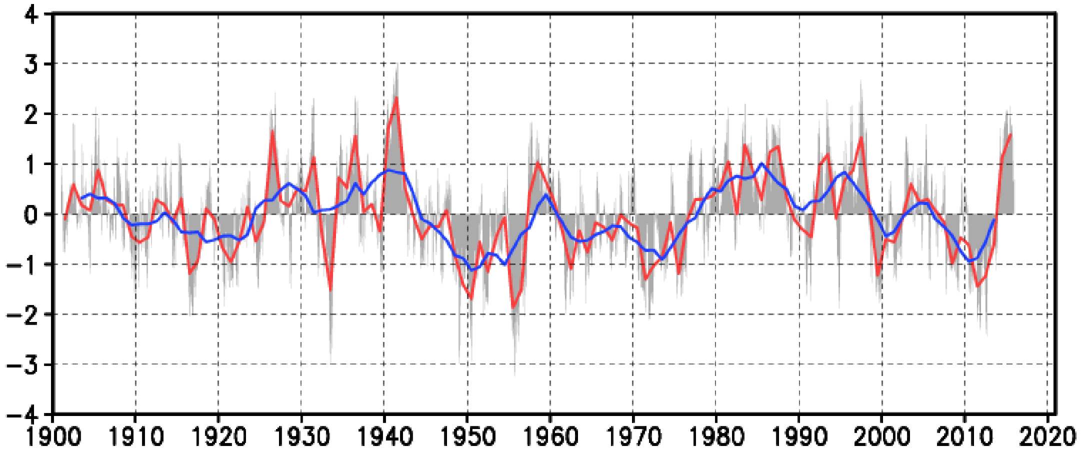
2.4 Decadal Variability

Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO)



Trenberth and Fasullo (2013)

SST pattern regressed on PDO index



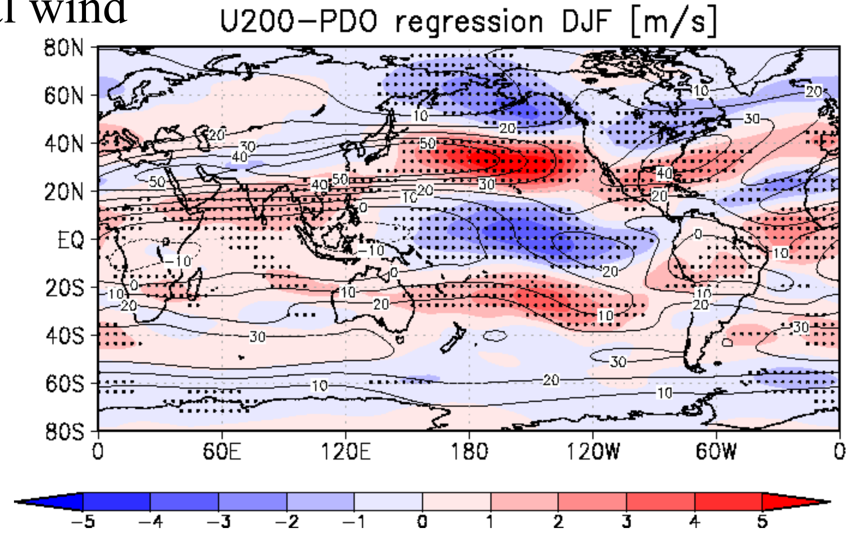
PDO index

(from JMA website)

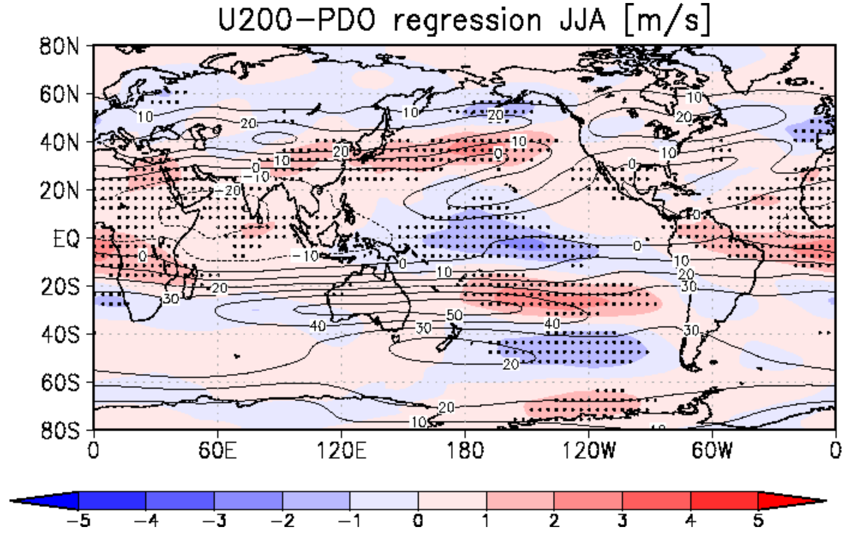
PDO and local climate

Zonal wind

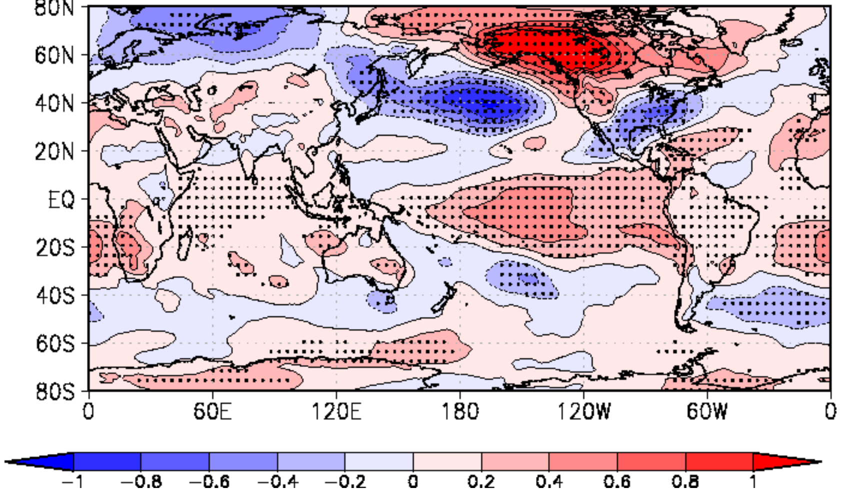
Dec/Jan/Feb

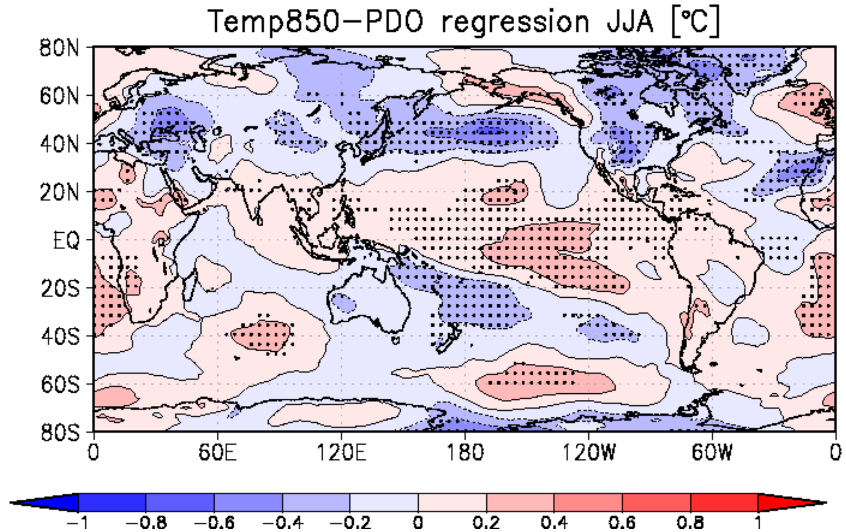


Jun/Jul/Aug



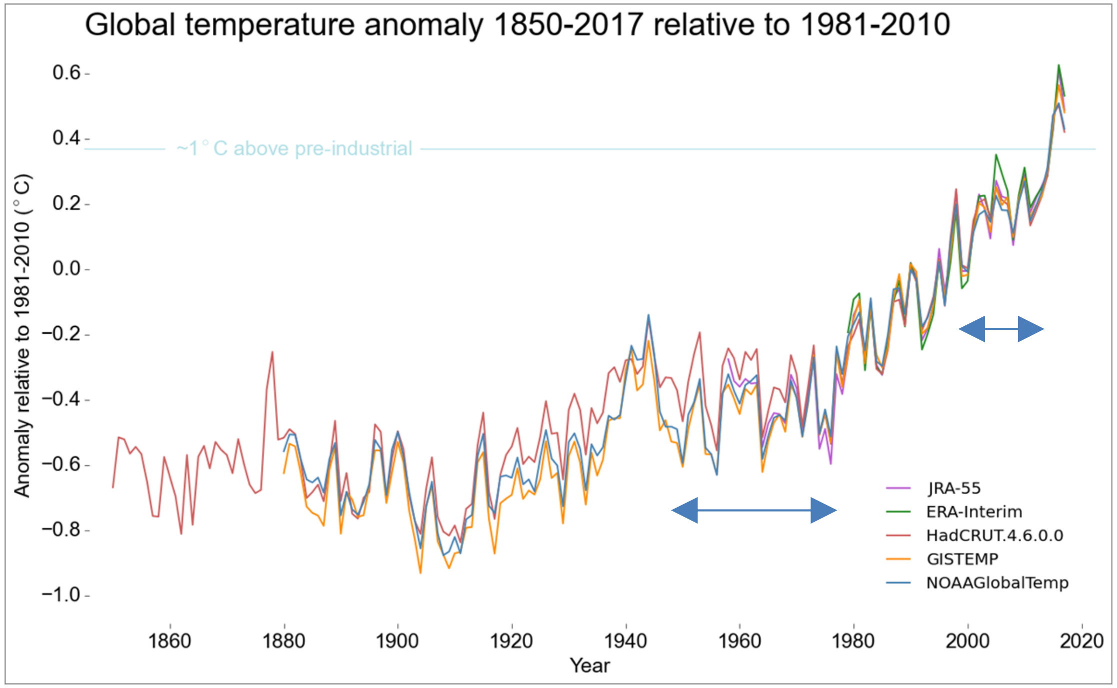
Temperature





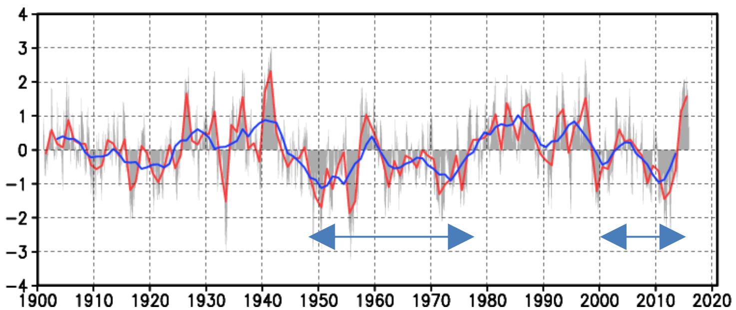
(from JMA website)

Global Warming Slowdown and PDO

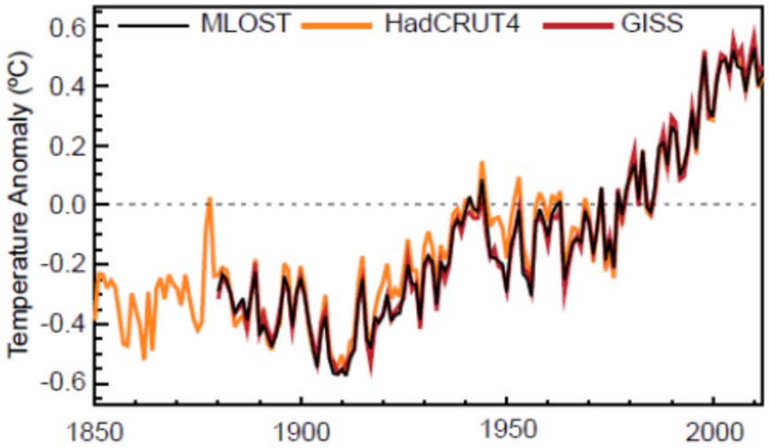


Phases of global warming slowdown (“hiatus”) correspond to the negative phase of PDO index

PDO index

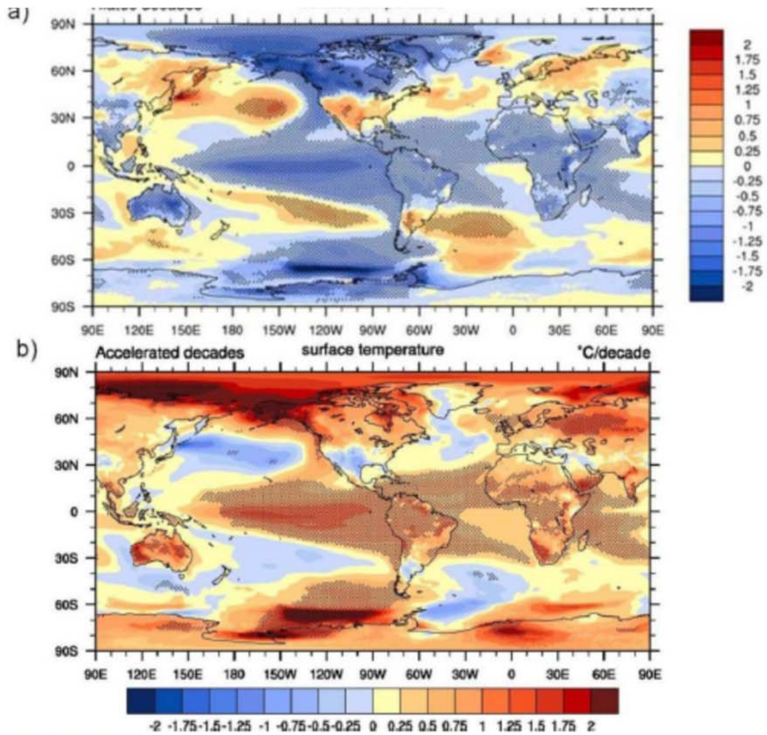


Global warming slowdown and PDO/IPO



Annual Global Mean Surface Temperature (GMST) anomalies relative to a 1961–1990 climatology from the latest version of the three combined Land-Surface Air Temperature (LSAT) and Sea Surface Temperature (SST) datasets (HadCRUT4, GISS and NCDC MLOST).

IPCC AR5 (2014)

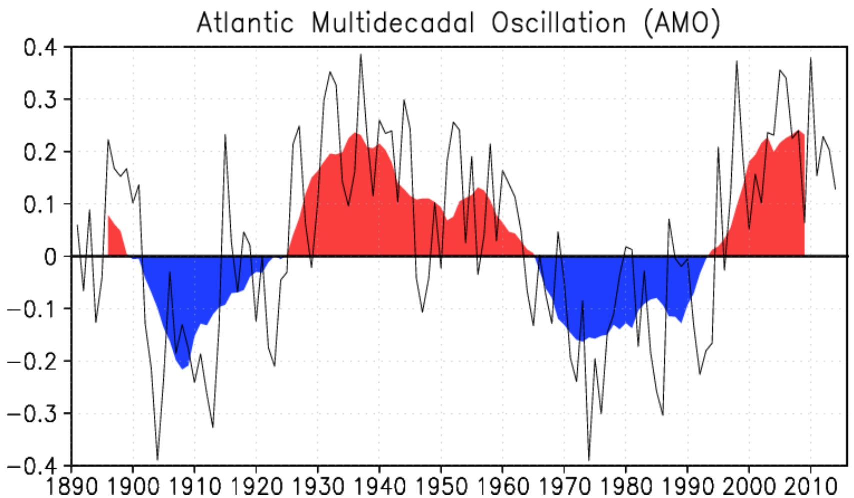


Five CCSM4 21st century simulations with RCP4.5
(uniform increase in GHGs, no volcanoes):
Composites of decades with near-zero warming trend (hiatus decades) and decades with rapid global warming (accelerated warming decades) show opposite phases of the IPO in the Pacific
(hiatus=linear trend of global T <-0.10K/decade; 8 hiatus decades
Accelerated=linear trend of global T>+0.41K/decade; 7 accelerated warming decades)

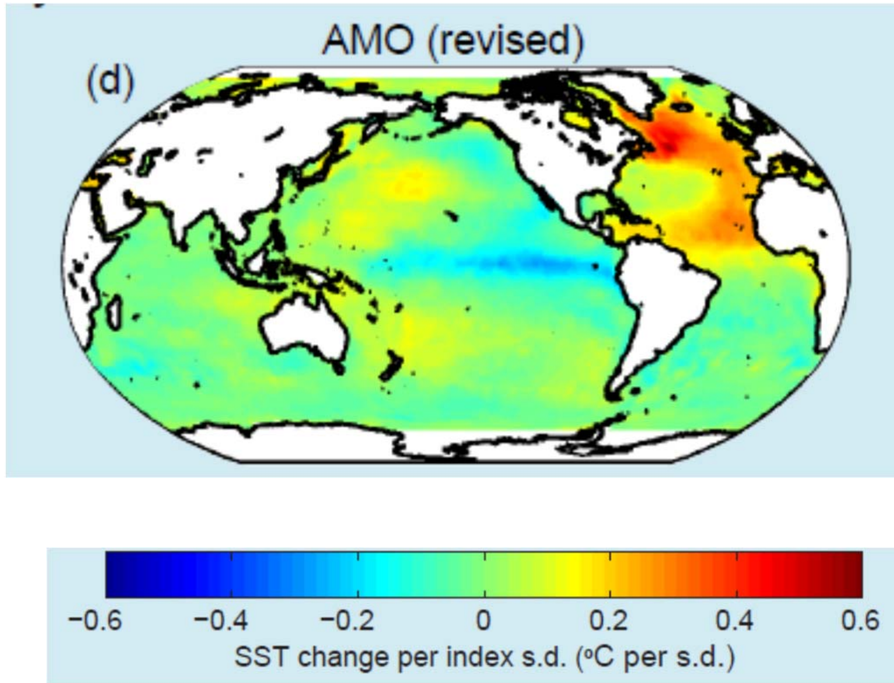
Meehl et al. (2013)

- IPO in positive phase → Accelerated warming decades
- IPO in negative phase → Hiatus decades

Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO)



SST anomalies averaged in North Atalntic after removed linear trend. From JMA-HP



Decadal variability of ENSO/ Monsoon and their relationship

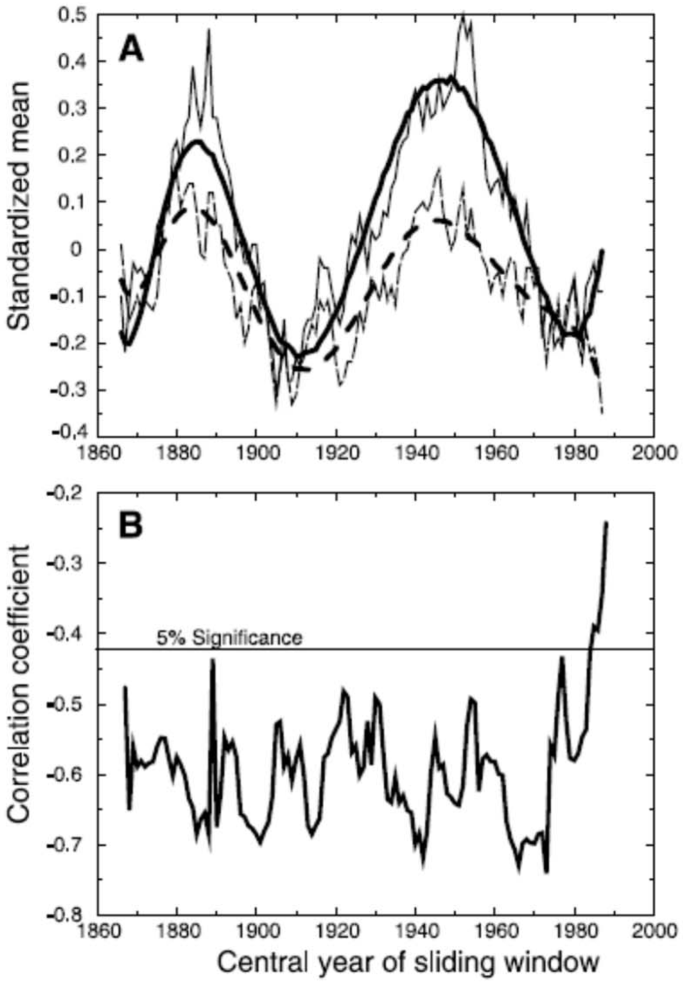


Fig. 1. (**A**) Shown are 21-year sliding standardized means of Indian summer monsoon rainfall (thin line) and June to August (JJA) NINO3 SST anomalies (thin dashed line) during 1856–1997. The corresponding solid lines represent the smoothed values (smoothing is done by fitting a polynomial). The sign of NINO3 SST is reversed to facilitate direct comparison. (**B**) Shown are 21-year sliding correlations between Indian summer monsoon rainfall and NINO3 SST anomalies (JJA) during 1856–1997. The horizontal line shows the 5% significance level.

On the Weakening Relationship Between the Indian Monsoon and ENSO

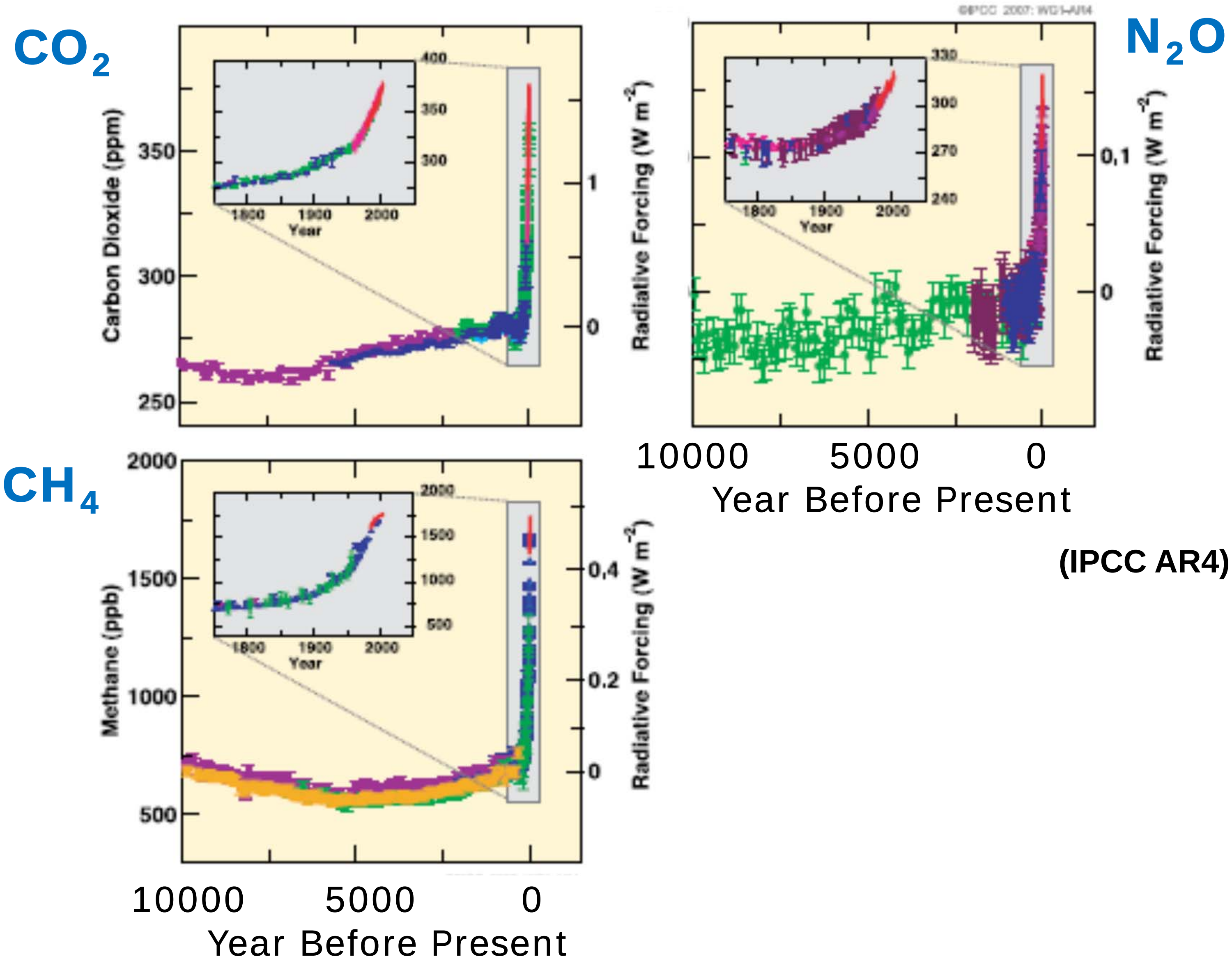
K. Krishna Kumar,[1*†] Balaji Rajagopalan,[2] Mark A. Cane[2] 1999

Outline of the lecture

1. Climate System (45 min. + α)
   1.1 Introduction
   1.2 Radiative Balance
   1.3 Horizontal Radiative Imbalance and Circulations
   1.4 Seasonal Change
   1.5 Role of Orography on Climate
2. Climate Variability (90 min. + α)
   2.1 Introduction
   2.2 Intraseasonal Variability: Quasi-stationary Rossby wave, MJO and equatorial waves
   2.3 Interannual Variability: ENSO, El Nino Modoki, IOD
   2.4 Decadal Variability: PDO, ENSO-Monsoon relation
3. Climate change due to anthropogenic forcing (30 min. + α)

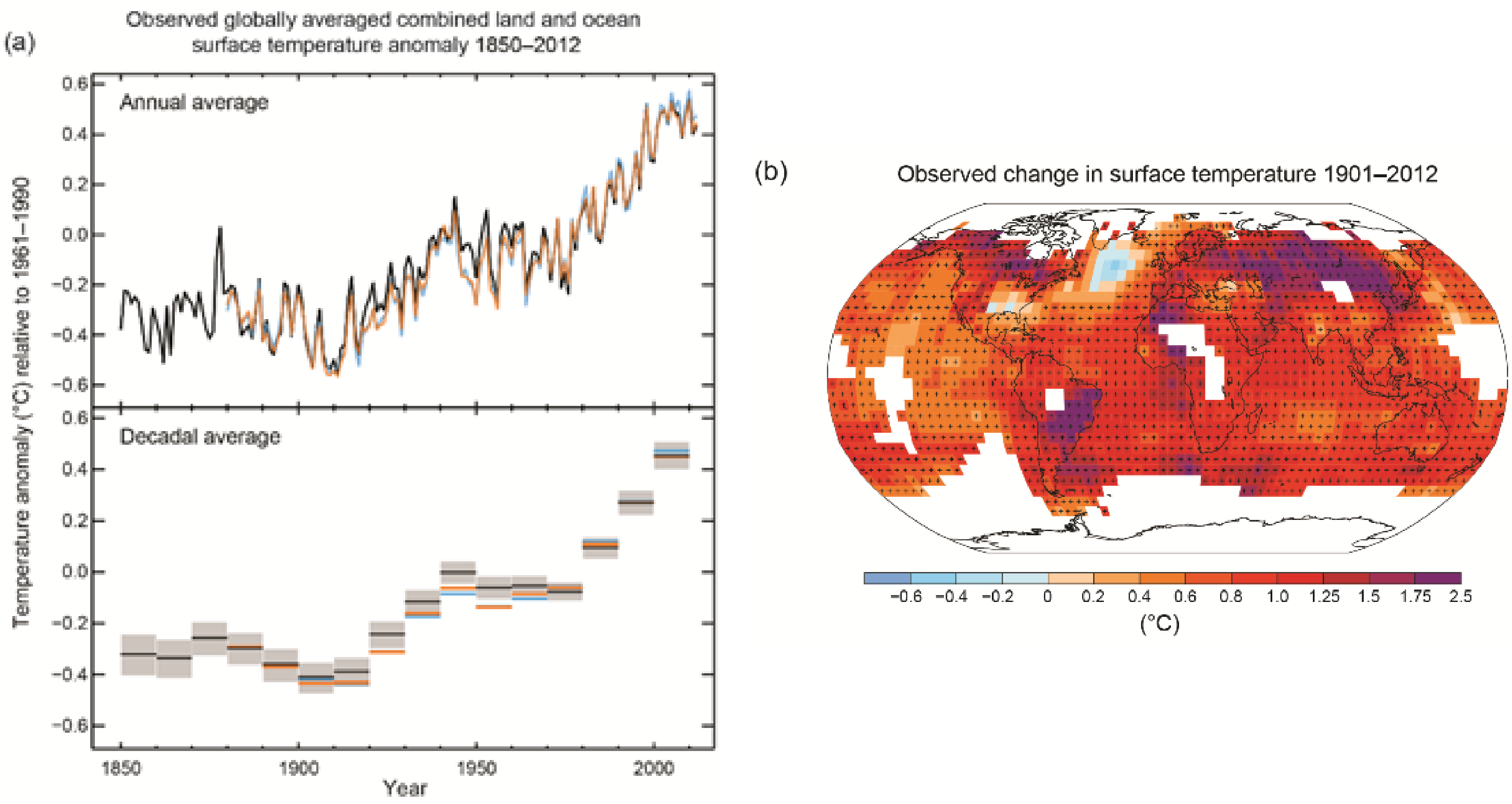
- Global Warming is already observed

Changes in greenhouse gases



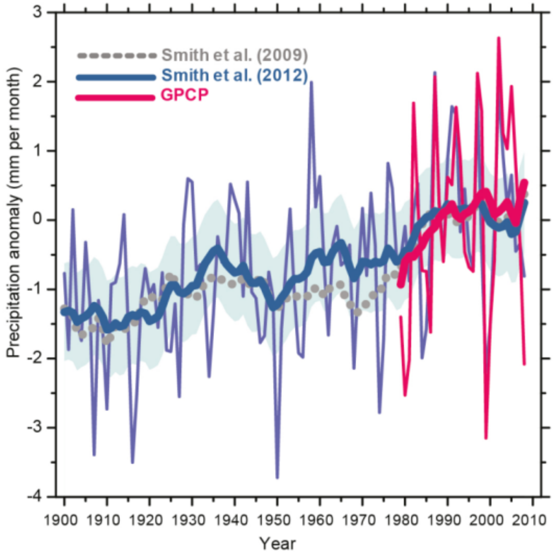
(IPCC AR4)

Global mean surface air temperature



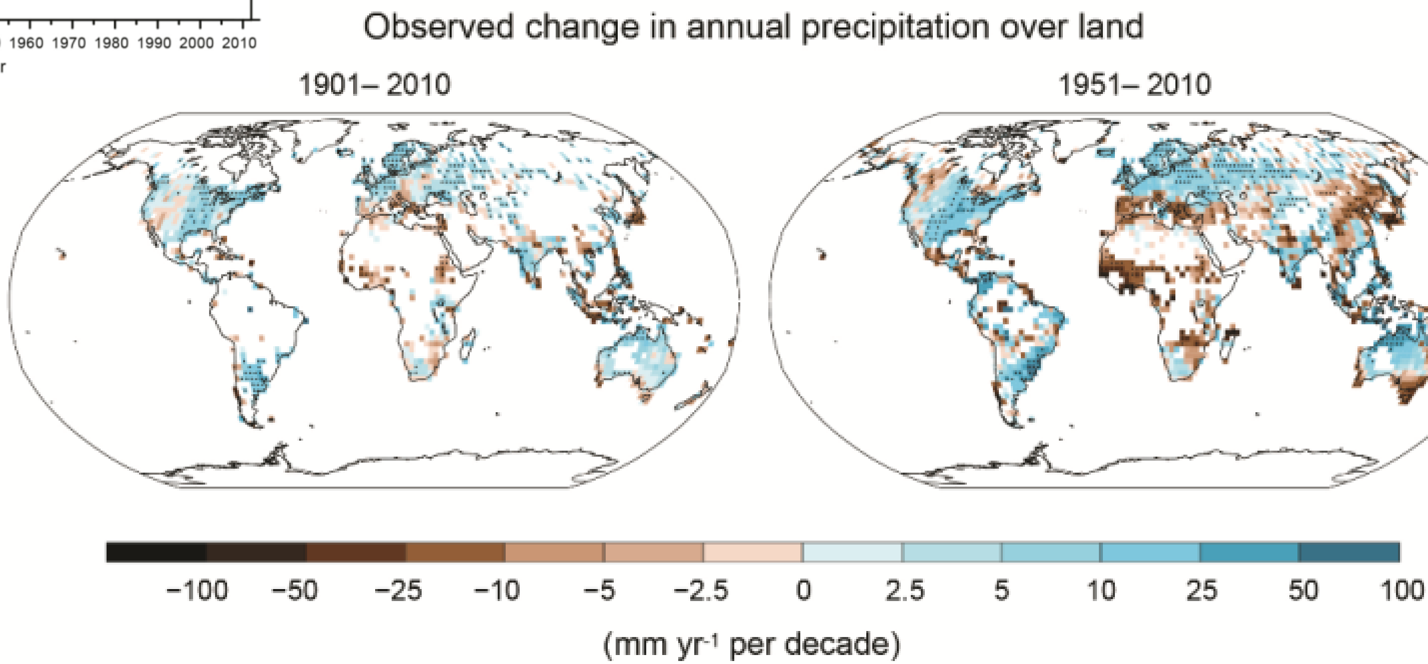
WGI_AR5_FigSPM-1

Annual precipitation over land



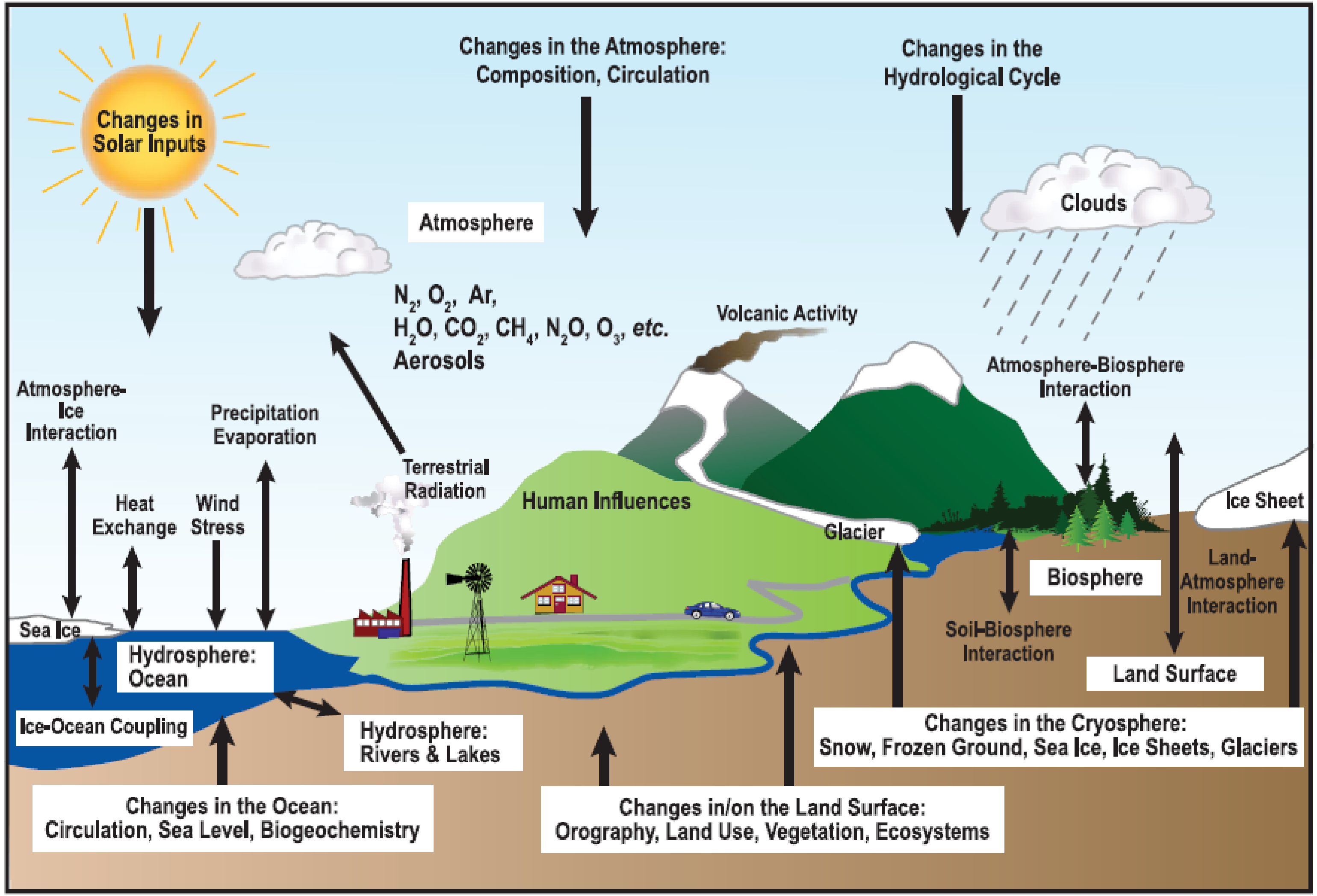
WGI_AR5_Fig3-7

WGI_AR5_FigSPM-2



- How to project Global Warming

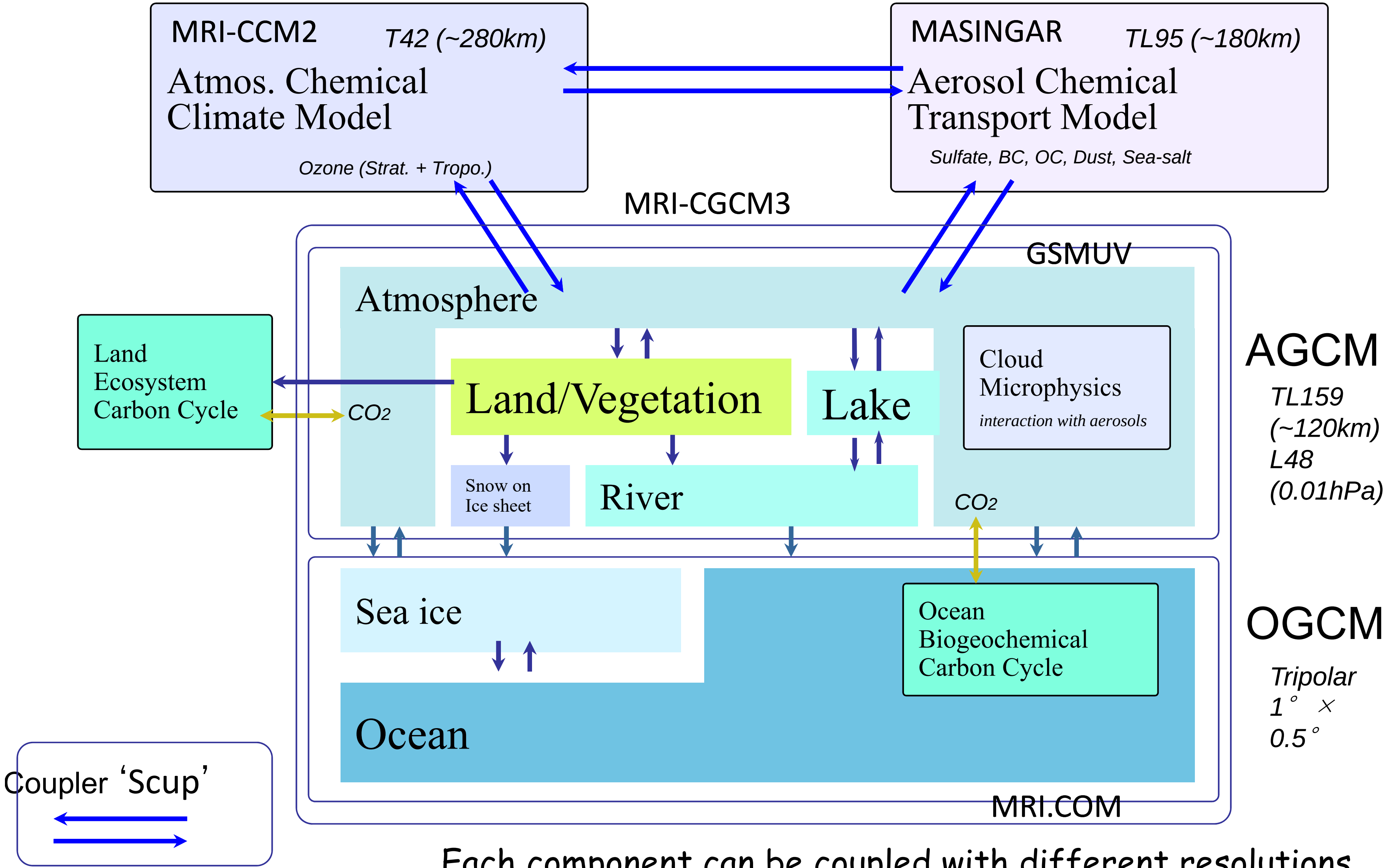
The climate system is complicated!



FAQ 1.2, Figure 1. *Schematic view of the components of the climate system, their processes and interactions.*

(IPCC AR4)

Example: MRI Earth System Model



Each component can be coupled with different resolutions

Historical Global Warming Experiments

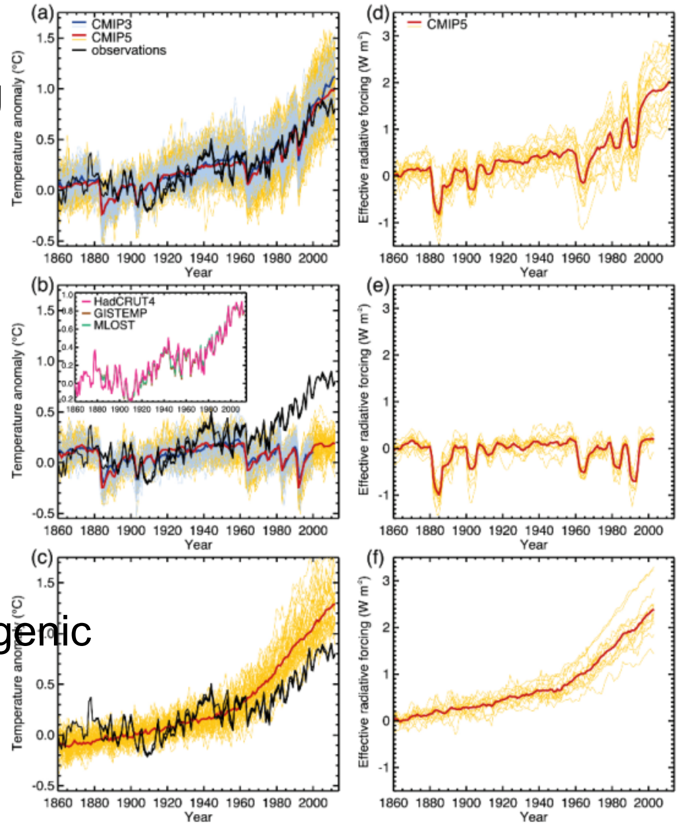
- Radiative forcing is the difference between insolation (sunlight) absorbed by the Earth and energy radiated back to space.

Model Experiments

All forcing

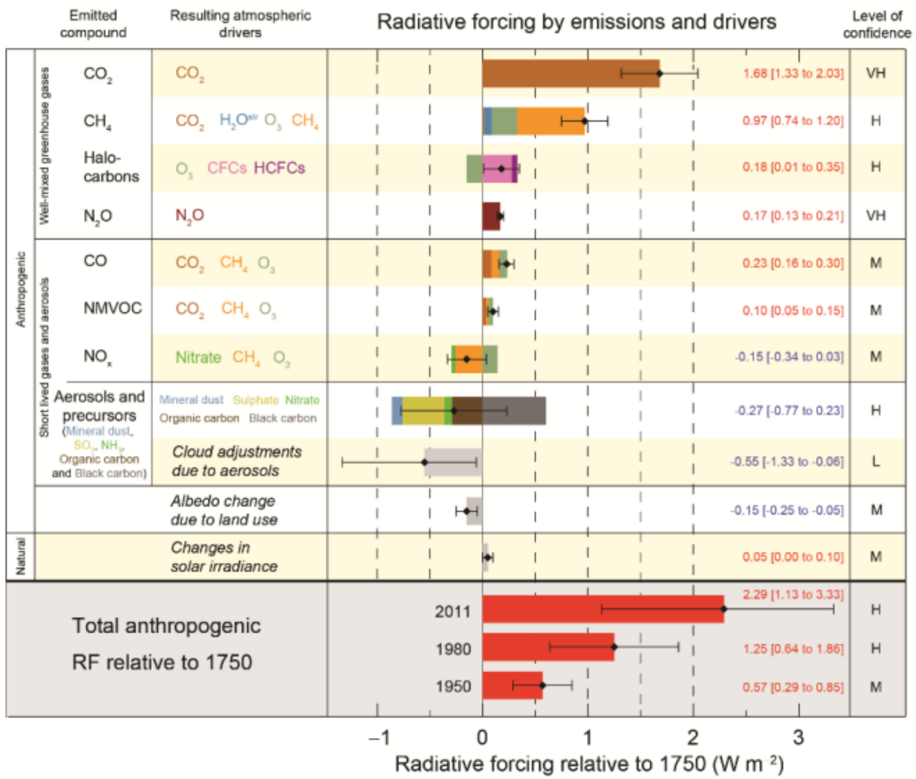
Natural forcing only

Anthropogenic forcing only



WGI_AR5_Fig10-1

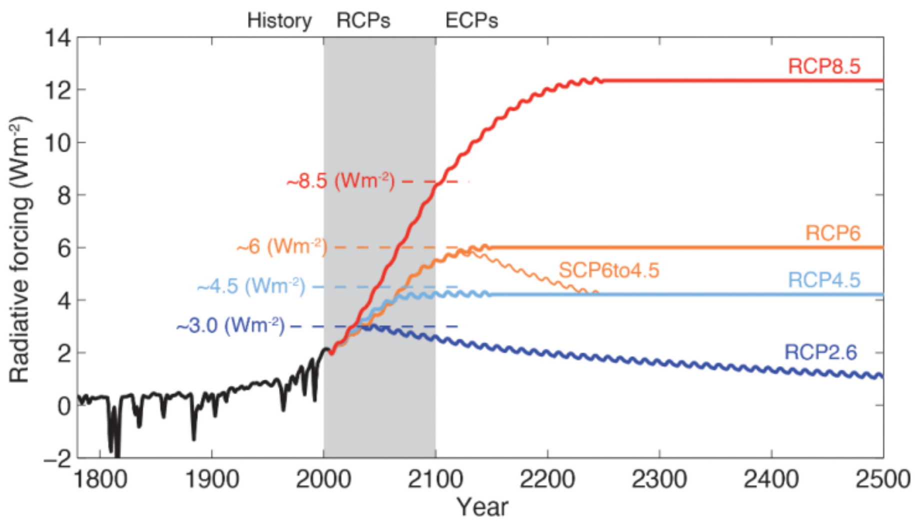
Radiative Forcing



WGI_AR5_FigSPM-5

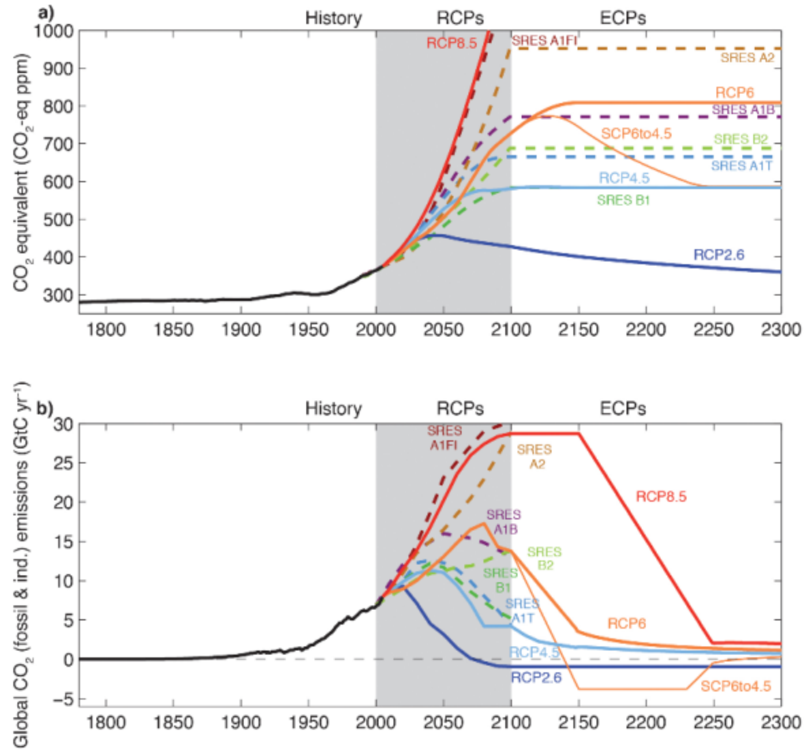
Future Scenarios

Radiative Forcing



WGI_AR5_FigBox11-1

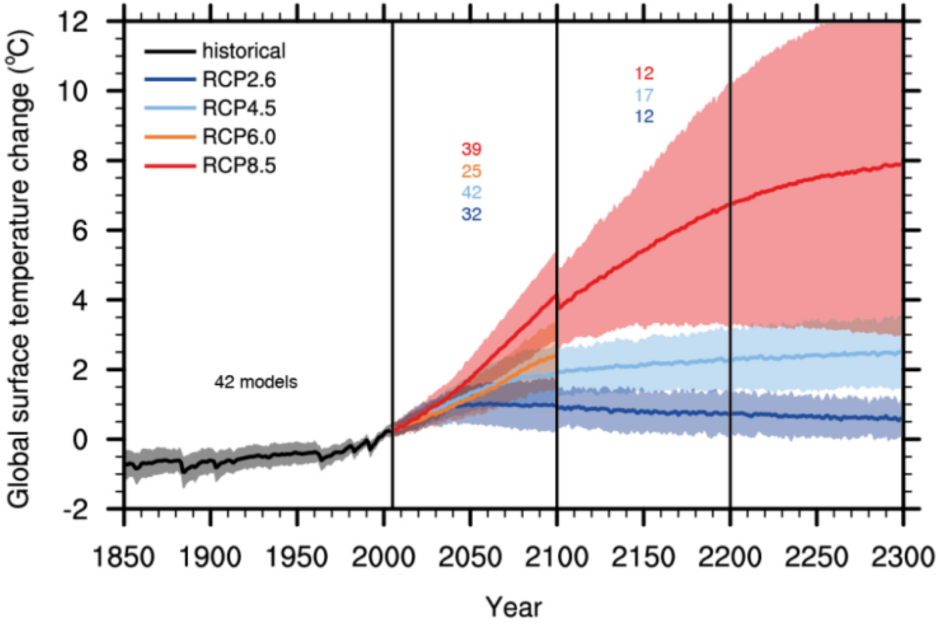
CO2 and Emisson



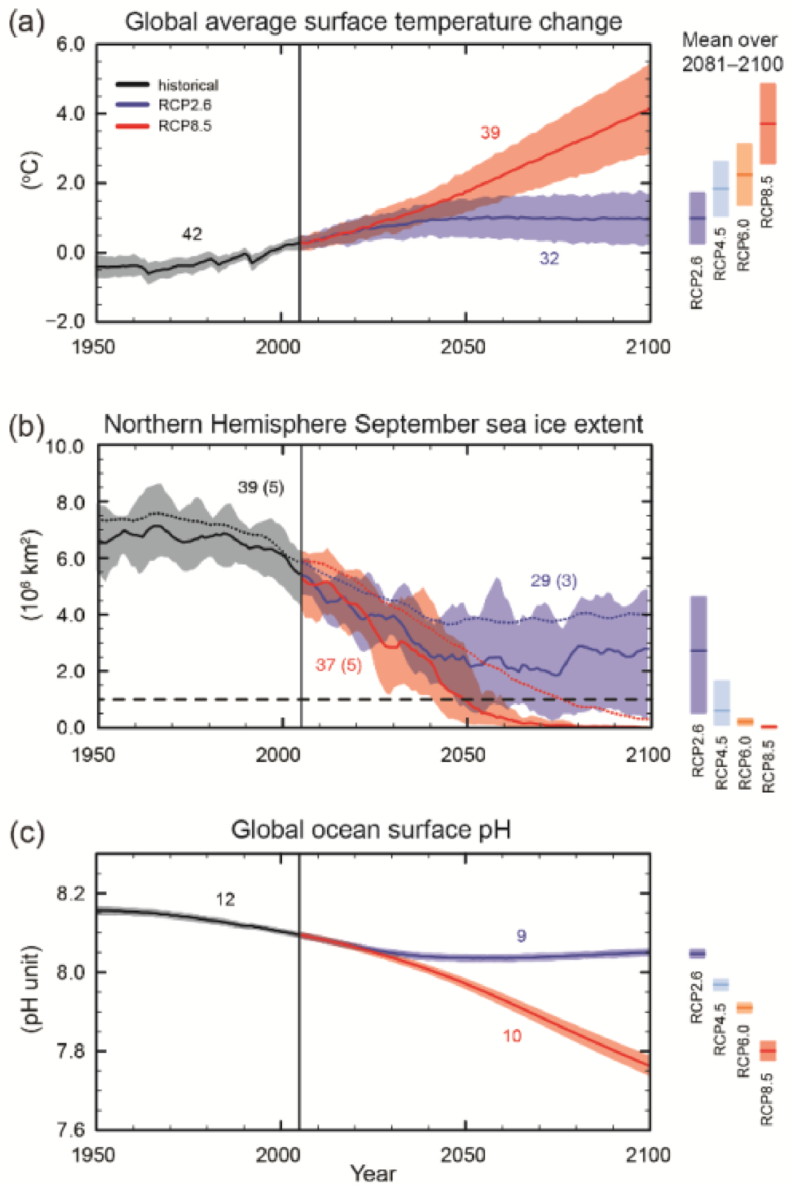
WGI_AR5_FigBox1_1-3

Future Projection

Surface temperature



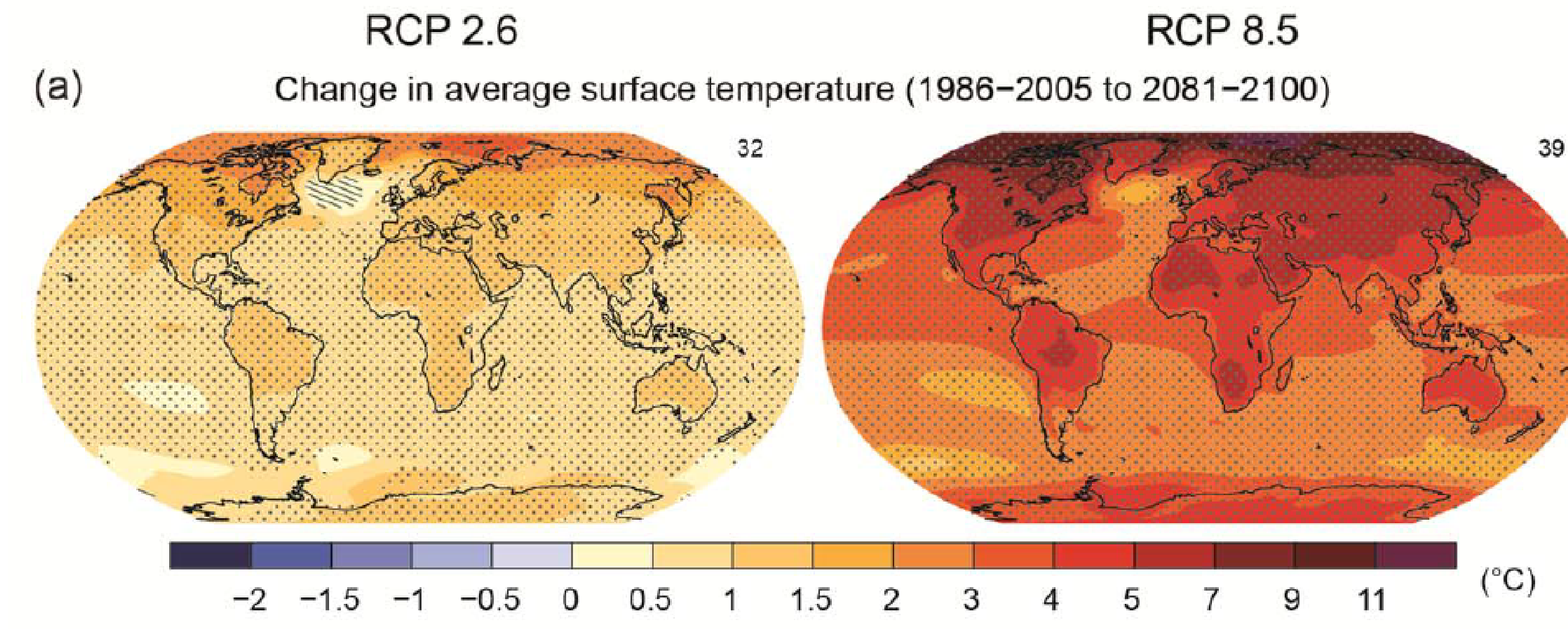
WGI_AR5_Fig12-5



WGI_AR5_FigSPM-7

Map of Warming Projections for Late 21C

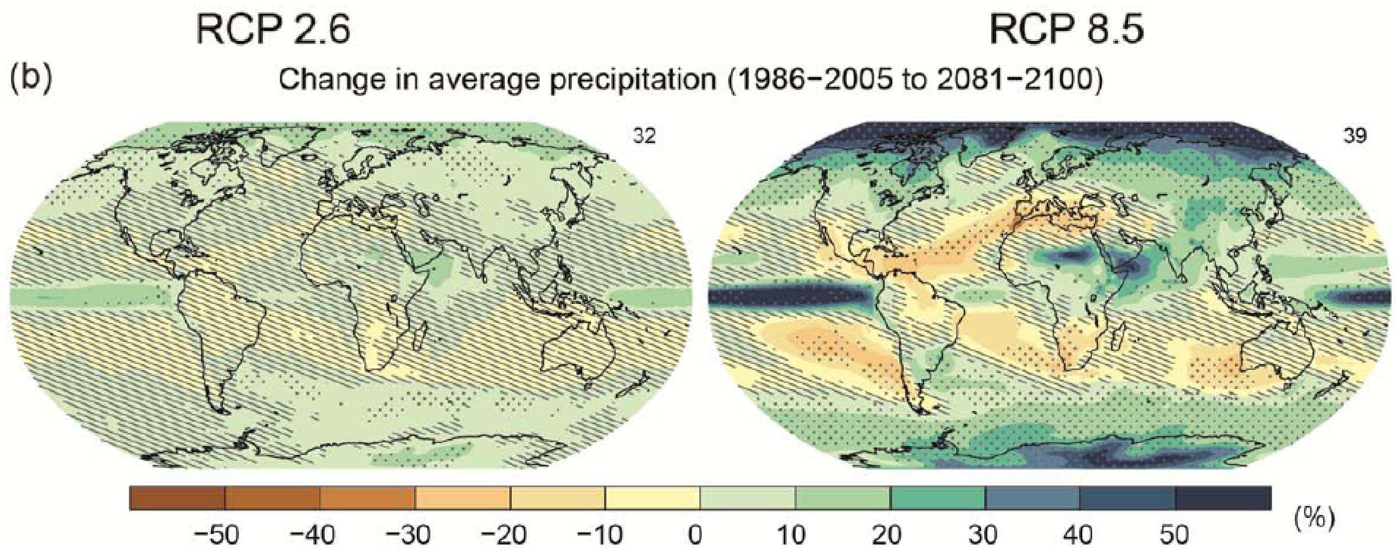
- Large difference depending on the regions
- Larger warming over lands and high-latitudes



(IPCC AR5)

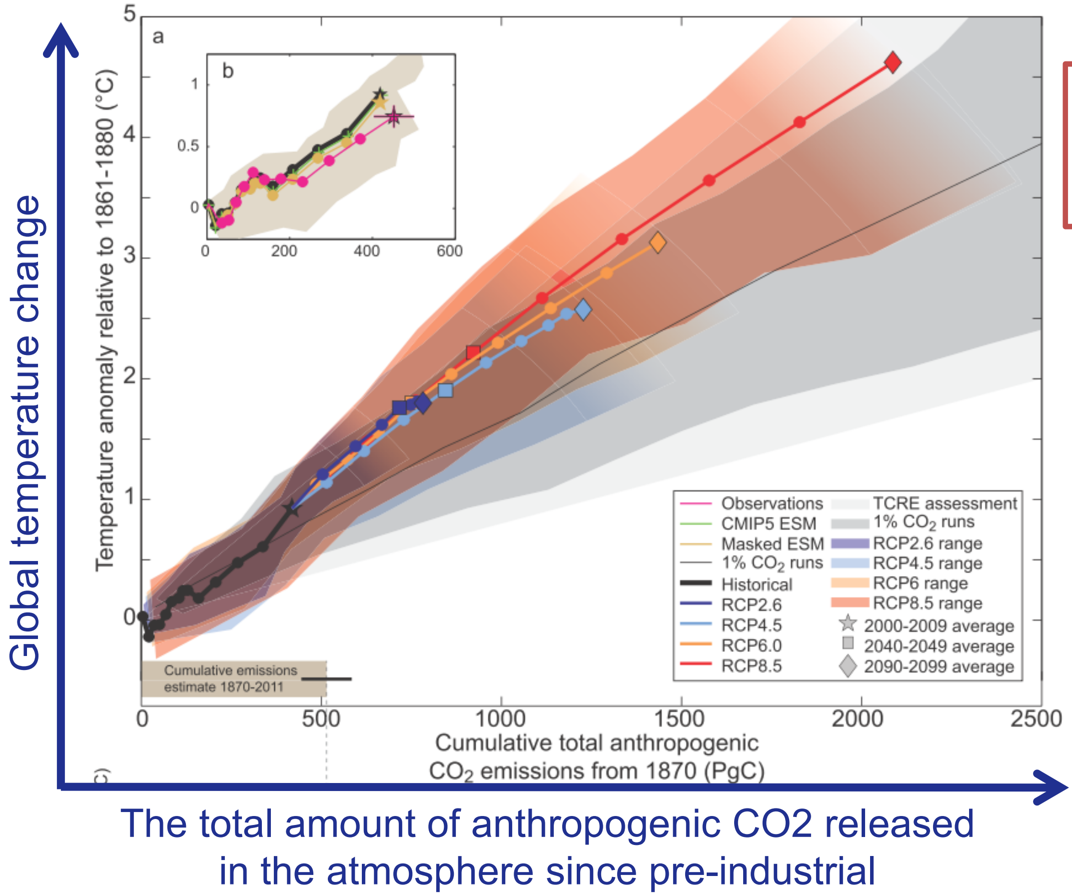
Precipitation Change

- Increase of precipitation near the currently rainy regions ("wet-get-wetter" effect)
- Both flood risk and drought risk should be considered



(IPCC AR5)

Temperature Change vs Cumulative CO2 Emission



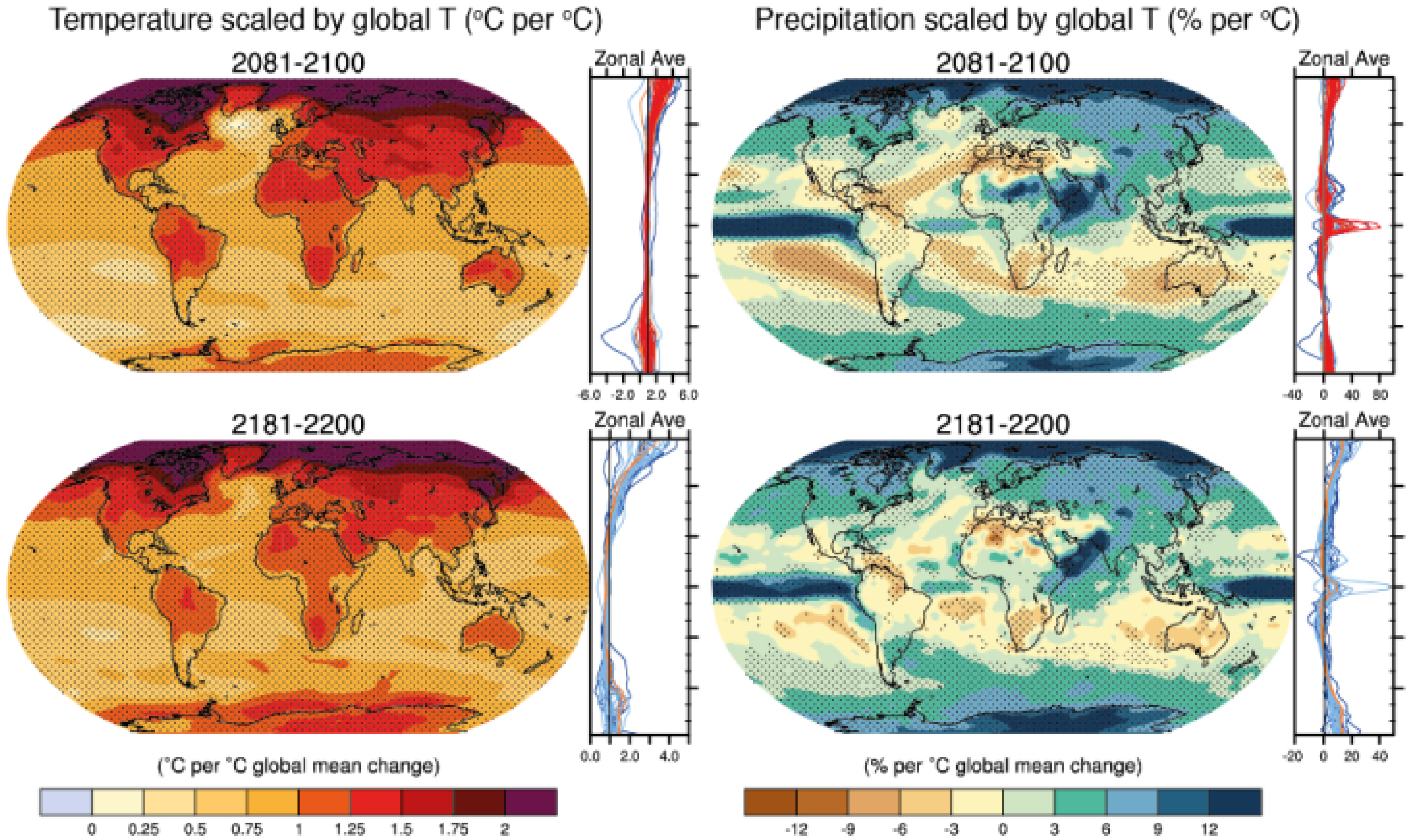
(IPCC AR5)

Warming is proportional to total cumulative CO2 emissions

Warming continues even if emission is reduced.

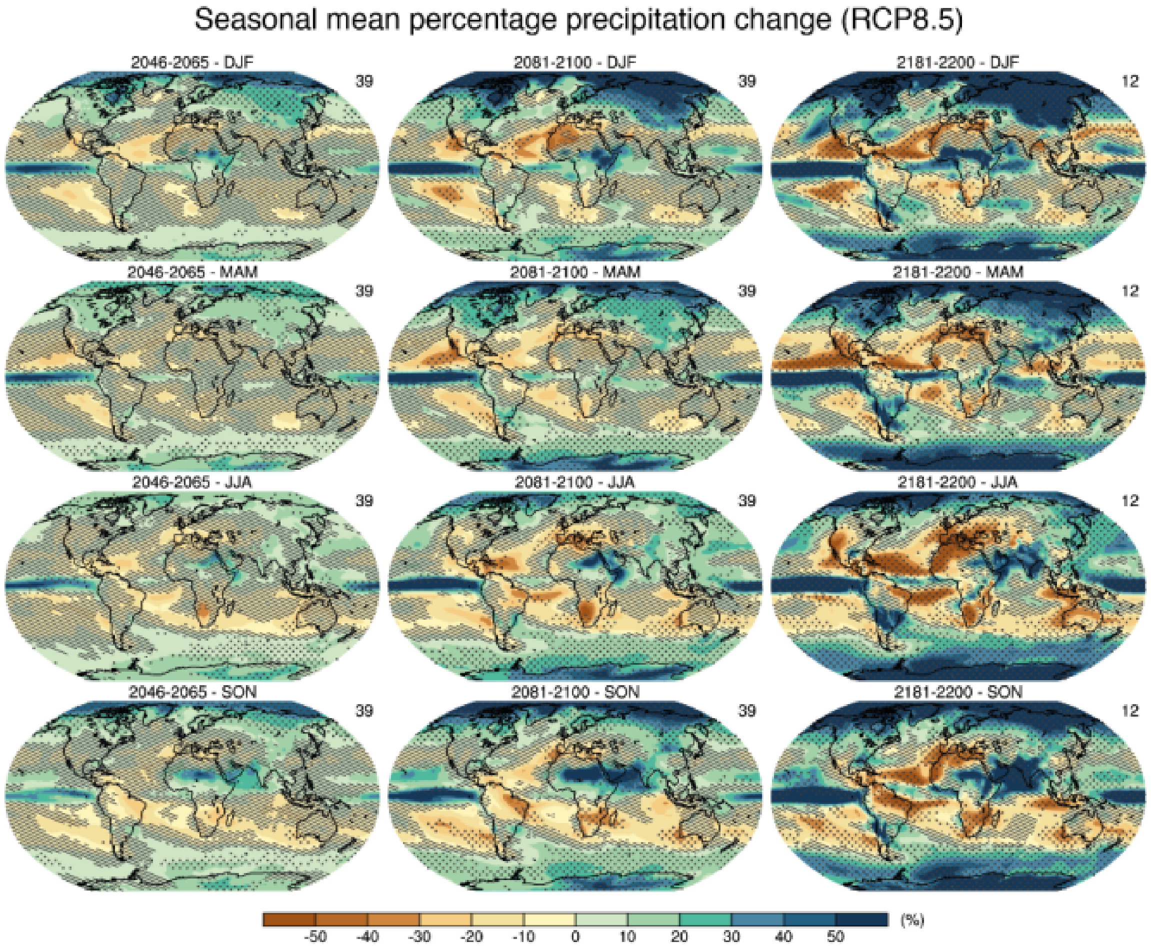
Zero emission is not enough to go back.

Ts and Precipitation Changes



WGI_AR5_Fig12-41

Seasonal Precipitation Change



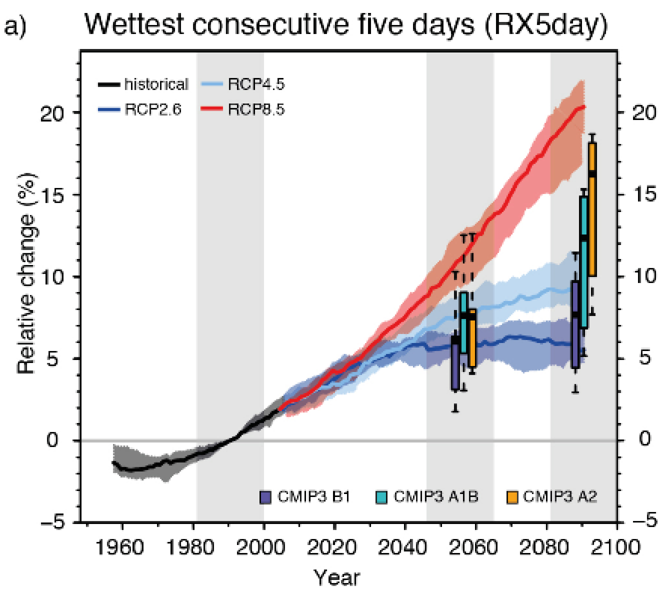
WGI_AR5_Fig12-22

Figure 12.22 | Multi-model CMIP5 average percentage change in seasonal mean precipitation relative to the reference period 1986–2005 averaged over the periods 2045–2065, 2081–2100 and 2181–2200 under the RCP8.5 forcing scenario. Hatching indicates regions where the multi-model mean change is less than one standard deviation of internal variability. Stippling indicates regions where the multi-model mean change is greater than two standard deviations of internal variability and where at least 90% of models agree on the sign of change (see Box 12.1).

- Serious Future Change by Global Warming

Five-day Precipitation amount and Dry days

WGI_AR5_Fig12-26



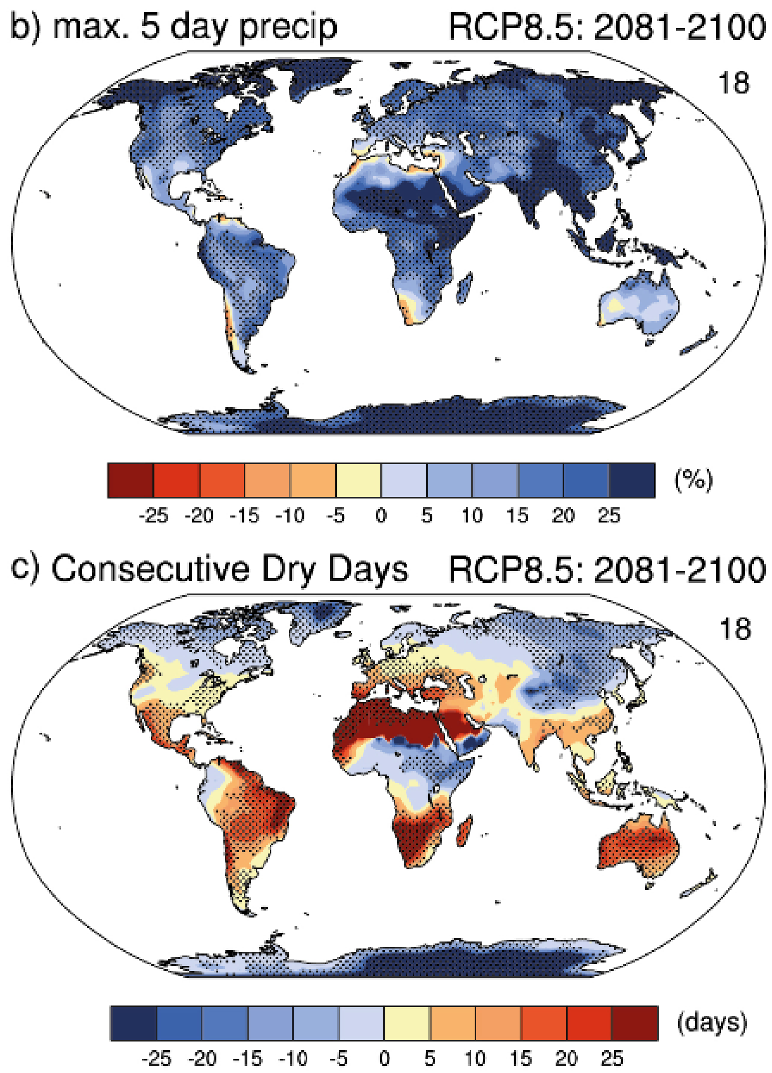
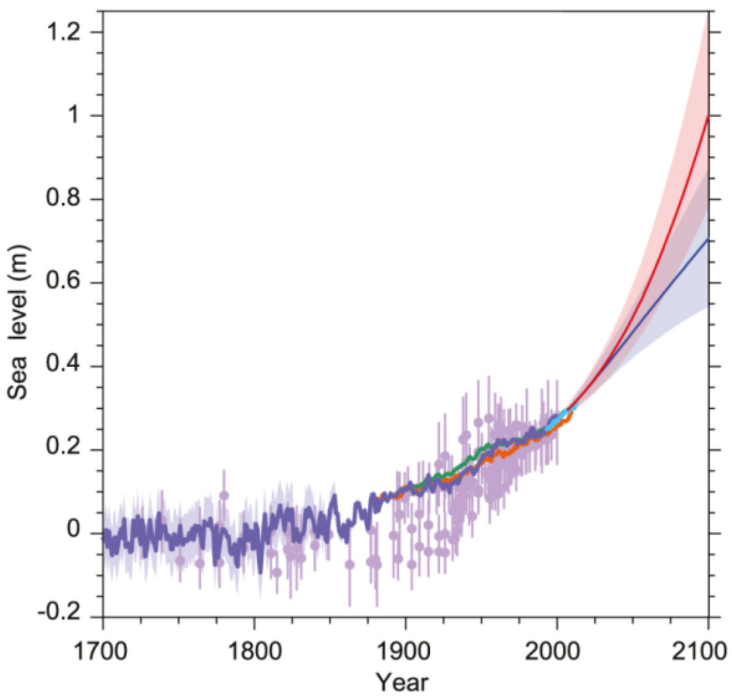


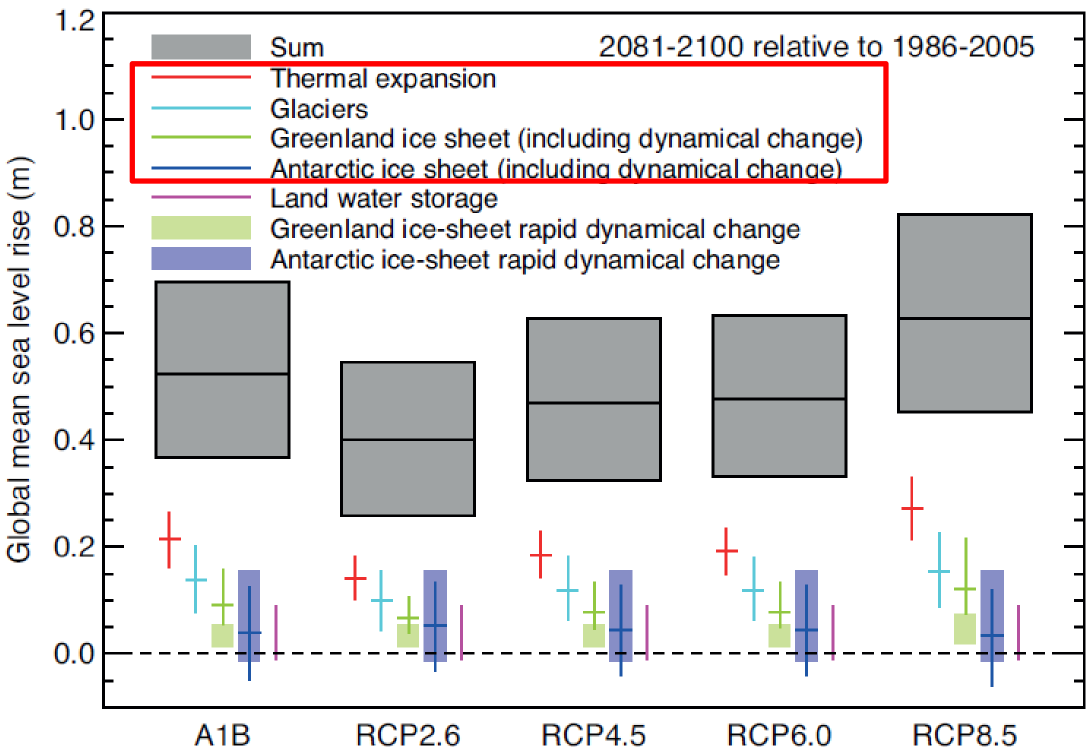
Figure 12.26 | (a, b) Projected percent changes (relative to the 1981–2000 reference period in common with CMIP3) from the CMIP5 models in RX5day, the annual maximum five-day precipitation accumulation. (a) Global average percent change over land regions for the RCP2.6, RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios. Shading in the time series represents the interquartile ensemble spread (25th and 75th quantiles). The box-and-whisker plots show the interquartile ensemble spread (box) and outliers (whiskers) for 11 CMIP3 model simulations of the SRES scenarios A2 (orange), A1B (cyan) and B1 (purple) globally averaged over the respective future time periods (2046–2065 and 2081–2100) as anomalies from the 1981–2000 reference period. (b) Percent change over the 2081–2100 period in the RCP8.5 scenario. (c) Projected change in annual CDD, the maximum number of consecutive dry days when precipitation is less than 1 mm, over the 2081–2100 period in the RCP8.5 scenario (relative to the 1981–2000 reference period) from the CMIP5 models. Stippling indicates gridpoints with changes that are significant at the 5% level using a Wilcoxon signed-ranked test. (Updated from Sillmann et al. (2013), excluding the FGOALS-s2 model.)

Sea Level Rise

Sea level rise comes from thermal expansion, as well as retreating glaciers and ice sheet



WGI_AR5_Fig13-27

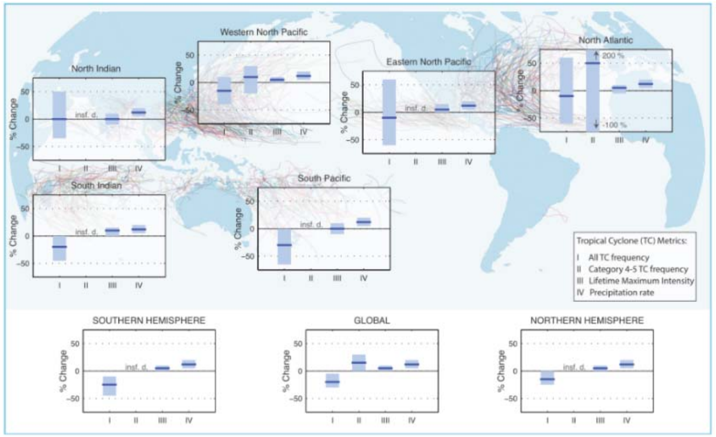


WGI_AR5_Fig13-10

- How to Project Extreme Events under Global warming

Changes in Regional Climate and Extreme Events

- Changes in high-impact weather events are the direct risk to people.
- However, regional characteristics of the changes cannot be directly simulated by CMIP5 global climate models.

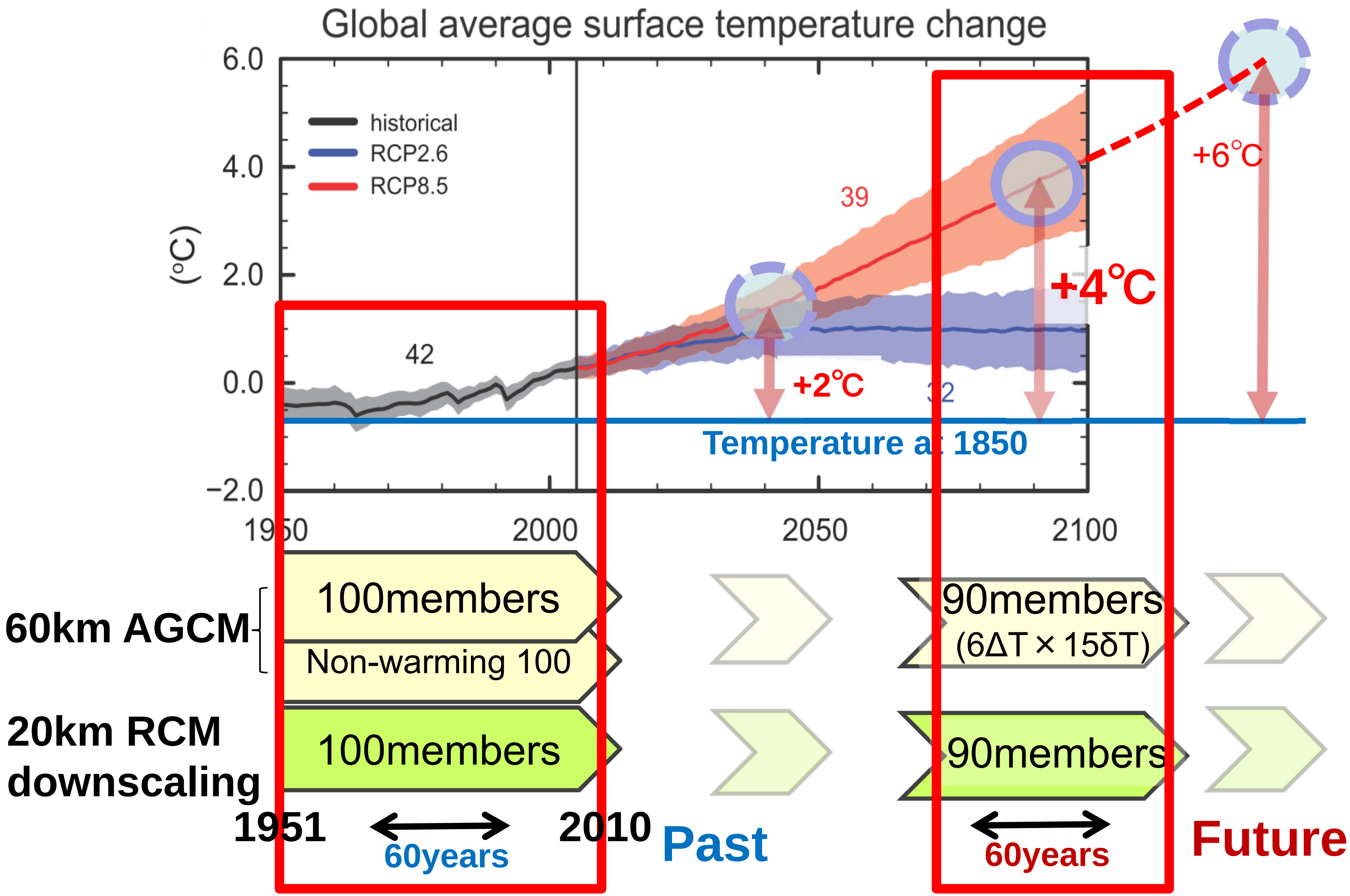


Phenomenon and direction of trend	Likelihood of further changes		
		Late 21st century	
Warmer and/or fewer cold days and nights over most land areas	{11.3}	*Virtually certain*	{12.4}
		Virtually certain *Virtually certain*	
Warmer and/or more frequent hot days and nights over most land areas	{11.3}	*Virtually certain*	{12.4}
		Virtually certain *Virtually certain*	
Warm spells/heat waves. Frequency and/or duration increases over most land areas	{11.3}	*Very likely*	{12.4}
		Very likely *Very likely*	
Heavy precipitation events. Increase in the frequency, intensity, and/or amount of heavy precipitation	{11.3}	***Very likely*** over most of the mid-latitude land masses and over wet tropical regions	{12.4}
		Likely over many areas *Very likely* over most land areas	
Increases in intensity and/or duration of drought	{11.3}	***Likely*** *(medium confidence)* on a regional to global scale[h]	{12.4}
		Medium confidence in some regions *Likely*[e]	
Increases in intense tropical cyclone activity	{11.3}	***More likely than not*** in the Western North Pacific and North Atlantic[j]	{14.6}
		More likely than not in some basins *Likely*	
Increased incidence and/or magnitude of extreme high sea level	{13.7}	***Very likely***[l]	{13.7}
		Very likely[m] *Likely*	

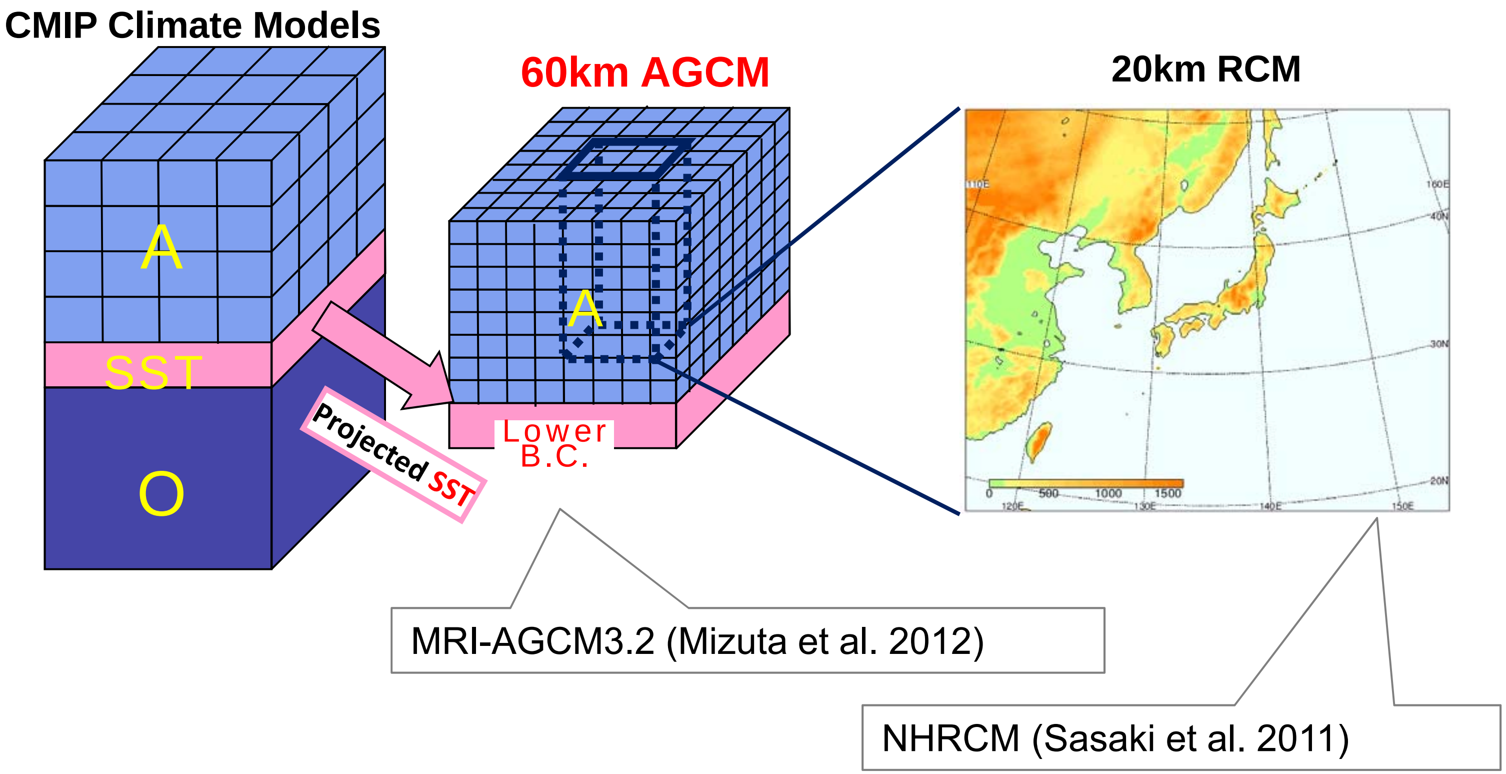
(IPCC AR5)

d4PDF:

database for Policy Decision making for Future climate change



60km AGCM + 20km RCM

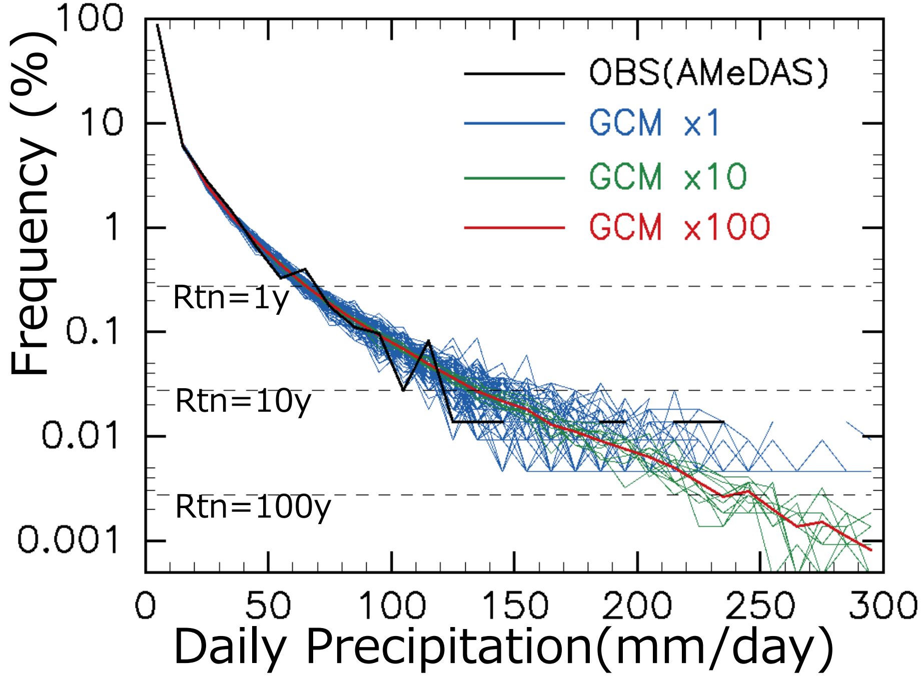


- 60km AGCM is:
  - lowest resolution capable of simulating tropical cyclones
  - highest possible resolution for large ensembles at the latest super computer

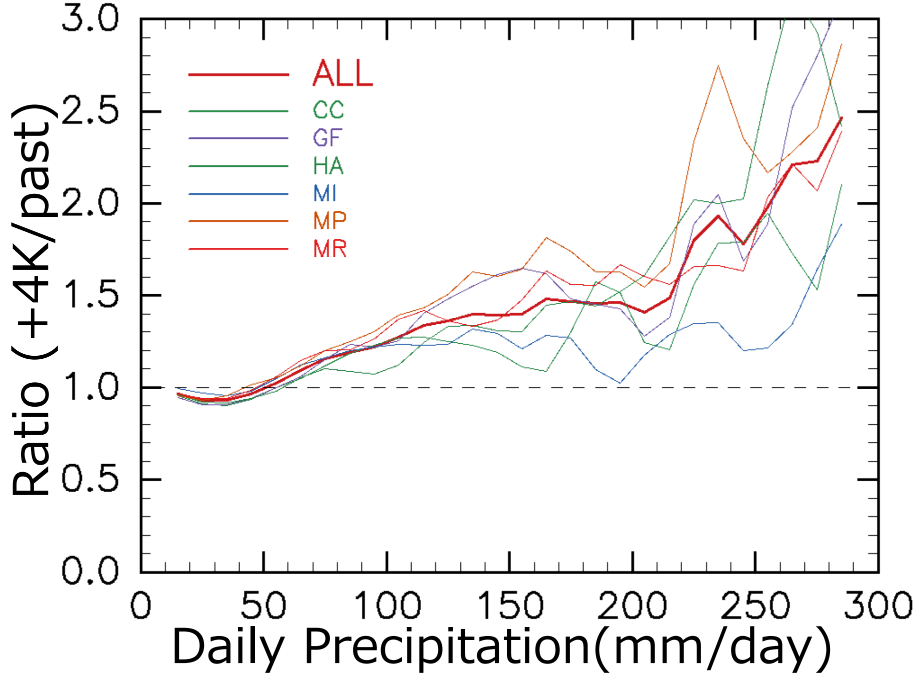
Benefits from high-res large ensemble

- Frequency distribution of daily precipitation at Tokyo
  - Ensemble spread between members **(Blue)** is large in rare events
  - Observation **(Black)** is inside the ensemble spread without any bias corrections
  - Results from the total 100 members **(Red)** shows reasonable frequencies of extremes as low as 0.003%(=once in 100 years)
  - Increase is larger in the heavier precipitation rate

Past



Ratio (+4K / Past)



(Mizuta et al. 2017)

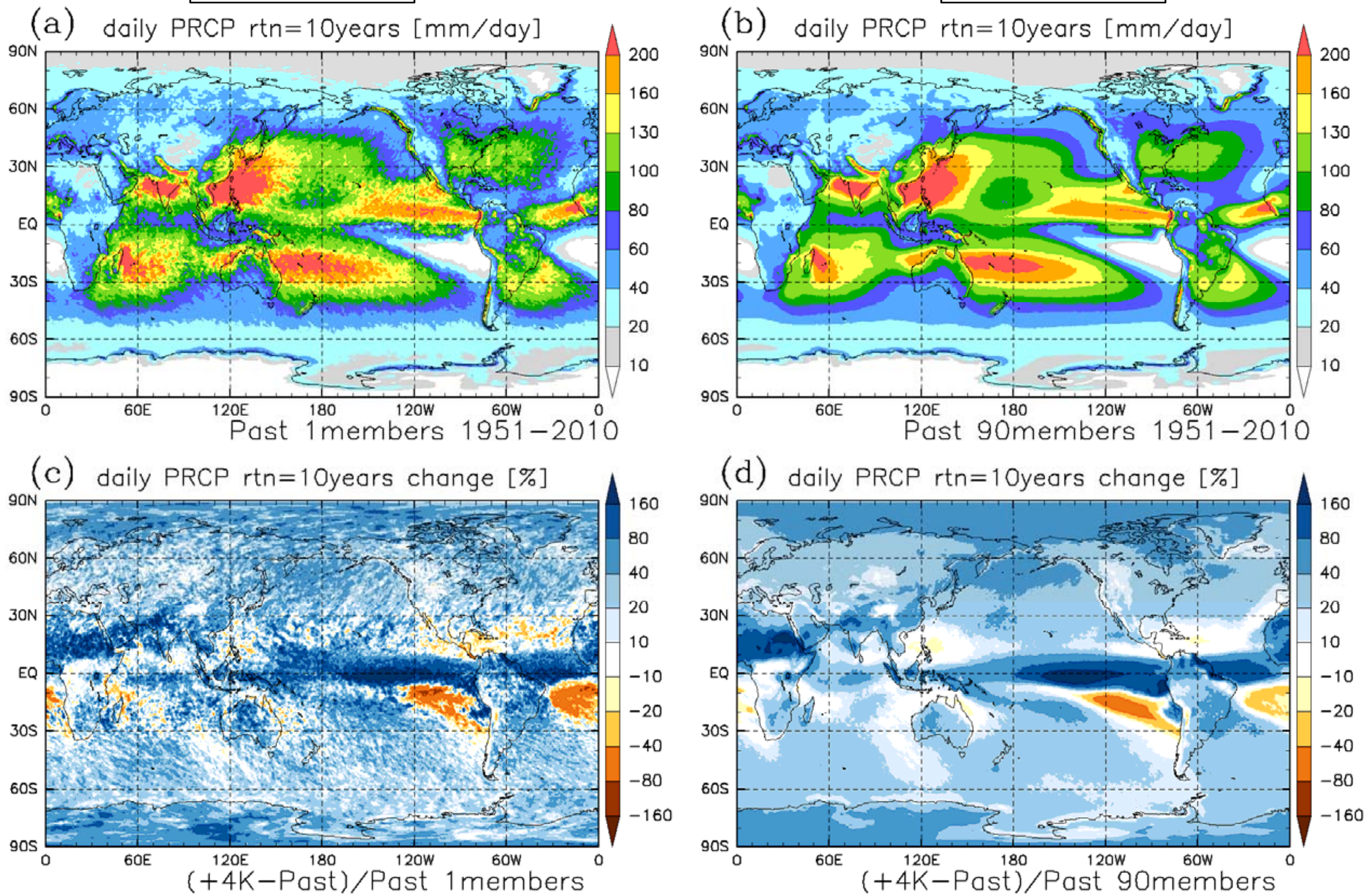
10-year return value of daily precipitation

Clear and smooth picture can be obtained by using large ensembles

1member **90members**

Past

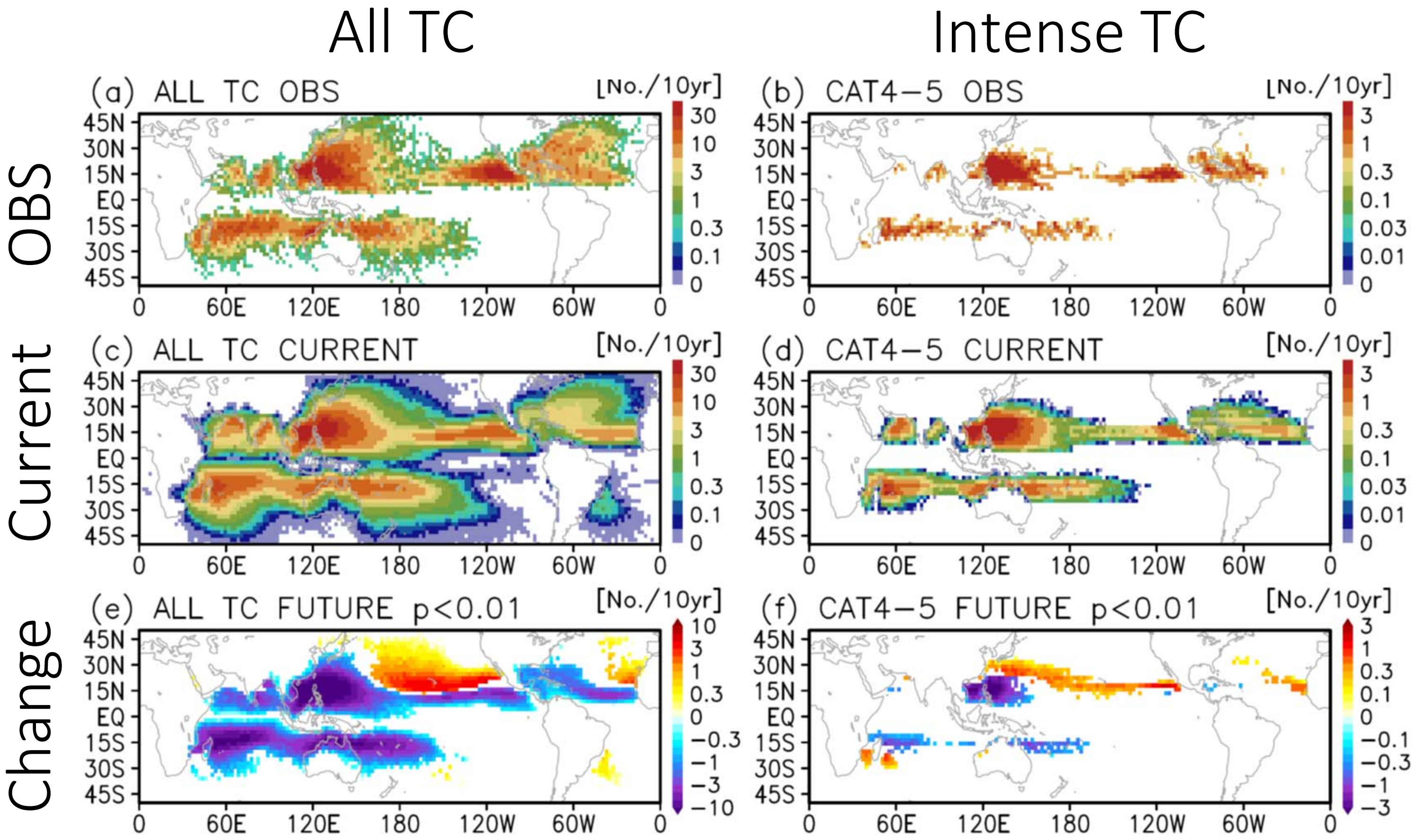
+4K Change Rate (%)



(Mizuta et al. 2017)

Tropical Cyclone Frequencies

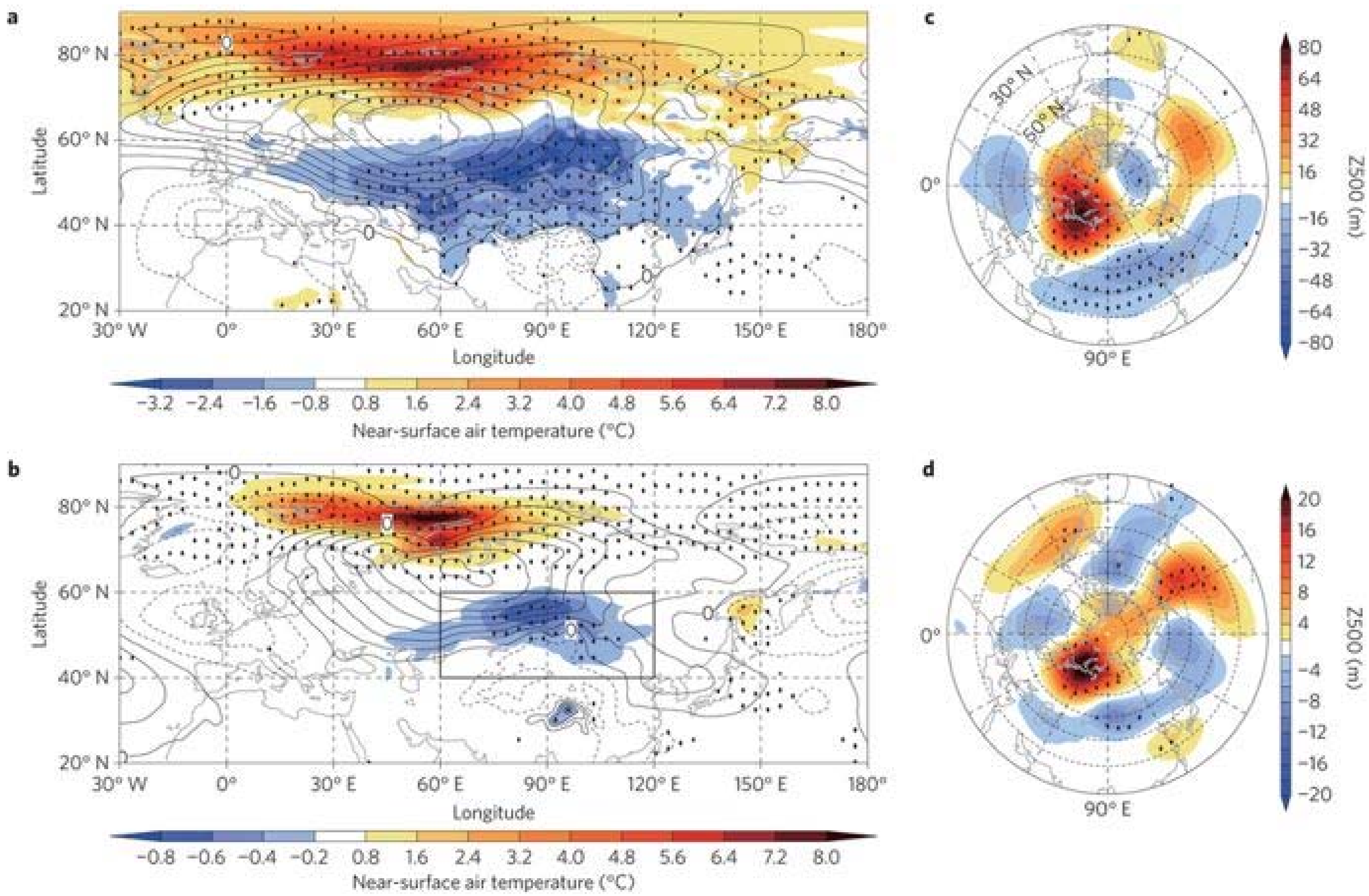
- Similar, but smoother distribution compared with the observation
- After the bias correction for the 60km model, Category 4-5 increases on N. W. side of Pacific and Atlantic, as well as eastern side.



(Yoshida et al. 2017)

- Cold Winter under the global warming?

■ Observed (upper figs.) and simulated (lower figs.) change in winter SAT and atmospheric circulation associated with sea-ice retreat in the Barents–Kara region (Mori et al. 2014, Nature Geoscience)



SUMMARY

Concluding remarks

- The global climate system consists of atmosphere including its composition and circulation, the ocean, hydrosphere, land surface, biosphere, snow and ice, solar and volcanic activities.
- These components interact on various spatial and temporal scales through the exchanges of heat, momentum, radiation, water and other materials.
- Climate variability refers to variations in the mean state and other statistics of the climate on all spatial and temporal scales beyond that of individual weather events.
- Climate variability may be due to natural internal processes within the climate system (internal variability), or to variations in natural or anthropogenic external forcing.
- Experts of climate services must learn climate system, causes, impacts, and predicatbility of climate variability in various spatial and temporal scales.

Concluding remarks (+)

- Unusual weather and climate are attributed to unusual atmospheric flows, storms and convective disturbance. Diagnostic analysis shows that those disturbances are often related to atmospheric intrinsic waves and phenomena.

- However, atmospheric environment is maintained and influenced by other elements consisting of the climate system. Unusual and steady convective activity is sometimes connected to long-term SST anomalies related to ocean variability.

- Radiative processes including longwave absorption by greenhouse gases and shortwave reflection by snow, ice, clouds and aerosols determine the local Earth's ground temperature. The distribution of ground temperature is influential to vertical and horizontal atmospheric and oceanic stabilities, the amount of water vapor and the speed of water cycle. Then, those can affect atmospheric and oceanic flows, the features of storms and convections and eventually our daily lives. Therefore, we need to continue careful watches and diagnostics for global and local climate systems .