Using Field Measurements and Numerical Simulations to Constrain Mechanisms of Ice Formation During the Mixed-Phase Arctic Cloud Experiment Intensive Operational Period

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Introduction

Mechanisms of ice formation in supercooled clouds that are too warm to allow the homogeneous nucleation of water remain poorly constrained by measurements (e.g., Cotton and Field 2002). Ice mass and number concentrations have long been thought to exceed what can be quantitatively explained by simultaneous measurements of ice nuclei (e.g., Koenig 1963; Beard 1992). In late 2004 at the Atmospheric Radiation Measurement program's North Slope of Alaska site, the Mixed-Phase Arctic Cloud Experiment (M-PACE) Intensive Operation Period revisited this problem with state-of-the-art instrumentation on aircraft, ground, and satellite platforms. Here we use ground and aircraft data to constrain numerical simulations of the October 9-10 single-layer mixed-phase boundary layer cloud case. The simulations are carried out with a large-eddy simulation code (Stevens and Bretherton 1996; Kirkpatrick et al. 2006) with size-resolved microphysics (aerosols, liquid, and ice) (Jensen et al. 1998; Ackerman et al. 1995) and two-stream radiative transfer at 44 wavelength bands (Toon et al. 1989). We focus specifically on understanding the phase, mass, and number size distribution measurements that were quality-controlled by the McFarquhar research group in order to evaluate various hypotheses for ice enhancement under the M-PACE conditions. We note that it is especially difficult to evaluate ice number owing to the difficulty of identifying the phase of small particles and eliminating instrumental uncertainties associated with aircraft measurements. Cloud particle images indicating small ice crystals that resemble laboratory specimens (e.g., Bacon et al. 2003), for instance, may be artifacts of large particle shattering on inlets. Mass measurements are also subject to difficult uncertainties associated with particle size distribution (e.g., Korolev et al. 2004). Our goal here is to take all available measurements provided to us this time and quantitatively evaluate consistent microphysical explanations for them.

Results

All simulations were initialized with the specifications developed by the Cloud Modeling and Parameterization Working Group (science.arm.gov/workinggroup/cpm/scm/scmic5) for "Case B." In order to more carefully evaluate ice nucleation, we added prognostic ice nuclei (IN) to the model in the following manner. In each grid box, they were initialized to the background observed value of approximately 0.2/L. They were then assigned uniformly to an array of least easily to most easily nucleated and were assumed to be equally available in all four primary modes (Table 1). When conditions were met to consume available IN of particular nucleability in a particular mode, IN were removed from the array and produced a concomitant number of ice, either from the aerosol or drop populations. Remaining IN were then advected and transported as passive tracers for availability in subsequent time steps. Multiplication via the rime-splintering and drop shattering mechanisms (Pruppacher and Klett 1997) was also included in the model, although neither made a significant contribution to ice number or mass. Drop shattering was accounted for in the following manner: whenever drops larger than 50 µm in diameter froze by either contact nucleation or coalescence with ice, a small fraction were assumed to freeze in a manner that produced a total multiplication factor of 2, which was assumed to be an upper limit estimate of the drop shattering effect.

Mechanism	T, C	S	Description
Primary modes			
Contact	-4 to -14	—	drop + IN(aerosol) \rightarrow ice
Condensation	-8 to -22	>Sw	$IN(aerosol) \rightarrow ice$
Deposition	<-10	> Si	$IN(aerosol) \rightarrow ice$
Immersion	-10 to -24	—	$drop + IN(drop) \rightarrow ice$
Multiplication			
Rime-splinter	-3 to -8		$250 \text{ collisions} \rightarrow \text{ice}$
Drop shattering	< 0		freezing drop \rightarrow ice
Other mechanisms			
Evaporation nuclei	< 0	> Sw	evaporated drop \rightarrow IN(aerosol)
Evaporation freezing	< 0	> Sw	evaporating drop freezes
Ice preactivation	< 0	> Si	evaporated ice \rightarrow IN(aerosol)

In the base case simulation (including the primary nucleation modes and multiplication mechanisms listed in Table 1), almost no ice was formed (Figure 1a versus 1b). However, we were able to better match observations if one in 10,000 evaporating drops produced an ice nucleus (Rosinski and Morgan 1991) (Figure 1a versus 1c), or if evaporating drops were assumed to freeze during the evaporation process (Cotton and Field 2002) (Figure 1a versus 1d), or if every ice crystal that evaporated (including secondary ice) yielded an ice nucleus that was "pre-activated" (e.g., Roberts and Hallett 1967) and they were permitted to build up in the boundary layer over a number of hours without any removal processes

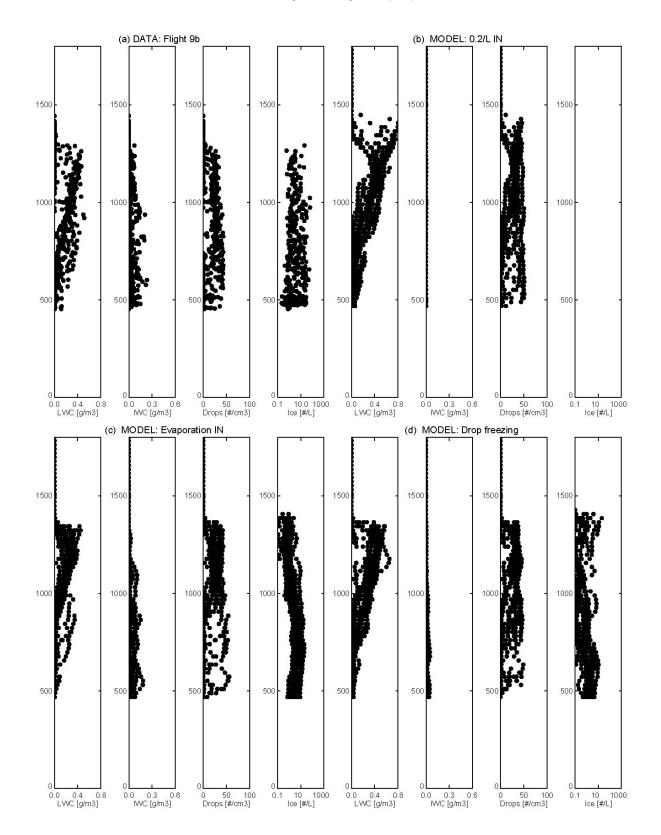


Figure 1. M-PACE data (a) compared with model results with 0.2/L IN (b), evaporation nuclei (c), and drop freezing during evaporation (d).

except activation (not shown here). We also considered the effect of charge-enhancement of evaporation nuclei (Tinsley et al. 2000) that could increase the likelihood of small drops freezing (Tripathi and Harrison 2002), but once phoretic forces were properly calculated during the simulation, these factors did not influence results significantly.

Summary and Discussion

These preliminary results establish our initial conclusions that background ice nuclei probably are not sufficient to sustain observed ice mass and number under mixed-phase conditions at low drop number concentrations, as has been noted by previous authors (Rangno and Hobbs 2001). We have identified three possible microphysical mechanisms that may operate to explain the observations, providing additional ice mass and number. Future work will be focused on evaluating differences between the simulations with these three mechanisms, in collaboration with Greg McFarquhar and Gong Zhang.

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