





# Cosmic ray - cloud link: significant or marginal climate factor?



### Jaša Čalogović

Hvar Observatory
Faculty of Geodesy
Zagreb, Croatia





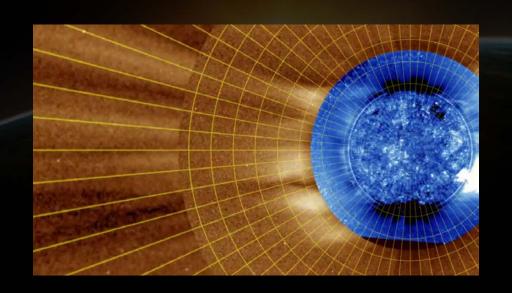


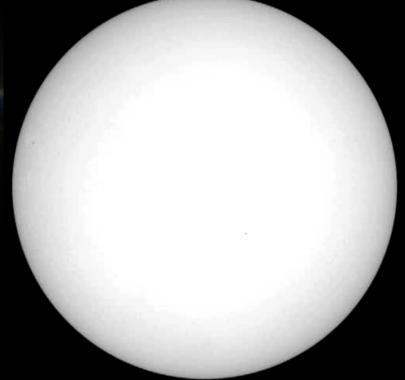
## Influence of solar variability on the Earth's climate requires knowledge of

- 1. Short- and long-term solar variability
- 2. Solar-terrestrial interactions

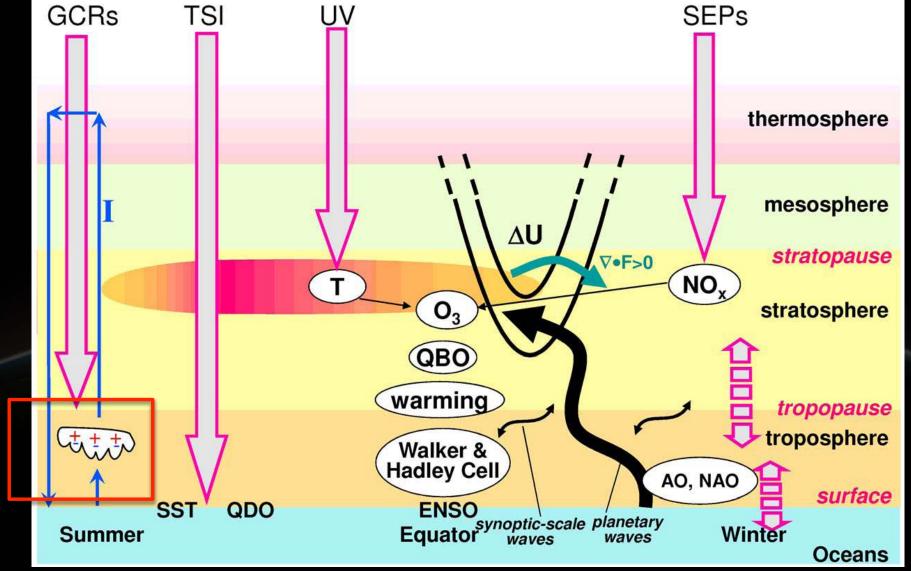
3. Mechanisms determining the response of the Earth's climate system to these interactions

Rind, 2002



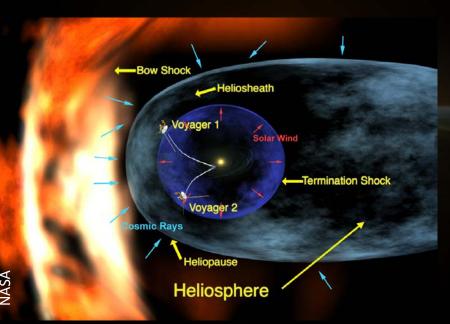


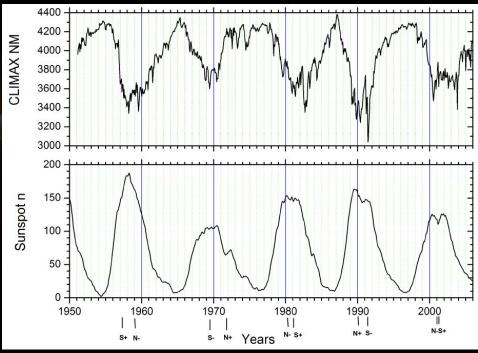
#### Mechanisms of solar influences on climate



### Solar activity modulates cosmic rays

- Cosmic rays (CR) consist of high-energy particles (mainly protons)
- CR flux of low energy particles is greater than flux of high energy particles ( $E^{-\gamma}$ )
- Particles with less energy are more influenced by the Sun





### Cosmic ray flux on Earth depends on

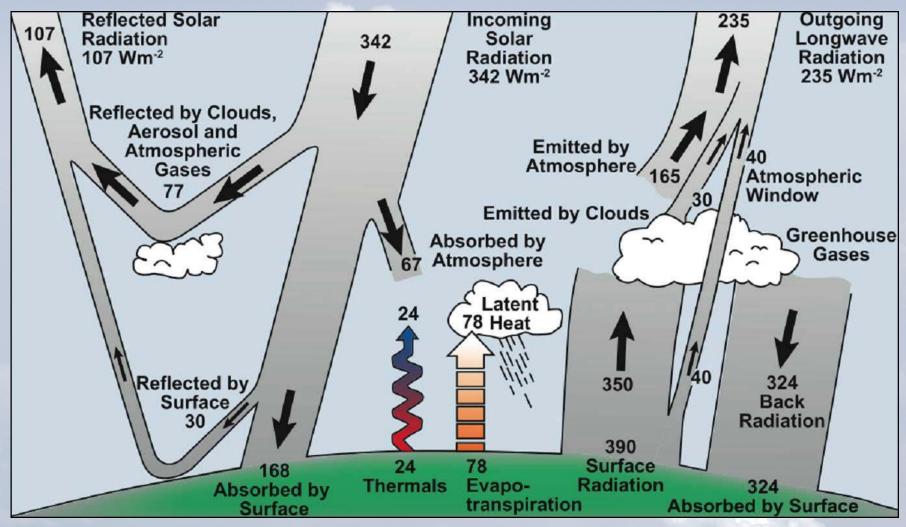
- Solar magnetic field and Solar wind
- Geomagnetic field (vertical cutoff rigidity)
- Earth's atmosphere

CR showers (cascade) → ionization in the atmosphere



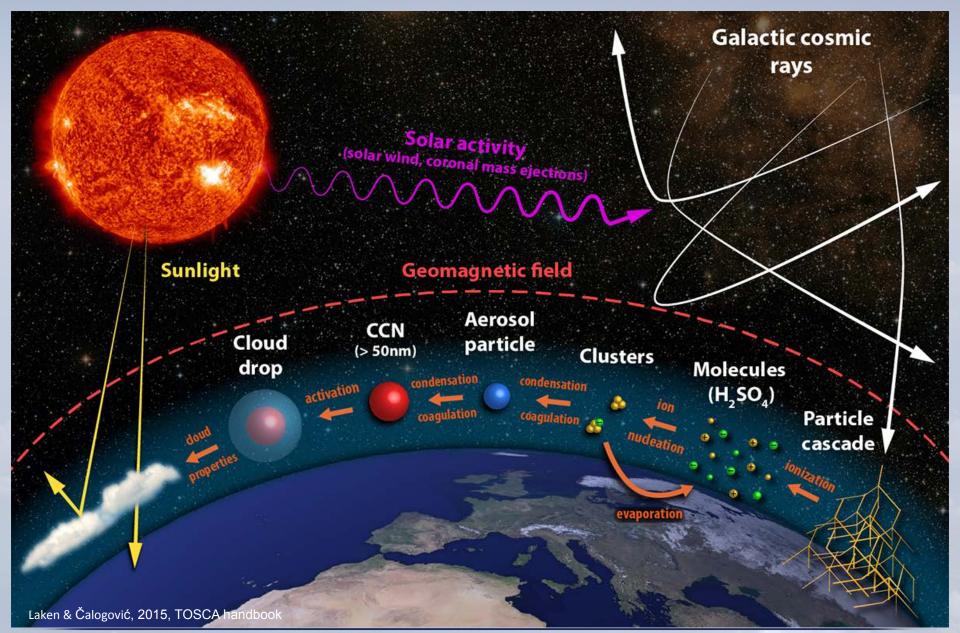


#### Earth's radiative balance and clouds

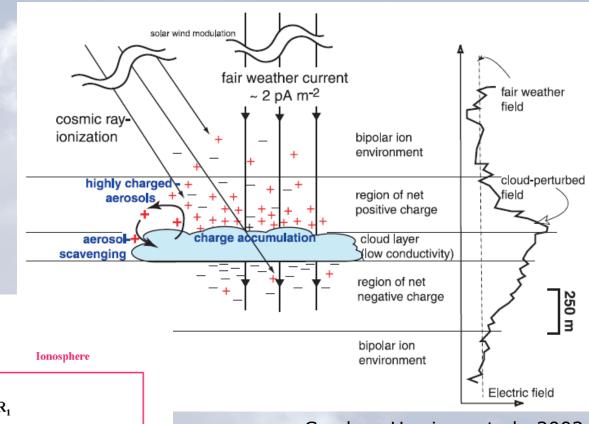


Houghton et al., 1996

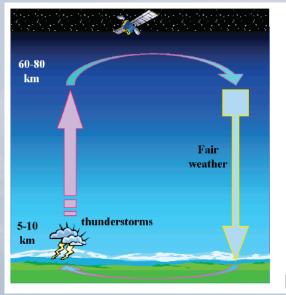
### "Clear-air" mechanism



### "Near-cloud" mechanism



Global electric circuit



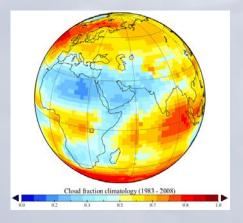
Carslaw, Harrison et al., 2002

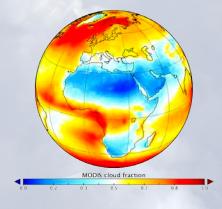
#### **Cloud datasets**

#### **ISCCP** (International Satellite Cloud Climatology Project)

- D1 dataset (from 1983 to 2008), intercalibrated radiance measurements from a fleet of polar and geostationary satellites
- temporal resolution: 3h (IR data)
- spatial resolution: 2.5° x2.5° (280 x 280km²)
- distinguishes clouds at different altitude levels: e.g. high (>6.5km), middle (3.2-6.5km) and low (0-3.2km)









#### **MODIS** (MODerate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer)

- views in 36 channels from Visible to thermal IR, on board two polar orbiting satellites Aqua, and Terra, operational since 2000
- temporal resolution: 12h, spatial resolution: 1° x 1°

## The hypothesized link between cosmic ray flux and cloud cover

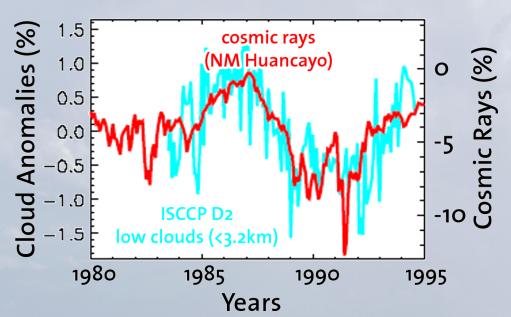
#### **Long-term studies**

#### **Svensmark and Friis-Chistensen (1997)**

• analyzed one solar cycle and reported that global cloud cover changed in phase with the GCR flux by 2-3%  $\rightarrow$  radiative forcing (0.8 – 1.7 W/m²) is comparable with greenhouse gases forcing

#### Marsh and Svensmark, 2000

low clouds (0-3.2km)

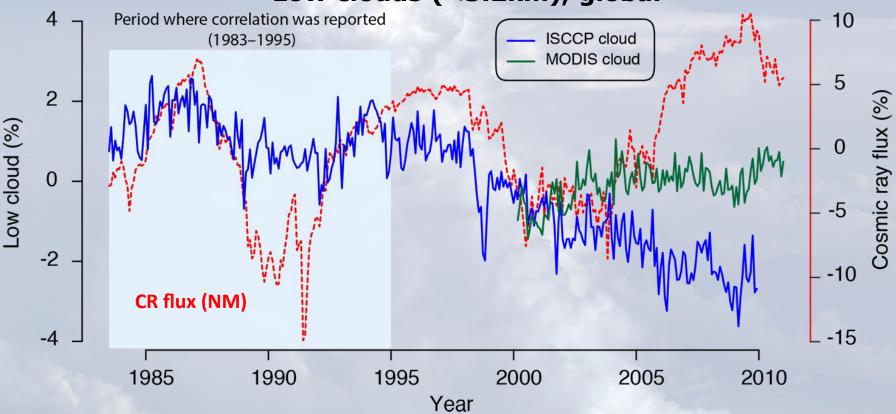


Climate sceptics still use Maheset (informedot) nd correlation mehls avy



## Long-term cloud data doesn't support GCR-cloud link

Low clouds (<3.2km), global

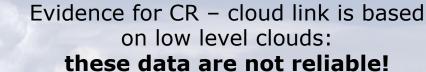


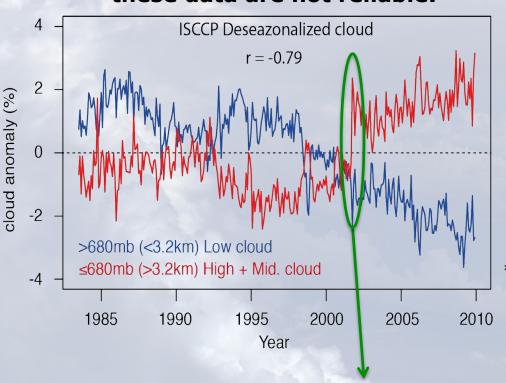
- Correlation only in low (<3.2km) ISCCP cloud (1983–1995)</li>
- High correlation from 12-month smoothed data (df=4)
- Low (non-significant) correlation from unsmoothed data

Laken, Pallé, Čalogović & Dunne, 2012, SWSC

### Artificial anti-correlation exists between low and high/middle troposphere cloud

- Low cloud obscured by overlying cloud (measurements are noncloud penetrating).
- Number of geostationary satellites increased over time → artificial drop in low cloud
- Errors in identifying cloud height can contribute to shifts between low and high cloud.
- Satellite cloud issues well known:
   e.g. Hughes, 1984; Minnis, 1989,
   Tian & Curry, 1989; Rozendall et
   al. 1995; Loeb & Davies, 1996;
   Salby & Callaghan, 1997,
   Campbell, 2004

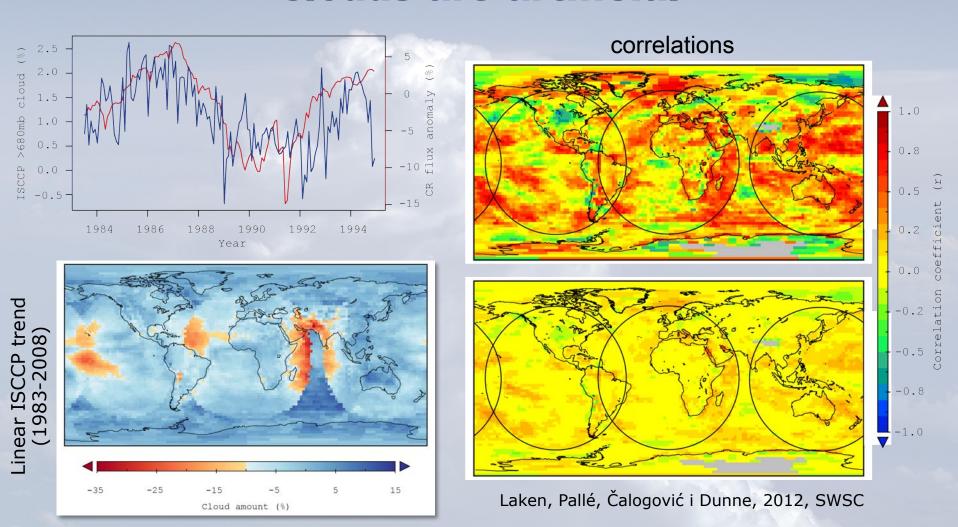




changes in the satellite constellation

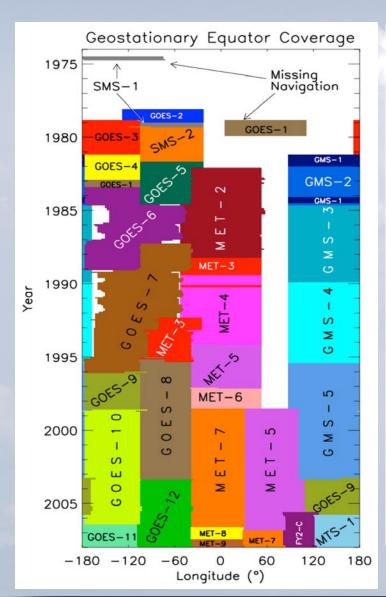
Many additional problems of long-term analysis (e.g. ENSO, volcanic eruptions...)

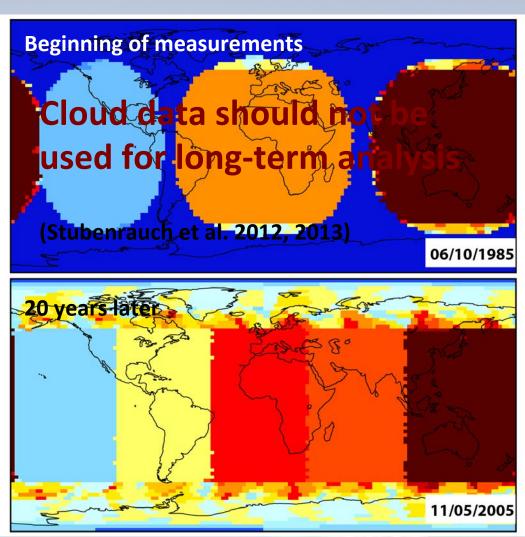
### Correlations between CR flux and clouds are artificial



### If linear trends in CR and cloud data are removed correlation becomes weak

### Timeline of geostationary satellite operation at equator over ISCCP observation period

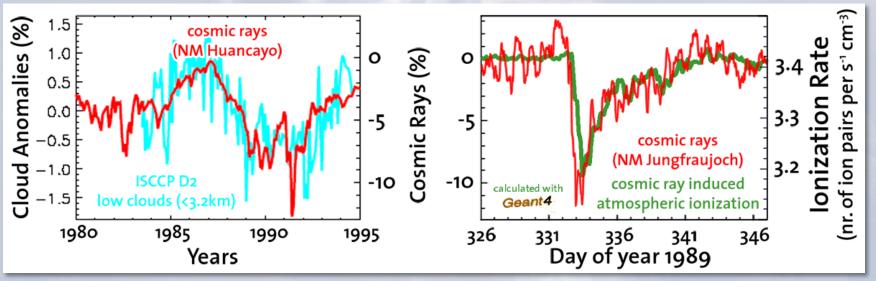




from: NOAA/NCDC, satellite data, ISCCP resource

### **Short-term studies - opportunity** to test GCR-cloud hypothesis

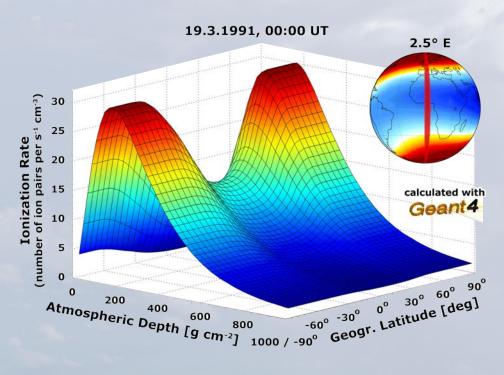
• Short-term changes in cosmic rays (Forbush decreases) are comparable to variations during the solar cycle.

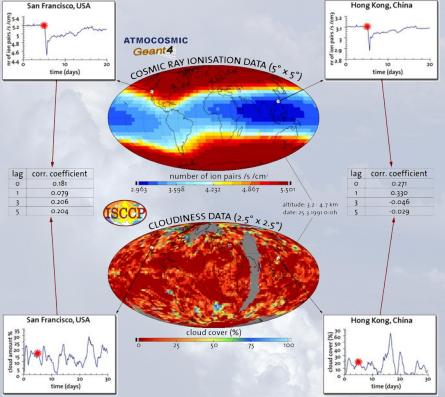


- Advantages: some important unwanted factors that influence long-therm studies are removed (ENSO, vulcanic eruptions, satellite calibration errors)
- **Disadvantages**: Meteorological variability (noise) in clouds has to be **reduced** to be able to detect the solar-related changes (signal), **limited** number of high-magnitude Forbush decreases (several pro cycle)

## Analysis of ISCCP cloud cover during 6 biggest Forbush decreases (1989-1998)

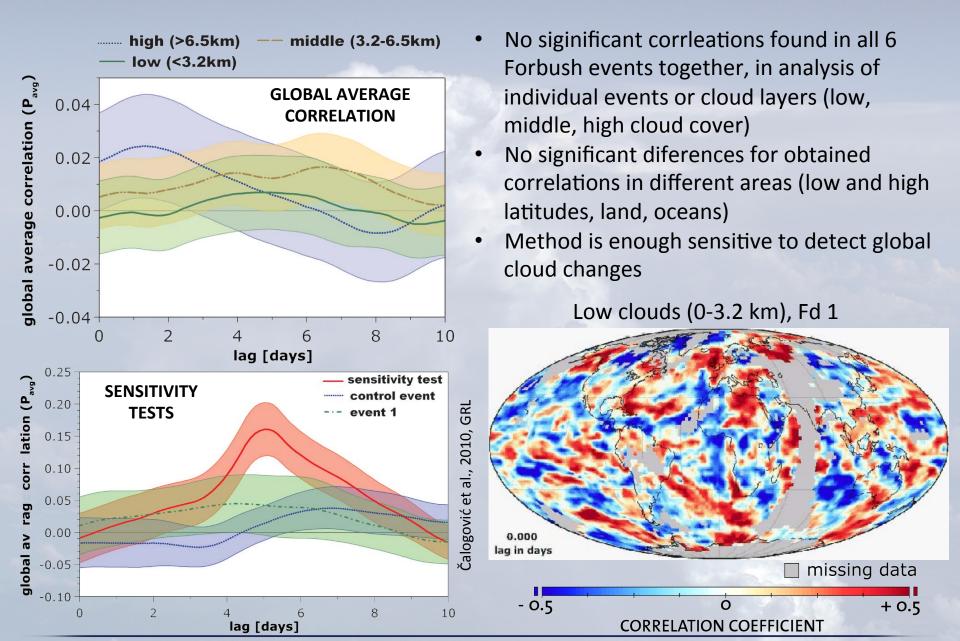
- Forbush events with decreases in CR flux > 9 %
- calculated cosmic ray induced ionization rate (GEANT4, 2.5°x2.5°)
- independent correlation analysis of all grid cells for each lag (10 days)
- in total 8.6 milion correlations calculated





Čalogović et al., 2010, GRL

#### Results



### **CERN CLOUD experiment**

• Cosmics Leaving OUtdoor Droplets Laboratory experiment with a special cloud chamber to study the possible link between galactic cosmic rays and cloud formation.



- Ion-induced aerosol nucleation
   10x faster than binary
   homogeneous nucleation
- Nucleation in presence of ammonia → 100 do 1000x faster than ion-induced nucleation
- Nucleation with acid-amines →
   1000x faster than nucleation
   with ammonia (explains
   observed particle formation
   rates in the atmosphere)
   Almeida et al., 2013, Nature



## **Short-term studies using Forbush decreases show conflicting results**

#### positive correlations:

Tinsley & Deen, 1991; Pudovkin & Vertenenko, 1995; Todd & Kniveton, 2001; 2004; Kniveton, 2004; Harrison & Stephenson, 2006; Svensmark *et al.*, 2009; Solovyev & Kozlov, 2009; Harrison & Ambaum, 2010; Harrison et al. 2011; Okike & Collier, 2011; Dragić et al. 2011; 2013; Svensmark et al., 2012; Zhou et al. 2013; Aslam & Badruddin, 2015

#### negative correlations:

Wang et al., 2006; Troshichev et al., 2008

#### no correlations or inconclusive results:

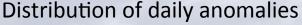
Pallé & Butler, 2001; Lam & Rodger, 2002; Kristjánsson et al., 2008; Sloan & Wolfendale, 2008; Laken et al., 2009; Čalogović et al., 2010; Laken & Kniveton 2011; Laken et al., 2012; Erlykin and Wolfendale, 2013

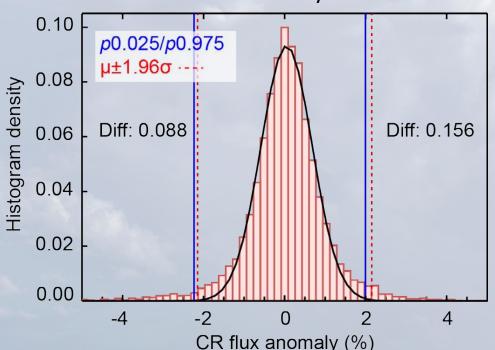
#### Why?

- Improper use of statistical tools / wrong statistical assumptions
- "quality" and properties of cloud datasets

## Calculate thresholds for statistical significance with Monte Carlo approach

By generating large populations of random events identical in design to a composite with real events, the probability (p) of obtaining a given value by chance in a composite with real events can be accurately known.



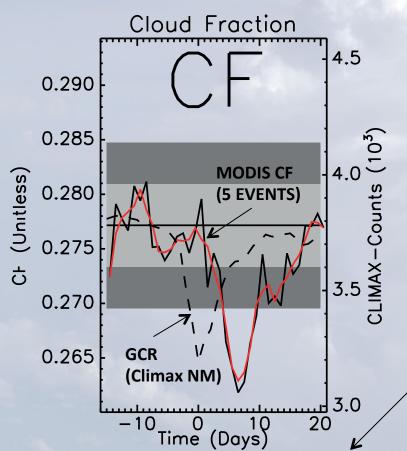


This has advantages over traditional tests (e.g. T/U tests), as it requires no minimum sample size or specific distribution, and it doesn't need adjustment for autocorrelation.

Laken & Čalogović, SWSC, 2013

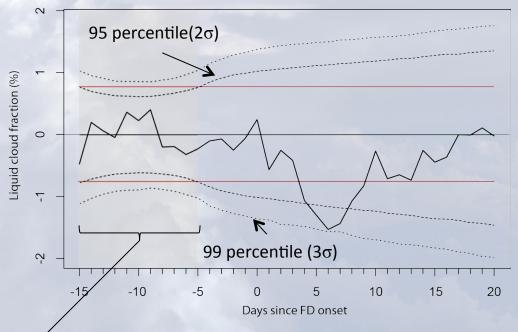
### Big variability in the clouds can be often mixed with the expected signal!

Svensmark et al. 2012, ACPD



Data NORMALIZED between period of day -15 and day -5

Laken, Čalogović, Beer and Pallé (2012), ACPD

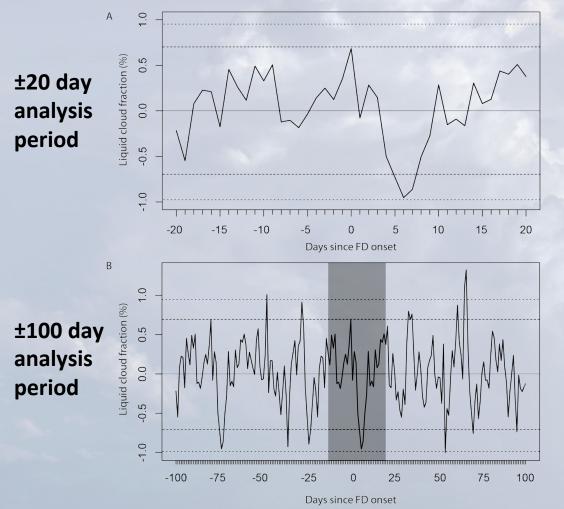


Dashed/dotted lines show correctly adjusted 2 and  $3\sigma$  level – calculated from 10,000 MC simulations

Proper statistical tests (MC simulations ) are needed to asses the correct statistical significance!

### **Extension to longer analysis periods reveals no unusual variability in clouds during Fd events**

MODIS Liquid cloud fraction changes using 5 biggest Fd events from Svensmark et al. (2012)

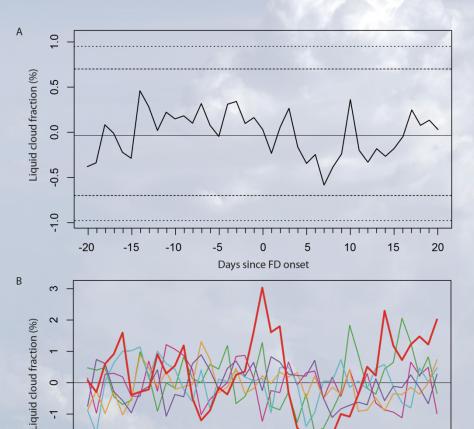


Values are anomalies from 21day moving averages (i.e. mean of each day subtracted from 21day moving average).

Dashed and dotted lines indicate the 95th and 99th (two-tailed) percentile confidence intervals respectively calculated from 100,000 Monte Carlo simulations.

Laken, Čalogović, Beer and Pallé (2012), ACPD

### Just one event (and eventually outlier) can influence the whole composite



-5

Days since FD onset

?

-20

-15

-10

MODIS cloud fraction composite for Fd events 1, 3, 4, 5, 6 ranked by Svensmark et al. 2012

By replacing the event 2 with event 6 there are no significant changes in the composite!

Individual 5 Fd events plotted against event 2 (19.1.2005) where is clear that all significance in Svensmark composite comes from event 2.

Laken, Čalogović, Beer and Pallé (2012), ACPD

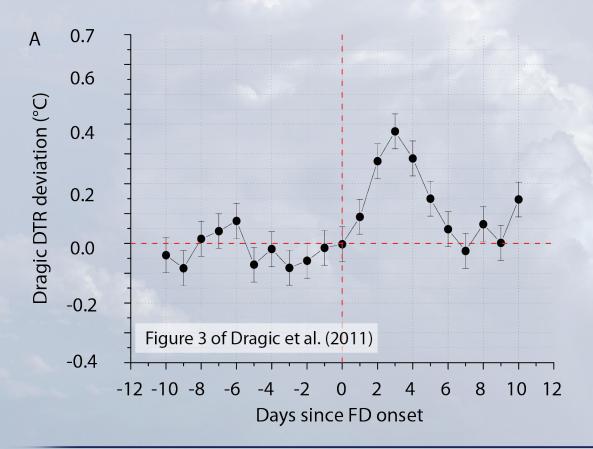
20

10

15

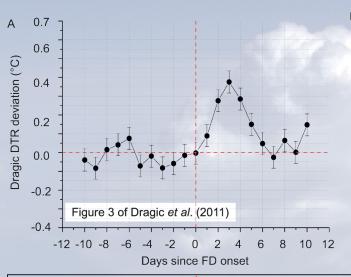
### DTR shows response to Fd events?

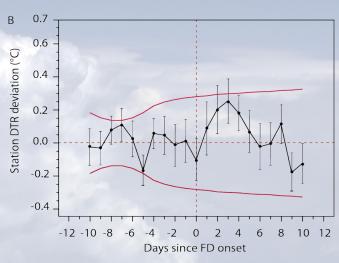
- Surface level Diurnal Temperature Range (DTR) → effective proxy for cloud cover (indirect cloud data)
- DTR has longer time span than satellite cloud observations → allows to use the larger number of Forbush events



Dragić et al. (2011) uses composite of 37 Fd events (>7%) that show significant increase in DTR → support for GCR-cloud hypothesis

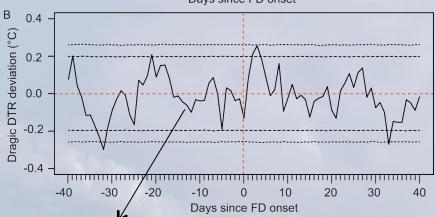
### Analysis of Dragić et al. (2011) results





Dragić et al.

Normalization
of data in period
from t<sub>-10</sub> to t<sub>-5</sub>
and 99%
significance
intervals



Significance intervals calculated from 100 000 Monte Carlo simulations (using 21-day running average)

Analysis of the same data as in Dragic et al. (DTR data and 37 Forbush events) shows that authors didn't estimate correctly statistical significance using t-test and certain statistical assumptions.

Laken, Čalogović, Shahbaz and Pallé (2012), JGR

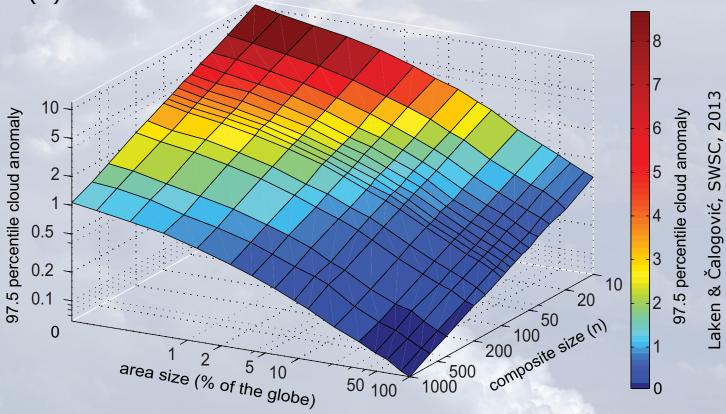
### Size of sample area and number of events impact the noise

Noise levels of data govern detectability of a signal. The noise varies with both the spatial area (a) considered by the data, and the number of

composite events (n).

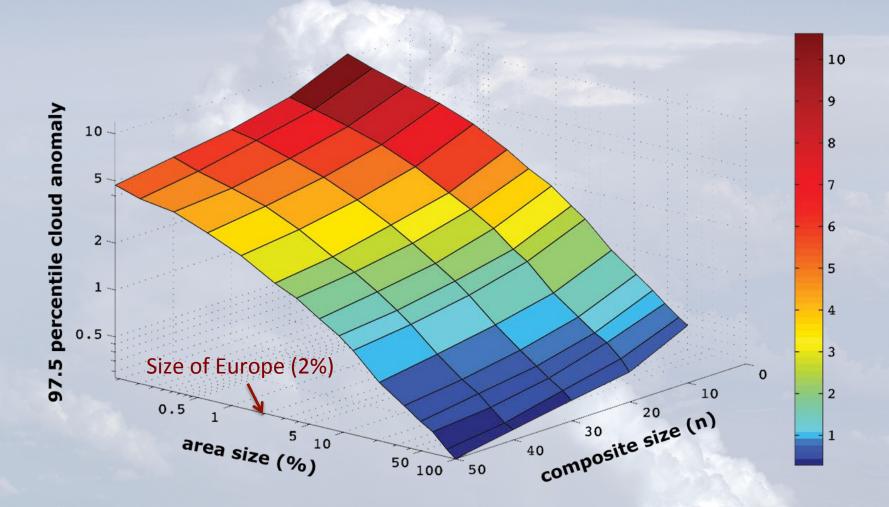
'Noise' indicated by <u>97.5<sup>th</sup></u> percentile values from 10,000 random composites of varying *a* and *n* size.

Each point of grid represents another independent set of 10,000 MC simulations



possible to see how large a and n would need to be at minimum to see a hypothesized effect.

## Majority of Fd studies use less than 50 events (n<50)



Studies using only strong Fd events have usually less than 10 events

### There are numerous issues that may affect the results of solar-terrestrial studies

- Satellite cloud estimates are fraught with limitations and calibration errors, meaning long-term analysis is problematic at best, and, as in the case of commonly used ISCCP data, is fundamentally flawed.
- Co-variance of solar-related parameters (UV, TSI, CR flux, solar wind) make signal attribution difficult.
- Climate variability and volcanic activity, operating over time-scales similar to the solar cycle, make disambiguating causes of cloud cover change difficult.
- Composite analysis of FD and GLE events is often compromised by the difficulties of statistical analysis of autocorrelated data. This is compounded by the application of inappropriate and black-box statistical tests.
- Changing signal-to-noise ratios connected to spatio-temporal restrictions in composites have generally not been sufficiently taken into account in composite studies, leading to widespread type-1 (falsepositive) statistical errors.

Some of these issues already discussed by Pittock (1978, 1979)

### **Conclusions**

- Methodological differences and inappropriate statistics in composite analysis can produce conflicting results. These are the likely source of discrepancies between cosmic ray – cloud composite studies.
- Present cloud datasets are limited to detect a small changes in cloud cover as well to detect the regional cloud changes (<several thousand km) due to the big natural cloud variability (noise). Thus, localized and small effect on cloud cover can't be completely excluded.
- No compelling evidence to support a cosmic ray cloud connection hypothesis using the <u>satellite</u> cloud data (ISCCP, MODIS) with long- or short-term (Fd) studies.
- Cosmic rays doesn't influence the global cloud cover and it is not a major factor in climate change or global warming! (opposite to believing of climate sceptics)