

Tropical widening: From global variations to regional impacts

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Early Online Release: This preliminary version has been accepted for publication in *Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society*, may be fully cited, and has been assigned DOI 10.1175/BAMS-D-19-0047.1. The final typeset copyedited article will replace the EOR at the above DOI when it is published.

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34 **ABSTRACT**

35 Over the past 15 years, numerous studies have suggested that the sinking branches of
36 Earth's Hadley circulation and the associated subtropical dry zones have shifted poleward over
37 the late 20th century and early 21st century. Early estimates of this tropical widening from
38 satellite observations and reanalyses varied from 0.25° to 3° latitude per decade, while estimates
39 from global climate models show widening at the lower end of the observed range.

40 In 2016, two working groups, the US Climate Variability and Predictability (CLIVAR)
41 working group on the Changing Width of the Tropical Belt and the International Space Science
42 Institute (ISSI) Tropical Width Diagnostics Intercomparison Project, were formed to synthesize
43 current understanding of the magnitude, causes, and impacts of the recent tropical widening
44 evident in observations.

45 These working groups concluded that the large rates of observed tropical widening noted
46 by earlier studies resulted from their use of metrics that poorly capture changes in the Hadley
47 circulation, or from the use of reanalyses that contained spurious trends. Accounting for these
48 issues reduces the range of observed expansion rates to 0.25°–0.5° latitude decade⁻¹—within the
49 range from model simulations. Models indicate that most of the recent Northern Hemisphere
50 tropical widening is consistent with natural variability, whereas increasing greenhouse gases and
51 decreasing stratospheric ozone likely played an important role in Southern Hemisphere
52 widening. Whatever the cause or rate of expansion, understanding the regional impacts of
53 tropical widening requires additional work, as different forcings can produce different regional
54 patterns of widening.

55 WHAT IS TROPICAL WIDENING?

56 Earth's tropics are characterized by a juxtaposition of extreme wet and extreme dry
57 climates. These climates are linked by the Hadley circulation, which consists of moist ascent in
58 the deep tropics, dry descent in the subtropics, and easterly trade winds associated with the
59 equatorward return flow near the surface. In the mid-2000s, a series of studies began pointing
60 out that the tropics (nominally defined as the zone between the Southern and Northern
61 Hemisphere Hadley cell edges) appeared to be widening over the late twentieth and early twenty
62 first centuries, with observed widening rates varying greatly by study—from 0.25° to 3° latitude
63 per decade in the annual mean (see early review by Seidel et al., 2008). But in global climate
64 models, forced tropical widening over 1979–2005 was only 0.1° – 0.3° per decade (e.g., Johanson
65 and Fu 2009; Hu et al., 2013). These studies raised a number of questions:

- 66 a) *What is the actual rate of tropical widening over recent decades?* Different datasets,
67 methods, and time periods may yield different rates of tropical widening across studies. Are
68 the various rates consistent, or are some methods or datasets error-prone? If the lower range
69 of observational estimates ($\sim 0.25^\circ$ latitude per decade) is correct, then there is no
70 discrepancy between observed and modeled rates of tropical widening over recent decades.
71 If the higher range of observational estimates ($\sim 3^\circ$ latitude per decade) is correct, then this
72 would indicate that global climate models may be missing some forcing or process crucial to
73 the realistic simulation of recent tropical widening, or that the observed widening is caused
74 by large natural climate variability—larger than what exists in models.
- 75 b) *What is the cause of the observed tropical widening?* Global climate models indicate that
76 the Hadley circulation may widen as a result of greenhouse gas concentration increases,

77 stratospheric ozone depletion, or anthropogenic aerosol pollution. However, the width of the
78 Hadley circulation also varies with modes of natural variability, such as the El Niño-
79 Southern Oscillation (ENSO) and the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO), making it difficult
80 to discern whether or not the recent tropical widening is due to human activity.

81 Additionally, the mechanisms by which anthropogenic forcing and natural variability affect
82 the location of the Hadley cell edge are not yet fully understood.

83 c) *What are the impacts of tropical widening?* As the Hadley cell edges advance poleward, the
84 distribution of surface winds changes, and subtropical dry zones may encroach upon moister
85 midlatitude regions. Tropical widening is already suspected in producing surface and marine
86 impacts around the globe. But as the spatial scale of interest shrinks, regional dynamics
87 obscure the impacts of the global Hadley cell.

88 **WORKING GROUP ACTIVITIES**

89 The questions above were raised during an American Geophysical Union (AGU)
90 Chapman Conference on “The Width of the Tropics: Climate Variations and Their Impacts” in
91 2015. Afterwards, to address these questions, two working groups were initiated: (1) the 19-
92 member US CLIVAR working group on the Changing Width of the Tropical Belt
93 (<https://usclivar.org/working-groups/changing-width-tropical-belt-working-group>), which
94 operated from 2016 to 2019, and (2) the ISSI Tropical Width Diagnostics Intercomparison
95 Project (<http://www.issibern.ch/teams/twdip/>), which operated from 2017 to 2018.

96 The goals of the US CLIVAR working group were three-fold:

- 97 1. Catalog, compare, and reconcile various methods (“metrics”) used to define
98 tropical width (addressing questions a above; the 14-member ISSI working group
99 worked concurrently on this first goal),
- 100 2. Distinguish whether the recent tropical widening was caused primarily by
101 anthropogenic emissions or natural variability (addressing question b above), and
- 102 3. Diagnose the regional impacts of tropical widening (addressing question c above).

103 In the remainder of this article, we summarize the key findings and recommendations
104 from these working group activities.

105 **Objective 1: Catalog, compare, and reconcile various metrics of tropical width**

106 The US CLIVAR and ISSI working groups provided the first synthesis of how various
107 metrics for the width of the tropics (as illustrated in Figure 1) compare to one another in terms of
108 interannual variations and trends. A key finding is that the subtropical sea-level-pressure (SLP)
109 maximum, the subtropical transition between surface easterlies and westerlies ($U_{\text{sfc}} = 0$), and the
110 subtropical transition from net evaporation to net precipitation ($P-E=0$) all closely capture
111 variability in the zero-crossing of the 500 hPa mass streamfunction (Ψ_{500})—the conventional,
112 dynamical definition of the Hadley cell edge (see Waugh et al., 2018). This is particularly true in
113 the Southern Hemisphere, where the flow is more zonally symmetric. These metrics are marked
114 with asterisks in Figure 1. In contrast, tropical width metrics that focus on the upper troposphere
115 or on the stratosphere, such as the tropical tropopause break (TPB), the subtropical jet latitude
116 (STJ), or meridional gradients in outgoing longwave radiation, show only moderate agreement

117 with each other and generally poor agreement with the Hadley cell edge. Additionally,
118 methodological concerns were raised about other previously used metrics, such as column ozone
119 gradients, as they may be unreliable metrics of tropical width (Davis et al., 2018). A detailed
120 intercomparison of tropical width metrics for the annual mean and for different seasons can be
121 found in the working groups' summary paper by Waugh et al. (2018).

122 Why is there a general lack of correlation between the upper tropospheric and lower
123 tropospheric metrics of tropical width shown in Fig. 1? Davis and Birner (2017) reconcile the
124 difference as follows. The moderate correlations between the TPB and STJ metrics follow from
125 zonal wind in the free troposphere being in thermal wind balance away from the Equator. In
126 contrast, the zonal wind at the surface is constrained by the momentum transport into or out of
127 the vertical column above, and consequently the metrics most strongly tied to the near-surface
128 branch of the Hadley circulation (SLP , $U_{sfc} = 0$, $P-E=0$, Ψ_{500}) are closely related to momentum
129 transport within the atmosphere (Grise et al., 2019).

130 Focusing on the lower tropospheric metrics, the working groups found that modeled and
131 observed widening rates in recent decades are broadly similar ($\leq 0.5^\circ$ per decade), once internal
132 variability is accounted for (Grise et al., 2018) and the most recent generation of reanalyses are
133 used (Davis & Davis, 2018).

134 To help to standardize metric calculations for future studies, working group members
135 created the Tropical-width Diagnostics (“TropD”) software package (Adam et al., 2018). TropD
136 provides a flexible, well-documented, numerically-consistent set of methods for calculating
137 tropical-width metrics. It is available in Python and MATLAB, and includes pre-calculated
138 metrics from several widely used datasets (including four modern reanalyses) for quick

139 validation, or as research-ready time-series (publicly available at
140 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1157043>).

141 **Objective 2: Distinguish forced change from natural variability**

142 The second goal of the US CLIVAR working group was to distinguish the roles of
143 anthropogenic forcing and natural variability in tropical expansion observed in recent decades.
144 To this end, the working group conducted a comprehensive multi-model analysis (Grise et al.,
145 2019), and concluded that global climate models driven by changes in radiative forcing
146 (greenhouse gases, stratospheric ozone, aerosols) over the 20th and 21st century simulate an
147 expansion of the tropics that is large enough to emerge from natural variability (see also Quan et
148 al. 2018). However, models suggest that the poleward shift of the tropical edge in the Southern
149 Hemisphere should be 2–3x greater than that in the Northern Hemisphere, even when forced by
150 increasing greenhouse gases alone (e.g. Watt-Meyer et al., 2019). Consequently, in the annual
151 mean, forced tropical expansion in the Southern Hemisphere may begin to emerge from natural
152 variability in the coming decades, whereas it may not in the Northern Hemisphere until the end
153 of the century (Fig. 2, compare black and blue lines). Over the late 20th century, the
154 development of the Antarctic ozone hole also acted to pull the Southern Hemisphere tropical
155 edge poleward during austral summer (DJF). Thus, because of the ozone hole, it is likely that
156 forced tropical expansion in the Southern Hemisphere has already emerged from natural
157 variability during the DJF season (Thomas et al. 2015; Min & Son, 2013).

158 Factors responsible for the recent observed tropical expansion can also be identified by
159 examining the spatial pattern of the circulation trends (Grise et al., 2018; Kim et al., 2017; Staten

160 et al., 2019). Anthropogenic forcings may all widen the tropics, but they also produce regional
161 patterns of widening that differ from those driven by natural variability. In most seasons,
162 observed trends more closely resemble the patterns associated with the PDO than anthropogenic
163 forcing.

164 Overall, the working group concluded that greenhouse gas forcing and stratospheric
165 ozone depletion both expanded the tropics in the Southern Hemisphere in recent decades, and
166 that both internal atmospheric variability and the recent phase change of the PDO widened the
167 tropics in both hemispheres (especially in the Northern Hemisphere). The role of aerosols in
168 tropical expansion is difficult to determine, as aerosol processes remain uncertain in climate
169 models.

170 **Objective 3: Diagnose regional impacts of tropical widening**

171 The third goal of the US CLIVAR working group was to describe the local impacts of
172 tropical widening. Two related, quantifiable questions may be asked: (i) “Where do the tropics
173 widen?”, and (ii) “What are the surface impacts of tropical widening?”

174 Determining where the tropics widen (question i) requires a regional tropical width
175 metric. Several zonal mean metrics (e.g., subtropical sea-level pressure) can also be applied
176 regionally, and shifts in these metrics are often interpreted in the context of a global Hadley
177 circulation. The stream function definition of the Hadley cell edge metric (which traditionally is
178 only defined in the zonal mean) has also recently been generalized to the regional scale (Staten et
179 al., 2019). Both approaches reveal that zonal mean widening does not imply a widening at all
180 longitudes. For example, the Southeastern United States, though in the subtropical belt, is

181 removed from the prototypical Hadley cell-wise circulation (Staten et al. 2019); there, shifts in
182 the North Atlantic Subtropical High modulate large-scale precipitation patterns (Schmidt and
183 Grise, 2019).

184 The surface impacts of tropical widening (question ii) remain poorly understood and
185 likely vary substantially by region. Hypothesized surface impacts, such as changes in tropical
186 cyclogenesis, altered marine productivity, shifts in precipitation belts, desertification, and
187 wildfires are each dependent on regional factors beyond the width of the tropical circulation.
188 Although some hydrological changes can be explained by a uniform tropical expansion on top of
189 spatially varying meridional gradients in precipitation and evaporation (e.g. Norris et al., 2019),
190 many of the other possible impacts are likely more influenced by regional dynamical changes
191 (stationary waves, monsoons, etc.) than a widening of the global-scale Hadley circulation.

192 **RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

193 Future challenges include understanding tropical widening in the context of a changing
194 global circulation. In this article, we have used the term “tropical width” to denote the width of
195 the Hadley circulation and its attendant subtropical dry belts. But changes in the width and
196 position of the inter-tropical convergence zone (Kang & Lu, 2012; Watt-Meyer et al., 2019), and
197 the extent, duration, and intensity of monsoons in the deep tropics are also crucially important
198 (Lau & Kim, 2015; Wang et al., 2017). On the poleward side, changes in midlatitude weather
199 systems may have even larger hydrological impacts than simultaneous changes in tropical width
200 (Diaz & Bradley, 2004; Scheff & Frierson, 2012).

201 Tropical widening is also tied to changes in the ocean circulation beneath (Doney &
202 Karnauskas, 2014; Schneider et al., 2014) and the upper troposphere and stratosphere above.
203 These connections need to be pursued in the future. In fact, a newly formed ISSI working group
204 on Tropical Width Impacts on the Stratosphere (TWIST; <http://www.issibern.ch/teams/twist/>)
205 aims to address related questions, such as: How do tropical widening metrics relate to
206 stratospheric processes such as the Brewer-Dobson circulation? How might tropical widening
207 impact stratospheric chemistry (e.g. the ozone layer)? And how might stratospheric changes in
208 turn impact the troposphere?

209 The mechanisms underpinning tropical widening are a topic of ongoing study.
210 Subtropical static stability is often cited as a major factor in Hadley cell widening, owing largely
211 to its role in baroclinic instability. Subtropical static stability has been shown to increase in lock-
212 step with CO₂-induced warming (see Chemke and Polvani, 2019), while other terms, such as
213 eddy phase speed and tropical tropopause height, play at best a minor role in expanding the
214 Hadley circulation. This narrows the list of possible mechanisms behind tropical widening in a
215 warming world, but more work is needed to analyze the mechanisms triggered by other forcings,
216 such as stratospheric ozone depletion. Furthermore, while tropical stability is fairly constant from
217 west to east, land-sea contrasts and topography produce stationary waves, preferred storm track
218 regions, and subtropical high-pressure centers. The zonal mean framework is thus insufficient for
219 understanding impacts in a given region.

220 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

221 We thank US CLIVAR and ISSI for funding the two working groups. We thank all
222 members of the working groups for helpful discussions, and the US CLIVAR and ISSI offices
223 and their sponsoring agencies (NASA, NOAA, NSF, DOE, ESA, Swiss Confederation, Swiss
224 Academy of Sciences, and University of Bern) for supporting these groups and activities.

225

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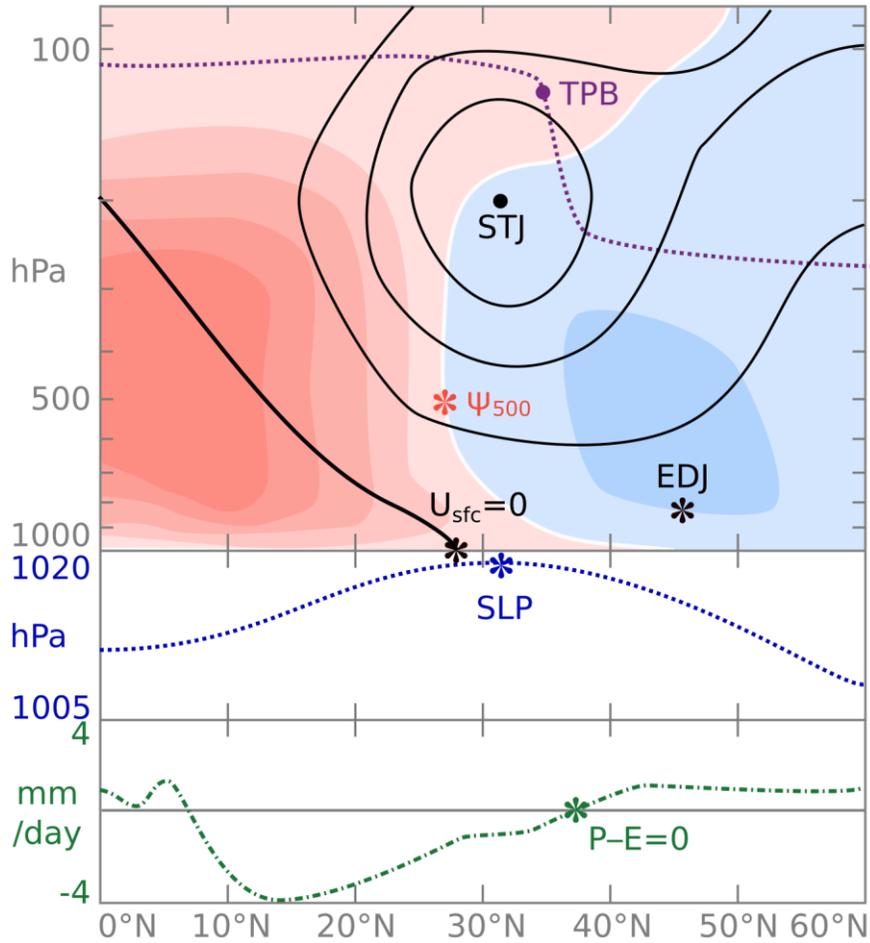
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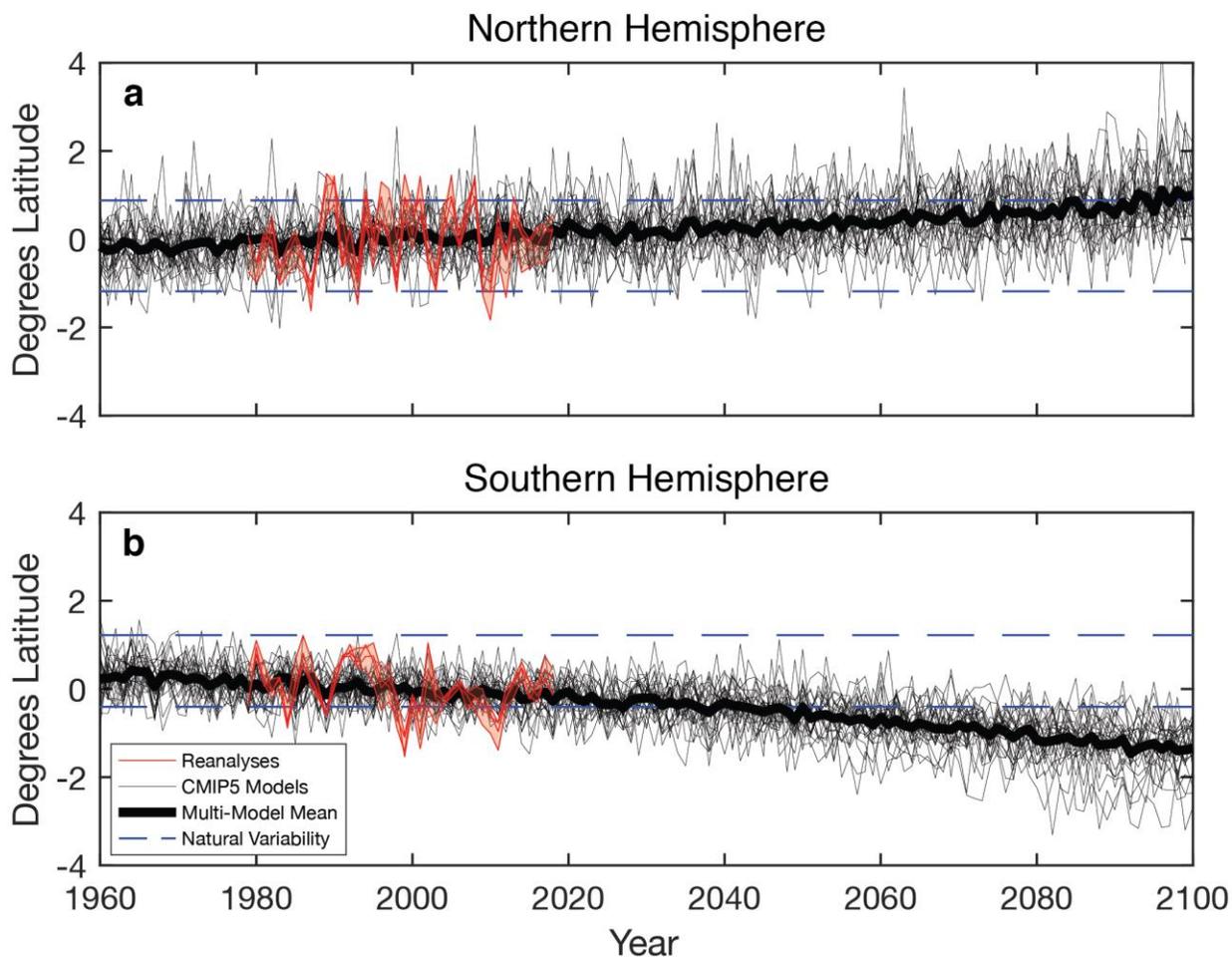
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 312 **Figure 1.** Schematic representation of commonly used zonal mean tropical width metrics (along
 313 with the eddy-driven jet, or EDJ), and the fields from which they are derived, as a function of
 314 latitude (and pressure in the top panel). The top pane depicts the Hadley cell (red shading), the
 315 Ferrel cell (blue shading), zonal mean zonal winds (black contours, with the thick contour
 316 representing the zero isotach), and the lapse-rate tropopause (purple dotted line). The middle and
 317 bottom panels depict the zonal mean sea level pressure (blue dotted curve) and precipitation-
 318 minus-evaporation (green dash-dotted curve). The circulation metrics are marked with colors
 319 corresponding to their underlying field (e.g., black for the fields derived from the zonal wind).

320 Metrics that are strongly correlated with the HC edge latitude are marked with an asterisk—
321 others with a dot. Adapted from Waugh et al., (2018)

322



323
 324 **Figure 2.** Historical versus modeled poleward expansion of the annual mean Hadley cell (HC)
 325 edge (based on the 500 hPa mass stream function), relative to the 1981–2010 average. Observed
 326 estimates (red curves) and the corresponding envelope (red shading between the red curves) are
 327 drawn from the ERA-Interim, MERRA2, CFSR, and JRA55 reanalyses. Simulation time series
 328 (gray curves) and the multi-model ensemble mean (thick black curves) come from historical
 329 (1960–2005) and RCP8.5 (2006–2100) experiments from the Coupled Model Intercomparison
 330 Project Phase 5 (CMIP5). Blue dashed lines provide a measure of natural climate variability (i.e.,
 331 the mean \pm 2 standard deviations of the HC edge) from pre-industrial simulations, and are hence
 332 not symmetric about the 1981–2010 average. (adapted from Staten et al. 2018)