

Qianshan He  
Shanghai Meteorological Service  
oxeye75@163.com  
June 23, 2020

Editor-in-Chief  
Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics  
Dear Editor:

Please find the revised version of “Possible mechanisms of summer cirrus clouds over the Tibetan Plateau”. We value the comments received greatly and have accepted and incorporated essentially all of the reviewers' suggestions into the manuscript. The point-by-point replies to the reviewers' comments are enclosed.

We appreciate you very much for your editorial effort to this manuscript.

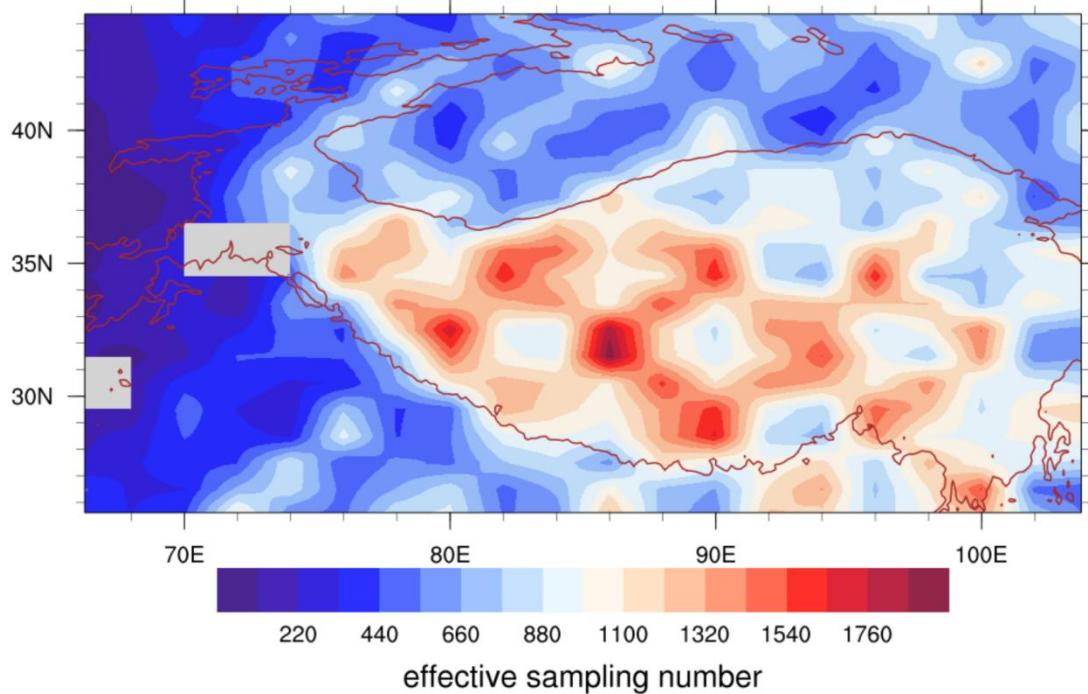
Sincerely yours,  
Qianshan He

**Reviewer #1:**

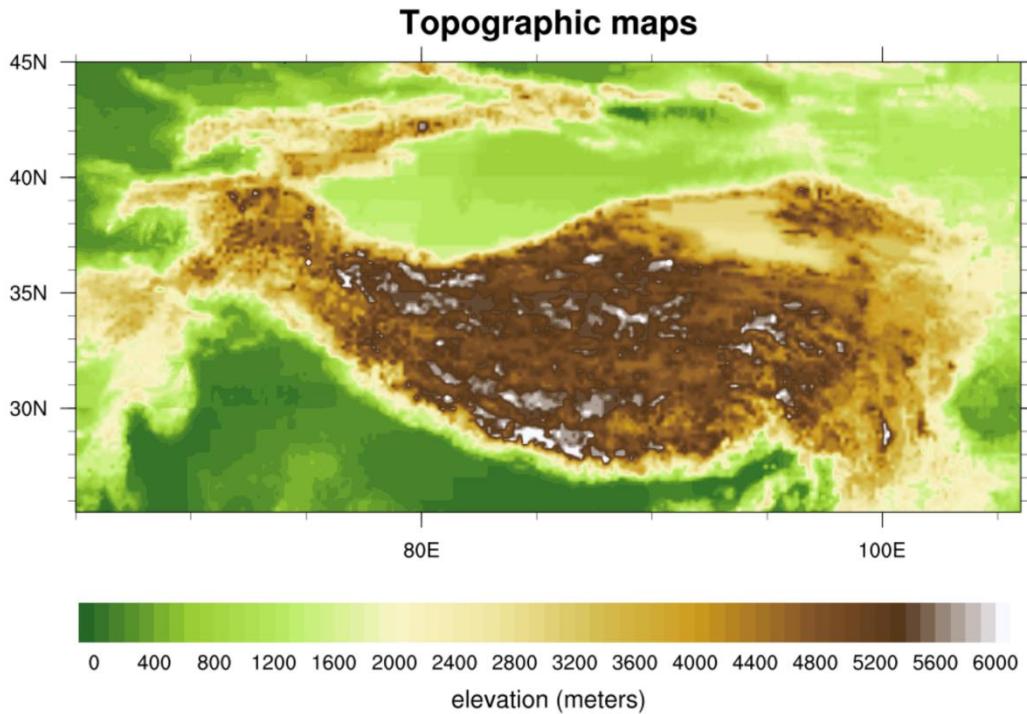
1. Sect. 2.1: The cirrus occurrence number from CALIPSO is used to investigate the geographical distribution of cirrus in the study. How about the geographical distribution of the effective sampling number of CALIPSO over the TP? Are there much more default values in some regions than others? Will the inhomogeneous distribution of effective sampling data result in large biases in the calculated distributions of cirrus occurrence numbers?

**Response:** Fig. 1 shows the geographical distribution of the effectively sampled cirrus number by CALIPSO over the TP during the summertime from 2012 to 2016. The spatial resolution is  $1^\circ \times 2^\circ$  and the sampling criteria are the same as that in the manuscript. We can tell that only two regions failed to have values. Both of them are on the outer edges of Tibet Plateau so the default values there won't affect our study. Despite these regions, the rest of the study areas have abundant sampling numbers to allow us to gain a solid knowledge of the cirrus characteristics. The effective sampling data results are indeed inhomogeneous; however, this does not mean a large bias of the CALIPSO data. All the numbers counted in our study are quality assured. The inhomogeneity can be influenced by the CALIPSO orbit and how we set our domain resolution, but considering the large sampling numbers, this geographical inhomogeneity can reveal the reality of cirrus distribution and this is also the inspiration of our study. We want to explore what kind of mechanism triggered this geographical inhomogeneity of cirrus and the characteristic of cirrus on the Tibetan Plateau.

## 2012-2016 summer cirrus occurrence number distribution



**Figure 1.** Geographical distribution of cirrus numbers effectively sampled by CALIPSO during the June-August period from 2012-2016.



**Figure 2.** Topographic maps over Tibetan Plateau

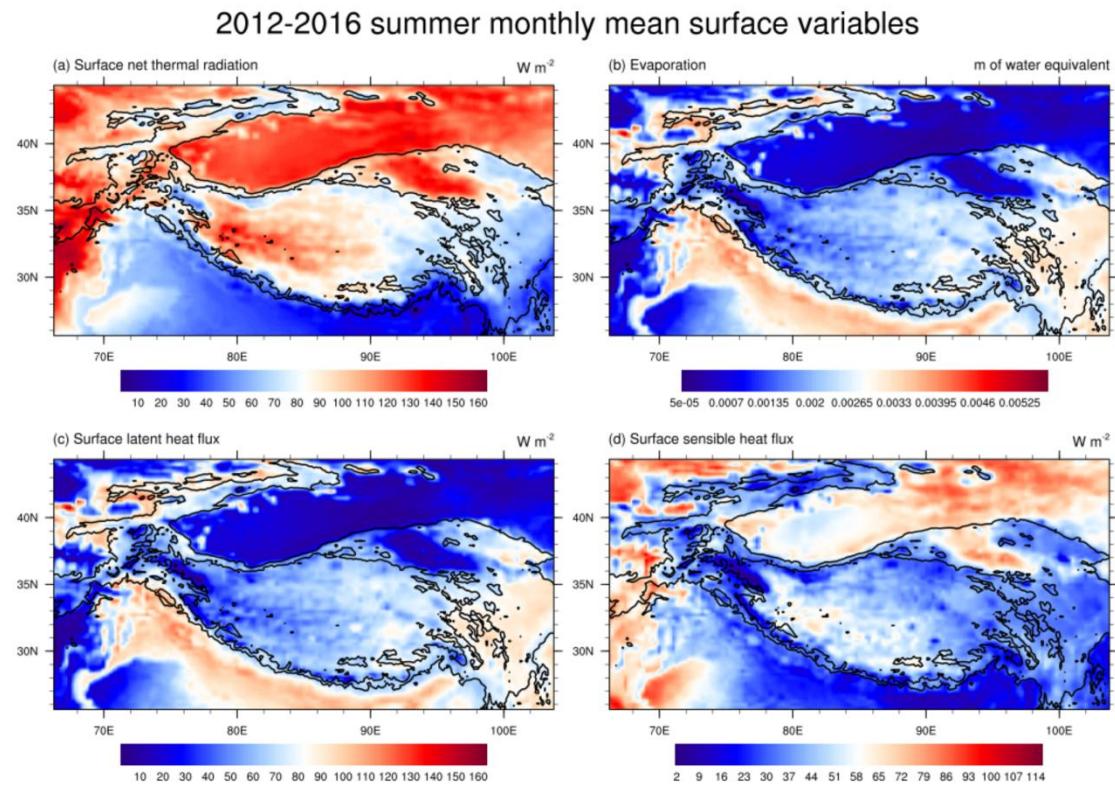
2. P7, L12 – P8, L12 and Fig. 1: I would like to see a plot showing the geographic distribution of terrain height in the region. Several variables (e.g., surface diabatic heating, radiation cooling, latent heat, sensible heat, and water vapor evaporation) are mentioned in the discussion, but none of them are displayed. Are there any signals at higher altitudes to see the influence of topographic height on cirrus? In which study and by what model is the cirrus formation simulated (stated in P8, L4-5)?

**Response:** Fig. 2 shows the geographic distribution of terrain height in the region. Fig.3 shows the monthly mean surface net thermal radiation, water vapor evaporation, latent heat flux and sensible heat flux from ERA5 data, respectively. Radiative cooling is the net outgoing radiative energy flux (Sun, Sun, Zhou, Alam, & Bermel, 2017), it can be given as

$$P_{cool}(T) = P_{rad}(T) - P_{atm}(T_{amb})$$

Where  $P_{rad}(T)$  is the thermal emission of the radiative cooler with temperature  $T$ , and  $P_{atm}(T_{amb})$  is the atmospheric radiation with air temperature  $T_{amb}$ . Here we assume the atmospheric radiation is the same in our study region, the radiative cooling is determined by the surface thermal emission  $P_{rad}(T)$ , which is the upper left plot in Fig. 3. Essentially, the maximum radiative cooling region lies in the southwest of the Plateau where the terrain height exceeds 4500 m. The top right and bottom left figures show the evaporation and surface latent heat flux, respectively. Their patterns are identical. The regions with higher altitude tend to be drier than lower altitude regions, so evaporation and surface latent heat flux is not the main contributor to the formation of cirrus below 9 km. The bottom right figure shows the surface sensible heat flux.

Higher altitude region also shows strong sensible heat flux. However, the magnitude is around  $70 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ , which is smaller than the magnitude of surface radiative cooling ( $130 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ ). Therefore, the surface radiative cooling caused by terrain height triggered cirrus below 9 km and the surface sensible heat flux is the second contributor.



**Figure 3.** Geographical distribution of monthly mean (a) surface radiation cooling, (b) evaporation (c) latent heat flux, and (d) sensible heat flux over Tibetan Plateau. The study period is June, July, and August from 2012 to 2016.

3. P8, L13 – P10, L9 and Fig. 2: It seems that the negative gravity wave acceleration cannot fully explain the distribution pattern of cirrus occurrence number shown in the figure. Could the geographical distributions of other relevant variables, such as gravity wave induced fluctuations of water vapor and temperature, be investigated? Is

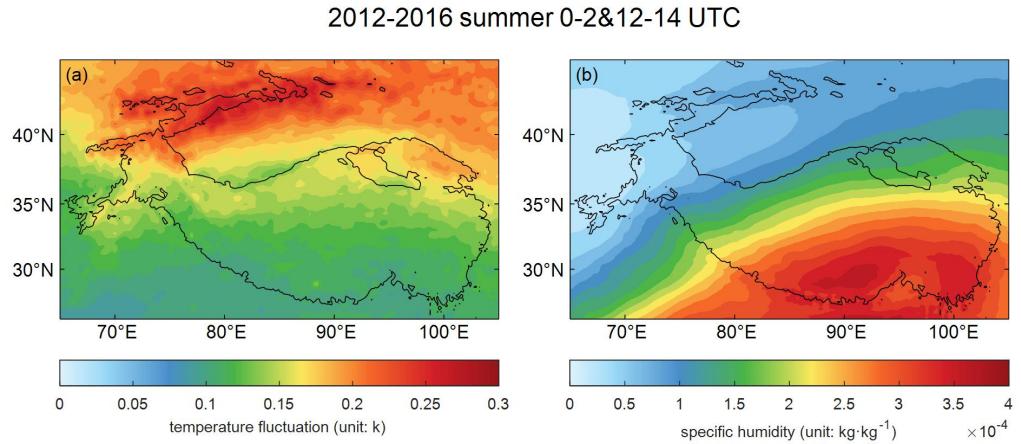
it possible that shallow or mid-level convection in this region play a role in the formation of cirrus?

**Response:** We agree with the reviewer. The negative gravity wave acceleration cannot fully explain the distribution pattern of cirrus occurrence number. Following the classical circulation decomposition [Lorenz, 1967], the perturbation is decomposed into stationary part and transient part. The stationary part is mainly caused by geographical factors, while the transient part is mainly caused by the fluctuations in the atmosphere such as gravity waves. Here is the Lorenz decomposition formula:

$$T = \langle T \rangle + \bar{T}^* + T'^*$$

where overbar (–) and prime (') represent the temporal mean and anomaly. Similarly, bracket (<>) and star (\*) represent the spatial mean and anomaly. Thus,  $\bar{T}^*$  and  $T'^*$  are the stationary part and the transient part, respectively. Figure 4 shows the geographical distribution of (a) transient temperature fluctuation and (b) 5-year averaged specific humidity at 250 hPa (about 11 to 12 km). There is significant temperature fluctuation at the north side of the Tibet Plateau, with a peak near 79 ° E and 41 ° N. However, the water vapor condition at 250 hPa over the western TP is too poor to form more cirrus clouds, so the cirrus clouds are concentrated in the northeast. Temperature fluctuation includes convections, gravity waves, and other atmospheric activities at different scales. Besides, the convections, the eastward subtropical upper-level jet stream passes over the TP and its adjacent orography are all likely to trigger gravity waves and intensify temperature fluctuation [Cohen and Boos, 2016].

Therefore, the fluctuations in temperature contribute to the formation of cirrus between 9-12 km.

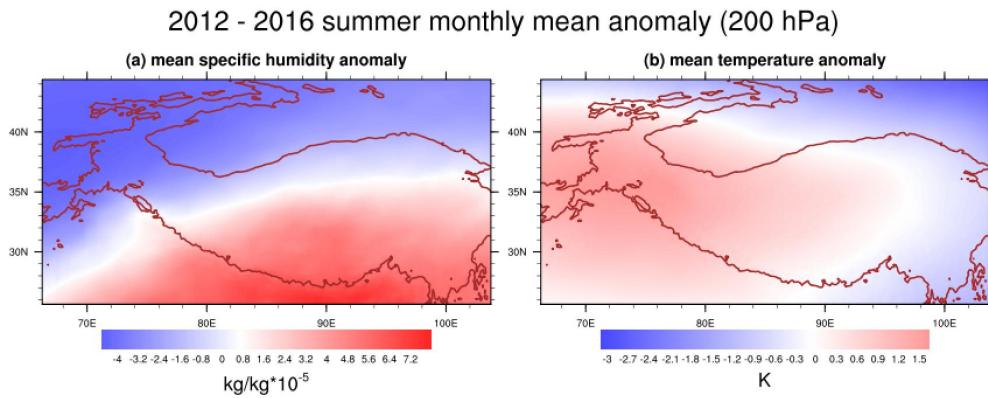


**Figure 4.** Geographical distribution of (a) temperature fluctuation and (b) 5-year averaged specific humidity at 250 hPa (about 11 to 12 km).

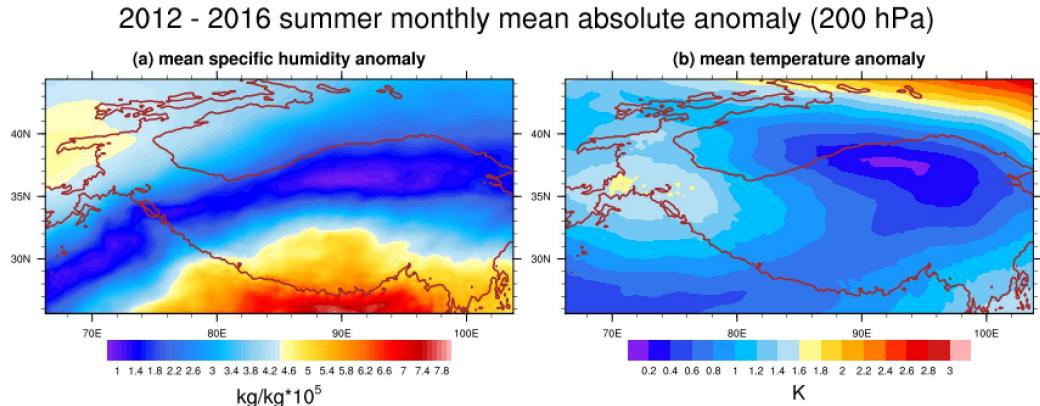
4. P10, L10 – L12, L2 and Fig. 3: Here it might not be fully appropriate to state that deep convection is another cirrus formation mechanism (P10, L12) since atmospheric dynamics and microphysical processes in the formation of cirrus should be distinguished and described clearly. Can the difference between the timing of the CALIPSO overpasses and the period of daily OLR data fully explain the difference between the location of maximum cirrus number and the center of low OLR shown in the figure? From the geographical distribution of OLR, one can see strong convection activity in most areas of eastern TP, where the cirrus occurrence number is very small. Does this indicate that the cirrus formation (occurrence number) cannot be well explained by the convection activity (OLR) at this altitude range?

**Response:** Yes, our conclusion can be affected by the timing of the CALIPSO overpasses. CALIPSO passes our interested regions twice a day while the OLR data is daily. Moreover, OLR is reanalyzed grid data while the CALIPSO sampling number

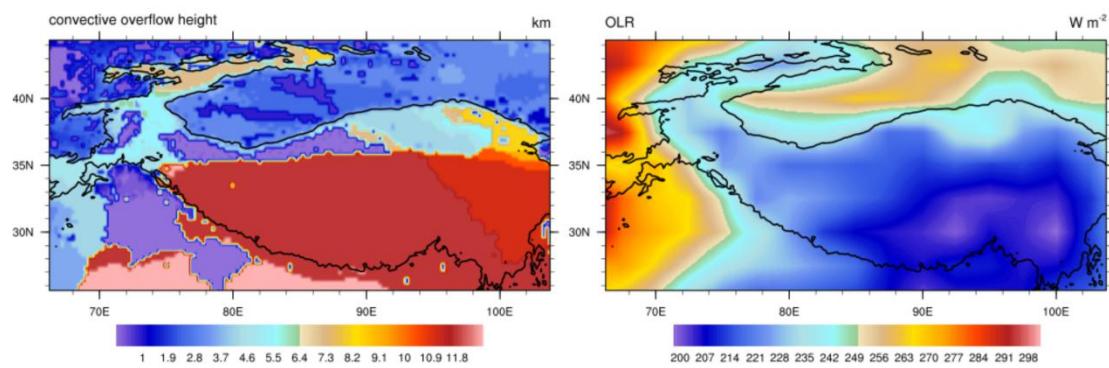
is the mean of each  $1^\circ \times 2^\circ$  box. These two reasons can cause a mismatch between strong OLR value and small cirrus occurrence number. However, OLR is just an indicator of the deep convection. Deep convection alone cannot guarantee the formation of cirrus, and other factors such as condensation nuclei and water vapor are also needed. Therefore, the convective outflow level and OLR only offer a necessary condition for the uplift of cirrus, but it is not sufficient enough to ensure the occurrence of cirrus. As we can see from Figure 7, the convective overflow height is around 12 km in most areas of eastern TP and the OLR is below  $210 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ , indicating strong convection activities there. From Fig.5a and Fig. 6a, we can see water vapor is more abundant when latitude is smaller than 30N at 200 hPa. The atmospheric vertical motion and favorable water vapor condition helps the formation of cirrus above 12km.



**Figure 5.** Geographical distribution of (a) specific humidity anomaly and (b) temperature anomaly from monthly ERA5 data.



**Figure 6.** Geographical distribution of (a) specific humidity absolute anomaly and (b) temperature absolute anomaly from monthly ERA5 data.



**Figure 7.** Distribution of convective overflow height and OLR.

5. P12, L3-11 and Table 1: What does the symbol “-“ stand for in Table 1? Can the scatter plots be shown with figures?

**Response:** Symbol “-“ stands for failing to pass the significant test. Scatter plots are less intuitive than direct correlation coefficient. Therefore, they are ignored here.

Technical issues:

P1, L19-21: The sentence needs to be rephrased.

**Response:** Thank you for the suggestion. Then sentence has been rephrased as “The geographical distributions of summertime cirrus with different cloud-top heights above the Tibetan Plateau are investigated by using the 2012 - 2016 Cloud-Aerosol Lidar and Infrared Pathfinder Satellite Observation (CALIPSO) data.”

P1, L21: “exhibits”.

**Response:** Corrected.

P9, L16: What does “along with smaller particle size” mean? Smaller aerosol particles, or smaller cirrus particles?

**Response:** Sorry for the misleading information. The increase of ice crystals numbers will bring the shrink of their size, so the smaller particle size means the smaller ice particle size. This sentence has been changed correspondingly.

P9, L19: What do you mean by saying the wave accelerations are on the order of +/- 1 m s<sup>-1</sup>? The values are too high or too low?

**Response:** These values are relatively low. Therefore the wave acceleration is not the only contributor. Fluctuations both in velocities and temperature-induced by gravity wave contribute to the formation of cirrus between 9-12 km.

P10, L5: The concept of the Froude number needs to be described or explained.

**Response:** Thank you. This part has been added. We have added related information into the text.

P10, L12: “triggered”?

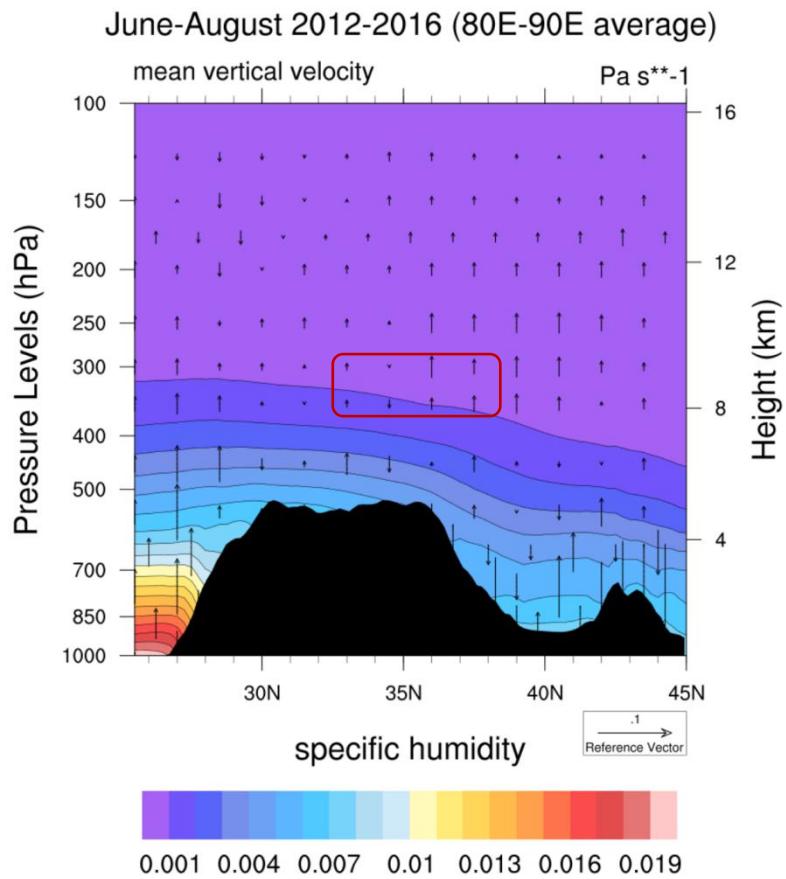
**Response:** corrected.

We appreciate Reviewer 1 very much for his constructive comments.

**Reviewer #2:**

1. For the interpretation of the first mechanism for the distribution of cirrus with cloud tops below 9 km, in Page 8 Line 7-12, the authors suggest that “the cirrus over the high topographic height areas is concentrated below 9 km” because “. . .the weak subsidence above the lower troposphere, limiting the vertical extent of cirrus. . .”. However, the variables, such as the vertical motion, that used for explanation are not appeared in the provided figure. With only the topographic profiles in Fig.1, it would be difficult to imagine the inhibition effect of the radiation cooling.

**Response:** Thank you for the advice. Figure 8 shows the vertical wind averaged from 80E to 90E for each latitude. The contour line is specific humidity. Here we choose to do meridional average from 80E to 90E because this is the main region of the Plateau where terrain height exceeds 4500m. The red rectangle shows the weak subsidence below 9 km (300 hPa approximately). This part has been added in the manuscript.



**Figure 8.** the zonal distribution of vertical winds averaged from 80E to 90E for each latitude. The contour is specific humidity.

2. From Page 9 to 10, the authors use three paragraphs to interpret the second mechanism, which is corresponding to the distribution of cirrus with cloud tops in the range of 9 – 12 km. But two out of three paragraphs are totally citations of opinions from previous papers. (a) Consider reducing the citation and increasing the ratio of analysis based on figures of the current paper. (b) Please add information to describe the wave here. Before using gravity wave acceleration to describe the intensity variation of the wave, the authors should first demonstrate the existence of gravity wave by showing amplitude or phase of the wave.

**Response:** Temperature fluctuation is the main reason for the formation of 9-12 km cirrus cloud. Convective activities are important sources of gravity waves, which is responsible for inducing temperature fluctuations.

**Minor comments:**

1. P1L21 needs to be rephrased, consider changing to “the cirrus clouds with different cloud top heights exhibit obvious difference in their horizontal distribution over the TP...”

**Response:** Thank you for the suggestion. This part has been rephrased.

2. P2L1 “the maximum occurrence for cirrus top below 9 km . . .” is confusing in expression. “Cirrus” or “cirrus with cloud tops in range . . .”? please clarify this concept and rephrase the sentence.

**Response:** Thank you for the suggestion. This part has been rephrased as “The maximum occurrence for cirrus with cloud top height less than 9 km . . .”.

3. P5L17 “. . .from 25° - 45°N and 65° - 105°E. . .”: change to “the TP is defined as the area that covers 25° - 45°N and 65° - 105°E” or similar expression.

**Response:** Thank you for the suggestion. This part has been rephrased.

4. P7L14-15 and P821: leave a space between the number and the unit “km”, as i.e., “9 km”.

**Response:** All the height description without a space between the number and the unit has been corrected.

5. Is it better to replace the colormap used for Figs 1-3a with a sequential or miscellaneous colormap? The current diverging one is not appropriate for describing

monotonic trends. Besides, the font size of the “cirrus occurrence number” below the colorbar should be enlarged.

**Response:** Thank you for the suggestion. All the figures have been replotted.

We appreciate Reviewer 2 very much for his constructive comments.

**Interactive Comment:**

1. Indeed, the gravity waves (GWs) frequently occur around the Tibetan Plateau and the GWs possibly contribute to the cirrus formation. However, I am afraid you have not proved that the cirrus is caused, or partly caused by GWs. In Fig. 2 and Fig.3a, the “gravity wave acceleration less than 0” from JRA-55 products(if it could be considered as an index of GWs occurrence) appears at the location with and without a large number of cirrus, which indicates that the GWs may have no relevance with the occurrence of the cirrus. So I do not think it is a very convincing explanation for the cirrus formation and maybe the causality between the GWs and the cirrus should be further justified.

The effects of the GWs could not be verified without talking about the amplitudes.

Would you please include the figures of the GWs derived from the data and method of your choice? And would you please show the amplitude of the GWs?

And from my own experience, limited by the horizontal and vertical resolution, the re- analyses, even the ERA5, could not give a nice picture of GWs in the upper troposphere and stratosphere. I think high-resolution model simulations might be necessary for this study.

P.S. in Section 3, the statements about GWs from previous studies are mixed with your results. Even though the previous studies are nicely cited, it is difficult for readers to separate your results with others'.

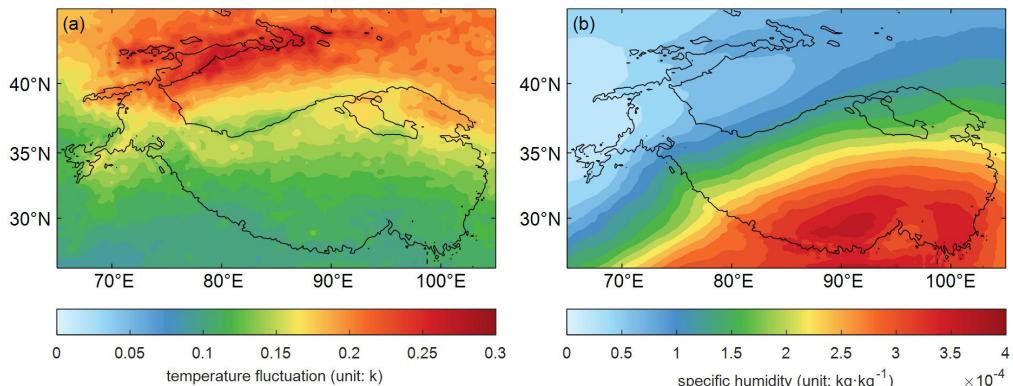
**Response:** By using Lorenz-type decomposition, the perturbation is decomposed into stationary part and transient part. The stable part is mainly caused by geographical factors, while the transient part is mainly caused by the fluctuations in the atmosphere such as gravity waves. Here is the Lorenz decomposition formula:

$$T = \langle T \rangle + \bar{T}^* + T'^*$$

where overbar (—) and prime (') represent the temporal mean and anomaly. Similarly, bracket (<>) and star (\*) represent the spatial mean and anomaly. Thus,  $\bar{T}^*$  and  $T'^*$  are the stationary part and the transient part, respectively.

When Lorenz-type decomposition is applied to the temperature field, the transient part is regarded as the temperature fluctuation which contributes to the formation of cirrus cloud. Figure 9 shows the distribution of temperature fluctuation and specific humidity, respectively. The fluctuation in temperature field is induced by gravity waves and some other convective activities. Although the temperature fluctuation in the northwest is also significant, the water vapor there is not enough to form cirrus clouds.

2012-2016 summer 0-2&12-14 UTC



**Figure 9.** Geographical distribution of (a) temperature fluctuation and (b) 5-year averaged specific humidity at 250 hPa (about 11 to 12km).

2. All of the key elements, e.g., the subtropical jets and the OLR in the Northern Hemisphere, the convections at the Tibetan Plateau, the occurrence of the cirrus are substantially subject to seasonal variations. I would suggest you at least separate the situations between winters and summers.

**Response:** Thanks for your suggestion. Our study focus on the formation of cirrus in summer. It would also be interesting to explore the cirrus in winter over the TP in the future.

# Possible mechanisms of summer cirrus clouds over the Tibetan Plateau

Feng Zhang<sup>1,2</sup>, Qiu-Run Yu<sup>3</sup>, Jia-Li Mao<sup>4</sup>, Chen Dan<sup>4</sup>, Yanyu Wang<sup>4</sup>, Qianshan He<sup>6,7\*</sup>, Tiantao Cheng<sup>1</sup>, Dongwei Liu<sup>6</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences, Institute of Atmospheric Sciences, Fudan University, Shanghai, China;

<sup>2</sup>Innovation Center of Ocean and Atmosphere System, Zhuhai Fudan Innovation Research Institute, Zhuhai, China;

<sup>3</sup>Department of Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences, McGill University, Montreal, Quebec, Canada

<sup>4</sup>Key Laboratory of Meteorological Disaster, Ministry of Education, Nanjing University of Information Science and Technology, Nanjing, China

<sup>5</sup>Shanghai Key Laboratory of Atmospheric Particle Pollution and Prevention (LAP3), Department of Environmental Science and Engineering, Institute of Atmospheric Sciences, Fudan University, Shanghai, China;

<sup>6</sup>Shanghai Meteorological Service, Shanghai, China;

<sup>7</sup>Shanghai Key Laboratory of Meteorology and Health, Shanghai, China;

*Correspondence to:* Qianshan He (oxeye75@163.com)

**Abstract.** The geographical distributions of summertime cirrus with different cloud-top heights above the Tibetan Plateau are investigated by using the 2012 - 2016 Cloud-Aerosol Lidar and Infrared Pathfinder Satellite Observation (CALIPSO) data. The cirrus clouds with different cloud top heights exhibit an obvious difference in their horizontal distribution over the TP.

The maximum occurrence for cirrus with cloud top height less than 9 km starts over the western Plateau and moves up to the northern regions when cirrus is between 9-12 km. Above 12 km, the maximum occurrence of cirrus retreats to the southern fringe of the Plateau. These characteristics are linked to three kinds of formation mechanisms: large-scale orographic uplift, ice particles generation caused by temperature fluctuation, and remnants of overflow from deep convective anvils, respectively.

## 1 Introduction

Cirrus is the high-altitude ice cloud identified as one of the most uncertain components in the current understanding of the climate variability [Rossow and Schiffer, 1999; Sassen and Mace, 2002; Solomon et al., 2007]. Cirrus cloud can profoundly affect the radiative budget of the earth-atmosphere system.

---

\* Corresponding author address: Q. S. He, P. O. Box 201199, Shanghai, China

E-mail: oxeye75@163.com

They scatter the incoming solar radiation (albedo effect), prevent the outgoing longwave radiation from leaving (the greenhouse effect) and reemit the infrared radiation into the space (infrared effect), depending on their optical thickness and temperature [McFarquhar et al., 2000; Zerefos et al., 2003; Corti and Peter, 2009]. Despite influencing the atmospheric heat transport, cirrus plays an essential role in the stratosphere-troposphere exchange of trace constituents, especially water vapor [Rosenfield et al., 1998]. Recently, particular interest has been paid on cirrus in the upper troposphere and lower stratosphere (UTLS), a transition region generally recognized to control the entry of troposphere air into the stratosphere [Gettelman et al., 2004; Fueglistaler et al., 2009; Randel and Jensen, 2013].

With the onset of the Asia summer monsoon (ASM), abundant anthropogenic aerosols and their precursors are transported to the Tibetan Plateau (TP) and can be quickly conveyed to the upper troposphere (UT), with the vertical transportation being confined by the upper-level ASM anticyclone [Fu et al., 2006; Park et al., 2009; Randel et al., 2010]. By scrutinizing the seasonal variation of moisture and cirrus over the TP, Gao et al. [2003] mentioned that the mean high cloud reflectance over the TP hit its peak in April and arrived at its minimum in November. Besides, the topographic lifting over a significant barrier can boost the elevation of relatively warm and moist air, which contributes to the substantial number of cirrus clouds in March and April [Chen and Liu, 2005]. Apart from the aerosols and water vapor, satellite observations also suggest that cirrus clouds are connected with the outflow from deep convection, which frequently occurs over the TP [Li et al., 2005; Jin, 2006]. Therefore, the abundant aerosols and their precursors in UTLS, the topographic lifting and the deep convection activities could act together to promote the frequent cirrus occurrence over the TP during the ASM period.

Currently, there are two leading mechanisms for the cirrus formation: deep convective detrainment and in situ formation associated with Kelvin or gravity waves as well as the synoptic-scale ascent [Jensen et al., 1996; Pfister et al., 2001; Boehm and Lee, 2003; Immel et al., 2008; Fujiwara et al., 2009; He et al., 2012]. It is found that cirrus is directly related to the fallout and decay of the outflow from deep convection [Prabhakara et al., 1993; Wang et al., 1996]. Observations show cirrus generally occur in the vicinity of convectively active areas like the tropical western Pacific or at the places with low outgoing longwave radiation (OLR) [Winker and Trepte, 1998; Eguchi et al., 2007]. Cirrus clouds are formed when deep convection detains hydrometeors from the planetary boundary to the upper troposphere [Luo et al., 2011]. Moreover, the temperature fluctuations driven by the large-scale vertical uplifting or atmospheric wave activities in the upper troposphere also lead to the in situ formation of cirrus [Riihimaki and McFarlane, 2010]. The role of the mechanisms mentioned above to the formation of cirrus over the TP is more complex and less understood. Detailed studies discussing the possible contributions of these mechanisms based on the cirrus top height over the Plateau are rather sparse, except some ground-based Lidar observations from a fixed site, mainly Naqu (31.5°N, 92.1°E) [He et al., 2012]. Knowledge of cirrus occurrence in altitude and space and their possible explanations are critical to understand the thermal and dynamic effects of the TP and to improve climate modeling further.

In this paper, we investigate the variation of cirrus spatial distribution over the TP from the altitude perspective. Our particular interest is to identify the dominant contributors to the formation of cirrus at different heights over the TP, and to provide the first insight into the possible mechanisms on a regional scale. In section 2, the descriptions of the data and method are presented. Section 3 provides

the geographical distribution of cirrus and discusses its relationship with the topographic height, gravity wave, and deep convection. Section 4 is the summary and brief discussions.

## 2 Data and method

### 2.1 Definition of CALIPSO Cirrus Clouds and the NOAA OLR data

The Cloud-Aerosol Lidar and Infrared Pathfinder Satellite Observation (CALIPSO) mission offers comprehensive observations of clouds and aerosols from the troposphere to the stratosphere [Winker et al., 2009; Thorsen et al., 2013], and it has been proved to be highly accurate and reliable in detecting cirrus clouds [Nazaryan et al., 2008]. To determine the occurrence number of cirrus clouds at different heights, we use the CALIPSO cloud layer level 2 Version 4.10 data [Vaughan et al., 2009], which are acquired from the LaRC Atmospheric Sciences Data Center (ASDC) at <http://eosweb.larc.nasa.gov/>. With its spatial resolution of 5 km and vertical resolution of 30 m (0-8.2 km) and 60 m (8.2-20.2 km), CALIPSO provides not only the precise identification of cirrus clouds but also a glimpse into their vertical distribution, which allows us to gain further insight into the formation mechanisms of cirrus. To focus on the characteristics of cirrus occurrence during the ASM period, we collect the five years CALIPSO data from June to August (2012-2016). The cloud layer products include the Feature Classification Flags to identify clouds and aerosols and to discriminate their species further. The CALIPSO cloud subtyping algorithm follows the cloud top pressure thresholds from the International Satellite Cloud Climatology Project (ISCCP) cloud-type classification scheme [Rossow and Shiffer, 1991]. In this paper, we only use the data which is verified by the CALIPSO discrimination algorithm as cirrus. (i.e., “Feature Type” parameter equals 2 and “Feature Subtype” parameter equals 6). Moreover, only data with the cloud-and-aerosol discrimination (CAD) score between 70-100 is considered in our analysis to avoid highly uncertain cloud features [Liu et al., 2009].

CALIPSO original orbital daily data is calculated into grid points data with the latitude-by-longitude resolution of  $1^\circ \times 2^\circ$ . We select relatively fine latitude grids and coarse longitude grids because observations are available along the given CALIPSO orbit while the adjacent track is separated by  $\sim 1.6^\circ$  in the longitude. The  $1^\circ \times 2^\circ$  box strikes a balance between a region small enough to fully depict the variation of an individual grid and large enough to collect enough numbers of observations. In this article, the TP is defined as the area that covers from  $25^\circ - 45^\circ\text{N}$  and  $65^\circ - 105^\circ\text{E}$  with the altitude higher than 3000 m [Yan et al., 2016]. In the chosen spatial domain, the CALIPSO measurements are

grouped into 20 lattices, and the occurrence number of each bin is the average of all orbits passing through the corresponding grid cells.

We also employ the OLR data from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) satellites. OLR is calculated daily as the average of the daytime and nighttime measurements by the Advanced High-Resolution Radiometer with  $2.5^\circ \times 2.5^\circ$  resolution [Liebmann and Smith, 1996]. Its value has widely been acknowledged as a proxy for the convection intensity [Das et al., 2011]. Typically, OLR value below 200 W m<sup>-2</sup> indicates deep convection [Fujiwara et al., 2009] and deep convection represents regions with the extensive lifting of air that may play roles in the formation of cirrus [He et al., 2013].

## 2.2 Description of Reanalysis Data

Data used in the paper also includes the Japanese 55-year Reanalysis dataset (JRA-55;  $1.25^\circ \times 1.25^\circ$ ; 37 pressure levels) [Kobayashi et al., 2015] and the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts Re-Analysis data (ERA5;  $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ ; 37 pressure levels) [et al., 2011]. The study time of all the reanalysis products in this paper is June to August from 2012-2016. To ensure the data resolution will not influence our investigation, we interpolate all reanalysis datasets onto the same horizontal resolution as that of the CALIPSO bin.

Cheng et al. [2014] showed that JRA-55 gave the best capture of the diurnal rainfall cycle over the TP and the eastward precipitation propagation to the eastern lees among four reanalysis datasets. Besides, JRA-55 has the smallest root mean square error in the U and V wind throughout the vertical column over the Plateau [Cheng et al., 2014]. By comparing with ERA and NCEP, JRA-55 also displays the best correlation in thermal heating with the station data over the Plateau [Hu and Duan et al., 2015].

The **profile data, such as temperature and specific humidity from ERA5**, are also utilized in this study [Dee et al., 2011]. The variables are vertically interpolated from 1000 hPa to 1 hPa as 37 pressure levels. By verifying with 3000 high-quality and independent sounding observations, the ERA data produces a relatively small mean bias in temperature profiles during the TP Experiment [Bao and Zhang et al., 2012]. Other studies also prove the reliability and quality of ERA temperature and geopotential height data over the Plateau [Gerlitz et al., 2014].

### 3 Results

Cirrus occurrence number is the total number of profiles identified as cirrus. To better probe the vertical development of cirrus, cirrus occurrence events are further grouped into four types based on the cloud top height: < 9 km; 9-12 km; 12-15 km; > 15km. Fig.1 shows the distribution of cirrus occurrence numbers measured by CALIPSO during the 2012-2016 summer. The cirrus top height is (a) below 9 km, (b) 9 - 12 km, and (c) above 12 km, respectively. In Fig 1a, the inner and outer black curves represent the topographic height of 4500 m and 3000 m. For cirrus top altitude less than 9 km, large numbers of cirrus are observed in the central and western part of the TP with peak effective sampling numbers over 1000. It is noteworthy that the large value region lies within the 4500 m topographic height line (black curve), indicating an extremely close relationship between the cirrus occurrence and the altitude. Some studies attribute the existence of cirrus with convection produced by surface heating [Yanai et al., 1992; Chen and Liu, 2005]. The TP performs as an enormous and intense heat source with strong surface diabatic heating in summer since the intensity of radiation cooling is not strong enough to balance the diabatic heating [Wu, 1984]. With a shallow cyclonic circulation close to the TP surface and a deep anticyclonic circulation aloft, the moist airflows can be rapidly uplifted to the upper layers, and cirrus formation is simulated. The topmost contribution to the summer TP heating originates from the latent heat, which is almost three times as much as the sensible heat. However, the latent heat is almost negligible at high levels over the west flank of the TP [Duan and Wu, 2005].

Fig.2 shows the monthly mean surface net thermal radiation, water vapor evaporation, latent heat flux, and sensible heat flux from ERA5 data, respectively. Radiative cooling is the net outgoing radiative energy flux [Sun et al., 2017], it can be given as

$$P_{cool}(T) = P_{rad}(T) - P_{atm}(T_{amb})$$

Where  $P_{rad}(T)$  is the thermal emission of the radiative cooler with temperature  $T$ , and  $P_{atm}(T_{amb})$  is the atmospheric radiation with air temperature  $T_{amb}$ . Here we assume the atmospheric radiation is the same in our study region, the radiative cooling is determined by the surface thermal emission  $P_{rad}(T)$  (Fig. 3a). Mostly, the maximum radiative cooling zone lies in the southwest of the Plateau, where the terrain height exceeds 4500 m. Fig. 3b and Fig. 3c shows the evaporation and surface latent heat flux, respectively. Their patterns are identical. The regions with higher altitude tend to be drier than lower altitude regions, so evaporation and surface latent heat flux are not the main contributor to the

formation of cirrus below 9 km. Fig. 3d is the surface sensible heat flux. The higher altitude region also shows larger sensible heat flux. However, the magnitude is around  $70 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ , which is smaller than the magnitude of surface radiative cooling ( $130 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ ). Therefore, the combination of surface radiative cooling and surface sensible heat flux caused by terrain height triggered cirrus below 9 km. Fig. 3a is the zonal distribution of vertical winds averaged from 80E to 90E, which is the major part with terrain height larger than 4500 km. The contour is specific humidity. The red rectangle at around 300 hPa indicated weak subsidence above 9 km, limiting the vertical extent of cirrus over these regions. In other words, **the radiative cooling and sensible heat due to orography** are responsible for the cirrus formation. Still, the **weak vertical motion** in the upper layers prohibits the vertical growth of cirrus. Therefore, the cirrus over the high topographic height areas is concentrated below 9 km.

**Fig. 1b** demonstrates the spatial distribution of cirrus occurrence number with cloud top height between 9-12 km from 2012-2016 in summer. It is evident that the occurrence number starts to reduce over the highland and expands towards the north and northeast of the Plateau. Considering that large values also occur at the north side out of the TP, cirrus with cloud top between 9-12 km is generated by external forcing different from orography.

Jensen and Pfister [2004] pointed that the *in situ* transient temperature fluctuation can boost the atmospheric dehydration efficiency and produce a more significant number of ice crystals along with smaller ice particle size, creating more cirrus events consequently. Following the classical Lorenz-type decomposition of atmospheric circulation decomposition [Lorenz, 1967; Lu et al. 2016], transient temperature fluctuation is calculated to explain the formation of cirrus. Figure 4 shows the geographical distribution of (a) transient temperature fluctuation and (b) 5-year averaged specific humidity at 250 hPa (about 11 to 12 km). There is significant temperature fluctuation at the north side of the Tibet Plateau, with a peak near  $79^{\circ}$  E and  $41^{\circ}$  N. However, the water vapor condition at 250 hPa over the western TP is too poor to form more cirrus clouds, so the cirrus clouds are concentrated in the northeast. Temperature fluctuation includes convections, gravity waves, and other atmospheric activities at different scales. Besides, the convections, the eastward subtropical upper-level jet stream passes over the TP and its adjacent orography are all likely to trigger gravity waves and intensify temperature fluctuation [Cohen and Boos, 2016]. Therefore, the fluctuations in temperature contribute to the formation of cirrus between 9-12 km.

The cirrus distribution with the top height between 12-15 km is portrayed in Fig. 1c. The maxima regions dramatically shift to the southern fringe of the Plateau, suggesting that cirrus above 12 km over the TP are triggered by another formation mechanism. Deep convection is widely accepted as a key factor for cirrus formation. In order to probe the connection between the cirrus higher than 12 km and deep convection, the convective overflow height and daily averaged OLR distribution for 2012-2016 summer is displayed in Fig. 3a and 3b. The altitude where the smallest potential temperature gradient locates is defined as the maximum convective overflow level, and cirrus base can be found near or above the convective outflow level [Pandit et al., 2014]. The place where the maximum convective outflow level is around 12 km lies in most areas of eastern TP, and the OLR values in these regions are near  $200 \text{ W/m}^2$ , indicating strong deep convection over these regions. The zonal distribution of vertical winds averaged from 85E to 100E is shown in Fig. 3b. The red rectangle indicates strong vertical motions around 12 km, further validating that the cirrus among 12-15 km is mainly generated by deep convection. Deep convection, in which sufficient vertical extent directly inject particles to the altitude near or below the tropopause, contribute to the predominance of cirrus at low OLR regions. Apart from direct anvil spreading, deep convection can indirectly involve cirrus formation due to the radiative cooling above the deep convective clouds and the updrafts caused by pileus clouds [Sassen et al., 2009]. As a result, cirrus is formed above 12 km as remnants of overflow and dissipation from deep convective anvils.

It should also be mentioned that the timing of the twice-daily CALIPSO overpasses is not in sync with the period of daily OLR data. Meanwhile, the convective outflow level and OLR calculated from reanalysis data still exhibits bias and uncertainty over the TP at a regional scale. Therefore, deep convection only offers a necessary condition for the uplift of cirrus, but it is not sufficient enough to ensure the occurrence of cirrus. The maxima areas of cirrus number may not agree very well with the center of low OLR and high convective overflow height.

The cloud top upper limit for cirrus over the Plateau is 18 km, as observed by lidar. However, for cloud top above 15 km, the CALIPSO lidar observations see much less cirrus over the Plateau, and there is almost no geographical variation in cirrus numbers over these regions. Therefore, their features and the corresponding mechanisms are not discussed in this paper.

To quantify the impact of the above driving forces on the cirrus formation at their corresponding heights, we further calculate their pattern correlation coefficients [Feng et al., 2016]. These coefficients

reveal the relationship between two variables at corresponding locations. As indicated by Table 1, topographic height determines the distribution of cirrus below 9 km with pattern correlation coefficient being 93.7%. For cirrus between 12-15 km, both the convective outflow level and OLR contribute to its occurrence with pattern correlation coefficients of 77.9% and -66.6%, respectively. Besides, all of these coefficients have passed the t-test with the 99% confidence level. Therefore, two of three mechanisms mentioned above are supported statistically.

#### 4 Summary and discussions

In this paper, we investigated the spatial distribution of cirrus clouds over the TP in the Asia summer monsoon season with 5-year CALIPSO data (2012-2016). Remarkable differences in the distributions of cirrus occurrence numbers are found at different heights. The cirrus with cloud top altitude less than 9 km extends almost the whole western and central part of the Plateau, especially over the regions with topographic height larger than 4500 m. For cirrus with the top height between 9-12 km, distinct maxima in occurrence numbers move up to the northeastern Plateau and the north side of the TP. For cirrus between 12-15 km, the maxima retreat to the southern region. There are three formation mechanisms which determine the cirrus top height over the Plateau and evidence is discussed as follows:

- (1) The cirrus with a top height below 9 km is closely tied to orography, with a pattern correlation coefficient between the topographic height and the cirrus occurrence number as 93.7%. **The surface radiative cooling and latent heat brought by the terrain height in summer** contribute to the cirrus formation. Still, the **weak subsidy** in the upper layers prohibits further vertical growth of cirrus over the west flank of the TP.
- (2) The temperature perturbation induced by convective activities, including gravity waves, is responsible for the maxima cirrus occurrence at the corresponding locations when the cloud top is between 9-12 km. The fluctuation can boost the atmospheric dehydration efficiency and influence the ice nucleation process, generating more cirrus particles.
- (3) The convective blow-off mechanism causes large values of cirrus numbers between 12-15 km. **The geographical distribution pattern of cirrus is quite similar to that of the convective overflow height and OLR with pattern correlation coefficient being 77.9% and -66.6%.** Since OLR is a good proxy for deep convection, cirrus formation involves both the direct and indirect effects of deep convection in low

OLR regions. The direct effect is particles being directly injected to heights near or below the tropopause, while the radiative cooling above the deep convective clouds and the regional updrafts via a pileus cloud contribute to the indirect effect. Moreover, the convective outflow level determines the cloud base height of cirrus from the thermal perspective.

Our research provides the first detailed analysis of how the distribution of cirrus shifts geographically over the TP from the height perspective over a regional scale. The results help to map out the thermal and dynamical structures of the atmosphere, which determine the vertical extent of cirrus at different geographical locations over the Plateau. The unique vertical distribution of cirrus over the TP indicates special features of the connection between cirrus and physical process, and they are distinct from interactions in other regions like the tropical ocean. Therefore, the phenomena discovered in this article may promote our knowledge of cirrus over the TP and provide useful information for model simulations. Since CALIPSO crosses the equator at 0130 and 1330 local time during a day and the orbit repeat only once in 16 days, our research is limited by the sampling time and the orbiting range-resolved resolution. More precise verification of the cirrus formation mechanisms needs to combine with intensive geostationary and in-situ observations to consider the diurnal cycle.

*Data availability.* The datasets can be obtained from the corresponding author upon request.

*Author contributions.* QH and FZ designed the study. QRY, JLM, and YW contributed to data analysis, interpretation, and paper writing. TC and DL did further analysis and interpreted the results. All authors contributed to improving the paper.

*Competing interests.* The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

*Special issue statement.* This article is part of the special issue “Study of ozone, aerosols and radiation over the Tibetan Plateau (SOAR-TP) (ACP/AMT inter-journal SI)”. It is not associated with a conference.

*Acknowledgements.* The authors gratefully acknowledge NOAA/OAR/ESRL PSD, Boulder, Colorado, USA, for providing the interpolated OLR data on their website <http://www.cdc.noaa.gov/>, and the

Japan Meteorological Agency for JRA-55 data on [http://jra.kishou.go.jp/JRA-55/index\\_en.html](http://jra.kishou.go.jp/JRA-55/index_en.html).

Thanks also go to ECMWF and NASA for providing ERA5 and CALIPSO data.

*Financial support.* This study was partially supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (NSFC, Grant Nos. 91637101, 41675003 and 41775129), and the Shanghai Science and Technology Committee Research Special Funds (Grant No. 16ZR1431700).

## References

Bao, X., & Zhang, F. (2013). Evaluation of NCEP–CFSR, NCEP–NCAR, ERA-Interim, and ERA-40 reanalysis datasets against independent sounding observations over the Tibetan Plateau. *J. Climate*, 26(1), 206-214.

Boehm, M. T., & Lee, S. (2003). The implications of tropical Rossby waves for tropical tropopause cirrus formation and for the equatorial upwelling of the Brewer–Dobson circulation. *J. Atmos. Sci.*, 60(2), 247-261.

Corti, T., & Peter, T. (2009). A simple model for cloud radiative forcing. *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 9(15), 5751-5758.

Che, H. Z., Shi, G. Y., Zhang, X. Y., Arimoto, R., Zhao, J. Q., Xu, L., ... & Chen, Z. H. (2005). Analysis of 40 years of solar radiation data from China, 1961–2000. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 32(6).

Chen, B., & Liu, X. (2005). Seasonal migration of cirrus clouds over the Asian Monsoon regions and the Tibetan Plateau measured from MODIS/Terra. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 32(1).

Chen, G., Iwasaki, T., Qin, H., & Sha, W. (2014). Evaluation of the warm-season diurnal variability over East Asia in recent reanalyses JRA-55, ERA-Interim, NCEP CFSR, and NASA MERRA. *J. Climate*, 27(14), 5517-5537.

Cohen, N. Y., & Boos, W. R. (2016). Modulation of subtropical stratospheric gravity waves by equatorial rainfall. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 43(1), 466-471.

Das, S. K., Chiang, C. W., & Nee, J. B. (2011). Influence of tropical easterly jet on upper tropical cirrus: An observational study from CALIPSO, Aura-MLS, and NCEP/NCAR data. *J. Geophys. Res.*, 116(D12).

Deng, A., & Stauffer, D. R. (2006). On improving 4-km mesoscale model simulations. *Journal of Applied Meteorology and Climatology*, 45(3), 361-381.

Duan, A. M., & Wu, G. X. (2005). Role of the Tibetan Plateau thermal forcing in the summer climate patterns over subtropical Asia. *Clim. Dyn.*, 24(7-8), 793-807.

Eguchi, N., Yokota, T., & Inoue, G. (2007). Characteristics of cirrus clouds from ICESat/GLAS observations. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 34(9).

Feng, J., Liao, H., & Li, J. (2016). The impact of monthly variation of the Pacific–North America (PNA) teleconnection pattern on wintertime surface-layer aerosol concentrations in the United States. *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 16(8), 4927.

Fu, R., Hu, Y., Wright, J. S., Jiang, J. H., Dickinson, R. E., Chen, M., ... & Wu, D. L. (2006). Short circuit of water vapor and polluted air to the global stratosphere by convective transport over the Tibetan Plateau. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.*, 103(15), 5664-5669.

Fu, R., Hu, Y., Wright, J. S., Jiang, J. H., Dickinson, R. E., Chen, M., ... & Wu, D. L. (2006). Short circuit of water vapor and polluted air to the global stratosphere by convective transport over the Tibetan Plateau. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.*, 103(15), 5664-5669.

Fueglistaler, S., Dessler, A. E., Dunkerton, T. J., Folkins, I., Fu, Q., & Mote, P. W. (2009). Tropical tropopause layer. *Rev. Geophys.*, 47(1).

Fujiwara, M., Iwasaki, S., Shimizu, A., Inai, Y., Shiotani, M., Hasebe, F., ... & Hamada, A. (2009). Cirrus observations in the tropical tropopause layer over the western Pacific. *J. Geophys. Res.*, 114(D9).

Gao, B. C., Yang, P., Guo, G., Park, S. K., Wiscombe, W. J., & Chen, B. (2003). Measurements of water vapor and high clouds over the Tibetan Plateau with the Terra MODIS instrument. *IEEE Trans. Geosci. Remote Sens.*, 41(4), 895-900.

Gerlitz, L., Conrad, O., Thomas, A., & Böhner, J. (2014). Warming patterns over the Tibetan Plateau and adjacent lowlands derived from elevation-and bias corrected ERA-Interim data. *Clim. Res.*, 58(3), 235-246.

Gettelman, A., Kinnison, D. E., Dunkerton, T. J., & Brasseur, G. P. (2004). Impact of monsoon circulations on the upper troposphere and lower stratosphere. *J. Geophys. Res.*, 109(D22).

He, Q. S., Li, C. C., Ma, J. Z., Wang, H. Q., Shi, G. M., Liang, Z. R., ... & Zhou, X. W. (2013). The properties and formation of cirrus clouds over the Tibetan Plateau based on summertime lidar measurements. *J. Atmos. Sci.*, 70(3), 901-915.

Hu, J., & Duan, A. (2015). Relative contributions of the Tibetan Plateau thermal forcing and the Indian Ocean Sea surface temperature basin mode to the interannual variability of the East Asian summer monsoon. *Clim. Dyn.*, 45(9-10), 2697-2711.

Immler, F., Krüger, K., Fujiwara, M., Verver, G., Rex, M., & Schrems, O. (2008). Correlation between equatorial Kelvin waves and the occurrence of extremely thin ice clouds at the tropical tropopause. *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 8(14), 4019-4026.

Jensen, E., & Pfister, L. (2004). Transport and freeze-drying in the tropical tropopause layer. *J. Geophys. Res.*, 109(D2).

Jensen, E. J., Toon, O. B., Selkirk, H. B., Spinhirne, J. D., & Schoeberl, M. R. (1996). On the formation and persistence of subvisible cirrus clouds near the tropical tropopause. *J. Geophys. Res.*, 101(D16), 21361-21375.

Jensen, E. J., Ueyama, R., Pfister, L., Bui, T. V., Alexander, M. J., Podglajen, A., ... & Schoeberl, M. R. (2016). High-frequency gravity waves and homogeneous ice nucleation in tropical tropopause layer cirrus. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 43(12), 6629-6635.

Jin, M. (2006). MODIS observed seasonal and interannual variations of atmospheric conditions associated with the hydrological cycle over Tibetan Plateau. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 33(19).

Kobayashi, S., Ota, Y., Harada, Y., Ebita, A., Moriya, M., Onoda, H., ... & Miyaoka, K. (2015). The JRA-55 reanalysis: General specifications and basic characteristics. *J. Meteorol. Soc. Jpn.*, 93(1), 5-48.

Li, Q., Jiang, J. H., Wu, D. L., Read, W. G., Livesey, N. J., Waters, J. W., ... & Turquety, S. (2005). Convective outflow of South Asian pollution: A global CTM simulation compared with EOS MLS observations. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 32(14).

Liebmann, B., & Smith, C. A. (1996). Description of a complete (interpolated) outgoing longwave radiation dataset. *Bull. Amer. Meteor. Soc.*, 77(6), 1275-1277.

Liu, Z., Vaughan, M., Winker, D., Kittaka, C., Getzewich, B., Kuehn, R., ... & Hostetler, C. (2009). The CALIPSO lidar cloud and aerosol discrimination: Version 2 algorithm and initial assessment of performance. *J. Atmos. Oceanic Technol.*, 26(7), 1198-1213.

Luo, Y., Zhang, R., Qian, W., Luo, Z., & Hu, X. (2011). Intercomparison of deep convection over the Tibetan Plateau-Asian monsoon region and subtropical North America in boreal summer using CloudSat/CALIPSO data. *J. Climate*, 24(8), 2164-2177.

Lu J., Wang F., Liu H. and Lin P. (2016), Stationary mesoscale eddies, upgradient eddy fluxes, and the anisotropy of eddy diffusivity, *Geophysical Research Letters*, 43, 743-751.

Lorenz, E. N. (1967), *The Nature and Theory of the General Circulation of Atmosphere*, 31 pp., World Meteorol. Organ.

McFarquhar, G. M., Heymsfield, A. J., Spinhirne, J., & Hart, B. (2000). Thin and subvisual tropopause tropical cirrus: Observations and radiative impacts. *J. Atmos. Sci.*, 57(12), 1841-1853.

Impact of large-scale dynamics on the microphysical properties of midlatitude cirrus. *J. Geophys. Res.*, 119(7), 3976-3996.

Nazaryan, H., McCormick, M. P., & Menzel, W. P. (2008). Global characterization of cirrus clouds using CALIPSO data. *J. Geophys. Res.*, 113(D16).

Onogi, K., et al. (2007), The JRA-25 reanalysis, *J. Meteorol. Soc. Jpn.*, 85(3), 369–432.

Pandit, A. K., Gadhavi, H., Ratnam, M. V., Jayaraman, A., Raghunath, K., & Rao, S. V. B. (2014). Characteristics of cirrus clouds and tropical tropopause layer: Seasonal variation and long-term trends. *J. Atmos. Solar-Terrestrial Phys.*, 121, 248-256.

Park, M., Randel, W. J., Emmons, L. K., & Livesey, N. J. (2009). Transport pathways of carbon monoxide in the Asian summer monsoon diagnosed from Model of Ozone and Related Tracers (MOZART). *J. Geophys. Res.*, 114(D8).

Pfister, L., Selkirk, H. B., Jensen, E. J., Schoeberl, M. R., Toon, O. B., Browell, E. V., ... & Hintsa, E. (2001). Aircraft observations of thin cirrus clouds near the tropical tropopause. *J. Geophys. Res.*, 106(D9), 9765-9786.

Prabhakara, C., Kratz, D. P., Yoo, J. M., Dalu, G., & Vernekar, A. (1993). Optically thin cirrus clouds: Radiative impact on the warm pool. *J. Quant. Spectrosc. Radiat. Transfer*, 49(5), 467-483.

Randel, W. J., Park, M., Emmons, L., Kinnison, D., Bernath, P., Walker, K. A., ... & Pumphrey, H. (2010). Asian monsoon transport of pollution to the stratosphere. *Science*, 328(5978), 611-613.

Randel, W. J., & Jensen, E. J. (2013). Physical processes in the tropical tropopause layer and their roles in a changing climate. *Nat. Geosci.*, 6(3), 169.

Riihimaki, L. D., & McFarlane, S. A. (2010). Frequency and morphology of tropical tropopause layer cirrus from CALIPSO observations: Are isolated cirrus different from those connected to deep convection?. *J. Geophys. Res.*, 115(D18).

Rosenfield, J. E., Considine, D. B., Schoeberl, M. R., & Browell, E. V. (1998). The impact of subvisible cirrus clouds near the tropical tropopause on stratospheric water vapor. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 25(11), 1883-1886.

Rossow, W. B., & Schiffer, R. A. (1991). ISCCP cloud data products. *Bull. Am. Meteorol. Soc.*, 72(1), 2-20.

Rossow, W. B., & Schiffer, R. A. (1999). Advances in understanding clouds from ISCCP. *Bull. Am. Meteorol. Soc.*, 80(11), 2261-2288.

Sassen, K. E. N. N. E. T. H., & Mace, G. G. (2002). Ground based remote sensing of cirrus clouds (pp. 168-209). Oxford, New York, NY.

Sassen, K., Wang, Z., & Liu, D. (2009). Cirrus clouds and deep convection in the tropics: Insights from CALIPSO and CloudSat. *J. Geophys. Res.*, 114(D4).

Solomon, S., Qin, D., Manning, M., Averyt, K., & Marquis, M. (Eds.). (2007). Climate change 2007-the physical science basis: Working group I contribution to the fourth assessment report of the IPCC (Vol. 4). Cambridge university press.

Sun, X., Sun, Y., Zhou, Z., Alam, M. A., & Bermel, P. (2017). Radiative sky cooling: fundamental physics, materials, structures, and applications. *Nanophotonics*, 6(5), 997-1015.

Thomason, L. W., & Vernier, J. P. (2013). Improved SAGE II cloud/aerosol categorization and observations of the Asian tropopause aerosol layer: 1989–2005. *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 13(9), 4605-4616.

Thorsen, T. J., Fu, Q., Comstock, J. M., Sivaraman, C., Vaughan, M. A., Winker, D. M., & Turner, D. D. (2013). Macrophysical properties of tropical cirrus clouds from the CALIPSO satellite and from ground-based micropulse and Raman lidars. *J. Geophys. Res.*, 118(16), 9209-9220.

Vaughan, M. A., Powell, K. A., Winker, D. M., Hostetler, C. A., Kuehn, R. E., Hunt, W. H., ... & McGill, M. J. (2009). Fully automated detection of cloud and aerosol layers in the CALIPSO lidar measurements. *J. Atmos. Oceanic Technol.*, 26(10), 2034-2050.

Vernier, J. P., Thomason, L. W., & Kar, J. (2011). CALIPSO detection of an Asian tropopause aerosol layer. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 38(7).

Wang, P. H., Minnis, P., McCormick, M. P., Kent, G. S., & Skeens, K. M. (1996). A 6-year climatology of cloud occurrence frequency from Stratospheric Aerosol and Gas Experiment II observations (1985–1990). *J. Geophys. Res.*, 101(D23), 29407-29429.

Webb, E. K. (1958). Vanishing potential temperature gradients in strong convection. *Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society*, 84(360), 118-125.

Winker, D. M., & Trepte, C. R. (1998). Laminar cirrus observed near the tropical tropopause by LITE. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 25(17), 3351-3354.

Winker, D. M., Vaughan, M. A., Omar, A., Hu, Y., Powell, K. A., Liu, Z., ... & Young, S. A. (2009). Overview of the CALIPSO mission and CALIOP data processing algorithms. *J. Atmos. Oceanic Technol.*, 26(11), 2310-2323.

Wu, G. X. (1984). The nonlinear response of the atmosphere to large-scale mechanical and thermal forcing. *J. Atmos. Sci.*, 41(16), 2456-2476.

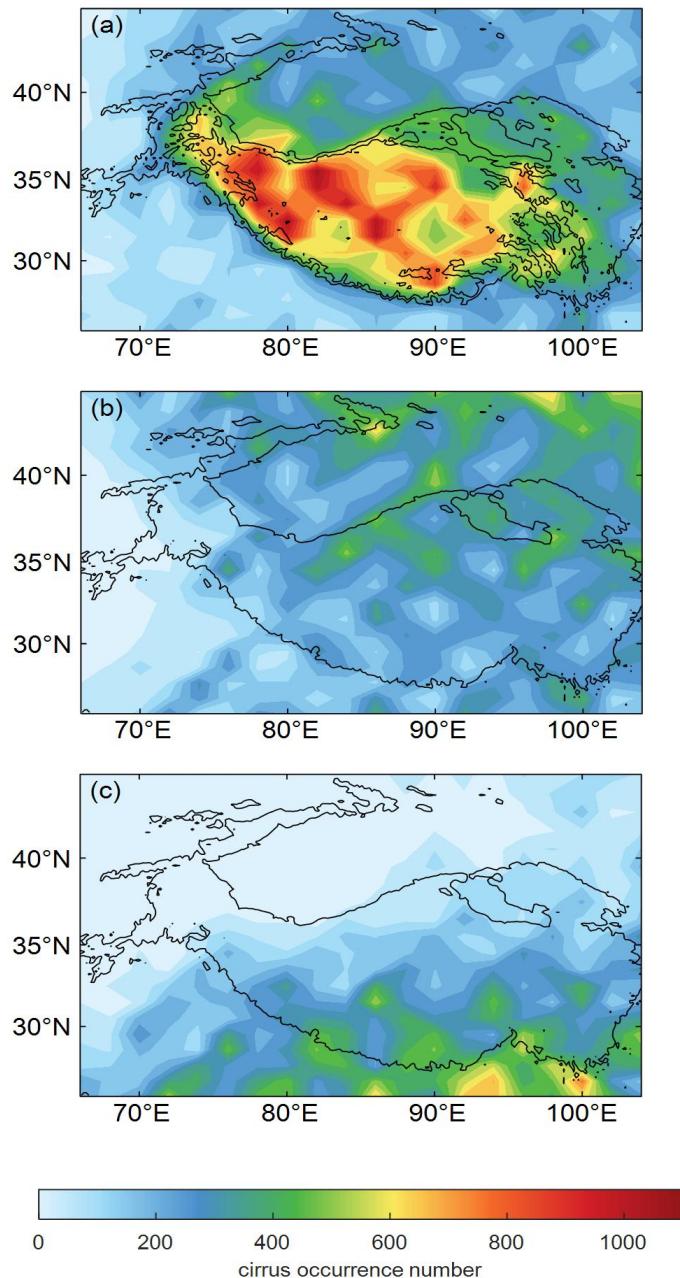
Yan, Y., Liu, Y., & Lu, J. (2016). Cloud vertical structure, precipitation, and cloud radiative effects over Tibetan Plateau and its neighboring regions. *J. Geophys. Res.*, 121(10), 5864-5877.

Yanai, M., C. Li., & Z, Song. (1992), Seasonal heating of the Tibetan Plateau and its effects on the evolution of the Asian summer monsoon, *J. Meteorol. Soc. Jpn.*, 70, 319–351

Yanai, M., & Li, C. (1994). Mechanism of heating and the boundary layer over the Tibetan Plateau. *Mon. Wea. Rev.*, 122(2), 305-323.

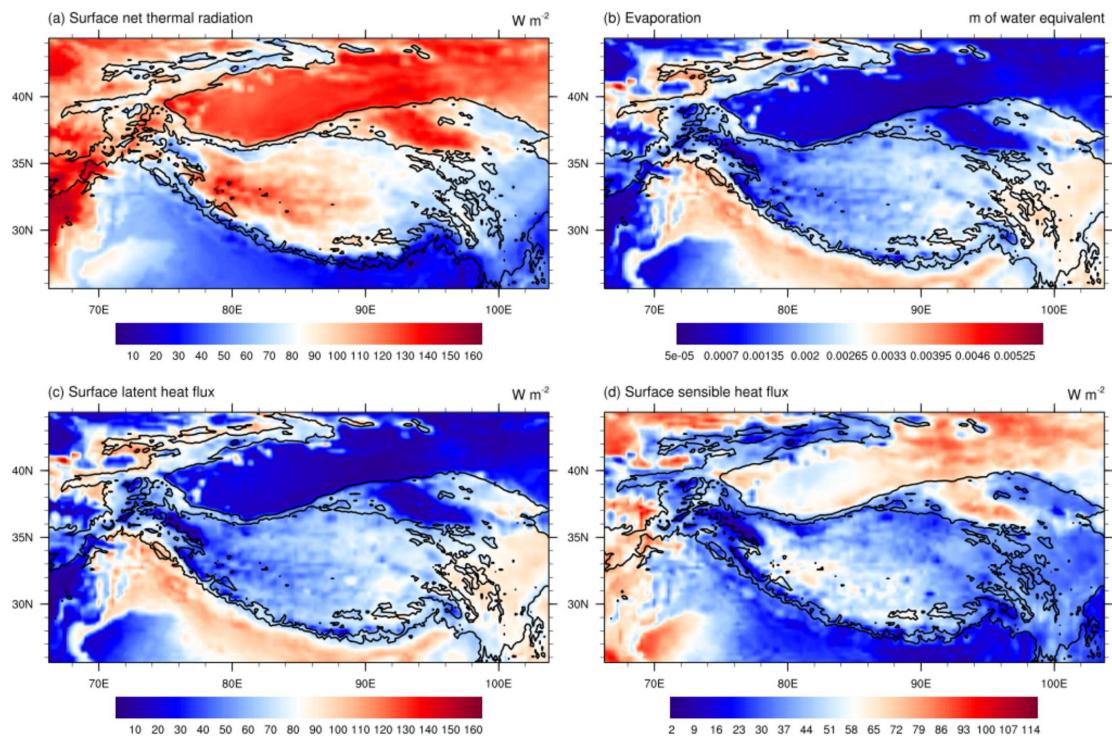
Zerefos, C. S., Eleftheratos, K., Balis, D. S., Zanis, P., Tselioudis, G., & Meleti, C. (2003). Evidence of impact of aviation on cirrus cloud formation. *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 3(5), 1633-1644.

## Effective Sampling Number

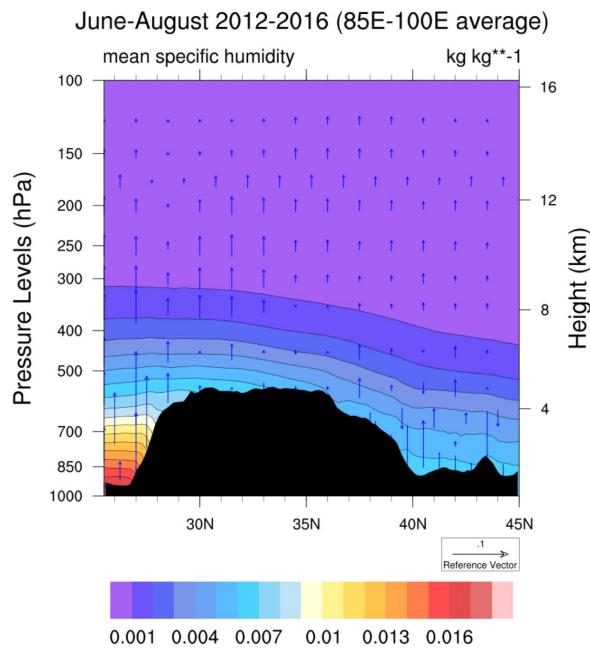
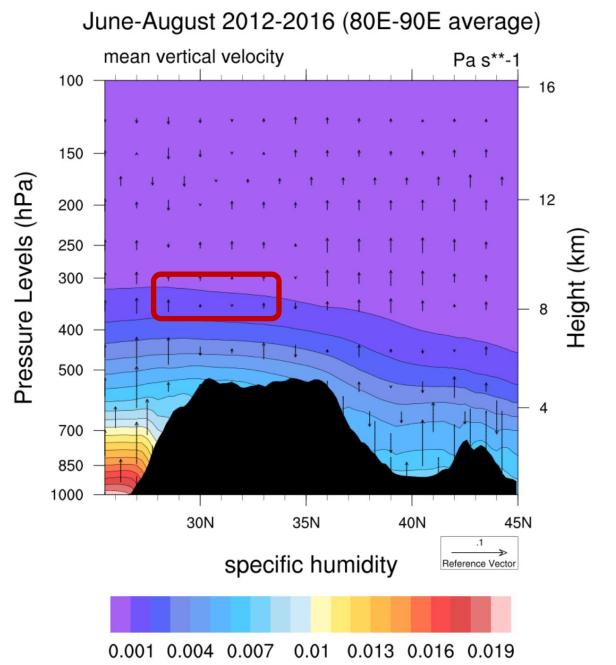


**Figure 1: Distribution of cirrus occurrence numbers during the June-August period from 2012-2016. The cirrus top height is (a) below 9 km, (b) 9 - 12 km (c) above 12 km. In (a), the inner and outer black curves represent the topographic height of 4500 m and 3000 m, respectively. In (b) and (c), the black curves represent the topographic height of 3000 m.**

### 2012-2016 summer monthly mean surface variables

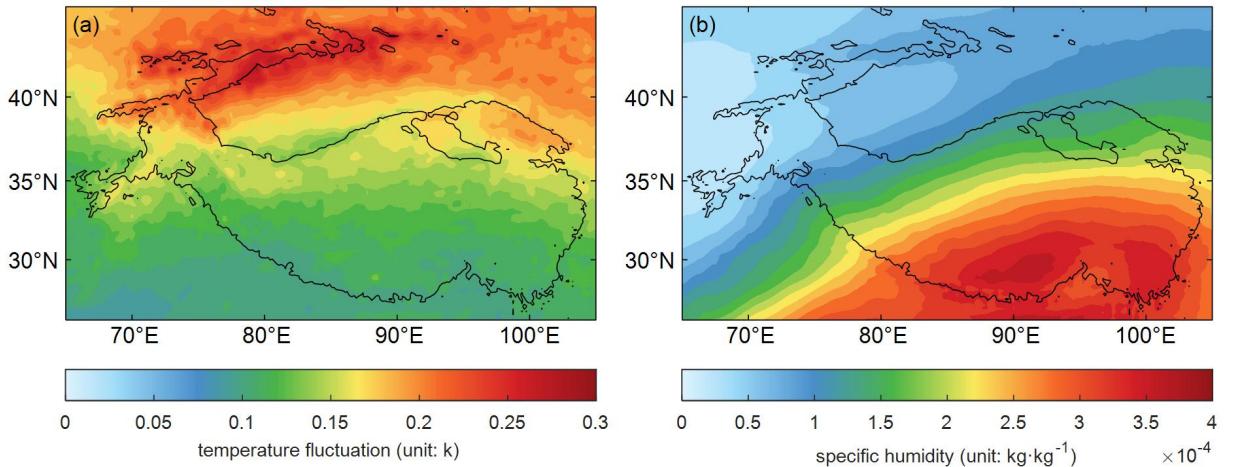


**Figure 2: Geographical distribution of monthly mean surface (a) radiation cooling, (b) surface evaporation (c) latent heat flux, and (d) sensible heat flux over Tibetan Plateau. The study period is June, July and August from 2012 to 2016.**

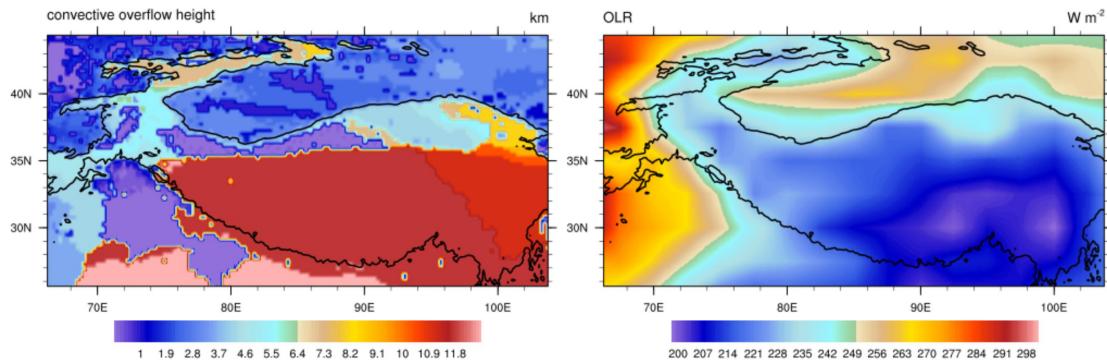


**Figure 3. the zonal distribution of vertical winds averaged from (a) 80E to 90E and (b) 85E to 100E for each latitude. The contour is specific humidity.**

2012-2016 summer 0-2&12-14 UTC



**Figure 4: Geographical distribution of (a) temperature fluctuation and (b) 5-year averaged specific humidity at 250 hPa (about 11 to 12km).**



**Figure 5. Distribution of (a) convective overflow height and (b) OLR.**

**Table 1.** The pattern correlation coefficients between the two variables. The \* represents coefficients passing the t-test at  $\geq 99\%$  confidence level.

| pattern correlation coefficient | topographic height | convection outflow level | OLR     |
|---------------------------------|--------------------|--------------------------|---------|
| cirrus number (<9 km)           | 93.7%*             | -                        | -       |
| cirrus number(12-15 km)         | -                  | 77.9%*                   | -66.6%* |