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Variation in shortwave water vapour continuum and impact on clear-sky shortwave radiative feedback.

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Abstract. This work assesses the impact of the current differences in the strength of the shortwave water vapour continuum on clear-sky calculations of shortwave radiative feedback. Four continuum models were used: the MT_CKD (Mlawer-Tobin-Clough-Kneizys-Davies; versions 2.5, 3.2 and 4.1.1) and CAVIAR (Continuum Absorption at Visible and Infrared Wavelengths and its Atmospheric Relevance) models. Radiative transfer calculations were performed with the ECMWF radiation scheme ('ecRad'). The correlated *k*-distribution gas-optics tables required for ecRad computations were trained with each of these continuum models using the ECMWF software tool. The gas-optics tables trained with the different continuum models were used alternatively in the shortwave. The atmosphere configuration was; fixed surface temperatures (T_S) between 270–330K, fixed relative humidity at 80%, a moist adiabatic lapse rate for the tropospheric temperature and an isothermal stratosphere with the tropopause temperature fixed at 175K. At T_S =288K, it was found that the revisions of the MT_CKD model in the shortwave over the last decade have a modest effect (~0.3%) on the estimated shortwave feedback. Compared to MT_CKD 4.1.1, the stronger CAVIAR model has a relatively greater impact; the shortwave feedback is ~0.006$Wm^{-2}K^{-1}$(~1.6%) more positive. The uncertainty in the shortwave feedback increases up to 0.008$Wm^{-2}K^{-1}$(~2.0%) between the MT_CKD models and 0.018$Wm^{-2}K^{-1}$(~4.6%) between CAVIAR and MT_CKD 4.1.1 models at T_S≈300K. Constraining the shortwave continuum will contribute to reducing the non-negligible shortwave feedback uncertainties at higher T_S.

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1. Introduction

The concept of radiative-convective equilibrium (RCE), in which there is an energy balance between radiative cooling of the atmosphere and convective heating, is the simplest possible description of the climate system. Observations show that this idealisation of the climate system is a fairly accurate simplification of the tropical atmosphere (e.g., Popke et al., 2013; Kluft et al., 2019). Thus, different hierarchies of RCE atmospheric models have been used to study the Earth's tropical climate over the years (see, for example, Becker and Wing, 2020 and references therein). In particular, RCE models have in the last decade been used to investigate, equilibrium climate sensitivity (ECS), radiative feedbacks, precipitation extremes and equilibrium climate as well the factors that influence them (e.g., Popke et al., 2013; Meraner et al., 2013; Reed et al., 2015; Dacie et al., 2019; Kluft et al., 2019; Becker and Wing, 2020; Wing et al., 2020).

Despite having the fewest number of interactive processes within the RCE model hierarchy, the one-dimensional (1D) RCE model is fundamental in obtaining the first estimates of radiative feedbacks and ECS, which are important for understanding climate and climate change of the tropics (e.g., Ramanathan and Coakley, 1978). For example, Manabe and Wetherald (1967) used a 1D RCE model to robustly estimate the ECS and water vapour feedback that have stood the test of time. However, there have been significant disagreements over the values of these (and other) quantities calculated from 1D RCE models (e.g., Schlesinger, 1986; Kluft et al., 2019). Factors that may lead to uncertainties in ID RCE calculations of these climate parameters include; vertical relative humidity (RH) distribution, concentration of atmospheric gases, clouds and radiative transfer calculations. Recently, Bourdin et al. (2021) and Kluft et al. (2019) have shown that differences in the vertical distribution of RH have a significant impact on 1D RCE clear-sky calculations of radiative feedbacks and ECS. In another study, Dacie et al. (2019) concludes that 1D RCE clear-sky calculations of the tropical tropopause layer and surface climate are sensitive to CO_2 concentration and ozone profile. Kluft (2020) showed that the presence of clouds has a significant impact on 1D RCE calculations of radiative feedbacks and forcings. Kluft et al. (2019) speculated that the differences in the treatment of radiative transfer may be an additional reason for some discrepancies in estimated climate quantities, such as ECS, by different 1D RCE studies. But they did not specify the aspect (s) of radiative transfer that could contribute to these uncertainties.

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The atmospheric absorption by water vapour is an essential aspect of radiative transfer calculations in 1D RCE (and other climate) models (e.g., Kratz, 2008). Unlike the water vapour spectral-line absorption which is well-understood, absorption by the water vapour continuum is still uncertain, with larger uncertainties in atmospheric windows at shorter wavelengths (e.g., Shine et al., 2016). The uncertainties in the water vapour continuum absorption have contributed to discrepancies in the estimation of the shortwave absorption from climate models, with an increase in the continuum absorption in recent global climate models leading to an increase in shortwave absorption and better agreement with observations (e.g., Wild, 2020 and references therein). Using the Community Earth System Model, Kim et al. (2022) showed that an increase in shortwave absorption by water vapour could lead to a reduction in the global-mean rainfall. However, it should be noted that Kim et al. (2022) did not directly associate this increase in water vapour absorption to the continuum.

Most radiative transfer codes used in climate models parameterise water vapour continuum by the semi-empirical MT_CKD (Mlawer-Tobin-Clough-Kneizys-Davies) model (Mlawer et al., 2012, 2023). Different versions of the MT_CKD model are used in climate models with little or no justification even though the strengths of the water vapour continuum in these versions are significantly different in, especially, shortwave spectral regions. There are also significant disagreements between the strengths of the MT_CKD model and other currently available water vapour continuum models (e.g., Elsey et al., 2020 and associated references). In fact, some recent studies have pointed out that the MT_CKD model may be underestimating the strength of the water vapour continuum at some near-infrared atmospheric windows (e.g., Elsey et al., 2020). An increase in water vapour continuum absorption is expected to have more impact on the tropical atmosphere, since it has a higher water vapour content than the other atmospheres.

A few studies have investigated the effect of longwave water vapour continuum absorption on longwave radiative feedback (e.g., Koll et al., 2023; Roemer et al., 2024). However, equivalent studies in the shortwave have not been reported in the literature. This is clearly an oversight since the contribution of shortwave water vapour continuum absorption to radiative feedback in a warming climate is non-negligible (e.g., Jeevanjee, 2023). This paper presents an investigation on the impact of the uncertainty in the representation of the shortwave water vapour continuum on the clear-sky calculations of shortwave radiative feedback using a 1D RCE model. The radiative transfer calculations of this RCE model were performed using the fast and accurate European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) radiation scheme (Hogan and Bozzo, 2018). The correlated *k*-distribution gas-optics tables for

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the radiative transfer calculations were each trained with the water vapour continuum models selected for this work. These gas-optics tables were generated using the software tool developed recently by Hogan and Matricardi (2022). The rest of this paper is structed as follows: Section 2 will focus on the data and methods. In Section 3, the results from this work will be presented. Section 4 summarises and concludes.

2. Data and methodology

2.1. Water vapour continuum formulation

Four publicly available water vapour continuum models were selected for this study:

- CAVIAR (Continuum Absorption at Visible and Infrared Wavelengths and its Atmospheric Relevance) model (Ptashnik et al., 2011, 2012): This model was derived from extrapolated higher temperature laboratory measurements, but the self-continuum coefficients used here are from a recent update by Jon Elsey and Keith Shine in 2020 (Keith Shine, 2023, personal communication).
- MT_CKD 4.1.1 (Mlawer et al., 2012, 2023): This is the most recent version of the MT_CKD continuum model at the time this work was done.
- MT_CKD 3.2 (Mlawer et al., 2012): This version resulted from a major revision of previous version(s) of the MT_CKD continuum model.
- MT_CKD 2.5 (Mlawer et al., 2012): This is arguably the most widely used version of the MT_CKD continuum model and is still used in some climate models today. For example, it is used by the UK Met Office Unified Global Atmosphere 7.0/7.1 model (Walters et al., 2019).

Note that the strengths of other publicly available water vapour models, such as the BPS-MTCKD model (version 2.0; Paynter and Ramaswamy, 2014), fall within the range of the models selected here and thus there was no added value including them in this study. Figure 1 (a) shows the absorption coefficients of these continuum models from about 0 – 20,000 cm^{-1} in the 920 m thick atmospheric layer between ~960 hPa and ~860 hPa for the median profile of the Correlated K-Distribution Model Intercomparison Project datasets (CKDMIP; Hogan and Matricardi, 2020) while Figure 1(b) shows the absorption coefficient ratio of the other continuum models with that of MT_CKD 4.1.1 model. The CAVIAR model is generally stronger than the other models (Figure 1(a)) in most atmospheric windows and some bands. Figure 1(b) shows that the CAVIAR model is much stronger than the MT_CKD 4.1.1 model in near-infrared windows, where it is up to a factor of 7 stronger at the 6000 cm^{-1} (1.6 μm)

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window. The MT_CKD 2.5 model is also stronger than the MT_CKD 4.1.1 in the 2500 cm^{-1} (5 μm) window, but weaker in most regions of the shortwave. Between about 250 – 700 cm^{-1}, the MT_CKD 4.1.1 model is weaker than the other three models, except from about 250 – 350 cm^{-1} where the MT_CKD 2.5 model is weaker. The MT_CKD 3.2 and MT_CKD 4.1.1 models only differ in far-infrared region from 250 – 700 cm^{-1}, where the MT_CKD 3.2 is slightly stronger by a factor of up to about 1.3.

Figure 1(c) shows the terrestrial spectrum from 0 – 2000 cm^{-1} and solar spectrum from 2000 – 20000 cm^{-1} for a tropical atmosphere. Comparing these irradiances with the absorption coefficient ratios in Figure 1(b), it can be clearly seen that, in the shortwave, the continuum models differ most at near-infrared windows from about 2500 – 10000 cm^{-1}.

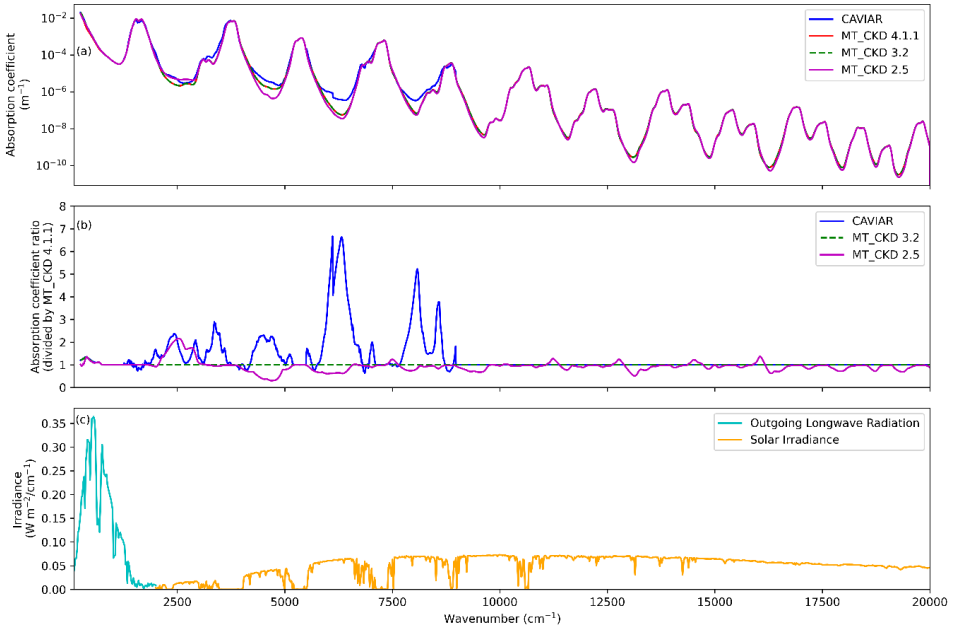

Figure 1. (a) Atmospheric absorption coefficients of CAVIAR (blue), MT_CKD 4.1.1 (red), MT_CKD 3.2 (green) and MT_CKD 2.5 (purple) continuum models from 0 – 20,000 cm^{-1}. (b) Absorption coefficient ratios of the other continuum models with that of the MT_CKD 4.1.1 model. These absorption coefficients are for the 920 m thick atmospheric layer between ~960 hPa and ~860 hPa with temperatures about 289 K and 286 K and water vapour mole fraction about 0.0137 and 0.0101 and for the median profile of the CKDMIP datasets. The absorption coefficients were calculated by simply dividing layer optical depths of the CKDMIP median profile by the layer thickness of 920 m calculated with the Hypsometric equation. (c) Low resolutions outgoing longwave radiation from

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the Earth's surface (cyan) and solar irradiance at ~960 hPa (orange). These irradiances were calculated for a tropical atmosphere using the Atmospheric Radiative Transfer Simulator (ARTS; Buehler et al., 2018, 2024).

2.2. Generation of correlated *k*-distribution gas-optics tables

As stated in Section 1, the selected water vapour continuum models were parameterised in *k*-distribution gas-optics tables (or models) required for radiative transfer calculations in the RCE model.

Recently, Hogan and Matricardi (2022) developed a flexible and efficient software tool ('ecCKD') that can be used to generate accurate correlated *k*-distribution gas-optics models for radiation schemes of atmospheric models. These ecCKD gas-optics tables with fewer *k*-terms (*g*-points) than other models, such as the widely used Rapid Radiative Transfer Model for GCMs (RRTMG; Mlawer et al., 1997) gas-optics models, were shown to be very accurate under clear-sky conditions by validating them against line-by-line (LBL) radiative transfer calculations on independent data (Hogan and Matricardi, 2022). The flexibility of ecCKD software tool allows the use of alternative water vapour continuum models for the training of *k*-distribution gas-optics tables. This flexibility was exploited to generate the gas-optics tables used for this work.

The CKDMIP datasets, each consisting of spectral layer optical depths of 9 individual gases (H_2O, O_3, O_2, N_2, CO_2, CH_4, N_2O, CFC-11 and CFC-12) in both the longwave (0 – 3260 cm^{-1}) and shortwave (250 – 50, 000 cm^{-1}), described by Hogan and Matricardi (2020) were used. These optical depths were computed using the Line-By-Line Radiative Transfer Model (LBLRTM; Clough et al., 2005), version 12.8, which incorporates MT_CKD 3.2 water vapour continuum (and continua of other gases). The datasets used here are made up of 64 profiles for generating ecCKD gas-optics models and 50 profiles for independent evaluation.

To quantify the uncertainties in the water vapour continuum absorption on the gas-optics tables produced using these datasets, Hogan and Matricardi (2020) produced an additional set of water vapour profiles without the continuum. The continuum models selected for this work were added to these water vapour continuum-free profiles in turn and used together with the profiles of the other gases to generate the gas-optics tables. Four ecCKD gas-

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optics tables, trained by each of the 4 water vapour continuum models described in Section 2.1, were generated as described in Hogan and Matricardi (2022) and Hogan (2022).

These gas-optics tables were generated for climate applications, as this is the focus of this work (see Table 1, Hogan and Matricardi (2020)). The concentrations of gases and emission scenarios shown in Table 2 of Hogan and Matricardi (2020) were used. The following band structure were used: the RGB (red, green, blue) band structure with a heating-rate tolerance of 0.047 K d^{-1} for the shortwave and FSCK (full-spectrum correlated-*k*) band structure with a heating-rate tolerance of 0.0161 K d^{-1} for the longwave. These specifications resulted gas-optics models with 32 *k*-terms in the shortwave and 32 to 34 *k*-terms in the longwave. See Hogan and Matricardi (2022) and Hogan (2022) for details of these specifications.

The generated gas-optics models were evaluated using LBL fluxes calculated from them (as described in Hogan, 2022) and LBL fluxes from the 50 profiles independent dataset. Figures 2 and 3 show, respectively, the evaluation of the longwave and shortwave gas-optics models both trained with MT_CKD 4.1.1 for present-day concentrations of the well mixed greenhouse gases. Note that although we generated perturbed versions of both the longwave and shortwave gas-optics tables, only the shortwave perturbed gas-optics tables were actually used.

Figure 2 shows that the errors in the longwave fluxes do not exceed 2 W m^{-2} from the surface to the top-of-the-atmosphere while the root-mean-square error in the heating rates from the surface to the upper stratosphere (4 hPa) is only about 0.10 K d^{-1}.

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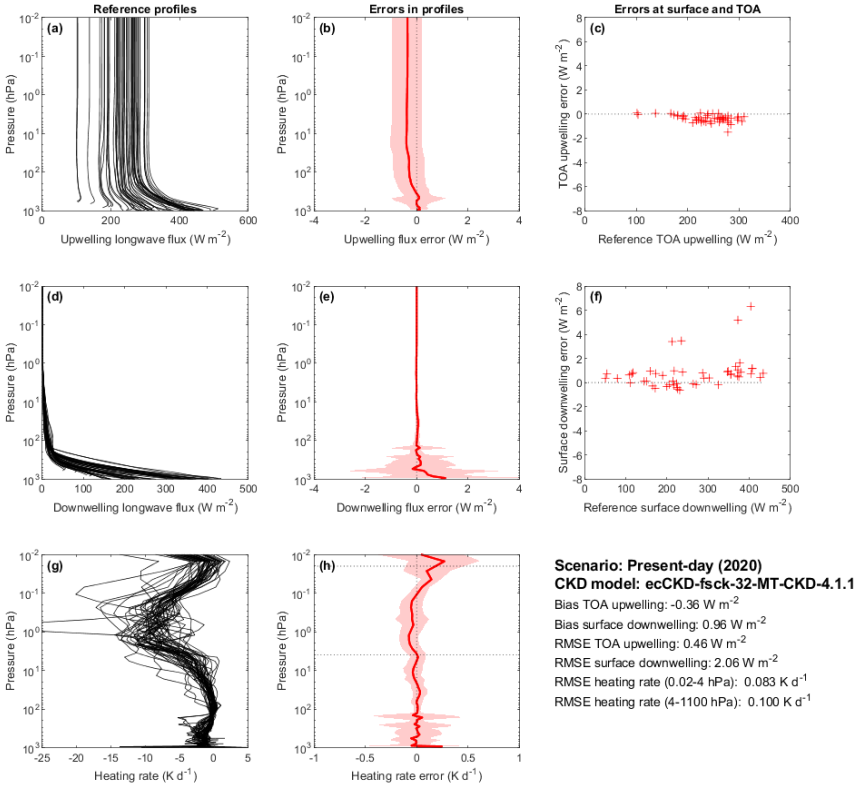

Figure 2: An evaluation of clear-sky longwave fluxes and heating rates from an ecCKD gas-optics table trained with the MT_CKD 4.1.1 continuum model for the 50 independent profiles of the CKDMIP evaluation data set with present-day concentrations of greenhouse gases. Upwelling fluxes, downwelling fluxes and heating rates from the reference line-by-line calculations are shown in panels (a, d, g), while panels (b, e, h) show the corresponding biases in the calculations using the generated ecCKD gas-optics table. 95 % of the errors are within the shaded areas. Panels (c and f) depict instantaneous errors in upwelling top-of-atmosphere and downwelling surface fluxes. The statistics of the comparison are summarized in the bottom right panel.

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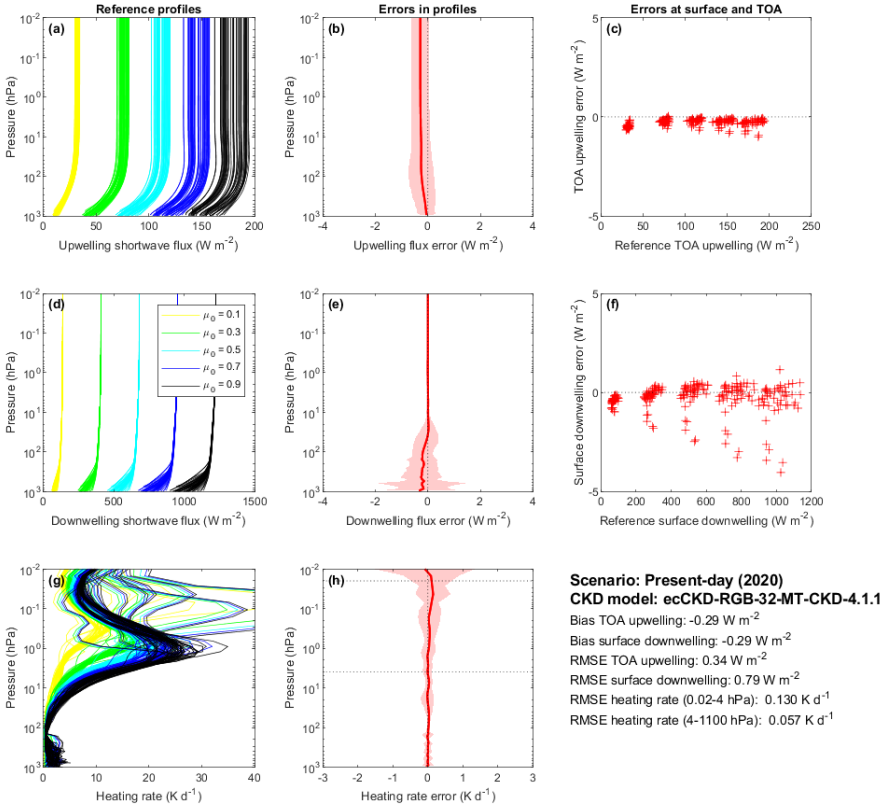

Figure 3: As in Figure 2 but for the shortwave. The reference line-by-line calculations in panels (a, d, g) are for all 50 CKDMIP evaluation profiles at five values of the cosine of the solar zenith angle, μ_0 (0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 0.7, and 0.9). This gives a total of 250 combinations that are used in the subsequent evaluation.

For the shortwave, the errors in the fluxes are about 1 W m^{-2} or less at all vertical levels as Figure 3 shows. This figure also shows that the heating rates errors are small, with the root-mean-square error in the heating rates from the surface to the upper stratosphere being only about 0.057 K d^{-1}.

For the gas-optics tables trained with the other three water vapour continuum models (MT_CKD 2.5, MT_CKD 3.2 and CAVIAR), both the shortwave and longwave errors in the upwelling fluxes, downwelling fluxes and heating rates are also small.

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2.3. Radiation scheme

The Python code konrad (Dacie et al., 2019; Kluft et al., 2019) was used to construct the moist adiabatic atmosphere for the different surface temperatures (see Section 2.4) and to call the radiation scheme.

The default code for radiative transfer calculations in konrad is the Rapid Radiative Transfer Model for GCMs (RRTMG), a radiation scheme that is widely used in global and regional climate models (e.g., Pincus et al., 2015).

However, for this study, the offline version of the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) radiation scheme ('ecRad'; Hogan and Bozzo, 2018) was used in konrad through Python subprocesses. ecRad is an efficient, flexible, and fast radiation scheme that is currently used in ECMWF Integrated Forecast System (IFS) and other models such as ICON (Icosahedral Nonhydrostatic) of the German Weather Service. Five solvers, including a 'cloudless' solver, are currently available in ecRad. The flexibility of this radiation scheme, which is based on its modular structure, enables it to be adapted for different uses. This flexibility was exploited to use any of the generated gas-optics models during each konrad run. Also, since the focus of this study is on clear-sky conditions, radiative transfer calculations were performed using the 'cloudless' solver of ecRad.

2.4. Model configuration and calculations

Unless otherwise specified, all the calculations carried out in this study use the following configuration of konrad.

The atmosphere was constructed on 512 levels of temperature and water vapour volume mixing ratio between 1000 and 0.01 hPa with no diurnal cycle. As recommended by the Radiative Convective Equilibrium Model Intercomparison Project (RCEMIP; Wing et al., 2018), the solar constant was set to 551.58 W m^{-2} and the zenith angle to 42.05°, resulting in an insolation of 409.6 W m^{-2}. The surface in the model has a fixed surface temperature with prescribed values from 270 to 330 K (in 1 K increments) and an albedo is 0.2. Atmospheric temperature was set to follow a moist adiabat in the troposphere with the tropopause temperature fixed at 175 K. This moist adiabatic temperature profile is consistent with the assumption of RCE (e.g. Jeevanjee, 2023). Since the stratosphere is more in radiative equilibrium rather than RCE, it was represented as an isothermal layer with this fixed tropopause temperature. This restriction also eliminates any stratospheric feedbacks. This is

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the same setup as in, for example, Kluft et al. (2021), Jeevanjee (2023) and Roemer et al. (2024).

The relative humidity (RH) was set at a constant value of 80 % throughout the troposphere up to the cold-point tropopause. For the tropics, this value is higher than the observed average value of about 40 % from the mid to upper troposphere (e.g., Bourdin et al., 2021), but it was chosen to ensure that the amount of humidity in the upper levels of the troposphere is adequate for the interaction of lapse-rate and water-vapour feedbacks (Kluft et al., 2021). In the stratosphere, the specific humidity is kept constant at the value obtained at the cold-point tropopause. The concentrations of the other trace gases used are those specified by Kluft et al. (2019), including a CO_2 concentration of 348 ppmv and the ozone concentration profile defined according to RCEMIP guidelines.

The shortwave climate feedback parameter (λ_{SW}) was calculated using the fixed-temperature method (Kluft et al., 2021) at a constant CO_2 concentration of 348 ppmv and surface temperature, T_S, from:

$$\lambda_{SW} = \frac{\Delta R(T_S + \Delta T) - \Delta R(T_S - \Delta T)}{2\Delta T}, \quad (1)$$

where ΔR is the net shortwave radiation at the top of the atmosphere and $\Delta T = 1$ K. Kluft et al. (2021) have justified the use of this fixed-temperature method by proving that results from it are in a very good agreement with those from the more frequently used linear regression method of Gregory et al. (2004) and have the advantage of being numerically more stable. For each T_S, we adjusted the tropospheric temperature (T) and water vapour mixing ratio (q) to the moist adiabat and calculated the clear-sky shortwave radiation. We then calculated λ_{SW} from Equation (1). This process is summarised in this simple flow chart: $T_S \rightarrow$ tropospheric T and q profiles RCE adjustment $\rightarrow$ shortwave radiation $\rightarrow$ calculate λ_{SW}.

3. Results and discussion

For the atmospheric configuration described in Section 2.4, experiments were carried out in which the gas-optics table trained with the MT_CKD 2.5, MT_CKD 3.2 and CAVIAR continuum models was alternatively used for the shortwave radiation. The effect of the shortwave water vapour continuum uncertainty on the estimation of radiative feedback was obtained by comparing results from experiments in which MT_CKD 2.5, MT_CKD 3.2 and

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CAVIAR models were used with those from an experiment in which the MT_CKD 4.1.1 trained gas-optics table was used.

3.1 Radiative feedbacks for present-day surface temperature.

3.1.1 Longwave feedback

For the clear-sky RCE framework adopted in this study, the longwave radiative feedback parameter, λ_{LW}, could also be calculated using Equation 1. In this case, ΔR is the net longwave radiation at the top of the atmosphere. We remark here that the longwave feedback is not the focus of this paper but was calculated for comparison with previous estimates.

For the MT_CKD 4.1.1 model, the estimated clear-sky longwave feedback parameter at 288 K surface temperature from this work, $\lambda_{LW} \approx$ -1.864 W m^{-2} K^{-1}, agrees fairly well with the values of λ_{LW} obtained from similar 1D studies for present-day average surface temperatures. For example, at 288 K surface temperature, Xu and Koll (2024), Koll et al. (2023) and Kluft et al. (2021) obtained values of about -1.9 W m^{-2} K^{-1}, -2.0 W m^{-2} K^{-1} and -1.8 W m^{-2} K^{-1}, respectively for the clear-sky longwave feedback parameter.

3.1.2 Shortwave feedback

At T_S = 288 K, the clear-sky shortwave climate feedback parameters (λ_{SW}) calculated are; 0.364 W m^{-2} K^{-1}, 0.365 W m^{-2} K^{-1}, and 0.371 W m^{-2} K^{-1} for MT_CKD 2.5, MT_CKD 3.2 and CAVIAR continuum models respectively. For the reference experiment, with the MT_CKD 4.1.1 trained gas-optics table, λ_{SW} = 0.365 W m^{-2} K^{-1}. If needed, the total radiative feedback parameter for each continuum model from this study can be readily obtained by using the additive property of feedbacks; total feedback, $\lambda_{tot} = \lambda_{LW} + \lambda_{SW}$, where λ_{LW} is given in Section 3.1.1.

Under clear-sky conditions, the shortwave feedback is due mainly to the absorption of solar radiation by water vapour. Since the amount of atmospheric water vapour depends on temperature, shortwave absorption by water vapour gives an extra positive feedback in climate change. This is because in a warmer world, the amount of water vapour in the atmosphere increases (scaling with the Clausius-Clapeyron relation for a fixed RH). This leads to more absorption of solar radiation, which is a positive feedback. A stronger shortwave continuum means a further increase in absorbed solar radiation in a warming world leading to a stronger positive shortwave feedback. Thus, the shortwave radiative feedback tends to be more positive

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with increasing strength of the shortwave water vapour continuum as the values of λ_{SW} given above show.

The values of λ_{SW} obtained here show that compared to MT_CKD 4.1.1, differences in shortwave MT_CKD models make a negligible contribution to the estimated shortwave radiative feedback. The shortwave feedback using the weaker MT_CKD 2.5 model is only about 0.001 W m^{-2} K^{-1} (~0.3 %) less positive than that with MT_CKD 4.1.1. The feedbacks with MT_CKD 3.2 and 4.1.1 models are equal, which is expected, since their strengths in the shortwave are equal as discussed in Section 2.1. However, relative to MT_CKD 4.1.1, the stronger CAVIAR shortwave continuum model increases the shortwave feedback by about 0.006 W m^{-2} K^{-1} (~1.6 %).

Thus, if the shortwave water vapour continuum absorption is as strong as suggested by the CAVIAR model, then there may be a slight underestimation of clear-sky shortwave radiative feedback from 1D RCE models with the MT_CKD continuum model for present-day surface temperature of 288 K.

3.2. Temperature-dependence of the shortwave radiative feedback

As discussed in Section 3.1.2, the shortwave radiative feedback depends quite strongly on the surface temperature, T_S because there is more moisture in a warmer atmosphere. In this section, the impact of changing T_S on λ_{SW} will be presented. As a function of T_S, Figure 4 (a) shows the variation of λ_{SW} for all four continuum models considered in this study, while Figure 4 (b and c) show respectively, the absolute and percentage continuum induced error in λ_{SW} (with respect to calculations using MT_CKD 4.1.1). Figure 4(a) shows that λ_{SW} increases with T_S for all continuum models (from slightly less than 0.300 W m^{-2} K^{-1} at 270 K to slightly above 0.750 W m^{-2} K^{-1} at 330 K). Increased atmospheric moisture at higher temperatures reduces the upwelling shortwave radiation leading to an increase in the net shortwave radiation at the top of the atmosphere and hence λ_{SW}. This figure shows that the λ_{SW} due to the use of CAVIAR model is not always greater than the λ_{SW} estimated using the other models at all surface temperature as hinted by calculations at T_S = 288 K.

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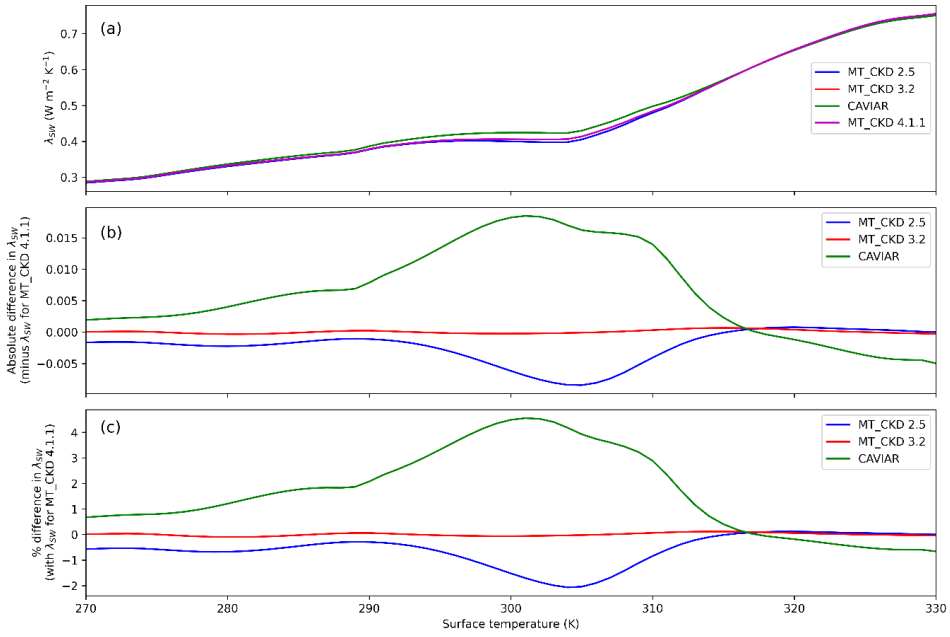

Figure 4. As a function of surface temperature (T_S), (a) variation of clear-sky shortwave climate feedback parameter (λ_{SW}) estimated using the MT_CKD 2.5 (blue), MT_CKD 3.2 (red), CAVIAR (green) and the chosen reference MT_CKD 4.1.1 (magenta) continuum models; (b) absolute difference in λ_{SW} (with respect to values calculated using MT_CKD 4.1.1 model); (c) percent differences in λ_{SW} (with respect to calculations using MT_CKD 4.1.1).

Figure 4(b and c) show that the relative error in λ_{SW} that is induced by the continuum uncertainty also depends relatively strongly on the surface temperature. Compared to shortwave feedback calculated with the MT_CKD 4.1.1 model, the shortwave feedback with the MT_CKD 2.5 model is up to ~0.008 W m^{-2} K^{-1} (~2.0 %) less at a surface temperature of ~305 K. From T_S of about 305 – 315 K, the relative error in estimated shortwave feedbacks due to differences in the strength between these two continuum models is less than this value. For T_S greater than ~318 K, the shortwave feedbacks with both models are equal and the uncertainty in λ_{SW} due to these continuum models is zero. This figure also shows that the uncertainty in estimated shortwave feedbacks due to the differences between the MT_CKD 3.2 and MT_CKD 4.1.1 models is zero (as expected) and show virtually no temperature dependence.

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The estimated shortwave feedback with the CAVIAR model is up to ~0.018 W m^{-2} K^{-1} (~4.6 %) more positive than that with the MT_CKD 4.1.1 model at a surface temperature of ~301 K as Figure 4 (b and c) shows. From T_S of about 301 – 316 K, this relative error decreases with surface temperature. Beyond T_S of about 316 K, the feedback with CAVIAR model is less positive than that with MT_CKD 4.1.1 model and increases negatively with temperature (but only up to about 0.005 W m^{-2} K^{-1} or ~0.7 % less).

The way the continuum induced uncertainty in λ_{SW} changes with surface temperature (Figure 4(b and c)) can presumably be explained by spectral variations in both the water vapour spectroscopy and in the differences between the CAVIAR and MT_CKD models. Shortwave water vapour absorption generally tends to decrease with increasing wavenumber (Figure 1(a)). At the same time, the largest discrepencies between CAVIAR and MT_CKD occur at intermediate wavenumbers within the near-infrared, that is, in the atmosheric windows around 4000 cm^{-1}, 6000 cm^{-1}, and 8000 cm^{-1}, respectively. This is relevant because, broadly speaking, λ_{SW} presumably originates at wavenumbers at which the transmissivity of the atmosphere changes most rapidly, that is, at column-integrated opacities of order unity ($\tau_{col} \approx 1$). At low T_S – and thus low water vapour concentration – $\tau_{col} \approx 1$ primarily occurs within the strong absorption bands below 4000 cm^{-1}, where CAVIAR and MT_CKD are not very different and thus the difference in λ_{SW} is small. As T_S – and thus water vapour concentration – increases, $\tau_{col} \approx 1$ more frequently occurs in the above mentioned windows where CAVIAR and MT_CKD differ substantially. Consequently, a large portion of λ_{SW} originates in these windows at T_S around 300 K, contributing to the substantial uncertainty there. At even higher T_S, $\tau_{col} \approx 1$ occurs at even higher wavenumbers, where the differences between CAVIAR and MT_CKD are small, and thus the uncertainty in λ_{SW} is also small. We remark that this small error in λ_{SW} due to the small differences between the CAVIAR and MT_CKD at wavenumbers higher than ~8000 cm^{-1} may be simply because water vapour continuum has not been successfully measured at these wavenumbers (it has only been extrapolated based on measurements from shorter wavenumbers). The lack of complete understanding of the water vapour continuum at these high wavenumbers may also be responsible for its absorption having little or no impact on estimated λ_{SW} at T_S above about 316 K (Figure 4(b and c)).

The shortwave feedbacks calculated here at temperatures above ~296 K are subjected to two uncertainties. Firstly, the temperature dependence of the water vapour self-continuum in ecRad is fitted at 260 and 296 K. This increases the error in the self-continuum and hence estimated feedbacks for surface temperatures above ~296 K. Secondly, a reduction in the

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validity of some assumptions of the 1D-RCE framework at temperatures greater than 310 K adds to the uncertainties in calculated feedbacks (Kluft et al., 2021).

4. Summary and conclusions

Radiative transfer calculations for a moist adiabatic troposphere at different surface temperatures have been used to study the impact of the differences in the strength of the water vapour continuum in the shortwave spectral region on shortwave radiative feedback. Three versions of the semi-empirical MT_CKD (2.5, 3.2 and 4.1.1) and the laboratory-implied CAVIAR water vapour continuum models were selected for this work. This effect was studied through radiative transfer calculations using shortwave correlated-*k* gas-optics tables trained with different continuum models. The ECMWF fast and accurate radiation scheme was used for the radiative transfer calculations. The atmosphere had a fixed RH of 80 %, a moist adiabatic temperature profile in the troposphere and fixed surface temperature between 270 and 330 K. The stratosphere was considered as an isothermal layer with the tropopause temperature fixed at 175 K.

For present-day average surface temperature of 288 K, an increase in the strength of the shortwave water vapour continuum led to a more positive shortwave feedback. At this temperature, the discrepancies in the strength of the shortwave water vapour continuum lead to very small uncertainties is the estimated shortwave radiative feedback between the three MT_CKD models; only up to about 0.001 W m^{-2} K^{-1} (~0.3 %). However, compared to calculations with the MT_CKD 4.1.1 model, the shortwave feedback due to the use of the stronger CAVIAR continuum is about 0.006 W m^{-2} K^{-1} (~1.6 %) more positive.

The estimated shortwave radiative feedbacks depends relatively strongly on the surface temperature. The relative error in shortwave feedbacks due to changes in the MT_CKD continuum models increases with surface temperature to a maximum of ~0.008 W m^{-2} K^{-1} (~2.0 %) at $T_S \approx 305$ K. When the CAVIAR continuum model was used, the shortwave feedback uncertainty increases with surface temperature to a maximum of ~0.018 W m^{-2} K^{-1} (~4.6 %) at $T_S \approx 300$ K, when compared with that estimated using MT_CKD 4.1.1. The continuum induced error in λ_{SW} is small at low T_S (close to 270 K) and at high T_S (above ~300 K) because of the spectral variations in both the water vapour spectroscopy and in the differences between the CAVIAR and MT_CKD models.

The results from this study show that a revision of the MT_CKD water vapour continuum model in the shortwave over the past decade has a small and negligible effect on the clear-sky shortwave radiative feedback computed from a 1D RCE model for present-day

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average surface temperature. Compared to the MT_CKD 4.1.1 model, the stronger CAVIAR water vapour continuum model has a relatively greater impact on the shortwave radiative feedback at a surface temperature of about 288 K. For higher surface temperatures, the impact of uncertainties of water vapour continuum on the estimation of shortwave feedbacks is higher. Thus, using the MT_CKD model in RCE models may lead to an underestimation of the shortwave feedback, if it is underestimating the strength of the shortwave water vapour continuum as some studies suggest. It is therefore important for the water vapour continuum in the shortwave to be constrained, as this will contribute to reducing the discrepancies in the estimation of shortwave radiative feedback, especially in a warming world.

It has been hypothesised that thin clouds in the atmosphere create a longer pathlength for solar radiation and can thus enhance water vapour continuum absorption at transparency windows in the shortwave. In a future study, we plan to study the impact of this enhanced absorption on radiative feedback.

Author contributions

KM and SB conceptualized and designed the experiments, and KM carried them out. LK and FR contributed to the development of the model code. RH and KM generated the gas-optics tables for the radiative transfer calculations. KM prepared the manuscript with input from all co-authors.

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Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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