

Sonia I. Seneviratne and Christoph Schär
Land-Atmosphere-Climate Interactions
Winter term 2006/07

Land-surface processes in the global energy and water cycles. Part (c)



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Outline

Atmospheric transport

residence times

key circulations

- Hadley circulation
- baroclinic eddies

analysis of transport in atmospheric models

- trajectories
- integrated water flux
- tagging of water vapor

Precipitation

Energy and water movement in soils

Infiltration and formation of runoff

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Residence time and atmospheric transport

Mean residence time of H_2O molecules in the atmosphere: ~8 days

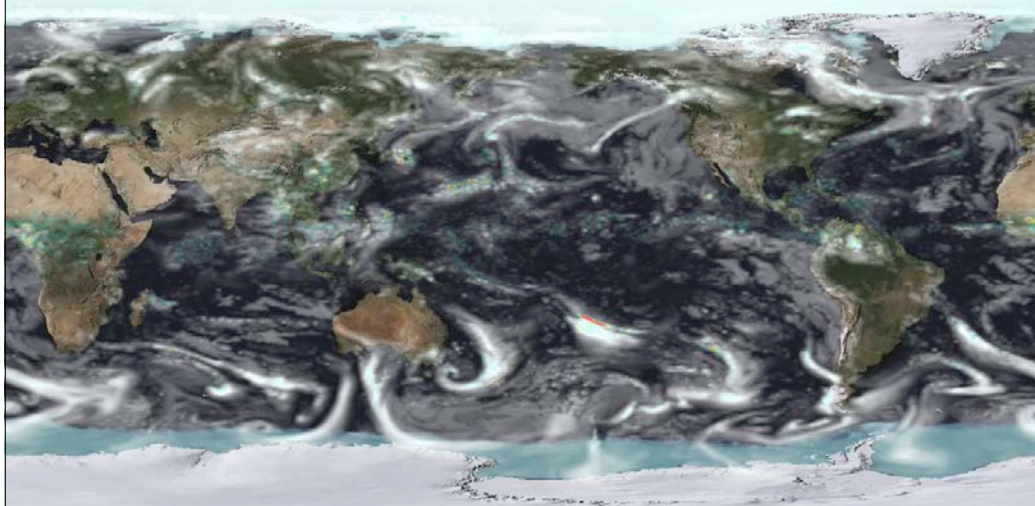
Mean transport distance: ~7000 km (assuming 10 m/s)

Fraction of land evapotranspiration: ~12%

- ⇒ In general regions of high evaporation are not identical to regions of high precipitation
- ⇒ Usually evaporation contributes little to precipitation in same region
- ⇒ Atmospheric transport is decisive. Requires an understanding of the general circulation of the atmosphere.

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Visualization of atmospheric moisture transport



NUGAM (N216 HadGAM1a)

11 AUG 1978 10h UTC

Model by the UJCC Team and UKMO/NCAS collaborators: <http://www.earthsimulator.org.uk>

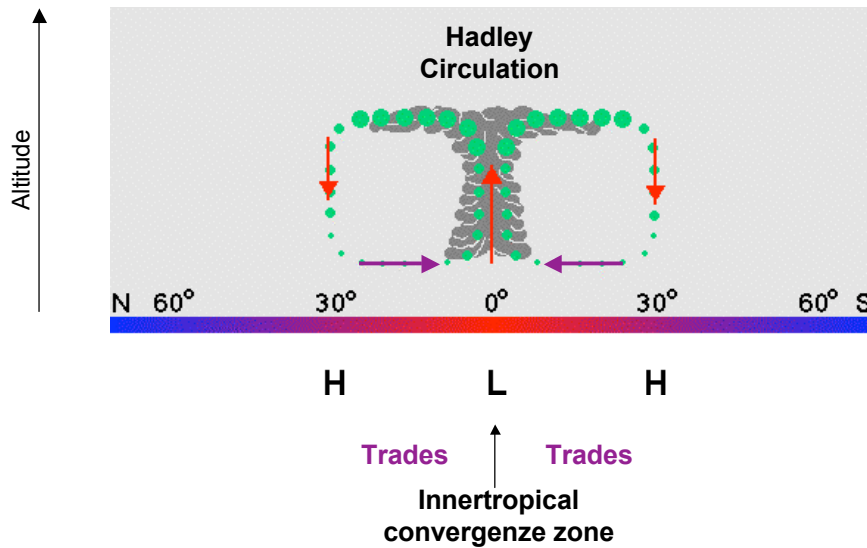
Movie by: R. Stöckli (NASA Earth Observatory, USA) and P.L. Vidale (NCAS, UK)

UK-Japan Climate Collaboration



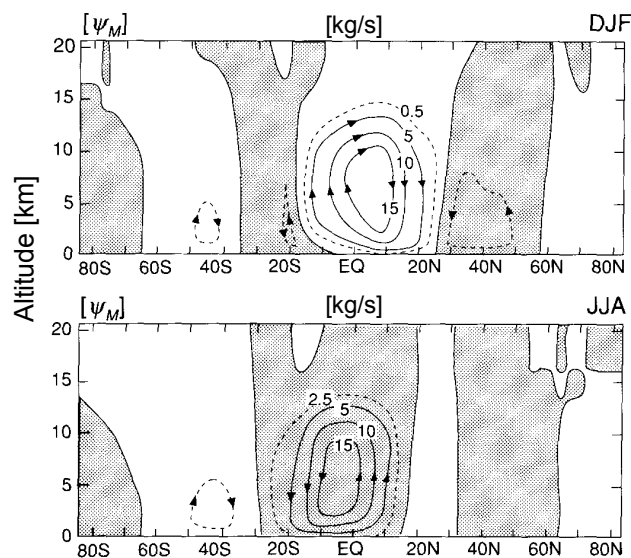
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Hadley Circulation



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Mean meridional circulation of the atmosphere



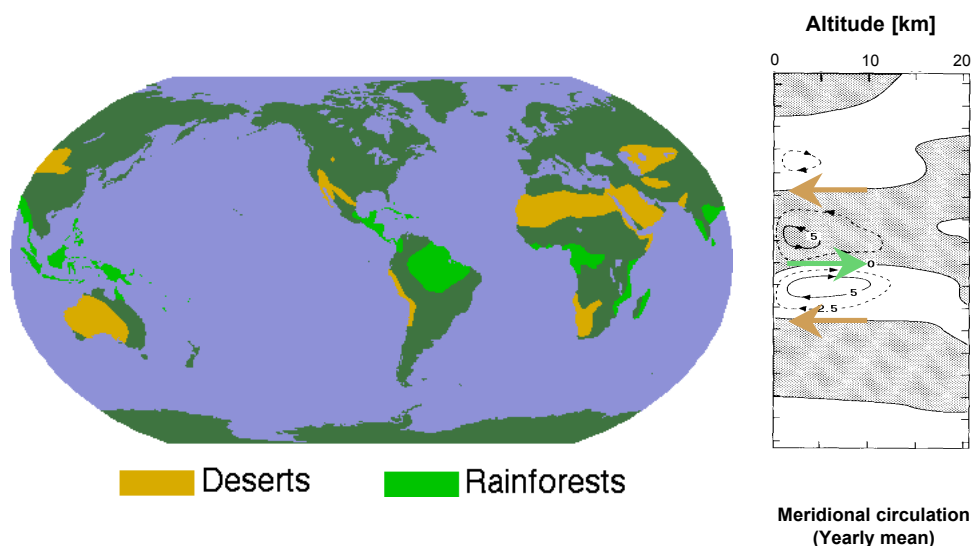
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Zonal-mean mass flux

- Hadley circulation is much stronger on winter hemisphere
- Intertropical convergence zone (ITCZ) is displaced towards summer hemisphere (determines rainy seasons)
- Mean meridional circulation in extratropics is weak

(Hartmann, 1994)

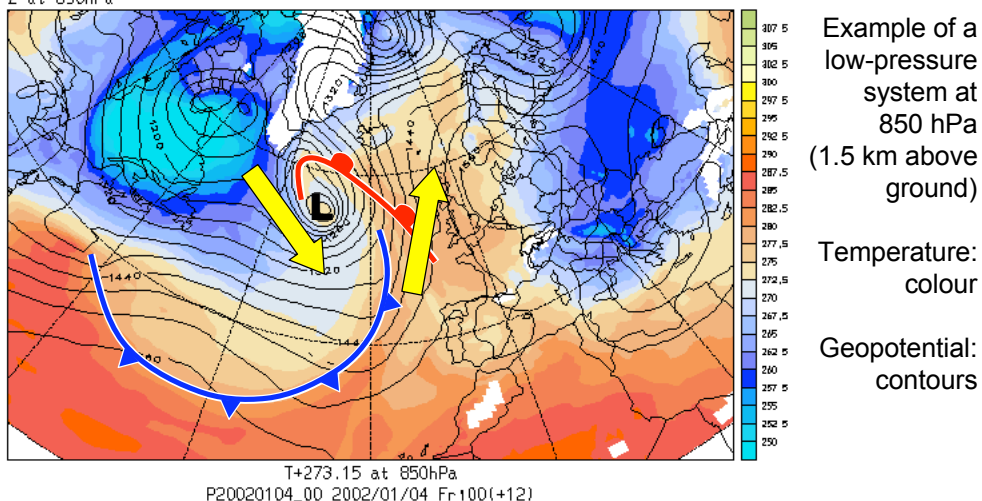
Role of Hadley circulation for climate zones



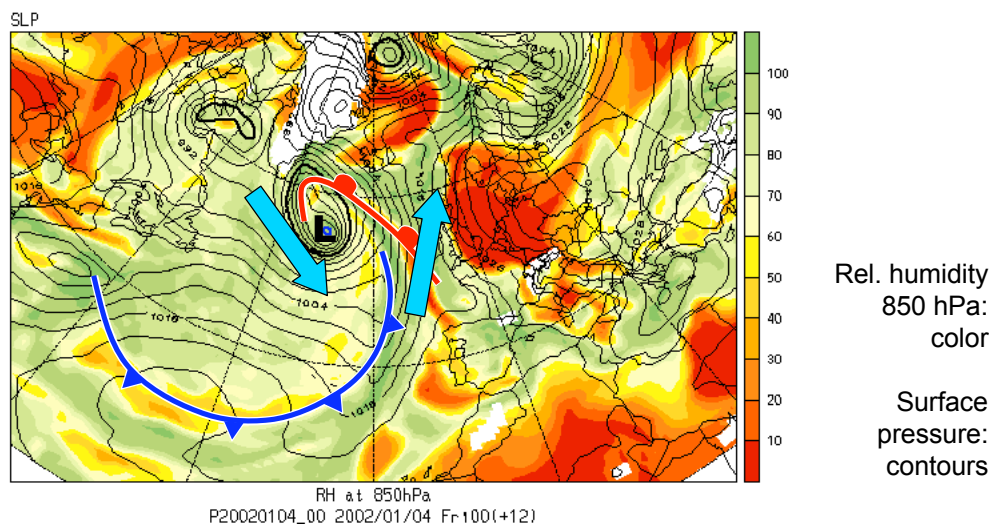
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Transport in extratropical cyclones (baroclinic eddies)

Z20020104_00 2002/01/04 Fr 100(+12)
Z at 850hPa



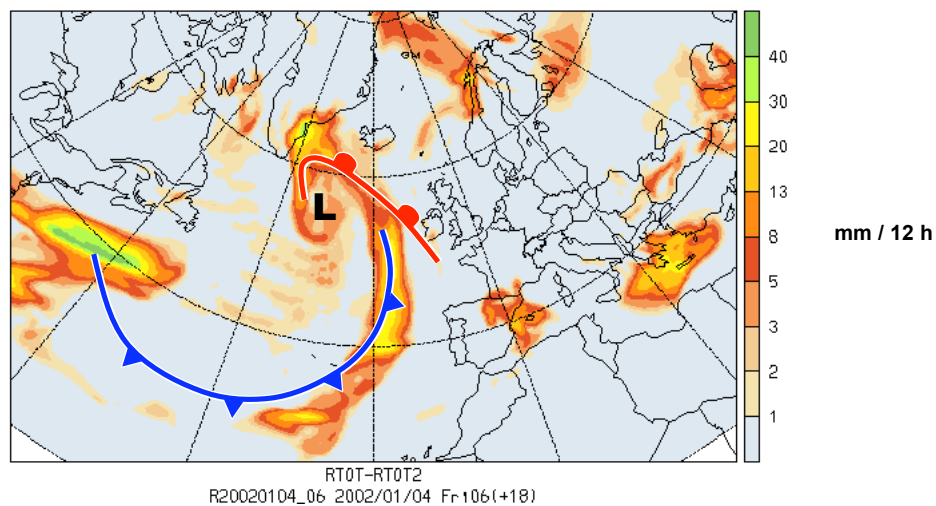
Relative Humidity



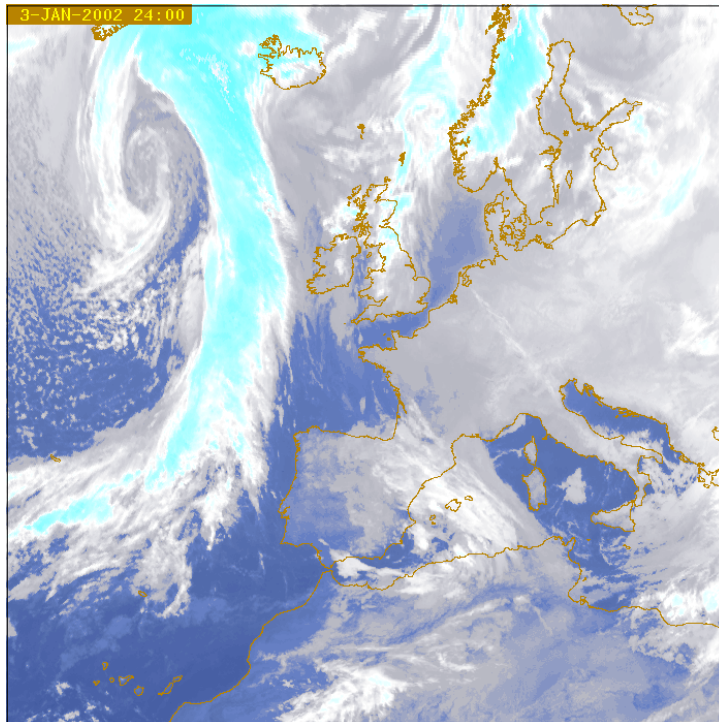
Transport of moist air toward north and dry air towards south

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Associated precipitation



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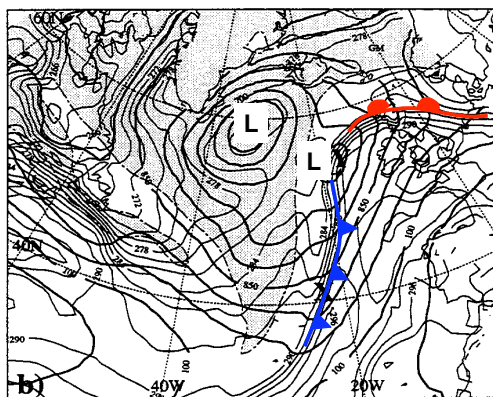


IR Satellite Picture

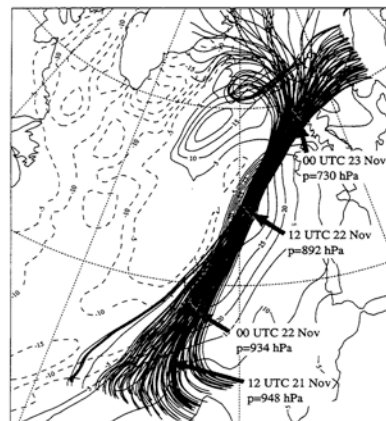
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Water transport in fronts and cyclones

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22. Nov. 1992, 18 UTC:
900 hPa geopotential (bold lines)
and temperature (thin lines)

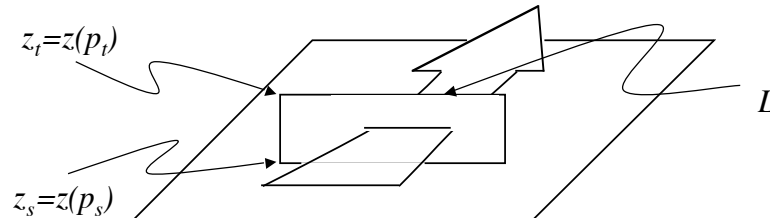


48 h trajectories,
950 hPa → 730 hPa

In general, the atmospheric transport in the extratropics takes place in comparatively narrow streams (referred to as conveyor belts or atmospheric rivers)

Integrated atmospheric moisture flux

Moisture flux across an area ($0 \leq x \leq L$, $p_s \leq p \leq p_t$)



Massflux

$$\mathbf{F} = \rho_a q_v \mathbf{v}$$

Integration

$$F_{tot} = \int_0^L \int_{z_s}^{z_t} \rho_a q_v v_n dz dx$$

$\mathbf{v} = (u, v, w)$ = velocity

q_v = specific humidity

ρ_a = density of moist air

v_n = normal component of \mathbf{v}

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Change of integration variable with hydrostatic relation

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial z} = -g \rho_a \Rightarrow dz = -\frac{1}{g \rho_a} dp$$

yields

$$F_{tot} = \frac{1}{g} \int_0^L \int_{p_t}^{p_s} q_v v_n dp dx$$

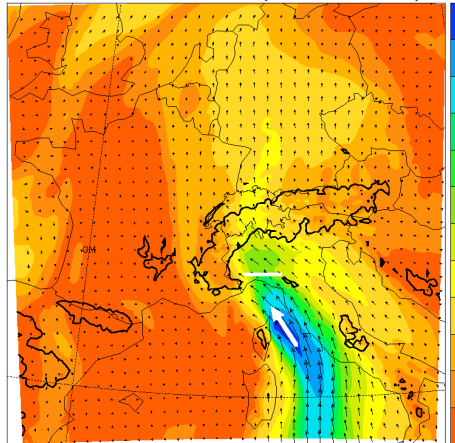
Approximation:

$$F_{tot} \approx \frac{1}{g} q_v v_n \Delta p \Delta x$$

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Example: atmospheric transport during the October 2000 Alpine flood

Vertically integrated moisture flux
October 15, 00 UTC (+24h forecast)



[kg s⁻¹ m⁻¹]

Cross section Liguria:

Total transport: 55,000 m³/s

Comparison:

Rhein (Rotterdam)	2,200 m ³ /s
Mississippi (Rank 8)	18,000 m ³ /s
Kongo (Rank 2)	42,000 m ³ /s
Amazonas (Rank 1)	210,000 m ³ /s

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(Schär and Frei, based on SM forecast of MeteoSchweiz)



Baltshieder



Gondo



Locarno

Lagrangian trajectories

Integration of trajectories

$$\frac{d\mathbf{x}}{dt} = \mathbf{v}(x, y, z, t)$$

Forward trajectories: integrate forward in time, from some initial location, with some numerical scheme

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = \mathbf{x}(t=0) + \int_0^t \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x}(t), t) dt$$

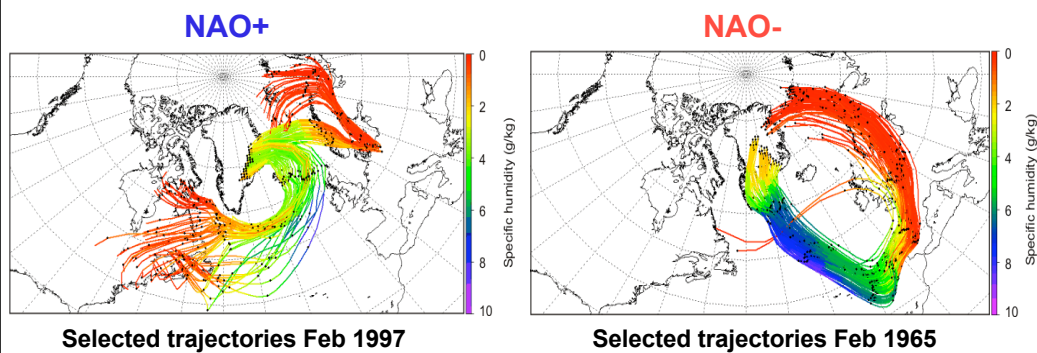
$$\mathbf{x}^{n+1} = \mathbf{x}^{n-1} + 2\Delta t \cdot \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x}^n, t)$$

Backward trajectories:

$$\mathbf{x}^{n-1} = \mathbf{x}^{n+1} - 2\Delta t \cdot \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x}^n, t)$$

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Origin of Greenland precipitation



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(PhD Thesis Harald Sodemann, 2006, ETH Zürich)

Tagging of water vapor

Conservation of water vapor

$$\frac{\partial(q_v \rho_a)}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\mathbf{v} q_v \rho_a) = \underbrace{\text{sources} + \text{sinks}}_{\text{e.g. precipitation, evaporation, formation of droplets from water vapor, etc}}$$

Tagging: split q_v into different contributions, for instance

$$q_v = q_v^{\text{land-origin}} + q_v^{\text{sea-origin}}$$

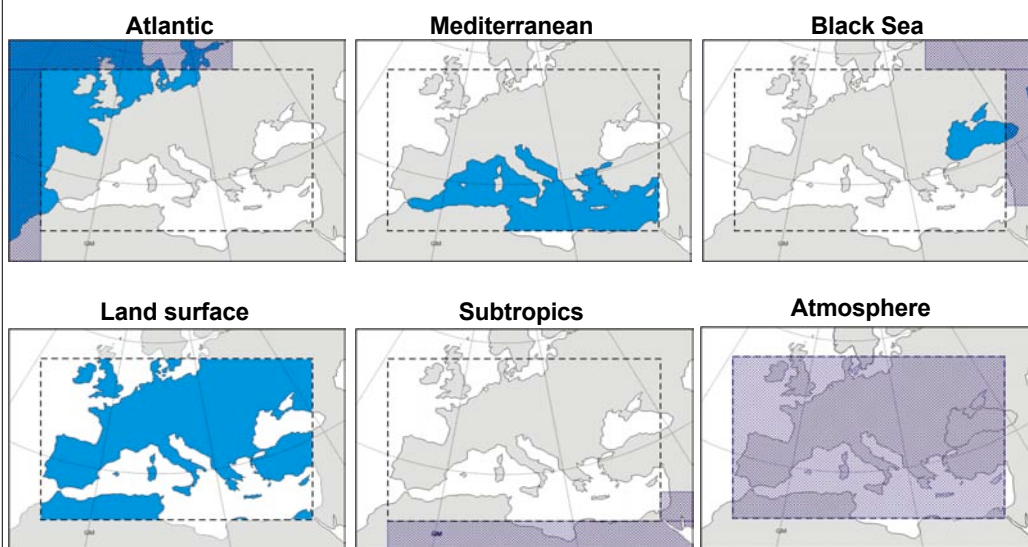
Each of the components will satisfy an own conservation equation.

Where did the moisture come from?



August 2002, Dresden

Tagging with 6 moisture sources

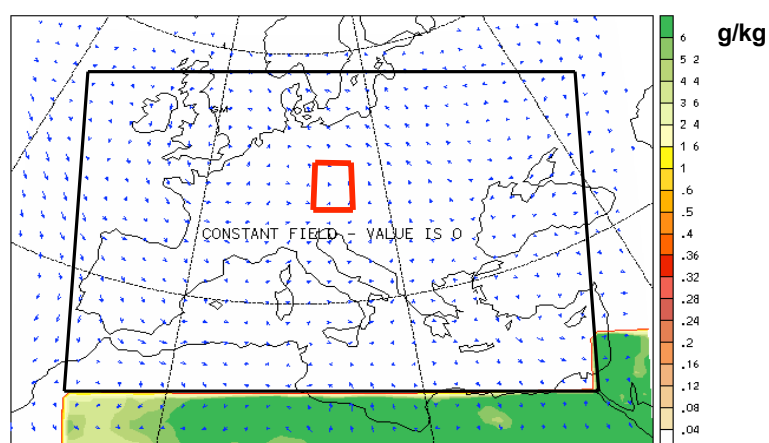


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(PhD Thesis Harald Sodemann, 2006, ETH Zürich)

Inflow of subtropical moisture

Tagged water vapour at model level 25 (925 hPa)

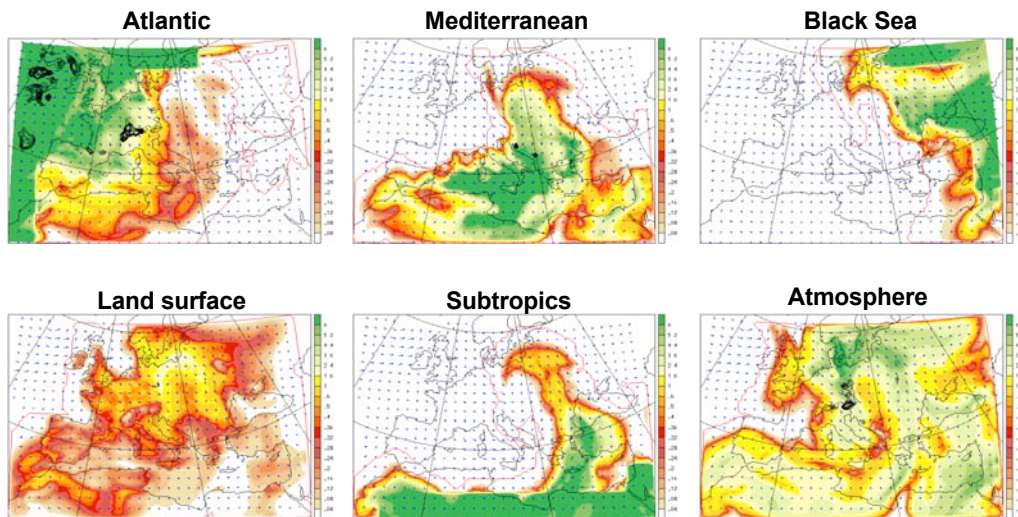


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Coherency of the water vapour tracer field

Tagged water vapour at model level 25 (925 hPa) at 12Z 2002/08/12



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(PhD Thesis Harald Sodemann, 2006, ETH Zürich)

Outline

Atmospheric transport

Precipitation

- structure of the atmosphere
- particles in the atmosphere, cloud microphysics
- precipitation measurement
- convective versus stratiform precipitation

Energy and water movement in soils

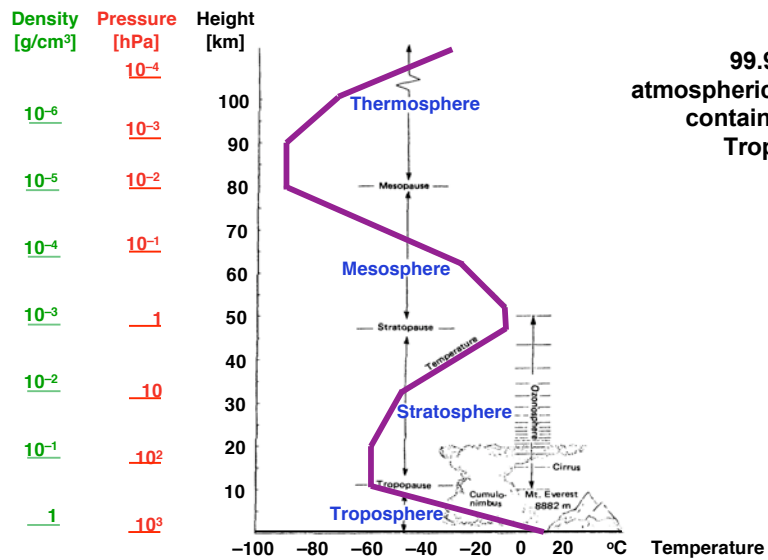
- thermal conductivity in soils
- water conductivity and Darcy's law

Infiltration and formation of runoff

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Structure of the Atmosphere

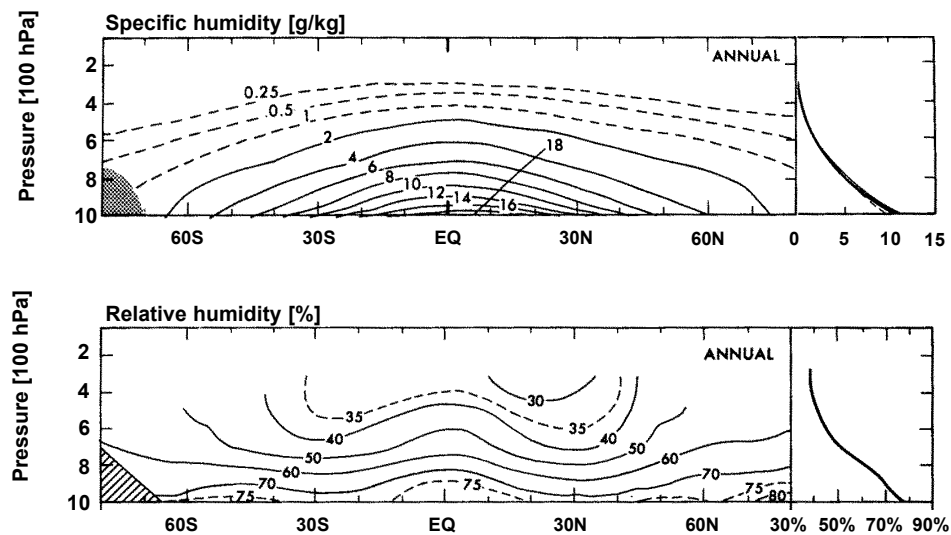
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Distribution of atmospheric humidity

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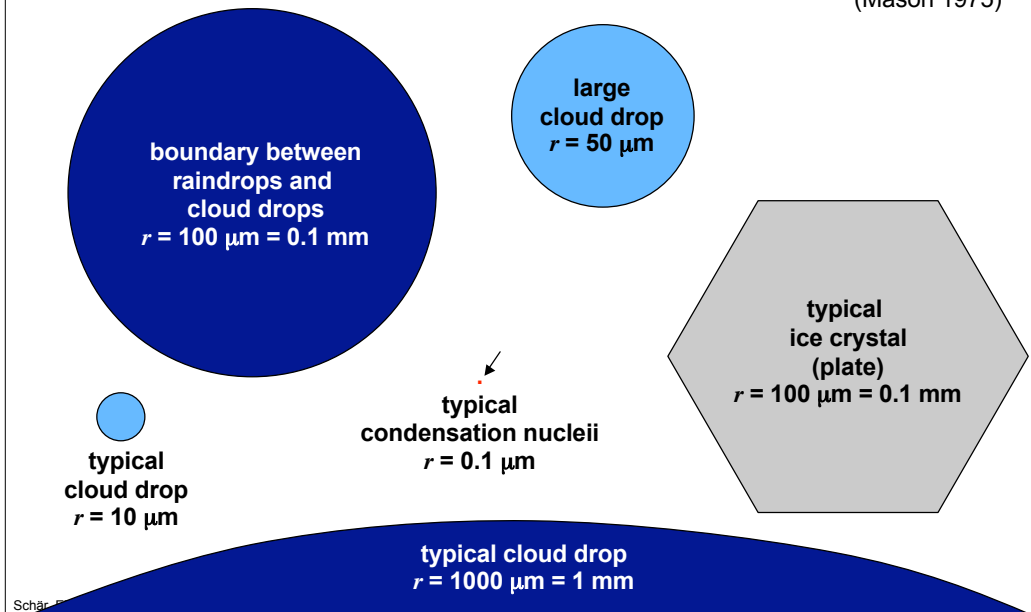


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(Peixoto and Oort 1992)

Particles in the atmosphere

(Mason 1975)



Snow crystals

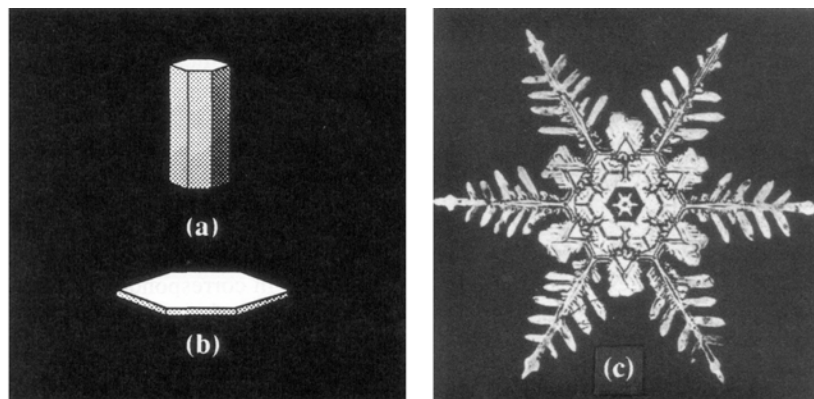
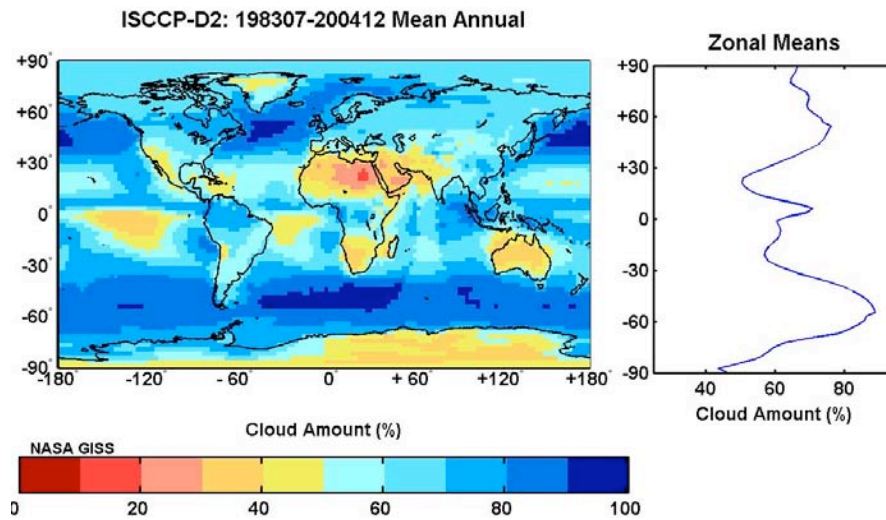


Figure 3.8 Schematic representation of the main shapes of ice crystals: (a) columnar, or prismlike; (b) plate; (c) dendrite. (Adapted from Rogers and Yau, 1989.)

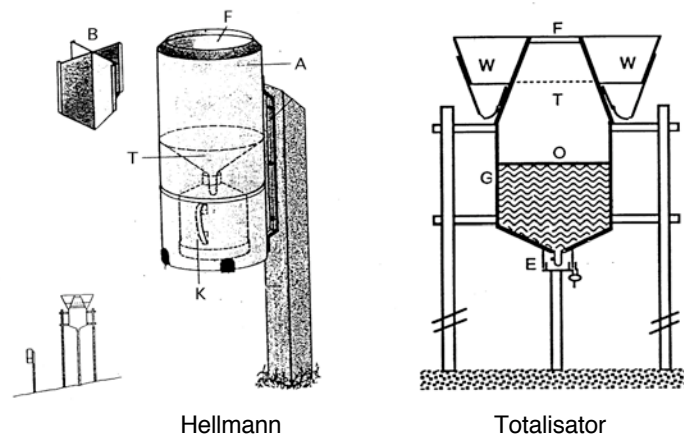
Global cloud cover



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(ISCCP)

Precipitation measurement: Pluviometer



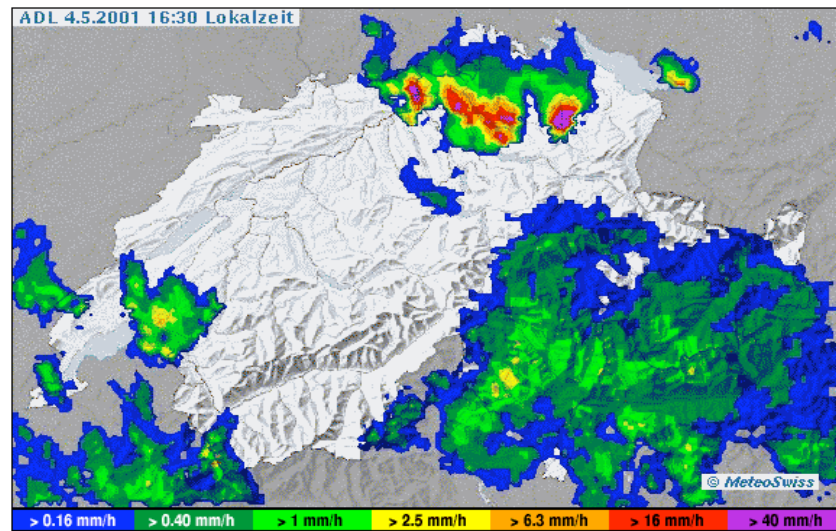
A: Auffanggefäss, abnehmbar
B: Schneekreuz
E: Entleerungshahn

F: Auffangöffnung
G: Auffang/Sammelgefäss
K: Sammelkanne

O: Oelschicht
T: Trichter
W: Windschutz

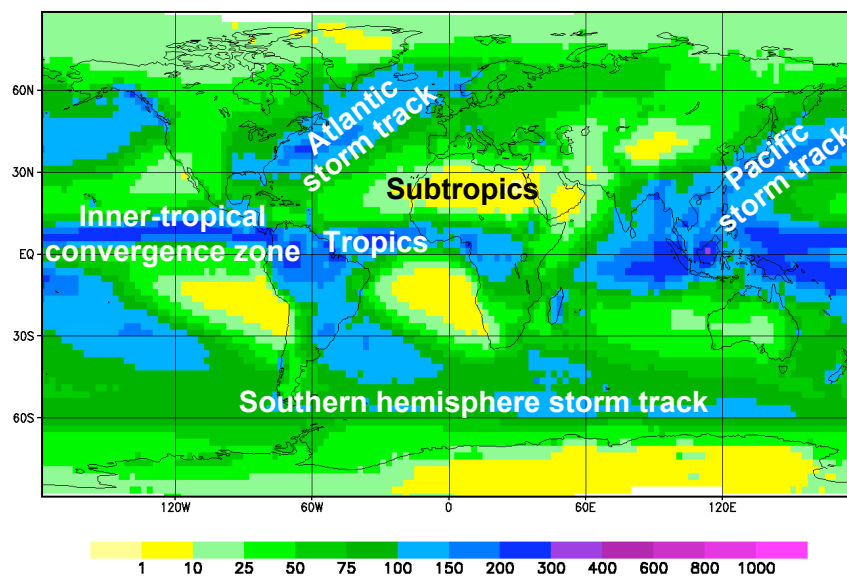
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Precipitation measurement: Radar



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Global precipitation distribution

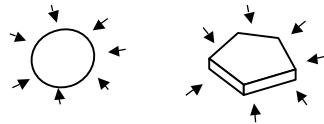


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Cloud microphysics and precipitation formation

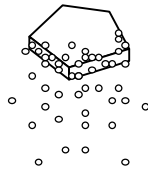
Condensation, Resublimation

Condensation of water vapor



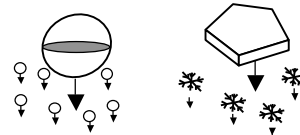
Riming

Collection of supercooled water droplets on an ice particle



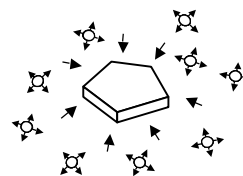
Coalescence, Aggregation

Collection of small particles due to differential fall velocities



Findeisen-Bergeron

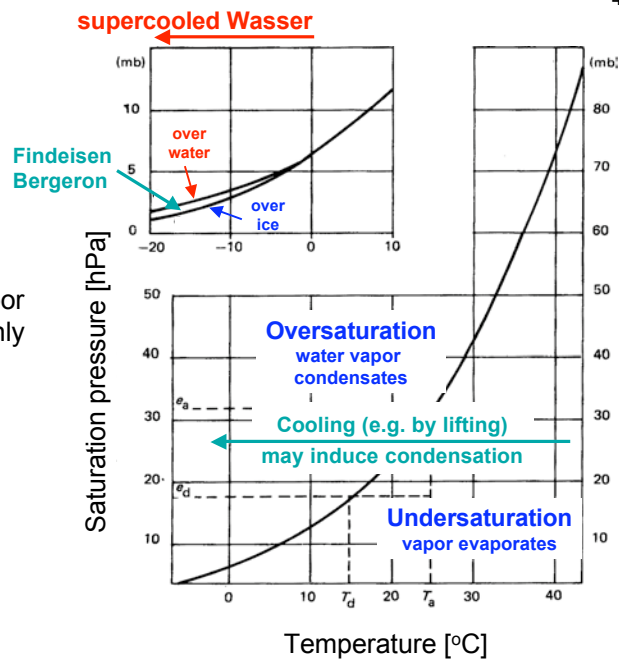
Flux of water vapor from water droplets to ice crystals



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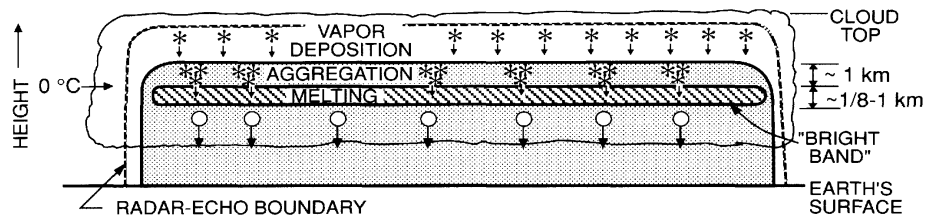
Saturation vapor pressure

Saturation vapor pressure
= partial pressure of H_2O -vapor
• depends on temperature only



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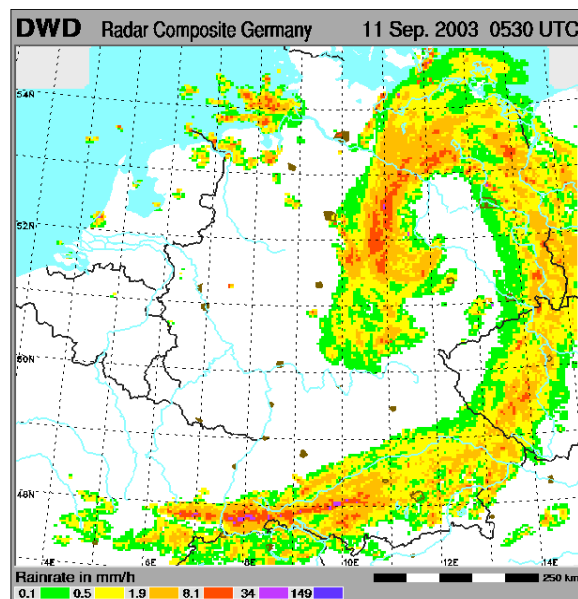
Stratiform precipitation



- Long duration, small precipitation rates
- Vertical wind velocity: $< \sim 1$ m/s
- Horizontal scale: ~ 100 km
- Occurs in stably stratified atmosphere (density decreases with height, suppresses vertical motion)
- Vertical lifting due external factors (low-pressure systems, topography)
- Common in polar regions, during winter in mid-latitudes

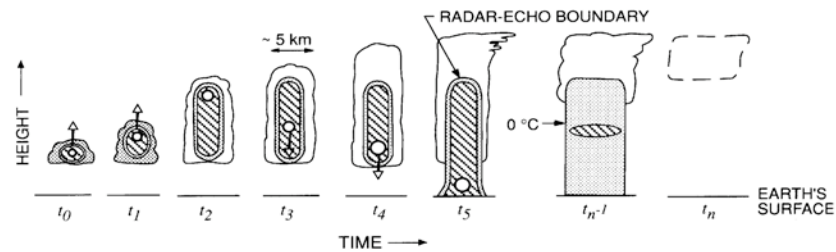
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Frontal passage dominated by stratiform precipitation



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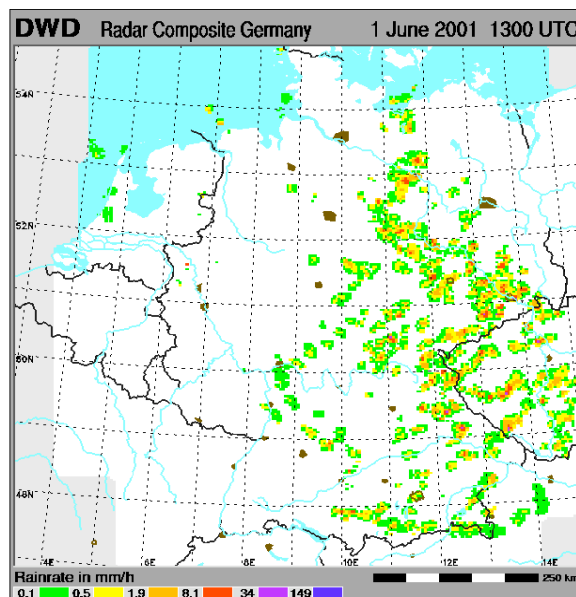
Convective precipitation



- Short duration, large precipitation rates
- Vertical wind velocities $O(10 \text{ m/s})$, often associated with thunderstorms
- Horizontal scale $\sim 3\text{-}10 \text{ km}$ (individual convective cells)
- Lifting due to destabilization (surface heating, upper-level cooling, release of latent heat)
- Common in tropics, during summer in mid-latitudes, during winter over warm ocean surfaces

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Summer convective precipitation



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Lifting of an air parcel

- **Dry adiabatic lifting:**

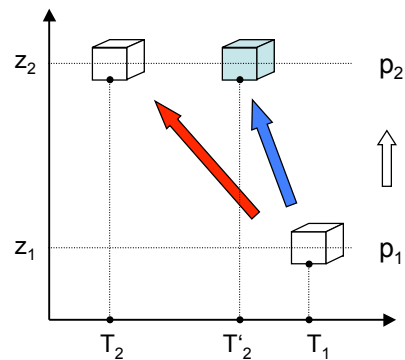
Dry (i.e. no clouds) air parcel,
absence of condensation

Air parcel does not exchange energy
with surrounding (adiabatic cooling)

- **Moist adiabatic lifting:**

Air parcel is saturated, lifting leads to
condensation

Release of latent heat implies partial
compensation of adiabatic cooling



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Dry adiabatic lapse rate

First law of thermodynamics

$$\delta Q = c_p \delta T - \frac{1}{\rho} \delta p$$

Hydrostatic relation

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial z} = -g\rho \Rightarrow \delta p = -g\rho \delta z$$

Adiabatic condition

$$\delta Q = 0 \Rightarrow c_p \delta T + g \delta z = 0$$

Dry adiabatic lapse rate

$$\Gamma_d = -\frac{\partial T}{\partial z} = +\frac{g}{c_p} = +\frac{9.81 \text{ m/s}^2}{1004 \text{ J/kg K}} = 0.98 \frac{\text{K}}{100 \text{ m}}$$

With potential temp.

$$\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} = 0$$

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Moist adiabatic lapse rate

First law of thermodynamics including latent heat:

$$\delta Q \approx c_p \delta T - \frac{1}{\rho} \delta p + L \delta q_s$$

with L =latent heat, q_s =specific humidity at saturation

Moist adiabatic lapse rate:

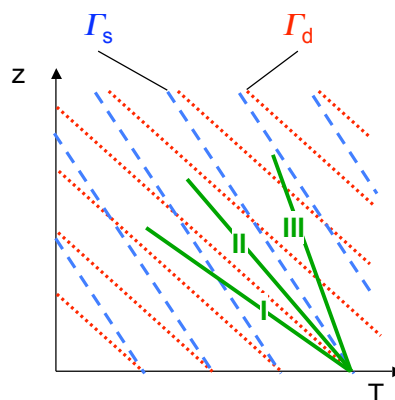
$$\Gamma_s \approx 0.5 \frac{\text{K}}{100\text{m}} < \Gamma_d$$

(exact value depends upon temperature and pressure)

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Vertical stratification of the moist atmosphere

- I: absolutely unstable:** $\Gamma_s < \Gamma_d < \gamma$
 Unstable irrespective of moisture content
 Often happens in (dry) boundary layer
 Rapid vertical mixing,
 in saturated conditions conv. precipitation
- II: conditionally unstable:** $\Gamma_s < \gamma < \Gamma_d$
 Stability depends upon moisture content,
 Saturation implies instability
 Deflected air parcels may rise unstably,
 convective precipitation
- III: absolutely stable:** $\gamma < \Gamma_s < \Gamma_d$
 Deflected air parcels try to swing back to their
 level of origin
 Precipitation only if there is external lifting



Example of atmospheric
profiles with $\gamma = -dT/dz$

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Temperature profile at a thunderstorm day

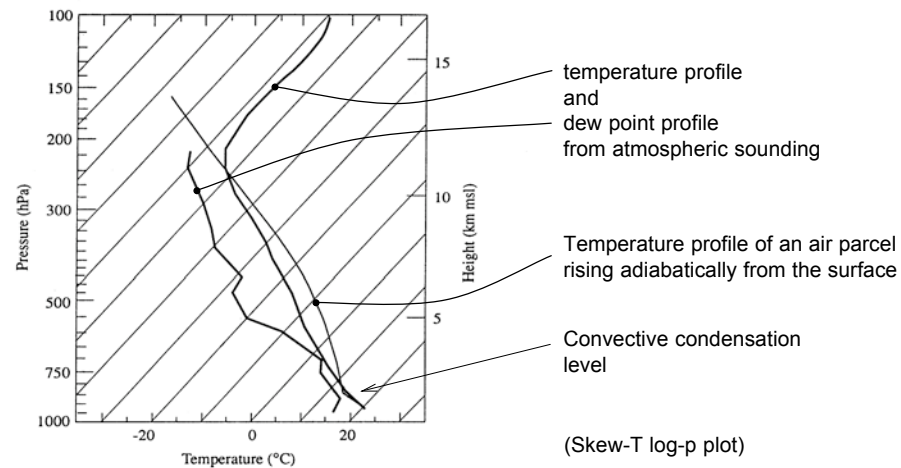


FIG. 10. Smoothed sounding used for initialization of the model simulation. Heavy solid curves mark the temperature and dewpoint. A thin solid line shows the path of the unsaturated parcel used to determine CAPE for this sounding ($\approx 1100 \text{ J kg}^{-1}$).

Outline

Atmospheric transport

Precipitation

Energy and water movement in soils

Thermal conductivity in soils

Soil water potential

Water conductivity and Darcy's law

Flow in saturated soils (groundwater flow)

Flow in unsaturated soils

Infiltration and formation of runoff

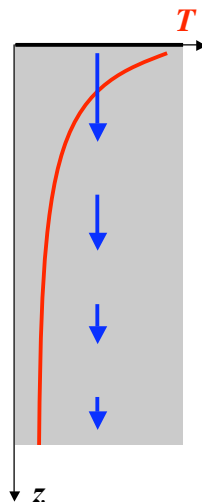
Vertical heat conduction in soils

Fourier's law:

The heat flux is directed against the temperature gradient and proportional to its magnitude:

$$q_h = -\kappa \frac{\partial T}{\partial z}$$

\nwarrow heat flux [W/m²] \nwarrow thermal conductivity [W/(m K)]



Conservation of energy:

A divergent heat flux implies heating / cooling:

$$\rho c_m \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = - \frac{\partial q_h}{\partial z}$$

\nwarrow specific heat [J/(kg K)]

Combine with Fourier's law:

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{\rho c_m} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(\kappa \frac{\partial T}{\partial z} \right)$$

If $\kappa = \text{constant}$

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = D \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2} \quad \text{with} \quad D = \frac{\kappa}{\rho c_m}$$

\nwarrow thermal diffusivity [m²/s]

Three-dimensional heat conduction

Fourier's law:

The heat flux is directed against the temperature gradient and proportional to its magnitude:

$$\mathbf{q}_h = -\kappa \nabla T$$

heat flux [W/m²]

thermal conductivity [W/(m K)]

Conservation of energy:

A divergent heat flux implies heating / cooling:

$$\rho c_m \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{q}_h$$

specific heat [J/(kg K)]

Combine with Fournier's law:

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{\rho c_m} \nabla \cdot (\kappa \nabla T)$$









If $\kappa = \text{constant}$

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = D \nabla^2 T \quad \text{with} \quad D = \frac{\kappa}{\rho c_m}$$

thermal diffusivity [m²/s]

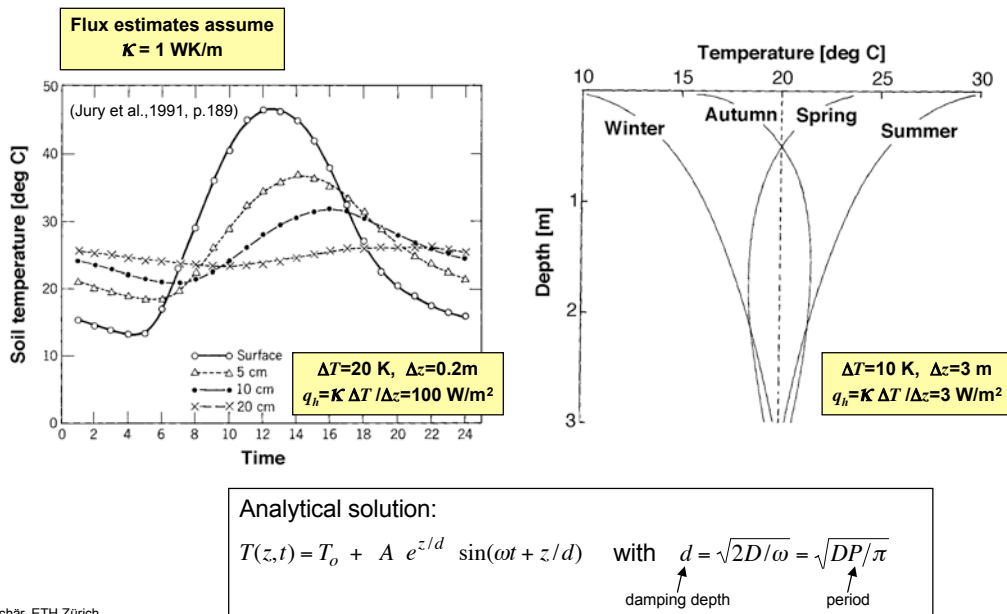
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Thermal diffusivity for soil constituents and soils

Soils	Conductivity κ [W K m ⁻¹]	Diffusivity D [10 ⁻⁷ m ² s ⁻¹]	d for $P=24\text{h}$ [cm]	d for $P=1\text{y}$ [m]
Quartz	8.8	44	35	6.7
Minerals (average)	2.9	14.5	20	3.8
Water (liquid)	0.57	1.36	6	1.2
Ice	2.2	11.6	18	3.4
Air	0.025	200	74	14
Sand	0.3 – 2.2	2.3 – 7.4	8 – 14.3	1.5 – 2.7
Clay	0.25 – 1.6	2.0 – 5.4	7.4 – 12.2	1.4 – 2.3
	 dry  wet $\theta=0$ $\theta=0.4$	 dry  wet $\theta=0$ $\theta=0.4$	 dry  wet $\theta=0$ $\theta=0.4$	 dry  wet $\theta=0$ $\theta=0.4$

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Diurnal and seasonal cycle of soil temperature



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Soil water potential

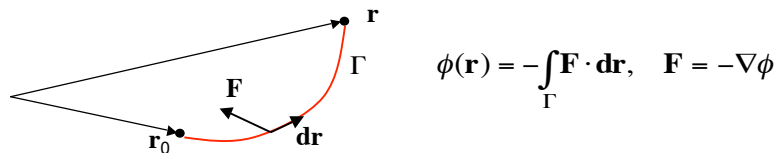
Forces between water and the soil matrix

- **Adhesive (repelling) forces:**
Intermolecular binding forces between water and soil matrix:
=> removing water from soil particles requires energy
- **Capillary forces:**
Surface tension:
=> increasing the water surface requires energy
=> keeps water pockets together
- **Gravitational forces:**
Vertical force due to gravity:
=> in unsaturated zone water is pulled downwards
=> in saturated zone, gradients in the ground water table imply horizontal pressure forces within ground water
- **Osmotic forces:**
Force due to solutes. Not considered in this lecture.

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Potential, general considerations

- Energy of a mass point in a conservative force field F .
- **Potential ϕ** = Energy that is needed to bring the mass point from a reference location r_0 to its actual location r .



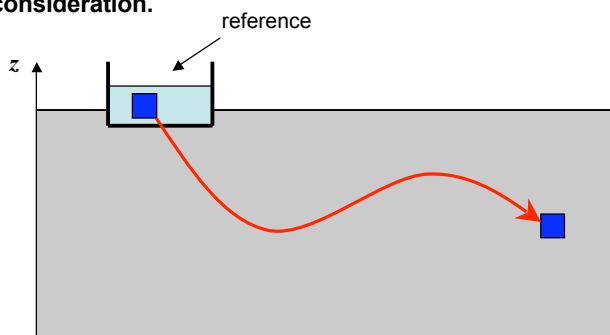
- The term „conservative“ implies that the required energy does not depend upon the selected path
- **Example: Gravitational potential:**

$$\phi_g = \rho g(z - z_0), \quad \mathbf{F}_g = -\nabla\phi_g = -\begin{pmatrix} \partial/\partial x \\ \partial/\partial y \\ \partial/\partial z \end{pmatrix} \phi_g = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ -\rho g \end{pmatrix}$$

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Soil water potential

The total potential of soil water is the amount of work that must be done per unit quantity of pure water in order to transport reversibly and isothermally an infinitesimal quantity of water from a reference pool of pure water at a specified elevation at atmospheric pressure to the soil water at the point under consideration.



In general the water potential is negative, i.e. energy is needed to extract water from the soil to the surface.

Unit:	$\frac{\text{energy}}{\text{volume}} = \frac{J}{m^3} = \frac{Nm}{m^3} = \frac{N}{m^2} = Pa$
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Soil water potential in unsaturated soils

• Soil water potential

$$\phi = \phi_g + \psi$$

This is a simplified version:

In general, additional factors have to be considered: air pressure potential, solute potential, etc.

Gravitational potential $\phi_g = \rho g (z - z_0)$

Potential of gravitational force

Matric potential ψ

Potential of binding adhesion and capillary forces in the soil matrix.

ψ is negative, as energy that is required to extract water from soil matrix.

• Units: Energy per unit volume

Pressure units: $\phi = \phi_g + \psi$ $[J / m^3] = [N / m^2] = [Pa]$

Equivalent depth (head): $\phi_h = \phi / \rho g$ $[m]$

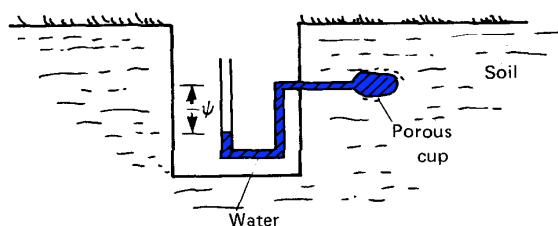
pF-Value: $\log_{10}(\phi_h / 1 \text{ cm})$ $[1]$

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Nicht im Skript

Tensiometer: measurement of matric potential

Principle of tensiometer

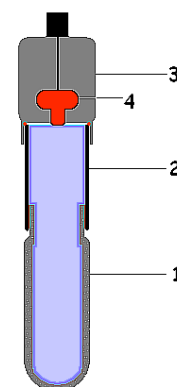


A matric potential of 0 indicates that the soil is saturated.

Because water is held by capillary and adhesive forces within unsaturated soil pores, the matric potential of unsaturated soils is negative. The water is under tension and work must be done to extract it from the soil.

The negative sign is usually omitted for convenience.

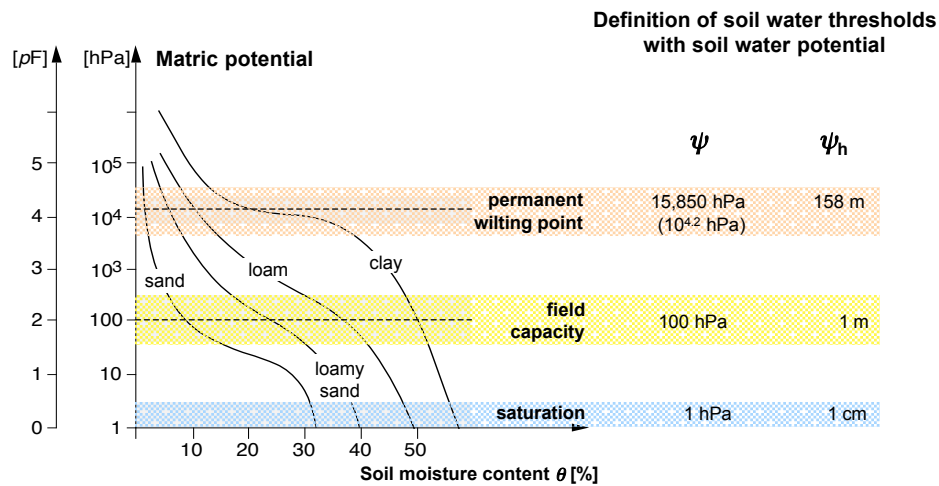
Instrument



Tensiometer:
(1) porous cup
(2) water-filled tube
(3) sensor-head
(4) pressure sensor;

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Matric potential and soil moisture content



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Groundwater potential (quiescent case)

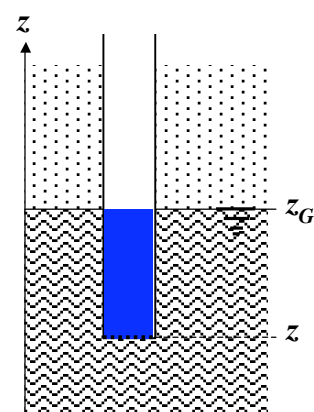
Capillary and adhesive forces are negligible ($\psi \approx 0$), but hydrostatic pressure force must be accounted for.

Groundwater potential:

$$\phi = \underbrace{\rho g z}_{\text{gravitational potential}} + \underbrace{\rho g (z_G - z)}_{\text{hydrostatic pressure potential}} = \rho g z_G$$

In the quiescent case, the potential is uniform within the groundwater.

The groundwater table is horizontal, there are no forces and no motion.



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Darcy's law for saturated flows

The water flux in saturated soil zone is proportional to the gradient of the water potential.

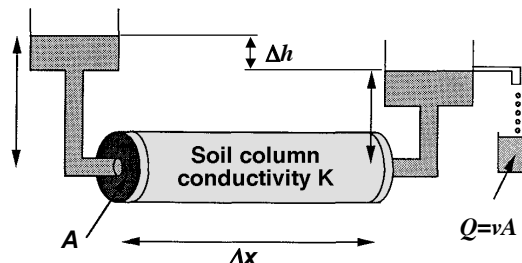
$$v = Q/A = K_s \Delta h / \Delta x$$

Three-dimensional:

$$\mathbf{v} = -K_s \nabla \phi_h$$

K_s is the hydraulic conductivity at saturation. It depends upon the properties of the soil, temperature, and additional factors.

v is the "filter velocity". It does not correspond to the true velocity, but to a mean velocity assuming flow within the cross section A .

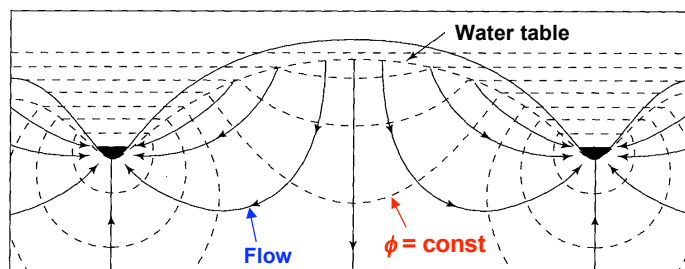


K_s	m/s	cm/d
Sand:	$3 \cdot 10^{-5}$	260
Loamy sand:	$1 \cdot 10^{-6}$	8.6
Loam:	$5 \cdot 10^{-7}$	4.3
Clay:	$1 \cdot 10^{-7}$	0.9

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Darcy, H., 1856: *Les Fontaines Publiques de la Ville de Dijon*. Dalmont, Paris

Stationary groundwater flow



Combine Darcy's law $\mathbf{v} = -K_s \nabla \phi_h$

with incompressibility of water $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$

to obtain $\nabla \cdot K_s \nabla \phi_h = 0$

If $K_s = \text{const}$ this yields the Laplace equation $\nabla^2 \phi_h = 0$

Thus, solving the Laplace equation for given boundary conditions (groundwater table) yields the flow field. In general, however, inhomogeneities will complicate the situation (e.g. impermeable layers).

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Darcy's law for unsaturated soils

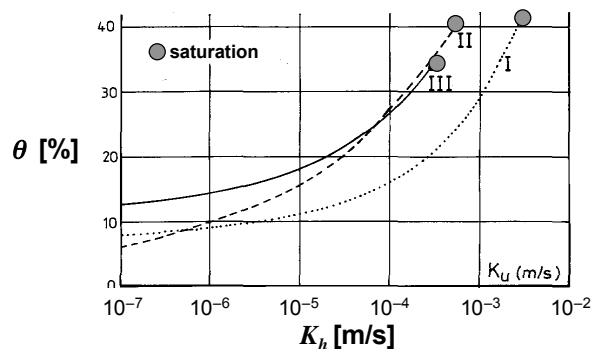
In unsaturated soils, the flow can be approximated by Darcy's law in the following form:

$$\mathbf{v} = K_h(\theta) \cdot \nabla \phi_h$$

Here:

- ϕ_h = soil moisture potential in unsaturated zone, accounting for gravitational and matric potential
- K_h = hydraulic conductivity, is a function of soil moisture content and soil properties

Hydraulic conductivity of unsaturated soils



Hydraulic conductivity for different types of sand:

I: 0.5-1 mm

II: 0.25-0.5 mm

III: 0-2 mm

- Hydraulic conductivity increases strongly with soil moisture content θ . Has maximum value at saturation
- Is very small for small θ . In dry soils, water fluxes are exceedingly small.
- Highly non-linear. Variations of θ by 10% may imply changes of K_h by several orders of magnitude.

Outline

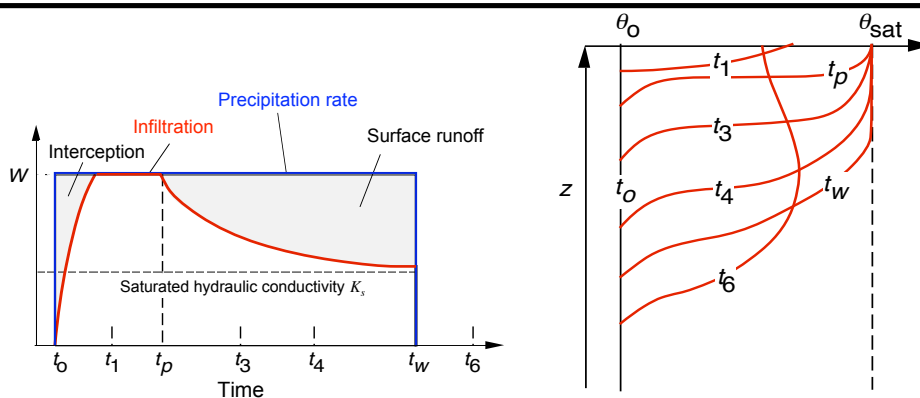
Atmospheric transport

Precipitation

Energy and water movement in soils

Infiltration and formation of runoff

Infiltration of precipitation

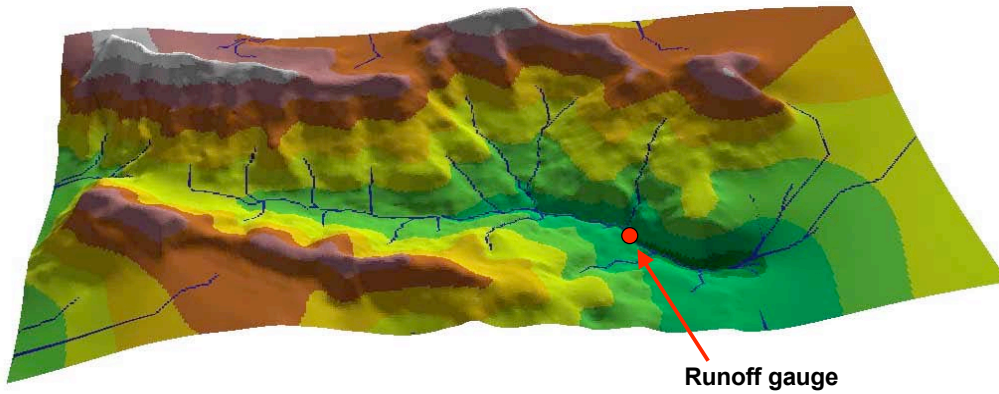


- Once the surface is saturated, a infiltration front forms.
- If precipitation rate exceeds infiltration capacity, there is surface runoff.
- The asymptotic infiltration is given by the saturated hydraulic conductivity

Sand:	108 mm/h
Loam:	1.8 mm/h
Clay:	0.4 mm/h

This is a (grossly) simplified version of the Green-Ampt model

Runoff concentration in a catchment



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Runoff gauge at the Rhône



Level measurement

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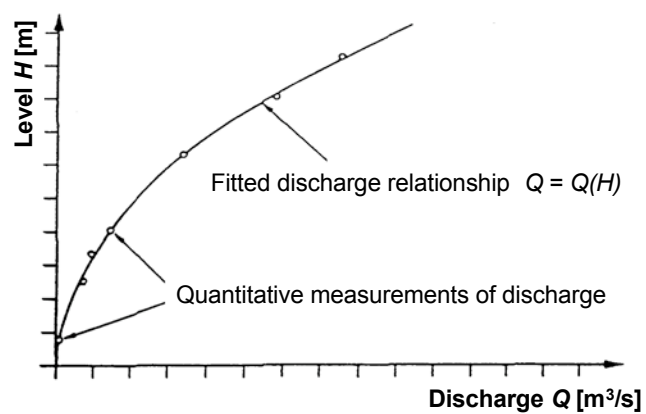
Runoff gauge at the Massa (Aletschglacier)



Gauging weir

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Level-discharge relationship



The relationship $Q=Q(H)$ is determined

- direct measurements at different point
- Hydraulics of the gauging weir (if of standard design)

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