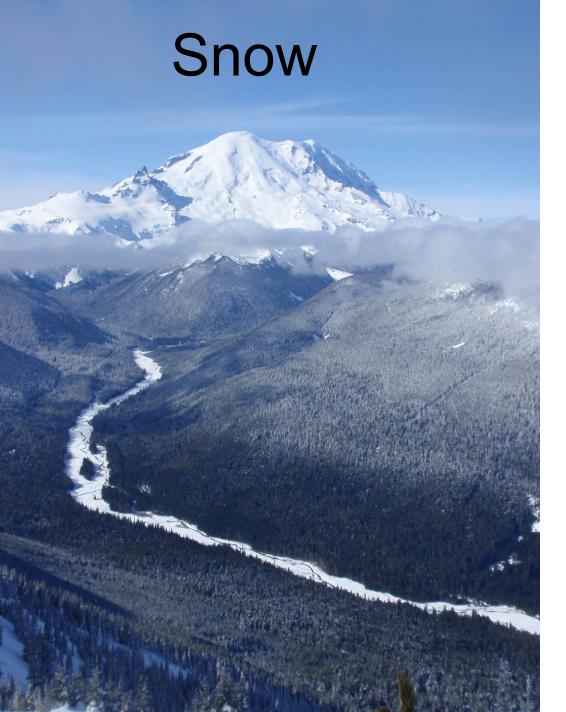
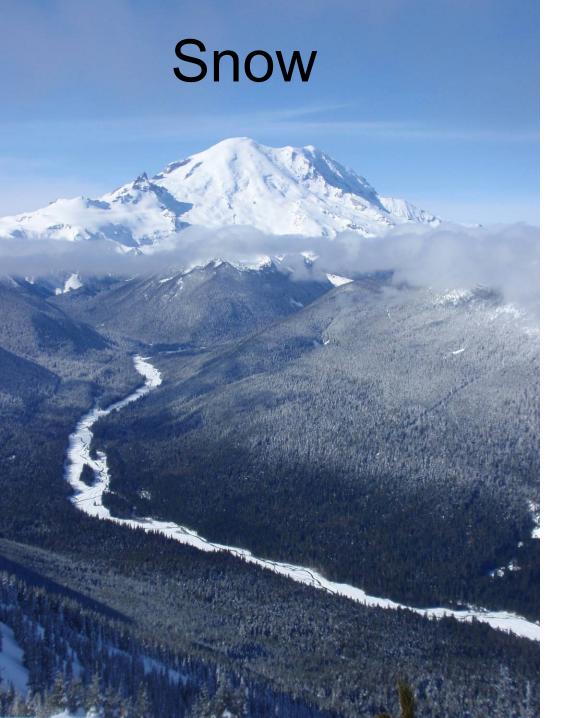
#### **Hydromet Forcings for Snow**

#### Jessica Lundquist

Civil and Env. Eng. University of Washington



- Major source of water storage and supply in the west (50-80% of annual runoff)
- Most threatened by climate change
- Three part problem:
  - 1) QPE
  - -2) Rain vs. Snow
  - -3) Melt



- Major source of water storage and supply in the west (50-80% of annual runoff)
- Most threatened by climate change
- Three part problem:
  - 1) QPE

- 3) Melt

-2) Rain vs. Snow

#### Energy for Melt:

- Two approaches
  - Temperature-Index

$$Melt = M_f \cdot (T_i - MBASE)$$

– Full Energy Balance

$$Melt = (1 - \alpha)Q_S + Q_L - \varepsilon\sigma T_S^4 + Q_E + Q_H + Q_R + Q_G - \frac{dU}{dt}$$

#### **Temperature-Index Model**

Example: Snow-17, Anderson 1976

Based on air-temperature  
above a  
$$Melt = M_f \cdot (T_i - MBASE) \quad \text{threshold, 0°C}$$
Seasonally-varying melt factor  
accounts for radiation

- Used operationally
- Hard to beat (Franz et al. 2008)
- Parameters must be calibrated hard to transfer between sites (He et al. 2011)

#### Full Energy Balance Model

Radiation Terms = about 80% of the energy for melt (Marks and Dozier 1992)

$$Melt = (1 - \alpha)Q_S + Q_L - \varepsilon\sigma T_S^4 +$$

$$Q_E + Q_H + Q_R + Q_G - \frac{dU}{dt}$$

Turbulent Flux Terms = about 20% of the energy for melt (Marks and Dozier 1992)

Heat from rain and the ground (negligible)

Internal energy of snowpack (heat required to raise to isothermal 0°C)

# For 5-yr horizon, focus on the big one: Radiation

Shortwave Radiation: Incoming - Reflected

$$Melt = (1 - \alpha)Q_{S} + Q_{L} - \varepsilon\sigma T_{S}^{4}$$
  
Incoming  
Longwave  
albedo  

$$Melt = (1 - \alpha)Q_{S} + Q_{L} - \varepsilon\sigma T_{S}^{4}$$
  
Outgoing  
Longwave:  
depends on  
snow surface  
temperature

temperature

# For 5-yr horizon, focus on the big one: Radiation

Shortwave Radiation: Incoming - Reflected

$$Melt = (1 - \alpha)Q_{S} + Q_{L} - \mathcal{E}\sigma T_{S}^{4}$$
  
Incoming  
Longwave  
albedo  

$$Outgoing$$
  
Longwave:  
depends on  
snow surface  
temperature

None of these are measured at a typical snow site.

# Conditions good for snow are bad for observations.

- -Harsh weather
- -Power limitations
- -Difficult access
- Infrequent maintenance
- Temporal and Spatial gaps (missing data must be estimated)



Onion Creek HMT station April 2011 (photo courtesy of Nic Wayand)

### SNOTEL LAYOUT

Standard SNOTEL Site Components:

snow pillow
snow depth sensor
precipitation gauge
temperature sensor

Expanded SNOTEL Site Capabilities:

soil moisture/temperature
wind speed/direction
relative humidity
solar radiation
fuel moisture/temperature
barometric pressure
tipping bucket precipitation



Slide courtesy of Scott Pattee, NRCS, Washington

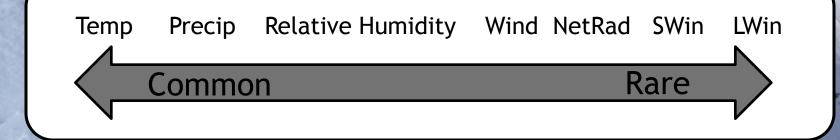
# Even at enhanced snotel, only incoming shortwave is measured

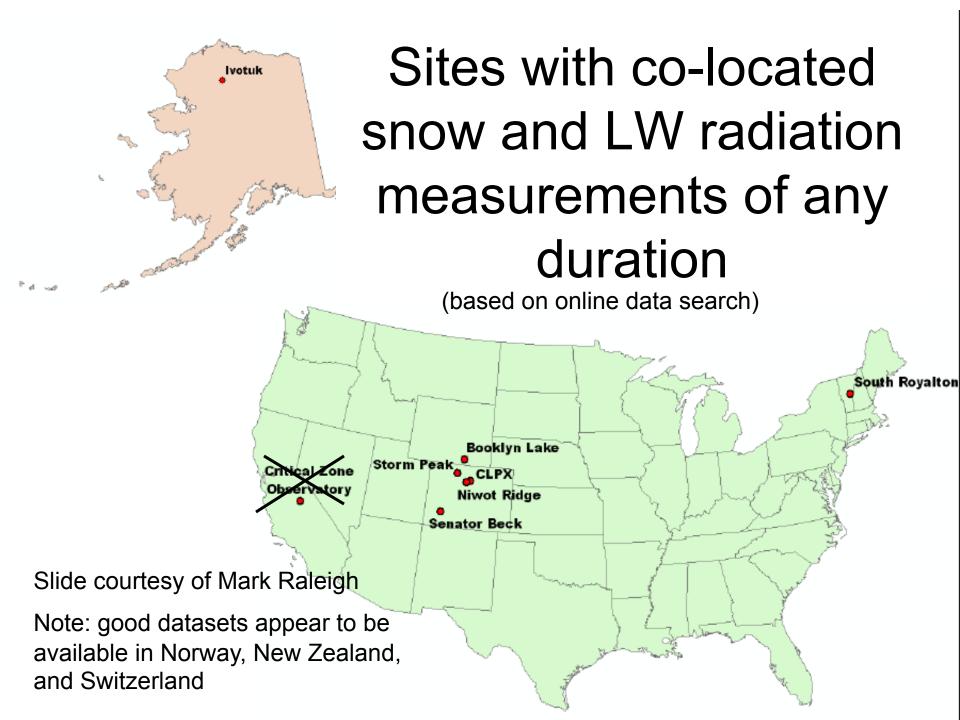
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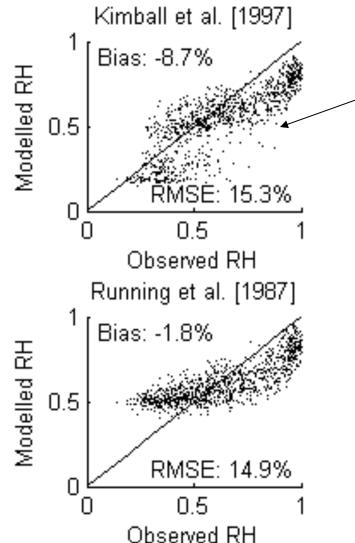
$$Melt = (1 - \alpha)Q_{S} + Q_{L} - \varepsilon\sigma T_{S}^{4}$$
  
Outgoing  
Longwave:  
depends on  
snow surface  
temperature

#### Limited Variables Measured





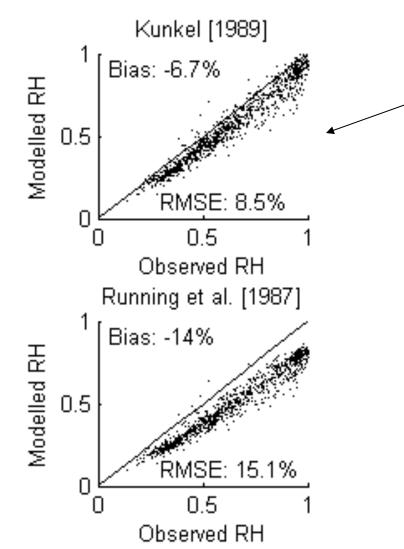
Estimation methods often not transferable from continental to maritime mountains: Testing Relative Humidity in California HMT



Estimating RH at a point, based on Tmin

Graphic courtesy of Shara Feld

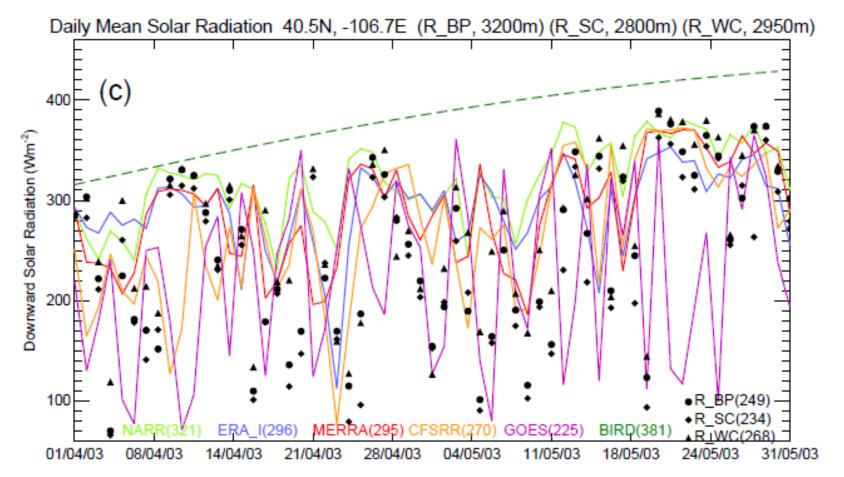
Estimation methods often not transferable from continental to maritime mountains: Testing Relative Humidity in California HMT



Estimating RH at another location, given one RH measurement in the basin

Graphic courtesy of Shara Feld

#### Satellite and Reanalysis Products: Promising but need more validation

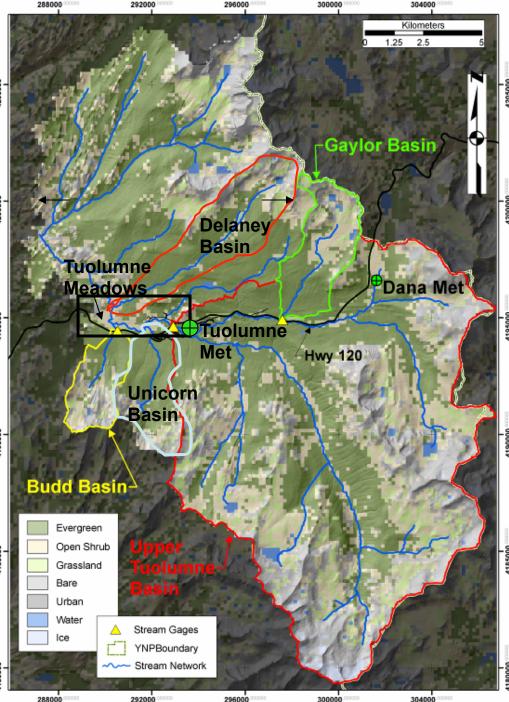


Graphic courtesy of Drew Slater, showing various Reanalysis and Satellite products vs. surface measurements at Rabbit Ears during CLP-X

## So do these issues really matter for streamflow?



- We have the computing power for physicallybased, distributed models
- But do we have the observations to support them?



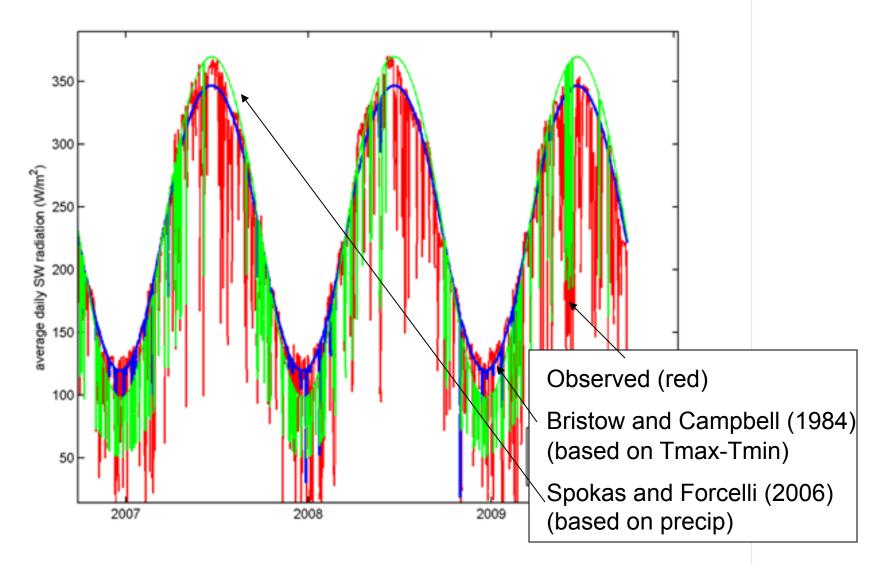
#### Example:

Modeling Tuolumne River in Yosemite, California with the Distributed Hydrology Soil Vegetation Model (DHSVM)

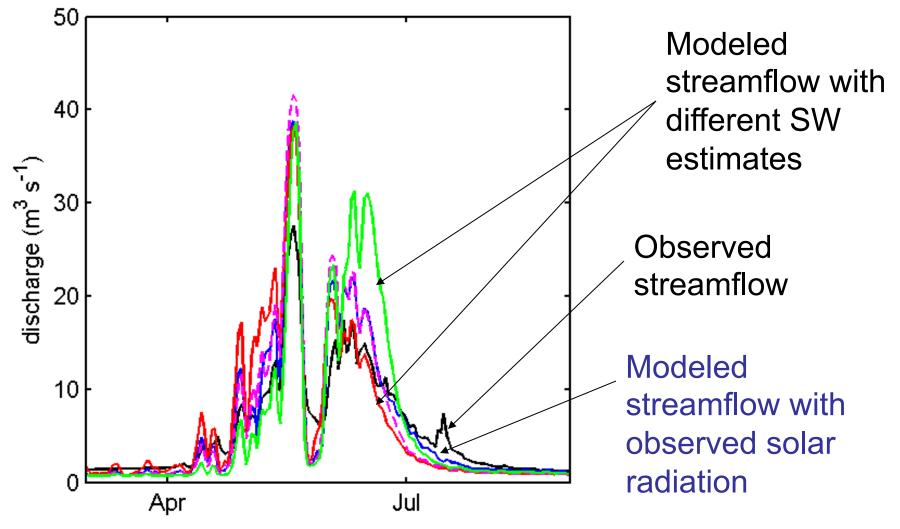
High altitude, sunny Sierra, granite-lined

Essentially all snow, little to no baseflow

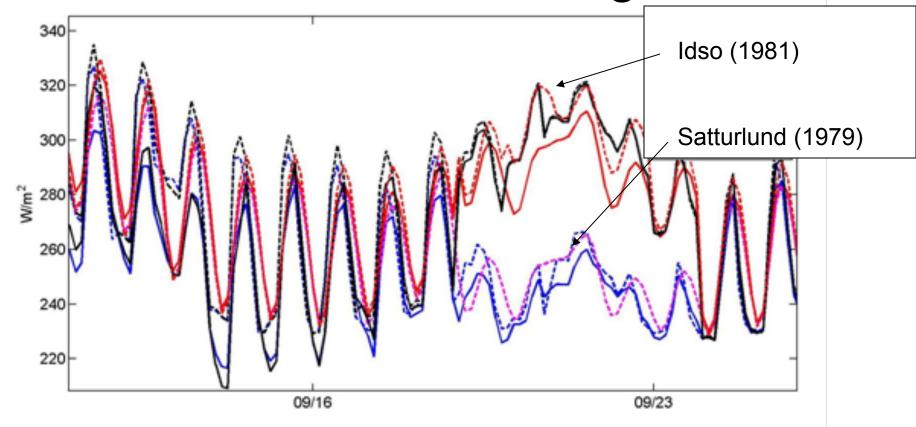
#### Daily average SW radiation: observed and 2 different estimates



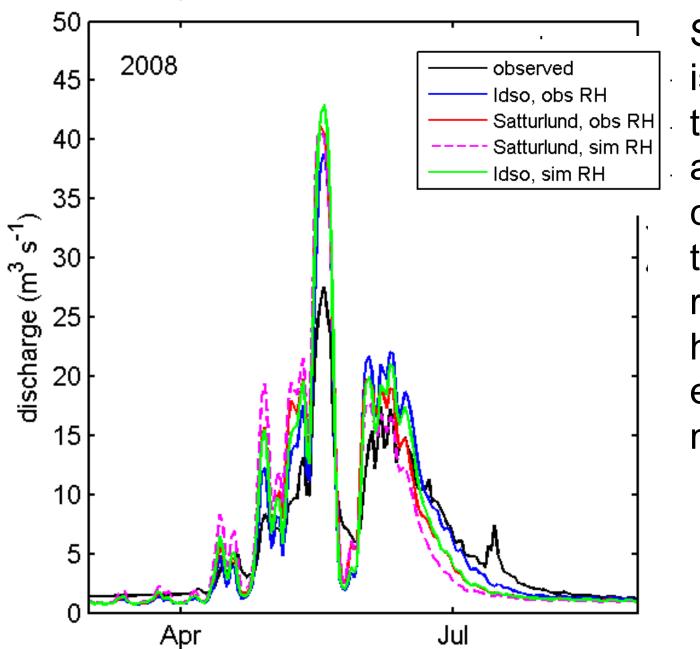
Modeled snowfed streamflow (particularly late season) is sensitive to how you parameterize solar radiation.



#### Incoming LW radiation not measured, estimated from humidity and diurnal T range



Solid lines are with observed RH; Dashed lines with estimated RH



Streamflow is sensitive to the LW algorithm chosen and to whether relative humidity is estimated or measured

### **Concluding Thoughts**

- Most areas (especially higher elevations) dominated by radiation (SW + LW) – we need to measure and/or estimate this better
- Instruments will only be useful if properly maintained – not trivial
- We can equip Snotel with upward and downward pyranometers (SW & albedo) + infrared snow temperature (outgoing LW)
- Incoming longwave will require representative snow observatories with dedicated staffing (could only afford a few, so need remote sensing and/or estimation techniques that work)

#### FLERCHINGER ET AL.: ATMOSPHERIC LONG-WAVE RADIATION ALGORITHMS

Table 1. Algorithms for Estimating Clear-Sky Emissivity Following the Form of the Stefan-Boltzmann Equation or for Estimating Downwelling Long-wave Radiation Directly<sup>a</sup>

Source	Clear-Sky Algorithm
Ångström [1918] <sup>b</sup>	$\varepsilon_{ck} = (0.83 - 0.18 \times 10^{-0.067 \epsilon_o})$
Brunt [1932] <sup>b</sup>	$\varepsilon_{cb} = (0.52 + 0.205\sqrt{e_o})$
Brutsaert [1975]	$\varepsilon_{cb} = 1.723 \left(\frac{e_o}{T_o}\right)^{1/7}$
Garratt [1992]	$\varepsilon_{cb} = 0.79 - 0.17 \exp(-0.96e_o)$
Idso and Jackson [1969]; referred to as Idso-1 Used in several	$\varepsilon_{ch} = 1 - 0.261 \exp(-0.00077(T_o - 273.16)^2)$
Idso [1981]; referred to as Idso-2 Land Surface MC	$\begin{aligned} &\varepsilon_{cb} = 1 - 0.261 \exp(-0.00077(T_o - 273.16)^2) \\ &\Theta \underset{\varepsilon_{cb}}{\text{els}} = 0.7 + 5.95 \times 10^{-4} e_o \exp\left(\frac{1500}{T_o}\right) \end{aligned}$
Iziomon et al. [2003] Used in Liston snowmodel	$\varepsilon_{cb} = 1 - X \exp\left(\frac{-Ye_o}{T_o}\right)$
Keding [1989]	$\varepsilon_{cbr} = 0.92 - 0.7 \times 10^{-1.2e_o}$
Niemelä et al. [2001]	$\varepsilon_{cbr} = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 0.72 + 0.09(e_o - 0.2) & for  e_o \ge 0.2\\ 0.72 - 0.76(e_o - 0.2) & for  e_o < 0.2 \end{array} \right\}$
Prata [1996] <sup>c</sup>	$\varepsilon_{cbr} = 1 - (1 + w) \exp(-(1.2 + 3w)^{1/2})$
Satterlund [1979]  Used in Vic, dhsvm and UEB	$\varepsilon_{cb} = 1.08[1 - \exp(-(10e_o)^{T_o}/2016)]$
Swinbank [1963]	$L_{cdr} = 5.31 \times 10^{-13} T_o^{-6}$
Dilley and O'Brien [1998] <sup>c</sup> recommended	$L_{clr} = 59.38 + 113.7 \left(\frac{T_o}{273.16}\right)^6 + 96.96 \sqrt{w/25}$

<sup>a</sup>Coefficients are based on vapor pressure  $(e_o)$  in kilopascals, temperature  $(T_o)$  in kelvins, and precipitable water (w) in centimeters.

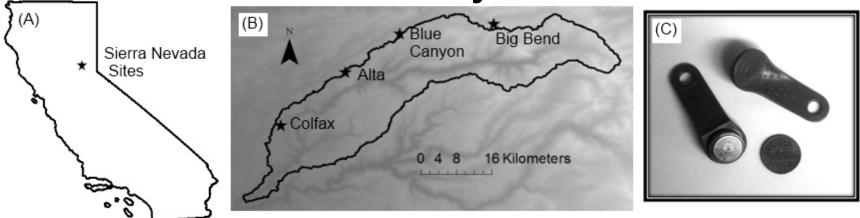
<sup>b</sup>As cited by Niemelä et al. [2001].

 $^{c}w = 4650 e_{o}/T_{o}$  [Prata, 1996].

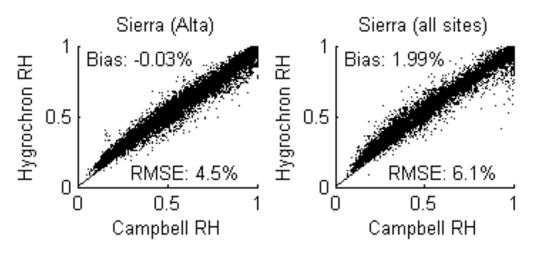
<sup>d</sup>Values for X and Y in the algorithm of *Iziomon et al.* [2003] were interpolated between a lowland site at 212-m elevation  $(X = 0.35 \text{ and } Y = 100 \text{ K kPa}^{-1})$  and a mountain site at 1489-m elevation  $(X = 0.43 \text{ and } Y = 115 \text{ K kPa}^{-1})$ .

#### But RH sensors are cheap and





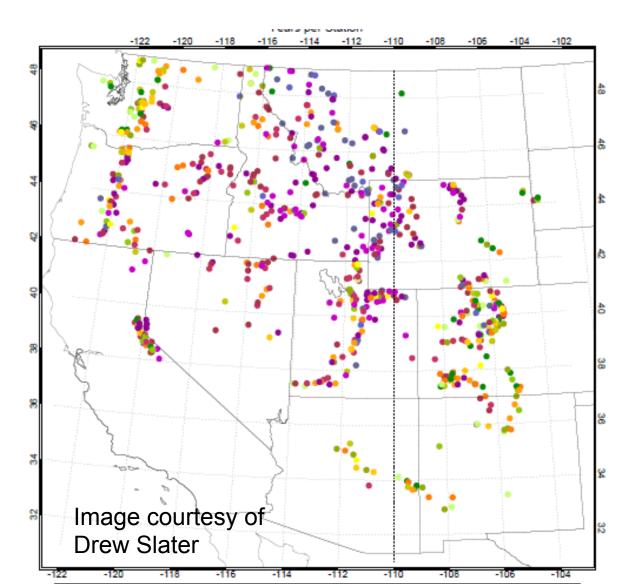
(C) iButton measurements in the Sierra Nevada

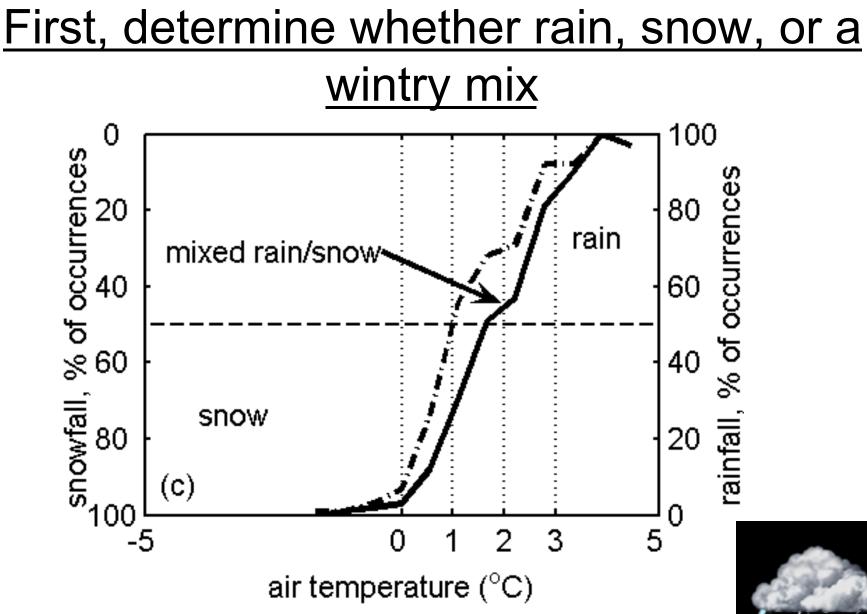


Graphic courtesy of Shara Feld, from Feld and Lundquist, submitted to WRR

#### **Extra Slides Follow**

#### Map of Snotel Sites

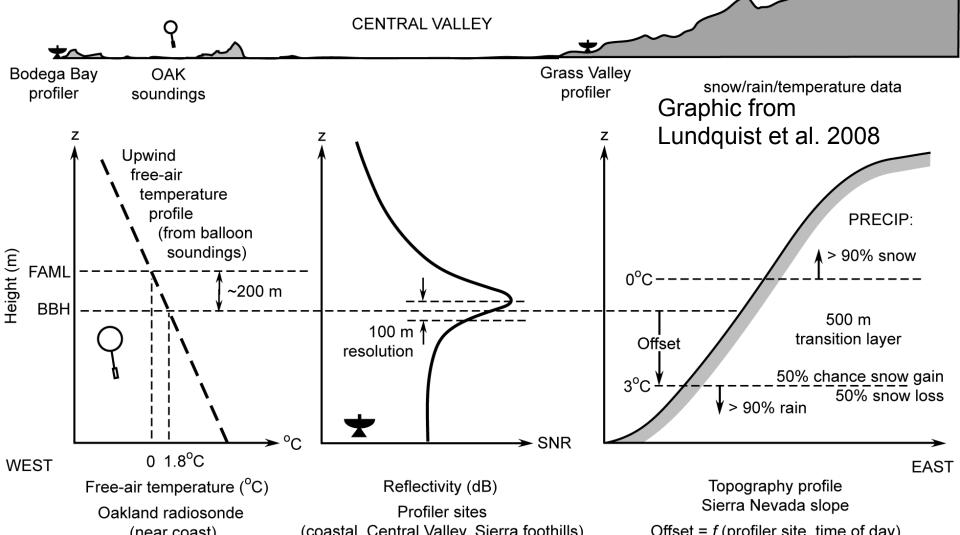




Graphic from US Army Corps of Engineers in Snow Hydrology, 1956



#### Can get rain vs snow from verticallypointing radar, but snow level drops as approaches the mountain SIERRAS



### Where does snow change to rain? Surface Validation Options:

- Human observers
- Laser disdrometer
- Co-located precip and snow depth + snow pillow to determine fate of precip on the surface



• Digital camera (web cam)



Path Forward: Partner with Transportation Agencies



#### Full Energy Balance Model

 Physically based, but when we estimate all the input, it has many more tunable parameters than the temperature index model

$$Melt = (1 - \alpha)Q_S + Q_L - \varepsilon\sigma T_S^4 + Q_E + Q_H + Q_R + Q_G - \frac{dU}{dt}$$

How do we arrive at solar radiation in snow modeling? These are pretty good

- 1) Use latitude, longitude, solar geometry to calculate potential radiation
- Modify potential radiation for slope, aspect, 2) shading by surrounding topography
- Determine some transmittance factor (or other 3) scaling) to decrease potential radiation based on clouds/atmospheric moisture content
- Further reduce solar radiation for areas under 4) forest cover

## How do we arrive at solar radiation in snow modeling?

- 1) Use latitude, longitude, solar geometry to calculate potential radiation
- 2) Modify potential radiation for slope, aspect, shading by surrounding topography
- 3) Determine some transmittance factor (or other scaling) to decrease potential radiation based on clouds/atmospheric moisture content
- 4) Further reduce solar radiation for areas under forest cover

guess

generally a big

his is

#### Commonly used formulas

Bristow and Cambell, 1984

$$R_s = R_a[A[1 - \exp(-B(\Delta T)^C)]$$

Hargreaves and Samami, 1985

$$R_s = R_a(k_R)\sqrt{(T_{\rm max} - T_{\rm min})}$$

R<sub>a</sub> is potential radiation (from geometry)

A, B, C, and  $k_R$  are empirical coefficients.

Both are based on the diurnal temperature range.

#### Alternate method is to look at precipitation records to determine transmissivity

TABLE 1. Decision matrix used to assign value for atmospheric transmitivity  $(\tau)$ .

Conditions	Value of $\tau$
No precipitation at $\Delta T > 10$ C (assumed clear sky conditions)	$\tau = 0.70$
No precipitation today, but precipitation fell the previous day	$\tau = 0.60$
Precipitation occurring on present day Precipitation today and also the previous day	$\begin{array}{l} \tau = 0.40 \\ \tau = 0.30 \end{array}$

<sup>a</sup>  $\Delta T$  is defined as (Tair<sub>max</sub> - Tair<sub>min</sub>).

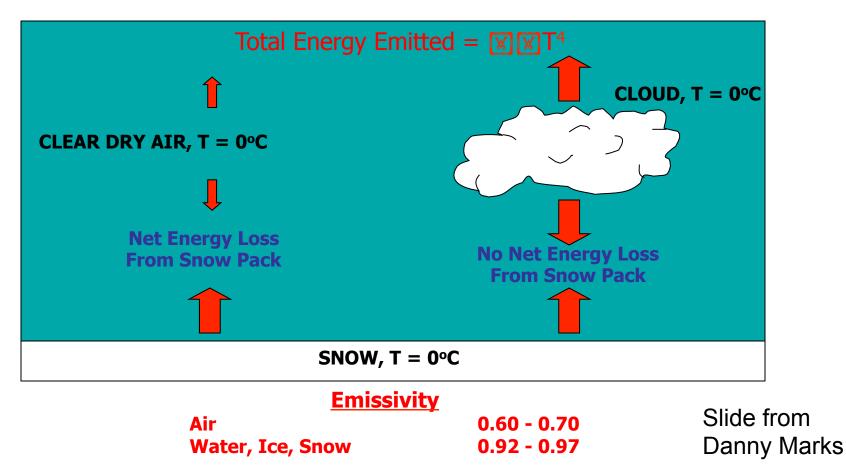
Spokas and Forcella 2006, Weed Science

How do we arrive at longwave radiation in snow modeling?

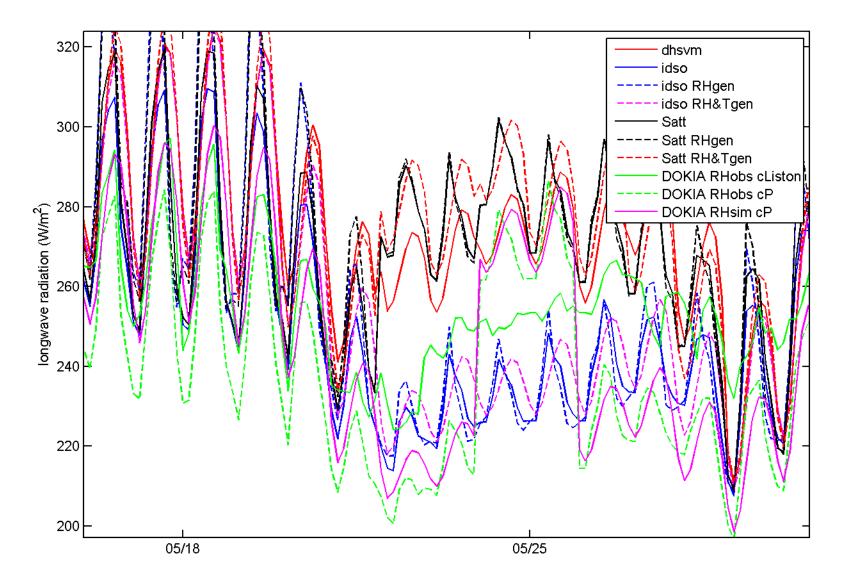
- 1) Estimate the emissivity of the atmosphere. (Function of Tmax-Tmin and Relative Humidity)
- 2) Estimate the effective temperature of the atmosphere. (May adjust for clouds)
- 3) Use the Stefan-Boltzman equation.
- 4) Can also add in longwave emitted from surrounding terrain
- 5) Further modify longwave for areas under forest cover

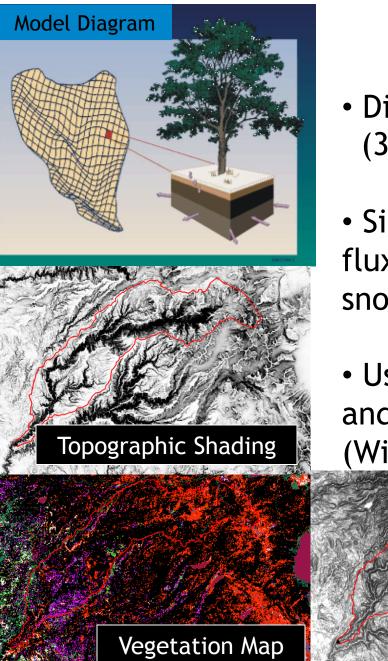
#### **Snow Energy Exchanges**

Atmospheric (Longwave) Radiation



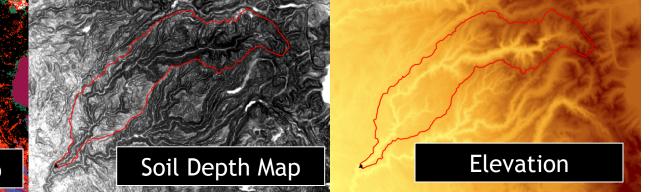
### Choice of scheme, source of RH, and cloud parameterization all matter



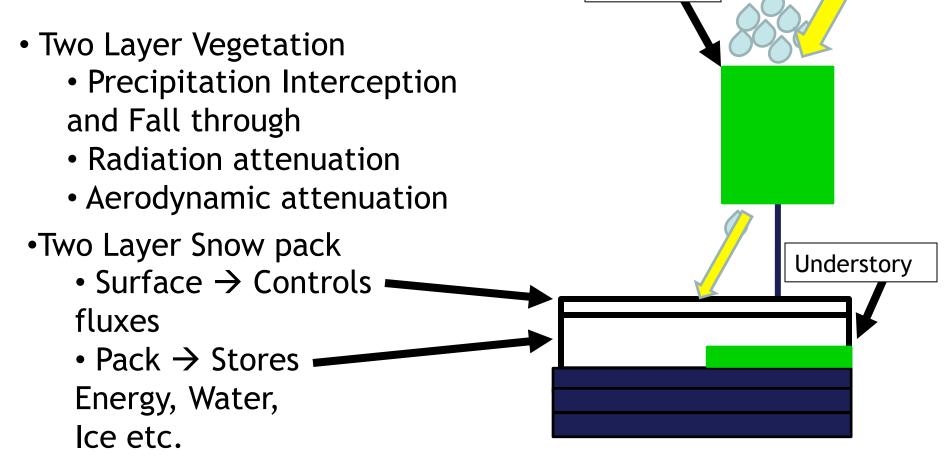


#### **DHSVM**

- Distributed model at 150m resolution. (39,348 grid cells in North Fork Basin)
- Simulates vertical and horizontal fluxes of water through vegetation, snow and soil.
- Used extensively for Land use change and Climate change research. (Wigmosta et al. 1994)



#### DHSVM Snow Model Schematic Overstory



#### **Energy Balance**

- *Qnet* = (*Qr* +*Qs* + *Qe* + *Qp*) \* *dt*
- Qr = NetRad
- Qs = Sensible Heat
- Qe = Latent Heat
- Qp = Advected energy via the input of water
- Qnet > 0  $\rightarrow$  Warms pack to 0°C, then melts
- Qnet < 0  $\rightarrow$  Refreezes water, then cools

#### Energy Balance approach requires more Meteorological Input

What is required at each time step:

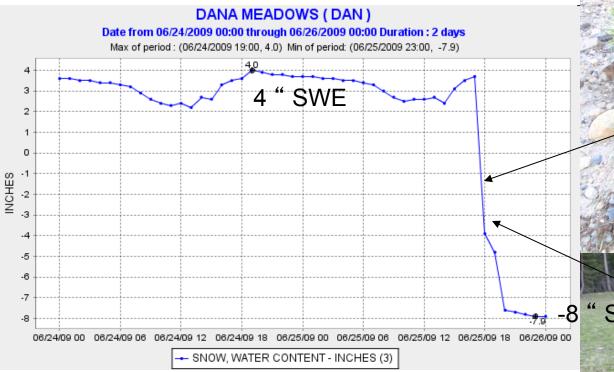
Temperature Precipitation Wind Speed Relative Humidity Shortwave Rad Longwave Rad



#### Let's visit the Dana Meadows snow pillow.

June 25, 2009

### Dana snow pillow, evening of June 25 2009



12" SWE difference before and after this event.



#### How long does it take a tree to grow?

