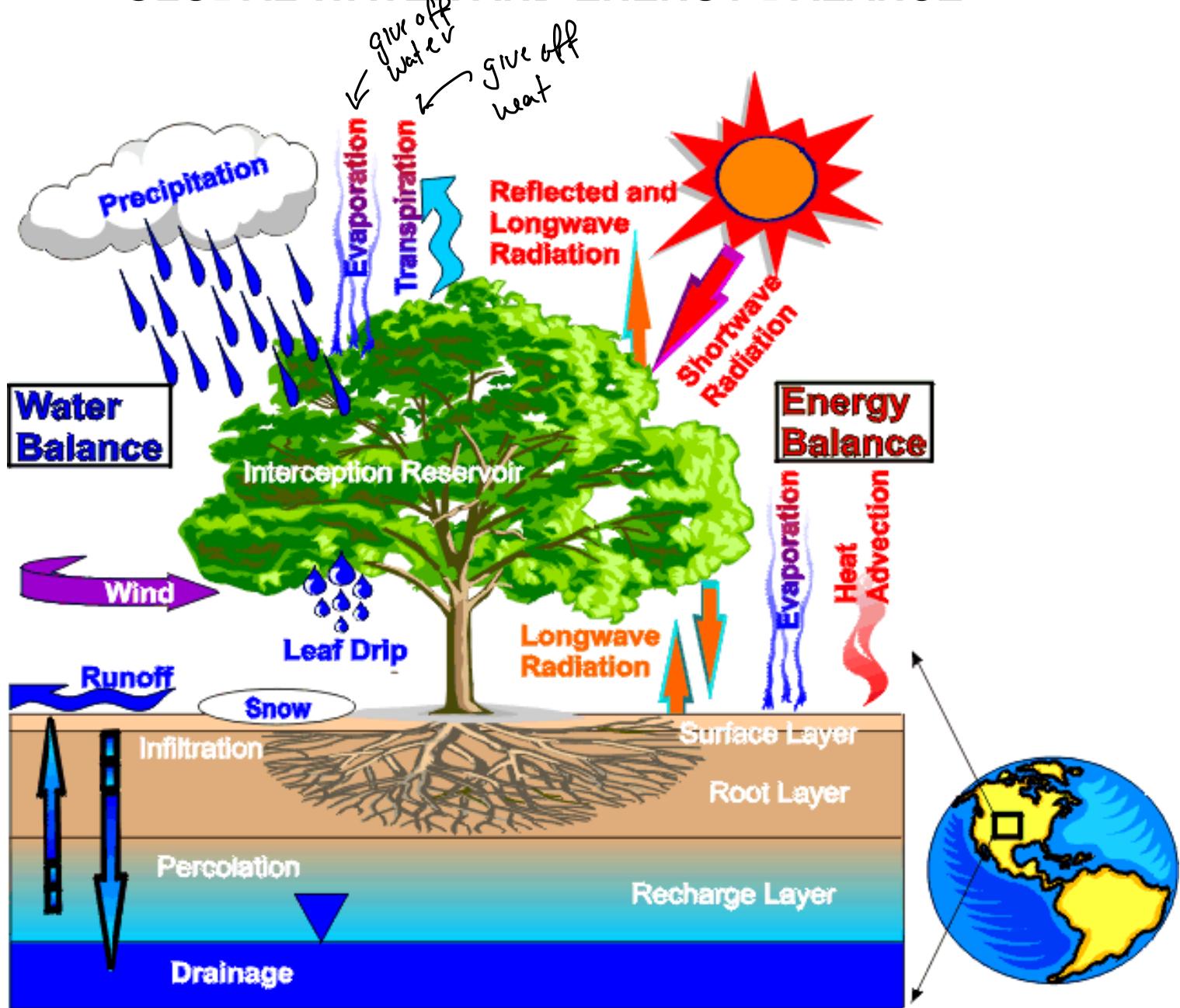


Module II

GLOBAL WATER AND ENERGY BALANCE



GLOBAL WATER AND ENERGY BALANCE



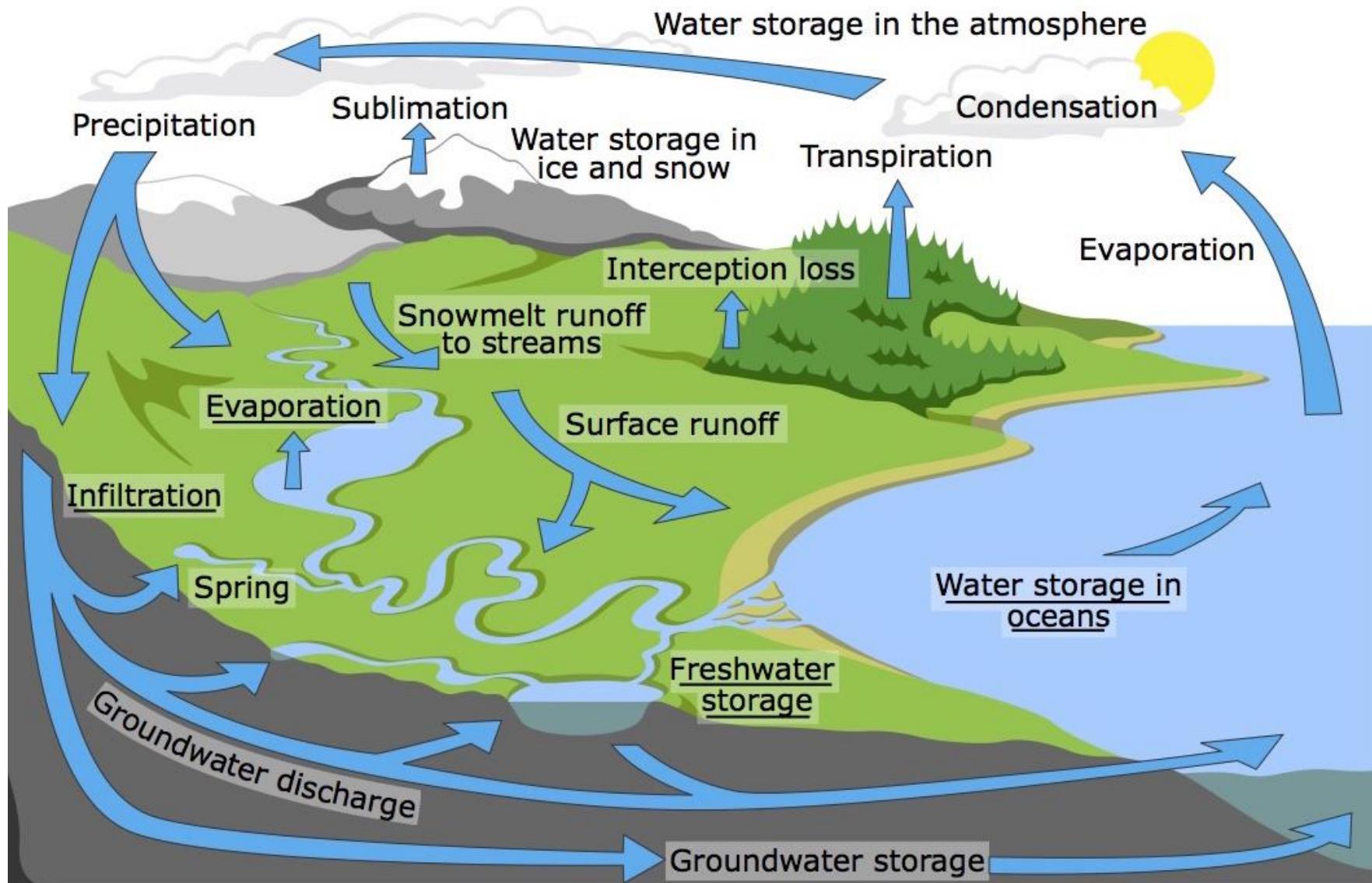
Introduction

The hydrologic (water) cycle:

- Driven by solar energy
- The “**master cycle**” that drives all other biogeochemical cycles



DYNAMIC AND COMPLEX: THE GLOBAL WATER CYCLE

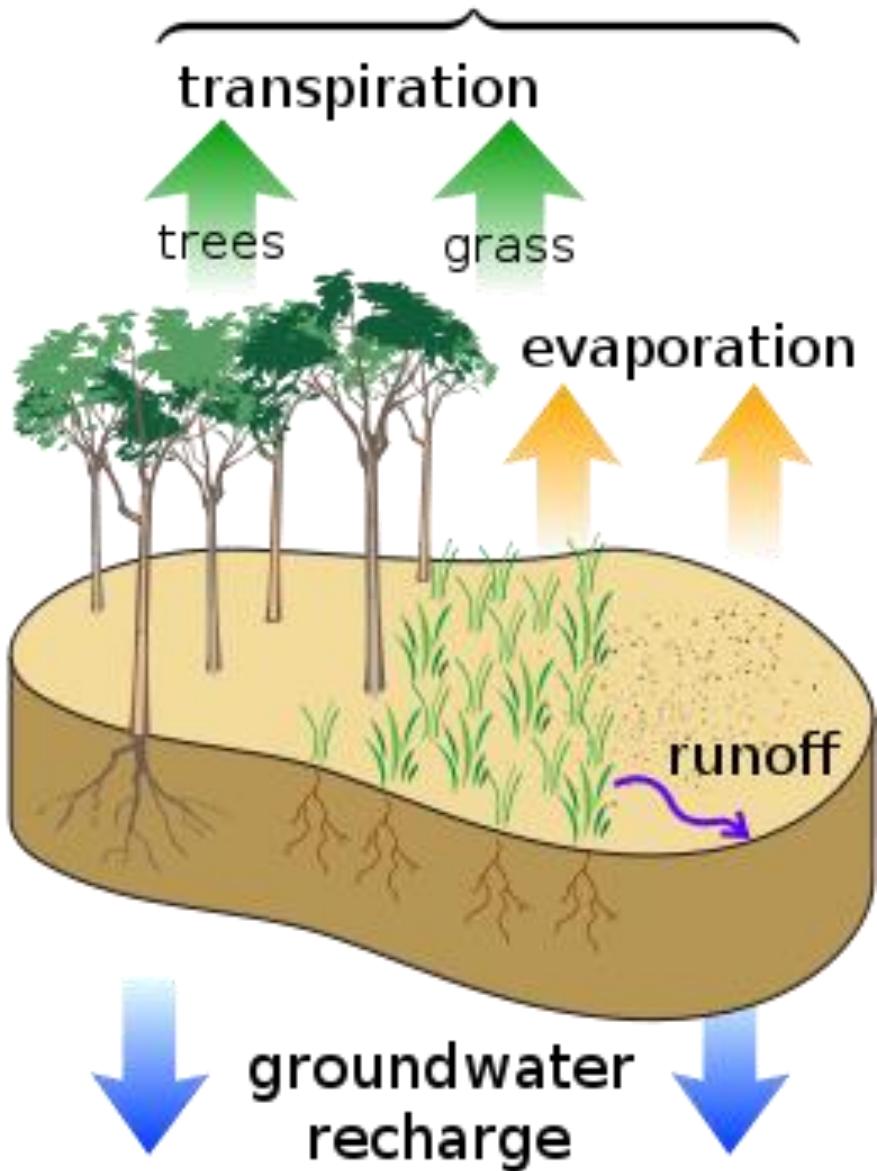


Water and **energy cycles are so tightly intertwined that they cannot be treated separately**

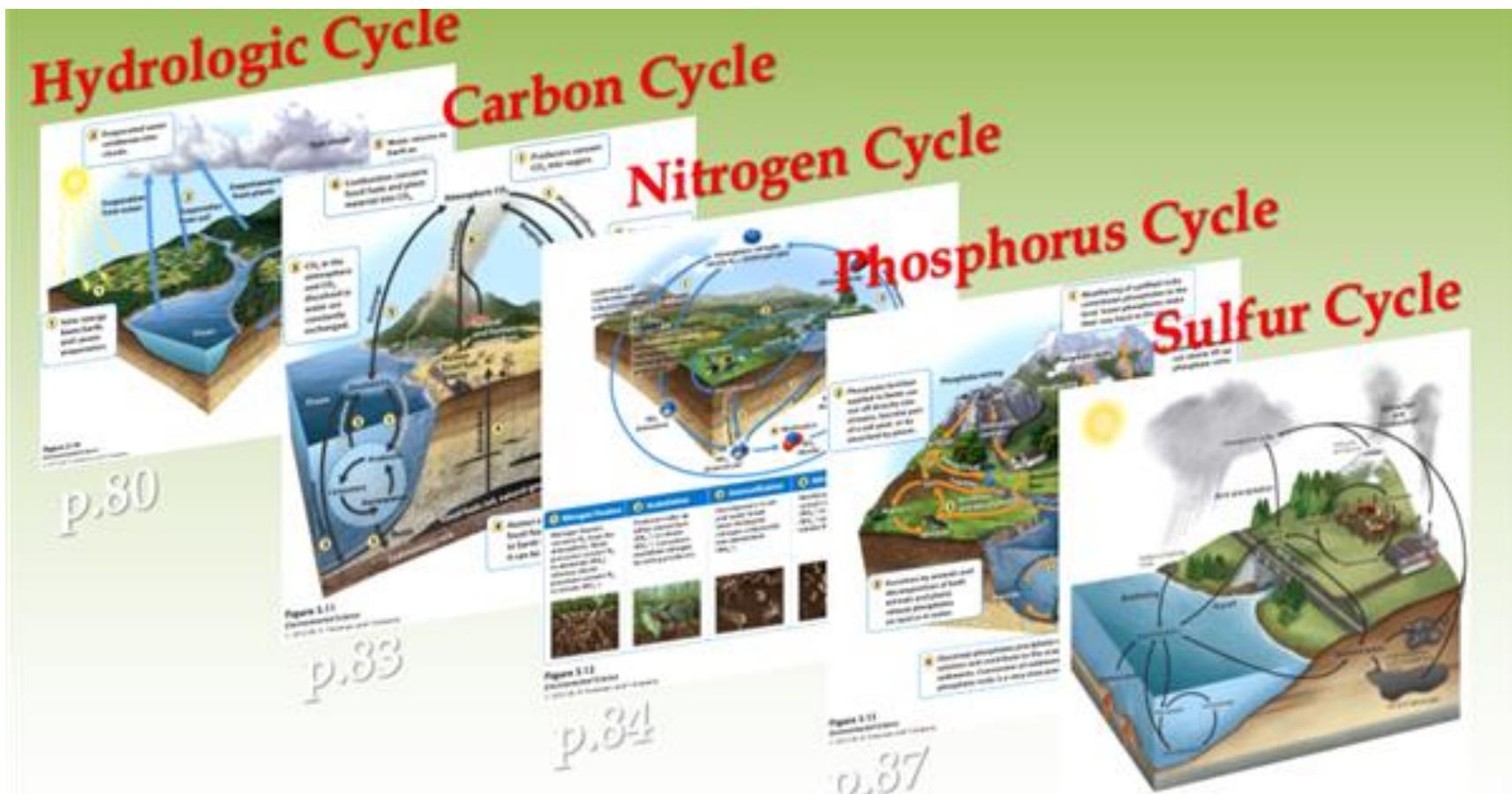


**Solar energy
drives the
hydrologic cycle
through
evapotranspiration**

evapotranspiration =
transpiration + evaporation



The hydrologic cycle controls Earth's biogeochemical cycles by **dissolving nutrients and transferring them within and among ecosystems**



Earth's Energy Budget

The **sun** is the source of the energy available to drive Earth's climate system → primarily **short-wave radiation** (UV, visible, and near-infrared)

30% reflected back by clouds, air, dust, haze, etc. (**backscatter**)

23% absorbed by the atmosphere (ozone in upper atmosphere and clouds / water vapor in lower atmosphere)

47% reaches Earth's surface

Earth emits most energy as low energy longwave radiation

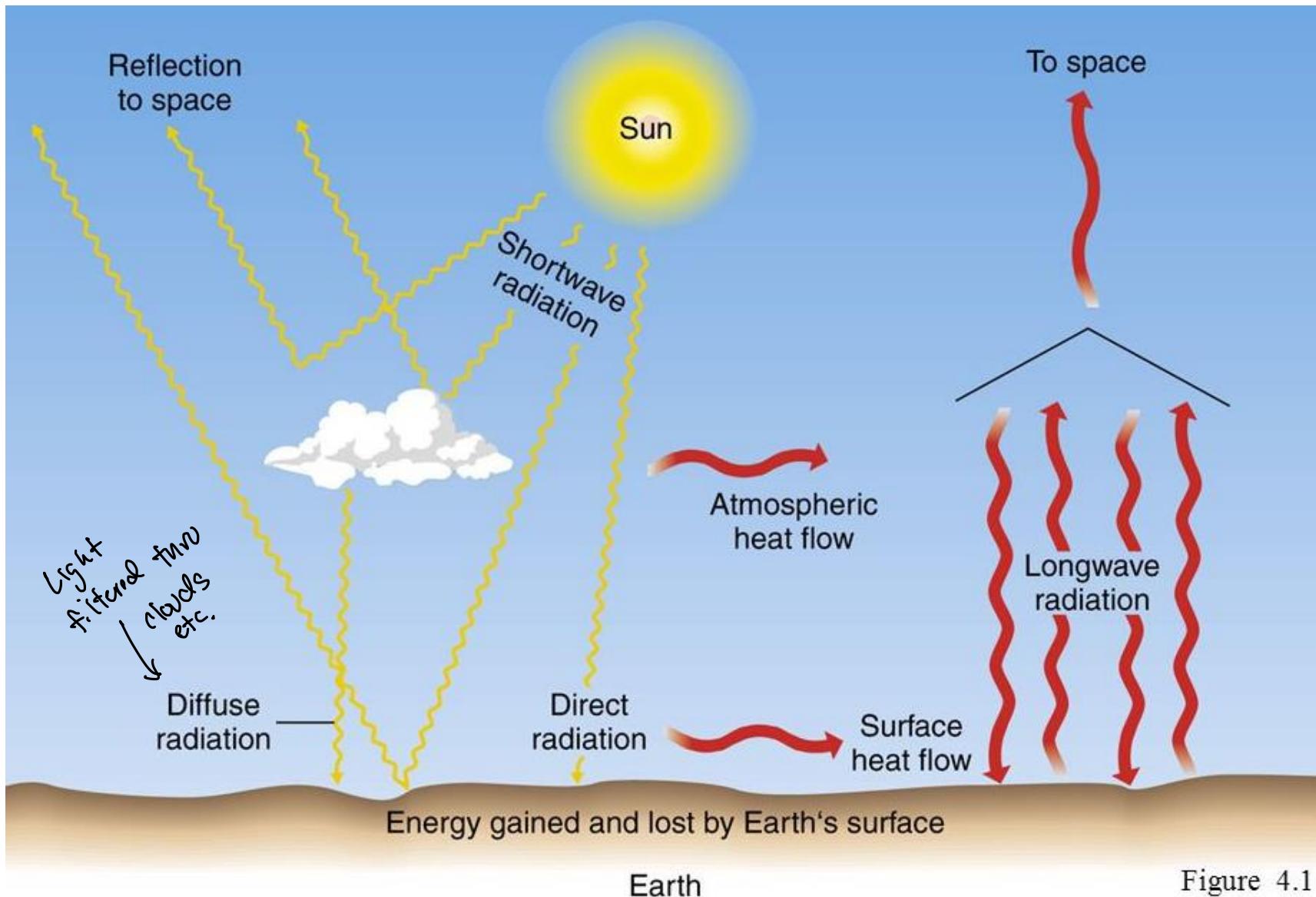
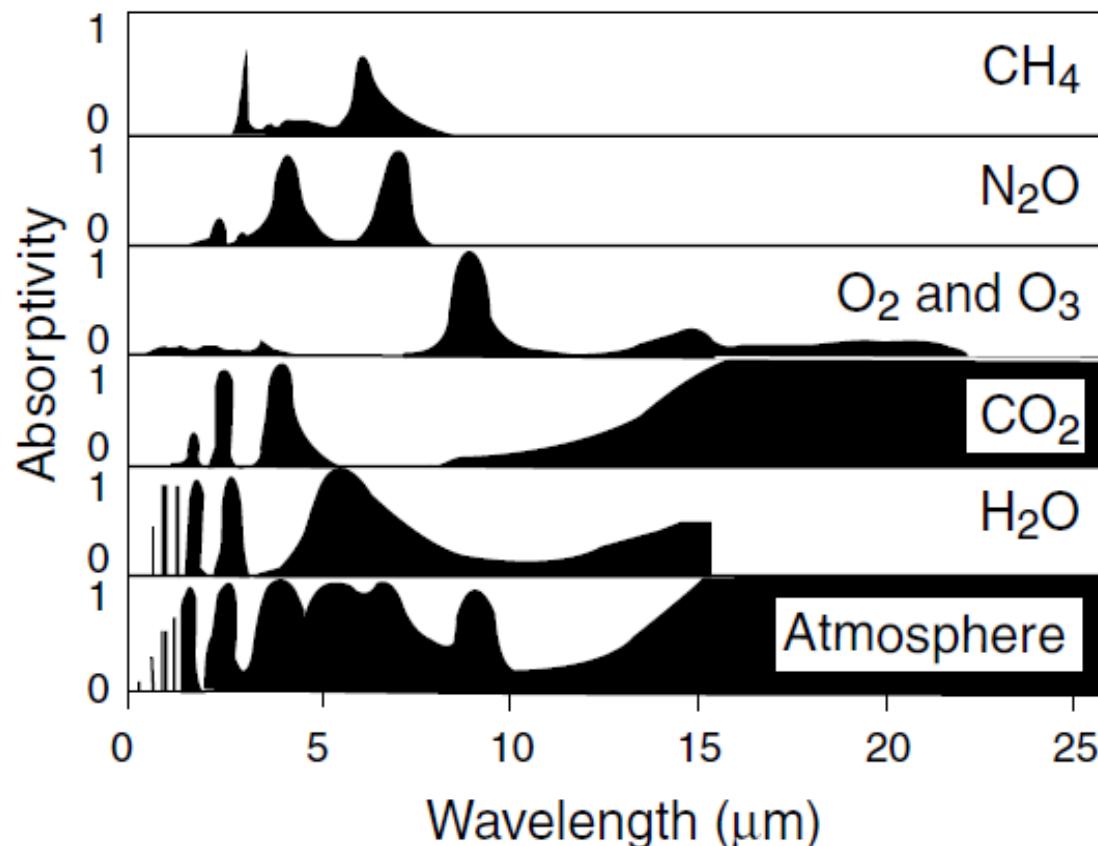


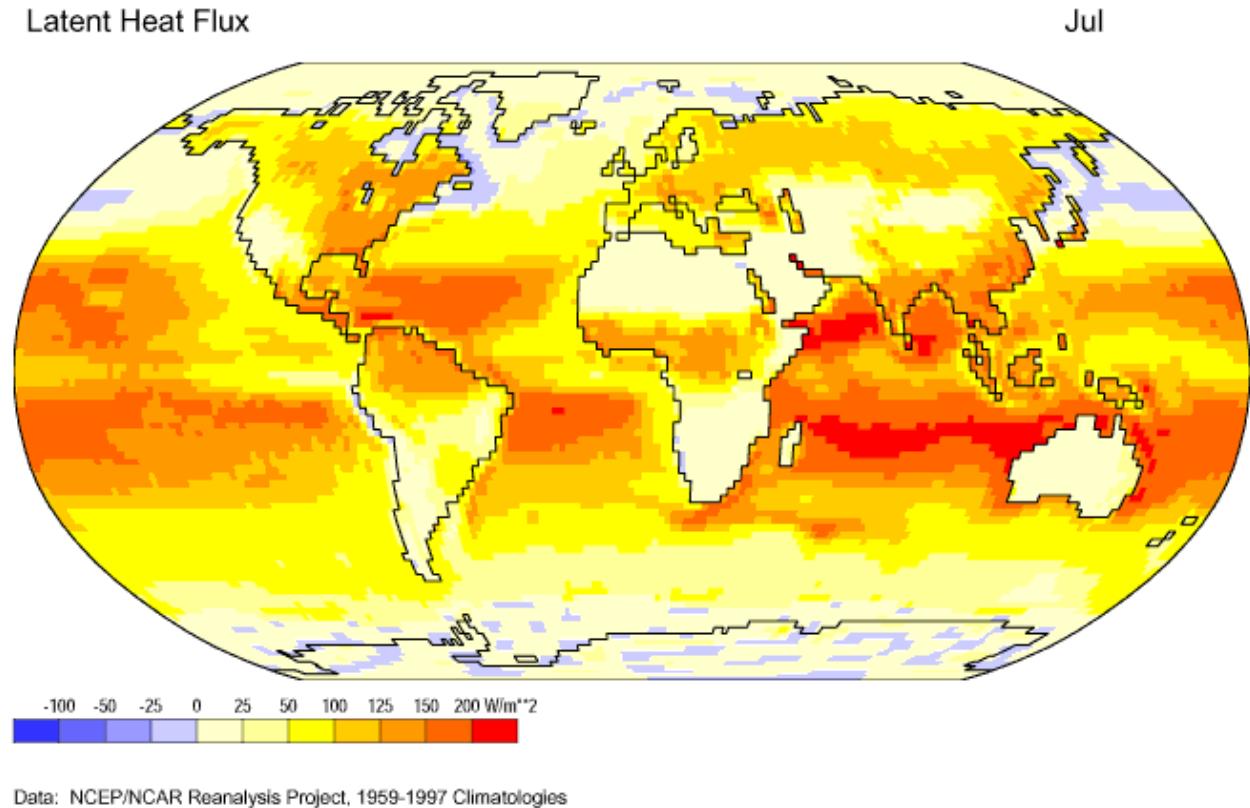
Figure 4.1

Radiatively active gases (water vapor, CO₂, CH₄, N₂O and industrial products like chlorofluorocarbons [CFCs]) absorb 90% of the outgoing longwave radiation



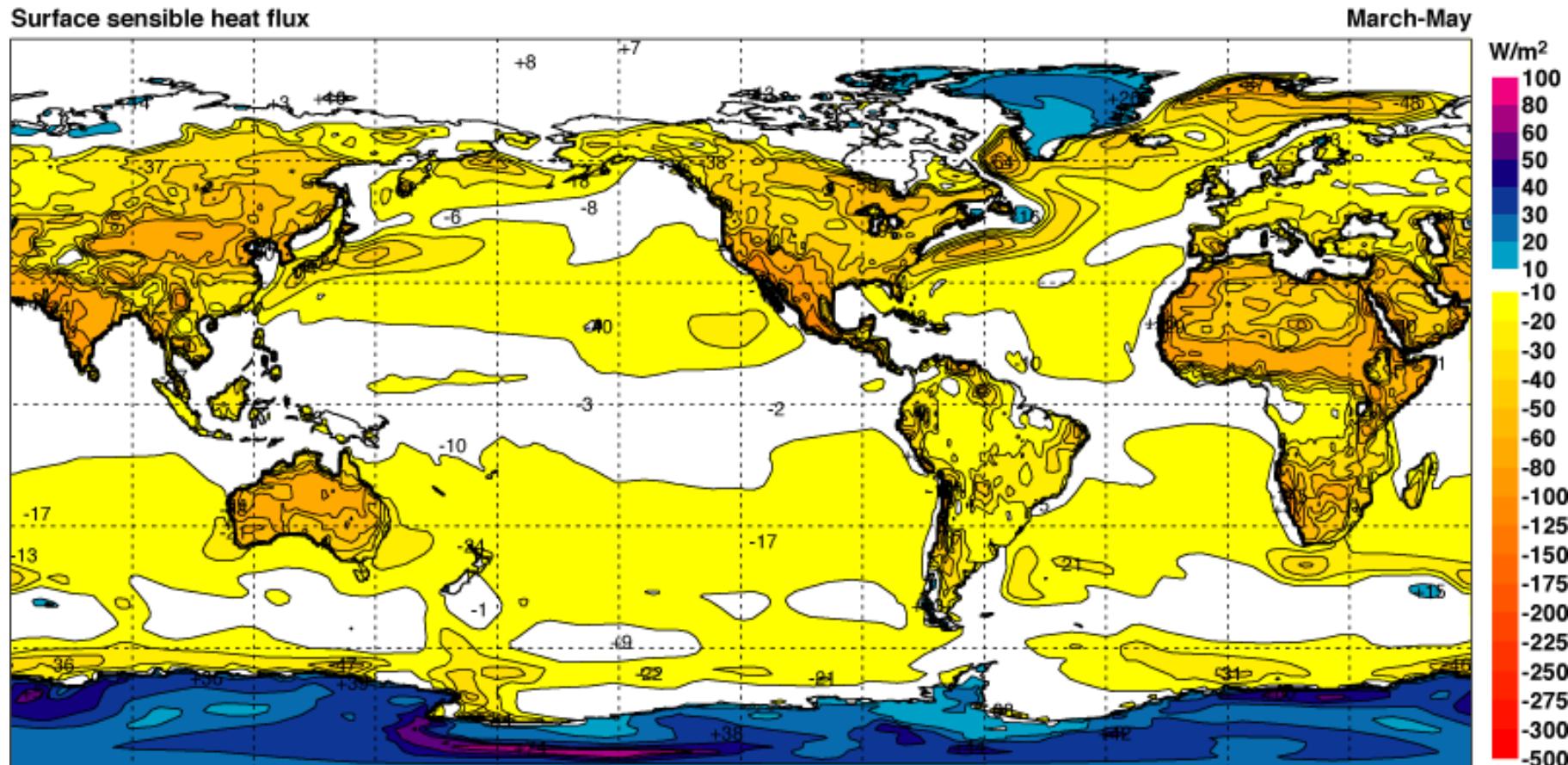
Non-radiative fluxes of heat are carried upward by atmospheric turbulence:

Latent heat flux – heat that evaporates surface water → water vapor → clouds → precipitation

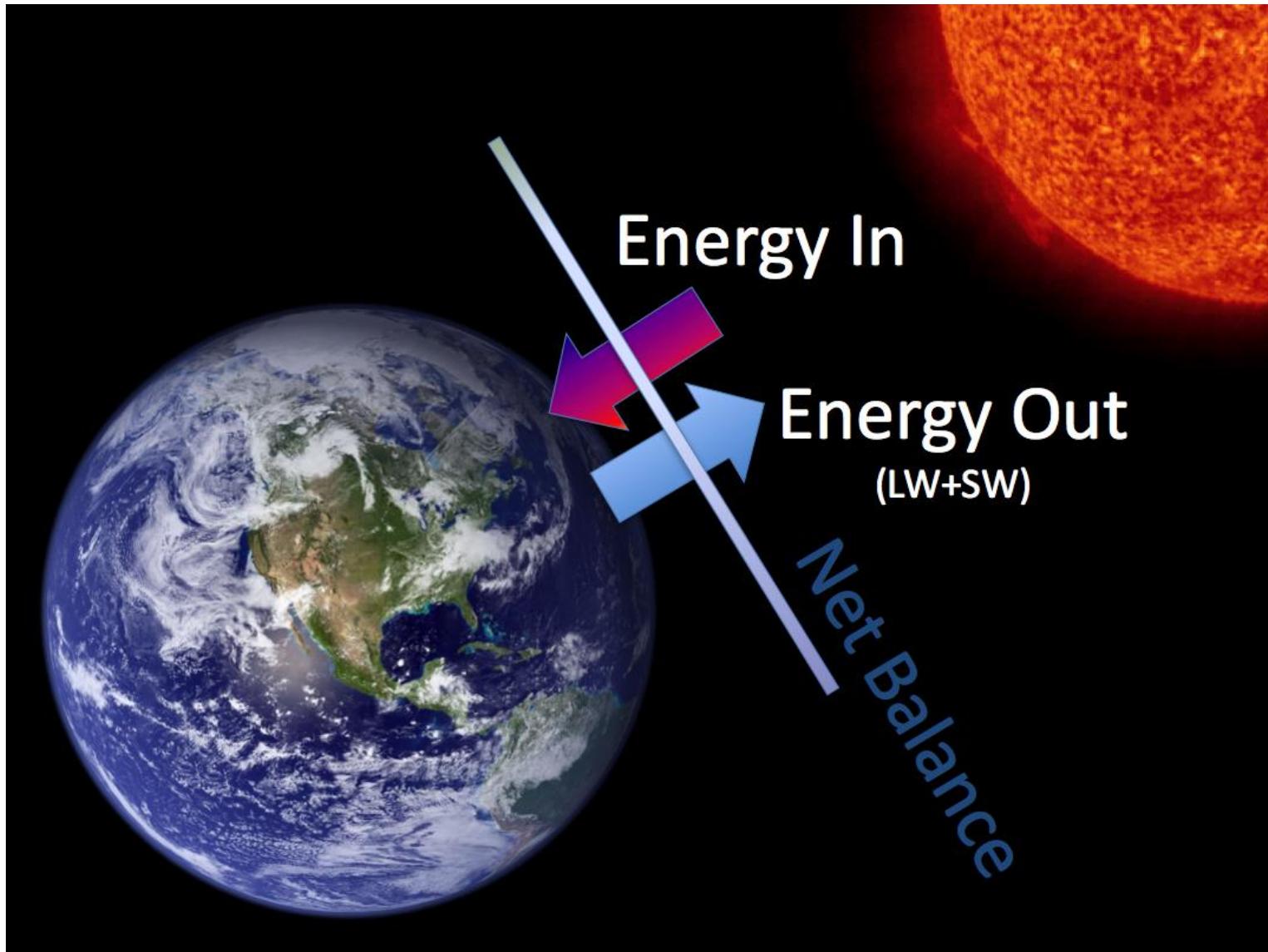


Sensible Heat flux –heat conducted from warm surfaces is carried upward by convection

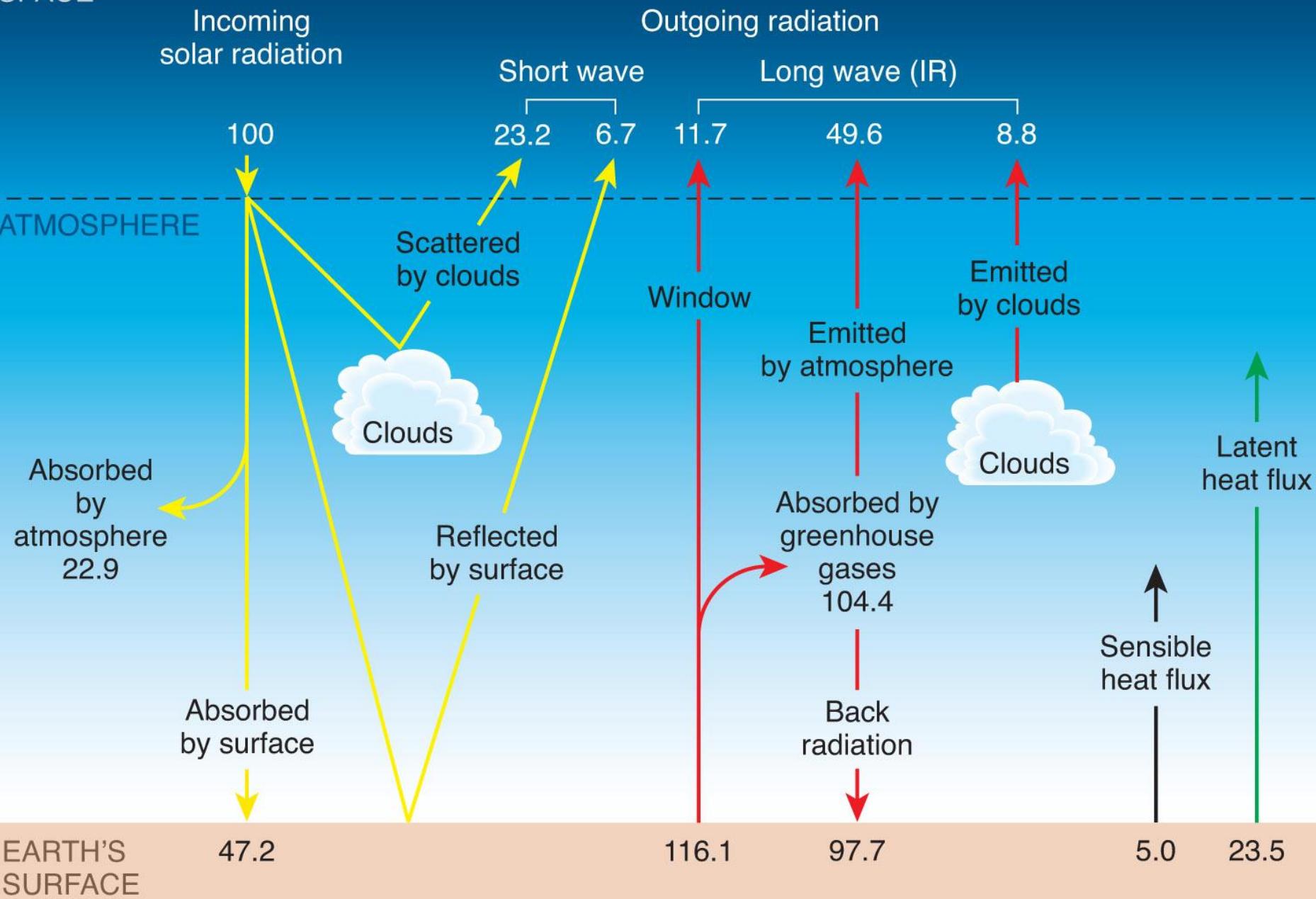
Surface sensible heat flux



Globally, long-term average is for earth to be in a state of **radiative balance**



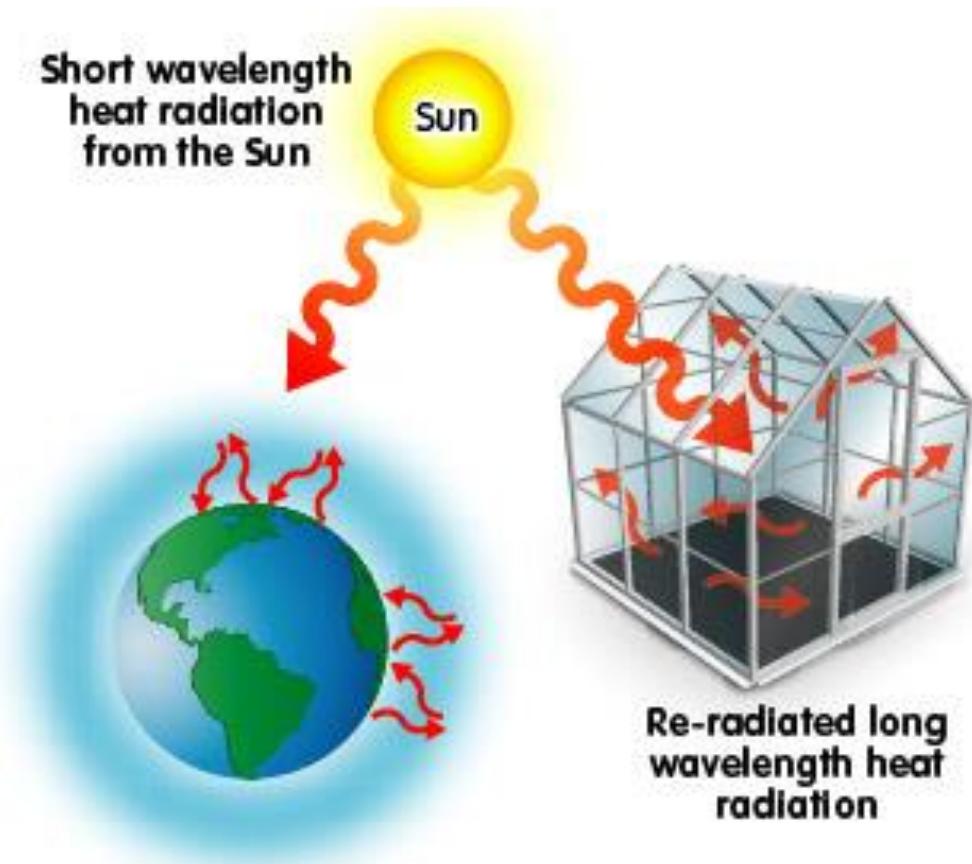
SPACE



Some outgoing heat gets to the upper atmosphere / space

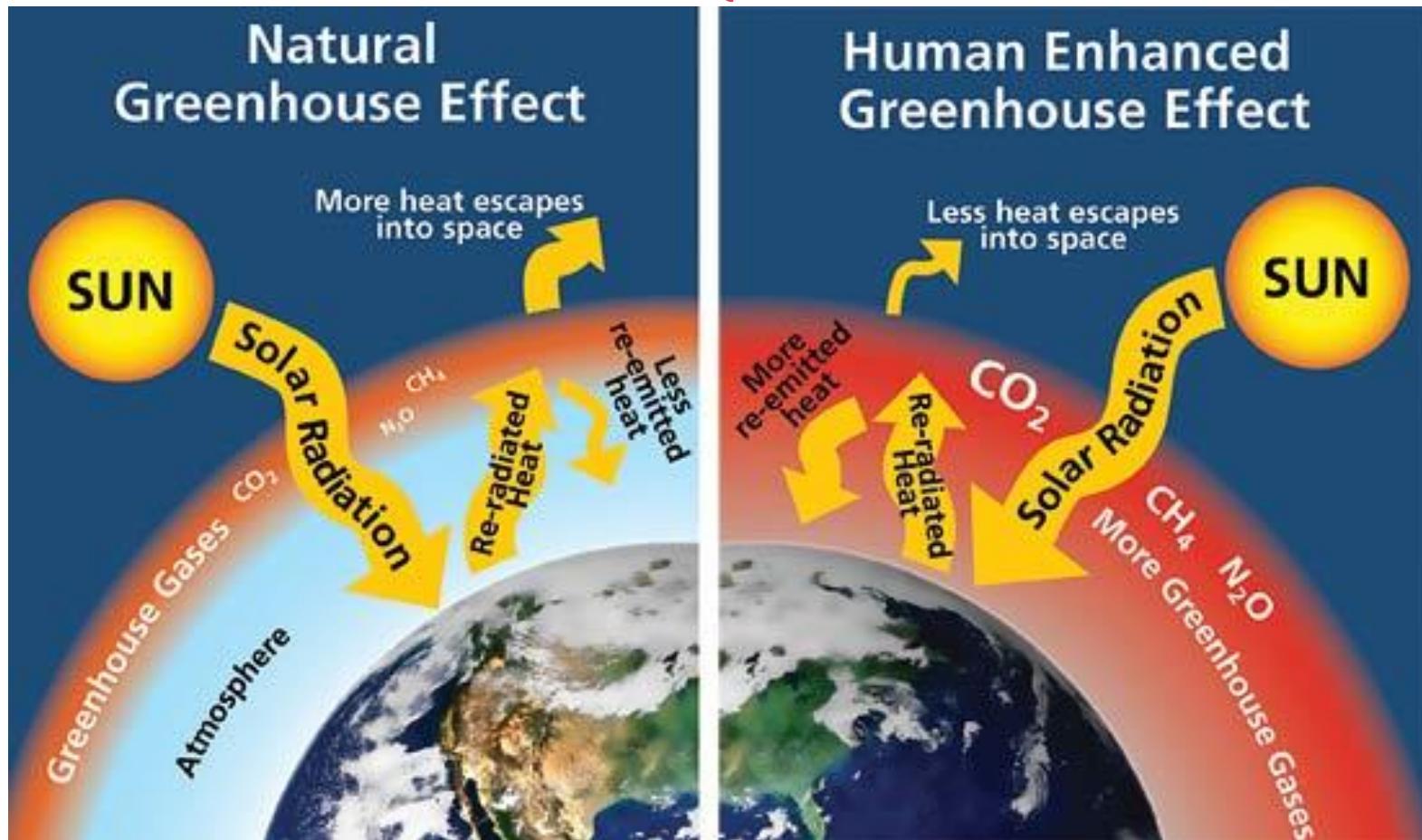
Some is intercepted and **re-radiated back to the Earth's surface**

**(Natural
Greenhouse
Effect)**

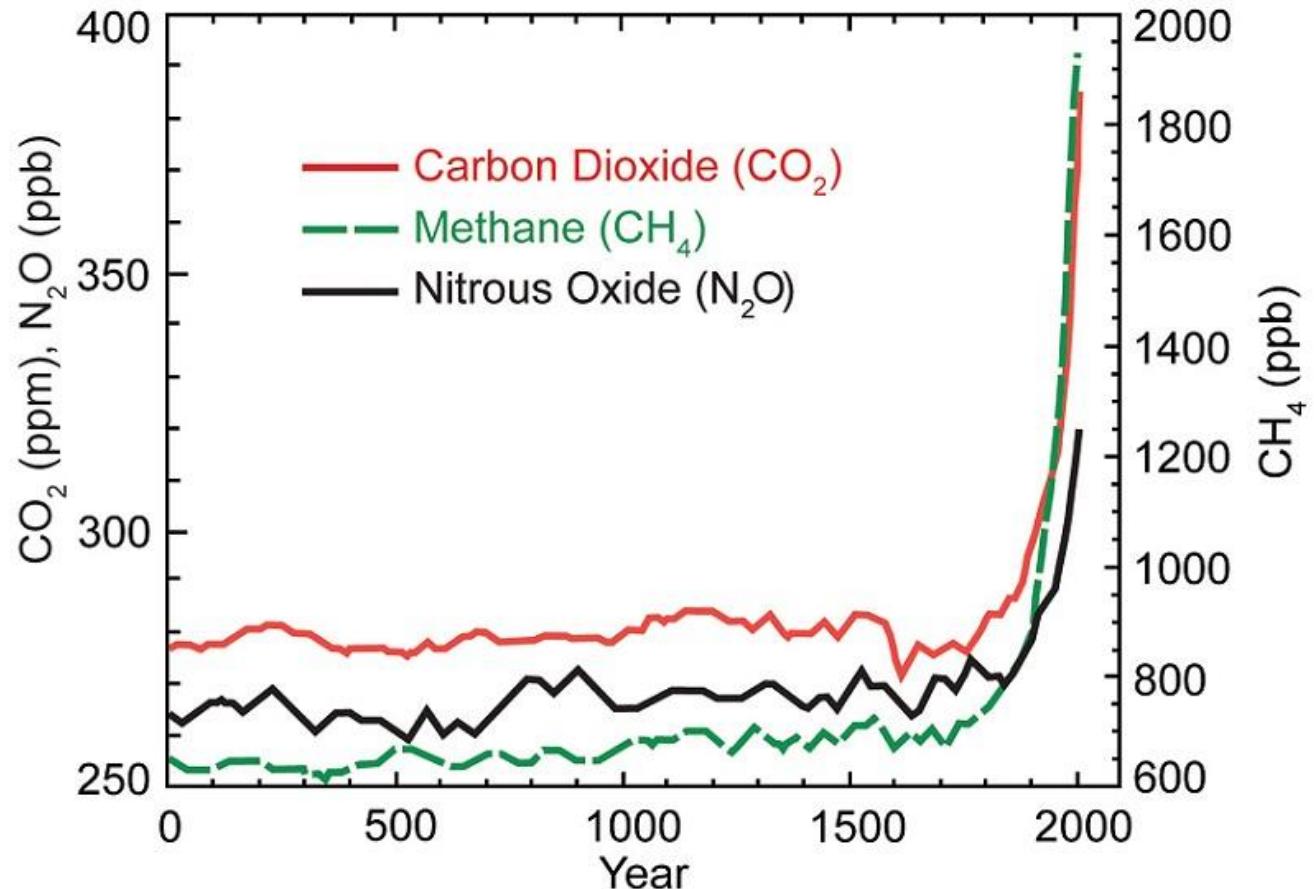


Human activities are changing the composition of the atmosphere resulting in an **increase** in the heat retained close to Earth's surface

>Main take away: human climate change = less heat escape to space

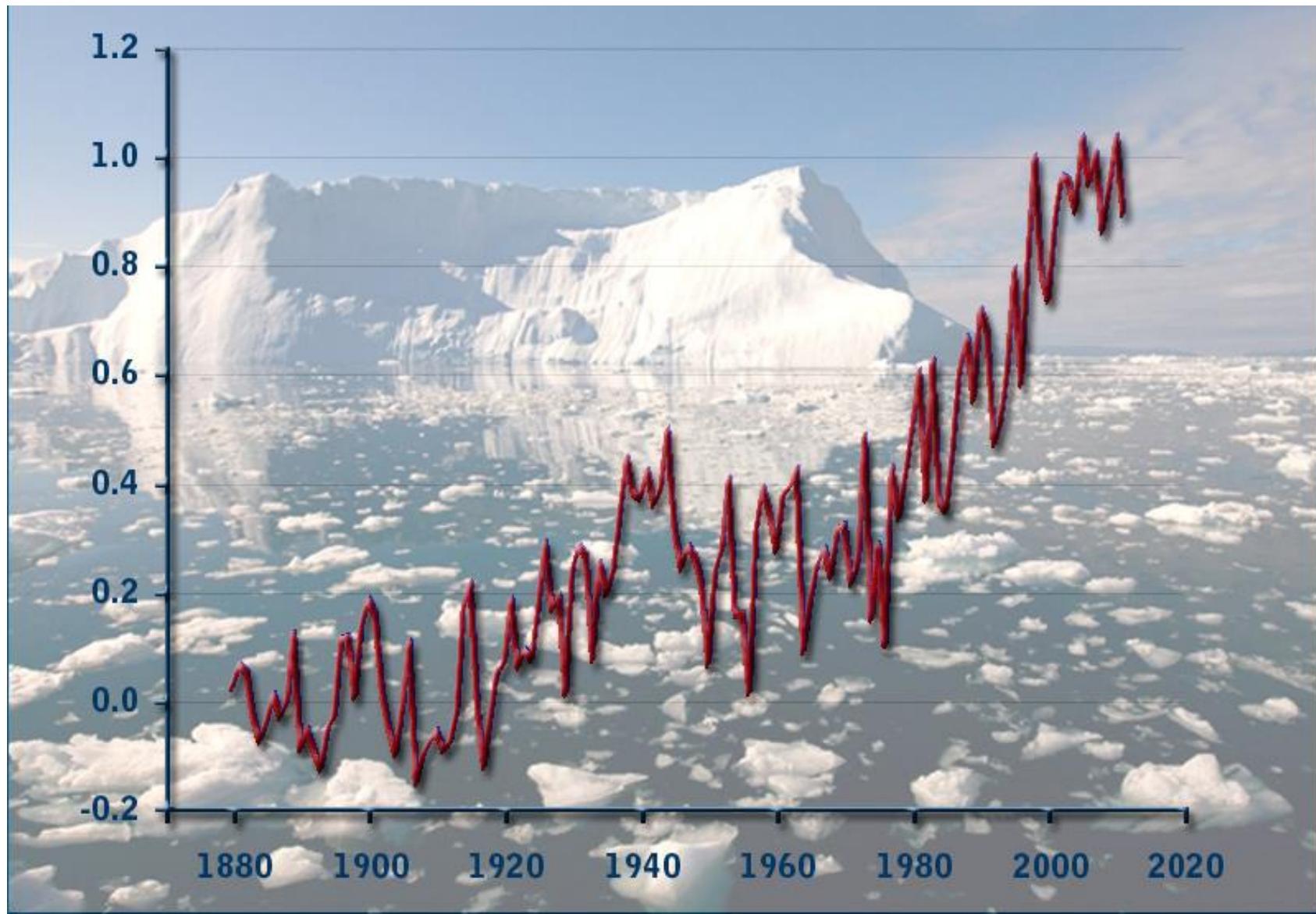


Long-term records (from direct atmospheric measurements and from air bubbles in ice cores) show large increases in the major radiatively active gases (CO_2 , CH_4 , N_2O , and CFCs) since the beginning of the industrial revolution (approx. 250 years ago)



Why?

Result? Upset energy balance → enhance GH effect → increase Earth's surface temp.



Atmospheric Influence on the Global Energy Budget

Chemical composition of the atmosphere determines its role in the Earth's energy budget... thousands of chemical substances – gases and particulates

Compound	Formula	Concentration (%)
Nitrogen	N ₂	78.082
Oxygen	O ₂	20.945
Argon	Ar	0.934
Carbon dioxide	CO ₂	0.039

99% = N₂, O₂, Ar, CO₂

Atmospheric gases have different mean residence times (MRTs)

MRT = total mass of gas divided by flux into and out of the atmosphere over a given period of time

↳ OR: average amount of a given gas over time, given its influx & outflux

N_2 = 13 million years

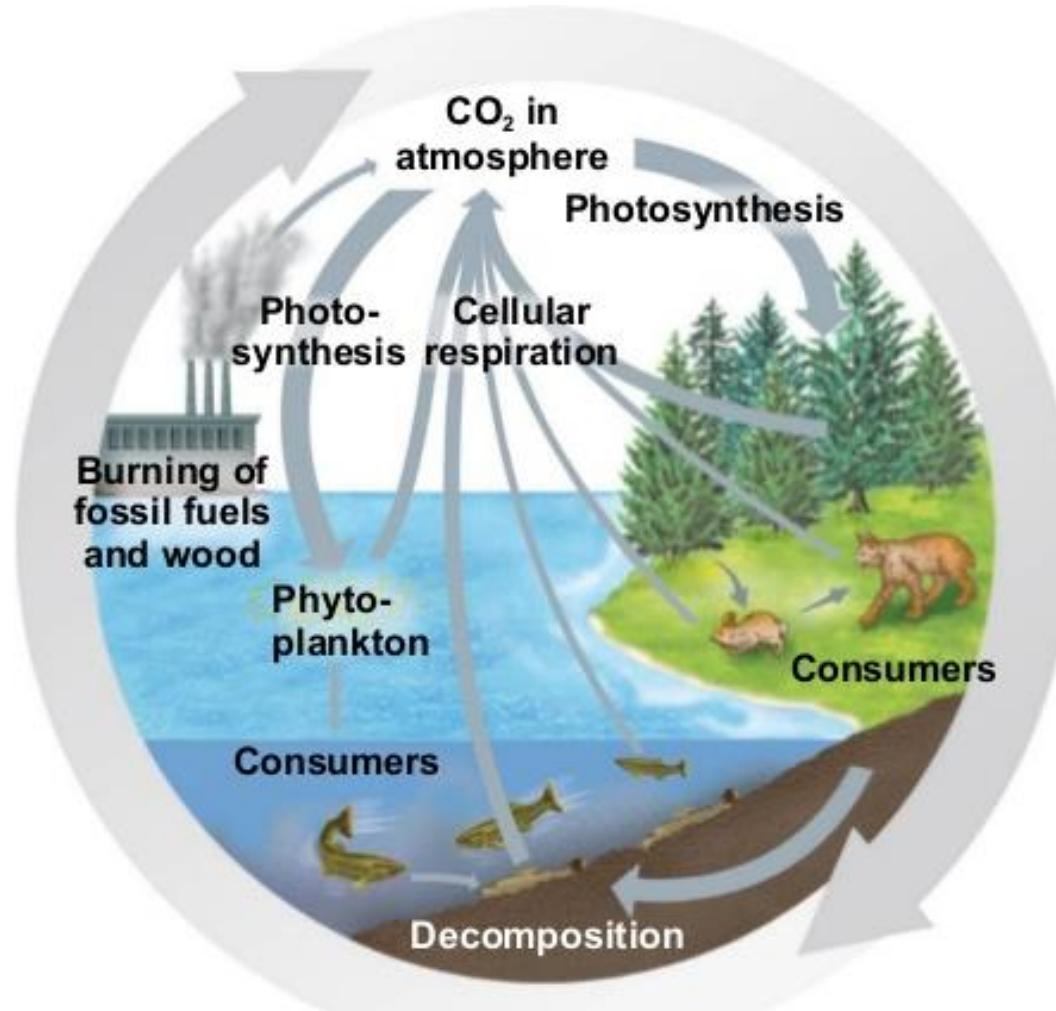
O_2 = 10,000 years

CO_2 = 5 years ****

CH_4 = 8 - 20 years

how long
they reside
in atmosphere

*****CO₂** is not broken down when absorbed by the ocean or atmosphere.... recycled through the **Carbon Cycle**



If all fossil fuel emissions ceased today, the excess CO₂ in the atmosphere (approx. 35% higher than “natural background levels”), would take a long time to decline:

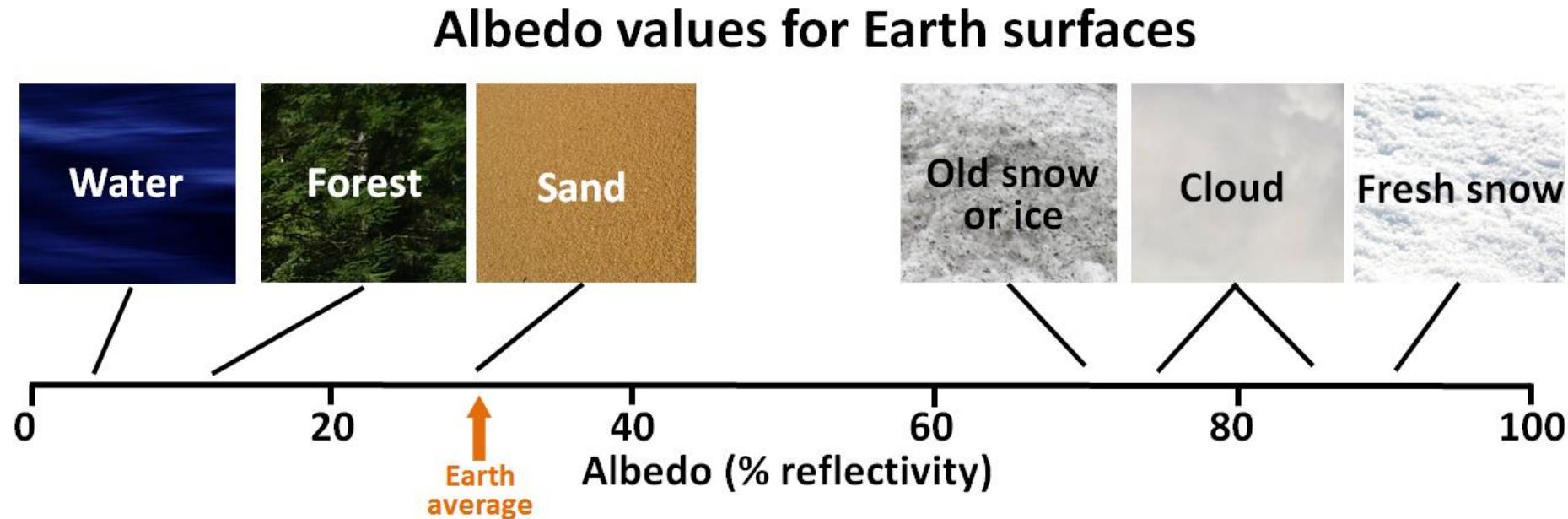
- 50% in 30 years
- Another 20% within several hundred years
- The remaining 30% remains for several thousand years

Aerosols + gases + clouds + surface characteristics determine reflectivity (albedo) → exerts significant control over Earth's energy budget (and climate)



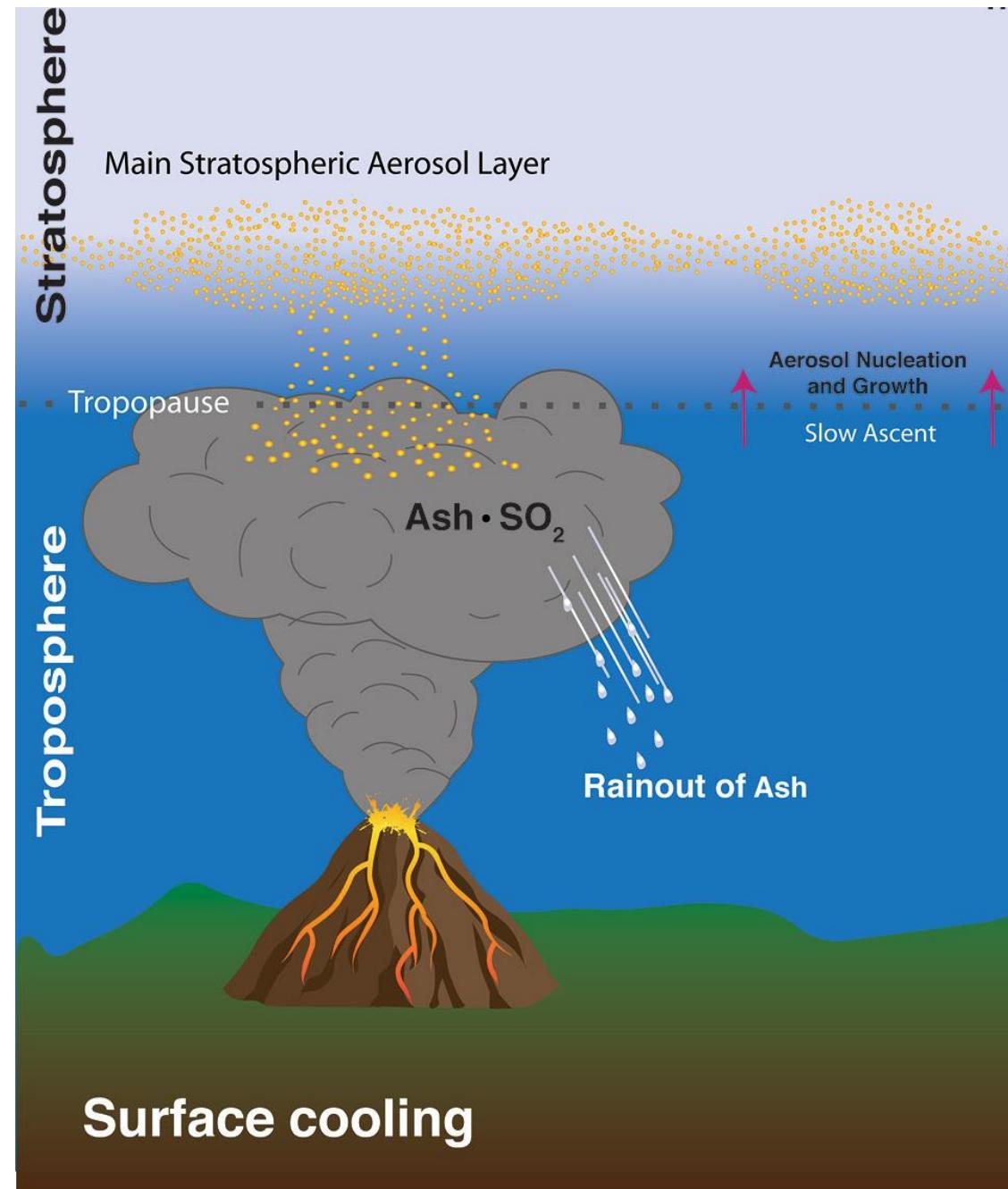
Global surface albedo – NASA image

The **albedo** of a surface determines the quantity of solar energy **absorbed by the surface** (and is subsequently **available for transfer to the atmosphere as longwave radiation**)



Aerosols
scatter (reflect)
some incoming
shortwave
radiation (**cools**
climate)

aerosols COOL
Climate
↳ reflect incoming
shortwave



Ex: In 1991 Mt. Pinatubo in the Philippines produced **sulfate aerosols** that cooled the global climate for a year!!!



ALBERT GARCIA

Clouds.....

Have a **high albedo** and reflect short wave radiation (**cooling effect**)

AND

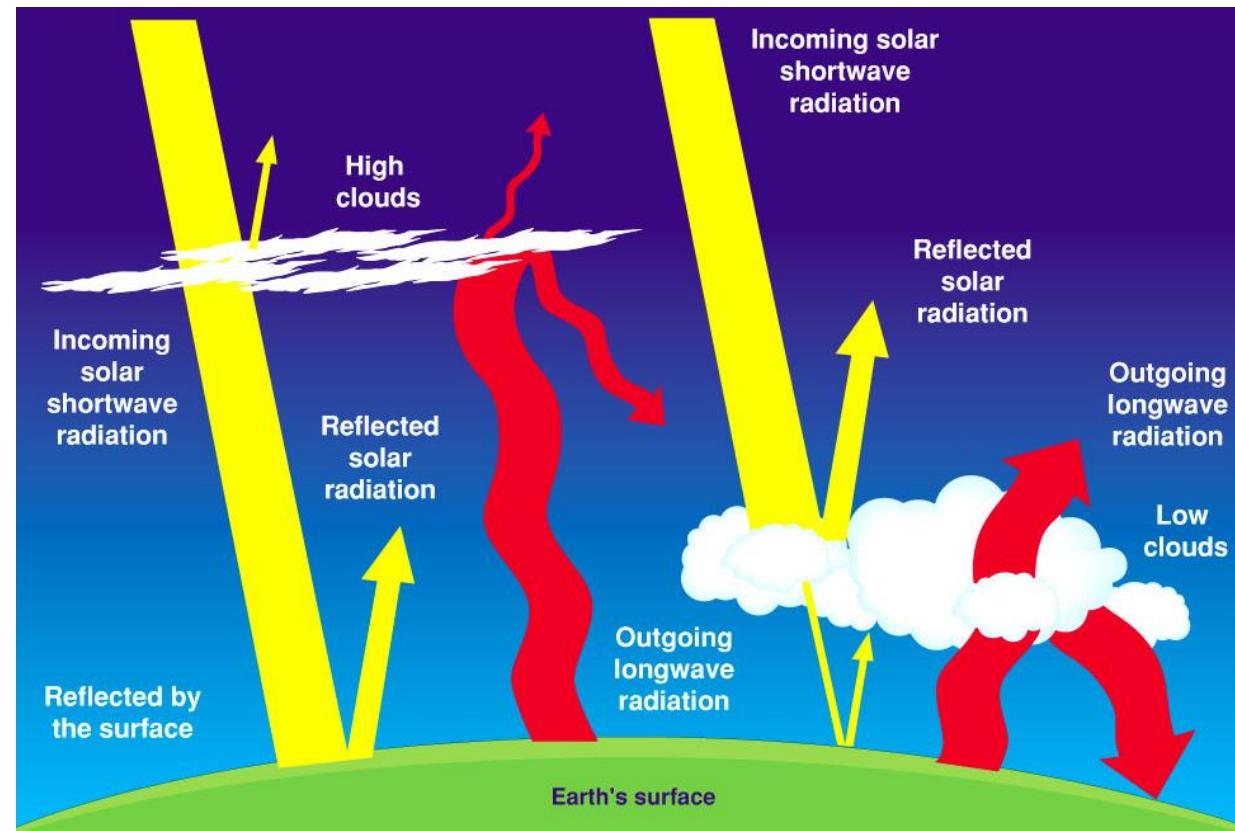
Absorb re-radiated longwave radiation from earth (**warming effect**)

High clouds = cooling

↳ reflect

Low clouds = warming

↳ trap



The change from **snow covered** (little energy absorbed) to **snow-free** (more energy absorbed) occurs at a threshold ($31^{\circ}\text{F} \rightarrow 33^{\circ}\text{F}$):

Glacier
National
Park



So, in ecosystems where snow plays a part, a small change in temperature can produce a major shift in energy absorbance!!!

Land use change can also have large effects on albedo:

Ex: Conversion of grassland (20% reflectance) to dark fallow field (5% reflectance)

How does this affect temperature?

- ↳ Makes things warmer
- ↳ More absorption potential

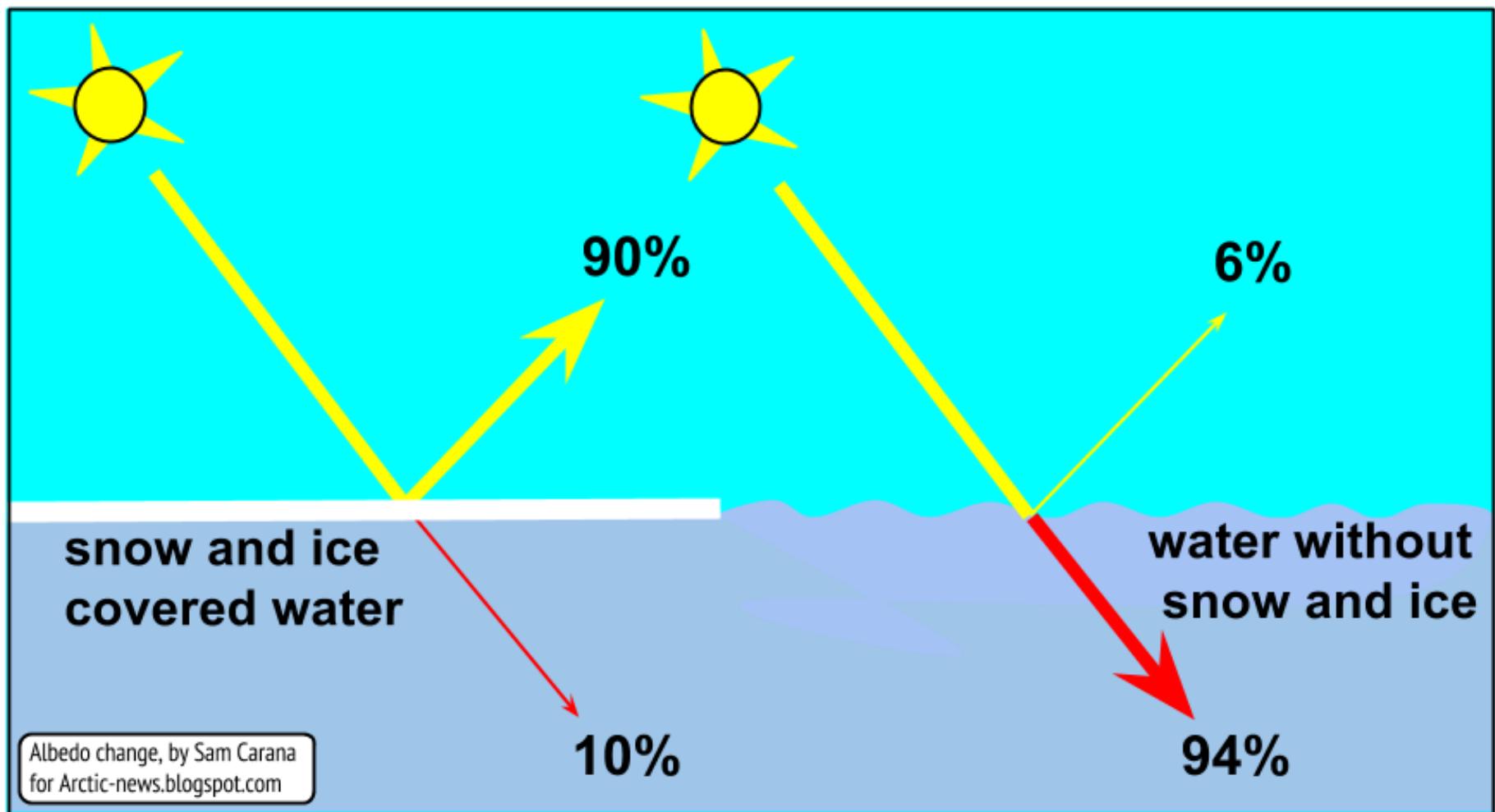


**Conversion of grassland (20% reflectance)
to light sandy soils via desertification (40%
reflectance)**

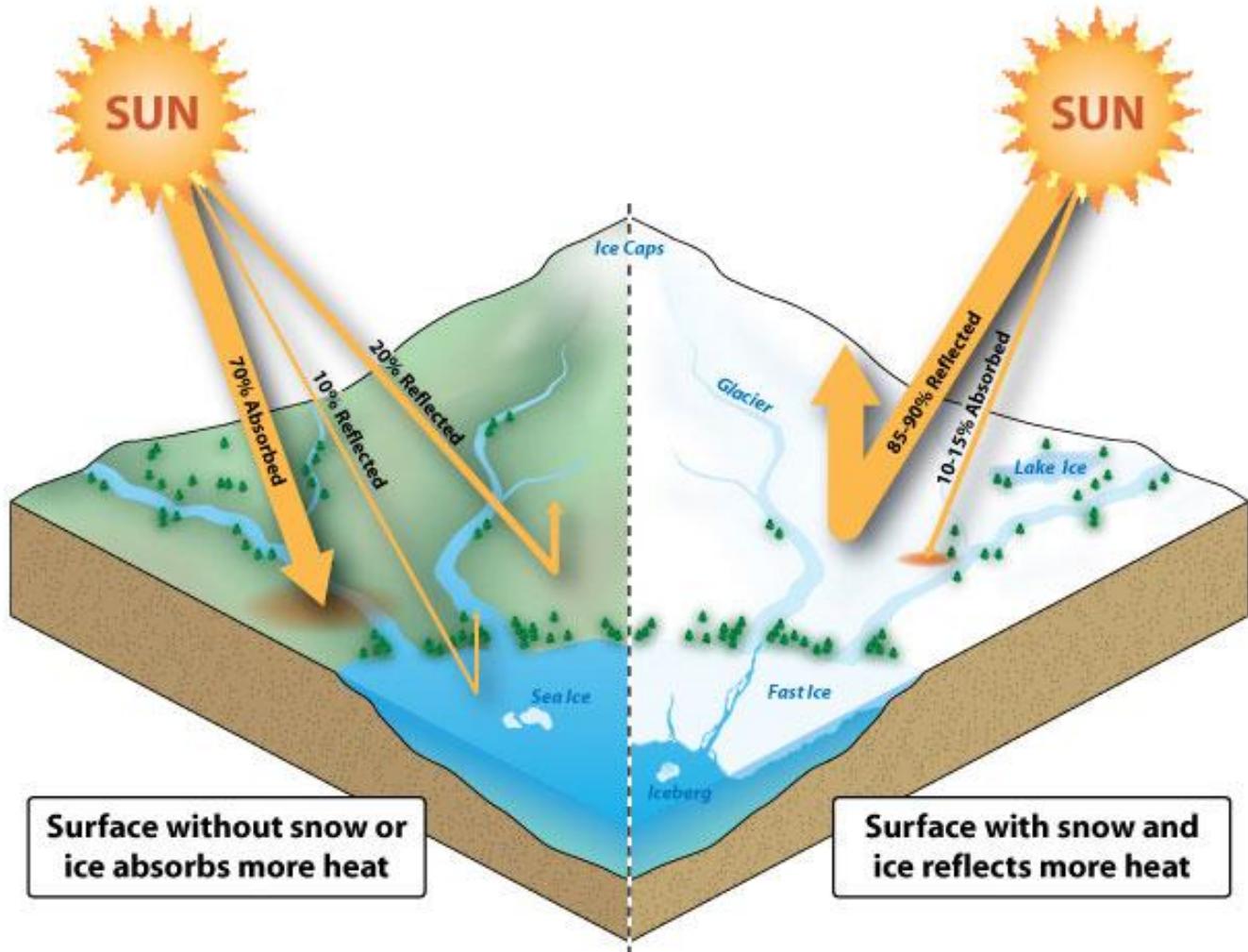
What effect does this have on temperature?



Water generally has a low albedo, so lakes and oceans absorb considerable solar energy

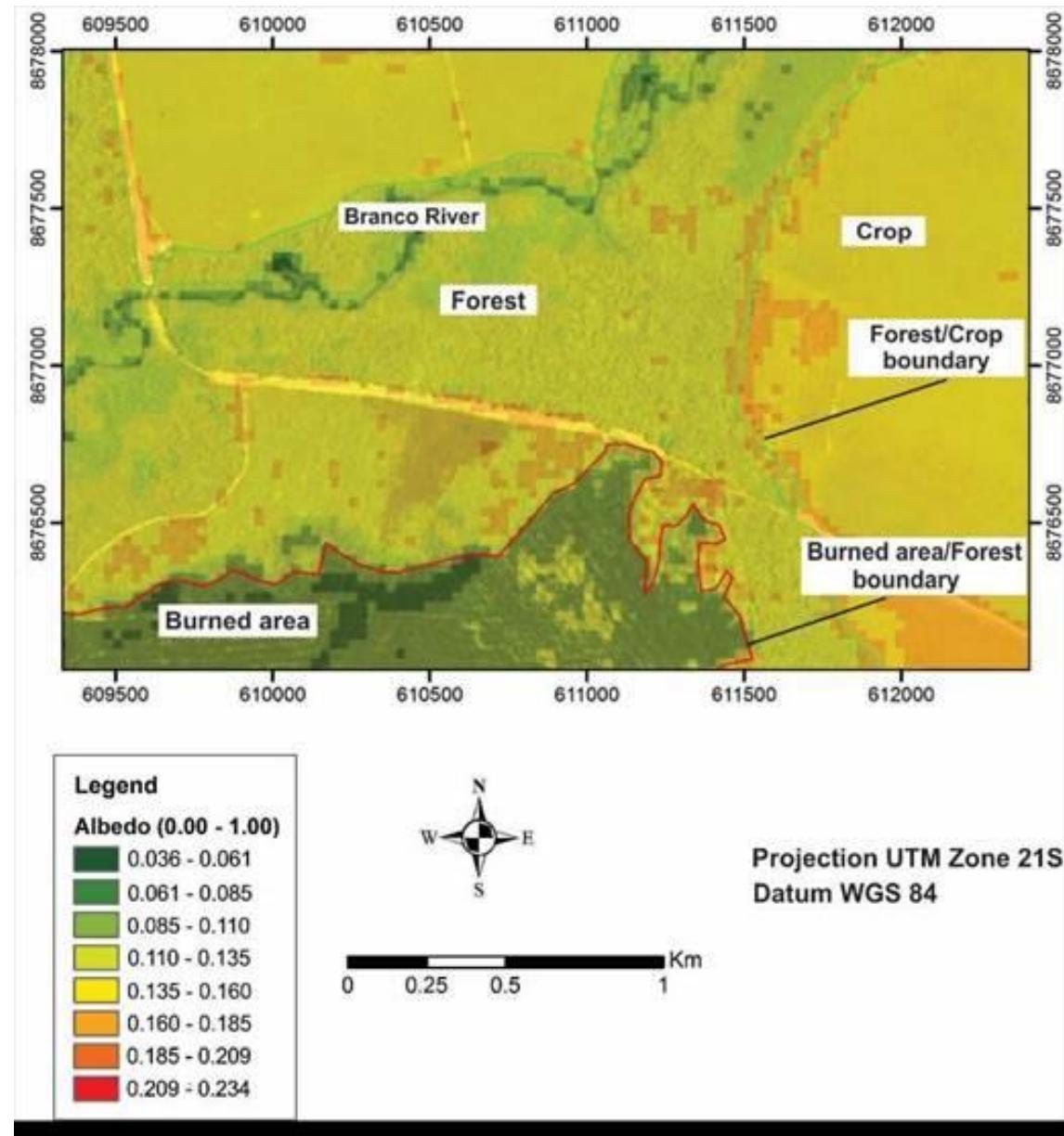


Snow and ice have a high albedo and hence absorb little solar radiation, contributing to the cold conditions required for their persistence



Vegetation is intermediate in albedo...

Grasslands
(with highly
reflective
standing dead
leaves) >
deciduous
forests >
coniferous
forests

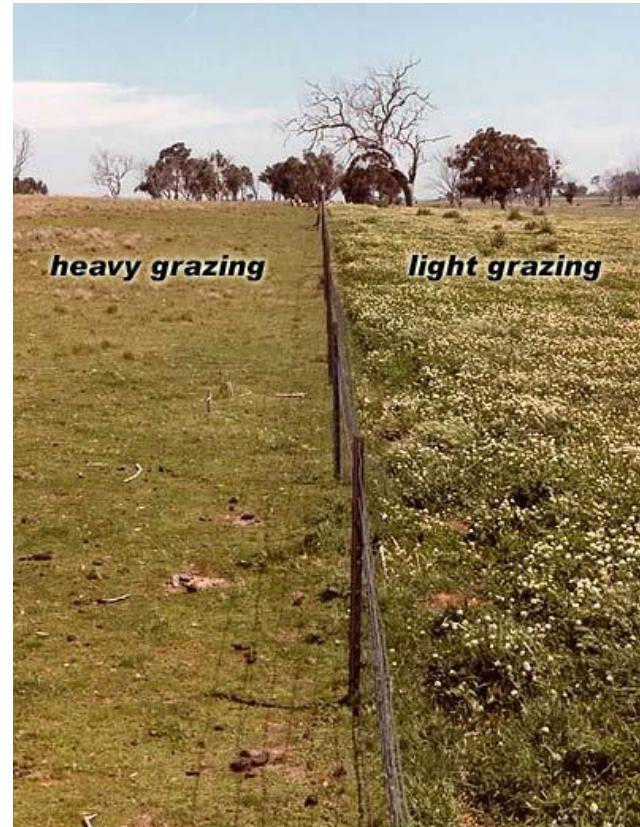


The **albedo of soil** depends on soil type and wetness but is often higher than that of vegetation in dry climates

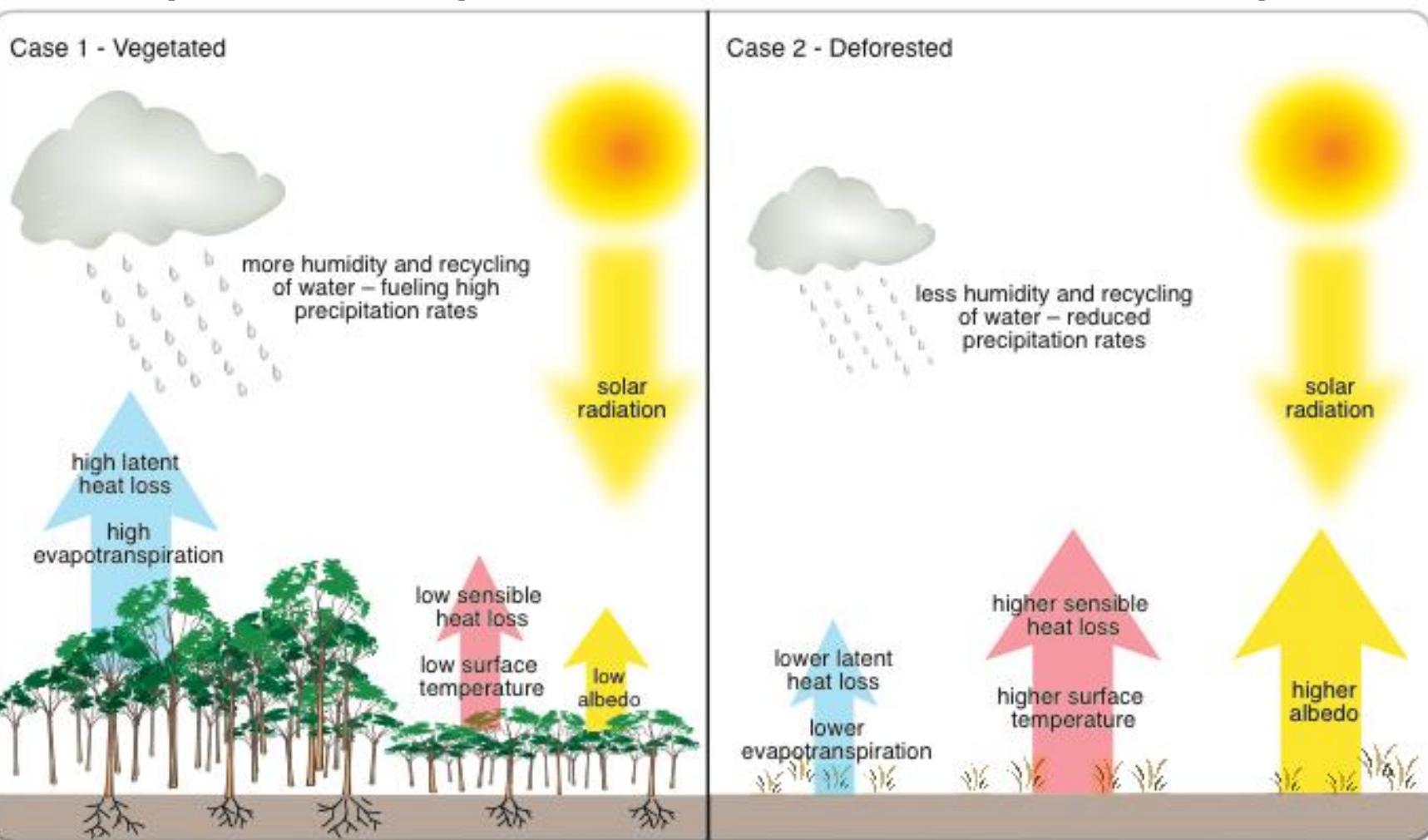


Many land-use changes substantially alter regional albedo by increasing the area of exposed bare soil....

Overgrazing increases albedo → reduces energy absorption and the transfer of energy to the atmosphere → → reduces precipitation and the capacity of vegetation to recover from overgrazing ... (vicious cycle)



Consequences of tropical deforestation and conversion to pasture



In **forested conditions**, the **low albedo** provides ample energy absorption to drive high transpiration rates that cool the surface and supply abundant moisture to the atmosphere to fuel high precipitation rates. In **pasture conditions that develop after deforestation**, low vegetation cover and shallow roots restrict transpiration and therefore the moisture available to support precipitation. This **leads to a warmer, drier climate**.



Ecosystem Water Budgets

Water is the resource that most strongly constrains the productivity of the biosphere

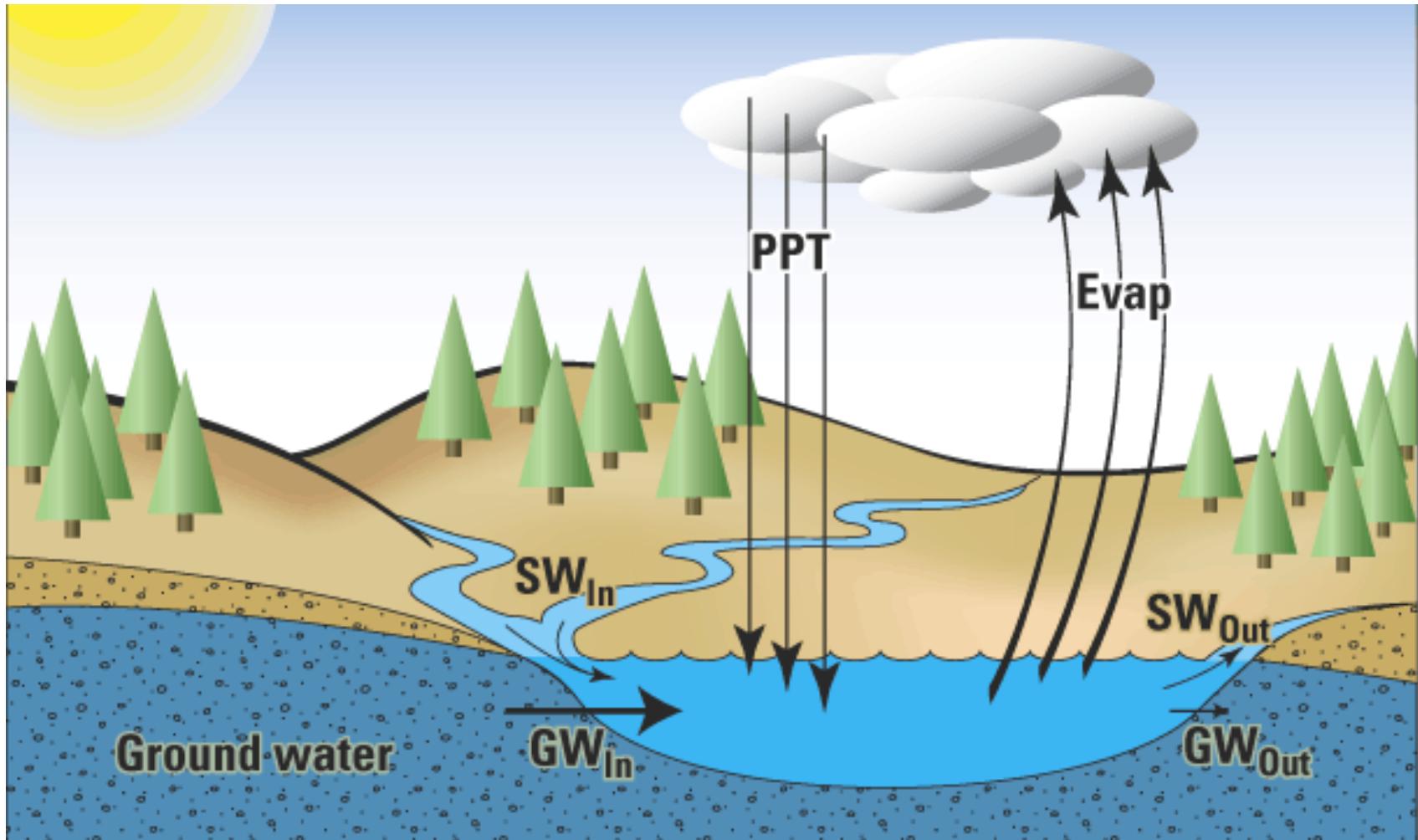


The water available to support the productivity of ecosystems depends on the balance between inputs and outputs

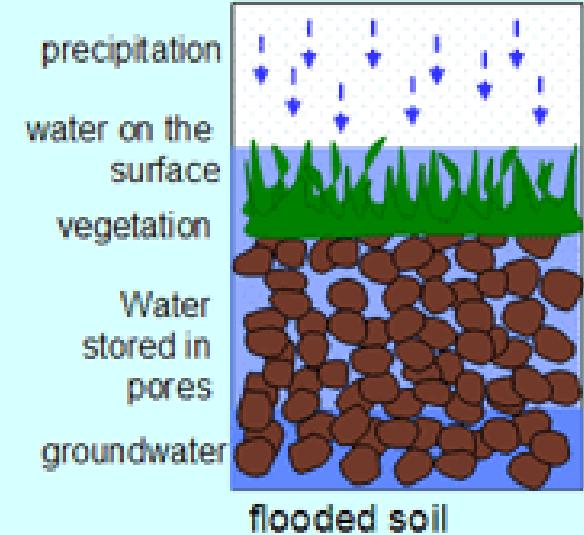
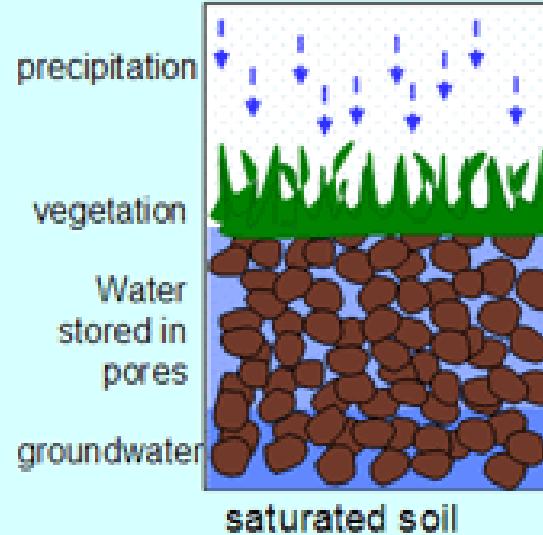
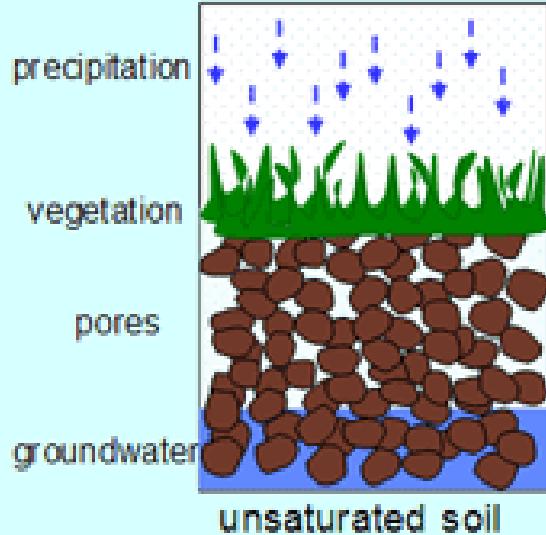
An ecosystem behaves like a bucket that is filled by precipitation and emptied by evapotranspiration and runoff



Lakes are **filled by precipitation and inflow**; water leaves by **evaporation and outflow**



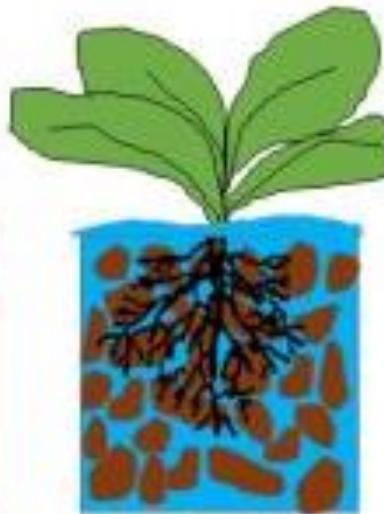
In **terrestrial ecosystems**, water accumulates in the ecosystem until the water-holding capacity of soils is exceeded.... excess water drains to groundwater or runs over the ground surface



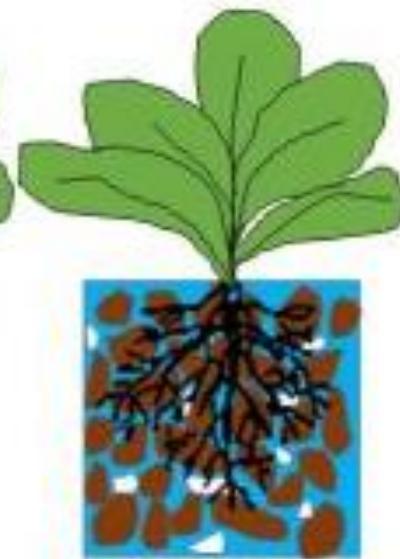
Plant is wilted because of too much water. Water is wasted.



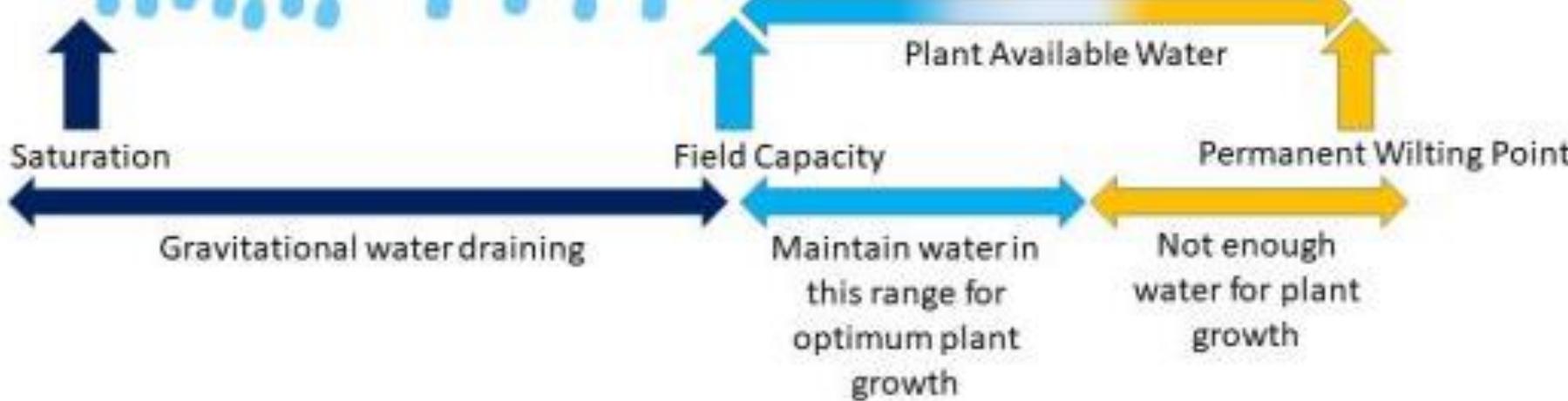
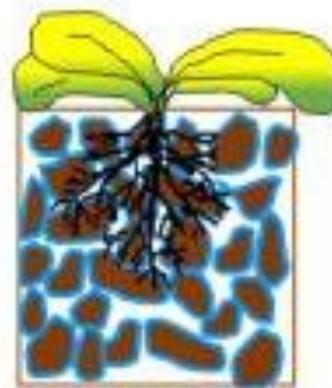
Healthy plant but water is wasted.



Healthy plant and no water is wasted.

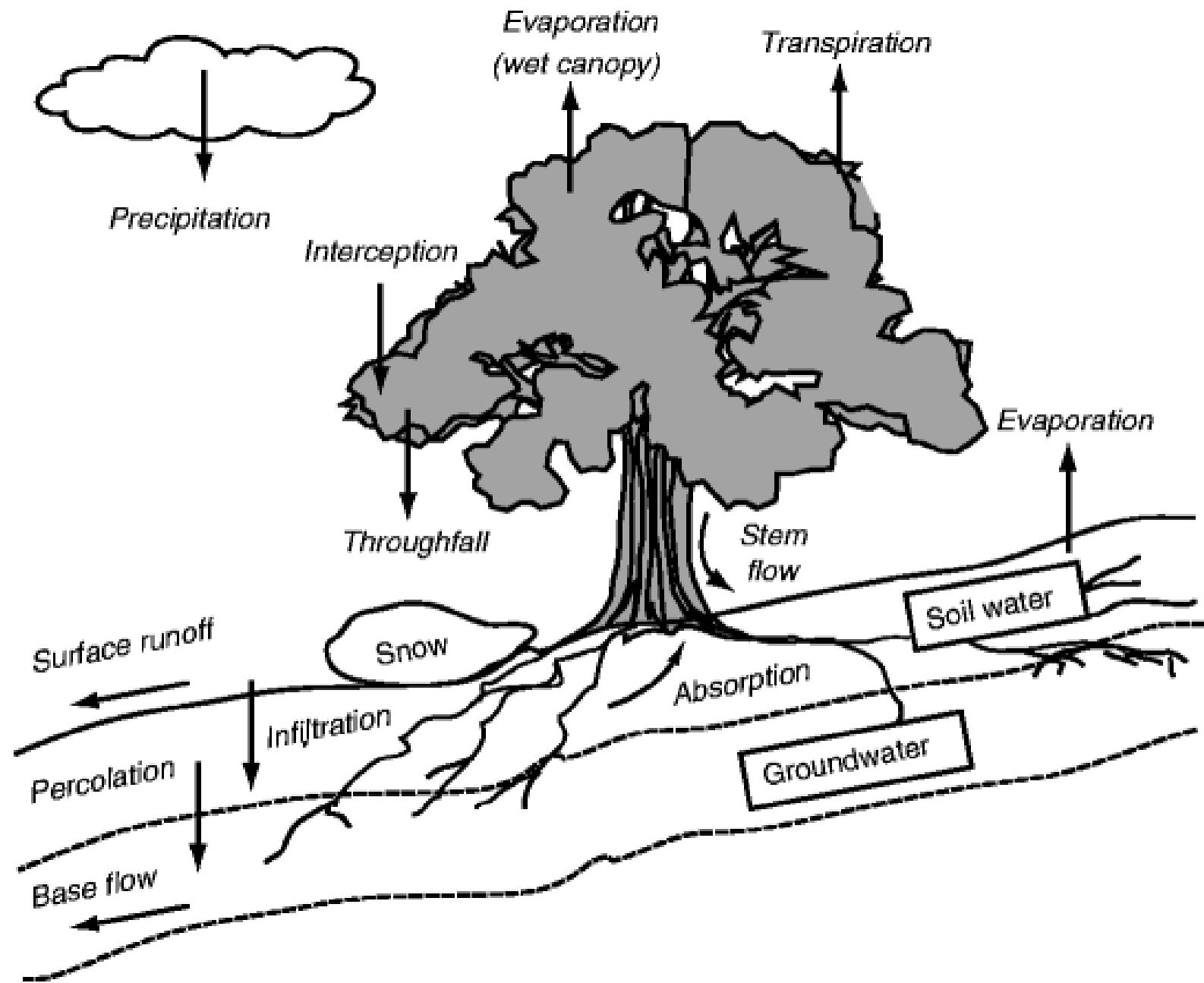


Plant is wilted because of not enough water.



Water losses from the ecosystem can move laterally to other ecosystems

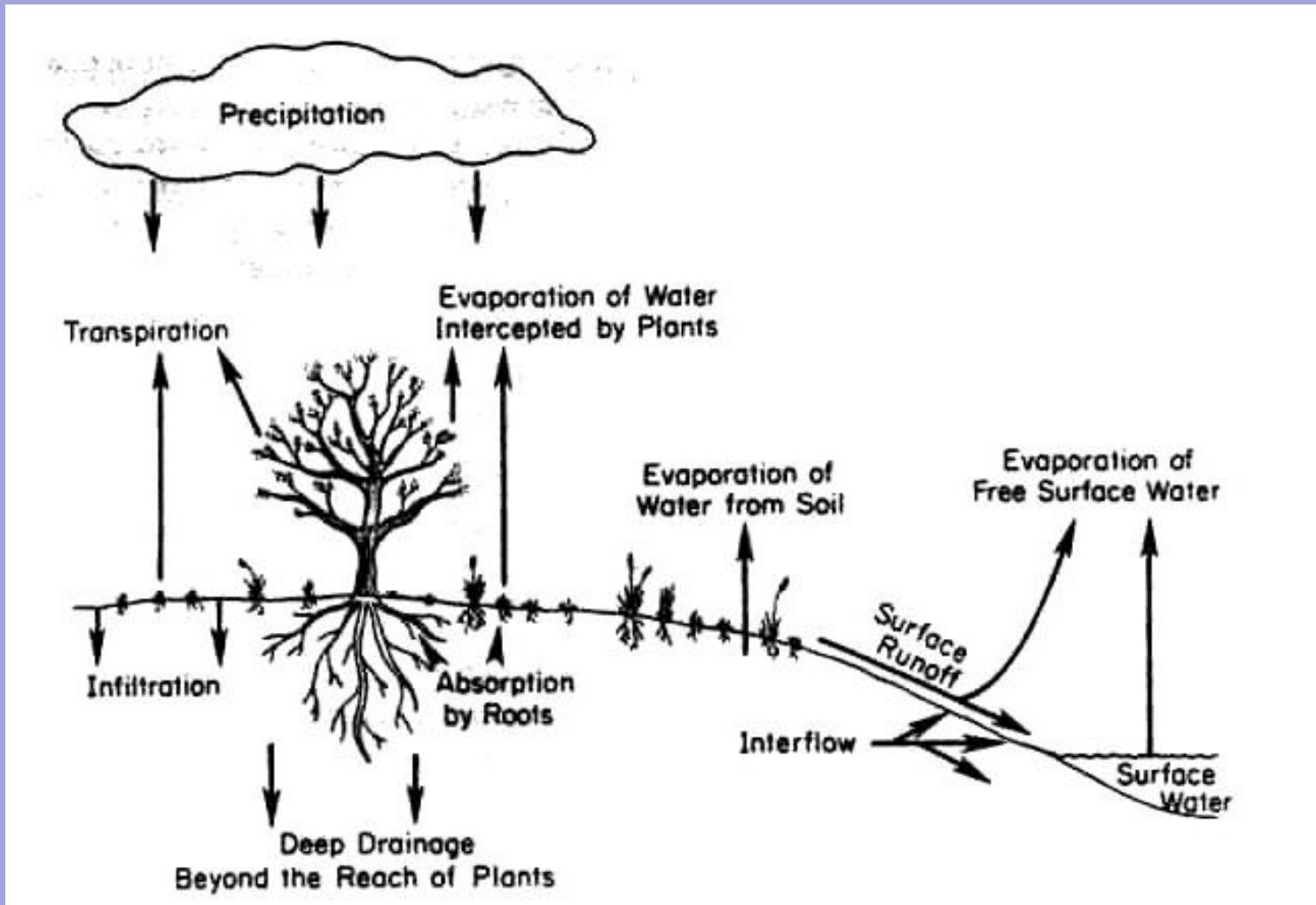




Major water fluxes in a terrestrial ecosystem

Water Inputs to Ecosystems

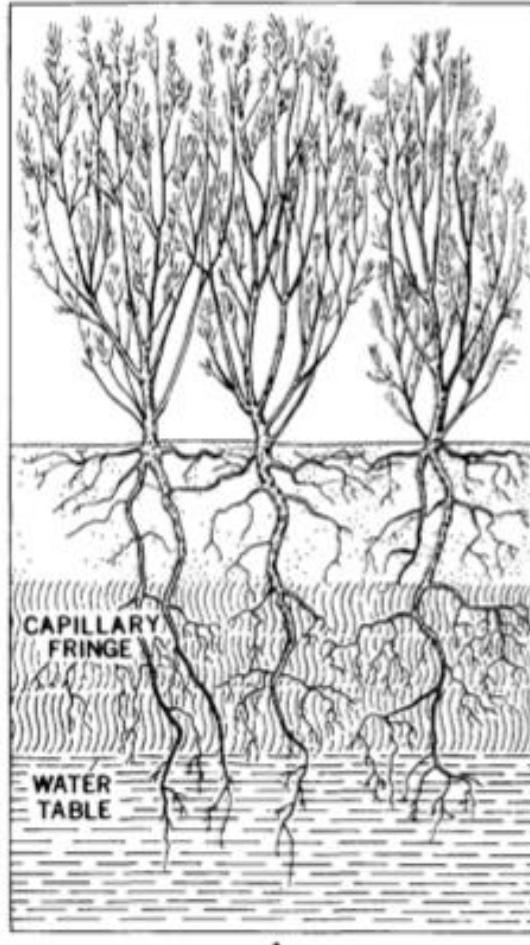
Precipitation is the major water input to terrestrial ecosystems



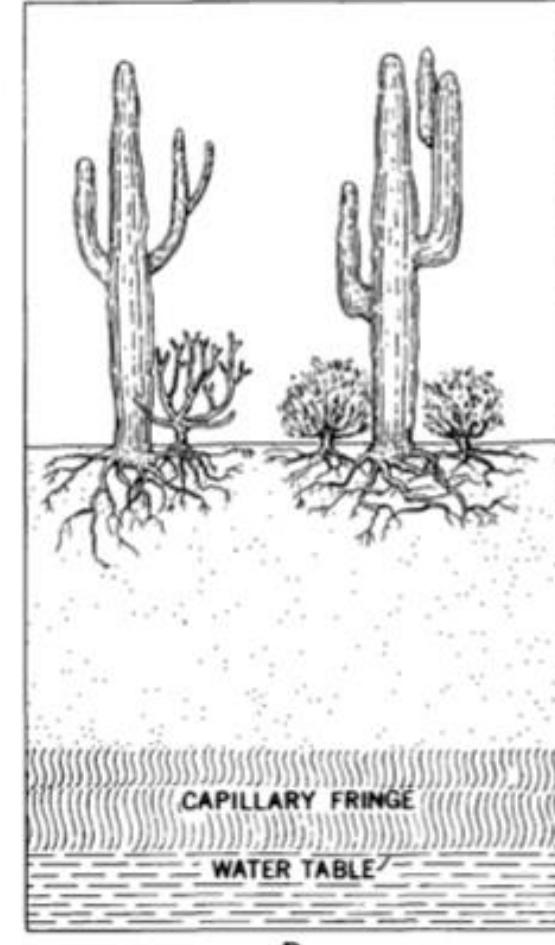
In desert
communities of
phreatophytes
(deep-rooted
plants that tap
groundwater)
**transpiration may
exceed
precipitation!!**



EX: Creosote (*Larrea tridentata*)



Phreatophytes



Xerophytes

**In ecosystems
with frequent fog,
canopy
interception of fog
increases the
water inputs**

**(cloud droplets that
might not otherwise
precipitate are
deposited on leaf -
surfaces and drip from
the canopy to the soil)**



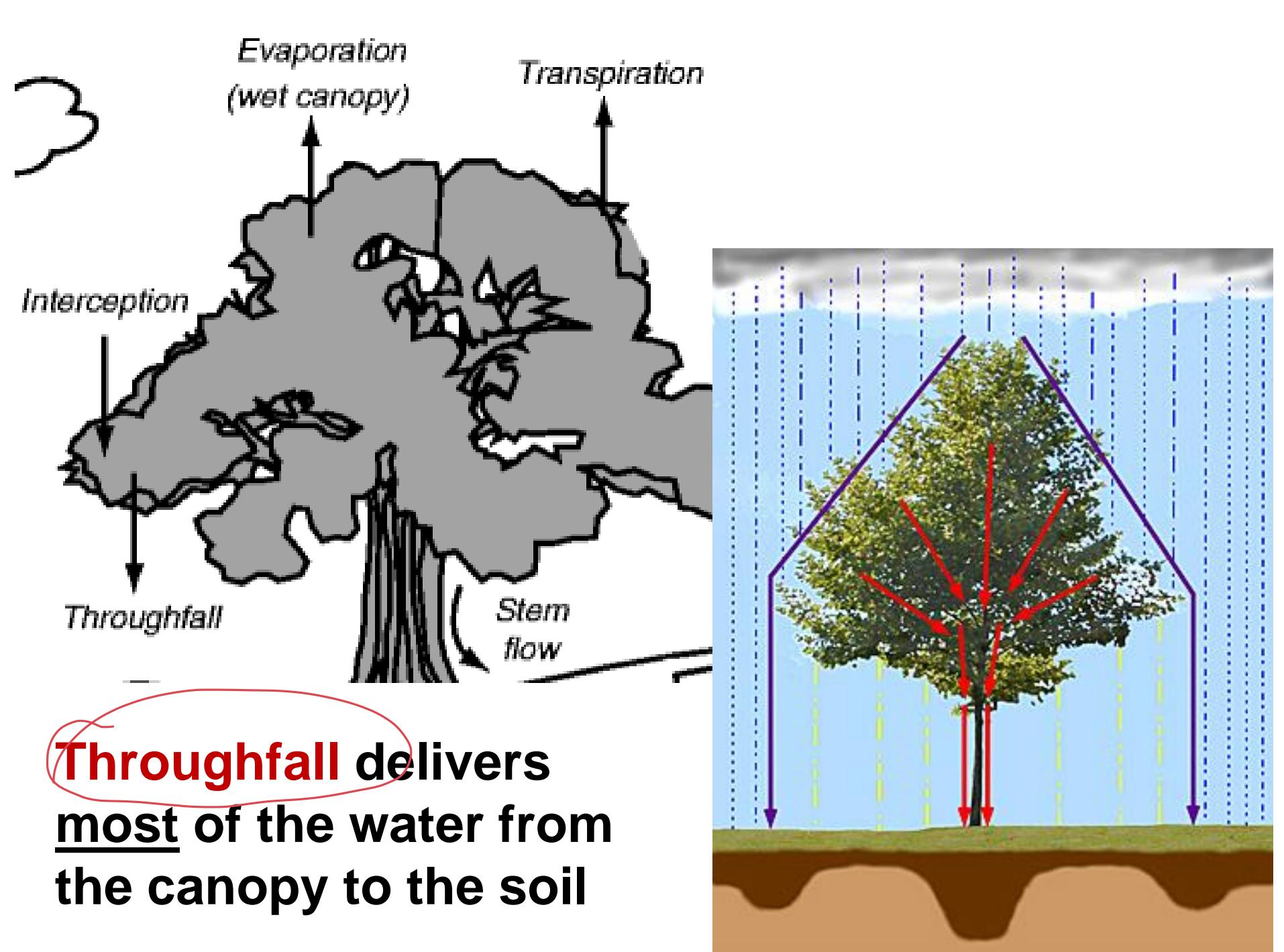
**Coastal redwood trees of California depend
on fog-derived water inputs during
summer, when precipitation is low, but fog
occurs frequently**

Water Movement Within Ecosystems

Water Movement from the Canopy to the Soil

In **closed-canopy forests**, a substantial proportion of incoming precipitation lands in the canopy:

- evaporated back to the atmosphere,
- absorbed by the leaves,
- drip to the ground (throughfall), or
- run down stems to the ground (stemflow)



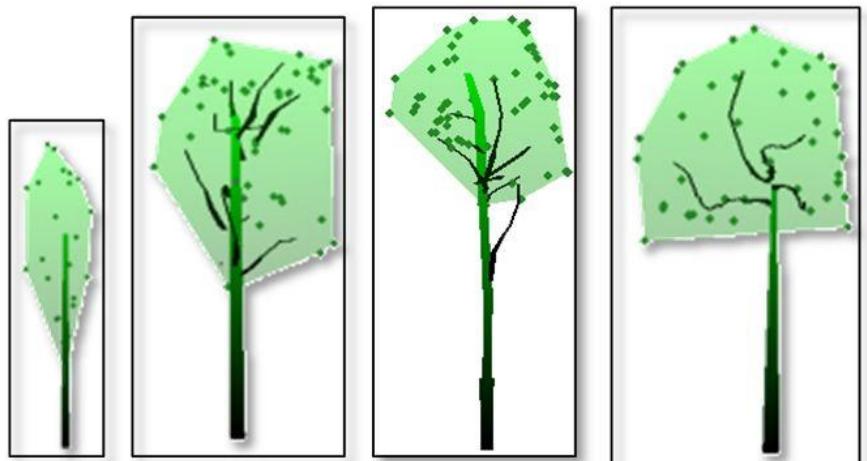
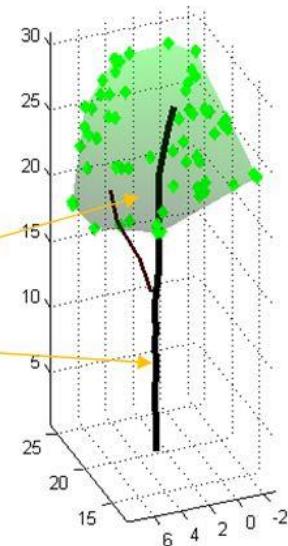
Canopy interception
is the fraction of
precipitation that
does not reach the
ground (approx. 10–
20% for closed-
canopy ecosystems)
– significant during
light rain or snow



Epiphytes
depend
entirely on
canopy
interception
for their water
supply and
increase
canopy
interception



The capacity of the canopy to intercept and store water differs among ecosystems... depends on **canopy surface area**, particularly the **surface area of leaves**



The bark texture and architecture of stems and trunks influences the amount and direction of stemflow

smooth bark = greater stem flow (about 12% of precipitation)

rough bark = lower stem flow (about 2% of precipitation)



**In grasslands,
interception is often
30–40% of
precipitation**

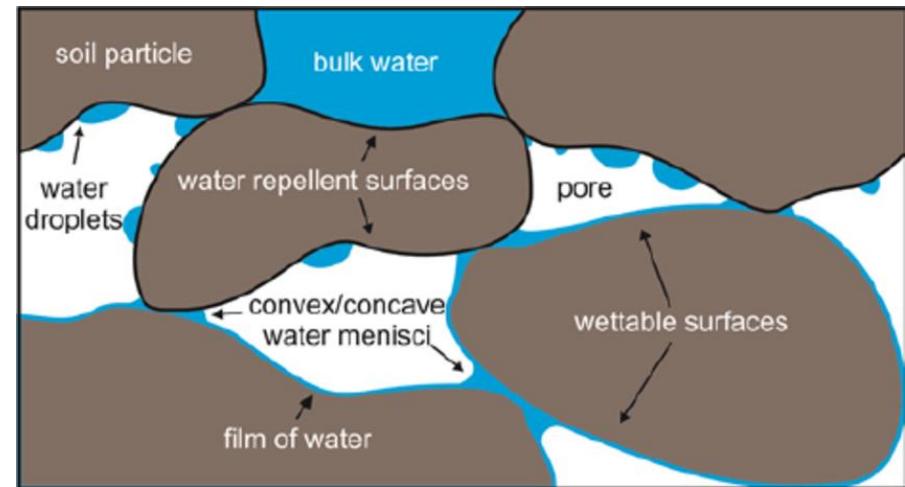


**For small precipitation events, 70% of the
precipitation can be intercepted by a dry
grassland canopy**

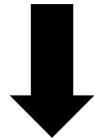
Water Storage and Movement in the Soil

Soil water is stored primarily in thin water films on the surfaces of soil particles

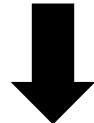
The **water-holding capacity** of a soil depends on its total pore volume and the surface area of the surrounding particles



Water enters the soil



Moves downward under the force of gravity

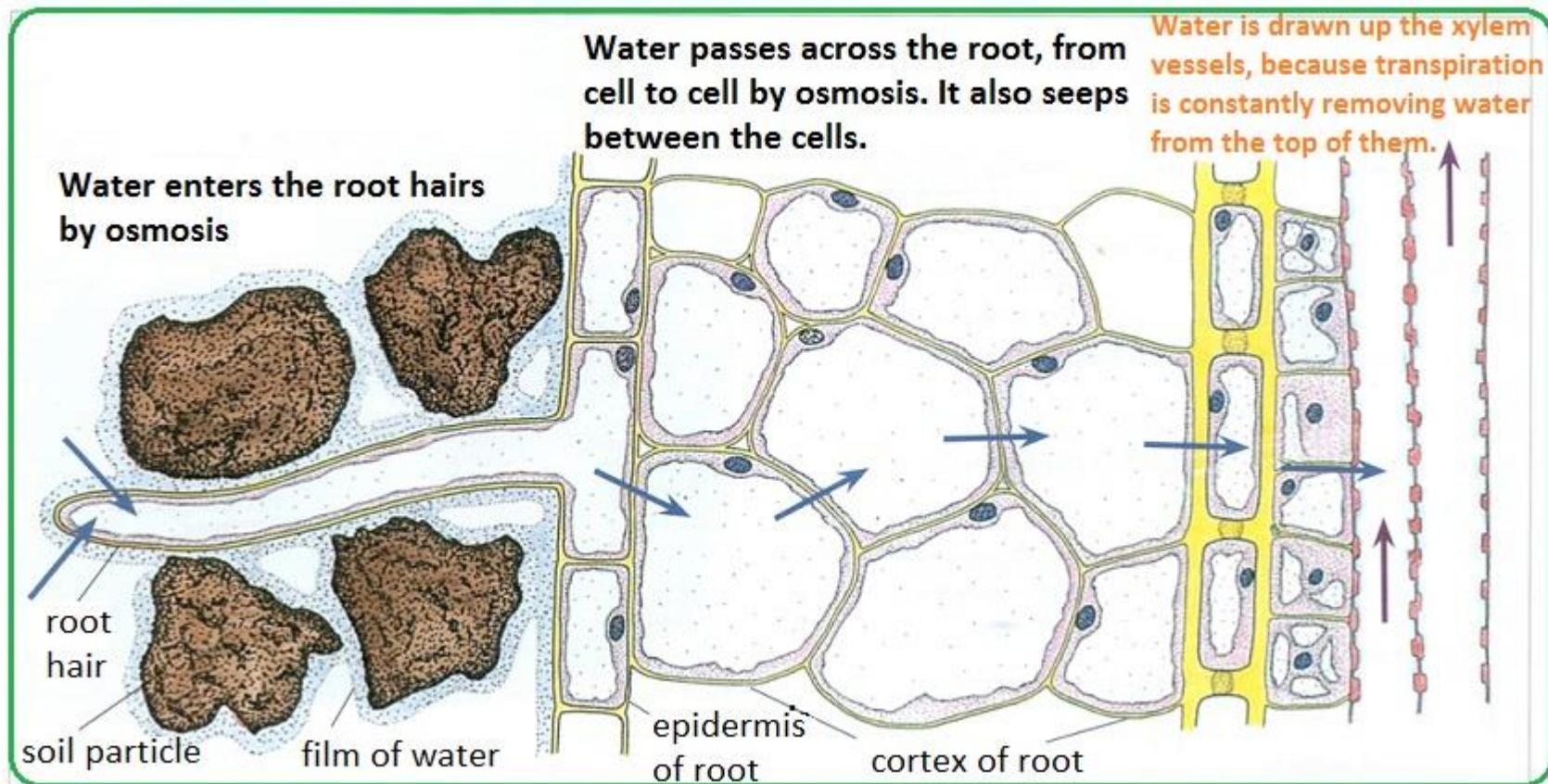


Stops when **matric forces** (water held by soil particles and spaces) exceed the gravitational potential

Water not retained by matric forces drains through the soil to groundwater → then to streams and lakes

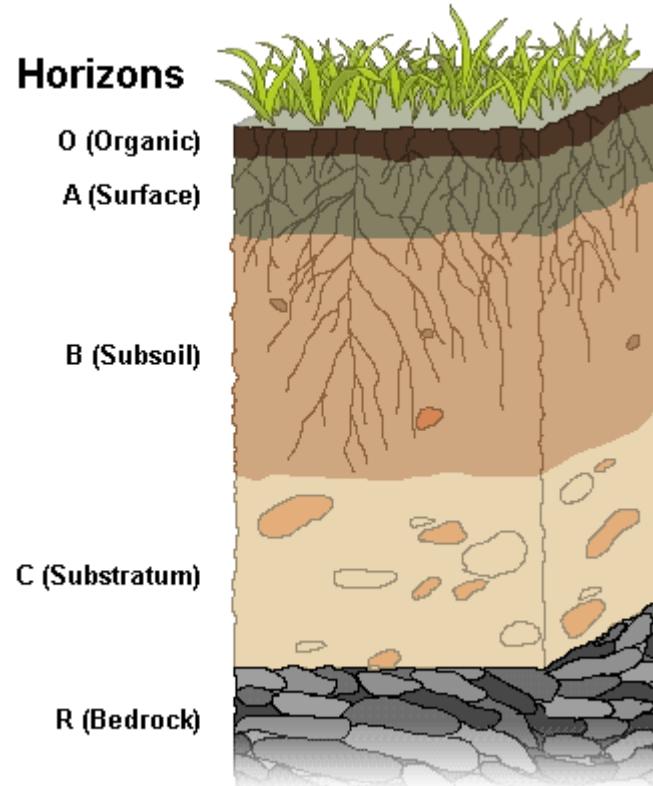
Movement of Water from Soil to Roots

Water moves from soil to the roots of transpiring plants by flowing from high to low water potential



Rooting depth reflects a compromise between water and nutrient availability

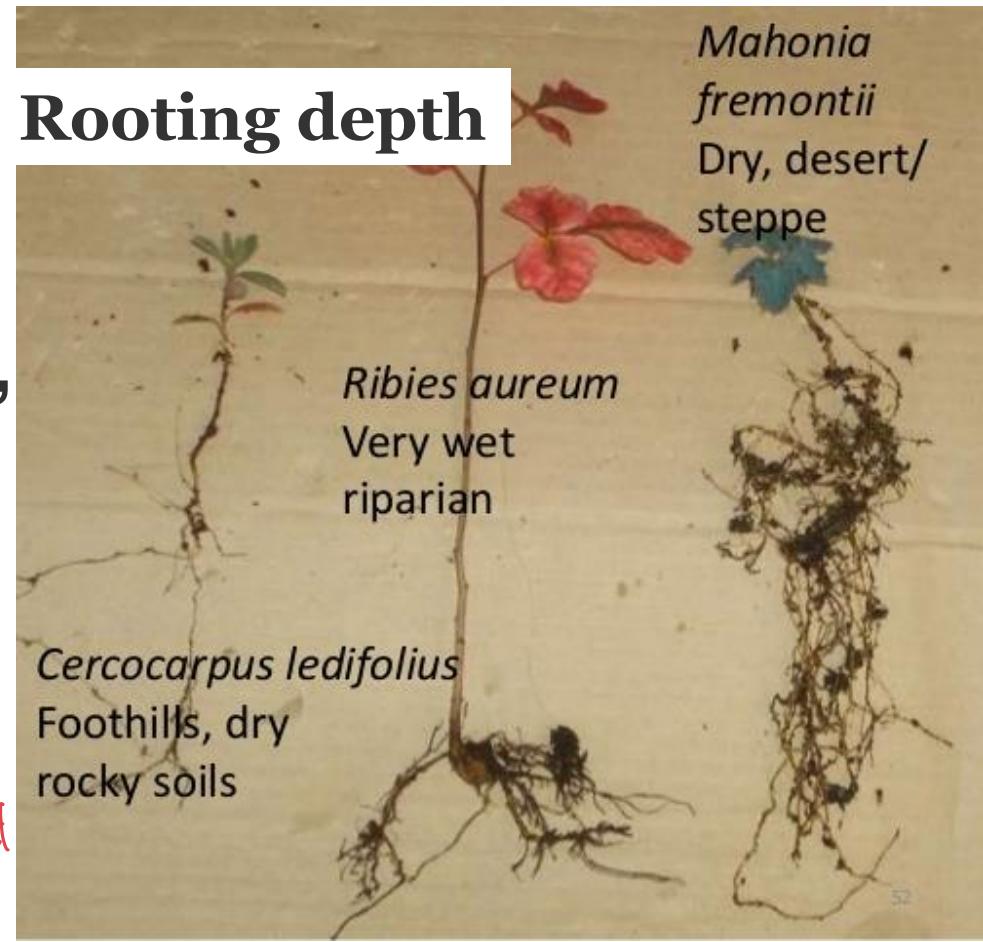
Most plant roots are in the upper soil horizons where nutrients are most abundant / available



Short-lived herbaceous plants are generally more shallow-rooted than long-lived shrubs and trees; thus, depend more on surface moisture

In arid ecosystems, surface evaporation and transpiration dry out the surface soils..... Thus, deserts, arid shrublands, and tropical savannas have many deep-rooted species

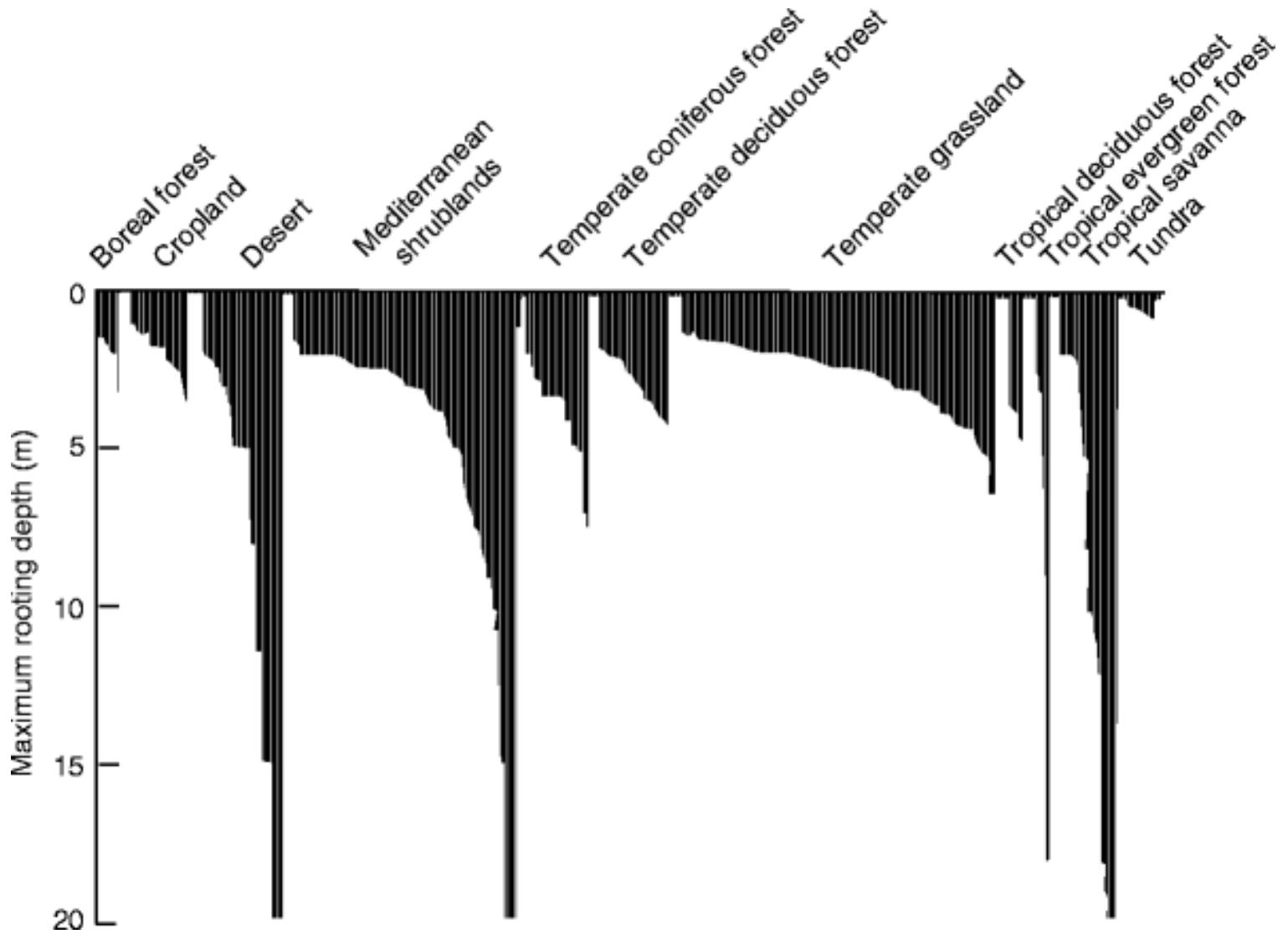
↳ rosy stems w/ high evaporative potential
breed plants w/ low-reaching roots that
take up more water from far below
ground



Phreatophytes are an extreme example of deep-rooted plants... Roots extend to the water table, often a depth of tens of meters

Most wet ecosystems have dry seasons, with some deep-rooted tropical trees that tap water from depths of more than 8 m



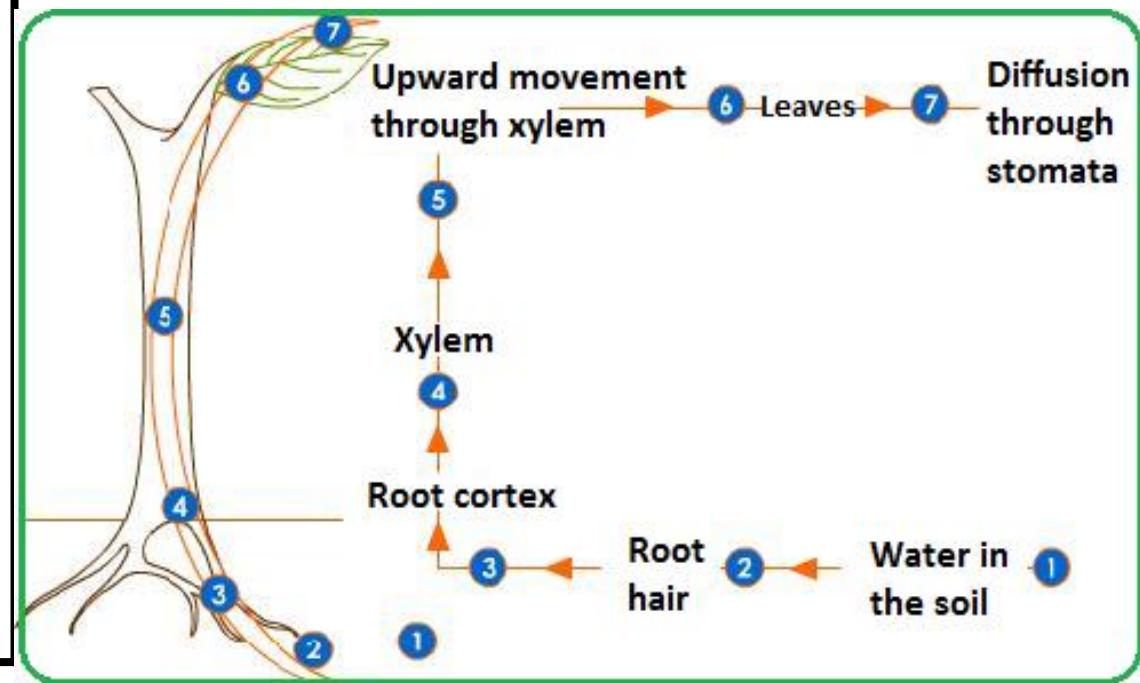


Maximum rooting depths of selected species in the major biome types of the world. Species in each biome differ widely in rooting depth.

Movement of Water Through Plants

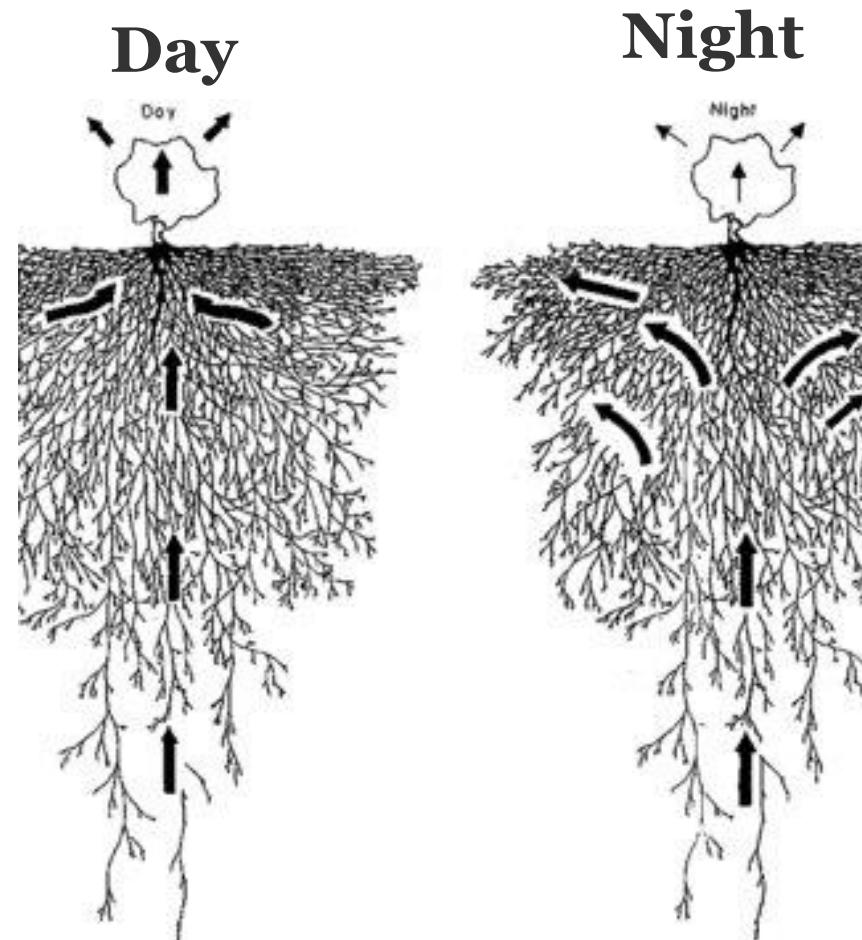
The **vapor-pressure gradient from the leaf surface** to the atmosphere is the driving force for water movement through plants

Water transport takes place in a **soil–plant–atmosphere continuum** that is interconnected by a continuous film of liquid water



At night, when stomata close and transpiration ceases, plant-water potential equilibrates with the water potential of deep soils

The gradient in water potential drives hydraulic lift, the vertical movement of water from deep soils *through roots* to shallow soils along a water-potential gradient



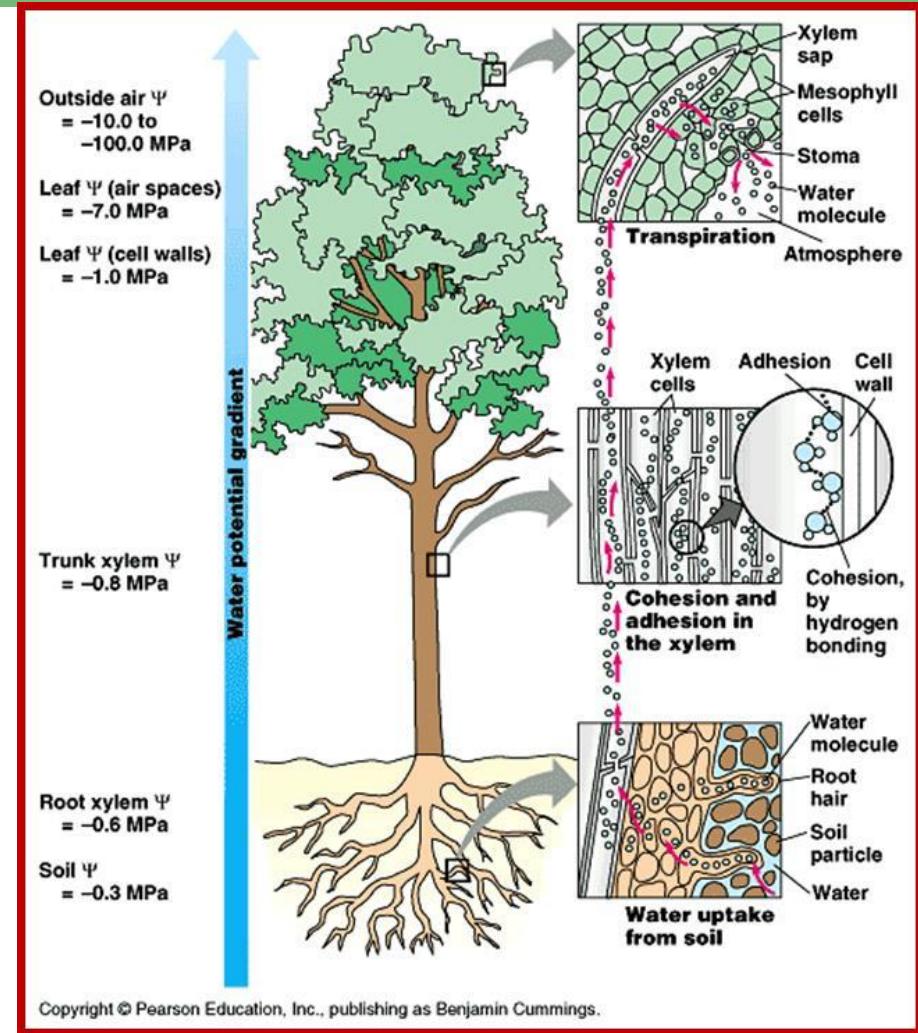
In the Great Basin deserts of western North America, 20–50% of the water used by shallow-rooted grasses comes from water that is hydraulically lifted by deep-rooted sagebrush shrubs



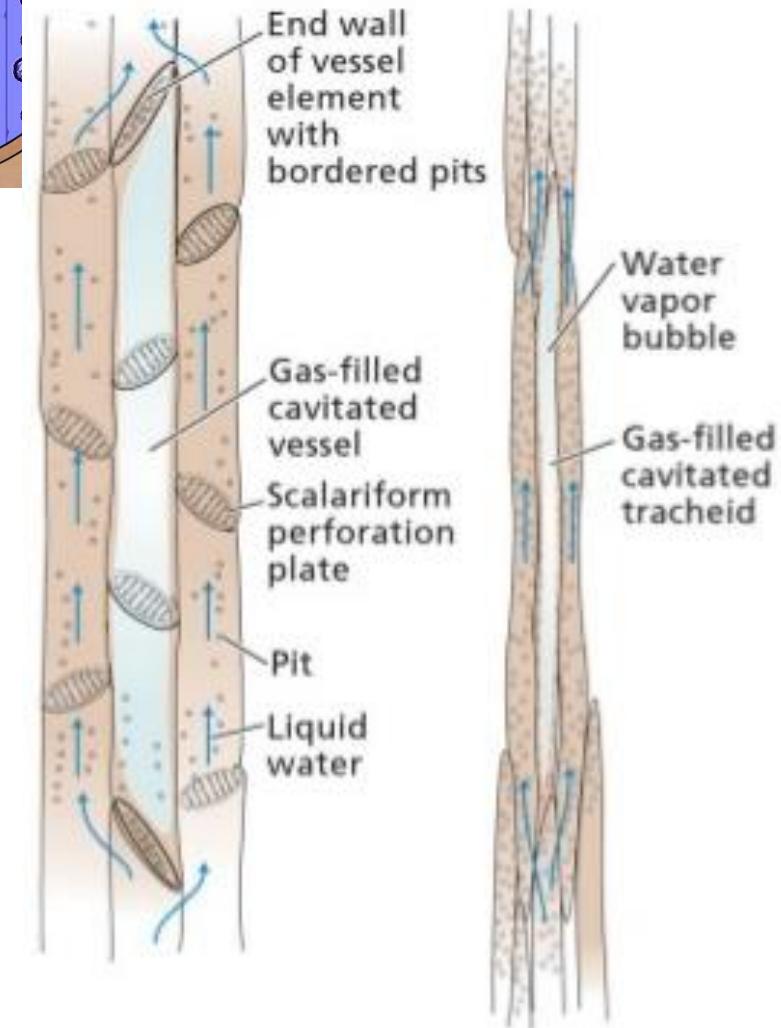
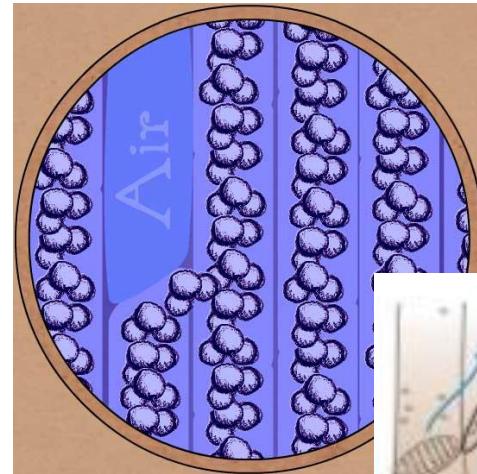
Stems

Water moves through stems to replace water lost by transpiring leaves

Water is “sucked up” by capillary action through **xylem cells** in response to the **water-potential gradient** created by **transpirational water loss**



There is a tradeoff between hydraulic conductivity of xylem vessels and their risk of cavitation, i.e., the breakage of water columns under tension (air bubbles = embolism)



Herbaceous plants in moist environments function close to the water potential where cavitation occurs....

Energy-saving strategy



Plants from dry environments produce stems that resist cavitation at much lower water potentials than they commonly experience...

Water-saving strategy



Water storage in stems buffers the plant from imbalances in water supply and demand

Water stored in **sapwood** is equivalent to as much as 5–10 days of transpiration



Water stored by **desert succulents** may allow transpiration to continue for several weeks after water absorption from the soil has ceased



Leaves

Water loss from leaves is controlled by the evaporative potential of the air, the water supply from the soil, and the stomatal conductance of leaves

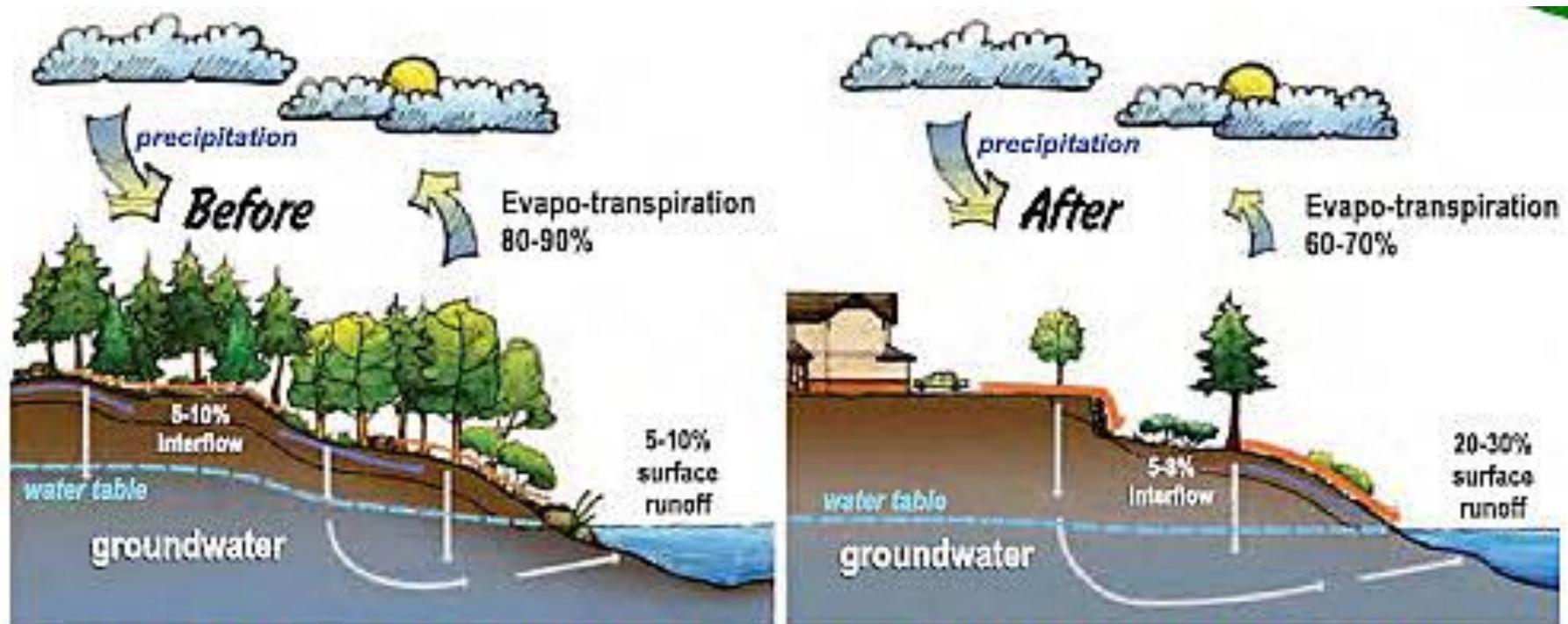
Plants adjust the size of stomatal openings to regulate the loss of water from leaves

It's all a balancing act



Water Losses from Ecosystems

The water loss from ecosystems is by **evapotranspiration, runoff, and changes in storage**

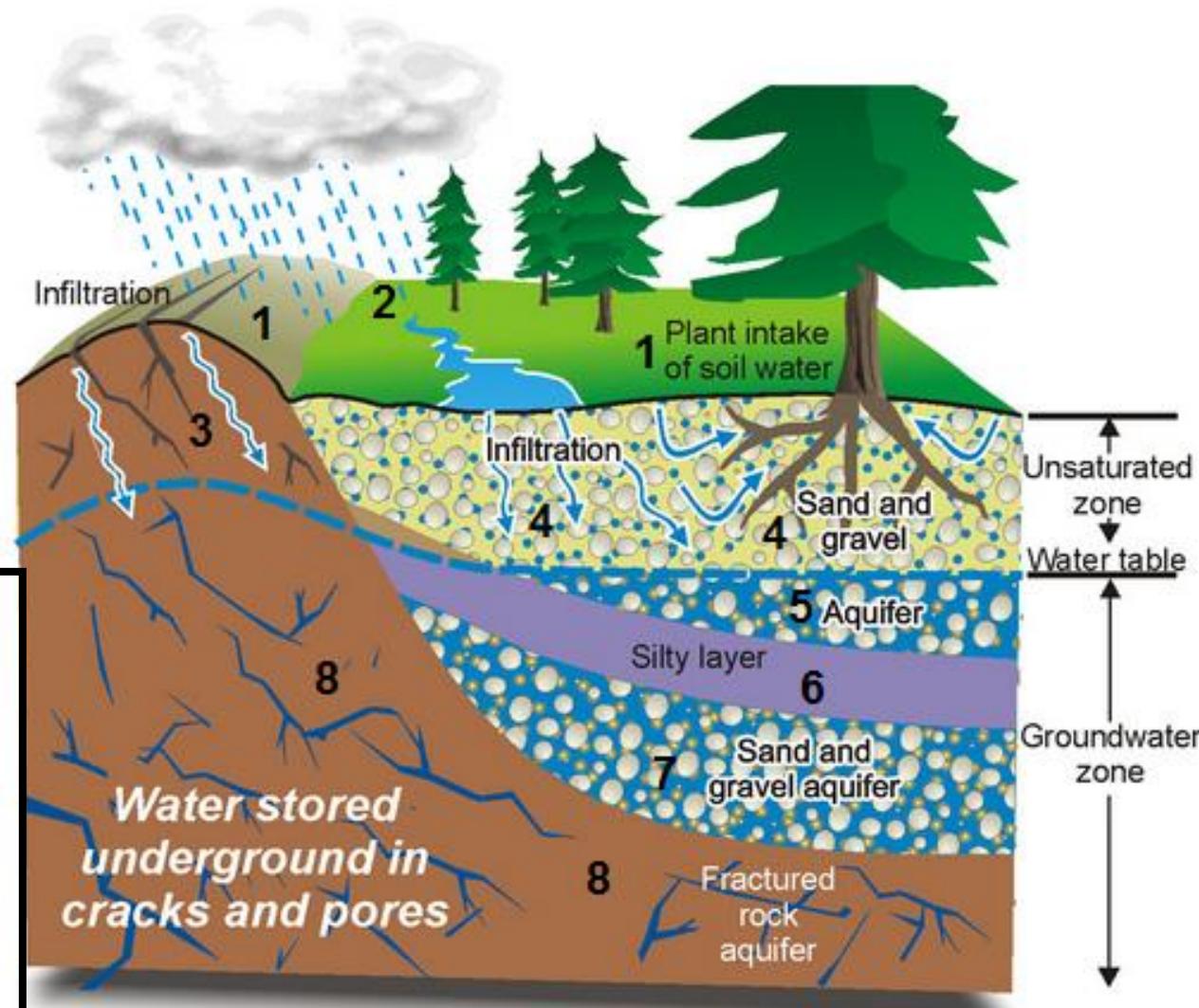


Before development almost all rainfall is taken up by plants, evaporates or infiltrates through the ground. After development, surface runoff increases significantly, carrying with it nutrients and contaminants.

Changes in Storage

Water inputs
that exceed
outputs is
stored in soil
and
groundwater

When ET
exceeds
precipitation,
stored water
allows ET to
continue



Runoff (Discharge)

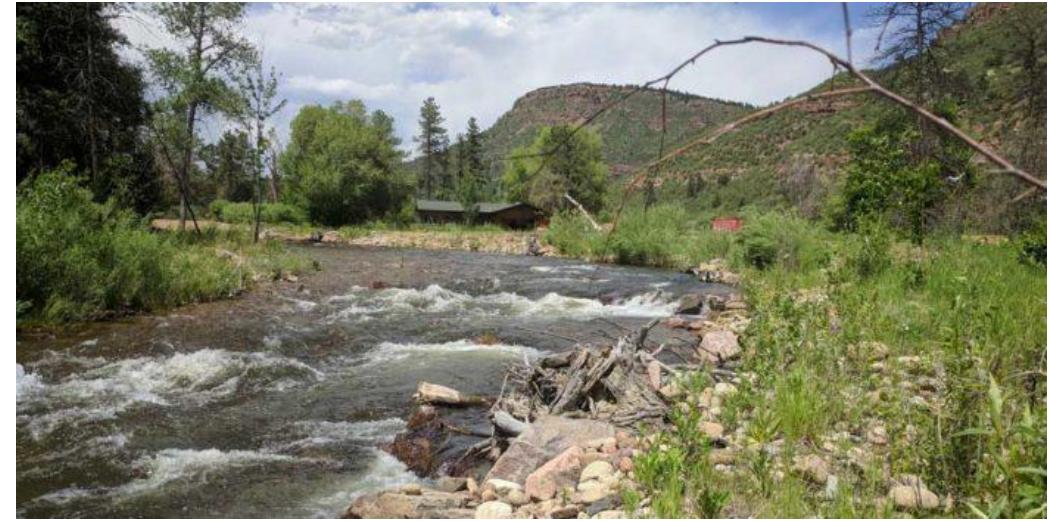
Runoff from terrestrial ecosystems is the difference between:

- precipitation inputs,
- changes in storage, and
- losses to evapotranspiration



Average runoff depends primarily on precipitation and ET (long-term changes in storage are usually negligible)

**When soils are dry,
the recharge of soil
moisture prevents
large increases in
streamflow after a
rain**



South St. Vrain, Lyons, CO Sept. 2018

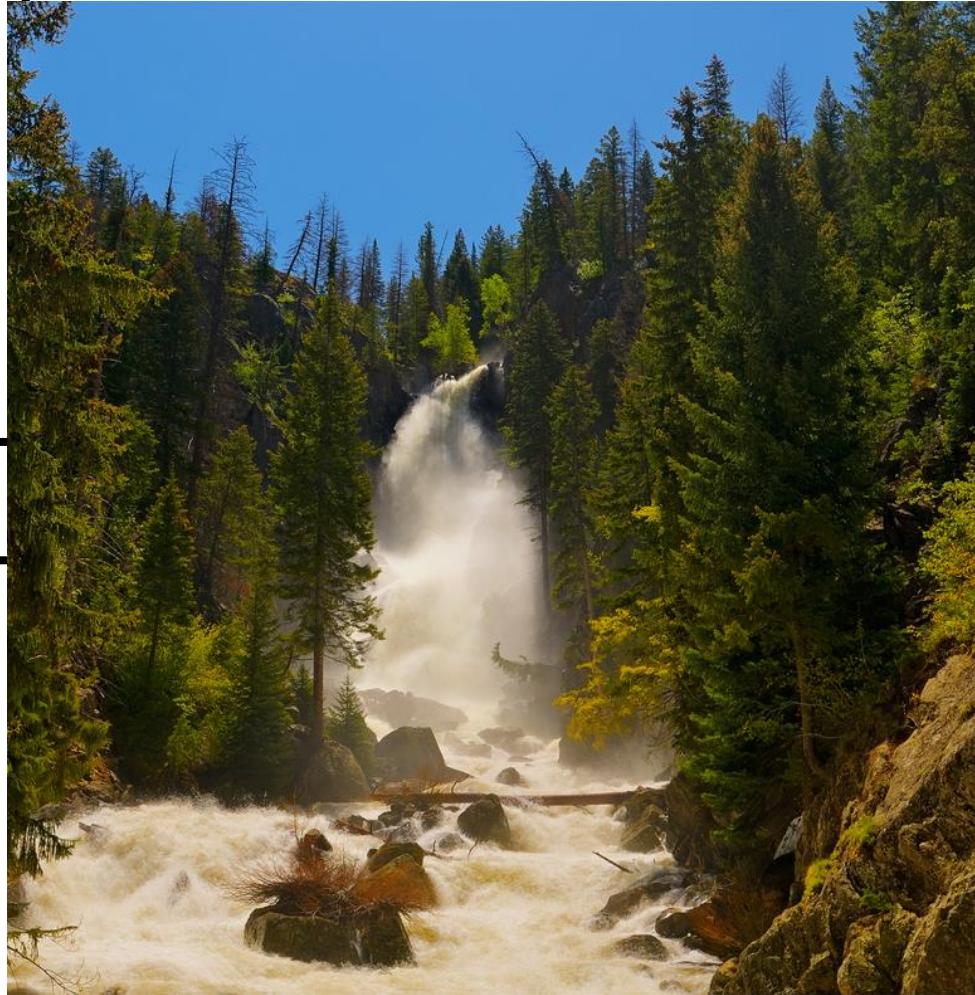
**Streamflow may
increase rapidly
after a storm when
soils are wet or
shallow**



South St. Vrain, Lyons, CO Sept. 2013

In ecosystems that develop a **snowpack** in winter, precipitation inputs are stored in the ecosystem during winter

During **spring snowmelt**, this stored water recharges aquifers or moves directly to streams, causing **large spring runoff events**



Fish Creek Falls, near Steamboat Springs, CO

When climate warming changes snowfall to winter rains, this increases winter runoff and reduces the spring snowmelt pulse and summer runoff, which are **important water sources for many cities**



River flow integrates the precipitation, evapotranspiration, and changes in storage throughout the drainage basin

**Yampa
River,
CO-UT**



In undammed rivers, high flow events may lead to predictable patterns of bank erosion and deposition.... river biota are adapted to a natural flow regime

Dams that reduce the intensity or seasonality of high-flow events dramatically alter the natural disturbance regime and functioning of freshwater ecosystems

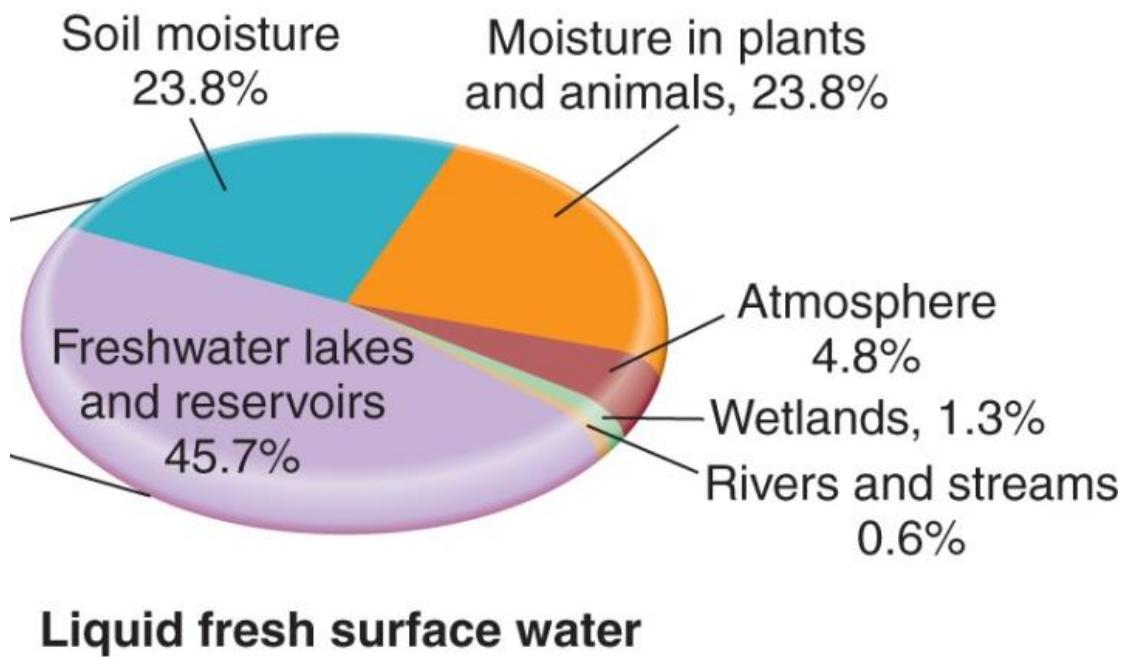
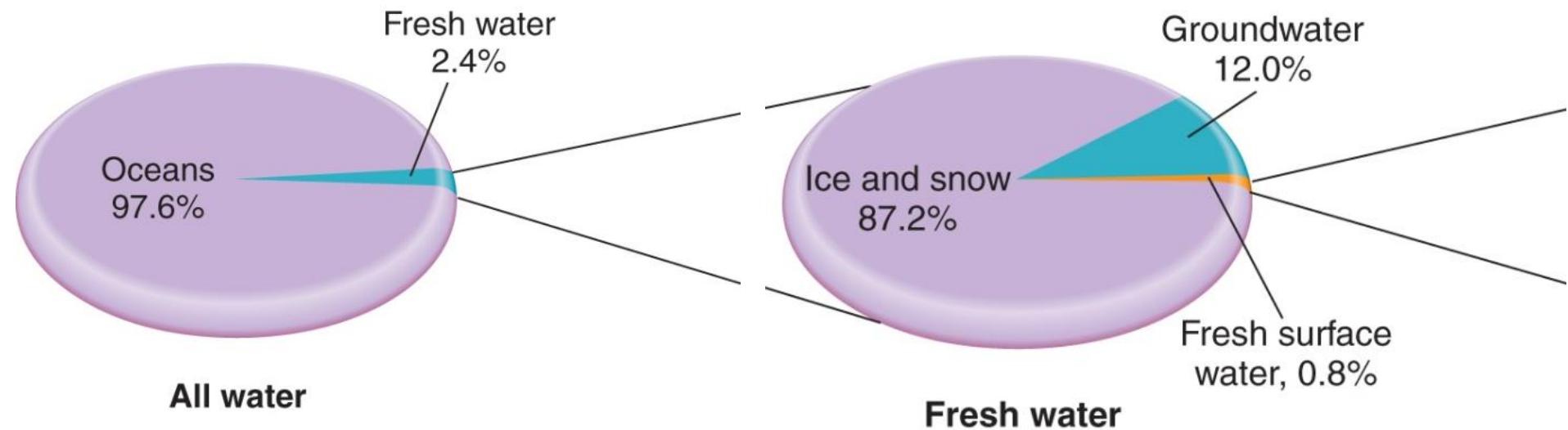


Three Gorges Dam, China

Human Impacts on the Global Water Cycle

Where is Earth's water?





Water vapor
over sea

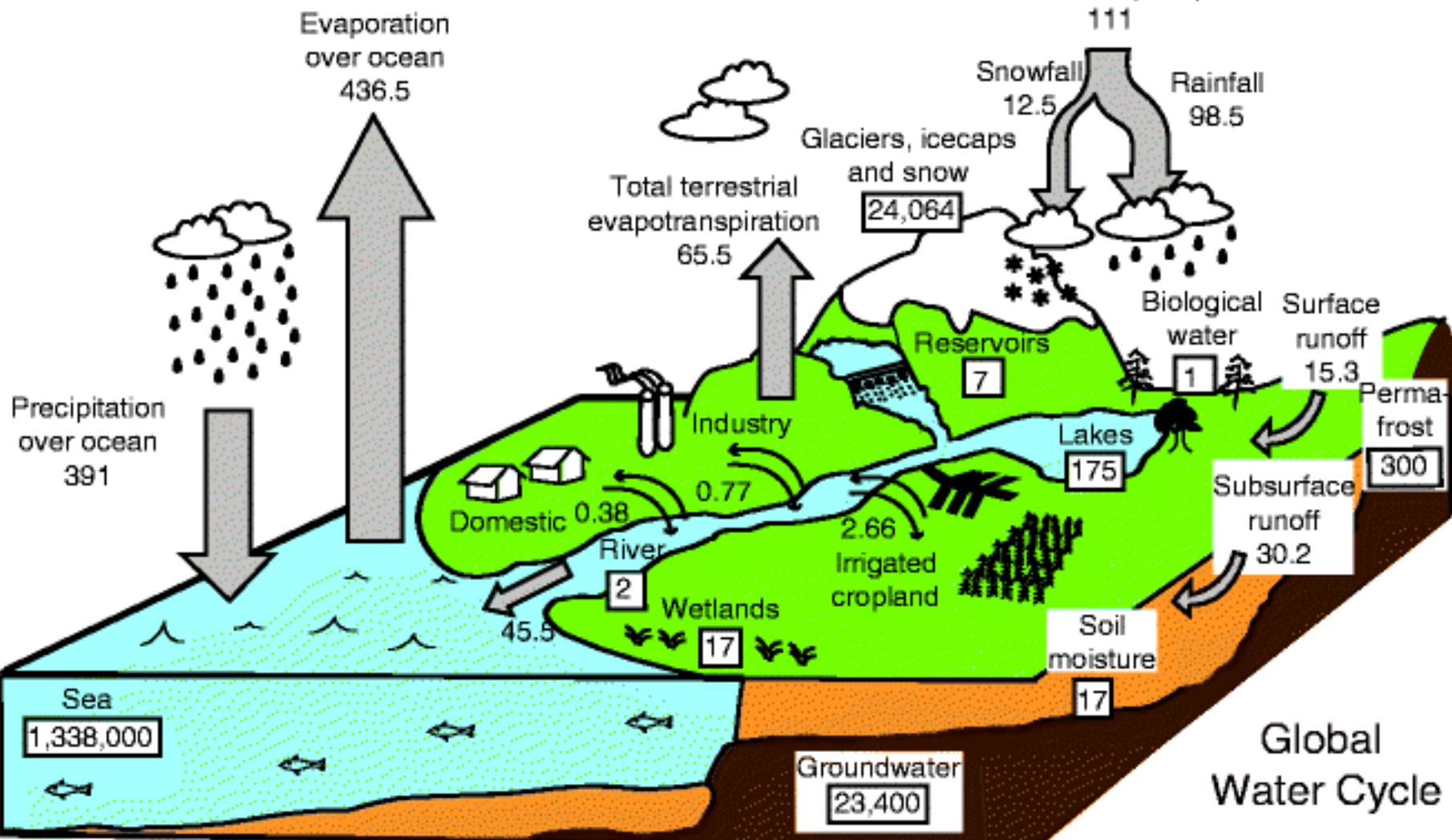
10

Atmosphere

Water vapor
over land

3

Sea-to-land vapor flux 45.5



**Anthropogenic climate warming has
accelerated the global water cycle:**

- ↑ evapotranspiration
- ↑ precipitation

Note: Warm air holds more moisture....

THUS: Wet areas may become wetter....

BUT: Dry areas may become drier...

Anthropogenic land use changes alter the water cycle...

Ex: Tropical rainforest → pasture



Current agricultural areas may be prone to future drought



Grain-producing regions may shift toward the poles



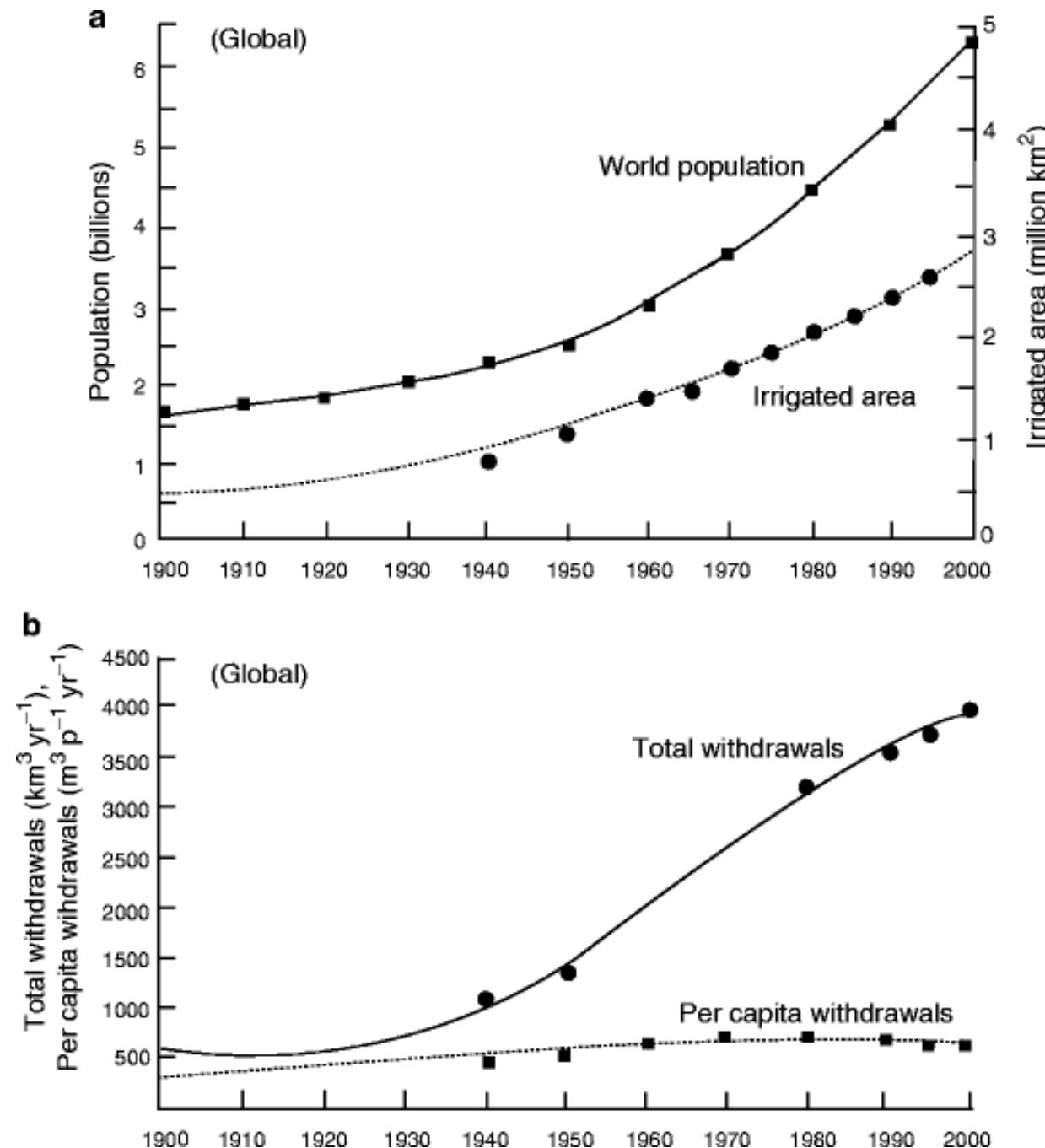
Regional and national economic and societal impacts

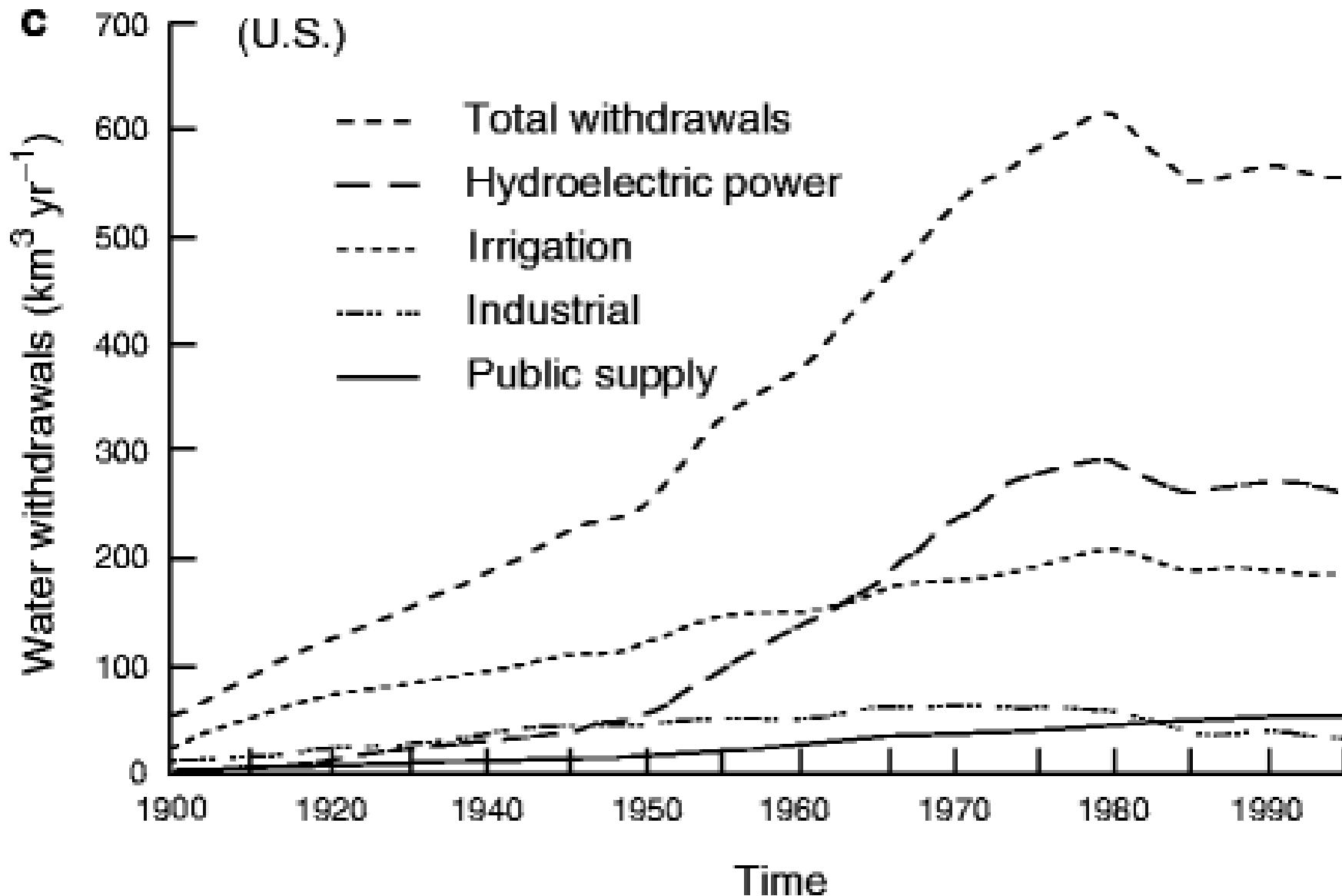
Non-irrigated croplands rely on soil moisture from precipitation....



...Irrigated croplands have increased five-fold during the 20th century

Trends in (a) world population, (b) water withdrawals
for human activities, per capita





Trends in (c) water withdrawals in the U.S. by economic sector

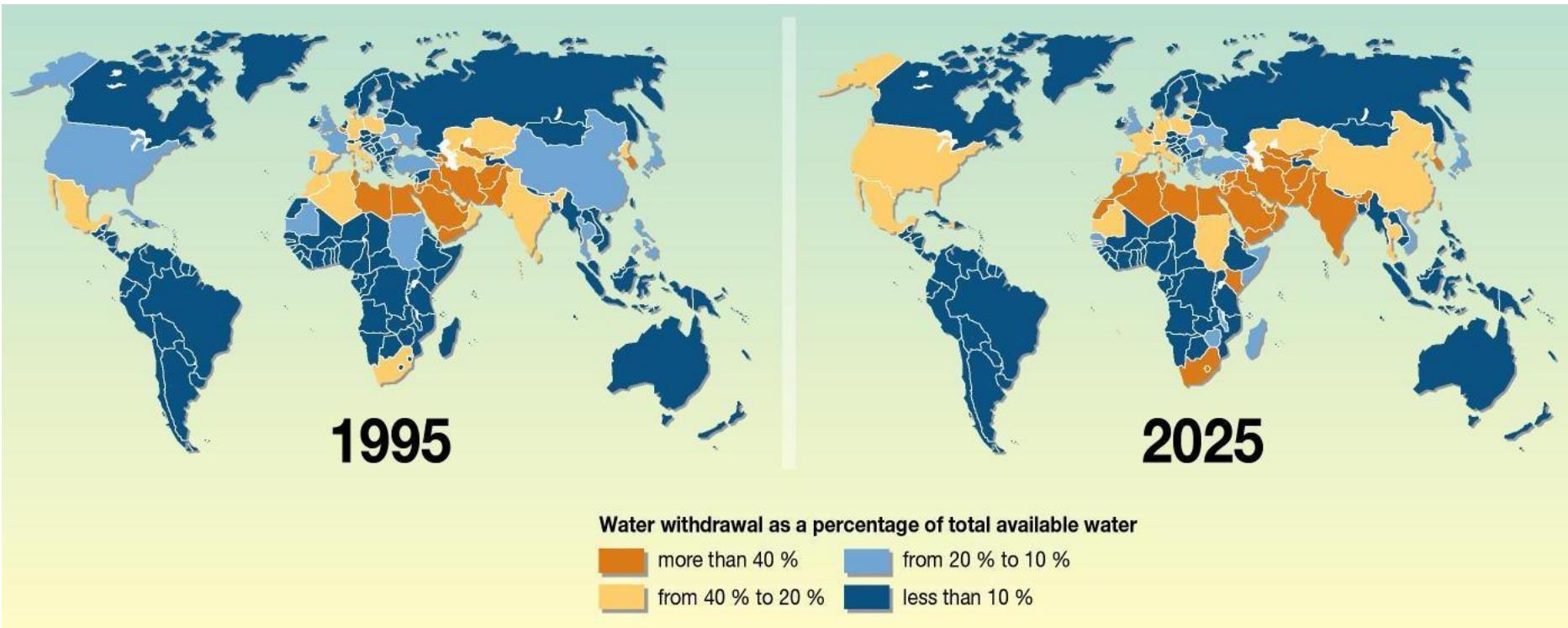
During the past 100 years, human water use increased 8-fold



Agriculture uses 70% of the global fresh water supply



By 2025, two-thirds of the world's people may be living in water-stressed countries (consumption of more than 10% of renewable freshwater resources)



Diversion projects redistribute water

- Dams and canals store and redistribute water for agriculture and cities



The All-American Canal, the main water conduit from the Colorado River into the Imperial Dam, flows through the Imperial Valley, Calif.

More than half of the world's largest rivers have been dammed or diverted

