

Parameterization of an intra-seasonal variation in the thermo-insulation effect of snow cover on soil temperatures and energy balance

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We present results of the analysis of an observed variation in the energy balance of a soil surface in Barrow, Alaska, in 1993–1998. When combined with data on snow depth, the data allowed several stages to be distinguished in the intra-seasonal variation of the snow cover effect on the temperature regime and energy balance of the underlying soil. Each stage corresponds to specific snow cover thermo-insulation effects in terms energy-balance dependence of the soil-surface on snow depth. Stages in the intra-seasonal surface-balance variation can be used as an alternative incorporating detailed snow-physics in modeling the soil freezing/thawing phenomenon and modeling the distributed energy balance of snow-covered landscapes. Preliminary ideas are presented on applying the parameterization based on seasonal stages for non-permafrost regions.

Introduction

Recent studies of climatic change in cold regions [*Beniston et al.*, 1997; *Serreze et al.*, 2000] indicate considerable complexity in the interrelationships between various components of the cryosphere. Long-term air temperature trends in cold regions differ geographically and seasonally [*Lee et al.*, 2000; *Serreze et al.*, 2000; *Zhang et al.*, 2000b]. Many cryospheric phenomena allied with winter conditions were also found varying geographically, but in general show changes paralleling hemispheric/global air temperature trends [*Dyurgerov and Meier*, 2000; *Hartley and Robinson*, 2000; *Magnuson et al.*, 2000; *Schwartz and Reiter*, 2000; *Smith*, 2000; *Ye*, 2000; *Zhang et al.*, 2000a]. However, analysis of such an obvious proxy of climate variation as soil temperature data illustrates serious problems in understanding climate trends in the near-surface interface processes.

High spatial variability of “soil climate” has been noted at different scales and in different regions [Ménard *et al.*, 1998; Miller *et al.*, 1998; Nelson *et al.*, 1998; Zabolotnik, 1998]. This indicates high spatial variability in soil response to climate variation. While reconstructions from borehole temperatures show continental-scale warming of soils, especially pronounced during the last century [Pollack and Huang, 2000], in central Yakutia, for instance, the long-term air temperature increase did not result in increase of the maximal thaw depths [Skryabin *et al.*, 1999]. Moreover, the positive long-term temperature trends estimated for this region [Serreze *et al.*, 2000, Figures 1 and 2] are accompanied by wide spatial variability of the observed long-term temperatures trends in soils, varying from positive to negative [Vasil’ev, 1999]. In addition, long-term soil temperature trends in selected sites, when estimated separately for different months and seasons, vary greatly and may even be of opposite sign [Gilichinsky *et al.*, 1998; Gilichinsky *et al.*, 2000].

This phenomenon may be explained by two main factors that can affect the soil temperature more or less independently of air temperature variations: namely, the effects of winter snow cover and of soil moisture content on the conductive properties of soil [Mühll *et al.*, 1998; Zhang *et al.*, 2001; Zhang *et al.*, 1997]. In cold regions the latter has an obvious relationship to the snow cover water equivalent.

Snow cover parameterization

A number of publications provide analyses of the spatial and temporal variation of snow cover response to climate variations [Clark *et al.*, 1999; Fallot *et al.*, 1997; Krenke *et al.*, 1998; Ye *et al.*, 1998; Zhang *et al.*, 2000b]. Recently published datasets on soil temperature [NSIDC, 1998, version 2 in preparation], soil moisture [Robock *et al.*, 2000] and snow cover depth [CPEOD, 2000; EWG, 2000; NCDC, 1998; NSIDC, 1999], provide a basis for examining in detail the relationships between global climate change in cold regions and soil responses. Analysis of such data must be accompanied by surface energy balance modeling.

Spatial heterogeneity of the surface parameters and variability of microclimate conditions on the one hand, and difference in scales between the available in situ data and the requirements of distributed models on the other hand, oblige investigators to strike a

balance between spatial averaging of climate parameters used in energy balance modeling and consideration of spatial heterogeneity, affecting the accuracy of the modeled results [Delage *et al.*, 1999; Ducharne *et al.*, 2000; Koster *et al.*, 2000]. In the case of snow cover, its spatial representation can be taken into account through a snow cover classification [Sturm *et al.*, 1995]. However, in addition to spatial variability of snow (and underlying soil) parameters, there is a temporal dimension to their variability, related to the intra-seasonal evolution of a snow cover.

Based on the results of observations, it was reported that the daily frost depth in the ground depends much more on the temperature profile inside a snow cover (determined by time/depth variation of the effective heat conductivity of snow), than on soil water content (at least when the latter was more than 0.1) or on vegetation [Yamazaki *et al.*, 1998]. When the effective heat conductivity of the snow cover was incorporated in the model through the depth fractions of snow layers with different structure, the results showed that a change of the depth hoar fraction in the snow cover from 0 to 0.6 could reduce the seasonal freezing depth by up to 80% [Zhang *et al.*, 1996]. Neglecting the change of the snow cover effective heat conductivity with snow aging in the model may explain the 1–4 weeks residual delay in the modeled spring snow-melt [Sud and Mocko, 1999].

Uncertainties in the expected results of a spatially-distributed model, based on point-simulated snow physics, makes the incorporation of complex physical models of snow cover evolution (i.e. [Brun *et al.*, 1992; Lehning *et al.*, 1999]) in modeling temperature field and freezing/thawing in soils of questionable value. In consequence, the approach usually adopted is the following: When observational data are available, the effective heat conductivity of snow cover is related to the snow density (as in [Sturm *et al.*, 1997]), while the snow density is determined by snow depth, varying regionally [Keller and Gubler, 1993; Osokin *et al.*, 2000]. A more detailed description is sometimes involved, but the accepted key for estimation of the temporally-varying effect of snow cover on the energy balance of an underlying soil is through a representation of intra-seasonal snow depth variations in a coupled snow-ground model [Romanovsky *et al.*, 1997].

Thermo-insulation effect of a snow cover

Basically, the thermo-insulation effect of snow cover is expected to increase with snow depth (up to some limiting value, beyond the 0.4–0.5 m range of snow depth considered here [Maksimova *et al.*, 1977]). Analysis of snow thermo-insulation effects in terms of the ratio between the monthly-mean changes in air temperature and 0.2 m depth soil temperature, made with 30-years observational data from Irkutsk, Russia [Sokratov *et al.*, 2001] showed such a relationship only for the February–March time-interval. In other months, the calculated ratio did not correlate with the observed snow depths.

The idea that heat-flux from the soil to the atmosphere at the beginning of a winter season is unaffected by air temperature fluctuations cannot explain many years when the sign of the temperature change in the air is opposite to that in the soil (Figure 1). The cause of such unexpected results appears to be in the timing of changes in the intra-seasonal surface energy balance. However, the monthly-mean temperature data obscures shorter time intervals when there is variation in the relative weight of the snow cover’s thermo-insulation effects on the energy balance of the soil surface. This question is now addressed using daily time-scale observations.

Intra-seasonal variation of the thermo-insulation properties of snow cover

Soil temperature data from Barrow, Alaska, compiled by K.M. Hinkel, University of Cincinnati, combined with the corresponding snow depth and air temperature data from the National Weather Service allowed analysis with daily-mean-resolution of the intra-seasonal variation of the snow cover effect on the energy balance of an underlying soil at a permafrost site. The analyzed data represent soil temperatures collected from late summer 1993 to late spring 1998 at Barrow, Alaska. A Grant Instruments Squirrel 1204 data logger was utilized in temperature measurements. Eight channels were connected to thermistors, reporting hourly temperatures at 0.01, 0.08, 0.15, 0.22, 0.29, 0.50, 0.75, and 1 m depth. It was suggested by K.M. Hinkel that “owing to thermal disturbance during probe installation, the first couple of weeks of data should be considered suspect and eliminated from any analysis”. The temperature measurements had a precision of 0.015°C at the ice point. The logging system had a lower limit of –22°C, which was

reached on several occasions in winter. At the site, the surface organics are underlain by silt at a depth of approximately 0.3 m. In the present analysis, data at 0.01, 0.08, 0.75, and 1 m are used for heat-fluxes calculations. Heat conductivity of the corresponding soils under frozen and thaw conditions was taken from *Romanovsky and Osterkamp* [2000]. For the present parameterization we omit consideration of the soil-freezing-temperature difference from 0°C and the dependence of the soil heat conductivity on soil moisture. The latter may be responsible for scatter in the results shown below.

The soil-surface (0.01 m depth) temperature allows division of each year into summer and winter seasons, with surface temperatures above or below 0°C respectively. Transitions normally take place in one day and very few summer days experienced soil-surface temperatures below 0°C. At daily time-resolution, the start of the winter season always agreed with a change in the direction of near-surface heat-flux from energy gain by the soil to energy losses. A combination of heat-fluxes and temperature variation also allows division of each winter season into four stages. An example of the intra-seasonal variation of the soil surface energy balance based on these stages is shown in Figure 2.

Numbering the stages from the beginning of a winter season, stage I is characterized by the heat-fluxes near the soil surface and in the permafrost being in opposite directions. The thaw layer is freezing from the top, surface temperature is decreasing with quite a pronounced zero-curtain effect [*Outcalt et al.*, 1990] at the Barrow site, and heat-flux from the surface reaches its maximum for the year, while the temperature and the heat-flux in the underlying permafrost show little change. However, almost exactly on the day when all the thawed soil layer temperatures become negative, the situation changes.

Stage II starting from this moment differs greatly from stage I. During this stage the difference between the heat-fluxes at the surface and at depth is decreasing. The heat-flux in the permafrost changes direction and heat-losses from soil finally take place throughout the whole layer where temperatures were measured.

After the heat-fluxes at the surface and at depth become equal, the fluxes vary almost in parallel to one another. This is stage III, when the heat-flux from the soil surface is slowly decreasing, mainly because of the gradual cooling of the deep soil

layers with relatively small temperature fluctuations at the soil surface under the snow cover. Eventually, the heat-fluxes at depth and at the surface become zero.

The start of stage IV corresponds to energy gain by the soil with temperatures still below 0°C. The heat-fluxes are still almost parallel although the temperature difference between those at the soil surface and those at some depth is noticeably increasing. The end of this stage corresponds to the start of soil thaw from the surface.

Although no snow remain at the soil surface during the last stage (V), the summer energy balance of soil at Barrow can be affected by heat “injection” due to melt water. The beginning of stage V corresponds to maximal heat-flux into the soil, both at the surface and in the permafrost. The heat-flux in permafrost gradually decreases until the next winter season. The near-surface heat-flux variation is more likely related to the summer precipitation, but the general trend is still a gradual decrease to zero, corresponding to the start of soil freezing in the next winter season.

The generalized pattern of the intra-seasonal soil energy balance variation during the winter stages (I–IV) shows the influence of snow cover. However, the snow cover effect, as was suggested based on the analysis of monthly data for Irkutsk, has different relative weights at different stages. Figure 3 presents the available summarized energy balances of the soil surface in Barrow during stages I–III. The last two stages show a reasonable in terms of the “classical” explanation dependence of the energy losses from the soil, with deeper snow cover giving smaller losses. However, the energy balance during stage I does not show such dependence.

Plotting the time-length of each year’s stage I against snow depth (Figure 4) allows us to relate the snow depth to the energy balance and explains the apparent “independence” of these two parameters found for non-permafrost conditions at Irkutsk (Figure 1). In stage I, the heat losses by the soil correspond to energy gained over the previous summer season. The more snow is on the ground, the longer it takes to lose this accumulated heat. However, the final result will always be the same—completely frozen soil. In non-permafrost regions the process is more complex, because there is always a thaw layer beneath. In terms of the stages presented here a considerable part of the winter season is represented by a combination of stages I and III. Thus, the snow

cover depth should first affect the timing of balance between the heat-fluxes at the surface and at the depth, and only then the amount of the heat losses.

In the last stage of winter (IV), the data from Barrow suggest that the driving force of soil warming is the air temperature. Only four years' data were available for analysis, but these give a reasonable description of the snow cover effect (Figure 5). For snow cover of similar depth, the higher the air temperature, the more heat the soil can gain. However, interpolating the data to similar air temperatures, the more snow is on the ground at the beginning of this stage, the less heat will be gained by the soil.

Conclusions

Division of the intra-seasonal variation of snow cover influence on the soil surface energy balance into stages can have various applications:

The results of the Project for Intercomparison of Land-surface Parameterization Schemes (PILPS) illustrate that a more detailed representation of snow physics allows a more accurate outcome from climate models [Slater *et al.*, 2000]. However, incorporation of a complex description of the snow cover properties in spatially-distributed models is not always possible [Slater *et al.*, 1998; Yang *et al.*, 1997]. The intra-seasonal parameterization suggested here allows the snow effect on the soil conditions to be described in terms of the variation in timing of a certain stage, distributed over a region of study. During each stage, the effective thermo-physical properties of snow cover can still be represented by simple empirical relationships. Accepting spatially-distributed differences in the length of each stage, depending on variability of the initial soil conditions and snow depth changes with time, more accurate results should be obtained from a distributed soil freezing model or a Landscape Surface Scheme (LSS) without greatly increased the model complexity.

The results of our analysis show that at Barrow, snow depth has a direct effect on the soil-surface energy balance only during stages II and III. In stage I it affects the time-length of the stage. Snow depth is secondary to the air temperature during stage IV.

Comparison of inter-annual variations in the snow cover effects can also be made using a seasonal division into stages. An example of a multi-year energy balance at the soil surface, based on the data for Barrow, is presented in Figure 6. It can be seen that the

timing and the amount of heat gained or lost by soil during each stage varies considerably from year to year (Figure 6a). The snow cover role in this variation was shown in Figures 3–5. However, similar estimation can be done for other factors responsible for the soil surface energy balance (soil moisture, summer precipitation, microclimatic variations), providing a simple and effective way to involve these parameters in understanding the relationships between climate variability and “soil-climate”.

The energy-balance-years differ in length, and do not agree with calendar years. While the mean-annual temperatures of soil at Barrow were increasing in 1993–1998, and this can be considered as an evidence of warming, summarization of soil-surface energy balance by seasons (Figure 6b) can be a more accurate representation of the year-to-year variability than using mean-annual, season-mean, or monthly-mean temperatures. The data presented in Figure 6b shows that a correlation exists between the energy balance of a winter and the following summer seasons, but not for the pairs summer–next-winter. Hence, the dominant season for the soil freezing/thaw cycles at Barrow is winter. This also explains the negative energy balances to the end of each energy-balance-year. The high positive number for 1993–1994 is the result of the much smaller energy balance of stage I than in other years, likely caused by proximity to the date of installation of the equipment.

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Figures captions

- Figure 1 Illustration of the “independence” of the ratio between temperature change in air to the soil temperature change at 0.2 m depth from snow depth at Irkutsk (1953–1995) for monthly-mean data. T is temperature, subscripts a and s correspond to air and soil respectively, superscripts D and J to December and January respectively [Sokratov *et al.*, 2001].
- Figure 2 Example for Barrow, Alaska (1996–1997) of the intra-seasonal variation of: (a) temperatures: in air (dashed line), at 0.01 m soil depth (seasonally thaw peat, gray line), at 1 m soil depth (permafrost, silt, solid line); (b) heat fluxes between: 0.01–0.08 m depths (seasonally thaw peat, gray line), 0.75–1 m depths (permafrost, silt, solid line); (c) snow depth. The roman numerals shows the separate stages of the intra-seasonal variation of the soil surface energy balance, determined from temperatures and heat fluxes (see text).
- Figure 3 Relationship between the energy balance of the surface layer of soil (0.01–0.08 m) at different stages (see Figure 1) of the intra-seasonal variation of the soil surface energy balance, and the average snow depths for the corresponding time-intervals (Barrow, Alaska): I (1993–1997, ■), II (1993–1997, ○) and III (1993–1998, △).
- Figure 4 Relationship between the time-length of stage I of the intra-seasonal variation of the soil surface energy balance and average snow depths for the corresponding time-intervals (1993–1997, Barrow, Alaska)
- Figure 5 Relationship between the energy balance of the surface layer of soil (0.01–0.08 m) during stage IV of the intra-seasonal variation of the soil surface energy balance and the average air temperatures for the corresponding time-intervals (1994–1997, Barrow, Alaska). Roman numerals show the maximal snow depth during stage IV.
- Figure 6 Summarized energy balance: (a) by intra-seasonal stages, (b) by seasons. Numbers at the bottom of (b) show the end of year energy balance (1993–1998, Barrow, Alaska)

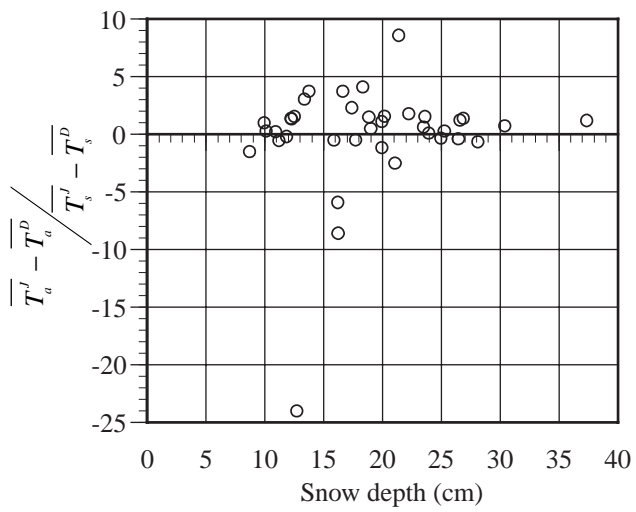


Figure 1.

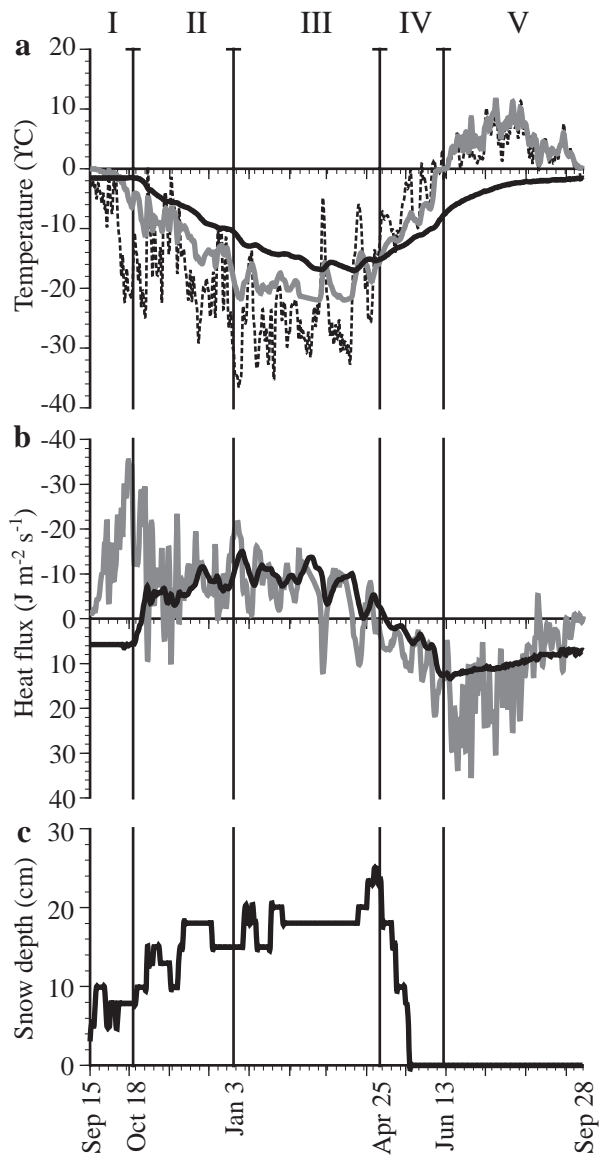


Figure 2

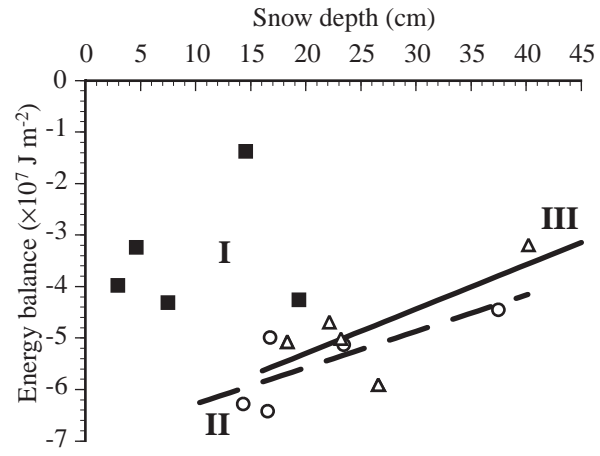


Figure 3

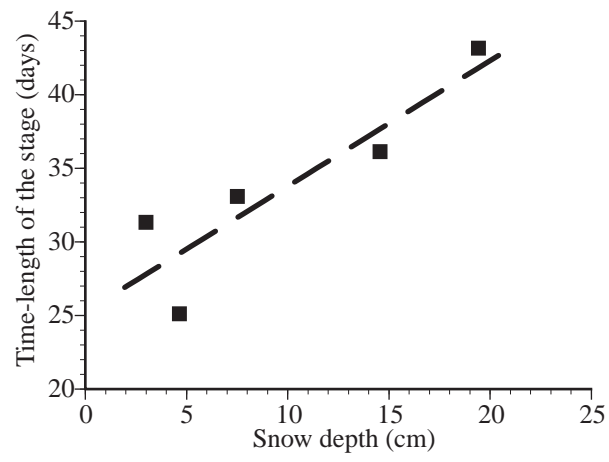


Figure 4

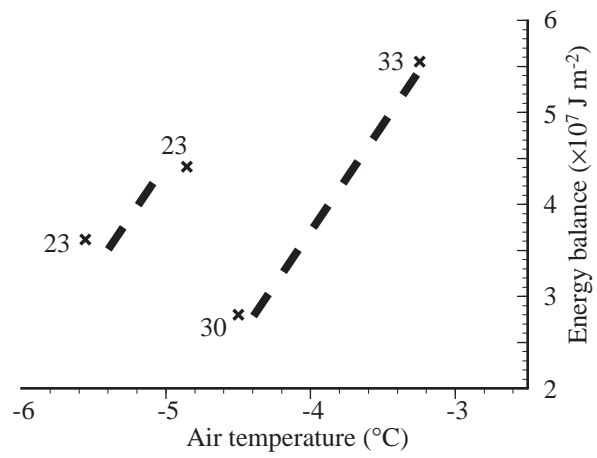


Figure 5

Figure 6

