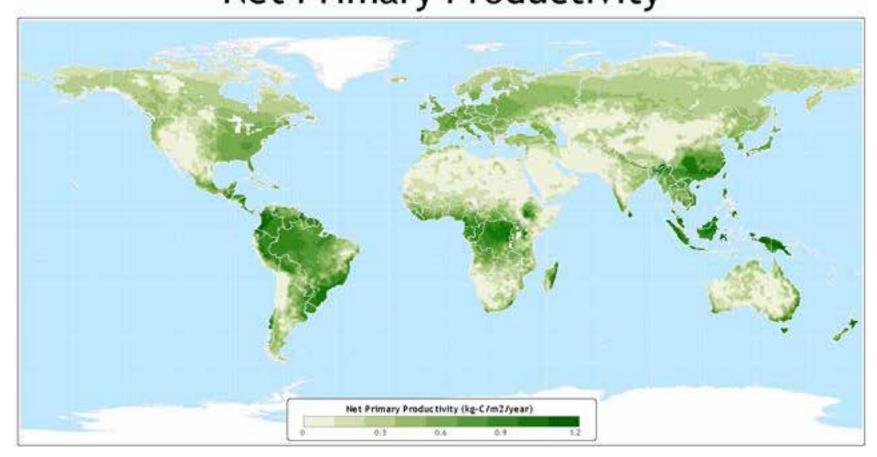
- Objectives:
 - Basics of the global climate system
 - Climate of Hawai'i
 - Human impacts on local and global climate

- Why should we spend time talking about Earth's climate in a class on ecosystem ecology?
 - Globally, climate is the single most important predictor of ecosystem distribution, and ecosystem processes
 - Climate is the most important driver of soil development
 - Global climate is relatively predictable for a given place on Earth from general principles
 - → Distribution of ecosystem types/biomes and ecosystem process rates are relatively predictable

- What is the difference between weather and climate?
 - Weather is what is happening now (today, this week, this month)
 - Climate is average weather over a time period of decades to centuries (~30+ years)

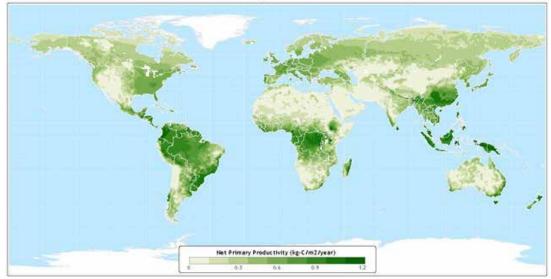
- What controls Earth's climate, and global variation in climate spatially and temporally?
 - 1. Incoming solar radiation (energy input)
 - 2. Atmospheric composition and chemistry
 - 3. Earth's surface properties
 - By understanding causes of spatial and temporal variation in climate, you can predict:
 - What ecosystem type will occur where
 - An ecosystem's general characteristics (structure and function)
 - Impact of human-induced climate change on both of these

Where is NPP highest? Lowest? What are the latitudinal patterns? Other patterns? Net Primary Productivity

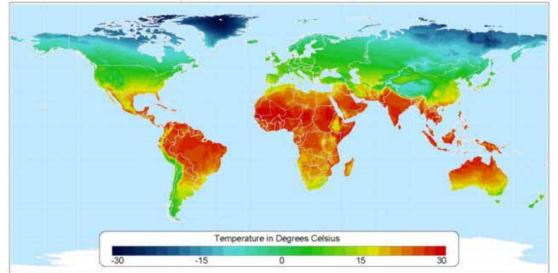


How do temperature patterns compare with those of NPP?

Net Primary Productivity

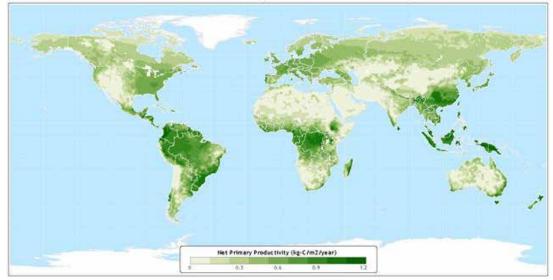


Average Annual Temperature

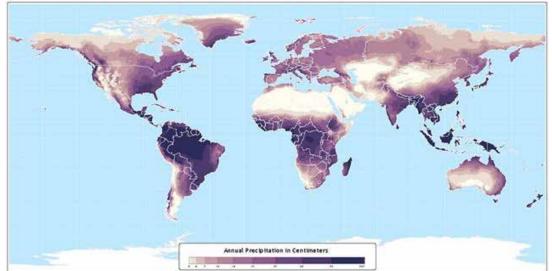


How do precipitation patterns compare with those of NPP?

Net Primary Productivity

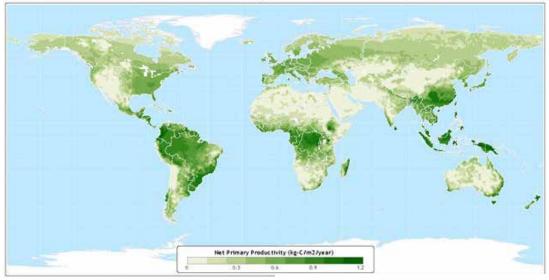


Annual Total Precipitation



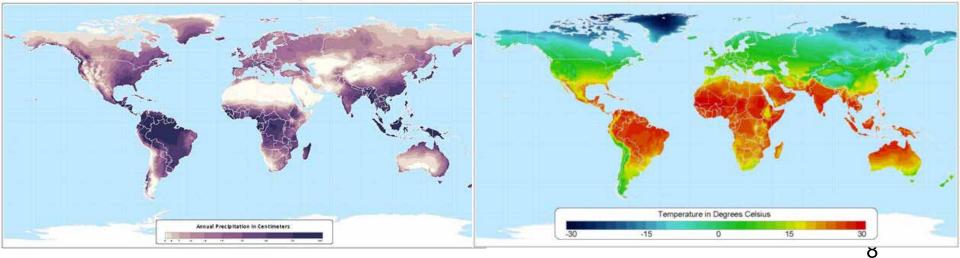
Is temperature or precipitation a better predictor of NPP?

Net Primary Productivity

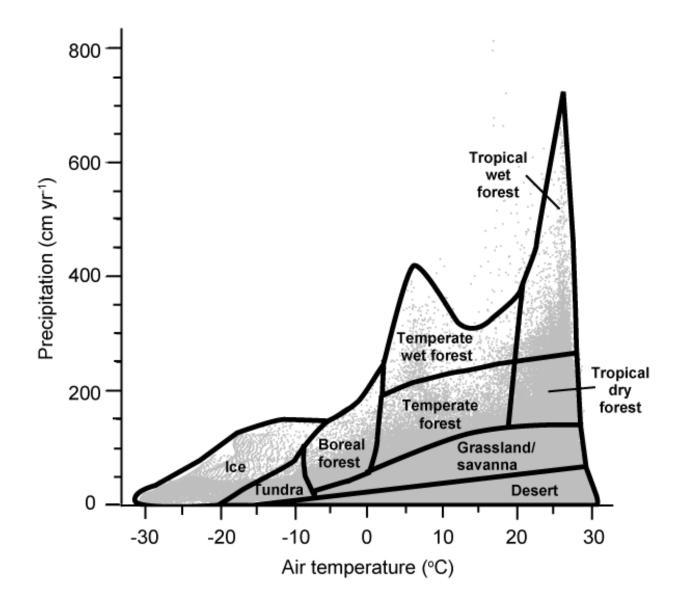


Annual Total Precipitation

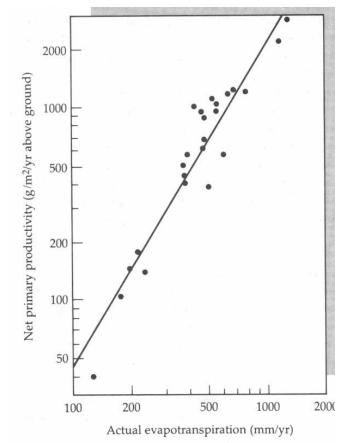
Average Annual Temperature



Relationship of ecosystem type to climate



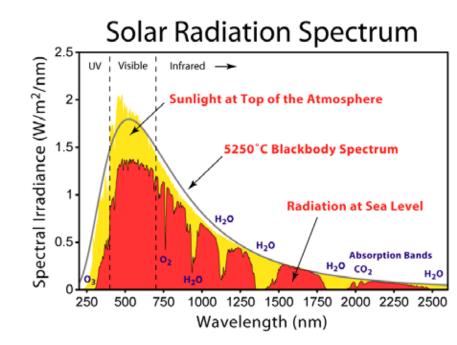
- Climate (MAT & MAP) also correlates very well with ecosystem processes. Why?
 - Temperature and precipitation:
 - Largely determine rates at which chemical & biological reactions occur
 - Rates of chemical & biological reactions, in turn, control ecosystem processes
 - AET, for example, is a function of both precipitation (water supply) and temperature (largely drives both transpiration and evaporation)
- What drives Earth's climate?



Aber & Melillo (1991)

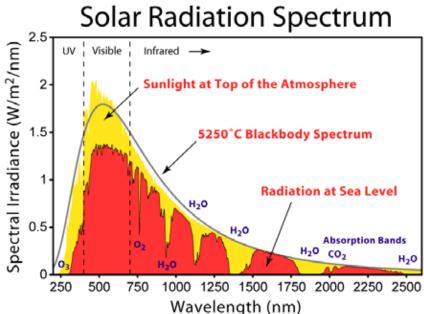
10

- Solar energy (solar radiation) drives Earth's climate system
 - Incoming solar radiation is primarily shortwave (0.3 - 3 mm)
 - High energy radiation
 - UV (8%); <0.4 mm
 - Absorbed by O₃ in atmosphere
 - Visible (39%); 0.4-0.7 mm
 - Also know as PAR; drives photoautotrophic production
 - Near-IR (53%); 0.7-3 mm



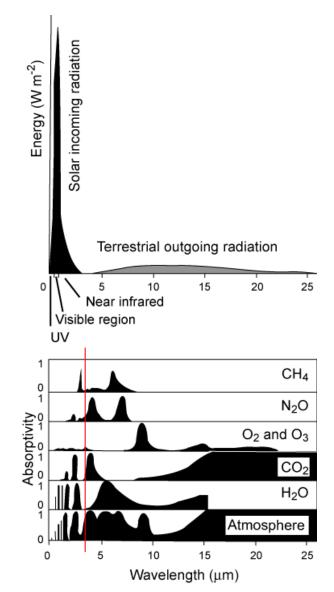
1 micron (mm) = 1000 nanometers (nm)

- Solar energy (solar radiation) drives Earth's climate system
 - Outgoing radiation is primarily longwave (>3 mm; ~70%)
 - Low energy radiation
 - Energy that has been absorbed and reemitted (Far IR)
 - Radiation absorbed by the surface is reradiated back to the atmosphere, absorbed by gases and reradiated back to Earth, etc.
 - "Greenhouse effect"
 - Balance of incoming & outgoing radiation \rightarrow Available energy



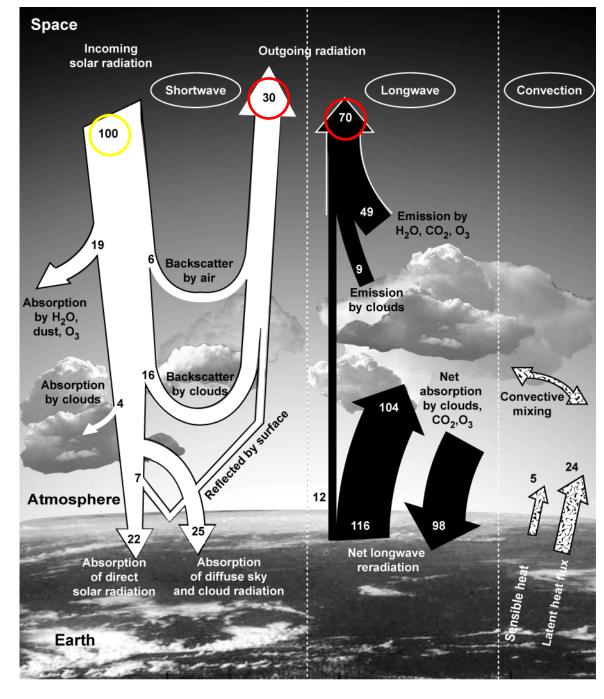
1 micron (mm) = 1000 nanometers (nm)

- Not all radiation makes it through the Earth's atmosphere
 - Shortwave
 - ~23% absorbed by atmosphere
 - Longwave
 - ~90% absorbed by atmosphere
 - Absorbed radiation is reradiated in all directions as longwave radiation
 - That directed back towards Earth → "Greenhouse effect"



- What happens to incoming solar radiation?
 - Keys are that
 - 1. Incoming solar radiation is relatively constant
 - 2. On a long-term global average, the solar radiation budget is in balance (i.e., what comes in goes out)
 - Of incoming shortwave solar radiation:
 - ~30% is reflected as shortwave (albedo)
 - ~70% is absorbed
 - 20% by atmosphere (including clouds) and 49% by the surface
 - All of this is eventually reemitted as longwave radiation
 - If the solar radiation budget is in balance, then what is absorbed must be reemitted
 - Function of Reflection (albedo), Absorption, & Emission 14

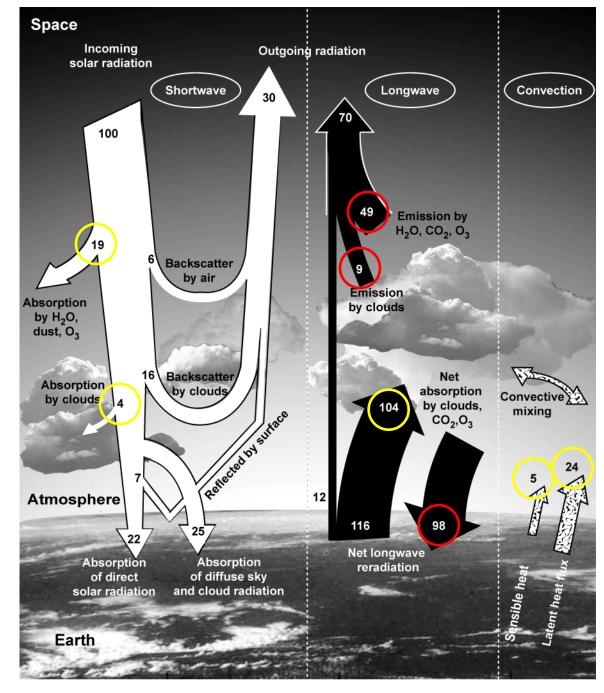
- As a long-term global average, Earth is in a state of radiative equilibrium
- in = out
- 100 = 30 + 70
 - Numbers are % of energy received as incoming solar radiation
 - 100% is ~341 watts/m²



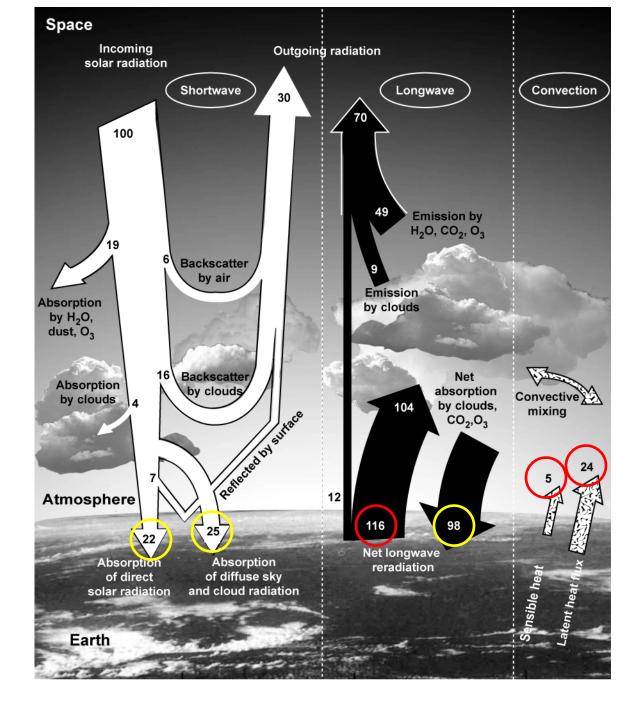
Within the atmosphere:

```
Absorbed = emitted
19+4+104+5+24 =
49+9+98
```

"Lost" radiation: most reflection of incoming shortwave & emission of outgoing longwave radiation happens in the atmosphere



At Earth's surface:



- Three processes are responsible for transferring energy/heat from the surface to the atmosphere
 - 1. Longwave reradiation from Earth's surface (~78%)
 - 2. Sensible heat flux (~4%)
 - **Conduction**: heat transferred from the warmer ground and sea surface to the cooler atmosphere
 - **Convection**: heated air rises and is replaced by sinking cooler air
 - 3. Latent heat flux (~18%)
 - Evaporation and condensation of H_2O
 - H₂O evaporates at the surface (absorbs heat), is transported to the atmosphere via convection, and condenses in the atmosphere (releases heat)

- Atmosphere is very important to Earth's climate because it:
 - 1. Reflects solar radiation
 - 2. Absorbs both short- and longwave radiation
 - 3. Emits longwave radiation
 - What is the atmosphere composed of?

		% by volume		
Compounds	Formula	Concentration	Total mass (g)	
Major constituents (%)		(volumetric)		
Nitrogen	N_{2}	78.084	3.87×10^{21}	
Oxygen	O_2	20.946	1.19×10^{21}	>99.9%
Argon	Ar	0.934	1.19×10^{10} 6.59×10^{19}	/0.010/0
Parts-per-million constitu	ents (ppm = 10^{-1}	-6)	-	
Carbon dioxide	CO ₉	360	2.80×10^{18}	0.0367%
Neon	Ne	18.2	6.49×10^{16}	0.0307/0
Helium	He	5.24	3.70×10^{15}	
Methane	CH_4	1.75	4.96×10^{15}	
Krypton	Kr	1.14	1.69×10^{16}	
Parts-per-billion constitue	nts (ppb = 10^{-9})			
Hydrogen	H ₉	510	1.00 × 1.014	
Nitrous oxide	N ₂ O	311	1.82×10^{14} 2.42×10^{15}	
Xenon	Xe	87	2.42×10^{15} 2.02×10^{15}	
Parts-per-trillion constitue	nts (ppt = 10^{-12})			
Carbonyl sulfide	COS	500	5 90 × 1019	
Chlorofluorocarbons		500	$5.30 imes 10^{12}$	
CFC 11	CCl ₃ F	280	6.79×10^{12}	
CFC 12	CCl ₉ F ₉	550		
Methylchloride	CH ₃ Cl	620	3.12×10^{13}	
Methylbromide	CH ₃ Br	11	5.53×10^{12} 1.84×10^{11}	

1.1.A. Concentration CTULUAR

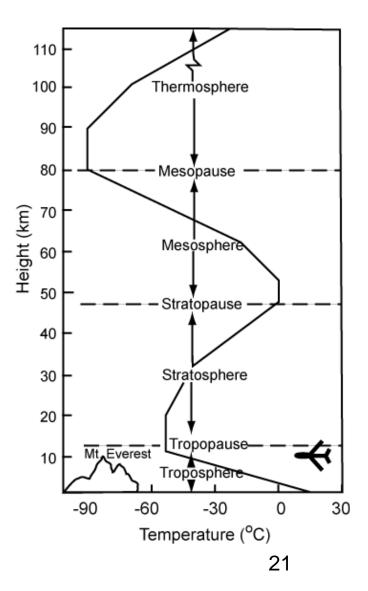
 o Those with a mean residence time >1 year. Assuming a dry atmosphere with a molecular weight of 28.97. The overall mass of the atmosphere sums to 514 \times 10^{19} g (Trenberth and Guillemot 1994).

- What determines atmospheric composition?
 - Mean residence time
 - MRT = total mass / flux
 - $-N_2 = 13,000,000$ yrs
 - $-O_2 = 10,000 \text{ yrs}$
 - $-CO_2 = 4-5$ yrs
 - $CH_4 = 10 yrs$
 - $H_2 O = 10 \text{ days}$
 - Aerosols also very important
 - Small solid or liquid particles
 - Reflect & absorb solar radiation
 - Act as condensation nuclei for formation of cloud droplets

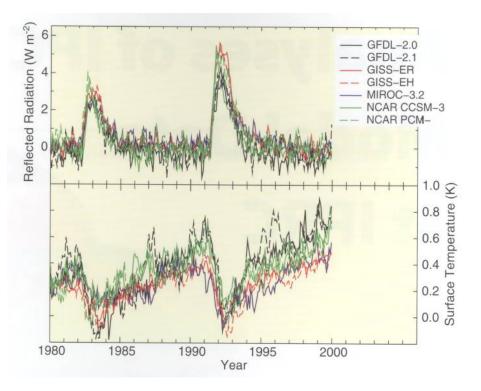
Table 3.1 Global Average Concentration of Well-Mixed Atmospheric Constituents*					
Compounds	Formula	Concentration	Total mass (g)		
Major constituents (%)		(volumetric)			
Nitrogen	N ₂	78.084	3.87×10^{21}		
Oxygen	O ₂	20,946	1.19×10^{21}		
Argon	Ar	0.934	6.59×10^{19}		
Parts-per-million constitu	ents (ppm $= 10$	-6)			
Carbon dioxide	CO,	360	0.00 12 1018		
Neon	Ne	18.2	2.80×10^{18} 6.49×10^{16}		
Helium	He	5.24	3.70×10^{15}		
Methane	CHL	1.75	4.96×10^{15}		
Krypton	Kr	1.14	1.69×10^{16}		
Parts-per-billion constitue	uts (ppb = 10^{-9})				
Hydrogen	H _o	510	1.00		
Nitrous oxide	N ₂ O	311	1.82×10^{14}		
Xenon	Xe	87	2.42×10^{15} 2.02×10^{15}		
Parts-per-trillion constitue	n_{15} (not = 10^{-12})				
Carbonyl sulfide Chlorofluorocarbons	COS	500	$5.30 imes 10^{12}$		
CFC 11	CCLF	280	6.79×10^{12}		
CFC 12	CCl_2F_2	550	3.12×10^{13}		
Methylchloride	CH ₃ Cl	620	5.53×10^{12}		
Methylbromide	CH ₅ Br	11	1.84×10^{11}		

 $^{\rm s}$ Those with a mean residence time >1 year. Assuming a dry atmosphere with a molecular weight of 28.97. The overall mass of the atmosphere sums to 514 \times 10¹⁹ g (Trenberth and Guillemot 1994).

- Atmospheric structure
 - 2 atmospheric layers are most important for biological activity
 - Stratosphere
 - Absorption of UV radiation by O₃ causes the stratosphere to be heated from the top down
 - Ozone hole: Breakdown of O₃ by Cl-containing gases (CFCs)
 - In the troposphere O₃ is a pollutant (smog) and is detrimental (e.g., to photosynthesis)

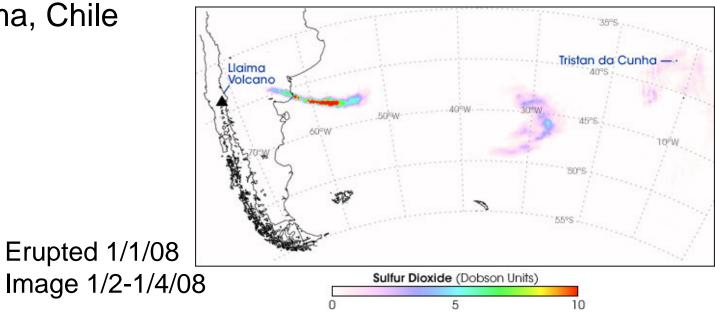


- Stratospheric influence on climate
 - Periods where reflectance of shortwave radiation ↑ and surface temperature ↓
 - Volcanic Activity
 - Mt. Saint Helens (1980), El Chichón (1982), Mt. Pinatubo (1992)
 - Large quantities of sulfur dioxide → sulfate aerosols in the stratosphere
 - Ash particles in the stratosphere (to a lesser extent)

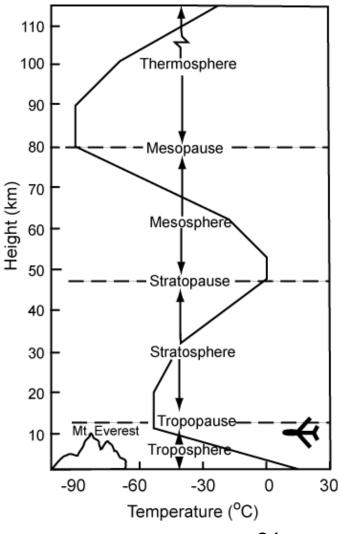




Volcán Llaima, Chile

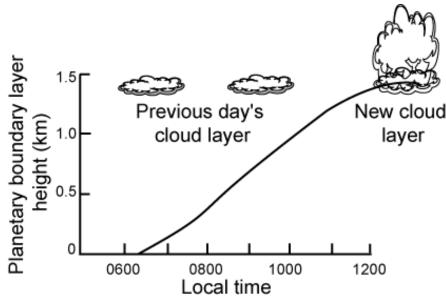


- Atmospheric structure
 - 2 atmospheric layers are most important for biological activity
 - Troposphere (weather layer)
 - Portion of the atmosphere that directly influences, and is influenced by, ecosystems
 - ~16 km in tropics & ~9 km at poles; lower in winter than summer
 - 75% of atmospheric mass
 - Heated from bottom up
 - Longwave radiation, sensible heat flux, and latent heat flux from Earth's surface

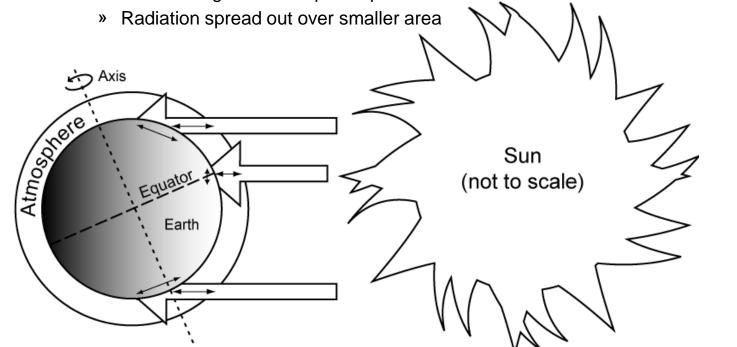


Planetary Boundary Layer

- Lower portion of troposphere that interacts directly with Earth's surface via mixing
- Mixing occurs due to
 - Convective turbulence (surface heating → warm air is less dense and rises)
 - 2. Mechanical turbulence (friction of air moving across the Earth's surface)
- Height of PBL increases during the day due to convective turbulence

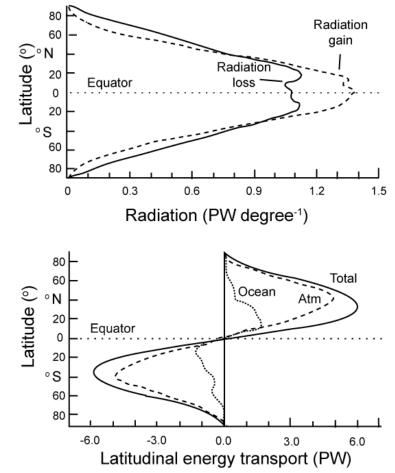


- Global atmospheric circulation
 - Driven by uneven heating of Earth's surface (& troposphere) by solar radiation
 - Suns rays are perpendicular between 23.5° N & S latitudes (the tropics)
 - More energy is absorbed per unit surface area in the tropics:
 - » Shorter length of atmospheric path



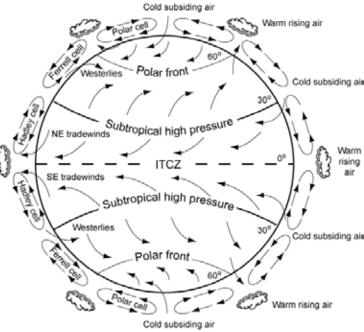
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- Global atmospheric circulation
 - Because energy in = energy out globally, heat is driven from equator to poles
 - Globally, ~60% of poleward transfer of heat from equator due to atmospheric circulation
 - Other 40% due to ocean circulation
 - Latitudes <35° N & S \rightarrow net radiation surplus (more enters than leaves)
 - Shortwave (↓) > Longwave (\uparrow)
 - Latitudes >35°N & S \rightarrow net deficit of radiation (more leaves than enters)
 - Shortwave (\downarrow) < Longwave (\uparrow)



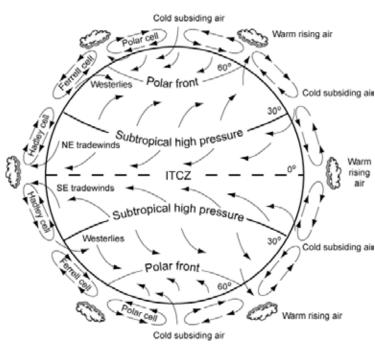
Atmospheric circulation

- Hadley cells
 - - High precipitation in tropics; warm atmosphere
 - Warm dry air flows N & S, cools, & ↓ at ~30°
 - As dry air ↓, compressed & heats; → intense evaporation & a belt of deserts at ~30° N & S = HORSE LATITUDES
 - Air flows towards equator, picks up moisture over oceans, deflected by Coriolis force to W → moist surface flow = TRADE WINDS.
 - NE & SE trades converge at the Equator = INTERTROPICAL CONVERGENCE ZONE
 - » Zone of low pressure, light winds = DOLDRUMS



• Atmospheric circulation

- Polar Cells
 - Subsidence of cold converging air at poles
 - Deflected to the W causing EASTERLIES
- Ferrell Cells
 - At 30°N & S, surface air flows poleward → Ferrel Cells (indirect cell)
 - Deflection by Coriolis force \rightarrow prevailing WESTERLIES
 - Ferrell Cell encounters cold air moving from poles at ~60° N&S
 - POLAR FRONT: unstable air, lots of precipitation and storm systems
 - Warm air rises over polar air & circulates back to complete Ferrel Cell



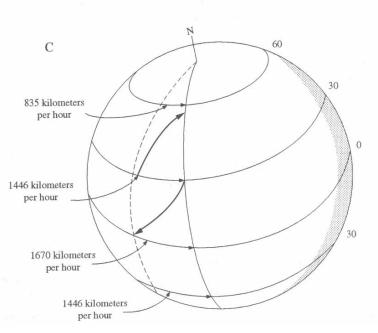
ITCZ – Intertropical Conversion Zone



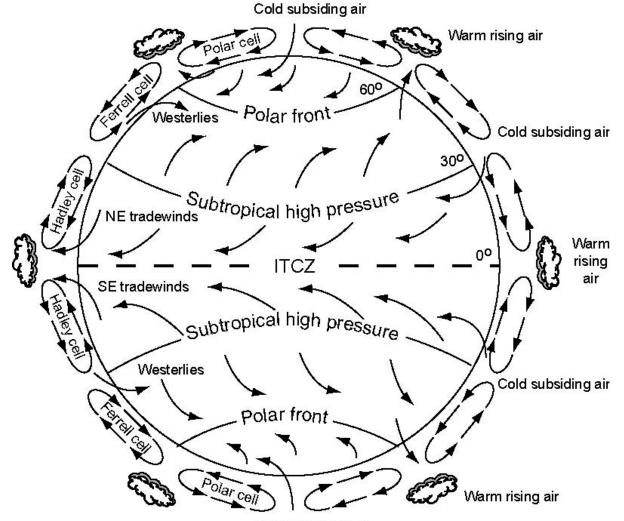
- Is the ITCZ always located at the equator? Why?
 - No. Location of the circulation cells shifts due to tilt of the Earth (seasonal changes in surface heating by the sun)
 30

Coriolis Force

- At different latitudes, Earth rotates at different speeds in relation to the atmosphere
 - Earth rotates from W to E and atmospheric cells move N or S
 - Atmosphere maintains momentum relative to Earth's surface
 - Key is understanding atmospheric cells, specifically surface movement
 - Poleward air encounters less surface and increases speed \rightarrow Westerly surface winds (winds move W \rightarrow E)
 - Equatorward air encounters more surface and reduces speed \rightarrow Easterly surface winds (winds move E \rightarrow W)

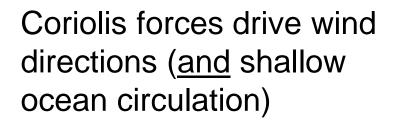


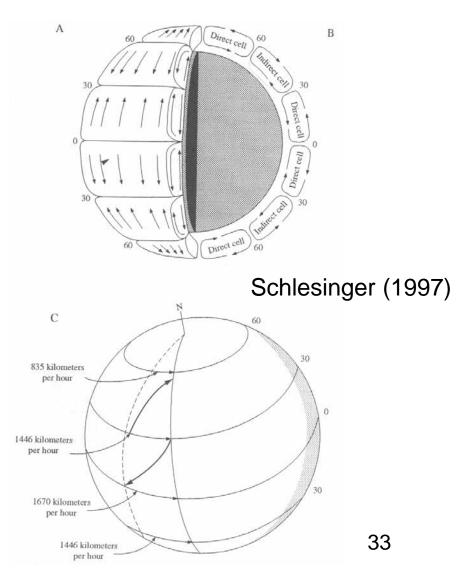
Schlesinger (1997)



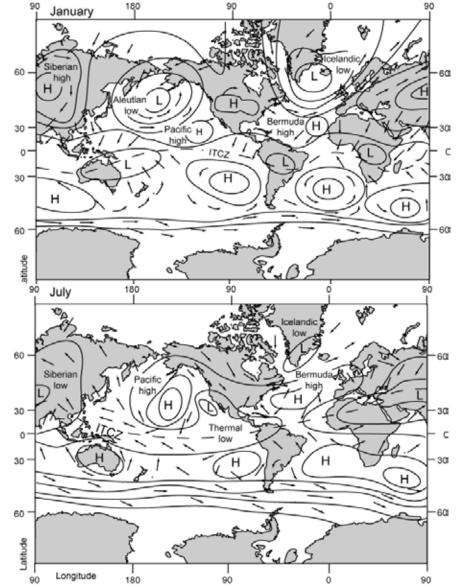
Cold subsiding air

Vertical mixing drives circulation cells



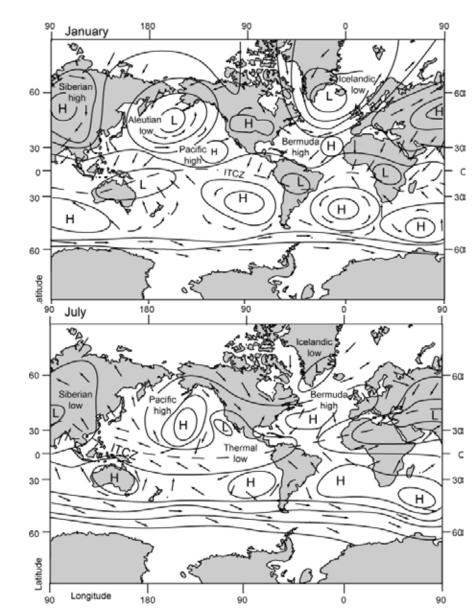


- Continental/Ocean Effects
 - Uneven distribution of land & ocean modifies general latitudinal trends in climate:
 - Rising & sinking of air creates low and high pressure centers, resp.
 - Air ↓ more strongly over cool ocean, resulting in high pressure zones over oceans at 30° N and S
 - High pressure circulates clockwise in
 N. hemi. & counterclockwise in S. hemi.
 - Rising air at 60° N and S creates low pressure zones (time averages)
 - Low pressure circulates counterclockwise in N. hemi.
 - Lack of land in S. hemi. leads to broad trough of low pressure

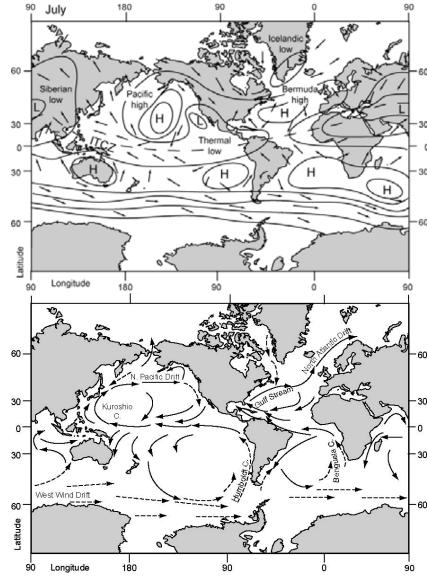


Continental/Ocean Effects

- Planetary waves
 - Deviations from expected wind directions on a planetary scale
 - Most pronounced in N hemisphere
 - Influenced by:
 - Coriolis effect
 - Land-ocean heating contrasts
 - Large mountain ranges

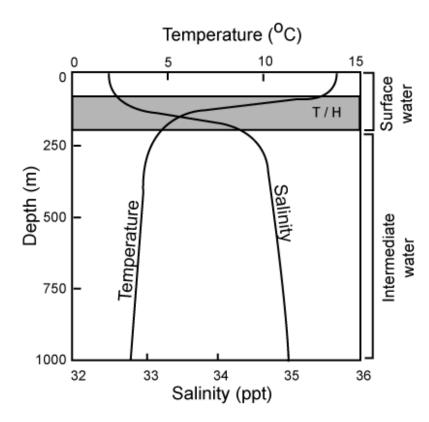


- Ocean Circulation
 - Responsible for other 40% of poleward movement of heat
 - Has strong moderating effects on regional climate
 - Two processes at work:
 - 1. Surface (shallow) circulation
 - Driven by surface wind patterns that result from the Coriolis effect
 - Deflected by continents to form 'gyres'



Ocean Circulation

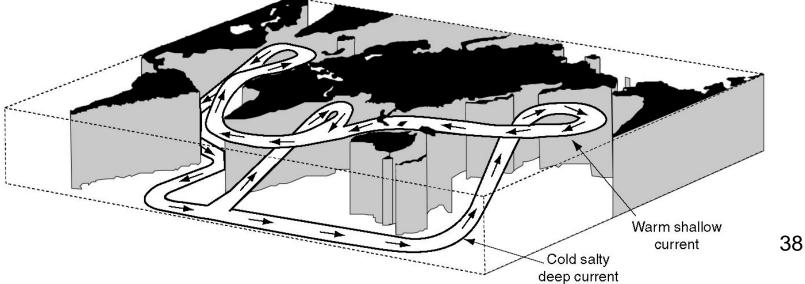
- 2. Thermohaline (deep) circulation
 - Result of temperature <u>&</u> salinity gradients
 - Ocean heated from the top → warm water stays at the top → more stable and less mixing than in atmosphere
 - Warm water at surface, cool water at depth
 - Stable vertical stratification of low density surface water over denser deep water
 - Mixes over 100s to 1,000s of years
 - "Thermohaline" circulation refers to importance of both temperature <u>&</u> salinity
 - Warm water will sink if saline enough



Ocean Circulation

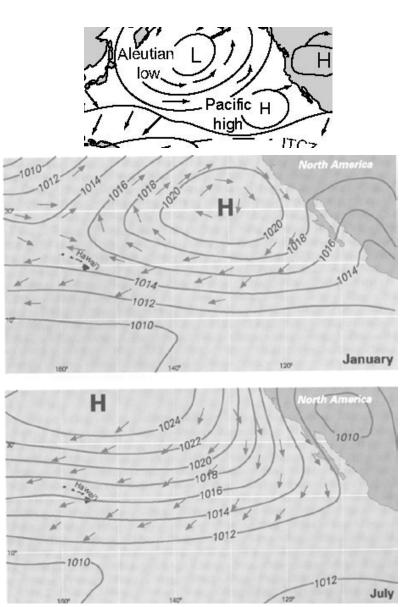
- 2. Thermohaline (deep) circulation
 - Driven by water downwelling at poles
 - Cold air cools water to form ice \rightarrow ice formation excludes salt \rightarrow colder and more saline sinks strongly at poles
 - Mixes water between ocean basins
 - Balanced by upwellings on the East margins of ocean basins at low latitudes

 Drives nutrient transport to shallow waters and high productivity → fisheries
 - Movement of deep cold water towards equator is balanced by poleward movement of surface warm water

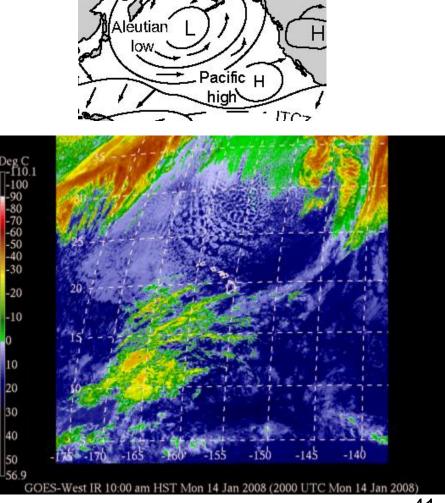


- Dominated by global climatic patterns
 - Proximity to equator (Hadley Cell), NE tradewinds, cold fronts, and Kona Lows
- Influenced by important landform effects
 - Orographic effect, inversion layer, and convective uplift (land/sea breezes)

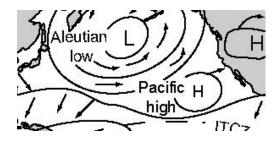
- Tradewind Weather
 - NE Tradewinds from Coriolis effect and the North Pacific High
 - 80% in summer and 50-80% in winter
 - North Pacific High & Aleutian Low shift seasonally
 - In, winter, allows the Aleutian Low to approach the islands → Kona Lows and Cold-Fronts (Low pressure systems)

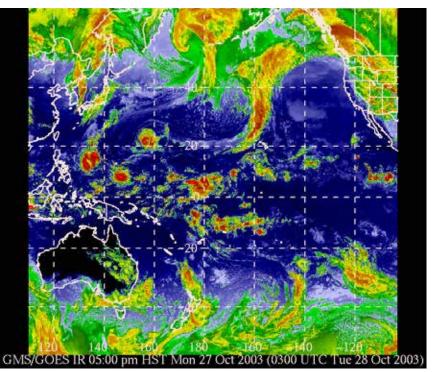


- Hawai'i Climate
 - Tradewind Weather

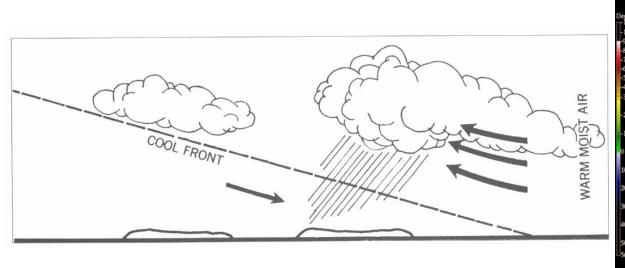


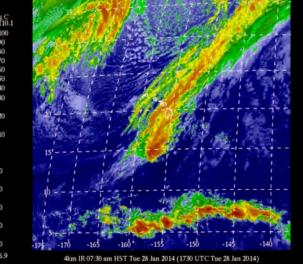
- Kona Lows
 - Cyclones from the N tropics or subtropics
 - Deep trough of cold low pressure from the north protrudes south near Hawaii
 - ~2-3x yr⁻¹
 - Slow moving with widespread precipitation (≥1 week)
 - Seasonal (in the winter)





- Cold-front storms
 - Result when Aleutian Low Pressure system approaches the Islands
 - ~2-12x yr⁻¹
 - Storm-track has cool dense air
 - Pushes warm, moist air up causing unstable atmosphere, widespread precipitation and strong winds



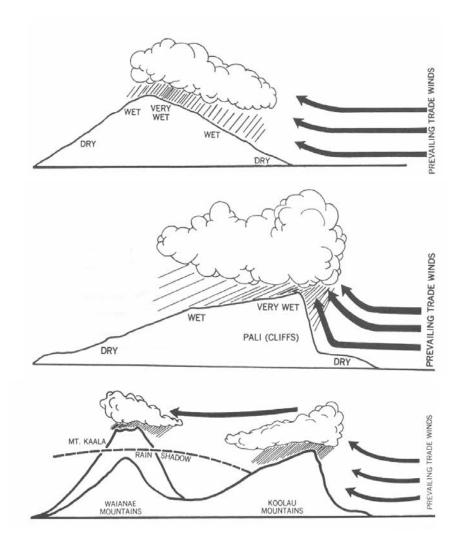


Hawai'i Climate

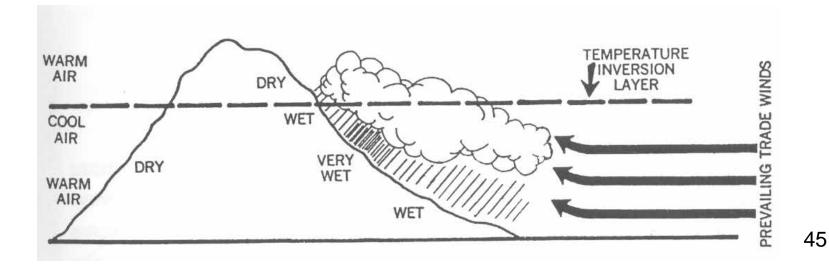
- Also driven by a number of "landform" effects
- Orographic Effect

•Dominant wind patterns (tradewinds) results in rainy windward and dry leeward conditions

•Variability related to topography of landforms

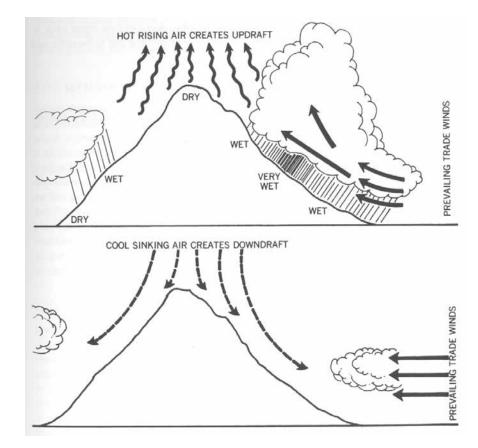


- Inversion Layer
 - Typically air mass rises, cools, and releases moisture
 - Very dry air descends from above (Hadley cell), heats by compression, and suppresses the cold air from rising
 - Temperature inversion layer with warmer air over colder air
 - ~1,500-2,100 m.a.s.l
 - Present $\sim \frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ of the time (only on larger/taller islands)



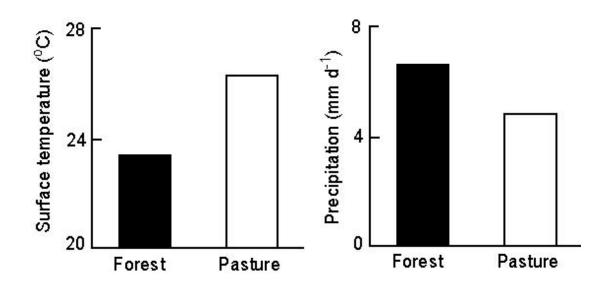
- Convective Patterns
 - Differential heating of land / ocean
 - Sea breezes in the day
 - Land breezes at night

- Vegetation also influences climate locally and regionally
 - Primarily through effects on surface energy budgets
 - Albedo, sensible heat flux, and latent heat flux

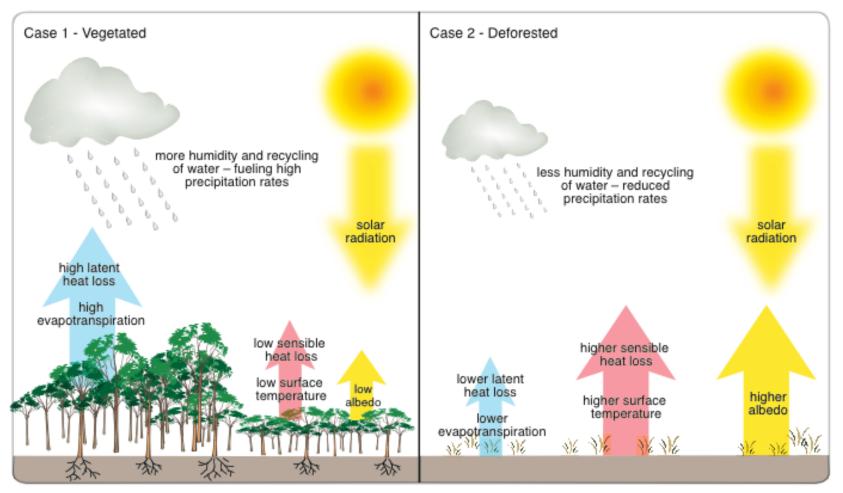


•Climatic consequences of tropical deforestation (computer simulation model for entire Amazon basin)

- Results in warmer drier climate
- Why?

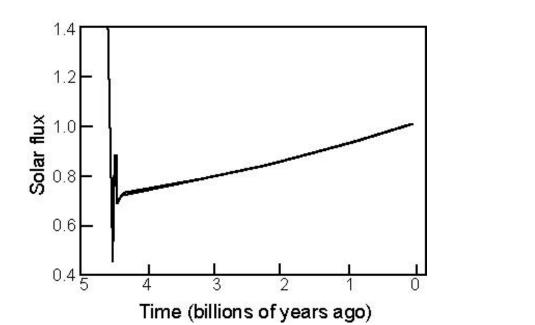


Vegetation alters surface energy budget
 Impacts reflectivity (albedo), sensible heat flux, and latent heat flux



- $\bullet \, \text{Low Albedo} \to \text{high energy absorption}$
- High transpiration cools surface
- Supplies abundant moisture to atmos.
- \bullet High Albedo \rightarrow low energy absorption
- Low transpiration results in warm surface
- Low moisture supply to atmos.

- Long-term climate variability (100,000s to millions of years) is driven primarily by changes in solar input
 - Evolution of the sun (the sun is a relatively young star)
 - Changes in Earth's atmospheric composition
 - Milankovitch Cycles



49

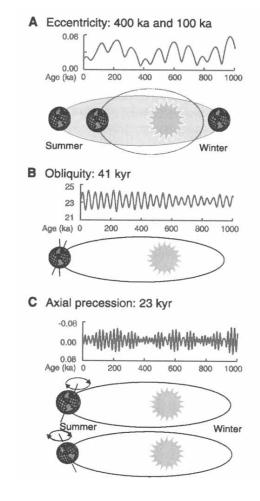
Long-term climate variability

"Milankovitch cycles" - 1941

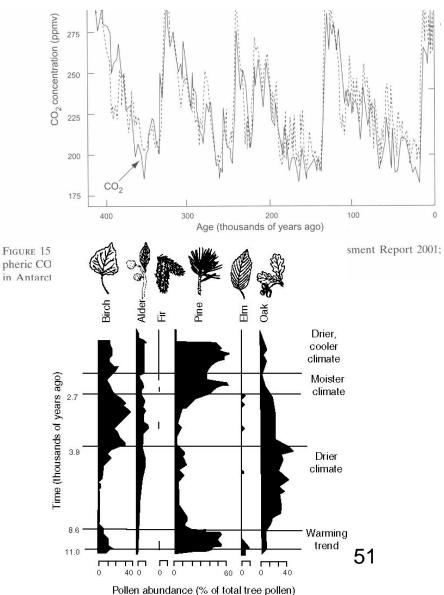
A. ° of ellipticity of orbit; eccentricity (100,000 & 400,000 years)

B. Change in tilt of Earth's axis; obliquity or "wobbling" (41,000 yrs)

C. Change in time of year of perihelion (23,000 yrs)

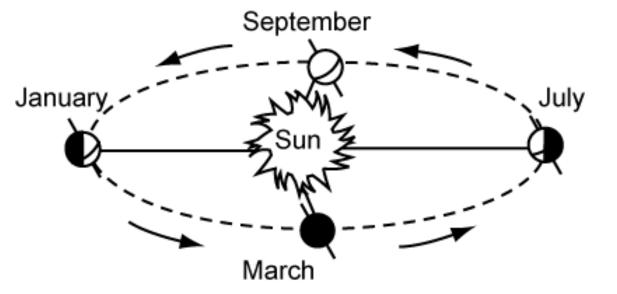


- Nobody was around then, so how do we know that climate was so variable in the past?
 - Ice cores
 - Pollen profile (vegetation reconstructions)



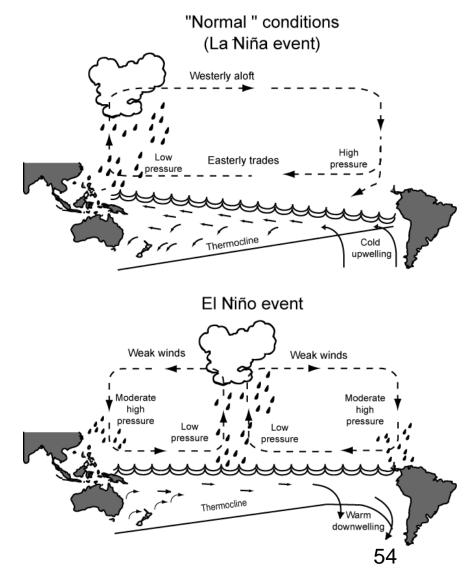
- Short-term climate variability
 - Diurnal and Seasonal cycles (intraannual)
 - ENSO (interannual)
 - PDO (decadal)
 - Volcanic activity (decades to millenia)
 - Changes in surface properties and atmospheric composition
 - Largely from human activities today, but has resulted in geologic past for largely unknown reasons

- Short-term climate variability
 - Diurnal and Seasonal cycles
 - Variation in solar input
 - Diurnal (diel) cycles due to rotation of the Earth around its axis
 - Seasonal cycles due to tilt of the Earth and rotation of Earth around the sun

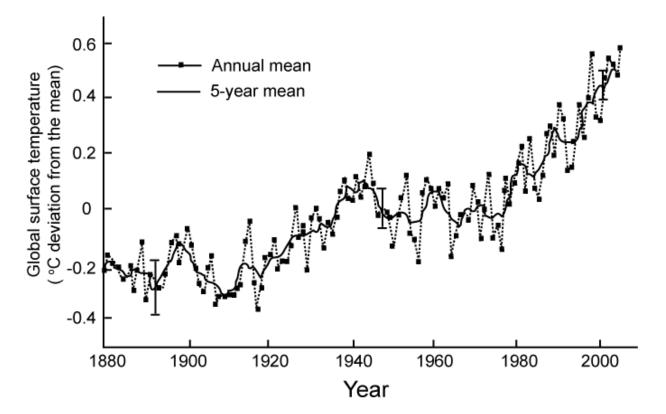


• ENSO

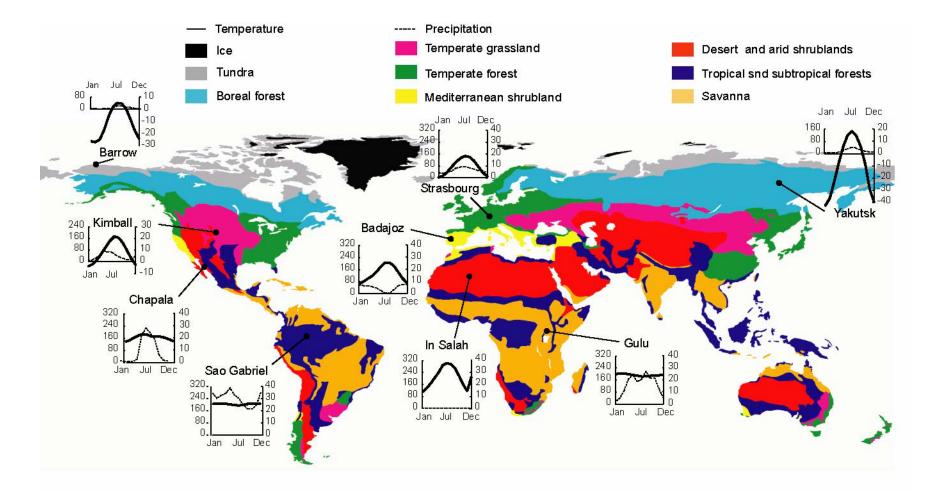
- Cycles: El Niño La Niña
 ~3-7 yrs
- El Niño is primarily driven by a breakdown in the tradewinds
- Impacts for Hawai'i
 - El Niño results in drought (Pineapple Express takes moisture from the Western Pacific)
 - La Nina results in moister conditions



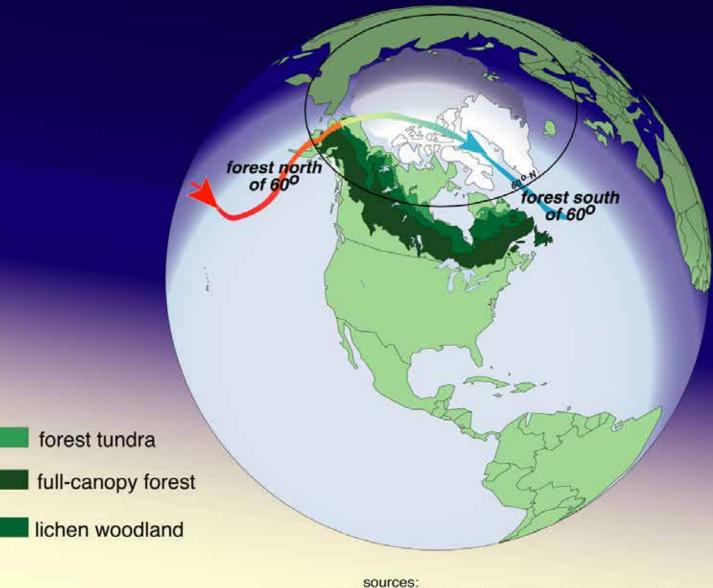
- Short (or long?) -term climate variability
 - Human impacts on atmospheric composition are leading to increased atmospheric temperatures



Why do boreal forests in N. Am. occur farther to the N in the West and farther to the S in the East?

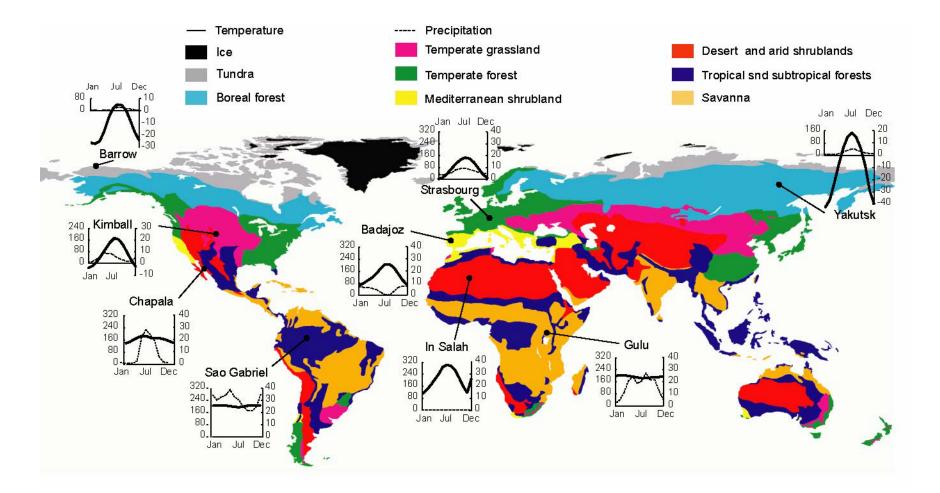


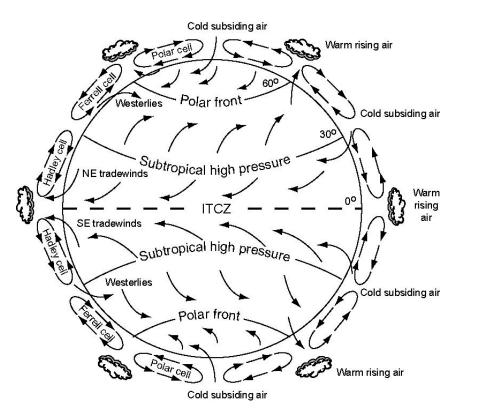
Distribution of Boreal Forest in North America

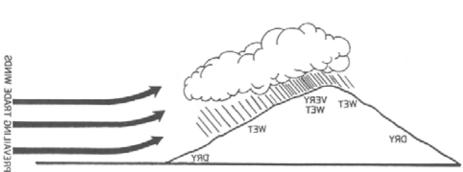


Elliott-Fisk (1988), North American Terrestrial Vegetation Viereck (1971), USDA Ag. Handbook No.410 Kuchler (1969), National Atlas of the United States, Potential Natural Vegetation of Alaska (adapted by G. Juday)

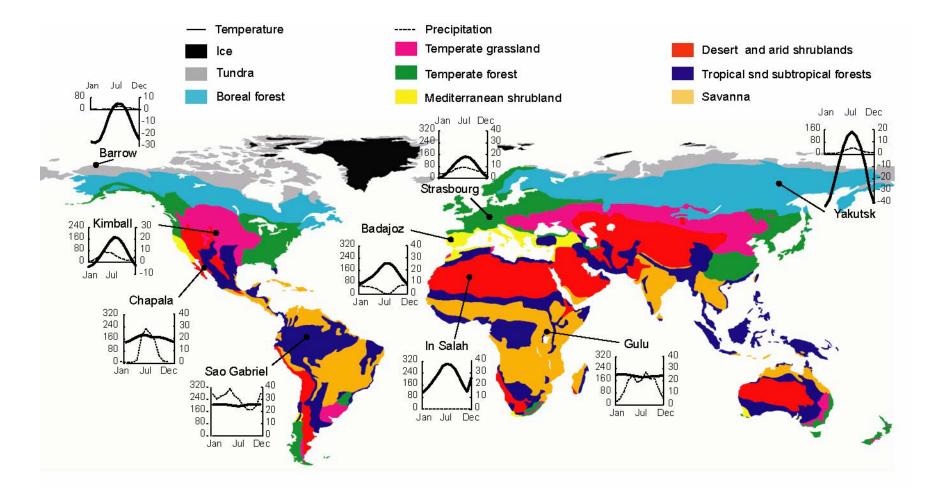
In southern S. Am., why do temperate forests occur to the W. and deserts to the E. in the Southern Cone?

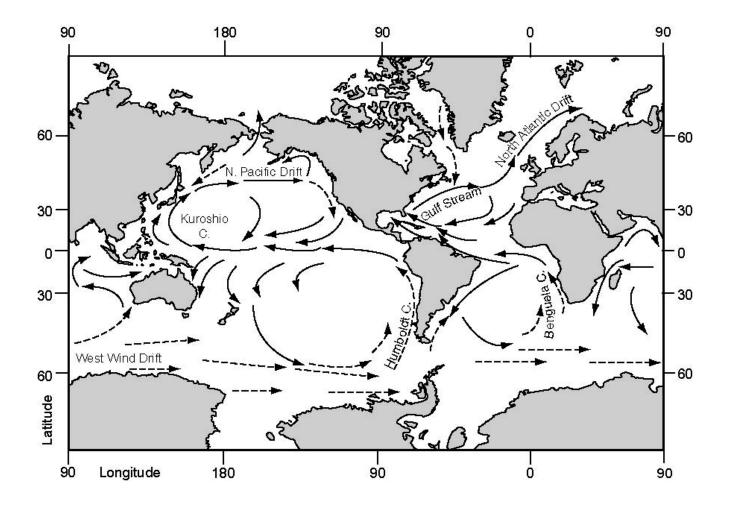






Why do temperate forests occur much farther to the N. in eastern Eurasia than Eastern North America?





Why do you get Mediterranean ecosystems outside of The Mediterranean?

