AOS 611, Spring, 2013

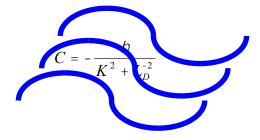
Geophysical Fluid Dynamics II:

Large Scale Dynamics.

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AOS 611: Syllabus, Spring, 2013

Geophysical Fluid Dynamics II:Large Scale Dynamics¹

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Chapter 0. Introduction

Part I: Dynamics of Shallow Water System

Chapter 1: Basics (3 weeks)

Sec.1.0: Introduction Sec.1.1: Basic equations, Sec.1.2: Conservation laws * Sec.1.3: Circulation, vorticity and Kelvin's Theorem * Sec.1.4: Potential vorticity conservation Sec.1.5: Shallow water waves on a f-plane Sec.1.6: Geostrophic adjustment

Chapter 2: Shallow Water Rossby Wave Dynamics (3 weeks)

- Sec.2.1: Quasi-geostrophic equation
- Sec.2.2: Rossby waves
- Sec.2.3: Group velocity and energy propagation
- Sec.2.4: Reflection and normal modes
- Sec.2.5: Forced waves
- Sec.2.6: Non-plane waves*

Chapter 3: Forced Circulation (1.5 week)

- Sec.3.1: Atmospheric circulation
- Sec.3.2: Ekman dynamics
- Sec.3.3: Sverdrup flow
- Sec.3.4: Rossby wave and ocean circulatioin

¹ Most sections requires both understanding and derivation of the equations. Sections with * requires understanding only. Sections with ! are not required.

Part II: Dynamics of Stratified Flow

Chapter 4: Basics of Stratified Fluid (1.5 weeks)

Sec.4.1: Basic equations Sec.4.2: Vorticity equation Sec.4.3: Ertel potential vorticity *

Chapter 5: Rossby Wave Dynamics (2 weeks)

Sec.5.1: Quasi-geostrophic equation for stratified flow * Sec.5.2: Rossby waves in stratified fluid Sec.5.3: Vertical normal modes Sec.5.4: The Elliassan-Palm theorem *

Chapter 6: Instability Theory (2 weeks)

Sec.6.1: Instability problem Sec.6.2: Baroclinic instability in a two-layer QG model Sec.6.3: Energetics Sec.6.2: Charney-Stearn theorem * Sec.6.4: The Eady problem. * Sec.6.6: Barotropic instability *

Grading:

30 % homework, 30% mid-term exam, 40% final exam

References:

1: Pedlosky, J. Geophysical Fluid Dynamics (2nd ed, 1987), Springer-Verlag.

- 2: Gill, A. E., Atmosphere-Ocean Dynamics, 1981, Academic Press.
- 3: Holton, J. R., An Introduction to Dynamic Meteorology (3rd ed), Academic Press.

Chapter 0. Introduction

Why do we study dynamics? The ultimate forcing of the atmospheric and oceanic circulation is the solar radiation. The ocean and atmosphere systems adjust themselves such that the system is in a dynamic equilibrium.

<u>1. Radiative Equilibrium</u>

At the first order, the equilibrium is the so called radiative equilibrium. At this state, the incoming solar radiation warms the surface of the earth. The surface is cooled by the outgoing long wave radiation into the space. Since the atmosphere absorbs mainly long wave radiation from the surface, the atmosphere is heated from below. This first picture of the atmospheric equilibrium, although simple, can explain some essential features of the observed atmosphere stratification. For example, air temperature decreases away from the surface. The surface temperature is about 200°K to 300°K from the high to low latitudes.

This radiative equilibrium, however, still differs substantially from the observation in several important aspects. First, the vertical change of air temperature is too large: 150 K from surface to 10 Km as opposed to about 70K in the observation; (Fig.0.1). Second, the latitudinal temperature gradient is also two large, about 100 K from pole to equator, as opposed to about 50 K in the observation (Fig.0.2). Therefore, the pure radiative equilibrium atmosphere has temperature gradients about twice that of the observation in both the vertical and latitudinal directions. Dynamic processes transport heat (Fig.0.3) to reduce the mean temperature gradients and therefore play important roles in maintaining the mean climatology.

In comparison with the atmosphere, the dynamic processes are even more important in the ocean. This is because radiation only penetrates the surface ocean water by about 10 meters or so. The stratification of the entire subsurface ocean (Fig.0.4), therefore, at the first order, is determined by oceanic dynamic transports.

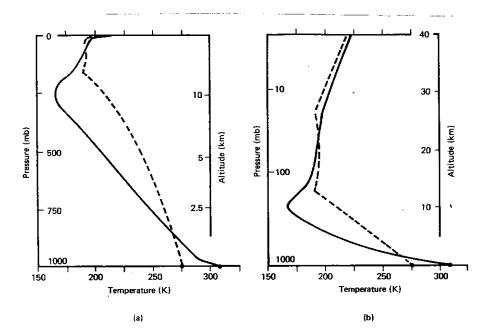


Fig. 1.4. The radiative equilibrium solution (solid line) corresponding to the observed distribution of atmospheric absorbers at 35°N in April, the observed annual average insolation for the whole atmosphere, and no clouds. The dashed line shows the effect of convective adjustment to a constant lapse rate of 6.5 K km⁻¹. In (a) the curves are drawn with a scale linear in pressure, i.e., equal intervals correspond to equal masses of atmosphere. In (b) the scale is linear in altitude. [From Manabe and Strickler (1964, Fig. 4).]

Figure 0.1: Radiative and radiative convective equilibrium in the atmosphere

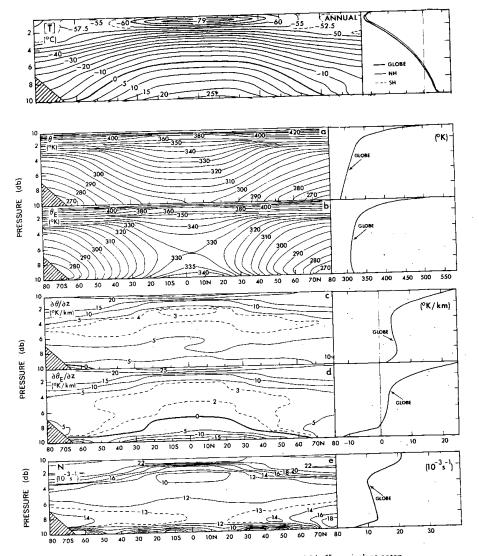
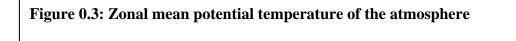


FIGURE 7.6. Zonal-mean cross sections of the potential temperature (a) in K, equivalent potential temperature (b) in K, vertical gradient of potential temperature (c) in K/km, vertical gradient of equivalent potential temperature (d) in K/km, and Brunt-Väisälä frequency in 10^{-3} rad s⁻¹ for annual-mean conditions. Vertical profiles of the global mean values are shown on the right.



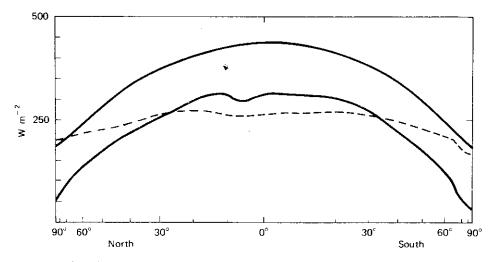


Fig. 1.1 The radiation balance of the earth. The upper solid curve shows the average flux of solar energy reaching the outer atmosphere. The lower solid curve shows the average amount of solar energy absorbed; the dashed line shows the average amount of outgoing radiation. The lower curves are average values from satellite measurements between lune 1974 and February 1978, and are taken from Volume 2 of Winston et al. (1979). Values are in watts per square meter. The horizontal scale is such that the spacing between latitudes is proportional to the area of the earth's surface between them, i.e., is linear in the sine of the latitude.

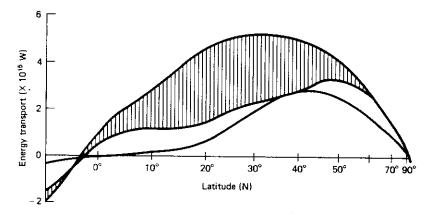
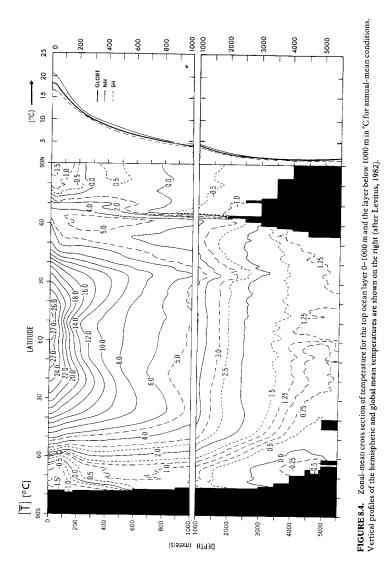
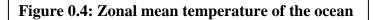


Fig. 1.8. The northward transport of energy (in units of petawatt = 10^{15} W) as a function of latitude. The outer curve is the net transport deduced from radiation measurements. The white area is the part transported by the atmosphere and the shaded area the part transported by the ocean. The lower curve denotes the part of the atmospheric transport due to transient eddies and is the mean of the monthly values from Oort (1971, Table 3). The horizontal scale is such that the spacing between latitudes is proportional to the area of the earth's surface between them. i.e., is linear in the sine of the latitude. [From Vonder Haar and Oort (1973).]

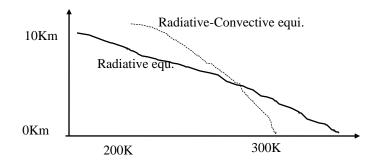
Figure 0.3: Latitudinal distribution of radiation forcing and heat transports in the atmosphere and ocean





2. Radiative-convective equilibrium (vertical)

In the atmosphere, at the next order is the covnective. The cold air is too heavy in the upper atmosphere such that the air column become convectively unstable. Convection reduces the vertical temperature gradient significantly to a neutral stable stratification – radiative-convective equilibrium (about $6.5^{\circ}K/1km$ in the moist saturate atmosphere and $10^{\circ}K/1km$ in the dry atmosphere) (Fig.0.1)

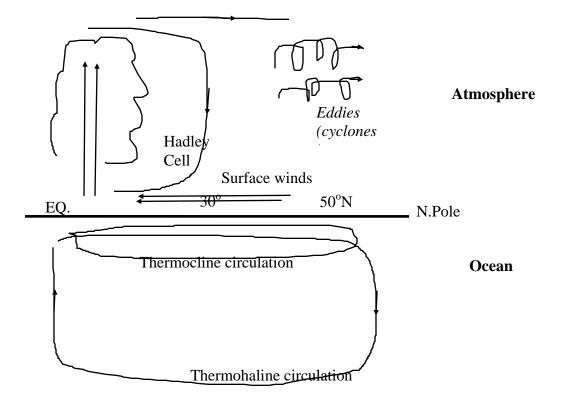


Convection also plays important role in setting the deep stratification at the high latitude ocean, and in turn the deep circulation and stratification. Different from the atmosphere, however, oceanic convection alone adjusts the water column in the subsurface ocean to convective equilibrium, rather than convective-radiative equilibrium.

3. Transport: dynamics (horizontal)

Even after vertical dynamic process, we are still left with important questions. In the atmosphere, the latitudinal gradient of temperature in the atmosphere is still too large. Even worse is the ocean. Neither the horizontal nor the vertical temperature distribution can be explained by the local equilibrium.

The global adjustment will be accomplished by the horizontal transport in the atmosphere and ocean – the so called dynamic processes. The heat transport is partitioned about equally between the atmosphere and ocean (Fig.0.3).Like the vertical convective process that is trying to bring the system to gravitational stability, the horizontal transport of heat eventually bring the climate system to some sort of equilibrium. As a result, the horizontal temperature gradient will also be reduced greatly.



In general, the atmospheric process involves the Hadley Cell (Fig.0.5) in the low latitude and storm track activity in the midlatitude. The oceanic process involves shallow thermocline processes and the thermohaline process (Fig.0.6). The former is wind-driven while the latter is buoyancy driven.

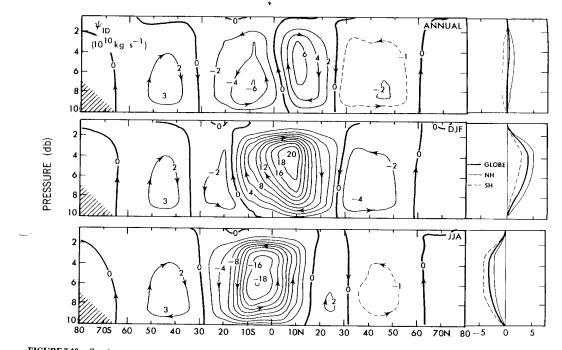
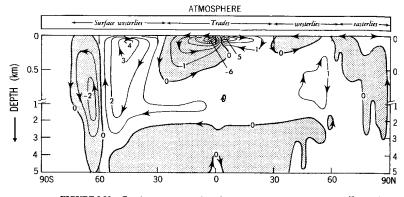


FIGURE 7.19. Zonal-mean cross sections of the mass stream function in 10¹¹ kg s⁻¹ for annual, DJF, and JJA mean conditions. Vertical profiles of the hemispheric and global mean values are shown on the right.

Fig.0.5: Zonal mean circulation in the atmosphere



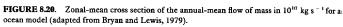


Figure 0.6: Zonal mean circulation in the ocean

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4. Comparison of atmospheric and oceanic dynamics

The dynamics in the atmosphere and ocean have many similarities and differences. We should try to keep in mind of both systems. This will give us a deeper understanding of both systems.

a) Similarities:

Both systems are affected by: i) rotation, ii) stratification, iii) global scale processes. It is these similarities that makes the GFD here in principle apply to both systems, and makes the GFD different from classical fluid dynamicds.

b) Differences:

Forcing Horizontal Domain Vertical Weight, speed In addition to temperature radiation stratification compressibility Atmosphere pure buoyancy driven no horizontal boundary No upper boundary light and fast water vapor Radiative critical strong compressible

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Ocean

wind and buoyancy driven with horizontal boundary Bounded vertically heavy and slow salinity Dynamics critical weak incompressible

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