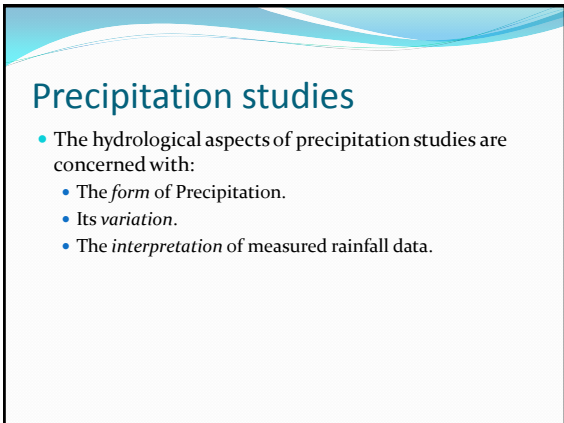


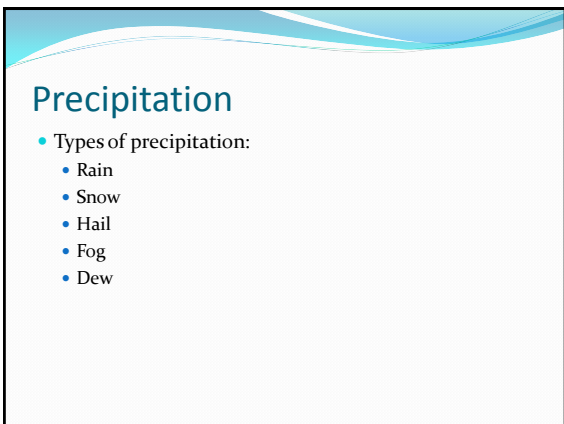
Precipitation

GG22A: GEOSPHERE & HYDROSPHERE
Hydrology



Precipitation studies

- The hydrological aspects of precipitation studies are concerned with:
 - The *form* of Precipitation.
 - Its *variation*.
 - The *interpretation* of measured rainfall data.



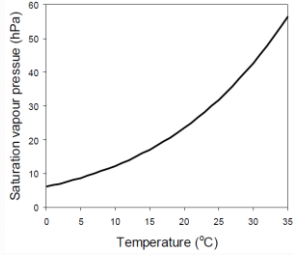
Precipitation

- Types of precipitation:
 - Rain
 - Snow
 - Hail
 - Fog
 - Dew

Generation of precipitation

- Condensation
- Coalescence
- Cooling

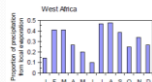
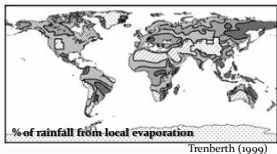
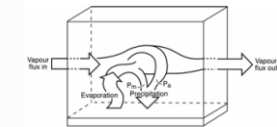
Warm air is able to hold more water than cool air. The dew point is the temperature to which a parcel of air must be cooled in order to become saturated.



Cooling of air

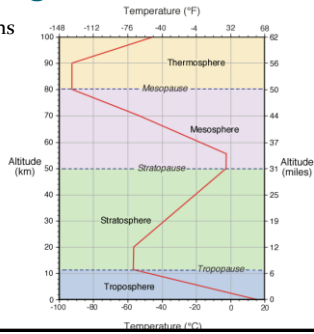
- **Conductive cooling:**
 - air comes into contact with a colder surface, such as if it is blown from a liquid water surface onto cooler land
- **Radiational cooling:**
 - emission of infrared from air or surface
- **Evaporative cooling:**
 - addition of moisture to air cools or saturates it.
- **Adiabatic cooling:**
 - air is forced to rise.

Evaporative cooling



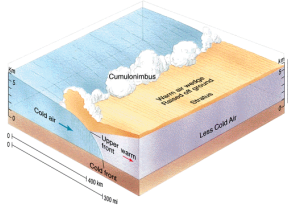
Adiabatic cooling

- Three main mechanisms for air to rise:
 - Convergence (frontal/ non-frontal)
 - Convection
 - Orographic uplift



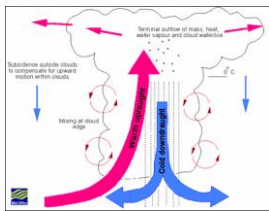
Adiabatic precipitation

- Cyclonic:
 - Frontal: when warm moist air is forced to rise over a wedge of denser cold air.
 - Non-Frontal: convergence and uplift in an area of low pressure (tropical wave, low pressure system in the westerlies).

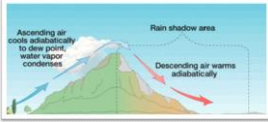


Adiabatic precipitation

- Convective:
 - Heating of the ground surface causing convective currents of thermally unstable air.
 - Produces intense rainfall of limited duration and areal extent.



Adiabatic precipitation



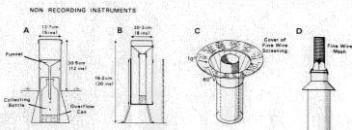
- Orographic:
 - Mechanical uplift or forcing of moist air over barriers (mountains, islands in oceans).
 - Lifting may produce convective instability which actually produces the rainfall rather than the orographic uplift.
 - The intensity of precipitation increases with the depth of the uplifted layer of moist air.

Precipitation measurement

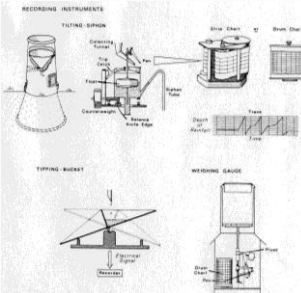
- Point measurement
 - Raingauges/ snowgauges
- Areal estimation (over a catchment)
 - Interpolation of point measurements
 - Radar and satellite

Measurement of rainfall

- Point measurements:
 - Rain Gauge:
 - Non-Recording Rain Gauges



Measurement of rainfall



- Point measurements:
 - Rain Gauge:
 - Recording Rain Gauges:
 - Siphon-Gauge
 - Tipping Bucket Gauge
 - Weighing Gauge

Rain gauges



- Standard Rain Gauge:
 - collects rainfall and is periodically emptied when the precipitation amounts are recorded manually.
 - *Different countries have different standards*



- Tipping Bucket Rain Gauge: automatically records increments of rainfall (typically 0.1-0.5mm) on a strip chart or digitally.

Rain gauges

Tipping Bucket Rain Gauge:



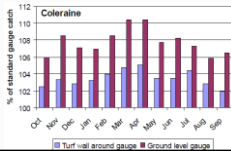
- Closed



- Opened to show tipping mechanism

Gauge error

- Accuracy problems
 - Wind turbulence: leads to underestimates.
 - More significant the higher that the rim of the rain gauge is above the ground.
 - Gauge can also act as an obstacle to wind flow which means rainfall is deflected and carried downwind.



Bias in rainfall measurement
Essery & Wilcock (1991)

Gauge error

- Measurement errors increase with windspeed and with reduced raindrop size.

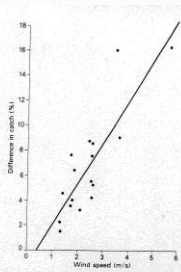


Figure 2.3 Relation between average wind speed and difference in catch between standard and ground-level rain gauges at 17 long-term sites in Britain. Reprinted with permission from Atmospheric Environment, vol 20, J. C. Rodda and S. W. Smith. The significance of the systematic error in rainfall measurement for assessing atmospheric deposition, © 1986 Pergamon Journals Ltd.

Gauge error

- Rain gauges do not accurately record extreme rainfall events or high intensity rain, due to splash.



Gauges can be designed to minimise errors from splash

Gauge error

- Extreme rainfall may:
 - be beyond the capacity of storage gauges
 - cause recording gauges to malfunction,
 - cause recording gauges to lose accuracy due to the time it takes for them to tip or siphon empty.
- Extreme events may also be localized and not be recorded by a single rain gauge, or may pass between gauges in a network.

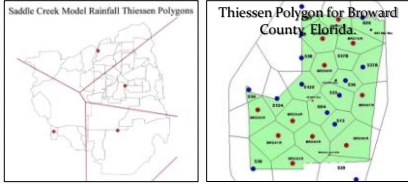
Areal estimates

- Achieved by a network of gauges or by using additional radar and satellite information.
- Standard WMO guidelines for the density of rain gauge networks depending on the environment.

Areal estimates from point data

- Point measurements must be in representative locations.
- Rainfall can be estimated at unmeasured locations:
 - Weighted average
 - Thiessen polygons
 - Interpolation
 - isohyets
 - inverse-square distance
 - kriging

Areal estimates from point data

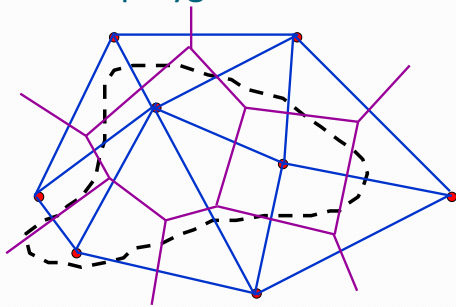


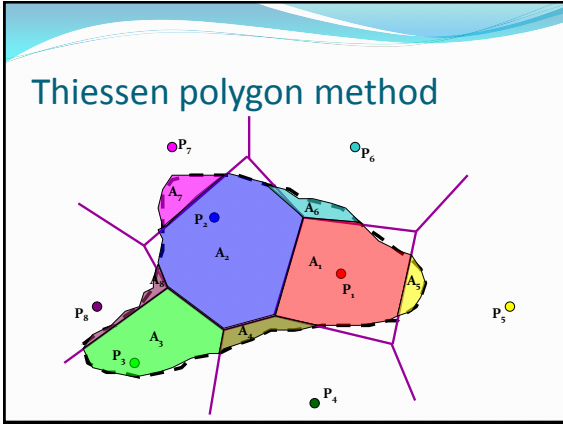
- Thiessen polygons for estimating mean catchment rainfall
 - Weights the catches at each gauge by the proportion of the catchment area that is nearest to that gauge.

Thiessen polygon method

- Consists of attributing to each station an influence zone in which it is considered that the rainfall is equivalent to that of the station.
 - The influence zones are represented by convex polygons.
 - Polygons are obtained using the mediators of the segments which link each station to the closest neighbouring stations

Thiessen polygon method





Thiessen polygon method

Mean catchment rainfall, \bar{P} :

$$\bar{P} = \frac{P_1 A_1 + P_2 A_2 + \dots + P_m A_m}{(A_1 + A_2 + \dots + A_m)}$$

Generally, across M stations:

$$\bar{P} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^M P_i A_i}{A_{total}} = \sum_{i=1}^M P_i \frac{A_i}{A}$$

The ratio $\frac{A_i}{A}$ is called the weighting factor of station i

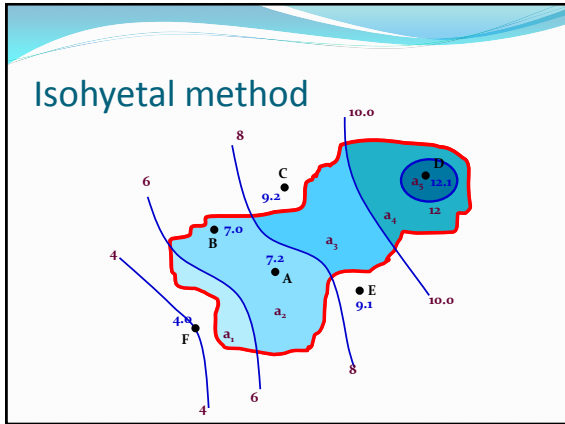
Areal estimates from point data

Figure 24. Annual rainfall isohyets (mm)

Figure 25. April - October rainfall isohyets (mm)

Isohyets derived from Bureau of Meteorology rainfall data.

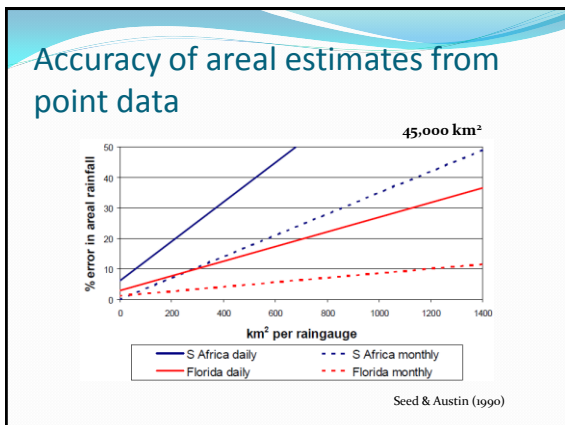
- The isohyetal method
 - Isohyets are lines of equal rainfall
 - They are drawn between rain gauges, then the areas between the isohyets are calculated.



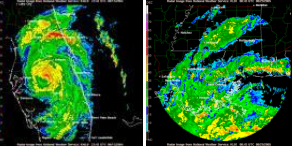
Isohyetal method

$$\bar{P} = \frac{a_1 \left(\frac{P_1 + P_2}{2} \right) + a_2 \left(\frac{P_2 + P_3}{2} \right) + \dots + a_{n-1} \left(\frac{P_{n-1} + P_n}{2} \right)}{A}$$

\bar{P} = mean precipitation over the catchment
 $P_1, P_2, P_3, \dots, P_n$ = values of the isohyets
 $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n$ = inter isohyets areas
 A = catchment total area



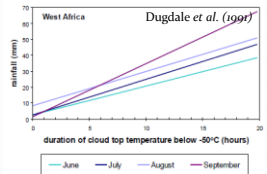
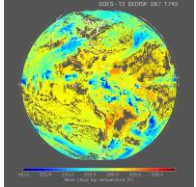
Areal estimates



- Weather Radar and satellites
 - Radar reflectivity is used to calculate rainfall totals, while the radar is often calibrated with rain gauge data.
 - Errors can result from:
 - Insects and birds
 - Ground/ sea clutter
 - Wind turbines

Areal estimates

- Satellite measurements:
 - Cloud top temperature
 - Cloud top brightness

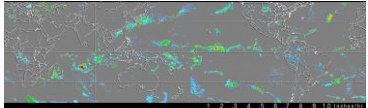


Areal estimates

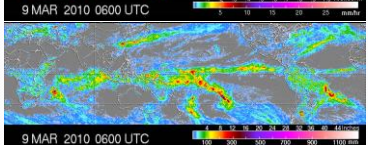


- Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission (TRMM)

3 hourly data



7 day accumulation

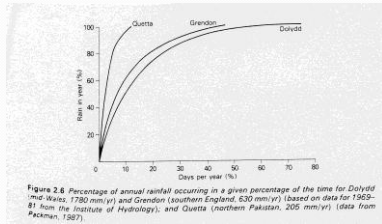


<http://trmm.gsfc.nasa.gov/>

Analysis of precipitation data

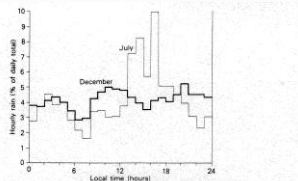
- Estimates of the average rainfall of an area.
 - E.g. catchment rainfall
- Patterns and movements of individual storms.
- The occurrence of rainfall of different magnitudes. Estimation of the Probable Maximum Precipitation.

Temporal variations in precipitation records



- Stochastic Variations: random nature of precipitation.
 - Total precipitation can be dominated by only a few storms or rain days.

Temporal variations in precipitation records



- Periodic Variations: related to diurnal or annual cycles.
 - Diurnal variations are greatest where the rainfall is derived from convective storms.
 - The annual cycle is more obvious across most of the globe.

Occurrence of rainfall of different magnitudes

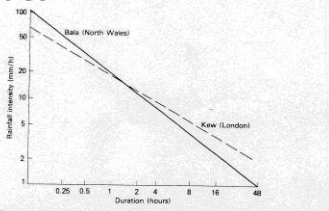


Figure 2.11 Rainfall intensity-duration curves for a five-year return period for two areas with contrasting rainfall regimes. (From Keers and Westcott, 1977. By permission of the Controller of Her Majesty's Stationary Office.)

- Rainfall intensity-duration curves

Occurrence of rainfall of different magnitudes

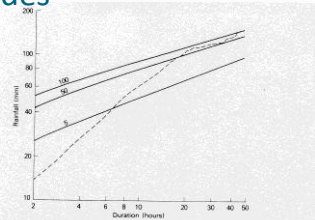


Figure 2.12 Depth-duration frequency curves of 5, 50 and 100 year return periods based on NERC (1975) for a site in South Wales, together with the profile of a large storm on 26-27 December 1979 in South Wales. (from Jack, 1981)

- Depth-duration frequency curves

Occurrence of rainfall of different magnitudes

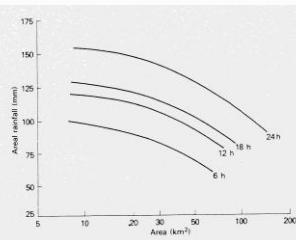


Figure 2.13 Typical depth-area-duration curves (from Shaw, 1988).

- Depth-area duration curves

Probable maximum precipitation

- The physical upper limit to the amount of precipitation on a given area over a given time.
- The theoretically greatest depth of precipitation for a given duration that is physically possible over a particular drainage area at a certain time of year.

Probable maximum precipitation

- Methodology:
 1. Maximization and transposition of real or modelled storms.
 2. Plot maximum precipitation intensities by duration of actual recorded storms across the globe.

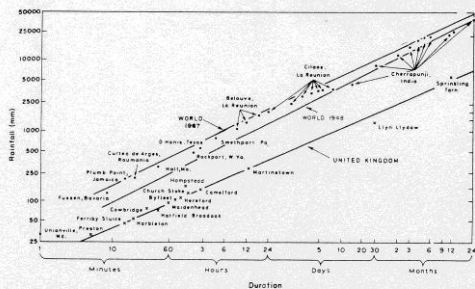


Figure 2.15 Magnitude-duration relationship for the world and the United Kingdom extreme rainfalls (redrawn after a diagram by Rodda, 1970), based on data from various sources and showing envelope curves for the world maxima recorded prior to 1948 and prior to 1967.

- 1948 Curve is approximated as $P = 255D^{0.5}$
- 1967 Curve is approximated as $P = 420D^{0.475}$
- P = Precipitation in mm, D = Rainfall Duration in hrs.

Summary

- Generation of precipitation
 - Cooling of air: Conductive, Radiational, Evaporative, Adiabatic (cyclonic, convectional, orographic).
- Measurement and estimation:
 - Rain guages; gauge errors; Thiessen polygons; Isohyets
 - Weather Radar; satellite measurements; TRMM
- Analysis of rainfall:
 - Temporal variations; rainfall magnitudes; probable maximum precipitation.
