M.Sc. in Meteorology

Synoptic Meteorology [MAPH P312] Prof Peter Lynch

Second Semester, 2004–2005 Seminar Room Dept. of Maths. Physics, UCD, Belfield.



These lectures follow closely the text of Wallace & Hobbs.

Water vapour condensing on a condensation nucleus may form a droplet of radius $1 \mu m$. To form a raindrop, this droplet will have to increase to radius of, say, 1 mm. That is an increase in mass of one billion (10⁹).

Water vapour condensing on a condensation nucleus may form a droplet of radius $1 \mu m$. To form a raindrop, this droplet will have to increase to radius of, say, 1 mm. That is an increase in mass of one billion (10⁹).

To account for growth through such a wide range of sizes in time periods as short as ten minutes or so for some convective clouds, it is necessary to consider a number of physical processes.

Water vapour condensing on a condensation nucleus may form a droplet of radius $1 \mu m$. To form a raindrop, this droplet will have to increase to radius of, say, 1 mm. That is an increase in mass of one billion (10⁹).

To account for growth through such a wide range of sizes in time periods as short as ten minutes or so for some convective clouds, it is necessary to consider a number of physical processes.

Scientific investigations of these processes is the domain of *cloud microphysics*.

1. Nucleation of Water Vapour Condensation

- **1. Nucleation of Water Vapour Condensation**
- 2. Microstructures of Warm Clouds

- **1. Nucleation of Water Vapour Condensation**
- 2. Microstructures of Warm Clouds
- **3. Cloud Liquid Water Content and Entrainment**

- **1. Nucleation of Water Vapour Condensation**
- 2. Microstructures of Warm Clouds
- **3. Cloud Liquid Water Content and Entrainment**
- 4. Growth of Cloud Droplets in Warm Clouds

- **1. Nucleation of Water Vapour Condensation**
- 2. Microstructures of Warm Clouds
- **3. Cloud Liquid Water Content and Entrainment**
- 4. Growth of Cloud Droplets in Warm Clouds
- 5. Microphysics of Cold Clouds

- **1. Nucleation of Water Vapour Condensation**
- 2. Microstructures of Warm Clouds
- **3. Cloud Liquid Water Content and Entrainment**
- 4. Growth of Cloud Droplets in Warm Clouds
- 5. Microphysics of Cold Clouds
- **6.** Artificial Modification of Clouds and Precipitation

- **1. Nucleation of Water Vapour Condensation**
- 2. Microstructures of Warm Clouds
- **3. Cloud Liquid Water Content and Entrainment**
- 4. Growth of Cloud Droplets in Warm Clouds
- 5. Microphysics of Cold Clouds
- **6.** Artificial Modification of Clouds and Precipitation
- 7. Thunderstorm Electrification

- **1. Nucleation of Water Vapour Condensation**
- 2. Microstructures of Warm Clouds
- **3. Cloud Liquid Water Content and Entrainment**
- 4. Growth of Cloud Droplets in Warm Clouds
- 5. Microphysics of Cold Clouds
- **6.** Artificial Modification of Clouds and Precipitation
- 7. Thunderstorm Electrification
- 8. Cloud and Precipitation Chemistry

If the water vapour pressure in the air is e, the *supersaturation* (in percent) with respect to liquid water is

$$\left(\frac{e}{e_s} - 1\right) \times 100$$

where e_s is the saturation vapour pressure.

If the water vapour pressure in the air is e, the *supersaturation* (in percent) with respect to liquid water is



where e_s is the saturation vapour pressure.

Clouds form when air becomes supersaturated. The most common means by which supersaturation is produced is through the ascent of air parcels, which results in the expansion of the air and adiabatic cooling.

If the water vapour pressure in the air is e, the *supersaturation* (in percent) with respect to liquid water is



where e_s is the saturation vapour pressure.

Clouds form when air becomes supersaturated. The most common means by which supersaturation is produced is through the ascent of air parcels, which results in the expansion of the air and adiabatic cooling.

Under these conditions, water vapour condenses onto some of the particles in the air to form a cloud of small water droplets or ice particles.

If the water vapour pressure in the air is *e*, the *supersaturation* (in percent) with respect to liquid water is



where e_s is the saturation vapour pressure.

Clouds form when air becomes supersaturated. The most common means by which supersaturation is produced is through the ascent of air parcels, which results in the expansion of the air and adiabatic cooling.

Under these conditions, water vapour condenses onto some of the particles in the air to form a cloud of small water droplets or ice particles.

We are concerned with the formation of *water droplets* from the condensation of water vapour.

We consider first the hypothetical problem of the formation of a *pure water droplet* by condensation from a supersaturated vapour without the aid of particles in the air.

We consider first the hypothetical problem of the formation of a *pure water droplet* by condensation from a supersaturated vapour without the aid of particles in the air.

In this process, which is referred to as *homogeneous nucleation* of condensation, the first stage is the chance collisions of a number of water molecules in the vapour phase to form small embryonic water droplets that are large enough to remain intact.

We consider first the hypothetical problem of the formation of a *pure water droplet* by condensation from a supersaturated vapour without the aid of particles in the air.

In this process, which is referred to as *homogeneous nucleation* of condensation, the first stage is the chance collisions of a number of water molecules in the vapour phase to form small embryonic water droplets that are large enough to remain intact.

Let us suppose that a small embryonic water droplet of volume V and surface area A forms from pure supersaturated water vapour at constant temperature and pressure. Work is done in creating the surface area of the droplet.

We consider first the hypothetical problem of the formation of a *pure water droplet* by condensation from a supersaturated vapour without the aid of particles in the air.

In this process, which is referred to as *homogeneous nucleation* of condensation, the first stage is the chance collisions of a number of water molecules in the vapour phase to form small embryonic water droplets that are large enough to remain intact.

Let us suppose that a small embryonic water droplet of volume V and surface area A forms from pure supersaturated water vapour at constant temperature and pressure. Work is done in creating the surface area of the droplet.

This work may be written as $A\sigma$, where σ is the work required to create a unit area of vapour-liquid interface (called the *surface energy* of the liquid).

Let ΔE be the net increase in the energy of the system due to the formation of the droplet. It can be shown that

$$\Delta E = A\sigma - nV\,kT\,\log\frac{e}{e_s}$$

Let ΔE be the net increase in the energy of the system due to the formation of the droplet. It can be shown that

$$\Delta E = A\sigma - nV \, kT \, \log \frac{e}{e_s}$$

Here *n* is the number of water molecules per unit volume of liquid, *e* and *T* are the vapour pressure and temperature of the system, e_s the saturation vapour pressure and *k* is the Boltzmann constant.

Let ΔE be the net increase in the energy of the system due to the formation of the droplet. It can be shown that

$$\Delta E = A\sigma - nV \, kT \, \log \frac{e}{e_s}$$

Here n is the number of water molecules per unit volume of liquid, e and T are the vapour pressure and temperature of the system, e_s the saturation vapour pressure and k is the Boltzmann constant.

For a droplet of radius R, this becomes

$$\Delta E = 4\pi R^2 \sigma - \frac{4}{3}\pi R^3 n \, kT \, \log \frac{e}{e_s}$$

Let ΔE be the net increase in the energy of the system due to the formation of the droplet. It can be shown that

$$\Delta E = A\sigma - nV \, kT \, \log \frac{e}{e_s}$$

Here n is the number of water molecules per unit volume of liquid, e and T are the vapour pressure and temperature of the system, e_s the saturation vapour pressure and k is the Boltzmann constant.

For a droplet of radius R, this becomes

$$\Delta E = 4\pi R^2 \sigma - \frac{4}{3}\pi R^3 n \, kT \, \log \frac{e}{e_s}$$

Under subsaturated conditions, $e < e_s$ and $\ln(e/e_s)$ is negative. Thus, ΔE is always positive and increases with R.



Increase ΔE in the energy of a system due to the formation of a water droplet of radius R from water vapour with pressure e.

Since a system approaches an equilibrium state by reducing its energy, the formation of droplets is clearly not favoured under subsaturated conditions.

Since a system approaches an equilibrium state by reducing its energy, the formation of droplets is clearly not favoured under subsaturated conditions.

Even so, due to random collisions of water molecules, very small embryonic droplets continually form (and evaporate) in a subsaturated vapour, but they do not grow large enough to become visible as a cloud of droplets.

Since a system approaches an equilibrium state by reducing its energy, the formation of droplets is clearly not favoured under subsaturated conditions.

Even so, due to random collisions of water molecules, very small embryonic droplets continually form (and evaporate) in a subsaturated vapour, but they do not grow large enough to become visible as a cloud of droplets.

Under supersaturated conditions, $e > e_s$ and so $\ln(e/e_s)$ is positive. In this case, ΔE can be either positive or negative, depending upon the value of R.

Since a system approaches an equilibrium state by reducing its energy, the formation of droplets is clearly not favoured under subsaturated conditions.

Even so, due to random collisions of water molecules, very small embryonic droplets continually form (and evaporate) in a subsaturated vapour, but they do not grow large enough to become visible as a cloud of droplets.

Under supersaturated conditions, $e > e_s$ and so $\ln(e/e_s)$ is positive. In this case, ΔE can be either positive or negative, depending upon the value of R.

The variation of ΔE with R for $e > e_s$ is also shown in the Figure (red curve), where it can be seen that ΔE initially increases with increasing R, reaches a maximum value at R = r, and then decreases with increasing R.


Increase ΔE in the energy of a system due to the formation of a water droplet of radius R from water vapour with pressure e.

However, larger droplets, that manage to grow by chance collisions to a radius that just exceeds r, will continue to grow spontaneously by condensation from the vapour phase, since this will produce a decrease in ΔE .

However, larger droplets, that manage to grow by chance collisions to a radius that just exceeds r, will continue to grow spontaneously by condensation from the vapour phase, since this will produce a decrease in ΔE .

At R = r, a droplet can grow or evaporate infinitesimally without any change in ΔE . We can obtain an expression for r in terms of e by setting $\partial(\Delta E)/\partial R = 0$ at R = r.

However, larger droplets, that manage to grow by chance collisions to a radius that just exceeds r, will continue to grow spontaneously by condensation from the vapour phase, since this will produce a decrease in ΔE .

At R = r, a droplet can grow or evaporate infinitesimally without any change in ΔE . We can obtain an expression for r in terms of e by setting $\partial(\Delta E)/\partial R = 0$ at R = r.

Hence, from the above equation for ΔE , we get

$$r = \frac{2\sigma}{nkT\log(e/e_s)}$$
 or $e = e_s \exp\left(\frac{2\sigma}{nkTr}\right)$

However, larger droplets, that manage to grow by chance collisions to a radius that just exceeds r, will continue to grow spontaneously by condensation from the vapour phase, since this will produce a decrease in ΔE .

At R = r, a droplet can grow or evaporate infinitesimally without any change in ΔE . We can obtain an expression for r in terms of e by setting $\partial(\Delta E)/\partial R = 0$ at R = r.

Hence, from the above equation for ΔE , we get

$$r = \frac{2\sigma}{nkT\log(e/e_s)}$$
 or $e = e_s \exp\left(\frac{2\sigma}{nkTr}\right)$

This is referred to as *Kelvin's Equation*, after Lord Kelvin who first derived it.

1. It can be used to calculate the radius r of a droplet that is in (unstable) equilibrium with a given water vapour pressure e.

- 1. It can be used to calculate the radius r of a droplet that is in (unstable) equilibrium with a given water vapour pressure e.
- 2. It can be used to determine the saturation vapour pressure e over a droplet of specified radius r.

- 1. It can be used to calculate the radius r of a droplet that is in (unstable) equilibrium with a given water vapour pressure e.
- 2. It can be used to determine the saturation vapour pressure e over a droplet of specified radius r.

The relative humidity at which a droplet of radius r is in (unstable) equilibrium is $100 \times (e/e_s)$, where e/e_s is given by Kelvin's Equation.

- 1. It can be used to calculate the radius r of a droplet that is in (unstable) equilibrium with a given water vapour pressure e.
- 2. It can be used to determine the saturation vapour pressure e over a droplet of specified radius r.

The relative humidity at which a droplet of radius r is in (unstable) equilibrium is $100 \times (e/e_s)$, where e/e_s is given by Kelvin's Equation.

The variation of the equilibrium relative humidity with droplet radius is shown in the Figure that follows.



The relative humidity and supersaturation at which pure water droplets are in (unstable) equilibrium at 5° C.

A droplet of radius $1 \,\mu m$ requires a relative humidity of only 100.12% (i.e., a supersaturation of 0.12%).

A droplet of radius $1 \,\mu m$ requires a relative humidity of only 100.12% (i.e., a supersaturation of 0.12%).

The supersaturations that develop in natural clouds due to the adiabatic ascent of air rarely exceed a few percent.

A droplet of radius $1 \,\mu m$ requires a relative humidity of only 100.12% (i.e., a supersaturation of 0.12%).

The supersaturations that develop in natural clouds due to the adiabatic ascent of air rarely exceed a few percent.

It follows that, even if embryonic droplets of pure water as large as $0.01 \,\mu\text{m}$ in radius formed by the chance collision of water molecules, they would be well below the critical radius required for survival in air that is just a few percent supersaturated.

A droplet of radius $1 \,\mu m$ requires a relative humidity of only 100.12% (i.e., a supersaturation of 0.12%).

The supersaturations that develop in natural clouds due to the adiabatic ascent of air rarely exceed a few percent.

It follows that, even if embryonic droplets of pure water as large as $0.01 \,\mu\text{m}$ in radius formed by the chance collision of water molecules, they would be well below the critical radius required for survival in air that is just a few percent supersaturated.

Consequently, droplets do not form in natural clouds by homogeneous nucleation of pure water.

Droplets form on atmospheric aerosol by what is known as *heterogeneous nucleation*.

Droplets form on atmospheric aerosol by what is known as *heterogeneous nucleation*.

A surface is said to be perfectly *wettable* (hydrophilic) if it allows water to spread out on it as a horizontal film (detergents are used for this purpose).

Droplets form on atmospheric aerosol by what is known as *heterogeneous nucleation*.

A surface is said to be perfectly *wettable* (hydrophilic) if it allows water to spread out on it as a horizontal film (detergents are used for this purpose).

A surface is completely *unwettable* (hydrophobic) if water forms spherical drops on its surface (cars are waxed to make them hydrophobic).

Droplets form on atmospheric aerosol by what is known as *heterogeneous nucleation*.

A surface is said to be perfectly *wettable* (hydrophilic) if it allows water to spread out on it as a horizontal film (detergents are used for this purpose).

A surface is completely *unwettable* (hydrophobic) if water forms spherical drops on its surface (cars are waxed to make them hydrophobic).

The atmosphere contains many particles that range in size from submicrometer to several tens of micrometers. Those particles that are wettable can serve as centers upon which water vapour condenses.

Droplets form on atmospheric aerosol by what is known as *heterogeneous nucleation*.

A surface is said to be perfectly *wettable* (hydrophilic) if it allows water to spread out on it as a horizontal film (detergents are used for this purpose).

A surface is completely *unwettable* (hydrophobic) if water forms spherical drops on its surface (cars are waxed to make them hydrophobic).

The atmosphere contains many particles that range in size from submicrometer to several tens of micrometers. Those particles that are wettable can serve as centers upon which water vapour condenses.

Moreover, droplets can form and grow on these particles at much lower supersaturations than those required for homogeneous nucleation. For example, if sufficient water condenses onto a completely wettable particle $0.3 \,\mu\text{m}$ in radius to form a thin film of water over the surface of the particle, we see from the Figure that the water film will be in (unstable) equilibrium with air that has a supersaturation of 0.4%.

For example, if sufficient water condenses onto a completely wettable particle $0.3 \,\mu\text{m}$ in radius to form a thin film of water over the surface of the particle, we see from the Figure that the water film will be in (unstable) equilibrium with air that has a supersaturation of 0.4%.

If the supersaturation were slightly greater than 0.4%, water would condense onto the film of water and the droplet would *increase in size*.

For example, if sufficient water condenses onto a completely wettable particle $0.3 \,\mu\text{m}$ in radius to form a thin film of water over the surface of the particle, we see from the Figure that the water film will be in (unstable) equilibrium with air that has a supersaturation of 0.4%.

If the supersaturation were slightly greater than 0.4%, water would condense onto the film of water and the droplet would *increase in size*.

Some of the particles in air are soluble in water. Consequently, they dissolve, wholly or in part, when water condenses onto them, so that a solution (rather than a pure water) droplet is formed.

A small fraction of the atmospheric aerosol serve as particles upon which water vapour condenses.

- A small fraction of the atmospheric aerosol serve as particles upon which water vapour condenses.
- These form droplets that are activated and grow by condensation to form cloud droplets at the supersaturations achieved in clouds ($\sim 0.1 - 1\%$).

- A small fraction of the atmospheric aerosol serve as particles upon which water vapour condenses.
- These form droplets that are activated and grow by condensation to form cloud droplets at the supersaturations achieved in clouds ($\sim 0.1 - 1\%$).

These particles are called *cloud condensation nuclei* (CCN).

- A small fraction of the atmospheric aerosol serve as particles upon which water vapour condenses.
- These form droplets that are activated and grow by condensation to form cloud droplets at the supersaturations achieved in clouds ($\sim 0.1 - 1\%$).
- These particles are called *cloud condensation nuclei* (CCN).
- The larger the size of a particle, the more readily it is wetted by water, and the greater its solubility, the lower will be the supersaturation at which the particle can serve as a CCN.

- A small fraction of the atmospheric aerosol serve as particles upon which water vapour condenses.
- These form droplets that are activated and grow by condensation to form cloud droplets at the supersaturations achieved in clouds ($\sim 0.1 - 1\%$).
- These particles are called *cloud condensation nuclei* (CCN).

The larger the size of a particle, the more readily it is wetted by water, and the greater its solubility, the lower will be the supersaturation at which the particle can serve as a CCN.

For example, to serve as a CCN at 1% supersaturation, completely wettable but water insoluble particles need to be at least $\sim 0.1 \,\mu\text{m}$ in radius, whereas soluble particles can serve as CCN at 1% supersaturation even if they are as small as $\sim 0.01 \,\mu\text{m}$ in radius.

Most CCN consist of a mixture of soluble and insoluble components (called mixed nuclei).

Most CCN consist of a mixture of soluble and insoluble components (called mixed nuclei).

World-wide measurements of CCN concentrations have not revealed any systematic latitudinal or seasonal variations.

However, near the Earth's surface continental air masses generally contain larger concentrations of CCN than marine air masses. Most CCN consist of a mixture of soluble and insoluble components (called mixed nuclei).

World-wide measurements of CCN concentrations have not revealed any systematic latitudinal or seasonal variations.

However, near the Earth's surface continental air masses generally contain larger concentrations of CCN than marine air masses.

The concentration of CCN in the continental air mass over the Azores, is about 300 cm^{-3} at 1% supersaturation, while in the marine air mass over Florida it is about 100 cm^{-3} , and in clean Arctic air it is only about 30 cm⁻³. (Figure follows)



CCN spectra in the boundary layer from measurements near the Azores in a polluted continental air mass (brown), in Florida in a marine air mass (green), and in clean Arctic air (blue).

Concentrations of CCN over land decline by about a factor of five between the planetary boundary layer and the free troposphere. Concentrations of CCN over land decline by about a factor of five between the planetary boundary layer and the free troposphere.

Concentrations over the ocean remain fairly constant, or even increase with height reaching a maximum concentration just above the mean cloud height. Concentrations of CCN over land decline by about a factor of five between the planetary boundary layer and the free troposphere.

Concentrations over the ocean remain fairly constant, or even increase with height reaching a maximum concentration just above the mean cloud height.

Ground-based measurements indicate that there is a diurnal variation in CCN concentrations, with a minimum at about 6 a.m. and a maximum at about 6 p.m.

* * *
The observations provide clues as to the origins of CCN.

The observations provide clues as to the origins of CCN.

The land acts as a source of CCN and thus concentrations of CCN are higher over land and decrease with altitude.

The observations provide clues as to the origins of CCN.

The land acts as a source of CCN and thus concentrations of CCN are higher over land and decrease with altitude.

The rate of production of CCN from burning vegetable matter is on the order of $10^{12}-10^{15}$ per kg of material consumed. Thus, *forest fires* are a source of CCN.

The observations provide clues as to the origins of CCN.

The land acts as a source of CCN and thus concentrations of CCN are higher over land and decrease with altitude.

The rate of production of CCN from burning vegetable matter is on the order of $10^{12}-10^{15}$ per kg of material consumed. Thus, *forest fires* are a source of CCN.

About 80% of the particles emitted by idling diesel engines are CCN at 1% supersaturation.

The observations provide clues as to the origins of CCN.

The land acts as a source of CCN and thus concentrations of CCN are higher over land and decrease with altitude.

The rate of production of CCN from burning vegetable matter is on the order of $10^{12}-10^{15}$ per kg of material consumed. Thus, *forest fires* are a source of CCN.

About 80% of the particles emitted by idling diesel engines are CCN at 1% supersaturation.

About 70% of the particles emitted by the 1991 Kuwait oil fires were CCN at 1% supersaturation.

The observations provide clues as to the origins of CCN.

The land acts as a source of CCN and thus concentrations of CCN are higher over land and decrease with altitude.

The rate of production of CCN from burning vegetable matter is on the order of $10^{12}-10^{15}$ per kg of material consumed. Thus, *forest fires* are a source of CCN.

About 80% of the particles emitted by idling diesel engines are CCN at 1% supersaturation.

About 70% of the particles emitted by the 1991 Kuwait oil fires were CCN at 1% supersaturation.

Although sea-salt particles enter the air over the oceans, they do not appear to be a dominant source of CCN, even over the oceans.

A likely candidate is gas-to-particle conversion, which can produce particles up to a few tenths of a micrometer in diameter that can act as CCN if they are soluble or wettable.

A likely candidate is gas-to-particle conversion, which can produce particles up to a few tenths of a micrometer in diameter that can act as CCN if they are soluble or wettable.

Gas-to-particle conversion mechanisms that require solar radiation might be responsible for the observed peak in CCN concentrations at around 6 p.m.

A likely candidate is gas-to-particle conversion, which can produce particles up to a few tenths of a micrometer in diameter that can act as CCN if they are soluble or wettable.

Gas-to-particle conversion mechanisms that require solar radiation might be responsible for the observed peak in CCN concentrations at around 6 p.m.

Many CCN consist of *sulfates*. Over the oceans, organic sulfur from the ocean (in the form of the gases dimethyl-sulfide (DMS) and methane sulfonic acid (MSA)) provide a source of CCN, with the DMS and MSA being converted to sulfate in the atmosphere.