

## Chapter 4 (continued)

### More on Geostrophic Flows

#### The effects of stratification

- So far we have assumed a **homogeneous, incompressible fluid**:
  - no buoyancy forces
  - continuity equation  $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$
- Consider now the additional effects of having an **inhomogeneous fluid**; i.e., variable  $\rho$ .
- Unless the density is a function of height only, buoyancy forces must be included in the analysis.
- The momentum equation becomes, assuming geostrophy,

$$2\Omega \wedge \mathbf{u} = -\frac{1}{\rho_*} \nabla p + b\mathbf{k}$$

$\rho_*$  ←  $\rho_*$  to be defined

## The Boussinesq approximation

For an incompressible fluid we can still use the simple form of the continuity equation

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$$


under certain circumstances.

➤ We make the **Boussinesq approximation** which assumes that density variations are important only:

- inasmuch as they give rise to buoyancy forces **and**
- that variations in density as they affect the fluid **inertia** or **continuity** can be ignored.

$\rho_*$  may be regarded as an **average density** over the whole flow domain, or the density at some particular height.

The neglect of density variations with height requires strictly that  $D/H_s \ll 1$ .


  
 $H_s$  the **density height scale**  
 $D$  is the flow depth  
 $\rho_0(z)$  is the average density at height  $z$

The assumption is that  $\delta\rho_0/\rho_0 \ll 1$

$\delta\rho_0$  is the maximum difference in  $\rho_0(z)$

The full continuity equation for an **inhomogeneous compressible** fluid is

~~$$\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{D\rho}{Dt} + \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$$~~

in the Boussinesq approximation

## Validity of the Boussinesq approximation

- The Boussinesq approximation is an excellent one in the oceans where relative density differences nowhere exceed more than one or two percent.
- It is not very accurate in the atmosphere, except for motions in shallow layers.
- The reason is that air is compressible under its own weight to a degree that the density at the height of tropopause, say 10 km, is only about one quarter the density at sea level.
- For motions which occupy the whole depth of the troposphere,  $D \sim H_s$ .

## The anelastic approximation

At any height in the atmosphere departures of  $\rho$  from  $\rho_0(z)$  are small and an accurate form of the full continuity equation appropriate to deep atmospheric motions is

$$\frac{1}{\rho_0} \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \rho_0 + \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \nabla \cdot (\rho_0 \mathbf{u}) = 0$$

- The inclusion of  $\rho_0(z)$  - the so-called **anelastic approximation** - complicates the mathematics without leading to new insights.
- We shall use the Boussinesq approximation in our study of atmospheric motions.
- The assumption is quite adequate for acquiring an understanding of the dynamics of these motions.

## The thermal wind equation

- To explore the effects of stratification we take again the curl of the momentum equation to obtain the **thermal wind equation**

$$2(\boldsymbol{\Omega} \cdot \nabla)\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{k} \wedge \nabla b$$

Now the Taylor-Proudman theorem no longer holds.

- In component form with  $z$  vertical and in the direction of  $\boldsymbol{\Omega}$  as before, the thermal wind equation becomes

$$2\Omega \left[ \frac{\partial u}{\partial z}, \frac{\partial v}{\partial z}, \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} \right] = \left[ -\frac{\partial b}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial b}{\partial x}, 0 \right]$$

$$2\Omega \left[ \frac{\partial u}{\partial z}, \frac{\partial v}{\partial z}, \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} \right] = \left[ -\frac{\partial b}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial b}{\partial x}, 0 \right]$$

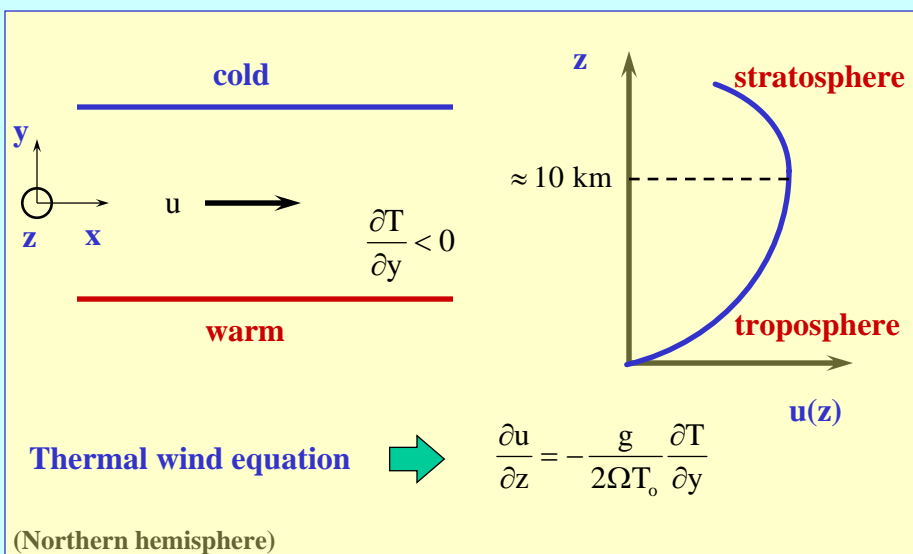
- Again,  $w = 0$  at  $z = 0 \Rightarrow w = 0$  in the entire flow.
- Later we shall show that for finite, but small  $Ro$ ,  $w$  is not exactly zero, but is formally of order  $Ro$ .
- Here we are considering the limit  $Ro \rightarrow 0$ .

- With the Boussinesq approximation, the buoyancy force can be approximated, either in terms of density or temperature as follows:

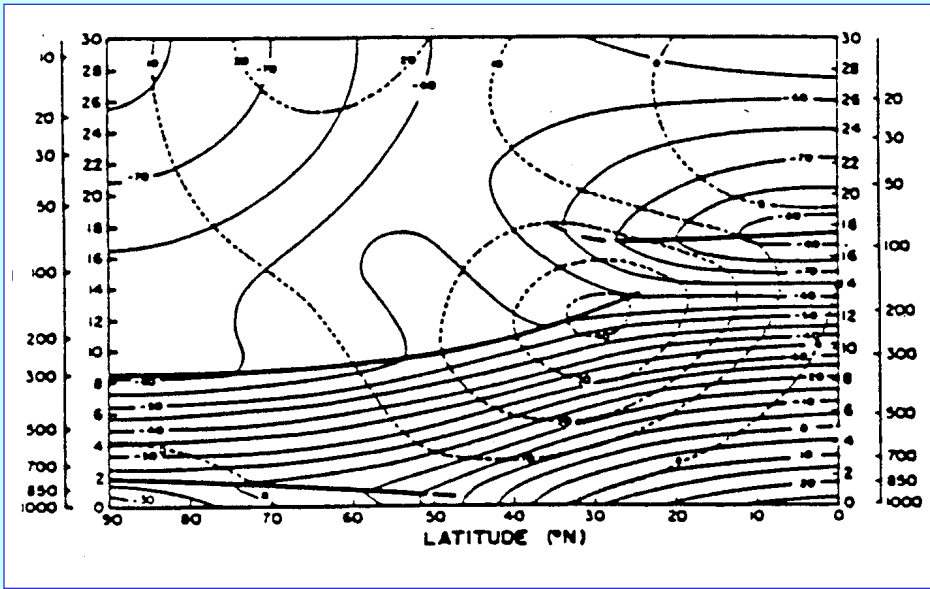
$$b = \begin{cases} -g \frac{(\rho - \rho_0)}{\rho} \approx -g \frac{(\rho - \rho_0)}{\rho_*}, \\ g \frac{(T - T_0)}{T_0} \approx g \frac{(T - T_0)}{T_*}, \end{cases} \quad T_0 = T_0(z)$$

$T_*$  is a constant temperature analogous to  $\rho_*$

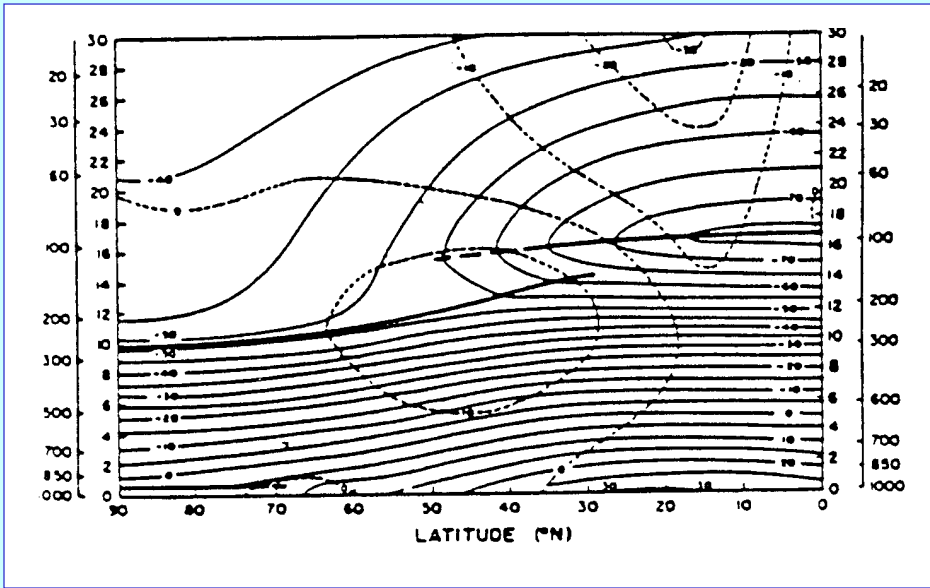
### A simple zonal flow in thermal wind balance



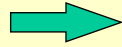
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$$2(\boldsymbol{\Omega} \cdot \nabla)\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{k} \wedge \nabla b$$



$$2\Omega \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial z} = \mathbf{k} \wedge \nabla b$$

Compare with

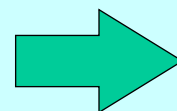
$$\mathbf{u}_h = \frac{1}{2\Omega\rho} \mathbf{k} \wedge \nabla p$$

The vertical wind gradient is parallel with the isotherms at any height and has low temperature on the **left** in the **northern** hemisphere and on the right in the southern hemisphere.

The vertical wind gradient is proportional to the magnitude of the temperature gradient.

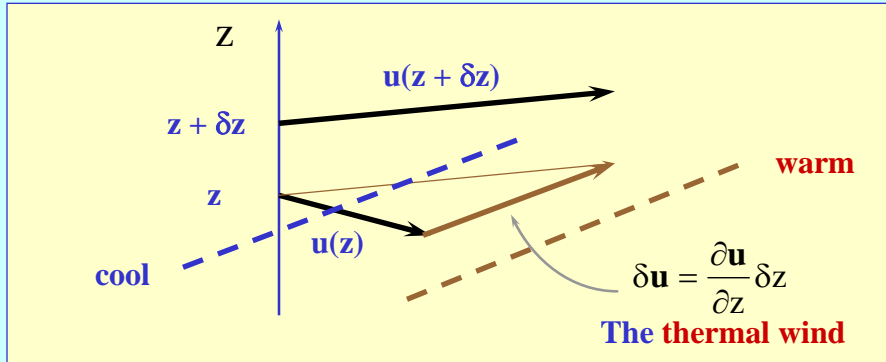
### General case

- So far we assumed that the geostrophic wind and thermal wind are in the same direction.
- This happens if the isotherms have the same direction at all heights.
- In general this is not the case and we consider now the situation in which the geostrophic wind blows at an angle to the isotherms.



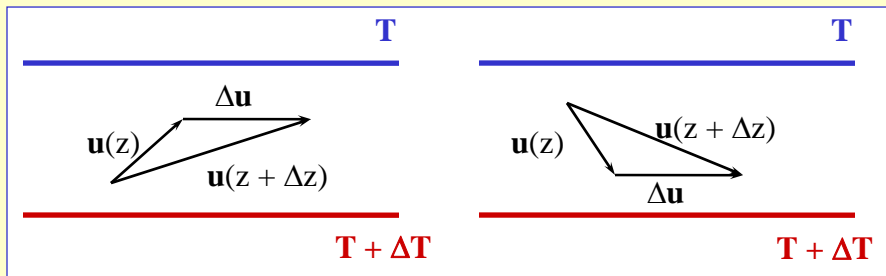
- Suppose that the geostrophic wind at height  $z$  blows towards high temperature.
- The geostrophic wind at height  $z + \delta z$ , ( $\delta z$  small), can be written

$$\mathbf{u}(z + \delta z) = \mathbf{u}(z) + \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial z} \delta z + O(\delta z^2)$$



**Warm air advection**

**Cold air advection**



Turning of the geostrophic wind with height as a result of thermal wind effects (northern hemisphere case).



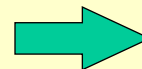
## Veering and backing

- When the wind direction turns clockwise, or anticyclonic, with height in the northern hemisphere we say that the wind **veers** with height.
- If the wind turns cyclonically with height we say it **backs** with height.
- In the southern hemisphere 'cyclonic' and 'anticyclonic' have reversed senses, but what is confusing is that the terms "**veering**" and "**backing**" still mean turning to the right or left respectively.
- Thus **cyclonic** means in the direction of the earth's rotation **in the particular hemisphere** (**counterclockwise in the northern hemisphere**, clockwise in the southern hemisphere).

## Thermal advection

- In general, any air mass will have horizontal temperature gradients within it and the isotherms will be oriented differently at different heights.
- Therefore, unless the wind blows in a direction parallel with the isotherms, there will be local temperature changes at any point simply due to advection.
- If the temperature of fluid parcels is conserved during horizontal displacement, we may express this mathematically by the equation  $DT/Dt = 0$ .
- Then the local rate of change of temperature at any point,  $\partial T/\partial t$ , is given by

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = -\mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla T$$



$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = -\mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla T$$

called the **thermal advection**

- If warmer air flows towards a point  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla T < 0$ , and  $\partial T / \partial t > 0$ .
- We call this **warm air advection**.
- It follows that there is a connection between thermal advection and the turning of the geostrophic wind vector with height.
- In the **northern** (southern) hemisphere, the wind **veers** (backs) with height in conditions of **warm air advection**.
- It **backs** (veers) with height when there is **cold air advection**.

### Some notes concerning the thermal wind equation

- It is a diagnostic equation and as such is useful, in **checking analyses** of the observed wind and temperature fields **for consistency**.
- Secondly, the z component of the thermal wind equation is  $0 = -\rho_*^{-1} \partial p / \partial z + b$ , which shows that the density-, or buoyancy field is in hydrostatic equilibrium.
- Finally, the thermal wind **constraint** is important also in ocean current systems wherever there are horizontal density contrasts.

## The thermodynamic equation

- When vertical motions are present, the equation

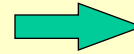
$$DT/Dt = 0$$

may be inaccurate since ascent or subsidence is associated also with a thermal tendency.

- However, when **adiabatic processes such as radiative heating and cooling can be neglected, and provided that condensation or evaporation does not occur**, the potential temperature  $\theta$ , of an air parcel is conserved, even when the parcel ascends or subsides.

- This is expressed mathematically by the formula  $\frac{D\theta}{Dt} = 0$ .

- This formula encapsulates the **first law of thermodynamics**.



## The thermodynamic equation for a Boussinesq liquid

- For a **Boussinesq fluid**, i. e. one for which the Boussinesq approximation is satisfied, density is conserved following a fluid parcel, i.e.,

$$\frac{D\rho}{Dt} = 0$$

This is consistent with  $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$  and  $\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{D\rho}{Dt} + \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$

In terms of the buoyancy force  $\sigma$ ,  $\frac{D\rho}{Dt} = 0$  may be written in the form

$$\frac{Db}{Dt} + N^2 w = 0$$

where  $N^2 = -(g / \rho_*) (d\rho_0 / dz)$  is the square of the **Brunt-Väisälä frequency or the buoyancy frequency of the motion**.

In a **shallow** atmosphere, the thermodynamic equation

$$\frac{D\theta}{Dt} = 0$$

reduces to the same form as  $\frac{Db}{Dt} + N^2 w = 0$

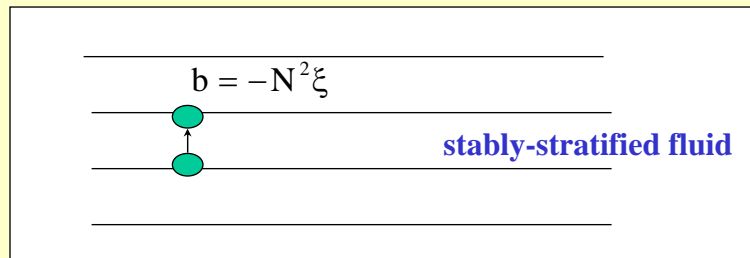
with  $\sigma$  given by  $g(\theta - \theta_0)/\theta_*$  and with  $N^2$  replaced by

$$N^2 = (g / \theta_*) (d\theta_0 / dz)$$

$\theta_0(z)$  is the **basic state potential temperature distribution**.

Interpretation of  $\frac{Db}{Dt} + N^2 w = 0$

This equation represents the change in buoyancy force experienced by a fluid parcel as it moves around and ascends or descends.



If  $N^2 = \text{constant}$   $\frac{Db}{Dt} = -N^2 \frac{D\xi}{Dt} = -N^2 w$

## The use of pressure coordinates

- Some authors, including **Holton**, use a coordinate system in which pressure is used instead of the vertical coordinate  $z$ .
- This has certain **advantages**:
  - (i) pressure is a quantity measured directly in the global meteorological data network and upper air data is normally presented on isobaric surfaces: i.e. on surfaces  $p = \text{constant}$  rather than  $z = \text{constant}$ ;
  - (ii) the continuity equation has a much simpler form in pressure coordinates.
- A major **disadvantage** of pressure coordinates is that the surface boundary condition analogous to, say,  $w = 0$  at  $z = 0$  over flat ground, is much harder to apply.

## Comparison of the equations in height and pressure coordinates

- The simplifications of the pressure coordinate systems disappear in the case of nonhydrostatic motion.
- The following comparison is for the **hydrostatic system of equations only**.

### horizontal momentum equations

$$\frac{D_h \mathbf{u}_h}{Dt} + w \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}_h}{\partial z} + f \mathbf{k} \wedge \mathbf{u}_h = -\frac{1}{\rho} \nabla_h p$$

$$\frac{D_p \mathbf{u}_h}{Dt} + \omega \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}_h}{\partial p} + f \mathbf{k} \wedge \mathbf{u}_h = -\nabla_p \phi$$

$\phi$  is essentially  $gz$

$z$  the height of an isobaric surface

$\phi$  is called the **geopotential**.

$\omega$  plays the role of  $w$  in  $p$ -coordinates

$$\omega = \frac{Dp_T}{Dt} = \frac{\partial p_T}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u}_h \cdot \nabla p_T + w \frac{\partial p_T}{\partial z} = \frac{D_h p_T}{Dt} - \rho g w .$$

### vertical momentum equations

$$\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p_T}{\partial z} = -g \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p}{\partial z} = b$$

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial p} = -\frac{RT}{p}$$

### continuity equation

$$\nabla_h \cdot (\rho_0(z) \mathbf{u}_h) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (\rho_0(z) w) = 0$$

$$\nabla_p \cdot \mathbf{u}_h + \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial p} = 0$$

## Some notes

- In the pressure coordinate system,  $p$  is the total pressure  $p_T$ .
- In most situations,  $|D_h p_T / Dt| \ll |\rho g w|$  so that  $\text{sgn}(\omega) = -\text{sgn}(w)$ .
- Thus  $\omega$  negative (positive) signifies ascending (descending) motion.
- In the pressure coordinate system, the subscripts  $p$  on the operators  $D_p / Dt$  and  $\nabla_p$  signify that derivatives are computed with  $p$  held fixed.
- Because the isobaric surfaces are very close to horizontal, there is no practical difference between  $D_h \mathbf{u}_h / Dt$  and  $D_p \mathbf{u}_h / Dt$ .
- Certainly such a difference could not be measured.

~~$$\frac{D_p \mathbf{u}_h}{Dt} + \omega \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}_h}{\partial p} + \mathbf{f} \mathbf{k} \wedge \mathbf{u}_h = -\nabla_p \phi$$~~

- In pressure coordinates, the geostrophic equation is

$$\mathbf{f} \mathbf{k} \wedge \mathbf{u}_h = -\nabla \phi \quad \text{with solution} \quad \mathbf{u}_h = -\mathbf{f} \mathbf{k} \wedge \nabla \phi$$

- The thermal wind equation is frequently used in the form

$$\mathbf{u}' = \mathbf{u}_{500\text{mb}} - \mathbf{u}_{1000\text{mb}} = \frac{1}{f} \mathbf{k} \wedge \nabla (\phi_{500} - \phi_{1000}) = \frac{1}{f} \mathbf{k} \wedge \nabla h'$$

**geopotential thickness** between 500 mb and 1000 mb

$h' = R \bar{T} \ln 2$  is proportional to the mean temperature between the two pressure surfaces.

## Thickness charts

- **Thickness charts** are charts showing contours of equal thickness.
- They are used by weather forecasters, *inter alia*, to locate regions of cold and warm air in the lower troposphere.
- In Australia, the thickness isopleths are given in metres; that is, contours of  $h'/g$  are plotted.
- They are similar to 500 mb charts, because often

$u_{500 \text{ mb}} \gg u_{1000 \text{ mb}}$  in magnitude.

## Thickness advection

The thermal tendency equation is

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = -\mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla T$$

Because of the relationship between  $h'$  and  $\bar{T}$  in pressure coordinates we may obtain a thickness tendency equation

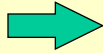
$$\frac{\partial h'}{\partial t} = -\bar{\mathbf{u}}_h \cdot \nabla h'$$

where  $\bar{\mathbf{u}}_h$  is a measure, in some sense, of the mean wind between 1000 mb and 500 mb.



Write  $\bar{\mathbf{u}}_h = \mathbf{u}_s + \lambda \mathbf{u}' + \mathbf{u}_a$  where  $\mathbf{u}_s$  is the surface geostrophic wind,  $\mathbf{u}_a$  is a measure of the horizontal ageostrophic wind and  $\lambda$  is constant.

In many circumstances,  $|\mathbf{u}_a|$  is small compared with  $|\mathbf{u}_s|$  and  $|\mathbf{u}'|$ ,

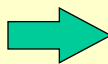


$\bar{\mathbf{u}}_h$  is approximately the surface wind plus a weighted measure of the thermal wind, or wind difference between 1000 mb and 500 mb.

Since  $\mathbf{u}' \cdot \nabla h' = f^{-1} \mathbf{k} \wedge \nabla h' \cdot \nabla h' \equiv 0$

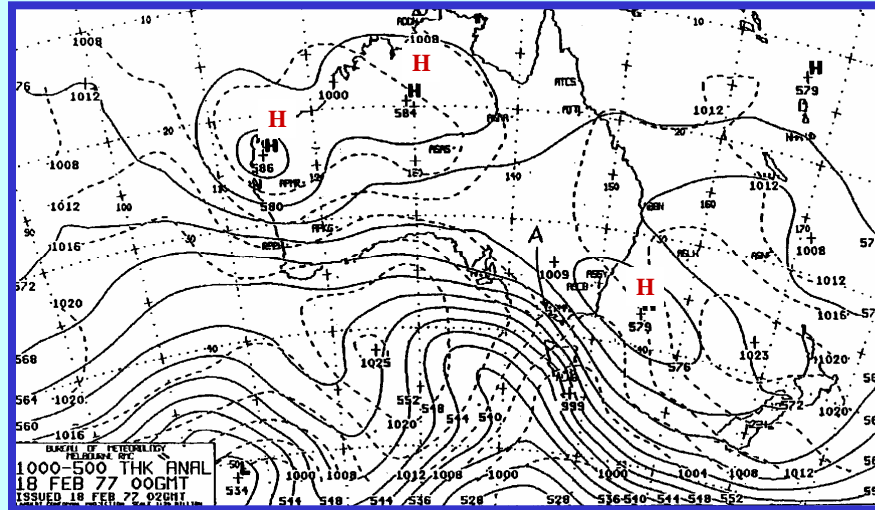
$$\frac{\partial h'}{\partial t} \approx -\mathbf{u}_s \cdot \nabla h'$$

$$\frac{\partial h'}{\partial t} \approx -\mathbf{u}_s \cdot \nabla h'$$



- Under circumstances where the temperature field is merely advected (this is not always the case), the thickness tendency is due entirely to advection by the surface wind field.
- Accordingly the surface isobars are usually displayed on thickness charts so that  $\mathbf{u}_s$  can be deduced readily in relation to  $\nabla h'$ .
- A typical thickness chart is shown in the next figure.

## A typical thickness chart



End of  
Chapter 4