

The effect of in situ evaporation on perceived snow distribution
in partially clear-cut forests

by

Robert H. Swanson¹

Introduction

The use of models to simulate the hydrologic response of partially forested watersheds is a becoming more commonplace. The U.S. Forest Service WRENSS procedure (Troendle and Leaf 1980), which is based on the WATBAL model (Leaf and Brink 1973) in snow dominated regions, is widely used in Canada and the western United States to estimate the effect of various clear-cutting practices on water available for streamflow. One of the key features of WRENSS is a curve (Figure 1a) that describes the relationship between clear-cut dimensions and snow accumulation at maximum snowpack. The published curve was derived principally from Colorado and Wyoming data; we have confirmed the general shape of this curve in Alberta as well (Figure 1b). The curves of Figure 1 are used in WRENSS to apportion the snow data obtained from precipitation records to either clear-cuts or treed areas in a partially harvested watershed. Since these curves are a reasonably accurate portrayal of the areal distribution of snow at the beginning of the melt season, the results obtained from WRENSS are a reasonably accurate estimate of water available for streamflow.

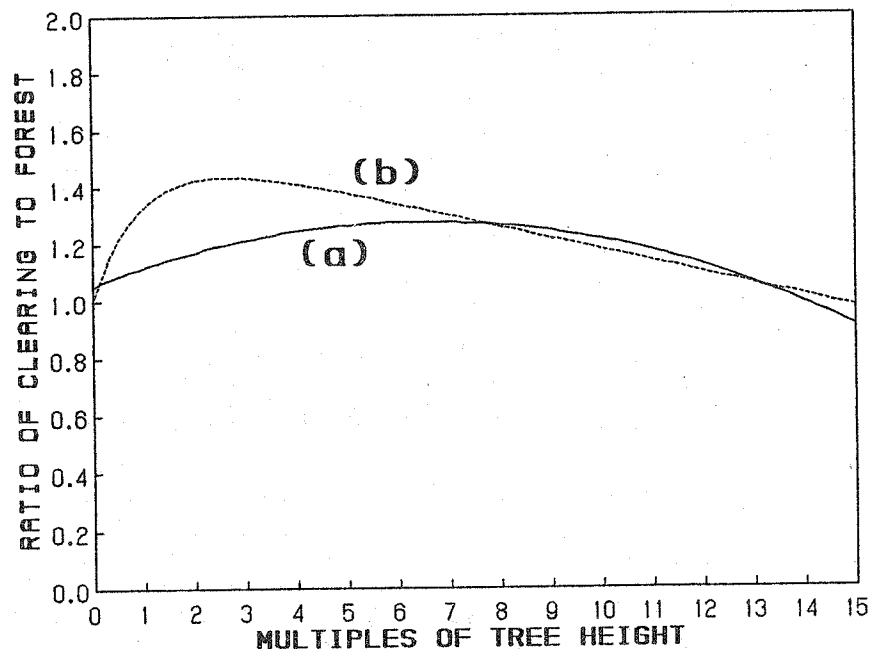


Figure 1. Snow retention as a function of clear-cut size: (a) Original WRENSS after Troendle and Leaf (1980); (b) Snow distribution as determined from James River microclimate site in Alberta.

Interpretation of peak-snowpack accumulation data

It is possible that a distribution function, such as those in Figure 1, may work well but be incorrectly interpreted as to the processes acting on snow accumulation. The greater amount of snow accumulated in clearings than under the surrounding trees has been variously attributed to lack of interception, aerodynamic trapping or redistribution of

Presented at the 56th Western Snow Conference, April 19-21, 1988, Kalispell, Montana.

1/ Research Scientist, Forest Hydrology and Microclimate Research, Canadian Forestry Service, Northern Forestry Centre, Edmonton, Alberta.

intercepted snow (Gary 1974, Hoover and Leaf 1967, Meiman 1987, Wheeler 1987). However, snow is a buoyant crystalline material and in the process of falling through moving air and accumulation it undergoes processes somewhat analogous to sediment transport by water and deposition in a river. Both are significantly affected by the dynamics and state of the transporting fluid near any boundary. Similar to sediment measurements in a river, point measurements of snow on the ground are a single measurement that is the momentary integrated result of several complex deposition and loss processes.

Early research on small plots attributed differential snow accumulation between cut and uncut forest entirely to the vaporization of snow intercepted by the forest canopy (Wilm and Dunford 1948; Goodell 1959). Hoover and Leaf (1967) postulated that the aerodynamics of forest openings during and after snowfall episodes also significantly influenced snow accumulation in those areas directly exposed to wind. Golding and Swanson (1986), Figure 2, found in Alberta, that apparent ablation of snow in the clearings and under the canopy on the east, west and north sides of clearings contributed significantly to the differences between accumulated snow in openings and the surrounding forest that one ascertains from snow survey data.

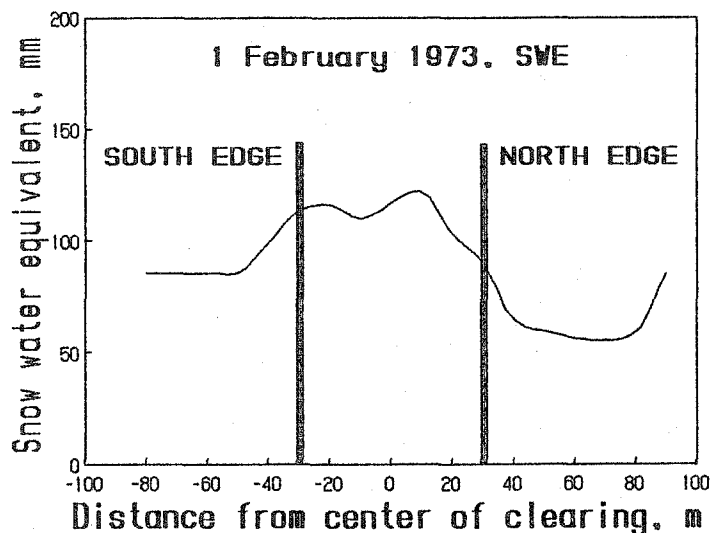


Figure 2. North-south profile of snow water equivalent in 3 tree-height diameter clearing at the James River microclimate study site, Alberta, February 1973 (After Golding and Swanson 1986).

In this paper I examine evaporation from the surface of the accumulated snowpack. My purpose is to estimate how much of the differential accumulation noted could be attributed to evaporation or sublimation from the snowpack. Pan evaporation measurements from snow in clearings and from under the immediately adjacent surrounding forest canopy are used to estimate the amount of snow lost by *in situ* evaporation. If the lesser amount of snow noted on the north side (Figure 2) is primarily evaporation, then this is a loss that must be accounted for in the application of watershed management techniques. However, if it is primarily melt, then the water is still available for on-site use by vegetation or streamflow.

Snow evaporation study at James River microclimate site

The James River microclimate study area (Figure 3a) is located approximately 100 km northwest of Calgary, near Rocky Mountain House, Alberta. The terrain is essentially level with little topographic relief. The forest consists of 100 year old, 20 m tall lodgepole pine, approximately 1200 trees ha⁻¹. Ten replicates of ten plots, (Figure 3a, 1 uncut, 9 circular clear-cuts ranging from 5 to 120 m diameter) were established on a 200 x 200 m grid in 1970 - 1972. Intensive snow water equivalent (SWE) measurements were made from January to April in 1973 and from mid-March to April in 1974-76 (Golding and Swanson 1978). The evaporation study reported here occurred 12 years later: January 30 to March 15, 1985.

The snow water equivalent patterns reported by Golding and Swanson (1986) were generally similar within all clearings of a given size. Quite likely, the evaporation patterns would also be generally similar. Even so, it would have been desirable to replicate instruments but I did not have a sufficient number of climatic instruments, nor manpower to weigh the evaporation pans, to do so for the study reported here.

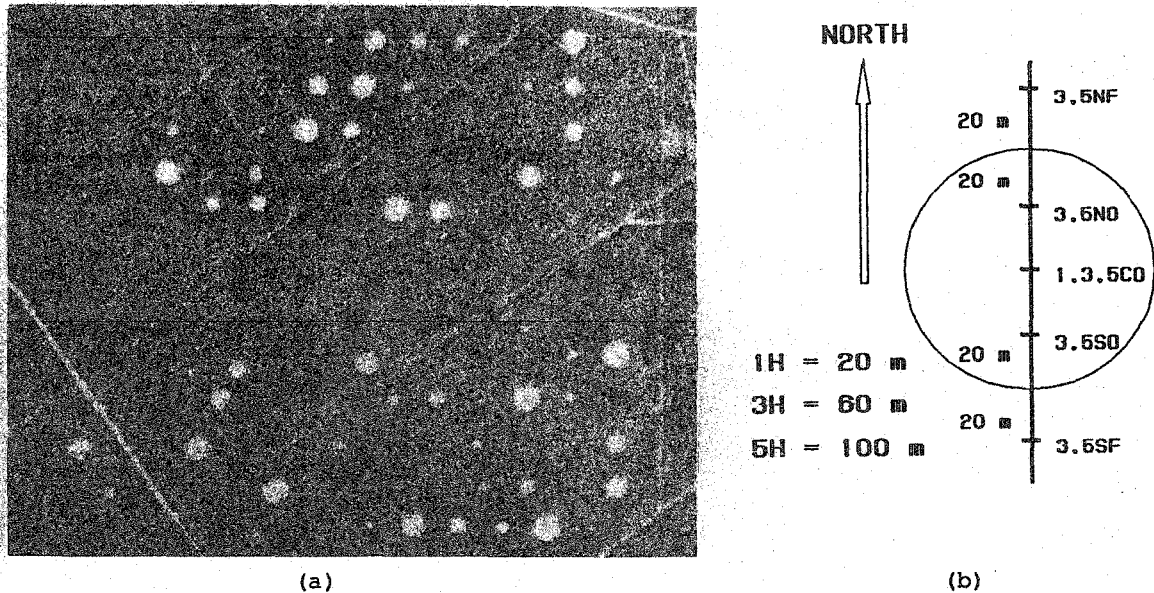


Figure 3. (a) James River microclimate study site. (b) Location of evaporation pans in the clearings. In the 3 and 5 tree-height ($H = 20$ m) diameter clearings, 5 groups of pans were placed along a North-South transect; (NF) at 1 H into the north edge forest, (NO) 1 H into the clearing from the north edge, (CO) at the center of the clearing, (SO) 1 H into the clearing from the south edge, and (SF) 1 H into the forest from the south edge.

The evaporation pan instrumentation at each location, Figure 3b, was identical. Aluminum baking pans (E-Z Por Corp, Wheeling, Illinois, "Smarty Pans") were used for the evaporation measurements because: 1) West (1959) indicated that the evaporation from either polyethylene or metal pans was identical; 2) My budget was limited and I had about 100 of these pans that were left behind by a previous scientist. Five 20 cm diameter, 4 cm deep aluminum pans (4 filled with snow flush to the pan surface, one empty to indicate snowfall or blowing snow) were placed in the snowpack, the pan surface flush with the snow surface. Each pan was weighed to the nearest 0.1 g (0.03 mm evaporation or condensation) on a triple-beam balance at the start of each data period (usually between 1100 to 1400 hours). These were then reweighed at least once and occasionally twice daily, starting at 1000 on the next day and for 3 subsequent days. The pans were refilled and reweighed before replacing in the snowpack if the surface of the snow in the pan was more than 1-2 mm below the rim of the pan. If snow was found in the empty control pan (either as the result of wind transport or snowfall), the data for that period were discarded. I generally obtained two days of "good" data during each of the four data periods.

I also installed an anemometer at 2 m above the snow pack and a shielded non-aspirated combination air temperature and relative humidity sensor at approximately 1 m above the snow surface at all evaporation pan sites. The site in the center of the clearing was also equipped with a CSIRO net radiometer at 1 m above the snow surface. Data from all sensors in each clearing were recorded at hourly intervals on a single Campbell Scientific CR21 micrologger using multiplexed sampling scheme that interrogated each sensor set for 12 minutes within each hour. The climatic data from these sensors are not reported here. It is my intent eventually to use these data to provide a better empirical description of the complex-to-handle-theoretically 3-dimensional energy and mass transfer situation that the edges of clearings represent.

Discussion of data in light of snow distribution

My evaporation results (estimated total for 100 days: non north edge forest 18 mm, open 31 mm) tend to confirm the magnitude of those of West (1959) (West: forest 17 mm, open 30 mm, January-April). They also suggest that the winter rate of Wilm and Dunford (1948) is much too low, even under dense lodgepole pine canopy. Actually, Wilm and Dunford (1948) report results of 16, -23, 16, and 15 mm for the four winters they evaluated. I am inclined to discard their -23 mm of condensation as being an error in measurement. The average for the other 3 years, 16 mm, is very close to the 18 that I estimate for a 100 day winter evaporation period (Table 1, 0H and 1H sites).

Table 1. Evaporation in mm/day from aluminum pans placed flush with snow surface. 0F means no clearing in forest; 1CO is center of 1-tree height circular opening; 3SF is 1-tree height into forest on south edge of 3 tree-height circular clearing; 3SO is 1 tree-height into opening from south edge of clearing; similarly for N (north edge) and 5 (5 tree-height circular clearing). LC designates an average sample obtained with two 5-pan groups in a clear-cut >20H in the windward direction. The * means that some melt water was noted in the pan when weighed. Each set of data is the average for 4 pans (except for LC which is the average of 8 pans).

Da/Mo 1985	0F	1CO	3SF	3SO	3CO	3NO	3NF	5SF	5SO	5CO	5NO	5NF	LC
30/01-02/02	0.03	0.00	0.08	0.12	0.14	0.02	0.05	0.14	0.26	0.09	0.07	0.11	NA
12/02-15/02	0.30	0.33	0.21*	0.46	0.34	0.36*	0.41*	0.26*	0.25	0.42	0.42	0.65	0.95
26/02-28/02	0.16	0.16	0.15	0.26	0.30	0.21	0.26	0.31	0.35	0.37	0.37	0.36	0.85*
12/03-15/03	0.25	0.22	0.29	0.39*	0.42*	0.43*	0.49*	0.34	0.39*	0.47*	0.47*	0.55*	0.82*
AVERAGE	0.18	0.18	0.18	0.31	0.30	0.26	0.30	0.26	0.31	0.34	0.33	0.42	0.87
mm/100 days	18	18	18	31	30	26	30	26	31	34	33	42	87

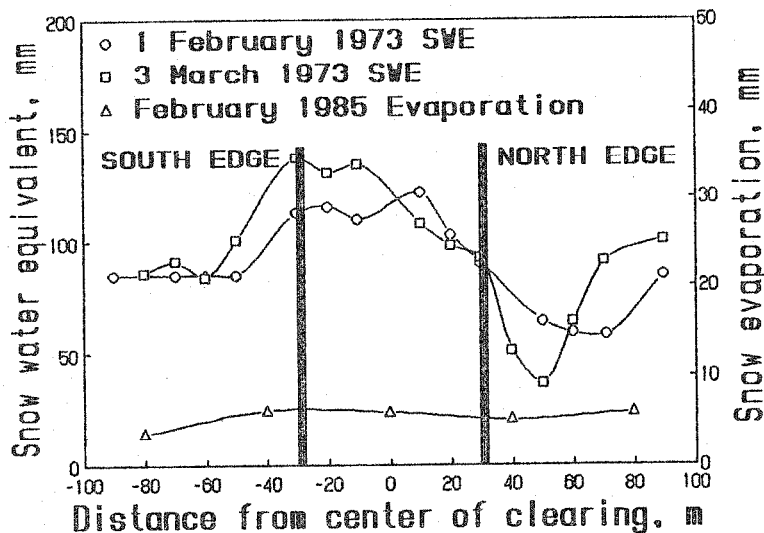


Figure 4. South to north profiles of snow water equivalent (1973 measurements) and evaporation from snow (1985 measurements), both in millimeters. Note that the snow near north edge of the clearing in March is less than that measured one month earlier.

The evaporation that I measured accounts for less than one-third of the incoming precipitation. The precipitation in February 1973 was 25 mm, which occurred during 6 days. If I assume that the evaporation rates (Table 1) determined for snow-free days during February 1985, are applicable to the 22 snow-free days in February 1973, then evaporation from the snowpack would account for 4 mm of evaporation under the canopy and 7 mm near the north edge of the 3 H clearing. Since the SWE near the north edge of the clearing at the March 1973 snow survey is actually less than the amount that was there in February 1973 (Figure 4), and only 7 mm of the incoming 25 mm precipitation is estimated to have evaporat-

ed, the remaining 18 to 21 mm is unaccounted for. Some of it probably melted. However, some of the difference in accumulation might also be due to differential vaporization of intercepted snow caught in the canopy of the trees surrounding the clearing. The temperature of the canopy on the sunlit sides may be high enough to support much higher rates of vaporization than on the shaded side(s). For instance, on a clear day, March 9, 1983, at approximately 1530 hours, I used a Barnes PRT-10 infrared thermometer to measure the temperature of the bottom of the canopy of 20 m tall lodgepole pine at 20 m from the edges of a different 3 tree-height diameter circular clearing in the same study area of: 9 to 11 °C south side; 10 to 12 °C west side; 12 to 14 °C north side; and 12 to 14 °C east side. The canopy temperature of the edges facing the clearing were: 10 to 12 °C south; 8 to 10 °C west; 18 to 19 °C north; 16 to 18 °C east.

Discussion and conclusions

As indicated by Golding and Swanson (1986), evaporation and melt appear to be primarily radiation driven at the edges and under the canopy. The south-facing wall of trees on the north side of a clearing, (and the east or west facing walls to a lesser extent) absorbs both direct and reflected solar radiation. The heated canopy re-radiates energy in the long wave bands that are absorbed by snow that "sees" the canopy. Most of the absorbed energy warms and melts the snowpack. I did not measure the amount of melt that occurred. However, a similar study carried out at a different set of clearings on this site in April 1984 found that the ratio of melt to evaporation was nearly 10:1 (Berry 1985).

During this evaporation study, I visually noted saturated snow from about 20 meters inside the north edge of the clearing to about 40 to 60 meters (2 - 3 tree heights) into the trees on the north edge of both the 60 and 100 m diameter clearings.

These results indicate that 10 to 20 mm of the winter season difference in SWE between clearings and adjacent forest may be attributed to higher evaporation rates under the sunlit edges. A significant remainder of the difference in SWE might be attributed to melt, but some may be due to differential interception loss as well.

LITERATURE CITED

- Berry, G. John. 1985. Snow ablation processes in small forest openings. Unpublished MSc. Thesis, Faculty of Agriculture and Forestry, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta. 70pp.
- Gary, Howard L. 1974. Snow accumulation and melt as influenced by a small clearing in lodgepole pine. *Water Resources Research* 10:345-353.
- Golding, D.L. and R.H. Swanson. 1978. Snow accumulation and melt in small forest openings in Alberta. *Canadian Journal of Forest Research* 8:380-388.
- Golding, D.L. and R.H. Swanson. 1986. Snow distribution patterns in clearings and adjacent forest. *Water Resources Research* 22:1931-1940.
- Goodell, B.C. 1959. Management of forest stands in western United States to influence the flow of snow-fed streams. pp 49-58 *In: Symposium of Hannoverschmunden, Vol I, Water and Woodlands. International Association Hydrological Sciences Publication* 48.
- Hoover, Marvin D. and Charles F. Leaf. 1967. Process and significance of interception in Colorado subalpine forest. pp 213-224 *In: Forest Hydrology, W.E. Sopper and H.W. Lull, editors. Pergamon Press, New York.*
- Leaf, Charles F. and Glen E. Brink. 1973. Hydrological simulation model of Colorado subalpine forest. USDA Forest Service, Rocky Mountain Forest and Range Experiment Station, Fort Collins, Colorado, Research Paper RM-107. 23 pp.
- Meiman, J.R. 1987. Influence of forests on snow accumulation. pp 61-67 *In: Management of subalpine forests: building on 50 years of research. Proceedings of a Technical Conference, Silver Springs, Colorado, July 6-9, 1987. USDA Forest Service, Rocky Mountain Forest and Range Experiment Station, Fort Collins, Colorado, General Technical Report RM-149.*

Troendle, Charles A. and Charles F. Leaf. 1980. Hydrology. pp III-1 to III-173 In: An approach to water resources evaluation of non-point silvicultural sources. United States Environmental Protection Agency, Environmental Research Laboratory, Athens, Georgia, EPA 60018-80-012.

West, A.J. 1959. Snow evaporation and condensation. Proceedings 27th Western Snow Conference, April 21-23, 1959, Reno Nevada. pp66-74.

Wheeler, Kent. 1987. Interception and redistribution of snow in a subalpine forest on a storm-by-storm basis. Proceedings 55th Western Snow Conference, April 14-16, 1987, Vancouver, British Columbia. pp78-87.

Wilm, H.G. and E.G. Dunford. 1948. Effect of timber harvest on water available for stream-flow from a lodgepole pine forest. United States Department of Agriculture, Washington, DC. Technical Bulletin 968. 43pp.