

## ISBA Surface Scheme in the GEM DM Numerical Forecast Model

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### The ISBA Land Surface Scheme

This improved version of the Interactions Soil-Biosphere-Atmosphere (ISBA) scheme, originally developed by Noilhan and Planton (1989), has been included in the RPN physics package. Its main purpose is to determine the lower boundary conditions for the vertical diffusion of temperature, moisture, and momentum, as well as evaluating the evolution of ten prognostic variables [i.e., the surface temperature  $T_{surf}$ , the mean (or deep-soil) temperature  $T_p$ , the near-surface soil moisture  $w_g$ , the liquid and frozen bulk soil water contents  $w_p$  and  $w_f$ , the liquid water  $W_r$  retained on the foliage of the vegetation canopy, the equivalent water content  $W_s$  of the snow reservoir, the liquid water  $W_L$  retained in the snow pack, the snow albedo  $\alpha_s$ , and the relative snow density  $\rho_s$ ] and the hydrological budget of the surface.

#### a. Entry parameters

The entry parameters have been chosen in a way to characterize the main physical processes occurring at the surface, while attempting to reduce the number of independent variables. As shown in 1, they can be divided in two categories: *primary parameters* that need to be specified at each model grid point, and *secondary parameters* which values can be derived (using association tables) from the primary parameters. The primary parameters describe the nature of the land surface and its vegetation coverage by means of only four numerical indices: the percentage of sand and clay in the soil, the dominant vegetation type, and the land-water mask. The secondary parameters associated with the soil type are evaluated from the sand and clay composition of the soil, according to the continuous formulation discussed in Giordani (1993) and Noilhan and Lacarrère (1995), whereas those related to vegetation can either be derived from the dominant vegetation type or from existing classification or observations.

#### b. Thermal properties of the surface

The prognostic equations for the superficial and mean surface temperatures ( $T_{surf}$  and  $T_p$ ) are obtained from the force-restore method following:

$$\frac{\partial T_{surf}}{\partial t} = C_{TOT} (R_n - H - LE) + C_T L_f (freez_g - melt_g + freez_s - melt_s) - \frac{2\pi}{\tau} (T_{surf} - T_p) \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{\partial T_p}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{\tau} (T_{surf} - T_p) \quad (2)$$

in which  $H$ ,  $LE$ , and  $R_n$  are the sensible heat, latent heat, and net radiational fluxes at the surface,  $C_{TOT}$  is a thermal coefficient,  $L_f$  is the latent heat of fusion,  $freez_s$  and  $melt_s$  are fluxes of freezing and melting snow, and  $\tau$  is a time constant of one day. The first term on the rhs of (1) represents the forcing from radiative fluxes at the surface; the second term is for the release of latent heat due to freezing and melting of soil water and snow; and the last term of (1) [like the only rhs term in (2)], is a “restoring” or relaxation term.

Since only a single energy budget is done for the soil portion of a model grid area, the heat coefficient  $C_{TOT}$  includes the effect of bare soil, vegetation, and snow:

$$C_{TOT} = \frac{1}{\frac{(1-veg)(1-p_{sng})}{C_g} + \frac{veg(1-p_{snv})}{C_v} + \frac{p_{sn}}{C_s}} \quad (3)$$

where the contributions of ground, vegetation, and snow (i.e.,  $C_g$ ,  $C_v$ , and  $C_s$ ) are weighted by the fraction of the model grid area covered by vegetation ( $veg$ ), the fraction of the bare soil covered by snow ( $p_{sng}$ ), the fraction of vegetation covered by snow ( $p_{snv}$ ), and the fraction of the model grid area covered by snow ( $p_{sn}$ ). These fractional grid areas are given by:

$$p_{sng} = \min\left(\frac{W_s}{W_{cm}}, 1.\right) ; \quad p_{snv} = \frac{h_s}{h_s + 5000z_0} ; \quad p_{sn} = (1-veg)p_{sng} + veg p_{snv} \quad (4)$$

in which  $W_{cm} = 10 \text{ kg m}^{-2}$  (or mm), and  $h_s = W_s / \rho_s$  is the thickness of the snow canopy.

The thermal coefficient for the vegetation ( $C_v$ ) has fixed values of  $1 \times 10^{-5}$  or  $2 \times 10^{-5} \text{ K m}^{-2} \text{ J}^{-1}$  for high and low vegetation respectively. For bare ground, the thermal coefficient is given by:

$$C_g = C_{gsat} \left(\frac{W_{sat}}{W_2}\right)^{b/2 \ln 10} \quad C_g \leq 2 \times 10^{-5} \text{ Km}^2 \text{ J}^{-1} \quad (5)$$

For snow, the heat coefficient is given by:

$$C_s = 2 \left( \frac{\pi}{\lambda_s c_s \tau} \right)^{1/2} \quad (6)$$

where  $\lambda_s = \lambda_i \rho_s^{1.88}$ ;  $c_s = c_i (\rho_s / \rho_i)$ ; in which  $\rho_i$  is relative density of ice [see Douville (1994) and Douville et al. (1995)].

### c. Hydraulic properties of the surface

Soil water in both the superficial and deep reservoirs also evolve according to force-restore equations:

$$\frac{\partial w_g}{\partial t} = \frac{C_1}{\rho_w d_1} \left\{ (1 - veg)(1 - p_{sng}) P_r + (1 - p_{sn}) R_{veg} + R_{snow} - E_g - R_{surf} \right\} - \frac{C_2}{\tau} (w_g - w_{geq}) \quad (7)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial w_2}{\partial t} = & \\ & \frac{1}{\rho_w d_2} \left\{ (1 - veg)(1 - p_{sng}) P_r + (1 - p_{sn}) R_{veg} + R_{snow} + melt_g - freez_g - E_g - E_{tr} - R_{surf} \right\} \quad (8) \\ & - \frac{C_3}{d_2 \tau} \max \left\{ 0, (w_2 - w_{fc}) \right\} \end{aligned}$$

in which  $w_g$  and  $w_2$  are the soil volumetric water contents,  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  are the depths of the superficial and deep soil layers,  $P_r$  is the rain rate,  $R_{veg}$ ,  $R_{snow}$ , and  $R_{surf}$  are the water “runoffs” from vegetation, snow, and ground,  $w_{geq}$  is an equilibrium volumetric water content depending on the soil texture,  $E_g$  is the evaporation from bare soil,  $E_{tr}$  is the evapotranspiration from vegetation, and  $C_1$ ,  $C_2$ , and  $C_3$  are expressions and constants for the infiltration [first terms on the rhs of (7) and (8)], restore [second term on the rhs of (7)], and drainage [second term on the rhs of (8)] terms.

The mathematical expression for  $C_1$  depends on the soil moisture content. For relatively wet soils (i.e.,  $w_g > w_{wilt}$ ,  $w_{wilt}$  is the soil water content at the wilting point), this coefficient is given by:

$$C_1 = C_{1sat} \left( \frac{w_{sat}}{w_g} \right)^{b/2+1} \quad (9)$$

in which  $w_{sat}$  is the water content at saturation. For dry soils (i.e.,  $w_g < w_{wilt}$ ), the vapor-phase transfers need to be considered in order to reproduce the physics of water exchange. These transfers are parameterized as a function of the wilting point  $w_{wilt}$ , the soil water content  $w_g$ , and the surface temperature  $T_{surf}$ , using the Gaussian expression (see Braud et al. 1993, Giordani 1993)

$$C_1 = C_{1max} \exp\left[-\frac{(w_g - w_{max})^2}{2\sigma^2}\right] \quad (10)$$

where  $w_{max}$ ,  $C_{1max}$ , and  $\sigma$  are respectively the maximum abscissa, the mode, and the standard deviation of the Gaussian functions. The other coefficient,  $C_2$ , and the equilibrium water content,  $w_{geq}$ , are given by

$$C_2 = C_{2ref} \left( \frac{w_p}{\max(w_{sat} - w_p, 0.01)} \right) \quad (11)$$

$$w_{geq} = w_p - a w_{sat} \left( \frac{w_p}{w_{sat}} \right)^p \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{w_p}{w_{sat}} \right)^{8p} \right] \quad (12)$$

in which  $a$  and  $p$  are constants.

For the  $w_2$  evolution, (7) represents the water budget over the soil layer of depth  $d_2$ . The first term on the rhs includes the effect of rainfall, runoff from snow and vegetation, melting/freezing, evaporation, and surface runoff. The other term, for drainage, is proportional to the water amount exceeding that at field capacity (i.e.,  $w_2 - w_{fc}$ ) (see Mahfouf et al. 1994). In this second term, the coefficient  $C_3$  does not depend on  $w_2$  but simply on the soil texture.

The temporal evolution of volumetric water content of frozen soil water (i.e.,  $w_f$ ) is represented in ISBA using the following equation:

$$\rho_w d_2 \frac{\partial w_f}{\partial t} = \text{freez}_g - \text{melt}_g \quad (13)$$

in which  $\rho_w$  is the liquid water density,  $d_2$  is the soil rooting depth, and  $\text{freez}_g$  and  $\text{melt}_g$  are the fluxes of freezing and melting water in the ground, respectively. Based on the work of Giard and Bazile (1999), these fluxes are proportional to differences between the soil-surface and the freezing (melting) temperatures (i.e.,  $T_0=273.16$  K):

$$\begin{aligned} \text{freez}_g &= \rho_w d_2 K \left( \frac{w_2}{w_{sat}} \right) \max[0, -(T_n - T_0)] \\ \text{melt}_g &= \rho_w d_2 K \max[0, (T_n - T_0)] \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

where  $T_n$  is a representative temperature of the soil under the snow and vegetation canopies:

$$T_n = (1 - p_{sn}) [(1 - \text{veg}) T_{Surf} + \text{veg} T_p] + p_{sn} T_p \quad (15)$$

A series of “off-line” experiments has shown that  $K=1.5 \times 10^{-6}$  is appropriate for representing in a realistic manner the freezing and thawing of soil water in typical fall and spring conditions. It should be noted that soil water freezing and melting only influence the evolution of  $w_2$  [in (8)];  $w_g$  can thus be interpreted as the sum of liquid and solid water in the superficial layer. It is this last quantity that is used to calculate the surface fluxes of water vapor.

Obviously, the presence of frozen water in the soil should have an important impact on many of the hydraulic processes represented in the above equations (i.e., infiltration, water redistribution, drainage, and runoff). Because it is not clear whether infiltration of liquid water reaching the surface (rain or melting of snow) should increase or decrease due to the presence of frozen water in the soil, the treatment of water infiltration [related to the coefficient  $C_l$  in (7)] in the soil is not modified. One should note however that the evaporation  $E_g$  and evapotranspiration  $E_{tr}$  appearing in the infiltration terms will be significantly reduced due to the presence of frozen water (see discussion below). Also, as soil water freezes, it loses its fluidity and becomes more static, with less possibility of movement. Ice rings form and become fixed within the soil pores. In these conditions, gravity and suction forces have a lesser impact, and the redistribution of water in the soil is greatly reduced. To represent this effect, the restore term in (7) is forced to zero as the soil water freezes, since  $w_2$  (the *liquid* portion of soil water) tends toward zero in the equation for  $C_2$ :

$$C_2 = C_{2ref} \left[ \frac{w_2}{w_{sat} - w_2 + 0.01} \right] \quad (16)$$

Using the same argument, it can be asserted that drainage at the bottom boundary of the soil layer greatly decreases as soil water freezes. Finally, the infiltration simulated in ISBA should dramatically decrease (and runoff increase) for frozen soils because evaporation and sublimation of soil water is greatly reduced when the soil is frozen. Because soil water is not redistributed by the restore term and because there is no drainage at the bottom of the soil layer, water should quickly accumulate in the upper layers of the soil (due to precipitation and melting), thus reducing infiltration and increasing surface runoff.

#### d. Intercepted water

Rainfall and dew intercepted by the canopy foliage feed a reservoir of water content  $W_r$ . This water evaporates in the air at a potential rate from the fraction  $\delta$  of the foliage covered with a film of water, as the remaining part  $1-\delta$  of the leaves transpires. Following Deardorff (1978),

$$\frac{\partial W_r}{\partial t} = veg P_r - (E_v - E_{tr}) - R_{veg} \quad ; \quad 0 \leq W_r \leq W_{r,max} \quad (17)$$

where  $P_r$  is the precipitation rate at the top of the vegetation,  $E_v$  is the evaporation from the vegetation including the transpiration  $E_{tr}$  and the direct evaporation  $E_r$  when positive, and the dew flux when negative (in this case  $E_{tr} = 0$ ), and  $R_{veg}$  is the vegetation throughfall. This throughfall occurs when  $W_r$  exceeds a maximum value  $W_{r,max}$  that depends on the canopy density, i.e., roughly proportional to  $veg LAI$ . According to Dickinson (1984), we use the simple equation:

$$W_{r,max} = 0.2 veg LAI \quad (18)$$

#### e. Subgrid-scale runoff

The model for subgrid-scale runoff of precipitation reaching the ground is based on the so-called Nanjing model (see Wood et al. 1992, Habets and Noilhan 1996). According to this technique, each model grid area (with soil, not water) is supposed to include a set of subgrid reservoirs with an infinite range of infiltration capacity (continuously varying from 0 to a maximum value  $i_m$ ). If we suppose that precipitation falls uniformly over each subgrid-scale reservoirs, it is possible to show that the runoff is:

$$R_{surf} = R_g + \frac{i_m}{b_r + 1} \left[ \left( 1 - \frac{i_0}{i_m} + \frac{R_s}{i_m} \right)^{b_r+1} - \left( 1 - \frac{i_0}{i_m} \right)^{b_r+1} \right] \quad (19)$$

where

$$i_m = (1 + b_r) w_{sat} d_2 \quad (20)$$

$$\left( \frac{i_0}{i_m} \right) = 1 - \left( 1 - \frac{w_p + w_f}{w_{sat}} \right)^{\frac{1}{b_r+1}} \quad (21)$$

and  $b_r$  is an adjustable parameter that depends on the surface heterogeneity, slopes, etc. This parameter should be different for each grid point. In the current version of ISBA,  $b_r=1$  is used everywhere. One should also note that there is no runoff, of course, when  $R_g=0$  ( $R_g$  is the water reaching the soil).

## f. Snow model

The evolution of the equivalent water content of the snow reservoir is given by

$$\frac{\partial W_S}{\partial t} = R_S - E_S + \text{freez}_s - \text{melt}_s - \text{melt}_{rain} \quad (22)$$

where  $R_S$  is the snowfall rate,  $E_S$  is the sublimation from the snow surface, and  $\text{freez}_s$  and  $\text{melt}_s$  are freezing and melting terms.

The freezing and melting terms in (22) are given by:

$$\text{freez}_s = \min \left[ \frac{p_{sn} (T_0 - T_n^*)}{C_s L_f \Delta t}, \frac{W_L}{\Delta t} \right] \quad ; \quad \text{freez}_s \geq 0 \quad (23)$$

$$\text{melt}_s = \min \left[ \frac{p_{sn} (T_n^* - T_0)}{C_s L_f \Delta t}, \frac{W_S}{\Delta t} \right] \quad ; \quad \text{melt}_s \geq 0 \quad (24)$$

in which  $T_n^* = (1 - \text{veg})T_S + \text{veg}T_2$  is a temperature representative of the surface under the vegetation canopy,  $C_s$  is the thermal coefficient for snow, and  $W_L$  is a prognostic variable newly introduced in ISBA for the liquid water retained in the snow pack.

Another aspect that needs to be considered for the evolution of  $W_S$  is related to the modification of the internal energy of the snow due to incident liquid precipitation. It often happens, for instance, that warm precipitation falls on snow and accelerates its melting due to energy transfers between the liquid water and the rest of the snow pack.

By using the concept of enthalpy conservation (which reduces here to conservation of internal energy  $h = c_p T$ ), it can be shown that the new surface temperature  $T'_S$  after redistribution of energy could be expressed:

$$T'_S = T_S + p_{sn} \Delta T_{snow} \quad (25)$$

where

$$\Delta T_{snow} = \frac{P_r \Delta t (T_{rain} - T_S)}{(W_S^* + W_L^*) + P_r \Delta t} \quad (26)$$

where  $W_S^* + W_L^*$  is the total amount of water in the snowpack affected by the energy transfer between the incident liquid precipitation and the snowpack. The quantity  $(P_r \Delta t)$  is the liquid water reaching the surface during a single timestep (in  $\text{kg m}^{-2}$ , or

mm), and  $T_{rain}$  is the temperature of the rain falling on the snow (taken as the low-level air temperature for the moment).

If we suppose that  $W_S^* + W_L^* = P_r \Delta t$  then (26) becomes

$$\Delta T_{snow} = \frac{T_{rain} - T_S}{2} \quad (27)$$

Since an increase of temperature  $\Delta T_{snow}$  leads to a melting rate  $melt_{rain}$  following

$$\Delta T_{snow} = C_S L_f (melt_{rain}) \Delta t \quad (28)$$

then the melting rate due to incident rain on the snowpack could be calculated using

$$melt_{rain} = \frac{T_{rain} - T_S}{2 C_S L_f \Delta t} \quad (29)$$

The new variable  $W_L$  evolves according to the following equation:

$$\frac{\partial W_L}{\partial t} = p_{sn} (P_r + R_{veg}) - R_{snow} + melt_s - freez_s \quad (30)$$

in which  $P_r$  is the rainfall and  $R_{veg}$  is the runoff from the vegetation canopy. When the amount of liquid water in the snow approaches and exceeds a critical water content  $W_{Lmax}$ , there is percolation (snow throughfall) of liquid water towards the ground, following:

$$\begin{aligned} R_{snow} &= \frac{W_{Lmax}}{\tau_{hour}} \exp\{W_L - W_{Lmax}\} & \text{if } W_L \leq W_{Lmax} \\ R_{snow} &= \frac{W_{Lmax}}{\tau_{hour}} + \frac{W_L - W_{Lmax}}{\Delta t} & \text{if } W_L > W_{Lmax} \end{aligned} \quad (31-32)$$

where  $W_{Lmax} = c^R W_s$  (33)

in which  $\tau_{hour}$  is a time constant of one hour and  $c^R$  is a retention factor depending on the density of snow:

$$c^R = \begin{cases} c_{min}^R & \text{if } \rho_s \geq \rho_e \\ c_{min}^R + (c_{max}^R - c_{min}^R) \frac{\rho_e - \rho_s}{\rho_e} & \text{if } \rho_s < \rho_e \end{cases} \quad (34)$$

with  $c_{min}^R = 0.03$ ,  $c_{max}^R = 0.10$ , and  $\rho_e = 0.2$ .

The presence of snow covering the ground and vegetation can greatly influence the energy and mass transfers between the land surface and the atmosphere. Notably, a snow



layer modifies the radiative balance at the surface by increasing the albedo. To consider this effect, the albedo of snow  $\alpha_S$  is treated as a prognostic variable. Depending if snow is melting or not,  $\alpha_S$  decreases linearly or exponentially with time:

$$\alpha_S(t) = \alpha_S(t - \Delta t) - \tau_a \frac{\Delta t}{\tau} + \frac{(\text{Snowrate}) \Delta t}{W_{cm}} (\alpha_{S \max} - \alpha_{S \min}) \quad (35)$$

for cold snow cases (i.e., without melting), and

$$\alpha_S(t) = \alpha_{S \min} + [\alpha_S(t - \Delta t) - \alpha_{S \min}] \exp\left\{-\tau_f \frac{\Delta t}{\tau}\right\} \quad (36)$$

for warm snow (with melting). Here,  $\tau_a = 0.008$ ,  $\alpha_{S \max} = 0.80$ , and  $\tau_g = 0.24$ .

The snow density  $\rho_S$  currently evolves in ISBA according to the following mechanisms. First, the density increases due to gravitational settling following the exponential function:

$$\begin{aligned} \rho_S^* &= \rho_{S \max} - (\rho_{S \max} - \rho_S(t - \Delta t)) \exp\left\{-\tau_f \frac{\Delta t}{\tau}\right\} & \text{if } \rho_S(t - \Delta t) < \rho_{S \max} \\ \rho_S^* &= \rho_S(t - \Delta t) & \text{if } \rho_S(t - \Delta t) \geq \rho_{S \max} \end{aligned} \quad (37-38)$$

in which  $\rho_{S \max}$  is the maximum value for the density of snow (note that this density is relative to that of liquid water),  $\tau_f = 0.24$  and  $\tau = 3600$  s are constants.

Second, the snow density decreases when new snow falls on top of the snow pack:

$$\rho_S^{**} = \frac{(W_S^* - R_S \Delta t) \rho_S^* + R_S \Delta t \rho_{S \min}}{W_S^*} \quad (39)$$

where  $W_S^* = \max(W_S, R_S \Delta t)$ ,  $\rho_S^*$  is an intermediate value of snow density after gravitational settling, and  $R_S$  is the snowfall rate. From this second equation, it is clear that  $\rho_S \geq \rho_{S \min} (= 0.1)$ .

Because liquid water in the snowpack is now evaluated prognostically in the new version of ISBA, and that exchanges of water between the  $W_L$  and  $W_S$  reservoirs are known through the  $freez_S$  and  $melt_S$  tendencies, it is possible to include the impact of freezing water in the snow pack, which effect is to increase the density of snow. This is represented following:

$$\rho_S(t) = \left(\frac{W_S}{W_S + freez_S \Delta t}\right) \rho_S^{**} + \left(\frac{\Delta W_S}{W_S + freez_S \Delta t}\right) \rho_{ice} \quad (40)$$

in which  $\rho_{ice} = 0.9$  is the density of ice relative to that of water. With this new equation, the snow density can have values much higher than  $\rho_{Smax}$ , which is normal near the end of the cold season.

The maximum snow density is a diagnostic variable determined this way:

$$\rho_{Smax} = 0.60 - \frac{20470}{h_s} \left\{ 1 - \exp\left(-\frac{h_s}{67.3}\right) \right\} \quad \text{if } melt_s > 0 \quad (41)$$

$$\rho_{Smax} = 0.45 - \frac{20470}{h_s} \left\{ 1 - \exp\left(-\frac{h_s}{67.3}\right) \right\} \quad \text{if } melt_s = 0 \quad (42)$$

in which  $h_s$  is the depth of the snowpack (in cm).

The hydrological budget simulated in ISBA is summarized in Fig. 1.

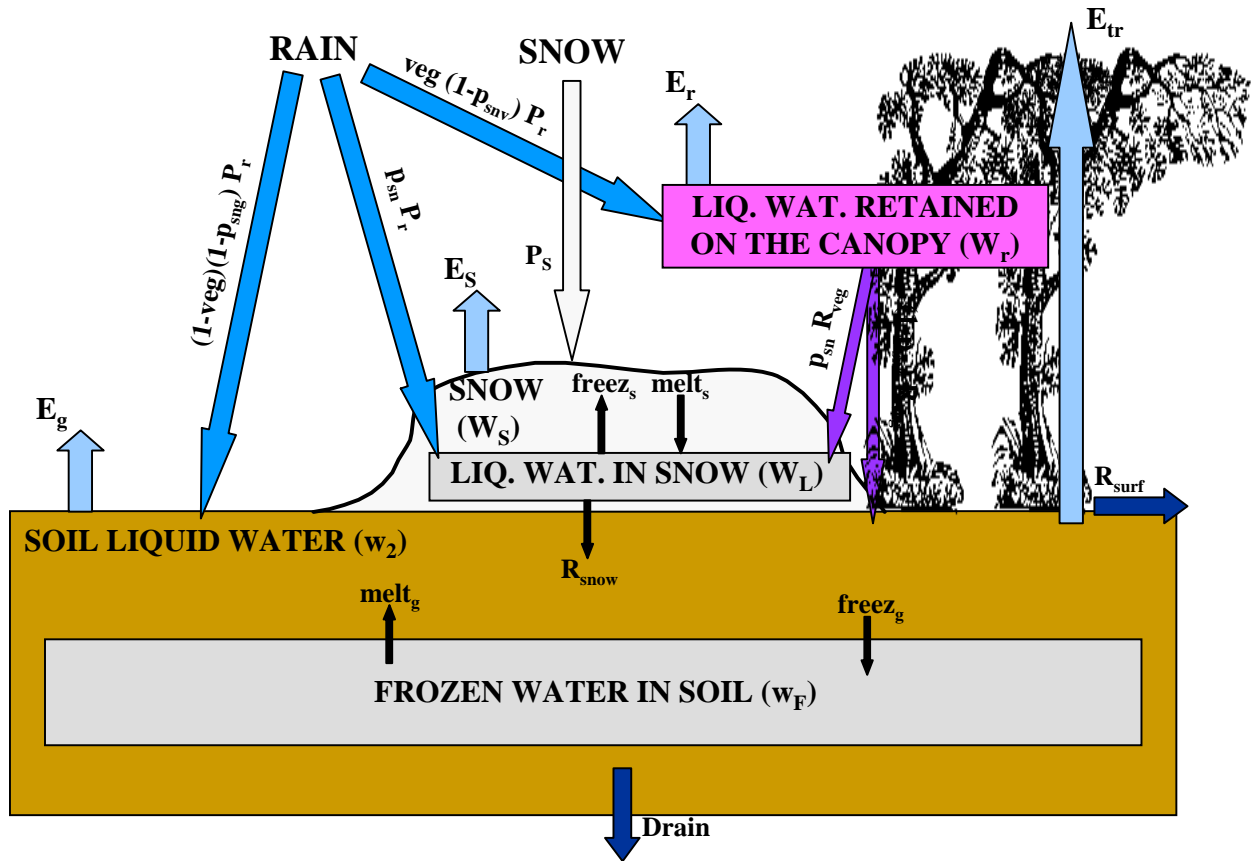


Fig. 1. Hydrological budget in ISBA.

### g. Surface fluxes

Only a single energy balance is considered for the whole system ground-vegetation-snow. As a result, heat and mass transfers between the land surface and the atmosphere are related to averaged values of the surface temperature and humidity. Before

calculating the surface energy budget, it is necessary to determine land-averaged values for the albedo, emissivity, and roughness length:

$$\alpha_t = (1 - p_{sn})\alpha + p_{sn}\alpha_s \quad (43)$$

$$\varepsilon_t = (1 - p_{sn})\varepsilon + p_{sn}\varepsilon_s \quad (44)$$

where  $\varepsilon_s = 1.0$  is the emissivity of the snow. Thus, the overall albedo and emissivity of the ground for infrared radiation is enhanced by snow. For the roughness length  $z_{0tot}$  over land:

$$z_{0tot} = (1 - p_{snz0})z_{0M} + p_{snz0}z_{0S} \quad (45)$$

with

$$p_{snz0} = \frac{W_s}{W_s + W_{crn} + \beta_s g z_0} \quad (46)$$

Here,  $\beta_s = 0.408 \text{ s}^2 \text{ m}^{-1}$  and  $g = 9.80665 \text{ m s}^{-2}$  are physical constants, whereas  $z_{0S}$  is the roughness length of the snow.

The net radiation at the surface is

$$R_n = F_{SS}^- (1 - \alpha_t) + \varepsilon_t (F_{SI}^- - \sigma_{SB} T_{surf}^4) \quad (47)$$

where  $F_{SS}^-$ ,  $F_{SI}^-$  are the incoming solar and infrared radiation at the surface, and  $\sigma_{SB}$  is the Stefan-Boltzmann constant. The turbulent fluxes are calculated by means of the classical aerodynamic equations (see section 2). For the sensible heat flux:

$$H = \rho_a c_p C_T u_* (T_{surf} - T_a) \quad (48)$$

where  $c_p$  is the specific heat;  $\rho_a$  and  $T_a$  are for the air density and temperature at the lowest atmospheric level; and  $C_T$  is the thermal drag coefficient which depends on the stability of the atmosphere.

The water vapor flux  $E$  is the sum of the evaporation from bare ground (i.e.,  $E_g$ ), from the vegetation (i.e.,  $E_v$ ), and from the snow (i.e.,  $E_s$ ):

$$\begin{aligned} LE &= L_{eff} E_g + L_v E_v + L_i E_s \\ E_g &= (1 - veg) (1 - p_{sng}) \rho_a C_T u_* (h_u q_{sat}(T_{surf}) - q_a) \\ E_v &= veg (1 - p_{snv}) \rho_a C_T u_* h_v (q_{sat}(T_{surf}) - q_a) \\ E_s &= p_{sn} \rho_a C_T u_* (q_{sat}(T_{surf}) - q_a) \end{aligned} \quad (49)$$

where  $L_v$  and  $L_i$  are the specific heat of evaporation and sublimation,  $q_{sat}(T_{surf})$  is the saturated specific humidity at the temperature  $T_{surf}$ , and  $q_a$  is the atmospheric specific humidity at the lowest model level.

For the bare-soil portion of the surface, the latent heat constant is modified so as to account for sublimation of soil ice. It is proposed to use an effective latent heat constant, following:

$$L_{eff} = f_{ice} L_i + (1 - f_{ice}) L_v \quad (50)$$

in which

$$f_{ice} = \frac{w_f}{w_f + w_p} \quad (51)$$

is the fraction of ice in the soil.

The relative humidity  $h_u$  of the ground surface is related to the superficial soil moisture  $w_g$  following

$$h_u = \frac{1}{2} \left[ 1 - \cos \left( \frac{w_g}{w_{fc}} \pi \right) \right] \quad \text{if } w_g < w_{fc} \quad (52)$$

$$h_u = 1 \quad \text{if } w_g \geq w_{fc}$$

In case of dew flux when  $q_{sat}(T_{surf}) < q_a$ ,  $h_u$  is also set to 1 (see Mahfouf and Noilhan 1991 for details). When the flux  $E_v$  is positive, the Halstead coefficient  $h_v$  takes into account the direct evaporation  $E_r$  from the fraction of the foliage covered by intercepted water, as well as the transpiration  $E_{tr}$  of the remaining part of the leaves:

$$h_v = (1 - \delta) \frac{R_a}{R_a + R_s} + \delta$$

$$E_r = veg(1 - p_{snv}) \frac{\delta}{R_a} (q_{sat}(T_{surf}) - q_a) \quad (53)$$

$$E_{tr} = veg(1 - p_{snv}) \frac{1 - \delta}{R_a + R_s} (q_{sat}(T_{surf}) - q_a)$$

When  $E_v$  is negative, the dew flux occurs at the potential rate, and  $h_v = 1$ .

Following Deardorff (1978),  $\delta$  is a power function of the moisture content of the interception reservoir:

$$\delta = \left( \frac{W_r}{W_{rmax}} \right)^{\frac{2}{3}} \quad (54)$$

The aerodynamic resistance is  $R_a = (C_T V_a)^{-1}$ . The surface resistance,  $R_s$ , depends upon both atmospheric factors and available water in the soil; it is given by:

$$R_s = \frac{R_{smin}}{F_1 F_2 F_3 F_4 LAI} \quad (55)$$

with the limiting factors  $F_1$ ,  $F_2$ ,  $F_3$ , and  $F_4$ :

$$F_1 = \frac{f + R_{S \min} / R_{S \max}}{1 + f}$$

$$F_2 = \frac{w_p - w_{wilt}}{w_{fc} - w_{wilt}} \quad \text{with } 0 \leq F_2 \leq 1 \quad (56)$$

$$F_3 = 1 - \gamma (q_{sat}(T_{surf}) - q_a)$$

$$F_4 = 1 - 1.6 \times 10^{-3} (T_a - 298.15)^2$$

where the dimensionless term  $f$  represents the incoming photosynthetically active radiation on the canopy foliage, normalized by a species-dependent threshold value:

$$f = 0.55 \frac{F_{SS}^-}{R_{Gl}} \frac{2}{LAI} \quad (57)$$

Moreover,  $\gamma$  is a species-dependent parameter (see Jacquemin and Noilhan 1990) and  $R_{smax}$  is arbitrarily set to  $5000 \text{ s m}^{-1}$ .

It should be noted that as soil water freezes (i.e.,  $w_2$  decreases and  $w_f$  increases), the  $F_2$  factor decreases towards zero and the surface resistance  $R_S$  increases to infinity. Thus, as would be expected, evapotranspiration is dramatically smaller for frozen soils, due to the unavailability of the soil water.

The surface fluxes of heat, moisture, and momentum that serve as boundary conditions for the vertical diffusion are written in the following way:

$$\left( \overline{w' \theta'} \right)_{surf} = \frac{H}{\rho_a c_p T_a / \theta_a} \quad (58)$$

$$\left( \overline{w' q'} \right)_{surf} = \frac{E}{\rho_a} \quad (59)$$

$$\left( \overline{w' V'} \right)_{surf} = C_M^2 |V_a|^2 = u_*^2 \quad (60)$$

where  $w$  is the vertical motion,  $\theta_a$  is the potential temperature at the lowest atmospheric level. The primes and overbars denote perturbation and average quantities.

**Table 1 Primary and secondary parameters**

**Primary parameters**

<i>SAND</i>	Sand percentage of soil
<i>CLAY</i>	Clay percentage of soil
<i>M</i>	Vegetation type Land-water mask

**Secondary parameters**

$w_{sat}$	Volumetric water content at saturation
$w_{wilt}$	Volumetric water content at the wilting point
$w_{fc}$	Volumetric water content at field capacity
$b$	Slope of the soil water retention curve
$C_{Gsat}$	Thermal coefficient at saturation
$C_{1sat}$	$C_1$ coefficient at saturation
$C_{2ref}$	$C_2$ coefficient for $w_2 = w_{sat} / 2$
$C_3$	Drainage coefficient
$a, p$	Parameters for the $w_{geq}$ formulation
$w_{geq}$	Equilibrium volumetric water content
$veg$	Fraction of vegetation
$d_2$	Soil depth
$R_{Smin}$	Minimum stomatal (surface) resistance
$LAI$	Leaf Area Index
$C_v$	Thermal coefficient for the vegetation canopy
$R_{Gb}, \gamma$	Coefficients for the surface resistance
$z_{OM}, z_{OT}$	Roughness length for momentum and heat transfers
$\alpha$	Surface albedo (vegetation)
$\varepsilon$	Emissivity

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