

THERMODYNAMICS OF THE ATMOSPHERE

Hanna Pawłowska



UNIVERSITY
OF WARSAW

Thermodynamics

describes the behavior of matter on a macroscopic scale,
looking at it as a continuum
rather than a sum of its atomic or molecular constituents.

Thermodynamics

is the link between
the circulation and transfers of heat
(radiative, sensible, and latent)
between the Earth's surface and the atmosphere.

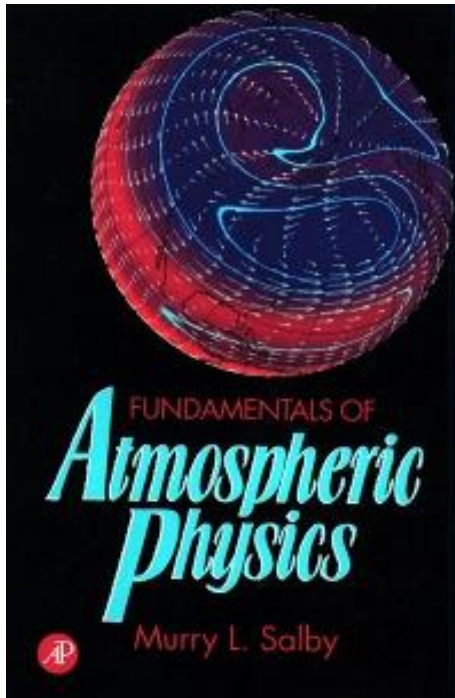
Thermodynamics

deals with
internal transformations of the energy of a system
and exchanges of energy between that system and its environment.

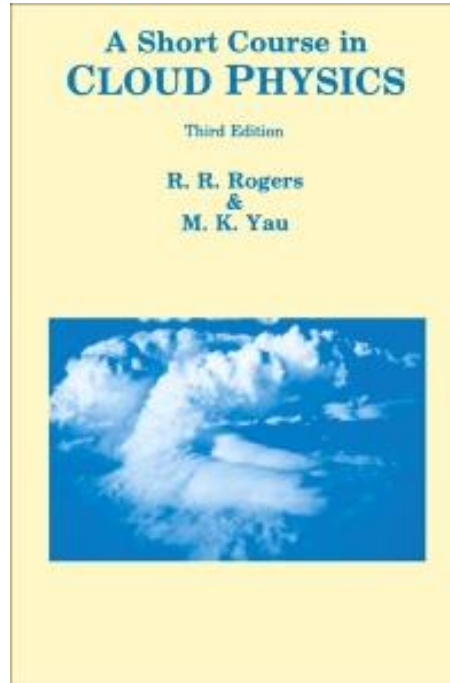
Outline of the course Thermodynamics of the Atmosphere

- Thermodynamics of dry air
- Thermodynamics of moist air
- Processes in the atmosphere
- Thermodynamical diagrams
- Atmospheric stability
 - Dry and moist adiabatic gradients
 - Stability criteria

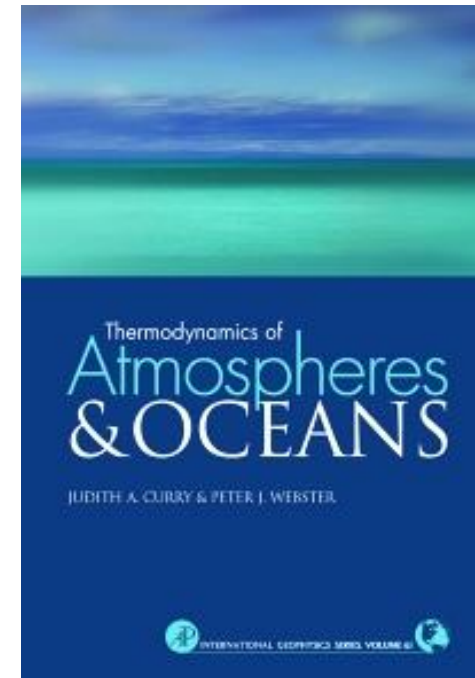
Textbooks



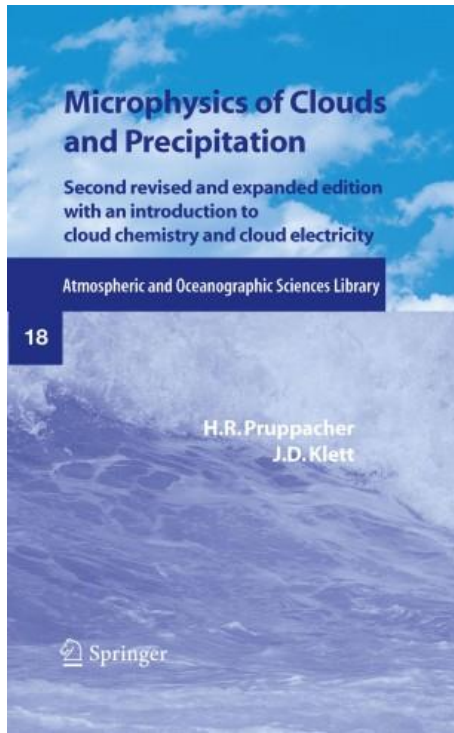
Fundamentals of Atmospheric Physics,
M.L. Salby; [Salby](#)



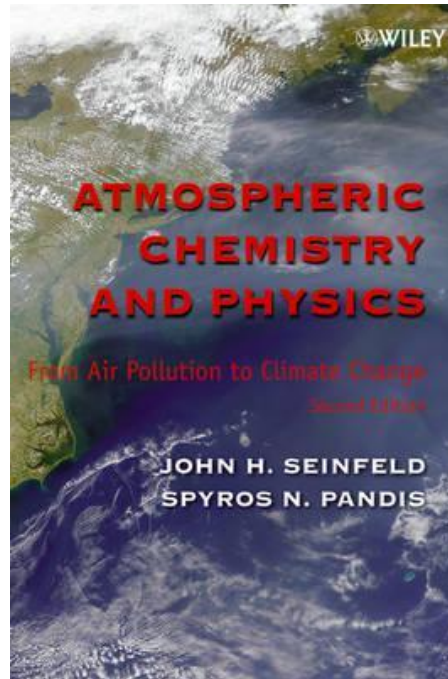
A Short Course in Cloud Physics,
R.R. Rogers and M.K. Yau; [R&Y](#)



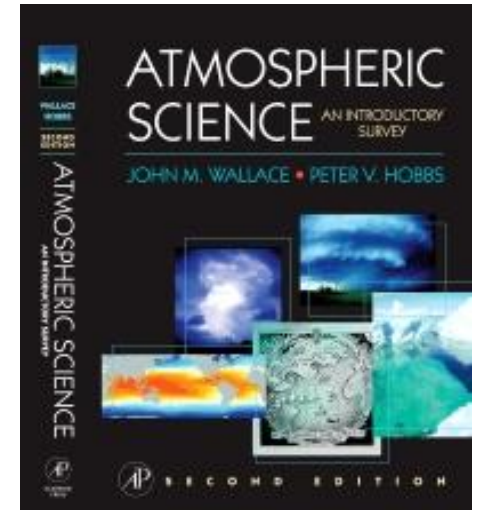
Thermodynamics of Atmospheres
and Oceans,
J.A. Curry and P.J. Webster; [C&W](#)



Microphysics of Cloud
and Precipitation
H. R. Pruppacher and J. D. Klett



Atmospheric Chemistry
and Physics
J.H. Seinfeld and S.N. Pandis



Atmospheric Science.
An Introductory Survey
J. M. Wallace and P. V. Hobbs

OUTLINE OF THE LECTURE

1. Composition and structure of the atmosphere
2. Equation of state for dry air
3. Thermodynamic system, state functions



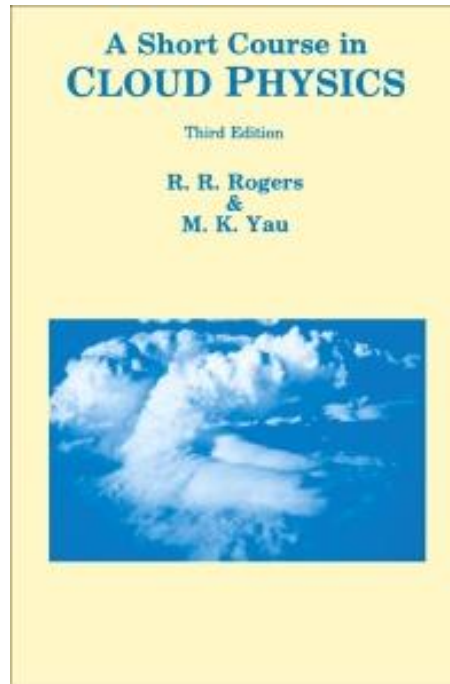
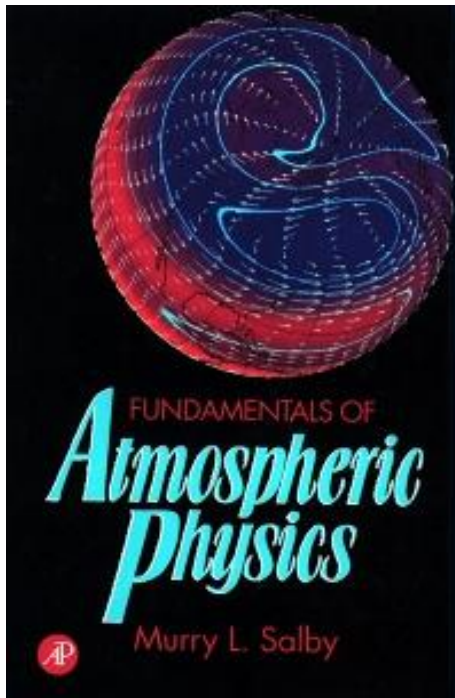
OUTLINE OF THE LECTURE

1. Composition and structure of the atmosphere
2. Equation of state for dry air
3. Thermodynamic system, state functions



R&Y, Chapter 1

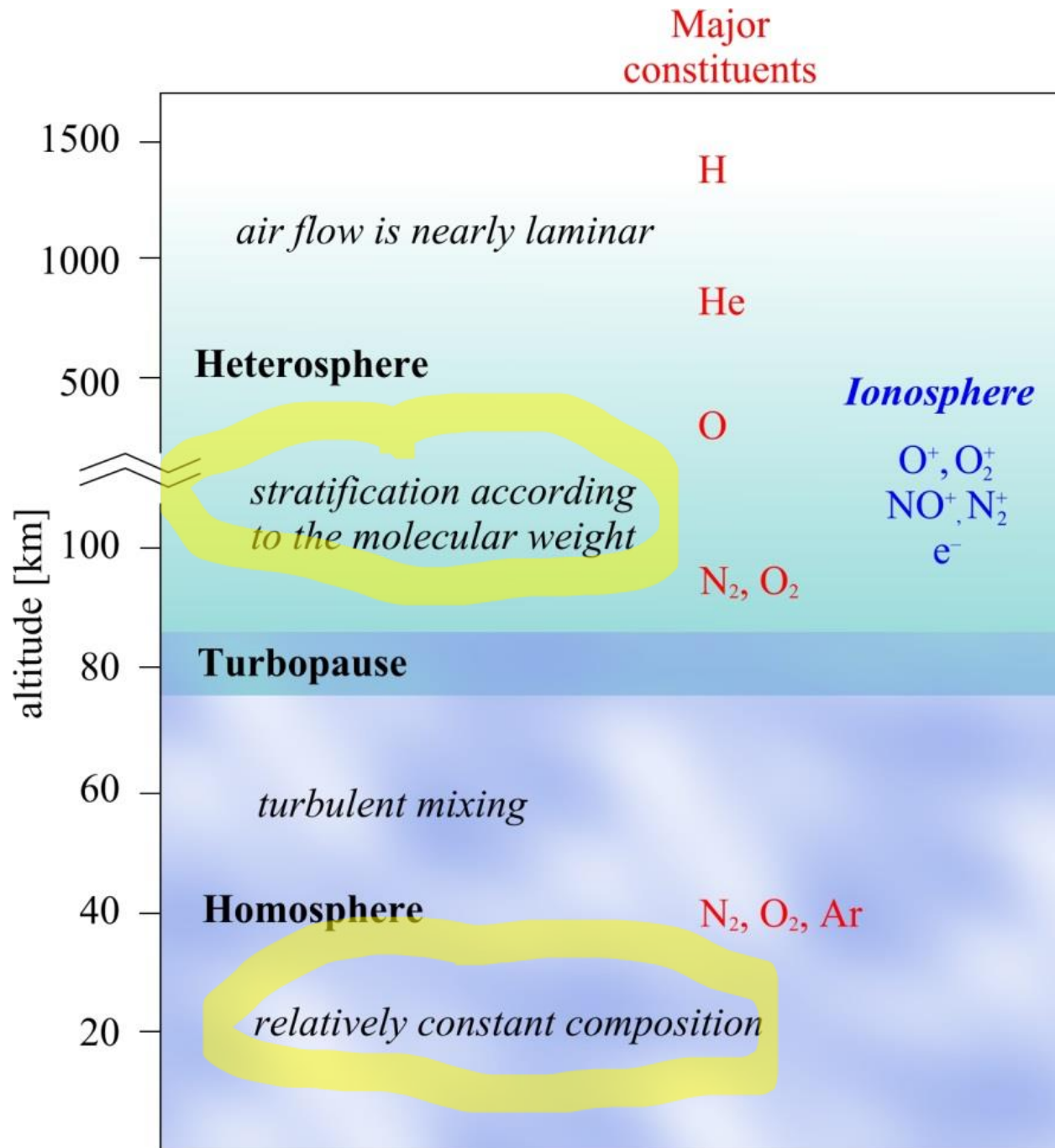
Salby, Chapter 1 and 2



A Short Course in Cloud Physics,
R.R. Rogers and M.K. Yau; R&Y



Thermodynamics of Atmospheres
and Oceans,
J.A. Curry and P.J. Webster; C&W



Processes controlling the stratification of mass and the composition of air

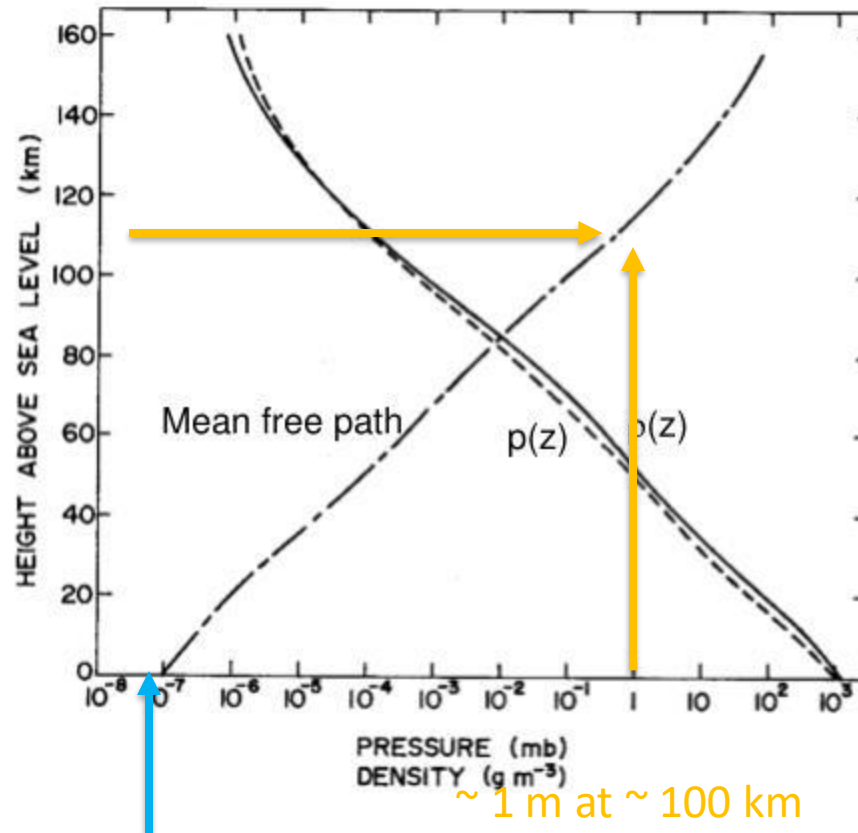
- **Molecular diffusion:**
 - depends on the mean free path
 - the mean free path varies inversely with air density; it increases exponentially with altitude from
 - about 10^{-7}m ($0.1\ \mu\text{m}$) at the surface
 - to of order 1m at 100km .
 - the mean free path determines properties of air such as viscosity and thermal conductivity.
 - diffusion of momentum and heat dissipate atmospheric motions by destroying gradients of velocity and temperature.
- **Turbulent mixing:**
 - stirs different gases with equal efficiency.

Vertical profile of pressure in mb (dashed), density in g m^{-3} (solid) and mean free path in m (dot-dashed) for the U.S. Extension to International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) Standard Atmosphere.

$$p(z) = p_0 \exp(-z/H)$$

$$\rho(z) = \rho_0 \exp(-z/H)$$

H is the atmospheric scale height ($H \sim 7\text{-}8 \text{ km}$)



1 μm at the surface

Below 100 km

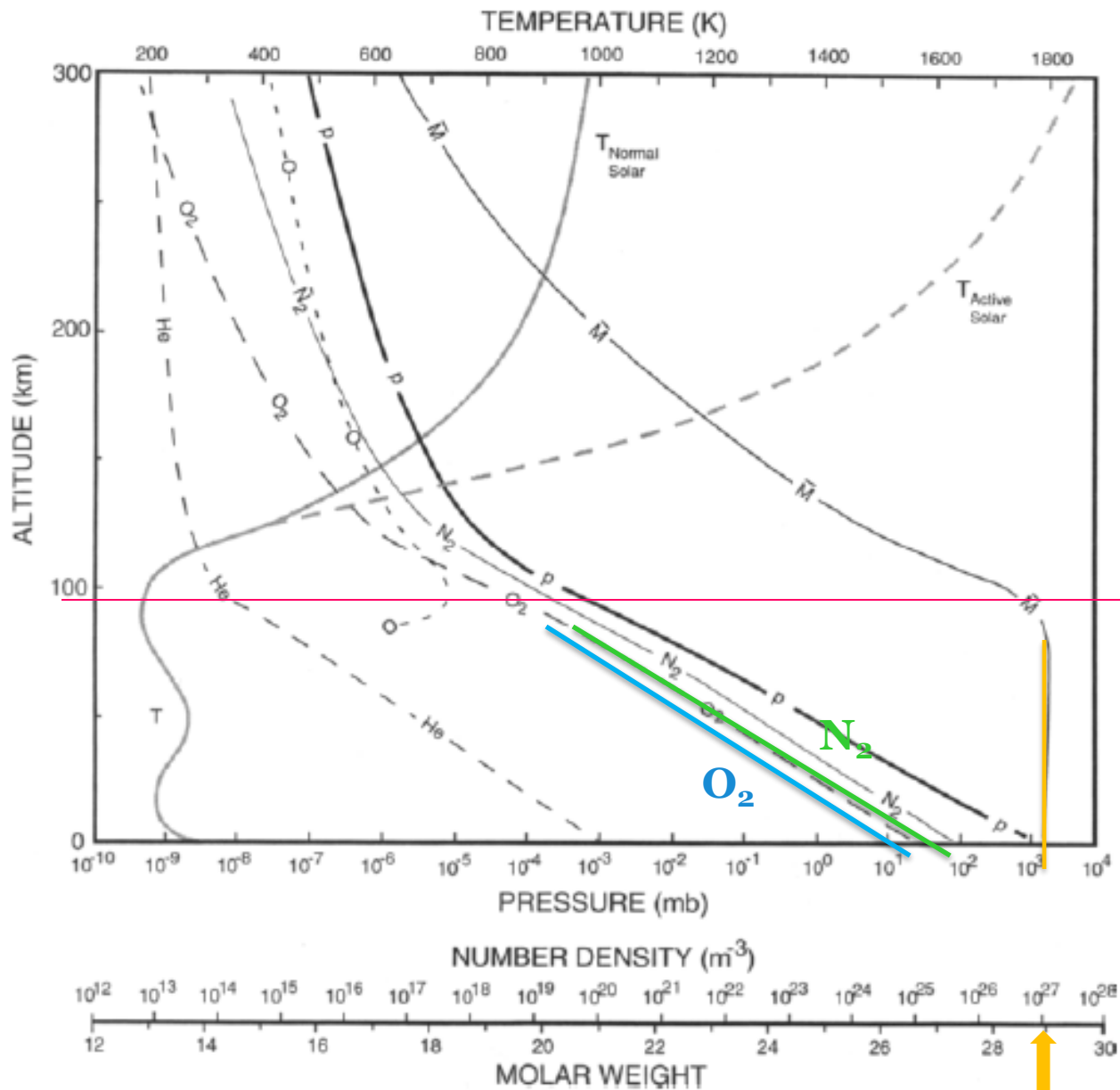
- Turbulent eddies in the circulation are only weakly damped by **molecular diffusion**.
- Bulk transport by **turbulent air motions** dominates diffusive transport of atmospheric constituents.
- **Turbulent air motions** stir different gases with equal efficiency.
- The components of air are said to be **'well mixed'**.
- The densities of passive constituents decrease with altitude at the same exponential rate, which gives air a homogeneous composition with constant mixing ratios:

$$r_{N_2} \cong 0.78, \quad r_{O_2} \cong 0.21$$

$$M_d = 28.96 \text{ g} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$$

Above 100 km

- The mean free path quickly becomes larger than turbulent displacement of air.
- **Turbulent air motions** are strongly damped by **diffusion of momentum and heat**.
- Diffusive transport becomes the dominant mechanism for transferring properties vertically.
- Molecular diffusion operates on gases according to their molecular weight; it stratifies constituents.
- The transition from turbulent transport to diffusive transport occurs at the ***homopause*** (also known as the *turbopause*)

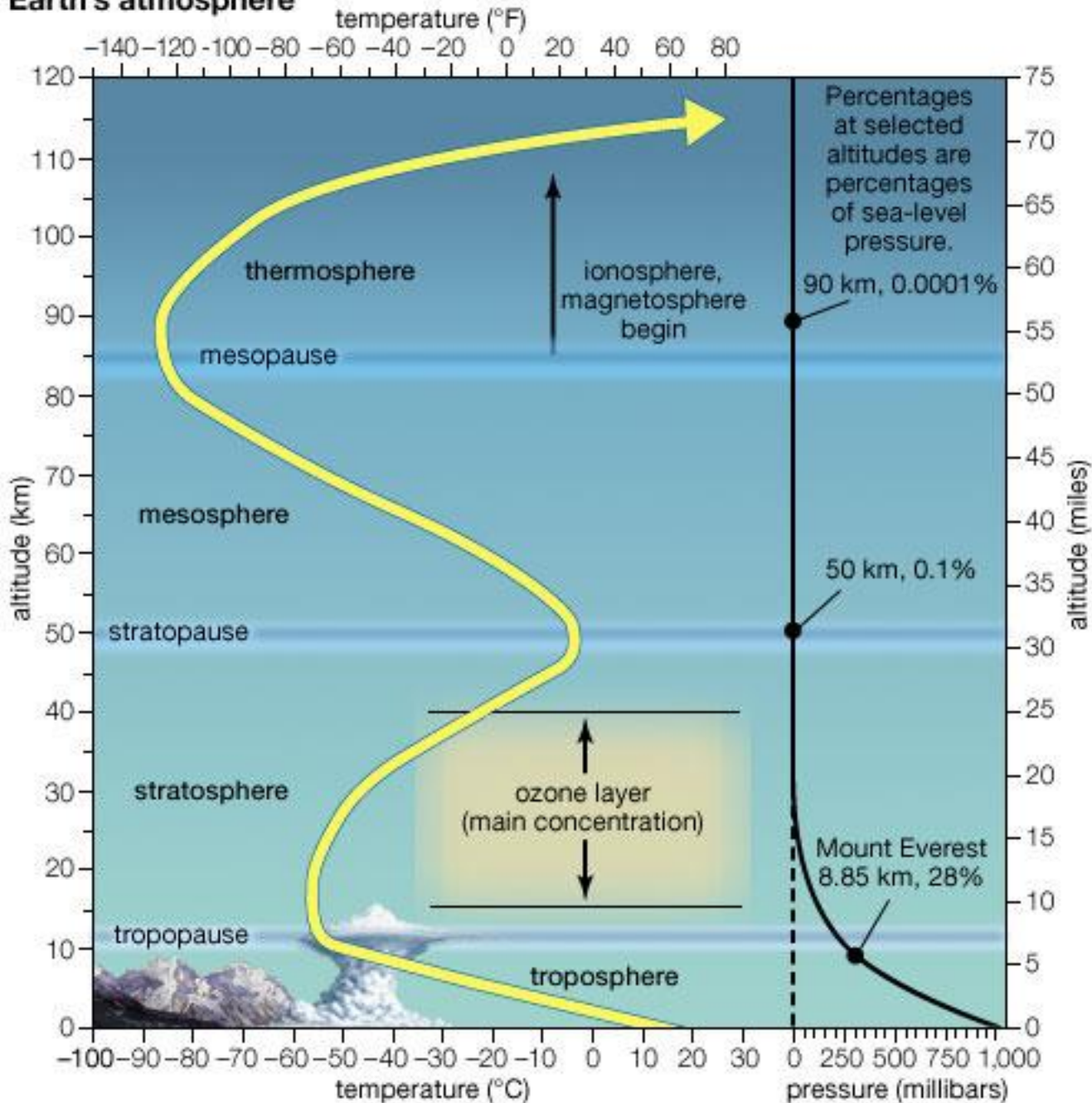


homopause
turbopause

Molar weight
28.96 g/mol

Figure 1.3 Global-mean pressure (bold), temperature (shaded), mean molar weight (solid), and number densities of atmospheric constituents, as functions of altitude. *Source:* U.S. Standard Atmosphere (1976).

Earth's atmosphere



Why air molecules don't escape from the atmosphere?

In the homosphere and heterosphere, atmospheric molecules interact strongly through frequent collisions.

Above the altitude of about *500km*, which is referred to as the *critical level*, molecular collisions are so rare that a significant fraction of the molecules passes out of the atmosphere without sustaining a single collision.

The *escape velocity* is determined by the kinetic energy adequate to liberate a molecule from the potential well of the planet's gravitational field (the second cosmic velocity).

$$\frac{1}{2}mv_e^2 = \int_a^{\infty} mg_0 \left(\frac{a}{r}\right)^2 dr$$

a - is the Earth's radius

$$v_e = \sqrt{2g_0a} \approx 11km \cdot s^{-1}$$

Energy is equipartitioned in a molecular ensemble:

- lighter molecules have greater velocities than heavier ones
- lighter atmospheric constituents escape to space more readily than the heavier constituents.

At the **critical level** (altitude 500km) the temperature is about **1000K** under conditions of normal solar activity, but can reach **2000K** during disturbed conditions.

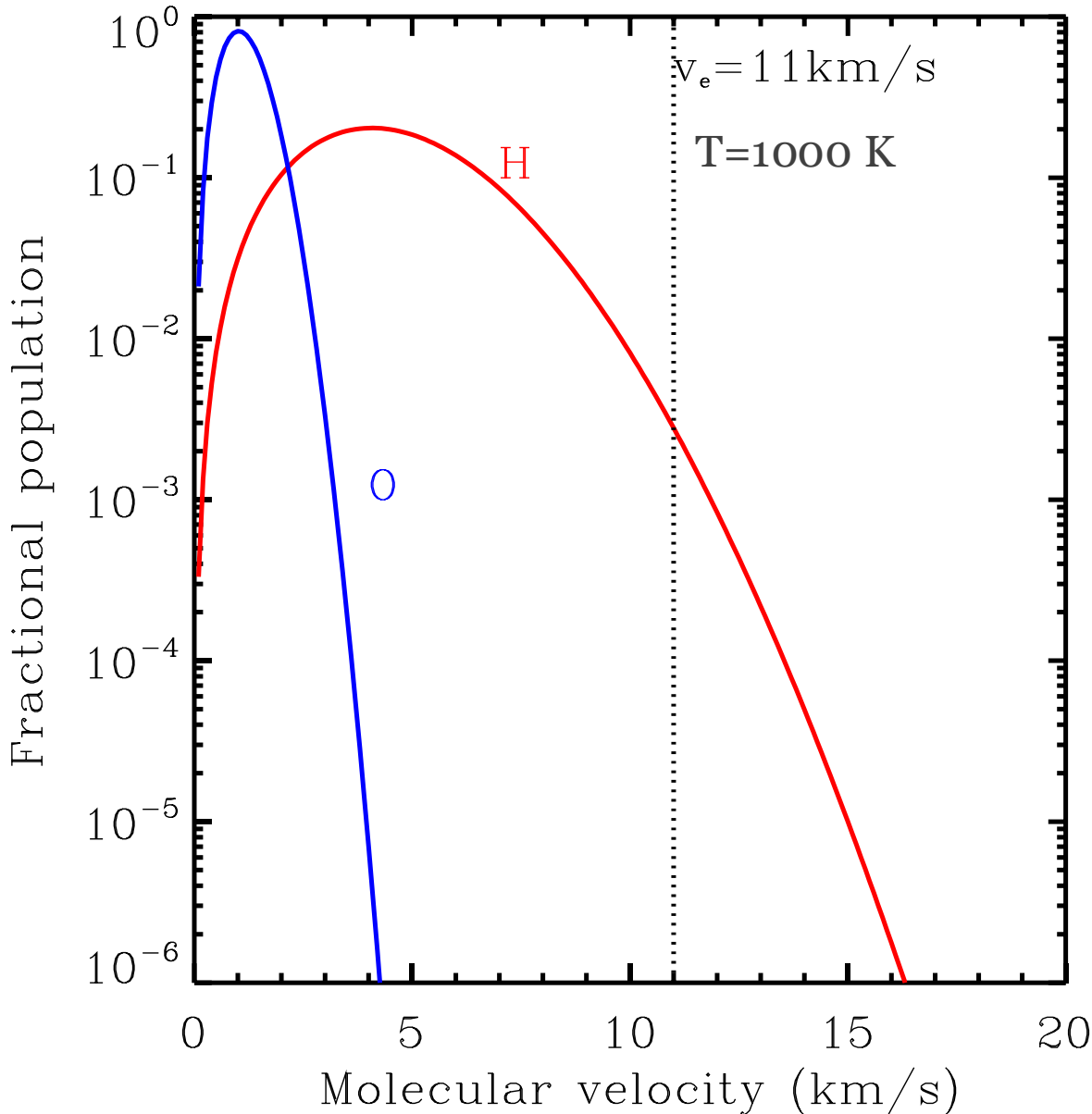
The Boltzmann distributions of a molecular ensemble is a function of molecular velocity:

$$\frac{dn}{n} = \frac{4}{\sqrt{\pi}} \frac{v^2}{v_0^3} \exp \left[- \left(\frac{v}{v_0} \right)^2 \right] dv, \quad v_0 = \sqrt{\frac{2kT}{m}}$$

dn/n – the fractional number of molecules having velocities in the range $(v, v+dv)$

v_0 – the most probably velocity,
 m is the mass of the molecules,
 k is the Boltzmann constant

Boltzmann distribution of velocities



$$\frac{dn}{n} = \frac{4}{\sqrt{\pi}} \frac{v^2}{v_0^3} \exp \left[- \left(\frac{v}{v_0} \right)^2 \right] dv$$

$$v_0 = \sqrt{\frac{2kT}{m}}$$

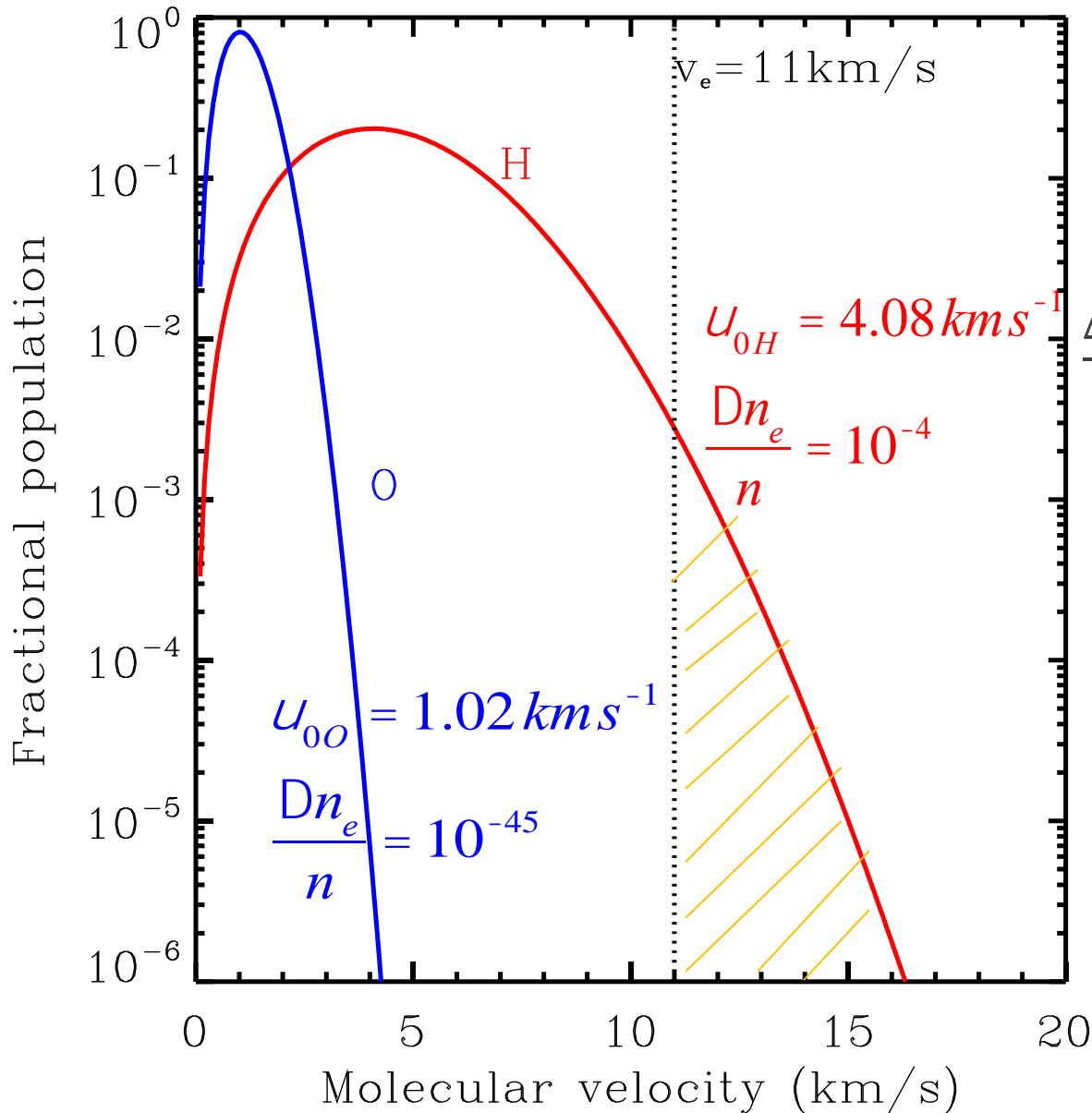
dn/n – the fractional number of molecules having velocities in the range $(v, v+dv)$

$$k = 1.381 \cdot 10^{-23} \text{ J} \cdot \text{K}^{-1}$$

$$m_H = 1u = \frac{1}{N_A} (\text{g}) = \frac{10^{-3}}{N_A} (\text{kg})$$

$$1u = 1.66053 \cdot 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$$

$$m_0 = 16u$$



The fraction of molecules with velocities exceeding the escape velocity, v_e

$$\frac{\Delta n_e}{n} = \int_{v_e}^{\infty} \frac{4}{\sqrt{\pi}} \frac{v^2}{v_0^3} \exp \left[- \left(\frac{v}{v_0} \right)^2 \right] dv$$

$$\cong \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \left(\frac{v_e}{v_0} \right) \exp \left[- \left(\frac{v_e}{v_0} \right)^2 \right]$$

The fraction of O_2 molecules having velocities greater than v_e is 10^{-45} .

A lower bound on the time to deplete all O_2 molecules initially at the critical level is given by the mean time between collisions divided by the fraction of molecules moving upward with $v > v_e$.

$$t_{escape} > \frac{t_{coll}}{dn/n}$$

Near 500km, for O_2 the mean time between collisions, t_{coll} , is of order of 10s.

$$t_{escape} > \frac{10s}{10^{-45}} = 10^{46}s$$

The time for all O_2 molecules initially at the critical level to escape the Earth's gravitational field is greater than $10^{46}s$ (10^{38} years), far greater than the four billion years ($\sim 10^{17}$ s) the planet has existed.

The population of hydrogen (H_2) is distributed over much higher velocities, so many more molecules exceed the escape velocity v_e

$$t_{escape} > \frac{10s}{10^{-4}} = 10^5s \sim 1 \text{ day}$$

During conditions of disturbed solar activity, temperatures at the critical level are substantially higher, so hydrogen molecules are boiled off the atmosphere even faster.

The rapid escape of atomic hydrogen from the planet's gravitational field explains why H_2 is found only in small abundances in the earth's atmosphere, despite its continual production by photodissociation of H_2O .

OUTLINE OF THE LECTURE

1. Composition and structure of the atmosphere
2. Equation of state for dry air
3. Thermodynamic system, state functions



The equation of state for a perfect gas in thermal equilibrium:

$$pV = CT$$

C depends upon the particular gas.

Avogadro's Law:

At the same pressure and temperature one mole of any gas occupies the same volume V^* ($V^*=V/n$, n – the number of moles):

$$pV = CT \quad /n$$

C' is the same constant for all gases.

$$pV^* = C'T$$

C' is called the universal gas constant, denoted by R^* :

$$R^* = 8.314 \text{ J mol}^{-1}\text{K}^{-1}$$

$$pV = nR^*T$$

The volume (V) and the number of moles (n) are not convenient parameters to describe the state of atmosphere.

When applying the ideal gas law to the atmosphere it is convenient to write the equation in terms of intensive variables (v, ρ).

We divide both sides of the ideal gas equation $pV = nR^*T$ by mass m :

$$p \frac{V}{m} = \frac{n}{m} R^* T$$

$$p v = \frac{1}{M} R^* T$$

$$\frac{V}{m} = v = \frac{1}{\rho} \quad \frac{m}{n} = M$$

v - specific volume

ρ - density

M - molecular weight of the gas

and introduce the individual gas constant $R = R^*/M$

$$p v = R T$$

$$p = R T \rho$$

Strictly speaking, air does not have a molecular weight, since it is a mixture of gases and there is no such thing as an „air molecule“. Composition of the air is constant up to ~100 km.

Dalton's law states that:

the total pressure (p) exerted by a mixture of gases is equal to the sum of the partial pressures (p_i) that would be exerted by each constituent alone if it filled the entire volume at the temperature of the mixture: $p = \sum p_i$.

Each constituents satisfies the ideal gas law, with its individual gas constant $R_i = R^*/M_i$.

$$p_i = m_i R_i \frac{T}{V}$$

The sum over all constituents: $V \sum_i p_i = T \sum_i m_i R_i$

$$R = \frac{\sum_i m_i R_i}{\sum_i m_i} = \frac{\sum_i m_i \frac{R^*}{M_i}}{\sum_i n_i M_i} = \frac{R^* \sum_i n_i}{\sum_i n_i M_i} = \frac{R^*}{\bar{M}} \quad \bar{M} = \frac{\sum_i n_i M_i}{\sum_i n_i}$$

$$pV = mRT$$

$$pV = mRT$$

$$p = RT\rho$$

For dry air the individual gas constant is denoted by R (or R_d).

The mean molecular weight for dry air gases is determined to be 28.96 g/mol:

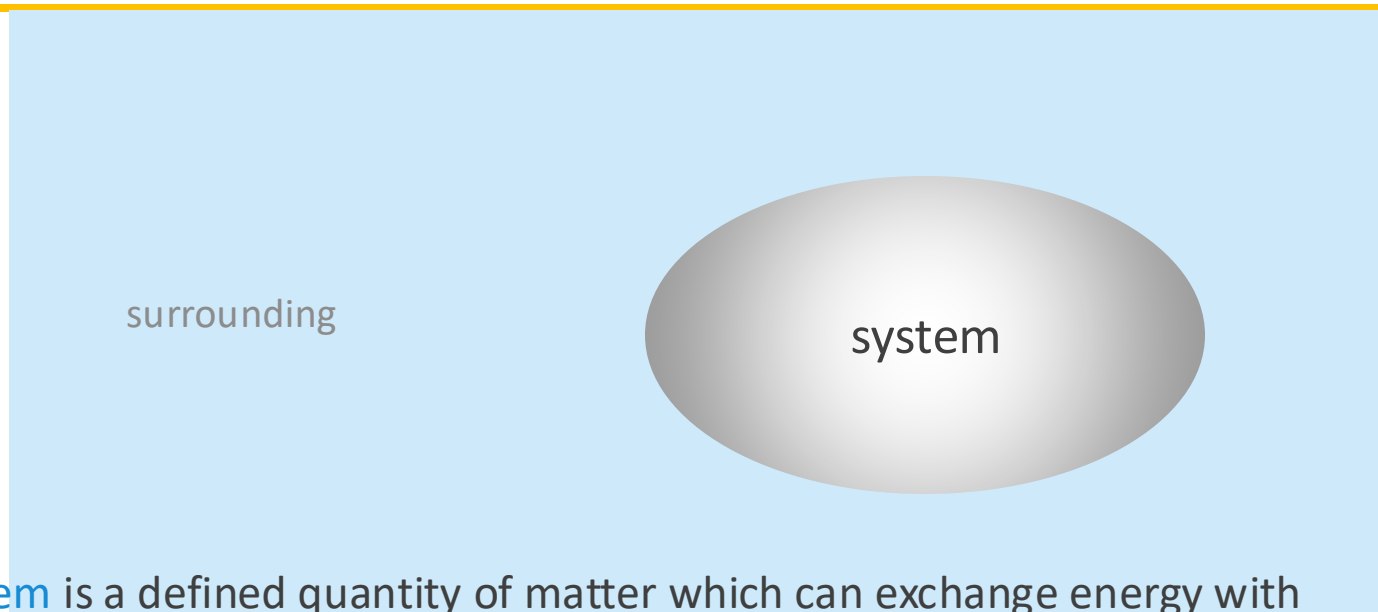
the weighted mean: 78% nitrogen ($M_{N_2} = 28\text{g}$), 21% oxygen ($M_{O_2}=32\text{g}$), 0.9% argon.

$$R = \frac{R^*}{\bar{M}} = \frac{8.314 \text{ J} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}}{28.96 \text{ g} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}} = 287 \frac{\text{J}}{\text{kg K}}$$

OUTLINE OF THE LECTURE

1. Composition and structure of the atmosphere
2. Equation of state for dry air
3. Thermodynamic system, state functions





A **thermodynamic system** is a defined quantity of matter which can exchange energy with its surroundings

- by performing mechanical work or
- by transferring heat across the boundary.

A system may be **open** or **closed**, depending on whether or not it exchanges matter with its environment.

A system is said to be **isolated** if it does not exchange any kind of energy with its environment.

The **environment** comprises the surroundings of the thermodynamic system.

The **thermodynamic system** addressed in this course is a portion of air undergoing transformations; it is an **open system**.

We will sometimes treat portions of the atmosphere as **closed system**, which is a reasonable approximation:

- if the volumes are large enough to neglect exchanges with the surroundings or
- if the surroundings have the same properties as the system.

A system is said to be **homogeneous** if its properties do not vary in space, and **heterogeneous** otherwise.

Because an air parcel is of infinitesimal dimension, it is by definition homogeneous so long as it involves only gas phase.

On the other hand, stratification of density and pressure make the **atmosphere as a whole a heterogeneous system.**

In the atmosphere the exchange of mass is due to:

- entrainment of mass from the environment and subsequent mixing
- diffusion (some constituents, e.g. water vapor)

Above the planetary boundary layer and outside regions close to deep convective clouds the exchange of mass is slow comparing to other processes;

The **atmosphere** can be considered as a **closed system**.

The system can exchange energy with its surroundings through two fundamental mechanisms:

- it can perform **work** on the surrounding (a mechanical exchange of energy)
- **heat** can be transferred across the control surface (a thermal exchange of energy between the system and its environment)

Work: the atmosphere is a compressible gas, perhaps containing an aerosol of liquid and solid particles.

The primary mechanism means of exchanging energy with the environment is expansion work.

Another form of work is linked with turbulence.

Heat: diffusion or thermal conduction.

If the system is open, the energy exchange can occur through the absorption of water vapor from the surroundings, condensation and the release of latent heat, and precipitation out of the system of the condensed water.

Radiative transfer.

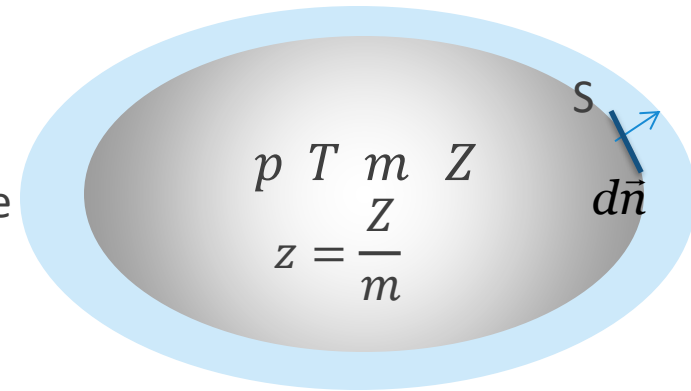
Work

If a pressure imbalance exists across the control surface, the system is out of equilibrium.

The system will then expand or contract to relieve the mechanical imbalance.

By adjusting to the environmental pressure, the system performs expansion work or has such work performed on it.

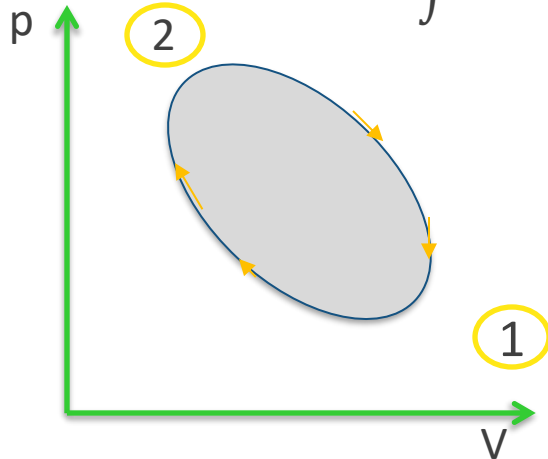
The incremental expansion work δW performed by displacing a section of control surface $\vec{S} = Sd\vec{n}$, with unit normal \vec{n} , perpendicular to itself by $d\vec{n}$ is:



$$W = \oint p dV$$

$$\delta W = (pd\vec{S}) \cdot d\vec{n} = p dV$$

force displacement



The cyclic work is represented in the area enclosed by the path of the system in $p - V$ plane.

Although the system is restored to its initial state, namely, the net change of properties is zero, the same is not true of the work performed during the cycle.

Net work is performed during a cyclic variation.

Heat transfer

For many applications, heat transfer is secondary to processes introduced through motion.

It is especially true above the boundary layer, where turbulent mixing between bodies of air is relatively weak.

In the free atmosphere and away from clouds, the prevailing form of heat transfer is radiative
→ a timescale (τ_c) of order of 2 weeks.

The timescale of expansion work (τ_m) is of order of 1 day.

Timescales

$$\tau_c = 2 \text{ weeks}$$

$$\tau_m = 1 \text{ day}$$

$$\tau_c \gg \tau_m$$

Heat transfer

If no heat is exchanged between a system and its environment, the control surface is said to be **adiabatic**, and **diabatic** otherwise.

Because heat transfer is slow compared to other processes influencing a parcel, **adiabatic** behavior is a good approximation for many applications.

Adiabatic processes are good approximations for ascending and descending air masses or air parcels in the atmosphere.

Heat transfer must be central to processes that operate on long timescales since it is ultimately responsible for driving the atmosphere.

Thermodynamic properties

Two types of properties characterize the state of a system:

- **intensive, z** , (does not depend on the mass of the system); e.g. pressure, temperature
- **extensive, Z** , (depends on the mass); e.g. volume

An intensive property z may be defined from an extensive property Z , by referencing the latter to the mass of the system $z=Z/m$

The intensive property is referred to as a **specific property**.

The specific volume is an example:

V- volume, $v = V/m$ – specific volume

$$pV = mRT \quad /m$$

$$pv = RT$$

Describing the thermodynamic state of a system requires us to specify **all** of its properties.

That requirement can be relaxed for gases and other substances at normal temperatures and pressures.

A pure substance is one whose thermodynamic state is uniquely determined by any **two intensive properties** (z_1, z_2), , which are then referred to as **state variables**.

A third variable (z_3) can be determined through an equation of **state** of the form :

$$f(z_1, z_2, z_3) = 0$$

$$z_3 = g(z_1, z_2)$$

A pure substance (gas) has two thermodynamic degrees of freedom.

An ideal gas is a pure substance that has as its equation of state the **ideal gas law**.

$$p = p(v, T)$$

Thermodynamic equilibrium

A **homogeneous** system is said to be **thermodynamic equilibrium** if it is in **mechanical and in thermal equilibrium**.

A local state of thermodynamic system is described by its **intensive parameters**, like pressure and temperature.

Thermodynamic equilibrium:

- mechanical equilibrium (at most an infinitesimal pressure difference between the system and its surroundings : $p_s - p_e = \delta p$)
- thermal equilibrium (at most an infinitesimal temperature difference between the system and its surroundings : $T_s - T_e = \delta T$)

In an isolated system all internal differences of parameters disappear. The temperature and pressure become equal; the same concerns the density.

A system in which all internal differences disappear is in a state of thermodynamic equilibrium. Its thermodynamic properties don't vary in time.

A system in thermodynamic equilibrium is easier to understand than a non-equilibrated system.

In analysing thermodynamic processes we often assume that every intermediate state of the process is an equilibrium state.

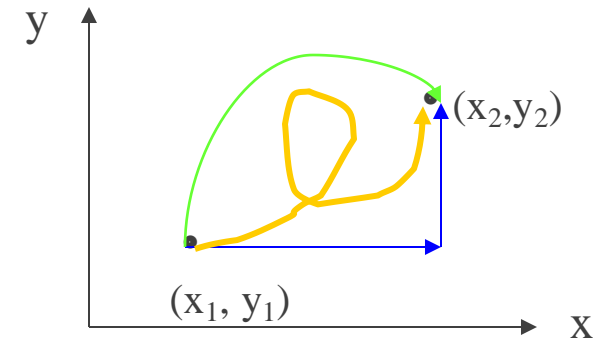
A thermodynamic process that proceeds so slowly that every intermediate state is in thermodynamic equilibrium is said a **reversible** process.

Thermodynamics addresses how a system evolves from one state to another.

The transformation of a system between two states describes a path in state space (\rightarrow **thermodynamic process**).

Infinitely many paths connect two states.

Thus, a **thermodynamic process** depends on the particular path in state space followed by the system.



The change of a **state variable** (intensive properties) depends only on the initial and final states of the system, namely, it is **path independent**.

The cyclic integral of a state variable vanishes $\oint dz = 0$:

The incremental change of a quantity $z(x, y)$ may be represented as an exact differential:

$$dz = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} dy$$

where x and y are independent variables of the system.
It is true only under certain conditions.

Consider two continuously differentiable functions $M(x, y)$ and $N(x, y)$ such that:

$$\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}$$

Under these circumstances, the quantity: $dz = M(x, y)dx + N(x, y)dy$

represents an exact differential. That is there exists a function z such that:

$$M(x, y) = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x}, \quad N(x, y) = \frac{\partial z}{\partial y}$$

$$\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} \text{ because } \left[\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x \partial y}, \quad \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x \partial y} \right]$$

in which case:

$$\int_{z(x_0, y_0)}^{z(x, y)} dz = z(x, y) - z(x_0, y_0) = \Delta z$$

$$z = z(x, y) + c$$

The variable z is a **point function**: it depends only on the evaluation point (x, y) , and its net change along a contour depends only on the initial and final points of the contour.

Thermodynamic state variables are point functions.

As properties of the system, they depend only on the system's state but not on its history.

By contrast, the **work** performed by the system and the **heat** transferred into it during a thermodynamic process **are not properties of the system**.

Work and **heat** transfer are, in general, **path functions**.

They depend on the path in state space followed by the system. The thermodynamic process must be specified to define those quantities unambiguously.

Path-dependent, **work** and **heat** transfer can differ along the forward and reverse legs of a cyclic process.

Consequently, the net **work** and **heat** transfer during a cyclic variation of the system need **not vanish**, as does the net change of a state variable.

During a cyclic variation of the system, the cumulative work and heat

$$w = \oint \delta w \quad \text{and} \quad q = \oint \delta q$$

do not return to their original positions after the system has been restored to its initial state.

Under special circumstances, the **work** performed by a system or the **heat** transferred into it **is independent** of path.

Because it is then a point function, the special form of work or heat transfer can be used as a state variable.

→ the displacement work in gravitational field is path independent (the gravitational potential Φ is then a property of the system).

→ adiabatic process.