

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21

**Using inexpensive temperature sensors to monitor the duration and heterogeneity of
snow-covered areas in complex terrain**

Jessica D. Lundquist¹

¹Civil and Environmental Engineering, University of Washington, Seattle, WA 98195

submitted March 27, 2008

to *Water Resources Research, special Measurement Methods Issue*

Corresponding author address:

Jessica D. Lundquist
Civil and Environmental Engineering
University of Washington
Seattle, WA 98195-2700
Phone: (206) 685-7594
Fax: (206) 685-3836
jdlund@u.washington.edu

1 **Abstract**

2 Small, self-recording temperature sensors can be deployed quickly and inexpensively to
3 monitor spatial and temporal patterns of snow accumulation and melt in complex
4 environments. Burying these sensors slightly below the soil surface provides a record of
5 the presence/absence of snow cover because near-surface soil temperatures only
6 experience diurnal temperature oscillations when they are not covered by an insulating
7 layer of snow.

1

2 **I. Introduction**

3 Variability in snow-covered area (SCA), i.e., snow patchiness, occurs at scales
4 ranging from one meter to many kilometers, and an accurate depiction of this spatial
5 heterogeneity of snow covered area is necessary to accurately model land surface climatic
6 feedbacks, particularly albedo, and the magnitude and timing of snowmelt runoff [*Essery*
7 *and Pomeroy, 2004; Giorgi and Avissar, 1997; Liston, 1999; Liston, 2004; Luce et al.,*
8 *1998; Skaugen, 2007*]. The spatial and temporal evolution of SCA is generally monitored
9 with satellite imagery, e.g, Landsat (30-m resolution and 16-day repeat intervals) and/or
10 MODIS (500-m resolution and daily repeat intervals), and with sparsely-located surface
11 measurements of snow depth, snow weight, and human observations. Fractional SCA at
12 scales smaller than these observational scales is generally parameterized with a snow-
13 cover depletion scheme, many of which are summarized by *Essery and Pomeroy* [2004].
14 To provide ground truth information about the spatial extent and timing of snowcover at
15 these sub-grid scales requires a multitude of spatially-distributed measurements that can
16 operate at higher resolution and frequency than satellite images, including operating
17 during cloud cover. To achieve this, instrumentation must be robust and inexpensive, be
18 easy to construct and install in remote regions, and need infrequent site visits.

19

20 **II. Temperature-sensed snow cover**

21 Temperature sensors placed 2-20 cm beneath the soil surface provide not only an
22 indication of soil temperatures and frozen ground but, when distributed, also provide
23 spatial representations of the presence-absence of snow cover. *Tyler et al. [2008]* used

1 fiber-optic distributed temperature sensing (DTS) technology to obtain basal snow
2 temperatures at resolutions of 1 m, 10 s, and 0.1°C in both California and Idaho. They
3 observed uniform basal snow temperatures of 0°C and highly-varying diurnal ground
4 temperatures in snow-free areas. While fiber-optic cable costs as little as 50-cents per
5 meter, the entire set-up, including DTS technology, costs over \$30,000. Here, we present
6 a lower-cost alternative.

7 Self-recording temperature sensors, such as Maxim iButtons [Hubbart *et al.*, 2005]
8 and Onset Tidbits, Pendants, and HOBOs [Whiteman *et al.*, 2000], have prices ranging
9 from approximately \$30 to \$100, with an accuracy of better than ± 0.5 °C and an ability to
10 record hourly data for a duration of about a year or more. Many of these sensors are
11 waterproof and can be submerged in lakes and streams (e.g., Onset Tidbits), while others
12 are water resistant and must be protected from corrosion if placed in contact with water
13 for long periods of time (e.g., Maxim iButtons, Figure 1).

14 Soil temperature sensors were wrapped in thin plastic (Figure 1) to prevent corrosion,
15 buried 2 to 20 cm beneath the surface (mainly for protection from rodents), and tied to a
16 nearby tree trunk or root with a nylon cord to aid in finding the sensor again. Sensors
17 were buried at least 0.5 m from the tree trunk to avoid monitoring the “tree well effect,”
18 where snow immediately adjacent to the trunk melts first in the spring, due to enhanced
19 longwave radiation. Sensor locations were identified with GPS coordinates, photographs,
20 and drawings, and sensors were retrieved, and data downloaded, a year later.

21 Snow-cover insulates the ground, so snow-covered temperature sensors record a
22 steady near-0°C temperature. The rest of the year, soil temperatures oscillate with
23 diurnal cycles in temperature, providing a clear record of when snow is or is not present

1 at a site (Figure 2). A transect of ground-based temperatures situated at the base of
2 different densities of trees along the Tioga Road in Yosemite National Park indicates that
3 snow cover lasts 11 to 19 days longer under dense clumps of trees than under isolated
4 trees in the Sierra (Figure 2), likely due to a combination of enhanced shading from solar
5 radiation and deeper snow drifts. Patchy, shallow snow cover resulted in damped
6 temperature oscillations, as observed in December under the single tree in Tuolumne
7 Meadows and Tioga Pass (Figure 2c and 2d).

8 Because the insulating effect of snow cover is so great, the sensors used to detect the
9 location and duration of snow cover don't need to be particularly precise or accurate, e.g.
10 a flat line at 1°C through the winter could be interpreted to be snow cover over a sensor
11 biased 1°C too warm, thus keeping costs low. These soil temperature sensors could be
12 distributed in any configuration to test a multitude of hypotheses, ranging from the timing
13 of snow cover in zones receiving both solid and liquid winter precipitation, to spatial
14 patterns of snow-vegetation feedbacks, such as seedling growth and development.

15

16 **III. Acknowledgements**

17 This work was supported by a Canon National Parks Science Scholarship, by a
18 University of Colorado, CIRES Innovative Research Grant, by the National Science
19 Foundation under Grant No. CBET-0729838, and by the National Oceanographic and
20 Atmospheric Administration under Award No. NA17RJ1232. Thank you to Brian
21 Huggett for help placing sensors and to the dedicated and professional staff of the
22 Resource Management and Science and Wilderness divisions of the Yosemite National
23 Park Service for their support of this work within the park.

1

2 **IV. References**

3 Essery, R. and J. Pomeroy (2004), Implications of spatial distributions of snow mass and
4 melt rate for snow-cover depletion: theoretical considerations, *Annals of Glaciology*,
5 38, 261-265.

6 Giorgi, F. and R. Avissar (1997), Representation of heterogeneity effects in Earth system
7 modeling: experience from land surface modeling, *Reviews of Geophysics*, 35, 413-
8 438.

9 Hubbart, J., T. Link, C. Campbell, and D. Cobos (2005), Evaluation of a low-cost
10 temperature measurement system for environmental applications. *Hydrol. Process.*
11 19, 1517–1523.

12 Liston, G.E. (1999), Interrelationships among snow distribution, snowmelt, and snow
13 cover depletion, implications for atmospheric, hydrologic and ecologic modeling, *J.*
14 *Appl. Meteorol.*, 38, 1474-1487.

15 Liston, G. E. (2004), Representing subgrid snow cover heterogeneities in regional and
16 global models, *J. Climate*, 17, 1381-1397.

17 Luce, C. H., Tarboton, D. G., and Cooley, K. R. (1998), The influence of spatial
18 distribution of snow on basin-averaged snowmelt, *Hydrol. Processes*, 12, 1671-1683.

19 Skaugen, T. (2007), Modeling the spatial variability of snow water equivalent at the
20 catchment scale. *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.*, 11, 1543-1550.

21 Tyler, S. W., S. A. Burak, J. P. McNamara, A. Lamontagne, J. S. Selker, and J. Dozier
22 (2008), Spatially distributed temperatures at the base of two mountain snowpacks
23 measured with fiber optic sensors, *submitted to J. Glaciology* .

- 1 Whiteman, C. D., J. M. Hubbe, and W. J. Shaw (2000), Evaluation of an inexpensive
- 2 temperature datalogger for meteorological applications, *J. Atm. Oceanic Tech.*, 17,
- 3 77-81.

1

2 **V. Figure Captions**

3 **Figure 1** iButton (Maxim DS1922L) wrapped in plastic wrap (or press-n-seal) ready to
4 be buried in the ground below a tree,

5 **Figure 2** Hourly temperature data from sensors deployed 5 cm below the soil surface at
6 (a) Hodgedon Meadow, 1500 m elevation, (b) Porcupine Flat, 2500 m, (c) Tuolumne
7 Meadows, 2600 m, and (d) Tioga Pass, 3000 m, below a single tree and a dense group of
8 trees for water year 2005-2006. Note: The temperature record from the single tree at
9 each site has been shifted up by 20°C to more clearly illustrate when the diurnal
10 temperature fluctuations start and stop at each location.

1

2 **VI. Figures**

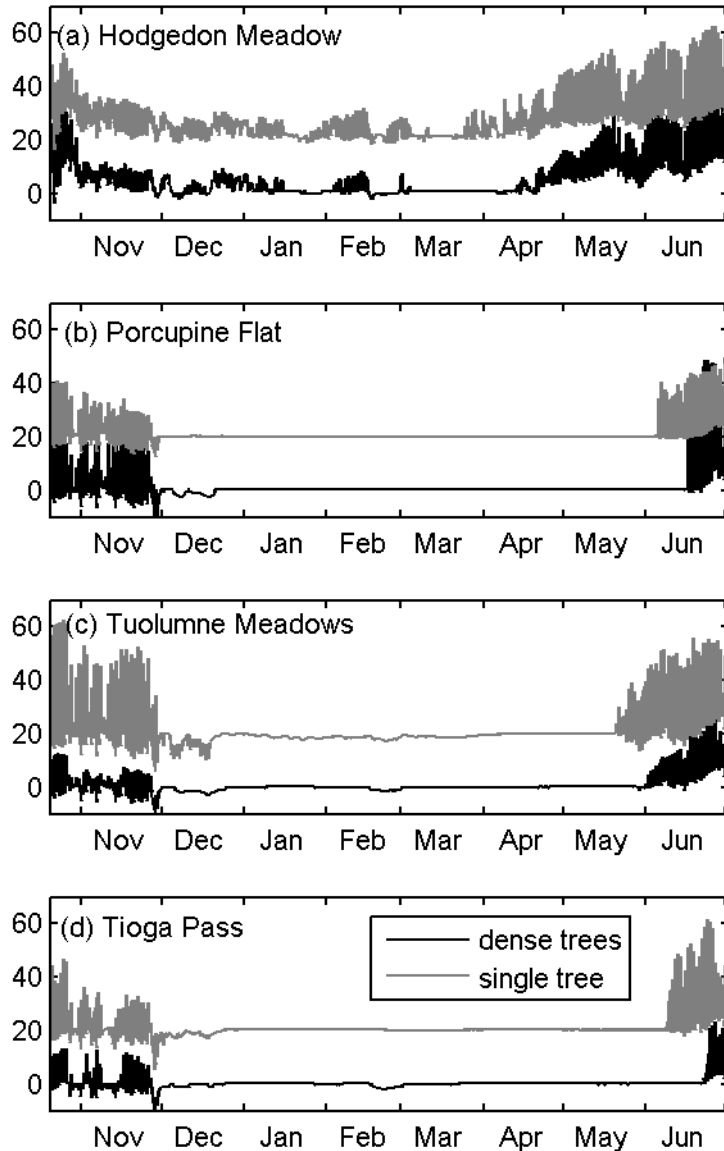
3



4

5 **Figure 1** iButton (Maxim DS1922L) wrapped in plastic wrap (or press-n-seal) ready to

6 be buried in the ground below a tree,



1

2 **Figure 2** Hourly temperature data from sensors deployed 5 cm below the soil surface at
3 (a) Hodgedon Meadow, 1500 m elevation, (b) Porcupine Flat, 2500 m, (c) Tuolumne
4 Meadows, 2600 m, and (d) Tioga Pass, 3000 m, below a single tree and a dense group of
5 trees for water year 2005-2006. Note: The temperature record from the single tree at
6 each site has been shifted up by 20°C to more clearly illustrate when the diurnal
7 temperature fluctuations start and stop at each location.