
Impact and implications of climate variability and change on glacier mass balance in Kenya

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Declaration

I confirm that this is my own work and the use of all material from other sources has been properly and fully acknowledged.

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Abstract

Kenya's economy relies heavily on the agricultural industry as its main source of economy. Glaciers provide a large store of freshwater and modelling of the meltwater associated with this is of great interest to water management. With growing concern over the impact of glacier retreat on runoff and stream flow, this study aims to simulate runoff from the tropical Lewis Glacier in Central Kenya and its impacts on runoff due to climate variability.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Background

Kenya relies heavily on its natural resources to generate income. High altitude, fertile soils and abundance of precipitation (1000mm) in Central and Western Kenya make it the ideal place for growing tea and coffee, two of Kenya's highest GDP earners. Other agricultural goods such as horticulture and sugar cane also rely heavily on water availability. The impacts on water resources in Kenya due to climate variability are thus of great importance.

Mount Kenya is located on the equator in East Africa with the two highest peaks, Batian and Nelion, reaching about 5,200 m. It lies at the apex of three water sheds, Uasin Nyiro, Tana and Rift Valley catchments as per the map below. According to Young & Hastenrath (1991), there are total of 11 glaciers on Mount Kenya, of which the Lewis and Tyndall glaciers are the two largest and most studied. In this study, the focus will be on the modelling of the mass balance of the Lewis Glacier as it covers the largest area of 0.31 km².

In high mountainous catchments, glaciers represent the most important



Figure 1.1: Kenya and major catchments (World Resources Institute)

balance can be predicted for catchments containing advancing or retreating glaciers (Bienn and Evans (1998)).

1.2 Goals

The aims of this study are:

1. To model the mass balance profile of the Lewis Glacier using baseline and climate change data; and
2. To assess the effects of the change in glacier mass balance on downstream water resources

1.3 Outline

The outline of the dissertation is as follows:

In the second chapter the study approach, an introduction to the glacier model, the hydrological model and data sets used are discussed.

In Chapter 3, the glacier model based on Kaser (2001) and Kaser and Osmaston (2002) is developed.

Results of the study are presented in Chapter 4.

Finally, Chapter 5 summarises the findings of the study along with caveats and further work is proposed.

Chapter 2

Experimental Design

This is the chapter where I describe the models and data sets used.

1. Glacier model
2. Mac-PDM model
3. Data Basis

2.1 The Study Approach

tion and ablation gradients. The mass balance profile is proportional to the size of the glacier and hence we can estimate the volume of water stored in the glacier may be estimated. Converting the glacier into the water equivalent, the meltwater runoff can be added to average runoff in each grid cell that the glacier occurs in.

2.3 The Hydrological Model - Mac-PDM

Background

A macro-scale model is one which can be applied repeatedly over a large geographic domain and does not need to be calibrated at the catchment scale. According to Arnell (1999a), the model was first developed to be used by hydrologists to simulate the effects of climate change in East Africa (Arnell (1999b)), where observed data is scarce, and later extended to cover the whole world.

The hydrological model was used to simulate runoff in Kenya using Climatic Research Unit (CRU) dataset for present day data from 1961 - 1990, while climate change projections came from 5 different models, CCMA-CGCM31, IPSL-CM4, MPI-ECHAM5, NCAR-CCSM30 and UKMO-HADCM3 using the A1B emission scenario from the International Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) 1997 reports.

Mac-PDM Hydrological Model

The Mac-PDM Model as explained by Arnell (1999a, 2003) is described below.

The hydrological model used is a conceptual water balance model working on a time step of one day, with the following basic structure:

$$\frac{dS}{dt} = P - E - D - Q$$

where P , E , D and Q are precipitation, evaporation, delayed runoff and direct runoff during the time interval t , respectively. dS is the change in storage of water in soil, lakes and wetlands over the time t .

Stream flow is simulated at a spatial resolution of $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ (or 2000 km^2), treating each grid cell as an independent catchment. Input parameters are assumed to be constant across the entire grid cell while soil moisture stor-

achieved by statistically varying the soil moisture storage capacity in each grid cell.

Actual evaporation (AE) is a linear function of potential evaporation (PE) and average cell soil moisture content. When field capacity (FC) is reached, actual evaporation is less than the potential evaporation and can be summarised as

Parameter	Description	Source
T_{crit}	Temperature threshold for snowfall and snowmelt	0° C - Fixed
Melt	Melt rate	4 mm °C ⁻¹ d ⁻¹) Fixed
b	Parameter describing distribution of soil moisture capacity	0.25 Fixed
Sat	Saturation capacity in %	Function of soil texture and vegetation
FC	Field capacity in %	Function of soil texture and vegetation
RFF	fraction of cell that is not "not grass"	Function of vegetation type
	Interception capacity	Function of vegetation type
	Parameters of interception model	Fixed
Root depth	Depth of vegetation used to define saturation and field capacity in absolute terms	Function of vegetation type
LAI	Leaf area index used in Penman-Monteith	Function of vegetation type
r_s	Stomatal conductance used in Penman-Monteith	Function of vegetation type
H_c	Vegetational roughness height used in Penman-Monteith	Function of vegetation type
S_{rout}	Routing parameter for direct runoff	Fixed
G_{rout}	Routing parameter for delayed runoff	Fixed

Each grid cell is classified according to a soil type based on United Nations Food and Agriculture (FOA) data. Soil type is important as soil moisture storage is a function of texture.

To account for variations in seasons, a sine curve is fitted to maximum and minimum monthly temperatures with an additional random deviation of 2° around the sine curve to simulate fluctuations in daily temperature.

2.4 Emission Scenarios Data Sets

The climate change data is based upon the pattern scaling technique. The scenarios have been developed using ClimGen. The data for 5 GCMs, for the A1B emissions scenario, for 2040-2069. The scenarios used are for the patterns of climate change associated with 5 different General Circulation Models (GCM). The 5 models are (modelling institution and model version):

IPSL CM4

CCCMA CGCM31

UKMO HadCM3

MPI ECHAM5

NCAR CCSM30

The A1B scenario family describes a future world of very rapid economic growth, global population that peaks in mid-century and declines thereafter, and the rapid introduction of new and more efficient technologies. Major underlying themes are convergence among regions, capacity building and increased cultural and social interactions, with a substantial reduction in regional differences in per capita income. The A1 scenario family develops into three groups that describe alternative directions of technological change in the energy system. The three A1 groups are distinguished by their technological emphasis: fossil intensive (A1FI), non-fossil energy sources (A1T), or a balance across all sources (A1B) (where balanced is defined as not relying too heavily on one particular energy source, on the assumption that similar improvement rates apply to all energy supply and end-use technologies) (UNEP, 2001)

Chapter 3

The Lewis Glacier Model

3.1 Background

Modelling of glaciers (prediction of meltwater driven stream flow) has been regarded as a valuable tool for efficient water resource management. As a result, several models have been developed. According to Hock (2005), the range of models used to forecast meltwater production from glaciers ranges from energy-balance models to temperature-index models and several mixtures of the two.

Glaciers can be classed into three broad categories, each with unique characteristics: polar glaciers, midlatitude glaciers and tropical glaciers.

2. the region experiences net heating: incoming solar radiation is greater than outgoing terrestrial radiation;
3. sea surface temperatures exceed 24° C; and
4. the diurnal cycle of temperature exceeds the annual cycle (no seasonal variation except for oscillating 'wet' and 'dry' periods defined by precipitation).

Mount Kenya thus clearly falls within the tropics and the glacier modelled accordingly.

Mass Balance can be measured in one of four ways:

The amount of annual ablation and accumulation varies systematically with altitude. The rate at which annual ablation and accumulation change with altitude are termed ablation gradient and accumulation gradient, respectively. Together they define the mass balance gradient.

Mass balance gradients link climatic conditions on ablation and accumulation with glacier behaviour and is therefore an important measure of glacier activity (Bienn and Evans, 1998). Ablation gradients vary approximately linearly with altitude, being highest at the snout and decreasing with altitude because temperature declines with higher altitude at a lapse rate of 0.0065 K m^{-1} . Conversely, accumulation generally increases with altitude, rising from zero at the equilibrium line (ELA). ELA is the altitude at which ablation is equal to accumulation and hence net mass balance is zero. According to Kaser (2001) and Kaser and Osmaston (2002), the ELA is more or less equal to the altitude at which the air temperature is 0° C at the inner tropics.

3.3 The Model

The model described below is based on the vertical mass balance gradient compiled by Kuhn (1980) and further developed by Kaser (2001) and Kaser and Osmaston (2002).

The specific mass budget b at any altitude z on a glacier over a specific period, usually one year, is made up of the sum of specific accumulation $c(z)$ and specific ablation $a(z)$

$$b(z) = c(z) + a(z): \quad (3.1)$$

This is also true for the vertical mass balance gradient

$$\frac{db}{dz} = \frac{\partial c}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial a}{\partial z} \quad (3.2)$$

with $c(z)$ positive, $a(z)$ negative and z positive vertically upward.

Ablation is made up of meltwater runoff $m(z)$ and the sublimation process $s(z)$ into the atmosphere, Both are governed by latent heat fluxes $Q_M(z)$ for melting and $Q_L(z)$ for sublimation. Thus specific ablation is

$$a(z) = m(z) + s(z) = - (z) \left[\frac{1}{L_M} Q_M(z) \right] + \frac{1}{L_S} Q_L(z) \quad (3.3)$$

with the heat of fusion $L_M = 0.334$ in $[\text{MJ kg}^{-1}]$, the heat of sublimation $L_S = 2.835$ in $[\text{MJ kg}^{-1}]$, and the duration of the ablation season Δt , counted in days [d].

The heat balance on the surface of the glacier is given by

$$Q_M(z) + Q_L(z) + Q_R(z) + Q_S(z) = 0 \quad [\text{MJ m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}] + [\text{MJ m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}] + [\text{MJ m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}] + [\text{MJ m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}] \quad (3.4)$$

where $Q_R(z)$ is the heat flux resulting from the radiation balance and $Q_S(z)$ is the sensible heat flux. If $Q_M(z)$ is replaced with the help of (3.4), then specific ablation becomes

$$a(z) = - (z) \left[\frac{1}{L_M} (Q_R(z) + Q_S(z)) + \frac{1}{L_S} - \frac{1}{L_M} \right] Q_L(z) \quad (3.5)$$

The sensible heat flux $Q_S(z)$ is derived from the heat transfer coefficient for turbulent exchange h_s in $[\text{MJ m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1} \text{°C}^{-1}]$ and the difference in temperature between the atmosphere and the surface of the glacier $(T_a(z) - T_s(z))$ in [K]

$$Q_S(z) = h_s (T_a(z) - T_s(z)) \quad (3.6)$$

The radiation balance is composed of the absorbed portion of the global (shortwave) radiation $G(z)(1 - r(z))$, the atmospheric incoming longwave radiation $A(z) - r$

Taking a reference level z_{ref} where $T_a = 273.15 \text{ K} = 0^\circ\text{C}$, which is equal to the 0°C level during the ablation period and taking into account the following assumptions:

the surface temperature $T_s = 273.15 \text{ K} = 0^\circ\text{C}$ over the entire glacier,

the vertical gradient of the effective global radiation is $\partial G(1 - r)/\partial z = 0$, and

the vertical gradient of the latent heat flux is $\partial Q_L/\partial z = 0$,

$$4\pi\sigma T_a^3 = R$$

then the vertical ablation gradient at z_{ref} is

$$\partial a$$

and air temperature, and the duration of the ablation period. The possible influences of the remaining heat balance key variables and their dependency on the vertical variations of the length of the ablation period are ignored here.

Note: This equation describes the variation of the specific mass balance with altitude (and thus the mass balance profile) under the assumption that it depends entirely on the vertical gradients of the accumulation, ablation and air temperature, and the duration of the ablation period. The possible influences of the remaining heat balance key variables and their dependency on the vertical variations of the length of the ablation period are ignored here.

The vertical mass balance profile in the tropics

The above model was first used on Hintereisferner in Switzerland from climatic data under the assumptions of equilibrium conditions and then compared with a measured profile to form a model for the midlatitudes, with the aim of developing a simple formulation that could be transferred to the postulated climatic differences in the tropical regions.

One of the foremost patterns to note is that the ablation period in tropical regions is assumed $\tau = 365$ days per year everywhere on the glacier and below the z_{ref} (due to the absence of distinct seasons as per the mid to high latitudes (since the fluctuation in seasonal temperature does not exceed the diurnal temperature)). This implies that $\partial \tau / \partial z = 0$, which in turn makes

The average values for the parameters used in the model calculation are

cient since all the terms in equation 3.13 are linear. A Runge Kutta scheme could be used to discretize the differential if the vertical accumulation gradient is assumed to be non linear or if the scheme is applied to midlatitude glaciers where the ablation term becomes non linear since $\partial b / \partial z = 0.1$.

m^{-2} and 1200 kg m^{-2} when compared with the baseline profile (top line).

4.2 Mass Balance and Volume of Glacier

Having determined the optimum parameter values for the model, the volume of the glacier was determined by multiplying the specific mass balance at each elevation band with the corresponding area that the glacier occupied at that level. However, the area occupied by the glacier can only be inferred from observation. At present, there is no way of predicting the area occupied by a glacier in the future apart from statistical inference of present data.

The observed area covered by the glacier was used to project when the glacier would cease to exist using linear regression. It was assumed that the area of the glacier would continue to decrease since the model predicts negative mass balance trends. As suggested by Figure 4.3, the Lewis Glacier will cease to exist in 2039 if the linear regression line is used to predict future changes in area of the glacier.

The relationship between specific mass balance, meltwater and area of the Lewis Glacier is summarised in Figure 4.4. The volume of the glacier is directly proportional to the potential runoff from the glacier. Negative mass balance coupled with decreasing area of the glacier implies that meltwater from the glacier also decreases.

4.3 Implications of Surface Runoff and Glacier Melt

To analyse the implications of glacier meltwater downstream from the glacier, average annual runoff from the hydrological model for the grid cell was added to the meltwater and then divided by 2000 km^2 to get the runoff per square km. The Lewis Glacier has a south east aspect and average annual runoff from 8 grid cells adjacent to the east, south and south east of Mount Kenya grid cell were used to analyse the effect of the glacier downstream.

It is clear from the figures above, that as the size of the catchment is increased, the impact of the glacier on runoff generation decreases. Infact, it

has little effect on the runoff from baseline 1961 - 1990 data and no effect on runoff for projected climate change scenario using 2010 - 2039 IPSL data (Figure 4.6).

The glacier presently occupies 0.31 km², which accounts for 0.0155% of the grid cell. As per the analyses above, this area is projected to decrease even further and hence runoff generated from the meltwater of the glacier has little effect on the catchment area. As per Figures 4.5 and 4.6 below, it can be seen that as the size of the catchment is increased, the meltwater from the glacier has no impact on the runoff generated in adjacent grid cells.

4.4 Climate variability and Runoff

From the above analyses, it was noted that the Lewis Glacier has little or no effect on average annual runoff. The following figures show changes to runoff in Kenya due to climate variability using the 5 models, CCMA CGCM31, IPSL CM4, MPI ECHAM5, UKMO HADCM3, and NCAR CCM30 which are based on IPCC SRES emission scenario A1B for the years 2040 - 2069.

Figure 4.7 shows the average annual runoff between 1961 and 1990. It shows higher runoff in the Rift Valley, Central Kenya, West Kenya and the Coast. Average runoff in the North and North East of the country is less than half of that in other parts. The model shows that there is highest runoff in the Mount Kenya region.

The CCMA CGCM31 model shows the highest increase in average runoff by 105% for most parts of Kenya and in particular the Rift Valley Region. In contrast, the MPI ECHAM5 model simulates decrease in runoff in Western Kenya by 15% and an increase in runoff in Eastern Kenya. All the models show a decrease in runoff at the coast between 5 and 15% except NCAR CCM30.

This bodes well for agricultural sector since tea and coffee farms are located in the highlands (Central Kenya) and horticultural farms are located in the Rift Valley.

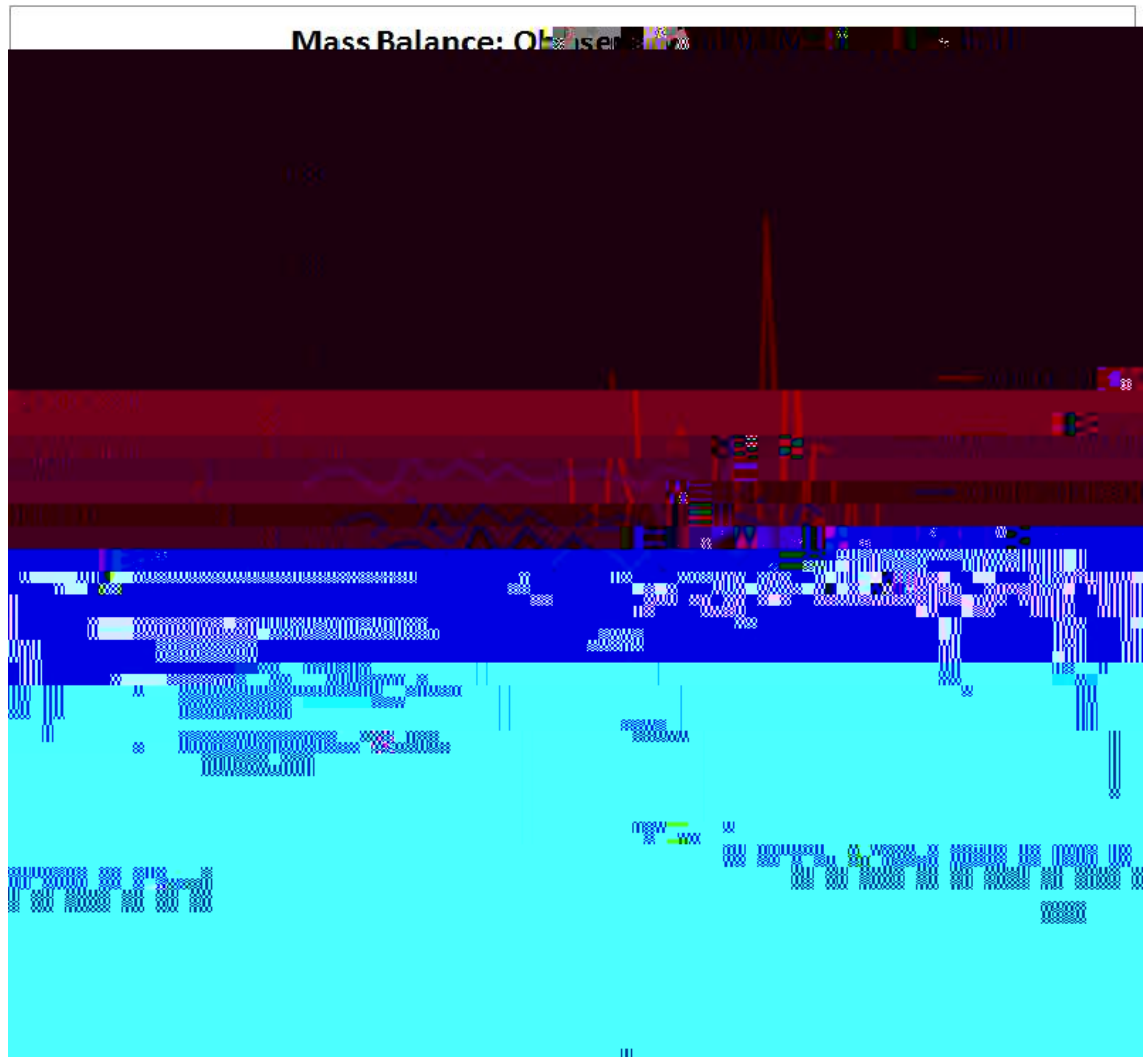


Figure 4.1: Observed and simulated mass balance profiles.

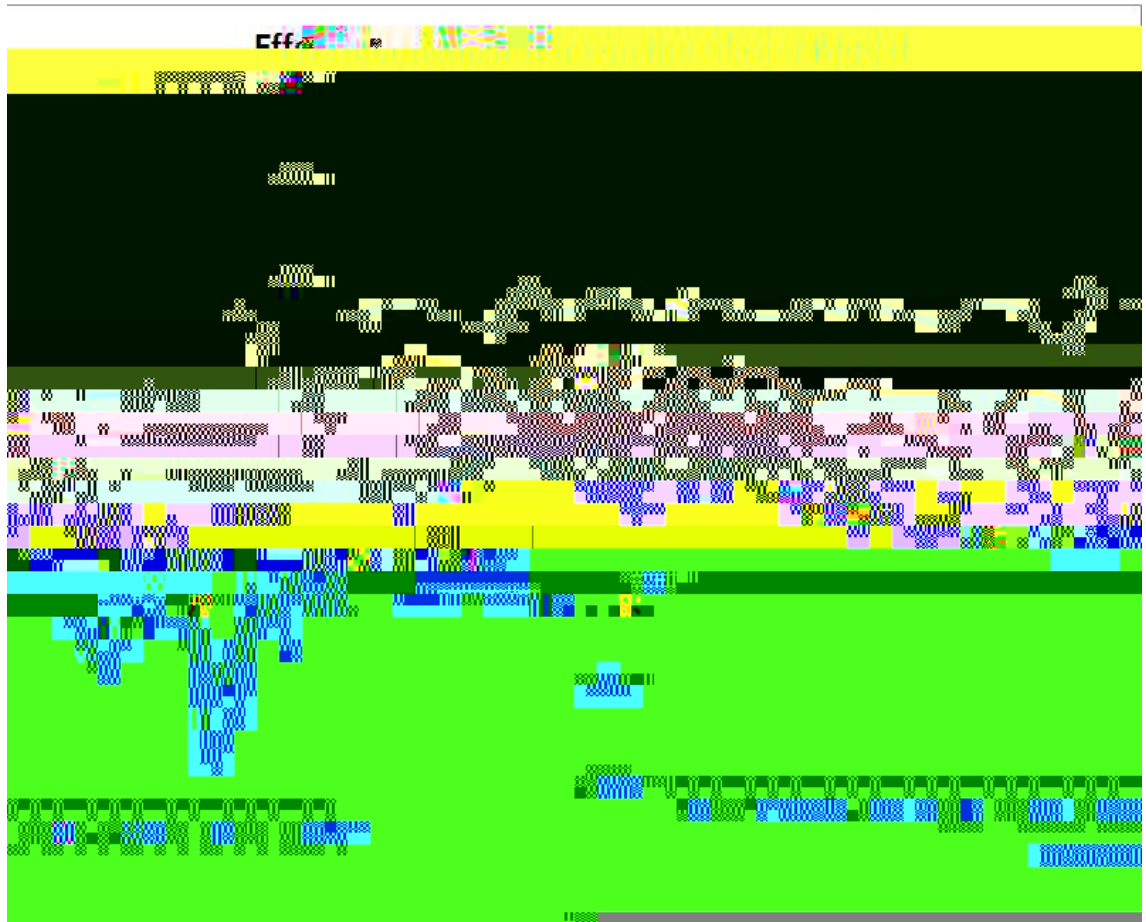


Figure 4.2: Specific mass balance profile simulations with different climate change projections.

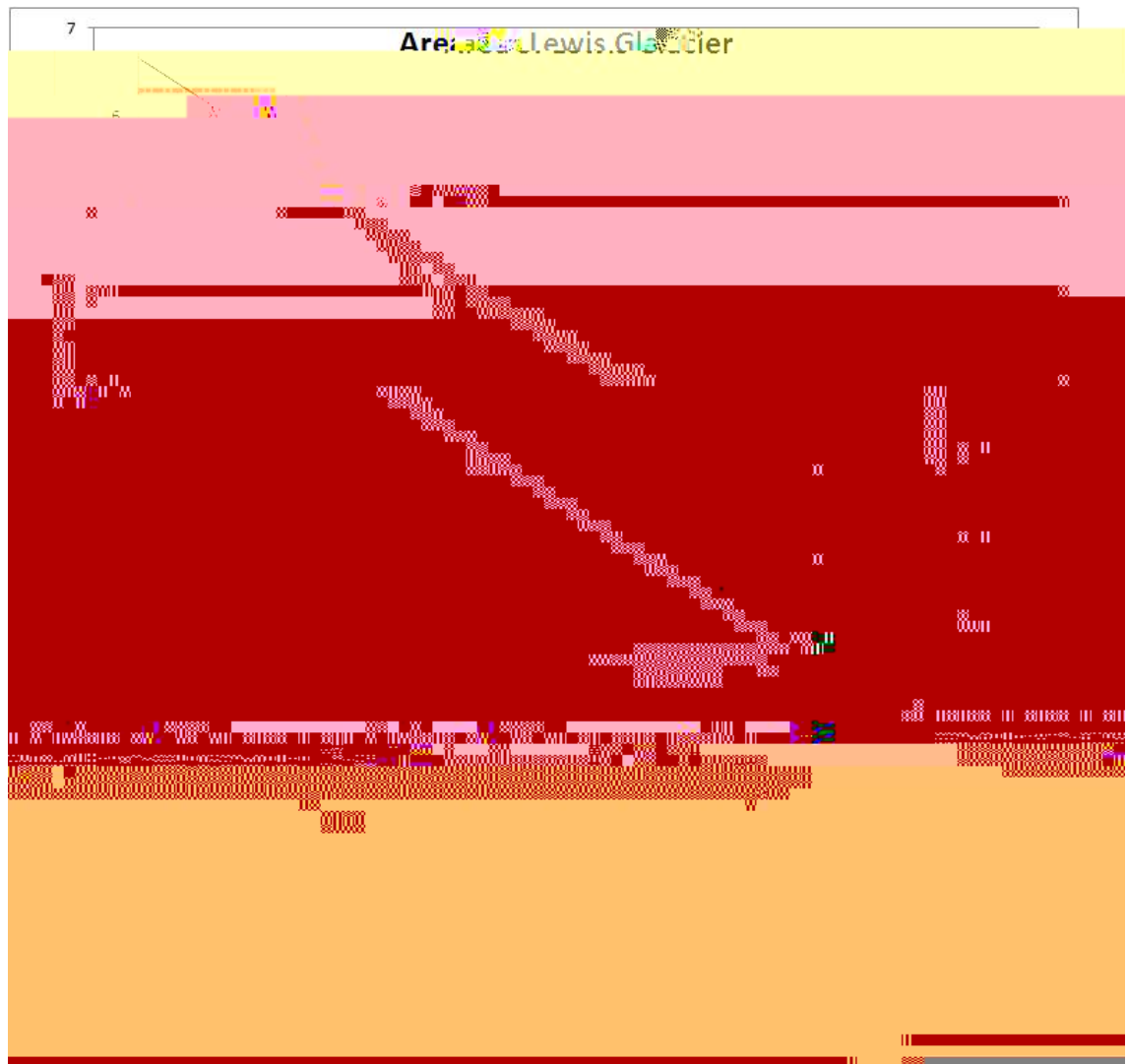


Figure 4.3: Projected area of Lewis Glacier over time.

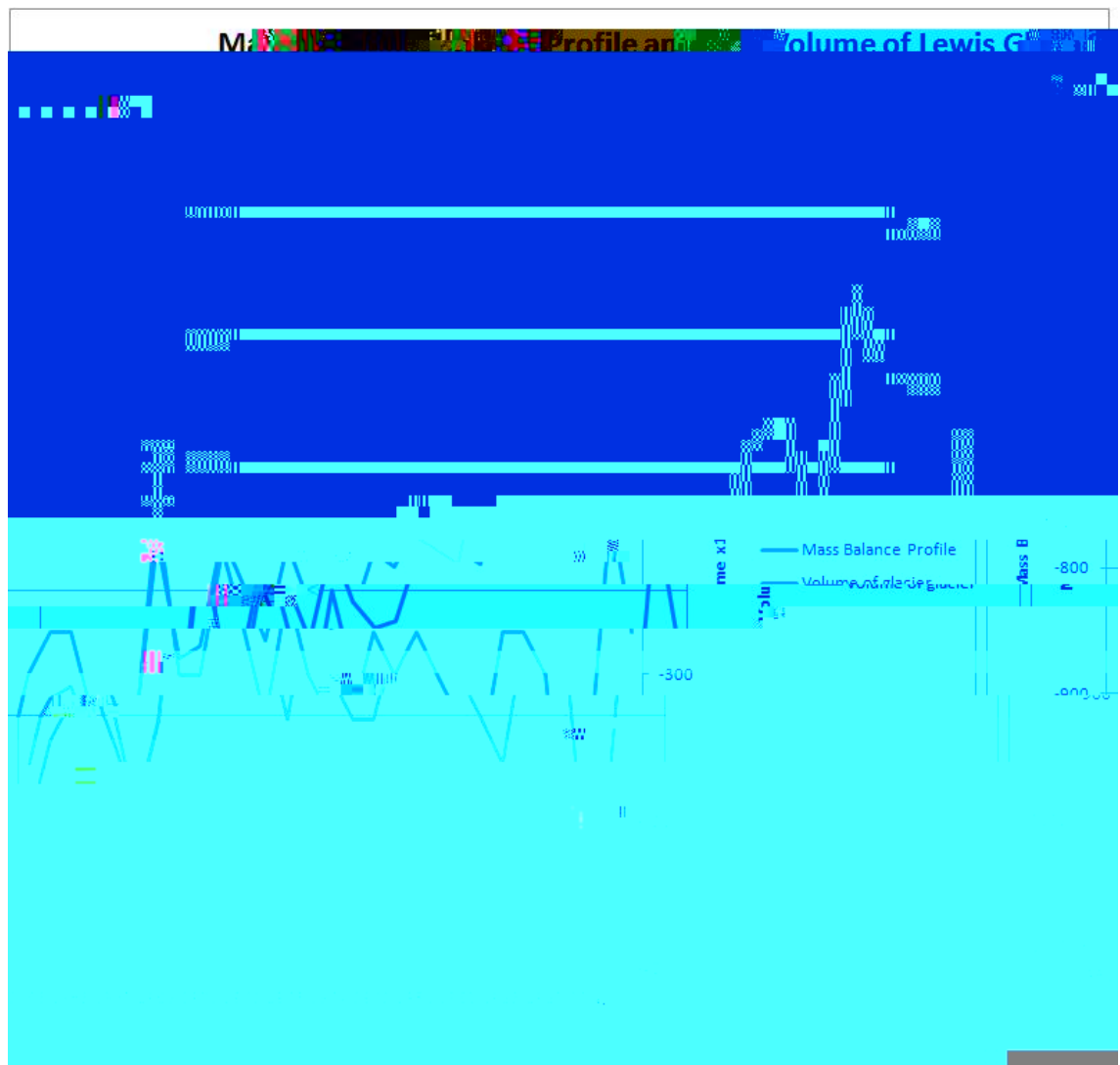


Figure 4.4: Change in volume of glacier.

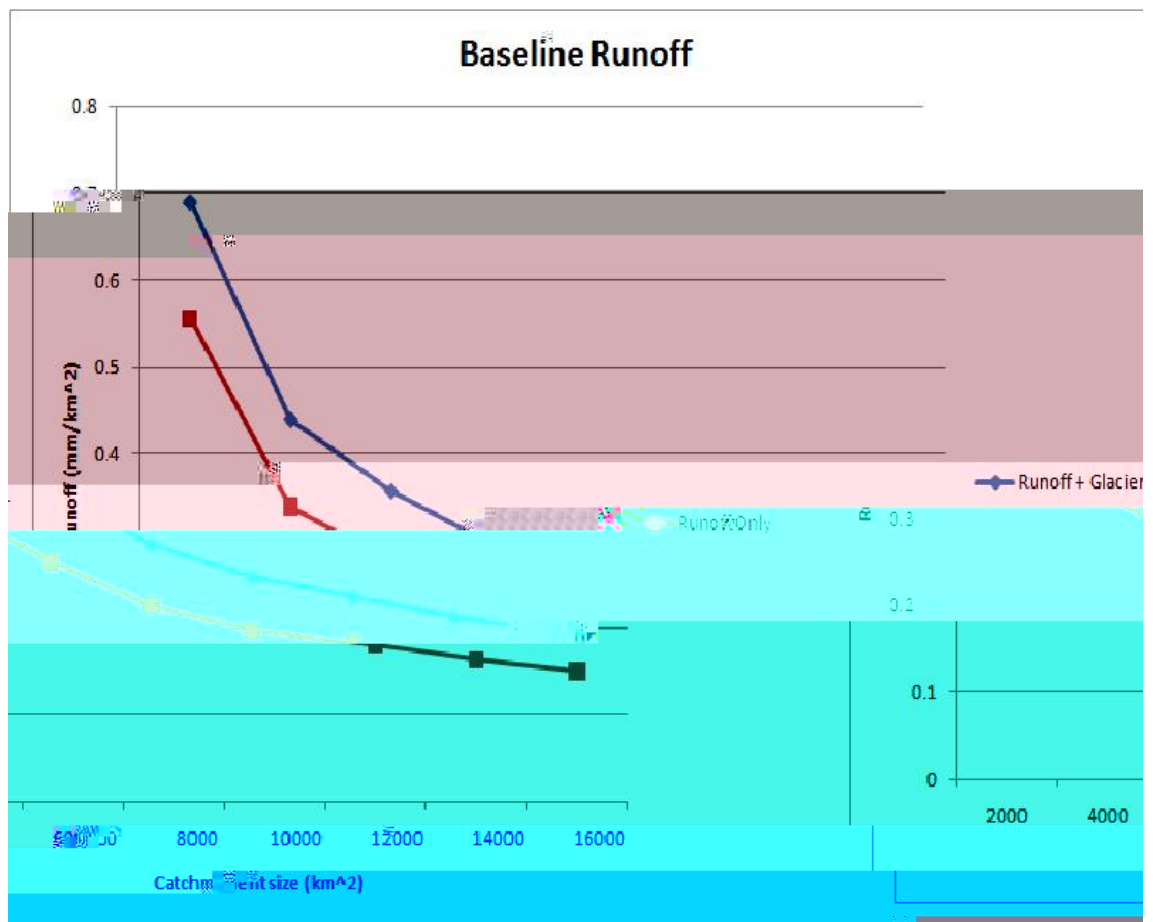


Figure 4.5: Effect of glacier on runoff and surrounding catchment for current climate.

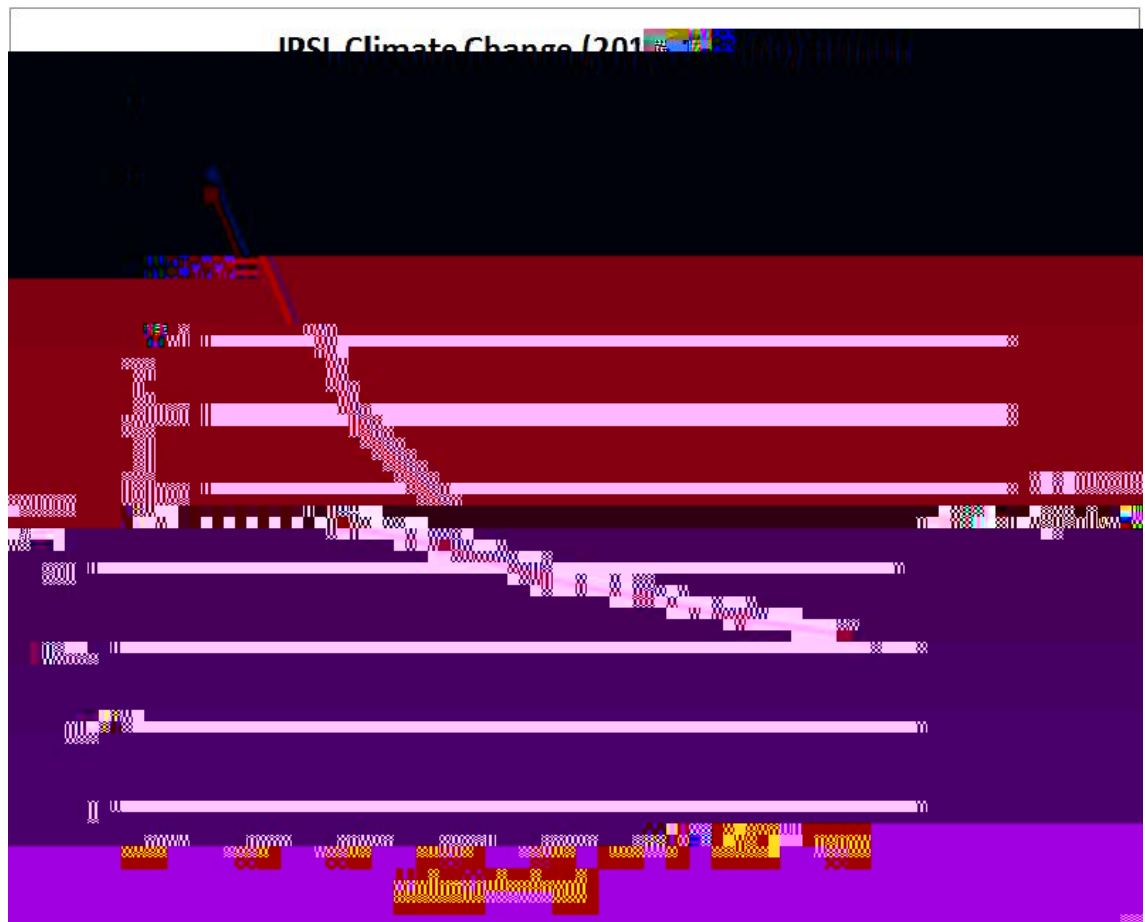


Figure 4.6: Effect of glacier on runoff and surrounding catchment for future climate.

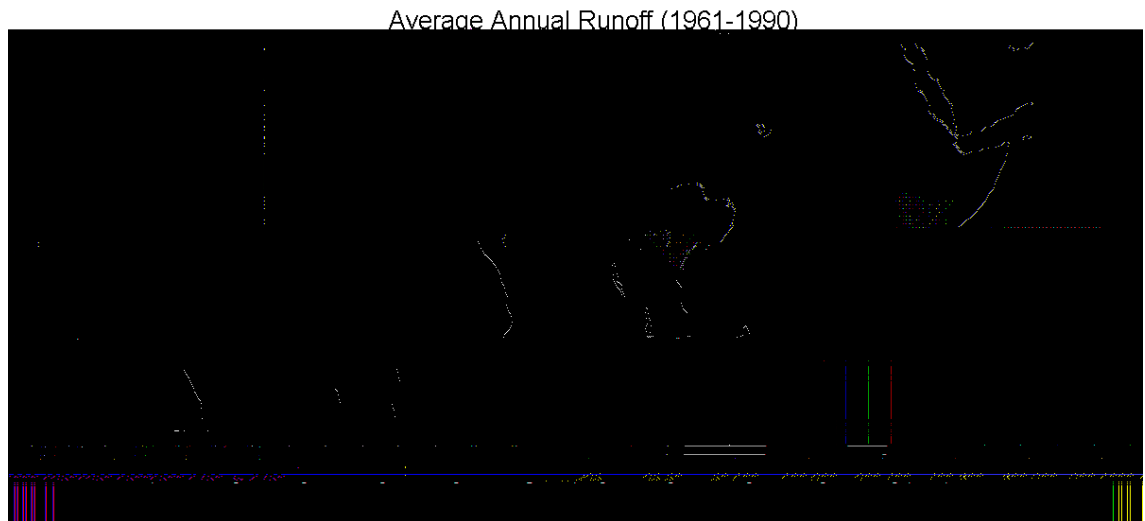


Figure 4.7: Average annual runoff simulation for baseline data (1961 - 1990).

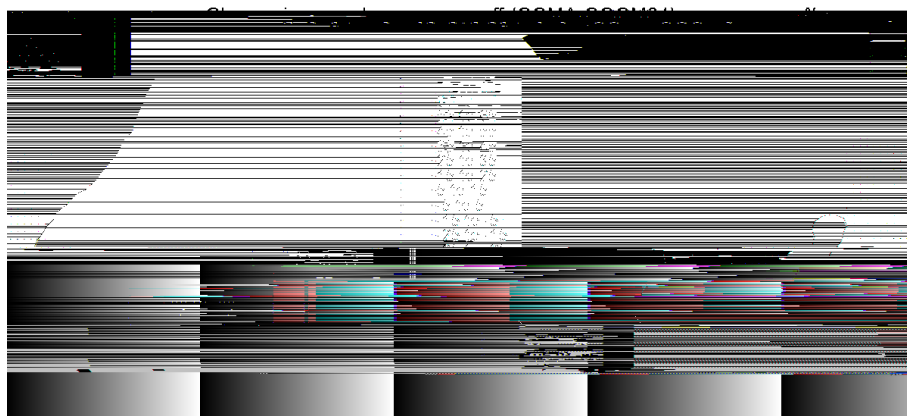


Figure 4.8: Percentage change in annual average runoff for CCMA CGCM31 model.

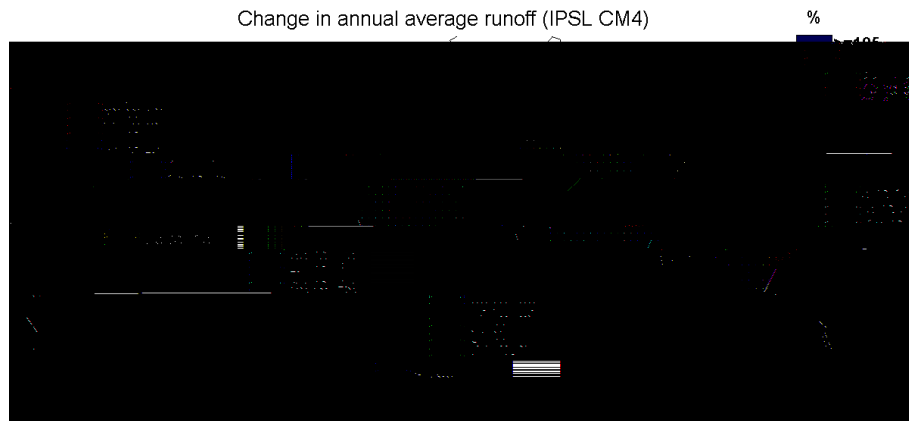


Figure 4.9: Percentage change in annual average runoff for IPSL CM4 model.

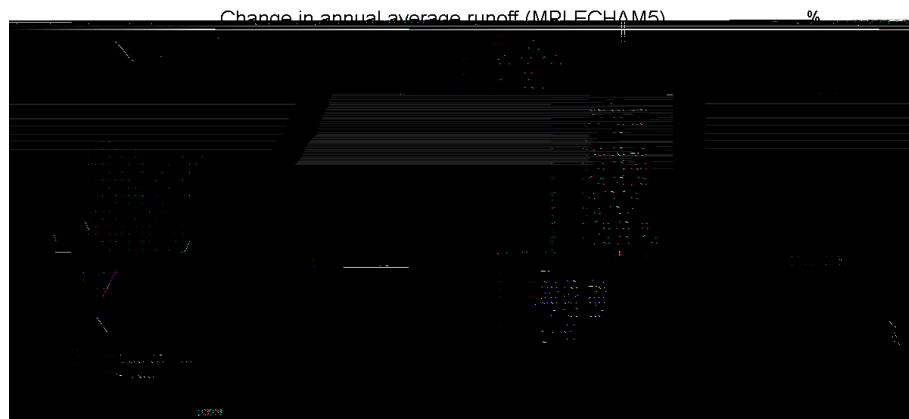


Figure 4.10: Percentage change in annual average runoff for MPI ECHAM5 model.

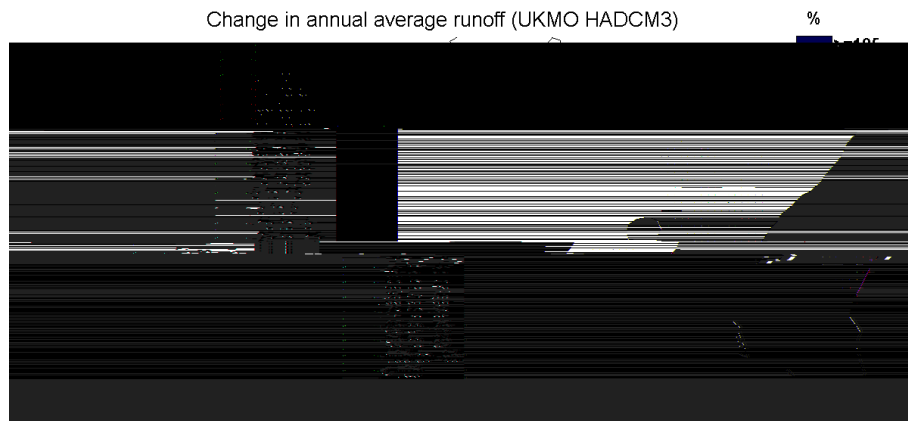


Figure 4.11: Percentage change in annual average runoff for UKMO HADCM3 model.

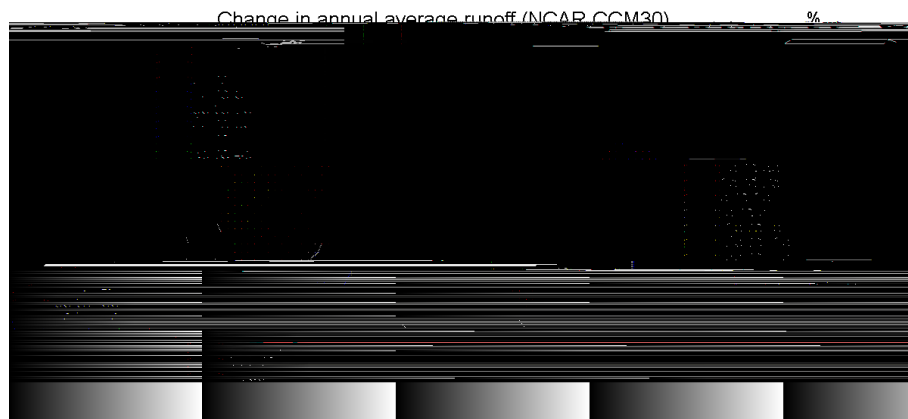


Figure 4.12: Percentage change in annual average runoff for NCAR CCM30 model.

Chapter 5

Discussion and Summary

5.1 Caveats

Caveats are associated with all components of the study - the glacier model, the hydrological model, and in climate variability projections.

One of the key limitations of all the models is that estimation of current and future mass balance profiles and runoff is based on simulated data and not on observations. Therefore, any bias in the simulation model will lead to a bias in the projected changes (Arnell, 2004).

The glacier model does not simulate the specific mass balance to the cor-

may also see an increase in runoff which may relieve stress on the people living in this semi-arid region at present.

5.3 Further Work

Due to time constraints and problems encountered during the study, the following work could not be investigated but would add value to the study::

- { Extend the simulations to other tropical glaciers and the effect of climate variability on runoff from glacier melt;
- { Develop a method to predict the change in the area covered by the glacier based on physical concepts; and
- { Incorporate the glacier model into the hydrological model to account for glacier meltwater contributions to stream flow at the global level;

Other investigations could be based on the socio-economic impacts of melting of tropical and other glaciers, including changes in sea level.

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