Global Warming Due to Highly Evaporating Surfaces and Rain Water Management
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Abstract

Data on specific humidity shows it is increasing yearly while relative humidity is not following this trend. It is thought that global warming ocean-CO2 feedback is the key contributor. Furthermore, rising ocean water similarly is viewed from this cycle effect on expanding oceans and melting glaciers. However, there are other contributors besides CO2 that are alarming. In this article we will discuss the possible contributions from Highly Evaporating Surfaces (HES) and Rain Water Management (RWM). We describe high evaporation surface rates during precipitation periods from areas like asphalt type roads and cities surfaces. We show in this article that such surfaces without proper irrigation drainage to soil areas have a very large evaporation rate. Their effective area is many times the size of the HES area itself compared with higher albedo absorbing vegetative areas that also include transpiration. City surfaces can prove to be enormous when tall buildings are considered. Such high evaporation rates tax the atmosphere often with high kinetic energy molecules in the troposphere which can also affect relative humidity.

Also alarming is rain water management. New York City for example dumps an estimated 27 billion gallons of waste water into the ocean each year. This pattern is followed by cities all over the world. One might ask, what percentage of this water before the industrial revolution made its way to our oceans. The percentage change is lost land water storage as urban impermeable surfaces increase. Numerous concerns are pointed out: 1) increases in ocean water and rising oceans, 2) loss of natural land evaporation and precipitation, 3) ocean precipitation that doesn’t reach land creating higher earth temperatures, 4) lost land water storage in vegetative areas and 5) draught prone areas due to dryness.

An understanding root causes, is always needed to find proper solutions. In climate change, we must ask, what has historically changed? Besides CO2, we have slight decrease in land albedo, change in the specific and relative humidity, changes in the ocean rising levels from cities drainage, followed by changes in land water storage, and lost land water storage and natural evaporation rates,. We all tend to think that solving the CO2 problem will cure climate change problems. However, we see that other major issues need to be studied and addressed.

1. Introduction - Highly Evaporating Surface and Rain Water Management Feedback

In this paper we look at an effect of Highly Evaporating Surfaces (HES) feedback (Figure 1) and Rain Water Management feedback (Figure 2) contributions to global warming.

Figure 1A Highly Evaporating Surfaces feedback view of contribution to global warming
Figure 1A HES feedback may be summarized as follows:
- Low albedo cities and roads absorbing sunlight and emitting IR
- Precipitation occurs, followed by evaporation of HES moisture often with high KE
- Observed increase in the specific humidity and lower relative humidity
- Loss of water storage due to replacement of vegetative areas with cities and roads
- Increase in local dryness and some correlation to the potential for drought
- Global warming increase due to higher specific humidity and the known CO₂ increase including ocean temperature rise creating more evaporation and higher specific humidity
- More greenhouse gas in the form of moisture and eventual further warming.

Figure 1B Rain Water Management (RWM) feedback in Climate Change

Figure 1B RWM feedback may be summarized as follows:
- Precipitation is collected off of buildings and streets
- Large percentage is drained to ocean or nearby rivers that may end up in the ocean
- The replaced vegetative land has lost area that would have stored the water in soil keeping the land moist. Instead an increase in ocean water, somewhat contributing to rising levels.
- This dryness means less potential for land rain and more for ocean rain.
- The RWM is sometimes warmer than ocean water and may contribute somewhat to ocean temperature increase.
- This would contribute to a global warming feedback cycle and rising specific humidity

In Section 2 we discuss theory that the rise in CO₂ is responsible for a feedback mechanism responsible for the observed rise in specific humidity. We provide an overview of how HES and RWM may be a significant contributor as well. Furthermore, in Section 5 we argue that the CO₂ feedback mechanism may not fully responsible for specific humidity rise. This leads to the conclusion that HES and RWM could be major contributors to global warming. In Section 3 we overview relevant data. In Section 4 we describe a simplified expression for the HES evaporation rates and its effective area and provide a brief summary in Section 6.

2. Specific Humidity Sources – HES & RWM
The key issue on specific humidity is where has the increase humidity come from and how do we account for the global warming trends. It is thought that CO₂ initially increases the temperature, then increases the specific humidity primarily due to ocean temperature rise, then a new temperature occurs from the increase in specific humidity. It is this feedback mechanism that climatologist claim is entirely responsible for the increase in specific humidity and subsequent justified full temperature increase. Yet we know two things, part of the CO₂ must emit away from the earth, furthermore, there is a high
probability that any CO$_2$ emission gets re-absorbed by other CO$_2$ molecules since there is a narrow absorption wavelength (about 15um), then re-admits 50% towards Earth.

One could certainly argue that this feedback mechanism increases specific humidity from ocean global warming. Such a correlation was described in by [1,2,3]. However, these authors view the correlation with CO$_2$ creating warming to the ocean as a cause from warming rather than other sources to specific humidity as presented here. They look at yearly trends in CO$_2$ which has a similar trend to global warming yearly increase. As well they look at complex data sets and have not reviewed observed effective loss of land related to soil moisture, land albedo decrease, and increase in highways and city area effects, city and urban RWM water drainage increase away from land. All these play a role in increasing specific humidity, relative humidity and precipitation effects. In fact, one could similarly show a correlation chart of global warming and increase to Asphalt and building material usage! What is hidden is effective area. Since the area of roads and cities is small (<2% of the Earth Surface), possibly some may have thought that these do not impact climate change. This may be an incorrect assumption. We show that HES have a very high effective evaporation area. Many times the size of the area itself as it is related to the evaporation rate differences between adjacent soil and say asphalt. We show that RWM can markedly effect land precipitation.

With this understanding, we consider the possibility that loss of soil moisture storage and high evaporation rates in cities, streets and highways, and RWM can contribute significantly to greenhouse water vapor gasses and global warming. Water vapor is known to dominate greenhouse temperatures effects [3, 4]. Such an inference would then create a strong feedback mechanism as illustrated in Figures 1 above.

3. HES Supporting Related Data Trends

The following data and analysis is summarized that supports HES feedback:

- **HES area effect:** A simplified analysis is presented in Section 4 illustrating when all things are equal, the area lost from soil water storage due to roads and cities, for example is given primarily by the differences in evaporation times between the would be vegetative area and the city or road replacement area. For example if it takes a road 2 hours to evaporate a volume of water from a road, while it take soil 48 hours to evaporate the same amount of water in soil, then the effective soil land lost is a factor of 24 times, contributing to the evaporation rate, specific humidity and global warming emitted moisture greenhouse gas. This doesn’t even consider transpiration.

- **HES city area effects:** These are hard to estimate. As a rough estimate let’s assume each building sides equate to 10x bottom surface area due to having 4 sides and its height. Assume not that buildings take up 50% of a cities area. Now it is estimated that 1.2% of the Earth surface is cities. Then we have 1.2%x50%x10=6% of the earth surface area increase having HES area from buildings world wide.

- **Specific Humidity Rising:** Figure 2 shows the increase in specific humidity not just to warming oceans but also over land mass. Overall, water vapor in the surface atmosphere has increased over land and ocean since 1970s (specific humidity is rising) [5], while the atmosphere over land is becoming less saturated (relative humidity is dropping) [5].

- **Precipitation:** Figure 2 illustrates that precipitation has remained constant [5] even though the specific humidity has increased. This seems to indicate that the evaporated water vapor in the air is not contributing to precipitation. However in Fig. 7 and 8 we see that in later years it is actually increasing.

- **Soil Moisture:** Figure 3 shows a decrease in soil moisture [5] likely suggesting a correlation to global warming. This increase in dryness is made worse from HES areas in cities and roads increasing over time.

- **Albedo decline:** In Figure 4, a decline in land albedo [5] is found. One would expect this decrease over land due to the increase in roads and city areas having a much lower albedo value.
than natural vegetative areas. Global albedo loss has been blamed on glacier loss but here it is illustrated just for land.

- **Increase in Asphalt use:** Figure 5 and 6 show an increase in asphalt use (2009-2012) and increase in highway miles (1923-2009), respectively [6,7]. Although the data is limited on asphalt and highway growth, the trend is clear. Climatologist correlate the rising CO₂ greenhouse gas to global warming. Here one could just as well correlate the rising use of asphalt to global warming via contributions from the HES effect and emission of greenhouse water vapor gas.

- **Specific Humidity Trends and Correlation to Global Warming:** Figure 7 shows specific humidity trends and Figure 8 correlation out to 2017 from various sources. Here the author does not differentiate between specific humidity and precipitation.

The primary effect that we are looking at with respect to data is possible contribution to the evaporation rate and its effect to the rising specific humidity in the troposphere (lower 10 miles of atmosphere). Other related effects are likely dry conditions that are a necessary but not sufficient condition for draught. Hot roads and city walls also expand air and not only drive up specific humidity during precipitation but lower %RH. One other critical effect that is hard to calculate is loss of plant water storage and transpiration. This rate also changes with warming trends.
Figure 2 Top two figures show the specific humidity over land and water both increase while the third figure showing the relative humidity decreasing trend primarily over land while the ocean is more stable but likely harder to measure. Lastly the bottom two figures show a fairly constant precipitation rate in view of the fact that the specific humidity is increasing [5]. In later years Fig. 7, shows precipitation eventually increasing.
Figure 3 Loss of soil moisture likely due to global warming over land [5]

Figure 4 Loss of albedo over land likely due to increase in cities and highways [5]

Figure 5 Growth of Warm Mixed Asphalt Usage per year (2009-2012) in USA [6]

Figure 6 Interstate Miles versus yearly increase in US [7].
4. HES Effective Area of Evaporation

In this section we provide a simplified expression for the equivalent HES area found in the Appendices A, B, and C and is roughly given by

\[ A_{E\text{HES}} = \left( \frac{t_{\text{Soil}}}{t_{\text{HES}}} \right) A_{\text{Soil}} = \left( \frac{t_{\text{Soil}}}{t_{\text{HES}}} \right) (A_{\text{HES}} - A_{\text{HES-5\%IG}}) \]

Where

- \( A_{E\text{HES}} \) = Effective HES area,
- \( A_{\text{Soil}} \) = soil area, this is set equal to an equivalent to \( A_{\text{HES}} \) area, subtracte from \( A_{\text{HES-5\%IG}} \) any % run off of irrigated water falling on the roads or city surface areas to vegetation areas,
- \( t_{\text{Soil}} \) is the evaporation time of the soil,
- \( t_{\text{HES}} \) is the evaporation time of the asphalt or city surface after precipitation occurs.

For example if it takes a road 2 hours to evaporate a volume of water from a road, while it take soil 48 hours to evaporate the same amount of water in soil, than the effective soil land lost is a factor of 24 times contributing to the evaporation rate and specific humidity. This is for roads with zero percent irrigation-equivalent area running off water to adjacent land.

The factor \( \frac{t_{\text{Soil}}}{t_{\text{HES}}} = \Delta R \) provides an evaporation rate related to time rate of change which is shown in the appendix as a function of

- \( \Delta R \{ \text{Exp} - (E_{\gamma}/k_{B} \ T) \} \), average soil vs asphalt specific heat \( C_{v} \), \( dC_{v}/dt \), \( dm/dt \), average \( \Delta \text{albedo} \), soil diffusion rate, evapotranspiration}
5. Data on RWM
When it rains in a city, much of the land in urban areas is covered by pavement or asphalt. Because rain can’t soak into the soil underneath, these covered areas are impermeable surfaces. As the amount of impermeable surface increases with urbanization, so too does the amount of runoff. As an example, in urban cities, 30% is often estimated for evapotranspiration, 10% shallow soil infiltration, 5% deep soil infiltration, and 55% runoff.

Fry et al. [8] reported that in February of 2019 California estimated that 18 trillion gallons of rain in February alone had most of the water going to the Pacific Ocean. The article goes on to point out the LA dept. of water captured 22 billion gallons of water during recent storm.

New York Environment Report, in 2014 reported [9], “Every year, old sewers flooded by storm water release more than 27 billion gallons of untreated sewage into the New York Harbor alone.”

Some efforts have been made to improve storm water innovation. The effort is called LID [10]. “Low Impact Development (LID) is a planning and design approach that aims to mimic naturalized water balances. It combines infiltration, evaporation and transpiration while limiting runoff. The goal of LID is to restore processes that are lost in a built-up urban environment. LID includes several types of low-level new and innovative stormwater technologies that together let water infiltrate the ground and evapotranspire into the air.

Although it may seem that the ocean is limitless, estimates need to be made to understand how much of rising ocean’s are due to city runoffs. Prior to the industrial revolution we have to remember that much of this water went to natural vegetation, streams and lakes. Urban and city changes for RWM may be instrumental. Water runoff into the ocean reduces wet lands. This increase dry land area as precipitation over land is lower. Evaporation from oceans does not necessarily bring rain to land areas as there is a high probability to occur in ocean areas. This creates a higher probability for dry land and eventually draught.

5. The Contention Against CO2 Feedback Being Solely Responsible for Specific Humidity Increase
Here we provide some contention that an increase in specific humidity cannot be solely due to CO2 feedback.

How to account for increase specific humidity from CO2 emissions
1) Ocean area for heating 68.7%
2) Emissions towards Earth 50%
3) The emitted CO2 radiation is narrow band 15 um with some spectral width. Only a portion of this radiation is likely re-absorbed by other CO2, say 25%
4) Then a portion is absorbed by water vapor in the atmosphere say 60%
5) A portion of 3 and 4 are re-radiated away from earth 50%
This leaves 0.687 x 0.5 x 0.75 x 0.4 x 0.5 = 5.2% reaching the lower troposphere and earth for global warming and increasing ocean temperatures enough to raise specific humidity

6. Summary - Solutions
We find that it is highly likely that HES areas are contributing to global warming and that more studies are needed to assess the impact and how much it is contributing compared to the CO2 Feedback mechanism.

HES Reduction Solutions
- Further studies required in this area to understand the effect and its contribution to GW
- Change Albedo of Roads Reducing KE of molecules and allowing for increase in irrigation time
• Reduce driving speeds during rain to reduce evaporation rates
• Improve HES irrigation to soil
• Improve vegetation in run off areas, plant millions of trees in HES areas
• Require negative population growth to reduce increase HES surfaces

References

Appendix In Development
Appendix A
Thought Experiment 1:
We take two identical pieces of asphalt having different albedos and areas. One is measuring 1 meter$^2$ while the second area is to be determined such that they both have the same evaporation rate when water is on the surface. The first asphalt piece is black and has an albedo of 0.05 while the second is painted white and has an albedo of 0.8. Then looking at the temperature profiles with about 1000 W/M$^2$ of sunlight falling on them, the temperature is approximated as

$$\text{T}_i(\text{albedo}) = \left( \frac{(1 - \text{Albedo}_i)E_0}{\sigma} \right)^{0.25}$$

Taking $E_o$=1000W/m$^2$, then $T(0.05)=360^\circ K=87^\circ C$, and $T(0.8)=340^\circ K=67^\circ C$. This shows that we have 20$^\circ$C difference.
Consider now the general case with a piece of asphalt at temperature $T$, area $A$, material constant $R_o$ in an environment with air pressure $P$, relative humidity $RH$, and wind speed is $r$. Now consider a mass $m$ of water spread uniformly on the surface. We then take the evaporation rate $E$ for the non soluble surface approximated as

$$E = \frac{dm}{dt} = R_o A_i \exp\{\frac{-E_a}{K_b} \cdot \frac{1}{T_i}\} \cdot f(P, RH, r)$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)$$

Here $f$ is some function of the variables $P$, $RH$, and $r$. We take a second surface of the same material but at different temperature $T$ and area $A$ and look at the ratio of the evaporation rates yielding

$$E(2,1) = \frac{\frac{dm_2}{dt}}{\frac{dm_1}{dt}} = \frac{A_2}{A_1} \exp\{\frac{E_a}{K_b} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{T_{1\text{Lower}}} - \frac{1}{T_{2\text{Upper}}}\right)\}$$  \hspace{1cm} (3)$$

Here we have held variable $P$, $RH$, $r$, and $R_o$ left unchanged so they cancel. We allow $T_2 > T_1$. We then find that for $A_1$ to have the same evaporation rate as $A_2$ will occur when $E(2,1)=1$, so that $A_1$ is found just from the temperature rate as

$$A_i = A_2 \exp\{\frac{E_a}{K_b} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{T_{1\text{Lower}}} - \frac{1}{T_{2\text{Upper}}}\right)\}$$  \hspace{1cm} (4)$$

As an example, for typical water evaporation from a surface at temperature $T$, a common value for $E_a=40.8\text{KJ/Mole}=0.423\text{eV}$. Using the values found above for different albedo temperatures we had

$T(0.05)=360^{\circ}\text{K}=87^{\circ}\text{C}, T(0.8)=340^{\circ}\text{K}=67^{\circ}\text{C},$ and inserting these values into the above equation gives

$$A_i = 2.3 \cdot A_2$$  \hspace{1cm} (5)$$

Another way of saying this is that if we paint the asphalt a different color with an albedo of 0.8 compared with the typical value of black asphalt of 0.05, we actually make the area 2.3 times smaller in terms of evaporation rate. This also allows more time for water to run off and be stored in the land.

We can simplify this result and make a generalization from the above equation related to the effective area for evaporation between two surfaces, and this is

$$A_i = (\tau_2 / \tau_1) \cdot A_2$$  \hspace{1cm} (6)$$

Where $\tau_i$ is the evaporation time since the rate goes as the Arrhenius function, for the $i$th surface at different temperatures all other evaporation factors being the same.

This is an important relation for road design, if we can slow down the evaporation rate from a road, we can decrease its effective evaporation area. Besides albedo change, other design factors can be thought of such as water runoff to land, road irrigation, road water storage similar to soil, transpiration, material changes with lower specific heat capacity. Engineering roads to be more eco-friendly is one conclusion in this paper.

**Appendix B**

**Thought Experiment 2:**

We take two surfaces, one with heat capacity $Cv1$ and Area $A1$, and the second with $Cv2$ and Area $A2$. Both surfaces are evaporating water and start at the same temperature, however we let $Cv2=2Cv1$. What is the equivalent area if they both are required to evaporate at the same time.

*Time to change $Q$ is*
where \( Q \) is the change in heat occurring from \( \Delta T \) change, \( m \) is the mass, \( P \) is the power in Watts, \( p \) is the sunlight power in W/m², \( A \) = Area. For example for asphalt \( C_v = 900 \text{ J/kg K} \), if \( m = 1000 \text{Kg} \) and \( \Delta T = 20 \text{K} \), then \( \Delta Q = 900 \text{ J/kg K} \times 1000 \text{Kg} \times 20 \text{K} = 18 \text{ E6 Joules} \). If 1000 W/m² falls on a 1 m² surface area then the time for this temperature change is

\[
t = \frac{18 \times 10^6}{1000 \text{ J/sec}} = 300 \text{ min}.
\]

given that both areas have the same mass and same \( p \), and both change by an amount \( \Delta T \) we find, in general

\[
\frac{t_1}{t_2} = \frac{C_v_1 A_2}{C_v_2 A_1}
\]

if \( C_v_2 = 2 C_v_1 \), then for \( t_1 = t_2 \) we must have

\[
A_1 (C_v_1) = 2 A_2 (2 C_v_1)
\]

Here we see that if Area \( A_2 \) has a larger \( C_v \), that evaporation times are only equivalent if \( A_1 \) is larger proportionately. This can again be summarized by their evaporation times such that

\[
A_1 = (\frac{t_1 C_v_2}{t_2 C_v_2}) A_2 = (\frac{t_1 C_v}{t_2 C_v}) A_2
\]

**Thought Experiment 3**

Consider now the complex case of a vegetative area being replace by an Asphalt highway. The specific heat of soil and mass can vary as water evaporates. This is untrue of asphalt. The specific heat of water is 4186 J/kg K compared to asphalt =900 J/kg K. We see that soil hold heat actually 4 times larger than Asphalt. However, soil varies with mass. When it rains, the asphalt cools while it evaporates water. On the other hand, the rain cools the earth at a faster pace since soil has a low \( C_v \) and the temperature is cool. In order to evaporate from the soil in sunlight after it rains it takes time to heat the surface area. We see that the change in heat is a complex function of time as the soils mass and \( C_v \) changes with time.

\[
\frac{d\Delta Q}{dt} = (dm / dt) C_v + m \frac{dC_v}{dt}) \Delta T
\]

To simplify the complex problem we take an average

\[
\overline{\Delta Q} = \overline{mC_v} \Delta T
\]

Furthermore as water evaporates at the surface of the soil the stored water below diffuses to the top surface. Therefore the time is further lengthening by the diffusivity of water in the soil. So the equation is modified and simplified again so it is just a function of time to estimate the area ratios

\[
A_1 = (\frac{t_1 DmC_v_2 \overline{\Delta T}_2}{t_2 mC_v_2 \Delta T_1}) A_2 = (\frac{t_1 DmC_v \Delta T}{t_2 mC_v \Delta T}) A_2
\]

The results demonstrates that the area effect can be simplified to the evaporation time. For example if water evaporates from a highway in 5 hours and on land the same amount of water evaporation takes 50 hours, then lost area is a factor of 10.
Biography

Alec Feinberg is the founder of DfRSoft. He has a Ph.D. in Physics and is the principal author of the books, Design for Reliability and Thermodynamic Degradation Science: Physics of Failure, Accelerated Testing, Fatigue, and Reliability Applications. DfRSoft provides consulting in reliability and shock and vibration, training classes and DfRSoftware. Alec has provided reliability engineering services in diverse industries (AT&T Bell Labs, Tyco Electronics, HP, NASA, etc) for over 35 years in aerospace, automotive and electrical and mechanical systems. He has provided training classes in Design for Reliability & Quality, Shock and Vibration, HALT and ESD. Alec has presented numerous technical papers and won the 2003 RAMS best tutorial award for the topic, “Thermodynamic Reliability Engineering.”