

MATHEMATICAL MODELING OF THE TRANSPORT OF POLLUTION IN WATER

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Summary

The mathematical modeling of the transport of pollutants in water is the subject of this chapter. The chapter starts with a phenomenological description of advection and diffusion which is explained with some historical experiments. For a deeper understanding of turbulent mixing a short excursion into the field of turbulence theory is made and the reader is familiarized with the problem of turbulent closure together with an understanding of diffusion from point sources as well as energy dissipation. The fundamental problems in solving the advection diffusion reaction equation, especially in the presence of turbulent mixing, are discussed followed by the description of an

alternative numerical technique namely the Lagrangian tracer technique. The reader is acquainted with the different perspectives of the Eulerian and the Lagrangian approaches and the method of tracer modeling which is explained in detail. Some examples are presented showing the capability of the Lagrangian tracer technique and the broad field of possible applications. Especially the last example, the oil tanker accident in the western Baltic Sea, shows the way in which the mathematical modeling of the transport of pollutants can support management activities e.g. combating oil spills. The quick and exact forecast combined with expedited clean-up operations makes such model results an important tool, contributing to an improved coastal zone management.

1. Introduction

Agenda 21 adopted by the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) in Rio de Janeiro, in June 1992, sets out a number of concerns and critical uncertainties that must be addressed urgently by societies and governments concerning the environment and the sustainable development of our planet's resources. One of these concerns is the future of coastal zones and areas, and integrated coastal zone management is highlighted as a need. The ocean and especially the coastal areas are stressed by the various human uses, since 50% of the population in the industrialized world lives within one kilometer of the coast. This population will grow at about 1.5% per year during the next decades. The use of the coastal zone for the production of food and chemicals (mariculture), for waste disposal, for transportation facilities and for tourism and recreation as well as for possible energy production, commercial fishing and mineral recovery puts stresses upon the marine environment, stresses that are non-linear with increasing numbers of people (Goldberg 1994). All uses contain the potential risk that harmful substances, dangerous for the marine environment, are introduced into the ocean. The spectrum of substances covers a broad range. It might be synthetic growth hormones or antibiotics in aquaculture, tributyltin (TBT) compounds used in antifouling paints, crude oil from oil drilling platforms, illegal dumping or tanker accidents, pesticides like dichloro-diphenyl-trichloroethane (DDT), fungicides like α - or γ - hexachlorocyclohexane (HCH) or industrial products like polychlorinated biphenyls (PCB) entering the ocean via rivers or the atmosphere, and all types of waste material such as municipal solid waste, sewage sludge, dredge materials, wet and solid industrial waste or radio-active waste. In addition, input of high nutrient concentrations of phosphate or nitrate from agriculture through rivers results in strong algae blooms and sometimes in strong oxygen depletion with consequences for near benthic animals or fish larvae. Such strong oxygen depletion was observed in the beginning of the 1980s in the German Bight.

In the early 1970s some significant regulatory developments took place at both the national and international levels. Conventions were formulated to limit or perhaps totally stop ocean disposal of wastes. The importance of these conventions rests upon the conviction that the oceans can be seriously damaged by societal activities. The Oslo Convention for the Prevention of Marine Pollution by Dumping from Ships and Aircrafts was adopted on 15 February 1972 by the Scandinavian states that were prompted by the proposed disposal of 650 tons of chlorinated hydrocarbons in the northern part of the North Sea. This action provided the stepping stone to other

agreements. The Helsinki Convention on the protection of the Marine Environment of the Baltic Sea area was adopted in 1974 and the Barcelona Convention for the Protection of the Mediterranean against pollution in 1976. The London Dumping Convention, which was first signed by 57 countries in 1972, now has 91 signatories. The London Dumping Convention addresses global concerns; the others are directed to more specific regional problems. These Conventions respond to scientific understanding of how ocean resources can be jeopardized by the entry of toxic substances or benign material that threatens living organisms. Some endeavor to prevent all ocean disposals where alternate land options are available; the others seek specific regulations as to what materials can or cannot be discarded in the oceans. The International Maritime Organisation (IMO) has brought together a Convention for the Prevention of Marine Pollution from Ships (MARPOL) which has been adopted by 57 countries representing over 85% of the world's merchant fleet. The Convention prohibits the disposal of plastics from ships and strongly regulates the way other rubbish such as food wastes, papers, metal cans, etc. can be dropped into the oceans from ships. These provisions have been extended to platforms and drilling rigs. Finally, certain marine areas especially vulnerable to pollution because they are landlocked or environmentally sensitive have been designated by MARPOL as "Special Areas". These include the North Sea, the Mediterranean Sea, the Bering Sea, the Red Sea, and the Baltic Sea. All dumping is prohibited with the exception of food wastes which can be discarded twelve nautical miles off land.

In spite of the existence of these Conventions, the potential risk of environmental pollution is always present due to increased use of the ocean and near coastal areas, increased ship traffic, technical defects or human errors. Each dissolved or particulate substance entering the ocean is subject to transport and diffusion and the prediction of the spreading of the substance is an important aspect in coastal zone management. The description of the mathematical modeling of transport of pollutants is subject of this chapter. In Section 2 diffusion is explained phenomenologically. In Section 3 some diffusion experiments are presented and a short introduction to turbulence theory is given in Section 4. Section 5 deals with various analytical solutions of the advection-diffusion-reaction (ADR) equations and the general numerical difficulties in solving this equation are described. In Section 6 the numerical method of Lagrangian tracer technique (LTT) is introduced and described. Finally, in Section 7, different applications of LTT are presented and discussed.

2. Phenomenology

The problem of advection and diffusion of any arbitrary substance in the atmosphere or the ocean can be visualized by looking at a cloud or a plume leaving a chimney. Compared to the extension of the atmosphere the chimney can be considered as a point source where the concentration is highest. The plume is transported by the wind in a certain direction and becomes broader and broader. After a certain distance the plume has become so large that it is invisible. Then the concentrations are very small or zero. This simple example includes phenomenologically all aspects of transport problems, and, the transport of pollutants or harmful substances are a part of it. Figure 1 shows a simple sketch illustrating the main processes involved.

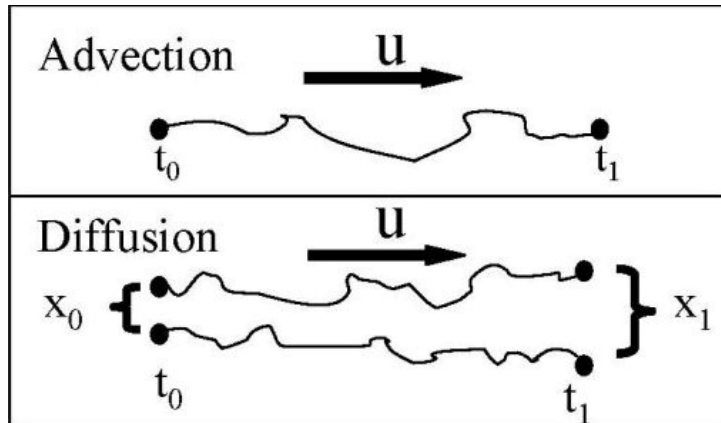


Figure 1: Schematic sketch of advection and diffusion.

In the upper panel a particle at a specific time t_0 and position is considered. This particle is transported by the wind in the atmosphere or by currents in the ocean and has at time t_1 a new position. If only two snapshots exist at t_0 and t_1 , the way of the particle is unknown. It could have been transported the shortest direct way or any arbitrary random way. This process is, in general, known as transport or advection. In the lower panel two particles are considered which have at a certain time t_0 certain positions and a distance between the two particles of x_0 . Both particles are advected, each on its own pathway, and have at time t_1 new positions and a distance x_1 . An increase in the distance from x_0 to x_1 is, in general, understood as a process which is named diffusion.

How does diffusion work? Besides the mean circulation, turbulent motion exists in the atmosphere and the ocean. It covers a broad spectrum of turbulent cells of different sizes (Stommel 1949). Diffusion, or more precisely turbulent diffusion, in contrast to molecular diffusion, is directly connected to turbulent motion. Turbulence itself is not exactly defined in physics, since it covers various processes of different time and length scales. The use of the term “turbulence” depends, in essence, on averaging in time or in space and when the deviations from averaged quantities are considered as turbulent. The dependence of the term turbulence from temporal or spatial scales leads to the definition of a turbulent cell which represents a component of the spectrum of the velocity field. The length scale in the ocean or the atmosphere can range from an averaged free path of a molecule to global circulation.

The question, whether advection or diffusion takes place, depends on the size of a turbulent cell in relation to the size of the plume. If the turbulent cell is very large compared to the plume, then, the whole plume is transported as it is. Hence, large turbulent cells contribute to the mean circulation or advection. In contrast, if the turbulent cell is small compared to the plume, a spreading of the plume occurs which can be described as a movement of a concentration away from its center of mass. Therefore, small turbulent cells contribute to diffusion. The third case is the situation when the turbulent cell has approximately the same size as the plume. Then, turbulence causes a deformation of the plume. Hence, middle size turbulent cells cause a shear and the spatial variation of the mean flow field causes a deformation of the plume. In addition, as can be seen in a plume coming out of a chimney, the size of the plume increases with time. That means that during the whole process, starting with the plume

coming out of a chimney until the plume disappears, a continuous shift occurs, with turbulent cell sizes that initially contribute to advection, later contributing to diffusion due to the increase of the plume size. This example illustrates that turbulent diffusion is somehow time dependent. This will be one of the subjects of the next two sections. Figure 2 shows schematically the spreading of a plume for constant flow (a), a shear current (b), and a meandering plume (c) after Okubo (1970).

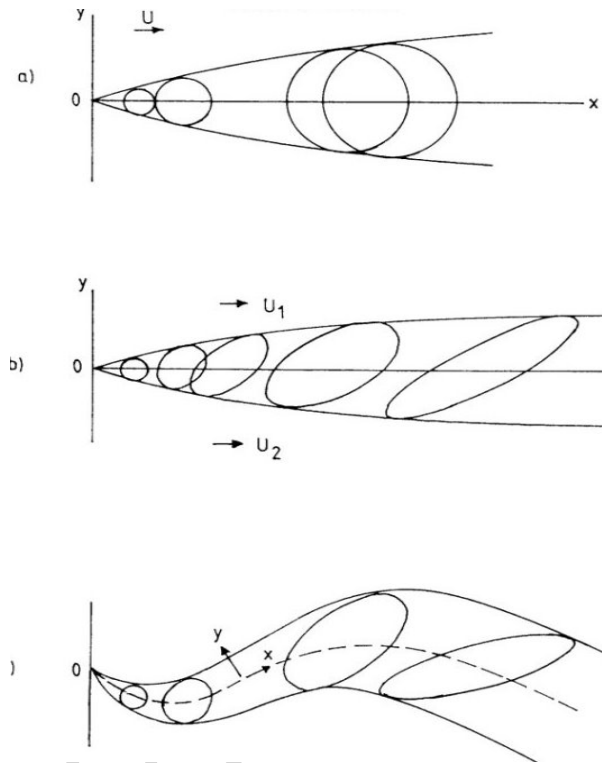


Figure 2: Schematic spreading of a plume for (a) a uniform flow field, (b) a shear current field, and (c) a meandering patch modified after Okubo A. (1970) *Oceanic mixing*. Chesapeake Bay Institute, The John Hopkins University, Technical Report Nr. 62.

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Biographical Sketch

Dr. Joachim W. Dippner, born in 1949, studied physical oceanography, meteorology, geophysics, theoretical physics and applied mathematics at the University of Hamburg. He has a Diploma in physical oceanography, a Doctor dissertation in physical oceanography, Thesis: “A Mathematical Model for Drift, Spreading, and Weathering of Crude Oil for the German Bight” and a Doctor habilitation in physical oceanography. Thesis: “Investigation of Transient Eddies in the German Bight”. He is an expert in numerical modeling and statistical analyses. His research interests are ecosystem theory, ecosystem modeling and climate induced variability in biological systems. In 1999 he granted of the mare research price for his studies on “Climate variability in near coastal marine ecosystems”. He worked in various German research institutes, in England, Italy, Norway and Poland. Details might be found under: <http://www.io-warnemuende.de/homepages/dippner/index.html>