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## COMPUTED ATMOSPHERIC EFFECTS ON ERTS OBSERVATIONS

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### ABSTRACT

The nadir radiances of many models of the earth-atmosphere system were computed for a fixed solar zenith angle. These data indicate that the standard deviations of the Multispectral Scanner responses to changes in water vapor and aerosols would be small on a continental-wide basis.

The computed effects of the atmosphere on ERTS observations are usually not large. Data given at this symposium in other papers show that the path radiance of just the atmosphere can be strong and quite variable, which is true. However, that is not the whole story. The radiant energy that arrives at a satellite can be separated into two parts: the path radiance just mentioned and also the light transmitted from the ground directly through the atmosphere without interacting with it. The remarkable thing is that the two parts tend to change in opposite directions, thereby tending to compensate each other. For example, if the atmospheric turbidity increases, the path radiance increases but the atmospheric transmission decreases. Mother Nature is trying to help the Principle Investigators.

The light scattered by the atmosphere to ERTS-1 depends on the following variables: the solar zenith angle, the surface reflectivity, the presence of clouds even when there is a clear line-of-sight between the satellite and a surface target, water vapor, and particulates. The atmospheric models used for the computations that are presented here are free of clouds. The point that will be developed in this report is that for a fixed solar zenith angle the atmosphere would appear to cause only small variations over a large region such as the continental United States. The atmosphere can cause significant effects near strong pollution sources such as big cities; but on a continental basis the computed atmospheric effects are small.

Particulates play an important role in atmospheric scattering. Although their sizes range over three orders of magnitude, only those particulates with radii between 0.1 and 1  $\mu\text{m}$  have a significant effect on the ERTS observations. Figure 1 shows this fact for a small volume of slightly absorbing particulates. The size distribution function is

inversely proportional to the particle radius to the fourth power. Such a law applies for average conditions near the surface of continental regions (Junge, 1963). One-half of the mass of such particulates consists of those with radii less than one micrometer and the particles with the remaining mass have radii between one and 10 micrometers, as shown in Fig. 1. However, the cumulative extinction curve shows that the particles smaller than one micrometer account for 90 percent of the attenuation in a beam of light. The inset curve for the probability density function shows that the particles with 0.2  $\mu\text{m}$  radius have the strongest interaction with light of wavelength 0.55  $\mu\text{m}$ . Computations of the extinction characteristics of many models of atmospheric aerosols show that particles with diameter about equal to the wavelength interact more strongly with the light than other particles.

The particles that scatter sunlight most effectively towards the zenith are still smaller. If the solar zenith angle is  $30^\circ - 40^\circ$ , the scattering angle towards the zenith is  $150^\circ - 140^\circ$ . Figure 2 gives the probability density functions for light scattered in these directions. They are strongly peaked at a radius of 0.1  $\mu\text{m}$ . Particles larger than 1  $\mu\text{m}$  radius scatter essentially no light towards the zenith.

Models of the atmosphere used for computations given here are free of clouds, contain the invariant gases, 316 Dobson units of ozone, water vapor, and particulates. The mass loading of the particulates varies from none to the mean value plus two standard deviations, except in Fig. 4. The corresponding turbidity factor, which is the ratio of the total vertical optical thickness to the optical thickness of just the scattering gases, is at  $\lambda = 0.55 \mu\text{m}$  1.3 for no particulates, 3.3 for an average continental amount, and 5.3 for two standard deviations above the mean. Shifrin and Shubova (1964) have measured the standard deviation of the turbidity factor and found it to be one-half. However, a much larger standard deviation of two is computed from values of surface extinction that were measured by Koprova (1971). Most surface extinction coefficients support the smaller value of one-half though. A standard deviation of the turbidity factor of one is assumed here. The indices of refraction of the particulates are either 1.5 or  $1.5 - 0.03i$ . They are assumed to be spheres, which is known to be an approximation when the particles are solid.

Water vapor absorption does not affect the first three bands of the ERTS Multispectral Scanner, but has a strong effect on the 0.8 - 1.1  $\mu\text{m}$  band. The total amount of precipitable water in a vertical column varies from 1.5 cm to 4.4 cm, which applies in a warm, moist tropical atmosphere. The surface of the earth is assumed to be homogeneous and reflect light isotropically according to Lambert's law.

The numerical computations utilizing the models have an internal consistency of three significant figures. The computed nadir radiances for a model atmosphere with a mean turbidity factor of 3.3 at

$\lambda = 0.55 \mu\text{m}$  are compared with measured values in Fig. 3. The observations were made from aircraft east of Cape Hatteras in a cloud-free region. The values of the surface reflectivity used in the calculations were those derived from measurements made at a height of 0.3 km. The measured and computed values agree fairly well. The model can be adjusted to decrease the discrepancies, but the exercise is not fruitful since the true aerosol state at the time of the measurements is not known.

The net effect of both the atmospheric transmission and path radiance on the ERTS observations is important, and not just either one alone. Either factor can be large, as shown for the path radiance in Fig. 4, which gives the relative contribution of path radiance to the total radiance. The turbidity factors are 1.3, 4.3, and 13.3 for successive curves from the lowest to the highest. The middle curve represents more or less average turbidity. The path radiance decreases from 100 percent when the ground is black to a significant fraction of 37 percent when the surface reflectivity is 1.0. Also, the fraction of airlight increases significantly as the turbidity increases.

However, Fig. 5 shows that when the trade-off between path radiance and transmission are accounted for, the net change is sensor response for an atmosphere without particulates to one with average loading is less than 10 percent if the surface reflectivity is greater than 0.1. The effect of particulates is greatest over dark surfaces such as water. The effect for all the MSS channels is similar to those given by the two curves.

An estimate of the two standard deviations ranges of the ERTS MSS sensor responses are given in Fig. 6. These data are based on the computations for the many models already discussed; but the ranges are based on educated guesses concerning the atmospheric aerosols, since the statistical characteristics of the aerosol state are not known. The mean sensor response for each spectral band is nearly a linear function of the surface reflectivity, as has been noted before. The sensor response for the 0.8 - 1.1  $\mu\text{m}$  is lower than those of the other bands because the sensor gain is lowest for the 0.8 - 1.1  $\mu\text{m}$  band and significant water vapor absorption occurs in this band but not in the others. The ratio of the standard deviation, which is one-fourth the height of the bars on the graph, to the mean is small. For example, when the surface reflectivity is 0.2, the ratio is about 5%. This variability can be compared with the ultimate achievable accuracy in making atmospheric corrections, which is related to the National Bureau of Standards' Calibration Lamps. They have an accuracy of only 5 percent. The atmospheric variability should be measured by many high altitude observations of different surfaces whose reflectivities are constant. Such data are expensive to acquire by aircraft. The ERTS-1 MSS measurements may be satisfactory for this purpose.

The ratio of the standard deviation of the nadir radiances, which are derived from the data on Fig. 6, to the noise equivalent radiances (NER) of the MSS sensor systems are given in Fig. 7. The NER's were measured before ERTS-1 launch. The variation is appreciable in the 0.5 - 0.6  $\mu\text{m}$  channel, but in the remaining bands the variations are comparable to the NER's. If the radiance variation caused by the atmosphere is comparable to the NER's of future ERTS' sensors, then no attempt need be made to correct for the atmosphere.

Future studies of atmospheric effects should be directed towards solving well-defined problems. The atmosphere does not seem to have an important effect on current ERTS-1 observations, except for water observations. The data given here indicate that the effects will be weak when considering a large region and large length of time. Operational methods to correct for atmospheric effects appear to be expensive. Such corrections would also add to the heavy burden of data reduction systems. Therefore, development of an operational system to correct for atmospheric effects should be based on need and then on the capability of making the corrections.

#### REFERENCES

1. Junge, C. E., "Air Chemistry and Radioactivity," Academic Press, New York.
2. Koprova, L. I., *Izv., Atms. Oceanic Phys.* 7, 415 (1971).
3. Shifrin, K. S. and Shubova, G. L., *Izv., Geophys. Ser.*, 161 (1964).

## FIGURE CAPTIONS

- Fig. 1. The probability density of extinction (inset), the cumulative probability of extinction, and the cumulative probability of mass of atmospheric particulates as functions of their radius. The size distribution function of the number of particulates is inversely proportional to the fourth power of the radius. The index of refraction of the particulates is  $1.5 - 0.03i$ . The wavelength is  $0.55 \mu\text{m}$ .
- Fig. 2. The probability densities of the light scattered in the directions  $140^\circ$  or  $150^\circ$  as functions of radius. The parameters are given in the Fig. 1 caption.
- Fig. 3. Comparison of measured and computed spectral radiances of the nadir over the ocean. Measurements were made by Hovis in July 1972.
- Fig. 4. The computed ratio of the path radiance to the total radiance of the earth-atmosphere system in the nadir direction. The index of refraction of the particulates is 1.5. The solar zenith angle is  $40^\circ$ . The wavelength is  $0.55 \mu\text{m}$ .
- Fig. 5. The relative increase in the MSS sensor response to the nadir radiance when the atmospheric model without particulates adds the average amount of particulates. The size distribution function of the particulates is inversely proportional to the fourth power of the radius. The index of refraction of the particulates is 1.5. The solar zenith angle is  $40^\circ$ .
- Fig. 6. Range of sensor responses in the 4 MSS spectral bands to the nadir radiance. The estimated variation is plus and minus two standard deviations. The number above each set bands is the surface reflectivity. The solar zenith angle is  $40^\circ$ .
- Fig. 7. The ratio of the standard deviation of nadir radiances, which are derived from Fig. 6, to the noise equivalent radiances of the MSS sensors.

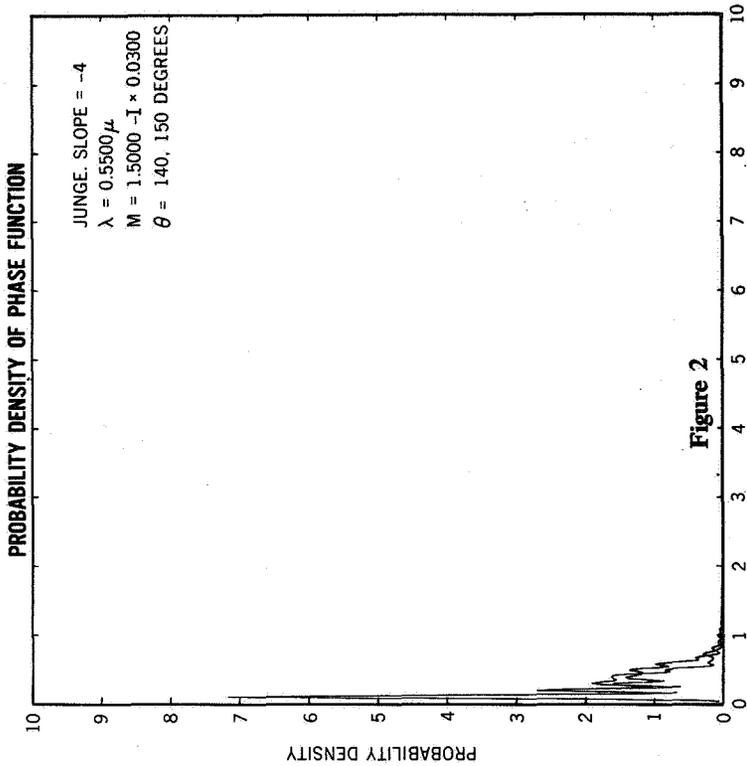


Figure 2

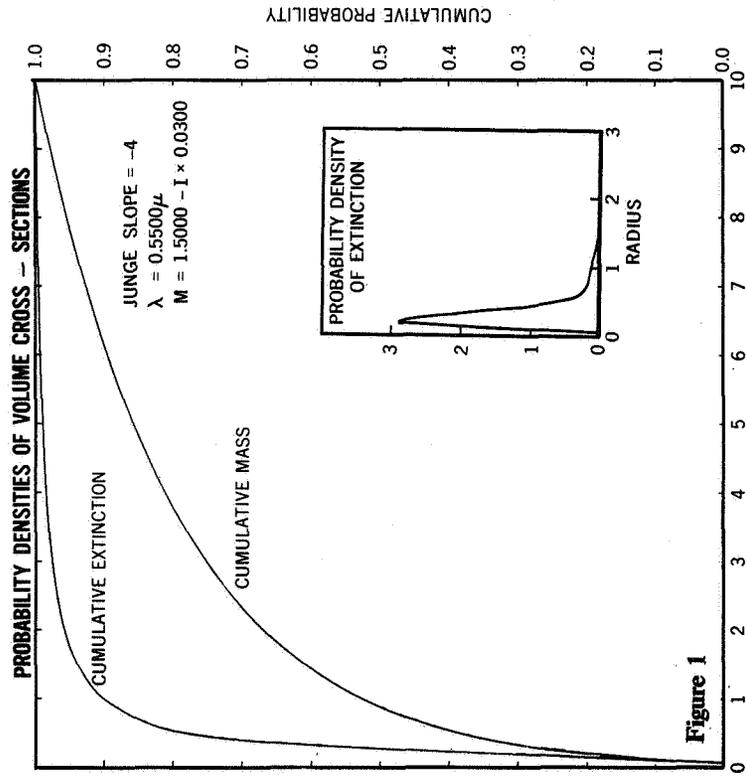


Figure 1

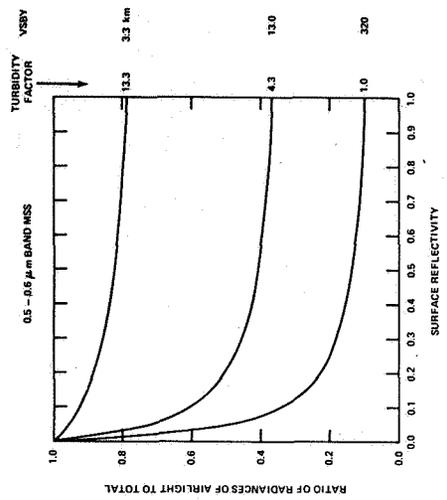


Figure 4

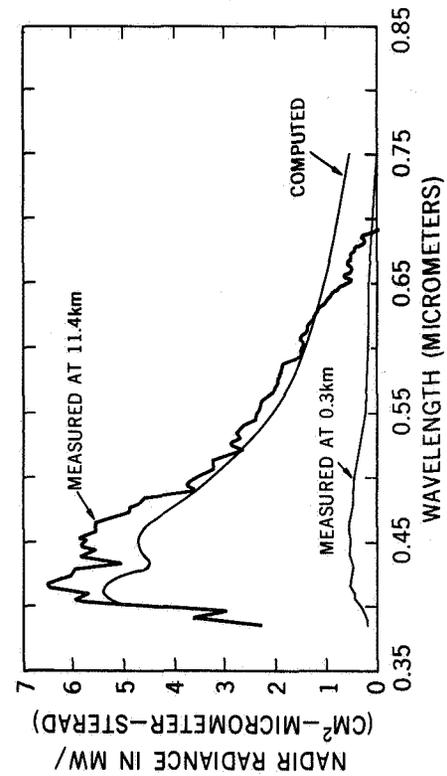


Figure 3



**RELATIVE CHANGE IN NADIR RADIANCE  
CAUSED BY PARTICULATES**

