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## Digital Image Processing and Visual Communications Technologies in Meteorology

Paul Janota  
Chair/Editor

*Sponsored by*  
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*DIGITAL IMAGE PROCESSING AND  
VISUAL COMMUNICATIONS TECHNOLOGIES IN METEOROLOGY*

Volume 846

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Session 1—Digital Image Processing of Remotely Sensed Data

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**Thomas H. Vonder Haar**, Colorado State University

Session 2—Visual Communication of Meteorological Phenomena

**Robert Fox**, University of Wisconsin

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Session 3—Meteorological Workstation Technology

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*DIGITAL IMAGE PROCESSING AND  
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Volume 846

## **INTRODUCTION**

This was the first conference in this topical area sponsored by SPIE. It provided several pleasant surprises, including variety, an international flavor, and the opportunity to get well acquainted with the various participants and their areas of interest.

The first session presented in this proceedings is Digital Image Processing of Remotely Sensed Data; it primarily covers a number of automated techniques for detecting and identifying features derived from both satellite and radar imagery, plus other topics associated with satellite remote sensing. Applications of such techniques include both real-time analysis and prediction of meteorological events and monitoring of world climate.

The second session, Visual Communication of Meteorological Phenomena, focuses on the use of three- or four-dimensional renderings (on two-dimensional devices) and/or the use of color in depicting analyses, forecasts, and the output of research models. The major discussion issue of this session is whether there is added value derived from the use of the various display techniques in real-time and research modes. Some authors feel that technology has outstripped utility and that we have not yet developed the appropriate quantitative models to take full advantage of the clever visualizations that are possible at rather low cost. There seems to be general agreement, however, that a user's rapid assimilation and understanding of complex meteorological phenomena will eventually be improved by modern visualization techniques combined with appropriate algorithms and models to best complement the available technologies.

The third session, Meteorological Workstation Technology, emphasizes the architectures of certain systems rather than the information products displayed on the workstations themselves.

A straw poll of participants revealed a solid interest in continuing this conference and considerable satisfaction with the format that provided for in-depth presentations and ample time for discussion. I wish to thank my cochairs for their assistance and support, and SPIE for hosting the conference in such a professional fashion.

**Paul Janota**

The Analytic Sciences Corporation

*DIGITAL IMAGE PROCESSING AND  
VISUAL COMMUNICATIONS TECHNOLOGIES IN METEOROLOGY*

Volume 846

**Contents**

Conference Committee .....	
Introduction .....	

**SESSION 1. DIGITAL IMAGE PROCESSING OF REMOTELY SENSED DATA. . . .**

846-01	<b>Classification of cloud fields based on textural characteristics</b> , R. M. Welch, South Dakota School of Mines and Technology. ....
846-02	<b>Clear sky estimation of surface albedo from digitized GOES east visual ima</b> Sands Missile Range. ....
846-03	<b>Automated meteorological satellite image interpretation: an aid to short-rai</b> B. A. Chance, R. E. Introne, Jr., D. Izraelievitz, Analytic Sciences Corp. ....
846-04	<b>Real-time environment monitoring using data from METEOSAT and NOAA</b> van Ingen Schenau, J. C. Venema, National Aerospace Lab. ....
846-05	<b>Satellite cloud image standardization</b> , H. J. Schultz, R. G. Isaacs, Atmospheri Research, Inc. ....
846-06	<b>Metric statistical comparison of objective cloud detectors</b> , F. P. Kelly, C.-F. S T. H. Vonder Haar, Colorado State Univ. ....
846-07	<b>Ultrafast algorithms for cloud data analysis</b> , T. A. Brubaker, T. H. Vonder Hae
846-08	<b>Automated classification of oceanic cloud patterns with applications to clo</b> retrievals of meteorological parameters, L. Garand, Recherche en Prévisio
846-09	<b>Cloud motion measurement from radar image sequences</b> , M. A. Abidi, Univ. Univ. of Tennessee and Perceptics Corp. ....
846-10	<b>Automated detection of microburst windshear for Terminal Doppler Weath</b> Lab./Massachusetts Institute of Technology. ....

**SESSION 2. VISUAL COMMUNICATION OF METEOROLOGICAL PHENOMENA.**

846-11	<b>Three-dimensional display of meteorological scientific data</b> , S. L. Grotch, La
846-12	<b>Four-dimensional techniques for evaluation of atmospheric model forecast</b> G. Diak, G. Callan, Univ. of Wisconsin. ....
846-13	<b>Four-dimensional rendering of meteorological data</b> , R. P. Pass, M. R. Tang, A
846-14	<b>Four-dimensional display of satellite cloud images</b> , W. L. Hibbard, Univ. of W
846-15	<b>Meteorological surface analysis using perspective topographic maps</b> , J. M. P. G. Knight, F. J. Gadowski, Pennsylvania State Univ. ....
846-16	<b>Temporal display of meteorological satellite imagery on a static, full-color d</b> U.S. Air Force Geophysics Lab. ....
846-17	<b>Color-composite image processing for multispectral meteorological satellit</b> L. W. Thomason, J. T. Bunting, U.S. Air Force Geophysics Lab. ....
846-18	<b>Applications of digital image processing to ongoing research in complex ter</b> J. M. Hubbe, C. D. Whiteman, H. P. Foote, L. G. McWethy, Pacific Northwes

**SESSION 3. METEOROLOGICAL WORKSTATION TECHNOLOGY. ....**

846-21	<b>NASA's use of McIDAS technology: a data systems tool for meteorologica</b> H. M. Goodman, Univ. of Alabama/Huntsville; P. J. Meyer, NASA/Marshall
846-22	<b>Integrated satellite APT and weather radio broadcast processor</b> , K. W. Rugg

*DIGITAL IMAGE PROCESSING AND  
VISUAL COMMUNICATIONS TECHNOLOGIES IN ME*

Volume 846

**Session 1**

**Digital Image Processing of Remotely Sensed**

*Chairs*

**Mary des Jardins**

NASA/Goddard Space Flight Center

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Colorado State University

# Classification of cloud fields based on textural features

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

Textural features have been widely used by the pattern recognition community for the classification of digital images.<sup>4,11,14</sup> However, the meteorological community has virtually ignored texture-based methods in cloud classification. The current study is based upon spectral signatures<sup>3</sup> is at least in part due to the studies of Rosenfeld.<sup>15</sup> They found that attempts to resolve ambiguity in type signatures by the addition of textural features did not present in misclassification errors. However, these results were based on a resolution in the visible channel and 4 n mi spatial resolution. The present study reexamines the applicability of texture-based features for cloud classification using very high spatial resolution (57 m) LANDSAT digital data. We conclude that cloud classification can be accomplished using a single visible channel.

## 2. OVERVIEW

First and second order statistical measures of image gray levels define textural features. Haralick et al.<sup>6</sup> used a set of 14 statistics based upon Gray Level Cooccurrence Matrices for image classification. Later, Rosenfeld<sup>15</sup> proposed some additional measures based on the third and second order statistics. The concept of gray level cooccurrence matrices was generalized to Generalized Cooccurrence Matrices (GCM).<sup>5</sup>

Viewing image texture from a different perspective, Mitchell<sup>1</sup> introduced a textural measure based on the statistical properties of significant gray levels. The resulting MAX-MIN algorithm has advantages of being hardware-implemented. Sengupta et al.<sup>16</sup> introduced a joint analysis of local extremes of MAX-MIN and that of the GCM, joint distribution of adjacent pairs of significant local extrema and distances. The statistical measures derived from the generalized GCM are then viewed as the textural characteristics of the image. Both the magnitude of the extrema and the distance separating images taken from Brodatz<sup>2</sup> were classified with 95%-97% accuracy.

## 3. CLASSIFICATION FEATURES

The Max-Min Cooccurrence Matrix (MMCM) method first locates extremes in gray level along a horizontal scan. Here, by "significant" we mean the gray levels I,J of adjacent pairs of local-maximum-to-local-minimum pairs satisfy

$$|I-J| > T, \quad (1)$$

where T is an appropriate threshold. A value of T=1 is used in this study. Let  $m(I,J)_d$  be the number of adjacent local extrema with gray levels I and J separated by a pixel distance d. For fixed d,  $m(I,J)$  is normalized to construct  $P(I,J)_d$  which then is used to derive the textural measures listed in Table 1 (the subscript d is dropped for convenience).



(2) The first order statistics associated with  $P(I)$  and  $P(J)$  distributions of local maxima and minima:

(a) means  $\mu_x, \mu_y$

(b) variances  $\sigma_x^2, \sigma_y^2$

(3) Contrast:  $CONTR = \sum_{I,J} (I-J)^2 P(I,J)$

(4) Angular Second Moment:  $ASM = \sum_{I,J} P(I,J)^2$

(5) Correlation:  $CORR = [\sum_{I,J} IJP(I,J) - \mu_x \mu_y] / \sigma_x \sigma_y$

(6) Entropy:  $ENTROPY = - \sum_{I,J} P(I,J) \log P(I,J)$

(7) Local Homogeneity:  $HOMOG = \sum_{I,J} P(I,J) / [1 + (I-J)^2]$

(8) Cluster Shade<sup>19</sup> for

(a) difference:  $SHADE = \sum_{I,J} [(I-J) - (\mu_x - \mu_y)]^3 P(I,J) / [\sigma_x^3]$

(b) sum:  $SHADEX = \sum_{I,J} [(I+J) - (\mu_x + \mu_y)]^3 P(I,J) / (\sigma_x^3 + 2\sigma_{xy})$

(9) Cluster Prominence<sup>19</sup> for

(a) difference:  $PROM = \sum_{I,J} [(I-J) - (\mu_x - \mu_y)]^4 P(I,J) / (\sigma_x^4)$

(b) sum:  $PROMX = \sum_{I,J} [(I+J) - (\mu_x + \mu_y)]^4 P(I,J) / (\sigma_x^4 + 2\sigma_{xy})$

(10) Goodness of Fit<sup>15</sup> Measure:

$$GOFM = \left\{ \sum_{I,J} [P(I,J) - P(I)P(J)]^2 / [P(I)P(J)] \right\}^{1/2}$$

where  $P(I)$  and  $P(J)$  are the marginal distributions.

#### 4. DATA ANALYSIS

LANDSAT Multispectral Scanner (MSS) digital data with spatial resolution of 185 m was used in this study. Each scene is 185 km wide and 170 km in length. The data were classified into 12 cloud scenes: 8 stratocumulus, 8 cumulus, and 12 cirrus cloud scenes were analyzed. The 12 cirrus cloud scenes and 7 of the cumulus scenes are shown in Figure 1. The 12 cirrus scenes are shown in Kuo et al.<sup>18</sup>

Each of the 35 scenes is subdivided into 20 regions. Each sample from the class of that scene, is 512 x 512 pixels (29 subregions, some contained no clouds). These clear subregions were used in the initial classification study.

discriminant function, chosen in a stepwise manner using the BM for classification. Equal prior probabilities of belonging to (stratocumulus, cumulus, cirrus) are assumed. The experiment : two holdout patterns, "scattered" and "contiguous."

## 5. RESULTS

The following summary table shows the classification accuracies (SC), 53 cumulus (Cu), and 76 cirrus (Ci) holdouts:

Classified Actual	"Scattered" Pattern			"Contiguous" Pattern
	Sc	Cu	Ci	Sc
Sc	94	4	2	77
Cu	0	50	3	13
Ci	1	3	72	1

For the "scattered" holdout pattern, 94/100 of the stratocumulus were correctly classified. The 4/100 cases of stratocumulus classified as cumulus are regarded as misclassified. 50/53 cumulus scenes are correctly classified and 3 are misclassified as stratocumulus. Finally, 72/76 cirrus are correctly classified and 4 are misclassified as stratocumulus. The overall classification accuracy for the "scattered" pattern compared to 79.9% for the "contiguous" pattern. Only 77/100 of the stratocumulus are classified correctly, 38/53 of the cumulus, and 72/76 of the cirrus. Interestingly, cirrus have the overall highest classification accuracy. This is important because normally cirrus are difficult to detect.

In the "scattered" holdout pattern, arbitrary regions from each scene are used as test cases for the classifier. In these cases, classification accuracy is very low. In the "contiguous" holdout pattern, each scene has significantly lower accuracy because the holdout scene is different from the scenes used in the training data. This is a significant problem because the same sets have been used to train the classifier. That is, the range of each cloud class is larger than that of the 10 stratocumulus, 6 cumulus, and 4 cirrus scenes used for training data. The 94.3% accuracy obtained using the "scattered" holdout pattern is a very encouraging indication that improvement of classification accuracy can be obtained simply by increasing the database.

The variables used in the final step of the classification are listed in Table 2. Subscripts 1 and 2 refer to pixel distances  $d=1$  and  $d=2$ .

Holdout Case	Variables
Scattered	HOMOG <sub>2</sub> , NOP <sub>2</sub> , HOMOG <sub>1</sub> , PROM <sub>1</sub> , SHADE <sub>2</sub> , SHADEX <sub>2</sub> , PROMX <sub>2</sub> , PROMX <sub>1</sub> , SHADEX <sub>1</sub> , PROM <sub>2</sub> , PROM <sub>1</sub>
Contiguous	HOMOG <sub>1</sub> , ENTROPY <sub>2</sub> , CONTR <sub>1</sub> , ENTROPY <sub>1</sub> , SHADE <sub>1</sub> , SHADE <sub>2</sub> , CORR <sub>2</sub> , NOP <sub>2</sub> , NOP <sub>1</sub> , CONTR <sub>2</sub> , CONTR <sub>1</sub>

## 6. CONCLUSION

Sengupta et al.<sup>16</sup> found the Number of Points (NOP<sub>1</sub>) at d=1 classification of Brodatz<sup>2</sup> textures. This value represents the constructed from nearest neighbor pixels. A large number of NOP<sub>1</sub> is a predominance of sharp gradients between MAX-MIN pairs. H is found to be most useful in classification of cloud types. stratus or cirrostratus which have small MAX-MIN differences and homogeneity.

The 94% classification accuracy obtained for the "scattered" demonstrates that the MAX-MIN Cooccurrence Matrix method has good classification. The method is computationally inexpensive and visible channel. Use of directional texture measures allows of field orientation.<sup>17,18</sup>

The present is a pilot study which merely demonstrates the A larger database is required to improve the range of variability class. In addition, studies should be undertaken to include samples for land, water, ice, snow, mountains, cloud streets, cumulonimbus

## 7. ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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# ABSTRACT

A method is derived using digitised GOES east visual images of the Earth's surface. Atmospheric effects are accounted for with and Curran<sup>1</sup> which depend only on the solar zenith angle and with fit quantities derived from measurements. The albedos so four ing satellite brightness counts, meteorological data, surface astronomical computations, are in agreement with values cited

## 1. INTRODUCTION

A recurring problem in geophysical and atmospheric studies, earth radiation budget and climate modelling studies, is the ebedo, using imagery or upwelling radiance measurements from a calibrated and accounting for effects of the atmosphere. The dy shows promise of much greater accuracy in finding the albed

## 2. ESTIMATION OF SURFACE ALBEDO

### 2.1. Radiation balance of the Earth-atmosphere system

The broad-band, as defined by the spectral limits of the Exnometer (PSP), energy balance equation at the top of the Earth written:

$$I_o = I_o \sum_{i=1}^5 a_i + I_R + I_S (1 - a_s) + I_S a_s \sum_{i=1}^5 a'_i,$$

where:  $I_o = S_o r^{-2} \cos \theta_o$  = the horizontal solar flux incident atmosphere;

$S_o$  = normal incidence extraterrestrial solar flux at  $r = 1$  AU;

$r$  = Earth-sun distance (astronomical units, AU);

$\theta_o$  = local solar zenith angle ( $^\circ$ );

$I_R$  = radiation reflected spaceward by the Earth-atmosphere

$a_i$  = absorptivity of the  $i^{th}$  atmospheric constituent for direct (i = 1 for water vapor, 2 for carbon dioxide, 3 for ozone, 4 for suspended dust);

$a'_i$  = absorptivity of the  $i^{th}$  atmospheric constituent for sky reflected upward by the Earth's surface, found from the  $a_i$ 's, but with the relative optical air masses (ROAM)

$I_S$  = insolation at the surface;

$a_s$  = surface albedo;

$p$  = surface pressure (kPa); and

$p_o = 101.325$  kPa.

Dividing (1) by  $I_o$  and denoting the fractional radiative  $q_i$  (e.g.,  $I_S/I_o = i_s$ ) yields

$$A_s(0, \theta_o) = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^5 \alpha_i - i_s.$$

If the "slope function",  $m_s(\theta_o)$ , is defined as the partial derivative with respect to the surface albedo, then from (3),

$$m_s(\theta_o) = \frac{\partial A_s(a_s, \theta_o)}{\partial a_s} = i_s \left( 1 - \sum_{i=1}^5 \alpha_i \right)$$

which is independent of the surface albedo,  $a_s$ . Nack and Curran provide relationships for (4) and (5) which depend only on the

$$A_s(0, \theta_o) = 0.0483 + 1.087 \times 10^{-5} \theta_o^2 - 2.219 \times 10^{-9} \theta_o^4 + 6.77$$

and

$$m_s(\theta_o) = 0.7213 - 2.180 \times 10^{-9} \theta_o^4 - 4.941 \times 10^{-13} \theta_o^6.$$

Equations (4) and (5), then, make possible an experimental method of computation of the "intercept" and "slope" functions of Equations

First, the experimental value of  $A_s(0, \theta_o)$  is computed from (4) using pyranometric measurements of  $I_s$  and computed values of  $I_o$  to fit the clear sky insolation model to compute the  $\alpha_i$  quantities. Next, values are plotted against the corresponding N&C theoretical values. If a significant difference is shown to exist between the set of values and those obtained from (4), then a new dependence of  $A_s(0, \theta_o)$  is determined by least-squares curve fitting. If no significant difference is found, there is no reason to suppose that any new relationship found from a limited data set is better than (6). Next, a similar process is used to compare the values computed from (5) with the theoretical values from (7). If a significant difference between the two sets of values is found, a new relationship is derived through least-squares curve fitting.

Once  $A_s(0, \theta_o)$  and  $m_s(\theta_o)$  are found, they may be substituted into (3) so that the surface albedo may be found from

$$a_s = [i_R - A_s(0, \theta_o)] / m_s(\theta_o).$$

## 2.2. Clear sky insolation model

After comparison of many clear sky insolation models (mostly the model of Hoyt<sup>4</sup>) has been selected to compute the absorptivity from (4) and (5). The following equations are presented without citation to Hoyt<sup>4</sup>.

$$\text{For H}_2\text{O vapor: } \alpha_1 = 0.11 (u_{1p} m_w + 6.31 \times 10^{-4})^{0.3} - 0.0121;$$

$$\text{for CO}_2: \quad \alpha_2 = 0.00235(126 m_{kp} + 0.0129)^{0.26} - 7.5 \times 10^{-4}$$

$$\text{for O}_3: \quad \alpha_3 = 0.045 (u_{3p} m_p + 8.34 \times 10^{-4})^{0.38} - 3.1 \times 10^{-4}$$



$$m_K = 1.0006 / [\cos \theta_0 + 0.150 (93.885 - \theta_0)^{-1.253}]; \text{ and}$$

$$m_R = 35 (1224 \cos^2 \theta_0 + 1)^{-0.5}.$$

Other quantities are:

$u_{1p}$  = the total water vapor column (cm or gm cm<sup>-2</sup>) correct  
the spectral lines at each level by using  $(P + 5.3e)/1$

P = atmospheric pressure at level (kPa);

e = water vapor partial pressure (kPa)

$\omega_0$  = the single scatter albedo of aerosols ( $\approx 0.95$ );

$\beta$  = the Volz-Ångström turbidity coefficient; and

$g(\beta)$  = a function of  $\beta$  from Table 2 in Hoyt<sup>4</sup>. From my own

$$g(\beta) = 0.947 - 1.044 \beta + 0.00575/(\beta + 0.108).$$

### 3. APPLICATION OF THIS METHOD TO HAMPTON UNIVERSITY

#### 3.1. Input data

February, 1982 has been chosen as the study period because my arrival in Hampton, Virginia ( $\phi, \lambda$ ) = (37.019°N, 76.338°W) which the surface albedo could be assumed to be approximately exists more than a couple of days in Hampton without cloud cover settled enough into my job to run a field study. 32 times we studied based on the following criteria: (1) Nominal Visual- (VISSR) scan time at Hampton; (2) sun at least 5° above horizon of zenith or 20° of sun (based on sky condition observations between observations (this final criterion is relaxed on February date on which local turbidity observations have been made). cut further to 23 because of difficulties in finding the Hampton in seven low solar elevation cases, and in tape reading pairs

Values for the normal incidence extraterrestrial solar flux Hickey et al.<sup>5</sup> for fifteen days in the period January 29 through case study times have been obtained through linear interpolation

Surface (temperature, dew point and station pressure) and points, winds and geopotential heights at pressure levels) were obtained from the NOAA National Climatic Center Environmental Data Center (NOAA/NCC/EDIS), Asheville, NC, for 21 surface and four upper level data. The upper level data have been used to determine the water vapor. This quantity, and the surface station pressures, are adjusted by interpolation.<sup>6</sup> The upper level data are interpolated to Hampton by

$$Q = a + bL + cE + dLE$$

where Q is the interpolated quantity, L and E are the VISSR spatial analyses in this study have been done using GOES images. a, b, c, and d are exact fit coefficients. This quantity is then evaluated at the site values of L and E. The surface pressure at Hampton University is the average of the pressures at two nearby stations (Langley AFB and Cape Charles) and the square of the distance from the Hampton site.

Dobson spectrophotometer measurements of the total ozone for four nearby stations from the Canadian Atmospheric Environment Data Centre. Spatial interpolation is from (18) and time in

One minute integrated totals of the insolation have been made throughout the study period. The instrument is an Eppley PSP with a clear glass dome. Four-minute totals are obtained from these, and the high resolution of the satellite solar radiation study as the short integrating period, however, limits the significant figure and some uncertainty has been introduced into measurements of  $I_s$ .

Visual images of the highest (approximately 0.8 x 1km at nadir) are obtained for all 32 original cases in the On-line Data Ingest System at the University of Wisconsin Space Sciences Engineering Center (UW/SSEC) Environmental Satellite Services Data and Information Service (NOAA), and are calibrated using the method of Norton *et al.*<sup>7</sup> with histograms produced by the UW/SSEC. Because of problems in navigating the images (format and navigation parameters), the images are registered manually by the investigators. Once the pixel containing the Hampton site has been found, a 5x5 pixel array, centered on this pixel, is extracted and a weighted average of the brightness counts is made. The weights are proportional to the distance from the central pixel and an arbitrary large but finite value is used for the central pixel. This weighting accounts for effects of sub-pixel adjacency effects. Finally, to get  $I_R$ , the non-isotropic reflection is counted for using the bi-directional reflectance model of Raschke. The site includes both land and water, both land and water reflectance

## 3.2 Results

3.2.1. The N&C "intercept function",  $A_s(0, \theta_0)$ . This function is estimated, from experimental data and Equation (4) along with the clear sky model. This function is also estimated from Equation (6). A scattergram comparing these two sets of estimates, shows ample agreement (correlation coefficient = 0.9954 and mean square error =  $2.85 \times 10^{-4}$ ). Figure 1 shows both experimental (data points) and theoretical (smooth curve) values of the "intercept function" versus the solar zenith angle,  $\theta_0$ . It can be seen that these values agree very well. A test of the hypothesis, that  $A_s(\text{exp.})(0, \theta_0) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 A_s(\text{th.})(0, \theta_0)$ , with coefficients  $\beta_0 = 0$  and  $\beta_1 = 1$ , could not reject this hypothesis. It is said that  $A_s(0, \theta_0)$  can be just as well estimated from Equation (4) as from a least-squares fitting of  $A_s$  versus  $\theta_0$  with only 23 cases.

3.2.2. The N&C "slope function",  $m_s(\theta_0)$ . Equation (5), along with the absorptivities and the experimental data, are used to estimate the slope function. Also used to estimate this function. A scattergram (not shown) comparing the experimental estimates, though showing a strong correlation ( $r = 0.995$ ), also shows the theoretical over the experimental set (mean bias error = -0.1126 and mean square error = 0.0145). In fact, there is not one value in the theoretical set that is within 0.059 of its experimental counterpart by at least 0.059. Thus, it has been decided to perform any hypothesis test on whether the theoretical set differs from the experimental set. A new formula, made from least squares curve fitting, replaces the

$$m_s(\theta_0) = 0.6270 - 1.345 \times 10^{-9} \theta_0^4 - 8.403 \times 10^{-13} \theta_0^6.$$

Figure 2 shows the experimental (data points) and both of the theoretical (7) and (19) (smooth curves), as functions of the solar zenith angle. The results produce a different "slope function" than that from N&C.

3.2.3. Surface Albedo. Equation (8) is solved for the surface albedo

has been derived from a least-squares linear fit and is plotted as  $\hat{a}_s$  values is used to test the hypothesis that  $\hat{a}_s = \bar{a}_s$  (= ensemble mean). The F-test reveals that this hypothesis can not be rejected and is accepted as the surface albedo, independent of the solar zenith angle. It is noted, however, that a positive dependence of the surface albedo on solar zenith angle has been found by many scientists for land and water surfaces. This is in agreement with many findings for semi-urban snow-free sites with Robinson and Kukla<sup>10</sup>).

#### 4. CONCLUSIONS

The problems of finding the albedo of a point on the surface for atmospheric effects and using a satellite radiometer of which has been sidestepped by using a model of atmospheric effects which is a function of the solar zenith angle. The two main relationships in this model (Equations 1 and 2) may be reparameterized if a set of values derived from them derived from meteorological data and a clear sky model respectively "recalibrates" the GOES east visual sensors. The results are very reasonable and in agreement with published values for similar conditions. This is a great improvement in accuracy over visual data.

This topic is dealt with in greater detail in Foreman<sup>9</sup>.

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