

The internal cloud radiation field and a technique for determining cloud blackness¹

By RICHARD D. H. LOW, *Atmospheric Sciences Laboratory, U.S. Army Electronics Research and Development Command, White Sands Missile Range, NM 88002, U.S.A.*

(Manuscript received December 1, 1977; in final form April 6, 1978)

ABSTRACT

The internal radiation fields of homogeneous and inhomogeneous stratocumulus model clouds under the same meteorological conditions were investigated at several wavelengths in the 11 μm window region. The results showed that a homogeneous cloud model may be used in place of an inhomogeneous one to deduce the upwelling radiances, but not the internal structure of the cloud radiation field. The resulting findings that in this window region the optical properties of a cloud at a shorter wavelength permit a greater penetration of the surface radiation and hence scattering by the cloud particles than those at longer wavelengths lead to the development of a technique for quickly assessing the "blackness" of a cloud.

The technique requires the use of two channels in the window region to establish a ratio of the observed upwelling radiances. The ratio is then compared with the reference ratio derived from a knowledge of the estimated surface temperature in what was termed the ratio test. It was shown that the estimated temperature need not be accurate. Examples are presented to demonstrate that the vertical emissivity of clouds is close to 0.95 or greater when the ratio test is satisfied. However, when the observed radiances convert to nearly the same temperature value, the cloud may be said to have an emissivity of unity and that temperature then becomes the cloud-top temperature. On the basis of this method, the temperature field generated by satellite infrared imagery may be accepted or rejected with reasonable confidence.

1. Introduction

One of the serious problems in satellite infrared imagery analyses and in the retrieval of temperature profiles in the presence of clouds from satellite soundings is how to differentiate between the derived temperature values which arise from the radiation field involving the black-body or non-black-body cloud. This problem has been recognized by Glahn (1966) as one of several difficult problems in conjunction with the determination of cloud top heights and areal coverage. Chahine (1974, 1977a, 1977b), among others, in a series of outstanding papers has described methods for retrieving atmospheric temperatures in the presence of clouds. However, these methods assume that the clouds are black-bodies. Although a number of papers (e.g., Yamamoto et al., 1966;

Zdunkowski and Choronenko, 1969; Yamamoto et al., 1970; Hunt, 1973) have examined the approximate thickness required for a cloud to radiate as a black-body, the cloud blackness problem has not yet comprehensively been investigated. If the cloud thickness is the required parameter to determine whether a cloud temperature arises from a black-body radiation field, then it seems that the problem is far from being satisfactorily resolved.

The purpose of this paper is to discuss the problem of the cloud blackness in the 11 μm infrared window region in relation to satellite application. In examining the internal structure of the cloud radiation field, a method was developed by which the degree of the cloud blackness may be derived by adding a 10.5 μm channel to, for example, the existing 12.0 μm channel in the vertical temperature profile radiometer (VTPR). Consequently, it would be possible to determine the reliability of the derived temperature values. To develop the method, it is necessary to first understand physically the internal cloud radiation field.

¹ Part of this paper was presented at the AGU Fall Meeting in San Francisco, California, December 4–8, 1977.

Since we are primarily interested in satellite application, we felt that to investigate only the vertical upward-going radiation of clouds would be sufficient.

The computer program for solving the radiative transfer equation was based upon the Gauss-Seidel iteration technique (Herman and Browning, 1965; Low, 1977) and had been checked out against published values in the literature (Yamamoto et al., 1966; Hunt, 1973). For water vapor attenuation, use was made of LOWTRAN 3 (Selby and McClatchey, 1975) and the empirical formula given by Roberts et al. (1976) to account for selective and continuum absorption, respectively. The computer program not only gives the cloud radiance values as a function of zenith angles at different prescribed geometric levels, but also calculates the optical properties, including the optical thicknesses and single-scattering albedos at corresponding levels.

Since an understanding of the internal structure of the cloud radiation field is essential to the development of the technique, the next section describes the cloud models to be used in the investigation. The theoretical basis then follows. In Section 4, computational results are presented, and the internal radiation structures are examined. These analyses lead to the development of the technique for determining the degree of cloud "blackness" or emissivity in Section 5. A few numerical examples will be given here. The final section contains our findings and conclusions.

2. Cloud model

Only recently have the radiative properties of clouds been studied realistically with inhomogeneous droplet and temperature distributions considered. Stephens (1976), using the meteorological, microphysical, and radiation data furnished to him by Paltridge (1974), investigated the inhomogeneous stratiform clouds theoretically and found the calculated downward radiances in good agreement with the observed values. In this paper, we adopt Platt's observations (1972) of upwelling radiances emerging at different levels from his inhomogeneous Stratocumulus Deck 2 as shown in Fig. 1. This cloud had a thickness of about 550 m with a temperature distribution as given in his figure. From the typical humidity profile

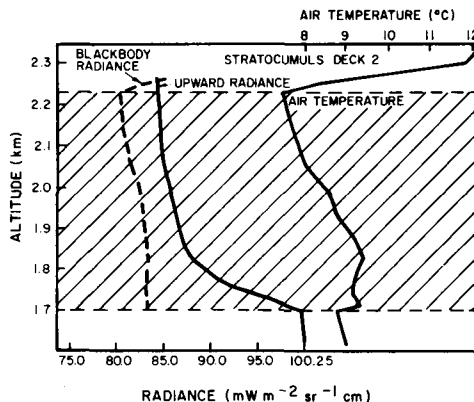


Fig. 1. Profiles of vertical upward radiance, air temperature, and black-body radiance through the stratocumulus cloud deck.

shown, it may be inferred that except for the middle region of the cloud, which was saturated, both the top and base layers were most likely subsaturated.

We chose to simulate Platt's radiance profile in the $10.5 \mu\text{m}$ window and express our radiance values in $\text{mW m}^{-2} \text{sr}^{-1} \text{cm}$, which can be readily converted to his physical unit by means of a simple formula. However, it should be noted that our choice of cloud microphysics and wavelength would in no way affect either our analysis of the internal radiation structure or our findings and conclusions.

Although no microphysics data were provided by Platt (1972), on the basis of a number of cloud physics studies (Fletcher, 1962; Borovikov et al., 1963; Mason, 1971), it appears that the gamma distribution (Levin, 1958) with two parameters, $\alpha = 4$ and $\beta = 1$, may adequately represent the stratocumulus cloud over the ocean. The droplet sizes ranged from $0.5 \mu\text{m}$ to $25 \mu\text{m}$ with a mean radius of $5 \mu\text{m}$. In view of the abundant supply of sea-salt nuclei over the ocean, the upper limit of the range seems to represent a reasonable value. With the known distribution function and size range and the refractive indices for water spheres (Irvine and Pollack, 1968) Mie scattering and absorption coefficients per unit length may be calculated (Deirmendjian, 1969).

Stratocumulus Deck 2 was divided into 22 layers each 25 m thick, and radiance values were computed at each level. With the Mie coefficients known, we made a first approximation to the number density of droplets required to emit the

desired amount of radiation at each level. Then the temperature profile and the estimated droplet number densities at chosen levels were fed into the computer program to generate a first estimate of upward radiances as a function of cloud depths. Adjustments were made of the number densities at several levels in each run. Platt's radiance profile was reproduced almost exactly for the 10.5 μm window in four trial runs. The input meteorological and microphysical values are given in Table 1. Although the computer program is capable of accounting for water vapor attenuation both inside and outside the cloud, the attenuation of surface radiation below the cloud base was not considered since the amount of attenuation was quite small, as is shown in Fig. 1.

Since most of the droplets concentrate in the lower 150 m layer, rapid attenuation of the surface radiation is found in approximately the first 200 m above the cloud base (Fig. 1). The total number of droplets in the 550 m column per unit cross-sectional area is 2.20×10^6 . We redistributed these droplets uniformly throughout the entire column and came up with 40 droplets cm^{-3} or 3.52×10^{-2} g m^{-3} in liquid water content at each level. By taking the average temperature in the vertical column, a homogeneous and isothermal cloud similar to those used by Yamamoto et al. (1966) and Hunt (1973) was created from the original cloud model.

3. Theoretical background

The equation governing the transfer of thermal radiation through a scattering and absorptive medium is

$$\mu \frac{dI(\tau; \mu)}{d\tau} = I(\tau; \mu) - \frac{\tilde{\omega}_0(\tau)}{2} \int_{-1}^{+1} p^0(\mu, \mu') I(\tau, \mu') d\mu' - [1 - \tilde{\omega}_0(\tau)] B[T_c(\tau)], \quad (1)$$

where I is the spectral intensity or radiance, μ the cosine of the zenith angle, τ the optical thickness, $\tilde{\omega}_0$ the single-scattering albedo, $p^0(\mu, \mu')$ the integrated phase function over azimuth angle, and $B[T_c(\tau)]$ the Planck function for cloud temperature T_c at level τ . For simplicity, the wavenumber-dependent subscript has been eliminated. The above equation can be separated into two compo-

Table 1. *Input meteorological and microphysical data of the model cloud*

Height (km)	Pressure (mb)	Air temp. (K)	Dew temp. (K)	Droplet (cm^{-3})
2.25	777.21	280.55	279.15	5.0
2.10	791.40	281.05	280.65	10.0
2.00	801.00	281.65	281.65	15.0
1.90	810.48	282.24	282.25	25.0
1.85	815.26	282.45	282.45	50.0
1.80	820.07	282.45	282.35	100.0
1.75	824.91	282.35	282.25	130.0
1.70	829.78	281.95	281.75	120.0

nents as follows: one component denotes the external field, primarily due to surface radiation, and the other denotes the cloud emission.

For the external field (I_g),

$$\mu \frac{dI_g(\tau; \mu)}{d\tau} = I_g(\tau; \mu) - \frac{\tilde{\omega}_0(\tau)}{2} \int_{-1}^{+1} p^0(\mu, \mu') I_g(\tau, \mu') d\mu', \quad (2)$$

with boundary conditions

$$\left. \begin{aligned} I_g(0; -\mu) &= 0 \\ I_g(\tau_b; +\mu) &= B(T_s) \end{aligned} \right\}, \quad (3)$$

where 0 and τ_b denote the cloud top and base, respectively, and T_s is the surface temperature.

For the cloud emission (I_c),

$$\mu \frac{dI_c(\tau; \mu)}{d\tau} = I_c(\tau; \mu) - \frac{\tilde{\omega}_0(\tau)}{2} \int_{-1}^{+1} p^0(\mu, \mu') I_c(\tau, \mu') d\mu' - [1 - \tilde{\omega}_0(\tau)] B[T_c(\tau)], \quad (4)$$

with boundary conditions

$$\left. \begin{aligned} I_c(0; -\mu) &= 0; \\ I_c(\tau_b; +\mu) &= 0. \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (5)$$

To simplify our expressions, let

$$S'_g(\tau; \mu) = \frac{\tilde{\omega}_0(\tau)}{2} \int_{-1}^{+1} p^0(\mu, \mu') I_g(\tau, \mu') d\mu', \quad (6)$$

and

$$S'_c(\tau; \mu) = \frac{\tilde{\omega}_0(\tau)}{2} \int_{-1}^{+1} p^0(\mu, \mu') I_c(\tau, \mu') d\mu'. \quad (7)$$

Equations (6) and (7) represent the contributions by droplet scatterings. Thus, we have equations for upward radiation

$$\mu \frac{dI_g(\tau; +\mu)}{d\tau} = I_g(\tau; +\mu) - S'_g(\tau; +\mu), \quad (8)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \mu \frac{dI_c(\tau; +\mu)}{d\tau} &= I_c(\tau; +\mu) - S'_c(\tau; +\mu) \\ &- [1 - \tilde{\omega}_0(\tau)]B[T_c(\tau)], \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

corresponding to (2) and (4), respectively. Similar expressions can be written for downward radiation by changing $+\mu$ to $-\mu$.

For a finite optical thickness, the expressions are readily solved (Chandrasekhar, 1960). Our computer program solves (8) and (9) in essentially the same manner by means of the Gauss-Seidel iteration technique for upwelling (as well as downwelling) radiation at successive levels from the cloud base to the top in accordance with boundary conditions (3) and (5).

The approximate solutions of (8) and (9) with the boundary conditions specified for the upwelling radiances, I_g and I_c , at each successive level from the cloud base may be written in the form

$$I_g \simeq B_g T + S_g, \quad (10)$$

$$I_c \simeq (1 - \tilde{\omega}_0)B_c(1 - T) + S_c, \quad (11)$$

where B_g represents $B(T)$; $B_c B[T_c(\tau)]$; $S_g S'_g(1 - T)$; $S_c S'_c(1 - T)$; and $T = [e^{-(\tau_0 - \tau)}]$ is the vertical transmittance from the cloud base to that level τ . Values of I_g and I_c for the cloud model were obtained for 10.5-, 11.5-, 12.0-, and 12.5- μm wave-

lengths. The refractive indices for these wavelengths were taken from Irvine and Pollack (1968). The volume scattering, absorption, and extinction coefficients for 100 droplets and the average single-scattering albedo for the model cloud are given in Table 2.

Upwelling radiances I_g and I_c together contribute to the total upwelling radiation from the model cloud, whereas I_c represents radiance from an isolated cloud only, i.e., no surface emission contribution (see, e.g., Zdunkowski and Choronenko, 1969).

4. Internal radiation structure and discussions

Examination of (10) and (11) reveals that as T becomes closer to unity (or τ approaches 0) near the base of a thick cloud the total upward radiance, $I_g + I_c$, originates mainly from surface radiation and little from cloud emission. On the other hand, near the cloud top where T approaches 0 (or τ approaches infinity), the cloud emission and scattering dominate.

Thus,

$$I_g \simeq 0, \quad \text{then } I_c \simeq B[T_c(0)] = \tilde{B}_c$$

and

$$\tilde{B}_c \simeq (1 - \tilde{\omega}_0)B_c + S_c. \quad (12)$$

This means that the apparent black-body radiation $\tilde{B}_c$ at the top of a "black" cloud is composed of two radiant components, which include partly thermal emission and partly scattering. The fractional amount of each is determined by the average single scattering albedo $\tilde{\omega}_0$ of the cloud.

Since the values of all the terms at each level in (10) and (11), except those of S_g and S_c which also include some contributions from downward radiation, can be readily calculated, it is simple to sort out the contributions to the vertical upward radiation made by cloud emission, surface radiation, and droplet scatterings and to examine their changes with wavelength and cloud depth. For simplicity of presentation, the internal cloud radiation field was examined at 200-m intervals up to 500 m as well as the cloud top at 550 m. Also, the cloud model was examined in four different cases involving (1) inhomogeneous droplet and temperature distributions, (2) homogeneous in both

Table 2. Volume scattering (β_{scat}), absorption (β_{abs}), and extinction (β_{ext}) coefficients and average single scattering albedo ($\tilde{\omega}_0$) of the model cloud as a function of wavelength (λ)

λ (μm)	β_{scat} (km^{-1})	β_{abs} (km^{-1})	β_{ext} (km^{-1})	$\tilde{\omega}_0$
10.5	7.2609	6.1013	13.3622	0.5044
11.0	4.8780	7.2201	12.0981	0.3665
11.5	4.6519	8.5988	13.2507	0.3174
12.0	5.2469	9.7333	14.9802	0.3152
12.5	5.8936	10.3532	16.2468	0.2796

droplet and temperature distributions, (3) isothermal but inhomogeneous in droplet distribution, and (4) homogeneous in droplet distribution but with non-isothermal temperature distribution. The first case was run for all the wavelengths listed in the

preceding section, and the other three at 10.5 μm and 12.5 μm only. In this manner, some physical insight may be derived as to the suitability of employing a homogeneous cloud as opposed to an inhomogeneous one for modeling purposes.

Three tables are presented. The first two deal with percentage contributions in the four cases, in which *SS* denotes the total scattering contributions, i.e., $S_s + S_c$, *CE* the cloud emission, and *TS* the reduced surface radiation. To evaluate what role the inclusion of water vapor would play in cloud modeling, the calculated radiance values at each level are given in Table 5, so that the percentage contribution made by water vapor to upward radiation may be understood.

In Table 3, the changes with wavelength of percentage values, when compared with those of optical values in Table 2, show that (1) the surface contributions (*TS*) at each level vary inversely with the extinction coefficients (β_{ext}), (2) the total scattering contributions (*SS*) fluctuate about the average single scattering albedos ($\bar{\omega}_0$) of the cloud, and (3) the emission contributions (*CE*) increase with the wavelength. An examination of Tables 3 and 4 shows that, at all wavelengths, as the surface contributions decrease with thickness, the emission contributions increase. The scattering contributions due to surface radiation and those due to

Table 3. *Percentage contributions by total scattering (SS), cloud emission (CE), and reduced surface radiation (TS) to upwelling radiation at different levels (m) as a function of wavelength in case 1*

		Wavelength (μm)				
		10.5	11.0	11.5	12.0	12.5
100	<i>SS</i>	44	32	29	32	31
	<i>CE</i>	34	43	49	52	54
	<i>TS</i>	22	25	22	18	15
300	<i>SS</i>	50	36	32	32	31
	<i>CE</i>	42	54	60	62	65
	<i>TS</i>	8	10	8	6	4
500	<i>SS</i>	50	36	31	31	28
	<i>CE</i>	44	56	63	65	70
	<i>TS</i>	6	8	6	4	2
550	<i>SS</i>	49	36	31	31	28
	<i>CE</i>	45	58	64	65	70
	<i>TS</i>	6	6	5	4	2

Table 4. *Percentage contributions by total scattering, cloud emission, and reduced surface radiation to upwelling radiation at different levels at 10.5 μm and 12.5 μm in case 2 (homo DT), case 3 (homo T only), and case 4 (homo D only)*

		Case 2 Homo DT (μm)		Case 3 Homo T only (μm)		Case 4 Homo D only (μm)	
		10.50	12.50	10.50	12.50	10.50	12.50
100	<i>SS</i>	23	17	44	31	23	17
	<i>CE</i>	17	32	34	54	17	32
	<i>TS</i>	60	51	22	15	60	51
300	<i>SS</i>	34	29	51	31	34	29
	<i>CE</i>	29	58	41	65	30	59
	<i>TS</i>	37	13	8	4	36	12
500	<i>SS</i>	51	31	50	28	50	31
	<i>CE</i>	42	66	44	70	42	66
	<i>TS</i>	7	3	6	2	8	3
550	<i>SS</i>	51	32	49	28	51	31
	<i>CE</i>	43	66	45	70	43	67
	<i>TS</i>	6	2	6	2	6	2

Table 5. *Percentage effect of water vapor on upwelling radiation at different levels as a function of wavelength*

Level (m)	Vapor	10.50 λ (μm)	11.00 λ (μm)	11.50 λ (μm)	12.00 λ (μm)	12.50 λ (μm)
100	Yes	89.34	95.60	100.9	105.8	110.2
	No	89.49	95.77	101.1	106.0	110.7
	Percentage	-0.2	-0.2	-0.2	-0.2	-0.4
300	Yes	85.52	91.84	97.27	102.3	106.8
	No	85.78	92.11	97.51	102.5	107.2
	Percentage	-0.3	-0.3	-0.2	-0.2	-0.4
500	Yes	84.41	90.75	96.20	101.2	105.5
	No	84.79	91.15	96.56	101.6	106.3
	Percentage	-0.4	-0.4	-0.4	-0.4	-0.8
550	Yes	84.23	90.58	96.03	101.1	105.3
	No	84.64	91.01	96.42	101.4	106.1
	Percentage	-0.5	-0.5	-0.4	-0.4	-0.8

cloud emission also behave in similar manners, although they are not tabulated here. However, the percentage values of the total scattering contributions in the four cases at corresponding wavelengths are vastly different, except for case 3. This can be explained by the fact that cloud microphysical properties play significant roles in the determination of the internal radiation structures.

Percentage contributions are almost identical at corresponding levels at both the 10.5 μm and 12.5 μm wavelengths in cases 1 and 3 which share the same *inhomogeneous* droplet distribution. The percentage values are nearly identical in cases 2 and 4 which share the same *homogeneous* droplet distribution. Apparently, this indicates that the upward radiation emerging from any level inside as well as at the top of a cloud is virtually independent of its internal temperature structure; moreover, this implies that the so-called cloud-top temperature may be regarded as the mean temperature of the cloud.

When the cloud is viewed as a whole, i.e., 550 m in thickness, the amounts in all four cases of upward radiation emerging from the top are nearly the same at their corresponding wavelengths. Our calculated radiance values are 84.23, 83.85, 83.95, and 83.67 $\text{mW m}^{-2} \text{sr}^{-1} \text{cm}$ at 10.5 μm for the four cases, respectively. At 12.5 μm , they are 105.30, 105.50, 105.70, and 104.85, respectively. Thus considering the cloud as a whole, little difference

exists at a given wavelength in upward radiation emerging from its top between a homogeneous model and an inhomogeneous one so long as they have the same total droplet number or the same total liquid water amount and the same mean temperature in the cloud column.

In the present study, since surface emission (TS) still contributes to the upward radiance at the cloud top, our cloud is not "black". It is even less black at 10.5 μm than at 12.5 μm . Our calculated average cloud vertical emissivity over the 10.5 μm to 12.5 μm interval is 0.85 compared with Platt's value (1972) of about 0.90 in the 10 μm to 12 μm band. Furthermore, it may be observed in Table 3 that at the 550 m level the scattering contributions (SS) at all wavelengths nearly equal the average single scattering albedos of the cloud in Table 2 at the corresponding wavelengths. If the cloud were to grow another 200 to 300 m thicker, one would expect, as indicated in (12), that at 10.5 μm , for example, the upward emission and scattering contributions would split about 50–50. And this is when cloud emissivity would reach about unity.

Table 5 shows the effect of water vapor on upward radiation at different levels as a function of wavelength. Although there was appreciable water vapor inside the cloud with about 98% relative humidity on the average as given in Table 1, the presence of water vapor appears to have negative but negligible effects on the upward radiance.

5. Ratio test of cloud blackness

Not until a cloud behaves like a black-body radiator can our study of its internal radiation field ignore the radiation contribution from the underlying surface. The surface temperature is, in general, appreciably higher than the cloud temperature, while the cloud-top temperature is lower than the base temperature. Only when the cloud becomes "black" will the upwelling radiation directly relates to the cloud-top temperature. For a non-black cloud, the cloud radiation field is contaminated by the surface radiation; one might say that the radiation field is distorted. To illustrate such distortion, Table 6 shows the equivalent black-body temperatures of the radiation field at different levels as a function of wavelength.

Even though the mean temperature at a given level is at a constant temperature, the equivalent black-body temperatures decrease with wavelength. Normally, black-body radiance values increase monotonically with wavelength at a given temperature. In the present situation, the radiance values at a given level in Table 5 also increase; however, the amount of increase is relatively small. The percentage increases in black-body radiance at, for instance, 9°C are about 9%, 17%, 24%, and 30%, and at 14°C about 8%, 16%, 22%, and 28%, respectively, for 11.0 μm , 11.5 μm , 12.0 μm , and 12.5 μm with reference to the black-body value for 10.5 μm . By comparison, the percentage increases in Table 5 at, for instance, the 100-m level are about 7%, 13%, 18%, and 23%, respectively. At the 550-m level, they are about 8%, 14%, 20%, and 25%, respectively. It is this distortion of the temperature-wavelength relationship, or rather of the radiance-wavelength relationship inside the cloud, that forms the basis upon which our proposed method for determining the quality of cloud blackness or, to some extent, cloud emissivity is developed.

Tables 3 and 6 show an apparent excess in the amount of vertical upward radiation, more at 10.5 μm than at any other wavelengths, giving rise to higher equivalent black-body temperatures in Table 6 at all levels. On the other hand, Table 3 appears to indicate that the surface (TS) and hence the resulting scattering contributions (SS) together are somewhat greater at 10.5 μm .

The former is governed by the extinction coefficient of the cloud and the latter by its single

Table 6. *Equivalent black-body temperatures ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) corresponding to upwelling radiances as a function of wavelength at different levels from the cloud base with mean temperatures ($\bar{T}$ $^{\circ}\text{C}$)*

Level (m)	$\bar{T}$ ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	10.50 (μm)	11.00 (μm)	11.50 (μm)	12.00 (μm)	12.50 (μm)
100	9.13	15.03	14.34	13.50	12.88	12.37
300	9.06	12.42	11.85	11.15	10.63	10.20
500	8.62	11.65	11.12	10.44	9.92	9.37
550	8.52	11.53	11.00	10.33	9.85	9.24

Table 7. *Ratios of black-body radiances at two wavelengths as a function of air temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)*

Temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	Wavelength ratio		
	10.5/11.5	10.5/12.0	10.5/12.5
-25.0	0.8108	0.7455	0.6934
-20.0	0.8184	0.7555	0.7053
-15.0	0.8257	0.7652	0.7168
-10.0	0.8327	0.7746	0.7281
-5.0	0.8396	0.7838	0.7391
0.0	0.8462	0.7927	0.7499
5.0	0.8527	0.8014	0.7604
10.0	0.8589	0.8098	0.7706
15.0	0.8650	0.8180	0.7806
20.0	0.8709	0.8260	0.7903
25.0	0.8766	0.8337	0.7998
30.0	0.8821	0.8413	0.8090
35.0	0.8875	0.8487	0.8181

scattering albedo. If we take the ratio of the observed radiance at 10.5 μm to that at a longer wavelength in the same window region, this ratio will enhance the presence of an excessive amount at 10.5 μm of surface and scattered radiation when the cloud is not "black". However, when the cloud is "black", i.e., no contribution from surface and scattered radiation, the ratio would be equivalent to that of black-body radiances. Table 7 gives the ratios of black-body radiances as a function of temperature. The 11.0 μm wavelength was not used, not only because it lies too close to the 10.5 μm wavelength, but also because the advantage of its lower single scattering albedo is somewhat offset by the disadvantage of its lower extinction coefficient. On the basis of these discussions, the

two criteria for choosing the shorter wavelength are: (1) relatively higher single scattering albedo and (2) relatively lower extinction coefficient. The $11.0\ \mu\text{m}$ wavelength satisfies (2) but not quite (1), as indicated in Table 2.

When the cloud in question is "black" in the window region, the ratio of the observed radiances will give the cloud temperature. Moreover, only under this condition will the radiance values at the two wavelengths, upon conversion, also yield nearly the same temperature. The ratio of black-body radiances in Table 7 changes rather slowly with temperature within narrow limits, and it does not take much extra surface and scattering contributions to cause the ratio to deviate appreciably from its critical black-body value. We do not know what this critical ratio is; but since our primary interest lies in establishing a reliability criterion for accepting or rejecting the temperature derived from satellite data, our problem is to find a means by which we can distinguish between black and non-black clouds. For this purpose, we seek a reference ratio instead of the critical ratio.

Besides the present cloud model, we had also investigated a number of homogeneous models such as those used by Yamamoto et al. (1966) and Hunt (1973). They were 1 km thick. After repeated numerical experiments, it was found that the ratio of the black-body radiances derived from the surface temperature served quite well as a reference ratio. When the ratio of the observed (or more appropriately, synthetic) radiances at a certain cloud level became smaller than the reference ratio, our calculated vertical emissivity at that level in

Table 8. Ratios of the "observed" radiances at different levels of the inhomogeneous cloud model (surface temperature = 21.70°C)

Level (m)	Wavelength ratio		
	10.5/11.5	10.5/12.0	10.5/12.5
550	0.8771	0.8331	0.7999
500	0.8774	0.8341	0.8001
400	0.8781	0.8346	0.8000
300	0.8792	0.8360	0.8007
200	0.8812	0.8388	0.8037
100	0.8854	0.8444	0.8107
Surface	0.8728	0.8285	0.7935

Note: The last row contains the reference ratios.

Table 9. Ratios of the "observed" radiances at different levels of the homogeneous cloud model (surface temperature = 30°C and cloud temperature = -30°C)

Level (m)	Wavelength ratio		
	10.5/11.5	10.5/12.0	10.5/12.5
1000	0.8101	0.7425	0.6878
550	→0.8726	0.8134	0.7585
500	0.8895	→0.8344	0.7802
450	0.9088	0.8593	→0.8066
400	0.9297	0.8877	0.8376
300	0.9706	0.9481	0.9072
200	0.9913	0.9865	0.9586
100	0.9648	0.9565	0.9345
Surface	0.8821	0.8413	0.8090

Note: Small arrow points to where the observed ratio becomes less than the reference ratio. The last row contains the reference ratios.

Table 10. Vertical emissivities at the arrowhead levels in Table 9

Level (m)	Wavelength (μm)				
	10.5	11.0	11.5	12.0	12.5
450	0.90	0.93	0.96	0.97	0.97
500	0.92	0.95	0.97	0.98	0.98
550	0.94	0.96	0.98	0.99	0.99

every case showed better than 0.95 in the window region. The surface temperature need not be accurate. Since most clouds, except those low-hanging stratus and fogs, are generally 1 km or more above the ground, a temperature 10 degrees less than the estimated surface temperature could be used. Over the continent, even lower temperatures could be used. This approach was tested for 10 degrees less; and an improvement of about 1%–2% was obtained.

To illustrate the technique just described for determining the degree of cloud blackness or cloud emissivity, Tables 8 and 9 may serve as examples. Table 8 shows the inhomogeneous model, and Table 9 one of Yamamoto's (1966) homogeneous clouds. This particular cloud given here had a surface temperature of 30°C and a cloud temperature of -30°C .

In the case of Platt's (1972) cloud in Table 8, the cloud never becomes "black" since the observed ratios at any levels never become smaller than their respective reference ratios, although at 550 m the former nearly approach the latter. In Table 9 the ratios are tabulated up to 550 m as well as at 1 km, the top of the model cloud. The reference ratios at 30°C can also be directly obtained from Table 7. The "observed" ratios at the cloud top, when compared with the corresponding values in Table 7, indicate that the equivalent cloud temperature is below -25°C , which is compatible with the given cloud temperature of the model. These ratios are appreciably smaller than the reference ratios. The small arrows in Table 9 show where the "observed" ratios become smaller. It is evident that they occur at different levels, 450 m, 500 m, and 550 m. Past studies (e.g., Zdunkowski and Choronenko, 1969) show that cloud emissivity (or blackness) is frequency-dependent. Hence, a non-black cloud at $10.5\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ may appear "black" when viewed at $12.0\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ or $12.5\text{ }\mu\text{m}$, which means that if cloud emissivity is required to be the same in this window region then the required cloud thickness will decrease as wavelength increases. To further illuminate this point, the calculated vertical emissivities at these three levels are listed in Table 10 as a function of wavelength.

If straight averages are taken on the emissivity values, for the 450 m, 500 m, and 550 m levels, the emissivity values are 0.95, 0.96, and 0.97, respectively. At 550 m Yamamoto's cloud appeared "blacker" than Platt's. Although the former had a size range from $0.01\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ to $10.0\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ and the latter a size range from $0.5\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ to $25.0\text{ }\mu\text{m}$, Yamamoto used an averaged value of 100 cm^{-3} per level in number concentration or 0.063 g m^{-3} in liquid water content, whereas Platt had a value of only 40 cm^{-3} or a liquid content of 0.035 g m^{-3} .

6. Summary and conclusions

In this study, we have performed a detailed investigation in the $10.5\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ to $12.5\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ window region of the internal structure of the vertical upward radiation emerging from the different levels inside a realistic inhomogeneous cloud in the hope to derive additional physical insight for an understanding of cloud radiation. The contributions to the internal radiation field consists of two components: one includes the thermal emission of cloud particles and water vapor and the resulting Mie

scattering by these particles, and the other includes the thermal emission from the ground or sea surface and the resulting scattering. As the former increases with cloud depth, the latter decreases. When both are present, the cloud is not "black" and its radiation field is said to be distorted by the penetration of surface radiation and scattering. Such penetration is greater at $10.5\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ than at longer wavelengths. When the penetration ceases, the cloud emission and scattering completely dominate the radiation field and the cloud then behaves like a black-body radiator. The fractional amounts of thermal emission and scattering contributing to the black-body radiation at the cloud top are determined by the average single scattering albedo of the cloud.

Utilizing the average meteorological and microphysical properties, clouds of various homogeneous states were examined at two wavelengths for their internal radiation fields. The microphysical property of clouds was shown to be of prime importance in cloud modeling, whereas the temperature distribution within the cloud had little effect on either the upwelling radiation from the cloud top or the internal radiation distribution.

From such detailed investigation, a technique was evolved which takes advantage of the distorted radiation field in a cloud. A $10.5\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ channel is proposed in addition to the existing window channel in the $12\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ window region in satellite sounders. The ratio of the observed upward radiances at these two wavelengths, when compared with that of the black-body radiances derived for the corresponding wavelengths from a knowledge of the surface temperature, which could be an estimate offers a good indication of the degree of the cloud blackness or of cloud emissivity. Consequently, it appears possible to determine the reliability of the temperature field derived from satellite data. We showed that the technique for distinguishing the cloud blackness does not require an accurate surface temperature. Two examples were presented in which one cloud was not so "black" and the other was. The clouds which have satisfied the ratio test at different levels normally have emissivity values about 0.95 or more. On the other hand, when the observed upward radiances, upon conversion to temperature, give nearly the same value, cloud emissivity may be taken to be unity and that temperature then the cloud-top temperature.

Finally, this proposed technique is simple and inexpensive to execute on board a satellite. Moreover, the ratio test minimizes the systematic errors, which are found in all measuring devices and which are difficult to account for.

7. Acknowledgement

The author is grateful to Dr K. N. Liou of the University of Utah for his critical review of this paper.

REFERENCES

- Borovikov, A. M. and Khrgian, A. Kh. 1963. *Cloud physics*, Israel Program for Scientific Translations, Jerusalem.
- Chahine, M. T. 1964. Remote sounding of cloudy atmospheres: I. The single cloud layer. *J. Atmos. Sci.* 31, 233–243.
- Chahine, M. T. 1977a. Remote sounding of cloudy atmospheres: II. Multiple cloud formations. *J. Atmos. Sci.* 34, 744–757.
- Chahine, M. T., Aumann, H. H. and Taylor, F. W. 1977b. Remote sounding of cloudy atmospheres: III. Experimental verifications. *J. Atmos. Sci.* 34, 758–765.
- Chandrasekhar, S. 1960. *Radiative transfer*. New York: Dover.
- Deirmendjian, D. 1969. *Electromagnetic scattering on spherical polydispersions*. New York: Elsevier.
- Fletcher, N. H. 1962. *The physics of rainclouds*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Glahn, H. R. 1966. On the usefulness of satellite infrared measurements in determination of cloud top heights and areal coverage. *J. Appl. Meteor.* 5, 189–197.
- Herman, B. M. and Browning, S. R. 1965. A numerical solution to the equation of radiative transfer. *J. Atmos. Sci.* 22, 559–566.
- Hunt, G. E. 1973. Radiative properties of terrestrial clouds at visible and infrared thermal window wavelengths. *Quart. J. Roy. Meteor. Soc.* 99, 346–369.
- Irvine, W. M. and Pollack, J. B. 1968. Infrared optical properties of water and ice spheres. *Icarus* 8, 324–360.
- Levin, L. M. 1958. Functions to represent drop size distributions in clouds: The optical density of clouds. *Izv. Geofiz. Ser.* 10, 1211–1221 (translation).
- Low, R. D. H. 1977. Effects of cloud particles on remote sensing from space in the 10 μm infrared region. Research and Development Technical Report, ECOM-5811 (AD-A038502), Atmospheric Sciences Laboratory, White Sands Missile Range, NM.
- Mason, B. J. 1971. *The physics of clouds*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Paltridge, G. W. 1974. Infrared emissivity, short-wave albedo, and the microphysics of stratiform water clouds. *J. Geophys. Res.* 79, 4053–4058.
- Platt, C. M. R. 1972. Airborne infrared radiance measurements (10 μm –12 μm) off tropical east-coast Australia. *J. Geophys. Res.* 77, 1597–1609.
- Roberts, R. E., Selby, J. E. A. and Bierman, L. M. 1976. Infrared continuum absorption by atmospheric water vapor in the 8 μm –12 μm window. *Appl. Opt.* 15, 2085–2090.
- Selby, J. E. A. and McClatchey, R. A. 1975. Atmospheric transmittance from 0.25 μm to 28.5 μm : Computer code LOWTRAN 3. *Environ. Res. Pap.* No. 513 (AFCRL-TR-75-0255), AF Cambridge Res. Labs., Hanscom AFB, MA.
- Stephens, G. L. 1976. The transfer of radiation through vertically non-uniform stratocumulus water clouds. *Contr. Atmos. Phys.* 49, 237–253.
- Yamamoto, G., Tanaka, M. and Kamitani, K. 1966. Radiative transfer in water clouds in the 10 μm window region. *J. Atmos. Sci.* 23, 305–313.
- Yamamoto, G., Tanaka, M., Kamitani, K. and Asano, S. 1970. Radiative transfer in water clouds in the infrared region. *J. Atmos. Sci.* 27, 282–292.
- Zdunkowski, W. G. and Choronenko, I. 1969. Incomplete blackness of clouds in the infrared spectrum. *Contr. Atmos. Phys.* 42, 206–224.

ПОЛЕ РАДИАЦИИ ВНУТРИ ОБЛАКА И МЕТОДИКА ОПРЕДЕЛЕНИЯ СТЕПЕНИ ЕГО ЧЕРНОТЫ

Для различных длин волн в окне II мкм при одних и тех же метеоусловиях исследовалось внутреннее поле радиации в однородной и неоднородной моделях слоисто-кучевых облаков. Результаты показывают, что однородная модель облака может быть использована вместо неоднородной для получения восходящей радиации, но не для описания поля радиации внутри облака. Найдено, что в области окна оптические свойства облака для более коротких длин волн позволяют глубже проникать излучению с поверхности и ведут тем самым к рассеянию радиации облачными частицами, чем для более длинных волн, что ведет к развитию методики для быстрого определения "черноты" облака.

Для этой методики требуется использовать два канала в области окна, чтобы установить отношение наблюдаемых восходящих потоков радиации. Это отношение затем сравнивается со

стандартным отношением, полученным из оцененной температуры поверхности при операции, названной проверкой отношения. Показано, что оцененная температура не должна быть очень точно известной. Приведены примеры для демонстрации того, что излучательная способность облаков по вертикали близка к 0,95 или выше в случаях, когда удовлетворяются требования проверки отношения. Однако, когда наблюдаемые потоки ведут к почти той же самой температуре, можно сказать, что облако имеет излучательную способность, равную единице, и что температура равна температуре верхней границы облака. На основе этого метода поле температуры, полученное на основе инфракрасных изображений со спутников, может быть принято или отвергнуто с разумной степенью уверенности.