

Clouds and the Earth's Radiant Energy System (CERES)

Algorithm Theoretical Basis Document

Compute Surface and Atmospheric Fluxes (System 5.0)

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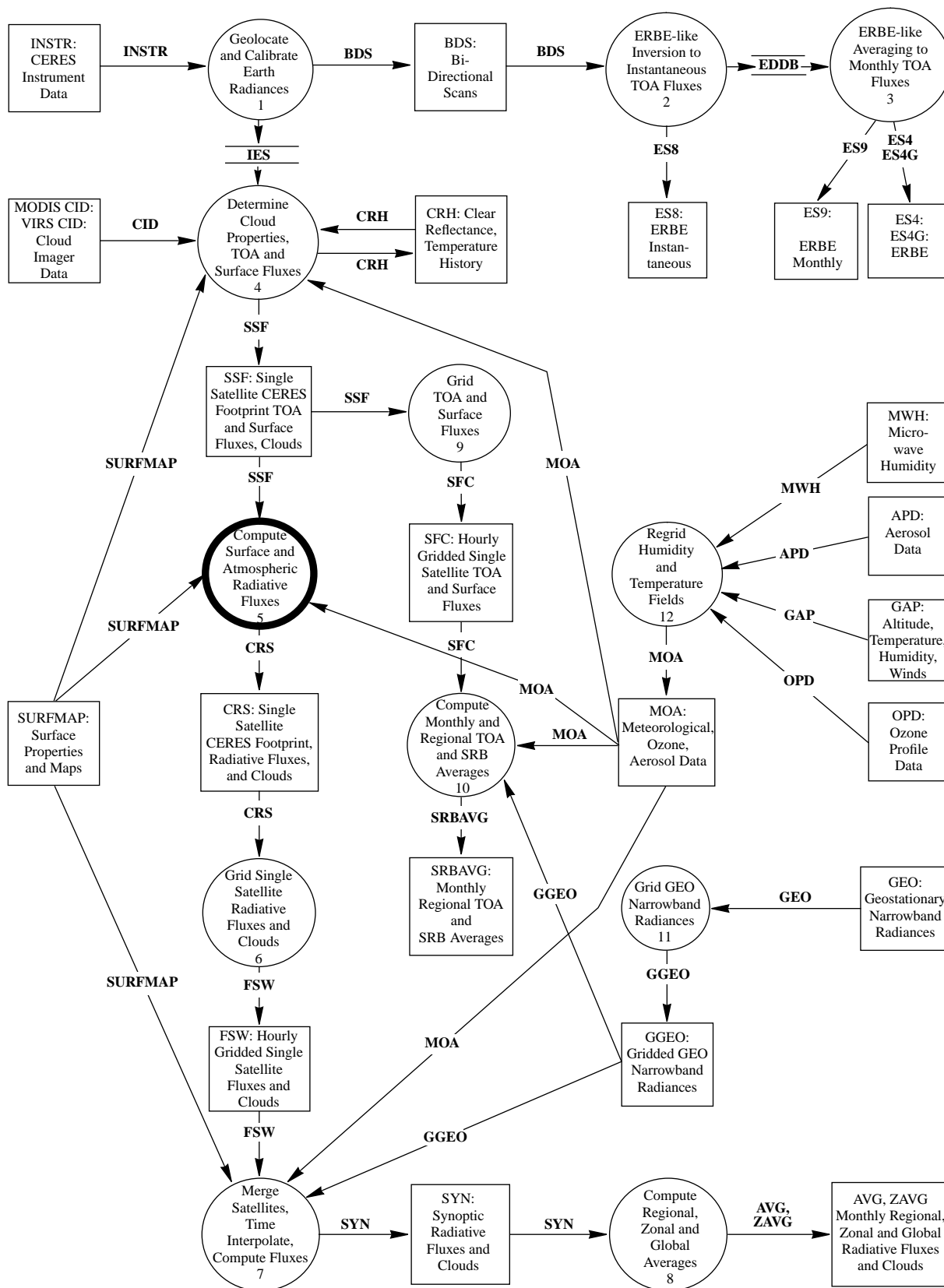
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CERES Top Level Data Flow Diagram



Abstract

This document presents preliminary algorithms for the Clouds and the Earth's Radiant Energy System (CERES) retrieval of the vertical atmospheric profile of shortwave (SW, solar wavelengths) and longwave (LW, thermal infrared wavelengths) radiative fluxes: the Surface and Atmospheric Radiation Budget (SARB). The CERES effort to retrieve the SARB produces three sets of radiative fluxes as (a) the full vertical profile of fluxes in the atmosphere and at the surface, determined from radiative transfer calculations that match the simultaneously observed CERES Top-Of-the-Atmosphere (TOA) fluxes, (b) an independent, parameterized set of radiative fluxes at the surface only, that are also simultaneous with the CERES TOA fluxes, and (c) the full vertical profile of fluxes in the atmosphere and at the surface as estimated for synoptic times (i.e., 3-hourly UTC). This document provides a brief scientific overview of all three sets of radiative fluxes, but its main purpose is to discuss the preliminary CERES SARB retrieval algorithms which will be utilized to obtain the first (a) of these three sets of radiative fluxes. The vertical profile of fluxes is calculated with satellite imager-retrieved clouds and meteorological data as inputs. The input parameters are constrained to match the modeled TOA fluxes with the observed CERES broadband TOA fluxes. Since the initial unconstrained radiative transfer calculations generally do not match the observed CERES TOA fluxes, the unconstrained fluxes at the surface and TOA are archived for use in diagnostic studies of the radiative transfer techniques, the CERES cloud retrievals, and other parameters.

Draft Validation Plans for this and other components of CERES are presently available from the EOS Project Office home page (<http://eosps0.gsfc.nasa.gov> and click first on "Validation," second on "DOCUMENTS," third on "Validation Plans," and fourth on "CERES" for the most current version).

5.0 Compute Surface and Atmospheric Fluxes

5.1 Introduction

The Surface and Atmospheric Radiation Budget (SARB) is the primary driver of the hydrological cycle and the general circulation of the atmosphere. Anthropogenically induced changes in radiatively active trace gases, aerosols, and the earth's surface will affect the SARB and force a climatic response. There are, however, formidable challenges to developing accurate SARB records in CERES, or in the Earth Observing System (EOS) generally. While certain components of the SARB can now be determined with existing data, other components, to be determined with even marginal accuracy, must wait for theoretical advances; the development of new observing systems; active remote sensing on satellites (lidar and sub-cm cloud profiling radar); and especially more accurate and extensive long-term surface-based (1) monitoring of fluxes and (2) remote sensing of cloud and aerosol radiative properties. CERES will be a unique opportunity to expand the space and time domain wherein the SARB can be specified accurately. The CERES program will not only provide accurate TOA broadband fluxes and simultaneous cloud property retrievals, but will also be well suited to determine the effects of clouds on the various components of the SARB. The CERES SARB product will be an important integrating tool for resolving the radiation issues in climate analysis and prediction that are associated with cloud feedback, aerosol forcing, and land-use forcing.

The SARB algorithms in this document essentially complete the instantaneous satellite-based component of the CERES mission. Other CERES documents describe the more fundamental retrievals of TOA broadband radiative fluxes with the CERES instrument, the retrievals of cloud properties with the Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR), High Resolution Infrared Sounder (HIRS/2), Visible Infrared Scanner (VIRS) and Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) imaging instruments, and the preparation of meteorological and ancillary data which are used in both the cloud and SARB retrievals.

This document will discuss the retrieval of the SARB firstly from a theoretical standpoint. Then, we describe more concretely the pre-launch "Release 1" SARB retrieval that has been produced by the CERES team, using AVHRR and Earth Radiation Budget Experiment (ERBE) data, and the NCEP (National Centers for En-

vironmental Prediction) Reanalysis from October 1986. Only the first orbit of Release 1 will be shown in the Figures of this document. Release 1 has been superceded by a longer, full-day test called Release 1.5 (figures from Release 1.5 are not included in this document). We further describe the more ambitious launch-ready Release 2. Release 2 is being programmed at this writing. Goddard EOS Data Assimilation System (GEOS-DAS) meteorological data (the successor to GEOS-1 described by Schubert et al., 1995) and/or the NCEP Reanalysis (Kalnay et al., 1996) will be used for Release 2 (as it was for the recent Release 1.5). Release 2 will be used by CERES for the Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission (TRMM) launch in late 1997. Plans for the post-launch Releases 3 and 4 are presented very roughly. Release 3 will span the full globe with the MODIS cloud imager on the polar orbiters EOS-AM and PM. Release 4, which will follow Release 2 by about 2 years, will use updated angular distribution models (ADMs) for more accurate TOA broadband fluxes (the 2 years of sampling with the single rotating azimuth plane scanner RAPS on TRMM will be needed to develop new ADMs). Results from a prototype "Version 0" software were described in an earlier ATBD. Version 0 is no longer in use. Version 0 and Releases 1-4 are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1 CERES Version 0 and Release 1-3 for SARB product

<i>Name</i>	<i>Broadband</i>	<i>Imager and</i>	<i>Vertical</i>	<i>Domain</i>
<i>Date</i>		<i>Met. data</i>		
Version 0	ERBE	AVHRR	26 levels	Oct. 86 (1 orbit)
Feb. 94		NMC	calculated	
Release 1	ERBE	AVHRR	4 levels in	Oct. 86 (1 orbit)
summer 96		NCEP Reanal.	release	figs. used here
Release 1.5	ERBE	AVHRR	4 levels in	Oct. 86 (1 day)
spring 97		GEOS-1 DAS	release	
Release 2	CERES	VIRS	4 levels in	TRMM
post-launch		DAS or NCEP	release	
Release 3	CERES	MODIS	4 levels in	EOS-AM/PM
post-launch		DAS or NCEP	release	
Release 4	CERES	MODIS	4 (or more)	EOS-AM/PM
post-launch	new ADMs		levels	

Frequent reference to Releases 1, 1.5, and 2 in this document for Subsystem 5 (SARB) may be confusing for the reader who is following documents from other CERES Subsystems. The other CERES Subsystem documents focus heavily on a description of plans for flight-ready Release 2 software. The SARB production software has changed greatly from Version 0. This document also describes the SARB Subsystem for Release 1, which has the bulk of the software changes from Version 0; changes which are planned for SARB Release 2 software; planned and ongoing investigations using other models and analysis not pertaining directly to CERES production code.

5.2 Overview and Background Information

5.2.1 Experimental Objectives

An accurate record of the SARB is needed (1) to validate the radiation simulations in climate models and (2) to parse and quantify currently uncertain forcings due to aerosols and land surfaces. Most General Circulation Models (GCMs) spend several tens of percent of their computational burden determining the SARB. Our techniques for the retrieval of SARB vertical profiles have been tested with radiative transfer codes (Harshvardhan et al. 1987; Wang et al. 1991; Chou 1992; Fu and Liou 1993) that have been built for GCM-type applications. We use the simple concept of constraint to achieve balance with broadband TOA observations. First, the SARB is calculated with standard meteorological data from NCEP (Release 1) and/or DAO (Release 2) and satellite-retrieved cloud properties as input parameters; the cloud properties are produced by the CERES team with cloud imager data (see Subsystem 4 documents; AVHRR for Version 0, AVHRR and HIRS for Release 1, VIRS on the TRMM spacecraft, and MODIS on EOS). Second, the computed TOA fluxes are compared with observed broadband fluxes (ERBE radiometer for Version 0 and Release 1, CERES radiometer for Release 2). Then, in a constraint process, the most uncertain and radiatively effective input parameters are adjusted to bring recalculated SARB to balance with the observed TOA broadband fluxes. The amount of constraint of the cloud parameters that is required to balance the broadband TOA observations is useful for evaluating the quality of the CERES products (see Subsystem 4 documents).

The SARB effort in CERES is directed at providing a set of through-the-atmosphere radiative fluxes that are applicable to large-scale general circulation and climate studies. Radiative fluxes also influence cloud processes at the microscale, but because we are working at the scale of CERES footprints (roughly 20 km and much larger than the cloud imager pixels or the spacing of a cloud resolving non-hydrostatic model), the CERES SARB will be too coarse for the study of cloud systems at high resolution. SARB retrievals will provide energy fluxes that can be compared to GCM outputs directly, side-stepping the problem posed by different definitions of cloudiness in satellite retrievals and models. The CERES SARB products are anticipated to be useful for GCM validation because, as energy fluxes, they may be readily averaged in space and time. Other satellite-derived parameters (like cloud optical depth) relate to energy non-linearly and are thus more difficult to average and intercompare with GCMs.

We anticipate that the initial, unconstrained calculation (radiative transfer based on unadjusted input parameters) of SARB fluxes will be useful for diagnostic studies immediately after launch. The initial, unconstrained calculations will be compared with the first generation of CERES "ERBE-like" TOA fluxes (observed fluxes based on the old ERBE ADMs). A few years after launch, new CERES ADMs will be produced with the CERES RAPS data, yielding a more accurate observed TOA record. CERES TOA observations account for 3-D effects empirically, and it will be interesting to compare them with the CERES SARB calculations. The CERES SARB calculations are based on the plane parallel assumption, as are the CERES cloud retrievals. The constraint that is required to bring the calculated plane parallel fluxes to a match with the CERES TOA observations will provide a diagnosis of the plane parallel assumption, which is widely used in models and retrievals.

At what stage of the CERES experiment are the constrained vertical profiles of radiative fluxes likely to be reliable? For *clear skies over oceans* with TRMM (VIRS imager), we anticipate that early confidence could be placed on the constrained vertical profile of *LW* SARB fluxes that match the CERES TOA observations with the new ADMs. We will rely on the water vapor sounding channels on MODIS (on EOS-AM) for spot checking of the TRMM *LW* SARB cooling rates in narrow bands. We could be confident of the constrained CERES SARB fluxes for *LW over clear sky oceans and land* in the EOS polar orbiter missions, as the MODIS imager has improved capabilities for aerosol, surface emissivity, and skin temperature retrieval over land. The TRMM ADMs will not be available until after the launch of EOS-AM, but the new ADMs will mostly affect the *SW*. In *LW*, the quality of our SARB product will likely depend more heavily on the water vapor profile in DAO and/or NCEP.

Confidence in any CERES clear-sky SW product below the TOA will depend in part on the resolution of present discrepancies between measured and computed clear-sky surface SW fluxes (Wild et al., 1995), which has been reported by groups using different codes and instruments in ARM (Charlock and Alberta, 1996; Kato et al., 1996) and FIRE (Kinne et al., 1996). When this issue ("SW codes and measurements disagree for clear skies") is resolved, the SARB fluxes at the tropopause (i.e., above cloud tops) should also be reliable, even for total-sky conditions, early in the EOS polar orbiter missions. A few years of post-launch study and validation will be needed, before constrained SARB fluxes would be regarded as reliable below cloud tops. With some cloud systems, we will never be certain of the SARB. Even with the projected deployment of cloud profiling radars (with smaller wavelength than the precipitation radar on TRMM), the additional information on high optical depth systems would be limited. A lidar mission would provide vital data for thin optical depth systems like cirrus. Such a lidar mission, coupled with adequate ground-based monitoring, may be needed to accurately determine the SW atmospheric heating induced by aerosol.

The atmospheric portion of the SARB is calculated at many vertical levels (38 levels in the ERBE- and AVHRR-based exercise of Release 1 reported here). Formally, at the first SARB release 24 months after launch, however, only the fluxes at the TOA, tropopause, and surface will be issued; this presumes satisfactory performance of the initial launch-ready Release 2 code. Fluxes at 500 hPa will be released 30 months after launch as the 4th flux reported in the "vertical" column of Table 1. Following validation of CERES cloud property products (Subsystem 4) and SARB fluxes (Subsystem 5), we anticipate that multiple levels of SARB fluxes will be issued not sooner than 36 months after launch. As cloud overlap and cloud vertical thickness have substantial impacts, especially on the LW SARB, CERES validation activities will focus on cloud base height and cloud thickness, as well as on radiative fluxes.

While much of CERES is oriented toward the tropospheric aspects of global change, the CERES SARB should also be useful for stratospheric studies. The 9.6 micrometer O₃ band is important for stratosphere-troposphere radiative exchange (Ramanathan and Dickinson 1979), because stratospheric O₃ absorbs upwelling photons from the warmer lower troposphere. CERES will determine the properties of the cloud tops, which are important in the modulation of the upwelling window flux and thus the stratospheric radiation balance. Because the tropopause is almost always above the cloud tops, the fluxes near the tropopause can be retrieved with more confidence than at lower levels. The radiative balance near the tropopause is vital because anthropogenic forcing has been calculated to heat the troposphere but cool the stratosphere (i.e., Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change IPCC, 1990). Raval and Ramanathan (1989) and Stephens and Greenwald (1991) have used ERBE and other data to quantitatively assess the clear-sky LW greenhouse effect of the integrated atmospheric column. The CERES SARB product will serve as the basis for a more highly resolved analysis.

We anticipate that a detailed analysis of Release 4 CERES SARB fluxes for clear-sky conditions will be essential for the accurate determination of anthropogenic radiative climate forcing in IPCC. Radiative forcing must be determined, if we are to interpret the climate record in terms of cause and effect, and if we hope to understand climate with deterministic models. Radiative forcings due to CO₂, CH₄, N₂O, and CFCs can be specified fairly accurately because the concentrations of these well-mixed species are routinely monitored, and their spectroscopic properties are well known. The radiative forcings by changes in aerosol (Penner et al., 1994) and land use are uncertain, however; aerosols are not well-mixed, and their optical properties are not routinely monitored. By combining CERES clear-sky SARB results with ground-based measurements of broadband surface radiative flux and aerosol optical properties, focused validation studies should be able to separate the radiative signals due to changes in surface and aerosol properties. If such CERES validation can be done at 50-100 sites around the globe, secular changes in land-surface radiative forcing and aerosol radiative forcing could be monitored effectively. 50-100 ground-based sites are needed because aerosol effects tend to be regional, while land surface effects are more localized. The aerosol forcing from the satellite can be validated on a regional basis with data from surface sites, permitting the more varied local land surface forcings to be inferred from space observations. As noted earlier, a space-based lidar mission may be required to close the issue of aerosol heating. We presently lack such a combined satellite and surface monitoring system, and the full anthropogenic radiative forcing of climate remains uncertain. Plans for the ground-based aspects of this activity are described in forthcoming CERES Validation Plans .

5.2.2 Historical Perspective

The importance of the vertical profile of the atmospheric radiation budget was demonstrated with the development of the 1-dimensional radiative-convective model (Manabe and Wetherald 1967). A change in the concentration of an infrared-active trace gas would change the model's temperature profile, but once in the new equilibrium state, the corresponding change to the broadband TOA planetary radiation budget could be very small or even vanish. The temperature profile would be maintained in the new equilibrium state by a significant vertical redistribution of energy fluxes within the atmosphere. Stephens and Webster (1984) further noted that clouds could play a vital role in such a process.

A 3-dimensional model study by Hartmann et al. (1984) showed that the vertical distribution of atmospheric energy fluxes affects the primary modes of circulation, in addition to the temperature structure. The GCM results of Ting and Sardeshmukh (1993) indicate that a redistribution of vertical fluxes within the tropics would affect teleconnections to midlatitudes. The vertical energy fluxes are produced mainly by radiative (to be retrieved by CERES) and latent (to be retrieved using radar and other instruments on TRMM, i.e., Tao et al. 1993) processes. The full vertical profile of radiative flux divergence is needed to determine the effect of radiation on the generation of Available Potential Energy (APE; Lorenz 1955; Stuhlmann and Smith 1988ab). Ramanathan et al. (1983) demonstrated the importance of the atmospheric LW budget in the simulation of the midlatitude jet in a GCM. The substantial effect of tropical cloud LW radiative forcing on atmospheric heating and circulation has been demonstrated with a GCM by Slingo and Slingo (1991); the accuracy of the LW forcing was noted to be critical for computing impacts such as Amazon deforestation. The importance of radiation within the atmosphere for circulation has been demonstrated in other studies (e.g., Donner and Kuo 1984; Slingo and Slingo 1988; Randall et al. 1989; Hoskins, 1996).

London (1957) and Doplick (1972) are classical, pre-satellite estimates of the SARB, based on radiative transfer calculations with climatological data. The retrieval of radiative fluxes at the surface has been advanced by Darnell et al. (1992) and Pinker and Laszlo (1992a) using International Satellite Cloud Climatology Project (ISCCP) data (Schiffer and Rossow 1983; Rossow et al. 1991), as well as with HIRS/2 (Wu and Chang 1992), Nimbus 7 (Chertock et al. 1991; Charlock et al. 1990), GOES VISSR (Gautier and Frouin 1992), and ERBE (Cess et al. 1991; Li and Leighton 1993). The retrieval of surface LW fluxes has been developed at NASA LaRC by Darnell et al. (1992) and Gupta (1989). The World Climate Research Program (WCRP) Global Energy and Water Cycle Experiment (GEWEX; Chahine 1992) has established a formal project (Whitlock et al. 1995) that retrieves the global surface radiation budget (SRB), with the results archived at the NASA LaRC EOS DAAC (Distributed Active Archive Center). The GEWEX SRB (surface only) Project has used radiometric observations, compiled as the Global Energy Balance Archive (GEBA) by the Swiss Federal Institute (Ohmura and Gilgen 1993), for the validation of SW fluxes; for the annual (24 hour) domain of the GEBA sites, the mean monthly surface SW insolation as calculated from satellite measurements is usually 10-15 Wm^{-2} larger than the observations. The WCRP has organized a program of more precise surface observations, at a limited number of sites, in the Baseline Surface Radiation Network (BSRN). NOAA runs a Surface Radiation Budget Network (SURFRAD; Hicks et al., 1996) in the U.S. The development of these pioneering programs for surface fluxes provides the groundwork for validating the combined retrieval of surface and atmospheric flux profiles in CERES.

Calculations of clear-sky LW fluxes have been compared to broadband observations from aircraft for some time (Ellingson and Gille 1978). The recent Spectral Radiation Experiment (SPECTRE) activity (Ellingson and Wiscombe, 1995), which provides an observational data base for clear-sky radiances, can be expected to hone more accurate codes for the calculation of LW and SW vertical flux profiles. Calculated cloudy-sky broadband fluxes are often compared to observations at selected vertical-levels in field campaigns (i.e., Stackhouse and Stephens 1989; Fu and Liou 1993). In an investigation of the energetics of small, cloud-scale systems (Churchill and Houze 1991), broadband flux profiles have been calculated with input data from aircraft and radar, and the calculated fluxes have been compared with observations (Churchill 1992). Field campaigns have not resolved the issue of the possible "anomalous" SW absorption by clouds (Cess et al., 1995; Ramanathan et al., 1995; Pilewskie and Valero, 1995; Li et al. 1995; Hayasaka et al., 1995; Chou et al., 1995;

Ramaswamy and Friedenreich, 1992), which has been reported for decades. Stephens and Tsay (1990) have examined hypotheses for the cause of anomalous absorption such as the presence of large droplets, cloud absorbing aerosol, enhanced continuum absorption, and cloud inhomogeneities. They conclude that better measurements are required to resolve the discrepancies.

In applying satellite data to the global scale, we have about two decades of experience in the retrieval of temperature profiles and about one decade of experience in the retrieval of clouds. The large-scale, satellite-based retrieval of the full vertical profiles of radiative fluxes is a much newer activity. Stephens et al. (1993) use ERBE and Special Sensor Microwave/Imager (SSM/I) data to estimate the LW cooling of the full atmospheric column (rather than multi-layer profiles) over the oceans. Ellingson et al. (1994) describe an experimental program at National Atmospheric and Oceanic Administration (NOAA) to retrieve the clear-sky LW heating rate for 4 atmospheric layers with HIRS/2 data; observed narrowband radiances are used in a statistical fit to detailed radiative transfer calculations.

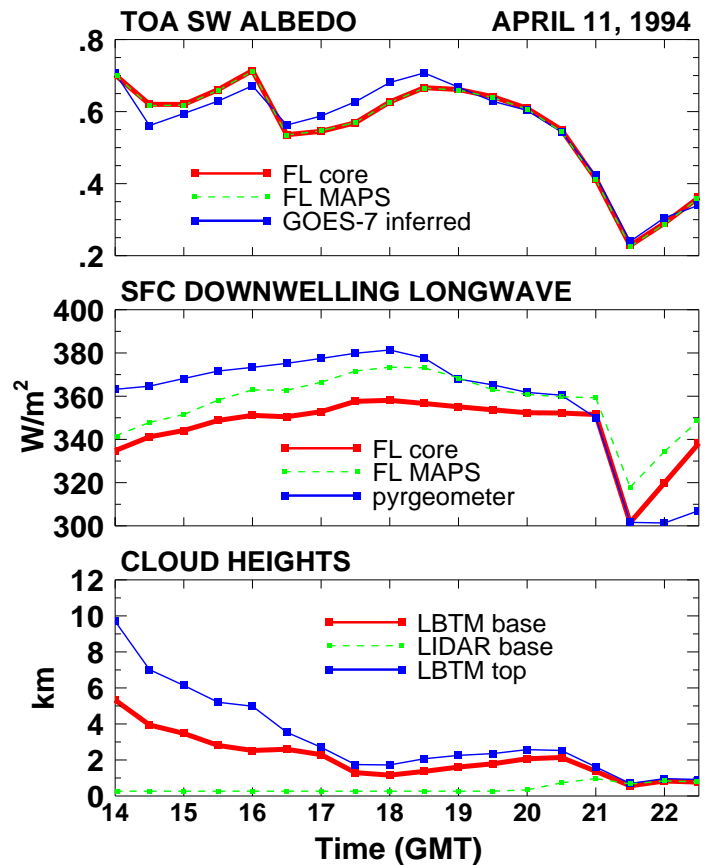
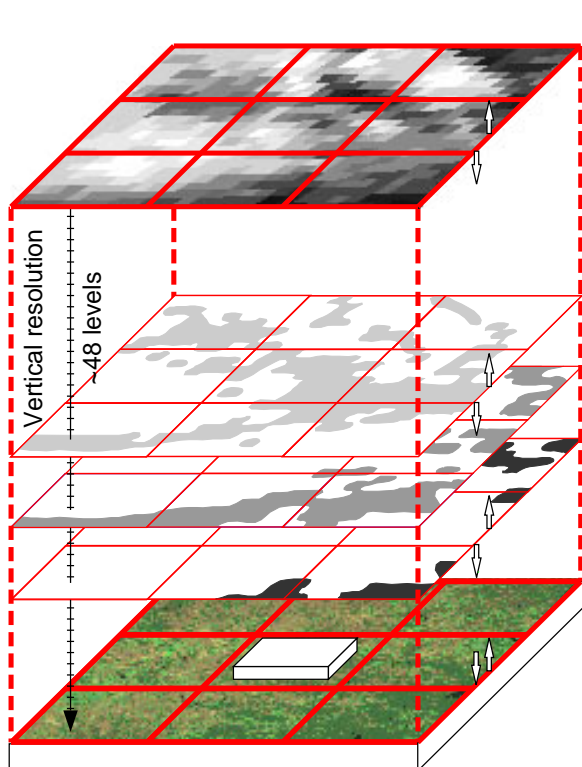
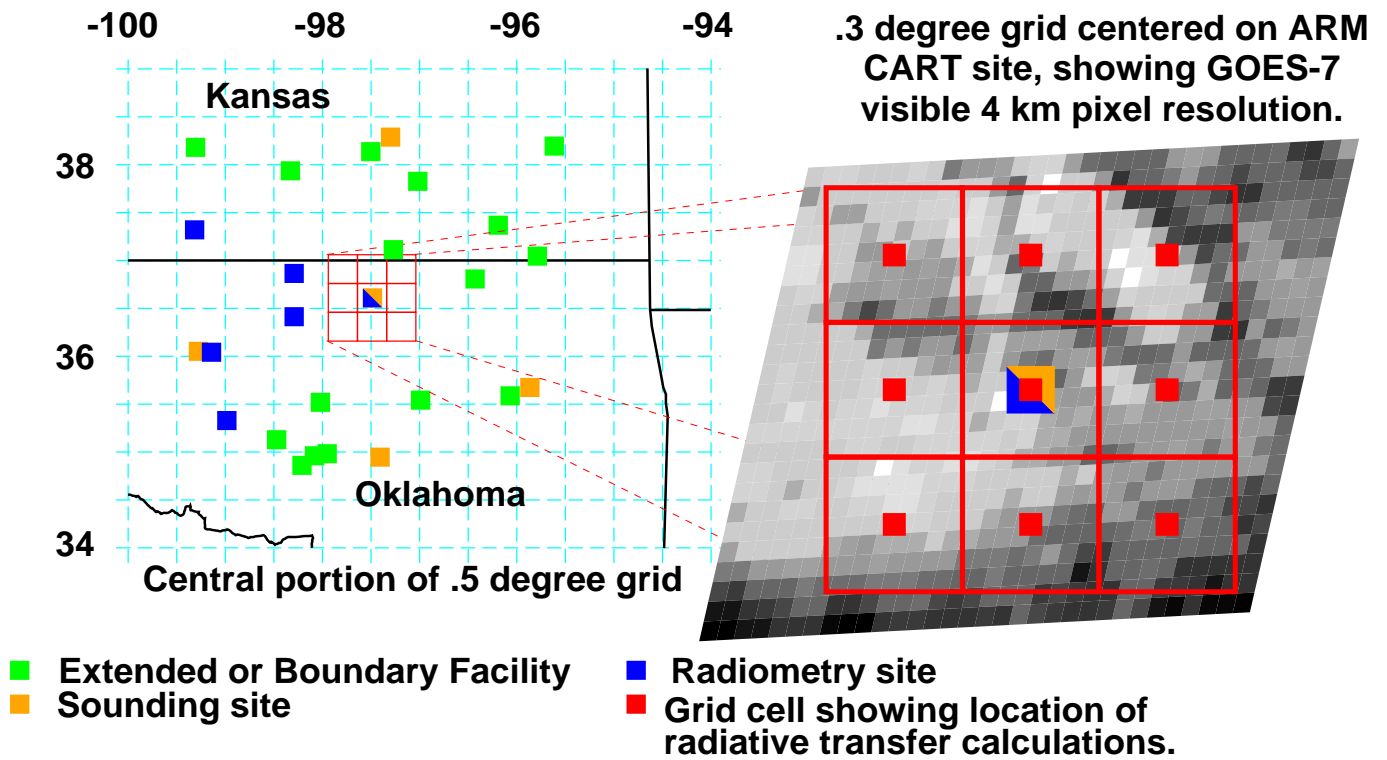
Stuhlmann et al. (1993) used METEOSAT data to produce vertical profiles of both LW and SW fluxes. METEOSAT-derived cloud optical depth was used to determine the cloud ice water path (IWP) or liquid water path (LWP) following Rockel et al. (1991); water content is estimated using relations due to Fiegelson (1978) and Paltridge (1974); cloud geometric thickness was obtained from the ratio of water path to water content. Stuhlmann et al. (1993) then retrieved the flux profiles with delta-2-stream calculations based on the method of Schmetz (1984). For April 1985, the equator-to-pole temperature gradient over the METEOSAT region was found to be strengthened by the effects of net cloud generated radiative heating.

Clear-sky and total-sky LW flux profiles have been computed (Charlock et al. 1993) with ISCCP data (Rossow et al. 1991) and the Harshvardhan et al. (1987) radiation code over the globe. The calculated outgoing longwave radiation (OLR) was compared (but not constrained) with ERBE, and the calculated surface downward longwave flux (DLF) was compared with a time-matched NMC Numerical Weather Prediction (NWP) simulation. Different cloud overlap assumptions produced very different vertical profiles of LW divergence. Despite the uncertainty due to cloud overlap, it was possible to determine that LW divergence fluctuations damp temperature fluctuations in most of the troposphere, but systematically enhance temperature fluctuations in a few regions.

5.2.3 Community Access

The extensive aircraft and surface measurements which have been initiated in the Department of Energy Atmospheric Radiation Measurement Program (ARM; Stokes and Schwartz, 1994) provide theoreticians with some of the tools needed to address the retrieval of more components of the SARB. In cooperation with the GEWEX Continental-Scale International Project (GCIP; Leese, 1995), CERES has formed an on-line experiment with which to engage the scientific community in the evaluation, improvement, and application of techniques to retrieve the vertical profile of radiative fluxes. A web page (<http://snowdog.larc.nasa.gov:8081/cagex.html>) has been established to facilitate access to CERES research on the SARB. Version 1 (Fig. 0) of the CERES/ARM/GEWEX Experiment (CAGEX) provides complete on-line files for

- (1) satellite-based cloud properties and atmospheric sounding data that fulfill input requirements for calculations with broadband radiative transfer models;
- (2) vertical profiles of radiative fluxes calculated with those data as input; and
- (3) measurements of broadband radiative fluxes and cloud properties for comparison with some of the flux calculations and input data.



The CERES/ARM/GEWEX Experiment (CAGEX)

Figure 0. - CAGEX on-line (<http://snowdog.larc.nasa.gov:8081/cagex.html>)

Version 1 covers the ARM Southern Great Plains (SGP) Cloud and Radiation Testbed (CART) site with a 3 by 3 grid (0.3° on each side) every 30 minutes from 1409 UTC to 2239 UTC (daylight) for 26 days, starting on April 5, 1994. CAGEX (Charlock and Alberta, 1996) is used to test Release 1 algorithms with the unique array of ARM measurements. Subsequent versions will be used for the development and testing of Releases 2, 3, and 4 for the validation of CERES products after launch. Interaction with the ARM and GEWEX communities through this vehicle has thus far been helpful. We are learning which components of our pre-launch products are most questionable, and also which are the most useful to NWP and hydrology researchers. CAGEX is proving an invaluable tool for combining satellite and ground-based data to describe the atmosphere more accurately.

5.2.4 Characteristics of EOS Data

CERES retrievals will have several advantages over earlier SARB retrievals because of the improved characteristics of the EOS data that will be applied. Most importantly, CERES footprint-scale broadband TOA fluxes will be available as tie points for SARB calculations. The CERES broadband footprints will have a resolution twice that of ERBE (Barkstrom et al. 1989). Data from the CERES rotating RAPS scanner will permit the development of improved angular and directional models, reducing the error in the broadband albedo especially.

The scene identification for the CERES angular and directional models will, unlike ERBE (Wielicki and Green 1989), include the use of high resolution cloud imager data for each footprint. This will increase the accuracy of the CERES broadband TOA fluxes and SARB calculations. CERES will distinguish clear scenes more reliably than ERBE, because of both the application of cloud imager data and the higher spatial resolution of the CERES broadband sensor. CERES cloud retrievals on the TRMM mission will use the VIRS imager. Unlike AVHRR, VIRS has a 1.60 micrometer channel, which will be useful for identifying the phase of particles (liquid water or ice) in cloud tops. The phase of the cloud particles can have a dramatic impact on the cloud optical properties and the effect of the cloud on the radiation budget (Liou 1992). Knowledge of the particle phase permits a more accurate retrieval of cloud height and optical depth (Minnis et al. 1993a, b). The Minnis et al. (1993a, b) Layer Bispectral Threshold Method (LBTM) technique has been somewhat successful with estimations of cloud geometric thickness, a parameter which significantly influences the LW SARB. On the EOS AM and PM spacecraft, CERES will use the MODIS cloud imager. MODIS has a higher spatial resolution than VIRS or present cloud imagers, and the spectral coverage of the MODIS channels is more suited to cloud retrieval than AVHRR and HIRS/2. Wielicki and Parker (1992) have noted the increased accuracy in the retrieval of cloud area that is obtained with higher spatial resolution. Because of the low TRMM orbital altitude, VIRS will have a substantially higher spatial resolution than AVHRR.

Besides instrumentation, other aspects of the EOS data stream are anticipated to increase the accuracy of the CERES cloud retrieval. GEOS-DAS operational temperature and humidity profiles will be available for cloud vertical placement. NCEP Reanalysis profiles were used for CERES pre launch Release 1 calculations shown in this document. ISCCP (Rossow et al. 1991) was restricted to approximately daily Tiros Operational Vertical Sounder (TOVS) soundings, while Nimbus 7 cloud retrievals (Stowe et al., 1988) were based on climatological temperature lapse rates. We anticipate that, deeper in the CERES post-launch time frame, the GEOS-DAS and NCEP humidity profiles will benefit from microwave-based retrievals on the Defense Meteorological Satellite Program (DMSP), TRMM, and EOS. The European Center for Medium Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) has reported on a radiance-based assimilation of TOVS data that has yielded dramatic improvements in the analyzed humidity profiles (i.e., Hollingsworth, 1996). The current CERES preference is for a multi-year "frozen" (i.e., no unnatural variability due to changes in the algorithm itself) analysis by GEOS-DAS.

Information on aerosol optical thickness will be available for CERES SARB calculations. On TRMM, CERES will retrieve aerosols with the VIRS sensor. On EOS, aerosol retrievals will be produced by the MODIS and Multi-angle Imaging Spectro-Radiometer (MISR) teams. While MODIS will attempt to retrieve the absorbing properties of aerosol, this will be significant challenge for the first years after launch. The best prospects for retrieving aerosol absorption will be over validation sites where ground-based optical depth and

broadband flux measurements are colocated. Over these sites, the surface, CERES, and MODIS data will be integrated, and a more reliable clear-sky SARB can then be produced. In Releases 3, 4 or later, the algorithms honed over the validation sites will be applied to yield accurate, global records of aerosol radiative forcing and the residual surface radiative forcing.

5.3 Algorithm Description

5.3.1 Radiative transfer

5.3.1.1 Codes for radiative transfer. The SARB component of CERES presently has used several broadband radiative transfer codes. The broadband radiative transfer codes (as distinguished from the SARB retrieval algorithms that employ them) were developed outside of NASA LaRC and have been generously provided to CERES by Drs. Ming-Dah Chou, Qiang Fu, Harshvardhan, Kuo-Nan Liou, and Wei-Chyung Wang. The radiation codes determine tropospheric and stratospheric broadband fluxes fairly efficiently and have been tested in the International Comparison of Radiation Codes in Climate Models (ICRCCM; Ellingson and Fouquart 1990). The Chou (1992), Fu and Liou (1993), Harshvardhan et al. (1987), and Wang et al. (1991) codes all use the plane-parallel assumption. Because of computational resources, we do not use narrowband or line-by-line radiative transfer codes for global processing.

Harshvardhan et al. (1987) developed a fast broadband code for GCM application. The code was used in Version 0 processing (Table 1) as described in the earlier ATBD 5.0, but is no longer active in CERES. The Harshvardhan et al. (1987) LW code accounts for absorption and emission using methods by Chou (1984) for water vapor, by Chou and Peng (1983) for carbon dioxide, and by Rodgers (1968) for ozone. This code treats clouds as black bodies.

The Wang et al. (1991) longwave code includes the minor species methane (CH₄), nitrous oxide (N₂O), dichlorofluoro carbon (CF₂Cl₂), and trichlorofluoro carbon (CFC13). This code is partly based on the Wang and Shi (1988) parameterization for total band absorptance in a homogeneous layer. The Wang et al. (1991) code is fast. CERES uses it as a test, rather than production, code for large scale OLR calculations

We use the Chou (1992) SW code for testing, rather than production, too. The Chou (1992) code employs the Liou et al. (1988) delta-4-stream treatment of clouds and aerosols. Clear and scattering layers are composited with the 2-stream adding method. The effects of H₂O, O₃, CO₂, O₂ and Rayleigh scattering are included. In a clear atmosphere, near infrared absorption by water vapor is computed with a broadband technique. In an atmosphere with scattering by clouds or aerosols, water vapor absorption is computed with the k-distribution method.

The Fu and Liou (1993) code is the principal research and production tool for SARB activities in CERES. The delta-4-stream approach agrees with adding-doubling calculations to within 5% for fluxes and is a considerable improvement over a 2-stream calculation (Liou et al., 1988). In the Fu and Liou (1993) code, numerical solutions for large optical depths are enabled by use of the scaling technique of Stamnes and Conklin (1984); results have been checked with the "exact" adding technique of Liou (1992). The Fu and Liou (1993) code accounts for the scattering of both LW and SW radiation, as do earlier studies by Stackhouse and Stephens (1991) and Ritter and Geleyn (1992). The correlated-k-distribution method for gaseous absorption is employed. Run time increases approximately linearly with the number of vertical levels. This contrasts with some "emissivity" codes, wherein the run time expands with the square of the number of levels.

The Fu and Liou (1993) code was selected for CERES, in part because of (a) the wide span of input parameters included, (b) speed, and (c) accuracy. To speed computer processing, CERES uses the faster 2-stream version for SW and the 2/4-stream version for LW. The 2/4-stream version (Fu et al., 1997) uses the faster 2-stream LW source function, but places it in the 4-stream framework for accuracy comparable to straight 4-stream calculations. The code accounts for the radiative effects of H₂O, CO₂, O₃, O₂, CH₄, and N₂O; Rayleigh scattering; aerosols; liquid cloud droplets; hexagonal ice crystals (random orientation); and spectrally dependent surface reflectivity. Six spectral intervals are used in the SW (0.2-4.0 μm); twelve spectral inter-

vals are used in the LW ($2200\text{-}1\text{ cm}^{-1}$). We use a further revision by Qiang Fu which resolves the first $0.2\text{-}0.7\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ band, originally spanned with correlated k 's, into 10 separate sub-bands for a more accurate characterization of the spectral dependence of aerosol optical properties. The Roberts et al. (1976) water vapor continuum ($280\text{-}1250\text{ cm}^{-1}$) has been replaced with an economical parameterization (developed by CERES team members Fred G. Rose and David P. Kratz) of the more recent CKD2.1 (Clough et al., 1992) continuum. The uniform mixing ratios for CO_2 , CH_4 , and N_2O are respectively 330, 1.6, and 0.28 ppmv; mixing ratios in our global Release 1 (1986) and small-scale CAGEX (1994 and 1995) applications were larger, but the total difference in the forcing with these more recent concentrations would amount to less than 1 Wm^{-2} . CFCs are not included in the calculation, but CFC forcing is also less than 1 Wm^{-2} . For the principal atmospheric gases, the Fu-Liou (1993) code matches a line by line (LBL) simulation of fluxes to within 0.05% for SW; 0.2% for LW excepting O_3 ; and $\sim 2\%$ for LW fluxes due to O_3 . An updated line data base is not expected to change results substantially. It should be noted, however, that there are significant uncertainties relating to the treatment of the H_2O continuum (i.e., Clough et al., 1992) in radiative transfer codes generally. ICRCCM and SPECTRE are anticipated to provide more definitive evaluations of radiative transfer codes as a guide to their improvement.

CERES also applies more specialized, faster parameterizations to produce fluxes at the surface only. The CERES surface-only parameterizations, which are described in other documents, apply algorithms based on Li et al. (1993), Gupta et al. (1992) and the activities of Inamdar and Ramanathan (1994).

5.3.1.2 Illustrations of LW cooling rates and fluxes. Here, we provide a few examples of the LW SARB and its relationship to parameters that CERES will determine from broadband ERBE-like measurements, cloud imager, NWP analyses, and other data. The latest version of the Fu et al. (1997) code has not been used in the examples shown in this sub-section.

In Fig. 1a-d, the Wang et al. (1991) code has been used to compute the broadband LW fluxes for a climatological midlatitude summer condition. For clear skies (Fig. 1a), the LW cooling rate (deg K/day) is shown in solid. The dashed profile (Fig. 1a) shows the LW cooling rate for the same atmospheric sounding, but with an increase of 2 deg K in the surface temperature. By increasing the temperature of the surface (skin only) by 2 deg K, the cooling rate in the lowest 100 hPa has been reduced by about 25%; the clear-sky OLR has increased by 1.8 Wm^{-2} (note "1.8" in upper right portion of Fig. 1a); the downward longwave flux (DLF) has not changed ("0.0" indicated in lower right portion of Fig. 1a). In a SARB retrieval for CERES, an initial temperature and humidity profile from NMC is used to compute the LW cooling rate profile indicated in solid in Fig. 1a. If the computed clear-sky OLR is 1.8 Wm^{-2} less than the broadband CERES observation, one constraint option would be an increase in the surface skin temperature by 2 deg K. The dashed line in Fig. 1a shows the resulting, hypothetically constrained, clear-sky cooling rate profile.

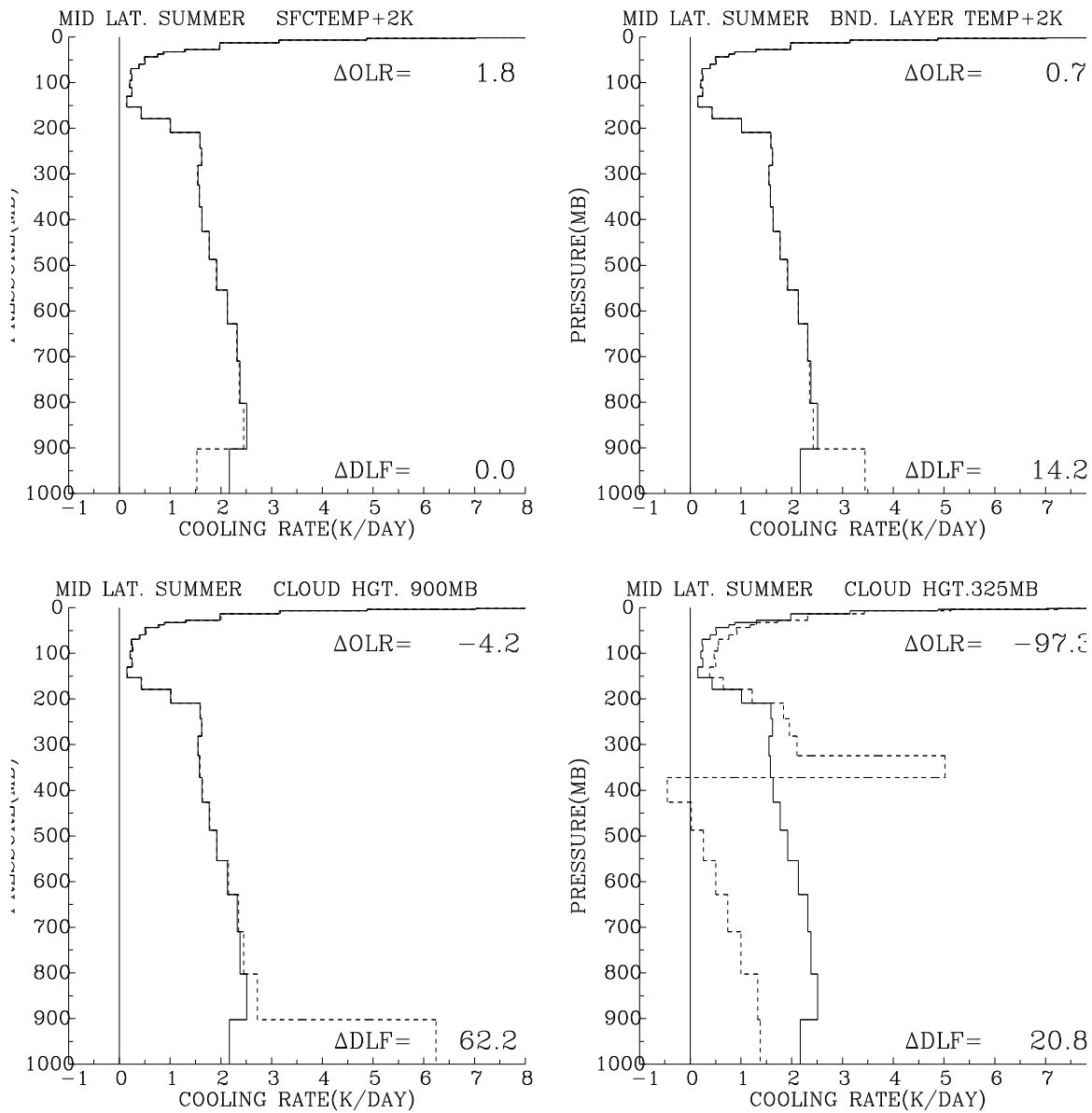


Figure 1 Broadband LW cooling rates (deg K/day) for midlatitude summer climatological (solid) and perturbed atmospheres. Change in OLR (as perturbed OLR minus climatological OLR) in upper right of each panel in W/m^2 ; change in DLF in lower right of each panel in W/m^2 . Perturbations in panel on upper left (a) surface temperature increased by 2 deg K, on upper right (b) temperature in layer at 950hPa increased by 2 deg K, on lower left (c) cloud placed in layer with top at 900 hPa , and on lower right (d) cloud placed in layer with top at 325 hPa

Constrainment can also be done by adjusting the temperature, cloud, and humidity profiles within the atmosphere. In Fig. 1b (upper right), we have applied a 2-deg K increase, to the atmospheric layer only, between 900 and 1000 hPa. The dashed line (Fig. 1b) indicates that the 900-1000 hPa LW cooling rate has increased

from 2.2 deg K/day to 3.4 deg K/day. The OLR has increased by only 0.7 Wm⁻², but the DLF has increased by 14.2 Wm⁻².

Fig. 1c-d show how important clouds are for the LW SARB. In Fig. 1c, the dashed line shows the dramatically increased cooling rate for a midlatitude summer atmosphere with a black cloud added to the layer 900-1000 hPa. The low cloud increases the DLF by 62.2 Wm⁻² but decreases the OLR by only 4.2 Wm⁻² (Fig. 1c). In Fig. 1d, the black cloud has been moved to the layer between 300 and 350 hPa. For the high black cloud, the LW cooling rate increases slightly at the cloud layer, but it significantly decreases below the cloud, while the OLR falls by 97.3 Wm⁻² and the DLF increases by 20.8 Wm⁻²(Fig. 1d).

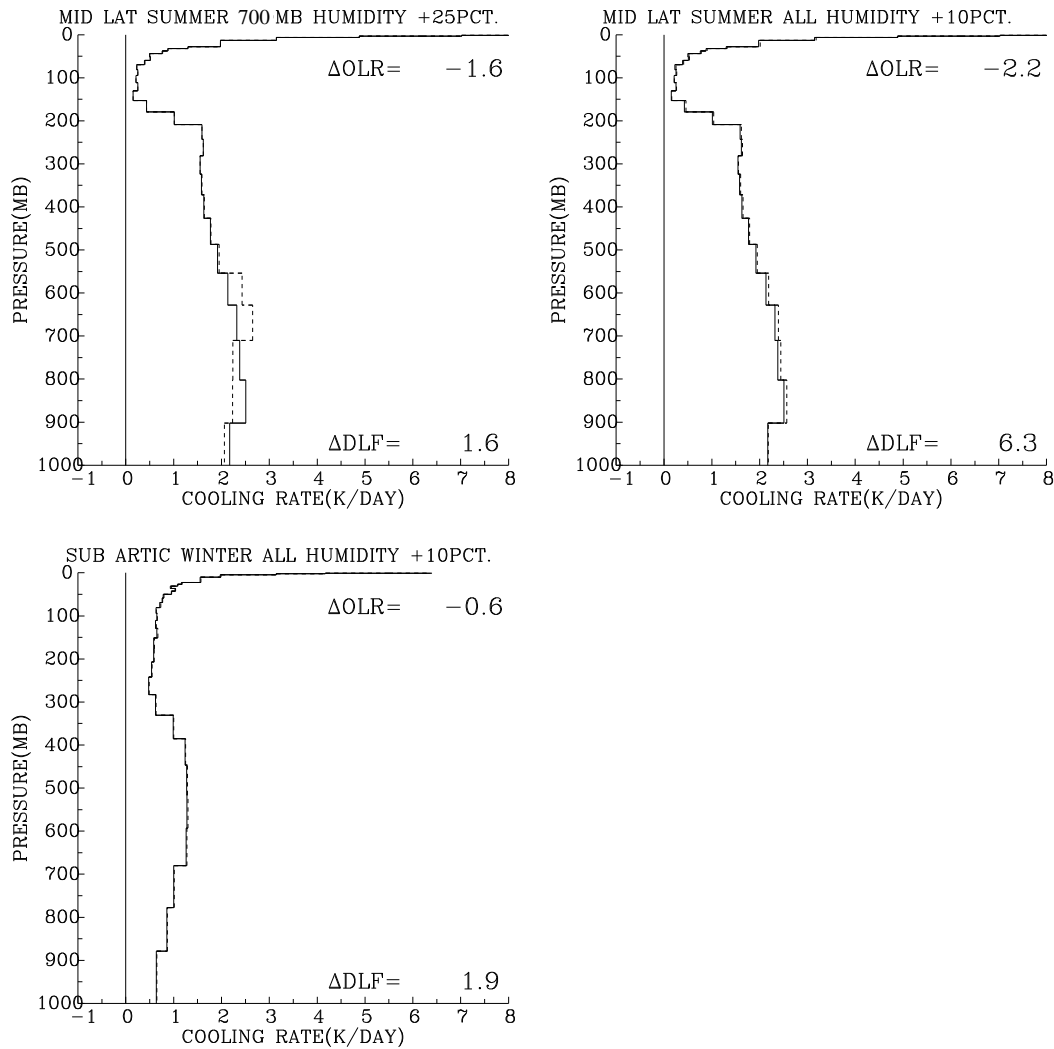


Figure 2 Broadband LW cooling rates (deg K/day) for climatological (dashed) and perturbed (solid) atmospheres. Change in OLR (as perturbed OLR minus climatological OLR) in upper right of each panel in W/m**2 ; change in DLF in lower right of each panel in W/m**2. Perturbations in panel on upper left (a) for midlatitude summer, an increase in the humidity of the layer at 700 hPa by 25%, on upper right (b) for midlatitude summer, an increase in the humidity of all layers by 10%, and on lower left (c) for subarctic winter, an increase in the humidity of all layers by 10%.

The impact of changes in the humidity profile to the LW SARB is shown in Fig. 2a-c. Note that the solid lines in Fig. 2a-b use the same climatological midlatitude summer profile as the solid lines in Figs. 1a-d. By increasing the humidity between 700-800 hPa by 25%, the cooling rate is increased in that layer and decreased in the layer below; the OLR drops by only 1.6 Wm^{-2} , and the DLF increases by 1.6 Wm^{-2} (Fig. 2a). In Fig. 2b, the humidity has been increased by 10% at all levels, giving a larger drop in the OLR (2.2 Wm^{-2}) and a larger increase in the DLF (6.3 Wm^{-2}), but the impact on the cooling rate at any individual level is small. The same 10% increase in humidity has been applied to a subarctic winter profile in Fig. 2c, and the impact is much smaller because in a colder atmosphere, a given increase in relative humidity translates to a smaller increase in absolute humidity and optical depth.

The impact of clouds on the LW SARB, coupled with uncertainties in retrieving the geometric thickness of clouds with a passive satellite observation, poses a formidable obstacle to CERES. We have attempted to assess the consequences of such uncertainties with ISCCP C1 data, using in this case the Wang et al. (1991) LW code. ISCCP C1 bins retrieved clouds into 1 of 7 fixed vertical layers. In each of the 280-km by 280-km equivalent area gridboxes used by ISCCP, we have calculated the LW SARB every 3 hours for October 1986. The cloud forcing (i.e., Charlock and Ramanathan 1985) of the LW cooling rate profile is negative in our assumed, 50-hPa thick, cloud-free boundary layer from pole to pole in Fig. 3a. The monthly and zonally averaged cloud forcing exceeds 1 deg K/day in portions of the extratropics. ISCCP does not provide information on cloud overlap. For Fig. 3a, we have used non-overlapping "thick" clouds, which are idealized in Fig. 4a. A "thick" cloud fully occupies 1 of the 7 fixed vertical layers (50-180 hPa, 180-310 hPa, 310-440 hPa, 440-560 hPa, 560-680 hPa, 680-800 hPa, and 800-950 hPa). In Fig. 3b, the difference of the cooling rate for non-overlapping thick clouds (idealized in Fig. 4a) and randomly overlapping thick clouds (idealized in Fig. 4b) is substantial, exceeding the mean cloud forcing (Fig. 3a) in some areas. In Fig. 3c, the difference of two non-overlapping cloud-forced cooling rates are again compared, but here the difference is for thick clouds (Fig. 4a) and "thin" clouds (Fig. 4c); for the "thin" clouds, the cloud pressure thickness has been reduced by 50%. The effect of maximum overlap (idealized in Fig. 4d) is even more substantial as shown in Fig. 3d, which gives the difference in the cloud-forced cooling rate for non-overlapping thick and maximum overlapping thick clouds.

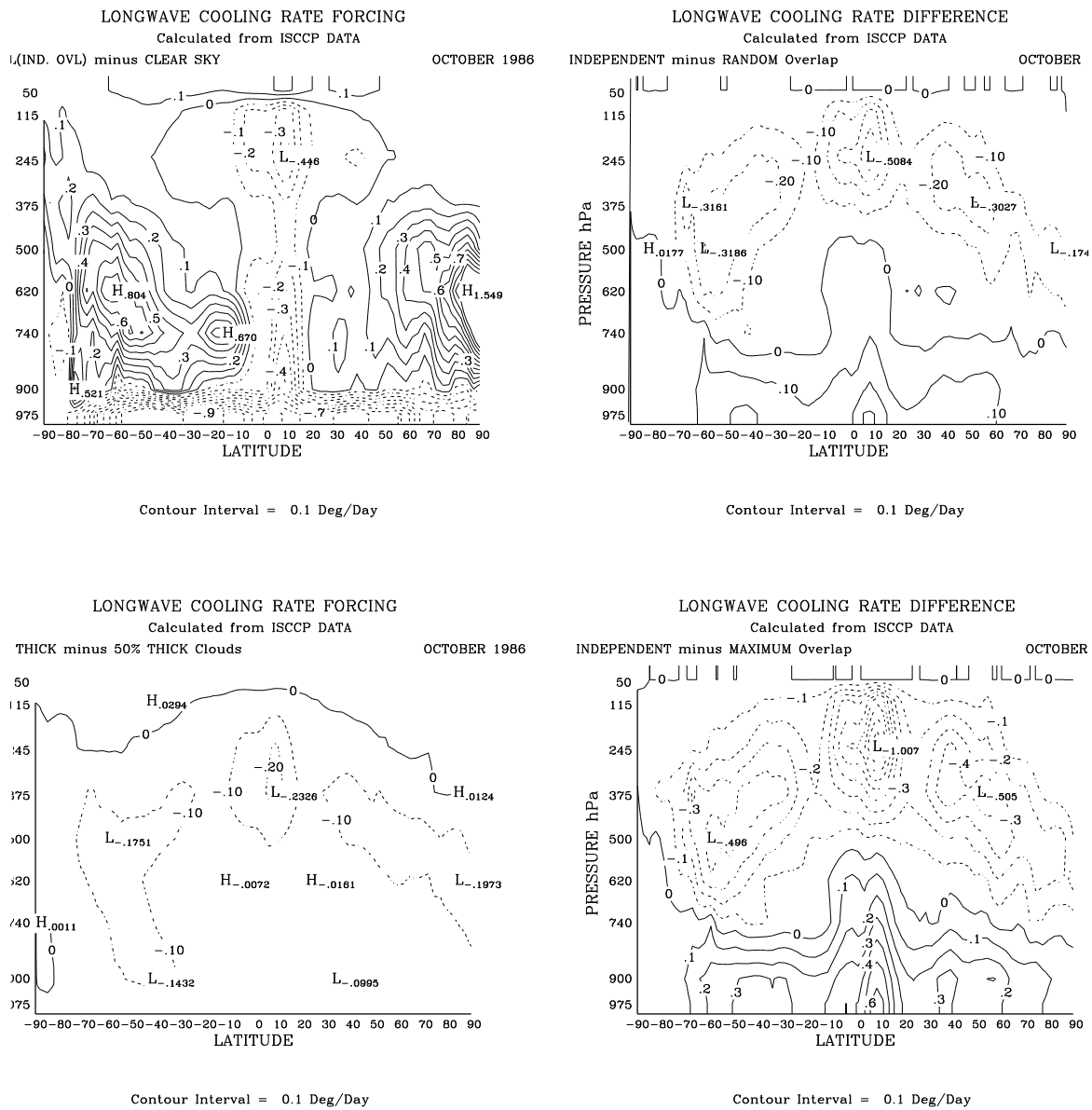
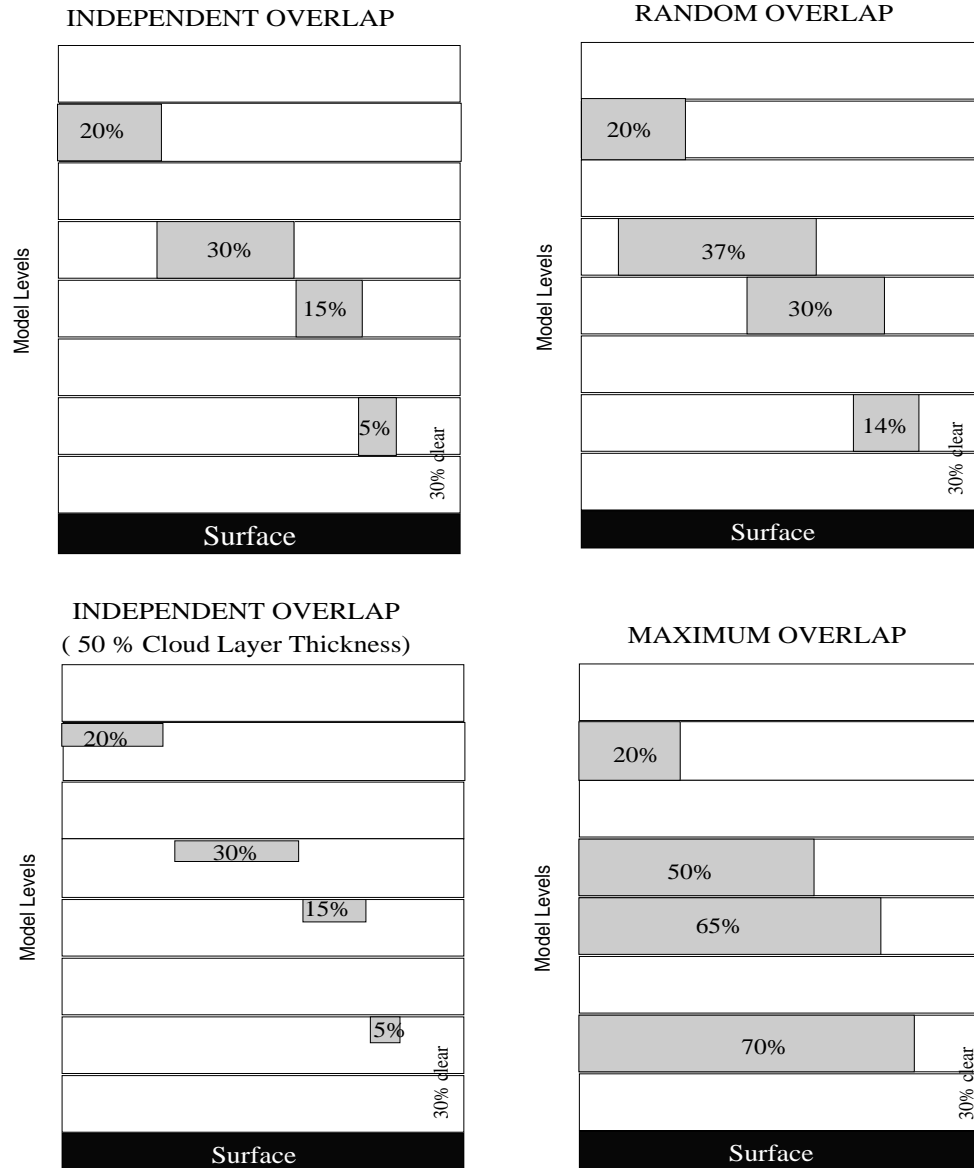


Figure 3 Zonal average of cloud forcing of the LW cooling rate (deg K/day) in upper left (a) for non-overlapping thick clouds, in upper right (b) for the difference of non overlapping thick clouds minus randomly overlapping thick clouds, in the lower left (c) for the difference of geometrically thick clouds minus thin clouds, and in the lower right (d) for the difference of non-overlapping thick clouds minus maximum overlap thick clouds.

Despite the uncertainty in the LW cloud forcing to the SARB (Fig. 3a) which is induced by overlap (Figs. 3b and 3d) and geometric thickness (Fig. 3c) at some levels, we note a broad region, centered around 700 hPa, where the integrated lower tropospheric cooling rate is not strongly sensitive to cloud overlap or thickness. Improved estimates of cloud overlap and thickness will be provided by the CERES Cloud Working Group.



- Cloud Fraction viewed from SPACE is the same in all cases.

Figure 4 Idealization of overlap schemes applied to ISCCP cloud data for calculations of LW cooling rate. In upper left panel (a) for non-overlapping (independent) thick clouds, in the upper right for (b) randomly overlapped thick clouds, in the lower left (c) for non-overlapping thin clouds, and in the lower right (d) for maximum overlap thick clouds.

The LW SARB calculations in Fig. 1c-d and Fig. 3a-d have assumed that the LW radiation from a cloud is black. The Fu and Liou (1993) code accounts for LW scattering and non-black absorption and emission by clouds, and we now use that code to illustrate the importance, in certain cases, of those effects. Fig. 5a shows cloud forcing to DLF (CFdlf) and cloud forcing to OLR (CFolr) for a cloud located 800-850 hPa, as a function of the natural logarithm of the cloud liquid water content (LWC in gm⁻³). A code that does not explicitly account for non-black clouds would commonly treat a non-black cloud as an effective area fraction of a black cloud. The effective fraction (EF) can be determined from TOA fluxes as

$$EF = CF_{olr}(\text{cloud})/CF_{olr}(\text{optically thick cloud})$$

The EF would then be used to determine the cloud's impact on the LW SARB, by treating any cloud forcing as an EF of the cloud forcing for an optically thick cloud. Fig. 5b repeats the CF_{dlf} from Fig. 5a, but it also shows an estimated CF_{dlf} based on the EF above. In some cases, the estimated CF_{dlf} errs by 5 Wm⁻². This error in the estimated CF_{dlf} shows that, in some cases, one must explicitly account for LW scattering by clouds to provide an accurate determination of the LW surface budget. LW scattering by clouds can also have an impact on fluxes aloft, altering the cooling rate profiles given by the "black cloud, no scattering" assumption used in Fig. 1c-d and Fig. 3a-d.

High Latitude Low Cloud (800 – 850 hPa)

Fu – Liou delta 4-stream code

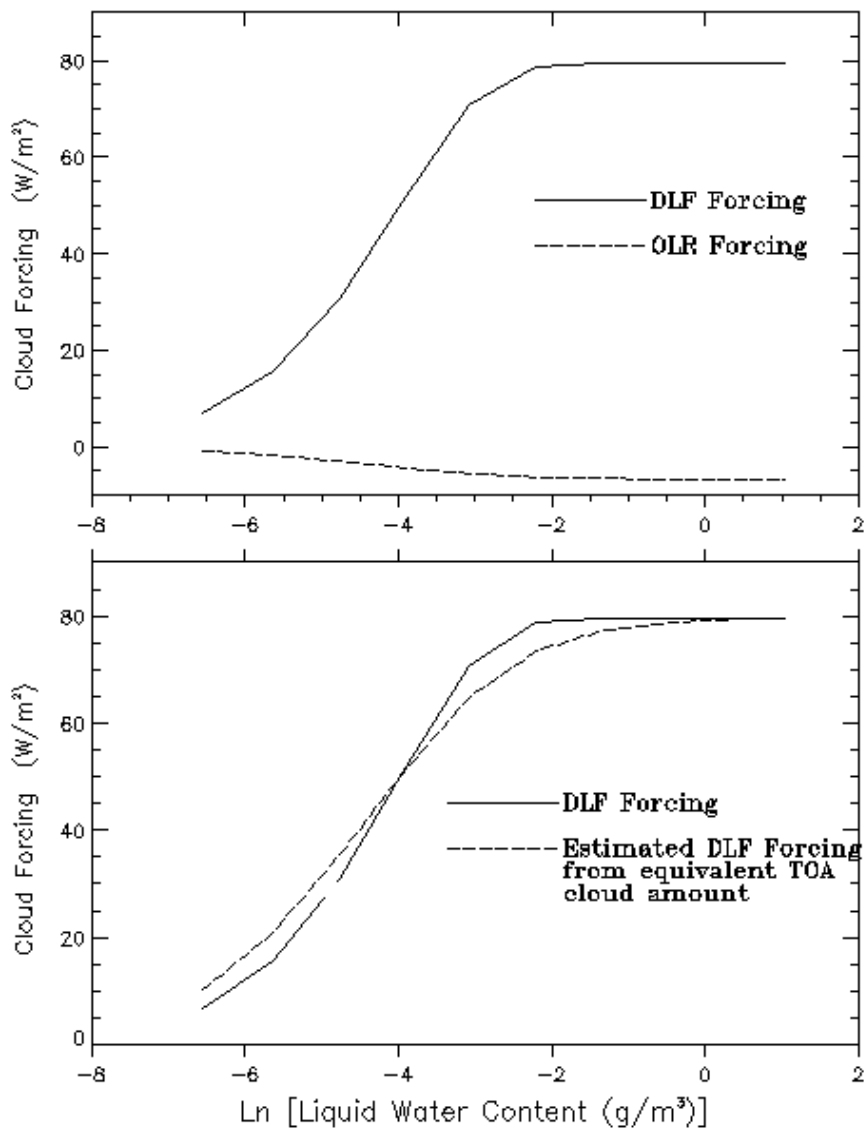


Figure 5 - LW cloud forcing to OLR (TOA) and DLF (surface) as function of cloud liquid water content (a) Directly computed OLR and DLF cloud forcing (b) Estimated DLF cloud forcing from equivalent TOA cloud amount

LW scattering by the surface is most significant over land. Surface emissivity can fall well below 0.90 over some dry, unvegetated soils (Salisbury and D'Aria, 1992). For a fixed atmospheric sounding and a fixed value for the clear sky OLR, there is a corresponding theoretical family of surface skin temperatures and surface broadband LW emissivities; the surface net LW flux is not uniquely determined by the atmospheric sounding and OLR alone. With the Fu and Liou (1993) code and a fixed midlatitude sounding, a clear-sky OLR of 280 Wm^{-2} is consistent with both case A (skin temperature of 291 K; emissivity 1.00) and case B (skin temperature 296 K; emissivity 0.85). The surface net LW in cases A and B differ by 12 Wm^{-2} .

5.3.1.3 SW issues. The SW heating of the atmosphere, like the LW cooling, is sensitive to variations in humidity and cloud opacity. In the SW, however, clouds primarily scatter radiation (rather than absorb), and their impact on the SW surface budget is not as strongly dependent on cloud altitude as is the LW. Li et al. (1993) have noted that, for a given solar zenith angle (SZA), there is an approximately linear relationship between the SW reflected flux at the TOA and the SW net (absorbed) flux at the surface. Such a relationship permits the ready estimation of surface fluxes from CERES and ERBE TOA observations. The Li et al. (1993) algorithm is used in another component of the CERES processing stream for the determination of SW "surface net only" fluxes.

Here, we have calculated the reflected TOA and net surface fluxes with the Fu and Liou (1993) code in order to illustrate the Li et al. (1993) relationship. The thin solid lines in Fig. 6 have each been calculated for fixed solar zenith angles using various optical depths for a cloud at 800 hPa, and they are quite linear. The linearity is somewhat surprising, but it is not universal. The thick lines of Fig. 6 show the same relationship for two fixed solar zenith angles, but with a cloud at 200 hPa. The relationship for 200 hPa is again approximately linear. We note that it is important, however, to distinguish the case with a low cloud (800 hPa) and a high cloud (200 hPa). Cloud altitude must be accounted for, to place the SW heating at the right vertical level in the atmosphere. The different slopes of the thin (800 hPa cloud) and thick (200 hPa cloud) lines also show that cloud altitude must be taken into account, in order to improve the estimate of SW surface fluxes as well.

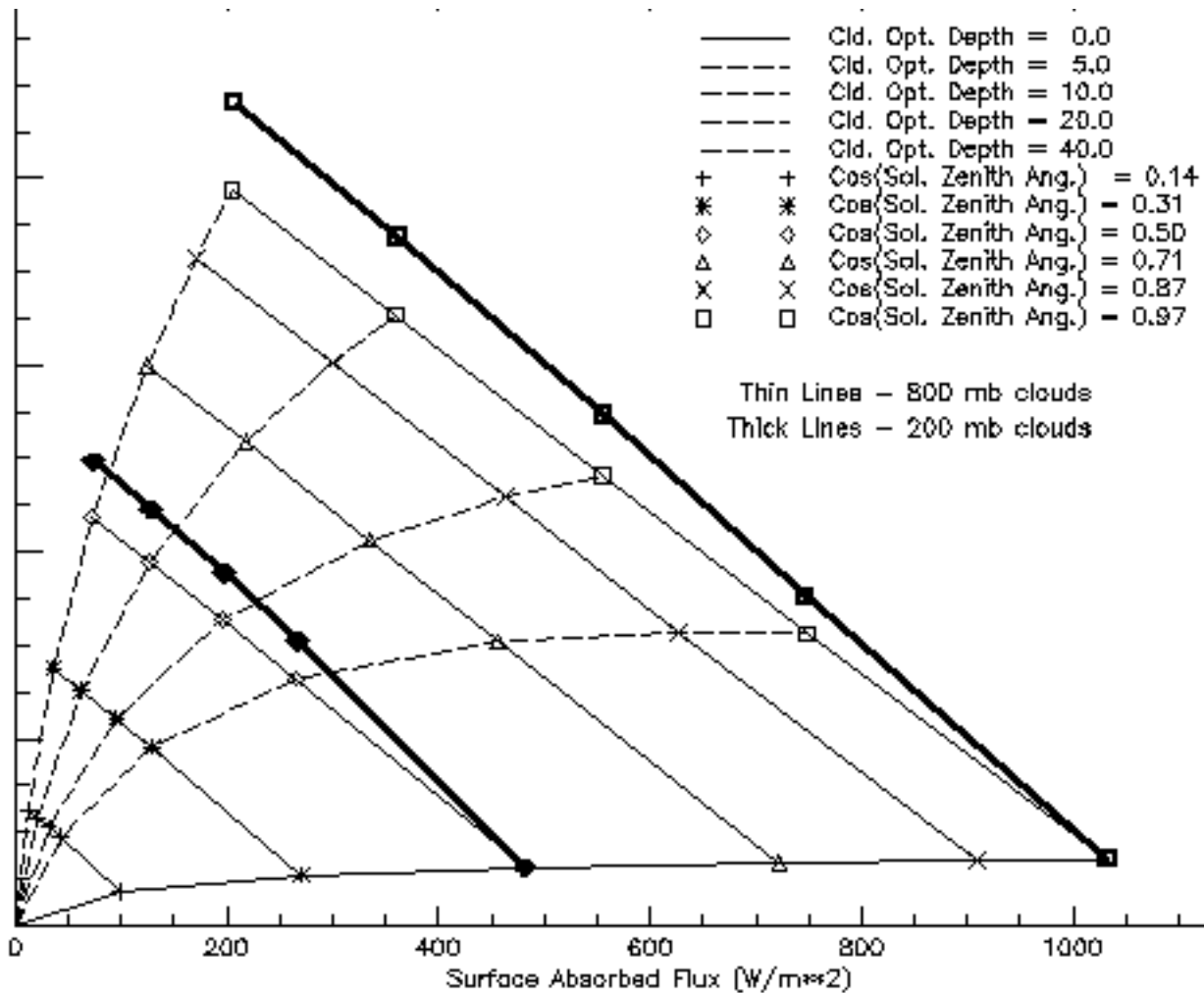


Figure 6 Computed SW reflected flux at TOA and SW surface absorbed (net) flux. Lines sloping downward to right are calculated for a constant solar zenith angle with varying cloud optical depth. Thin lines for cloud at 800 hPa. Thick lines for cloud at 200 hPa.

Ramaswamy and Freidenreich (1992) have studied the effect of the spectral overlap of absorption by water vapor and water droplets on the SW SARB. Most broadband codes are not adequate in their treatments of the spectral overlap, which is influenced by the distribution of water vapor above and within clouds. The corresponding errors in cloud-induced SW atmospheric heating can exceed 35%. The essence of the problem is the lack of effective spectral resolution for cloud single scattering albedo in the broadband radiative transfer codes. Ramaswamy and Freidenreich (1992) have developed a parameterization that partly accounts for the spectral overlap. We are approaching this problem in collaboration with Dr. Liou at the University of Utah. A high resolution code has been developed, and we hope to use simulations with it to guide a subsequent version of the Fu and Liou (1993) code.

Recent comparisons of computed and measured SW fluxes have led to doubts concerning radiative transfer in both clear (Wild et al., 1995; Kato et al., 1996; Kinne et al., 1996) and cloudy (i.e., Cess et al., 1995) skies, wherein the atmosphere appears to absorb considerably more SW than is predicted by models. In contrast, other careful studies have not found discrepancies between calculations and measurements for clear skies in the tropics (Chou and Zhao, 1996) or have not found evidence of "enhanced" SW absorption by clouds (Hayasaka et al., 1995).

Tables 2 and 3 illustrate the CAGEX Version 1.1 bias in SW flux computed with the Fu and Liou (1993) code, the Minnis et al. (1993) LBTM GOES-7 cloud retrievals, and aerosol spectral optical depth from the MFRSR (Harrison et al., 1994). BSRN-like surface radiometric measurements were available at the ARM SGP site (DeLuisi, 1991), including point measurement of surface albedo (which we applied to the entire gridboxes). The temporal domain consists of 26 days in April 1994 with 18 half-hourly comparisons per day. The spatial domain is a 3 by 3 grid (0.3° on each side) for satellite (TOA) data, but only the central gridbox for the surface radiometric measurements (Fig. 0). The mean TOA downwelling (DWN) was almost 1000 Wm^{-2} for both the total-sky and clear-sky domain. For clear skies, the computed fluxes for surface downwelling (SFC DWN in Table 2) are 27.5 Wm^{-2} greater than the measurements. The inferred biases in atmospheric absorption (ATM ABS) are comparable for total sky (-40.8 Wm^{-2}) and clear sky (-29.1 Wm^{-2}) conditions, here suggesting a problem with enhanced clear sky absorption, as opposed to cloud forcing.

Table 2 SW Statistics (W/m^{**2}) for CAGEX - Version 1.1 (April 1994)

FULL SKY	Average		Bias	Error (%)	Samples (number)
	Calculated	Measured			
SW TOA NET	584.8	602.9	-18.2	-3.0	4059
SW TOA UP	386.6	368.5	18.2	4.9	4059
SW TOA DWN	971.4	971.4	0.0	0.0	4059
SW TOA ALB	0.400	0.380	0.020	5.2	4059
SW ATM ABS	170.4	211.3	-40.8	-19.3	330
SW SFC NET	403.6	379.2	24.4	6.4	330
SW SFC UP	96.9	93.8	3.1	3.3	402
SW SFC DWN	487.3	461.1	26.2	5.7	361
SW SFC DIR	245.1	280.4	-35.2	-12.6	361
SW SFC DIF	240.1	177.8	62.3	35.1	348
LW TOA OLR	237.3	234.9	2.4	1.0	4039
LW SFC NET	-62.1	-65.9	3.8	-5.7	330
LW SFC UP	388.2	400.2	-12.1	-3.0	402
LW SFC DWN	325.0	332.8	-7.8	-2.4	361

CLEAR SKY	Average		Bias	Error (%)	Samples (number)
	Calculated	Measured			
SW TOA NET	779.4	785.1	-5.8	-0.7	861
SW TOA UP	195.2	189.5	5.8	3.0	861
SW TOA DWN	974.6	974.6	0.0	0.0	861
SW TOA ALB	0.204	0.198	0.007	3.4	861
SW ATM ABS	150.3	179.5	-29.1	-16.2	55
SW SFC NET	651.1	627.6	23.5	3.7	55
SW SFC UP	149.2	143.7	5.5	3.8	80
SW SFC DWN	802.3	774.8	27.5	3.5	55
SW SFC DIR	674.8	669.4	5.3	0.8	55
SW SFC DIF	127.5	105.3	22.3	21.2	55
LW TOA OLR	279.0	276.7	2.4	0.9	861
LW SFC NET	-109.7	-118.5	8.8	-7.4	55
LW SFC UP	384.0	411.1	-27.1	-6.6	80
LW SFC DWN	271.7	289.6	-17.9	-6.2	55

The criterion used to identify clear-sky conditions affects the reported clear-sky bias reported in Table 2. Clear sky conditions have been identified alternately with a more relaxed criterion, labeled "test 1" in Table 3. The relaxed clear-sky criterion of test 1 assumes that the LBTM satellite retrieval finds no clouds in the central gridbox for a *single snapshot* centered in the half hour interval of the flux measurement. For test 1 (Table 3), the computed direct beam to a horizontal surface is biased 16.0 Wm^{-2} higher than the measurement (normal incident pyrhelometer NIP multiplied by the cosine of the solar zenith angle). We applied a stricter criterion ("test 2") in Table 2, and thereby reduced the bias in the direct beam from 16 Wm^{-2} (test 1 in Table 3) to 5.3 Wm^{-2} (test 2 in Table 3). Successively more rigorous screening for clear sky conditions are applied. In test 2, the satellite reports no cloud in the central gridbox for a snapshot within the measurement half hour, and none for the half hours earlier or later. In test 3, we use test 2 plus no clouds in any of 8 adjacent gridboxes for the measurement half hour. In test 4, we use test 3 plus continuous MicroPulse Lidar (MPL; Spinhirne, 1993) cloud screening of the zenith for the half hour interval of the flux measurement. For tests 2-4, the bias in the clear sky diffuse beam is approximately 20%. The bias in the total beam, as measured by combining the NIP and an unshaded pyranometer, is robust. We have not been able to resolve these biases by using a different radiative transfer code (Chou, 1993 and MODTRAN3), by comparing with alternate ARM surface measurements of flux, by reasonable changes in the aerosol optical thickness or absorption, or by using an alternate sounding for water vapor (the Mesoscale Atmospheric Prediction System MAPS from NOAA Forecast Systems Laboratory). For the surface fluxes in LW, however, the biases in Table 2 are considerably reduced when re-computed with MAPS sounding data (see CAGEX on-line tables for details).

Table 3 SW Statistics (W/m^2) for Clear Skies Surface Downwelling (SFC DWN)

Test	Direct Bias	Total (direct + diffuse) bias	Samples
1	16.0	30.8	89
2	5.3	27.5	55
3	2.5	26.4	42
4	6.8	28.1	25

Tests:

- 1) LBTM cloud fraction = 0
- 2) 1), + LBTM $f_x=0$ during 1/2 hour before and 1/2 hour after time
- 3) 2), + LBTM $f_x=0$ in all 9 grids (applies to center grid only)
- 4) 3), + lidar temporal $f_x=0$ (applies to center grid only)

Preliminary comparisons by CERES (Alberta et al., 1997) and other groups are similar for clear skies using data from the ARM Enhanced SW Experiment (ARESE), which was conducted in October 1995. To deduce the clear sky insolation, we have used a combination of the NIP and a shaded pyranometer, as specified by WCRP. Commonly stated measurement accuracies for well-maintained instruments are 1% for the NIP and 3-5% for pyranometers. A recent test of NIP instruments with a cavity radiometer at ARM SGP CART by Michalsky et al. (1997) found that the NIP referred to as "BSRN" read too low by 1%, while the a "SIROS" NIP read too low by almost 3%. In the domain of the ARM SGP CART site, we have not resolved code versus measurement discrepancies or instrument versus instrument discrepancies, even using the new radiometers from the Atmospheric Research Laboratory at Scripps (Valero et al., 1996). We may be facing an unexpected sum of errors due to broadband radiative transfer approximations, instrument operation and calibration, and inadequate sensing of atmospheric composition. CERES is attempting to stay abreast of developments in this fast-paced area with the on-line CAGEX activity (<http://snowdog.larc.nasa.gov:8081/cagex.html>). Some of the latest figures and tables are in Section 5.5 Strategic Concerns.

A number of researchers (including J. J. Morcrette at ECMWF, H. Leighton at McGill, and R. Stuhlmann at GKSS) have confirmed our reported clear sky SW insolation bias with independent radiative transfer calculations based on CAGEX Version 1.0 April 1994 files. Our preliminary clear sky insolation biases for October 1995 are consistent with independent calculations (not based on CAGEX) by respectively, S. Kinne and associates at NASA Ames, and S. Kato and T. Ackerman at Penn State.

5.3.2 Framework of CERES Calculations

5.3.2.1 Some definitions. CERES calculations for the SARB are performed at the footprint (also called Field Of View FOV) scale of the broadband ERB measurement of the same TOA flux by ERBE (Release 1) and CERES (Release 2 and onward). For ERBE, the minimum footprint (FOV) at nadir was about 30 km.

The Meteorology, Ozone, and Aerosol (MOA) sounding data for the SARB calculation is based on the NCEP Reanalysis for Release 1 and on the NASA Goddard Data Assimilation System (DAS) or on NCEP for Release 2. The Subsystem 12 documentation describes MOA, which is referenced in Appendix A (Input Data Products) of this Subsystem 5 document. At present in Release 1, the 6-hourly NCEP Reanalysis is interpolated by MOA to the nearest hour of the CERES grid (1.25° in Release 1 and 1° in Release 2) in 58 vertical levels. In the Release 1 calculations shown later in this document, the MOA ozone column loading was obtained from the October 1986 ISCCP/TOVS. Release 2 ozone will be based on the vertical profiles from the NCEP Stratospheric Monitoring Group Ozone Blended Analysis (SMOBA), which are based on measurements from the height resolving SBUV/2, a nadir instrument. The aerosols in MOA are described at the end of the following section (5.3.2.1).

The cloud optical properties for the SARB calculations are produced by AVHRR (Release 1), VIRS (Release 2), or MODIS (Release 3) high resolution cloud imager pixels. The CERES convention distinguishes high resolution cloud imager *pixels* from the coarser resolution ERB *footprint* or FOV. Subsystem 4 produces an instantaneous Single Satellite Footprint, TOA and Surface Flux, and Clouds (SSF) product for each ERB footprint. Appendix A (Input Data Products) of this document lists the many SSF parameters. The cloud optical property retrievals on the footprint-scale SSF product have been adjusted with the appropriate ERB Point Spread Function (PSF). Instrument response is not uniform across the ERB footprint, and the PSF provides the appropriate spatial weighting for cloud imager products within the footprint. SSF contains the broadband TOA measured flux for the footprint and estimates for the surface LW (Inamdar and Ramanathan, 1994) and surface SW (Li et al., 1995) from fast surface-only retrieval algorithms. The cloud properties and broadband TOA flux are used in the Fu and Liou (1993) calculations for the entire vertical profile as described in this document.

As potential input manifests for the Fu and Liou (1993) code, the MOA (sounding) and especially the SSF (cloud property) listings in Appendices are ponderous for the reader. CERES Appendices are keyed to Release 2. The Release 1 calculations presented here are based, however, on the limited subset of FOV-scale SSF data in Table 4.

Table 4 SSF parameters for Release 1 radiative transfer calculations

SSF	Description of parameter
7	Earth-Sun distance
3	Colatitude of satellite at observation
4	Longitude of satellite at observation
23	CERES(ERBE) solar zenith at TOA
39	CERES(ERBE) SW flux at TOA, upwards
40	CERES(ERBE) LW flux at TOA, upwards
52	CERES(ERBE) spectral reflectivity (<i>from references in 5.3.2.2 below</i>)
54	CERES(ERBE) LW surface emissivity (<i>from references in 5.3.2.2 below</i>)
56	Imager based surface skin temperature
	<i>The following parameters are arrays of cloud categories (4 categories, or kinds of clouds, are allowed per FOV in Release 1 only 2 categories are allowed per FOV in Release 2):</i>
77	Cloud category percent coverage
84	Mean logarithm of cloud visible optical depth
96	Mean cloud effective temperature
102	Mean water particle radius
104	Mean ice particle effective diameter
106	Mean cloud particle phase

The descriptions of header parameter 7 and parameters 4, 23, 29, 39, and 40 in Table 4 should be adequate. The reference values for surface spectral reflectivity (52 in Table 4) and LW surface emissivity (53 in Table 4) are described in the following section 5.3.2.2.

When the cloud imager indicates clear conditions for an ERB footprint (Subsystem 4 documents), a surface skin temperature is retrieved (parameter 56 in Table 4). The Release 1 CERES skin temperature retrieval is based on AVHRR 11 μm radiance, the satellite view angle, and the precipitable water (PW). Preliminary studies indicate that the OLR computed with this satellite-based skin temperature is more suitable over land than the model output from DAS. For cloudy skies, we use DAS for skin temperature. Over the oceans, this is essentially the NOAA Climate Analysis Center (CAC) SST (Reynolds and Smith, 1994). The bucket (CAC) SST is close to the sea skin temperature in most cases, excepting clear skies and light winds.

The cloud parameters in Table 4 are unique to the CERES experiment: cloud properties based on high resolution imager pixels fitted to a larger broadband ERB footprint. Each cloudy pixel is grouped according to a "cloud category" (Table 4). The cloud categories in CERES are high (H; effective pressure < 300 hPa),

upper-middle (UM; 500 hPa > effective pressure > 300 hPa), lower-middle (LM; 700 hPa > effective pressure > 500 hPa), and low (L; effective pressure > 700 hPa). All Release 1 radiative transfer calculations described in this Subsystem 5 document are performed at the cloud category scale within a footprint, rather than at the higher resolution individual cloud pixel scale. In Release 1, a single ERB footprint may contain clear sky and as many as all 4 cloud categories. For a footprint, Release 1 radiative transfer may be run for as many as 5 cases (one clear and 4 cloudy). There is no cloud overlap in Release 1 (i.e., no footprints with H cloud overlapping, or sitting directly on top of, L cloud). The planned Release 2 will permit cloud categories to overlap within a large ERB footprint. However, Release 2 will permit only up to 2 (of the possible 4) cloud categories per footprint. For a footprint, Release 2 radiative transfer may be run for as many as 4 cases (one clear, 2 cloud categories, and one overlapped condition of the 2 cloudy categories).

For each cloud category (H, HM, LM, or L) in the large ERB footprint, the percent area of the cloud category is given with the category means for the logarithm of cloud optical thickness, the cloud effective temperature, the liquid particle radius, the ice particle radius, and phase. With the visible optical depth, particle size, and phase, we determine the liquid water path (LWP in gm^{-2}) or ice water path (IWP) for the cloud category. The cloud geometrical thickness is then estimated in Subsystem 5 using an empirical relationship between geometrical thickness and visible optical depth devised by Minnis et al. (1993a-b). From the cloud effective temperature (near the cloud top) and the MOA sounding profile, we determine the cloud top pressure for input to the Fu and Liou (1993) code. The cloud top pressure, estimated geometrical thickness of the cloud, and the MOA sounding are used to determine the cloud base pressure. The LWP is then distributed homogeneously as a LWC (liquid water content in gm^{-3}) from cloud top to cloud bottom.

Subsystem 4 retrievals identify each cloudy pixel as ice or liquid. This yields the mean cloud particle phase for each cloud category (parameter 106 in Table 4). The present Subsystem 5 regards an individual cloud category as all liquid or all ice, from cloud top to cloud base, according to the mean cloud particle phase. It is recalled that with the Fu and Liou (1993) broadband code, we treat ice particles as hexagonal cylinders and account for their sizes.

Cloud top and bottom are floating layers as shown in Fig. 7. Cloud top and bottom are assigned to their exact pressure levels for the radiative transfer calculation. Most of the other levels are fixed, with the exception of the floating boundary layers of thickness 10 hPa and 20 hPa. When the surface rises (or when the surface pressure falls), the thickness of the layer immediately above the 20 hPa boundary either expands or contracts; as it moves upward, it successively entrains the fixed levels by eliminating the bottoms of the fixed levels. Fig. 7 shows two overlapping cloud categories, as is possible in the planned Release 2, and for which we here have the maximum number (34) of permitted levels. For Release 1 (2) the 58-level sounding data from MOA has been (will be) interpolated into a coarser vertical grid.

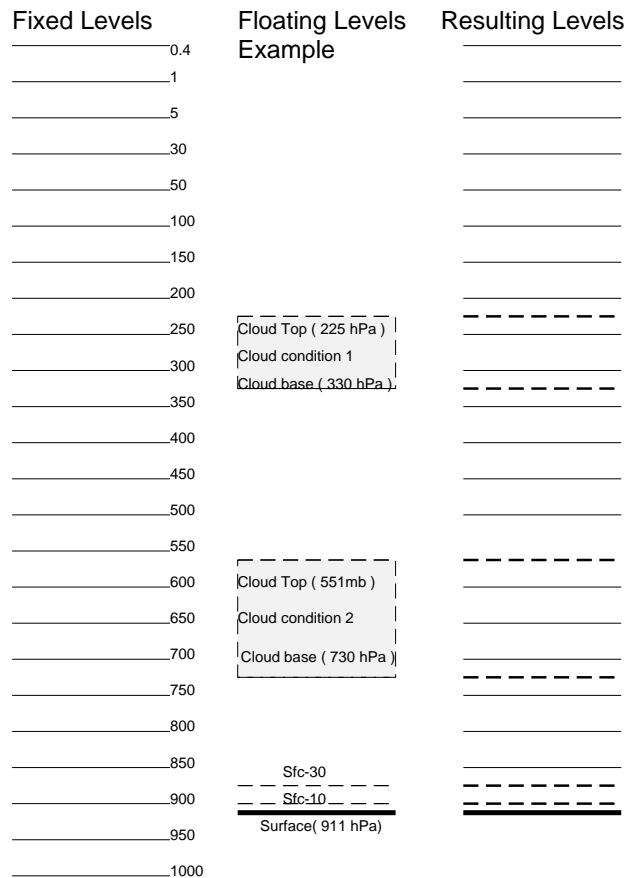


Figure 7 - Fixed and floating (terrain, boundary layer, clouds) levels

5.3.2.2 Reference Optical Properties of Aerosols and Surfaces. The uncertainty to anthropogenic climate forcing posed by aerosol and surface optical properties has been noted. CERES Releases 1 and 2 address both problems to first order, by solving for the aerosol optical depths and broadband surface albedos which are most consistent with observed TOA broadband fluxes and available ancillary data. To approach such first order problems globally, procedures are needed to estimate “second order” effects used in the calculations.

A set of reference optical properties is needed for aerosols and surfaces. The reference optical properties are used in the initial, unconstrained radiative transfer calculations. A subset of the optical properties, the aerosol optical depth and surface albedo/reflectance, are subsequently constrained (adjusted) in some footprints. In Release 1 and Release 2 calculations, the only aerosol parameter provided to Subsystem 5 (SARB) is the optical depth in the visible. Reference optical properties are used to scale the aerosol visible optical depth throughout the 6 SW and 12 LW spectral intervals of the Fu and Liou (1993) code; to distribute the optical depth among the vertical layers; to specify the single scattering albedo and asymmetry factor of the aerosol in each wavelength band for the calculation. In Release 1 and 2, the reflectance of the surface must be specified for the same 6 SW and 12 LW spectral intervals.

Both the aerosol visible optical depth and the surface reflectance may be adjusted (constrained) after the first radiative transfer calculation. But if the aerosol optical depth is constrained in the visible, this is simply scaled into proportional changes in the other bands; the optical depth scales up or down by a factor that is constant with wavelength. The single scattering albedos and the asymmetry factors are not constrained for

any wavelength intervals at present. When the reflectance of the surface is constrained to produce a surface albedo needed for energy balance constraints, the reference spectral shape of the surface reflectance is retained.

The d'Almeida et al. (1991) compilation furnishes a global climatology, based on external mixtures, of 12 aerosol types. Importantly, the compilation includes the relative humidity dependence of aerosol optical properties (Fig. 8). This compilation was approved by J. Lenoble as President of the Radiation Commission of the International Association of Meteorology and Atmospheric Physics (IAMAP). One of the co-authors, E. Shettle, has advised CERES that another compilation is under development. We use 2 of the 12 d'Almeida et al. (1991) types in Release 1: clean continental for land and clean maritime for sea. For subsequent Release 2 processing in 1997, additional d'Almeida et al. (1991) aerosol types will be used. Release 2 cloud retrieval algorithms (Subsystem 4) include provision for the identification of smoke for clear sky footprints. The optical properties of smoke will be assumed from the d'Almeida et al. (1991) urban aerosol. Further in the post-launch time frame (Releases 3 and 4), we plan to generate models for aerosol optical properties using Mie routines provided by S.-C. Tsay and run by CERES colleague Yong-Xiang Hu; these will eventually replace some of the d'Almeida et al. (1991) models.

D'ALMEIDA AEROSOL OPTICAL PROPERTIES

Shortwave

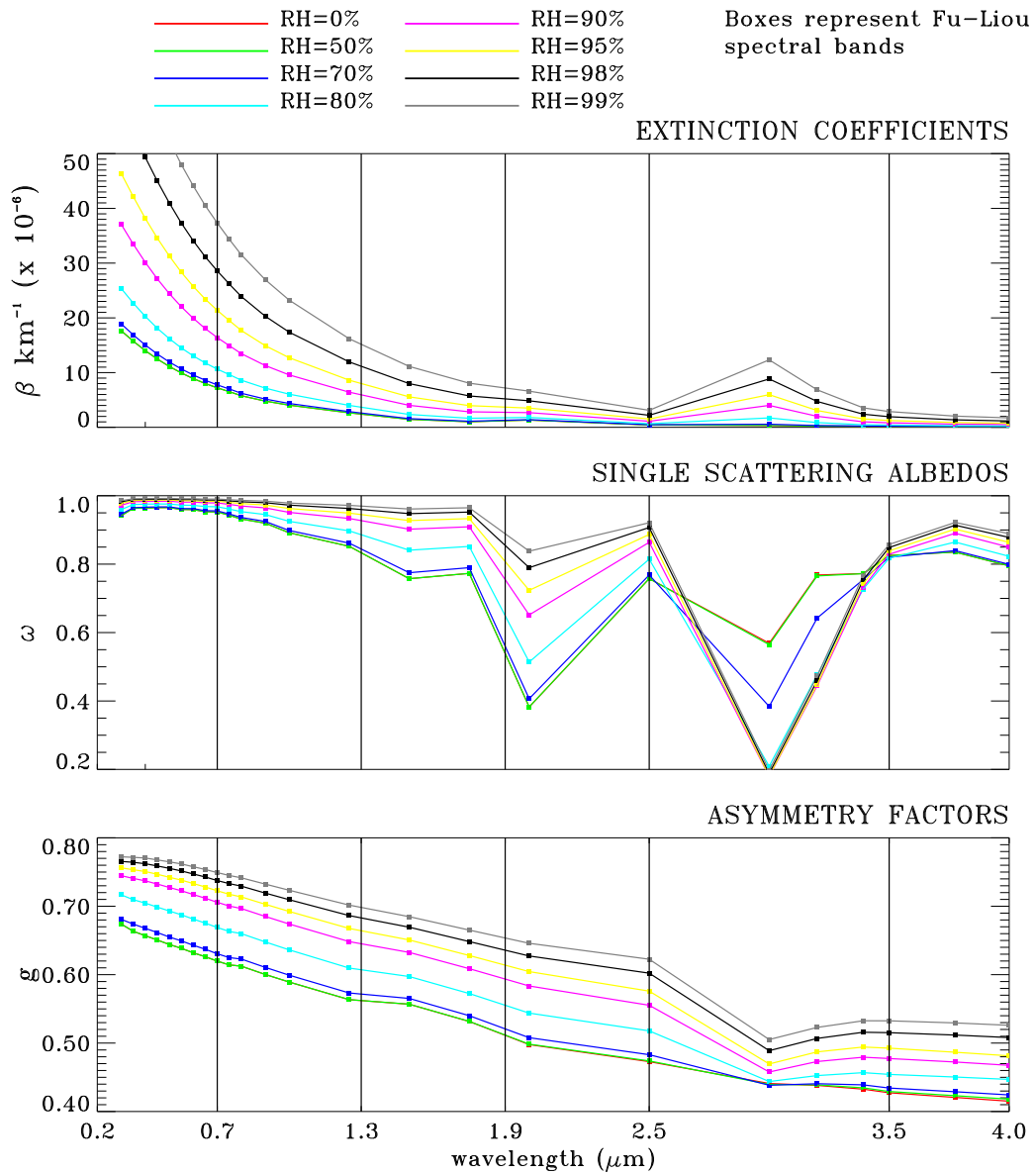


Figure 8 - Variation of d'Almeida aerosol properties with relative humidity and wavelength

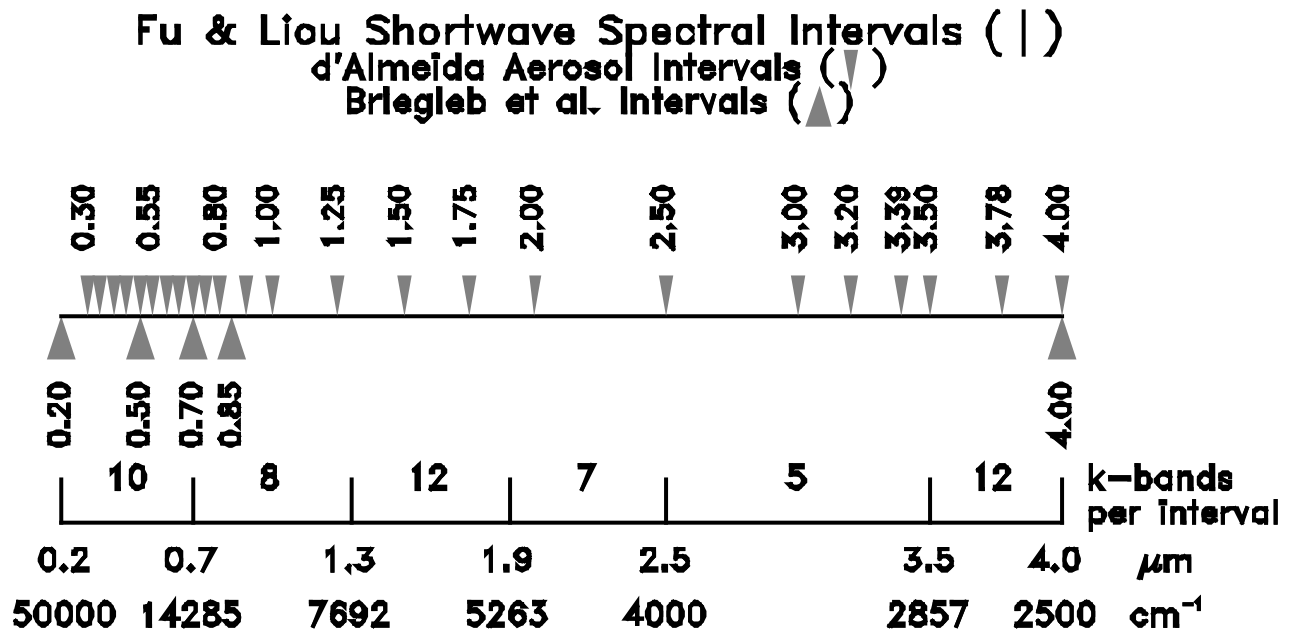


Figure 9 - SW spectral intervals for radiative transfer calculations, reference aerosol properties, and reference surface properties

A formal interpolation routine is used to distribute optical properties from the wavelength bands of the d'Almeida et al. (1991) compilation to the Fu and Liou (1993) spectral intervals. For a standard atmosphere and solar zenith angle of 60°, the surface insolation has been calculated at high resolution with the MODTRAN3 program using 8-point Gaussian quadrature. Optical properties in each d'Almeida et al. SW band were assigned as spectrally flat across the large number of MODTRAN3 intervals for the d'Almeida bands (Fig. 9). From the tight MODTRAN3 intervals, the optical properties were assigned to the coarser Fu and Liou (1993) SW bands, with a further refinement to account for the new splitting of the 0.2-0.7 μm into 10 sub-intervals. For clear sky conditions, the transfer algorithm for spectral interpolation was found to have surprisingly small dependence on SZA and the atmospheric sounding. The corresponding spectral intervals for the LW are shown in Fig. 10.

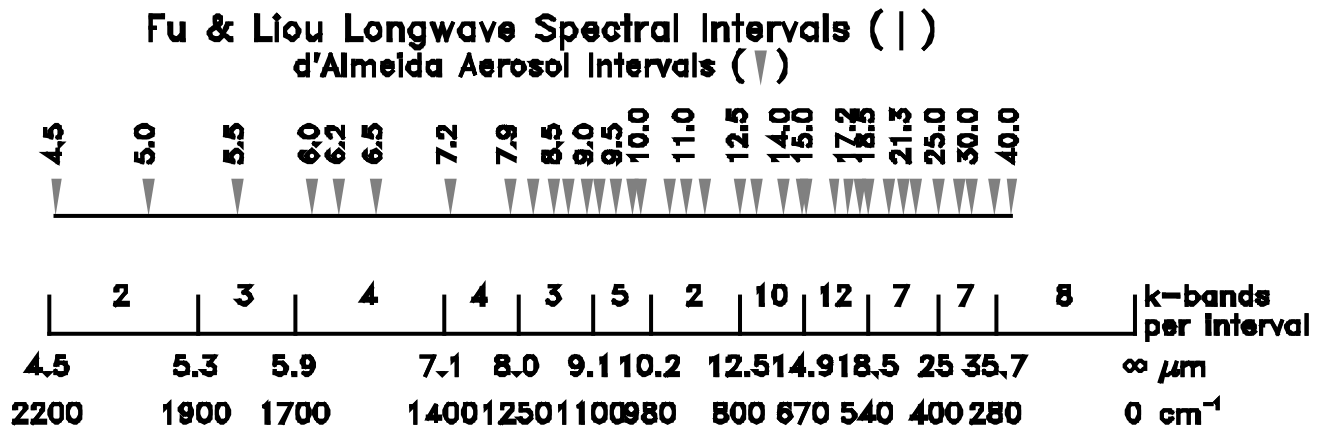


Figure 10 - LW spectral intervals for radiative transfer calculations, reference aerosol properties, and reference surface properties

Release 1 distributes the d'Almeida et al. (1991) aerosol with height using the provisional analytical model of Spinhirne (1991) for the smooth background component of aerosol scattering. In Release 2, a more sophisticated (but still provisional) height distribution model by Spinhirne et al. (1997) will be used. Release 2 will include a switch permitting the insertion of large optical thicknesses of aerosol in the stratosphere to simulate the effects of a volcanic eruption.

Aerosols in Releases 1 and 2 have default visible optical depth climatologies for the integrated total column. The algorithms based on d'Almeida et al. (1991) and Spinhirne (1991) are applied to column optical depths and distribute aerosol properties with wavelength and altitude. The default optical depths are the only total column optical depths available in Release 1. The default optical depths are used as a first guess, in the event that other input data is not available, in Release 2. In Release 2, CERES Subsystem 4 will retrieve, for clear-sky footprints over the seas, the column optical thickness of aerosols with the Ignatov et al. (1994) algorithm due to CERES Co-IL. Stowe. For the seas, the visible aerosol optical depth climatology based on the Ignatov et al. (1994) AVHRR-based retrievals for October 1989 is used. For the visible aerosol optical depth land climatology, Releases 1 and 2 use the Pinker and Laszlo (1992) estimation from the GEWEX SRB Project.

The reference optical property map for surfaces can be found on a web page (http://tanalo.larc.nasa.gov:8081/surf_htmls/SARBdspt.html) developed by David A. Rutan. We are aware that whatever optical property we specify for a given spot, a local expert is likely able to provide a more accurate one. The CERES SARB surface optical property web page is intended as a tool for communicating with such parties. The present web page has "point and click" maps, giving the classification of surface type, the assumed spectral reflectance in the 6 SW bands of the Fu-Liou code, and the assumed broadband surface emissivity. Release 1 used this information in developing the Figures for this document. For Release 2, David P. Kratz and Shashi Gupta generated emissivities for all 12 LW bands of the Fu and Liou code.

The reference surface optical property map is stunted: high spatial resolution, modest spectral resolution, no seasonal data, and minimal angular information. The International Geosphere Biosphere Program (IGBP) land cover types are placed in a 10'x10' array for 17 types as evergreen needleleaf forest, evergreen broadleaf forest, deciduous needleleaf forest, deciduous broadleaf forest, mixed forest, closed shrubland, open shrubland, woody savanna, savanna, grasslands, permanent wetlands, croplands, urban, cropland/mosaic, snow and ice, barren, or water bodies. CERES has judiciously matched the 17 IGBP types with the spectral optical properties taken from the literature according to the classification of Table 5.

Table 5 Source of Spectral Optical Properties for Surfaces

CERES/SARB Scene Type	Source of Spectral Curve
-----	-----
farm	Briegleb et al. (1986)
shrub	Briegleb et al. (1986)
meadow	Briegleb et al. (1986)
evergreen forest (needle leaf)	Briegleb et al. (1986)
mixed deciduous forest	Briegleb et al. (1986)
deciduous forest	Briegleb et al. (1986)
tropical evergreen forest (broad leaf)	Briegleb et al. (1986)
woodland	Briegleb et al. (1986)
desert	Briegleb et al. (1986)
tundra	Briegleb et al. (1986)
irrigated soil (rice)	Briegleb and Ramanathan (1982)
water	Bowker et al. (1985), Payne (1972)
permanent snow (ice)	Grenfell et al. (1984)
fresh snow	Bowker et al. (1985)
sea ice	no reference

Table 5 is used to determine the *shape* of the spectral curve of surface reflectance in the SW. As with the aerosol spectral properties, an algorithm has been applied to apportion the spectral reflectance from the source (Table 5) to the 6 SW intervals of the Fu and Liou (1993) code.

Some of the Briegleb et al. (1986) surface types can be adjusted with a SZA-dependent canopy model (Dickinson, 1983) to estimate a spectral surface albedo.

$$A(\mu) = A(\mu_0=0.5) [1 + d]/[1 + d \mu]$$

Appropriate *d* factors have been determined from ScaRab (Scanner for Radiation Budget) and ERBE data and placed on the aforementioned reference optical property home page. Rather than applying this canopy model as in Rutan and Charlock (1997), Release 1 estimated the broadband surface albedo itself from the broadband surface albedo retrieval technique of Staylor and Wilber (1990). The Staylor and Wilber (1990) surface albedo is based on the TOA SW ERB, the SZA, the column precipitable water, and the column ozone. The spectral shape from Table 5 was used with the broadband surface albedo of Staylor and Wilber (1990) to yield an estimate of spectral reflectance for the very SZA and footprint in question. The Staylor and Wilber (1990) retrieval is based on the large ERB footprint. For this large ERB footprint, the many 10'x10' spectral shapes that spatially comprise the footprint are convolved with the ERB Point Spread Function (PSF). The result for clear sky conditions is a set of 6 SW spectral reflectances for the footprint; broadband and directional aspects of the reflectances are determined from ERB measurement; relative spectral shape is determined from the literature.

If cloud cover within the ERB footprint exceeds 5%, the Staylor and Wilber (1990) technique was not applied. For a cloudy footprint, Release 1 uses a total-sky surface spectral reflectance as determined by the 10'x10' gridbox in the center of the footprint. We plan to develop a short-term "memory" of surface reflectance in

Release 2. This will permit an estimation of the SZA dependence of surface reflectance (through the above factors) for footprints which are not clear, but which have been observed previously under clear conditions.

The surface LW emissivity map in Release 1 is broadband only. It is based on a matching of the laboratory data of Salisbury and D'Aria (1992) to the CERES grid. Typical broadband values are 0.98 for the ocean, 0.96 for much of the land, and 0.90 for all deserts. The value of 0.90 is probably too high for the Sahara. A small, focused study is planned to provide a better estimate of the emissivity for the Sahara in Release 2. This study will use October 1986 clear sky LW broadband *and* AVHRR simulations from the Fu and Liou (1993) code. The software to simulate the AVHRR channels with the Fu and Liou (1993) code is on hand, courtesy of Drs. Liou and Rao, and Kratz (1995) has developed correlated k 's for these channels. A further modification will produce clear-sky *radiances* with the code. Simulated broadband and AVHRR radiances will be compared with ERBE and AVHRR measured radiances. Because the surface skin temperature is the same throughout the spectrum, a fit of simulated and measured radiances will permit the estimation of the effective broadband and AVHRR surface emissivities. Collaboration is also underway with the MODIS surface temperature group through David P. Kratz of the CERES "Surface-only" group.

5.3.3 Constraint Algorithm

An objective constraint algorithm (Rose et al., 1997) is used to adjust radiative transfer model inputs to obtain fluxes consistent with satellite-observed TOA fluxes. In this algorithm, random errors between the modeled and observed fluxes are reduced to a specified standard deviation. The random error for a single instantaneous footprint can be large, but we assume that the mean errors are small. The constraint algorithm adjusts a selected set of model inputs within their assessed range of uncertainty. A set of initial, unconstrained broadband radiative transfer calculations, is made for each instantaneous footprint. The constraint algorithm then uses these calculated fluxes and an additional database of pre-computed partial derivatives of fluxes. The partial derivatives of flux have been determined w.r.t. each radiative transfer model input parameter that is a candidate for adjustment. Simultaneous equations describing the flux errors, the minimization of adjustment and minimization error are solved by the technique of Lagrange multipliers. Such techniques have been developed in the wide field of constrained optimization (Polak, 1971). The algorithm does not generate a unique solution for the SARB (Charlock et al., 1997).

The algorithm is flexible. In field experiments, the algorithm can constrain the column using various combinations of available measured fluxes, such as those from surface radiometers. Constraint of model-calculated fluxes with satellite-observed fluxes ensures that the calculated, constrained estimate of the SARB is consistent with the observed fluxes at TOA. Consistency with TOA observed fluxes is sought for the ensemble mean of a large spatial and temporal domain with many samples. It must be recalled that for an individual ERBE or CERES footprint, a large error in the instantaneous flux is expected because of uncertainty in the ADM. The satellite observes the radiance at one angle, and this is used to estimate the flux from all angles. In ERBE, the instantaneous footprint standard errors for TOA flux have been estimated as 38 Wm^{-2} for SW (daytime only) and 12.7 Wm^{-2} for LW.

In CERES, these instantaneous TOA errors will be reduced, but not eliminated. Hence, an attempt to force an exact match of modeled and observed fluxes at every footprint would force an unrealistic over-adjustment of model input values. Noise in the radiometric inversion from radiance to flux would generate noise in constrained model input variables like cloud optical depth and humidity. To partially remedy this, we constrain a simultaneous match of one or more modeled fluxes to their observed counterparts within an allowed range of random error while minimizing the adjustment of the set of model inputs relative to their assessed uncertainty. A priori uncertainties are assigned to observed TOA fluxes, as well as to radiative transfer input parameters like cloud optical depth. The values of these a priori uncertainties affect the constraint process substantially. If large (small) a priori uncertainties are assigned to observed fluxes and small (large) a priori uncertainties are assigned to model input parameters, an individual constrained result will have a large (small) difference from the observed TOA flux and small (large) adjustments to the model input parameters.

The derivative tables used in the SARB constraint algorithm are a set of off-line calculations showing the sensitivity of TOA LW and SW flux to perturbations of relevant adjustment variables. There are separate tables and associated relevant variables for clear-sky LW, overcast LW, clear-sky SW, overcast SW. Each of these tables can be thought of as a sensitivity analysis for a wide range of variables that would be encountered globally for any meteorological, surface or cloud "state". It is recognized that these tables can not encompass all variability of sensitivity, but it is hoped that they include the dominant variables under most scenarios.

Derivative Table "State" Variables:

- 1) Clear-sky longwave
 - Skin temperature
 - Precipitable water.
- 2) Overcast Longwave
 - Skin Temperature
 - Precipitable water
 - Cloud Water path
 - Cloud top temperature
 - Cloud particle size
 - Cloud phase
- 3) Clear-sky Shortwave Albedo
 - Solar zenith angle
 - Surface albedo Broadband
 - Aerosol Optical Depth
 - Aerosol Type (Continental, Marine, Urban)
- 4) Overcast Shortwave Albedo
 - Solar zenith angle
 - Surface albedo broadband
 - Cloud water path
 - Cloud top temperature
 - Cloud particle size
 - Cloud phase

Model calculations are made as either clear or overcast. Partial cloud conditions are handled as a linear combination of clear and overcast.

CERES fluxes are constrained at the ERB footprint level. Within each ERB footprint, there are many cloud imager pixels. Hence there are often multiple cloud conditions i within a single ERB footprint. The Release 1 footprint-scale SSF product (see ATBD 4.0 and following) can contain clear sky and up to distinct 4 cloud conditions i (clear, low cloud, low-middle, middle, middle-high, and high cloud). In Release 2 a footprint may contain clear sky and no more than 2 of the permitted 4 cloud conditions. For all Releases, this size difference between the cloud imager pixels and the ERB footprint requires that separate radiative transfer calculations be done for the distinct cloud conditions i within the footprint. C_i is the fraction of the footprint covered with cloud condition i .

The next step in constraint is an error equation for each component k of the flux. For example in Release 1, there are two flux components F_k , the broadband SW and LW fluxes at TOA. Sometime after launch, the 8-12 μ m window channel will be an additional flux component F_k ; Kratz (1997) has developed the correlated k 's for the CERES window channel. Error equations (1) are now defined for each of the flux components F_k as

$$\sum_{i=0}^n (F_{ki} \Delta C_i + C_i dF_{ki} + \Delta C_i dF_{ki}) - \Delta F_k = \epsilon F_k \quad (1)$$

for the n total cloud conditions, each of cloud fraction C_i , comprising the footprint. For each of the i cloud conditions, there can be an adjustment ΔC_i to the fractional area (this gives the term $F_{ki} \Delta C_i$). dF_{ki} is the total adjustment to flux component k for cloud condition i by adjusting model inputs (this gives the term $C_i dF_{ki}$). Corresponding second order adjustments for the i cloud conditions are given by $\Delta C_i dF_{ki}$. The term ΔF_k is the flux mismatch to be allowed by the constraint algorithm (this is not the a priori uncertainty, or estimate of error, in the observed flux component F_k .) By allowing the mismatch ΔF_k to be non-zero, we obtain a solution that is not overly constrained by random error. ϵF_k is the initial mismatch between the observed and modeled flux component F_k . ϵF_k is simply the difference between the measured flux and the flux calculated with initial, unconstrained radiative transfer parameters.

Equation (1) is simplified by assuming that the second order terms $\Delta C_i dF_{ki}$ in cloud fractional area and flux are small compared to their initial values. In the second term ($C_i dF_{ki}$) of Eq. (1), flux adjustment dF_{ki} is then expressed as the sum of the partial derivatives $(\delta F_{ki} / \delta v_j)$ w.r.t. selected radiative transfer model input parameters v_j and the adjustments Δv_j to those parameters ($j=1, m$). This yields

$$\sum_{i=0}^n (F_{ki} \Delta C_i) + \sum_{i=0}^n C_i \sum_{j=1}^m ((\delta F_{ki} / \delta v_j) \Delta v_j) - \Delta F_k = \epsilon F_k \quad (2)$$

for any flux component k of the footprint over cloud conditions i , expressed in terms of selected radiative transfer model parameters j .

The key of the algorithm is the minimization of the sum of the square of the normalized adjustments to the selected model variables and the constraining of the sum of the square of the normalized flux error (Rose et al., 1997). The normalization is taken with the standard deviation (σ) random error allowance for each of the selected model variables or flux components. σC_i is the expected random error in the fractional cloud cover C_i (i.e., the anticipated random error in the satellite retrieval of the fractional area of high cloud is 5%). σv_j is the random error in a selected input parameter for radiative transfer (i.e., 5K for land skin temperature). The random error σF_k in a flux component will be mostly due to the uncertainty in the ADM. The random error minimization constraint is expressed as

$$Z = \sum_{i=0}^n (\Delta C_i / \sigma C_i)^2 + \sum_{j=1}^m (\Delta v_j / \sigma v_j)^2 + \sum_{k=1}^l (\Delta F_k / \sigma F_k)^2 \quad (3)$$

where on the r.h.s. the first term represents the cloud fraction adjustments, the second term the radiative transfer model variable adjustments, and the third term the flux component error allowances.

Equation (4) below restricts the solution such that the sum of the cloud fraction adjustments will equal zero. This prevents unrealistic solutions (i.e., sum of adjusted total fractional area departing from unity).

$$X = \sum_{i=0}^n \Delta C_i = 0 \quad (4)$$

Here multiple forms of equation (2) for any number of flux components (i.e., equations for the two flux components, TOA SW reflected flux and OLR, in Release 1) are combined with equations (3) and (4) using the technique of Lagrange multipliers to form a single equation (5).

$$Y = Z + X \lambda_o + \sum_{k=1}^l [\text{Flux error equation } (k)] \lambda_k \quad (5)$$

The next step is setting the derivative of Y w.r.t. each of the λ 's and normalized adjustments equal to zero and solving the resulting matrix set of simultaneous partial differential equations. The solution can be determined analytically or solved numerically using LU decomposition (Press, 1986).

While seemingly intricate, the algorithm can be summarized with the following highlights:

- (a) A small number k of observed target fluxes, such as broadband TOA reflected and OLR are used.
- (b) Initial estimates of the target fluxes are made with formal radiative transfer calculations for n cloud conditions based on input variables.
- (c) In the constraintment process, radiative transfer is next expressed in terms of perturbations about the initial formal radiative transfer calculation using pre-computed derivatives of a small number of selected variables m (i.e., the derivative of OLR w.r.t. cloud area, cloud top height, and SST).
- (d) A priori uncertainties (σ) are assigned to the observed fluxes, the cloud fractions, and the selected constraintment variables.
- (e) The solution minimizes the sum of square of the normalized adjustments and does not produce an exact match to the observed fluxes, cloud fraction, or radiative transfer inputs.
- (f) CERES archives the observed TOA fluxes; the initial unconstrained radiative transfer fluxes and input variables used to compute those fluxes; and the constrained fluxes and adjustments to the radiative transfer input parameters

The concept of the trickier parts (i.e., step e) of this process is illustrated in Fig. 11. A hypothetical constraintment is done for SW and LW fluxes over a partly cloudy footprint. The open circle in the upper left shows that the initial, unconstrained radiative transfer calculation is considerably displaced from the TOA SW and LW observations. In the present algorithm, 7 radiative transfer model input variables ($m=7$) are selected for constraintment. Depending upon the scene, the partial derivatives of flux ($\delta F_{ki}/\delta v_j$) w.r.t. 7 variables are examined and compared with their corresponding uncertainties σv_j . The constraintment process is idealized in Fig. 11 for a hypothetical case of only 3 ($m=3$) variables. In Fig. 11, we close upon an observed flux by adjustments to cloud fraction (diagonal arrow shows effect on SW and LW), surface albedo (vertical arrow shows effect on only the SW), and the surface skin temperature (horizontal arrow shows effect on only the LW). The final constrained SW and LW flux is depicted by the solid circle. Note that the constrained solid circle is still displaced from the observed condition in the center. There is a mismatch of constrained and observed fluxes. This mismatch is small for the mean of many footprints. For an individual footprint, the mismatch can be regarded as a compromise among the weighted uncertainties σ of the observed fluxes and input variables. Modeled partial derivatives of flux ($\delta F_{ki}/\delta v_j$) are tools in obtaining the weights.

Simultaneous SARB TOA Tuning (Idealized)

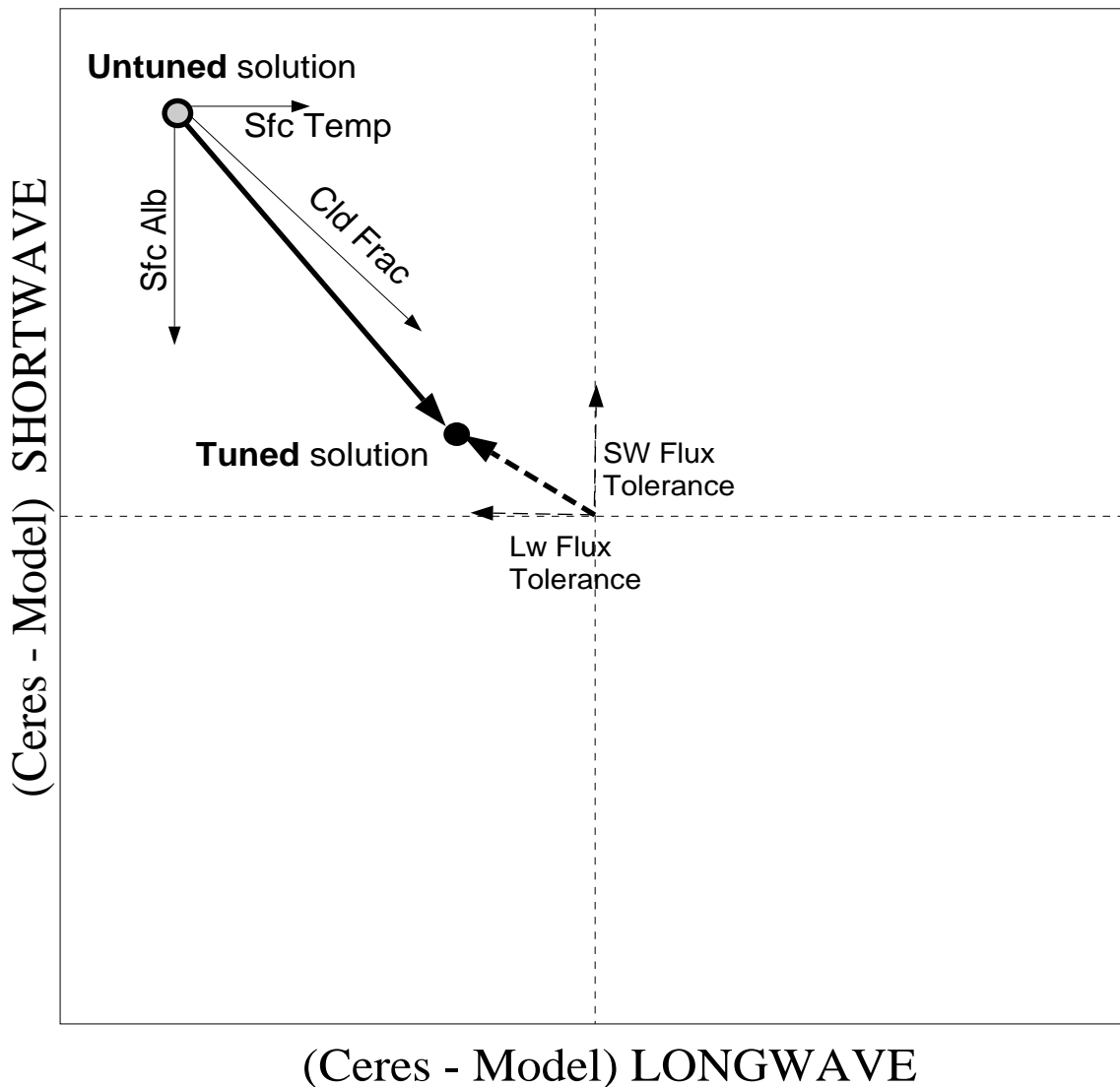


Figure 11 - Idealization of SARB tuning for case with SW TOA, LW TOA, and only 3 adjustable input parameters

The values used for the uncertainty σ parameters in Release 1 are given in Table 6. The initial σ values for TOA fluxes are stated in percent, but they are required to be at least 2 Wm^{-2} . The σ values for PW, cloud LWP (or IWP), and aerosol optical depth are specified as fractions because the constraintment algorithm employs logarithmic derivatives of these parameters.

Table 6 Uncertainty σ values for constraintment in Release 1

	<i>TOA parameters</i>
5.0%	SW TOA
2 Wm^{-2}	minimum value for SW TOA
2.0%	LW TOA
2 Wm^{-2}	minimum value for LW TOA
	<i>ocean/atmosphere parameters</i>
1.0 K	skin temperature
0.15	PW (logarithmic derivative)
0.002	surface albedo
0.15	cloud LWP (logarithmic derivative)
2.0 K	cloud top temperature
0.5	aerosol optical depth (logarithmic derivative)
0.025	cloud fraction
	<i>land/atmosphere parameters</i>
4.0 K	skin temperature
0.10	PW (logarithmic derivative)
0.015	surface albedo
0.15	cloud LWP (logarithmic derivative)
1.0 K	cloud top temperature
0.1	aerosol optical depth (logarithmic derivative)
0.025	cloud fraction

The uncertainty σ in Release 1 for SW TOA flux has been selected as 5%. The σ values for SW TOA and the other parameters are still the subject of experimentation. In Release 4, with the new ADMs, we are confident that σ for SW TOA will be reduced. Recent study of ERBE by Collins and Inamdar (1995) would suggest that the uncertainty σ for LW TOA should be larger than in Table 6, especially for clear skies. In Release 3, window TOA flux (the special CERES 8-12 μm channel) will also be used for constraintment. Uncertainties for the window flux will be specified as smaller in Wm^{-2} than the broadband LW TOA counterpart. Release 2 can constrain to three observed fluxes; as an option, one target can be an observed *surface* flux.

The Release 1 uncertainty σ for skin temperature over land (4 K) was much larger than over the sea (1 K). The large σ for land reflects the uncertainties in both surface emissivity (here fixed) and the directional dependence of canopy emission (Sellers and Hall, 1992). The later is due to the existence of a temperature gradient in a vegetation canopy, with different view angles exposing different temperatures. The land-sea contrast is also apparent in the σ values selected for surface albedo; sea albedo is much better known (i.e., Payne, 1972). ECMWF has experimented with the use of sea state models of waves as an input for the parameterization of sea surface reflectance (Janssen, personal communication); we may try this in Release 2 or 3. In Release 2 the variables (skin temperature, precipitable water, surface albedo, and aerosol optical depth)

will only be adjusted when the footprint is completely clear (<5% cloud). Under non-clear conditions, uncertainties in cloud optical properties and cloud fraction are assumed to predominate.

In Release 1, the σ for land and sea cloud LWP are large, and they will remain large for Releases 2, 3, and 4. Cloud top temperature is probably retrieved with more confidence in CERES than is any other cloud parameter. Release 1 uses different cloud top temperature σ values for sea (2 K) and land (1 K), but they will be equal in Release 2. The present σ value for the logarithm of the aerosol optical depth is larger over the sea (0.5) than over the land (0.1), simply because in clear skies we seek aerosol adjustments over the sea and surface albedo adjustments over land. Aerosol σ values for land and sea in Release 2 will be more nearly equal.

5.4 Algorithm Applications

Two sections previous (5.3.2 on the Framework of CERES Calculations), we described how the Fu and Liou (1993) code would be set up with CERES data for an initial, unconstrained calculation of the SARB. The following section (5.3.3) described the constraint algorithm. Two examples are given below. The first example shows unconstrained and constrained results from a pre-launch but formal, CERES-wide, Release 1 production run with large-scale data; a more accurate and extensive full-day simulation (Release 1.5) has been presented informally to the CERES Science Team (but not in this document). The second example is a focused illustration of the capabilities and limitations of radiative transfer and constraint over the ARM SGP CART site in Oklahoma; this simulation has also been superceded by more accurate results shown to the ARM Science Team (but not in this document).

5.4.1 Release 1 Results.

While the many figures in this section present only footprint scale CRS results, the reader is advised to review a broader perspective of CERES processing at this point. Please note the "CERES Top Level Data Flow Diagram," a flow chart with bubbles and boxes at the start of this document. This section describes Release 1 results for bubble 5, Clouds and Radiative Swath (CRS), which the figure notes to "Compute Surface and Atmospheric Radiative Fluxes." CRS is an instantaneous set of radiative transfer and constraint calculations for a single ERB footprint. Much of the sounding data for the CRS calculation is obtained from the nearest hour and CERES gridbox of Meteorology, Ozone, and Aerosol (MOA) data. MOA is a box to the right (and slightly below) CRS. As noted in 5.3.2.1, a single footprint of ERB and cloud property data, labeled Single Satellite Footprint (SSF), is an important input for the CRS bubble from above. Note the bubbles FSW and SYN below CRS. FSW is a gridded version of CRS, and FSW is produced to the nearest hour of instantaneous satellite overpass. Further below and to the right of FSW, note SYN. SYN is a gridded 3-hourly synoptic product. SYN is based on the interpolations of FSW, on geostationary satellite imager data, and on another round of SARB radiative transfer calculations.

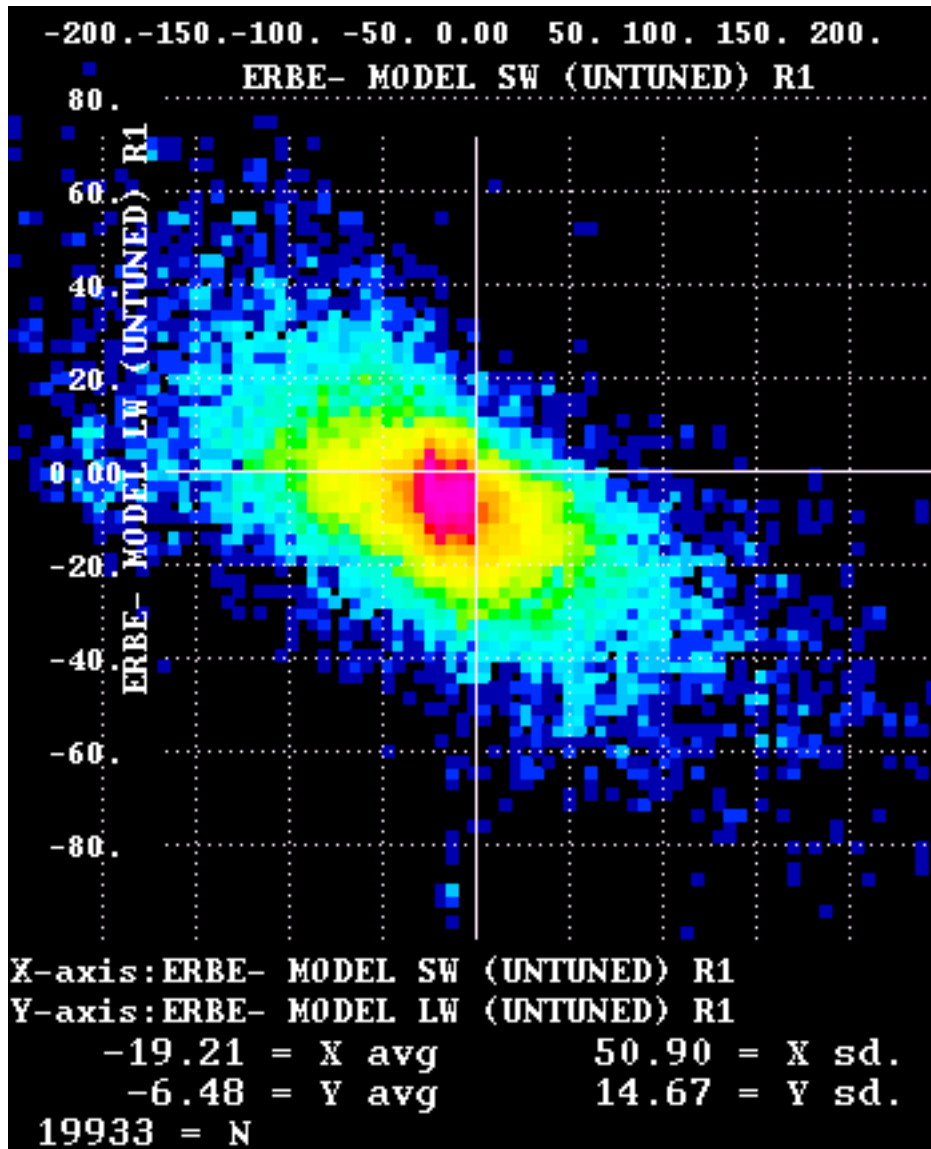


Figure 12 - Total-sky scatterplot of SW (ERBE-Model) vs LW (ERBE-Model) for 19933 untuned footprints

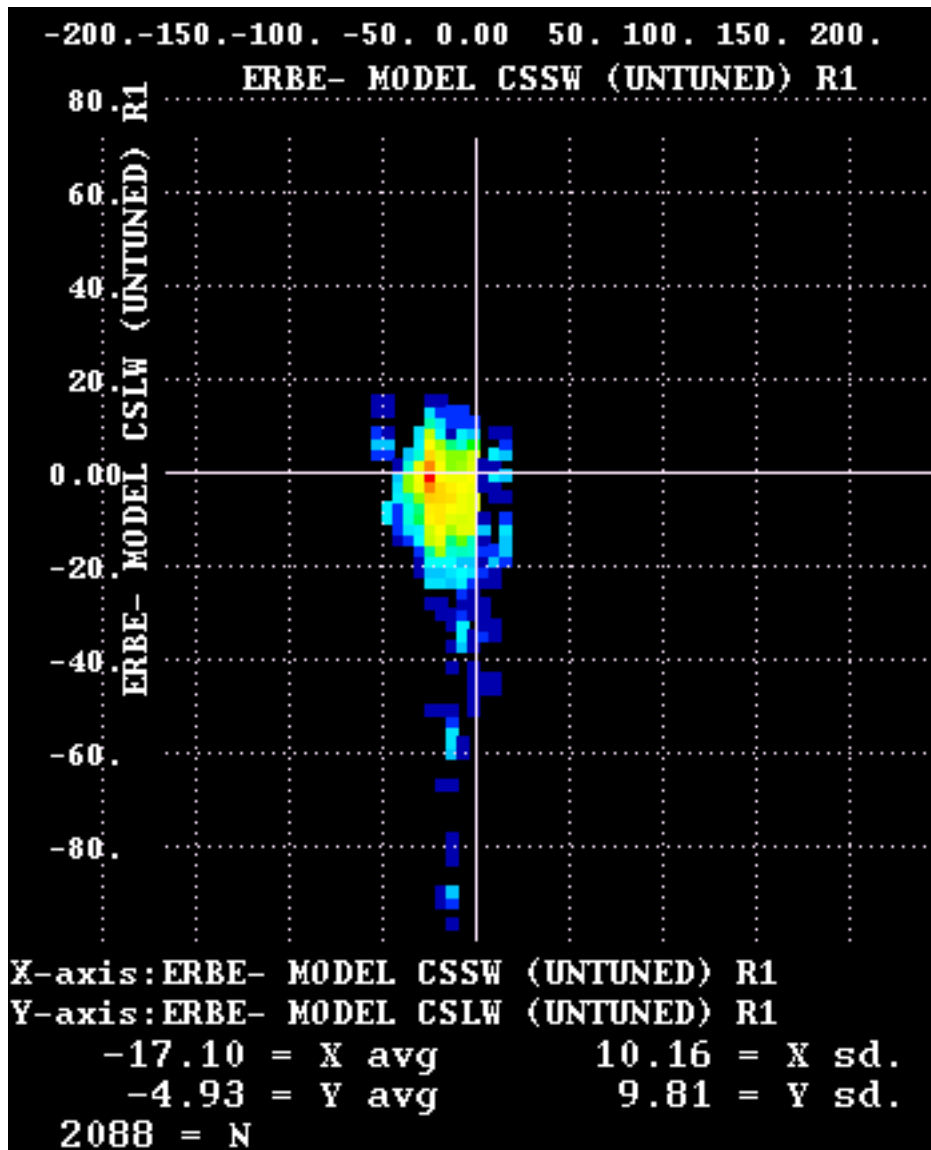


Figure 13 - Clear-sky scatterplot of SW (ERBE-Model) vs LW (ERBE-Model) for 2088 untuned footprints

Preliminary results with a fraction of an orbit of Release 1 CRS calculations are shown as scatterplots in Fig. 12 for total-sky and Fig. 13 for clear-sky footprints. Flux difference plots (ERBE-Model) for SW TOA (Fig. 14) and LW TOA (Fig. 15) indicate the spatial domain of this exercise with October 1, 1986 retrospective data. SW TOA (ERBE-Model) is the difference of *reflected* SW as observed (ERBE) and calculated (Model) with the initial, unconstrained inputs driving the Fu and Liou (1993) code. LW TOA is the OLR. The tabulations at the bottoms of the scatterplots indicate that the unconstrained SW calculation reflects too much SW, both for total sky (in Fig. 12 ERBE-Model is -19.21 Wm^{-2}) and clear sky (in Fig. 13 ERBE-Model is -17.10 Wm^{-2}). The same tabulations show the calculated OLR exceeds the ERBE observations for total sky (in Fig. 12 ERBE-Model is -6.48 Wm^{-2}) and clear sky (in Fig. 13 ERBE-Model is -4.93 Wm^{-2}). We suspect that the input PW, here from the NCEP Reanalysis, is too small in this limited swath. A similar effect could be produced by a deficit in the upper tropospheric humidity field (i.e., Soden et al., 1994), which is especially dif-

difficult to account for in operational analyses if LW sounder data is not assimilated. A bias in the input PW for the swath could also account for some of the excess in the model reflected SW for clear-sky conditions (Fig. 13). In the clear-sky scatterplot (Fig. 13), the points at the bottom reveal a small number of huge excesses in the model OLR, possibly due to scene identification error.

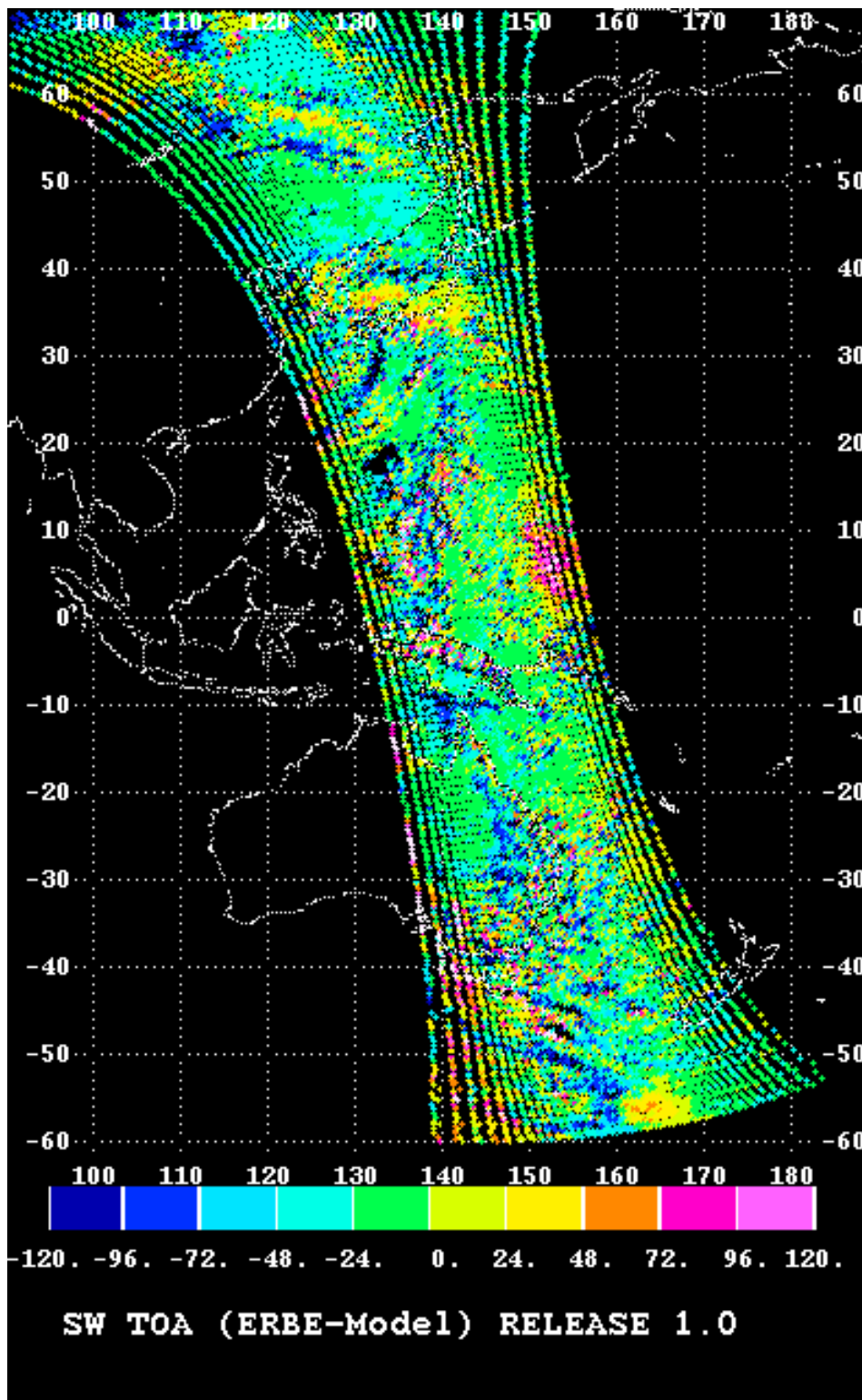


Figure 14 - Difference of total-sky reflected SW as ERBE minus untuned model

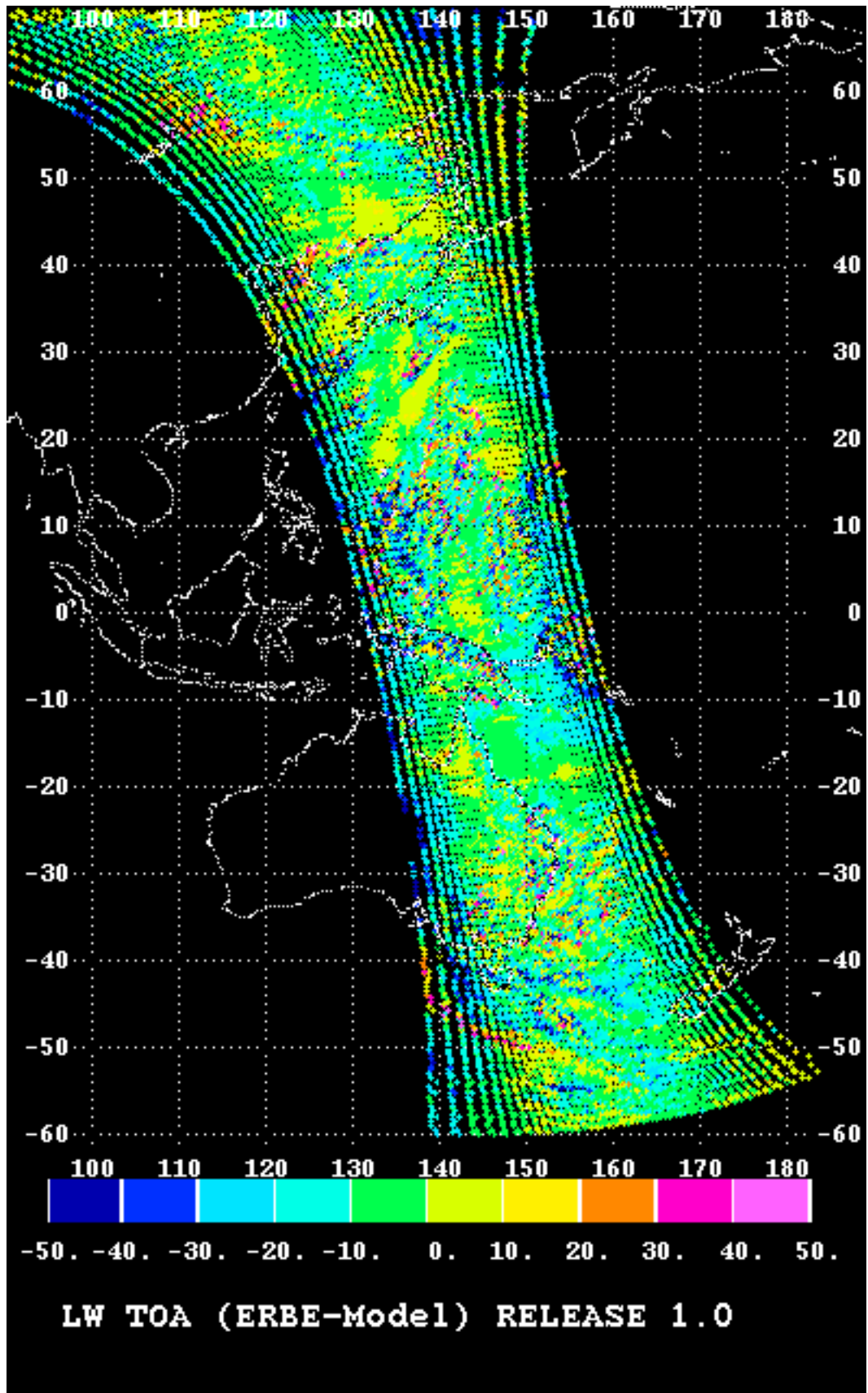


Figure 15 - Difference of total-sky reflected SW as ERBE minus untuned model
June 2, 1997

In the total sky scatterplot (Fig. 12), the points are grouped downward toward the right. If axes were re-drawn about the center of the cluster, the upper left and lower right quadrants would be the most populated. This suggests that much of the large, apparently random scatter is consistent with a cloud effect. For points in the upper left quadrant, the model OLR is too small, and the model reflected SW is too large; to first order this could be remedied by removing cloud, which would increase the model OLR and decrease the model reflected SW. For points in the lower right quadrant, the model OLR is too large, and the model reflected SW is too small; this could be remedied by adding cloud, which would decrease the model OLR and increase the model reflected SW. Much of the footprint scale difference between ERBE and the model is likely due to random error in the calculation of cloud forcing. The hypothesized random error in cloud forcing may be due to the cloud retrieval, but it could also be due to noise in the angular distribution of radiance (i.e., a result of the ERBE ADM). In the tables at the bottoms of Fig. 12 and Fig. 13, the reported standard deviations of (ERBE-Model) were computed by first subtracting the mean differences. The more recent Release 1.5 results (not shown) indicate a closer match (ERBE-Model), and the grouping of points downward toward the right (as in Fig. 12) has been eliminated.

A few regions in the difference plots of SW TOA (Fig. 14) and LW TOA (Fig. 15) are noteworthy. At approximately 7° N, 150° E the large positive ERBE-Model SW TOA mismatch (Fig. 14) indicates that the model is not reflecting nearly enough SW. In the same area, the model LW TOA (OLR in Fig. 15) is too large by approximately 20 Wm^{-2} . Release 1.0 retrievals of ice particle size are known to contain significant errors in the backscatter direction, which is the case for some of the right-hand side of this orbit swath.

In Australia near 25° S, 140° E the reflected SW TOA (Fig. 14) and the model LW TOA (Fig. 15) are both too high. This is likely a dual effect of surface albedo and skin temperature for generally clear skies. The first guess surface albedo under clear sky conditions is a retrieval from the Staylor and Wilber (1990) algorithm and ERBE data from SSF at the footprint scale. With the resulting surface albedo, the Fu and Liou (1993) based calculation reflects too much SW. Over this region, the aerosol optical depth assumed by the Staylor and Wilber (1990) algorithm is lower than the optical depth retrieved by Pinker and Laszlo (1992) in the GEWEX SRB Project (Whitlock et al., 1995). We use the GEWEX SRB aerosol, which may account for the excess clear sky reflection in this initial CRS calculation. The constraintment algorithm also significantly reduces the surface skin temperature in this area (Fig. 16). The adjustment to the PW in this same area is small (Fig. 17), because of the relatively high uncertainty σ assigned to the skin temperature for constraintment over land (Table 6).

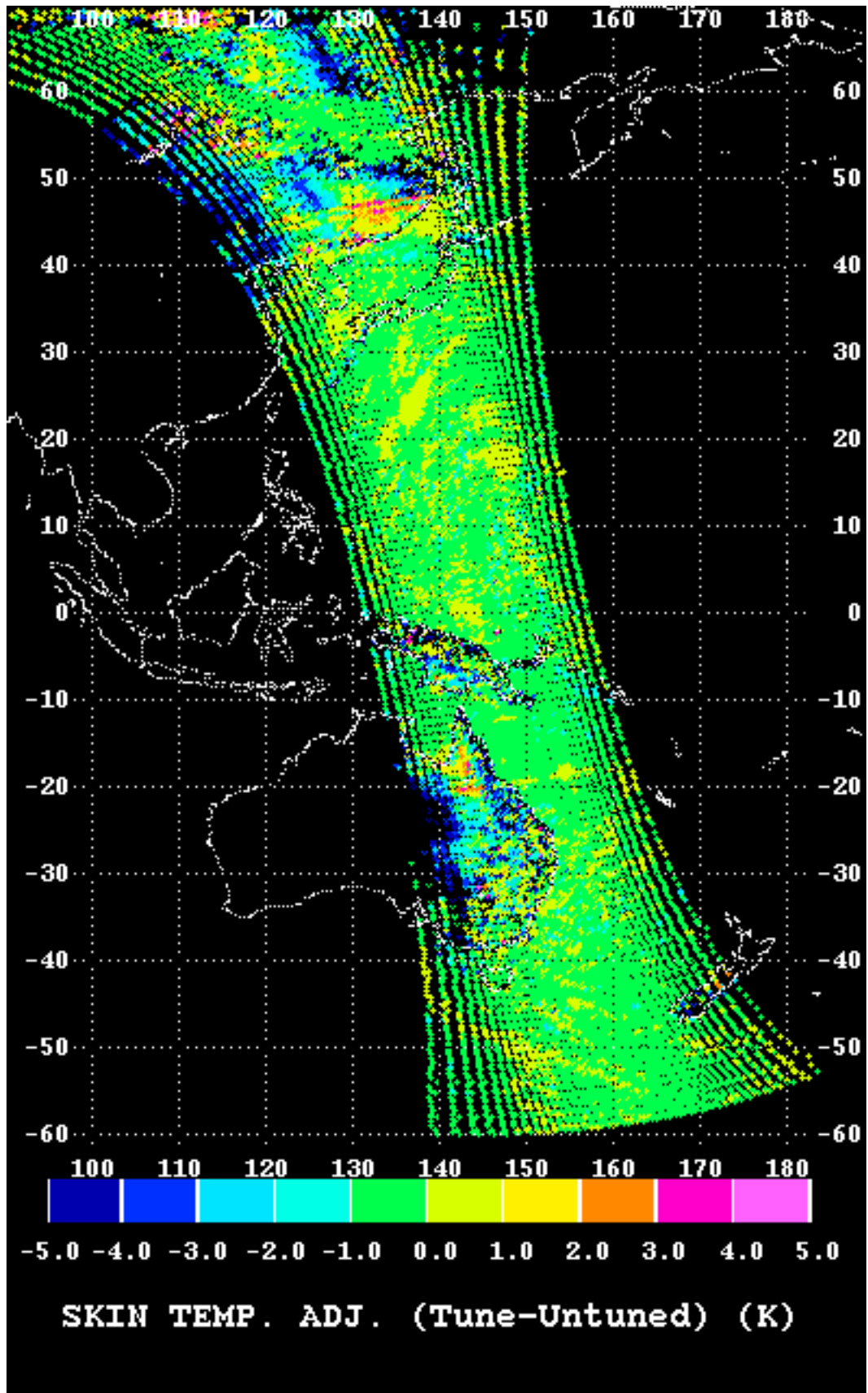


Figure 16 - Tuning of surface skin temperature (total sky)

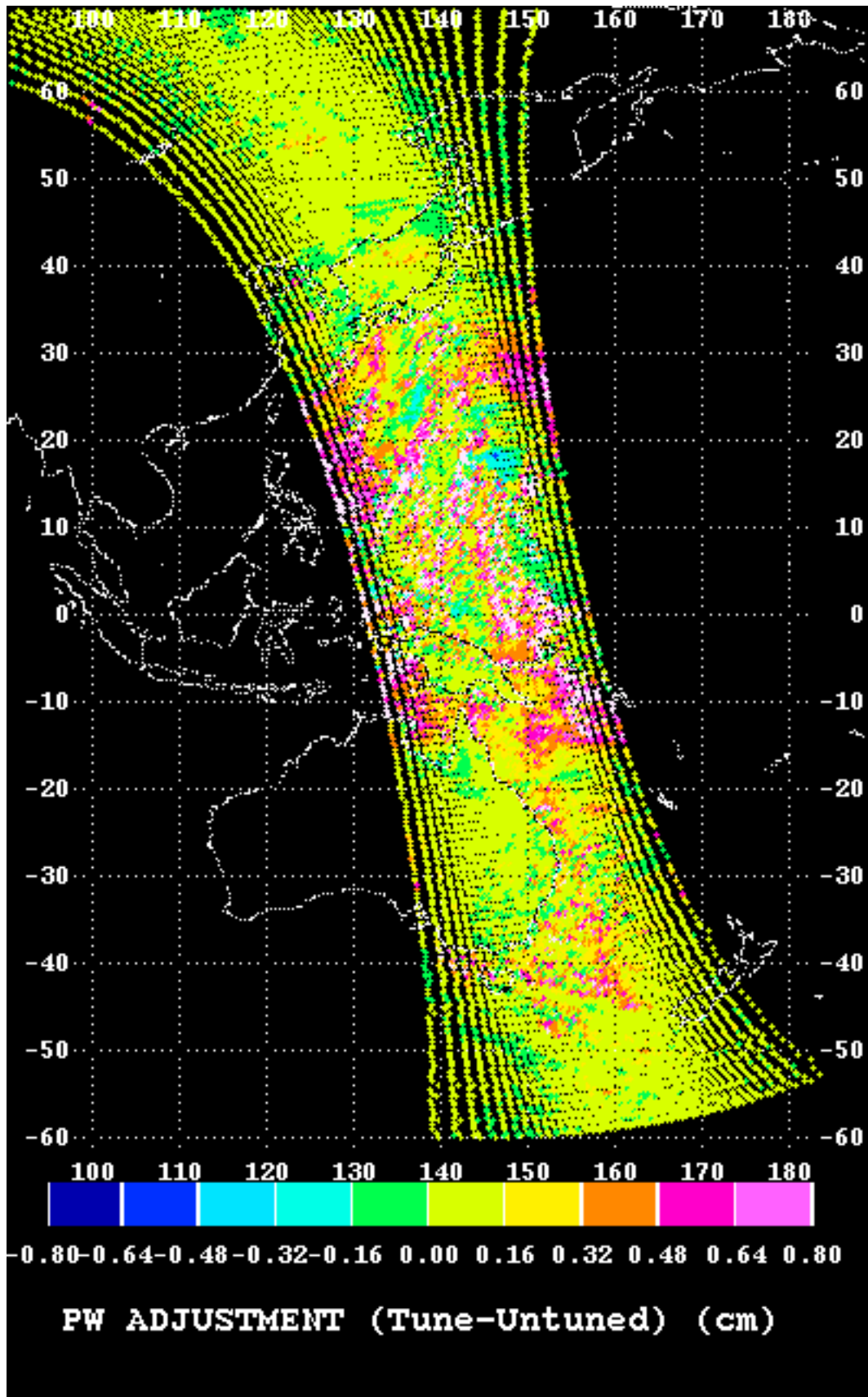


Figure 17 - Tuning of precipitable water (total sky)

Over the oceans, the uncertainty σ assigned to the skin temperature is small (Table 6). We find correspondingly large adjustments to PW in ocean regions near both 10° S, 155° E and 25° N, 150° E (Fig. 17). There is significant adjustment to the surface downward LW as well in both ocean regions (Fig. 18). It should be noted that the total-sky constraint to surface downward LW is driven by adjustments to cloud, rather than to PW, over most of the swath.

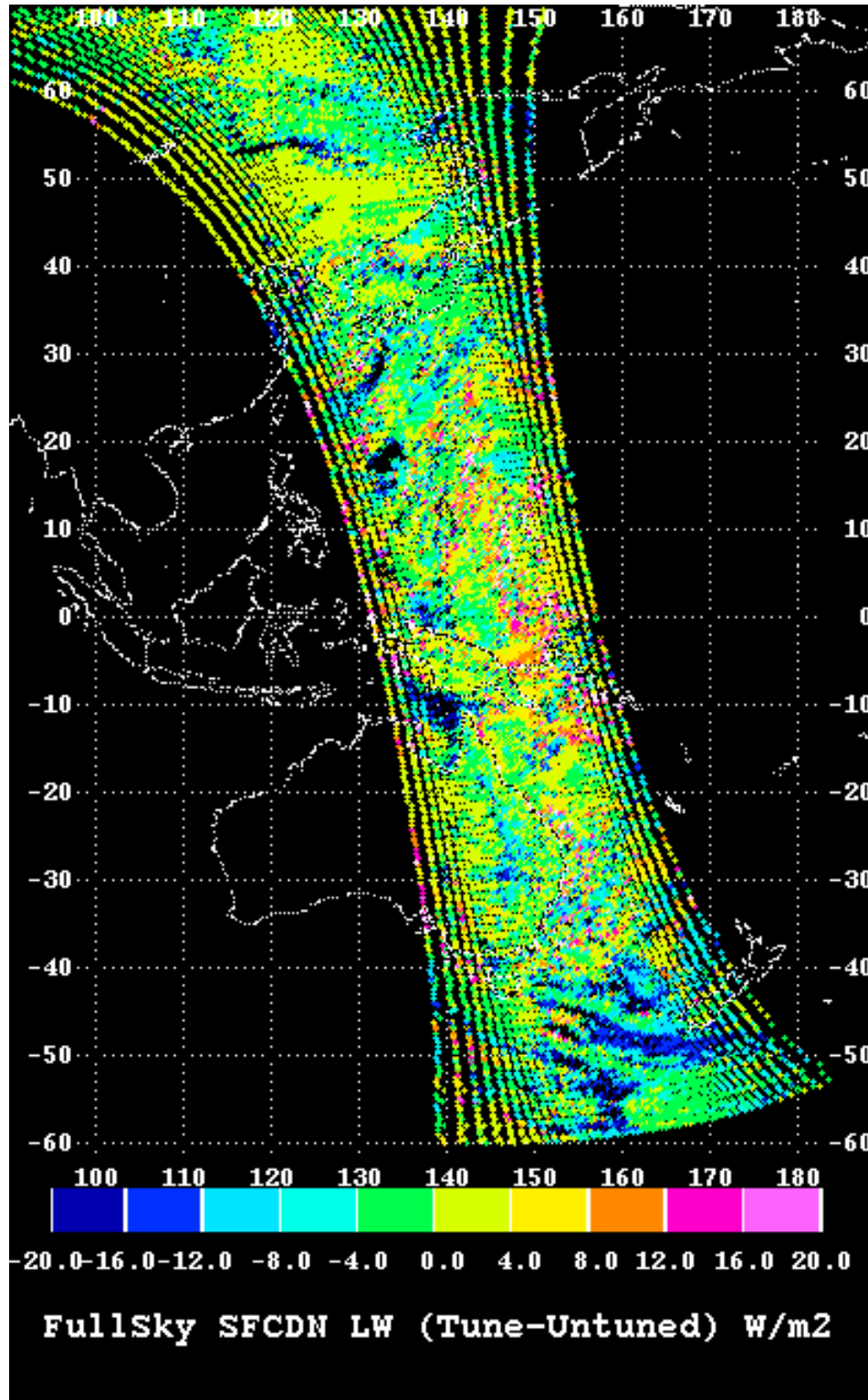


Figure 18 - Tuning of surface downward LW (total sky)

This analysis of Release 1 is incomplete. Also, because of doubts concerning SW fluxes noted earlier, most remarks are confined to the LW here.

Because of the difficulties of determining the geometric thickness of clouds (locating cloud base, as well as cloud top) with passive satellite remote sensing, we anticipate substantial uncertainties in the SARB that CERES determines below cloud tops. By adding passive microwave to CERES, some advances can be expected. Cloud LWP can be retrieved with microwave data, and the LWP can in turn be used to estimate the cloud geometric thickness. CERES plans to buttress VIRS-based cloud retrievals with microwave information from TRMM. Even without such microwave sensing, there are good prospects for producing a reliable vertical profile of the radiation budget above the cloud tops. Fig. 19 gives an example of the significant impact of tropospheric clouds on the LW budget at 30-50 hPa in the stratosphere. Because radiative relaxation times are small in the stratosphere (Ramanathan 1987), the small radiative perturbations that are induced by tropospheric clouds can have a large impact on the equilibrium stratospheric temperature. The radiation budget near the tropopause has received relatively little attention in global satellite-based retrieval programs to date, but the budget in the upper troposphere and lower stratosphere is an important forcing of the climate. The radiation budget in the vicinity of the tropopause will be a key CERES product. Fig. 19 suggests that the detailed cloud property retrievals that CERES provides, in addition to the broadband TOA fluxes, will be essential in determining the space and time variability of the stratospheric radiation budget.

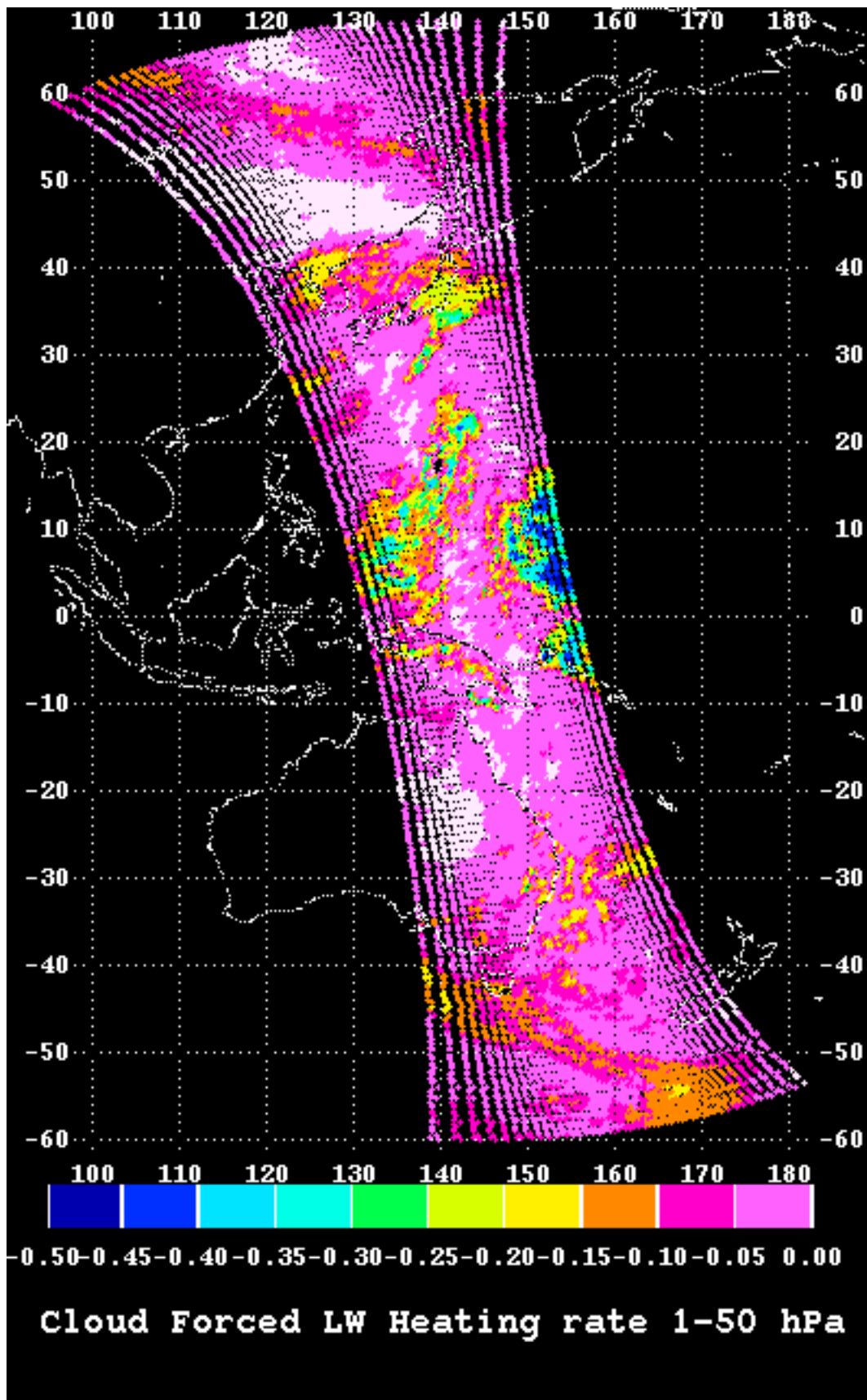
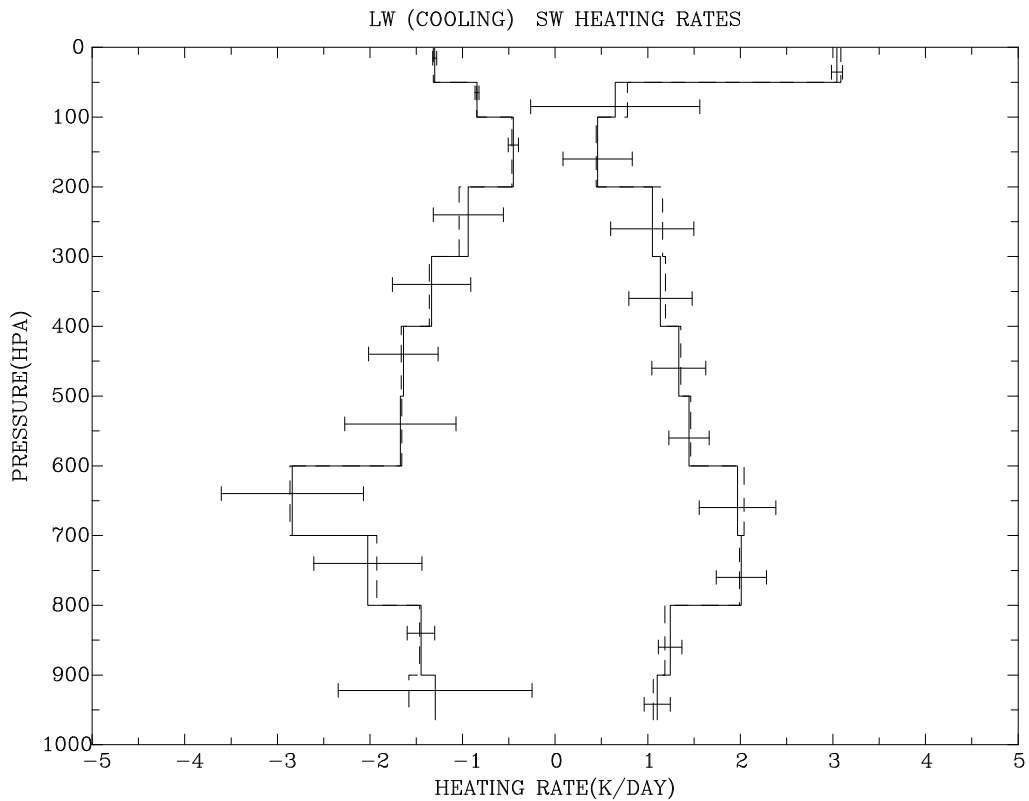


Figure 19 - Forcing of tropospheric cloud to LW heating rate in stratosphere (1-50 hPa)

5.4.2 Small-scale Constraint Exercise.

This section further illustrates present capabilities and limitations of the radiative transfer and constraint algorithms of Subsystem 5. We focus on the ARM SGP CART site during the April 5-30, 1994 interval of CAGEX Version 1.0. The on-line component of CAGEX Verion 1 (<http://snowdog.larc.nasa.gov:8081/cagex.html>) is a daylight-only, half-hourly sounding, cloud property, and radiation dataset on a 3x3 grid with validating surface measurements for the central gridbox only. This section will show that the constraint procedure can readily accomodate different inputs or constraints. The reader is also assured that the constraint algorithm cannot "fix" fundamental problems in radiation, such as the discrepancy between calculated and measured clear-sky surface insolation noted in 5.3.1.3 and in Table 2.

The mean LW cooling and SW heating profiles for CAGEX Version 1.0 are shown in Fig. 20. The solid lines give the mean LW and SW profiles for the initial, unconstrained fluxes calculated with the Fu and Liou (1993) code and the Minnis et al. (1995) GOES-based cloud retrieval data. Unconstrained fluxes are listed in the second row of the table on Fig. 20. The observed TOA fluxes are from the Minnis et al. (1995) narrowband to broadband conversion with GOES-7. The observed surface fluxes are point measurements at the center of the 3x3 grid. The unconstrained TOA fluxes are close to the observations. There is a huge discrepancy in the total-sky SW surface insolation, 534.3 Wm⁻² for unconstrained and 457.5 Wm⁻² for observed.



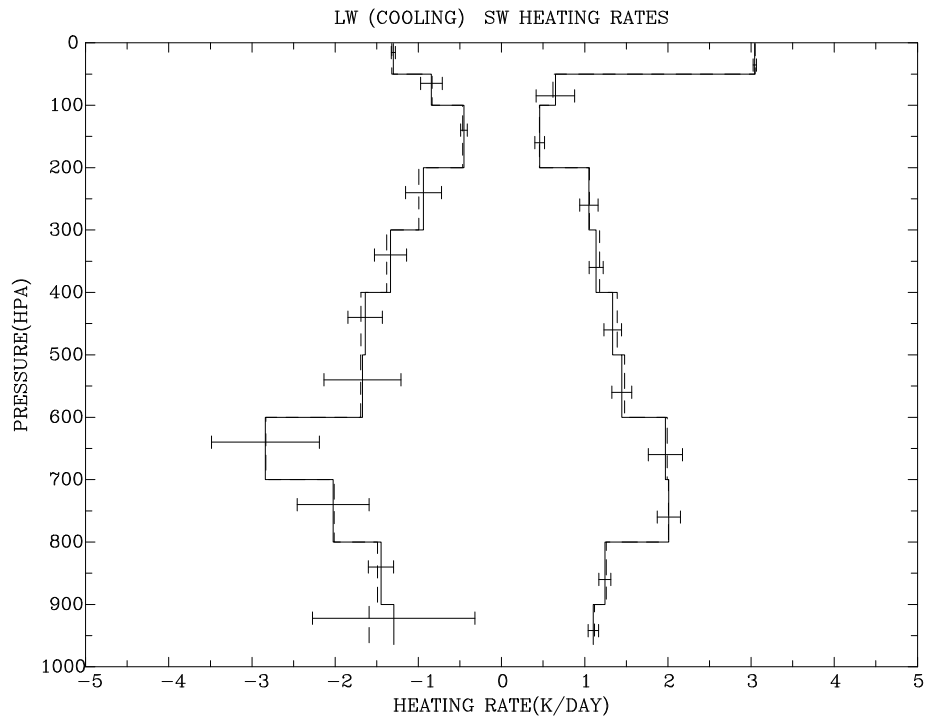
	AVERAGE				STANDARD DEVIATION			
	TOA	TOA	SFC	SFC	TOA	TOA	SFC	SFC
	SW UP	LW UP	SW DN	LW DN	SW UP	LW UP	SW DN	LW DN
OBSERVED	381.6	231.5	457.5	330.5	223.5	45.0	303.0	42.4
UNTUNED	376.8	235.4	534.3	320.7	220.9	48.1	292.4	41.7
TUNED	397.9	233.6	503.2	322.0	242.8	47.0	319.6	41.9
TUNE-UNTUNE	21.1	-1.8	-31.1	1.3	32.9	5.6	44.2	2.1

Figure 20 - Tuning constrained with 3 fluxes (SW TOA, LW TOA, surface SW)

The constraint algorithm is now applied, constraining to the observed SW TOA and LW TOA as in Release 1, *but also constraining to the measured surface SW insolation*. The discrepancy between the calculated and observed SW surface insolation was the major issue in the earlier Table 2 (for CAGEX Version 1.1, which has new GOES-based retrievals and new MFRSR aerosol data). The table at the bottom of Fig. 20 shows that constraintment has not resolved that issue (for the similar Version 1.0, which has the original GOES-based retrievals and original MFRSR aerosol data). At the surface, constraintment has reduced the discrepancy with the measured SW insolation by 31.1 Wm^{-2} , but this has been accomplished by increasing the discrepancy for SW TOA. Each of the three constraining fluxes (SW TOA, LW TOA, and SW at the surface) has an uncertainty σ , and constraintment does not produce a perfect match to the mean measured value of any of the three.

The dashed profiles in Fig. 20 show the small adjustments to the mean LW cooling and SW heating which are induced by constraining to SW TOA, LW TOA, and SW at the surface. The horizontal bars show the temporal standard deviation of differences between the constrained and unconstrained profiles. The main utility of constraintment, in this case, is apparently a reduction in the noise of the instantaneous LW cooling and SW heating profiles. In CAGEX Version 2, aircraft and additional surface measurements were taken by ARM in the fall 1995 ARESE, and these will help to determine the realism in this hypothesized reduction in noise.

A different constraintment is done for the same profile in Fig. 21, which constrains to LW TOA observations and LW surface measurements (no SW variable as a constraint). The unconstrained results are identical to Fig. 20, which constrained to LW TOA, SW TOA and SW at the surface. With no SW constraint in Fig. 21, the constraintment causes only small changes to the mean and standard deviation fit for SW fluxes. There is very little SW constraintment; the SW discrepancy at the TOA remains small; the SW discrepancy at the surface is essentially unchanged. The further constraintment of LW surface measurement hardly improves the constrained LW surface flux (Fig. 21) at all, when compared to the case with no LW surface flux constraint (Fig. 20).



	AVERAGE				STANDARD DEVIATION			
	TOA SW UP	TOA LW UP	SFC SW DN	SFC LW DN	TOA SW UP	TOA LW UP	SFC SW DN	SFC LW DN
OBSERVED	381.6	231.5	457.5	330.5	223.5	45.0	303.0	42.4
UNTUNED	376.8	235.4	534.3	320.7	220.9	48.1	292.4	41.7
TUNED	375.1	234.2	533.7	323.3	219.0	45.7	288.8	41.2
TUNE-UNTUNE	-1.7	-1.2	-0.6	2.6	10.4	6.0	13.7	5.1

Figure 21 - Tuning constrained with 2 fluxes (LW TOA and surface LW)

The algorithm is versatile, but the results must be interpreted with care. In a more sophisticated run (not shown), the model was constrained to surface measurements of the separate direct and diffuse beams; the large initial discrepancy of computed and measured diffuse insolation produced a large and probably unrealistic reduction in the aerosol single scattering albedo.

5.5 Strategic Concerns

5.5.1 Input data and Radiative transfer

Our calculations of the SARB are performed at the relatively large scale of an ERB footprint using spatially averaged properties of clouds placed in a few idealized atmospheric profiles. The smaller cloud imager pixels have inhomogeneities that generate errors when one attempts (as in Subsystem 4) to retrieve cloud physical and optical properties from pixel-scale data (Wielicki and Parker 1992). It is anticipated that successive generations of CERES cloud retrievals will improve through intercomparison with data from field campaigns such as the First ISCCP Regional Experiment (FIRE). Because of the large impact of ice crystal characteristics on cloud optical properties (Liou 1992), improved retrievals of cloud ice are eagerly awaited. Takano and Liou (1994) have developed a new Monte Carlo/geometric ray-tracing method for calculating the scattering from ice crystals; this approach can be expected to advance both the remote sensing of ice clouds (i.e., Minnis et al. 1993a, b) and the effect of ice clouds on broadband fluxes (Fu and Liou 1993).

There are considerable uncertainties relating to the properties of the surface, aerosols, and meteorological data. As noted earlier, aerosol absorption is one possible source of the (possibly) anomalous absorption by clouds (Stephens and Tsay 1990). We constrain for aerosol optical depth over the sea and land. Virtually any optical property that we infer about the surface is tied to the limitations of the input aerosol data. We await MODIS aerosol retrievals for aerosol optical depths over land. CERES will provide an independent aerosol retrieval with VIRS on TRMM. The Direct Aerosol Radiative Forcing initiative (Ogren, 1995, personal reference; this is an update of IGAC, 1994) and earlier reviews (i.e., Penner, 1994) indicate that the satisfactory measurement of aerosol radiative properties will indeed be a challenge, especially as regards absorption.

Over land, the input surface albedo for clear skies from the ERB and the Staylor and Wilber (1990) algorithm is straightforward, but essentially unvalidated. For cloudy skies, we use the Staylor ERBE-based GEWEX SRB Project surface albedo, which is uniform through the month. Lacking a time history of retrieved albedos for cloudy skies, we have assumed an albedo, and constrained the resulting error into the cloud properties. Some of the problems relating to the SW optical properties of the surface could be resolved with a time history study, wherein a surface albedo record would be developed and successively honed with repeated passes. When we attempt to interpret the partitioning of the SW surface fluxes into upwelling and downwelling components, we are affected by our lack of information on the surface bidirectional reflectance function (BDRF). CERES has also planned a series of helicopter flights over the ARM site in Oklahoma, which will use a scanning SW spectrometer and one LW channel, to determine the BDRF and directional dependence of the emission.

Our main current problem is the discrepancy of calculated and measured mean SW flux (Table 2). CAGEX, a community activity, is our track for solving this problem. We will continue to make our resources available to other groups and collaborate with ARM (sponsored by the Biological and Environmental Sciences Program of the Department of Energy) and GEWEX. The intermediate-term focus is on clear sky SW in ARESE, wherein we approach the surface albedo (Rutan and Charlock, 1997; Schuster et al., 1997) and aerosol absorption (Table 7) issues in the above two paragraphs.

Table 7 - Mean biases (calculated minus measured in Wm⁻²) for SW in ARESE for different aerosol inputs

V2.0 SW Biases (W/m**2)	FULL-SKY AEROSOL SENSITIVITY										
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K
TOA Insolation (W/m**2)	717	717	717	717	717	717	717	717	717	717	717
TOA Net	-20	-16	-25	-18	-19	-20	-22	-21	-18	-14	-10
TOA Reflected SW	20	16	24	18	19	20	22	21	18	14	10
TOA Albedo	.027	.021	.032	.024	.025	.026	.029	.027	.023	.018	.013
Atmospheric Absorption	-58	-62	-54	-52	-61	-56	-60	-57	-51	-44	-36
Atmospheric Transmittance	.063	.078	.049	.058	.070	.062	.065	.060	.056	.052	.045
SFC Insolation	45	56	35	42	50	44	46	43	40	37	32
SFC Direct Down	-8	26	-38	-8	-17	-8	-14	-20	-21	-21	-20
SFC Diffuse Down	53	29	73	50	68	52	61	63	62	58	53
SFC Net	35	44	27	32	39	34	36	34	31	29	25
SFC Reflected SW	10	12	9	10	11	10	11	10	9	9	8
SFC Albedo	.003	.003	.003	.003	.003	.003	.003	.003	.003	.003	.003

V2.0 SW Biases (W/m**2)	CLEAR-SKY AEROSOL SENSITIVITY										
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K
TOA Insolation (W/m**2)	702	702	702	702	702	702	702	702	702	702	702
TOA Net	-22	-16	-27	-19	-20	-22	-24	-23	-19	-15	-10
TOA Reflected SW	22	16	27	19	20	21	24	23	19	15	10
TOA Albedo	.029	.022	.037	.026	.027	.029	.032	.031	.026	.020	.013
Atmospheric Absorption	-50	-54	-46	-44	-53	-49	-53	-49	-44	-36	-27
Atmospheric Transmittance	.056	.074	.039	.051	.065	.055	.059	.053	.049	.044	.037
SFC Insolation	39	52	27	36	45	39	41	37	34	31	26
SFC Direct Down	10	58	-31	10	-3	11	1	-7	-9	-8	-8
SFC Diffuse Down	30	-6	59	26	49	28	40	45	44	39	34
SFC Net	26	36	16	23	31	25	27	25	22	20	16
SFC Reflected SW	13	16	11	12	14	13	14	13	12	11	10
SFC Albedo	.010	.009	.010	.010	.009	.010	.010	.010	.009	.009	.009

- **Column A** - Calculations use core input data.
- **Column B** - Core input, no aerosols.
- **Column C** - Core input, with aerosol optical depth doubled.
- **Column D** - Core input, with aerosol absorption doubled.
- **Column E** - Core input, except d'Almeida et al. ocean model used.
- **Column F** - Core input, except d'Almeida et al. urban model used.
- **Column G** - Core input, except Tegen and Lacis 0.5 micron mineral dust model used.
- **Column H** - Core input, except Tegen and Lacis 1 micron mineral dust model used.
- **Column I** - Core input, except Tegen and Lacis 2 micron mineral dust model used.
- **Column J** - Core input, except Tegen and Lacis 4 micron mineral dust model used.
- **Column K** - Core input, except Tegen and Lacis 8 micron mineral dust model used.

The latest CAGEX results for ARESE (September 25 - November 1, 1995) at the ARM CART site in Oklahoma are shown in Tables 7, 8, and 9 and Figure 22 (Alberta and Charlock, 1997). The results shown here are preliminary. An "official" set of results for CAGEX Version 2 will be re-run using the new, modified Fu et al. (1997) code with the CKD continuum. Each bias in Tables 7, 8, and 9 is the mean difference of computed (Fu and Liou, 1993 code) and measured fluxes at the top-of-the-atmosphere (TOA) or surface (SFC) using the ensemble of half-hourly time blocks spanning September 25 - November 1, 1995. In Column A for the d'Almeida et al. (1991) continental aerosols with the "core" sounding (interpolated ARM radiosondes and MFRSR-measured aerosol optical depth), we note substantial

biases for the surface diffuse insolation of 53 Wm^{-2} for total-sky (which includes clouds) and 30 Wm^{-2} for clear-sky. In the successive columns, the bias is recomputed for cases with no aerosols, doubled aerosol optical depth, doubled aerosol absorption, and with different optical models for aerosols; d'Almeida et al. (1991) maritime and urban aerosols; Tegen and Lacis (1996) mineral aerosols of different sizes. The bias in the downward diffuse flux is quite resistant to reasonable changes in aerosol optical properties.

Table 8 shows that the humidity sounding is not a likely source of this large bias in diffuse insolation; different sources for humidity, such as the NCEP mesoscale Eta model output, the AERI interferometer, or the microwave radiometer also yield the large bias.

Table 8 - Mean biases (calculated minus measured in Wm^{-2}) for SW in ARESE using different sources for the atmospheric humidity sounding

V2.0 SW Biases (W/m^{**2})	FULL-SKY HUMIDITY SENSITIVITY						
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
TOA Insolation (W/m^{**2})	717	717	717	681	693	694	717
TOA Net	-20	-13	-27	-23	-23	-24	-19
TOA Reflected SW	20	13	27	23	23	24	19
TOA Albedo	.027	.017	.035	.032	.031	.032	.025
Atmospheric Absorption	-58	-41	-74	-56	-51	-52	-55
Atmospheric Transmittance	.063	.045	.081	.059	.053	.055	.060
SFC Insolation	45	32	58	40	37	38	43
SFC Direct Down	-8	-20	2	-14	-6	-5	-10
SFC Diffuse Down	53	52	57	54	42	43	53
SFC Net	35	26	44	31	26	27	34
SFC Reflected SW	10	6	14	9	11	11	10
SFC Albedo	.003	.000	.006	.002	.006	.007	.003

V2.0 SW Biases (W/m^{**2})	CLEAR-SKY HUMIDITY SENSITIVITY						
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
TOA Insolation (W/m^{**2})	702	702	702	640	690	690	702
TOA Net	-22	-15	-27	-26	-24	-24	-21
TOA Reflected SW	22	15	27	26	24	24	21
TOA Albedo	.029	.021	.037	.038	.032	.033	.028
Atmospheric Absorption	-50	-33	-67	-52	-49	-51	-47
Atmospheric Transmittance	.056	.035	.078	.058	.056	.058	.053
SFC Insolation	39	24	55	38	39	40	37
SFC Direct Down	10	-6	24	11	9	11	7
SFC Diffuse Down	30	31	31	27	29	29	30
SFC Net	26	16	36	24	25	26	24
SFC Reflected SW	13	8	18	13	13	14	13
SFC Albedo	.010	.007	.013	.010	.010	.010	.009

- **Column A** – Calculations use core input data.
- **Column B** – Core input, with doubled humidity.
- **Column C** – Humidity is half that of the core input.
- **Column D** – Eta sounding dataset used.
- **Column E** – Core input, using AERI humidity below 2 kilometers.
- **Column F** – Core input, using AERI humidity below 2 kilometers. The humidity profile is scaled by the ARM microwave radiometer retrieval of precipitable water..
- **Column G** – Core sounding data, with humidity added to the soundings as follows:
 - 10% was added to the humidity from the surface to 700 mb.
 - 20% was added to the humidity from 700 mb to 500 mb.
 - 30% was added to the humidity from 500 mb to 250 mb.

Radiometric measurements are another point of contention. Table 9 shows the biases (calculated minus measured in Wm^{-2}) using different sources for the measured fluxes. WMO recommends that standard instrumentation (i.e., Eppleys) be combined to measure the SW direct and diffuse beams separately; this is compared for the ARM SIROS (see the row with SFC Insolation in Table 9, Column A) with the unshaded flat-plate pyranometer (Column B). Note that the RAMS (Valero et al., 1996) radiometer (Column E) has the smallest bias w.r.t. calculations for clear sky; RAMS uses new technology and is not operated using WMO protocols. Columns F through J use unshaded Eppley pyranometers deployed by Whitlock and Schuster. Fortunately, ARM has recently deployed a radiometric calibration facility to address the measurement issue for SW. The SIROS and “BSRN” NIP records used in Tables 7, 8, and 9 were adjusted as per cavity radiometer checks in April 1996 (Michalsky et al, 1997).

Table 9 - Mean biases (calculated minus measured in Wm^{-2}) for SW in ARESE using different sources for the radiometric measurements

V2.0 SW Biases (W/m^{**2})	FULL-SKY RADIOMETER COMPARISONS									
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J
TOA Insolation (W/m^{**2})	717	717	717	717	717	717	717	717	717	717
TOA Net	-20	-20	-20	-20	-20	-20	-20	-20	-20	-20
TOA Reflected SW	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20
TOA Albedo	.027	.027	.027	.027	.027	.027	.027	.027	.027	.027
Atmospheric Absorption	-58	-72				-81	-39	-76	-82	-70
Atmospheric Transmittance	.063	.081	.054	.069	.057	.067	.072	.077	.085	.075
SFC Insolation	45	58	39	50	44	48	51	55	61	54
SFC Direct Down	-8		-2							
SFC Diffuse Down	53		40							
SFC Net	35	48				56	17	51	57	46
SFC Reflected SW	10	10				-9	35	3	4	8
SFC Albedo	.003	-.004				-.045	.059	-.019	-.022	-.007

V2.0 SW Biases (W/m^{**2})	CLEAR-SKY RADIOMETER COMPARISONS									
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J
TOA Insolation (W/m^{**2})	702	702	702	702	702	702	702	702	702	702
TOA Net	-22	-22	-22	-22	-22	-22	-22	-22	-22	-22
TOA Reflected SW	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22
TOA Albedo	.029	.029	.029	.029	.029	.029	.029	.029	.029	.029
Atmospheric Absorption	-50	-71				-84	-28	-75	-87	-68
Atmospheric Transmittance	.056	.084	.045	.058	.034	.068	.068	.075	.086	.074
SFC Insolation	39	59	32	41	26	48	48	52	60	52
SFC Direct Down	10		11							
SFC Diffuse Down	30		22							
SFC Net	26	46				58	5	49	61	43
SFC Reflected SW	13	13				-10	43	4	-1	9
SFC Albedo	.010	.001				-.042	.067	-.016	-.029	-.005

- **Column A** – SIROS, using pyrhelimeter + shaded pyranometer combination for surface insolation.
- **Column B** – SIROS, using pyranometer for surface insolation.
- **Column C** – BSRN, using pyrhelimeter + shaded pyranometer combination for surface insolation.
- **Column D** – BSRN, using pyranometer for surface insolation.
- **Column E** – RAMS surface radiometry.
- **Column F** – LSRN, site DWA
- **Column G** – LSRN, site FRA.
- **Column H** – LSRN, site KYL.
- **Column I** – LSRN, site TOM.
- **Column J** – LSRN, average of the four sites.

ARESE confirms that there are enormous discrepancies between computed and measured SW insolation for some cloudy sky cases. Figure 22 compares the reflected SW at TOA computed (code from Fu and Liou, 1993) and measured (GOES-8 narrowband to broadband conversion from Minnis et al., 1995) and the surface insolation as computed (code from Fu and Liou, 1993) and measured (see Table 9) for October 31, 1995. The cloud optical depths were taken from GOES-8 narrowband retrievals of Minnis et al. (1995). This cloudy day appears to confirm the large “anomalous SW absorption by cloud” described earlier by Cess et al. (1995), Ramanathan et al. (1995), and Pilewskie and Valero (1995). When integrated over the whole ARESE period, however, the biases in surface insolation for total-sky (full-sky) and clear-sky are comparable (SFC Insolation row in above Tables 7, 8, and 9), suggesting significant problems with SW radiation in both cloudy and clear conditions.

Calculated and Observed TOA and SFC Fluxes

October 31, 1995

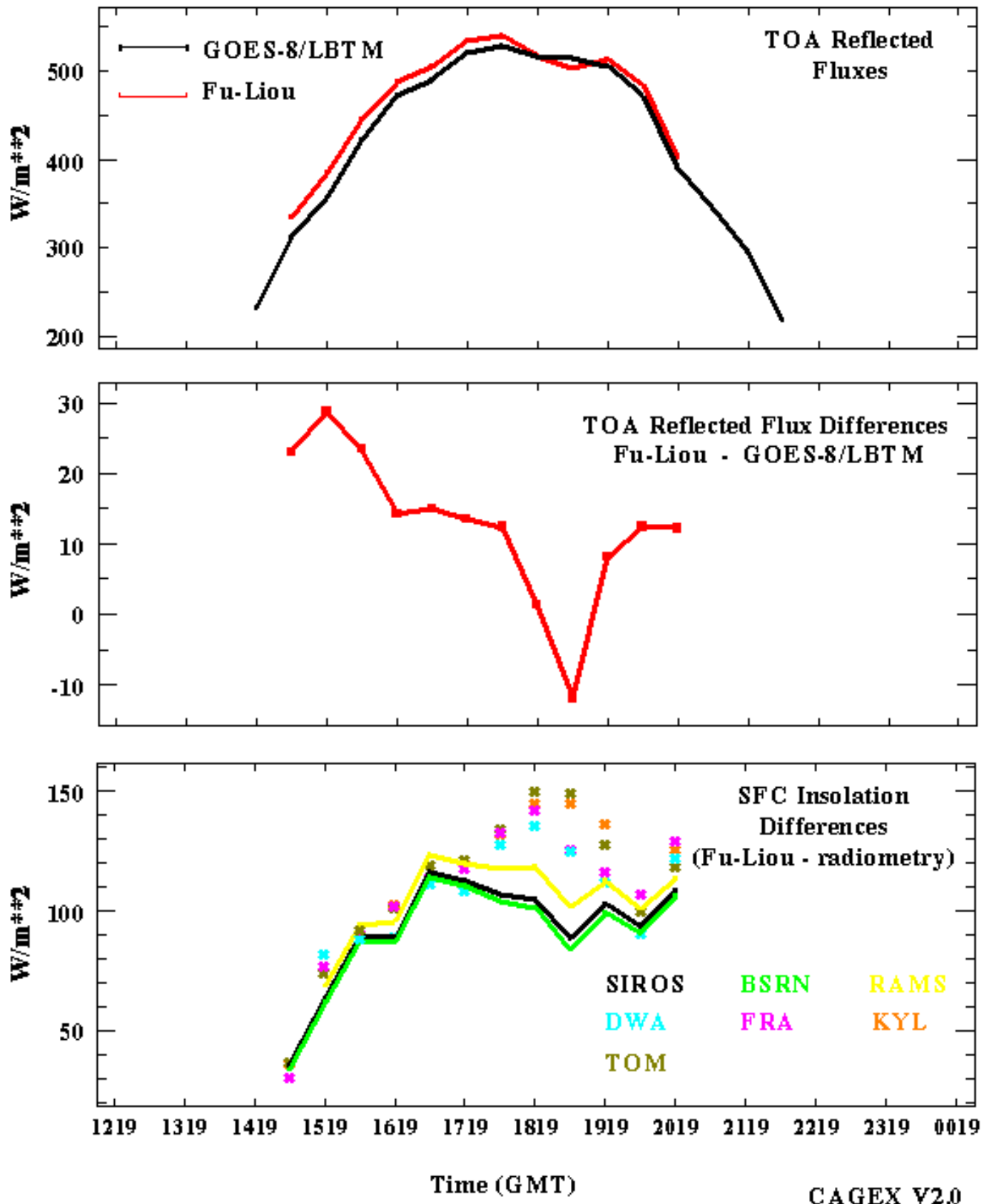


Figure 22 - Calculated (Fu-Liou code) and observed SW fluxes at TOA and surface for October 31, 1995 at the ARM CART site in Oklahoma

Further work will interpret these measurements with new aerosol profiling data from lidar (Hlavka et al., 1997) over the ARM site, the ARM SIROS radiometer network, and the ARESE Scripps Atmospheric Research Laboratory RAMS (Valero et al., 1996) broadband radiometer from ARESE Twin Otter, Egret, and ER-2 flights. This will be a combined approach to clear-sky aerosol and surface SW effects. Clear-sky SW constraint exercises will be used.

There are different problems with the surface LW. Sellers and Hall (1992) noted the strong directional dependence of LW emission from the surface itself, which suggests that a constraint at one satellite angle may not be representative of the hemispherically integrated flux. As noted earlier, the effect is produced by a vegetation canopy, which commonly has a vertical temperature gradient; by observing at different viewing angles, one sees different parts of the canopy, which have different temperatures. While our surface emissivities are non-black, they are uncertain, which again will generate an error in the surface flux (Wan and Dozier 1989; Prata, 1993). MODIS will retrieve the surface emissivity, but some care will be needed in such a retrieval because of the aforementioned directional dependence. In analyzing the LW flux and directional radiance data from the forthcoming CERES helicopter measurements over ARM, we will experiment with the retrieval of surface temperature and emissivity. The NCEP and DAO data for atmospheric temperature is generally regarded as accurate to within 1 or 2 deg K. Under most circumstances, other parameters will induce larger errors. Uncertainties in water vapor are known to have a great impact on fluxes; GEWEX (Chahine 1992) has been organized, partly because of these uncertainties. Our constraint of PW to match TOA broadband fluxes is a small step forward. Microwave water vapor data for the actual CERES mission and constraint to narrowband (in addition to broadband) would yield further advances. The development of correlated-k's for use in the AVHRR channels (Kratz, 1997) with the Fu and Liou (1993) code will permit the testing of this concept before launch. CAGEX will investigate sounding input issues for LW intensively over the ARM site in Oklahoma. The ARM program includes special radiosonde launches, a nearby network of National Weather Service (NWS) remote profilers, and on-site microwave and Raman lidar retrievals of water vapor. Through GCIP, NWS mesoscale Eta model outputs with hundreds of parameters at nested points around the ARM site are archived hourly (July - August 1994 and indefinitely after April 1995); these include analyses from the Eta Data and Assimilation System (EDAS), as used in Table 8 above for SW.

We will compare our Release 1.5 results with more temporally extensive efforts like ISCCP and the GEWEX SRB Project. The CERES retrievals of clouds and fluxes are quite different than in ISCCP and the SRB Project, and it will be scientifically interesting to analyze the cloud to flux correlations in these other global retrievals.

5.5.2. Inhomogeneities and 3-D Effects

Release 1 SARB calculations do not account for the differences in cloud optical depth between the groups of cloud imager pixels. We simply average them over the ERBE footprint to the mean properties of High, Upper Middle, Lower Middle, and Low clouds, thereby introducing a systematic error. We further assume that the world is plane parallel, both with regard to the CERES cloud retrievals used as inputs and the broadband radiative transfer codes used to calculate the SARB itself. Three-dimensional calculations by Schmetz (1984) suggest that under some circumstances, 3-D effects may be accounted for in the SW with minor adjustments to plane-parallel calculations. Heidinger and Cox (1994) have reported some success in accounting for finite (3-D) cloud effects on surface DLF. O'Hirok and Gautier (1996) have computed comprehensive 3-D radiative profiles for a few cases.

We regard cloud inhomogeneity and finite geometry as the most formidable barriers to our effort to retrieve the *instantaneous* radiative flux divergence in the troposphere. Cloud geometry is a strong forcing on the short term variability of flux. Some advance is expected through CERES participation in the ARM program. Our initial goals have been met: a determination of the error in satellite-based, plane-parallel SARB calculations in various space-time domains (i.e., Tables 2, 7, 8, and 9 and Figs. 20 and 22). To further approach the multi-dimensional cloud problem, we have the preliminary resource of approximately 70 hours of joint flight time with RAMS SW broadband measurements on Twin Otter, Egret, and ER-2 in ARESE. Hayasaka

et al. (1995) have shown that care is needed in the interpretation of such measurements. Another resource in determining how simple, plane parallel results can be best interpreted will be the scores of broadband Licor measurements in the Oklahoma mesonet around ARM.

The widely dispersed, SW and LW BSRN radiometers will generate another database for CERES validation at about 30 locations worldwide. The "finite" cloud effect of uncertainty in satellite-observed cloud geometric thickness has an enormous impact on assessments of the LW SARB especially. A satellite-borne CPR would be needed to provide a reliable global survey of cloud geometric thickness for optically thick clouds. For optically thin clouds, a space-borne lidar is needed. The present Automated Surface Observing Sites (ASOS) which have been deployed with laser beam ceilometers (LBC) at hundreds of locations in the US, providing hourly cloud bases below 4 km, will yield a more accurate climatology of cloud base heights. When combined with satellite data in the GEWEX Continental-Phase International Project (GCIP; World Climate Research Program 1992) and enhanced surface radiometric observations, a sound test of satellite-based retrievals of the SARB and cloud base heights would be possible.

5.6 Data Processing Requirements

Since Release 1, Dr. Qiang Fu provided a 2-stream model (Fu et al., 1997) that greatly reduced the CPU time needed to process a CERES FOV. New CPU chips (R10000), along with new versions of the operating systems and compilers, have greatly reduced the CPU time needed.

A timing study conducted in April 1997 tracked the number of daytime and nighttime Fu-Liou calculations made during a contiguous 15-hour period. The number of CERES FOVs with no cloud layers, one cloud layer, and two cloud layers were tracked. Results indicate 64 Fu-Liou calculations with 30 vertical levels can be made per second. Assuming the minimum cloud layer coverage scenario of no cloud layers -- initial and constrained clear sky Fu-Liou calculations only (two calculations) -- 32 CERES FOVs can be processed per second. Assuming the maximum cloud layer coverage scenario of two cloud layers -- initial and constrained Fu-Liou calculations for clear sky plus the two cloud layers (six calculations) -- 10 CERES FOVs can be processed per second. Neither of these assumptions are realistic, however, and are only included here to indicate the variability of the CPU time necessary for each CERES FOV. Cloud parameters in the 15-hour period were retrieved from AVHRR data sets, providing a more realistic sampling of cloud layers within a CERES FOV.

Test data sets simulating the CERES sampling rate contain about 180,000 Earth-viewing FOVs per hour, or 50 per second. In the 15-hour study, a total of 381,513 FOVs were processed in a total of 23,208 seconds of CPU time, suggesting that 16 FOVs can be processed per second. This is three times the CERES data rate. The hardware installed at the Langley DAAC will be equipped with multiple processors, thus enabling multiple SARB Subsystem jobs to be processed concurrently. This will enable SARB Subsystem processing to keep up with real time.

5.7. References

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Appendix A - Input Data Products

Compute Surface and Atmospheric Fluxes (Subsystem 5)

This appendix describes the data products which are produced by the algorithms in this subsystem. The table below summarizes these products, listing the CERES and EOSDIS product codes or abbreviations, a short product name, the product type, the production frequency, and volume estimates for each individual product as well as a complete data month of production. The product types are defined as follows:

Archival products: Assumed to be permanently stored by EOSDIS
 Internal products: Temporary storage by EOSDIS (days to years)

The following pages describe each product. An introductory page provides an overall description of the product and specifies the temporal and spatial coverage. The table which follows the introductory page briefly describes every parameter which is contained in the product. Each product may be thought of as metadata followed by data records. The metadata (or header data) is not well-defined yet and is included mainly as a placeholder. The description of parameters which are present in each data record includes parameter number (a unique number for each distinct parameter), units, dynamic range, the number of elements per record, an estimate of the number of bits required to represent each parameter, and an element number (a unique number for each instance of every parameter). A summary at the bottom of each table shows the current estimated sizes for metadata, each data record, and the total data product. A more detailed description of each data product will be contained in a User's Guide to be published before the first CERES launch.

Table A-1. Output Products Summary

Product Code		Name	Type	Frequency	Size, MB	Monthly Size, MB
CERES	EOSDIS					
MOA	CERX06	Meteorological, Ozone, and Aerosol Data	Archival	1/Hour	11.55	8591
SSF	CER11	Single Satellite Footprint, TOA and Sfc Flux, Clouds	Archival	1/Hour	226.61	168598

Meteorological, Ozone, and Aerosol Data (MOA)

The CERES archival product Meteorological, Ozone, and Aerosol Data (MOA) is produced by the CERES Regrid MOA Subsystem. Each MOA file contains meteorological, ozone, and aerosol data for one hour, and is used by several of the CERES subsystems. Data on the MOA are derived from several data sources external to the CERES system, such as the Data Assimilation Office (DAO), NOAA, and various other

meteorological satellites. These data arrive anywhere from four times daily to once a month, and have various horizontal resolutions. The Regrid MOA Subsystem interpolates the aerosol and ozone data horizontally to conform with the horizontal resolution of the meteorological data. Profile data are interpolated vertically to conform with CERES requirements. All data are temporally interpolated to provide data to the CERES processing system on an hourly basis.

The MOA contains:

- Surface pressure, geopotential height, skin temperature, and sea surface state
- Vertical profiles of temperature and humidity for 58 atmospheric levels
- Vertical profiles for 18 atmospheric levels below the tropopause of wind u-vector and v-vector data
- Tropospheric height
- Air mass index
- Column precipitable water based on humidity profiles
- Column precipitable water based on microwave measurements
- Column averaged relative humidity
- Vertical profile of ozone mixing ratios for 58 atmospheric levels
- Column ozone
- Aerosol optical depth

Level: 3

Type: Archival

Frequency: 1/Hour

Time Interval Covered

File: 1 hour

Record: 1 hour

Portion of Globe Covered

File: Global

Record: One region

Portion of Atmosphere Covered

File: Surface to TOA

Table A-2 Meteorological, Ozone, and Aerosol (MOA)

Description	Parameter Number	Units	Range	Elements/Record	Bits/Elem ElemNum
Header					
Date and Hour		N/A	ASCII string	1	216
MOA Processing Date		N/A	ASCII string	1	216
MOA Grid Index		N/A	1 .. 1	1	16
Number of MOA Regions		N/A	13104 .. 13104	1	32
Temperature, Humidity, and Ozone Profile Fixed Pressure Levels		hPa	0 .. 1100	55	32
Wind Speed Profile Pressure levels		hPa	0 .. 1100	18	32
Surface Data					
MOA Region Number	1	N/A	1 .. 13104	1	321
Surface Pressure	2	hPa	0 .. 1100	1	322
Surface Geopotential Height	3	m	-100 .. 10000	1	323
Surface Skin Temperature	4	K	175 .. 375	1	324
Flag, Sea Surface State	5	N/A	0 .. 9	1	325
Flag, Source Surface Data	6	N/A	TBD	1	326
Meteorological Profiles					
Temperature Profiles	7	K	175 .. 375	58	327
Specific Humidity Profiles	8	N/A	0 .. 100	58	3265
Wind Profile, U-Vector	9	m sec ⁻¹	-100 .. 100	18	32123
Wind Profile, V-Vector	10	m sec ⁻¹	-100 .. 100	18	32141
Flag, Source Meteorological Profiles	11	N/A	TBD	1	32159
Meteorological Column Data					
Tropospheric Height	12	hPa	150 .. 300	1	32160
Air Mass Index	13	N/A	0 .. 10	1	32161
Precipitable Water	14	cm	0.001 .. 10.000	1	32162
Column Averaged Relative Humidity	15	N/A	0 .. 100	1	32163
Microwave Precipitable Water	16	cm	0.001 .. 10.000	1	32164
Microwave Precipitable Water, std	17	cm	TBD	1	32165
Flag, Source Microwave Column Precipitable Water	18	N/A	TBD	1	32166
Ozone Profile Data					
Ozone Mixing Ratio Profiles	19	g kg ⁻¹	0.00002 .. 0.02	58	32167
Flag, Source Ozone Profile Data	20	N/A	TBD	1	32225
Column Ozone					
Column Ozone	21	du	0 .. 500	1	32226
Flag, Source Column Ozone	22	N/A	TBD	1	32227
Total Column Aerosol					
Optical Depth, Total Column	23	g m ⁻²	0 .. 2	1	32228
Flag, Source Optical Depth, Total Column	24	N/A	TBD	1	32229
Spares	25	N/A	TBD	2	32230
Total Header Bits/File: 544					
Total Data Bits/Record: 7392					
Total Records/File: 13104					
Total Data Bits/File: 96864768					
Total Bits/File: 96865312					

Single Satellite Footprint, TOA and Sfc Flux, Clouds (SSF)

EOSDIS Product Code: CER11

The Single Satellite CERES Footprint TOA and Surface Fluxes, Clouds (SSF) is produced from the cloud identification, convolution, inversion, and surface processing for CERES. Each SSF covers a single hour swath from a single CERES scanner (3 channels) mounted on one satellite. The product has a product header and multiple records of 113 parameters or 261 elements for each footprint.

The major categories of data output on the SSF are

- CERES footprint geometry and CERES viewing angles
- CERES footprint radiance and flux (TOA and Surface)
- CERES footprint area statistics and imager viewing angles
- CERES footprint clear area statistics
- CERES footprint cloudy area statistics for two out of four cloud height categories
 - Visible optical depth (mean and standard deviation)
 - Logarithm of visible optical depth (mean and standard deviation)
 - Infrared emissivity (mean and standard deviation)
 - Liquid water path (mean and standard deviation)
 - Ice water path (mean and standard deviation)
 - Cloud top pressure (mean and standard deviation)
 - Cloud effective pressure (mean and standard deviation)
 - Cloud effective temperature (mean and standard deviation)
 - Cloud effective height (mean and standard deviation)
 - Cloud bottom pressure (mean and standard deviation)
 - Water particle radius (mean and standard deviation)
 - Ice particle effective diameter (mean and standard deviation)
 - Particle phase (mean and standard deviation)
 - Vertical aspect ratio (mean and standard deviation)
 - Visible optical depth and IR emissivity (13 percentiles)
- CERES footprint cloud overlap conditions (4 conditions)

The SSF is an archival product that will be run daily in validation mode starting with the TRMM launch until sufficient data have been collected and analyzed to produce a production quality set of CERES Angular Distribution Models (CADM). It is estimated that at TRMM launch plus 18 to 24 months, the SSF product will be produced on a routine basis and will be archived within EOSDIS for distribution to the science community.

Level: 2

Type: Archival

Frequency: 1/Hour

Time Interval Covered

File: 1 Hour

Record: 1/100 Second

Portion of Globe Covered

File: Satellite Footprints

Record: One Footprint

Portion of Atmosphere Covered

File: Surface to TOA

Table A-3 Single Satellite Footprint (SSF) (1 of 3)

Description Product	Parameter	Units	Range	Elements/Bits/
	Number			RecordElemCode
SSF				
SSF_Header				
1 Day and Time at hour start		N/A	ASCII string	1216A
2 Character name of satellite		N/A	ASCII string	164A
3 Character name of CERES instrument		N/A	ASCII string	132A
4 Character name of high resolution imager instrument		N/A	ASCII string	164A
5 Number of imager channels used		N/A	1 .. 20	116A
6 Central wavelengths of imager channels		μm	0.4 .. 15.0	2032A
7 Earth-Sun distance		AU	0.98 .. 1.02	132A
8 Day and Time IES processed (SS1.0)		N/A	ASCII string	1152V
9 Day and Time Imager Cloud properties processed (SS4-1 - 4.3)		N/A	ASCII string	1152V
10 Day and Time Convolution of imager with CERES processed (SS4.4)		N/A	ASCII string	1152V
11 Day and Time TOA and Surface Estimation processed (SS4.5 - 4.6)		N/A	ASCII string	1152A
12 Number of Footprints in SSF product		N/A	0.. 245475	132A
SSF_Record				
Footprint Geometry				
Time and Position				
1 Time of observation	1	day	-0.01 ..1.01	164A
2 Radius of satellite from center of Earth at observation	2	km	6000..8000	164A
3 Colatitude of satellite at observation	3	deg	0..180	132A
4 Longitude of satellite at observation	4	deg	0..360	132A
5 Colatitude of Sun at observation	5	deg	0..180	132A
6 Longitude of Sun at observation	6	deg	0..360	132A
7 Colatitude of CERES FOV at TOA	7	deg	0..180	132A
8 Longitude of CERES FOV at TOA	8	deg	0..360	132A
9 Colatitude of CERES FOV at surface	9	deg	0..180	132A
10 Longitude of CERES FOV at surface	10	deg	0..360	132A
11 Scan sample number	11	N/A	1..660	116A
12 Packet number	12	N/A	0..32767	116A
13 Cone angle of CERES FOV at satellite	13	deg	0..90	132A
14 Clock angle of CERES FOV at satellite wrt inertial velocity	14	deg	0..360	132A
15 Rate of change of cone angle	15	deg sec ⁻¹	-100 .. 100	132A
16 Rate of change of clock angle	16	deg sec ⁻¹	-10 .. 10	132A
17 Along-track angle of CERES FOV at TOA	17	deg	0 .. 360	132A
18 Cross-track angle of CERES FOV at TOA	18	deg	-90..90	132A
19 X component of satellite inertial velocity	19	km sec ⁻¹	-10 ..10	164A
20 Y component of satellite inertial velocity	20	km sec ⁻¹	-10 ..10	164A
21 Z component of satellite inertial velocity	21	km sec ⁻¹	-10 ..10	164A
CERES Viewing Angles				
22 CERES viewing zenith at TOA	22	deg	0 .. 90	132A
23 CERES solar zenith at TOA	23	deg	0 .. 180	132A
24 CERES relative azimuth at TOA	24	deg	0..360	132A
25 CERES viewing azimuth at TOA wrt North	25	deg	0..360	132V
Surface_Map Parameters				
26 Altitude of surface above sea level	26	m	-1000 .. 10000	132A
27 Surface type index	27	N/A	1 .. 20	816A
28 Surface type percent coverage	28	N/A	0 .. 100	816A
Scene_Type				
29 CERES SW ADM type for inversion process	29	N/A	0 .. 200	116A

30 CERES LW ADM type for inversion process	30	N/A	0 .. 600	116A
31 CERES WN ADM type for inversion process	31	N/A	0 .. 600	116A
Footprint Radiation				
CERES Filtered Radiances				
32 CERES TOT filtered radiance, upwards	32	W m ⁻² sr ⁻¹	0..700	132I
33 CERES SW filtered radiance, upwards	33	W m ⁻² sr ⁻¹	-10..510	132I
34 CERES WN filtered radiance, upwards	34	W m ⁻² sr ⁻¹	0..50	132I
35 IES quality flags	35	N/A	see Table TBD132A	
CERES Unfiltered Radiances				
36 CERES SW radiance, upwards	36	Wm ⁻² sr ⁻¹	-10 .. 510	132A
37 CERES LW radiance, upwards	37	Wm ⁻² sr ⁻¹	0 .. 200	132A
38 CERES WN radiance, upwards	38	Wm ⁻² sr ⁻¹	0 .. 50	132A
TOA and Surface Flux				
39 CERES SW flux at TOA, upwards	39	Wm ⁻²	0 .. 1400	132A
40 CERES LW flux at TOA, upwards	40	Wm ⁻²	0 .. 500	132A
41 CERES WN flux at TOA, upwards	41	Wm ⁻²	10 .. 400	132A
42 CERES downward SW surface flux, Model A	42	Wm ⁻²	0 .. 1400	132A
43 CERES downward LW surface flux, Model A	43	Wm ⁻²	0 .. 700	132A
44 CERES downward WN surface flux, Model A	44	Wm ⁻²	0 .. 700	132A

Table A-3 Single Satellite Footprint (SSF) (2 of 3)

Description Product	Parameter	Units	Range	Elements/Bits/ RecordElemCode
	Number			
45 CERES downward nonWN surface flux, Model A	45	Wm ⁻²	0 .. 700	132A
46 CERES net SW surface flux, Model A	46	Wm ⁻²	0 .. 1400	132A
47 CERES net LW surface flux, Model A	47	Wm ⁻²	-250 .. 50	132A
48 CERES downward SW surface flux, Model B (TBD)	48	Wm ⁻²	0 .. 1400	132A
49 CERES downward LW surface flux, Model B	49	Wm ⁻²	0 .. 700	132A
50 CERES net SW surface flux, Model B (TBD)	50	Wm ⁻²	0 .. 1400	132A
51 CERES net LW surface flux, Model B	51	Wm ⁻²	-250 .. 50	132A
52 CERES spectral reflectivity	52	N/A	0 .. 1	632I
53 CERES broadband surface albedo	53	N/A	0 .. 1	132I
54 CERES LW surface emissivity	54	N/A	0 .. 1	132I
55 CERES WN surface emissivity	55	N/A	0 .. 1	132I
56 Imager-based surface skin temperature	56	K	175 .. 375	132I
Full Footprint Area				
57 Number of imager pixels in CERES FOV	57	N/A	0 .. 9000	116A
58 Imager percent coverage	58	N/A	0..100	116A
59 Precipitable water	59	cm	0.001 .. 10	132A
60 Shadowed pixels percent coverage (TBD)	60	N/A	0 .. 100	116A
61 Notes on general procedure	61	N/A	TBD	116A
62 Notes on Cloud Algorithms	62	N/A	TBD	116A
63 Mean imager viewing zenith over CERES FOV	63	deg	0 .. 90	132A
64 Mean imager relative azimuth over CERES FOV	64	deg	0 .. 360	132A
65 Imager channel identifier	65	N/A	1 .. 20	516A
66 5th percentile of imager radiances over CERES FOV	66	W m ⁻² sr ⁻¹ μm ⁻¹	TBD	532V
67 Mean of imager radiances over CERES FOV	67	W m ⁻² sr ⁻¹ μm ⁻¹	TBD	532A
68 95th percentile of imager radiances over CERES FOV	68	W m ⁻² sr ⁻¹ μm ⁻¹	TBD	532V
Clear Footprint Area				
69 Sun glint percent coverage	69	N/A	0 .. 100	116A
70 Snow/Ice percent coverage	70	N/A	0 .. 100	116A
71 Smoke percent coverage	71	N/A	0 .. 100	116A
72 Fire percent coverage	72	N/A	0 .. 100	116A
73 Mean of imager radiances over clear area	73	W m ⁻² sr ⁻¹ μm ⁻¹	TBD	532A
74 Stddev of imager radiances over clear area	74	W m ⁻² sr ⁻¹ μm ⁻¹	TBD	532I
75 Total aerosol visible optical depth in clear area	75	N/A	0 .. 2	132A
76 Total aerosol effective radius in clear area	76	μm	0 .. 20	132A
Cloudy Footprint Area				
Cloud Category Arrays is Array[2] of:				
77 Cloud category area percent coverage	77	N/A	0 .. 100	216A
78 Cloud category overcast percent coverage	78	N/A	0 .. 100	216A
79 Cloud category broken percent coverage	79	N/A	0 .. 100	216A
80 Mean of imager radiances for cloud category	80	W m ⁻² sr ⁻¹ μm ⁻¹	TBD	2 x 532A
81 Stddev of imager radiances for cloud category	81	W m ⁻² sr ⁻¹ μm ⁻¹	TBD	2 x 532I
82 Mean cloud visible optical depth for cloud category	82	N/A	0 .. 400	232A
83 Stddev of visible optical depth for cloud category	83	N/A	TBD	232A
84 Mean logarithm of cloud visible optical depth for cloud category	84	N/A	0 .. 6	232A
85 Stddev of logarithm of visible optical depth for cloud category	85	N/A	TBD	232A
86 Mean cloud infrared emissivity for cloud category	86	N/A	0 .. 1	232A

87	Stddev of cloud infrared emissivity for cloud category	87	N/A	TBD	232A
88	Mean liquid water path for cloud category	88	g m ⁻²	TBD	232A
89	Stddev of liquid water path for cloud category	89	g m ⁻²	TBD	232V
90	Mean ice water path for cloud category	90	g m ⁻²	TBD	232A
91	Stddev of ice water path for cloud category	91	g m ⁻²	TBD	232V
92	Mean cloud top pressure for cloud category	92	hPa	0 .. 1100	232A
93	Stddev of cloud top pressure for cloud category	93	hPa	TBD	232V
94	Mean cloud effective pressure for cloud category	94	hPa	0 .. 1100	232A
95	Stddev of cloud effective pressure for cloud category	95	hPa	TBD	232A
96	Mean cloud effective temperature for cloud category	96	K	100 .. 350	232A
97	Stddev of cloud effective temperature for cloud category	97	K	TBD	232A
98	Mean cloud effective height for cloud category	98	km	0 .. 20	232A
99	Stddev of cloud effective height for cloud category	99	km	TBD	232V
100	Mean cloud bottom pressure for cloud category	100	hPa	0 .. 1100	232A
101	Stddev of cloud bottom pressure for cloud category	101	hPa	TBD	232V
102	Mean water particle radius for cloud category	102	µm	TBD	232A
103	Stddev of water particle radius for cloud category	103	µm	TBD	232A
104	Mean ice particle effective diameter for cloud category	104	µm	TBD	232A
105	Stddev of ice particle effective diameter for cloud category	105	µm	TBD	232A
106	Mean cloud particle phase for cloud category	106	N/A	0 .. 1	232A
107	Stddev of cloud particle phase for cloud category	107	N/A	0 .. 1	232V
108	Mean vertical aspect ratio for cloud category (TBD)	108	N/A	0 .. 1	232A

Table A-3 Single Satellite Footprint (SSF) (3 of 3)

Description Product	Parameter	Units	RangeElements/Bits/	
	Number			RecordElemCode
109 Stddev of vertical aspect ratio for cloud category (TBD)	109	N/A	TBD	232V
110 Percentiles of visible optical depth for cloud category	110	N/A	TBD	2 x 1332I
111 Percentiles of IR emissivity for cloud category	111	N/A	TBD	2 x 1332I
Overlap Footprint Area				
112 Number of imager pixels for overlap condition	112	N/A	0 .. 9000	416A
113 Overlap condition weighted area percentage	113	N/A	0 .. 100	416A
Total Meta Bits/File:	1704			
Total Data Bits/Record:	7744			
Total Records/File:	245475			
Total Data Bits/File:	1900958400			
Total MegaBytes / Hour	237.6			
Total GigaBytes / Day	5.7			

Appendix B - Output Data Products

Compute Surface and Atmospheric Fluxes (Subsystem 5)

This appendix describes the data products which are produced by the algorithms in this subsystem. The table below summarizes these products, listing the CERES and EOSDIS product codes or abbreviations, a short product name, the product type, the production frequency, and volume estimates for each individual product as well as a complete data month of production. The product types are defined as follows:

Archival products: Assumed to be permanently stored by EOSDIS
 Internal products: Temporary storage by EOSDIS (days to years)

The following pages describe each product. An introductory page provides an overall description of the product and specifies the temporal and spatial coverage. The table which follows the introductory page briefly describes every parameter which is contained in the product. Each product may be thought of as metadata followed by data records. The metadata (or header data) is not well-defined yet and is included mainly as a placeholder. The description of parameters which are present in each data record includes parameter number (a unique number for each distinct parameter), units, dynamic range, the number of elements per record, an estimate of the number of bits required to represent each parameter, and an element number (a unique number for each instance of every parameter). A summary at the bottom of each table shows the current estimated sizes for metadata, each data record, and the total data product. A more detailed description of each data product will be contained in a User's Guide to be published before the first CERES launch.

Table B-1. Output Products Summary

Product Code		Name	Type	Frequency	Size, MB	Monthly Size, MB
CERES	EOSDIS					
CRS	CER04	Clouds and Radiative Swath	Archival	1/Hour	285.61	212491

Clouds and Radiative Swath (CRS)

The CERES archival product Clouds and Radiative Swath (CRS) is produced by the CERES Instantaneous Surface and Atmospheric Radiation Budget (SARB) Subsystem. Each CRS file contains longwave and shortwave radiative fluxes for the surface, internal atmosphere and TOA for each CERES field-of-view (FOV). The CRS contains data for an one-hour satellite swath (8-12 percent of the Earth) from one satellite. In addition to being an archival product, the CRS is used by the CERES subsystem Grid Single Satellite Radiative Fluxes and Clouds.

For each CERES FOV, the CRS contains:

- CERES FOV geometry, time, and scene data
- CERES FOV satellite altitude radiance data
- CERES FOV estimated TOA flux data
- CERES FOV surface flux data
- CERES FOV total-sky area data
- CERES FOV clear-sky area data
- Cloud category properties for two of four cloud height categories (low (L), lower middle (LM), upper middle (UM), and high (H)) over the CERES FOV
- Overlap data for four of eleven cloud overlap conditions (clear, L, LM, UM, H, H/UM, H/LM, H/L, UM/LM, UM/L, LM/L) over the CERES FOV
- CERES FOV surface radiative parameters
- Atmospheric flux profiles for both clear-sky and total-sky at the surface, 500hPa, the tropopause, and the TOA over the CERES FOV
- Flux adjustments (tuned-untuned) for clear-sky and total-sky at the surface and TOA over the CERES FOV
- Adjustment parameters for clear-sky (note that these are calculated for both clear-sky and total-sky FOV)
- Adjustment parameters for the two cloud categories over the CERES FOV
- Auxilliary adjustment quality control flags

Level: 2

Type: Archival

Frequency: 1/ Hour

Time Interval Covered

File: 1 hour

Record: Instantaneous

Portion of Globe Covered

File: Satellite Swath

Record: 1 CERES FOV

Portion of Atmosphere Covered

File: Surface to TOA

Table B-2 Clouds and Radiative Swath (CRS) (1 of 3)

Description Product	Parameter	Units	Range	Elements/	Bits/
	Number			Record	ElemCode
CRS Header					
Day and time at hour start		N/A	ASCII string	1	216A
Character name of satellite		N/A	ASCII string	1	64A
Character name of CERES instrument		N/A	ASCII string	1	32A
Character name of high resolution imager instrument		N/A	ASCII string	1	64A
Number of imager channels used		N/A	1 .. 20	1	16A
Central wavelengths of imager channels		μm	0.4 .. 15.0	20	32A
Earth-Sun distance		AU	.98 .. 1.02	1	32A
Day and time IES processed (SS 1.0)		N/A	ASCII string	1	152V
Day and time Imager Cloud Properties processed (SS 4.1- 4.3)		N/A	ASCII string	1	152V
Day and time Convolution of Imager with CERES processed (SS 4.4)		N/A	ASCII string	1	152V
Day and time TOA and Surface Estimation processed (SS 4.5 - 4.6)		N/A	ASCII string	1	152A
Number of footprints in CRS product		N/A	0 .. 245275	1	32A
CERES FOV Geometry, Time, and Scene					
Time of observation	1	day	-0.01 .. 1.01	1	64A
Radius of satellite from center of Earth at observation	2	km	6000 .. 8000	1	64A
Colatitude of satellite at observation	3	deg	0 .. 180	1	32A
Longitude of satellite at observation	4	deg	0 .. 360	1	32A
Colatitude of Sun at observation	5	deg	0 .. 180	1	32A
Longitude of Sun at observation	6	deg	0 .. 360	1	32A
Colatitude of CERES FOV at TOA	7	deg	0 .. 180	1	32A
Longitude of CERES FOV at TOA	8	deg	0 .. 360	1	32A
Colatitude of CERES FOV at surface	9	deg	0 .. 180	1	32A
Longitude of CERES FOV at surface	10	deg	0 .. 360	1	32A
Scan sample number	11	N/A	1 .. 660	1	16A
Packet number	12	N/A	0 .. 32767	1	16A
Cone angle of CERES FOV at satellite	13	deg	0 .. 90	1	32A
Clock angle of CERES FOV at satellite wrt inertial velocity	14	deg	0 .. 360	1	32A
Rate of change of cone angle	15	deg sec ⁻¹	-100 .. 100	1	32A
Rate of change of clock angle	16	deg sec ⁻¹	-10 .. 10	1	32A
Along-track angle of CERES FOV at TOA	17	deg	0 .. 360	1	32A
Cross-track angle of CERES FOV at TOA	18	deg	-90 .. 90	1	32A
X component of satellite inertial velocity vector	19	km sec ⁻¹	-10 .. 10	1	64A
Y component of satellite inertial velocity vector	20	km sec ⁻¹	-10 .. 10	1	64A
Z component of satellite inertial velocity vector	21	km sec ⁻¹	-10 .. 10	1	64A
CERES viewing zenith angle at TOA	22	deg	0 .. 90	1	32A
CERES solar zenith angle at TOA	23	deg	0 .. 180	1	32A
CERES relative azimuth angle at TOA	24	deg	0 .. 360	1	32A
CERES viewing azimuth angle at TOA wrt North	25	deg	0 .. 360	1	32V
Surface altitude above sea level	26	m	-1000 .. 10000	1	32A
Surface type index	27	N/A	1 .. 20	8	16A
Surface type percent coverage	28	N/A	0 .. 100	8	16A
CERES SW ADM type for inversion process	29	N/A	0 .. 200	1	16A
CERES LW ADM type for inversion process	30	N/A	0 .. 600	1	16A
CERES WN ADM type for inversion process	31	N/A	0 .. 600	1	16A
CERES FOV Satellite Altitude Radiance Data					
CERES TOT filtered radiance, satellite altitude, upwards	32	W m ⁻² sr ⁻¹	0 .. 700	1	32I
CERES SW filtered radiance, satellite altitude, upwards	33	W m ⁻² sr ⁻¹	-10 .. 510	1	32I
CERES WN filtered radiance, satellite altitude, upwards	34	W m ⁻² sr ⁻¹	0 .. 50	1	32I
IES quality flags	35	N/A	see table TBD	1	32A
CERES SW unfiltered radiance, satellite altitude, upwards	36	W m ⁻² sr ⁻¹	-10 .. 510	1	32A
CERES LW unfiltered radiance, satellite altitude, upwards	37	W m ⁻² sr ⁻¹	0 .. 200	1	32A
CERES WN unfiltered radiance, satellite altitude, upwards	38	W m ⁻² sr ⁻¹	0 .. 50	1	32A
CERES FOV Estimated TOA Flux Data					
CERES SW flux, TOA, upwards	39	W m ⁻²	0 .. 1400	1	32A
CERES LW flux, TOA, upwards	40	W m ⁻²	0 .. 500	1	32A
CERES WN flux, TOA, upwards	41	W m ⁻²	0 .. 1400	1	32A

Table B-2 Clouds and Radiative Swath (CRS) (2 of 3)

Description Product	Parameter	Units	Range	Elements/	Bits/
	Number			Record Elem	Code
CERES FOV Surface Flux Data					
CERES SW flux, surface, downwards, Model A	42	W m ⁻²	0 .. 1400	1	32A
CERES LW flux, surface, downwards, Model A	43	W m ⁻²	0 .. 700	1	32A
CERES WN flux, surface, downwards, Model A	44	W m ⁻²	0 .. 700	1	32A
CERES nonWN flux, surface, downwards, Model A	45	W m ⁻²	0 .. 700	1	32A
CERES SW flux, surface, net, Model A	46	W m ⁻²	0 .. 1400	1	32A
CERES LW flux, surface, net, Model A	47	W m ⁻²	-250 .. 50	1	32A
CERES SW flux, surface, downwards, Model B (TBD)	48	W m ⁻²	0 .. 1400	1	32A
CERES LW flux, surface, downwards, Model B	49	W m ⁻²	0 .. 700	1	32A
CERES SW flux, surface, net, Model B (TBD)	50	W m ⁻²	0 .. 1400	1	32A
CERES LW flux, surface, net, Model B	51	W m ⁻²	-250 .. 50	1	32A
CERES spectral reflectivity	52	N/A	0 .. 1	6	32I
CERES broadband surface albedo (uncorrected)	53	N/A	0 .. 1	1	32I
CERES LW surface emissivity	54	N/A	0 .. 1	1	32I
CERES WN surface emissivity	55	N/A	0 .. 1	1	32I
Imager-based surface skin temperature	56	K	175 .. 375	1	32I
CERES FOV Total-Sky Area Data					
Number of imager pixels in CERES FOV	57	N/A	0 .. 9000	1	16A
Imager percent coverage	58	N/A	0 .. 100	1	16A
Precipitable water	59	cm	0.001 .. 10.000	1	32A
Shadowed pixels percent coverage (TBD)	60	N/A	0 .. 100	1	16A
Notes on general procedures	61	N/A	TBD	1	16A
Notes on cloud algorithms	62	N/A	TBD	1	16A
Imager viewing zenith angle over CERES FOV, mean	63	deg	0 .. 90	1	32A
Imager relative azimuth angle over CERES FOV, mean	64	deg	0 .. 360	1	32A
Imager channel identifier (5 channels)	65	N/A	1 .. 20	5	16A
Imager radiance over CERES FOV, 5th percentile	66	W m ⁻² sr ⁻¹ μm ⁻¹	TBD	5	32V
Imager radiance over CERES FOV, mean	67	W m ⁻² sr ⁻¹ μm ⁻¹	TBD	5	32A
Imager radiance over CERES FOV, 95th percentile	68	W m ⁻² sr ⁻¹ μm ⁻¹	TBD	5	32V
CERES FOV Clear-Sky Area Data					
Sun glint percent coverage	69	N/A	0 .. 100	1	16A
Snow/ice percent coverage	70	N/A	0 .. 100	1	16A
Smoke percent coverage	71	N/A	0 .. 100	1	16A
Fire percent coverage	72	N/A	0 .. 100	1	16A
Imager radiance, clear-sky area, mean	73	W m ⁻² sr ⁻¹ μm ⁻¹	TBD	5	32A
Imager radiance, clear-sky area, std	74	W m ⁻² sr ⁻¹ μm ⁻¹	TBD	5	32I
Total aerosol visible optical depth, clear-sky area	75	N/A	0 .. 2	1	32A
Total aerosol effective radius, clear-sky area	76	μm	0 .. 20	1	32A
Cloud Properties for Two of Four Cloud Height Categories (Height categories are Low (L), Lower Middle (LM), Upper Middle (UM), and High (H))					
Area percent coverage	77	N/A	0 .. 100	2	16A
Overcast percent coverage	78	N/A	0 .. 100	2	16A
Broken percent coverage	79	N/A	0 .. 100	2	16A
Imager radiance, mean	80	W m ⁻² sr ⁻¹ μm ⁻¹	TBD	10	32A
Imager radiance, std	81	W m ⁻² sr ⁻¹ μm ⁻¹	TBD	10	32I
Cloud visible optical depth, linear, mean	82	N/A	0 .. 400	2	32A
Cloud visible optical depth, linear, std	83	N/A	TBD	2	32A
Cloud visible optical depth, logarithmic, mean	84	N/A	0 .. 6	2	32A
Cloud visible optical depth, logarithmic, std	85	N/A	TBD	2	32A
Cloud infrared emissivity, mean	86	N/A	0 .. 1	2	32A
Cloud infrared emissivity, std	87	N/A	TBD	2	32A
Liquid water path, mean	88	g m ⁻²	TBD	2	32A
Liquid water path, std	89	g m ⁻²	TBD	2	32V
Ice water path, mean	90	g m ⁻²	TBD	2	32A
Ice water path, std	91	g m ⁻²	TBD	2	32V
Cloud top pressure, mean	92	hPa	0 .. 1100	2	32A
Cloud top pressure, std	93	hPa	TBD	2	32V
Cloud effective pressure, mean	94	hPa	0 .. 1100	2	32A
Cloud effective pressure, std	95	hPa	TBD	2	32A
Cloud effective temperature, mean	96	K	100 .. 350	2	32A
Cloud effective temperature, std	97	K	TBD	2	32A

Table B-2 Clouds and Radiative Swath (CRS) (3 of 3)

Description	Parameter Number	Units	Range	Elements/Bits/ Record	Product ElemCode
Cloud Properties (Continued)					
Cloud effective height, mean	98	km	0 .. 20	2	32A
Cloud effective height, std	99	km	TBD	2	32V
Cloud bottom pressure, mean	100	hPa	0 .. 1100	2	32A
Cloud bottom pressure, std	101	hPa	TBD	2	32V
Water particle radius, mean	102	μm	TBD	2	32A
Water particle radius, std	103	μm	TBD	2	32A
Ice particle effective diameter, mean	104	μm	TBD	2	32A
Ice particle effective diameter, std	105	μm	TBD	2	32A
Cloud particle phase, mean	106	N/A	0 .. 1	2	32A
Cloud particle phase, std	107	N/A	0 .. 1	2	32V
Vertical aspect ratio, mean (TBD)	108	N/A	0 .. 1	2	32A
Vertical aspect ratio, std (TBD)	109	N/A	TBD	2	32V
Visible optical depth, 13 percentiles	110	N/A	TBD	26	32I
IR emissivity, 13 percentiles	111	N/A	TBD	26	32I
CERES FOV Overlap Data for Four Overlap Conditions					
Number imager pixels for overlap condition	112	N/A	0 .. 9000	4	16A
Overlap condition weighted area percentage	113	N/A	0 .. 100	4	16A
Surface Radiative Parameters					
Photosynthetically active radiation, surface (TBD)	114	W m ⁻²	0 .. 780	1	32A
Direct/diffuse ratio, surface (TBD)	115	N/A	0 .. 30	1	32A
Corrected initial broadband surface albedo	116	N/A	0 .. 1	1	32A
Atmospheric Flux Profile for Clear-sky and Total-sky (Atmospheric levels in profile are surface, 500 hPa, tropopause and TOA)					
Number atmospheric levels	117	N/A	0 .. 4	1	16A
Level pressures	118	hPa	0 .. 1100	4	32A
SW flux, atmospheric level, upwards, tuned	119	W m ⁻²	0 .. 1400	8	32A
SW flux, atmospheric level, downwards, tuned	120	W m ⁻²	0 .. 1400	8	32A
LW flux, atmospheric level, upwards, tuned	121	W m ⁻²	0 .. 500	8	32A
LW flux, atmospheric level, downwards, tuned	122	W m ⁻²	0 .. 500	8	32A
Flux Adjustments (Tuned - Untuned) for Clear-sky and Total-sky					
SW flux, surface, downwards, delta	123	W m ⁻²	-1400 .. 1400	2	32A
SW flux, surface, upwards, delta	124	W m ⁻²	-1400 .. 1400	2	32A
SW flux, TOA, upwards, delta	125	W m ⁻²	-1400 .. 1400	2	32A
LW flux, surface, downwards, delta	126	W m ⁻²	-500 .. 500	2	32A
LW flux, surface, upwards, delta	127	W m ⁻²	-500 .. 500	2	32A
LW flux, TOA, upwards, delta	128	W m ⁻²	-500 .. 500	2	32A
Adjustment Parameters for Clear Skies					
Adjusted precipitable water, delta	129	cm	-10 .. 10	1	32A
Adjusted surface albedo, delta	130	N/A	-1 .. 1	1	32A
Adjusted aerosol optical depth, delta	131	N/A	-2 .. 2	1	32A
Adjusted skin temperature, delta	132	K	TBD	1	32A
Adjustment Parameters for Two Cloud Height Categories					
Adjusted mean visible optical depth, delta	133	N/A	-400 .. 400	2	32A
Adjusted mean cloud fractional area, delta	134	N/A	-1 .. 1	2	32A
Adjusted mean cloud effective temperature, delta	135	K	TBD	2	32A
Auxiliary Adjustment Quality Control Flags					
Constraint status flag	136	N/A	TBD	1	32A
Sigma table configuration flag	137	N/A	TBD	1	32A
Total Meta Bits/File:	1704				
Total Data Bits/Record:	9760				
Total Records/File:	245475				
Total Data Bits/File:	2395836000				
Total Bits/File:	2395837704				

Appendix C

Nomenclature

Acronyms

ADEOS	Advanced Earth Observing System
ADM	Angular Distribution Model
AIRS	Atmospheric Infrared Sounder (EOS-AM)
AMSU	Advanced Microwave Sounding Unit (EOS-PM)
APD	Aerosol Profile Data
APID	Application Identifier
ARESE	ARM Enhanced Shortwave Experiment
ARM	Atmospheric Radiation Measurement
ASOS	Automated Surface Observing Sites
ASTER	Advanced Spaceborne Thermal Emission and Reflection Radiometer
ASTEX	Atlantic Stratocumulus Transition Experiment
ASTR	Atmospheric Structures
ATBD	Algorithm Theoretical Basis Document
AVG	Monthly Regional, Average Radiative Fluxes and Clouds (CERES Archival Data Product)
AVHRR	Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer
BDS	Bidirectional Scan (CERES Archival Data Product)
BRIE	Best Regional Integral Estimate
BSRN	Baseline Surface Radiation Network
BTD	Brightness Temperature Difference(s)
CCD	Charge Coupled Device
CCSDS	Consultative Committee for Space Data Systems
CEPEX	Central Equatorial Pacific Experiment
CERES	Clouds and the Earth's Radiant Energy System
CID	Cloud Imager Data
CLAVR	Clouds from AVHRR
CLS	Constrained Least Squares
COPRS	Cloud Optical Property Retrieval System
CPR	Cloud Profiling Radar
CRH	Clear Reflectance, Temperature History (CERES Archival Data Product)
CRS	Single Satellite CERES Footprint, Radiative Fluxes and Clouds (CERES Archival Data Product)
DAAC	Distributed Active Archive Center
DAC	Digital-Analog Converter

DAO	Data Assimilation Office
DB	Database
DFD	Data Flow Diagram
DLF	Downward Longwave Flux
DMSP	Defense Meteorological Satellite Program
EADM	ERBE-Like Albedo Directional Model (CERES Input Data Product)
ECA	Earth Central Angle
ECLIPS	Experimental Cloud Lidar Pilot Study
ECMWF	European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts
EDDB	ERBE-Like Daily Data Base (CERES Archival Data Product)
EID9	ERBE-Like Internal Data Product 9 (CERES Internal Data Product)
EOS	Earth Observing System
EOSDIS	Earth Observing System Data Information System
EOS-AM	EOS Morning Crossing Mission
EOS-PM	EOS Afternoon Crossing Mission
ENSO	El Niño/Southern Oscillation
ENVISAT	Environmental Satellite
EPHANC	Ephemeris and Ancillary (CERES Input Data Product)
ERB	Earth Radiation Budget
ERBE	Earth Radiation Budget Experiment
ERBS	Earth Radiation Budget Satellite
ESA	European Space Agency
ES4	ERBE-Like S4 Data Product (CERES Archival Data Product)
ES4G	ERBE-Like S4G Data Product (CERES Archival Data Product)
ES8	ERBE-Like S8 Data Product (CERES Archival Data Product)
ES9	ERBE-Like S9 Data Product (CERES Archival Data Product)
FLOP	Floating Point Operation
FIRE	First ISCCP Regional Experiment
FIRE II IFO	First ISCCP Regional Experiment II Intensive Field Observations
FOV	Field of View
FSW	Hourly Gridded Single Satellite Fluxes and Clouds (CERES Archival Data Product)
FTM	Functional Test Model
GAC	Global Area Coverage (AVHRR data mode)
GAP	Gridded Atmospheric Product (CERES Input Data Product)
GCIP	GEWEX Continental-Phase International Project
GCM	General Circulation Model
GEBA	Global Energy Balance Archive

GEO	ISSCP Radiances (CERES Input Data Product)
GEWEX	Global Energy and Water Cycle Experiment
GLAS	Geoscience Laser Altimetry System
GMS	Geostationary Meteorological Satellite
GOES	Geostationary Operational Environmental Satellite
HBTM	Hybrid Bispectral Threshold Method
HIRS	High-Resolution Infrared Radiation Sounder
HIS	High-Resolution Interferometer Sounder
ICM	Internal Calibration Module
ICRCCM	Intercomparison of Radiation Codes in Climate Models
ID	Identification
IEEE	Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers
IES	Instrument Earth Scans (CERES Internal Data Product)
IFO	Intensive Field Observation
INSAT	Indian Satellite
IOP	Intensive Observing Period
IR	Infrared
IRIS	Infrared Interferometer Spectrometer
ISCCP	International Satellite Cloud Climatology Project
ISS	Integrated Sounding System
IWP	Ice Water Path
LAC	Local Area Coverage (AVHRR data mode)
LaRC	Langley Research Center
LBC	Laser Beam Ceilometer
LBTM	Layer Bispectral Threshold Method
Lidar	Light Detection and Ranging
LITE	Lidar In-Space Technology Experiment
Lowtran 7	Low-Resolution Transmittance (Radiative Transfer Code)
LW	Longwave
LWP	Liquid Water Path
MAM	Mirror Attenuator Mosaic
MC	Mostly Cloudy
MCR	Microwave Cloud Radiometer
METEOSAT	Meteorological Operational Satellite (European)
METSAT	Meteorological Satellite
MFLOP	Million FLOP
MIMR	Multifrequency Imaging Microwave Radiometer
MISR	Multiangle Imaging Spectroradiometer

MLE	Maximum Likelihood Estimate
MOA	Meteorology Ozone and Aerosol
MODIS	Moderate-Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer
MSMR	Multispectral, multiresolution
MTSA	Monthly Time and Space Averaging
MWH	Microwave Humidity
MWP	Microwave Water Path
NASA	National Aeronautics and Space Administration
NCAR	National Center for Atmospheric Research
NCEP	National Centers for Environmental Prediction
NESDIS	National Environmental Satellite, Data, and Information Service
NIR	Near Infrared
NMC	National Meteorological Center
NOAA	National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
NWP	Numerical Weather Prediction
OLR	Outgoing Longwave Radiation
OPD	Ozone Profile Data (CERES Input Data Product)
OV	Overcast
PC	Partly Cloudy
POLDER	Polarization of Directionality of Earth's Reflectances
PRT	Platinum Resistance Thermometer
PSF	Point Spread Function
PW	Precipitable Water
RAPS	Rotating Azimuth Plane Scan
RPM	Radiance Pairs Method
RTM	Radiometer Test Model
SAB	Sorting by Angular Bins
SAGE	Stratospheric Aerosol and Gas Experiment
SARB	Surface and Atmospheric Radiation Budget Working Group
SDCD	Solar Distance Correction and Declination
SFC	Hourly Gridded Single Satellite TOA and Surface Fluxes (CERES Archival Data Product)
SHEBA	Surface Heat Budget in the Arctic
SPECTRE	Spectral Radiance Experiment
SRB	Surface Radiation Budget
SRBAVG	Surface Radiation Budget Average (CERES Archival Data Product)
SSF	Single Satellite CERES Footprint TOA and Surface Fluxes, Clouds
SSMI	Special Sensor Microwave Imager

SST	Sea Surface Temperature
SURFMAP	Surface Properties and Maps (CERES Input Product)
SW	Shortwave
SWICS	Shortwave Internal Calibration Source
SYN	Synoptic Radiative Fluxes and Clouds (CERES Archival Data Product)
SZA	Solar Zenith Angle
THIR	Temperature/Humidity Infrared Radiometer (Nimbus)
TIROS	Television Infrared Observation Satellite
TISA	Time Interpolation and Spatial Averaging Working Group
TMI	TRMM Microwave Imager
TOA	Top of the Atmosphere
TOGA	Tropical Ocean Global Atmosphere
TOMS	Total Ozone Mapping Spectrometer
TOVS	TIROS Operational Vertical Sounder
TRMM	Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission
TSA	Time-Space Averaging
UAV	Unmanned Aerospace Vehicle
UT	Universal Time
UTC	Universal Time Code
VAS	VISSR Atmospheric Sounder (GOES)
VIRS	Visible Infrared Scanner
VISSR	Visible and Infrared Spin Scan Radiometer
WCRP	World Climate Research Program
WG	Working Group
Win	Window
WN	Window
WMO	World Meteorological Organization
ZAVG	Monthly Zonal and Global Average Radiative Fluxes and Clouds (CERES Archival Data Product)

Symbols

A	atmospheric absorptance
$B_{\lambda}(T)$	Planck function
C	cloud fractional area coverage
CF_2Cl_2	dichlorofluorocarbon
$CFCl_3$	trichlorofluorocarbon
CH_4	methane
CO_2	carbon dioxide
D	total number of days in the month

D_e	cloud particle equivalent diameter (for ice clouds)
E_o	solar constant or solar irradiance
F	flux
f	fraction
G_a	atmospheric greenhouse effect
g	cloud asymmetry parameter
H_2O	water vapor
I	radiance
i	scene type
m_i	imaginary refractive index
\hat{N}	angular momentum vector
N_2O	nitrous oxide
O_3	ozone
P	point spread function
p	pressure
Q_a	absorption efficiency
Q_e	extinction efficiency
Q_s	scattering efficiency
R	anisotropic reflectance factor
r_E	radius of the Earth
r_e	effective cloud droplet radius (for water clouds)
r_h	column-averaged relative humidity
S_o	summed solar incident SW flux
S'_o	integrated solar incident SW flux
T	temperature
T_B	blackbody temperature
t	time or transmittance
W_{liq}	liquid water path
w	precipitable water
\hat{x}_o	satellite position at t_o
x, y, z	satellite position vector components
$\dot{x}, \dot{y}, \dot{z}$	satellite velocity vector components
z	altitude
z_{top}	altitude at top of atmosphere
α	albedo or cone angle
β	cross-scan angle
γ	Earth central angle
γ_{at}	along-track angle

γ_{ct}	cross-track angle
δ	along-scan angle
ϵ	emittance
Θ	colatitude of satellite
θ	viewing zenith angle
θ_o	solar zenith angle
λ	wavelength
μ	viewing zenith angle cosine
μ_o	solar zenith angle cosine
ν	wave number
ρ	bidirectional reflectance
τ	optical depth
$\tau_{aer}(p)$	spectral optical depth profiles of aerosols
$\tau_{H_2O\lambda}(p)$	spectral optical depth profiles of water vapor
$\tau_{O_3}(p)$	spectral optical depth profiles of ozone
Φ	longitude of satellite
ϕ	azimuth angle
ω_o	single-scattering albedo

Subscripts:

c	cloud
cb	cloud base
ce	cloud effective
cld	cloud
cs	clear sky
ct	cloud top
ice	ice water
lc	lower cloud
liq	liquid water
s	surface
uc	upper cloud
λ	spectral wavelength

Units

AU	astronomical unit
cm	centimeter
cm-sec ⁻¹	centimeter per second
count	count
day	day, Julian date

deg	degree
deg-sec ⁻¹	degree per second
DU	Dobson unit
erg-sec ⁻¹	erg per second
fraction	fraction (range of 0–1)
g	gram
g-cm ⁻²	gram per square centimeter
g-g ⁻¹	gram per gram
g-m ⁻²	gram per square meter
h	hour
hPa	hectopascal
K	Kelvin
kg	kilogram
kg-m ⁻²	kilogram per square meter
km	kilometer
km-sec ⁻¹	kilometer per second
m	meter
mm	millimeter
μm	micrometer, micron
N/A	not applicable, none, unitless, dimensionless
ohm-cm ⁻¹	ohm per centimeter
percent	percent (range of 0–100)
rad	radian
rad-sec ⁻¹	radian per second
sec	second
sr ⁻¹	per steradian
W	watt
W-m ⁻²	watt per square meter
W-m ⁻² sr ⁻¹	watt per square meter per steradian
W-m ⁻² sr ⁻¹ μm ⁻¹	watt per square meter per steradian per micrometer