

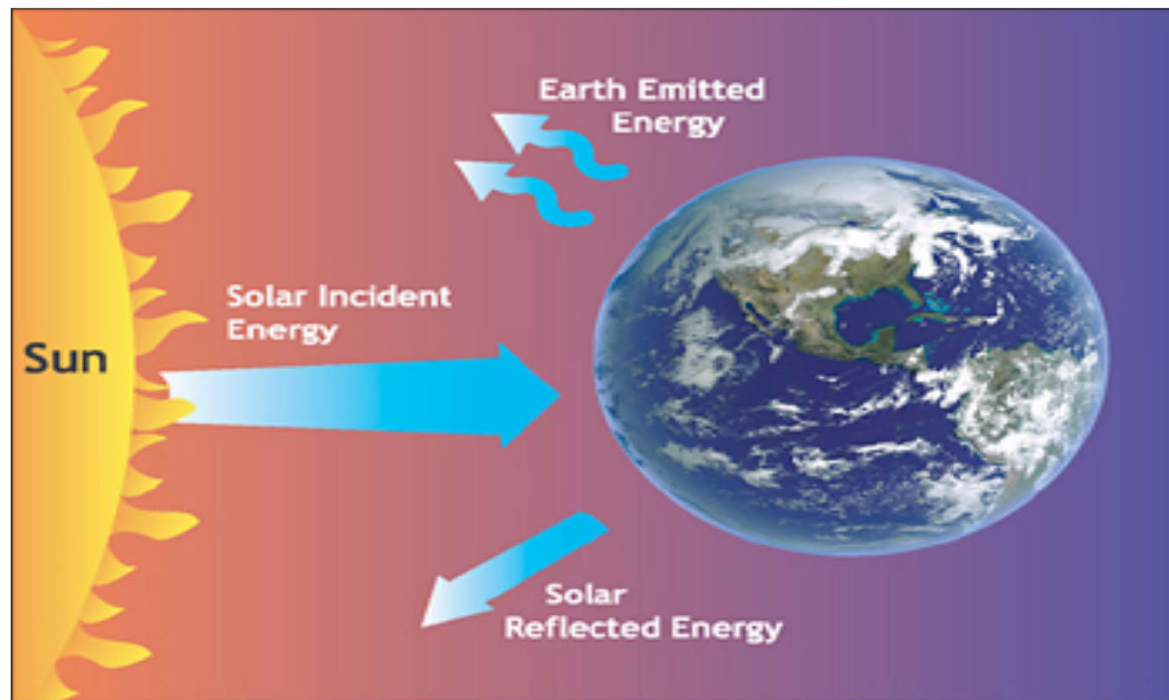
AOSC400-2015  
September 29, Lecture # 8

- ❑ Radiative Properties of Non-black Materials
- ❑ Simple radiation balance **climate model with** a greenhouse effect
- ❑ Physics of Scattering and Absorption and Emission
- ❑ Simple aspects of radiative transfer in the visible
- ❑ **Beer-Bouguer-Lambert Law**
- ❑ **Langley Plots**

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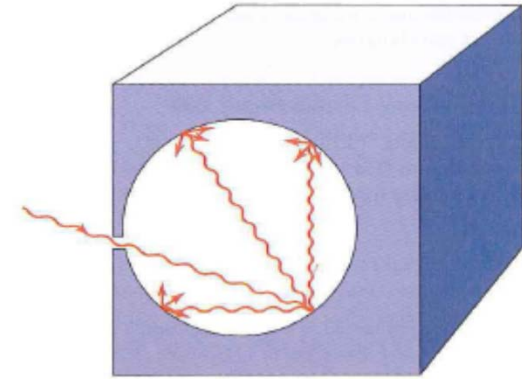
What drives climate to change? - “**radiative forcing**”: A small change in the energy balance of the earth can change surface temperatures, winds, precipitation patterns => **it's climate**



Subsequent lectures lead to improved understanding of the concept of “Radiative Forcing”.

# Radiative Properties of Nonblack Materials

- Blackbodies absorb all incident radiation
- Nonblack bodies such (e.g., gaseous media) can also reflect and transmit radiation.
- Their behavior can be represented by applying the radiation laws derived for blackbodies. For this purpose it is useful to **define**:
- the (monochromatic) **emissivity**  $\epsilon_\lambda$ , i.e., the ratio of the monochromatic intensity of the radiation emitted by the body to the corresponding blackbody radiation:



$$\epsilon_\lambda = I_\lambda (\text{emitted}) / B_\lambda (T) \quad (4.13)$$

$$\text{Then:} \quad F_E = \epsilon_\lambda \sigma T^4$$

or:

$$E_{\lambda}(T) = \epsilon_{\lambda}(T)B_{\lambda}(T),$$

For infrared radiation, the radiative behavior of fresh snow is similar to a blackbody.

| Surface             | $\epsilon_{IR}$ | Surface  | $\epsilon_{IR}$ |
|---------------------|-----------------|----------|-----------------|
| Sea                 | 0.95–1          | Grass    | 0.90–0.95       |
| Fresh snow          | 0.99            | Desert   | 0.85–0.90       |
| “Old” snow          | 0.80            | Forest   | 0.95            |
| Liquid water clouds | 0.25–1          | Concrete | 0.70–0.90       |
| Cirrus              | 0.10–0.90       | Urban    | 0.85            |

Typical values of the emissivity in the IR region for several surface types.

The (monochromatic) *absorptivity, reflectivity, and transmissivity*, namely, the fractions of the incident monochromatic intensity that a body absorbs, reflects, and transmits, are:

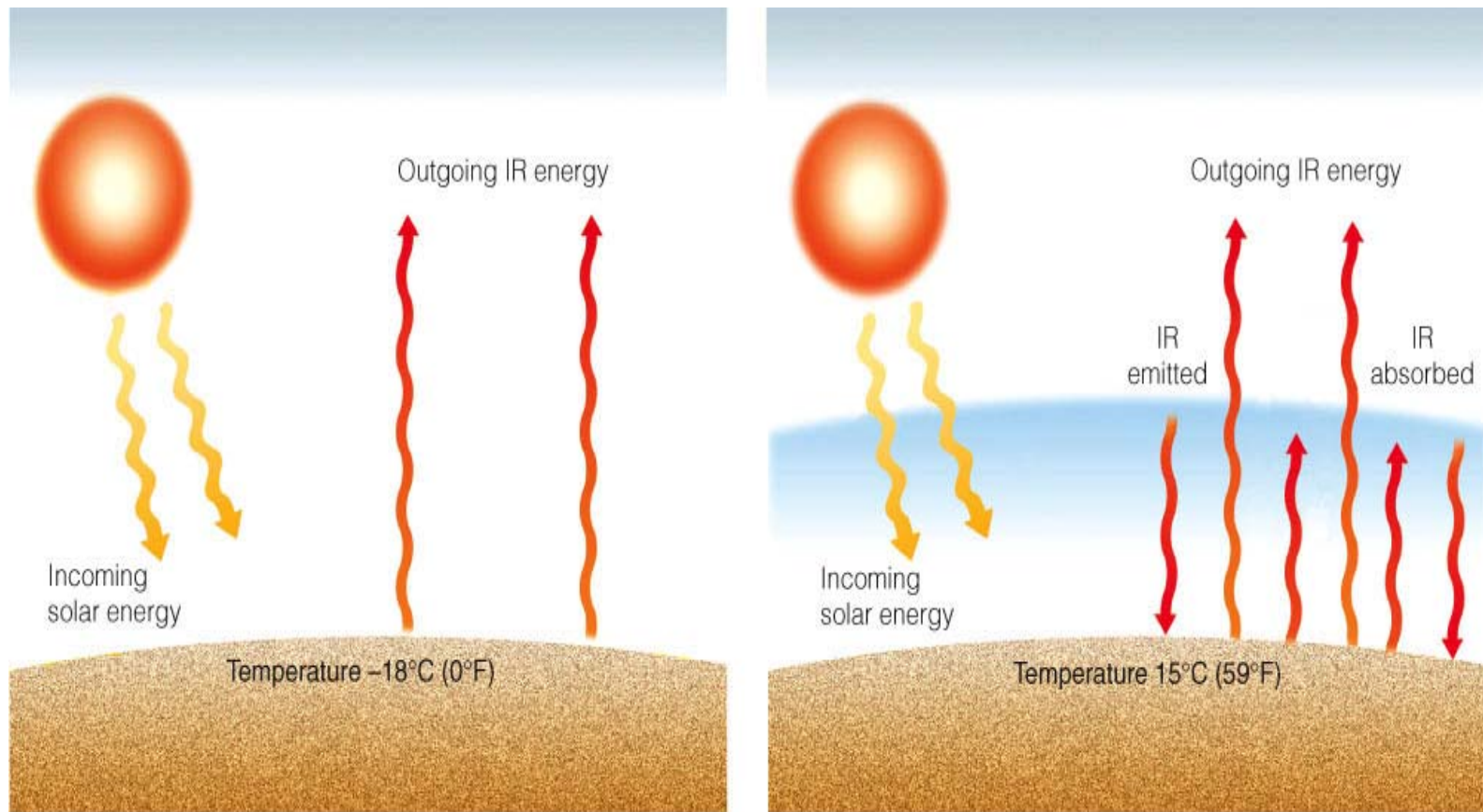
$$\alpha_{\lambda} = \frac{I_{\lambda}(\text{absorbed})}{I_{\lambda}(\text{incident})}, \quad R_{\lambda} = \frac{I_{\lambda}(\text{reflected})}{I_{\lambda}(\text{incident})}$$

$$\text{and } T_{\lambda} = \frac{I_{\lambda}(\text{transmitted})}{I_{\lambda}(\text{incident})} \quad (4.14)$$

# The Greenhouse Effect

- Water vapor, carbon dioxide, and other gases absorb radiation more strongly in the longwave part of the spectrum than the shortwave part.
- Incoming solar radiation passes through the atmosphere quite freely, whereas terrestrial radiation emitted from the Earth's surface is absorbed and re-emitted in its upward passage through the atmosphere.
- Following shows how such greenhouse gases in the atmosphere tend to warm the surface of the planet.

# “The Greenhouse Effect”



(a) Without greenhouse effect

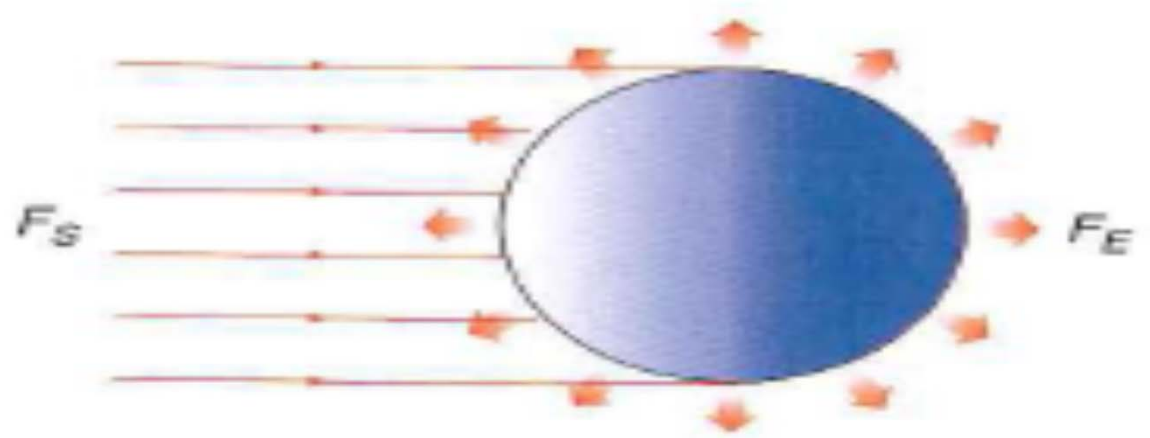
(b) With greenhouse effect

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$T_e = [(1-r)S/4\sigma]^{1/4}$ ; Actual value of  $T_e$  is 15° C.

Important to note:

The solar radiation is intercepted over an area of  $\pi R_E^2$  but the outgoing terrestrial (longwave) is emitted from the entire Earth from  $4\pi R_E^2$ , shown in detail in next slide:





$$F_E = \sigma T_E^4 = \frac{(1 - A)F_s}{4} = \frac{(1 - 0.30) \times 1368}{4} = 239.4 \text{ W m}^{-2}$$

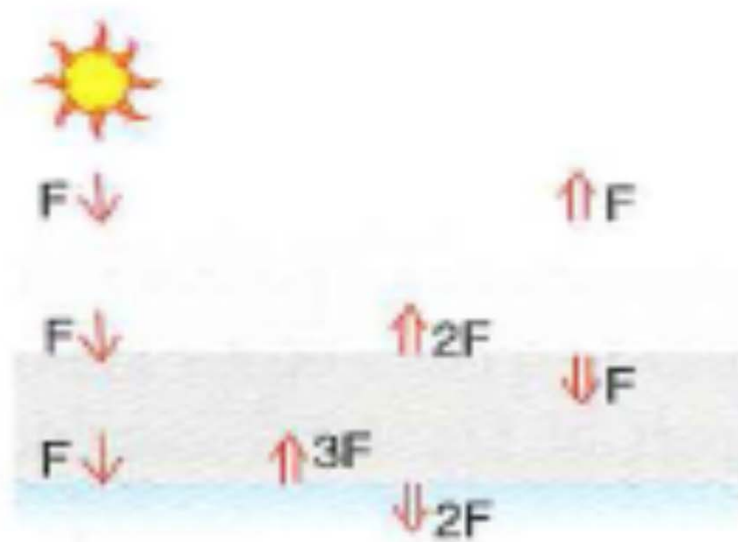
Solving for  $T_E$ , we obtain

$$T_E = \sqrt[4]{\frac{F_E}{\sigma}} = \left( \frac{239.4}{5.67 \times 10^{-8}} \right)^{1/4} = 255 \text{ K} \quad \blacksquare$$

Sometimes, in terms of the black-body concept, the total emitted from black-body is written as:

$$B(T) = \int_0^{+\infty} B_\lambda(T) d\lambda = \sigma T^4.$$

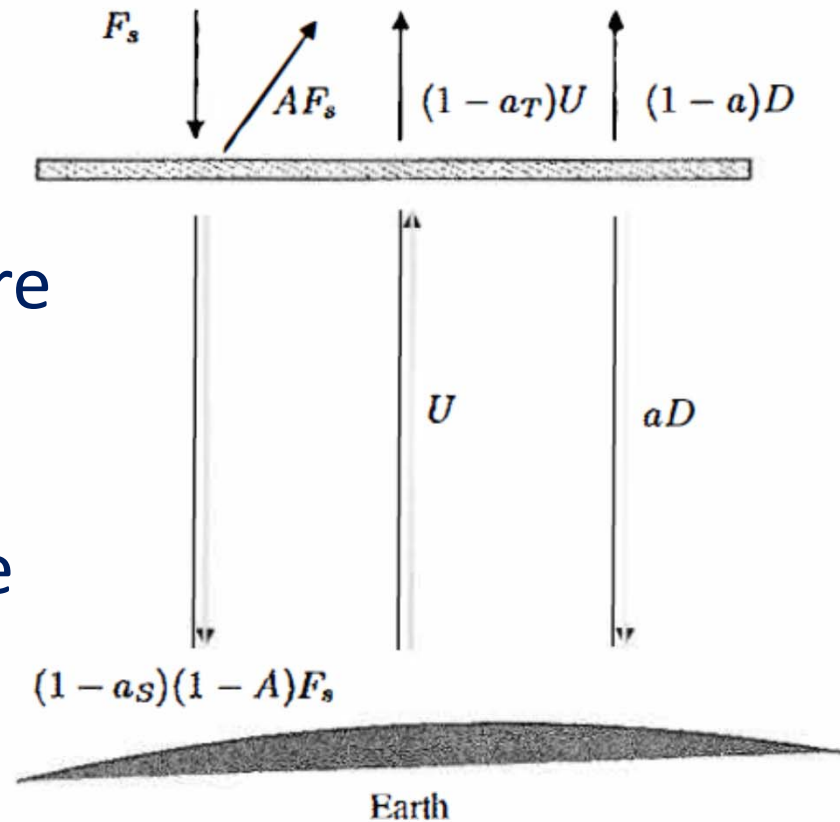
Assume that the atmospheric layers and the surface of the planet are in radiative equilibrium. How is the surface temperature of the planet affected by the presence of this atmosphere?



Replace the textbook discussion of above by following:

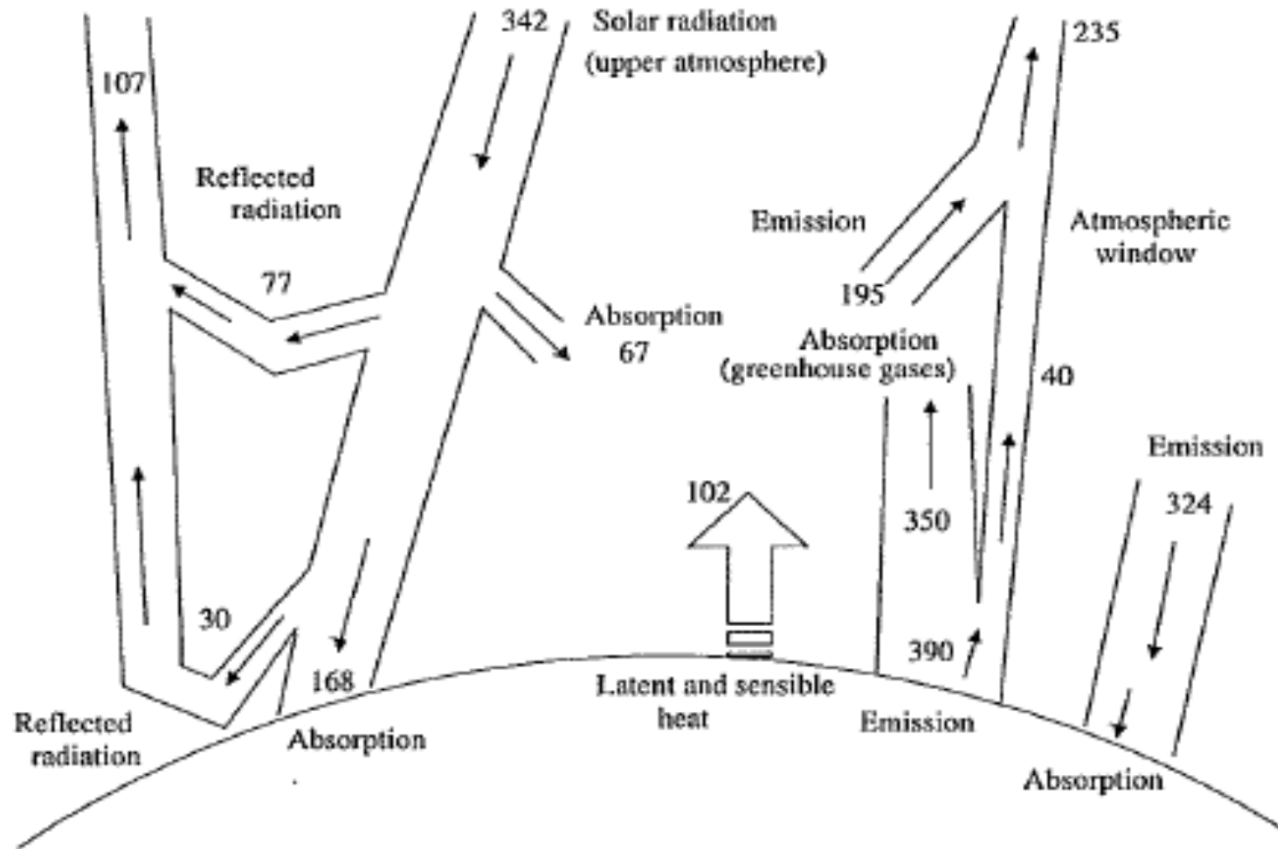
Consider the atmosphere as a layer at a given distance from the Earth's surface. Let us assume that nothing happens in the region between the surface and the layer .

From the radiative properties of the atmosphere (strong absorption of the infrared radiations and atmospheric window for the visible radiations), we assume that:



- The layer and the Earth are at radiative equilibrium
- The layer reflects a fraction  $A$  of the incident solar radiation  $F_s$ . It absorbs a fraction  $a_s$  and transmits to the Earth a fraction  $(1 - a_s)$  of the remaining radiation  $(1 - A) F_s$ . The Earth is supposed to absorb the whole received radiation;
- the Earth emits longwave radiations  $U$  (up): a fraction  $(a_T)$  is absorbed by the layer while the remaining part  $(1 - a_T)$  is transmitted to space;
- the layer is then heated and emits a radiation  $D$  (down): a fraction  $a$  is transmitted to the Earth and then absorbed.

Let us investigate the sensitivity of the Earth's temperature ( $T$ ) with respect to the absorption coefficient of the layer for the terrestrial radiation ( $a_T$ ).



**Fig. 2.14** Global energy budget for the Earth/atmosphere system. The fluxes are expressed in  $\text{W m}^{-2}$ . The values are indicative. Source: [74]

Taking  
data from this figure:

We get:

$$a_T = \frac{350}{390}, \quad a_S = \frac{198}{265}, \quad a = \frac{324}{519}.$$

The budget energy for the Earth and the atmospheric layer reads

$$\begin{cases} (1 - a_S)(1 - A)F_s + aD = U = \sigma T^4 \\ a_S(1 - A)F_s + a_T U = D. \end{cases}$$

Thus,

$$\sigma T^4 = U = \frac{(1 - a_S) + a a_S}{1 - a a_T} (1 - A) F_S. \quad (2.46)$$

The function  $T(a_T)$  is an *increasing* function with respect to the absorption coefficient of the layer ( $a_T$ ). The more absorbing the layer is, the higher the Earth's temperature is: this is the *greenhouse effect*, to be measured by the difference between the emission effective temperature  $T_e$  given by (2.42) and the surface temperature  $T$ . This gives straightforward

$$T = \left( \frac{(1 - a_S) + a a_S}{1 - a a_T} \right)^{0.25} T_e. \quad (2.47)$$

As  $T_e \simeq 255$  K, we get  $T \simeq 288$  K (not far from the observed value).

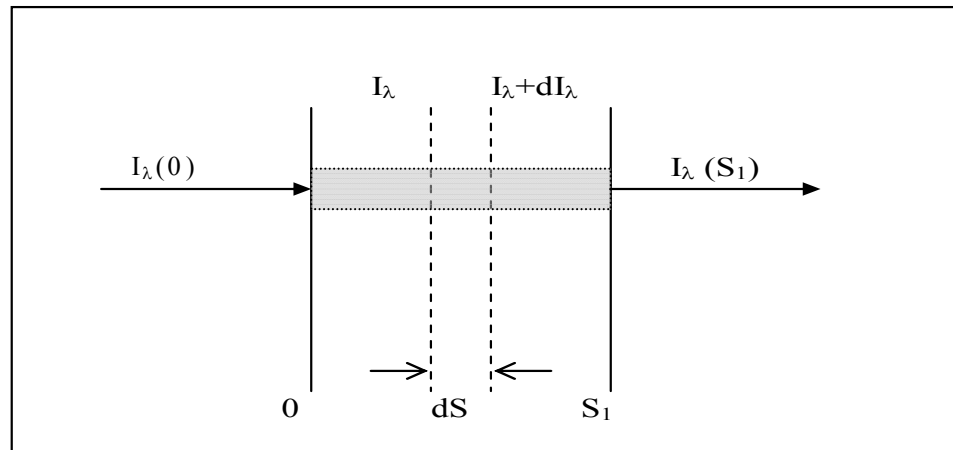
# Physics of Scattering and Absorption and Emission

- The **scattering and absorption** of radiation by gas molecules and aerosols all contribute to the **extinction** of the solar and terrestrial radiation passing through the atmosphere.
- Each of these contributions is linearly proportional to:
  - (1) the **intensity** of the radiation at that point along the ray path
  - (2) the local **concentration** of the gases and/or particles that are responsible for the absorption and scattering, and:
  - (3) the **effectiveness** of the absorbers or scatterers.



## Simple Aspects of Radiative Transfer

Tracing a ray from the sun ( $I_\lambda(0)$ ) through a medium:



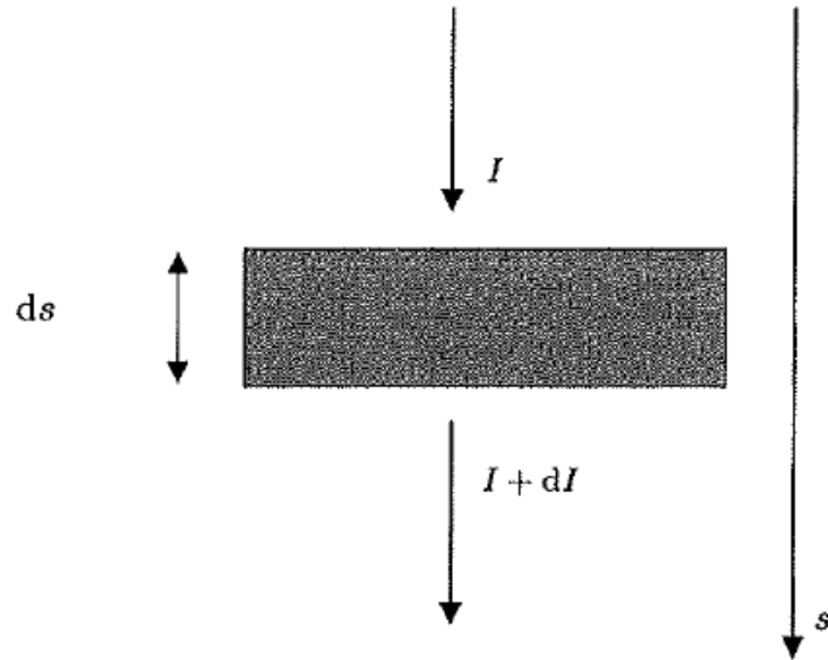
### The equation of transfer

Depletion of energy takes place when the light beam goes through the medium:

$$I_\lambda \rightarrow I_\lambda + dI_\lambda$$

$$dI_\lambda \propto -\rho I_\lambda ds$$

Another view corresponding to the atmospheric situation:



$$dI_{\lambda} \propto \rho I_{\lambda} ds$$

$$dI_{\lambda} = -k_{\lambda} \rho I_{\lambda} ds$$

where  $k_{\lambda}$ : mass extinction cross section  
Emission and multiple scattering can strengthen the intensity.

$$dI_{\lambda} = j_{\lambda} \rho ds$$

Therefore, the overall change of intensity:

$$dI_{\lambda} = -k_{\lambda} \rho I_{\lambda} ds + j_{\lambda} \rho ds$$

Assume, above term is zero (no emission or scattering contribution).

$$\frac{dI_{\lambda}}{k_{\lambda} \rho ds} = -I_{\lambda}$$

where  $k_{\lambda}$ : mass absorption cross section/absorption coefficient

$$I_{\lambda}(s_1) = I_{\lambda}(0) \exp\left(-\int_0^{s_1} k_{\lambda} \rho ds\right)$$

If the medium is homogeneous and  $k$  is independent of distance:

$$u = \int_0^{s_1} \rho ds$$

$$I_{\lambda}(s_1) = I_{\lambda}(0) \exp(-k_{\lambda} u)$$

**This is Beer's Law**

## Beer-Bouguer-Lambert Law

The *Beer-Bouguer-Lambert Law* (also know as Beer law or Bouguer law or Lambert law)

determines attenuation/extinction of radiant energy by scattering and/or absorption passing through atmosphere.

Monochromatic transmissivity  $T_\lambda$

$$T_\lambda = I_\lambda(s_1) / I_\lambda(0)$$

$$T_\lambda = \exp(-k_\lambda u)$$

For a non-scattering medium, the monochromatic absorptivity  $A_\lambda$ :

$$A_\lambda = 1 - T_\lambda = 1 - \exp(-k_\lambda u)$$

Monochromatic reflectivity  $R_\lambda$  for a scattering and absorbing medium:

$$T_\lambda + A_\lambda + R_\lambda = 1$$

through a scattering and absorbing medium

Beer's Law relates the measured intensity of solar radiation at the surface (total or monochromatic) to the one outside the atmosphere.

How can we utilize such measurements taken at the surface?

Remember the definition of the air mass concept in next two slides presented in Lecture 6 :

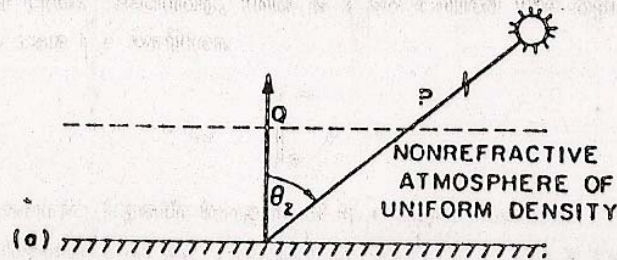
$$m_{\text{act}, v} = \int_0^{\infty} \rho dz. \quad (5.6.2)$$

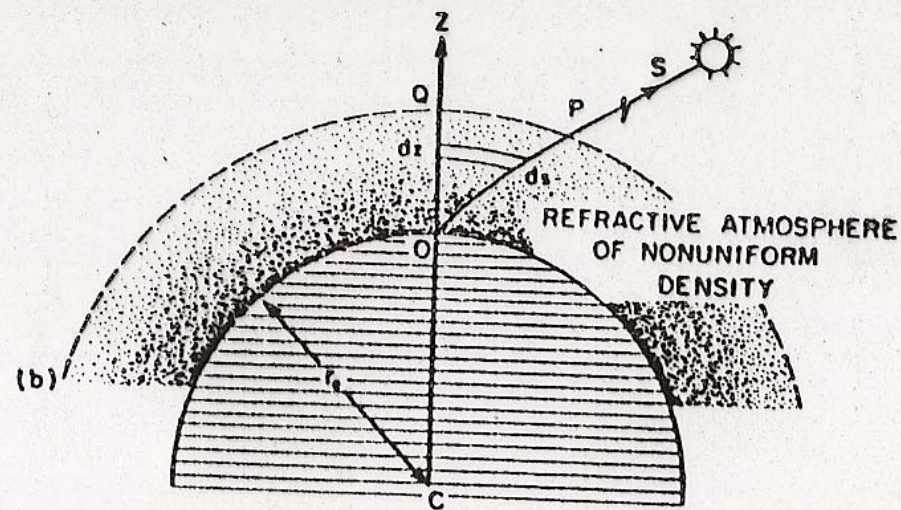
This is the mass of a substance in a vertical column of unit cross section.

The relative optical mass  $m_r$  is defined as the ratio of the optical path along the oblique trajectory to the vertical path in the zenith direction. Thus

$$m_r = \int_0^{\infty} \rho ds / \int_0^{\infty} \rho dz. \quad (5.6.3)$$

In the foregoing, the word "air" has been deliberately avoided since attenuation of a solar beam takes place not only by dry air molecules, but also by water vapor and aerosols, etc. Therefore, Eq. (5.6.3) should be solved separately for each one of the attenuating components of the atmosphere. Optical masses for the various components are discussed below.





**Figure 5.6.1** The trajectory of a solar ray through the earth's atmosphere. (a) Nonrefractive plane parallel atmosphere of uniform density. (b) Refractive spherical atmosphere of variable density.

Ignoring the earth's curvature and assuming that the atmosphere is nonrefractive and completely homogeneous (Fig. 5.6.1a), it can be seen that the relative optical mass applied to all the atmospheric constituents is

$$m'_r = \sec \theta_z. \quad (5.6.4)$$



We can use Beer's Law to determine extraterrestrial radiation. The procedure is labeled as "Langley Plots".

Let:

$\theta_0$  = solar zenith angle

$z_1$  is the height of the station

and :

$$u = \int_{z_1}^{\infty} \rho dz$$

Accordingly, effective path length of the air mass =  $u \sec \theta_0$

Beer's Law now reads:

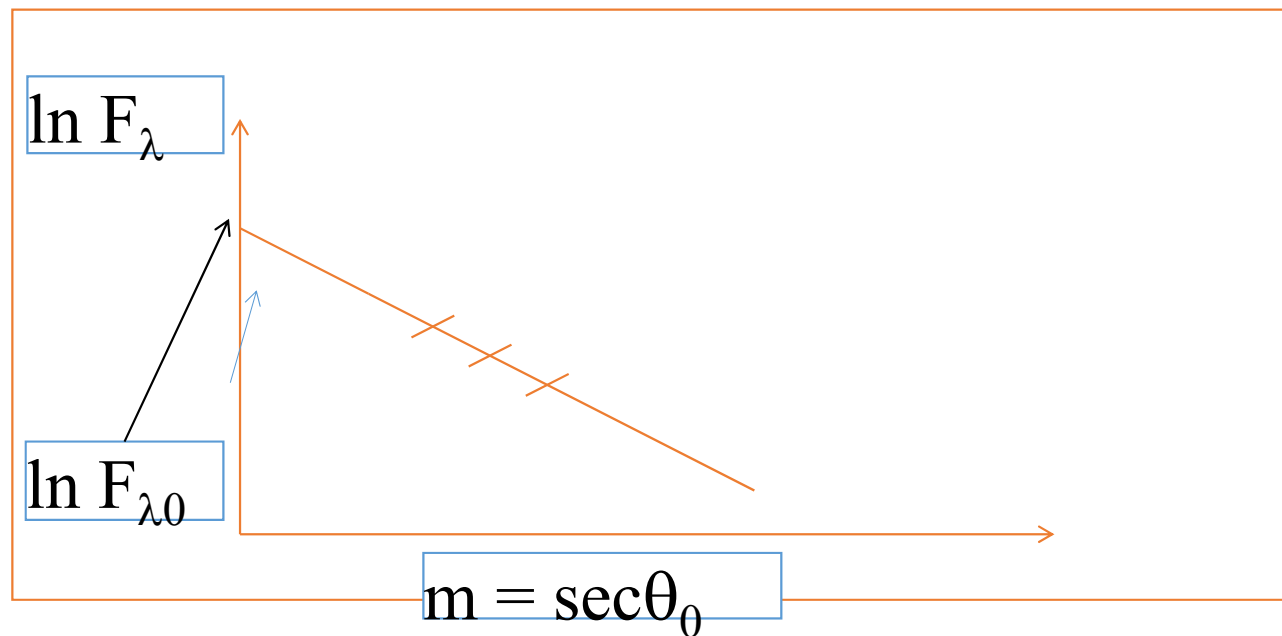
$$F_{\lambda} = F_{\lambda 0} \exp(-k_{\lambda} u \sec \theta_0) = F_{\lambda 0} T_{\lambda}^m$$

(For  $T^m$  see definition on slide No. 22)

$$\ln F_{\lambda} = \ln F_{\lambda 0} + m \ln T_{\lambda}$$

## Langley plot

You take measurements of  $F_\lambda$  for different air-masses (namely, different zenith angles given by different times of day) and plot it as shown below.



Where the effective path length of the air mass =  $u \sec \theta_0$ . The intercept will give you

$\ln F_{\lambda 0}$

which is the extraterrestrial radiation.

- If the atmospheric properties do not change during the observational period,  $T_\lambda$  is constant and the Langley Plot is a straight line.
- The y-interception is  $\ln (F_{\lambda_0})$ , and the slope is  $\ln (T_\lambda)$ .
- Solar constant S:

$$S = F_0 \left( d / d_m \right)^2$$

If instrument measures  $F_0$  (integrated over all wavelengths), possible to derive solar constant.

However, this method is not accurate to estimate S because there is energy loss:

- Absorption of UV by ozone;
- Absorption of IR by water vapor and CO<sub>2</sub>;
- Unknown amount of diffuse radiation entering the instrument;
- Variations of  $k_\lambda$  and aerosols and measurement errors.

However, this method can be used for measuring monochromatic values used in sun photometers calibration (*to be explained in more detail in next lecture*).

It is usually carried out in the early morning on a high mountain. It can be assumed that the atmosphere is stable and that the distribution of aerosols does not change much during the measurement.