Aerosol optical depth spatio-temporal characterization over the Canadian BOREAS domain

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Abstract. A complete set of Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR) data (75 images) is used to retrieve aerosol optical depth (AOD) over dense vegetation and over lake water in the visible AVHRR channel. The present approach for remote sensing of aerosols from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA)-11 AVHRR sensor is based on the detection of atmospherically dominated signals over dark surface covers such as dense dark vegetation (DDV). Such targets were identified using the reflective portion of the middle-wave AVHRR channel 3 signal. When a fixed DDV surface reflectance is subtracted from the observed reflectance after correction for all other atmospheric effects, the remaining part, which is due to aerosols, is inverted to derive aerosol optical thickness using a look-up table (LUT) similar to that used in water surface inversion. The algorithm was applied to the daily afternoon NOAA-11 AVHRR (1 km × 1 km) data acquired from the end of May to mid-August 1994 over the Canadian 1000 km × 1000 km Boreal Ecosystem Atmosphere Study (BOREAS) domain. A validation analysis using five ground-based Sun photometers within the studied area shows the good performance of the retrieval algorithm. The approach allows detailed analysis of the AOD spatio-temporal behaviour at the regional scale useful for climate and transport model validation.

1. Introduction

Atmospheric aerosols are of great importance because of their impacts on human health, visibility, continental and maritime ecosystems, or the Earth’s climate, requiring dedicated monitoring of their concentrations and properties at both the regional and global scales. Towards this objective, satellite observations of aerosols are playing an increasing role (Kaufman et al. 2002). The last decade has shown major improvement in tropospheric aerosol remote sensing capabilities, with
spacecraft now carrying sensors especially devoted to this application (e.g. the Polarization and Directionality of the Earth’s Reflectances (POLDER) instrument, the Moderate-resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS), the Multi-angle Imaging Spectroradiometer (MISR), and the Advanced Along-track Scanning Radiometer (AATSR)). However, while these instruments specifically designed for aerosol retrievals now enable quantitative aerosol observations, only data originating from airborne instruments not explicitly designed for this application present long-term continuous measurement (which are particularly useful to evaluate the seasonal variations in aerosol concentrations and properties in numerical models) which the newest satellite sensors cannot provide for 20 years.

In that context, only aerosol products from the Total Ozone Mapping Spectrometer (TOMS) and from the Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR) data turn out to be useful because of their long temporal series. TOMS, an ultraviolet scanning monochromator, was initially launched in 1978 on Nimbus-7. It is especially sensitive to absorbing aerosol particles, both over land and ocean, but is hampered in doing quantitative aerosol analysis by its large footprint (field of view of 50 km), which makes sub-pixel cloud contamination by far its largest problem (Torres et al. 1998). The other long-term sensor, AVHRR (long-term dataset since 1979), is a five-band cross-track scanning radiometer flown on National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) polar orbiting satellites since 1978. The current version of the AVHRR was first launched in an afternoon orbit on NOAA-7 in 1981. Since then, AVHRR sensors have flown on three more afternoon NOAA satellites with the only gap in coverage from September 1994 to February 1995 when NOAA-11 AVHRR failed. The global afternoon coverage of nearly 20 years provides a significant opportunity to understand a long-term distribution of aerosols. Despite the absence of on-board calibration of the visible bands, research toward this end has begun and is in majority directed towards retrieving the most accurate aerosol information over the ocean (e.g. Higurashi et al. 2000, Stowe et al. 2002). Recently, Knapp and Stowe (2002) highlighted the potential for retrieving aerosol optical depth (AOD) also over land from AVHRR, particularly over a dark background.

The purpose of our research effort is to show that data originating from the AVHRR instrument are well suited for providing aerosol optical depth spatio-temporal information at more detailed scale in western Canada. The present approach is based on detection of aerosol over dark surface such as the dark dense vegetation (DDV) targets using the reflective part of the AVHRR 3.55–3.93 μm channel. The method is applied to NOAA-11 AVHRR (1 km × 1 km) data acquired from the end of May to mid-August 1994 over the Boreal Ecosystem Atmosphere Study (BOREAS) super-site. It is a 1000 km × 1000 km domain straddling the Canadian boreal forest (see Sellers et al. 1995).

2. Data processing and dark surface identification
2.1. Data pre-processing

The daily afternoon NOAA-11 AVHRR data from 24 May to 14 August 1994 acquired from Environment Canada’s high-resolution picture transmission (HRPT) site (Edmonton, Canada), were processed in order to produce calibrated, cloud-screened and co-registrated (1 km polar stereographic projection) images over the 1000 km × 1000 km BOREAS site (Bussières et al. 2002). Orbits were selected to have the smallest possible satellite viewing angle for the analysis. At-sensor visible reflectances in channel 1 (0.58–0.68 μm), near-infrared (NIR) reflectances in channel
2 (0.725–1.10 \( \mu m \)) and radiances in channel 3 (3.55–3.93 \( \mu m \)) were generated according to the NOAA calibration procedures taking into account time-dependent gain and offset coefficients. Brightness temperatures in channels 4 (10.3–11.3 \( \mu m \)) and 5 (11.5–12.5 \( \mu m \)) used here to detect clouds and to derive reflectivity in channel 3 (see § 2.2) were calibrated using in-orbit time-varying gain and offset coefficients and corrected for nonlinearity. The land surface temperatures were then derived by applying the split window approach (Sobrino et al. 1991) for atmospheric correction.

The presence of cloud was determined by examining the properties of AVHRR channels 2 and 4. Each scene was examined individually to determine the combination of thresholds in AVHRR NIR reflectance (channel 2) and brightness temperature (channel 4) that provide the best discrimination between land and clouds. For each AVHRR pixel in a scene, if the NIR reflectance exceeded 25% and if the brightness temperature was less than a scene-dependent threshold ranging from 268–276 K, the pixel was classified as cloudy. Note that thin cirrus clouds are sometimes not eliminated (e.g. Bussières 2002, Bussières et al. 2002) when applying such a cloud screening procedure. This residual cloud contamination is discussed later.

The last processing step was to characterize the atmospheric conditions for each scene, and in particular the water vapour content variations. Due to the large area analysed, sparse weather station measurements over the BOREAS site cannot be used for the overall area. To overcome this difficulty, the gridded water vapour content from the Canadian operational weather forecasting regional finite element model (RFE) (Mailhot et al. 1995) has been used. Note that the RFE gridded water vapour content data were calibrated against synchronous Sun photometer water vapour measurements during the same period (see Halthore et al. 1997) as an unexplained bias has been observed between the model and calibrated ground-based measurements. This allowed us to estimate for each pixel in a scene the water vapour content taken as input for atmospheric correction of channels 2, 3, 4 and 5 (water vapour transmission and split window algorithm).

2.2. Estimation of the reflectivity signature at 3.75 \( \mu m \) from AVHRR data

Remote sensing of aerosol over land is complicated because reflection of sunlight by the variable surface cover can be confused with the backscattering by the aerosol layer. The lower the surface reflectance, the lower is the effect of uncertainty in the surface properties on remote sensing of aerosols using radiance. Kaufman and Sendra (1988) suggested to detect dark targets by using the vegetation index (the Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) composed of radiances in the red and NIR channels) measured at the top of the atmosphere (TOA). Determination of dark pixels using the vegetation index is, however, affected by the sensitivity of the vegetation index itself to aerosols. To avoid this feedback loop the method was applied only to images for which it was known \textit{a priori} that dense vegetation pixels were present in the image (Soufflet et al. 1997). An alternative technique is the use of longer wavelengths that are less sensitive to the aerosol scattering while still sensitive to the surface characteristics to locate dark pixels. As an example, the use of the 3.75 \( \mu m \) AVHRR channel allows to alleviate the restriction associated with the vegetation index when detecting dense vegetation (Holben et al. 1992, Kaufman and Remer 1994). The advantage of this long wavelength is that it is not affected by accumulation mode aerosol, e.g. sulphates.
and organic particles (Kaufman and Remer 1994), though it could be affected by dust (Ackerman 1989). The measured reflectance in this channel can be used to detect forested or dense vegetation pixels that are the darkest pixels over land. In addition, Kaufman and Remer (1994) emphasized that the apparent reflectance in the 3.75 μm AVHRR channel is well correlated with the reflectance in channel 1 (0.64 μm).* However, as the 3.75 μm is affected by emitted radiation and atmospheric absorption, the determination of the presence of the dark pixels in the red (0.64 μm) AVHRR channel using their reflectivity signature at 3.75 μm therefore requires to correct the 3.75 μm channel from thermal emission and water vapour absorption before processing.

Assuming that the effect of aerosols in the thermal range (channels 3, 4 and 5 of AVHRR) is negligible, we used the method developed by Roger and Vermote (1998) to retrieve the reflectivity signature at 3.75 μm from AVHRR data. This method consists of estimating the part of the signal in channel 3 due to emitted radiation and subtracting it from the total signal to deduce the reflective component by dividing the remaining signal component by atmospheric transmission and solar irradiance. The thermal component in channel 3 is expressed as a second-degree polynomial of the observed signals from channels 4 and 5 and emissivities in 4 and 5. Over clear lake (no aerosol, no cloud) the emissivities in channels 3, 4 and 5 are modelled as a function of the agitation state of the surface (Masuda et al. 1988). Over land, as the surface emissivities in channels 3, 4 and 5 are unknown and vary with cover type (Van de Griend and Owe 1993), the emissivity in the infrared channels is taken as a function of surface greenness and assumed to be equal to a linear function of the logarithm of NDVI (Van de Griend and Owe 1993).

The water vapour transmittance is computed as a double exponential function of the air mass and the water vapour amount, $U_{H_2O}$, according to the formulation provided by Roger and Vermote (1998). The other atmospheric gases interacting primarily in the range of wavelengths over channel 3 are O₃, H₂O, CH₄, N₂O, N₂ and CO₂. Their transmittances are assessed by a second degree polynomial function in the air mass (see Roger and Vermote 1998 for further information).

Finally, the ‘dark targets’ are selected over land by considering pixels whose reflectance at 3.75 μm is between 0–0.05 and whose NDVI is greater than zero (to eliminate waterbodies). When identified in the image, we assigned a surface reflectance value of respectively 0.025 and 0.015 for the dark surface pixels over land and lake in AVHRR channel 1. These surface reflectance values appear as those that minimize the difference between the retrieved and measured AOD (see discussion in §4). For the boreal evergreen coniferous forest they can be assumed to be relatively constant and homogeneous over the summer season even if understorey vegetation may slightly change reflectances (Cihlar et al. 1997).

3. Aerosol optical depth retrieval algorithm

Remote sensing of aerosol stems from the relationship between the measured radiance at the TOA and the surface bidirectional reflectance properties. Therefore for a given atmospheric condition and assuming that the ground is Lambertian above dark pixels, the AOD retrieval consists of an iterative search for the

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*The presence of vegetation decreases the reflectivity in the visible channels due to chlorophyll absorption and in the mid-infrared channels due to absorption by liquid water associated with the plant. Wet soil has a lower reflectance in the visible channels due to light-trapping capability and in the 3.75 μm channel due to liquid water absorption.
atmospherically corrected reflectance value, $r_{ac}$, that produces a reflectance (or radiance) equal to the apparent reflectance (or apparent radiance) recorded by the sensor at the TOA, $r_i^c$:

$$r_{ac}(\mu_s, \mu_v, \phi) = \frac{r_i^c}{1 + r_i^c S}$$

where $S$ is the spherical albedo of the atmosphere, and

$$r_i^c = \frac{\rho_i^c(\mu_s, \mu_v, \phi) \rho_a(\mu_s, \mu_v, \phi)}{T(\mu_s)T(\mu_v)}$$

where $\rho_i^c$ is the input parameter and where all the other parameters (the gaseous transmission, $T_g$; the path radiance, $\rho_a(\mu_s, \mu_v, \phi)$; and the total upward, $T(\mu_s)$, and downward, $T(\mu_v)$, transmittance) are computed in the atmospheric conditions described by the user.

The gaseous transmission, $T_g$, accounts for the contribution from $O_3$, $O_2$ and $H_2O$. Similarly to Roger and Vermote (1998) who expressed the gaseous transmittance in the AVHRR channel 3 as a function of the air mass, $M$, and the gases’ concentrations, the contribution of $O_3$, $O_2$ and $H_2O$ have been parametrized by running the 6S radiative transfer model (Vermote et al. 1997a) to determine the gaseous transmission for each gas in the AVHRR channel 1 for a range of total amount of gas and a range of viewing angles. The following analytical equation has been considered for the ozone transmission:

$$T_g(O_3, M) \sim \frac{1}{1 + a_1(MUO_3)^{b_1}}$$

where $UO_3$, the total ozone amount (cm atm$^{-1}$), is taken from the gridded ozone concentration climatology of London et al. (1976). The constants $a_1$ and $b_1$ are listed in table 1.

The formula adopted for oxygen is:

$$T_g(O_2, M) = \exp\left(-a_2M^{b_2}\right)$$

where the $O_2$ concentration is considered to be invariant. The two constants $a_2$ and $b_2$ are provided in table 1.

The analytical formulation for the water vapour transmission is:

$$T_g(H_2O, M) = \exp\left[a_3 + b_3 \ln(MU_{H_2O}) + c_3 \ln^2(MU_{H_2O})\right]$$

where $U_{H_2O}$, the total precipitable water, is the corrected water content originating from the RFE model. The values of the three constants $a_3$, $b_3$ and $c_3$ are provided in table 1.

Using the single scattering approximation, the path radiance, $\rho_a(\mu_s, \mu_v, \phi)$, is proportional to the AOD, $\tau_a$, the aerosol scattering phase function, $P_a(\mu_s, \mu_v, \phi)$, Table 1. Constants used in the atmospheric correction procedure (gaseous transmission) of the AVHRR channel 1 (equations (3)–(5)) (derived from Vermote et al. 1997a—6S model).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$i$</th>
<th>$a_i$</th>
<th>$b_i$</th>
<th>$c_i$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.08717736</td>
<td>1.036156088</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.00217670</td>
<td>0.551440000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>-0.0099062</td>
<td>0.004764100</td>
<td>-0.0059961</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
and the single-scattering albedo, \( \omega_s \), we can write:

\[
\rho_a(\mu_s, \mu_v, \phi) = \rho_r(\mu_s, \mu_v, \phi) + \frac{\omega_s \tau_a S(\mu_s, \mu_v, \phi)}{4\mu_s \mu_v}
\]

where \( \rho_a(\mu_s, \mu_v, \phi) \) is the path radiance due to molecular scattering, \( \mu_s \) and \( \mu_v \) the cosines of solar zenith angle and view angle respectively, and \( \phi \) the relative azimuth angle. In order to save computer resources but maintain a good accuracy, the Rayleigh reflectance, transmission and spherical albedo computation is based on analytical formulation developed by Vermote and Tanré (1992). This approach uses the quasi-isotropic behaviour of molecular scattering to develop an analytical expression of the atmospheric reflectance and uses a two-stream method corresponding to the Eddington approximation to describe the transmission function and compute the spherical albedo.

The total transmittance can be divided into a direct and a diffuse part such that:

\[
T(\mu_s) = e^{-\tau/\mu_s} + t_d(\mu_s)
\]

and likewise for \( T(\mu_v) \), where \( \tau \) is the total optical thickness and \( t_d \) the diffuse transmittance. The quantities \( \rho_a(\mu_s, \mu_v, \phi) \), \( t_d \) and \( S \) are functions of the optical thickness, single-scattering albedo, and phase function of the scatterers and absorbers in the atmosphere. They are provided by the use of an aerosol model. According to the geographical location of the BOREAS super-site we assigned the aerosol model to be a continental aerosol model (WCP112; World Meteorological Organization (WMO) 1986). It is worth pointing out that the use of such an aerosol model does not necessarily produce accurate representations of the aerosol size distribution or aerosol absorption, especially in the case of aerosols generated by forest fires.

As our algorithm is not appropriate to allow meaningful AOD retrievals in the Sun glint contaminated regions, measurement of radiances affected by Sun glint have been masked out. Namely, the normalized Sun glint radiance is computed based on the assumption that the wind-ruffled lake surface consists of a collection of individual facets obeying the slope statistics derived by Cox and Munk (1954). As an approximation, the normalized Sun glint radiance is computed with a further assumption that the wind-ruffled surface slope distribution is independent of the wind direction and by considering an invariant lake surface wind speed of 7.5 m s\(^{-1}\). A mask is applied to areas where normalized glint radiance is greater than a predetermined threshold (here taken to be 0.005) and the AOD retrieval algorithm is not applied.

Finally, since it is computationally prohibitive to run a radiative transfer model for every dark pixel in the image in order to compute \( \rho_a(\mu_s, \mu_v, \phi) \), \( t_d \) and \( S \), the AOD is retrieved using a look-up table (LUT) that relates a Lambertian surface reflectance to the recorded radiance as a function of the optical depth and the viewing and illumination geometry. The LUT computations were performed by running the 6S code (Vermote et al. 1997a) for 73 relative azimuth angles starting at 0° with a step of 2.5°, 22 solar and view zenith angles starting at 2.48° with a step of 3.71°, and 10 AOD values varying from 0.05 to 2. Similar LUTs are described in Fraser et al. (1992) who reported that errors in the derived surface reflectance resulting from interpolation between entries in the LUT are large only when either Sun angle or view angle are extreme (> 70°). Uncertainty caused by interpolation from the LUT was found to cause errors in the corrected reflectance of less than 0.005 for surface reflectance of 0.05. The Lambertian approximation error may be
the most important error in the atmospheric correction process. Nevertheless, Lee and Kaufman (1986) have shown that the error resulting from this approximation is small for dark surfaces used to derive the aerosol path radiance and optical depth. More specifically, these authors have shown that the error is small outside the backscattering direction (hotspot) and expected to be larger at short wavelengths and with increasing solar zenith angle.

4. Results

The algorithm was applied to NOAA-11 AVHRR data acquired from 24 May to 14 August 1994 over the Canadian BOREAS super-site. An evaluation of the resulting optical depths was undertaken by comparing them to ground measurements obtained by Cimel Sun photometers. Indeed, as illustrated in figures 3 and 4, five AEROCAN sites (the Canadian subnetwork of the federated Aerosol Robotic Network (AERONET)) are present in the BOREAS domain. Two of them are located in Saskatchewan, namely at Waskesiu and in the Southern Study Area (SSA_YJP_BOREAS) experiment site, the three other locations (Thompson, Flin-Flon and the Northern Study Area (NSA_YJP_BOREAS experiment site)) being in Manitoba. AEROCAN Sun photometer data are collected at these sites simultaneously with the satellite data.

It is worth pointing out that whereas AVHRR achieves a complete coverage of the BOREAS domain once a day, Sun photometer retrievals occur several times a day, but only over individual instrumented locations. AEROCAN AOD data are acquired at 15-min intervals. Therefore, it is necessary to compare spatially averaged AVHRR pixels with synchronous AEROCAN measurements for many reasons. First, the parameter value in an image pixel represents a spatial average over the pixel surface (an area of 1 km $\times$ 1 km for AVHRR-derived AOD), and cannot be justifiably equated with a point value measured with a Sun photometer. Secondly, even if the pixel is small enough to represent a point, it is extremely unlikely that it would represent the same conditions as a Sun photometer point data, since their observation axes are different and the atmosphere is constantly in motion. Again, clouds may obscure an AVHRR pixel directly over a Sun photometer site, but may not affect nearby pixels. In the same way, times of Sun photometer measurements seldom coincide exactly with AVHRR overpass times, the closest pair being often larger than 5 min apart. With cloud contamination and consequent data filtering, the shortest time difference can stretch even longer. Therefore, to validate our retrieval scheme, we have compared spatially averaged AOD values from AVHRR (the mean of maximum 100 AVHRR pixels in a square box of 10 km $\times$ 10 km centred over the Sun photometer sites) with the closest Sun photometer AOD measurements within $\pm$ 30 min of AVHRR overpasses. Finally, using the Angström coefficient computed from CIMEL measurements at 670 nm and 440 nm to describe the AOD spectral behaviour (see Bokoye et al. 2001), we derived CIMEL AOD values at 640 nm.

Comparisons of retrieved AVHRR channel 1 optical depth using a continental aerosol model versus the measured optical depth are provided in figure 1 and show good agreement. Also highlighted in this figure is a net overestimation which occurs in some retrieved AOD values with regard to ground measurements. For each of the four AOD overestimations identified in figure 1, we provide in figure 2 the full day Sun photometer records. Figure 2 shows that the satellite samplings occurred during time periods for which no Sun photometer measurements were reported due to a cloudy atmosphere above the AEROCAN sites. Figure 2(a) clearly indicates
that the overestimation in the retrieved AOD results from cloud contamination. Therefore it illustrates the failure of the cloud screening procedure based on brightness temperature thresholds (Derrien et al. 1993, Jones et al. 1996) applied during the data pre-processing in the detection of thin clouds.

Another difficulty which appears in addition to the cloud contamination when comparing the retrieved with the measured AOD value is the fact that, as in Vermote et al. (1997b), the AOD is retrieved from an averaged ‘dark target’ reflectance in channel 1 computed on a 10 km × 10 km area around the Sun photometer (note that Vermote et al. 1997b considered a 50 km × 50 km area around the Sun photometer). The averaged reflectance can therefore potentially be contaminated by undetected cloudy pixel(s) in the vicinity of the AEROCAN site while at the same time the sky was free of clouds above the CIMEL instrument. Such a possibility explains why the algorithm overestimated the AOD value reported in figure 2(d) while the gap between the satellite sampling and the closest Waskesiu ground measurement on 31 July was less than 5 min. Removing these four cloudy contaminated AOD values allows to increase the correlation coefficient between retrieved and measured AOD values up to 0.95 (RMSE = 0.058; note that prior to this correction, RMSE = 0.102).

On the other hand, the slight underestimation reported in figure 1 for the high AOD Thompson value illustrates the impact of an error on the aerosol model, i.e. by correcting with a continental model when the actual aerosol was smoke (biomass burning) since these models have different phase functions, single scattering albedos and spectral dependence of extinction coefficients. Indeed such an AOD value is clearly associated with the occurrence of a forest fire (Li et al. 2000, O’Neill et al. 2002); however, we have only considered a continental aerosol model when computing the path radiance, the spherical albedo and the diffuse transmittance. As an example, Fraser et al. (1992) reported that uncertainty in the input aerosol phase
function can cause uncertainty in the correction by as much as 0.02 in reflectance units for a surface reflection of 0.05. By contrast, uncertainty in the input aerosol single scattering parameter causes smaller uncertainties, less than 0.005 (Vermote and Vermeulen 1999).

Additional confidence in our AOD retrieval procedure relies on the continuity that appears between AOD values retrieved above the boreal forest and above the lake surfaces. Moreover, these AOD values are well in accordance with Li et al. (1996) and Loechel et al. (1997). Such a smooth transition in the AOD values retrieved above these two surface types is well illustrated in figure 3 where the AOD patterns retrieved above Lake Winnipeg (lower right part of the image) are well in agreement with the patterns retrieved above the neighbouring DDV surfaces. It is worth pointing out that while Soufflet et al. (1997) assumed a surface reflectance value of respectively 0.023 and 0.013 for dark surface pixels over land and lake in the AVHRR channel 1 to perform their inversion procedure, we assigned a reflectance value of 0.025 for the DDV surfaces and 0.015 for the lake surfaces in

Figure 2. Examples of problematic temporal mismatching when comparing aerosol optical depth from AVHRR channel 1 retrieval with Sun photometer data.
this channel. These two values give the best continuity between the AOD fields retrieved above DDV surfaces and lake surfaces, among the different surface reflectance values we have considered in the inversion scheme (namely 0.023, 0.025 and 0.028 for dark land, and 0.013 and 0.015 for water surface). In addition a surface reflectance value of 0.025 for the dark surface pixels over land in AVHRR channel 1 accounts for the better correlation coefficient when comparing the retrieved AOD values with the five AEROCAN Sun photometer data.

Two animations (available at ftp://gerb.oma.be/cedric/) provide the time evolution of the AOD derived from NOAA-11 AVHRR channel 1 reflectance data over the BOREAS domain from the end of May to mid-August 1994. The file ‘AOD-BOREAS94_B.gif’ displays the direct result of the AOD retrieval scheme on
a 10 km × 10 km resolution. Due to the sparse AOD data resolution, we get an additional file ‘AOD-BOREAS94_I.gif’ in which missing data were reconstructed using an interpolation method. The interpolation method we used relies on a cubic interpolation function requiring at least three retrieved AOD values and is performed inside an interpolation window of variable size centred on the mesh of the grid for which an AOD value has to be provided. When less than three retrieved AOD values are found in the interpolation window, no value is provided and the AOD is set to zero. These animations well indicate that the major source of AOD variability over the BOREAS domain is related to the occurrence of forest fires. As highlighted in figure 4, which provides a map of the averaged AOD from the end of May to mid-August 1994, these fires account for an AOD gradient over the BOREAS domain during the time period of investigation.

Figure 5 displays the AOD temporal evolution along the cross-section AB defined in figure 4 (from the lower left corner to the upper right corner). The white patterns in this figure essentially reflect the lack of AOD data due to a too sparse distribution of retrieved AOD values in the NOAA-11 AVHRR images. It is interesting to note that hotspot records (see table 2) performed on a 10-day composite basis from June to mid-August 1994 throughout Saskatchewan and Manitoba well agree with our AOD spatio-temporal characterization over the Canadian BOREAS domain. Table 2 indicates that from 1 June to 10 July, the total number of recorded hotspots in Manitoba was about twice the number recorded for Saskatchewan; parallel to that, figure 4 shows that on average the AOD was larger in Manitoba than in Saskatchewan. Finally, figure 5 indicates that, at least along the cross-section AB, the larger AOD values were found during the month of July in Manitoba as reported in the hotspot records in table 2.
Table 2. Hotspots for 10-day composite number from 1 June to 10 August 1994 recorded throughout Saskatchewan and Manitoba.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time periods (1994)</th>
<th>Saskatchewan</th>
<th>Manitoba</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1–10 June</td>
<td>432</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11–20 June</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21–30 June</td>
<td>1387</td>
<td>826</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1–10 July</td>
<td>945</td>
<td>1157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10–20 July</td>
<td>454</td>
<td>2043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21–31 July</td>
<td>585</td>
<td>1698</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1–10 August</td>
<td>783</td>
<td>3106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4620</td>
<td>9003</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Conclusions and perspective

In this paper we have investigated the potential of AVHRR data to characterize the spatial and temporal variation of aerosol optical depth at the regional scale (western Canada). The methodology used to retrieve aerosol optical depths was based on the dark target approach over dense vegetation and dark water scenes since this approach is, with certain constraints, sensitive to aerosols over dense boreal forest at red wavelengths. More specifically, we have shown that the detection of dark surface pixels as a basis for remote sensing of aerosol over land can benefit substantially from detection of dark pixels using their reflectivity signature in the AVHRR 3.75 μm channel. Applying the inversion algorithm to NOAA-11 AVHRR data acquired from 24 May to 14 August 1994 over the Canadian BOREAS super-site, we have shown that the major source of variability in the spatio-temporal distribution of the aerosol optical depth in the BOREAS domain during the time period of investigation was related to the occurrence of forest fires.

Comparison of the inversion results with ground data obtained from Sun photometers indicates a relatively good agreement between the retrieved and recorded aerosol optical depth values. This validation exercise has, however, highlighted two weakness in our retrieval procedure. The first is related to a thin cloud reflectance contamination. This drawback could be solved by performing an additional cloud screening before proceeding. The second source of error comes from the invariant use of a continental aerosol model which was made to compute the path radiance, the spherical albedo of the atmosphere, and the diffuse atmospheric transmittance. A way to remove this difficulty consists of the extension of our LUT to an additional aerosol model, namely a biomass burning aerosol model. The default will be to start the inversion procedure by considering the continental aerosol model and correct large retrieved aerosol optical depth values by performing an additional inversion which will then use the biomass burning aerosol model.

Finally, with these two adaptations we believe that applying our aerosol optical depth retrieval algorithm to the nearly 20 years’ records of AVHRR data could be very valuable to determine the aerosol optical depth spatio-temporal dynamics over western Canada. Such a detailed analysis of the spatial and temporal behaviour of AOD at the regional scale is very useful for climate studies and for transport model validation.
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