

**ON THE FEASIBILITY OF DYNAMIC MONITORING OF TEMPERATURE  
OF VEGETATIVE CANOPY BY NOAA AVHRR DATA**

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**SUMMARY:**

It is very significant to measure the temperature of vegetative canopy, because it is a key parameter to know the interaction between atmosphere, soil and vegetative canopy which is very useful for drought monitoring, crop yield estimation and so on: There are three basic difficulties to fulfill this task by infrared band data, the absorption of atmospheric water vapour, the different thermo-emissivity of different ground targets and the mixed pixel problem. Now, we offer a new method to realize this dynamic monitoring of canopy temperature by NOAA-AVHRR data. The error of measurement of canopy temperature may be within 1°k. The basic idea of this method is to suppose the vicinal pixels owning common physical conditions, such as vegetative canopy temperature, soil surface temperature, thermo-emissivity of soil, profiles of atmospheric parameters and so on, to eliminate the complex influence of soil background using the difference of vegetative coverage between two vicinal pixels which creates a favourable condition to cancel atmospheric effect by split window. This paper also shows that the 1% accuracy of calculation of vegetative coverage is needed if we hope the error of measurement of vegetative canopy temperature within 1°k. An initial result is given, it says it is feasible to measure canopy temperature by AVHRR data.

**KEY WORDS:** Feasibility, Monitoring, Vegetation, Canopy, Temperature, NOAA-AVHRR.

1. INTRODUCTION

The measurement of land surface temperature by infrared band data is more complicated than the measurement of sea surface temperature because of three main obstacles. They are mixed pixel problem, the complexity of land surface, namely the different ground target owning different emissivity and temperature, and the obvious difference between actual atmospheric conditions and standard atmospheric profile. It is very difficult to get parameter's profile of atmosphere in situ, so it is both complicated and almost impossible to correct atmospheric effect by theoretical calculation. That is the reason why after many years painstaking effort the problem of measurement of land surface temperature still wanders on the stage of feasibility study, but it is a very significant parameter which describes the interaction between earth surface and atmosphere, for example, if we can say the monitoring of drought which drives world attention today can be quantitatively monitoring by evapotranspiration model, then it is a key problem to measure temperature of vegetative canopy with high accuracy by remote sensing method. From the creation of this model almost two decades had passed, but till now it does not be used in operation manner, because the key problem have not been solved. Dr. Wan had analyzed the possibility to measure the temperature of snow surface, bare soil surface, vegetative canopy etc. by NOAA-AVHRR data. He also pointed out the error possibly within 1°k, but there are two problems, we have to point out here, the mixed pixel problem to be neglected by him and the inverse calculation only based on U.S. standard profile of atmosphere. Obviously, these two assumptions are far from reality. They had seriously damaged its value of application. The aim of this paper is to discuss the feasibility of measurement of canopy temperature without these two unreasonable preconditions. It is very difficult to generally discuss the measurement of land surface temperature, but if our attention to be focused on canopy temperature, it will be feasible.

The thermo-emissivity of single leaf reaches 0.98. Since the existence of 'cave effect', it seems that it is reasonable to suppose the thermo-emissivity of vegetative canopy equal to '1'. If we focus our attention to rural area, mixed pixel are consisted of soil background and vegetative canopy, therefore the radiance received by sensor aboard satellite is

$$L = [ L_b(T_v) a_v + L_b(T_s) (1-a_v) \xi_s ] t_o + \int_{t_o}^1 L_b(T(Z)) dt + (1-\xi_s) (1-a_v) t_o \int_{t_o}^1 \frac{L_b(T(Z))}{t} dt \dots\dots\dots (1)$$

where L is the radiance arrived at sensor aboard satellite,  $L_b$  represents Planck black body radiative formular,  $T_v$  and  $T_s$  represent physical temperature of vegetative canopy and soil respectively,  $a_v$  means the vegetative coverage in single pixel,  $0 \leq a_v \leq 1$ ,  $\xi_s$  is the thermo-emissivity of soil,  $t_o$  is the transmittance of whole atmosphere,  $t$  is the atmospheric transmittance from Z to up boundary of atmosphere,  $T(Z)$  and  $e(Z)$  means profile of atmospheric temperature and water vapour mass respectively.

We state the physical meaning of every term appeared on the right side of equation (1) as follows: The first term represents the radiance emitted by canopy and soil themselves attenuated by atmosphere at last reaching sensor aboard satellite. The second term means upward radiance of atmosphere. The downward radiance of atmosphere reflected by soil background then experienced atmospheric attenuation at last reaching sensor is calculated by third term.

If we are interested in drought monitoring of large area, namely the change with low spatial frequency, therefore we can assume two vicinal pixels owning the same values of  $T_v$ ,  $T_s$ ,  $\xi_s$ ,  $T(Z)$ ,  $e(Z)$  and so on.

"1" and "2" are two vicinal pixel.

$$\Delta L = \frac{L_b^2(1-a_v^1) - L_b^1(1-a_v^2)}{(a_v^2 - a_v^1)} = L_b(T_v) t + L_b(T(Z)) dt \dots\dots (2)$$

2. METHOD

2.1 Model

The number appeared on up right side represents the number of pixel.

Let  $L_b(T_b) = \Delta L$

That means using brightness temperature to express the radiance  $\Delta L$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Let } I &= L_b(T_v) - L_b(T_b) \\ &= L_b(T_v) - L_b(T_v) t_o - \int_{\tau_o}^1 L_b(T(Z)) dt \\ &= \int_{\tau_o}^1 [L_b(T_v) - L_b(T(Z))] dt \end{aligned}$$

We apply linear approximation condition, then

$$I = \int_{\tau_o}^1 \left( \frac{dL_b}{dT} \right)_{\tau_v} [T_v - T(Z)] dt$$

We have to point out that the difference of temperature between canopy and soil surface is obvious. The temperature of vegetative canopy varies around the air temperature of the same height, so the linear approximation between  $L_b(T_v)$  and  $L_b(T(Z))$  is acceptable.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Let } \Delta T &= T_v - T_b \\ &= \frac{I}{\left( \frac{dL_b}{dT} \right)_{\tau_v}} \\ &= \int_{\tau_o}^1 [T_v - T(Z)] dt \end{aligned}$$

The atmospheric attenuation of channel 4 and 5 mainly comes from absorption of water vapour. We adopt the approximation that the absorption coefficient of water vapour ( $K_\lambda$ ) is constant with height, then,

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta T &= T_v - T_b \\ &= K_\lambda \int_{\tau_o}^1 [T_v - T(Z)] dm_e \dots\dots\dots (3) \end{aligned}$$

$dm_e$  means the water vapour mass contained by layer of  $dZ$ .

The value of integration on right side of equation (3) is only the function of atmospheric condition and has nothing to do with band frequency chosen by us. Therefore

$$T_v = T_{b4} + \frac{K_4}{(K_5 - K_4)} [T_{b4} - T_{b5}] \dots\dots (4)$$

Where  $T_{b4}$  and  $T_{b5}$  are brightness temperature calculated by formula (2) corresponding to channel 4 and 5 respectively.

2.2 How to know the value of  $a_v$  ?

The key point of this model is that under the assumption of vicinal pixels taking the same physical conditions to eliminate complicated effect of soil background using the difference of vegetative coverage between two vicinal pixels, then to create the favourable condition for us to cancel effect of absorption of water vapour within channel 4 and 5 by " split window ". Obviously it is very critical to know the value of  $a_v$  for each pixel.

Fig.1 shows us the physical course of radiance of channel 1 and 2 to be received by sensor.

$$L = L_s + L_o + L_d \dots\dots\dots (5)$$

Where L: the radiance arriving at sensor aboard

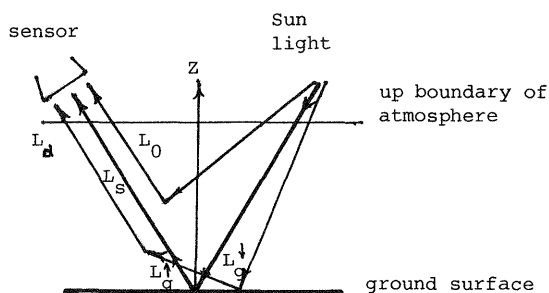


Fig. 1 The physical course of radiance of channel 1 and 2 received by sensor.

satellite.  
 $L_o$  : usually we call it path radiance.  
 $L_d$  : it represents diffuse radiance, since the low resolution the AVHRR has, we had proven that  $L_d / L$  is less than 8% and about 95% radiance of  $L_d / L$  comes from four successive pixels. Our results is coordinate with results given by some other authors.  
 $L_s$  : The radiance carries signal which we want. It is created by direct sun shine scattered or reflected by target and attenuated by atmosphere.

$$\begin{aligned} L_s &= L_g \uparrow t_o \uparrow \\ &= \rho L_g \uparrow t_o \uparrow \\ &= \rho \left( L_G t_o \downarrow + \frac{E}{\pi} \right) t_o \uparrow \end{aligned}$$

Where  $\rho$ : the bidirectional reflectance factor of ground target.  $E$ : the irradiance of sky light, under the assumption of Lambert body for target, then the radiance is equal to  $E/\pi$ . If the visibility of atmosphere is better than 23 KM, the experimental measurement and theoretical calculation show  $E/\pi$  is less than 2% of direct sun radiance ( $L_G t_o \downarrow$ ) for channel 1 and 2. We omitted  $E/\pi$  and the difference between  $t_o \uparrow$  and  $t_o \downarrow$

$$\begin{aligned} L &= \rho L_G t_o^2 + L_o + L_d \\ \rho &= (L - L_o - L_d) / L_G t_o^2 \dots\dots\dots (6) \end{aligned}$$

According to definition of Perpendicular Vegetation Index (PVI), we have

$$PVI = \rho_2 \cos \theta - \rho_1 \sin \theta \dots\dots\dots (7)$$

Where subscript 1 and 2 mean channel 1 and 2.  $\theta$  is the angle between soil line and coordinate of  $\rho_1$ . We had done field measurements of  $\rho_2$  and  $\rho_1$  for different type of soil, soil moisture level and surface roughness. The results are shown in Fig.2.

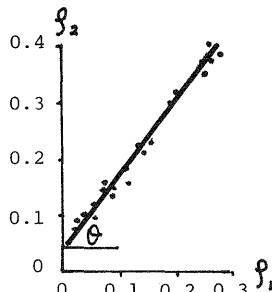


Fig. 2 The soil line

We substitute (6) into (7)

$$PVI = [(L_2 - L_{o2} - L_{s2}) / L_{G2} t_{o2}^2 \cos \theta] - [(L_1 - L_{o1} - L_{s1}) / L_{G1} t_{o1}^2 \sin \theta] \dots (8)$$

From another point of view of mixed pixel, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \rho_s &= a_v \rho_{2,v} + (1 - a_v) \rho_{2,s} \dots (9) \\ \rho_s &= a_v \rho_{1,v} + (1 - a_v) \rho_{1,s} \end{aligned}$$

To substitute (9) into (7)

$$PVI = a_v (\rho_{2,v} \cos \theta - \rho_{1,v} \sin \theta) + (1 - a_v) * (\rho_{2,s} \cos \theta - \rho_{1,s} \sin \theta) \dots (10)$$

We apply (8) and (10) to pixel 1 and 2 respectively,

$$a_v^2 - a_v^1 = [ \frac{\cos \theta}{L_{G2} t_{o2}} (L_2^2 - L_2^1) - \frac{\sin \theta}{L_{G1} t_{o1}} (L_1^2 - L_1^1) ] / (\rho_{2,v} \cos \theta - \rho_{1,v} \sin \theta) \dots (11)$$

Since  $L_o$  and  $L_d$  are almost the same for vicinal pixels, so they can be eliminated by subtract. We should point out here that because of large scale of pixel of AVHRR the value of  $(\rho_{2,s} \cos \theta - \rho_{1,s} \sin \theta)$  represents an average value of large area, it is allowable to let

$$\rho_{2,s} \cos \theta - \rho_{1,s} \sin \theta \doteq 0$$

$\rho_{2,v}$  and  $\rho_{1,v}$  can be measured in the field.

Albedo value  $L_2/L_{G2}$  and  $L_1/L_{G1}$  can be known from AVHRR data. The value of  $t_{o2}$  and  $t_{o1}$  can be calculated from visibility in situ. Therefore the value of right side of equation (11) are known. We use symbol  $m$  to represent it

$$a_v^2 - a_v^1 = m \dots (12)$$

From channel 3, we have

$$L_3 = [ L_{b3}(T_v) a_v + L_{b3}(T_s) (1 - a_v) \epsilon_s ] t_0 + \int_{\tau_3}^1 L_{b3}(T(Z)) dt_3 + (1 - \epsilon_s) (1 - a_v) t_{o3}^2 * \int_{\tau_3}^1 \frac{L_{b3}(T(Z))}{t_3^2} dt_3 + (1 - \epsilon_s) (1 - a_v) * \rho_3 L_{G3} t_{o3}^2 \dots (13)$$

The subscript 3 means channel 3. The fourth term on right side of equation (13) represents the contribution of direct sun radiance scattered or reflected by ground target. The meaning of other terms are similar with formular (2). We apply (13) to pixel 1 and 2, then

$$\Delta L_3 = \frac{L_3^2 (1 - a_v^1) - L_3^1 (1 - a_v^2)}{(a_v^2 - a_v^1)}$$

$$= L_{b3}(T_v) t_{o3} + \int_{\tau_3}^1 L_{b3}(t(Z)) dt \dots (14)$$

The atmospheric transmittance of channel 3 is much stable than channel 4 and 5. We had chosen two extreme atmospheric conditions from historical records, one represents cold and dry weather, another represents warm and humid day, the program LOWTRAN 7 was applied to calculate atmospheric transmittance. We found the difference of average transmittance of whole atmosphere between two extremes is  $\Delta t_{o3} = 11.8\%$ , but  $\Delta t_{o4} = 35.1\%$  and  $\Delta t_{o5} = 45.6\%$ .

The absorption of channel 3 is caused by water vapour ( $H_2O$ ), nitrogen ( $N_2$ ) and carbon-dioxygen ( $CO_2$ ). The changes of transmittance with season of  $N_2$  and  $CO_2$  are very small about  $10^{-3}$  to  $10^{-4}$  for every layer. Five layers model adopted by us (0-2 KM, 2-4 KM, 4-7 KM, 7-10 KM, 10- KM). There are two parts for water vapour absorption, one is called continuative absorption which is almost constant with frequency, the other is called line-shape absorption which owns obvious characteristics of selective absorption with frequency. Anyway, since the change of channel 3 is stable, if we know  $T(Z)$  and  $e(Z)$  by radio sound or by TOVS data in situ the linear approximation can be adopted instead of rigorous calculation by LOWTRAN 7. In our experiments the relative error are not larger than 5%.

As for value of  $L_{b3}(T_v) t_{o3}$ , The problem is  $T_v$  unknown, but  $T_v$  is very near  $T_a$ , if we use  $T_a$  instead of  $T_v$  no serious error will be caused. Up to now the right side of formular (14) can be known. We use  $n$  to represent it.

$$\frac{L_3^2 (1 - a_v^1) - L_3^1 (1 - a_v^2)}{(a_v^2 - a_v^1)} = n \dots (15)$$

We can use formular (12) combined with formular (15) to know  $a_v^1$  and  $a_v^2$ .

### 2.3 The requirement of accuracy of $a_v$

It is an essential step to know the value of  $a_v$  with high accuracy, otherwise it is impossible to eliminate complex influence of soil by formular (2). In fact, it is also impossible to calculate  $a_v$  without error by channel 1,2 and 3 data. Therefore it is an important question how does the error of  $T_v$  can be caused by error of  $a_v$ ?

In another words, if the error of  $T_v$  within  $1^\circ K$  to be required, then what kind accuracy of  $a_v$  should be satisfied? That means we have to know

$$\frac{dT_v}{da_v} = ?$$

Based on formular (4)

$$\frac{dT_v}{da_v} = \frac{dT_{b4}}{da_v} + \left( \frac{K_4}{K_5 - K_4} \right) \left[ \frac{dT_{b4}}{da_v} - \frac{dT_{b5}}{da_v} \right] \dots (16)$$

because  $\frac{dT_{b4}}{da_v}$  is almost equal to  $\frac{dT_{b5}}{da_v}$ , therefore

$$\frac{dT_{b4}}{da_v} \text{ is a decisive factor for } \frac{dT_v}{da_v}.$$

The relationship between  $T_b$  and  $a_v$  can be described by a complex function.

$$\frac{dT_b}{da_v} = \frac{dT_b}{d(\Delta L)} \frac{d(\Delta L)}{da_v} \dots\dots\dots(17)$$

If the amount  $da_v$  appeared in denominator term on right side of (17) can be interpreted as an error of calculation of  $a_v$  then we can explain the amount  $d(\Delta L)$  appeared in the numerator on right side of (17) the error of  $\Delta L$  caused by error of  $a_v$ .

If we use asterisk (\*) to represent the amount with error and use  $\Delta a_v$  to express the average square root value of error of  $a_v$

$$a_v^* = a_v + \Delta a_v$$

$$L^* = \frac{L^2(1 - a_v^{1*}) - L^1(1 - a_v^{2*})}{(a_v^{2*} - a_v^{1*})}$$

its true value is

$$L = \frac{L^2(1 - a_v^1) - L^1(1 - a_v^2)}{(a_v^2 - a_v^1)}$$

its absolute error is

$$\delta_a = |L^* - L|$$

according to the theory of error analysis, its relative error can be expressed by

$$\delta_r = \frac{a}{|\Delta L^*|} = \frac{2L \Delta a}{2L + 2L|\Delta a_v|} + \frac{2\Delta a_v}{2|a_v|}$$

$$= \Delta a_v \left( \frac{1}{1 + a_v} + \frac{1}{a_v} \right) \dots\dots\dots(18)$$

for error analysis we take  $L^2 = L^1$ ,  $\Delta a_v^2 = \Delta a_v^1$ ,  $a_v^2 = a_v^1$ .

The relationship between  $T_b$  and  $\Delta L$  can be described by Planck black body radiance law.

$$\frac{d(\Delta L)}{dT_b} = \Delta L \frac{hc}{K\lambda} \frac{1}{T_b^2}$$

$$\frac{d(\Delta L)}{\Delta L} = \frac{hc}{K\lambda} \frac{1}{T_b^2} dT_b \dots\dots\dots(19)$$

In fact  $\frac{d(\Delta L)}{\Delta L}$  appeared in the left side of (19)

means relative error  $\delta_r$ .

$$\Delta a_v = \frac{hc}{K\lambda} \frac{1}{T_b^2} \frac{(1 + a_v) a_v}{(1 + 2 a_v)} \Delta T_b \dots\dots\dots(20)$$

Where ,

$h$  : Planck constant  $6.63 \times 10^{-34}$  Js,

$C$  : the velocity of light  $3 \times 10^8$  m/s,

$K$  : the Boltzmann's constant  $1.38 \times 10^{-23}$  J/K

$\lambda$  : the wave length, we take  $11 \times 10^{-6}$  m,

$T_b = 300^\circ K$ ,  $T_b = 1^\circ K$ ,  $a_v = 1$ ,

then  $\Delta a_v = 0.01$

That means if  $\Delta T_b \dot{=} 1^\circ k$  to be required therefore the error of  $a_v$  should be within 1%. That is a tough task, but it is still possible, for this, a simulating calculation had been carried out. We suppose the difference of temperature between soil and canopy is larger than  $15^\circ K$ ,  $t_{03} = 0.8$ , the results show that 1% change of  $a_v$  may produce  $0.00185 \text{ mw/m}^2 \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{ sr}$ .

For channel 3 of NOAA-AVHRR 11 one grey level means

$$0.0015 \text{ mw/m}^2 \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{ sr}.$$

As for channel 1 and 2, the difference of reflectance between soil and vegetation is more than 10% for red band, it is more than 15% for near infrared band, so the 1% change of  $a_v$  will produce 0.1% change of albedo of channel 1 and 0.15% change of albedo of channel 2.

One grey level of channel 1 and 2 of NOAA-AVHRR 11 represent 0.095% and 0.090% change of albedo respectively.

We concluded that it is still possible to detect 1% change of  $a_v$  by channel 1, 2 and 3 data.

### 3. THE INITIAL EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS AND ITS ANALYSIS

It is very difficult to check our results directly, because it is impossible to measure average vegetative canopy temperature in the field with size corresponding to a pixel of AVHRR image. Then an indirect way to be chosen, a small county to be singled out, since the area is not so large we can suppose the wind speed near ground surface is almost the same for all pixels, the air temperature is the same too, then  $T_v - T_a$  is the best factor to express Canopy Water Stress Index (CWSI).

Fig.3 shows us the results of our calculation of  $T_v - T_a$  from AVHRR data. The blue colour (cold colour) corresponds the largest positive value of  $T_v - T_a$  which means the most dry area, the red colour (warm colour) represents the largest negative value of  $T_v - T_a$  which means less water stress. From cold to warm colour the water stress could be gra-

dually eased. We got this AVHRR image in March 15, 1988. We also got a TM image of this area of March 20, 1988. The third component of Kauth-Thomas transform can be used to express wetness of soil and vegetation.

$$W = 0.2249 TM_2 + 0.4036 TM_3 + 0.2518 TM_4 - 0.7013 TM_5 - 0.4573 TM_7 \dots\dots\dots (21)$$

The most value of W are negative. We use red color to represent the largest negative value which means no water stress. We use blue colour to symbolize positive value of W which means the largest water stress. Fig. 4 shows the results of TM for the same area with AVHRR image. Although it is very difficult to calculate the correlation coefficient exactly because of the large difference of pixel size, but the initial statistical results show the correlation coefficient  $r$  between two images is about 0.72.

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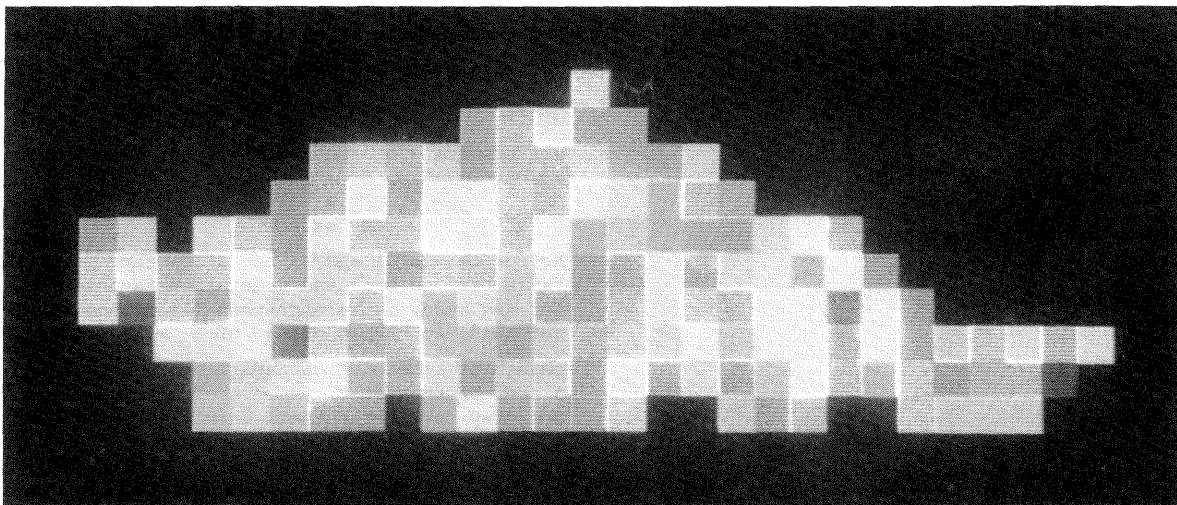


Fig. 3 The distribution map of the value of  $T_v - T_a$ .

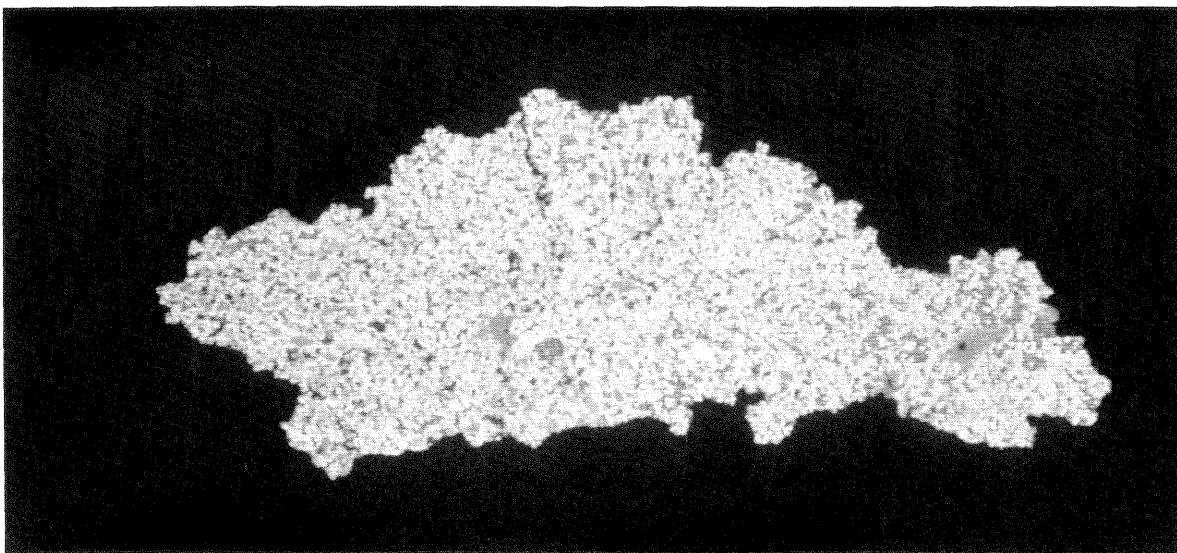


Fig. 4 The distribution map of the value of third component of K-T transform W.