

# Top of the Atmosphere Reflected Shortwave Radiative Fluxes from GOES-R

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**Abstract.** Under the GOES-R activity, new algorithms are being developed at the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA)/Center for Satellite Applications and Research (STAR) to derive surface and Top of the Atmosphere (TOA) shortwave (SW) radiative fluxes from the Advanced Baseline Imager (ABI), the primary instrument on GOES-R. This paper describes a support effort in the development and evaluation of the ABI instrument capabilities to derive such fluxes. Specifically, scene dependent narrow-to-broadband (NTB) transformations are developed to facilitate the use of observations from ABI at the TOA. Simulations of NTB transformations have been performed with MODTRAN4.3 using an updated selection of atmospheric profiles and implemented with the final ABI specifications. These are combined with Angular Distribution Models (ADMs), which are a synergy of ADMs from the Clouds and the Earth's Radiant Energy System (CERES) and from simulations. Surface condition at the scale of the ABI products as needed to compute the TOA radiative fluxes come from the International Geosphere-Biosphere Programme (IGBP). Land classification at 1/6 ° resolution for 18 surface types are converted to the ABI 2-km grid over the (CONTiguous States of the United States) (CONUS) and subsequently re-grouped to 12 IGBP types to match the classification of the CERES ADMs. In the simulations, default information on aerosols and clouds is based on the ones used in MODTRAN.

27 Comparison of derived fluxes at the TOA is made with those from CERES and the level of agreement  
28 for both clear and cloudy conditions is documented. Possible reasons for differences are discussed. The  
29 product is archived and can be downloaded from the NOAA Comprehensive Large Array-data  
30 Stewardship System (CLASS).

31

## 32 **Introduction**

33

34 One of the objectives at NOAA/STAR in respect to the utilization of observations from the Advanced  
35 Baseline Imager (ABI) is to be able to derive shortwave ( $SW\downarrow$ ) radiative fluxes at the surface. To get to  
36 the surface  $SW\downarrow$  from TOA satellite observations, there are two generic approaches: 1) the direct approach  
37 and 2) the indirect approach. In the direct approach one uses all the necessary information needed for  
38 deriving the surface fluxes (some of which can be derived from satellites). Implementation of such an  
39 approach is feasible, for instance, with observations from MODIS which has a long history of product  
40 availability and evaluation. Examples are illustrated in Wang and Pinker (2009), Niu and Pinker, (2015),  
41 Ma et al. (2016), Pinker et al. (2018), Pinker et al., (2017a), Pinker et al. (2017b). GOES-R is a new  
42 instrument and as yet, similar information to the one from MODIS is not available. Therefore, the indirect  
43 approach is used where one starts from satellite observations at the TOA and models the atmosphere and  
44 surface with best available information (which does not have to be based on ABI). Examples of such an  
45 approach are discussed in Pinker, Zhang and Dutton (2005), Ma and Pinker (2012) and Zhang et al.  
46 (2019). The “indirect path method” is used at the Center for Satellite Applications and Research (STAR)  
47 (Laszlo et al., 2020) for deriving  $SW\downarrow$  radiative fluxes from satellite observations; it requires knowledge  
48 of the SW broadband (0.2 – 4.0  $\mu\text{m}$ ) top of the atmosphere (TOA) albedo. The Advanced Baseline Imager  
49 (ABI) observations onboard of the NOAA GOES-R series of satellites provide reflectance in six narrow  
50 bands in the shortwave spectrum (**Table 1**); these must be first transformed into broadband reflectance  
51 (the NTB conversion), and the broadband reflectance must be transformed into a broadband albedo (the  
52 ADM conversion). During the pre-launch activity NTB transformations were developed based on  
53 theoretical radiative transfer simulations with MODTRAN-3.7 and 14 land use classifications from the

54 International Geosphere-Biosphere Programme (*IGBP*) (Hansen et al., 2010). They were augmented with  
55 ADMs from (CERES) observed ADMs (Loeb et al., 2003) and theoretical simulations (Niu and Pinker,  
56 2011) to compute TOA fluxes. The resulting NTB transformations and ADMs have been tested using  
57 proxy data and simulated ABI data. The proxy instruments used in these early simulations include the  
58 GOES-8 satellite, the Advanced Very-High Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR) sensor on the Polar  
59 Orbiting satellites, the Spinning Enhanced Visible Infra-Red Imager (SEVIRI) sensor on the European  
60 METEOSAT Second Generation (MSG) satellites, and the Moderate Resolution Imaging  
61 Spectroradiometer (MODIS) instrument on the NASA Terra and Aqua Polar Orbiting satellites (Pinker  
62 et al., 2021, unpublished). For each of these satellites, the evaluation of the methodologies was done  
63 differently; some results were evaluated against ground observations while others, against TOA  
64 information from CERES as well as from the (ESA) Geostationary Earth Radiation Budget (GERB)  
65 satellite (Harries et al., 2005). The results obtained provided an insight on the expected performance of  
66 the new ABI sensor. Those procedures have been subsequently updated and applied to the new ABI  
67 instrument once it was built and fully characterized.

68 This is a first paper that describes the development of a methodology to derive TOA SW fluxes from the  
69 Advanced Baseline Imager onboard the NOAA GOES-R series of geostationary satellites that are used at  
70 NOAA STAR as a starting point for deriving surface SW<sub>↓</sub> fluxes. Evaluation of the methodology against  
71 best available estimates of TOA fluxes was also done. The TOA reflected SW flux is produced at NOAA  
72 together with the surface SW<sub>↓</sub> flux and is archived at the NOAA Comprehensive Large Array-data  
73 Stewardship System (CLASS) at [avl.class.noaa.gov](http://avl.class.noaa.gov). While the TOA reflected SW flux is a product on its  
74 own right, it is also a prerequisite to deriving the SW<sub>↓</sub> surface flux; as such, versions for TOA and surface  
75 have the same labeling. The methodology will be presented in section 2, data used are described in section  
76 3, results in section 4 and a summary and discussion in section 5.

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## 81 2. Methodology

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83 The following two flowcharts (**Figs. 1 and 2**) describe the necessary steps to derive the NTB  
84 transformations and the ADMs. Details on these two steps will follow.

85 The TOA narrowband and broadband reflectance can be calculated from the spectral radiances  
86 simulated from MODTRAN 4.3 and the response functions of the satellite sensor as shown in equations  
87 (1) and (2):

$$88 \quad \rho_{nb}(\theta_0, \theta, \phi) = \frac{\pi \int_{\lambda_1}^{\lambda_2} I(\lambda, \theta_0, \theta, \phi) G(\lambda) d\lambda}{\int_{\lambda_1}^{\lambda_2} \cos(\theta_0) S_0(\lambda) G(\lambda) d\lambda} \quad (1)$$

$$89 \quad \rho_{bb}(\theta_0, \theta, \phi) = \frac{\pi \int_{0.2\mu m}^{4\mu m} I(\lambda, \theta_0, \theta, \phi) d\lambda}{\int_{0.2\mu m}^{4\mu m} \cos(\theta_0) S_0(\lambda) d\lambda} \quad (2)$$

90

91 Where:

92  $\rho_{nb}$  : is narrowband reflectance;

93  $\rho_{bb}$  : is broadband reflectance;

94  $\theta_0$  : solar zenith angle;

95  $\theta$  : view (satellite) zenith angle;  $\phi$  : relative azimuth angle;

96  $I_\lambda$  : reflected spectral radiance;  $S_0(\lambda)$  : solar spectral irradiance;

97  $G_\lambda$  : spectral response functions of satellite sensors;  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  are the spectral limits of the sensor spectral

98 band. This approach is widely used in the scientific community as also implemented in the work of Loeb

99 et al (2005), Wielicki et al. (2008), Su et al. (2015) and Akkermans et al. (2020).

100 As stated previously, the ADMs from CERES-based observations (Loeb et al., 2005; Kato et al. 2015)  
 101 were augmented with theoretical simulations (Niu and Pinker, 2011) to compute TOA fluxes. This was  
 102 done since CERES observations at that time were under-sampled at higher latitudes.  
 103 The combined ADMs are developed for each angular bin by weighting the modeled and CERES ADMs  
 104 based on the number of samples used to derive the ADMs of each type (Niu et al., 2011). Specifically:

$$\bar{R}(\theta_0, \theta, \phi) = \frac{1}{m+n} (m \times R_{CERES}(\theta_0, \theta, \phi) + n \times R_s(\theta_0, \theta, \phi)) \quad (3)$$

106  $\bar{R}(\theta_0, \theta, \phi)$ : averaged ADMs at each angular bin;

107  $R_{CERES}$ : anisotropic factor from CERES ADMs;

108  $R_s$ : anisotropic factor from simulated ADMs;

109  $m$  and  $n$ : observation numbers at angular bins for CERES and simulated ADMs.

110

## 111 **2.1 Selection of Atmospheric profiles for simulations**

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113 We have selected 100 atmospheric profiles covering the globe and the seasons as input for simulations  
 114 with MODTRAN4.3. The atmospheric profiles at each pressure level include temperature, water vapor  
 115 and ozone. Each season includes 25 profiles. A tool was developed to select profiles from a Training Data  
 116 set known as SeeBor Version 5.0 ([https://cimss.ssec.wisc.edu/training\\_data/](https://cimss.ssec.wisc.edu/training_data/)) (Borbas et.al. 2005).  
 117 Originally it consisted of 15704 global profiles of temperature, moisture, and ozone at 101 pressure levels  
 118 for clear sky conditions. The profiles are taken from NOAA-88, and the European Centre for Medium-  
 119 Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) 60L training set, TIGR-3, ozone-sondes from 8 NOAA Climate  
 120 Monitoring and Diagnostics Laboratory (CMDL) sites, and radiosondes from the Sahara Desert during  
 121 2004. A technique to extend the temperature, moisture, and ozone profiles above the level of existing data

122 was also implemented by the providers (University of Wisconsin-Madison, Space Science and  
123 Engineering Center, Cooperative Institute for Meteorological Satellite Studies (CIMSS). **Fig. 3** shows the  
124 location of the selected profiles.

125 The SeeBor profiles are clear sky profiles. The top of the profiles is at 0.005 mb which is about 82.6 km.  
126 We did an experiment to check the impact of reducing the number of levels for a profile (initially, we  
127 have used only 40 levels). In the experiment computed were radiances from profiles with 50 levels as  
128 well as radiances from profiles with 98 Levels. The difference between the two radiances (50 lev-98 lev)  
129 were below 5 % reaching 15 % around 2.5  $\mu\text{m}$ . In the experiment we used the odd number levels starting  
130 from surface (plus the highest level) to reduce the number of profile levels. Based on these experiments  
131 we have opted to keep all 98 profile levels.

132 The surface variables we have used are from MODIS and include surface skin temperature, 2 m  
133 temperature, land/sea mask, and albedo. We have conducted a thorough investigation how the selected  
134 profiles represent the entire sample of 15704 profiles. An example showing the comparison of  
135 temperature, humidity and ozone profiles is shown in **Fig. 4**. As seen, there is a positive bias in the selected  
136 profile of temperature due to their higher concentration at the lower latitudes. A positive bias can be found  
137 at the lower levels while a negative bias is seen above 1 mb. Since our domain of study is in such latitudes  
138 this selection should not have adverse effects on the simulations performed.

139

## 140 **2.2 Surface conditions**

141

142 Surface condition is one of the primary inputs into the MODTRAN simulations. The International  
143 Geosphere-Biosphere Programme (IGBP) land classification is used as a source (Hansen et al., 2010;  
144 Loveland et al., 2010). The dataset is at 1/6-degree resolution and includes 18 surface types. We have  
145 converted the 1/6 $^\circ$  (~18.5 km) resolution to the ABI 2-km grid using the nearest grid method (**Fig. 5**). The  
146 surface type is fixed in time. The method for cloudy sky uses 4 surface types; these are also derived from  
147 12 IGBP types (**Table 2**).

148

## 149 2.3 Clear and cloudy sky simulations

150

151 Under clear sky, scattering from aerosols is important. We have included 6 aerosol types (**Table 3**) to  
152 cover a range of possible conditions under clear sky. Aerosol models are selected based on the type of  
153 extinction and a default meteorological range for the boundary-layer aerosol models as listed below:

154 Aerosol Type 1: Rural extinction, visibility = 23 km

155 Aerosol Type 4: Maritime extinction, visibility = 23 km

156 Aerosol Type 5: Urban extinction, visibility = 5 km

157 Aerosol Type 6: Tropospheric extinction, visibility = 50 km

158 Aerosol Type 8: Advective Fog extinction, visibility = 0.2 km

159 Aerosol Type 10: Desert extinction for default wind conditions

160 For the 6 aerosol types, the total number of MODTRAN simulations for each surface type is 462,000. It  
161 is obtained as follows: 6 aerosol types x 100 profiles x 770 angles.

162 When performing NTB simulations, we use all 6 types of aerosols. The Rural, Ocean, Urban and Fog  
163 aerosols are distributed in the lower 0-2 km region. Tropospheric aerosol is distributed from 0 to 10 km  
164 tropopause. The Rural, Ocean, Urban and Tropospheric aerosol optical properties have Relative Humidity  
165 (RH) dependency. The Single Scattering Albedo (SSA) is given on 4 RH grids (0, 70, 80, 99) on a spectral  
166 grid of 788 points ranging from 0.2 to 300 microns.

167 Simulations were performed for ABI for all the cloud cases described in **Table 3**. To merge cloud layers  
168 with atmospheric profiles we have followed the procedure as described in *Berk et al.* (1985, 1998),  
169 namely: “Cloud profiles are merged with the other atmospheric profiles (pressure, temperature, molecular  
170 constituent, and aerosol) by combining and/or adding new layer boundaries. Any cloud layer boundary  
171 within half a meter of an atmospheric boundary layer is translated to make the layer altitudes coincide;  
172 new atmospheric layer boundaries are defined to accommodate the additional cloud layer boundaries.”  
173 100% relative humidity is assumed within the cloud layers (default).

174

175

## 176 **2.4 Selection of angles**

177

178 The total number of angles used in the simulations is given in **Table 4**. The selected spectral grids for  
179 solar zenith angles, satellite view angles and relative azimuth angles are at Gaussian quadrature points,  
180 plus  $0^\circ$  to solar zenith angles (sza) and satellite viewing angles (vza) and  $0^\circ$  and  $180^\circ$  (forward and  
181 backward view) to the satellite relative azimuth angles. Solar angle and satellite view angle are referenced  
182 to target or surface for satellite simulation with  $0^\circ$  meaning looking up (zenith). Relative azimuth angle is  
183 defined as when the relative azimuth angle equals  $180^\circ$ , the sun is in front of observer.

184 The definitions of solar zenith angle and azimuth angle in this table corresponds to the definitions of  
185 MODTRAN but that is not the case for the satellite zenith angle. MODTRAN uses nadir angle as  $180^\circ$ -  
186 satellite zenith angle, ignoring spherical geometry.

187

## 188 **2.5 Selection of optimal computational scheme**

189

190 MODTRAN4.3 provides three multiple scattering models (Isaacs, DISORT, and Scaled Isaacs) and three  
191 band models at resolutions ( $1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , and  $15 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ). The DISORT model (Stamnes et al., 1988)  
192 provides the most accurate radiance simulations but the runs are very time consuming. The Isaacs (Isaacs  
193 et al. 1987) 2-stream algorithm is fast but oversimplified. The Scaled Isaacs method performs radiance  
194 calculations using Isaacs 2-stream model over full spectral range and using DISORT model at a small  
195 number of atmospheric window wavelengths. The multiple scattering contributions for each method are  
196 identified and ratios of the DISORT and Isaacs methods are computed. This ratio is interpolated over the  
197 full wavelength range, and finally, applied as a multiple scattering scale factor in a spectral radiance  
198 calculation performed with the Isaacs method.

199 To optimize simulation speed and accuracy, we performed various sensitivity tests, including  
200 combinations of multiple scattering models, band resolution, and number of streams. **Table 5** lists  
201 simulation options and their corresponding calculation speed.



202 Based on results presented in **Table 5**, the efficient options (< 40 seconds) are Isaacs, DISORT 2-stream  
203 with  $15 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , DISORT 4-stream  $15 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , and Scaled Isaacs all streams at all resolutions. Although the  
204 ideal option is DISORT 8-stream with  $1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  resolution, there is a trade-off between speed and accuracy.  
205 **Fig. 6** compares DISORT simulated radiances at three band resolutions. We use two spectral ranges of  
206  $0.4 - 0.5 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$  and  $1.5 - 2.0 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$  to illustrate differences. **Fig. 6** shows that the coarser band resolution has  
207 smoothed out the radiance variations. The  $15 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  has the smoothest curve among the three, and  $1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$   
208 shows more variations than the other two. Another (scientific) criteria for selecting the spectral resolution  
209 is the ability to resolve/match the relative spectral response function (SRF) of a sensor. For example, the  
210 SRFs of channels 1-6 of ABI are given at every  $1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ .

211 Accordingly, we have chosen the  $1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  band model for the MODTRAN radiance simulations. Performed  
212 were also radiance simulations from different multiple scattering models at  $1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  resolution. The whole  
213 spectrum of  $0.2 - 4 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$  was separated to 14 sections so that the differences can be assessed clearly. For  
214 wavelength below  $0.3 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$  and beyond  $2.5 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$  no discernible differences were found among Isaacs, DISORT  
215 2-, 4-, and 8-stream, and Scaled Isaac. The largest differences occurred in the spectral range of  $0.4 - 1.0$   
216  $\mu\text{m}$ . Scaled Isaac 8-stream follows DISORT 8-stream closely across the whole spectral range; the Scaled  
217 Isaac method provided near-DISORT accuracy with the speed of Isaacs. Thus, the MODTRAN4.3  
218 simulations for GOES-R ABI were set-up with Scaled Isaac 8-stream with  $1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  band resolution.

219 For illustration, in **Fig. 7** compared are radiances simulated by Isaac 2 stream, Scaled Isaac, and DISORT-  
220 4 stream for the case of Relative Azimuthal Angle= $1.9^\circ$ , View Angle= $76.3^\circ$ , Solar Zenith Angle= $87.2^\circ$ .  
221 The lines are differences between various settings and DISORT-8 stream (e.g. Isaacs minus DISORT-8).  
222 Isaac has the least accuracy since it is oversimplified, 4-stream showed some improvements when  
223 compared with Isaac while still has large differences for  $0.4 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$  and is still computationally demanding.  
224 Scaled Isaac provides the smallest differences between DISORT-8. **Fig. 7** (lower) zoomed in to the large  
225 difference area of  $0.3-0.35 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$  which indicates that Scaled Isaacs still provides satisfactory results.

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227  
228

## 2.6 Regression methodologies

We have derived coefficients of regression using a constrained least-square curve fitting methods of Matlab, “lsqnonneg”, which can solve a linear or nonlinear least-squares (data-fitting) problem and produce non-negative coefficients. Non-negative coefficients avoid generating negative TOA flux, which is not a physically valid.

To ensure that information from all channels is used and avoid the complex cross-correlation problem, it was opted to generate Narrow to Broad (NTB) coefficients for each ABI channel separately. These channel specific NTB coefficients are applied to each channel to convert ABI narrow-band reflectance to extended band. The final broad-band TOA reflectance is taken as the weighted sum of all 6-channel specific broad-band reflectance. The logic behind this approach is the assumption that the narrow-band reflectance from each channel is a good representative for a limited spectral region centered around the channel and the total spectral reflectance is dominated by the spectral region that contains the most solar energy.

To generate “separate-channel” NTB coefficients, each narrow-band ABI channel reflectance is converted to a reflectance  $\rho_{bb,i}$  separately,

$$\rho_{bb,i}(\theta_0, \theta, \phi) = c_{0,i}(\theta_0, \theta, \phi) + c_{1,i}(\theta_0, \theta, \phi) * \rho_{nb,i}(\theta_0, \theta, \phi) \quad (4)$$

where  $\rho_{bb,i}$  is the band reflectance for an interval around each channel  $i$ ;  $c_{0,i}$  and  $c_{1,i}$  are regression coefficients for channel  $i$ . These regression coefficients are derived separately for various combination of surface, cloud and aerosol types. The total shortwave broad band (0.25 – 4.0 $\mu$ m) reflectance  $\rho_{bb}^{est}$  is obtained by taking the weighted sum of all 6  $\rho_{bb,i}$  reflectance

$$\rho_{bb}^{est}(\theta_0, \theta, \phi) = \sum_i \rho_{bb,i}(\theta_0, \theta, \phi) \frac{S_{0,i}}{S_0} \quad (5)$$

Here,  $S_0$  and  $S_{0,i}$  are total solar irradiance and band solar irradiance for each channel, respectively. Band edges around the six ABI channels are: 49980-18723, 18723-13185, 13185-9221, 9221-6812, 6812-5292, 2500  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  0.2001-0.5341, 0.5341-0.7584, 0.7584-1.0845, 1.0845-1.4680, 1.4680-1.8896, 1.8896-4.0000  $\mu$ m). The corresponding solar irradiance band values are 364, 360, 287, 168, 91, 87

255  $W m^{-2}$ . **Fig. 8** shows the sensor response function (SRF) and locations of the six ABI channels.  
256 Coefficients are generated for clear condition and 3 types of cloudy conditions. Comparison between ABI  
257 TOA flux and CERES products are shown in **Fig. 9**. The “separate-channel” coefficients work well for  
258 predominantly clear sky (**Fig.10**). Differences are somewhat more scattered for cloudy cases. The reason  
259 may be due to the fact that the ABI observation time and CERES product time do not match perfectly  
260 since cloud condition change quickly. As discussed in Gristey et al. (2019) there are SW spectral  
261 reflectance variations for different cloud types. Possibly, for ABI bands some spectral variations  
262 associated with cloud variability are missed. It is important to have the correct cloud properties to be able  
263 to select correct ADM. Misclassification of cloud properties will therefore result in flux differences. They  
264 also argue that ADMs have an uncertainty due to within-scene variability and within-angular bin  
265 variability leading to additional flux differences.

266

### 267 **3. Data used**

268

#### 269 **3.1 Satellite data for GOES-16 and GOES-17**

270

271 The Advanced Baseline Imager (ABI) data used (Table 6) were downloaded from the NOAA  
272 Comprehensive Large Array-Data Stewardship System (CLASS) at  
273 <https://www.avl.class.noaa.gov/saa/products/welcome>. Both level 1b (L1b) and level 2 (L2) data were  
274 used. These can be found by searching the CLASS site by selecting "GOES-R Series ABI Products  
275 GRABIPRD (partially restricted L1b and L2+ Data Products)". The L1b data included the radiances  
276 (RadC) in files “OR\_ABI-L1b-RadC-MmCnn\_G1SS\_stime\_etime\_ctime, where “m”, “nn” and “SS”  
277 indicate the ABI scan mode, channel number (01-06) and satellite identification number (16 or 17),  
278 respectively. “stime”, and “etime” are the start and end dates and times of the scan, “ctime” is the date  
279 and time the file was created. The ABI L2 product used were the clear-sky mask, cloud top phase, cloud  
280 optical depth. The names of these files are constructed similarly to the L1b radiance files, except that the  
281 radiance product name RadC is replaced by APMC, ACTPC, CODC and AODC, respectively, and the

282 reference to the channel number is omitted. For example, GOES-16 with ABI operating in scan mode 6  
283 in the CONUS domain, the name of the clear-sky mask file is OR\_ABI-L2-ACMC-M6\_G16\_  
284 stime\_etime\_ctime. (In the product names above the letter C indicates the CONUS domain.)

285 The clear-sky mask product consists of a binary cloud mask identifying pixels as clear, probably clear,  
286 cloudy or probably cloudy. The cloud top phase product provides cloud classification identification  
287 information for each pixel. The cloud phase categories are clear sky, liquid water, super cooled liquid  
288 water, mixed phase, ice, and unknown. The cloud optical depth product gives the optical thickness along  
289 an atmospheric column for each pixel. All products have a nominal sub-satellite spatial resolution of 2  
290 km.

291

292 When searching the NOAA CLASS site, go to "GOES-R Series ABI Products GRABIPRD (partially  
293 restricted L1b and L2+ Data Products)". The SRF are downloaded from  
294 <https://ncc.nesdis.noaa.gov/GOESR/ABI.php>.

295

### 296 **3.2 Reference data from CERES**

297

298 The CERES Single Scanner Footprint (SSF) is a unique product for studying the role of clouds, aerosols,  
299 and radiation in climate. Each CERES footprint (nadir resolution 20-km equivalent diameter) on the SSF  
300 includes reflected shortwave (SW), emitted longwave (LW) and window (WN) radiances and top-of-  
301 atmosphere (TOA) fluxes from CERES with temporally and spatially coincident imager-based radiances,  
302 cloud properties, and aerosols, and meteorological information from a fixed 4-dimensional analysis  
303 provided by the Global Modeling and Assimilation Office (GMAO). Each file in this data product  
304 contains one hour of full and partial-Earth view measurements or footprints at a surface reference level.  
305 Detailed information can be found via <https://ceres.larc.nasa.gov/data/#ssf-level-2> (we used version 4a)  
306 Near real-time CERES fluxes and clouds in the SSF format are available within about a week of  
307 observation (Kratz et al., 2014). They do not use the most recent CERES instrument calibration and thus

308 contains some uncertainty. Before GOES data were transferred to the Comprehensive Large Array-data  
309 Stewardship System (CLASS) system, the NOAA/STAR archive was holding new data for about a week.  
310 Therefore, the initial evaluations had to be done only with data that overlapped in time. The CERES data  
311 known as the FLASHFlux Level2 (FLASH\_SSF) are available almost in real time from:

312 <https://ceres.larc.nasa.gov/products.php?product=FLASHFlux-Level2> (we used version 3c).

313 Due to such constraints the early comparison was done between ABI data as archived at NOAA/STAR  
314 and the FLASHFlux products (in this paper, the FLASHFlux data were used only in Fig. 9). The archiving  
315 of GOES-R at the NOAA Comprehensive Large Array-data Stewardship System (CLASS) started only  
316 in 2019, however, it contains data starting from 2017. Once the CLASS archive became available, we  
317 have augmented GOES-16 cases with observations from GOES-17; only those cases will be shown in this  
318 paper.

319

### 320 **3.3 Data preparation**

321

322 For the re-mapping, we adopted the ESMF re-gridding package. The detailed information can be found  
323 at: <http://earthsystemmodeling.org/regrid/>

324 For an ideal situation, the ABI high-resolution TOA SW fluxes should be mapped into the CERES  
325 footprint for validation. However, there are reasons that make it difficult to do so. There can be more than  
326 18000 pixels in a single swath of the SSF, when constrained to U.S. Different pixels have different times.  
327 Neglecting the seconds, there are still more than 30 mins differences (this changes case by case) between

328 the first pixel and the one at the end and this brings up a time matching issue. By remapping the SSF to  
329 ABI, we can set up a unique time for ABI (ABI is at 5 min intervals) and then constrain the region and  
330 the time range of SSF.

331 Both re-mapping the ABI to SSF and remapping SSF to the ABI bring up spatial matching errors as  
332 recognized by the scientific community (Rilee and Kuo, 2018; Ragulapati et al., 2021). In **Fig. 11**, we  
333 show the SSF before re-gridding (**Figs 11 (a) & (b)**) and after re-gridding (**Figs. 11 (c) and (d)**). The  
334 fluxes after re-mapping CERES SSF to the ABI resolution resemble well the original structure. Another  
335 consideration is the computational efficiency of re-mapping the curvilinear tripolar grid to unconstructed  
336 grid. For large arrays, it is more efficient to remap the unconstructed grid to the curvilinear tripolar grid.

337

## 338 **4. Results**

339

### 340 **4.1 Comparison between ABI TOA fluxes to those from CERES SSF**

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342 A case for 2019/12/26 (doy 360) UTC 19:36 is illustrated in **Figs. 11-14**. Statistical summaries from an  
343 extended number of cases that cover all four seasons are presented in **Table 7**.

344 We have conducted several experiments to select an appropriate regression approach to the NTB  
345 transformation ensuring that non-physical results are not encountered. Based on the samples used in this  
346 study (**Table 7**) the differences found for Terra and GOES-16 were in the range of -0.5-(-17.37) for bias  
347 and 43.28-81.72 for standard deviation; for Terra and GOES-17 they were 11.26-47.09 and 70.25-108.73,  
348 respectively. For Aqua and GOES-16 they were 7.63-33.87 and 58.68-117.43 respectively while for Aqua  
349 and GOES-17 they were 0.19-31.53 and 47.55-129.42, respectively (all units are  $W m^{-2}$ ). The evaluation  
350 process revealed the challenges in undertaking such comparisons. Both estimates of TOA fluxes (CERES

351 and GOES) do no account for seasonality in the land use classification; the time matching for the different  
352 satellites is important and limits the number of samples that can be used in the comparison. Based on the  
353 results of this study recommendation for future work include the need to incorporate seasonality in land  
354 use and spectral characteristic of the various surface types. Possible stratification by season in the  
355 regressions could also be explored.

356

## 357 **4.2 Causes for differences between ABI and CERES TOA fluxes**

358

### 359 **4.2.1 Differences in surface spectral reflectance**

360

361 In the MODTRAN simulations we use the spectral reflectance information on various surface types as  
362 provided by MODTRAN. MODTRAN version 4.3.1 contains a collection of spectral surface reflectance  
363 dataset from the Moderate Spectral Atmospheric Radiance and Transmittance (MOSART) model  
364 (Cornette et al., 1994) and others from Johns Hopkins University Spectral Library (Baldrige et al., 2009).  
365 When doing simulation, we call the built-in surface types and use the provided surface reflectance. As  
366 such, the spectral dependence of the surface reflectance used in the simulations and matched to the  
367 CERES surface types may not be compatible with the classification of CERES. Also, seasonal changes  
368 in surface type classification can introduce errors due to changes in the spectral surface reflectance for  
369 different surface types (**Fig. 15**).

370

### 371 **4.2.2 Issues related to surface classification**

372

373 Another possible cause for differences between the TOA fluxes is the classification of surface types as  
374 originally identified by the IGBP and used in the simulations. No seasonality is incorporated in the surface  
375 type classification while such variability is part of the CERES observations.

376

377

### 4.2.3 Issues related to match-up between GOES-R and CERES

Both Terra and Aqua have sun-synchronous, near-polar circular orbits. Terra is timed to cross the equator from north to south (descending node) at approximately 10:30 am local time. Aqua is timed to cross the equator from south to north (ascending node) at approximately 1:30 pm local time. The periods for Terra and Aqua are 99 and 98 minutes, respectively. Both have 16 orbits per day. CERES on Terra and Aqua optical FOV at nadir is 16 x 32 or 20 km resolution. Terra passes CONUS during 03-06 UTC (US night time), 16-20 UTC (US day time), and Aqua passes CONUS during 07-11 UTC (US night time), 18-22 UTC (US day time).

Both Terra and Aqua have an instantaneous FOV values at SWATH level. There is no perfect overlap, temporally or spatially with ABI data. The ABI radiance and cloud data are on a regular grid of 2\*2 km over CONUS at each hour. To use CERES data for evaluation of ABI, there is a need to perform collocation in both time and space.

## 5. Summary

The derivation and evaluation of TOA radiative fluxes as simulated for any given instrument are quite challenging. In principle, there is a need to account for all possible changes in the atmospheric and surface conditions one may encounter in the future. Yet, to know what these conditions are at the time of actual observation when there is a need to select the appropriate combination of variables from the simulations, is a formidable task. Differences in assumed cloud properties can also lead to differences in the fluxes derived from the two instruments. Therefore, error can be expected due to discrepancies between the actual conditions and the selected simulations and these are difficult to estimate. The approach we have selected is based on high-quality simulations using a proven and accepted radiative transfer code (MODTRAN) of known configurations and a wide range of atmospheric conditions. We have also selected the best available estimates of TOA radiative fluxes from independent sources for evaluation. However, the matching between different satellites in space and time is challenging. In selecting the cases



405 for evaluation, we have adhered to strict criteria of time and space coincidence as described in section  
406 3.3.

407 Critical elements of an inference scheme for TOA radiative flux estimates from satellite observations are:  
408 1) transformation of narrowband quantities into broadband ones;  
409 2) transformation of bi-directional reflectance into albedo by applying Angular Distribution Models  
410 (ADMs). In principle, the order in which these transformations are executed is arbitrary. However, since  
411 well established, observation-based broadband ADMs derived from the Clouds and the Earth's Radiant  
412 Energy System (CERES) project already exist, the logical procedure is to do the NTB transformation on  
413 the radiances first, and then apply the ADM. This is the sequence that has been followed here. While the  
414 road map to accomplish above objectives seems well defined, reaching the final goal of having a stable  
415 up-to-date procedure for deriving TOA radiative fluxes from a new instrument like the ABI on the new  
416 generation of GOES satellites is quite complicated. Since the final configuration of the instrument  
417 becomes known at a much later stages the evaluation of new algorithms is in a fluid stage for a long time  
418 so early evaluation against "ground truth" needs to be repeated frequently. Additional complication is  
419 related to the lack of maturity of basic information needed in the implementation process, such as a  
420 reliable cloud screened product which in itself is in a process of development and modifications. The  
421 "ground truth", namely, the CERES observations are also undergoing adjustments and recalibration. As  
422 such, the process of deriving best possible estimates of TOA radiative fluxes from ABI underwent  
423 numerous iterations to reach its current status. An effort was made to deal the best way possible with the  
424 fluid situation. All the evaluations against CERES were repeated once the ABI data reached stability and  
425 were archived in CLASS and we used the most recent auxiliary information. This study sets the stage for  
426 future possible improvements. One example is land classification which currently is static. Another issue  
427 is related to the representation of real time aerosol optical properties which are important under clear sky  
428 conditions. It is believed that only now when NOAA/STAR has a stable aerosol retrieval algorithm, it  
429 would be timely to address the aerosol issue in the estimation of TOA fluxes under clear sky.

430 Data availability. The data are available upon request from the corresponding author.

431 Author contributions. The investigation and conceptualization were carried out by RTP, IL and JD. YM  
432 and WC developed the software. RTP prepared the original draft. All authors contributed to the writing,  
433 editing and review of the publication.

434 Competing interests. The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

435 Disclaimer. Publisher's note: Copernicus Publications remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims  
436 in published maps and institutional affiliations.

437 Acknowledgements. We acknowledge the benefit from the use of the numerous data sources used in this  
438 study. These include the Clouds and the Earth's Radiant Energy System (CERES) teams, the Fast  
439 Longwave and Shortwave Radiative Flux (FLASHFlux) teams, the  
440 University of Wisconsin-Madison, Space Science and Engineering Center, Cooperative Institute for  
441 Meteorological Satellite Studies (CIMSS) for providing the SeaWiFS Version 5.0 data  
442 ([https://cimss.ssec.wisc.edu/training\\_data/](https://cimss.ssec.wisc.edu/training_data/)), and the final versions of the GOES Imager data were  
443 downloaded from <https://www.bou.class.noaa.gov/>. Several individuals have been involved in the early  
444 stages of the project whose contribution led to the refinements of the methodologies. These include M.  
445 M. Wonsick and Shuyan Liu. We thank the anonymous Reviewers for a very thorough and constructive  
446 comments that helped to improve the manuscript. We thank the Editor Sebastian Schmidt for overseeing  
447 the disposition of the manuscript.  
448

449 Financial support. This research was supported by NOAA/NESDIS GOES-R Program under grants  
450 5275562 1RPRP\_DASR and 275562 RPRP\_DASR\_20 to the University of Maryland.

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## Tables

Table 1. Channel information and spectral bands for ABI.

<i>ABI Band #</i>	<i>Central wavelength ( <math>\mu m</math> )</i>	<i>Spectral band ( <math>\mu m</math> )</i>
1	VIS 0.47	0.45-0.49
2	VIS 0.64	0.60-0.68
3	NIR 0.86	0.847-0.882
4	NIR 1.38	1.366-1.380
5	NIR 1.61	1.59-1.63
6	NIR 2.26	2.22-2.27

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571 Table 2. Surface classification description for IGBP 18 types, IGBP 12 types, CERES clear sky 6 types,  
 572 and NTB cloudy sky 4 types

IGBP (18 types)	IGBP (12 types)	CERES clear-sky (6 types)	NTB cloudy-sky (4 types)
Evergreen Needleleaf	Needleleaf Forest	Mod-High Tree/Shrub	Land
Deciduous Needleleaf			
Evergreen Broadleaf	Broadleaf Forest		
Deciduous Broadleaf			
Mixed Forest	Mixed Forest		
Closed Shrublands	Closed Shrub		
Woody Savannas	Woody Savannas		
Savannas	Savannas		
Grasslands	Grasslands		
Permanent Wetlands			
Tundra			
Croplands		Croplands	
Open Shrublands	Open Shrub		
Urban and Built-up	Open Shrub	Dark Desert	Desert
Bare Soil and Rocks	Barren and Desert	Bright Desert	
Snow and Ice	Snow and Ice	Snow and Ice	Snow and Ice
Water Bodies	Ocean	Ocean	Water

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577 Table 3. The various classes for which NTB coefficients are generated.

Parameter	Clear condition	Cloudy condition
Aerosol or cloud type	6 aerosol types (rural, maritime, urban, tropospheric, fog, desert)	3 cloud types (cirrus, stratocumulus, altostratus)
Optical depth (OD)	Typical VIS (km) values for each aerosol types (no OD grid for each aerosol type). Rural: 23, maritime: 23, urban: 5, tropospheric: 50, fog: 0.2, desert: (default VIS for wind speed 10m/s)	Cirrus: [0, 0.8, 1.2, 1.8, 3.2] Stratocumulus: [0, 0.8, 1.2, 1.8, 3.2, 5.8, 8.2, 15.8, 32.2, 51.8, 124.2] Altostratus: [0, 15.0, 30.0, 50.0, 80.0]
Surface type	12 IGBP surface types	4 types (Water, Land, Desert, Snow/Ice)

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582 Table 4. Angles used in simulations. To be consistent with what is presented in the

583 ABI Shortwave Radiation Budget (SRB) Algorithm Theoretical Basis Documents (ATBD) (Laszlo

584 et al, 2018) the additional angles used in the simulations are not given in this Table.

Angle Type	Angles
Solar Zenith Angle [°]	0.0, 12.9, 30.8, 41.2, 48.3, 56.5, 63.2, 69.5, 75.5, 81.4, 87.2
Satellite Zenith Angle [°]	0.0, 11.4, 26.1, 40.3, 53.8, 65.9, 76.3
Azimuth Angle [°]	0.0, 1.9, 10.0, 24.2, 44.0, 68.8, 97.6, 129.3, 162.9, 180

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Table 5. MODTRAN simulation speed test (CPU MHz 2099.929).

Algorithm	Stream	Band Resolution (cm <sup>-1</sup> )	Speed (~seconds)
Isaacs	2	1	40
DISORT	2	1, 5, 15	280, 70, 30
	4	1, 5, 15	560, 120, 40
	8	1, 5, 15	930, 300, 110
Scaled Isaac	2	1, 5, 15	30, 10, 6.67
	4	1, 5, 15	30, 10, 6.67
	8	1, 5, 15	30, 10, 6.67

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594 Table 6. Details on data used as input for calculations.

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Short Name	Long Name	MODE	ABI-Channel	Scan Sector	Spatial Resolution
RadC	L1b Radiance	M6	C01-C06	CONUS	5000x3000
AODC	L2 Aerosol	M6	--	CONUS	2500x1500
ACMC	L2 Clear Sky Masks	M6	--	CONUS	2500x1500
ACTPC	L2 Cloud Top Phase	M6	--	CONUS	2500x1500
CODC*	L2 Cloud Optical Depth	M6	--	CONUS	2500x1500

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597 \*The CODC data were not always available from CLASS and had to be obtained from NOAA/STAR  
598 temporary archives. Also, not all the required angular information needed for implementation of the  
599 regressions is available online and had to be re-generated.

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602 Table 7. Statistical summary for all selected cases inter-compared at instantaneous time scale.

Case	CERES	GOES-R	Corr	Bias	Std	RMSE	N
07/31 2019	Terra	G16	0.82	0.81	69.81	69.81	0.22 x10 <sup>6</sup>
		G17	0.87	29.13	90.10	94.70	1.78 x10 <sup>6</sup>
UTC 19	Aqua	G16	0.76	33.87	117.43	122.22	1.58 x10 <sup>6</sup>
		G17	0.78	31.53	129.42	133.21	0.29 x10 <sup>6</sup>
09/13 2019	Terra	G16	0.87	-17.37	81.72	83.54	0.13x10 <sup>6</sup>
		G17	0.71	47.09	108.73	118.48	1.73x10 <sup>6</sup>
UTC 20	Aqua	G16	0.76	18.22	108.50	110.02	1.46x10 <sup>6</sup>
		G17	0.73	25.14	81.95	85.72	0.53x10 <sup>6</sup>
09/21 2019	Terra	G16	0.85	6.78	66.66	67.00	0.35x10 <sup>6</sup>
		G17	0.83	26.41	87.64	91.57	1.75x10 <sup>6</sup>
UTC 19	Aqua	G16	0.82	29.66	105.09	109.20	1.67x10 <sup>6</sup>
		G17	0.76	6.03	94.70	94.89	0.15x10 <sup>6</sup>
09/30 2019	Terra	G16	0.88	4.49	64.79	64.94	0.40x10 <sup>6</sup>
		G17	0.80	19.35	86.41	88.55	1.74x10 <sup>6</sup>
UTC 19	Aqua	G16	0.80	19.87	100.45	102.40	1.69x10 <sup>6</sup>
		G17	0.72	2.71	91.79	91.83	0.12x10 <sup>6</sup>
	Terra	G16	0.86	5.84	51.44	51.77	0.35x10 <sup>6</sup>

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10/23		G17	0.87	22.47	70.25	73.76	1.75x10 <sup>6</sup>
2019		G16	0.89	17.10	75.95	77.85	1.67x10 <sup>6</sup>
UTC	Aqua	G17	0.78	8.98	72.52	73.07	0.15x10 <sup>6</sup>
19		G16	0.87	-0.50	43.28	43.28	0.35x10 <sup>6</sup>
11/08	Terra	G17	0.82	17.18	71.27	73.31	1.75x10 <sup>6</sup>
2019		G16	0.90	10.08	71.27	71.98	1.67x10 <sup>6</sup>
UTC	Aqua	G17	0.68	1.53	47.55	47.58	0.15x10 <sup>6</sup>
19		G16	0.79	7.98	49.10	49.75	0.35x10 <sup>6</sup>
11/24	Terra	G17	0.87	14.10	78.35	79.61	1.76x10 <sup>6</sup>
2019		G16	0.82	7.63	58.68	59.17	1.67x10 <sup>6</sup>
UTC	Aqua	G17	0.65	0.19	63.14	63.14	0.15x10 <sup>6</sup>
19		G16	0.88	5.24	53.28	53.54	0.35x10 <sup>6</sup>
12/26	Terra	G17	0.76	11.26	73.95	74.80	1.76x10 <sup>6</sup>
2019		G16	0.83	9.79	58.90	59.56	1.67x10 <sup>6</sup>
UTC 19	Aqua	G17	0.73	0.85	52.53	52.54	0.15x10 <sup>6</sup>

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612 List of Figures

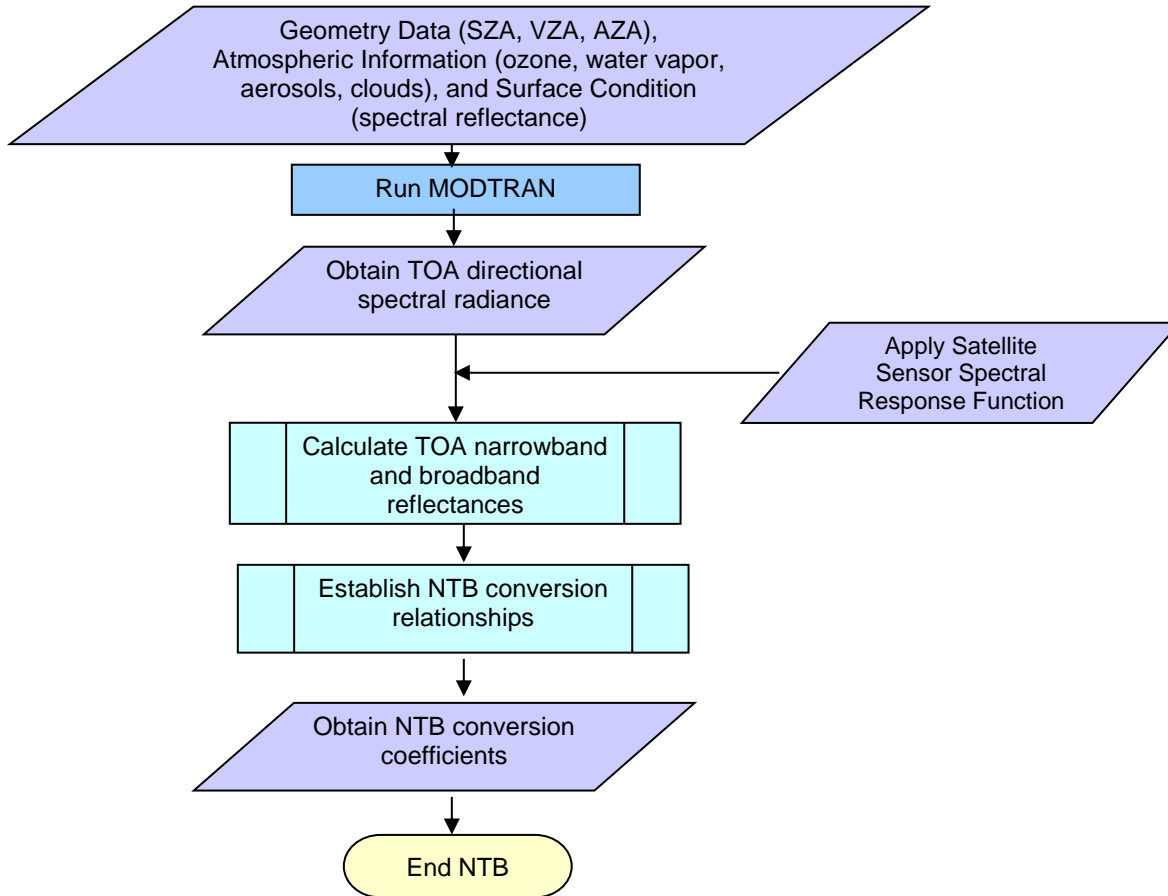
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- 614 Figure 2. Schematic illustration of the logic employed to synthesize modeled and observed ADMs.
- 615 Figure 3. The location of the 100 selected clear sky profiles from SeeBor used in the simulations.
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- 624 Figure 8. Locations of the six ABI channel SRFs. X-axis is wavenumber. Y-axis is solar irradiance.
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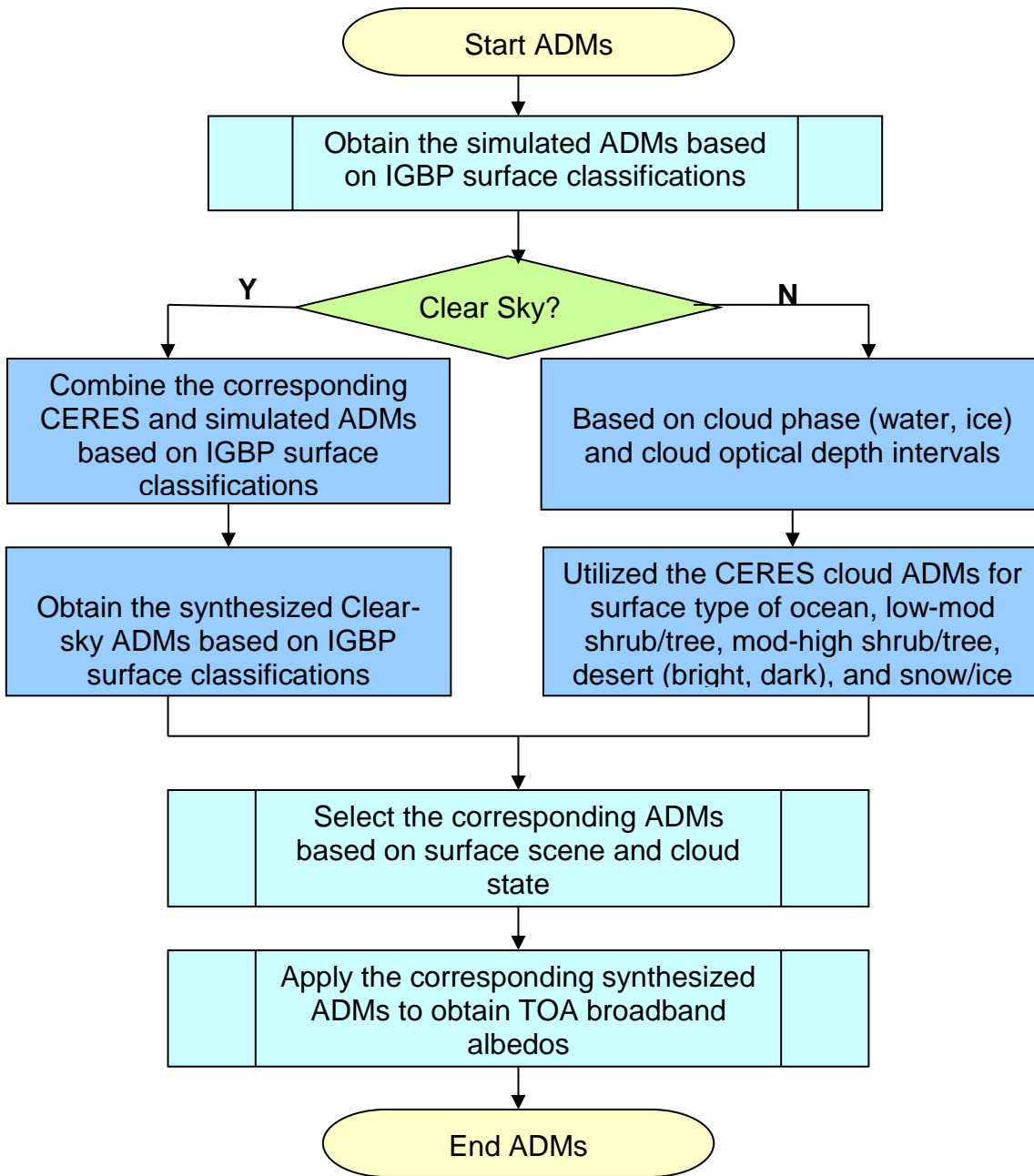
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## Figures



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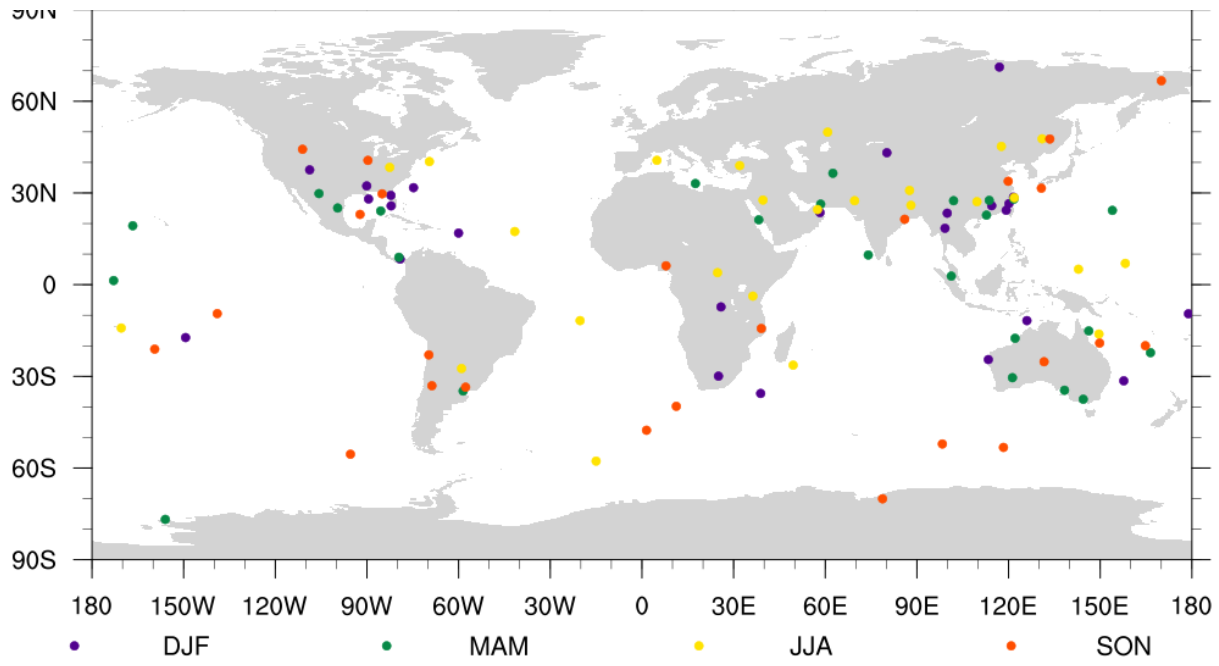
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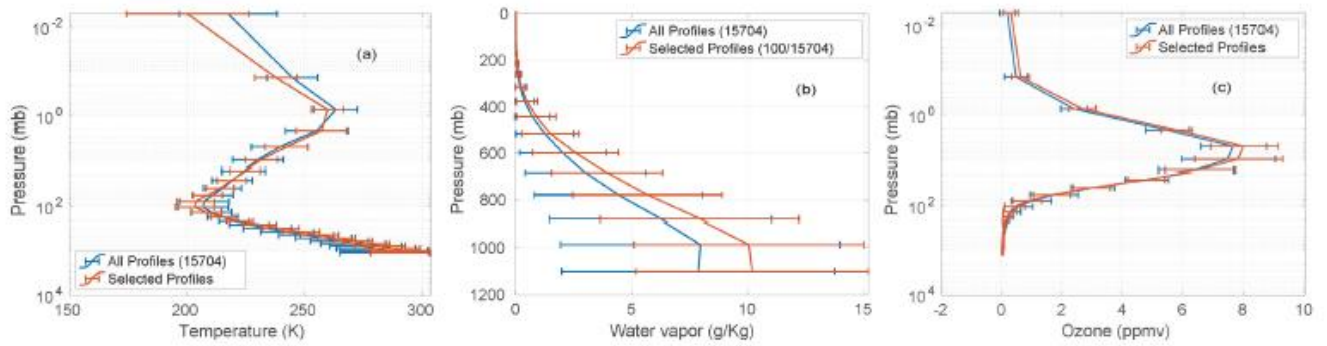
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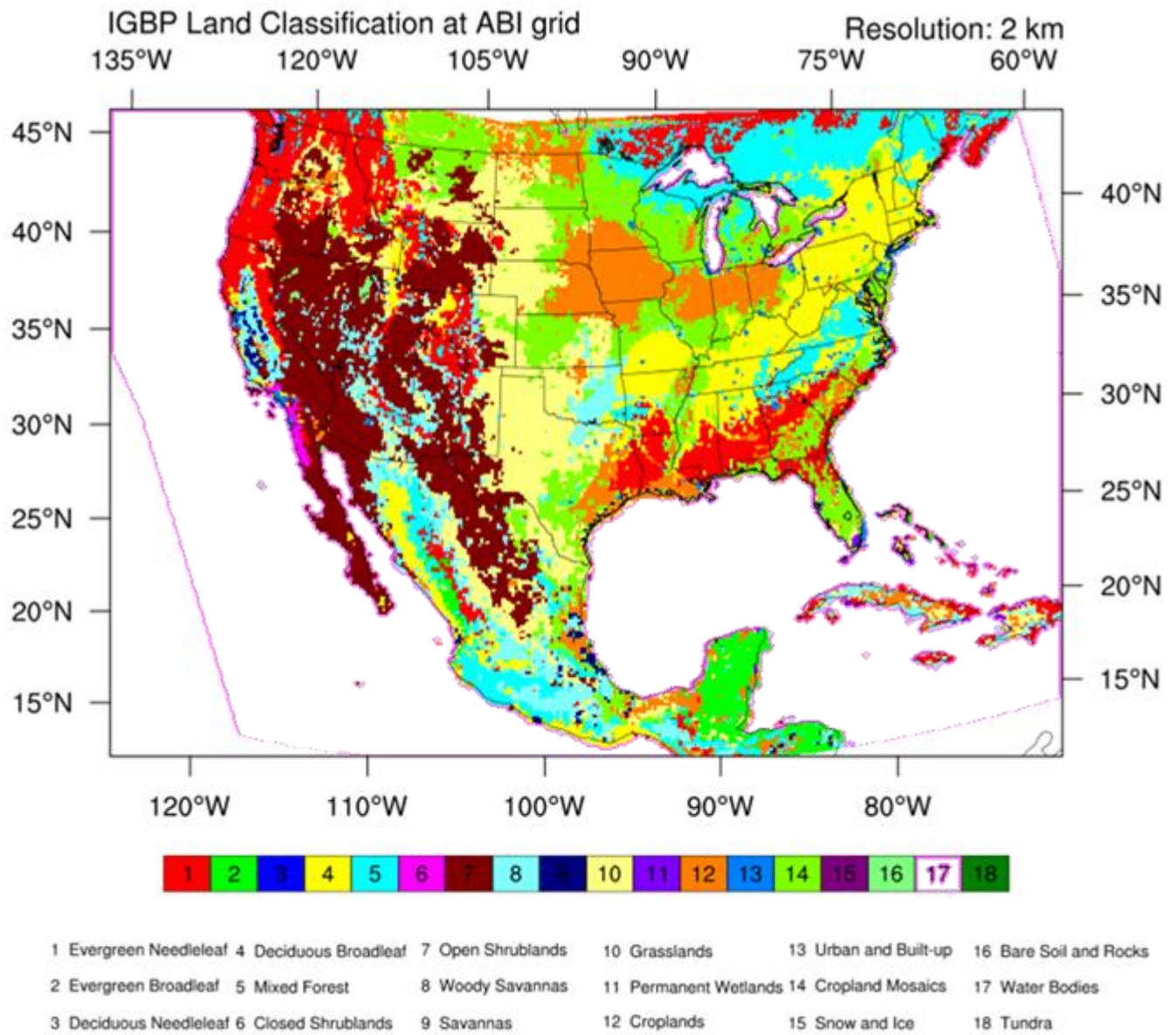


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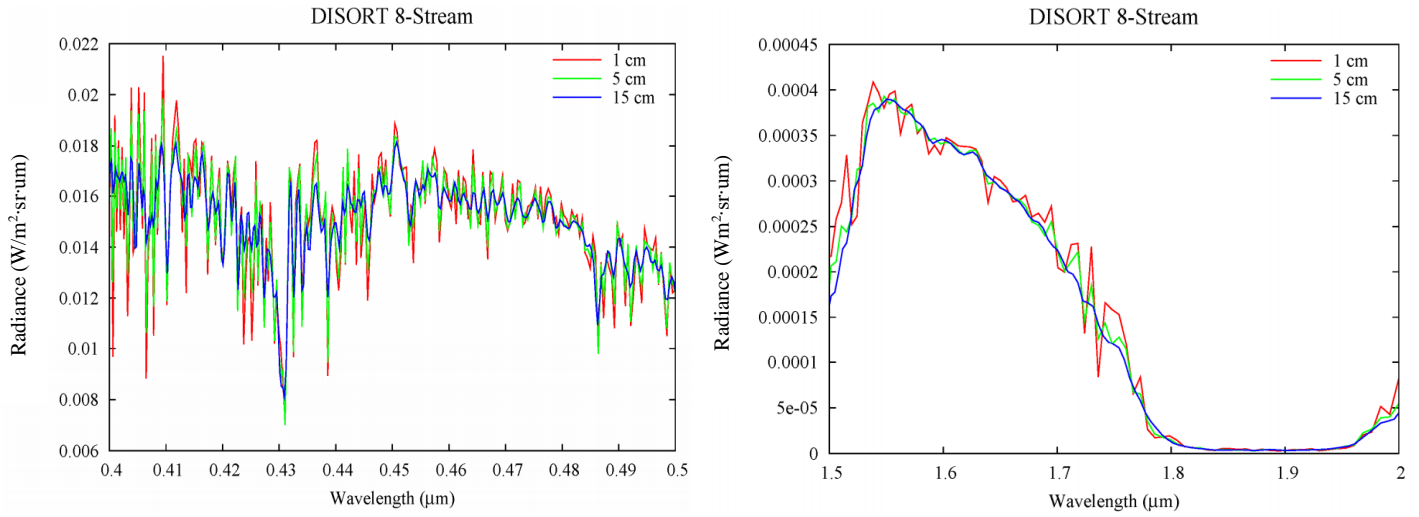
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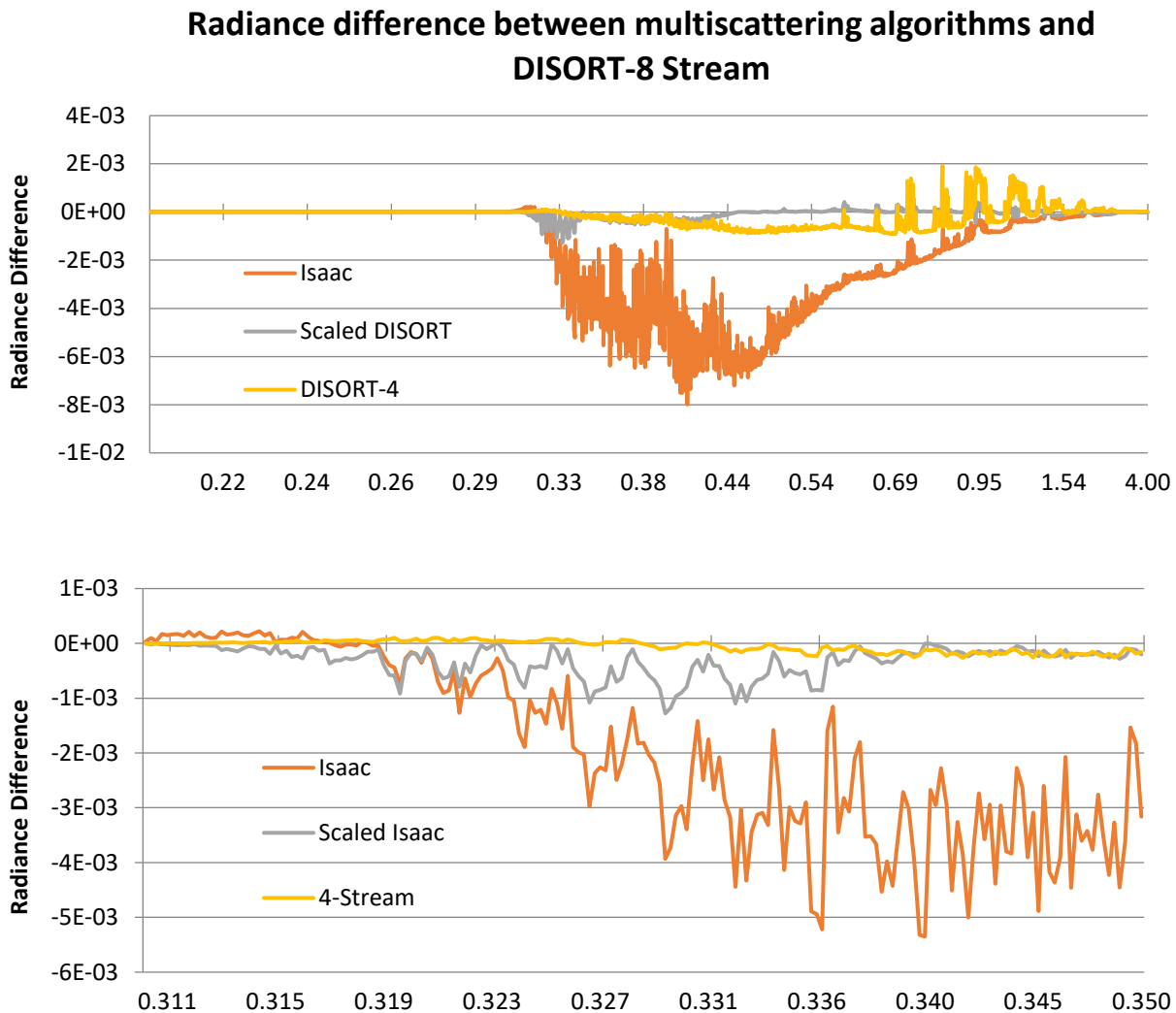
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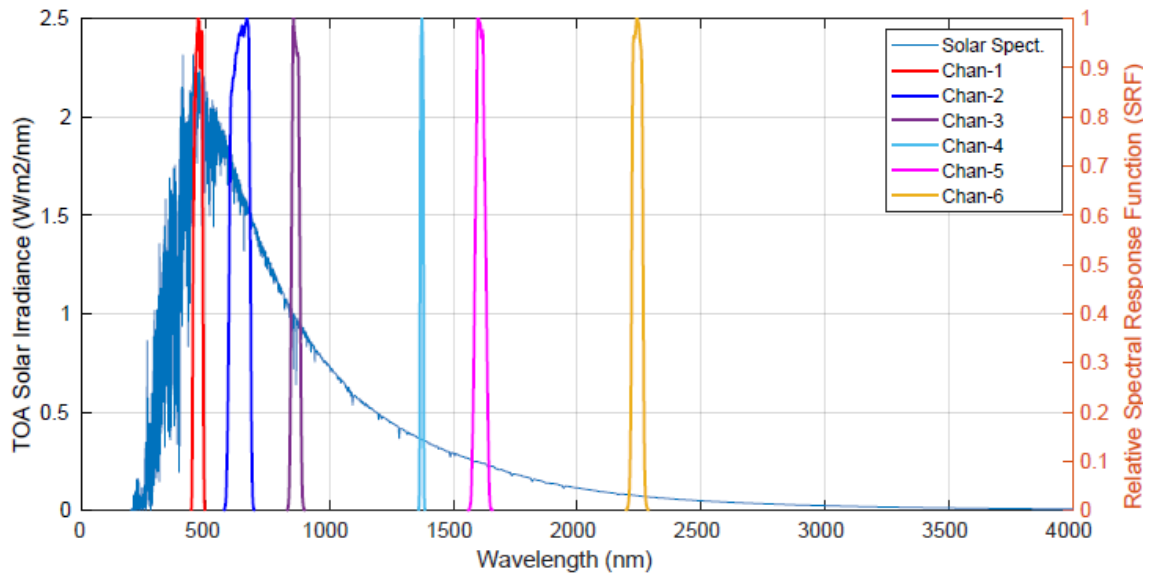
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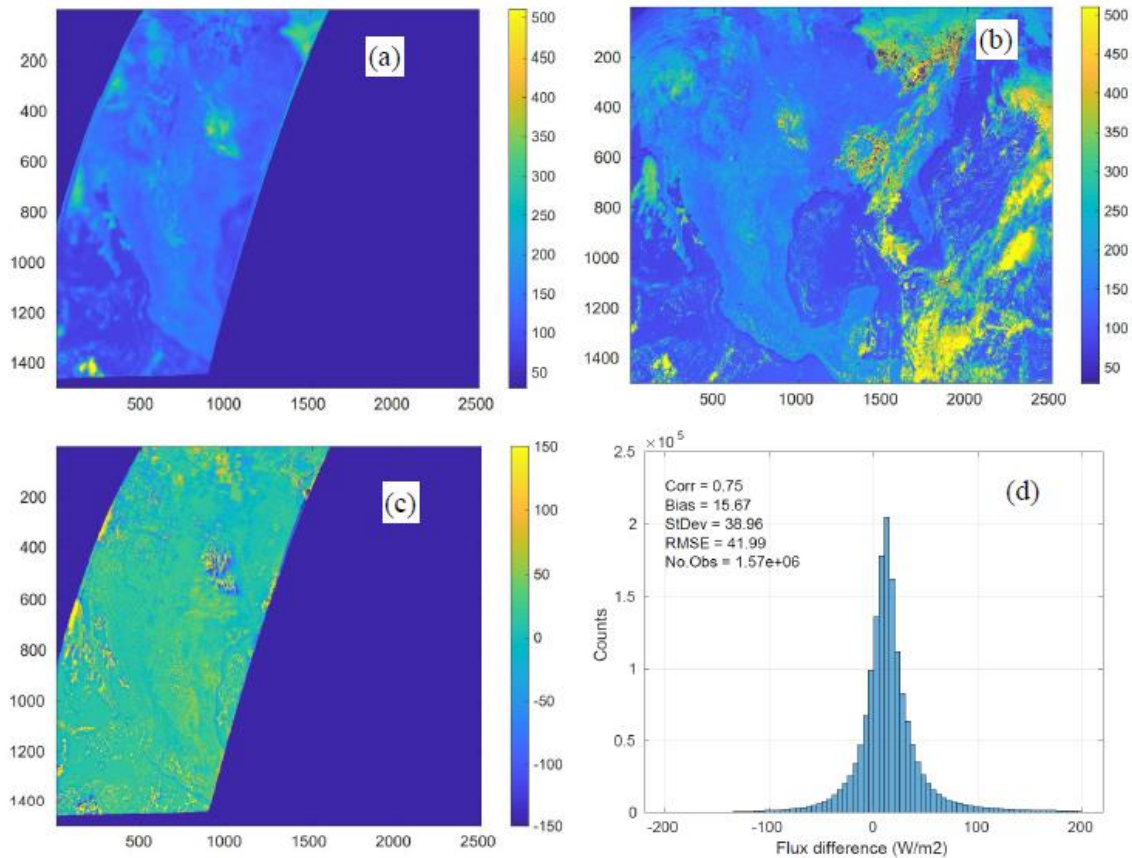
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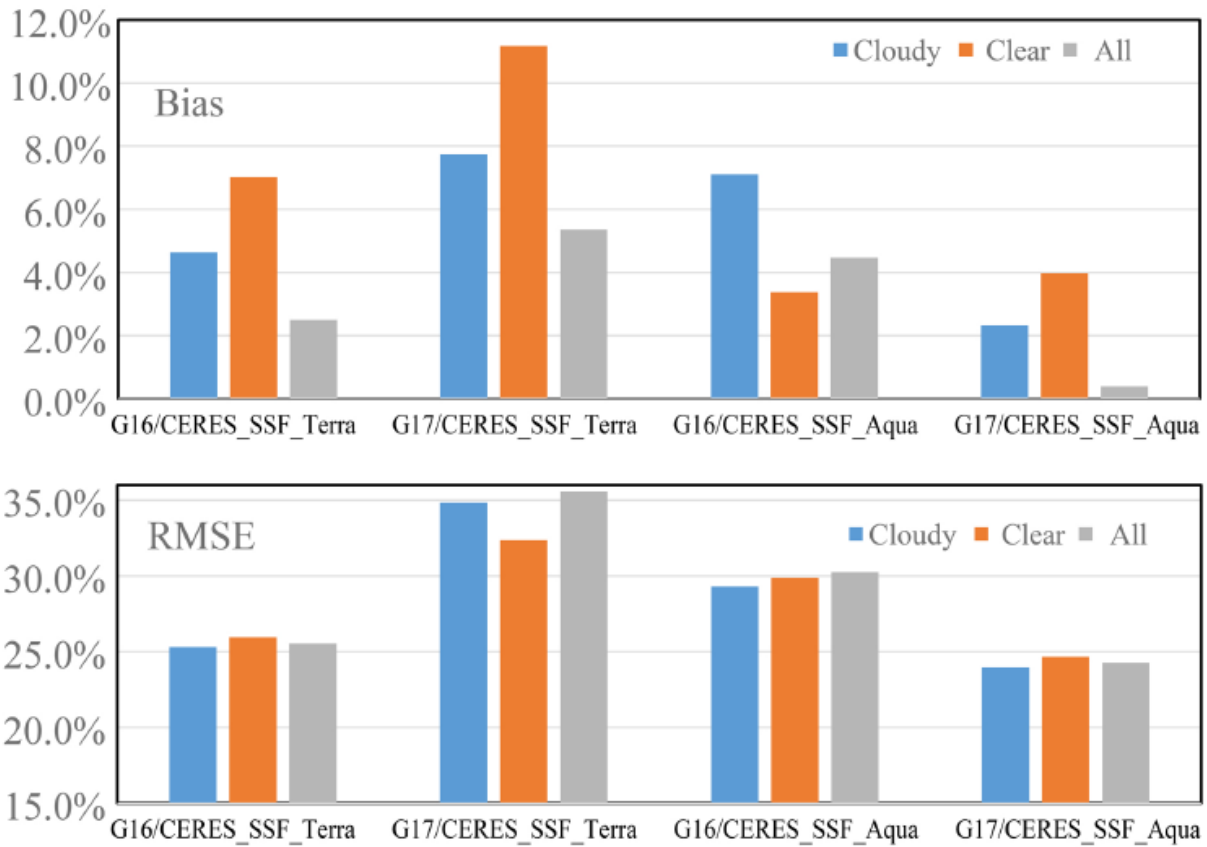
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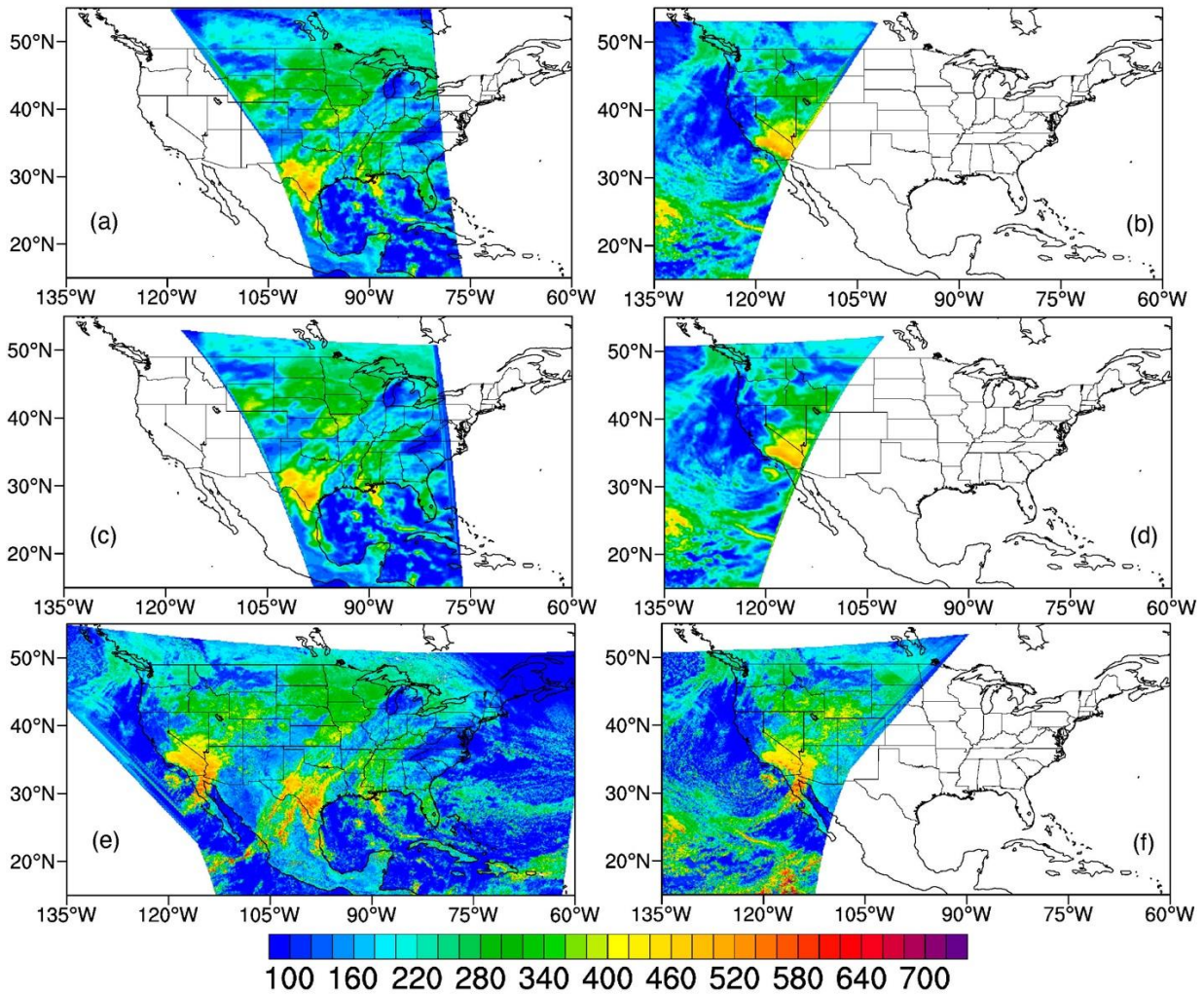
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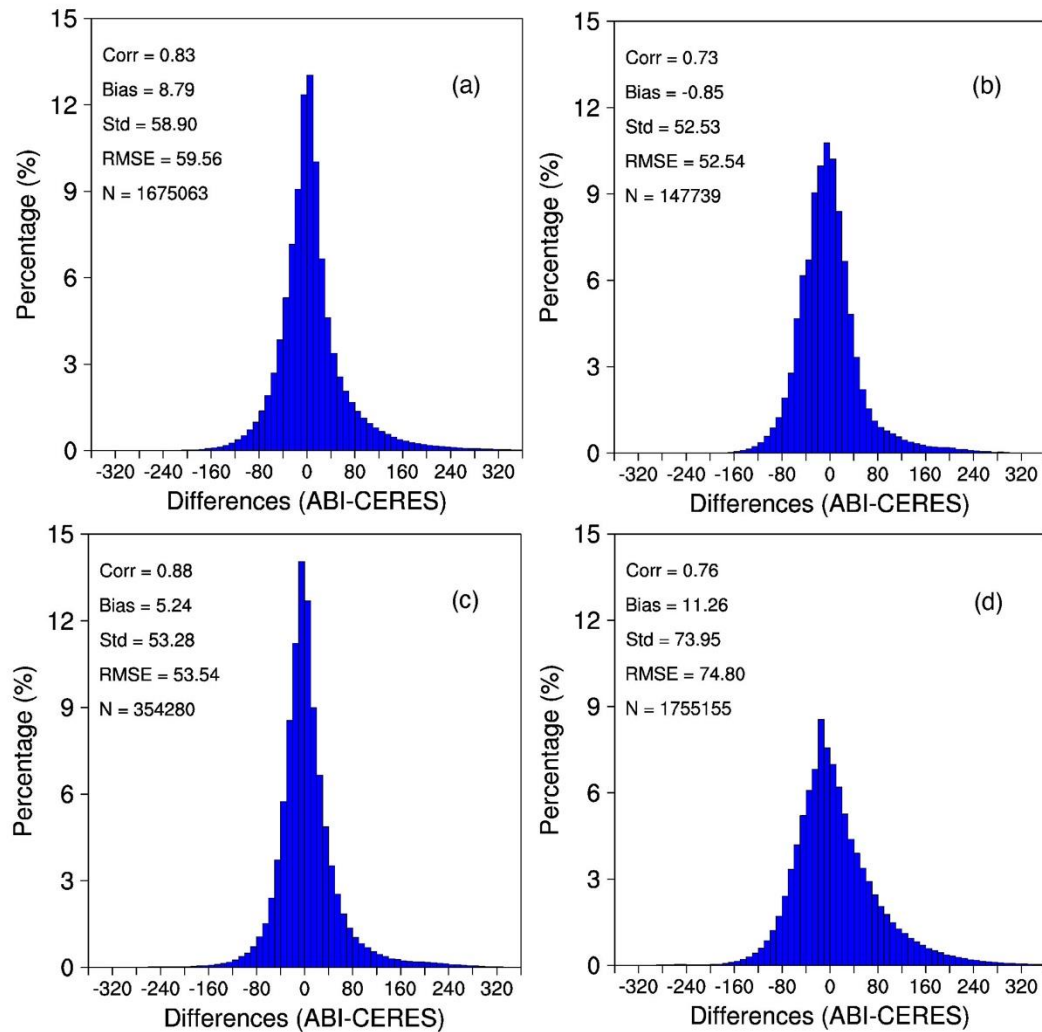
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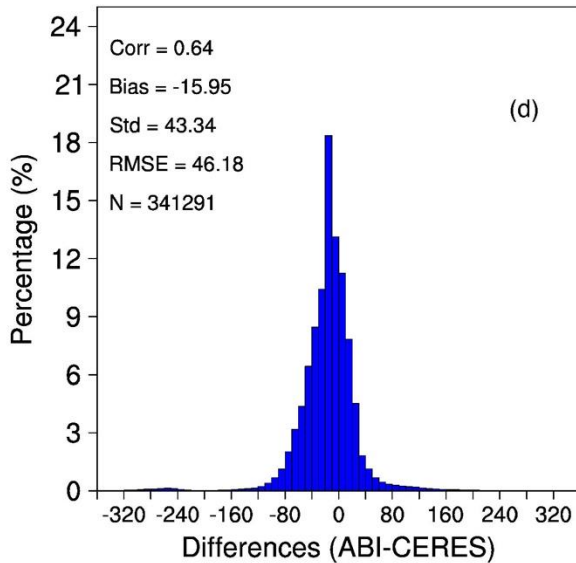
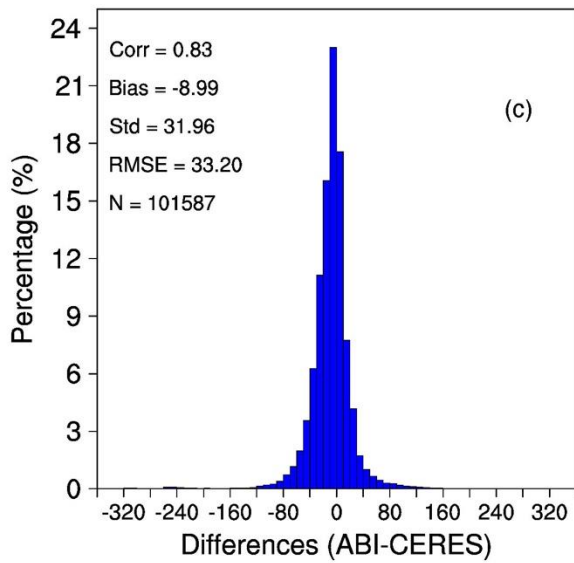
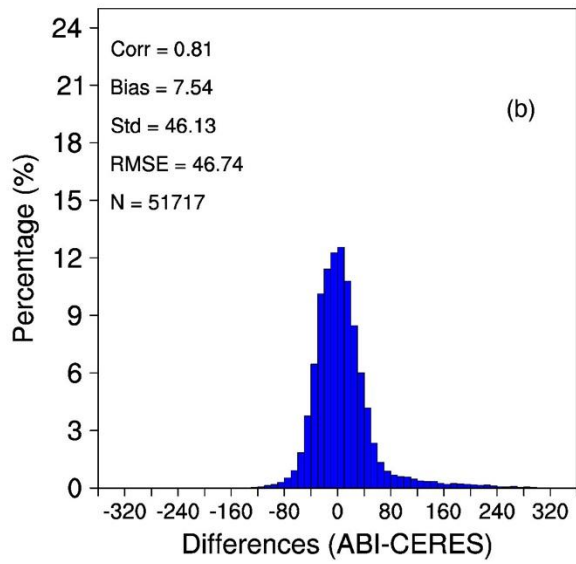
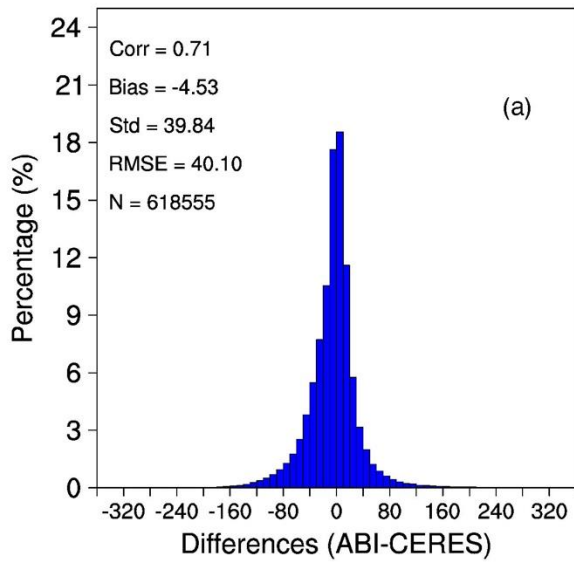
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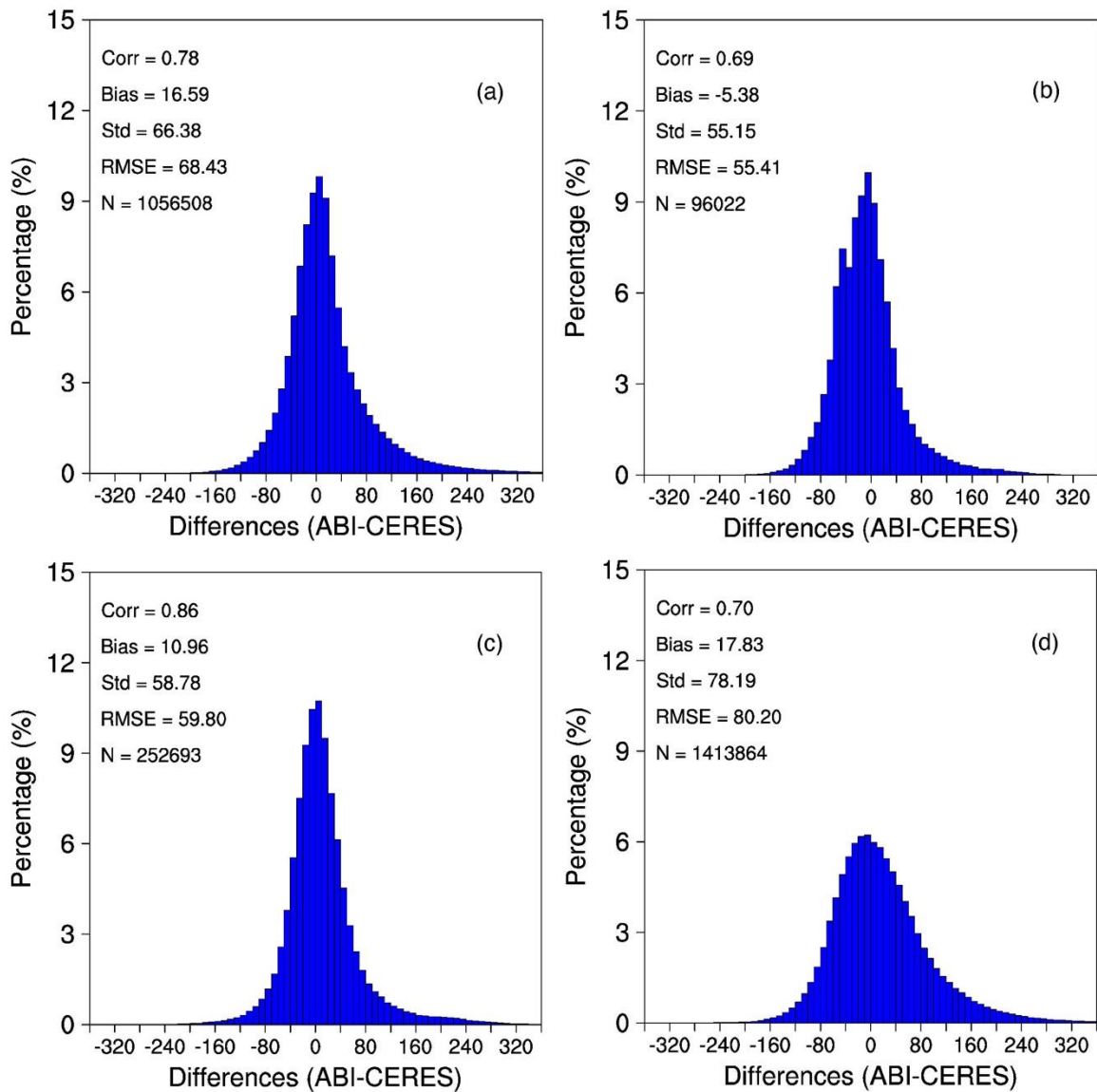
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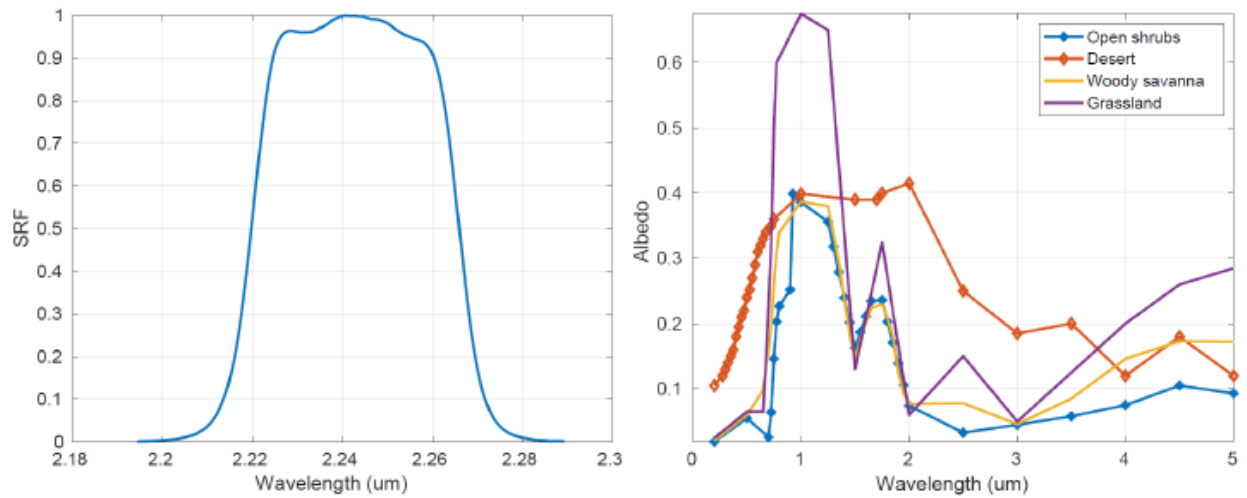
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