

Remote Sensing Observations AOSC 200

Tim Canty

Class Web Site: <http://www.atmos.umd.edu/~tcanty/aosc200>

Topics for today:

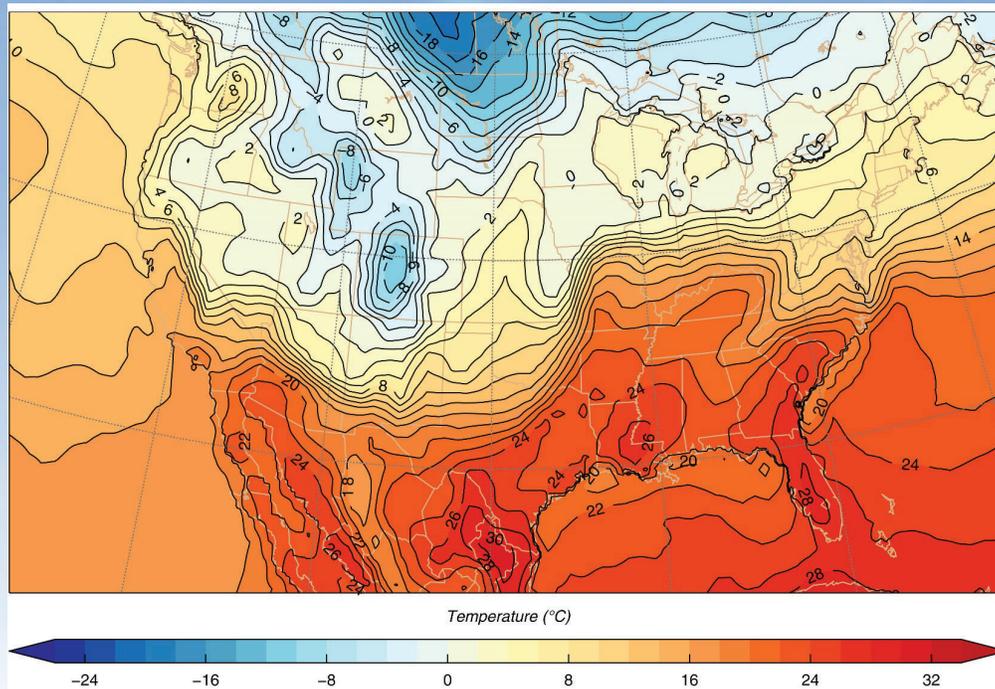
- Maps
- Radar
- Satellite Observations

Lecture 04 Sep 5 2019

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1

Temperature Maps



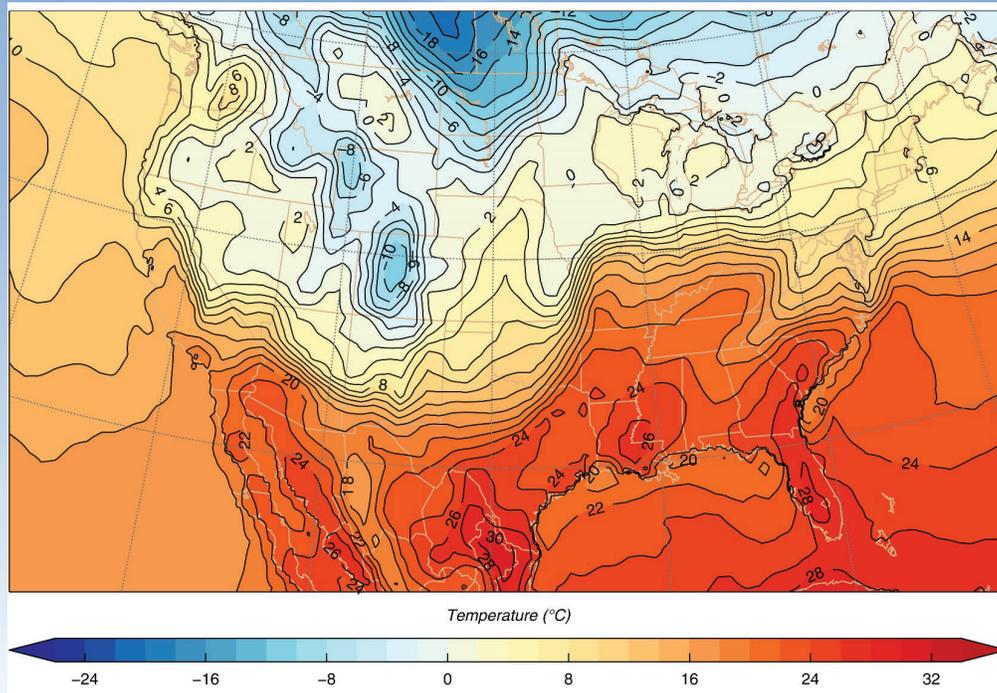
Temperature maps are often colored based on how warm (red) or cold (blue) the surface temperatures are

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Fig 2-2 *Weather: A Concise Introduction*

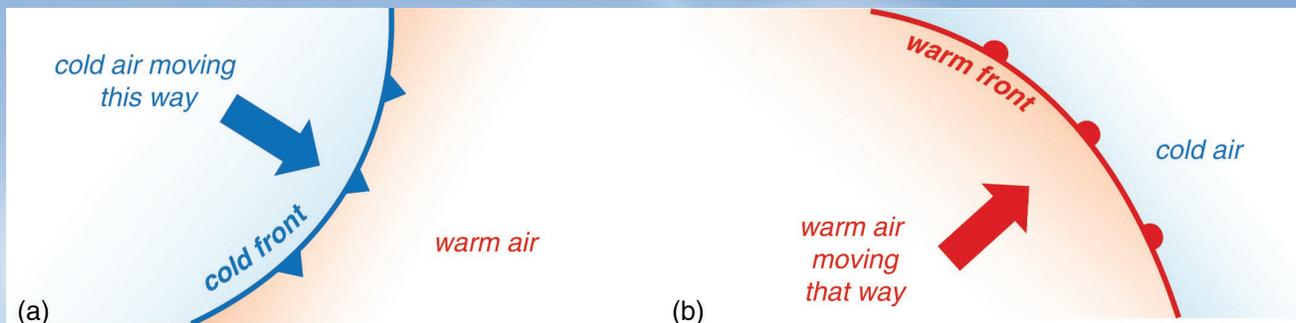
2

Temperature Maps



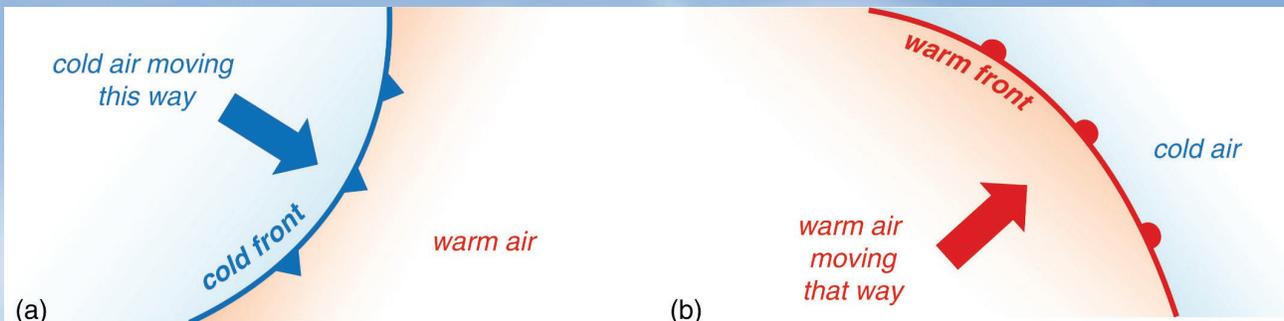
The black lines indicate “isotherms” or lines of constant temperature. These maps help us identify the air masses that are controlling surface conditions and the temperature frontal boundaries between them

Temperature Fronts



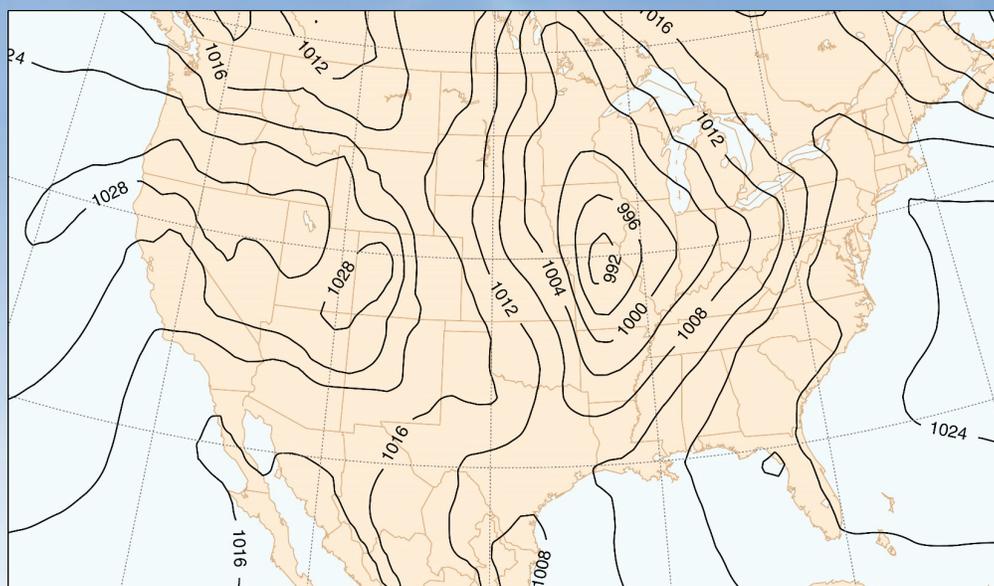
A cold front is a region where cold air is replacing warm air. It's indicated by a blue line with blue triangles pointing in the direction the air mass is moving.

Temperature Fronts



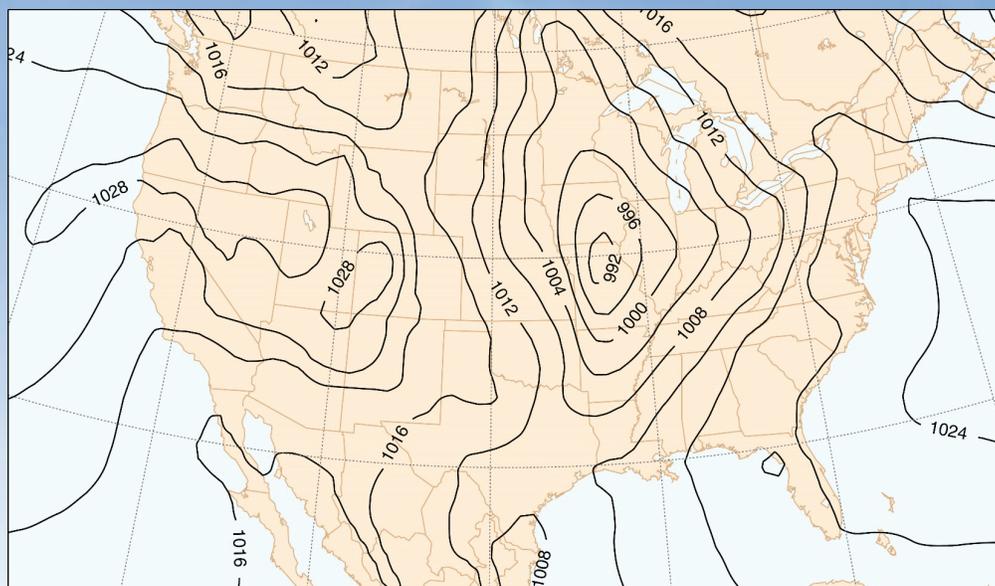
A warm front is a region where warm air is replacing cold air. It's indicated by a red line with red half circles pointing in the direction the air mass is moving.

Pressure Maps



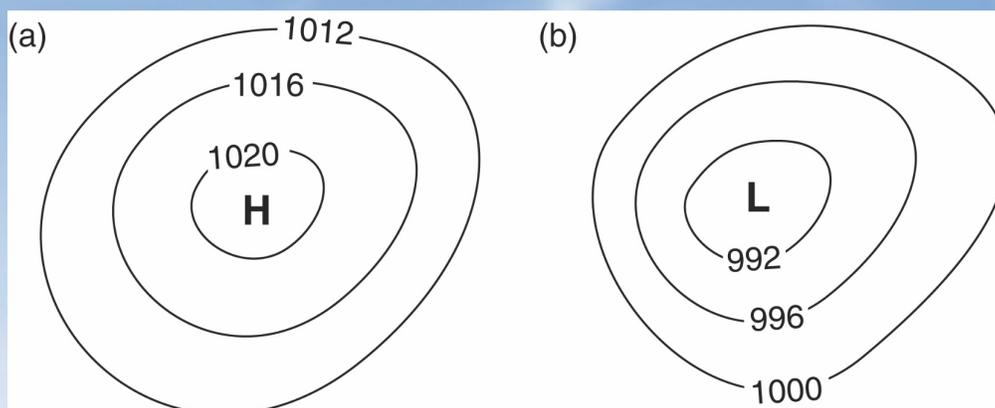
The black lines indicate "isobars" or lines of constant pressure. These maps help us identify regions of high pressure ("H") and low pressure ("L"). They also give some indication of surface wind speed and direction. The numbers are the actual pressure (no conversion needed)

Pressure Maps



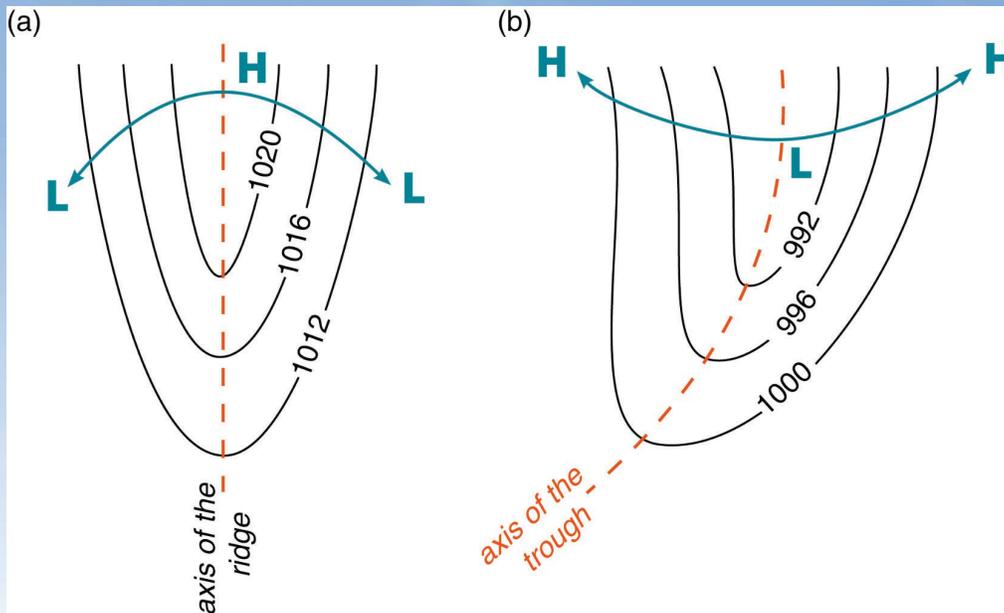
Generally, isobars are plotted at 4 hPa intervals
If it helps, consider this like a map of surface height and you'll get an idea of where air is flowing too and how fast it's moving.

Pressure Maps



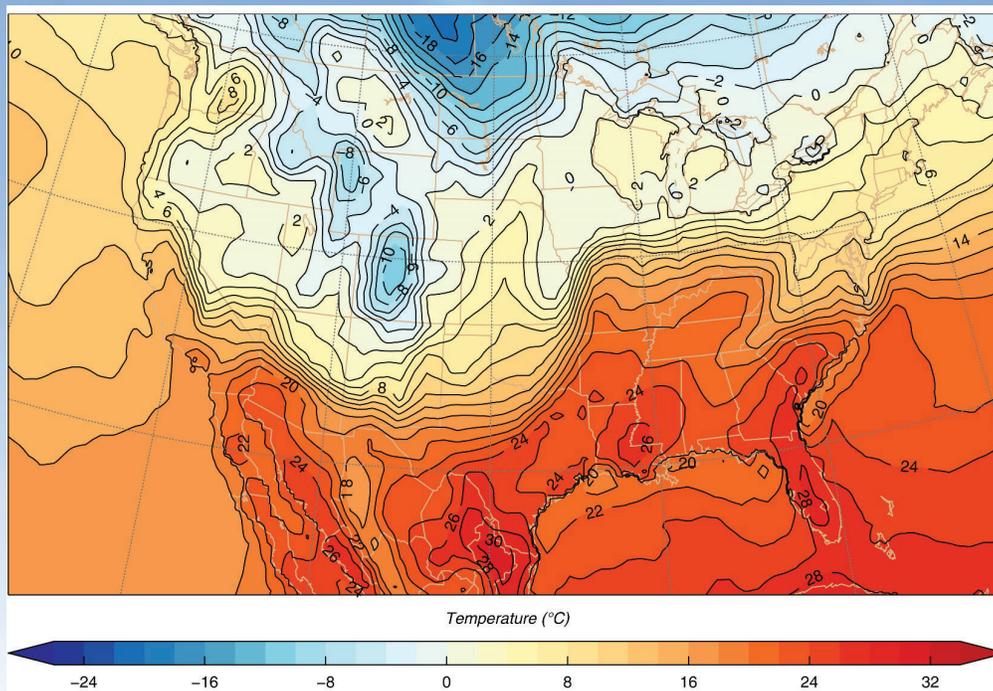
Closed contours define regions of high pressure and low pressure.

Pressure Maps



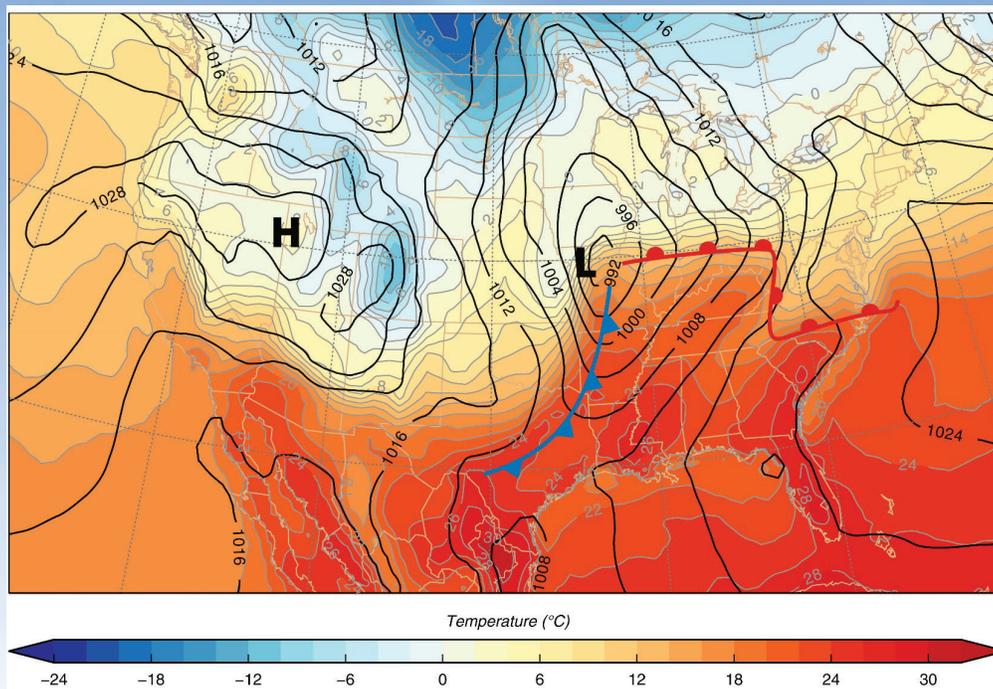
Isobars that aren't closed can still help us define regions of increasing ("ridges") and decreasing ("troughs") pressure.

Temperature Maps



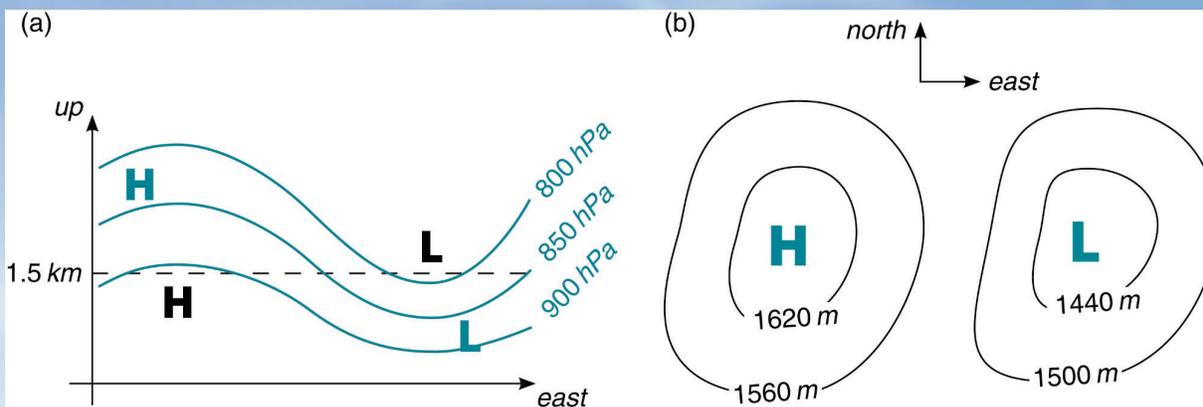
We can combine the different ways of looking at surface data to create what you may recognize as a modern weather map

Weather Maps



We can combine the different ways of looking at surface data to create what you may recognize as a modern weather map

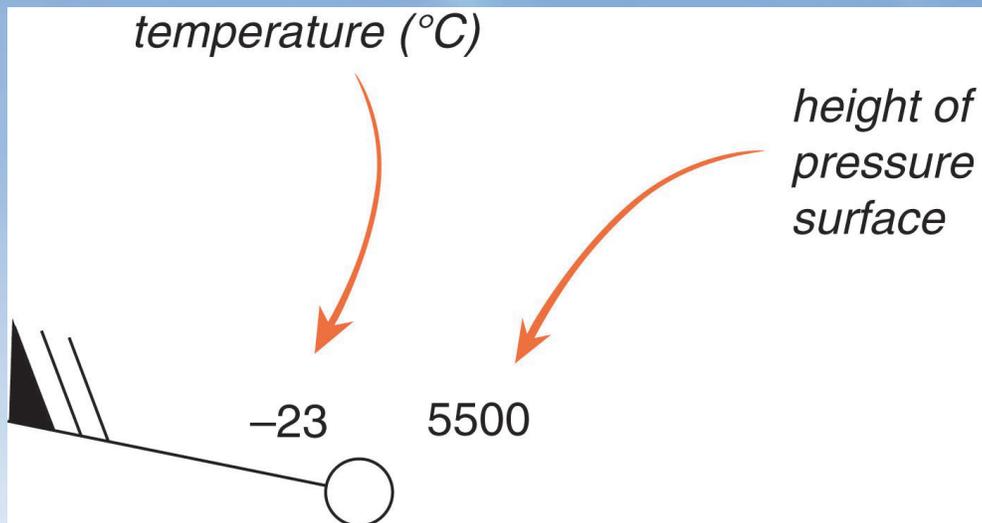
Upper Level Maps



We can look at pressure maps at a some particular altitude but the mathematics becomes very complicated ☹️

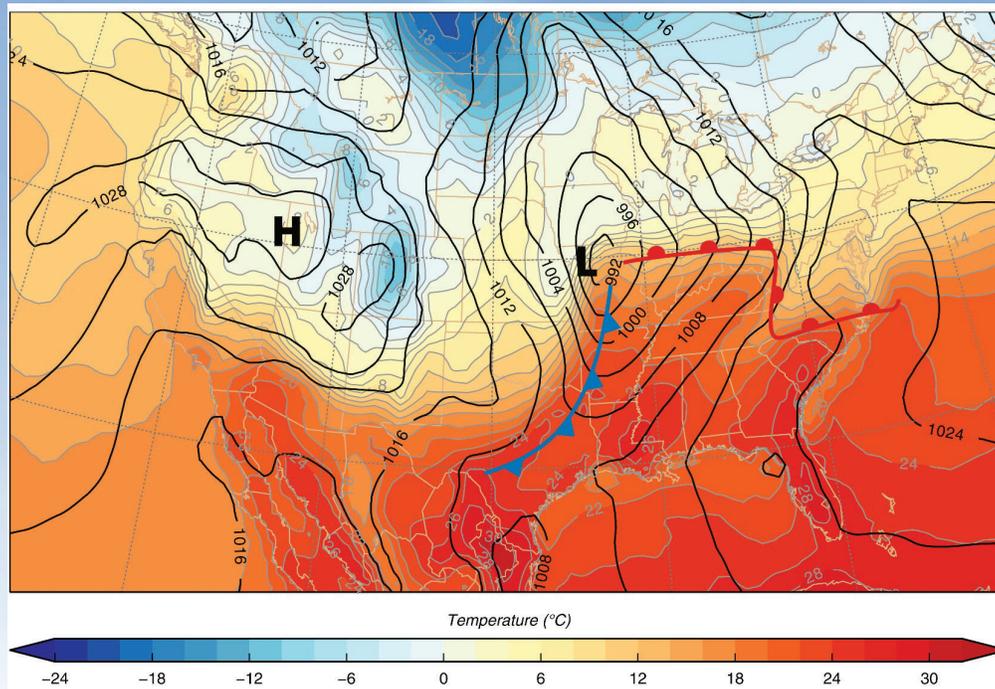
Instead, we look at altitude of a specific pressure level.
The figures to the right show the height (in meters) of the 850 hPa surface.

Upper Level Maps



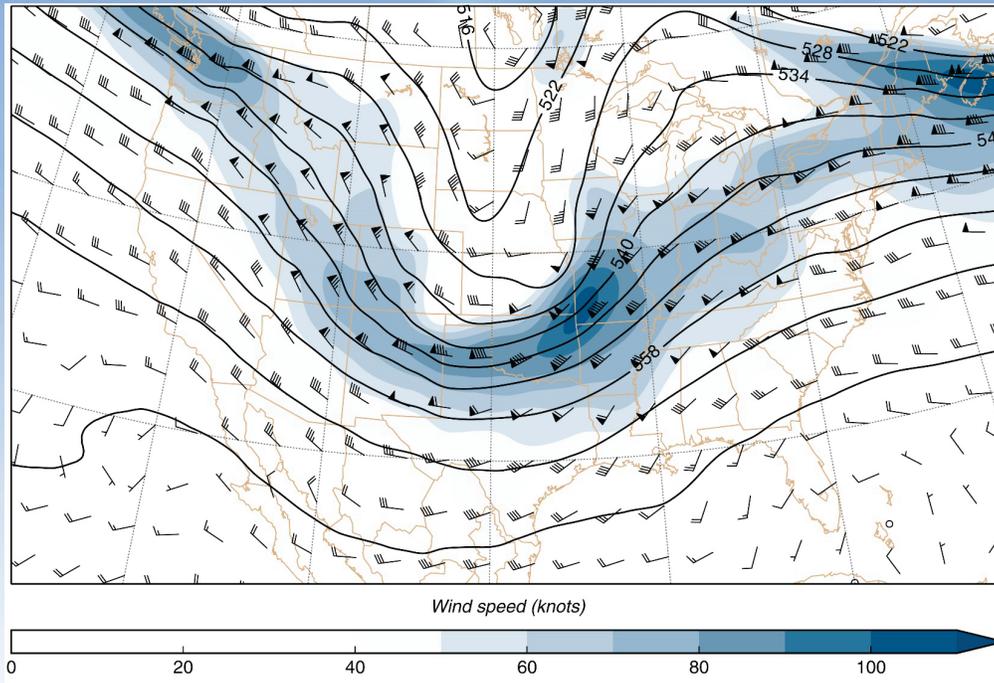
The station model provides slightly different information than at the surface. The height of the pressure surface is in the position where pressure used to be. Maps of this information are called “isobaric” maps

Weather Maps: Surface



We can combine the different ways of looking at surface data to create what you may recognize as a modern weather map

Weather Maps: 500 mb



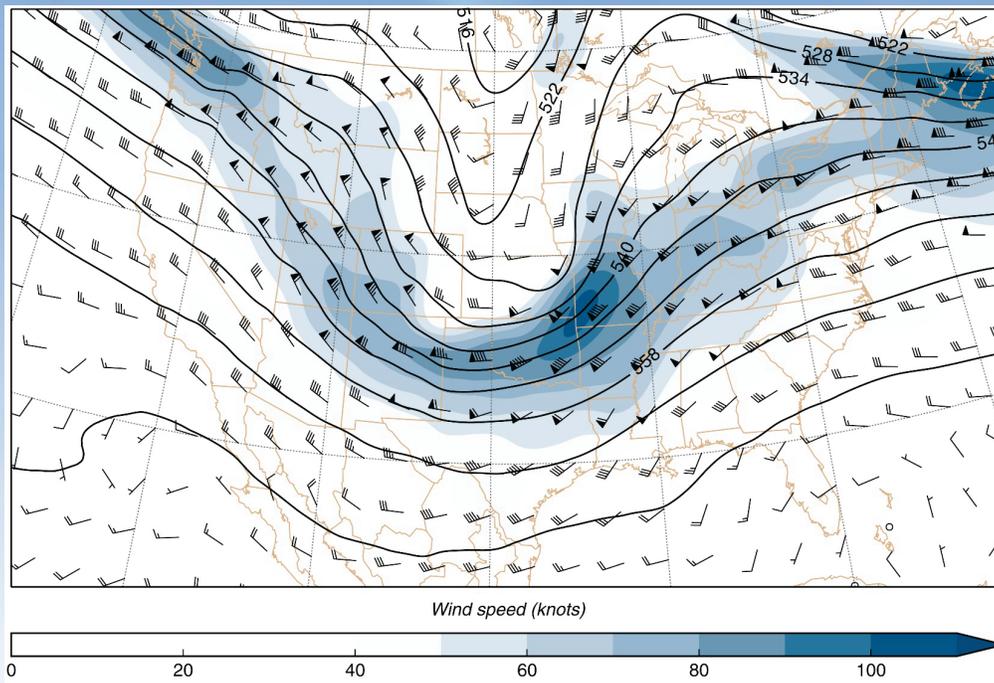
The color contours represent wind speed (in knots). Notice that the fastest winds in the central US are almost above the position of the surface low pressure. Here the black lines are in “decameters”.

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Fig 2-10 Weather: A Concise Introduction 15

Weather Maps: 500 mb



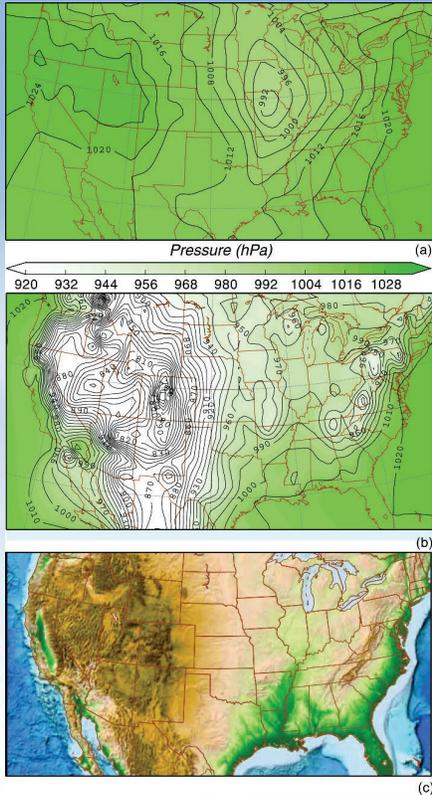
Sometimes this information is plotted as the 1000-500 hPa thickness

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Fig 2-10 Weather: A Concise Introduction 16

Mean Sea Level Pressure



Pressure and altitude are connected: pressure decreases with height

The air pressure at the top of a mountain is lower than at the beach.

If you didn't account for this then your forecasts would assume there's always a low pressure system over the mountains.

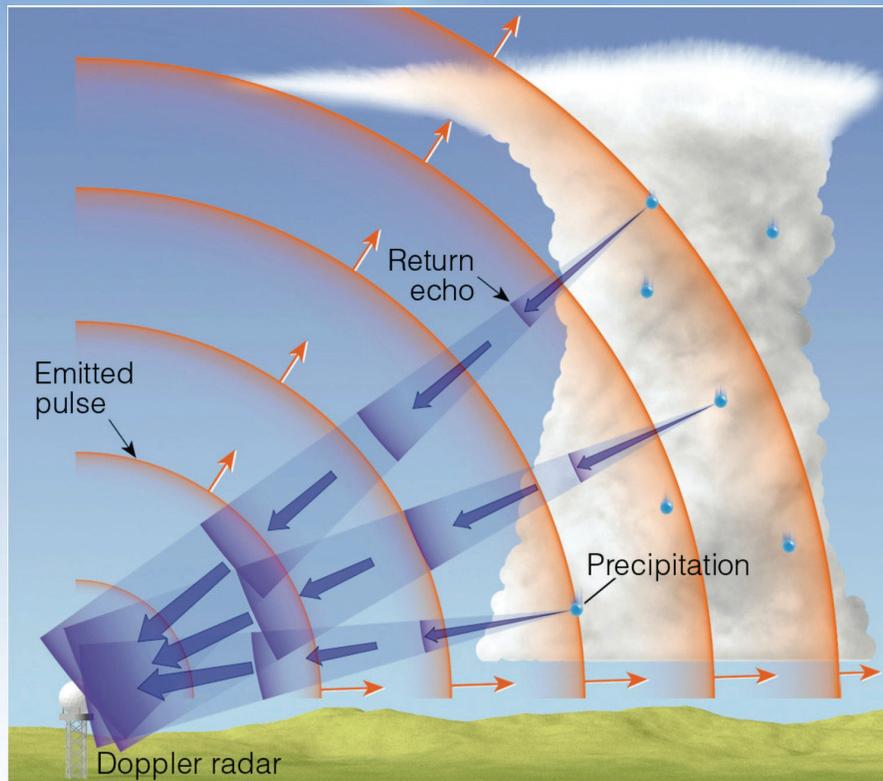
You need to correct for this by determining what the pressure on the top of the mountain would be if you brought it to sea level (~10mbar for every 100m)

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Fig 2.2.1 *Weather: A Concise Introduction* 17

RADAR: Radio Detection and Ranging



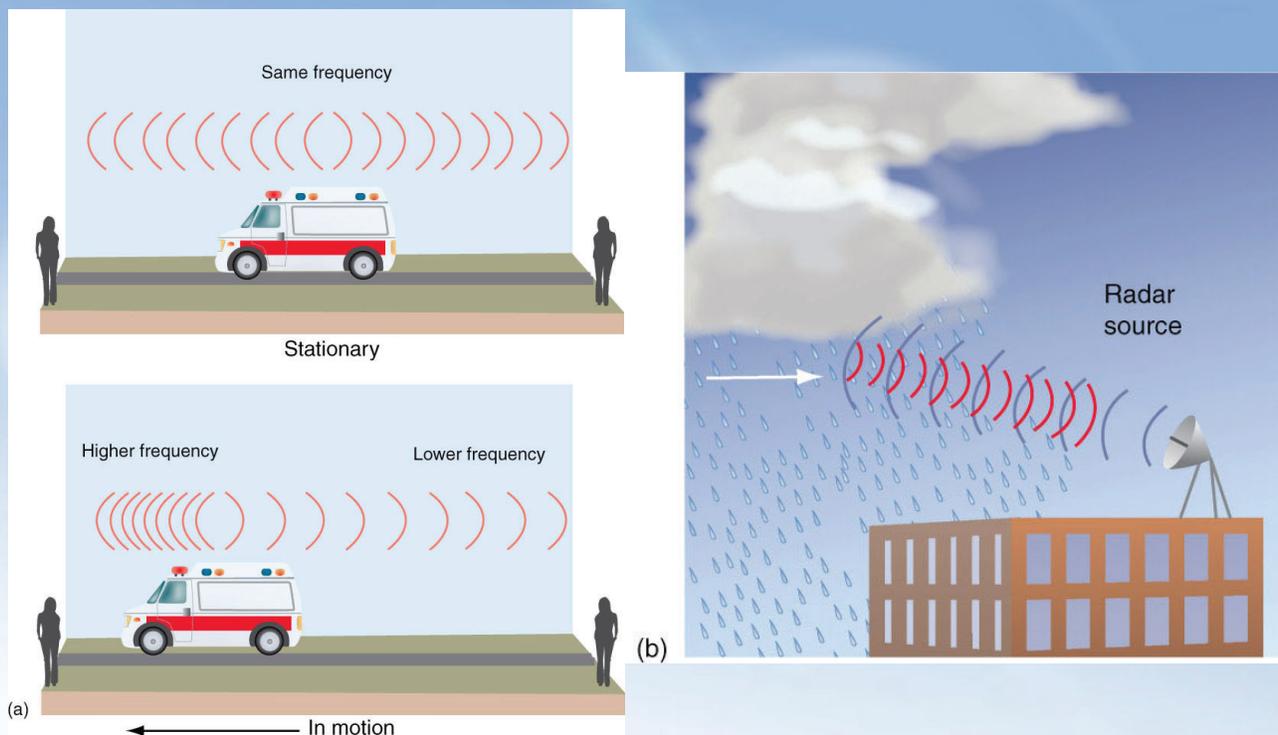
RADAR measures the time it takes for the signal to return

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Fig 5.45: *Essentials of Meteorology* 18

RADAR: RADio Detection and Ranging Doppler



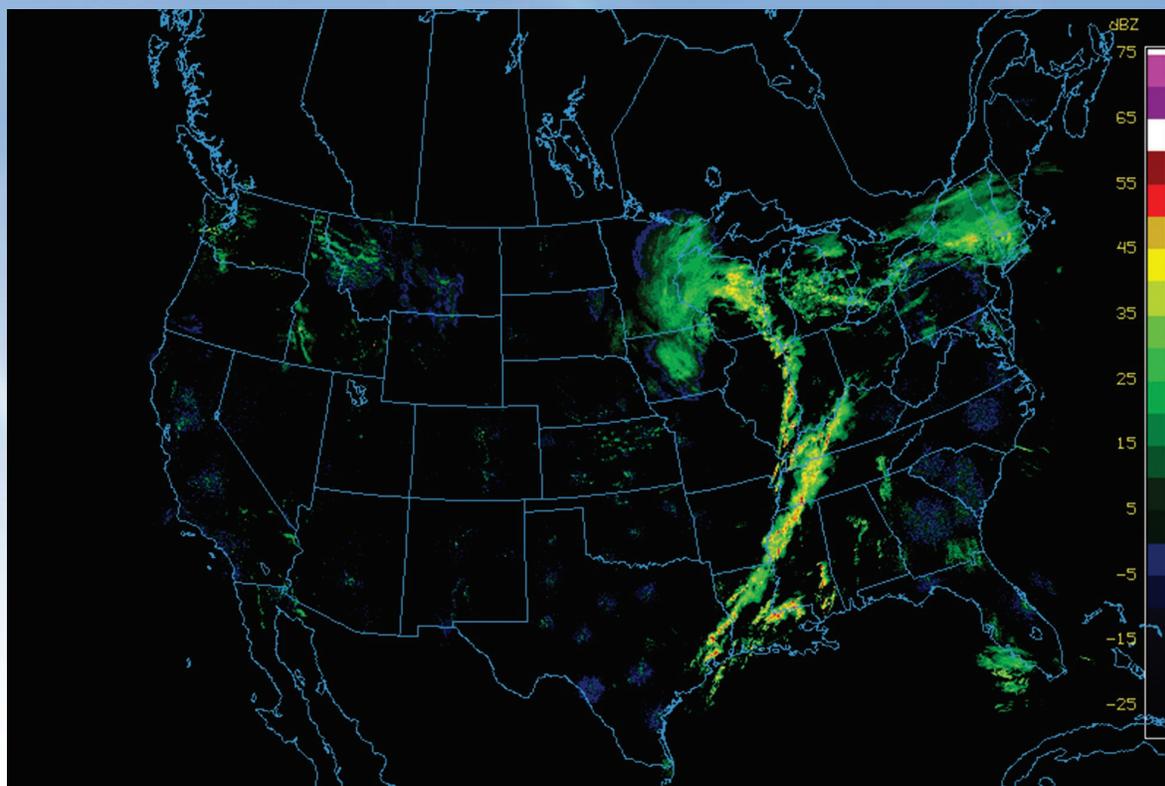
Doppler RADAR measures changes in the return signal

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Fig 5-22 *Meteorology: Understanding the Atmosphere*

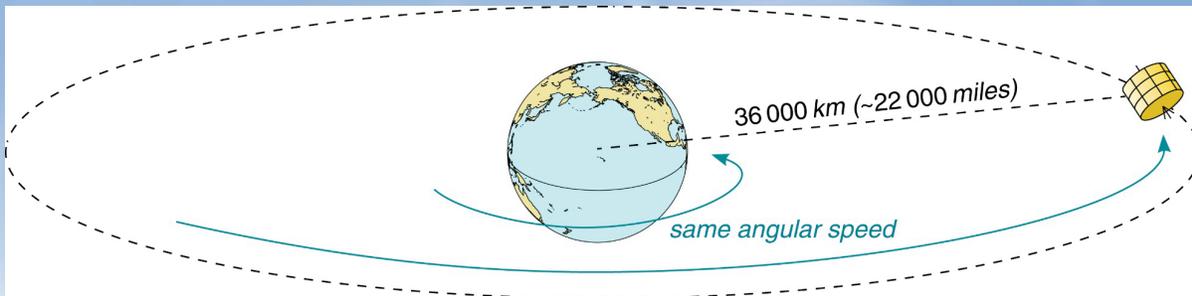
RADAR Coverage: United States



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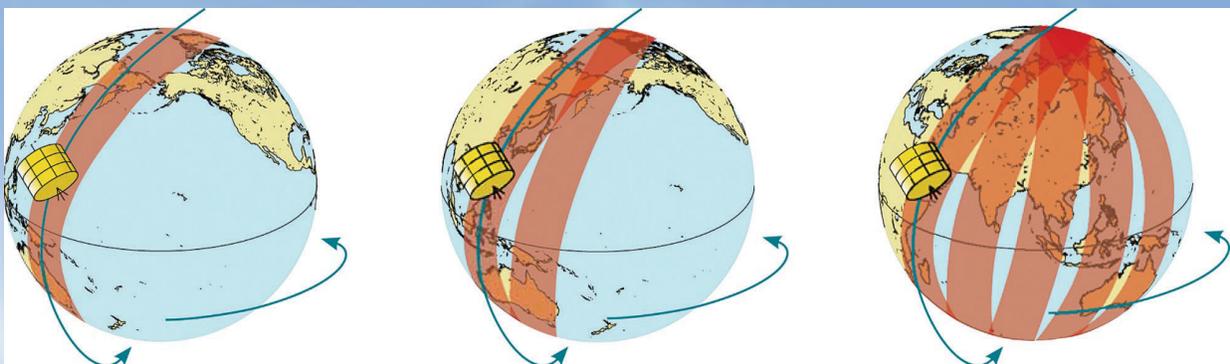
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Fig 2-12 *Weather: A Concise Introduction*



Geostationary satellites: Orbits the Earth at the same angular speed as the Earth. They are “parked” in orbit over Earth and stay over the same location.

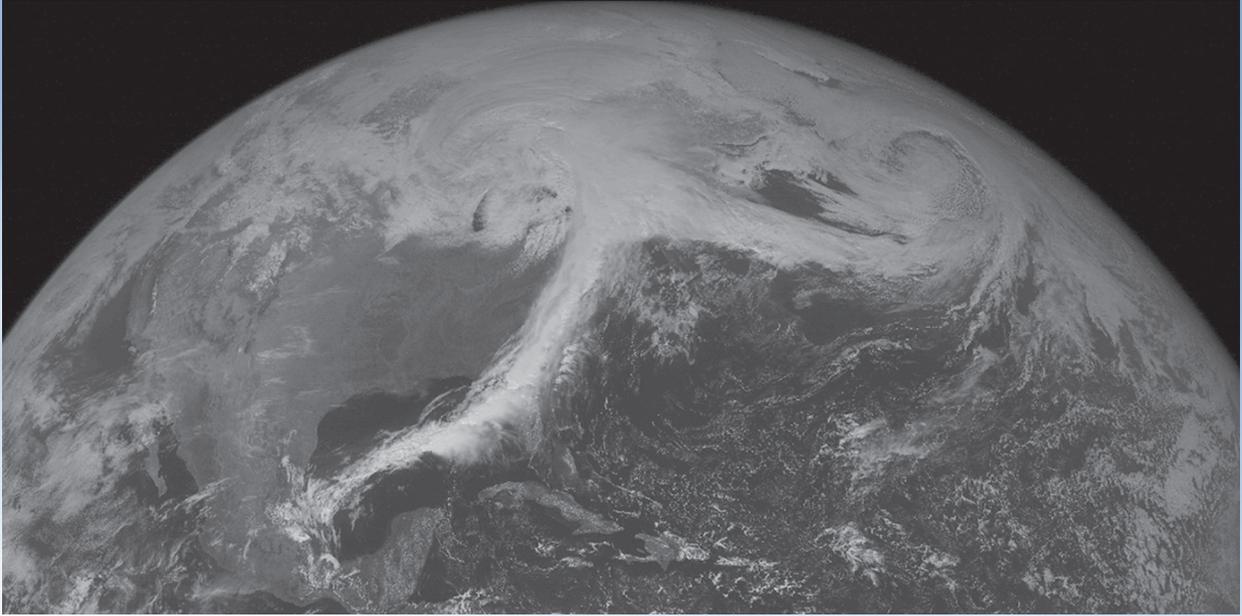
Provide a lot of information at all times but only at one location and have difficulty seeing the polar regions...



Polar orbiting satellites: Travel over the poles. Orbits wrap around the Earth. Need to travel quickly to provide cover the globe. Can be very high resolution because they orbit closer to the surface than geostationary satellites

Problems: Data gaps in time and space.

Satellite Imagery: Visible

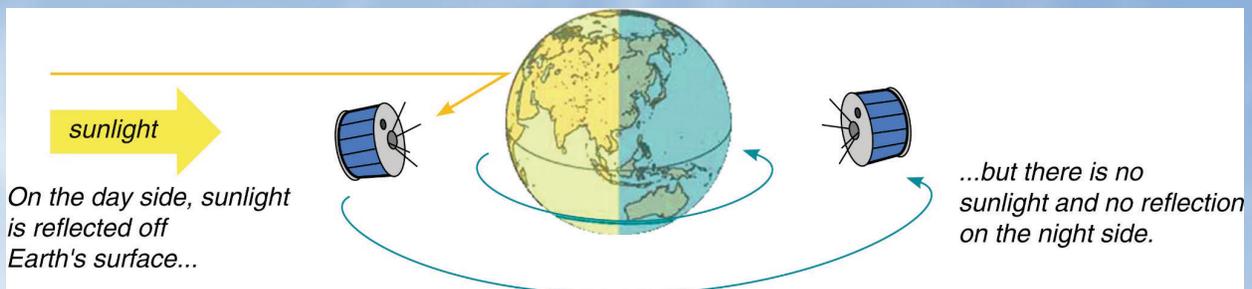


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Fig 2-13 *Weather: A Concise Introduction* 23

Satellite Imagery: Visible



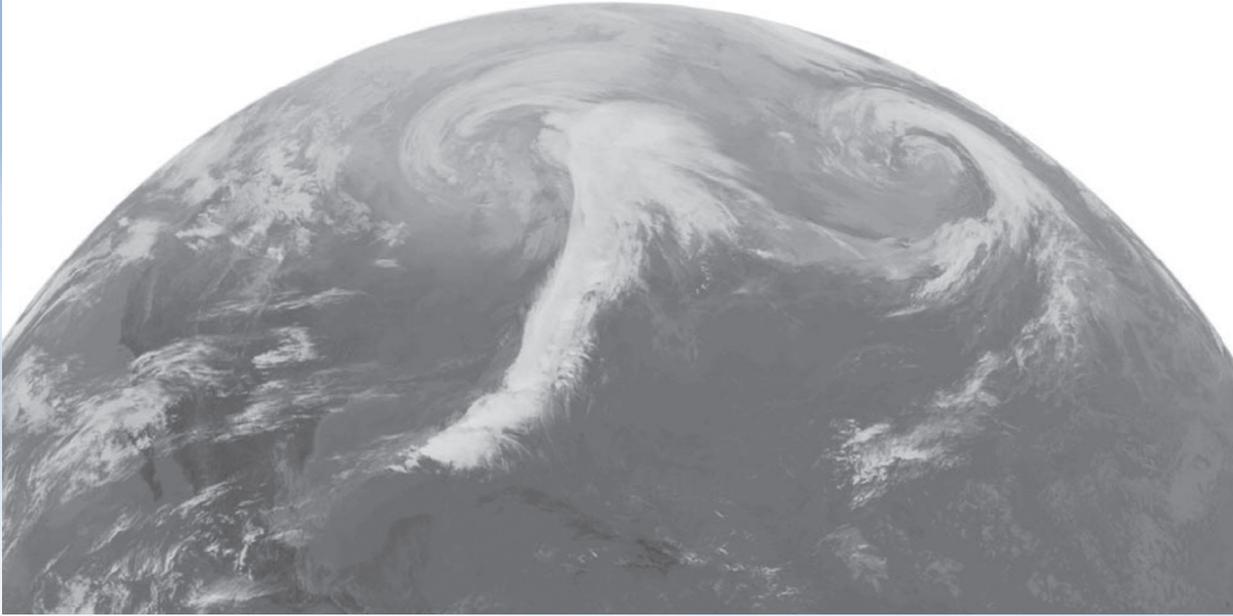
**What's the main limitation of the visible image?
You need light to see anything!**

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Fig 2-14 *Weather: A Concise Introduction* 24

Satellite Imagery: Infrared (heat)

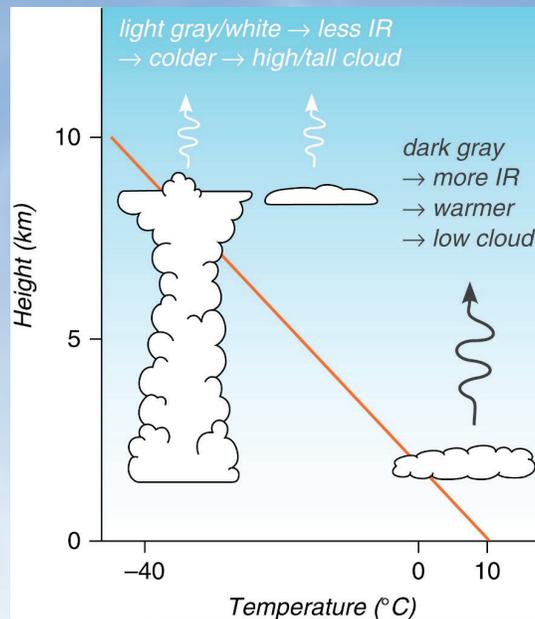


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Fig 2-14 *Weather: A Concise Introduction* 25

Satellite Imagery: Infrared (heat)



This is a “false color” image. The lighter the color, the colder the temperature.

What does this tell us about clouds?

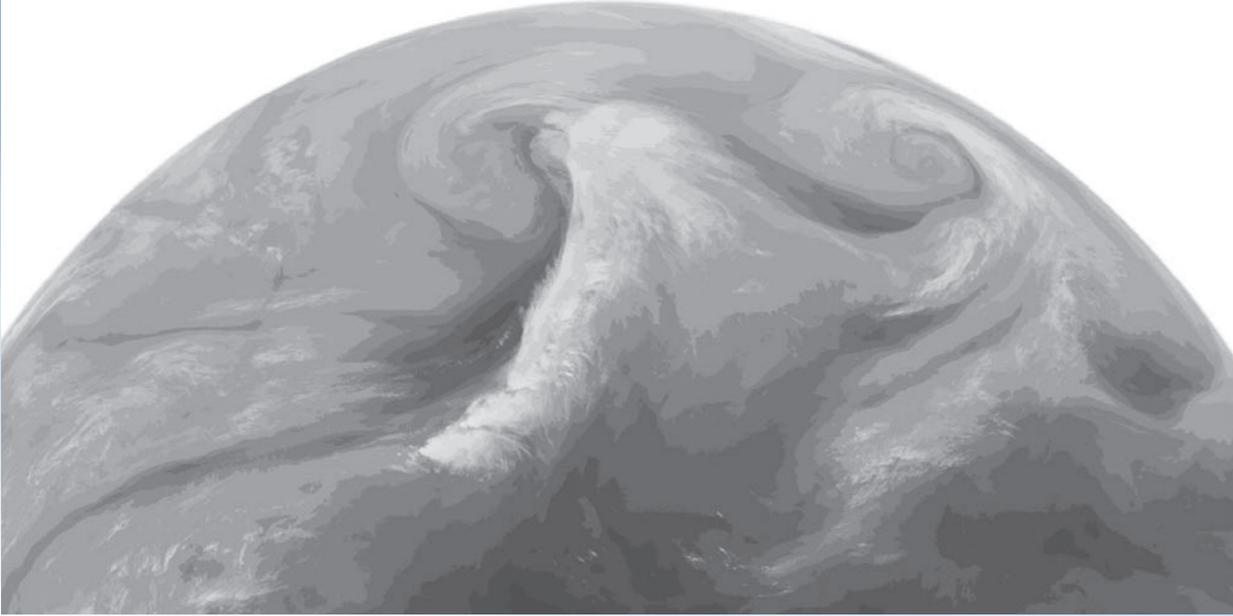
Can you think of a limitation of the infrared image?

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Fig 2-14 *Weather: A Concise Introduction* 26

Satellite Imagery: Water Vapor



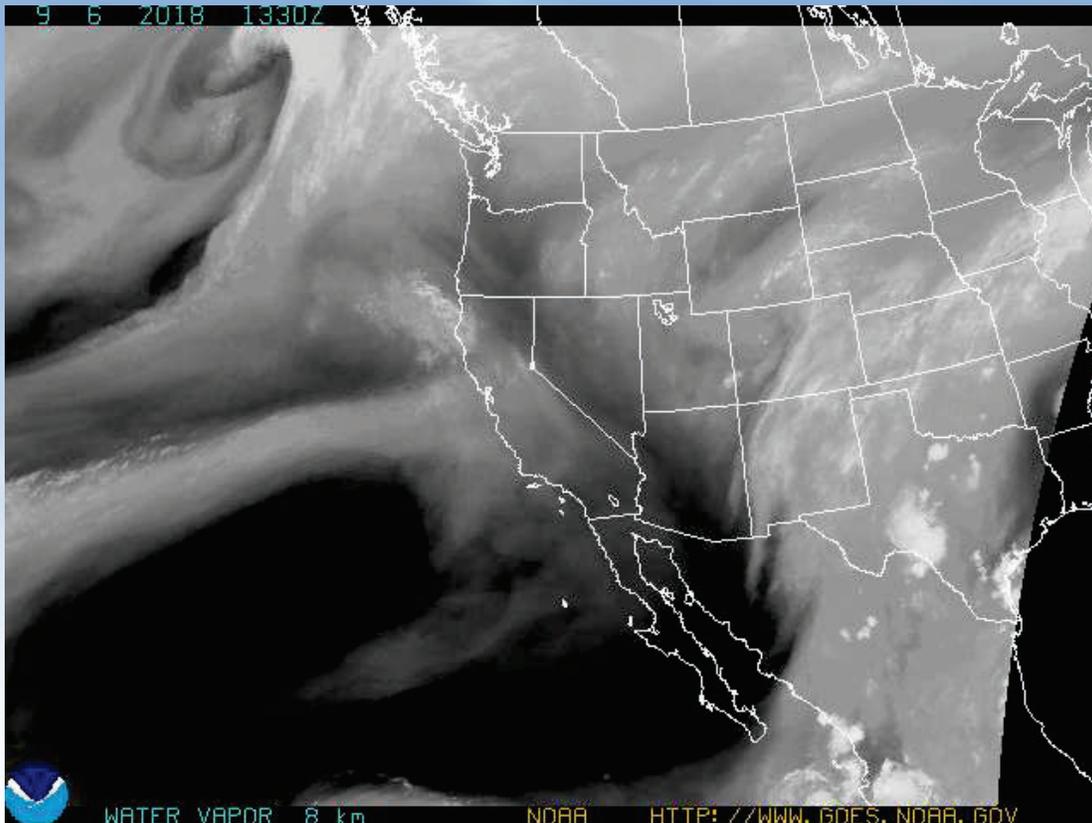
This is a “false color” image. Water vapor absorbs and emits energy. You can tune an instrument to only “see” the wavelengths where water vapor absorbs and emits energy

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Fig 2-18 *Weather: A Concise Introduction* 27

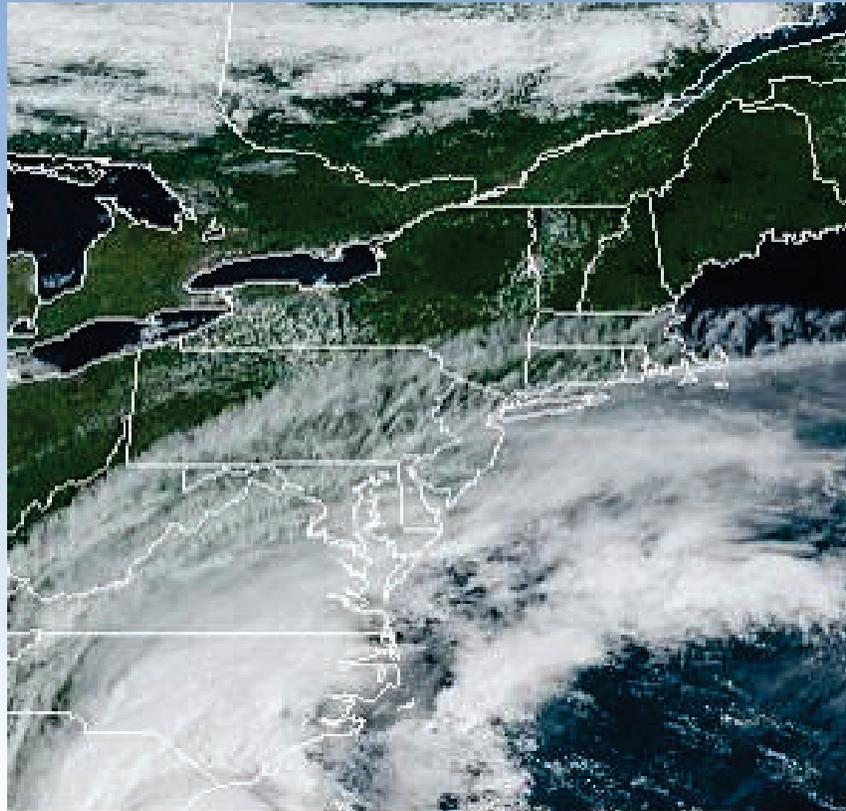
Satellites: NOAA GOES



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Satellites: NOAA GOES16



NOAA/STAR

09/05/19 14:36Z GOES-East

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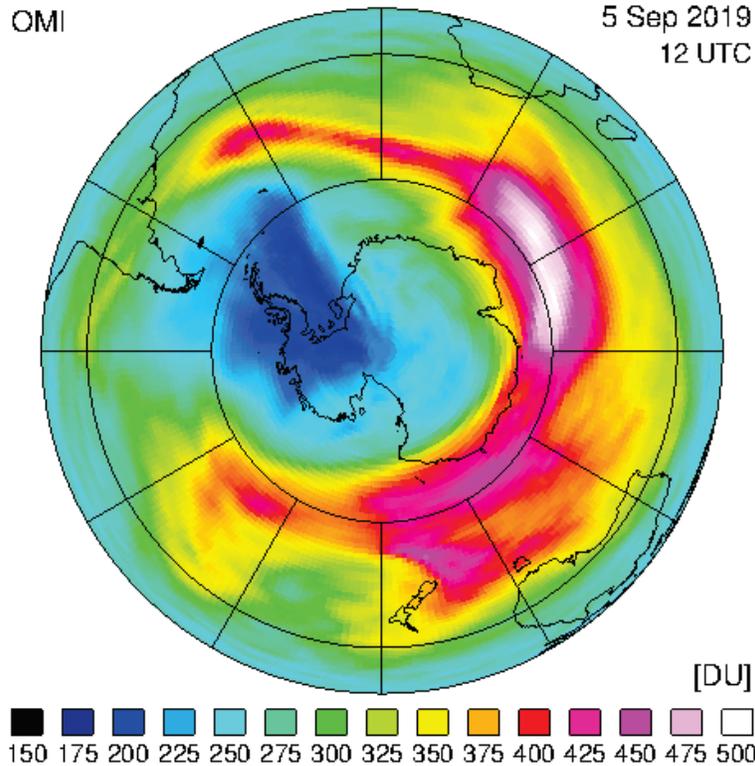
Satellites: OMI Ozone

KNMI / NASA

OMI

Forecast total ozone (D+1)

5 Sep 2019
12 UTC



[DU]

150 175 200 225 250 275 300 325 350 375 400 425 450 475 500

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Ozone Monitoring Instrument