Colors of the daytime overcast sky

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Time-series measurements of daylight (skylight plus direct sunlight) spectra beneath overcast skies reveal an unexpectedly wide gamut of pastel colors. Analyses of these spectra indicate that at visible wavelengths, overcasts are far from spectrally neutral transmitters of the daylight incident on their tops. Colorimetric analyses show that overcasts make daylight bluer and that the amount of bluing increases with cloud optical depth. Simulations using the radiative-transfer model MODTRAN4 help explain the observed bluing: multiple scattering within optically thick clouds greatly enhances spectrally selective absorption by water droplets. However, other factors affecting overcast colors seen from below range from minimal (cloud-top heights) to moot (surface colors). © 2005 Optical Society of America

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1. Introduction

In the extended family of atmospheric optical phenomena, overcast skies are surely the poor relations. Lacking the distinct, vivid colors of such prodigals as parhelia and rainbows, overcasts have prompted relatively little spectral research outside the ultraviolet and infrared, where their radiative-transfer properties are important.1–3 With relatively few exceptions,4–6 even those researchers who do analyze overcasts at visible wavelengths are interested chiefly in explaining the clouds’ spectral properties independent of human perception.3,7–9 And although the CIE has recommended a particular model for the angular distribution of overcast luminances,10 it is far less specific about the spectral distribution of overcast radiances or irradiances, instead indicating that overcast spectra are simple variants on its standard daylight illuminant D_65.11

This relative scientific neglect of overcast color is paired with popular disdain: in everyday parlance, overcasts are the dark, dreary, and dull-colored alternatives to visually pleasing clear or partly cloudy skies. Implicit in such language is the plausible (but incorrect) assumption that overcasts are spectrally neutral transmitters of the daylight (skylight plus direct sunlight) incident on them.12 Yet our research shows that overcast colors are seldom as gray as we might imagine, and explaining why overcasts are spectrally selective yields useful insights into radiative transfer in clouds.

2. Measured Chromaticities of Daytime Overcasts

Because “overcast” has slightly different meanings in different contexts, we start by defining the term. In our work, an overcast must meet two criteria: (1) no clear sky can be visible anywhere and (2) cloud cover must be sufficiently optically thick that any cast shadows are indistinct. Unlike some definitions of overcast,13 ours includes surface fog that obscures (or perhaps is) the sky. We restrict ourselves here to daytime overcasts when unrefracted Sun elevation h_0 \geq 5° because overcast color behaves quite differently at lower h_0. Although most of our overcasts were formed by thick stratus (St) or stratocumulus (Sc) clouds, we also measured altostratus overcasts through which the Sun’s disk was faintly visible. To protect our instruments, we measured mostly non-precipitating overcasts. With care, however, we were able to acquire some data in drizzle, light rain, and snow. What kinds of chromaticity gamuts do such overcasts produce?

Figure 1 shows part of the CIE 1976 uniform-chromaticity-scale (UCS) diagram,14 within which we plot temporal chromaticity trends produced by two typical overcasts. We generate such curves by measuring overcast spectra every 30 s and then connecting in sequence the individual u’, v’ chromaticity coordinates calculated from each spectrum. Included as colorimetric landmarks in Fig. 1 are part of the...
Fig. 1. Portion of the CIE 1976 UCS diagram, showing temporal trends in stratus (St) and stratocumulus (Sc) overcast chromaticities measured at the U.S. Naval Academy in Annapolis, Maryland (USNA) on 4-21-2003 and at the University of Granada in Granada, Spain on 11-8-2003. Chromaticities are calculated from horizontal spectral irradiances measured at the U.S. Naval Academy in Annapolis, Maryland as well as at two rural sites near Owings, Maryland, and Marion Center, Pennsylvania. Table 1 gives details of the sites’ locations; we made all observations at ground or rooftop level.

Our instruments are two Photo Research PR-650 spectroradiometers, with which we measure either zenith spectral radiances \( L_z \) or horizontal spectral irradiances \( E_h \) at visible wavelengths \( \lambda \). Both radiometers have spectral ranges of 380–780 nm and a step size of 4 nm. Zenith radiances are measured across a 1° field of view (FOV) by using a telescopic lens on the PR-650, and hemispheric irradiances are measured using a nominally cosine-corrected diffuser (FOV = 2\( \pi \) sr). We aimed the radiometer and then locked it on a tripod before each measurement session. Figure 1’s chromaticities, are calculated from horizontal \( E_h \) and show only parts of such sessions: each curve spans the period when \( 30^\circ < h_0 < 36.3^\circ \). Figure 1 also shows the range of clear daylight chromaticities (abbreviated CLR and plotted using \( \times \’\)s) measured on two clear days for the same \( h_0 \) interval. The conventional meteorological abbreviations “OVC” and “CLR” in Fig. 1 indicate overcast and clear, respectively.

Several colorimetric features are noteworthy in Fig. 1. First, its chromaticity gamut for clear daylight is much less than for its two stratus and stratocumulus overcasts. Using the normalized colorimetric gamut \( g \), Fig. 1’s two overcast gamuts are 7.0 and 13.8 times larger than the combined clear-sky gamut (see Table 2). Thus an overcast’s colors are only partly determined by the daylight color that illuminates its cloud tops. Second, Fig. 1 shows that overcasts are usually bluer (i.e., have higher color temperature) than clear daylight, although this enhanced blueness can vary significantly from minute to minute. If our claim that overcasts are bluer than clear daylight seems puzzling, recall that Fig. 1 is based on hemispheric \( E_h \), rather than on narrow-FOV \( L_z \), and thus its clear-sky cases are dominated by direct sunlight. During the day, the clear sky’s blue is indeed much purer than that of the bluest overcast. Third, unlike

Planckian locus and its corresponding color-temperature limits. Figure 1’s observing sites are the University of Granada at Granada, Spain, and the U.S. Naval Academy (USNA) at Annapolis, Maryland. We selected the Fig. 1 curves from our time series of >9100 radiance and irradiance spectra measured during 40 overcasts at USNA and Granada, as well as at two rural sites near Owings, Maryland, and Marion Center, Pennsylvania. Table 1 gives details of the sites’ locations; we made all observations at ground or rooftop level.

Table 2. Mean Overcast Chromaticities and Chromaticity Gamuts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Dates</th>
<th>( E_h ) or ( L_z )</th>
<th>( h_0 ) Interval (°)</th>
<th>Mean ( u' )</th>
<th>Mean ( v' )</th>
<th>( g )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>9-5-02, 9-10-03</td>
<td>( E_h )</td>
<td>30.0–36.3</td>
<td>0.20239</td>
<td>0.47507</td>
<td>0.0011029</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.47935</td>
<td>0.0012861</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>4-17-03</td>
<td>( L_z )</td>
<td>46.6–60.3</td>
<td>0.19855</td>
<td>0.46716</td>
<td>0.015191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>5-22-03</td>
<td>( L_z )</td>
<td>46.6–60.3</td>
<td>0.19404</td>
<td>0.46803</td>
<td>0.013432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>10-12-02</td>
<td>( E_h )</td>
<td>5.0–12.3</td>
<td>0.19893</td>
<td>0.47027</td>
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<tr>
<td>17</td>
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<td>0.47677</td>
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<td>19</td>
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<td>( L_z )</td>
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<td>12.3–20.2</td>
<td>0.19868</td>
<td>0.46423</td>
<td>0.0082847</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Denotes whether chromaticities in a given figure are calculated from spectral horizontal irradiances \( E_h \) or zenith radiances \( L_z \).
the often smooth chromaticity curves produced by clear twilights, daytime overcast curves tend to be erratic, with colors shifting from one measurement to the next in response to clouds’ fluctuating $E_e$ and optical depth $h_0$ (see Fig. 2’s time series of integrated $E$). Although such daylight color shifts are detectable in principle, in practice most go unnoticed.

Even if cloud type does not change, the color gamuts of overcasts on different days may differ perceptibly for the same $h_0$ interval. Figure 3 shows chromaticities from zenith $L_e$ for three different stratus overcasts at the Owings site when $46.6^\circ < h_0 < 60.3^\circ$. Because measured overcast chromaticities seldom change linearly, beginning in Fig. 3 we usually omit line segments between temporally adjacent colors. This plotting convention makes the details of our chromaticity gamuts somewhat clearer. Like all our daytime overcast measurements (i.e., those taken when $h_0 = 5^\circ$), Fig. 3’s chromaticities are to the left of the Planckian locus. Moreover, these three overcasts have more-or-less distinct chromaticity clusters that differ from one another on the CIE diagram by just-noticeable difference (or JND; 1 JND is the horizontal line at upper right in Fig. 3). In other words, if typical observers simultaneously compared Fig. 3’s clusters of overcast colors, most could just distinguish among them. But because we do not actually have this perceptual luxury, we seldom notice such small color shifts between different overcasts.

Figure 4, which shows $L$ time series for Fig. 3’s chromaticities, helps to explain differences in overcast color. Although all three overcasts in Figs. 3 and 4 consisted of stratus, their appearance ranged from distinctly variegated (4-17-03) to almost featureless (5-22-03). As clouds moved across the radiometer’s zenith FOV, the resulting changes in $\tau$ caused the fluctuations in both spectral $L_e$ and integrated $L$ seen in Figs. 3 and 4. Because the 5-22-03 overcast had the most spatially uniform $\tau$, it has the smallest $L$ dynamic range (or ratio of maximum to minimum $L$) and smallest $g$. Conversely, the overcast with the largest $L$ dynamic range (6-16-03; see Fig. 4’s dashed curve) has the largest $g$. Thus increased variability in overcast $\tau$ tends to make $g$ larger, and it also seems to change the colorimetric position of that gamut. In particular, the darkest overcast in Fig. 4 (5-22-03) is also the bluest in Fig. 3. We see this relationship directly in Fig. 5, where the lower-$E$ (and thus higher-$\tau$) right half of the fisheye image is distinctly bluer than the higher-$E$ left half. Because we fixed
the digital camera’s white balance setting when we took Fig. 5’s photographs, their color shift is real and not an electronic artifact. Optical explanations for these overcast color phenomena appear in Section 4.

3. Correlated Color Temperatures of Daytime Overcasts

Correlated color temperature (CCT) has long been used as an approximate, convenient alternative to chromaticity coordinates near the Planckian locus. Because CCT reduces two-dimensional color data \((u', v')\) to one dimension, CCT’s convenience comes at the cost of some colorimetric ambiguity. For example, although a 6000-Kelvin CCT can be on either side of the Planckian locus,21 all our measurements of daytime overcast CCTs place them on its left (or greenish) side. In Fig. 6, we show how overcast CCT varies with \(h_0\) for nearly half our 9100 daytime spectra. These are the \(E_\gamma\) spectra measured from the entire sky hemisphere; i.e., they are spectra of overcast daylight as opposed to skylight. Although cloud spectral optical depth \(\tau\) and the underlying surface’s spectral reflectance \(r_s\) also influence overcast CCT,\(^4\) \(h_0\) partly determines the daylight spectrum incident on an overcast’s top. In turn, this daylight spectrum affects overcast color as seen from the ground.

Because the incident illumination is only one of several factors governing overcast color, \(h_0\) and CCT are weakly correlated in Fig. 6. Yet as in our earlier work,\(^6\) mean overcast CCT in Fig. 6 clearly has a local minimum (i.e., is reddest) when \(30^\circ < h_0 < 35^\circ\). Although Fig. 6’s CCT variance might mitigate this local minimum, the distinct trend in mean CCT at nearby \(h_0\) suggests otherwise. If indeed this CCT minimum is real, we lack a ready explanation for it:

our measurements indicate that clear daylight at the surface (i.e., combined skylight and direct sunlight) usually does not begin to redden until \(20^\circ < h_0 < 25^\circ\). Furthermore, we cannot blame the overcast itself for this reddening. As demonstrated in Section 4, diffuse transmission through optically thick clouds makes the transmitted light slightly bluer, not redder.

The mean and median overcast CCTs in Fig. 6 are 6358 K and 6341 K, respectively. Although these values are \(\sim 375\) K larger than the mean overcast CCTs that we reported earlier,\(^6\) this is unlikely to be perceptually significant, especially given that the overall standard deviation \(\sigma = 336\) K is nearly as large as the CCT difference. In fact, our new mean and median CCT are closer to the 6500 K overcast white balance setting suggested by some digital camera manufacturers.22 The extreme daytime CCTs are 9316 K (bluest) and 5799 K (least blue), and we plot the corresponding \(E_\gamma\) spectra in Fig. 7. The high-CCT spectrum occurred when \(h_0 = 5.0^\circ\), our self-imposed lower limit on daytime \(h_0\). That the maximum CCT occurred at the lowest \(h_0\) is not surprising, because even though direct sunlight atop the overcast is reddened then, the combined effects of atmospheric extinction and the cosine law mean that it contributes relatively little to horizontal \(E_\gamma\).17 Instead, bluish skylight dominates illumination both above and below the clouds.

Figure 8’s histogram gives the distribution of all daytime overcast color temperatures, here shown as inverse CCTs.\(^6\) The unit of inverse CCT is the reciprocal mega-Kelvin \((10^9 / \text{CCT})\), denoted by the symbol MK\(^{-1}\) (originally called the “mired”).23 Reciprocal mega-Kelvins produce a uniform scale that better
describes human color sensitivity than does CCT itself. On this inverse CCT scale, our overcast spectra have a mean 157.7 MK, and a modal interval of 154–156 MK. Clearly Fig. 8 is skewed left toward smaller inverse CCT, and this is caused by a relatively few high-CCT overcasts seen at low h₀ (see Fig. 6’s left side).

4. Blue Clouds and Overcast Transmission Spectra

A fundamental problem in analyzing overcast colors is that the continual changes in cloud E and L (see Figs. 2, 4) further complicate an already complex optical system. We take two different tacks in addressing this problem: (1) averaging measured spectra over a small range of h₀ and (2) modeling the effects of individual parameters on overcast colors.

We start by defining an overcast’s spectral transmissivity \( T \), where

\[
T(\lambda) = \frac{E(\lambda, \text{OVC})}{E(\lambda, \text{CLR})}
\]  

(1)

is the ratio of an overcast’s downwelling spectral irradiances \( E(\lambda, \text{OVC}) \) to those of some average \( E(\lambda, \text{CLR}) \) for clear daylight at the same h₀. This last qualification is needed because both \( E(\lambda, \text{OVC}) \) and \( E(\lambda, \text{CLR}) \) are functions of h₀. Here we average \( E_\lambda \) spectra from the clear afternoons of 9-5-02 and 9-10-03 at USNA (see Fig. 1). In radiative-transfer models, an overcast’s \( T \) usually is defined as the ratio of downwelling irradiance at cloud bottom to that at cloud top (i.e., incident daylight). However, our ground-based measurement of \( T \) is nearly equivalent because many overcast cloud tops and bottoms are fairly close to the ground.²⁴

Figure 9 shows two stratus \( T(\lambda) \) spectra, each averaged over \( N \) overcast irradiance spectra with either relatively low \( T(N = 25) \) or high \( T(N = 17) \). The original overcast \( E_\lambda \) spectra were acquired over a restricted h₀ range on several different days. To show more spectral detail, we draw the two \( T(\lambda) \) spectra with different ordinate scales, and these scales preserve the relative slopes of the two curves. Figure 9 provides unambiguous spectral evidence that both low-T (or darker) and high-T (or brighter) overcasts shift incident daylight toward the blue, as indicated
by the best-fit power-law relationships $T(\lambda) \propto \lambda^{-0.611}$ for low $T$ and $T(\lambda) \propto \lambda^{-0.270}$ for high $T$. A slightly more pronounced $\lambda^{-c}$ dependence exists for stratus overcasts (see Fig. 10). For example, at comparable $T$ values in Figs. 9 and 10, $c$ is $\sim 44\%$ larger for the stratus overcast. Thus at the same $T$ or $\tau$, a stratus overcast will look slightly bluer than a stratus overcast. However, this distinction is often obscured for two reasons: (1) $T$ is seldom equal in different overcasts (see Fig. 2), and (2) temporal color constancy makes us less sensitive to any such daily changes in overcast color.

At wavelengths $>550$ nm, the measured $T(\lambda)$ spectra in Figs. 9 and 10 have local maxima and minima similar to those found in transmission spectra associated with continuum absorption by water vapor and oxygen. Thus absorption by atmospheric gasses within clouds adds some spectral detail to overcast $T(\lambda)$ spectra, but it does not explain their $\lambda^{-c}$ shape.

The fact that overcast $T(\lambda)$ varies approximately as $\lambda^{-c}$ may be surprising, since this is also true of the Rayleigh blue sky, for which $L_\alpha \propto \lambda^{-4}$ (i.e., $c = 4$). Yet unlike the clear sky, in an overcast the amount of bluing increases with $\tau$ (i.e., with decreasing $T$). Thus thicker clouds are bluer. This strongly suggests that spectrally selective absorption rather than scattering ultimately causes the subtle bluing seen beneath overcasts. In fact, we can use $T$ to estimate overcast $\tau$ by modifying Bohren’s two-stream radiative-transfer model to include surface reflectance $r$.

![Fig. 10. Mean $T(\lambda)$ spectra measured at E$_\alpha$ for stratus overcasts on 3-19-03; $h_0$ ranges from 41.9°–50.5°. $N = 15$ and $N = 19$ irradiance spectra were used to calculate the mean low- and high-transmissivity $T(\lambda)$ spectra, respectively. Each error bar spans 2SE at the given wavelength, and for clarity we show bars only for the $T(\lambda)$, high curve. Best-fit equations are for the interval 400 $\leq \lambda \leq$ 800 nm, with proportionality constants $k_3 = 4.136$ and $k_4 = 3.943$.](image1)

Then

$$\tau = \frac{2(T^{-1} - 1)}{(1-r)(1-g)}, \quad (2)$$

where $g$ is the single-scattering asymmetry parameter for cloud droplets, and all variables are implicit functions of $\lambda$. Not surprisingly, Eq. (2) is most realistic for thicker overcasts where the assumptions of the two-stream model are best satisfied.

5. Modeling Overcast Transmission Spectra and Chromaticities

To analyze the fundamental optical properties that determine overcast $T(\lambda)$, we use the detailed and extensively tested radiative-transfer model MODTRAN4. MODTRAN combines features of horizontally homogeneous spherical-shell and plane-parallel atmospheres, and it calculates solar direct-beam and diffusely scattered components at each of the model’s many vertical levels. Provided that $h_0 > 0^\circ$, MODTRAN yields quite realistic $L_\alpha$ and $E_\alpha$ spectra for skylight and daylight. Except as noted below, each of our MODTRAN simulations includes the following parameters: a default midlatitude winter atmospheric profile of temperature, pressure, humidity, and gas mixing ratios; tropospheric aerosols typical of rural sites; background stratospheric dust and other aerosols; multiple scattering; a Lambertian surface with $r = 0.2$ at all $\lambda$; and Mie aerosol phase functions.

In Fig. 11, we calculate MODTRAN’s $T(\lambda)$ using downwelling surface $E_\alpha$ for a stratus layer whose thickness $\Delta z = 670$ m and clear-sky $E_\alpha$ at the same
We also include in Fig. 11 a stratus overcast with \( z = 100 \) m, but here we calculate \( T(\lambda) \) using simulated \( E \) at cloud top and bottom. This change lets us examine in Fig. 12 the diffuse and direct-beam \( T(\lambda) \) restricted to just the cloud itself. For the 100 m overcast in Fig. 11, mean \( T \) is naturally rather large, and \( T \) is nearly spectrally neutral (\( c = 0.065 \)). Yet unlike many other models, MODTRAN’s simulated \( T \) spectra closely resemble our measured \( T \) spectra, including such features as continuum absorption by water vapor and oxygen. For example, compare the similar transmissivity curves \( T(\lambda), 670 \) m in Fig. 11 and \( T(\lambda), \) high in Fig. 9.

Figure 12 shows the very different MODTRAN \( T(\lambda) \) spectra of daylight’s attenuated direct-beam and amplified diffuse scattering components. Even a thin stratus overcast with \( z = 100 \) m nearly extinguishes the direct solar beam and makes it slightly bluer, as seen in the \( T(\lambda), \) direct) spectrum. Yet Fig. 12’s \( T(\lambda), \) diffuse) spectrum is both \( >1 \) and redder at the cloud’s bottom. This occurs because, by definition, the model’s cloud-top diffuse \( E_x \) consists only of energy from outside the Sun’s solid angle. Thus it starts with a diffuse \( E_x \) component predominated by blue skylight, but after traversing the cloud, this diffuse \( E_x \) has (1) gained energy scattered from the direct beam, which (2) was much less blue than skylight to begin with, and from which (3) there is slightly preferential scattering of red light that adds to the diffuse downward \( E_x \).

In Fig. 13, we examine how absorption and extinction by stratus cloud droplets can account for MODTRAN’s overcast colors. First, note that the size-dependent extinction for these relatively large (radius \( a > 5 \) \( \mu \)m) droplets is simply proportional to \( 2\pi a^2 \). Second, MODTRAN’s absorption coefficient for liquid water (\( C_{abs} \)) is significant only at \( \lambda > 590 \) nm, which apparently leads to droplets that have slightly nonneutral extinction cross sections \( C_{ext} \) at visible \( \lambda \) (\( C_{ext} \) increases \( \sim 2.7\% \) from 380–780 nm).

So if extinction increases weakly with \( \lambda \), then the (possibly) transmitted direct beam becomes slightly bluer, and the scattered light becomes slightly less blue, as we saw earlier. How do these droplet-level details help explain thick clouds’ bluish color? Imagine an optically thick overcast with cloud normal \( \tau > 100 \). We routinely experience such overcasts, and as seen in Fig. 14, surface \( E \) beneath them decreases monotonically (but not linearly) with increasing \( \Delta z \) or

\[ h_0 \]

Fig. 12. Comparison of simulated MODTRAN \( T(\lambda) \) for the direct-beam and diffuse components in Fig. 11’s 100 m thick stratus overcast. \( T(\lambda, \text{diffuse}) > 1 \) because the diffuse irradiances at cloud bottom (the numerator in Eq. (1)) include energy scattered from the direct solar beam, whereas diffuse irradiances at cloud top exclude direct sunlight.

Fig. 13. MODTRAN visible-wavelength spectra of absorption cross section \( C_{abs} \) and extinction cross section \( C_{ext} \) for stratus droplets of radius \( a \). \( C_{ext} \) is normalized by its value at 550 nm and is proportional to \( 2\pi a^2 \). Note that \( C_{abs} \) is scaled logarithmically.

Fig. 14. MODTRAN simulation of horizontal irradiances \( E \) at the surface as a function of cloud thickness \( \Delta z \). For normal optical depth \( \tau \), the \( E(\tau) \) curve is not exactly congruent with the \( E(\Delta z) \) curve because we calculate the former independent of MODTRAN using Eqs. (1) and (2).
Our thought experiment and MODTRAN simulations show that cloud-top height \( z(\text{top}) \) contributes little to overcast bluing. Certainly downwelling clear-sky \( E_h \) grow bluer as observer \( z \) increases, but only within limits. For example, we have measured daytime \( E_h \) spectra at altitudes of \( z \sim 3.8 \) km that are distinctly bluer than those near sea level. However, this trend cannot continue indefinitely, since skylight radiances decrease with \( z \) even as their colorimetric purities increase. Ultimately, the purest blue skylight occurs at \( z \) such that only one molecule scatters sunlight to us; but then the sky will be black, not blue, and the color of daylight will be that of extraterrestrial sunlight.

In fact, blue skylight’s increasing purity with \( z \) has only a minor effect on overcast colors at the surface. Depending on \( z(\text{top}) \), daylight incident on higher clouds may well be bluer than that on lower clouds, but the clear-sky molecular atmosphere still exists between the surface and \( z(\text{top}) \). Although the illumination geometry certainly changes for gas molecules within clouds, their spectral scattering properties are unchanged, and so will be their individual contributions to surface \( E_h \). MODTRAN simulations show that cloud thickness \( \Delta z \) plays a far more important role than \( z(\text{top}) \). In Fig. 16, we plot as functions of \( \Delta z \) the daylight chromaticities beneath the two MODTRAN stratus overcasts.

If daylight color beneath these two overcasts were identically blue, then it would be clear-sky blue, not neostratus blue.

Fig. 15. MODTRAN simulations of stratus overcast \( u', v' \) chromaticities calculated from \( E_h \), as functions of \( \Delta z \) and \( h_0 \). The dashed \( h_0 \) curve sets \( \Delta z = 1 \) km, and the solid \( \Delta z \) curve sets \( h_0 = 45^\circ \). The underlying Lambertian surface has a constant spectral reflectance \( r_\lambda = 0.2 \). During the daytime, simulated overcast colors grow steadily bluer as \( \Delta z \) increases and \( h_0 \) decreases.

Fig. 16. MODTRAN simulations of stratus overcast \( u', v' \) chromaticities calculated from \( E_h \), as functions of \( \Delta z \) and fixed-altitude tops \( z(\text{top}) \) and fixed-altitude bottoms \( z(\text{base}) \). Although the Case 2 chromaticities (fixed, high-altitude \( z(\text{top}) \) are slightly bluer, in both cases bluing of daylight beneath the overcast depends much more strongly on cloud \( \Delta z \).
largely determined by $z$(top), then chromaticity distances $\Delta u'v'$ at the same $\Delta z$ should be nearly as large as or larger than those caused by increasing cloud $\Delta z$ (pairs of $+$’s in Fig. 16 mark equal-$\Delta z$ chromaticities). Yet Fig. 16 clearly shows that this is not so; although Case 2 chromaticities are slightly bluer than those for Case 1 at the same $\Delta z$ (i.e., Case 2 chromaticities are shifted slightly leftward), the maximum $\Delta u'v'$ at $\Delta z = 2.5$ km is far less than the $\Delta u'v'$ caused by a 2.5 km thick stratus overcast (i.e., the chromaticity distance between $\Delta z = 2.5$ km and $\Delta z = 10$ m). In particular, note that the largest Case 1–Case 2 color difference at $\Delta z = 2.5$ is still less than 1 JND. Similar results occur at smaller $h_0$. Thus multiple scattering and absorption within clouds, not the altitudes of cloud tops, chiefly determine daytime overcast colors at the surface.

In one sense, Fig. 17’s measured chromaticities support MODTRAN’s claim in Fig. 15 about the $h_0$-dependence of overcast colors: for both overcasts, the largest CCT increases occur at the smallest $h_0$. In Fig. 17, CCT increases steadily only when $h_0 < 8.2^\circ$ (Granada 11-15-03) or $h_0 < 6.6^\circ$ (Marion Center 10-12-02). However, the measured effects of cloud $\Delta z$ seem to differ from those predicted by MODTRAN. Although the Granada overcast is consistently much darker than that at Marion Center (by an $E$ factor $\sim 2.1$), its mean $u'$ is in fact larger, not smaller as MODTRAN predicts. Furthermore, MODTRAN predicts that the Granada chromaticity curve will shift rightward $\ll 1$ JND as a result of Granada having a stratocumulus, rather than a stratus, overcast. Instead, Fig. 17’s Granada curve $> 1$ JND to the right of the Marion Center curve. Our point here is not that MODTRAN is unrealistic but that ultimately we must know more about overcast illumination and internal structure (e.g., clouds at other $z$, vertical inhomogeneities in droplet and haze number densities, detailed drop size distributions) before we can test the model rigorously.

6. Overcast Color and Surface Color
Some 50 years ago, Middleton made one of the first systematic attempts to predict overcast sky colors. He did so by incorporating spectral ground reflectance $r_g$ and scattering and absorption by cloud droplets into a model of overcast spectra in a plane-parallel atmosphere. Other model parameters included cloud thickness, droplet number density, and monodisperse droplet radius and scattering coefficient; $h_0$ was fixed at 25°. When Middleton ultimately calculated chromaticities from $E_0$ beneath the overcast, he decided to ignore absorption by both droplets and their inclusions, asserting that the overcast sky’s chromaticity and luminance are to “a considerable extent a function of the reflectance of the ground, but depend only to a minor degree on the presence of dissolved absorbing matter in the cloud water.”

As beneficiaries of several additional decades of research on overcasts, what new can we say about Middleton’s claims?

In Fig. 18, the short line segment at upper right connects Middleton’s predicted chromaticities for overcasts with cloud $\Delta z = 1$ km or 2 km above grass. A longer line at Fig. 18’s bottom connects his chromaticities for the same $\Delta z$ pair above snow. Middleton thus predicts that the same overcast will be markedly bluer above snow than above grass. Although MODTRAN makes the same qualitative prediction about snow’s effect, quantitatively it greatly expands Middleton’s overcast $g$ for overcast/grass and shifts those chromaticities toward higher CCT. Given that both models use similar $r_g$ spectra for grass and for snow, their differences probably are not caused by the underlying surfaces.

Because snow reflects more bluish cloud light to the
cloud’s bottom than does grass (i.e., the cloud bottom is brighter above snow), there is more scattering within the cloud. More germane for us is that the additional scattering results in additional spectrally selective absorption by the cloud. Some of the remaining blue-enhanced light is then scattered downward to our eyes and radiometers, making the overcast both bluer and brighter than it would be over a low-r surface. In effect, snow increases overcast blueness by increasing cloud \( \Delta \alpha \) and \( \tau \).

Middleton’s chromaticities for an overcast above snow clearly are incorrect because they are on the opposite side of the Planckian locus from our measured chromaticities. This problem may be caused by Middleton’s decision to ignore spectral absorption by cloud water. Yet MODTRAN avoids this problem above snow cover only to encounter others. In Fig. 19, the 2-17-03 overcast immediately followed a major winter storm that left \( \sim 0.3 \text{ m of snow on the ground at Owings; on 2-6-03 the ground was snow-free. On both days, nearly featureless stratus clouds comprised the overcast.}

The most obvious colorimetric differences between Fig. 19’s two overcasts are that the post-snow \( g \) increases in size and shifts slightly leftward. This observed behavior is quite different from that of MODTRAN,\(^{31}\) which predicts large shifts away from the Planckian locus and toward higher CCTs (see Fig. 18’s thick arrow).

In fact, surface \( r_s \) may matter less than either Middleton’s model or MODTRAN suggest. Using the same \( u', v' \) scale as Figs. 18 and 19, Fig. 20 shows overcast zenith chromaticities measured at Owings on three snow-free days in January 2003. Although the surface \( r_s \) changed little during this two-week period, the spread in Fig. 20’s overcast chromaticities is comparable to that in Fig. 19. Furthermore, the 1-1-03 overcast has many chromaticities that are displaced even farther from the Planckian locus than are Fig. 19’s most distant post-snow colors. This observation naturally raises the question of how much of Fig. 19’s chromaticity shift is due to snow. To us, Figs. 19 and 20 suggest that daily (and even minute-by-minute) changes in cloud \( \tau_s \) may well do more to affect overcast colors than all but the most extreme shifts in surface \( r_s \).

7. Conclusions

Our measurements of overcast \( T(\lambda) \) spectra (Figs. 9 and 10) should help dispel any lingering notion that overcasts are spectrally neutral transmitters of visible-wavelength daylight. While overcast colors literally pale in comparison to their spectacular cerulean counterparts, they have much to teach us about radiative transfer in clouds. Although the total depth of liquid water in even the thickest overcast is quite small, multiple scattering greatly enhances the small amount of spectrally selective absorption that occurs each time light interacts with a cloud droplet.\(^{28}\) After many scatterings, the amount of bluing caused by thick clouds is quite perceptible, as even a casual inspection of their bottoms reveals (Fig. 5). Continuum absorption by water vapor and oxygen adds important spectral details at longer visible wavelengths in \( T(\lambda) \) spectra (Figs. 9 and 10),\(^{26}\) but does not explain their overall shape or the resulting overcast colors.

However drab the colors of overcast skies may seem visually, explaining their chromaticities and (ir)radiance spectra continues to be a challenge. First, the observed \( g \) of daylight from overcasts usually is larger than that of clear-sky daylight (Fig. 1), and MODTRAN simulations only begin to mimic this range of colors (Figs. 15 and 18). Second, sorting out the relative spectral contributions of overcasts’ \( T(\lambda) \) or \( \tau_s \), the \( E_s \) spectra incident on the clouds’ tops, and the \( r_s \) spectra of the underlying surface remains dif-
difficult many years after Middleton’s pioneering work. Our research suggests that $r$, probably is less important than he concluded, and that other purely atmospheric factors such as the presence of fog (see Fig. 20’s 1-1-03 overcast) are more important. Finally, overcasts’ apparent visual simplicity hides great colorimetric and spectral complexity. To understand this complexity better, in future research we will consider vertical and horizontal inhomogeneities within optically thick clouds. Thus while overcast colors may look pedestrian, they offer a wealth of new insights in atmospheric optics.

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References and Notes

14. Although the CIE 1976 UCS diagram is itself perceptually isotropic, note that in order to show as much detail as possible, we make the ordinate and abscissa scales differ in Fig. 1 and later chromaticity diagrams.
15. PR-650 spectroradiometer from Photo Research, Inc., 9731 Topanga Canyon Place, Chatsworth, Calif. 91311. According to Photo Research, at specified radiation levels a properly calibrated PR-650 measures luminance and radiation accurate to within ±4%, has a spectral accuracy of ±2 nm, and its CIE 1931 colorimetric errors are $x < 0.001, y < 0.001$ for a 2856 K blackbody (CIE standard illuminant A).
16. R. L. Lee, Jr., “Twilight and daytime colors of the clear sky,” Appl. Opt. 33, 4629–4638, 4955 (1994). Gamut $g$ ranges from 0 for constant chromaticity to 1 for the spectrum locus, and thus represents the fraction of the CIE diagram that a given chromaticity curve spans.
18. Reference 11, pp. 306–310. Here we follow convention and set the JND equal to the semimajor axis length of the MacAdam color-matching ellipse at the given chromaticity.
23. Our experience is that cloud tops occur approximately where radiosonde relative humidity falls below 96% as altitude $z$ increases. Using this admittedly imperfect criterion, for 24 different overcasts our mean cloud-top $z$(top) = 1700 m above sea level, median $z$(top) = 1445 m, and the $z$(top) standard deviation = 961 m.
27. C. F. Bohren, “Multiple scattering of light and some of its observable consequences,” Am. J. Phys. 55, 524–533 (1987). Our Eq. (2) is derived from Bohren’s Eq. (15) for $T$ as a function of $\tau$, and we use Bohren’s value of $g = 0.85$ for visible-wavelength scattering by cloud droplets.
28. MODTRAN uses a plane-parallel atmosphere to calculate multiple-scattering contributions to daylight and skylight, and when $h_0 \leq 0^\circ$ the model produces nonphysical spectra in the visible.
30. Based on radiosonde data from nearby Dulles International Airport (code IAD), we estimated cloud $\Delta z = 0.2$ km and 1.0 km on 2-6-03 and 2-17-03, respectively. Perhaps surprisingly, using $r_f$ for green grass in the 2-6-03 wintertime landscape was not unrealistic (this choice aids comparison with Middleton’s results in Fig. 18). Even though we do not know the actual mean Owings $r_f$ spectrum on 2-6-03, MODTRAN predicted negligible differences in overcast chromaticities when we tried several different materials (e.g., tree bark, a mixture of dead and living vegetation) for the snow-free surface’s $r_f$. 