

Thermometer screen intercomparison in De Bilt (The Netherlands), Part I: Understanding the weather-dependent temperature differences)

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ABSTRACT: Temperatures of ten thermometer screens have been studied for particular weather conditions during a 6-year field experiment in De Bilt (the Netherlands). The comparison comprised two versions of an aspirated Young screen, four naturally ventilated round shaped multi-plate screens (KNMI, Vaisala, Young, Socrima), a slightly aspirated version of the KNMI screen, a synthetic Stevenson screen (both aspirated and naturally ventilated) and a naturally ventilated wooden Stevenson screen. All the screens were equipped with fast-responding sensors. A simple method is presented to obtain intersensor accuracies of about 0.03 °C under field conditions. The response time of the screens is studied by making a daily comparison of the time stamps of the minimum and maximum temperatures. The analysis shows that the response of the naturally ventilated Stevenson screens is about 7–8 min slower than for the other screens. The screens have been compared for conditions of rainfall, wind, clear sunny days, days with snow cover and days with fog. It is demonstrated how these weather conditions affect the temperature measurements of the screens. The results show that the screens can roughly be classified into three distinct groups: (1) the round shaped multiplate screens, (2) the naturally ventilated Stevenson screens, and (3) the strongly aspirated screens. Owing to the complexity of reducing climate and siting dependent environmental impacts on temperature measurements, it is not possible to design one particular screen as a worldwide reference. For each climate, a special screen has to be developed as the best balance between the application of impacts reduction techniques and sensing the real air temperature. Copyright © 2007 Royal Meteorological Society

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1. Introduction

The measurement of air temperature in operational meteorology and climatology is still a difficult task that demands continuous attention of the scientific community. Adequate air temperature measurements, representative for the area the temperature station represents, require (among others) minimization of local effects related to the situation of the station (e.g. trees and buildings) and minimization of environmental effects that influence the actual sensing of the temperature at the position of the sensor. For the latter, thermometer screens (also known as *radiation screens*) are used. Although international guidelines have been specified to obtain uniformity in the measurements (WMO, 1996), no standard thermometer screen has been defined. Consequently, many different designs of thermometer screens are in use throughout the world each with its own specific characteristics.

Internationally, temperature of the air near the earth's surface is defined as 'the temperature indicated by a thermometer exposed to the air in a place sheltered from direct solar radiation' (WMO, 1992). Alternatively, in

this paper, we define air temperature as 'the temperature of the air at the position of the sensor if no measurement equipment would be installed'. This latter definition stimulates a proper design of thermometer screens and may eventually result in the development of new methods of temperature measurements that use no screens at all, such as the use of sonic anemometers for indirectly measuring air temperature.

The main functions of thermometer screens are to protect the sensor (or thermometer) from direct or indirect radiation from the sun during the day and from radiation from the sensor to the sky at night (e.g. Mawley, 1897) and to protect the sensor from wetting. Wetting of the sensor and screen is caused by fog, drizzle or rain, in combination with wind, and may result in a negative bias as the sensor starts acting like a wet bulb thermometer. However, protection against radiation and wetting conflicts with the requirement of sufficient ventilation. Owing to insufficient ventilation a microclimate develops within the screen, with its strength strongly dependent on the bulk of the screen. In an overview of recent changes in the thermometer screen design, Barnett *et al.* (1998) observed that a problem with the traditional wooden screen is its bulk, causing a large thermal inertia. In fact, all screens develop to some

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extent their own microclimate and the difference with the ambient climate depends on screen type and design. In general, it may be stated that the larger the bulk of a screen, the stronger the microclimate within the screen and the more the sensed temperature deviates from the real air temperature.

From the above, it follows that thermometer screens should have a high reflectivity to minimize heating of the plates (or louvres) and subsequent warming of the air as it flows over the plates to the sensor. To decrease the time the air is in contact with the plate, the plate radial distance should be as small as possible. To prevent the development of microclimates within the screens, the blockage of ambient airflow by the screen should also be minimized by making the plate spacing as large as possible (taking into account the requirement that wetting of the sensor should be prevented). Consequently, any design of a thermometer screen is a result of compromises and consensus. Finding the optimal design is a serious challenge that may require the use of different methods for studying the behaviour of screens.

Among the methods for comparing the behaviour of thermometer screens are, e.g. wind tunnel experiments, numerical simulations, development of analytical equations, and field experiments. For instance, Gill (1983) compared the radiation errors above a simulated snow surface of seven thermometer screens in a wind tunnel. The results show for all screens a strong increase of radiation errors with decreasing ventilation rates, especially for rates smaller than 2 m/s. Brock *et al.* (1995) performed a wind tunnel experiment to compare two thermometer screens with respect to temperatures and vertical wind profiles within the screen, compared to ambient wind speed and temperature. Although the laboratory or wind tunnel provides controlled environments, they are not always representatives for field conditions (e.g. Lin *et al.*, 2001). Richardson and Brock (1995) developed analytical equations that relate direct and indirect radiational heating errors to shield and sensor parameters. They used their analytical expressions to show the importance of applying small and reflective temperature sensors. Many field experiments have been carried out (Sparks, 1972, 2001; Zanghi, 1987; Barnett *et al.*, 1998; Lefebvre, 1998; Spetalen *et al.*, 2000; Hatton, 2002; Larre and Hegg, 2002; Leroy *et al.*, 2002). Most of these experiments concentrate on average monthly or seasonal temperature differences between screens (e.g. Quayle *et al.*, 1991; Chenoweth, 1992). Andersson and Mattisson (1991) and Perry *et al.* (2007) compare several screens for a period of about one year. They discuss the differences between the screens for several weather conditions.

In the field, the actual differences between the air temperature in the screens and the ambient air temperature depend mainly on the prevailing weather conditions. The magnitude of these weather-dependent interscreen temperature differences for commonly used screen types has not yet been sufficiently studied. Furthermore, the state of the ground and humidity of the soil will also affect

the air temperature in the screen as radiation or reflection will cause screen-dependent biases. This can easily occur in areas with snow cover and in deserts. As a consequence, when designing a screen, both its behaviour under different weather conditions and for different local exposures should be considered. Therefore, the Commission for Instruments and Methods of Observation (CIMO) recommended organizing an international intercomparison of thermometer screens in different climatological regions (WMO, 2003). This work started in 2007.

It follows that for each climatological region, a different design of thermometer screen will be the most appropriate and no single screen is recommended as a standard reference for global practices. Nevertheless, there have been efforts to design and recommend a standard for the measurement of temperature and humidity. An example is the WMO Reference Psychrometer (Wylie and Lalas, 1992). This reference is, however, not commonly accepted as a suitable standard for intercomparisons. Another approach is published by the International Standardization Organization (ISO, 2004), which should become the standard procedure for screen intercomparisons. The best way to select the optimal thermometer screen for a particular climate region is to intercompare sets of screens in the field for a prolonged period of time. Comparing the behaviour of the screens for specific weather conditions will give a good understanding of their qualities and of the technology involved.

Here, we compare a set of screens for the climate conditions in the Netherlands. We extend the approach of Andersson and Mattisson (1991) for a six-year field experiment in the period 1989–1995 at the instruments test site at KNMI in De Bilt. Although Van der Meulen (1998, 2000) presented initial results of the experiment, a thorough analysis of the data was still lacking. In the experiment, ten screens are compared. All the screens operated for at least two years in parallel with a reference screen. The original reason for the experiment was to provide a basis for choosing an appropriate thermometer screen design for automatic measurements of temperature and relative humidity. In particular, the possible choice for any round shaped screen to replace the traditional Stevenson screen was of interest. Recently, we reanalysed the data in order to obtain weather-dependent corrections for the long-term daily De Bilt temperature time series.

The emphasis in this paper will be on understanding the weather-dependent temperature differences between the screens. This is mainly related to the interests of the operational meteorologist, who wants to measure air temperature as close as possible to the real air temperature. This type of analysis should always precede a statistical analysis of the data. In Part II (Brandsma and Van der Meulen, 2007) we concentrate on the description and modelling of the mean temperature differences and extremes. The interest of the climatologist is to prevent artificial breaks due to screen changes or to have the ability to correct these breaks. In Section 2 of this paper, we describe the the experimental setup, calibration and methodology. The screens are compared in Section 3, for

conditions of rainfall, clear-sky, fog and snow. Section 4 contains discussion and conclusions.

2. Data and methods

2.1. Experimental setup

The field experiment was performed in a 6-year period between 9 January 1989 and 11 February 1995 at the testing site of KNMI in De Bilt (WMO 06260, 52.099°N, 05.176°E), situated at the centre of the Netherlands, about 55 km east from the North Sea coast. Ground surface of the testing site is at 2 m above mean sea level and the soil consists of a mixture of clay and sand, with groundwater levels 50–80 cm below ground surface in summer and <40 cm in winter. The climate is typical for the mid-latitudes with prevailing westerly winds and precipitation for 7% of the time amounting to about 800 mm per year. Annual mean air temperatures are around 10 °C, with the monthly average daily minimum temperature varying between -0.1 °C (February) and 12.5 °C (July) and the monthly average daily maximum temperature varying between 5.2 °C (January) and 22.3 °C (August). The measurements were performed above a flat open terrain with short cut grass cover and

are sufficiently far removed from major obstacles like buildings, forests or lakes, which may give unpredictable impacts.

The experiment compares ten different screens. Figure 1 shows an overview of the test site with the screens and Figure 2 shows detailed pictures of the screens. In November/December 1991, the whole setup was moved about 50 m southeast because of a redivision of the measuring field. All the screens are placed within an area of about 7 by 20 m in two parallel rows and equally spaced. The mutual distance between the screens is about 2.5 m, large enough to avoid mutual influencing. The temperature measurements in the screens are performed at a height of 1.5 m (the observational height in the Netherlands). To avoid any impact due to heating of the stands, the screens (except the Stevensons) were placed at the ends of horizontally positioned 'H'- or 'I'-shaped supports (see Figure 1). Only the KNMI multiplate screen operated during the whole 6-year period, the other screens operated generally for periods of at least 2 years. Table I presents some details of the screens and the sensors. The abbreviations for the screens given in this table are used throughout this paper. The colour of the screen interior of Knmi.ref, Knmi.asp and Vaisala is black, for all other screens the interior colour is white. Maintenance and the



Figure 1. Experimental setup, (a) for the period 1989–1991, (b) for the period 1992–1995.

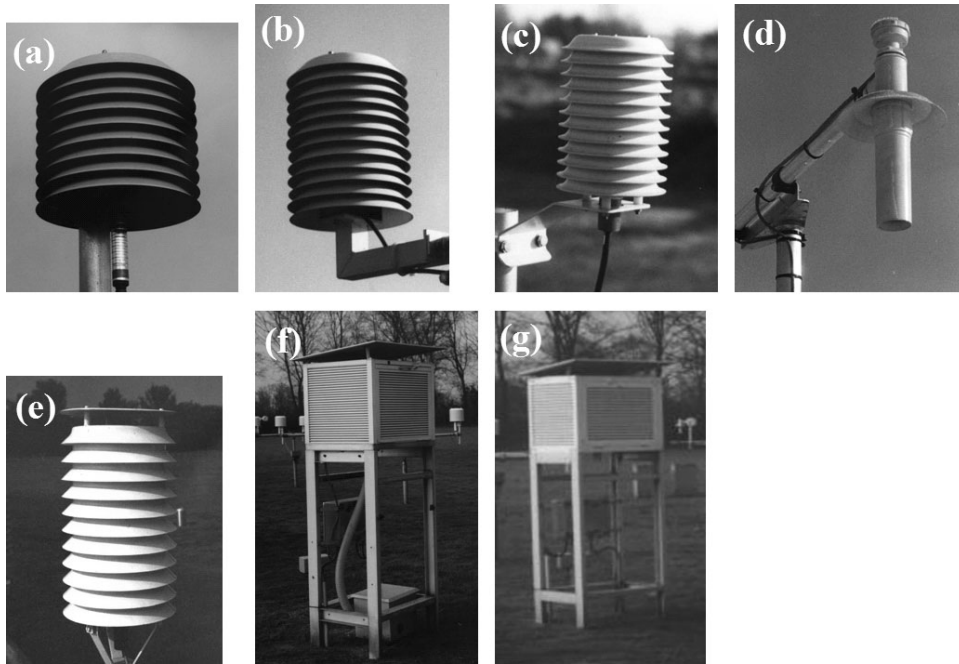


Figure 2. Overview of screens: (a) KNMI multiplate, (b) Vaisala multiplate, (c) Young Gill multiplate, (d) Young aspirated (type I and type II), (e) Socrima multiplate, (f) Stevenson PVC, and (g) Stevenson Wood. Screens (a) and (f) consist of an aspirated and natural ventilated version.

Table I. Details of screens and sensors. The Stevenson screens are of KNMI design.

| Screen | Abbreviation | Start date | End date | Diameter (m) | Ventilation | Sensor |
|-------------------------------|--------------|------------|----------|--------------|------------------------------------|---------------------|
| KNMI multiplate | Knmi.ref | 09/01/89 | 01/02/95 | 0.30 | naturally | Pt500 |
| KNMI multi-late aspirated | Knmi.asp | 13/12/90 | 20/02/93 | 0.30 | aspirated (1 dm ³ /min) | Pt500 |
| Vaisala multiplate DTR11 | Vaisala | 09/01/89 | 20/02/93 | 0.30 | naturally | Pt500 |
| Young Gill multiplate 41002 | Young | 09/01/89 | 20/02/93 | 0.12 | naturally | Pt500 |
| Young aspirated type I 43408 | Young.aspI | 13/12/90 | 18/08/92 | 0.15/0.04 | aspirated (0.1 dm ³ /s) | Pt1000 ^a |
| Young aspirated type II 43408 | Young.aspII | 18/08/92 | 01/02/95 | 0.15/0.025 | aspirated (0.1 dm ³ /s) | Pt1000 ^a |
| Socrima multiplate BMO 1167A | Socrima | 08/03/91 | 01/02/95 | 0.20 | naturally | Pt500 |
| Stevenson PVC | Stev.pvc | 09/01/89 | 06/03/91 | 0.70 | naturally | Pt500 |
| Stevenson PVC aspirated | Stev.pvc.asp | 07/03/91 | 01/02/95 | 0.70 | aspirated (1 dm ³ /s) | Pt500 |
| Stevenson wood | Stev.wood | 09/01/89 | 20/02/93 | 0.70 | naturally | Pt500 |

^a For the Young aspirated screens the sensor is an integral part of the measuring device. The first value for the diameter for these screens refers to the diameter of the radiation shield, the second to the tube that houses the sensor.

relocation of the testing site caused data gaps of several months.

To examine mutual differences in behaviour, both artificially and naturally ventilated screens were selected. Although artificial ventilation seems to be beneficial, amplified airflow may also introduce negative impacts, *e.g.* in the case with air saturated with moisture.

All the presented screens (or comparable ones) are still in operation in different parts of the world. In general, the round shaped multiplate screens have become the default screen in automatic weather stations (AWS), which are mainly found in the industrialized countries. In the developing countries, manned stations are still the backbone of the national synoptic networks and Stevenson screens are widely used there. In climate observing networks, Stevenson screens are still commonly used worldwide.

The recent introduction of AWS for climatological practices will result in a conversion from Stevenson screens to round shaped multiplate screens.

The sensors used in the test are identical 4-wired platinum (Pt) resistance thermometers, with an absolute measurement uncertainty $<0.05^{\circ}\text{C}$ during a period of 3 years or more. To minimize the self-heating of the sensor below an acceptable value ($<0.01^{\circ}\text{C}$), a resistance value of $500\ \Omega$ (at 0.00°C) was chosen (a so-called Pt500). The overall measurement uncertainty (sensor and equipment during the period of the intercomparison) of the sensors is 0.1°C . The temperature scale defined for the measurement of air temperature is in line with WMO regulations (*i.e.* ITS-90).

Temperature is sampled and archived instantaneously every 15 s with a resolution of 0.01°C . Unless stated

otherwise, we use 10 min mean temperature values. This averaging period was chosen to minimize the local spatial differences of the true air temperature due to small-scale turbulence (sometimes larger than $0.5^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{min}$). To study the effects of other meteorological elements on the temperature differences between the screens, the following operationally measured elements at the KNMI-terrain (WMO 06 260) have also been used: wind speed u (at 10 m until 26 June 1993 and thereafter at 20 m), global radiation K_{\downarrow} , cloud cover N , precipitation P , and relative humidity rh . Most elements are measured within a range of about 30 m from the test site and can be considered representative for that site. Wind speed and direction are measured (operationally) about 200 m east of the experimental site. At the beginning of the intercomparison, the elements are available on an hourly basis (10 min before whole hours UTC) but from 27 September 1989 onwards wind speed, precipitation, humidity and incoming global radiation are also available on a 10-min resolution.

There are two factors that complicate the intercomparison of the screens. First, sensors may be subject to unpredictable degradation causing drift or instable read-outs. The sensors were therefore recalibrated at intervals of about 2 years in a calibration lab at KNMI and against references with approved traceability to the international temperature standards. If, after recalibration, any sensor did not satisfy the stated uncertainty of $<0.05^{\circ}\text{C}$, it was replaced. Second, the screens themselves may cause drift of temperature because of contamination or degradation. For example, dark pollution will increase the absorption of the short-wave radiation resulting in self-heating. To minimize these kinds of effects, the screens were inspected at least once a week and cleaned up if necessary.

2.2. Calibration of the sensors under field conditions

In fact, the observed temperature differences between

screens should be determined with an uncertainty that is an order of magnitude smaller than the required target uncertainty for operational air temperature measurements (0.1°C). To meet this requirement, we calibrated the sensors against the sensor of the reference screen for conditions where there are no changes in temperature, no precipitation and with a constant air flow (no cooling and no warming), usually during nighttime (Figure 3 gives an example). For these conditions, we may expect the screens (and sensors) to have the same temperature. Since there was no defined international reference screen that may serve as a real scientifically understood reference, we used the naturally ventilated KNMI multiplate screen (Knmi.ref) as a relative reference. That was the only screen that operated for the whole 6-year period and is the current operational screen in the Netherlands. For the purpose of calibration, temperature observations from Knmi.ref were selected that satisfy the criterion that the root mean squared deviations in the period from one hour before to one hour after the observation are smaller than a predefined threshold δ :

$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{13} \sum_{j=-6}^{j=6} (T_{i+j} - \bar{T}_i)^2} < \delta \quad (1)$$

where T_i is the i th 10-min temperature observation of Knmi.ref and the average running mean temperature $\bar{T}_i = \frac{1}{13} \sum_{j=-6}^{j=6} T_{i+j}$. The choice of δ is somewhat subjective: large δ results in a noisy signal whereas small δ may not leave enough observations to determine the corrections. After comparing several values of δ by visual inspection, we chose $\delta = 0.03^{\circ}\text{C}$. A total of 0.7% of the total number of observations satisfies this criterion, of which 81% are nighttime observations.

Figure 4 presents the temperature differences ΔT (screen – Knmi.ref) for which T_i of Knmi.ref satisfies the

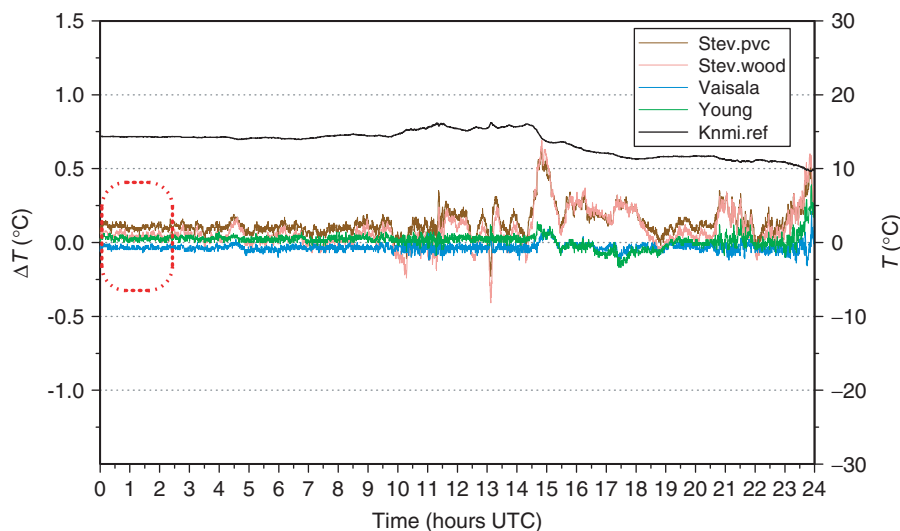


Figure 3. Example of conditions suitable for intersensor calibration (dotted box) on 13 October 1989. Data are 15 s samples. The left axis gives the differences between the screens and Knmi.ref, the right axis gives actual air temperature of Knmi.ref. Local solar time = UTC + 20 min. The weather conditions for the data in the box are overcast skies and strong winds of 5 m/s.

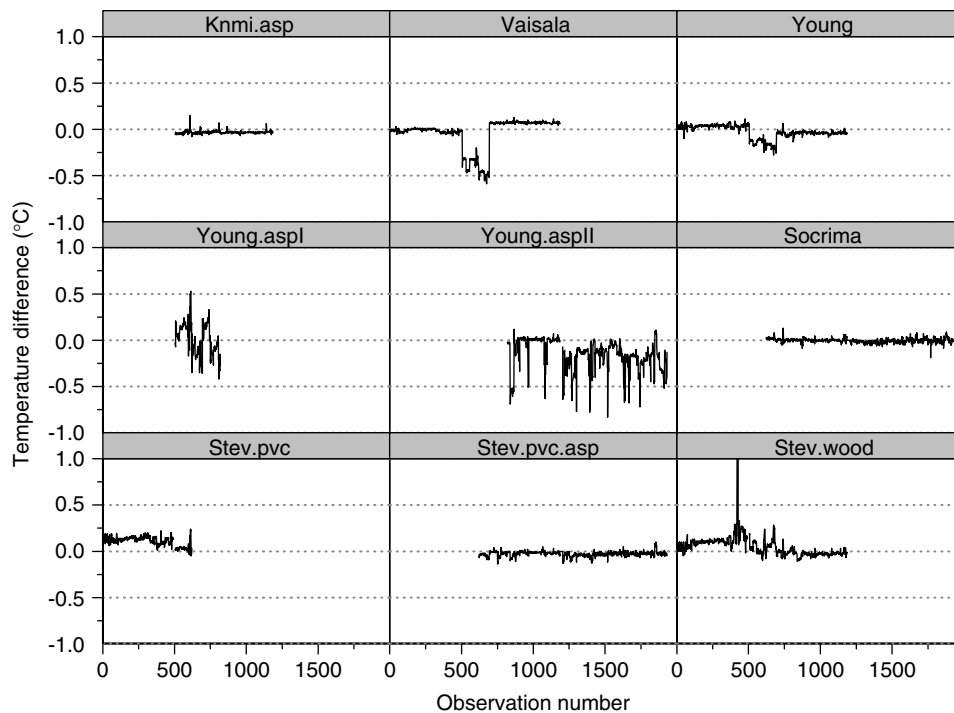


Figure 4. Temperature differences ΔT (screen – Knmi.ref). Only observations are selected that satisfy the criterion that for Knmi.ref the root mean squared deviations in the period from one hour before to one hour after the observation are $<0.03^\circ\text{C}$.

criterion in Equation (1). The figure clearly shows biases with respect to Knmi.ref. The biases are generally up to about 0.2°C . The plots for Vaisala and Young (upper row middle and right panel) indicate malfunctioning of sensors for a part of the series (Dec 1990–Oct 1991). Recalibration of the sensors at 23 October 1991 revealed a significant temperature-dependent bias. This bias corresponds to the observed bias. We decided to omit the period from the analysis. Young.aspl shows an erratic course, indicating that something might be wrong with this screen/sensor. We decided, therefore, to leave out this screen for further analysis. Young.asplI shows regular negative departures (colder than Knmi.ref). We decided to analyse these departures further (Section 3) but we did not take them into account in the calculation of the correction. On the basis of Figure 4, we calculated the corrections for each screen and applied these to the original data. Figure 5 presents ΔT (screen – Knmi.ref) after applying the corrections. The resulting bias is about 0.03°C , which is an order of magnitude smaller than the original bias of 0.2°C .

2.3. Methodology

In the remainder of the paper, we will focus on understanding the weather-dependent temperature differences between the screens. The point of departure is the bias-corrected 10-min average temperatures. In Section 3.1 we examine the response times of the screens. This is an important measure that may help to explain observed temperature differences between the screens. We consider the response time of the complete system, including the sensor and the screen. As the response time of the sensors

itself is in the order of a few seconds, the response time of the whole system will in fact be determined mainly by the interaction of the air with the sensor inside the screen. First, we compare the times t_n and t_x of the occurrence of minimum and maximum temperatures, respectively, and thereafter, we compare the standard deviation of 15-s temperature samples in the 10-min intervals for several weather conditions. In Section 3.2 we discuss the behaviour of the screens for special conditions like sunrise and sunset, warm and sunny days, snow days and for conditions of rainfall and fog.

3. Results

3.1. Response times of screens

For each screen, we calculated the daily values of t_n and t_x in the summer half year (Apr–Sep) when the diurnal temperature cycle is most pronounced. Differences with respect to Knmi.ref were calculated satisfying the following conditions: (1) t_n occurs in the morning between 2 and 8 UTC, and (2) t_x occurs in the afternoon between 12 and 18 UTC. Figure 6 presents histograms of the differences. The differences are expressed in 10-min intervals. For instance, a difference of 2 signifies that the screen under consideration responds on average 20 min slower than Knmi.ref. The figure shows that for most screens t_n and t_x are in the same 10 min interval as for Knmi.ref. Exceptions are Stev.pvc and Stev.wood. During t_n and t_x , both these screens clearly respond more slowly than Knmi.ref and the other screens.

Table II presents some statistics of the differences in t_n and t_x between the screens and Knmi.ref. Only days with

THERMOMETER SCREEN INTERCOMPARISON PART I

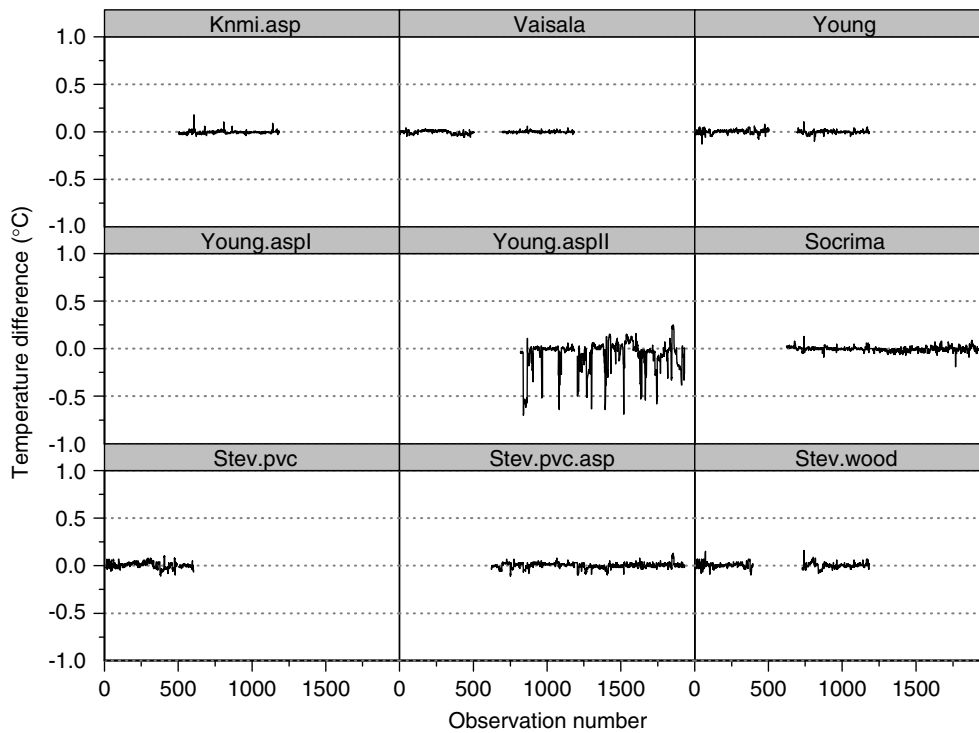


Figure 5. Same as Figure 4, but after bias corrections. The panel for Young.aspl is empty because no serious bias corrections could be applied.

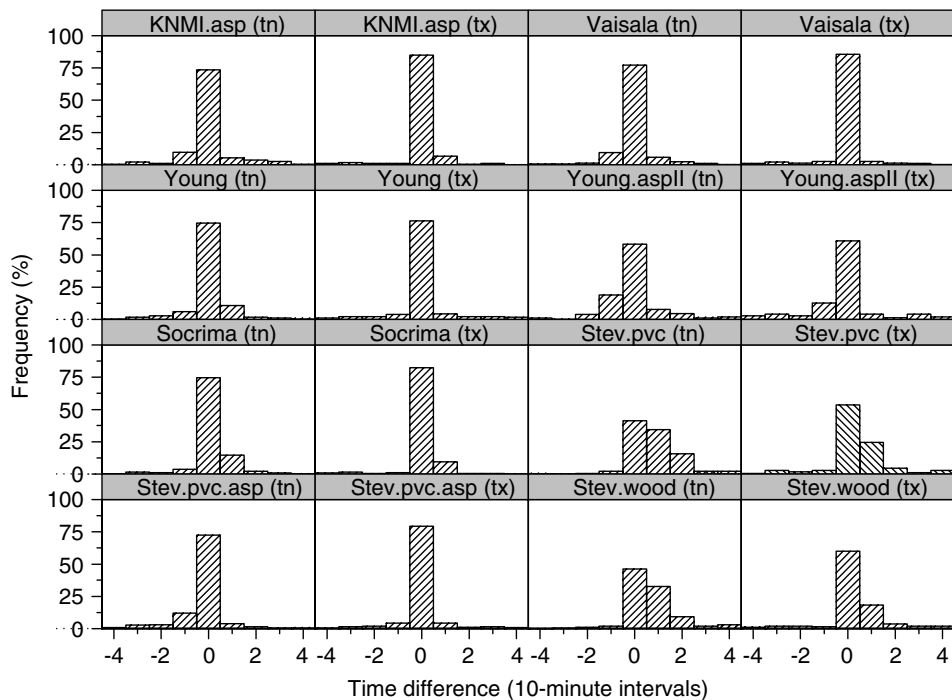


Figure 6. Histograms of the differences (screen – Knmi.ref) in times t_n and t_x of the occurrence of the minimum and maximum temperatures in the summer half year (Apr–Sep). The number of days that constitutes each histogram is given in Table II.

absolute values of the differences ≤ 4 were considered in the table (to minimize the effect of multiple minimums or maximums). The table shows that the differences in the t_n and t_x are small and insignificant for most screens. Stev.pvc and Stev.wood respond about 7 and 8 min slower, respectively, than Knmi.ref during t_n , while during t_x , these differences are about 3 min. Stev.pvc.asp

is the only screen that responds significantly faster than Knmi.ref; for t_n , this amounts to about 2 min while for t_x , there is no significant difference. Figure 7 shows the differences in t_n and t_x between Stev.pvc and Stev.wood and the reference screen Knmi.ref as a function of wind speed. The corresponding number of days used for each of the four curves is given in Table II. For t_n , the

Table II. Differences (screen – Knmi.ref) in times t_n and t_x of the occurrence of the minimum and maximum temperatures in the summer half year (Apr–Sep).

| Screen | Δt_n (min) | | | Δt_x (min) | | |
|--------------|--------------------|--------|------|--------------------|--------|------|
| | Mean | st.err | Days | Mean | st.err | Days |
| Knmi.asp | 0.27 | 0.72 | 184 | -0.17 | 0.58 | 175 |
| Vaisala | -0.18 | 0.48 | 283 | -0.62 | 0.51 | 273 |
| Young | 0.04 | 0.51 | 278 | 0.34 | 0.66 | 265 |
| Young.aspII | -0.33 | 0.92 | 150 | -1.50 | 1.17 | 140 |
| Socrima | 0.98 ^a | 0.43 | 317 | 0.16 | 0.42 | 306 |
| Stev.pvc | 7.94 ^a | 0.75 | 175 | 3.31 ^a | 0.94 | 163 |
| Stev.pvc.asp | -1.93 ^a | 0.53 | 316 | 0.00 | 0.52 | 299 |
| Stev.wood | 6.65 ^a | 0.78 | 185 | 2.60 ^a | 0.89 | 173 |

^a Values differ more than 2 times the standard error from zero.

figure shows an obvious decrease of the differences with increasing wind speed for both Stev.pvc (left panel) and Stev.wood (right panel). For both the lines, the decrease is significant at the 0.01 level, though the explained variances are small; 4.2 and 4.9%, respectively. For t_x , the decrease for both Stev.pvc and Stev.wood is small and not significant.

3.2. Behaviour of screens for special conditions

3.2.1. Rainfall

Rainfall combined with wind and/or artificial ventilation may cause wetting of the sensors and consequently wet bulb effects that may impede the measurement of the real air temperature. Here, we study this effect by comparing temperature measurements for hours with continuous rainfall and by looking at a special period in detail.

Figure 8 presents ΔT (screen – Knmi.ref) for rainfall conditions (all 10-min intervals with rainfall depth >0 mm). The figure shows a large negative bias for

Table III. Statistics of the temperature differences ΔT (screen–Knmi.ref) in wet intervals compared with dry overcast intervals. Note that the standard deviation is presented instead of the standard error. All mean values differ more than 2 times the standard error from zero.

| Screen | ΔT (wet intervals) | | | ΔT (dry and overcast intervals) | | |
|--------------|----------------------------|-------|-----------|---|-------|-----------|
| | Mean | Stdev | Intervals | Mean | Stdev | Intervals |
| Knmi.asp | -0.001 | 0.023 | 9406 | -0.011 | 0.031 | 40 172 |
| Vaisala | -0.005 | 0.023 | 7637 | -0.012 | 0.029 | 33 173 |
| Young | -0.018 | 0.041 | 7637 | -0.001 | 0.035 | 33 173 |
| Young.aspII | -0.229 | 0.245 | 5895 | -0.084 | 0.174 | 34 339 |
| Socrima | 0.010 | 0.042 | 4489 | -0.005 | 0.047 | 25 933 |
| Stev.pvc | -0.013 | 0.083 | 9535 | -0.003 | 0.076 | 41 435 |
| Stev.pvc.asp | -0.026 | 0.047 | 4489 | -0.004 | 0.041 | 25 933 |
| Stev.wood | 0.013 | 0.089 | 8781 | 0.002 | 0.082 | 39 097 |

Young.aspII (-0.229 °C) and only a small and negligible bias for the other screens. Table III compares the statistics of ΔT for rainfall conditions with those for dry/cloudy conditions (cloud cover = 8 octa). The table shows that Young.aspII is on an average 0.145 °C colder for wet conditions than for dry/cloudy conditions. For all other screens, these differences are negligible. The anomalous behaviour of Young.aspII is also apparent from the standard deviation of ΔT . For Young.aspII, the standard deviation for wet conditions is 0.71 °C larger than for dry/cloudy conditions. In contrast, for all the other screens, the standard deviation of ΔT for wet conditions almost equals that for dry/cloudy conditions and is much smaller than the standard deviation for Young.aspII.

Further analysis of the wet 10-min intervals of Young.aspII (6625 values) shows a small negative correlation between ΔT and wind speed ($r = -0.46$). There

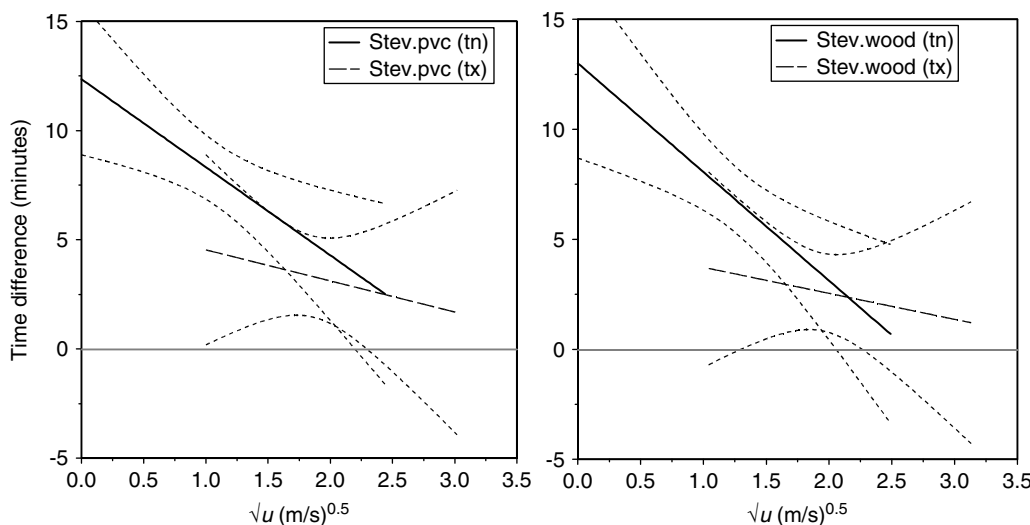


Figure 7. Relationship between the differences (screen – Knmi.ref) in times t_n and t_x of the occurrence of the minimum and maximum temperatures and the square root of wind speed for Stev.pvc (left) and Stev.wood (right) in the summer half year (Apr–Sep). The lines represent linear least squares fits together with 95% confidence bands (short dashes).

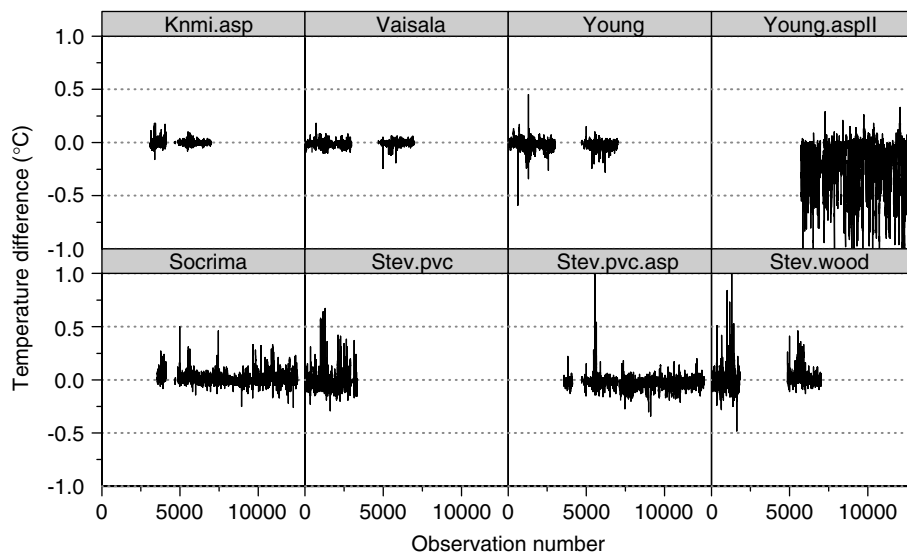


Figure 8. Temperature differences ΔT (screen – Knmi.ref) for rainfall conditions. Observations with uninterrupted rainfall in the measurement interval are only selected.

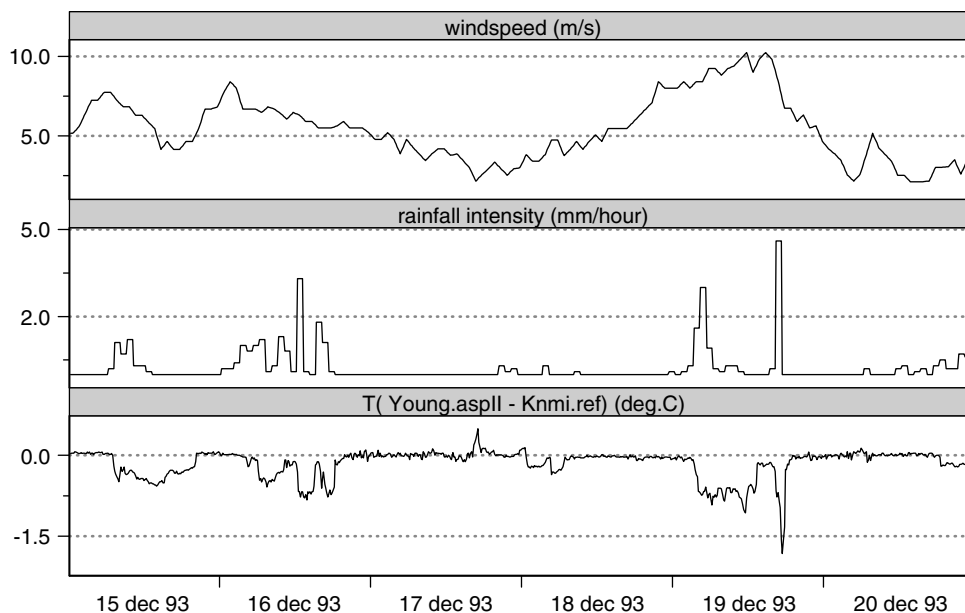


Figure 9. Temperature differences ΔT (Young.aspII – Knmi.ref), rainfall intensity and wind speed during the period 15–20 December 1993.

are also negative correlations of ΔT with rainfall amount and the difference between the air temperature and wet bulb temperature, but these correlations are much weaker ($r = -0.10$ and $r = -0.15$, respectively). Owing to the large number of values, all correlation coefficients are significant at the 0.001 level.

To study the behaviour of Young.aspII for wet conditions somewhat further, we selected a 6-day period with rainfall in December 1993. Figure 9 presents the temperature differences simultaneous with rainfall intensity and wind speed. The figure clearly illustrates the cooling effect of rainfall on the temperatures of Young.aspII; the amplifying effect of wind speed on the cooling is also visible in the figure. Furthermore, we calculated the standard deviation of the 15-s samples for this 6 day period in each 10-min interval (40 samples

each). For the selected period, there is no obvious relationship between this standard deviation and ΔT (not shown). The average standard deviation equals 0.065°C . For the other screens operating in this period, the average standard deviation ranged between 0.038°C for Socrima and 0.050°C for Stev.pvc.aspII. For Knmi.ref, the average standard deviation is close to the latter and amounts to 0.049°C .

From the analysis above, it is evident that for the conditions of rainfall, the temperature measurements of Young.aspII are too low because the sensor has been directly exposed to raindrops.

3.2.2. Clear sky

It is well known that differences between (naturally ventilated) screens are most obvious on clear days

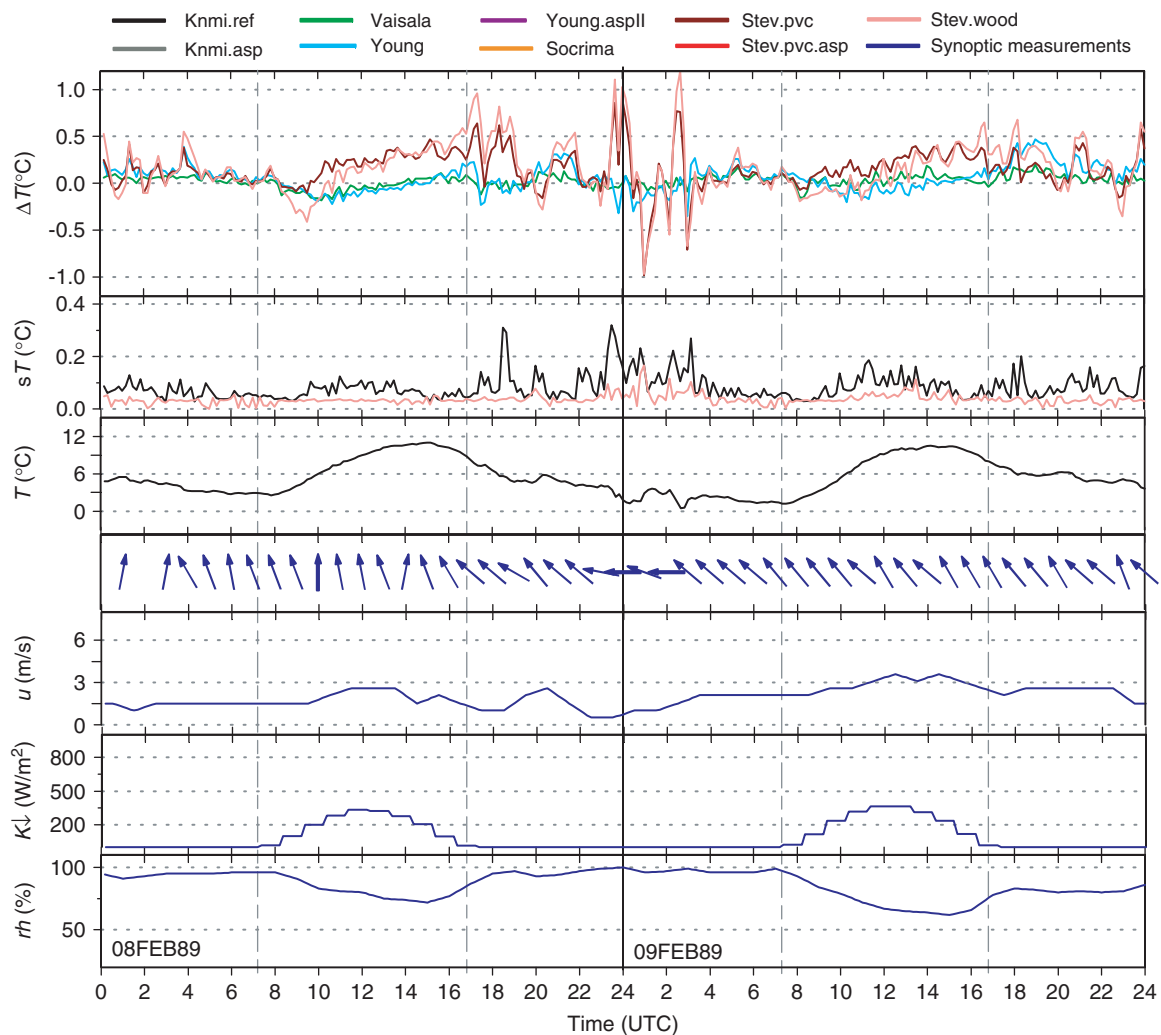


Figure 10. Temperature differences ΔT (Screen – Knmi.ref) for the two consecutive clear days 8 and 9 February 1989. The figure also presents the standard deviation of the 15 sec samples sT , temperature T of Knmi.ref, wind direction (arrows pointing to the direction where the wind blows) and wind speed u , global radiation $K\downarrow$ and relative humidity rh . ΔT , T and sT are 10-min mean values, the synoptical measurements are derived from hourly values. The dashed vertical lines denote the times of sunrise and sunset.

with low wind speeds. Increasing cloudiness and wind speed cause interscreen differences to dissipate. Here, we discuss the differences between the screens for a selection of four representative pairs of consecutive clear days, two pairs in winter and two in summer. Furthermore, we present summary statistics of temperature differences for high radiation levels. A clear day is defined here as a day with mean hourly cloud cover ≤ 1 octa. The temperature differences are presented together with the standard deviation of the 15 s samples sT , T of Knmi.ref, u , $K\downarrow$, and rh . Before calculating the standard deviation sT for a 10-min interval, the daily cycle has been removed using a LOESS smoother (Cleveland and Devlin, 1988) with a span of 1 h and a linear fit. Because the screens did not all operate at the same time, each pair of days concerns only a limited set of screens.

8–9 February 1989: Figure 10 compares the screens for 8–9 February 1989. The figure shows a distinct behaviour of the two Stevenson screens Stev.pvc and Stev.wood. ΔT of these screens shows a noisy pattern

during nighttime hours (especially in the nights of 8–9 February) and mainly positive values during daytime hours and the early evening. The multiplate Vaisala and Young screens behave more or less in the same way as the multiplate reference screen Knmi.ref. The distinction between the Stevenson screens and the multiplate screens is also reflected in sT . The average values of sT for the multiplate screens (only that of Knmi.ref is shown) range between 0.075 and 0.086 °C for Young and Knmi.ref, respectively, and for the Stevenson screens (only that of Stev.wood is shown) between 0.036 and 0.047 °C for Stev.wood and Stev.pvc, respectively. This corresponds with the results in Section 3.1.

The noisy ΔT pattern of the Stevenson screens during the night is related to the smoothness of the air temperature curve of Knmi.ref (third panel from above). Irregularities in T are reflected in ΔT of Stev.pvc and Stev.wood. Further inspection of dT/dt for all screens (not shown) reveals that the dT/dt of the Stevenson screens almost always crosses the zero line after the dT/dt of the multiplate screens. In other words, (local)

maximums and minimums of the multiplate screens precede those of the Stevenson screens (Section 3.1).

Wind speed is an important factor in explaining the shape and magnitude of ΔT . In Section 3.1, we already showed how the response times of the Stevenson screens depend on u . Wind speed exhibits a clear daily cycle with maximum values during the day and minimum values during the night. The low values of u during the nights of 8–9 February, combined with variable wind direction, are probably responsible for the erratic behaviour of T and (indirectly) of ΔT . Furthermore, it should be realized that u is measured at a height of 10 m and that during stable nights this wind speed is uncoupled with that at screen level. Consequently, u at screen level will be much smaller than the presented values of u . During the day, the differences in heating of the screens by the sun also become important. It is clear from Figure 10 that *Stev.pvc* and *Stev.wood* become warmer during the day than the multiplate screens. Around t_x , this amounts to about 0.4°C for this particular situation. The daytime u values of the first day are smaller than those on the second day. This is reflected in the somewhat larger ΔT values on the first day compared to the second.

Here and in the following figures, the effect of rh is not clear. It may be that rh becomes important when it approaches 100%. In that case, small droplets may form on the sensors causing wet bulb effect, but this effect could not be detected (Section 3.2.3 on fog conditions).

5–6 July 1989: Figure 11 compares the screens for 5–6 July 1989. Both days are warm summer days and concern the same screens as in Figure 10. Compared to Figure 10, u in Figure 11 is much larger, especially for 5 July. For the latter day, this results in ΔT values becoming close to zero for all screens. Owing to the somewhat reduced values of u on 6 July, the ΔT patterns resemble to some extent those in Figure 10. It can be noted that on 6 July, just after sunrise, ΔT of *Stev.pvc* and *Stev.wood* are negative. Because of the low values of u at that time, these screens cannot follow the rapid temperature rise. A counteracting effect may result from the typical flat shape of the vertical oriented panels of these types of traditionally south oriented screens. The panels will catch maximum sunshine during sunrise and sunset, *i.e.* when the sun is just above horizon and direct radiation

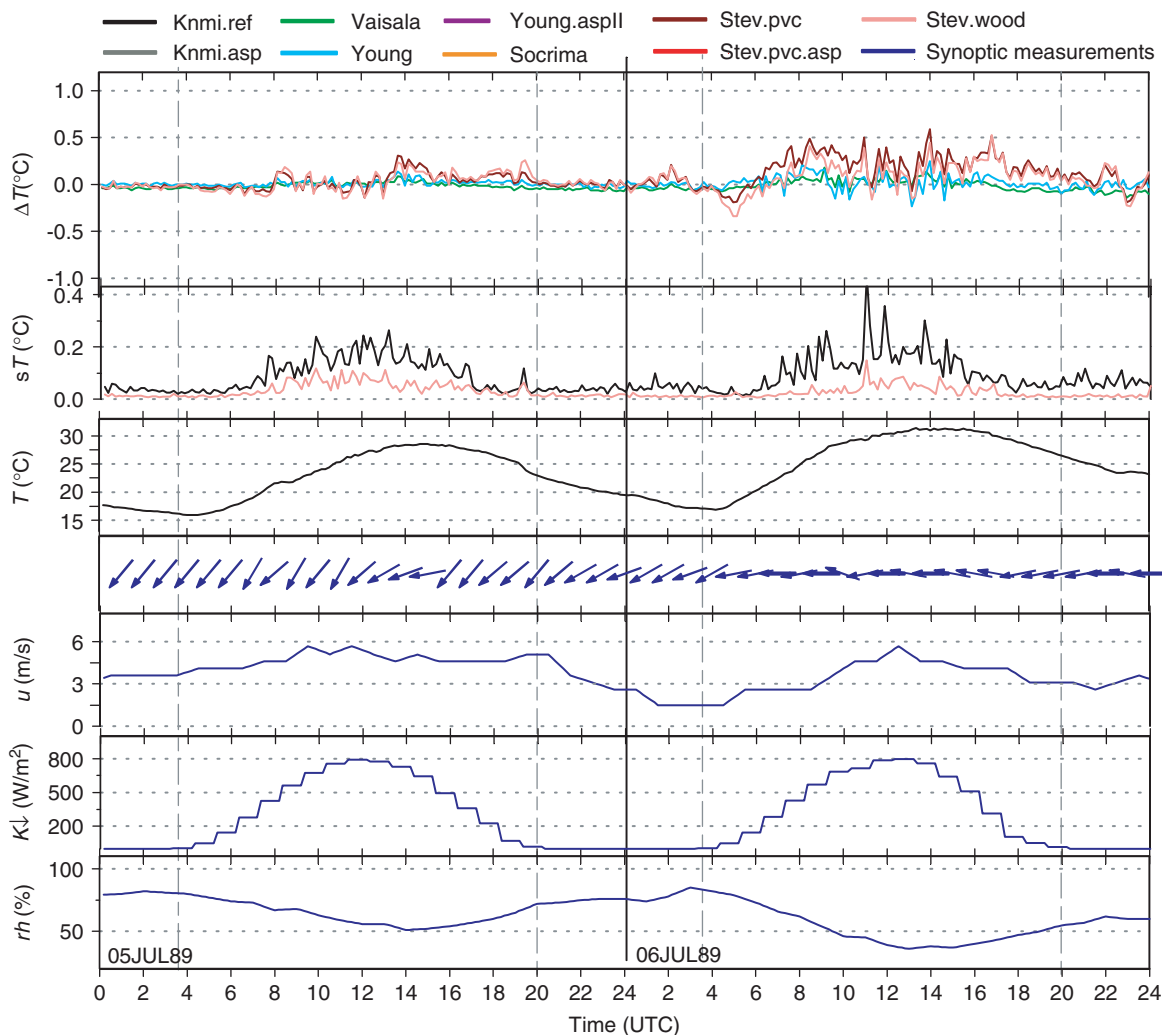


Figure 11. Data same as Figure 10, but for 5–6 July 1989.

is coming in horizontally and caught by one of the side panels. Apparently, the latter effect is relatively small.

The daytime values of sT are much larger than the corresponding values in Figure 10. This reflects the effect of increased convection on summer days compared to winter days. On warm summer days, convective cells of varying space and time scales develop. Within the cells, temperature varies in space. When these cells pass along the screens, the faster responding screens are better able to adapt to the cell temperature than the slower ones.

1–2 January 1993: Figure 12 compares the screens for 1–2 January 1993. Both days are cold winter days with temperatures below 0°C . Compared to Figures 10–11, Stev.pvc is replaced by Stev.pvc.asp and the remaining screens are added. Especially on 2 January, the differences between the screens are small, probably due to the high values of u . The behaviour of Young.aspII is more or less opposite to that of the naturally ventilated Stev.wood. During nighttime, ΔT of Young.aspII is mainly positive, while during daytime negative values prevail. It can be noted again that the multiplate screens behave more or less the same way, though Socrima

seems to respond somewhat slower than the other multiplate screens. This is also evident from the sT values of Socrima, which are smaller than the Knmi.ref values. Note also that Stev.pvc.asp tends to follow Young.aspII, though the deviations from Knmi.ref are smaller. This is also reflected in the sT values of these screens, the mean sT values for this two-day period are 0.073 and 0.084°C , for Stev.pvc.asp and Young.aspII, respectively.

11–12 July 1994: Figure 13 compares the screens for 11–12 July 1994. Both these days are warm summer days with maximum temperatures around 30°C . Only Young.aspII, Socrima and Stev.pvc.asp were in operation, together with Knmi.ref. The most notable feature is the behaviour of Young.aspII. During daytime hours, Young.aspII is about 0.5 – 0.7°C cooler than Knmi.ref, while during nighttime hours it is the opposite. As in Figure 12, Stev.pvc.asp tends to follow Young.aspII though with smaller values of ΔT . The ΔT values on 11 July are somewhat larger than that on 12 July, probably due to the smaller u values on 11 July. Socrima deviates only marginally from Knmi.ref.

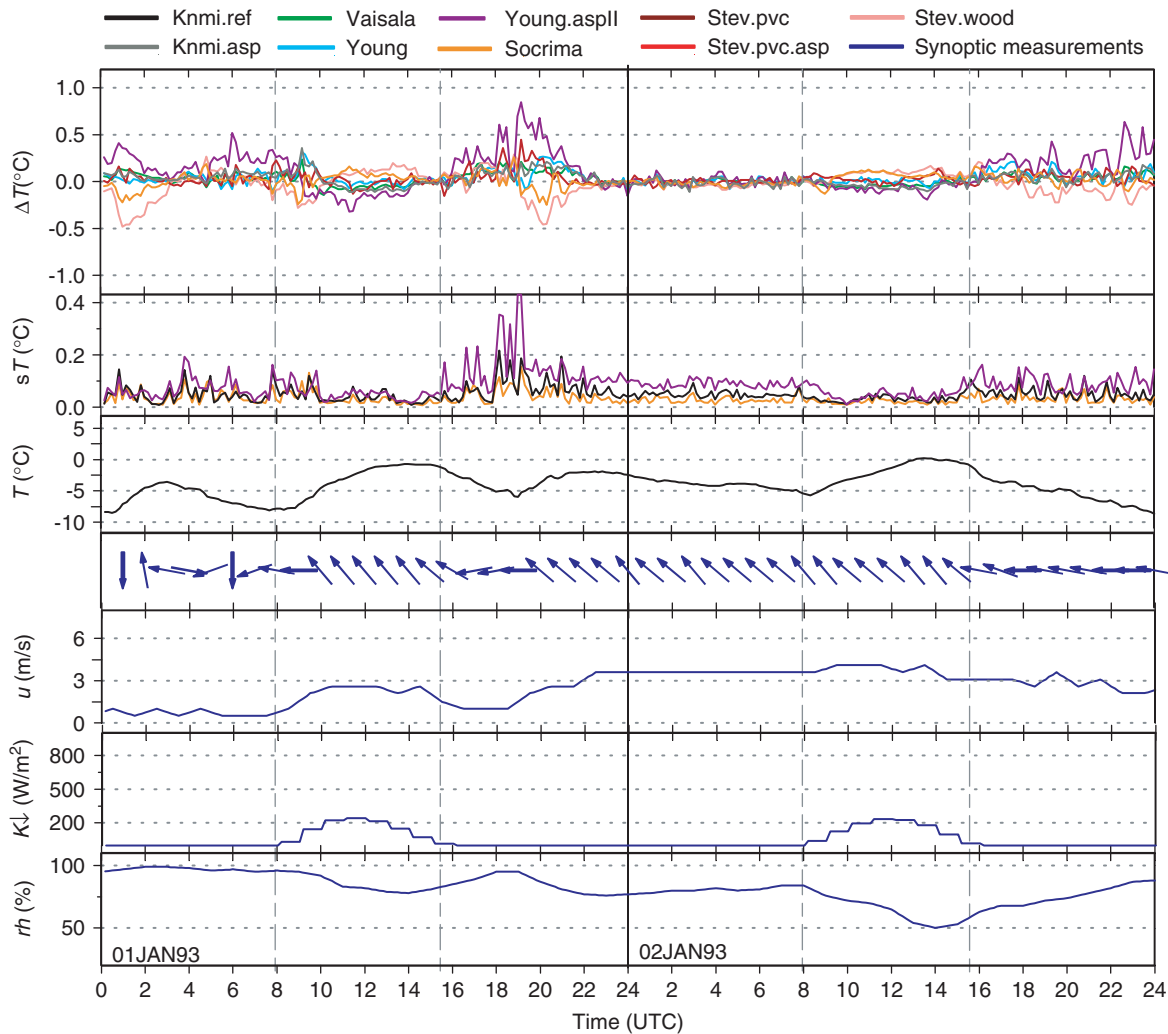


Figure 12. Data same as Figure 9, but for 1–2 January 1993.

THERMOMETER SCREEN INTERCOMPARISON PART I

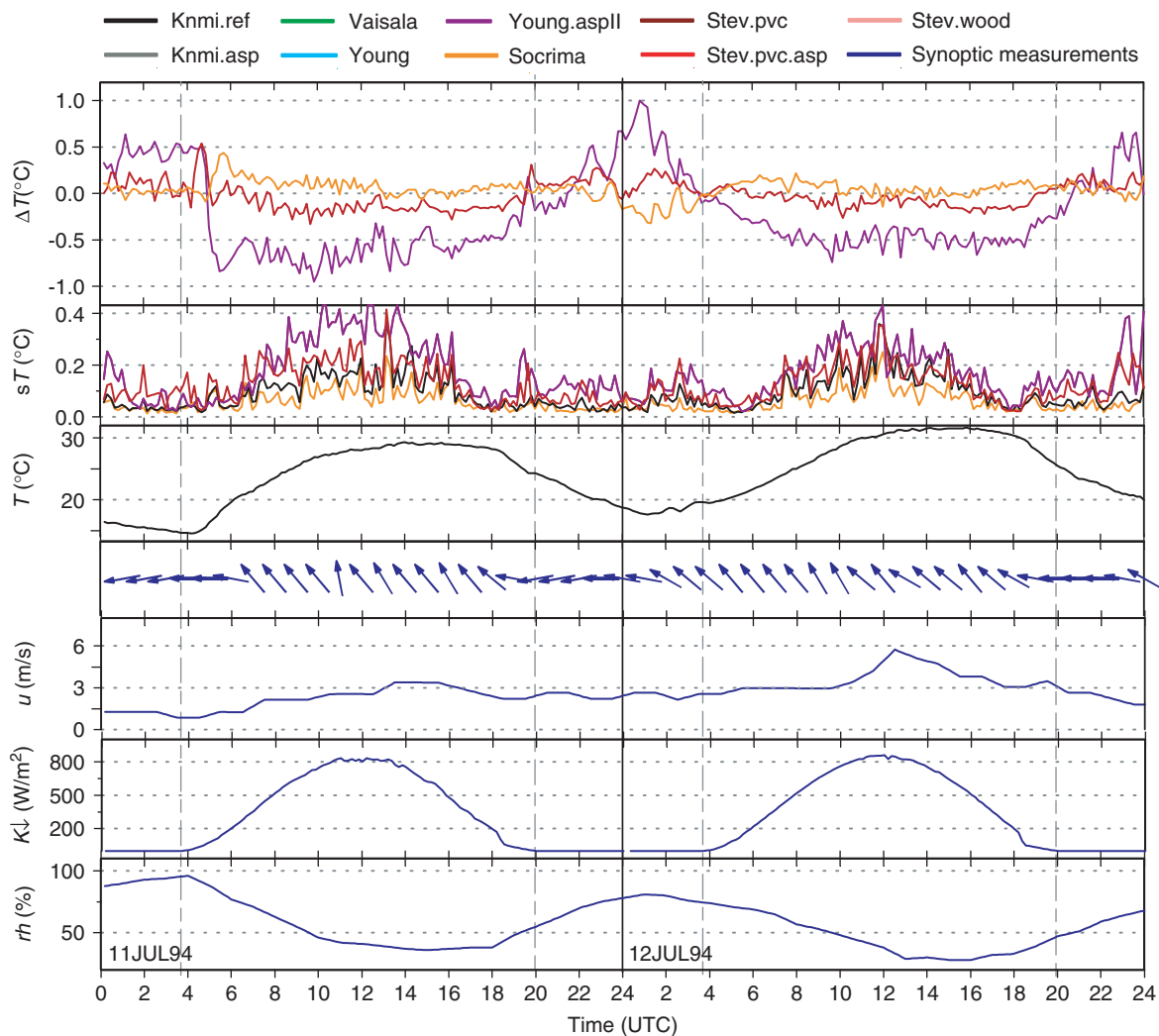


Figure 13. Data same as Figure 10, but for 11–12 July 1994.

The sT values of all four screens show large differences between the screens. The average sT values are $0.090\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for Knmi.ref, $0.171\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for Young.aspII, $0.061\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for Socrima and $0.126\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for Stev.pvc.asp.

The distinct behaviour of Young.aspII on these summer days is probably, only partly, a result of its faster response to temperature changes. During daytime hours, the artificial ventilation is probably directly responsible for the relatively low temperatures. On the other hand, during nighttime hours, the artificial ventilation may also indirectly have an effect on the measured temperatures. This ventilation may then disturb the development of a stable layer around the screen. As a result, temperatures may be slightly higher than that for the naturally ventilated screens. To a lesser extent, these effects are also important for Stev.pvc.asp.

Temperature differences for high radiation levels: For screen design, the behaviour of the screens for clear-sky conditions with high radiation levels may especially be important. For $K\downarrow > 750\text{ W/m}^2$, Table IV presents ΔT for four categories of wind speed (corresponding to the quartiles of wind speed in the selected intervals).

The table shows that ΔT ranges between $-0.536\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for Young.aspII and $0.174\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for Stev.pvc for the lower quartile of wind speed and that the absolute ΔT values become smaller with increasing wind speed. The individual values range between $-1.22\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for Young.aspII and $0.83\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for both Stev.pvc and Stev.wood.

3.2.3. Fog

Fog may have an effect on temperature measurements because of the condensation of droplets on the sensors. To study this effect, we used the hourly synoptic data to select all hours with fog and visibility $< 200\text{ m}$. A total of 1.7% of all hours satisfies this criterion. Figure 14 presents ΔT (screen – Knmi.ref) for these fog conditions. Although there are interscreen differences in the variability of ΔT , the means of ΔT are small and range between $-0.012\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for Knmi.asp and $0.047\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for Stev.pvc. Differences between wet and dry bulb temperatures decrease with increasing relative humidity. This is probably the reason that for high relative humidity conditions like fog (RH on average 99.5%), condensation of small droplets on the sensors (or on the inner panels of the screen) are of little effect.

Table IV. Mean temperature differences (screen – Knmi.ref) for intervals with high values of global radiation (>750 W/m²) for the four quartiles of wind speed^a.

| Screen | $u < 2.9$ m/s | $2.9 \leq u < 3.7$ m/s | $3.7 \leq u < 4.9$ m/s | $u \geq 4.9$ m/s |
|--------------|---------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------|
| Knmi.asp | -0.086 | -0.042 | -0.050 | -0.029 |
| Vaisala | -0.097 | -0.047 | -0.028 | -0.007 |
| Young | -0.127 | -0.075 | -0.026 | -0.003 |
| Young.aspII | -0.536 | -0.368 | -0.260 | -0.202 |
| Socrima | 0.066 | 0.043 | 0.020 | 0.030 |
| Stev.pvc | 0.174 | 0.078 | 0.050 | 0.060 |
| Stev.pvc.asp | -0.157 | -0.133 | -0.100 | -0.027 |
| Stev.wood | 0.120 | 0.048 | 0.030 | -0.003 |

^a values in italics are not significantly different from zero ($2 \times se$)

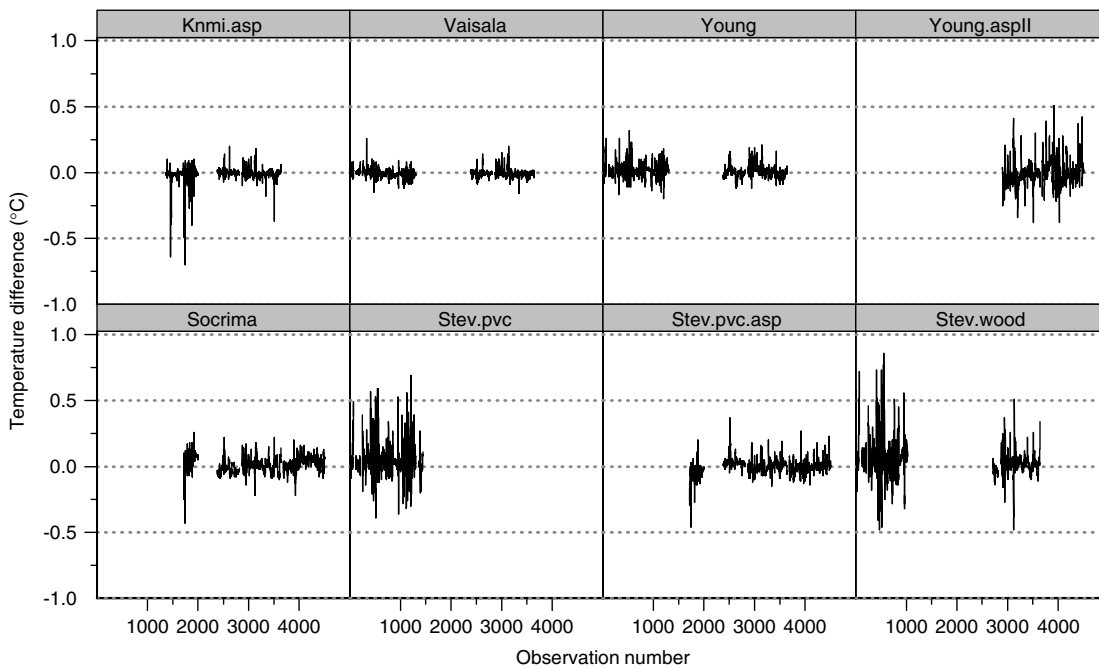


Figure 14. Temperature differences ΔT (screen – Knmi.ref) for fog conditions. Observations are selected only from hours where the synoptic hourly measurements indicated fog with visibility <200 m.

3.2.4. Snow

On clear days with snow cover, effects of differences in screen design on the temperature measurements may be extremely large (refer e.g. Gill, 1983). Owing to the large albedo of snow (between 0.40 and 0.95 for old and fresh snow, respectively) compared to grass (about 0.2), there is a strong increase in reflection of radiation for conditions with snow cover. Screen design determines the extent to which the reflected radiation directly or indirectly reaches the sensor. Unfortunately, there are only a few days per year with significant snow cover in the Netherlands (on an average 4 days/year with snow cover >5 cm in De Bilt). The number of clear days with snow cover is, of course, even smaller.

There were only two serious periods with uninterrupted snow cover during the experiment: (1) a long extended period from 8 to 22 February 1991, when only Knmi.ref and Knmi.asp were in operation, and (2) a short period from 6 to 8 January 1995, when Knmi.ref,

Young.aspII, Socrima and Stev.pvc.asp were in operation. For the first period, Table V presents some statistics of ΔT for both daytime and nighttime hours and compares these with the corresponding values for all winter (DJF) days. Average cloud cover is 5.4 and 5.7 octa in the snow-cover and DJF-days period, respectively. The average u in the snow-cover period (2.4 m/s) is somewhat lower than in the DJF-days period (3.6 m/s). There is, however, no statistical relationship between the magnitude of u and ΔT for that period. Despite the similarity between the screens, the table shows some interesting differences in the temperature measurements. Firstly, there is a relative coolness of Knmi.asp both during day and night and this coolness is larger in the snow-cover period. For the snow-cover period, this coolness exceeds the predicted measurement uncertainty of 0.03 °C. Secondly, the minimum values of ΔT are in the snow-cover period (-1.39 and -0.74 °C for night and day, respectively). And, thirdly, the standard deviation of

Table V. Statistics of nighttime and daytime ΔT (Knmi.asp–Knmi.ref) for an extended period of uninterrupted snow cover (8–22 February 91) and for all winter days (DJF, 176 days) with measurements for both Knmi.asp and Knmi.ref). Standard error information is given for the mean only.

| Period | Nighttime ΔT ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) | | | | Daytime ΔT ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) | | | |
|------------------|---|--------|-------|-------|---|--------|-------|-------|
| | Mean | Min | Max | Stdev | Mean | Min | Max | Stdev |
| 8–22 February 91 | –0.061 ^a | –1.390 | 0.250 | 0.157 | –0.041 ^a | –0.740 | 0.360 | 0.114 |
| DJF | –0.006 ^a | –1.390 | 0.310 | 0.057 | –0.015 ^a | –0.740 | 0.770 | 0.054 |

^a values differ more than 2 times the standard error from zero.

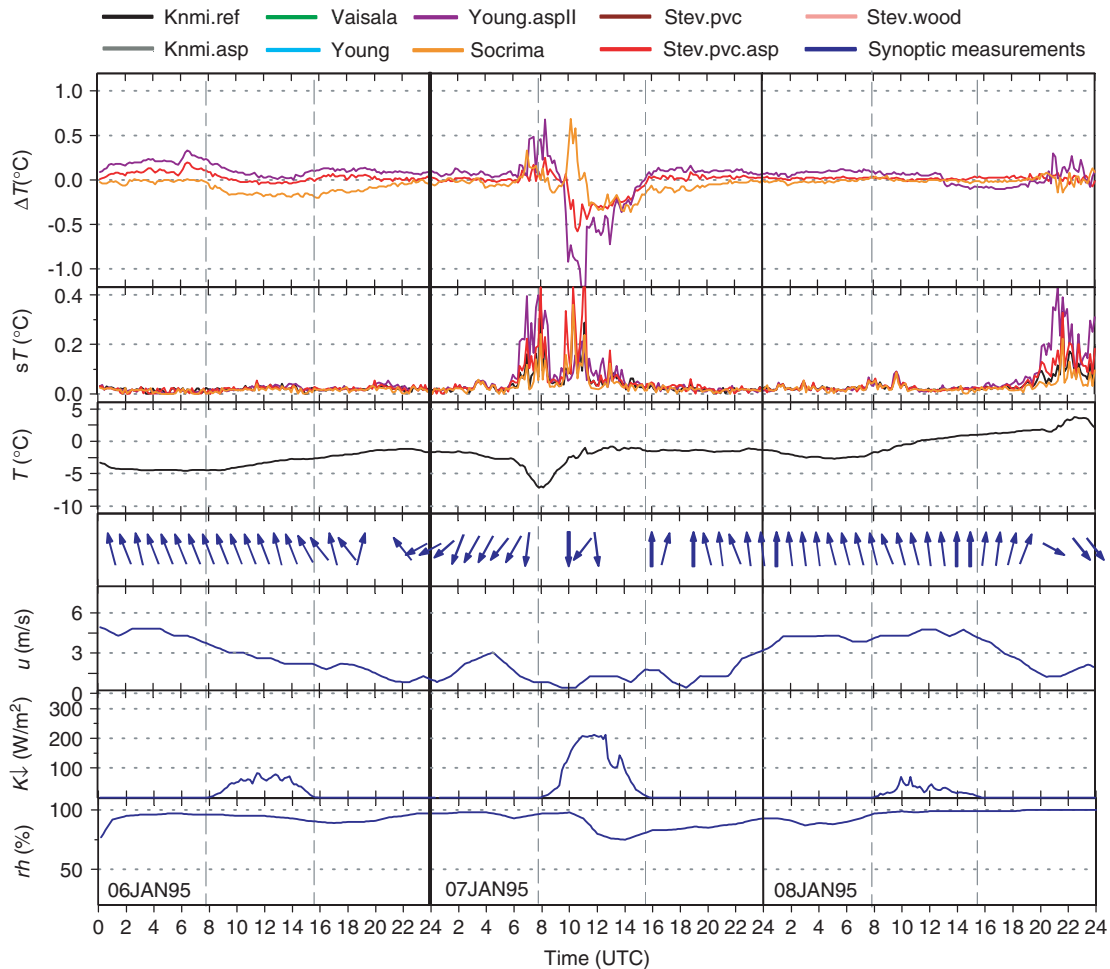


Figure 15. Data same as Figure 10 but for the three day period 6–8 January 1995 with uninterrupted snow cover. From 0–10 UTC on 6 January, snow falls to a depth of 10 cm. Thereafter, completely cloudy skies prevail till 5 UTC on 7 January, followed by partly clear skies till sunset that same day. Then, there are again completely cloudy skies until 9 UTC on 8 January and thereafter it started raining until 19 UTC. The last part of 8 January has partly clear skies. The snow-cover depth at the end of the period is 5 cm.

ΔT is much larger during the snow-cover period than for all days.

The screens in the second period are compared in Figure 15. The figure shows some interesting differences between the screens, especially on 7 January when there is a period with reduced cloud cover (evident from the large values for $K\downarrow$) and low wind speeds from just before sunrise until about sunset. Around noon, the Young.asplI and Stev.pvc.asp are up to 1.3 and 0.5 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ cooler than Knmi.ref, respectively, while Socrima is up to about 0.6 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ warmer than Knmi.ref.

4. Discussion and conclusion

We compared ten different thermometer screens with respect to their weather-dependent temperature differences. An important aspect of the study is the calibration of the sensors under field conditions. Although the temperature sensors were calibrated at regular intervals, a stated operational measurement uncertainty of 0.1 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ is not good enough for such a thermometer screen inter-comparison. We introduced a simple method to obtain intersensor accuracies of about 0.03 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ and to reveal

malfunctioning of the instruments. The method compares the sensors in the screens with the sensor in the reference screen Knmi.ref for situations where $dT/dt \sim 0$ for an extended period of time around the measurement. The resulting corrections are imposed on the data. Similar corrections can be obtained by comparing the screens for conditions of high wind speed and overcast skies. Following the calibration, we had to exclude some data from the analysis and Young.aspI was completely skipped. The proposed method may also be used to reduce intersensor accuracies in situations where no calibration values are known or where there are discrepancies between recalibration and pre-calibration values.

It would have been preferable to have a double or triple setup of the screens in the intercomparison. Although this may not exclude all possible errors, it may serve as an extra check to guarantee that the temperature data are correctly measured. WMO also advocates the use of multiple setups: in the year 2007, they will start a screen intercomparison study with a double setup in Algeria. In practice, however, multiple setups require extra equipment and manpower and may therefore not always be feasible.

The results in this paper show that the screens can roughly be classified into three groups with distinct behaviour: (1) the round multiplate screens (Knmi.ref, Knmi.asp, Vaisala, Young, Socrima), (2) the naturally ventilated Stevenson screens (Stev.wood, Stev.pvc), and (3) the strongly aspirated screens (Young.aspII, Stev.pvc.asp). The round multiplate screens have similar response times (Section 3.1) and there are only minor deviations from the temperatures of Knmi.ref in the presented examples (Section 3.2). There is, however, some indication that Socrima responds somewhat slower than the other multiplate screens (lower standard deviation sT of the 15 s temperature samples and larger response time at t_n). This may be related to the somewhat more closed construction of Socrima compared to the other multiplate screens. The (slight) aspiration of Knmi.asp apparently has little effect because ΔT (Knmi.asp–Knmi.ref) is generally close to zero. An exception is the case with uninterrupted snow cover in the period 8–22 February 1991. For this (for the Netherlands exceptional) situation, there is some evidence that Knmi.asp is cooler than Knmi.ref ($\sim 0.05^\circ\text{C}$ on an average).

Stev.wood and Stev.pvc respond significantly slower to temperature changes than all other screens. Their response times with respect to Knmi.ref depend on wind speed u , and are significantly larger than for the other screens (on an average about 7 min on t_n and 3 min on t_x). This matches the low sT of these screens. Consequently, part of the temperature differences ΔT (screen – Knmi.ref) for these screens result from differences in response times. For instance, on clear nights with low wind speed and an erratic course of the ambient temperature, this may cause fluctuations in ΔT by about 1°C . During the day, the effect is a lowering of ΔT for periods of strongly positive dT/dt (e.g. after sunrise) and an increase in ΔT for periods of strongly

negative dT/dt . This effect is, however, dominated by the direct and indirect heating of the screens by the sun during the day (radiation error). This heating effect is most obvious around t_x (when $dT/dt \sim 0$) and can easily amount to 0.5°C . It should be noted that there are only minor differences between the wooden and synthetic version of the Stevenson screen.

The third distinct group contains the strongly aspirated Young.aspII and Stev.pvc.asp screens. Although they have a completely different design, both screens have in common a fast response to ambient temperature changes (large values of sT) and tend to be cooler during the day and somewhat warmer during the night. As expected, the differences with respect to the other screens become smaller as u increases. The most important advantage of artificial ventilation of screens is the reduction of the daytime radiation error. Young.aspII is better equipped to attain this than Stev.pvc.asp. In the presented examples, Young.aspII can easily be $0.5\text{--}0.8^\circ\text{C}$ cooler during the day than Knmi.ref, while Stev.pvc.asp is only about 0.2°C cooler. For the studied period with snow cover, these values were about 2 times as large. The relative warmth of both screens during clear nights (especially Young.aspII), may be caused by disturbance of the stable stratified layer around the screen by the artificial ventilation. However, more research is needed to confirm this.

A peculiarity of the Young.aspII is the relatively low temperatures during rainfall conditions ($\Delta T = -0.23^\circ\text{C}$). ΔT for these conditions is negatively correlated with u , suggesting that aspiration of small droplets to the sensor may be responsible for the effect (causing wet bulb effects). This may be an important disadvantage when Young.aspII is to be used in regions with frequent rainfall.

Comparison of the results with other studies is not easy because different reference screens have been used and other screens have been compared. Nonetheless, studies like those of Andersson and Mattisson (1991) also indicate that Stevenson screens respond much more slowly than the modern round multiplate screens, causing large temperature differences, especially around sunrise and sunset. The relatively small interscreen differences between the round multiplate screens are evident in other studies as well.

From the results in this paper, it appears that u is a major factor in determining interscreen temperature differences. The magnitude of u determines to a large extent the differences in response times between the screens, the magnitude of radiation errors, the effects of rainfall on Young.aspII and the potential effect of artificial ventilation on the build up of a stable layer on clear nights. In the present experiment u was measured at a height of 10 m (and later 20 m) at a distance of about 200 m from the screens. For the development of transfer functions, it would be much better to measure u at screen height close to the screens with high-accuracy anemometers (e.g. sonic anemometers) especially in the range 0–3 m/s.

Together with Part II (Brandsma and Van der Meulen, 2007), this paper should give an adequate basis for assessing the impacts of screen changes in countries with climates comparable to those of the Netherlands.

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