# From Remote Sensing of the Atmosphere to Data Assimilation

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### Imagery

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## Visible Imagery



- Visible light image from SEVIRI on Meteosat-9
- SEVIRI = Spinning Enhanced Visible and InfraRed Imager
- SEVIRI measures light through telescope with field of view about 3 km across at sub-satellite point
- As satellite rotates, field of view scans E-W
- Telescope mirror tilted to scan N-S
- One image every 15 min

### The Problem with Visible Imagery



- Visible imagery relies on reflected sunlight, so doesn't work at night.
- Fortunately, there's a whole electromagnetic spectrum out there ...

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### Emitted Infrared Radiation



- All bodies emit electromagnetic radiation on account of their temperature.
- For a perfectly emitting blackbody, the emitted radiance is given by the Planck function (left).
- At terrestrial temperatures, the peak radiation is emitted in the infrared around 10 µm.
- This suggests that we try observing there.

## Atmospheric Transmittance



- The atmosphere is opaque at many wavelengths because of absorption of radiation by its constituent gases.
- We should avoid these wavelengths if we want to see down to the surface.
- There are relatively transparent windows around 3.7 µm and 8–12 µm (the latter punctuated by ozone absorption near 9.6 µm).

# Infrared Imagery



- Image from SEVIRI's 10.8 µm channel at 0 UTC
- Observing emitted radiation frees us from dependence on sunlight.

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# An Infrared Image Is a Heat Map

Visible:



### Infrared:



- Warm bodies (Earth's surface, low clouds) emit more radiation than cold bodies (high cloud tops).
- Shading convention:
  - Black = high radiance
  - White = low radiance
- This is the opposite to what one might expect, but ensures deep clouds appear white.
- Compare the deep convective cloud over DR Congo and Sudan with the shallow cloud off the coast of Angola and Namibia, almost invisible in the infrared.
- ► Note also the hot deserts.

# What Does the Earth Look Like at an Opaque Wavelength?



- Image from SEVIRI's 6.2 µm channel
- Water vapour (WV) absorbs at this wavelength.
- Can no longer see the Earth's surface
- Can still see the highest clouds
- Elsewhere, recall Kirchhoff's law: a good absorber is a good emitter.
- The radiation comes from the WV in the air.

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## Where Exactly Does the Radiation Come from?



- The received radiation is dominated by radiation from the middle troposphere.
- ► The more WV there is in a column of air, the higher in the atmosphere the radiation comes from.

### Water Vapour Imagery



- WV imagery uses the same reverse shading convention as IR imagery.
- Black = warm = radiation from low in troposphere = dry column of air
- White = cold = radiation from high in troposphere = wet column of air

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### Imagers v Sounders

- Satellite instruments can be classified as imagers or sounders: Imagers have a high horizontal resolution and observe the atmosphere at a few wavelengths.
   Sounders have a coarser horizontal resolution (tens of km) but observe the atmosphere at many wavelengths.
- The many wavelengths enable vertical profiles of temperature, water vapour, and other trace gases to be retrieved.
- The distinction between modern imagers and sounders isn't clear cut: sounders can produce images and imagers can have limited sounding capabilities.

## The Physics of Sounding



- The physical basis of sounding is the same as that of WV imagery, but applies to other absorbing gases too.
- Let's make this more quantitative.

### Assumptions

We make some simplifying assumptions:

- ► The satellite looks vertically downwards.
- The satellite observes a single wavelength  $\lambda$ .
- There are no clouds in the field of view.
- The atmosphere is sufficiently opaque that no radiation from the surface reaches the satellite.
- Scattering of radiation is negligible compared to emission and absorption.

These assumptions are not necessary in a more detailed treatment.

### Radiative Transfer Equation

Under these assumptions, the radiance reaching the satellite at wavelength  $\lambda$  is

$$L_{\lambda} = \int_{0}^{z_{\mathrm{T}}} B_{\lambda}(T(z)) \frac{d\tau_{\lambda}}{dz} dz$$

where

- z is altitude
- z<sub>T</sub> is altitude of top of atmosphere
- T(z) is temperature of atmosphere at altitude z
- $B_{\lambda}(T)$  is blackbody radiance at wavelength  $\lambda$ , temperature T
- τ<sub>λ</sub>(z) is transmittance at wavelength λ between altitude z and top of atmosphere

### Weighting Function

$$L_{\lambda} = \int_{0}^{z_{\mathrm{T}}} B_{\lambda}(T(z)) \frac{d\tau_{\lambda}}{dz} dz$$

- $\frac{d\tau_{\lambda}}{dz}$  is called the weighting function.
- It is always positive.
- L<sub>λ</sub> is like a weighted average of blackbody radiances at different levels of the atmosphere.
- It is a true average because

$$\int_0^{z_{\mathrm{T}}} rac{d au_\lambda}{dz} dz = au_\lambda(z_{\mathrm{T}}) - au_\lambda(0) = 1 - 0 = 1$$

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# Weighting Functions



Source:

amsu.cira.colostate.edu

- Different wavelengths have different transmittance profiles and hence different weighting functions.
- The graph shows the weighting functions of the AMSU-A instrument.
- AMSU = Advanced Microwave Sounding Unit
- By observing at multiple wavelengths, a sounder obtains information about the atmosphere at multiple levels.

### Brightness Temperature

- If the atmosphere were isothermal with temperature T, then  $L_{\lambda} = B_{\lambda}(T)$ .
- We could recover T by inverting the Planck function  $B_{\lambda}(T)$ .
- In a non-isothermal atmosphere, we can define the brightness temperature at wavelength λ as the temperature such that L<sub>λ</sub> = B<sub>λ</sub>(T<sub>B</sub>).
- $T_{\rm B}$  is also known as the equivalent blackbody temperature.
- ► T<sub>B</sub> is a complicated average of the temperature at all levels of the atmosphere.
- This average is weighted towards the level where the weighting function peaks.
- Time-series of  $T_{\rm B}$  are used for climate monitoring.
- But what we'd really like to know is the temperature profile T(z).

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### **Temperature Soundings**

$$E_{\lambda} = \int_0^{z_{\rm T}} B_{\lambda}(T(z)) \frac{d\tau_{\lambda}}{dz} dz$$

- To calculate τ<sub>λ</sub>(z) and thus L<sub>λ</sub>, we need to know T(z) and the mixing ratio profile q(z) of the absorbing gas.
- For a well-mixed gas like CO<sub>2</sub> or O<sub>2</sub>, q(z) is a know constant.
- Soundings for temperature are made using CO<sub>2</sub> absorption in the infrared and O<sub>2</sub> absorption in the microwave.
- For such a gas, we can calculate  $L_{\lambda}$  given only T(z).
- ► If the sounder observes at p different wavelengths, we have p different equations for T(z).
- But T(z) has infinitely many unknowns (one for each altitude), so these equations are not enough to determine it.

### Some Terminology

$$L_{\lambda} = \int_{0}^{z_{\mathrm{T}}} B_{\lambda}(T(z)) \frac{d\tau_{\lambda}}{dz} dz$$

- ► The problem of calculating L<sub>λ</sub> given T(z) is called the forward problem.
- The problem of finding T(z) given measurements of  $L_{\lambda}$  is called the inverse problem.
- ► The T(z) found by solving the inverse problem is said to have been retrieved from the measurements and is called a retrieval.

### **Temperature Retrievals**



- We have to adopt a discrete representation of T(z).
- One possibility is to represent T(z) by its values at n discrete altitudes and to assume that it varies linearly in between (see left).
- We then have p equations in n unknowns.
- We might hope that by taking n = p we could solve these equations to determine T(z).
- But there are problems . . .

# **III-Conditioning**



Source:

amsu.cira.colostate.edu

- There is a large overlap between the weighting functions for different wavelengths.
- As a result, the p equations are not very independent.
- The problem is ill-conditioned: small errors in the data lead to large errors in the solution.
- And there will be errors in L<sub>λ</sub> due to measurement noise and other sources.
- We have to do something else.

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### Solutions

- 1. Accept a lower resolution for the discrete temperature profile (n < p) and find the profile that best matches the radiance measurements. This can avoid ill-conditioning.
- 2. Use additional information about the temperature profile, such as climatology or a prediction from a numerical weather prediction (NWP) system. Then we can take n = p or even n > p and avoid ill-conditioning.
- Don't bother with retrievals. The data assimilation component of an NWP system generally doesn't use a retrieval. Instead, it uses the radiance measurements directly and adjusts the forecast to find the best simultaneous match to these and all other measurements.

### Humidity Retrievals

$$L_{\lambda} = \int_{0}^{z_{\rm T}} B_{\lambda}(T(z)) \frac{d\tau_{\lambda}}{dz} dz$$

- Sounders also observe at wavelengths sensitive to absorption by water vapour.
- Recall that to evaluate the integral in the radiative transfer equation we need to know the temperature profile T(z) and the mixing ratio profile q(z) of the absorbing gas.
- ► For temperature retrievals, we used a well-mixed gas for which q(z) was a known constant.
- To retrieve water vapour, we can use T(z) from a temperature retrieval.
- ► Then all of the preceding applies with q(z) as our unknown instead of T(z).
- This applies to other trace gases too.

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### Mathematical Framework for Retrievals

### Recapitulation of the Temperature Retrieval Problem



- We have radiance measurements at p different wavelengths sensitive to absorption by a well-mixed gas of known mixing ratio.
- We want to use these measurements to determine the *n* numbers that characterise a discrete representation of the temperature profile.
- We want to avoid ill-conditioning, so the naive approach of taking n = p and solving p equations in p unknowns won't work.

### State Space and Observation Space

▶ Join the temperatures T<sub>1</sub>,..., T<sub>n</sub> discretely representing the temperature profile into a vector:

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} T_1 \\ \vdots \\ T_n \end{pmatrix}$$

- x represents the temperature profile as a point in *n*-dimensional state space.
- Join the radiances observed at the wavelengths λ<sub>1</sub>,..., λ<sub>p</sub> into a vector:

$$\mathbf{y} = \left(\begin{array}{c} L_{\lambda_1} \\ \vdots \\ L_{\lambda_p} \end{array}\right)$$

 y represents the observations as a point in *p*-dimensional observation space.

### **Observation Operator**

$$L_{\lambda} = \int_{0}^{z_{\rm T}} B_{\lambda}(T(z)) \frac{d\tau_{\lambda}}{dz} dz$$

- Given x, we are assuming that the integral in the radiative transfer equation can be evaluated for the temperature profile represented by x.
- Let  $H_i(\mathbf{x})$  denote this integral evaluated at wavelength  $\lambda_i$ .
- Assemble the  $H_i(\mathbf{x})$  into a vector:

$$H(\mathbf{x}) = \left( egin{array}{c} H_1(\mathbf{x}) \ dots \ H_p(\mathbf{x}) \end{array} 
ight)$$

- The function  $H(\mathbf{x})$  is called the observation operator.
- H(x) is what the observations would be if x were the true state of the atmosphere and there were no observation errors.

### **Observation Errors**

In the naive approach to temperature retrievals, we tried to solve the equation

$$\mathbf{y} = H(\mathbf{x})$$

This didn't work because of ill-conditioning and because if x is the true state of the atmosphere, the observations will be not H(x) but

$$\mathbf{y}=H(\mathbf{x})+arepsilon$$

where  $\varepsilon$  is the observation error vector.

- The *i*th component of ε represents the error in the measurement of the radiance L<sub>λi</sub>.
- ▶ In general, we don't know  $\varepsilon$ , only its statistical properties.

### Observation Error Covariance Matrix

- Two basic statistical properties are mean and variance.
- We assume that the *i*th component of  $\varepsilon$  has mean zero and known variance  $\sigma_i^2$ .
- The observation error covariance matrix is a p × p matrix with these variances down the main diagonal:

$$\mathbf{R} = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} \sigma_1^2 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \sigma_p^2 \end{array}\right)$$

 If there are correlations between the errors in the measurements of different radiances, these can be represented by off-diagonal elements of R.

### Cost Function

With the machinery now created, we can define a cost function:

$$J(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{y} - H(\mathbf{x}))^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{R}^{-1} (\mathbf{y} - H(\mathbf{x}))$$

Interpretation:

- **x** is a proposed temperature profile.
- ► H(x) is what the radiances would be if x were the true temperature profile and there were no observation errors.
- y − H(x) is the difference between these hypothetical radiances and the actual observed radiances.
- ► J(x) is a measure of the size of this difference in which more accurately observed radiances are given greater weight.

### Variational Temperature Retrievals

- The smaller J(x), the better the agreement between the proposed temperature profile x and the measured radiances.
- This leads to the following retrieval algorithm:

Choose the value of **x** that minimises  $J(\mathbf{x})$ 

- There are mathematical techniques and software packages for doing this.
- If n = p, the algorithm reduces to solving y = H(x) and we are no better off.
- ▶ But if we take *n* < *p*, we can avoid ill-conditioning.
- We avoid ill-conditioning at the expense of accepting a lower resolution temperature profile.

### Use of a Background Term

- But what if we need a higher resolution temperature profile?
- All is not lost.
- Even in the absence of observations, we won't be totally ignorant about the temperature profile.
- We might have climatological information or a prediction from an NWP system.
- This information can be expressed as a background state estimate x<sub>b</sub> and a background error covariance matrix B.
- ▶ We can incorporate these into the cost function:

$$J(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{y} - H(\mathbf{x}))^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{R}^{-1} (\mathbf{y} - H(\mathbf{x})) + (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{\mathrm{b}})^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{B}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{\mathrm{b}})$$

► The problem of minimising this J(x) can remain well-conditioned even if n > p.

### Humidity Retrievals

$$L_{\lambda} = \int_{0}^{z_{\mathrm{T}}} B_{\lambda}(T(z)) \frac{d\tau_{\lambda}}{dz} dz$$

- Recall that to evaluate the integral in the radiative transfer equation we needed to know the temperature profile T(z) and the mixing ratio profile q(z) of the absorbing gas.
- ► For temperature retrievals, we used a well-mixed gas for which q(z) was a known constant.
- To retrieve water vapour, we can use T(z) from a temperature retrieval.
- Then all of the preceding applies with q(z) as our unknown.
- x will now be a discrete representation of the humidity mixing ratio profile.
- This all applies to other trace gases too.

### Data Assimilation

The framework set up for retrievals is identical to the three-dimensional variational data assimilation (3D-Var) used by some NWP systems.

$$J(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{y} - H(\mathbf{x}))^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{R}^{-1} (\mathbf{y} - H(\mathbf{x})) + (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{\mathrm{b}})^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{B}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{\mathrm{b}})$$

- x is the state of the atmosphere as represented by the NWP system, incorporating all its variables at all its grid points.
- $\blacktriangleright$   $x_{\rm b}$  is the current state according to a previous forecast.
- y contains all of the observations from the global observing system that it has been decided to assimilate.
- ► H(x) calculates what these observations would be if x were the true state of the atmosphere.

### **Further Reading**



Clive D. Rodgers.

Inverse Methods for Atmospheric Sounding: Theory and Practice. World Scientific, 2000.