# Satellite observations of clouds<sup>1</sup>: overview

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# Context Overview

- 3. A new dimension
- 4. Model 'verification'
- 5. Summary

# Influence of satellite observations on forecast skill for NH and SH







- Obvious importance of clouds and precipitation Satellite data represent 95% of the data ingested into the ECMWF analysis system, but most of the satellite radiances (about 75 %) are discarded because they are diagnosed as cloud- or rain-affected.
- 2. Assimilation of moist variables into NWP is challenging due to the wide range of spatial and temporal scales of (non-linear) moist processes and lack of *real* model error assigned to them







# Steps Toward a strategy for operational assimilation of cloud and precipitation obs:

- Optimizing the choice of observations [y(t)]
- Model evaluation using current and new satellite measurements
   [B<sup>-1</sup>]
- Development of new and improved 'moist physics' (clouds and especially convection)
   [B<sup>-1</sup>]
- Develop, test and quantify errors of 'observational operators associated with moist physics observations' (i.e. IR, solar and microwave radiative transfer schemes for clouds & precip, radar reflectivity models, etc) [f(x) & W<sup>-1</sup>]
- Research on the optimal strategy to assimilation (e.g tangent linear, ensemble methods etc...) [i.e. dΦ/dx→0]



## A satellite 'Observing System'

$$Z(t)$$

$$\xrightarrow{\qquad } T \longrightarrow \qquad y(t)$$

$$y \approx f(\hat{Z}, b, c)$$

$$+ \varepsilon_{y} + \varepsilon_{f}$$

$$\hat{Z} = f^{-1}(y, b, c)$$

$$\hat{Z} = f^{-1}(y, b, c)$$

Two key components of the 'transfer function' – the forward and inverse functions

Measurements y(t) are connected to the 'state' Z

The state is inferred (retrieved) given the measurement, a physical model and other 'knowledge' about the system.

Key parameters & 'knowledge':

- Measurement, y(t) and error  $\varepsilon_v$
- Model f & its error  $\epsilon_{\rm f}$
- Model parameter b
- Constraint parameters c

### Cloud occurrence (e.g. PATMOS, ISCCP, HIRS, MODIS etc)





Decadal cloud amount trends, precipitation variability





# Physical basis for satellite observations of cloud properties (ie different types of f(x)'s)



### **Passive (radiometry)**

These methods provide primarily <u>path integrated</u> information – i.e. little or no vertical structure:

Examples considered – scattered sunlight and cloud 'optical' properties, thermal emission and microwave emission

# Active (lidar, radar and mm $\rightarrow$ cm wavelengths)

Profile information about occurrence, optical properties, microphysics and bulk water mass – example highlighted is of mm-wave radar Most cloud & precipitation retrievals are single sensor & 'physics' centric – leaving us to ponder which of the seemingly myriad of different approaches is optimal, how accurate is the retrieved information and what is to be gained in combining different types of measurements ?

The future is perhaps with multi-sensor 'assimilation ' of information as, for example, exemplified by the upcoming A-Train



## Cloud optics and 'microphysics' : solar scattering





### An example: MODIS optical property information





## Particle Size retrieval examples – low level water clouds



# 雲雨

### **Split window thermal emission**

### **Optical properties**





Given the 11  $\mu$ m cloud emission and clear sky temperatures, then optical depth and re follow from  $\Delta T_{b}$  and  $T_{11}$ .



'Same' optical information as scattering method but limited to (optically) thin clouds





There is no real attempt to achieve a level of 'consistency' between different retrieval schemes even using measurements from the same instrument

### Microwave emission -cloud liquid water path



Measurement of  $\Delta T$  at two frequencies (19GHz, 37 GHz), estimation of RV/H+  $\Delta kw/I$ , and Trox allows for simultaneous solution for w and W,





Column Water Vapor (kg/m^2) (July 1990) 90N 60N 30N Latitude EQ 30S 60S 90S 60E 180 120W 0 0 120E 60W Longitude



0.00 0.04 0.09 0.13 0.18 0.22 0.27 0.31 0.38 0.40

<sup>0.00 5.56 11.11 16.67 22.22 27.78 33.33 38.89 44.44 50.00</sup> 



### TMI cloud LWP

### **VIRS cloud LWP**



0 0.015 0.03 0.045 0.04 0.075 0.06 0.105 0.120 0.150 0.165 0.160 0.195 0.210 0.225 TMI LWP (Kg/m<sup>2</sup>) o 0.015 0.03 0.045 0.06 0.075 0.08 0.105 0.120 0.135 0.160 0.165 0.180 0.185 0.210 VIRS LWP (Kg/m<sup>2</sup>)

## Active systems: the mm radar (e.g. CloudSat)



Power returned to radar after being scattered from cloud volume is related directly to size of particles in the volume

For a hypothetical cloud (particles all the same size), the power returned

$$Z = \int n(D) D^6 dD \to N_0 D^6 \to \left( N_0 D^3 \right)^2$$

is proportional to the square of the water and ice content of the (radar) volume

#### BUT

For real cloud (particles in the volume range in size), the power returned (or Z) is *approximately* proportional to the square of the water and ice content of the (radar) volume.



### (The CloudSat) Liquid Water content example: the general idea

The w-r<sub>e</sub> dependency of lidar/ $\tau$  and radar backscatter are functionally orthogonal.

ln w



depth ln w



optical



### **Derived quantities Fractional Uncertainties**



Austin and Stephens, 2001;Austin et al., 2005



#### **Cloud Liquid Water Path**





The next dimension adding vertical resolution

Stereo example from





- For single layer clouds, radiative transfer simulation show that as optical depth increase beyond 2, the 11 12 micron brightness temperature decreases and approaches an asymptotic value
- Multi-layer clouds exhibit a relationship that can not be modeled (or confused) assuming single layer clouds.







## Particle size 'profile' retrieval

- Raining Cloud, mostly, Re\_top<Re\_base</li>
- Re\_top>Re\_base could happen for raining cloud because of the non-raining part within the pixel
- For non-raining cloud, most R\_top>R\_bot
- R\_top<R\_bot could happen for raining cloud because th cloud particle is too small to form rain or the rainfall is to weak for microwave detection





# MODIS Retrieved Cloud-top and Cloud-bottom $r_e$ and TRMM Rainfall Data



Chang & Li, 2002,2003

#### Cloud-bottom r<sub>e</sub>







# Model evaluation



# Model vs. HIRS 11 µm window (K)



Obs

HIRS  $11\mu m$  window (K)

NOAA-11 01/1990 PM orbits (~14:00 LT)

**ERA-40** 



## Model-observation comparison

O L R

A

L

B

E

D

 $\mathbf{O}$ 



**Recent comparison** 15 November 2004 1200 UT Model cloud errors can easily be distinguished. Near-real time comparisons are valuable for a wide range of other studies (e.g. outbreaks of Saharan dust) Slingo et al, 2005



## ISCCP histogram-cluster analysis (Jakob and Tseloudis)





# Example of the use of orbit data for evaluating NWP model predicted cloudiness



Assessment of forecasts of this nature, even just in terms of quantifying cloud occurrence model errors, is presumably an important first step toward eventual assimilation of cloud data.



ECMWF/LITE correlative study Statistics for 60+ LITE Orbits,  $\pm 1$  bin horizontal and vertical

**Hit Rate** = fraction cloudy+clear correctly forecast, =0.896 **Threat Score** = fraction of cloud points correctly forecast = 0.714 **Probability of Detection** = ratio of cloud hits to total # of obs clouds = 0.796

**False Alarm rate** = rate of forecasting cloud when clear = 0.126





# Summary

Many satellite measurements offer redundant information about clouds and precipitation. This is good for the purpose of crosscomparing information as a step to validating knowledge but we cannot be confident about knowing if we are approaching a truth and we have not articulated a clear path to do so.

There is generally little rigor in uncertainty analysis attached to cloud products (if it exists at all), mostly because uncertainties are difficult to validate. This leads to many problems:

- We cannot make meaningful judgments about which of the different approaches is most accurate,
- We have little basis for arguing for small changes in key parameters as being real (e.g. cloud trends)
- We cannot determine the value of combining different measurements such as from multi-sensor observing systems,
- We cannot meaningfully assimilate the observations into dynamical systems



As we enter an era of the grand challenge, an era of multisensor integration and data assimilation, it becomes essential that we develop tools that:

- 1. Determine more precisely what information resides in measurements of different types as a step to better use of them,
- 2. Optimally mix information from multiple sources of measurements, and
- 3. Convert this optimal information to knowledge through (at a minimum) quantification and validation of errors



# This is a period of great optimism but much is left to be done.



.... Well, I think one could always devote more effort. Effort by itself isn't enough, I think inspiration is also important!

**Charney to Platzmann** 



By mid 2005, we expect to have a wide range of different sensors, active and passive, optical, infrared and microwave, hyper-spectral to coarse band, all approximately viewing Earth at the same time. We are left to pose a strategy that optimally combines these measurements, converting them to meaningful information with verified uncertainties.





### Alternative approaches for assimilation of rain information **Observed Model FG Model FG Observed Radiances** T, q **Radiances** T, q (TMI, SSM/I) Cloud water + ice rain + snow **Rain retrieval Radiative transfer** FG 'rainy radiance' 1D-Var **Retrievals of TCWV 4D-Var analysis 4D-Var analysis**



### 1D+4D-Var on TRMM/PR reflectivities



#### 1D-Var retrievals using PR reflectivities with different error assumptions on PR-Z



#### 1D-Var retrievals using PR reflectivities: observations at one level only vs full profile



Background and 1D-Var incre<mark>ments</mark> of Total Column Water Va<mark>pour (ps</mark>eudo-obs for 4D-Var)



# Comparison of track forecasts (started on 26 December 2002 at 1200 UTC) obtained from the control, two TRMM/PR, and two TMI experiments to the observed track.





- As suggested by the MSLP changes, the track forecasts are substantially improved when TRMM observations are assimilated in rainy areas.

-Despite the smaller spatial coverage of TRMM/PR data (200-km swath) compared to that of TMI data (780-km swath), the impact of both types of observations is comparable.

Concluding comments:

1. The assimilation methods pioneered at the Centre represents an important a bridge linking the traditional factions of the sciences.

2. While assimilation of data on quantities characterized as smooth and continuous, we are now entering a period of assimilation of hydrological parameters

And then, of course, there remains, even in the short-range problem, I think, the physical factors, which are still not adequately understood. The matter of the boundary layer and precipitation process .... Charney to Platzmann



The launch of TIROS-1, **April 1960** 





The first 24hr view of global clouds TIROS-9, February 13, 1965

14. 14. 14. 14. 14. First flight of precipitation radar, TRMM, 1997

PATINOS

1. Global climatologies of cloud occurrence<sup>\*</sup>, optical properties, 1983present \* Cloud mask/ identification /screening First flight of backscatter lidar, LITE, 1996



Decadal cloud amount trends, precipitation variability

Assimilation of precipitation and cloud radiances

(Heidinger poster)

### **MODIS-AVHRR comparisons: Hurricane Ivan**

D04259 S1929 E2123 B2053335 GC

280.0 300.0

MODIS TERRA- UW/SSEC DR 04259 18:49



We use different techniques based on the same physics (e.g. emission and scattering) for arriving at the same information



#### Example application: Aircraft Contrail Detection



Coutesy S. Miller

# CloudSat Examples 1. Illustrating simple ideas of Information content

Information is an augmentation of existing knowledge



Shannon total information

$$H = s[P(x_a)] - s[P(x)]$$

The observing system identifies 2<sup>H</sup> states over and above our background knowledge. It is a measure of system resolution.

# MODIS ice cloud optical properties

The point about this is there is no one optimal combination of channels – the combination of channels varies according to conditions



Cooper et al., 2004



# Ice cloud Example - combining the physics of thermal emission and visible/nir scattering

### Example using MAS data from Crystal FACE



A 5 channel algorithm is being developed for CloudSat – this 5 channel method is superior to two channel methods currently being used to retrieve cirrus properties

Cooper et al., 2004

### Adding measurements to some prior knowledge of the state: Bayes' Theorem



$$P(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}) = \frac{P(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})P(\mathbf{x})}{P(\mathbf{y})}$$

# 3. Error Validation

The CloudSat validation goal is to confirm the retrieval error estimates provided by all algorithms - ground truth when possible (ISO GUM\*, method A)

- component analyses (ISO GUM, method B)
- consistency analyses (ISO GUM, method B)



\* International Organization for Standards (ISO) Guide to the expression of uncertainty in Measurements

Total errors derived from actual comparison of retrieved with in situ, method A

### Ice cloud Example - combining the physics of thermal emission and visible/nir scattering



As we add channels, we can see how information is increased and how retrieval errors are reduced.

### Engelen and Stephens, 1997, JGR, 6929-6939 (ozone)

Heidinger and Stephens, 1998; 2000,J.Atmos.Sci.,57,(cloud) Miller, Austin and Stephens, 2001,JGR,106,17981-17995 (cloud) Cooper, L'Ecuyer and Stephens,2003, JGR,108,(cloud) Engelen et al., 2002; CO<sub>2</sub>

### **Passive-Passive**

Passive:

Engelen and Stephens,1999;QJRMS,125,331-351; water vapor Christi and Stephens, 2004;JGR; CO<sub>2</sub>

#### Active - Passive:

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L'Ecuyer, Cooper, Leesman,,Stephens, 2004; In preparation.

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Labonnote and Stephens, 2004; JGR

### Adding measurements to some prior knowledge of the state: Bayes' Theorem



$$P(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}) = \frac{P(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})P(\mathbf{x})}{P(\mathbf{y})}$$

**Example:** Return to our 'simple' example and apply Optimal Estimation technique

A priori assumption 
$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_a = \begin{pmatrix} 1.2 \\ 1.1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Assume diagonal covariance matrices with 0.001 for the error in the measurements and 0.5 for the error in the *a priori* guess.

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \left(\mathbf{K}^T \mathbf{S}_y^{-1} \mathbf{K} + \mathbf{S}_a^{-1}\right)^{-1} \left(\mathbf{K}^T \mathbf{S}_y^{-1} \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{S}_a^{-1} \mathbf{x}_a\right) = \begin{pmatrix} 1.05\\ 0.95 \end{pmatrix}$$

We also obtain a covariance matrix for the result:

$$\mathbf{S}_{x} = \left(\mathbf{K}^{T}\mathbf{S}_{y}^{-1}\mathbf{K} + \mathbf{S}_{a}^{-1}\right)^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.25 & -0.25 \\ -0.25 & 0.25 \end{pmatrix}$$

So what have we gained???



$$N(r) = \frac{N_T}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_{log}r} \exp\left[\frac{-\ln^2(r/r_g)}{2\sigma_{log}^2}\right]$$
$$Z_{dBZ}(z_i) = 10\log[64N_T r_{gi}^6 \exp(18\sigma_{log}^2)]$$
$$\tau = \sum_{i=1}^p 2\pi N_T r_{gi}^2 \exp(2\sigma_{log}^2)\Delta z$$

Assume N<sub>T</sub> and  $\sigma_{loa}$ are constant in height

"forward model" f(x,b)

Measurements vector

State vector

A priori vector

$$\mathbf{y} = egin{bmatrix} Z_{dBZ}'(z_1) \ \mathbf{i} \ Z_{dBZ}'(z_p) \ \mathbf{ au} \end{bmatrix}$$

 $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} r_g(z_1) \\ \mathbf{i} \\ r_g(z_p) \\ N_T \\ \mathbf{O}_{\log} \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{a}} = \begin{bmatrix} r_{ga}(z_1) \\ \mathbf{i} \\ r_{ga}(z_p) \\ N_{Ta} \\ \mathbf{O}_{\log_a} \end{bmatrix}$ 

$$\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{a}} = \begin{bmatrix} r_{ga}(z_1) \\ \mathbf{i} \\ r_{ga}(z_p) \\ N_{Ta} \end{bmatrix}$$

m = p+1 elements

n = p+2 elements

p+2 elements

## Application to ARM data



Old with width parameter specified

New with width parameter retrieved

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Labonnote and Stephens, 2004; JGR

## Information content: elementary ideas

Information is an augmentation of existing knowledge thus it is a relative concept



## Shannon's measure of information

Entropy is a measure of the # of distinct states of a system, and thus a measure of information about that system. If the system is defined by the pdf P(x), then

$$s(P) = -k \int P(x) \ln P(x) dx$$

for

$$P(x) \to \exp[-(x - \langle x \rangle)^T S_x (x - \langle x \rangle)]$$
$$s(P) = \frac{1}{2} \ln S_x$$

In our context, information is the change (reduction) in entropy of the 'system' after a measurement is made

$$H = s(P(x_a)) - s(P(x))$$
$$H = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left| S_a S_x^{-1} \right|$$



### Summary of information properties

Property

### Interpretation

Provides a measure of where information comes to produce the retrieved state x

The observing system identifies 2H states over and above our background knowledge. It is a measure of system resolution.

# of measurements above noise

Singular values of this scaled Jacobean matrix above unity tell us about how many pieces of information are contained in the measurements. The singular vectors tell us what combination of state parameters are retrievable

Η

A

 $dfs = Tr(I - S_a S_r^{-1})$ 

 $\widetilde{K} = S_y^{-1/2} K S_a^{1/2}$  $K_{ii} = \frac{\partial f_i}{2}$ 



