

Data Assimilation Training Course

Background Error Covariance Modelling

Elias Holm – slides courtesy Mike Fisher



Importance of Background Covariances

- The formulation of the J_b term of the cost function is <u>crucial</u> to the performance of current analysis systems.
- To see why, suppose we have a <u>single observation</u> of the value of a <u>model field</u> at <u>one gridpoint</u>.
- For this simple case, the observation operator is:

$$H = (0, ..., 0, 1, 0, ..., 0)$$

The gradient of the 3dVar cost function is:

$$\nabla J = B^{-1}(x-x_b) + H^T R^{-1}(Hx-y) = 0$$

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Multiply through by B and rearrange a bit:

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

But, for this simple case, R⁻¹(y-Hx) is a <u>scalar</u>

Importance of Background Covariances

- So, we have: $\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}_b \propto \mathbf{B} \mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}}$
- But, H = (0,...,0,1,0,...,0)
- => <u>The analysis increment is proportional to a</u> <u>column of B</u>.
- The role of B is:
 - 1. To spread out the information from the observations.
 - 2. To provide statistically consistent increments at the neighbouring gridpoints and levels of the model.
 - 3. To ensure that observations of one model variable (e.g. temperature) produce dynamically consistent increments in the other model variables (e.g. vorticity and divergence).



Main Issues in Covariance Modelling

- There are 2 problems to be addressed in specifying B:
- 1. We want to describe the statistics of the errors in the background.
 - However, we don't know what the errors in the background are, since we don't know the <u>true</u> state of the atmosphere.
- **2.** The B matrix is enormous ($\sim 10^7 \times 10^7$).
 - We are forced to simplify it just to fit it into the computer.
 - Even if we could fit it into the computer, we don't have enough statistical information to determine all its elements.



Diagnosing Background Error Statistics

• Problem:

- We cannot produce samples of background error. (We don't know the true state.)
- Instead, we must either:
 - Disentangle background errors from the information we do have: innovation (observation-minus-background) statistics.

• Or:

- Use a surrogate quantity whose error statistics are similar to those of background error. Two possibilities are:
 - Differences between forecasts that verify at the same time.
 - differences between background fields from an ensemble of analyses.

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Diagnosing Background Error Statistics

- Three approaches to estimating J_b statistics:
- 1. The Hollingsworth and Lönnberg (1986) method
 - Differences between observations and the background are a combination of background and observation error.
 - The method tries to partition this error into background errors and observation errors by assuming that the observation errors are spatially uncorrelated.
- 2. The NMC method (Parrish and Derber, 1992)
 - This method assumes that the spatial correlations of backgound error are similar to the correlations of differences between 48h and 24h forecasts verifying at the same time.

3. The Analysis-Ensemble method (Fisher, 2003)

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This method runs the analysis system several times for the same period with randomly-perturbed observations. Differences between background fields for different runs provide a surrogate for a sample of background error.



Estimating Background Error Statistics from Innovation Statistics

Assume:

- 1. Background errors are independent of observation errors.
- 2. Observations have spatially uncorrelated errors (for some observation types).
- Let d_i=y_i-H_i(x_b) be the innovation (obs-bg) for the ith observation.
- Then, denoting background error by ε, observation error by η, and neglecting representativeness error, we have d_i=η_i-H_i(ε).

1. => $Var(d_i) = Var(\eta_i) + Var(H_i(\epsilon))$

2. => $Cov(d_i, d_k) = Cov(H_i(\epsilon), H_k(\epsilon))$ (for obs. i and k not co-located)

 We can extract a lot of useful information by plotting Cov(d_i, d_k) as a function of the distance between pairs of observations.



Estimating Background Error Statistics from Innovation Statistics



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 Suppose we perturb all the inputs to the analysis/forecast system with random perturbations, drawn from the relevant distributions:



- The result will be a perturbed analysis and forecast, with perturbations characteristic of analysis and forecast error.
- The perturbed forecast may be used as the background for the next (perturbed) cycle.

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 After a few cycles, the system will have forgotten the original initial background perturbations.



- Run the analysis system several times with different perturbations, and form differences between pairs of background fields.
- These differences will have the statistical characteristics of background error (but twice the variance).





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Estimating Background Error Statistics – Pros and Cons of the Various Methods

Innovation statistics:

- © The only direct method for diagnosing background error statistics.
- **⊗** Provides statistics of background error in observation space.
- ☺ Statistics are not global, and do not cover all model levels.
- **⊗** Requires a good uniform observing network.
- **⊗** Statistics are biased towards data-dense areas.

Forecast Differences:

- © Generates global statistics of model variables at all levels.
- \odot Inexpensive.
- ◎ Statistics are a mixture of analysis and background error.
- ⊗ Not good in data-sparse regions.

Ensembles of Analyses:

- ◎ Assumes statistics of observation error (and SST, etc.) are well known.
- © Diagnoses the statistics of the actual analysis system.
- ⊗ Danger of feedback. (Noisy analysis system => noisy stats => noisier system.)

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J_b Formulation – The control variable

- The incremental analysis problem may be rewritten in terms of a new variable, χ , defined by $L\chi = (\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}_h)$, where $LL^T = B$.
- The cost function becomes:

$$J(\boldsymbol{\chi}) = \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\chi}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\chi} + (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{H} \ (\mathbf{x}_{b}) - \mathbf{H} \mathbf{L} \boldsymbol{\chi})^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{R}^{-1} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{H} \ (\mathbf{x}_{b}) - \mathbf{H} \mathbf{L} \boldsymbol{\chi})$$

- It is not necessary for L to be invertible (or even square), but it usually is.
- The covariance matrix for χ is the identity matrix. This is obvious if L is invertible:

$$\overline{\boldsymbol{\chi}\boldsymbol{\chi}^{\mathrm{T}}} = \overline{\mathbf{L}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{b})(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{b})^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{L}^{-\mathrm{T}}} = \mathbf{L}^{-1}\overline{(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{b})(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{b})^{\mathrm{T}}}\mathbf{L}^{-\mathrm{T}}$$
$$= \mathbf{L}^{-1}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{L}^{-\mathrm{T}}$$
$$= \mathbf{I}$$

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J_b Formulation – The control variable

- We may interpret L as an operator that takes a control vector χ with covariance matrix I, and introduces correlations to give the background departures, (x-x_b).
- With this interpretation, we may factorize L into a sequence steps, each of which adds some aspect of correlation into the background departures.



- The most obvious correlation in the background errors is the balance between mass errors and wind errors in the extra-tropics.
- We therefore define our change of variable as:

 $L = KB_{u}^{1/2}$

- where K accounts for all the correlation <u>between</u> variables (e.g. between the mass and wind fields).
- The matrix B_u is a covariance matrix for variables that are uncorrelated with each other.
- => B_u is block diagonal, with one block for each variable.



• K accounts for the correlations between variables:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \zeta \\ \mathbf{D} \\ (\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{p}_{s}) \\ \mathbf{q} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \mathbf{M} & \mathbf{I} & 0 & 0 \\ \mathbf{N} & \mathbf{P} & \mathbf{I} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{I} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \zeta \\ \mathbf{D}_{u} \\ (\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{p}_{s})_{u} \\ \mathbf{q} \end{pmatrix}$$

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• The inverse is: $\mathbf{K}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -\mathbf{M} & \mathbf{I} & 0 & 0 \\ (\mathbf{PM} - \mathbf{N}) & -\mathbf{P} & \mathbf{I} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{I} \end{pmatrix}$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \zeta \\ \mathbf{D} \\ (\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{p}_{s}) \\ \mathbf{q} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \mathbf{M} & \mathbf{I} & 0 & 0 \\ \mathbf{N} & \mathbf{P} & \mathbf{I} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{I} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \zeta \\ \mathbf{D}_{u} \\ (\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{p}_{s})_{u} \\ \mathbf{q} \end{pmatrix}$$

- The most important part of the balance operator is the sub-matrix N, which calculates a balanced part of (T,p_s), determined from the vorticity.
- N is implemented in 2 parts:
 - 1. A balanced "geopotential" is calculated from ζ .
 - 2. Balanced (T,p_s) are calculated using statistical regression between (T,p_s) and geopotential.
 - (Using regression avoids some numerical problems associated with inverting the hydrostatic equation.)

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- The original (Derber and Bouttier, 1999) ECMWF balance operator calculated balanced geopotential from vorticity using a statistical regression.
- The regression gave results that were nearly indistinguishable from linear balance.
- We have replaced this part of the balance operator with an analytical balance: nonlinear balance, linearized about the background state.
- This gives a flow-dependent balance operator:

$$\nabla^2 \Phi' = -\nabla \cdot \left(\mathbf{v}_{\psi b} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{v}'_{\psi} + \mathbf{v}'_{\psi} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{v}_{\psi b} + f \mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{v}'_{\psi} \right)$$

The extra, flow-dependent, terms are particularly important in regions of strong curvature (jet entrances, exits, etc.).

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QG Omega Equation

A similar approach allows us to augment the balance operator with a term that calculates balanced divergence from vorticity and temperature, according to the quasigeostrophic omega equation:

$$(\sigma \nabla^2 + f_0^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial p^2})\omega' = -2\nabla \cdot \mathbf{Q}'$$

Linearize Q about the background:

$$\mathbf{Q}' = -\frac{R}{p} \left[\left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{v}'_{\psi}}{\partial x} \bullet \nabla T_b + \frac{\partial \mathbf{v}_{\psi b}}{\partial x} \bullet \nabla T' \right) \mathbf{i} + \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{v}'_{\psi}}{\partial x} \bullet \nabla T_b + \frac{\partial \mathbf{v}_{\psi b}}{\partial x} \bullet \nabla T' \right) \mathbf{j} \right]$$



Wind increments at level 31 from a single height observation at 300hPa.



Temperature increments at level 31 from a height observation at 300hPa.



Vorticity increments at level 31 from a height observation at 300hPa.



Divergence increments at level 31 from a height observation at 300hPa.



- We assume that the balance operator accounts for all inter-variable correlations.
- So, B_u is block diagonal:

$$\mathbf{B}_{u} = \begin{pmatrix} C_{\zeta} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & C_{D_{u}} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & C_{(T, p_{s})_{u}} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & C_{q} \end{pmatrix}$$



Each of the covariance matrices, C_ζ etc., can be further split into a product of the form:

 $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{\Sigma}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{V}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{V} \mathbf{H} \mathbf{\Sigma}$

- Σ is a matrix of standard deviations of background error.
 - The standard deviations are represented in gridpoint space.
 - I.e. Σ consists of an inverse spectral transform followed by a <u>diagonal</u> matrix of gridpoint standard deviations, followed by a transform back to spectral coefficients.

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- H (in the ECMWF system) is <u>diagonal</u> and its elements vary only with total (spherical harmonic) wavenumber, *n*.
- V (in the ECMWF system) is <u>block diagonal</u> with one (vertical correlation) matrix for each total wavenumber, n.

The ECMWF J_b Formulation – The Error Covariances

- This form of V and H gives correlations which are:
 - Homogeneous.
 - Isotropic.
 - Non-seperable.
 - I.e. The vertical and horizontal correlations are linked so that small horizontal scales have sharper vertical correlations than larger horizontal scales.
- The elements of V and H can be calculated using the NMC method, or from background differences from an ensemble of analyses.
- The standard deviations, Σ, could also be calculated in this way.
 - In fact, we use a cycling algorithm that takes into account cycle-to-cycle changes in the observation network.

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Wavenumber-Averaged Vertical Correlations - T_u



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The Derber-Bouttier J_b Formulation – Balance Operator

explained temperature ratio



Fraction of T variance explained by the balance operator: $1 - Var(T_u)/Var(T)$

NB: 30-level model => Very old slide!

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The Derber-Bouttier J_b Formulation – Balance Operator explained divergence ratio



Fraction of Divergence variance explained by the balance operator: $1 - Var(D_u)/Var(D)$

NB: 30-level model => Very old slide!

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The Balance Operator Actual T correlation T correlation implied by B Н 8 12 model levels model level 0.45 0.25 0.65 0.65 0.65 16 0.45 0.85 16 0.85 0.85 H H 0.85 0.85 20 0.65 20 0.45 0.25 0.65 0.45 24 24 0.25 28 28 10 0 -10 -20 -30 -40 -70 -80 -91 90 80 70 60 50 90 80 70 60 50 40 30 20 -60 20 10 0 -10 -20 -30 -40 -50 -60 -70 -80 -90 30 Ν latitude S N latitude (deg) S Mid-latitude correlations given by **Tropical correlations** Determined by C_{Tu} The balance operator acting on C_{ζ} . **ECMWF** Slide 34

Diffusion Operators and Digital Filters

- The spectral approach is efficient and convenient for models with regular (e.g. spherical or rectangular) domains.
- It is difficult to use if the domain is not regular (e.g. ocean models).
- Because the spectral approach is based on convolutions, it is difficult to incorporate inhomogeneity and anisotropy.
- Diffusion operators and digital filters provide alternatives to the spectral approach that address these difficulties.

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Diffusion Operators

• The 1-dimensional diffusion equation:

$$\frac{\partial \eta}{\partial t} - \kappa \frac{\partial^2 \eta}{\partial t^2} = 0$$

• Has solution at time *T*:

$$\eta(x,T) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi\kappa T}} \int_{x'} e^{-(x-x')^2/4\kappa T} \eta(x',0) dx'$$

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• That is, $\eta(x,T)$ is the result of convolving $\eta(x,0)$ with the Gaussian function:

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi\kappa T}}\exp\left(-x^2/4\kappa T\right)$$

Diffusion Operators

- The one-dimensional result generalizes to more dimensions, and to different geometries (e.g. on the sphere).
- Weaver and Courtier (2001) realized that numerical integration of a diffusion equation could be used to perform convolutions for covariance modelling.
- Irregular boundary conditions (e.g. coastlines) are easily handled.
- More general partial differential equations can be used to generate a large class of correlation functions:

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$$\frac{\partial \eta}{\partial t} + \sum_{p=1}^{p} \kappa_p \left(-\nabla^2 \right)^p \eta = 0$$

Diffusion Operators

- The change of variable needs the <u>square-root</u> of the diffusion operator. Fortunately, because the operator is self-adjoint, the square-root is equivalent to integrating the equation from time 0 to *T*/2.
- Inhomogeneous covariance models can be produced by making the diffusion coefficients vary with location.
- Anisotropic covariances can be produced by using tensor diffusion coefficients.

Disadvantages:

- Calculation of the normalization coefficient ($1/\sqrt{4\pi\kappa T}$ in the 1-D example) is expensive in the general case.
- The relationship between the diffusion coefficients and the shape of the correlation function is complicated. It is difficult to generate suitable coefficients to match the correlations implied by data.

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Digital Filters

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In one-dimension, convolution with a Gaussian may be achieved, to good approximation, using a pair of recursive filters:

$$q_{i} = \beta p_{i} + \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{j} q_{i-j}$$
$$s_{i} = \beta q_{i} + \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{j} s_{i+j}$$

In two dimensions, the Fourier transform of the Gaussian factorizes:

$$\exp\left(-\frac{a^2\left(k^2+l^2\right)}{2}\right) = \exp\left(-\frac{a^2k^2}{2}\right)\exp\left(-\frac{a^2l^2}{2}\right)$$

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=> 2-D convolution may be achieved by 1-D filtering in the x-direction, and then in the y-direction.

• NB: This factorization only works for Gaussians!

Digital Filters

 Non-Gaussian covariance functions may be produced as a superposition of Gaussians.

- I.e. the filtered field is the weighted sum of convolutions with a set of Gaussians of different widths.
- Inhomogeneous covariances may be synthesized by allowing the filter coefficients to vary with location.
- Simple anisotropic covariances (ellipses), with different north-south and east-west length scales, can be produced by using different filters in the north-south direction.
- However, fully general anisotropy (bananas) requires 3 independent filters (north-south, east-west, and SW-NE) in 2 dimensions and 6 filters in 3 dimensions.



Digital Filters

- There is a close connection between digital filter methods and diffusion operator methods.
 - One timestep of integration of a diffusion operator can be viewed as one application of a digital filter.

Advantages of Digital Filters:

- Computational Efficiency
- Generality
- Disadvantages:
 - Filter coefficients are difficult to determine from data.
 - Grid geometry, polar singularities and boundary conditions must be handled carefully.



Summary

- A good B matrix is vitally important in any (current) data assimilation system.
- In a large-dimension system, covariances must be modelled: The matrix is too big to specify every element.
- Innovation Statistics are the only real data we have to diagnose background error statistics, but they are difficult to use.
- Analysis ensembles allow us to generate a good surrogate for samples of background error.
- Spectral methods work well for simple geometries (spherical or rectangular domains), but have limitations:
 - Anisotropic and/or inhomogeneous covariances are tricky!
- Diffusion operators and digital filters have fewer limitations, but calculating the diffusion/filter coefficients is non-trivial.

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