

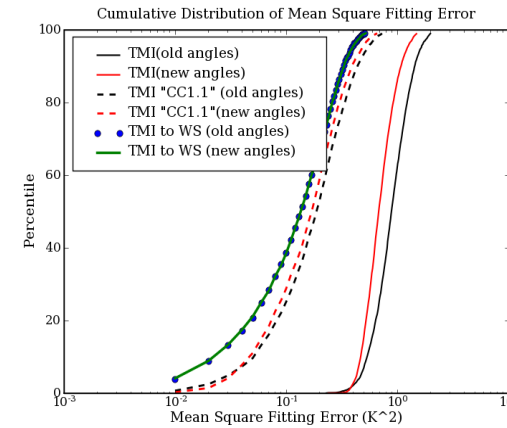
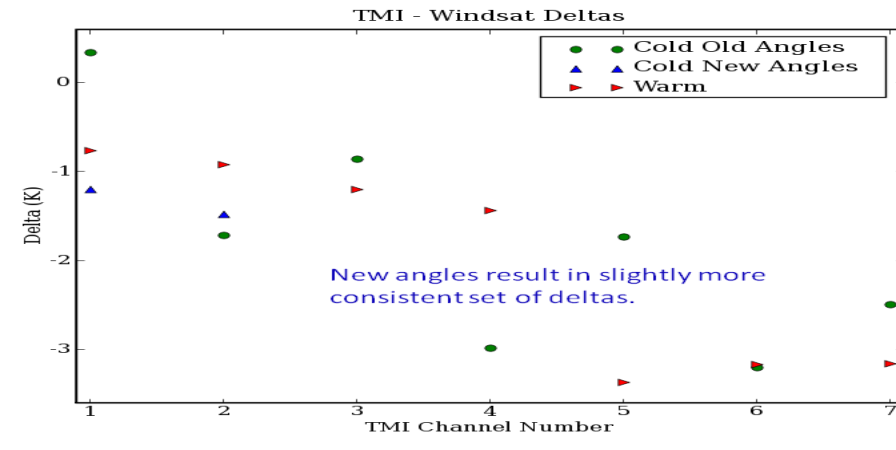
From Steve Bilanow's Presentation
at March 2011 X-CAL meeting
TMI Pointing Uncertainty Effects

- "Prelaunch measure of TMI 10 V and 10H boresight alignment offsets from a 49 degree scan cone were reported at 0.555 and 0.185 degrees respectively*. This corresponds to ~ 1.3 K and -0.2 K bias shifts.

* Memorandum from Jim Shiue, 12/11/97"

When you do the trigonometry, this translates to *increases* of the Earth Incidence Angle for the two 10.7 GHz channels of 0.649° and 0.216° (OK, a few too many significant figures)

Is it real?
Does it matter?



Use TAMU Model to Calculate TMI-WS Differences
Warm End Differences < 0.05K /ignore

Deltas Computed with TAMU Model

	10V	10H	19V	19H	21V	37V	37H
	0.34	-1.71	-0.86	-2.98	-1.73	-3.20	-2.49
	-1.20	-1.48	Including Jim Shiue's Angles				
@	171K	89	202	137	200	216	156
	-0.76	-0.92	-1.20	-1.43	-3.37	-3.17	-3.16
@	281	280	285	284	284	281	281

Deltas are more self-consistent using Jim Shiue's angles.

"TMI_CC_1.1" based on TAMU model only @ Cold End, U. Mich at Warm End.
75% Weight for Windsat, 25% TMI

Conclusions

TMI 10 GHz Angle Issue is real

It Matters (a little)

Will be treated explicitly for TMI

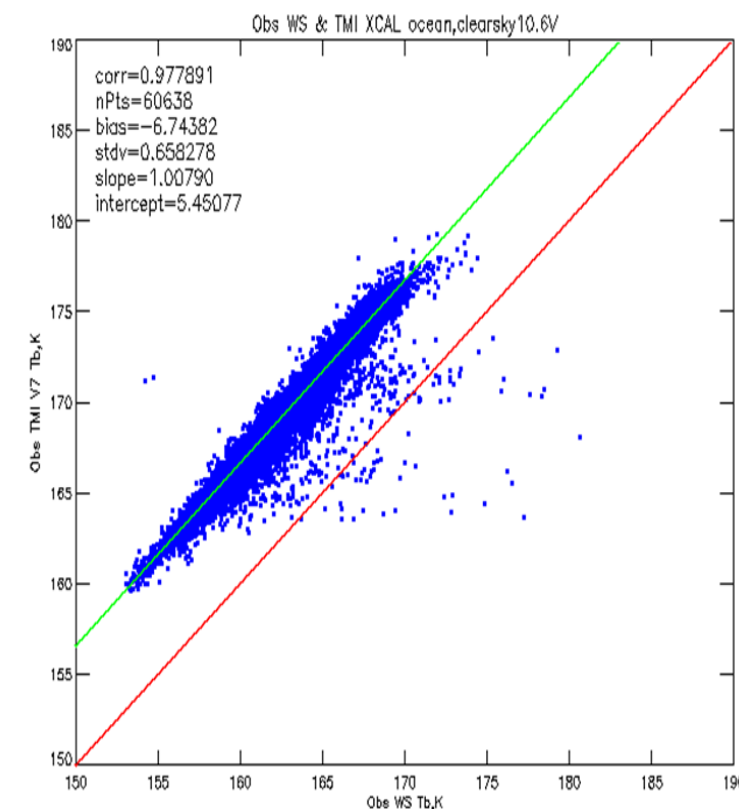
Similar Issues Will Recur

Explicit Treatment Where Known

Intercalibration will cover where not Known

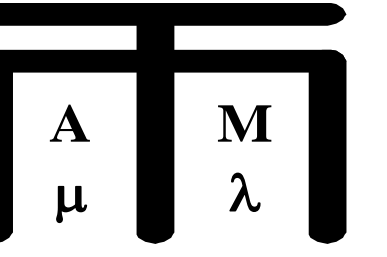
Steve Bilanow unearthed an ancient memo from Jim Shiue pointing out that the 10.7 GHz beams of TMI are not co-aligned with the other TMI beams, nor even with one another. The Earth Incidence Angle impact actually exceeds a half a degree. This raises two issues: "Is it real?" and if so, "Does it matter?" The TAMU algorithm has been used to gain some insight here. First the TMI-Windsat differences have been calculated for approximately 10,000 coincident TMI/Windsat observations using both the original and corrected sets of incidence angles. The deltas are given numerically and graphically in two figures above. The 10V offset was always odd; it was the only positive difference. With the new set of angles, all differences are negative and somewhat more self-consistent. The TAMU algorithm also provides a measure of consistency with the radiative transfer models through the penalty function (Mean square fitting error). The S-shaped curves above show the distribution of the penalty function values over the roughly 10K fits. The solid red and black curves represent the TMI version-7 unadjusted values as the source sensor. Even though the version 7 calibration contains some voodoo based on the old angles, using the new angles improves the fit slightly. These two threads suggest that the new 10V angles are, in fact, closer to reality than the old ones. If we generate a TAMU-only Consensus Calibration 1.1 (analogous to the X-CAL team CC_1.1, but based entirely on the TAMU model) the two dashed lines result. The new angles generate calibrations somewhat more consistent with the models than the old angles. Thus, for any sensor used as part of the calibration standard or as a transfer standard, we need to get the angles right.

On the other hand, if TMI is recalibrated to agree with Windsat, the fit improves and there is no discernable difference between the angle assumptions. Thus, the X-CAL process could paper over this angle issue, and presumably other similar issues. While, on philosophical grounds, we should treat any such issue explicitly if it is known, there are likely to be similar issues among the constellation instruments that we do not know. The X-CAL process will keep them from wrecking the GPM ship.



Need for 3σ filter

Working with the TMI/Windsat matchup data set generated by UCF for algorithm team purposes, Sid Boukabara found a great many wild points. He was reading this data set with the TAMU program which included the standard deviation tests. It was thought that these limits (2K for all Vpol channels and 3K for all Hpol channels) would eliminate all RFI problems; clearly this is not so. Based on this we have introduced an additional filter into the programs which use the matchup data set. We take a first pass through the data and note the average and standard deviation of the differences between corresponding Windsat and TMI channels. For subsequent passes we reject all points for which the difference departs from this mean by more than 3 times the standard deviation. We find roughly an order of magnitude more such points than one would expect for a Gaussian distribution. Eliminating these wild points shifts the means by a few hundredths of a Kelvin. An equivalent filter has also been implemented for the TMI/AMSR-E matchup and will be implemented for all future matchup data sets.



Calibration of Radiances

Tom Wilheit / Texas A&M Univ.

Sid Boukabara/ NOAA

Texas A&M University Algorithms

The Texas A&M University (TAMU) algorithm adjusts 4 parameters of a geophysical model to match the over-ocean radiances of the source sensor. It matches in the sense of minimizing a penalty function which is simply a weighted average of the squares of the differences between the observed and computed radiances. The set of geophysical parameters that minimizes this penalty function is then used to compute the radiances of the target sensor.

The penalty function allows choices of which channels are used and with what weight. For the present, only binary values (*i.e.* 0 or 1) have been used in the weight vector but other values are possible. In fitting Windsat to predict TMI radiances the 7 channels having closely corresponding TMI channels have unit weight and the remaining channels (6.8GHz H&V, 23GHz V). For predicting AMSR-E from TMI the algorithm is run twice. Once with only the low frequency channels for predicting the low frequency channels of AMSR-E and again with all channels to predict the 89 GHz channels of AMSR-E

The geophysical parameters adjusted are sea surface wind, sea surface temperature, cloud liquid water content, and, in an indirect sense, precipitable water. The atmospheric profile assumes the cloud to be distributed between 4 and 5 km, the lapse rate to be 6.26K/km and a fixed relative humidity profile (See the error model discussion). The lapse rate and the relative humidity profile are averages from the GDAS data set associated with the niversity of Central Florida matchup data set. There is no reliable information as to the height of the cloud (if any) so the height used is arbitrary but roughly in the center of the possible range. The atmospheric temperature at the lowest level is the actual parameter adjusted but it modulates the precipitable water via the fixed relative humidity profile. Comparison of the retrieved atmospheric and sea surface temperatures is a test of the reasonableness of this assumption. The position of the cloud is not important as long as it is at a temperature warmer than -40C, the temperature of spontaneous nucleation.

The absorption coefficients and emissivities used are those agreed upon by the X-CAL team with modification. They have been translated from Fortran 77 to Fortran 90. The cloud liquid water and sea surface emissivity models have been modified to permit negative values of the cloud liquid water and surface wind speed. While this seems nonsensical on a physical basis it is computationally important. At low values of the parameters radiance fluctuations (e.g. NEDT) can cause some negative apparent values. If these are rejected or converted to some non-negative value, a bias will result. Also, if the source sensor has a calibration error, that too can cause negative values. The aim here is to transfer the calibration of one sensor to another for comparison purposes and clipping the values would contaminate the results. The modification of the cloud liquid water absorption is simple. Any discontinuity at zero can also interfere with the iterative solution to match the brightness temperatures.

The nested grid search algorithm is used. It computes the brightness temperature for the first guess set of parameters (SST and T₀ (the lowest level of the atmosphere) = 285K, Wind Speed = 10 m/s, and Cloud liquid water = 5 mg/cm²). The initial step size is chosen to give on the order of 1K of brightness temperature change in at least one channel (1K for SST and T₀, 0.5 m/s of wind speed and 0.5 mg/cm² of CLW) and no change large compared to 1K. The brightness temperature computations are performed for 250m thick layers with an explicit correction for the temperature change across the layer. The parameters that minimize the penalty function are found at this resolution and then the step size is then halved and the process is repeated through 7 halvings, *i.e.* until the step size corresponds to approximately 0.01K. Less would make neither numerical nor physical sense. After the minimum penalty function has been found for this last step size, the radiances for the target sensor are computed.

For comparison purposes, an additional algorithm has been implemented. Each matchup box in the UCF data set includes surface and atmospheric parameters from GDAS. These are used to compute brightness temperatures directly for both the target and source sensors. But for minor implementation choices, this algorithm is quite similar to the UCF algorithm and yields almost identical results.

