

Using OSSEs to Evaluate the Impacts of Geostationary Infrared Sounders

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9 ABSTRACT: An observing system simulation experiment (OSSE) was performed to assess the
10 impact of assimilating hyperspectral infrared (IR) radiances from geostationary orbit on numerical
11 weather prediction, with a focus on the proposed sounder onboard the Geostationary eXtended
12 Observations (GeoXO) program’s central satellite. Infrared sounders on a geostationary platform
13 would fill several gaps left by IR sounders on polar orbiting satellites, and the increased temporal
14 resolution would allow the observation of weather phenomena evolution. The framework for this
15 OSSE was the Global Modeling and Assimilation Office (GMAO) OSSE system, which includes
16 a full suite of meteorological observations. The experiment additionally assimilated four identical
17 IR sounders from geostationary orbit to create a “ring” of vertical profiling observations. Based on
18 the experimentation, assimilation of the IR sounders provided a beneficial impact on the analyzed
19 mass and wind fields, particularly in the tropics, and produced an error reduction in the initial 24-48
20 hours of the subsequent forecasts. Specific attention was paid to the impact of the GeoXO Sounder
21 (GXS) over the contiguous United States (CONUS) as this is a region that is well-observed and as
22 such difficult to improve. The forecast sensitivity to observation impact (FSOI) metric, computed
23 across all four synoptic times over the CONUS, reveals that the GXS had the largest impact on
24 the 24-hour forecast error of the assimilated hyperspectral infrared satellite radiances as measured
25 using a moist energy error norm. Based on this analysis, the proposed GXS has the potential to
26 improve numerical weather prediction globally and over the CONUS.

27 SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT: The purpose of this study is to understand the impact of the
28 proposed geostationary hyperspectral infrared sounder as part of the Geostationary Extended
29 Observations (GeoXO) program on numerical weather prediction. The evaluation was done using
30 a simulated environment, and showed a beneficial impact on the tropical mass and wind fields
31 and an error reduction in the initial 24-48 hour forecasts. Over the contiguous United States, the
32 GeoXO Sounder (GXS) performed well and had the largest impact of the assimilated infrared
33 satellite radiances on the 24 hour forecast as measured by a moist energy error norm. Based on the
34 results of this study, the proposed GXS has the potential to improve numerical weather prediction.

35 1. Introduction

36 The goal of any weather prediction system is to enable better decision making by individuals,
37 industries, and governments. In order to meet this goal, a good, well-performing forecast is required,
38 which benefits from good observations of the atmosphere and its processes. These observations
39 are key to improving model representations of current and future weather conditions. Numerical
40 weather prediction (NWP) systems benefit from conventional and remotely-sensed observations
41 that, when combined with global models through a process called data assimilation, are able to
42 initialize forward in time forecasts.

43 Although conventional observations, such as radiosondes and ground-based stations, are often-
44 times considered the gold standard and are relatively simple to deploy, their spatial irregularity
45 requires satellite observations to fill the void. The addition of satellite observations to NWP
46 systems have enabled forecasts to be equally skillful in the Northern and Southern Hemispheres
47 (Bauer et al. 2015; Diniz and Todling 2020). This capability is what makes satellite observations
48 the basis for current NWP (Zapotocny et al. 2007).

49 One of the major types of satellite information for use in data assimilation systems is infrared
50 radiances (Cardinali 2009; Li et al. 2018; Lawrence et al. 2019). Although remarkable progress
51 has been made over the last several decades in terms of spatiotemporal coverage and precision of
52 global observations, gaps in knowledge remain. An option previously used is observations from
53 multispectral channel soundings from geostationary orbit. However, these have limited vertical
54 resolution that is insufficient for many applications (Wang et al. 2007; Schmit et al. 2009).

55 The other widely available infrared radiance data are from low earth orbit (LEO) from hyper-
56 spectral sensors such as the Cross-track Infrared Sounder (CrIS) onboard the Suomi NPP and
57 NOAA-20 satellites, the Atmospheric Infrared Sounder (AIRS) onboard the National Aeronautics
58 and Space Administration's (NASA) Aqua satellite, and the Infrared Atmospheric Sounding In-
59 terferometers (IASI) onboard the European Space Agency's (ESA) MetOp satellites. These LEO
60 sounders are essential to NWP by providing high vertical resolution temperature and water vapor
61 information, but are limited both horizontally and temporally (McCarty et al. 2021). The low
62 temporal resolution makes it difficult to view between gaps in the clouds and prevents monitoring
63 of rapidly evolving phenomena that may be of great importance meteorologically and to affected
64 stakeholders (Schmit et al. 2009).

65 Many of the shortcomings of available satellite infrared radiances would be addressed by the
66 proposed hyperspectral infrared sounder from geostationary orbit. This is a proven concept, having
67 been originally developed by NASA for the Geosynchronous Imaging Fourier Transform Spectrom-
68 eter (GIFTS) mission concept (Zhou et al. 2002; Velden et al. 2005). The China Meteorological
69 Administration (CMA) launched the Geosynchronous Interferometric Infrared Sounder (GIIRS)
70 in December 2016 (Yang et al. 2017), providing the first geostationary Fourier Transform Spec-
71 trometer with high temporal resolution radiances suitable for NWP (Guo et al. 2021). Launched
72 onboard the FengYun-4A (FY-4A) satellite, GIIRS provides observations from a location at 105°E.
73 EUMETSAT has proposed the launch of the Meteosat Third Generation (MTG) hyperspectral in-
74 frared sounder (IRS) for 2023 (Holmlund et al. 2021) and the Japan Meteorological Agency (JMA)
75 has plans for launching a follow on to the Himawari program that includes a hyperspectral infrared
76 sounder from geostationary orbit in 2029 (Okamoto et al. 2020; Bessho et al. 2021). The United
77 States' response is the proposed Geostationary eXtended Observations (GeoXO) program that may
78 include hyperspectral infrared observations.

79 An important methodology to evaluate the impacts of such a proposed instrument system is the
80 use of a set of observing system simulation experiments (OSSEs) (e.g. Atlas et al. 1985; Arnold
81 and Dey 1986; Errico et al. 2013; Hoffman and Atlas 2016). OSSEs allow testing of a new,
82 hypothetical, or proposed instrument that does not have an existing data set in order to provide
83 an assessment of the impact of the new instrument and an estimate of the associated uncertainty.

84 This is a cost-effective approach to testing proposed observing systems prior to deployment and to
85 optimize the observing strategy and enable rapid assimilation once the real data become available.

86 Several previous studies have employed hybrid OSSE systems to assess the impact of IR observa-
87 tions from geostationary orbit. A hybrid OSSE combines real observations and numerical weather
88 prediction models or reanalyses so there is no need to represent any of the observations except those
89 from the proposed instrument. This eliminates the need for a nature run and allows evaluation of
90 real events. However, since the truth in a hybrid OSSE system is the real atmosphere and thus
91 unknown, the simulated observations for the proposed instrument must be generated from an NWP
92 model with the associated errors and uncertainties. The simulated observations are therefore not
93 observations of the truth in this system. The information content from the proposed instrument
94 may not be consistent with the information that would be obtained in the real world.

95 However, hybrid OSSE systems are a useful and less resource intensive methodology for evaluat-
96 ing proposed instruments than a full OSSE framework that utilizes a nature run. For example, Jones
97 et al. (2017) assimilated temperature and humidity retrievals from an IR sensor on a geostation-
98 ary platform in their experiments representing a severe weather event that produced an Enhanced
99 Fujita-5 tornado. They found a reduction in mid-tropospheric errors relative to an experiment
100 assimilating conventional observations alone and an improved forecast of the helicity. Wang et al.
101 (2021) assimilated geostationary IR radiances and found an improvement in the temperature, mois-
102 ture, and precipitation representations of two severe storm events. Okamoto et al. (2020) simulated
103 radiances from a proposed geostationary IR instrument as part of the Himawari follow-on program
104 and found improvements in the meteorological fields and typhoon track errors. These studies show
105 the benefit of geostationary IR observations and suggest the utility of a nature run based OSSE
106 framework to further examine the impact within a contained system.

107 In this study, we examine the impacts of the proposed GeoXO Sounder (GXS), a hyperspectral
108 infrared (IR) sounder, on global data assimilation and NWP using a global OSSE. The global OSSE
109 framework has been developed at the NASA Global Modeling and Assimilation Office (GMAO),
110 and has been extensively validated to ensure realistic performance (Errico et al. 2013; Privé et al.
111 2021). This framework has been used previously to perform OSSEs for supplemental rawinsondes
112 (Privé et al. 2014), atmospheric motion vectors and infrared radiances (McCarty et al. 2021), and
113 radio occultations (Privé et al. 2022).

114 This article is organized as follows. Section 2 provides a description of the GeoXO program.
115 Section 3 describes the OSSE and the data assimilation system used. Section 4 discusses the
116 geostationary hyperspectral IR observation generation. Section 5 contains the experiment design,
117 followed by the results in Section 6. A summary and conclusions are given in Section 7.

118 **2. GeoXO Description**

119 The Geostationary Operational Environmental Satellites - R (GOES-R) Series of satellites cur-
120 rently provide advanced imaging, lightning mapping, space weather monitoring, and solar imaging.
121 The GOES-R Series is a four-satellite program that will operate through the mid-2030s. Currently,
122 the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) and NASA are developing GeoXO
123 to provide continuity in meeting national environmental sensing requirements for continuous ob-
124 servation of weather and the Earth's environment. GeoXO will improve current observations
125 provided by the GOES-R Series: visible and infrared imagery will have spatial resolution and
126 spectral enhancements, and lightning mapping will have spatial resolution improvements. GeoXO
127 may also include additional capabilities: infrared sounding, night imaging, ocean color imagery,
128 and atmospheric composition measurements.

129 The GXS, like all hyperspectral infrared sounders, would measure radiation emitted from the
130 atmosphere in thousands of spectral channels. These observations would provide a sounding of the
131 atmosphere with the high vertical resolution necessary for weather forecasting (Schmit et al. 2009)
132 with a temporal resolution high enough to overcome many of the limitations of IR sounders on
133 LEO platforms (Jones et al. 2017; Li et al. 2018; Wang et al. 2021). These channels are sensitive to
134 temperature, water vapor, and trace gases, informing many aspects of atmospheric processes. Such
135 data have been critical to improving the forecasts from modern NWP systems. From the global
136 observation perspective, inclusion of GXS in the GeoXO constellation will further enable meeting
137 The World Meteorological Organization's (WMO) vision of at least five hyperspectral infrared
138 instruments in geostationary orbit by 2040 to form a global "ring" of observations (WMO 2020).

139 There are many advantages of placing the capability of hyperspectral sounders on a geostationary
140 platform. The high temporal resolution, on the order of 30 minutes, allows more chances to view
141 between clouds while the spatial persistence and horizontal resolution of about 4 km allows the
142 ability to observe weather system development and associated processes, including severe weather.

143 The lower data latency also allows more rapid assimilation into NWP systems, providing an
144 opportunity to improve atmospheric forecasts (Noh et al. 2020).

145 **3. OSSE Configuration**

146 The OSSE system used by NASA/GMAO has three main components, namely 1) a Nature Run
147 (NR), 2) global observations simulated from the NR that statistically resemble real observations,
148 and 3) a data assimilation system (DAS) to conduct experiments. This system has been extensively
149 tested and verified to ensure robust performance (e.g. Errico et al. 2013; Errico and Privé 2018)
150 and provides a global perspective of the impact of proposed instruments. Importantly, the response
151 of the OSSE system to the assimilation of existing hyperspectral IR instruments well mimics that
152 of the semi-operational system used by the GMAO.

153 G5NR, the NR used by the GMAO, is a well-validated, 2-year free-running integration of the
154 Goddard Earth Observing System (GEOS) (Rienecker et al. 2008) described by Gelaro et al. (2015).
155 With a horizontal resolution of approximately 7 km and 72 vertical levels from the surface to 0.01
156 hPa, the simulation starts 1 May 2005 with output every 30 minutes. The free-running model does
157 not represent the actual weather for that time period, but is statistically consistent with the physical
158 atmosphere. For an OSSE framework, the NR is considered the "truth" from which observations
159 are simulated and against which the analyses and forecasts may be verified. This means that the
160 "truth" is completely known and errors can be calculated explicitly.

161 The Nature Run is sampled at the spatiotemporal locations of actual observations, from June to
162 September 2015 in order to generate the simulated observations (Errico et al. 2017). This is in
163 order to mimic the observing system available in 2015. The observations assimilated in the control
164 are listed in Table 1. Each observation type is generated from the NR differently, according to the
165 methods described in Errico et al. (2017). Radiance data types are affected by the cloud fields of
166 the NR for quality control purposes so that the distribution of observations reflects the atmospheric
167 state of the NR. The geostationary infrared radiance observations that are the focus of this study
168 are described in Section 4.

169 Realistic errors are added to the synthetic observations following Errico et al. (2017). Both
170 correlated and uncorrelated random errors are added in order to better approximate real errors
171 that originate from instrument errors, representativeness errors, and errors in the way the data

TABLE 1. List of observations assimilated in the control.

Instrument Type	Instrument
Conventional	Radiosonde, Surface, and Aircraft
Ground Retrieved	NEXRAD Winds and Wind Profilers
Satellite Retrieved	Geostationary AMV SEVIRI (<i>Meteosat-10; Meteosat-8</i>) AHI (<i>Himawari-8</i>) GOES Imager (<i>GOES-13; GOES-15</i>) Polar AMV MODIS (<i>EOS Terra; EOS Aqua</i>) Scatterometer ASCAT (<i>MetOp-A</i>) Radio Occultation Bending Angle COSMIC GRAS (<i>MetOp-A; MetOp-B</i>)
Satellite Radiance	Infrared IASI (<i>MetOp-A; MetOp-B</i>) CrIS (<i>SNPP</i>) AIRS (<i>EOS Aqua</i>) HIRS (<i>MetOp-A</i>) Microwave Temperature AMSU-A (<i>NOAA-15; NOAA-18; NOAA-19; MetOp-A; MetOp-B; EOS Aqua</i>) ATMS (<i>SNPP</i>) SSMIS (<i>F17</i>) Microwave Humidity MHS (<i>NOAA-18; MetOp-A; MetOp-B</i>) ATMS (<i>SNPP</i>)

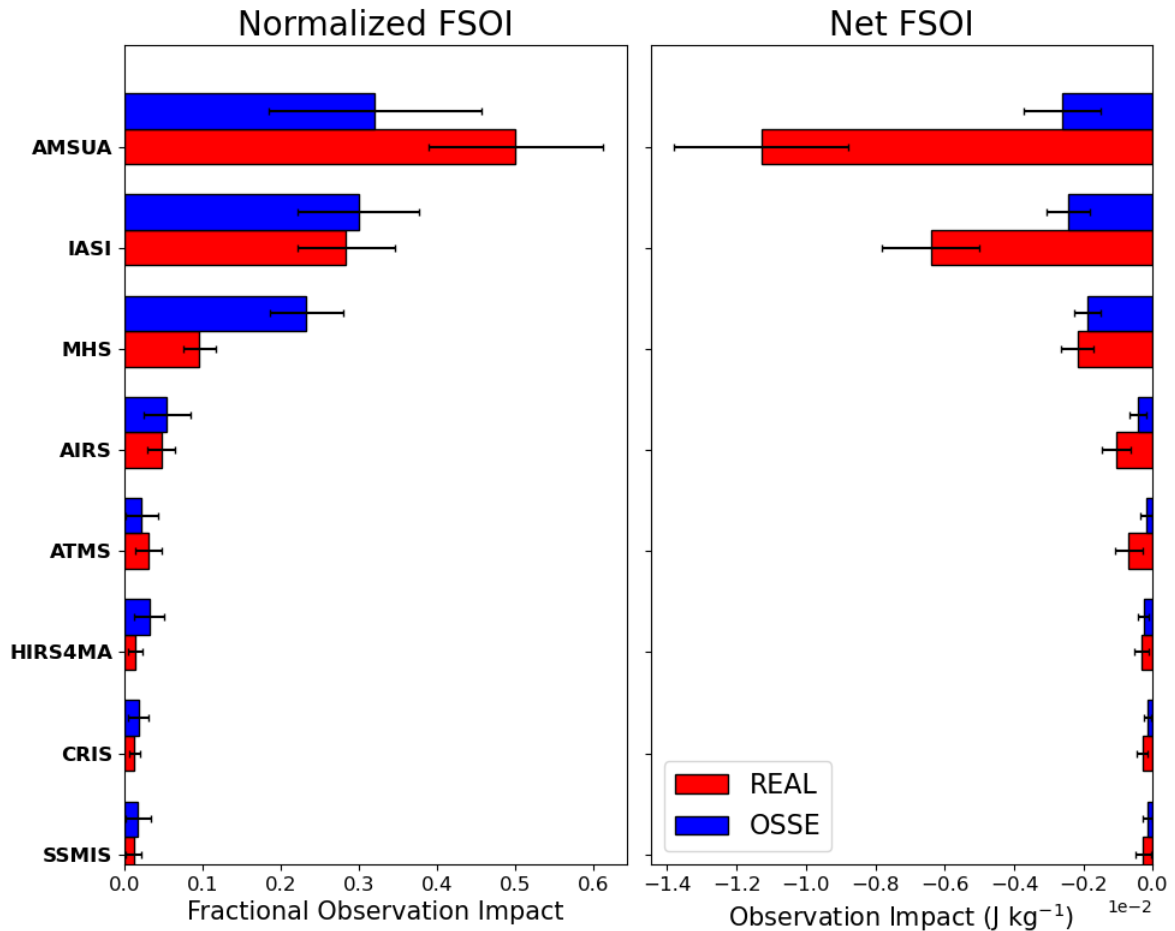
172 assimilation process handles observations since simulated observations tend to have less intrinsic
 173 error than in reality. This addition of errors differs based on the instrument and is done so that
 174 the magnitude and correlation length scale are adjusted to match the statistical metrics of real
 175 observations.

176 The DAS used for the experiments combines a more modern version of the GEOS (Molod
 177 et al. 2015) than was used to compute the G5NR with the Gridpoint Statistical Interpolation (GSI)
 178 described by Wu et al. (2002) and Kleist et al. (2009). The model was run on a cubed sphere
 179 dynamical core (Lin 2004; Putman and Lin 2007) with 72 vertical levels that transition from
 180 terrain following near the surface to pure pressure levels aloft. The ensembles used for calculation
 181 of background error for the hybrid 4D_{En}Var are taken from the baseline run described by Privé

182 et al. (2022) to reduce computational expense. Satellite radiances were assimilated using the
183 Community Radiative Transfer Model (CRTM) (Han et al. 2006; Chen et al. 2008).

184 Several choices were made to maximize differences between the NR and the version of GEOS used
185 in the experiments in order to optimize the realism of the observation impacts seen in the OSSE.
186 Principally, the microphysical convection scheme was changed from the default single moment
187 (Bacmeister et al. 2006) used in the NR to the more sophisticated two-moment scheme described
188 by Barahona et al. (2014). This change is most impactful in frequently convective regions in the
189 tropics and the midlatitudes of the summer hemisphere. Additional changes included an adjustment
190 to a relative humidity threshold and a different version of the boundary layer parameterization,
191 which will impact estimates of the inversion height. Combined, these changes introduced a model
192 error between the NR and the DAS model meant to mimic model errors when assimilating real
193 observations, reducing some of the suboptimality of using an identical model for the NR and the
194 experiments (Privé and Errico 2013).

195 The impact of GXS observations is particularly of interest over the contiguous United States
196 (CONUS) and therefore a validation of the OSSE system in this region was performed. The
197 observation impact between the OSSE system and a system assimilating real observations was
198 evaluated using the forecast sensitivity observation impact (FSOI) metric (Langland and Baker
199 2004; Zhu and Gelaro 2008; Gelaro and Zhu 2009) for once-daily forecasts during July. Moist
200 energy error norms for the 24-hour forecasts were computed for the CONUS region (defined here
201 as between 20°N and 52°N latitude and between 130°W and 60°W longitude) and are shown in
202 Figure 1. For the net FSOI, a negative value indicates a reduction in the 24-hour forecast error due
203 to the observation. The error reduction in the real case is larger than in the simulated environment
204 of the OSSE on the right side of Figure. 1, most likely due to insufficient model error in the OSSE
205 (Privé and Errico 2019). Over the CONUS, it is notable that the impacts of hyperspectral infrared
206 instruments (AIRS, IASI, and CrIS) in the OSSE system well represent the impacts observed in the
207 real system used semi-operationally by the GMAO. In the FSOI metric for both the real and OSSE
208 simulations shown in Figure 1, the AMSU-A observations have the greatest impact, consistent with
209 previous studies (Zapotocny et al. 2008), however, over the relatively small CONUS region, the
210 AMSU-A impact in the OSSE system is weaker than in the real system. The differences between the
211 Real and OSSE impacts should be borne in mind when interpreting the results of the experiments.



212 FIG. 1. (left) Observation impact as a function of satellite radiance instrument, normalized by the sum of all
 213 instruments, from adjoint calculations using moist energy error norm for the real (red bars) and OSSE (blue bars)
 214 simulations, computed over the CONUS region. (right) The same, but showing the net impact, J kg^{-1} .

215 4. Hyperspectral IR Observations from GEO

216 Hourly observations for four hypothetical Geostationary Infrared Sounders (GEOIRS) were
 217 generated for this study. Of these, one is the proposed GXS that is part of the GeoXO program,
 218 with a satellite subpoint of 105°W . However, all four satellites are identical with the satellite
 219 subpoint being the only difference among them: the simulated channels are the same for all
 220 the GEOIRS instruments. The channels were selected based on specifications for the proposed
 221 Infrared Sounder (IRS) hyperspectral instrument onboard the Meteosat Third Generation (MTG)
 222 satellite. The GEOIRS observations were estimated using a range expanded beyond IRS to
 223 accommodate potential changes to the proposed instrument with 2960 channels and a spectral

224 wavenumber resolution of 0.625 cm^{-1} , operating from 650 cm^{-1} to 2500 cm^{-1} . Currently, the
225 proposed channels for GXS range from 680 cm^{-1} to 2250 cm^{-1} . The synthetic observations for
226 this study were generated using the GMAO OSSE for Weather Analysis Software Package version
227 3.x (GOWASP, Errico et al. 2017).

228 GOWASP requires the location and time of the observations as input in order to sample required
229 geophysical variables such as temperature, water vapor, ozone, clouds, and pressure from the G5NR.
230 The GEOIRS observation locations were generated based on the GOES-R coverage, relocated to the
231 satellite subpoints associated with the four GEOIRS instruments at 140°E , 105°E , 0° , and 105°W
232 and discussed further in Section 5. After reading the location and time of the observations, the
233 required surface and atmospheric profiles are then interpolated from the G5NR to the corresponding
234 time and location of the desired synthetic observations. These profiles are input into the CRTM
235 version 2.2.3 to simulate the synthetic observations. Although a different radiative transfer model
236 would ideally be used to generate the observations from what is used to assimilate them to allow
237 the inclusion of observation operator errors, this study focuses more on the information content of
238 the GEOIRS observations and a future study will further examine the effect of observation errors,
239 including those from the operator.

240 GOWASP accounts for the cloud contamination using probabilistic methods (Errico et al. 2017)
241 to create realistic spatiotemporal distributions of observations that reflect the NR cloud fields. The
242 process ensures that cloud contaminated channels are rejected by the quality control process and
243 not assimilated in the DAS. In order to reduce the computational demand, the high resolution
244 IR radiances are partially thinned before being simulated by GOWASP, with cloud contaminated
245 observations being preferentially discarded as described in Section 3.1.2 of Errico et al. (2017).
246 This thinning technique is similar to that of the DAS, but is less severe.

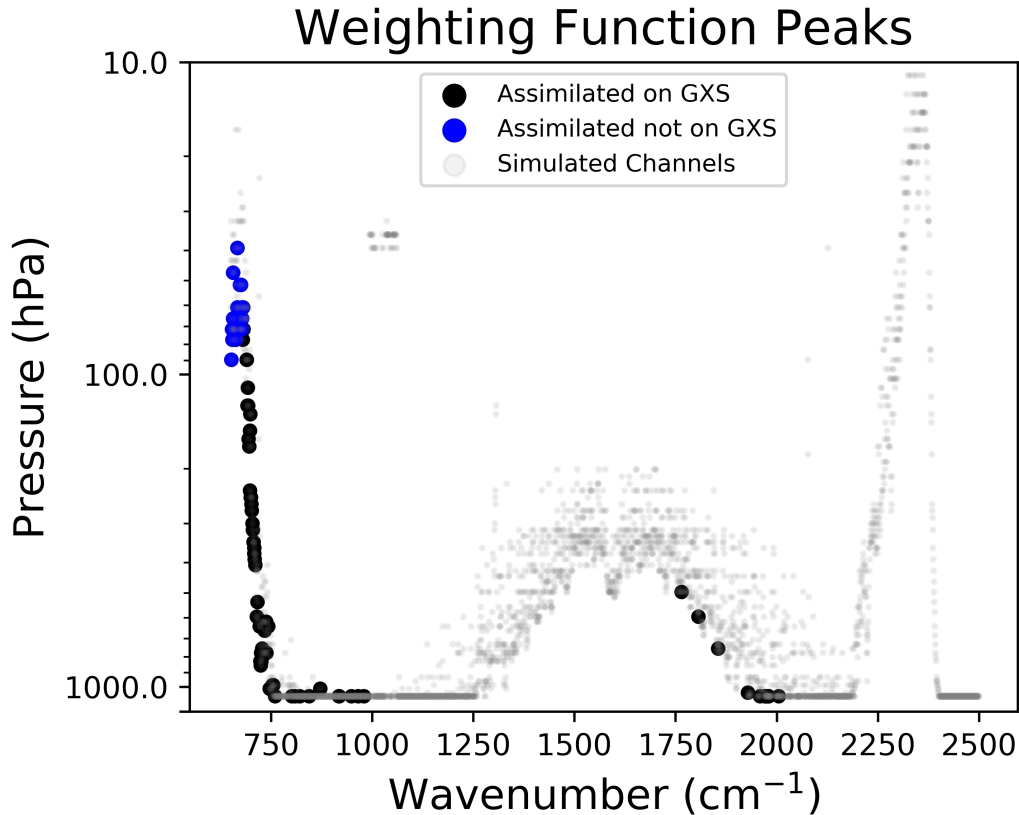
247 In order to reduce redundancy and correlations in spectral space that are not accounted for in
248 the data assimilation system, as well as to avoid sensitivities to unrepresented constituents, only a
249 subset of the channels are assimilated. In total, eighty-five channels were selected for assimilation
250 across the total observed range. Seventy temperature sounding channels were used, ranging from
251 650 cm^{-1} to 980 cm^{-1} and fifteen water vapor channels were used, ranging from 1765 cm^{-1} to
252 2005 cm^{-1} . Only those channels that are assimilated by the DAS are simulated with GOWASP.

253 The lower cutoff for the proposed spectral range of GXS is currently 680 cm^{-1} , resulting in 20%
254 of the channels selected for assimilation being outside the range of GXS.

255 A Principal Component Analysis conducted on an ensemble of simulated observations revealed
256 approximately 140 pieces of information in spectral space. For the longwave infrared temperature
257 sounding channels along with the $11\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ window channels, the channel selection from AIRS in the
258 DAS was leveraged selecting the nearest channel available on the GEOIRS for the assimilation.
259 Typically, the longwave side of the $6\text{-}7\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ water vapor absorption feature is used in the DAS,
260 however, owing to more pieces of information present in the shortwave side, fifteen channels were
261 selected minimizing inter-channel correlation. Additionally, the $9.6\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ ozone absorption band
262 was avoided, along with other trace constituents which are poorly represented in the DAS. The
263 $4\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ CO_2 absorption band was also avoided due to uncertainties in its simulation.

264 The channel selection balanced the minimization of inter-channel correlation while preserving
265 high vertical profiling resolution of the atmosphere. The vertical sampling is shown in Figure 2,
266 where bold points represent selected channels at each channel's weighting function peak (derivative
267 of transmission with respect to altitude) assuming a US Standard Atmosphere. This is consistent
268 with the procedure used for most hyperspectral infrared instruments (McNally et al. 2006; McCarty
269 et al. 2009; Reale et al. 2018; McCarty et al. 2021). Some channels, indicated by blue points on
270 Figure 2, were assimilated in this study, but are outside of the proposed spectral range of the
271 GXS instrument. The assimilated channels were chosen based on the selection of AIRS channels
272 assimilated in the GMAO system and those outside of the spectral range of GXS primarily sample
273 the stratosphere with weighting function peaks at pressures aloft of 100 hPa. Section 6 therefore
274 excludes stratospheric results at these levels though this does not entirely eliminate the effects of
275 these channels as the tail of these weighting functions extend downward to 300 hPa.

279 The GEOIRS observations do not have errors explicitly added for several reasons including that
280 the error magnitude is unknown since the instrumentation is still in development and uncertainty
281 exists in its estimation. However, some implicit error can be assumed. Two implicit errors are
282 representativeness error due to different resolutions between the high-resolution G5NR and the
283 comparatively lower resolution DAS, and error from high cloud contamination. More general
284 information about the observation generation and the associated errors may be found in Errico
285 et al. (2017).



276 FIG. 2. Weighting function peaks for each channel in GEOIRS instruments. Large bold points represent
 277 assimilated channels, while small grey points represent unused instrument channels. The blue points are
 278 assimilated channels that will not be included in the proposed GXS instrument.

286 5. Experiment Design

287 A control run is made to act as the baseline for comparison with the experiment run. The list
 288 of observations assimilated in the control simulation is available in Table 1. A permutation of the
 289 control, the 4-Sat experiment, assimilated all of these observations plus radiances from four geosta-
 290 tionary hyperspectral infrared instruments generated as specified in Section 4. Both experiments
 291 simulated the period 1 July through 31 August 2006, with a spin-up period beginning June 26th.
 292 The analysis was generated at $0.25^\circ \times 0.3125^\circ$ horizontal resolution using a 6 hour assimilation
 293 window and a hybrid 4-dimensional ensemble variational (hybrid 4DEnVar) assimilation scheme
 294 (Todling and El Akkraoui 2018). Seven-day forecasts were initialized at 0000 UTC from 1 July
 295 to 31 August 2006 and run at the same resolution as the analysis. The radiance bias coefficients

296 were spun up for a multi-week period during the calibration process. The calibration is an iterative
297 process, separate from the spin up, that adjusts the OSSE system to mimic the real system and
298 adjusts the simulated errors and cloud probability functions of the existing observation types to
299 match those in the real world.

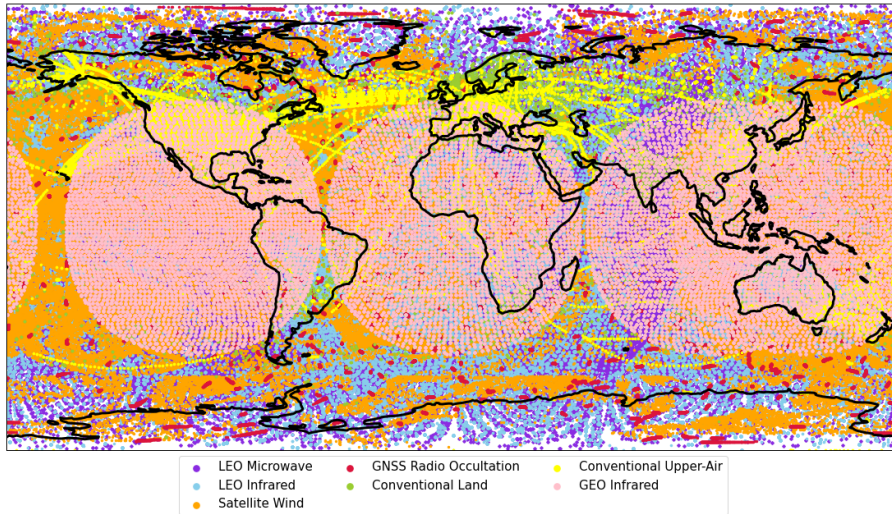
300 For the 4-Sat experiment, the four geostationary infrared sounders assimilated are identical in
301 terms of radiance channels, with the only variable being the satellite subpoint used. These were
302 selected as 140°E, 105°E, 0°, and 105°W, corresponding to the satellite subpoints of Himawari, FY-
303 4A, MTG, and the proposed NOAA/NASA GXS respectively. An example of the satellite coverage
304 is provided in Figure 3 with the selected channels for these instruments illustrated in Figure 2. The
305 GEOIRS observations were assimilated hourly using a thinning of 180 km, consistent with the
306 other IR sensors from polar-orbiting satellites. Cloud detection was performed by the GSI as done
307 in Eyre and Menzel (1989). Variational bias correction is applied to the GEOIRS radiances and
308 observation errors used in the assimilation procedure and is done in a method that is consistent
309 with other infrared satellite radiances.

315 **6. Results**

316 The addition of a new instrument may affect the performance of an experiment in multiple ways.
317 Results from the assimilation of geostationary hyperspectral infrared instruments are therefore
318 presented in three separate categories. The first is the performance of the data assimilation
319 procedure and the resulting analysis. Second, the impact of GEOIRS assimilation on the NWP
320 forecasts is described. The third category examined here is an assessment of the observation impact
321 in the context of the FSOI metric (Langland and Baker 2004; Zhu and Gelaro 2008; Gelaro and
322 Zhu 2009). In an effort to show results from the GEOIRS instruments only within the proposed
323 spectral range of the GXS, only pressures greater than 100 hPa are shown. The FSOI results were
324 computed without the inclusion of the channels outside the GXS range.

325 *a. Analysis results*

326 Unlike in the real atmosphere, the "truth" is known in an OSSE and takes the form of the nature
327 run. Therefore, aside from differences in resolution, the analysis error can be computed directly
328 and perfectly.

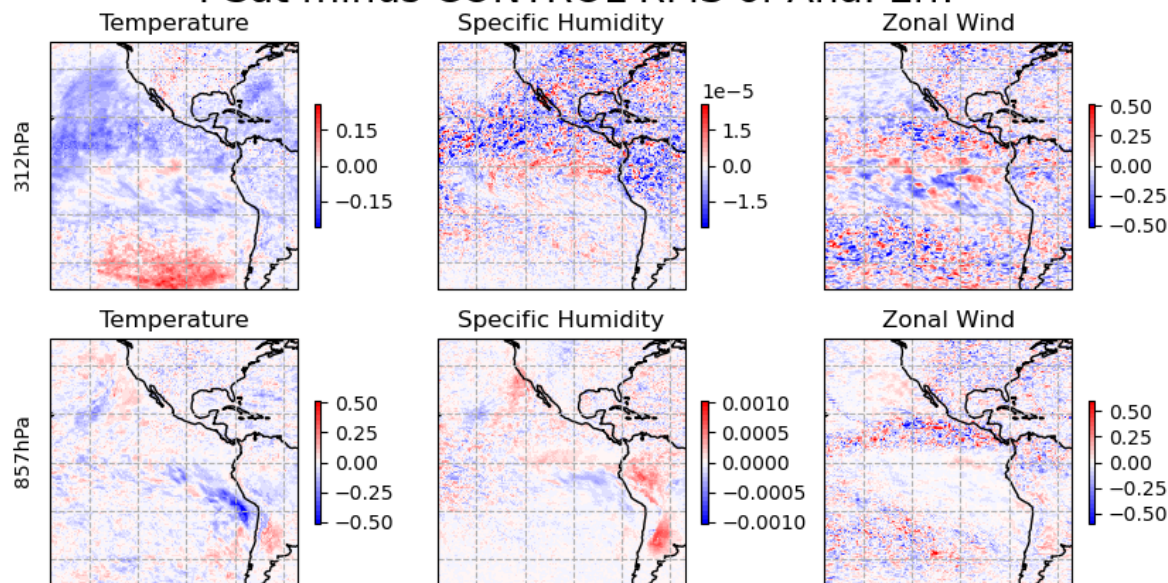


310 FIG. 3. All observations assimilated in the OSSE for a six hour period centered upon OSSE time 0000 UTC on
 311 1 Aug 2006. The observations are classified into low earth orbit (LEO) Microwave (purple), LEO Infrared (light
 312 blue), Satellite-derived winds (orange), Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS) Radio Occultation (red),
 313 Conventional Land (green), Conventional Upper-Air (yellow), and geostationary earth orbit (GEO) Infrared
 314 (pink).

329 A map of the root mean square analysis error differences is shown in Figure 4 at two different
 330 levels for temperature, specific humidity, and zonal wind. Temperature is directly impacted by the
 331 assimilation of hyperspectral IR radiances and this field shows a distinct impact of GXS assimilation
 332 at 312 hPa with an oceanic signal that is largely an improvement north of approximately 30°S.
 333 At the lower level, the strongest signal is mostly over the Pacific Ocean, off the west coast of
 334 South America, showing an improvement in the 4-Sat experiment. For specific humidity, the more
 335 organized signal is at 857 hPa with a degradation in the 4-Sat experiment over South America,
 336 potentially related to the difficulty in assimilating infrared radiances over land regions with high
 337 heterogeneity, and in the cloud deck region off the west coast of North America though there is
 338 an improvement off the coast of South America. The zonal wind response at these levels is more
 339 mixed.

344 The zonally averaged root mean square error of the analysis temperature for the control and
 345 the difference between the 4-Sat experiment and the control, normalized by the control, is shown

4 Sat minus CONTROL RMS of Ana. Err.

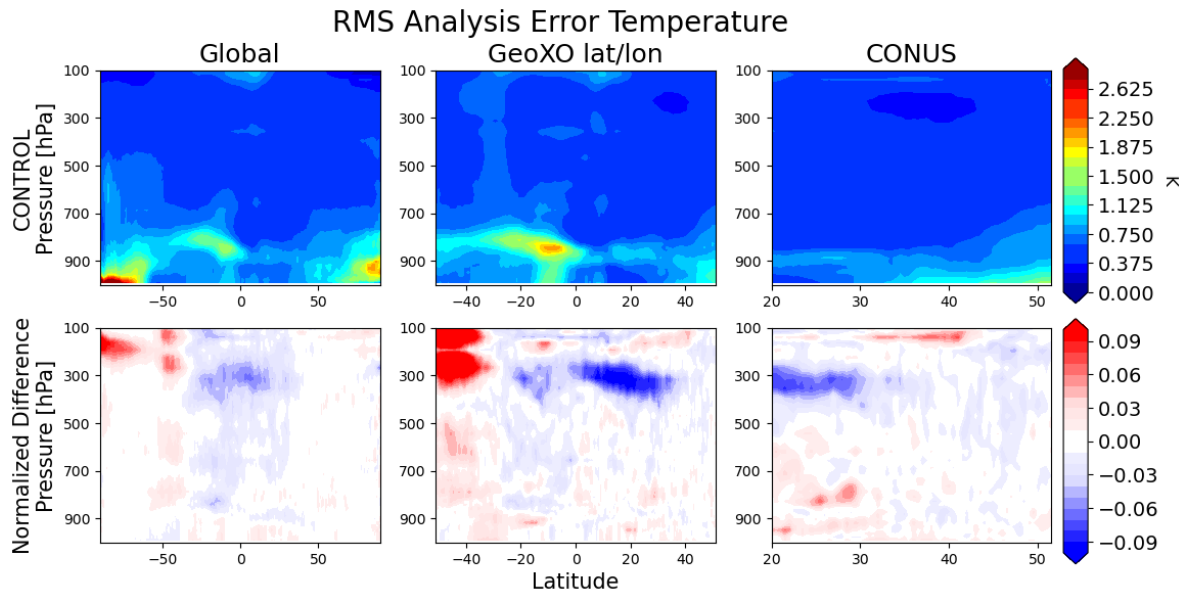


340 FIG. 4. Difference of root mean square error for the 4-Sat minus the control analyses for (left) temperature (K),
 341 (middle) specific humidity (kg kg^{-1}), and (right) zonal wind (m s^{-1}) at (top) 312 hPa and (bottom) 857 hPa. The
 342 domain is restricted by the region observed by the GXS instrument (approximately 156°W to 54°W longitude
 343 and equatorward of 51°).

346 in Figure 5. The leftmost plots are for the Global region, the middle plots show the error for
 347 the latitudes and longitudes spanned by the GXS observations (approximately 156°W to 54°W
 348 longitude and equatorward of 51°), and the rightmost plots show the error for the CONUS, defined
 349 here as between 20°N and 52°N latitude and between 130°W and 60°W longitude.

350 From the control, it is obvious that much of the error is present in the lower troposphere, below
 351 approximately 800 hPa. The arc of enhanced error from the equator, extending southward toward
 352 Antarctica is associated with the low cloud deck over the cold ocean close to the western coast of
 353 South America and is further emphasized when examining the smaller region defined by the GXS.

354 Examining the impact of assimilating the geostationary hyperspectral infrared instruments in the
 355 4-Sat experiment in the lower panels of Figure 5, a modest temperature improvement is present
 356 in the tropics with a maximum tropical improvement on the order of 8% at 300 hPa. As seen in
 357 Figure 4, the degradations south of approximately 30°S are off the west coast of South America. It



367 FIG. 5. (top) Zonal root mean square error for temperature (K) in the control vs. the nature run for the
 368 the (left)global, (middle) GXS defined latitudes and longitudes, and (right) CONUS regions. (bottom) The
 369 normalized fraction change in RMSE relative to the control in the 4-Sat experiment. Blue or red indicates an
 370 improvement or degradation, respectively, by the addition of the geostationary IR radiances.

358 is expected that the largest temperature improvement occurs in the tropical region because that is
 359 the broadest area observed by the geostationary satellite infrared radiances.

360 Focusing on the smaller region determined by the latitudes and longitudes observed by the
 361 GXS instrument in the center panels of Figure 5, the temperature error in the control is generally
 362 larger than it is globally. This is due to the stronger influence of small, variable regions, such as
 363 off the South American coast, that contribute to uncertainty in the simulations. In this smaller
 364 region, the inclusion of hyperspectral infrared radiances from geostationary orbit leads to an upper
 365 tropospheric temperature improvement from roughly 30°S to 40°N. A degradation is present south
 366 of 30°S that is also enhanced in the smaller domain.

371 The region surrounding the contiguous United States is of prime importance to the GeoXO
 372 program as one of its' aims is to improve weather prediction in this region. CONUS is heavily
 373 observed, resulting in generally low error in the control simulation. However, the predominance
 374 of land within the CONUS domain leads to a near surface error. The effect on the analyzed
 375 temperature is largely neutral north of about 30°N, consistent with the impact globally, but there is

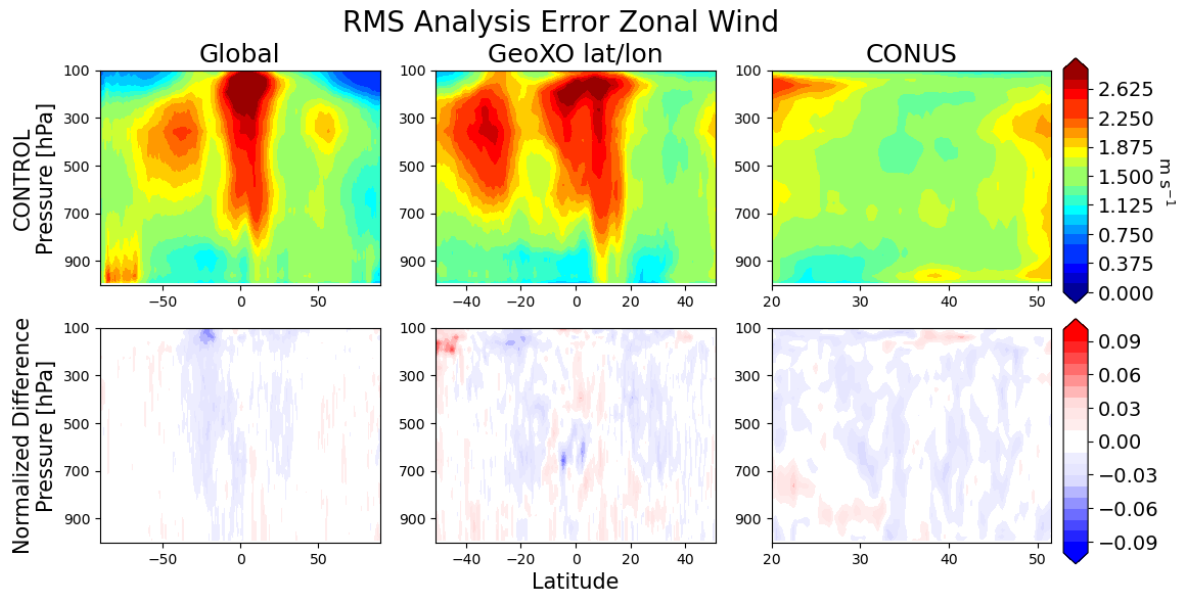


FIG. 6. Same as Figure 5, but for zonal wind (m s^{-1}).

376 a noticeable improvement in the upper troposphere south of this latitude. The slight degradation
 377 in the lower tropospheric temperature is spatially located over the ocean off the west coast of
 378 North America, potentially related to the difficulties in properly representing the stratocumulus
 379 clouds in this region that are affected by differences in the DAS microphysics and boundary layer
 380 parameterizations.

381 A major advantage of a hyperspectral infrared instrument on a geostationary platform is the
 382 ability of the instrument to observe phenomena as they evolve with high temporal resolution. This
 383 low latency translates to data on the winds, thereby providing new information content to the data
 384 assimilation system. Although the wind is not directly observed by the GXS, wind increments may
 385 be inferred through covariances between the wind and variables that are directly observed by GXS
 386 in the data assimilation system.

387 Figure 6 shows the zonally averaged root mean square analysis error for zonal wind. Errors in
 388 the control are consistent with locations of the midlatitude and tropical easterly jets. The inclusion
 389 of the new information content from the infrared radiance assimilation results in a widespread
 390 improvement in the estimate of the analyzed zonal wind equatorward of the midlatitude jets and in
 391 the descending branch of the Hadley Circulation.

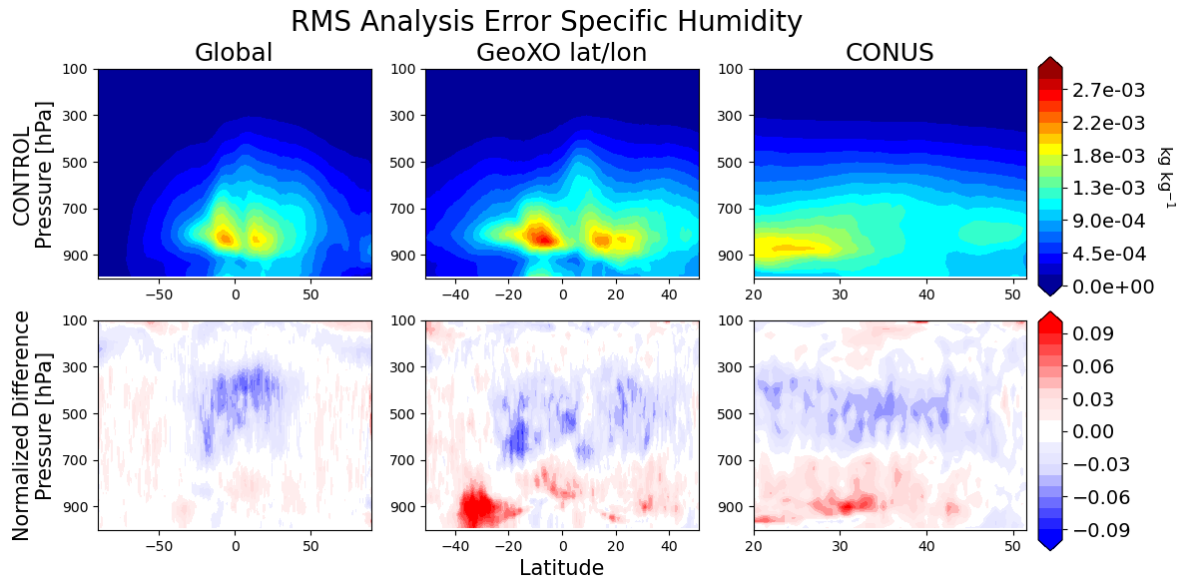


FIG. 7. Same as Figure 5, but for specific humidity (kg kg^{-1}).

392 Focusing on the latitudes and longitudes defined by the GXS, the result is more mixed, but the
 393 improvement in zonal wind generally remains. Over the smaller CONUS region, the zonal wind
 394 improvement is widespread throughout the column as a testament to the benefits of high temporal
 395 resolution observations over this region.

396 Improving temperature and wind estimates can contribute to an improvement in tracer transport
 397 and therefore in atmospheric concentrations of these variables. The improved tracer concentrations
 398 can, in turn, provide positive feedback by contributing valuable wind information. These impacts
 399 on specific humidity are examined in Figure 7. The largest errors in specific humidity in the control
 400 exist in areas where water vapor content is high, namely within the tropical column and in regions
 401 of high cloud content.

402 In these experiments, fifteen water vapor channels from the GEOIRS observations are assimilated
 403 that are sensitive to both temperature and water vapor. Globally, the impact of assimilating
 404 hyperspectral IR is an improved representation of specific humidity in the analysis, particularly
 405 in the free troposphere and in the tropics. This partially results from an improved representation
 406 of the wind and temperature fields due to the added information content from the high resolution
 407 observations from geostationary orbit.

408 In the region observed by the GXS instrument, the free tropospheric specific humidity is improved
 409 on the order of 5%. The near surface degradation at approximately 30°S results from enhanced

410 error over South America with the weak degradations further north resulting from errors off the
411 west coast of the Americas, perhaps related to inconsistencies in estimates of cloud properties
412 between the DAS and the G5NR due to the different parameterization choices made to increase
413 model error realism. This result persists over CONUS with an improved analysis of specific
414 humidity in the free troposphere from approximately 650 hPa to 300 hPa and a slight degradation
415 closer to the surface, mostly confined to the eastern Pacific region where there is a strong low-level
416 inversion that is difficult for the DAS to represent due to sharp gradients and the broad length scale
417 of the increments associated with the assimilated observations. This issue is not particular to the
418 GEOIRS observations.

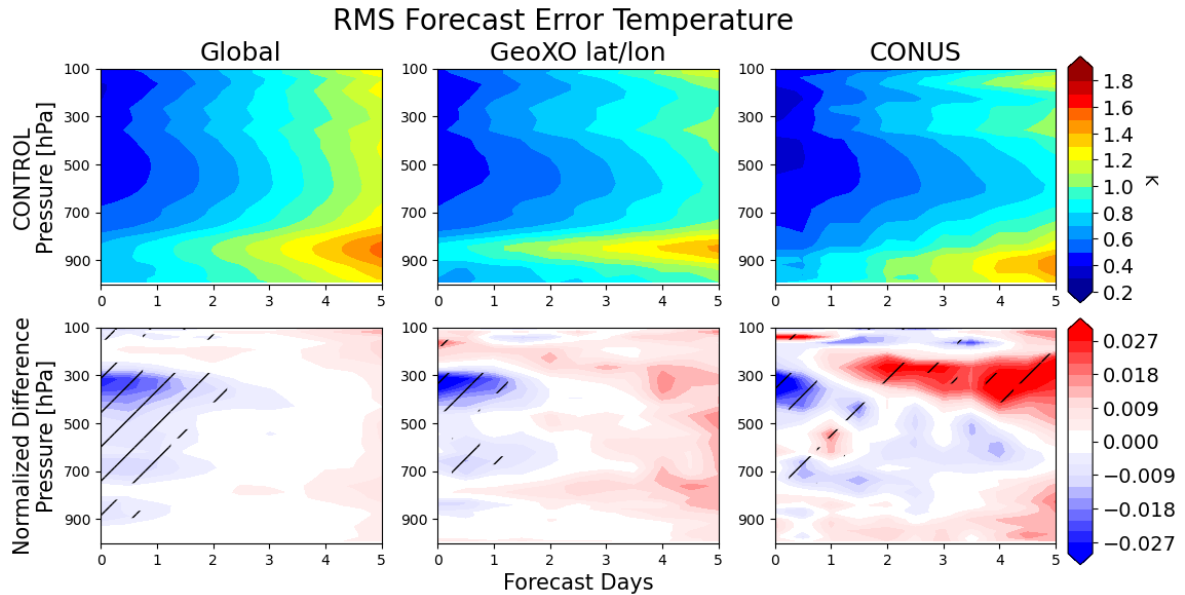
419 These analysis results directly impact the predictive skill of the subsequent forecasts as they are
420 used for initialization. An improved analysis provides improved initial conditions for the forecasts,
421 a necessary condition for the production of better weather forecasts.

422 *b. Forecast results*

423 Anomaly correlation of 500 hPa geopotential height was examined in both the Northern (20°N
424 to 80°N) and Southern (80°S to 20°S) Extratropics (not shown). There were no significant
425 differences between the control and 4-Sat experiments in the Northern Hemisphere. In the Southern
426 Hemisphere, there was a small, significant improvement in the short-range forecast anomaly
427 correlation that degraded with time.

428 Figure 8 shows the change in temperature root mean square error as a function of pressure and
429 forecast time with forecasts validated against the G5NR. The top row shows the time evolution of
430 error in the control simulation and the bottom row shows the normalized difference of the 4-Sat
431 experiment from the control. As expected, as time increases so does the error, consistent with
432 results from real forecasts.

433 In the global domain, temperature improvements occur in the 4-Sat experiment throughout the
434 troposphere out until approximately day 2. Later, the forecast results convert so that the 4-Sat
435 experiment performs worse than the control. Although the degradation is generally not statistically
436 significant, it shows that the positive impact of the improved initial conditions weakens as model
437 error and chaotic error growth begin to dominate the effects of the improved initial conditions.
438 This is consistent with other work (e.g. Privé and Errico 2013; Cucurull and Casey 2021; Privé



433 FIG. 8. (top) Root mean square temperature error as a function of pressure and forecast time for the (left),
 434 (middle) GXS defined latitudes and longitudes, and (right) CONUS regions in K. (bottom) Normalized fraction
 435 change in RMSE relative to the control in the 4-Sat experiment. Blue or red indicates an improvement or
 436 degradation, respectively, by the addition of the geostationary IR radiances. Hatch marks indicates significance
 437 at the 90% level.

444 et al. 2022) that generally finds the largest impacts occur during the early forecast period, especially
 445 over the tropics and summer hemisphere.

446 In the smaller domain defined by the GXS observed latitudes and longitudes, the tropospheric
 447 temperature improvement is again confined to the mid-troposphere, but is more intense at approxi-
 448 mately 300 hPa with the time of significant improvement reduced to approximately 1.5 days. Over
 449 CONUS, the small domain results in statistics that are mixed with an improved temperature forecast
 450 between 400 hPa and 300 hPa for about a day. After that time frame, the response is more negative
 451 as the forecast model error increases with time.

452 Figure 9 shows the forecast results for the zonal wind. As with the temperature, the control
 453 forecast error grows with time for each domain as the simulation progresses, with greatest error
 454 growth in the upper troposphere. Globally, the added temporal information from the geostationary
 455 platform produces an improvement throughout the troposphere extending to 2 days in the mid-

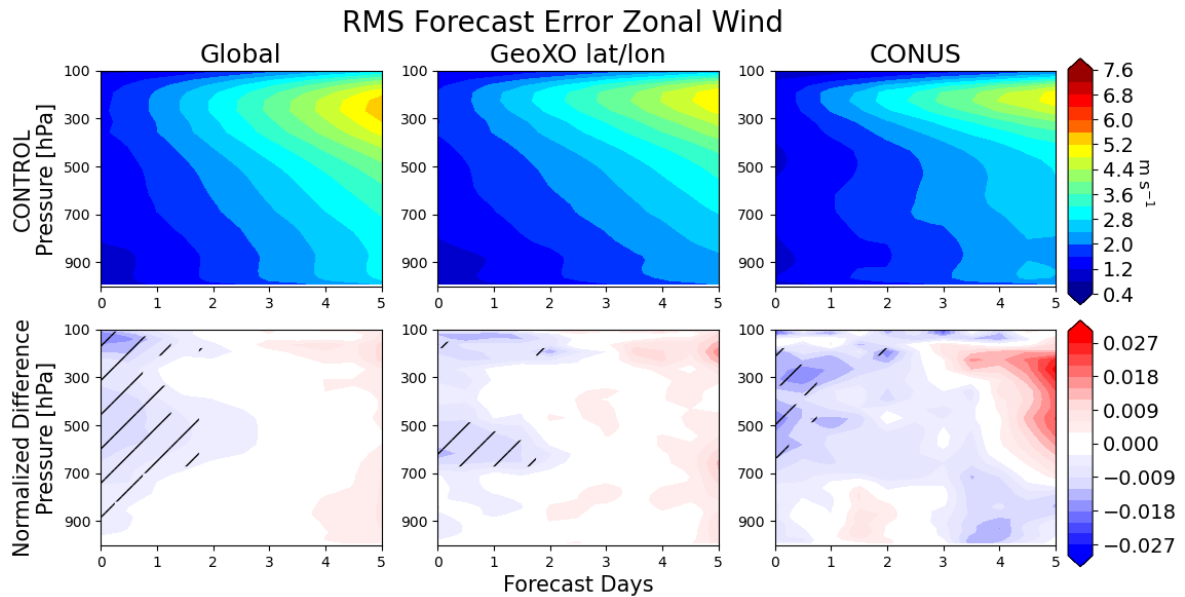


FIG. 9. Same as Figure 8, but for zonal wind in m s^{-1} .

456 troposphere. The improvement shows the consequence of adding this new information and some
 457 of the potential for this proposed instrument.

458 Focusing on the two smaller domains examined here, the improvement is maintained though not
 459 as widespread. For the GXS domain, a significant, but small in magnitude wind improvement is
 460 present in the mid-troposphere at about 600 hPa. Over CONUS, the significant improvement is
 461 present in the upper troposphere, from about 600 hPa to 200 hPa. It is particularly consequential
 462 that such an improvement is present over the CONUS since improvements in this well-observed
 463 region are difficult to achieve.

464 The impact of the improved winds and temperature has repercussions for the water vapor dis-
 465 tribution through improved representation of advection and through cross correlations in the data
 466 assimilation scheme between the improved temperature and water vapor. Figure 10 shows the
 467 control specific humidity forecast error and the improvement produced by the assimilation of
 468 geostationary IR radiances in the 4-Sat experiment. In the control, the forecast error is largest
 469 at approximately 800 hPa and grows with time. This height is consistent with low-level clouds,
 470 particularly those off the west coast of continents that tend to have a lot of uncertainty that is
 471 difficult to capture with a model.

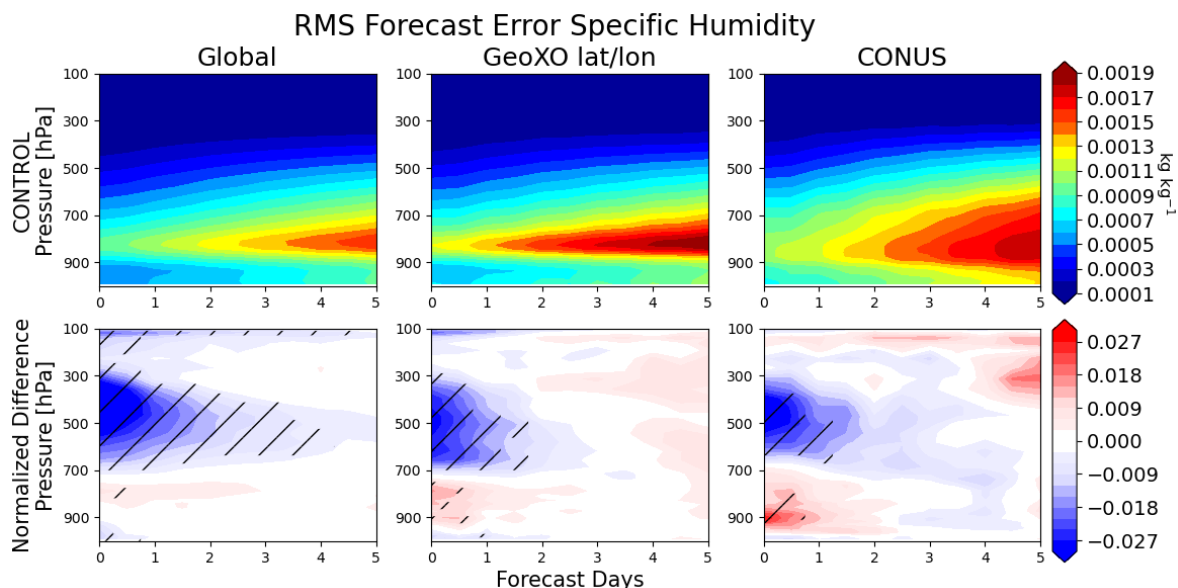


FIG. 10. Same as Figure 8, but for specific humidity in kg kg^{-1} .

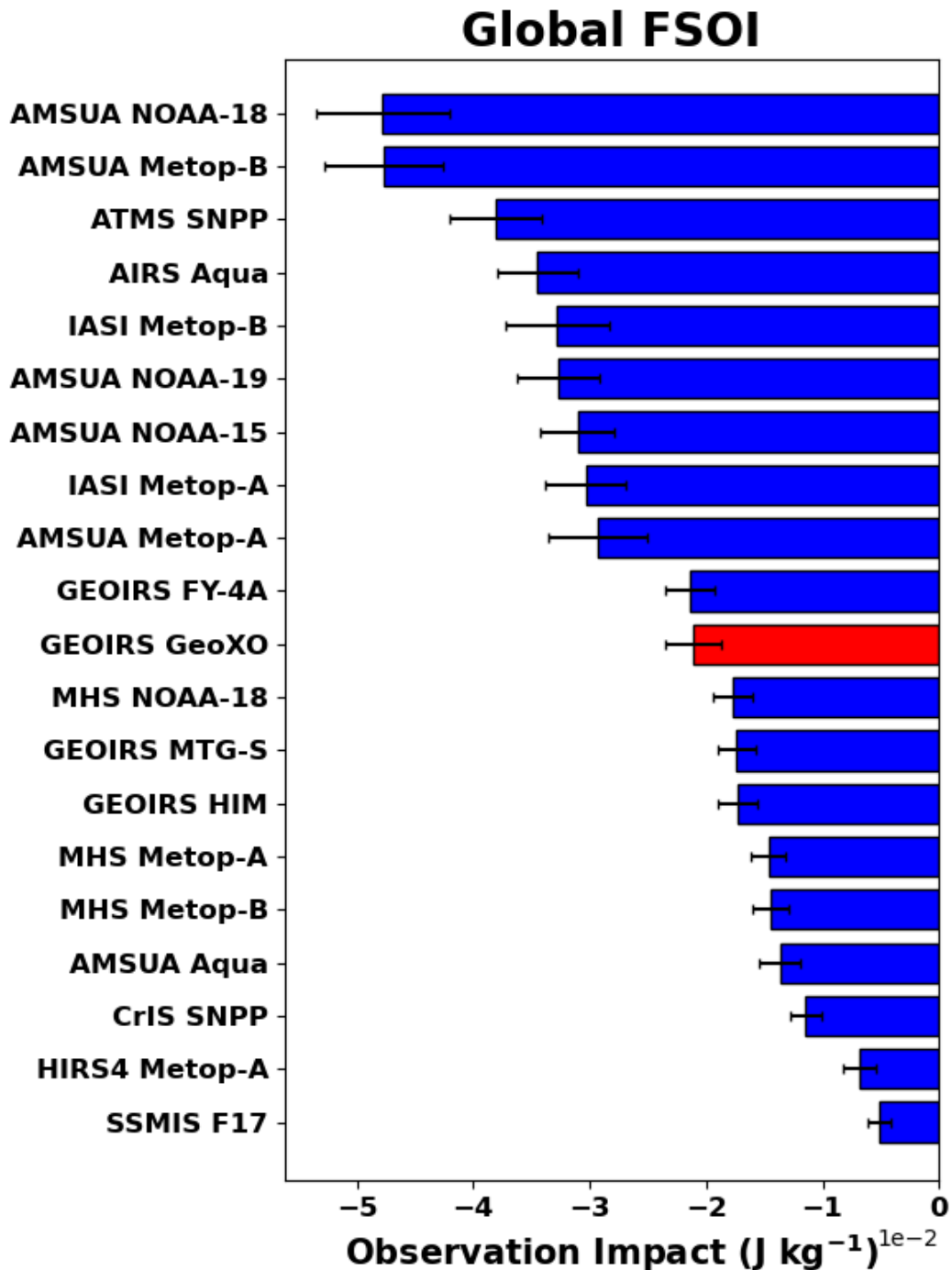
472 There is a significant improvement in the estimate of global tropospheric specific humidity in the
 473 4-Sat experiment from 700 hPa and aloft that extends to 4 days that has implications for entrainment.
 474 A slight degradation occurs around 800 hPa, the level of largest error in the control. On the smaller
 475 domains, the mid-tropospheric specific humidity improvement is still present, though smaller as
 476 the domain size decreases. These improvements extend to 2 day forecasts.

477 *c. FSOI results*

478 It is possible to characterize the impact of hyperspectral IR radiances from geostationary orbit
 479 using the FSOI metric (Langland and Baker 2004; Zhu and Gelaro 2008; Gelaro and Zhu 2009).
 480 This metric quantifies how each observation impacts the 24 hour forecast moist energy error norm
 481 (Ehrendorfer et al. 1999; Holdaway et al. 2014). This should not be considered a strict ranking of
 482 instrument impact on error reduction, but generalized groupings of high-impact instrument types
 483 may be made.

484 The global FSOI, examining only satellite radiances, is shown in Figure 11. These results show
 485 the 24 hour error impact for the 0000 UTC forecasts only and it is apparent that polar orbiters
 486 generally perform better than observations from geostationary orbit using this global metric. This
 487 is due to polar orbiters always sampling somewhere in the domain and are capable of observing

488 the full globe. Since observations are always occurring within the domain, the disadvantage of
489 only sampling a given area twice a day is not strongly felt by this metric and all observations are
490 capable of impacting the error calculation. Among the geostationary infrared sounders, the GXS
491 instrument performs well, roughly in the middle based on this metric. Globally, the GXS performs
492 more poorly than the polar orbiting satellites because it is incapable of observing regions outside
493 its specified domain and therefore cannot directly impact error reduction in areas far away.



494 FIG. 11. FSOI per analysis as a function of satellite radiance instrument calculated globally for the 00 UTC
 495 analysis, in J kg^{-1} . The impact of the GEOIRS instruments was computed without the influence of the assimilated
 496 channels that are outside the specification of the proposed GXS instrument. Error bars indicate significance at
 497 the 90% level. The GXS instrument is highlighted in red.

498 However, the examination of the impact over the CONUS region and across all four synoptic times
499 (00, 06, 12, and 18 UTC), shown in Figure 12, produces a different result. In this spatiotemporal
500 domain, observations from the geostationary orbit have a stronger impact on the 24-hour forecast
501 and the GXS provides a distinct observation impact among the infrared satellite radiances on moist
502 energy error norm reduction and is well within the error bars of the estimate for ATMS SNPP in
503 the top spot. Polar orbiters only observe a given location two times per day and many of their
504 observations are outside of the CONUS region (Wang et al. 2021). They are therefore incapable of
505 providing as much temporal information as an instrument directly overhead that provides valuable
506 atmospheric sounding data nearly continuously. This temporal information is critical, allowing a
507 strong observation impact on the 24 hour forecast error from the GXS instrument. Although the
508 impact from the AMSU-A instruments may be underestimated for CONUS as was shown in Figure
509 1, there is potential from the GXS instrument to positively impact short-term weather forecasts and
510 aid in decision-making by stakeholders.

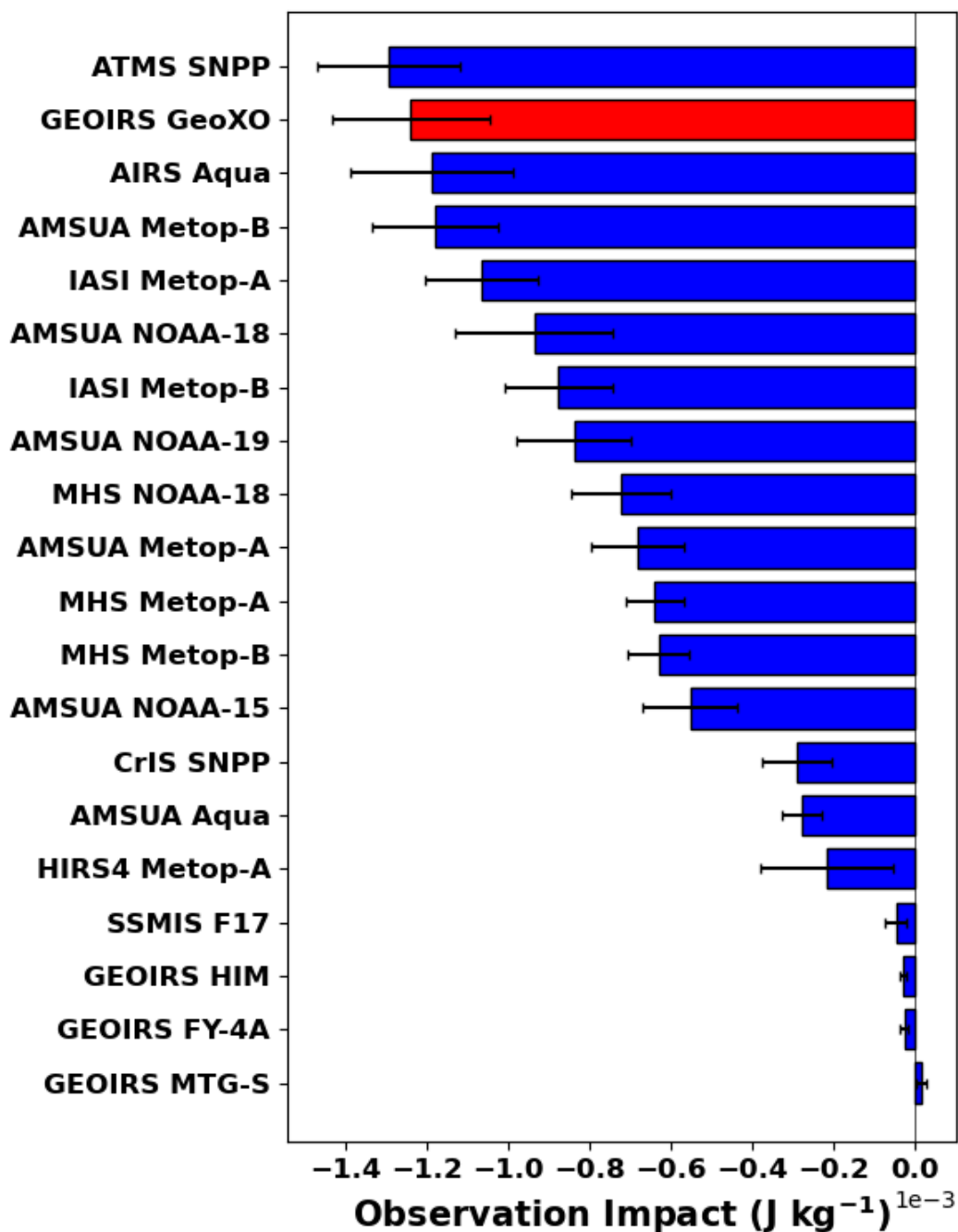
513 **7. Summary and Conclusions**

514 The results of this study characterize some potential impacts from a "ring" of hyperspectral IR
515 sounders on geostationary platforms with an emphasis on the proposed sounder on NOAA's GeoXO
516 satellite at 105°W. This was done within the context of an OSSE with the implied caveats of an
517 entirely simulated environment and the associated limitations. Radiances were simulated based on
518 specifications for the IRS on the European MTG and the DAS was run using a hybrid 4DEnVar
519 assimilation scheme that assumes hourly observation binning, coarser than the temporal resolution
520 of the proposed GXS. The assimilated geostationary IR radiances did not include explicitly added
521 errors so these results should be viewed as an upper limit on the utility of these observations.

522 The GXS and geostationary IR sounders more generally have the potential to provide new
523 and important information content to numerical weather prediction systems by providing nearly
524 continuous vertical profiling of key weather phenomena and processes. This would fill a knowledge
525 gap left by current polar orbiting IR sounders and address needs identified by the WMO (WMO
526 2020) that may extend beyond NWP.

527 The assimilation of additional geostationary hyperspectral infrared radiances resulted in
528 widespread improvements to the analysis temperature, humidity, and zonal wind. This error

CONUS FSOI



511 FIG. 12. Same as Figure 11, but computed over the CONUS domain and for the 00, 06, 12, and 18 UTC
 512 analysis cycles, in J kg⁻¹.

529 reduction primarily occurred in the tropics where geostationary instruments have the broadest span
530 of observations. This included a modest temperature improvement equatorward of 30° with a
531 degradation south of 30°S at upper levels, largely confined to the Pacific Ocean. Furthermore,
532 the improved temporal resolution of vertical profiling lead to improved estimates of wind speed
533 equatorward of the midlatitude jets. This improvement, combined with the effect on temperature
534 and the direct impact of assimilating water vapor channels (through the Jacobian of brightness
535 temperature with respect to humidity), contributed to improved estimates of specific humidity
536 through improved tracer transport, with the largest impacts in the tropics between roughly 800 hPa
537 and 300 hPa.

538 Improvements in the analysis resulted in improved initial conditions for the subsequent forecasts.
539 Generally, the improved initial conditions drove significantly improved 24 - 48 hour forecasts. For
540 temperature and zonal wind, statistically significant forecast improvements occurred throughout the
541 tropospheric column, leading to improvements for numerical weather prediction in the first 1-2 days
542 of simulation. In contrast, the tropospheric specific humidity improvement above approximately
543 800 hPa, important for dry air entrainment into clouds, extended longer into the forecast and was
544 of stronger magnitude. However, lower tropospheric humidity forecasts were degraded in the
545 4-Sat experiment, related to greater complexity in infrared radiance assimilation over land due to
546 larger surface heterogeneity and to issues with estimates over the cloud decks off the western coast
547 of the United States. The errors over the stratocumulus cloud decks in the DAS, relative to the
548 representation of clouds in the G5NR, are related to the parameterization choices made in the DAS
549 and the difficulty the DAS has in representing sharp gradients.

550 The final evaluation metric examined here was the FSOI metric, which gives an estimate of the
551 moist energy error norm reduction for a given observation type. This metric considers the 24
552 hour forecast error across multiple variables and therefore quantifies a broad understanding of the
553 capability of individual observation types to impact forecast skill. Examining the impact of satellite
554 radiance assimilation globally, polar orbiters, which are capable of observing the full assessed
555 domain, outperformed instruments that are regionally focused, such as those on geostationary
556 platforms. However, when focusing on the targeted domain of CONUS and examining the impact
557 across the full diurnal cycle, the potential of a hyperspectral IR instrument on a geostationary

558 platform was apparent, with GXS being in the top cluster of radiance observations and having the
559 largest impact on the 24 hour forecast error of all IR radiance types.

560 Several limitations of this work must be considered. One such limitation is that explicit errors
561 have not been added to the GEOIRS observations. Since the GXS is still in development, the error
562 magnitude is unknown and uncertainty exists in its determination. The above results are therefore
563 an upper limit on the utility of the GXS and other GEOIRS instruments in reducing the analysis
564 and forecast error. The channel range and ultimate selection for use in NWP is not yet determined
565 and may also affect future results. Specifically, 20% of the assimilated channels used in this study
566 are outside the current proposed spectral range of the GXS instrument. Efforts were made to limit
567 the influence of these channels in this study by excluding results aloft of 100 hPa though some
568 effects remain as the weighting functions of these channels extend downward to 300 hPa. The
569 channel selection for NWP will necessarily be different. Additionally, the channels chosen for this
570 study were assumed to be uncorrelated in the DAS solution, even though the real instrument is
571 likely to suffer from error correlation and this source of error should be addressed before real data
572 are assimilated.

573 One goal of new weather instruments is to improve the representation and forecast of weather
574 phenomena in numerical weather prediction models. Through an evaluation using an OSSE,
575 the capability of the proposed hyperspectral IR sounder on the GeoXO platform to make these
576 improvements was assessed and found to have the potential to improve representations in the
577 analysis, particularly in the tropics, and to reduce forecast error in the 24 - 48 hour time range.
578 As the methodology to assimilate all-sky IR radiances matures, the assimilation of observations in
579 cloudy regions will have the potential to produce even greater improvements as has been shown by
580 studies assimilating cloud-cleared IR radiances (Wang et al. 2015; Reale et al. 2018; Wang et al.
581 2019; McGrath-Spangler et al. 2021; Ganeshan et al. 2022). Further evaluation of the capabilities
582 of this new instrument type could include efforts to better exploit land and ozone sensitive channels
583 that may reduce associated uncertainties. Upcoming updates to the GMAO OSSE system may
584 further elucidate the potential of the GeoXO program.

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590 *Data availability statement.* The dataset on which this paper is based is too large to be retained
591 or publicly archived with available resources. Documentation and methods used to support this
592 study are available from Erica McGrath-Spangler at NASA/GMAO.

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