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Nudging is still used for **mesoscale analysis**, for example, using radar data.

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Then, observations are used to ‘correct’ the analysis, in an iterative procedure.

**Large scales** are analysed first, then **smaller scales**.

# Refresher on Statistics

Suppose we have the noon-day pressure  $p_i$  and temperature  $T_i$  at Belfield, every day for a year. Let  $n = 365$ .

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The **standard deviations**,  $\sigma_p$  and  $\sigma_T$  are the square roots of the variances. They measure the **root mean square deviation** from the mean.

The **covariance** of  $p$  and  $T$  is defined as

$$\mu_{pT} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (p_i - \bar{p})(T_i - \bar{T})$$

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The **correlation** between  $p$  and  $T$  is the **normalized covariance**:

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If  $p$  tends to be greater than its mean value when  $T$  is less than its mean, and vice-versa, then  $p$  and  $T$  are **negatively correlated** and  $\rho_{pT} < 0$ .

**Exercise:** Consider the pressure and temperature at Belfield.  
Would you expect them to be correlated?  
If so, is  $\rho_{pt}$  positive or negative?

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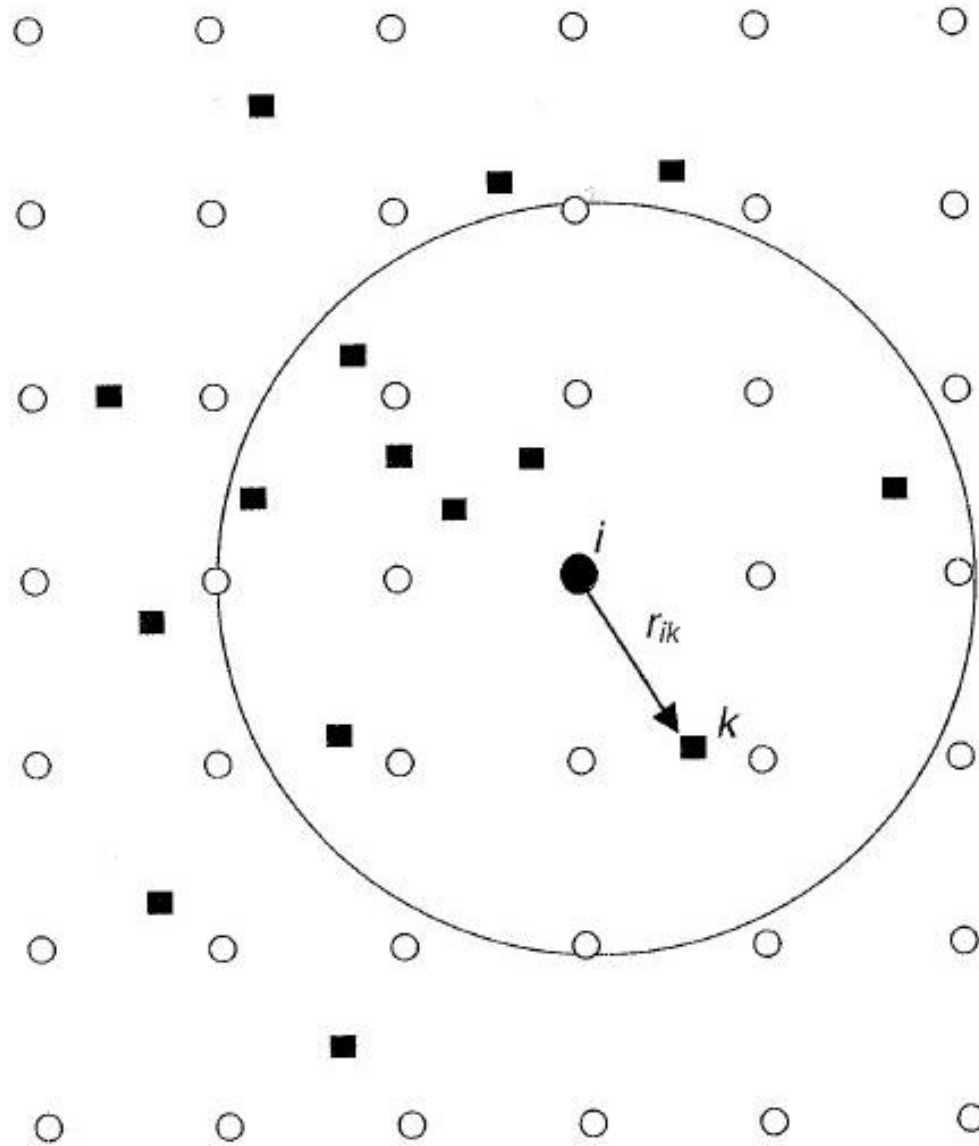
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Many variables have distributions which can be accurately modelled by the normal distribution.

# Back to the SCM Analysis



**Figure 5.1.1:** Schematic of grid points (circles), irregularly distributed observations (squares), and a radius of influence around a grid point  $i$  marked with a black circle. In 4DDA, the grid-point analysis is a combination of the forecast at the grid point (first guess) and the observational increments (observation minus first guess) computed at the observational points  $k$ . In certain analysis schemes, like SCM, only observations within the radius of influence, indicated by a circle, affect the analysis at the black grid point.

The following iterations are obtained by successive corrections:

$$f_i^{n+1} = f_i^n + \left[ \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{K_i^n} w_{ik}^n (f_k^O - f_k^n)}{\sum_{k=1}^{K_i^n} w_{ik}^n + \varepsilon^2} \right] \quad \text{i.e.} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{New Value} \\ = \text{Old Value} \\ + \text{Correction} \end{array}$$



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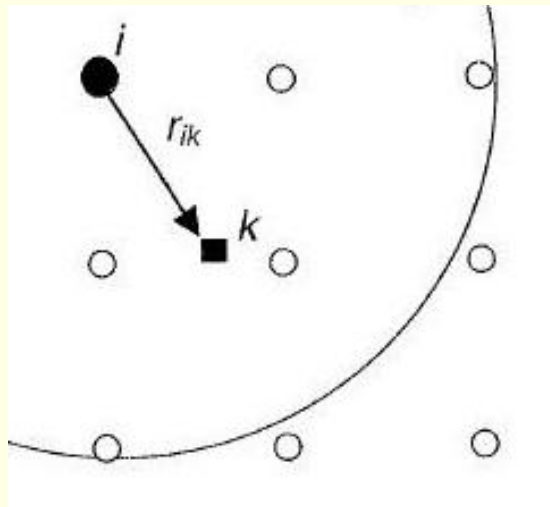
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- $K_i^n$  is the number of observations within a distance  $R_n$  of the grid point  $i$
- $\varepsilon^2$  is an estimate of the ratio of the observation error variance to the background error variance.

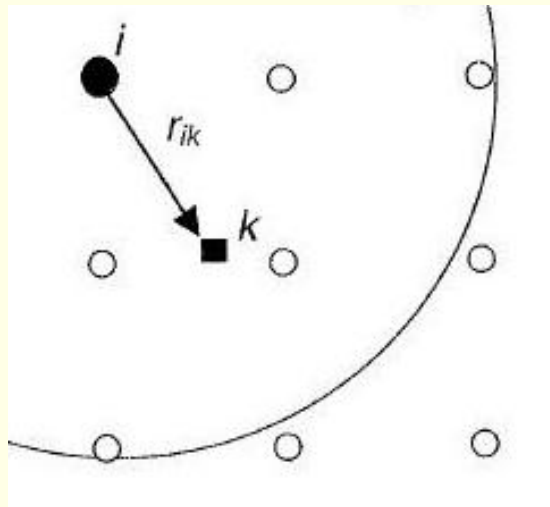
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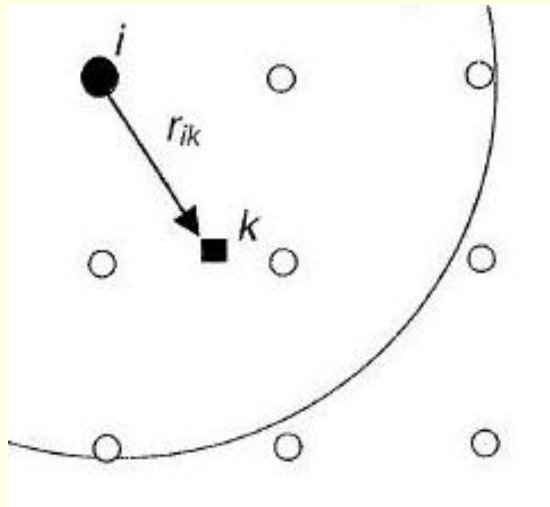


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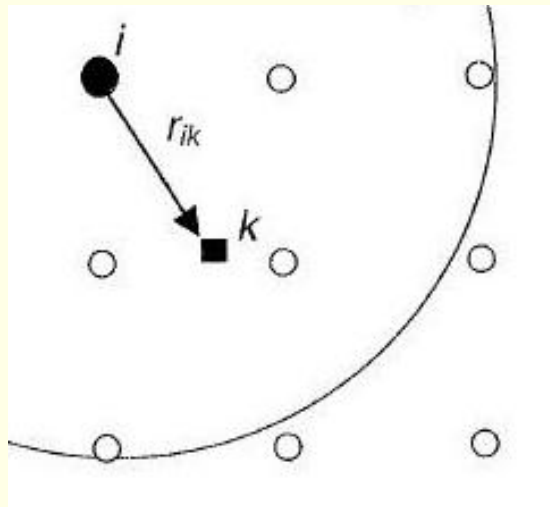


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Usually, **bi-quadratic** or **bi-cubic** interpolation is used.

Cressman (1959) defined the weights  $w_{ik}^n$  in the SCM as

$$\left. \begin{aligned} w_{ik}^n &= \frac{R_n^2 - r_{ik}^2}{R_n^2 + r_{ik}^2} & \text{for } r_{ik}^2 \leq R_n^2 \\ w_{ik}^n &= 0 & \text{for } r_{ik}^2 > R_n^2 \end{aligned} \right\}$$

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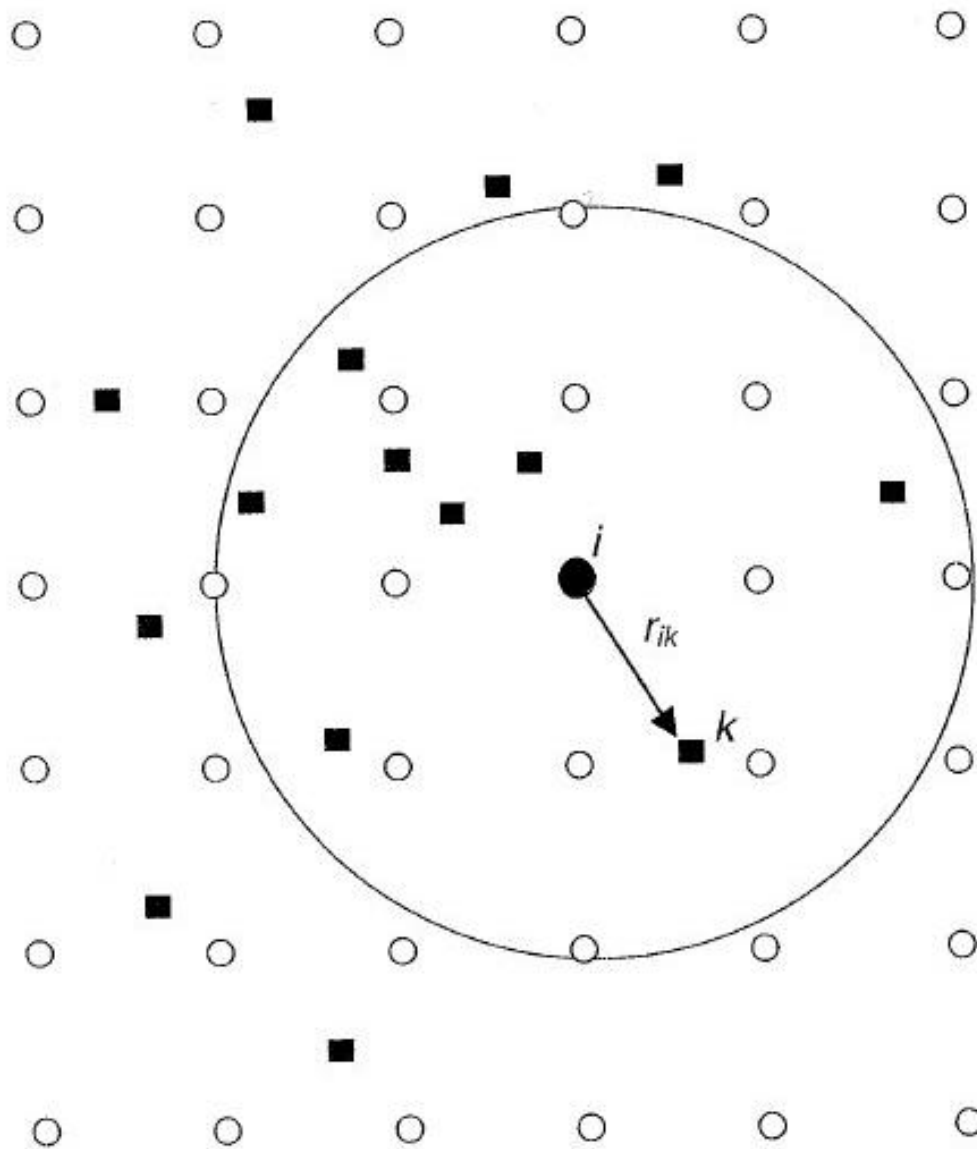
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**Exercise:** Draw a series of weight curves using MatLab.



**Figure 5.1.1:** Schematic of grid points (circles), irregularly distributed observations (squares), and a radius of influence around a grid point  $i$  marked with a black circle. In 4DDA, the grid-point analysis is a combination of the forecast at the grid point (first guess) and the observational increments (observation minus first guess) computed at the observational points  $k$ . In certain analysis schemes, like SCM, only observations within the radius of influence, indicated by a circle, affect the analysis at the black grid point.

There are eight observations within a distance  $R$  from grid point  $i$ .

The **radius of influence**  $R_n$  may vary with the iteration.

For example, the Swedish operational system (in 1980s) used

- $R_1 = 1500$  km,  $R_2 = 900$  km for upper air analyses
- $R_1 = 1500$  km,  $R_2 = 1200$  km,  $R_3 = 750$  km,  $R_4 = 300$  km for the surface pressure analysis

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The field reflects the **large scales** after the first iteration, and converges towards the **smaller scales** during later iterations.



# Error estimate $\varepsilon^2$

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**Exercise:** Consider the effect of a single observation, located at a grid point (a) for  $\varepsilon^2 = 0$ , (b) for  $\varepsilon^2 = 0.5$ .

# Nudging

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The relaxation time scale,  $\tau$ , is chosen based on empirical considerations.

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Multiply by  $\exp\left(\int dt/\tau\right) = \exp(t/\tau)$ :

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So,  $u$  approaches  $u_{obs}$  exponentially, with time-scale  $\tau$ .

If  $\tau$  is very small, the solution converges towards the observations too fast, and the dynamics cannot adjust in time.



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Kaas *et al.* (1999) performed an interesting experiment, nudging a model towards a 15-y reanalysis from the ECMWF.

By averaging the mean forcing due to nudging, they empirically determined corrections to reduce model deficiencies.

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**Exercise:** Assuming that the nudging term is comparable in size to the Coriolis term, estimate the relaxation time  $\tau$ .