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1 Statistical issues in radiosonde observation of  
2 atmospheric temperature and humidity profiles

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6 **Abstract**

Measurement uncertainty of atmospheric profiles obtained by radiosoundings is crucial in climate change studies. This paper shows how the understanding of geographic gaps of radiosonde networks calls for a functional approach able to handle spatio-temporal profile data, and related complexity issues are addressed.

7 *Keywords:* Functional data, spatio-temporal models, GRUAN, RAOB

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8 **1. Introduction**

9 Measurement system uncertainty in climate data records (CDRs) and  
10 its impact in climate change assessment has been raised by various climate  
11 scientists and metrologists. This is especially true for observations of temper-  
12 ature and humidity provided by radiosoundings. Addressing this issue, the  
13 GRUAN reference measurement network (GCOS Reference Upper-Air Net-  
14 work, [www.gruan.org](http://www.gruan.org)) has been established, and started to provide valuable  
15 contribution to the understanding of measurement uncertainty, see Bodeker  
16 et al., 2016. Although GRUAN gives fully traceable measurements, its geo-

17 graphic and historical coverage is quite limited. For this reason climatological  
18 studies are largely based on baseline measurement networks, which have an  
19 intermediate metrological quality but a larger spatio-temporal coverage.

20 In perspective, integrated data sets will include both ground based and  
21 satellite observations of land, sea and atmosphere. Moreover ensembles, ob-  
22 tained by various simulation techniques, are of increasing importance to de-  
23 scribe uncertainty. Hence, considering the data growth rate we are facing,  
24 the size of such data sets is fast increasing from the order of terabytes to  
25 petabytes. This frame requires a new cooperation effort to elaborate new  
26 multi-disciplinary approaches and services for different types of users. Hence,  
27 the integration of atmospheric, metrology, statistical and computer sciences  
28 is considered a fruitful route to fully exploit the available historical CDRs of  
29 several Essential Climate Variables (ECVs) collected by satellite observations  
30 platforms and by ground based networks operating at the global scale.

31 In this frame the uncertainty of baseline networks is a challenging issue  
32 and the present paper aims at being a step to face this problem. In partic-  
33 ular geographic gaps of temperature and humidity radiosonde networks are  
34 discussed and the need for advanced statistical methods is illustrated.

35 The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 ongoing projects  
36 involving production and analysis of climate data sets in general and in par-  
37 ticular radiosoundings are discussed and showed to call for new statistical  
38 developments. Section 3 considers spatio-temporal modeling for functional  
39 data in connection to network gap identification. Moreover Section 4 deepens

40 some computational issues related to data and model size.

## 41 **2. Data sets and projects**

42 Copernicus is the European union's Earth observation programme ([www.copernicus.eu](http://www.copernicus.eu)). Its aim is to help in understanding how our planet and its  
43 climate are changing, the role played by human activities in these changes  
44 and how these will influence our daily lives. To do this Copernicus is involved  
45 in a complex set of systems, which collect data from multiple sources: earth  
46 observation satellites and in situ sensors such as ground stations, airborne  
47 and sea-borne sensors. It processes these data and provides users with reliable  
48 and up-to-date information through a set of services related to environmental  
49 and security issues.  
50

51 In particular, the Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S), which is op-  
52 erated by the European Centre for Medium-range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF,  
53 [www.ecmwf.int](http://www.ecmwf.int)), will provide comprehensive climate information covering  
54 a wide range of components of the Earth-system and timescales spanning  
55 decades to centuries. It will maximise the use of past, current and future  
56 earth observations (from in-situ and satellite observing systems) in conjunc-  
57 tion with modeling, supercomputing and networking capabilities. This will  
58 produce a consistent, comprehensive and credible description of the past,  
59 current and future climate.

60 Various other projects developed in the frame of the Horizon 2020 pro-  
61 gram have been the scientific precursors of C3S. In particular Fiduceo (Fi-

62 delity and Uncertainty in climate data records from Earth Observations,  
63 [www.fiduceo.eu](http://www.fiduceo.eu)) aims at bringing insights from metrology to the observation  
64 of Earth's climate from space (Merchand et al. 2017). Moreover, GAIA-  
65 CLIM (Gap Analysis for Integrated Atmospheric ECV CLImate Monitoring,  
66 [www.gaia-clim.eu](http://www.gaia-clim.eu)) aims at understanding gaps in integrated monitoring of  
67 upper troposphere and to improve our ability to use ground-based and sub-  
68 orbital observations to characterise satellite observations for a number of  
69 atmospheric ECVs, see Thorne et al., 2017. In fact despite that satellite  
70 Earth observation technology has undoubtedly facilitated the development  
71 of global climate change research, ground-based networks such as radiosonde  
72 networks are required to identify biases and issues in the satellite CDRs.  
73 Therefore, radiosonde observations remain an essential component of the ob-  
74 serving system of systems. In this frame, geographic gaps are characterized  
75 by poor spatial coverage of a monitoring network.

76 On their turn, to represent a reliable and effective reference informa-  
77 tion all of these conventional anchor data sources must be harmonized and  
78 homogenized to achieve physical consistency of the decadal time series. Ho-  
79 mogeneization, is essentially change detection and adjustment of data for  
80 any kind of known and quantifiable inhomogeneities (bias, change of sensors,  
81 calibration drift, local environment changes etc). Homogeneization meth-  
82 ods have been developed for radiosonde has a long history, see for example  
83 Haimberger et al. (2012), Thorne et al. (2011) and Sherwood et al. (2008).  
84 Although the statistical interpretation of these methods is very interesting,

85 is omitted here for brevity. Harmonization is involved with the traceable  
86 characterization of the total uncertainty budget. For example the harmo-  
87 nization of temperature and humidity CDRs is one of the funded activity by  
88 C3S under contract C3S\_311a\_Lot3 (Madonna et al., 2017), and may benefit  
89 from the geographic gap analysis discussed in this paper.

### 90 **3. Statistical issues and modeling**

91 One of the objectives of GAIA-CLIM project is to understand the in-  
92 formation content of ground based monitoring networks and to identify geo-  
93 graphic gaps of these networks. We focus here on the network of the Universal  
94 RAwinsonde OBservation program or simply RAOB ([www.raob.com](http://www.raob.com)), which  
95 has a global coverage with about 2400 stations and some decades with bi-  
96 daily prevailing temporal frequency. This type of baseline networks are also  
97 involved in the C3S harmonization problem.

98 From the statistical point of view, Fassò et al. 2014 and Ignaccolo et  
99 al., 2015, showed that atmospheric soundings may be conveniently described  
100 as functional data using appropriate basis function expansion, at least when  
101 these data can be handled as independent replications of the same model. In  
102 case of global networks spatial and temporal correlation must be considered.  
103 Various functional models have been considered for spatio-temporal data  
104 where usually time dynamics is embedded in the functional object, see e.g.  
105 Menafoglio et al. (2013) and Mateu and Romano (2017) and references  
106 therein for recent advances in the field.

107 The idea of spatially correlated functional data (e.g. Delicado et al., 2010,  
108 and Ruiz-Medina, 2012) may be extended, to handle a manifold domain such  
109 as the sphere and the temporal dimension (e.g. Porcu et al., 2016). Although  
110 the idea of modeling these data as spatio-temporally correlated functional  
111 data is quite natural, from the point of view of probability theory, this ob-  
112 ject may be considered as a stochastic process defined on  $sphere \times time$  with  
113 values in a functional space. Alternatively, it may be considered as a stochas-  
114 tic process defined on a  $spherical\ shell \times time$  with scalar values. In both  
115 cases, the full characterization of the underlying stochastic process is still  
116 under study, including the definition of flexible families of valid covariance  
117 functions (Porcu, 2017, private communication).

118 Taking into account computational burden and data dimensionality, the  
119 statistical model needs to be simple enough. Various solutions for modeling  
120 large spatial datasets have been proposed including nearest neighbor models  
121 (Vecchia, 2008, and Datta et al., 2016). A first step in computation reduc-  
122 tion is to use separable models with discrete time, possibly after adjusting  
123 for relevant trends. Following this approach, maximum likelihood estimation  
124 can be based on the EM algorithm extending the multivariate dynamic core-  
125 gionalization model (Finazzi and Fassò, 2014 and Calculli et al., 2011). This  
126 can be easily done by applying a multivariate spatio-temporal model to the  
127 coefficients of the basis function expansion. In some sense this approach is  
128 close to kriging for function-valued data discussed by Delicado et al. (2010).  
129 A relevant difference is related to the smoothing factor used to obtain the

130 basis function coefficients: while in Delicado et al. (2010) a crossvalidation  
131 approach based on spatial prediction is used, for RAOB data, Fassò et al.  
132 (2017) proposed a criterion deploying metrological concepts, namely optimiz-  
133 ing the approximation to the high quality GRUAN reference network data.  
134 Moreover this approach is easily coupled with extensions of block tapering  
135 as discussed in Section 4.

136 Using an appropriate spatio-temporal statistical model, a monitoring net-  
137 work geographic gap may be defined as a region where the uncertainty of the  
138 spatial forecast is larger than a threshold. The threshold may be based on  
139 statistical and/or metrological considerations. Since the variability of the  
140 spatial forecast error is influenced by the atmospheric variability, such a con-  
141 founder may be controlled by adjusting for the effect of meteorology. A viable  
142 solution is to use the output of a numerical weather prediction model or a  
143 re-analysis such as ERA-Interim (Dee et al., 2011) as a model covariate, in  
144 fact these data are available with a reasonable resolution (about 80x80km  
145 grid) both on the RAOB stations for estimation and in the rest of the Earth  
146 for forecast.

#### 147 **4. High dimensionality challenges**

148 The prediction problem of previous section is inherently high-dimensional  
149 due to the fact that the number  $q$  of coefficients per profile can be high,  
150  $q > 15$  say. In turn, it follows that the variance covariance matrices involved  
151 in model estimation are large, even when the number of stations is not very



152 large. The problem becomes even bigger if multiple ECVs are jointly modeled  
153 to improve prediction, in which case the basis function coefficients add up.

154 Modeling spatio-temporal correlations across coefficients is not trivial,  
155 especially when the support is complex and the underlying process is non-  
156 stationary and anisotropic. In particular, the spatial correlation needs to  
157 be valid for the spherical shell and in the multivariate case. The problem  
158 becomes simpler if the statistical model includes a re-analysis model output  
159 as discussed in the previous section. In this case, stationarity and a reduced  
160 spatio-temporal correlation range are less strong assumptions.

161 Even when simple covariance functions are adopted, the estimation of the  
162 model parameters is computationally demanding in the multivariate case.  
163 For instance, a simple linear coregionalization model requires to estimate the  
164 parameter of a common correlation function and the elements of a correla-  
165 tion matrix the dimension of which is  $q \times q$ . This calls for efficient estimation  
166 methods when the model parameters are estimated using MCMC or the EM  
167 algorithm. In general, computational efficiency is attained allowing large  
168 matrices to be sparse without losing unbiasedness and consistency of the  
169 estimators. Kaufmann et al., 2008 proposed covariance tapering. This ap-  
170 proach allows to control the matrix sparsity but may have poor estimation  
171 properties as shown by Stein (2013), which suggested the simpler and better  
172 approach called block-tapering. In this case, the spatial locations are di-  
173 vided into blocks and each block contributes independently to the likelihood  
174 function. This allows to work with smaller matrices and to obtain consistent

175 estimates speeding up the computation.

176 For spatio-temporal models with multivariate response, block-tapering  
177 may be extended from spatial blocks to spatio-temporal blocks and/or to  
178 spatio-temporal-response dimension blocks. As a result, in applications in-  
179 volving complexity similar to RAOB data set under consideration, computa-  
180 tion time may be reduced by 10-20 times.

181 Although straightforward and easy to be implemented, the block-tapering  
182 approach still requires a more in-depth study about how it affects the esti-  
183 mation of the model parameters. Open questions includes the optimal def-  
184 inition of block sizes and block allocation. Additionally, attention must be  
185 paid when block-tapering is applied to the multivariate case. Matrices must  
186 be constructed in such a way that all the model parameters are identifiable  
187 when blocks are defined. Again, care must be taken when multiple ECVs  
188 are considered and the monitoring networks are unbalanced. Blocks must be  
189 defined in a way that the cross-correlation between ECVs can be consistently  
190 estimated. Finally, if the latent processes are non-stationary and anisotropic,  
191 the way block are defined may affect the estimation of the model parameters  
192 that control the nonstationarity and/or the anisotropy.

193 In our opinion, block-tapering is appealing since it does not require to  
194 alter the definition of the latent processes and the likelihood function simply  
195 factorizes across the blocks, allowing model estimation to be accomplished  
196 faster. On the other hand, effort must be spent to carefully defines blocks,  
197 possibly in an adaptive manner during the parameter estimation.

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