

# Radar Measurement of Precipitation from Space: TRMM/PR and GPM/DPR rain retrieval algorithms

Toshio Iguchi

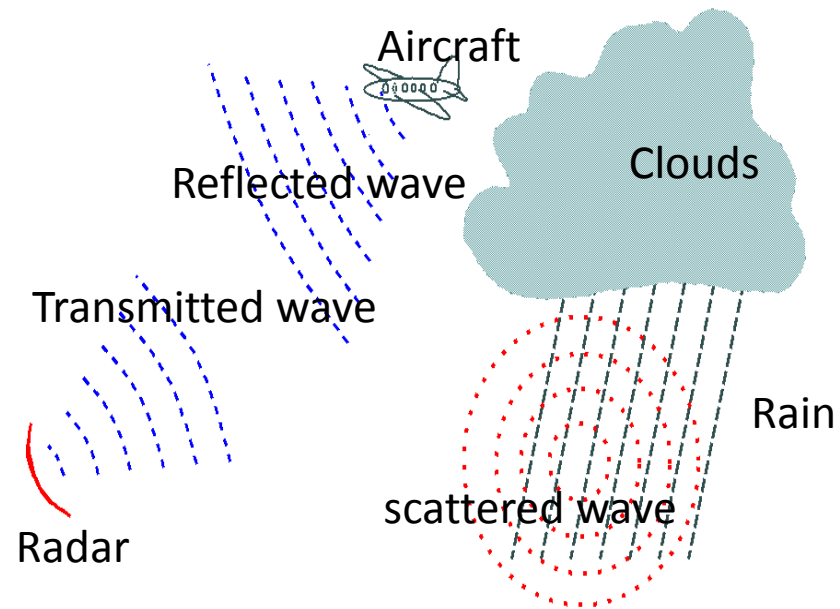
National Institute of Information and Communications Technology

Riken, Kobe, 26 June 2017

# Remote sensing of rain by radar

## RADAR: RAdio Detection And Ranging

- Radar emits a known pulse of radio waves and measures its echoes from objects or targets.
- The time for the pulse to travel to the target gives the distance to the target.
- The direction of the radio waves gives the direction of the target.
- The echo power depends on the size and number of the targets.



# TRMM Sensors

Precipitation radar (PR):

13.8 GHz

4.3 km footprint

0.25 km vertical res.

215 km swath

Microwave radiometer (TMI):

10.7, 19.3, 21.3, 37.0

85.5 GHz (dual polarized  
except for 21.3 V-only)

10 x 7 km FOV at 37 GHz

760 km swath

Visible/infrared radiometer (VIRS):

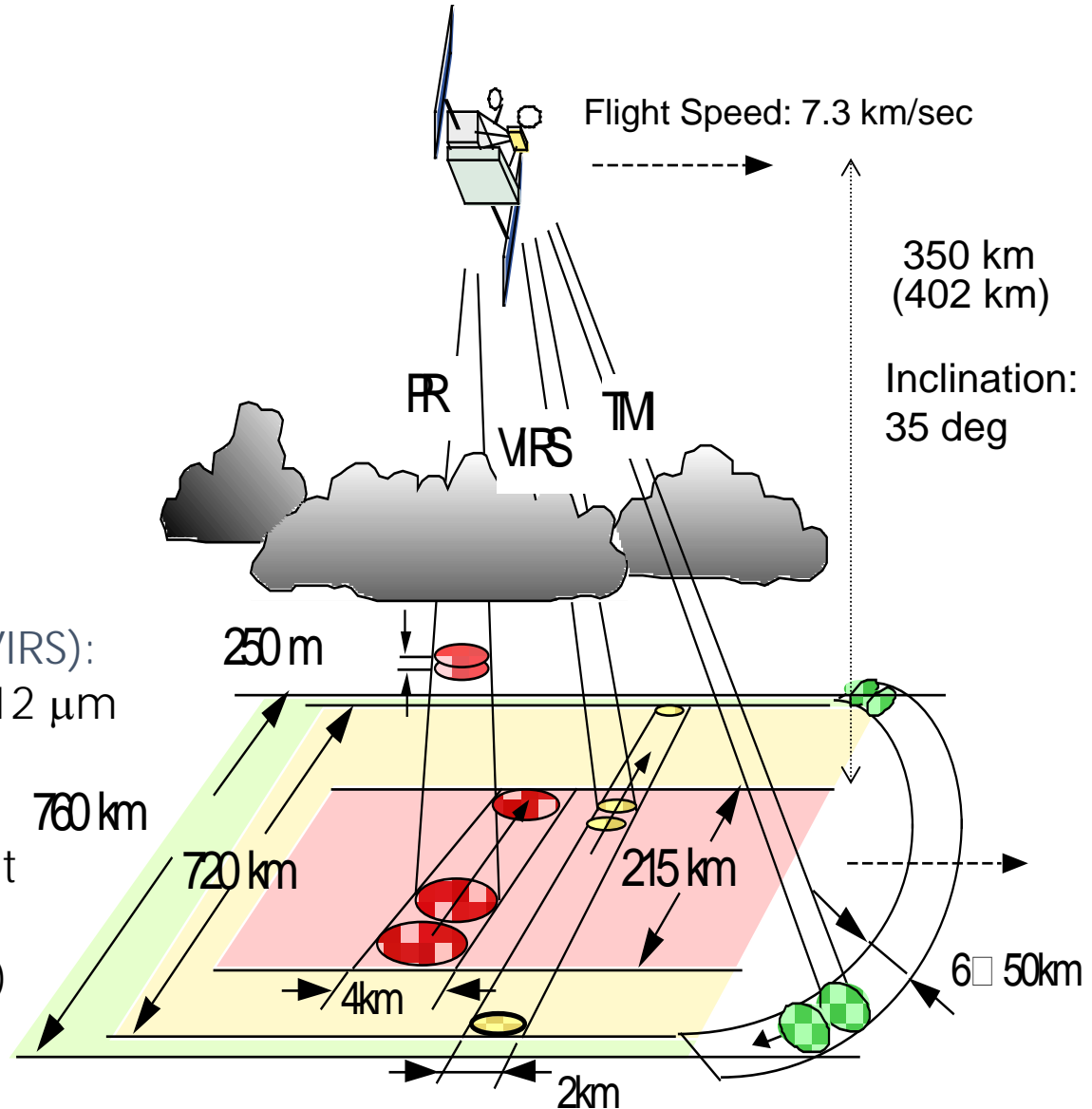
0.63, 1.61, 3.75, 10.8, and 12  $\mu\text{m}$

at 2.2 km resolution

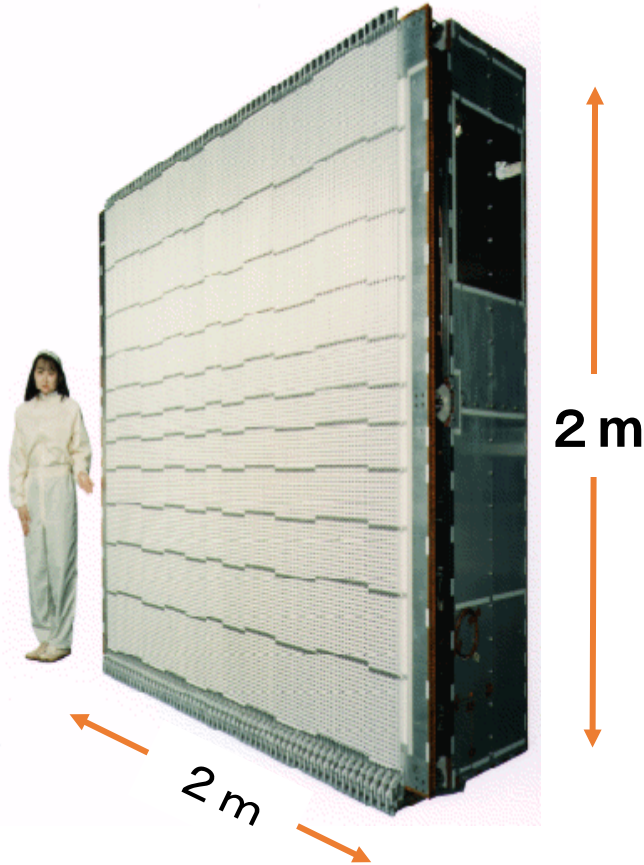
*Additional EOS instruments:*

CERES (Cloud & Earth Radiant  
Energy System) 720 km swath

LIS (Lightning Imaging Sensor)



# TRMM Precipitation Radar

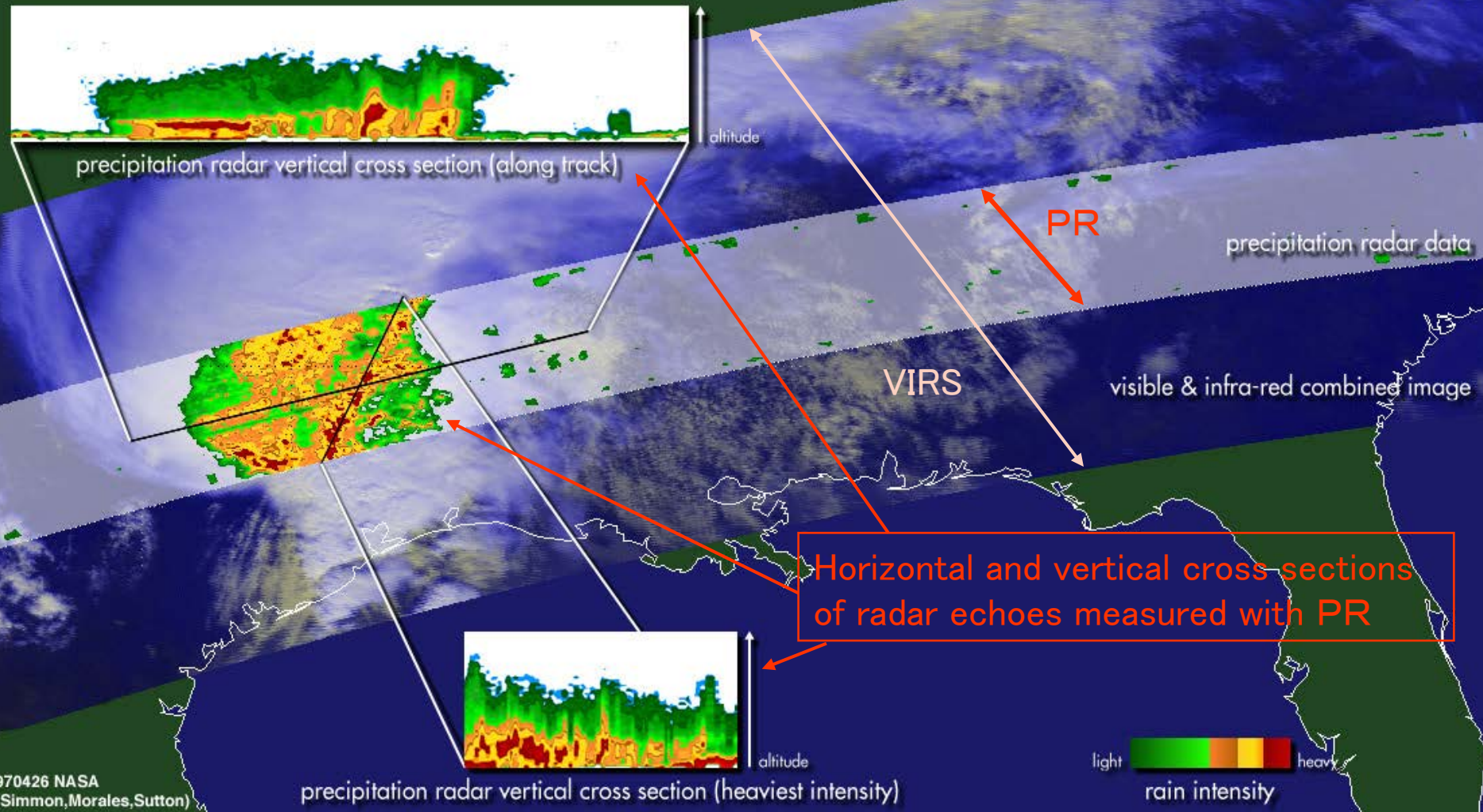


|                       |                            |
|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| Radar type            | Pulse radar                |
| Antenna type          | 128-elem. WG slot array    |
| Beam scanning         | Active phased array        |
| Frequency             | 13.796, 13.802 GHz         |
| Polarization          | Horizontal                 |
| TX/RX pulse width     | 1.57 / 1.67 $\mu$ sec      |
| RX band width         | 0.6 MHz                    |
| Pulse rep. freq.      | 2776 Hz                    |
| Data rate             | 93.5 kbps                  |
| Mass                  | 460 kg                     |
| Designed Life time    | 3 years                    |
| Sensitivity           | < 0.5mm/h                  |
| Horizontal resolution | 4.3 km (nadir)             |
| Range resolution      | 250 m                      |
| # of indpdt samples   | 64 (fading noise < 0.7 dB) |
| Swath width           | 215km                      |
| Observable range      | Surface to 15km            |

# A squall line observed with TRMM PR and VIRS

Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission

February 10, 1998  
Houston, TX

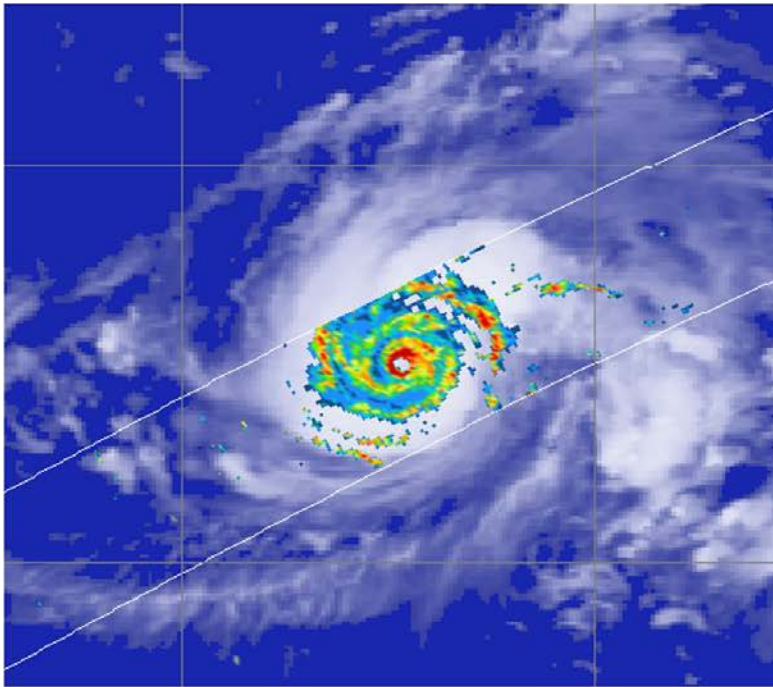


# 3-D Observation of a Typhoon by the PR

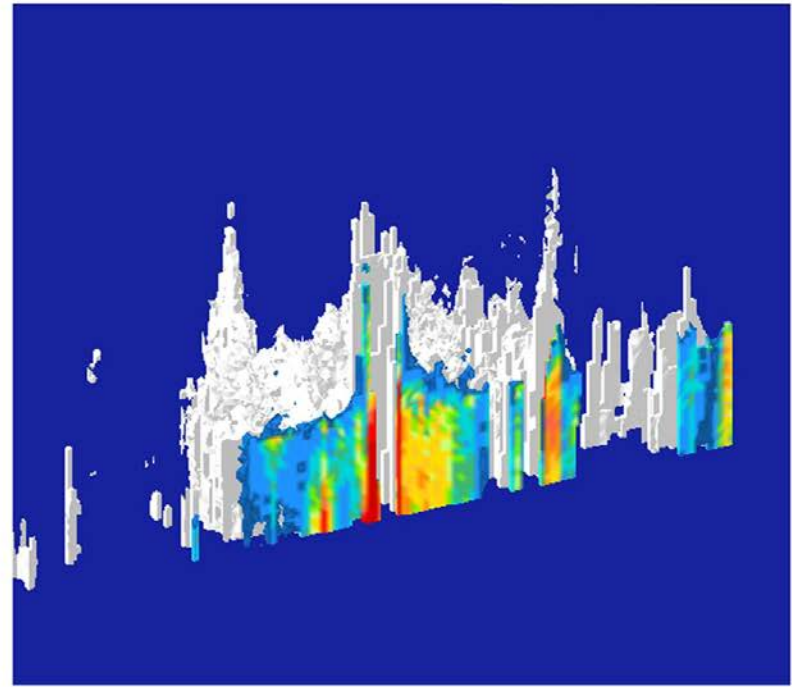
## TRMM PR 2A25 Rain

Aug. 2, 2000, 20:49-20:53 (Japanese local time)

Rain intensity at H=2 km



Vertical cross section through the eye and 3D structure

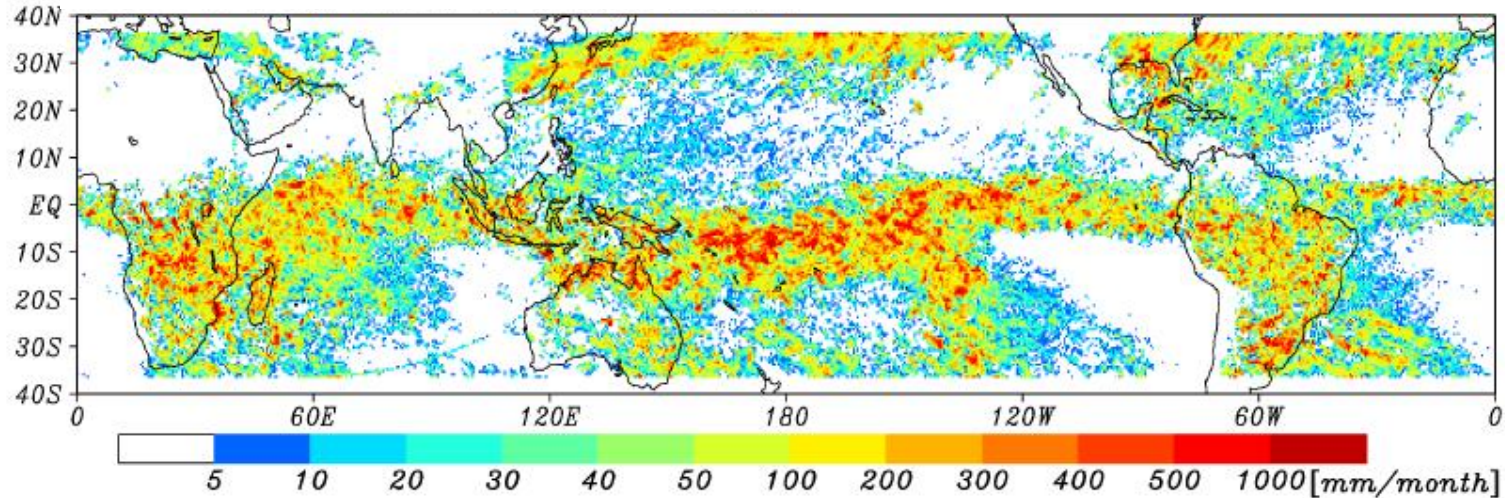


PR realized observation of 3D structure of rain over ocean where few observations had been available.

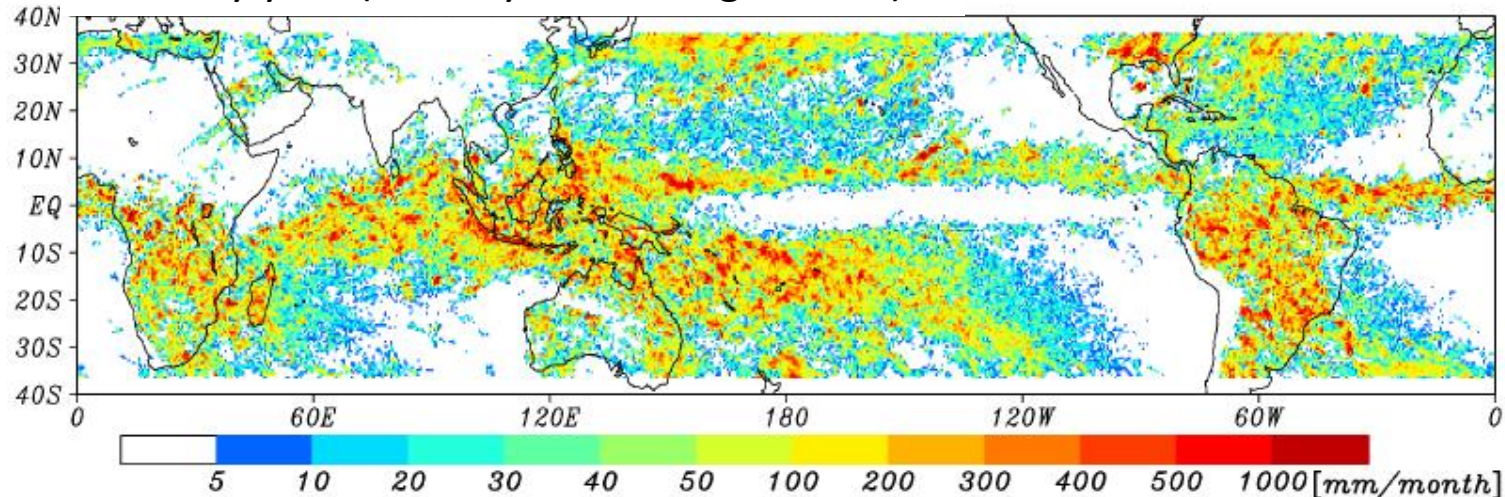


# Monthly Rain Distributions estimated from the TRMM PR data in 1998 (El Nino year) and 1999

El Nino year (January 1998, Height=2km)



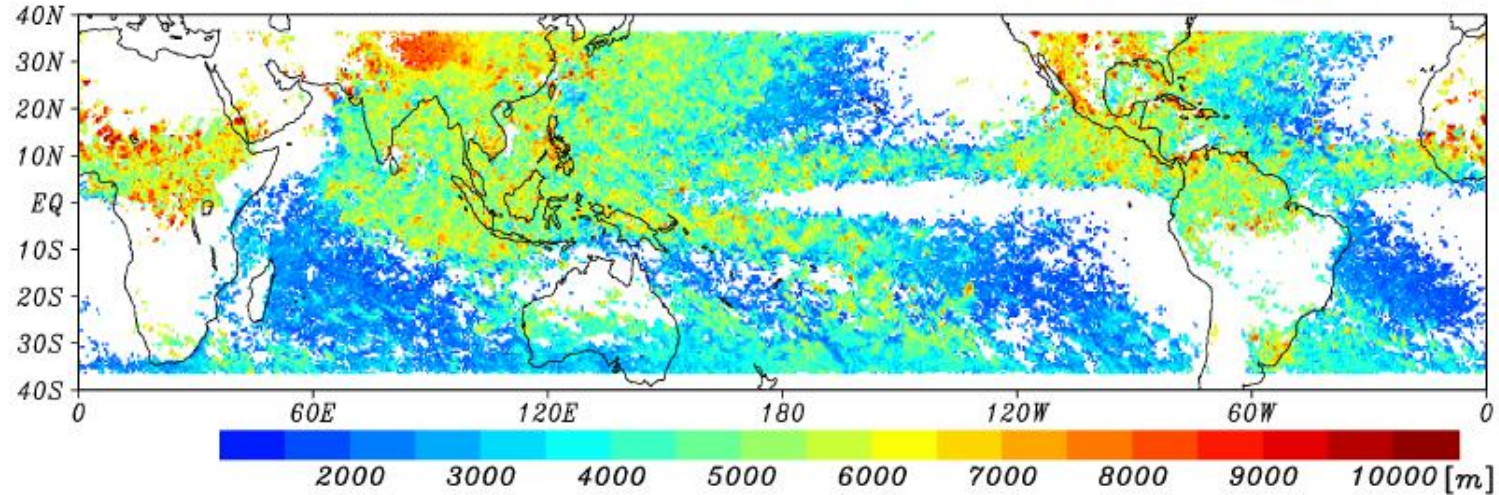
Ordinary year (January 1999, Height=2km)



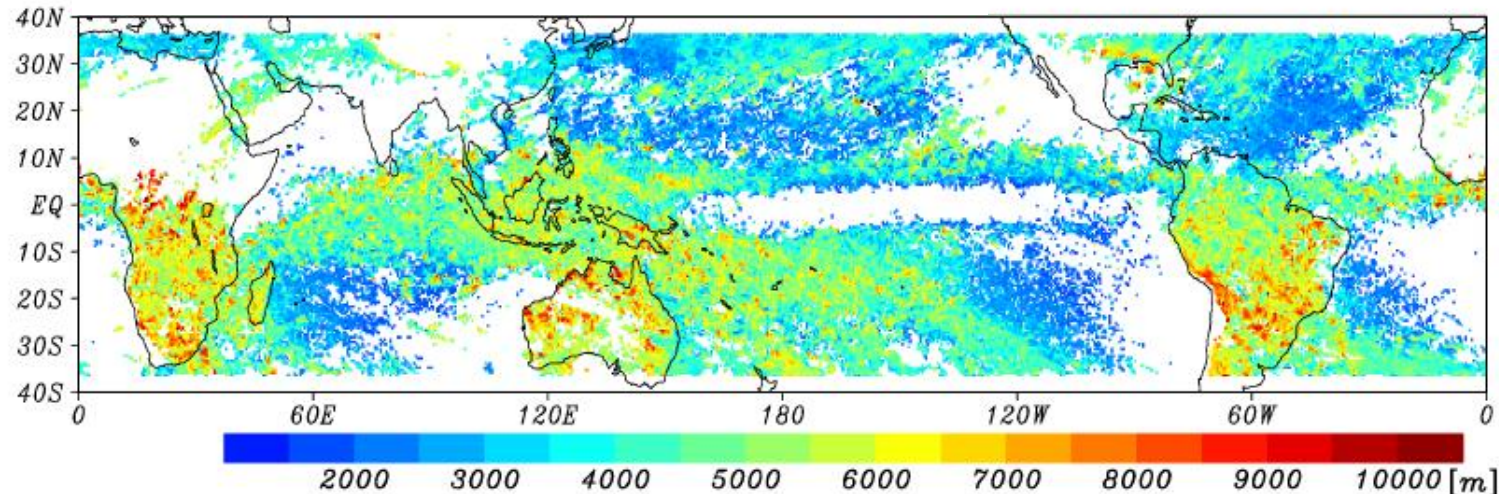
# Storm Top Height Distribution measured with the TRMM Precipitation Radar



Boreal summer (July 1998, Height=2km)



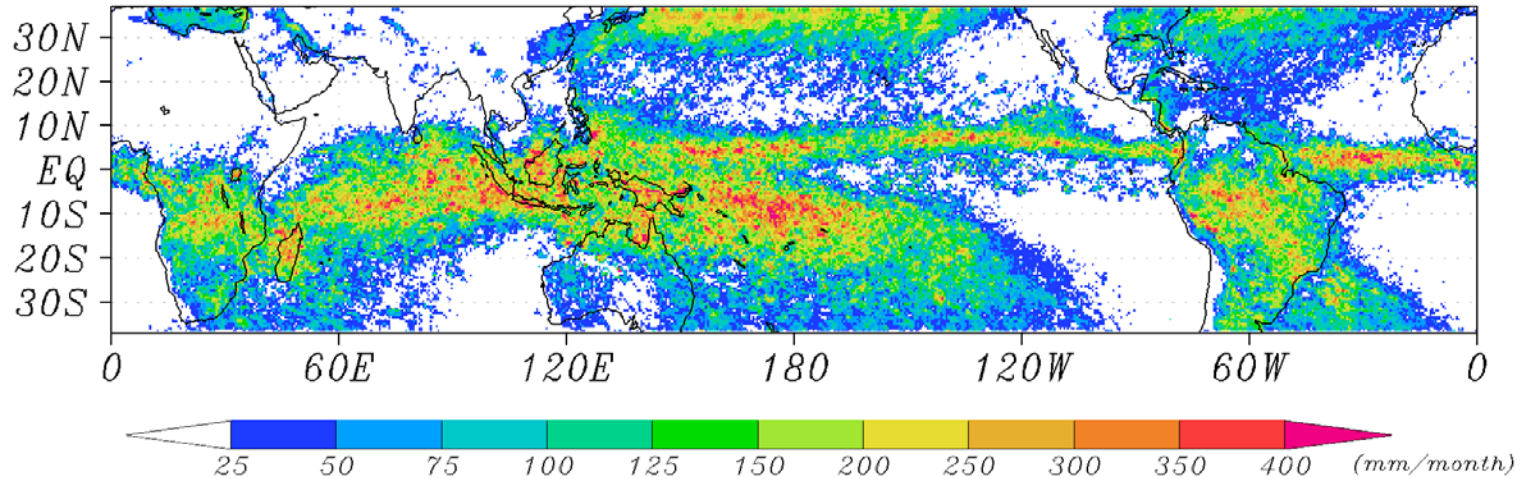
Austral summer (January 1999, Height=2km)



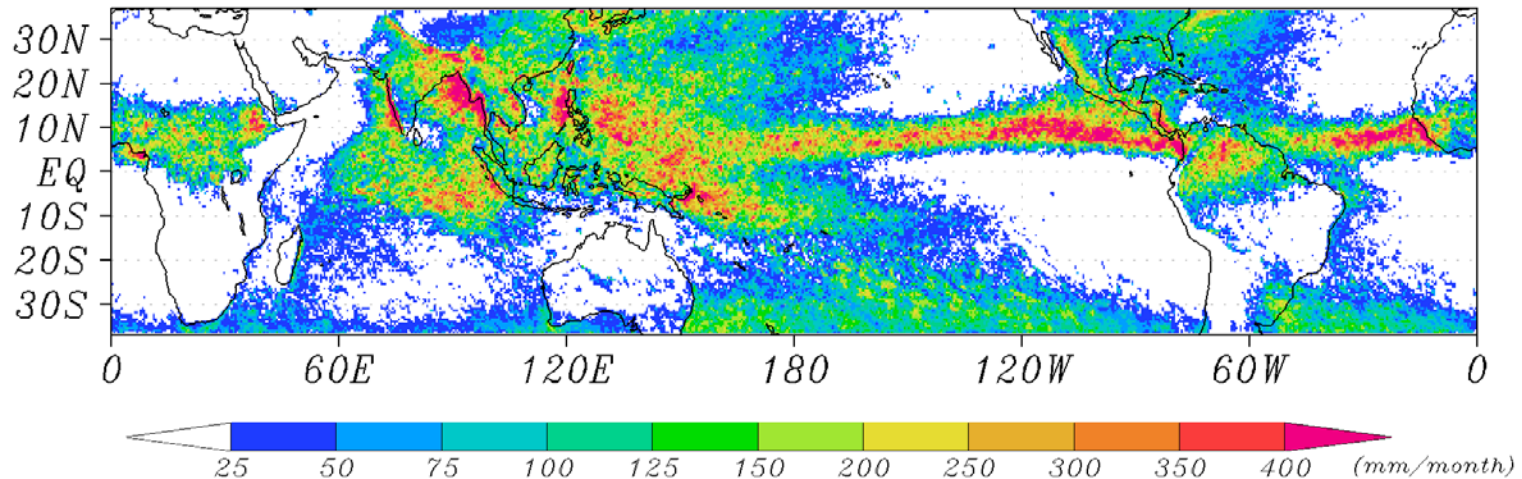


# TRMM PR climatology

*TRMM PR 3A25 Rain rate (0.5x0.5deg) : JAN(1998-2007)*



*TRMM PR 3A25 Rain rate (0.5x0.5deg) : JUL(1998-2007)*

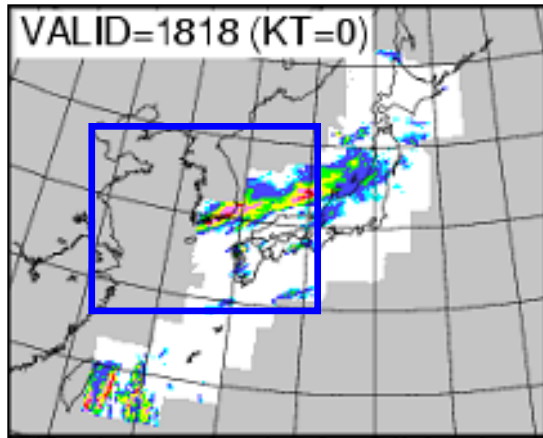


# Improvement in weather forecasts

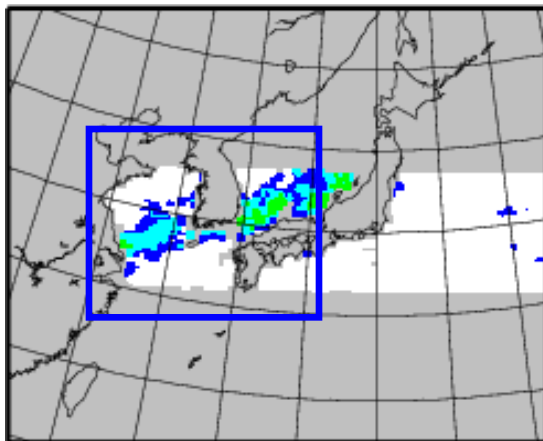
## 4D-VAR assimilation in the JMA meso-scale model

**INPUT**

**Ground radar data**

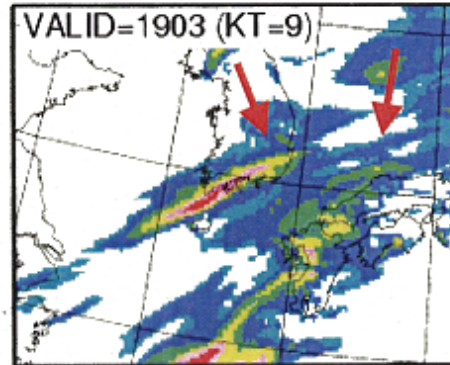


**TRMM/TMI data**

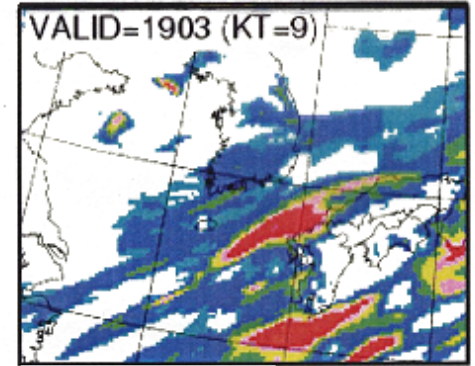


**Current method**

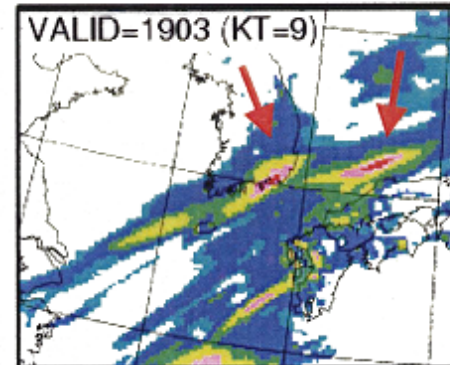
**4D-VAR. without TMI**



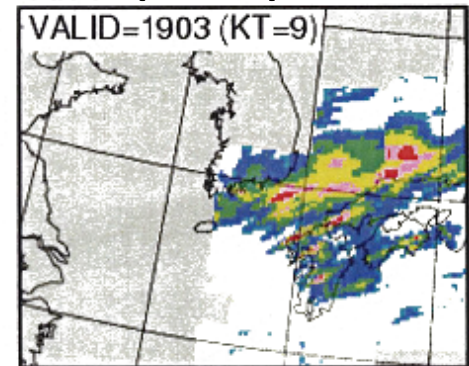
**MSM**



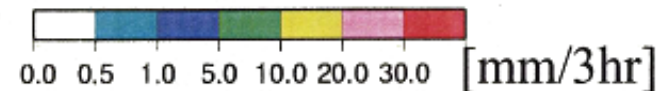
**4D-VAR. with TMI**



**R/A (Truth)**



**9 hr  
Forecast**



# Peculiarities of satellite-borne radar

## Differences from ground-based radar

- Hardware constraints
  - size (<2 m), mass, power consumption
    - use of short waves -> attenuation (rain, snow, water vapor, cloud liquid water, and oxygen molecules)
    - sensitivity
  - reliability
- Observation geometry
  - distance (>300 km), angle
    - sensitivity, resolution
  - surface behind rain
    - surface clutter
  - moving platform (unless from a geostationary satellite)
    - difficulty in Doppler measurement
- Other factors
  - Sparse sampling in time at a given location
  - Various rain systems with different characteristics
  - Excellent stability (<0.1dB change since launch)
    - can be used as a calibrator of ground-based radars

# Footprint size and wavelength

- Use of relatively high frequency (short wave) to realize a good horizontal resolution.
  - antenna beam width  $\sim c_1\lambda/D$  (wavelength/diameter)
    - $\lambda$ : wavelength of the electromagnetic wave
    - $D$ : antenna diameter
    - $c_1$ : a constant that depends on the antenna illumination ( $\sim 1.2$ )
  - footprint size  $\sim c_1r\lambda/D$  ( $r$ : range to surface)
  - $D < 2\sim 3$  m unless the antenna is developed on orbit
  - $r > \sim 300$  km.
  - -> use a small  $\lambda$  to make the footprint size ( $c_1r\lambda/D$ ) small.
  - to realize a 5 km footprint with a 2 m antenna from a 400km orbit,  $\lambda \sim 5*2/(1.2*400)$  m = 2.08 cm (= 14.4GHz)

# Radar Equation

$$P_r(r) = P_t \frac{G_t G_r \lambda^2 \theta_1 \theta_2 c \tau}{2^{10} \pi^2 \ln(2) r^2} \eta(r) \exp\left(-2 \int_0^r k(s) ds\right)$$

$$\eta = \frac{1}{V} \sum_V \sigma_b = \int \sigma_b(D) N(D) dD$$

$$k = \frac{1}{V} \sum_V \sigma_t = \int \sigma_t(D) N(D) dD$$

$$Z_e = \frac{\lambda^4}{\pi^5 |K_w|^2} \eta, \quad K = \frac{\epsilon_r - 1}{\epsilon_r + 2} = \frac{n^2 - 1}{n^2 + 2}$$

$$R = \frac{\pi}{6} \int D^3 v(D) N(D) dD \approx \int D^{3.67} N(D) dD$$

If  $\lambda \gg \pi D$  (Rayleigh scattering),

$$\eta \propto \int D^6 N(D) dD = Z, \quad k \propto \text{Im}(-K) \int D^3 N(D) dD$$

# Drop Size Distribution (DSD)

- Both  $k$ - $Z_e$  and  $R$ - $Z_e$  relations depend on DSD.
- Hitschfeld-Bordan's solution assumes a  $k$ - $Z_e$  relation.
- When the SRT is not applicable, the initial DSD determines the attenuation correction and the  $Z_e$ -to- $R$  conversion.
- When the SRT is applicable,  $\alpha$  can be adjusted to match the H-B estimate of PIA to the SRT PIA. This in effect corresponds to adjusting the initial DSD.

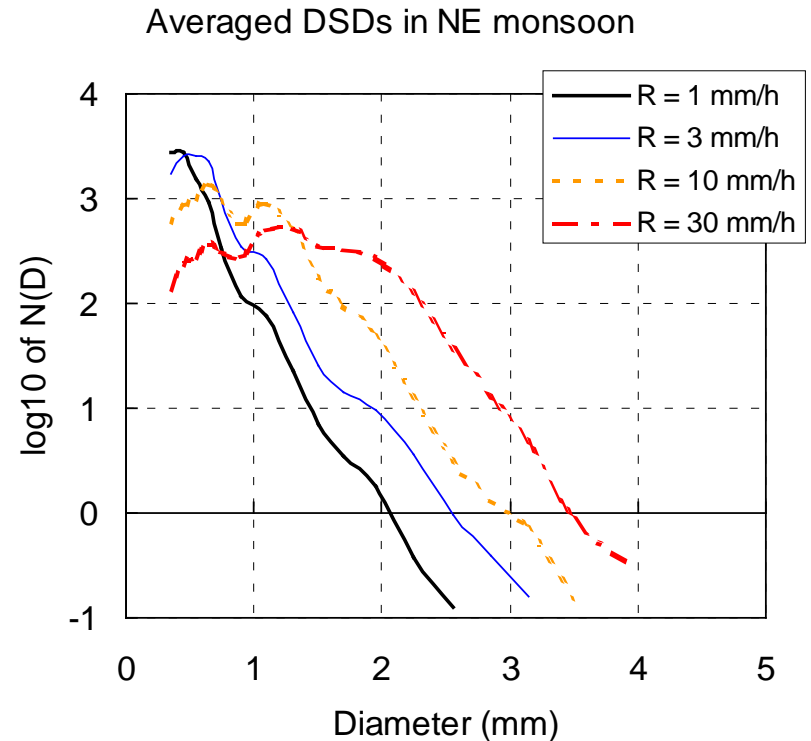
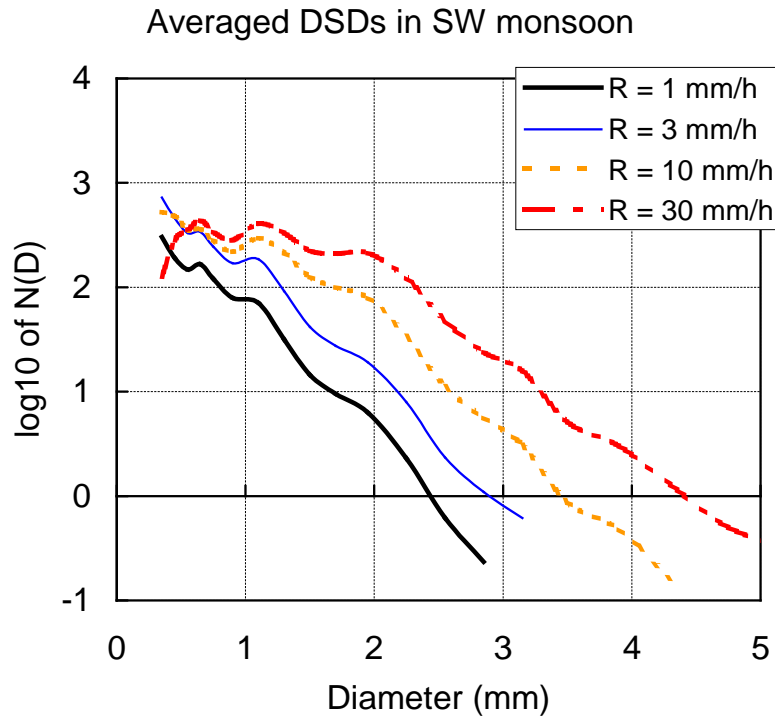
Hitschfeld-Bordan solution

$$Z_m(r) = Z_e(r) \exp \left( -0.2 \ln 10 \int_0^r k(s) ds \right)$$

If  $k = \alpha Z_e^\beta$ , then

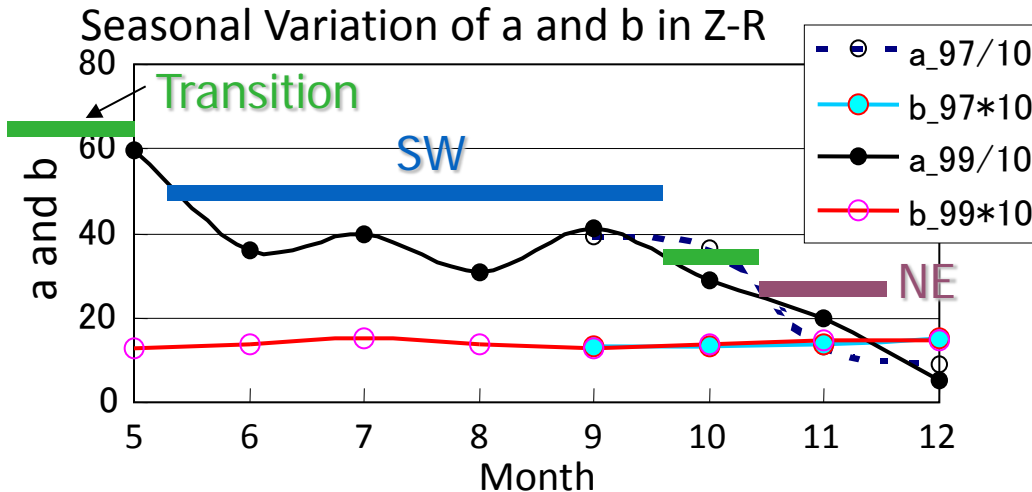
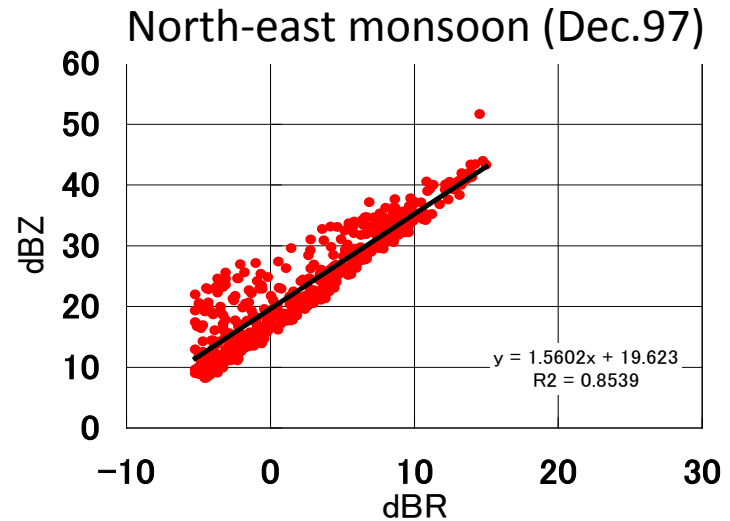
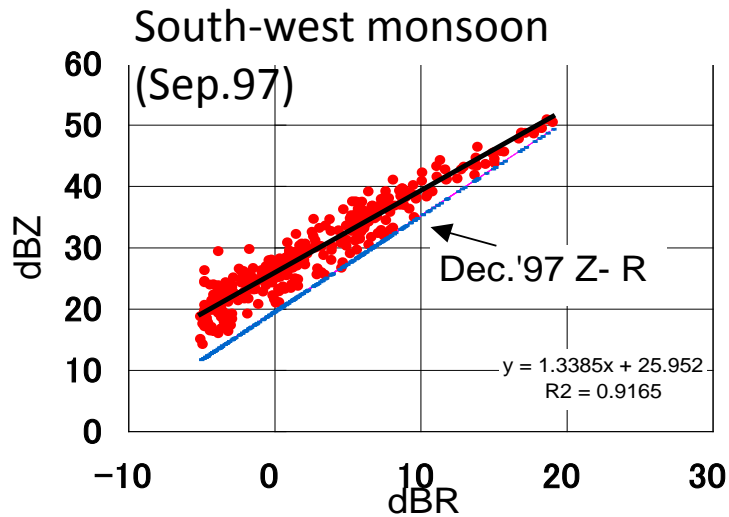
$$Z_e(r) = \frac{Z_m(r)}{\left( C_1 - 0.2 \ln(10) \beta \int_0^r \alpha(s) Z_m^\beta(s) ds \right)^{1/\beta}}$$

# DSD variation in Indian rain



Averaged Dropsize Distribution during South-West (SW) and North-East (NE) monsoon seasons in Gadanki, south India in 1997 and 1999. SW and NE seasons are between May and October, and between November and December, respectively. DSDs within +/- 1 dB centered at the rain rate specified are averaged.

# Z-R relations in SW and NE Indian monsoon seasons



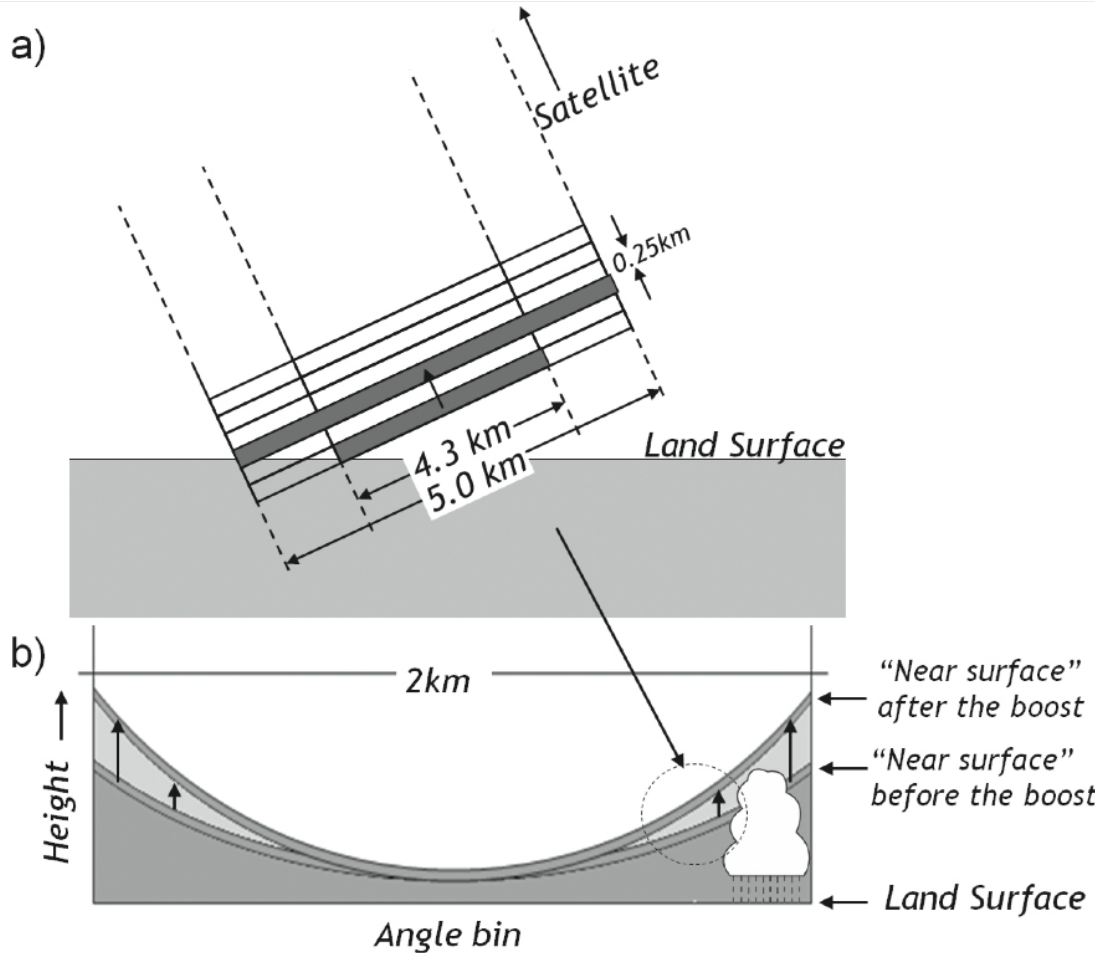
$$\text{SW } Z = 405R^{1.29}$$

$$\text{NE } Z = 144R^{1.38}$$

Strat/Conv separation:  
Not significant



# Surface clutter



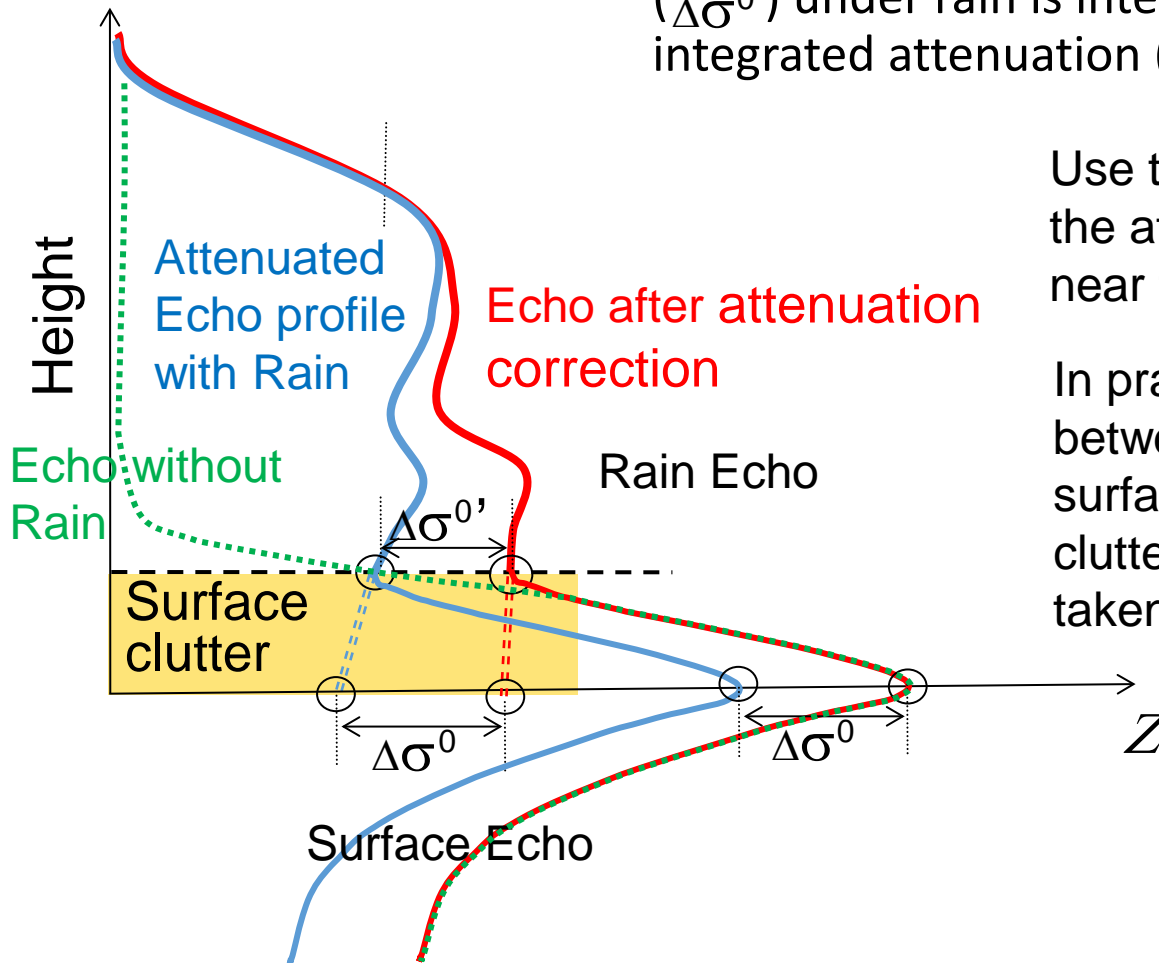
Shmizu et al. (2009)

## Other issues due to the nature of the measurements

- main lobe and side lobe clutter obscuring the near surface echo, can contaminate meteorological echo
- Uncertain  $\sigma_0$  in complex terrain
- *A priori* DSD assumed as a function of height. Appropriate?
- Single frequency measurements + unreliable PIA = limited independent DSD information

# Surface Reference Technique

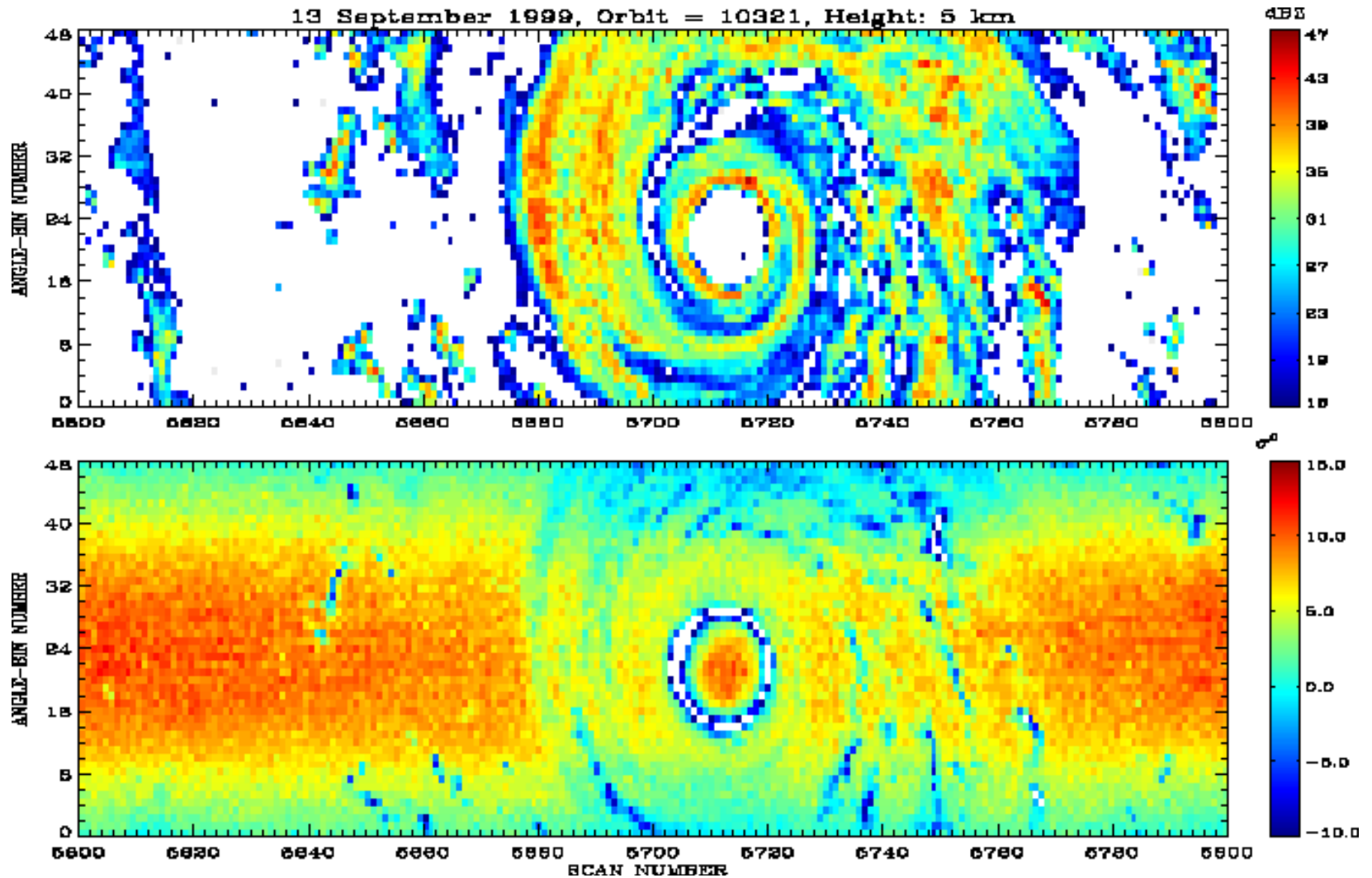
Decrease of the apparent surface echo ( $\Delta\sigma^0$ ) under rain is interpreted as the path-integrated attenuation (PIA) due to rain.



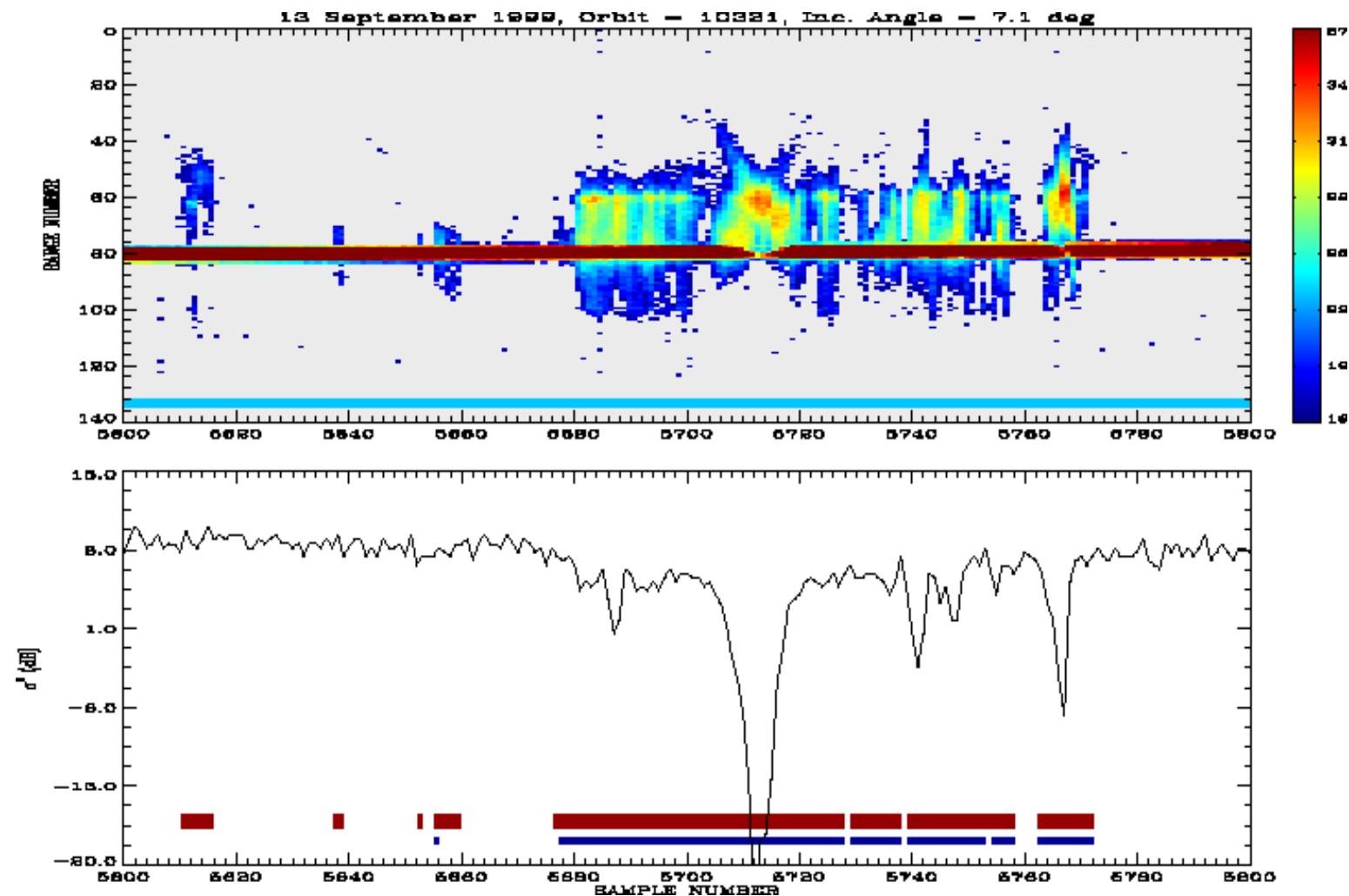
Use this PIA to correct for the attenuation of rain echo near the surface.

In practice, the difference between the PIA to the surface and the PIA to the clutter-free bottom must be taken into account.

# Rain and Surface Echoes



# Vertical Cross Section of Radar Echo and Decrease of Apparent Surface Cross Section



# TRMM/PR Standard Algorithm

$$Z_m(r) = Z_e(r) \exp \left[ -0.2 \ln(10) \int_0^r k(s) ds \right]$$

$$k(r) = \alpha_0(r) Z_e(r)^{\beta_0} \quad \text{DSD assumed}$$

$$Z_e(r_s) = Z_m(r_s) / (1 - \zeta)^{1/\beta_0}$$

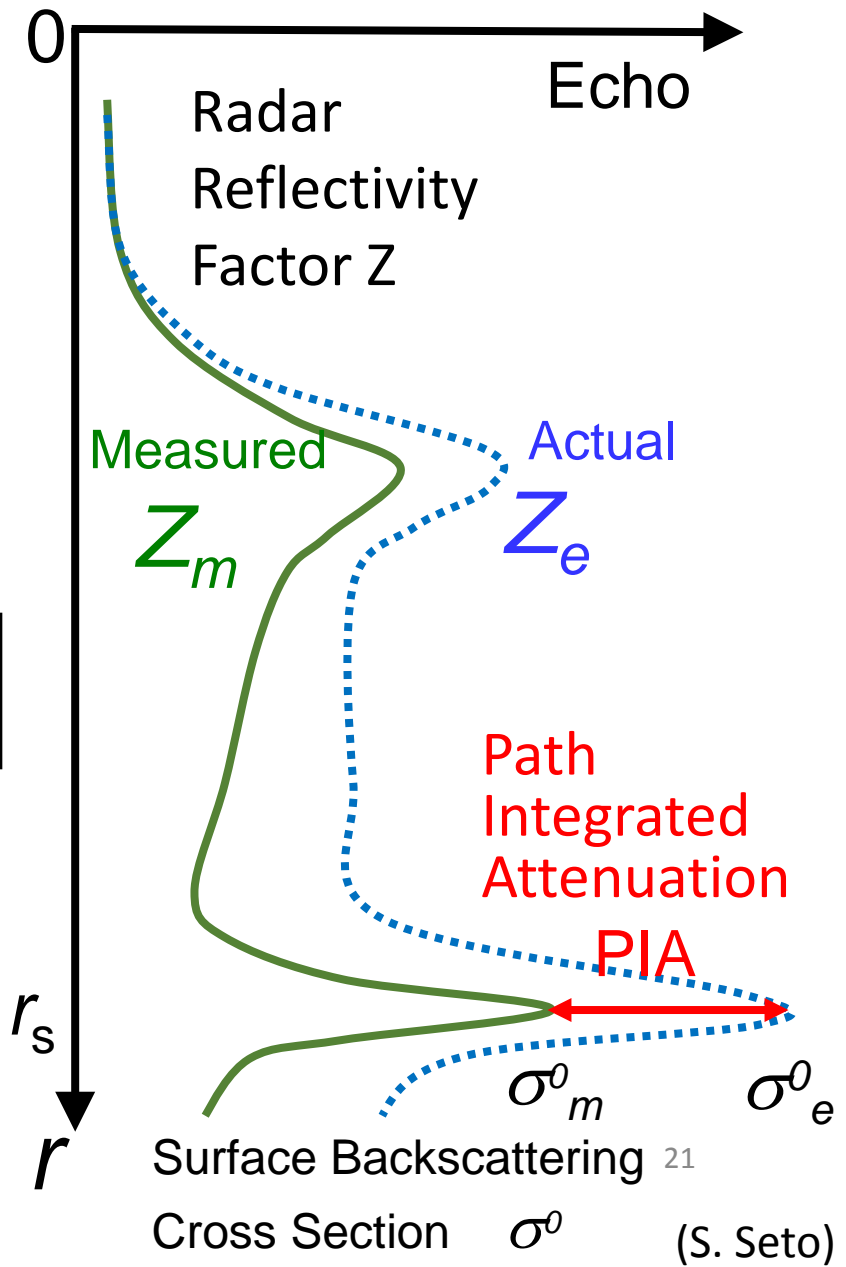
$$\zeta = 0.2 \beta_0 \ln(10) \int_0^{r_s} \alpha_0(s) Z_m(s)^{\beta_0} ds$$

$$\text{PIA}_{\text{HB}} = -\frac{10}{\beta_0} \log_{10}(1 - \zeta) \quad \text{Hitschfeld-Bordan (HB)}$$

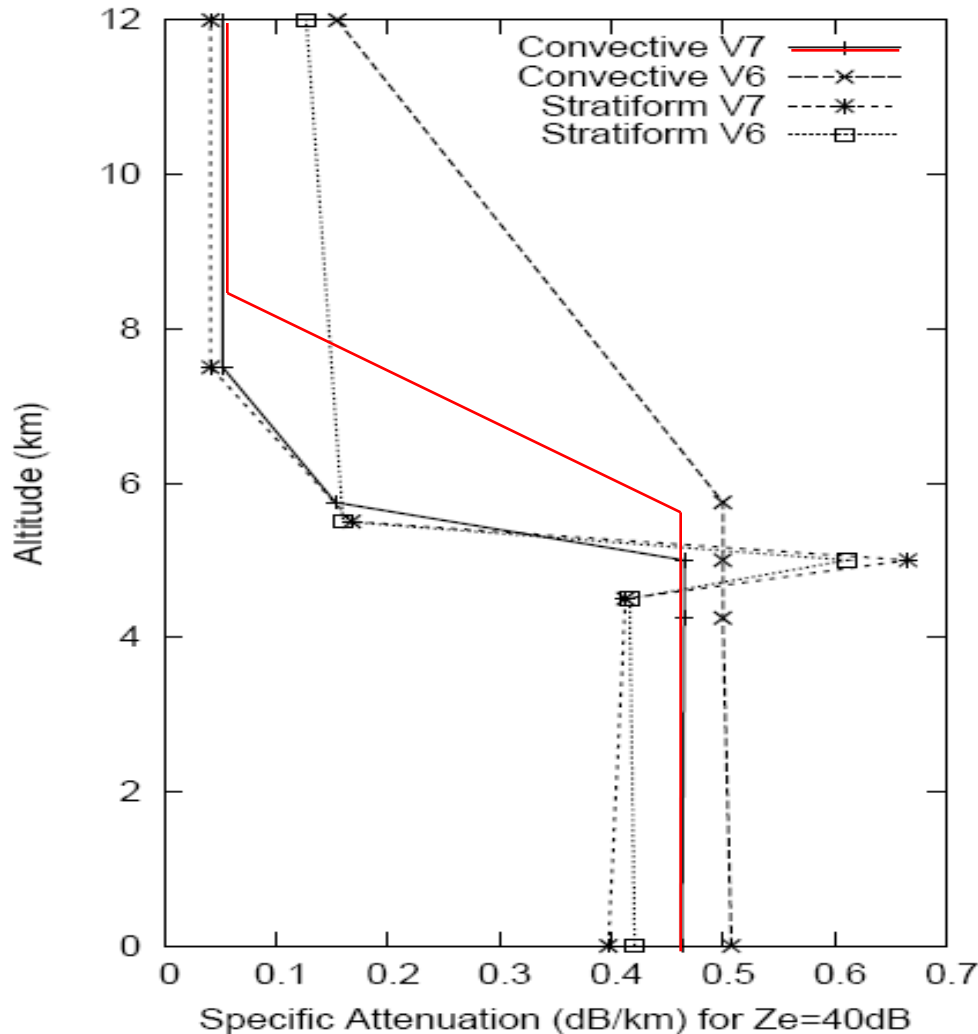
$$\text{PIA}_{\text{fin}} = -\frac{10}{\beta_0} \log_{10}(1 - \varepsilon \zeta) \quad \text{Bayesian}$$

$$\text{PIA}_{\text{SRT}} = \sigma_{\text{SRT}}^0 - \sigma_m^0 \quad \text{Surface Reference Technique (SRT)}$$

$\sigma_{\text{SRT}}^0$  is an estimate of  $\sigma_e^0$



# $k$ profiles for $Z_e=40$ dBZ



0 degree C height is assumed at 5 km

The lapse rate is assumed to be -6 degrees/km.

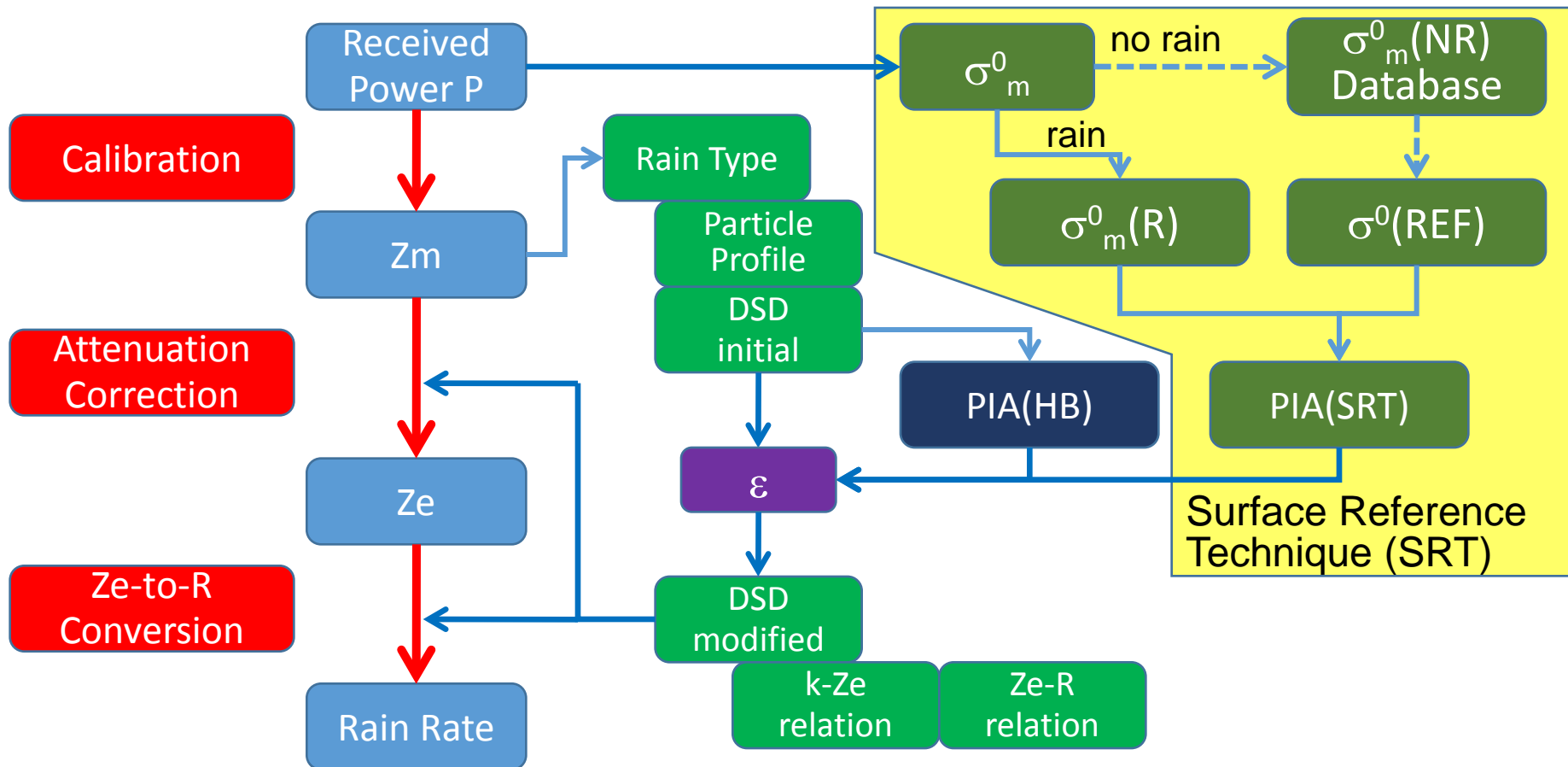
The assumed profile has been changed to the red line in V7 (ITE232).

(100% ice above the -20 degree level.)

It was the solid line before the change

(100% ice above the -15 degree level.)

# PR Algorithm Flow and adjustable parameters



- Calibration
- Particle model
  - DSD parameters
  - particle profile
    - BB model
    - snow model

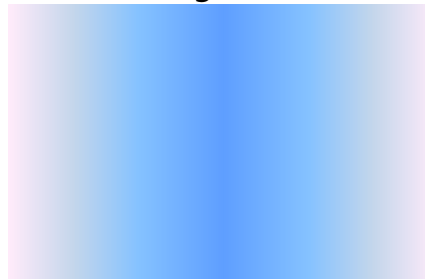
- Measurement errors
- PIA errors
- Rain profile in surface clutter
- Inhomogeneity

# Effect of non-uniform rain distribution

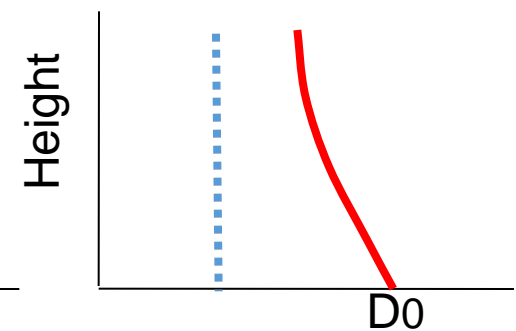
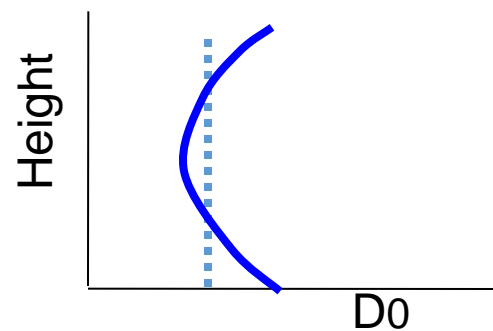
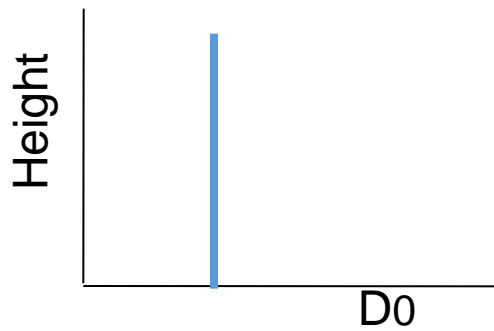
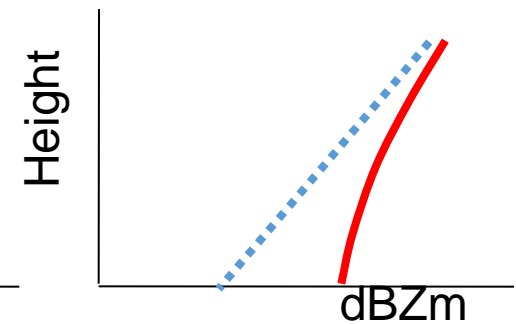
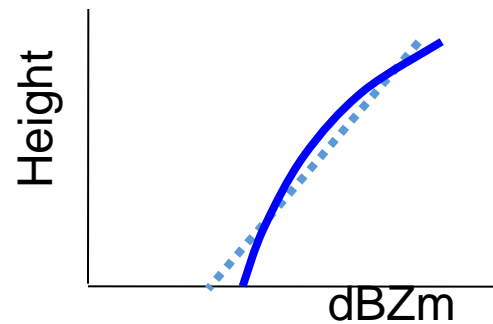
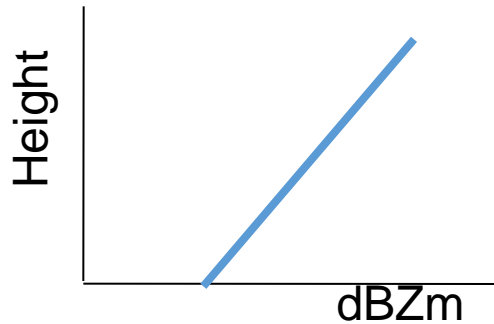
Uniform



Non-uniform, but vertically uniform



non-uniform

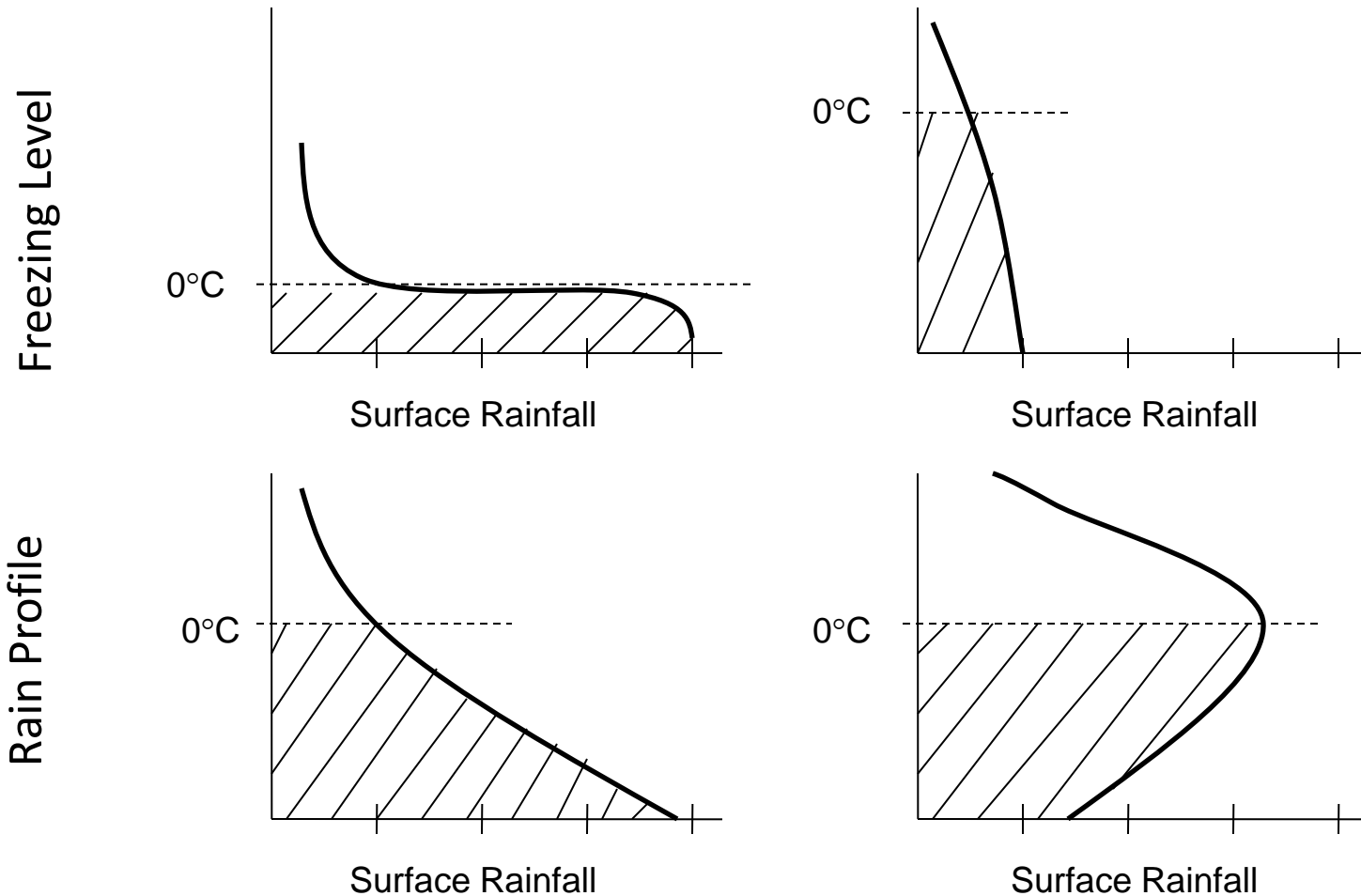




# Passive Microwave Retrievals

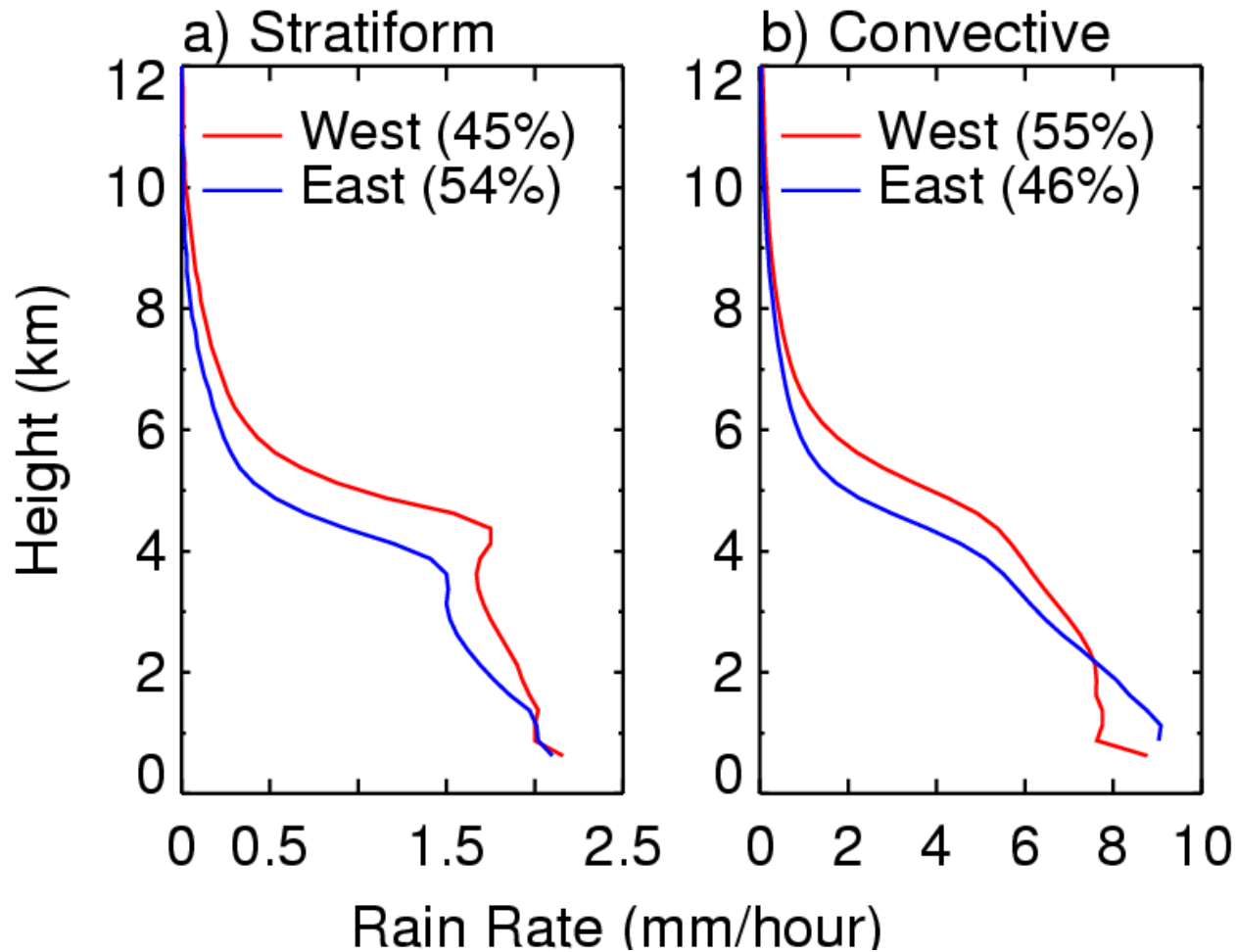
Column integrated water vs rainfall rate

Tb's in the low frequency channels of a microwave radiometer are proportional to the column integrated rain water content.



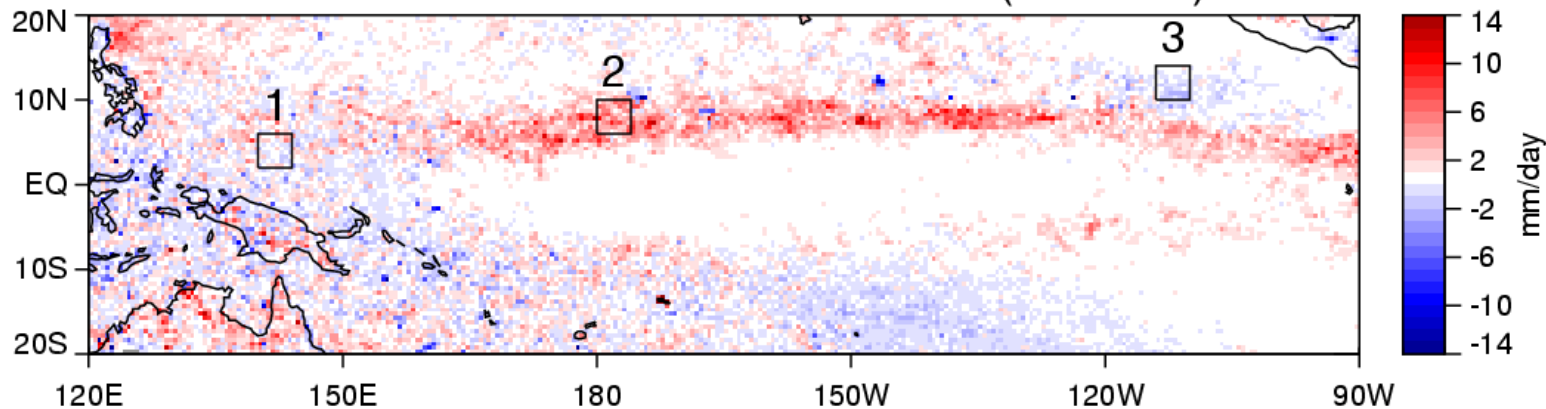
# Difference of mean vertical rain profile between eastern and western Pacific

Stratiform/Convective Rain Profiles

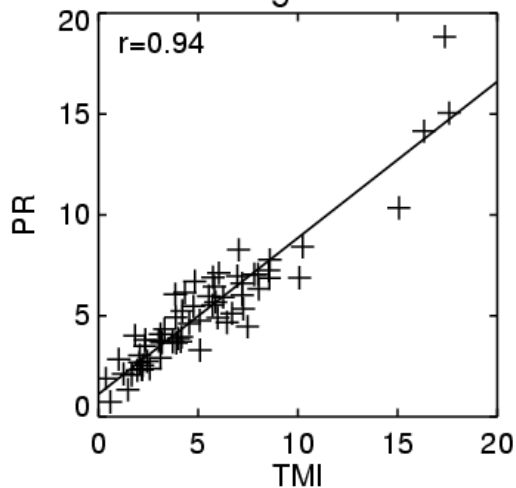


# PR and TMI Regional Validation

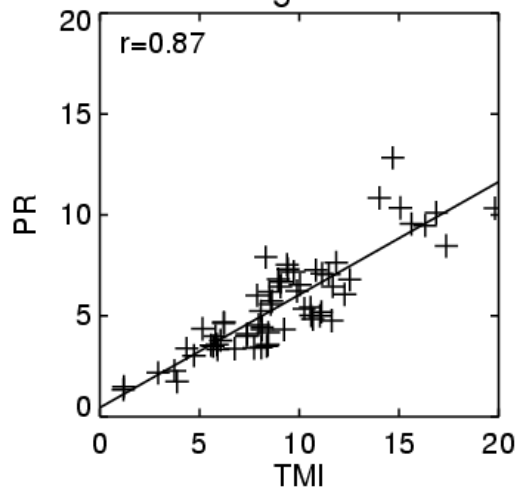
Dec-Jan-Feb 1999/2000 Rainfall Bias (TMI - PR)



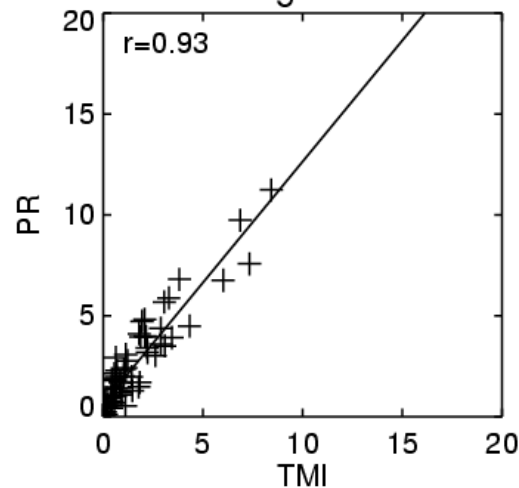
Region 1



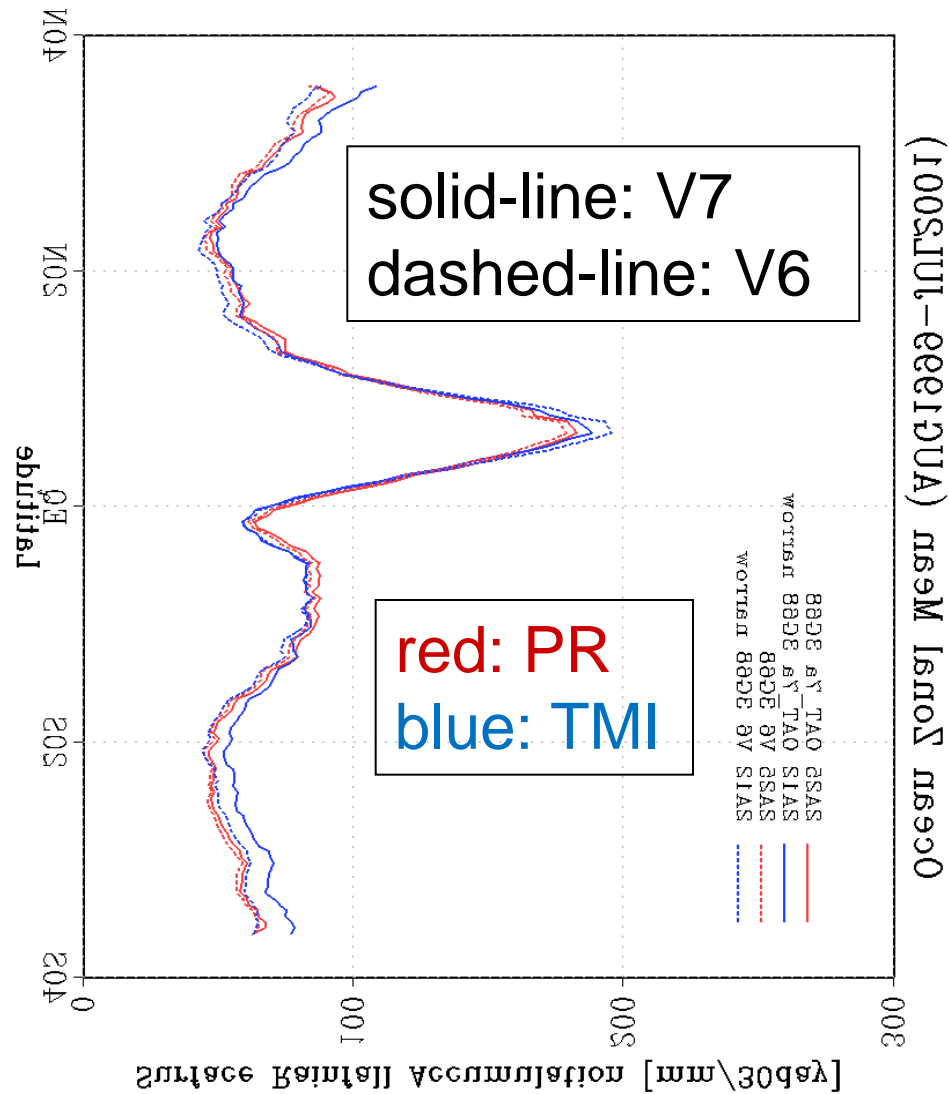
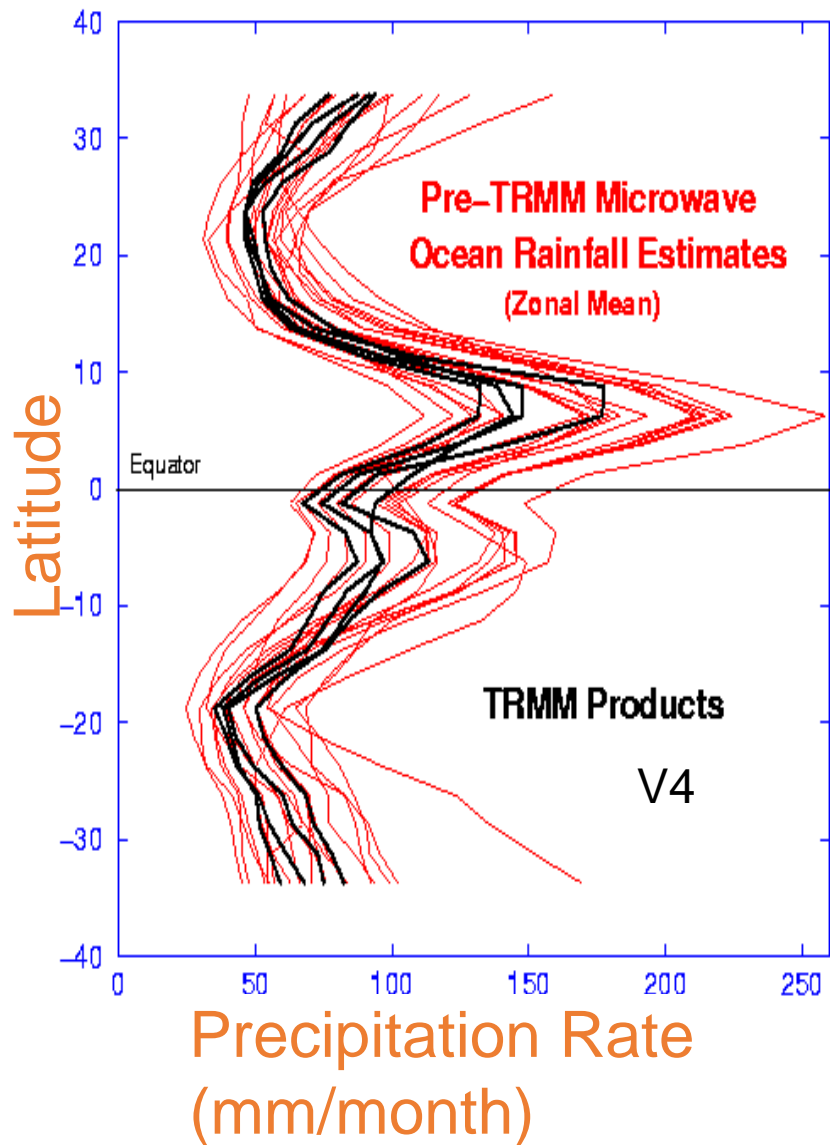
Region 2



Region 3



# Agreement with TMI



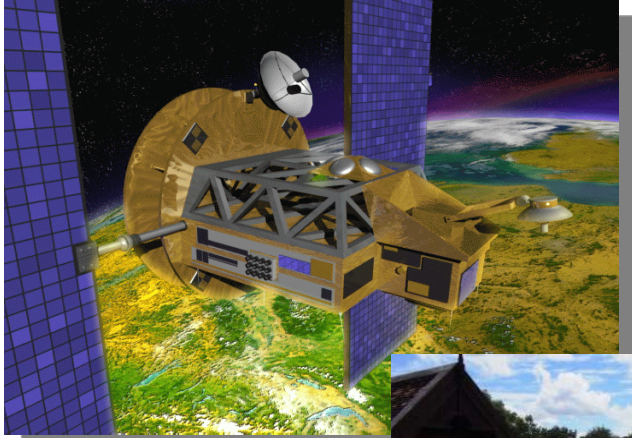
# TRMM's Achievements

- Demonstration of the world's first space-borne precipitation radar technology
- Scientific Achievements
  - Accurate observation of rain distribution in tropical and sub-tropical regions
  - Diurnal, annual, and long-term variations of precipitation
  - 3-dimensional rain structure (PR)
  - Accurate rain observations over ocean and land with equal quality (PR)
  - Improvement in weather forecasting with 4-D data assimilation
  - Sea Surface Temperature (SST) estimation through clouds
  - Estimation of soil moisture (PR)
- Successful cooperation between US and Japan

# Scientific and Social Significance of GPM

## Precision brought by DPR

- High sensitivity to detect weak rain and snow
- Accurate estimation of rainfall rate
- Separation of snow from rain
- Progress in cloud physics



## Global rain map in every 3 hours by GPM

- Climate change assessment
  - monitor variations in rainfall and rain areas associated with climate changes and global warming
- Improvement in weather forecasts
  - Quasi-real-time assimilation of data in numerical prediction models,
  - Improved flood prediction
- Water resource management
  - river, dam, agricultural water, etc.
- Agricultural production forecasting

# GPM(Global Precipitation Measurement)

## Purpose

Based on the incredible success of TRMM, GPM was planned to contribute for operational use of precipitation data (High accuracy and Temporally dense global precipitation data set). e.g. 3 hourly global precipitation dataset.

## Method

- (1) Gain the global coverage and temporally dense observation by multiple passive microwave imagers contributed from space agencies/operational agencies (JAXA, NASA, NOAA, etc.)
- (2) Accurate precipitation observation by the Core Satellite equips DPR and microwave imager.

## Observation system

Core satellite (Radar + Microwave imager) and Constellation satellites (imager or sounder)

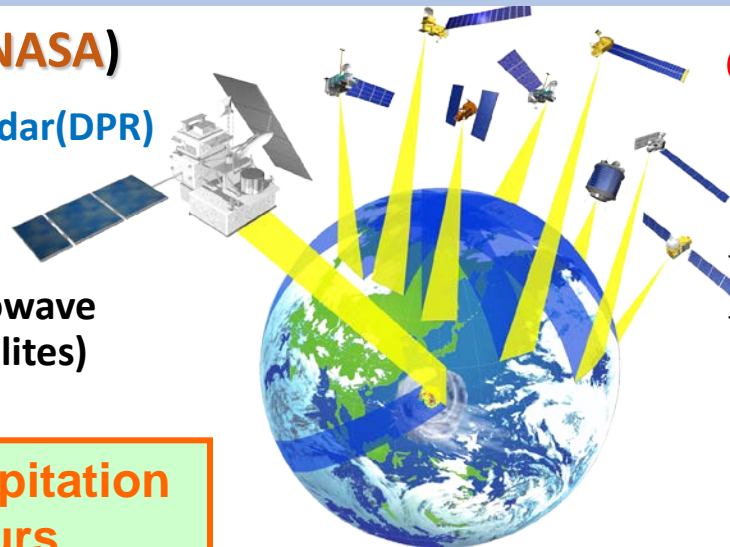
### Core Satellite (JAXA-NICT, NASA)

- Dual frequency precipitation radar(DPR)
- GPM Microwave imager (GMI)

- ✧ Accurate precip. observation
- ✧ Calibration to the passive microwave observation (constellation satellites)

### Constellation satellites (NOAA, NASA, JAXA, etc.)

- ✧ Microwave imager or sounder
- ✧ High frequency observation



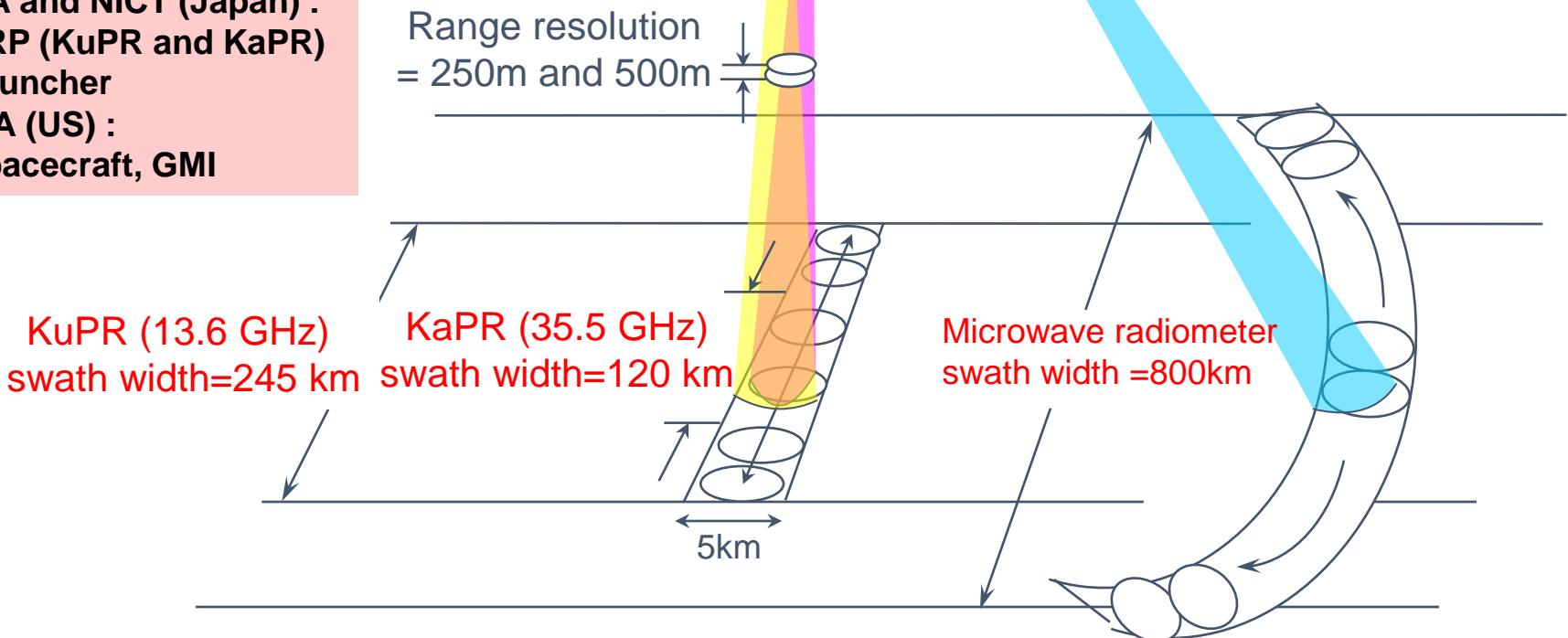
**Produce global precipitation map every 3 hours**



# Concept of precipitation measurement by the GPM core satellite

Dual-frequency precipitation radar (DPR) consists of  
Ku-band (13.6GHz) radar : **KuPR**  
and  
Ka-band (35.5GHz) radar : **KaPR**

JAXA and NICT (Japan) :  
DRP (KuPR and KaPR)  
Launcher  
NASA (US) :  
Spacecraft, GMI



Flight direction  
407 km altitude,  
65 deg inclination

DPR

GMI

Range resolution  
= 250m and 500m

KuPR (13.6 GHz)  
swath width=245 km

KaPR (35.5 GHz)  
swath width=120 km

Microwave radiometer  
swath width =800km

5km

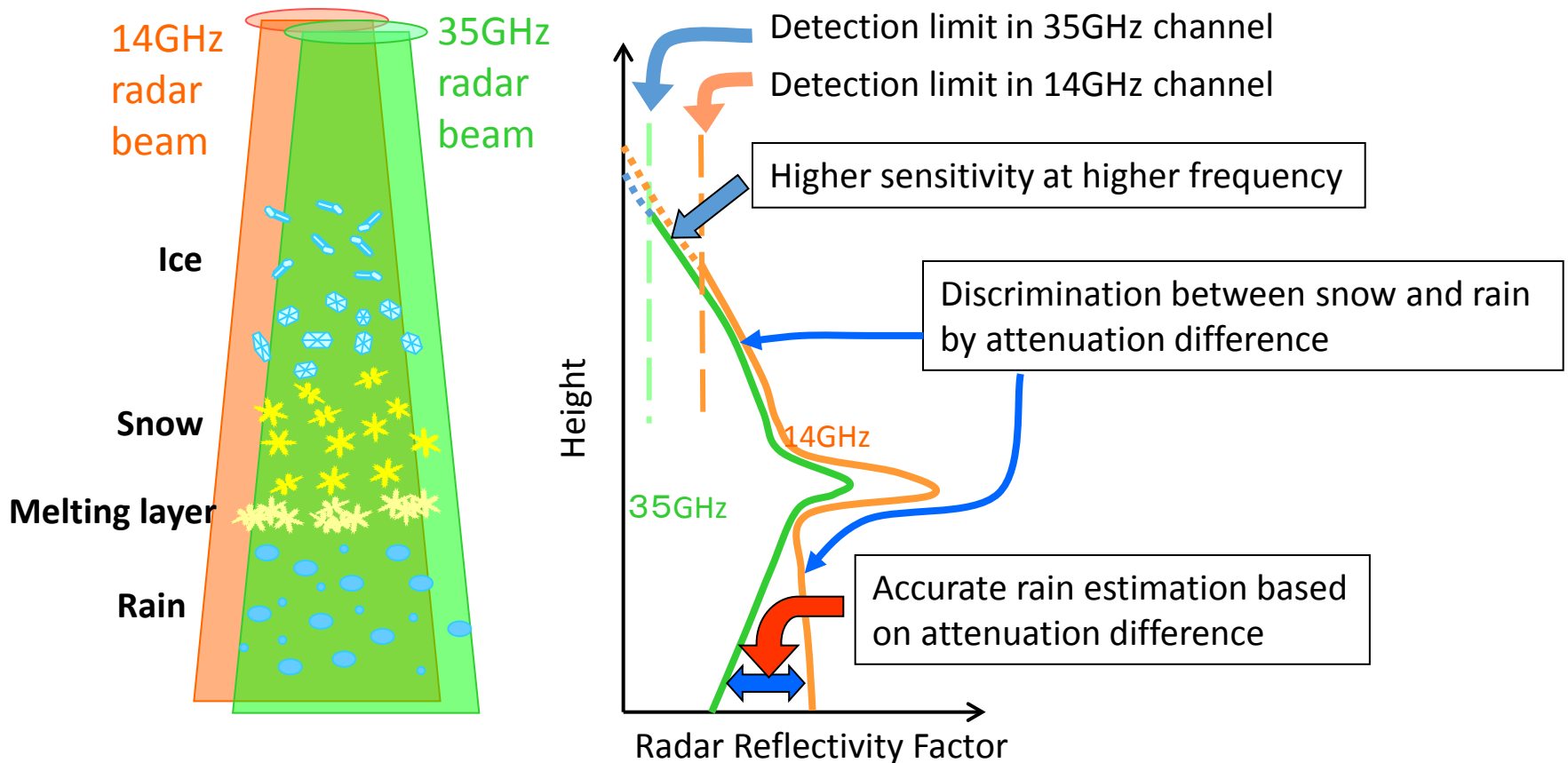


# Main Characteristics of DPR

| Item                             | GPM DPR                                       |   | TRMM PR                                 |
|----------------------------------|---|---|---|
|                                  | KuPR  | KaPR  |   |
| Antenna Type                     | Active Phased Array (128)                     | Active Phased Array (128)                     | Active Phased Array (128)               |
| Frequency                        | 13.597 & 13.603 GHz                           | 35.547 & 35.553 GHz                           | 13.796 & 13.802 GHz                     |
| Swath Width                      | 245 km  | 120 km  | 215 km                                  |
| Horizontal Reso                  | 5 km (at nadir)                               | 5 km (at nadir)                               | 4.3 km (at nadir)                       |
| Tx Pulse Width                   | 1.6 $\mu$ s (x2)                              | 1.6/3.2 $\mu$ s (x2)                          | 1.6 $\mu$ s (x2)                        |
| Range Reso                       | 250 m (1.67 $\mu$ s)                          | 250 m/500 m (1.67/3.34 $\mu$ s)               | 250m                                    |
| Observation Range                | 18 km to -5 km<br>(mirror image around nadir) | 18 km to -3 km<br>(mirror image around nadir) | 15km to -5km<br>(mirror image at nadir) |
| PRF                              | VPRF (4206 Hz $\pm$ 170 Hz)                   | VPRF (4275 Hz $\pm$ 100 Hz)                   | Fixed PRF (2776Hz)                      |
| Sampling Num                     | 104~112                                       | 108~112                                       | 64                                      |
| Tx Peak Power                    | > 1013 W                                      | > 146 W                                       | > 500 W                                 |
| Min Detect Ze<br>(Rainfall Rate) | < 18 dBZ<br>( < 0.5 mm/hr )                   | < 12 dBZ (500m res)<br>( < 0.2 mm/hr )        | < 18 dBZ<br>( < 0.7 mm/hr )             |
| Measure Accuracy                 | within $\pm$ 1 dB                             | within $\pm$ 1 dB                             | within $\pm$ 1 dB                       |
| Data Rate                        | < 112 Kbps                                    | < 78 Kbps                                     | < 93.5 Kbps                             |
| Mass                             | < 365 kg                                      | < 300 kg                                      | < 465 kg                                |
| Power Consumption                | < 383 W                                       | < 297 W                                       | < 250 W                                 |
| Size                             | 2.4 $\times$ 2.4 $\times$ 0.6 m               | 1.44 $\times$ 1.07 $\times$ 0.7 m             | 2.2 $\times$ 2.2 $\times$ 0.6 m         |

\* Minimum detectable rainfall rate is defined by  $Z_e=200 R^{1.6}$  (TRMM/PR:  $Z_e=372.4 R^{1.54}$ )

# Dual Frequency Precipitation Radar



Measure 3-D structure of rain as TRMM, but with better sensitivity

Accumulate climatological precipitation data continuously since TRMM

**Improve estimation accuracy with dual-frequency radar**

Identification of hydrometer type

Estimation of DSD parameters

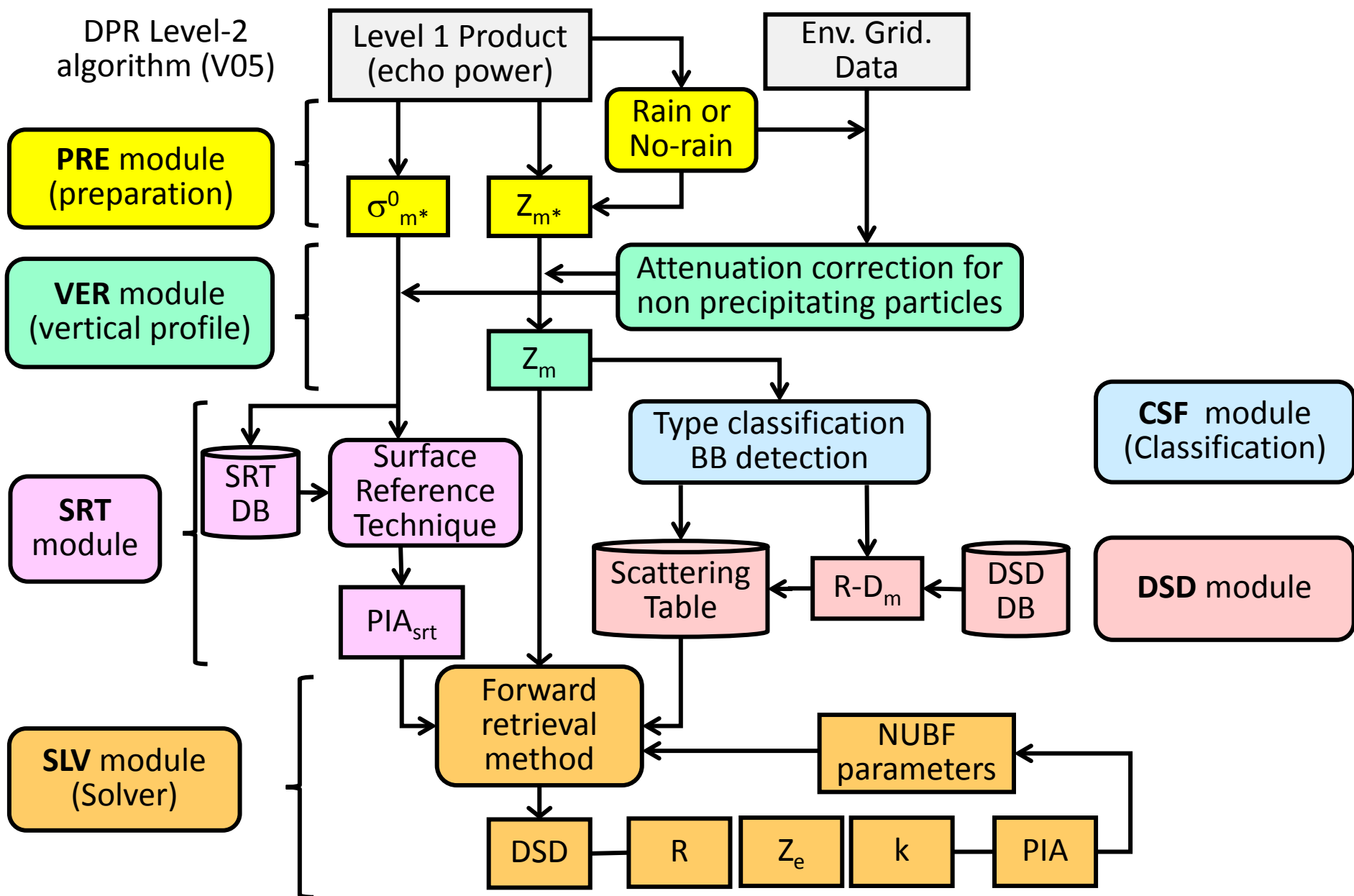
# GPM DPR algorithm development

- Basic flow is the same with TRMM PR
  - Judge the storm type (convective or stratiform)
  - Estimate phase state of precipitation at each height
  - Attenuation corrections to estimate  $Z_e(\text{Ka})$  and  $Z_e(\text{Ku})$
  - Combine  $Z_e(\text{Ka})$  and  $Z_e(\text{Ku})$  to estimate 2 DSD parameters
- New information from GPM DPR
  - $Z_m$  profiles at two frequencies
  - $\sigma^0$  (or PIA estimate) at two frequencies ( $\sigma^0(\text{Ka})$  and  $\sigma^0(\text{Ku})$ )
  - Denser horizontal samples in Ka band (interlaced scans)
  - higher sensitivity
  - larger observation area (high latitudes)

# Special Concerns in Rain Profiling Algorithms for DPR

- Attenuation correction is essential
  - Attenuation by precipitation is not negligible.
    - In particular, Ka-band radar
    - $k$ -Z relation for rain attenuation (H-B solution)
  - Attenuation by CLW and WV is not negligible.
    - **Cloud liquid water:  $Att(Ka) = 10 * Att(Ku)$ , up to 5 dB**
    - **Water vapor:  $Att(Ka) = 5 * Att(Ku)$ , up to 1.5 dB near surface**
    - **Oxygen:  $Att(ka) = 5 * Att(Ku)$ , 0.4 dB near surface**
  - Use of surface reference technique (SRT) helps.
    - But, SR is not always available or reliable
- Type of particles (rain, snow, graupel, etc.) and their physical and electromagnetic properties need to be known (or assumed).
- Inhomogeneity of rain within IFOV
  - Entangled with apparent attenuation, etc.

# GPM/DPR level-2 algorithm flow (V05)



# Basic Idea of Meneghini's DF Algorithm

- $2N(+2)$  observables ( $2N$  of  $Z_m$  (and 2 of  $\Delta\sigma^0$ )) to estimate RR at  $N$  range gates.
  - If the relations among  $Z$ ,  $R$  and  $k$  were constant,  $R$  would be overdetermined.
  - In fact,  $Z$ ,  $R$  and  $k$  are functions of many parameters (DSD, phase, shape, temp., vertical air velocity, non-uniformity, etc.)
- Parameterize DSD with two variables.
  - E.g.,  $N_0$  and  $D_0$ ,  $N_0^*$  and  $D_0$
- Estimate these two parameters at each gate.
  - $2N$  estimates from  $2N(+2)$  observables
- All other parameters are fixed.
  - E.g. shape parameter in DSD, phase, temp, etc.
- Calculate  $R$  with the estimated parameters.
- Needs initial conditions (e.g., attenuations at a range)

$$N(D) = N_0 f(D : D_0)$$

$$Z_{e\lambda} = c_{Z\lambda} \int \sigma_{b\lambda}(D) N(D) dD$$

$$= N_0 I_{b\lambda}(D_0)$$

$$k_\lambda = c_k \int \sigma_{t\lambda}(D) N(D) dD$$

$$= c_k N_0 I_{t\lambda}(D_0)$$

$$Z_{m\lambda}(r) = A_\lambda(r) Z_{e\lambda}(r)$$

$$A_\lambda(r) = \exp\left(-\frac{2}{c_k} \int_0^r k_\lambda(s) ds\right)$$

At each range,  $r$ ,

$$Z_e(r; Ka) / Z_e(r; Ku) \Rightarrow D_0(r)$$

$$Z_e(r; Ku), D_0(r) \Rightarrow N_0(r)$$

$$D_0(r), N_0(r) \Rightarrow R(r), k(r; Ka), k(r; Ku)$$

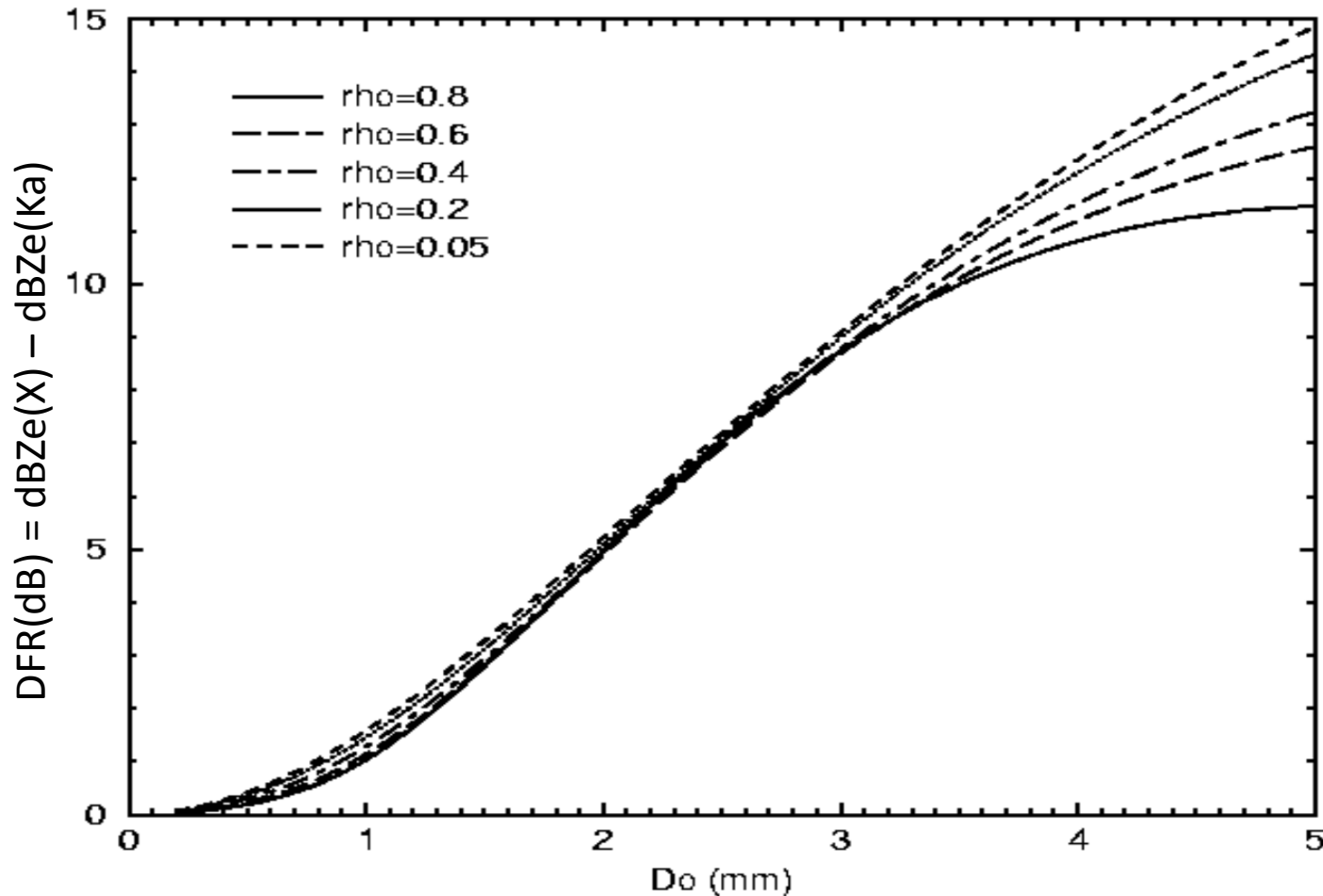
Range  $r$  to  $r+\Delta r$

$$k(r; Ka), Z_e(r; Ka), Z_m(r+\Delta r; Ka) \Rightarrow Z_e(r+\Delta r; Ka)$$

$$k(r; Ku), Z_e(r; Ku), Z_m(r+\Delta r; Ku) \Rightarrow Z_e(r+\Delta r; Ku)$$

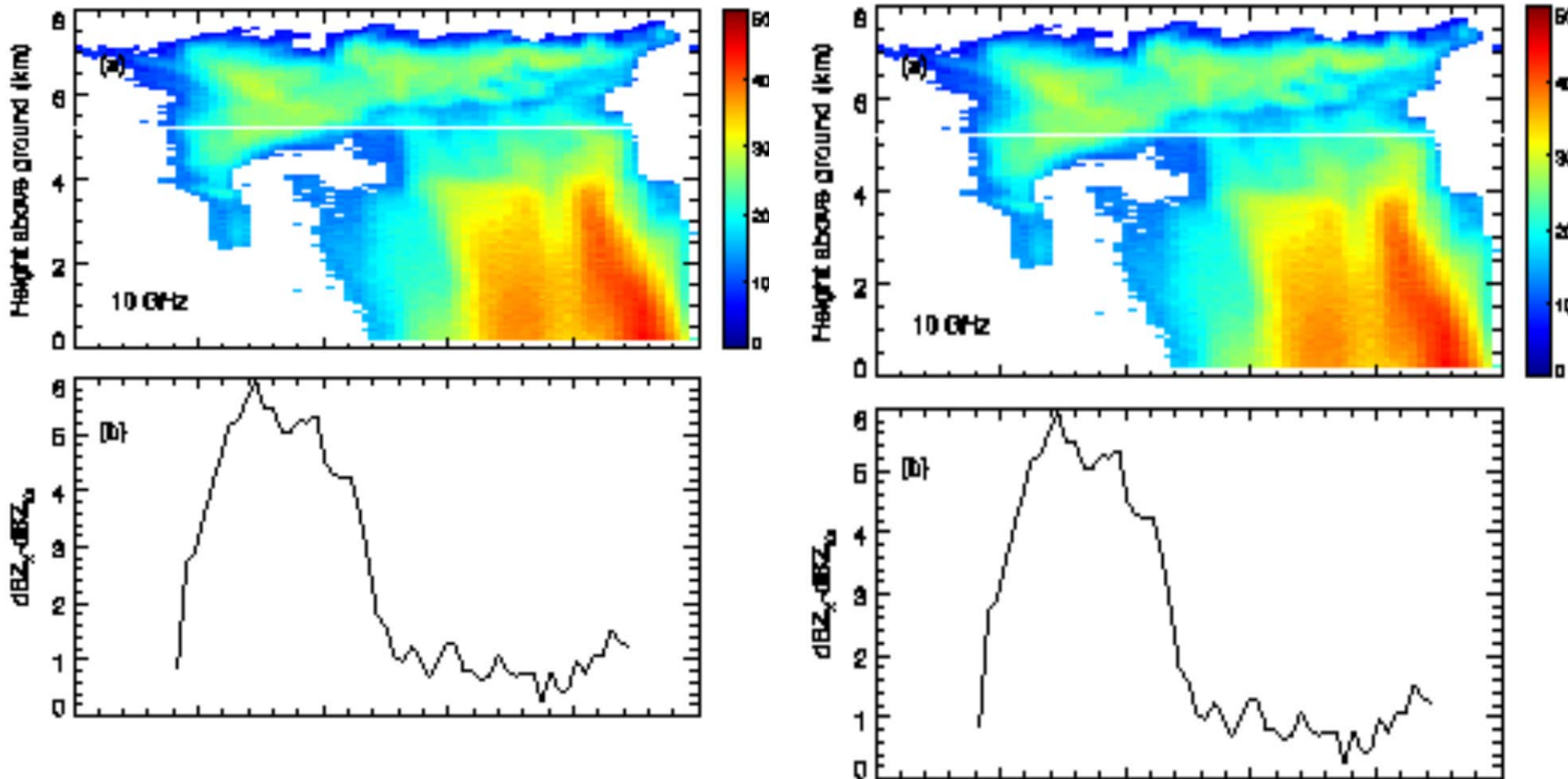
Iterate

# Dual-Frequency Ratio (DFR) for snow



DFR at X and Ka bands versus snow  $D_0$  for several snow densities for  $\mu$  equal to 2.

(Liao et al. 2003)



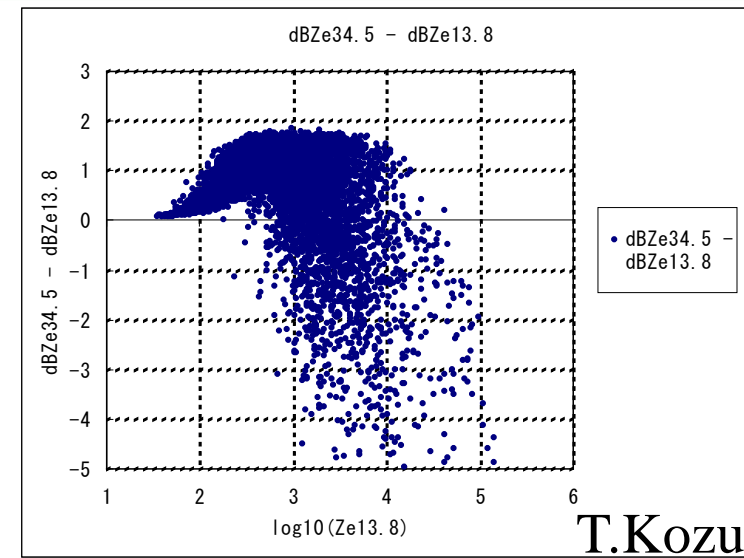
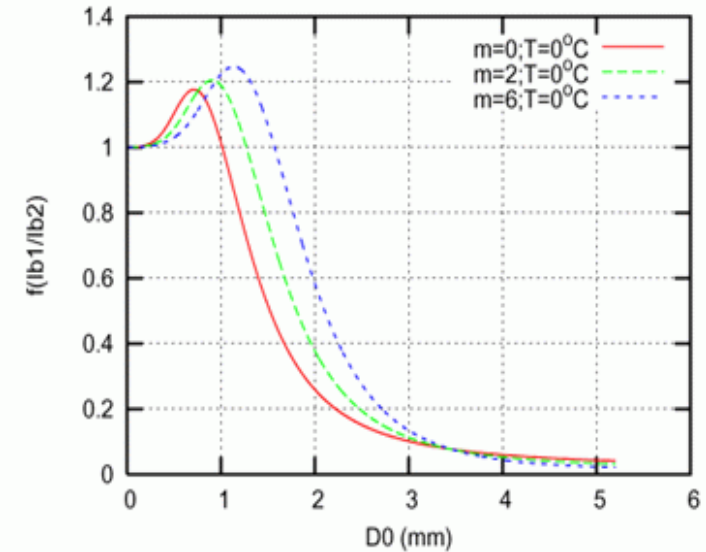
Airborne radar measurements over a weak convective cell and retrievals of the size distributions in comparisons with the in-situ particle measurements: (a) T-39 radar measured reflectivity at nadir along the flight track shown in Fig.2, (b) DFR of X and Ka bands at the altitude where the T-28 flew, as indicated by the white line in Fig.3a, (c) comparisons of  $D_0$  between the radar estimated and the 2D-P measured results and (d) similar comparisons for  $N_T$ .

(Liao et al. 2003)



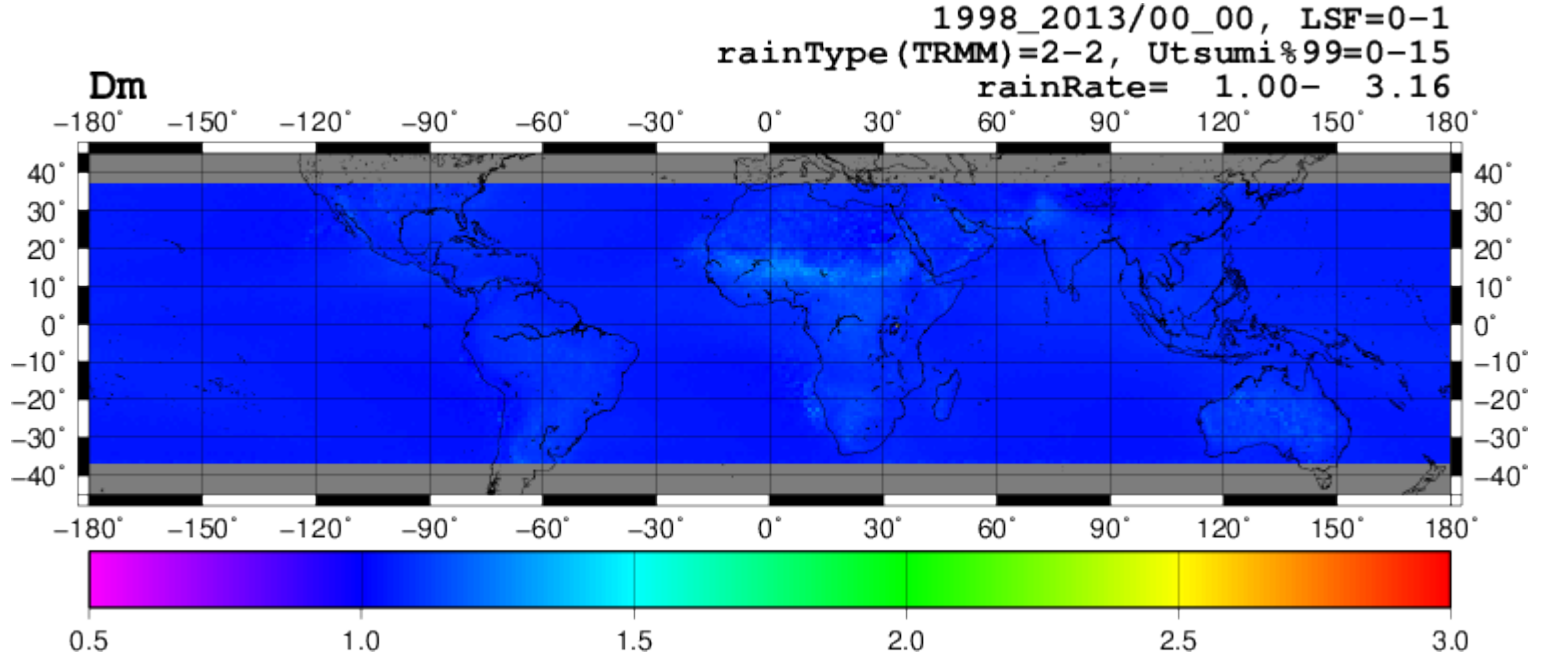
# Characteristics of DF algorithm (Ze-ratio method)

- can estimate **two DSD parameters** at each range bin.
- generally works well under the given assumptions (SRT available, no NUBF effect, etc.)
  - Random noise or quantization error in  $P_r$  does not cause a serious bias error in retrieval.
- Issues:
  - Multiple solutions possible for liquid particles
  - **Choice of DSD model** (Closeness of model DSD to actual DSD)
    - Actual variation of DSD is rather large (A. Tokay, N. Adhikari)
  - separation of solid (ice) phase from liquid phase
  - inhomogeneity of rain within footprint
  - beam mismatching
  - attenuation caused by CLW and water vapor

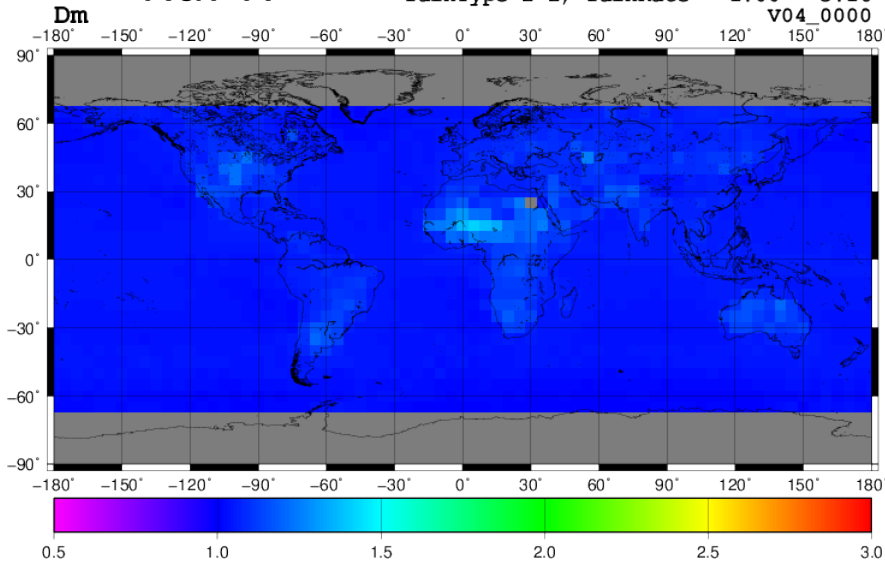


# Convective, $1 < R(\text{mm/h}) < 3.2$

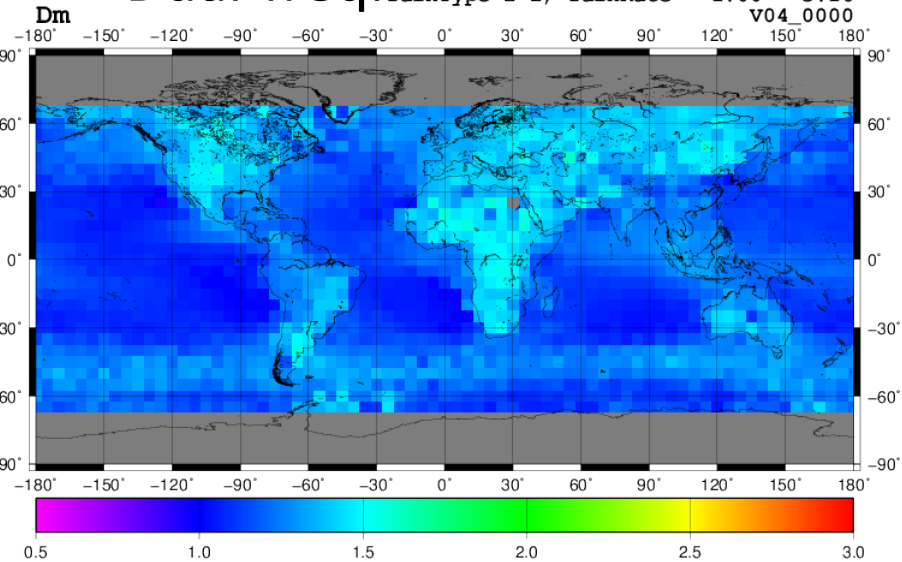
PR



NS1 KuPR



NS2 Dual-freq.

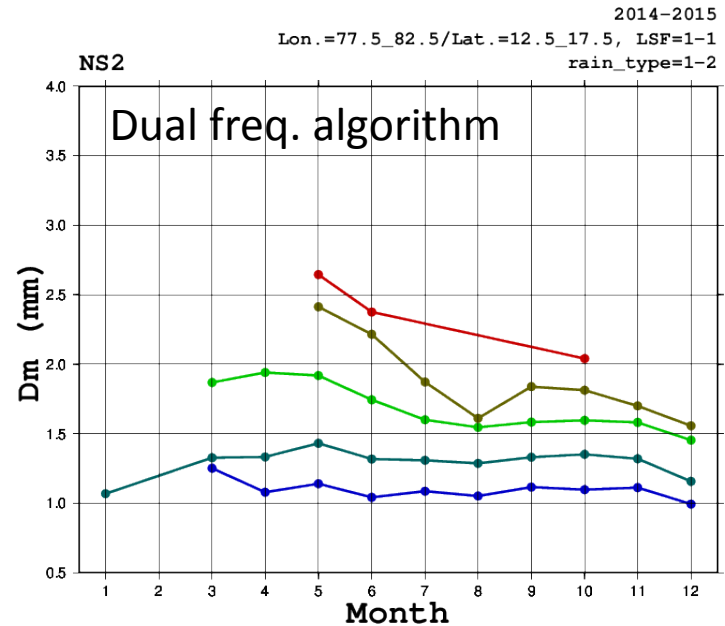
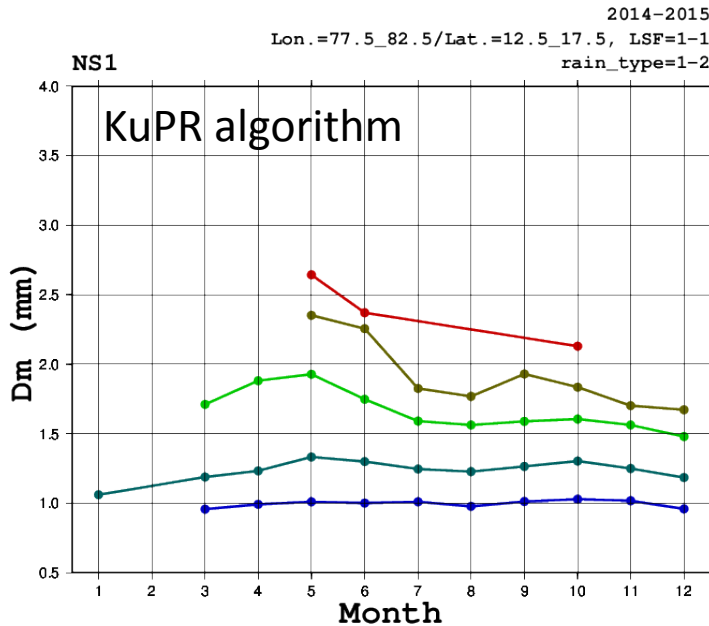
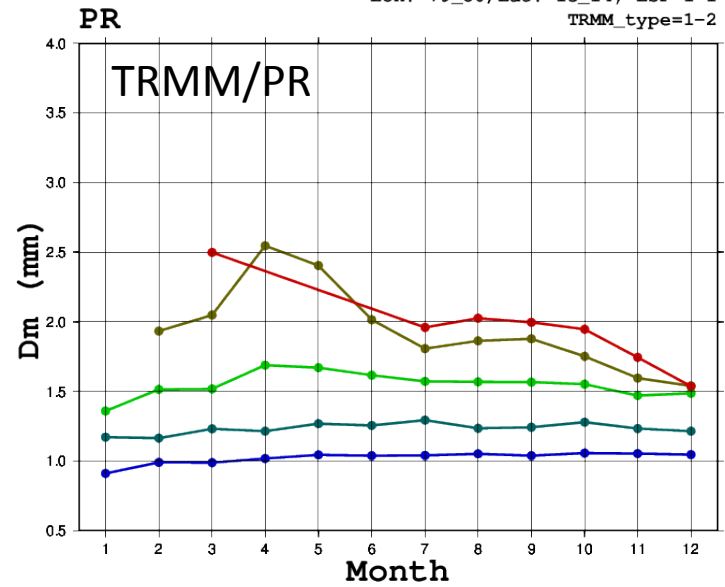
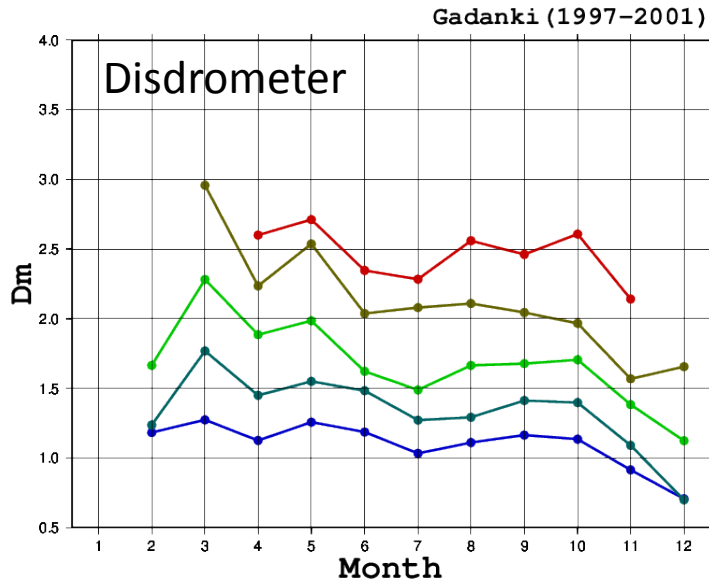


# Gadanki, India

(S. Seto)

0.32<R<1 1<R<3.2 3.2<R<10 10<R<32 32<R<100

1998-2013  
Lon.=79\_80/Lat.=13\_14, LSF=1-1  
TRMM\_type=1-2

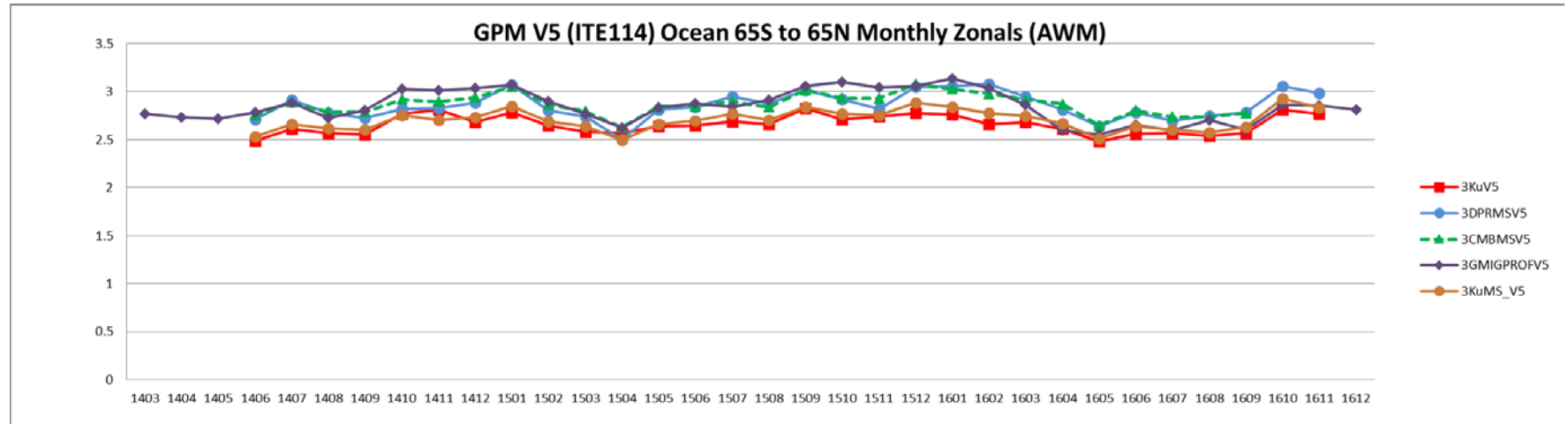


# GPM V5 Test Products

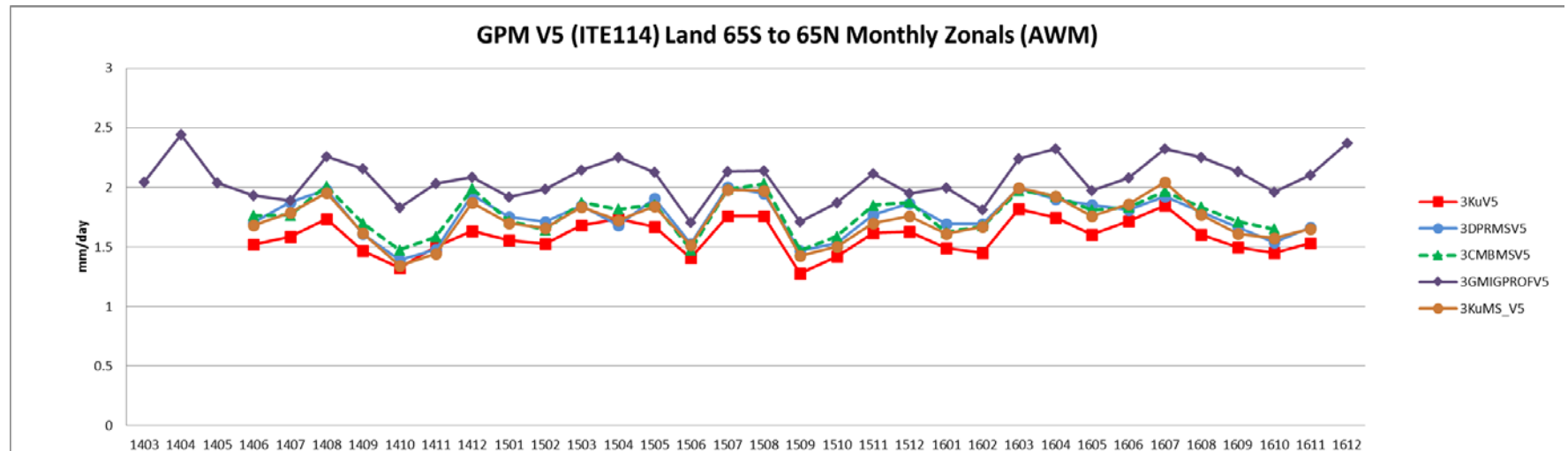
(J. Kwiatkowski)

KuMS is the Ku ifovs within the DPR MS scan

## Ocean



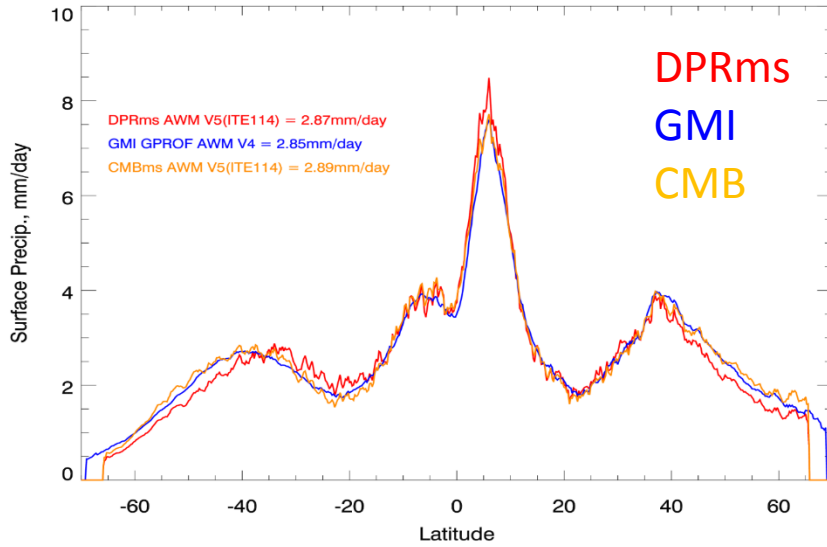
## Land



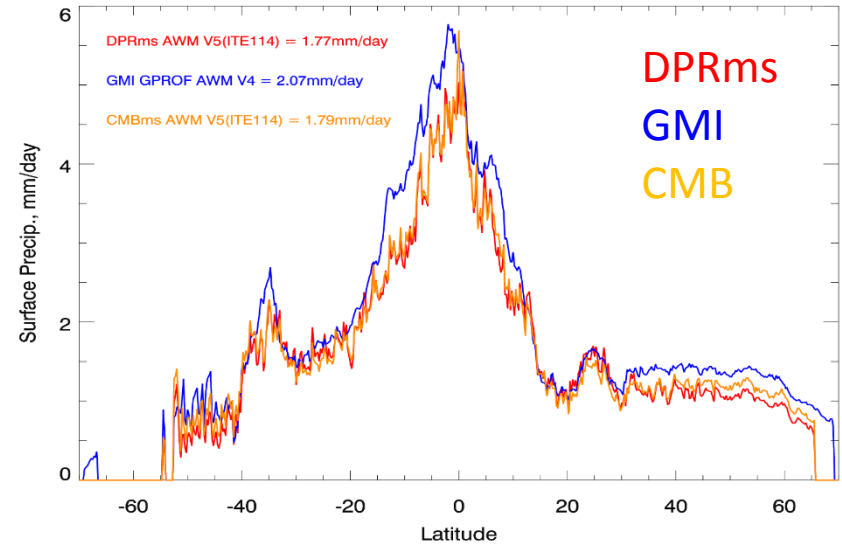
# 2-Year Zonals V5

(J. Kwiatkowski)

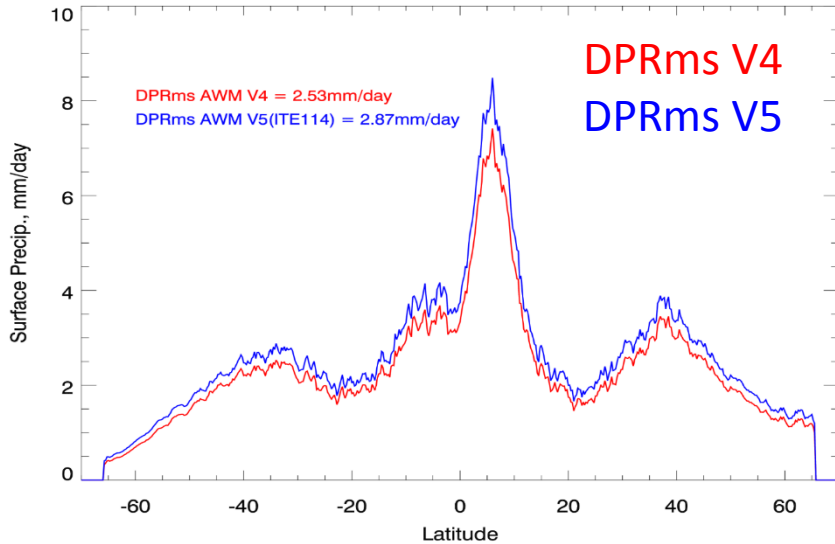
2-Year Ocean Zonal V5(ITE114) 12/14-11/16



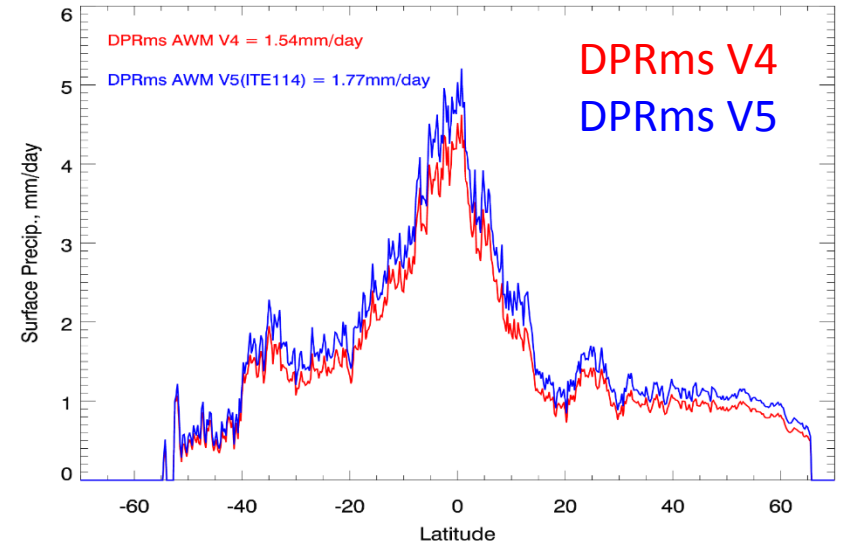
2-Year Land Zonal V5(ITE114) 12/14-11/16



2-Year Ocean Zonal, DPRms V4, V5(ITE114) 12/14-11/16

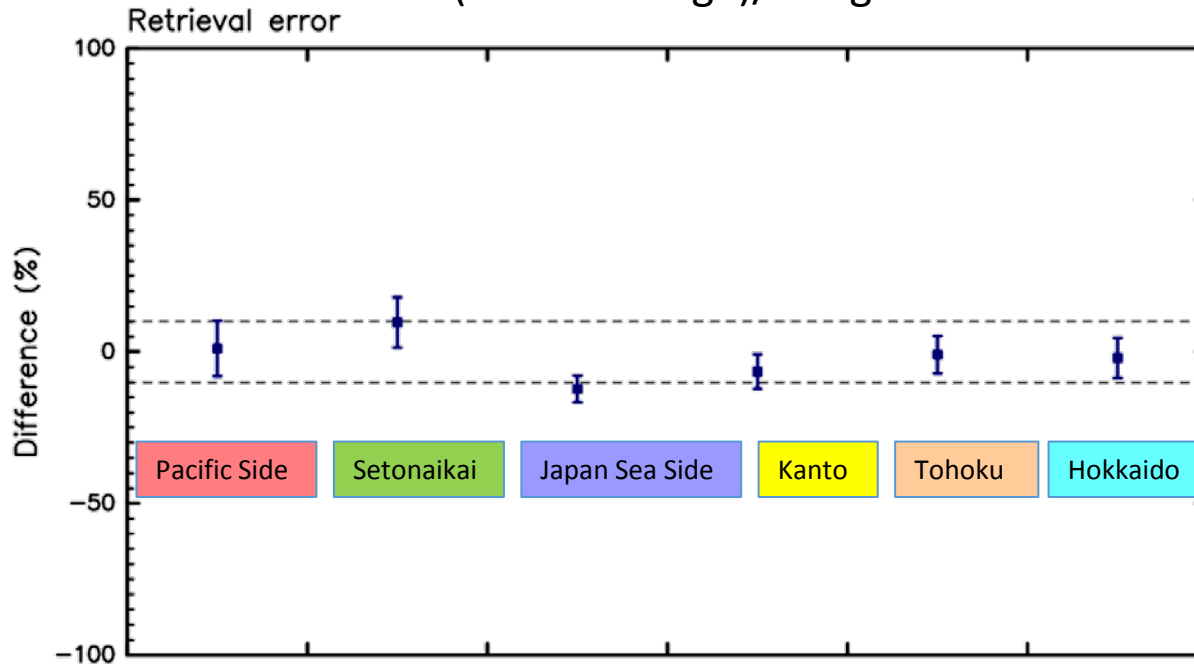


2-Year Land Zonal, DPRms V4, V5(ITE114) 12/14-11/16



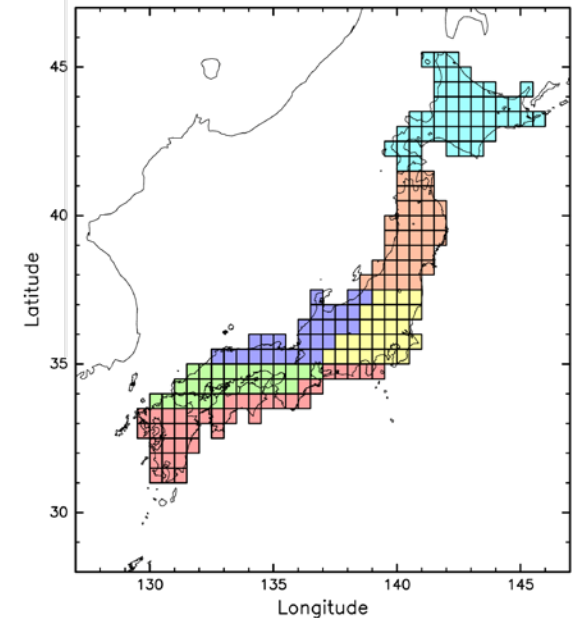
# Comparisons of KuPR rain estimates with AMeDAS rain gauge data

$(\text{KuPR} - \text{Gauge})/\text{Gauge}$



6 areas

1. Hokkaido (No. of boxes: 45)
2. Tohoku (34)
3. Kanto (27)
4. Sea of Japan side (27)
5. Inland Sea area (27)
6. Pacific Ocean side (39)

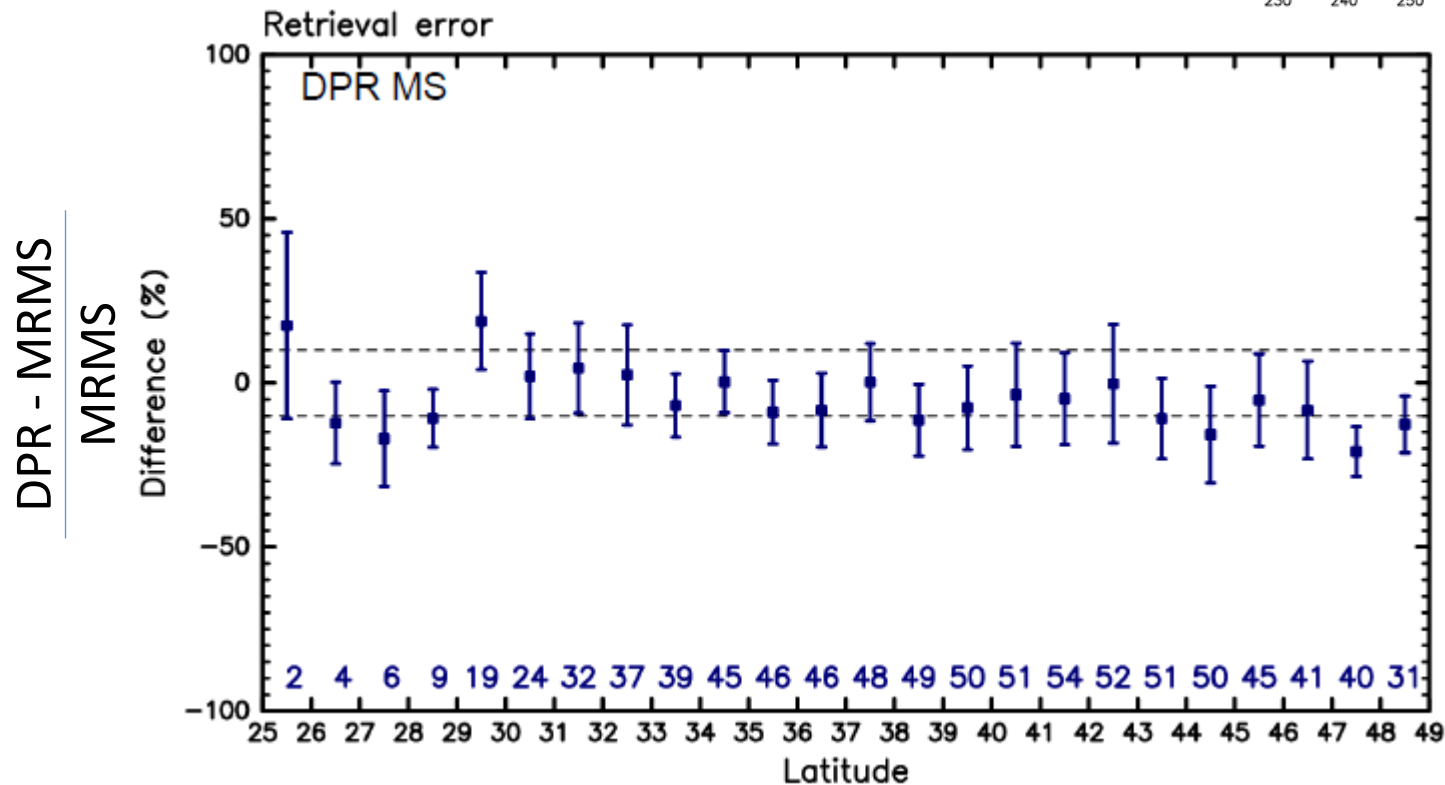
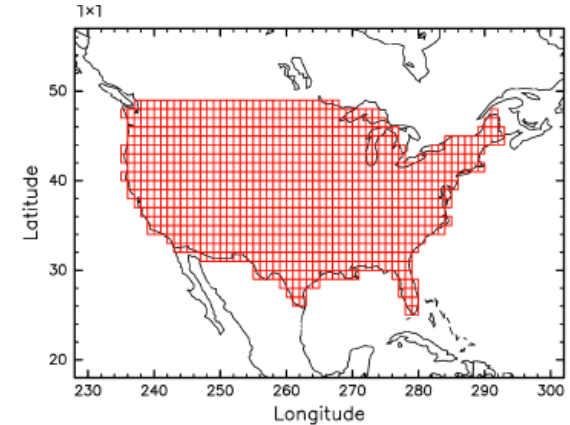


- Two years of data from June 2014 to May 2016
- AMeDAS data at overpasses only
- Gauge data are 10 min data immediately after the overpasses
- Rain total is estimated at each  $0.5 \times 0.5$  deg. box, and means and standard deviations of 6 colored areas are calculated.
- To exclude snow fall data, if the surface temperature is below 6 degrees, data in that box are not used.

(N. Kawamoto)

# Zonal rain comparison: DPR(MS) (ITE113) and MRMS MNQ

- June 2014 – May 2015
- MRMS: 0.01 deg, hourly data,
  - DPR overpass time only



(N. Kawamoto)

# Factors that may affect the rain estimates from space-borne radar data

- Principles of radar measurement of rain
  - Conversion of received power ( $P_r$ ) to apparent radar reflectivity factor ( $Z_m$ ) (Calibration of instrument)
  - Conversion of  $Z_m$  into effective radar reflectivity factor ( $Z_e$ ) (attenuation correction)
  - Conversion from  $Z_e$  to rain rate ( $R$ )
- Scattering and extinction characteristics of precipitation particles and their vertical distribution (Type of precipitation: rain, snow, graupel, hail, etc.)
  - Drop size distribution (DSD)
  - Phase state, density (Mixing formula)
  - Shape and canting angle
  - Temperature (refractive index)
- Fall velocity of precipitation particles (size, density, shape, vertical wind)
- Inhomogeneity of rain (Non-uniform distribution of rain)
- Scattering characteristics of sea and land surfaces
- Attenuation due to constituents other than precipitation itself
  - Clouds, water vapor, other gasses
- Effect of multiple scattering (Ka band and above)



# Future Issues

- Statistics of PSD (Particle Size Distribution) shows a clear difference between rain over ocean and rain over land.
  - The current algorithm assumes common PSD parameters over ocean and land for each storm type.
  - There are more small drops than the assumed PSD over ocean and the opposite over land.
  - Possibility of defining regionally dependent PSD models from the knowledge we accumulated in the past.
- Orographic rain.
  - Vertical structure of orographic rain may differ substantially from other types of rain.
  - Estimating surface rain from the rain echoes at altitude much higher than the surface involves a large error.
  - Poor performance of SRT in mountainous regions amplifies the issue.
- Non-uniformity of rain distribution within a footprint remains to be a very complex but important issue to be solved in the future.

# Summary

- TRMM/PR realized radar measurement of precipitation from space for the first time.
- Both TRMM/PR and GPM/DPR provide us with 3D distribution of precipitation globally (but with limited space-time sampling).
- Comparisons of radiometer data with radar data improved the rain retrieval algorithm of radiometer substantially.
- TRMM and GPM data are used in many fields of scientific study and practical applications.
- Improvement of precipitation retrieval algorithms need improved knowledge of microphysics and storm structures.
- Collaborations between algorithm developers and data assimilators will benefit the progress in improvement of studies in both fields.

Thank you for your attention

