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# WIVERN: a new satellite concept to provide global in-cloud winds, precipitation and cloud properties.

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1	WIVERN: A new satellite concept to provide global in-cloud winds,
2	precipitation and cloud properties.
3	AllBOY - NOTION
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## 30 ABSTRACT

31 This paper presents a conically scanning space-borne Dopplerized 94GHz radar Earth 32 Science mission concept, WIVERN, 'Wind VElocity Radar Nephoscope'. WIVERN aims to 33 provide global measurements of in-cloud winds using the Doppler shifted radar returns from 34 hydrometeors. The conically scanning radar could provide wind data with daily revisits 35 poleward of 50°, 50-km horizontal resolution and approximately 1km vertical resolution. The measured winds, when assimilated into weather forecasts and provided they are 36 37 representative of the larger scale mean flow, should lead to further improvements in the 38 accuracy and effectiveness of forecasts of severe weather and better focusing of activities to 39 limit damage and loss of life. It should also be possible to characterize the more variable 40 winds associated with local convection. Polarization diversity would be used to enable high 41 wind speeds to be unambiguously observed; analysis indicates that artifacts associated with 42 polarization diversity are rare and can be identified. Winds should be measurable down to 1 43 km above the ocean surface and 2 km over land. The potential impact of the WIVERN winds 44 on reducing forecast errors is estimated by comparison with the known positive impact of 45 cloud motion and aircraft winds. The main thrust of WIVERN is observing in-cloud winds, but WIVERN should also provide global estimates of ice water content, cloud cover and 46 47 vertical distribution continuing the data series started by CloudSat with the conical scan 48 giving increased coverage. As with CloudSat, estimates of rainfall and snowfall rates should 49 be possible. These non-wind products may also have a positive impact when assimilated into 50 weather forecasts.

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### CAPSULE (20-30 words)

- A new satellite concept with a conically scanning W-band Doppler radar to provide in-cloud
  winds, together with estimates of global rainfall, snowfall and cloud properties.
- 56

57 According to the World Meteorological Organization (WMO), wind-storms are by far the 58 largest contributor to economic losses caused by weather related hazards, resulting in 59 approximately 500 billion USD (adjusted to 2011) of damage over the last decade globally 60 (Zhang 2016). With more than 50% of the Earth's population concentrated in coastal 61 developments and mega-cities, extreme weather events have an increasing potential to cause 62 significant and recurring damage in terms of both loss of life and economic loss. As such, 63 Disaster Risk Reduction has been singled out by the WMO as their number one strategic 64 priority, highlighting the importance of improving the accuracy and effectiveness of forecasts 65 and early warnings of high-impact meteorological environmental hazards (Zhang 2016). 66 Baker et al. (2014) provide an excellent review of the need for global wind measurements and 67 argue that the measurement of the three-dimensional global wind field is the final frontier that 68 must be crossed to significantly improve the initial conditions for numerical weather 69 forecasts, and quote WMO as determining that global wind profiles are "essential for 70 operational weather forecasting on all scales and at all latitudes". Assimilation of additional 71 wind observations from the 94 GHz radar on the proposed future WIVERN satellite into 72 weather forecast models should significantly improve weather prediction skill allowing better 73 focus of mitigation activities with respect to timing, location and assigning resources.

74

Particularly striking examples of the advantages of mitigation activities are the tropical storm "Nargis" that hit Myanmar in 2008, when no preventive action was taken and 138,000 died, and the subsequent more powerful storm "Phaillin" that struck the E Coast of India in October 2013 but caused only 43 fatalities because timely warnings were issued, and a mass revacuation of those living in the coastal regions was organized. In Europe, the windstorms in 1999 were estimated to have caused €18.5B of damage, and in 2009 on 24 January the very deep depression 'Klaus' caused 28 deaths through drowning as it crossed the coast of western France leaving 1.7 million people without electricity. A succession of rapidly deepening depressions forming over the western Atlantic crossed the UK during December 2015 and January 2016 with the heavy rain and flooding resulting in insurance losses of about €1.5B.

85

86 WMO has outlined the systematic observation requirements for satellite-based products 87 (GCOS 2006) as part of their Rolling Requirements Review process and also maintains 88 requirements in the Observing Systems Capabilities Analysis and Review tool (OSCAR 89 2016). The relevant numerical weather prediction (NWP) requirements for winds are 90 summarized in Table 1. One conically-scanning WIVERN radar placed in Low Earth Orbit 91 could measure the line-of-sight (LOS) component of the horizontal wind and should be able 92 to satisfy the breakthrough requirements in Table 1 for in-cloud winds, except for the 6-hour 93 observing cycle that would require multiple satellites. To achieve the observation 94 requirements of having a fine vertical resolution and a short observing cycle, we currently envisage (Table 2) a 94 GHz (3.2 mm wavelength) radar with a 2.9 by 1.8 m elliptical 95 96 antenna producing a narrow, conically scanning pencil beam at 38° off-nadir and 41° off-97 zenith at the surface with an orbit altitude of 500 km and a surface footprint of approximately 98 1 km in diameter. These parameters are chosen as a compromise between the need to have a 99 higher orbit and thus a broader ground track to reduce the satellite revisit time, and the 100 consequent requirement of a much larger antenna to maintain the 1 km vertical resolution 101 when the slant path to the surface is increased. The 2.9 m elliptical antenna would have a 102 beamwidth of 0.11° in the horizontal and 0.08° in the vertical, so, in combination with a 3.3 103 us pulse length (500 m round-trip slant path), the vertical resolution (-3 dB) would be about 104 800 m assuming both the antenna beam pattern and pulse shape are Gaussian. 94 GHz is the 105 preferred frequency as a 35 GHz radar would have a pencil beam 2.7 times wider with 106 consequent loss of vertical resolution. As indicated by the sketch in Fig. 1, the antenna would 107 rotate once every 7.5 seconds tracing out a circular ground track 800 km in diameter 108 advancing 50 km for each revolution.

109

110 The WIVERN mission will be complementary to other observing systems providing unique 111 insights into the structure of winds within clouds and precipitating systems. The impact on 112 Numerical Weather Prediction (NWP) is expected to be on features in the models that are 113 long-lasting when compared to the revisit times, so it will be necessary to identify convective 114 motions that are not representative of the large-scale flow. The Aeolus Doppler wind Lidar 115 satellite mission (Stoffelen et al. 2005) is expected to measure line-of-sight winds in clear air, 116 through optically thin clouds/aerosol and from the top of optically thick clouds/aerosol, but it 117 lacks the penetrating capability of a radar for measuring within most clouds. To improve 118 NWP forecasts the need is for wind observations upstream of the areas were the wind damage 119 may occur 24 to 48 hours later; McNally (2002) has shown that these 'meteorologically 120 sensitive areas' are often cloudy. Fig. 2 shows the coverage expected in one day for the 121 notional WIVERN configuration of a 500nkm orbit tracing out an 800 km diameter ground 122 track that results in a revisit time of about once a day for latitudes poleward of 50° and more 123 frequent visits over the polar regions. These regions have become an important area for 124 climate and weather studies as demonstrated by the recently launched WMO "Polar 125 Prediction Project" that aims to promote cooperative international research enabling 126 development of improved weather and environmental prediction services for the polar 127 regions. In the Arctic the fast warming, the decrease in ice cover and the recent opening of 128 the Northwest Passage have attracted attention. The limited number of ground based profiling 129 observations in the Arctic regions indicate the ubiquitous presence of light precipitation often 130 limited to the lowest 4 km whose properties may be sensitive to the local and mid-latitude 131 aerosol transported from mid-latitudes. WIVERN observations would provide pan-Arctic 132 coverage and reveal the true physical and dynamic characteristics of the clouds and 133 precipitation in these data sparse regions.

134

### 135 THE WIVERN CONCEPT AND PREDICTED DOPPLER PERFORMANCE.

136 WIVERN would utilize a 94 GHz transmitter similar to the one that has been operating 137 beyond expectations on the nadir-pointing CloudSat Cloud Profiling Radar (Stephens et al. 138 2008, Tanelli et al. 2008) since its launch in 2006. CloudSat transmits 3.3 µs (500 m) pulses 139 at a pulse repetition frequency (PRF) of approximately 4 kHz with 1800 W peak power (at 140 beginning of life) and 24 W mean radiated power. By integrating the pulses for 0.16 s, equivalent to a distance of 1.09 km along track, during which about 600 pulses are 141 142 transmitted, it was therefore possible during CloudSat's prime mission to detect targets with 143 reflectivities above -30 dBZ and a single pulse signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) of 0 dB for an 144 echo of  $\approx$  -16 dBZ. The proven performance of CloudSat can be used both to estimate the accuracy of the retrieved LOS speeds from WIVERN, and the climatology of radar 145 146 reflectivity profiles around the globe from several years of CloudSat data can be used to 147 predict the number of occasions that WIVERN would observe accurate winds. An 148 improvement in the sensitivity of WIVERN compared to CloudSat can be expected, because 149 of the shorter slant path to the ground ( $\approx 650$  km vs CloudSat's  $\approx 710$  km) and the larger antenna (1.8 m by 2.9 m for WIVERN vs CloudSat's circular 1.8 m). This should lead to a 150 151 single pulse SNR of 0 dB for a return of  $\approx$  -19 dBZ, and for integration lengths of 1, 5 and 10 km the reflectivity threshold for 0dB SNR will be -24dBZ, -27.5dBZ and -30.5dBZ, 152 153 respectively.

The EarthCARE satellite (Illingworth et al. 2015) will use the conventional pulse pair 155 156 technique to detect the nadir Doppler velocity of the hydrometeors, using a PRF of 7.5 kHz, 157 so that only one pulse at a time is present in the troposphere, but this leads to a folding velocity of just 6m s<sup>-1</sup> and a noisy Doppler estimate because of the low correlation of the 158 159 phases of the pulse pair echoes. As explained in the sidebar, 'Why polarization diversity', 160 WIVERN overcomes this dilemma by estimating the Doppler velocity using the polarization-161 diversity pulse-pair (PDPP) technique (Pazmany et al. 1999) and will transmit a pair of pulses 162 one with horizontal polarization (H) the other with vertical (V), with a short separation,  $T_{hv}$ . A value of 20  $\mu$ s is proposed for T<sub>hv</sub> so that the folding velocity is 40 m s<sup>-1</sup> and large enough 163 164 to comfortably exceed the errors of the winds calculated in the NWP models. The pulse 165 separation would be 3 km along the slant path or 2.3 km in the vertical.

166

167 WIVERN would trace out a quasi-circular ground track of diameter 800 km on the ground, advancing 50 km along track for each rotation with the footprint traveling at 335 km s<sup>-1</sup> or 1 168 169 km in 3 ms. If it were to use the same 4 kHz PRF as CloudSat, in each km it could transmit 170 10 H-V pulse pairs each with a 20 µs separation to measure Doppler, interleaved with 2 171 single H or V pulses to measure the LDR of the targets to flag any potential problems of cross 172 talk between the two polarizations. The ten pulse pairs would alternate between H-V and V-H 173 to distinguish between phase shifts due to Doppler and to differential phase shift on 174 backscatter (Pazmany et al. 1999). The predicted Doppler accuracies for 1, 5 and 20 km 175 integrations are displayed in Fig. 3. The measured sight component (LOS) of the wind can be 176 converted to the horizontal line-of sight winds (HLOS) winds if the vertical wind component 177 is assumed to be zero. To satisfy the WMO requirement of a horizontal wind component (HLOS) of 2 m s<sup>-1</sup> an LOS wind accuracy of 1.35 m s<sup>-1</sup> is needed, this can be achieved for 20 178

179 km integration if the echoes are > -20 dBZ, and for 5 km they should be above -15 dBZ, 180 provided there are no ghosts caused by cross talk between H and V returns. Note that factors 181 such as beam pointing knowledge and non-uniform beam filling (discussed later) may well 182 prevent the theoretical accuracies <  $0.5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  being achieved for the higher dBZ values.

183

184 To gauge the number of sufficiently accurate wind observations expected from the proposed WIVERN satellite and their susceptibility to ghosts, an analysis of reflectivity profiles 185 186 averaged over a 20 km along track integration for four years of CloudSat data is displayed in 187 Fig. 4. The upper panel shows that, averaged over the tropics and northern mid-latitudes, 188 clouds with echoes > -20dBZ are present for about 10% of the time between heights of 1 and 189 10 km, and this fraction does not change markedly for reflectivity thresholds of -25, -20 and -190 15 dBZ. These figures are for 20 km integration but change by less than 0.2% for shorter 191 integrations down to 1 km. For clouds 10 km deep, the sloping WIVERN sample at cloud top 192 will be displaced by 7 km horizontally compared to the ground footprint, the insensitivity of 193 the CloudSat statistics to the integration length suggests that this horizontal displacement and 194 areas of broken cloud will not bias the WIVERN observations. The vertical resolution of 195 WIVERN winds should be better than 1km, so, for a 20 km integration and before thinning, 196 on average one wind with an accuracy better than  $2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  (HLOS) should be detected every 197 60 ms or 1.4 million per day.

198

199 'Ghost' echoes caused by cross-talk between the H and V returns may occur when there are 200 high reflectivity depolarizing targets 2 km above or below much weaker targets. The phases 201 of the ghost echo are uncorrelated with the true return signal so their effect will be to increase 202 the random error in the velocity estimate at each gate; this may occur over several 203 neighbouring gates but these random errors should not introduce any bias as the ghost echoes

204 decorrelate between successive pulse pairs. The lower panel in Fig. 4 is a plot of CloudSat 205 observations for each height level, 'h', of the fraction of the time that there is a denser cloud 206 with a reflectivity 20 dB greater at a height either 2 km above or below 'h'. For clouds with 207 reflectivities above -15 dBZ this occurs about 2% of the time. As a worst case we assume that 208 the LDR of the denser clouds is -15 dB, then on 2% of occasions there would signal-to-ghost ratio (SGR) of -5 dB; Fig. 3 shows that the LOS velocity accuracy of 1.35 m s<sup>-1</sup> could still be 209 210 achieved for 20 km integration for dBZ > -10dBZ. We conclude that significant ghost echoes 211 from hydrometeor returns should be rare. In the next section we will present some 212 observations to support this conclusion. We will also consider the more serious problem of 213 ghost echoes and biases in the velocity estimates in gates close to the surface as a result of 214 surface clutter, and the biases due to both the vertical wind shear and by the satellite motion 215 when there is non-uniform beam filling.

216

217 If the winds from WIVERN are to be assimilated it will be necessary to identify regions 218 where LOS winds are affected by convection and are not a representative component of the 219 large-scale horizontal wind. Anderson et al. (2005) have analyzed aircraft observations of 220 tropical convection and define an updraft core as a region of diameter > 500 m having a vertical velocity  $> 1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  and find that 90% of such cores have diameters of less than 3 km in 221 222 diameter. One year's continuous observations of profiles of vertical velocity and reflectivity 223 made with the zenith-pointing 35 GHz cloud radar at Chilbolton, UK, confirm that regions of up and down drafts exceeding 1 m s<sup>-1</sup> are absent in stratiform clouds, and confined to 224 225 convective regions where the reflectivity values exceed +10 dBZ. From Fig. 3 we conclude that the LOS velocity should be accurate to  $1.35 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  for each km along the ground track 226 227 provided Z is above -5 dBZ. We propose that convective regions should be identified by 228 significant changes in LOS velocities on the km scale and flagged as non-representative for global NWP data assimilation users. These fluctuations of the observed LOS velocities should be of interest to those studying the characteristics and statistical properties of convective processes and for validating cloud-resolving models. The detailed evolution of individual convective clouds cannot be observed from a single satellite in low earth orbit so such studies are best conducted from aircaft.

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GCOS has recently recommended (GCOS, 2017) a satellite be launched to continue the data 235 236 set that CloudSat has been gathering on cloud reflectivity profiles since its launch in 2006 237 and to be continued by EarthCARE. WIVERN should be able to provide such data. Miller 238 and Stephens (2001) show that a minimum detectable signal of -28 dBZ should detect a 239 fraction of the true cloud field sufficient to reconstruct the instantaneous top-of-the 240 atmosphere to within Clouds of the Earth's Radiant Energy system (CERES) requirements. WIVERN should achieve -27.5 dBZ sensitivity for 5km along ground track integration (50 241 242 pulse pairs) corresponding to 15 ms integration time; whereas CloudSat and EarthCARE will 243 have a 5km nadir along track reflectivity sample about every 0.8 s suggesting that WIVERN 244 would obtain about a fifty fold increase of IWC profiles.

245

246 The hydrometeor cloud targets are not perfect tracers of the wind, so a correction would be 247 needed to account for their terminal velocity. Battaglia and Kollias (2015) reported that the 248 error in the mean terminal velocity of ice clouds is a function of their reflectivity and is < 0.2m s<sup>-1</sup> up to 10 dBZ and that the random error for Z < -5 dBZ is 0.5 m s<sup>-1</sup>; this should 249 introduce a random error of  $< 1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  into the inferred horizontal component of the wind. 250 For rainfall at 94 GHz Mie scattering by the larger raindrops leads to a Doppler velocity of 251 about  $4 \pm 1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  (Lhermitte 1990) so a correction accurate to  $< 1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  of the HLOS winds 252 253 should be achievable. When the radar gate straddles the melting layer, the terminal velocity

changes rapidly, but such occasions can be flagged by the high values of the depolarization
ratio, LDR, resulting from the irregular rocking motion of the wet oblate melting snowflakes.

256

## 257 POTENTIAL SPURIOUS SIGNALS FROM THE DOPPLER RADAR.

258 Ground clutter. Surface clutter contamination can affect the hydrometeor Doppler signal; if 259 the signal to clutter ratio (SCR) is 15 dB it will lead to a 3% bias of the hydrometeor velocity 260 towards the surface zero velocity. The shape of the clutter signal is determined by the 261 combined effect of the WIVERN antenna pattern, its pulse-shape, and the illumination 262 geometry while its intensity is driven by the surface backscattering properties (Meneghini and 263 Kozu 1990). A recent aircraft campaign funded by ESA and conducted in Canada using the 264 NRC Airborne W-band radar has characterized the surface return at WIVERN incidence 265 angles  $(41^0)$  both for ocean and flat land surfaces (full details in Battaglia et al. 2017). Over 266 ocean the normalized backscattering cross sections ( $\sigma_0$ ) are over 30 dB smaller than at nadir 267 with typical values of -25 dB but roughly ranging between -35 dB and -15 dB with larger 268 (smaller) values in presence of strong (weak) wind and when looking upwind (crosswind). 269 Sea surfaces are moderately depolarizing at such angles with an LDR about -15 dB. Ocean 270 backscattering properties are characterized by a strong angular dependence but land surfaces 271 are more constant with  $\sigma_0$  of the order of -10 dB. Forest-covered and rural surfaces present 272 very similar results, whilst urban surfaces generate slightly higher values of  $\sigma_0$ .

273

The clutter expected for a WIVERN configuration when observing a flat surface with  $\sigma_0=0$ dB is illustrated in Fig 5a for the WIVERN antenna pattern which was derived in the ESA-DORA ITT study (inset of Fig. 5b). The first antenna sidelobe at 0.15<sup>o</sup> is 20 dB below the maximum are clearly affecting the surface clutter above 1 km altitude. Clutter signals scale with  $\sigma_0$  and are therefore expected to be about 10 dB (25 dB) lower than those depicted in

Fig. 5a over flat land (the ocean). If snow-covered surfaces have  $\sigma_0$  lower than 0 dB (still to 279 be determined by observations) the plot in Fig. 5a suggests that it will be possible to produce 280 281 snow retrievals similar to CloudSat, with clutter contamination only in the last km close to 282 the surface for  $Z_{snow} > -10$  dBZ, and at lower altitudes for higher reflectivities. LOS winds 283 must be derived only in regions with large signal-to-clutter ratios (15 dB or above). For 284 reflectivities 3dB above the minimum detection threshold this means that the surface signal 285 must be lower than -30 dBZ. For characteristic values of sea and land  $\sigma_0$  this seems to be achievable at heights above 1 and 2 km, respectively 286

287

Cross polarization interference and the effect of "ghost" echoes. The ability of the 288 289 polarization diversity scheme to derive wind velocities relies on limiting the coupling 290 between the polarizations both at the hardware level typically reducing values to < -25 dB, 291 while the wave propagates and scatters in the atmosphere. At the WIVERN incidence angles, 292 atmospheric targets like melting hydrometeors and columnar crystals can produce LDR up to 293 -12 dB (Wolde and Vali 2001) whilst surface clutter tends to depolarize more over land (LDR 294 values of  $-9\pm3$  dB) than over sea (characteristic value of -15 dB, Battaglia et al. 2017). The 295 effect of cross-polarization is to produce an interference signal in each co-polar channel 296 depending on the temporal shift between the H and V pair and the strength of the cross-polar 297 power (which is given by the product of the LDR and the co-polar power) and appear as 298 "ghost echoes" (Battaglia et al. 2013). The phases of ghost echoes are incoherent with 299 respect to the echoes of interest so do not bias the velocity estimates, but increase their 300 random error as a function of the signal to ghost ratio (SGR) (Pazmany et al. 1999); as 301 illustrated by the dashed lines in Fig. 3 when the SGR falls to 0 and -5 dB this random error 302 increases rapidly for shorter integration lengths. By replacing two in ten of the pulse pairs by

a single H or V pulse, the LDR of the targets can be monitored and used to flag occasionswhen there may be cross talk between the H and V echoes.

305

306 Figure 6 shows simulated WIVERN observations of reflectivity and LDR of a stratiform 307 precipitating system over the Pacific observed on the 10 January 2008 reconstructed by tilting 308 and wrapping the vertical CloudSat curtain so as to be along the WIVERN scanning 309 direction. CloudSat effective reflectivity and attenuation are derived from the 2C-RAIN 310 product. The reconstruction accounts for the WIVERN observation geometry, its antenna 311 pattern and assumes a 5 km integration length. LDR values sampled from normal 312 distributions are used for rain, ice crystals, melting layer particles and mixed-phase clouds, 313 with means of -23, -19 -14 and -17 dB and standard deviations of 2, 1.5, 1.5 and 1.5 dB, 314 respectively. These values have been selected based on a climatology collected at the 315 Chilbolton Observatory. Clutter with the shape shown in Fig. 5a and representative of flat 316 land surfaces, having  $\sigma_0$  normally distributed with mean value of -8 dB and standard deviation 4 dB, has been included. The reflectivity (panel a) clearly shows a region of strong 317 318 attenuation in correspondence to the precipitation core (~2-6 mm h<sup>-1</sup>) located around 600 km. 319 The black line contours the region where Doppler velocities estimates are expected to have accuracies better than 2 m s<sup>-1</sup> when adopting a  $T_{hv}$  equal 20 µs. The SCR is typically >20 dB 320 321 (magenta line) for heights above 2 km where bias in velocities will be negligible. Ghost 322 echoes (see sidebar 2) are expected when the SGR is < 3dB (yellow line in right panel) and 323 are confined to the high reflectivity gradients at the cloud boundaries (where Doppler will be 324 too noisy anyway) and close to the surface (that would be much reduced over the sea).

325

326 A month of CloudSat data (Jan 2008) have been used to simulate WIVERN profiles and the 327 ghosts generated by  $T_{hv}$  values of 5, 20 and 40 µs taking into account the SNR, the SGR, and the SCR for each 5 km along track integration length in order to assess the fraction of profiles for which WIVERN is expected to produce winds with accuracy better than 2 m s<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 7. The fraction is much lower for the 5  $\mu$ s T<sub>hv</sub> values because the increased noise error maps into a large velocity error. Overall Fig. 7 shows that in the mid-troposphere (3-8km) WIVERN would provide a useful measurement 10% of the observation time, but reduced to 5% over land at heights near to 2 and 4km where the bright land surfaces produce ghost echoes for T<sub>hv</sub> of 20 and 40  $\mu$ s, respectively, indicating that 20  $\mu$ s may be optimum.

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336 Ground-based validation of theoretically predicted wind errors and biases. The degree to 337 which ghost echoes and/or vertical gradients in reflectivity combined with vertical wind shear 338 can lead to increased random errors or biases in the wind estimates made from space by 339 WIVERN, can be assessed using recent observations made with the 94 GHz radar at Chilbolton in Southern England pointing 45° off-zenith with a time resolution of six seconds 340 341 and gate length of 60 m. The case of 27 June 2017 (Fig. 8, panels A to D) is chosen because 342 of the large gradient in received power exceeding 20 dB for the 3 km/20 µs separation of the 343 H-V pulse pair (panel A); this will lead to signal to ghost (SGR) ratios of 0 dB and -5 dB for 344 LDR values of -20 dB and -15 dB (not shown – but in the melting layer at 4 km range they 345 reached -15 dB resulting in the SGR of -5 dB at 7.5 km range). The velocity estimated with 346  $T_{hv} = 20 \ \mu s$  (panel C) at a height of 4.54 km where SGR is at its lowest is plotted in black in 347 panel D (upper trace) whereas the 'true' velocity from the H-H pulse pairs separated by 160 348 µs (when there will be no ghost echoes) is in red; the increased gate-to-gate random noise 349 introduced by the ghosts in the black trace when SGR is low is very clear when compared to 350 the smooth red trace. The lower trace in panel D shows that the observed increases in the rms 351 error for a  $T_{hv} = 20 \ \mu s$  agree very well with two independent theoretical predictions of the 352 error (see Fig. 3); one based on the SNR and SGR computed via the LDR estimate, and a 353 second based on the drop in observed correlation between the H-V returns due to the increase 354 in the noise. This plot confirms that ghosts increase the random error of the wind estimate but 355 do not introduce any bias. Ghosts are observed relatively frequently from the ground, because 356 of the ~10 dB change in received power from the same target at a range of 1 km and 3 km. so 357 they are useful for validating the theory, but ghosts should be much less frequent from space, 358 because of the negligible fractional change in range of the targets (see Fig. 4b). Biases in the 359 radar-derived winds may arise when there is a vertical wind shear that coincides with a large 360 vertical gradient of radar reflectivity; this is the case in panels A and C where at a slant range 361 of 4.5 km the reflectivity across the bright band changes by 10 dB in 1 km and the vertical wind shear is about 5 m s<sup>-1</sup>. These radar observations are taken every six second with a gate 362 363 length of 60 m. From the average winds at this resolution, the true velocity for a WIVERN 364 sample volume of 800 m length by 10 minutes (equivalent to a horizontal distance of 10km 365 from the satellite if the horizontal advection velocity is 1 km min<sup>-1</sup>) can be computed and the 366 bias derived by comparing this 'true' velocity with the reflectivity weighted mean velocity that would be detected by WIVERN. From this image WIVERN would obtain 550 wind 367 samples with an rms LOS wind error of 0.16 m s<sup>-1</sup> and an average bias of 0.07 m s<sup>-1</sup>, but for 368 369 data assimilation purposes the data would be thinned. The case above was chosen because of 370 the marked bright band, but panels E and F illustrate the case of 28 Aug 2017 when a region of wind shear of 20 m s<sup>-1</sup> per km and reflectivity gradients of up to 20 dB km<sup>-1</sup> descended by 371 2-3 km in 10 hours. The biases can also be predicted from changes in velocity from 372 373 neighboring samples at the WIVERN resolution and the observations rejected when this exceeds 0.3 m s<sup>-1</sup>. The result is that ~ 20% of the WIVERN samples are rejected, and the 374 remaining WIVERN observations have a bias of 0.05 m s<sup>-1</sup> and an rms error of 0.34 m s<sup>-1</sup>. 375

Non-Uniform beam filling (NUBF). For fast-moving space borne Doppler radar, reflectivity 377 378 gradients within the radar sampling volume can introduce a significant source of error in 379 Doppler velocity estimates (Tanelli et al. 2002). When adopting slant-viewing geometry the 380 situation is illustrated in Fig. 5b, with the shading of the WIVERN sampling volume 381 indicating the strength of the backscattered signal. The red and green arrows indicate the 382 apparent velocity introduced to the WIVERN volume due to the motion of the satellite (green 383 toward and red away from the satellite); as a result, for the case illustrated, a downward bias 384 will be produced. Notional studies have demonstrated that such biases can be mitigated by 385 estimating the along-track reflectivity gradient (Schutgens 2008, Kollias et al. 2014; Sy et al. 386 2014). For WIVERN the relevant gradients are those along the direction in the plane 387 generated by the satellite velocity and by the antenna boresight and is orthogonal to the latter 388 (identified by  $\eta$  in Fig. 5b). As a consequence, NUBF effects are linked to reflectivity 389 gradients along different directions depending on the scanning position of the rotating 390 antenna, with NUBF velocity biases expected to be linearly proportional to such reflectivity gradients with a coefficient of the order of 0.1-0.15 m s<sup>-1</sup> dB<sup>-1</sup> km (Battaglia and Kollias 391 392 2015). When side-looking, the relevant reflectivity gradients are those along-track, which can 393 be estimated from the reflectivities measured along the scanning track and used to mitigate 394 the NUBF effect. However, such mitigation is increasingly less feasible when moving from 395 side to forward/backward-looking angles where the relevant reflectivity gradients correspond 396 to a direction that is orthogonal to the scanning track. However, thanks to the WIVERN 397 conical scanning geometry, on average, the biases looking in opposite directions with respect 398 to the satellite motion cancel out and NUBF leads only to an increase in the random error of 399 the wind. A high-resolution (0.5 km horizontally and 0.3 km vertically) synthetic reflectivity 400 field obtained from a WRF simulation of hurricane Isabel has been used to estimate the 401 NUBF-induced errors of WIVERN measurements. Preliminary results show that errors

402 should be less than 0.5 m s<sup>-1</sup> for side-looking and 2 m s<sup>-1</sup> for forward/backward-looking 403 angles. More work is needed in order to properly characterize the variability of the wind and 404 of the 94 GHz reflectivity field at the WIVERN sub-pixel scale. Data sets obtained via 405 airborne of ground-based 94 GHz Doppler radars could be used to test the detrimental NUBF 406 effect on Doppler measurements.

407

Pointing Accuracy. The rotating antenna will introduce a sinusoidal component of the 408 satellite velocity with an amplitude of about 5,000 m s<sup>-1</sup>. If the bias is to be less than  $0.5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ 409 410 then the radar electrical boresight elevation and azimuthal angles should be known to < 100411 µrad. If the radar is used as an altimeter, the elevation angle can be continually monitored by 412 measuring the range as the antenna scans over the sea; for a slant range of 651 km, an error of 413 100 µrad would manifest itself as an apparent change in range of the sea surface of 42 m. For 414 a point target with an SNR> 20 dB, Skolnik (1981, page 402) shows that changes in the time 415 of the leading edge of the return echo can be estimated to within 5% of the echo rise time; 416 simulations using distributed scatterers on the sea surface confirm that this accuracy can be 417 maintained by averaging 100 pulses (10 km along the ground track). Turning to the 418 requirement to know the azimuthal angle to 100 µrad, equivalent to a distance along the 419 scanning ground track of just 65 m, or about one tenth of the beamwidth, an error of 100 µrad in pointing knowledge will result in a sinusoidal velocity error with maxima of  $\pm 0.5$  m s<sup>-1</sup> 420 421 when pointing across track. More studies are needed on this topic, but we propose two 422 approaches. Firstly, when pointing precisely across track ground clutter will appear to be 423 stationary and averaging over many scans should identify the precise angle at which this happens, and, secondly, we will use regions of light winds where the ECMWF analysis 424 provides winds accurate to better than 1 m s<sup>-1</sup> to make small adjustments to the azimuthal 425 426 pointing knowledge to remove the systematic biases when pointing across track.

428 Multiple scattering. When dealing with space-borne millimetric radars, in the presence of 429 highly attenuating media, the multiple-scattering signal can overwhelm the single scattering 430 contribution (Battaglia et al. 2010) with very detrimental effects both on retrieval and 431 Doppler products (Battaglia and Kollias 2014). Studies based on CloudSat have demonstrated 432 that multiple scattering is not negligible in the presence of high-density ice (hail and graupel) 433 or moderate/intense rain, (Battaglia et al. 2011). With an LDR mode, segments of the profiles 434 affected by multiple scattering can be easily flagged (e.g. by the condition LDR>-10 dB, see 435 Battaglia et al. 2007) and excluded from further wind analysis. Indeed air motions in these 436 conditions would not be assimilated into the model even if they had been properly retrieved, 437 as they are not representative of the large scale flow and are transient features compared to 438 the revisit time of the satellite.

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440

### 441 THE IMPACT OF WIND OBSERVATIONS ON GLOBAL NWP MODELS.

442 The main impact of the WIVERN wind observations should be realized through their 443 assimilation into global NWP models. The 'Forecasting Sensitivity to Observations', 'FSOI' 444 technique (Langland and Baker 2004), implemented in the ECMWF model by Cardinali 445 (2009), is a very powerful tool that enables, for the first time, quantification of the impact of 446 individual observations that are assimilated in to the NWP forecast model in reducing the 447 "forecast error" obtained by comparing the T+24 forecasts of temperature, wind, humidity 448 and surface pressure with their corresponding analyses. The contributions of the top five observation types in reducing this forecast error for the Met Office, ECMWF and 449 450 MétéoFrance global models are displayed in Table 3. This shows that both the in-situ aircraft 451 observations and the "Atmospheric Motion Vectors" (AMVs, the winds derived from the 452 movement of cloud or water vapour features in successive satellite images), make an 453 important contribution to reducing forecast errors, second only to the humidity and 454 temperature structure provided by the IR and microwave sounders.

455

456 The initial high resolution AMV wind observations are thinned in the ECMWF global model 457 to provide, at most, a single wind estimate for each 200 by 200 km horizontal 'box', a vertical thinning of 50-175 hPa that varies with height, and a 30 minute temporal thinning. This 458 459 thinning is to account for the spatial and temporal correlation of AMV winds errors over 460 large distances due to errors in the height assignment. The figures for the Met Office are 461 similar: 200 by 200 km, 100 hPa and two hours. ECMWF blacklist AMV winds over land 462 below 500 hPa, while the Met Office is not quite so strict with a height limit over land 463 usually closer to 600 hPa north of 20°N. If observations are assimilated at too high a 464 horizontal density, the fact of not accounting for spatial correlations of observation errors in 465 the analysis can also degrade the resulting forecasts (Liu and Rabier 2002). Aircraft winds do 466 not suffer from problems associated with strong spatial correlations and screening over land, 467 and in the ECMWF model are used for a height range that extends down to within 1 km of 468 the surface and are currently thinned to 70 km in the horizontal and 15 hPa; this will be 469 reduced to 35 km and 7.5 hPa in 2018. Currently, about half of all aircraft winds are below 470 500 hPa. The case studies discussed in Fig. 8 suggest that the radar-derived winds should 471 have similar error characteristics to aircraft winds but may be rather larger because of their 472 800m vertical resolution.

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Table 4 compares the contributions of the AMV winds and the in-situ aircraft measurements to the ECMWF global model and shows that when AMV winds are assimilated they are, on average, assigned a random error of  $4.6 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  for the zonal component of the wind, but for the

in-situ aircraft winds the error is only 2.3 m s<sup>-1</sup>. Combined with the larger thinning of the 477 AMV winds, the net result is that only 4% of the AMV observations are assimilated as 478 479 opposed to 36% of the aircraft observations. The CloudSat analysis summarized in Figs. 4 480 and 7 indicates that about 1.3 million winds with a resolution of 20 km along track would be 481 obtained each day. If these were thinned to 50 km, similar to the ECMWF value planned for 482 aircraft winds in 2018, then the number assimilated could be about 500,000 per day. By comparison with the figures in Table 4, this suggests that their impact on the forecast should 483 484 be significant.

485

486 The winds from WIVERN are only line of sight but Horányi et al. (2015a) have demonstrated 487 that, with a state of the art data assimilation system and real observations, HLOS winds such 488 as would be obtained from an aircraft provide about 70% of the impact of a vector wind, and 489 that in the tropics the impact of wind data is much greater than the mass information. 490 McNally (2002) provides further evidence for the potential impact of in-cloud winds. He 491 investigated the sensitivity of the weather forecasts to errors in the analysis of the current 492 atmospheric state that subsequently develop into significant medium-range forecast errors. 493 The main obstacle was the presence of cloud in these 'sensitive' areas; depending on the 494 amount and altitude of cloud cover the information from infrared (IR) sounders (advanced or 495 otherwise) could be severely limited.

496

497 If winds are to be assimilated it is extremely important that the systematic errors of the 498 observations are not too large relative to the random errors. Simulations carried out to predict 499 the potential impact of the winds from the Aeolus satellite by Horanyi et al. (2015b) have 500 shown that assimilating winds that are biased by 1-2 m s<sup>-1</sup> when the random error standard 501 deviation is around 2 m s<sup>-1</sup> will actually degrade the forecast unless the bias can be estimated

and removed prior to assimilation. Our analysis suggests that winds from WIVERN should
only be biased when they are affected by ground clutter and that such regions should be easy
to identify.

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The mean observation error and the number of AMV winds from Meteosat 10 that were 506 507 assimilated into the Met Office model for the month of December are plotted in Fig. 9. The AMV error is a combination of error in the tracking step and an error in speed due to an 508 509 uncertainty in the height assignment as discussed by Salonen et al. (2012); Forsythe and 510 Saunders (2008) describe how the assigned AMV velocity error increases with the vertical 511 wind shear in the model. For heights above 500 hPa and for all latitudes, the mean 512 observation error is mostly in the range 5 to 9 m s<sup>-1</sup>. The maximum number of assimilated 513 winds is found at around 900 hPa over the Southern Oceans, followed by heights of 200-400 514 hPa at all latitudes, with a lower number of winds in mid-levels. The vertical distribution of 515 ECMWF assimilated winds is also bimodal with fewer winds between 400 and 700h Pa. 516 Analysis of CloudSat data (Figs 4and 7) suggests that one advantage of the WIVERN winds 517 should be the absence of the current mid-level gap in coverage.

518

519 The actual numbers of AMV U-component winds assimilated into the ECMWF model during a 12-hour cycle in October 2016 are displayed in Fig 10 for each 10° by 10° area over the 520 globe. The numbers are expressed as the number of observations per  $10^6$  km<sup>2</sup> area with the 521 522 data having been thinned to 200 by 200 km 'boxes' in the horizontal, so that along the 523 equator, a value of 100, would be equivalent to 4 winds per box in the 12 hour period. When 524 predicting the performance of WIVERN we assume a thinning to 80km, close to the current 525 ECMWF value for aircraft winds, and use the CloudSat data to calculate for every 80 km 526 along-track segment how often there is a cloud echo of at least 5km length where the

reflectivity exceeds -18 dBZ, for which (from Fig. 3) we expect the velocity error to be less than 2 m s<sup>-1</sup>. CloudSat has only a small footprint at nadir, so to simulate the 800km wide circular ground path, we multiply these numbers by 11, and calculate on average the number of winds per  $10^6$  km<sup>2</sup> area in a 12 hour period as displayed in Fig. 10. This Fig. indicates that the number of WIVERN winds assimilated should be of similar magnitude to the current AMV winds.

534 Recent experience at Météo-France has shown that increasing the vertical resolution of 535 observations in the 4D-Var data assimilation system of the global ARPEGE NWP model, has 536 always had a positive impact in terms of analyses and forecasts, even though vertical 537 correlation errors are neglected. One example is the increase of vertical resolution of GNSS-538 Radio-Occultation (RO) bending angle measurements obtained from limb sounding 539 instruments. For each occultation, about 200 measurements are available between 50 km and 540 the Earth's surface, and when the number assimilated was increased by a factor of 4, the fit of 541 the model to the observations was improved both in the analyses and in the short-range 542 forecasts of the model. A second study involved the impact of high-resolution radio sondes when the sonde data were sampled to reflect the vertical grid of the ARPEGE model, and 543 544 again there was a better fit of the model to the observations both for the analysis and the background. These findings indicate the additional benefit to NWP from an active radar 545 546 providing profiles of winds at each km height level through clouds, rather than a single wind 547 measurement from near cloud top from passive sensors.

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## 549 ADDITIONAL PRECIPITATION AND CLOUD PRODUCTS.

550 The main thrust of the WIVERN mission is to provide winds, but the satellite would also 551 measure profiles of reflectivity over the 800 km wide ground track. CloudSat, with its

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552 approximately 1 km nadir-only footprint, has provided a unique cloud and IWC climatology 553 that has been invaluable for validating NWP and climate models (e.g. Li et al. 2012) and also 554 the best climatology of light rainfall over the oceans (e.g. Berg et al. 2010; L'Ecuyer and 555 Stephens, 2002; Haynes et al. 2009). The rainfall is estimated by measuring the attenuation of 556 the ocean surface return for the nadir pointing CloudSat; but for WIVERN the ocean surface 557 return at 41° incidence is much lower, so heavy rain will totally attenuate the surface return, 558 and rainfall estimates will probably be restricted to lighter rainfall. Much of the snowfall 559 over polar regions has values of Z well below 20 dBZ and cannot be detected by the radars on 560 the GPM satellite, but, with its sensitivity limit of -30 dBZ, CloudSat has provided the best 561 global snowfall climatology to date (e.g. Liu 2008; Palerme et al. 2014). The performance of 562 WIVERN for measuring snowfall will depend critically on the level of ground clutter and the 563 radar reflectivity of the snow (see Fig. 5). More work is required to establish the accuracy and 564 errors of rain and snowfall rates from WIVERN. Finally Janiskova et al. (2012) and 565 Janiskova (2015) have demonstrated that the assimilation of CloudSat reflectivities into the 566 ECMWF model has a slight positive impact on the subsequent forecast; we can expect a 50fold increase in coverage from the 800-km wide ground track of WIVERN. 567

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## 569 CHALLENGE AND SUMMARY

We expect that the proposed polarization diversity Doppler radar for WIVERN would be able to provide the horizontal component line-of-sight winds with an accuracy of 2 m s<sup>-1</sup>, 50-km resolution in the horizontal and < 1km resolution in the vertical over an 800-km wide ground track, for clouds having a 20 km along track extent and a reflectivity exceeding -20 dBZ. Previous studies suggest that line-of-sight winds have 70% of the value of full vector winds (Horanyi et al. 20015a) and that 'sensitive' areas where observations are needed to improve forecasts are often cloudy (McNally 2002). Preparatory mission studies confirm that any 577 artifacts associated with the polarization diversity technique should be rare and can easily be 578 identified and rejected. Recent radar observations from aircraft suggest that ground clutter 579 may introduce a bias into winds being measured below 1 km over the ocean and 2 km over 580 the land, but more studies are needed to establish their magnitude and frequency of 581 occurrence; knowledge of these boundary layer winds may be less crucial for 24 or 48-hour 582 forecasts. Analysis, using the global climatology of cloud echoes obtained from CloudSat, 583 indicates that the number of winds suitable for assimilation into operational weather forecasts 584 should be comparable with the currently available aircraft winds and have similar error 585 characteristics and so should have a significant impact in reducing forecast errors. At present 586 there is a lack of wind observations between 400 and 700 hPa; analysis suggests that 587 WIVERN should not suffer from this mid-level gap in coverage. Recent ground based 588 polarization radar observations indicate that ghost echoes lead to increased random errors of 589 the wind estimates but should be rare and can be identified and flagged, and that biases in 590 wind estimates due to reflectivity gradients in the presence of wind shear can also be identified and should be  $< 1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ . Further airborne and ground-based studies are needed to 591 592 confirm these results and to obtain and a more precise estimate of the occurrence of degraded 593 winds due to non-uniform beam filling, and the extent of the blind zone over the ocean, and 594 different land surfaces. It should be possible to identify areas of significant convection by the 595 variability of the line of sight winds on the km-scale; such regions will not be suitable for 596 assimilation into global forecast models but should provide statistical characteristics of 597 convective motions. The WIVERN configuration with a 800 km wide ground track would use 598 a similar transmitter to the one that has been operating well above expectations over the last 599 decade on CloudSat, and would rely on well established polarization diversity techniques for 600 deriving Doppler velocities and a 2.9 by 1.8 m 94 GHz antenna comparable in size to the 601 antenna developed in a recent ESA study.

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Table 1. The horizontal wind requirements in the lower troposphere for global NWP fromOSCAR (2016).

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	Uncertainty	Horizontal	Vertical	Observing Cycle
		resolution	resolution	
Goal	2 m/s	15km	0.5km	1hr
Breakthrough	3m/s	100km	1km	6hr
Threshold	5m/s	500km	3km	12hr

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738 Table 2. A Possible WIVERN Radar Configuration

Parameter	Value	Units
Operating frequency	94	GHz
Pulse repetition frequency	≈ 4	kHz
Pulse width	3.3	μs
Range resolution	500	m

Antenna diameter	1.8 x 2.9	m
Antenna scan rate	8	rpm
Off-zenith surface angle	41.4	degrees
Orbit height	500	km
Slant range	650	km
Height resolution	800	m
H-V pulse separation	20	μs
Folding velocity	40	m s <sup>-1</sup>
Doppler accuracy	2	m s <sup>-1</sup>
(20km integration, Z> - 20dBZ)		

Table 3.The contribution of the top five observation types to reducing forecast errors for Met
Office, ECMWF and MeteoFrance global forecast models. The sixth row are the
contributions from scatterometers. HSIR Hyper-spectral infra red; MWSI Microwave
sounding/imager; SL Surface/Land; A/C aircraft winds and temp; RS Radio soundings of
winds, T and q; GPS-RO – GPS radio occultation.

	Met Office	(Oct 2016)	ECMWF (M	lay-Aug 2016)	MeteoFranc	e (April
					2015)	
1	HSIR	31.5%	MWSI	36.0%	MWSI	30%
2	MWSI	23.8%	HSIR	30.3%	HSIR	18%
3	AMV	11.9%	A/C	8.4%	A/C	13%
4	SL	8.6%	AMV	6.5%	RS	12%
5	A/C	7.9%	GPS-RO	4.7%	AMV	8%
Scatterometers		3.8 %		5.2%		7%

748 Table 4. The numbers of raw and assimilated wind observations for ECMWF for u-wind

data and their mean assigned error for an arbitrary 12 hour-long window data assimilation

750 cycle starting 00UTC on 2016/10/01.

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	TOTAL	AMV	A/C
Raw (pre-QC)	6,527k	3.573.381 54.7%	495,000 7.6%
Assimilated	424k	144.099 34.0%	179,550 42.3%
Fraction assimilated		4.0%	36.3%
Assigned error (m/s)		4.61 m/s	2.27 m/s

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## 753 FIGURE CAPTIONS

Fig. 1. The WIVERN concept. The dashed black lines correspond to the scanning ground
track. For every 7.5 second revolution the satellite advance 50 km. The red arrows are
indicative of the wind circulation. The background image (credit: JAXA/NASA/Colorado
State Univ., Natalie D. Tourville) corresponds to an overpass of the NASA's CloudSat
Satellite over Super Typhoon Atsani on August 19, 2015 at 03:27 UTC.
Fig 2. Daily coverage for a possible WIVERN 500-km orbit with 800-km wide ground track

and 651-km slant path. Light green, one visit per day; dark green – two; blue - three.

762

763 Fig. 3. Theoretical random error in the line of sight (LOS) retrieved Doppler velocity for

764 WIVERN as a function of target reflectivity for a  $20\mu s H - V$  pulse separation and a  $3.5 m s^{-1}$ 

765 Doppler width due to satellite motion. Single pulse SNR of 0dB for a -19dBZ target. Solid

- Lines: Red 1-km integration (10 pulse pairs); Blue 5 km (50 pulse pairs); Black 20km
- 767 (200 pulse pairs) and a Signal to Ghost Ratio (SGR) =  $\infty$ . Dashed lines SGR = 0dB. Dotted

768 lines SGR = -5dB.

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770	<b>Fig. 4.</b> Top row: CloudSat observations of the fraction of the time a cloud is present with a
771	reflectivity exceeding a given threshold as a function of height for an along ground track
772	integration length of 20 km. Left: Tropical clouds. Right: Mid-latitude clouds between 30°N
773	to 60°N. Bottom row: The fraction of the echoes in the top row at each height that have an
774	echo with reflectivity 20dB stronger either 2km above or below that height (see text for
775	details of how this leads to ghosts).

776

**Fig 5.** WIVERN surface clutter and viewing geometry a) WIVERN surface clutter for a flat surface with  $\sigma_0 = 0$  dB. Results for a Gaussian antenna with a 3dB-beamwidth of  $0.08^0$  are also provided as a reference. b) WIVERN viewing geometry, antenna pattern and schematic for understanding NUBF effects.

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Fig. 6. Reconstructed WIVERN reflectivity from a stratiform precipitation event observed by 782 783 CloudSat over Western Pacific between -19°S and -7°S using a 5-km integration length. Left 784 panel: The black dashed line corresponds to the contour where the standard deviation of Doppler velocity is 2 m s<sup>-1</sup> while the magenta line corresponds to the region where the 785 786 SCR=20 dB. A  $T_{hy}$  =20 µs has been assumed. Right panel: same as the left panel for the 787 WIVERN LDR reconstructed from climatological a-priori LDR. The gray lines here correspond to SGR=3dB while the white line is the rain rate (in mm hr<sup>-1</sup>) from the CloudSat 788 789 2B-RAIN product.

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Fig. 7. The fraction of WIVERN profiles, integrated along-track for 5 km, where winds at a given height can be derived with an accuracy of 2 m s<sup>-1</sup> for various  $T_{hv}$  values, derived from

793 CloudSat profiles with an assumed LDR value and recent observations of surface clutter 794 returns over the ocean (blue) and over land (red), excluding mountains and cities. Note the 795 effect of ghost returns from the surface affecting the retrieval at heights dependent upon  $T_{hv}$ . 796

Fig. 8. Figure 8. Observations at Chilbolton, UK at 45° elevation showing the increased 797 798 random error in the velocity estimates due to ghosts on 27 June 2017. A) The signal to noise 799 ratio (SNR) in the H channel, B) The signal to ghost ratio (SGR) in the H channel due to the 800 depolarisation of the V channel shifted by 3km in range, C) 'PP20' The velocity derived from 801 the H-V (20µs/3km) pulse pairs with a folding velocity of 40 m s<sup>-1</sup>, D) Upper trace: the 'true' 802 velocity' (red line) derived from a pulse separation of 160µs at a height of 4.54 km and the 803 PP20 velocity from the H-V pulses (black). Note the increased noise in the black trace when 804 SGR and SNR are low. Lower trace: the observed rms error obtained by comparing the 805 'true' PP160 velocity with the PP20 'H-V' velocity (black), and the close agreement with the 806 theoretical errors from the SNR and SGR (red), and from the H-V correlation (green). The 807 high wind shear case accompanied by large vertical reflectivity gradients observed on 28 Aug 808 2017 is displayed in panels E and F. For details see the text.

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Fig. 9. Statistics of the AMV winds assimilated into the Met Office global model from
Meteosat-10 for the month of December 2016. Left: The mean assigned observation error of
U (m/s) as a function of pressure and latitude. Right: the number of winds assimilated as a
function of pressure. The maximum numbers are found at around 900 hPa over the Southern
Oceans, followed by heights of 200-400 hPa at all latitudes. Note the relatively low number
of winds from mid-levels.

Fig. 10. Comparison of the number of assimilated AMV winds in the ECMWF model and
the predicted number of WIVERN winds. Left: The number of assimilated AMV (U-wind)
observation counts for 20161001 LWDA cycle (12 hour window) per 10<sup>6</sup> km<sup>2</sup> (1000 by 1000
km box). Data are thinned to one observation per 200 by 200 km box per height level. Right:
As for ECMWF but the predicted number for WIVERN simulated using CloudSat data with
Z>-17dBZ for 5km along track integration, scaled appropriately for WIVERN sensitivity and
increased swath. One observation is counted for each 80 by 80 km box.

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825 Sidebar 1.

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## 827 WHY POLARIZATION DIVERSITY?

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829 The simple answer is that at 94GHz we need to have two pulses that are very close together 830 because the motion of the satellite combined with the finite beamwidth of the radar results in 831 a rapid decorrelation of the phases of the return signals. If the pulses are close together they 832 will both be in the cloud at the same time: to distinguish them, WIVERN transmits pairs of pulses with alternating polarization -H (red) and V (blue) spaced by a short time separation, 833 834  $T_{hv}$  and receive the return signals in both polarizations (panel A). Because of the 835 orthogonality of the polarisations, the horizontally and vertically polarized pulses are 836 transmitted, backscattered and propagate through the atmosphere independently so that the 837 returns from the two closely spaced pulses can be separated. Cross-polar interferences are 838 typically weak and WIVERN signal processing includes ways for removing their effects.

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840 In panel C the red H pulse is at height 'h', and at a short time later (e.g.  $T_{hv} = 20 \ \mu s$ ), the blue 841 V pulse has moved (e.g. 3 km) along the slant path and is at height 'h' (panel D). The estimation of the Doppler velocity is based on the phase change between the backscattered signals of these two pulses. Panel B (green shaded region) shows that for a  $T_{hv}$  of only 20 µs the targets have not had time to reshuffle, so the phases remain correlated and can be measured accurately. The maximum unambiguous phase shift value of ±180° is reached when the cloud particle targets move one quarter of a wavelength (800µm at W-band), equivalent, with  $T_{hv}$ =20 µs, to a folding velocity of ±40 m s<sup>-1</sup> (top x-axis in panel B).

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Contrast this with the situation encountered in conventional pulse pair (panel E) when the phase change is derived between two pulses with the same polarization, with the second red 'H' pulse trailing  $130\mu s$  ( $\approx 20$ km) behind the first so that only one pulse at a time is in the troposphere. Because of the fast movement of the satellite, the targets will appear to have almost completely reshuffled (red shaded region in panel B), the phase difference will be very noisy, and the maximum 'folding' velocity only about 6 m s<sup>-1</sup>, far below that required for retrieving line-of-sight winds.

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857 Sidebar 2.

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859 GHOST ECHOES
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The formation of ghosts is illustrated in a bounce diagram for the profile indicated by the black arrow in Fig. 6. The cross-polar (V-) component of the transmitted H-pulse reflected at the point S<sub>1</sub> on the surface interferes with the rain co-polar signal of the second (V-) pulse transmitted after  $T_{hv} = 20 \ \mu s$  and scattered along the line A<sub>1</sub>B<sub>1</sub> in time–distance space. In the same manner, the trailing edge of the pulse reflected in the cross-channel at the point S<sub>2</sub> adds up to the rain signal along the line A<sub>2</sub>B<sub>2</sub>.At the V-receiver the co-polar V-signals

867	backscattered by rain in the grey-shaded rhombus $A_1A_2B_2B_1$ region are overcome by the
868	ground clutter cross-polar return of the first pulse (blue shaded regions). These ghost signals
869	appear in the second pulse centred around an altitude of $cT_{hv} \cos(\theta_{inc})$ /2, (2.25 km for this
870	$T_{hv}$ ). Because the ground clutter is uncorrelated with the rain signals this only worsens the
871	Doppler velocity estimates according to the SGR (Fig. 3). The same phenomenon can occur
872	when strong vertical reflectivity gradients are present concurrently with strongly depolarizing
873	targets (e.g. red shaded region).
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994 SIDEBAR TWO: GHOST ECHOES

