

# Development of time-varying global gridded $T_s$ - $T_m$ model for precise GPS-PWV retrieval

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**Abstract:** Water-vapor-weighted mean temperature,  $T_m$ , is the key variable to estimate mapping factor between GPS zenith wet delay (ZWD) and precipitable water vapor (PWV). In near real-time GPS-PWV retrieving, estimating  $T_m$  from surface air temperature  $T_s$  is a widely used method because of its high temporal resolution and a fair degree of accuracy. Based on the  $T_m$  estimates and the extracted  $T_s$  parameters at each reanalysis grid node, analyses of the relationship between  $T_m$  and  $T_s$  were performed without smoothing of data which will produce superior results than other similar studies. Analyses demonstrate that  $T_s$ - $T_m$  relationship has significant spatial and temporal variations. Then static and time-varying global gridded  $T_s$ - $T_m$  equations were established and evaluated by comparisons with radiosonde data at radiosonde 758 stations in the Integrated Global Radiosonde Archive (IGRA). Results show that our global gridded  $T_s$ - $T_m$  equations have prominent advantages than other globally applied models. Large biases of Bevis equation or latitude-related linear model at considerable stations are removed in gridded  $T_s$ - $T_m$  estimating models. Multiple statistical tests at 5% significance levels show that time-varying global gridded model is superior to other  $T_s$ - $T_m$  models at 60.15% of all radiosonde stations, while the second best model, GPT2w model, is superior at only 12.7% sites. No model is significantly better at 6.20% sites. GPS-PWV retrievals using different  $T_m$  estimates were compared at a number of IGS stations. By application of time-varying global gridded  $T_s$ - $T_m$  equations, the relative differences of GPS-PWVs at most sites are within 1%. Such results are obviously superior to other  $T_m$  estimation models. The differences between GPS-PWVs and radiosonde PWVs are influenced by other comprehensive factors instead of single  $T_m$  parameter. However evident improvements still exist at special site by using more precise  $T_s$ - $T_m$  equations. PWV errors could decrease by more than 30% during wetter seasons.

批注 [jiang1]: Abstract revised

## 1. Introduction

Water vapor is an important trace gas and one of the most variable components in the troposphere. Water vapor's transport, concentration and phase transition directly involve in atmospheric radiation and the hydrological cycle, leading to its key role in many climate change and weather processes (Song et al., 2016; Mahoney et al., 2016; Adler et al., 2016). It is always a challenge to measure water vapor content accurately and timely due to its small amount and high spatial-temporal variability. Several methods have been studied for decades, such as radio sounding, water vapor radiometer, sun photometers, GPS and others (Ciesielski et al., 2010; Perez-Ramirez et al., 2014; Li et al., 2016; Campmany et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2013). Compared with traditional water vapor observations, ground-based GPS water vapor measurement has advantages in high accuracy, high spatial-temporal resolution, all-weather availability and low-cost (Pacione and Vespe, 2008; Haase et al., 2003; Lee et al., 2010; Means, 2013; Lu et al., 2015). Therefore ground-based GPS water vapor products, mainly including precipitable water vapor (PWV) and slant water vapor (SWV), are widely used in many fields such as real-time vapor monitoring (Karabatic et al., 2011), weather and climate research (Van Baelen and Penide, 2009; Adams et al., 2017), numerical weather prediction (NWP) (Rohm et al., 2014) and so on. However, besides GPS observations, it requires some other kinds of meteorological elements to remotely sense PWV/SWV at each GPS station. Saastamonien model is extensively adopted to compute zenith hydrostatic delay (ZHD), and surface pressure  $P_s$  is essential in the model equation (Saastamoinen, 1972). Then zenith wet delay (ZWD) is generated by deducting ZHD from zenith total delay (ZTD), and ZTD can be directly estimated from precise GPS data processing. Finally a conversion factor  $\Pi$ , which is used to map ZWD onto PWV, is determined by water-vapor-weighted mean temperature  $T_m$  over a GPS station. Mapping function from ZWD to PWV is expressed as (Bevis et al., 1992):

$$PWV = \Pi \cdot ZWD = \Pi \cdot (ZTD - ZHD) \quad (1)$$

and  $\Pi$  is computed using following formula:

$$\Pi = \frac{10^6}{\rho_w R_v [(k_3/T_m) + k_2']} \quad (2)$$

where  $\rho_w$  is the density of liquid water,  $R_v$  is the specific gas constant for water vapor,  $k_2' = (17 \pm 10) \text{K} \cdot \text{mbar}^{-1}$  and

$k_3 = (3.776 \pm 0.014) \times 10^5 \text{ K}^2 \cdot \text{mbar}^{-1}$  are physical constants (Sheng et al., 2013).

According to previous studies, error in  $T_m$  has significant influence upon the retrieval accuracy of PWV. The approximate relationship between the relative error of PWV and  $T_m$  is (Wang et al., 2005):

$$\frac{\Delta PWV}{PWV} \approx \frac{T_m + \Delta T_m}{T_m} - 1 = \frac{\Delta T_m}{T_m} \quad (3)$$

There are three main approaches to estimate  $T_m$ , which have respective advantages and disadvantages, for different applications:

(1) Integral of vertical temperature and humidity profiles is believed to be the most accurate method. The profile data can be extracted from radio sounding observations or NWP datasets (Wang et al., 2016). However, some inconveniences of this method have to be endured. It usually costs considerable time to acquire NWP data which normally have large volumes and be released every 6 hours beginning with 00:00 UTC every day. This limits the use of NWP data in near real-time GPS-PWV retrieving. The radiosonde data, which also provide accurate vertical atmospheric profile, have low spatial and temporal resolution. At most of radiosonde sites, sounding balloons are daily casted at 00:00 UTC and 12:00 UTC, furthermore lots of GPS stations are not located close enough to any radio sounding site leading to no radiosonde data can be obtained for these stations most of time. Therefore such methods are appropriate for climate research or long-term PWV trends study but not meet real-time requirements.

(2) Several global empirical models of  $T_m$  are established based on analyses of  $T_m$  time series from NWP datasets or other sources (Chen et al., 2014; Yao et al., 2012; Bohm et al., 2015).  $T_m$  at any time and any location can be estimated from these models independent of real meteorological observations. But some important real  $T_m$  variations, which maybe dramatic during some extreme weather events, can be lost without constraints of real data. So these modeled  $T_m$  estimates are not accurate enough for high-precise meteorological applications, such as providing GPS-PWV estimates for numerical weather predictions, etc.

(3) Many studies indicated that  $T_m$  parameter has evident relationships with some surface meteorological elements (e.g. surface air temperature  $T_s$ ). These surface meteorological parameters can be measured accurately and rapidly.  $T_m$  then is

estimated in real time using these surface measurements. For example, Bevis introduced Bevis  $T_s$ - $T_m$  equation,  $T_m=0.72 \times T_s+70.2$ , according to analyzing 8712 radiosonde profiles collected at 13 sites in U.S. over two years(Bevis et al., 1992), and this equation has been widely used in many other studies.

According to Rohm's research (Rohm et al., 2014), GPS-ZTD can be estimated very precisely by real-time GPS data processing. This means that  $T_m$  is a key parameter in near real-time GPS-PWV estimation. And method (3) is the most suitable means to estimate  $T_m$  in near real-time because of its balance between timeliness and accuracy. However, the relationship between  $T_m$  and  $T_s$  varies with location and time. Several regional  $T_s$ - $T_m$  equations were established using profile data over corresponding fields (Wang et al., 2012). But it is not precise enough to apply the same  $T_s$ - $T_m$  model in a vast field, e.g. in Indian region(Singh et al., 2014). Besides this, there are still vast areas, for example over the oceans, without high-precision specific  $T_s$ - $T_m$  equations, and there exist large differences between the oceanic and terrestrial atmospheric properties. It is necessary to model  $T_s$ - $T_m$  relationship over sea region, since several ocean-based GPS meteorology experiments were carried out and demonstrated the potential of such technique to retrieve PWV over the broad ocean (Rocken et al., 2005;Kealy et al., 2012). A global gridded  $T_s$ - $T_m$  model has been established by smoothing  $T_m$  data from "GGOS Atmosphere" and  $T_s$  data from ECMWF reanalysis data in Lan's study(Lan et al., 2016). The model, which has relative lower spatial resolution with  $4^\circ \times 5^\circ$ , however is statistic and the estimated  $T_m$  residuals due to time variations are not fixed (Yao et al., 2014a).

**Table 1.** Main differences between the  $T_s$ - $T_m$  developed in this study and other global used  $T_s$ - $T_m$  models

Strategies   $T_s$ - $T_m$ Models	Bevis model (Bevis et al., 1992)	Latitude-related linear model (Yao et al., 2014b)	Global-gridded model (Lan et al., 2016)	Time-varying global gridded model (our study)
<b>Applicable Regions</b>	Regional/Global	Global	Global	Global
<b>Data Sources</b>	Radiosonde	$T_s$ from $0.75^\circ \times 0.75^\circ$ ERA1, and $T_m$ from $2^\circ \times 2.5^\circ$ "GGOS Atmosphere"	$T_s$ from $0.75^\circ \times 0.75^\circ$ ERA1, and $T_m$ from $2^\circ \times 2.5^\circ$ "GGOS Atmosphere"	$T_s$ and $T_m$ both from $0.75^\circ \times 0.75^\circ$ ERA1
<b>Data Processing</b>	Integrate radiosonde profiles	$4^\circ \times 5^\circ$ Sliding window smooth	$4^\circ \times 5^\circ$ Sliding window smooth	Integrate ERA- Interim profiles
<b>Variations in model</b>	Static without any variations	Spatial variations depend on only latitude( $15^\circ$ latitude interval), but no	$4^\circ \times 5^\circ$ global gridded, but no temporal variations	$0.75^\circ \times 0.75^\circ$ global gridded and considering

		temporal variations		time variations
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The objective of this study is mainly to (1) develop global gridded  $T_s$ - $T_m$  models without any spatial smooth of data and assess their precisions; and (2) study the performances of GPS-PWV retrievals using our  $T_s$ - $T_m$  models. The main differences between the  $T_s$ - $T_m$  developed in this study and other global used  $T_s$ - $T_m$  models are listed in Tab. (1). In section 2 the data sources and  $T_m$  determining methods are introduced in detail. Then in section 3 we analyze the  $T_s$ - $T_m$  relationships and their variations on a global scale. Global-gridded  $T_s$ - $T_m$  estimating models in different forms are established and evaluated in Section 4. Section 5 compares different PWV retrievals and Section 6 presents conclusions based on our experiments.

## 2. Data Sources and Methodology of $T_m$ Determination

### 2.1 $T_m$ Definition

$T_m$  is defined as a function related to temperature and water vapor pressure. It can be approximated as following formula(Bevis et al., 1992):

$$T_m = \frac{\int \frac{e}{T} dz}{\int \frac{e}{T^2} dz} \approx \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{e_i}{T_i} \Delta z_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{e_i}{T_i^2} \Delta z_i} \quad (4)$$

where  $e$  and  $T$  respectively represents vapor pressure in hPa and temperature in Kelvin,  $i$  denotes the  $i$ th pressure level and  $\Delta z_i$  is the height difference of  $i$ th levels. Vapor pressure  $e$  is calculated using equation  $e=e_s \times RH$ ,  $RH$  is the relative humidity and saturation vapor pressure  $e_s$  can be estimated from temperature observations using Goff-Gratch formula (Sheng et al., 2013). The integral intervals are from the earth surface to the atmospheric top.

### 2.2 Data sources and Methodology of $T_m$ Determination

Equation (4) needs temperature, height and relative humidity values of several atmospheric levels through the entire atmosphere. These essential profile data can be obtained from radiosonde or NWP datasets.

We employed radiosonde data from Integrated Global Radiosonde Archive (IGRA,

<ftp://ftp.ncdc.noaa.gov/pub/data/igra>) to calculate  $T_m$ . Version 2.0 of the IGRA-derived sounding parameters provides pressure, geopotential height, temperature, saturation vapor pressure and relative humidity observations at observed levels. Bias maybe introduced if integrals were terminated at lower levels(Wang et al., 2005), so the integrals were performed up to the topmost valid radiosonde data. According to our quality control processes some radiosonde profile data were rejected. Surface  
110 observation must be available, and top profile level should not be lower than 300 hPa standard level. Furthermore the level number between surface and top level is required to be greater than five levels to avoid too sparse vertical profile. At most radio sounding stations, sounding balloons are launched every 12 hours, and their ascending paths are assumed to be vertical.

Profile data including same elements are usually provided by NWP products at certain vertical levels. ERA-Interim from ECMWF, provides data on a regular 512 longitude by 256 latitude N128 Gaussian grid after the grid transforming performed  
115 by NCAR's Data Support Section (DSS). On each grid node of ERA-Interim, temperature, relative humidity and geopotential at 37 isobaric levels from 1000 hPa to 1 hPa can be obtained. Dividing the geopotential by constant gravitational acceleration value ( $g \approx 9.80665 \text{ m/s}^2$ ), we can determine the geopotential heights of surface and levels. Datasets are available at 00:00, 06:00, 12:00 and 18:00 UTC every day and has been covering a period from 1979.01 to present.

In theory, the computation of Eq. (4) should be operated through the entire atmosphere and geopotential height should  
120 be converted to geoid height. However, vast majority of the water vapor concentrate at the troposphere, moreover the geopotential heights of top pressure levels in the two selected reanalysis datasets are around 30~40 km. Geopotential height is very close to geoid height in such height range. According to our computation, relative difference between them with only 0.1%~0.9%. In fact, the height difference  $\Delta z$  can be replaced by geopotential height difference  $\Delta h$  in Eq. (4), since the division operation can almost eliminate the difference between two different height types. The value change of  $T_m$  attributed  
125 to the height replacement will extremely approximate to zero. For convenience of calculations, we directly employed geopotential height variable of reanalysis datasets to estimate  $T_m$ . In this paper, we denoted the  $T_m$  derived from ERA-Interim as  $T_{m\_ERA}$ .

At each model grid node of reanalysis data, the computation of Eq. (4) starts from the surface height to the top pressure level. Therefore the pressure levels below surface height were rejected in calculation. Near-ground air temperature  $T_s$  is defined  
130 as the variable of "temperature at 2 meters above ground", and surface water vapor pressure can be derived from "2 meter

dewpoint temperature” variable in ERA-Interim. These  $T_s$  were also used in the regression analyses between  $T_m$  and  $T_s$  in following study.

### 3. Correlation between $T_s$ and $T_m$

Many studies have indicated the close relationship between surface air temperature  $T_s$  and weighted mean temperature  $T_m$ . However,  $T_m$  is also found to be not closely related to  $T_s$  in some other regions, e.g. in Indian zone(Raju et al., 2007). Using  $T_m$  and  $T_s$  generated from global gridded reanalysis data, we are able to study the relationship between  $T_s$  and  $T_m$  in detail.

We first carried on linear regression analyses on the four years long  $T_s$  and  $T_m$  data generated from point radiosonde data and global gridded ERA-Interim datasets. Analysis results are shown in Fig. (1). Although two datasets have different temporal resolutions (12 hours for radiosonde data and 6 hours for ERA-Interim data) and spatial resolutions, both analyses agree very well with each other. Our analyses also indicate that correlation coefficients between  $T_s$  and  $T_m$  are generally related to point's latitude as well as other studies(Yao et al., 2014b). Significant positive correlation coefficients can be found in mid- and high latitudes, and reaches the maximum in Polar Regions. Then the correlation coefficients drop dramatically in low latitudes. We further analyzed the main reason for such change.  $T_m$  variable in low latitudes is stable and shows its independence of other parameters. To study the variations of  $T_s$  and  $T_m$ , we illustrated denary logarithm values of their standard deviations in Fig. (2).

It is evidently that  $T_m$  varies much less in low latitudes. However, besides latitude-related features, it is worth noting that there are obvious  $T_s$ - $T_m$  correlation coefficient differences between lands and oceans. Analyses even demonstrate negative correlation coefficients over certain oceans, e.g. low-latitude Western Pacific, Bay of Bengal or Arabian Sea. It may be mainly attributed to the different thermodynamic properties of underlying surface, including the transfer of water latent heat, the different specific heat capacities, etc. These properties influence the  $T_s$  greatly, leading to the significantly smaller variations of  $T_s$  over the seas than over the lands. Unreliable regression analysis results may be derived by the  $T_s$  and  $T_m$  both with small variations. In Fig. (3), scatter plots of  $T_s$  and  $T_m$  from ERA-Interim datasets at two locations N 0.35° E180.00° and N70.53° E180.00° are given. Compared with the other point, the  $T_s$ - $T_m$  relationship at the point near the equator, as the blue dots show, is quiet obscure since the whole variation ranges of  $T_s$  and  $T_m$  are both below 10 K. The linear regression result, as the magenta

line shows, also makes less sense with low  $T_s$ - $T_m$  correlation coefficient of only -0.0893. Besides complicated spatial variations, 155 researches have revealed that  $T_s$ - $T_m$  relationships also have temporal variations(Wang et al., 2005). So a good  $T_s$ - $T_m$  model should take both spatial and temporal variations into consideration, which is the main work in the following sections.

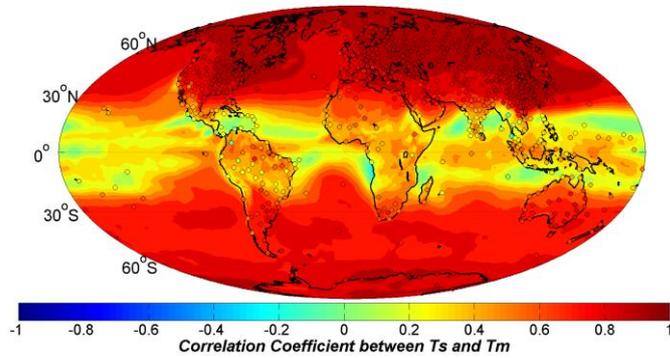
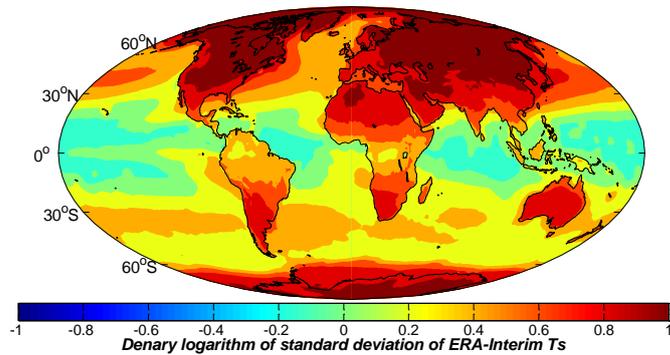


Figure 1: Correlation coefficients between  $T_s$  and  $T_m$  generated from radiosonde data (dots) and ERA-Interim reanalysis datasets (color-filled contours) over a period of 4 years from 2009 to 2012.

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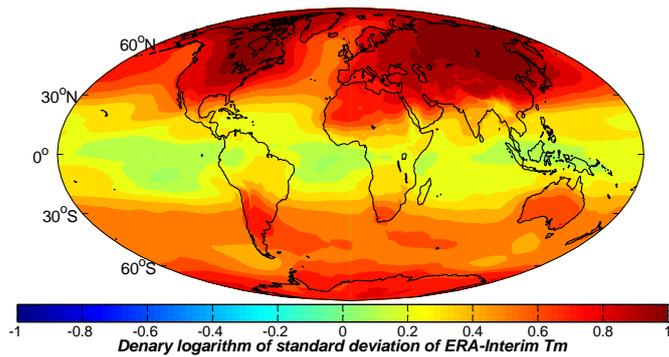


Figure 2: Denary logarithm of standard deviation of (top)  $T_s$  and (bottom)  $T_m$  generated from (left) NCEP FNL and (right) ERA-Interim reanalysis datasets over a period of 4 years from 2009 to 2012

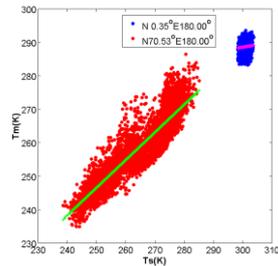


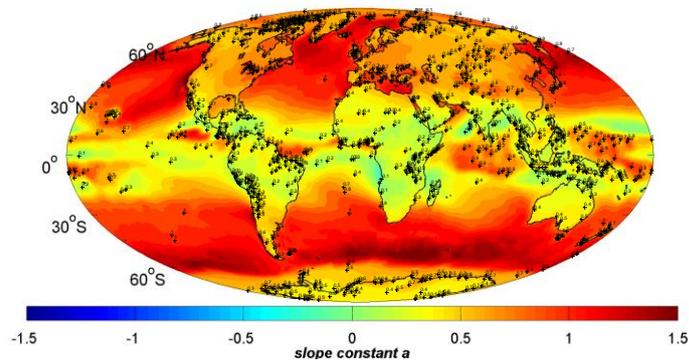
Figure 3:  $T_s$ - $T_m$  scatter plots at two locations: (blue dots)N 0.35°E180.00° and (red dots)N70.53°E180.00°, the magenta and green lines are their linear fitting curves

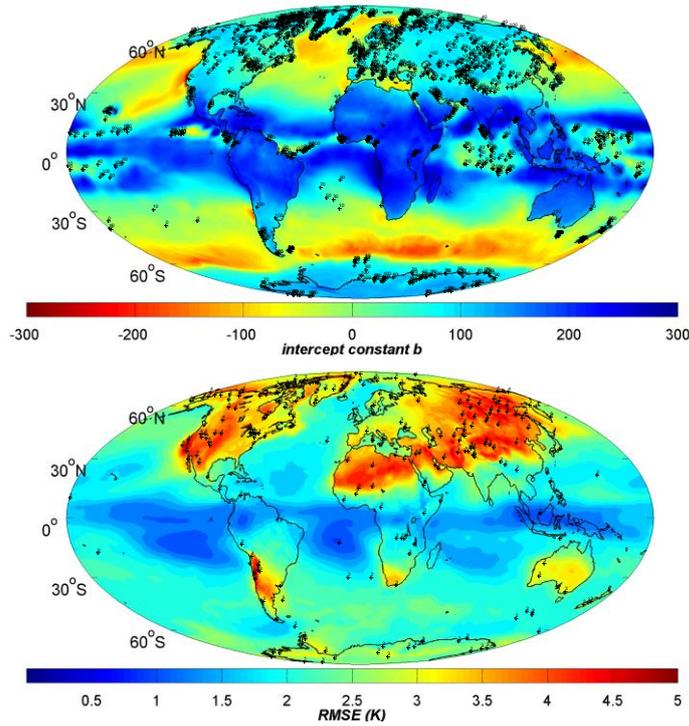
#### 4. Developments of Global-gridded $T_s$ - $T_m$ models

Since  $T_s$ - $T_m$  relationship has complicated spatial variations, it is necessary to establish detailed global gridded  $T_s$ - $T_m$  estimating equations for precise GPS-PWV remote sensing. In this section, static and time-varying global gridded  $T_s$ - $T_m$  models are established and assessed.

##### 4.1 Static global-gridded $T_s$ - $T_m$ model

Linear formulas including  $T_s$  and  $T_m$ , which is expressed as  $T_m = a \times T_s + b$ , are adopted in most studies, such as Bevis equation. Based on the  $T_s$  and  $T_m$  products from ERA-Interim reanalysis datasets, we performed linear fittings of  $T_s$  versus  $T_m$  on each grid point. Then slope constant ( $a$ ) and intercept constant ( $b$ ) of each linear expression and fitting RMSEs were calculated and contoured in Fig. (4). The  $a$  and  $b$  values are related to point's latitude as well as its underlying surface. Constant  $a$  value varies from 0.6 to 0.8 when constant  $b$  about 100~50 over most continents in northern mid-high latitudes. The constants in Bevis equation, which are 0.72 and 70.2 respectively, are within such value ranges. Constant  $a$  is smaller (about 0.5~0.7) over lands in the southern mid-high latitudes. Specially, there are acute value changes of constant  $a$  and  $b$  from lands to seas in mid-high latitudes. The reason is the different variation features of surface air temperature while there are not much differences of  $T_m$  variations between seas and lands, which can be seen in Fig. (2). In low latitudes, the  $a$  value is smaller than other regions whether over lands or oceans because of the low  $T_s$  and  $T_m$  variations. Fitting RMSEs are within 2~4 K over mid-high latitude lands, and relative lower values over the seas or low latitude areas. The reason for the low RMSE values over the oceans around equator is just the smaller fluctuations of  $T_m$ . Attributed to no spatial or temporal smooth of any data in our study, the precision and resolution of our static model, with no RMSE larger than 4.5 K, is clearly better than previous studies. (Lan et al., 2016).





190 Figure 4: Distribution of (top) slope constant  $a$ , (middle) intercept constant  $b$ , and (bottom) RMSE of static linear  $T_s$ - $T_m$  equations at ERA-Interim grid nodes. The numbers in figures are contour values.

批注 [jiang2]: Explain added

#### 4.2 Time-varying global-gridded $T_s$ - $T_m$ model

$T_s$ - $T_m$  relationship has time variations which should also be considered in precise  $T_s$ - $T_m$  model. Therefore a time-varying equation is applied for  $T_s$ - $T_m$  regression at each grid node:

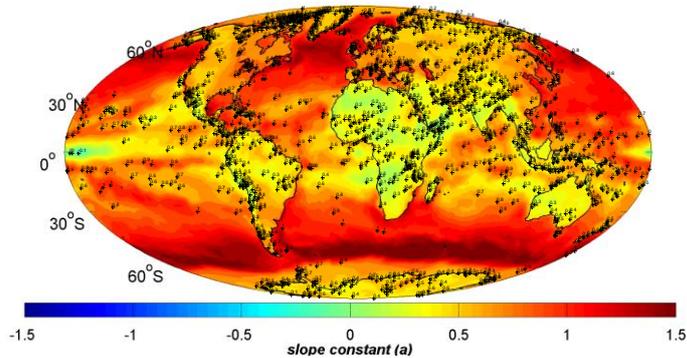
$$\begin{aligned}
 T_m = & a \times T_s + b + m_1 \cos\left(\frac{\text{doy}}{365.25} \cdot 2\pi\right) + m_2 \sin\left(\frac{\text{doy}}{365.25} \cdot 2\pi\right) + n_1 \cos\left(\frac{\text{doy}}{365.25} \cdot 4\pi\right) + \\
 & n_2 \sin\left(\frac{\text{doy}}{365.25} \cdot 4\pi\right) + p_1 \cos\left(\frac{\text{hr}}{24} \cdot 2\pi\right) + p_2 \sin\left(\frac{\text{hr}}{24} \cdot 2\pi\right)
 \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

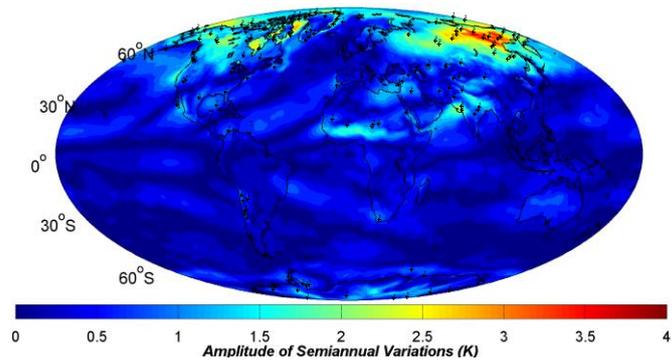
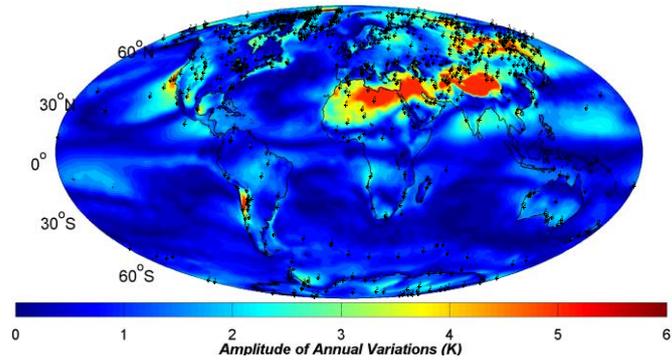
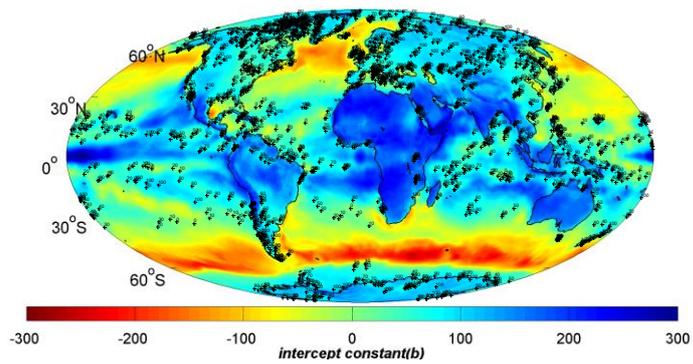
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where  $doy$  represents the observed day of year and  $hr$  is the observed hour in UTC time;  $(m_1, m_2)$ ,  $(n_1, n_2)$  and  $(p_1, p_2)$  are the fitting coefficients of formula items to reflect amplitudes of annual, semiannual and diurnal variations in our  $T_s-T_m$  models,

批注 [jiang3]: Explains added

Our regression indicated that the static terms in Eq. (5), which are determined by coefficients  $a$  and  $b$ , are similar to the static models in section 4.1 expect a little differences over some oceans. Besides  $a$  and  $b$ , we also illustrated the amplitudes of annual, semiannual and diurnal terms. We can see that there are large annual variations (amplitude  $> 5$  K) in the vast regions from Tibet to North Africa, and some places in Siberia and Chile, while diurnal variations (amplitude  $> 3$  K) mainly occurs in mid-latitude lands such Northeast Asia or North America. Semiannual variations, however, are small in most areas expect some high-latitudes (amplitude  $> 3$  K). All variations are smaller over the seas due to the slower temperature changes over waters than lands. By using time-varying  $T_s-T_m$  models the estimated  $T_m$ 's RMSEs, which are also contoured in Fig. (5), dropped significantly in the regions with large annual or diurnal variations.





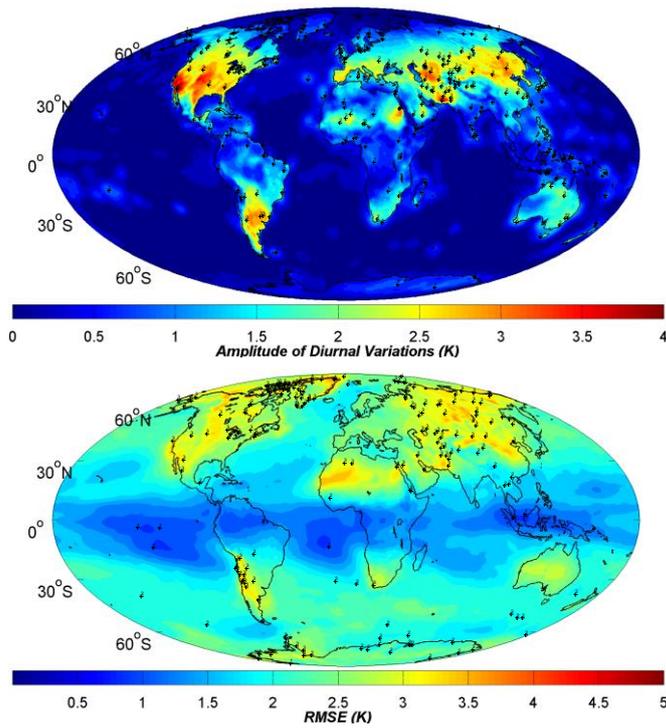


Figure 5: (top) slope constant  $a$ , (second) intercept constant  $b$ , amplitudes of  $T_m$  (third) annual, (forth) semiannual and (fifth) diurnal terms in our time-varying global gridded  $T_s$ - $T_m$  models, and (bottom) the model estimated  $T_m$ 's RMSE distribution. The numbers in figures are contour values.

批注 [jiang4]: Explain added

#### 4.3 Assessments of $T_s$ - $T_m$ models

In order to assess the  $T_s$ - $T_m$  models precisions further using other independent data sources, we generated  $T_m$  and  $T_s$  from radiosonde data at 758 radiosonde stations in the year 2016. These data are not assimilated into 2009~2012 ERA-Interim datasets which we used in  $T_s$ - $T_m$  modeling process, so we can regard them as independent data to our model. At each radiosonde site, different  $T_s$ - $T_m$  models were employed to calculate  $T_m$ . In contrast, we also estimated  $T_m$  using GPT2w model (Bohm et al., 2015), which is a global gridded  $T_m$  empirical model independent of surface meteorological observation data. Then these

批注 [jiang5]: GPT2w included

calculated  $T_m$  will be evaluated by comparisons with the integrated  $T_m$  values by radiosonde profiles (denoted as  $T_{m,RS}$ ) twice a day.

We compared our  $T_s$ - $T_m$  models with other globally applied models in Tab. (1). The model estimated  $T_m$  are denoted as  $T_{m\_Bevis}$ ,  $T_{m\_LatR}$ ,  $T_{m\_statics}$ ,  $T_{m\_varying}$  and  $T_{m\_GPT2w}$  respectively from Bevis equation, Yao's latitude-related model, our static global gridded model, time-varying global gridded model and GPT2w model. The Lan's global gridded model(Lan et al., 2016) is replaced by our static global gridded model because of its much lower spatial resolution( $4^\circ \times 5^\circ$ ) than our model ( $0.75^\circ \times 0.75^\circ$ ). Actually Bevis model is established using regional radiosonde data so it should be a regional model, but it has been adopted in many other regional research so we regraded it as a global applicable equation. When global gridded models are employed, there is a problem that the radiosonde station always are not located at any grid node. Therefore the coefficients in  $T_s$ - $T_m$  equations at radiosonde site's location should be horizontal interpolated from neighboring grids. The interpolation formula is expressed as (Jade and Vijayan, 2008):

$$C_{site} = \sum_{i=1}^4 w^i C_{grid}^i \quad (6)$$

$C_{site}$  and  $C_{grid}^i$  respectively represent the coefficients in  $T_s$ - $T_m$  equations at radiosonde site location and its neighboring grids.  $w^i$  is the interpolation coefficients, which is determined using equation:

$$w^i = \frac{(R\psi^i)^{-\lambda}}{\sum_{j=1}^4 (R\psi^j)^{-\lambda}} \quad (7)$$

where  $R=6378.17$  km is the mean radius of the earth,  $\lambda$  is the scale factor which equals one in our study, and  $\psi^i$  is the angular distance between the  $i$ th grid node and the station's position.  $\psi^i$  is computed using following formula related to latitude  $\varphi$  and longitude  $\theta$ :

$$\cos\psi_i = \sin\varphi_i \cdot \sin\varphi + \cos\varphi_i \cdot \cos\varphi \cdot \cos(\theta_i - \theta) \quad (8)$$

Considering the reanalysis grids are definite and every radiosonde site is in situ, we can computed these interpolation

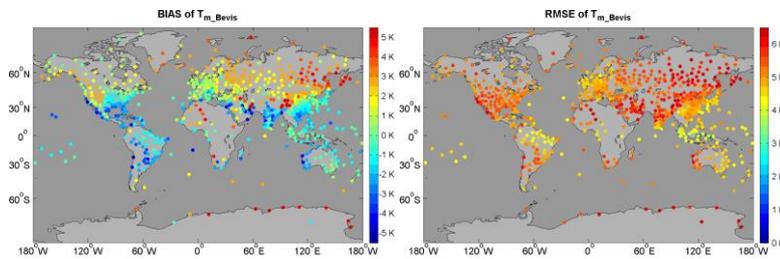
coefficients in Eq. (6) for all radiosonde stations, then these coefficients are stored as constants to avoid reduplicate calculation.

Taking  $T_{m\_RS}$  as reference values, we calculated the bias and root mean square error (RMSE) of  $T_{m\_Bevis}$ ,  $T_{m\_LatR}$ ,  $T_{m\_static}$ ,  $T_{m\_varying}$  and  $T_{m\_GPT2w}$  at each radiosonde site and illustrated them in Fig. (6). Obviously Bevis equation has bad precisions in many regions with absolute bias and RMSE larger than 5 K.  $T_{m\_LatR}$  can reduce estimated biases in many regions, but the RMSEs remain large. And there still exist large biases at quite a few radiosonde stations, e.g. in the Africa or West Asia.  $T_{m\_static}$  and  $T_{m\_GPT2w}$  can clearly remove large  $T_m$  biases at most of radiosonde stations.  $T_{m\_varying}$  perform better significantly all over the world, especially in the Middle East area, North America or Siberia region, etc.

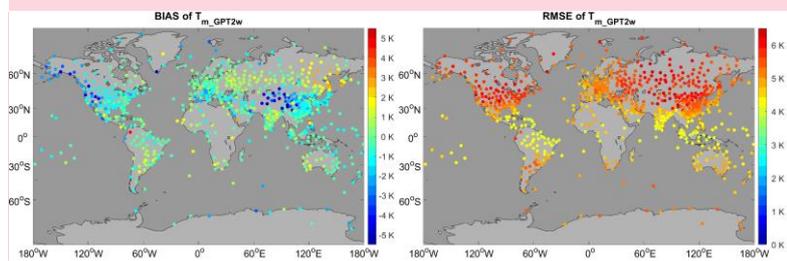
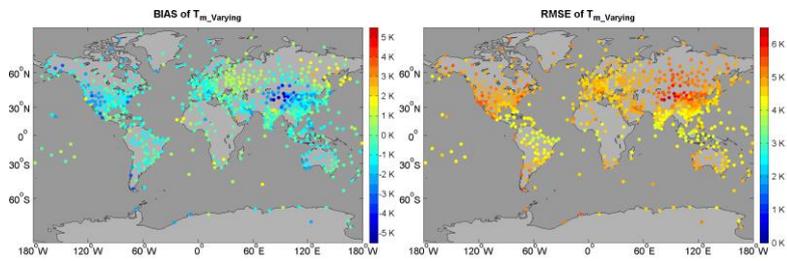
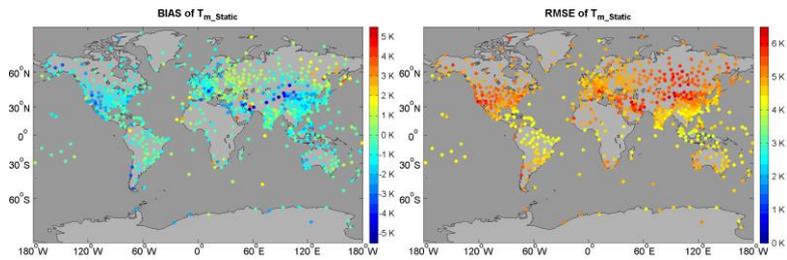
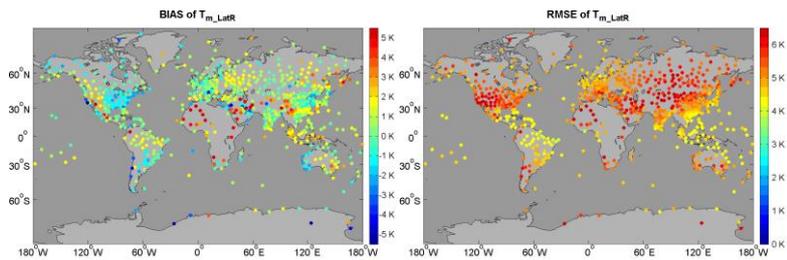
Detailed statistics on the bias's and RMSE's distributions of different models are shown in Fig. (7) and Tab. (2). At over 96% radiosonde stations, biases of  $T_{m\_varying}$  are within -3~3 K and large positive biases (>3K) nearly disappear, while there are considerable large ones in  $T_{m\_Bevis}$  and  $T_{m\_LatR}$ . Improvements in RMSEs are more evidently.  $T_{m\_varying}$ 's RMSEs are smaller than 4 K at over 90% radiosonde sites while few sites (<1%) have RMSEs larger than 5 K, which is clearly better than other models. In  $T_{m\_Bevis}$  and  $T_{m\_LatR}$ , there are more than 17% radiosonde sites have RMSE larger than 5 K. The overall performance of  $T_{m\_GPT2w}$ , however, is very close to  $T_{m\_Bevis}$  except that its absolute bias is smaller than  $T_s$ - $T_m$  models.

批注 [jiang6]: GPT2w included

批注 [jiang7]: GPT2w included

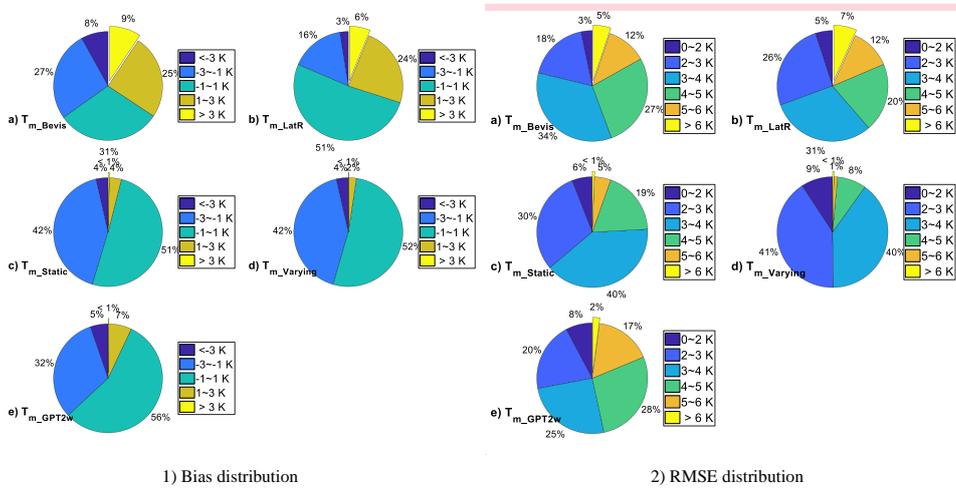


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批注 [jiang8]: GPT2w included

Figure 6: (left) bias and (right) RMSE of estimated  $T_m$  using  $T_s$ - $T_m$  equations from (top) Bevis equation, (second) Yao's latitude-related model, (third) static global gridded model, (forth) time-varying global gridded model and (bottom) GPT2w model at each radiosonde station comparing with radiosonde data of the year 2016.



批注 [jiang9]: GPT2w included

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Figure 7: (left) bias's and (right) RMSE's distributions of  $T_{m\_Bevis}$ ,  $T_{m\_LatR}$ ,  $T_{m\_static}$ ,  $T_{m\_varying}$  and  $T_{m\_GPT2w}$  compared with respect to radiosonde data at 758 stations in 2016

Table 2: Statistics of  $T_m$  estimates from different  $T_s$ - $T_m$  models and GPT2w model comparing with radiosonde  $T_m$  derivations

Statistics	$T_{m\_Bevis}$	$T_{m\_LatR}$	$T_{m\_static}$	$T_{m\_varying}$	$T_{m\_GPT2w}$
Average value of absolute $T_m$ bias (K)	1.90	1.31	1.17	1.13	-0.74
Average value of $T_m$ RMSE (K)	3.95	3.83	3.37	3.02	3.83
Average relative RMSE of $T_m$ (%)	1.44	1.39	1.23	1.10	1.40
Max Relative RMSE of mean $T_m$ (%)	3.69	4.26	2.57	2.40	4.31
% of sites with $T_m$ RMSE < 4 K	55.67	61.35	75.86	90.11	53.43
% of sites with $T_m$ Relative RMSE less than 1.5%	59.50	64.78	77.70	88.92	56.60

批注 [jiang10]: GPT2w included

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To verify the superior  $T_m$  estimation model at each radiosonde site, we employed following statistical tests under the assumption of normal distribution of estimated  $T_m$ 's error:

(1) Firstly, Brown-Forsythe's tests(Brown and Forsythe, 1974) of equality of variances were carried out at each site for

estimated  $T_m$  errors from two different models, e.g. model **A** and **B**. The purpose of this step is to determine that whether there is significant variance difference between two  $T_m$  results. If the test rejects the null hypothesis at 5% significance level that the errors of model **A** and **B** have the same variance, the model with smaller sample variance is regarded as the better one. However, if the test doesn't reject the homogeneity of variances, analysis of variance (ANOVA) is performed in the next step.

(2) ANOVA is a technique to analyze the differences among group means(Hogg, 1987). It evaluates the null hypothesis that the samples all have the same mean against the alternative that the means are not the same. If the null hypothesis is rejected at 5% significance level, the  $T_m$  sample with smaller absolute mean value is believed to be better. Otherwise we think that two models perform almost the same at this radiosonde site.

(3) After multiple tests and comparisons, the best model at each radiosonde stations may be determined. However, at some sites no superior model can be confirmed so all models are believed to have equivalent performances.

Finally we counted the number of sites at which each  $T_s$ - $T_m$  model respectively performed superiorly, and the results are given in Tab. (3). At 456 radiosonde stations (60.16% of all sites), the time-varying global gridded model is superior to others, while the second best estimations,  $T_{m\_GPT2w}$ , is superior at only 12.66% sites.

批注 [jiang11]: GPT2w included

**Table 3: Number of radiosonde sites at which the five global applied  $T_m$  estimation models respectively perform superiorly**

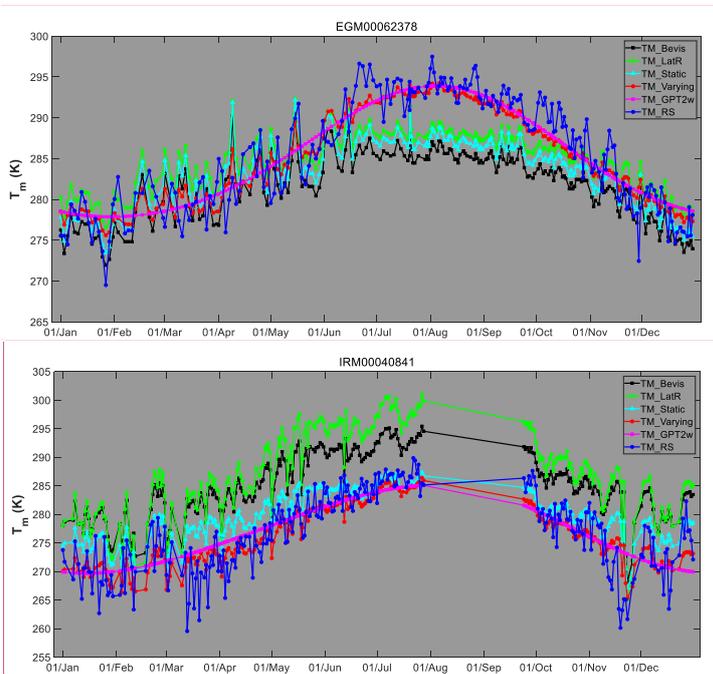
Superior model	None	$T_{m\_Bevis}$	$T_{m\_LatR}$	$T_{m\_static}$	$T_{m\_varying}$	$T_{m\_GPT2w}$
Number of sites	47	48	70	41	456	96

批注 [jiang12]: GPT2w included and results modified

In Fig. (8),  $T_m$  series at IGRA station NO.62378 (N29.8628°E31.3492°) are given. We can see that large negative biases (< -5 K) between  $T_{m\_Bevis}$  (or  $T_{m\_LatR}$ ) and  $T_{m\_RS}$  exist, while  $T_{m\_static}$  perform only slightly better from July to October. But  $T_{m\_varying}$  and  $T_{m\_GPT2w}$  can eliminate most of the seasonal errors. Different properties of  $T_m$  series appear at another IGRA station NO.40841 (N30.2500°E56.9667°) shown in Fig. (8). Some observation data are missing but we can still see there are large positive differences (> 5 K) between  $T_{m\_Bevis}$  (or  $T_{m\_LatR}$ ) and  $T_{m\_RS}$  all through the year.  $T_{m\_static}$ 's biases are much smaller than  $T_{m\_Bevis}$  but still have some big errors in many months. The  $T_{m\_varying}$ , however, still perform as well as at NO.62378 IGRA station, with small biases and good capturing of  $T_m$ 's variations. Both time series of  $T_{m\_GPT2w}$  are smooth so they cannot capture the large fluctuations of  $T_m$  time series leading to  $T_{m\_GPT2w}$ 's worse accuracy than  $T_{m\_varying}$ .

On the other hand, even  $T_{m\_varying}$  also have large differences from  $T_{m\_RS}$  at a few IGRA stations especially in Central Asia.

It is because that our fitting analyses were based on the  $T_m$  values derived from reanalysis datasets, and reanalysis  $T_m$  did not agree well with radiosonde data at these IGRA sites during specific seasons. So improvements on reanalysis data in these region should be performed in future.



批注 [jiang13]: GPT2w included

批注 [jiang14]: GPT2w included

Figure 8:  $T_m$  series of  $T_{m\_Bevis}$ ,  $T_{m\_LaIR}$ ,  $T_{m\_static}$ ,  $T_{m\_varying}$ ,  $T_{m\_GPT2w}$  and  $T_{m\_RS}$  at (top) EGM00062378 and (bottom) IRM00040841 IGRA sites.

## 5. GPS-PWV retrieving experiments

GPS-PWV has different error sources with different properties, including GPS ZWD error, surface temperature and pressure measurement errors, and  $T_m$  estimation error (Ning et al., 2016), etc. It is complicated to evaluate GPS-PWV uncertainty due to the lack of collaborated additional independent techniques to monitor water vapor at GPS site. Therefore

several experiments were carried out to investigate GPS-PWV precisions carefully.

### 5.1 Impact of $T_m$ estimation

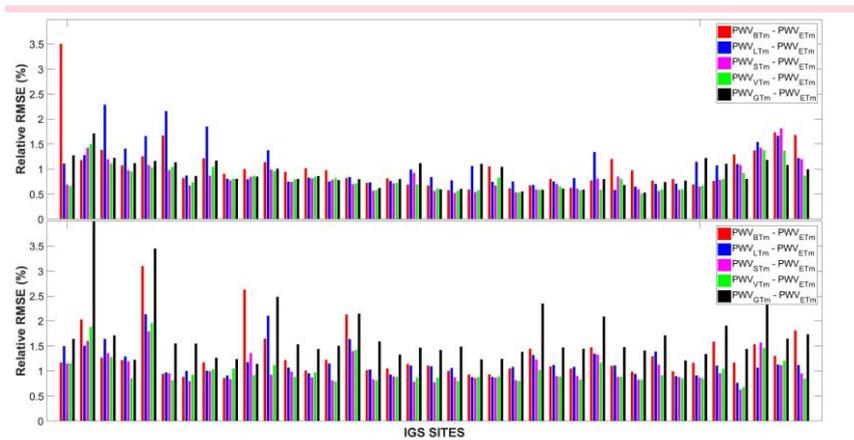
In order to study to actual impacts of  $T_m$  on GPS-PWV retrievals, we firstly downloaded GPS ZTD products (Byun and Bar-Sever, 2009) at several IGS sites in the year 2016 from CDDIS FTP address (<ftp://cddis.gsfc.nasa.gov/pub/gps/products/troposphere/zpd>). These selected GPS sites were equipped with meteorological sensors so surface pressure and temperature measurements could be also obtained.  $ZHDs$  were calculated using surface pressures and Saastamonien model and deducted from  $ZTDs$  to obtain  $ZWDs$ . Then  $T_m$  were generated through six approaches: the first four  $T_m$  series were  $T_{m\_Bevis}$ ,  $T_{m\_LatR}$ ,  $T_{m\_static}$ ,  $T_{m\_varying}$  and  $T_{m\_GPT2w}$ , while the sixth  $T_m$  were integrated from ERA-Interim profiles and interpolated to GPS site locations (Wang et al., 2016; Jiang et al., 2016). Finally, GPS-PWVs were generated from  $ZWD$  and six different  $T_m$  estimates. We denoted these GPS-PWV sets as  $PWV_{BTm}$ ,  $PWV_{LTm}$ ,  $PWV_{STm}$ ,  $PWV_{VTm}$ ,  $PWV_{GTm}$  and  $PWV_{ETm}$ . The only differences between these GPS-PWVs are the  $T_m$  estimates, so impacts of other errors could be excluded.

Because the  $T_m$  from ERA-Interim is believed to be the most accurate, so we regarded the  $PWV_{ETm}$  as reference values to assess other PWVs. Finally PWVs at 74 IGS sites which have over one hundred compared points were obtained. The relative RMSEs of  $PWV_{BTm}$ ,  $PWV_{LTm}$ ,  $PWV_{STm}$ ,  $PWV_{VTm}$  and  $PWV_{GTm}$  at these selected stations were calculated and illustrated in Fig. (9), and detailed statistics are given in Tab. (4). Mean relative error of all sites drops from 1.18% of  $PWV_{BTm}$  to 0.91% of  $PWV_{VTm}$ . Obviously at most sites  $PWV_{VTm}$ , which have minim relative errors, are prior to other PWV retrievals. At 55 sites  $PWV_{STm}$  and  $PWV_{VTm}$  obtain relative RMSE smaller than 1.0%, while at only 28 sites of  $PWV_{BTm}$ , 31 sites of  $PWV_{LTm}$  and 22 sites of  $PWV_{GTm}$  perform similarly. Some relative RMSEs were remarkably reduced. For example, at ALIC site which located in Australia with mean PWV of about 23 mm, the relative RMSE dropped from 1.97% of  $PWV_{BTm}$  to 1.10% of  $PWV_{VTm}$ . The time series of relative differences of  $PWV_{BTm}$ ,  $PWV_{LTm}$ ,  $PWV_{STm}$ ,  $PWV_{VTm}$  and  $PWV_{GTm}$  at ALIC station are given in Fig. (10). Obviously  $PWV_{BTm}$  and  $PWV_{LTm}$  have bigger relative errors although the year while PWV differences are evidently larger only in summer season. It is attributed to the wetter atmosphere in summer than in winter.  $PWV_{STm}$  eliminate those large differences but still retain some residual errors, which are removed more than 1.0 mm in  $PWV_{VTm}$  further.  $PWV_{GTm}$  has some large errors during period from May to July. All these results demonstrate that our time-varying global gridded has precision advantages.

批注 [jiang15]: Reference added

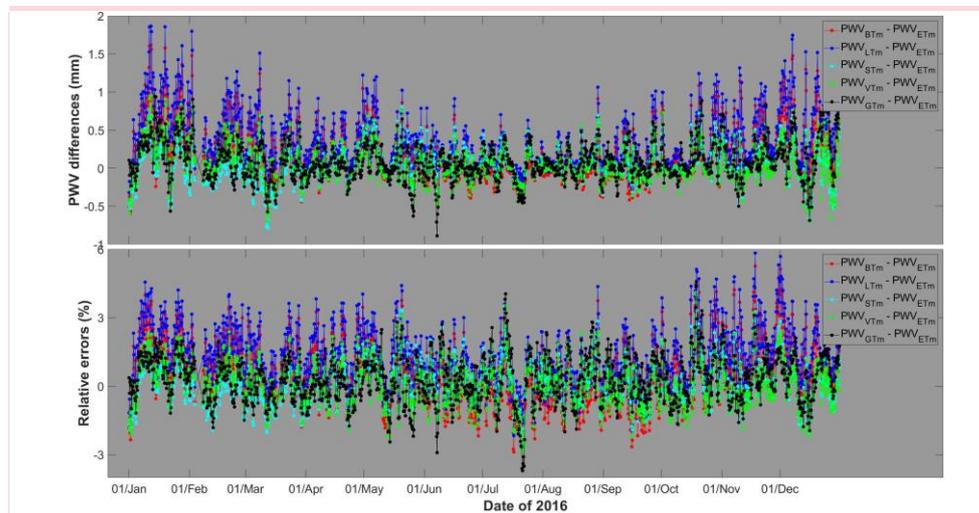
批注 [jiang16]: GPT2w included

批注 [jiang17]: GPT2w included



批注 [jiang18]: GPT2w included

Figure 9: Relative RMSEs of  $PWV_{BTm}$ ,  $PWV_{STm}$ ,  $PWV_{VTm}$  and  $PWV_{GTm}$  compared with  $PWV_{ETm}$  at 74 IGS stations in the year 2016



批注 [jiang19]: GPT2w included

Figure 10: (top) PWV differences and (bottom) relative differences of  $PWV_{BTm}$ ,  $PWV_{LTm}$ ,  $PWV_{STm}$ ,  $PWV_{VTm}$  and  $PWV_{GTm}$  compared with  $PWV_{ETm}$  at ALIC station in the year 2016.

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**Table 4: Statistics about relative errors of different PWV retrievals**

Statistics	PWV <sub>BTm</sub>	PWV <sub>LTm</sub>	PWV <sub>STm</sub>	PWV <sub>VTm</sub>	PWV <sub>GPT2w</sub>
Mean relative RMSE of all sites	1.18%	1.12%	0.93%	0.91%	1.32%
Number of sites with relative errors < 1.0%	28	31	55	55	22

批注 [jiang20]: GPT2w included and results modified

### 5.2 Comparisons between GPS-PWVs and radiosonde PWVs

Among our selected 74 IGS sites, there are only 11 sites located within 5 km to nearby IGRA radiosonde stations. At these common stations, we generated PWVs from radiosonde data ( $PWV_{RS}$ ) by adjusting sounding profiles to the heights of IGS sites. It worth noticing that geoid undulation corrections should be carried out on each IGS site's geoid height (Jiang et al., 2016). Then we compared  $PWV_{BTm}$ ,  $PWV_{LTm}$ ,  $PWV_{STm}$ ,  $PWV_{VTm}$ ,  $PWV_{GTm}$  and  $PWV_{ETm}$  with  $PWV_{RS}$ . Statistics are shown in Fig. (11). The RMSEs of GPS-PWVs are around 1~5 mm. Comparisons indicate that at most selected sites the RMSEs of different GPS-PWV retrievals are very close (differences < 0.2 mm) regardless of the  $T_m$  sources applied, which means that other errors (e.g. ZTD estimation errors or sounding sensors errors) instead of  $T_m$  occupied the differences between GPS-PWVs and radiosonde PWVs. However, we still found obvious gaps between PWVs at NRIL (N88.3598° E69.3618° , 4.1km to nearby radiosonde NO.23078 sites). RMSEs decrease from 2.29 mm of  $PWV_{BTm}$  to 1.84mm of  $PWV_{VTm}$  and 1.42 mm of  $PWV_{ETm}$ . As shown in Fig. (12), the large PWV differences mainly appeared from May to September. During such five months, mean GPS-PWV differences to  $PWV_{RS}$  decreased by over 30% from 2.52 mm of  $PWV_{BTm}$  to 1.67 mm of  $PWV_{VTm}$ . Accuracy of  $PWV_{GTm}$  is close to  $PWV_{VTm}$  at this site, and it indicates that the spatiotemporal variations of  $T_m$  is also modeled very well by GPT2w model.

批注 [jiang21]: GPT2w included

批注 [jiang22]: GPT2w included

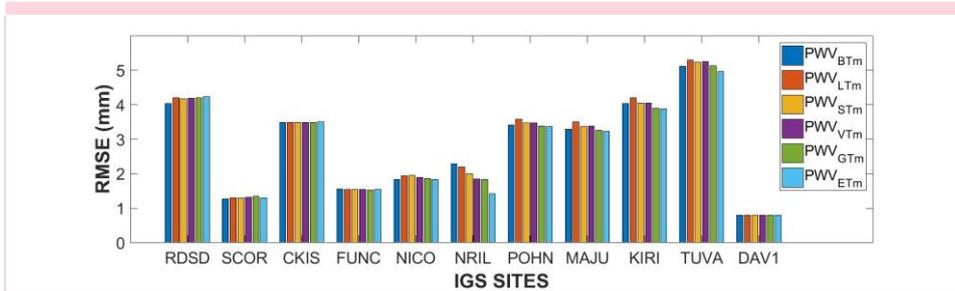
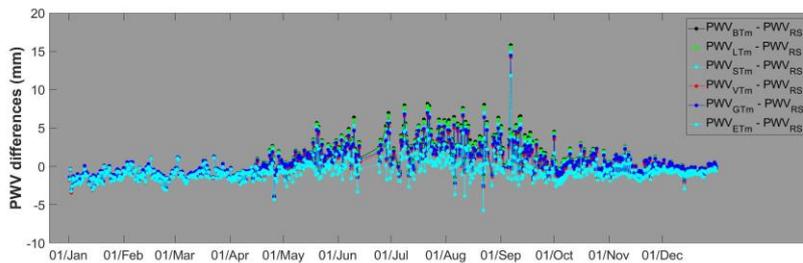


Figure 11: RMSEs of  $PWV_{BTm}$ ,  $PWV_{STm}$ ,  $PWV_{VTm}$ ,  $PWV_{GTm}$  and  $PWV_{ETm}$  compared with  $PWV_{RS}$  at 11 IGS stations in 2016



批注 [jiang23]: GPT2w included

355 Figure 12: PWV differences of  $PWV_{BTm}$ ,  $PWV_{LTm}$ ,  $PWV_{STm}$ ,  $PWV_{VTm}$ ,  $PWV_{GTm}$  and  $PWV_{ETm}$  compared with  $PWV_{RS}$  at NIRL station in the year 2016

## 6. Summary and conclusion

In this study, we estimated  $T_m$  using temperature and humidity profile data from IGRA radiosonde data and ERA-Interim reanalysis datasets over a four-years-long period from year 2009 to 2012. Surface air temperature  $T_s$  were also extracted from the two data sets. Then we analyzed the relationship between  $T_s$  and  $T_m$  at each grid node of reanalysis data and radiosonde station. Analyses indicated that: (1)  $T_m$  has stronger relationship with  $T_s$  in mid-high latitudes than in low latitudes; (2) In low latitudes,  $T_s$ - $T_m$  correlation coefficients are higher over lands than over oceans; (3) the  $T_s$ - $T_m$  relationship's variation properties is much more complicated rather than only dependence on point's latitude, and (4)  $T_s$ - $T_m$  relation has strong annual, semiannual and diurnal variations in many areas.

365 Using global gridded ERA-Interim datasets from 2009 to 2012, we developed static and time-varying global gridded  $T_s$ - $T_m$  models. Annual, semiannual and diurnal variations in  $T_s$ - $T_m$  relationship are considered in time-varying model. Then we evaluated  $T_m$  results from different  $T_s$ - $T_m$  models and GPT2w model by comparing them with radiosonde data in 2016. Results demonstrate time-varying global gridded  $T_s$ - $T_m$  model has significant global precision advantage over other global applied models. Average  $T_m$  RMSE reduces by about 1 K. The proportion of sites with small biases and RMSEs increases significantly.

370 At over 90% radiosonde sites, time-varying global gridded model has RMSE smaller than 4 K, and the RMSEs larger than 5

K nearly disappear, while by applying Bevis or latitude-related models there are more than 17% radiosonde sites have RMSEs larger than 5 K. Multiple statistical tests at 5% significance level verify the significant superiority of the new time-varying model at more than 60% of radiosonde sites. Analyses at specific stations also demonstrate that time-varying global model can eliminate large errors in estimated  $T_m$  series.

375 More precise  $T_s$ - $T_m$  models also have positive impacts on GPS-PWV retrievals. Regarding the GPS-PWVs using ERA-Interim  $T_m$  estimates as references, relative errors of GPS-PWV using time-varying global gridded  $T_s$ - $T_m$  models are within 1.0% at more than 74% of IGS sites, which is better most of other models. The differences between GPS-PWVs and radiosonde PWVs are around 1~5 mm and mainly influenced by comprehensive error sources rather than single  $T_m$ . But at special site, such differences could decrease by more than 30% in wetter conditions.

380 According to our experiments, we are confident that the time-varying global gridded  $T_s$ - $T_m$  models presented here will help us to retrieve GPS PWV more precisely, or to study precise PWV variations in high temporal resolution as well as  $T_s$  observations which is much greater than of conventional reanalysis datasets (6 hours) or radiosonde data (12 hours). Matlab array file consisting of global gridded coefficients in our model, as well as Matlab codes to interpolate coefficients to any given location, are provided as the supplements of this study. It is convenient to use for researchers and applicants in relevant fields.

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#### **Data sets**

Radiosonde data: <ftp://ftp.ncdc.noaa.gov/pub/data/igra>

ERA-Interim Project: <https://doi.org/10.5065/D6CR5RD9>

GPS-ZTD Product: <ftp://cddis.gsfc.nasa.gov/pub/gps/products/troposphere/zpd>

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#### **Competing interests**

*The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.*

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