# Improving thermodynamic profile retrievals from microwave radiometers by including Radio Acoustic Sounding System (RASS) observations Irina V. Djalalova<sup>1,2</sup>, David D. Turner<sup>3</sup>, Laura Bianco<sup>1,2</sup>, James M. Wilczak<sup>2</sup>, James Duncan<sup>1,2\*</sup>, Bianca Adler<sup>1,2</sup> and Daniel Gottas<sup>2</sup> <sup>1</sup> Cooperative Institute for Research in Environmental Sciences (CIRES), Boulder, CO, USA $^2\,\text{National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, Physical Sciences Laboratory, Boulder, CO, USA}$ <sup>3</sup> National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, Global Systems Laboratory, Boulder, CO USA \*Now at WindESCo, Burlington, MA Corresponding author address: Irina V. Djalalova (Irina.V.Djalalova@noaa.gov), NOAA/Physical Science Laboratory, 325 Broadway, mail stop: PSD3, Boulder, CO 80305. Tel.: 303-497-6238. Fax: 303-497-6181.

22 Outline 23 Abstract 25 1. Introduction 26 2. XPIA dataset 27 2.1 MWR measurements 28 2.2 Radiosonde measurements 29 2.4 Radiosonde measurements 29 2.4 Radiosonde measurements 30 2.4 Radiosonde measurements 31 3. Physical retrievals 32 3. Physical retrieval bias 3.2 Bias-correction and temperature profiles of MWR of the control of t			
25 1. Introduction 26 2. XPIA dataset 27 2.1 MWR measurements 28 2.2 Radiosonde measurements 29 2.2-WPR-RASS measurements 30 2.43 BAO data 31 2.4 Radiosonde measurements 32 3. Physical retrievals 33 3.1 Iterative retrieval technique 34 3.2 Physical retrieval bias 3.2 Bias correction and temperature profiles of MWR 35 observations using radiosondes or climatology, 36 2.3 Averaging kornel 37 3.3 Analysis of physical retrieval characteristics 38 4. Results 39 4.1 Physical retrieval statistical analysis of the physical retrievals up to 53 km AGL	22		
25 1. Introduction	23	Outline	
2. XPIA dataset  2. IMWR measurements  2. Radiosonde measurements  2. Radiosonde measurements  2. Radiosonde measurements  3. Physical retrievals  3. Physical retrieval technique  3. Iterative retrieval technique  3. Physical retrieval bias 3.2 Bias-correction and temperature profilesof MWR  3. Observations using radiosondes or climatology  3. Averaging kernel  3. Averaging kernel  4. Results  4. Physical retrieval statistical analysis from Akernel  4. Physical retrieval statistical analysis from Akernel  4. Physical retrieval statistical analysis of the physical retrievals up to 53 km AGL	24	Abstract	
2. XPIA dataset  2. 1 MWR measurements  2. 2. Radiosonde measurements  2. 2. WPR-RASS measurements  2. 3. Physical retrievals  3. Physical retrieval technique  3. 1. Iterative retrieval technique  3. 2. Physical retrieval bias 3.2 Bias-correction and temperature profiles of MWR  3. Observations using radiosondes or climatology  3. Averaging kernel  3. Analysis of physical retrieval characteristics  4. Results  4. Physical retrieval statistical analysis from Akernel  4. Physical retrieval statistical analysis from Akernel  4. Physical retrieval statistical analysis of the physical retrievals up to 53 km AGL	25	1. Introduction	
2.2 Radiosonde measurements  2.3 WPR-RASS measurements  2.43 BAO data  3. Physical retrievals  3. Physical retrievals  3. I iterative retrieval technique  3. Physical retrieval bias 3.2 Bias-correction and temperature profilesof MWR  3. Physical retrieval bias 3.2 Bias-correction and temperature profilesof MWR  3. Physical retrieval bias 3.2 Bias-correction and temperature profilesof MWR  3. Physical retrieval bias 3.2 Bias-correction and temperature profilesof MWR  3. Physical retrieval bias 3.2 Bias-correction and temperature profilesof MWR  4. Pormatted: Font color: Auto  5. Formatted: Font color: Auto  6. Formatted: Font color: Auto  7. Formatted: Outline numbered + Level: 1 + Numbering Style: 1, 2, 3, + Stort at: 1 + Alignment: Left + Aligned at: 0° + Indent at: 0.25°  8. Results  9. Formatted: Outline numbered + Level: 1 + Numbering Style: 1, 2, 3, + Stort at: 1 + Alignment: Left + Aligned at: 0° + Indent at: 0.25°  8. Results  9. Formatted: Outline numbered + Level: 1 + Numbering Style: 1, 2, 3, + Stort at: 1 + Alignment: Left + Aligned at: 0° + Indent at: 0.25°  8. Formatted: Font color: Auto  9. Formatted: Font color: Auto  1. Physical retrieval statistical analysis from Alternal  1. Physical retrieval statistical analysis from Alternal	26	2. XPIA dataset	
2.42 BAO data  2.4 Radiosonde measurements  3. Physical retrievals  3. Physical retrievals  3. I Iterative retrieval technique  3. Physical retrieval bias 3.2 Bias-correction and temperature profilesof MWR  3. Physical retrieval bias 3.2 Bias-correction and temperature profilesof MWR  3. Physical retrieval bias 3.2 Bias-correction and temperature profilesof MWR  4. Physical retrieval characteristics  4. Results  4. Results  4. Physical retrieval statistical analysis from Akernel  4. Physical retrieval statistical analysis of the physical retrievals up to 53 km AGL	27	2.1 MWR measurements	
2.48 BAO data  2.4 Radiosonde measurements  3. Physical retrievals  3. Physical retrievals  3. 1 Iterative retrieval technique  3. 2 Physical retrieval bias 3.2 Bias-correction and temperature profilesof MWR  3. 2 Physical retrieval bias 3.2 Bias-correction and temperature profilesof MWR  3. 3 Observations using radiosondes or climatology  3. 4 Neraging kernel  3. 5 Averaging kernel  3. 6 Aresults  4. Results  4. 1 Physical retrieval statistical analysis from Akernel  4. 2 Statistical analysis of the physical retrievals up to 53 km AGL	28	2.2 Radiosende measurements	
2.4 Radiosonde measurements  3. Physical retrievals  3. Physical retrievals  3. 1 Iterative retrieval technique  3. 2 Physical retrieval bias 3.2 Bias-correction and temperature profilesof MWR  3. 3 Observations using radiosondes or climatology  3. 3 Averaging kernel  3. 4 Results  4 Results  4 Physical retrieval statistical analysis of the physical retrievals up to 53 km AGL	29	2.3-WPR-RASS measurements	
32 3. Physical retrievals  3.1 Iterative retrieval technique  3.2 Physical retrieval bias 3.2 Bias-correction and temperature profiles of MWR  3.3 Observations using radiosondes or climatology  3.4 Averaging kernel  3.5 Averaging kernel  3.6 A Results  4.1 Physical retrieval statistical analysis from Akernel  4.2 Statistical analysis of the physical retrievals up to 53 km AGL	30	2.4 <u>3</u> BAO data	
33 3.1 Iterative retrieval technique  34 3.2 Physical retrieval bias 3.2 Bias-correction and temperature profilesof MWR  35 observations using radiosondes or climatology  36 3.3 Averaging kernel  37 3.3 Analysis of physical retrieval characteristics  4. Results  4. Physical retrieval statistical analysis from Akernel  4.1 Physical retrieval statistical analysis of the physical retrievals up to 53 km AGL	31	2.4 Radiosonde measurements	
3.1 Iterative retrieval technique  3.2 Physical retrieval bias-3.2 Bias-correction and temperature profilesof MWR  3.3 Observations using radiosondes or climatology  3.4 Results  4.1 Physical retrieval statistical analysis of the physical retrievals up to 53 km AGL	32	3. Physical retrievals	•
34 3.2 Physical retrieval bias 3.2 Bias correction and temperature profiles of MWR  35 observations using radiosondes or climatology,  36 3.3 Averaging kernel  37 3.3 Analysis of physical retrieval characteristics  38 4. Results  4.1 Physical retrieval statistical analysis of the physical retrievals up to 53 km AGL	33	3.1 Iterative retrieval technique	at: 0" + Indent at: 0.25"
Formatted: Font color: Auto  3.3 Averaging kernel  3.4 Results  4.1 Physical retrieval statistical analysis from Akernel  4.2 Statistical analysis of the physical retrievals up to 53 km AGL	34	3.2 Physical retrieval bias 3.2 Bias-correction and temperature profiles of MWR	Style: 1, 2, 3, + Start at: 1 + Alignment: Left + Aligned
3.3 Averaging kernel  3.3 Analysis of physical retrieval characteristics  3.4 Results  4.1 Physical retrieval statistical analysis from Akernel  4.2 Statistical analysis of the physical retrievals up to 53 km AGL	35	observations using radiosondes or climatology	Formatted: Indent: Left: 0.25", No bullets or numbering
3.3 Analysis of physical retrieval characteristics  4. Results  4. Results  4.1 Physical retrieval statistical analysis from Akernel  4.2 Statistical analysis of the physical retrievals up to 53 km AGL			Formatted: Font color: Auto
4. Results  Formatted: Outline numbered + Level: 1 + Numbering Style: 1, 2, 3, + Start at: 1 + Alignment: Left + Aligned at: 0" + Indent at: 0.25"  Formatted: Font color: Auto  4.2 Statistical analysis of the physical retrievals up to 53 km AGL	36	3.3 Averaging kernel	Formatted: Font color: Auto
Style: 1, 2, 3, + Start at: 1 + Alignment: Left + Aligned at: 0" + Indent at: 0.25"  4.1 Physical retrieval statistical analysis from Akernel  4.2 Statistical analysis of the physical retrievals up to 53 km AGL	37	3.3 Analysis of physical retrieval characteristics	
4.1 Physical retrieval statistical analysis from Akernel  4.2 Statistical analysis of the physical retrievals up to 53 km AGL	38	4. Results	
4.2-Statistical analysis of the physical retrievals up to 53 km AGL	39	4.1 Physical retrieval statistical analysis from Akernel	
	4.5		Formatted: Font color: Auto
	40	4.2 Statistical analysis of the physical retrievals up to 53 km AGL	
41 4.32 Statistics for the profiles least close to the climatological profiles climatology Formatted: Font color: Auto	41	4.32 Statistics for the profiles least close to the climatological profiles climatology	Formatted: Font color: Auto
Formatted: Font color: Auto	12	4.42 Vintual tomorphysis statistics	Formatted: Font color: Auto
4.43 Virtual temperature statistics  Formatted: Outline numbered + Level: 1 + Numbering  Style: 1, 2, 3, + Start at: 1 + Alignment: Left + Aligned  at: 0" + Indent at: 0.25"			Style: 1, 2, 3, + Start at: 1 + Alignment: Left + Aligned
2		2	(iii i i iiii iii ii ii ii ii ii ii ii i

44	Appe	ndix A

- 45 Data availability
- 46 Author contribution
- 47 Acknowledgments
- 48 References

#### Abstract

Thermodynamic profiles are often retrieved from the multi-wavelength brightness temperature observations made by microwave radiometers (MWRs) using regression methods (linear, quadratic approaches), artificial intelligence (neural networks), or physical-iterative methods. Regression and neural network methods are tuned to mean conditions derived from a climatological dataset of thermodynamic profiles collected nearby. In contrast, physical-iterative retrievals use a radiative transfer model starting from a climatologically reasonable value profile of temperature and water vapor, with the model runrunning iteratively until the derived brightness temperatures match those observed by the MWR within a specified uncertainty.

In this study, a physical-iterative approach is used to retrieve temperature and humidity profiles from data collected during XPIA (eXperimental Planetary boundary layer Instrument Assessment), a field campaign held from March to May 2015 at NOAA's Boulder Atmospheric Observatory (BAO) facility. During the campaign, several passive and active remote sensing instruments as well as in-situ platforms were deployed and evaluated to determine their suitability for the verification and validation of meteorological processes. Among the deployed

remote sensing instruments <u>waswere</u> a multi-channel MWR, as well as two radio acoustic sounding systems (RASS), associated with 915-MHz and 449-MHz wind profiling radars.

systems, in In this study the physical-iterative approach is tested with different observational inputs: first using data from surface sensors and the MWR in different configurations, and then including data from the RASS-into the retrieval with the MWR data. These temperature retrievals are assessed against—58 co-located radiosonde profiles. Results show that the combination of the MWR and RASS observations in the physical-iterative approach retrieval allows for a more accurate characterization of low-level temperature inversions, and that these retrieved temperature profiles match the radiosonde observations better than the temperature profiles retrieved from only the MWR; in the layer between the surface and 53 km above ground level (AGL). Specifically, in this layer of the atmosphere, both root mean square errors and standard deviations of the difference between radiosonde and retrievals that combine MWR and RASS are improved by ~0.5 °Cmostly 10-20% compared to the other methodsconfiguration that does not include RASS observations. Pearson correlation coefficients are also improved.

We provide the A comparison of the temperature physical retrievals to the manufacturer-provided neural network retrievals is provided in Appendix A.

**Formatted:** Indent: First line: 0.5"

# 1. Introduction

To monitor Monitoring the state of the atmosphere for process understanding and for model verification and validation, scientists rely on requires observations from a variety of instruments, each one having its set of advantages and disadvantages. Using several diverse instruments allows one to monitor different aspects of the atmosphere, while combining them in an optimized synergetic approach can improve the accuracy of the information we have available on the state of the atmosphere.

During the eXperimental Planetary boundary layer Instrumentation Assessment (XPIA) campaign, and U.S. Department of Energy sponsored experiment held at the Boulder Atmospheric Observatory (BAO) in Spring 2015, several instruments were deployed (Lundquist et al., 2017) with the goal of assessing their capability for measuring flow within the atmospheric boundary layer meteorological variables. XPIA investigated novel measurement approaches, and quantified uncertainties associated with these measurement methods. While

#### Formatted: Font color: Auto

Formatted: Outline numbered + Level: 1 + Numbering Style: 1, 2, 3, ... + Start at: 1 + Alignment: Left + Aligned at: 0" + Indent at: 0.25", Border: Top: (No border), Bottom: (No border), Left: (No border), Right: (No border), Between: (No border) the main interest of the XPIA campaign was on wind and turbulence, measurements of other important atmospheric variables were also collected, including temperature and humidity.

Among the deployed instruments were two identical microwave radiometers (MWRs) and two radio acoustic sounding systems (RASS), as well as radiosondes launches that were used for verification.

110

111

112

113

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

MWRs are passive sensors, sensitive to atmospheric temperature and humidity content that allow for a high temporal observation of the state of the atmosphere, with some advantages and limitations. In order to estimate profiles of temperature and humidity from the observed brightness temperatures (Tb), several methods could be applied such as regressions, neural network retrievals, or physical retrieval methodologies which can include moreadditional information about the atmospheric state in the retrieval process. Radiative (e.g., Maahn et al. 2020). Microwave radiative transfer equations (models (e.g., Rosenkranz, 1998; Clough et al. 2005) are commonly used to train statistical retrievals, or as forward models used within physical retrieval methods. Advantages of MWRs include their compact design, the relatively high temporal resolution of the measurements (2-3 minutes), the possibility to observe the vertical structure of both temperature and moisture through the depthlower part of the troposphere during both clear and cloudy conditions, and their capability to operate in a standalone mode. Disadvantages include limited accuracy in the presence of rain because of scattering of radiation from raindrops in the atmosphere (and because water can deposit on the radome, although the instruments use a hydrophobic radome and force airflow over the surface of the radome during rain to mitigate this impact), rather coarse vertical resolution, and for retrievals the necessity to have a site-specific climatology. Other disadvantages include the

challenges related to performing accurate calibrations (Küchler et al., 2016, and references within), radio frequency interference (RFI), and the low accuracy on the retrieved liquid water path (LWP) especially for values of LWP less than 20 g/m²- m²-2 (Turner 2007; Turner et al. 2007).

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

RASS, in comparison, are active instruments that emit a longitudinal acoustic wave upward, causing a local compression and rarefaction of the ambient air. These density variations are tracked by the Doppler radar associated with the RASS, and the speed of the propagating sound wave is measured. The speed of sound is related to the virtual temperature (Tv) (North et al., 1973), and therefore, RASS are routinely-used to remotely measure vertical profiles of virtual temperature in the boundary layer. Being an active instrument, the RASS is in general more accurate than a passive instrument (Bianco et al., 2017), but they also come with their sets of own disadvantages. The main limitations of RASS for retrieval purposestemperature measurements are itsthe low temporal resolution (typically a 5-min averaged RASS profile is measured once or twice per hour), and their limited altitude coverage. Recent studies (, and the noise "pollution" that impacts local communities. Adachi and Hashiguchi, (2019) have shown that to make them more suitable to operate in urban areas RASS could use parametric speakers to take advantage of their high directivity and very low side lobes. Nevertheless, the maximum height reached by the RASS is still limited, being a function of both radar frequency and atmospheric conditions (May and Wilczak, 1993), and lt is determined both by the attenuation of the sound, which is a function of atmospheric temperature, humidity, and frequency of the sound source, and the advection of the propagating sound wave out of the radar's field-ofview. Therefore, data availability is usually limited to the lowest several kilometers, depending on the frequency of the radar. In addition, wintertime coverage is usually considerably lower

than that in summer, due to a higher probability increased attenuation of stronger winds advecting the sound wave away from the radar acoustic signal in the winter cooler and drier environments.

To get a better picture of the state of the temperature and moisture structure of the atmosphere, it makes sense to try to combine the information obtained by both MWR and RASS. Integration of different instruments has been a topic of ongoing scientific interest for several years (Han and Westwater 1995; Stankov et al. 1996; Bianco et al., 2005; Engelbart et al., 2009; Cimini et al., 2020; Turner and Löhnert, 20202021, to name some). In this study-we particularly, the focus is on the combination of the MWR and RASS observations in the retrievals to improve the accuracy of the temperature profiles in the lowest 53 km compared to physical retrieval approaches that do not include the information from RASS measurements. Some studies have used analyses from numerical weather prediction (NWP) models as an additional constraint in these variational retrievals (e.g., Hewison 2007; Cimini et al. 2005, 2011; Martinet et al. 2020); however, we have elected not to include model data in this study because we wanted to evaluate the impact of the RASS profiles on the retrievals from a purely observational perspective.

This paper is organized as follows: Section 2 summarizes the experimental dataset;

Section 3 introduces the principles of the physical retrieval approaches used to obtain vertical profiles of the desired variables; Section 4 produces statistical analysis of the comparison between the different retrieval approaches and radiosonde measurement; finally, conclusions are presented in Section 5.

# 2. XPIA datadataset

176

177

178

179

180

181

182

183

184

185

186

187

188

189

190

191

192

193

194

195

196

197

The data used in our analysis were collected during the XPIA experiment, held in Spring 2015 (March-May) at the NOAA's Boulder Atmospheric Observatory (BAO) site, in Erie, Colorado (Lat.: 40.0451 N, Lon.: 105.0057 W, El.: 1584 m MSL). XPIA was the last experiment conducted at this facility, as after almost 40 years of operations the BAO 300-m tower was demolished at the end of 2016 (Wolfe and Lataitis, 2018). XPIA was designed to assess the capability of different remote sensing instruments for quantifying boundary layer structure, and was a preliminary study as many of these same instruments were later deployed, among other campaigns, for the second Wind Forecast Improvement Project WFIP2 (Shaw et al., 2019; Wilczak et al., 2019) which investigated flows in complex terrain for wind energy applications, andwhere they were for example used to study cold air pool pools (Adler et al., 2021) and gap flow characteristics (Adler Neiman et al., 2021 2019; Banta et al., 2020; Neiman et al., 2019). The list of the deployed instruments included active and passive remote-sensing devices, and in-situ instruments mounted on the BAO tower. Data collected during XPIA are publicly available at https://a2e.energy.gov/projects/xpia. A detailed description of the XPIA experiment can be found in Lundquist et al. (2017), while a specific look at the accuracy of the instruments used in this study can be found in Bianco et al. (2017).

Formatted: Indent: Left: 0", Outline numbered + Level: 1 + Numbering Style: 1, 2, 3, ... + Start at: 2 + Alignment: Left + Aligned at: 0.25" + Indent at: 0.5"

#### 2.1 MWR measurements

Two identical MWRs (Radiometrics MP-3000A) managed by NOAA (MWR-NOAA) and by the University of Colorado (MWR-CU), were deployed next to each other at the visitor center ~600 m south of the BAO tower (see Lundquist et al., 2017 for a detailed map of the study

Formatted: Indent: Left: 0.25", First line: 0"

area). Prior to the experiment, both MWRs were thoroughly serviced (sensor cleaning, radome replacement, etc.) and calibrated using an external liquid nitrogen target and an internal ambient target-and thoroughly serviced (sensor cleaning, radome replacement, etc.). MWRs are passive devices which record the natural microwave emission in the water vapor and oxygen absorption bands from the atmosphere, providing measurements of the brightness temperatures. Both MWRs have 35-channels spanning a range of frequencies, with 21 channels in the lower (22-30 GHz) K-band frequency band, of which 8 channels were used during XPIA: 22.234, 22.5, 23.034, 23.834, 25, 26.234, 28 and 30 GHz; and 14 channels in the higher (51-59 GHz) V-band frequency band, of which all were used in XPIA: 51.248, 51.76, 52.28, 52.804, 53.336, 53.848, 54.4, 54.94, 55.5, 56.02, 56.66, 57.288, 57.964 and 58.8 GHz. Frequencies in the K-band are more sensitive to water vapor and cloud liquid water, while frequencies in the Vband are sensitive to atmospheric temperature due to the absorption of atmospheric oxygen (Cadeddu et al., 2013). V-band frequencies or channels can also can be divided in two categories: the opaque channels, 56.66 GHz and higher, that are more informative in the layer of the atmosphere from the surface to ~1 km AGL, and the transparent channels, 51-56 GHz, that are more informative above 1 km AGL. Both MWRs observed at the zenith and at 15- and 165-degree elevation angles in the north-south plane (referred to as oblique elevation scans and used as their average hereafter; note zenith views have a 90-degree elevation angle). However, when MWRs are deployed in locations with unobstructed views, oblique scans can be performed down to 5 degrees elevation angles and may provide better temperature profile accuracy in the lowest 0-1 or even 0-2 km AGL layers (Crewell and Löhnert, 2007).

198

199

200

201

202

203

204

205

206

207

208

209

210

211

212

213

214

215

216

217

In addition, each MWR was provided with a separate surface sensor to measure pressure, temperature, and relative humidity at the installation level that was ~2.5 m AGL. Vertical profiles of temperature (T), water vapor density (WVD), and relative humidity (RH) were retrieved in real-time during XPIA every 2-3 minutes using a neural network (NN) approach provided by the manufacturer of the radiometer, Radiometrics (Solheim et al. 1998a, and 1998b; Ware et al., 2003). Although the physical retrieval configurations used in this study do not exactly match the MWRNN retrieval configurations used for NN retrievals, a comparison of both physical and neural network retrievals to the radiosonde temperature data is presented in Appendix A.

Both MWRs nominally operated from 9 March to 7 May 2015, although the MWR-NOAA was unavailable between 5-27 April 2015. For the overlapping dates, temperature profiles retrieved from the two MWRs showed very good agreement with less than 0.5 °C bias and 0.994 correlation (Bianco et al., 2017). For this reason, and because the MWR-CU was available for a longer time period, we use only the MWR-CU (hereafter simply called MWR). is used.

233

219

220

221

222

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

234

235

236

237

238

239 240

from the University of Colorado over three selected periods, one each in March, April, and May. There was a total of 59 launches, mostly four times per day, around 14:00, 18:00, 22:00 and

0200 UTC (8:00, 12:00, 16:00 and 20:00 local standard time, LST). All radiosondes were Vaisala

RS92. The first 35 launches, between 9-19 March, were done from the visitor center, while the

2.2 Radiosonde measurements

Between 9 March and 7 May 2015, while the MWR was operational, radiosondes were

launched by the National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR) assisted by several students

Formatted: Font: Not Bold

11 launches, between 15–22 April, and 13 launches, between 1–4 May, were done from the water tank site, ~1000 meters apart (see Lundquist et al., 2017 for a detailed map of the study area). The radiosonde measurements included temperature, dewpoint temperature, and relative humidity, to altitudes usually higher than 10 km AGL, with measurements every few seconds.

2.3 WPR-RASS measurements

Formatted: Indent: Left: 0.25", First line: 0"

Two NOAA wind profiling radars (WPRs), operating at frequencies of 915-MHz and 449-MHz, were deployed at the visitor center (same location as the MWR) during XPIA. These systems are primarily designed to measure the vertical profile of the horizontal wind vector, but co-located RASS also observeenable the observation of profiles of virtual temperature in the lower atmosphere, with different resolutions and height coverages depending on the WPR. Thus, the RASS associated with the 915-MHz WPR (hereafter referred to as RASS 915) measured virtual temperature from 120 to 1618 m with a vertical resolution of 62 m, and the 449 MHz RASS (hereafter referred to as RASS 449) sampled the boundary layer from 217 to 2001 m with a vertical resolution of 105 m. The maximum height reached by the RASS is a function of both radar frequency and atmospheric conditions (May and Wilczak, 1993), and is usually lower for RASS 915 data, as will be shown later in the analysis.

The RASS data were processed using a radio frequency interference (RFI)-removal algorithm (performed on the RASS spectra), a consensus algorithm (Strauch et al. 1984) performed on the moment data using a 60% consensus threshold, a Weber-Wuertz outlier removal algorithm (Weber et al., 1993) performed on the consensus averages, and a RASS

range-correction algorithm (Görsdorf and Lehmann, 2000) using an average relative humidity setting of 50% determined from the available observations.

# 2.43 BAO data

The BAO 300-m tower was built in 1977 to study the planetary boundary layer (Kaimal and Gaynor 1983). During XPIA, measurements were collected at the surface (2 m) and at six higher levels (50, 100, 150, 200, 250 and 300 m AGL). Each tower level was equipped with 2 sonic anemometers on orthogonal booms, and one sensor based on a Sensiron SHT75 solid-state sensor to measure temperature and relative humidity with a time resolution of 1 s, and averaged over five minutes. The more accurate temperature and water vapor observations (Horst et al., 2016) at the BAO tower 2 m AGL level are used in the physical retrieval in place of the less accurate MWR inline surface sensor.

The observational temperature and water vapor surface data are used from the more accurate observations at the BAO tower 2 m AGL level (Horst et al., 2016), to replace the data measured by the less accurate MWR inline surface sensor.

## 3. Physical retrievals

#### 2.4 Radiosonde measurements

Between 9 March and 7 May 2015, while the MWR was operational, radiosondes were launched by the National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR) assisted by several students from the University of Colorado over three selected periods, one each in March, April, and May.

Formatted: Indent: Left: 0.25", First line: 0"

All radiosondes were Vaisala model RS92. There was a total of 59 launches, mostly four times per day, around 1400, 1800, 2200, and 0200 UTC (0800, 1200, 1600 and 2000 local standard time, LST). The first 35 launches, between 9-19 March, were done from the visitor center, while 11 launches between 15-22 April, and 13 launches between 1-4 May, were done from the water tank site, ~1000 meters away from the visitor center (see Lundquist et al., 2017 for a detailed map of the study area). The radiosonde measurements included temperature, dew point temperature, and relative humidity to altitudes usually higher than 10 km AGL, with measurements every few seconds. As a first step, for additional verification, the radiosonde data from the 59 launches taken between 9 March and 4 May 2015 were compared to the BAO tower measurements, up to 300 m AGL. These observed data sets match very well, with a correlation coefficient of 0.99 and a standard deviation of ~0.7 °C. However, one radiosonde profile showed a large bias (> 5 °C) against all seven levels of BAO temperature measurements and all available Tv measurements from the RASS 915 (eight measurements up to 600 m AGL) and from the RASS 449 (nine measurements up to 1100 m AGL), therefore this particular radiosonde profile was excluded from the statistical analysis. Moreover, while accurate RASS data can be collected during rain, MWR data could be potentially deteriorated due to water deposition on the radome. Therefore, six profiles (three for March 13, and one each on May 1, 3 and 4) were eliminated from the statistical evaluation. These restrictions lowered the number of total radiosonde launches used in this study to 52.

3. Physical retrievals

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

298

299

300

301

302

303

304

One way to combine the active and passive instruments would be to use the RASS observations up to their maximum available height, and stitch them with the profiles obtained from a physical-iterative method using MWR data. To do this, the moisture contribution to the RASS virtual temperatures could be removed by using either the relative humidity measured by the MWR or by a climatology of the moisture term. However, merging these different profiles could result in artificial jumps at the connecting heights.

Alternatively, a physical retrieval (PR) iterative approach can be used to retrieve vertical profiles of thermodynamic properties from the MWR and RASS observations (in a synergistic manner (e.g., Maahn et al 2020). Turner and Löhnert 2021). In this case, using a radiative transfer model, the process startsan optimal estimation-based physical retrieval is initialized with a climatologically reasonable value profile of temperature and water vapor, and is iteratively repeated until the computed brightness temperatures match those observed by the MWR within the uncertainty of the observed brightness temperatures and the RASS virtual temperatures within their uncertainties (Rodgers, 2000; Turner and Löhnert, 2014; Maahn et al. 2020).

## 3.1 Iterative retrieval technique

For this study, the PR uses athe *TROPoe* retrieval algorithm (formerly *AERloe*, Turner and Löhnert 2014; Turner and Blumberg 2019; Turner and Löhnert 2021). This algorithm is able to use radiance data from microwave radiometers, infrared spectrometers, and other observations as input. The microwave radiative transfer model, MonoRTM (Clough et al., 2005),

Formatted: Indent: Left: 0.25", First line: 0"

serves as the forward model, which is fully functional for the microwave region and was intensively evaluated previously on MWR measurements (Payne et al. 2008; 2011).

We start with the state vector  $\mathbf{X}_a = [\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{Q}, \mathsf{LWP}]^\mathsf{T}$ , where superscript T denotes transpose-<u>and vectors and matrices are shown in bold</u>.  $\mathbf{T}$  (K) and  $\mathbf{Q}$  ( $\mathbf{g} \not= \mathsf{kg}^{-1}$ ) are temperature and water vapor mixing ratio profiles at 55 vertical levels from the surface up to 17 km, with the distance between the levels increasing exponentially-likegeometrically with height. LWP is the liquid water path in ( $\mathbf{g} \not= \mathbf{m}^{-2}$ ) that measures the integrated content of liquid water in the entire vertical column above the MWR, and is a scalar. For this study we have,  $\mathbf{X}_a$  with as dimensions equal to 111 x 1 (two vectors  $\mathbf{T}$  and  $\mathbf{Q}$  with 55 levels each, and LWP). We are using the The retrieval framework of Turner and Blumberg (2019)- $\mathbf{p}$  is used, but only using MWR data (no spectral infrared) and will augment). Here, we demonstrate the augmentation of the retrieval to include RASS profiles of  $\mathbf{T}\mathbf{v}$ , and the resulting impact this has on the retrieved temperature

Formatted: Font: Bold

profiles and information content.

The observation vector **Y** from the beginning includes temperature and water vapor mixing ratio measured at the surface in-situ, and spectral **Tb** measured by the MWR. The MonoRTM model **F** is used as the forward model from the current state vector **X**, Eq. (1), and is then compared to the observation vector **Y**, iterating until the difference between **F(X)** and **Y** is small within a specified uncertainty-(Eq 1).

$$X_{n+1} = X_n + (S_a^{-1} + K^T S_{\varepsilon}^{-1} K)^{-1} K^T S_{\varepsilon}^{-1} [Y - F(X_n) + K(X_n - X_a)]$$
 (1)

with

$$S_{a} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{T} \\ \mathbf{Q} \\ LWP \end{bmatrix} \underline{\hspace{1cm}} S_{a} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{TT}^{2} & \sigma_{TQ}^{2} & 0 \\ \sigma_{QT}^{2} & \sigma_{QQ}^{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma_{LWP}^{2} \end{bmatrix} \underline{\hspace{1cm}} \mathbf{K}_{ij} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}_{i}}{\partial \mathbf{X}_{j}}$$

355 where i and j in the Kij definition mark channel and vertical level, respectively, and Y, depending

where raina in the Mijachinton mark channel and vertical level, respectively, and 4, depending

on the configuration used, being equal to:

356

B57

360

361 362

363

364

$$m{Y_1} = egin{bmatrix} T_{sfc} \ Q_{sfc} \ Tm{b}_{zenith} \end{bmatrix}$$
 ......  $m{Y_2} = egin{bmatrix} T_{sfc} \ Q_{sfc} \ Tm{b}_{zenith+oblique\ avrg} \end{bmatrix}$ 

$$Y_3 = egin{bmatrix} T_{sfc} \ Q_{sfc} \ Tb_{zenith+oblique\ avrg} \ Tv_{RASS915} \end{bmatrix} \hspace{1cm} Y_4 = egin{bmatrix} T_{sfc} \ Q_{sfc} \ Tb_{zenith+oblique\ avrg} \ Tv_{RASS449} \end{bmatrix}$$

. The superscripts T and -1 in (1) indicate the transpose orand inverse matrix, respectively. Also,

vectors The observation vector Y and matrices the covariance matrix of the observed data, Se,

depending on the configuration used, are shown in bold. equal to:

Formatted: Font: Bold

Formatted: Font: Bold

Formatted: Font: Bold

Note that we are including the 2-m surface-level observations of temperature and water vapor mixing ratio ( $T_{\rm efc}$  and  $Q_{\rm efc}$ , respectively) are included as part of the observation vector  $\mathbf{Y}$ , and thus the uncertainties (0.5 K for temperature and less than 0.4 g kg<sup>-1</sup> for mixing ratio) in these observations are included in  $\mathbf{S}_{\epsilon}$ .

The first guess of the state vector **X**, **X**<sub>1</sub> in Eq. (1), is set to be equal to the The mean state vector of the climatological estimates, or a "prior" vector **X**<sub>a</sub>, which is a key component in the optimal estimation framework and it is the first guess of the state vector **X**, **X**<sub>1</sub> in Eq. (1). It provides a constraint on the ill-posed inversion problem. The prior is calculated independently for each month of the year from climatological sounding profiles (using 10 years of data) in the

Formatted: Subscript

Formatted: Subscript

Denver area. So is the The covariance matrix, So, of the "prior" vector that includes not only temperature or water vapor variances but also the covariances between them. Using around 3,000 radiosondes launched by the NWS in Denver, we interpolated each radiosonde profile is interpolated to the vertical levels used in the retrieval, after which we computed the covariance of temperature and temperature, temperature and humidity, and humidity and humidity is computed for different levels. K is the Jacobian matrix, computed using finite differences by perturbing the elements of X and rerunning the radiative transfer model.

Formatted: Font: 11 pt, Highlight

We start with four Four configurations are chosen for the observational vector  $\mathbf{Y}$  ( $\mathbf{Y_1}$ ,  $\mathbf{Y_2}$ ,  $\mathbf{Y_3}$ , and  $\mathbf{Y_4}$ ). In each of these, the surface observations are obtained by the 2-m BAO *in-situ* measurements of temperature and humidity. The MWR provides  $\mathbf{Tb}$  measurements from 22 channels from the zenith scan for the zenith only configuration ( $\mathbf{Y_{17}}$  which also includes the 2-m in-situ observations of temperature and humidity), while when using the zenith plus oblique Tb inputs ( $\mathbf{Y_2}$ ,  $\mathbf{Y_3}$ , and  $\mathbf{Y_4}$ , also including the 2-m in-situ observations of temperature and humidity) the same 22 channels were used from the zenith scans together with only the four opaque channels (56.66, 57.288, 57.964 and 58.8 GHz) from the oblique scans. Using additional measurements from the co-located radar systems with RASS, we may further expand the observational vector is further expanded with either RASS 915 ( $\mathbf{Y_3}$ ) or RASS 449 ( $\mathbf{Y_4}$ ) virtual temperature observations. The covariance matrix of the observed data,  $\mathbf{S_{5_A}}$  depends on the chosen  $\mathbf{Y_i}$  as it is highlighted by the red numbers seen in the matrix description  $\mathbf{S_{6i}}$  (with i = 1:4)

Formatted: Font: 14 pt

Formatted: Font: 14 pt, Bold

Formatted: Font: 14 pt

descriptions, with increasing dimensions from Y1 to Y2 and additional increasing dimensions to

 $Y_3$  or  $Y_4$  through the multi-level measurements of the RASS (Turner and Blumberg, 2019). Table

1 summarizes the observational information included in these four different configurations of the PR.

402

401

400

	$T_{sfc}$	$Q_{sfc}$	Tbzenith	Tb <sub>oblique</sub>	TV <sub>RASS915</sub>	TV <sub>RASS449</sub>
Y <sub>1</sub> = MWRz	X	X	X			
Y <sub>2</sub> = MWRzo	X	X	X	Х		
<b>Y</b> <sub>3</sub> = MWRzo915	X	X	X	Х	Х	
<b>Y</b> <sub>4</sub> = MWRzo449	X	Х	X	X		X

Table 1. Four PR configurations corresponding to the four observational  $Y_i$  vectors in Eq. (1).

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

403

The uncertainty in the MWR Tb observations was set to the standard deviation from a detrended time-series analysis for each channel during cloud-free periods, which. The method to detect those cloud-free periods is described in detail in Section 3.2. The derived uncertainties ranged from 0.3 K to 0.4 K in the 22 to 30 GHz channels, and 0.4 to 0.78 K in the 52 to 60 GHz channels. We assumed that there was no correlated error between the different MWR channels.

For the RASS, collocated co-located RASS and radiosonde profiles were compared and the standard deviation of the differences in Tv were determined as a function of the radar's

Formatted: Space Before: 0 pt, After: 0 pt, Line spacing:
Double
Formatted Table

**Formatted:** Space Before: 0 pt, After: 0 pt, Line spacing: Double

**Formatted:** Space Before: 0 pt, After: 0 pt, Line spacing: Double

**Formatted:** Space Before: 0 pt, After: 0 pt, Line spacing: Double

**Formatted:** Space Before: 0 pt, After: 0 pt, Line spacing: Double

Formatted: Space Before: 0 pt

signal-to-noise ratio (SNR). This relationship resulted in uncertainties that ranged from 0.8 K at high SNR values to 1.5 K at low SNR values. Again, we assumed that there was no correlated error between different RASS heights. Following all these assumptions, the covariance matrix  $\mathbf{S}_{\epsilon}$  is diagonal.

The Jacobian matrix, **K**, <u>is computed using finite differences by perturbing the elements</u>
of **X** and rerunning the forward model. It has dimensions m x 111, where m is the length of the
vector **Y**<sub>i</sub>, therefore its dimension increases correspondingly with the inclusion of more
observational data. **K** makes the "connection" between the state vector and the observational
data and should be calculated at every iteration.

3.2 Physical retrieval bias Bias - correction and temperature profiles of MWR observations using radiosondes or climatology

Observational errors propagate through-the retrieval into the derived profiles (i.e. the bias of the observed data will contribute to a bias in the retrievals-). For that, retrieval uncertainties in Eq. (1) from  $Y = Y_1$  or  $Y_2$  derive only from uncertainties in surface and MWR data, while retrieval uncertainties from  $Y = Y_3$  or  $Y_4$  are coming from uncertainties in the surface, MWR, and RASS measurements.

While the The bias of the retrieval depends on both the sensitivity absolute accuracy of the forward model and theon any observational systematic offset, we can try to eliminate, or at least to reduce, of which the systematic error in the MWR observations. To this aim, we could potentially be reduced through application of a MWR Tb bias-correction procedure. In this study, two different approaches were used for the bias-correction: the first looked for clear sky

Formatted: Indent: Left: 0.25", First line: 0"

days is based on a comparison to the radiosondes, while the second uses climatological profiles.

The first method could be used for a field campaign where occasional co-located radiosonde
launches are taken, while the second would be used for deployments without any supporting
radiosonde observations.

For both approaches, the first step is to identify clear-sky periods during which the bias can be estimated (to reduce the degrees of freedom associated with clouds) during and subsequently the period of bias can be removed from the measurements observed MWR Tbs.

One method to identify clear-sky times is to use a time-series of Tb observations in the 30 GHz liquid water sensitive channel—of the MWR.

The random uncertaintystandard deviation of the MWR Tb in Tb the 30 GHz channel is calculated as over a time frame of one hour centered at the radiosonde launch time. The data from the zenith scan and the averaged oblique scans are reviewed separately. Liquid-cloud free periods were identified by cases where the temporal standard deviation was small (< 0.4 K), and more than 35 radiosonde profiles were classified as being launched in clear skies. The usage of the standard deviation from the time-series from the oblique scans, with the same 0.4 K restriction, reduces the number of the clear-sky radiosonde profiles to 18. For those chosen 18 radiosonde profiles, the Tb is calculated from radiosonde temperature profiles through MonoRTM at each of the MWR channels. The mean difference between these calculated radiosonde Tbs and measured MWR Tbs forms the Tb bias with which the MWR Tb data can be corrected. This bias-correction method will be referred to as 'radiosonde BC'.

While this radiosonde BC method can be employed for the XPIA dataset, for other campaigns this approach would not be possible if co-located radiosonde observations were not

available. For this situation, an alternative method for correcting the MWR Tb biases is presented. In this method, to choose clear-sky periods, the 30 GHz channel MWR Tb data are used on a daily basis. The standard deviation of the MWR Tb is calculated as the average of the Tb-standard deviation in a one-hour sliding window through all data points of a day. (It also could be computed as the standard deviation of the difference between Tb and the smoothed Tb to eliminate daily temperature variability.) Four clear-sky days have been chosen were identified using a criterionthreshold of 0.34 K uncertainty in on the 30 GHz channelstandard deviation: March 10 and 30, and April 13 and 29, 2015. During periods with liquid-bearing clouds overhead, this criterion is markedly higher (more than 0.7 K) and much higher for the rainy periods (> 4 K). While those calculations were applied on a daily basis, it is important to mention that the days are not uniform in terms of cloudiness or rain. Therefore, we used the data for 2-3 hours around the time of radiosonde launches to determine to which category a particular radiosonde profile belongs, clear-sky, cloudy or rain. In this way, we found that from 58 radiosonde launches used in our statistical analysis, 41 belong to the clear-sky category, 12 - to cloudy but non-precipitating conditions, and 5 - to rainy periods. For the four chosen clear sky days not only were the daily uncertainties of 30 GHz Tb below 0.3 K, but both sets of uncertainties described above were extremely similar with the averaged difference less than 0.05 K. The Tb bias wasis then computed for each of the 22 channels as the averaged difference between the observed Tb from the MWR zenith observations, and the forward model calculation applied to the prior, over these calculated Tbs at zenith using the TROPoe-retrieved

457

458

459

460

461

462

463

464

465

466

467

468

469

470

471

472

473

474

475

476

477

This method identified spectral calibration errors in the MWR observations that could not be explained by physically realistic atmospheric profiles. This bias-correction technique will be referred to as 'TROPoe BC'.

Fig. - We compute the bias in the 1 shows the Tb biases found for all 22 MWR channels from both bias-correction procedure only from the zenith approaches. The biases calculated with the radiosonde BC scheme are shown for all channels used in our analysis: 22 channels of the zenith scan, in red, and four V-band opaque channels of the oblique scans, in blue. The black and green triangles represent the biases calculated using the TROPoe BC approach for zenith and for zenith+oblique scans, respectively. All biases are presented with associated uncertainties (error bars representing the standard deviation over all radiosondes for

489

490

491

492

493

494

495

496

497

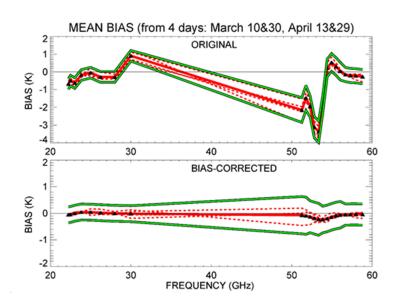
498

499

<u>Fig. assuming that the same 1. Tb biases derived from the radiosonde BC method (and TROPoe BC method) in all 22 MWR channels of the zenith scan in red (and in black), and in the four opaque channels of the oblique scans in blue (and in green).</u>

The biases from the two bias is suitable for correction schemes are within the uncertainties of each other scans. Also, we assume for most of the channels except at the higher frequencies in the V-band. Biases in the most opaque channels are significantly affected by the accuracy of the boundary layer temperature profiles. When TROPoe BC is used, a monthly average prior temperature profile is used in the PR, and thus differences between this prior

channels. On the contrary, the radiosonde BC uses a direct measurement of the temperature profile (from the radiosonde), and thus is more accurate. It is also important to note that, in both approaches, the biases in the opaque channels for zenith and for oblique scans (for radiosonde BC these are red and blue, respectively; and for the TROPoe BC these are black and green, respectively) are very similar to each other. This supports the assumption that the true bias is an offset that is nearly independent of the scene, soor that the sensitivity to the scene (e.g., clear or cloudy, zenith or off zenith) is small. To investigate that, we eliminated the radiosondes launched during rainy periods (5 out of 58 cases) and found that the average temperature profiles were very little different than when all radiosonde profiles were used, with the maximum bias and RMSE absolute differences 0.12 K and 0.11 K respectively up to 5 km AGL zenith or off-zenith) is small Fig. 1 shows the results of the bias-correction for the four chosen clear-sky days. The green lines on this figure indicate the MWR random errors; these are 0.3-0.4 K for K band channels and 0.4-0.7 K for V band channels.



The bias-correction methods were applied by removing the corresponding calculated biases from the MWR Tb observations before the retrievals were performed. Later in Section 4, differences in the retrieved temperature profiles will be shown when using the two bias-correction approaches. These differences will be more evident in the temperature profiles exhibiting near-ground temperature inversions.

However, the final goal of this study is not to assess the sensitivity to different biascorrection approaches but to verify that the inclusion of RASS observations does improve retrieved temperature profiles, independently of the bias-correction method used.

3.3 Analysis of physical retrieval characteristics

Fig. 1. Bias for the four chosen clear sky days (red dashed lines) and their mean (red solid line)
for the original observations in the top panel, and for the bias-corrected data in the bottom
panel. Green lines are the uncertainty boundaries around the mean bias. Frequencies used in the
PR algorithm are marked with black triangles in both panels.

The retrieved profiles of the four different PR configurations presented in Table 1

(MWRz, MWRzo, MWRzo915, MWRzo449) were compared to the radiosonde profiles. BAO tower temperature and mixing ratio data at the seven available levels were used as an additional validation dataset, without any interpolation.

To compare radiosonde observations against the PR profiles, all theseradiosonde profiles were interpolated vertically to the same PR heights, and PR profiles were averaged in the time window between 15 minutes before and 15 minutes after each radiosonde launch.

Since the radiosonde ascends quite quickly in the lowest kilometers of the atmosphere (~15-20 min to reach 5 km), we estimated that the 30-minute temporal window is estimated to be representative of the same volume of the atmosphere measured by the radiosonde. BAO tower temperature and mixing ratio data at the seven available levels were used as an additional validation dataset, without any vertical interpolation, averaged in the time window between 15 minutes before and 15 minutes after each radiosonde launch.

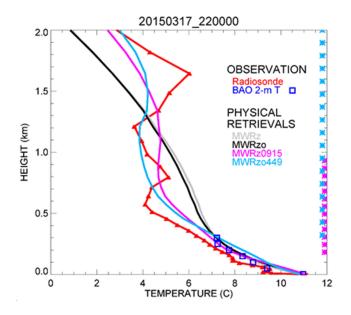
AnAs an example of the different temperature retrievals and their relative performance, data obtained on 17 March 2015 at 2200 UTC is are presented in Fig. 2. Temperature profiles up

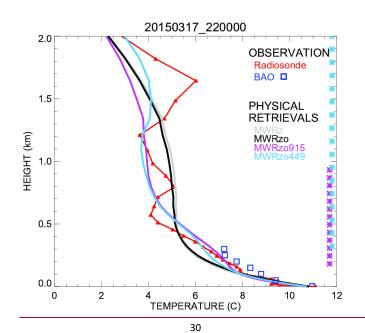
Formatted: Space Before: Opt, Border: Top: (No border), Bottom: (No border), Left: (No border), Right: (No border), Between: (No border)

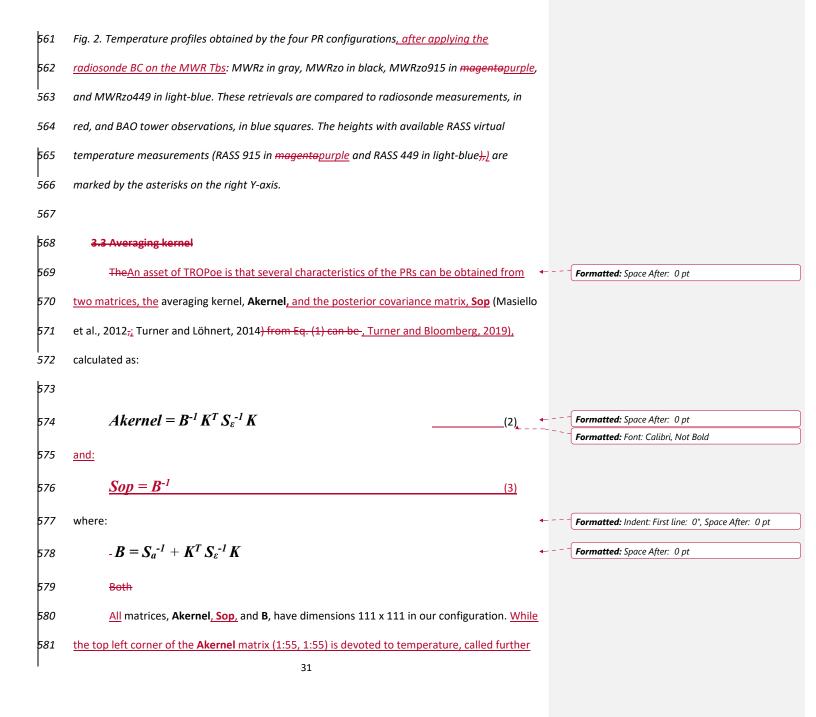
Formatted: Space Before: 0 pt

to 2 km AGL retrieved from the four PR configurations (MWRz, MWRzo, MWRzo915,

MWRzo449, using the radiosonde BC) are compared to the radiosonde data in red and to the BAO measurements in blue squares. Note that all four of the PRs match the BAO observations reasonably well near the ground. The MWRz and MWRzo profiles are very smooth and depart quite substantially from the radiosonde measurements, being unable to reproduce the more detailed structure of the atmospheric temperature profile measured by the radiosonde, while the MWRzo449 profile (in light-blue) demonstrates a better agreement with both the radiosonde and BAO measurements (blue squares). Note that all four of the PRs match the BAO observations reasonably well. The MWRzo915 profile (in magentapurple) also tries to follow the elevated temperature inversion observed by the radiosonde, successfully only in the lower part of the atmosphere (below 1 km AGL) where RASS 915 measurements are available. This behavior will be also addressed in the following section and in the statistical analysis presented later in the manuscript.







582 in the text ATkernel, the next (56:110, 56:110) elements are devoted to the water vapor mixing ratio, called AQkernel. 583 584 The Akernel provides useful information about the calculated retrievals, such as vertical -Formatted: Space After: 0 pt 585 resolution and degrees of freedom for signal at each level. Thus, the The rows of the Akernel 586 provide the smoothing functions (Rodgers, 2000) that have to could be applied to the retrievals 587 (Rodgers, 2000) to helpradiosonde profiles (Eq. 4) to minimize the vertical representativeness 588 error in the comparison between the various retrievals and the radiosonde profiles due to very 589 different vertical resolutions of these profiles- (Turner and Löhnert, 2014). 590 Using the averaging kernel, the smoothed radiosonde observed profiles Formatted: Space Before: 0 pt, After: 0 pt 591 willcan be therefore computed using the averaging kernel, as:  $X_{smoothed} = Akernel \left( \frac{X_{sonde} X_{radiosonde} - X_a \right) + X_a$ Formatted: Space After: 0 pt 592 <del>(3</del>\_ <u>(4</u>) 593 594 The Akernel in Eq. (2) depends on the retrieval parameters (e.g., which datasets are 595 used in the  $\boldsymbol{Y}$  vector, the values assumed in the observation covariance matrix  $\boldsymbol{S}_{\epsilon},$  and the 596 sensitivity of the forward model (i.e., its Jacobian), etc.), so for our four PR configurations it is 597 possible to calculate four different kernels: A\_MWRz, A\_MWRzo, A\_MWRzo915 and 598 A MWRzo449, respectively. 599 While the top left corner of the Akernel-matrix (1:55, 1:55) is devoted to temperature, Formatted: Space After: 0 pt 600 and it will be called AT\_MWR hereafter, the next (56:110, 56:110) elements are devoted to 601 water vapor mixing ratio, and will be called AQ\_MWR. from Eq. (2).

For each of the four **Akernels**, a smoothed radiosonde profile can be computed for each radiosonde profile using Eq. (34). In the presence of temperature inversions or other particular structures in the atmosphere, these smoothed profiles can be quite different from each other and also from the original unsmoothed radiosonde profile.

Formatted: Font: Not Bold

Therefore, in the statistical analysis presented later in the manuscript (in Consequently,

Formatted: Space After: 0 pt

while comparison of the retrievals to the relative Akernel-smoothed radiosonde profiles can be used to minimize the vertical representativeness effects due to the different vertical resolutions of these profiles, we note that a statistical comparison between the four configurations of the observational vector would not be fair if each of their retrieved profiles is compared to a different Akernel-smoothed radiosonde profile. Therefore, in the statistical analysis presented later in the manuscript (section 4.2), mean bias, root mean square error (RMSE), and Pearson correlation coefficients will be computed between the MWR's retrievals and both the unsmoothed and smoothed radiosonde profiles, where the latter were computed using their respective Akernels. Additional observational data help to resolve the atmospheric structure in more detail, therefore we would expect to obtain better statistical evaluations from the configurations including additional RASS observations compared to the runs without RASS data-various TROPoe retrieval configurations and the unsmoothed radiosonde profiles, just interpolated to the same vertical levels of the retrieved profiles.

Formatted: Font: Calibri, 12 pt

The improvementATkernel can help understand the differences in the retrieved temperature profiles presented in Fig. 2-obtained by the configurations using additional RASS data-can be explained and clearly, shown byin the ATkernel itselfexample of Fig. 2. Figure 33a

includes the temperature profiles of the radiosonde (unsmoothed and ATkernel's smoothed) and PRs of MWRzo and MWRzo449 (panel a), and the ATkernels corresponding to these PRs in the color plots in the middle of the figure (panels b and c). These color plots are a schematic visualization of the 37 x 37 top left corner of the ATkernel matrix that illustrates the part of the ATkernel up to 3 km, for reference. Dash lines mark the 2 km vertical level. Thefor the same example as in Fig. 2. Due to the inclusion of RASS measurements, the ATkernel-smoothed radiosonde profile of the MWRzo449 configuration (dashed light-blue line) is closer to the original radiosonde data (in red) compared to the black dashed profile of the MWRzo's ATkernel-smoothed radiosonde profile. Additionally, the rows of the ATkernel provide a measure of the retrieval smoothing as a function of altitude, so the full-width half maximum (FWHM) of each ATkernel row estimates the vertical resolution of the retrieved solution at each vertical level (Maddy and Barnet, 2008; Merrelli and Turner, 2012). These plotsPlots of temperaturethis vertical resolution versus as a function of the height for the MWRzo PR and for the MWRzo449 PR are included in Figure 3, panel d, for the same case presented in Fig. 2. Comparison of ATkernel color plots and vertical resolution plots of MWRzo vs MWRzo4493b. This plot shows that the additional observations from the RASS 449 significantly reduces the spread around the main diagonal from ~200m up to 2 km (in the layer of the atmosphere where RASS 449 measurements are available), thereby improving improve the vertical resolution of the retrievals (as clearly visible in panel d).

623

624

625

626

627

628

629

630

631

632

633

634

635

636

637

638

639

640

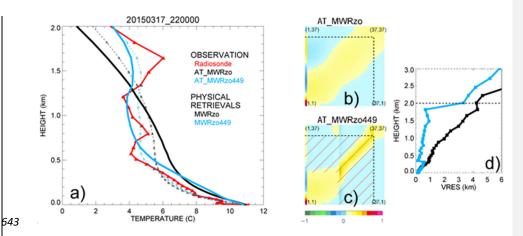
641

642

**Formatted:** Border: Top: (No border), Bottom: (No border), Left: (No border), Right: (No border), Between: (No border)

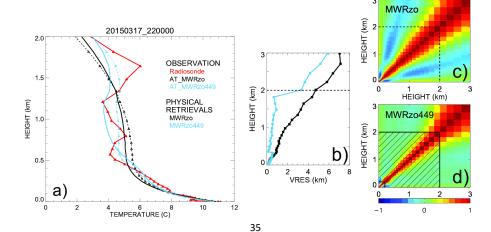
Formatted: Font: Not Bold

Formatted: Font: Not Bold



The posterior covariance matrix, **Sop**, provides a measure of the uncertainty of the retrievals while the square root of the diagonal of this matrix is used to specify the 1-σ errors in the profiles of temperature or mixing ratio. Also, **Sop** shows the level-to-level dependency of the retrievals, and in an ideal case should have all non-diagonal elements equal to zero.

Converted to a correlation matrix, it is possible to visualize these dependencies, as presented in Fig. 3c, d. The use of additional RASS data (MWRzo449 **Sop**, Fig. 3d) reduces the off-diagonal



650 covariances, therefore substantially decreasing the correlations in those areas compared to the 651 MWRzo **Sop** (Fig. 3c). 652 653 Fig. 3. Panel-a: observed temperature profiles from radiosonde, in red, from ATkernels 654 smoothed radiosonde, AT\_MWRzo in dashed black, and AT\_MWRzo449 in dashed light-blue; 655 PRs from MWRzo PR in <u>solid</u> black, and from MWRzo449 PR in <u>solid</u> light-blue. <del>Middle colored</del> 656 panels: 37x37 levels (surface to 3 km) of the Akernel matrix for temperature, b) AT\_MWRzo and 65*7* c) AT\_MWRzo449. Right panel d: vertical resolution (VRES) as a function of the height for the 658 MWRzo PR (black), and for the MWRzo449 PR (light-blue). c) and d) 3 x 3 km (37 x 37 levels) Sop 659 matrices, converted to correlation matrices, for the MWRzo PR (c), and for the MWRzo449 PR 660 (d). Dashed lines on plots b)-d) mark 2 km AGL. Hatched area on panel ed marks the RASS 661 measurement heights.

Formatted: Font: Bold

Formatted: Indent: First line: 0.5", Space After: 0 pt

Formatted: Indent: Left: 0", Outline numbered + Level: 1 + Numbering Style: 1, 2, 3, ... + Start at: 2 + Alignment: Left + Aligned at: 0.25" + Indent at: 0.5", Border: Top: (No border), Bottom: (No border), Left: (No border), Right: (No border), Between: (No border)

#### 4.2. Results

662

663

664

665

666

667

668

669

670

671

PR profiles have been evaluated against radiosonde observations. For additional verification, radiosonde data from 59 launches taken between 9 March and 4 May 2015 were first of all compared to

To understand the BAO tower measurements, up to 300 m AGL. These observed data sets match very well, with a correlation coefficient of 0.99 and a standard deviation of ~0.7 °C. However, one radiosonde profile showed a large bias (> 5 °C) against all seven levels of BAO temperature measurements and against all PRs, therefore we decided to exclude this particular radiosonde profile from the statistical calculations.

#### 4.1 Physical retrieval statistical analysis from Akernel

level correlations among the 4 different types of observational data used in the PRs, the

Atkernels, averaged over all radiosonde events, are shown in Fig. 4, panels a-d, for the four PR retrieval configurations of in Table 1, in the same way as shown in Sop matrices were averaged over all radiosonde events, and converted to correlation matrices (Fig. 3, b-c.4). A clearly visible gradual narrowing of the spread around the main diagonal is obtained and correlation reduction in the off-diagonal elements result by the usage of the adding additional observations, from MWR zenith only (panel a Fig. 4a), to MWR zenith-oblique (panel b Fig. 4b), to the larger impact obtained by the usage of RASS 915 (panel c) and RASS 449 (panel d) data the RASS 915 (Fig. 4c), concluding with the RASS 449 (Fig. 4d) data. The mean retrieval uncertainty profile for each of the PR configurations is presented in Fig. 4e. The uncertainty of the MWRzo449 retrieval up to 1 km AGL is around 0.5 °C while the other retrievals have higher uncertainties of up to 1 °C. The higher accuracy of the MWRzo449 retrievals is because that configuration has more observational information compared to the other retrieval configurations.

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Space Before: 0 pt

Other statistically important features to analyze in the PRs, besides their uncertainty, are the vertical resolution, are already introduced in the retrieval uncertainty example of Fig. 3b, and the degree of freedom for signal (DFS). These three two features are also shown in Fig.4, panels e-g, at, derived from the Akernels of each of the heights of the retrieved solution, up to 3 km AGL, and PR configuration, averaged over all radiosonde events. While the, are shown in Fig.4f and 4g. The vertical resolution (panel eFig. 4f) shows the width of the atmosphere layer

used for each retrieval height (the vertical resolution is, computed as the full-width halfmaximum (FWHM; Maddy and Barnet, 2008) value of the averaging kernel), the uncertainty (panel f) gives a measure of the retrieval correctness (computed by propagating the uncertainty of the observations and the sensitivity of the forward model), and the DFS (panel g. The cumulative DFS profile (Fig. 4g) is a measure of the number of independent pieces of information used in the retrieved solution. observations below the specified height. For example, at the 1 km AGL level the vertical resolution of MWRzo449 equals o 0.5 km, (i.e. information is from +/- 0.5 km around the retrieval height areis considered in the retrieval, while all other retrievals use the information from +/- 2 km. Also, the uncertainty of the MWRzo449 retrieval up to 1 km AGL is around 0.5 °C while the other retrievals have higher uncertainties of up to 1 °C. The higher accuracy of the MWRzo449 retrievals is because they use more observational information compared to the other retrieval configurations more than +/-1.5 km. Also, the DFS, as a cumulative measure, shows an increase in pieces of information from MWRz to MWRzo for the whole profile and from MWRzo to MWRzo915 and to MWRzo449 above ~0.2 km where RASS data are available. The DFS of MWRzo915 is higher compared to the DFS of MWRzo449 in the 0.2-0.5 km AGL layer because RASS 915 data have denser measurements there. It is also important to note that there is no additional information added to any of the retrievals above 2km AGL, i.e. the slope of the cumulative DFS profiles are equal. Despite that, the statistical analysis of the PRs up to 3 km AGL, shown in Section 4, will prove that the retrieval improvements obtained by including the RASS are found even above the height of the RASS measurements availability.

694

695

696

697

698

699

700

701

702

703

704

705

706

707

708

709

710

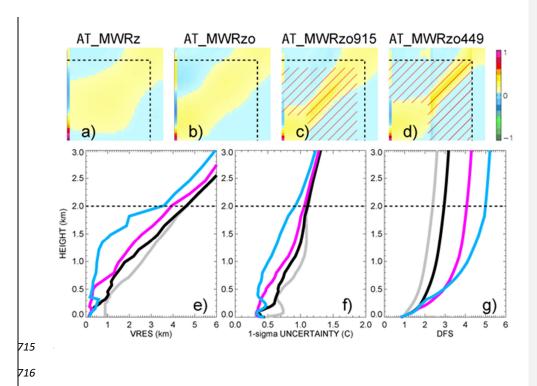
711

712

713

714

Formatted: Highlight



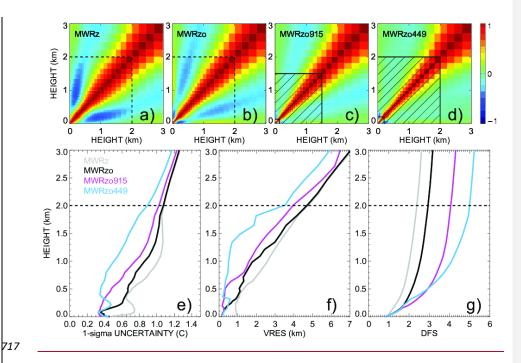


Fig. 4. Top four-color images: ATkernels row: The mean Sops, displayed as correlation matrices, for (a) MWRz (panel a), (b) MWRzo (panel b), (c) MWRzo915 (panel c), and (d) MWRzo449 (panel d), averaged over all radiosonde events. Hatched area on panels c) and d) marks the RASS maximum measurement heights. Bottom three panels from left to right: vertical resolution (VRES) in km (panel e), panels: (e) one-sigma uncertainty derived from the posterior covariance matrix in °C (panel f), and, (f) vertical resolution (VRES) in km, and (g) cumulative Degree of Freedom (DFS, panel g) as a function of height for temperature, averaged over all radiosonde events (MWRz is in gray, MWRzo is in black, MWRzo915 is in magentapurple, and MWRzo449 is in light-blue). Dashed lines mark 2 km AGL on all panels.

The improvements from MWRz (in gray) to MWRzo (in black), then-to MWRzo915 (in magentapurple), and finally to MWRzo449 (in light-blue) are visible in all three panels (Fig 4 e4e-g), whereas MWRzo449 has the best statistical measures lowest 1-\sigma uncertainty and highest DFS compared to the other PRs, particularly below 2 km AGL, where RASS 449 measurements are available. Finally, it is interesting that below 200 m AGL the MWRzo915 has slightly better statistics compared smaller lowest 1-\sigma uncertainty and vertical resolution relative to the MWRzo449, as could be expected due to the first available height of the RASS 915 being lower (120 m AGL) than the first available height for the RASS 449 (217 m AGL) and due to the finer vertical resolution of the 915-MHz RASS. This suggests that if additional observations were available in the lowest several 100 m of the atmosphere where RASS measurements are not available, improvements might be even better closer to the surface, where temperature inversions, if present, are sometimes difficult to retrieve correctly.

Formatted: Indent: First line: 0.5", Space After: 0 pt

Formatted: Indent: Left: 0", Outline numbered + Level: 1 + Numbering Style: 1, 2, 3, ... + Start at: 2 + Alignment: Left + Aligned at: 0.25" + Indent at: 0.5", Border: Top: (No border), Bottom: (No border), Left: (No border), Right: (No border), Between: (No border)

Formatted: Font: Bold

Formatted: Space Before: 0 pt

Formatted: Space Before: 0 pt

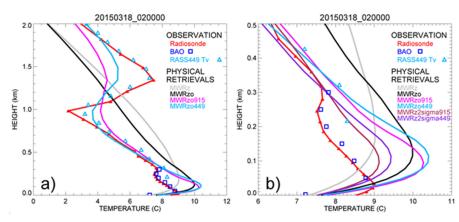
# 741 <u>4. Results</u>

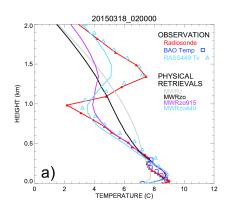
As a matter 4.1 Statistical analysis of fact, we physical retrievals up to 3km AGL

Several cases were found several cases during XPIA when the temperature profile exhibits exhibited inversions, with the lowest happening in the surface layer. Figure 5a5 shows one of the most complex cases, with several temperature inversions visible in the temperature profile from the radiosonde (red line), in the temperature measurements from the BAO tower (blue squares), and in the virtual temperature measured by the RASS 449 (light blue triangles).

We note Note that the virtual temperature profile is in close agreement with the temperature measured by radiosonde. Generally, the moisture contribution to the virtual temperature is less

than a degree K, decreasing substantially for dryer air. Among the PR profiles, the PRs including RASS data show better agreement with the radiosonde in the atmospheric layer where RASS measurements are available, as shown in Fig. 2 for a different date. Unfortunately, this better performance is not visible below the first available RASS measurement, i.e. from the surface up to ~200m AGL, where the PRs with additional RASS data have the largest positive bias compared to both radiosonde and BAO data in this layer. We found that the MWR data, especially those from the oblique scans, in this case have a bias in the observed brightness temperatures that propagates through the retrieval calculations, and including other observational data is not enough to correct it in the layer between the surface data and the first available RASS measurement.





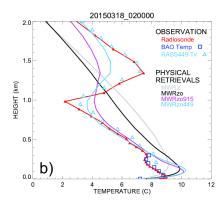


Fig. 5. Panel a, as As in Fig. 2 but for 18 March 2015 at 0200 UTC. The RASS 449 virtual temperature is included as light blue triangles. Panel b shows the same data presented in panel a, but only up to 500 m AGL, and includes PR profiles in which the MWR uncertainties were increased by a factor of two, MWRz915 in maroon and MWRz449 in violeta) shows the PRs obtained after applying the radiosonde BC, and b) shows the PRs obtained after applying the TROPoe BC on the MWR Tbs.

After several trials, we found that when RASS measurements are included, temperature profiles in this and similar cases exhibiting inversions could be improved by increasing the random uncertainty of MWR observations, and only using the zenith MWR measurements, because the oblique MWR brightness temperature measurements (which give more information in the lower layer of the atmosphere) seemingly have a bias that competes with the active and more accurate measurements from the RASS and surface observations. In this way, the PR approach is granted more freedom to get an optimal profile in the gap between the

Formatted: Space Before: 0 pt

Formatted: Font: Not Italic

lowest RASS measurements and the surface measurement. Proof of this is presented in Figure 5b, that shows the same data as in 5a, but including the profiles obtained when increasing the assumed MWR Tb uncertainties by a factor of two, hereafter called MWRz2sigma915 and MWRz2sigma449, in maroon and violet respectively. The increased accuracy of these temperature profiles compared to MWRz0915 and MWRz0449 are obvious in the layer of atmosphere closer to the surface. Later we will show that these last two PR configurations demonstrate improved statistics over all 58 cases, and also through the layer of the atmosphere up to 5 km. We note that these last two PR configurations, that were found to work well for this dataset, might not be optimal for other datasets. During XPIA the RASS measurements impact (particularly those from the RASS 449) was important in the PR approach. This might not be the case for other datasets or over different seasons, when RASS coverage might not be as good as during XPIA. For this reason, we think that attention has to be used to determine what is the best configuration to use when dealing with PR approaches. On the positive side, the advantage is that the user can determine and has control on what is the optimal configuration to use in his/her dataset, in terms of different inputs to employ and their relative uncertainty.

## 4.2 Statistical analysis of physical retrievals up to 5km AGL

We calculated the relative statistical behavior of PRs for both temperature and mixing ratio, providing the comparison in two ways: first to the smoothed radiosonde using the averaging kernel matrix (as described in section 3.3), and second comparing to the original, unsmoothed, radiosonde profiles, just interpolated to the 55 PR vertical levels.

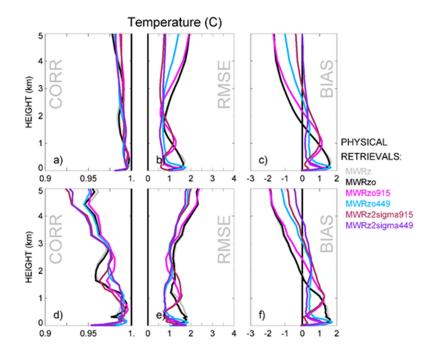
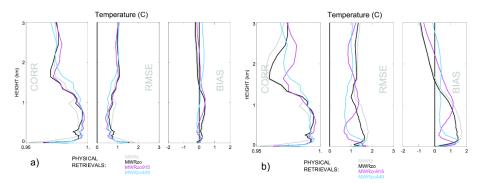


Figure 5 also illustrates the difference in the temperature profiles, especially between 0-300m AGL, for the two different bias-correction schemes, which show noticeable differences in the biases of the opaque channels (especially important for the near-ground retrievals)

presented in Fig. 1. As expected, the radiosonde BC method yielded a retrieved profile closer to the radiosonde temperature profile than when using TROPoe BC, for which the inversion in the

temperature profile close to the surface is too accentuated (particularly the black, purple, and cyan lines, all of which used oblique scan data).

The relative statistical behavior (Pearson correlation, RMSE, and bias) of the PRs for both temperature and mixing ratio against radiosondes is shown in Figure 6, using both biascorrection approaches. PRs obtained after applying the radiosonde BC (Fig. 6a) present overall smaller RMSE and bias (the latter almost equal to zero up to 3 km AGL) and slightly higher correlations compared to the statistics of the PRs obtained after applying the TROPoe BC (Fig. 6b). This could be expected since for the comparison in Fig. 6a a subset of the radiosondes were already used for the Tb bias correction. Also, the different retrievals show a narrower distribution for the panels in Fig. 6a. Nevertheless, the results obtained when applying either



bias-correction methods (in Fig. 6a, b) consistently show the improvement obtained when the RASS observations are used, with relatively smaller bias and RMSE in the 3 km layer AGL. The correlation is mainly improved above 1 km, when RASS observations are included.

Fig. 6. Pearson correlation, RMSE, and mean bias for temperature profiles of MWRz in gray,

MWRzo in black, MWRzo915 in magenta, purple, and MWRzo449 in light-blue,

MWRz2sigma915 in maroon and MWRz2sigma449 in violet, computed comparing to smoothed

for the radiosonde data (using their relative **ATkernel**) in panels-BC bias-correction method in a-e,) and against the original radiosonde measurements in panels d-f.-TROPoe BC method in b).

820

821

822

823

824

825

826

827

828

829

830

831

832

833

834

835

836

837

838

839

840

841

Formatted: Font: Not Bold, Italic

Formatted: Indent: First line: 0"

These results confirm the superiority of the MWRz2sigma449 temperature retrieval over the other PRs. While this is not true at all heights, this retrieval shows improved distribution of RMSE and bias for the atmospheric layer up to 5 km AGL. The differences between the MWRz2sigma915 and the MWRzo915 profiles are similar to those between the MWRz2sigma449 and the MWRzo449 profiles, reducing the drastic bias found in the layer closer to the ground. The differences between the two ways of comparison, against the smoothed ATkernel or the original radiosonde data, are small in terms of RMSE and bias, but more evident in terms of correlation as can be expected because of the smoothing technique applied to the radiosonde profiles through Eq. (3). Above and below ~1.6 km AGL the bias, RMSE, and correlation profiles of the PRs show very different behavior. While statistical scores above ~1.6 km AGL are very similar for the four PRs introduced in Table 1, they are better for the MWRz2sigma915 and MWRz2sigma449 PRs, especially when compared to the smoothed radiosonde profiles. Differences between the profiles show more variability in the lowest ~1.6 km where most of the active RASS measurements are available. Also, while both PR profiles related to the RASS 449, MWRzo449 and MWRz2sigma449, have almost constant bias and RMSE from 200m up to at least 3 km, the RASS 915 based PR profiles, MWRzo915 and MWRz2sigma915, have biases and RMSEs that vary with height. Due to the lower first range gate of the RASS 915 measurements, the PR profile of MWRz2sigma915 has the smallest bias and RMSE compared to all other PR profiles in the surface to 200 m layer. With quickly

decreasing availability of RASS 915 measurement above this layer, the bias and RMSE of MWRzo915 and MWRz2sigma915 became larger, and in some higher layers even larger than the corresponding statistical measures of MWRz and MWRzo. This marks the importance of active measurements spanning a prominent vertical layer to provide a useful application of these data in a radiative transfer model.

Besides temperature profiles, the PR retrievalsPRs also provide water vapor mixing ratio ← --

Formatted: Space After: 0 pt

different from each other in relation to moisture, because the Tv observations from the RASS are dominated by the ambient temperature (not moisture), and thus have little impact on the water vapor retrievals. Figure 7 includes the two AQkernels corresponding to the PRs MWRz and MWRzo449 in panels a and b, which We found that the AQKernels are averaged over all radiosonde events and appear to be almost identical. More detailed for all four PR configurations (not shown). Detailed statistical estimations evaluation of the PRs mixing ratio profiles are presented in Fig. 7 c-e, also averaged throughover all radiosonde events, and show very similar correlations, RMSEs, and biases for all PRs included in the figure, meaning, implying that the impact of including RASS observations in the retrieval is minimal on this variable.

Finally, it is noted that Fig. 7 shows the mixing ratio of the data from TROPoe BC. The radiosonde BC mixing ratio results are almost identical.

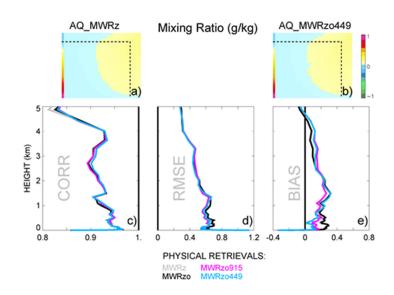


Fig. 7. Top two-color images: **AQkernels** for MWRz (panel a) and MWRzo449 (panel b), averaged over all radiosonde events and shown up to 3 km AGL with dash lines mark 2 km AGL on both panels. Bottom three panels are the same as panels d-f in Figure 6, but for mixing ratio estimation.

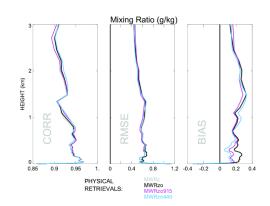


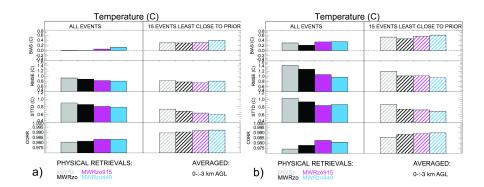
Fig. 7. Same as the panels in Fig. 6b, but for mixing ratio, when using the TROPoe BC method on the MWR Tbs.

4.32 Statistics for <del>cases far from the climatological mean</del>the profiles least close to the climatology

Physical retrievals use climatological data as a constraint or for building the statistical relationships used in the retrieval. Statistically, the averaged profiles of both temperature and moisture variables are very close to the climatological averages. However, the most interesting and difficult profiles to retrieve are the cases furthest from the climatology (Löhnert and Maier, 2012). To check the behavior of the retrieved data in such events, we extreme cases, the RMSE was first calculated the RMSE for each radiosonde profile relative to the prior profiles for 4237 vertical levels from the surface up to 53 km AGL, and then we selected the 15 cases with the largest 0-5km3 km layer averaged RMSEs compared to the prior. All comparisons are done against the corresponded smoothed ATkernel radiosonde data, using AT\_MWRz, AT\_MWRze,

Formatted: Indent: Left: 0.25", First line: 0"

Formatted: Font: Italic



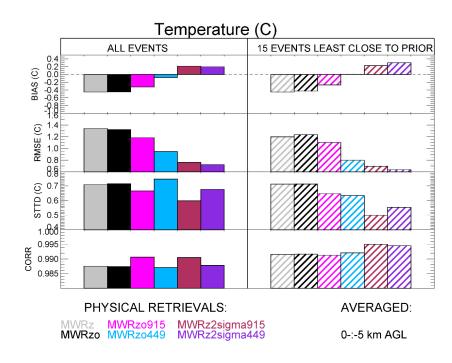


Fig. 8. From top to bottom: biases (retrievals minus ATkernel-radiosonde), RMSEs, standard deviations of the difference between retrievals and ATkernel-radiosonde, and Pearson correlations for the sixfour PR configurations—so far introduced, averaged from the surface to 53 km AGL, averaged and over all radiosonde data (solid boxes), and averaged—over the 15 events furthest from the priorsextreme cases (hatched boxes). The data in panels a) use radiosonde BC, and in b) TROPOE BC on the MWR Tbs.

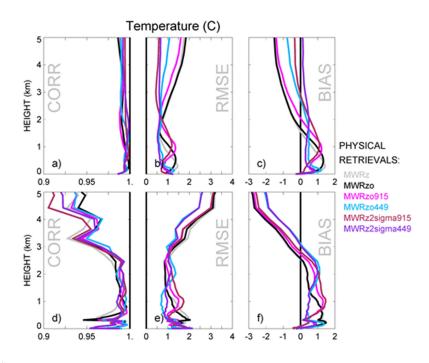
Figure 8 shows the temperature statistical analysis for the entire radiosonde data set (solid boxes) and to justfor the fifteen chosen events far from the climatological mean (hatched

boxes) for bias, RMSE, standard deviation of retrievalthe differences to the between retrievals and radiosonde data, and Pearson correlation, calculated as the weighted averaged over the 4237 vertical heights up to 53 km AGL. The vertical resolution of the Physical Retrievals is not uniform, with more frequent levels closer to the surface. If a simple average of the data from all levels is used, the near-surface layer will be weighted more compared to the upper levels of the retrievals. To avoid this, a vertical average over the lowest 5km AGL is performed using weights at each vertical level determined by the distance between the levels. 1.

Differences in the statistics when using the entire radiosonde data set or the fifteen extreme profiles furthest from the prior are noticeable, especially for bias and RMSE, but also for the standard deviation. All statistical estimators. The PRs that include RASS observations show better performance compared to the strictly MWR-only PR profiles (i.e., MWRz and MWRzo) for almost all statistical comparisons. Also, the statistical behavior of the MWRz2sigma915 and MWRz2sigma449 retrievals are the best in terms of RMSE and standard deviation. This improvement is larger for all events and for RMSE, standard deviation, and correlation coefficient, for the fifteen profiles furthest from the climatological average. Fig. 8 also shows that RMSE, standard deviation and correlation have improved scores for the 15 events furthest from the prior when compared to all temperature profiles for all the PRs using active RASS measurements. The TROPOE BC (Fig. 8b) compared to the PRs using the radiosonde BC (Fig. 8a). Three statistical estimators, RMSE, standard deviation, and Pearson correlation

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The vertical grid used in the PRs is not uniform, with more frequent levels closer to the surface. If a simple average of the data from all levels is used, the near-surface layer will be weighted more compared to the upper levels of the retrievals. To avoid this, a vertical average over the lowest 3 km AGL is performed using weights at each vertical level determined by the distance between the levels.

show overall better values for the 15 extreme cases compared to the whole radiosonde dataset, for all PR configurations and both BC approaches. This is due to the fact that for this dataset the monthly averaged radiosonde profiles (for March and May particularly) depart quite substantially from the monthly prior profiles. For example, the averaged radiosonde profile in March is warmer by ~7 °C compared to the March prior (and in May by ~5 °C) in the first 3 km AGL. Consequently, the extreme cases (mostly found in March) have the warmest radiosonde temperature profiles, but are overall closer to the monthly averaged radiosonde profiles.



929 over 15 furthest from prior radiosonde profiles. 930 931 To investigate the vertical structure as a percentage of the error statistics for the 15 932 events furthest from the radiosonde climatology, profiles of correlation, RMSE and bias for 933 these events are shown in Figure 9 for the layer 0-5 km. The MWRz2sigma915 and 934 MWRz2sigma449 profiles, having the best averaged statistics in Fig. 8, are seen as good as, or 935 better, than the other methods for the 0-2 km layer. Importantly, for heights above 2km AGL, 936 where there is no additional observational data from RASS, all of the PRs with RASS are closer 937 to the "true" radiosonde temperature compared to the PRs without RASS. 938 939 **4.4 Virtual temperature statistics** 940 The above analysis confirms the superiority of MWRz2sigma915 and 941 MWRz2sigma449improvement, compared to the other PRs for MWRz retrievals. 942 943 944 945 946 947 15 EVENTS LEAST CLOSE TO THE 0-3 km **ALL EVENTS PRIOR** <u>AGL</u>

Fig. 9. The Table 2 includes the same data as Fig. 6 in Figure 8 but for the temperature

formatted: Font: Not Italic
ormatted: Font: Not Italic
ormatted: Font: Not Italic

RADIOSONDE BIAS-CORRECTION									
	MWRz	MWRzo	MWRzo RASS915	MWRzo RASS449		MWRz	MWRzo	MWRzo RASS915	MWRzo RASS449
RMSE	<u>0%</u>	<u>5%</u>	11%	<u>13%</u>		<u>0%</u>	<u>7%</u>	10%	<u>3%</u>
STTD	<u>0%</u>	<u>4%</u>	10%	<u>12%</u>		<u>0%</u>	<u>8%</u>	14%	<u>17%</u>
CORR	<u>0%</u>	0.1%	0.3%	0.3%		<u>0%</u>	0.1%	0.2%	0.3%
TROPoe BIAS-CORRECTION									
RMSE	<u>0%</u>	10%	<u>25%</u>	32%		<u>0%</u>	<u>15%</u>	<u>15%</u>	21%
STTD	<u>0%</u>	<u>9%</u>	18%	<u>16%</u>		<u>0%</u>	14%	<u>16%</u>	20%
CORR	<u>0%</u>	0.4%	0.9%	0.7%		<u>0%</u>	0.3%	0.4%	0.4%

<u>Table 2. Retrieval improvements for different RASS/MWR configurations as a percentage</u>
<a href="mailto:compared to MWRz">compared to MWRz</a>.

The results presented in Table 2 show improvements in all statistical estimations when including RASS observations, with improvements in RMSE between 10 and 20 %, demonstrating the positive impact derived by the inclusion of the active measurements, regardless of the biascorrection method used, but larger for the TROPoe BC data because there is more room for improvement when this dataset. BC method is used. Improvements in the Pearson correlation coefficients are small because correlation, determined during XPIA by the overall temperature structure with height and diurnal cycle, is already good, leaving little room for improvement.

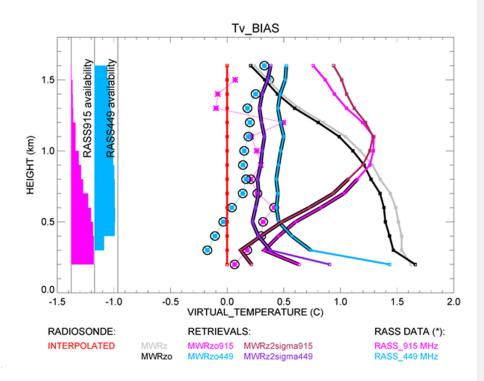
### 4.3 Virtual temperature profile statistics

Using the physical retrieval outputs, "retrieved virtual temperature profiles" can also be 
Formatted: Space After: 0 pt

calculated. In this section we show the direct comparison of the retrieved profiles to the original radiosonde and RASS virtual temperature profiles. Using temperature and moisture retrieval output, we calculated "these retrieved virtual temperature profiles" and interpolated all profiles and RASS data on a regular vertical grid, going from 200 m to 1.6 km with 100 m range, for easy and RASS virtual temperature profiles to the original radiosonde is shown. With this comparison—we want to show how the biases of the retrieved profiles relate to the original RASS Tv biases.

Figure 109 shows Tv retrieved profile biases compared to the original radiosonde data as solid lines, and RASS 915 and RASS 449 Tv bias as asterisks. RASS data are interpolated on a regular vertical grid, going from 200 m to 1.6 km with a 100 m range, for easy comparison.

A zero bias is denoted by the red line. On the left side of the figure we show the bar charts of the RASS measurement availability are shown as a function of height. The widest part of these charts corresponds to 100% data availability. Heights with RASS availability greater than 50% are marked with additional circles over the asterisks.



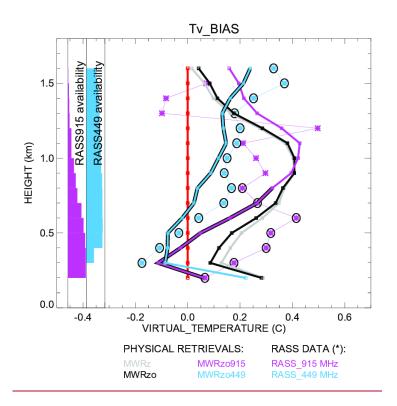


Fig. <u>109</u>. Bias of virtual temperature for all-six PR configurations compared to the original radiosonde measurements. RASS data are marked by asterisks and by additional circles for the RASS data with more than 50% availability, according to the availability bar charts on the left.

981 All PRs profiles are derived after applying the radiosonde BC method.

While RASS 449 data are available at almost all heights up to 1.6 km, the RASS 915 data availability decreases considerably with height, lowering to 50% availability around 800 m AGL.

All The PRs with input from that include RASS data, MWRzo915 and MWRzo449, and

Formatted: Space After: 0 pt

MWRz2sigma915 and MWRz2sigma449, are also marked with additional black lines at the heights with at least 50% of relative RASS data availability. This n agreement with Fig. 6a, this figure clearly shows the superiority of MWRz2sigma449-the MWRz0449 and MWRz2sigma915 MWRzo915 (in the layer with > 50% RASS 915-data availability) compared to the MWRz and MWRzo configurations, which do not include RASS data, as well as to MWRzo915 and MWRzo449 which include RASS data and MWR zenith and oblique data. For MWRzo449 and MWRz2sigma449 profiles, RASS 449 data were almost always available, therefore it is easy to identify similar features a similarity between the Tv bias profiles of the RASS 449 and the PRs including it. Thus, for the MWRzo449-and MWRz2sigma449 the Tv bias is more uniform through the heights compared to all other PRs that do not include RASS data. Moreover, because it is noted a roughly constant offset between the MWRzo449 Tv and MWRz2sigma449RASS 449 Tv bias biases profiles follow tightly the trend of the RASS 449, with height, the their averaged difference between MWRzo449 equal to ~0.08 °C (when the radiosonde BC is used), and RASS 449 biases equals to ~0.32 °C and the difference between MWRz2sigma449 and RASS 449 biases equals ~0.14 °C(when the TROPoe BC is used, not shown), over the ~1.3 km (0.3-1.6 km) atmospheric layer where mostmore than 50% of the RASS 449 measurements are available, uniformly distributed through the heights. Finally, the average differences between these MWRzo449 and MWRz2sigma449 Tv profiles and the radiosonde virtual temperature equal ~0.56.°C and ~0.34.°C respectively. We note that as an alternative to using the PR temperature profiles at all heights, one could consider replacing the PR temperatures with RASS observations up to-The inclusion of the RASS into the PRs does reduce the values of the biases in the maximum height reached by retrievals even below the RASS, and then usevalues of the PR

986

987

988

989

990

991

992

993

994

995

996

997

998

999

1000

1001

1002

1003

1004

1005

1006

retrieval above that. To do this the moisture contribution to the RASS virtual temperatures could be removed by using either the relative humidity measured by radiometer or by a climatology of the moisture termRASS biases.

#### 5. Conclusions

In this study—we used the, data collected during the XPIA field campaign were used to test different configurations of a physical-iterative retrieval (PR) approach in the determination of temperature and humidity profiles from data collected by microwave radiometers, surface sensors, and RASS measurements. We tested the The accuracy of several PR configurations, was tested: two that configurations made use only of surface observations and MWR observed brightness temperature (zenith only, MWRz<sub>72</sub> and zenith plus oblique, MWRzo), and); while two others that included the active virtual temperature profile observations available from two-colocated RASS (one, RASS 915, associated with a 915-MHz<sub>72</sub> and the other, RASS 449, associated with a 449-MHz wind profiling radar). Radiosonde launches were used for verification of the retrieved profiles. In Appendix A, the performance of MWRz and MWRzo retrieved profiles and Neural Network retrieved profiles were also used for comparison (see Appendix A)-against the radiosondes was evaluated.

Inclusion To remove any observational systematic error in the MWR Tb observations, two bias-correction procedures were tested. The first one takes advantage of the many radiosondes launched during XPIA, and the second one uses climatological profiles. As expected, the radiosonde bias-correction method gives retrieved profiles closer to the radiosonde temperature profiles than when using the climatological based method.

Formatted: Indent: Left: 0", Outline numbered + Level: 1 + Numbering Style: 1, 2, 3, ... + Start at: 2 + Alignment: Left + Aligned at: 0.25" + Indent at: 0.5"

Formatted: Line spacing: Double

Formatted: Line spacing: Double, Border: Top: (No border), Bottom: (No border), Left: (No border), Right: (No border), Between: (No border)

Nevertheless, our results show that regardless of the bias-correction method used, the inclusion of the observations from the active RASS instruments in the PR approach improves the accuracy of the temperature profiles, particularly when by around 10-20% compared to the PR configuration using only surface observations and MWR observed brightness temperature inversions are present. from the zenith scan. Of the PRs configurations tested, we findgenerally better statistical agreement is found with the radiosonde observations when the RASS 449 is used together with the surface observations and brightness temperature from only the zenith MWR observations and doubling the random radiometric uncertainty on the MWR observations (MWRz2sigma449) relative to the uncertainty calculated over the selected clear-sky days. This configuration is also more accurate compared to MWRzo915 or MWRz2sigma915 (which use RASS 915 observation), because of the deeper RASS 449 height coverage. The larger assumed radiometric uncertainty in the MWR Tb observations allows the retrieval to overcome both (a) the small systematic errors that exist between the MWR observed Tb values and the RASS measurements and (b) the systematic errors that exist in forward microwave radiative models (Cimini et al. 2018).the zenith and averaged oblique MWR observations. We also selected The AKernel and the posterior covariance matrices for temperature are used to derive the one-sigma uncertainty, vertical resolution, and cumulative degree of freedom as a function of height for the different PRs, and the level-to-level correlated uncertainty of the retrievals. Results show that the inclusion of the active instruments improves

1030

1031

1032

1033

1034

1035

1036

1037

1038

1039

1040

1041

1042

1043

1044

1045

1046

1047

1048

1049

1050

1051

all of the above-mentioned variables in the 0-3km layer, including at heights between 2-3km

that are above the maximum RASS height. Thus, the positive impact of the RASS observations

extends into the atmosphere above the height of measurements themselves.

Formatted: Line spacing: Double

Furthermore, 15 cases when temperature profiles from the radiosonde observations were the furthest <a href="mailto:away">away</a> from the mean climatological average <a href="were selected">were selected</a>, and <a href="reproduced">reproduced</a> the statistical comparison <a href="was reproduced">was reproduced</a> over this subset of cases. These are the cases usually the most difficult to retrieve and the most important to forecast; therefore, it is essential to improve the retrievals in these situations. Even for this subset of selected cases <a href="weefind">weefind</a> that <a href="https://www.meefind</a> that this result may be dependent on the fact that our oblique measurements were taken at a 15-degree elevation angle, and that MWRs in locations with unobstructed views allowing for scans down to 5 degrees may provide similar improvements to the temperature profile accuracy in the lowest 0-1 or even 0-2 km AGL layers (Crewell and Löhnert, 2007). the inclusion of active sensor observations in the PRs is found to be beneficial.

Finally, we also considered the impact of the inclusion of RASS measurements on the retrieved humidity profiles was considered, but in this case the inclusion of RASS observations did not produce significantly better results, compared to the configurations that do not include them. This was not a surprise as RASS measures virtual temperature, effectively adding very little extra information to the water vapor retrievals retrieval. In this case a better option would be to consider adding other active remote sensors such as water vapor differential absorption lidars (DIALs) to the PRs. Turner and Löhnert (20202021) showed that including the partial profile of water vapor observed by the DIAL substantially increases the information content in

the combined water vapor retrievals. Consequently, to improve both temperature and humidity retrievals a synergy between MWR, RASS, and DIAL systems would likely be necessary.

#### Appendix A

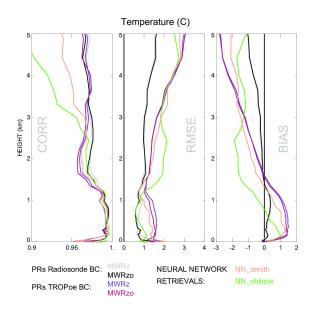
The XPIA-neural network (NN) retrievals developed by the vendor explicitly for XPIA use a training dataset based on a 5-year climatology of profiles from radiosondes launched at the Denver International Airport, 35 miles south-east from the XPIA site. NN-based MWR vertical retrieval profiles were obtained using the zenith or an average of two oblique elevation scans, 15- and 165-degrees, (not including the zenith), all with 58 levels extending from the surface up to 10 km, with nominal vertical levelsgrid depending on the height (every 50 m from the surface

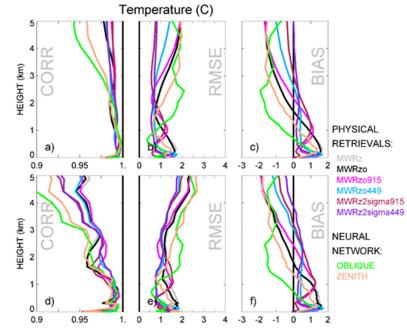
to 500 m, every 100 m from 500 m to 2 km, and every 250 m from 2 to 10 km, AGL).

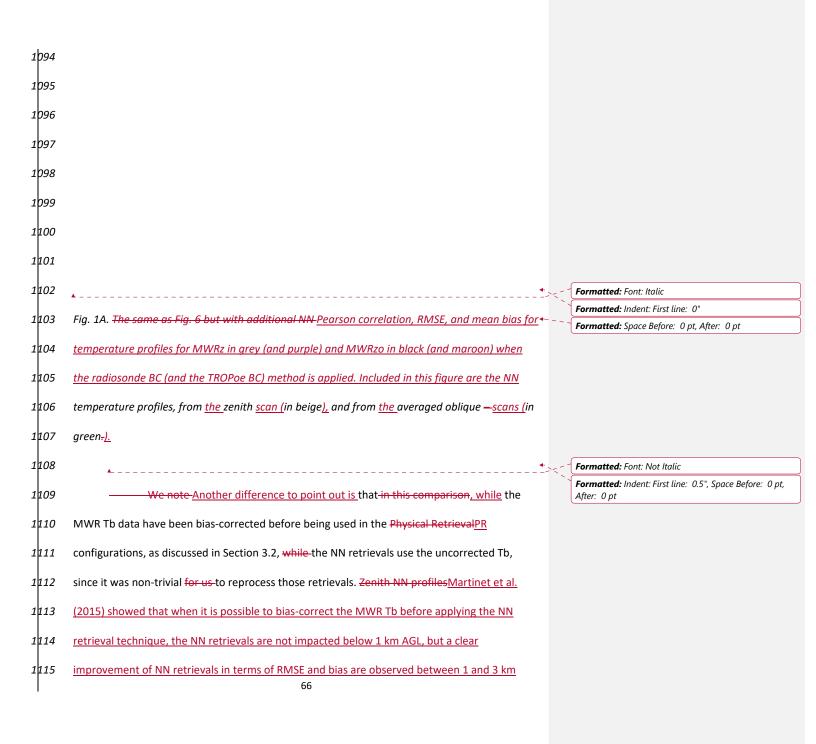
Fig. 1A shows composite NN vertical profiles of temperature (separately for the zenith and averaged obliques) calculated for radiosonde launch times, and the corresponding PR profiles already introduced in Fig. 6. As expected, the averaged oblique NN profile has lower bias and RMSE compared to the zenith NN profile below 1km AGL, while the zenith NN profile improved above this level.6a, b. For a proper comparison, only MWRz and MWRzo profiles are used, without including RASS measurements. It has to be noted that since the "NN oblique" retrieval provided by the manufacturer of the radiometer does not include the zenith, this configuration cannot be considered exactly equivalent to the MWRzo PR.

Formatted: Indent: Left: 0", Hanging: 0.25"

Formatted: Line spacing: Double







altitude. As is visible in Fig. 1A, this is the layer of the atmosphere where the NN profiles (beige and green lines) have larger bias and RMSE and smaller, compared to the PR profiles. When the radiosonde BC method is used, the MWRz and MWRzo PRs (gray and black lines) present better statistics through the entire profiles shown in Fig. 1A, with larger values of the correlation coefficient above 1 km AGL compared to all PR profiles. This is possibly due to the Tb bias in the transparent channels of the V band frequencies., and smaller values of RMSE and bias. The oblique only NN profiles (in green) show comparable statistics to the PRs employing the radiosonde BC method up to 1 km AGL, with degraded performances above this height. Above 1 km AGL, the zenith NN profiles (in beige) do better than the oblique NN in terms of RMSE and bias. When the TROPoe BC method is used, the MWRz and MWRzo PRs (purple and maroon lines) perform better than the NN profiles only in terms of RMSE and bias, and above around 1.5 km AGL. To optimize the use of the two types of NN scan data, we combined the NN retrieved profiles using only the averaged oblique scans up to 1 km AGL and the zenith scans above 1 km. Fig. 2A is the same as Fig. 8, now including also the three NN profiles (averaged oblique only, zenith only, and their combination) presenting the statistics in three different layers of atmosphere: from the surface to 5 km AGL, from the surface to 2 km AGL, and from the surface to 1 km AGL (a, b and c panels).

Formatted: Space Before: 0 pt, After: 0 pt

1116

1117

1118

1119

1120

1121

1122

1123

1124

1125

1126

1127

1128

1129

1130

1131

1132

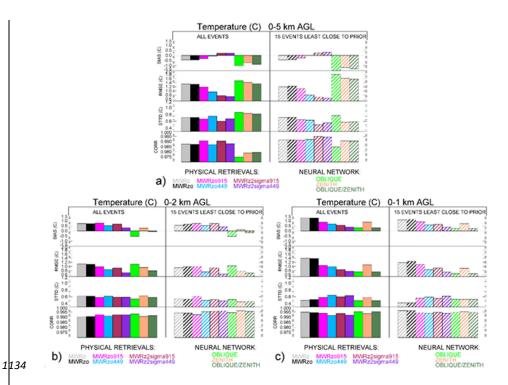


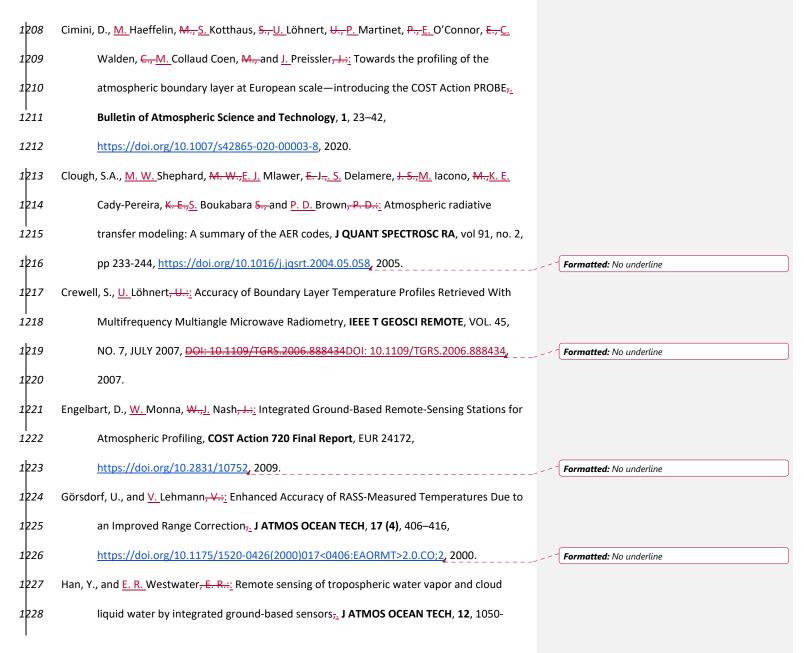
Fig. 2A. The same as Fig. 8 but including NN profile statistics from averaged oblique scans in beige, from zenith – in green, and from their combination – in spruce. Panels a, b, and c show the temperature statistics from the surface up to 5, 2 and 1 km AGL respectively.

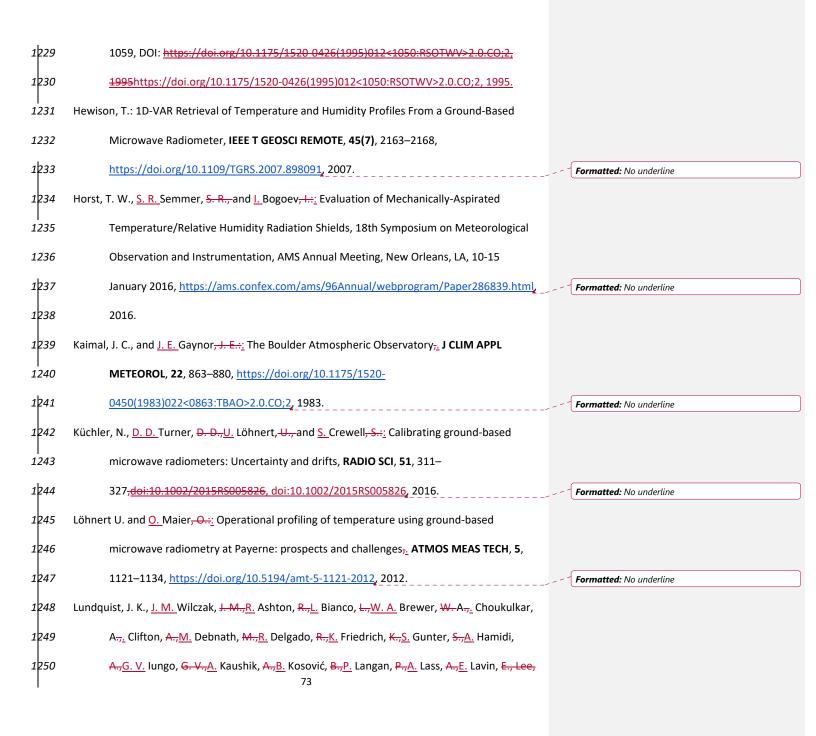
Oblique only (and oblique and zenith combined) NN profiles show the best statistics in the layer closest to the surface, up to 1 km AGL, panel c, while in the deeper atmosphere layer up to 5 km all PR profiles have improved statistics compared to NNs, panel a. Panel b has mixed results: MWRz2sigma449 has the lowest RMSE, and the combined NN retrieved profiles show just slightly larger RMSE and almost the same standard deviation and correlation. It is

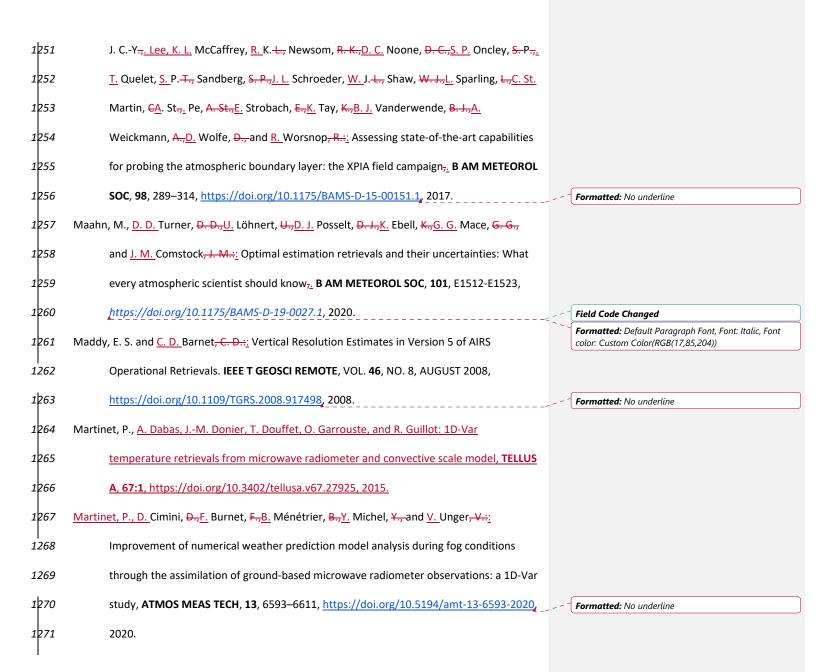
1143 important to admit that while potential NN bias correction generally cannot change the oblique 1144 statistics, it may improve the zenith profiles, especially above 1 km AGL, therefore improving 1145 the combined NN profiles statistics. 1146 The better performance obtained by the MWRz and MWRzo PRs that use the 1147 radiosonde BC approach demonstrate the importance of having an accurate and reliable 1148 method for bias correcting the MWR. 1149 Formatted: Font: Not Italic Formatted: Space Before: 0 pt, After: 0 pt, Border: Top: 1150 Data availability (No border), Bottom: (No border), Left: (No border), Right: (No border), Between: (No border) 1151 All data are publicly accessible at the DOE Atmosphere to Electrons Data Archive and Portal, found at <a href="https://a2e.energy.gov/projects/xpia">https://a2e.energy.gov/projects/xpia</a> (Lundquist et al., 2016). 1152 1153 Formatted: Indent: Left: 0", Hanging: 0.25" 1154 **Author contribution** 1155 Irina Djalalova completed the primary analysis with physical retrieval approach through 1156 MONORTM using the XPIA datadataset. Daniel Gottas contributed to the post-processing of the 1157 RASS data. Dave Turner modified the TROPoe algorithm to include the RASS data as input. All 1158 authors contributed to the analysis of the results. Irina Djalalova prepared the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors. 1159 1160 1161 Acknowledgements Formatted: Indent: Left: 0", Hanging: 0.25" 1162 We thank all the people involved in XPIA for instrument deployment and maintenance, Formatted: Line spacing: Double 1163 data collection, and data quality control, and particularly the University of Colorado Boulder for

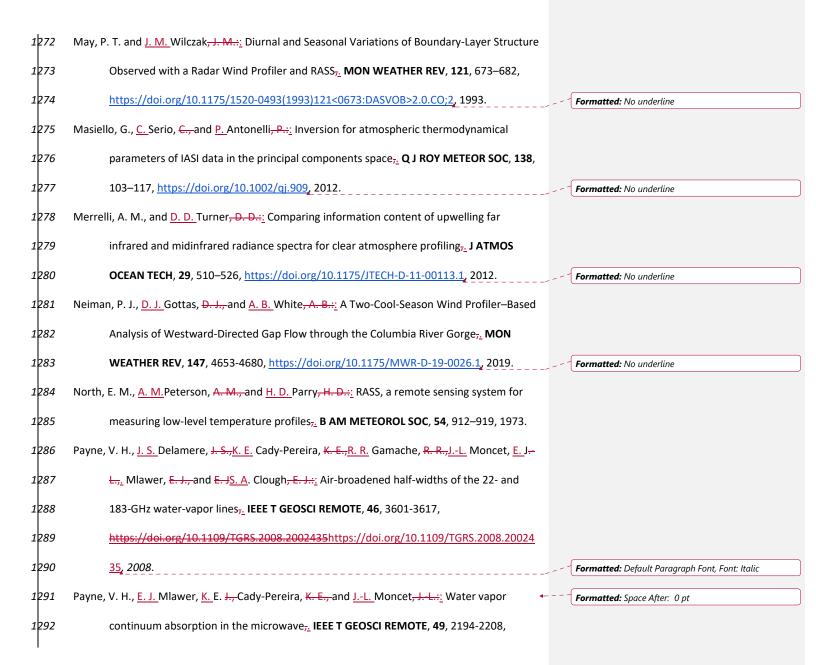
1164	making the CU MWR data available. We are very grateful for the constructive comments and		
1165	suggestions provided by the two anonymous Referees and by the Editor, which we believe have		
1166	greatly improved the clarity of the manuscript. Funding for this study was provided by the		
1167	NOAA/ESRL Atmospheric Science for Renewable Energy (ASRE) program.		
1168			
1169			
1170	Competing interests The authors declare no competing interests.		
1171	•	•	Formatted: Indent: First line: 0.5"
1172	References		Formatted: Indent: Left: 0", Hanging: 0.25"
1173	Adachi, A., and H. Hashiguchi, H.: Application of parametric speakers to radio acoustic		
1174	sounding system <sub>7.2</sub> <b>ATMOS MEAS TECH, 12</b> , 5699–5715,- https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-		
1 1175	<u>12-5699-2019</u> , 2019.		
1176	Adler, B., <u>J. M.</u> Wilczak, <del>J. M.,</del> L. Bianco, <u>L.,I.</u> Djalalova, <u>I.,J. B.</u> Duncan Jr., <u>J. B.,D. D.</u> Turner <del>, D. D.:</del>		
1177	Observational case study of a persistent cold air pool and gap flow in the Columbia River		
1178	Basin <del>, Under review to</del> . J APPL METEOROL CLIM, 60, 1071-1090,		
1179	https://doi.org/10.1175/JAMC-D-21-0013.1, 2021.		
1180	Banta, R. M., and coauthors: Characterizing NWP model errors using Doppler lidar		
1181	measurements of recurrent regional diurnal flows: Marine-air intrusions into the		
1182	Columbia River Basin <sub>72</sub> MON WEATHER REV, 148, 927-953,		
1183	https://doi.org/10.1175/MWR-D-19-0188.1, 2020.	<u> </u>	Formatted: Default Paragraph Font, Font: Italic, Font color: Custom Color(RGB(17,85,204))
1184	Bianco L., <u>D. Cimini, <del>D., F. S.</del></u> Marzano, <del>F. S., and <u>R.</u> Ware, <u>R.:</u> Combining microwave radiometer</del>		Formatted: Default Paragraph Font, Font: Italic
 1185	and wind profiler radar measurements for high-resolution atmospheric humidity 70		Field Code Changed

1186	profiling, <b>J ATMOS OCEAN TECH</b> , <b>22</b> , 949–965, https://doi.org/10.1175/JTECH1771.1	<b>Formatted:</b> No underline
1187	2005.	
1188	Bianco, L., <u>K. Friedrich, <del>K., J. M.</del></u> Wilczak, <del>J. M., D.</del> Hazen, D <del>., <u>L.</u></del> Wolfe, <del>D., <u>R.</u></del> Delgado, <del>R., S.</del> Oncley,	
1189	S., and J. K. Lundquist, J. K.: Assessing the accuracy of microwave radiometers and radio	
1190	acoustic sounding systems for wind energy applications, ATMOS MEAS TECH, 10, 1707-	Formatted: Font: Not Bold
1191	1721, https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-10-1707-2017, 2017.	<b>Formatted:</b> No underline
1192	Cadeddu, M. P., <u>J. C.</u> Liljegren, <del>J. C.,</del> and <u>D. D.</u> Turner <del>, D. D.:</del> The Atmospheric radiation	
1193	measurement (ARM) program network of microwave radiometers: instrumentation,	
1194	data, and retrievals, ATMOS MEAS TECH, 6, 2359–2372, https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-6-	
1195	<u>2359-2013,</u> 2013.	<b>Formatted:</b> No underline
1196	Cimini, D., <u>T. J.</u> Hewison, <u>T. J., L.</u> Martin, <u>L., J.</u> Guldner, <u>J., C.</u> Gaffard, <u>C., F. S.</u> Marzano, <u>F. S.:</u>	
 1197	Temperature and humidity profile retrievals from ground-based microwave radiometers	
1198	during TUC,	
1199	METEOROL Z, Vol. 15, No. 5, 45-56, <u>DOI: 10.1127/09411-D-2948/2006/0099</u> , 2006.	Formatted: Font color: Custom Color(RGB(17,85,204))
1200	Cimini, D., <u>E.</u> Campos, <u>E.,R.</u> Ware, <u>R.,S.</u> Albers, <u>S.,G.</u> Giuliani, <u>G.,J.</u> Oreamuno, <u>J.,P.</u> Joe, <u>P.,S. E.</u>	Formatted: Font color: Custom Color(RGB(17,85,204))  Formatted: No underline
1201	Koch, S. E., Cober, S., and E. Westwater, E.:: Thermodynamic Atmospheric Profiling	
1202	during the 2010 Winter Olympics Using Ground-based Microwave Radiometry, IEEE T	
1203	GEOSCI REMOTE, 49, 12, https://doi.org/10.1109/TGRS.2011.2154337, 2011.	<b>Formatted:</b> No underline
 1204	Cimini, D., Rosenkranz, P. W., Tretyakov, M. Y., Koshelev, M. A., and Romano, F.: Uncertainty of	
1205	atmospheric microwave absorption model: impact on ground-based radiometer	Formatted: Font: Not Bold  Formatted: Font: Not Italic
1206	simulations and retrievals, <b>ATMOS CHEM PHYS, 18</b> , 15231–15259,	Formatted: Font color: Custom Color(RGB(17,85,204))
1207	https://acp.copernicus.org/articles/18/15231/2018/, 2018.	Formatted: Font color: Custom Color(RGB(17,85,204))  Formatted: No underline

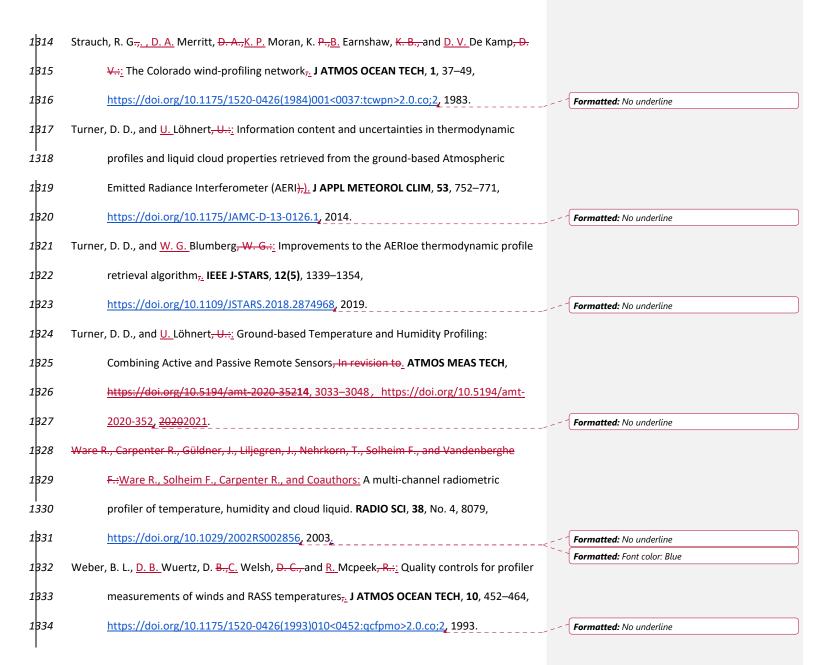








1293	https://doi.org/10.1109/TGRS.2010.2091416https://doi.org/10.1109/TGRS.2010.20914	
1294	<u>16,</u> 2011.	Formatted: Default Paragraph Font, Font: Italic
1295	Rodgers, C. D.: Inverse Methods for Atmospheric Sounding: Theory and Practice. Series on	
 1296	Atmospheric, Oceanic and Planetary Physics, Vol. 2, World Scientific, 238 pp, 2000.	
1297	Rosenkranz, P. W.: Water vapour microwave continuum absorption: A comparison of	
1298	measurements and models <sub>7.</sub> <b>RADIO SCI, 33</b> , 919–928,	
1299	https://doi.org/10.1029/98RS01182https://doi.org/10.1029/98RS01182, 1998.	Formatted: Default Paragraph Font, Font: Italic
1300	Shaw, W., and Coauthors: The Second Wind Forecast Improvement Project (WFIP 2): General	
1301	Overview <sub>7.2</sub> B AM METEOROL SOC, 100(9), 1687–1699, https://doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-	
1302	<u>D-18-0036.1, 2019.</u>	<b>Formatted:</b> No underline
1303	Solheim, F., <u>J. R.</u> Godwin, J <del>. R</del> ., and <u>R.</u> Ware, <u>R.:</u> Passive ground-based remote sensing of	
1304	atmospheric temperature, water vapor, and cloud liquid profiles by a frequency	
1305	synthesized microwave radiometer, METEOROL Z, 7, 370–376, 1998a.	Formatted: Font color: Black
1306	Solheim F., <u>J. R. Godwin, J.E. R., Westwater, E. R., Y.</u> Han, <u>Y., S. J.</u> Keihm, <u>S. J., K.</u> Marsh, <u>K., R.</u>	
1307	Ware, Radiometric profiling of temperature, water vapor and cloud liquid water	
1308	using various inversion methods <sub>7.2</sub> <b>RADIO SCI, 33</b> , 393–404,	
1309	https://doi.org/10.1029/97RS03656, 1998b.	Formatted: No underline, Font color: Black
1310	Stankov, B. B., <u>E. R.</u> Westwater, <u>E. R.,</u> and <u>E. E. Gossard, E. E.:</u> Use of wind profiler estimates of	
1311	significant moisture gradients to improve humidity profile retrieval <sub>7.</sub> J ATMOS OCEAN	
1312	<b>TECH</b> , <b>13</b> , 1285-1290, DOI: <a href="https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-">https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-</a>	Field Code Changed
1313	<del>0426</del> 15200426(1996)013<1285:UOWPEO>2.0.CO;2, 1996.	Formatted: Default Paragraph Font, Font: Italic



1335	Wilczak, J. M., and Coauthors: The Second Wind Forecast Improvement Project (WFIP2):	
1336	Observational Field Campaign <sub>72</sub> B AM METEOROL SOC, 100(9), 1701–1723,	
1337	https://doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-D-18-0035.1, 2019.	Formatted: No underline
1338	Wolfe, D. E. and R. J. Lataitis, R. J.::, Boulder Atmospheric Observatory: 1977–2016: The end of	
1339	an era and lessons learned. B AM METEOROL SOC, 99, 1345–1358,	
1340	https://doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-D-17-0054.1, 2018.	Formatted: No underline