

# **Comparisons and quality control of wind observations in a mountainous city using wind profile radar and the Aeolus satellite**

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**Abstract:** Observations of vertical wind profile in Chongqing, a typical mountainous city in China, are important, but sparse and have low resolution. To obtain more wind profile data, this study matched the Aeolus track with ground-based wind observation sites in Chongqing in 2021. Based on the obtained results, verification and quality control studies were conducted on the wind observations of a wind profile radar (WPR) with radiosonde (RS) data, and a comparison of the Aeolus Mie-cloudy and Rayleigh-clear wind products with WPR data was then performed. The conclusions can be summarized as follows: (1) A clear correlation between the wind observations of WPR and RS was found, with a correlation coefficient (R) of 0.71. Their root-mean-square deviation increased with height, but decreased at height between 3 and 4 km. (2) After quality control of Gaussian filtering (GF) and empirical orthogonal function construction (EOFc,  $G = 87.23\%$ ) of the WPR data, the R between the WPR and RS reached 0.83 and 0.95, respectively. The vertical distribution showed that GF could better retain the characteristics of WPR wind observations, but with limited improvement in decreasing deviations, whereas EOFc performed better in decreasing deviations, but considerably modified the original characteristics of the wind field, especially regarding intensive vertical wind shear in strong convective weather processes. (3) In terms of the differences between the Aeolus and WPR data, 56.0% and 67.8% deviations were observed within  $\pm 5$  m/s for Rayleigh-clear and Mie-cloudy winds vs. WPR winds, respectively. Vertically, large mean differences of both Rayleigh-clear and Mie-cloudy winds versus WPR winds appeared below 1.5 km, which is attributed to the prevailing quiet and small winds within the boundary layer in Chongqing, in this case the

33 movement of molecules and aerosols is mostly affected by irregular turbulence. Additionally, large  
34 mean differences at the height range between 4 to 8 km for Mie-cloudy versus WPR winds may be  
35 related to the high content of cloud liquid water in the middle troposphere of Chongqing. (4) The  
36 differences in both Rayleigh-clear and Mie-cloudy versus WPR winds had changed. Deviations of  
37 58.9% and 59.6% were concentrated between  $\pm 5$  m/s for Rayleigh-clear versus WPR winds with GF  
38 and EOFc quality control, respectively. In contrast, 69.1% and 70.2% of deviations appeared between  
39  $\pm 5$  m/s for Rayleigh-clear versus WPR and EOFc WPR winds, respectively. These results shed light  
40 on the comprehensive applications of multi-source wind profile data in mountainous cities or areas  
41 with sparse ground-based wind observations.

42 **Keywords:** Wind profile radar, Aeolus satellite, data verification, data quality control, mountainous  
43 city

## 44 **1 Introduction**

45 The detection of the atmospheric wind profile is essential for studying atmospheric dynamics,  
46 interactions between weather and pollution, and predict extreme weather (Baker et al., 1995; King et  
47 al., 2017; Stettner et al., 2019; Sun et al., 2022). Furthermore, the value of atmospheric wind  
48 observations has been illustrated by assimilation applications in numerical weather prediction  
49 (Benjamin et al., 2004; Weissmann and Cardinali, 2007; Michelson and Bao, 2008). In particular,  
50 wind fields within the boundary layer are mostly turbulent and difficult to simulate using models  
51 without the assimilation of wind observations (Belmonte and Stoffelen 2019; Simonin et al., 2014).  
52 For areas with complex terrain, such as mountainous cities, individual ground-based observation  
53 stations usually have poor representation, and thus vertical observations are essential (Sekula et al.,  
54 2021; Lu et al., 2022b). Therefore, unconventional wind profile observations are urgently required for  
55 analysis and assimilation into numerical prediction models to describe the transport of mesoscale  
56 weather systems, as well as to advance our knowledge of atmospheric component movement in the  
57 actual atmosphere.

58 Wind profile radar (WPR) data may partially compensate for the limitations of conventional  
59 wind field observations. WPR detects the scattering effect of atmospheric turbulence on  
60 electromagnetic waves to detect the Doppler effect signals of air movement, and is capable of  
61 providing horizontal wind vectors with high temporal and vertical resolution (Weber et al., 1990;

62 Dibbern et al., 2001). The automated, continuous, and real-time vertical wind profiles from the WPR  
63 could fill the gaps in upper-air observations, both in time continuity and vertical resolution. Terrain  
64 and climate characteristics in unique regions could have different impacts on WPR echoes, resulting  
65 in separate data observation errors. Therefore, data verification, and occasionally adequate quality  
66 control, are required before the application of WPR data in a specific region (Zhang et al., 2015; Guo  
67 et al., 2020). In comparison, radiosonde (RS) data are often considered reliable atmospheric wind  
68 observations to verify WPR data (Weber et al., 1990; Chen et al., 2021).

69 Owing to advances in satellite detection, wind fields acquired from satellites can supplement  
70 conventional ground-based observations in space coverage. Atmospheric motion vector detection can  
71 only extract the wind information of layers with clouds. The United States and Europe have  
72 successively detected sea surface wind fields using microwave radiometers and scatterometers  
73 (Endlich et al., 1971; Njoku et al., 1980; Gaiser et al., 2004; Barre et al., 2008). The World  
74 Meteorological Organization regards the detection of global three-dimensional wind fields as one of  
75 the most challenging and important meteorological observation missions in the 21st century (WMO,  
76 2001). The United States and Europe have conducted space-borne wind lidar measurement programs,  
77 as these are the best methods for detecting three-dimensional wind fields (Beranek et al., 1989; Baker,  
78 2008; Wernham et al., 2016). The Aeolus satellite was launched following the European Space  
79 Agency's (ESA) fifth Earth Explorer mission on August 22, 2018. As the world's first Doppler wind  
80 lidar in space, Aeolus has enabled the continuous detection of global wind profiles from the ground to  
81 the lower stratosphere with a vertical resolution of 0.25–1 km (Marseille et al., 2008; Reitebuch et al.,  
82 2006; Zhang et al., 2019). Therefore, the wind profile data detected by Aeolus can compensate for the  
83 lack of spatial coverage and vertical resolution of ground-based wind field observations to some  
84 extent.

85 Located at the edge of the Sichuan Basin, Chongqing is a typical mountainous city in China  
86 known for its complex topography. Owing to the unique terrain, the mechanism of extreme weather  
87 and movement of atmospheric components in the city are intricate and complex, making vertical  
88 observations essential. Interference sources for the vertical detection of WPR might form in  
89 mountainous areas, which are different from those in plain areas. Thus, reasonable data verification  
90 and quality control should be conducted before application to ensure the accuracy and  
91 representativeness of the WPR. The spatial distribution of ground-based vertical wind observations in

92 Chongqing is sparse, and it is worthwhile to verify the performance of Aeolus wind products and  
93 apply them to related mechanistic studies or numerical assimilation systems. To this end, wind profile  
94 observations of RS, WPR, and Aeolus were collected and matched in terms of time and space for  
95 2021 in Chongqing. Based on the matched results, data verification and quality control of WPR wind  
96 observations were implemented using RS data, and the performance of Aeolus wind products in  
97 Chongqing was analyzed to provide a scientific basis for multi-source wind profile data applications  
98 in mountainous cities. The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: the RS, WPR, and Aeolus  
99 data used in this study, the matching procedure, data verification, and quality control methods are  
100 described in Section 2; Section 3 presents the comparison and quality control results of the WPR and  
101 Aeolus wind profile data; finally, the main conclusions are summarized in Section 4.

## 102 **2 Data and methods**

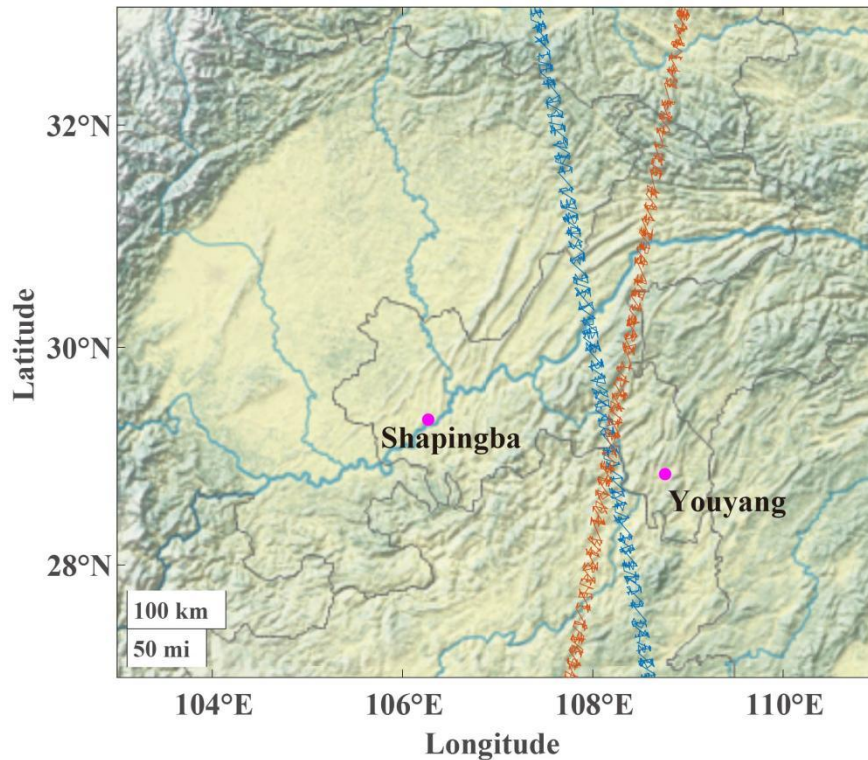
### 103 **2.1 Data**

#### 104 **2.1.1 Ground-based wind profile data**

105 Shapingba (57516; 106.27°E, 29.34°N) is a national weather station and the only RS station in  
106 Chongqing. Wind speed and direction at 0000 and 1200 UTC (universal time coordinated) were  
107 obtained from an L-band sounding system on vertical height levels every 1 s from the surface to 30  
108 km in the air (Zhang et al., 2020). Shapingba station belonged to the network of the L-band sounding  
109 system by China Meteorological Administration. The operational radiosonde stations in China widely  
110 use GTS1 digital radiosonde as key components of L-band sounding system, which have high  
111 accuracy within the troposphere in detecting fine resolution profiles of meteorological factors (Bian et  
112 al., 2011; Guo et al., 2016; Guo et al., 2021b).

113 There are two wind profile radars in Chongqing, one at Shapingba station and the other at  
114 Youyang station (57633; 108.76 ° E, 28.84 ° N). Radars can operate almost automatically and  
115 continuously, acquiring vertical profiles of horizontal wind speed and wind direction (Guo et al.,  
116 2021a). The WPR in Shapingba and Youyang are from the same manufacturer, sharing the same  
117 temporal and spatial vertical resolutions of 5 min and 120 m, and vertically detecting 48 and 45 layers  
118 up to 9360 and 8910 m, respectively.

119 RS wind data are generally reliable vertical observations. Considering Shapingba WPR is  
120 located at the same station with RS, while Youyang Station is 360 km away from the RS, therefore,  
121 the data verification of WPR wind observations was conducted based on Shapingba WPR and RS  
122 data in this study (Figure 1).



123  
124 **Figure 1. Geographic locations of ground-based wind observation stations and Aeolus tracks along within**  
125 **Chongqing. The magenta dots denote ground-based observation stations, while red and blue line represent**  
126 **Aeolus tracks. The background is the terrain heights.**

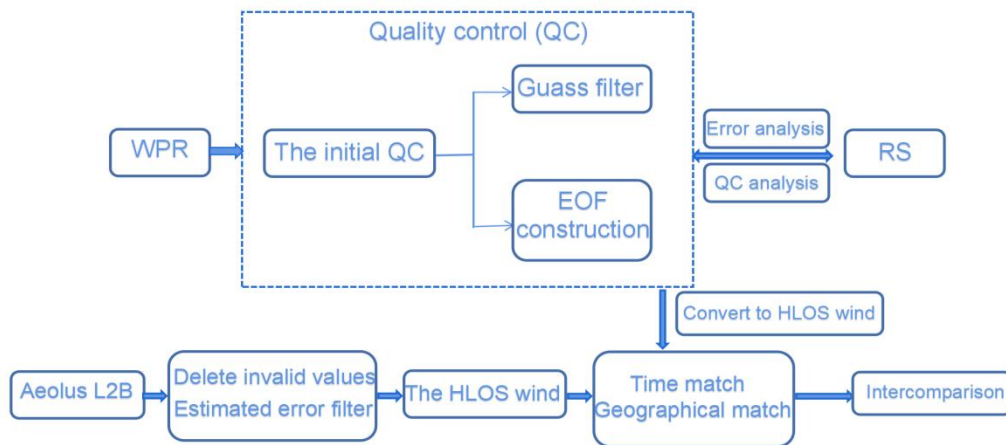
### 127 **2.1.2 Aeolus wind products**

128 Launched on August 22, 2018, the first space-borne Doppler wind lidar, Aeolus, developed by  
129 the ESA, has been circling in a sun-synchronous orbit at an altitude of approximately 320 km, with a  
130 7-day repeat cycle (ESA, 2008). Based on the original detection information, a series of products was  
131 released by the ESA. The Aeolus Level-2B products can provide scientific wind products, which can  
132 be used to obtain wind profile data from the ground to approximately 30 km in the air, with a vertical  
133 resolution of 0.25–2 km and an uncertainty of 2–4 m/s, varying with height (Rennie, 2018; Chen et al.,  
134 2022). Level-2B wind products are classified into Rayleigh-clear and Mie-cloudy winds. Specifically,  
135 Rayleigh channels mainly detect wind fields with atmospheric molecules as tracers in the troposphere  
136 and lower stratosphere, whereas the Mie channel detects signals from aerosols and cloud droplet

137 particles within the boundary layer or in the cloud (Witschas et al., 2020). In this study, the horizontal  
 138 line-of-sight (HLOS) wind products of both Rayleigh and Mie channels were used. Additionally, the  
 139 validity flag and estimated errors were extracted for quality control of HLOS wind products (Tan et  
 140 al., 2017; Guo et al., 2021a).

## 141 2.2 Methods

### 142 2.2.1 Data matching and verification procedures



**Figure 2: Flowchart of the multi-source wind profile data matching and verification procedures. WPR stands for wind profile radar, RS stands for radiosonde, EOF stands for empirical orthogonal function.**

143

144 In an attempt to make full use of the multi-source vertical wind data from Chongqing,  
 145 appropriate procedures were used to match the RS, WPR, and Aeolus data in time and space to make  
 146 up the limited ground-based wind profile observations. A flowchart of the procedure is shown in  
 147 Figure 2.

148 First, data verification and quality control effect analysis of the Shapingba WPR were  
 149 implemented based on RS data. Based on the approach used by Zhang et al. (2016) and Guo et al.  
 150 (2021a), the Aeolus data were removed once the distances between adjacent tracks of Aeolus and  
 151 ground-based sites exceeded  $1^\circ$ . With this procedure, Shapingba station is not suitable for comparison  
 152 with Aeolus data, whereas Youyang WPR data is. Time and space matches of the WPR and Aeolus  
 153 data were posed before the comparison, the geographic location of WPR stations and Aeolus tracks  
 154 are shown in Figure 1. Specifically, because of the higher temporal resolution of WPR, the mean  
 155 values of WPR data within 10 min before and after Aeolus sampling were used. Vertically, Aeolus  
 156 data were interpolated and matched to the layers of WPR data. Subsequently, Aeolus data were

157 screened by validity flags and estimated errors. Thereafter, both the original Youyang WPR detection  
 158 and quality control data were converted into HLOS winds for comparison with the Aeolus data. The  
 159 WPR wind vector was projected onto the HLOS winds using the following equation (Witschas et al.,  
 160 2020):

$$161 \quad v_{RWP_{HLOS}} = \cos(\psi_{Aeolus} - wd_{RWP}) \cdot ws_{RWP} \quad (1)$$

162 where  $\psi_{Aeolus}$  is the Aeolus azimuth angle, which could be extracted from the Level 2B products,  
 163 while  $wd_{RWP}$  and  $ws_{RWP}$  are WPR wind direction and speed, respectively.

## 164 2.2.2 Statistical method

165 The mean bias (MB) and root mean squared error (RMSE) were adopted as indicators (Equations  
 166 2 and 3) for the verification of the WPR and Aeolus wind products, which compares absolute and  
 167 relative deviations, respectively.

$$168 \quad MB = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (o(i) - r(i)) \quad (2)$$

$$169 \quad RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (o(i) - r(i))^2}{n}} \quad (3)$$

170 where  $o(i)$  represents the observation values and  $r(i)$  represents the referent values.

## 171 2.2.3 Data quality control of the wind profile radar

### 172 2.2.3.1 The initial quality control

173 The first step in quality control is to eliminate the abnormal increase of horizontal wind in a  
 174 small vertical range of WPR data, including screening invalid data exceeding the climate extreme  
 175 values and the vertical consistency test. The extreme climate wind values on the relative layers (Zuo  
 176 2020) are listed in Table 1. For the vertical consistency test, if the wind difference between a specific  
 177 layer and its adjacent layer is greater than three times that of the two layers below, the value is  
 178 considered as an abnormal observation to be deleted (Zhang et al., 2015).

179 **Table 1: Extreme climate wind values in vertical layers**

Pressure(hPa)	1000	850	700	500	400	300	250
Height(m)	0	1500	3000	5500	7000	9000	10000
Extreme wind(m/s)	36.01	46.30	61.73	102.89	128.61	154.33	154.33



### 180 2.2.3.2 Gaussian filtering (GF) method

181 GF is a smooth filtering method that can be used to smooth out the details and noise of  
182 two-dimensional graphs, and the observed value of the central point and its surrounding values are  
183 summed in one-to-one correspondences. GF is similar to mean filtering, but its preset convolution  
184 operator presents a Gaussian distribution. In this study, the convolutional operator was used to  
185 calculate the weighted average of the WPR data to filter the high-frequency noise in the observation  
186 of WPR. The Gaussian filtering function of the one-dimensional zero-mean normalization is as  
187 follows:

$$188 \quad g(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}} \quad (4)$$

189 where  $\sigma$  is the scale factor that determines the width of the Gaussian filter and further affects the  
190 degree of data smoothing. The larger the  $\sigma$  value, the wider the frequency band of the Gaussian filter,  
191 and the better the data smoothing effect. However, an excessively large  $\sigma$  value causes excessive  
192 data loss and distortion. In this study,  $\sigma$  was set to 3.

### 193 2.2.3.3 Empirical orthogonal function construction (EOFc) method

194 Based on the spatial-temporal sequence formed by wind field data  $W$ , calculations similar to  
195 empirical orthogonal decomposition were performed, and the main modes obtained by calculation  
196 were used to reconstruct the spatial-temporal sequence to construct new wind fields. Specifically, the  
197  $X$  matrix is formed by selecting  $N$  times, a period of time before and after a certain moment, and  $L$   
198 layers of effective data, vertically.  $X$  is represented below:

$$199 \quad X = \begin{bmatrix} W_{1,1} & W_{1,2} & \cdots & W_{1,N} \\ W_{2,1} & W_{2,2} & \cdots & W_{2,N} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ W_{L,1} & W_{L,2} & \cdots & W_{L,N} \end{bmatrix} \quad (5)$$

200 Subsequently, the covariance matrix of  $X$ , that is,  $S = XX^T$ , and its eigenvalues and eigenvectors  
201 were calculated. According to the arrangement of the eigenvalues from largest to smallest, the  
202 cumulative interpretation variance of the first  $m$  eigenvectors can be expressed as follows:

$$203 \quad G = \left( \sum_{k=1}^m \lambda_k \right) / \left( \sum_{k=1}^L \lambda_k \right) \quad (6)$$

204 The larger the eigenvalue corresponding to the eigenvector, the more its corresponding  
205 distribution reflects the typical characteristics of the original field. The time coefficient  $T = ETX$  was

206 calculated with the eigenvector E. Finally, the main modes decomposed by EOF were used to  
207 reconstruct the time series within N times, following the use of  $X = ET$  to obtain the vertical  
208 distribution of the wind field at the corresponding time. In the reconstruction of the time series, a  
209 cut-off threshold ( $G \geq 85\%$ ) was set for the interpretation of the cumulative variance to control the  
210 quality of the observed data.

211 Assuming that the cumulative interpretation variances of the first m feature vectors met  $G \geq 85\%$ ,  
212 and the first m-1 did not meet  $G \geq 85\%$ , the feature vectors of the first m modes were adopted in the  
213 reconstruction of the sequence, and the corresponding winds at moment j of the ith altitude layer are:

$$214 \quad WS_{i,j} = \sum_{k=1}^m e_{i,k} t_{k,j} \quad (7)$$

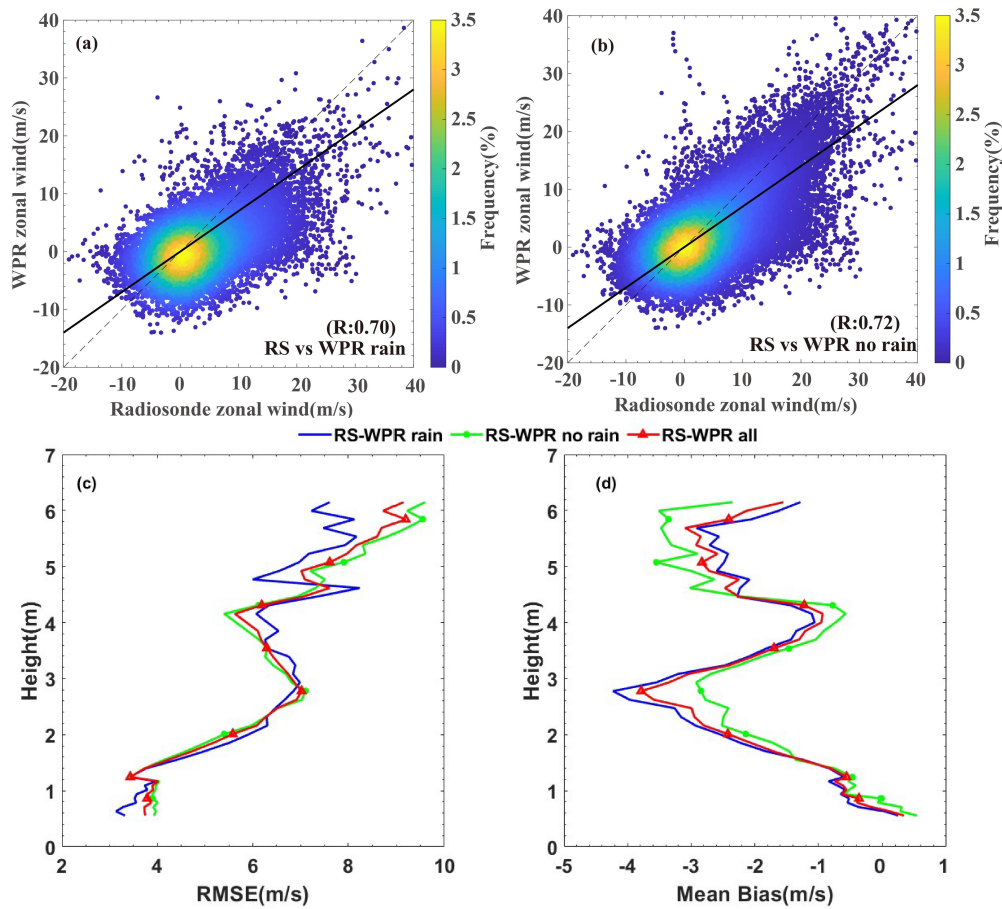
215 The EOFc method can eliminate outliers and pulsating noise from observation data, and has been  
216 applied in quality control research of observational elements in previous studies, such as in Qin et al.  
217 (2010).

#### 218 **2.2.4 Quality control of Aeolus wind products**

219 The quality of the Aeolus HLOS wind products is controlled by validity flags and estimated  
220 errors, which are also present in Level 2 B data products. Only data with flags equal to 1 were  
221 considered valid. The data were subsequently filtered according to estimated errors, the theoretical  
222 values calculated based on the measured signal levels, and the temperature and pressure sensitivity of  
223 the Rayleigh channel response (Dabas et al., 2008). Previous studies have revealed that notable  
224 observation errors appeared when the estimated errors were large (Witschas et al., 2020).  
225 Consequently, thresholds for estimated errors of 7(5) m/s were applied for Rayleigh(Mie) winds in  
226 this study, based on the method described by Guo et al. (2021a). Using the parameters `valid_flag` and  
227 `hlos_estimate_error`, 18241 Mie-cloudy wind profile samples and 1010 Rayleigh-clear samples were  
228 excluded. As a result, there are 1003 remaining usable Mie-cloudy samples and 1558 remaining  
229 Rayleigh-clear samples. Through the quality control process, significant reductions in the estimated  
230 error were achieved for the Mie-cloudy wind products, from 42.22 m/s to 3.50 m/s. Similarly, for the  
231 Rayleigh-clear wind products, the estimated error has been reduced from 78.69 m/s to 4.58 m/s.

232 **3 Results and discussion**

233 **3.1 Data verification and quality control of WPR**

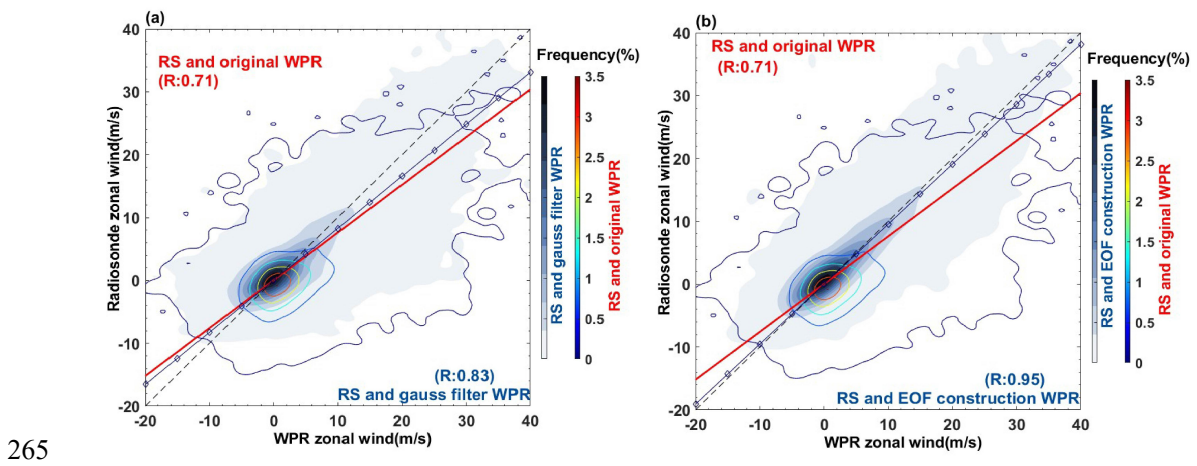


234  
 235 **Figure 3.** Scatter density plots for wind profile radar (WPR) vs radiosonde (RS) data during (a) rainy days  
 236 and (b) no rainy days, and vertical distribution of (c) root mean squared error (RMSE) and (d) mean bias  
 237 (MB) for WPR vs RS during all days, rainy days and no rainy days.

238 Data verification and quality control of the Shapingba WPR were performed based on RS data  
 239 from the same station. The missing data rate for the Shapingba WPR is 22.78%, resulting in 8117  
 240 valid wind profile samples. For the Wulong WPR, the missing data rate is 30.08%, resulting in 7350  
 241 valid wind profile samples. RS data has a missing data rate of 13.55%, with 631 valid samples. To  
 242 address the missing data, different approaches were employed based on the nature of the missing  
 243 values. When specific levels within a profile have missing data, linear interpolation is used to fill in  
 244 the gaps. However, if an entire layer of data is missing within a profile, the entire profile is excluded  
 245 from the analysis. The WPR detects data vertically above the station, while the RS data are derived  
 246 from air balls, which can respectively drift as far as 0-90, 2-25 and <10 km at 200, 500 and 850 hPa  
 247 away from the releasing station (Zeng et al., 2019). Therefore, certain differences exist in the spatial

248 sampling of WPR and RS. Assuming that the atmospheric horizontal distribution is uniform within  
 249 dozens of kilometers, the WPR and RS wind fields will be comparable. Additionally, the exact release  
 250 times of the air balls were 23:15 and 11:15 UTC, and they generally take 25 min to rise to 10 km.  
 251 Therefore, the mean values of the 23:15–00:00 and 11:15–12:00 WPR data were processed to  
 252 compare the WPR and RS data. Finally, for comparison with the Aeolus data, wind fields derived  
 253 from WPR and RS data were converted into zonal wind components for data verification and quality  
 254 control.

255 To clarify influences of weather, especially precipitation, on wind profile radar observation  
 256 quality, scatter plots and vertical distribution of statistical parameters for WPR versus RS during rainy  
 257 days and no rainy days were given in Figure 3. Between 1.5 and 4.5 km, WPR deviations during rainy  
 258 days exceeded a little that without rain, and the RMSE and MB between WPR and RS were slightly  
 259 smaller during rainy days than that without rain below 1.5 km and above 4.5 km. The correlation  
 260 coefficient between WPR and RS with rain was a bit lower than that without rain. Generally speaking,  
 261 precipitation could affect WPR observation quality, but the deviation distributions were overall the  
 262 same during rainy and no rainy days, with slight differences on different layers. As a result, we  
 263 discussed the quality control effects of WPR data based on all data, including rainy days and no rain  
 264 days.

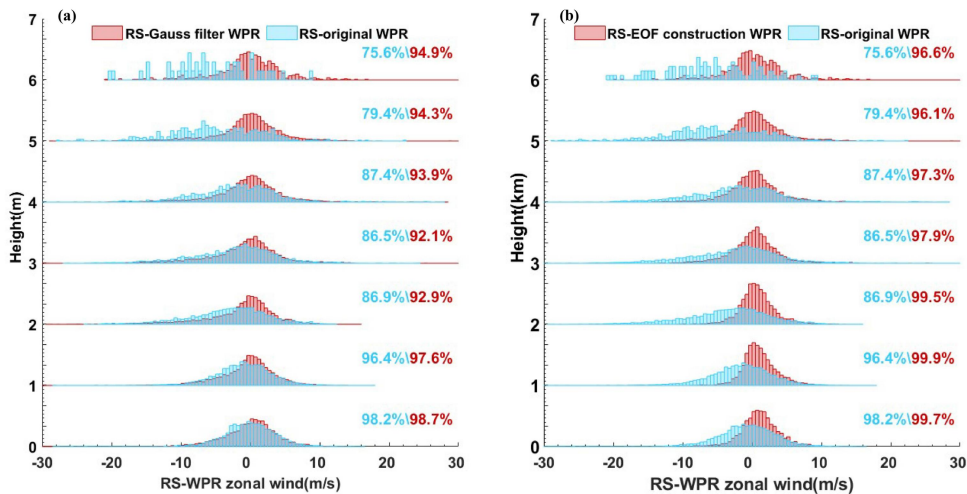


265

**Figure 4: Scatter density contour plots for (a) original and Gaussian filtering (GF) WPR vs RS data, (b) original and empirical orthogonal function construction (EOFc) WPR vs RS data. In which, the fill contour plots represent original WPR vs RS data, while the contour plots without filling color show GF or EOFc WPR vs RS data.**

266

267 Based on Quality Control 1 of the WPR data mentioned above, 784 invalid wind speed data were  
 268 filtered, after which GF and EOFc were conducted on WPR winds. The fill contour plots in Figure 4  
 269 represent the scatter density distributions of the original WPR and RS data. The correlation  
 270 coefficient(R) was 0.71, with scatters distributed along the reference line, indicating a correlation  
 271 between the two types of data. Large numbers of dots with significant deviations from the reference  
 272 line between the wind speeds of  $\pm 10$  m/s implied large differences between the WPR and RS in the  
 273 observation of low wind speeds. The contour plots without filling color in Figure 4(a) are scatter  
 274 density distributions of GF-controlled WPR and RS, with an R of 0.83, showing better correlation  
 275 compared with the original WPR and RS wind data. The GF method screened parts of the data far  
 276 away from the reference line, which are wind data with large differences between WPR and RS,  
 277 contributing to an improvement in the correlation of the two types of data. The performance of the  
 278 WPR data quality control based on EOFc is more significant in Figure 4(b) compared to GF. For  
 279 EOFc, G was selected to be greater than 85% for the first time; specifically, the first two modes were  
 280 added after EOF decomposition, with  $G = 87.23\%$ . The R between the EOFc WPR and RS winds  
 281 reached 0.95, with scatters more concentrated around the reference line compared with the original  
 282 and GF WPR.



283

**Figure 5: Probability density distributions vertical variations of (a) RS minus original and GF WPR data, (b) RS minus EOFc WPR data. The blue numbers represent the proportion of RS minus original WPR within -10 to 10 m/s. In (a), the red number represent the proportion of RS minus GF WPR within the range, and in (b), the red for proportion of RS minus EOFc WPR within the range.**

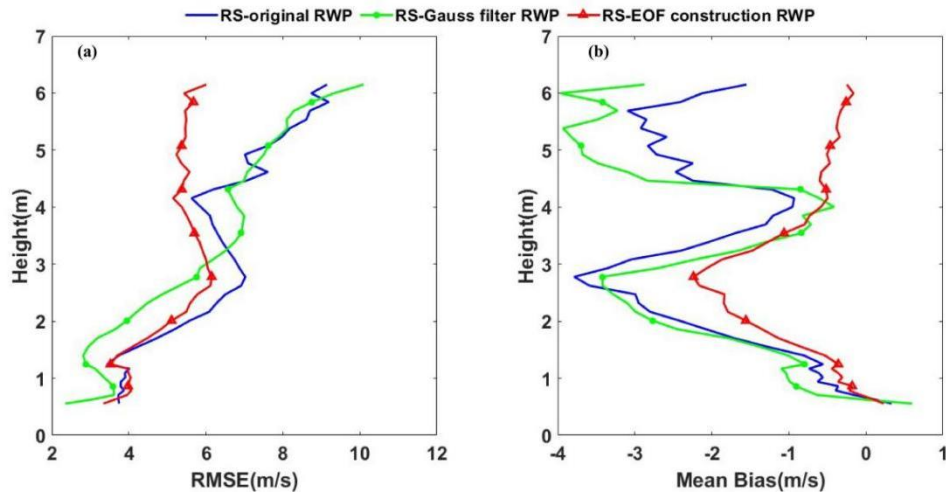
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285

286

The vertical wind deviation distributions of the original and quality-controlled WPR are shown in Figure 5, and the vertical distributions of the statistical parameters are shown in Figure 5. The

287 distribution of deviations between the RS and original WPR data followed normal distribution on  
288 various layers. The median of the distribution was centred around 0 near ground within 2 km, and  
289 gradually moved towards to the negative values above 2 km, indicating significant negative  
290 deviations on the upper layers. Large negative deviations emerged on different layers, however, large  
291 positive deviations mainly distributed around 3-5 km, with the maximum around 30 m/s. Comparing  
292 RS with the original WPR data, 98.2% of the deviations distributed within the -10 to +10 m/s range  
293 near the surface. However, this proportion decreases with increasing altitude, with only 75.6% of the  
294 deviations falling within this range between 6-7 km. Furthermore, when comparing RS with the WPR  
295 data corrected using GF and EOFc, a higher proportion of deviations was observed to concentrate  
296 between -10 to +10 m/s at different altitudes. Specifically, the deviations between RS and EOFc WPR  
297 exhibit a higher proportion of deviations within the -10 to +10 m/s range compared to those between  
298 RS and GF data. From the perspective of statistical parameters, the RMSE of RS and the original  
299 WPR deviation increased with height overall, but decreased at heights between 3 and 4 km. The  
300 vertical MB distribution between the RS and original WPR data presented an M-shaped distribution,  
301 with positive MB values near the ground and negative values in the other layers. According to the  
302 vertical distribution of the deviation scatter points, the negative deviations are significantly larger than  
303 the positive deviations. For a relatively small MB value of approximately 4 km, some of the large  
304 positive deviations in Figure 5 at this level balance the negative values. Similarly, large positive and  
305 negative deviations appeared at approximately 6 km, forming small MB values at this level. In  
306 general, wind speeds increase with height, leading to an increase in the observation deviations of the  
307 WPR.  
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**Figure 6: Vertical distributions of RMSE and MB for (a) RS vs GF WPR data, (b) RS vs EOFc WPR data.**

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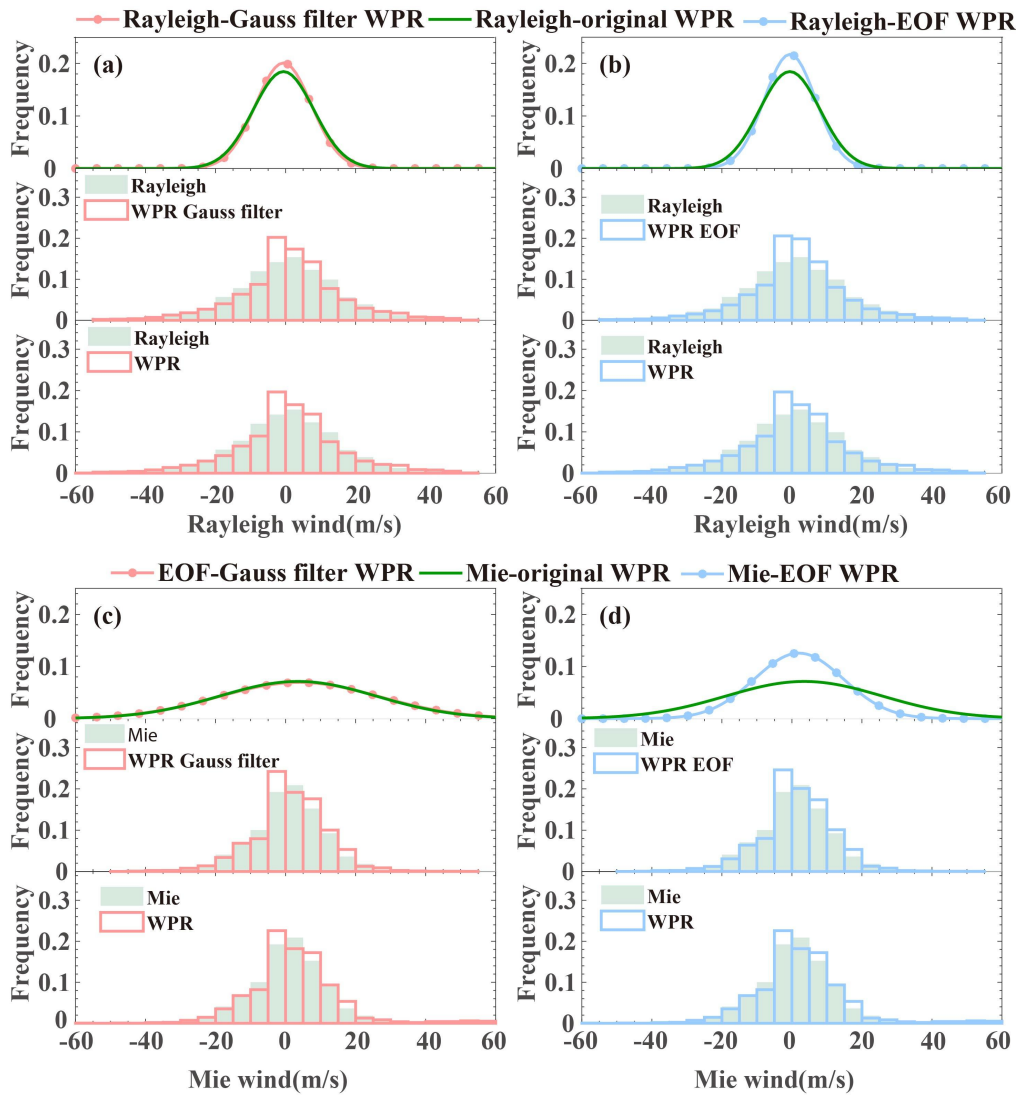
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330

Taking RS data as true values, the zonal WPR wind data in Chongqing exhibited various detection errors with height, indicating that quality control of the original WPR data is necessary. The red histograms in Figure 5(a) represent the vertical deviation distributions between RS data and the GF WPR with respect to height. Compared with the original WPR data, GF eliminates some large deviation values of different layers, making the distribution more centred around 0, especially on the upper layers. The vertical distributions of the RMSE and MB between the RS and WPR data corresponded to modifications. The RMSE of the RS and GF WPR data is reduced below 3 km compared to the original WPR, while the alteration of MB mainly manifests above 4 km. Remarkably, the negative value of MB above 4 km increased after GF in the WPR data. This was because of the reduction in the larger positive deviation value, and the negative deviation could not be offset. Subsequently, the EOFc method was adopted for the zonal winds in the original WPR data. The vertical deviation distributions of RS and EOFc WPR reduced many large negative deviations in the different vertical layers, making distribution more in line with normal distribution(Figure 5b). The statistical parameters of the vertical distribution also showed significant changes compared to the original data. A significant decrease in the RMSE value and a notable reduction in the negative MB above 1 km were observed between the RS and EOFc WPR (Figure 6). Combining both the vertical distribution for deviation scatters and statistical parameters, the EOFc WPR winds were similar to the RS data at various heights. Although the deviations of the two types of data were significantly reduced, it is worth noting that the EOFc WPR data have modified the characteristics of the original

331 wind fields to a large extent, especially under strong convective weather conditions with large vertical  
 332 wind shear. In comparison, the GF WPR data could better retain the basic characteristics of the  
 333 original wind fields. However, the GF method exhibited a limited reduction in the detection  
 334 deviations of the WPR data. In general, the two quality control methods have different effects on the  
 335 reduction of detection deviations and the retention of the original information.

336 **3.2 Comparison of the Aeolus and WPR wind data**



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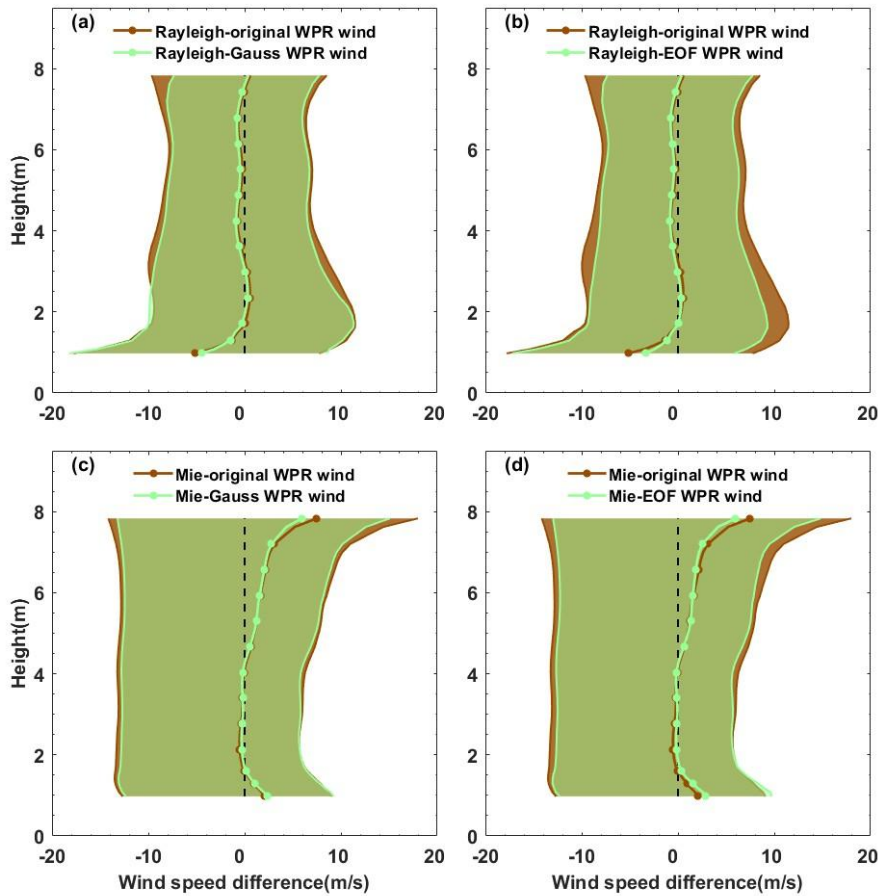
**Figure 7: Probability density distributions of deviations and wind distributions of (a) Rayleigh-clear and (c) Mie-cloudy vs WPR original and GF WPR winds, (b) Rayleigh-clear and (d) Mie-cloudy vs original and EOFc WPR winds.**

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339 Owing to the limited spatial coverage of ground-based wind profile data, data verification of  
 340 Aeolus products in Chongqing was conducted to compensate for the spatial coverage of wind



341 observations to some extent. The match procedure results indicate that the Youyang WPR data can be  
342 used to verify the Aeolus products described in Section 2. The probability density distribution (PDD)  
343 of deviations between and wind distributions of both Aeolus Rayleigh-clear and Mie-cloudy products  
344 versus WPR data are shown in Figure 7. The PDD of deviations between Rayleigh-clear and WPR in  
345 Figure 7(a) generally present as a Gaussian distribution, with 82.9% of deviations concentrating  
346 between  $\pm 10$  m/s and 56.0% of deviations between  $\pm 5$  m/s. Quality control with the GF and EOFc  
347 methods was conducted on original WPR observations, and the PDD of deviations between  
348 Rayleigh-clear and quality-controlled WPR winds were concentrated around 0. For deviations  
349 between Rayleigh-clear and GF WPR winds, 85.8% of deviations were centralized between  $\pm 10$  m/s  
350 and 58.9% of deviations between  $\pm 5$  m/s. In comparison, 86.3% of deviations of Rayleigh-clear and  
351 EOFc WPR winds appeared between  $\pm 10$  m/s and 59.6% of deviations between  $\pm 5$  m/s. The  
352 scatter distributions of the Rayleigh-clear and WPR winds were shown in Figure 7(a) and 7(b),  
353 respectively. WPR detects winds between -5 and 10 m/s as larger than Rayleigh-clear wind, while it  
354 underestimates wind speeds in the range of  $\pm 10$  m/s to  $\pm 20$  m/s compared with Aeolus Rayleigh  
355 wind products. Figure 7(c)–(d) show the PDD of deviations and wind distributions of between the  
356 Mie-cloudy and WPR winds. 86.2% of deviations of Mie-cloudy versus original WPR data were  
357 centralized between  $\pm 10$  m/s and 67.8% of deviations between  $\pm 5$  m/s, while 86.9% of deviations of  
358 Mie-cloudy versus GF WPR winds were centralized between  $\pm 10$  m/s and 69.1% of deviations  
359 between  $\pm 5$  m/s. For the EOFc WPR winds, 87.5% of deviations appeared between  $\pm 10$  m/s and  
360 70.2% of deviations between  $\pm 5$  m/s. The PDD of wind detected by WPR is similar to that of  
361 Mie-cloudy wind, but WPR generally overestimates wind in the range of -5 and 20 m/s compared  
362 with Aeolus Mie wind products. First, the deviations of the Mie-cloudy and quality-controlled WPR  
363 data were more concentrated around 0 compared with the original WPR. Additionally, compared with  
364 Rayleigh-clear winds, deviations in the Mie-cloudy versus WPR data were small, which may be  
365 attributed to the detection principles of the two channels. Compared with the Rayleigh channel, the  
366 tracers for the Mie channel, including aerosols and cloud droplets within the boundary layer and in  
367 the cloud, mainly centralized at lower vertical levels with smaller wind speeds, resulting in smaller  
368 wind deviations for the Mie-cloudy observations.



369

**Figure 8: Vertical distribution of mean differences and deviations between (a) Rayleigh-clear vs GF WPR data, (b) Rayleigh-clear vs original and EOFc WPR data, (c) Mie-cloudy vs original and GF WPR data and (d) Mie-cloudy vs original and EOFc WPR data.**

370

371 Figure 8 shows the vertical distribution characteristics of the differences between Aeolus  
 372 products and WPR data. The red solid line represents the vertical distributions of the mean differences  
 373 between Aeolus and the original WPR data, and the shaded areas denote positive and negative  
 374 deviations from the mean differences. Mean differences between the Rayleigh-clear and original  
 375 WPR winds have large negative deviations below 1.5 km, with the maximum deviation reaching  
 376 -5.2-13.0, -5.2+12.61 m/s. However, the mean difference between these data maintained within  $\pm 1$   
 377 m/s from the heights of 1.5 to 8 km, with simultaneous decreasing negative and positive deviations  
 378 with height. The wind measurement capability of the Rayleigh channel is largely limited by the  
 379 receiving intensity, and the Sichuan Basin is one of the large-value aerosol regions in China (Zhang et  
 380 al., 2012; Lu et al., 2022a). Particularly, below 1.5 km within the boundary layer, strong aerosol

381 scattering will inevitably affect molecular scattered signals, thus reducing the accuracy of Rayleigh  
382 channel wind field inversion (Tan et al., 2017; Guo et al., 2021a). In contrast, the vertical distribution  
383 of mean differences between Mie-cloudy and original WPR data (Figure 8c and d) showed large  
384 values within the boundary layer (below 1.5 km) and middle troposphere (4–8 km). The maximal  
385 deviation within the boundary layer reached 2.09-18.23, 2.09+14.76 m/s, while the maximal values  
386 were 7.49-19.98, 7.49+21.64 m/s in the middle troposphere. For the Mie channel, aerosols and cloud  
387 droplet particles were used as tracers for wind measurements. Owing to the influence of the  
388 topography in Chongqing, the prevailing quiet and small winds within the boundary layer result in the  
389 dominant influence of turbulent motion on large particles (Lu et al., 2022b). This contributes to larger  
390 deviations in Mie wind observations because of the irregularity of turbulence. The notable mean  
391 differences in the middle troposphere may be affected by the distribution of cloud droplets. Previous  
392 studies have revealed that due to the influence of the topography of the Tibetan Plateau, the liquid  
393 cloud water contents around 27°N to 35°N in central China are remarkably larger than those in the  
394 southern and northern regions at the same altitude (Yang et al., 2012), with nimbostratus and  
395 altostratus prevailing in the affected areas (Yu et al., 2004). These may contribute to large mean  
396 differences and deviations between Mie winds and WPR data at altitudes of 4–8 km in Chongqing,  
397 which is located on the eastern side of the Tibetan Plateau. According to existing observations, the  
398 frequency of cloud occurrence in the middle troposphere in spring, autumn, and winter is higher than  
399 that in summer, which can explain to some extent why the annual mean differences between Mie  
400 winds and WPR around 4–8 km have large values, whereas the average values in summer do not  
401 (Guo et al., 2021a). Based on the GF and EOFc quality control of the WPR data, the mean differences  
402 between the Rayleigh-clear and WPR winds were found to not change significantly, with only some  
403 reduction in the differences between the Rayleigh-clear and EOFc WPR data within the boundary  
404 layer. However, by controlling the WPR data quality, the positive and negative deviations of the mean  
405 difference at various heights can be effectively reduced (Figure 8a and 6b). Specifically, GF can  
406 reduce deviations above 3 km, whereas EOFc modifies the positive deviations within the boundary  
407 layer. For the Mie winds, a remarkable reduction was observed for mean differences at an altitude of  
408 approximately 6–8 km and deviations in various layers with quality-controlled WPR data compared  
409 with the original WPR data.

#### 410 **4 Conclusions**

411 To evaluate the observation quality of the multi-source wind profile data in Chongqing, this  
412 study matched the Aeolus, RS, and WPR data for 2021. The matching results indicate that the  
413 Youyang WPR can be used for comparison with the Aeolus winds. Additionally, data verification and  
414 quality control studies of ground-based WPR data were conducted based on Shapingba RS wind  
415 observations. The main conclusions are as follows:

416 A correlation was found between the RS and original WPR zonal wind data, with an R of  
417 69.92% and scatter points generally distributed along the reference line. The RMSEs of the RS and  
418 WPR data increased with height overall, except at an increase of approximately 3–4 km. The MB was  
419 vertically distributed in an M-shape, with relatively smaller MB values appearing at 4 and 6 km  
420 because of the cancellation of positive and negative deviations.

421 Screened by the extreme wind climate values and the vertical consistency test, 784 WPR wind  
422 observations were eliminated. The R between RS versus GF WPR data and EOFc ( $G = 87.23$ ) WPR  
423 data were 0.83 and 0.95, respectively, demonstrating a better correlation between RS and EOFc WPR  
424 data. A comparison of the deviations in the vertical distribution of the RS and WPR data before and  
425 after quality control revealed that the EOFc WPR data are closer to RS winds at various heights,  
426 resulting in smaller deviations between the two. However, it should be noted that the EOFc WPR  
427 winds have a broader filter than the original data, which can remarkably alter the characteristics of the  
428 original wind fields, particularly in cases of severe convection weather conditions where there are  
429 significant vertical wind shears. While preserving the basic features of the original wind field, the GF  
430 method has a limited impact on reducing the deviations of the original WPR wind observations.

431 The Rayleigh and Mie winds detected by Aeolus exhibited various deviations from the WPR  
432 data; 56.0% of deviations between Rayleigh-clear and WPR data existed within  $\pm 5$  m/s, while  
433 67.8% of deviations existed between Mie-cloudy and 67.8% of deviations between WPR data were  
434 within  $\pm 5$  m/s. The Mie channel detects aerosols and cloud droplets as tracers, which are lower than  
435 the height layers detected by the Rayleigh channel, resulting in relatively small wind speed deviations.  
436 However, the mean differences between Rayleigh-clear and WPR winds are smaller than those of  
437 Mie-cloudy winds, especially in the middle troposphere of 4–8 km. This may be due to the influence  
438 of the topography of the Tibetan Plateau, resulting in a remarkable increase in the liquid cloud water

439 content from 27°N to 35°N in central China compared to other regions. Chongqing is located in the  
440 affected areas; thus, the accuracy of Mie wind observations is influenced by the middle troposphere.

441 The deviations between the Aeolus and WPR data changed to some extent after quality control  
442 of the WPR data, both for the Rayleigh-clear and Mie-cloudy winds. The scatter points of the Aeolus  
443 and WPR data, which were far away from the reference line, decreased; 58.9% of deviations between  
444 the Rayleigh-clear and GF WPR data were centralized between  $\pm 5$  m/s, and 59.6% of deviations for  
445 EOFc WPR data were within  $\pm 5$  m/s. For the Mie channel, 69.1% of deviations were concentrated  
446  $\pm 5$  m/s between the satellite and GF WPR data, and 70.2% of deviations existed between the Mie  
447 and EOFc WPR data. The mean differences of the Rayleigh channel and WPR data changed little  
448 after quality control was conducted using both the GF and EOFc methods on WPR data; however,  
449 both positive and negative deviations to the mean values decreased. For Mie winds, quality control on  
450 WPR made distinct modifications to the mean differences between 6–8 km and deviations to the  
451 mean values of all layers between Mie-cloudy and WPR data.

452 **Financial support:** This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China  
453 (42205186), the Chongqing Natural Science Foundation (cstc2021jcyj-msxmX1007), the open  
454 research fund of Chongqing Meteorological Bureau (KFJJ-201607), Sichuan Science and Technology  
455 Program (2023YFS0430), Heavy Rain and Drought-Flood Disasters in Plateau and Basin Key  
456 Laboratory of Sichuan Province (SZKT202206) and the key technology research and development of  
457 Chongqing Meteorological Bureau (YWJSGG-202215; YWJSGG-202303).

458 **Acknowledgments:** We would like to express our gratitude to China Meteorological Bureau to provide  
459 the ground-based wind profile data, and the European Space Agency to provide the Aeolus wind  
460 products.

461 **Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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