

29 **Abstract**

30 Ensemble-based data assimilation of radar observations across inner-core regions of tropical
31 cyclones (TCs) in tandem with satellite all-sky infrared radiances across the TC domain
32 improves TC track and intensity forecasts. This study further investigates potential enhancements
33 in TC track, intensity, and rainfall forecasts via assimilation of all-sky microwave radiances
34 using Hurricane Harvey (2017) as an example. Assimilating GPM constellation all-sky
35 microwave radiances in addition to GOES-16 all-sky infrared radiances reduces the forecast
36 errors in the TC track, rapid intensification, and peak intensity compared to assimilating all-sky
37 infrared radiances alone, including a 24-hour increase in forecast lead-time for rapid
38 intensification. Assimilating all-sky microwave radiances also improves Harvey's hydrometeor
39 fields, which leads to improved forecasts of rainfall after Harvey's landfall. This study indicates
40 that avenues exist for producing more accurate forecasts for TCs using available yet
41 underutilized data, leading to better warnings of and preparedness for TC-associated hazards in
42 the future.

43 **Plain Language Summary**

44 Track, intensity, and rainfall are fundamental elements of all forecasts and warnings associated
45 with tropical cyclones (TCs). Over the last few decades, the forecast community has significantly
46 improved TC track forecasts. Notable improvements in TC intensity forecasts have recently been
47 achieved using high-resolution models and remote-sensing observations over the inner-core
48 region of TCs. This study builds on these earlier efforts by investigating the impacts of utilizing
49 microwave observations on the forecast accuracy of TC track, intensity, and rainfall. Because
50 microwave radiances are sensitive to water vapor, liquid water, and ice, using these observations
51 in TC computer forecasts is expected to improve estimates of the liquid water and ice within
52 TCs, which can then lead to better rainfall forecasts. These expectations are borne out in our
53 study's tests with Hurricane Harvey. These results indicate that incorporating currently available
54 yet underutilized observations into TC computer forecasts can further improve warnings of, and
55 preparedness for, TC-associated hazards in the future.

56 **1 Introduction**

57 Tropical cyclones (TCs; see Appendix A for a complete list of acronyms) are among the
58 most devastating natural disasters in the tropics and mid-latitudes. They make for a triple-threat
59 of wind damage, surge inundation, and inland/freshwater flooding, the last of which is a leading
60 cause of fatalities in the United States from TCs (Rappaport 2014). Accurate predictions of TCs
61 are valuable to society because these predictions facilitate targeted and efficient preparations for
62 mitigating the loss of life and property.

63 While forecasts of TC track and intensity have been continually improving over recent
64 decades (e.g., DeMaria et al. 2014, Cangialosi et al. 2020), one important remaining challenge is
65 the accurate prediction of hazardous TC precipitation (Kidder et al. 2005). Hazardous TC
66 precipitation events are difficult to predict because such events often result from the hard-to-
67 predict TC rain bands [e.g., Hurricane Harvey (2017); Blake and Zelinsky, 2018] and long-
68 distance interactions (Galarneau et al. 2010, Meng and Zhang 2012). The forecast challenges
69 associated with the inner (e.g., Montgomery and Kallenbach 1997, Wang 2002) and outer (e.g.,
70 Diercks and Anthes 1976, Chow et al. 2002) spiral rain bands are multi-faceted: spiral rain
71 bands' existence, intensity, storm-relative location, and small-scale structures are difficult to

72 forecast accurately. Consequently, rainfall forecasts, such as from the Weather Prediction Center
73 (WPC), often cover a broad area and come with an expected range of rain accumulations tagged
74 with footnotes of possible localized extreme values.

75 Some of the most important observations of TCs over the ocean are satellite infrared (IR)
76 and microwave (MW) brightness temperatures (BTs; used interchangeably with radiance
77 hereafter). IR sensors onboard geostationary satellites provide seamless, high-spatiotemporal-
78 resolution BTs of the tropics and the subtropics. They are sensitive to the absorption and
79 emission of IR radiation associated with water vapor and hydrometeors, hence provide
80 information on cloud locations, cloud-top heights, and atmospheric moisture in cloud-free
81 regions. IR BTs are also one of the critical components of the Dvorak technique for estimating
82 TC intensity (Dvorak 1975; Velden et al. 2006). While MW BTs are much less sensitive to cloud
83 particles, they are sensitive to the absorption and scattering of MW radiation associated with
84 larger precipitation-related hydrometeors. Therefore, passive MW BTs are often used in
85 assessing TC structure and intensity and contributing to operational products from the National
86 Hurricane Center (NHC) that include information on low- and mid-level circulations of pre-TC
87 disturbances that would otherwise be obscured by the outflow anvil clouds of deep convection,
88 and secondary eyewalls and potential eyewall replacement cycles for mature TCs.

89 While IR and MW BTs are heavily used in the qualitative assessment of TCs, they are
90 still underutilized in operational global and regional models for TC prediction (Geer et al. 2018,
91 Gustafsson et al. 2018). Recently, studies examining the ensemble-based assimilation of all-sky
92 (i.e., both clear-sky and cloud-affected) IR BTs into regional models have demonstrated its
93 potential in improving TC forecasts (Minamide and Zhang 2018, Honda et al. 2018, Zhang et al.
94 2019, Hartman et al. 2021). However, IR BTs contain little direct information on precipitation
95 that may exist below opaque cloud tops. For these conditions, techniques like the ensemble
96 Kalman filter (EnKF) rely on ensemble covariances to update the model state underneath the
97 cloud tops. Unfortunately, these covariances are sometimes erroneous because of the limited
98 ensemble size (Zhang et al. 2021a, b).

99 On the other hand, MW BTs are able to reflect the distributions of hydrometeors
100 underneath the cloud tops, providing information in regions that are unobservable for the IR BTs.
101 Recent demonstrations of realistic correlations between all-sky MW BTs and TC intensity and
102 structure (Zhang et al. 2021c) motivate studying the potential benefits of simultaneously
103 assimilating all-sky MW BTs and all-sky IR BTs for the analysis and prediction of TCs. In this
104 work, we employ Hurricane Harvey (2017) as a case study. This study expands upon recent
105 efforts in employing ensemble-based assimilation of all-sky MW BTs for TCs (e.g., Wu et al.
106 2019; Sieron 2020; Kim et al. 2020; Christophersen et al. 2021; Xu et al. 2021) by examining the
107 impacts of all-sky MW BTs on TC's track, intensity, and rainfall forecasts.

108 **2 Methodology**

109 For this study, we utilized the PSU WRF-EnKF data assimilation and forecast system
110 (Zhang and Weng 2015; Weng and Zhang 2012, 2016; Zhang et al. 2009, 2011, 2016; Chen and
111 Zhang 2019; Chan et al. 2020). The system configuration largely follows previous studies by
112 Zhang et al. (2019) and Minamide et al. (2020), except that we adopted the Thompson (2008)
113 microphysics scheme. Following Sieron et al. (2017, 2018), non-spherical ice-hydrometeor

114 scattering properties consistent with the microphysics are included to realistically simulate the
115 MW BTs. AOEI (Minamide and Zhang 2017; for both IR and MW BTs) and ABEI (Minamide
116 and Zhang 2019; for IR BTs only) are applied to mitigate the deleterious impacts of strong
117 nonlinearities in the assimilation of all-sky BTs.

118 Because multiple studies have demonstrated that all-sky IR BT assimilation improves
119 forecasts of TC track and intensity (e.g., Zhang et al. 2016, 2019; Honda et al. 2018; Minamide
120 and Zhang 2018; Minamide et al. 2020; Hartman et al. 2021), the baseline experiment for this
121 study assimilates conventional surface and upper-air observations from the GTS, TC center
122 pressure information from TCVitals, and hourly all-sky IR BTs from channel 8 (6.2- μm) of the
123 GOES-16 ABI. This experiment is called “IR-only” hereafter. BTs from ABI’s channel 8 are
124 mostly sensitive to moisture in the upper-troposphere in clear-sky regions, and our group has had
125 success assimilating them in many previous TC studies (Minamide and Zhang 2017, 2018, 2019;
126 Zhang et al. 2019; Minamide et al. 2020; Hartman et al. 2021).

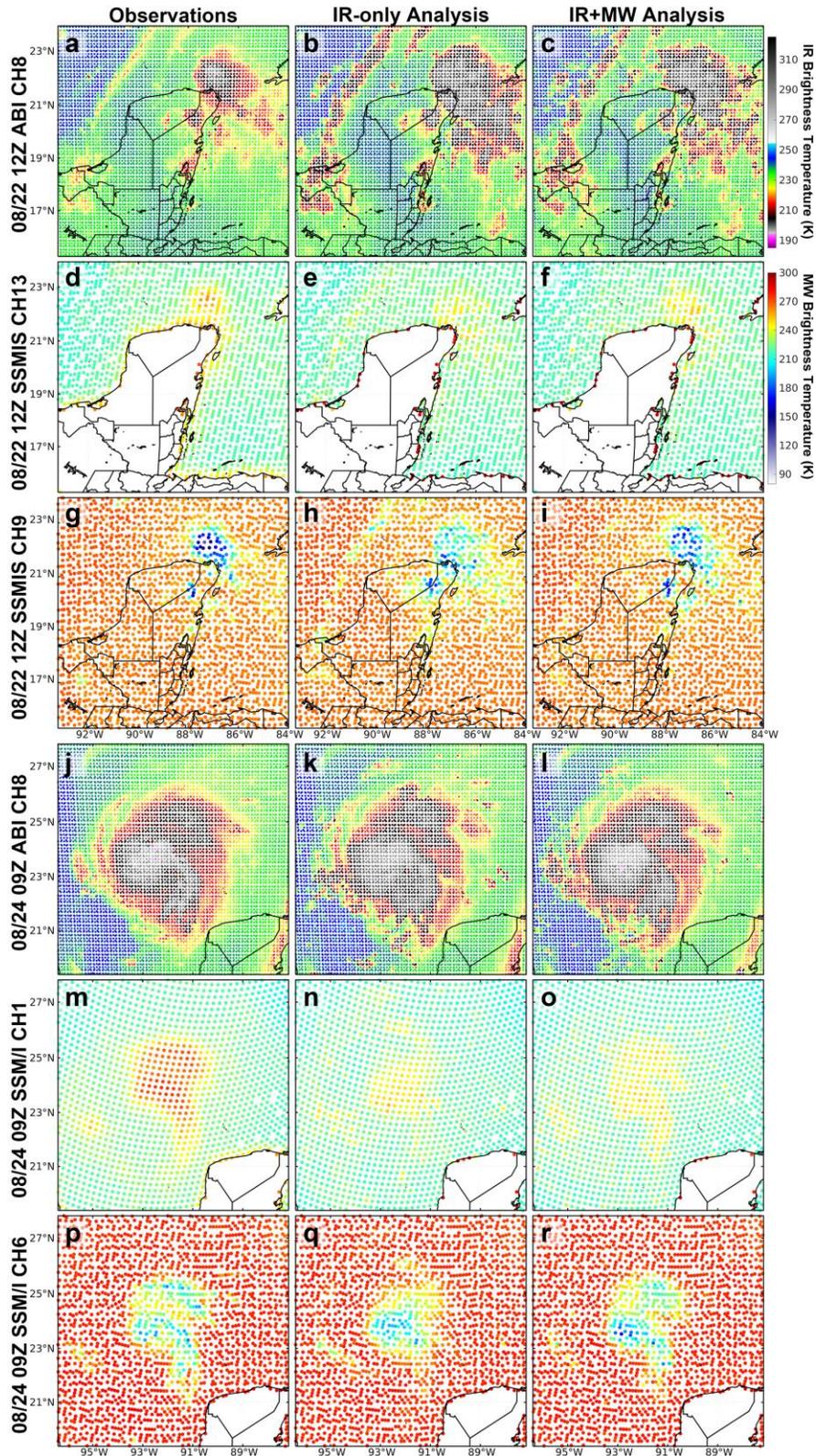
127 The benefits of assimilating all-sky MW BTs are evaluated through an experiment that
128 assimilates all-sky MW BTs from the GPM constellation sensors (Hou et al. 2014; Skofronick-
129 Jackson et al. 2017; see Appendix B for a complete list of assimilated channels) in addition to
130 all observations assimilated in the IR-only experiment. This second experiment is called
131 “IR+MW” hereafter. We used GPM constellation sensors’ BTs in this study because they
132 underwent extensive quality control and cross-calibration. MW BTs from two channels are
133 assimilated: the ~ 19 GHz vertically polarized low-frequency channel (“the LF channel”
134 hereafter; only assimilated over the ocean because of uncertainties in modeled land emissivity)
135 and the 183.31 ± 6.6 GHz high-frequency channel (“the HF channel” hereafter; assimilated
136 everywhere because surface contributions at this frequency are negligible for our purposes).
137 These two channels were selected for a litany of reasons (Sieron 2020): they are sensitive to
138 liquid (the LF channel) and ice (the HF channel) water contents, have the best one-to-one
139 correspondence between water content and changes against clear-sky BTs, have less sensitivity
140 to non-water-content atmospheric/surface properties, have high climatological agreements
141 between observed and simulated BTs for precipitating regions in the EnKF priors, and have the
142 highest frequency of occurrence across all sensors in the observing system. Of the channels in
143 the 183-GHz family, the ± 6.6 -GHz channel is chosen because its clear-sky weighting function
144 peaks in the lower troposphere, making it complementary with the ABI channel 8 IR BT whose
145 weighting function peaks at higher altitudes (Zhang et al. 2021c). Channels around 89 GHz are
146 used for those sensors that do not have a channel near 183 GHz.

147 We initialize both IR-only and IR+MW experiments at 0000 UTC 22 August with 60
148 ensemble members that contain random perturbations generated by WRFDA and performed
149 cycling EnKF data assimilation from 1200 UTC 22 August to 0000 UTC 25 August.
150 Deterministic forecasts out to 0000 UTC 27 August are produced from the EnKF analysis mean
151 every 6 hours, starting from 1800 UTC 22 August. 23 out of the 61 EnKF cycles assimilates all-
152 sky MW radiances, 17 of which include MW BTs from both LF and HF channels and the
153 remaining 6 cycles include only HF channel BTs.

154 **3 Results**

155 We first examine how the analysis-to-observation fits change from the IR-only
156 experiment to the IR+MW experiment. We then compare the forecast performances of the two

157 experiments in terms of their forecasts of TC Harvey's track, intensity, and rainfall amount after
 158 landfall.



160 **Figure 1.** (first column) Observed and (second and third columns) simulated BTs from the EnKF
 161 analysis ensemble mean at (a)–(i) 1200 UTC 22 August and (j)–(r) 0900 UTC 24 August for (a–c,
 162 j–l) ABI channel 8, (d–f, m–o) the MW LF channel, and (g–i, p–r) the MW HF channel.

163 *3.1 Comparison of EnKF analyses*

164 We first compare simulated IR and MW BTs from the analyses from the first EnKF cycle
 165 (1200 UTC 22 August) against the assimilated observations (Figs. 1a–i), which qualitatively
 166 reveal the changes with the assimilation of these observations. Both IR-only and IR+MW
 167 experiments show simulated IR BTs that are qualitatively similar to the observations (Figs. 1a–
 168 c). More importantly, while both experiments overestimate the coverage of the cold cloud tops
 169 within the domain, the overestimation is milder for the IR+MW experiment (Fig. 1c).
 170 Furthermore, near the tip of the Yucatan Peninsula, the IR+MW analysis better captured the
 171 warm LF MW BTs (Figs. 1d,f) and the cold HF MW BTs values (Figs. 1g,i) than the IR-only
 172 analysis (Figs 1e, h). These differences in MW BTs suggest that the IR+MW analysis better
 173 captured the abundant liquid and ice hydrometeors in that region. Since both experiments have
 174 identical priors at this first cycle, the differences in their analyses at this time are solely
 175 associated with the assimilation of the MW BTs. The first cycle’s results thus indicate that the
 176 inclusion of MW observations can improve the analyzed hydrometeor fields. It is also worth
 177 noting that the match between the IR+MW analysis and the observations is noticeably better than
 178 found in the previous studies of Wu et al. (2019). We attribute this improvement to the
 179 microphysics-consistent non-spherical ice-particle scattering tables developed for CRTM by
 180 Sieron et al. (2017, 2018) and the use of AOEI (Minamide and Zhang 2017).

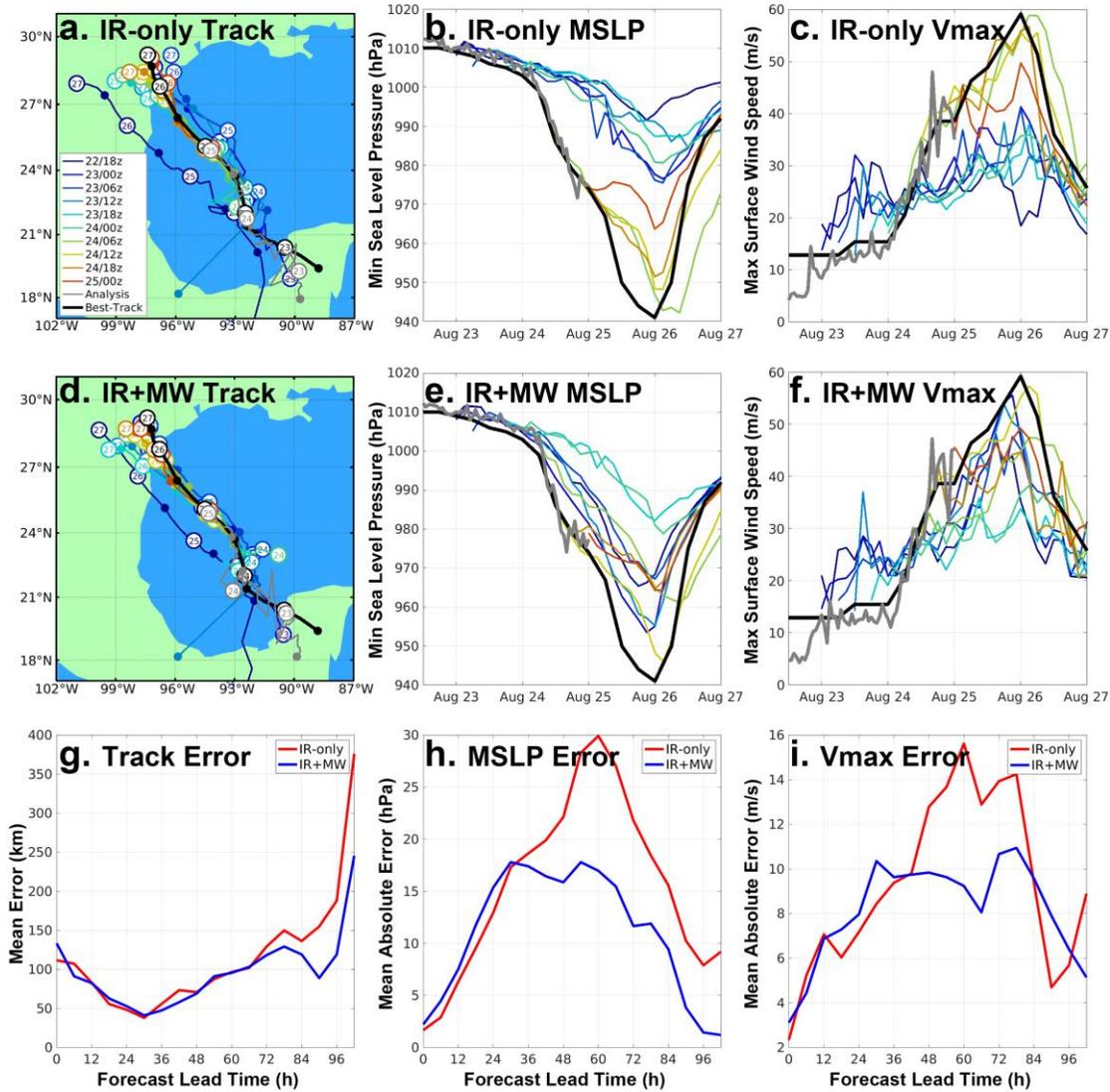
181 We also compared the two experiments’ analyses against the IR and MW observations
 182 shortly after the onset of Harvey’s rapid intensification (RI). Figures 1j–r show the observed and
 183 simulated BTs at 0900 UTC 24 August, which is the first EnKF cycle with available MW BTs
 184 after the onset of Harvey’s RI, and 8 hours after the most recent cycle that included MW BT
 185 assimilation. At this point, clouds and rainband structures that are typical of TCs are apparent in
 186 both the IR and MW observations (Figs. 1j,m,p). The cumulative effects of the cycling EnKF
 187 resulted in close matches between both experiments’ simulated IR BTs (Figs. 1k,l) and the
 188 observations (Fig. 1j). However, both experiments’ analyses noticeably underestimated the
 189 amount and areal extent of the liquid hydrometeors, indicated by the cooler-than-observed warm
 190 LF MW BTs. Systematic cold biases in both experiments for the LF MW channel is beyond the
 191 scope of this study but needs further investigation, and may be related to biases in the
 192 microphysics scheme, as the Thompson et al. (2008) microphysics scheme is known to
 193 underpredict rainwater (e.g., Conrick and Mass 2019).

194 The inclusion of the MW observations also improved the analysis in terms of the HF
 195 MW channel. According to Figure 1q, the IR-only analysis exhibits a cold center that matches
 196 reasonably with the observations but fails to capture the secondary cold centers to the northeast
 197 and southeast of the TC center. These missing two features are associated with intense outer
 198 rainbands (Fig. 1q). With the assimilation of all-sky MW radiances, these missing rainbands are
 199 better captured (Fig. 1r). The primary rainband that extends southward from the TC center is
 200 particularly well-represented in IR+MW. This implies that the addition of MW observations to
 201 data assimilation improves the analyzed rainbands.

202 In summary, the addition of MW observations resulted in analysis improvements for both
 203 the IR and MW observations. These BT improvements indicate improvements to the analyzed

204 structure and distribution of hydrometeors of Harvey. Next, we examine how these
 205 improvements impact Harvey's track, intensity, and rainfall forecasts.

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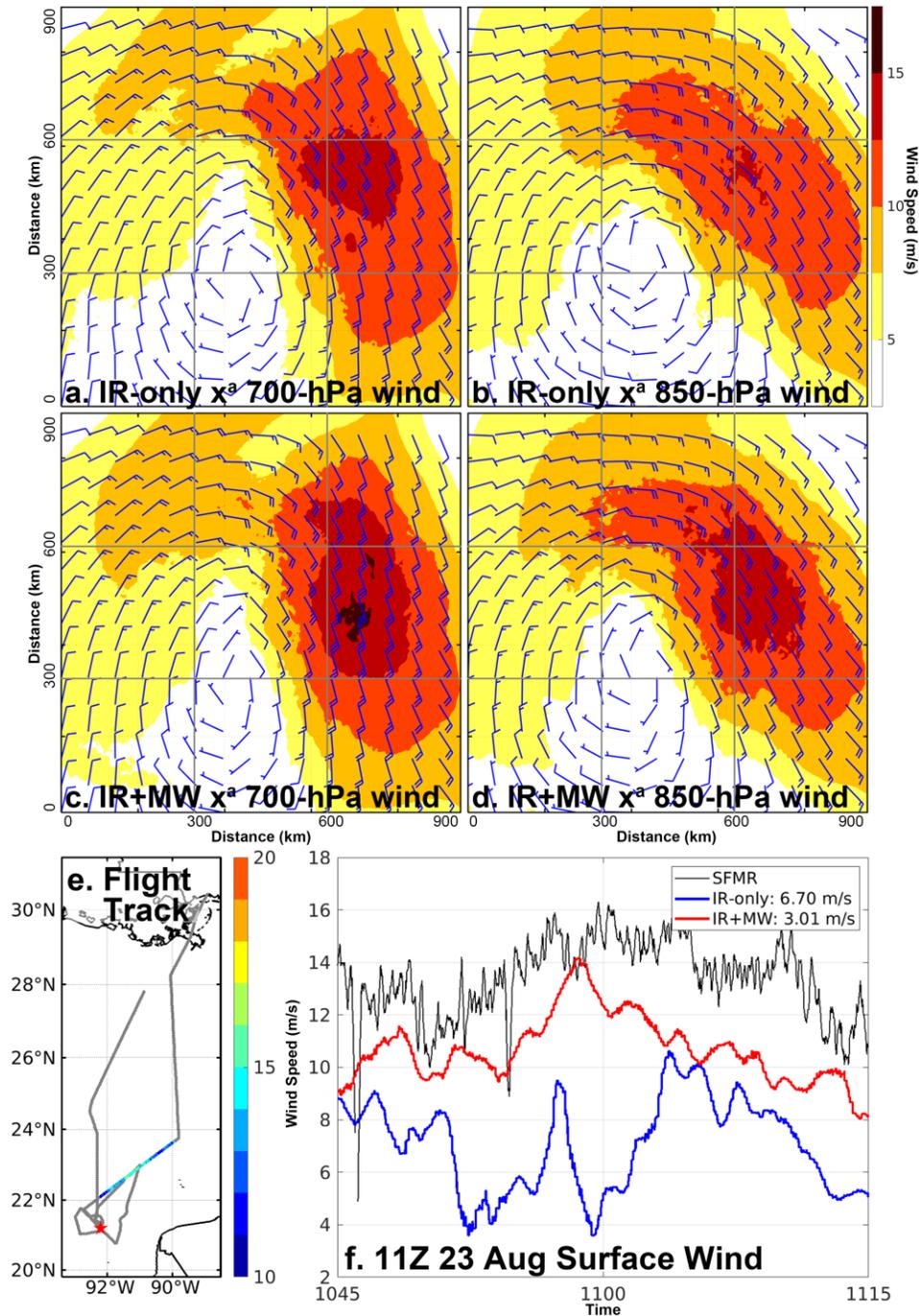
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208 **Figure 2.** Analyses and forecasts of (first column) track, (second column) minimum sea-level
 209 pressure, and (third column) maximum surface wind speed for the (first row) IR-only and
 210 (second row) IR+MW experiments. (third row) Errors in the forecasts verified against NHC's
 211 best-track analysis.

212 3.2 Comparison of deterministic forecasts

213 Figure 2 shows the analyses and forecasts of Hurricane Harvey's track and intensity for
 214 the IR-only and IR+MW experiments, as well as associated forecast errors with respect to the
 215 forecast lead time. Both the IR-only and IR+MW experiments predict the track with reasonable
 216 accuracy, especially for forecasts that are initialized relatively late. Additionally, the westward
 217 biases in the 1800 UTC August 22 forecast and the eastward biases in the three forecasts from
 218 0000 UTC to 1200 UTC August 23 of the IR-only experiment (Fig. 2a) are noticeably reduced in

219 the IR+MW forecasts (Fig. 2d). Although reduced errors in these forecasts are diluted after
 220 averaging across all 10 forecasts, the track forecast errors in the IR+MW experiment are slightly
 221 smaller, overall, than in the IR-only forecasts beyond 72 h (Fig. 2g), although it is not
 222 statistically significant at 95% confidence level using a Wilcoxon signed-rank test (Wilks 2011).



223

224 **Figure 3.** (a, c) 700-hPa and (b, d) 850-hPa horizontal winds (barbs) and wind speeds (shading)
 225 from the EnKF analyses of the (a, b) IR-only and (c, d) IR+MW experiment averaged every 6
 226 hours from 1800 UTC 22 August through 1200 UTC 23 August. (e) Track of the reconnaissance
 227 flight (grey) with the colored section showing SFMR surface wind speeds from 1045 UTC to

228 1115 UTC 23 August; the red star marks Harvey's center using NHC best track data. (f)
229 Comparisons of SFMR-retrieved wind speeds from 1045 UTC to 1115 UTC 23 August with
230 those from the IR-only and IR+MW experiment EnKF analyses at 1100 UTC 23 August. (The
231 numbers within the legend represent RMSEs between the SFMR-retrieved wind speeds and those
232 from the EnKF analysis.)

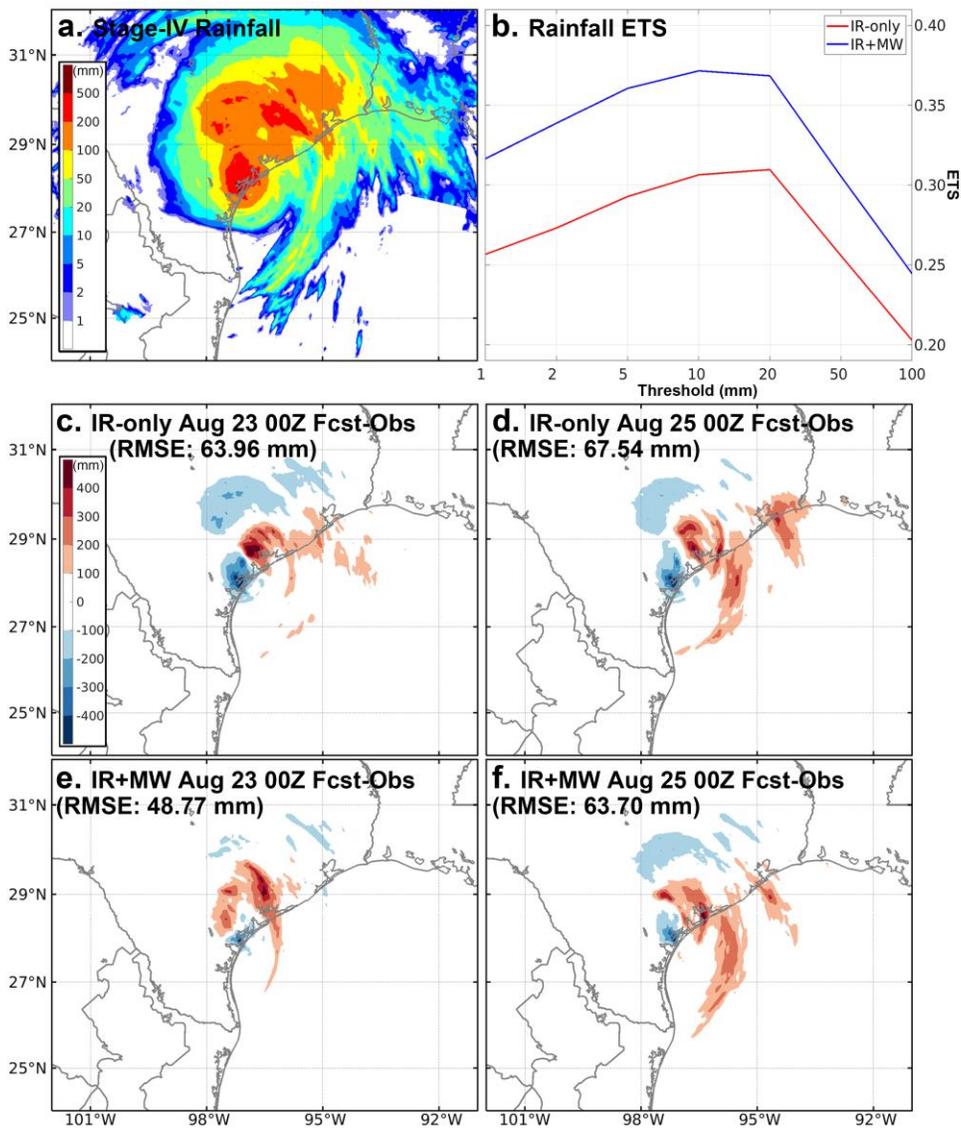
233 The forecast errors for intensity, in terms of either minimum sea-level pressure or
234 maximum surface wind speed, are also reduced when MW BTs are assimilated. There is a clear
235 bifurcation in the IR-only forecasts (Figs. 2b,c): forecasts initialized before 0000 UTC 24 August
236 are not able to capture the RI of Harvey, whereas the forecasts initialized after 0600 UTC 24
237 August do. The period from 0000 UTC to 0600 UTC 24 August is when the convection starts to
238 become more organized (figure not shown), contributing to the RI of Harvey shortly thereafter.
239 For the IR-only experiment, the lack of direct information on TC organization within the IR BTs
240 may have hindered or delayed the RI of Harvey in the IR-only forecasts originating from times
241 before 0000 UTC 24 August.

242 The addition of MW observations resulted in forecasts that captured the RI of Harvey,
243 even those forecasts that are initialized within 24 hours of the start of the cycling EnKF (Figs.
244 2e,f). Furthermore, the assimilation of MW observations also resulted in forecasts with smaller
245 mean absolute errors in intensity, with the largest error reductions around 40% at 60-h forecast
246 lead times (Figs. 2h,i; statistically significant at 95% confidence level between 42 to 78 hours for
247 minimum sea-level pressure and 48 to 60 hours for maximum surface wind speed). These
248 forecast intensity improvements, especially in the early forecasts initialized before the observed
249 RI of Harvey, likely result from changes in the TC's structures introduced by all-sky MW BT
250 assimilation. The initial conditions for the first four forecasts from the IR+MW experiment have
251 higher wind speeds associated with stronger cyclonic circulation in the lower troposphere (Figs.
252 3c,d) compared with those of the IR-only experiment (Figs. 3a,b). The higher wind speeds in the
253 IR+MW experiment better match SFMR-retrieved surface wind speed (not assimilated) from a
254 reconnaissance flight that covered the northeast quadrant of Harvey (Figs. 3e,f). A stronger
255 cyclonic circulation in the IR+MW experiment likely enabled this experiment to produce more
256 accurate forecasts of the onset of Harvey's RI than the IR-only experiment.

257 The assimilation of all-sky MW BTs also improves Harvey's rainfall forecasts. Figure 4
258 shows the accumulated rainfall forecasts from both experiments for the period from 0000 UTC
259 26 August through 0000 UTC 27 August, along with Stage-IV rainfall estimates (Lin and
260 Mitchell 2005). The Stage-IV estimates reveal intense rainfall near Harvey's center as well as in
261 the rainband to the northeast of the center (Fig. 4a). Both intense rainfall regions contributed to
262 widespread flash flooding. To compare the performance of the two experiments, Equitable
263 Threat Scores (ETS; Wilks 2011) were calculated for a range of verification rainfall thresholds
264 and aggregated across all 10 forecasts. The ETS values (Fig. 4b) reveal that the IR+MW
265 experiment forecasts have more accurate rainfall predictions than the IR-only experiment
266 forecasts at all verification rainfall thresholds, ranging from almost +0.07 greater for the 5-mm
267 threshold to more than +0.04 greater for the 100-mm threshold.

268 Differences between rainfall amount forecasts and Stage-IV estimates for the two
269 experiments at two different times are also presented in Fig. 4. The 0000 UTC 23 August IR-
270 only experiment forecasts are characterized by noticeable track forecast errors (Fig. 3a);

271 therefore, a dipole structure is visible in its differences with the Stage-IV estimates (Fig. 4c).
 272 With the track forecast errors reduced, the dipole structure disappears in the IR+MW experiment
 273 forecasts (Fig. 4e). Moreover, the severe underestimation of rainfall outside the core region in
 274 the southwest and northwest quadrants relative to the core in the IR-only experiment forecasts
 275 (Fig. 4c) is greatly reduced in the IR+MW experiment forecasts (Fig. 4e). This is likely the result
 276 of better analyses of the TC rainbands (e.g., Fig. 2), leading to an RMSE reduction from 63.96
 277 mm to 48.77 mm. For the 0000 UTC 25 August forecasts for which both experiments have small
 278 track errors, the IR+MW experiment forecast still outperforms the IR-only experiment forecast
 279 with smaller biases, especially for the outer rainbands to the northeast over Houston. These
 280 smaller biases again led to more accurate rainfall amounts overall (Figs. 4d,f). These results
 281 show that assimilating all-sky MW BTs leads to substantial improvements in the accuracy of
 282 rainfall prediction during the landfall of TC Harvey.



283

284 **Figure 4.** (a) Stage-IV total rainfall estimates accumulated from 0000 UTC 26 August through
 285 0000 UTC 27 August. (b) Equitable Threat Scores (ETS) with different thresholds on rainfall
 286 amount from 0000 UTC 26 August through 0000 UTC 27 August for the predicted rainfall

287 averaged over all the forecasts. Forecast minus observed rainfall amount differences from the (c.)
288 0000 UTC 23 August and (d,f) 0000 UTC 25 August forecasts for the (c,d) IR-only and (e, f)
289 IR+MW experiments for rainfall amounts accumulated from 0000 UTC 26 August through 0000
290 UTC 27 August.

291 **4 Concluding remarks**

292 This study reveals the value of assimilating all-sky MW BTs from low-Earth-orbiting
293 satellites for improving the prediction of TC track, intensity, and precipitation through a case
294 study of Hurricane Harvey (2017). This work builds upon recent successes in improving TC
295 prediction through ensemble-based assimilation of all-sky IR BTs from geostationary satellites.
296 Cloud-top information from the IR BTs in combination with information on the hydrometeors
297 beneath the cloud tops from the MW BTs leads to better estimates of Harvey's structure. These
298 improvements from assimilating all-sky MW BT lead to more accurate track and intensity
299 forecasts and earlier accurate predictions of Harvey's RI, especially when the TC circulation was
300 not yet well established. In addition, better representation of Harvey's structure following MW
301 assimilation resulted in better rainfall forecasts after Harvey's landfall.

302 This is the first study to demonstrate improvements in track, intensity, and rainfall
303 forecasts for a TC via assimilation of all-sky MW BTs in an ensemble-based convection-
304 permitting data assimilation system. The influence of MW assimilation on TC prediction also
305 depends upon AOEL, ABEI, and implementation of microphysics-consistent ice-particle
306 scattering properties based on non-spherical ice particles.

307 Many challenges remain in the effective assimilation of all-sky MW BTs in support of
308 predicting TCs and their associated hazards. Appropriate adaptive bias correction and
309 localization for all-sky BT assimilation remain unresolved challenges. Comparisons of the low-
310 frequency and high-frequency MW channel BTs from different analyses suggest that the
311 performance of assimilating all-sky MW BTs using multiple channels depends on the choice of
312 microphysics schemes, which will eventually impact the performance of the subsequent
313 forecasts. Therefore, in order to better assimilate all-sky multi-channel MW BTs, there is a
314 pressing need to develop microphysics schemes that more realistically simulate hydrometeors
315 and/or observation operators that account for the uncertainties in microphysical processes.
316 Nevertheless, our study demonstrates that, despite model, observation, and data assimilation
317 deficiencies, there are benefits from the assimilation of the currently underutilized all-sky MW
318 BTs for the prediction of TCs and their associated hazards.

319 **Acknowledgments**

320 When our dear friend and colleague Fuqing Zhang died unexpectedly in July 2019, the
321 thread of ideas that wove together our ongoing combined infrared and microwave radiance data
322 assimilation experiments unraveled. Members of the Center for Advanced Data Assimilation and
323 Predictability Techniques, the center that Fuqing created here in the Department of Meteorology
324 and Atmospheric Science at The Pennsylvania State University, came together over an extended
325 period of time to reassemble the thread as best as possible. This paper is the result, and for most
326 of us it will be the last one as a co-author with Fuqing.

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334 **Data Availability**

335 All observations and global model analyses and forecasts are downloadable from their
 336 publicly available archives. The EnKF analyses and deterministic forecasts produced by the IR-
 337 only and MW+IR experiments are available at <http://hfip.psu.edu/yuz31/Zhangetal2021GRL/>.

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512 **Appendix**513 **Appendix A.** List of acronyms

514	ABEI	– Adaptive Background Error Inflation
515	ABI	– Advanced Baseline Imager
516	AMSR2	– Advanced Microwave Scanning Radiometer 2
517	AOEI	– Adaptive Observation Error Inflation
518	ARW	– Advanced Research WRF model
519	ATMS	– Advanced Technology Microwave Sounder
520	BT	– Brightness temperature
521	CRTM	– Community Radiative Transfer Model
522	DMSP	– Defense Meteorological Satellite Program
523	EnKF	– Ensemble Kalman filter
524	ETS	– Equitable Threat Score
525	GCOM-W1	– Global Change Observation Mission 1st - Water
526	GMI	– GPM Microwave Imager
527	GPM	– Global Precipitation Measurement project
528	GOES	– Geostationary Operational Environmental Satellite
529	IR	– Infrared
530	MHS	– Microwave Humidity Sounder
531	MW	– Microwave
532	NHC	– National Hurricane Center
533	NOAA	– National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
534	PBL	– Planetary boundary layer
535	PSU	– The Pennsylvania State University
536	RI	– Rapid intensification
537	RMSE	– Root-mean-square error
538	RRTMG	– Rapid Radiative Transfer Model for Global Circulation Model
539	TC	– Tropical cyclone
540	SAPHIR	– Sounder for Probing Vertical Profiles of Humidity
541	SFMR	– Stepped-Frequency Microwave Radiometer
542	SSM/I	– Special Sensor Microwave/Imager
543	SSMIS	– Special Sensor Microwave Imager/Sounder
544	Suomi NPP	– Suomi National Polar-orbiting Partnership

- 545 WPC – Weather Prediction Center
- 546 WRF – Weather Research and Forecasting model
- 547 WRFDA – WRF Data Assimilation system
- 548 YSU – Yonsei University

549 **Appendix B.** Assimilated channels from the GPM constellation sensors.

Sensor	Satellite	LF Channel	HF Channel
AMSR2	GCOM-W1	7 (18.7 GHz)	13 (89.0 GHz)
ATMS	Suomi NPP		18 (183.31±7.0 GHz)
GMI	GPM Core Observatory	3 (18.7 GHz)	13 (183.31±7.0 GHz)
MHS	NOAA-18		5 (190.31 GHz)
SAPHIR	Megha-Tropiques		5 (183.31±6.6 GHz)
SSM/I	DMSP-F15	1 (19.35 GHz)	6 (85 GHz)
SSMIS	DMSP-F16, F17, F18	13 (19.35 GHz)	9 (183.31±6.6 GHz)

550