

1       **Ensemble-Based Assimilation of Satellite All-Sky Microwave Radiances Improves Intensity and**  
2       **Rainfall Predictions for Hurricane Harvey (2017)**  
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21      **Key Points:**

- 22      • Satellite all-sky infrared and microwave radiances are assimilated to assess their impacts  
23      on forecasts for Hurricane Harvey.
- 24      • Along with infrared radiances, microwave radiances improve the track and intensity  
25      forecasts for Harvey.
- 26      • Microwave radiance assimilation leads to better analyses of the hydrometeor fields and  
27      more accurate rainfall forecasts.

28 **Abstract**

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

41 **Plain Language Summary**

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

54 **1 Introduction**

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

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

71 a broad area and come with an expected range of rain accumulations tagged with footnotes of  
72 possible localized extreme values.

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

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

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

## 106 **2 Methodology**

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

113 MW BTs. AOEI (Minamide and Zhang 2017; for both IR and MW BTs) and ABEI (Minamide  
114 and Zhang 2019; for IR BTs only) are applied to mitigate the deleterious impacts of strong  
115 nonlinearities in the assimilation of all-sky BTs.

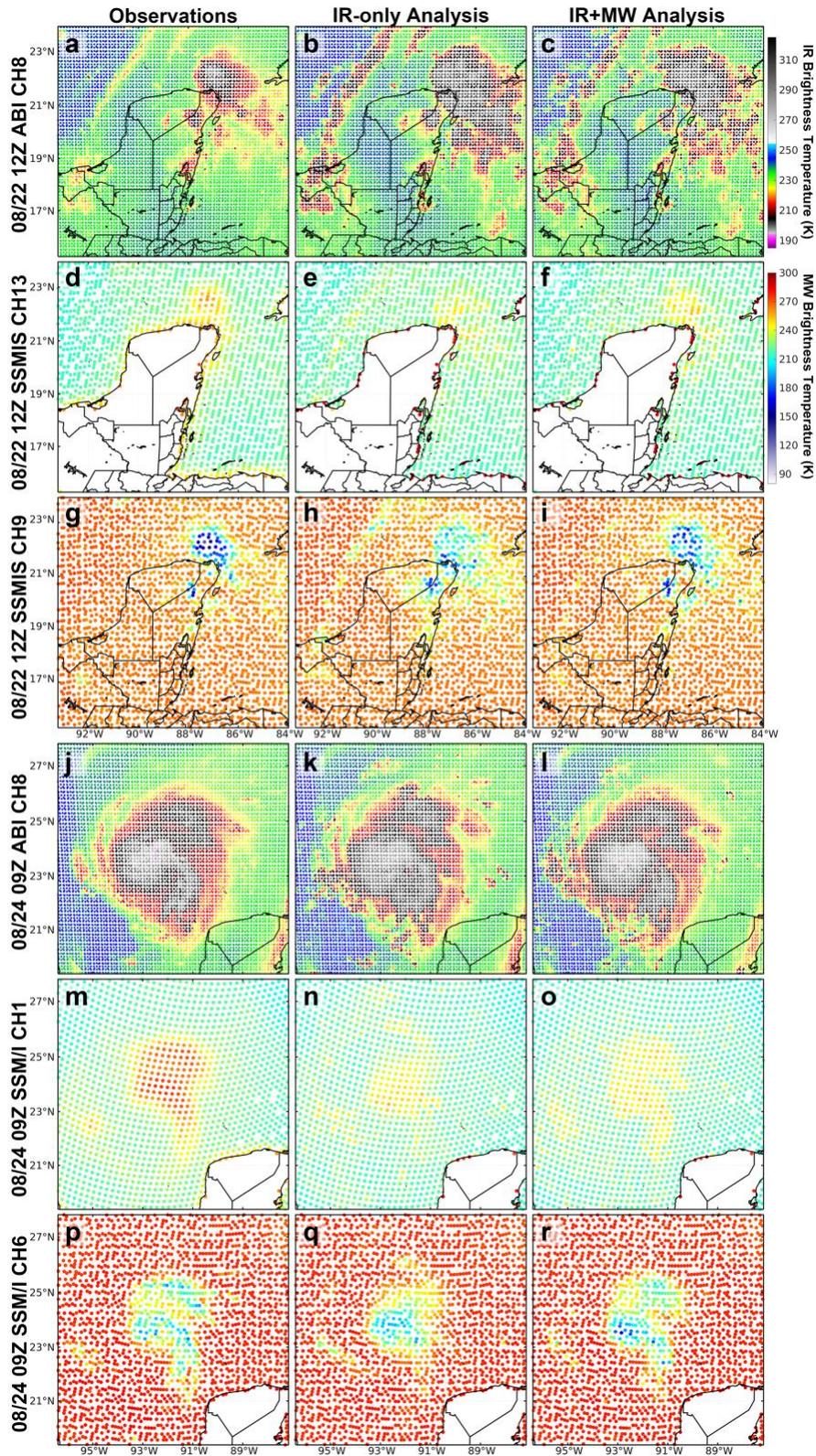
116 Because multiple studies have demonstrated that all-sky IR BT assimilation improves  
117 forecasts of TC track and intensity (e.g., Zhang et al. 2016, 2019; Honda et al. 2018; Minamide  
118 and Zhang 2018; Minamide et al. 2020; Hartman et al. 2021), the baseline experiment for this  
119 study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

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

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

### 152 **3 Results**

153 We first examine how the analysis-to-observation fits change from the IR-only experiment  
154 to the IR+MW experiment. We then compare the forecast performances of the two experiments in  
155 terms of their forecasts of TC Harvey’s track, intensity, and rainfall amount after landfall.



156

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

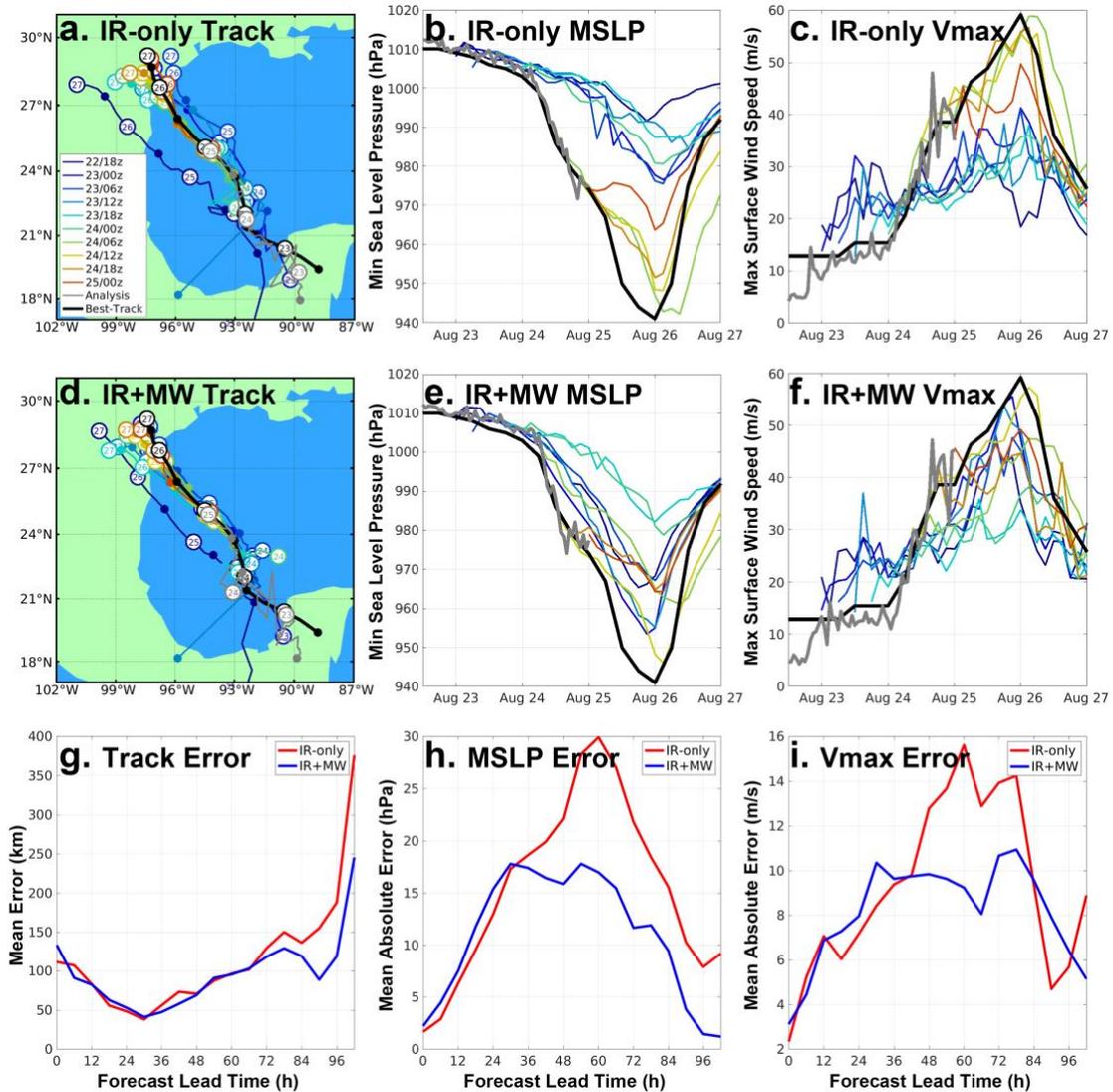
160 *3.1 Comparison of EnKF analyses*

161 We first compare simulated IR and MW BTs from the analyses from the first EnKF cycle  
162 (1200 UTC 22 August) against the assimilated observations (Figs. 1a-i), which qualitatively reveal  
163 the changes with the assimilation of these observations. Both IR-only and IR+MW experiments  
164 show simulated IR BTs that are qualitatively similar to the observations (Figs. 1a-c). More  
165 importantly, while both experiments overestimate the coverage of the cold cloud tops within the  
166 domain, the overestimation is milder for the IR+MW experiment (Fig. 1c). Furthermore, near the  
167 tip of the Yucatan Peninsula, the IR+MW analysis better captured the warm LF MW BTs (Figs.  
168 1d,f) and the cold HF MW BTs values (Figs. 1g,i) than the IR-only analysis (Figs 1e, h). These  
169 differences in MW BTs suggest that the IR+MW analysis better captured the abundant liquid and  
170 ice hydrometeors in that region. Since both experiments have identical priors at this first cycle, the  
171 differences in their analyses at this time are solely associated with the assimilation of the MW BTs.  
172 The first cycle's results thus indicate that the inclusion of MW observations can improve the  
173 analyzed hydrometeor fields. It is also worth noting that the match between the IR+MW analysis  
174 and the observations is noticeably better than found in the previous studies of Wu et al. (2019).  
175 We attribute this improvement to the microphysics-consistent non-spherical ice-particle scattering  
176 tables developed for CRTM by Sieron et al. (2017, 2018) and the use of AOEI (Minamide and  
177 Zhang 2017).

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

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

199 In summary, the addition of MW observations resulted in analysis improvements for both  
200 the IR and MW observations. These BT improvements indicate improvements to the analyzed  
201 structure and distribution of hydrometeors of Harvey. Next, we examine how these improvements  
202 impact Harvey's track, intensity, and rainfall forecasts.

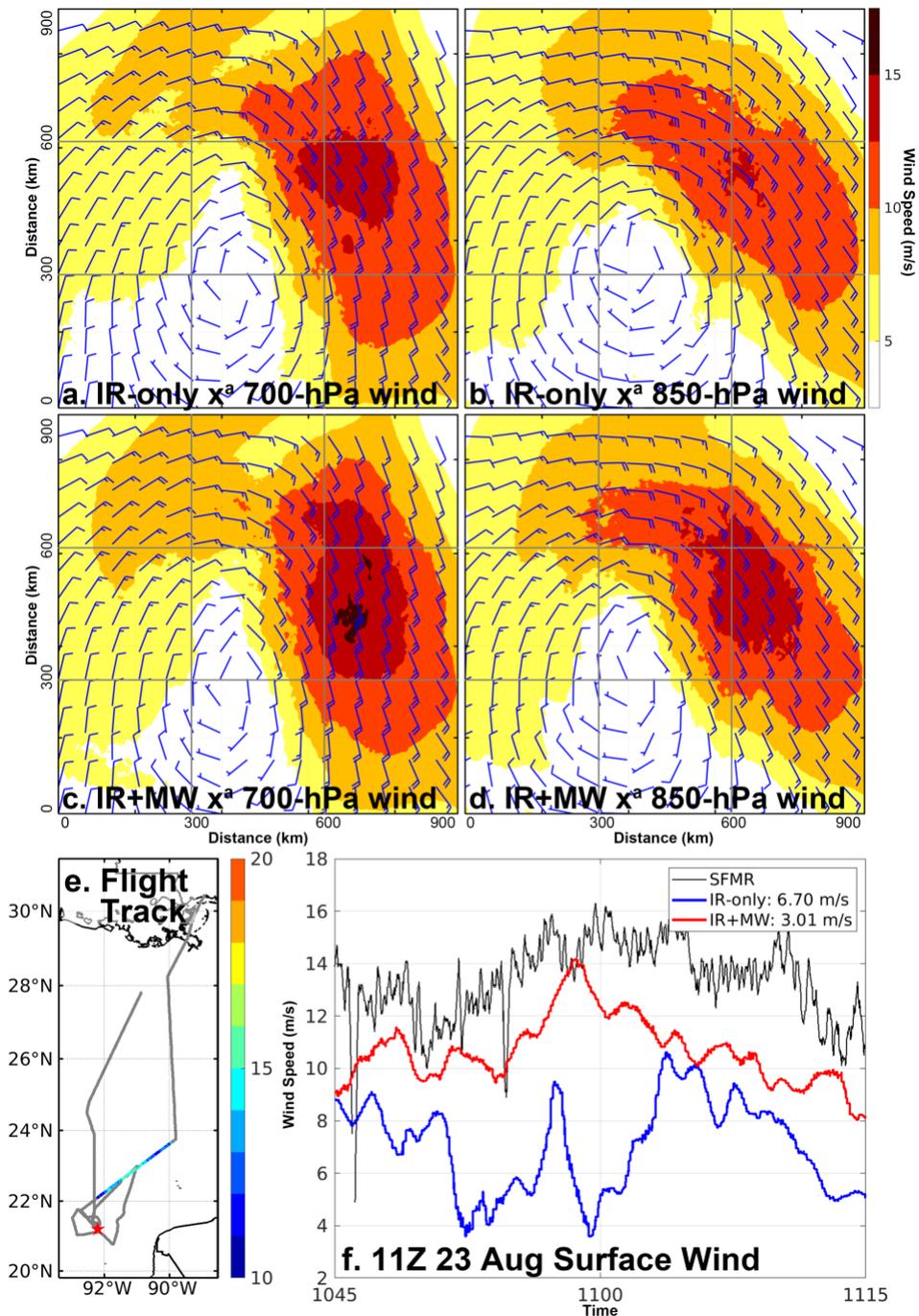


204

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

209 *3.2 Comparison of deterministic forecasts*

210 Figure 2 shows the analyses and forecasts of Hurricane Harvey’s track and intensity for the  
 211 IR-only and IR+MW experiments, as well as associated forecast errors with respect to the forecast  
 212 lead time. Both the IR-only and IR+MW experiments predict the track with reasonable accuracy,  
 213 especially for forecasts that are initialized relatively late. Additionally, the westward biases in the  
 214 1800 UTC August 22 forecast and the eastward biases in the three forecasts from 0000 UTC to  
 215 1200 UTC August 23 of the IR-only experiment (Fig. 2a) are noticeably reduced in the IR+MW  
 216 forecasts (Fig. 2d). Although reduced errors in these forecasts are diluted after averaging across  
 217 all 10 forecasts, the track forecast errors in the IR+MW experiment are slightly smaller, overall,  
 218 than in the IR-only forecasts beyond 72 h (Fig. 2g), although it is not statistically significant at  
 219 95% confidence level using a Wilcoxon signed-rank test (Wilks 2011).



220

221 **Figure 3.** (a, c) 700-hPa and (b, d) 850-hPa horizontal winds (barbs) and wind speeds (shading)  
 222 from the EnKF analyses of the (a, b) IR-only and (c, d) IR+MW experiment averaged every 6  
 223 hours from 1800 UTC 22 August through 1200 UTC 23 August. (e) Track of the reconnaissance  
 224 flight (grey) with the colored section showing SFMR surface wind speeds from 1045 UTC to 1115  
 225 UTC 23 August; the red star marks Harvey's center using NHC best track data. (f) Comparisons  
 226 of SFMR-retrieved wind speeds from 1045 UTC to 1115 UTC 23 August with those from the IR-  
 227 only and IR+MW experiment EnKF analyses at 1100 UTC 23 August. (The numbers within the  
 228 legend represent RMSEs between the SFMR-retrieved wind speeds and those from the EnKF  
 229 analysis.)

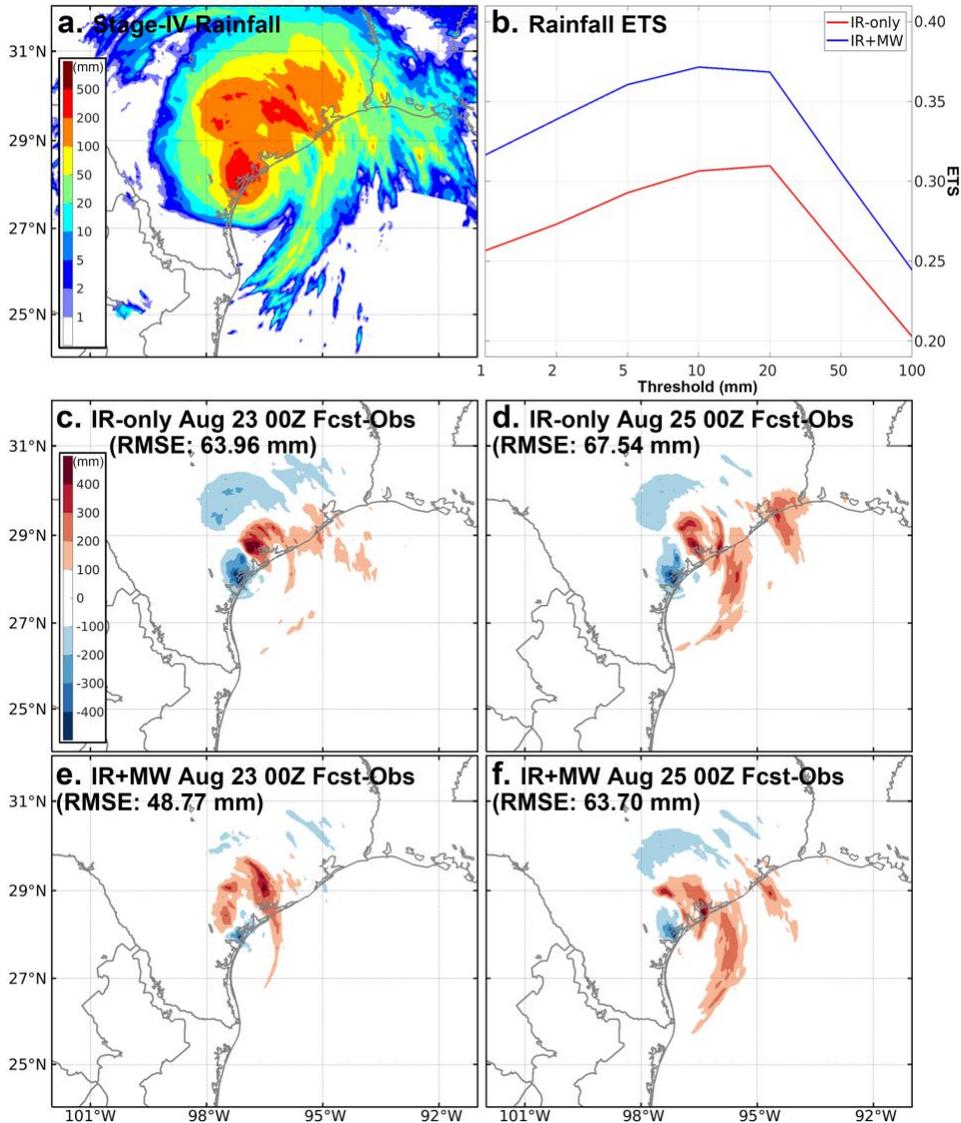
230 The forecast errors for intensity, in terms of either minimum sea-level pressure or  
231 maximum surface wind speed, are also reduced when MW BTs are assimilated. There is a clear  
232 bifurcation in the IR-only forecasts (Figs. 2b,c): forecasts initialized before 0000 UTC 24 August  
233 are not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

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

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

265 Differences between rainfall amount forecasts and Stage-IV estimates for the two  
266 experiments at two different times are also presented in Fig. 4. The 0000 UTC 23 August IR-only  
267 experiment forecasts are characterized by noticeable track forecast errors (Fig. 3a); therefore, a  
268 dipole structure is visible in its differences with the Stage-IV estimates (Fig. 4c). With the track  
269 forecast errors reduced, the dipole structure disappears in the IR+MW experiment forecasts (Fig.  
270 4e). Moreover, the severe underestimation of rainfall outside the core region in the southwest and  
271 northwest quadrants relative to the core in the IR-only experiment forecasts (Fig. 4c) is greatly  
272 reduced in the IR+MW experiment forecasts (Fig. 4e). This is likely the result of better analyses  
273 of the TC rainbands (e.g., Fig. 2), leading to an RMSE reduction from 63.96 mm to 48.77 mm. For

274 the 0000 UTC 25 August forecasts for which both experiments have small track errors, the  
 275 IR+MW experiment forecast still outperforms the IR-only experiment forecast with smaller biases,  
 276 especially for the outer rainbands to the northeast over Houston. These smaller biases again led to  
 277 more accurate rainfall amounts overall (Figs. 4d,f). These results show that assimilating all-sky  
 278 MW BTs leads to substantial improvements in the accuracy of rainfall prediction during the  
 279 landfall of TC Harvey.



280

281 **Figure 4.** (a) Stage-IV total rainfall estimates accumulated from 0000 UTC 26 August through  
 282 0000 UTC 27 August. (b) Equitable Threat Scores (ETS) with different thresholds on rainfall  
 283 amount from 0000 UTC 26 August through 0000 UTC 27 August for the predicted rainfall  
 284 averaged over all the forecasts. Forecast minus observed rainfall amount differences from the (c),  
 285 0000 UTC 23 August and (d,f) 0000 UTC 25 August forecasts for the (c,d) IR-only and (e, f)  
 286 IR+MW experiments for rainfall amounts accumulated from 0000 UTC 26 August through 0000  
 287 UTC 27 August.

## 288 **4 Concluding remarks**

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

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

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

## 316 **Acknowledgments**

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

324 This work is supported by NASA award 80NSSC19K0728, ONR award N000141812517,  
325 NOAA awards NA18OAR4590369 and NA18NWS4680054, NSF award AGS-1712290, and the  
326 Office of Science of DOE Biological and Environmental Research as part of the Regional and  
327 Global Modeling and Analysis program area (project WACCEN). The numerical experiments  
328 were performed on the Stampede 2 supercomputer of the Texas Advanced Computing Center  
329 (TACC) through the Extreme Science and Engineering Discovery Environment (XSEDE) program  
330 supported by the National Science Foundation (NSF).

331 **Data Availability**

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

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507 **Appendix**

508 **Appendix A.** List of acronyms

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

- 540 WPC – Weather Prediction Center
- 541 WRF – Weather Research and Forecasting model
- 542 WRFDA – WRF Data Assimilation system
- 543 YSU – Yonsei University

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

<b>Sensor</b>	<b>Satellite</b>	<b>LF Channel</b>	<b>HF Channel</b>
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)

545