Application of Spectral Polarimetry to a Hailstorm at Low Elevation Angle

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ABSTRACT
Spectral polarimetry has the potential to be used to study microphysical properties in relation to the dynamics within a radar resolution volume by combining Doppler and polarimetric measurements. The past studies of spectral polarimetry have focused on using radar measurements from higher elevation angles, where both the size sorting from the hydrometeors' terminal velocities and polarimetric characteristics are maintained. In this work, spectral polarimetry is applied to data from the 0° elevation angle, where polarimetric properties are maximized. Radar data collected by the C-band University of Oklahoma Polarimetric Radar for Innovations in Meteorology and Engineering (OU-PRIME) during a hailstorm event on 24 April 2011 are used in the analysis. The slope of the spectral differential reflectivity exhibits interesting variations across the hail core, which suggests the presence of size sorting of hydrometeors caused by vertical shear in a turbulent environment. A nearby S-band polarimetric Weather Surveillance Radar-1988 Doppler (KOUN) is also used to provide insights into this hailstorm. Moreover, a flexible numerical simulation is developed for this study, in which different types of hydrometeors such as rain and melting hail can be considered individually or as a combination under different sheared and turbulent conditions. The impacts of particle size distribution, shear, turbulence, attenuation, and mixture of rain and melting hail on polarimetric spectral signatures are investigated with the simulated Doppler spectra and spectral differential reflectivity.

1. Introduction
Polarimetric weather radar has shown its capabilities in improving quantitative precipitation estimation, hydrometeor classification, data quality control, and severe weather detection and forecasting (e.g., Meischner 2003; Ryzhkov et al. 2005; Park et al. 2009; Scharfenberg et al. 2005; Kumjian 2013a,b; Chandrasekar et al. 2013; Wang and Yu 2015; Hwang et al. 2017). Polarimetric variables such as differential reflectivity $Z_{DR}$, correlation coefficient $\rho_{HV}$, and differential phase $\phi_{DP}$ can provide information about hydrometeor’s size, shape, concentration, orientation, and type. Kinematic features such as convective storm updrafts, vertical wind shear, and storm-relative helicity can be inferred from prominent polarimetric signatures such as the $Z_{DR}$ column and the $Z_{DR}$ arc (e.g., Kumjian and Ryzhkov 2008, 2009, 2012). In addition, the kinematic information such as storm intensity, motion, and turbulence can also be derived from Doppler measurements of mean radial velocity and spectrum width. These polarimetric and Doppler variables contain either the dynamical or the microphysical properties that are integrated over the radar resolution volume. Spectral polarimetry, on the other hand, can unveil the polarimetric

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variables directly as a function of radial velocities within one resolution volume (e.g., Unal et al. 2001; Russchenberg et al. 2008; Yu et al. 2012), and this provides a unique opportunity to relate storm microphysical properties to kinematics. As shown in Doviak and Zrnić (1993), the Doppler spectrum describes the returned power as a function of radial velocities, and the power at each velocity bin is contributed by all scatterers with the same radial velocity within the radar resolution volume. Similarly, spectral differential reflectivity represents a spectrum of differential reflectivity, and the value at each bin is determined by the ratio of returned power between horizontal (H) and vertical (V) polarizations from all the scatterers with the same radial velocity. Additionally, spectral correlation coefficient and spectral differential phase can be understood in the same manner. Therefore, if the relation between hydrometeor sizes and radial velocities can be established (i.e., size sorting is present), spectral polarimetry can reveal the polarimetric properties as a function of hydrometeor sizes. Note that polarimetric variables can still be obtained from these polarimetric spectra through integrating the whole resolution volume (Yu et al. 2012).

Since hydrometeors from different species and sizes possess different terminal velocities (Atlas et al. 1973), past studies using spectral polarimetry mainly relied on size sorting originating from hydrometeors’ different terminal velocities. For vertically pointing radar observations, this size sorting is maximized; however, hydrometeors (such as raindrops) viewed from below produce 0 dB $Z_{DR}$. Another extreme case is for $0^\circ$ elevation angle, where $Z_{DR}$ magnitudes are maximized but size sorting is totally diminished because of the same radial velocity (background wind) from all sizes of hydrometeors. Thus, spectral polarimetry typically has focused on using measurements from higher elevation angles where both the size sorting from the hydrometeors’ terminal velocities and the polarimetric characteristics are maintained. For example, Spek et al. (2008) retrieved the particle size distributions of two mixed ice particles, background wind, and turbulence by applying spectral polarimetry to S-band data collected at 45° elevation angle. Moisseev et al. (2006) applied spectral polarimetry to estimate the shape parameter of raindrops using data from the S-band CSU–CHILL at elevation of 30° and the S-band Transportable Atmospheric Radar (TARA) at 45°.

In addition to different terminal velocities, hydrometeor size sorting can be maintained by different mechanisms, including convective updrafts and nonzero storm-relative flow associated with vertical wind shear (e.g., Kumjian and Ryzhkov 2012; Dawson et al. 2014, 2015). In this work, spectral polarimetry was applied to a hailstorm observed by one C-band polarimetric radar at $0^\circ$ elevation angle, where no size sorting should be expected if only the terminal speed of hydrometeors and the uniform background wind are considered. However, it was observed that spectral differential reflectivity exhibits different patterns in different regions of the storm, which suggests the presence of a different ongoing size sorting mechanisms. It is hypothesized that the variation of the observed spectral differential reflectivity is a result of shear-induced size sorting from raindrops and melting hailstones in a turbulent environment. The idea of a hydrometeor’s trajectory in a sheared environment was first proposed by Marshall (1953), and its velocity is derived to be a function of its terminal velocity and environmental vertical shear (e.g., Brussaard 1974). Therefore, we hypothesize that when the vertical shear is present, the size-dependent velocity of hydrometeors can be revealed in polarimetric spectra even at $0^\circ$ elevation angle. This work therefore focuses on the interplay of microphysics and kinematics within the resolution volume. The hypothesis will be qualitatively supported from the analysis of radar observations, mesonet data, and storm reports. The impact of shear, turbulence, particle size distributions of rain and melting hail, and attenuation on the slope of spectral differential reflectivity will be investigated using simulations.

In this paper, observations of a hailstorm from nearby S-band and C-band polarimetric radars are first presented in section 2. In addition, the variation of spectral differential reflectivity revealed from the application of spectral polarimetry to C-band data at $0^\circ$ elevation angle is shown. In section 3, a brief overview of size sorting in a sheared environment is provided. To further investigate the cause of these variations of spectral differential reflectivity, a simulation is developed in section 4, where two cases of rain and a mixture of rain and melting hail are examined. A summary and conclusions are provided in section 5.

2. Observations of a hailstorm on 24 April 2011

A total of 40 hailstorms were reported in Oklahoma on 24 April 2011, which cost approximately $65,000 (U.S. dollars) in property damage over 19 affected counties (http://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/stormevents). One of the hailstorms is of special interest, because it was observed simultaneously by two nearby polarimetric radars, the C-band University of Oklahoma Polarimetric Radar for Innovations in Meteorology and Engineering (OU-PRIME) (Palmer et al. 2011) and an S-band polarimetric Weather Surveillance Radar-1988 Doppler (WSR-88D) in Norman, Oklahoma (KOUN). The storm was located within 60-km range from both radars during
the time of interest. The level I in-phase and quadrature-phase (I and Q) signals from the OU-PRIME were collected, which allows the implementation of spectral polarimetry. A more detailed description of the observations is presented in the following subsection.

a. Dual-wavelength observations

The C-band OU-PRIME is located approximately 6.78 km southeast of the S-band KOUN, and both of them are dual-polarization radars operating in simultaneous transmission and reception mode. A detailed comparison of the specifications between OU-PRIME and KOUN is provided in Picca and Ryzhkov (2012). Even though the scanning strategy and resolution are not the same for these two radars, valuable information can be obtained by the simultaneous observations from the two different wavelengths. For example, Borowska et al. (2011) studied the attenuation and differential attenuation from melting hail using these two different wavelengths radars. Picca and Ryzhkov (2012) used simultaneous OU-PRIME and KOUN data to study the hail size estimation and hail signatures near surface and aloft. In addition, Bodine et al. (2014) used these two radars to investigate tornado debris signatures from an EF4 (on the enhanced Fujita scale) tornado.

Between 1700:13 and 1959:49 UTC, the OU-PRIME was operated with alternating plan position indicator (PPI) and range–height indicator (RHI) scans. In the PPI mode, a total of eight elevations were completed in approximately 2 min with a pulse repetition time (PRT) of 0.8475 ms. In the RHI mode, OU-PRIME scanned from 0° to 20° in elevation at the azimuth angle of 233.3° in approximately 52 s using the same PRT. The KOUN radar was operated with volume coverage pattern (VCP) 12 (4.5-min update time) during that period. Comparisons of PPI scans from OU-PRIME at 0° elevation angle (left panels) and KOUN at 0.5° elevation angle (right panels) both at 1856:07 UTC are shown in Fig. 1. The top (Figs. 1a,b) and middle rows (Figs. 1c,d) are the fields of reflectivity Z and Z_{DR}, and the field of ρ_{HV} from OU-PRIME is shown in Fig. 1e. The result of hydrometeor classification algorithm (HCA) (Park et al. 2009) from KOUN is shown in Fig. 1f, where ground clutter (GC), biological scatterers (BI), dry snow (DS), wet snow (WS), crystals (CR), graupel (GR), big drops (BD), light/moderate rain (RA), heavy rain (HR), mixture of rain and hail (HA), and unknown (UK) are shown (Park et al. 2009). The locations of both radars are denoted by white asterisks. The azimuthal direction of OU-PRIME’s RHI scan is also included and denoted by a solid black line. Note that all the KOUN data have been transformed into the same coordinates as OU-PRIME data; therefore, they have the same origin to facilitate the comparison.

Despite the generally similar Z and Z_{DR} contours from these two radars, enhanced reflectivity (>60 dBZ) and differential reflectivity (>4 dB) can be observed from OU-PRIME such as at approximately (−40, −32), (−40, 0), and (−20, 5) km (Figs. 1a,c). The ρ_{HV} values at these regions (Fig. 1d) are as low as 0.8 from the C-band OU-PRIME, whereas relatively high values from the S-band KOUN are still maintained (not shown). These comparisons suggest the presence of resonance scattering effects caused by large drops and small melting hail at C band (Picca and Ryzhkov 2012). According to a storm report from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (http://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/stormevents), hailstones of 1.9-cm size were observed at 1850 UTC in Rush Spring (about 50 km southwest from OU-PRIME; annotated in Fig. 1), which can further support the fact of hail.

At 1858:21 UTC, OU-PRIME switched to RHI scan at azimuth angle of 233.3°, and the fields from Z, Z_{DR}, and ρ_{HV} are presented in Figs. 2a, 2c, and 2e. For comparison purposes, data from the KOUN volume scan at 1856:07 UTC were interpolated to the same locations as in the OU-PRIME’s RHI scan using a nearest neighborhood method; the interpolated Z and Z_{DR} are shown on the right top two panels of Figs. 2b and 2d. Additionally, the HCA results obtained using those interpolated data are shown in Fig. 2f. The resonance effects at C band are still evident in the region at ranges between 48 and 52 km and altitude below 1.5 km, which is manifested by enhanced Z (>55 dBZ) and Z_{DR} (>4 dB), and reduced ρ_{HV} (<0.89) when compared to S-band data (Borowska et al. 2011; Picca and Ryzhkov 2012).

Differential attenuation at C band is evident after 52 km, where OU-PRIME Z_{DR} falls below −3.5 dB at ranges of approximately 54 to 57 km. The Z_{DR} from S-band KOUN is approximately 2–3 dB at similar ranges. Such anomalous attenuation at the C band is likely a result of large raindrops and melting hail (Meischner et al. 1991; Ryzhkov et al. 2007; Anderson et al. 2011; Ryzhkov et al. 2013). Moreover, HA was identified by KOUN at ranges around 50 to 55 km and at altitudes between 1 and 4 km. Note that the mixture of hail and rain was not directly identified at lower elevations, which may be a result of the time difference between these two observations or errors in the hydrometeor classification algorithm. It is speculated that the synthesized KOUN radial at 1856:07 UTC only samples the edge of the storm core, as suggested by the HCA results in Fig. 1. In summary, the analysis of the observations from the two wavelengths strongly suggests the presence of a mixture of hail and rain and large drops in the lowest elevation.
of the OU-PRIME RHI scan at a range of approximately 50–55 km at 1858:21 UTC.

b. Spectral polarimetry at 0° elevation angle

In this work, the OU-PRIME’s RHI data at the lowest elevation angle (0°) were used to calculate spectral polarimetry, where 960 complex-valued IQ samples were available for H and V channels at each gate. Specifically, at each range gate, 32 IQ samples for each channel were first zero padded to 64 points and then Fourier transformed using a Hanning window. The power spectral density (PSD) for each of the H and V channels as well
as the cross-spectral density (CSD) between the two channels were computed. Note that PSD is also referred to as Doppler spectrum (Doviak and Zrnić 1993) or spectral reflectivity after calibration. Subsequently, 30 PSDs and CSDs were averaged to reduce the variance of the estimation (Yu et al. 2012). The averaged PSDs for H and V channels are denoted by $S_H$ and $S_V$, and spectral differential reflectivity is calculated as $\sigma_{\text{ZDR}} = S_H / S_V$.

Before the discussion of $\sigma_{\text{ZDR}}$, the range profiles of $Z$, $Z_{\text{DR}}$, and $\rho_{\text{HV}}$ along 233.3° between 43.75 and 58.625 km from C-band OU-PRIME at 1858:21 UTC at 0° elevation are shown in Fig. 3. The interpolated profiles from S-band KOUN at 1856:07 UTC are also included in Fig. 3 as references. Relatively larger $Z$ and $Z_{\text{DR}}$ and lower $\rho_{\text{HV}}$ from C-band OU-PRIME than those from the S-band KOUN can be observed up to approximately 50 km, which suggests the resonance effect. Additionally, the attenuation and differential attenuation of OU-PRIME data, manifested by decreased reflectivity and differential reflectivity compared to S-band data (Borowska et al. 2011), can be clearly observed after 52.5 km.

The Doppler spectrum from H channel ($S_H$) and $\sigma_{\text{ZDR}}$ from five selected locations, indicated by the upward arrows in Fig. 3, are shown in Fig. 4 from left to right. The range (in km), $Z$, and $Z_{\text{DR}}$ are also included at each panel as references. Note that both $S_H$ and $\sigma_{\text{ZDR}}$ were dealiased to be within $\pm 25.4$ to $9.4 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ for clearer presentation, based on the maximum unambiguous velocity of 17.7 m s$^{-1}$. Although spectral polarimetry has the potential for providing insights of hydrometeor properties within the radar resolution volume, one of the challenges is that it is difficult to decide which part of the spectra is reliable, owing to the high variance of those estimators. Yu et al. (2012) devised a spectral SNR threshold to meet a user-defined quality of the spectral estimators for a given spectral averaging. Since 30 gates averaged PSDs and CSDs are used in this work, the derived thresholds for the bias of $\sigma_{\text{ZDR}}$, the standard deviation (SD) of $\sigma_{\text{ZDR}}$, and the normalized spectral correlation coefficient were calculated as 0.04 dB, 0.707,
and 0.01, respectively (Yu et al. 2012). The portion of $S_H$ and $sZ_{DR}$ meeting those requirements are superimposed and denoted by thick lines. It is evident that the pattern of $sZ_{DR}$ at different ranges exhibits interesting and distinct variations. To quantify the variations, a linear fitting was performed using only those $sZ_{DR}$ that meet the quality requirements. The fitted lines are denoted by dashed lines in the $sZ_{DR}$ plots and the value of slope [dB (m s$^{-2}$]$^{-1}$ is also presented. The range profile of $sZ_{DR}$ slope is also presented in Fig. 3d.

From Fig. 4, it is clear that the Doppler spectra are fairly wide with non-Gaussian shapes. It has been reported that similar broad and flattop spectra can be observed in strongly sheared environments (Yu et al. 2009). Additionally, turbulence can further broaden the spectrum (Doviak and Zrnić 1993). The presence of vertical shear is inferred from the range profile of mean radial velocity from the two lowest elevations (0° and 0.5°) of OU-PRIME. Vertical shear of more than 0.02 s$^{-1}$ in the negative radial direction (i.e., $< -0.02$ s$^{-1}$, where negative direction is toward the radar) can be observed up to range of 48.5 km, where the height difference of the two lowest beams are approximately 423.2 m (Doviak and Zrnić 1993). Beyond the range of 48.5 km, an averaged shear of $-0.01$ s$^{-1}$ is still obtained. The strong vertical shear was also verified by the observation from a mesonet station close to Rush Spring, which locates at ($-41.2, -53.9$) km from OU-PRIME.

From Fig. 4, it can be observed that from location 1 to 2, the negative slope becomes steeper and both
and $Z_{DR}$ increase. The largest negative slope of approximately $-0.17 \text{ dB (m s}^{-1})^{-1}$ and the maximum $Z_{DR}$ value of 5.7 dB were obtained at location 2. At location 3, the $sZ_{DR}$ becomes flattened with a slope of approximately zero, and both $Z$ and $Z_{DR}$ reach their maximum values of 60.5 dB and 5.7 dB, respectively. Though similar $Z_{DR}$ values of approximately 5.7 dB are obtained at locations 2 and 3, distinctly different $sZ_{DR}$ slopes are observed. This suggests the dynamic and/or microphysics in these two radar volumes are different, and spectral polarimetry has the potential to reveal it. Moreover, $sZ_{DR}$ exhibits positive slope at locations 4 and 5, while $sZ_{DR}$ values at location 5 are generally lower than those at location 4 for most of radial velocities. It is evident from Fig. 3 that the decreases of $Z$ and $Z_{DR}$ in location 5 are caused by attenuation and differential attenuation. Given the analysis presented so far, it is hypothesized that the observed variations of $sZ_{DR}$ slope at $0^\circ$ elevation angle is caused by shear-induced size sorting of a mixture of rain and melting hail in a turbulent environment. In section 4, this hypothesis will be tested, and the impacts of microphysical and dynamical characteristics on the $sZ_{DR}$ will be studied using simulation.

3. A brief overview of shear-induced size sorting

The trajectory of hydrometeors in a sheared environment was first investigated in Marshall (1953). Pinsky and Khain (2006) also showed that the approximated trajectory of a hydrometeor and its inclination are related to vertical shear. The equation of motion for falling hydrometeors in sheared environment was derived in many previous studies, such as Brussaard (1974, 1976), Bohne (1982), and Beard and Jameson (1983), and is briefly reviewed here. The primary forces on a single hydrometeor are the gravity force and drag force. In this work, only horizontal $a_h$ and vertical $a_z$ directions are considered, in which positive $a_z$ is upward. For a single hydrometeor of size $D$, when it falls through a sheared region, its velocity is $V = a_h V_h + a_z V_z$. Initially, the hydrometeor is located at height $H$ and its velocity is equal to the environment wind velocity at $H$, $U(H) = a_h U_h$, where only the horizontal air motion is considered. From Newton’s second law, the net force $F_n$ on the hydrometeor is represented in the following equation:

$$F_n = F_g + F_d,$$

where $F_g = mg$ is the gravity force, $m$ is the mass, $g = a_h 0 + a_z(-g)$, and $g$ is the gravitational acceleration. The drag (or air resistance) force $F_d$ is obtained using the following equation (Bohne 1982):

$$F_d = -m \frac{V - U}{\tau},$$

where the time constant $\tau = V_t(D)/g$ and $V_t(D)$ is the terminal speed of a hydrometeor with size $D$.  

**FIG. 4.** (top) Doppler spectra and (bottom) spectral differential reflectivity from five specific locations indicated in Fig. 3. The data are from $0^\circ$ elevation angle observed by OU-PRIME at 1858:21 UTC. The fitted lines are denoted by dashed lines in the $sZ_{DR}$ plots and the value of the slope [dB (m s$^{-1}$)$^{-1}$] is also included.
The hydrometeor's horizontal and vertical velocities can be derived as

\[ V_h(t) = U_h(t) + \frac{sV^2(D)}{g}, \quad (3a) \]

\[ V_z(t) = -V_z(D), \quad (3b) \]

where \( s = dU_h/dz \) is constant vertical shear. The canting angle of the hydrometeor (\( \gamma \)) in shear is also obtained as \( \tan \gamma = -sV_z(D)/g \) (e.g., Brussaard 1974, 1976). The radar-observed radial velocity from the hydrometeor is the sum of the radial components from the two velocities as \( v = V_h \cos \theta + V_z \sin \theta \), where \( \theta \) is the elevation angle. For a higher elevation angle, the size sorting can be contributed from both horizontal and vertical components of the falling hydrometeors. However, for the elevation angle of 0°, the presence of size sorting is contributed only from the shear term in the horizontal component. For example, for a distribution of hydrometeors with sizes ranging between \( D_{\text{min}} \) and \( D_{\text{max}} \) in a sheared environment without turbulence and background wind \( [U_h(t) = 0] \), an interval of radial velocities from \( sV^2(D_{\text{min}})/g \) to \( sV^2(D_{\text{max}})/g \) results from 0° elevation angle, where \( D_{\text{min}} \) and \( D_{\text{max}} \) are the minimum and maximum sizes, respectively. As expected, no size sorting will be observed at 0° elevation angle if the shear is not present, and all the hydrometeors have the same radial velocity as the background wind. Note the sign of shear will determine the sign of radial velocity, where the convention of positive sign indicates outbound velocity. Additionally, the background wind of \( U_h(t) \) will only shift the interval of radial velocity by the amount of \( U_h(t) \).

4. Simulation

a. Description of simulation

To test the hypothesis and investigate the impacts of particle size distributions on \( Z, Z_{\text{DR}} \), and the slope of \( sZ_{\text{DR}} \), a numerical simulation was developed in the current work. Spek et al. (2008) developed a model of S-band Doppler spectrum and spectral differential reflectivity for a mixture of two types of ice particles with different particle size distribution functions. A similar model was also developed in the particle size distributions retrieval for a mixture of rain and melting hail with different particle size distribution functions. In this work, the simulation used in Wang (2010) is extended to include both shear-induced size sorting and attenuation. The attenuated Doppler spectrum and spectral differential reflectivity can be generated from single or mixed types of hydrometeors in a turbulent and sheared environment.

The method of simulating the sheared environment is demonstrated in Fig. 5b, where the distance from OU-PRIME to the radar gate of interest is 50 km as in the observation (Fig. 4). The Gaussian shape beam pattern is also included. As shown in Fig. 5a, the radial velocities at 0° and 0.5° elevation angles are \(-13\) and \(-17\,\text{m s}^{-1}\) at location 1, respectively. Since the maximum unambiguity velocity of OU-PRIME is \(17.7\,\text{m s}^{-1}\), the dealiased radial velocity can reach around \(17\,\text{m s}^{-1}\) at 0.5° elevation angle. Therefore, in the current work, the background wind at the bottom of the radar volume is set as \(18\,\text{m s}^{-1}\) toward to the radar, and gradually changes to \(8\,\text{m s}^{-1}\) forward from the radar at the top of the volume. Given the fact that OU-PRIME’s beamwidth is half degree, the simulated vertical shear is approximately \(s = -0.046\,\text{s}^{-1}\) at 50 km, and that is similar to the observation from a mesonet station close to Rush Spring. Within this sheared environment, particles from different heights within one radar resolution volume possess different background velocities, and their radial velocities are the combination of background wind and the velocities derived from section 3. Such strong vertical shear can generate a wide Doppler spectrum, as shown in Fig. 4.

A flowchart of the simulation is provided in Fig. 6, where the inputs and outputs are denoted by orange and green boxes, respectively. The input parameters include the particle size distributions from rain \([N_r(D_r)]\) and from hail \([N_h(D_h)]\), shear \(s\), elevation angle \(\theta\), range \(r\), and turbulence broadening \(\sigma_s\). The idea is to first generate Doppler spectra for both H and V channels from individual hydrometeor type separately in a sheared
environment, and resulting Doppler spectra for H and V channels are the summations of individual spectra from each hydrometeor type. Subsequently, spectra are attenuated and further broadened by the turbulence.

In the current work, a gamma and an exponential distribution are used to simulate the particle distributions of raindrops and hailstones, respectively (e.g., Ulbrich 1983; Zhang et al. 2001):

\[ N_r(D_r) = N_{r0} D_r^\beta e^{-\lambda_r D_r}, \quad (4) \]

\[ N_h(D_h) = N_{h0} e^{-\lambda_h D_h}, \quad (5) \]

where the diameters of raindrops \( D_r \) and hailstones \( D_h \) are set as 0.1–8 and 8–25 mm, respectively. The intercept \( N_{r0} \) is 400/A_{r0}^{1.11} m^{-3} mm^{-1} as suggested by Ryzhkov et al. (2013). The relations between \( N_{r0}, \mu, \) and \( \Lambda_r \) used in this work fit the results discussed by Zhang et al. (2001). The impacts of \( N_{s0}, N_{r0}, \mu, \Lambda_r, \) and \( \Lambda_0 \) on the simulated \( S_H \) and \( S_{ZDR} \) will be discussed in section 4b.

The C-band radar backscattering cross section for each size and hydrometeor type is calculated from the complex backscattering amplitudes \( [f_r(\pi) \text{ and } f_h(\pi)] \) using the T-matrix code (Mishchenko 2000). The aspect ratio of melting hail is calculated using the T-matrix code (Mishchenko 2000) should produce more accurate simulation results, especially for very large \( (D_h > 25 \text{ mm}) \) wet hail (Ryzhkov et al. 2011). However, since the maximum hail size is limited to 25 mm in this study, the uniform particles with Mishchenko (2000) T-matrix code can produce reasonable results.

With the obtained backscattering cross sections from raindrops and hailstones, the \( S_H \) and \( S_{ZDR} \) could be calculated with the spectral processing methods (e.g., Ulal et al. 2001; Russchenberg et al. 2008; Yu et al. 2012). For an ideal case of maximum size sorting, where each radial velocity associated with each size can be fully resolved, \( S_{ZDR} \) from raindrop will have the same shape as in Fig. 7c. In practice, the shape of \( S_{ZDR} \) will be smoothed because velocity resolution is limited by dwell time and some amounts of turbulence are likely to occur. When a mixture of rain and melting hail occurs, the shape of \( S_{ZDR} \) is difficult to visualize intuitively, and will be determined from the amount of backscattered power at each velocity bin from the H and V channels. The unattenuated Doppler spectrum (H channel) from a hydrometeor of size \( D_i \) at velocity \( v \) can be obtained using the following equation (Spek et al. 2008):

\[ S_{HH}^{un}(v)dv = \sum_{i=1}^{n} N_i(D_i)v)\sigma_{HH}(v) W(v), \quad (7) \]

where \( i = r \) for rain and \( i = h \) for hail, \( N_i(D_i) \) is the particle size distribution defined in Eq. (4) or (5), hailstones) as defined by Ryzhkov et al. (2011). When hailstones start to melt, the mass water fractions vary with diameters and can be calculated with the model proposed by Rasmussen and Heymsfield (1987). As shown in Fig. 7b, if the hailstones with diameters less than 8 mm are assumed fully melted, the mass water fraction decreases with the increase of the hailstones' size, and it reaches 0.13 when the diameter is 25 mm. This is consistent with the simulation results from Ryzhkov et al. (2013). Dielectric constants of melting hailstones are determined by the dielectric constants of water, ice, air, and water volume fraction (Ryzhkov et al. 2011). The aspect ratio of melting hail is calculated using the model proposed by Rasmussen et al. (1984). The size dependencies of \( Z_{DR} \) of melting hail are also shown in Fig. 7d, where the mean canting angle is 0°. The standard deviations of canting angle are taken as a function of mass water content following (Ryzhkov et al. 2011):

\[ \sigma = \sigma_s + f_{nw}(\sigma_s - \sigma_r), \quad (6) \]

where \( f_{nw} \) is the volume water fraction, and \( \sigma_s \) and \( \sigma_r \) are the standard deviations of canting angle distribution for raindrops and frozen hydrometeors (Ryzhkov et al. 2011). Note that using water-coated particles (i.e., with the two-layer T-matrix code) should produce more accurate simulation results, especially for very large \( (D_h > 25 \text{ mm}) \) wet hail (Ryzhkov et al. 2011). However, since the maximum hail size is limited to 25 mm in this study, the uniform particles with Mishchenko (2000) T-matrix code can produce reasonable results.

\[ \sigma = \sigma_s + f_{nw}(\sigma_s - \sigma_r), \quad (6) \]
\(\sigma_{\text{HH}}, (\sigma_{\text{VV}})\) is the backscattering cross section from horizontal (vertical) direction, and \(W(v)\) is the beam pattern at velocity \(v\), as shown in Fig. 5. The superscript “\(\text{un}\)” means that the obtained Doppler spectrum is not attenuated.

After \(S_{\text{un}}^H(v)\) is calculated using Eq. (7), attenuation effects are accounted for as

\[
S_H(v) = S_{\text{un}}^H(v) - A_h \times r, \tag{8}
\]

where \(r\) is the distance, and \(A_h\) is specific attenuation (dB km\(^{-1}\)) at horizontal polarization, which is calculated as \(A_h = 8.686 \times 10^{-3} \text{Im}(\langle f_h(0)\rangle)\). The variable \(f_h(0)\) is the forward scattering amplitude at horizontal polarization and is calculated using the T-matrix method as described above, and \(\langle f_h(0)\rangle\) is the average over the particle size distribution. Similarly, the attenuated Doppler spectrum for the V channel \(S_V\) could be calculated with \(\langle f_h(0)\rangle\), and the attenuated \(sZ_{\text{DR}}\) can be therefore obtained. It should be noted that attenuation is a path and volume integrated, and the same attenuation is applied for all the particles in the same simulated radar volume. Therefore, the specific attenuation and specific differential attenuation will affect the obtained \(Z\) and \(Z_{\text{DR}}\) (Jameson 1992; Carey et al. 2000), but the effects on the shape of \(S_h\) and \(sZ_{\text{DR}}\) can be ignored.

The next step is to determine the relationship between the drop size and radial velocity; therefore, the dependence of Doppler spectrum on drop size can be converted onto radial velocity as in Eq. (7). Specifically, the radial velocity for each size of hydrometeor in a sheared environment is determined by the background wind (Fig. 5b) and its shear-induced radial velocity obtained from Eqs. (3a) and (3b) at an elevation angle of \(\theta\). In this work, the terminal velocity for raindrops and hail (Fig. 7a) is determined by using the formula in Atlas et al. (1973) and Mitchell (1996), respectively. The spectra for each hydrometeor types and polarization are then broadened by turbulence by convolving with a Gaussian kernel of width \(\sigma_b\) (e.g., Spek et al. 2008). The resulting Doppler spectrum for the H channel \(S_H\) is the sum of the broadened spectra from rain and melting hail for the H channel.

### b. Simulation results

#### 1) CASE I: RAIN ONLY

In this case, Doppler spectrum and spectral differential reflectivity are simulated with raindrops only, and the simulated results are shown in Figs. 8 and 9, respectively. Because of the size sorting, particle size distribution shows clear vertical variations in one radial resolution volume, and these variations are simulated through changing coefficients of \(N_r\), \(\mu\), and \(\Lambda_r\) in Eq. (4). In Fig. 8, from the top to the bottom of the resolution volume, \(N_r\) (\(\Lambda_r\)) gradually changes.
from 13 000 m\(^{-3}\) mm\(^{-1}\) (1.9 mm\(^{-1}\)) to 8000 m\(^{-3}\) mm\(^{-1}\) (2.7 mm\(^{-1}\)), and the value of \(\mu\) is set as 1 in all the altitudes. All these values are within the reasonable ranges as indicated by Zhang et al. (2001). Examples of \(N_r\) from top, center, and bottom of the radar resolution volume are shown in Fig. 8c with solid, dotted, and dashed lines, respectively. Because of the size sorting, the amount of small drops shows decreasing trend from the top to the bottom in the resolution volume, and small size raindrops are gradually absent when they fall down (Kumjian and Ryzhkov 2012). Therefore, raindrops with all sizes (from 1 to 8 mm) could be found from the top of the resolution volume, but only big drops could be found from the bottom of the resolution volume. In this work, we assume raindrops with diameter smaller than 5.1 mm are totally absent at the bottom of the resolution volume. The simulated \(Z\) and \(Z_{DR}\) are shown in Figs. 8a and 8b, the obtained \(Z\), \(Z_{DR}\), and slope of \(sZ_{DR}\) are 57 dBZ, 3.9 dB, and \(-0.08\) dB (m s\(^{-1}\))\(^2\), respectively. These values are close to the observations from location 1.

Following the same procedure, the observed Doppler spectrum and spectral differential reflectivity from location 2 are simulated, and the results are shown in Figs. 9a and 9b. Different from location 1, a smaller amount of small drops are used in the simulation, but more large drops are added as shown in Fig. 9c. These large raindrops mainly come from the shedding process of melting hailstones (Ryzhkov et al. 2013). From the top of the resolution volume to the bottom, the values of \(\mu\) gradually increase from \(-1.9\) to 3.5, and the setting for \(N_r\) and \(\Lambda_r\) are the same as in location 1. The obtained \(Z\), \(Z_{DR}\), and slope of \(sZ_{DR}\) are 57 dBZ, 4.8 dB, and \(-0.16\) dB (m s\(^{-1}\))\(^2\). Comparing the results from locations 1 and 2, although they show similar \(Z\) and \(Z_{DR}\), significantly different slopes of \(sZ_{DR}\) can be found. It should be noted, in the observation, the \(sZ_{DR}\) can reach approximate 8 dB at velocity bin of \(-18\) m s\(^{-1}\), but the maximum value as simulation is around 5.12 dB. These large \(sZ_{DR}\) bins may come from big drops from fully or partially melted hail. Because the aspect ratio for such large drops or small melting hailstones are still under investigation (Thurai et al. 2013; Kumjian et al. 2018), we did not add such big drops in the simulation. As a result of lacking such big drops, the simulated \(Z_{DR}\) is 4.8 dB, which is smaller than the observed 5.7 dB.

2) CASE II: MIXTURE OF RAIN AND MELTING HAIL

In this case, a mixture of rain and melting hail is investigated, and results are shown in Figs. 10 and 11. Two scenarios are simulated with different amounts of hail, and the particle size distributions of rain are the
same. From the top to the bottom of the resolution volume, \( N_{h_0} \) (\( \lambda \)) gradually changes from \( 13 000 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ mm}^{-1} \) (1.9 mm\(^{-1} \)) to \( 8000 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ mm}^{-1} \) (2.7 mm\(^{-1} \)) as in Fig. 10c, and the value of \( \mu \) is set as 2 in all the altitudes. This particle size distribution of rain is applied to both scenarios. In Fig. 10d, \( N_{h_0} \) is set as \( 400 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ mm}^{-1} \), and \( \lambda_h \) is set as 1.14 mm\(^{-1} \) from all the altitudes in the resolution volume; the obtained \( Z \), \( Z_{DR} \), and slope of \( sZ_{DR} \) are 60 dB\( Z \), 4.2 dB, and \(-0.02 \text{ dB (m s}^{-1})^{-1} \). The simulated Doppler spectrum and spectral differential reflectivity are shown in Figs. 10a and 10b, and they show similar features as the observations from location 3 in Fig. 4. It should be noted that the \( Z \) and \( Z_{DR} \) values from locations 1, 2, and 3 show similar values, but the slope of \( sZ_{DR} \) show significantly different values. In these three locations, significant changes in the particle size distribution and hydrometeor species are simulated, but the integrated \( Z \) and \( Z_{DR} \) values are not sensitive to these changes. Therefore, the slope of \( sZ_{DR} \) could be used as an indicator of variations in the particle size distribution and classes.

In Fig. 11, from the top to the bottom of the resolution volume, \( \lambda_h \) gradually changes from 0.84 to 0.3 mm\(^{-1} \), and \( N_{h_0} \) is set as \( 400 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ mm}^{-1} \). Examples of \( N_{h_0} \) from top, center, and bottom of the radar resolution volume are shown in Fig. 11c with solid, dotted, and dashed lines, respectively. For the given particle size distributions of rain and hail, the obtained \( sZ_{DR} \) shows positive slope of 0.09 dB (m s\(^{-1} \))\(^{-1} \), which is similar to the observation from location 4. From location 2 to location 4, \( Z \) and \( Z_{DR} \) show similar values, but the slope of \( sZ_{DR} \) changes from negative to positive. With the same background wind environment, the changes in the \( sZ_{DR} \) slope are simulated through adjusting the particle size distributions. The observed \( Z \) and \( Z_{DR} \) is higher than simulation because of the attenuation, and the attenuation effect is more obvious in location 5.

3) CASE III: RAIN ONLY FROM A REGION WITHOUT VERTICAL SHEAR

The Doppler spectrum and the spectral differential reflectivity from regions away from the strong vertical shear were also examined and simulated in the current work. Three continuous locations (azimuthal angle: 240\(^{\circ} \); ranges: 44.375, 44.5, and 44.625 km) were selected because 1) they are away from the shear region, and 2) they are associated with large signal-to-noise ratio. The \( S_H \) (Figs. 12a–c) and \( sZ_{DR} \) (Figs. 12d–f) are shown in Fig. 12. The linearly fitted \( sZ_{DR} \) is also shown in Figs. 12d–f with a dashed line. It should be noted that only the high signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) portion with \( S_H(v) > 10 \text{ dB} \) (thick solid line) is used in the fitting, and the low \( S_H(v) \) portion (think dashed line) is not used in the fitting because they are associated with large fluctuation caused by low SNR. It could be found that the \( S_H \) exhibits a Gaussian-shaped spectrum, and the \( sZ_{DR} \) shows a flattop-shape signature. Because there is no
strong vertical shear, both $S_H$ and $sZ_{DR}$ are associated with small spectral width.

The simulated Doppler spectrum and the spectral differential reflectivity are presented in Fig. 13. Because there is no size sorting caused by strong vertical shear, a uniform particle size distribution is used in the whole simulation volume with the following settings: $N_{r0} = 9000 \, m^{-3} \, mm^{-1}$, $\mu = 1$, and $\lambda_r = 2 \, mm^{-1}$. Because this region is away from the hail region, there are no hailstones added in the simulation. The background wind is

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**Fig. 10.** (a) Simulated Doppler spectrum, (b) spectral differential reflectivity, (c) particle size distribution of raindrop, and (d) particle size distribution of hail. Details about the particle size distribution can be found in text. The obtained Doppler spectrum, spectral differential reflectivity, slope of $sZ_{DR}$, reflectivity, and differential reflectivity are similar to the observations from location 3.

**Fig. 11.** As in Fig. 10, but the obtained Doppler spectrum, spectral differential reflectivity, slope of $sZ_{DR}$, reflectivity, and differential reflectivity are similar to the observations from location 4.
We found that Gaussian-shaped $S_H$ with small spectral width and flattop-shaped $sZ_{DR}$ were obtained, and these results are consistent with the observations shown in Fig. 12.

5. Summary and conclusions

Spectral polarimetry links the Doppler and polarimetric information within the radar resolution volume through spectral processing. For example, Doppler spectrum and spectral differential reflectivity represent distributions of reflectivity and differential reflectivity as a function of radial velocity. In the past, spectral polarimetry has been applied to observations at higher elevations where the size sorting of hydrometeors is dominated by their size-dependent terminal velocities. In this work, spectral polarimetry was applied to observations of a hailstorm at $0^\circ$ elevation angle with the C-band OU-PRIME. Broad and flattop spectra were observed and the spectral differential reflectivity exhibited interesting and distinct variation of slopes at different ranges. It is hypothesized that those observed features in spectra of reflectivity and differential reflectivity are caused by shear-induced size sorting of a mixture of rain and melting hail in a turbulent environment. Additionally, the profiles of mean radial velocities from the lowest two elevations and mesonet wind data further support the presence of strong vertical shear. By comparing the polarimetric variables from the C-band OU-PRIME and the nearby S-band KOUN, the resonance effects at C band caused by large raindrops and melting hail are evident, which is manifested by enhanced reflectivity and differential reflectivity and decreased correlation coefficient.

Numerical simulations were carried out to study the impact of various microphysical and dynamical variables on the slope of spectral differential reflectivity.
In this work, Doppler spectrum and spectral differential reflectivity from four distinct locations are simulated using different particle size distributions and hydrometeor species in a sheared environment. The reflectivity and differential reflectivity from these four locations show similar values, but the slopes of spectral differential reflectivity show significantly different values. Through adjusting the particle size distributions within a reasonable range, the observations from these four locations could be regenerated. It should be noted that only one set of particle size distributions are used to simulate the Doppler spectrum and spectral differential reflectivity for each scenario in the current work. Other sets of particle size distribution should be able to generate similar results, and we do not enumerate all of them.

One of the limitations in spectral polarimetry for operational application is the requirement of spectral averaging. For example, 30 spectra were averaged in this work to reduce the statistical fluctuations in the spectral polarimetric variables. Even though spectral averaging can also be achieved in range, azimuthal, and frequency domain, the resolution in those domains is compromised. Fortunately, a resampling technique based on bootstrapping was recently developed to tackle this limitation to improve the quality of spectral polarimetric variables with relatively small number of samples (Umeyama 2016). It is envisioned that spectral polarimetry can be applied to other types of scenarios. For example, the study of tornado debris is one of them, where polarimetric signatures of debris are evident and centrifugal force can provide the size sorting. In this work, we focused on only one of the spectral polarimetric variables, spectral differential reflectivity, at the lowest elevation. Two other variables of spectral correlation coefficient and spectral differential phase can provide different aspects of microphysical properties. Studies on these two variables will be reported in subsequent work.

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REFERENCES


FIG. 13. As in Fig. 10, but for (a) the obtained Doppler spectrum, and (b) spectral differential reflectivity according to the observations from Fig. 12.


