

1           **How Well the Early 2017 California Atmospheric River Precipitation**  
2           **Events Were Captured by Satellite Products and Ground-based Radars?**

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12 **ABSTRACT**

13           In January and February of 2017, California experienced multiple heavy storms that  
14 caused serious destruction of facilities and economic loss, although it also helped to reduce water  
15 storage deficit due to prolonged drought in previous years. These extreme precipitation events  
16 were mainly associated with Atmospheric Rivers (ARs) and brought about 174 km<sup>3</sup> of water to  
17 California according to ground observations. This paper evaluates the performance of six  
18 commonly used satellite-based precipitation products (IMERG, 3B42RT, PERSIANN, CCS,  
19 CMORPH, and GSMaP), as well as ground-based radar products (Radar-only and Radar-lgc) in  
20 capturing the ARs precipitation rate and distribution. It is found that precipitation maps from all  
21 products present heavy precipitation in January and February, with more consistent observations  
22 over ocean than land. Though large uncertainties exist in quantitative precipitation estimation  
23 (QPE) over land, the ensemble mean of different remote sensing precipitation products over  
24 California is consistent with gauge measurements. Among the six satellite-based products,  
25 IMERG correlates the best with gauge observations both in the detection and quantification of  
26 precipitation, but it is not the best product in terms of root mean square error (RMSE) or bias.  
27 Compared to satellite products, ground weather radar shows better precipitation detectability and  
28 estimation skill. However, neither radar nor satellite QPE products have good performances in  
29 quantifying the peak precipitation intensity during the extreme events, suggesting that further  
30 advancement in quantification of extremely intense precipitation associated with AR in the  
31 Western United States is needed.

32 **KEYWORDS:** Atmospheric River, QPE, water resources, remote sensing, satellite, ground  
33 weather radar, extreme events

## Remote Sensing of 2017 California Atmospheric River Precipitation

### 34 1. Introduction

35 In January and February of 2017, excessive precipitation with local amounts exceeding  
36 1000 mm, fell in Pacific coast and Western United States. The extreme precipitation alleviated  
37 ongoing drought conditions in California, but also produced catastrophic flooding and landslides  
38 in the Bay Area, wrecked Oroville Dam's spillway, and closed Interstate 80 in the Sierra Nevada  
39 under record-breaking blizzards (Taylor, 2017). These extreme precipitation events were  
40 predominantly fueled by long and narrow channels of large integrated water vapor transport  
41 commonly referred to as Atmospheric Rivers (ARs) (Zhu and Newell, 1994; Ralph et al., 2006).

42 ARs generally start from mid-latitude oceanic regions, but it can stall as they move  
43 onshore, leading to prolonged rainfall and flooding. **While ARs occur globally, their impacts are**  
44 **most significant when they make landfall and interact with the topography (Gimeno et al. 2014).**

45 A number of studies have examined the importance of ARs in producing flooding in California  
46 and other western states (e.g., Ralph et al., 2004, 2006). It is concluded that ARs, combined with  
47 orographic enhancement and intense wind are key factors determining the extent of heavy rain  
48 and flood (Ralph et al., 2003; Waliser et al., 2017). In addition, Neiman et al. (2008) used a  
49 combination of satellite and ground based data and showed that, at least in California, ARs  
50 produce twice as much precipitation as all other storms. Guan et al. (2010, 2013) cited about 40%  
51 of the annual snow accumulation in California's Sierra Nevada was during ARs over the period  
52 of water years 2004-2010. Therefore, accurate measurement of extreme precipitation associated  
53 with ARs at a range of spatial and temporal resolutions is invaluable for a variety of scientific  
54 applications, ranging from real-time flood forecast to the evaluation of regional application of  
55 weather and water models.

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56 For such large-scale atmospheric systems, only remote sensors can provide good  
57 coverage of comprehensive precipitation observations at relatively high spatiotemporal  
58 resolution. Over ocean, and before ARs make landfall, satellite can be used to retrieve  
59 precipitation associated with AR systems. After ARs move onshore, ground weather radar  
60 network provides intensive observations of ARs. However, accurate measurement of  
61 precipitation from ARs over western U.S. remains challenging due to complex precipitation  
62 microphysics caused by land-ocean interaction in the coastal zone and complex terrains in the  
63 mountainous region. First, the lower tropospheric air temperature during AR is warmer than  
64 other winter storms. In addition, once such systems make landfall over the mountainous west,  
65 they generate substantial orographic precipitation. Moreover, a large fraction of land surface in  
66 the western U.S. during AR in winter is snow or ice. These features make it difficult for  
67 spaceborne passive microwave (PMW) or infrared (IR) sensors, or even the active ground-based  
68 radars to estimate precipitation. IR-based techniques are indirect and incline to underestimate  
69 heavy precipitation from shallow clouds and false detect precipitation over ice and snow surface  
70 (Kidd et al., 2003; Behrangi et al., 2009). PMW-based retrieval has better physics than IR  
71 method. At low frequency band, PMW sensors are able to sense the thermal emission of rain,  
72 whereas at higher frequency band the PMW sensors can detect scattering properties of ice  
73 particles in the precipitation layer and on tops of convective systems. However, PMW-based  
74 techniques also have difficulties in capturing warm rains (Neiman et al. 2005). In addition, the  
75 ice and snow surface adds more uncertainties to PMW-based precipitation retrievals. Ground  
76 weather radar dramatically increases the ability of observing precipitation in high space and time  
77 resolutions through measuring reflectivity from reflected precipitation echoes. The ice and snow  
78 surface does not affect radar precipitation measurements. Despite these advances, reliable ground

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79 radar based precipitation measurements are difficult to obtain over mountainous regions, due to  
80 the uncertainties associated with empirical  $Z - R$  relations and inadequate coverage induced by  
81 terrain blockages (Maddox et al. 2002; Willie et al. 2017). In order to quantify the uncertainties  
82 in observing AR extreme precipitations, the gauge measurements, which are relatively dense  
83 over the U.S., can be used to assess the weaknesses and strengths of various space and ground  
84 radar quantitative precipitation estimation (QPE) products. The insights gained from these  
85 analyses can help algorithm developers design more robust retrieval methods. Furthermore, it  
86 can provide users with a better quantitative understanding of the range of uncertainties that the  
87 current remote sensing products offer. While the outcome of the present study over the Western  
88 US may not be directly transferable to many other regions of the world, it can provide an overall  
89 insight on the range of uncertainties that one may expect over similar conditions.

90 Behrangi et al. (2016) investigated a broader set of ARs over western United States using  
91 various space-based precipitation products. The objective of this paper is to assess the  
92 performance of several popular multi-satellite precipitation products and ground radar network  
93 precipitation products in capturing extreme precipitation brought by ARs in January and  
94 February 2017 at finer temporal resolution (3-hourly scale). This study was inspired by Behrangi  
95 et al. (2016) and also motivated by a series of natural disaster related events (e.g., the epic 2017  
96 California floods and mudslides) caused by excessive precipitation brought by ARs. Accurate  
97 estimation of rainfall during such extreme events is critical for California water resource  
98 management and flood protection (Cifelli et al. 2017). This study is also motivated by the recent  
99 development of satellite based precipitation retrievals. Two new products included in this study,  
100 namely, IMERG and GSMaP are probably the two most used products in the GPM era. Hence,  
101 we take this opportunity to explore if the current remote sensing technology would have

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102 improved the near-real-time QPE in challenging circumstances (i.e., extreme events over  
103 complex terrain, coastal region, complex cloud microphysics processes, and cold season when  
104 snowfall and snow on the surface add other dimensions to the listed challenges). The remainder  
105 of this paper is organized as follows. In section 2 we describe the datasets used in the study.  
106 Section 3 presents differences among different remote sensing precipitation products. Section 4  
107 investigates the performance of various precipitation products focusing on one extreme event,  
108 and the paper is concluded in Section 5.

### 109 **2. Precipitation dataset, study area and methods**

110 In this study, AR events were first defined by the Integrated Water Vapor (IWV) from  
111 NASA Modern-Era Retrospective Analysis for Research Application, version 2 (MERRA-2)  
112 (Gelaro et al., 2017) greater than 20mm. Consequently, all precipitation occurring in this area in  
113 January and February of 2017.

#### 114 *a. Satellite Products*

115 A number of multi-satellite precipitation products have been developed and available to  
116 the public, such as 1) Integrated Multi-satellitE Retrievals for Global Precipitation Measurement  
117 (IMERG) (Huffman and Bolvin, 2015; Huffman et al, 2016), 2) the Tropical Rainfall Measuring  
118 Mission (TRMM) Multisatellite Precipitation Analysis (TMPA) 3B42 real-time, version 7  
119 (3B42RT; Huffman et al. 2007), 3) Precipitation Estimation from Remotely Sensed Information  
120 using Artificial Neural Networks (PERSIANN) (Sorooshian et al., 2000), 4) PERSIANN-Cloud  
121 Classification System (CCS) (Hong et al., 2004), 5) CPC MORPHing technique (CMORPH)  
122 (Joyce et al., 2004; Xie et al., 2017), and 6) Global Satellite Mapping of Precipitation (GSMaP)  
123 (Kubota et al., 2007). All these products provide near-real-time (NRT) precipitation estimates  
124 without infusion of rain gauge information, as well as post-real-time (PRT) estimates with gauge

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125 adjustment. PRT products are more accurate than NRT products in most cases (e.g., Behrangi et  
126 al., 2011), but the latency of PRT products generally is up to months. For real-time flood  
127 warning operations, NRT is the only choice to provide timely information. Therefore, it is  
128 important to understand how well NRT products can capture the rainstorms in January and  
129 February of 2017 in California.

130         The IMERG Late run product is designed to combine data from all satellites in the Global  
131 Precipitation Measurement (GPM) constellation. The new version V04A of IMERG Late run is  
132 used in this paper. TRMM 3B42RT combines various PMW-derived precipitation estimates with  
133 PMW-calibrated IR-based estimates, and relies on climatology for bias adjustment. GSMaP  
134 takes advantage of precipitation retrievals from TRMM and other low Earth orbit satellites and  
135 interpolates them via spatial propagation information obtained from IR data. The PERSIANN  
136 and CCS derive precipitation purely from a single IR channel (~11  $\mu\text{m}$ ). PERSIANN is a pixel-  
137 based approach and PMW precipitation retrievals are used to update the parameters that relate IR  
138 to precipitation intensity, whereas CCS is a patch-based approach in which the relation between  
139 IR and precipitation rate is established for each class of cloud patches. CMORPH produces a  
140 temporally and spatially complete precipitation field by morphing the PMW precipitation data  
141 using motion vectors derived from geostationary satellite IR data. In another word, CMORPH  
142 uses precipitation estimates exclusively from PMW retrievals. The spatial and temporal  
143 resolution of different remote sensing precipitation products are summarized in Table 1. For the  
144 sake of evaluation, we mapped all the products onto common  $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$  spatial and 3-h  
145 temporal resolution grids in this study. **For all products with original spatial resolution higher  
146 than  $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ , the remapping was performed by averaging all fine resolution grids that fall  
147 inside the grid with coarser resolutions. The degradation of hourly products to 3-h temporal**

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148 resolution was achieved by averaging all the times steps falling within the coarser time window.  
149 It is important to note that satellite and surface instruments measure fundamentally different  
150 quantities. The remote sensing observations, the TRMM for example, measures the volume-  
151 integrated MW emission within the instrument's instantaneous field of view, while the gauge  
152 measurements can only represent one location point. Interpolating to the common grids cannot  
153 solve the mismatch among different products with different resolutions.

### 154 *b. Multi-Radar/Multi-Sensor (MRMS) precipitation products*

155 MRMS is a quantitative precipitation estimation (QPE) system integrating radar, rain  
156 gauge, and numerical weather prediction data. It generates automated, seamless national 3D  
157 radar mosaic and multisensory precipitation estimates (Zhang et al. 2016). Currently, MRMS  
158 mainly produces four types of QPE products: 1) radar-based QPE, 2) gauge-based QPE, 3) local  
159 gauge bias-corrected radar QPE, and 4) gauge-and-precipitation-climatology-merged QPE. In  
160 this study, we used the first three QPE products since the last one is still under test.

161 Radar-based QPE (hereafter referred to as Radar-only) is derived using different  
162 empirical  $Z - R$  relationships for different surface precipitation types, such as warm or cold  
163 stratiform rain, convective rain, tropical-stratiform or tropical-convective rain mix (Zhang et al.  
164 2016). Polarimetric variables are not used in the operational version because various polarimetric  
165 radar QPE schemes are still under evaluation across CONUS. Radar QPE provides a high-  
166 resolution and rapid update of spatial precipitation distributions, but also carries uncertainties in  
167 the estimates because of imperfect empirical relationships between radar reflectivity and  
168 precipitation rate, as well as discrepancies between radar measurements aloft and rainfall near  
169 the ground caused by precipitation changes in the vertical. Radar QPE is challenging over this



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170 study domain characterized by complex terrain, but it is commonly used to validate satellite  
171 precipitation products (e.g., Kirstetter et al. 2012).

172 The gauge-only QPE (hereafter referred to Gauge) products archived in MRMS system  
173 are interpolated based on hourly rainfall records mainly from approximately 7,000 rain gauges  
174 from the Hydrometeorological Automated Data System (HADS;  
175 <https://hads.ncep.noaa.gov/index.shtml>). These gauge data are quality controlled through an  
176 automated scheme that compares each gauge report with collocated hourly radar QPE values.  
177 Gauge measurements outside a predefined range around the hourly radar QPE are filtered out as  
178 bad data. The quality-controlled gauge data are then interpolated onto MRMS  $0.01^\circ \times 0.01^\circ$  grid  
179 via an inverse-distance-weighting (IDW) scheme. In January and February over high elevation  
180 region, the phase of precipitation is mainly snow, which is unable to be measured by tipping-  
181 bucket gauges. Fortunately, some HADS gauges installed in California are with antifreeze  
182 solution or with heater, which are capable of measuring frozen precipitation.

183 The local gauge bias-corrected radar QPE (hereafter referred to Radar-lgc) adopts a bias  
184 correction method described in Ware (2015). First, the hourly rainfall differences between radar  
185 and gauges at each gauge station are interpolated onto MRMS grids via an IDW scheme. The  
186 interpolated difference field is then subtracted from the hourly radar QPE field. Generally, the  
187 local gauge bias correction provides consistent improvements over the radar-only QPE (Zhang et  
188 al., 2016). But a study presented by Willie et al (2017), who evaluated various MRMS products  
189 at different time scales over this region, showed that although radar rainfall performance would  
190 be enhanced after VPR and gauge correction, the improvement was not really significant. Note  
191 that the Radar-lgc product is not purely independent from Gauge product in this study. The

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192 comparisons between radar-only and gauge adjusted products can help understand the  
193 dependencies in the validation analysis.

### 194 *c. Study region*

195 The study region (Fig. 1j) includes the Eastern North Pacific Ocean before AR landfall  
196 and mountainous areas with high elevations that can induce orographic enhancement. ARs can  
197 be observed before, during, and after they make landfall and hit mountainous areas with high  
198 elevations. For comparison of different precipitation products, precipitation total, intensity and  
199 distribution are investigated both over ocean and over land. Over ocean, validation of satellite  
200 product is challenging due to the lack of in situ measurement, so cross validation of satellite QPE  
201 products among themselves is conducted. Over land, because the western United States is fairly  
202 well instrumented with rain gauges, the evaluation of various remote sensors' capability of  
203 observing extreme precipitation is conducted in a smaller region (see red box in Fig. 1j) in  
204 California using MRMS gauge QPE product as reference. This area was selected because 1) it  
205 received the largest volume of precipitation in early 2017 compared to other areas; 2) the  
206 excessive precipitation had significant impacts on the State of California, including catastrophic  
207 flooding and landslides, also alleviating drought conditions.

### 208 *d. Verification statistics*

209 Two major aspects to address for the difference between remote sensing QPE products  
210 and gauge measurements are (1) the capability to detect precipitation and (2) the accuracy in  
211 quantifying precipitation rate. Simple contingency table statistics are applied to answer the first  
212 question. The contingency table statistics describing the probability of detection (POD), false  
213 alarm ratio (FAR), and critical success index (CSI) are used to evaluate remote sensing QPE

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214 products. These indexes are computed based on the number of hits (H), false alarms (F), and  
215 misses (M).

$$216 \quad \text{POD} = H/(H+M) \quad (1a)$$

$$217 \quad \text{CSI} = H/(H+F+M) \quad (1b)$$

$$218 \quad \text{FAR} = F/(H+F) \quad (1c)$$

219 To answer the second question, four statistical indices for evaluating remote sensing QPE  
220 products are selected. The Relative Bias (RB) is used to assess the systematic bias of products.  
221 Spearman's rank correlation coefficient (CC) is used to assess the agreement between remote  
222 sensing products and gauge observations. The mean absolute error (MAE) measures the average  
223 magnitude of the error while the root-mean-squared error (RMSE) weights more to larger errors.

$$224 \quad \text{RB} = \frac{\sum P(i) - \sum G(i)}{\sum G(i)} \times 100\%, \quad (2a)$$

$$225 \quad \text{CC} = 1 - \frac{6 \sum (\text{Rank}_{P(i)} - \text{Rank}_{G(i)})^2}{N(N^2 - 1)}, \quad (2b)$$

$$226 \quad \text{MAE} = \frac{\sum |P(i) - G(i)|}{N}, \text{ and} \quad (2c)$$

$$227 \quad \text{RMSE} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (P(i) - G(i))^2}{N}} \quad (2d)$$

228 Here,  $P(i)$  and  $G(i)$  represent the  $i^{\text{th}}$  matching pair of rainfall amounts estimated by remote  
229 sensing products and observed by gauges, respectively. And  $N$  represents the total number of  
230 matching pairs. In (2b),  $\text{Rank}_{P(i)}$  and  $\text{Rank}_{G(i)}$  represent the assigned rank value in the  
231 ascending order of the remote sensing products and gauge observations, respectively. Only data  
232 pairs with nonzero values from both gauge and remote sensing sources are considered as the four  
233 indices are focused on quantitative measurement rather than detection.

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### 234 3. Uncertainty of remote sensing QPE products

235 Figure 1(a-h) shows maps of total accumulation of AR-driven precipitation estimated by  
236 satellites and ground radars in January and February of 2017. Gauge data from MRMS (Fig. 1h)  
237 are used as a reference for total precipitation comparison over land. Corresponding digital  
238 elevation map is shown in Fig. 1j. **Because there is no gauge measurement of precipitation, the**  
239 **relative performance of satellite QPE products is not evaluated over ocean.** Fig. 1a-f show that  
240 satellite products are fairly consistent in capturing the precipitation pattern over ocean, except  
241 large discrepancy to the west of southern British Columbia (Lat: 50°, Long: -130°), where the  
242 IR-based products (i.e., PERSIANN and CCS) show much lower precipitation than other  
243 products in this region. IR-based QPE retrieval algorithms are mainly based on the general  
244 assumption that colder or higher clouds statistically produce more intense rainfall, so they are  
245 prone to underestimate heavy precipitation from ARs with the bulk of the water vapor flux  
246 generally below 850 hPa (Rahph et al., 2005). Over land, gauge product shows the highest  
247 precipitation occurred over Sierra Nevada, likely due to the orographic lifting of precipitation on  
248 the windward side of the mountains. Among all the eight remote-sensing QPE products, GSMaP  
249 generates the highest precipitation amount and largest precipitation area over and in the vicinity  
250 of the Sierra Nevada. CMORPH, purely based on PMW sensors, barely captures precipitation  
251 over snow and frozen lands, which is in agreement with the study presented in Behrangi et al.  
252 (2016).

253 In capturing the precipitation observed by Gauge, CCS captures the orographic  
254 precipitation pattern over Sierra Nevada but underestimates the precipitation amount compared  
255 to gauge measurements. Also, CCS shows the largest precipitation coverage overall. Especially  
256 in the interior western United States region, CCS presents the highest precipitation among all

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257 products including MRMS local gauge bias-corrected radar QPE and gauge QPE products. The  
258 MRMS Radar Only product shows underestimation compared to gauge measurements. The  
259 artifact precipitation circles in the precipitation map indicate the radar beam might be too high  
260 and sampling the mixed-phase precipitation above the freezing level. As expected, Radar-lgc  
261 product is fairly consistent with gauge-based product since it is calibrated with gauge  
262 measurements.

263 Figure 2 shows the ensemble mean and standard deviation of monthly precipitation  
264 accumulations calculated from five satellite products, IMERG, GSMaP, PERSIANN, CCS, and  
265 CMORPH. Consistent with that observed in Figure 1, the ensemble means of monthly  
266 precipitation (Fig. 2a and 2b) show two precipitation centers, one is over ocean, and the other is  
267 along the Sierra Nevada. However, compared to the monthly precipitation derived from MRMS  
268 gauge product (Fig. 2e and 2f), the ensemble mean of space-based products shows severe  
269 underestimation. Figure 2c and 2d show higher agreement of different products over ocean (low  
270 standard deviation) but lower agreement over land (high standard deviation), especially in the  
271 Sierra Nevada region.

272 Fig. 3 (a) and (b) present the histograms of precipitation intensity of different products  
273 over ocean and land, respectively. The precipitation intensity investigated here are all greater  
274 than zero. Due to the lack of ground-radar and rain gauge over ocean, only precipitation derived  
275 from satellite observations are available to show the fraction of total precipitation over ocean.  
276 Fig. 3a shows that the largest fractions of precipitation volume of 3B42RT, CMORPH, CCS, and  
277 GSMaP are all located around  $1 \text{ mm hr}^{-1}$ . IMERG has a wider distribution compared to other  
278 products. GPM Level 3 data, IMERG, has a better detectability of light precipitation, which may  
279 explain the higher fraction of intensity between  $0.01 \text{ mm hr}^{-1}$  to  $0.2 \text{ mm hr}^{-1}$ . Compared to

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280 IMERG, 3B42RT has limitations to observe light precipitation below  $0.2 \text{ mm hr}^{-1}$ . PERSIANN  
281 and CCS are both IR-based QPE products, but their histogram curves are different. CCS adopts a  
282 patch-based approach in which the relation between IR and precipitation rate is established for  
283 different classes of cloud patch. As a result, the precipitation histogram of CCS is wider than  
284 PERSIANN, with higher fractions in both very light precipitation (below  $0.03 \text{ mm hr}^{-1}$ ) and  
285 moderate/heavy precipitation (higher than  $1 \text{ mm hr}^{-1}$ ). Over land, both satellite and radar  
286 products are shown in Fig. 3b with Gauge as the reference. For a fair comparison, CMORPH is  
287 excluded in this figure, because it has extremely low detectability over snow and ice surfaces.  
288 Compared to gauge measurements, 3B42RT, CCS and GSMaP place more fraction of  
289 precipitation in the high intensity range (greater than  $2 \text{ mm hr}^{-1}$ ), which is consistent with  
290 previous studies. For example, Behrangi et al (2016) found CCS placed a significant fraction of  
291 precipitation in the mid-intensity range between 4 and  $40 \text{ mm day}^{-1}$  by analyzing 10-yr AR  
292 landfalling data. Tang et al (2017) found 3B42RT and GSMaP have overestimation of severe  
293 storm precipitation in the summer 2016 in South China by comparing to merged gauge QPE  
294 product. Histogram of precipitation intensity measured by ground radar is close to that measured  
295 by gauge but misses up to 50% of heavy rain with intensity greater than  $2 \text{ mm hr}^{-1}$ . There are two  
296 reasons. First, in the relatively flat environment, the radar beams are too high to sample the  
297 surface rainfall (Wen et al., 2013), causing large errors in surface rainfall estimation because of  
298 the vertical variations of reflectivity. On the other hand, in the mountainous area, it is  
299 challenging to find appropriate Z-R relations suitable to the complex rainfall processes including  
300 bright band rain with robust ice processes and subsequent melting and non-bright band rain  
301 dominated by collision and coalescence below the melting level resulting from orographic

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302 enhancement (Martner et al., 2008). After bias-calibrated by gauges, Radar-lgc shifts some  
303 extent to the gauge.

### 304 4. Case study perspective

305 Because of the important impacts of ARs in California, we chose a research region  
306 (shown in Fig.1j) focusing on California and look into the event with the heaviest rainfall to  
307 further investigate the performance of various remote sensing QPE products. The study area, as  
308 indicated in Figure 1j, is about 300,000 km<sup>2</sup>, including the mountains and the Central Valley area.

309 Figure 4 shows time series of area-averaged precipitation rate over the study area  
310 measured by gauge. The precipitation was mainly brought by four major AR events significantly  
311 contributing to the annual water resources in California. The local maximum rainfall intensity  
312 reached 10.67 mm hr<sup>-1</sup> (3-hr average) occurred at 6:00UTC, January 9 based on ground stations.  
313 Table 2 presents the total volume of precipitation brought by the four AR events to California  
314 measured by the ground gauges and remote sensors. According to the gauge products, Event 1  
315 (Jan. 2 to Jan. 13) brings the largest precipitation volume (60 km<sup>3</sup>) within 12 days, more than the  
316 monthly average flow of liquid water (45 km<sup>3</sup> per month) at the mouth of the Mississippi River  
317 (Syed et al., 2005). The water transported by the four studied AR events to California ranges  
318 from 36 km<sup>3</sup> to 60 km<sup>3</sup>, totally ~174 km<sup>3</sup> water precipitating in California in January and  
319 February of 2017. Precipitation estimated from space and ground radar has underestimation or  
320 overestimation issues compared to that measured by gauges. However, ensemble mean of  
321 precipitation amount calculated from IMERG, 3B42, PERSIANN, CCS, GSMaP and Radar-only  
322 shows reasonable performance, covering the gauge measurements within one stand deviation  
323 (STD) range for all four events. Further investigation of remote sensing capability of capturing

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324 extreme precipitation event is conducted on Event 1, the heaviest precipitation case of the four  
325 events.

326 Fig. 5 presents the time series of area-averaged precipitation rate over the study area  
327 generated from eight remote sensing QPE products along with the gauge data as the reference.  
328 CMORPH has severe underestimation all the time because of PMW sensors' limitation over  
329 snow and frozen surface as discussed in previous sessions. 3B42RT has almost 3-times  
330 overestimation compared to gauge measurements on the first precipitation peak on January 8.  
331 Not only the 3B42RT has overestimation issues, but also GSMaP (two-times higher), CCS and  
332 PERSIANN are all higher than the gauge measurements of the precipitation on January 8.  
333 However, for the lower precipitation peak occurred on January 11, only GSMaP overestimates  
334 the precipitation, while other products have underestimation. IMERG generally reports less  
335 precipitation compared to that measured by gauge. Ground weather radar captures the temporal  
336 pattern of precipitation, but underestimates the total precipitation amount. Radar-lgc is consistent  
337 with gauge measurements simply because this product is corrected by quality-controlled gauge  
338 measurements.

339 Figure 6 shows POD, FAR and CSI as a function of 3-hourly precipitation intensity  
340 measured by gauge from Event 1. The POD generally shows a trend of improving values with  
341 increasing precipitation intensity for all products. This improvement indicates that remote  
342 sensing products likely miss the light precipitation. 3B42RT has the lowest POD at all  
343 precipitation intensities. IMERG and GSMaP show better performance of POD than others. For  
344 FAR, all products generally show decreasing trends. Note that for the precipitation intensity  
345 below  $0.2 \text{ mm hr}^{-1}$ , the high FAR values exhibited by all products are probably related to rain  
346 gauge sensitivity, which sets to approximately  $0.2 \text{ mm/tip}$ . Overall, PERERSIANN and CCS



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347 have higher FAR than other products for moderate precipitation. For heavy precipitation with  
348 intensity greater than  $5 \text{ mm hr}^{-1}$ , FARs of GSMaP and 3B42RT are the largest. IMERG shows  
349 the best FAR for precipitation intensity  $> 0.4 \text{ mm hr}^{-1}$  among all satellite products. The CSI  
350 value gives a comprehensive evaluation of detectability of remote sensing products. The radar-  
351 based products have highest CSIs. The difference between radar-only and radar-lgc is negligible.  
352 Among all satellite products, IMERG shows the best CSI scores.

353 Table 3 presents the metrics calculated based on event scale for Event 1 to assess the  
354 accuracy of remote sensing products in quantifying precipitation rate. IMERG performs much  
355 better than other satellite QPE products in terms of CC. The RB of IMERG is down to -45.84%,  
356 while the CCS, 3B42RT, and PERSIANN are -13.12%, 28.31%, and -28.45%, respectively.  
357 However, it is worth noting that the MAE of IMERG is lower than CCS, 3B42RT, and  
358 PERSIANN, suggesting that better RB of these three products maybe resulted from the  
359 cancellation of positive and negative biases. It should be noted that we also investigated the  
360 version 3 IMERG (not shown) and it shows anomalously high RB, MAE, and RMSE, likely due  
361 to an error in the V03 algorithm. It is encouraging that V04 IMERG has resolved the problem  
362 and appears as one of the best among the other products. **The statistical scores of radar-only  
363 product are slightly better than IMERG. The comparisons of all events are included in Table 4  
364 and the results are similar to the ones based on Event 1 shown in Table 3.**

365 **The error of remote sensing products compared to gauge on 3-hourly scale is shown in**  
366 **Fig. 7.** Figure 7 shows the median, the quartile, and the range (10% and 90%) of the error  
367 distribution based on Event 1 and all the four events. Only data pairs with nonzero values from  
368 both gauge and remote sensing sources are considered since the boxplots in Fig. 7 is focused on  
369 quantitative measurement rather than detection. Fig. 7 shows that the performances of all remote

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370 sensing products are fairly good in terms of the median value of the error. GSMaP has  
371 overestimations, while other products show underestimations. Radar product, as the ground  
372 based active MW sensor, shows the best performance in terms of the median value and the range  
373 among all remote sensing products as we expect. For satellite products, the medians of  
374 PERSIANN and CCS are closer to zero than other ones. However, the range of PERSIANN and  
375 CCS are larger than IMERG. The 3B42RT shows the largest positive error and largest range of  
376 error.

377         The intense rainfall could trigger floods, thus accurate estimation of extreme rainfall is  
378 always critical for flood monitoring, forecasting, and migrating (Gourley et al. 2017). Figure 8  
379 shows the error distribution of remote sensing products focusing on heavy precipitation  
380 observations. The threshold to select heavy precipitation measurements is 3-hour-intensity  
381 greater than  $5 \text{ mm hr}^{-1}$ . Compared to Fig. 7, the performances of all products degrade. CMORPH  
382 has the largest negative error. CCS, PERSIANN, IMERG, and Radar Only have severe  
383 underestimation as well. The medians of 3B42RT and GSMaP are closer to zero than other  
384 products, which can be attributed to the severe overestimation in the precipitation peak time  
385 (indicated in Fig. 5).

386         The evaluation metrics of remote sensing QPE products at 3-hourly scale for Event 1 are  
387 shown in Table 5 and for all the four events are shown in Table 6. However, we want to note that  
388 the results based on all four events are similar to those for the first event (with largest  
389 precipitation). For all measurements including precipitation with different intensities (left part of  
390 the table), Radar-only, GSMaP and IMERG perform better than other products in terms of CC.  
391 Radar-only and IMERG are better than GSMaP in terms of RB, MAE and RMSE. As a whole,  
392 the performances of Radar-only and IMERG are the best considering the four metrics used in

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393 this study, which is consistent with Fig. 7. However, the performances of all products are  
394 seriously degraded when statistics applied to heavy precipitation only (right part in Table 5). The  
395 CC of Radar-Only is 0.24 and the best CCs of satellite products is 0.17 from 3B42RT. The RBs  
396 of all products are also deteriorated from the whole dataset to heavy precipitation. Table 5 Table  
397 6 are consistent with Fig. 7 and Fig. 8, indicating that severe limitations exist in remote sensing  
398 products in extreme heavy precipitation estimation, though the performance is reasonable when  
399 considering the whole events.

### 400 5. Summary and conclusions

401 ARs are critical to the regional climate, hydrology, water resources, and socioeconomics  
402 in the semiarid western United States. The ARs precipitation events in January and February of  
403 2017 brought totally 174 km<sup>3</sup> of water to California, alleviated drought but also caused floods  
404 and landslides. Accurate measurement of extreme precipitation associated with ARs is critical  
405 for flood/landslide forecasting and water resources management. *The Western U. S. is fairly well  
406 instrumented and thus provides a good testbed to assess the performance of the remote sensing  
407 products under various challenging conditions such as extreme rain and snow events, orographic  
408 precipitation, and precipitation on frozen surfaces.* This study assesses six satellite-based near  
409 real-time precipitation products (IMERG, 3B42RT, PERSIANN, CCS, CMORPH, and GSMaP)  
410 and two ground radar-based precipitation products (MRMS Radar-only and Radar-lgc) in  
411 capturing AR's precipitation rate and distribution, especially in extreme events. The main results  
412 are summarized as follows:

413 1) The precipitation map from gauge shows more than 1000 mm precipitation occurred  
414 over and in the Sierra Nevada in two months. All satellite QPE products except GSMaP  
415 underestimate the heavy precipitation. IMERG, 3B42RT, PERSIANN, and CCS are able to

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416 capture the heavy rain pattern over the Sierra Nevada, but underestimate the total precipitation  
417 amount by -40%, -50%, -60% and -30%, respectively, compared to gauge measurements. In  
418 terms of the statistical performance over land, IMERG correlates the best with gauge  
419 observations both in the detection and quantification of precipitation, but it does not yield the  
420 best RB and RMSE. CMORPH misses the most precipitation over snow and ice surface.

421 2) Over ocean, different satellite products show similar precipitation patterns, except in  
422 the area close to the west of southern British Columbia where the precipitation is captured by  
423 IMERG, CMORPH, and GSMaP, but missed by IR methods (PERSIANN and CCS).

424 3) 3B42RT has the lowest POD at all precipitation intensities. At the same time, 3B42RT  
425 overestimates precipitation significantly at peak intensity. Both PERSIANN and CCS have false  
426 alarm issues with precipitation detection. GSMaP has fairly good detectability skill but tends to  
427 have false alarm issues at heavy precipitation. IMERG shows better performance than others in  
428 terms of POD and FAR, hence yields the best CSI. The significant improvement of IMERG  
429 compared to 3B42 is particularly encouraging.

430 4) The histograms of precipitation intensity show that the largest fraction of precipitation  
431 volume of 3B42RT, CMORPH, CCS, and GSMaP are all located around  $1 \text{ mm hr}^{-1}$ . IMERG has  
432 a wider distribution due to its better detectability of light precipitation. In the high intensity range  
433 (greater than  $2 \text{ mm hr}^{-1}$ ), 3B42RT, CCS and GSMaP place more fraction of precipitation  
434 compared to gauge, while IMERG and PERSIANN have lower fraction.

435 5) Compared to satellite products, ground weather radar shows better performance in  
436 precipitation detection and estimation. However, accurate radar QPE over western U.S. remains  
437 challenging due to complex precipitation microphysics in this mountainous region. Radar shows  
438 totally 38% underestimation of rainfall compared to gauge and prone to underestimate the heavy

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439 precipitation with intensity greater than 2 mm hr<sup>-1</sup>. Radar-Igc is consistent with gauge  
440 measurements because it is bias corrected using gauge measurements.

441 6) For extremely heavy precipitation (3-hourly precipitation rate > 5 mm hr<sup>-1</sup>), none of  
442 the products show good performance in quantifying the precipitation intensity.

443 The insights gained from these analyses can help algorithm developers design more  
444 robust retrieval methods. Furthermore, it can provide users with a better quantitative  
445 understanding of the range of uncertainties that the current remote sensing products offer. While  
446 the outcome of the present study over the Western US may not be directly transferable to many  
447 other regions of the world, it can provide an overall insight on the range of uncertainties that one  
448 may expect over similar conditions.

449 Further analysis is needed to investigate different phases of AR precipitation. The same  
450 amount of water with liquid or solid phase would have significantly different impacts on  
451 hydrological cycle, hazard forecast, and water resources management. In current study, rain  
452 gauges cannot provide snowfall information. Snow Telemetry (SNOTEL) measures snowfall  
453 over the western U. S. and thus provides an opportunity to assess remote sensing snowfall  
454 products (Serreze et al. 1999; Wen et al. 2017). Efforts are underway to investigate the  
455 liquid/frozen ratio of AR precipitation and assess the performance of commonly used remote  
456 sensing QPE products in separating solid and liquid precipitations.

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580 **Table 6.** Similar to Table 5, but the results are based on precipitation from all 4 events.

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581 Table 1. A summary of QPE products used in this study.

Data	Spatial resolution	Temporal resolution	Data source
IMERG	0.1°×0.1°	0.5-hour	<a href="ftp://jsimpson.pps.eosdis.nasa.gov">ftp://jsimpson.pps.eosdis.nasa.gov</a>
3B42RT	0.25°×0.25°	3-hour	<a href="https://mirador.gsfc.nasa.gov">https://mirador.gsfc.nasa.gov</a>
PERSIANN	0.25°×0.25°	1-hour	<a href="ftp://persiann.eng.uci.edu/CHRSdata/PERSIANN">ftp://persiann.eng.uci.edu/CHRSdata/PERSIANN</a>
CCS	0.04°×0.04°	0.5-hour	<a href="ftp://persiann.eng.uci.edu/CHRSdata/PERSIANN-CCS">ftp://persiann.eng.uci.edu/CHRSdata/PERSIANN-CCS</a>
CMORPH	0.25°×0.25°	1-hour	<a href="https://rda.ucar.edu/datasets">https://rda.ucar.edu/datasets</a>
GSMaP	0.1°×0.1°	1-hour	<a href="ftp://rainmap@hokusai.eorc.jaxa.jp">ftp://rainmap@hokusai.eorc.jaxa.jp</a>
MRMS Radaronly	0.01°×0.01°	2-minute	<a href="http://mrms.ncep.noaa.gov/data">http://mrms.ncep.noaa.gov/data</a>
MRMS Radar-lgc	0.01°×0.01°	1-hour	<a href="http://mrms.ncep.noaa.gov/data">http://mrms.ncep.noaa.gov/data</a>
MRMS Gauge	0.01°×0.01°	1-hour	<a href="http://mrms.ncep.noaa.gov/data">http://mrms.ncep.noaa.gov/data</a>

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582 Table 2. Total amount of precipitation integrated over California for 4 major AR events in  
 583 January and February of 2017. The unit is km<sup>3</sup>.

	Event 1 1/2 - 1/13	Event 2 1/17 - 1/25	Event 3 2/2 - 2/13	Event 4 2/15 - 2/23	January	February	Total
IMERG	30.60	16.74	27.72	23.03	47.33	50.74	98.08
3B42RT	54.99	7.51	30.31	10.50	62.50	40.80	103.31
PERSIANN	33.02	13.83	18.94	20.19	46.85	39.13	85.98
CCS	46.25	26.26	31.55	32.90	72.51	64.46	136.97
CMORPH	8.43	5.91	8.87	9.20	14.34	18.07	32.418
GSMaP	69.03	62.88	64.98	65.25	131.91	130.23	262.14
Radar-only	37.81	28.15	24.70	28.01	65.96	52.71	118.67
Radar-lgc	61.04	36.95	41.27	37.70	97.99	78.98	176.97
gauge	60.64	35.58	41.11	36.54	96.22	77.65	173.87
Ensemble	44.65	25.98	32.16	29.26	70.62	61.42	132.04
mean* ±STD	± 19.10	± 17.87	± 15.96	± 16.99	± 34.51	± 32.22	± 66.07

584 \*Note: The ensemble mean is calculated using IMERG, 3B42RT, PERSIANN, CCS, GSMaP and Radar-only.  
 585 CMORPH and Radar-lgc are not included. CMORPH has missing data over snow and frozen surfaces. Radar-lgc is  
 586 not independent of gauge data.

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587 Table 3. Metrics of remote sensing precipitation products at event scale for Event 1 over study  
588 region.

Product	CC	RB (%)	MAE	RMSE
IMERG	0.82	-45.84	17.78	25.37
3B42RT	0.69	28.31	18.93	23.48
PERSIANN	0.63	-28.45	19.37	26.02
CCS	0.51	-13.12	17.82	22.96
CMORPH	0.47	-84.72	31.91	41.45
GSMaP	0.61	58.43	26.76	34.38
Radar-only	0.88	-36.15	14.49	20.29
Radar-lgc	0.98	0.83	3.69	5.57

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Table 4. Metrics of remote sensing precipitation products for total precipitation in Jan and Feb of 2017 over study region

Product	CC	RB (%)	MAE	RMSE
IMERG	0.76	-42.04	62.61	89.92
3B42RT	0.70	-27.03	63.89	81.24
PERSIANN	0.68	-41.18	76.08	100.71
CCS	0.36	-2.81	70.79	86.50
CMORPH	0.67	-83.14	101.04	132.59
GSMaP	0.71	84.13	111.28	135.92
Radar-only	0.91	-26.96	40.20	58.76
Radar-lgc	0.99	6.02	13.16	20.06

## Remote Sensing of 2017 California Atmospheric River Precipitation

589 Table 5. Metrics of remote sensing precipitation products at 3-hr scale for Event 1 over study  
 590 region. Extreme heavy precipitation measurements are selected under the criteria of 3-hr  
 591 intensity greater than 5 mm hr<sup>-1</sup>.

Product	Event 1				Extreme heavy precipitation in Event 1			
	CC	RB (%)	MAE	RMSE	CC	RB (%)	MAE	RMSE
IMERG	0.43	-42.72	1.47	2.11	0.08	-55.40	3.98	4.37
3B42RT	0.26	65.22	2.75	4.35	0.17	-10.54	3.30	4.07
PERSIANN	0.35	-31.30	1.33	1.81	0.09	-55.26	3.46	3.92
CCS	0.28	-13.41	1.50	2.08	0.11	-48.94	3.19	3.74
CMORPH	0.26	-78.38	1.90	2.51	0.11	-85.92	5.41	5.58
GSMaP	0.47	53.50	1.90	2.84	0.01	-12.01	2.82	3.53
Radar-only	0.75	-37.73	0.81	1.26	0.24	-52.16	3.25	3.53
Radar-lgc	0.93	-0.43	0.32	0.51	0.77	-1.20	0.55	0.74

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593

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Table 6. Similar to Table 5, but the results are based on precipitation from all 4 events.

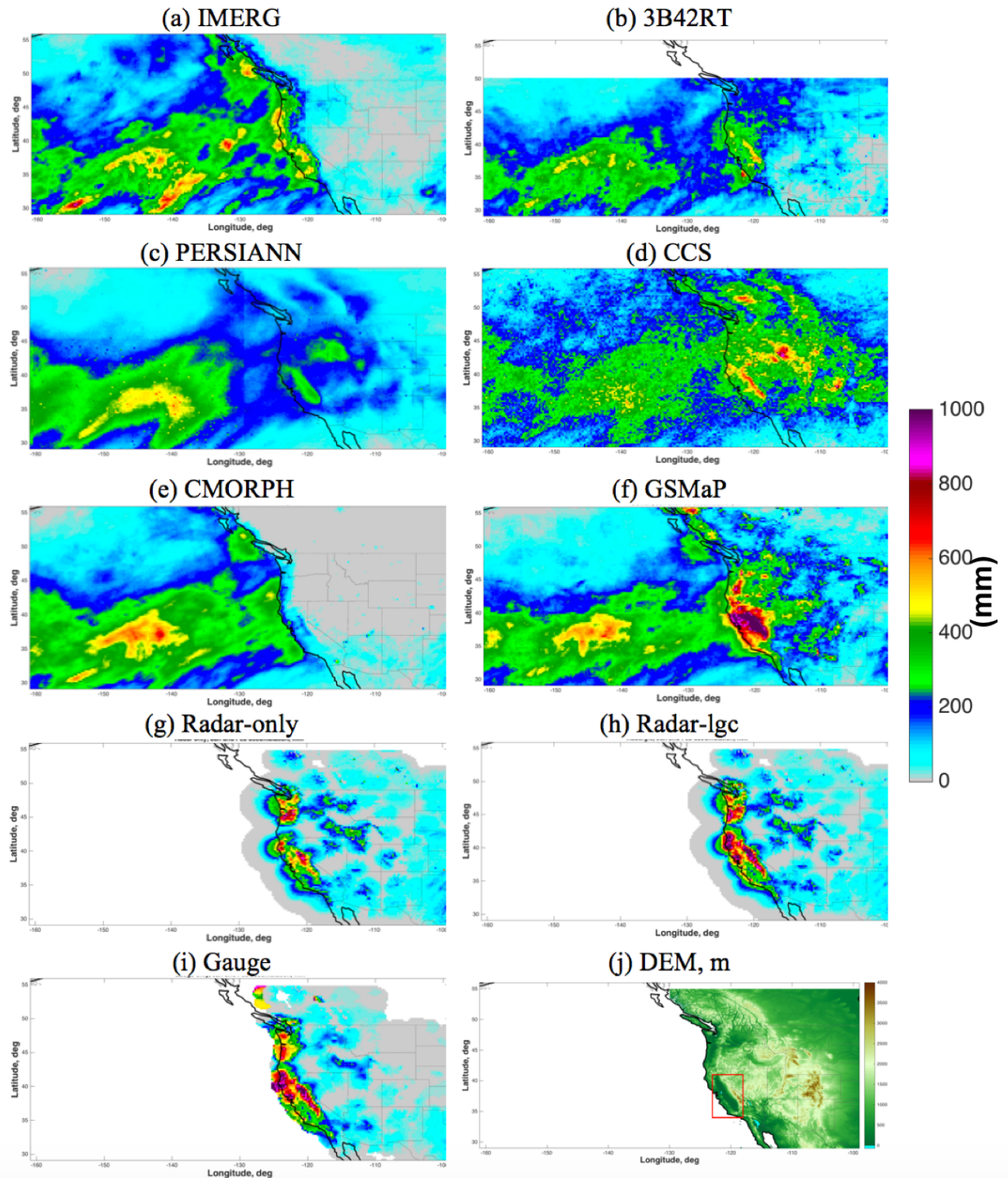
Product	Event 1				Extreme heavy precipitation in Event 1			
	CC	RB (%)	MAE	RMSE	CC	RB (%)	MAE	RMSE
IMERG	0.35	-39.93	1.29	1.99	0.12	-57.25	4.46	4.96
3B42RT	0.28	25.01	1.94	3.17	0.05	-30.93	3.65	4.38
PERSIANN	0.20	-47.21	1.15	1.67	0.08	-70.30	4.46	4.88
CCS	0.15	-8.56	1.45	2.19	0.03	-66.24	4.29	4.81
CMORPH	0.27	-76.05	1.43	2.02	0.16	-84.87	5.42	5.65
GSMaP	0.39	73.99	1.93	4.04	0.09	-12.22	3.35	4.44
Radar-only	0.76	-30.48	0.61	1.01	0.22	-54.21	3.44	3.77
Radar-lgc	0.92	3.05	0.27	0.44	0.76	-1.72	0.61	0.85



595 **List of Figures**

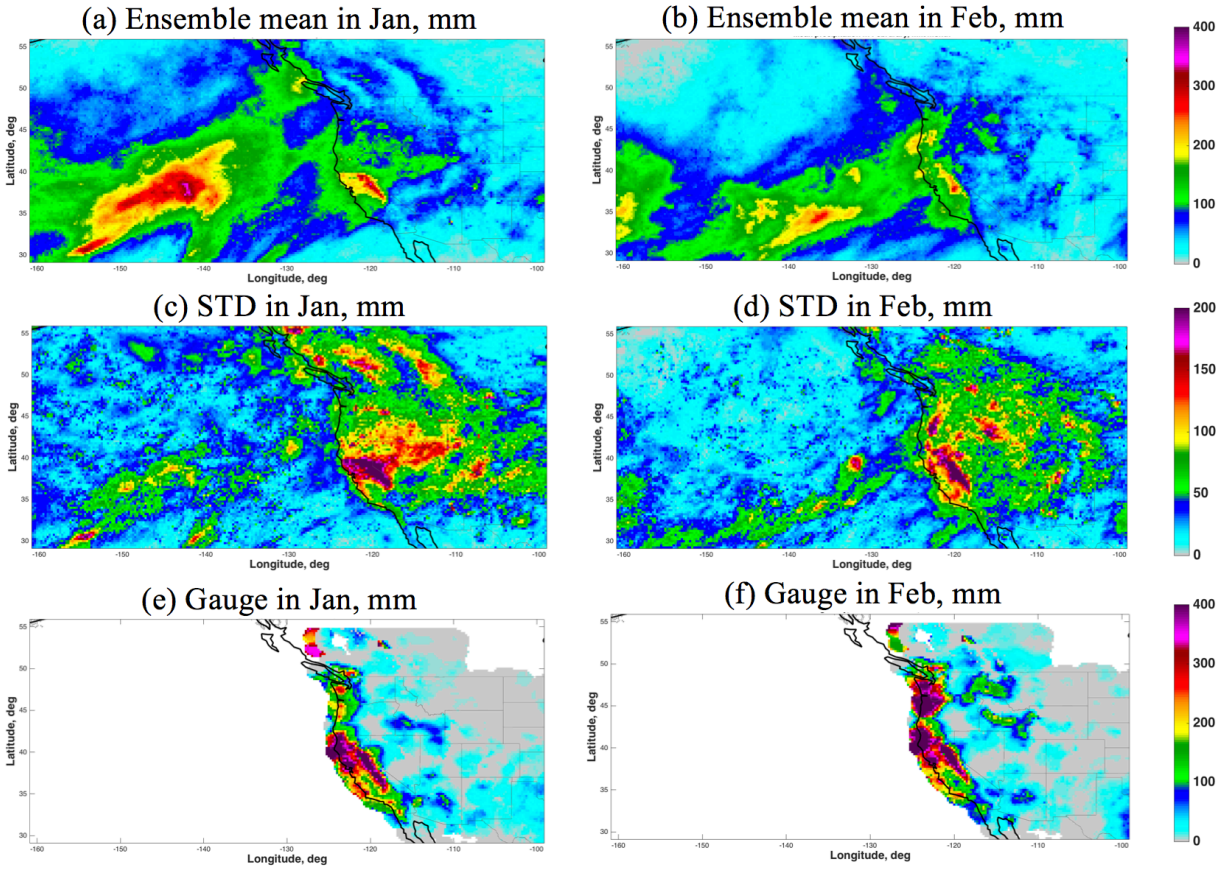
- 596 **Fig. 1.** January and February accumulation. (a) IMERG, (b) 3B42RT, (c) PERSIANN, (d) CCS,  
597 (e) CMORPH, (f) GSMaP, (g) Radar only, (h) Radar lgc, (i) Gauge only, and (j) DEM.  
598 The red rectangle box in (j) DEM is the research area for case study perspective.
- 599 **Fig. 2.** Ensemble Mean and STD of 6 satellite QPE products in January and February.
- 600 **Fig. 3.** Histograms of remote sensing QPE products (a) over ocean; (b) over land. Histogram of  
601 gauge product is also included in (b).
- 602 **Fig. 4.** Time series of area-averaged precipitation rate over the study area measured by gauge.
- 603 **Fig. 5.** Time series of average precipitation rate over the study area for Event 1 generated by  
604 remote sensing QPE products.
- 605 **Fig. 6.** POD, FAR, and CSI of remote sensing products with gauge as reference.
- 606 **Fig. 7.** Error of remote sensing products compared to gauge (a) for Event 1 and (b)for all four  
607 events.
- 608 **Fig. 8.** Similar to Fig. 7, but focus on the heavy rainfall 3-hourly intensity great than 5 mm hr<sup>-1</sup>  
609 measured by gauge for Event 1 and for all four events.

# Remote Sensing of 2017 California Atmospheric River Precipitation



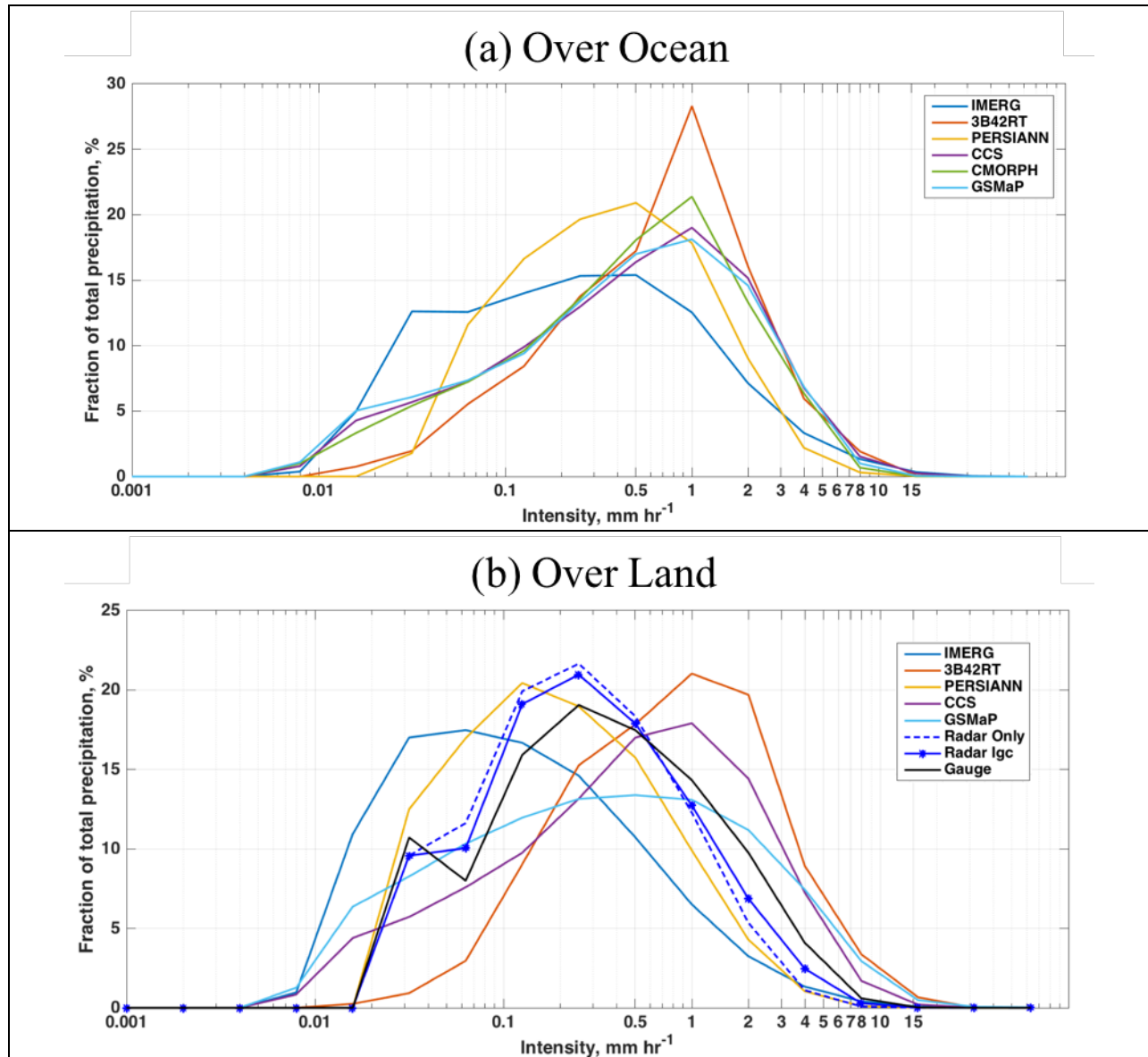
610  
 611 Figure 1. January and February accumulation. (a) IMERG, (b) 3B42RT, (c) PERSIANN, (d)  
 612 CCS, (e) CMORPH, (f) GSMaP, (g) Radar-only, (h) Radar-lgc, (i) Gauge only, and (j) DEM.  
 613 The red rectangle box in (j) DEM is the research area for case study perspective.

# Remote Sensing of 2017 California Atmospheric River Precipitation



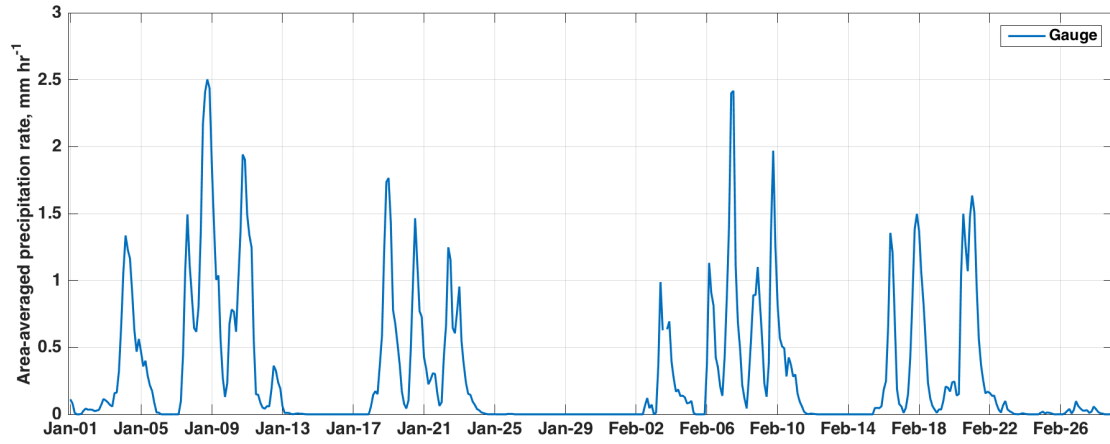
614 Figure 2. Ensemble Mean and STD of 6 satellite QPE products in January and February.

# Remote Sensing of 2017 California Atmospheric River Precipitation



615 Figure 3. Histograms of remote sensing QPE products (a) over ocean; (b) over land. Histogram  
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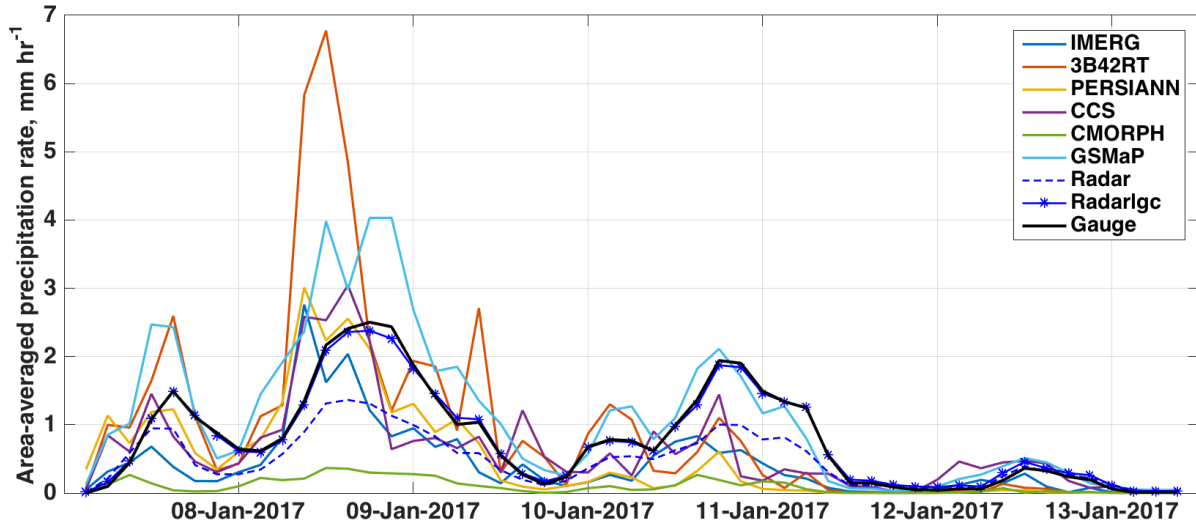
# Remote Sensing of 2017 California Atmospheric River Precipitation



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Figure 4. Time series of area-averaged precipitation rate over the study area measured by gauge.

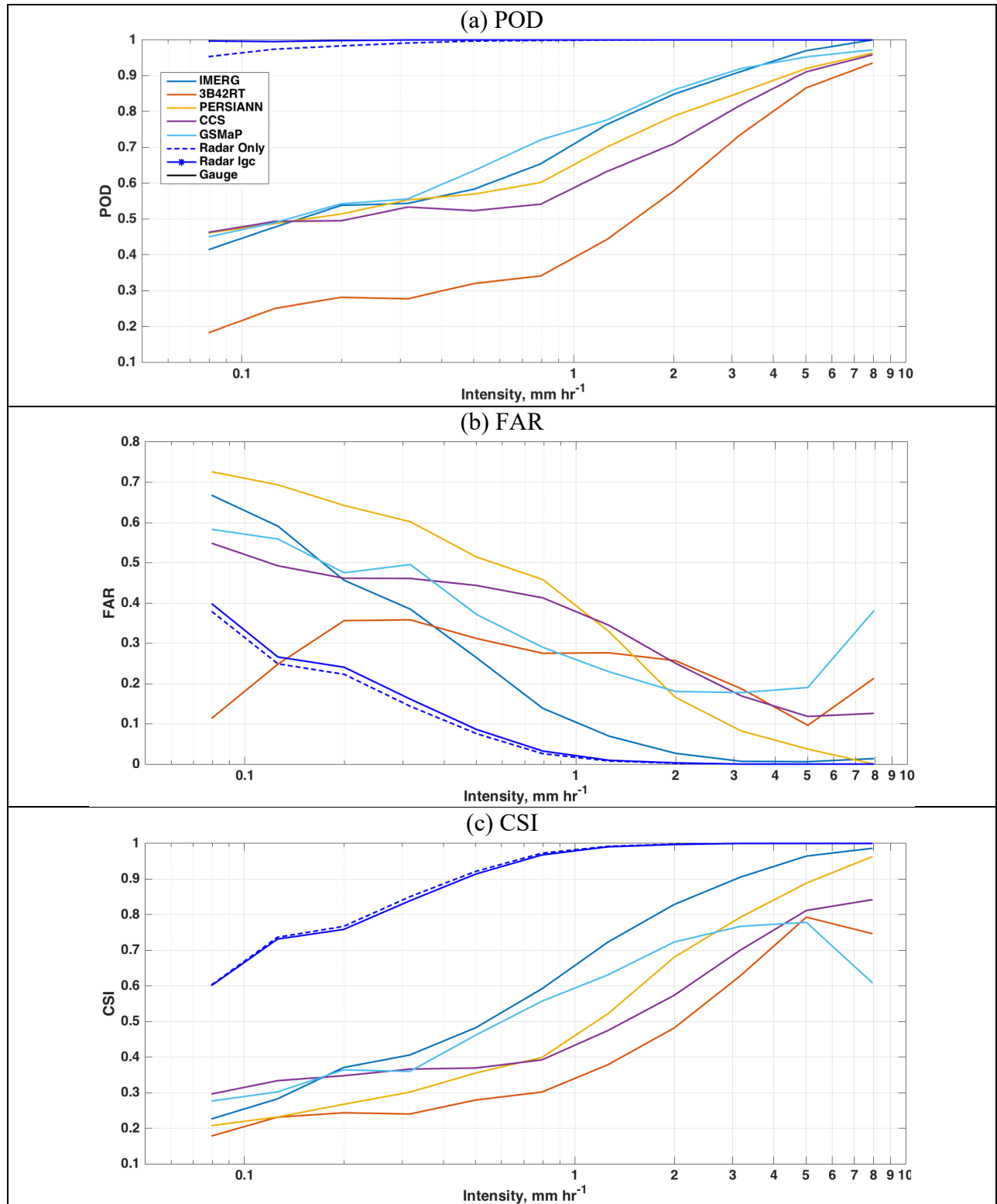
# Remote Sensing of 2017 California Atmospheric River Precipitation



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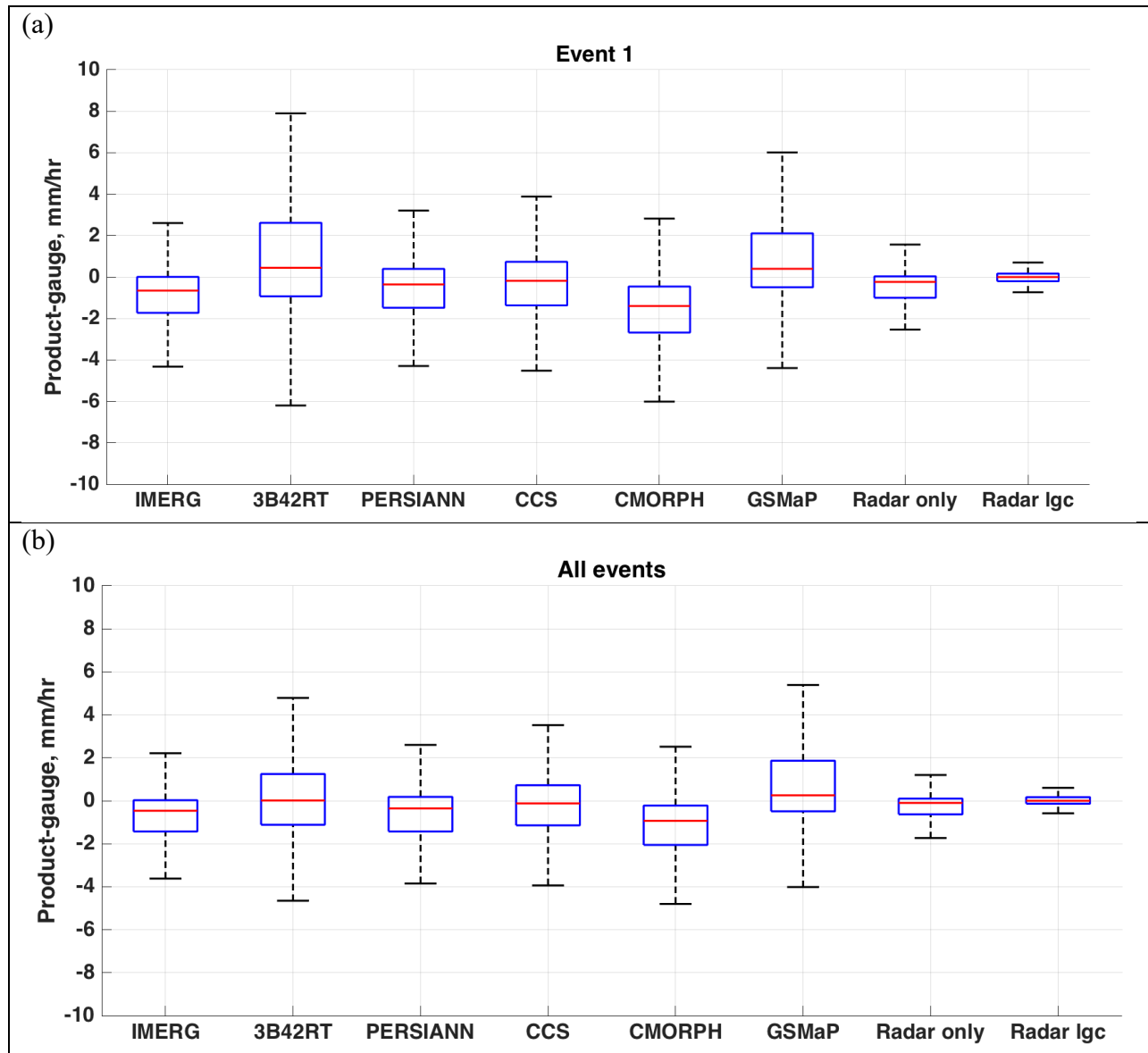
Figure 5. Time series of average precipitation rate over the study area for Event 1 generated by remote sensing QPE products.

# Remote Sensing of 2017 California Atmospheric River Precipitation



622 Figure 6. (a) POD, (b) FAR, and (c) CSI of remote sensing products with gauge as reference.

# Remote Sensing of 2017 California Atmospheric River Precipitation



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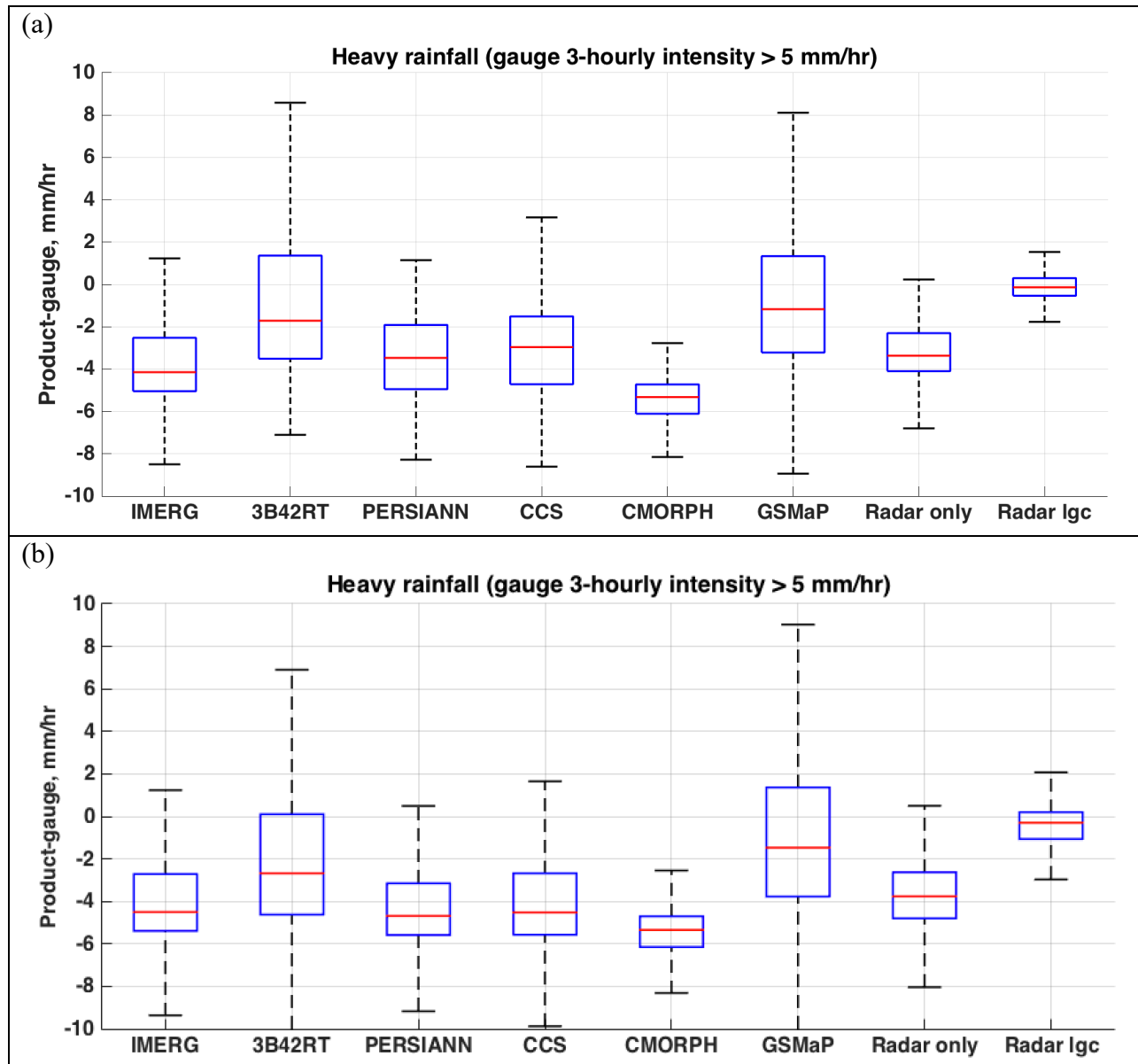
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Figure 7. Error of remote sensing products compared to gauge for (a) Event 1 and (b) all four events.



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Figure 8. Similar to Figure 7, but focus on the heavy rainfall 3-hourly intensity great than 5 mm hr<sup>-1</sup> measured by gauge for (a) Event 1 and (b) all four events.