Assimilation of All Sky Infrared Radiance from INSAT-3D/3DR Satellite in the WRF Model

Prashant Kumar¹, Munn Vinayak Shukla¹, and Atul K Varma¹

¹Indian Space Research Organisation

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Abstract

The all-sky Infrared (IR) radiance assimilation from geostationary satellites has been a prime research area in the numerical weather prediction (NWP) modeling. In this study, the variational data assimilation system of the weather research and forecasting (WRF) model has been customized to assimilate all-sky assimilation of water vapour (WV) radiance from Imager onboard two geostationary Indian National Satellites (INSAT-3D and INSAT-3DR). This study also integrated different hydrometeors (like cloud, rain, ice, snow and graupel) as control variables in the WRF variation assimilation system. To do this, parallel experiments were performed by carrying out model simulations with and without INSAT WV radiance assimilation during July 2018. Results of these simulations suggested that the WRF model analyses for all-sky assimilation are closer to the brightness temperature (T_B) of channel-1 (183.31 ± 0.2 GHz) of SAPHIR (Sondeur Atmosphérique du Profil d'Humidité Intertropicale par Radiométrie) sensor onboard Megha-Tropiques satellite and channel-3 (183.31 ± 1.0 GHz) of MHS (Microwave Humidity Sounder) sensor onboard National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA-18/19) and Meteorological Operational Satellite (MetOp-A/B/C) satellites. Furthermore, noteworthy changes are noticed in hydrometeors analyses with all-sky assimilation and the number of assimilated observations are increased significantly (around 2.5 times). The short-range predictions from all-sky assimilation runs revealed notable positive impact as compared to clear-sky assimilation runs when verified with SAPHIR and MHS T_B , and NCEP (National Centers for Environmental Prediction) final analysis.

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2	Satellite in the WRF Model
3	Prashant Kumar ¹ , Munn V. Shukla ² , and A. K. Varma ¹
4	
5	1. Atmospheric Sciences Division, Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences Group, EPSA, Space
6	Applications Centre, ISRO, Ahmedabad, India
7	2. Geo-physical Parameter Retrievals Division, Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences Group, EPSA,
8	Space Applications Centre, ISRO, Ahmedabad, India
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10 Abstract

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29	times). The short-range predictions from all-sky assimilation runs revealed notable
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33	Keywords: All sky, IR radiance, WRF model, Variational assimilation, Hydrometeors.
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52 **1. Introduction**

The advances in the numerical weather prediction (NWP) model represent a 53 significant revolution in the scientific knowledge and technological advances in the last 54 decades (Bauer et al. 2011a,b, 2015, 2021). The technical advancements has brought 55 sea changes in the measurements of various parameters used in NWP model. Not 56 only ground based measurements but also satellite measurements are increased 57 significantly in both space and time. As a matter-of-fact, around 90-95% data 58 assimilated in the NWP model are contributed by space-borne sensors. However, 59 these satellite observations are still only 2 to 5% of measurements available globally 60 and provided by satellites. The vast number of satellite data are not yet employed in 61 the NWP model due to concurrent limitations of data assimilation methods like 62 constraints of Gaussian assumption, uncorrelated observations, complex non-63 linearity, etc. (Kumar and Shukla, 2019). Condition of uncorrelated observations 64 warrants data thinning whereas avoidance of surface channels due to unknown 65 emissivity imposes the restriction of using channels that are sensitive to temperature 66 (CO₂ and O₂ band) and water vapour (WV) (H₂O band) absorption, etc. in the 67 assimilation system. Additionally, Around 75% of satellite measurements are 68 discarded due to cloud contamination and unknown surface emissivity (Bauer et al. 69 70 2011a).

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Presently, the Infrared (IR) measurements from satellites are assimilated with clearsky limitations, and cloud removal or correction for IR radiance became a critical step for operational assimilation (Kumar and Shukla, 2019 and references therein). This cloud correction procedure also introduced representative error in the NWP model (Errico et al. 2007). The restriction of clear-sky assimilation is not due to insignificance

of cloud-affected measurements, but mainly due to insufficient treatment of clouds in 77 78 the radiative transfer (RT) models and inaccurate cloud parameters as first guess. Further, the intricacies of cloud affected IR radiances are exacerbated due to complex 79 non-linearity in the cloud process. Furthermore, cloud parameters are not considered 80 as part of control variables in most of the assimilation systems. The major cause of 81 neglecting cloud parameters as control variables are due to large errors in the first-82 83 guess. In the last decade, the cloud and precipitation prediction from the NWP model has achieved a reasonable degree of realism that opens possibilities to explore impact 84 85 of cloud-influenced radiance from IR and microwave (MW) sensors (Janisková, 2015), majorly high temporal and spatial resolution measurements from geostationary 86 platform. Geer et al. (2019) discussed that the all-sky IR assimilation has not so far 87 been operational at any weather forecasting centers that conveys requirements of new 88 observations in critical cloud-affected regions and avoids cloud removing/clearing 89 needs in future. Furthermore, the all-sky assimilation helped to avoid biases caused 90 by undetected clouds that can affect the clear-sky assimilation (Geer et al. 2017, 91 2018). 92

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Bauer et al. (2010) and Geer et al. (2010) demonstrated first successful direct 94 assimilation of all-sky MW imager observations in the European Centre for Medium-95 Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) assimilation system. Authors also discussed the 96 major concerns in the cloud and precipitation assimilation that include discontinuity in 97 space and time, constraints of the present assimilation system that linearized the 98 nonlinear processes, etc. Bauer et al. (2011b) reviewed development in the cloud 99 affected satellite measurements in the operational NWP centers. Authors also 100 discussed the need of the total moisture (e.g. WV, cloud liquid, cloud ice, and 101

hydrometeors) as a control variable and generation of their background error 102 covariance using National Meteorological Center (NMC; Parrish and Derber, 1992) 103 method. Geer et al. (2017, 2018) highlighted that the cloud and precipitation data 104 cannot be assimilated when missing in model first guess due to zero gradient problem 105 and non-Gaussian distribution of error. Montmerle et al. (2010) also emphasized the 106 necessity of background error modelling for clouds and precipitation parameters by 107 108 ensemble forecast differences method. Zhang and Guan (2017) included cloud liquid, ice, and rain-water content as control variables in the assimilation of cloud-affected 109 110 MW satellite measurements and found improvement in the model analysis. Chen et al. (2015) also suggested that the initialization of the cloud components in the NWP 111 model is requisite because these quantities are resultant of atmospheric moisture and 112 hydrometeor transport and complicated nonlinear physical processes associated with 113 cloud development and decay. These previous studies highlighted that the inclusion 114 of the different hydrometeors as control variables with their background error 115 covariance is one of the major steps towards all-sky assimilation. 116

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Recently, the efforts for assimilation in the NWP model has been more focused 118 towards using clouds affected IR radiance, after remarkable success of the all-sky MW 119 sensors and its operational implementation in many weather forecasting centers (e.g. 120 121 Bauer et al., 2010; Geer et al., 2010; McNally, 2009; Pavelin et al., 2008; Eresmaa, 2014). Zhu et al. (2016) discussed operational assimilation of all-sky MW sensors in 122 the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) National Centers for 123 Environmental Prediction (NCEP) models. Various experiments have been performed 124 in the last decade to explore the potential of assimilating all-sky IR radiance in the 125 NWP model, majorly from geostationary satellites. Otkin (2010) assimilated window 126

channel radiance for both clear-sky and cloudy-sky conditions at convection permitting 127 scale and suggested that both observations are crucial for the NWP prediction. 128 Okamoto et al. (2012) suggested to make use of a symmetric parameter, which is 129 based upon observed and simulated cloud radiances. The use of symmetric parameter 130 provided a better Gaussian form of background departure (observation minus 131 background; O-B). Okamoto et al. (2014) and Harnisch et al. (2016) also proposed to 132 133 use climatological error models for IR radiance as a function of different cloud-affected parameters. Zhang et al. (2018) assimilated all-sky IR observations from 134 Geostationary Operational Environmental Satellite (GOES)-16 Advanced Baseline 135 Imager (ABI) sensor using ensemble based data assimilation at convection allowing 136 horizontal resolution. Zhang et al. (2016) also studied the potential impact of 137 assimilating GOES-R radiance for tropical cyclone analysis using Ensemble Kalman 138 Filter (EnKF) method. Minamide and Zhang (2018) explored the assimilation impact 139 of all-sky IR radiance from the Himawari-8 satellite using the EnKF at convective scale 140 for predicting super typhoon Soudelor. Authors suggested that the hourly update 141 assimilation system improves initial intensity as well as spatial distribution of 142 convective activities. Honda et al. (2018a) assimilated every 10-minutes all-sky 143 radiance from Himawari-8 satellite for a case study of heavy rainfall. Honda et al. 144 (2018b) also assimilated all-sky Himawari-8 IR radiance for soudelor typhoon, and 145 found improved tropical cyclone structure and intensity prediction. Recently, Otkin and 146 Potthast (2019) used an ensemble method to assimilate all-sky IR radiance from 147 Spinning Enhanced Visible and InfraRed Imager (SEVIRI) sensor with different bias 148 correction predictors and suggested improvement in short range forecasts. 149

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The critical elements of all-sky IR/MW assimilations are inclusion of hydrometeor 151 profiles in the RT model, use of cloud parameters as control variable, generation of 152 cloud analysis increments using background error covariance for hydrometeors, 153 radiance data information is mapped onto not only temperature and moisture fields, 154 but also for different hydrometeors using Radiative Transfer Model (RTM) jacobians, 155 etc. In the present study, first time all-sky IR WV radiance from the Indian 156 157 geostationary satellites are assimilated in the weather research and forecasting (WRF) model with inclusion of hydrometeor profiles as control variables and their background 158 159 errors using NMC method. Previously, Singh et al. (2016) assimilated clear-sky WV radiance from the INSAT-3D satellite in the WRF model and demonstrated positive 160 impact on short-range weather prediction. In this study, three parallel experiments are 161 performed during the entire month of July 2018 to understand the importance of all-162 sky assimilation. The WV channel data of Imager onboard INSAT-3D and INSAT-3DR 163 satellites are described in section 2, and details about the WRF model and variational 164 assimilation system are provided in section 3. Results and discussions are included in 165 section 4, and concluded in the last section. 166

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168 **2. Data Description**

169 2.1. INSAT-3D and INSAT-3DR Satellite

The Indian geostationary satellites INSAT-3D (Kumar and Shukla, 2019) and INSAT-3DR (Sankhala et al. 2020) are positioned at 82° E and 74° E at equator over the Indian Ocean, respectively. Both satellites carried two meteorological payloads including a very high-resolution radiometer (VHRR) also called Imager and an 18channels IR sounder. The WV (6.5 - 7.1 um) channel is available in Imager, in addition to visible, short-wave IR, mid-IR, and two thermal IR channels. The INSAT-3D and

INSAT-3DR satellites collectively provide WV imagery at every 15 minutes in 176 staggered mode at 8 km nominal spatial resolution. The calibration procedure of the 177 multi-spectral Imager observations from INSAT-3D and INSAT-3DR satellites are 178 broadly based on Weinreb et al. (1997). It is important to note that satellite instruments 179 like INSAT-3D/3DR, which are in geostationary orbit and are three axis stabilized, face 180 the problem of mid-night calibration. During mid-night, the Sun positioned directly 181 182 opposite to the satellite and the Sun radiations intrude into the satellite aperture, and thus disturb the thermal equilibrium of the cavity of the satellite platform. IR 183 184 instruments on-board are severely affected by such intrusion. This kind of problem was also observed in Kalpana-1 satellite (Shukla et al. 2012). The problem of direct 185 sun radiation intrusion is more severe in INSAT-3D/3DR satellites because of its larger 186 aperture size in comparison to Kalpana-1 satellite. Due to mid-night calibration issues 187 a few acquisitions are discarded (or not taken) in case of INSAT-3D/3DR satellites. In 188 the present study, WV channel radiance of INSAT-3D and INSAT-3DR satellites 189 around 0300 UTC are used for assimilation study. This WV Imager radiance is 190 available from satellite data archival centre at Space Applications Centre (SAC), Indian 191 Space Research Organization (ISRO), Ahmedabad (http://www.mosdac.gov.in). 192

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194 **3. Methodology**

The Advanced Research WRF (Skamarock et al. 2008) model version 4.2 and its three-dimensional variational (3D-Var) data assimilation system are used in this study to assess the impact of all-sky and clear-sky WV radiance assimilation. The diverse physics schemes are available in the WRF model for the treatment of convection and mesoscale precipitation systems, shortwave and longwave radiation, boundary layer processes, etc. The cumulus convection parameterization and

planetary boundary layer of Kain–Fretcsh (KF) and Yonsei University (YSU) schemes, 201 respectively are selected in this study. The rapid RT model for general circulation 202 models (GCMs) (RRTMG) scheme is used for long-wave and short-wave radiation. 203 The microphysics scheme used in this study is WRF Single-Moment 6-class (WSM6) 204 scheme for microphysics. These schemes are selected based on their performances 205 over the south Asia region (Kumar et al. 2014; Singh et al. 2016 and references 206 207 therein). More details of design of experiments are available in Sankhala et al. (2020) and Kumar and Shukla (2019). 208

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In the present study, three parallel assimilation experiments are performed with and 210 without WV radiance assimilation from INSAT-3D and INSAT-3DR satellites during the 211 entire month of July 2018. All set of experiments assimilated control observations that 212 include conventional observations (like Synop, Sonde, Pilot, Ship, Aircraft, Buoy, etc.), 213 atmospheric motion vectors from geostationary satellites, refractivity measurements 214 from Global Positioning System (GPS) Radio Occultation (RO) available from NCEP 215 Global Telecommunications System (GTS) at 0300 UTC. The 9-hour WRF model 216 forecast, valid at 0300 UTC, is used as first guess for all sets of experiments. This 217 procedure avoids the uncertainties whether these datasets are used in a global model 218 assimilation system or not. The NCEP Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS) 219 220 analysis at $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$ spatial resolution is used to generate the lateral boundary conditions. The 48 hours WRF model forecasts are performed daily from 0300 UTC 221 during 01-31 July 2018. The WRF model simulations are performed using a single 222 domain having 12 km spatial resolution without cyclic assimilation. The model domain 223 consists 700 x 700 grids covering regions of Latitude 25.7° S – 43.7° N and Longitude 224 varies from 44.3° E to 119.7° E. The WCNT experiment defined as control run that 225

assimilated control observations only, and no satellite radiances are assimilated in this
experiment. The clear-sky and all-sky WV radiance from INSAT-3D and INSAT-3DR
satellites are assimilated in the *WCLR* and *WCLD* experiments, respectively in
addition to control observations.

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The WRF 3D-Var data assimilation system is employed in this study for INSAT WV 231 232 assimilation (Singh et al. 2016). A 1-h time window (+30-minutes) has been selected around the model initial time for assimilating control and satellite observations. Prior 233 234 to data assimilation, all satellite data underwent a process of quality check to avoid the possibility of assimilating spurious observations. A strict quality control is performed, 235 in which observations that differed from the model's first guess by more than three 236 times the observational errors are removed. Here, observation error in the WV channel 237 is assumed uncorrelated in space and time and the observational error covariance 238 matrices are diagonal matrices with fix variance of 2.5 K for WV channel as diagonal 239 element that may be a scope for future research to include separate observation errors 240 for clear and cloudy radiance. The variational bias correction available in the WRF 241 model is implemented to correct the biases in the radiance. In this study, the 242 Community Radiative Transfer Model (CRTM; Han et al. 2006), a fast RT model, 243 implemented in the WRF model, has been used for simulating the brightness 244 temperature (T_B) of WV channels of INSAT-3D and INSAT-3DR satellites. The CRTM 245 model is a fast RT model developed by Joint Center for Satellite Data Assimilation 246 (JCSDA). The CRTM model is widely used for data assimilation as a forward operator, 247 and computation of gradient for various control variables (Zhang et al. 2018). To 248 simulate the BT within WRF model, it uses the successive order of interaction (SOI) 249 forward solver (Heidinger et al. 2006) using the OPTRAN (Optical Path Transmittance) 250

code. For all-sky assimilation, a particle filter based cloud detection scheme for IR 251 radiance with considering of cloud effects in CRTM calculations are implemented that 252 are available in the WRF assimilation system (Xu et al. 2016). In this study, 253 *cloud_cv_options=2* is considered which needs individual hydrometeor control 254 variables with statistical error covariances. For this selection, in addition to standard 255 control variables of stream function, unbalanced velocity potential, unbalanced 256 257 temperature, unbalanced surface pressure and pseudo relative humidity, five different hydrometeors (cloud, rain, ice, snow, graupel) are also included as control variables 258 259 for generalized background error covariance. The details of implementing generalized background error covariance are available in Descombes et al. (2015). Differences of 260 12- and 24-hour forecasts during the entire month of July 2018 are used to determine 261 the background error covariance matrix by NMC method. In this study, cross-262 correlation for cloud and rain is considered with moisture, whereas no cross-263 correlation is considered for snow, ice and graupel mixing ratio. 264

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4. Results and discussions

267 **4.1. Impact in analysis**

Figure 1 shows the spatial distribution of WV channel observations from the 268 INSAT-3D satellite for a sample day at 0300 UTC 01 July 2018. The WV T_B from 269 INSAT-3D satellite used in WCLR and WCLD runs are shown in figure 1(a) and figure 270 1(d), respectively. The CRTM model is used to prepare simulated T_B from the WRF 271 model analysis, and further defined as simulated analyzed T_{B} . Figure shows that a 272 large number of observations are rejected in WCLR run (Fig. 1a), and this reduction 273 is more prominent over land area. However, few WV observations are also rejected in 274 the WCLD run (Fig. 1d) that are majorly due to strict quality control in variational 275

method. For such cases, simulated WCLD analyzed T_B is far from INSAT-3D WV T_B . 276 These data gap regions in WCLD run suggested that the WRF simulated T_B with the 277 278 CRTM model is still have differences with satellite measurements beyond the permissible limits due to various limitations of the NWP and RT model and satellite 279 observations. It also indicates towards the need of separate observation error for clear 280 281 and cloudy measurements. The first guess simulated WV T_B for WCLR (Fig. 1b) and WCLD (Fig. 1e) runs showed that the WRF model is able to capture the spatial 282 distribution of observed T_B . The simulated T_B matches relatively well over the ocean 283 284 as compared to land due to imprecise land surface emissivity input in the RT modelling. The simulated analyzed T_B from the WCLR (Fig. 1c) and WCLD (Fig. 1f) 285 runs clearly represented that the model analyses are closer to the INSAT-3D observed 286 T_B as compared to first guess, which demonstrated the successful assimilation of the 287 WV T_B in the WRF model. For all-sky (clear-sky) assimilation, the values of root-mean-288 289 square difference (defined as RMSD) is changed from 2.39 (1.42) K in background departure to 0.62 (0.59) K in analysis departure (observation minus analysis; O-A). 290 Slightly larger values of mean difference (defined as BIAS) are found in WCLD 291 292 analysis (-0.22 K) as compared to WCLR analysis (-0.19 K). It is important to note that the WCLD analysis is closer to cloud-affected satellite observation, which is generally 293 not made use in clear-sky assimilation. 294

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Figure 2 shows the spatial distribution of the mean first-guess and analysis departure for WCLR and WCLD runs during 1-31 July 2018 (total 31 sample days) for WV channel of INSAT-3D data. The spatial distribution of mean first guess departure in WCLR (Fig. 2a) and WCLD (Fig. 2b) runs showed almost similar distribution over the northern India and adjoining regions. However, large differences are seen over the

301 Indian Ocean that are mainly due to inclusion of cloud-affected radiance in WCLD runs. The mean analysis departure is reduced significantly for both WCLR (Fig. 2c) 302 and WCLD (Fig. 2d) runs. It suggested that the INSAT-3D observed WV channel is 303 successfully assimilated in the WRF model. The distribution of first guess and analysis 304 departure for 1-31 July 2018 showed that the values of BIAS is reduced significantly 305 from 0.19 K and -0.25 K in WCLR and WCLD first-guess departure to approximate 306 307 zero in the analyses departure. The values of RMSD are reduced from 2.40 (1.33) K in WCLD (WCLR) first-guess to 0.60 (0.54) K in the analysis for INSAT-3D satellite. 308 Similar statistics are found for INSAT-3DR satellite. These analyses clearly suggested 309 that the WRF model analyses are closer to the satellite observed T_B for WV channel. 310 Both, first-guess and analysis departure follows the Gaussian distribution for WCLD 311 runs that suggested that incorporation of the hydrometeors as control variables do not 312 influence the constraints of variational method (figure not shown). Few observations 313 are rejected in the strict quality control, and varying observation errors for cloud-314 affected radiance may include these measurements and may be a scope for future 315 research. 316

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The temporal distribution of number of observations, domain average values of BIAS 318 and RMSD for WCLR (in black colour) and WCLD (in grey colour) runs are shown in 319 320 figure 3. The left (right) panel shows statistics for the INSAT-3D (INSAT-3DR) satellite. Figures 3(a) and 3(d) show the number of observations assimilated in the WCLR and 321 WCLD runs from the INSAT-3D and INSAT-3DR satellites, respectively. Figure shows 322 that more clear-sky observations are assimilated from the INSAT-3DR satellite 323 (around 9820) as compared to INSAT-3D satellite (around 7630). However, no 324 significant differences are found for the number of observations assimilated with all-325

sky for both satellites. The less value of BIAS is found in the analysis (dashed line) as 326 compared to first-guess (solid line) for both WCLR and WCLD runs of INSAT-3D (Fig. 327 3b) and INSAT-3DR (Fig. 3e) satellites. For both satellites, WCLD (WCLR) first-328 guesses have a negative (positive) value of BIAS for most of the days. The RMSD 329 values are reduced significantly for WCLD and WCNT analyses for both satellites. No 330 significant differences are found between INSAT-3D (Fig. 3c) and INSAT-3DR (Fig. 331 332 3f) satellites. Furthermore, a slightly larger value of RMSD is found in WCLD analysis (0.73 K) as compared to WCNT analysis (0.52 K). These results clearly suggested 333 334 that the all-sky observations are successfully assimilated in the WRF model with additional control variables of hydrometeors. 335

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Figure 4 shows the spatial distribution of the anomaly in WCLD and WCNT analyses 337 (defined WCLD minus WCNT) for different parameters at 500 hPa during July 2018. 338 The spatial distribution of anomaly for WV mixing ratio (Fig. 4a) shows significant 339 differences over the model domain. These differences are majorly over the mid- and 340 high vertical levels (around 600 to 200 hPa) which are majorly due to sensitivity of 341 INSAT-3D/3DR WV channel over these atmospheric layers (Kumar et al. 2012). Due 342 to multivariate nature of variation assimilation, mean departure for temperature (Fig. 343 4b), zonal winds (Fig. 4c) and meridional winds (Fig. 4d) are also changed spatially 344 over the model domain. These differences are larger over the land for zonal and 345 meridional winds. These differences are also available at different vertical levels that 346 are more dominant in the upper atmosphere (above 400 hPa) (figure not shown due 347 to brevity). Furthermore, the control variables of different hydrometeors also show 348 significant differences in different atmospheric layers. The spatial distribution of cloud 349 mixing ratio (Fig. 4e) and rain-mixing ratio (Fig. 4f) show major differences over the 350

Iandmass and the Bay of Bengal regions. These differences are high in the lower layers of the atmosphere (figure not shown due to brevity). The spatial distribution of snow (Fig. 4g), ice (Fig. 4h), and graupel (Fig. 4i) mixing ratio shows noteworthy changes at 500 hPa over model domain. In general, due to absence of these hydrometeors as control variables, these changes are not possible in the model analysis. The changes in snow, ice and graupel mixing ratio are prominent over midand upper-atmospheric layers.

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To evaluate the impact of INSAT-3D/3DR WV radiance assimilation in the WCLR and 359 WCLD runs as compared to WCNT runs, the WRF model analyses are also compared 360 with satellite observations that are not used for data assimilation. The channel-1 361 (183.31 ± 0.2 GHz) T_B from SAPHIR (Sondeur Atmosphérique du Profil d'Humidité 362 Intertropicale par Radiométrie) sensor onboard Megha-Tropiques satellite (Fig. 5) and 363 channel-3 (183.31 + 1.0 GHz) of MHS (Microwave Humidity Sounder) onboard NOAA-364 18/19 and Meteorological Operational Satellite (MetOp)-A/B/C (Fig. 6) are used here. 365 The selected WV channel of SAPHIR and MHS sensors are also sensitive to upper 366 atmospheric layers (500 to 150 hPa) and can be utilized to evaluate the WCLR and 367 WCLD analyses. The mean SAPHIR T_B observations are shown in figure 5(a). Due to 368 the low-inclination (~20°) orbit of Megha-Tropiques satellite, the WRF model analyses 369 370 are compared upto ~30° N of the study domain. It shows less value of T_B over the Indian landmass and adjoining oceanic regions that generally occurred during the 371 summer monsoon period. The RMSD in the WCNT analysis simulated T_B against 372 SAPHIR observations are shown in figure 5(b). Large differences are found over the 373 active monsoon regions, mainly the Bay of Bengal, Indo Gangetic Plain, and ITCZ 374 (Inter Tropical Convergence Zone) regions. Slightly larger RMSD values are found 375

over land, coastal and adjoining oceanic regions. An improvement parameter is
 defined here to understand the impact of WCLR or WCLD experiments over WCNT
 experiments. The improvement parameter for clear-sky and all-sky are defined as

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$$\alpha_{CLR} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (BT_{WCNT} - BT_{SAT})^2} - \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (BT_{WCLR} - BT_{SAT})^2}$$
(1)

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$$\alpha_{CLD} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (BT_{WCNT} - BT_{SAT})^2} - \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (BT_{WCLD} - BT_{SAT})^2}$$
(2)

The improvement parameter for clear-sky and all-sky analyses are defined as α_{CLR} 381 382 and α_{CLD} , respectively. The parameters BT_{SAT} , BT_{WCNT} , BT_{WCLR} , and BT_{WCLD} are T_B from satellite, and simulated T_B from WCNT, WCLR, and WCLD runs, respectively. 383 384 The *N* is the total number of sample days that are 31 in this study. The positive (negative) values of improvement parameter shows improvement (degradation) of WV 385 assimilation over WCNT experiments. The spatial distribution of improvement 386 parameter for WCLR and WCLD runs are shown in figure 5(c) and figure 5(d), 387 respectively. In general, both clear-sky and all-sky assimilation has a positive impact 388 on the WRF model analyses. However, small degradation is also seen over the 389 western part of India and Arabian Sea in WCLR runs, and southern India and Bay of 390 Bengal regions in WCLD runs. The positive improvements are more prominent over 391 the ITCZ regions in WCLD runs. Results suggest larger improvement in WCLD runs 392 393 as compared to WCLR runs that show the importance of all-sky assimilation in the model analyses. It is also interesting to note that larger improvements are seen over 394 the land in the WCLD runs as compared to WCLR runs. Furthermore, results are 395 extended for high-latitude regions that are not possible with SAPHIR observation. For 396 this purpose, similar analyses are also prepared with channel-3 measurements of 397 MHS sensors that are also sensitive to upper layers of atmospheric moisture. The 398 mean value of MHS measured T_B is shown in figure 6(a) that re-confirm the low values 399

of T_B over core monsoon regions as shown in figure 5(a) for SAPHIR data. The WCNT 400 simulated T_B has a large value of RMSD over the landmass, ITCZ, and Bay of Bengal 401 regions (Fig. 6b). A noteworthy high RMSD is seen over the northern part of the 402 domain majorly over Jammu and Kashmir and nearby regions. The spatial distribution 403 of improvement parameter shows positive impact of clear-sky assimilation over the 404 oceanic regions. Moreover, large RMSD errors over the ITCZ regions are also 405 406 improved with assimilation of clear-sky T_B (Fig. 6c). However, the value of improvement parameter is slightly negative over Indian landmass. The improvement 407 408 parameter for all-sky assimilation are noteworthy positive over the ITCZ regions. Furthermore, WCLD analyses have shown larger impact over the landmass as 409 compared to WCLR analyses. These large improvements in WCLD analyses are 410 majorly due to cloud-affected radiance that are not used for WCLR runs. Overall, these 411 results based on one-month experiments suggested that all-sky assimilation is 412 successfully implemented in the WRF model with additional control variables of 413 different hydrometeors. Moreover, the verifications of the WRF model analyses with 414 independent MW satellite observations suggested that the WCLD analyses are more 415 realistic and accurate as compared to WCLR and WCNT analyses. These positive 416 impacts in model analyses are further evaluated for short-range weather prediction in 417 the section 4.2. 418

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420 **4.2. Impact in forecast**

To assess the impact of clear-sky and all-sky assimilation, three-hourly forecasts from the WRF model (upto 48 hours) are compared with SAPHIR and MHS observed T_B , and NCEP final moisture analyses. The distribution of number of observations used for improvement parameter computation are shown in figure 7(a)

and figure 8(a) for SAPHIR and MHS sensors, respectively. The number of 425 observations are almost twice in MHS due to availability on various platforms and 426 global coverage. Figure 7(b) clearly shows that the value of RMSD in WCNT runs 427 increases with forecast lengths. Minimum RMSD error is found in first 12 hours 428 forecasts and reaches maximum after 24 hours. However, the RMSD in WCNT shows 429 diurnal variations in errors when compared with MHS observations (Fig. 8b). The 430 maximum errors are observed at 0900 UTC (in 06-hour forecasts) and 2100 UTC (in 431 18-hour forecasts), when the number of MHS observations are least. Similar to 432 433 SAPHIR comparison, the RMSD values are increased with forecast lengths in figure 8(b). The percentage improvement parameter for WCLR and WCLD forecasts against 434 WCNT forecasts are shown in figure 7(c) and figure 7(d), respectively for SAPHIR 435 observations, and in figure 8(c) and figure 8(d), respectively for MHS observations. 436 Results show that clear-sky assimilation has positive impact on short range prediction, 437 this positive improvement is more prominent when all-sky observations are assimilated 438 in the WRF model. This improvement is higher than 5-10% for short-range forecasts 439 when compared with SAPHIR observations. Figures 8(c,d) show that the value of 440 positive improvement is reduced rapidly after a few hours and neutral to marginal 441 positive impact is seen for both WCLR and WCLD runs. The possible cause of this 442 reduction in positive improvement may be due to strict quality control in data 443 444 assimilation. Kumar et al. (2014) also mentioned that the strict quality control in data assimilation improves short-range forecast only. Another possible reason may be due 445 to identical lateral boundary conditions without cyclic assimilation that may also 446 influence the longer forecasts. 447

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The spatial distribution of the mean WV mixing ratio at upper vertical level (300 hPa) 449 from the NCEP final analysis and 12-hour forecasts from the WCNT runs are shown 450 in figure 9(a) and figure 9(b), respectively. Figure shows that the WCNT runs are able 451 to capture spatial distribution of upper level moisture with few differences over the 452 central India and orographic regions. The spatial distribution of percentage 453 improvement parameter for WCLR runs show almost neutral impact of clear-sky 454 assimilation, except in the northern part of the study domain (Fig. 9c). The spatial 455 distribution of percentage improvement parameter in WCLD runs against WCNT runs 456 457 suggested noteworthy improvements over the central India, northern and western Arabian Sea regions. Few pockets of positive improvement can also be seen over the 458 Indian Ocean. Vertical profile of improvement suggests that the maximum positive 459 impact occurs over the upper layer of atmosphere (Fig. 10). These positive 460 improvements reduce with forecast lengths for WCLD runs (Fig. 10b). These positive 461 improvements are less in magnitude for WCLR runs (Fig. 10a) and majorly exist over 462 the mid-layer of atmosphere (600 to 250 hPa) for all forecast lengths upto 48 hours. 463 The magnitude of negative impact is also seen at surface and upper layers (around 464 100 hPa) in all-sky assimilation. This negative impact is almost negligible for clear-sky 465 assimilation. Overall, these results suggested that the WRF model predictions improve 466 with all-sky assimilation as compared to clear-sky assimilation. 467

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474 **5. Conclusion**

In this study, the assimilation of clear-sky and all-sky IR observations from WV 475 channel of Imager onboard INSAT-3D and INSAT-3DR satellites are assimilated in the 476 WRF model using variational method. The different hydrometeors are considered as 477 individual control variables to understand the importance of clouds as control 478 variables. The background error covariance matrix for different control variables using 479 the NMC method is implemented in the 3D-Var assimilation system. The changes in 480 different hydrometeors analyses suggested that this assimilation system is able to 481 modify the initial state of hydrometeors in the WRF model. It is clearly demonstrated 482 that the all-sky analyses are closer to the independent satellite observations as 483 compared to analyses from WCLR and WCNT runs. This study demonstrats that the 484 485 all-sky IR WV observations are able to improve the moisture information over the study domain that are very crucial over the south-Asia regions. Overall, results suggested 486 487 that the analysis as well as forecasts from the WCLD runs are closer to observations and final analysis as compared to WCLR and WCNT runs. Results show the potential 488 of assimilating all-sky measurements from IR sensors on-board geostationary 489 satellites. This study did not consider the importance of frequent sampling from 490 geostationary satellites that may be a scope for further research using WRF four-491 dimensional variational (4D-Var) or four-dimensional ensemble variational (4DEnVar) 492 in future. Additional research is needed to understand the degradation of positive 493 impact with forecast lengths in all-sky assimilation. 494

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716 **Figure captions**

Figure 1: Spatial distribution of INSAT-3D WV T_B observations assimilated in the (a) WCLR and (d) WCLD runs, simulated T_B from (b) WCLR first guess, (c) WCLR analysis, (e) WCLD first guess, and (f) WCLD analysis on a sample day 01 July 2018.

Figure 2: Spatial distribution of average first-guess departure for (a) WCLR and (b)
WCLD runs, and analysis departure for (c) WCLR and (d) WCLD runs during 1-31 July
2018.

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Figure 3: Temporal distribution of number of observations assimilated in WCLR and WCLD runs for (a) INSAT-3D and (d) INSAT-3DR satellites, BIAS in first-guess and analysis for (b) INSAT-3D and (e) INSAT-3DR satellites, and RMSD in first-guess and analysis for (c) INSAT-3D and (f) INSAT-3DR satellites during July 2018. The WCLR and WCLD runs are defined as CLR and CLD, respectively. First-guess and analysis are shown as solid-line and dash-line, respectively.

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Figure 4: Spatial distribution of anomaly (WCLD – WCNT) analyses for variables (a) humdity (g Kg⁻¹), (b) temperature (°C), (c) Zonal wind (m s⁻¹), (d) meridional wind (m s⁻¹), (e) cloud mixing ratio (mg Kg⁻¹), (f) rain mixing ratio (mg Kg⁻¹), (g) snow mixing ratio (mg Kg⁻¹), (h) ice mixing ratio (mg Kg⁻¹), and (i) graupel mixing ratio (mg Kg⁻¹) variables at 500 hPa during July 2018.

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Figure 5: Spatial distribution of (a) mean SAPHIR channel-1 T_B , (b) RMSD in the WCNT simulated T_B against SAPHIR, improvement parameter (K) in (c) WCLR and

(d) WCLD simulated analyzed T_B against WCNT simulated analyzed T_B during entire month of July 2018.

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Figure 6: Spatial distribution of (a) mean MHS channel-3 T_B , (b) RMSD in the WCNT simulated T_B against MHS, improvement parameter (K) in (c) WCLR and (d) WCLD simulated analyzed T_B against WCNT simulated analyzed T_B during entire month of July 2018.

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Figure 7: Spatial distribution of (a) number of SAPHIR observations used for 03-hourly forecasts verifications, (b) RMSD in WCNT forecasts simulated T_B against SAPHIR, percentage improvement parameter in (c) WCLR and (d) WCLD forecasts simulated T_B against WCNT forecasts simulated T_B during 1-31 July 2018.

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Figure 8: Spatial distribution of (a) number of MHS observations used for 03-hourly forecasts verifications, (b) RMSD in WCNT forecasts simulated T_B against MHS, percentage improvement parameter in (c) WCLR and (d) WCLD forecasts simulated T_B against WCNT forecasts simulated T_B during 1-31 July 2018.

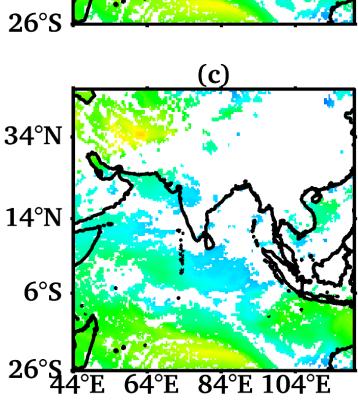
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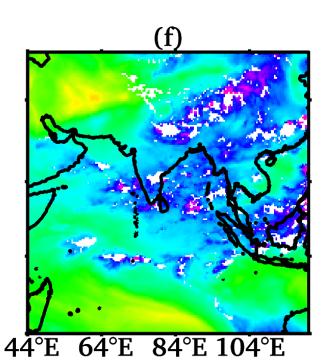
Figure 9: Spatial distribution of WV mixing ratio from (a) NCEP final analysis, and (b)
12-hour forecast from WCNT runs, percentage improvement parameter for (c) WCLR
and (d) WCLD runs against WCNT runs at 300 hPa during July 2018.

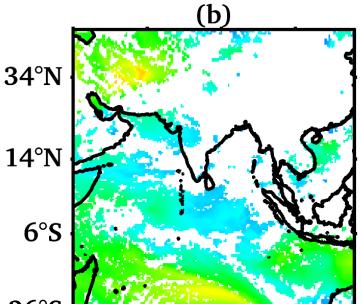
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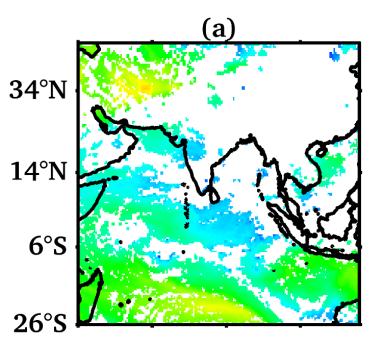
Figure 10: Time-Height plot of percentage improvement parameter for different forecast lengths for (a) WCLR and (d) WCLD runs against WCNT runs, when compared with NCEP final analysis during the entire month of July 2018.

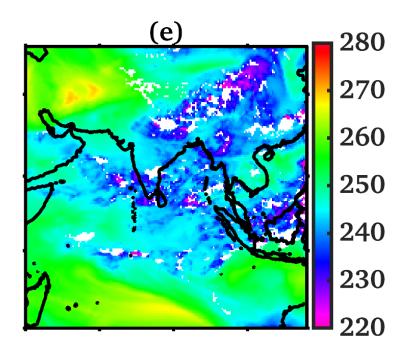
Figure 01.











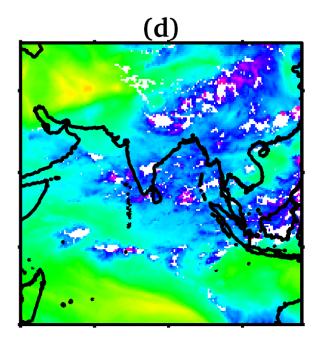


Figure 02.

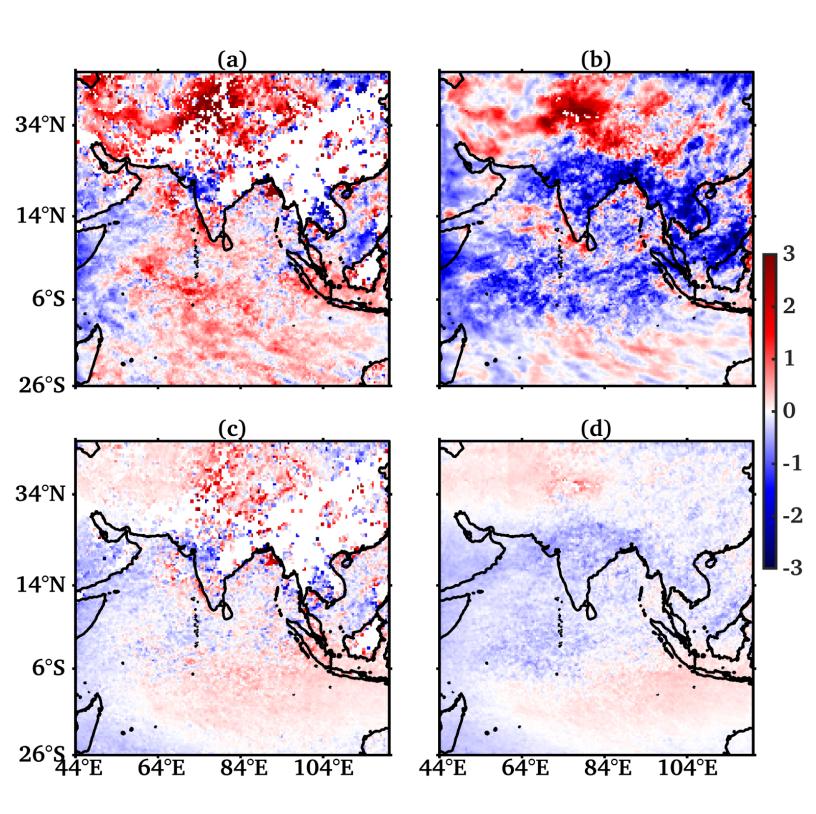


Figure 03.

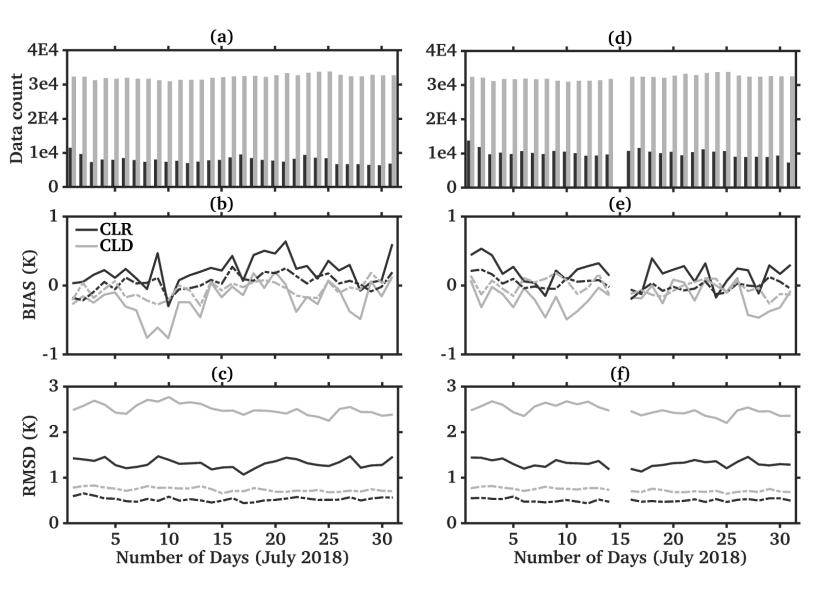


Figure 04.

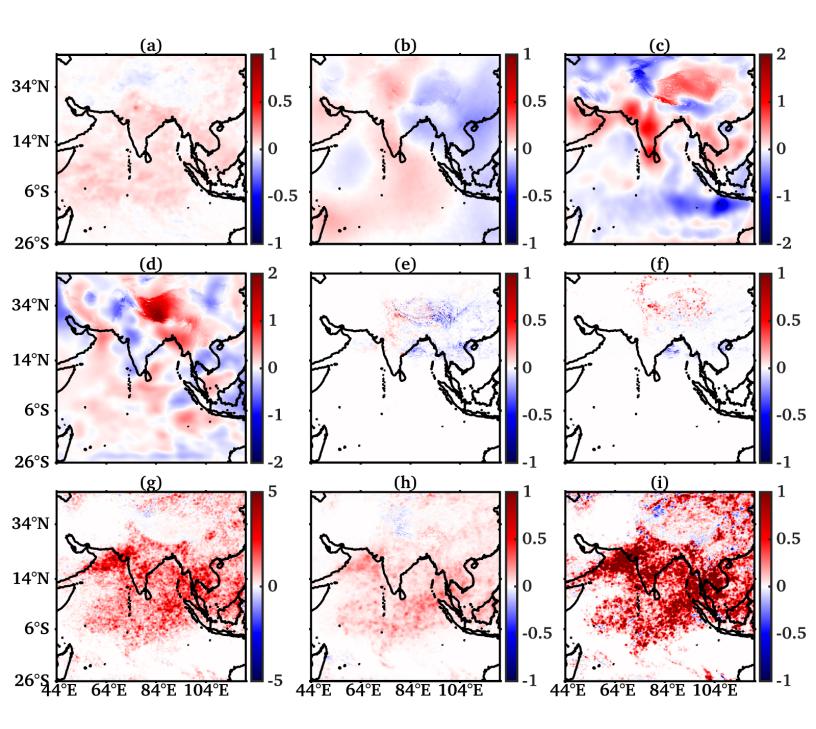


Figure 05.

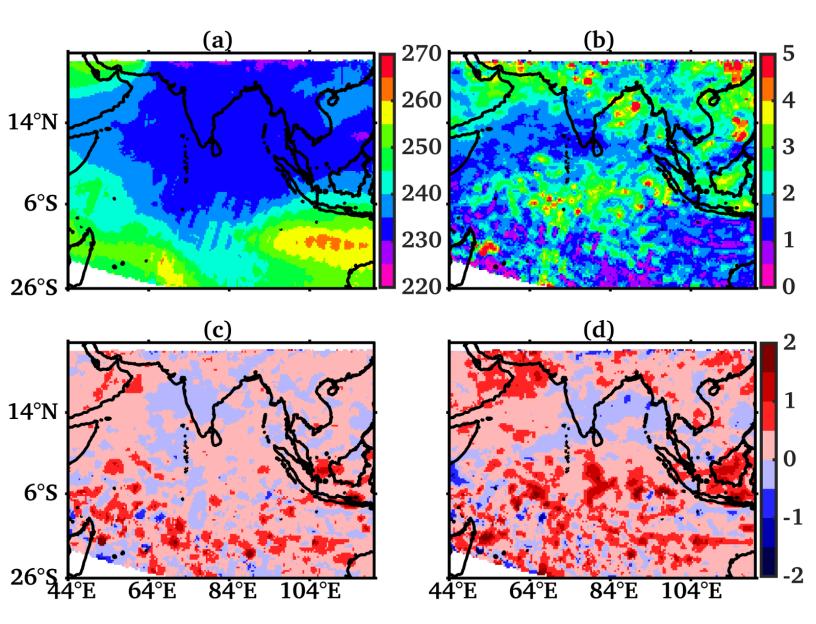


Figure 06.

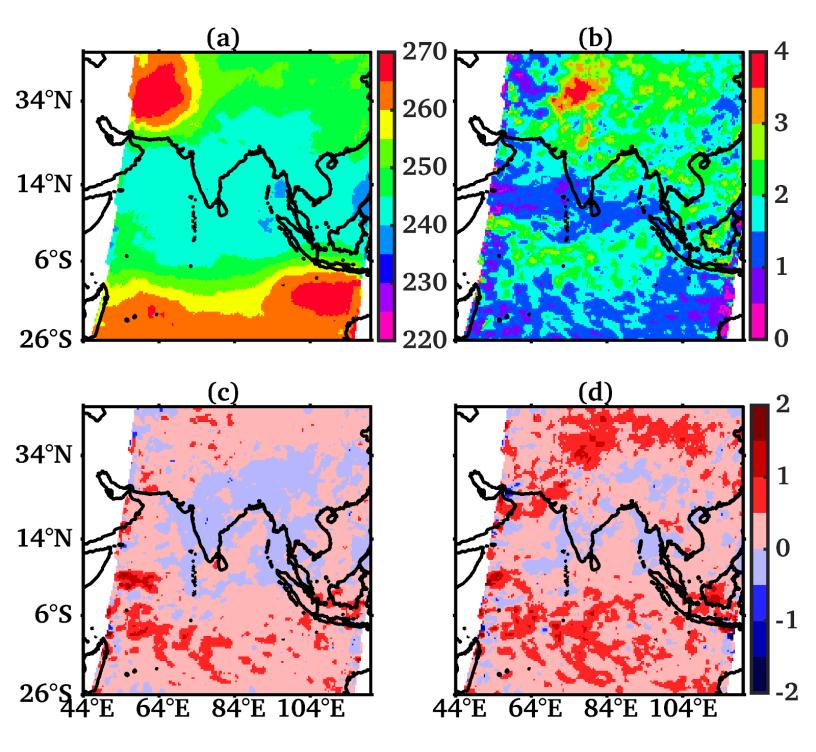


Figure 07.

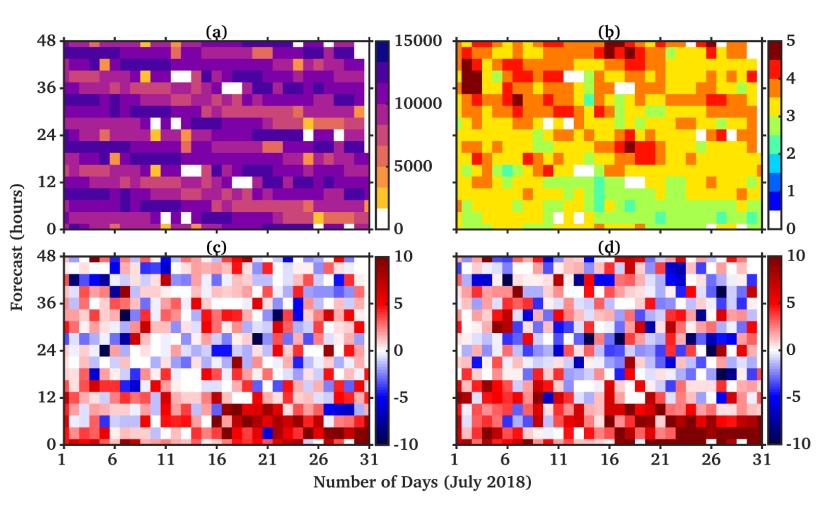


Figure 08.

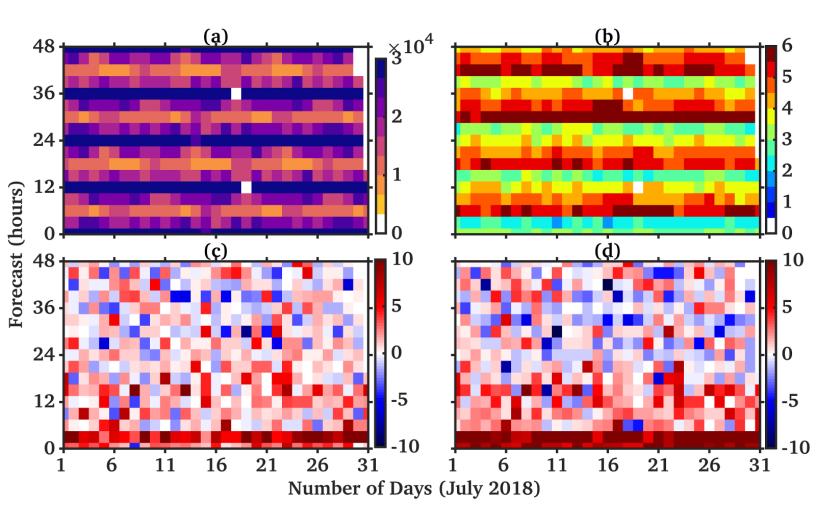


Figure 09.

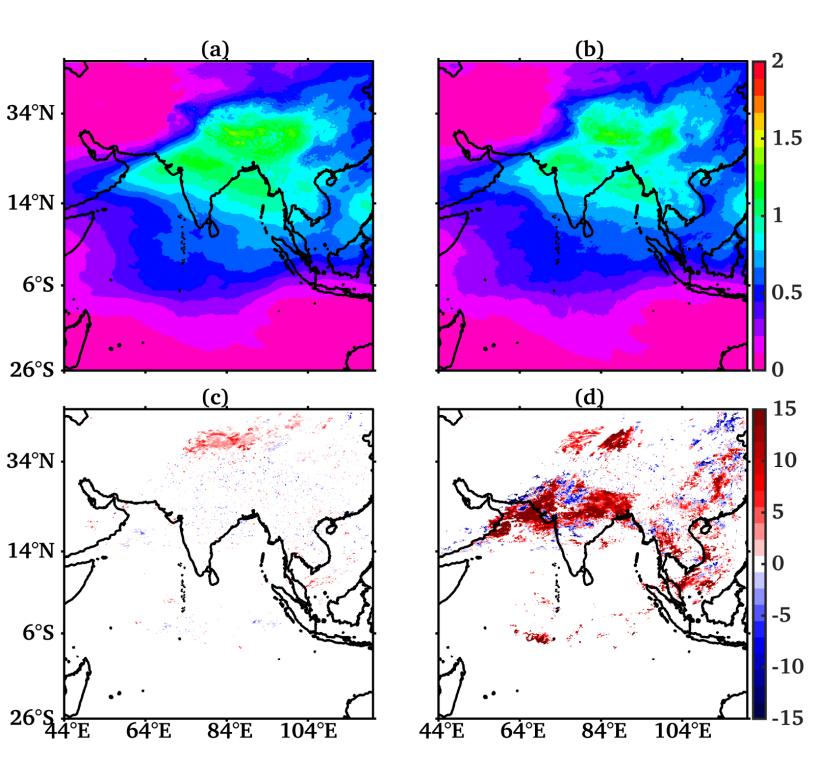


Figure 10.

