8 November 2017
Response to Reviewer #1

Reviewer#1 comments

Manuscript #: acp-2017-525
Manuscript title: Comparison of Global Observations and Trends of Total Precipitable Water Derived from Microwave Radiometers and COSMIC Radio Occultation from 2006 to 2013

Brief Summary of the Manuscript:

This manuscript compares TPW estimates from the COSMIC radio occultation mission against estimates from SSM/I, SSMIS, radiometers, and WindSat over clear sky and cloudy conditions. The authors report a very good agreement between COSMIC and all other TWP data sets and trends. They also claim that the estimated differences between MW radiometers and COSMIC are mainly due to biases in the MW retrieval uncertainty under cloudy and precipitating conditions. This analysis is in my opinion a novel approach to establishing radio occultations as a new remote sensing climate instrument by cross-comparing the COSMIC results with independent data sets. The manuscript is very well written, coherent, and the results are presented nicely within the context of the investigation. My recommendation for this manuscript is publication after minor revisions, as described below.

- ⇨ We thank the reviewer for his or her thoughtful comments and have incorporated the suggested changes in the revised manuscript.

Major Comments:

1) Page 7; Line 147: What is the cut-off value of the liquid water column? Given that this value
establishes an upper limit in the estimation of the TPW in the RSS products, could this introduce a bias in the COSMIC vs RSS comparisons at high TPW values? I think this must be explicitly discussed in the manuscript.

- ⇨ As shown in the valid data range reported by RSS (see http://www.remss.com/missions/ssmi/) the cut off values of the liquid water column are from -0.05 to 2.45 mm (plus the offset value -0.05 mm).
- ⇨ As demonstrated in Fig. 5d, the number of samples for RSS total cloud water (liquid water column) for those MW-COSMIC pairs peaks at around 0.01 mm (~2600) then decreases to fewer than 10 at 0.4 mm. The sample number for RSS total cloud water value equal to or larger than the cut-off value (2.40 mm) is therefore less than 10, which will not introduce any significant biases in the RSS MW-COSMIC comparison.

2) Page 11; Line 236: The authors assume an 80% relative humidity below 0.1 km. What is the sensitivity of the COSMIC TPW estimation the relative humidity assumption? How does that affect the conclusions of this investigation?

- ⇨ We added the following in Section 2.3: The COSMIC TPW estimates are not very sensitive to the assumption of 80% relative humidity below 0.1 km (Step i above). The assumption of 80%+/-10% (i.e., 90% and 70%) relative humidity below 0.1 km introduces an uncertainty of about -/+0.03 mm uncertainty in the WV – COSMIC comparisons for all conditions. As shown in Section 4, this uncertainty is small compared to the observed differences between the RO and MW estimates.

3) Lines 289–291, Lines 309–310, Lines 414-423: The authors conclude that the primary source of the estimated biases between COSMIC and the rest of the data sets is the MW retrieval uncertainty. Because the largest biases are found under cloudy precipitating conditions, I think that the authors should also acknowledge that errors due to: a) cut-off liquid water and b) the 80% RH assumption below 0.1 km, could also contribute to the reported differences. Could there be a combined effect as well?

- ⇨ As stated in our responses to major comment 1), the RSS pre-defined cut off value for liquid water will not affect the conclusion from this study.
- ⇨ As stated in our responses to major comment 2), the 80% RH assumption below 0.1 km does not affect the conclusions from this study.
- ⇨ Since there is a very small number of RSS total cloud water values equal or larger than the cut-off value (2.40 mm), there is no combined effect for these two uncertainties that will affect the conclusion from this study.

4) Page 16; Line 357: It should read: "...with F15, F16, F17, and WindSat under..."

- ⇨ Done

Minor Comments:

a) Line 57: Grammatically the sentence is fine, but the noun "increases" reads rather awkward. Perhaps, consider replacing it with the word "enhancements"?

- ⇨ "increases" is replaced by "enhancements"

b) Line 69: It should read: "reanalyses".

- ⇨ All of the "reanalysis" are replaced by "reanalyses".

c) Line 92: Place a comma after the word "Recently".

⇨ Done

d) Line 116: Delete the word “and”

⇨ Done

e) Line 161: It should read: “... (RR, in mm/hr), respectively, in 2007.”

⇨ Done

f) Line 161: It should read: “temperature variations over the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) (Fig. 1b), which...”

⇨ Done

g) Lines 181-182: It should read: “where P is the pressure in hPa, T is the temperature in K, P_w is the water vapor pressure in hPa, W_{water} is the liquid water content in grams per cubic meter (g m^{-3})... ”

⇨ Done

h) Line 208: Place a comma after the word “troposphere”.

⇨ Done

i) Lines 216-218: I think that this statement is a bit bold. Perhaps, mention that the “...retrieved water vapor profiles are weekly dependent on the first guess” and provide a more appropriate reference that demonstrates that?

⇨ In Line 226, “the retrieved water vapor profiles are insensitive to the first guess water vapor profiles” is replaced with “the retrieved water vapor profiles are weakly dependent on the first guess water vapor profiles (Neiman et al. 2008)”. Neiman et al. (2008) is a good reference for this statement.

j) Line 244: Check “Wick2008”. Is it written properly?

⇨ In Line 125 of the original manuscript (141-142 of revised manuscript), we defined Wick et al.(2008) as “Wick2008” the first time the reference is given, so “Wick2008” is ok.

k) Line 264: Spell out December.

⇨ Done

l) Lines 264-266: Delete this sentence. It appears twice in Lines 259-260.

⇨ Done

m) Line 268: It should read: “Figures 2a-d...”

⇨ Done

n) Line 275: Explain briefly how the “rad-cal” beacon biases the F15 data.

⇨ One sentence is added in Line 285, “On 14 August 2006, a radar calibration beacon (RAD-CAL) was activated on F15. This radar interfered with the SSM/I, primarily the 22V channel, which is a key channel for water vapor retrievals. Although a correction method derived by *Hilburn and Wentz* (2008) and *Hilburn* (2009) was applied, the 22 V channel is not being full corrected (Wentz, 2012). As a result, there are still errors in the water vapor retrievals.”

⇨ Two papers are added in to references:

Hilburn, K. A. and F. J. Wentz, 2008: Mitigating the Impact of RADCAL Beacon Contamination on F15 SSM/I Ocean Retrievals. *Geophysical Research Letters, 35*. L18806, doi:10.1029/2008GL034914.

Hilburn, K. A., 2009: Including Temperature Effects in the F15 RADCAL Correction. *RSS Technical Report 051209*, Remote Sensing Systems, Santa Rosa, CA, http://www.remss.com/papers/RSS_TR051209_RADCAL.pdf.

o) Line 300: It should read: “Figures 4a-d depict the...”

⇨ Done

p) Line 318: It should read: “Figure 5b indicates that...”

⇨ Done. And all “Fig.” replaced with “Figure” in the paper

q) Line 321: Delete “Fig. 5d”

⇨ Done

r) Line 323: It should read: “Figure 5e shows that...”

⇨ Done

s) Lines 338, 342: Spell out December.

- ⇨ Done

t) Line 353: It should read: “Figure 8 depicts the...”

- ⇨ Done

u) Line 366: It should read: “Figure 9 shows the...”

- ⇨ Done

v) Line 382: It should read: “Figure 10 shows...”

- ⇨ Done

w) Line 383: What about the F15 data?

- ⇨ The reason we did not include F15 data in Figure 10 is mentioned in the last para on page 17 of the revised manuscript: “The reason for larger standard deviations of the MW minus RO differences for F15 (Tables 2 and 3 and Fig. 8a) is very likely because the F15 data after August 2006 were corrupted by the “rad-cal” beacon that was turned on at this time.” Also on this page “RSS does not recommend using these measurements for studies of long-term change. Thus, we consider the F15 data less reliable during the period of our study.”

x) Line 385: It should read: “...and west of Australia, south...”

- ⇨ Done

y) Lines 399–400: It should read: “Because RO data have low sensitivity to clouds...”

- ⇨ Done

9 November 2017
Response to Review #2

Anonymous Referee #2

This study compares passive microwave (MW) estimates of total precipitable water (TPW) with radio occultation (RO) profiles of TPW that are closely matched together in space and time. The comparison is broken into four parts: clear sky, cloudy sky, cloudy sky with no precipitation, and cloudy sky with precipitation. The bias is smallest in clear sky and is largest within precipitating conditions. The bias is shown to be a small function of surface temperature, surface wind speed, etc., but these effects have little consequence on the interpretation of biases and trends, which lends further confidence to the results of this work. The trends in TPW are statistically significant and are larger than previously reported. The trends are uniformly largest within cloudy non-precipitating skies, and can be slightly negative in clear sky for a few of the MW radiometers.

This is a very straightforward and useful study that is well written and flows logically. I only have a few minor comments and suggestions before this paper is accepted for publication.

- ⇨ We thank this reviewer for his or her thoughtful comments, and we have incorporated them into the revised manuscript.

1. Abstract and elsewhere: non-precipitating and precipitating conditions instead of non-precipitation and precipitation conditions? I'm not an expert in grammar but the latter reads a little odd.

⇨ To be consistent, we use precipitating and non-precipitating throughout in the revised paper.

2. Lines 52-54: is the global water vapor feedback still one of the largest uncertainties? We seem to know that the water vapor+lapse rate feedback has less spread in climate models than cloud feedbacks (see Soden et al., 2008, J. Climate, Figure 7, and other references). The role of water vapor and its regional variability, such as shown in Figure 10 in the manuscript, is probably the more uncertain quantity rather than global trends as shown in Figure 9. To summarize, it might be better to emphasize the role of water vapor in controlling cloud processes, and observing long term trends in water vapor is part of that understanding.

- ⇨ We have revised the introductory paragraph to incorporate these comments. In addition, we added the following paper to the references:

Held, I. M., and B. J. Soden, 2000: Water vapor feedback and global warming, Annu. Rev. Energy Environ., 25, 441–475, doi:10.1146/annurev.energy.25.1.441.

Soden, B.J. and I.M. Held, 2006: Assessment of climate feedbacks in coupled ocean-atmosphere models. *J. Climate*, 19, 3354-3360.

Wentz, F.J., Lucrezia Riccardulli, K. Hilburn, and C. Mears, 2007: How much more rain will global warming bring? *Science*, 317, 233-235.

3. Line 66: land and ocean
   - ⇨ We think it is more proper to use "lands and oceans".
   - ⇨ We changed this to "land areas and oceans.

4. Line 68: ocean

   - ⇨ We still use "oceans" since this means all "oceans".

5. Line 195: IWC can be even a bit higher than that in convective towers, see D. Leroy et al., 2017, J. Atmos. Ocean Tech. that summarizes the HAIC/HIWC field campaign

   - ⇨ We added "Heymsfield et al., (2002) reported high ice water content values ranging from 0.1 – 0.5 gm^{-3} in tropical cirrus and stratiform precipitating clouds, although it may rarely reach as high as 1.5 gm^{-3} in deep tropical convective clouds (Leroy et al., 2017)." We also added two references:

Leroy, D., Fontaine, E., Schwarzenboeck, A., Strapp, J. W., Korolev, A., McFarquhar, G., Dupuy, R., Gourbeyre, C., Lilie, L., Protat, A., Delanoë, J., Dezitter, F., and Grandin, A., 2017: Ice crystal sizes in high ice water content clouds. Part 2: Statistics of mass diameter percentiles in tropical convection observed during the HAIC/HIWC project, J. Atmos. Oceanic Technol., doi: 10.1175/JTECH-D-15-0246.1.

Heymsfield, A. J., A. Bansemer, P. R. Field, S. L. Durden, J. L. Stith, J. E. Dye, W. Hall, and C. A. Grainger, 2002: Observations and parameterizations of particle size distributions in deep tropical cirrus and stratiform precipitating clouds: Results from in situ observations in TRMM field campaigns. *J. Atmos. Sci*., 59, 3457–3491, doi:10.1175/1520-0469(2002)059, 3457.

6. Lines 233-234: what is the percent frequency of COSMIC water vapor profiles that sample below 0.1 km?

- ⇨ We added "About 70% to 90% of COSMIC profiles reach to within 1 km of the surface (Anthes et al, 2008). Usually more than 30% of COSMIC water vapor profiles reach below 0.1 km in the mid-latitudes and higher latitudes, and a little bit less than 10% in the tropical regions."

7. Lines 246-249: the larger spatial variance of water vapor in the tropics compared to the extratropics should be reflected in the higher standard deviations, and their increases sensitivity to collocation distance. Have the authors explored these differences? Would also be helpful to cite a paper or two on the spatial variance of water vapor.

- ⇨ Yes, the larger spatial variance of water vapor in the tropics compared to the extratropics (see Fig. 1a) should be reflected in the higher standard deviations. However, because RSS TPW retrieval errors could also be larger over stronger convective regions under cloud and precipitating conditions (see section 4 and Figs. 5 and 6), it is hard to distinguish the tropical vs. sub-tropical effect from retrieval uncertainty effects.
- ⇨ We added two sentences in the end of the paragraph "Note that, although not shown, the mean biases and standard deviations of the mean biases are slightly larger over the tropics than those over mid-latitudes. This could be because of the combined effect of the larger spatial TPW variation in the tropics than those in the mid-latitudes (see Fig. 1a, and Neiman et al., 2008; Teng et al., 2013; Mears et al., 2015) and the fact that the MW TPW retrieval uncertainty is also larger over stronger convection regions. More results are detailed in Section 4."

8. Line 250: a little bit of extra clarification on the matchups is warranted. Does one really get 20-60 MW pixels near a RO observation within a 1-hour period? This seems excessive. Is this at 0.25 degrees resolution or a larger distance? Are the matchups for the entire length of the 200 km RO or with respect to the tangent point at a particular reference altitude?

- ⇨ As mentioned in Section 2.3, "Pairs of MW and RO TPW estimates collocated within 50 km and one hour are collected." Over tropical regions, 0.25 degrees is about 25 km. So one RO observation can match with about 16 (4X4) 0.25x0.25 MW grids. In higher latitudes, a 0.25 degree resolution is less than 25 km. So within 50 km radius (100 km diameter), one RO observation can match from 16 (4x4) to 49 (7x7 in very high latitude) MW 0.25x0.25 grids. Although it is not mentioned in the text, there are about 1 to 2 MW pixels binned into each 0.25X0.25 grid. Therefore, in the text, we mention that we will have about 20-60 MW pixels near a RO observation.
- ⇨ Again, the matchup is within 50 km at the location of RO tangent point at 4-5 km altitude. We added the statement "The location of RO observation is defined by the RO tangent point at 4-5 km altitude."

9. Line 268: Figures 3a-c (only three panels)

- ⇨ It should refer to Fig. 2 not Fig. 3, and is revised to "Figures 2a-d"

10. Line 298: under different

⇨ Done

11. Line 310: a small but significant degree seems a little bit contradictory, maybe there is a better way to state this

⇨ “a small but significant degree” is replaced by “which in turn affect the MW TPW retrievals.

12. Line 314: droplets

⇨ Done

13. Line 385: Australian, and also South America

⇨ Done

14. Line 412: reliable references

⇨ “reliable reference data” is used.

15. Lines 432-440: can the authors say anything about the magnitudes of these trends and whether they are consistent with the constant RH hypothesis of Earth’s atmosphere?

⇨ This is a good question, but also one that is difficult to answer from our results. We added the following to the end of the Discussion section:

Other studies have suggested that this positive feedback results in a nearly constant global mean relative humidity (Soden and Held, 2006; Sherwood et al., 2010). However, it is difficult to directly relate our estimated TPW trends to constant RH hypothesis of Earth’s atmosphere under global warming. The global mean surface temperature has been rising at about the rate of 0.2 K/decade in the past twenty years. A 0.2K increase in temperature would produce about a 1.4% increase in saturation water vapor pressure based on the Clausius-Clapeyon equation. To maintain a constant RH for this temperature increase, the actual water vapor pressure (and specific humidity) would also have to increase by 1.4%. In this study, we observe an increase of TPW in our dataset of about 1.78 mm/decade which is 6.9 percent increase per decade in TPW. Our dataset is dominated mainly by cloudy samples over middle latitudes (40°N-60°N and 40°-65°S). Thus, from these numbers alone we would expect an increase in mean RH under cloudy conditions by more than 6%, which is unlikely and well outside the range of changes in relative humidity in models (e.g. Figure 2 in Sherwood et al., 2010). However, the changes in the global mean RH are not related in such a simple fashion to changes in the global mean temperature and precipitable water. For example, Figure 10 depicts that there are very large differences in the spatial distribution of TPW changes, which shows regional variations of +/- 4 mm/decade. Thus, some regions are drying and others are moistening. The variations in global mean surface temperature are also large, but very different from those of TPW, with the polar regions and continents warming up much faster than the atmosphere over the oceans. In cold polar regions, an increase in temperature will result in a smaller increase in saturation vapor pressure than the same increase in temperature in the tropics. The global evaporation and precipitation patterns also vary greatly, as water vapor transport is important in the global water vapor balance. All of this, as discussed by Held and Soden (2000), Soden and Held (2006), and Sherwood et al. (2010) means that the relationships between global mean temperature increase, TPW changes, and the resulting change in global mean RH are not simple.

16. Line 494: author list for reference is incomplete

All of the authors are added in the reference. The new reference is "Fetzer, E. J., W.G. Read, D. Waliser, B. H. Kahn, B. Tian, H. Vömel, F. W. Irion, H. Su, A. Eldering, M. T. Juarez, J. Jiang, and V. Dang, 2008: Comparison of upper tropospheric water vapor observations from the Microwave Limb Sounder and Atmospheric Infrared Sounder. *J. Geophys. Res.*, 113/D22, D22110."

9 November 2017
Revised draft with changes shown (tracking on)

Comparison of Global Observations and Trends of Total Precipitable Water Derived from Microwave Radiometers and COSMIC Radio Occultation from 2006 to 2013

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Manuscript for Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics

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Abstract

We compare atmospheric total precipitable water (TPW) derived from SSM/I (Special Sensor Microwave Imager) and SSMIS (Special Sensor Microwave Imager Sounder) radiometers and WindSat to collocated TPW estimates derived from COSMIC (Constellation System for Meteorology, Ionosphere and Climate) radio occultation (RO) under clear and cloudy conditions over the oceans from June 2006 to December 2013. Results show that the mean microwave (MW) radiometer - COSMIC TPW differences range from 0.06-0.18 mm for clear skies, 0.79-0.96 mm for cloudy skies, 0.46-0.49 mm for cloudy but non-precipitating conditions, and 1.64-1.88 mm for precipitating conditions. Because RO measurements are not significantly affected by clouds and precipitation, the biases mainly result from MW retrieval uncertainties under cloudy and precipitating conditions. All COSMIC and MW radiometers detect a positive TPW trend over these eight years. The trend using all COSMIC observations collocated with MW pixels for this data set is 1.79 mm/decade, with a 95% confidence interval of (0.96, 2.63), which is in close agreement with the trend estimated by the collocated MW observations (1.78 mm/decade with a 95% confidence interval of 0.94, 2.62). The sample of MW and RO pairs used in this study is highly biased toward middle latitudes (40°-60°N and 40°-65°S), and so these trends are not representative of global average trends. However, they are representative of the latitudes of extratropical storm tracks and the trend values are approximately four to six times the global average trends, which are approximately 0.3 mm/decade. In addition, the close agreement of these two trends from independent observations, which represent an increase in TPW in our data set of about 6.9%, are a strong indication of the positive water vapor-temperature feedback in a warming planet in regions where precipitation from

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1. Introduction

Clouds are important regulators for Earth's radiation and hydrological balances. Water vapor is a primary variable that affects cloud radiative effects and hydrological feedbacks. In addition, the three-dimensional distribution of water vapor is a key factor for cloud formation and distribution (Soden et al., 2002). Held and Soden (2000) and Soden and Held (2006) illustrated that water vapor amounts will increase in response to global warming. Climate models predict that the column-integrated amount of water vapor, or total precipitable water, will increase by ~7% per 1 K increase in surface temperature (Wentz and Schabel, 2000; Trenberth et al., 2005; Wentz et al., 2007). Therefore, accurate observations of long-term water vapor under both clear and cloudy skies are important for understanding the role of water vapor on climate as well as cloud formation and distribution, which is still one of the largest uncertainties in understanding climate change mechanisms (IPCC 2013). Trends in global and regional vertically integrated total atmospheric water vapor, or Total Precipitable Water (TPW), are important indicators of climate warming because of the strong positive feedback between temperature and water vapor enhancements. Accurate observations of TPW are therefore important in identifying climate change and in verifying climate models, which estimate a wide range of TPW trends (Roman et al. 2014).

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The TPW depends on temperature (Trenberth and Guillemot, 1998; Trenberth et al., 2005). Global TPW can be derived from satellite visible, infrared, and microwave sensors (i.e., Wentz and Spencer, 1998; Fetzer et al. 2006; John and Soden, 2007; Fetzer et al. 2008; Noël et al. 2004). However, no single remote sensing technique is capable of completely fulfilling the needs for climate studies in terms of spatial and temporal coverage and accuracy. For example, while water vapor retrievals from visible and infrared satellite sensors are limited to clear skies over both land areas and oceans, passive microwave (MW) imagers on satellites can provide all sky water vapor products, but only over oceans. These water vapor products are mainly verified by comparing to either reanalyses, radiosonde measurements, or other satellite data (i.e., Soden, and Lanzante, 1996; Sohn and Smith, 2003; Noël et al. 2004; Palm et al. 2008; Sohn and Bennartz, 2008; Wick et al. 2008 (hereafter Wick2008); Milz et al. 2009; Prasad and Singh, 2009; Pougatchev et al. 2009; Knuteson et al., 2010; Larar et al. 2010; Wang et al. 2010; Ho et al. 2010a, b). Results from these validation studies show that the quality of water vapor data from different satellite sensors varies under different atmospheric conditions. The change of reanalysis systems and inconsistent calibration among data may also cause uncertainty in long-term stability of water vapor estimates. In addition, it is well known that radiosonde sensor characteristics can be affected by the changing environment (Luers and Eskridge, 1998; Wang and Zhang, 2008). Ho et al. (2010b) demonstrated that the quality of radiosonde humidity measurements varies with sensor types, adding extra difficulties in making a consistent validation of long term water vapor products.

MW imagers are among the very few satellite instruments that are able to provide long-term (close to 30 years) all-weather time series of water vapor measurements using similar sensors and retrieval techniques (Wentz, 2015). The measured radiances at 19.35, 22.235, and 37.0 GHz from SSMIS and 18.7, 23.8, and 37.0 GHz from WindSat are used to derive TPW, total cloud water (TCW), wind speed, and rainfall rates over oceans (Wentz and Spencer, 1998). These four variables are retrieved by varying their values until the brightness temperatures calculated using a forward model match satellite-observed

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brightness temperatures. Because MW radiation is significantly affected (absorbed or scattered) by heavy rain, these four variables are only retrieved under conditions of no or light-to-moderate rain (Schlüssel and Emery, 1990; Elsaesser and Kummerow, 2008; Wentz and Spencer, 1998).

Recently, version 7.0 daily ocean products mapped to a 0.25° grid derived from multiple MW radiometers were released by Remote Sensing System (RSS) (Wentz, 2013). Many validation studies have been performed by RSS by comparing the MW TPW retrievals with those from ground-based Global Positioning System (gb-GPS) stations (Mears et al, 2015; Wentz, 2015). Because the gb-GPS stations are nearly always located on land, these validation studies use stations located on small and isolated islands (Mears et al., 2015). RSS results for TPW collocated with those derived from gb-GPS over these island stations show that their mean differences vary from station to station, and can be as large as 2 mm. The mean difference also varies with surface wind speed, varying from 1 mm at low wind speeds to -1 mm at high wind (20 m/s) speeds. The difference is near zero for the most common wind speeds (6 to 12 m/s). Because the uncertainty of the input parameters and change of antenna for each GPS receiver (Bock et al., 2013), the mean TPW(RSS) – TPW (gb-GPS) can vary from -1.5 mm to 1.5 mm for a single MW radiometer (see Figure 4 in Mears et al., 2015). Wentz (2015) compared 17 years of Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission (TRMM) Microwave Imager (TMI) TPW collocated with gb-GPS TPW over the region from 45ºN to 45º S. The mean TMI- gb-GPS TPW bias was estimated to be 0.45 mm with a standard deviation (σ) of 2.01 mm.

Unlike passive MW radiometers and infrared sensors, radio occultation (RO) is an active remote sensing technique. RO can provide all-weather, high vertical resolution (from

~100 m near the surface to ~1.5 km at 40 km) refractivity profiles (Anthes, 2011). The basis of the RO measurement is a timing measured against reference clocks on the ground, which are timed and calibrated by the atomic clocks at the National Institutes for Standards and Technology (NIST). With a GPS receiver onboard the LEO (Low-Earth Orbiting) satellite, this technique is able to detect the bending of radio signals emitted by GPS satellites traversing the atmosphere. With the information about the relative motion of the GPS and LEO satellites, the bending angle profile of the radio waves can be used to derive all-weather refractivity, pressure, temperature, and water vapor profiles in the neutral atmosphere (Anthes et al., 2008).

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Launched in June 2006, COSMIC (Constellation Observing System for Meteorology, Ionosphere, and Climate) RO data have been used to study atmospheric temperature and refractivity trends in the lower stratosphere (Ho et al., 2009a, b, and 2012), and modes of variability above, within, and below clouds (Biondi et al., 2012, 2013; Teng et al., 2013; Scherllin-Pirscher et al., 2012; Zeng et al., 2012; Mears et al., 2012). Wick2008 demonstrated the feasibility of using COSMIC-derived TPW to validate SSM/I TPW products over the east Pacific Ocean using one month of data. Many studies have demonstrated the usefulness of RO derived water vapor to detect climate signals of El Niño–Southern Oscillation (ENSO; Teng et al., 2013; Scherllin-Pirscher et al, 2012; Huang et al., 2013), Madden-Julian Oscillation (MJO; Zeng et al., 2012), and improving moisture analysis of atmospheric rivers (Neiman et al., 2008; Ma et al. 2011).

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The objective of this study is to use COSMIC RO TPW to characterize the global TPW values and trends derived from multiple MW radiometers over oceans, including under cloudy and precipitating skies. COSMIC TPW from June 2006 to December 2013 are compared to co-located TPW derived from MW radiometers over the same time period. Because RO data are not strongly sensitive to clouds and precipitation, COSMIC TPW estimates can be used to identify possible MW TPW biases under different meteorological conditions. We describe datasets and analysis method used in the comparisons in Section 2. The comparison results under clear skies and cloudy skies are summarized in Sections 3 and 4, respectively. The time series analysis is in Section 5. We conclude this study in Section 6.

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2. RSS Version 7.0 Data and COSMIC TPW Data and Comparison Method

2.1 RSS Version 7.0 Data Ocean Products

The RSS version 7.0 ocean products are available for SSM/I, SSMIS, AMSR-E, WindSat, and TMI. The inversion algorithm is mainly based on Wentz and Spencer, (1998), where above a cutoff in the liquid water column (2.45 mm), water vapor is no longer retrieved. The various radiometers from the different satellites have been precisely inter-calibrated at the radiance level by analyzing the measurements made by pairs of satellites operating at the same time. This was done for the explicit purpose of producing versions of the datasets that can be used to study decadal-scale changes in TPW, wind, clouds, and precipitation, so special attention was focused on inter-annual variability in instrument calibration. The calibration procedures and physical inversion algorithm used to simultaneously retrieve TPW, surface wind speed (and thereby surface wind stress and surface roughness) and the total liquid water content are summarized in Wentz (2013) and Wentz (1997), respectively. This allows the algorithm to minimize the effect of wind speed, clouds, and rain on the TPW measurement.

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The RSS version 7.0 daily data are available on a 0.25° latitude x 0.25° longitude grid for daytime and nighttime (i.e., 1440x720x2 daily per day). Figures 1a-d shows the RSS V7.0 monthly mean F16 SSMIS TPW (in mm), surface skin temperature (in K), liquid water path (LWP, in mm), and rain rate (RR, in mm/h), respectively, in 2007. Figure 1 shows that the variation and distribution of TPW over oceans (Figure 1a) is, in general, closely linked to surface skin temperature variations over the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) (Figure 1b), which is modulated by clouds and the hydrological cycle (Soden et al., 2002). The distribution of monthly TPW is consistent with that of cloud water, where highest TPW values (and LWP and RR) occur in persistent cloudy and strong convective regions over the tropical west Pacific Ocean near Indonesia.

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Because COSMIC reprocessed TPW data are only available from June 2006 to December 2013 (i.e., COSMIC2013), the SSM/I F15, SSMIS F16, SSMIS F17, together with WindSat RSS Version 7.01 ocean products covering the same time period are used in this study. Table 1 summarizes the starting date and end date for RSS SSM/I F15, SSMIS F16, SSMIS F17, and WindSat data. The all sky daily RSS ocean products for F15, F16, F17, and WindSat are downloaded from http://www.remss.com/missions/ssmi.

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2.2 COSMIC TPW Products

The atmospheric refractivity N is a function of pressure P, temperature T, water vapor pressure P_W, and water content W through the following relationship (Kursinski 1997; Zou et al. 2012):

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$$N = 77.6\frac{P}{T} + 3.73\times 10^{5}\frac{P_W}{T^2} + 1.4W_{water} + 0.61W_{ice} \qquad (1)$$

where P is the pressure in hPa, T is the temperature in K, P_W is the water vapor pressure in hPa, W_{water} is the liquid water content in grams per cubic meter (gm^{-3}), and W_{ice} is the ice water content in gm^{-3}. The last two terms generally contribute less than 1% to the refractivity and may be ignored (Zou et al., 2012). However, they can be significant for some applications under conditions of high cloud liquid or ice water content, as shown by Lin et al. 2010; Yang and Zou 2012; Zou et al. 2012. We will neglect these terms in this study, but because we are looking at small differences between MW and RO TPW in cloudy and precipitating conditions in this paper, we estimate the possible contribution of these terms to RO TPW and the consequences of neglecting them here. Since both of these terms increase N, neglecting them in an atmosphere in which they are present will produce a small positive bias in water vapor pressure P_W and therefore total precipitable water when integrated throughout the entire depth of the atmosphere.

Typical value of cloud LWC range from ~0.2 gm^{-3} in stratiform clouds (Thompson, 2007) to 1 gm^{-3} in convective clouds (Thompson, 2007; Cober et al. 2001). Extreme values may reach ~2 gm^{-3} in deep tropical convective clouds (i.e., cumulonimbus). Ice water content values are smaller, typically 0.01 – 0.03 gm^{-3} (Thompson, 2007). Heymsfield et al., (2002) reported high ice water content values ranging from 0.1 – 0.5 gm^{-3} in tropical cirrus and stratiform precipitating clouds, although it may rarely reach as high as 1.5 gm^{-3} in deep tropical convective clouds (Leroy et al., 2017).

For extremely high values of W_{water} and W_{ice} of 2.0 and 0.5 gm^{-3}, the contributions to N are 2.8 and 0.3 respectively. The values of N in the atmosphere decrease exponentially upward, from ~300 near the surface to ~150 at P=500 hPa. Using the above extreme values

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at 500 hPa, W_{water} may contribute from up to 1.6% of N and W_{ice} up to 0.2%. Thus we may assume that in most cases the error in N due to neglecting these terms will be less than 1%. The effect on TPW will be even less, since clouds do not generally extend through the full depth of the atmosphere. Finally, the ~200 km horizontal averaging scale of the RO observation footprint makes it unlikely that such extremely high values of water and ice content will be present over this scale. We conclude that the small positive bias in RO TPW introduced by neglecting the liquid and water terms in (1) will be less than 1%.

To resolve the ambiguity of COSMIC refractivity associated with both temperature and water vapor in the lower troposphere, a 1D-var algorithm (http://cosmic-io.cosmic.ucar.edu/cdaac/doc/documents/1dvar.pdf) is used to derive optimal temperature and water vapor profiles while temperatures and water vapor profiles from the ERA-Interim reanalysis are used as a priori estimates (Neiman et al. 2008; Zeng et al. 2012).

Note that because RO refractivity is very sensitive to water vapor variations in the troposphere (Ho et al. 2007), and is less sensitive to temperature errors, RO-derived water vapor product is of high accuracy (Ho et al. 2010 a, b). It is estimated that 1K of temperature error will introduce less than 0.25 g/kg of water vapor bias in the troposphere in the 1D-var retrievals. Although the first guess temperature and moisture are needed for the 1D-Var algorithm, the retrieved water vapor profiles are weakly dependent on the first guess water vapor profiles (Neiman et al. 2008).

The horizontal footprint of a COSMIC observation is about 200 km in the lower troposphere and its vertical resolution is about 100 m near the surface and 1.5 km at 40 km. The COSMIC post-processed water vapor profiles version 2010.2640 collected from COSMIC Data Analysis and Archive Center (CDAAC)

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(http://cosmicio.cosmic.ucar.edu/cdaac/index.html) are used to construct the COSMIC TPW data. To further validate the accuracy of COSMIC-derived water vapor, we have compared COSMIC TPW with those derived from ground-based GPS (i.e., International Global Navigation Satellite Systems–IGS, Wang et al. 2007) which are assumed to be independent of location. Only those COSMIC profiles whose lowest penetration heights are within 200 meters of the height of ground-based GPS stations are included. Results showed that the mean global difference between IGS and COSMIC TPW is about -0.2 mm with a standard deviation of 2.7 mm (Ho et al., 2010a). Similar comparisons were found by Teng et al. (2013) and Huang et al. (2013).

2.3 Preparation of COSMIC TPW data for Comparison

In this study, only those COSMIC water vapor profiles penetrating lower than 0.1 km are integrated to compute TPW. Approximately 70% to 90% of COSMIC profiles reach to within 1 km of the surface (Anthes et al., 2008). Usually more than 30% of COSMIC water vapor profiles reach below 0.1 km in the mid-latitudes and higher latitudes, and a little bit less than 10% in the tropical regions. To compensate for the water vapor amount below the penetration height, we follow the following procedure:

i) we assume the relative humidity below the penetration height is equal to 80%. This is a good assumption especially over oceans near the sea surface (Mears et al., 2015);

ii) the temperatures below the penetration height are taken from the ERA-interim reanalysis;

iii) we compute the water vapor mixing ratio below the penetration heights;

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iv) we integrate the TPW using COSMIC water vapor profiles above the penetration heights with those water vapor profile below the penetration heights.

The COSMIC TPW estimates are not very sensitive to the assumption of 80% relative humidity below 0.1 km (Step i above). The assumption of 80% +/-10% (i.e., 90% and 70%) relative humidity below 0.1 km introduces an uncertainty of about -/+ 0.03 mm in the WV – COSMIC comparisons for all conditions. As shown in Section 4, this uncertainty is small compared to the observed differences between the RO and MW estimates.

Pairs of MW and RO TPW estimates collocated within 50 km and one hour are collected. The location of RO observation is defined by the RO tangent point at 4-5 km altitude. Wick2008 used MW-RO pairs within 25 km and one hour in time. To evaluate the effect of the spatial difference on the TPW difference, we also computed TPW differences for MW-RO pairs within 75 km, 100 km, and 150 km, and 200 km. We found the larger spatial difference increases the mean TPW biases slightly to +/- 0.25 mm and the standard deviations to +/- 1.91 mm, which is likely because of the high spatial variability of water vapor. Note that, although not shown, the mean biases and standard deviations of the mean biases are slightly larger over the tropics than over mid-latitudes. This could be because of the combined effect of the larger spatial TPW variation in the tropical region than those in the mid-latitudes (see Fig. 1a, and Neiman et al., 2008; Teng et al., 2013; Mears et al., 2015) and the fact that the MW TPW retrieval uncertainty is also larger over stronger convection regions. More results are detailed in Section 4.

With a 0.25°×0.25° grid, there are about 20 to 60 MW pixels matching one COSMIC observation. The number of pixels varies at different latitudes. A clear MW-RO pair is defined as instances when *all* the TCW values for the collocated MW pixels are

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equal to zero. A cloudy MW-RO ensemble is defined as instances when *all* the TCW values from the collocated MW pixels are larger than zero. Partly cloudy conditions (some of pixels zero and some non-zero) are excluded from this study. The cloudy ensembles are further divided into precipitating and non-precipitating conditions. MW-RO pairs are defined as cloudy non-precipitating when less than 20% of MW pixels have rainfall rates larger than zero mm/hour. Cloudy precipitating MW-RO pairs are defined when more than 20% of the pixels have rainfall rates larger than zero. Because microwave radiances are not sensitive to ice, we treat cloudy pixels of low density like cirrus clouds as clear pixels.

The matching pairs of RO and MW observations are not distributed uniformly over the world oceans. In fact, they are heavily concentrated in middle latitudes, as shown in Figure 1e. This biased distribution is caused by several factors, including the polar orbits of the satellites, which produce more observations in higher latitudes, and also the failure of many COSMIC RO soundings to penetrate to 0.1km in the subtropics and tropics (due to super-refraction which is often present in these regions). Thus the results presented here, especially the trends, are not representative of global averages. However, the main purpose of this paper is to compare two independent satellite systems for obtaining TPW under varying sky conditions. If the agreement is good, one has confidence in both systems. In this case, SSM/I and WindSat estimates of TPW will be verified and then can be used with confidence globally, including where RO observations are sparse or do not exist.

3. Comparison of MW and RO TPW with clear skies

In total there are 26,678 F15-RO pairs, 32,610 F16-RO pairs, 31,291 F17-RO pairs, and 21,996 WindSat-RO pairs from June 2006 to December 2013, respectively. Figures

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2a-d show scatter plots for F15-COSMIC TPW, F16-COSMIC TPW, F17-COSMIC TPW, and WindSat-COSMIC TPW under clear skies. Figures 2a-d show that the MW clear sky TPW from F15, F16, F17, and WindSat are all very consistent with those from co-located COSMIC observations. As summarized in Table 2, under clear conditions where SSM/I provides high quality TPW estimates, the mean TPW bias between F16 and COSMIC (F16- COSMIC) is equal to 0.03 mm with a standard deviation σ of 1.47 mm. The mean TPW differences are equal to 0.06 mm with a σ of 1.65 mm for F15, 0.07 mm with a σ of 1.47 mm for F17, and 0.18 mm with a σ of 1.35 mm for WindSat. The reason for larger standard deviation for F15 may be because the F15 data after August 2006 were corrupted by the "rad-cal" beacon that was turned on at this time (Hilburn and Wentz, 2008). On 14 August 2006, a radar calibration beacon (RAD-CAL) was activated on F15. This radar interfered with the SSM/I, primarily the 22V channel, which is a key channel for water vapor retrievals. Although a correction method derived by Hilburn and Wentz (2008) and Hilburn (2009) was applied, the 22 V channel is not being full corrected (Wentz, 2012). As a result, there are still errors in the water vapor retrievals. F16 had solar radiation intrusion into the hot load during the time period, while F17 and WindSat had no serious issues.

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4. Global comparisons of MW and RO TPW with cloudy skies

4.1 Comparison of MW, RO, and Ground-based GPS TPW

Figures 3a-c depict the scatter plots for F16-COSMIC pairs under cloudy, cloudy non-precipitating, and precipitating conditions from June 2006 to December 2013 over oceans. While there is a very small bias (0.031 mm) for clear pixels (Figure 2b), there is a

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significant positive TPW bias (0.794 mm) under cloudy conditions (Figure 3a). This may explain the close to 0.45 mm mean TMI-gb GPS TPW biases found by Wentz et al., (2015) where a close to 7 years of data were used. Figure 3c depicts that the large SSM/I TPW biases under cloudy skies are mainly from the pixels with precipitation (mean bias is equal to 1.825 mm) although precipitation pixels are of about less than 6% of the total F16–COSMIC pairs. Because RO measurements are not significantly affected by clouds and precipitation, the biases mainly result from MW retrieval uncertainty under cloudy conditions. The fact that the MW-COSMIC biases for precipitating conditions (1.825 mm, Figure 3c and 1.64-1.88 mm in Table 2) is much larger than those for cloudy, but non-precipitating conditions, indicates that significant scattering and absorbing effects are present in the passive MW measurements when it rains. The correlation coefficients for F15-RO, F16-RO, F17-RO, and WindSat-RO pairs for all sky conditions are all larger than 0.96 (not shown).

MW and gb-GPS TPW comparisons show similar differences as the MW-RO differences under different sky conditions. We compared F16 pixels with those from gb-GPS within 50 km and 1 hour over the 33 stations studied by Mears et al. (2015) from 2002 to 2013. Figures 4a-d depict the scatter plots for F16-gb-GPS TPW under clear, cloudy, cloudy non-precipitating, and cloudy precipitating conditions, respectively. The F16-gb-GPS mean biases are equal to 0.241 mm (clear skies), 0.614 mm (cloudy skies), 0.543 mm (cloudy-non precipitation) and 1.197 mm (precipitation), which are similar to those estimated from MW-RO comparisons (Table 2).

The above results show that the MW estimates of TPW are biased positively compared to both the RO and the ground-based GPS estimates, which are independent

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measurements. The biases are smallest for clear skies and largest for precipitating conditions, with cloudy, non-precipitating biases in between. Overall, the results suggest that clouds and especially precipitation contaminate the MW radiometer measurements, which in turn affect the MW TPW retrievals.

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4.2 Time Series of MW, RO, and Ground-based TPW Biases under Various Meteorological Conditions

To further examine how rain and cloud droplets affect the MW TPW retrievals, we show how the F16-RO TPW biases vary under different meteorological conditions in Figure 5. The bias dependence on wind speed (Figure 5a) is small. Unlike the results from Mears et al., (2015), the mean TPW biases between F16 and COSMIC are within 0.5 mm with high winds (wind speed larger than 20 m/s). Figure 5b indicates that the F16-COSMIC bias is larger with TPW greater than about 10 mm, which usually occurs under cloudy conditions. The F16-COSMIC biases can be as large as 2.0 mm when the rainfall rate is larger than 1 mm/hour (Figure 5c), which usually occurs with high total liquid cloud water conditions. The F16 TPW biases can be as large as 2 mm when total cloud water is larger than 0.3 mm (Figure 5d). Figure 5e shows that the larger F16-COSMIC TPW biases (2-3 mm) mainly occur over regions with surface skin temperature less than 270 K (higher latitudes, see Figure 1b). The F15, F17, and WindSat TPW biases under different meteorological conditions are very similar to those of F16 (not shown).

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In Figure 6 we compare RSS V7.0 F16 MW TPW to the ground-based GPS TPW over various meteorological conditions. The magnitudes of the MW-gb-GPS TPW differences under high rain rate and high total cloud water conditions are somewhat smaller than those of MW-RO pairs (varying from about 0.5 mm to 2.0 mm), which may be because most of the MW-gb-GPS samples are collected under low rain rates (less than 1 mm/hour) conditions.

5. Eight Year Time Series and Trend Analysis under All Skies

5.1 Monthly Mean TPW Time Series Comparison

To further examine MW TPW long-term stability and trend uncertainty due to rain and water droplets for different instruments, we compared time series of the MW and COSMIC monthly mean TPW differences from June 2006 to December 2013. Figures 7a-d show the monthly mean F16-COSMIC TPW differences from June 2006 to December 2013 for clear, cloudy, cloudy non-precipitating, and precipitating conditions. In general, the microwave TPW biases under different atmospheric conditions are positive and stable from June 2006 to December 2013, as reflected in relatively small standard deviation values (Table 3). Except for F15, the standard deviations of the monthly mean TPW anomaly range are less than 0.38 mm (Table 3). In contrast, the F15-COSMIC monthly mean σ range from 0.48 mm to 0.69 mm with different conditions.

Table 3 also shows the trend in the RO estimates of TPW differences over the eight-year period of study. The trends are range from -0.12 mm/decade (WindSat, clear skies) to 2.52 mm/decade (F15, precipitating conditions). The overall trend of TPW as estimated by RO (second line in each row of Table 3) is positive as discussed in the next section. Table 3 shows that in general the trends are more strongly positive under cloudy and precipitating conditions compared to clear conditions.

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5.2 De-seasonalized Trends of MW-RO Differences and TPW

Figure 8 depicts the de-seasonalized trends of the MW-RO TPW differences for F15 (Figure 8a), F16 (Figure 8b), F17 (Figure 8c), and WindSat (Figure 8d) under cloudy skies. Except for F15, the de-seasonalized trends of the MW-RO TPW differences for the MW radiometers are close to zero, indicating little change over these eight years. The trends of the biases associated with F15, F16, F17 and WindSat under all sky conditions range from -0.09 to 0.27 mm/decade (details not shown).

The reason for larger standard deviations of the MW minus RO differences for F15 (Tables 2 and 3 and Figure 8a) is very likely because the F15 data after August 2006 were corrupted by the "rad-cal" beacon that was turned on at this time. Adjustments were derived and applied to reduce the effects of the beacon, but the final results still show excess noise relative to uncorrupted measurements (Hilburn and Wentz, 2008). RSS does not recommend using these measurements for studies of long-term change. Thus we consider the F15 data less reliable during the period of our study.

Figure 9 shows the de-seasonalized time series of the monthly mean TPW for all MW and RO pairs under all sky conditions. The close to eight year trends for TPW estimated from both passive MW radiometers and active COSMIC RO sensors are positive and very similar in magnitude. The mean trend of all COSMIC RO TPW is 1.79 mm/decade with a 95% confidence interval of (0.96, 2.63) mm/decade while the mean trend from all the MW estimates is 1.78 mm/decade with a 95% confidence interval of (0.94, 2.62). This close agreement between completely independent measurements lends credence to both estimates. The mean TPW over this period, calculated from all MW data

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in our data set was 26.04 mm; thus the trend of 1.78 mm/decade represents a trend of approximately 6.9% per decade for our data set.

As discussed earlier, the trend of 1.78 mm/decade is heavily biased toward middle latitudes (40°N-60°N and 40°-65°S) and is not representative of a global average. In fact, it is four to six times larger than previous estimates over earlier time periods. For example, Durre et al. (2009) estimated a trend of 0.45 mm/decade for the Northern Hemisphere over the period 1973-2006. Trenberth et al. (2005) estimated a global trend of 0.40 +/- 0.09 mm/decade for the period 1988 to 2001. Using SSM/I data, Wentz et al. (2007) estimated and an increase of 0.354 mm/decade over the period 1997-2006. The 100-year trend in global climate models is variable, ranging from 0.55 to 0.72 mm/decade (Roman et al., 2014).

The very close agreement between RO and MW observations where they co-exist gives credibility to both observing systems and allows us to use global MW data to compute global TPW trends over all oceanic regions, including where RO observations are sparse or absent. Figure 10 shows the global map of TPW trends over oceans using all F16, F17, and WindSat data from 2006 to 2013. Figure 10 shows that the positive trends in TPW occur mainly over the central and north Pacific, south of China and west of Australia, south-east of South America, and east of America. Positive trends also exist in general over the middle latitudes (40°N-60°N and 40°-65°S) where most of our matching RO and MW data pairs occur.

Mears et al. (2017) computed global average (60°S to 60°N) TPW using a number of data sets from 1979 to 2014. Figure 11 shows the data from the ERA-Interim reanalysis (Dee et al. 2011), RSS MW, and COSMIC. (This figure was obtained using the same data

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used to construct Figure 2.16 in Mears et al., 2017). Fig. 11 shows close agreement between RSS MW and COSMIC. The global mean trend from June 2006 to December 2013 from the COSMIC observations is 0.32 mm/decade and for RSS MW it is 0.31 mm/decade.

6. Conclusions and Discussions

RSS water vapor products have been widely used for climate research. The newly available RSS V7.0 data products have been processed using consistent calibration procedures (Wentz, 2013). This was done for the explicit purpose of producing versions of the datasets that can be used to study decadal scale changes in TPW, wind, clouds, and precipitation. These water vapor products are mainly verified by comparing to either reanalyses, radiosondes measurements, or other satellite data. However, because the quality of these datasets may also vary under different atmospheric conditions, the uncertainty in long-term water vapor estimates may still be large. In this study, we used TPW estimates derived from COSMIC active RO sensors to identify TPW uncertainties from four different MW radiometers under clear, cloudy, cloudy/non-precipitating, and cloudy/precipitating skies over nearly eight years (from June 2006 to December 2013). Because RO data have low sensitivity to clouds and precipitation, RO-derived water vapor products are useful to identify the possible TPW biases retrieved from measurements of passive microwave imagers under different sky conditions. We reach the following conclusions:

1) Clear sky biases: The collocated COSMIC RO TPW estimates under clear skies are highly consistent with the MW TPW estimates under clear sky conditions (within +/- 0.2 mm and with a correlation coefficient greater than 0.96). The mean TPW bias between

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F16 and COSMIC (F16- COSMIC) is equal to 0.03 mm with a standard deviation σ of 1.47 mm. The mean TPW differences are equal to 0.06 mm with a σ of 1.65 mm for F15, 0.07 mm with a σ of 1.47 mm for F17, and 0.18 mm with a σ of 1.35 mm for WindSat. The consistent F15-COSMIC, F16-COSMIC, F17-COSMIC, and WindSat-COSMIC TPW under clear skies show that COSMIC TPW can be used as reliable reference data to identify and correct TPW among different MW imagers for other sky conditions.

2) Biases under cloudy skies: While there are very small biases for clear pixels, there are significant positive MW TPW biases (~0.80 mm) under cloudy conditions when compared to RO TPW. The large SSM/I TPW biases under cloudy skies result mainly from the pixels with precipitation. The mean bias is equal to 1.83 mm for COSMIC-F16 pairs, which is much larger than the bias for cloudy, but non-precipitating conditions. This indicates that the significant scattering and absorbing effects are present in the passive MW measurements when it rains. The F16 – Ground-based GPS mean biases are equal to 0.24 mm (for clear skies), 0.61 mm (for cloudy skies), 0.54 mm (for cloudy/non-precipitating skies) and 1.2 mm (for precipitating skies) which are consistent with those from F16-COSMIC comparisons.

3) Biases among different instruments: Using RO TPW estimates collocated with different MW instruments, we are able to identify possible TPW inconsistencies among MW instruments even they are not collocated. The de-seasonalized trends in MW-RO TPW differences for three MW radiometers (i.e., F16, F17, and WindSat) are close to zero, indicating consistency among these radiometers. However, the F15-COSMIC differences are larger and show a significant trend over the eight years of the study. It is likely that F15

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data after August 2006 were corrupted by the “rad-cal” beacon that was turned on at this time.

4) Trend of TPW under all skies: The eight-year trends of TPW estimated from both passive MW radiometer and active COSMIC sensors in our data set show increasing TPW, with slightly higher trends under cloudy conditions. The mean trend of COSMIC RO TPW collocated with MW observations in our data set is 1.79 mm/decade with a 95% confidence interval of (0.96, 2.63) mm/decade. The corresponding mean trend from all the MW estimates is 1.78 mm/decade with a 95% confidence interval of (0.94, 2.62). The mean trend from all the MW estimates under cloudy conditions is 1.93 mm/decade with a 95% confidence interval of (0.97, 2.89). The mean trend from all the COSMIC RO TPW estimates under cloudy conditions is 1.82 mm/decade with a 95% confidence interval of (0.88, 2.76). These increases represent about a 6.9% per decade increase in the mean TPW of our data set. The close agreement between completely independent measurements lends credence to both estimates.

The trends of TPW in our data set, which are heavily biased toward middle latitudes (40°N-60°N and 40°S-65°S) are higher than previous global estimates over earlier time periods by about a factor of four to six. As also shown by the regional distribution of TPW trends estimated from the MW observations, the large positive trends in these latitudes, which are the main latitudes of extratropical storm tracks, are a strong confirmation of the water vapor-temperature feedback in a warming global atmosphere particularly under cloudy conditions.

Other studies have suggested that this positive feedback results in a nearly constant global mean relative humidity (Soden and Held, 2006; Sherwood et al., 2010). However,

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it is difficult to directly relate our estimated TPW trends to constant RH hypothesis of Earth's atmosphere under global warming. The global mean surface temperature has been rising at about the rate of 0.2 K/decade in the past twenty years. A 0.2K increase in temperature would produce about a 1.4% increase in saturation water vapor pressure based on the Clausius-Clapeyon equation. To maintain a constant RH for this temperature increase, the actual water vapor pressure (and specific humidity) would also have to increase by 1.4%. In this study, we observe an increase of TPW in our dataset of about 1.78 mm/decade which is 6.9 percent increase per decade in TPW. Our dataset is dominated mainly by cloudy samples over middle latitudes (40°N-60°N and 40°-65°S). Thus, from these numbers alone we would expect an increase in mean RH under cloudy conditions by more than 6%, which is unlikely and well outside the range of changes in relative humidity in models (e.g. Figure 2 in Sherwood et al., 2010). However, the changes in the global mean RH are not related in such a simple fashion to changes in the global mean temperature and precipitable water. For example, Figure 10 depicts that there are very large differences in the spatial distribution of TPW changes, which shows regional variations of +/- 4 mm/decade. Thus, some regions are drying and others are moistening. The variations in global mean surface temperature are also large, but very different from those of TPW, with the polar regions and continents warming up much faster than the atmosphere over the oceans. In cold polar regions, an increase in temperature will result in a smaller increase in saturation vapor pressure than the same increase in temperature in the tropics. The global evaporation and precipitation patterns also vary greatly, as water vapor transport is important in the global water vapor balance. All of this, as discussed by Held and Soden (2000), Soden and Held (2006), and Sherwood et al. (2010) means that the relationships between global mean temperature increase, TPW changes, and the resulting change in global mean RH are not simple.

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Table 1. Satellite Instruments Used in This Study

Satellite	Instrument	Operation period
DMSP F15	SSM/I	December 1999-present
DMSP F16	SSMIS	October 2003-present
DMSP F17	SSMIS	December 2006-present
Coriolis	WindSat	February 2003-present

Table 2: Mean and standard deviation of differences (MW minus RO) in TPW (in mm) between four MW radiometers and COSMIC RO under various sky conditions. The sample numbers for each pair are shown in the third position of each column.

Sky condition	Mean/σ/N			
	F15	F16	F17	WindSat
Clear	0.06/1.65/3064	0.03/1.47/3551	0.07/1.47/2888	0.18/1.35/1802
Cloudy	0.80/1.92/23614	0.79/1.73/29059	0.82/1.76/28403	0.96/1.73/20194
Non Precip	0.49/1.69/17223	0.46/1.46/21854	0.47/1.49/21371	0.49/1.36/13004
Precip	1.64/2.28/6391	1.83/2.05/7205	1.88/2.08/7032	1.85/2.00/7190

Table 3: Mean and standard deviation (std) of the mean in mm of the monthly time series of differences of MW minus RO TPW under various sky conditions. The trend of the RO estimates of TPW in mm/decade and the 95% confidence level are shown below the mean and σ values in each row.

Sky condition	Mean/σ of monthly time series RO trend (95% confidence levels indicated in ( ))			
	F15	F16	F17	WindSat
Clear	0.07/0.56 1.65 (0.47,2.84)	0.05/0.28 1.09 (-0.28,2.46)	0.08/0.27 0.21 (-1.22,1.65)	0.23/0.38 -0.12 (-1.89,1.66)
Cloudy	0.77/0.51 1.49 (0.40,2.58)	0.78/0.18 2.02(0.87,3.16)	0.82/0.15 1.85 (0.64,3.06)	0.95/0.17 1.85 (0.68,3.01)
Non Precipitation	0.46/0.48 0.86 (-0.24,1.95)	0.45/0.17 2.02 (0.87,3.17)	0.48/0.15 2.37 (1.23,3.50)	0.47/0.19 2.12 (0.95,3.30)
Precipitation	1.62/0.69 2.52 (0.55,4.480	1.81/0.31 1.32 (-0.53,3.17)	1.88/0.29 0.26 (-1.59,2.10)	1.88/0.32 0.39 (-1.25,2.04)

Figure Captions

Figure 1. a.-e: The RSS V7.0 monthly mean F16 SSM/I a) TPW (in mm), b) surface skin temperature (in K), c) liquid water path (LWP, in mm), and d) rain rate (RR, in mm/hour), and e) distribution of matches of COSMIC RO and F16, F17, and WindSat estimations of TPW used in this study.

Figure 2. TPW scatter plots for the COSMIC and RSS Version 7.0 pairs under clear conditions for a) F15, b) F16, c) F17, and d) WindSat.

Figure 3. TPW scatter plots for the COSMIC and RSS Version 7.0 F16 SSM/I pairs under a) cloudy, b) cloudy but non-precipitation, and c) precipitation conditions.

Figure 4. TPW scatter plots for the gb-GPS and RSS Version 7.0 F16 SSM/I pairs from June 2006 to December 2013 under a) clear, b) cloudy, c) cloudy but non-precipitation, and d) precipitation conditions.

Figure 5. Mean and standard of the mean for the F16-COSMIC TPW biases varying with a) wind speed (m/s), b) TPW (mm), c) rain rate (mm/hour), d) total cloud water (mm), and e) surface skin temperature (K). The vertical black bracket superimposed on the mean denotes the standard error of the mean. The green dashed line is the number of samples, indicated by the scale on the right.

Figure 6. Mean and standard of the mean for the F16- gb-GPS TPW biases varying with a) wind speed (m/s), b) TPW (mm), c) rain rate (mm/hour), d) total cloud water (mm) and e) surface skin temperature (K). The vertical black bracket superimposed on the mean denotes the standard error of the mean. The green dashed line is the number of samples, indicated by the scale on the right.

Figure 7. The time series of monthly mean F16 – COSMIC TPW differences under a) clear, b) cloudy, c) cloudy but non-precipitation, and d) precipitation conditions. The black line is the mean difference for microwave radiometer minus COSMIC; the vertical lines superimposed on the mean values are the standard error of the mean. The number of the monthly MW radiometer- COSMIC pairs is indicated by the green dashed line (scale on the right Y axis).

Figure 8. The time series of de-seasonalized TPW differences (microwave radiometer – COSMIC) under cloudy skies for a) F15, b) F16, c) F17, d) WindSat. The black line is the mean difference for microwave radiometer minus COSMIC; the vertical lines superimposed on the mean values are the standard error of the mean. The number of the monthly MW radiometer- COSMIC pairs is indicated by the green dashed line (scale on the right Y axis). The trends are shown by solid red line. The 95% confidence intervals for slopes are shown in the parentheses.

Figure 9. The de-seasonalized time series of monthly mean TPW for all MW and COSMIC observations under all sky conditions. The red and blue dashed lines are the best fit of de-seasonalized COSMIC and MW TPW time series, respectively.

Figure 10. The global map of TPW trend in mm/decade over oceans using all F16, F17, WindSat data from 2006 to 2013.

Figure 11. Global mean TPW monthly anomaly (mm) relative to 1981-2010 mean for ocean regions 60°S-60°N from ERA-Interim reanalysis (green), RSS microwave (blue) and COSMIC (red). (Based on data from Mears et al., 2017).

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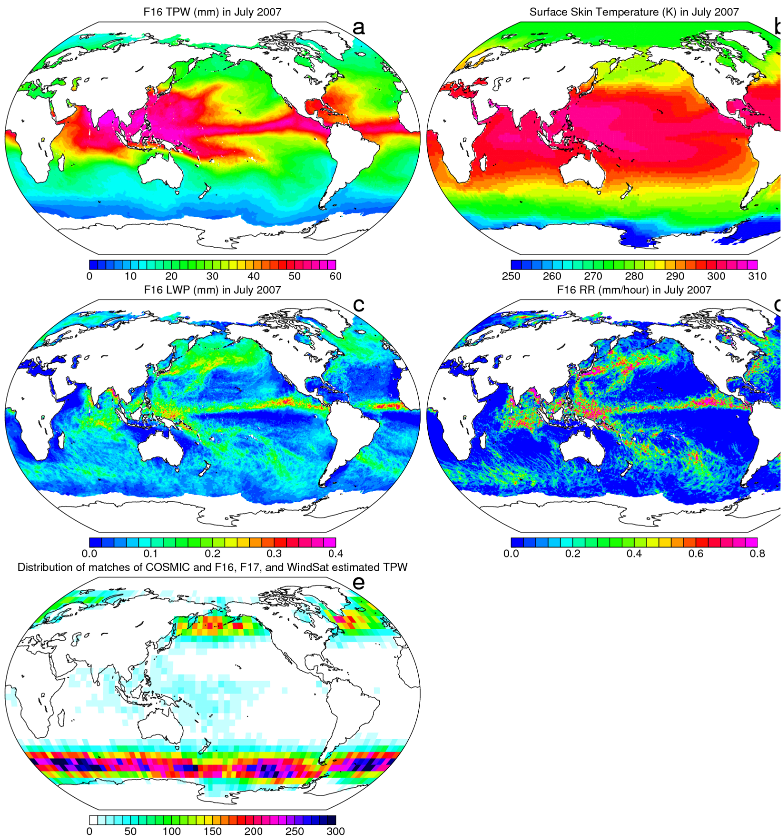

Figure 1. a-e: The RSS V7.0 monthly mean F16 SSM/I a) TPW (in mm), b) surface skin temperature (in K), c) liquid water path (LWP, in mm), d) rain rate (RR, in mm/hour), and e) distribution of matches of COSMIC RO and F16, F17 and WindSat estimations of TPW used in this study.

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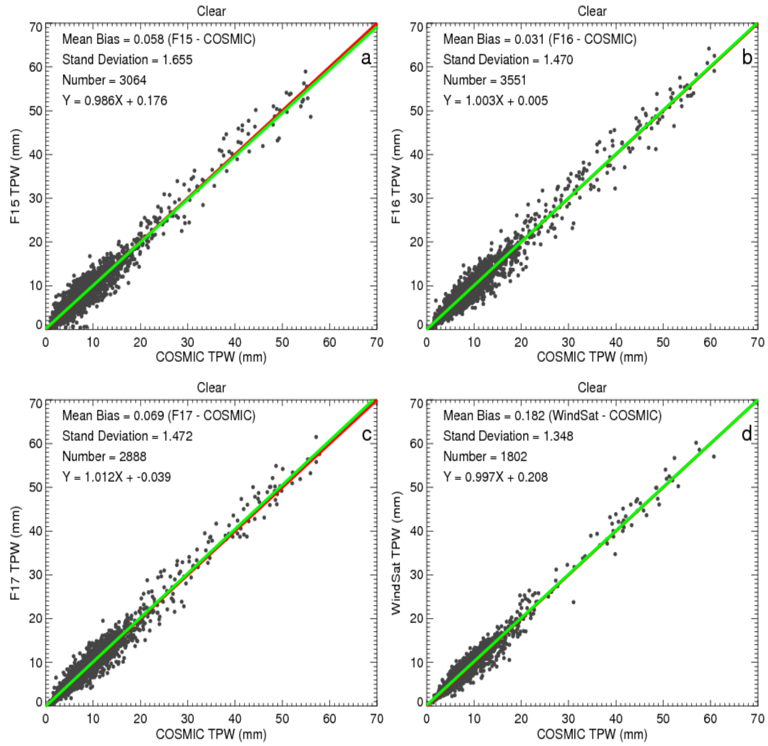

Figure 2. TPW scatter plots for the COSMIC and RSS Version 7.0 pairs under clear conditions for a) F15, b) F16, c) F17, and d) WindSat.

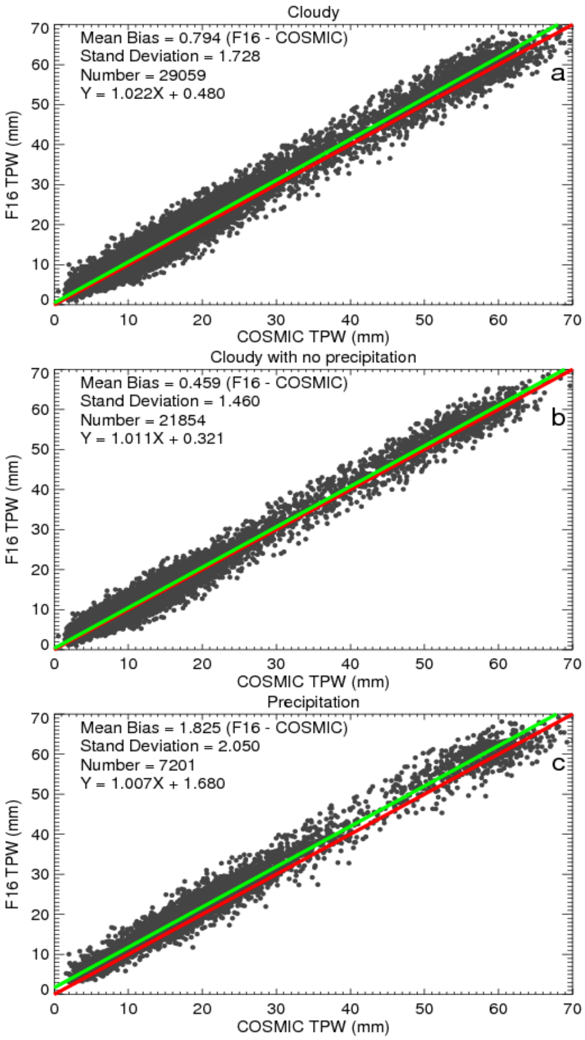

Figure 3. TPW scatter plots for the COSMIC and RSS Version 7.0 F16 SSM/I pairs under a) cloudy, b) cloudy but non-precipitation, and c) precipitation conditions.

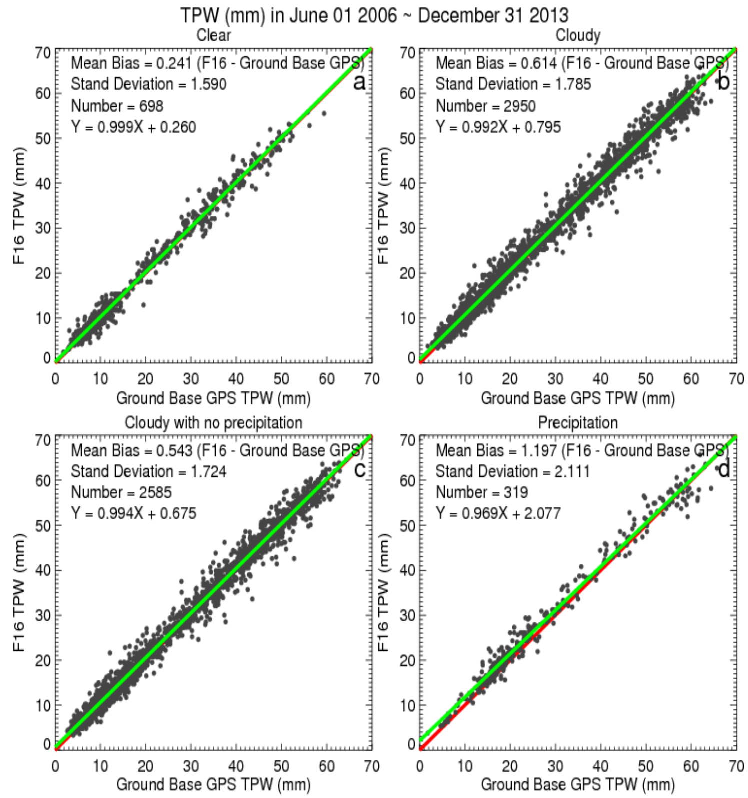

Figure 4. TPW scatter plots for the gb-GPS and RSS Version 7.0 F16 SSM/I pairs from June 2006 to December 2013 under a) clear, b) cloudy, c) cloudy but non-precipitation, and d) precipitation conditions.

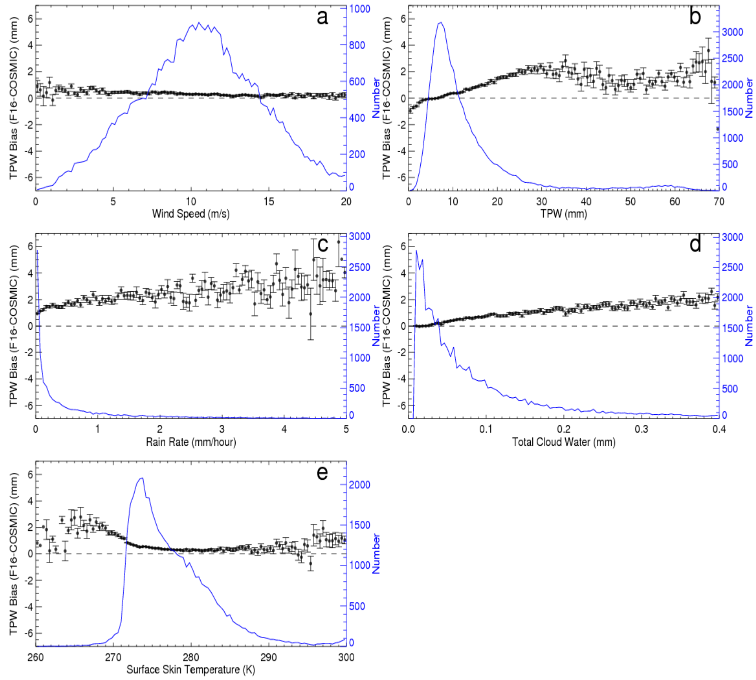

Figure 5. Mean and standard of the mean for the F16-COSMIC TPW biases varying with a) wind speed (m/s), b) TPW (mm), c) rain rate (mm/hour), d) total cloud water (mm), and e) surface skin temperature (K). The vertical black bracket superimposed on the mean denotes the standard error of the mean. The green dashed line is the number of samples, indicated by the scale on the right.

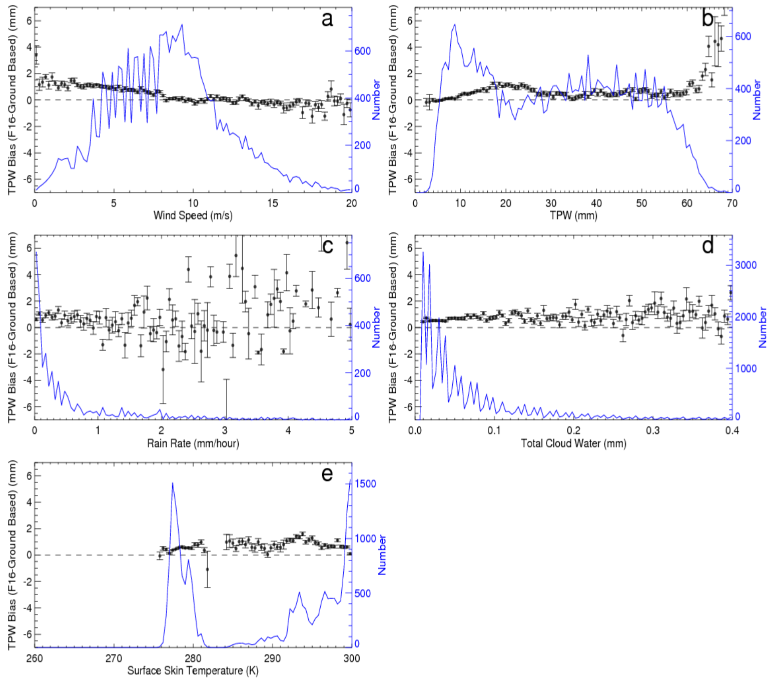

Figure 6. Mean and standard of the mean for the F16- gb-GPS TPW biases varying with a) wind speed (m/s), b) TPW (mm), c) rain rate (mm/hour), d) total cloud water (mm) and e) surface skin temperature (K). The vertical black bracket superimposed on the mean denotes the standard error of the mean. The green dashed line is the number of samples, indicated by the scale on the right.

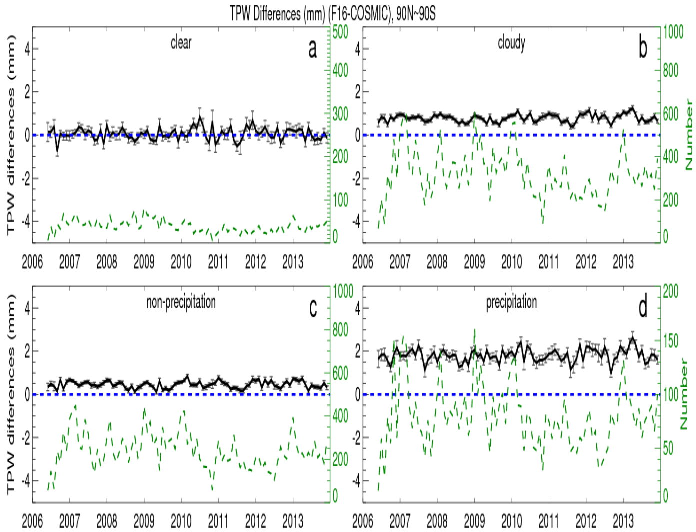

Figure 7. The time series of monthly mean F16 – COSMIC TPW differences under a) clear, b) cloudy, c) cloudy but non-precipitation, and d) precipitation conditions. The black line is the mean difference for microwave radiometer minus COSMIC; the vertical lines superimposed on the mean values are the standard error of the mean. The number of the monthly MW radiometer- COSMIC pairs is indicated by the green dashed line (scale on the right Y axis).

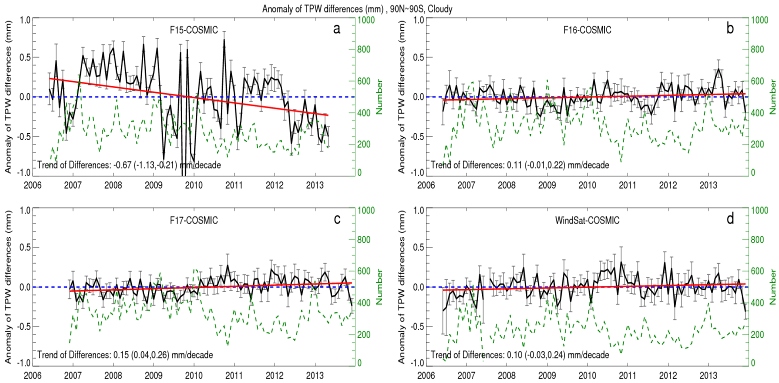

Figure 8. The time series of de-seasonalized TPW differences (microwave radiometer – COSMIC) under cloudy skies for a) F15, b) F16, c) F17, d) WindSat. The black line is the mean difference for microwave radiometer minus COSMIC; the vertical lines superimposed on the mean values are the standard error of the mean. The number of the monthly MW radiometer- COSMIC pairs is indicated by the green dashed line (scale on the right Y axis). The trends are shown by solid red line. The 95% confidence intervals for slopes are shown in the parentheses.

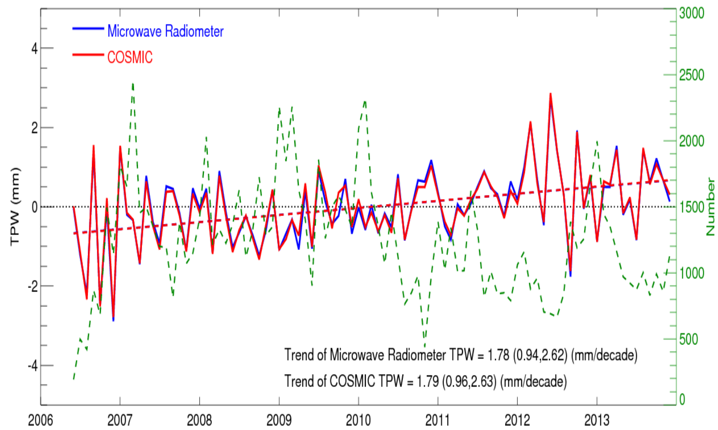

Figure 9. The de-seasonalized time series of monthly mean TPW for all MW and COSMIC observations under all sky conditions. The red and blue dashed lines are the best fit of de-seasonalized COSMIC and MW TPW time series, respectively.

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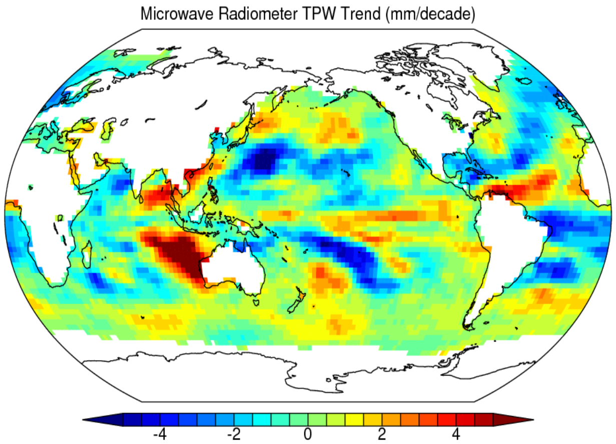

Figure 10. The global map of TPW trend in mm/decade over oceans using all F16, F17, WindSat data from 2006 to 2013.

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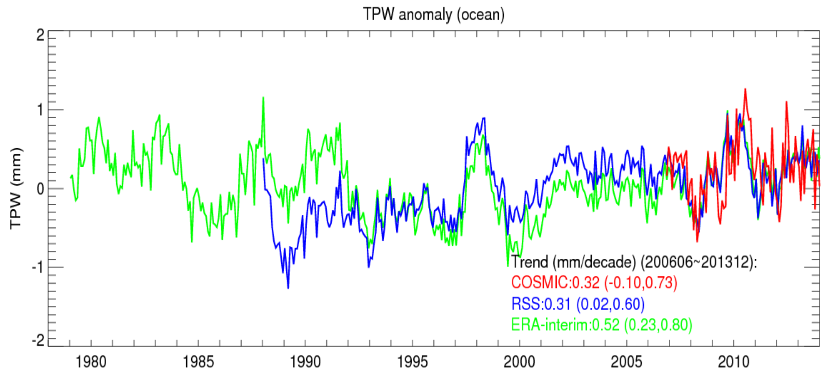

Figure 11. Global mean TPW monthly anomaly (mm) relative to 1981-2010 mean for ocean regions 60°S-60°N from ERA-Interim reanalysis (green), RSS microwave (blue) and COSMIC (red). (Based on data from Mears et al., 2017).

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