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## RESEARCH ARTICLE

# Time-Altitude Variation of 30-Second-Update Full Volume Scan Data for Summer Convective Storms Observed With X-Band Dual Polarized Phased Array Weather Radar

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**ABSTRACT** Dual-polarization radars with parabolic dish antennas, which transmit horizontal and vertical waves, are widely used to measure precipitation. However, such radars cannot properly observe the convective storms developing at high altitudes in a short time because of the low spatiotemporal resolution of the data due to mechanical scanning at azimuth and elevation angles. In 2018, an X-band dual-polarized phased array weather radar (DP-PAWR) was developed in Japan. DP-PAWR provides polarimetric precipitation measurements via three dimensional (3D) volume scanning in 30 s using electronic scanning at elevation angles. This study investigated the relationship between the amount of full volume scan data (the radar reflectivity factor ( $Z_h$ ), differential reflectivity ( $Z_{dr}$ ), and specific differential phase ( $K_{dp}$ )) above the freezing level and that of near-surface rainfall for three characteristically different summer convective storms in Japan. We also discussed the quantitative predictability of near-surface rainfall volume using the full volume scan data above the freezing level obtained from DP-PAWR. The results showed that the 30-s full volume scan data above the freezing level can quantitatively predict near-surface rainfall volume for various storms, including heavy convective storms multi-precipitation cores, as well as small-scale convective storms with 5 to 11.5 minutes of lead-time.

**INDEX TERMS** Weather radar, precipitation observation, full volume scan data.

## I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, a range of weather radars has found application in various fields, with ongoing hardware development efforts. Notable recent examples encompass radars designed to observe cloud scatters, including aircraft-mounted radar [1], radar systems mounted on unmanned aerial vehicles [2], and dual-polarization radar systems on satellites [3].

Particularly, weather radar serves as an effective method for observing rainfall and providing effective information

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for disaster mitigation. Dual-polarization radars, which transmit both horizontal and vertical polarized waves, are widely utilized for measuring precipitation, serving both academic and practical purposes [4], [5], [6], [7], [8]. These radars capture returning waves, providing horizontal and vertical measurements of scatterers within clouds, such as raindrops, ice, and graupel. Consequently, dual-polarization variables offer more accurate estimates of rainfall rates and efficiently classify the particles in storms.

The radar variables using dual-polarization radars include the radar reflectivity factor ( $Z_h$ ), differential reflectivity ( $Z_{dr}$ ), differential phase ( $\varphi_{dp}$ ), specific differential phase ( $K_{dp}$ ), correlation coefficient ( $\rho_{hv}$ ), and Doppler velocity, among

others.  $Z_h$ , which is also observable by single polarization radar is proportional to the size (or diameter) and the density of hydrometeors in the resolution volume and is used to estimate rainfall rates.  $Z_{dr}$  and  $K_{dp}$  columns, which are vertically extended regions of positive  $Z_{dr}$  and  $K_{dp}$  above the freezing level, are often associated with the updrafts of convective storms [9], [10], [11], [12], [13] or supercells [14], [15], [16], [17]. These signatures result from supercooled liquid drops or water-coated hailstones lifted several kilometers above the freezing level. In these previous studies, dual-polarization radars with parabolic dish antennas have been employed.

In Japan, 40 X or C-band dual polarized radars that also use a parabolic dish antenna are operated around urban areas. The radar can accurately estimate the rain rate using polarimetric and network observations. The temporal resolution of the radar is 1 min for low elevation angles ( $< 1^\circ$ ) and 5 min for elevations of  $1^\circ$ – $15^\circ$  [1], [2], [3], [4], [5], [6], [7], [8], [9], [10], [11], [12], [13], [14], [15], [16], [17], [18], [19]. In general, a weather radar uses a parabolic dish antenna that requires more than 5 min for the 3D observation due to mechanical rotation in both the azimuth and elevation angles. The number of observable elevation angles is approximately over a dozen. Consequently, these radars with a parabolic dish antenna are only able to conduct sparse observations at higher altitudes. Convective summer storms often develop over a dozen kilometers in a few minutes, bringing torrential rainfall within minutes of their onset. For rapidly developing convective clouds, the temporal resolution and observation density of parabolic weather radars, particularly at high altitudes, are frequently insufficient.

To improve the low spatiotemporal resolution, recent studies have focused on using a phased array antenna for conducting precipitation observations [e.g., [20], [21], [22], [23], [24], [25], [26], [27]]. In Japan, a dual polarized phased array weather radar (DP-PAWR) was developed in 2018 [28], [29]. It is an X-band radar with an operating frequency of 9.425 GHz, and its scanning scheme involves mechanical and electronic scanning at azimuth and elevation angles, respectively. The DP-PAWR is capable of conducting precipitation measurements using dual-polarization observations for 3D volume scanning within a 60 km observation range in just 30 s.

Furthermore, the DP-PAWR captures 113 observations in the elevation direction and is capable of observing precipitation at high altitudes. It provides 30-s updates from which the volume (in  $km^3$ ) of  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$ , can be calculated owing to its rapid and high-density observations. There have been no prior studies exploring the relationship between such high-density radar data at high altitude and near-surface rainfall.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between the full volume scan data ( $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$ ) above the freezing level and near-surface rainfall during summer convective storms, utilizing DP-PAWR. We aim to assess the quantitative predictability of near-surface rainfall volume using the full volume scan data obtained from DP-PAWR.

**TABLE 1. Specifications of the DP-PAWR.**

Frequency (GHz)	9.425
Azimuth resolution ( $^\circ$ )	1.2
Elevation resolution ( $^\circ$ )	$< 1.0$
Observational range (km)	60
Observational elevation ( $^\circ$ )	0–90
Temporal resolution for volume scan (s)	30
Range resolution (m)	75
No. of transmitted fan beams (Elevation angles; $^\circ$ )	7 (0–6;6–13;13–23;23–33;33–46;46–63;63–90)
No. of elevation angles	113

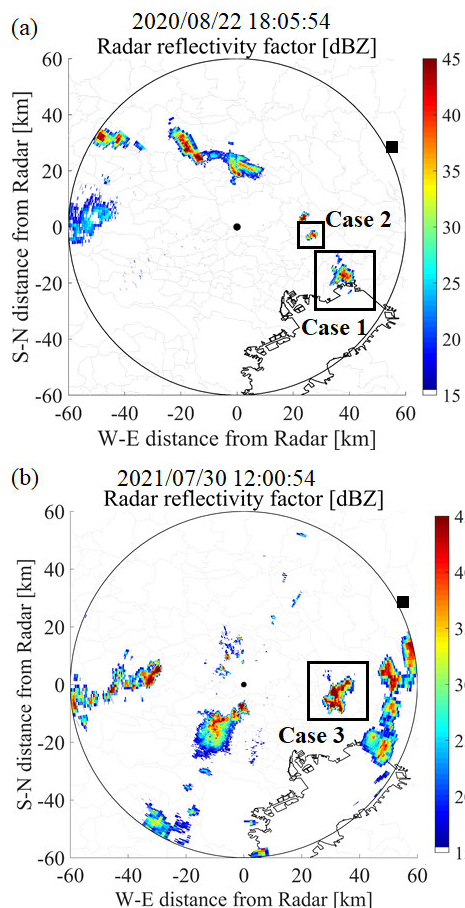
## II. METHODOLOGY

### A. DUAL-POLARIZED PHASED ARRAY WEATHER RADAR (DP-PAWR)

The DP-PAWR provides rapid scanning and high-density observations. It uses a transmitted wave frequency center of 9.425 GHz, which is within the X-band. The transmitted waves of the DP-PAWR have wide beam widths with elevation angles of  $6^\circ$ – $27^\circ$  and a beam width at an azimuth angle of  $1.2^\circ$ . The wide transmitted beam is referred to as fan beam in this study. To cover the observation range in the elevation angles from  $0^\circ$  to  $90^\circ$ , 7 fan beams are simultaneously transmitted at each elevation angle [28]. The phased-array antenna comprises tandemly arranged 112 antenna elements for electronic scanning of the elevation angles with half-wavelengths (i.e., 16 mm). The width of the received beam after conducting the digital beamforming at the elevation angle is slightly less than  $1.0^\circ$ . Consequently, the full volume scan data are obtained every 30 sec. Table 1 presents the specification of the DP-PAWR. In this study, the radar variables of  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$  are used to obtain the volume data of a storm.

### B. ANALYTICAL METHODS AND A REVIEW OF CASE STUDIES

To explore the relationship between  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$  above the freezing level and near-surface rainfall, we computed the volume (in  $km^3$ ) of this radar variables within each 30 s interval. The data above the freezing level is used to calculate the volume of radar variables using full scan data every 30 sec with DP-PAWR. We then compared this volume with the volume of  $Z_h$  below 2 km altitude to represent the amount of near-surface rainfall. The DP-PAWR' observation range includes urban areas, such as Tokyo city, which are prone to ground clutter due to tall buildings. Consequently, data at low altitudes (e.g., 1 km or less) are often missing. For this reason, we utilized data at altitudes of 2 km or less when calculating near-surface rainfall. The volumes (in  $km^3$ ) of  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$  at  $> 45$  dBZ, 3 dB, and  $3^\circ/km$ , respectively, were calculated. In this paper, the threshold value of  $K_{dp}$  was set to 3 deg/km. This is based on the results of precipitation

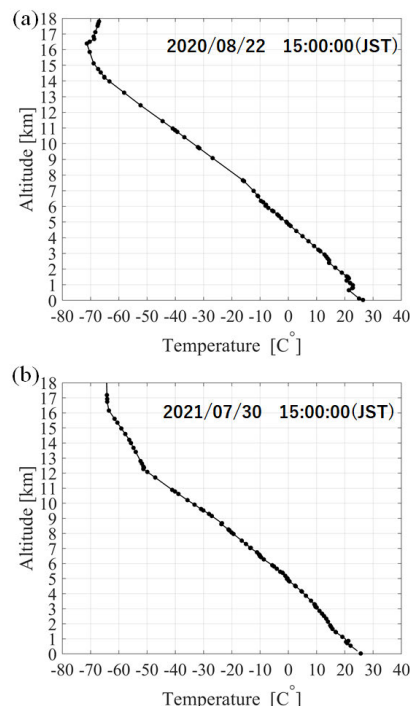


**FIGURE 1.** Example of the radar reflectivity factor in PPI image on August 22 in 2020(a) and July 30, 2021(b). Square dot indicate the observation site of the radio sonde.

cores observed in a previous study [28]. In addition, some previous studies using other S-band radars have used values, such as 1 or 2 deg/km to obtain the signatures of  $K_{dp}$  but this paper uses 3 deg/km in consideration of the difference in observation frequency [8], [14], [31].

In this paper, we studied three characteristically different summer convective storms that were observed by the DP-PAWR in 2020 and 2021.

Fig. 1 shows the plan position indicator (PPI) image of the  $Z_h$  for the analyzed cases obtained at an elevation angle of  $2.4^\circ$  using the DP-PAWR. The storms of case 1 and 2 occurred almost spatiotemporally simultaneously on August 22, 2020, and were located only several tens of kilometers from each other. The storm of case 3 occurred on July 30, 2021. In case 1, the horizontal scale of the storm was about 10–15 km. The highest echo top of the radar reflectivity of 45 dBZ was 9 km. The storm duration is 80 min. In case 2, the maximum echo top of 45 dBZ was 6 km, and its horizontal scale was 2 km. The storm duration is 30 min. In case 3, the horizontal scale of the storm was about 10 km. Similar to case 1, this case was a well-developed storm. The highest echo top of 45 dBZ and storm duration are 7 km and 90 min, respectively.



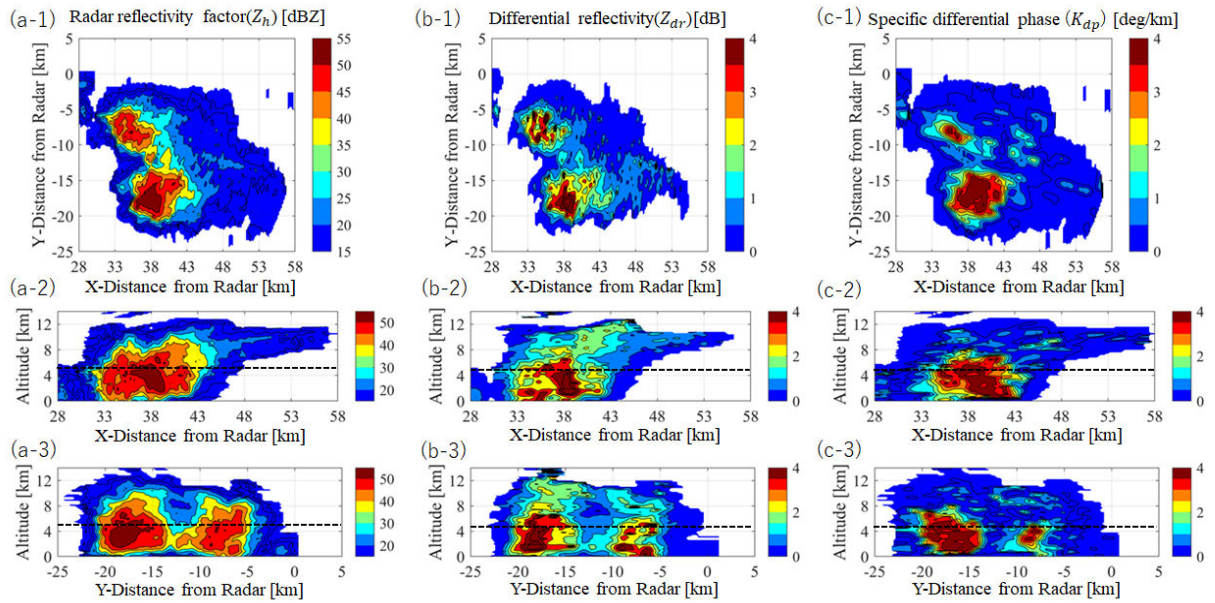
**FIGURE 2.** Temperature data from radio-sonde observations at 15:00 (JST) on August 22, 2020(a) and July 30, 2021 (b).

To define the altitude of the freezing level, the temperature data from radio-sonde observations of the upper atmosphere conducted by the Japan Meteorological Agency were used. Fig. 2 illustrates the temperature data from the Tateno observation site, situated at  $36.0583^\circ$  north latitude and  $140.125^\circ$  east longitude, as depicted in the square dot in Fig. 1. A radio-sonde was launched at 15:00 (Japan Standard Time; JST) on August 22, 2020, and July 30, 2021 and the results indicated that the freezing level, marked by a temperature of  $0^\circ\text{C}$ , was at approximately 5 km in both cases. The distance between the radio-sonde observation locations and the storms of case 1, 2, and 3 was approximately 51 km, 42 km, and 40 km, respectively.

### III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

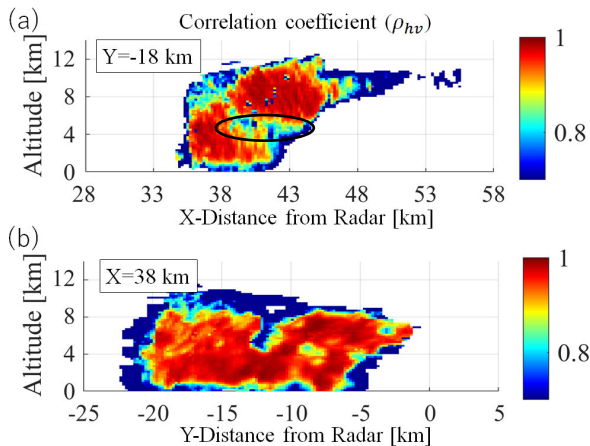
#### A. CASE 1

To understand the characteristics of the storm in case 1, the three-dimensional distribution of the radar variables of  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$  obtained by DP-PAWR at 18:24:54 (JST) are shown in Fig. 3. Labels (a), (b), and (c) show the maximum values of the  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$  along each direction, respectively. The numbers 1, 2, and 3 signify the maximum values across the vertical direction (Z) of the altitude from 0 to 13 km for all XY locations, y (west-east)-th horizontal direction from  $-25$  to  $5$  km for all XZ locations, and x(south-north)-th horizontal direction from  $28$  to  $58$  km for all YZ locations, respectively. The storm was observed from 18:00:24 to 19:15:24 on August 22, 2020. The horizontal scale of the storm was 10–15 km, as shown in



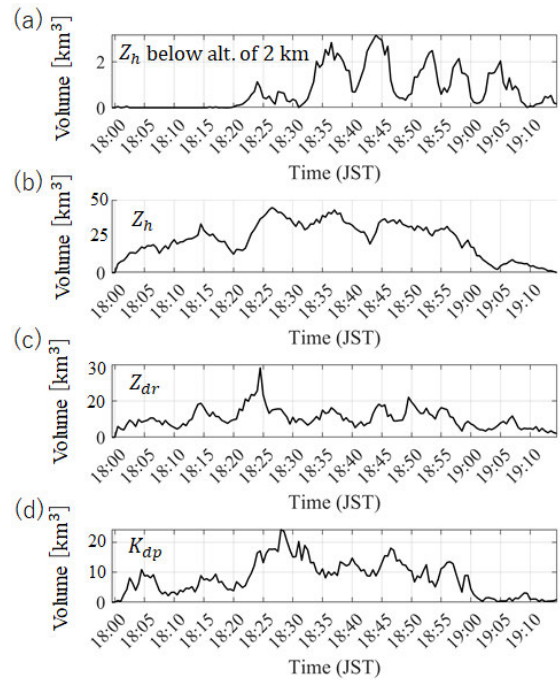
**FIGURE 3.** 3D distribution of the radar variables of  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$ . Panels (a), (b), and (c) show the maximum values of  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$  along a direction, respectively. The numbers 1, 2, and 3 indicate the maximum values across the vertical and horizontal direction. The dashed line indicates the freezing level considering the discussion using Fig. 4.

panel (a-1). Two precipitation cores were observed in the analysis range. During the observation period, the precipitation core repeatedly developed at 38 and  $-18$  km in x and y coordinates, respectively, and was advected northwestwards by the environmental winds. Such precipitation cores that occur more than once at the same location are more likely to cause precipitation disasters because of a large amount of near-surface rainfall.



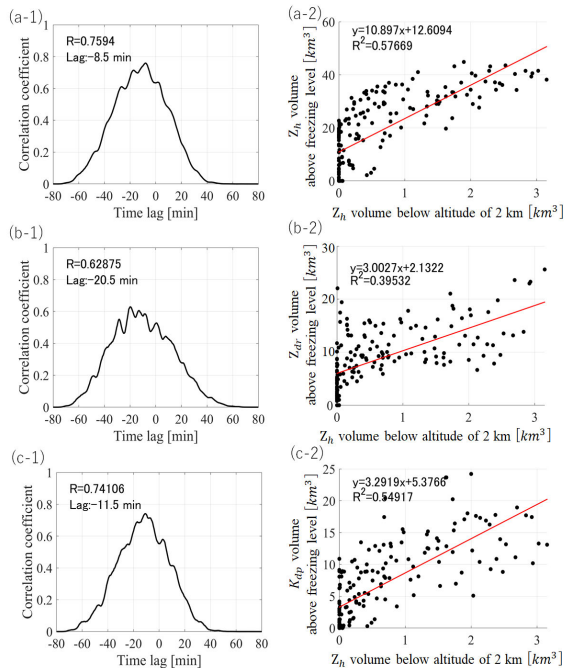
**FIGURE 4.** Vertical structure of the  $\rho_{hv}$  at the same time as Fig. 3. Panels (a) and (b) are slices of the XZ and YZ planes, respectively.

In panels (a-2,3), the echo top at 45 dBZ was found to reach an altitude of 9 km. The vertical structure of  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$ , clearly highlighted the precipitation core's presence in panels (a-2,3), (b-2,3), and (c-2,3), particularly in areas with high convective activity. In this case, the signature of

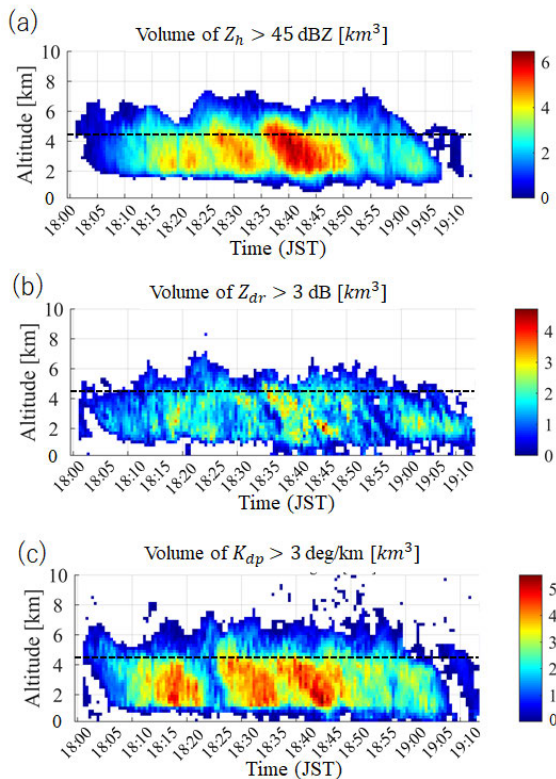


**FIGURE 5.** Temporal variation of the volume of  $Z_h$  below 2 km altitude, and  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$  at an altitude above the freezing level (4.5 km altitude) in panels (a), (b), (c), and (d), respectively.

the melting layer was not distinctly discernible using the polarimetric variables. To accurately estimate the freezing level in this case,  $\rho_{hv}$  data are used. Although  $\rho_{hv}$  for most meteorological echoes tends to be greater than 0.9, it can dip to be approximately 0.7 when melting hail and snowflakes



**FIGURE 6.** Lead-lag correlation coefficients and scatter plots of the temporal variations between (a)  $Z_h$ , (b)  $Z_{dr}$ , and (c)  $K_{dp}$  volume above freezing level and  $Z_h$  below 2 km altitude.



**FIGURE 7.** Time-altitude distribution of  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$  volume in panels (a), (b), and (c), respectively. Dashed line indicates the freezing level.

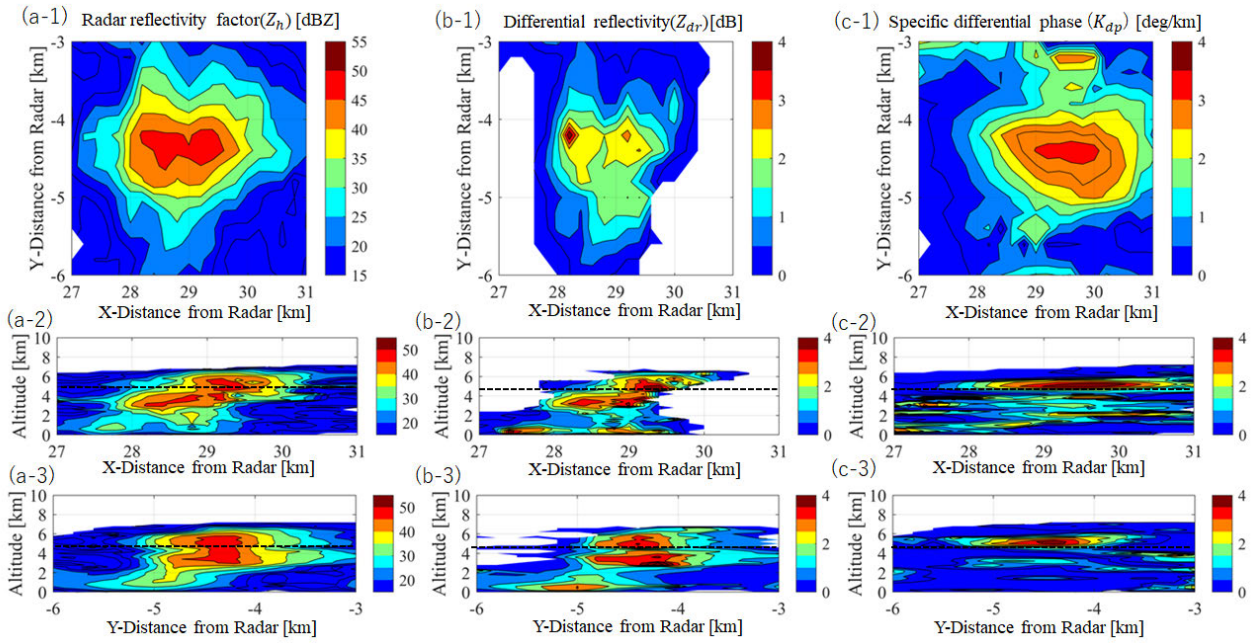
are present near the melting layer. Therefore  $\rho_{hv}$  is useful to detect the freezing level.

Fig. 4 shows the vertical structure of  $\rho_{hv}$  at the same time as Fig. 3. Panels (a) and (b) are slices of the XZ and YZ planes at Y of -18 km and X of 38 km, respectively. From these figures, the  $\rho_{hv}$  is partially low at the altitude of 4.5 km with a black oval in panel (a). Therefore, in this study, the freezing level is set at 4.5 km, which is slightly lower than the radio-sonde data from Fig. 2.

Fig. 5 depicts the temporal evolution of the volume of  $Z_h$  below 2 km altitude, as well as  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$  above the freezing level in panels (a), (b), (c), and (d), respectively. In panel (a), the volume of near-surface rainfall increased between 18:20:54 and 19:10:54. This increase and decrease in rainfall volume were associated with the repeated development of precipitation cores, and after 18:43:24, the  $Z_h$  volume decreased as the updraft within the storms gradually weakened. Panels (b), (c), and (d) show that the peak values for  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$  volumes above the freezing level occurred around 18:25:54. These results suggest that all these variables exhibit variations a few min ahead of near-surface rainfall.

Fig. 6 illustrates the lead-lag correlation coefficients and scatter plots of the temporal changes between the volume of  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$  above the freezing level and  $Z_h$  below 2 km altitude. In the scatter plot, the full volume scan data above the freezing level, which are corrected for time information using lead-lag time in panels (a,b,c-1), and  $Z_h$  volume below 2 km altitude are used. In panels (a-1) and (c-1), it was observed that the  $Z_h$  and  $K_{dp}$  volumes above the freezing level preceded the  $Z_h$  volume below 2 km altitude by 8.5 and 11.5 min, respectively, with correlation coefficients of 0.76 and 0.74, respectively. The coefficient of determination for the  $Z_h$  and  $K_{dp}$  volume was 0.55 or greater, as shown in panels (a-2) and (c-2), respectively. These findings indicate that  $Z_h$  and  $K_{dp}$  volumes above the freezing level can serve as valuable indicators for short-term predictions of near-surface rainfall volume. The previous studies reported that  $K_{dp}$  core, which is an area of enhanced positive  $K_{dp}$ , near and below melting layer appears to be associated with downdrafts in storms (e.g., [30]). Therefore, the  $K_{dp}$  core volume is considered suitable for estimating near-surface rainfall volume, though this study did not explicitly define the  $K_{dp}$  core. However, for  $Z_{dr}$  volume, despite a lead time of 20.5 min relative to surface rainfall, the correlation coefficient was a low value of 0.63. Additionally, the coefficient of determination for  $Z_{dr}$  was 0.40, which was lower than those for  $Z_h$  and  $K_{dp}$ . Several factors may account for this low correlation with surface rainfall.  $Z_{dr}$  tends to be more sensitive to very large liquid drops, possibly containing ice cores (drops exceeding 5 mm in diameter) or hail above the freezing level, in comparison to  $K_{dp}$  [16]. This distinction could contribute to the varying correlation coefficients between  $Z_{dr}$  and  $K_{dp}$ . Moreover, in this case, the absence of clearly observed  $Z_{dr}$  column may have contributed to the lower correlation between  $Z_{dr}$  and near-surface rainfall.

Fig. 7 presents the time-altitude distribution of  $Z_h$  volume at  $> 45$  dBZ,  $Z_{dr}$  volume at  $> 3$  dB, and  $K_{dp}$  volume at  $> 3$  °/km. In the  $Z_h$  and  $K_{dp}$  results of panels (a) and (c), three



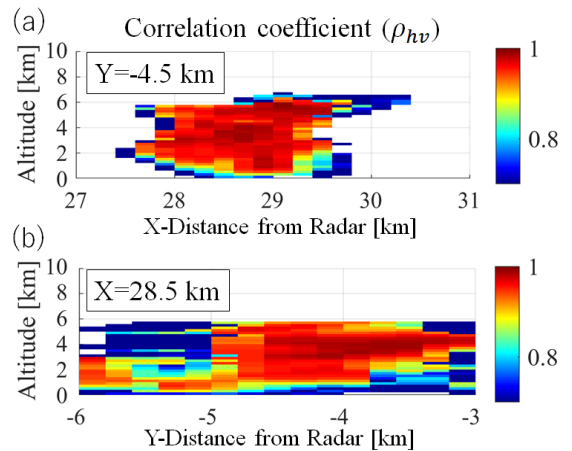
**FIGURE 8.** 3D distribution of the radar variables of  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$ . Panels (a), (b), and (c) show the maximum values of  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$  along a direction, respectively. The numbers 1, 2, and 3 indicate the maximum values across the vertical and horizontal direction. The dashed line indicates the freezing level.

precipitation cores developed around 18:15:24, 18:30:24, and 18:40:24 and were clearly observed falling from high altitudes to the ground. These results indicate that increases or decreases in near-surface rainfall can be accurately predicted with a lead time of more than 8.5 min using the  $Z_h$  and  $K_{dp}$  volumes. However, in this case, the  $Z_{dr}$  volume did not clearly reveal the falling precipitation cores. In this case, the precipitation cores occur within a short time period and seems to temporally overlap each other. The temporal overlap of particles (hail, ice cry stal, rain, etc.) produced by different precipitation cores above the freezing level may have reduced the coefficient of determination for  $Z_{dr}$ .

**B. CASE 2**

Case 2’s storm was observed on August 22, 2020, from 18:00:24 to 18:35:24 (JST). In Fig. 8, the 3D distribution of radar variables  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$  using DP-PAWR at 18:14:54 is presented. The horizontal extent of the storm spanned 2–3 km, as evident in panel (a-1) When compared with case 1, the storm in case 2 was notably smaller. Precipitation cores formed at coordinates of 29 km (x) and -4.5 km (y). The vertical structure of  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$  did not reveal a melting layer signature around the freezing level, as indicated in panels (a-2,3), (b-2,3), and (c-2,3). The echo top at 45 dBZ was situated at an altitude of 6 km. Even with weak convective activity, DP-PAWR clearly captured the precipitation core.

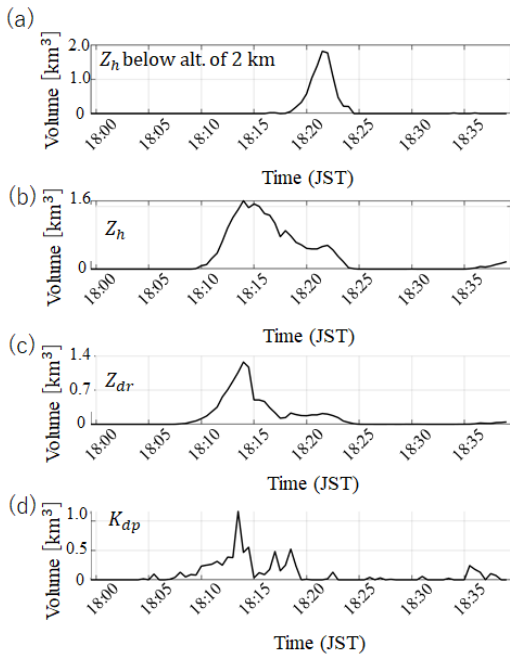
Fig. 9 illustrates the vertical structure of  $\rho_{hv}$  at the same time as Fig. 8. Panels (a) and (b) provide slices of the XZ and YZ planes at Y coordinates of -4.5 km and X coordinates of 28.5 km, respectively. In case 2, it is difficult to define



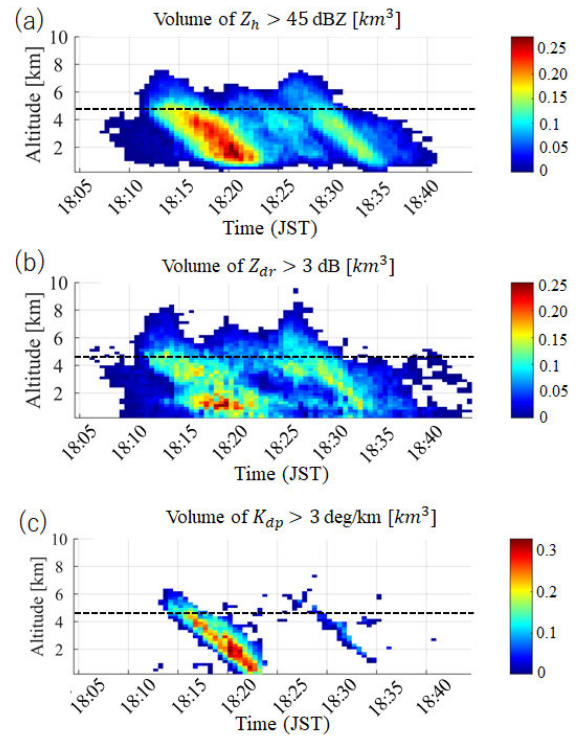
**FIGURE 9.** Vertical structure of the  $\rho_{hv}$  at the same time as Fig. 8. Panels (a) and (b) are slices of the XZ and YZ planes.

the melting layer from Fig. 9. However, because case 1 and 2 were observed at almost the same time, we also used the melting layer altitude of 4.5 km obtained in case 1.

In Fig. 10, the temporal changes in the volume of  $Z_h$  below 2 km altitude, and  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$  above the freezing level, are displayed. Panel (a) reveals an increase in surface rainfall volume from 18:18:24 to 18:25:24, peaking at 18:22:24. In panels (b), (c), and (d), the  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$  and  $K_{dp}$  volumes above the freezing level exhibited an approximate lead time of 8 min in relation to near-surface rainfall. The peak values for these variables were recorded around 18:14:24.



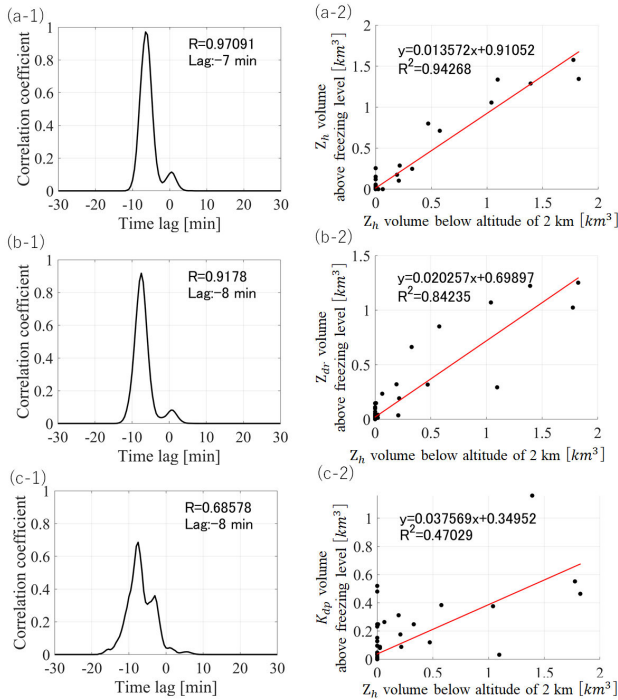
**FIGURE 10.** Temporal variation in the volume of  $Z_h$  below 2 km altitude, and  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$  at an altitude above the freezing level (4.5 km altitude) in panels (a), (b), (c), and (d), respectively.



**FIGURE 12.** Time-altitude distribution of  $Z_h$  volume,  $Z_{dr}$  volume and  $K_{dp}$  volume in panels (a), (b), and (c), respectively. Dashed line indicates the freezing level.

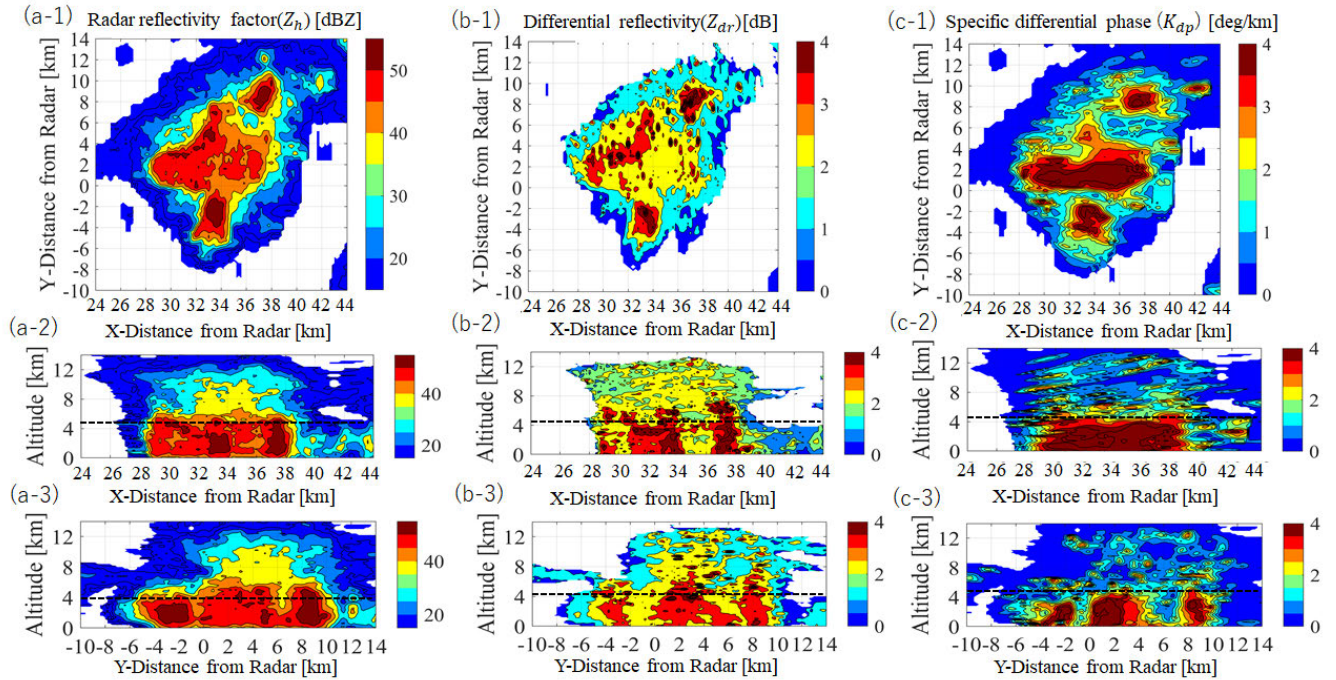
above the freezing level and  $Z_h$  below 2 km altitude. In panels (a-1), (b-1), and (c-1), the  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$  and  $K_{dp}$  volumes above the freezing level exhibited a lead time of  $-8$  min compared to the volume of near-surface rainfall. Panels (a-2) and (b-2) reveal coefficients of determination for the  $Z_h$  and  $Z_{dr}$  volumes, exceeding 0.84, even with a smaller dataset due to the storm’s short duration. These results underscore the usefulness of  $Z_h$  and  $Z_{dr}$  volumes above the freezing level as predictive indicators for near-surface rainfall volume. However, the coefficient of determination for the  $K_{dp}$  volume was slightly lower, registering a mere 0.47. As described in [13],  $K_{dp}$  is most strongly correlated with intense convection and may not effectively track moderate deep convection activity. In this case, the convective storms were generally small with weak convective activity, leading to a relatively lower coefficient of determination for the  $K_{dp}$  volume compared to the other variables.

Fig. 12 shows the time-altitude distribution of  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$  volume. In the  $Z_h$  and  $Z_{dr}$  results in panels (a) and (b), respectively, two precipitation cores were observed to develop and decline during the analysis period. DP-PAWR accurately observed the movement of precipitation cores in very small and temporally short storms by making 3D observations every 30 s. The precipitation cores descended from a high altitude towards the ground for approximately 8 min prior to the near-surface rainfall beginning. For  $Z_{dr}$ , the precipitation cores were clearly observed, indicating that the two cores generated in case 2 could be separated in time.



**FIGURE 11.** Lead-lag correlation coefficients and scatter plots of the temporal variations in between the volume of (a)  $Z_h$ , (b)  $Z_{dr}$ , and (c)  $K_{dp}$  above freezing level and  $Z_h$  below 2 km altitude.

Fig. 11 presents the lead-lag correlation coefficients and scatter plots depicting the temporal variations in radar full volume scan data between the volume of  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$



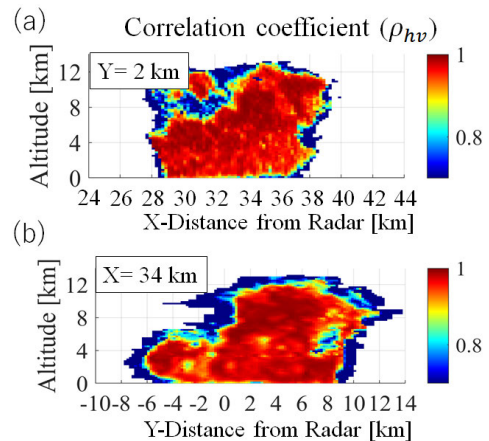
**FIGURE 13.** 3D distribution of the radar variables of  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$ . Panels (a), (b), and (c) show the maximum values of  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$  along a direction, respectively. The numbers 1, 2, and 3 indicate the maximum values across the vertical and horizontal direction. The dashed line indicates the freezing level.

These two points may have resulted in a different result from case 1.

In the case of the  $K_{dp}$  result, the descent of the precipitation cores was distinctly observed. However, it was noted that the  $K_{dp}$  volume was not observed for the second core, which resulted in very little near-surface rainfall. These findings indicate that  $Z_h$  and  $Z_{dr}$  volumes above the freezing level are valuable for quantitatively predicting the volume of near-surface rainfall in case 2. While the  $K_{dp}$  volume above the freezing level may not be conducive to predicting near-surface rainfall volume quantitatively in very small storms, it can effectively detect developing precipitation cores in advance. For  $K_{dp}$  volume in this case, optimizing the threshold value may improve the accuracy of ground rainfall estimation, but since the objective of this paper is to predict heavy rainfall disasters using a simple threshold, changing the threshold value is a subject for future study.

**C. CASE 3**

The storm in case 3 was observed on July 30, 2021 from 11:40:33 to 14:35:33 (JST). Fig. 13 shows the 3D distribution of radar variables at 13:31:33. The scale of the storm was about a dozen kilometers horizontally. The  $Z_h$  shown in panel (a) indicate that there are at least two or more precipitation cores within the analysis area. The echo top of 45 dBZ was situated at an altitude of 7 km. The vertical structure of  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$  did not reveal a melting layer signature around the freezing level, as indicated in panels (a-2,3), (b-2,3), and (c-2,3).

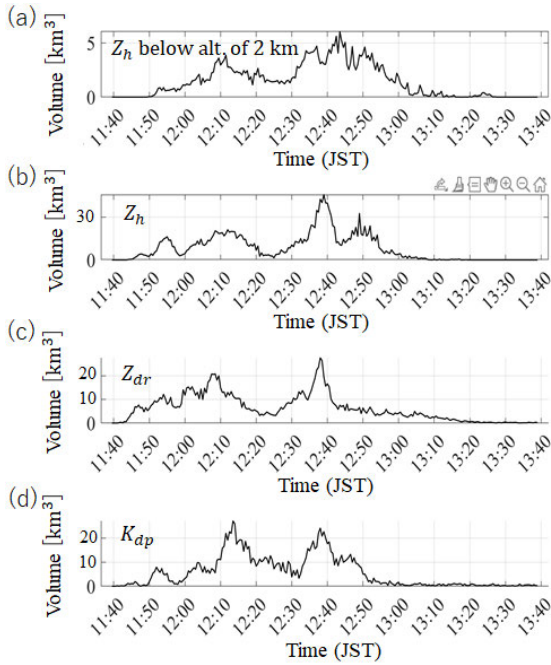


**FIGURE 14.** Vertical structure of the  $\rho_{hv}$  at the same time as Fig. 13. Panels (a) and (b) are slices of the XZ and YZ planes at Y of 2 km and X of 34 km, respectively.

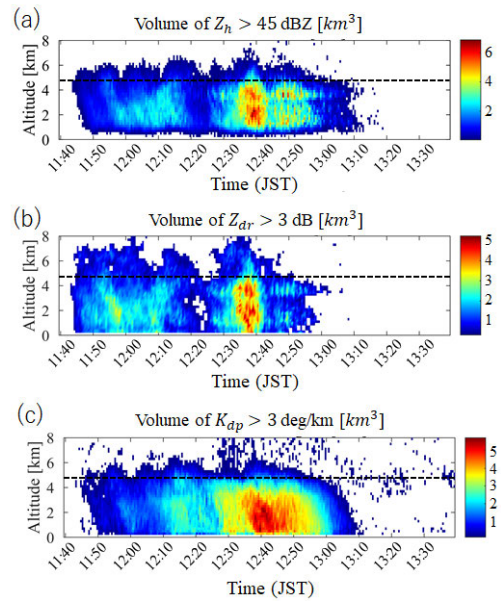
Fig. 14 shows the vertical structure of the  $\rho_{hv}$ . It is difficult to define the melting layer from the distribution of the  $\rho_{hv}$  as in case 2. In this case, we decided to use the melting layer altitude of 4.7 km from the radiosonde data as shown in Fig. 2(b).

Fig. 15 indicates the temporal changes in the volume of the radar variables. Panel (a) reveals an increase in near-surface rainfall volume from 11:50:33 to 13:10:33, peaking at 12:43:33. In panels (b), (c), and (d) the  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$  volumes above the freezing level exhibited an approximate lead time of 5 min in relation to near-surface rainfall.





**FIGURE 15.** Temporal variation in the volume of  $Z_h$  below 2 km altitude, and  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$  at an altitude above the freezing level (4.7 km altitude) in panels (a), (b), (c), and (d), respectively.



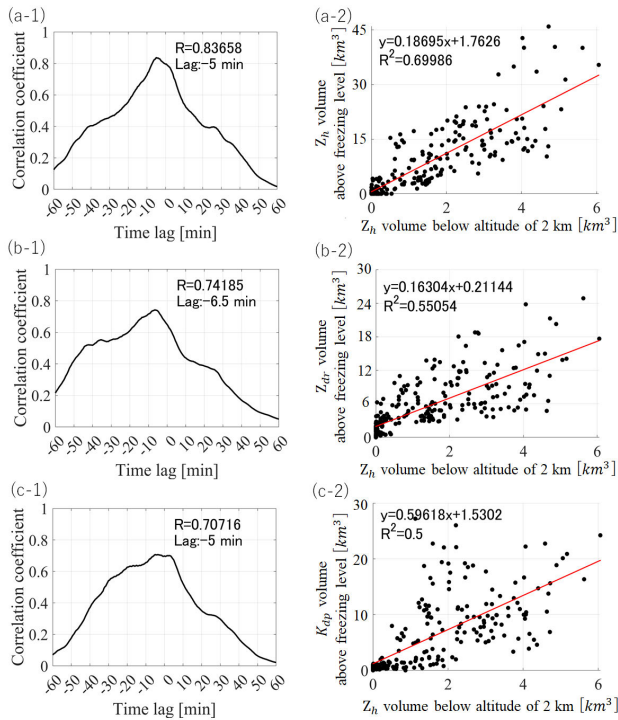
**FIGURE 17.** Time-altitude distribution of  $Z_h$  volume,  $Z_{dr}$  volume and  $K_{dp}$  volume in panels (a), (b), and (c), respectively. Dashed line indicates the freezing level.

above the freezing level exhibited a lead time greater than 5 min compared to the volume of near-surface rainfall. The coefficients of determination are also greater than 0.5. In this case, all variables showed precise accuracy in predicting near-surface rainfall.

Fig. 17 shows the time-altitude distribution of the  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$  volume. In all variables, we can clearly observe a strong precipitation core that occurred around 12:43. The DP-PAWR accurately observed the movement of precipitation cores from high to low altitude.

**TABLE 2.** Lead-lag time and coefficient of determination for the surface rainfall.

		Lead-lag [min]	coefficient of determination
Case 1 (heavy convective +multicore)	$Z_h$	-8.5	0.58
	$Z_{dr}$	-20.5	0.40
	$K_{dp}$	-11.5	0.55
Case 2 (weak convective)	$Z_h$	-7.0	0.94
	$Z_{dr}$	-8.0	0.84
Case 3 (heavy convective +multicore)	$Z_h$	-5.0	0.70
	$Z_{dr}$	-6.5	0.55
	$K_{dp}$	-5.0	0.50



**FIGURE 16.** Lead-lag correlation coefficients and scatter plots of the temporal variations in the radar volumetric data between (a)  $Z_h$ , (b)  $Z_{dr}$ , and (c)  $K_{dp}$  above freezing level and  $Z_h$  velow 2 km altitude.

Fig. 16 shows the lead-lag correlation coefficients and scatter plots depicting the temporal variations. In panels (a-1), (b-1), and (c-1), the  $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$  volumes

The results of  $Z_h$  and  $K_{dp}$  are similar to case 1. Meanwhile,  $Z_{dr}$  had a greater coefficient of determination than case 1. Unlike case 1, the precipitation cores are developing, concentrated at the time 12:43 as shown in Fig. 17. In this case, no temporal overlap due to multiple precipitation cores occurring in a short period of time was observed, which may have avoided the complexity of the generation and distribution of particles at high altitude. Furthermore, the  $Z_{dr}$  observations clearly showed the precipitation core. Hence, this result in case 3 is also similar in trend to case 2. Finally, we have summarized the results in Table 2.

#### IV. CONCLUSION

This study aimed to explore the relationship between the volume of several radar variables ( $Z_h$ ,  $Z_{dr}$ , and  $K_{dp}$ ) above the freezing level and near-surface rainfall using DP-PAWR for three distinct summer convective storms. The research delved into the quantitative predictability of near-surface rainfall volume based on these radar variables.

In the case of heavy convective storms, as described in case 1, it was observed that the  $Z_h$  and  $K_{dp}$  volumes above the freezing level had a lead time of over 8.5 min in relation to near-surface rainfall volume, with a coefficient of determination exceeding 0.55. The  $Z_{dr}$  volume exhibited a weaker correlation with near-surface rainfall in this scenario.

For the small-scale convective storm in case 2, the  $Z_h$  and  $Z_{dr}$  volumes proved highly effective in predicting surface rainfall volume, with a lead time exceeding 7 minutes and a coefficient of determination surpassing 0.84. However, the  $K_{dp}$  volume above the freezing level was found to be less reliable in forecasting surface rainfall volume due to its limited sensitivity in this context of a small-scale convective storm.

For heavy convective storms in case 3, all variables showed the potential to predict near-surface rainfall with a coefficient of determination of 0.5 or better accuracy, with at least 5 min lead time.

These results show that by combining the 30-s full volume scan data observed by DP-PAWR, it is possible to quantitatively predict surface rainfall for various types of developing convective storms, ranging in time from 5 minutes to around 11 minutes. This research also holds promise for predicting precipitation-related flash flooding. In the future, an increase in DP-PAWR production in Japan is expected. Conducting statistical analyses across numerous storm cases is anticipated to enhance the accuracy of quantitative near-surface rainfall forecasting by identifying combinations of high-altitude volume of several radar variables tailored to the scale of convective activity.

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