INTERANNUAL VARIABILITY IN PRECIPITATION OVER THE SOUTHERN HEMISPHERE: WHAT HAVE WE LEARNED SINCE 1985?

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1. Introduction

Precipitation is a critical element of the climate of the Southern Hemisphere (SH), and observations of its mean annual cycle and crucial interannual variability are to understanding SH climate variability. Twentytwo years ago, at the time of the first Conference on Southern Hemisphere Meteorology in Sao Jose dos Campos, Brazil, our knowledge of SH precipitation over land was based on rain gauge observations (Jaeger, 1983; Legates and Wilmott, 1990), vielding climatologies with excellent detail but with no information on year-to-year variability. Over the Southern Ocean (SO) the situation was even less satisfactory, as our knowledge was limited to climatologies based on a variety limited information. including of ship observations of present weather and island rain gauges; no time series of precipitation analyses existed. Linking land and oceanic precipitation variabilitv was essentially impossible aside from some limited information that was available from convective indices based infrared satellite on observations for the tropics and subtropics (Arkin and Meisner, 1987).

The situation has improved greatly over the years, with the first big step being the introduction of the merged gauge/infrared/ passive microwave estimates of the Climate Merged Prediction Center Analysis of Precipitation (CMAP; Xie and Arkin, 1997b) and the Global Precipitation Climatology Project (GPCP; Huffman et al., 1997; Adler et al., 2003). These estimates were both originally available at 2.5°, monthly mean and pentad (five-day mean) resolution (Xie and Arkin, 1997b; Xie et al., 2003). More recently, a 1° daily version of GPCP has been produced (Huffman et al., 2001).

The current version of the GPCP 2.5° monthly mean dataset is the version two dataset (Adler et al., 2003) which improved on the first version with a longer record and the addition of TOVS data for improved estimates at mid and higher latitudes. Both CMAP and GPCP have problems with high-latitude precipitation due to the lack of reliable data: there are few gauges in these sparsely populated regions and available satellitederived precipitation estimates are of limited use over ice or snow-covered surfaces. Therefore, in the high-latitudes, there remains uncertainty in the superiority of the merged estimates over reanalysis data. Thus a version of CMAP includes reanalysis precipitation forecasts from the NCAR NCEP reanalysis (Kalnay et al., 1997) over the high latitudes, and it is this version that is used in this paper (note: the data set is also available without the reanalysis data).

2. Global Precipitation Climatology

1 shows the global seasonal Figure precipitation from GPCP version 2 and CMAP for December, January, February (DJF) and June, July, August (JJA) from 1979 to 2005. Unsurprisingly, there is good qualitative agreement between the two datasets since they are constructed from similar inputs. In the Northern hemisphere, major features such as the Atlantic and Pacific climatological storm tracks and the dry high pressure zones of the major continents are clearly visible in DJF (NH winter). In JJA (NH summer) these features are weakened due to the weaker westerly flow in mid-latitudes, and convective processes are more dominant as can be seen over the major land masses.

In the tropics precipitation is dominated by convective processes and the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) is clearly visible, as is the south-north shift in the ITCZ which takes place between DJF and JJA. The datasets differ quantitatively over the tropical oceans, where CMAP estimates greater precipitation than GPCP primarily due to the atoll raingauge-based bias adjustment applied to CMAP. However, the details of

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spatial variability and seasonal evolution in GPCP and CMAP are quite similar.

In the Southern Hemisphere, the South Pacific Convergence Zone can be clearly seen in DJF (SH summer) as can the subtropical subsidence regions under the semi-permanent high pressure zones. Midlatitude oceanic precipitation maxima are found in JJA, apparently associated with wintertime synoptic storminess.

3. High Resolution Precipitation Estimates

The CMAP and GPCP products have greatly understanding of global enhanced our precipitation and the one-degree daily GPCP product has been a useful addition due to its increased spatial and temporal resolution. However, a new generation of precipitation datasets with spatial resolutions of at least 0.25° and temporal resolution of at least three hours is now becoming available. These products are based on a variety of innovative methods for combining estimates derived from passive microwave (PMW) polar-orbiting observations with geostationary satellite satellite infrared (IR) imagery. The Pilot Evaluation of High Resolution Precipitation Products (PEHRPP,

http://www.umd.edu/~msapiano/PEHRPP)

aims to intercompare and validate these new datasets. PEHRPP currently includes a number of datasets: the TRMM Multi-satellite Precipitation Analysis (TMPA; Huffman et al., 2003). the CPC Morphing technique (CMORPH; Joyce et al., 2004), the Hydro-Estimator (Scofield and Kuligowski, 2003), the NRL-Blended technique (NRL-Blended; Turk and Miller, 2005) and the Precipitation Estimation from Remotely Sensed Information using Artificial Neural Networks (PERSIANN; Hsu et al., 1997; Sorooshian et al., 2000) project. It is also hoped that the project will ultimately include the Global Satellite Mapping of Precipitation (GSMaP) project and the Self-Calibrating Multivariate Precipitation Retrieval (SCaMPR; Kuligowski, 2002) algorithm.

Generally speaking, these techniques use the high spatial and temporal resolution of IR data to make up for the deficiencies in the resolution of the high quality PMW but each algorithm differs slightly. CMORPH uses the IR data to evolve the sparse PMW estimates, thus creating a continuous rainfall field. The main TMPA product (3B42) uses the high quality PMW data where available and calibrated IR data where the PMW data is unavailable. This product is then calibrated to be consistent with the monthly satellite gauge product. The Hydro-Estimator uses additional model estimates to adjust the rain-rates derived from the IR estimates. The NRL Blended technique uses histogram matching to calibrate IR estimates with PMW data. Finally, PERSIANN uses an adaptive neuralnetwork to calibrate IR estimates with PMW estimates.

4. Summary

In the past 22 years, our knowledge of global precipitation has increased areatly. Climatologies based on ship's records and land gauges have been enhanced and replaced by climatologies and global timeseries based on satellite estimates. The merged gauge/satellite GPCP and CMAP datasets have been instrumental in a great number of studies of precipitation, and are still widely used today for climatological studies and model validation. However, these products do not provide a perfect record and validation is currently impossible over much of the globe. Furthermore, our best estimates of global precipitation are usually ones where some gauge calibration has taken place.

The next major step in global precipitation estimates has come in the form of higher resolution merged IR/PMW estimates. There are currently several different algorithms available, all exploiting similar raw datasets in different ways, with efforts to validate and intercompare these datasets under way. The major drawback with these datasets is that the longer series extend back only as far as 1997 (several of the series are considerably shorter than that) and none of the techniques can be applied poleward of 60° latitude. Despite these drawbacks, these new datasets have on occasion exhibited accuracies approaching those of radar precipitation measurement. If this standard can be achieved, then these high resolution precipitation products could provide new information to aid in the vital understanding of oceanic precipitation in both the Northern and Southern Hemispheres. PEHRPP is expected to advance this effort.

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Figure 1: Seasonal mean precipitation (mm day¹) for (a and c) DJF and (b and d) JJA for (a and b) GPCP and (c and d) CMAP.