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during atmospheric storms and depressions					
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15 Abstract

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Global Positioning System (GPS) monitoring of Zenith Total Delay (ZTD) of the 17 troposphere which is related to water vapor is important as it may help us in weather 18 forecasting. The atmospheric water vapor varies according to the season and it also varies 19 quickly on short temporal and spatial scales during stormy periods. Thus it plays a crucial 20 role in meteorology. GPS is one of the relatively inexpensive tools available to monitor the 21 water vapor content in the atmosphere. In the present study, the efficacy of GPS data to 22 monitor perturbations in tropospheric water content (GPS meteorology) associated with 23 atmospheric storms and depressions is investigated utilizing the data from a tropical region of 24 India, recorded between 15th October, 2010 and 27th December, 2010 during which Southern 25 India was affected by a few significant atmospheric events. The ZTD was estimated for this 26 period at the NGRI operated GPS stations at Hyderabad (HYDE) and MS University, 27 Tirunelveli (MSUN). The accuracy of GPS derived ZTD was validated from the close match 28

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GPS derived Zenith Total Delay (ZTD) observed at tropical locations in South India

29 seen with ZTD values estimated from numerical weather modeling data. During the stormy periods there were strong variations of the ZTD. Corresponding changes in precipitable water 30 vapor were estimated for the International GNSS Service station HYDE. The average ZTD 31 was found to be higher near the coastal station at MSUN and less at the inland station HYDE. 32 Most of the observed peaks in the ZTD time series were well correlated to the atmospheric 33 events that influenced the region. The study extended to two more locations in the equatorial 34 Indian Ocean region showed spatial variations in the ZTD values, which suggest the 35 weakening of ZTD towards the coast. Our observations are yet another illustration for the 36 application of GPS observations to monitor tropospheric water content variations associated 37 with severe atmospheric events. 38

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Key Words: GPS meteorology, Zenith Total Delay, precipitable water, atmospheric storms.

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41 **1. Introduction**

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The Global Positioning System (GPS) technology (Leick, 1990), which was originally 43 designed as a system for navigational and time transfer, has revamped the field of geodesy 44 and geodynamics by its ability to determine Earth rotation parameters and geodetic positions 45 precisely with little costs. Later, e.g. Bevis et al. (1992) realized the relation between the 46 Zenith Total Delay (ZTD) experienced by the GPS signal and the atmospheric water content, 47 and GPS monitoring found another useful application in meteorological studies that opened 48 the field of GPS meteorology (Businger et al., 1996). Today, remote sensing of the 49 atmospheric parameters, i.e. ZTD obtained from GPS signal records, is useful in 50 meteorological studies and successful in weather forecasting, thus making GPS meteorology 51 52 a frontier area of research (e.g. Rocken et al., 1993; Bevis et al., 1994; Duan et al., 1996; Emardson et al., 1998; Foster et al., 2000; Baltink et al., 2002; Gradinarsky et al., 2002; 53 Hagemann et al., 2003; Champollion et al., 2005; Jade et al., 2005; Jin et al., 2007; Nilsson 54 and Elgered, 2008; Thomas et al., 2011; Joshi et al., 2013; Means and Cayan, 2013; Suparta 55 56 et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2013; Singh et al., 2014a,b; Li et al., 2014). In this paper, we

demonstrate the correlation between the ZTD values estimated from continuous GPS
monitoring, and atmospheric storm phenomena and rainfall associated with them to establish
the utility of GPS monitoring for weather and rainfall forecasting.

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The atmospheric water vapor causes a delay in the propagation of GPS radio signals, while 61 passing through the atmosphere to the receivers on the Earth surface. This delay, known as 62 'wet delay', is approximately proportional to the quantity of water integrated along the ray 63 path (Hogg et al., 1981; Askine and Nordius, 1987). Therefore, dynamic perturbations in the 64 atmospheric water vapor content would get reflected in the ZTD values obtained from GPS 65 studies, which correspond to the total GPS signal delay caused by the atmospheric column 66 67 vertically above the GPS station. Knowledge of the spatial and temporal distribution of water vapor in the atmosphere is an important factor for a better understanding of atmospheric 68 69 phenomena, climate and climate changes (Starr and Melfi, 1991). This atmospheric parameter commonly shows rapid changes with space and time, and hence becomes a crucial 70 71 component of climate and weather modeling.

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Storms on the Earth such as rainstorm, snowstorm, cyclonic storm, depression, etc. are severe 73 weather conditions that are associated with notable transient changes in atmospheric water 74 75 content. These sudden changes in precipitable water vapor (PWV) associated with the 76 atmospheric events can be well picked up by the GPS data (e.g. Rocken et al., 1993). For the Indian sub-continent, weather forecasting is being successfully performed by the Indian 77 78 Meteorological Department (http://www.imd.gov.in) using latest technologies. The present 79 study utilizes GPS data to compute atmospheric parameters related to water content in the 80 troposphere (ZTD and PWV), and evaluates the variations seen in these values to observe the signatures of storms and depressions. The GPS signals from two stations located in South 81 82 India were analyzed to study the ZTD and also the PWV variations related to tropical cyclonic storms and deep depressions that were originated in the Indian Ocean and affected 83 the Southern part of the East coast of the Indian Peninsula between 25th October, 2010, and 84 11th December, 2010. 85

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2. Basic concepts of GPS meteorology

The GPS radio waves travelling from satellites in space to the receiver on ground undergo 88 89 significant delay induced by the ionosphere and troposphere (the lower part of atmosphere, Hogg et al., 1981). In geodetic studies, these ionospheric and tropospheric delays (together 90 91 known as the total delay) are removed by appropriate corrections applied to the GPS signals (Davis et al., 1985). In the metereological application of GPS we make use of the 92 tropospheric delay information as this is directly related to the constituent components of the 93 troposphere. This total tropospheric delay, called ZTD, is further divided into Zenith Wet 94 95 Delay [ZWD] and Zenith Hydrostatic Delay [ZHD], which are respectively due to the wet water vapor and dry gaseous components in the troposphere (e.g. Nilsson and Elgered, 2008). 96 97 The ZTD can be determined after removing the ionospheric delay part from the total delay computed from two-frequency GPS observations. The ZWD is proportional to the 98 tropospheric 99 integrated water vapor content $(IWV = \int_0^\infty \rho_w dZ; \rho_w - \text{density of water vapor, } dZ - \text{vertical coordinate})$ and is the minor 100 component (~10 %) of the ZTD. The water vapor content of the atmosphere in zenith 101 102 direction is also defined as the height of an equivalent liquid water column and referred to Precipitable Water (P_w) , which can be computed from ZWD using the relation (Nilsson et al., 103 104 2013):

$$105 \quad P_w = k\Delta L_w^z \tag{1}$$

106 where, ΔL_w^z is the ZWD and $k = \frac{10^6 M_w}{\left[k'_2 + \frac{k_3}{T_m}\right] R \rho_{wl}}$, for which $k'_2 = 16.52$ K/mbar, and $k_3 = 107$ (3.776 ± 0.004) x 10⁵ K²/mbar are constants (Askne and Nordius, 1987).

108 M_w is the molar mass of water (18.0152 g/mol).

- 109 T_m is the mean temperature $\approx 70.2 + 0.72T_0$, where T_0 is Earth surface temperature
- 110 *R* is the universal gas constant, R = 8.314 J/mol, and
- 111 ρ_{wl} is the density of liquid water in kg/m³

112 **3. Data and analysis**

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As a part of its GPS-Geodesy program, the National Geophysical Research Institute 114 115 (NGRI), Hyderabad, India initiated GPS monitoring at Hyderabad (HYDE) in the year 1995 by establishing an IGS (International GNSS [Global Navigational Satellite Systems] Service 116 - http://www.igs.org) tracking station. In September 2010, we started recording GPS signals 117 at another GPS permanent station positioned at MS University campus, Tirunelveli, South 118 119 India (hereafter called MSUN; Figure 1). Both these stations are within the Southern part of Indian Peninsula surrounded by the Indian Ocean. The geographic position and other details 120 121 of these GPS stations are given in Table 1. The stations were equipped with multichannel dual frequency GPS receivers. A Leica System 1200 GRX GPS receiver was operative at 122 123 HYDE and a Topcon GB 1000 GPS receiver was functioning at MSUN station. At both sites, 124 the data were recorded with a uniform sampling rate of 30 seconds. The elevation cutoff angle of the GPS antenna was set to 5° to avoid the tracking of satellites at too low elevation. 125 Multipath signals were mainly eliminated using choke ring antennas. The data in binary 126 format were converted into Receiver Independent Exchange Format (RINEX) (Galas and 127 Kohler, 2001). 128

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The equatorial Indian Ocean region frequently is the origin zone of several severe 130 weather conditions that affect the Indian subcontinent. The year 2010 has seen a few of such 131 132 weather events and most of them were concentrated in the Bay of Bengal (http://www.imd.gov.in/section/nhac/dynamic/RSMC-2010.pdf). Among these, the very 133 severe cyclonic storm 'GIRI' and the severe cyclonic storm 'JAL' were experienced during 134 20-23 October and 4-8 November, 2010, respectively, and influenced the Indian weather 135 conditions considerably. The cyclonic storm 'JAL' crossed the coasts of North Tamilnadu 136 and South Andhra Pradesh on 7th November, 2010, while 'GIRI' did not hit the Indian coast 137 and moved to the Myanmar coast. During 7-8 December, 2010, another depression was 138 formed over the Bay of Bengal, which crossed the Southern Andhra Pradesh coast on 7th 139 December, 2010. These events produced stormy weather and torrential rains in South India, 140

particularly on the East coast. We used about two and half months (15th October till 27th December, 2010, a period equivalent to the GPS day period 288-358) of GPS data recorded at the Hyderabad (HYDE) and Tirunelveli (MSUN) stations to estimate the ZTD perturbations over these locations. The ZTD data were further analysed to study their correlation with the atmospheric events and to identify typical signals corresponding to these meteorological events.

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148 The raw GPS data in RINEX format were processed using the Bernese 5.0 software (Dach et al., 2007, 2009). Station MSUN was used as the fixed station for data processing. In 149 150 the processing, the station position was fixed to the result of a preceding Precise Point Positioning (Melbourne, 1985). The Bernese software (Dach et al., 2007) was used for 151 analyzing the GPS data. It assumes an azimuthally homogeneous atmosphere. Receiver clock 152 errors, satellite clock errors and cycle slips were eliminated during processing and the 153 ambiguities in the carrier phase were estimated and corrected. We applied the Niell mapping 154 function (Niell, 1996), included in Bernese 5.0, to compute the ZTD values over Hyderabad 155 and Tirunelveli stations. The temporal resolution was set to two hours; however, hourly 156 estimations were made for the GPS period from day 326 to 329, which has seen heavy 157 rainfall in and around Tirunelveli station. 158

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160 **4. Results and discussions**

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The ZTD values computed for the period from 15th October to 27th December, 2010 at Hyderabad and Tirunelveli stations are presented in Figures 2 and 3. The variation in the hydrostatic delay that contributes 90% to the total ZTD value is a slow process and hence is negligible (e.g. Luo et al., 2013). Thus the observed variations in ZTD that contribute about 10% to the absolute ZTD value mainly represent the changes in water vapor content in the troposphere. Our GPS derived ZTD time series show peaks and lows corresponding to the atmospheric water vapor changes associated with the severe weather periods experienced in 169 the region. To verify the reliability of GPS derived ZTD in establishing its relation with atmospheric weather changes, we compared our results with numerical weather model 170 (NWM) data (e.g. Böhm et al., 2006; Bock et al., 2013). Numerical weather models are 171 prepared continuously e.g. by the European Centre for Medium Weather Forecasting 172 (ECMWF) [http://www.ecmwf.int/]. We used the ZTD data generated by numerical weather 173 modeling studies from http://ggosatm.hg.tuwien.ac.at/, and compared them with our GPS 174 derived observations. The comparison carried out for Hyderabad station data showed a 175 remarkably good agreement of ZTD between the GPS derived and the numerical prediction 176 values (Figure 2). In this case, the standard deviation between GPS and NWM estimations is 177 0.004 m. Similar observation were also reported previously by Teke et al. (2013). The good 178 match between GPS and NWM derived ZTD estimates was also confirmed from a t-test that 179 180 showed more than 95% confidence level. We could not extend this to the MSUN site as this is not an IGS station and NWM data are not available for this location. As can be noticed 181 from Figures 2 and 3, our GPS data suffer from a major data gap (~9 days between GPS days 182 308 and 316) due to power failures at the MSUN site and hence the correlation was not 183 possible for those few days without data recording. In addition to this, occasional data losses 184 (GPS days 294-299, 332-336, and 341-343) were also evident in the time series. However, 185 186 significant weather changes or rainfalls were not reported during those periods. The NWM data complement the GPS data and exhibit the ZTD behavior whenever GPS data are not 187 available. We tested the good consensus shown between the GPS and NWM data using two 188 other IGS GPS stations located in the equatorial Indian Ocean region. The GPS data from 189 Cocos Island (COCO) and Diego Garcia (DGAR) were processed and the ZTD values were 190 compared with the NWM ZTD values (Figure 4). The standard deviations obtained are 0.028 191 m and 0.017 m at sites COCO and DGAR, respectively. Figure 4 again illustrates the good 192 agreement between GPS derived and NWM calculated ZTD values, and thus allows us to use 193 the information from numerical weather data whenever GPS could not record. 194

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196 The rainfall data for the Hyderabad and Tirunelveli stations were also compared with the 197 respective ZTD estimates to understand the correlation between the two (i.e. rainfall and ZTD 198 changes). The quantity of water in the atmosphere, i.e. precipitable water (P_w) , can be determined from ZTD using equation (1). The ZWD values (i.e. ΔL_w^z term) needed in the 199 equation were obtained by subtracting the ZHD (retrieved from the NWM) from the GPS 200 estimated ZTD values. We estimated the precipitable water at the Hyderabad station (Figure 201 2, lower panel), assuming the values of Mw (0.0180152 Kg/mol) and Md (0.028964 Kg/mol). 202 Pw values were computed using value of constants given in Askne and Nordius (1987) and 203 also following Rüeger (2002). The comparison of the results does not show any significant 204 difference in Pw values (Figure 2, lower panel). The required mean temperature (Tm) value 205 was obtained 206 from the Vienna University of Technology database (http://ggosatm.hg.tuwien.ac.at/DELAY/ETC/TMEAN/). The standard deviation of the Tm 207 values used in this study is 2.07 K. Accuracy of the results was tested by studying the 208 sensitivity of P_w value to the possible error in Tm measurements. P_w values were computed 209 for a change in *Tm* by 4K, 8K and 12K, and compared with the actual estimations in figure 5. 210 211 Figure 5 illustrate negligible variation in P_w estimates for the above error (change) in Tm. The average difference seen for a change of 4K, 8K and 12K is 0.94 mm, 1.26 mm and 1.58 mm 212 213 respectively. These differences are negligible compared to the peak P_w values approximately falling between 30 and 41 mm. 214

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During the period between 16th October and 27th December, 2010, the ZTD values estimated 216 at the Hyderabad GPS station vary between 2.21 and 2.53 m (Figure 2). Four major ZTD 217 218 peaks, marked as HP1, HP2, HP3, and HP4 in Figure 2, with values between 2.45 m and 2.53 m are visible in the ZTD time series. The ZTD is expected to be higher than the average 219 220 value of 2.37 m during stormy weather conditions (Hogg et al., 1981), which however vary with altitude. Except the peak HP3, all others are observed just before or coincident with the 221 222 noted atmospheric events reported from the South Indian region during the period of our study. The peak HP3 does not correspond to any abnormal atmospheric event and hence 223 224 might be related to the normal water vapor accumulation process. Higher ZTD values indicate higher water vapor content in the atmosphere, which is quite clear from the PWV 225 226 derived from ZTD for the same period (Figure 2). It can be seen from Figure 2 that the ZTD values were high during the 18-22 October period. During this period the formation of a deep
depression in the Bay of Bengal region was noticed on 19th October, which further intensified
into a severe cyclonic storm (GIRI) by 22nd of October and moved towards the coast of
central Myanmar and the system weakened by the end of 23rd October. Though this
atmospheric system did not move towards the Indian coast, the ZTD variations observed at
Hyderabad can be associated to these atmospheric events.

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234 Under normal circumstances the accumulated water vapor gets discharged as rain at the same location. However, it is possible in the case of significant atmospheric wind conditions that 235 236 the accumulated water vapor may travel to distant locations and get discharged under suitable atmospheric conditions. Such a situation could be the reason for no rainfall at Hyderabad 237 corresponding to the higher ZTD observed during the 'GIRI' period. Significant rainfall was 238 recorded, however, during the 'JAL' period. Similarly, the GPS derived ZTD and the derived 239 PWV match with the rainfall that occurred at Hyderabad during the deep depression event 240 affecting South India. 241

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243 For the Tirunelveli station, the GPS derived ZTD data (Figure 3) show a comparable pattern as observed at the Hyderabad station. However, the ZTD peak values are relatively higher (> 244 245 2.6 m) and show correlation with the atmospheric events noted in the South India region. No rainfall events were reported from this location during the major events GIRI and JAL. But, 246 higher ZTD values were observed in the atmosphere during the GPS days 327 to 330 and 247 significant amount of rain was reported from this location. The cumulative rainfall data show 248 the slow onset of rain during 310-325 GPS days (6-21 Nov., 2010), followed by consistent 249 and frequent rainfall during the GPS days 326-340 (22 Nov. - 06 Dec., 2010), as indicated by 250 steep slope and the final phase of withdrawal of rain from GPS day 341 (Dec. 7) onwards 251 depicting the decreasing trend of the monsoon pattern (e.g. Cook and Buckley, 2009). The 252 absence of rain at this place during the GIRI and JAL period can be attributed to the possible 253 254 wind pattern associated with the atmospheric events.

In the present study we also analyzed the ZTD variations at the IGS stations COCO and 255 DGAR located deep inside the Indian Ocean. Table 2 gives the peak and minimum ZTD 256 values obtained over each GPS station and help to assess the variability of the peak and 257 minimum values of ZTD (i.e. difference in the peak ZTD values between the stations, and 258 difference in the minimum ZTD values) between the locations. The comparison of the ZTD 259 values of the Indian Ocean stations (COCO and DGAR) with the two inland GPS sites 260 (HYDE and MSUN) shows the spatial variations in ZTD values. The values indicate the 261 weakening of ZTD towards the land side. No significant changes are seen in the minimum 262 and maximum ZTD values between the Indian Ocean locations and near the coast (Table 2). 263 This would suggest that the effect of the events on atmospheric ZTD/PW was almost same at 264 the interior of the ocean and on the coast. The ZTD peaks (2.75 m) and lows (2.44 to 2.46 m) 265 266 observed at stations COCO and DGAR located inside the Indian Ocean are quite high when compared to an inland site, namely HYDE station, located approximately 400 km away from 267 the East coast of India. Also, the ZTD maxima (2.53 m) and minima (2.21 m) values at 268 HYDE are lower than the one observed for the coastal station MSUN. However, a part of the 269 observed difference might be due to the variations in elevation between the observation 270 points. There is a good agreement between ZTD and PWV at HYDE (Figure 2) suggesting 271 272 that the increase in ZTD is due to the increase in water vapor content. This notable decrease in amplitudes of ZTD maxima and minima at the interior location indicates that stations close 273 to the ocean or inside the ocean are more affected by the storms than stations located inland. 274 The coastal as well as stations within the Indian Ocean islands show more peaks in the ZTD 275 time series (Figure 3 & 4). This would probably indicate that these locations were strongly 276 affected by the storms and depression than Hyderabad, which is located ~ 400 km inside from 277 the East coast. The increase in ZTD may be an indication for a precursor of rain. The overall 278 analysis shows that during the onset of a rainy day, the ZTD is significantly higher at stations 279 MSUN, HYDE, COCO, and DGAR (Figures 2, 3, and 4). Sometimes, during rainfall, ZTD 280 may come down if the atmosphere is not dynamic. It is difficult to predict the place of rain 281 since atmospheric dynamics depends on various other factors, which are beyond the scope of 282 283 this paper.

285 **5.** Conclusion

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The application of GPS meteorology in identifying rapid atmospheric variations such as 287 288 storms and deep depression events are evaluated in this study. The ZTD estimated from numerical weather modeling data and the ZTD computed from GPS data show quite good 289 correspondence. The PWV derived from ZTD values and the rainfall data show a reasonable 290 correlation at Hyderabad GPS station located well inside the Indian sub-continent. Similarly, 291 good correlation exists between ZTD and rainfall data for the MSUN site located near the 292 Southern coastal region of India. The calculated ZTD time series showed peaks and drops 293 that overlap with severe atmospheric activities such as storms and deep depressions. 294 Comparison of the ZTD values observed at different GPS stations studied indicate that the 295 amplitudes of the ZTD values are less over the interior location as compared to the values 296 observed at the coast and inside the Indian Ocean. GPS monitoring is an efficient and 297 298 economic procedure to continuously monitor the changes in tropospheric water content and could help in identifying severe weather conditions by virtue of continuous weather data. 299

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448 TABLES

Table 1: The details of the GPS stations used in this study.

Place	Station ID	Latitude (Degrees)	Longitude (Degrees)	Orthometric height (m)	Station details
CSIR-NGRI, Hyderabad	HYDE	17.42	78.55	518.662	IGS permanent station
Cocos	COCO	-11.82	96.83	4.5928	IGS permanent station
Diego Garcia	DGAR	-6.73	73.51	11.0305	IGS permanent station
MS University, Tirunelveli	MSUN	08.76	77.65	71.0625	NGRI permanent station

- **Table 2:** Maximum and minimum Zenith Total Delays (ZTD) observed at the four different
- 454 GPS locations.

GPS station	Minimum ZTD	Maximum ZTD	Variability in ZTD
ID	(m)	(m)	(m)
HYDE	2.21	2.53	0.32
СОСО	2.44	2.75	0.31
DGAR	2.46	2.75	0.29
MSUN	2.43	2.73	0.30

459 **Figure captions**

460

461 Figure 1: Location of the GPS stations marked over the topographic map of South India and462 Northern Indian Ocean.

Figure 2: ZTD values computed from GPS data and numerical weather models for the for the Hyderabad (HYDE) station (upper panel). The lower panel shows the precipitable water vapor (PWV) estimated at the same location. PWV values were computed using value of constants given in Askne and Nordius (1987) and also following Rüeger (2002). The rainfall data are also presented and compared. The peaks in the ZTD are highlighted using ellipses and labeled as HP1 to HP4. The active periods of storms and depression are also marked.

Figure 3: ZTD values computed from GPS data for the Tirunelveli station (MSUN) (lower
panel). The rainfalls reported at this location during our observation period are given using

471 bar chart plot. Upper panel shows the cumulative rainfall data at this location.

Figure 4: ZTD values computed from GPS data and using numerical weather models are
presented for two Indian Ocean GPS stations, i.e. COCO (upper panel) and DGAR (lower
panel).

475 Figure 5: Comparison of the original PWV estimates with the values computed for possible476 changes/error in the determination of Tm data.