

A statistical approach for rain intensity differentiation using Meteosat Second Generation-Spinning Enhanced Visible and InfraRed Imager observations

E. Ricciardelli¹, D. Cimini¹, F. Di Paola¹, F. Romano¹, M. Viggiano¹

[1]{National Research Council of Italy - Institute of Methodologies for Environmental Analysis}

Correspondence to: E. Ricciardelli (elisabetta.ricciardelli@imaa.cnr.it)

Abstract

This study exploits the Meteosat Second Generation (MSG)–Spinning Enhanced Visible and Infrared Imager (SEVIRI) observations to evaluate the rain class at high spatial and temporal resolutions and, to this aim, proposes the Rain Class Evaluation from Infrared and Visible observation (RainCEIV) technique. RainCEIV is composed of two modules: a cloud classification algorithm which individuates and characterizes the cloudy pixels, and a supervised classifier that delineates the rainy areas according to the three rainfall intensity classes, the *non-rainy* (rain rate value $< 0.5 \text{ mm} \times \text{h}^{-1}$) class, the *light-to-moderate rainy* class ($0.5 \text{ mm} \times \text{h}^{-1} \leq \text{rain rate value} < 4 \text{ mm} \times \text{h}^{-1}$), and the *heavy-to-very-heavy-rainy* class (rain rate value $\geq 4 \text{ mm} \times \text{h}^{-1}$). The second module considers in input the spectral and textural features of the infrared and visible SEVIRI observations for the cloudy pixels detected by the first module. It also takes the temporal differences of the brightness temperatures linked to the SEVIRI water vapour channels as indicative of the atmospheric instability strongly related to the occurrence of rainfall events.

The rainfall rates used in the training phase are obtained through the Precipitation Estimation at Microwave frequencies, PEMW (an algorithm for rain rate retrievals based on Atmospheric Microwave Sounder Unit (AMSU)-B observations). RainCEIV principal aim is that of supplying preliminary qualitative information on the rainy areas within the Mediterranean basin where there is no radar network coverage. The results of RainCEIV have been validated against radar-derived rainfall measurements from the Italian Operational Weather Radar Network for some case studies limited to the Mediterranean area. The dichotomous assessment related to daytime

1 (night-time) validation shows that RainCEIV is able to detect rainy/non rainy areas with an
2 accuracy of about 97% (96%), and when all the rainy classes are considered, it shows a Heidke
3 skill score of 67% (62%), a Bias score of 1.36 (1.58), and a Probability of Detection of rainy
4 areas of 81% (81%).
5

6 **1. Introduction**

7 A wealth of techniques based on geostationary satellite IR/VIS observations have been
8 developed in order to estimate rain rate (RR) values or confidences. A recent overview is given
9 by Kidd and Levizzani (2011). The geostationary satellite techniques perform better over areas
10 where rainfall originates from deep convection than in the areas where it originates from the
11 stratiform systems. In particular, Negri and Adler (1981) examined the relation between cloud
12 top temperature and RR by analysing Geostationary Operational Environmental Satellite (GOES)
13 and radar data associated to a series of thunderstorms. Adler et al. (1985) proposed a
14 Thunderstorm Index (TI) to give probability to observe heavy precipitation. Successively, Adler
15 et al. (1988) extended their interest to stratiform precipitation (produced under the anvils of
16 mature and decaying convective systems) from GOES satellite infrared data. Wu and Weinman
17 (1985) used GOES data in order to estimate rainfall by means of a pattern recognition algorithm
18 trained and tested on different sets of RR measurements obtained from NOAA operational
19 radars. They classify rain into three classes (non-rainy, light rainy, heavy rainy classes). Adler et
20 al. (1993) were the first to successfully combine the advantages of both types of instrument by
21 using matched MW and IR data. Vicente et al. (1998) introduced the auto-estimator in order to
22 estimate rainfall from GOES measurements focusing on heavy precipitation. The auto-estimator
23 differs from the previous IR methods for rainfall estimation because it considers other factors in
24 addition to the IR window cloud top temperature. In particular, information about environmental
25 moisture is used to obtain a more correct estimation of rainfall as well as for the screening of the
26 non-rainy pixels. Ba and Gruber (2001) used the GOES visible (0.65 μm), near infrared (3.9 μm),
27 water vapour (6.7 μm) and window channels (10.7 μm and 12.0 μm) to estimate rainfall rate,
28 distinguishing raining from non-raining clouds by taking into account the cloud top temperature,
29 the effective radius of cloud particles and the temperature gradient. Moreover, in an attempt to
30 give more reliable values of rain rates, Ba and Gruber (2001) used the moisture factor correction

1 developed by Scofield (1987) and modified by Vicente et al. (1998). Other authors used artificial
2 neural networks to derive precipitation estimates using satellite IR images (Hsu et al., 1997;
3 Behrangi et al., 2009; Capacci and Porcù, 2009). Many authors developed techniques to
4 determine RR from Meteosat data, both physical and statistical. Physical techniques consist of
5 brightness temperature difference threshold tests or consider effective radius as well as cloud top
6 height/temperature in order to determine rainfall rate and/or probability by the use of look-up
7 tables. The look-up tables are usually built by considering rainfall measurements obtained
8 through rain-gauge instruments or radar as well as RR values determined by MW data. An
9 example of IR method that uses RR values determined by MW observations was developed by
10 Jobard and Desbois (1994), the RAIN and Cloud Classification method (RACC), that used the
11 SSM/I and Meteosat data in order to classify the Meteosat images into several categories of rain.
12 Turk et al. (2000) proposed a blended geostationary-microwave technique for the retrieval of RR
13 measurements. This technique has been taken as a role model by several investigators (Kidd et
14 al., 2003; Marzano et al., 2004), including Heinemann et al. (2002) who developed the Multi-
15 Sensor Precipitation Estimate (MPE) technique operating at the European agency for the
16 deployment of meteorological satellites (EUMETSAT). MPE product consists of the near-real-
17 time RR maps for each Meteosat Second Generation (MSG)- Spinning Enhanced Visible and
18 Infrared Imager (SEVIRI) images in original pixel resolution. Moreover, recently Mugnai et al.
19 (2013) implemented the blended technique by Turk et al. (2000) among the precipitation
20 products of the Satellite Application Facility on Support to Operational Hydrology and Water
21 Management (H-SAF) H-SAF. Roebeling and Holleman (2009) proposed an algorithm for the
22 RR estimation from the cloud physical properties (such as cloud condensed water path and cloud
23 top height) retrieved from SEVIRI observations. Kuhnlein et al. (2010) also investigated the
24 SEVIRI potential to determine RR, assuming a relationship between RR and optical thickness as
25 well as effective radius. In particular they have established a relation between the reflectance
26 observations acquired at $0.6\mu\text{m}$ and $1.6\mu\text{m}$ – which give information about cloud optical
27 thickness and effective radius - and the ground-based rainfall rate. Recently, Feidas and
28 Giannakos (2012) have proposed an algorithm that works with SEVIRI observations by
29 combining physical and statistical methods to characterize convective and stratiform
30 precipitation areas. They calibrated the algorithm using RR measurements derived from a
31 substantial number of rain gauge stations in Greece. Other techniques are based on cloud motion

1 and exploit IR observations to provide an estimate of cloud movement to be used for transporting
2 the more direct MW rainfall observations (Joyce et al., 2004). Di Paola et al. (2012) proposed the
3 Precipitation Evolving Technique (PET) for convective rain cell continuous monitoring. PET
4 propagates forward in space and time the latest RR map inferred by AMSU and MHS MW
5 observations by using SEVIRI IR brightness temperature maps. This technique is able to
6 propagate the latest rain field available for 2-3 hours. The aim of this study is to propose a
7 technique based on a statistical classification algorithm that uses the spectral and textural
8 features of SEVIRI IR/VIS observations to classify the cloudy pixels as *non-rainy*, *light-to-*
9 *moderate-rainy*, or *heavy-to-very-heavy-rainy*. The technique proposed, the Rain Class
10 Evaluation from Infrared and Visible observations (RainCEIV), operates in a fixed area, the
11 Mediterranean basin, approximately between 35 and 50 degrees North, and 20 degrees West and
12 20 degrees East. RainCEIV firstly discriminates cloudy from non-cloudy pixels, then it
13 determines the rain class only for the pixels classified as cloudy. It deploys the k-Nearest
14 Neighbour Mean classifier (k-NNM) which considers as input the spectral and textural features
15 derived from the SEVIRI VIS/IR images and the brightness temperatures differences of SEVIRI
16 water vapour channels acquired 15, 30, and 45 minutes before the time of interest. RainCEIV has
17 been validated against the radar-derived RR values obtained from the Italian *Operational*
18 *Weather Radar Network* observations managed by the Italian Department of Civil Protection
19 (DPC). RainCEIV is proposed as a useful tool to achieve a real-time monitoring of rainfall
20 events, both the intense convective and the stratiform moderate ones.

21 Section 2 provides a description of the satellite sensors whose observations and/or products have
22 been used for the RainCEIV implementation; Section. 3 describes the two modules of RainCEIV
23 (the C_MACSP cloud classification algorithm and the RainCEIV k-NNM classifier); Section 4
24 shows the statistical scores obtained by comparing RainCEIV and radar-derived RR
25 measurements.

26

27 **2. Instruments and data description**

28 The spectral and textural features of MSG-SEVIRI images are used as input for both the
29 C_MACSP cloud classification algorithm and the RainCEIV k-NNM classifier. SEVIRI is the
30 main payload on board the MSG series, composed by MSG-1 (Meteosat 8), MSG-2 (Meteosat

1 9), MSG-3 (Meteosat 10), and future MSG-4 (Meteosat 11), planned for launch in 2015. SEVIRI
2 is a 50 cm-diameter-aperture line-by-line scanning radiometer and observes the Earth-
3 atmosphere system in 11 channels at (a) full disk with a 3km spatial sampling at the sub-satellite
4 point. In addition, the High Resolution Visible (HRV) channel covers half the full disk with a
5 1km spatial sampling at the sub-satellite point. The actual instantaneous field of view is about
6 4.8 km at the sub-satellite point for all the channels except for the HRV channel where it is 1.67
7 km. The major improvements with respect to previous sensors are its enhanced spectral
8 characteristics, its higher temporal resolution (15 min), the improved signal-to-noise ratio, and
9 the higher precision of data storing which ranges from 8 bits (256 levels) on Meteosat-7 to 10
10 bits (1024 levels) on Meteosat-8 (Schmetz et al., 2002).

11 The RainCEIV k-NNM classifier has been trained on the RR product from the Precipitation
12 Estimation at Microwave Frequencies (PEMW). PEMW was developed by Di Tomaso et al.
13 (2009) at the Institute of Methodologies for Environmental Analysis of the National Research
14 Council of Italy (IMAA-CNR) to infer surface rain intensity from satellite MW LEO
15 observations provided by the Advanced Microwave Sounding Unit-B (AMSU-B) and the
16 Microwave Humidity Sounder (MHS) on board the National Oceanic and Atmospheric
17 Administration (NOAA) satellites and the European Polar Satellite MetOp-A, respectively.
18 AMSU-B and MHS are cross-track, line-scanning MW radiometers which measure radiances in
19 five channels in the 89GHz-to-190GHz frequency range. The centre frequencies for the two
20 window channels are 89 GHz, 150 GHz, while the three opaque (water vapour) channels are
21 centred at 183 ± 1 , 183 ± 3 , and 183 ± 7 GHz. The AMSU-B and MHS fields of view (FOV) have a
22 circular shape (with a diameter of about 16 km) at nadir, while their shape become ellipsoidal
23 away from the nadir (the axes length is 51 km for the cross-track direction and 25 km for the
24 along-track direction at the maximum scanning angle) (Bennartz, 2000). The purpose of these
25 instruments is to measure the radiation from different layers of the atmosphere in order to obtain
26 global data on humidity profiles. The PEMW RR value is assigned to the SEVIRI pixel only
27 when the latter is entirely enclosed in the corresponding AMSU-B/MHS FOV. PEMW RR
28 values are re-sampled on the SEVIRI grid by calculating the area of each AMSU-B/MHS FOV
29 on the basis of the orbital parameters described in (Bennartz, 2000). The temporal matching is
30 carried out considering a maximum difference of 7.5 minutes between the acquisition time of the
31 SEVIRI pixel and that of the AMSU/MHS FOV. For simplicity, the SEVIRI pixel, to which the

1 PEMW-RR value is assigned, will be denominated PEMWinSEVIRI while the corresponding
2 PEMW-RR value will be denominated PEMWinSEVIRIv.

3 The RainCEIV results have been validated on the basis of the RR values derived from the Italian
4 Weather Radar Network which is coordinated by DPC (Vulpiani et al., 2008) in collaboration
5 with the regional authorities, the research centres, the Air Traffic Control service (ENAV), and
6 the Meteorological Service of the Italian Air Force (CNMCA). It consists of twenty microwave
7 weather radars belonging to the regional authorities (ten C-band radars), ENAV (two C-band
8 radars) and DPC (six C-band radars and two X-band polarimetric radars). The surface rate
9 intensity (sri, in mmh^{-1}) and other products such as the Vertical Maximum Intensity (VMI), the
10 Constant Altitude Plan Position Indicator (CAPPI) and the one-hour-accumulated surface rain
11 total (srt, in mm), are retrieved from measured reflectivity volumes. Procedures for mitigating
12 ground clutter, an anomalous propagation, beam blockage effects are applied (Vulpiani et al.,
13 2008). The sri product is derived applying a reflectivity-rainfall (Z-R) relationship to the Lowest
14 Beam Map (LBM), i.e. the reflectivity values at the lowest level of the corrected radar volumes.
15 The sri product used here represents the best estimate from the radar network available for the
16 period under analysis, and it has already been used to validate satellite rainfall estimates (Cimini
17 et al., 2013), including EUMETSAT H-SAF products (Puca et al., 2014). Procedures to improve
18 the quality of the sri product, including attenuation compensation, polarimetric rainfall inversion
19 techniques, and adaptive algorithms to retrieve the mean vertical profiles of reflectivity have
20 recently been developed at DPC (Vulpiani et al., 2012; Rinollo et al., 2013). All the products are
21 available on a grid of $1400 \times 1400 \text{ km}^2$ with a spatial resolution of circa 1 km and a temporal
22 resolution of 15 minutes. For simplicity, the radar samples completely included into the SEVIRI
23 pixels will be denominated RS samples. The collocation process of the radar-derived RR
24 measurements into the SEVIRI grid consists in associating the RS samples to each SEVIRI pixel.
25 If the percentage of the rainy RS samples is higher than 80%, the SEVIRI pixel is considered for
26 the validation and classified as *light-to-moderate-rainy* or *heavy-to-very-heavy-rainy* on the basis
27 of the RS-RR value average. In some cases, the RS-RR value average is strongly influenced by
28 the lowest RR values of the *light-to-moderate-rainy* RS samples also if the number of *heavy-to-*
29 *very-heavy rainy* RS samples is higher than that of the *light-to-moderate-rainy* one. Because of
30 this, when the percentage of the *heavy-to-very-heavy-rainy* RS samples is higher than 50% and it
31 is higher than that of the *light-to-moderate-rainy* RS samples, the SEVIRI pixel is flagged as

1 *heavy-to-very-heavy-rainy* regardless of the RS-RR value average. If the percentage of the non-
2 rainy RS samples is 100%, the SEVIRI pixel is considered for the training and validation. In the
3 other cases, the SEVIRI pixel is flagged as “uncertain” and not considered for the training and
4 validation purposes. For simplicity, the pixel SEVIRI, to which the radar-derived-RR value is
5 assigned, will be denominated RADARinSEVIRI, while the corresponding RR value will be
6 denominated RADARinSEVIRIv.

7

8 **3. RainCEIV description**

9 The RainCEIV technique consists of two modules:

- 10 **I-** a cloud classification algorithm that discriminates *clear* from *cloudy* pixels and further
11 classifies the cloudy pixels;
- 12 **II-** a k-Nearest Neighbour Mean (k-NNM) classifier that evaluates the rain class for each
13 pixel classified as cloudy by the first module.

14 **3.1 Cloud classification algorithm description**

15 The cloud Mask Coupling of Statistical and Physical methods algorithm - MACSP (Ricciardelli
16 et al., 2008; Di Paola et al., 2014) - is used for distinguishing *cloudy* from *non-cloudy* pixels. The
17 version used for RainCEIV purposes is called C_MACSP, which stands for cloud Classification
18 Mask Coupling of Statistical and Physical methods. The current version has been updated to give
19 information about the cloud class and in particular to split the MACSP “*high cloud*” in the “*high*
20 *optically thin*” and “*high optically thick*” cloud classes. Furthermore, the *convective cloud* class
21 has been added, not just for module II but also to individuate the possible occurrence of extreme
22 events. A pixel can be classified in 5 different classes considered both over land and sea: *clear*,
23 *low/middle cloud*, *high optically thin cloud*, *high optically thick cloud* and *convective cloud*. In
24 detail, the C_MACSP physical algorithm uses the same physical threshold tests as the MACSP
25 earlier version with the addition of a new threshold test involving the difference between the
26 brightness temperature of the SEVIRI water vapour channel centred at $6.2\mu\text{m}$ and of the SEVIRI
27 window channel centred at $10.8\mu\text{m}$, $\Delta TB_{6.2\mu\text{m}-10.8\mu\text{m}}$. This difference is very small for
28 convective cloud as asserted by Mosher (2001, 2002) in the Global Convective Diagnostic
29 approach. The C_MACSP statistical (temporal) algorithm considers in input the same spectral

1 and textural features described and listed in section 3.2.1 (section 3.4) and Table 4 (Table 7),
2 respectively, of Ricciardelli et al. (2008), but the training dataset has been updated in order to
3 build the training samples for the *convective cloud* class. The training samples were collected in
4 the Mediterranean basin, where RainCEIV operates. The cloud classification for the training
5 dataset has been made through a careful visual inspection of the SEVIRI images. The clear and
6 cloudy pixels have been selected manually after observing the spectral characteristics in SEVIRI
7 IR/VIS images as well as in their RGB composition, a useful practice for distinguishing cloudy
8 classes (Lensky and Rosenfeld, 2008). In order to collect the training samples for the *convective*
9 *cloud* class, the cloudy SEVIRI pixels have been matched with the corresponding PEMW-RR
10 and radar-derived RR values, if available. The collocation process both of the radar-derived RR
11 values and the PEMW-RR values in the SEVIRI grid is described in Section 2. The SEVIRI
12 pixel is considered for the training when:

- 13 • both the RADARinSEVIRI pixel and PEMWinSEVIRI pixel are available and the
14 relation:
15 $(\text{RADARinSEVIRI}_v \geq 4\text{mm} \times \text{h}^{-1}) \text{.and.} (\text{PEMWinSEVIRI}_v \geq 4\text{mm} \times \text{h}^{-1})$ is satisfied;
- 16 • both the RADARinSEVIRI pixel and PEMWinSEVIRI pixel are available and the
17 relation:
18 $(\text{RADARinSEVIRI}_v \geq 4\text{mm} \times \text{h}^{-1}) \text{.and.} (\text{PEMWinSEVIRI}_v < 4\text{mm} \times \text{h}^{-1})$ is satisfied and the
19 percentage of the rainy RS samples is higher than 80%;
- 20 • only the PEMWinSEVIRI pixel is available (the AMSU-B/MHS observation is outside
21 the area covered by the Radar Network) and the relation $(\text{PEMWinSEVIRI}_v \geq 4\text{mm} \times \text{h}^{-1})$
22 is satisfied.

23 When both the RADARinSEVIRI pixel and the PEMWinSEVIRI pixel are available and the
24 relations at points 2 and 3 are not satisfied, the SEVIRI pixel is not considered for the initial
25 training dataset. The SEVIRI images listed in table 5 of Ricciardelli et al (2008) and in particular
26 the ones used for the training of the Mediterranean basin (enclosed in the areas B, C, and G of
27 Figure 3 of Ricciardelli et al (2008)) have been used for the training of C_MACSP. The SEVIRI
28 images used for the training are those acquired on 29 September 2009 at 16:57 UTC, on 1
29 October 2009 (at 05:12 UTC, at 08:27 UTC, and at 15:57 UTC), on 04 March 2010 (at 14:27
30 UTC, 15:57 UTC, and at 20:12 UTC), on 28 April 2010 (at 12:27 UTC and 15:43 UTC), on 4

1 August 2010 (at 10:43 UTC and 15:12 UTC), on 2 February 2010 at 22:57 UTC, on 8 January
2 2010 at 13:57 UTC, on 1 October 2009 at 05:13 UTC and 19:13 UTC. The procedure described
3 in Appendix A has been applied in order to refine the training dataset by eliminating the
4 redundant as well as the misclassified samples. The C_MACSP statistical and physical
5 algorithms are applied separately to each SEVIRI pixel, and the results are compared. If they
6 agree, the SEVIRI pixel is classified consequently, otherwise the temporal algorithm is applied
7 in order to remove the ambiguity and classify the SEVIRI pixel definitively. For RainCEIV
8 purposes, the C_MACSP screening is useful to:

- 9 • reduce the number of the input pixels to the RainCEIV k-NNM classifier by removing the
10 pixels classified as *clear* and *high thin cloud*;
- 11 • define the components of the feature vector in input to the RainCEIV classifier (as will be
12 described in the following sub-section. The components chosen for each cloud class are
13 shown in Tables 5 and 6).

14 3.2 k- Nearest Neighbour Mean classifier description

15 The classifier pattern used to evaluate the rainy class is the k-Nearest Neighbour Mean (k-NNM)
16 non-parametric supervised classifier proposed by Viswanath and Sarma (2011). This classifier
17 has been chosen for its simplicity and good performance (Dasarathy, 1991; Dasarathy 2002;
18 Babu and Viswanath, 2009) and because, unlike the Bayes classifier, it does not assume any *a*
19 *priori* known probabilities, which are estimated directly from the design samples. It implements
20 the decision rule locally. The k-NNM classifier has demonstrated to perform better than the k-
21 NN classifier and it is suitable for parallel implementation so as to reduce the classification time,
22 as asserted by Viswanath and Sarma (2011).

23 Let \vec{x} be the vector of features related to the pixel to be classified and C_i the *rainy/non-rainy*
24 class with $i=0,1,2$ defined as follows:

- 25 1. *non-rainy* class ($RR < 0.5 \text{ mm} \times \text{h}^{-1}$) (C_0)
- 26 2. *light-to-moderate rainy* class ($0.5 \leq RR \leq 4 \text{ mm} \times \text{h}^{-1}$) (C_1)
- 27 3. *heavy-to-very-heavy rainy* class ($RR > 4 \text{ mm} \times \text{h}^{-1}$) (C_2)

28 For each class C_i the k-NNM classifier finds the k (where $k \geq 1$) nearest neighbours of \vec{x} and
29 determines the mean value $d_{mean}(\vec{x}, C_i)$ of their distances ($d(\vec{x}, \vec{x}_{i,j})$) from \vec{x} .

$$1 \quad d_{mean}(\vec{x}, C_i) = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^k d(\vec{x}, \vec{x}_{i,j})}{k} \quad i=0,1,2 \quad (1)$$

2 where $d(\vec{x}, \vec{x}_{i,j})$ is the Euclidean distance between \vec{x} and $\vec{x}_{i,j}$ which is the j^{th} nearest training
3 sample for the class C_i . The pixel is labelled as the class characterized by the lowest mean
4 distance $d_{mean}(\vec{x}, C_i)$:

$$5 \bullet (d_{mean}(\vec{x}, C_0) < d_{mean}(\vec{x}, C_1)) \text{ and } (d_{mean}(\vec{x}, C_0) < d_{mean}(\vec{x}, C_2)) \rightarrow \vec{x} \in C_0 \quad (2)$$

$$6 \bullet (d_{mean}(\vec{x}, C_1) < d_{mean}(\vec{x}, C_0)) \text{ and } (d_{mean}(\vec{x}, C_1) < d_{mean}(\vec{x}, C_2)) \rightarrow \vec{x} \in C_1 \quad (3)$$

$$7 \bullet (d_{mean}(\vec{x}, C_2) < d_{mean}(\vec{x}, C_0)) \text{ and } (d_{mean}(\vec{x}, C_2) < d_{mean}(\vec{x}, C_1)) \rightarrow \vec{x} \in C_2 \quad (4)$$

8 Fig. 1 shows the scheme of the RainCEIV technique.

9 **3.2.1 Features selection and description**

10 The k-NNM classifier uses textural and spectral features estimated in 3×3-pixel boxes in order to
11 associate each SEVIRI pixel to a rainy/non-rainy class. The textural and spectral features used in
12 this study and their different weights in the grid element, where both textural and tonal features
13 have significant values, are described in Ricciardelli et al. (2008). In detail, the spectral features
14 used are the *maximum* and *minimum* grey levels and the ratio between them. The textural
15 features considered are the *maximum* and the *minimum* of the Entropy (a measure of the spatial
16 randomness of the image), the Angular Second Moment (ASM, a measure of homogeneity of the
17 image), the Contrast (a measure of local variation of the grey-level differences) and the Mean (a
18 measure of the mean grey-level differences). The maximum and minimum values are calculated
19 among the values calculated for the four directions (0°, 45°, 90°, 135°) in the 3×3-pixel box. All
20 the spectral and textural features defined for the IR/VIS SEVIRI images acquired at 0.6 μm, 0.8
21 μm, 1.6 μm, 3.9 μm, 6.2 μm, 7.3 μm, 10.8 μm, and 12 μm were initially considered as
22 components of \vec{x} . Some of the above-listed spectral channels are usually utilized to infer
23 information on cloud-top microphysical properties. In particular, the observations acquired at
24 10.8 μm and 12.0 μm are used to provide information on cloud top temperature and cloud optical
25 thickness, the observations at 0.6 μm are also used to get information about cloud optical
26 thickness, while the 3.9 μm and 1.6 μm observations are used to infer information on the cloud
27 thermodynamic phase and cloud effective radius. The precipitation processes are strongly related
28 to the cloud-top microphysical structure and, in particular, the rain rate confidence is high for

1 cloud tops with large cloud droplets or in the presence of ice (Lensky and Rosenfeld, 1997).
2 Consequently, in this study the use of features derived from spectral channels connected with
3 cloud microphysical properties could allow the identification of raining clouds.

4 The spectral channels centred at 6.2 μm and 7.3 μm are indicative of the water vapour (WV)
5 content in the troposphere at pressure levels lower than 400hPa and 600hPa, respectively. The
6 WV channel features when considered alone do not give useful information on the presence of a
7 raining cloud, on the contrary, when considered with the other channel features, in particular
8 those related to the 10.8 μm channel, they are useful to individuate convective events (Mosher,
9 2001, 2002). Moreover, the WV temporal changes are indicative of the atmospheric instability
10 that is a useful index in the detection of the precipitating area. Because of this, the temporal
11 differences $\Delta TB_{(6.2)15-30}$, $\Delta TB_{(6.2),15-45}$, $\Delta TB_{(6.2),30-45}$, $\Delta TB_{(7.3)15-30}$, $TB_{(7.3),15-45}$,
12 $TB_{(7.3),30-45}$ between the WV brightness temperatures related to the SEVIRI acquisitions made
13 15, 30 and 45 minutes before the time of interest are exploited to get information on the WV
14 temporal changes at different atmosphere levels. Obviously, the temporal change of WV
15 brightness temperature related to a pixel does not always mean that the pixel is rainy, and as for
16 the other features, it gains usefulness in discriminating rainy/non-rainy classes when used in
17 combination with the other features opportunely chosen, as will be described in the following
18 sub-section.

19 Before defining and listing the final components of the feature vector, it is important to explain
20 how these features have been normalized so as to prevent the features (x^i) characterized by the
21 largest variance across the training data set from dominating the Euclidean distance. The
22 normalization formula applied to each feature is:

$$23 \quad \tilde{x}^i = \frac{x^i - \bar{x}^i}{\sigma^i} \quad (5)$$

24 where x^i is the i^{th} component of the feature vector \vec{x} to be normalized, \tilde{x}^i is the i^{th} component of
25 the normalized $\vec{\tilde{x}}$, \bar{x}^i and σ^i are, respectively, the mean and the standard deviation for the feature
26 x^i calculated considering all the training set samples. This equation is also applied to the feature
27 vector related to the pixels to be classified.

28 By bearing in mind that the k-NNM classifier performance generally decreases with the
29 dimension of the feature vector, the number of the feature vector components (x^i) has been

1 reduced. For this purpose, the Fisher distance criterion (Ebert, 1987; Parikh, 1977), described in
2 Appendix A, has been applied in order to evaluate the discriminatory power of the individual
3 features. The Fisher distance has been determined for the following combinations: (C_0, C_1) ;
4 (C_0, C_2) ; (C_1, C_2) . The features have been ordered in a descending way on the basis of the
5 correspondent Fisher distance value, so that the features characterized by higher Fisher distances
6 have been chosen as components of the feature vector. The definitive values of the feature vector
7 components d and the RainCEIV k -NNM classifier k parameter have been determined as
8 described in the following sub-section.

9 **3.2.2 Training procedure**

10 The training dataset has been built by collecting a set of SEVIRI images during day- and night-
11 time with collocated RR values inferred from AMSU-B/MHS observations processed with the
12 PEMW algorithm (Di Tomaso et al., 2009), both over land and sea. PEMW exploits the window
13 and water vapour channel observations. PEMW estimates show a very good agreement with
14 ground-based observations in the detection of rainfall and a reasonably good estimation of RR
15 values. The Probability of Detection (POD) of precipitation is 75% and 90% for RR greater than
16 $1\text{mm}\times\text{h}^{-1}$ and $5\text{mm}\times\text{h}^{-1}$, respectively (Di Tomaso et al., 2009). At present, the PEMW algorithm
17 operative version (OPEMW) is operationally run 24/7 at IMAA-CNR. OPEMW has been
18 validated by Cimini et al. (2013) against radar-derived RR values and rain gauge surface rain
19 intensity. The analysis shows an accuracy of 98% in identifying rainy and non-rainy areas and a
20 Heidke skill score of 45% (with respect to radar-derived RR values) and 42% (with respect to
21 rain gauge RR values). The *accuracy*, *Bias Score*, *Probability of Detection*, *False Alarm Ratio*
22 (*FAR*), *Heidke Skill Score* (*HSS*) are described in Ebert (2013). The AMSU-B/MHS
23 observations used for building the training database are collected during the NOAA satellite
24 passes over the Mediterranean area on the dates listed in Table 1.

25 The training dataset has been built by coupling cloudy SEVIRI pixels with the corresponding RR
26 value calculated by the PEMW algorithm and, where available, with the radar-derived RR
27 values. When no radar-derived RR value is available (because the AMSU-B/MHS observation is
28 outside the area covered by the Radar Network) the SEVIRI pixel is classified as belonging to
29 one of the classes C_0 , C_1 , and C_2 on the basis of the corresponding PEMWinSEVIRIv and it is
30 included in the initial training dataset. When the RADARinSEVIRIv is available and agrees with

1 the PEMWinSEVIRI_v in determining the rainy/non-rainy class the SEVIRI pixel belongs to, this
2 is included in the initial training dataset. Otherwise, when the RADARinSEVIRI_v and
3 PEMWinSEVIRI_v do not agree, the SEVIRI pixel is included in the initial training dataset only
4 if the correspondent RADARinSEVIRI pixel belongs to a rainy class C_1 or C_2 and the percentage
5 of the rainy RS is higher than 80%. This choice is very useful for the training of the rainy events
6 localized over an area smaller than the AMSU-B/MHS FOV area. The training samples have
7 been considered separately for land and sea and grouped on the basis of the Solar Zenith Angle
8 (SZA). Finally, in order to refine the training dataset, the process described in Appendix A has
9 been applied to the initial training dataset. The availability of the SEVIRI samples double
10 matched with PEMW and radar-derived RR values is useful both for the mitigation of
11 uncertainty due to the collocation process and the refinement of the original training dataset
12 especially for the removal of the misclassified samples. Figure 2 describes the training
13 procedure.

14 Successively, in order to decide the best values for d and k , a set of test samples have been
15 classified by varying d and k combinations. Moreover, an artificial dataset, smoother and more
16 versatile than the initial one, has been obtained by applying the bootstrap method (described by
17 Hamamoto et al. (1997)) to the initial test samples. In order to make a more robust choice for d
18 and k , the same d and k combinations chosen for the classification of the initial test dataset have
19 been used to classify the artificial dataset. The best choice of d and k has been made by
20 comparing the statistical scores obtained by classifying the two dataset separately. Both the
21 initial and the artificial dataset contains the same number of samples for each class.

22 Let $Y = \{(\vec{y}_i, C_j)\}$ be the independent test dataset built by examining the PEMW-RR values
23 related to the AMSU-B/MHS overpasses of 12 February 2012 at 01:35UTC, 12 November 2011
24 at 08:50UTC, 22 November 2010 at 09:34 UTC, 4 August 2010 at 14:46 UTC, 26 April 2010 at
25 12:26 UTC, 01 October 2009 at 19:50UTC, 02 October 2009 at 05:00UTC. The pairs (\vec{y}_i, C_j)
26 indicate the test samples \vec{y}_i belonging to the class C_j , $j=1, 2, \dots, N_c$, N_c is the number of the
27 classes (for RainCEIV C_j , $j=0, 1, 2, N_c=3$) $i=1, 2, \dots, N_{c,j}$, $N_{c,j}$ is the number of the test samples
28 for the class C_j .

29 The bootstrap samples for each class have been determined as follows:

- 1 1. the sample (\vec{y}_k, C_j) was selected;
- 2 2. r was chosen equal to $N_{c,j}/4$ and the r Nearest Neighbours (NN) of the sample (\vec{y}_k, C_j)
- 3 (indicated as $\{(\vec{y}_{k,s}, C_j)_{s=1,r}\}$) were found. (the NN decision rule is explained in
- 4 Appendix A);
- 5 3. the i^{th} component of the bootstrap sample was calculated by applying the equation
- 6
$$by_k^i = \frac{1}{r} \sum_{s=1}^r y_{k,s}^i \quad (7)$$
- 7 to all the components of the $\{(\vec{y}_{k,s}, C_j)_{s=1,r}\}$. For simplicity the generic i^{th} component of the
- 8 $(\vec{y}_{k,s}, C_j)_{s=1,r}$ is indicated as $y_{k,s}^i$ without indicating the belonging class C_j , in the same way
- 9 by_k^i is the i^{th} component of the bootstrap sample (\vec{by}_k, C_j) obtained by starting from the
- 10 sample (\vec{y}_k, C_j) .
- 11 4. Points 2 and 3 were repeated for each of the following r values:
- 12
$$r = N_{c,j}/5, N_{c,j}/10, N_{c,j}/2 - 8, N_{c,j}/2 - 6, N_{c,j}/2 - 4, N_{c,j}/2 - 2;$$
- 13 5. the process restarted from point 1 with another sample and points 2, 3 and 4 were applied
- 14 until all the test samples were considered for each class.

15 A careful screening has been done to eliminate the redundant *bootstrap* samples. The *bootstrap*

16 (artificial) samples and the initial test samples have been classified separately by means of the k-

17 NNM (using the original training dataset). The statistical scores obtained for the two datasets are

18 quite similar and they change in the same way varying d and k as can be noted in Tables 2, 3 and

19 4 that list the statistical scores for $k=3, d=10, d=16, d=20$ (Table 2); $k=5, d=10, d=16, d=20$

20 (Table 3); $k=7; d=10, d=16, d=20$ (Table 4). Other combinations of d and k have been

21 investigated obtaining results worse than the ones listed in tables 2, 3 and 4. In particular, both

22 for the original and artificial test dataset, for $k < 3, d < 10$ the FAR related to the moderate

23 class is higher than 40% and POD is lower than 60%, while for $k > 7$ the FAR for all the classes is

24 higher than 44% and the other statistical scores are lower than those obtained for the other k and

25 d combinations. The statistical scores obtained by classifying the initial and artificial samples

26 agree in suggesting $k=5$ and $d=16$ as the best choice of parameters for the k-NNM classifier. The

27 features chosen as components of the feature vector \vec{x} related to daytime and night-time

28 acquisition are listed in Table 5 and Table 6, respectively. The features used over land and over

29 sea are the same, but in some cases they vary for different cloud classes, e.g. the max value of

1 the ASM is very useful in order to determine the confidence that a low/middle cloud is
2 precipitating, but its discriminatory power is not so high as to individuate the precipitating high
3 thick clouds. On the contrary, the minimum and maximum values of Entropy, Mean and Contrast
4 give an useful contribution in detecting both *light-to-moderate rainy* class and *heavy-to-very-*
5 *heavy-rainy* class for all the cloudy classes.

7 **4. Validation results**

8 **4.1 C_MACSP validation results**

9 The validity of the C_MACSP algorithm has been tested by applying it to an independent dataset
10 of which each class is made 300 samples taken from the SEVIRI images acquired on 12
11 November 2010 at 11:27 UTC, 22 November 2010 at 09:27 UTC and at 11:43 UTC, 5 May 2012
12 at 20:27 UTC, 19 May 2012 at 10:57 UTC, 23 July 2012 at 10:27 UTC, 5 December 2012 at
13 08:43 UTC, 19 September 2009 at 19:13 UTC, 6 July 2010 at 11:27 UTC and 12:27 UTC, 4
14 August 2010 at 14:27 UTC, 26 December 2013 at 04:57 UTC, 8 October 2013 at 18:57 UTC, 7
15 October 2013 at 00:57 UTC and 20 January 2014 at 23:57 UTC. The validation has been carried
16 out separately for samples acquired during night-time and daytime by comparing the C_MACSP
17 classification results and the samples manually collected from the independent dataset images.
18 The manual classification has been made through a careful observation of the SEVIRI RGB
19 composition so as to get the same number of samples for each class. The convective cloud
20 classification results have been validated considering the RR maps derived both from the
21 weather radar network and the PEMW rain rate maps. The latter have been used for the areas
22 where radar information is missing. The accuracy (defined as the ratio between the number of the
23 test samples classified correctly and the total number of the test samples) has been determined
24 for each class and Table 7 shows the results obtained. On the basis of the samples examined, it is
25 possible to assert that C_MACSP is able to classify high thick clouds as well as convective
26 clouds, both over land and sea during daytime and night-time, with an accuracy higher than 95%.
27 Moreover, it shows an accuracy higher than 91% in detecting low/middle clouds both during
28 daytime and night-time over land and over sea. The accuracy in detecting high thin class over sea
29 is 87,6% during daytime and night-time, and it is slight lower over land both during daytime
30 (85%) and night-time (84%).

1

2 **4.2 RainCEIV validation results**

3 The RainCEIV results have been validated against the RR values derived from the weather radar
4 network operated by the DPC. Table 8 lists the case studies used for validation. Tables 9 and 10
5 sum up the contingency values for the RainCEIV dichotomous statistical assessment related to
6 the daytime and night-time measurements, respectively. The statistical scores (shown in Table
7 11) have been calculated for all the classes considered together and for the *light-to-moderate-*
8 *rainy* (C_1) and the *heavy-to-very-heavy-rainy* (C_2) classes separately. The accuracy scores for all
9 the rainy/non-rainy pixels are 97% and 96% for daytime and night-time, respectively, when all
10 the rainy classes are considered. High values for accuracy scores are related also to the C_1 and C_2
11 classes considered separately both for daytime and night-time. These results are significantly
12 influenced by the number of the *correct negatives*. The Bias scores indicate the RainCEIV
13 tendency to overestimate the rainy events for all the rainy classes (Bias=1.36 for daytime,
14 Bias=1.58 for night-time) as well as the C_1 (Bias=1.33 for daytime, Bias=1.55 for night-time)
15 and C_2 (Bias=1.65 for daytime, Bias=1.89 for night-time) classes considered separately. FARs,
16 that gives the same information as Bias score without considering the misses, related to all the
17 rainy classes are 39% and 48% for the daytime and night-time validations, respectively. POD,
18 that indicates the ability to detect rainy areas without considering the false alarms, is 81% for all
19 the rainy classes both for night-time and daytime validations. POD indicates the ability of
20 RainCEIV to detect rainy areas with a good approximation, but FAR shows its tendency to
21 overestimate the number of rainy pixels. This tendency of RainCEIV will be analysed more in
22 detail considering the statistical scores related to the C_1 and C_2 classes separately. In order to be
23 clearer it is necessary to give the following definitions:

- 24
- 25 • the percentage of the C_2 in C_1 samples (that are the samples classified as belonging to the
26 C_2 class but that actually belong to the C_1 class) out of the total number of the C_1 samples
used for validation will be indicated as % C_2 in C_1 ;
 - 27 • the percentage of the C_1 in C_2 samples (that are the samples classified as belonging to the
28 C_1 class but that actually belong to the C_2 class) out of the total number of the C_2 samples
29 used for validation will be indicated as % C_1 in C_2 ;

- 1 • the percentage of the C_2 in C_0 samples (that are the samples classified as belonging to the
2 C_2 class but that actually belong to the C_0 class) out of the total number of the C_0 samples
3 used for validation will be indicated as % C_2 in C_0 ;
- 4 • the percentage of the C_0 in C_1 samples (that are the samples classified as belonging to the
5 C_1 class but that actually belong to the C_0 class) out of the total number of the C_0 samples
6 used for validation will be indicated as % C_0 in C_1 .

7 In detail, the Bias score is higher for the C_2 class than for the C_1 one, and this proves the general
8 RainCEIV tendency to overestimate the “*heavy-to-very-heavy-rainy*” pixels. Moreover,
9 FAR/POD related to the C_2 class is 47%/86% and 65%/65% for daytime and night-time
10 validation, respectively. It is worth remarking that the FAR high values are due prevalently to the
11 lower number of the C_2 samples. FAR related to the C_2 class is mainly affected by % C_2 in C_1 . In
12 fact, % C_2 in C_0 (0.2% for daytime and 0.3% for night-time) is lower than % C_2 in C_1 (2.4% for
13 daytime and 5.6% for night-time). This means that RainCEIV detects prevalently rainy areas, as
14 testified by the POD value, but tends to misclassify C_1 samples as C_2 samples. In many cases
15 RADARinSEVIRIv related to the misclassified C_1 samples is higher than $3\text{mm}\times\text{h}^{-1}$. The
16 FAR/POD score related to the C_1 class is 41%/77% for daytime and 51%/75% for night-time.
17 % C_0 in C_1 (2.0% for daytime and 2.8% for night-time) is lower than % C_2 in C_1 (11.0% for daytime
18 and 28.2% for night-time). This points out both that RainCEIV is inclined to misclassify the C_2
19 samples as C_1 samples and the overestimation of the rainy area is mainly due to the
20 misclassification of the non-rainy pixels as belonging to the C_1 class. The POD score related to
21 the night-time validation is quite similar to the POD score related to the daytime validation for
22 all the rainy classes and the C_1 class (81% and 75% respectively), and it is lower for the C_2 class
23 (65%). The worst values of the night-time statistical scores especially for the C_2 class are mainly
24 due to the unavailability of the spectral/textural features related to the VIS/NIR observations, that
25 are characterized by a discriminatory power higher than that related to the spectral/textural
26 features of the $3.9\ \mu\text{m}$ and $12.0\ \mu\text{m}$ observations. HSS has also been considered. It is a measure
27 of the correct forecasts after eliminating those whose correctness would be due exclusively to a
28 random chance. The HSS value obtained for RainCEIV and related to the daytime (night-time)
29 validation is 67% (62%) when all the rainy classes are considered together, and it is respectively
30 65% (57%) and 65% (45%) when the C_1 and C_2 classes are considered separately.

1 The case studies related to 29 September 2009 (case I) at 13:00 UTC, 4 August 2010 at 14:15
2 UTC (case II), and 21 February 2013 at 15:00 UTC (case III) are analysed separately and the
3 RainCEIV results are shown in Figures 3, 4, and 5 together with the C_MACSP results and the
4 rain classes obtained from the radar-derived RR measurements. The statistical scores calculated
5 for each case are listed in Table 12.

6 The case I was chosen because it highlights the RainCEIV ability in detecting very small rainy
7 areas. On 29th September 2009 approximately at 13:00 UTC a very rapid and heavy rainfall
8 event affected a small area between the Basilicata and Calabria regions in Southern Italy. The
9 accuracy score is high (99%) due to the high occurrence of the non-rainy pixels detected
10 correctly. POD shows that RainCEIV detects 67% of the rainy samples correctly, while Bias and
11 FAR scores reveal the RainCEIV tendency to overestimate rainy samples (the FAR score is 47%
12 and the Bias score is 1.25). In detail, the Bias score related to the C₁ class (Bias=1.37) is higher
13 than that related to the C₂ class (Bias=1.00), on the contrary FAR related to the C₁ class
14 (FAR=46%) is lower than that related to the C₂ class (FAR=50%). This means that there is an
15 overestimation of the heavy rainy area but (C₁inC₂+C₀inC₂) and the number of the C₂ misses is
16 balanced with the number of the C₂ hits. This is not true for the C₁ class that shows a higher
17 number of hits than that of the C₂ class, and this results in a higher POD (75% and 50% for the
18 C₁ and C₂ class respectively). In remarking this statistical results, it is worth noting that they are
19 significantly influenced by the low number both of the C₂ RADARinSEVIRI samples (4) and C₁
20 RADARinSEVIRI samples (8). Moreover, the temporal distance between the SEVIRI and
21 RADAR acquisitions that is about 5 minutes can be determinant in the detection of the rainy
22 events characterized by a high variability. It is argued that parts of the false alarms as well as the
23 misses are brought about by the collocation errors in the SEVIRI grid.

24 The RainCEIV statistical scores related to cases II and III (Figures 4 and 5, respectively) are
25 better than those related to the case study discussed above. This is because they analyse rainy
26 events characterized by a larger temporal and spatial distribution. The case study II bears on a set
27 of heavy and moderate rainfall events that affected Central and Southern Italy on 4th August
28 2010 at 14:15 UTC. RainCEIV detects rainy samples with a POD of 89% strongly related to the
29 correct detection of the C₁ samples. In detail, POD is 82% for the C₁ class and 66% for the C₂
30 class resulting from the fact that the number of misses related to the C₂ class is higher than that
31 of the C₁ class. It is important to note that 70% of the C₂ misses is misclassified as belonging to

1 the C_1 class. Furthermore, the number of the false alarms related to the C_1 class is higher than
2 that of the C_2 class and this leads to a lower value both of FAR (38%) and BIAS (1.08) related to
3 the C_2 class with respect to that related to the C_1 class (FAR=56% and BIAS=1.86). The case
4 study III is related to the analysis of an extreme convective event characterized by very heavy
5 precipitations occurred on 21th February 2013 on the east cost of Sicily which caused a flash
6 flood over Catania. The RainCEIV detects all the rainy areas with a POD of 87%, that becomes
7 50% when only the C_2 samples are considered. The number of false alarms is higher for the C_1
8 class (FAR=37%) than for the C_2 class (FAR=24%), but while the C_1 samples are overestimated,
9 RainCEIV missed the 50% of them (BIAS=0.67). It is evident that RainCEIV is missing many
10 heavy-rainy samples, which should be due to the high temporal variability of this rainy event.
11 Nevertheless, it is able to monitor the evolution of all the rainy areas on the east cost of Sicily
12 and on Southern Calabria with a good approximation.

13

14 **5. Conclusions**

15 This paper proposes the RainCEIV technique as a useful tool for the continuous monitoring and
16 characterization of the rainy areas in the Mediterranean region where there is an increased
17 frequency of the extreme events. RainCEIV, that does not use any near real-time ancillary data,
18 exploits the temporal differences of the brightness temperatures related to the SEVIRI water
19 vapour channels. These are indicative of the atmosphere instability and, as a consequence, could
20 give useful information for the detection of the rainy areas when analysed with the spectral and
21 textural features related to the other SEVIRI channels. Because of the well-known limitations of
22 the IR/VIS observations in determining RR values, the RainCEIV main purpose is to provide a
23 near-real time qualitative characterization of the rainy areas especially in regions not covered by
24 the radar and rain gauge network.

25 RainCEIV consists of two modules that use geostationary observations from SEVIRI in order to
26 detect cloudy pixels and, successively, to associate them to a rainy/non-rainy class. RainCEIV
27 uses both IR and VIS observations to determine if the SEVIRI pixel belongs to the *non-rainy*
28 (C_0), *light-to-moderate-rainy* (C_1) or *heavy-to-very-heavy-rainy* (C_2) class. The IR/VIS
29 observations do not have the same potentiality as MW observations in characterizing rainy areas,
30 but their high spatial and temporal resolution are used to get a continuous monitoring of the
31 stratiform and convective events. The RainCEIV training phase has been carried out by

1 collecting a set of SEVIRI pixels with co-located RR values inferred from AMSU-B/MHS
2 observations processed by the PEMW algorithm and, when available, with co-locate radar-
3 derived RR values. This double matching of the SEVIRI pixels is an important aspect of
4 RainCEIV because it allows to get a reliable training dataset.

5 RainCEIV has been validated on the basis of the RR observations from the Italian DPC
6 operational weather radar network. The dichotomous statistical scores indicate that a good
7 fraction (97% for daytime validation and 96% for night-time validation) of the pixels examined
8 are correctly identified as rainy or non-rainy by the RainCEIV. The Bias scores (1.36 for daytime
9 validation and 1.58 for night-time validation) and the FAR scores (39% and 48%) suggest that
10 RainCEIV tends to overestimate rainy pixels especially during the night-time, while the POD
11 scores (81% both for daytime and night-time validation) indicate that RainCEIV detects rainy
12 areas with a good approximation. The rainy areas overestimation is mainly due to the
13 misclassification of C_0 samples as C_1 samples. Moreover, the high FAR values related to the C_1
14 and C_2 classes are mainly due to the misclassification of the C_1 samples as C_2 samples and vice
15 versa. The statistical scores obtained for the daytime validation are generally better than those
16 obtained for the night-time validation. This is prevalently due to the fact that the features related
17 to the VIS/NIR observations (unavailable during night-time) have a strong influence on the
18 RainCEIV output because of their higher discriminatory power when compared with that of the
19 features related to the 3.9 μm and 12.0 μm observations. In remarking upon the comparison
20 results, it is important to bear in mind the different spatial resolutions as well as the temporal
21 distance between radar and satellite observations that could affect the statistical scores
22 negatively, especially for rapid convective events, even if the time distance between radar and
23 SEVIRI acquisitions is little. As far as future developments are concerned, RainCEIV will be
24 updated to consider in the training phase the RADARinSEVIRI samples characterized by a
25 percentage of rainy RS samples lower than 80% so as to individuate extreme rainy events located
26 over an area whose size is smaller than that of the SEVIRI pixel area. To this aim, information
27 from the Visible Infrared Imaging Radiometer Suite (VIIRS) on-board the Suomi National Polar-
28 orbiting Partnership (NPP) (characterized by higher spatial and spectral resolutions than
29 SEVIRI) will be taken into account when available. The purpose is the integration of the SEVIRI
30 and VIIRS observations in order to determine the cloud classification and the rainfall occurrence

1 probability at a better spatial resolution (from 3 km for SEVIRI to 0.375 km/0.750 km for VIIRS
2 at the sub-satellite point).

3

4 **Appendix A. “Procedure adopted for the training set refinement”**

5 The RainCEIV and C_MACSP original training datasets have been refined by applying the same
6 procedure to the samples of each class.

7 The refinement process consists in using the Nearest Neighbour decision rule described by Cover
8 and Hart (1967) in order to classify each sample of the initial training classes. Here the aim of
9 this process is to eliminate the redundant and misclassified training samples, which is similar to
10 the CNN rule described in Hart (1968) but the main purpose of CNN is to get a training subset
11 performing as well as the original one. Before the description of the refinement process, a brief
12 description of the NN decision rule and of the Fisher criterion (used to reduce the number of the
13 components of the feature vector) will be given.

14 Let $T_o = \{(\vec{x}_i, C_j)\}$ be the original training dataset, where the pairs (\vec{x}_i, C_j) indicate the training
15 samples \vec{x}_i of the class C_j , $j=1, 2, \dots, N_c$, N_c is the number of the classes, $i=1, 2, \dots, N_{c,j}$, $N_{c,j}$ is the
16 number of the training samples for the class C_j . Given a vector \vec{y} to be classified, the NN rule
17 establishes that \vec{y} belongs to the class C_j when the minimum distance is that from the training
18 sample \vec{x}_i that belongs to class C_j , and then \vec{x}_i is the Nearest Neighbour of \vec{y} .

19 Before applying the RR decision rule, it is important to define the dimension of the feature
20 vector. In fact, since the k-NN classifier performance generally decreases with the dimension of
21 the feature vector, the number of the components (x^i) of \vec{x} has been reduced by applying the
22 Fisher criterion (Ebert, 1987; Parikh, 1977) to evaluate the discriminatory power of the
23 individual features and to choose the features characterized by the higher Fisher distance value.

24 Let \bar{x}_j^i and σ_j^i be the mean and standard deviation of the feature x^i for the training set from class
25 C_j , thus the Fisher distance is defined as:

$$26 \quad D_{ijk} = \frac{|\bar{x}_j^i - \bar{x}_k^i|}{(\sigma_j^i - \sigma_k^i)}.$$

27 (1)

1 It measures the ability of the feature x^l to differentiate class C_j from class C_k . The features x^j ,
2 within \vec{x} , have been ordered in a decreasing way on the basis of the D_{ijk} values and the first d
3 features have been chosen as the components of the feature vectors used. The dimension d has
4 been fixed by following the suggestions in Jain and Chandrasekaran (1982), who point out that
5 the ratio between the number of the training samples for each class and the feature vector
6 dimension d should be at least five.

7 The procedure to obtain the refined training dataset, T_r , starting from the original training dataset
8 T_o , consists in:

- 9 1. Considering the i^{th} pattern (\vec{x}_i, C_j) of T_o ,
- 10 2. Applying the NN decision rule and determining the following action on the basis of the
11 three possible classification results:
 - 12 - the NN belongs to the initial belonging class C_j and the Euclidean distance is higher
13 than zero, consequently the sample is put in T_r ;
 - 14 - The NN belongs to a different class $C_i \neq C_j$, consequently the sample is reanalyzed
15 and included in the NN class;
 - 16 - the Euclidean distance from the NN is zero, the sample is considered redundant and it
17 is removed from T_o and not included in T_r .
- 18 3. restarting from point 2 with another sample and applying the entire process until all the
19 training samples have been analyzed.

20 T_r , determined for each class is used as the definitive training dataset.

21

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26

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1 Table 1. List of the NOAA satellite overpasses for the AMSU-B PEMW rain rate maps
 2 considered in the training phase

Date	NOAA satellite overpass time (UTC) over Mediterranean area
29 September 2009	15:16, 17:22
1 October 2009	04:37, 05:13, 08:30, 13:03, 15:56, 16:37, 19:18
2 October 2009	01:25, 04:13
4 March 2010	14:23, 16:03, 16:28, 20:05
5 March 2010	00:56, 01:48, 04:16, 06:24, 08:20, 11:40
26 April 2010	12:47, 13:20, 14:49
28 April 2010	12:26, 15:45
2 May 2010	15:45, 16:32, 19:44
20 June 2010	11:42, 11:58, 14:28
21 June 2010	02:00
23 June 2010	12:52
4 August 2010	10:43, 12:19, 16:24, 18:03, 18:56, 20:38
4 October 2010	03:54, 06:15, 10:16, 13:14, 15:17, 17:44, 19:33
1 March 2011	11:22, 8:48, 20:15
12 February 2012	01:08, 01:38
21 February 2013	11:20, 13:10
7 October 2013	09:14, 14:38, 20:38
8 October 2013	08:55, 12:10, 14:30, 20:18, 20:25
9 October 2013	08:32, 11:56, 19:56
10 October 2013	08:12, 09:52, 19:35
17 November 2013	08:25, 10:06, 11:36, 13:17, 19:48
18 November 2013	08:05, 09:45, 11:25, 13:06
1 December 2013	08:00, 08:36, 20:00
2 December 2013	07:50, 08:15, 09:55, 19:38
3 December 2013	09:35, 12:03, 19:16, 21:00

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1 Table 2. Statistical scores related to the RainCEIV rain rate results obtained classifying the initial
 2 and artificial test dataset for k=3. The statistical scores are shown for all the rainy classes (C_1 ,
 3 C_2), light to moderate rain (C_1), and heavy to very heavy rain (C_2).

	Test dataset	C_1 , C_2	C_1	C_2	C_1 , C_2	C_1	C_2	C_1 , C_2	C_1	C_2
		k=3, d=10			k=3, d=16			k=3, d=20		
Accuracy	Artificial	0.72	0.75	0.76	0.81	0.78	0.79	0.81	0.77	0.78
	Initial	0.81	0.81	0.82	0.80	0.76	0.81	0.77	0.74	0.81
Bias	Artificial	0.96	0.99	0.94	1.01	1.02	1.00	1.01	1.01	1.00
	Initial	0.98	0.92	1.04	0.99	1.05	0.92	0.97	1.02	0.92
POD	Artificial	0.77	0.63	0.62	0.86	0.68	0.68	0.86	0.66	0.67
	Initial	0.85	0.69	0.74	0.84	0.68	0.68	0.82	0.63	0.68
HSS	Artificial	0.37	0.44	0.46	0.56	0.50	0.52	0.56	0.48	0.50
	Initial	0.57	0.57	0.59	0.55	0.47	0.57	0.50	0.42	0.57
FAR	Artificial	0.20	0.37	0.34	0.15	0.34	0.32	0.14	0.35	0.33
	Initial	0.13	0.25	0.29	0.14	0.36	0.26	0.16	0.39	0.26

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2 Table 3. Statistical scores related to the RainCEIV rain rate results obtained classifying the initial
 3 and artificial test dataset for $k=5$. The statistical scores are shown for all the rainy classes (C_1 ,
 4 C_2), light to moderate rain (C_1), and heavy to very heavy rain (C_2).

	Test dataset	C_1 , C_2	C_1	C_2	C_1 , C_2	C_1	C_2	C_1 , C_2	C_1	C_2
		k=5, d=10			k=5, d=16			k=5, d=20		
Accuracy	Artificial	0.73	0.76	0.76	0.85	0.79	0.82	0.85	0.79	0.81
	Initial	0.81	0.82	0.84	0.86	0.81	0.85	0.85	0.79	0.84
Bias	Artificial	0.96	0.98	0.94	0.99	1.00	0.98	0.99	1.01	0.97
	Initial	0.97	0.94	0.99	1.00	1.11	0.90	1.00	1.10	0.90
POD	Artificial	0.77	0.64	0.62	0.89	0.70	0.72	0.88	0.68	0.69
	Initial	0.84	0.70	0.74	0.90	0.76	0.74	0.89	0.73	0.72
HSS	Artificial	0.40	0.47	0.46	0.67	0.55	0.59	0.66	0.52	0.56
	Initial	0.59	0.58	0.62	0.68	0.58	0.66	0.67	0.54	0.64
FAR	Artificial	0.19	0.35	0.34	0.11	0.30	0.26	0.11	0.32	0.28
	Initial	0.13	0.25	0.25	0.10	0.31	0.18	0.11	0.33	0.20

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2 Table 4. Statistical scores related to the RainCEIV rain rate results in classifying the initial and
 3 artificial test dataset for $k=7$. The statistical scores are shown for all the rainy classes (C_1 , C_2),
 4 light to moderate rain (C_1), and heavy to very heavy rain (C_2).

	Test dataset	C_1, C_2	C_1	C_2	C_1, C_2	C_1	C_2	C_1, C_2	C_1	C_2
		k=7, d=10			k=7, d=16			k=7, d=20		
Accuracy	Artificial	0.72	0.76	0.77	0.83	0.77	0.81	0.82	0.76	0.81
	Initial	0.78	0.77	0.80	0.80	0.78	0.81	0.80	0.78	0.81
Bias	Artificial	0.97	1.05	0.94	1.00	1.02	0.98	1.00	1.02	0.97
	Initial	1.00	0.94	0.95	1.01	1.09	0.93	1.01	1.09	0.93
POD	Artificial	0.78	0.64	0.62	0.87	0.67	0.71	0.87	0.66	0.71
	Initial	0.83	0.68	0.68	0.86	0.72	0.68	0.86	0.72	0.68
HSS	Artificial	0.38	0.46	0.34	0.62	0.50	0.58	0.61	0.48	0.57
	Initial	0.50	0.48	0.55	0.55	0.52	0.57	0.55	0.52	0.57
FAR	Artificial	0.20	0.36	0.46	0.12	0.34	0.27	0.12	0.35	0.28
	Initial	0.16	0.36	0.29	0.16	0.34	0.26	0.16	0.34	0.26

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2 Table 5. Summary of the features considered for use in the RainCEIV k-NNM classifier during
 3 daytime. Label “A” means that the feature is used for all the C-MACSP classes; “LM” means
 4 that the feature is used for the low/middle cloud class; “HT/C” means that the feature is used for
 5 the high thick and convective cloud class.

Features	MSG-SEVIRI spectral bands (μm)							
	VIS 0.6	VIS 0.8	NIR 1.6	IR 3.9	IR 6.2	IR 7.3	IR 10.8	IR 12.0
Max Gray level							A	
Min Gray level							A	
Mean Gray level	A							
Max/Min(Gray level)								
Max(Contrast 0°, 45°, 90°, 135°)							A	
Max(Entropy 0°, 45°, 90°, 135°)			A					
Max (Mean 0°, 45°, 90°, 135°)			A			A		
Max (ASM 0°, 45°, 90°, 135°)		A		LM				
Min(Contrast 0°, 45°, 90°, 135°)								
Min(Entropy 0°, 45°, 90°, 135°)							A	
Min (Mean 0°, 45°, 90°, 135°)					A			A
Min (ASM 0°, 45°, 90°, 135°)								A
ΔTB_{15-30}					A	HT/C		
ΔTB_{15-45}					A	A		
ΔTB_{30-45}								

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Table 6. Summary of the features considered for use in the RainCEIV k-NNM classifier during night-time. Label “A” means that the feature is used for all the C-MACSP classes; “LM” means that the feature is used for the low/middle cloud class; “HT/C” means that the feature is used for the high thick and convective cloud class.

Features	MSG-SEVIRI spectral bands (μm)				
	IR 3.9	IR 6.2	IR 7.3	IR 10.8	IR 12.0
Max Gray level				A	
Min Gray level	A			A	
Mean Gray level					
Max/Min(Gray level)					
Max(Contrast $0^\circ, 45^\circ, 90^\circ, 135^\circ$)				A	
Max(Entropy $0^\circ, 45^\circ, 90^\circ, 135^\circ$)	A				
Max (Mean $0^\circ, 45^\circ, 90^\circ, 135^\circ$)			A	LM	
Max (ASM $0^\circ, 45^\circ, 90^\circ, 135^\circ$)	LM				
Min(Contrast $0^\circ, 45^\circ, 90^\circ, 135^\circ$)					HT/C
Min(Entropy $0^\circ, 45^\circ, 90^\circ, 135^\circ$)				A	
Min (Mean $0^\circ, 45^\circ, 90^\circ, 135^\circ$)		A			A
Min (ASM $0^\circ, 45^\circ, 90^\circ, 135^\circ$)					A
ΔTB_{15-30}		A	HT/C		
ΔTB_{15-45}		A	A		
ΔTB_{30-45}			A		

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2 Table 7. Accuracy of the C_MACSP algorithm on an independent dataset

Classes	Classification accuracy (for test samples acquired during daytime)	Classification accuracy (for test dataset acquired during nighttime)
Clear over land	95.0 %	95.0 %
Clear over sea	96.7 %	96.7 %
Low/middle clouds over land	91.6 %	91.0 %
Low/middle clouds over sea	92.6 %	91.3 %
High thin clouds over land	85.0 %	84.0 %
High thin clouds over sea	87.6 %	87.6 %
High thick clouds over land	98.3 %	97.3 %
High thick clouds over sea	99.0 %	99.0 %
Convective clouds over land	96.0 %	96.7 %
Convective clouds over sea	96.7 %	96.7 %

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2 Table 8. List of case studies used for validation.

Date	Radar Measurement time (UTC)	Satellite overpass time (UTC) over Mediterranean region
2 May 2009	15:00, 12:30	14:55, 12:25
19 September 2009	09:00, 19:15, 19:30	08:55, 19:10, 19:25
29 September 2009	13:00 (case I), 13:15	12:55, 13:10
8 January 2010	11:00, 13:00, 16:30	10:55, 12:55, 16:25
9 March 2010	17:00	16:55
23 June 2010	15:00	14:55
1 July 2010	16:45	16:40
6 July 2010	11:30, 12:30	11:25, 12:25
4 August 2010	13:00, 13:15, 14:15 (case II)	12:55, 13:10, 14:10
21 February 2013	14:30, 15:00 (case III), 15:30	14:55, 14:25, 15:25
7 October 2013	01:00, 03:00, 02:00	00:55, 02:55, 01,55
8 October 2013	12:00, 19:00	11:55, 18:55
25 December 2013	07:00	06:55
18 January 2014	06:00, 18:00, 20:00	05:55, 17:55, 19:55

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1 Table 9. Contingency table for the dichotomous statistical assessment of the RainCEIV
 2 algorithm for all the pixels used for daytime validation.

		Radar- derived rain rate results		
		Yes	no	marginal total
RainCEIV results	yes	18,410	12,264	30,674
	no	4,052	536,124	540,176
	marginal total	22,462	548,388	570,850

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1 Table 10. Contingency table for the dichotomous statistical assessment of the RainCEIV
2 algorithm for all the pixels used for night-time validation.

		Radar- derived rain rate results		
		Yes	no	marginal total
RainCEIV results	yes	16,399	15,295	31,694
	no	3,604	470,486	474,090
	marginal total	20,003	485,781	505,784

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2 Table 11. Dichotomous Statistical scores (RainCEIV versus radar-derived rain rate
3 measurements) for the case studies listed in Table 8. The statistical scores are shown for all rainy
4 classes (C_1 , C_2), light to moderate rain (C_1), and heavy to very heavy rain (C_2).

Statistical Scores	for daytime validation dataset			for night-time validation dataset		
	C_1, C_2	C_1	C_2	C_1, C_2	C_1	C_2
Accuracy	0.97	0.97	0.99	0.96	0.96	0.99
Bias	1.36	1.33	1.65	1.58	1.55	1.89
POD	0.81	0.77	0.86	0.81	0.75	0.65
HSS	0.67	0.65	0.65	0.62	0.57	0.45
FAR	0.39	0.41	0.47	0.48	0.51	0.65

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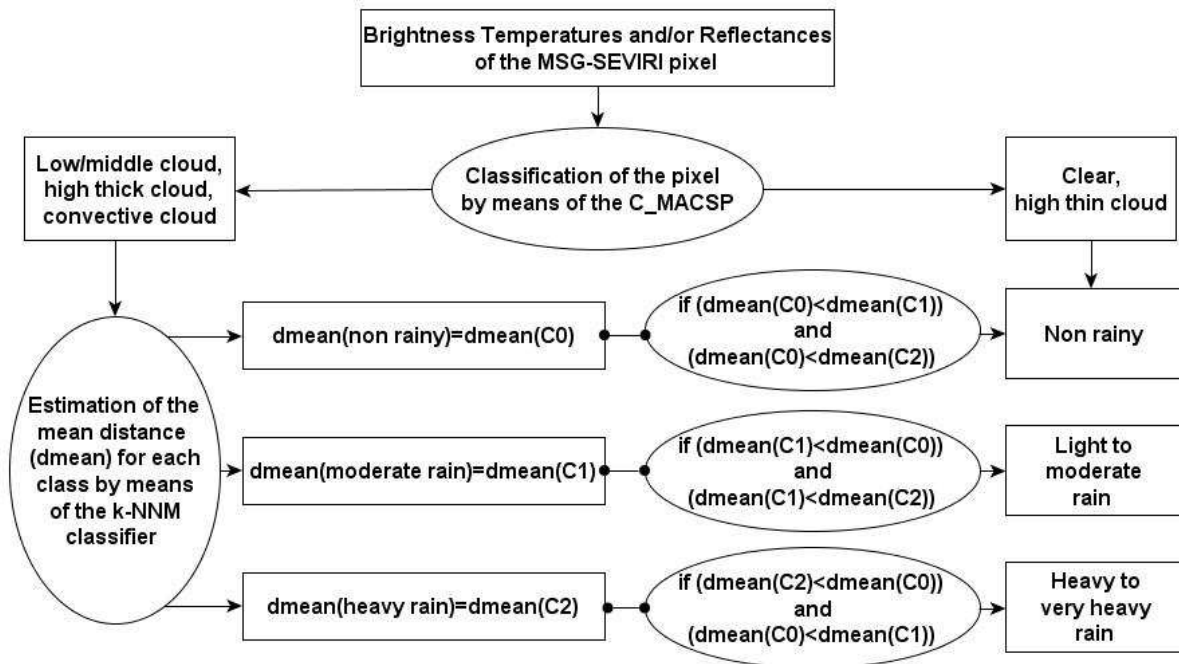
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- 1 Table 12. Dichotomous statistical scores shown for all rainy classes (C_1 , C_2), light to moderate
 2 rain (C_1), and heavy to very heavy rain (C_2), for the case studies I, II and III.

Statistical score	Case I 29 September 2009, 13:00 UTC			Case II 4 August 2010, 14:15 UTC			Case III 21 February 2013, 15:00 UTC		
	C_1, C_2	C_1	C_2	C_1, C_2	C_1	C_2	C_1, C_2	C_1	C_2
Accuracy	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.98	0.99	0.92	0.92	0.99
Bias score	1.25	1.38	1.00	1.56	1.86	1.08	1.35	1.38	0.67
POD	0.67	0.75	0.50	0.89	0.82	0.66	0.87	0.87	0.50
HSS	0.59	0.63	0.50	0.68	0.56	0.63	0.70	0.68	0.60
FAR	0.47	0.45	0.50	0.43	0.56	0.38	0.35	0.37	0.24

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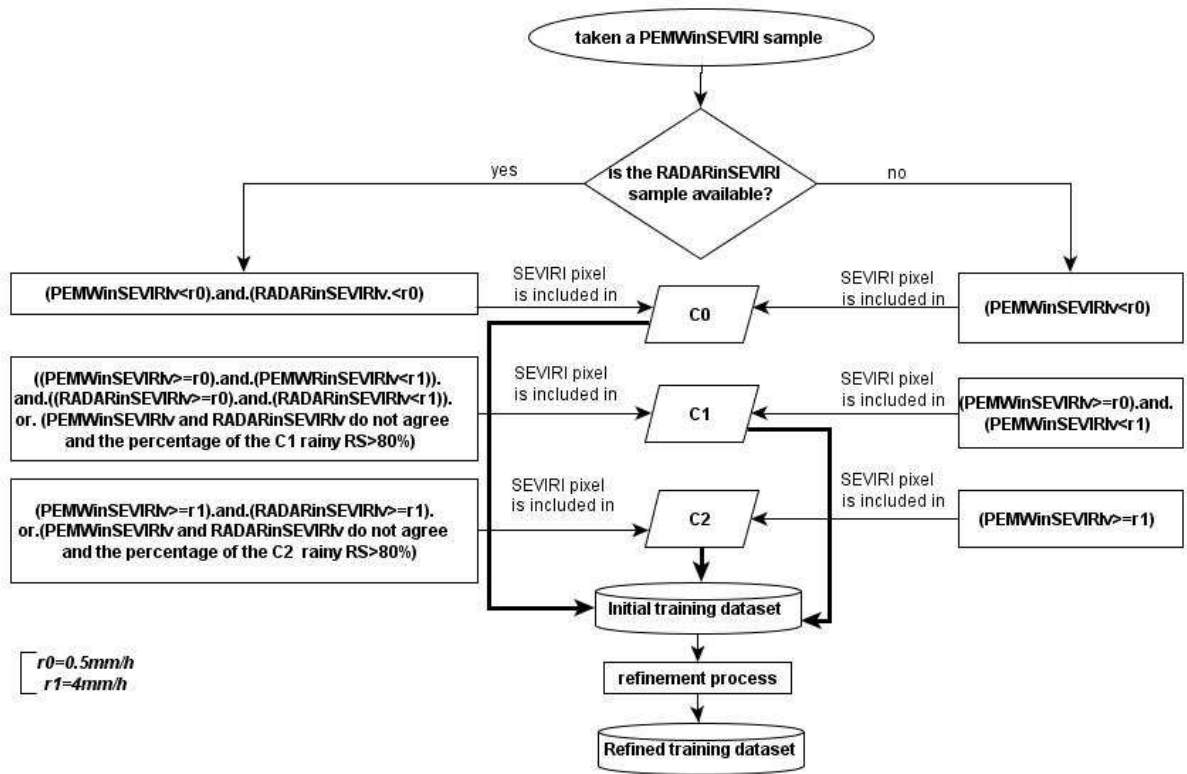
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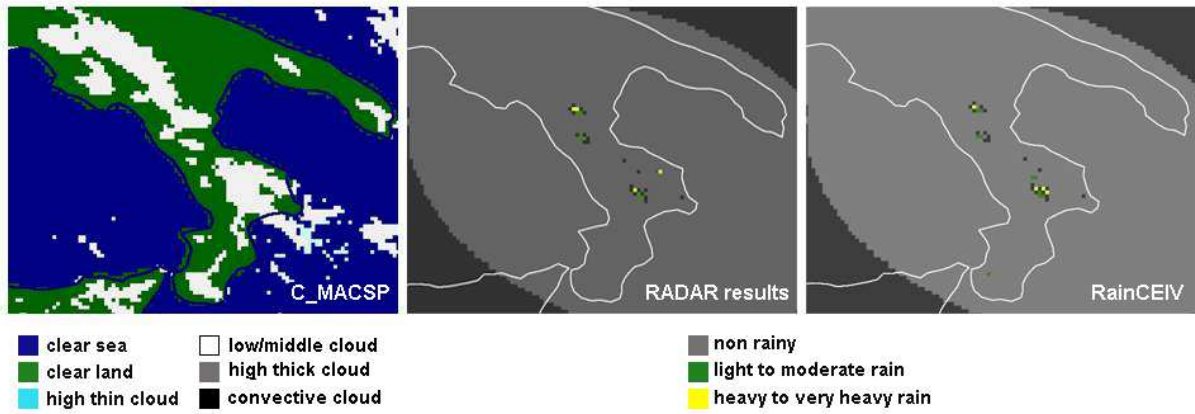
3 Figure 1. Flowchart of the RainCEIV algorithm.

4



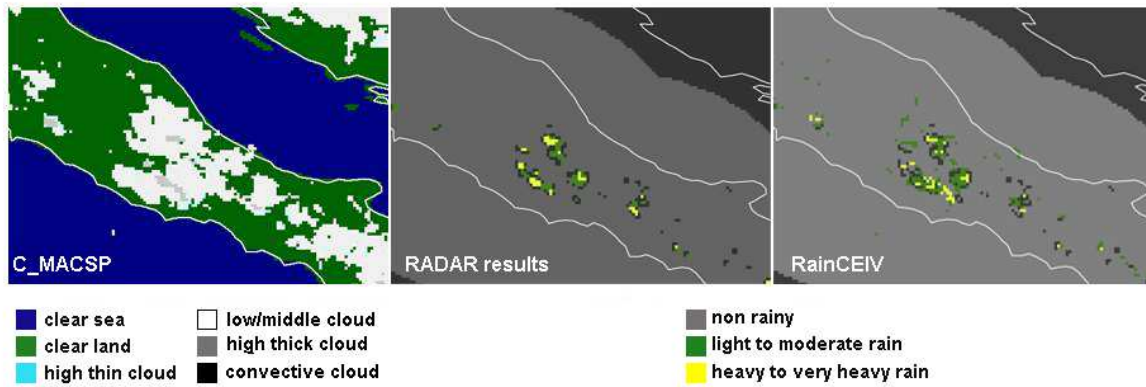
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2 Figure 2 Flowchart of the RainCEIV training procedure.

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 2 Figure 3. 29 September 2009 at 13:00 UTC. From left to right: C_MACSP cloud classification
 3 results, radar-derived rain rate results, RainCEIV rain rate results.

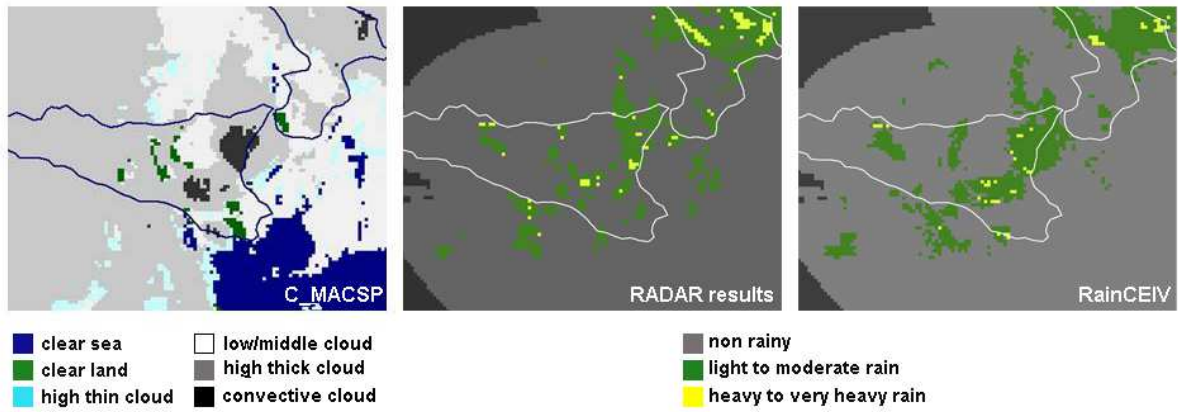
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2 Figure 4. 4 August 2010 at 14:15 UTC. From left to right: C_MACSP cloud classification
 3 results, radar-derived rain rate results, RainCEIV rain rate results.

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2 Figure 5. 21 February 2013 at 15:00 UTC. From left to right: C_MACSP cloud classification
 3 results, radar-derived rain rate results, RainCEIV rain rate results.

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