



The FARM (Flexible Array of Radars and Mesonets)

Joshua Wurman, Karen Kosiba, Brian Pereira, Paul Robinson,

Andrew Frambach, Alycia Gilliland, Trevor White, Josh Aikins

Robert J. Trapp, Stephen Nesbitt

University of Illinois, Champaign, Illinois

Maiana N. Hanshaw

CoreLogic, Boulder, Colorado

Jon Lutz

Unaffiliated, Boulder, Colorado

Corresponding Author: Joshua Wurman, jwurman@illinois.edu

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18 ABSTRACT

19 The Flexible Array of Radars and Mesonets (FARM) Facility is an extensive
20 mobile/quickly-deployable (MQD) multiple-Doppler radar and in-situ instrumentation
21 network.

22 The FARM includes four radars: two 3-cm dual-polarization, dual-frequency (DPDF) ,
23 Doppler On Wheels DOW6/DOW7, the Rapid-Scan DOW (RSDOW), and a quickly-
24 deployable (QD) DPDF 5-cm COW C-band On Wheels (COW).

25 The FARM includes 3 mobile mesonet (MM) vehicles with 3.5-m masts, an array of
26 rugged QD weather stations (PODNET), QD weather stations deployed on
27 infrastructure such as light/power poles (POLENET), four disdrometers, six MQD upper
28 air sounding systems and a Mobile Operations and Repair Center (MORC).

29 The FARM serves a wide variety of research/educational uses. Components have
30 deployed to >30 projects during 1995-2020 in the USA, Europe, and South America,
31 obtaining pioneering observations of a myriad of small spatial and temporal scale
32 phenomena including tornadoes, hurricanes, lake-effect snow storms, aircraft-affecting
33 turbulence, convection initiation, microbursts, intense precipitation, boundary-layer
34 structures and evolution, airborne hazardous substances, coastal storms, wildfires and
35 wildfire suppression efforts, weather modification effects, and mountain/alpine winds
36 and precipitation. The radars and other FARM systems support innovative educational
37 efforts, deploying >40 times to universities/colleges, providing hands-on access to
38 cutting-edge instrumentation for their students.

39 The FARM provides integrated multiple radar, mesonet, sounding, and related
40 capabilities enabling diverse and robust coordinated sampling of three-dimensional
41 vector winds, precipitation, and thermodynamics increasingly central to a wide range of
42 mesoscale research.

43 Planned innovations include S-band On Wheels NETwork (SOWNET) and Bistatic
44 Adaptable Radar Network (BARN), offering more qualitative improvements to the field
45 project observational paradigm, providing broad, flexible, and inexpensive 10-cm radar
46 coverage and vector windfield measurements.

47 CAPSULE

48 The Flexible Array of Radars and Mesonets (FARM) is a diverse, integrated, robust
49 array of mobile / quickly-deployable radars (DOWs/COW), and in-situ, observing
50 systems (MM, PODNET, POLENET, Soundings, Disdrometers) used widely for
51 research and education.

1. Why FARM?

This paper describes the Flexible Array of Mesonets and Radars (FARM) facility. The FARM is an extensive array of mobile and quickly deployable (MQD) radars, mobile mesonets, quickly deployable (QD) weather stations, sounding systems and disdrometers providing a single source of diverse observational capabilities for research and education. The history, key achievements, capabilities, and future plans for FARM are described.

a. Why mobile/quickly-deployable targeted radar arrays?

Value of radar observations: Narrow-beam, quickly-scanning, meteorological radars have revolutionized the ability of scientists and forecasters to observe the atmosphere. Research and operational radars measure three-dimensional (3D) distributions of radial velocity and precipitation, typically updating every few minutes. A cursory review of the scientific literature reveals the seminal role of radars in research and operational meteorology dating back decades (e.g., Marshall and Palmer 1948; Stout and Huff 1953; Fujita 1965; Houze and Smull 1990; Atlas 1990; Kumjian and Ryzhkov 2008). Many articles using data from radars appear in the refereed literature every month in any of several primary meteorological journals, focusing on scientific advances, forecasting, modeling, and technology. Specialized American Meteorological Society and European radar meteorology conferences focus primarily on radars and their applications. Many colleges and universities offer courses, and there are at least several textbooks (Doviak and Zrnic 1984; Rinehart 1990; Bringi and Chandrasekar

2001; Fabry 2015; Rauber and Nesbitt 2018) dedicated to, or with substantial focus on, radar meteorology. Radars are one of the core technologies used to guide hazardous weather warnings.

Limitations of stationary radars:

- **Near-ground visibility:** Some phenomena exhibit significant variations near the ground, below typical radar observing horizons. These include tornadoes (e.g., Bluestein and Golden 1993; Wurman et al. 1996; Wurman et al. 2007c; Kosiba and Wurman 2013), microbursts (e.g., Fujita 1981; Wilson et al. 1984), snow bands (e.g., Niziol et al. 1995; Steiger et al. 2013), boundary layer fine lines (Wilson and Schreiber 1986; Marquis et al. 2007), hurricane boundary layer rolls (Wurman and Winslow 1998), and wind farm effects (Toth et al. 2011). These near-ground variations are invisible to operational radars such as the Next-Generation Radar (NEXRAD) network of Weather Surveillance Radar-1988 Doppler (WSR-88D; OFCM 2017), with only ~1% of the NEXRAD observational domain observed below 200 m above radar level (ARL).
- **Spatial scales:** Many of these same high-impact phenomena exhibit spatial scales that are too small to observe regularly, or adequately resolve, given the spacing of typical operational radar networks.
- **Temporal Scales:** Finally, many of these same phenomena evolve over very short time scales (Wurman et al. 2007a; Wurman et al. 2013a; Wurman et al. 2014), much shorter than the 120-300 s volumetric update rate of WSR-88Ds, and faster than even the quicker update rates of most research radars (Wurman and Randall 2001).

98 Spatial and temporal limitations of radar observations are illustrated in Fig 1 where
99 selected phenomena are characterized with very approximate spatial and temporal
100 scales (defined here as the diameter and duration of the phenomena). For example
101 mesocyclones are very approximately 3-10 km in diameter and persist for 1000-3000 s.
102 It takes at least 5 observations across the diameter (or duration) of a phenomenon,
103 each with a beam width (or sample time) $\frac{1}{4}$ of this distance (or time), to well-resolve its
104 characteristics (measure about 90% of the magnitude) (Carbone et al. 1985). The $\frac{1}{4}$ -
105 scale observations necessary for a mesocyclone to be well-resolved range from 0.8 to
106 2.5 km, and from about 300 to 800 s. A WSR-88D observing severe weather conducts
107 a volumetric update every 300 s, temporally well-resolving most mesocyclones.
108 However, the ability of WSR-88Ds to well-resolve mesocyclones spatially depends on
109 the range to the mesocyclones, and the resulting beam width of the observations. Very
110 approximately, WSR-88Ds are spaced at 200 km intervals and have 200 km
111 observational domains, so about 50% of mesocyclones occur within 141 km of WSR-
112 88Ds. But, the beam width at 141 km is about 2.5 km, which is barely able to well-
113 resolve detailed characteristics of large mesocyclones. So, while WSR-88D radars
114 can *detect* mesocyclones through much of their observational domain, they can only
115 *well-resolve* large mesocyclones over about $\frac{1}{2}$ of that area. Tornadoes, with diameters
116 ranging typically from 100-800 m (Wurman et al 2021) and lifetimes ranging typically
117 from 100-1200 s, require observational scales of 25-200 m and 25-300 s to be well-
118 resolved. This is only achieved when long-lived large tornadoes pass within 4 km of a
119 WSR-88D, i.e., only very rarely. It is important to note that resolving the detailed
120 characteristics of phenomena such as tornadoes, microbursts, and mesocyclones is

critical for scientific studies, it is not necessary in order to inform severe weather warnings. WSR-88D data provide great benefit to the warning process through direct detection and indirect inference of the presence or likelihood of these phenomena.

Sparse rapid-scanning phased array networks could well-resolve temporal, but not spatial scales of tornadoes. Dense quick-scanning arrays such as Collaborative Adaptive Sensing of the Atmosphere (CASA: Junyent et al. 2010) can very well-resolve mesocyclones and tornadoes temporally, but cannot spatially well-resolve most tornadoes.

Solution: Adaptable arrays of mobile/quickly-deployable, radars.

*The most effective solution to two of these limitations, spatial resolution and lower observing-horizon, is also the simplest: **get closer.***

The most efficacious, moderate-cost, and widely employed solution, pioneered by the Doppler On Wheels (DOW) network, has been the deployment of single or multiple truck-mounted mobile/quickly-deployable (MQD) pencil-beam scanning radars (Wurman et al. 1997). DOWs, and other MQD radars (Bluestein and Pazmany 2000; Biggerstaff et al. 2005; Weiss et al. 2009; Pazmany et al. 2013; NSSL 2021; UAH 2021) have proven particularly valuable tools to observe rare, intermittent, localized, quickly evolving and propagating phenomena, particularly in the common situation where the details of mesoscale phenomena evolution are not well forecast hours in advance. MQD radars target mesoscale phenomena when and where they occur,

143 increasing the number of sampled phenomena and the quality of observations. MQD
144 DOWs, described below, simply by getting closer and scanning more quickly, are able
145 to resolve the spatiotemporal scales of many important mesoscale phenomena
146 including microbursts, boundary layer thermals, hurricane boundary layer rolls,
147 tornadoes, gust front structures, and lake-effect snow bands. The ability of DOWs to
148 well-resolve the spatial and temporal scales depends on the range to the phenomenon
149 and the duration and evolutionary time-scale of the phenomenon. Referring to Figure
150 1, DOWs, at typical deployment range of 2-10 km, conducting quick volumetric scans
151 at 20-80 s intervals, are able to well-resolve the spatial and temporal scales of many,
152 but not the smallest tornadoes. Resolving rapid changes in tornado structure, or sub-
153 tornado scale multiple vortices requires both very fine spatial-scale observations and
154 rapid-scanning, as provided by the Rapid-Scan DOW (RSDOW)(Section 2c).

155
156 The DOWs have been deployed semi-permanently (e.g., for weeks or months) in
157 remote locations, anywhere there is even a 4-wheel drive road. These missions include
158 long-term deployments to remote/challenging areas [e.g., ASCII (Geerts et al. 2013),
159 SNOWIE (Tessendorf et al. 2019), OLYMPEX (Houze et al 2017), BRISTOL-HEAD].
160 Nomadic, chasing, or semi-nomadic missions include VORTEX (Rasmussen et al.
161 1994), VORTEX2 (Wurman et al. 2012), ROTATE (Wurman 2003; Wurman 2008),
162 TWIRL (Kosiba and Wurman 2016), hurricanes (Wurman and Winslow 1998; Kosiba et
163 al. 2013; Kosiba and Wurman 2014; Wurman and Kosiba 2018), RELAMPAGO
164 (Nesbitt et al. 2021), LLAP (Steiger et al. 2013), OWLeS (Kristovich et al. 2017),
165 PECAN (Geerts et al. 2017), MAP (Bousquet and. Smull 2003), JAWs-Juneau

(Mueller et al. 2004), IPEX (Schultz et al. 2002), and COPS (Wulfmeyer et al. 2011).
(See Supplemental Materials Table for listing of research projects and project
acronyms)

b. Why mobile/quickly-deployable targeted surface and sounding arrays?

Value and limitations of stationary ground-based observational arrays: In-situ
measurements of state variables (e.g., T, RH, P, winds) are critical for understanding
meteorological phenomena. However, operational surface and upper-air sounding
meteorological networks, including specialized regional surface networks such as the
Oklahoma Mesonet (Brock et al. 1995) the West Texas Mesonet (Schroeder et al.
2005), and MESOWEST (Horel et al. 2002), are usually too coarsely distributed to
resolve the small scales associated with high-impact atmospheric phenomena. Just as
with radars, to well resolve spatial scales < 10 km, in-situ observational spacing $\ll 10$
km is required. Tiling a 300 km x 300 km study region at 1 km (or 5 km) spacing, only
capable of well-resolving phenomena with scales > 4 km (or > 20 km) (See section 1a)
would require 906,000 (301^2) (or 3,700 [61^2]) instruments, likely an impractical
endeavor (see also Trapp 2013, Section 3.5). Even this ambitious stationary design
would still be at substantial risk of missing desired events falling outside the study
region. Slowly deployable research mesonets (e.g., Foote and Fankhauser 1973;
Brock and Govind 1977) have had to choose between very small observational
domains and very coarse spacing.

Solution: Arrays of “mobile”, quickly-deployable, ground-based instrumentation.

The modern paradigm for obtaining critical in-situ state variable observations in mesoscale studies utilizes adaptable observing systems, which can be easily and quickly deployed ahead of, or during, phenomena of interest. Broadly, these systems fall into three categories:

1. MQD mobile mesonets (MM), where instruments are mounted on vehicles that are driven to phenomena of interest and sample by driving through or near these phenomena (e.g., Straka et al. 1996),

2. QD instruments that are placed ahead of phenomena and remain stationary throughout the data collection [e.g., TOTO (Bedard and Ramzy 1983; Bluestein 1983), Turtles (Brock et al. 1987; Winn et al. 1999), StickNet (Schroeder and Weiss 2008), Florida Coastal Monitoring Program 10-m towers (Master et al. 2010), deployable weather stations (HITPR) (Lee et al. 2004; Wurman and Samaras 2004) disdrometers (Friedrich et al. 2013), and Pods (Wurman et al. 2012)], and,

3. QD and MQD upper air and boundary layer balloon-borne sounding systems (e.g. Rust et al. 1990; Trapp et al. 2016; Markowski et al. 2018).

Mobile Mesonet transects, QD surface instrumentation, and MQD soundings through features such as drylines, fronts, storm-generated boundaries and cold pools yield cross-frontal/boundary data, which allow for mapping and characterizing moisture,

wind, and temperature variations that can influence storm initiation, development, and evolution. Targeted in-situ observations using the FARM systems described below, often augmenting DOW or other MQD radar observations, have been, or can be used to increase understanding of a myriad of phenomena including snowbands (Kosiba et al. 2020), urban impacts, wind farm effects, storm anvil and fire plume shadow effects, terrain effects, deep convection (Trapp et al. 2020; Schumacher et al. 2021; Nesbitt et al. 2021), cold pools (Kosiba et al. 2018), hurricanes (Kosiba and Wurman 2009; Kosiba et al. 2013; Wurman et al. 2013c; Wurman and Kosiba 2018; Kosiba and Wurman 2018), and tornadic storms (Markowski et al. 2002; Wurman et al. 2007a; Markowski et al. 2012; Kosiba et al. 2013b; Kosiba and Wurman 2013; Wurman et al. 2013a). (See Supplemental Materials Table).

2. Invention, Development, Deployments of the DOWs and other systems

a. Targeted Single-DOW Observations: DOW1 and successors

While QD, even truck-mounted, non-meteorological radars had existed for decades (Electronics, 1945), and continuous wave (e.g., Bluestein and Unruh 1989) and special purpose mm-wave (e.g., Bluestein et al. 1995) systems had been used in limited applications for research, the DOW radars (Wurman et al. 1997) were the first general-purpose MQD weather radars capable of quick-scanning volumetric data collection, very fine-scale resolution with pulsed transmissions and narrow “pencil-beams”, and abilities to penetrate a wide variety of meteorological phenomena using cm-wavelength transmissions.

234 The first DOW prototype was constructed during October 1994 - May 1995, for <
235 \$50,000, using surplused parts from the National Center for Atmospheric Research
236 (e.g., the old CP-2 radar transmitter, Keeler et al. 1989), a repurposed Econoline Van
237 provided by the National Severe Storms Laboratory, and a surplus SCR-584 antenna
238 (Electronics, 1945). Signal processing and antenna control were hosted on now
239 considered primitive 486 and 286 computers, with data stored on Exabyte tapes. The
240 DOW (later named DOW1) (Fig. 2) deployed during the final weeks of the VORTEX
241 tornado study. New DOW data immediately heralded a qualitative improvement in the
242 ability to observe the fine-scale structure and evolution of tornadoes (e.g., Wurman et
243 al. 1996; Wurman and Gill 2000; Wurman and Kosiba 2013) and a paradigm change
244 for many mesoscale observational studies. The DOW prototype was in a nearly
245 continuous state of evolution as the frontiers of this new technology and its applications
246 were expanded. From 1995-1997, the 1.83 m diameter antenna was replaced with a
247 2.44 m unit, reducing beamwidth from 1.22° to 0.93° . New, faster and more powerful
248 antenna motors permitted high speed scanning $> 50^\circ \text{ s}^{-1}$, even in strong winds, and
249 while driving. A more powerful transmitter and improved signal processing systems
250 and computers were installed. Data were recorded to compact disks (2020-era DOWs
251 would fill one of these compact disks every ~ 10 s). Faster leveling systems allowed
252 precisely navigated data to be collected < 50 s after parking. Basic specifications of
253 DOW1 and other FARM radars are found in Table 1. The FARM website
254 <http://dowfacility.atmos.illinois.edu> has links to loops, project descriptions, additional
255 imagery and documentation, data servers, and articles/books describing facility
256 components.

257

258 The new observing paradigm of deploying a high-capability radar near tornadoes
259 enabled the harvesting of many and varied scientific “low hanging fruit” by DOW1 and
260 its successor DOWs (described below). These include the first tornado wind maps,
261 measurements of an axial downdraft and lofted debris (Wurman et al. 1996, Wurman
262 and Gill 2000), multiple vortices (Wurman 2002; Alexander and Wurman 2005), winds
263 versus damage and surface measurement intercomparisons (Wurman and Samaras
264 2004; Wurman and Alexander 2005, Kosiba and Wurman 2013, Wurman et al.
265 2013a)(Fig. 4e), winds as low as 3 - 4 m AGL and low-level inflow (Wurman et al.
266 2007c; Kosiba and Wurman 2013), 3D Ground-Based Velocity Track Display (GBVTD)
267 vector windfield retrievals (Lee and Wurman 2005; Kosiba and Wurman 2010), rapid
268 evolution of debris over varying land use and terrain (Burgess et al. 2002; Kosiba et al.
269 2012), documentation of cyclonic / anticyclonic tornado pairs and documentation of
270 varied and complex tornado windfield structures including multiple windfield maxima
271 and multiple vortex mesocyclones (Wurman and Kosiba 2013), downward propagation
272 of vorticity (Wurman and Alexander 2005) and an extensive climatology of tornado
273 intensity and size revealing, quantitatively, that tornadoes are much more intense and
274 larger than indicated by damage surveys (Wurman et al. 2021). The DOWs have
275 documented the largest and most intense tornado windfields ever measured (Wurman
276 2003; Wurman et al. 2007c; Wurman et al. 2014), and even, unintentionally, collected
277 data from inside some tornadoes. DOW data were first used to constrain and
278 compare to large eddy simulations of tornado vortices (Kosiba 2009) and laboratory
279 models (Refan et al. 2014), and provide a comparison of tornadic intensity to WSR-

88D observations (Toth et al. 2013). DOW data have been integrated with
photogrammetric analyses of tornadoes (Wakimoto et al. 2011; Wakimoto et al. 2012).
(Multiple-DOW deployments and vector-wind studies are discussed in the next
section.)

The DOW1 was deployed into Hurricane Fran (1996), pioneering land-based scientific
hurricane intercepts and discovering an unexpected phenomenon, quasi-linear
hurricane boundary layer rolls (HBLR) (Wurman and Winslow 1998), found to be
ubiquitous (e.g., Morrison et al. 2005; Lorsolo et al. 2008; Kosiba et al. 2013) (Fig. 4b).
A DOW mission in Hurricane Harvey (2017) revealed the existence of intense Tornado
Scale Vortices (TSV) linked to swaths of wind damage and mapped eyewall
mesovortices (Wurman and Kosiba 2018) (Fig. 4c). TSVs also were observed in
Hurricane Irma (2017) (Kosiba and Wurman 2018). The DOWs documented that tall
buildings could cause narrow regions of reduced hurricane winds several km
downstream (Wurman et al. 2013b).

It was realized very quickly that DOWs could be utilized in a wide variety of
observational programs beyond tornadoes and hurricanes. Immediately after
VORTEX, DOW1 was deployed to observe convective initiation and boundary layer
rolls in SCMS and FLATLAND/LIFT (Weckwerth et al. 1999) and for an MIT microburst
study in New Mexico in 1996. Between 1995-2020, DOW1 and its successors were
deployed to study many different phenomena throughout the United States, including
Alaska and Hawaii, to Canada, Europe, and South America (Fig. 3 and Supplemental

Material Table). Selected scientific highlights include the following: DOWs were first to provide radar evidence of precipitation directly caused by cloud seeding (Tessendorf et al. 2019)(Fig. 4h), the first to map snow band mesovortices (Steiger et al. 2013) (Fig. 4d), and first to produce fine-scale radar mapping of fire plumes and hot spots (Wurman and Weygandt 2003). The DOWs mapped fire retardant plumes, simulated aircraft-released toxin plumes, mapped dust devil winds (Wurman et al. 1997), examined coastal low-level jets and their impact on heavy rainfall (Ralph et al. 1999), mapped the flow in alpine valleys (Bousquet and Smull 2003), examined descending reflectivity cores (DRC) in supercells (Byko et al. 2009), documented low reflectivity regions (LRR) in supercells (Wurman et al. 2012; Kosiba et al. 2013b), and mapped boundary layer stratification in Nor'easters (NSF 2015) (Fig. 4g). DOWs have been used extensively to support education (Section 4).

b. Targeted Multiple-DOW Network

The atmospheric equations of motion describe the evolution of 3D vector windfields, not radar-measured Doppler “velocities”. Updrafts, downdrafts, rotation, development of clouds and precipitation and lightning are all driven at least in part by 3D vector winds. ***It is a rare consumer of Doppler velocity data who would not prefer access to vector windfield measurements.*** Techniques for obtaining vector windfields from multiple radar measurements are well established (e.g., Armijo 1969; Ray et al. 1975; Gao et al. 1999; Shapiro et al. 2009), as are more restricted

techniques for inferring 3D winds from single-radar data (e.g., Browning and Wexler 1968; Lee et al. 1994).

In order to obtain fine-scale multiple-Doppler vector wind measurements, all of the individual radars must be close to the targeted phenomena (See Figure 1 in Wurman et al. 1997), which is difficult to achieve with stationary radar networks. This, and the simple benefit of increasing single-DOW observational coverage, motivated the creation of the multiple-DOW network, with the construction of DOW2, in 1997, and its successors.

As was the case with single-DOW deployments, many targeted multiple-DOW deployments harvested “low-hanging scientific fruit”. Multiple-DOW tornado “chasing” missions allowed creation of the first fine-scale vector windfield maps of tornadic storms, revealing secondary rear flank gust fronts, fields of vorticity, divergence, tilting of vorticity near tornadoes, and triggers for tornadogenesis (e.g., Wurman et al. 2007ab, Marquis et al. 2008; Wurman et al. 2010; Marquis et al. 2012; Markowski et al. 2012ab; Kosiba et al. 2013b; Markowski et al. 2018), and the first dual-Doppler vector winds resolving tornado structure (with RaXPoL) (Wurman et al. 2016).

Quick, as well as semi-permanent deployments were used to create vector wind mapping of a wide range of other phenomena including non-tornadic supercells (e.g., Beck et al. 2006; Frame et al. 2009), convection initiation and the role of mesocyclones (Arnott et al. 2006; Marquis et al. 2007; Zeigler et al. 2007; Friedrich 2008), lake-effect

snow bands and embedded misocyclones (Mulholland et al. 2017; Kosiba et al. 2020), nocturnal mesoscale convective systems (Kosiba et al. 2018; Miller et al. 2020), deep convective storms in complex terrain (Weckwerth et al. 2014; Trapp et al. 2020), and agricultural effects on the boundary layer (Rappin et al. 2021). Fluxes and turbulent kinetic energy (TKE) associated with sub-kilometer scale hurricane boundary layer rolls were quantified (Kosiba and Wurman 2014). The first vector wind retrievals of the boundary layer in a total solar eclipse (Wurman and Kosiba 2018) and in and near wildfire plumes were obtained by DOWs in 2017 and 2020, respectively. Multiple DOWs were used for marine boundary layer studies during CMRP, and for educational missions during PAMREX (Richardson et al. 2008). DOW vector windfields have been integrated with photogrammetric analysis (Atkins et al. 2012) (See Supplemental Materials table).

c. Rapid-Scan DOW

DOW sampling volumes can be 20,000 times smaller than that typical of WSR-88Ds. For example, at typical ranges between targets and these radars:

- WSR-88D resolution volume at 100 km range: $1667\text{m} \times 1667\text{m} \times 250\text{m} = 7 \times 10^8\text{m}^3$
- DOW resolution volume at 2 km range: $33\text{m} \times 33\text{m} \times 25\text{m} = 3 \times 10^4\text{m}^3$

However, typical DOW *temporal* resolution is only several times better than that of WSR-88D's, 300 s volumes versus 60 s. The DOW-obtained ultra-sharp "snapshots"

of tornadoes revealed that substantial evolution sometimes occurred between observations (Wurman et al. 2007a), limiting the understanding of these evolutionary processes. This effect is clear in Fig. 1, showing how proximate DOWs can well-resolve the spatial scales of tornadoes, but not rapid changes. The need for more rapidly scanning radars has long been known (e.g. Keeler and Frush, 1983). But, rapid-scanning alone, e.g., a network of phased array systems spaced similarly to the current WSR-88D network, results in more frequent but very blurry data (Fig. 1), unable to resolve small spatial-scales. *Balanced fine spatial- and temporal-scale observations are required to fully resolve small and rapidly evolving systems such as tornadoes, microbursts, mesocyclones, hurricane boundary layer rolls, boundary layer thermals, rapid fire plume evolution, and the like*, motivating the development of the Rapid-Scan DOW (RSDOW) (Wurman and Randall 2001), which became operational in 2003 (Fig. 5).

The RSDOW employs a relatively inexpensive and “low tech” slotted waveguide antenna. Multiple frequencies are transmitted quasi-simultaneously from a Traveling Wave Tube (TWT) transmitter, in a “frequency-stepped chirp” pulse (see Wurman and Randall 2001), emitting several wavelengths quasi-simultaneously. Unlike slotted waveguide array antennas used in other multi-frequency radars such as ELDORA (Hildebrand et al. 1996), the RSDOW antenna is purposely very dispersive, steering these emissions at different frequencies in different directions, resulting in multiple quasi-simultaneous beams pointing at different elevations (See Fig. 5). The sky is “raked” at several different elevation angles nearly simultaneously. Data from each

frequency, and therefore each differently-pointing beam, are processed separately, as if it were from a different radar, resulting in volumetric data as fast as the antenna completes 360-degree rotations, typically every 7-s. As with all FARM radars, RSDOW archives all raw time series (“IQ”, the in-phase and quadrature components of the complex raw signal, see Doviak and Zrnic 1984) data, permitting custom and experimental post-processing, re-sampling, and filtering. Frequency dithering (changing frequency by a few tens of megahertz every $\frac{1}{2}^\circ$ of azimuthal scanning, to change beam elevation pointing by about $\frac{1}{2}^\circ$) to improve vertical resolution, and other specialized transmit/receive techniques are possible with the RSDOW, but have not been used to date.

The RSDOW data revealed short-period wind speed oscillations in a tornado (Wurman et al. 2013a) attributed to small spatially-unresolved multiple vortices and documented for the first time that the most intense winds in a different tornado were below 10 m AGL (Kosiba and Wurman 2013). The RSDOW collected fine-temporal resolution data in snowbands during OWLeS, in a variety of supercellular thunderstorms during VORTEX2, measured the rapid evolution of hurricane boundary layer rolls during hurricanes Isabel (2003) (Wurman 2004) and Isaac (2012) (Wurman et al. 2013) and deployed for the CU-TOM and TAMU-SOAP educational projects (See Supplemental Materials table).

The RSDOW platform can be converted to host a traditional radar, for projects which do not require extremely rapid volumetric updates. A 250 kW transmitter, 0.9° beam

parabolic antenna, and different receiver and signal processing replace the specialized RSDOW components, and the system is fielded as DOW8. The RSDOW / DOW8 platform hosts a 14-m pneumatic mast on which anemometers and VHF radio antennas are usually mounted. Temperature (T), relative humidity (RH), and pressure (P) instrumentation are mounted to the truck. A scissor lift can raise the pedestal about 2-m so that the antenna is above the height of the operator and driver cabin, but this has not, to date, been used during a mission.

d. Quick-Scanning Dual-Polarization DOWs

Dual-polarization radars (Bringi and Chandrashekar 2001; Fabry 2015; Rauber and Nesbitt 2018; Bringi and Zrnica 2019) have been used in meteorological research dating back to the 1980's (e.g. Wakimoto and Bringi 1988) to provide observations distinguishing hail, drop size, and other precipitation particle characteristics. Recognizing the added information provided by dual-polarization capabilities, the WSR-88D network was upgraded to dual-polarization from 2011 - 2013. The University of Massachusetts MQD radar was upgraded to dual-polarization, obtaining pioneering observations of tornado debris clouds (Bluestein et al. 2007). The NOAA NOXP became operational prior to deploying in Hurricane Ike in 2008 (NSSL 2021). The University of Alabama upgraded the ARMOR radar in 2004 (Petersen et al. 2005). A critical limitation of dual-polarization systems was that they must scan slowly to obtain the necessary independent samples required for accurate dual-polarization

measurements (Bringi and Chandrashekar 2001). Slow-scanning is an anathema for targeted short-temporal scale studies of rapidly evolving phenomena (see Fig. 1). So, to permit more balanced temporal and spatial scale dual-polarization observations, two DOWs (DOW6 and DOW7) were upgraded to dual-polarization, employing a unique dual-polarization, dual-frequency design (DPDF). The DPDF technique involves transmitting two frequencies quasi-simultaneously, separated by 150 MHz. This permits independent samples from each frequency to be combined, allowing for high quality ZDR calculations while scanning twice as fast. The DPDF DOWs employ a unique polarization switching array (Fig. 6) permitting two different transmit/receive modes:

- (“Fast-45”) both frequencies transmit at 45° polarization orientation (by transmitting equal power at both horizontal and vertical polarizations simultaneously) and measure returned horizontal and vertical signals in order to calculate differential reflectivity (ZDR), cross-polarization correlation coefficient (ρ_{HV}) and differential phase (Φ_{DP}) in both frequencies, and
- (“LDR+45”) One frequency is emitted with a horizontal polarization angle, permitting calculation of linear depolarization ratio (LDR) through comparison of horizontal and vertical polarization returns. The 2nd frequency is transmitted at 45° orientation, as described above, allowing calculation of ZDR, ρ_{HV} and Φ_{DP} . LDR+45 mode was first used during RELAMPAGO (Trapp et al. 2020).

The DPDF DOWs archive all raw time series (“IQ”) data, permitting custom and experimental post-processing, re-sampling, and filtering. DPDF DOWs were used in VORTEX2, LLAP, TWIRL, GRAINEX, SNOWIE, ASCII, OWLeS, PECAN, and

RELAMPAGO (See Supplemental Materials table). The DPDF DOW platforms host 18-m pneumatic masts on which anemometers and VHF radio antennas are usually mounted. T, RH, P instruments are mounted to the trucks.

e. C-band On Wheels (COW)

The FARM (and all other MQD) radars employ antennas smaller than 2.5 m so that the trucks plus antennas can fit on roads and under bridges. In order to focus narrow, $\leq 1^\circ$ beams, most MQD radars transmit using 3-mm (W-band) to 3-cm (X-band) wavelengths. The paramount goal of fine-scale resolution is achieved, but at the cost of severe attenuation in heavy precipitation, common in high impact mesoscale systems. A notable exception has been the C-band (~ 5.5 GHz or 5 cm) SMART Radars (SRs) (Biggerstaff et al. 2005), which suffer less attenuation (Fig. 7) (see, e.g., Doviak and Zrnic 1984). But, this ability comes with a cost. The SR's 2.4 m antennas produce broader beamwidths (1.6°) and > 2.5 times larger resolution volumes ($1.6^\circ/0.93^\circ$ horizontal $\times 1.6^\circ/0.93^\circ$ vertical) compared to X-band MQD radars such as the DOWs. The compromises inherent with X- and C-band mobile radars were experienced during VORTEX2 when SR2 and DOW6 simultaneously observed a tornadic supercell from similar ranges. The DOW6 observations were severely attenuated through the core, particularly behind the hook echo. SR2 observations severely under-resolved the tornadic circulation, with observed shear of only 57 m s^{-1} compared to the DOWs measurement of 84 m s^{-1} , a reduction of 32% (Fig. 7).

In order to avoid the compromises inherent to existing X- and C-band MQD radars, the C-band On Wheels (COW) was developed in 2018, using a unique quickly-assembling antenna design. The COW travels with its antenna in two pieces (Fig 8). Then, using an on-board crane, this antenna is quickly assembled on-site, to its full 3.8 m diameter, resulting in a 1.05° beam. ***Low attenuation and fine-scale resolution are achieved simultaneously.*** Naturally, there is a compromise: the COW cannot “chase” since it requires ~2 hours for set up and tear down. But, the COW is ideal for most targeted observational projects, including those similar to RELAMPAGO, PECAN, PERiLS, IHOP, CALJET, and hurricanes, deploying up to once-per-day. And it can be deployed for longer periods for projects similar to OLYMPEX, GRAINEX, SNOWIE, and ASCII, and can also serve as a “gap filler” radar. Like the DOWs, the COW employs DPDF technology for fast-45 dual-polarization and 45+LDR capability. COW uses dual 1 MW transmitters, by far the most powerful in any QD or MQD radar, for maximum sensitivity.

3. MM, Pods, Poles, Soundings, MORC

To provide a robust, integrated, and flexible in-situ observational network deployable in coordination with the DOW/COW network, and to improve on existing designs for such observational systems, FARM includes an innovative, evolving and diverse array of mobile mesonet (MM) and QD observational ground-based systems (PODNET, POLENET), several mobile upper air sounding systems, a Lagrangian “swarmsonde”

balloon system, and a mobile operations center (MORC). Specifications are found in Table 2.

a. **Mobile Mesonet (MM):** Pickup-truck based MM with instruments that collect standard meteorological observations of T, RH, P, and wind incorporating pioneering forward-mounted 3.5 m AGL masts to avoid vehicle slipstream (Fig. 9). MMs carry PODNET units (see deployment of Pods from a MM in Fig. 10), balloon-borne sounding systems, and disdrometers and can tow systems such as 915 MHz profilers.

b. **PODNET:** A pioneering array of QD ruggedized weather stations (Pods). Deployed from MM, Pods collect standard meteorological observations of T, RH, P, and wind at 1, 1.5, or 2 m AGL (depending on configuration), and video or time lapse photographs (Fig. 10).

c. **Disdrometers:** The facility hosts several Parsivel systems, which can be paired with dual-polarization radars and are often deployed with PODNET units.

d. **POLENET:** Often there is a need to obtain near-surface wind and other meteorological observations where there may be no solid and level ground, road shoulder, and/or at altitudes above 2 m AGL (in less open terrain, near fences, guard rails, road signs, or at flood-prone sites, etc., e.g., in a hurricane). The FARM includes an array of QD, fully configurable, rugged instruments comprising POLENET. These are attached with clamps and/or straps to existing infrastructure such as telephone and power poles, bridge railings, dock railings, lighting poles, and similar structures (Fig. 11), in order to measure wind, T, P, and RH.

e. **Soundings:** Several GRAW and one Windsong/Swarmsonde balloon-borne sounding systems are operated from MMs, DOWs, or other vehicles to provide adaptable/targeted upper air and boundary layer sounding capability (Fig. 12).

f. **Mobile Operations and Repair Center (MORC):** Complex highly mobile (chasing) projects such as VORTEX2, ROTATE, and TWIRL, or projects with special needs (e.g. MASCRAD) may require a mobile operations/coordination center, data management office, and repair facility, or a field headquarters vehicle. The Mobile Operations and Repair Center (MORC) is a long sprinter van with multiple scientist/engineer work stations, a wall of monitors, a computer rack, and two generators. A 10-m pneumatic mast houses weather instruments and a high-powered VHF radio for communications with mobile or remote fleets (Fig. 13).

The FARM MMs, with evolving designs, were used to obtain transects in and near supercellular thunderstorms and tornadoes (ROTATE, VORTEX2, TWIRL)(Fig. 4e), and even obtained, accidentally, observations from inside a tornado (Kosiba and Wurman 2013). PODNET was initially designed to obtain multiple transects of low-level tornado winds. The very simple and inexpensive and robust design allowed for many PODNET units to be constructed, and “picket fence” type deployments ahead of tornadoes to be attempted. Pods obtained wind data very near tornadoes (Kosiba et al. 2016; Wurman et al. 2016; Kosiba et al. 2020b), revealing high potential temperature inflow towards tornadoes and possible inflow jets. Efforts continue to achieve the full picket fence style of deployment. PODNET was deployed on sea walls during Hurricane Ike, where it was too hazardous for manned-instruments (Kosiba and

Wurman 2009), and during Hurricanes Gustav, Isaac, Harvey, and Irma (Wurman et al. 2013c; Wurman and Kosiba 2018; Kosiba and Wurman 2018). Prototyping of POLENET occurred during hurricane Florence (2018) and it deployed to collect ~4 m AGL winds in the landfall region of hurricane Delta (2020).(Fig. 11).

The MMs and Pods documented thermodynamic variations across lake-effect snowbands during OWLeS (Kosiba et al. 2020), thunderstorm-generated cold pools during PECAN (Kosiba and Wurman)(Fig. 4f) and RELAMPAGO (Trapp et al. 2020; Nesbitt et al. 2021), and in New England Coastal Storms (NSF 2015). The FARM MQD upper air sounding systems have been used in several studies including PECAN, MASCRAD, GRAINEX, and RELAMPAGO and the Swarmsonde system was first used in severe convection in 2020. The facility's disdrometers were used in PECAN and RELAMPAGO.

4. Education and outreach

The simplicity, transportability, and adaptability of the DOW radars has facilitated their broad use in education and outreach (Fig 14). Often MM, Pods, and/or soundings are used in tandem with a DOW to provide a broader educational experience. ***FARM is designed to be a national educational resource.*** The DOWs, and other instrumentation, have participated in over 40 education and outreach projects at a variety of colleges and universities nationwide, most without major instrumentation programs themselves. These include small institutions, Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCU) and Tribal Colleges and Universities (TCU), resulting in

unusual and especially rich, hands-on exposure to otherwise unavailable state-of-the-art instrumentation. The DOWs have been integrated into radar, other meteorology, and environmental science courses (e.g., Richardson et al. 2008, Bell et al. 2015; Milrad and Herbster 2017) and have been used to facilitate local community and K-12 outreach. With only minor training, students can fully operate DOWs, resulting in hands-on, fully participatory educational experiences in experimental design, field data collection, and data analysis. Some student-designed projects have led to formal publications (e.g., Toth et al. 2011). The DOWs and associated instrumentation have been the highlight of small, large, and very large outreach activities both locally and nationwide, including a 20-museum national tour associated with an IMAX movie featuring DOW science missions, national events such as the USA Science and Engineering festival, and multi-school tours such as occurred in Missouri in 2012. FARM instrumentation, data, and/or scientists have been featured in two IMAX films, *Forces of Nature* and *Tornado Alley*, several documentaries including National Geographic's *The True Face of Hurricanes* and *Tornado Intercept*, Public Broadcasting's *NOVA*, and the Discovery Channel's *Storm Chasers* television series, as well as in other media including CBS, NBC, CNN, BBC, NHK, El Globo, TV Asahi, Al Jazeera, VOA, and many others. Articles discussing FARM instrumentation and/or data have appeared in the New York Times, Washington Post, Economist, Der Spiegel, Discover, Popular Science, New Scientist, USA Today, Scientific American, and many other high impact publications. Several dozen popular books and textbooks use images or data from FARM instrumentation.

5. Data, Calibration, Displays, Field Coordination

Calibration and data quality control are critical for radars, especially for reflectivity and dual-polarization fields. System calibrations are conducted by injecting signals through a range of intensities, and by measuring gains and losses of individual and groups of components. Quasi-periodic vertically pointing scans during precipitation provide calibration for ZDR. (Under most circumstances, ZDR is expected to be zero when measured at zenith. Additionally, the average of ZDR through a 360 degree rotation of a zenith-pointed antenna is expected to be zero even in the presence of strong electrical fields, or wind shear. Deviations from this average are considered error and can be subtracted from raw ZDR fields, see Hubbert et al. 2003) Intercomparisons with other FARM radars, other research radars, and WSR-88D are made, when possible. Calibrations of MM, PODNET, and POLENET instruments are conducted primarily through intercomparisons among the many FARM systems.

Data from the FARM, including full time series IQ data from DOWs/COW, frequently requires tens of terabytes (TB) of storage capacity, sometimes exceeding 100 TB. Data are stored on relatively inexpensive NAS disk arrays. Physical and cyber data security is achieved through triple redundancy, with one backup copy retained offline and another copy physically remote. Data are typically available through FTP, except for the extremely large time series collections, which are transferable physically.

The FARM facility has developed and maintains a custom suite of radar and instrument data display and field tracking software, the Geographical Unified Radar Utility (GURU)

(Fig. 15). This was prototyped for the RELAMPAGO operations center and provides real-time DOW/COW radar displays as well as MM and PODNET deployments, and sounding flight tracks. Radar editing tools for GURU are in development to facilitate enhanced radar data perusal including dealiasing, deglitching, and other data quality functions.

6. Future FARM instrumentation

The FARM exists to provide cutting-edge, forward-looking instrumentation capabilities for a wide range of meteorological studies and education. Since its inception, the DOW facility, now FARM, has innovated ambitiously, inventing new and broadly useful observational capabilities and techniques (e.g., DOWs themselves, the RSDOW, POLENET, the COW). We envision this inventive mission continuing, including two major innovations to greatly enhance community observational capabilities.

a. S-band On Wheels (SOW) and SOWNET

Long wavelength, 10-cm (S-band) radars with the ability to penetrate deeply through intense precipitation provide critical operational (WSR-88D) and research capabilities (e.g. S-POL, Lutz et al. 1995; CHILL, Brunkow et al. 2000; NPOL, Petersen and Wolff 2013).

Stationary or quasi-stationary/transportable radars have design freedom to use large antennas since they are not constrained by road worthiness. The narrow beams and superior precipitation penetrating ability of 10-cm systems allow observations in a variety of intensely precipitating phenomena. Superior Bragg scattering sensitivity permits clear-air observations out to > 100 km range. Thus, S-band radars have been core instrumentation for many meteorological studies.

However, since they employ cumbersome, heavy, 8 m diameter antennas, they are very expensive, and difficult and slow to assemble and deploy. Usually, only one radar is deployed, obtaining only single-Doppler measurements.

We envision a new concept, an S-band On Wheels Network (SOWNET) (Fig. 16), comprising multiple quickly-deployable, S-band truck-borne radars, to address these limitations. A network of 4 SOWs, SOWNET, will replace a single large S-band 1° beamwidth radar with an array of smaller, 5.5 m (18') antenna, quickly-deployable, 1.5° beamwidth truck-borne radars. Of course, broader beams result in *potentially* coarser data. But, deployed in arrays, one or more SOWs are nearly always reasonably close to targeted phenomena, so *SOWNET resolution over most of a study area is usually better than that of a single large radar*. We plan to develop a prototype SOW system in the anticipation of deploying future SOWNET.

The key advantages of SOWNET are:

- 665 • 1,2,3, or 4 SOWs can comprise a SOWNET deployment, customizing for small
666 and large missions.
- 667 • **Resolution resulting from a few SOWs is better than a single large radar.**
- 668 • 5.5 m (18') diameter antennas: $< \frac{1}{2}$ sail-area, $< \frac{1}{2}$ weight, compared to 1.0
669 degree 8 m (26') diameter antennas, reducing power needs and set up time
- 670 • **SOWs can be assembled with a crew of 3, in ~6 hours.**
- 671 • **Total time to deploy entire SOWNET array = ~5 days**
- 672 • **SOWNET entire network deployment is $< \frac{1}{2}$ the cost to deploy compared to**
673 **S-POL, based on much reduced staffing needs and total set up time.**
- 674 • SOWs can be operated by lightly trained student crews
- 675 • SOWNET arrays can be polygons or quasi-linear, and can change during a
676 project.
- 677 • Reliability is enhanced by eliminating single points of failure; if one SOW breaks,
678 others in the network still provide multi-radar coverage.
- 679 • **SOWNET is automatically multiple-Doppler.**
- 680 • Each SOW provides independent dual-polarization observations.
- 681 • SOWNET will employ DPDF technology to scan twice as fast as current large
682 radars.
- 683 • SOWNET will employ dual 1-MW transmitters, resulting in greater sensitivity in
684 the clear-air boundary layer compared to existing radars which employ single
685 transmitters.

686

687 **b. Bistatic Adaptable Radar Network (BARN)**

688 While DOWs have provided targeted multiple-Doppler vector wind observations for
689 myriad projects, multiple-Doppler deployments remain difficult and expensive.

690 Bistatic systems (e.g., Wurman et al. 1993; Wurman 1994; Protat and Zawadzki 1999;
691 Friedrich et al. 2000, Satoh and Wurman 2003), particularly mobile units, offer an
692 inexpensive logistically easier capability to observe 3D vector windfields. They comprise
693 a traditional transmitting and scanning radar paired with one to many remotely deployed
694 receivers with non-scanning low to medium gain antennas. Vector winds are calculated
695 from simultaneous measurements in the native coordinate system of the
696 transmitting/receiving radars (no spatial or temporal interpolation required). Bistatic
697 receivers use small antennas, have no expensive transmitters, and can be deployed
698 similarly to PODNET units or carried on small vehicles like MM.

699 We plan to incorporate a network of MQD bistatic receivers, BARN, integrated with
700 SOWs, DOWs, and COW, to provide critical vector windfields. This will form the
701 backbone for many future research projects requiring dual-polarimetric, near-ground,
702 fine-scale, vector wind observations (Fig. 17).

703 The key features of BARN are:

- 704 • **BARN enables multiple-Doppler vector wind measurements over targeted**
705 **regions.**
- 706 • While SOWNET is providing moderate-resolution multiple-Doppler measurements,
707 BARN provides finer-scale and/or customized measurements over smaller
708 domains.

- BARN units will be configured to couple with different SOWS, COW, or DOWs. Only the receiver front ends and antennas are frequency-specific.
- BARN units will be stationary, deployed for the duration of a project, or mobile.
- **Stationary BARN units will be unattended, low power, and logistically similar to deployable weather stations.**
- Highly redundant BARN units provide extreme reliability of multiple-Doppler operations.
- **BARN units are < 1/10 the cost of scanning transmitting radars.**
- BARN receiving antennas will be designed with different characteristics. These will include previously-used low-gain systems optimized to sample broad areas of precipitation, but unable to observe clear-air non-precipitating regions., Medium-gain systems, perhaps slowly scanning or switching, which can obtain vector wind measurement in the non-precipitating boundary layer will be designed. Different configurations will be optimized for different observational needs.

7. Summary

Since 1995 the DOWs and other instrumentation comprising FARM have facilitated a broad and diverse range of observational studies, education, and outreach. DOWs in particular have facilitated a new observational paradigm for many meteorological projects, and are frequently used in conjunction with other FARM systems including PODNET, MMs, disdrometers, and POLENET. The extensive array of FARM instrumentation, comprising 4 MQD radars, a fleet of MM, PodNet, PoleNet,

731 Soundings, Disdrometers, the MORC, and future systems, will continue to be the
732 backbone of many major research studies, often complemented by additional
733 instrumentation such as LIDARs, Unmanned Aerial Systems (UAS), other MQD radars,
734 MM, manned research aircraft, and QD weather stations (e.g., UAS in VORTEX2,
735 Riganti and Houston 2017, LIDAR and multiple aircraft in PECAN, Geerts et al. 2016).
736 FARM instrumentation has been designed and operated with ease of use, student
737 operability, and low cost in mind.

738 From 2008-2019 these facilities were supported by and available through the Lower
739 Atmospheric Observing Systems (LAOF) program at the National Science Foundation
740 (NSF). This permitted these systems to be used for not only large field projects (e.g.,
741 RELAMPAGO, PECAN, VORTEX2), but a variety of smaller single- to several-
742 investigator studies (e.g., OWLeS, SNOWIE, MASCRAD, ASCII, GRAINEX,
743 OLYMPEX). LAOF also supported frequent educational and extensive outreach
744 deployments, impacting thousands of students, and tens of thousands in the general
745 public. FARM, now managed through the University of Illinois, remains available to
746 researchers and educators by request (See <http://dowfacility.atmos.illinois.edu>), and it
747 is hoped that methods of support and request, enabling the previously broad and
748 diverse access possible through LAOF, will again be realized. As of the time of writing,
749 projects potentially employing FARM instrumentation to study tornadoes, quasi-linear
750 convective systems, mountain/valley wind systems, convective initiation, New England
751 winter storms, Northeastern ice and snow storms, hurricanes, and other phenomena
752 are in various stages of planning.

753 We expect an active future for FARMing.

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Data Availability Statement

This paper does not describe any particular data sets. Data from the FARM will be available through the FARM Facility by contacting its managers.

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1376

1377 Table 1: FARM radar specifications

Basic Specs	DOW1	DOW2,3	DOW 6,7	COW	DOW 8	RSDOW
Tx kW peak	40	250	2x 250	2x 1000	100	40
PRF Hz	500-2000 (later 500-4000) w/stagger	500-5000 w/stagger	500-6000 w/stagger			
Pulse Length □s	0.5 - 1.0 (later 0.25-1)	0.167 - 1.0	0.167-1.0 s			0.1-1.0 s
Scan rate °/s	30 (later 50)	50	50	24 °/s	50	7-s vols
Products	Z,V,NCP, SW	Z,V,NCP,SW	LDR, ZDR, Rho-HV, V, Z, SW, NCP, IQ		Z,V,SW,NCP, IQ	
Beamwidth °	1.22 (later 0.93)	0.93	0.93	1.05	0.93	0.8x0.9
Gate Length m	75-300 (later 25-300)	12.5-600	12.5-600 m			11-600
Meteorological and Comm Mast	none	10 m	18 m	future mast	14 m	

1378

1379 Table 2: Farm in-situ instrument specifications.
1380

	PODNET	POLENET	Mobile Mesonet	Upper Air Soundings	Disdrometers
Number	Up to 20	3-12 (can share instrumentation package with PodNet)	3	6 Graw 1 Windsong/S warmsonde	4
Measurements	T/RH (Campbell Scientific EE181-L/Rotronic HC2S3 + Shield RAD10E), P (Vaisala PTB1100), GPS (Garmin 16X-HVS), Wind x 2 (RM Young Jr. 04101 and Gill WindSonic 75 Ultrasonic)	Wind (RM Young 05103 and FT742 Sonic Anemometers), can be customized with any PodNet instrumentation	T/RH (Campbell Scientific EE181-L + Shield) P (Vaisala PTB1100), GPS (Garmin 16X-HVS), Wind (RM Young 05103) Can host others.	T, RH, Wind, P	Drop Size Distribution
Sampling Rate	Up to 10 Hz	Up to 10 Hz	Up to 10 Hz	1 s	10 s
Real-time Data	yes	yes	yes	yes	no
Platform	Hardened steel "T" stand	Attaches to infrastructure such as power and light poles, railings, at user specified heights	Pick-up truck. Can deploy PodNet and PoleNet (also sounding systems; not proposed)	Graw Windsonic	OTT Parsivel
Height	Configurable (currently 1, 1.5, 2 m)	Configurable, on existing infrastructure. Typically 3-10 m	3.5 m	1-20000 m	1 m
Camera/Video Attachment	yes	yes	yes	no	yes
Comm Compatibility	Cellular Internet	Cellular Internet	Cellular Internet		
Data	local	local or wireless	local or internet	local	local

Figure Caption List

Figure 1. What Radars Can and Cannot Resolve. $\frac{1}{4}$ scales (diameters) of phenomena compared to radar observing scales (logarithmic axes) reveal whether radars can well-resolve various phenomena. For example, to well-resolve a 10 km diameter mesocyclone with an ~ 2000 s temporal scale (duration), observations with scales of < 2.5 km and < 500 s are required. The fraction of the full observing domain achieving given spatial resolutions is illustrated for stationary radars. The spatial scale achieved by MQD DOWs are shown at 2 km and 10 km deployment ranges to observed phenomena. The WSR-88D network can spatially well-resolve large mesocyclones throughout about $\frac{1}{2}$ of its observing domain. But they spatially well-resolve tornadoes over $\ll 1\%$ of their domain and cannot well-resolve tornadoes temporally. Faster-scanning sparse phased array networks could well-resolve tornadoes temporally, but not spatially. Denser arrays of fast-scanning stationary radars, e.g., CASA, would not spatially well-resolve most tornadoes. MQD DOWs can well-resolve many, but not all tornadoes spatially. Rapid-Scanning MQD such as the RSDOW are required to well-resolve rapid tornado evolution, sub-tornado scale vortices, and other rapidly evolving atmospheric phenomena such as turbulent fire plumes, boundary layer eddies, and hurricane tornado-scale vortices.

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Figure 3. Sample DOW deployments. (a) schematic map of study domains, (b) DOW largely buried in snow at Snowbank, Idaho (2017), (c) DOW observing boundary layer during eclipse (2017), (d) DOW on Cape Cod during Nor'easter (2015), (e) DOW during hurricane Delta (2020) (f) DOW7 cabin interior, (g) DOW observing CalWood fire (2020), (h) Flooded DOW site in Lake Quinault during OLYMPEX (2016), (i) DOW scanning a tornado (2005).

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Figure 5. (left) Rapid-Scan DOW (RSDOW) slotted waveguide antenna transmits several simultaneous beams at different elevations using stepped-chirp pulses. Simplified DOW and RSDOW pulse sequences are compared schematically. Mechanical azimuthal scanning rakes the sky at all the elevations, resulting in volumetric data every 7 s. (center) Simultaneous Doppler velocity and Reflectivity slices from different elevations in a tornado. (right) RSDOW with legs and scissor lift extended.

1429

1430 Figure 6. Simplified block diagram of Dual-Frequency Dual-Polarization (DPDF) DOW
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1432 polarization and frequency 2 (green paths) at 45° , permitting LDR calculation. Both
1433 frequencies are combined in diplexers, then transmitted and received quasi-
1434 simultaneously (black paths) (bottom) Flipping coupled switches enables Fast-45
1435 mode, in which both frequencies are transmitted at 45° , resulting in doubled
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1446

1447 Figure 8. COW assembly. COW as transported, antenna being assembled, antenna
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1449

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1451

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1453

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1463 of deployments, ad hoc outreach entraining local children to launch upper air
1464 soundings during the GRAINEX field project, DOW at USA Science and Engineering
1465 Festival in Washington DC, university educational deployment, outreach with K-12
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1477 areas are within SOWNET multiple-Doppler vector wind coverage. (right) SOW set up
1478 requires ~6 hours, much quicker and less expensive than larger S-band radars.

1479

1480 Figure 17. (left) Schematic mobile bistatic network with four receiving antennas and
1481 one transmitting radar. The transmitting radar is, in this example, a DOW or SOW, but
1482 can be a stationary radar (e.g., S-POL). The four receiving antennas are on the back
1483 of pickup trucks, but can be deployed similarly to Pods. The transmitting and receiving
1484 radars can be moved like MMs to optimize coverage and vector wind retrievals as
1485 phenomena move/evolve. As the DOW/SOW transmits and scans, the pulses in its
1486 narrow radar beam (orange arrow) are scattered from hydrometeors, dust, etc. Some
1487 of that scattered energy (dashed yellow arrows) is received by the passive antennas,
1488 as well as the by the DOW/SOW antenna (dashed orange arrow). Three-dimensional
1489 vector wind fields are calculated from these various Doppler measurements. (right) An
1490 example of vector wind retrievals from a bistatic network. In this example, there was
1491 one transmitting radar (S-POL) and three bistatic receivers (solid squares). The
1492 colored vectors depict the retrievals using data from the north (red), central (blue), and
1493 southern (green) bistatic receivers. Arcs depict the bistatic dual-Doppler lobes with the
1494 transmitting radar. The square outline encloses an overdetermined analysis domain.
1495 (Image adapted from Satoh and Wurman 2003).

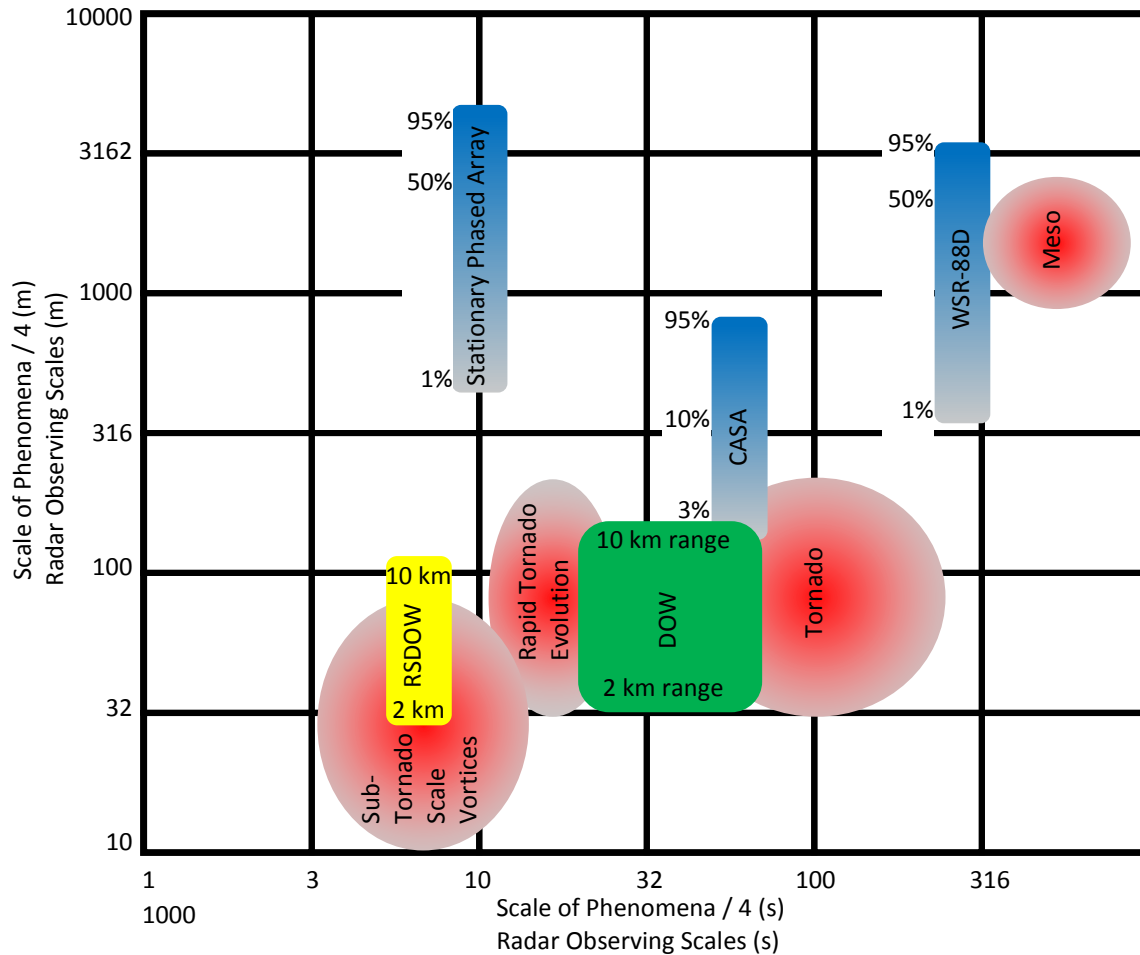


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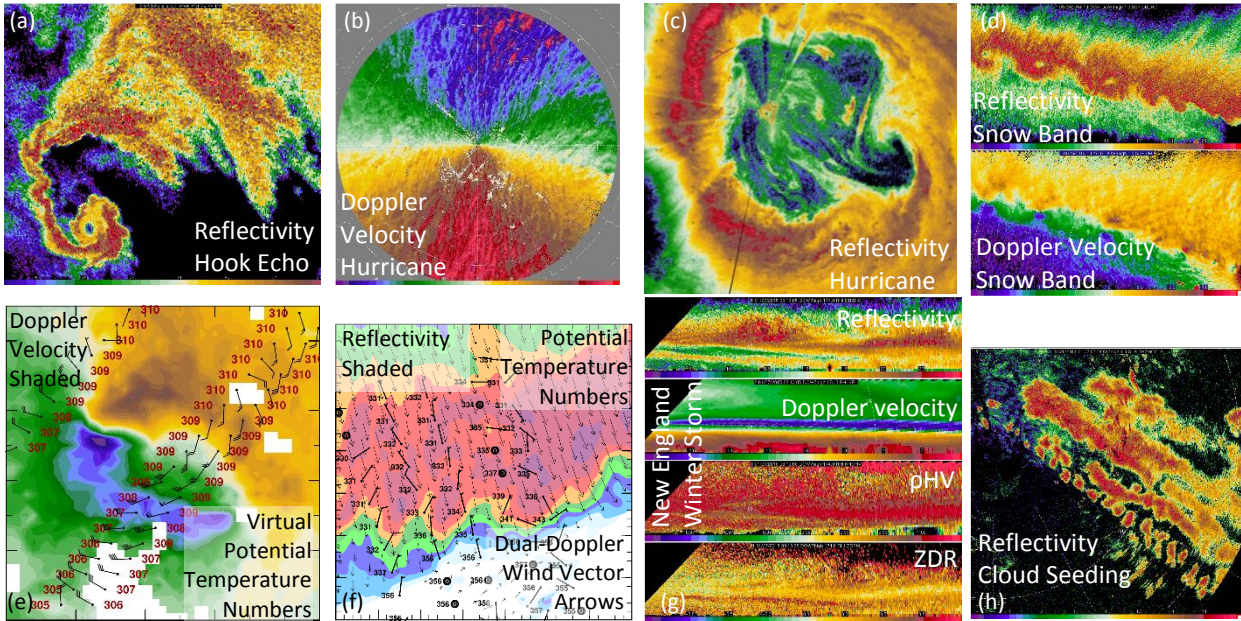


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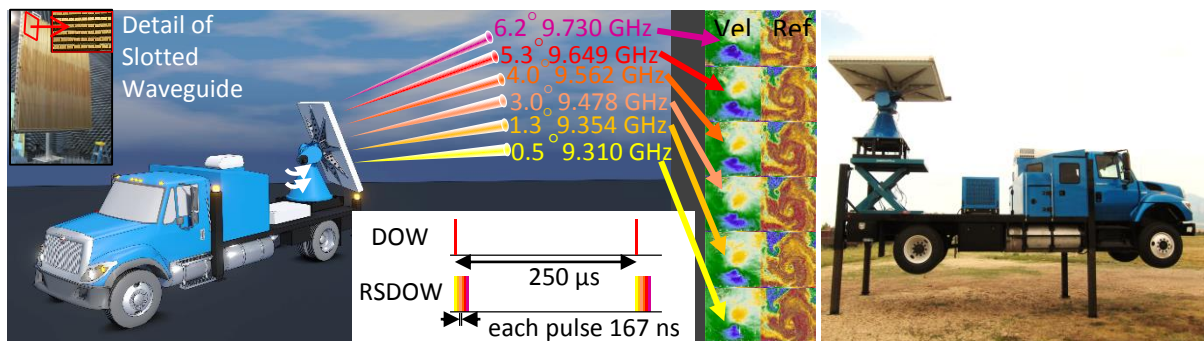
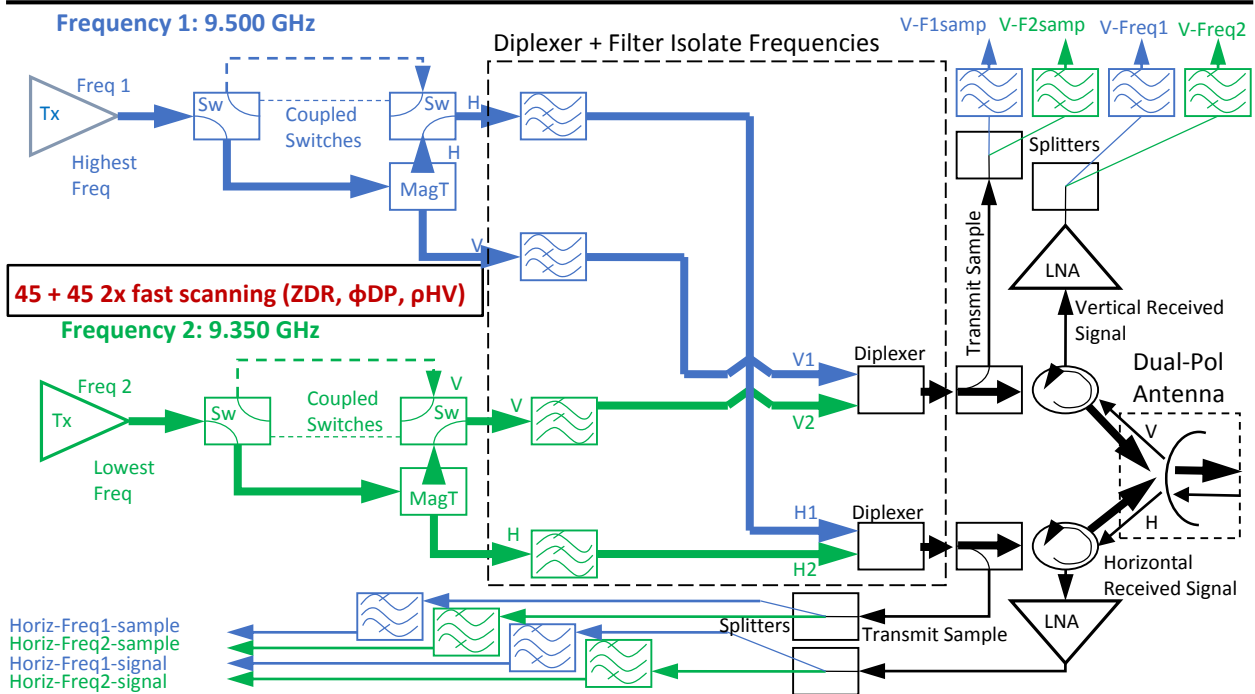
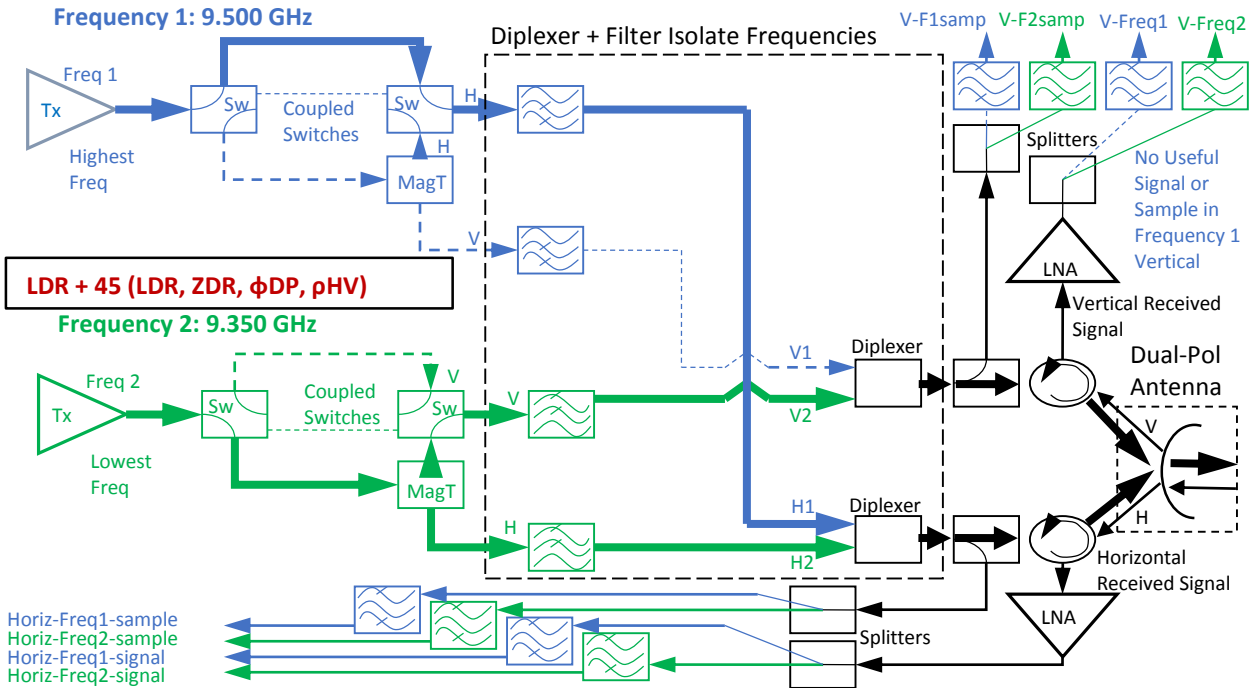


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Key to symbols: Tx (Transmitter), LNA (Low Noise Amplifier), Filter, Sw (Switch), MagT (Magic-T Splitter), Circulator, Coupler

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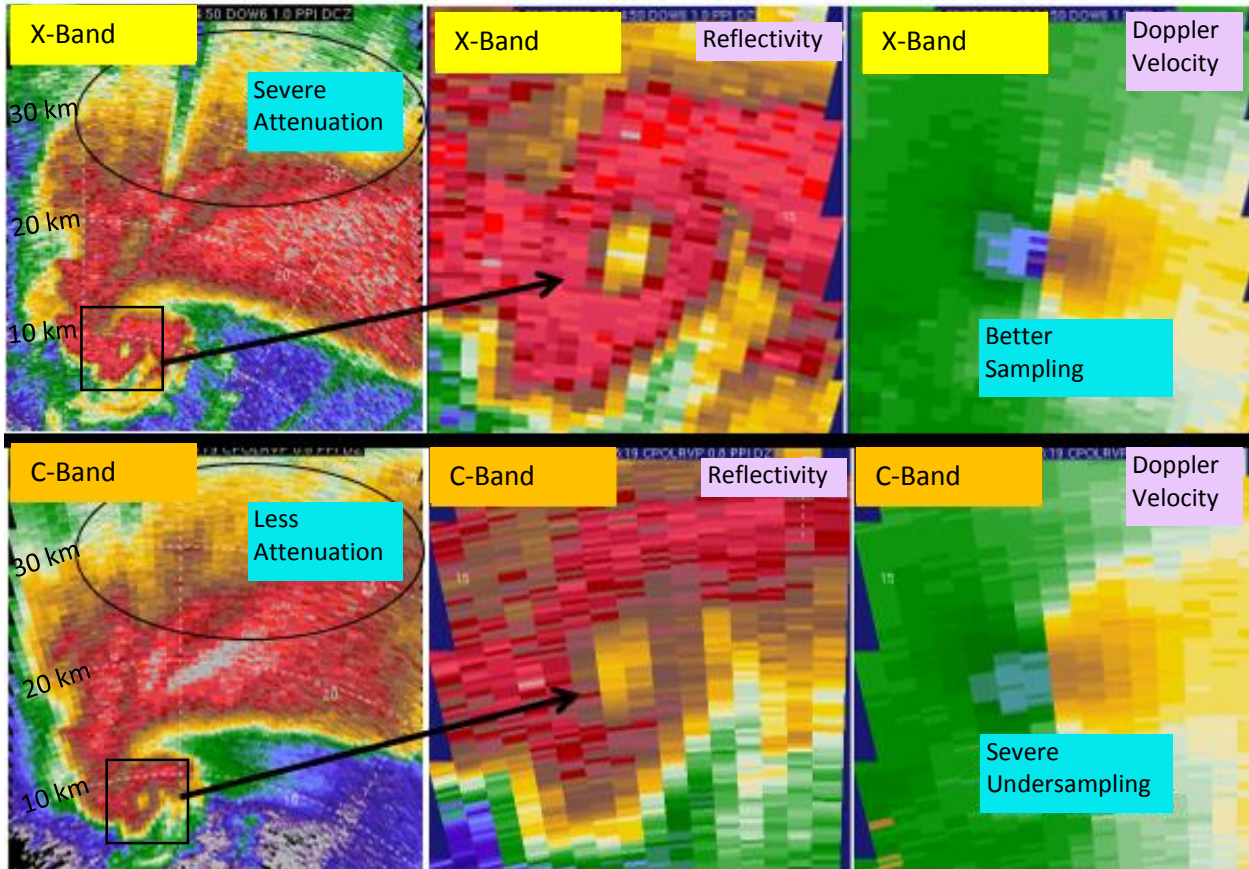


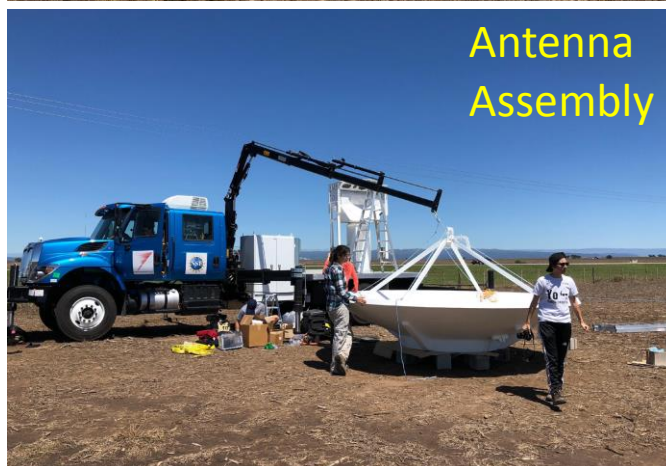
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Transport



Antenna
Lifting



Antenna
Assembly



Deployed

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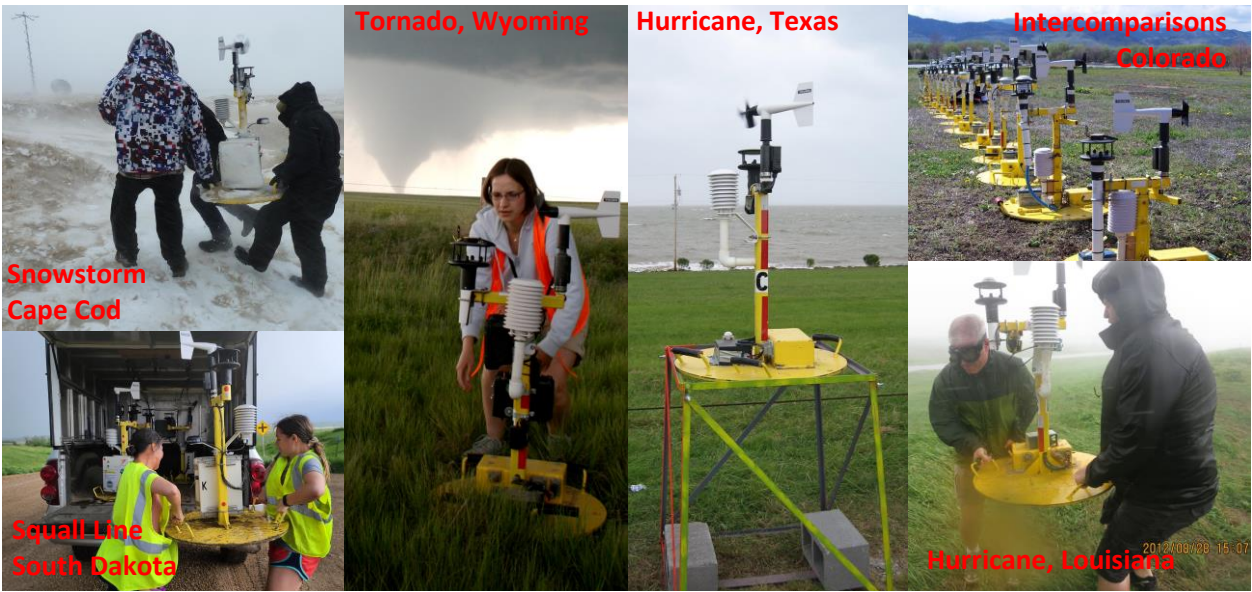


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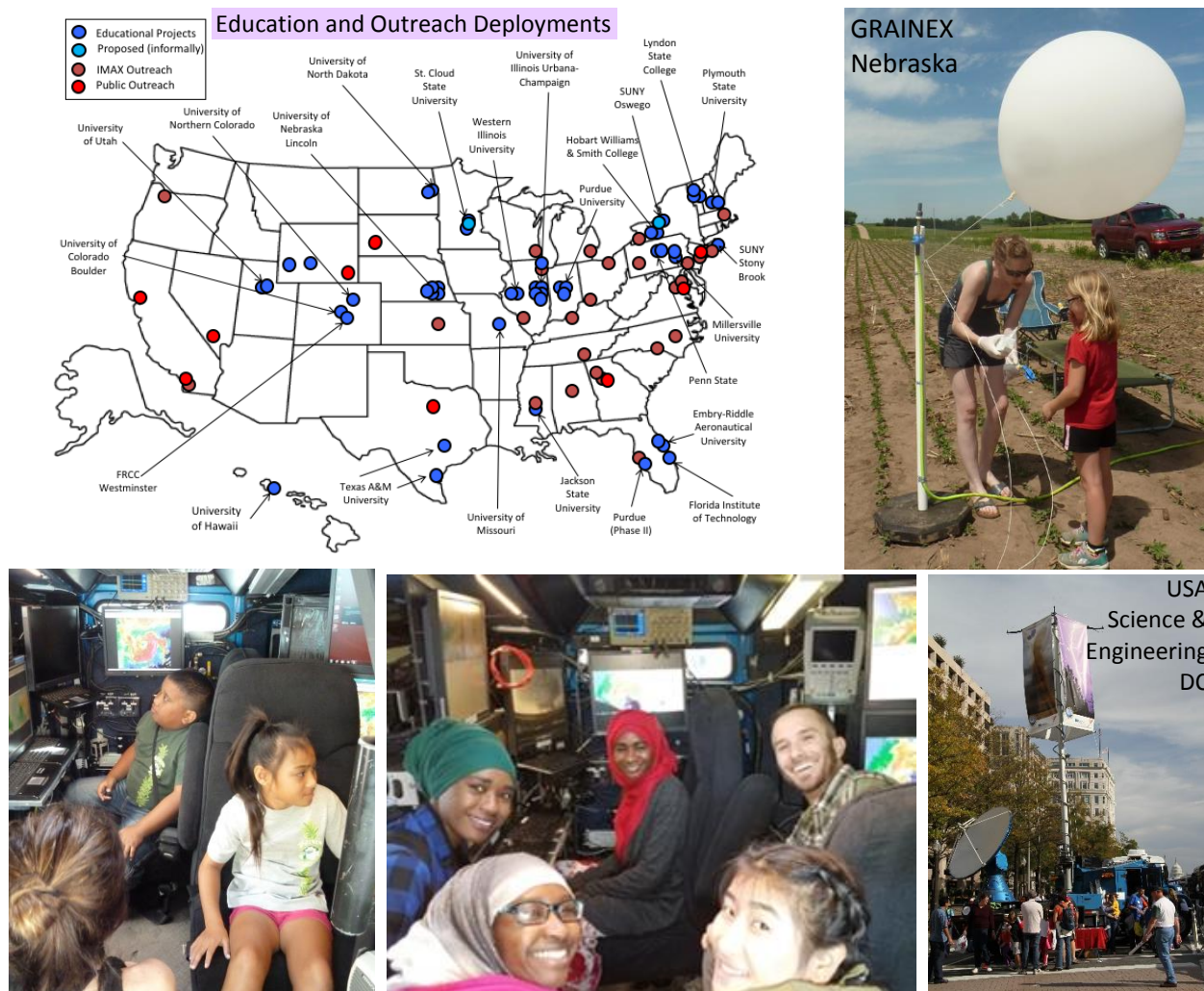


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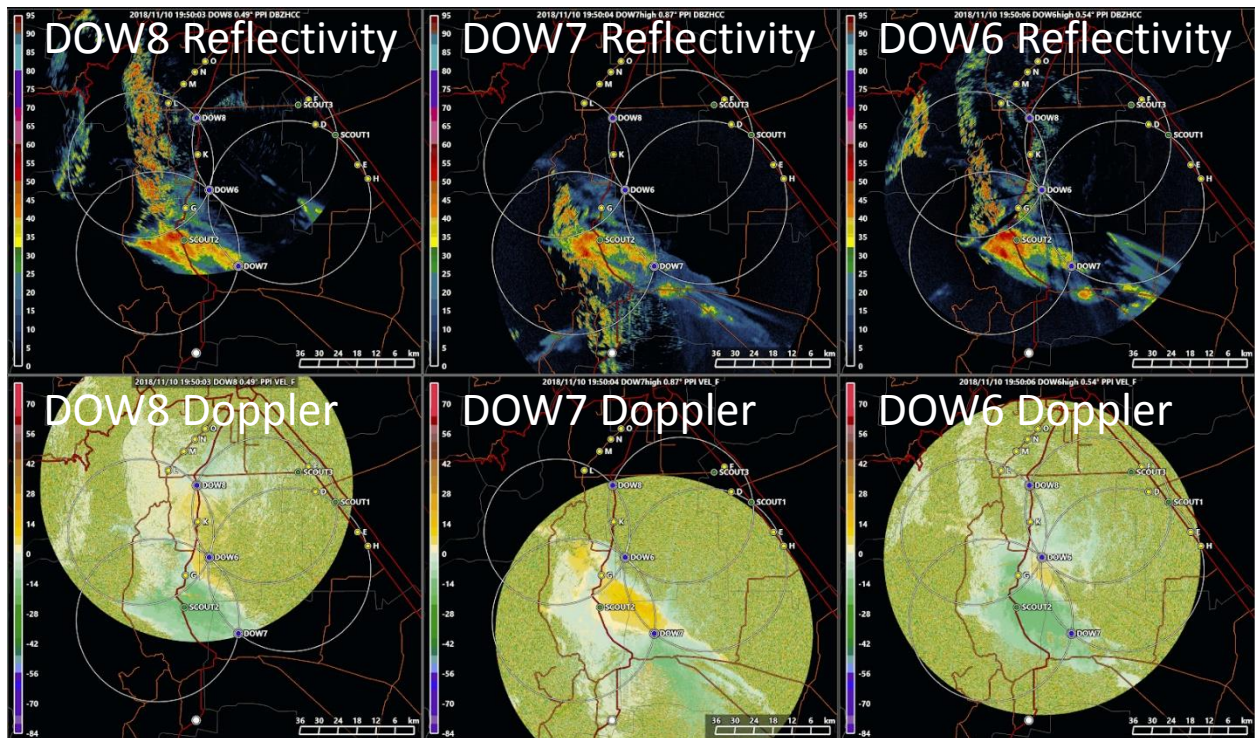


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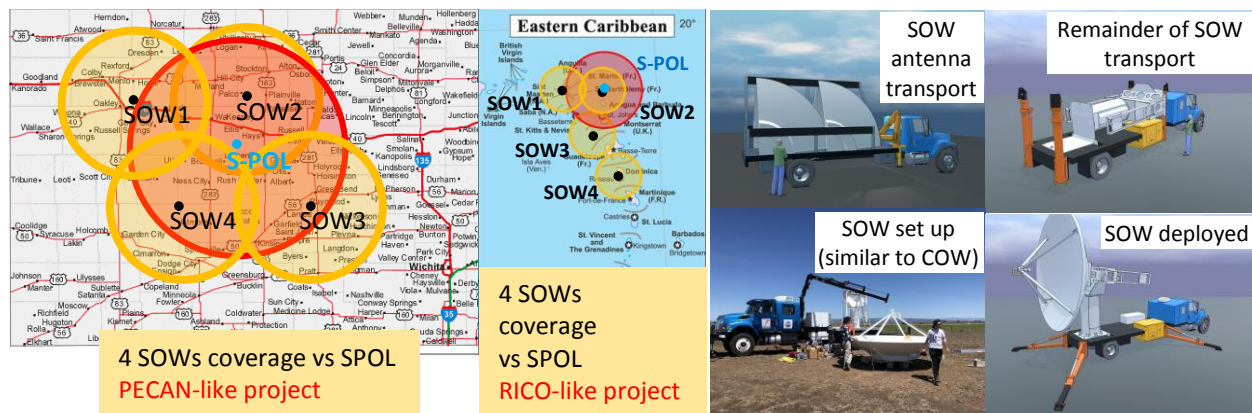


Figure 16. Comparison of SOWNET and SPOL radar coverage in hypothetical (left) PECAN- and (center) RICO-type studies. Red and orange circles enclose regions with < 1.7 km beam width (100 km range from S-POL, 67 km range from any of the SOWs). SOWNET provides greater surveillance area. Much of the yellow-shaded areas are within SOWNET multiple-Doppler vector wind coverage. (right) SOW set up is similar to COW's, requires ~ 6 hours, and much quicker and less expensive than larger S-band radars.

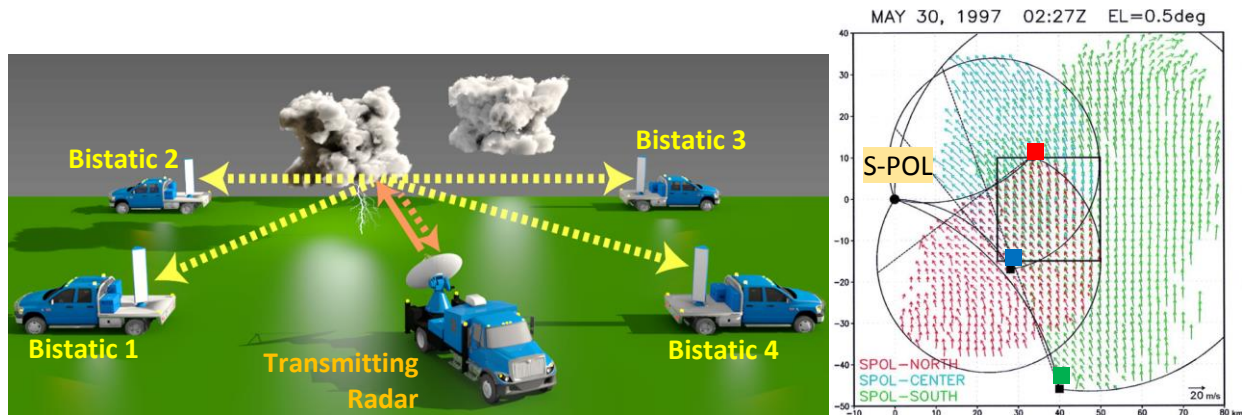


Figure 17. (left) Schematic mobile bistatic network with four receiving antennas and one transmitting radar. The transmitting radar is, in this example, a DOW or SOW, but can be a stationary radar (e.g., S-POL). The four receiving antennas are on the back of pickup trucks, but can be deployed similarly to Pods. The transmitting and receiving radars can be moved like MMs to optimize coverage and vector wind retrievals as phenomena move/evolve. As the DOW/SOW transmits and scans, the pulses in its narrow radar beam (orange arrow) are scattered from hydrometeors, dust, etc. Some of that scattered energy (dashed yellow arrows) is received by the passive antennas, as well as the by the DOW/SOW antenna (dashed orange arrow). Three-dimensional vector wind fields are calculated from these various Doppler measurements. (right) An example of vector wind retrievals from a bistatic network. In this example, there was one transmitting radar (S-POL) and three bistatic receivers (solid squares). The colored vectors depict the retrievals using data from the north (red), central (blue), and southern (green) bistatic receivers. Arcs depict the bistatic dual-Doppler lobes with the transmitting radar. The square outline encloses an overdetermined analysis domain. (Image adapted from Satoh and Wurman 2003).