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2DVD Data Revisited: Multifractal Insights into Cuts of the Spatiotemporal Rainfall Process

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1**Title: 2DVD data revisited: multifractal insights into cuts of the spatio-temporal rainfall**

2**process.**

3

4Authors:

5Auguste Gires^{(1)*}, Ioulia Tchiguirinskaia⁽¹⁾, Daniel Schertzer⁽¹⁾, Alexis Berne⁽²⁾

6(1) U. Paris-Est, Ecole des Ponts ParisTech, LEESU, Marne-la-Vallée, France

7(2) Ecole Polytechnique Fédérale de Lausanne, Laboratoire de Télédétection

8Environnementale, Lausanne, Switzerland

9* Corresponding author : auguste.gires@leesu.enpc.fr; +33 1 64 15 36 48 ; Ecole des Ponts

10ParisTech, LEESU, 6-8 avenue Blaise Pascal, Cité Descartes, Champs sur Marne, 77 455

11Marne-La-Vallée Cedex 2

12

13Abstract

14 Data collected during 4 heavy rainfall events that occurred in Ardèche (France) with
15the help of a 2D Video-disdrometer are used to investigate the structure of the rain drops
16distribution in both space and time. A first type of analysis is based on the reconstruction of
1736-m height vertical rainfall columns above the measuring device. This reconstruction is
18obtained with the help of a ballistic hypothesis applied to 1 ms time step series. The
19corresponding snapshots are analysed with the help of Universal Multifractals. For
20comparison, a similar analysis is performed on the time series for 1 ms time step, as well as
21time series of accumulation maps of N consecutive recorded drops (therefore with variable
22time steps).

23 It turns out that the drop distribution exhibits a good scaling behaviour on the range
240.5 – 36 m during the heaviest portion of the events, confirming the lack of empirical
25evidence of the widely used homogenous assumption for drop distribution. For smaller scales

26 drop positions seems to be homogeneously distributed. The notion of multifractal singularity
27 is well illustrated by the very high resolution time series.

28

29

30 **1) Introduction**

31

32 Rainfall is extremely variable over wide range of scales both in space and time. It has
33 become rather usual to characterize this behaviour with the help of scaling properties, and
34 more recently multifractals (see Lovejoy and Schertzer 1995, Schertzer et al. 2010 for
35 reviews). This framework is physically based in the sense that it is more than a simple tailored
36 statistical framework. Indeed it relies on the cascade process concept which was introduced to
37 reflect the scale invariance properties of the Navier-Stokes equations that govern atmospheric
38 dynamics. It is assumed that the unknown equations governing rainfall inherit these properties
39 of scale invariance (Schertzer and Lovejoy 1987, Hubert et al. 1993). Since the advent of this
40 framework in the 1980s, ample empirical evidence have established its relevancy on scales
41 ranging from few minutes to decades in time and hundreds of meters to planetary size in
42 space (Lovejoy et al. 2008). Some authors reported not a single scaling regime but various
43 ones separated by breaks; typically at few minutes and few days in time and few kilometres in
44 space. Various types of data have been used; rain gauges (de Lima and de Lima 2009, de Lima
45 and Grasman 1999, Fraedrich and Larnder 1993, Ladoy et al. 1993, Olsson 1995, Tessier et al.
46 1996), disdrometers (de Montera et al. 2009, Gires et al. 2014), weather radars (Gires et al.
47 2011 2012, Nykanen and Harris 2008, Tessier et al. 1993, Verrier et al. 2010), satellite with
48 TRMM data (Lovejoy et al. 2008) and even numerical outputs of climate simulations (Royer
49 et al. 2008) or meso-scale models (Gires et al. 2011).

50 The highest resolutions mentioned before are rather coarse with regards to the mm
51scale down to which atmospheric turbulence - the embedding field of rainfall - is known to
52exhibit scaling behaviour (see Anselmet et al. 2001 for a review). Hence the need to
53investigate more precisely the minimum spatio-temporal scales down to which scaling is
54observed in rainfall fields. Very few studies have analysed this, mainly because of the lack of
55rainfall data at these scales. Mandapaka et al. (2009) observed on lidar data scaling on the
56range 1 - 512 s in time and 2.5 - 320 m in space. Lilley et al. (2006) and Lovejoy and
57Schertzer (2008), using few 3D snapshots of an 8 m³ volume with most of its drops
58(Desaulnier-Soucy et al. 2001), reported a scaling behaviour down to few tens of cm with a
59dependency on the turbulence intensity and drop size. Lovejoy and Schertzer (1990) or
60Gabbella et al. (2001) using large (~ m) sheets of chemically blotted paper also found a
61scaling behaviour down to almost drop scale but these results have been disputed (Jameson
62and Kostinski 1998). In this paper we suggest to investigate more in depth the spatio-temporal
63(3 dimensions in space and 1 dimension in time) features of rainfall fields down to drop scale
64using data collected by a 2D video-disdrometer denoted 2DVD hereafter (see Kruger and
65Krajewski 2002, for a precise description of the device's functioning), deployed in the
66Ardèche region (South-East of France) in the framework of the HyMeX campaign (Ducrocq
67et al. 2014), in an innovative way. Indeed this device has been extensively used as a reference
68in comparison with other rainfall measuring ones (Krajewski et al. 2006, Tokay et al. 2013),
69or to investigate drops and more generally hydrometeor shape (Battaglia et al. 2010, Cao et al.
702008, Thurai and Bringi 2005) and size (Thurai et al. 2011) distribution features, but not to
71address this issue of the spatio-temporal structure of rainfall process at drop scale. More
72precisely vertical, horizontal and temporal cuts of rainfall fields are either obtained or
73reconstructed with the data provided by a 2DVD and investigated with the help of multifractal
74techniques.

75 A related issue is whether drops are homogeneously distributed in space and time.
76 Scaling laws are incompatible with a homogenous distribution (Poisson statistics), but it
77 remains a debated topic. It has mainly been discussed in time by analysing drop counts over
78 various time steps. Most authors have reported deviations from Poisson statistics also not
79 necessarily attributing them to an underlying scaling behaviour; Kostinski and Jameson
80 (1997) used 1 min drop counts by Joss-Waldvogel disdrometer (1967) to most likely
81 invalidate a Poisson framework during heavy rainfall periods (more than 27 drops / min), and
82 confirmed this with 1 s (corresponding to few meters) counts computed with 15 min of 2DVD
83 data (Jameson and Kostinski 1999), noticing that larger drops are more correlated over longer
84 coherence time. Uijlenhoet et al. (1999) also observed deviations from Poisson statistics with
85 35 min of 10 s time step disdrometer data (~ 6500 drops), but found that the discrepancies are
86 only due to small drops (with diameter smaller than 1.1 mm) which basically do not influence
87 rain rates or reflectivity which are related to higher order moments of the drop size
88 distribution. At the inter-event scale (4 months of data) Lavergnat and Golé (1998) observed a
89 power law decrease of the duration between the observations of two consecutive drops with a
90 disdrometer, which is incompatible with Poisson statistics. Hence in this paper we suggest to
91 also tackle this issue by systematically comparing (when possible!) our results with those that
92 would have been obtained with homogeneously distributed drops. Such methodology was
93 already employed in Lilley et al. (2006) and Jameson and Kostinski (1998).

94 The collected data is presented in section 2 along with the basic ideas underlying the
95 multifractal framework. Section 3 describes the analysis of snapshots of reconstructed 36 m
96 high vertical columns of air above the device with all its drops. The high temporal resolution
97 of the measuring device is used in section 4 to study 1 ms time step series (over the 11x11 cm²
98 sampling area of the device). Drop accumulation maps (therefore with varying time steps, but
99 for the same sampling area) are analysed in section 5.

100

1012) Data description and multifractal framework

102

1032.1) Data description

104 The data used in this paper were collected with the help of a 2DVD (Kruger and
105Krajewski 2002). The 2DVD provides detailed information about the geometry and the fall
106velocity of the particles falling through its sampling area of about $11 \times 11 \text{ cm}^2$, by means of two
107perpendicular high-speed line cameras (with a pixel size of about 0.2 mm and a time
108resolution of about 1ms). From the two reconstructed side views of each raindrop, the shape
109and equivolume diameter are retrieved (assuming the rain drops are oblate spheroids). The
110two cameras being shifted in the vertical by about 6.5 mm, the fall velocity of each particle is
111directly measured. The same raw data will be used to generate three types of representation
112and analysis in the following sections: vertical reconstructed columns, high resolution time
113series and small scale accumulation maps. Methods used to obtain each cut of the underlying
114spatio-temporal rainfall representation are included in separated, dedicated section to facilitate
115the reading of the paper.

116 The device was installed in Le Pradel, Ardèche, France (see Fig. 1) during the fall
1172012 and 2013 in the framework of the HyMeX project (Ducroq et al., 2014). The considered
1182DVD is the low version (with reduced wind disturbance). A number of rainfall events were
119collected, and the two heaviest ones (in terms of 5-min rain rate) for each fall have been
120selected for the present study. Their main features are summarized in Tab. 1.

121

1222.2) Multifractal framework

123 The basic principle of the multifractal framework is briefly reminded. For more details
124refer to the recent review by Scherter and Lovejoy (2011). Multifractals are used to

125characterize and also simulate geophysical fields extremely variable over a wide range of
126spatio-temporal scales which also exhibit long range correlation. It basically relies on the
127concept of multiplicative cascades. Let us denote ε_λ such a field at resolution $\lambda (=L/l)$
128defined as the ratio between the outer scale L of the phenomenon and the observation scale l .
129The field at a given resolution λ is obtained from the field at the maximum resolution Λ by
130averaging it over pixels of resolution λ .

131 Let us first introduce in a rather intuitive (but less rigorous mathematically) way the
132notion of multifractal fields with the help of the concept of fractal dimension. A is a
133geometrical set embedded in a space of dimension d (for instance $d = 1$ for time series and $d =$
1342 for maps) and N_λ the number of non overlapping d -dimension boxes of size l needed to
135cover A at resolution $\lambda (= L/l$, where L is the outer scale). If the set is fractal then we have:

$$136 N_\lambda \approx \lambda^{D_F} \quad (1)$$

137where D_F is the fractal dimension of A .

138 The geometrical set corresponding to the portion of a field ε_λ above a given threshold
139exhibits fractal features that can be quantified with the help of a fractal dimension. The
140decreasing dependency of this fractal dimension with regards to the considered threshold
141reflects the need of multiple fractal dimensions to characterize the field. In a more rigorous
142mathematical way the threshold is replaced by the scale invariant notion of singularity but the
143underlying idea remains the same.

144

145 More precisely if a field is scaling then its power spectra E is a power-law with respect
146to the wave number k :

$$147 E(k) \approx k^{-\beta} \quad (2)$$

148Where β is the spectral slope. A larger β reflects a weaker correlation.

149 Spectral analysis basically corresponds to a statistical analysis of the moment 2 of the
 150field. In the multifractal framework all the moments are used to fully characterize the
 151variability across scale. The statistical moment of order q at a given resolution scales with the
 152resolution:

$$153 \langle \varepsilon_\lambda^q \rangle \approx \lambda^{K(q)} \quad (3)$$

154Where $K(q)$ is the moment scaling function. In the specific framework of Universal
 155Multifractals (UM), which correspond to the stable and attractive limits of nonlinearly
 156interacting multifractal processes (i.e. a multiplicative generalization of the central limit
 157theorem), $K(q)$ has the following analytical expression :

$$158 K(q) = \frac{C_1}{\alpha - 1} (q^\alpha - q) + Hq \quad (4)$$

159which only depends on three parameters having a strong physical meaning (Schertzer and
 160Lovejoy 1987 1997):

161- H , the degree of non-conservation, which measures the scale dependency of the mean
 162field. $H=0$ for a conservative field, and can be either positive or negative corresponding to a
 163fractional integration or differentiation respectively of a conserved field;

164- C_1 , the mean intermittency co-dimension, which measures the mean sparseness of the field,
 165i.e. how concentrated is the mean field. A homogeneous field fills the embedding space and
 166has $C_1=0$, $0 \leq C_1 \leq d$ where d is the dimension of the embedding space (a greater C_1 could
 167theoretically exist but it would correspond to fields almost surely null everywhere)

168- α ($0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$), the multifractality index, which measures the variability of the intermittency,
 169i.e. its dependence with respect to the considered level of activity. When $\alpha=0$, it means that all
 170activity levels exhibit the same intermittency reflecting a fractal field.

171

172

173The various parameters are related by the following equation from which H is usually
174estimated:

$$175 \beta = 1 + 2H - K(2) \quad (5)$$

176

177

1783) Analysis of reconstructed vertical rainfall columns

179

1803.1) Ballistic reconstruction of a column

181

182 As already explained, the 2DVD provides for each drop a direct measurement of the
183fall velocity and of the horizontal position within the 11x11 cm² sampling area of the device.
184Assuming the validity of the hypothesis of vertical ballistic trajectories, i.e. that both remain
185constant during the last seconds of fall and equal to the ones measured near ground surface, it
186is possible to reconstruct the trajectory of each drop. Achieving this for all the drops enables
187to reconstruct the whole rainfall field drop by drop on a column above the device (Fig 2.a).
188The height of the column studied in this paper is 36 m.

189 The ballistic assumption is extremely coarse. Indeed by assuming an underlying
190laminar flow, we neglect all interactions with the turbulent wind field and notably shear
191effects, which have an influence on drops velocity, especially for small ones. Neglecting these
192effects tend to worsen the quality of the scaling we can observe with the help of this
193reconstruction. Drop population dynamics (e.g. coalescence in case of collisions, break-ups)
194is also ignored although wind tunnels studies have shown that raindrop interactions can occur
195on scales below 36 m (Cotton and Gokhale 1967). Possible effects on the small drop tendency
196to collide or not, due to small scale turbulence self induced by the aerodynamic forces exerted
197on the larger falling raindrop (for large raindrops the Reynolds number is of the order of few

198thousands) is also not taken into account. However, despite its limitations, this reconstruction
199can yield some preliminary insight before considering more complex reconstruction, e.g. with
200randomized trajectories taking into account turbulence effects as well as coalescence and
201breakup

202 Finally, the column is divided into 8192 boxes of 4.3 mm height, the two horizontal
203dimensions being the horizontal sampling area ones' i.e. ~ 11 cm (Fig. 2.b). Although the
204minimum inter-drop distance (defined as the drop concentration to the power $-1/3$) observed
205for the studied events is roughly 4 cm (and usually much larger), the height of the boxes is
206chosen much smaller so that results can be compared in the vertical and in the horizontal
207dimension (see section 5). For each box we consider the sum of the p -th power of the volumes
208 V_i of the drops (computed with help of the equivolume diameter D_i estimated by the 2DVD
209device) contained in this box:

$$210 \chi_p = \sum V_i^p \quad (6)$$

211As suggested by Lilley et al (2006) by varying p various physical quantities are represented;
212for instance χ_p for p equal to 0, 1, 7/6 and 2 is respectively proportional to the drop
213concentration, Liquid Water Content (LWC), rain rate (assuming a fall velocity proportional
214to the square root of the drop diameter), and radar reflectivity (which is nearly proportional to
215the 6-th power of the diameter; in the Rayleigh scattering regime). This yields a spatial 1D
216(vertical) field. An example of vertical evolution of the LWC (basically χ_p for $p=1$) within the
217column during the heaviest portion of the 09-24-2012 event is displayed in Fig 2.c. Such
218reconstructed snapshot of the vertical column above the 2DVD is done every second. Before
219going on, it should be mentioned that small drops are not fully represented with the 2DVD
220since measurements for drops with an equivolume diameter smaller than 0.3 mm are
221unreliable (Tokay et al 2013). It means that small moments are likely to be biased.
222Nevertheless, the quantities of interest studied in this paper are for $p>1$ (moment of the

223diameter greater than 3) meaning that this limitation does not have a strong influence on the
224discussed results.

225 In order to compare the observed properties of the fields with the ones that would be
226obtained if drops were homogeneously distributed, pseudo-synthetic fields are also generated.
227To obtain a realization for a given column, the drop centres are re-assigned with the help of a
228random, uniform distribution, whereas the drop sizes are unchanged. The vertical evolution of
229the LWC obtained for a realisation is displayed Fig. 2.c.

230

231

2323.2) Scaling behaviour

233

234 Statistical scaling properties are obtained by ensemble averaging (each field sample is
235first independently upscaled, i.e. its resolution is degraded by averaging over adjacent pixels,
236then raised to various power q , and finally the ensemble average is performed to obtain an
237estimate of the theoretical moments and its scaling behaviour -Eq. 3-) over 60 consecutive
238column snapshots (1 min in physical time). The spectral analysis of the field (Eq. 2 in log-log
239plot) is displayed in Fig. 3.a for the 60 time steps starting on 24 September 2012 at 02:17
240UTC with $p = 1$ (i.e. LWC estimate). This is a very intense period of the storm where there
241are 5573 drops in the column on average (which corresponds to roughly 13 000 drops per m^3)
242and the rain rate is approximately 180 mm.h^{-1} . The rain rate is computed as the average rain
243rate measured at the level of the 2DVD device (bottom of the column). It is only an indication
244of the current rainfall intensity since some of the drops present in the studied 60 consecutive
245snapshots do not reach the device during this minute, meaning that consistent comparison is
246not possible. We mention it simply because rain rates are much more often used in
247hydrometeorology than drop concentrations.

248 The reconstructed fields exhibit a scaling behaviour from 36 m down to roughly 1 m
249($\log k/k_0 \sim 3$ with $k_0=1\text{Hz}$). For smaller scales the spectra is flat as it would be for a white noise
250resulting from randomly homogeneously distributed drops. These findings are confirmed by
251the Trace Moment (TM) analysis (Eq. 3 in log-log plot) displayed Fig. 3.b for the whole range
252of available scales and on Fig. 3.c with a zoom on larger scales. It appears that the
253reconstructed fields exhibit a scaling behaviour (the coefficients of determination r^2 of the
254linear portions are all greater than 0.99) up to approximately $\lambda = 64$ which corresponds
255roughly to 0.5 m, a value rather similar to the one found in the spectral analysis. This
256confirms, on an extended range of scales and using more data, the results of Lilley et al.
257(2006) who observed scaling from 0.4 m to 2 m on few snapshots of 8 m^3 volume with most
258of its drops. This suggests that drops are distributed in a scaling manner down to 0.5-1 m and
259below they are homogeneously distributed, which is in agreement with the findings of
260Lovejoy and Schertzer (2008).

261 Similar analyses are also performed on the synthetic fields with homogeneously
262distributed drop positions. The spectra remains flat on the whole range of scales (Fig 3.d) and
263the TM analysis curves (solid lines on Fig. 3.b – 3.c) do not exhibit any scaling regime (i.e.
264linear portion). More quantitatively, over the scaling regime identified for reconstructed
265fields, the r^2 for the homogeneous fields are typically equal to 0.80. The curves for the
266smallest scales (roughly 4 mm - few cm) are very similar between reconstructed and
267homogeneous fields which confirms the results of the spectral analysis for this range of
268scales. For larger scales, deviations between reconstructed and homogeneous fields are visible
269with a transition regime before the scaling regime of the reconstructed fields (0.5-36 m). Very
270similar results are found for other realisations of homogeneously distributed fields showing
271that these results are statistically meaningful, i.e the Poisson hypothesis of a homogeneous

272 drop distribution, which is commonly used to model rainfall, is not correct for this minute of
273 the storm. Indeed it does not enable to reproduce the observed structure of drop distributions.

274 An analysis of the other minutes of this storm and the others lead to qualify this
275 statement. Indeed it appears that a scaling behaviour is retrieved only when there are enough
276 drops in the column (typically more than 2000). To illustrate this, Fig. 4.a displays TM
277 analysis for 60 s starting at 02:23 UTC for the same 09-24-2012 event (415 drops on average
278 in the column, approximately 30 mm.h⁻¹). In this case with less numerous drops the linear
279 portions on the TM curves tend to disappear and furthermore the spectra for large scales
280 flattens with β estimates closer to zero, suggesting a behaviour more in agreement with a
281 homogeneous distribution of drops. To get an idea of the number of drops needed in the
282 vertical columns to observe scaling Fig 4.b displays a scatter plot of the r^2 of the TM curve for
283 $q=1.5$, which is taken as an indication of the quality of the scaling, vs. the average number of
284 drops in the studied vertical columns for the 09-24-2012 event (60 consecutive snapshots are
285 used for each point). Similar plots are obtained for the other events. It appears that scaling is
286 visible only when there are more than 2000-3000 drops in the column, which is the case for
287 roughly 500 snapshots (8 min) during the studied events. In order to get a similar threshold
288 with rain rates, Fig. 4.c displays the rain rate computed vs. the average number of drops in the
289 studied vertical columns for the same minute. The limitations of the comparison between
290 these two quantities are visible on this figure especially for extreme minutes for which the
291 relation is not linear. The indicative rain rate threshold to observe scaling in the vertical
292 columns would be of roughly 75 mm.h⁻¹.

293 For the vertical columns exhibiting a scaling behaviour, we find for scales ranging
294 from 35 m to 0.5 m $\alpha \sim 1.8-2$, $C_1 \sim 0.005-0.01$ and $\beta \sim 1 - 1.4$ (slightly smaller than the values
295 found by Lovejoy and Schertzer, 2008). With the help of Eq. 5 it leads to $H \sim 0-0.2$. H is
296 small enough so that it is relevant to directly implement the TM analysis on the vertical series

297and not on their fluctuations. It is timely to mention that only a limited portion of the scaling
298regime is observed with this data set since there is only a ratio of 64 between the maximum
299and the minimum resolution of the scaling regime. It means that the reliability of the
300multifractal exponent estimates is not very high and their values should not be over-
301interpreted. We will therefore only briefly discuss them. The UM parameter estimates for the
302actual field are slightly different from the ones found by Lilley et al. (2006), with greater α
303and smaller C_1 , and the storm to storm variability is also less pronounced but it could be due
304to the fact that here the estimates are discussed only for the most intense portion of the events,
305whereas Lilley et al. performed their analysis only on a limited number of volume snapshots
306from various storms and not necessarily obtained during the peak in rain intensity.

307 The UM parameter estimates are slightly different with especially a C_1 smaller than the
308ones usually reported at coarser resolution ($\alpha \sim 1.7-1.9$, $C_1 \sim 0.05-0.2$) by authors who studied
309rainfall field in space (Mandapaka et al. 2009, Verrier et al. 2010, Gires et al. 2013). Although
310these authors studied rainfall fields horizontally which makes direct comparison harder (due
311to a possible anisotropy between the vertical and horizontal directions), this hints at a possible
312break between two scaling regimes, a small scales one and a large scales one, located at few
313tens of meters or few hundreds of meters. Very high resolution data on larger areas would be
314needed to confirm this.

315 The UM estimates are also different from those found for wind turbulence with again
316greater values of α and smaller values of C_1 (Lazarev et al. 1994, Fitton et al. 2011). It would
317mean that there is no trivial link between the drop distributions and the wind turbulence field
318in which they are embedded and from which they presumably inherit the scaling behaviour up
319to a given (high) degree, contrary to the ballistic assumption that was used for the column
320reconstruction and could partially explain the observed differences with wind turbulence

321parameters. Development of new instruments providing the size and 3D velocity of each rain
322drop over few tens of m^3 would be required to properly address this issue.

323 With the UM parameter estimates found, one can expect sampling limitation and
324divergence of moment (see Schertzer and Lovejoy 2011 for more details) to affect estimates
325of $K(q)$ only for q greater than 10, meaning that for lower statistical order the observed
326scaling is not spurious.

327 The same analyses were performed with other values of p or only considering drops
328with an equivolumic diameter D belonging to a given interval. Taking a greater p or only
329larger drops yields similar results as expected since greater moments enhance the influence of
330large drops in Eq. 6. There is no significant difference in the scaling for drops up to 2.5 mm
331(the average number of drops per column remains significant) or p smaller than 3. A tendency
332of α to decrease and C_1 to increase with larger drops is noticed. For drops with $D > 2.5$ mm or
333 $p > 3$, the scaling is lost and the discrepancies with the Poisson framework are much less
334pronounced. An explanation (Lilley et al. 2006) is that large drops decouple from atmospheric
335turbulence, from which they inherit the scaling behaviour, at a larger scale than small drops. It
336means that, although the ballistic assumption on the studied scales is likely to be more valid
337for larger drops, on the limited range of available scales (the maximum range in 35m) it will
338not be possible to observe scaling behaviour. Another limitation to the study of large drops
339with this data set is the very low number of drops in the reconstructed columns (typically less
340than 80 for the period with the heaviest rainfall available) which leads to less reliable
341statistics.

342

343

3444) **Rain rate time series with 1 ms time steps**

345

3464.1) Description of the data

347

348 The data provided by the 2DVD enables to compute a rain rate with time steps Δt of
3491 ms, given by:

$$350 R_{1ms} = \frac{\sum_i V_i}{S\Delta t} \quad (7)$$

351 Where the sum over the volumes V_i of the drops is now performed over all the drops that
352 passed through the sampling area S during Δt (1 ms here). Note that we consider a constant
353 sampling area (the maximum one) and do not take into account refinements with regards to
354 edge effects, which can be assumed of second order. This very high resolution rain rate was
355 computed for 35 min (2^{21} time steps) of the 09-24-2012 event and for 140 min (2^{23} time steps)
356 of the other events. The portion with the greatest cumulative depth was selected for each
357 event. Before going on, we should mention that authors are not advocating for the use of 1 ms
358 time step series for routine hydrological applications. Unfortunately, these series are likely to
359 suffer from strong sampling errors, see Frasson et al. 2011 or Jaffrain and Berne 2011 for an
360 illustration of this issue with standard occlusion optical disdrometers having much smaller
361 sampling area. Here we use this series to demonstrate that the multifractal notion of
362 singularity, mostly perceived at small scales, has also consequences at large scales.

363 The 1 ms rain rate time series is plotted Fig. 5.b for the 09-24-2012 event along with
364 the same series with 1 s time steps (Fig. 5.c) and the more classical 1 min time step (Fig. 5.d)
365 (i.e. as the average over 60000 consecutive time steps). The temporal evolutions of the
366 number of drops recorded (Fig. 5.a) and of the average mass weighed diameter (Fig. 5.e) per
367 ms is also displayed. Note that due to the high temporal resolution, the “average” is in fact
368 most of the time steps performed over a unique drop. Two striking features should be noted:
369 there are 96 % of zeros while the series was taken from what is commonly considered as a

370extreme rainfall event (this percentage ranges from 97 to 99 % for the other events), and the
371maximum rain rate (over 1ms) is of 60 000 mm/h which is a value much greater than what
372hydro-meteorologists are used to (this maximum ranges from 30 000 to 60 000 mm/h for the
373other events). These extremely high rain rates are due to the passing of several drops during
374the same ms; up to 14 during the 24 September event. Obviously, the diameter of the drops is
375also important, as it can be seen for the second peak (between minutes 7 and 10) of the event
376in Fig. 5.c which is not visible on the drop counts time series. From Fig. 5.e it appears that
377this second peak it is due to larger drops during this period. More standard values of rain rate
378are retrieved when averaging to the 1 min time steps.

379 These two features illustrate both the intermittency of the rainfall field and the notion
380of multifractal singularity, i.e. the fact that the rain rate is not point wise defined because it
381depends on the time interval over which it is estimated: it usually diverges when considering
382it for smaller and smaller intervals. Mathematically, it means that the rain accumulation is a
383singular measure with respect to the usual measure of time (i.e. the one dimensional Lebesgue
384measure). The need to properly deal with these two complex properties lead to the
385development of the theoretical framework of multifractals (see Schertzer and Lovejoy 2011
386for more details). In this framework the rain rate is expected to behave as:

$$387 R \approx \lambda^\gamma \quad (8)$$

388When positive, the singularity γ is the (algebraic) rate of divergence of the rain rate with the
389resolution. Here the singularity γ corresponding to the maximum peak occurring at about 5
390min (Fig. 5) is equal to 0.8, 0.8 and 1.5 for time steps of 1 ms ($\lambda=2.1 \cdot 10^6$), 1 s ($\lambda=2.1 \cdot 10^3$) and
3911 min ($\lambda=35$) respectively. The differences are due to the fact that there are several scaling
392regimes over these scales as will be shown in the next section. In order to emphasize this
393point on the whole time series, they are also displayed in Fig. 5 in a \log_λ scale.

394

3954.2) Temporal multifractal analysis

396

397 Figure 6 displays the spectral analysis and the TM analysis for the 10-23-2013 event
398 for which the total duration taken into account is 140 min enabling to study a 2^{23} length time
399 series (of 1 ms rain rates)! Such duration was chosen because it is the longest one enabling to
400 remain in the event and to have a series whose length is a power of 2 as it is needed for the
401 simplest TM analysis. Similar curves are obtained for the other events. The spectra does not
402 reflect a very good scaling behaviour and it seems that there is a scaling breakdown for the
403 frequency k roughly equal to 70 ($\log(k/k_0) \sim 4.2$ with $k_0=1\text{hz}$), which corresponds to 2 min^{-1}
404 (the breakdown is also at roughly 2 min^{-1} for the 09-24-2012 event, the series of which is
405 shorter). The coefficient of determination of the linear portion for large scales is weak (equal
406 to 0.68), hence the estimates of the spectral slope β are not reliable and will therefore not be
407 discussed. No spectral slope can be derived for smaller scales. On the TM analysis three
408 scaling regimes can be indentified: 140 min – few min (from 2 to 8 min according the event)
409 with a rather good scaling ($r^2 = 0.97\text{-}0.9$) -blue lines in Fig. 6.b- ; a transition regime in the
410 range few min – 32 ms with a rather bad scaling -red lines in Fig. 6.b-; and a very small scales
411 regime 32 ms – 1 ms with a good scaling ($r^2 = 0.99$) -green lines in Fig. 6.b-. The poor quality
412 of the scaling observed on the spectral analysis means that the results of the TM analysis
413 should not be “over-interpreted”. We observe similar scaling regimes to those reported and
414 discussed by Schertzer et al. (2012), i.e. the multifractal regime for 1 day – 7 min and the
415 fractal regime for 2 s – 1 ms, obtained with the help of a multifractal analysis by
416 Tchiguirinskaia et al. (2003) of an infrared optical spectro-pluviometer time series (Salles et
417 al. 1998).

418 For the small scales (32 ms – 1ms) we indeed find an index of multifractality α
419 roughly equal to zero meaning that the observed behaviour is monofractal. C_1 is in the interval

4200.7 – 0.85 and estimates are roughly equal to the fractal co-dimension of the time series which
421means that this regime simply reflects the passing of individual drops through the sampling
422area. Given the poor quality of the scaling, UM estimates are not computed for the medium
423scales corresponding to the transition regime. With regards to large scales, the UM parameters
424estimates for all the events are reported in Table 2. The values of α are no longer equal to zero
425meaning that an actual multifractal behaviour coming from the common influence of several
426drops is retrieved (contrary to what was observed for small scales). The strong variations
427according to the event are much greater, especially for α , than those expected if various
428realizations of the same process were analysed. It means that the UM parameters seem to
429depend on the event. The standard drop size distribution (DSD, $N(D)$) was computed for each
430event on average (not shown here) and it appears that the observed differences in the UM
431parameters are not related to DSD differences (especially to the thickness of the tail). There is
432for now no clear explanation for the physical process to which the UM parameter estimates
433differences could be attributed, and further investigations would be required to clarify this.

434 In order to be able to compare these results in time with those obtained on the vertical
435column in the previous section; one has to consider similar time scales. According to its size
436the duration taken by a drop to fall through the 36 m vertical column is between few seconds
437and few tens of seconds (observed drop velocity are between 0.5 and 10 m.s⁻¹). This range of
438scales corresponds to the middle regime for which there is no clear scaling behaviour. It might
439be due to the fact that the data is considered for the whole event and not only for the most
440intense portions as it is done for the spatial 1D analysis. In order to test this hypothesis a TM
441analysis was carried out considering only on the one minute long time series of the 09-24-
4422012 event. Successive minutes starting every 15 s (moving window) were considered during
443the event and the scaling was quantified on the range 2 s to 33 s which would corresponds to
444the regime observed in the vertical column. It appears that some minutes exhibit good scaling

445(with r^2 greater than 0.98) and other no (with r^2 smaller than 0.90) without any direct link with
446the corresponding rainfall intensities. This confirms the bad scaling observed on this range of
447scale with longer time series, and invalidates the tested hypothesis. It means that more
448investigations on the 3+1D structure of rainfall would be needed to properly link the results
449between the two types of analyses which are furthermore affected by the bias associated with
450the coarse ballistic assumption in this paper.

451

452

453**5) Rain drop accumulation analysis**

454

4555.1) 2D rain drop accumulation for a given number of consecutive drops

456

457 The aim of this section is to study the spatial distribution of the accumulation of a
458given number N of consecutive drops at ground level (more precisely at the height of the
4592DVD) over the sampling area of the device ($11 \times 11 \text{ cm}^2$). A 634×634 matrix corresponding
460to pixels seen by the 2DVD is created. To compute the pixel by pixel accumulation, the
461volume of a drop passing through the 2DVD is evenly distributed between all the pixels that
462are partially or totally obscured (information provided by the 2DVD), hence the unrealistic
463square shape of drops visible on the related figures. The drop accumulation is obtained by
464summing the contribution of N consecutive drops to yield either a 2D rain accumulation map
465or a 2D drop occurrence map. Various N (from 50 to 2000) were tested and yielded similar
466results. Finally a 512×512 pixels portion (a $9 \times 9 \text{ cm}^2$ area in the middle of the domain which
467enables to remove potential bias due to instrumental side effects) is extracted to carry out
468fractal and multifractal analysis. Figure 7 displays an example of a rain drop accumulation of
469150 consecutive drops during the 10-23-2013 event. As in section 3, each (natural) drop

470 accumulation map is compared with a homogenised version, i.e. a synthetic drop
471 accumulation map. This synthetic map is obtained by keeping the same drops with their size
472 and volume, but randomly homogeneously distributing their position over the sampling area
473 with the help of a uniform law. A natural drop accumulation and one of its homogeneous
474 versions are displayed in Fig. 7. Finally the duration needed to record N consecutive drops is
475 also retrieved and will be analysed.

476

477 5.2) Fractal and multifractal analysis

478

479 The box-counting technique (i.e. Eq. 1 in log-log plot) was applied to drop occurrence
480 accumulation maps to determine their fractal dimension. It is first applied to the drop centres,
481 and then to the pixels occluded by drops. Both are displayed in Fig. 8.a and 8.b for the 10-23-
482 2013 event with 150 drops per maps respectively. The numbers of selected pixels $N(\lambda)$ were
483 averaged over the ensemble of 1179 pictures recorded on a total duration of 12 h for each
484 resolution λ (Eq. 1). Very similar results are observed for the 4 other events and therefore not
485 shown here. Fig. 8 displays a plateau for scales smaller than approximately 12 mm ($\lambda \geq 8$), due
486 to the fact that the resolution of pixels is too high with respect to the number of drop centres.
487 For larger scales (23 – 92 mm, $4 \geq \lambda \geq 1$), the box-counting technique yields a fractal dimension
488, meaning that the drop centres are homogeneously distributed and filling the whole
489 embedding space. The disagreement with the result of Lovejoy and Schertzer (1990) who
490 recorded the position of 452 drops on 128 cm x 128 cm chemically treated blotting paper,
491 discussed and finally confirmed by Gabbella et al. (2001) seems to be merely due to the fact
492 that the scale of the sampling area is too small to reach one of the inhomogeneous regimes.
493 This is in agreement with the fact that the rainfall field exhibited a scaling structure down to
494 0.5 m and a homogeneous distribution for smaller scales (see Sec. 3)

495 When analysing the pixels occluded by drops and not only the distribution of drop
496 centres, similar features are retrieved for large scales, but for small scales two fractal
497 dimensions are obtained: respectively 1.1 in the range 23 mm – 1 mm ($4 \leq \lambda \leq 128$, red line in
498 Fig. 8.b) and 1.65 for scales smaller than 0.7 mm ($128 \leq \lambda$, green line in Fig. 8.b). This
499 disagreement with the homogeneity of the drop centres might be due to the variability of the
500 rain volumes (due the drops' sizes) that occurs over smaller scales.

501 A TM analysis was carried out on rain accumulation maps (not shown here). The main
502 results are that the observed scaling is very bad, and that the curves obtained by analysing the
503 random-position pictures are very similar. This is simply a confirmation that there is no clear
504 scaling regime for scales smaller than 9 cm which as already mentioned was expected from
505 the results of section 3.

506

507 5.3) Analysis of the distribution of duration needed for each picture

508

509 In this section, the durations needed to obtain N consecutive drops through the
510 sampling area are analysed. Figure 9.a displays the strong fluctuations of the series of these
511 durations for the 10-27-2013 event and $N=350$. The event lasted 9.3 hours with a total
512 number of series of N drops equal to 302. Figure 9.b displays the exceedance probability
513 distribution of the durations in a log-log plot, which exhibits a power-law tail (linear slope in
514 the log-log plot). This feature is opposed to Poisson statistics that yield exponential fall-off of
515 the probability distributions. For this event the power-law is visible for scales ranging from 30
516 s to 10 min. Larger scales are not taken into account since they correspond to inter-event
517 features rather than the intra-event ones which are accessible with the available data set. For a
518 more extensive study on inter-event analysis refer to Lavergnat and Golé (1998) who also
519 observed power-law behaviour in a slightly different context since they considered much

520 longer time series and $N=1$. The exponent of the power law is found roughly equal to 0.8-0.9
521 for $N=350$ and similar values are found for other N with a slight tendency to decrease with
522 increasing N (N ranging from 50 to 500, with steps of 50, were tested). The same power law
523 behaviour is also observed for the 10-23-2012 event. For the 10-26-2013 and 09-24-2012
524 events, the range of available durations does not enable to see the power law (especially true
525 for the 09-24-2012 event). For the 10-20-2012, the range of available duration is similar to the
526 one for the 10-27-2013 and 10-23-2013 events but the scaling is not very good as it was
527 already noticed while analysing the 1 ms time series.

528

529

530

531

532 **6) Conclusion**

533

534 In this paper 2DVD data of 4 rainfall events were analysed to grasp some insights into
535 the 3+1D structure of the rainfall field at the drop scale. Firstly, based on a ballistic
536 assumption, vertical 36 m high rainfall columns above the measuring device are
537 reconstructed. It appears that during the most intense portions of the events a good scaling
538 behaviour is retrieved on scales ranging from 0.5 m to 36 m. This inner scale seems to depend
539 on the drop size distribution and larger scale data would be needed to investigate more in
540 depth this dependency. These observations are incompatible with a homogeneous distribution
541 of drops. On the other hand for smaller scales the observations are in agreement with the
542 hypothesis of a homogeneous distribution of drops. Results show that integrated values (such
543 as number of drops or LWC) are well represented by UM simulations for heaviest rainfall
544 period on scales ranging from 0.5m to 36m. An interesting future perspective, that would

545require more investigations which are beyond the scope of this paper, would be to actually
546generate a rainfall simulator at drop scale which enables to reproduce observations. This
547simulator would need to be capable of integrating break-up and coalescence as well as small
548scale turbulence wind effect in order to overcome the limitations of the ballistic assumption
549used here. Results show that using a multifractal framework would be relevant, to design this
550rainfall simulator.

551 Secondly, 1 ms rain rate time series are analysed. With such resolution it is possible to
552actually grasp the underlying assumption of the multifractal framework that rainfall is
553extremely concentrated on small portions of time or space. The mathematical interpretation is
554that rain accumulation is actually a measure that is singular with respect to the usual space /
555time measures (Lebesgue measures). Two scaling regimes are confirmed with a transition in
556between. The first one for very small scales (1 ms – few tens of ms) is actually fractal and
557corresponds to rather individual drops. The large scale multifractal regime (few min, few tens
558of min) correspond to a kind of collective regime of drops and UM parameter values depend
559on the event. We found that multifractality index α ranges between 1 and 2 and the
560codimension of the mean intermittency C_1 between 0.2 and 0.5.

561 Thirdly, N consecutive drop accumulation maps observed by the measuring device are
562analysed. Fractal spatial analyses were carried out on the actual drop accumulation, as well as
563homogenised versions. Both yield very similar results and do not exhibit scaling features.
564This is due to the fact that the size of the sampling area (11 cm x 11 cm) is smaller than the
565inner scale of the scaling regime identified with the analysis of the vertical columns.
566Nevertheless, the distribution of the durations needed to record N drops, exhibits a power law
567tail, which invalidates the usual hypothesis of a Poisson distribution

568 The spatio-temporal structure of the rainfall field is investigated through the analysis
569of 1 D (vertical column, time series) or 2D (drop accumulations cuts of the spatio-temporal

570field. Further investigations would be needed to establish a rigorous link between the full
571underlying process and these cuts. This would enable to improve our representation of the full
5723+1D structure of the field with all its drops which is the ultimate goal. We showed that
573during heaviest rainfall period the commonly used Poisson hypothesis is not valid and results
574suggest that a framework relying on multifractals may help overcome some of current
575discrepancies. Finally it should be mentioned that this work has some strong consequences on
576the remote sensing of rainfall with weather radar for instance. Indeed radar rainfall retrieval
577algorithms usually assume that drops are homogeneously distributed within the scanned
578volume which is not necessarily the case especially during the most intense portions of
579rainfall events. This issue of non-uniform beam filling issue is experienced by radar analysts.
580Given the scale gap between the volume scanned by radar and the studied volume of the
581vertical column (at least a ratio of 10^6 between the volumes), it is difficult to be more
582affirmative, but it converges with studies of the speckle effect, due to coherent backscattering
583of inhomogeneously distributed drops, which underpinned strong biases in the rainfall rate
584estimates. Some theoretical investigations of this effect with the help of multifractals have
585already been carried out (Lovejoy et al. 1996, Schertzer et al. 2012), and further empirical
586analysis with the reconstructed columns could help to better quantify the actual consequences
587of this effect. The variability observed between consecutive snapshots of vertical columns
588(done every second in this paper) also suggests that the sampling uncertainty of radar data due
589to limited revisit time in the scanning strategies should be investigated more in depth. These
590two issues will be analysed in future work.

591

592

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733

734

735 **Figure caption list**

736

737 Figure 1: Picture of the installed 2DVD in Le Pradel, Ardèche, France

738

739 Figure 2: (a) Example of a reconstruction for a 26 cm vertical column; dimensions are in mm,
740 drops have been coloured according to size and their diameter has been multiplied by 4 to
741 improve visibility (b) Illustration of the 36 m x 11 cm x 11 cm reconstructed column divided

742 into smaller boxes. (c) Vertical evolution of the LWC (in g.m^{-3}) within the vertical column for
743 the reconstructed field (top in black) and simulated assuming homogenous distribution of
744 drop positions (bottom in red) for an instant of the 09-24-2012 event. The horizontal axis
745 corresponds to the box number (0: ground level, 8192: top of the reconstructed column).

746

747 Figure 3: (a) Spectral analysis of the vertical column snapshots for 60 seconds starting on 24
748 September 2012 02:17 UTC. (b) *TM* analysis of the same data (points) and the corresponding
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770 (right) for 150 consecutive drops during the 10-23-2013 event. Bottom: Same as Top but for a
771 homogenised version of the drop accumulation (see text for details). The colour scale is in
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776 on a total duration of 12h). (a) On the drop centres. (b) Considering all the pixels occluded by
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794**Tables**

795

Event	Approx duration (h)	Total depth (mm)	Maximum rain rate (mm/h)
09-24-2012	0.6	10.9	103
10-26-2012	20	20.4	45.9
10-23-2013	8	21.4	76.1
10-27-2013	6	10.6	76.9

796Table 1: Basic features of the studied events

797

798

Event	Studied duration (min)	Large scale range (min)	α	C_1
09-24-2012	35	35 – 2	1.95	0.21
10-26-2012	140	140 – 9	1.7	0.3
10-23-2013	140	140 – 2	1.3	0.3
10-27-2013	140	140 – 2	1.03	0.47

799Table 2: UM parameter estimates for large scales in the temporal analysis of 1 ms resolution

800time series for the 5 studied events.

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804**Figure list:**

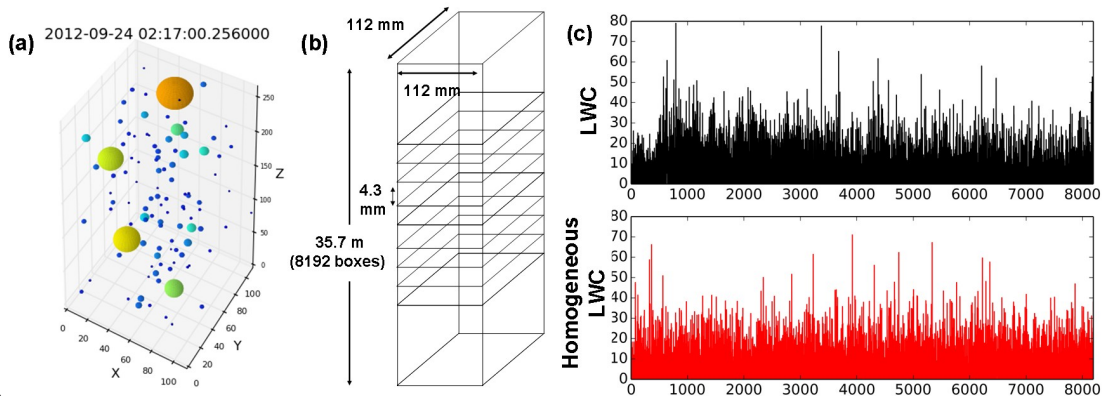
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807 Figure 1: Picture of the installed 2DVD in Le Pradel, Ardèche, France

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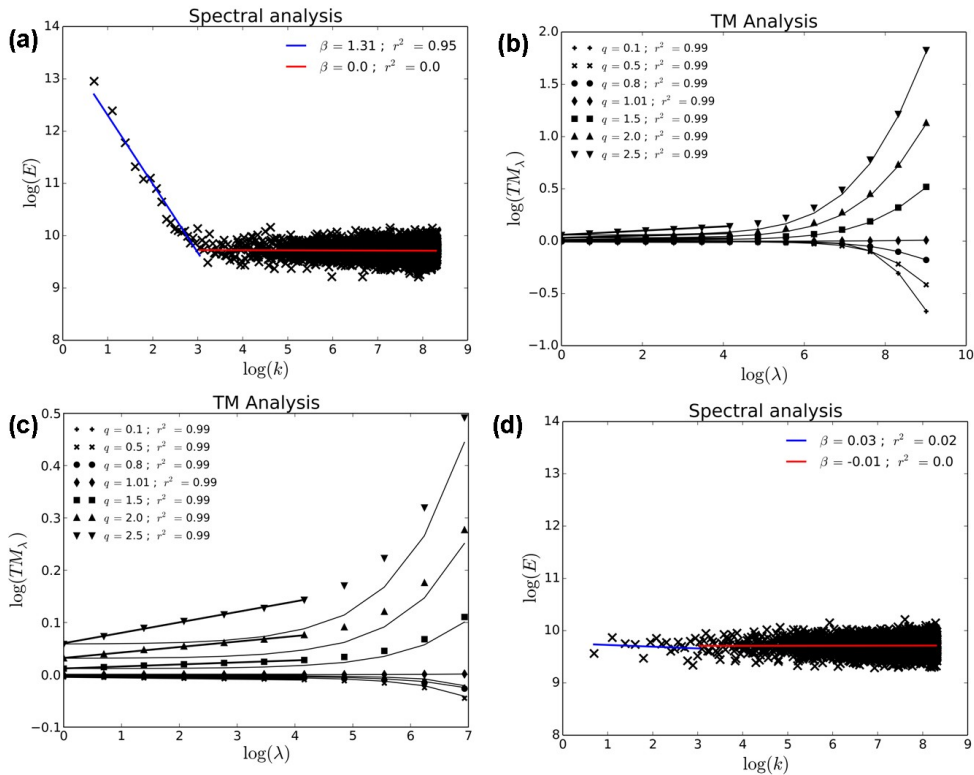


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810 Figure 2: (a) Example of a reconstruction for a 26 cm vertical column; dimensions are in mm,
 811 drops have been coloured according to size and their diameter has been multiplied by 4 to
 812 improve visibility (b) Illustration of the 36 m x 11 cm x 11 cm reconstructed column divided
 813 into smaller boxes. (c) Vertical evolution of the LWC (in $\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$) within the vertical column for
 814 the reconstructed field (top in black) and simulated assuming homogenous distribution of
 815 drop positions (bottom in red) for an instant of the 09-24-2012 event. The horizontal axis
 816 corresponds to the box number (0: ground level, 8192: top of the reconstructed column).

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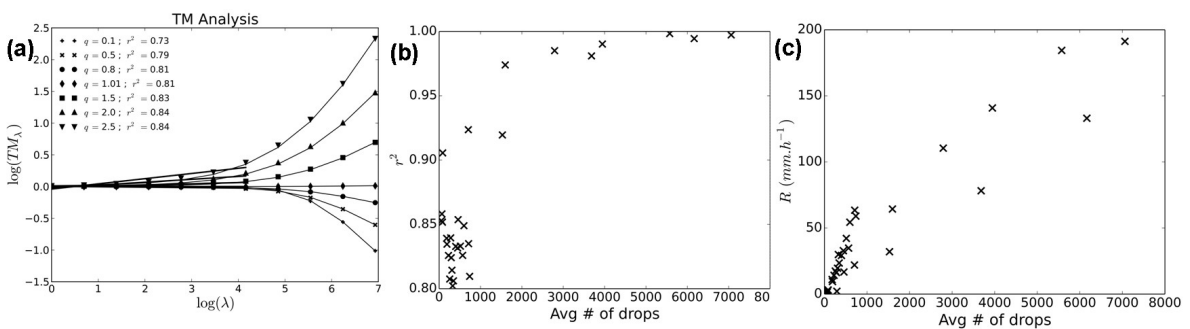
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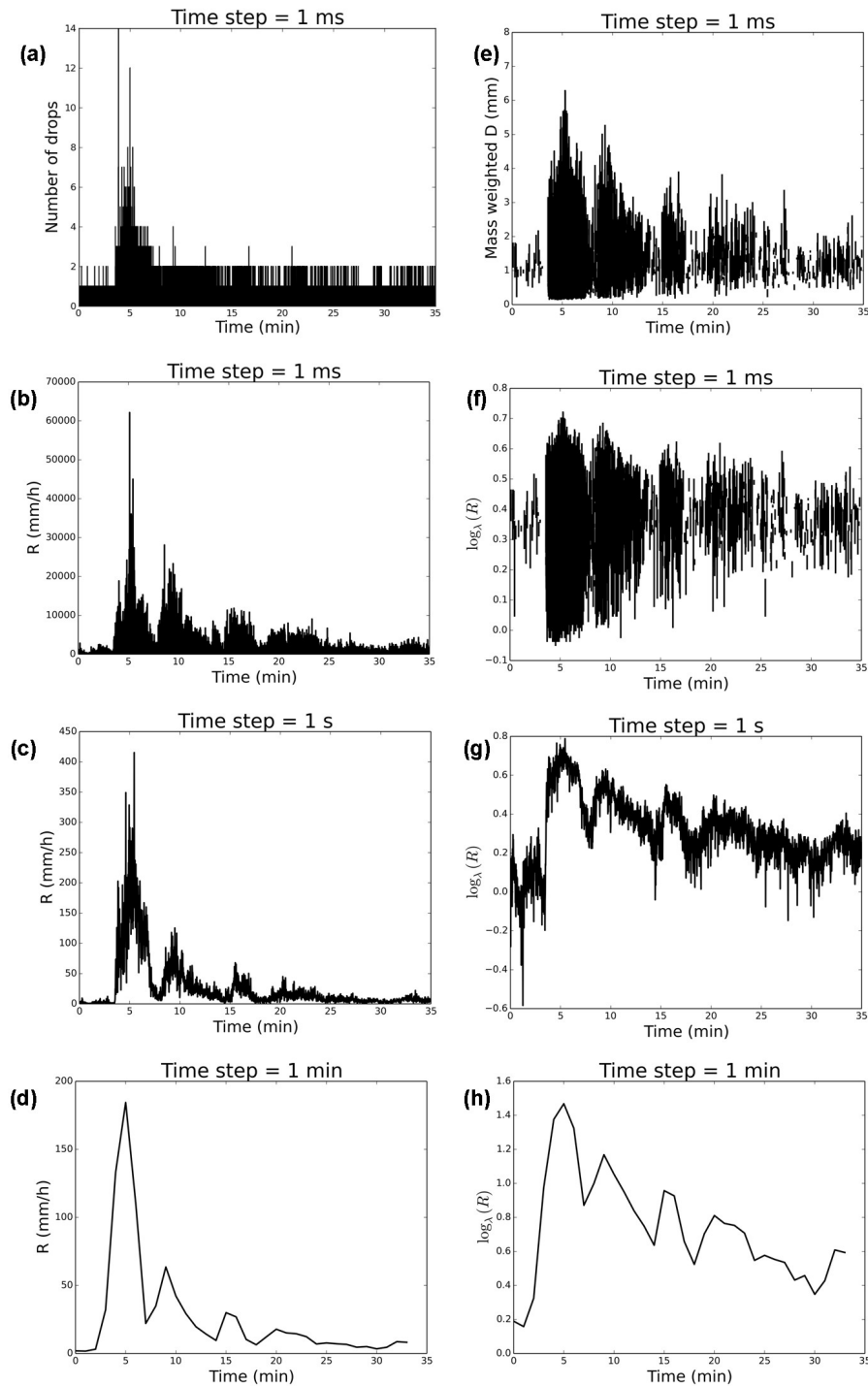
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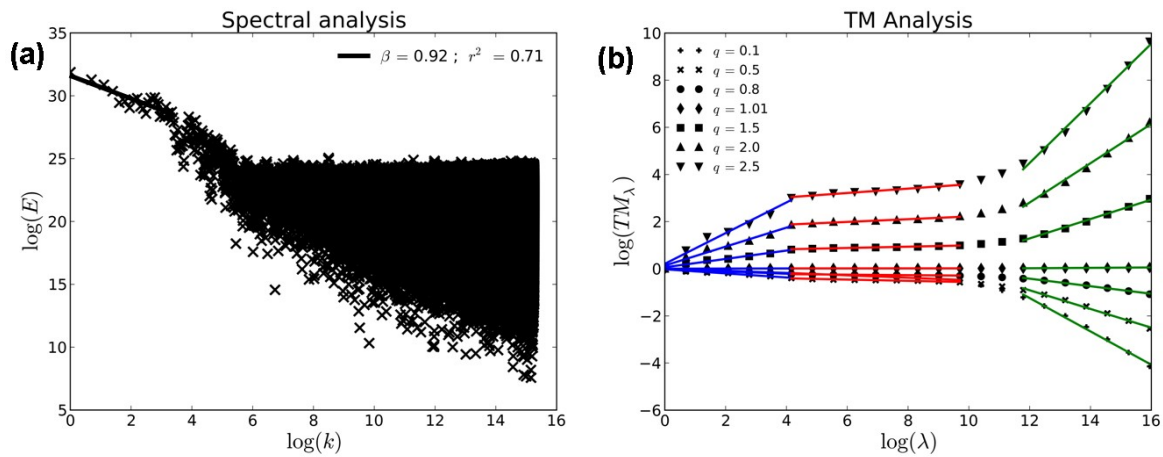
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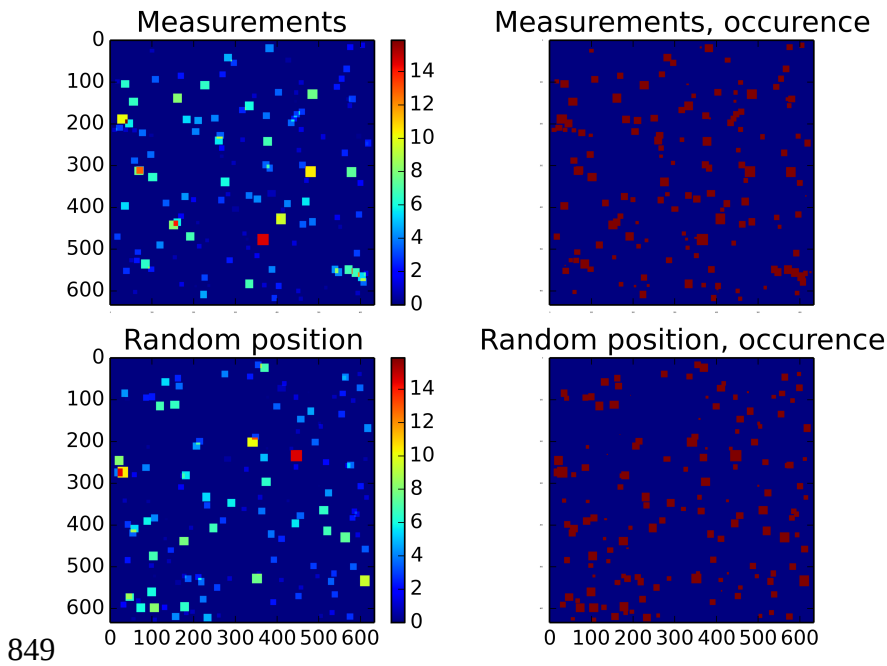


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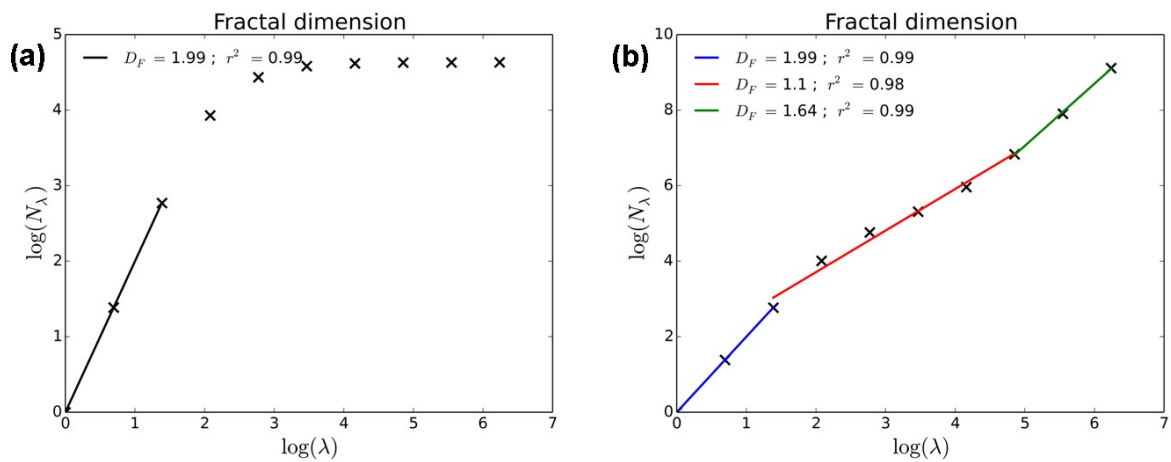
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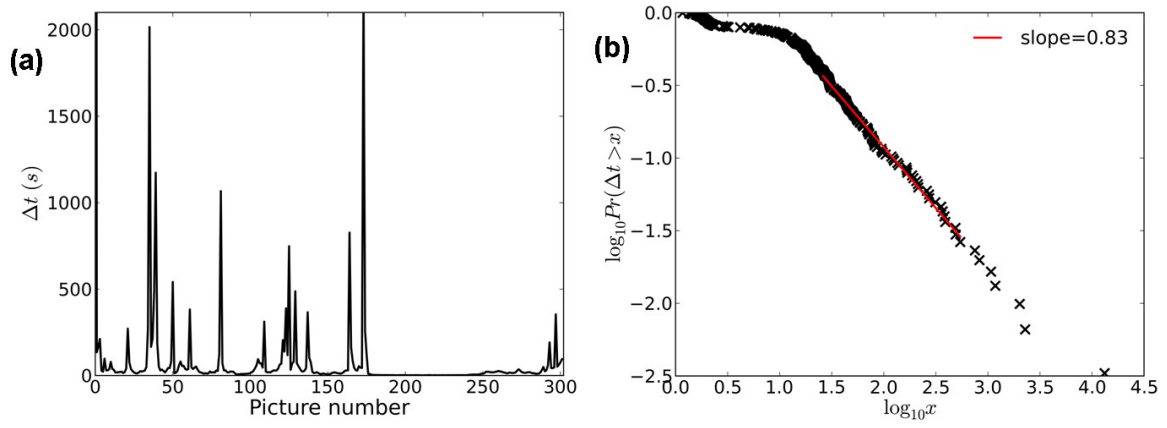


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