

Infrastructure Commission (INFCOM)

Standing Committee on Measurements, Instrumentation and Traceability (SC-MINT)

Expert Team on Quality, Traceability and Calibration (ET-QTC)

Calibration of Precipitation Instruments

Part-1: Introduction

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Content

Part 1:

- Introduction to this topic and historical information
- Concepts and definitions

Part 2:

- Methods of measurement
- Calibration of rain gauges

Part 3:

- Calibration example #1
- Calibration example #2

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- Calibration example #3
- Calibration example #4
- References and links

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Introduction to this topic

- water is the **basis of life** on earth
- people, plants and animals need **permanent access** to **drinking water**
- humans, and animals too, started damming up water very early on
- the search for water has always been an impulse for human migration
- in terms of quantity and intensity, they are of particular interest for
 - agriculture
 - transport and water consuming industry
 - water level forecasting on rivers
 - the dimensioning of wastewater treatment plants
 - and much industrial and social sectors

Historical information

4000 BC the first reference precipitation measurements in India

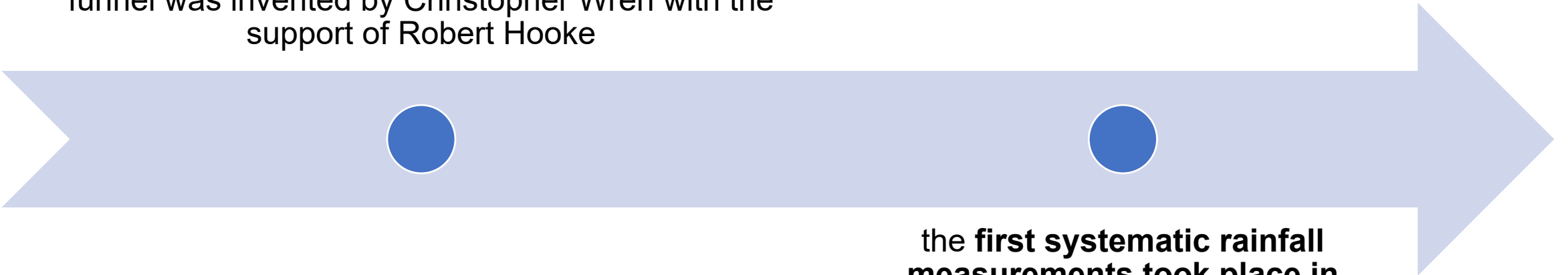
around 1250 precipitation depths were regularly measured and recorded in China, the first measurement network was established also for snow

in a Jewish writing describing life between 200 BC and AD 200 it is reported that 540 mm of precipitation was measured in a year

around **1440** the first rain gauge was standardised in Korea

Historical information

around **1662** the first tipping bucket rain gauge with funnel was invented by Christopher Wren with the support of Robert Hooke



the **first systematic rainfall measurements** took place in Europe in the 17th century

Historical information

the first Meteorological
Congress in Vienna
(1873) initiated the early
meteorological
requirements

1967 automated tipping
bucket rain gauge was
developed by Joss and
Tognini

the simple rain gauge
according to Hellmann was
invented in **1886** and it has a
collecting area of 200 cm²

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Concepts and definitions

WMO-No. 8 (2024 edition Vol I, Ch 6)

Definition of precipitation #1:

- **Precipitation is defined as the liquid or solid products** of the condensation of water vapour **falling from clouds**, in the form of rain, drizzle, snow, snow grains, snow pellets, hail and ice pellets; or falling from clear air in the form of diamond dust, that are large enough to fall as a result of gravity.
- **Solid precipitation in the form of snow is less dense than liquid precipitation** and more variable in terms of structure (for example, different ice crystal shapes, or habits) and related aerodynamics.
- **Solid precipitation in the form of hail and ice pellets is denser than snow** and the related aerodynamics are more similar to liquid precipitation.

Concepts and definitions

WMO-No. 8 (2024 edition Vol I, Ch 6)

Definition of precipitation #2:

- The total **amount of precipitation** that reaches the ground in a stated period **is expressed in terms of the vertical depth of water** (or water equivalent in the case of solid forms) **to which it would cover a horizontal projection of the Earth's surface.**
- **Precipitation intensity** is defined as the **amount** of precipitation **collected per unit of time, usually in minutes or hours.**

Concepts and definitions

WMO-No. 8 Recommendations #1:

- The size of **the collector orifice** is less critical for liquid precipitation, but **an area of at least 200 cm²** is required if significant amounts of solid precipitation are expected.
- Gauges with collecting areas of 200 cm² to 500 cm² are the most common, but users need to balance application requirements, budget and other operational considerations.

Concepts and definitions

WMO-No. 8 Recommendations #2:

- Shielded gauges **catch more** precipitation than their unshielded counterparts, especially for solid precipitation.
- Therefore, **gauges should be shielded either naturally** (for example, forest clearing) **or artificially** (for example, Alter, Canadian Nipher type, Tretyakov windshield) to minimize the adverse effect of wind speed on measurements of solid precipitation (Goodison et al., 1998; Nitu et al., 2018, see Part #4 References and links).



windshield according to Tretyakov

Concepts and definitions

WMO-No. 8 Recommendations #3:

- The most important requirements for a manual precipitation gauge are as follows:
 - (a) **The rim** of the collector should have a **sharp edge** and should fall away vertically on the inside, and be **steeply bevelled** on the outside;
 - (b) **The area of the orifice should be known to the nearest 0.5%**, and the construction should be such that this area remains constant while the gauge is in normal use;

Concepts and definitions

WMO-No. 8 Recommendations #4:

- (c) **The collector** should be designed to prevent rain from splashing in and out. This can be achieved if the vertical **wall is sufficiently deep and the slope of the funnel is sufficiently steep** (at least 45%).
- (d) The construction should be such as to **minimize wetting errors** achieved by choosing **the proper material** and minimizing the total inner surface of the collector;

Concepts and definitions

WMO-No. 8 Recommendations #5:

- (e) **The container** should have a narrow entrance and be **sufficiently protected from radiation** to minimize the loss of water by evaporation; it should use a **funnel** when collecting rainfall.

Precipitation gauges used in locations where only weekly or monthly readings are practicable should be similar in design to the type used for daily measurements, but with a container of larger capacity and stronger construction.

The collector needs to have sufficient capacity to hold the highest expected amount of precipitation between observations.

Concepts and definitions

- **The unit** of precipitation is linear depth, usually in **millimetres**, which is equivalent to **volume/area** or **mass/area** for liquid precipitation.
- For **manual** measurements, daily amounts of precipitation should be read to the nearest **0.2 mm** and, **if feasible**, to the nearest **0.1 mm**; weekly or monthly amounts should be read to the nearest 1 mm (at least).
- **Daily measurements of precipitation should be taken at fixed times** common to the entire network or networks of interest.
- **Amounts less than 0.1 mm** are generally referred to as a **trace amounts**.

Concepts and definitions

- **Precipitation intensity** is usually measured in **millimetres per hour** (mm h^{-1}); however, other time intervals may also be used (for example, 10- or 30-minute periods) depending on the purpose of the measurement (official certificates for insurance in case of damages, and so forth).

Concepts and definitions

- **solid precipitation** such as snow, hail or ice grains **shall be melted**
 - automatic devices usually have a heated funnel
 - or antifreeze is added to the collection container
 - or solid precipitation is melted manually

Concepts and definitions

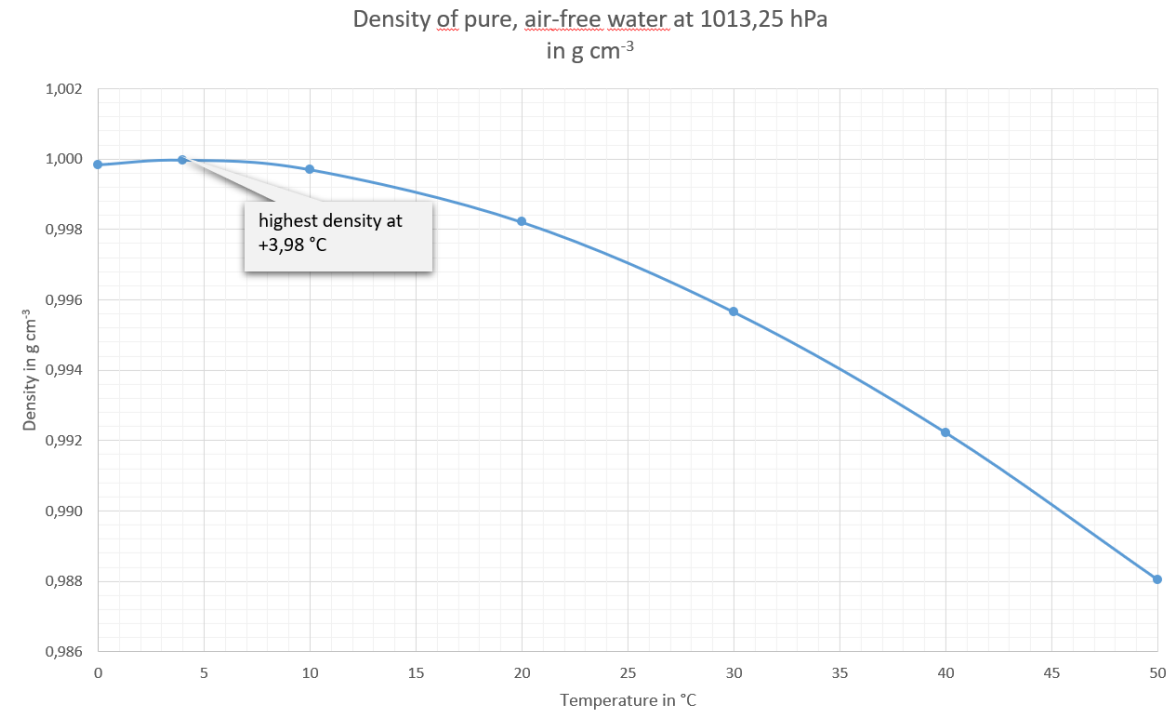
*In the following, the measurement of fallen water amount and intensity in **liquid** form (e.g. by melting) will be discussed.*



picture taken from Wikipedia: <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-sa/4.0/deed,en>
https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Schnee#/media/Datei:D%C3%BCsseldorf_Hofgarten_2009.jpg

Concepts and definitions

- it can be assumed that the water is relatively pure, as it is the result of evaporation and condensation effects
- at 3.98 °C and 1013.25 hPa pure, air-free water has a density of $\frac{0.999975 \text{ g}}{\text{cm}^3}$
- but the density is influenced by
 - temperature of water
 - purity of the rain water
 - density of the condensation core
 - air-freeness of water
 - particles may have been collected and changed the density



Concepts and definitions

- in reality, no one knows the true density of water and for the reason of simplicity it is assumed that the density is almost equal to

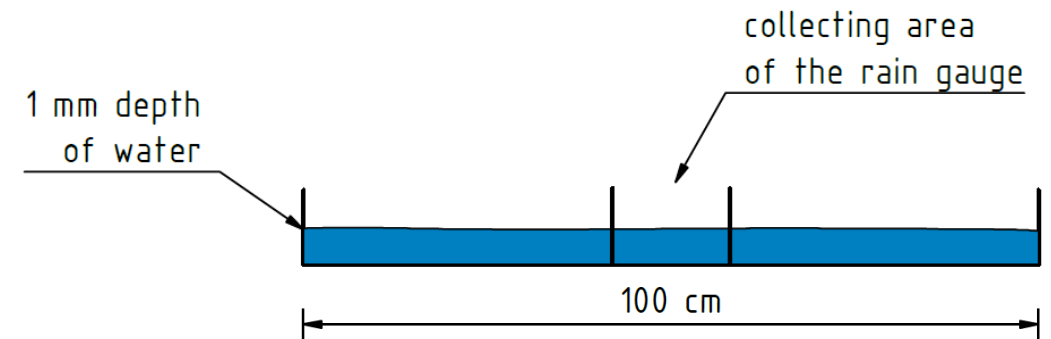
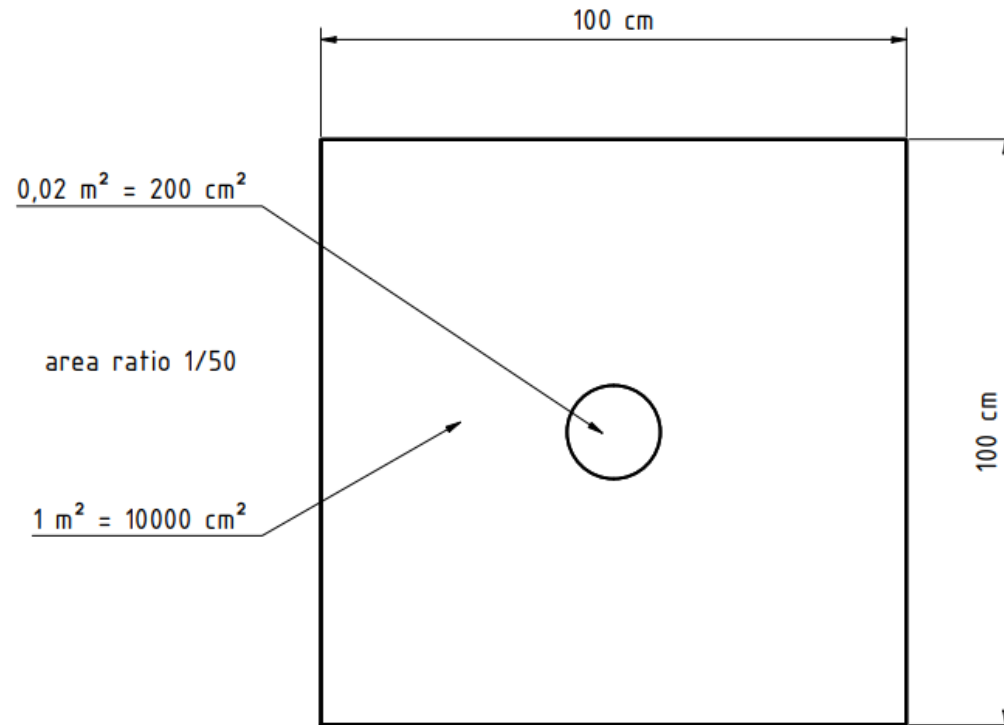
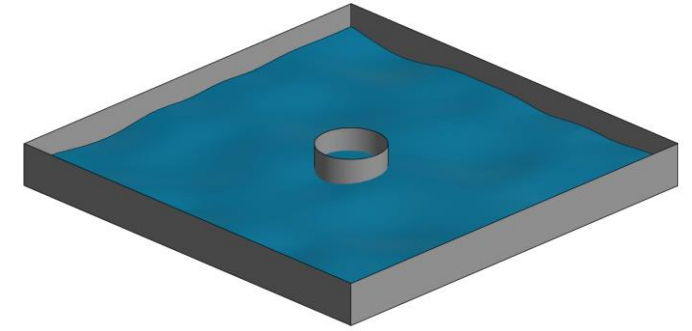
$$\approx 1 \frac{g}{cm^3}$$

- in case of water it is usually assumed that

$$1 \text{ cm}^3 \approx 1 \text{ ml} \approx 1 \text{ g}$$

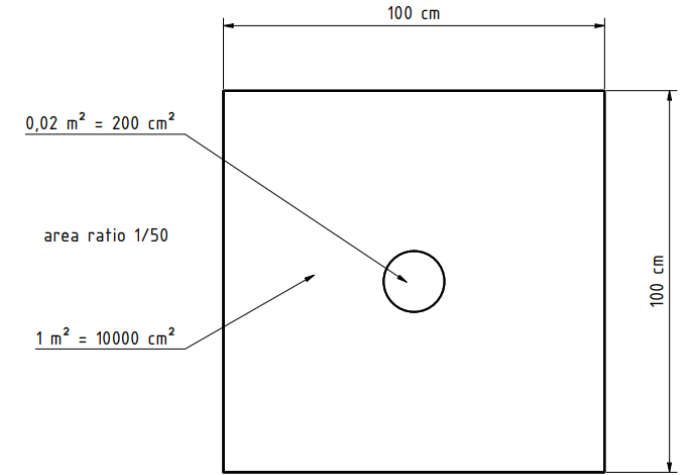
Concepts and definitions

- as already mentioned, precipitation depth of 1 *mm* corresponds to a liquid quantity of 1 *litre* over 1 *m*² of ground area



Concepts and definitions

- volume = depth of water x area



the area is one square metre

$$V = h * A =$$

$$0.1 \text{ cm} * 100 \text{ cm} * 100 \text{ cm} =$$
$$1000 \text{ cm}^3 \approx 1000 \text{ ml} \approx 1000 \text{ g}$$

$$\rightarrow 1 \text{ mm depth or } 1 \frac{\text{litre}}{\text{m}^2}$$

in this example the gauge has a collecting area of 200 cm^2

$$V = h * A =$$

$$0.1 \text{ cm} * 200 \text{ cm}^2 =$$

$$20 \text{ cm}^3 \approx 20 \text{ ml} \approx 20 \text{ g} \quad \text{⚡}$$

Concepts and definitions

- in order to be able to determine the depth of precipitation from the contents of the collecting tank, the contents shall be weighed or measured with a measuring cylinder
 - at a depth of 1 *mm* \Rightarrow 20 *g* or 20 *ml* is measured

Concepts and definitions

- the measured value therefore has to be divided by a divisor that matches the collecting area (the gauge has a collecting area of 200 cm^2)

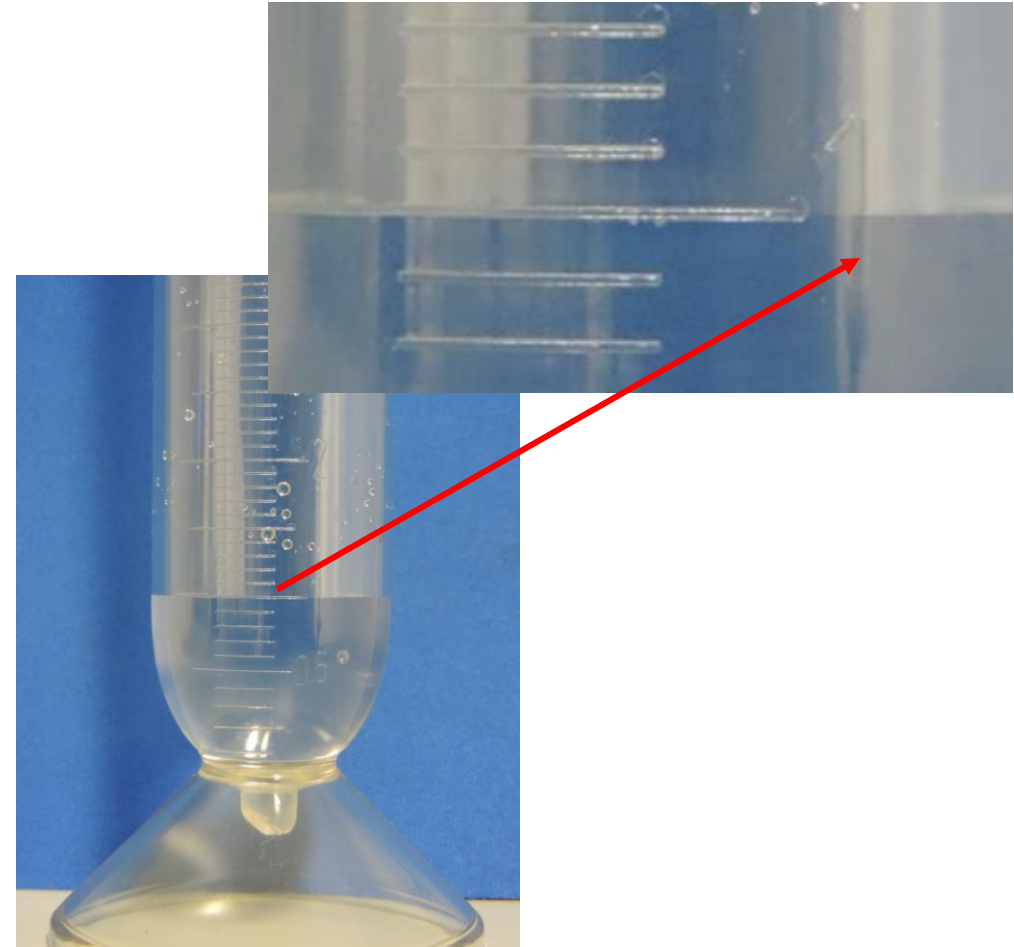
$$rain_{depth} = \frac{20 \text{ g}}{20 \frac{\text{g}}{\text{mm}}} = 1 \text{ mm} \quad \text{or} \quad rain_{depth} = \frac{20 \text{ ml}}{20 \frac{\text{ml}}{\text{mm}}} = 1 \text{ mm}$$

- automatic devices carry out the division internally

Concepts and definitions

- a measuring cylinder with adapted scale markings is normally used so that the conversion is not necessary and the precipitation depth can be read directly

⇒ reading 1 mm \approx 20 ml



DUT reading 1 mm \approx 20 ml

Calibration of Rain Gauges End of Part 1

Thank you.



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