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# Random Forest-Based Model for Estimating Weighted Mean Temperature in Mainland China

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**Abstract:** The weighted mean temperature  $(T_m)$  is a vital parameter for converting zenith wet delay (ZWD) into precipitation water vapor (PWV) and plays an essential part in the Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS) inversion of PWV. To address the inability of current mainstream models to fit the nonlinear relationship between  $T_m$  and meteorological and spatiotemporal factors, whose accuracy is limited, a weighted mean temperature model using the random forest (named  $RF_{Tm}$ ) was proposed to enhance the accuracy of the  $T_m$  predictions in mainland China. The validation with the  $T_m$  from 84 radiosonde stations in 2018 showed that the root mean square (RMS) of the  $RF_{Tm}$  model was reduced by 38.8%, 44.7%, and 35.5% relative to the widely used Global Pressure and Temperature 3 (GPT3) with  $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}/5^{\circ} \times 5^{\circ}$  versions and Bevis, respectively. The Bias and RMS of the new model in different latitude bands, various height intervals, and different times were significantly better than those of the other three comparative models. The accuracy of the new model presented a more stable adaptability. Therefore, this study provides a new idea for estimating  $T_m$  and can provide a more accurate  $T_m$  for GNSS meteorology.

Keywords: weighted mean temperature; random forest; bevis model; GPT3 model; China

# 1. Introduction

The technique for sensing water vapor with the Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS) benefits from its high spatial and temporal resolution, low cost, high precision, and all-weather functionality. Thus, they have become an essential observation method for modern meteorology [1–4]. We transformed the GNSS zenith wet delay (ZWD) into PWV using the weighted mean temperature ( $T_m$ ) [5–7]. The accuracy of the  $T_m$  directly affects the accuracy of the GNSS inversion PWV, whereby modern meteorology must enhance the accuracy of the  $T_m$ .

 $T_m$  is the result of the continuous integration of temperature and water vapor pressure in the atmosphere from the surface to the tropospheric altitude [8]. Temperature and water vapor pressure can be obtained from radiosonde stations or atmospheric reanalysis data. However, it is difficult for users to obtain temperature and water vapor pressure information at any location in real time due to the limited spatiotemporal resolution and delay updating in radiosonde data and atmospheric reanalysis data. Therefore, an appropriate empirical model of the  $T_m$  is usually required. Existing  $T_m$  models can be classified into two categories according to whether or not the operation relies on in situ meteorological parameters. Bevis et al. proposed and developed a one-dimensional linear globalization model of the  $T_m$  and in situ surface temperature ( $T_s$ ) [9]. Although it presents good adaptability globally, it is used to calculate  $T_m$  in local areas and presents large errors [10,11]. Subsequently, studies based on the Bevis model showed that the  $T_m$  is not only related to the region but also to meteorological parameters, such as surface pressure ( $P_s$ ) and surface water vapor pressure ( $e_s$ ) [12–14]. To further refine the  $T_m$  model, many scholars have clarified its coefficients based on  $T_s$ , Ps, and  $e_s$  for different regions [14–16]. These models



Citation: Li, H.; Li, J.; Liu, L.; Huang, L.; Zhao, Q.; Zhou, L. Random Forest-Based Model for Estimating Weighted Mean Temperature in Mainland China. *Atmosphere* 2022, *13*, 1368. https://doi.org/10.3390/ atmos13091368

Academic Editor: Biyan Chen

Received: 26 July 2022 Accepted: 23 August 2022 Published: 26 August 2022

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**Copyright:** © 2022 by the authors. Licensee MDPI, Basel, Switzerland. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (https:// creativecommons.org/licenses/by/ 4.0/). are established based on the linear relationship between  $T_m$  and meteorological factors; therefore, it is difficult to fit the nonlinear relationship between  $T_m$  and meteorological factors. Another type of Tm model is based on the periodical variation parameters of  $T_m$ and takes into account geographical variations. These models are operated only by the station's coordinates and time information, such as the global weighted mean temperature (GWMT) model [17], global weighted mean temperature-diurnal (GWMT-D) model [18], global tropospheric (GTrop) model [19], GTm\_R model [20], and Global Pressure and Temperature (GPT) series Models [21–23]. Although Böhm et al. [22] and Landskron et al. [23] proposed GPT2w and GPT3 models, the limitation of the GPT series models lies in the fact that the height correction of  $T_m$  was not taken into consideration [24]. Yang et al. [25] used the  $T_m$  lapse rate for vertical adjustment and extended the GPT2w model to a new one called the GPT2wh model, with approximately an 8% improvement over the RMS of the GPT2w model. Although these models are convenient, they only model the average annual, semi-annual, and daily variations of  $T_m$  in different regions, failing to fit the nonlinear relationship between  $T_m$  and spatiotemporal factors. Their accuracy is slightly lower than that of models that rely on in situ meteorological parameters.

In summary, most  $T_m$  models have been established based on linear models that fit the relationship between the  $T_m$  and meteorological or spatio-temporal factors [9,13]. Therefore, the nonlinear relationship between the  $T_m$  and meteorological factors is difficult to determine [26] and the complex spatial and temporal variability characteristics of the  $T_m$  have not been clarified [19]. Therefore, the accuracy of the current models is limited [27]. Many studies have proved [28-30] that machine learning methods have excellent advantages in solving nonlinear problems. Ding et al. [31] used a multilayer feedforward neural network to establish a  $T_m$  model, which improved the accuracy of calculating  $T_m$ . The RMS of this  $T_m$  model is 3.3 K on a global scale. Long et al. [32] employed an integrated learning approach to enhance the generalization performance of the  $T_m$  model based on a BP neural network, and the resultant accuracy was significantly improved. Moreover, Yang et al. [33] developed a new  $T_m$  model using sparse kernel learning, which can provide  $T_m$  with higher accuracy and spatiotemporal resolution. Although the  $T_m$  model based on the above neural network achieved better results, the aforementioned algorithm may have been deserved in the overfitting state. The random forest (RF) is a machine-learning algorithm that can perform both classification and regression. The algorithm can handle nonlinear problems well and cannot easily fall into an overfitting state. The study used RF to fit the nonlinear relationship between  $T_m$  and meteorological and spatiotemporal factors. This relationship is more complicated than the seasonal pattern of  $T_m$  variations and the linear relationships between Tm and meteorological/spatiotemporal factors. Finally, a more accurate  $T_m$  model was proposed in mainland China, which has a massive BeiDou/GNSS user market, to contribute by providing a precise  $T_m$  estimation to BeiDou/GNSS meteorology. Therefore, we introduced RF to construct a Tm model ( $RF_{Tm}$ ) for China in this paper using radiosonde data from 84 stations recorded from 2015–2017. The model used GPT3-Tm, surface water vapor pressure, surface temperature, height, latitude, and time as the input and  $T_m$  values as the output. We tested the accuracy of the  $RF_{Tm}$  model utilizing  $T_m$  data from radiosonde stations collected in 2018 as a reference.

# 2. Study Area and Data

## 2.1. Experimental Area

The experimental area in this study is mainland China, which is located in China in the range of 16° N–56° N and 72° E–132° E. Figure 1 shows the topography of the experimental area, which indicates that the eastern area has low topography, while the western region has high topography. There are approximately 33% plains and basins in the land area, while mountains, hills, and plateaus are approximately 67%. Moreover, the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau is located in southwestern China. The study area straddles the low-and mid-latitudinal zones. Therefore, the large topographic relief and diverse climate types have resulted in more complex  $T_m$  variations, which are challenging to model accurately.

In addition, this area has a significantly larger BeiDou/GNSS market. As expected, this market has been going more and more massive since the completion of the Chinese BeiDou navigation network. Therefore, proposing an accurate  $T_m$  model in this area can contribute significantly to BeiDou/GNSS meteorology.

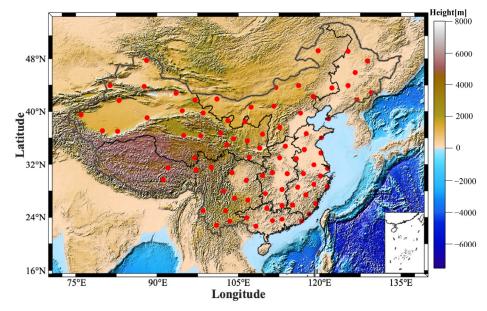


Figure 1. Distribution of 84 radiosonde stations in mainland China.

# 2.2. Experimental Data

Radiosonde instruments were collected using radiosonde balloons. The Radiosonde data contained actual measured meteorological information on the relative humidity, temperature, and pressure from the surface to high altitudes, with a time resolution of 12 h. These parameters are used to calculate  $T_m$ , which is accurate and usually used as a reference for testing other observations and models [34–36]. Therefore, this study used radiosonde data from 84 stations in mainland China from 2015–2018 downloaded free from the Integrated University of Wyoming (http://weather.uwyo.edu/upperair/sounding. html, accessed on 1 March 2021), which contained meteorological data related to pressure, temperature, dew point temperature, and relative humidity at 12 h intervals. These data are used to compute  $T_m$  solve the following equation:

$$T_m = \frac{\int \frac{e}{T} dz}{\int \frac{e}{T^2} dz} \tag{1}$$

where *e* is the water vapor pressure (hPa) and *T* is the absolute temperature (K). In practice, because the radiosonde data only contain the pressure level water vapor pressure and temperature, Equation (1) is usually discretized as Equation (2) to calculate  $T_m$ .

$$T_m = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^{i=n-1} \frac{\overline{e}_i}{\overline{T}_i} (h_{i+1} - h_i)}{\sum_{i=0}^{i=n-1} \frac{\overline{e}_i}{\overline{T}_i^2} (h_{i+1} - h_i)}$$
(2)

$$\overline{e}_i = \frac{1}{2} \times (e_{i+1} + e_i) \tag{3}$$

$$\overline{T}_i = \frac{1}{2} \times (T_{i+1} + T_i) \tag{4}$$

where  $e_i$  and  $T_i$  are the water vapor pressure and absolute temperature of the *i*th layer, respectively, and  $\overline{e_i}$  and  $\overline{T_i}$  are the water vapor pressure and mean absolute temperature

from layer *i* to layer *i*+1, respectively. Radiosonde data do not directly provide water vapor pressure information but relative humidity (RH) and absolute temperature data. Therefore, we calculated the e indirectly from the dew point temperature  $T_d$  (°C) and  $e_s$  (hPa), which is expressed as follows:

 $75 \times T$ 

$$e = \frac{RH \times e_{\rm s}}{100} \tag{5}$$

$$e_s = 6.112 \times 10^{\frac{7.3 \times 1_d}{T_d + 273.3}} \tag{6}$$

$$T_d = T - 273.15$$
 (7)

## 2.3. Tm Empirical Model

As described in Section 1,  $T_m$  can be obtained by integration, which has high accuracy but does not allow the user to obtain the  $T_m$  value at any position in real time. Therefore, many authors have developed empirical  $T_m$  models that consider different factors to achieve real-time conversion from GNSS-ZWD to PWV [22,26,37]. A large part of the  $T_m$  model can be represented by Equation (8).

$$T_m = T1(T_s, e_s, H, B) + T2(doy_a, doy_s, doy_d)$$
(8)

where  $T_s$ ,  $e_s$ , H, and B correspond to the surface temperature (K), surface water vapor pressure (hPa), height (m), and latitude (°), respectively, and  $doy_a$ ,  $doy_s$ , and  $doy_d$  correspond to the annual, semi-annual, and daily components of the Tm, respectively. In addition,  $T1(T_s, e_s, H, B)$  and  $T2(doy_a, doy_s, doy_d)$  can be denoted as follows:

$$T1(T_s, e_s, H, B) = \begin{cases} a_1 \times T_s + a_2 \\ a_1 \times T_s + a_2 \times e_s^{a3} + a_4 \\ a_1 \times T_s + a_2 \times e_s^{a3} + a_4 \times H + a_5 \\ a_1 \times T_s + a_2 \times e_s^{a3} + a_4 \times H + a_5 \times B + a_6 \end{cases}$$
(9)

$$T2(doy_a, doy_s, doy_d) = \begin{cases} a_7 \times \cos(\frac{doy}{365.25} \times 2\pi) + a_8 \times \sin(\frac{doy}{365.25} \times 2\pi) + a_9\\ a_7 \times \cos(\frac{doy}{365.25} \times 4\pi) + a_8 \times \sin(\frac{doy}{365.25} \times 4\pi) + a_9\\ a_7 \times \cos(\frac{hod}{24} * 2\pi) + a_8 \times \sin(\frac{hod}{24} * 2\pi) + a_9 \end{cases}$$
(10)

where *a*<sub>1</sub>, *a*<sub>2</sub>, *a*<sub>3</sub>, *a*<sub>4</sub>, *a*<sub>5</sub>, *a*<sub>6</sub>, *a*<sub>7</sub>, *a*<sub>8</sub>, and *a*<sub>9</sub> are all unknown coefficients to be determined by the equation.

## 3. Methods

3.1. GPT3 Model

The GPT3 model is the latest generation of the GPT model [23], which provides empirical  $T_m$  values. The GPT3 was established using the 10 years (2001–2010) of monthly mean profiles from the ERA-Interim (37 levels). The topographic model employed by GPT3 is ETOPO5. The accuracy of the GPT3 model reaches 4.2K [31] for estimating  $T_m$ globally, and is a widely used model [25,31]. We used the new version of the GPT3 model, whose MATLAB codes and the needed text files can be downloaded from https: //vmf.geo.tuwien.ac.at/ accessed on 1 July 2022. When using the GPT3 model to estimate  $T_m$  at any station, the model first finds the four grid nodes closest to the test station and calculates the  $T_m$  at the four grid nodes. It then interpolates the  $T_m$  to the station location through bilinear interpolation. The GPT3 model uses the ellipsoidal height system, while the radiosonde data uses the geopotential height system. It is necessary to convert the geopotential height of radiosonde data to an ellipsoidal height system. We employed the Earth Gravity Model 2008 (EGM 2008) model to realize the unification of the height system [38]. The variation characteristics of meteorological parameters over time for the GPT3 model are characterized by Equation (11). The spatial resolution of the meteorological parameters obtained using the GPT3 model was classified into  $5^{\circ} \times 5^{\circ}$ , and  $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ , according to the grid size.

$$r(t) = A_0 + A_1 \cos(\frac{doy}{365.25} 2\pi) + B_1 \sin(\frac{doy}{365.25} 2\pi) + A_2 \cos(\frac{doy}{365.25} 4\pi) + B_2 \sin(\frac{doy}{365.25} 4\pi)$$
(11)

where r(t) indicates  $T_m$ , doy indicates the annual accumulation days,  $A_0$  indicates the annual average,  $A_1$  and  $B_1$  are the annual cycle coefficients, and  $A_2$  and  $B_2$  are the semi-annual cycle coefficients.

#### 3.2. Modeling with the Random Forest Regression Algorithm Model

The random forest (RF) model was first proposed as a machine learning algorithm by Leo Breiman and Adele Cutler in 2001 [39]. RF is a machine-learning algorithm that can map the nonlinear relationship between diffident variables with good interpretability and good prediction ability. It solves classification or regression problems by building a large number of unpruned regression trees based on classification or regression algorithms.

In this study, we mainly used the RF regression algorithm, which uses the bootstrap aggregation method to randomly draw multiple samples from the original data to build a regression tree, and it finally takes the average of all regression trees as the final prediction result. During the construction of the regression tree, the split point of the regression tree was determined by minimizing the regression error, where the regression error was the weighted sum of the regression errors of each subset, as shown in Equations (12) and (13).

$$K = \frac{M_L}{M} * K(B_L) + \frac{M_R}{M} * K(B_R)$$
(12)

$$M(B) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{M} (y_i - \bar{y})^2}{M}$$
(13)

where K(B) is the regression error,  $K(B_L)$  and  $K(B_R)$  denote the regression error of the left and right subsets, respectively, and  $M_L$ ,  $M_R$  and M is the number of left subsets, right subsets, and total samples.

λ*1* 

The  $RF_{Tm}$  model was used, as shown in Figure 2. We found from the correlation analysis in Section 3.4 that surface temperature, surface water vapor pressure, height, and latitude were the critical factors affecting the accuracy of  $T_m$ . Therefore, we used  $T_s$ ,  $e_s$ , latitude (*B*), height (H), and GPT3-Tm of 84 radiosonde stations from 2015–2017 as the input values of the  $RF_{Tm}$  model. It is well known that  $T_m$  has seasonal variations, so time was also employed in the input value. Note that the "Time" in Figure 2 denotes the day of the year plus the hour of the day divided by 24. Then, the  $T_m$  at the location of the radiosonde stations was obtained by integration as the output values of the  $RF_{Tm}$  model, and trained to obtain the  $RF_{Tm}$  model.

#### 3.3. Model Evaluation Index

To test the accuracy of the  $RF_{Tm}$  model established in this study, we used the  $T_m$  of 84 radiosonde stations of the China region in 2018 as the reference values, and the mean bias (Bias) and root mean square (RMS) as the accuracy indicators. Bias and RMS were calculated as follows:

$$Bias = \frac{1}{N} \times \sum_{t=1}^{N} \left( X_t - P_t \right) \tag{14}$$

$$RMS = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \times \sum_{t=1}^{N} (X_t - P_t)^2}$$
(15)

where *N* denotes the number of predicted samples and  $X_t$  and  $P_t$  are the true value of the Tm and the predicted value of the model, respectively.

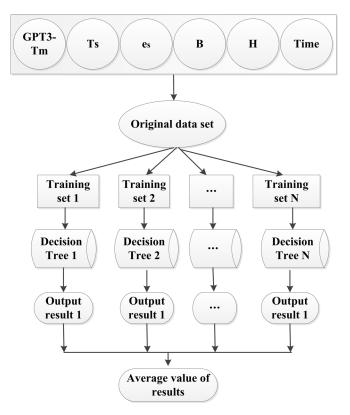


Figure 2. Flow chart of the random forest method.

# 3.4. RF<sub>Tm</sub> Model Establishment

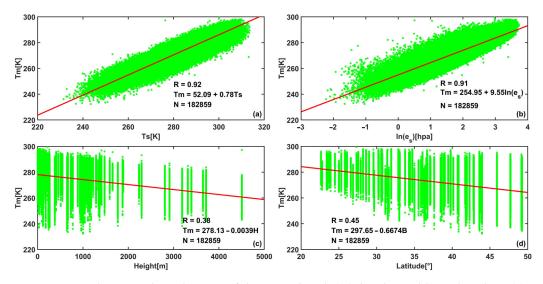
Two important parameters are included in the random forest: the number of single regression tree features and the number of regression trees constructed. To select tree features, we employed the Pearson correlation coefficient [40] of Equation (16) for the correlation analysis of the  $T_m$  with other parameters, such as  $T_s$ ,  $e_s$ , height, and latitude.

$$R = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_i - \overline{X}) \times (Y_i - \overline{Y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_i - \overline{X})^2} \times \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \overline{Y})^2}}$$
(16)

where *n* denotes the number of samples, and *X* and *Y* represent two different variables.

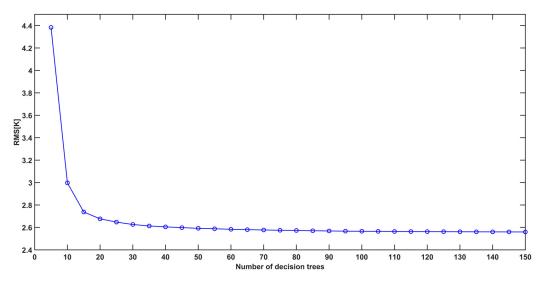
The correlation analysis results are presented in Figure 3. Note that the correlation follows the criteria:  $r \ge 0.81-1.0$  excellent, 0.61–0.80 very good, 0.41–0.60 good, 0.21–0.40 fair, and 0.0–0.20 poor. Figure 3a,b shows that the correlation coefficients of the  $T_m$  with  $T_s$  and ln(e<sub>s</sub>) in mainland China are 0.92 and 0.91, respectively, indicating an excellent correlation. Figure 3c,d shows that the correlation coefficients of height and latitude with  $T_m$  are 0.38 and 0.45, signifying a fair and good correlation, respectively. In terms of the degree of correlation,  $T_s$ , e<sub>s</sub>, height, and latitude were chosen as tree features for  $T_m$  modelling.

We found that  $T_s$  and  $\ln(e_s)$  show an excellent linear correlation with  $T_m$ , while the Pearson linear correlation between  $T_m$  and height and  $T_m$  and latitude were fair and good. Moreover, Sun et al. [27] revealed that the input of empirical values could improve the accuracy of machine learning models. The surface temperature, surface water vapor pressure, time, height, latitude, and GPT3- $T_m$  provided by the radiosonde station were used as features of the single regression tree. After determining the single regression tree features, we used the different features selected as the input values and the radiosonde station Tm as the output values to train a new  $T_m$  model (RF $_{Tm}$ ).



**Figure 3.** Correlation analysis diagram of the  $T_m$  and Ts,  $ln(e_s)$ , height, and latitude, where (**a**) is the correlation analysis diagram of  $T_m$  and  $T_s$  where (**b**) is the correlation analysis diagram of  $T_m$  and  $ln(e_s)$  where (**c**) is the correlation analysis diagram of  $T_m$  and height, and (**d**) is the correlation analysis diagram of  $T_m$  and latitude.

The fitting accuracy of the  $RF_{Tm}$  model was affected by the number of regression trees. The metric for selecting the number of regressions in this paper was the minimum RMS for out-of-bag observations in the training data using the trained bagger *B*. Therefore, a step of five was used to set the number of regression trees as 5–150 to train the  $RF_{Tm}$ , and then the RMS for out-of-bag observations in the training data was statistically calculated. The statistical results are shown in Figure 4, which indicates that the RMS continues to decrease as the number of regression trees increases. When the number of regression trees reaches approximately 100, the RMS stabilizes at around 2.6 K. After the number of regression trees exceeded 100, the RMS remained almost unchanged. Therefore, we selected 100 regression trees to build the final model ( $RF_{Tm}$ ).



**Figure 4.** Fitting accuracy of the  $RF_{Tm}$  model with different numbers of regression trees.

# 4. Results and Analysis

## 4.1. Global Accuracies

To comprehensively evaluate the applicability of the  $RF_{Tm}$  model, we used the 2018 radiosonde  $T_m$  not involved in the modeling as the reference and statistically analyzed the

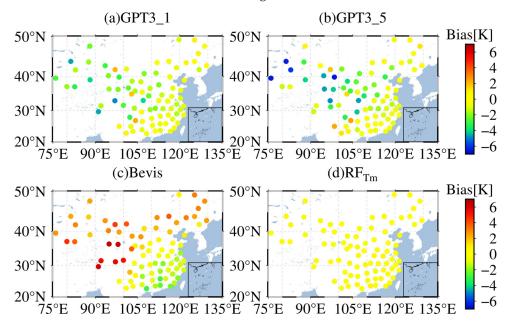
Bias and RMS of the RF<sub>*Tm*</sub>, Bevis, GPT3-1 ( $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ ), and GPT3-5 models ( $5^{\circ} \times 5^{\circ}$ ). The statistical results are shown in Table 1.

Model/Accura	cy	Bevis	$\mathbf{RF}_{Tm}$	GPT3-1	GPT3-5
RMS	Max	7.32	4.08	7.30	7.97
	Min	2.32	1.68	2.31	2.70
	Ave	4.45	2.87	4.69	5.17
Bias	Max	6.45	0.80	2.20	2.52
	Min	-2.96	-0.54	-6.76	-7.21
	Ave	1.12	0.13	-1.22	-1.55

Table 1. Overall accuracy of the different models in 2018.

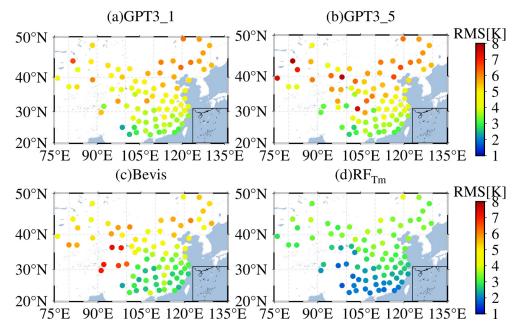
Table 1 shows that compared with the Bevis, GPT3-1, and GPT3-5 models, the maximum, minimum, and average of Bias and RMS of the  $RF_{Tm}$  were greatly smaller and reached 0.13 K and 2.87 K, respectively. The RMS of the  $RF_{Tm}$  was reduced by 35.5%, 38.8%, and 44.7% compared with that of the Bevis, GPT3-1, and GPT3-5 models, respectively. These results indicate that the overall accuracy of the  $RF_{Tm}$  was better than that of the Bevis and GPT3 models in mainland China. The RMS of the maximum, minimum, and average of the Bevis and GPT3 models were similar, although the maximum and minimum Bias values of the Bevis, GPT3-1, and GPT3-5 models differed significantly, with annual average values of 1.12, -1.22 K, and -1.55 K, respectively. Moreover, the overall accuracy of the GPT3-1/5 models and the Bevis models was not very different.

Because China has a large area, the adaptability of the model has to be analyzed in different regions of China. The Bias and RMS were calculated for different models at 84 stations, and the results are shown in Figures 5 and 6.



**Figure 5.** Bias variation diagram for  $T_m$  from the different models in 2018, where (**a**) is the Bias changes of GPT3\_1  $T_m$  where (**b**) is the Bias changes of GPT3\_5  $T_m$  where (**c**) is the Bias changes of Bevis  $T_m$  where (**d**) is the Bias changes of RF<sub>Tm</sub>  $T_m$ .

Figure 5a,b shows that the Bias of the GPT3-1 and GPT3-5 models was distributed between -4 K and 0 K in mainland China, and the absolute value of the Bias was greater than 4 K in the western region of China, which may be attributed to the higher terrain in the western region. As shown in Figure 5c, the distribution of Bias for the Bevis model in the southern region of China was between -4 K and 0 K, while that in the northern region of China was between 0 K and 7 K. These discrepancies are likely due to the more drastic variation in the  $T_m$  in the middle and high latitudes [19]. More interestingly, contrary to Bevis's Tm estimation showing positive and negative bias values, the GPT3's  $T_m$  prediction is systematically bigger than the measured  $T_m$  in mainland China, which is mainly due to the complex terrain of the study area, as the GPT3 model does not consider the impact in  $T_m$  from height differences between the grid sites and the test sites. Figure 5d indicates that the Bias of the RF<sub>Tm</sub> was concentrated around 0 K in different regions of China, indicating that the adaptation of the RF<sub>Tm</sub> in different regions of China was better than that of Bevis, GPT3-1, and GPT3-5.



**Figure 6.** RMS variation diagram for  $T_m$  from the different models in 2018, where (**a**) is the RMS changes of GPT3\_1  $T_m$  where (**b**) is the RMS changes of GPT3\_5  $T_m$  where (**c**) is the RMS changes of Bevis  $T_m$  where (**d**) is the RMS changes of RF<sub>Tm</sub>  $T_m$ .

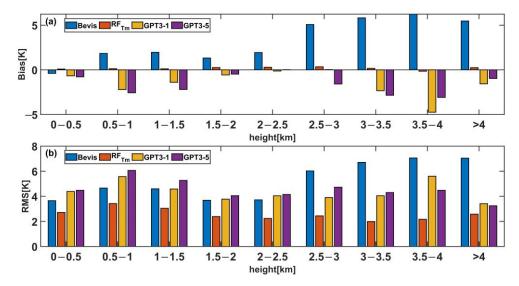
As shown in Figure 6, the RMS of the  $RF_{Tm}$  in the southern region of China was distributed between 2 K and 3 K, while that of the GPT3-5, GPT3-1, and Bevis models ranged from 3–4 K. The RMS of the  $RF_{Tm}$  was reduced by approximately 1 K compared with that of the GPT3-1, GPT3-5, and Bevis models. In northern China, the RMS of the  $RF_{Tm}$  ranged from 3 K to 4 K, and that of GPT3-1 ranged from 5 K to 6 K. The RMS of GPT3-5 was slightly worse than that of GPT3-1. The RMS of Bevis was distributed around 5 K, which is superior to that of GPT3-1 and GPT3-5, whereas the RMS of the  $RF_{Tm}$  was optimal. Generally,  $RF_{Tm}$  was more stable than Bevis, GPT3-1, and GPT3-5 in different regions of the study area.

# 4.2. Accuracies in Different Heights

Height is a key factor that affects the  $T_m$  [13,22]. To analyze the adaptability of different models at different heights, we statistically analyzed the Bias and RMS of the Bevis, RF<sub>Tm</sub>, GPT3-1, and GPT3-5 models from 0 km to 4.5 km at intervals of 500 m. The results are shown in Figure 7 and Table 2.

As shown in Figure 7 and Table 2, the Bias of the Bevis model was overall positive at different heights. Both the Bias and RMS of the Bevis model showed an increasing trend with higher height, which may be attributed to the fact that the Bevis model has not corrected for  $T_m$  in the height direction. The GPT3-1 and GPT3-5 models both had negative Bias values at different heights. According to Figure 7 and Table 3, the GPT3-1 and GPT3-5 models' Bias was concentrated at -5 K to 0 K, while the Bevis model Bias was distributed at 0 K to 5 K. The fluctuation range of Bias for the Bevis model was approximately opposite to the fluctuation range of the GPT3-1 and GPT3-5 models. The GPT3-1 and GPT3-5 models showed large fluctuations of Bias up and down with the increase in height, and the Bias

was concentrated from -1 K to 0 K in 0–500 m and 1500–3000 m and from -5 K to -1 K in 500–1500 m and above 3000 m. For the RF<sub>Tm</sub> model, the Bias was distributed around 0 K at different heights, and the RMS values were all less than 3 K. This finding indicates that the RF<sub>Tm</sub> has better applicability to height than Bevis, GPT3-1, and GPT3-5. Moreover, the RF<sub>Tm</sub> considers the effect of height on the  $T_m$ , which further verifies the rationality of using height as a model factor in this study.



**Figure 7.** Variation of the Tm with height in 2018 for the different models, where (**a**) is the variation of the Bias in the height direction for  $T_m$  predicted by different models in 2018, and (**b**) is the variation of RMS in the height direction for  $T_m$  predicted by different models in 2018.

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Height –	Bevis	$\mathbf{RF}_{Tm}$	GPT3-1	GPT3-5
0–500	3.65	2.71	4.38	4.48
500-1000	4.66	3.42	5.57	6.07
1000-1500	4.60	3.05	4.58	5.27
1500-2000	3.69	2.39	3.77	4.05
2000-2500	3.72	2.24	4.04	4.15
2500-3000	6.02	2.44	3.90	4.73
3000-3500	6.71	1.99	4.05	4.30
3500-4000	7.06	2.17	5.60	4.48
>4000	7.04	2.58	3.41	3.24

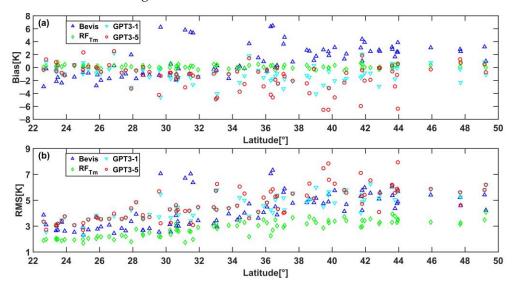
**Table 2.** RMS of different models at different heights of the  $T_m$  in 2018.

**Table 3.** Bias of different models at different heights of the  $T_m$  in 2018.

	Bias[K]				
Height –	Bevis	<b>RF</b> <sub>Tm</sub>	GPT3-1	GPT3-5	
0–500	-0.39	0.09	-0.67	-0.78	
500-1000	1.84	0.12	-2.21	-2.56	
1000-1500	1.96	0.11	-1.40	-2.20	
1500-2000	1.32	0.25	-0.57	-0.48	
2000-2500	1.93	0.29	-0.13	0.02	
2500-3000	5.08	0.34	0.02	-1.59	
3000-3500	5.82	0.16	-2.34	-2.84	
3500-4000	6.24	-0.16	-4.75	-3.08	
>4000	5.47	0.24	-1.57	-0.97	

# 4.3. Accuracies in Different Latitudes

The variation of  $T_m$  with latitude is more obvious [27,34]. Therefore, we computed the Bias and RMS of  $T_m$  for 2018 predicted by different models in latitude direction, and the results are shown in Figure 8.

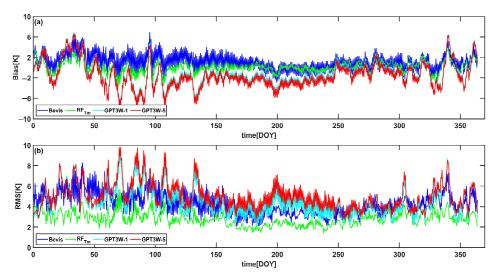


**Figure 8.** The latitude variation of  $T_m$  predicted by different models in 2018, where (**a**) is the variation of Bias in the latitudinal direction for  $T_m$  predicted by different models in 2018, and (**b**) is the variation of RMS in the latitudinal direction for  $T_m$  predicted by different models in 2018.

As shown in Figure 8a, the Bias of the Bevis model presented negative values in latitudes lower than 30°, while the Bias of  $RF_{Tm}$ , GPT3-1, and GPT3-5 models were concentrated around 0 K. On latitudes larger than 30°, the Bias of Bevis, GPT3-1, and GPT3-5 models ranged from 0 K to 8 K, -6 K to 2 K, and -8 K to 2 K, respectively. The Bias range of the GPT3-5 model was larger than GPT3-1. The Bias of  $RF_{Tm}$  was concentrated around 0 K. The Bias of the  $RF_{Tm}$  model was concentrated at around 0K. However, when the latitude was greater than  $40^{\circ}$ , Bias was greater than 0 K. This phenomenon may be because the seasonal variation of  $T_m$  was larger at high latitudes [19], which posed more difficulties for  $T_m$  modeling and resulted in a larger Bias for  $T_m$  models. Even so, its corresponding RMS is within 3 K, which is significantly better than the Bevis and GPT3 models. These results suggest that the  $RF_{Tm}$  model can better capture the variation of  $T_m$  in the latitudinal direction than the Bevis, GPT3-1, and GPT3-5 models. In Figure 8b, the RMS of the Bevis,  $RF_{Tm}$ , GPT3-1, and GPT3-5 models tended to become larger with rising latitude, but the RMS of  $RF_{Tm}$  was concentrated within 3 K. The RMS of  $RF_{Tm}$  with increasing latitude was notably lower than that of Bevis, GPT3-1, and GPT3-5, indicating that the adaptation of  $RF_{Tm}$  to latitude changes was better than that of Bevis, GPT3-1, and GPT3-5. Generally, the  $RF_{Tm}$  model has lower Bias and RMS than the Bevis, GPT3-1, and GPT3-5 models in different regions. These also imply that  $RF_{Tm}$  has better stability and adaptability than Bevis, GPT3-1, and GPT3-5 at various latitudes.

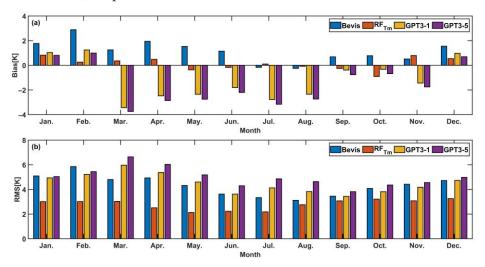
# 4.4. Accuracies in Different Time Variations

To further investigate the relationship between the models and time, we computed the Bias and RMS from the Bevis, GPT3-1, GPT3-5, and  $RF_{Tm}$  models in 2018 with a temporal resolution of 12 h, respectively. The results are shown in Figure 9.

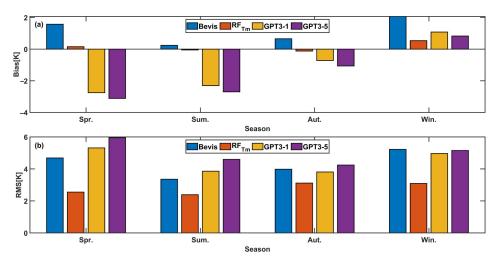


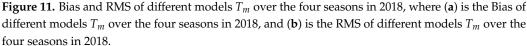
**Figure 9.** Bias and RMS of different models  $T_m$  in 2018, where (**a**) is the Bias of different models  $T_m$  in 2018, and (**b**) is the RMS of different models  $T_m$  in 2018.

Figures 9–11 show the daily, monthly, and quarterly average Bias and RMS variations for the four models, respectively. As illustrated in Figures 9-11, the Bias of the RF<sub>Tm</sub> model fluctuated above and below 0 K, and the RMS of the  $RF_{Tm}$  model ranged between 2 K and 4 K. The  $RF_{Tm}$  model showed better RMS and Bias than the Bevis, GPT3-1, and GPT3-5 models for different months and seasons, and there was no apparent seasonal variation in Bias and RMS. The reason for this phenomenon might be that  $RF_{Tm}$  model added a time factor in the modeling, which somewhat weakened the influence of seasonal variation on the model accuracy. Bias and RMS of the Bevis, GPT3-1, and GPT3-5 models were larger in winter and spring but relatively lower in summer and autumn. The RMS of the GPT3-1 and GPT3-5 models fluctuated at around 5 K. The variation of Bias with time was mainly distributed between -10 K and 0 K, and extremely few of them were distributed between 0 K and 6 K, indicating that the GPT3-1 and GPT3-5 models might have negative deviations overall. The RMS of the Bevis model fluctuated around 5 K, which was consistent with that of the GPT3-1 and GPT3-5 models, but the overall Bevis model Bias ranged from 0 K to 6 K, denoting that the Bevis model showed an overall positive deviation in mainland China. Overall, RF<sub>Tm</sub> outperforms at different times than Bevis, GPT3-1, and GPT3-5.



**Figure 10.** Monthly average Bias and RMS of different models  $T_m$  in 2018, where (**a**) is the monthly average Bias changes of different models  $T_m$  in 2018, and (**b**) is the monthly average RMS changes of different models  $T_m$  in 2018.





# 5. Conclusions

We proposed a weighted mean temperature model ( $RF_{Tm}$ ) based on a random forest with GPT3- $T_m$ , surface water vapor pressure, surface temperature, height, latitude, and time as input parameters in the paper, and tested the accuracy of  $RF_{Tm}$  in the Chinese region. The results indicated that: The  $RF_{Tm}$  model achieved better accuracy in mainland China as a whole, and its annual average Bias and RMS were 0.13 K and 2.87 K. Compared with the Bevis model, GPT3-1 model, and GPT3-5 model, the annual average RMS of  $RF_{Tm}$ model were reduced by 35.5%, 38.8%, and 44.7%, respectively. The overall accuracy of  $RF_{Tm}$  model has been significantly superior to that of the Bevis model and the GPT3-1 and GPT3-5 models. The  $RF_{Tm}$  model had better accuracy than the Bevis model, GPT3-1 model, and GPT3-5 model for different latitudes and heights, and it captured the change of  $T_m$  with height and latitude more effectively than the Bevis model, GPT3-1 model, and the GPT3-5 model. The  $RF_{Tm}$  model could better perceive the change of  $T_m$  with time in comparison to the Bevis model, the GPT3-1 model, and the GPT3-5 model.

Comprehensive validations indicate that the  $RF_{Tm}$  model based on RF outperformes the Bevis model and GPT3 model in mainland China, and the accuracy is more stable in different spatiotemporal intervals. Therefore, the proposed model can be implemented for the relevant application of GNSS meteorology in China. However, the proposed model only supports regional  $T_m$  estimation and needs in situ measured meteorological. In future research, we hope to develop a global machine learning-based model for estimating  $T_m$ based only on geographical and temporal information.

Author Contributions: Conceptualization, H.L.; methodology, J.L., L.L. and L.H.; validation, H.L. and J.L.; formal analysis, H.L.; investigation, H.L. and J.L.; resources, H.L. and Q.Z.; data curation, H.L. and J.L.; writing—original draft preparation, H.L. and J.L.; writing—review and editing, H.L.; visualization, H.L.; supervision, Q.Z. and L.Z.; project administration, J.L.; funding acquisition, J.L. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

**Funding:** This work was supported by the Guangxi Natural Science Foundation of China (2020GXNSFBA297145), the Foundation of Guilin University of Technology (GUTQDJJ6616032), and the National Natural Science Foundation of China (42074035, 42064002).

Institutional Review Board Statement: Not applicable.

Informed Consent Statement: Not applicable.

**Data Availability Statement:** This study did not involve humans. The radiosonde data used in this paper can be download from the Integrated University of Wyoming website: http://weather.uwyo. edu/upperair/sounding.html accessed on 1 July 2022, as stated in the Acknowledgements. The data are also available upon request by contact with the corresponding author.

Acknowledgments: The Integrated University of Wyoming is hereby acknowledged for providing access to radiosonde data in this work through the website: http://weather.uwyo.edu/upperair/sounding.html accessed on 1 July 2022.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

# Abbreviations

The following abbreviations are used in this manuscript:

- ZWD Zenith wet delay
- PWV Precipitation water vapor
- GNSS Global Navigation Satellite System
- $T_m$  Weighted mean temperature
- RMS Root mean square
- GPT3 Global Pressure and Temperature 3
- GPT Global Pressure and Temperature
- RF Random forest

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