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Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics Discussions

New insights on the prevalence of drizzle in marine stratocumulus clouds based on a machine learning algorithm applied to radar Doppler spectra

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Abstract

The detection of the early growth of drizzle particles in marine stratocumulus clouds is important for studying the transition from cloud water to rainwater. Radar reflectivity is commonly used to detect drizzle; however, its utility is limited to larger drizzle particles. Alternatively, radar Doppler spectrum skewness has proven to be a more sensitive quantity for detection of drizzle embryos. Here, a machine-learning (ML) based technique that uses radar reflectivity and skewness for detecting small drizzle particles is presented. Aircraft in-situ measurements are used to develop and validate the ML algorithm. The drizzle detection algorithm is applied to three Atmospheric Radiation Measurement (ARM) observational campaigns to investigate the drizzle occurrence in marine boundary layer clouds. It is found that drizzle is far more ubiquitous than previously thought, the traditional radar reflectivity-based approach significantly underestimates the drizzle occurrence, especially in thin clouds with liquid water path lower than 50 gm^{-2}. Furthermore, the drizzle occurrence in marine boundary layer clouds differs among three ARM campaigns, indicating that the drizzle formation which is controlled by the microphysical process is regime dependent. A complete understanding of the drizzle distribution climatology in marine stratocumulus clouds calls for more observational campaigns and continuing investigations.

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1.Introduction

Clouds play an important role in the climate system and the accurate representation of their properties and feedbacks in Global Circulation Models (GCM) is essential for performing reliable future climate prediction (Cess et al., 1989;Bony et al., 2006;Vial et al., 2013). Among all the cloud types, marine stratocumulus is an important cloud type covering approximately 20% of the Earth's surface (Warren et al., 1986, 1988;Wood, 2012). Marine stratocumulus clouds significantly modulate the Earth's energy budget: on one hand, stratocumulus with high albedo strongly reflect incoming solar radiation back to space; on the other hand, as stratocumulus clouds have similar temperature with surface, they emit comparable amount of longwave radiation as the surface and do not significantly affect the infrared radiation emitted to space. Thus, overall the stratocumulus have a strong cooling effect to the climate system. (Hartmann et al., 1992). It is estimated that only a small increase of the marine stratocumulus coverage can compensate for the increased temperature induced by the greenhouse gas effect (Randall et al., 1984). Despite the considerable influence on the climate, large uncertainties persist in the representation of marine stratocumulus in GCMs due to a lack of understanding of the cloud properties and the associated processes. (Stephens, 2005;Klein et al., 2017) One important issue is the underrepresentation of the transition from cloud water to rainwater, i.e. the autoconversion process. (Stephens et al., 2010;Michibata and Takemura, 2015). (Paluch and Lenschow, 1991;Yamaguchi et al., 2017). A misrepresentation of the autoconversion process in GCM's can affect not only the hydrological cycle but also generate compensating errors in the aerosol-cloud interactions (Michibata and Suzuki, 2020).

The core component of autoconversion is the production and growth mechanisms of drizzle drops. Drizzle, by definition, refers to liquid droplets with a diameter between 40 μm and 500 μm (Wood, 2005a;Glienke et al., 2017;Zhang et al., 2021). Drizzle is frequently observed in the warm cloud system and can modulate the cloud organizational structure and the boundary layer system in several ways: the drizzle production process tends to warm the cloud layer and stabilize the boundary layer, which reduces cloud top entrainment and produces thicker clouds (Wood, 2012;Nicholls, 1984;Ackerman et al., 2009); the coalescence process can reduce cloud droplet concentration and cause cloud precipitation (Wood, 2006); furthermore, drizzle also plays a critical

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role in the formation of the open-cell pattern of stratocumulus (Wang and Feingold, 2009;Feingold et al., 2010) and tends to promote the stratocumulus to cumulus transitions process (Paluch and Lenschow, 1991;Yamaguchi et al., 2017).

Despite the importance role of drizzle plays on the marine bounday layer, a thorough understanding of its existence is incomplete due to the detection limitation. Historically, in-situ and remote sensing measurements have been used to detect drizzle in cloud (Leon et al., 2008;Wood, 2005a;Wu et al., 2015;Yang et al., 2018;VanZanten et al., 2005). In-situ microphysical probes can provide size-resolved microphysical properties, importantly, Drop Size Distribution (DSD), from which drizzle drops can be easily identified according to their definition. The disadvantage of in-situ observations is the limited datasets collected during field campaigns, making it challenging to provide long term statistical analyses. Millimeter-wavelength radar, commonly known as cloud radar, is widely used for cloud/drizzle detections (Kollias et al., 2007a). The total received backscatter power of droplets is converted to radar reflectivity factor, which is independent of the radar wavelength in the cloud/drizzle regime, and is proportional to the sixth power of the diameter of the particles in the radar resolution volume[1]. Compared with cloud droplets, drizzle drops have larger diameters, which produce greater reflectivity, and this signature is widely used to differentiate cloud/drizzle signals. Different reflectivity thresholds, ranging from -15dBZ to -20dBZ, have been applied in previous studies to identify drizzle existence (Frisch et al., 1995;Liu et al., 2008;Comstock et al., 2004). Nevertheless, this reflectivity-based technique has obvious drawbacks. As reflectivity is the summation of the backscattered power from all the droplets in a radar volume, the reflectivity threshold can detect the presence of drizzle drops only when their contribution to the total radar backscatter exceeds that of the cloud droplets. More specifically, when cloud droplets dominate the reflectivity signal, even if drizzle drops exist, they fail to be detected as the total reflectivity is usually lower than -20 dBZ; this indicates that the reflectivity-based technique is unable to detect small drizzle particles (Kollias et al., 2011b).

Besides reflectivity, another radar observed quantity which is sensitive to the presence of drizzle is the skewness of the radar Doppler spectrum (hereafter skewness). Skewness is the third moment of the radar-observed Doppler spectrum and is a measure of the asymmetry of the spectrum. For

[1] It is noted that attenuation is not considered in this study.

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cloud droplets, Doppler spectra are on average symmetric with skewness equal to zero; as drizzle drops grow and start falling, their terminal velocity is recorded in the fast-falling part of the Doppler spectra, which has greater backscatter power than the power contributed by cloud droplets, leading to asymmetric spectra with a non-zero skewness (Kollias et al., 2011b;Luke and Kollias, 2013). The capability of using skewness to detect early drizzle development stages was demonstrated in Acquistapace et al. (2019). In Acquistapace et al. (2019) a threshold of the skewness is used as part of the detection algorithm. Considering the noisiness in the estimation of the third moment of the radar Doppler spectrum, the use of a fixed threshold value can lead to considerable misclassifications. Here, a supervised Machine Learning (ML) algorithm is used to provide a more robust detection of drizzle particles in warm stratiform clouds. First, in-situ DSD measurements are used as input to a sophisticated radar Doppler spectrum simulator that can accurately represent the performance of the ARM profiling cloud radars in estimating the corresponding radar-observed reflectivity and skewness. Next, the ML algorithm is trained from 2 months of in-situ observations to generate a classification model; the classification results from one case study will be presented and compared against the in-situ measurements. Finally, comprehensive datasets from three ARM observational campaigns are used to investigate drizzle occurrence and demonstrate the omnipresence of drizzle in marine stratocumulus clouds.

2.Instruments and Data

The data used in this study are collected from three observatories operated by the U.S. Department of Energy's Atmospheric Radiation Measurement (ARM) facility. The Eastern North Atlantic (ENA) is a permanent observational site established on Graciosa Island in the Azores archipelago in 2013 as representative of a maritime environment. The Aerosol and Cloud Experiments in the Eastern North Atlantic (ACE-ENA) field campaign was conducted in the vicinity of the ENA site from June 2017 to February 2018. The Gulfstream-1 aircraft was deployed during ACE-ENA to provide in-situ measurements. The Marine ARM GPCI Investigation of Clouds (MAGIC) campaign was based on a mobile observatory facility traversing between Los Angeles, California, and Honolulu, Hawaii, from October 2012 to September 2013. Measurements of Aerosols, Radiation, and Clouds over the Southern Ocean (MARCUS) was a field campaign conducted from October 2017 to April 2018 along the route between Hobart, Australia, and the Antarctic. All of

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the observational campaigns were equipped with a variety of instruments which provide comprehensive datasets being used in this study.

The primary instrument being used in this study is the cloud radar: a Ka-Band ARM Zenith Radar (KAZR) was operated at ENA and MAGIC and a W-Band ARM Cloud Radar (WACR) was used during MARCUS. The KAZR and WACR are both vertically pointing with 30 m range resolution; the temporal resolution of the WACR and KAZR used at ENA is 2 s, while the temporal resolution of the KAZR used for MAGIC is 0.36 s. To make the observations comparable, radar moments from MAGIC are averaged over 2 s to be consistent with the ones collected at ENA and MARCUS. Radar reflectivity and Doppler skewness are obtained from the Microscale Active Remote Sensing of Clouds (MicroARSCL) product (Kollias et al., 2007b). Radar reflectivity at ENA and MAGIC is calibrated with surface-based measurements of the raindrop PSD using a disdrometer (Gage et al., 2000;Kollias et al., 2019). At MARCUS, a disdrometer is not suitable for radar calibration thus instead we follow Mace et al. (2021) by adding 4.5 dB to the reflectivity for WACR calibration. In addition, a ceilometer and microwave radiometer (MWR) are used to estimate cloud base height and liquid water path (LWP). The time resolution of the MWR and ceilometer are 10 s and 15 s respectively. Besides the surface-based observations, in-situ measurements from ACE-ENA during the intensive observation period 1 (IOP1) which was conducted from 21 June to 20 July in 2017 are also used in this study. The DSD of hydrometeors with diameter ranging from 1.5 μm to 9075 μm are characterized using combined measurements from the fast cloud droplet probe (FCDP), 2-dimensional stereo probe (2D-S) and high-volume precipitation spectrometer (HVPS-3). Liquid water content is measured using a multi-element water content system and a Gerber probe.

3.Methodology

As Doppler skewness is a sensitive indicator of weak drizzle signals, the focus of the methodology is to synthesize this quantity with reflectivity to construct a robust drizzle detection algorithm. Thus, the key issue lies in the challenging task of determining the appropriate reflectivity/skewness combination to identify drizzle signals. Here we address this problem in a novel way: first we identify the existence of cloud/drizzle based on in-situ observed DSDs; then a well-established

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Doppler spectrum simulator is applied to emulate the radar observed spectrum for the given DSD and estimate the corresponding reflectivity and skewness. Finally, the resulting collection of well-defined cloud/drizzle datasets is trained by a machine learning algorithm to resolve the drizzle identification function.

3.1 Doppler spectrum simulation

According to previous studies, liquid droplets with diameter exceeding 40 µm are defined to be drizzle (Wood, 2005a;Zhang et al., 2021). We follow this definition to classify the in-situ observed DSD: cloud/drizzle are defined by the maximum diameter in the DSD being smaller/larger than 40 µm. Example DSDs of cloud-only and mixed cloud-drizzle conditions are shown in Fig. 1a and Fig. 1c. Next, the Doppler spectrum simulator developed by Kollias et al. (2011a) is applied to generate the radar-observed Doppler spectrum based on the in-situ DSD. The associated simulator parameters are set as follows: Doppler spectra are generated with 256 FFT bins and a Nyquist velocity of ± 6 m/s, which correspond to the KAZR configuration operated by ARM (Kollias et al., 2016); turbulence broadening (σ_t) is set as 0.2m/s which is obtained from local observations: for radar observation with reflectivity smaller than -20 dBZ, Doppler spectra width is mainly contributed by turbulence and can be used to estimate σ_t. The KAZR-observed spectral width collected from the ACE-ENA IOP1 indicate that the mean value of the σ_t is estimated as 0.2 m/s (Fig. S1). Finally, radar noise is simulated by adding random perturbation to the Doppler spectra; positive velocity indicates downward motion. A detailed description of the Doppler spectrum simulator application is found in Zhu et al. (2021). Once a spectrum is generated, a post-processing algorithm (Kollias et al., 2007b) is used to eliminate noise (Hildebrand and Sekhon, 1974) and to estimate the Doppler moments, i.e. reflectivity and skewness. To demonstrate that the simulator can represent radar observations, the simulated reflectivity and skewness are compared with KAZR observations (Fig. S2) and shows consistent ranges and distribution pattern, indicating that the simulated radar moments are capable to represent the real observation signal. The relatively large fraction of the in-situ measurements with dBZ > -20 in Fig. S2 is likely caused by the different observational strategies between in-situ and KAZR measurements (Wang et al., 2016).

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Fig. 1b and 1d show examples of the simulated Doppler spectra along with the estimated reflectivity and skewness for a cloud-only and mixed cloud-drizzle DSD. It is noticed for the drizzle case (Fig. 1d), reflectivity is well below the conventional threshold (-20 ~ -15 dBZ) used for drizzle detection and is unable to discriminate it from the cloud-only case (Fig. 1b). Skewness, however, shows a significant difference between drizzle (0.5) and cloud (0), emphasizing the importance of including skewness as an additional indicator for drizzle detection.

3.2 Machine Learning algorithm application

From the IOP1 of ACE-ENA, 6000 in-situ observed DSDs (2000 for cloud-only and 4000 for mixed cloud-drizzle) are selected from the cloudy samples defined as having liquid water content larger than 0.01 gm^{-3} (Zhang et al., 2021). For each DSD, the spectrum simulator is applied to estimate the reflectivity and Doppler skewness. The distribution of these two quantities for all the selected datasets is shown in Fig. 2. It shows that drizzle with positive skewness tends to be associated with reflectivity lower than -20 dBZ. For reflectivity ranging from -35 to -25 dBZ and skewness around zero, the drizzle signal overlaps with cloud; this region represents the early stage of drizzle initiation with low reflectivity and indistinguishable skewness features compared with cloud signals.

In order to determine the classification boundary to distinguish cloud/drizzle categories (i.e. red/blue points in Fig. 2), we apply a supervised machine learning algorithm which is widely used in classification-related problems, the Support Vector Machine (SVM) (Cortes and Vapnik, 1995;Vapnik et al., 1997). SVM handles complicated data classification tasks by solving optimization relationships and finding the optimal classification equations in the feature space. There are three reasons to use SVM in this study: 1) SVM is nonparametric and thus does not require specification or assumption of the classification equation; 2) By applying the appropriate kernel, SVM can generate a non-linear classification boundary to classify non-linearly separable datasets; 3) The decision boundary resolved by SVM will separate the categories with maximum distance; this is a distinctive feature of the SVM algorithm which is extensively used in a variety of areas (Ma and Guo, 2014).

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For the collected cloud/drizzle datasets, 80% of them are used for training, and the remain 20% for validation. Inputs to the SVM are Doppler skewness and reflectivity, where the reflectivity from -50 dBZ to 0 dBZ is normalized from -1 to 0; the output is classified as either cloud (0) or drizzle (1). Here the Radial Basis Function (RBF) with two tuning parameters, Γ and C, is used as the SVM kernel (Keerthi and Lin, 2003). The RBF kernel is one of the most widely used kernels due to its similarity to the Gaussian distribution. The Γ parameter determines the curvature of the decision boundary with a high value indicating more curvature for capturing the complexity of the dataset; C is a regularization parameter to set the classification accuracy versus the maximization of the decision function margin; a lower C leads to a larger margin, and a simpler decision function at the cost of training accuracy. Following Davis and Goadrich (2006), we use precision/recall to evaluate the performance of the classification outcome. In this study, precision refers to the number of correct drizzle detections divided by total drizzle detections reported by the SVM, and recall refers to the number of the correct drizzle detections divided by the number of true drizzle occurrences in dataset. Different combinations of RBF parameters with Γ ranging from 1 to 500 and C from 1 to 1000 are applied, with the classification outcome shown in Table 1. Here we choose Γ = 50 and C = 1 as the preferred parameters to produce classification results with precision and recall as 98% and 85%, respectively. That is, for the cloud-drizzle dataset collected at ACE-ENA, at most, 85% of the drizzle can be detected by the algorithm and among the detection outcomes, 98% are true drizzle signals.

The resolved classification boundary is shown as the black line in Fig. 2. We can see the algorithm reasonably separates the cloud/drizzle clusters; the resolved skewness threshold being used to distinguish cloud/drizzle is around ±0.2, and the maximum reflectivity used for classification is -20dBZ. These values are consistent with previous studies (Frisch et al., 1995;Liu et al., 2008;Kollias et al., 2011b;Acquistapace et al., 2019). We further estimate the cumulative distribution function (CDF) of the correctly detected drizzle samples as a function of dBZ from the ML technique (magenta solid line in Fig. 2) and from the traditional method with reflectivity threshold ranging from -20 to -15 dBZ. (magenta shading in Fig. 2). It is noticed that drizzle can be detected with dBZ <-30 from the ML method; this value is significantly lower than for traditional thresholds in use. The ML method is more sensitive to the weak drizzle signals than the dBZ thresholds that have been proposed. Specifically, compared to the ML technique, 35% and

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21% of the drizzle are missed by the reflectivity threshold approach when using dBZ >-20 and dBZ >-15, respectively. Another important implication of this result is that dBZ >-15 is traditionally applied by CloudSat to identify light rain incidence (Haynes et al., 2009); here we demonstrate that a more robust threshold is likely to be much lower.

Besides the encouraging performance of the ML technique, some noticeable issues can be identified: 1) Compared with the true CDF of the drizzle fraction (dotted magenta line in Fig. 2), 20% of drizzle is undetected. This missing drizzle subset, as explained previously by the overlapping area, is composed of tiny drizzle embryos that have yet to develop distinctive features compared with their cloud counterparts. 2) Another issue is the unrealistic broadening of the classification boundary for reflectivity lower than -35dBZ; this issue is related to the kernel being applied in the SVM algorithm. Since drizzle rarely exists below -35 dBZ, this issue will not affect the classification performance as far as we are concerned.

4.Results

The ML-based drizzle detection algorithm is applied to the dataset collected at three ARM observatories. First, an example case is presented for which aircraft observations are available and the corresponding in-situ measurements are used to demonstrate the performance of the algorithm. Then, the drizzle occurrence on classified stratocumulus clouds at ENA, MARCUS and MAGIC observatories are presented; the differences of the drizzle occurrence from the proposed machine learning based algorithm (hereafter MLA) and the traditional dBZ-based algorithm (hereafter dBZA) are compared to indicate that drizzle occurrence in stratocumulus clouds is far more frequent that has been previously suggested. For the dBZA, we use reflectivity >-17 dBZ for drizzle identification, while the application of other thresholds ranging from -20 to -15 dBZ did not affect the results as discussed.

4.1 Single cloud layer case

For the selected case (Fig. 3), a thin cloud layer with thickness around 150m is identified. Cloud signals is very weak with 99% of reflectivity lower than -17 dBZ. However, considerable large

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skewness values shown in Fig. 3b indicates the presence of the drizzle particles. The classification results from the MLA classification are shown in Fig. 3c, it can be seen that drizzle is omnipresent and spread throughout the cloud layer, mixed with cloud-only detections.

Here the in-situ observed DSD is used to verify the MLA detection. On June 30th, 2017, aircraft measurements were conducted from 09:27 to 13:16 UTC. We constrained the in-situ measurements to be within 20 km of the ENA observatory (Fig. 4). Considering that the average in-cloud wind speed is 3.7 m/s, the distance of 20 km is equivalent to around 1.5 hour of KAZR observations; thus, the radar measurements from 08:00 to 13:30 UTC are selected to match the aircraft observations. We assume the signal of the drizzle/cloud occurrence collected from the in-situ measurements can be used to verify the drizzle presence observed from KAZR. For the selected period, drizzle occurrence is 47% from the MLA detections and 65% from the in-situ observations. The 18% of the missing drizzle by MLA is largely attributed to the "overlapping area" shown in Fig. 2 indicating the early stage of drizzle embryos which are indistinguishable from cloud droplets. Nevertheless, this comparison provides strong evidence that drizzle is widely present in the cloud layer for the selected case and demonstrates that the classification results from MLA are reliable. Contrastingly, negligible drizzle signals (0.05%) are detected with the reflectivity-based (dBZ >-17) technique.

4.2 Drizzle occurrence at ARM campaigns

During the operational periods of ACE-ENA, MARCUS and MAGIC, single-layer marine stratocumulus clouds are selected with cloud top temperature greater than 0 ℃ and cloud top height lower than 4000 m. The moving standard deviation of cloud top height within 30-minutes (σ) is calculated and profiles with σ larger than 200 m are excluded to reject non-stratocumulus-type clouds. LWP retrievals are biased when MWR is wet; thus, radar profiles with their lowest range gates containing hydrometeor detections are considered to be precipitation and are removed from the analysis. A complete list of the days being used is shown in Table 2. In total, 204, 72, and 215 hours of radar observation were selected from the ACE-ENA, MARCUS and MAGIC campaigns.

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In order to composite cloud layers with different thickness, cloud height is normalized between 0 to 1 as:

$$h = \frac{H - H_b}{H_t - H_b}$$

Where H is the physical height of a given radar gate, H_t and H_b is the cloud top and base height. h=0 represents cloud base and h=1 indicates cloud top.

Drizzle occurrence is calculated as the number of drizzle detections divided by the total observed signals in each normalized height bin (0.1) and LWP bin (50 g m^{-2}). The drizzle occurrence being detected from both methods at the three ARM observatories are shown in Fig. 5. For all the observational site/campaigns, drizzle is more likely to occur as LWP increases. This tendency holds true despite the drizzle detection method being used. However, for each observational campaign, drizzle occurrence detected from MLA (Fig. 5 a, b, c) is always larger than from dBZA (Fig. 5 d, e, f). This difference becomes significant especially for thin clouds with low LWP: when LWP is under 50 g m^{-2}, or equivalently, cloud thickness is less than 200 m (Fig. 6), drizzle occurrence being detected from dBZA is around 0.1 while it is 0.4~0.5 from MLA. This result clearly indicates that the traditional drizzle detection method based on a reflectivity threshold significantly underestimates the true drizzle occurrence, especially in thin cloud layers. To quantitatively describe the detection performance, we estimate the relative percentage difference of the drizzle detections between two methods as follows:

$$P_{LWP}\ (\%) = \frac{N_{MLA,LWP} - N_{dBZA,LWP}}{N_{MLA,LWP}} * 100$$

Where $N_{MLA,LWP}$ and $N_{dBZA,LWP}$ indicate the number of the drizzle detection by MLA and dBZA respectively for a given LWP category. The results (Fig. 7a) indicate that when LWP is smaller than 50 g m^{-2}, which frequently occurs under the ENA and MAGIC campaigns (Fig. 7b), 90% of drizzle are missed by dBZA at ENA and MARCUS, and 60 % of drizzle is undetected at MAGIC compared with MLA. An application of a relative lower reflectivity threshold with dBZ< -20, to some degree, mitigate the missing drizzle detections compared with MBL, but still with 50~80% of the drizzle being undetected (shading area in Fig. 7a).

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Besides the considerable drizzle signals missed by dBZA, another implication to be noted is the difference of drizzle distribution among the three ARM campaigns. Specifically, large drizzle fractions tend to occur in the upper part of cloud at ENA and in the lower parts of cloud at MARCUS and MAGIC (Fig. 5). When compared with MLA, the missing drizzle detections based on dBZA are much more significant for ENA/MARCUS than for MAGIC (Fig. 7a). The different drizzle distribution pattern suggests that clouds among these three campaigns might have different microphysical properties and processes that controls the drizzle initiation. For instance, the contrasting thermodynamics environment among the ARM campaigns with low/high temperature and humidity at MARCUS/MAGIC might leads to different autoconversion process which control the drizzle formation. In particular, we suspect that a more humid environment under MAGIC will benefits the generation of larger cloud droplets compared with the other campaigns (Laird et al., 2000;Zhou et al., 2015). Fig. 8 supports this hypothesis by showing that the mean cloud reflectivity at MAGIC is 8dB larger than it is at the other two campaigns for LWP smaller than 100 gm^{-2}. The relatively large dBZ for small LWP, to some degree, mitigates the underrepresented drizzle detection by the reflectivity-based method.

5. **Conclusion and Discussion**

Building on the concept that radar Doppler spectra skewness is more sensitive to drizzle presence, a new method of detecting drizzle in marine boundary clouds is presented. In-situ observed DSDs are used to unambiguously classify cloud and drizzle particles; then, a radar Doppler spectra simulator is applied to estimate the expected radar-observed reflectivity and skewness. Extensive datasets collected from the ACE-ENA campaign are trained via the ML-based algorithm to optimally determine a classification equation of cloud/drizzle. The proposed algorithm is validated by the in-situ measurements to successfully detect weak drizzle signals, which are completely missed by the traditional reflectivity-based technique.

The drizzle/cloud classification outcome of a thin cloud layer observed on June 30, 2017 at ENA was presented to show the performance of the detection algorithm. It was found that even for thin cloud with thickness less than 150 m, a significant amount of drizzle already exists; this classification result is further verified by the in-situ observations. Furthermore, a statistical

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analysis compares the drizzle occurrence from two detection methods at the ACE-ENA, MARCUS and MAGIC field campaigns. The results indicate that drizzle is ubiquitous in cloud layers and its existence has been significantly underestimated by conventional reflectivity-based methods, especially in thin cloud layers. The drizzle occurrence and vertical structure differ among the three campaigns, indicating that drizzle formation and distribution in marine stratocumulus clouds might be regime dependent, determined by microphysical and dynamical process in the local region. In this study, data from the three observational campaigns are used to explore the drizzle frequency of marine stratocumulus in middle/high latitude regions; however, it is quite possible that the drizzle occurrence from other locations might differ from the presented results. A complete understanding of the drizzle climatology in marine stratocumulus clouds calls for more campaign observations and continuing investigations.

The results in this study provide a new perspective for viewing drizzle existence in radar observations with the hope of shedding light on several critical topics in the warm cloud studies: 1) In most microphysics retrieval algorithms, the existence of drizzle particles is determined by a reflectivity threshold. However, this study shows the presence of significant drizzle drops during low reflectivity conditions (lower than -20 dBZ) and a lack of considering this may lead to a certain degree of the retrieval uncertainty; 2) Drizzle production mechanisms are widely regarded as a critical missing piece of the puzzle in warm cloud research (Takahashi et al., 2017). Particularly, the parameterization schemes of the autoconversion/accretion processes in numerical models have large variations among each other, leading to significant uncertainty in future climate predictions (Michibata and Suzuki, 2020;Wood, 2005b). The results presented in this study can be used to verify the proposed parameterization schemes by comparing the drizzle climatology. 3) Furthermore, the novel utilization of in-situ and remote sensing synthesis of observations presented in this study yields insights on the potential of combined multi-platform observations to investigate the microphysical processes in warm clouds.

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Data availability: The ARM observational datasets are available at the ARM Data Center. The KAZR data (kazrge) can be accessed via http://dx.doi.org/10.5439/1025214. The ceilometer dataset (ceil) can be accessed via http://dx.doi.org/10.5439/1181954. The retrieved LWP product (mwrret2turn) can be accessed via http://dx.doi.org/10.5439/1566156. The in-situ observation during the ACE-ENA campaign can be accessed via https://adc.arm.gov/discovery/#/results/iopShortName::aaf2017ace-ena.

Supplement: The supplement related to this article is available online at:

Author contributions: Z.Z. designed the methodology and performed the analysis. P.K. contributed the design of the study. E.L provide the MicroARSCL datasets. F.Y. assisted in the interpretation of results. Z.Z. prepared the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors.

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Figures and Tables:

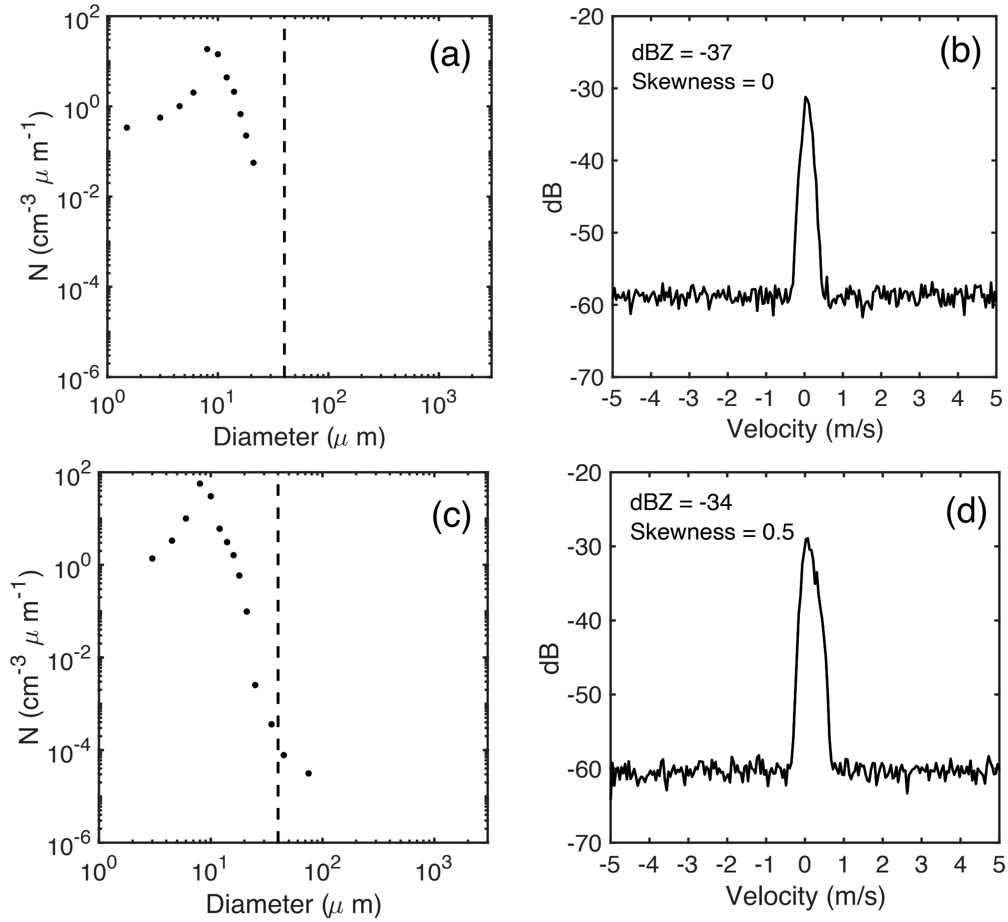

Figure 1: In-situ observed DSD of cloud-only (a) and the corresponding simulated Doppler Radar spectrum (b), reflectivity and skewness of the spectrum are indicated in the upper left corner. (c) and (d) are same as (a), (b) but for mixed cloud-drizzle DSD. The dash line in (a), (c) indicates diameter with 40 μm.

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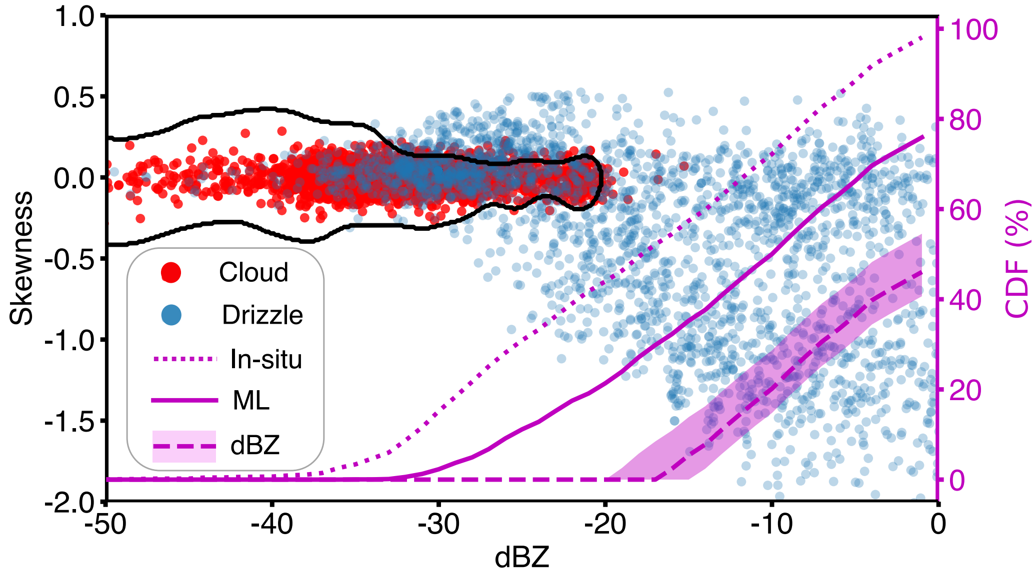

Figure 2: Distribution of the cloud-only (red points) and mixed cloud-drizzle (blue points) samples from the in-situ observation over the reflectivity-skewness space. The black line indicates the classification boundary of cloud/drizzle resolved by Machine Learning algorithm. Right axis indicates the CDF of all correctly identified drizzly samples as a function of reflectivity by each method: dotted magenta line is for the in-situ observations, which represents the true value; solid magenta line is for the ML technique; the magenta shading is for the reflectivity-based technique with upper boundary using dBZ > -20 and lower boundary using dBZ > -15; the dashed magenta line is for the reflectivity-threshold technique with dBZ > -17.

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Table 1: Precision(P) and Recall(R) of the drizzle/cloud classification outcome for different combination of C and Γ. The dark shaded cell represents the classification performance for the selected parameters ($C=1$, $\Gamma=50$) being used in the study.

C \ Γ	1	10	50	100	200	500
1	0.99(P) 0.82(R)	0.98(P) 0.85(R)	0.98(P) 0.85(R)	0.98(P) 0.85(R)	0.97(P) 0.86(R)	0.92(P) 0.87(R)
10	0.99(P) 0.84(R)	0.98(P) 0.85(R)	0.98(P) 0.85(R)	0.98(P) 0.85(R)	0.94(P) 0.85(R)	0.91(P) 0.86(R)
50	0.99(P) 0.84(R)	0.98(P) 0.85(R)	0.98(P) 0.85(R)	0.97(P) 0.85(R)	0.93(P) 0.86(R)	0.89(P) 0.87(R)
100	0.99(P) 0.84(R)	0.98(P) 0.85(R)	0.98(P) 0.84(R)	0.96(P) 0.85(R)	0.92(P) 0.86(R)	0.89(P) 0.87(R)
200	0.98(P) 0.85(R)	0.98(P) 0.84(R)	0.98(P) 0.84(R)	0.95(P) 0.85(R)	0.91(P) 0.86(R)	0.89(P) 0.87(R)
500	0.98(P) 0.85(R)	0.98(P) 0.84(R)	0.98(P) 0.85(R)	0.94(P) 0.86(R)	0.91(P) 0.86(R)	0.88(P) 0.87(R)
1000	0.98(P) 0.85(R)	0.98(P) 0.84(R)	0.97(P) 0.84(R)	0.94(P) 0.86(R)	0.90(P) 0.86(R)	0.88(P) 0.88(R)

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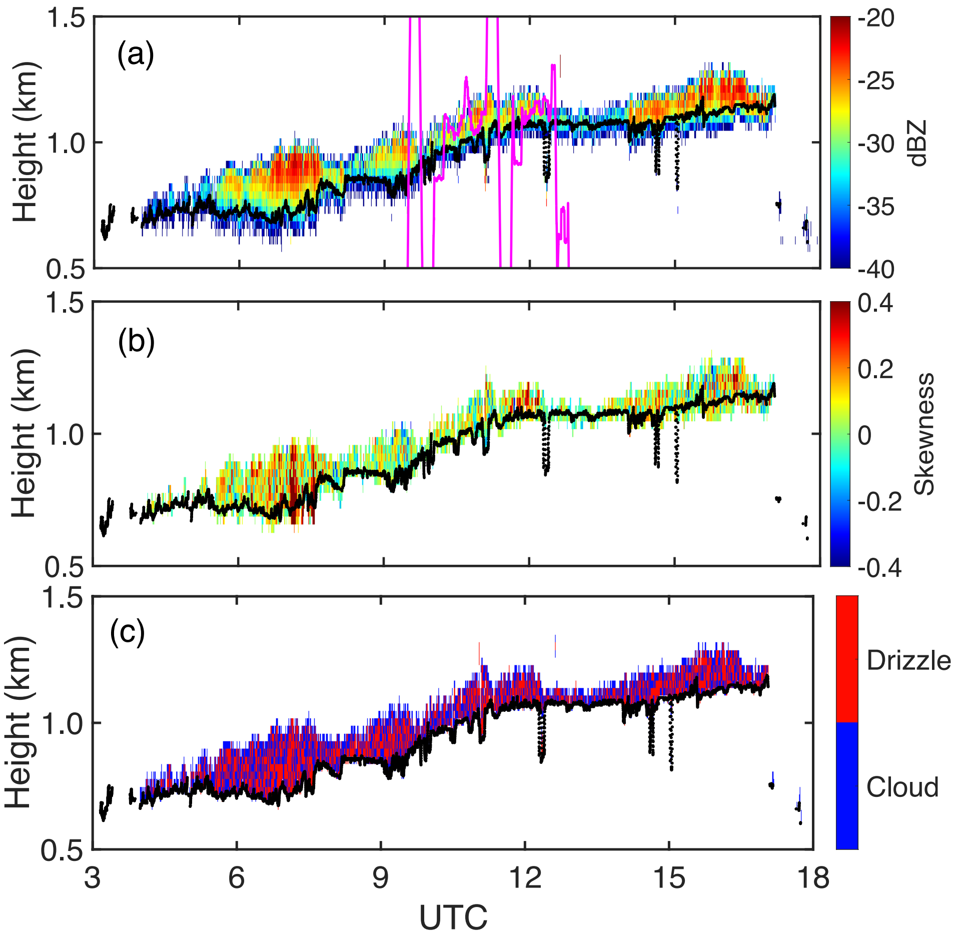

Figure 3: Reflectivity (a), skewness (b) and the classification mask (c) on June 30, 2017, at ENA site. Black line indicates the ceilometer-determined cloud base, magenta line in (a) indicates altitude track of the aircraft during the observation period.

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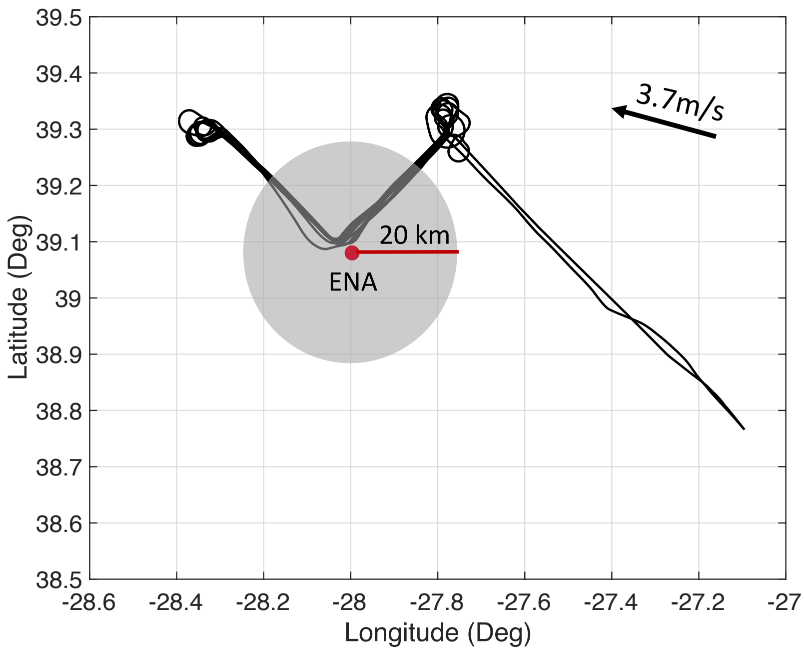

Figure 4: Aircraft track (black line) during the operational period on June 30, 2017. Shaded circle indicates the area within 20km around ENA site. The arrow in the upper right corner indicates mean wind direction and wind velocity in cloud layer during the observational period.

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Table 2: Selected stratocumulus days in ACE-ENA, MAGIC and MARCUS campaigns.

ARM site	Selected Days
ENA	20170603, 20170604, 20170605, 20170616, 20170617, 20170627,20170628, 20170630, 20170701,20170702, 20160703, 20170706, 20170707, 20170709, 20170713,20170714, 20170715, 20170718, 20170719
MAGIC	20121016, 20121020, 20121030, 20121105, 20130526, 20130604,20130605, 20130708, 20130709, 20130710, 20130717, 20130720, 20130721,20130722, 20130729, 20130730, 20130731, 20130804
MARCUS	20180109, 20180110 ,20180228, 20180301, 20180322, 20180323

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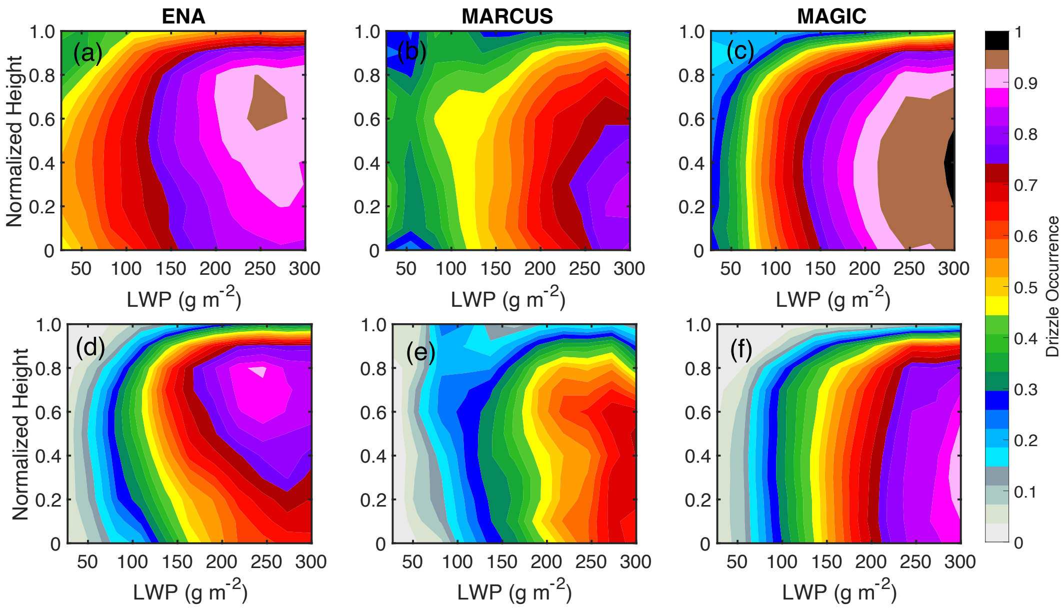

Figure 5: Vertical distribution of drizzle occurrence categorized by LWP based on MLA under ENA (a), MARCUS (b) and MAGIC (c) observational campaigns. (d), (e) and (f) are same as (a), (b), (c) except the drizzle is detected by dBZA.

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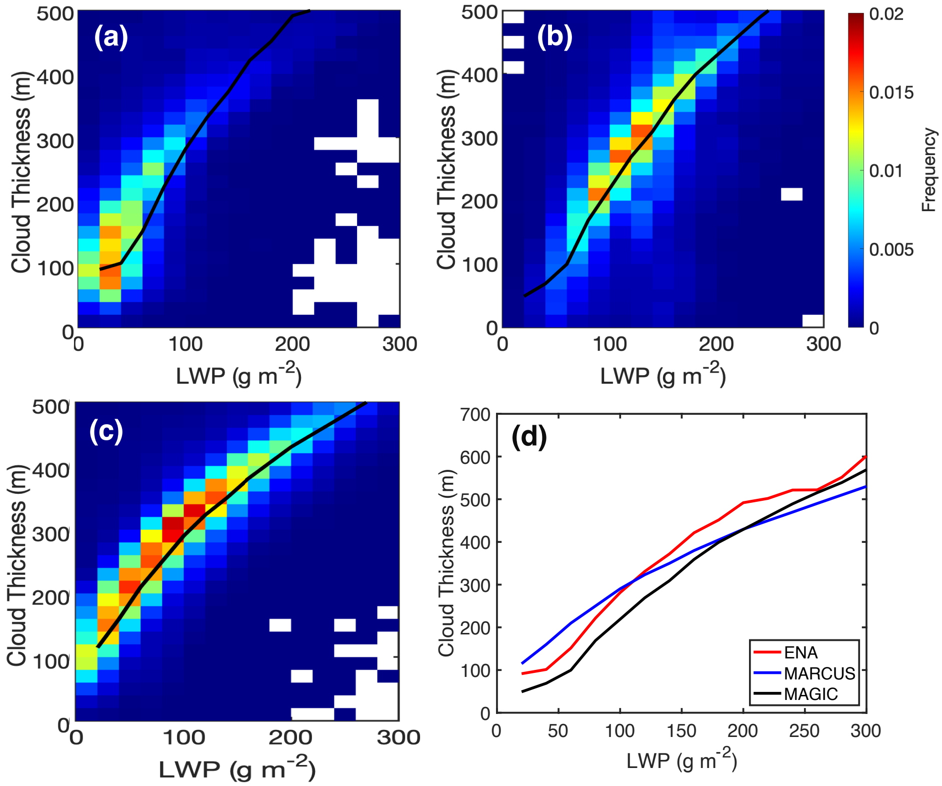

Figure 6: Joint histogram of cloud thickness and LWP at three campaigns: (a) ENA, (b) MARCUS and (c) MAGIC. The black line indicates the mean cloud thickness in each LWP category. For comparison, the relationship between mean cloud thickness and LWP at three campaigns (black line in (a),(b),(c)) are shown in (d).

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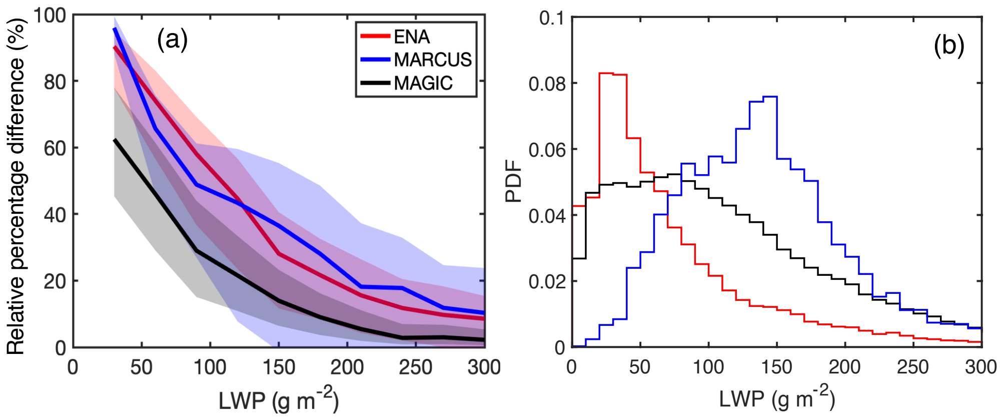

Figure 7: (a) Relative percentage difference of drizzle detection between the dBZA (dBZ > -17) and MLA as a function of LWP at ARM observational campaigns: ENA (red line), MARCUS (blue line) and MAGIC (black line). The shading area indicates same results but with different reflectivity threshold being used: the upper boundary is for the dBZ > -15 and the lower boundary is for dBZ > -20. (b) Histogram of the LWP distribution collected at three campaigns: ENA (red line), MARCUS (blue line) and MAGIC (black line).

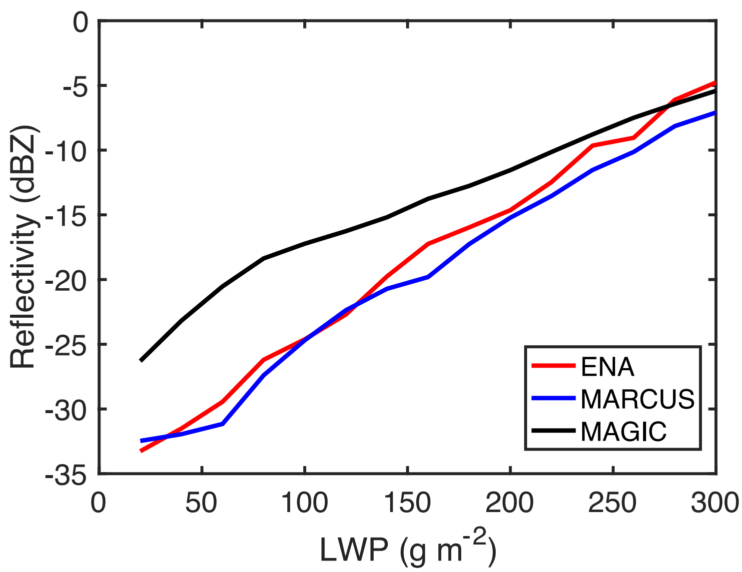

Figure 8: Mean KAZR reflectivity of the hydrometeor signal as a function of LWP at three campaigns: ENA (red line), MARCUS (blue line) and MAGIC (black line).