

1 Overview: Fusion of Radar Polarimetry and Numerical Atmospheric 2 Modelling Towards an Improved Understanding of Cloud and 3 Precipitation Processes

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24 **Abstract.** Cloud and precipitation processes are still a main source of uncertainties in numerical weather prediction and climate
25 change projections. The Priority Program “Polarimetric Radar Observations meet Atmospheric Modelling (PROM)“, funded
26 by the German Research Foundation (Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft, DFG), is guided by the hypothesis that many
27 uncertainties relate to the lack of observations suitable to challenge the representation of cloud and precipitation processes in
28 atmospheric models. Such observations can, however, nowadays be provided e.g. by the recently installed dual-polarization
29 C-band weather radar network of the German national meteorological service in synergy with cloud radars and other
30 instruments at German supersites and similar national networks increasingly available worldwide. While polarimetric radars
31 potentially provide valuable in-cloud information e.g. on hydrometeor type, quantity, and microphysical cloud and
32 precipitation processes, and atmospheric models employ increasingly complex microphysical modules, considerable
33 knowledge gaps still exist in the interpretation of the observations and in the optimal microphysics model process formulations.

34 PROM is a coordinated interdisciplinary effort to intensify the use of polarimetric radar observations in data assimilation,
35 which requires a thorough evaluation and improvement of parametrizations of moist processes in atmospheric models. As an
36 overview article of the inter-journal special issue “Fusion of radar polarimetry and numerical atmospheric modelling towards
37 an improved understanding of cloud and precipitation processes”, this article outlines the knowledge achieved in PROM during
38 the past two years and gives perspectives for the next four years.

39 **1 Introduction and Objectives of the priority program**

40 A main source of uncertainty in the models used in numerical weather prediction (NWP) and climate change projections are
41 the parametrizations of cloud and precipitation processes (Bauer et al., 2015). A major part of these uncertainties can be
42 attributed to missing observations suitable to challenge the representation of cloud and precipitation processes employed in
43 atmospheric models. A wealth of new information on precipitation microphysics and generating processes can be gained from
44 observations from polarimetric weather radars and their synergistic analysis at different frequencies. The dual-polarization
45 upgrade of the United States National Weather Service (NWS) S-Band Weather Surveillance Radar 1988 Doppler (WSR-88D)
46 network was completed in 2013. Germany finished upgrading its C-band network to polarimetry in 2015 in parallel with other
47 European countries. The synergistic exploitation of polarimetric precipitation radars together with measurements from cloud
48 radars and other instrumentation available at supersites and research institutions enables for the first time a thorough evaluation
49 and potential improvement of current microphysical parameterizations based on detailed multi-frequency remote-sensing
50 observations. Data assimilation merges observations and models for state estimation as a prerequisite for prediction and can
51 be seen as a smart interpolation between observations while exploiting the physical consistency of atmospheric models as
52 mathematical constraints.

53 Considerable knowledge gaps still exist, however, both in radar polarimetry and atmospheric models, which still impede the
54 full exploitation of the triangle between radar polarimetry, atmospheric models, and data assimilation and call for a coordinated
55 interdisciplinary effort. The German Research Foundation (Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft, DFG) responded to this call
56 and established the Priority Program “Polarimetric Radar Observations meet Atmospheric Modelling (PROM)”; its first 3-
57 year funding period began in 2019, which will be followed by a second funding period starting in 2022. PROM exploits the
58 synergy of polarimetric radar observations and state-of-the-art atmospheric models to better understand moist processes in the
59 atmosphere, and to improve their representation in climate- and weather prediction models. The overarching goal is to extend
60 our scientific understanding at the verges of the three disciplines, radar polarimetry – atmospheric models – data assimilation,
61 for better predictions of precipitating cloud systems. To approach this goal the initiators of PROM at the Universities of Bonn
62 and Leipzig in Germany identified the following five objectives (see also Trömel et al. 2018):

- 63 1) Exploitation of radar polarimetry for quantitative process detection in precipitating clouds and for model evaluation
64 including a quantitative analysis of polarimetric fingerprints and microphysical retrievals,
- 65 2) Improvement of cloud and precipitation schemes in atmospheric models based on process fingerprints detectable in
66 polarimetric observations,
- 67 3) Monitoring of the energy budget evolution due to phase changes in the cloudy, precipitating atmosphere for a better
68 understanding of its dynamics,
- 69 4) Analyzing precipitation system by assimilation of polarimetric radar observations into atmospheric models for weather
70 forecasting, and
- 71 5) Radar-based detection of the initiation of convection for the improvement of thunderstorm prediction.

72 In the first funding period, 14 projects (see <https://www2.meteo.uni-bonn.de/spp2115>) distributed over Germany contribute to
73 at least one of these objectives. In most projects, a radar meteorologist works together with a modeller in order to successfully
74 combine expert knowledge from both research fields. This overview article of the ACP/AMT/GMD inter-journal special issue
75 entitled "Fusion of radar polarimetry and numerical atmospheric modelling towards an improved understanding of cloud and
76 precipitation processes" outlines methodologies developed and results achieved from a selection of the projects during the past
77 two years, and provides overall perspectives for the next four years. The paper is organized as follows: Section 2 explains
78 prevailing challenges in the representation of clouds in atmospheric models, while Sect. 3 provides methodologies to extend
79 our insight in the microphysics of clouds and precipitation by exploiting radar polarimetry. Section 4 addresses the fusion of
80 numerical modelling and radar polarimetry via model evaluation either in radar observation space using observation operators
81 or using microphysical retrievals. First conclusions for improved model parametrizations and for a better representation of
82 model uncertainty in radar data assimilation are drawn. Section 5 provides a summary and perspectives for the following years.

83 **2 Representation of clouds in atmospheric models**

84 The representation of cloud and precipitation processes in atmospheric models is a central challenge for NWP and climate
85 projections (e.g., Bauer et al., 2015; Forster et al., 2021), which also impact offline hydrological models by modulating the
86 distribution of incoming solar radiation and precipitation and affecting the simulated hydrological processes such as
87 evapotranspiration, runoff, and groundwater depths (e.g., Shrestha, 2021). While the primitive equations provide a solid
88 theoretical basis for atmospheric model dynamics, the key diabatic processes that drive energetics and thus circulation, are
89 poorly resolved. Important diabatic processes are linked to cloud and precipitation microphysics acting at scales of
90 micrometres and turbulent processes ranging from several to hundreds of meters. While significant progress has been achieved
91 by high-resolution modelling at the coarser end of this range (e.g., Heinze et al., 2017; Stevens et al., 2020), the intricate and
92 complex microphysical processes still require parameterizations in any dynamic atmospheric model down to and including the
93 scale of direct numerical simulations (e.g., Mellado et al., 2009).

94 A key uncertainty in weather prediction and climate modelling results from the still-rudimentary representation of moist
95 processes and from the diabatic heating/cooling the models induce due to latent heat and their interaction with radiation. The
96 generation and interpretation of past and future climate states additionally has to consider changes in microphysical processes
97 due to anthropogenic aerosol acting, e.g., as cloud condensation nuclei and ice nucleating particles. For short-term weather
98 prediction, the location and evolution of convective events with lifetimes of hours or less are particularly challenging, while
99 relatively slow moving and frontal systems with lifetimes of days show reasonable predictability (Alifrieri et al., 2012).

100 Atmospheric modelling in Germany has recently seen substantial advances both in terms of cloud-resolving simulations in
101 NWP mode and in the implementation of ice and mixed-phase precipitation formation processes. Traditionally, different model
102 systems were used for NWP and climate modelling, which were also both heavily used in academic research. Research with
103 the ECHAM (the acronym is a combination of ECMWF (European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts) and
104 Hamburg) model family originating from the NWP model of the ECMWF focused on long-term climate integrations at
105 horizontal resolutions on the order of 100 km (Stevens et al., 2013), and the COSMO model operated at horizontal resolutions
106 down to 2.8 km was used for NWP and reanalysis studies. Both model families are currently being replaced by the ICOSahedral
107 Nonhydrostatic (ICON) modelling framework (Zängl et al., 2015) jointly developed by the Max-Planck Institute for
108 Meteorology and the German national meteorological service (Deutscher Wetterdienst, DWD). Its climate version (the ICON
109 general circulation model, ICON GCM) inherited its physics package from the ECHAM model, and the NWP version
110 incorporated the one from the COSMO model. A third version largely based on the COSMO physics package was developed
111 for higher resolutions (Dipankar et al., 2015) and employs a large-eddy turbulence scheme (ICON-LEM). The latter is able to
112 operate on large domains (Heinze et al., 2017; Stevens et al., 2020) and includes aerosol-cloud interactions (Costa-Surós et al.,
113 2020). In PROM primarily the three ICON model variants (ICON-LEM, ICON-NWP, and ICON-A/GCM) are used.

114 In most atmospheric models, cloud and precipitation microphysical processes are represented by bulk microphysical schemes
115 that distinguish between different hydrometeor classes and include their specific masses as prognostic variables while their
116 size distributions are parametrized (the ICON model considered here uses the scheme by Seifert and Beheng, 2006).
117 Computationally much more demanding are so-called spectral-bin microphysics schemes (Khain et al., 2015), which evolve
118 cloud- and precipitation particle size distributions discretized into size-interval bins. An example is the Hebrew University
119 Cloud Model (HUCM) created by Khain et al. (2005) that treats both liquid and much more intricate (since ice may occur in
120 various shapes and densities) ice crystal distributions. The model is employed by some of the PROM projects in addition to
121 the liquid-only bin-microphysics model by Simmel et al. (2015) extended to the ice phase based on the scheme by Hashino
122 and Tripoli (2007). For the simulation of the evolution of specific air volumes a Lagrangian particle model (McSnow; Brdar
123 and Seifert, 2018) is used in PROM, that models ice and mixed-phase microphysical processes such as depositional growth,
124 aggregation, riming, secondary ice generation, and melting closer to the real processes than bulk formulations. Microphysical
125 processes including radiation-particle interactions obviously depend on particle shape; thus the evolution of shapes in particle

126 models – and their signatures in radar observations – is instrumental for a full understanding and adequate representation of
127 the microphysical processes in models. Advanced microphysical parametrizations such as spectral-bin or Lagrangian particle
128 schemes are relevant for cloud-resolving models and exploited in PROM for the development and improvement of bulk
129 parametrizations. Scientific questions about global climate require long model integrations and thus coarse spatial resolutions
130 due to computing time constraints. At these resolutions (usually of order of $100 \times 100 \text{ km}^2$ in the horizontal), fractional
131 cloudiness needs to be considered when the grid-box mean relative humidity is below 100%, which requires parametrizations
132 of subgrid-scale variability in relative humidity. Here, PROM builds on assumptions employed in the global ICON model
133 (ICON GCM) to predict fractional cloudiness (e.g., Quaas, 2012).

134 **3 Observational insights from polarimetric radar observations and challenges**

135 DWD operates 17 state-of-the-art polarimetric Doppler C-band weather radars which provide a 3-D sampling of precipitating
136 particles above Germany every five minutes. Together with their Doppler information, radars are the backbone for precipitation
137 and nowcasting products for all meteorological services. Although precipitation monitoring is still the most widespread
138 application of weather radars, their upgrade to polarimetry worldwide not only improves precipitation estimates; their
139 observations are also increasingly exploited for the evaluation and improvement of the representation of cloud- and
140 precipitation processes in atmospheric models (e.g., Gao et al., 2011; Jung et al., 2012; You et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020).
141 Additional observations from cloud radars nowadays available at so-called supersites (in Germany e.g., the Jülich Observatory
142 for Cloud Evolution – Core Facility; JOYCE-CF; Löhnert et al. 2015; <http://www.cplex-lab.de>), universities, and research
143 facilities (e.g. the Leipzig Aerosol and Cloud Remote Observations System; LACROS; Bühl et al., 2013) open opportunities
144 to inform and improve atmospheric models. The use of shorter wavelengths of cloud radars shifts the sensitivity of the
145 observations towards smaller particles and partly increases the magnitude of the received polarimetric signals (e.g. K_{DP} – the
146 differential phase shift between horizontal and vertical polarization per distance called specific differential phase – scales with
147 λ^{-1}), which allows for more detailed studies of ice and cloud microphysics. Polarimetric and multi-frequency radar observations
148 allow for a more granular look at microphysical processes and provide a great data base for model evaluation, the improvement
149 of microphysical parametrizations, and data assimilation, and thus have the potential to significantly improve both weather
150 forecasts and climate predictions.

151 **3.1 Multi-frequency and spectral polarimetry for ice and cloud microphysics**

152 The PROM-project *Understanding Ice Microphysical Processes by combining multi-frequency and spectral Radar*
153 *polarImetry aNd super-parTicle modelling (IMPRINT)* improves ice microphysical process understanding by using spectral
154 multi-frequency and radar polarimetric observations in combination with Monte-Carlo Lagrangian super-particle modeling
155 (Brdar and Seifert, 2018). Mid-latitude stratiform clouds, which occur frequently during winter time over JOYCE-CF, are the
156 main focus. Radar polarimetric variables are well known to be particularly sensitive to the presence of asymmetric ice particles

157 (e.g. Kumjian 2013). Only recently, also polarimetric cloud radars operating at Ka or W-band are routinely available (Oue et
158 al. 2018; Myagkov et al, 2016; Bühl et al. 2016; Matrosov et al. 2012). Some polarimetric variables are wavelength dependent
159 (K_{DP} is inversely proportional to the wavelength), which provides enhanced sensitivity to ice particle concentration at higher
160 frequencies. Multi-frequency approaches are complementary to radar polarimetry as they are sensitive to larger ice particles.
161 Most commonly, the dual wavelength ratio (DWR), defined as the logarithmic difference of the effective reflectivity Z_e at two
162 frequencies, is used. When ice particles transition from Rayleigh into non-Rayleigh scattering from one wavelength to a higher
163 one, the DWR increases, which allows to infer the characteristic size of the underlying size distribution. The use of three radar
164 frequencies (e.g. X, Ka, W) extends the discernable size range; e.g. the DWR of the Ka-W combination saturates for very large
165 particles (Kneifel et al. 2015; Ori et al. 2021). The information content can be further extended when also the Doppler spectral
166 information is explored. The different fall velocities allow for the separation of different hydrometeors; the high Z_{DR} signal
167 originating from small, slow falling ice crystals can be distinguished from the also low Z_{DR} signal of faster falling snow
168 aggregates, which usually dominate the total Z_{DR} . Only few studies used so far spectral polarimetric observations for ice and
169 snow microphysical studies (Luke et al., 2021; Oue et al., 2018; Pfitzenmayer et al., 2018; Spek et al., 2008). The observations
170 collected during the first multi-months winter campaign carried out at JOYCE-CF as part of the IMPRINT project provide for
171 the first time the opportunity to investigate both, polarimetry and multi-frequency observations in the Doppler spectra space.
172 An example is the analysis of the dendritic growth layer DGL illustrated in Fig. 1 for a snowfall event observed on 22nd
173 January 2019 at JOYCE-CF. Especially in the upper half of the cloud, the Z_{DR} is enhanced while K_{DP} values are low (Fig. 1b-
174 c). Starting at the -15°C isotherm, the Z_{DR} sharply decreases and shows an anti-correlation to the enhanced DWR (Fig. 1a) and
175 K_{DP} values. These polarimetric signatures have been reported by previous studies (e.g., Moisseev et al., 2015 among others),
176 and also the DWR increase below the -15°C level resembles the examples shown in Oue et al. (2018). Oue et al 2018 concluded
177 in agreement with findings in Moisseev et al. (2015), that an increasing concentration of asymmetric aggregates are partly
178 responsible for the enhanced values of K_{DP} because the number of small ice particles will decrease due to aggregation. The
179 spectrally-resolved Z_{DR} (sZ_{DR} , Fig. 1e), however, reveals that high Z_{DR} -producing, slowly falling ice particles are still present
180 down to the -5°C level. The spectrally resolved DWR (Fig. 1d) shows that the particles falling from above into the DGL are
181 already partly aggregated. At -17°C , the spectra are much wider and a new spectral mode appears which is linked to the rapid
182 sZ_{DR} increase (Fig. 1e). The new ice particle mode increases in Doppler velocity and $sDWR$ until 20dB are reached. Unlike
183 Z_{DR} , the K_{DP} (Fig. 1c and f) remains at values between 1-2°/km down to the -5°C level. A possible explanation of the bimodal
184 spectra - increased sZ_{DR} and K_{DP} - might be secondary ice processes such as collisional fragmentation (Field et al., 2017). The
185 few existing laboratory studies indicate that the number of fragments rapidly increases at -20°C , reaching a maximum at -17°C
186 and decreasing again towards -10°C (Takahashi et al., 1995; Takahashi, 2014). This temperature dependence fits well to the
187 observed radar signatures in the DGL, although the laboratory studies only considered collisions of solid ice spheres. As we
188 can exclude strongly rimed particles in the snowfall case shown in Fig. 1, fragile dendritic structures growing on the surface
189 of aggregates might be responsible, which precipitate into the DGL and might easily break into smaller pieces during particle
190 collisions (Fig. 1d). Monte-Carlo Lagrangian super-particle model (Brdar and Seifert, 2018) simulations were recently

191 extended in IMPRINT by a habit prediction scheme and a parameterization of ice collisional fragmentation following Phillips
192 et al. (2017). The role of ice fragmentation and other ice microphysical processes is currently investigated with a radar
193 observation operator for explaining the observed radar signatures of intense aggregation shown in Fig. 1.

194

195 The PROM-project *Investigation of the initiation of convection and the evolution of precipitation using simulations and*
196 *polarimetric radar observations at C- and Ka-band (IcePolCKa)* combines observations of the C-band Polarization Diversity
197 Doppler Radar (POLDIRAD) at the German Aerospace Center (DLR), Oberpfaffenhofen, with those of the Ka-band,
198 Millimeter-wave cloud RADar of the Munich Aerosol Cloud Scanner (miraMACS) at Ludwig-Maximilians-Universität (LMU),
199 Munich. While IMPRINT combines triple-frequency zenith-pointing observations with spectral cloud radar polarimetry,
200 IcePolCKa explores the life cycle of convective precipitation with spatially separated weather and cloud radars in order to
201 quantify ice crystal properties in precipitation formation. The project focuses on ice particle growth and its role in precipitation
202 formation within convective cells. Coordinated Range-Height-Indicator (RHI, varying elevation at constant azimuth) scans
203 along the 23 km long cross-section between both radars allow to observe DWR (Fig. 2a) and Z_{DR} (Fig. 2b) fingerprints of
204 individual convective cells. While the deviation from Rayleigh scattering with increasing ice crystal size at the cloud radar
205 wavelength is used to distinguish regions dominated by aggregation from regions with depositional growth, the slanted
206 perspective of the weather radar helps to narrow down the aspect ratio of ice crystals. Although the DWR technique to infer
207 ice crystal size is well-established (e.g. Kneifel et al., 2015), assumptions about the unknown ice crystal shape are necessary.
208 Here, simultaneous polarimetric measurements, like Z_{DR} , help to narrow down the average asphericity of ice crystals and
209 reduce ambiguities in retrieving ice crystal size and ice water content. IcePolCKa develops an algorithm, which uses Z_H , Z_{DR}
210 and DWR measurements from the two radars to retrieve IWC, the mean particle diameter D_m , and the aspect ratio of ice crystals
211 using a least-squares fit between measurements and T-matrix scattering simulations. The model of horizontally aligned
212 spheroids in combination with an effective medium approximation following Hogan et al (2012) is used to find the simplest
213 ice particle model which explains the multi-wavelength polarimetric measurements. The approach allows to study the
214 covariance of DWR and Z_{DR} while varying particle density, mean particle diameter D_m , and aspect ratio. More sophisticated
215 models, such as DDA simulations of specific ice crystals, would require the knowledge of the aspect ratio, and make it hard to
216 identify ice shape collections along these free variables. The multi-wavelength polarimetric measurements are also used as a
217 benchmark for convective precipitation formation in NWP models, where cloud microphysics introduce substantial uncertainty
218 (e.g. Morrison et al., 2020, Xue et al., 2017). In IMPRINT simulated microphysical processes in NWP models will be compared
219 to fingerprints in radar observations: A nested WRF setup covering the overlap area of both radars is used to simulate
220 convective events with microphysical schemes of varying complexity while the Cloud-resolving model Radar SIMulator (CR-
221 SIM; Oue et al., 2020), produces synthetic radar observations, such as DWR (Fig. 2c) and Z_{DR} (Fig. 2d). Fig. 2 illustrates that
222 the Predicted Particle Properties (P3) scheme (Morrison and Milbrandt, 2015) is able to produce DWR features of similar
223 magnitude and variability compared to the observations, while a realistic ice particle asphericity is still missing. IcePolCKa
224 compiled over 30 convective days of polarimetric measurements and simulations with 5 different schemes over a 2-year

225 period., which is currently used to analyse how well these different microphysical schemes reproduce the polarimetric
226 observations. A cell-tracking algorithm (TINT; Fridlind et al, 2019) facilitates the comparison on a cell object basis.
227 Comparison of macrophysical cloud characteristics, such as echo top height or maximum cell reflectivity, show that the model
228 simulates too few weak and small scale convective cells, independent of the microphysics scheme. In ongoing studies, the P3
229 scheme seems to better represent radar signatures within the ice phase, while a spectral bin scheme tends to better simulate
230 radar signatures within rain, where all other schemes are not able to correctly reproduce observed Z_{DR} features.

231

232 The PROM-project *A seamless column of the precipitation process from mixed-phase clouds employing data from a*
233 *polarimetric C-band radar, a micro-rain radar and disdrometers (HydroColumn)* characterizes precipitation processes inside
234 a vertical atmospheric column by combining polarimetric Doppler weather radar observations with co-located measurements
235 from micro-rain radars, disdrometers and in-situ measurements, and by relating these observations to the large-scale
236 atmospheric thermodynamics derived from NWP models. To date, spectral analyses are mostly performed with cloud radars
237 operating at shorter wavelengths (see previous paragraphs or, e.g., Shupe et al., 2004; Verlinde et al., 2013; Kalesse et al.,
238 2016; Gehring et al., 2020; Li and Moisseev, 2020), but their implementation across the national C-band radar network offers
239 prospects for operational area-wide applications, e.g. the identification of dominant precipitation particle growth processes
240 such as aggregation or riming. *HydroColumn* uses the Doppler spectra measured at C-band during the operational DWD
241 birdbath scan, that is used for monitoring the differential reflectivity (Frech and Hubbert, 2020), for the analysis of
242 microphysical process information. Fig. 3 shows quasi-vertical profiles (QVPs; Trömel et al., 2014; Ryzhkov et al., 2016) of
243 polarimetric variables and Doppler spectra from birdbath scans for a stratiform precipitation event monitored with the
244 Hohenpeißenberg C-band research radar (47.8014N, 11.0097E) of DWD together with in-situ particle images obtained by the
245 Falcon research aircraft from DLR during the BLUESKY campaign (Voigt et al., 2021) within the *POLICE* project
246 (Sect.4.2.1). In-situ measurements have been performed with the Cloud, Aerosol and Precipitation Probe CAPS (Kleine et al.,
247 2018) integrated in a wing station on the Falcon flying within a horizontal distance of about 20 km from the radar site and
248 within about ± 15 min of the radar measurements. The dendritic growth layer (DGL; Ryzhkov and Zrnica, 2019) centered around
249 -15 °C is characterized by Z_{DR} maxima of ~ 1 dB and K_{DP} of ~ 0.2 ° km $^{-1}$, and a strong Z_H increase towards lower levels (Fig.
250 3a). Particle images collected at temperatures below about -15 °C indicate mostly small irregular ice particles with the number
251 of larger particles increasing toward -15 °C (see levels L1 and L2 in Fig. 3c), and further down also reveal dendrites and plates
252 (L3, L4). In general, aggregation and riming become highly effective particle growth mechanisms at temperatures around -7
253 °C (Libbrecht, 2005), and both processes result in a reduction of Z_{DR} (Fig. 3a). The vertically pointing Doppler measurements
254 can be used here to gain a deeper insight into the particle growth process. In this case study, the Doppler measurements
255 illustrated in Fig. 3b indicate typical ice-particle fall speeds increasing to about 2 m s $^{-1}$ just above the melting layer and thus
256 suggest a transition from predominantly aggregates to moderately rimed particles based on the relationship between Doppler
257 velocity and riming degree found by Kneifel and Moisseev (2020). This conclusion is supported by the corresponding in-situ
258 images showing increasing riming of polycrystals and aggregates toward the melting layer (L6). The analysis confirms the

259 benefit of interpreting radar signatures from polarimetric weather radar observations in combination with vertically pointing
260 Doppler radar measurements, which was previously pointed out for higher-frequency cloud research radars (Oue et al., 2018;
261 Kumjian et al., 2020). This novel application of radar spectral analysis to vertically-pointing operational weather radar scans
262 may provide a more detailed view into intense precipitation events, such as hailstorms, where the use of cloud radars is severely
263 limited due to the strong attenuation at high radar frequencies.

264 **3.2. Anthropogenic modifications of precipitation microphysics**

265 The PROM-project *Polarimetry Influenced by CCN and INP in Cyprus and Chile (PICNICC)* seeks to improve our
266 understanding of aerosol effects on microphysical growth processes in mixed-phase clouds. *PICNICC* exploits unique remote-
267 sensing datasets from the LACROS suite (Radenz et al., 2021) extended with ground-based remote sensing instruments
268 installed at Leipzig University, Universidad de Magallanes (Punta Arenas), and Cyprus University of Technology (Limassol).
269 Thus, dual-frequency polarimetric radar observations from the polluted, aerosol-burden Northern and from the clean, pristine
270 Southern hemisphere can be contrasted for microphysical process studies as already performed in the projector stratiform
271 mixed-phase clouds to investigate inter-hemispheric contrasts in the efficiency of heterogeneous ice formation (Radenz et al.,
272 2021). The PICNICC project challenges the hypothesis that higher ice crystal concentrations favour aggregation, which is
273 expected to be more frequent for high aerosol loads and accordingly higher ice nucleating particle (INP) concentrations, while
274 riming should prevail when supercooled liquid layers are sustained due to a scarcity of INP. Evaluating this hypothesis requires
275 the distinction between aggregation and riming in mixed-phase cloud systems. Fig. 4 demonstrates for a deep mixed-phase
276 cloud system passing the low-aerosol site in Punta Arenas (53°S, 71°W), Chile, on 30 August 2019, the capability of the
277 LACROS suite when combined with a 94-GHz Doppler radar to distinguish between aggregates and rimed particles. The
278 pattern of the 94-GHz radar reflectivity factor (Z_w , Fig. 4a) underlines the complex structure of the system. The height
279 spectrogram of the vertical-pointing 94-GHz slanted linear depolarization ratio (SLDR, Fig. 4 e) from 08:30 UTC exhibits
280 regions of changing shape signatures and multi-modality in the cloud radar Doppler spectra, where multiple hydrometeor
281 populations coexist. The polarizability ratio ξ_e (Myagkov et al., 2016) (Fig. 4d) obtained from the RHI scans of SLDR and the
282 co-cross correlation coefficient of horizontal and vertically polarized channels in the slanted basis ρ_v at 35 GHz (Fig. 4 b, c) is
283 obtained allows to estimate a density-weighted hydrometeor shape. SLDR is more suited for shape classification compared to
284 LDR. By slanting the polarization basis by 45°, the returned LDR signatures are much less sensitive to the canting angle
285 distribution of the targets, especially at low elevation angles (Matrosov et al., 2001; Myagkov et al., 2016). The polarimetric
286 RHI scans and the Doppler spectra data enable the retrieval of the vertical profile of the hydrometeors: Columnar-shaped bullet
287 rosettes are formed between 2.5 km height and cloud top as indicated in the RHI scans by an elevation-constant SLDR (Fig.
288 4b) and an increase of ρ_v with decreasing elevation (Fig. 4c). ξ_e around 1.3 (Fig. 4d) is characteristic for slightly columnar
289 crystals. The decreasing elevation-dependence of ρ_v already at around 3 km height (-15 to -20°C) suggests more random
290 particle orientations; here the W-band SLDR spectra (Fig. 4e) show reduced values, likely due to the co-existence of dendritic
291 ice crystals, which are formed preferably in this temperature range. The co-location of dendrites and columnar crystals can be

292 explained by either splintering of the arms of the dendritic crystals or a mixing of locally produced dendrites with columnar
293 crystals from higher up, or both. Below 2.5 km, ξ_c decreases toward unity, indicating the growth of isometric particles. Also
294 the vertical-pointing W-Band SLDR slowly decreases toward the cloud base, while fall velocities increase (Fig. 4e). Both
295 features are characteristic for riming, which is corroborated by co-located lidar observations that indicate liquid water in the
296 cloud-base region (not shown). Doppler spectra profiles such as the one presented in Fig. 4e are also used in a new neural-
297 network-based riming detection algorithm recently tailored by Vogl. et al. (2021) for vertical-pointing cloud radar
298 observations. This new approach is insensitive to the mean Doppler velocity, which is - especially at Punta Arenas - strongly
299 influenced by orographic mountain waves, because the radar reflectivity factor, skewness and the edge width of the Doppler
300 spectrum is used instead.

301
302 The PROM-project *Investigating the impact of Land-use and land-cover change on Aerosol-Cloud-precipitation*
303 *interactions using Polarimetric Radar retrievals (ILACPR)* analyzes polarimetric radar observations and model simulations
304 simultaneous in order to improve our understanding of land-aerosol-cloud-precipitation interactions. The Terrestrial Systems
305 Modelling Platform (TSMP; Shrestha et al., 2014; Gasper et al., 2014) developed under the DFG-funded Transregional
306 Research Center TR32 (Simmer et al., 2015) is used to simulate summertime convective storms passing the polarimetric X-
307 band radar (BoXPoL, e.g. Diederich et al., 2015a,b) located over Bonn, Germany. TSMP generally underestimates the
308 convective area fraction, high reflectivities, and the width/magnitude of differential reflectivity (ZDR) columns indicative of
309 updrafts, all leading to an underestimation of the frequency distribution for high precipitation values (Shrestha et al., 2021a).
310 A decadal scale simulation over the region using the hydrological component of TMSP also shows that much of the variability
311 in the simulated seasonal cycle of shallow groundwater could be linked to the distribution of clouds and vegetation (Shrestha,
312 2021), which further emphasizes the importance of model evaluation in representing clouds and precipitation. The fusion of
313 radar observations and models with the aid of observation operators, allows for an extended interrogation of the effects of
314 anthropogenic interventions on precipitation generating processes and the capabilities of numerical models to reproduce them.
315 Here, findings from one simulated hailstorm observed on 5 July 2015 passing the city of Bonn, Germany are explained.
316 Sensitivity simulations are conducted using large-scale aerosol perturbations and different land-cover types reflecting actual,
317 reduced and enhanced human disturbances. While the differences in modelled precipitation in response to the prescribed
318 forcing are below 5 %, the micro- and macrophysical pathways are found to differ, acting as a buffered system to the prescribed
319 forcings (Stevens and Feingold, 2009; Seifert and Beheng, 2012). Fig. 5 shows vertical cross-sections reconstructed from
320 volume scans measured with BoXPoL together with simulated Z_H and Z_{DR} for the TSMP simulations with actual land-cover
321 but perturbed condensation nuclei (CN) and ice nucleating particle (INP) concentrations. CN concentrations are 100 cm^{-3} for
322 maritime and 1700 cm^{-3} for continental aerosol. Similarly, concentrations for dust, soot and organics are $162\text{E}3 \text{ m}^{-3}$, $15\text{E}6 \text{ m}^{-3}$
323 and $177\text{E}6 \text{ m}^{-3}$, respectively, for default INP. For low/high INP, the concentration of soot and organics are decreased/increased
324 by one order of magnitude. To generate the synthetic radar observations the Bonn Polarimetric Radar observation Operator,
325 B-PRO, (Xie et al., 2021; Xie et al., 2016; Heinze et al., 2017; Shrestha et al., 2021b) is applied. B-PRO is based on the non-

326 polarimetric version of EMVORADO (Zeng et al., 2016); its code part for computing unattenuated radar reflectivity on the
327 original model grid (Blahak, 2016) has been expanded to unattenuated polarimetric variables based on spheroidal shape
328 assumptions (T-matrix). Because the full polarimetric version of EMVORADO (Pol-EMVORADO, see Section 4.1) was only
329 released very recently, the model data in ILACPR has been processed using B-PRO. Preliminary comparisons between B-PRO
330 and Pol-EMVORADO (not shown here) exhibit negligible differences in their results on the model grid, but Pol-EMVORADO
331 is much more computationally efficient and takes effects of beam broadening and attenuation along the actual radar ray paths
332 into account. The vertical cross sections are compared at different times marked by the vertical grey bars in the time series of
333 Convective Area Fraction (CAF, Fig. 5 a), defined as the ratio of area with $Z_H > 40$ dBZ (at 2 km a.g.l.) to total storm area. On
334 average BoXPol observations show a bit higher CAF compared to the simulations. The evolution is always similar in terms of
335 an initial increase and intensification in the second part of the observation period, where the experiment with maritime aerosols
336 and low INP (Mar-lowIN) is closest to the observations. All simulations show Z_H and Z_{DR} patterns comparable to BoXPol
337 observations, however, the experiment with continental aerosol and default INP (Con-defIN, Fig. 5c) shows weaker Z_H , while
338 Mar-lowIN (Fig. 5d) shows somewhat higher Z_H values compared to BoXPol (see Fig 5a). The simulations with maritime CN
339 produce low cloud droplet concentrations with larger mean diameters compared to the simulations with continental CN.
340 Accompanied by a very strong updraft, this also leads to high concentrations of supercooled raindrops above the melting layer
341 with broader spatial extent (due to a broader updraft region) compared to the simulations with continental CN and contributes
342 to an enhanced growth of hail resulting in higher Z_H . Also, as shown in the time-series of the CAF, simulations with continental
343 aerosol and default/high IN tend to exhibit similar behaviour in radar space, with the latter exhibiting higher CAF only at latter
344 stages of the storm. The continental CN simulations with default and high IN differ in terms of simulated updraft speed and
345 total hydrometeor content, being higher for the latter one. However, Cont-highIN produces smaller graupel and hail particles
346 compared to Cont-defIN, resulting in similar Z_H . The experiment with continental aerosol and high INP concentration (Con-
347 highIN, not shown) generates similar polarimetric moments to Con-lowIN. All experiments exhibit vertically extensive
348 columns of (slightly) enhanced Z_{DR} , collocated with intense simulated updrafts reaching up to 13 to 14 km. Indeed, Z_{DR}
349 columns emerged recently as proxies for updraft strength and ensuing precipitation enhancement (Weissmann et al., 2014;
350 Simmer et al., 2014; Kumjian et al., 2014; Kuster et al., 2020), and research on their exploitation for nowcasting and data
351 assimilation is ongoing. In Fig. 5c/d synthetic Z_{DR} columns are vertically extensive, while Z_{DR} values within the column stay
352 below 0.3 dB. BoXPol observations show Z_{DR} columns reaching up to 6 km height only but with Z_{DR} values exceeding 1dB.
353 While Z_{DR} values in the lower part of the columns are mostly generated by large raindrops, freezing drops and wet hail
354 determine Z_{DR} in the upper parts of the column (Kumjian et al., 2014; Snyder et al., 2015). The diverging appearance of
355 observed and synthetic Z_{DR} columns may point to deficiencies in the treatment of raindrops undergoing freezing and motivates
356 further research. Too rapid freezing of drops combined with graupel generated from the frozen drops may generate enhanced
357 but still low Z_{DR} up to high altitudes. Following Ilotoviz et al. (2018) such attributes of Z_{DR} columns are highly determined by
358 the vertical velocity, hail size, and aerosol concentration, e.g. higher CN concentrations lead to higher columns with higher
359 Z_{DR} values inside and also higher Z_H . In this case study and the specific time step shown, Mar-lowIN (i.e. with lower CN

360 concentration) shows a wider and somewhat taller Z_{DR} column together with a more intense Z_H core (compare Fig. 5c/d).
361 Further explanations require an improved representation of the Z_{DR} columns in the model.

362 **4 Fusion of radar polarimetry and atmospheric models**

363 Probably the most important and central tool for connecting polarimetric observations with numerical atmospheric models are
364 observation operators, which generate virtual observations from the model state. These virtual observations can be directly
365 compared with the real observations and signatures of microphysical processes including their temporal evolution. Thus, the
366 accuracy of precipitation and cloud parameterizations can be indirectly evaluated and a database established for model
367 optimization. Missing polarimetric process fingerprints (e.g. Kumjian, 2012) in the virtual observations may hint at model
368 deficiencies, and model parameterizations can be adapted in order to increase the coherence between real and virtual
369 observations. Moreover, sufficiently accurate and fast observation operators are mandatory for the direct assimilation of
370 observations using ensemble methods.

371 However, bulk cloud microphysical parameterizations required for NWP models include assumptions on several critical
372 parameters and processes which are not explicitly prognosed respectively resolved by the governing numerical model. An
373 example are the inherently assumed particle size distributions and their relations to the prognostic moments (hydrometeor mass
374 and number densities). Another challenge is the handling of hydrometeor parameters that are insufficiently or not at all
375 constrained by the model's microphysics but are highly relevant for the calculation of virtual observations in the (radar)
376 observation operator. For example, the melting state as well as shape, microstructure, and spatial orientation of the different
377 hydrometeors are not prognostic (or not even implicitly assumed) in most operational bulk schemes. Therefore, suitable
378 assumptions need to be made in observation operators in order to compute meaningful virtual observations. Moreover, bulk
379 cloud microphysical schemes may only insufficiently approximate the natural variability, and the interactions between the few
380 assumed hydrometeor classes and the size distribution moments are mainly tuned to get, e.g., the surface precipitation right.
381 The current approximations in both numerical models and observation operators may hence translate into different sources of
382 errors and biases of the simulated radar variables (e.g. Schinagl et al., 2019; Shrestha et al., 2021b). As an example, Fig. 7
383 shows too low polarimetric signals above the melting layer, which are partly caused by assumptions inherent in the observation
384 operator (see Sect. 4.2.1). Such problems challenge both model evaluation and data assimilation. The central science questions
385 are therefore the realism of the sensitivities of simulated radar variables to parameters in the observation operators and the
386 models as well as effective approaches to the evaluation and improvement of moist processes parametrizations.

387 Another challenge for large-scale applications such as long-term model evaluations or operational real-time data assimilation
388 based on large radar networks is the high computational demand and low speed of current polarimetric radar observation
389 operators. Often, the operators apply some kind of pre-calculated lookup tables (LUT) of scattering properties and
390 parallelization techniques for speed optimizations (e.g. Wolfensberger and Berne, 2018; Matsui et al., 2019; Oue et al., 2020).
391 Despite that, radar simulations for a single timestep take - depending on the computer - on the order of minutes for one single

392 plan position indicator (PPI) scan (Wolfensberger and Berne, 2018) or for a single model scene (CR-SIM; Oue et al., 2020).
393 Matsui et al. (2019) state the LUT generation process of their POLARRIS-f operator to only take a few minutes when
394 distributed to few thousands of processors, but do not elaborate on the required times for the actual simulation of the radar
395 measurement. The operator B-PRO (Xie et al., 2016), which uses neither of these techniques, is much slower, as applications
396 within SPP-PROM have demonstrated (Shresta et al., 2021b). While acceptable for research, real-time operational applications
397 may pose much stricter time constraints. Therefore, an important technical goal is to provide an efficient, yet physically
398 accurate and “state-of-the-art”, polarimetric radar operator to the community, which reduces the simulation time for multi-
399 elevation PPI scans of many stations to a few seconds.

400 **4.1 Polarimetric radar observation operator development**

401 Within the PROM-project *Operation Hydrometeors*, the up-to-now non-polarimetric radar observation operator
402 EMVORADO (Zeng et al., 2016; Blahak and de Lozar, 2020; Blahak, 2016) has been extended to polarimetry (Mendrok et
403 al., 2021). (Non-polarimetric) EMVORADO has been designed to efficiently simulate PPI volume scan measurements of entire
404 radar networks from the prognostic model state of an NWP model for direct comparisons with the radar observations.
405 EMVORADO is part of the executable of both the COSMO and ICON NWP models, which allows to run the operator within
406 a NWP model run and to access the model state and radar variables in memory. The code is MPI- and OpenMP-parallelized
407 and thus fully exploits the computational power of modern HPCs and avoids storing and re-reading extensive model state data
408 to/from hard drives. This enables large-scale real-time applications such as operational data assimilation and extensive NWP
409 model verifications using whole radar networks at high temporal resolution. Its modular nature allows for relatively easy
410 interface development to other NWP models. An offline framework is also available, which accesses model states of one model
411 time step from harddisk. EMVORADO includes detailed modular schemes to simulate beam bending, beam broadening and
412 melting effects, and allows users to choose for each process between computationally cheap and physically accurate options.
413 The operator has been used for the assimilation of radar reflectivity with positive impact on precipitation forecasts (Bick et al.,
414 2016; Zeng et al., 2018, 2019, 2020). Currently, DWD uses EMVORADO to operationally assimilate 3D volumetric
415 reflectivity and radial wind observations of its C-Band radar network. Key for this application is also the extensive use of
416 precomputed lookup tables that relate (Mie-theory based) bulk reflectivity directly to hydrometeor densities and temperature.
417 The effects of neglecting radar beam pattern and broadening and of hydrometeor fall speeds on data assimilation have been
418 investigated in a joint effort together with the PROM-project *Representing model error and observation Error uncertainty*
419 *for Data assimilation of POLarimetric radar measurements (REDPOL)* (Zeng et al., 2021a).

420 The polarimetry-extended EMVORADO, in the following referred to as Pol-EMVORADO, has inherited all features of
421 EMVORADO, which in turn have been expanded where necessary to calculate and handle polarimetric variables. This
422 includes, e.g., beam bending, beam broadening, and beam smoothing schemes, effective medium approximations allowing 1-
423 and 2-layered hydrometeors with different water-ice-air mixing schemes and melting topologies, and alookup table approach
424 for an efficient access to polarimetric observables such as Z_{DR} , LDR , ρ_{HV} , and K_{DP} . Optionally, attenuation effects can be

425 considered, specific and differential attenuation (A_H and A_{DP} , respectively) provided, and further output quantities derivable
426 from the complex scattering amplitudes easily added. Pol-EMVORADO applies state-of-the-art scattering properties of
427 spheroidal particles derived by one-layered (Mishchenko, 2000) and two-layered T-Matrix approaches (Ryzhkov et al., 2011).
428 Assumptions on spheroid shape and orientation follow parametrizations introduced in Ryzhkov et al. (2011). The lookup table
429 approach has been revised to accommodate additional parameters necessary to derive the full set of polarimetric radar output.
430 For a given set of parameters affecting the hydrometeor scattering properties, the lookup tables are created only once, stored
431 in files, and re-used for subsequent runs.

432 Using pre-existing lookup tables, the computations for virtual polarimetric volume scans of radar networks are very fast. For
433 example, simulating the volume scans observations of all polarimetric parameters for of all 17 German radars takes a few
434 seconds only on a Linux workstation (8 cores) and adds only about 1 s per radar output timestep to the model runtime when
435 performed online during a run of ICON-D2 (DWD's operational convection-allowing ICON version with 2 km grid spacing)
436 on DWD's NEC Aurora supercomputer. That is, simulating polarimetric radar data in intervals of 5 min as observed by DWD's
437 weather radar network adds up to only a few percent total model runtime (Mendrok et al., 2021) making it possible to run Pol-
438 EMVORADO for assimilation of high temporal resolution polarimetric radar data in an operational framework. Pol-
439 EMVORADO has been incorporated into the official version of EMVORADO and can be run online (i.e. within a COSMO
440 or ICON run) as well as offline (i.e. stand-alone with model fields from data files). Although designed as a PPI volume scan
441 observation operator for a radar network, its output can also be provided on NWP model grids. An example of a Z_{DR} volume
442 scan simulated by Pol-EMVORADO for the **REDPOL** project is shown in Fig. 6 (see also Sect. 4.2.3).

443 In summary, (Pol-)EMVORADO comprises a wide set of state-of-the-art features. While each of these features is provided
444 also by other observation operators, (Pol-)EMVORADO is, to our knowledge, unique in combining them into an operator that
445 allows to simulate virtual observations, including instrumental effects and in formats directly comparable to real observational
446 scans, from within NWP model runs in a comparably accurate and very fast manner targeted at operational applications.
447 Mendrok et al. (2021) give a comprehensive description of the features developed or updated for Pol-EMVORADO including
448 details on their implementation and performance.

449 From the application of Pol-EMVORADO (or B-PRO, see Sect. 3.2) within PROM, a number of problems became evident.
450 Modeling hydrometeors as homogeneous effective-medium particles (e.g. oblate spheroids) does not reproduce well the
451 polarimetric signatures of low density hydrometeors like dendrites or aggregates typical for snow while keeping their
452 microphysical properties (e.g. aspect ratio, degree of orientation) within realistic - observed or model-predicted - ranges and
453 consistent between different radar frequencies. This deficiency has been demonstrated and explained from electromagnetic
454 theory by Schrom et al. (2018). It is obvious in one case study (Shrestha et al., 2021b) and in Fig. 7, where Z_{DR} and K_{DP} in the
455 snow-dominated layer between 2.5 and 5 km height almost entirely lack the typical observed features, i.e. bands of enhanced
456 Z_{DR} and K_{DP} in the dendritic growth layer that then smoothly decrease to mostly positive, non-zero values towards the melting
457 layer. This deficiency can also be observed with other polarimetric observation operators applying a T-matrix approach (see
458 simulation-to-observation comparisons in Wolfensberger and Berne (2018), Matsui et al. (2019), Oue et al. (2020), where the

459 lack of ZDR and KDP signatures is not discussed at all or exclusively explained by lack of secondary ice, though), which
460 nevertheless currently constitutes the state-of-the-art in radar polarimetry. Orientation and shape of frozen and melting
461 hydrometeors are very variable, both in nature and in the assumptions used in observation operators, which translates into large
462 uncertainties in polarimetric radar signatures (e.g., Matsui et al., 2019; Shrestha et al., 2021b).

463 To tackle these challenges, it is planned to interface Pol-EMVORADO to scattering databases or other scattering models in
464 order to enable more realistic cloud ice and aggregate snowflake scattering properties and allow for improvements or
465 extensions of the polarimetry-related microphysical assumptions (shape/habit/microstructure, orientation and their
466 distribution, e.g., Wolfensberger et al., 2018), particularly for (partly-)frozen hydrometeors. For PROM's 2nd phase, we have
467 proposed to take this up guided with Lagrangian particle model information as well as to test the application of Pol-
468 EMVORADO in an operational data assimilation environment.

469 **4.2 Model evaluation and improvements using forward simulations and microphysical retrievals**

470 **4.2.1 Convection-resolving simulations with COSMO**

471 In a joint effort, the PROM-projects *Operation Hydrometeors* and *ILACPR* evaluate simulated stratiform precipitation events
472 in radar observation space and develop a sophisticated polarimetry-based hydrometeor classification and quantification for the
473 evaluation of the representation of hydrometeors in numerical models. Based on a stratiform event monitored on 7 October
474 2014 with the Bonn polarimetric X-Band radar BoXPoL, Fig. 7 illustrates the potential of using polarimetric observations for
475 the evaluation and improvement of microphysical parametrizations. Fig. 7 a-f compare QVPs of measured and virtual Z_H , Z_{DR} ,
476 and K_{DP} with the Bonn Polarimetric Radar observation Operator B-PRO (Xie et al., 2021) to forecasts simulated with COSMO
477 version 5.1 using its 2-moment cloud microphysics scheme (itype_gscp=2683; Seifert and Beheng, 2016). Due to a small
478 spatial shift of the precipitation event in the simulations, the observations at 50.7305 N, 7.0717 E are compared with
479 simulations at a close-by grid point at 51.1 N, 7.0717 E. As demonstrated in Shrestha et al. (2021b) using a similar stratiform
480 precipitation event, COSMO tends to simulate considerable amounts of melting graupel partly reaching the surface, which
481 results in higher synthetic Z_{DR} than observed (compare Fig. 7c/d) within and below the melting layer (ML). Above the ML,
482 however, synthetic Z_{DR} already approaches 0 dB at around 6 km height, which indicates deficiencies in the ice-snow
483 partitioning in COSMO as well as in the assumed snow morphology (soft spheroids) in the observation operator, both resulting
484 in too low polarimetric signals. While the observed and simulated Z_H is comparable in terms of structure and magnitude -
485 except a more pronounced observed ML - larger differences exist with respect to K_{DP} above the ML (Fig. 7e/f). While
486 observations show bands of enhanced K_{DP} within the dendritic growth layer (DGL) centred around -15°C , the simulated K_{DP}
487 is very weak indicating a lower crystal concentration and early aggregates compared to observations (e.g. Moisseev et al.,
488 2015). Ice water content (IWC) above the ML retrieved from measured K_{DP} and differential reflectivity in linear scale Z_{dr} , i.e.
489 $IWC(K_{DP}, Z_{dr})$ following Ryzhkov et al. (2018), agrees well with IWC modelled by COSMO in terms of structure, but has
490 lower magnitudes (compare Fig. 7 g/h) in line with the lower simulated K_{DP} . Overall, Fig. 7 supports the hypothesis of a too
491 strong graupel production in the simulations. *Operation Hydrometeors* also developed a robust radar-based hydrometeor

492 classification (HMC) and mixing ratio quantification algorithm following Grazioli et al. (2015) and Besic et al. (2016, 2018)
493 for the evaluation of the representation of hydrometeors in NWP models (standard output is the dominant hydrometeor type
494 only). This HMC is based on clustering and has the advantage that the radar data are separated into clusters based on their
495 polarimetric similarity (no theoretical preliminary calculation is needed), which are then identified as hydrometeor classes.
496 Various clustering methods can be used here (e.g. Lukach et al. (2021)). The new method is relatively insensitive to
497 uncertainties in the scattering properties of ice particles. Its application to the BoXPoL observations above does not indicate
498 graupel below the ML (Fig. 8a), while COSMO simulates a pronounced, thick graupel layer (Fig. 8b) including some melting
499 graupel particles reaching the ground around 1:45 UTC. Applying the HMC to the virtual observations, however, does not
500 reproduce a graupel layer of similar intensity (Fig. 8c), probably caused by a too strong Z_H and temperature influence (compare
501 with Fig. 7) relative to the polarimetric variables in the classification scheme which needs further investigation. A persistent
502 challenge in according routines is that clusters are always separated by the 0°C-level (e.g. Ribaud et al., 2019), i.e. hail or
503 graupel are identified as clusters only below or above the melting layer. For the case study in Shrestha et al. (2021b) the
504 simulated graupel was even more pronounced and sensitivity experiments were performed to guide model improvement:
505 increasing the minimum critical particle diameter D_{crit} , which is required for self-collection of ice particles (aggregation)
506 increased/improved the ice-snow partitioning, and a lower temperature threshold for snow and ice riming, T_{rime} , considerably
507 reduced the graupel production.

508 Comparing state-of-the-art polarimetric retrievals of liquid water content (LWC), ice water content (IWC), particle number
509 concentration N_t and mean particle diameter D_m (e.g. Ryzhkov et al., 2018; Ryzhkov and Zrnicek, 2019; Bukovčić et al., 2020;
510 Reimann et al., 2021; Trömel et al., 2019) with their simulated counterparts can also be used for evaluating NWP models and
511 for data assimilation (Carlin et al., 2016). Fig. 7g/h, e.g., shows higher $IWC(K_{DP}, Z_{dr})$ than simulated by COSMO for the case
512 study discussed earlier. For more solid conclusions about possible model errors, as well as for the use of retrieved quantities
513 for data assimilation, the retrieval uncertainties must be estimated. The analysis of data collected in the ice regions of tropical
514 convective clouds indicates e.g., that $IWC(K_{DP}, Z_{dr})$ yields a root-mean-square error of 0.49 gm^{-3} with the bias within 6%
515 (Nguyen et al., 2017; 2019). Murphy et al. (2020) introduced the columnar vertical profile (CVP) methodology to follow the
516 track of research aircrafts and better co-locate in-situ data to radar microphysical retrievals. Applying the methodology to two
517 mesoscale convective systems, they found the best performance of polarimetric microphysical retrievals in regions of high
518 ZDR and high KDP but recommend a much larger dataset to fully conclude on the accuracy of these retrievals.

519
520 The PROM-project *POLarimetric signatures of ICE microphysical processes and their interpretation using in-situ*
521 *observations and cloud modelling (POLICE)* evaluates radar retrievals and models using in particular in-situ observations of
522 microphysical cloud parameters from the research aircrafts HALO (e.g. Wendisch et al., 2016; Voigt et al., 2017) and Falcon
523 (e.g. Voigt et al., 2010; Voigt et al., 2014; Flamant et al., 2017). Currently, ground-based polarimetric radar measurements and
524 aircraft in-situ data from the Olympic Mountain Experiment OLYMPEX (Houze et al., 2017; Heymsfield et al., 2018) are
525 exploited to investigate riming processes and to evaluate retrievals of ice water content (IWC), particle number concentration

526 N_t , and mean particle diameter D_m (e.g. Ryzhkov et al., 2018; Ryzhkov and Zrnica, 2019; Bukovčić et al., 2020; Carlin et al.
527 2021). The OLYMPEX mission took place on the Olympic Peninsula of Washington State (USA) from November 2015
528 through February 2016. University of North Dakota's (UND) Cessna Citation II equipped with an in-situ cloud payload
529 overpassed the National Science Foundation (NSF) Doppler On Wheels (DOW, mobile polarimetric X-band radar with about
530 60 km range and 74 m radial resolution), placed in the Chehalis Valley at Lake Quinault (47.48° N, 123.86° W, 64 m altitude)
531 performing RHI scans within an azimuthal sector of 22°. Measurements and microphysical retrievals of the DOW and the
532 Citation, respectively, are currently evaluated and will then be compared at matched space-time coordinates for several flight
533 transects.

534

535 **4.2.2 Climate simulations with ICON-GCM**

536 A major part of the uncertainties in representing clouds and precipitation in atmospheric models can be attributed to unresolved
537 variability that affects resolved variables via non-linear processes. Current climate model horizontal resolutions are on the
538 order of 100 km. But even for NWP models, which have resolutions between 10 km for global and 1 km for regional
539 simulations, most cloud processes remain unresolved. The project *Climate model Parametrizations informed by Radar*
540 (*PARA*) evaluates and improves the representation of cloud and precipitation processes in particular for climate models and
541 focuses on precipitation formation in ice clouds. Since most surface precipitation over continents and extra-tropical oceans
542 involve the ice phase (Mülmenstädt et al., 2015; Field and Heymsfield, 2015) its reliable representation is paramount and thus
543 the focus of *PARA*. Microphysical parameterizations typically consider only the mean cloud liquid or ice water content to
544 compute process rates, which causes biases in all nonlinear processes including radiation (e.g., Cahalan 1994; Carlin et al.,
545 2002) and precipitation formation (e.g., Pincus and Klein, 2000). Realistic results thus require the tuning of process rates (e.g.,
546 Rotstayn 2000) or realistic estimates of subgrid-scale cloud variability and its inclusion in the process parameterizations. To
547 tackle this issue, *PARA* exploits inherent model assumptions for treating fractional cloudiness. Since the early works of
548 Sommeria and Deardorff (1977), atmospheric models assume or predict some notion of subgrid-scale variability of relative
549 humidity. Some models do so by predicting cloud fraction (e.g., Tiedtke 1993), others use a diagnostic representation of the
550 subgrid-scale probability density function (PDF) of total water specific humidity, q_t (e.g., Sundqvist et al., 1989; Smith 1990;
551 Le Treut and Li, 1991; Rosch et al., 2015). Another option is to utilize a prognostic PDF of q_t by assuming a functional form
552 and predicting the shape parameters of the PDF (e.g., Tompkins 2002; Neggers 2009). The German climate and weather
553 prediction model ICON in its version dedicated to climate simulations (general circulation model version; ICON-GCM)
554 inherits the representation of physical processes from its predecessor ECHAM6 (Stevens et al., 2013) and uses the Sundqvist
555 et al. (1989) parameterization for a diagnostic PDF of the total-water specific humidity, q_t .

556 As a first step, *PARA* analyses the implied PDF of cloud ice using satellite observations from combined CloudSat-CALIPSO
557 radar-lidar satellite observations (DARDAR, Delanoë et al., 2014). Interestingly, a first direct comparison of IWC profiles

558 obtained from DARDAR with polarimetric retrievals based on the ground-based BoXPoI radar shows an overall good
559 agreement, except for columns with an integrated ice water path IWP $> 1 \text{ kg m}^{-2}$. In these regions pronounced polarimetric
560 signatures result in high IWC at higher altitudes, which are neither reproduced by reflectivity-only retrievals nor by the
561 DARDAR retrievals. The statistics are currently evaluated on a larger database, which is also used to investigate the impact
562 on the parametrizations in ICON-GCM. In the second step, a stochastic parameterisation approach is taken to allow for an
563 unbiased computation of cloud microphysical process rates on average. Based on the cumulative distribution function (CDF),
564 a random number generator draws from the CDF according to the simulated likelihood a plausible value of the specific ice
565 mass based on which the microphysical process is computed. This specifically considers the formation of solid precipitation
566 (snow) from ice clouds via aggregation and accretion processes (Lohmann and Roeckner, 1996; Stevens et al., 2013), and
567 subsequently the evaporation of precipitation below the clouds. The result of the revised aggregation parametrizations is shown
568 in Fig. 9. The increased aggregation rate, which is a linear function of the specific cloud ice, q_i , leads to an average decrease
569 in q_i . The aggregation rate is directly linked to the accretion rate, which lowers the effect of q_i decrease. An investigation of
570 the influence of the revised aggregation parametrizations on the different microphysical process rates - which are related to
571 the ice phase - is currently performed. A detailed evaluation of the new versus old parametrizations with the ground-based
572 polarimetric radar is on its way, and will in particular focus on the time scales of evaporation of precipitation below the cloud.

573 **4.2.3 Data assimilation**

574 Within an idealized framework, Jung et al. (2008, 2010) and Zhu et al. (2020) demonstrated benefits of assimilating simulated
575 polarimetric data for the estimation of microphysical state variables. Up to now, however, direct assimilation of real
576 polarimetric data poses great challenges due to the deficiencies of cloud and precipitation schemes in NWP models in
577 realistically representing and providing the necessary information (optimally the distribution of particle size, shape and
578 orientations in all model grid boxes) required by a polarimetric radar observation operator and therefore causing large
579 representation error (Janjic et al., 2018). Both the specification of model error to examine uncertainty in microphysics (Feng
580 et al., 2021) and the specification of the observation error for polarimetric radar observations that include estimates of the
581 representation error (Zeng et al., 2021b), are investigated in the PROM-project *REDPOL*. For the assimilation of radar
582 reflectivity with an ensemble Kalman filter, several approaches for including model errors during data assimilation are
583 explored, including 1) additive noise with samples representing large-scale uncertainty (see Zeng et al., 2018), 2) combination
584 of large scale and unresolved scale uncertainty (Zeng et al., 2019), and finally 3) adding to these warm bubble triggering of
585 convective storms in case they are missing in the one hour forecast but present in corresponding observations (Zeng et al.,
586 2020). Applying Pol-EMVORADO to the analysis obtained by assimilating radar reflectivity from the German C-Band
587 network), Fig. 6 illustrates the resulting differences of these three techniques in Z_{DR} -space. Obviously, synthetic Z_{DR} values
588 depend on the strategy used to specify the model error, putting another weight to the argument that assimilation of radar
589 reflectivity alone is not sufficient to constrain the estimation of microphysical state variables, and that polarimetric information
590 is required in addition. First results in this direction were reported by Putnam et al. (2019), who assimilated Z_{DR} below the

591 melting layer but reported problems in assimilation of K_{DP} data for a supercell case due to high observation errors as a result
592 of contamination from wet hail, dust and debris and nonuniform beam filling.
593 .

594 **5 Summary and Perspectives**

595 The Priority Programme *Polarimetric Radar Observations meet Atmospheric Modelling (PROM)* (SPP 2115,
596 <https://www2.meteo.uni-bonn.de/spp2115/>) was established in April 2017 by the Senate of the Deutsche
597 Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG, German Research Foundation) and is designed to run for six years. PROM is a coordinated
598 effort to foster partnerships between cloud modelers and radar meteorologists and thus to accelerate the exploitation of
599 polarimetric weather radars to improve the representation of cloud and precipitation processes in numerical models. The first
600 funding phase engaged in an as-complete-as-possible exploitation and understanding of nation-wide polarimetric
601 measurements complemented by state-of-the-art measurement devices and techniques available at supersites. Bulk
602 polarimetric measurements available over Germany are complemented with multi-frequency observations and spectral
603 polarimetry for detailed studies of ice and cloud microphysics. Thus, modellers now hold an unprecedented amount of three-
604 dimensional microphysics-related observational data in their hands to improve parametrizations. Key tools for the fusion of
605 radar polarimetry and atmospheric modelling, e.g. the Monte-Carlo Lagrangian particle model McSnow and the polarimetric
606 observation operator Pol-EMVORADO have been developed. PROM started with detailed investigations of the representation
607 of cloud and precipitation processes in the COSMO and ICON atmospheric models exploiting polarimetric observation
608 operators. First improvements of the 2-moment cloud- and precipitation microphysics scheme are made and more are expected
609 in phase 2. Also intercomparisons of microphysics schemes in radar space have been performed. Phase 1 further developed
610 microphysical retrievals, determined their uncertainties and started their exploitation for model evaluation and radar-informed
611 parametrizations. The developed prerequisites pave the way to finally exploit polarimetry for indirect and direct data
612 assimilation in the upcoming second funding phase.

613 Some tools developed in Phase 1, however, still require refinement in Phase 2. The T-matrix calculations for
614 electromagnetic scattering by spheroidal particles represent only a crude approximation to frozen and mixed-phase
615 hydrometeors, especially for pristine ice particles and aggregate snowflakes at cloud radar wavelengths. It is not possible to
616 reproduce observed polarimetric signatures of snow with the T-Matrix approach (i.e. homogeneous ice-air spheroids) and
617 realistic microphysics (shape, orientation). Refinements include interfacing to a new discrete dipole approximation (DDA)-
618 based scattering data base for realistic ice and snow particles for all relevant weather radar wavelengths and improvements of
619 the melting scheme of graupel and hail.

620 Based on the progress made, the fusion of radar polarimetry and atmospheric modelling can be approached even more
621 aggressively in Phase 2. While objective 1 received most attention in Phase 1, more projects will exploit the observational

622 insights and tools developed to finally improve parameterizations and assimilate polarimetric information, i.e. more emphasis
623 will be put on Objectives 2 and 4 in Phase 2. Direct assimilation of polarimetric variables remains challenging, because NWP
624 models need to realistically represent and provide the necessary information required by a polarimetric radar observation
625 operator; ideally the distribution of particle size, shape and orientation would be required in all model grid boxes. Indirect
626 assimilation of polarimetric information (e.g. microphysical retrievals, and process signatures), however, is less demanding to
627 the model and should be pursued in parallel. Modern Bayesian data assimilation techniques are sensitive to both model- and
628 observation operator biases, so that further work on these issues is of great importance for a successful data assimilation.

629

630 **Data availability**

631 The data presented in this paper are available through the authors upon request. Polarimetric radar data from the operational
632 C-band radar network is also available from the German Weather Service (DWD). Specific campaign data will be published
633 in addition.

634

635 **Author contributions**

636 Silke Trömel had the initial idea and mainly organized and structured the joint publication. Silke Trömel, Johannes Quaas, and
637 Clemens Simmer formed the editorial team consolidating the text. All authors contributed to specific sections of the paper and
638 commented on the paper.

639

640 **Competing interests**

641 Johannes Quaas is editor of ACP. The authors declare to have no additional conflict of interest.

642

643 **Special issue statement**

644 This article is the overview article of the ACP/AMT/GMD inter-journal special issue “Fusion of radar polarimetry and
645 numerical atmospheric modelling towards an improved understanding of cloud and precipitation processes”. It is not associated
646 with a conference.

647

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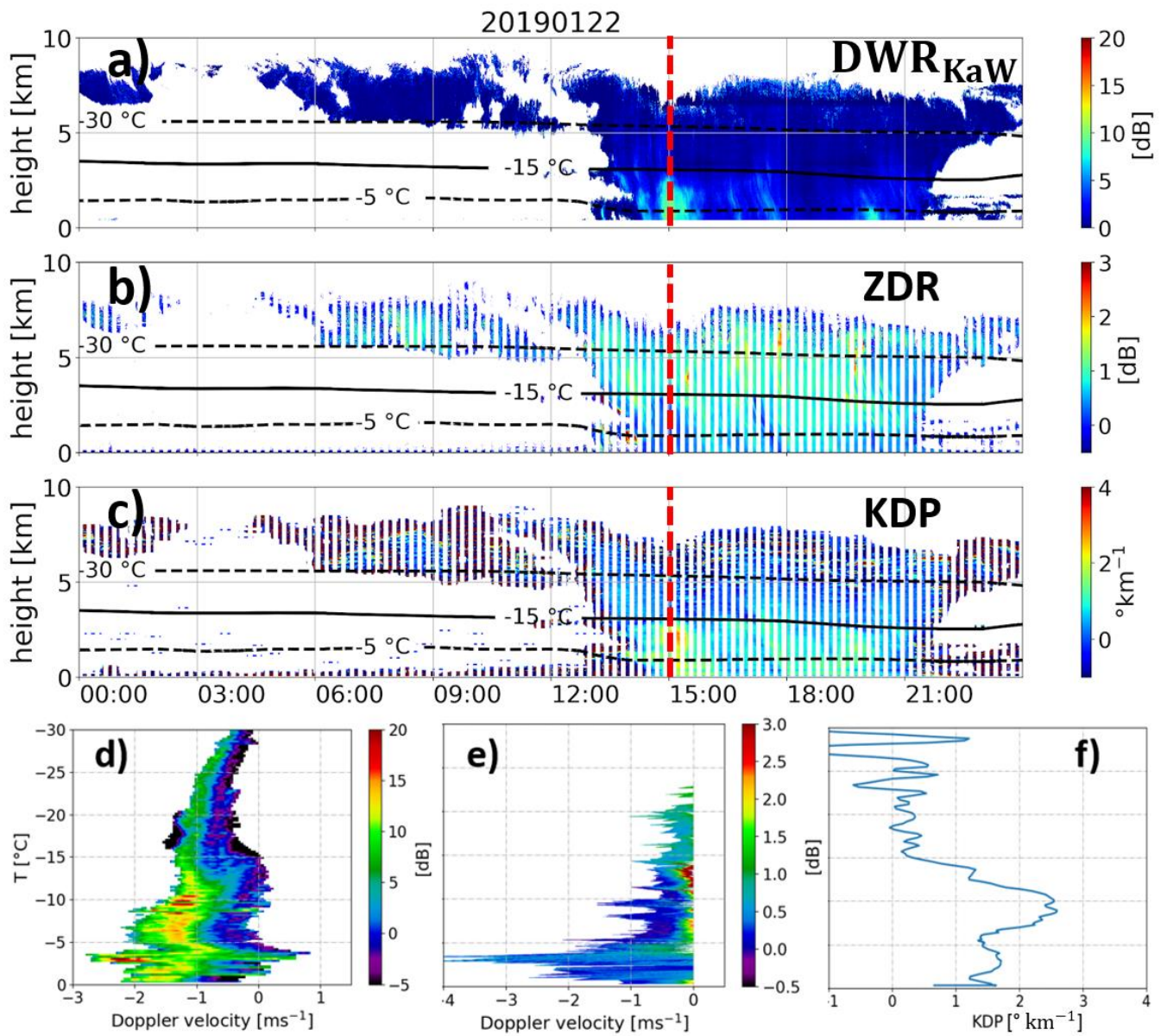
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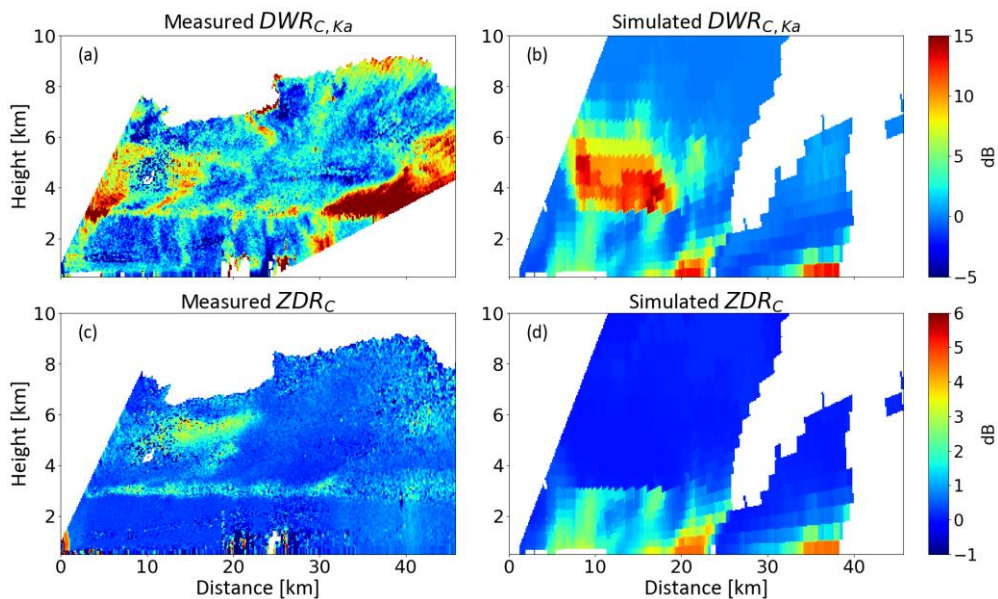
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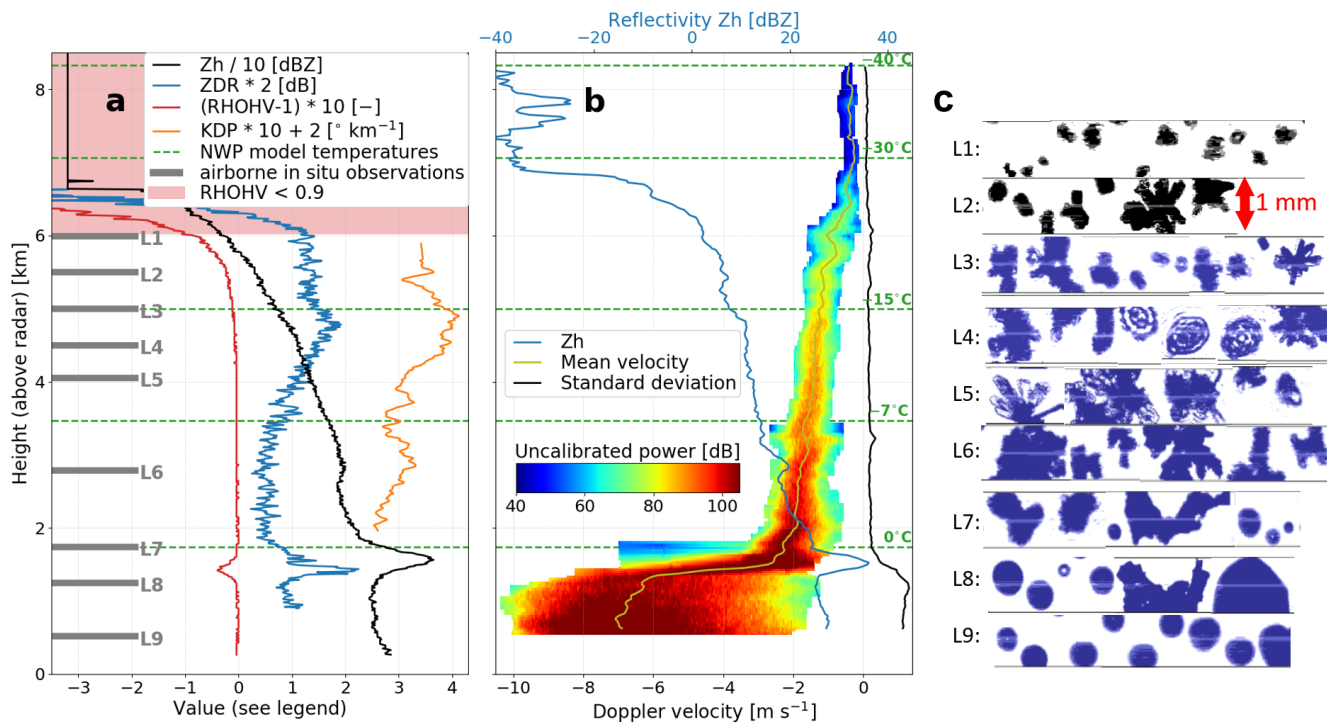


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 1165 **Figure 1: Observations at JOYCE-CF shows a) DWR_{KaW}, b) Z_{DR} (measured at a 30° elevation angle), c) K_{DP} (also measured at 30°**
 1166 **elevation angle) on 22 January 2019. Panels d)-f) show the observed DWR-spectrum, Z_{DR}-spectrum and K_{DP}-profile at 15:00 UTC**
 1167 **(indicated by the red line in panels a)-c))**



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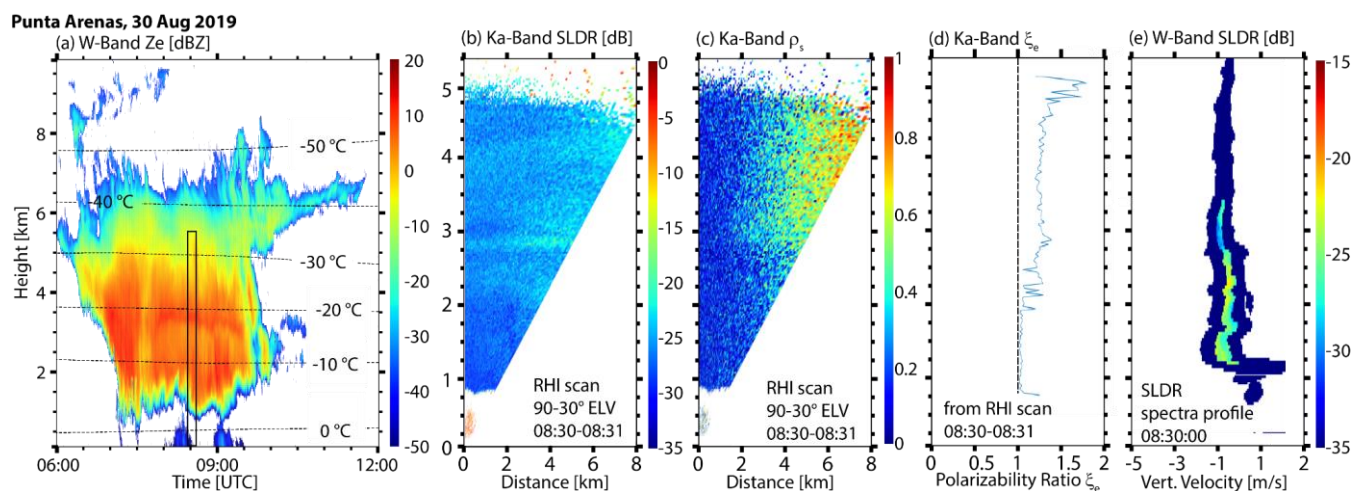
1173 **Figure 2** (a) Dual-wavelength ratio between the C-band POLDIRAD and Ka-band miraMACS measurements on the 7th July 2019,
 1174 (b) simulated dual-wavelength ratio, (c) differential radar reflectivity Z_{DR} measured by the C-band radar POLDIRAD, and (d)
 1175 simulated Z_{DR} of a comparable, but not identical, precipitation event using the P3 scheme (Morrison and Milbrandt, 2015).



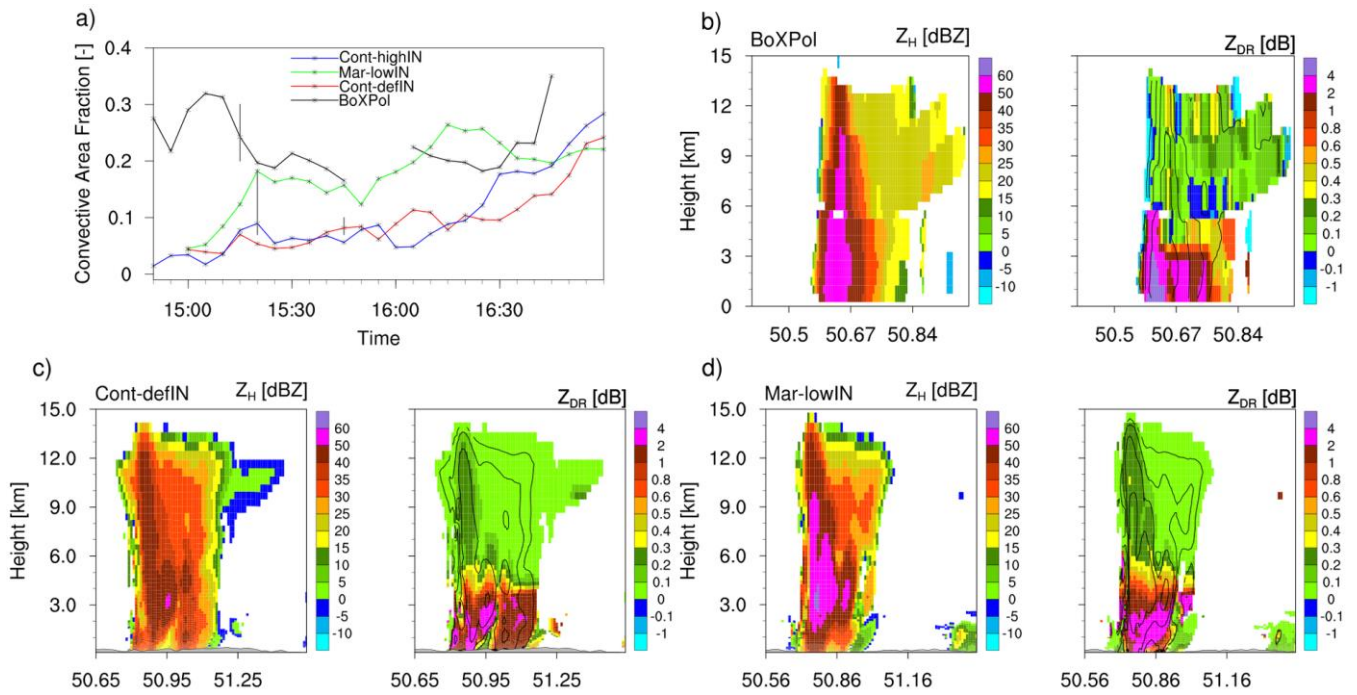
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1177 **Figure 3:** Measurements of slant-viewing and zenith-pointing polarimetric C-band weather radar scans with NWP model based
 1178 temperature levels and airborne in-situ observations: (a) quasi-vertical profiles (QVPs) of radar reflectivity Z_H , differential
 1179 reflectivity Z_{DR} , copolar cross-channel correlation coefficient ρ_{HV} , and the specific differential phase K_{DP} estimated from (noisy)
 1180 measurements of the differential phase by aggressive filtering above the melting layer; (b) average Doppler spectra from a 15 s
 1181 birdbath scan and corresponding first 3 moments at each radar bin height: reflectivity, power-weighted mean velocity and standard
 1182 deviation; (c) in situ particle images (downward-looking projection images) collected at altitudes L1 to L9.

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1187 **Figure 4:** Case study of a deep mixed-phase cloud event observed with multiwavelength polarimetric cloud radars at Punta Arenas,
 1188 Chile, on 30 August 2019. (a) vertical-pointing W-Band (94-GHz) radar reflectivity factor Z_e and isolines of modeled air
 1189 temperature, (b) and (c) Ka-Band (35-GHz) RHI scans (90°-30° elevation) of slanted linear depolarization ratio SLDR and co-cross
 1190 correlation coefficient in the slanted basis ρ_s , respectively, from 08:30-08:31 UTC, (d) profile of the shape index polarizability ratio
 1191 (ξ_e) obtained from the RHI scans shown in (b) and (c), and (e) height spectrogram (at 90° elevation) of W-Band SLDR from 08:30:00
 1192 UTC. The time and height frame of panels (b-e) is indicated by the black rectangle in (a).
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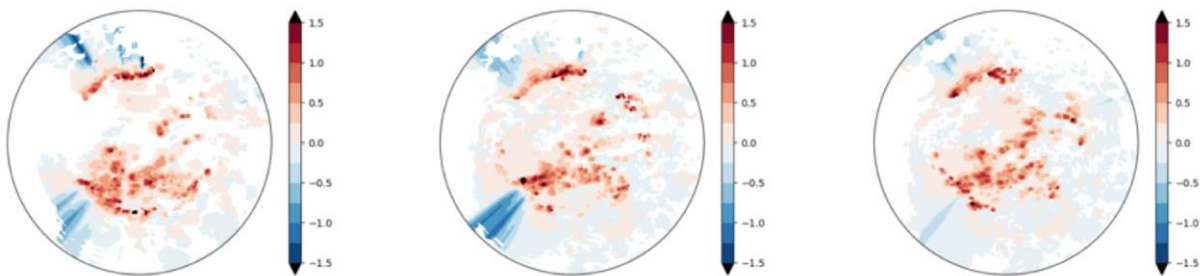


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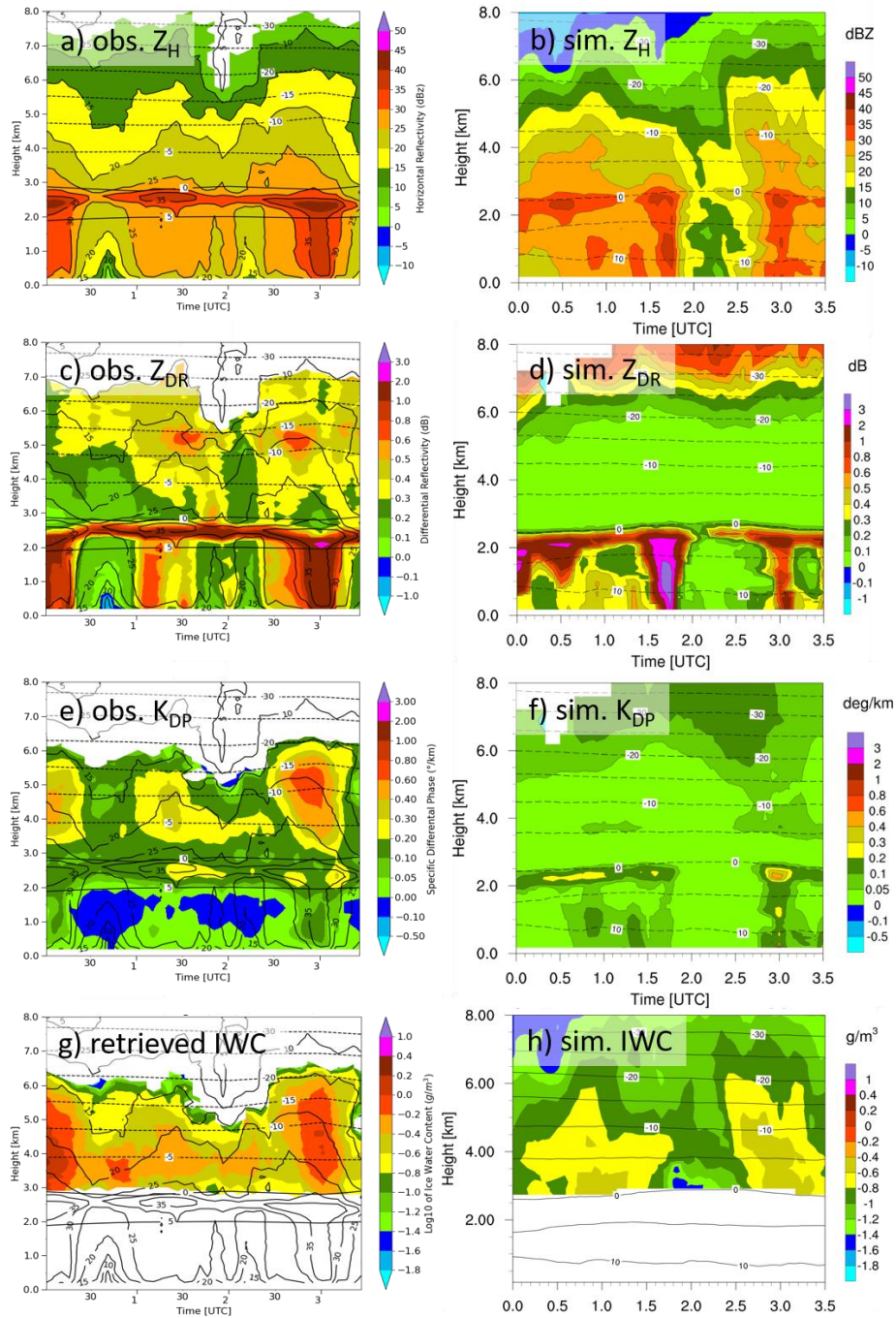
1196 **Figure 5: Time-series of Convective Area Fraction (CAF) evolution (panel a) and reconstructed observed (panel b) and**
 1197 **simulated/synthetic range-height-indicators (RHI) of horizontal reflectivity Z_H and differential reflectivity Z_{DR} (panels c and d).**
 1198 **Synthetic RHIs are based on simulations for actual land-cover with different perturbations of CN and IN concentrations, where**
 1199 **Cont-defIN indicates continental aerosol with default IN concentration and Mar-lowIN indicates maritime aerosol with low IN**
 1200 **concentration. The gaps in the BoXPol-observed CAF time series are due to strong attenuation. The vertical grey bars (panel a)**
 1201 **indicate the times at which the RHIs are compared.**

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1204 **Figure 6: Synthetic PPI of Z_{DR} at 0.5 deg elevation for the DWD radar site Neuheilenbach based on the analysis obtained for June**
 1205 **4 at 16:00 UTC by assimilation of radar reflectivity and using three different ways to specify the model error: large scale uncertainty**
 1206 **(left), large plus unresolved scales uncertainty (middle) and in addition the use of the warm bubble approach (right).**



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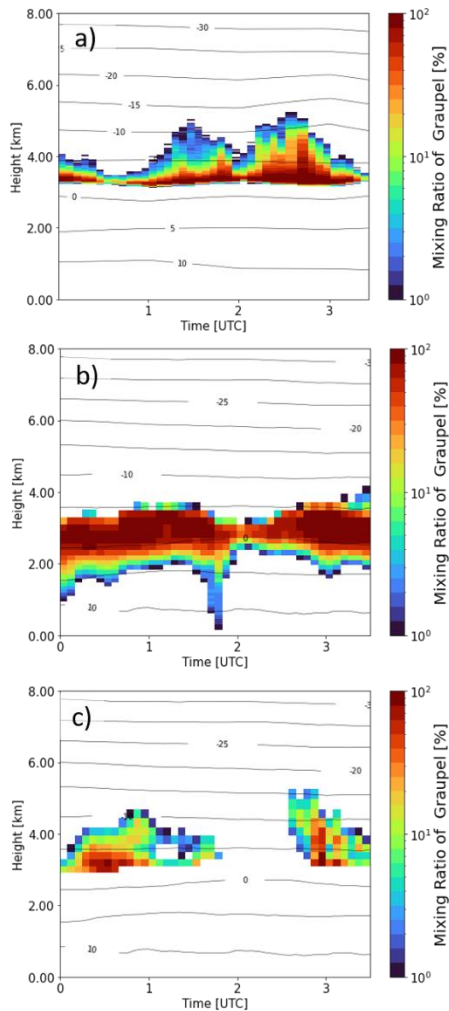
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Figure 7: Quasi-vertical profiles (QVPs) of observed (left column) and simulated (right column) polarimetric radar variables horizontal reflectivity Z_H (panels a and b), differential reflectivity Z_{DR} (panels c and d), specific differential phase K_{DP} (panels e and f), together with radar-retrieved (panel g) and simulated ice water content (IWC, panel h). The QVPs show a stratiform rain event

1211 observed on 7 October 2014 between 0:00 and 3:30 UTC with the polarimetric X-band radar in Bonn, BoXPoL, and simulated with
1212 COSMO version 5.1 and the 2-moment cloud microphysics scheme.

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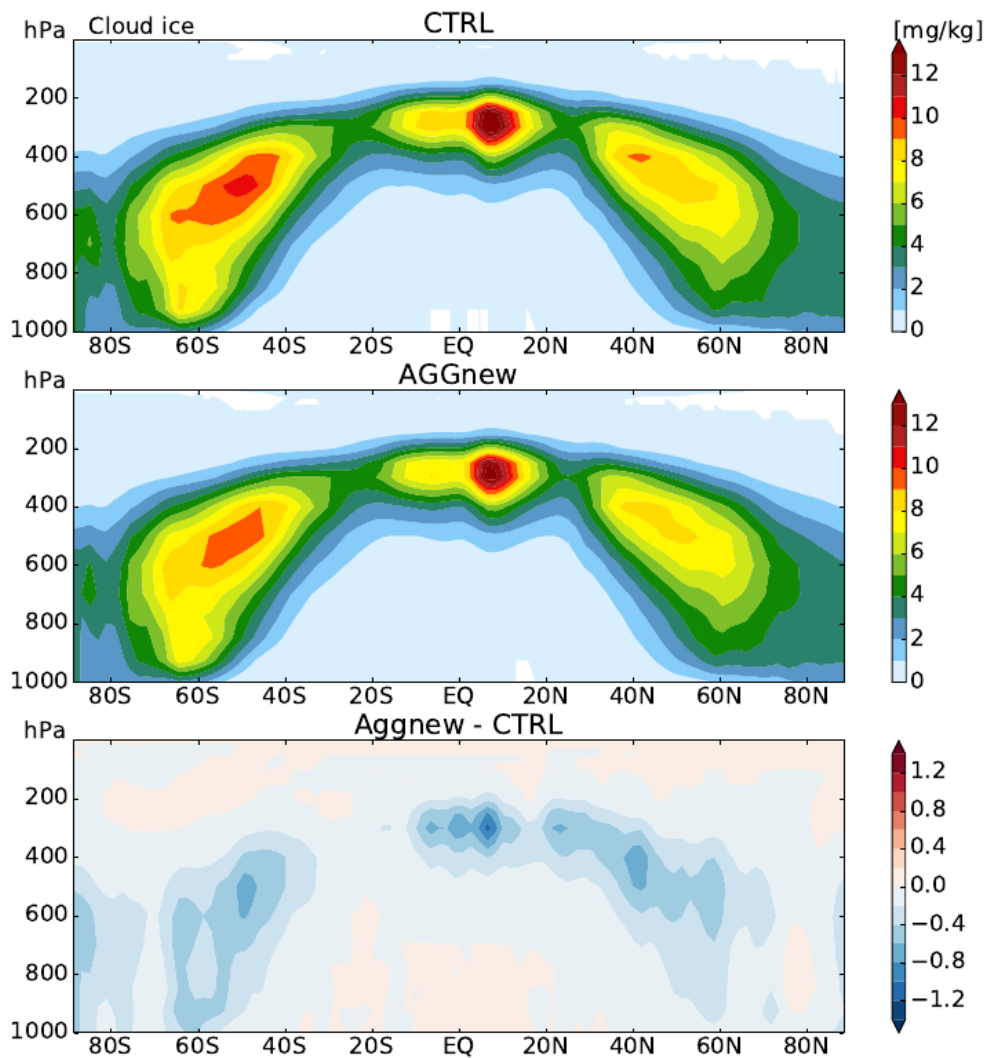
1215 **Figure 8:** Retrieved and simulated graupel mixing ratios, defined as the percentage of graupel in the total hydrometeor mass, for
1216 the stratiform rain event shown in Fig. 7 (7 October 2014, 0:00-3:30 UTC). An advanced hydrometeor classification and
1217 quantification algorithm has been applied to polarimetric BoXPoL measurement (panel a) and to simulated radar variables based
1218 on COSMO simulations (panel c) and compared to the COSMO-simulated graupel mixing (panel b).

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1224 **Figure 9:** Specific ice water, q_i , [g kg^{-1}] as zonal, annual mean for (top) standard ICON GCM output, (middle) aggregation
1225 parameterization revised as stochastic parameterization drawing from the q_i subgrid-variability PDF, and (bottom) difference
1226 between the two.

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