

**₁ In-situ observations of supercooled liquid clouds over
₂ the Southern Ocean during the HIAPER
₃ Pole-to-Pole Observation (HIPPO) campaigns**

Thomas H. Chubb,¹ Jorgen B. Jensen,² Steven T. Siems,¹ Michael J.

Manton¹

Corresponding author: Thomas H. Chubb, School of Mathematical Sciences, P.O. Box 28 M,
Monash University, VIC 3800, Australia. (thomas.chubb@monash.edu)

¹School of Mathematical Sciences,
Monash University, Melbourne, Victoria,
Australia

²Research Aviation Facility, NCAR Earth
Observing Laboratory, Broomfield,
Colorado, USA

4 Clouds over the Southern Ocean exist in a pristine environment that re-
5 sults in unique microphysical properties. However, in-situ observations of these
6 clouds are rare, and the dominant precipitation processes are unknown. Un-
7 certainties in their life cycles and radiative properties make them interest-
8 ing from a weather and climate perspective. Data from the standard cloud
9 physics payload during the HIAPER Pole-to-Pole Observations (HIPPO) global
10 transects provide a unique snapshot the nature of low-level clouds in the South-
11 ern Ocean. High quantities of supercooled liquid water (up to 0.47 g m^{-3}) were
12 observed in clouds as cold as -22° C during two flights in different seasons
13 and different meteorological conditions, supporting climatologies inferred from
14 satellite observations. Cloud droplet concentrations were calculated from mean
15 droplet size and liquid water concentrations, and were in the range of 30–
16 120 cm^{-3} , which is fairly typical for the pristine Southern Ocean environment.
17 Ice in non- or lightly-precipitating clouds was found to be rare, while driz-
18 zle drops with diameter greater than $100 \mu\text{m}$ formed through warm rain pro-
19 cesses were widespread. Large, pristine crystals were commonly seen in very
20 low concentrations below cloud base.

1. Introduction

21 The presence of “supercooled” liquid water (SLW; where liquid droplets exist at $T <$
22 0°C) in clouds is important to the understanding of both the radiative budget, due to
23 enhanced short wave scattering compared to ice clouds [*Greenwald et al.*, 1995], and in
24 the development of precipitation. Supercooled clouds are also an aviation hazard due to
25 their role in airframe icing [*Politovich*, 1989].

26 Pure water droplets in laboratory settings can exist at temperatures as low as -38 to
27 -40°C , before freezing occurs. In the real-world SLW exists in a metastable equilibrium
28 in which the presence of ice nucleating particles (IN) can initiate droplet freezing at tem-
29 peratures much warmer than this. The physical and chemical nature of the IN affects
30 the freezing temperature, and accordingly, temperature-only parameterizations of cloud
31 ice nucleation (as commonly used in numerical simulations) have been shown to be insuf-
32 ficient. *DeMott et al.* [2010] showed that typical temperature-only parameterisations of
33 cloud ice nucleation resulted in radiative forcing discrepancies on the order of 1 W m^{-2}
34 compared to better-constrained estimates.

35 Particles that nucleate ice at temperatures warmer than about -15 C are rare, consisting
36 of one in 10^3 to one in 10^5 [*Rogers et al.*, 1998]. In the remote Southern Ocean (SO) this
37 translates to concentrations as low as 0.01 L^{-1} [*Bigg*, 1973]. IN are generally assumed
38 to be of mineral (i.e. dust) origin, but there are very few sources of dust for the SO.
39 Biogenic particles of oceanic origin are presumed to be IN sources for the SO [*Burrows*
40 *et al.*, 2013], but the link is generally inferred from temporal or spatial correlations, rather
41 than of direct evidence of biological particles acting as IN.

42 Satellite-based lidar observations of SLW are especially common over the SO [*Hu et al.*,
43 2010], with SLW observed in 80% of clouds with temperature between 0 and -40° C. Spec-
44 troradiometer SLW retrievals occur in both summer (DJF) and winter (JJA) with absolute
45 frequencies (i.e. of all pixels) above 30% at 50° S [*Morrison et al.*, 2011]. The synergy of
46 the “A-Train” [*Stephens et al.*, 2002] satellites can be used to enhance the representation
47 of cloud characteristics. *Huang et al.* [2012] used a merged radar/lidar/spectroradiometer
48 cloud product [*Delanoë and Hogan*, 2010] to perform a cloud climatology, highlighting the
49 extensive presence of supercooled liquid clouds over the SO, particularly during summer.
50 However, satellite retrievals of SLW presence and quantity have remained unverified by
51 in-situ observations over the SO.

52 There is mounting evidence that SO clouds are poorly simulated in both reanalysis and
53 coupled global climate models, with the widespread biases in top-of-atmosphere radiation
54 occurring in this region. *Trenberth and Fasullo* [2010] analyzed output from the Coupled
55 Model Inter-comparison Project and showed that while biases in outgoing long wave and
56 absorbed solar radiation (ASR) were compensatory, over the SO ($45^{\circ} - 65^{\circ}$ S) there was
57 a large discrepancy in the radiation budget due to excess ASR.

58 Elsewhere there have been a number of aircraft studies examining SLW in clouds.
59 *Rauber and Tokay* [1991] attributed frequent observations of thin SLW layers at the top of
60 clouds to an imbalance in the condensate supply rate and ice crystal growth rates. *Hobbs*
61 *and Rangno* [1998] identified liquid-topped clouds precipitating ice to temperatures as
62 low as -31° C as the dominant mixed-phase cloud structure in the Beaufort Sea, while
63 *Rangno and Hobbs* [2001] found high ice particle concentrations in slightly to moderately

64 supercooled Arctic stratocumulus cloud, identifying secondary ice mechanisms (crystal
65 fragmentation/freezing droplet shattering) as likely causes. *Korolev et al.* [2003] examined
66 44000 km of in-cloud flight legs from the Arctic and continental North America, finding
67 that all of the cloud sampled tended to be dominated by either liquid or ice, and for tem-
68 peratures warmer than -25°C a substantial fraction of the clouds were predominantly
69 liquid.

70 The “warm rain” process, or droplet growth through collision and coalescence, can also
71 occur in supercooled clouds. Also termed “freezing drizzle”, the supercooled warm rain
72 processes (SWRP) has been the subject of a number studies. *Rasmussen et al.* [2002]
73 reproduced freezing drizzle conditions using bin microphysics in the MM5 model for a
74 number of different observational studies, finding that both cloud condensation nuclei
75 (CCN) concentrations and ice crystal concentrations played an important role in the
76 growth of large droplets. *Rosenfeld et al.* [2013] observed supercooled rain and drizzle in
77 pristine conditions in Alaska and northern California, finding extremely low concentrations
78 (0.03 L^{-1}) of ice crystals in layer clouds in spite of temperatures as low as -21°C . In
79 a similar environment (the Oregon Cascades), *Ikeda et al.* [2007] observed supercooled
80 drizzle at temperatures as low as -19C .

81 With the primary objective of conducting a global survey of climatically important
82 aerosols and trace gases, the NSF/NCAR HIAPER (a high-performance research aircraft
83 based on a Gulfstream V jet), conducted five global transects in different seasons between
84 2009 and 2011 for the HIAPER Pole-to-Pole Observation (HIPPO) campaign [*Wofsy*
85 *and HIPPO Science Team*, 2011]. Basic cloud microphysics instruments were operated in

86 addition to the primary payload instrumentation. The extreme southern extent of the
87 HIPPO transects provides a unique opportunity to examine cloud conditions over the SO,
88 and in this paper we examine high SLW content, evidence of SWRP and large supercooled
89 droplets in different seasons and meteorological conditions.

2. HIPPO missions over the Southern Ocean

90 Each of the five HIPPO missions included a segment over the Southern Ocean. In four
91 of the flights, the SO segment was a return flight from Christchurch, New Zealand to
92 a maximum southerly latitude of 67° S, but in HIPPO-4 (June 2011) the segment was
93 from Christchurch to Hobart, Australia, with a southerly extent of 58° S. As for the
94 other segments of the missions, these flights were characterized by repeated climbs and
95 descents between low altitude (about 300 m; usually below cloud base) and about 8000 m
96 to establish trace gas and aerosol profiles.

97 We selected two of the flights for analysis of cloud microphysical conditions based on
98 incidence of appreciable SLW. Of these flights two profiles were chosen for detailed anal-
99 ysis. Research flight 6 during HIPPO-2 (henceforth RF2.06) on 12 November 2009 was
100 conducted in the pre-frontal region of a small but relatively intense mid-latitude cold-
101 core cyclone. Figure 1 shows the flight track plotted over Moderate Resolution Imaging
102 Spectroradiometer (MODIS; on board the NASA A-Train Aqua satellite) cloud top tem-
103 perature (CTT) retrievals [Platnick *et al.*, 2003]. Near-surface conditions south of 55° S
104 were very calm for the SO with wind speeds around 10 m s^{-1} and video footage below
105 cloud confirming quiet seas. Widespread stratus/stratocumulus fields were present ahead

106 of the frontal band, and the HIAPER penetrated these clouds four times between 2338
107 and 0140. MODIS CTTs were about -13° C.

108 During HIPPO-3, research flight 6 (RF3.06) was conducted on 6 April 2010 along the
109 170° E meridian through a post-frontal airmass. Cold air advection is apparent in the
110 heterogeneous cumulus fields of figure 1, sampled by the aircraft at around 0058 UTC,
111 and further to the south a precipitating stratocumulus deck was sampled at about 0134
112 and again at 0222. The cloud microphysics instruments on the aircraft varied from one
113 mission to another, but included:

114 1. Droplet Measurement Technologies (DMT) Ultra High Sensitivity Aerosol Spectrometer
115 (UHSAS), measuring aerosols in the diameter range 0.06 to $1.0 \mu\text{m}$ (RF 3.06 only),

116 2. DMT forward-scattering Cloud Droplet Probe (CDP), providing droplet size distribution
117 (DSD) for cloud particle diameter in the range 2 to $50 \mu\text{m}$ (malfunctioned during RF2.06,
118 and only used for mean particle size in RF3.06),

119 3. PMS 2D Cloud Imaging Probe (2DC), providing particle images and DSD for particles
120 in the range 62.5 to $1600 \mu\text{m}$,

121 4. King “hot-wire” probe [*King et al.*, 1978] measuring cloud liquid water content (LWC),
122 and

123 5. A Rosemount icing rate detector (RICE), a qualitative indication of the presence of SLW.

124 The hot-wire probe was not optimized for the operational speeds of the aircraft and
125 fluctuations in the raw baseline values were evident. These have been zeroed below cloud
126 base for this analysis. Due to inconsistencies between the CDP-derived liquid water
127 content LWC_{CDP} and the hot-wire probe value LWC_{King} , droplet concentration and

size distribution from the CDP were disregarded, but the cloud particle radius from the
 CDP mean droplet diameter ($\overline{D_{CDP}}$) was found to agree well with MODIS retrievals of
 cloud particle effective radius for cloud top (see small panels of figure 1). Cloud droplet
 concentrations (N_C ; units cm^{-3}) were calculated with:

$$N_C = \frac{6 LWC_{King}}{\pi \rho_w \overline{D_{CDP}}^3} \times 10^{-6}, \quad (1)$$

where ρ_w is the density of liquid water and all parameters (except N_C ; hence the factor
 10^{-6}) are converted to SI units.

3. Atmospheric profile structure

The thermodynamic profiles for the two southernmost cloud penetrations in RF2.06,
 at 0111 UTC (63° S) and 0140 UTC (66° S) (figure 2, left panel), shared a number of
 characteristics. Both profiles show a well-mixed boundary layer below a moderate capping
 (θ) inversion near 860 hPa (1000 m), with a stratiform cloud layer of 300-400 m depth below
 this. MODIS retrievals give a CTT of about -15° C and cloud droplet diameters of about
 17–20 μ m. Hot-wire cloud LWC throughout the profile was close to the value expected
 for adiabatic ascent. Winds for these profiles were westerly with speeds of 5–10 $m s^{-1}$ and
 little vertical shear.

The profiles selected from RF3.06, at about 0058 UTC (59° S) and 0222 UTC (66° S)
 (figure 2, right panel), contrasted in nature. The 0058 profile through an open-celled cu-
 mulus field had strong (25 $m s^{-1}$) south westerly winds with a weak θ inversion coincident
 with a slight directional wind shift at about 700 hPa/2500 m. The dry sub-cloud layer

146 resulted in a relatively high cloud base (about 800 hPa/1500 m). Temperatures within
147 this cloud ranged from -16°C at cloud base to -22°C near the top. The LWC profile
148 in the top of this cloud is substantially below the expected adiabatic value, due to ei-
149 ther condensate removal through precipitation or dry air entrainment at cloud top, or a
150 combination of both processes.

151 The profile at 0222 was characterized by a stronger inversion at about 815 hPa (1300 m)
152 with stratiform cloud of depth about 500 m (CTT -18°C). The winds were southerly
153 at about $10\text{--}12\text{ m s}^{-1}$ near cloud base with a 30° westerly shift through the cloud layer.
154 The LWC profile shows a dip at about 855 hPa before returning to a value consistent
155 with adiabatic condensation, suggesting the traversal of a pocket between cells during the
156 ascent, but heavy icing on the camera housing makes this impossible to verify.

4. Cloud microphysical features

157 A summary of the cloud microphysical observations for each of the profiles taken in
158 RF2.06 and RF3.06, including those discussed in detail, are shown in table 1 (supplemen-
159 tary material). Some SLW was observed in each of these profiles, evidenced in each case
160 by LWC values $> 0.1\text{ g kg}^{-1}$ at subzero temperatures, RICE signals indicating ice buildup,
161 and visible icing on the time lapse camera housing.

162 For RF2.06, the cloud depth generally increased to the south, and the maximum LWC
163 (all cloud water was supercooled) values encountered correspondingly increased, consistent
164 with stratiform cloud with adiabatic droplet growth. Drizzle drops ($D > 100\text{ }\mu\text{m}$) were
165 observed by the 2DC in three of the five profiles, and two of these profiles also included

166 ice particles. Precipitation observed below cloud was generally at exceptionally low rates
167 with the exception of the first profile.

168 The cloud layer in RF3.06 was generally deeper with convective cells and correspond-
169 ingly higher maximum LWC values. Drizzle drops were observed in five out of six profiles
170 where 2DC data was available, and some ice was observed in the same profiles of all but
171 one of these.

172 Peak LWC values for the 45 second cloud penetration near 0111 UTC during RF2.06
173 were about 0.2 gm^{-3} . While capable of detecting particles as small as $12.5 \mu\text{m}$, the 2DC
174 does not provide an accurate statistical representation of particles smaller than about
175 $50\text{--}100 \mu\text{m}$ due to sizing errors [Korolev *et al.*, 1991]. However, the low number of par-
176 ticles observed (figure 3; left panel, strips 1-4, show all of the 516 particles observed in
177 this profile) suggests that the median diameter of the particles was below the detection
178 threshold for the 2DC. The cloud particle imagery in and just below the cloud layer near
179 0111 UTC shows that although rare, some precipitation particles were present. Some of
180 these were snowflakes, with dendrite and plate formations particles clearly identifiable,
181 but spherical particles (most likely liquid drops) were also observed, suggesting very low-
182 rate, mixed-phase precipitation. Large crystals are the product of diffusional growth in a
183 saturated environment, and their size and scarcity, combined with the presence of large
184 droplets, suggests that IN were very rare in this environment.

185 The cloud encountered near 0140 UTC in RF2.06 was thermodynamically similar to the
186 previous profile, with peak LWC of about 0.3 gm^{-3} . In the 60 seconds it took to descend
187 through this cloud layer, some 2150 particles were imaged, with no particles with an area

188 greater than three pixels were observed (see 3; left panel, strips 5-6 for some examples).
189 This indicates that there was virtually no precipitation forming in these clouds. This
190 environment—which was undoubtedly supersaturated with respect to ice, and was still
191 composed predominantly of SLW at the MODIS overpass time 45 minutes later—would
192 have been conducive to rapid crystal growth. The absence of any identifiable ice and the
193 persistence of this cloud strongly suggests that virtually no IN active at temperatures
194 warmer than -15°C were present, although it is impossible to conclude this definitively
195 with the available instrumentation.

196 Aerosol spectrometer data below the cloudy layer near 0058 UTC in RF3.06 showed
197 a modal sub-cloud dry particle diameter in the range $0.07\text{--}0.08\ \mu\text{m}$, with a total con-
198 centration of about $100\ \text{cm}^{-3}$ at the lowest flight altitudes, decreasing to about $40\ \text{cm}^{-3}$
199 directly below cloud base, and to about $10\ \text{cm}^{-3}$ in the clear air above cloud. Values below
200 $100\ \text{cm}^{-3}$ are considered very low by northern hemisphere standards [*O'Dowd et al.*, 2001]
201 but are perhaps to be expected below precipitating clouds in a pristine environment, and
202 the very clean air aloft suggests that the below cloud aerosol was of local origin (i.e. sea
203 salt and biological/organic particles). Mean CPD cloud particle diameter increased from
204 about $20\ \mu\text{m}$ near cloud base to about $30\ \mu\text{m}$ near cloud top. Estimates of N_c from these
205 values and LWC_{King} were $30\text{--}50\ \text{cm}^{-3}$; comparable with satellite-derived climatology av-
206 erages for remote Southern Hemisphere oceans of $40\text{--}67\ \text{cm}^{-3}$ [*Bennartz*, 2007].

207 During the ascending profile, large spherical particles were observed in abundance near
208 cloud base (3; right panel, strips 2-3), but not near cloud top (first strip). These are most
209 likely liquid drops (as opposed to frozen) based on high icing rates and the formation of

210 “clear ice” on the time-lapse camera housing. Ice particles were observed very infrequently;
211 the only two clearly identifiable snow flakes are shown in the selected strips. The mean
212 diameter of the particles observed by the 2DC decreases gradually throughout the profile,
213 indicating that the supercooled drizzle was widespread in this cloud rather than existing
214 in an isolated cell. The descending profile, which occurred about eight minutes earlier
215 (some 60 km to the north), was in a different cell altogether, but 2DC observations were
216 similar apart from somewhat higher numbers of snowflakes.

217 UHSAS aerosol concentration below cloud near 0222 UTC was about 120 cm^{-3} , with
218 above cloud values around $25\text{--}40\text{ cm}^{-3}$. In-cloud N_c was about $80\text{--}120\text{ cm}^{-3}$. Cloud
219 droplets were relatively small, between about $15\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ near cloud base and $20\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ near
220 cloud top, and very few of these were imaged by the 2DC (figure 3; right panel, strips
221 4-6). In-cloud observations of particles greater than $100\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ diameter were very rare, but
222 “ice drizzle” in the form of very low concentrations of large dendritic crystals was observed
223 below cloud base.

5. Discussion

224 The HIAPER encountered supercooled liquid stratiform clouds in a variety of conditions
225 and in different seasons over the SO. Although neither the flight plan nor the instrumen-
226 tation suite was ideally suited for cloud microphysical surveys, the data from these flights
227 provides evidence of the unique cloud conditions.

228 Consistent with the satellite observations, SLW was observed in appreciable quantities
229 in all of the lowest-level cloud in both of the flights presented in this paper, as well as in
230 other flights where cloud was encountered at subzero temperatures. Geometrically thick

231 low-level clouds are the most common and most energetically important clouds over the
232 SO [*Mace* 2010, *Haynes et al.* 2011], a description which also characterizes the clouds
233 observed in this study. The representation of the coverage, phase and lifetime of these
234 clouds is crucial to accurately simulating the radiative budget and thus the climate of the
235 SO.

236 *Rangno and Hobbs* [2001] identified two categories of “moderately” supercooled strati-
237 form clouds (cloud tops -10° to -20° C) in the Arctic: non- or lightly-precipitating (snow
238 and drizzle) with small droplets ($D < 20 \mu\text{m}$) and/or high droplet concentrations, and pre-
239 cipitating (snow) with large droplets ($D < 20 \mu\text{m}$) at lower concentrations. We found that
240 the clouds observed in the HIPPO flights do not fit easily into either of these categories.
241 The extremely low concentrations of ice particles and the frequent observation of super-
242 cooled drizzle and rain suggests that these clouds should not be treated as “Arctic” in
243 nature. However, the sample size for this study is admittedly very small, and the cloud
244 physics instrumentation neglected, and further field observations are required to better
245 characterize these clouds.

246 Large supercooled drops occurred in persistent stratiform and convective cloud in both
247 pre-frontal and post-frontal environments, in the months of November and April. *Cober*
248 *et al.* [1996] observed supercooled drizzle drops during a severe icing event in deep mar-
249 itime stratiform cloud at temperatures between -8 and -11° C near eastern Canada.
250 Conditions were comparable in this extreme event (one of three in 119 hours of in-flight
251 measurements) to the essentially random selection of SO conditions presented in this
252 study, which serves to highlight the unique nature of SO clouds. *Rosenfeld et al.* [2013]

253 also found supercooled rain in a variety of cloud conditions, but the underlying similarity
254 in those cases was the pristine nature of the air mass with low concentrations of aerosol
255 and IN. Sub-cloud aerosol concentrations were not measured in RF2.06, but were found
256 to be very low during RF3.06. Derived in-cloud N_c was typical for clouds in a remote
257 maritime air mass.

258 No IN or “small ice” (i.e. $< 100 \mu\text{m}$) measurements were made in the HIPPO flights, but
259 it is inferred from the extremely low concentrations of ice crystals in non-precipitating low-
260 level clouds that IN concentrations effective at -15° to -20°C were very low. While we
261 acknowledge that without more sophisticated instrumentation it is not possible to rule out
262 the existence of small ice particles in these clouds, we consider it unlikely that they would
263 be present in significant concentrations, as they would rapidly grow into large, clearly
264 identifiable ice crystals. In the heavily precipitating clouds where snow was abundant, it
265 is likely that secondary ice processes played an important role.

266 The hypothesis that supercooled water exists frequently as thin layers over glaciated
267 cloud [*Rauber and Tokay, 1991*] has gained some traction in the cloud remote sensing
268 community, with merged radar/lidar/spectroradiometer satellite products seemingly con-
269 firming this structure over the SO [*Huang et al., 2012*]. However, those authors note some
270 limitations, in particular because of the deficiency in phase attribution of satellite cloud
271 radar retrievals in the temperature range 0° to -20°C , and the high attenuation of the
272 lidar signal in liquid clouds. On the other hand, the profiles examined in this paper show
273 quite a different picture of low-level SO clouds: predominantly liquid phase with a mixture
274 of solid and liquid precipitation. The satellite radar phase-retrieval algorithm response to

275 the high-reflectivity (i.e. large) supercooled liquid droplets is most likely to identify ice
276 in SO clouds [*Huang et al.*, 2012], and without a satellite lidar depolarization signal to
277 contradict this, any merged product would be flawed.

278 **Acknowledgments.** This research was funded by ARC linkage grant LP120100115
279 and relies on datasets produced for the HIPPO deployments, and made available to the
280 community by the National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR) Earth Observ-
281 ing Laboratory. NCAR is sponsored by the National Science Foundation. This paper
282 has greatly benefited from the insightful comments of Alain Protat and an anonymous
283 reviewer.

References

- 284 Bennartz, R. (2007), Global assessment of marine boundary layer cloud droplet number
285 concentration from satellite, *J. Geophys. Res.: Atmos.*, *112*.
- 286 Bigg, E. (1973), Ice Nucleus Concentrations in Remote Areas, *J. Atmos. Sci.*, *30*, 1153–
287 1157.
- 288 Burrows, S., C. Hoose, U. Pöschl, and M. Lawrence (2013), Ice nuclei in marine air:
289 biogenic particles or dust?, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, *13*, 245–267.
- 290 Cober, S. G., J. W. Strapp, and G. A. Isaac (1996), An example of supercooled drizzle
291 drops formed through a collision-coalescence process, *J. App. Meteorol.*, *35*(12), 2250–
292 2260.
- 293 Delanoë, J., and R. J. Hogan (2010), Combined CloudSat-CALIPSO-MODIS retrievals of
294 the properties of ice clouds, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *115*.

- 295 DeMott, P. J., A. J. Prenni, and coauthors (2010), Predicting global atmospheric ice
296 nuclei distributions and their impacts on climate, *Proceedings of the National Academy
297 of Sciences*, *107*(25), 11,217–11,222.
- 298 Greenwald, T., G. Stephens, S. Christopher, and T. Vonder Haar (1995), Observations of
299 the global characteristics and regional radiative effects of marine cloud liquid water, *J.
300 Clim.*, *8*(12), 2928–2946.
- 301 Haynes, J. M., C. Jakob, W. B. Rossow, G. Tselioudis, and J. Brown (2011), Major
302 Characteristics of Southern Ocean Cloud Regimes and Their Effects on the Energy
303 Budget, *J. Clim.*, *24*, 5061–5080.
- 304 Hobbs, P. V., and A. L. Rangno (1998), Microstructures of low and middle-level clouds
305 over the Beaufort Sea, *Q. J. R. Meteorol. Soc.*, *124*(550), 2035–2071.
- 306 Hu, Y., S. Rodier, and coauthors (2010), Occurrence, liquid water content, and fraction
307 of supercooled water clouds from combined CALIOP/IIR/MODIS measurements, *J.
308 Geophys. Res.*, *115*, D00H34.
- 309 Huang, Y., S. T. Siems, M. J. Manton, A. Protat, and J. Delanoë (2012), A study on the
310 low-altitude clouds over the Southern Ocean using the DARDAR-MASK, *J. Geophys.
311 Res.: Atmos.*, *117*, D18204.
- 312 Ikeda, K., R. M. Rasmussen, W. D. Hall, and G. Thompson (2007), Observations of
313 freezing drizzle in extratropical cyclonic storms during IMPROVE-2, *J. Atmos. Sci.*,
314 *64*(9), 3016–3043.
- 315 King, W. D., D. A. Parkin, and R. J. Handsworth (1978), A hot-wire liquid water device
316 having fully calculable response characteristics, *J. App. Meteorol.*, *17*, 1809–1813.

- 317 Korolev, A., S. Kuznetsov, Y. Makarov, and V. Novikov (1991), Evaluation of measure-
318 ments of particle size and sample area from optical array probes, *J. Atmos. Ocea. Tech.*,
319 *8*(4), 514–522.
- 320 Korolev, A. V., G. A. Isaac, and coauthors (2003), Microphysical characterization of
321 mixed-phase clouds, *Q. J. R. Meteorol. Soc.*, *129*(587), 39–65.
- 322 Mace, G. G. (2010), Cloud properties and radiative forcing over the maritime storm
323 tracks of the Southern Ocean and North Atlantic derived from A-Train, *J. Geophys.*
324 *Res.: Atmos.*, *115*.
- 325 Morrison, A. E., S. T. Siems, and M. J. Manton (2011), A Three-Year Climatology of
326 Cloud-Top Phase over the Southern Ocean and North Pacific, *J. Clim.*, *24*, 2405–2418.
- 327 O’Dowd, C. D., E. Becker, and M. Kulmala (2001), Mid-latitude north-atlantic aerosol
328 characteristics in clean and polluted air, *Atmos. Res.*, *58*(3), 167–185.
- 329 Platnick, S., M. D. King, and coauthors (2003), The MODIS cloud products: algorithms
330 and examples from terra, *IEEE Trans. Geosci. Electron*, *41*, 459–473.
- 331 Politovich, M. K. (1989), Aircraft Icing Caused by Large Supercooled Droplets., *J. App.*
332 *Meteorol.*, *28*, 856–868.
- 333 Rangno, A. L., and P. V. Hobbs (2001), Ice particles in stratiform clouds in the Arctic and
334 possible mechanisms for the production of high ice concentrations, *J. Geophys. Res.:*
335 *Atmos.*, *106*, 15,065–15,075.
- 336 Rasmussen, R. M., I. Geresdi, G. Thompson, K. Manning, and E. Karplus (2002), Freezing
337 drizzle formation in stably stratified layer clouds: The role of radiative cooling of cloud
338 droplets, cloud condensation nuclei, and ice initiation, *J. Atmos. Sci.*, *59*(4), 837–860.

- 339 Rauber, R., and A. Tokay (1991), An explanation for the existence of supercooled water
340 at the top of cold clouds, *J. Atmos. Sci.*, *48*(8), 1005–1023.
- 341 Rogers, D. C., P. J. DeMott, S. M. Kreidenweis, and Y. Chen (1998), Measurements of
342 ice nucleating aerosols during SUCCESS, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, *25*(9), 1383–1386.
- 343 Rosenfeld, D., R. Chemke, and coauthors (2013), The common occurrence of highly su-
344 percooled drizzle and rain near the coastal regions of the Western United States, *J.*
345 *Geophys. Res.: Atmos.*
- 346 Stephens, G., D. Vane, and coauthors (2002), The CloudSat mission and the A-Train,
347 *Bull. Am. Meteorol. Soc.*, *83*(12), 1771–1790.
- 348 Trenberth, K. E., and J. T. Fasullo (2010), Simulation of Present-Day and Twenty-First-
349 Century Energy Budgets of the Southern Oceans, *J. Clim.*, *23*, 440.
- 350 Wofsy, S. C., and HIPPO Science Team (2011), HIAPER Pole-to-Pole Observations
351 (HIPPO): Global distributions and emission sources for CH₄, N₂O, Black Carbon, and
352 other trace species inferred from five aircraft missions, *AGU Fall Meeting Abstracts*.

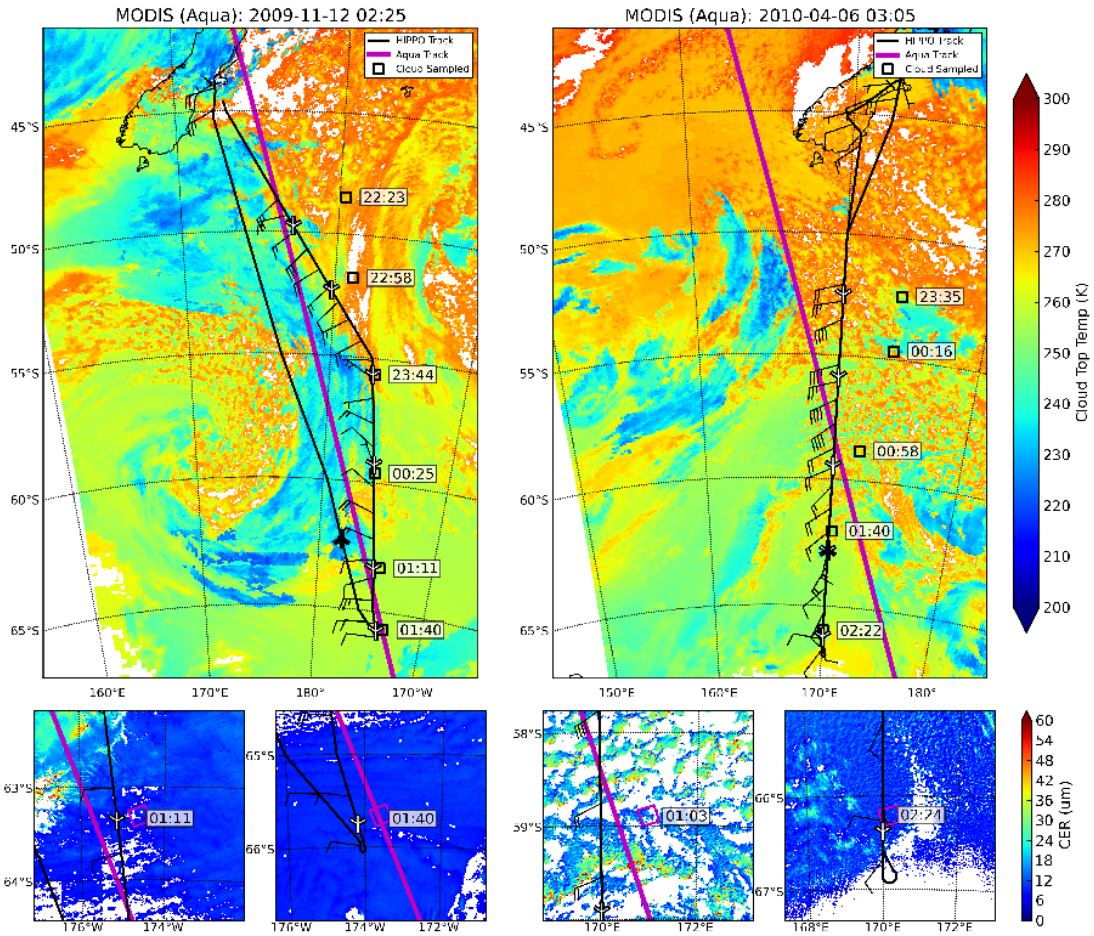


Figure 1. Flight tracks for RF2.06 (left) and RF3.06 (right) overlaid on MODIS cloud top temperature (main panels). Low-level cloud was sampled at the annotated times, with the aircraft position denoted by markers, and the drifted location of the sampled air (based on observed winds) marked by circles. The smaller panels show detail of cloud effective radius near the profiles examined, with the magenta boxes showing a 20 pixel box around the approximate location of the cloud tops observed by the HIAPER.

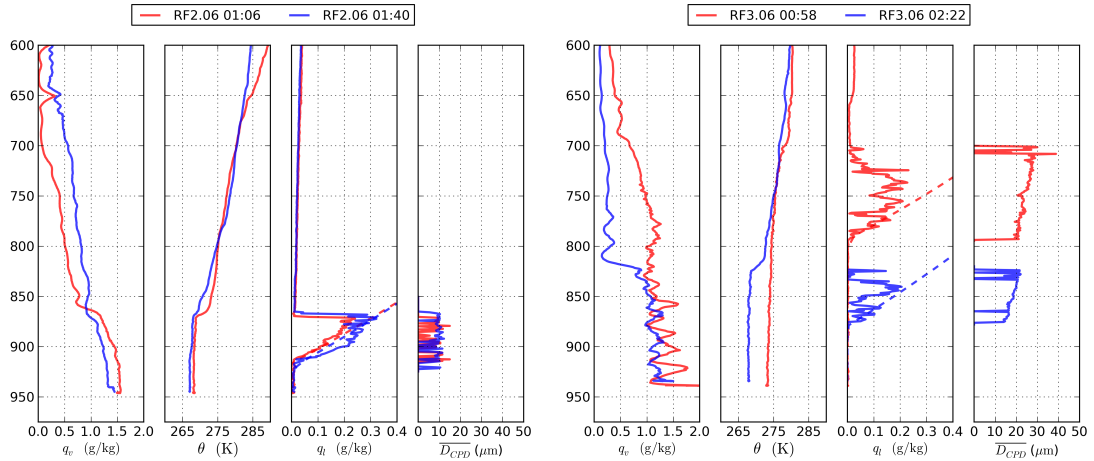


Figure 2. Atmospheric profiles at 0111 UTC (63° S) and 0140 UTC (66° S) during RF2.06 (left), and 0058 UTC (60° S) and 0222 UTC (66° S) during RF3.06 (right), showing water vapor mixing ratio (q_v), potential temperature (θ), liquid water mixing ratio (q_l) and CDP mean droplet diameter ($\overline{D_{CPD}}$; these are not meaningful for RF2.06). The dashed lines represent the adiabatic liquid water mixing ratio initialised from a parcel near cloud base. Fluctuations in the q_v values are due to oscillations in the dew point hygrometers that may last several minutes following descent from cold temperatures.

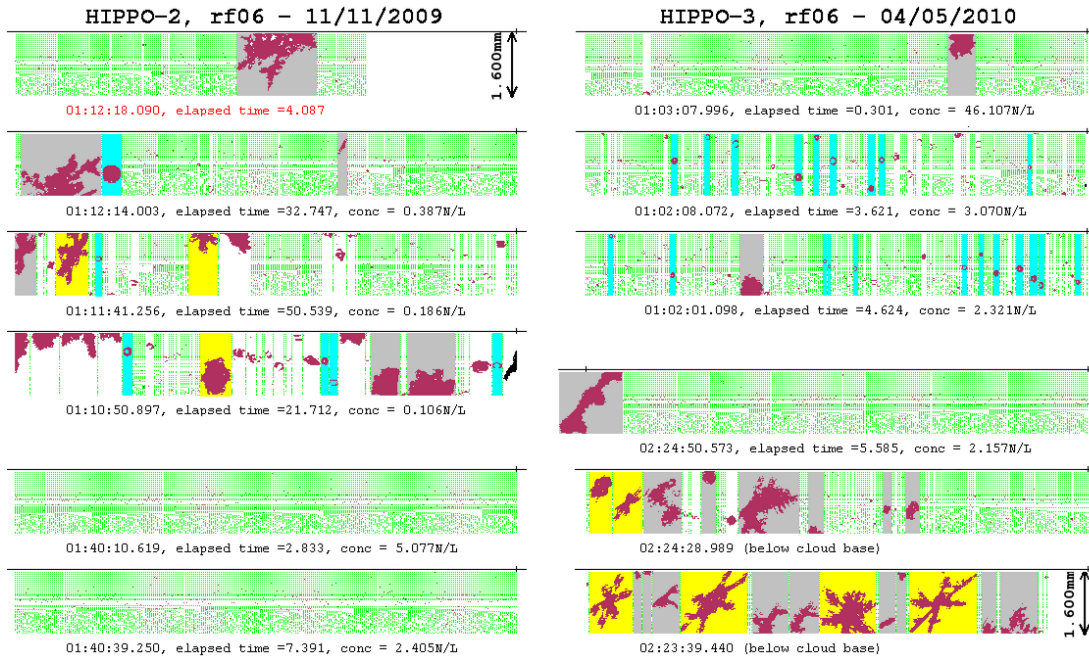


Figure 3. HIPPO 2DC imagery for ascent through cloud layers in RF2.06 near 0111 UTC (left panel, upper four strips), 0140 UTC (left panel, lower two strips), and for cloud layers in RF3.06 near 0058 UTC (right panel, upper three strips), and 0222 UTC (right panel, lower three strips). Strips are arranged in order of altitude for each profile. The time stamps shown are for the last (right-most) particle in the buffer. Coloured backgrounds indicate some particles that have been identified manually; grey indicates an irregular or indeterminate snowflake, yellow are plates and dendritic flakes, while blue background indicates spherical particles.

Table 1. Summary of conditions in (upper section) and below (lower section) low level cloud in RF2.06. Where conditions were similar on ascent and descent profiles, only one is shown, and those profiles discussed in detail in text are marked †. The 2DC ice/liquid particle concentrations are approximate, as there is some ambiguity in the detection of small, round particles. Here, precip. stands for precipitation, dend. stands for dendrite ice crystals, and aggr. stands for aggregate ice crystals.

	RF2.06						RF3.06						
	ascent	ascent	ascent	ascent [†]	descent [†]		ascent	descent	descent	ascent [†]	descent	ascent	ascent [†]
Cloud top T (°C)	-11	-15	-15	-15	-16		-11	-13	-18	-22	-18	-17	-18
Cloud depth (m)	250	200	225	350	400		225	500	300	900	600	500	500
LWC _{max} (g m ⁻³)	0.20	0.17	0.11	0.27	0.37		0.11	0.21	0.45	0.22	0.47	0.47	0.25
Cloud $\overline{D_{CDP}}$ (μm)	-	-	-	-	-		25	20	27	23	29	25	20
2DC Ice (L ⁻¹)	nil	< 0.01	< 0.01	< 0.01	nil		0.03	0.3	0.4	0.13	-	< 0.01	< 0.01
2DC Ice. drops (L ⁻¹)	1.4	0.1	nil	0.02	nil		< 0.01	1.0	0.3	0.3	-	1.1	< 0.01
Liquid precip.	rain	drizzle	nil	trace drizzle	nil		trace drizzle	rain	drizzle	drizzle	-	rain	nil
Frozen precip.	nil	dend.	dend.	trace	nil		nil	dend./aggr.	dend./aggr.	trace aggr.	-	trace aggr.	trace dend.
Comments	<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>	-	-		<i>d</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>f</i>	-	<i>g</i>	-	-

^a Ambient temperature below cloud reached about 3°C so mechanism for droplet production (melting snow vs. warm rain) is ambiguous. All cloud water was supercooled.

^b No cloud sampled in this profile.

^c Drizzle and large dendrite flakes (D > 3 mm) were co-located in low concentrations during ascent to cloud base.

^d Large dendrite flakes (D > 3 mm) below cloud base.

^e Multiple layered cloud, with precipitation falling from upper layer into lower. Large, pristine crystals observed in cloud.

^f Very heavy snow below cloud base.

^g 2DC data contaminated due to extreme icing upon entry of cloud layer.