



1 Characterization of Arctic mixed-phase cloud properties at 2 small scale and coupling with satellite remote sensing.

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15 **Abstract.** This study aims to characterize the microphysical and optical properties of ice crystals and
16 supercooled liquid droplets within low-level Arctic mixed-phase clouds (MPC). We compiled and analyzed
17 cloud in situ measurements from 4 airborne campaigns (18 flights, 71 vertical profiles in MPC) over the
18 Greenland Sea and the Svalbard region. Cloud phase discrimination and representative vertical profiles of
19 number, size, mass and shapes of ice crystals and liquid droplets are assessed. The results show that the liquid
20 phase dominates the upper part of the MPC with high concentration of small droplets (120 cm^{-3} , $15\text{ }\mu\text{m}$), and
21 averaged LWC around $0.2\text{ g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$. The ice phase is found everywhere within the MPC layers, but dominates the
22 properties in the lower part of the cloud and below where ice crystals precipitate down to the surface. The
23 analysis of the ice crystal morphology highlights that irregulars and rimed are the main particle habit followed by
24 stellars and plates. We hypothesize that riming and condensational growth processes (including the Wegener-
25 Bergeron-Findeisen mechanism) are the main growth mechanisms involved in MPC. The differences observed
26 in the vertical profiles of MPC properties from one campaign to another highlight that large values of LWC and
27 high concentration of smaller droplets are possibly linked to polluted situations which lead to very low values of
28 ice crystal size and IWC. On the contrary, clean situations with low temperatures exhibit larger values of ice
29 crystal size and IWC. Several parameterizations relevant for remote sensing or modeling are also determined,
30 such as IWC (and LWC) – extinction relationship, ice and liquid integrated water paths, ice concentration and
31 liquid water fraction according to temperature. Finally, 4 flights collocated with active remote sensing
32 observations from CALIPSO and CloudSat satellites are specifically analyzed to evaluate the cloud detection
33 and cloud thermodynamical phase DARDAR retrievals. This comparison is valuable to assess the sub-pixel
34 variability of the satellite measurements as well as their shortcomings/performance near the ground.

35 1 Introduction

36 The Arctic region is more sensitive to climate change than any other region of the Earth (Solomon et al., 2007).
37 Clouds and particularly low-level mixed-phase clouds related processes have a major impact on the Arctic
38 surface energy budget (Curry, 1995; Curry et al., 1996; Morrison et al., 2011). Observations suggest that
39 boundary layer mixed phase clouds (MPC, mixture of liquid droplets and ice) are ubiquitous in the Arctic and
40 persist for several days under a variety of meteorological conditions (Mioche et al., 2015; Morrison et al.,



41 **2012; Shupe et al., 2011; Shupe and Intrieri, 2004**). They occur as single or multiple stratiform layers of
42 supercooled droplets near the cloud top from which ice crystals form and precipitate. These clouds and
43 especially those including liquid layers have a large impact on the surface radiative fluxes and Arctic climate
44 feedbacks (**Kay et al., 2012; Kay and Gettelman, 2009**). The strong impact of MPC on the energy budget
45 stems from their persistence and microphysical properties which result from a complex web of interactions
46 between numerous local and larger scale processes that greatly complicate their understanding and modeling
47 (**Klein et al., 2009; Morrison et al., 2012**).

48 However, major uncertainties surround our knowledge of the interactions and feedbacks between the physical
49 processes involved in their life cycle. This complexity reflects in the large discrepancies of the cloud related
50 processes representation in numerical models, which in turn impacts their predictive capability in the Arctic. For
51 instance, Global Climate Models (GCM) tend to underestimate the amount of liquid water in MPC (**Komurcu et**
52 **al., 2014**). Therefore, the representation of ice formation and growth processes and their interactions with the
53 liquid phase (liquid/ice partitioning, Wegener-Bergeron-Findeisen process for example) has to be improved, as
54 already shown in previous modelling studies (**Prenni et al. (2007)** or **Klein et al. (2009)** among others). The
55 quantification of climate effects is also hampered by difficulties translating observational characterization into
56 realistic representations in models at all scales. Among the various cloud properties which need to be more
57 accurately described, the cloud thermodynamic phase is a parameter of primary importance. The standard
58 assumption in climate models is that liquid and ice are uniformly mixed throughout each entire model grid box
59 (**Tan and Storelvmo, 2016**). However some field measurements (see among others **Korolev and Isaac (2003)**)
60 suggest that different pockets of solely water or ice in mixed phase regions coexist. This has consequences on
61 how processes like the Wegener-Bergeron-Findeisen process should be parameterized in large scale models. The
62 spatial scale of mixing can affect the longevity, the precipitation formation and the radiative properties of the
63 clouds. However, understanding and measuring the spatial phase distribution in low level arctic mixed-phase
64 clouds remains a challenge.

65 The recent development of ground based stations (Barrow, EUREKA, NY-Alesund among others) and
66 spaceborne remote sensing observations (for instance lidar and radar onboard CALIPSO and CloudSat
67 respectively) allow today reliable studies of Arctic cloud phase variability at a regional scale (**Dong et al., 2010;**
68 **Kay and Gettelman, 2009; Liu et al., 2012; Shupe et al., 2011**).

69 Remote sensing observations from space performed by active instruments onboard CALIPSO (Winker et al.,
70 2003) and CloudSat (**Stephens et al., 2002**) satellites as a part of the A-Train constellation provide a unique way
71 of characterizing Arctic cloud vertical properties. CALIPSO is equipped with the Cloud-Aerosol Lidar with
72 Orthogonal Polarization lidar at 532 and 1064 nm (CALIOP), an imaging infrared radiometer (IIR) and a wide
73 field camera (WFC). CloudSat is equipped with a 95 GHz cloud profiling radar (CPR). However, the cloud
74 phase must be assessed prior to the retrieval of the cloud microphysical properties. Moreover, the definition of
75 the cloud thermodynamic phase strongly depends on the measurement technique and the observation scale.

76 Thus, it appears relevant to investigate the horizontal and vertical distribution of ice crystals and liquid water
77 droplets as well as the scale dependent liquid-ice partitioning for different observational techniques. However,
78 since the remote sensing retrieval algorithms and products rely on indirect measurement techniques involving
79 hypothesis, they need to be validated (**Cesana et al., 2016; Mioche et al., 2010**). They also provide cloud
80 properties typically averaged over one kilometer, which may be insufficient to study cloud processes at a



81 microphysical scale. **Cesana et al. (2016)** showed for example that cloud detection and phase retrieval product
82 from CALIOP lidar measurements depend strongly on factors such as horizontal and vertical data averaging.
83 Additionally, although space remote sensing measurements present the great advantage to cover the almost entire
84 Arctic region, they suffer of inherent shortcomings at low altitude levels (**Blanchard et al., 2014; Liu et al.,
85 2017; Marchand et al., 2008**). In situ and ground based remote sensing measurements may fill these gaps by
86 providing a detailed characterization of cloud microphysical properties at low levels. In addition, in situ
87 observations are based on direct measurement techniques and can provide data at a higher spatial resolution
88 (generally < 100m). Numerous previous studies dedicated to the assessment of the microphysical properties of
89 Arctic clouds are based on *in situ* measurements (**Avramov et al., 2011; Gayet et al., 2009; Rangno and
90 Hobbs, 2001; Verlinde et al., 2007**). But these works focused mostly on case studies. A few studies aimed to
91 merge several *in situ* datasets to provide a statistical analysis and representative description of mixed phase cloud
92 properties. Additionally, most of these studies concerned the Western Arctic region (**McFarquhar et al., 2007**).
93

94 The present study provides statistics of liquid and ice properties of Arctic MPC from *in situ* data collected in
95 single layer MPC during several airborne campaigns in the region of Spitzbergen/Greenland Sea between 2004
96 and 2010. Vertical profiles of liquid and ice properties, as well as parameterizations are presented. The main
97 objective is to better understand the processes involved in Arctic low-level MPC life cycle at small scale and
98 improve cloud parameterizations for modeling and remote sensing algorithms. The results will complement
99 previous works concerning Arctic clouds characterizations performed in Western Arctic.

100 However, as *in situ* measurements remain very local in time and space, their representativity must be first
101 established. In **Mioche et al. (2015)** we have investigated the spatial and seasonal variability of MPC properties
102 using CloudSat and CALIPSO spaceborne observations. The study showed a large occurrence of MPC all year
103 long both over the whole Arctic and the Svalbard regions. It was clearly evidenced that the Svalbard region, due
104 to its specific location near the Atlantic Ocean, presents a larger occurrence of low level MPC compared to the
105 averaged Arctic. These results enabled us to demonstrate that the vertical structure of the clouds sampled during
106 our airborne campaigns are rather well representative of the cloud profiles observed from space in the Svalbard
107 region. This conclusion supports the significance of coupling in situ measurements with spaceborne observations
108 to evaluate and validate remote sensing algorithms and retrieval products in the Svalbard region. This objective
109 may be achieved by means of flights performed in time and space co-localisation with the satellite tracks (**Gayet
110 et al., 2009; Mioche et al., 2010**).

111
112 This study combines two objectives: (i) we aim at improving the description of mixed phase clouds at low level
113 altitudes and (ii) to link large and small scale observations (space remote sensing and in situ measurements
114 respectively). The description of the field experiments, instrumentation and datasets will be made in section 2.
115 Section 3 will present and discuss the vertical profiles of microphysical properties of the low-level MPC. Key
116 parameterizations useful for modeling or remote sensing will be proposed in section 4. Finally, the coupling of in
117 situ and remote sensing observations will be achieved in section 5 where the validation of remote sensing
118 retrieval products in terms of cloud detection and cloud thermodynamical phase will be achieved.

119

120 2 Field experiments, airborne measurements and meteorological situations

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2.1 Airborne campaigns

123 This study is based on *in situ* data collected in single-layer mixed-phase clouds (MPC) during four airborne
124 international campaigns organized in the Arctic region, namely:

125 (i) the Arctic Study of Tropospheric Aerosols, clouds and Radiation experiments (ASTAR, **Jourdan et al.,**
126 **2010; Gayet et al., 2009**) which took place in Spitzbergen (Longyearbyen, Norway, 78° N, 15° E) in April 2004
127 and April 2007 (hereafter labeled AS04 and AS07). The Polar-2 aircraft operated by AWI (Alfred Wegener
128 Institute) was flown during these two experiments;

129 (ii) the Polar Study using Aircraft, Remote Sensing, Surface Measurements and Models, of Climate, Chemistry,
130 Aerosols, and Transport (POLARCAT, **Delanoë et al., 2013**), which was carried out in northern Sweden
131 (Kiruna, 68° N, 20° E) in April 2008 (hereafter PO08) during the International Polar Year. Measurements were
132 performed onboard the French ATR-42 aircraft of SAFIRE (Service des Avions Français Instrumentés pour la
133 Recherche en Environnement);

134 and (iii) the Solar Radiation and Phase Discrimination of Arctic Clouds experiment (SORPIC, **Bierwirth et al.,**
135 **2013**), in the Spitzbergen region in May 2010 (hereafter SO10) with the AWI Polar-5 aircraft.

136 All the scientific flights, in cloudy environment, related to these four campaigns were carried out above open sea
137 in the Arctic Greenland sea region as displayed on Fig. 1. The flights during ASTAR and SORPIC field
138 experiments covered latitudes ranging from 75° N to 79° N while flights during POLARCAT campaign were
139 performed between 70° N and 73° N. Moreover, the data were all collected at a similar period of the year: i.e.
140 during Spring (April and May).

141 For this study, we have selected the measurements corresponding to ascent and descent flight sequences into
142 single-layer MPC as the main objective is to study the vertical partitioning of ice and liquid thermodynamical
143 phases. Our dataset consists of 71 cloud profiles (see Table 1) representing more than 21 000 measurement
144 points at 1Hz (350 minutes of cloud observations), spread over 18 flights performed above arctic open sea water.
145 Four flights were successfully collocated with the ground tracks of the CALIPSO and CloudSat satellites.

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2.2 In situ instrumentation

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149 A similar in situ instrumentation was mounted on the three aircraft: Polar-2, Polar-5 and ATR-42. The same data
150 processing was used in order to derive the cloud microphysical parameters (at a same scale: i.e. ~ 100 m)
151 presented in this study. A coherent cloud data set has been obtained in order to provide a representative statistical
152 description of the properties of Arctic mixed-phase clouds sampled over the Greenland Sea during Spring.

153 The in situ instruments used in this study for the cloud properties assessment are the following:

- 154 - the Cloud Particle Imager (CPI, **Lawson et al., 2001**), captures cloud particle images on a 1024x1024
155 pixels CCD camera with a pixel resolution of 2.3 μm and with 256 grey levels. At least 5 pixels are
156 necessary to identify a cloud particle, so the particle sizes derived from the CPI range from 15 μm to
157 around 2 mm. The images are processed using the software developed at the Laboratoire de
158 Météorologie Physique (LaMP, **Lefèvre, 2007**) based on the original CPIView software (CPIView,
159 2005, **Lawson et al., 2001; Baker and Lawson, 2006**). In particular, it provides particle size



- 160 distribution (PSD) and derived parameters (particle concentration, effective diameter, extinction
161 coefficient and ice water content) as well as a particle habit classification. The data processing method
162 used to derive the extinction coefficient (σ) and the Ice Water Content (IWC) is described in the
163 Appendix A.
- 164 - the PMS Forward Scattering Spectrometer Probe (FSSP-100, **Baumgardner et al., 2002; Knollenberg,**
165 **1981**) provides the droplet size distribution from 3 to 45 μm . The derived parameters from the PSD are
166 the droplet concentration, the effective diameter, the extinction coefficient (σ) and the liquid water
167 content (LWC).
 - 168 - the Polar Nephelometer (PN, **Gayet et al., 1997**) measures the scattering phase function of an ensemble
169 of cloud particles (either droplets, ice crystals or a mix), from a few micrometers to about 800 μm .
170 These measurements are useful to identify spherical from non-spherical particles and thus discriminate
171 the dominant cloud thermodynamical phase. The extinction coefficient and the asymmetry parameter
172 (g) are calculated following the methodology presented in **Gerber et al. (2000)**.
 - 173 - the Nevzorov probe (**Korolev et al., 1998**) uses the hot-wire technique to retrieve the liquid water
174 content and the total water content. Note that the Nevzorov data are only used to determine liquid water
175 content during ASTAR 2004 because the FSSP-100 was not used during this campaign. The retrieval
176 method used to determine the Liquid Water Content is described in Appendix A.

177
178 The combination of these probes allows cloud particles description from a few micrometers (typically 3 μm) to
179 about 2 mm. Data are recorded at 1 Hz frequency which corresponds to a spatial resolution of about 100 m
180 (according to the aircraft speed). The uncertainties and measurement ranges associated to the derived cloud
181 parameters are summarized in Table A1.

182
183 Finally, in situ measurements accuracy may be hampered by the shattering of large ice crystals on the probe
184 inlets, inducing smaller particle artifact (**Heymsfield, 2007**) leading to an overestimation of small particle
185 concentration. For example, previous studies of **Field et al. (2003)** and **Heymsfield (2007)** showed that
186 shattering effect may induce an overestimation of about 20 % on the bulk properties and a factor 2 or 3 on the
187 number concentration of ice crystals. Moreover, the recent intercomparison study by **Guyot et al. (2015)** based
188 on in situ measurements in a wind tunnel experiment showed that the use of the same measurement technic may
189 lead to large discrepancies on the particle number. Even through no standard method was available during the
190 campaigns to accurately determine and remove the impact of shattering (designed tips, particle interarrival time
191 measurement...), a short analysis is described in Appendix B to evaluate the quality of the in situ measurements
192 and highlight if shattering effect is present.

193
194 The three research aircraft measured basic meteorological parameters along the flight track (see **Gayet**
195 **et al., 2009**). We recall that the static air temperature is calculated with accuracy better than ± 0.5 K. As the
196 liquid water content remained lower than 0.6 $\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ during most of the MPC flights, no significant effects on the
197 reliability of the temperature measurements were observed during cloud traverses. The altitude and geographical
198 position parameters were measured from the airborne GPS systems with an accuracy of 50 m.

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2.3 Normalized altitude and meteorological situations

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This study is based on a statistical analysis which consists in merging all available MPC data in order to derive pertinent microphysical parameters in terms of vertical profiles. Hence, since cloud top and cloud base heights exhibit significant differences according to the considered meteorological situations, the in situ measurements altitudes are normalized following the method by **Jackson et al. (2012)**. The cloud top and cloud base refer to the liquid phase layer, i.e. the part of the cloud containing liquid droplets identified from g-values greater than 0.8 (PN measurements, see section 2.4. below). Within the (water) cloud layer (Eq. (1)) and below the cloud base (Eq.(2)) the normalized altitudes Z_n are the following:

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$$Z_n = \frac{z - z_b}{z_t - z_b} \quad (1)$$

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$$Z_n = \frac{z}{z_b} - 1 \quad (2)$$

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where Z_n is the normalized altitude, Z the altitude of the measurements, Z_t and Z_b the cloud top and base altitudes respectively. Thus, an altitude of 1 corresponds to the top of the cloud liquid layer and 0 to its base. Negative values characterize regions of ice precipitation below the cloud layer and the altitude of -1 defines the ground level according to Eq. (2).

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In order to obtain representative statistical results the cloud layers were stratified over 10 levels with intervals of 0.2 (normalized altitude) which each contains around 2000 observations (i.e. about 10% of the data set). Finally, the vertical profiles of MPC microphysical properties presented in the following are obtained by averaging the in situ measurements over each normalized altitude layer. The profiles are computed for the whole data set and for each campaign separately in order to better interpret and discuss the results.

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The mean vertical profiles of temperature encountered during the four field experiments are displayed on Fig. 2. The results show that similar profiles are observed for AS04 and SO10 with a well pronounced temperature inversion (~ -10 °C) whereas PO8 does not exhibit clear temperature inversion. Colder conditions characterize AS07 with a temperature down to -20 °C at cloud top. During AS07, the prevailing weather situation was dominated by very cold air outbreaks coming from higher latitudes (**Gayet et al., 2009**). Table 2 summarizes the statistics of MPC top and base altitudes, as well as the liquid containing layer thickness for the 71 selected profiles. The mean cloud top is located around 1200 ± 310 m while the mean cloud base altitude (referring as the altitude below which liquid phase is no longer present) is 756 ± 283 m. This is consistent with observations performed in western Arctic where cloud top altitudes lie between 885 m and 1320 m, and cloud base altitudes between 420 m and 745 m (**McFarquhar et al., 2007**). Our measurements also indicate that the average layer thickness spans from 100 m to 950 m with an average of 444 m.

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2.4 Determination of the cloud thermodynamical phase from in situ measurements

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239 The asymmetry parameter (g) derived from PN measurements is used to discriminate cloud thermodynamic
240 phase. Indeed, in a previous study, **Jourdan et al. (2010)** have shown with a principal component analysis that
241 g , which is determined according to the Gerber method (**Gerber et al., 2000; Gayet et al., 2002**), is a reliable
242 proxy to determine the cloud phase of Arctic MPC. Large values of g (> 0.83) are typical of an ensemble of
243 particles optically dominated by liquid water droplets where ice crystals do not significantly affect the optical
244 properties. On the contrary, smaller values of g (< 0.80) are typical of a cloud optically dominated by ice
245 crystals, with negligible contribution of liquid droplets. For g ranging from 0.80 to 0.83, both liquid droplets and
246 ice crystals contribute (more or less) to the optical properties. The optical influence of the ice is the greater (i.e. g
247 decreases) as the concentration and/or the mass of ice particles becomes larger. These results are well illustrated
248 and discussed by **Febvre et al. (2012)** where PN measurements were combined with FSSP and CPI data.
249 From this, the liquid droplets properties are determined from FSSP or Nevzorov probe measurements associated
250 with g -values greater than 0.8 (i.e. indicating a “liquid-containing” phase). On the same way, the ice crystals
251 properties are determined from CPI measurements associated with g -values less than 0.83 (i.e. indicating an
252 “ice-containing” phase). Moreover, CPI images identified as spherical droplets are excluded for the
253 determination of ice crystal parameters. Table 3 summarizes the phase analysis.
254 In the following the phase discrimination is therefore considered from an optical point of view, contrary to the
255 work made by **Korolev et al. (2003)** who used the ice water fraction (IWC/TWC) to identify cloud phase.

257 **3 Small scale properties of liquid droplets and ice crystal particles within MPC**

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259 The purpose of this section is to provide a quantitative assessment of the average microphysical and optical
260 properties of the water droplets and ice crystals within the MPC cloud layers at a small spatial scale of around
261 100 m. However, since the vertical profiles presented in this study are performed from aircraft measurements
262 and correspond to several distinctive clouds, it should be emphasized that they cannot be strictly regarded as
263 vertical and instantaneous profiles (each ascending or descending flight sequence is generally made in 5-10
264 minutes), compared to remote sensing measurements which can provide snapshots of a same cloud. The results
265 are presented for the four airborne campaigns separately. We recall that liquid water droplets/ice crystals
266 partitioning is based on the asymmetry parameter values derived from the PN measurements (see section 2.4
267 above).

269 **3.1 Liquid phase properties**

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271 Figure 3 shows the average vertical profiles, expressed with the normalized altitude reference, of the extinction
272 coefficient, the number concentration, the liquid water content and the effective diameter (Figs. 3a to 3d)
273 measured by the FSSP-100 or deduced from the Nevzorov probe and with the condition that g -values from PN
274 are greater than 0.8. On this figure, each color corresponds to the mean profile of a specific airborne campaign
275 (AS04 in blue, AS07 in red, PO08 in green, SO10 in orange) while the black curves represent the average over
276 all campaigns. The averaged vertical distribution of the droplet size distribution for all the campaigns is also
277 presented on Fig. 3e.



278 The MPC properties are characterized by increasing values of LWC with altitude. LWC values range between
279 0.1 at the bottom of the liquid layer and 0.16 g.m⁻³ near cloud top. The concentration of cloud droplets remains
280 nearly constant throughout the MPC layers with mean values around 120 cm⁻³. However smaller values are
281 observed near cloud top. While AS04, AS07 and PO08 display similar vertical profiles (with the same trend and
282 magnitude), clouds observed during SO10 are characterized by larger values of droplet concentration and LWC
283 (300 cm⁻³ and 0.3 g.m⁻³). For all airborne campaigns, the extinction coefficient profile is correlated with the
284 LWC measurements indicating that water droplets mainly drive optical properties of upper MPC layers. The
285 extinction coefficient presents maximum values in the upper part of the cloud (average around 30 km⁻¹), and
286 smaller extinction in the lower part of the liquid layer (down to 15 km⁻¹). Finally, the vertical profiles of the
287 effective diameter (Fig. 3a) and PSD (Fig. 3e) are consistent with the above mentioned statement as the diameter
288 is proportional to the ratio of the LWC to the extinction coefficient. Hence, liquid layers exhibit small droplet
289 sizes, with a slight increase of the diameter from cloud base to cloud top (from 10 to 15 μm). These liquid water
290 droplets vertical profiles are in accordance with the observations presented in **McFarquhar et al. (2007)** or
291 **Lawson et al. (2001)** relative to MPC in the western arctic region.

292

293 3.2 Ice phase properties

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295 The corresponding ice crystal properties derived from the CPI measurements (and with the condition that g-
296 values from PN are less than 0.83) are displayed on Fig. 4 using the same representation as the liquid phase. In
297 the following the ice crystal concentration corresponds to particles larger than 100 μm in order to avoid
298 shattering artifacts on this parameter (see **Febvre et al., 2012**). The remaining parameters (σ_i , IWC and $D_{\text{eff},i}$)
299 take into account all CPI images, except those identified as liquid droplets. Averaged values of ice crystal
300 concentration (N_i) and extinction coefficient (σ_i) are around 3 L⁻¹ and 0.4 km⁻¹ respectively. IWC and effective
301 diameter ($D_{\text{eff},i}$) display mean values from 0.01 to 0.035 g.m⁻³ and from 80 to 130 μm respectively. The mean
302 profiles of these properties do not present a clear trend since they are not very correlated with the height, except
303 at cloud top where a decrease down to nearly zero at $Z_n=1$ is observed. This indicates that the cloud top layer is
304 almost exclusively composed of supercooled liquid droplets and eventually few small ice crystals. These results
305 corroborate the findings from the ISDAC and MPACE campaigns in Western Arctic (**McFarquhar et al., 2007,**
306 **2011**).

307 Near the sea level ($Z_n < -0.5$) no general trend can be highlighted since ice crystals properties show a large
308 variability from one campaign to another.

309 The particle shape vertical distribution was also investigated based on the CPI images in order to provide an
310 insight of the main microphysical growth processes occurring in such MPC. Figure 5 displays the particle shape
311 distributions relative to number and mass concentration with Z_n (Figs. 5a and 5b) and temperature (Figs. 5c and
312 5d). To this purpose, particle shapes have been automatically classified by the algorithm developed at LaMP (see
313 details in **Lefèvre, 2007**). However, the resulting classifications were supported by an accurate human-eye
314 visualization in order to control the results and avoid the main shortcomings linked to the automatic
315 classification. As indicated above, only particles with size greater than 100 μm were taken into account in order
316 to avoid misclassification of smaller particles and shattering artifacts.



317 Our results clearly show that rimed and irregular ice crystals are the dominant shapes within MPC (up to 80 %
318 of the total). In particular, irregular particles are encountered in all ranges of altitude and temperature. They
319 account for 30 % to 50 % of the total number concentration (and between 20 % and 30 % of mass concentration)
320 depending on the altitude or temperature of the MPC layer. Rimed particles are predominant inside the liquid
321 containing cloud layer ($0 < Z_n < 1$) with a contribution up to 40 % in number (60 % in mass) where low
322 temperatures (below -18 °C) are observed.

323 An interesting feature is the significant occurrence (around 40 %) of ice crystals with a predominant a-axis
324 growth at all cloud levels. Indeed, plates, sideplanes and stellars are the dominant habits among the regular
325 shapes regardless of the cloud layer altitude. Below the cloud ($Z_n < 0$), precipitating ice crystals are characterized
326 by a mass concentration dominated by rimed particles and by large number concentration fraction of irregular ice
327 crystals.

328 Over all, these results agree with the ones presented in **McFarquhar et al. (2007)** based on in situ observations
329 of MPC during the M-PACE experiment. They highlighted that small supercooled water droplets dominated the
330 upper layer of the cloud while larger ice particles were present in the lower part and below the cloud (including
331 irregular, aggregate or rimed-branched crystals). However, they observed a significant fraction of needles and
332 columns particles (up to 50% below the cloud) in contradiction with the present study (less than 10 %).
333 Additionally, our results are not in agreement with the observations described in **Korolev et al. (1999)** where
334 irregular shaped ice crystals accounted for up to 98 % of the total number of ice particles. This disagreement
335 could be explained by two reasons. First, **Korolev et al. (1999)** considered a wide variety of clouds sampled in
336 the Canadian and US Arctic (stratocumulus and cirrus at temperatures ranging from 0 to -45 °C and up to 7.5 km
337 of altitude) whereas the present study focuses only on MPC in the Svalbard region. Also, the disagreement may
338 stem from the different image processing used in these studies. For instance, **Korolev et al. (1999)** took into
339 account particles larger than 40 μm (while a 100 μm threshold was used in our study) and two ice crystal shapes:
340 pristine (defined as faceted ice single particles) and irregulars were considered (while 10 particles shapes were
341 accounted for to draw up our results).

342

343 3.3 Profiles of single scattering properties

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345 The PN scattering phase function measurements (hereafter PhF) provide another way to describe and
346 discriminate the cloud phase properties of MPC (as demonstrated in **Jourdan et al. (2010)**). Figure 6 displays
347 the mean PN scattering phase function (Fig. 6a) according to the MPC altitude levels as well as the vertical
348 profile of the corresponding g-values (Fig. 6b). At cloud top, the PhF is characterized by a rather high scattering
349 at forward angles (angles lower than 60°), a much lower scattering at sideward angles (60 - 130°), and enhanced
350 scattering around 140° . These features are representative of cloud layers dominated by spherical particles
351 (mainly supercooled liquid droplets), as also indicated by typical g-values greater than 0.83. As Z_n decreases, the
352 PhF becomes smoother and more featureless as a side scattering enhancement is observed and the 140° peak
353 attenuates. This behavior can be attributed to the presence of non-spherical ice crystals which increase towards
354 cloud base (as shown in Fig. 4c). This is in agreement with the continuous decrease of g-values observed from
355 cloud top (0.84) to cloud base (0.82). Thereby, the increase of ice water fraction is associated with a change of
356 the behavior of the PhF shape when going deeper into the cloud layer. Figure 6 also shows that the ice phase



357 region below the cloud layer ($-1 < Z_n < 0$) is characterized by a more flat and featureless PhF with no significant
358 influence of the altitude, associated with g -values smaller than 0.8. This feature is in agreement with the ice
359 crystal shapes observed. Below the cloud, a similar shape distribution is observed regardless of the altitude as
360 shown on Fig. 5 where mainly rimed particles (25% in number, 50% in mass), plates (15% and 10%), stellars
361 (15% and 20%) and sideplanes (5% and 10%) are present. It is thus clearly shown that the PhF is related to
362 specific microphysical properties encountered at different cloud levels. These observations corroborate that the
363 PhF can be regarded as an accurate signature of the main microphysical properties observed in the MPC layers
364 particles.

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367 3.4 Discussion on statistical vertical profiles

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369 The quantitative estimates of the separate properties of droplets and ice crystals may give an insight on the
370 microphysical processes occurring in MPC. These processes are involved in the MPC life cycle, in particular to
371 maintain the coexistence of liquid droplets and ice crystals, leading to its persistence (Morrison et al., 2012).
372 More specifically, the increase of droplet size and LWC observed in the vertical profiles is consistent with a
373 condensational growth process within the liquid phase. The slight decrease on LWC and number concentration
374 observed at cloud top may be due to turbulent mixing effect (Korolev et al., 2015). The analysis of the vertical
375 profiles of ice properties and ice crystal shapes (cf. Fig .5) shows that the presence of pristine particles, mainly
376 plates and stellars could be linked to a ice crystal growth by vapor deposition including Wegener-Bergeron-
377 Findeisen process (WBF, Bergeron, 1935; Findeisen, 1938; Wegener, 1911) when liquid droplets are present
378 (into the cloud layer). The riming process is also very effective regarding the large contribution of rimed
379 particles. The large presence of irregular particles is in agreement with the previous studies from Korolev et al.
380 (1999) and McFarquhar et al. (2007) and suggests that aggregation growth processes, or a combination of
381 several growth mechanisms are involved. This also indicates that turbulence or mixing into the cloud may have
382 an important influence by redistributing the precipitating ice crystals in the upper cloud levels.

383 Theoretic adiabatic LWC has also been determined and compared to the observed values to evaluate the
384 influence of turbulence or mixing effects on LWC as well as the efficiency of ice growth by WBF process or
385 riming processes. The profiles of the adiabatic ratio (the ratio of the adiabatic LWC to the observed LWC) are
386 displayed on Fig. 7 and exhibit subadiabatic values for all campaigns. This means that processes responsible for
387 a decrease of LWC compared to the adiabatic prediction are prevalent. In particular, this strengthens the
388 assumption that a turbulent entrainment of dry air, resulting in the evaporation of liquid droplets, may occur at
389 cloud top. Moreover, this confirms that the WBF and riming processes are efficient and responsible for the
390 decrease of LWC compared to adiabatic values.

391 Finally, the analysis of the vertical profiles of microphysical properties from a statistical point of view in the
392 present study is coherent with the findings of previous works on single case studies (Avramov et al., 2011;
393 Gayet et al., 2009; Rangno and Hobbs, 2001 among others)

394

395 However, Figs. 3 and 4 also showed that significant differences in cloud vertical profiles could appear from one
396 campaign to another. Our analysis is twofold:



397 First, the SO10 profiles display larger liquid droplet concentration, extinction coefficient and LWC values (~300
398 cm^{-3} , 60 km^{-1} and $0.3 \text{ g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ respectively) compared to AS04, AS07 and PO08. At the same time, the ice crystals
399 IWC and effective diameter ($< 0.01 \text{ g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ and $< 50 \mu\text{m}$ respectively) are very low compared to AS04, AS07 or
400 PO08. Therefore, the ice crystals are too small to efficiently consume liquid droplets by WBF or riming
401 processes (**Pruppacher and Klett, 1978**), explaining the prevalence of the liquid phase. The adiabatic ratio on
402 Fig. 7 confirms this assumption where larger values are encountered for SO10. Indeed, a large adiabatic ratio
403 denotes that processes for the depletion of liquid droplets (mainly riming or WBF) are not efficient, or relatively
404 less efficient than in the other situations.

405 Another reason explaining the large droplet concentration could be a change in the aerosol loading (larger
406 aerosol concentrations induce larger droplet concentrations). To investigate this assumption, aerosols number
407 concentrations are analyzed. Since there were no airborne *in situ* measurements of aerosols during the AS04,
408 AS07 and SO10 campaigns, aerosol measurements from Zeppelin Mountain ground station (475 m above sea
409 level, DMPS instrument, $D > 10 \text{ nm}$) are considered. On Fig. 8a, the averaged aerosol concentrations for each
410 campaign and corresponding to the time of the selected flights are displayed. During PO08 campaign, aerosol *in*
411 *situ* measurements were performed onboard the ATR-42 (CPC3010 instrument, $D > 10 \text{ nm}$). They indicate
412 aerosol concentrations close to 120 cm^{-3} for the four selected situations. Moreover, the 6 days backward
413 trajectories starting at 500 m and 1000 m altitude at the time and location of the flights have been computed (not
414 shown here) from the NOAA HySPLIT model (Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory model,
415 **Draxler and Rolph, 2003**). This gives an insight on the origin and path of the air masses sampled, and may help
416 to explain the discrepancies observed on cloud properties. Figure 8a shows a clean atmosphere with low aerosol
417 concentrations (less than 300 cm^{-3} in average) However, SO10 values present a larger variability compared to
418 AS04, AS07 or PO08. Indeed, among the 5 situations selected during SO10, two of them present high aerosol
419 concentrations (473 cm^{-3} and 393 cm^{-3}) and the 3 remaining present lower values (184 cm^{-3} , 94 cm^{-3} and 190 cm^{-3}).
420

421 For all the 18 situations, the backward trajectories indicate that the air masses came mainly from the North or
422 clean areas (sea ice or open water from Arctic Ocean and Greenland Sea). However, some air masses travel over
423 more polluted regions. This is the case for the two situations of SO10 where high aerosol concentrations are
424 observed as the air mass passed over the polluted Taimyr region in Northern Russia (Fig. 8b). So, for these
425 cases, the large aerosol concentrations are in agreement with the backward trajectories and could be responsible
426 for the larger number of droplets observed during SO10. This high number of droplets may reduce the riming
427 process (aerosols indirect effect), explaining the low values of IWC, σ_{ice} and $D_{\text{eff},i}$. Consequently, the liquid
428 droplets are not consumed by the ice crystals, and contribute to the large observed values of LWC. This is in
429 agreement with the previous studies of **Lance et al. (2011)** and **Rangno and Hobbs (2001)** who highlighted the
430 indirect effect of aerosols on MPC. They showed that “polluted” MPC present higher droplet concentrations and
431 less large ice precipitating particles than “clean” MPC.

432 However, aerosol concentration measurements have to be taken with care since they were not carried out directly
433 at the flight location. Moreover, the physical and chemical properties of aerosols as well as their CCN and IN
434 ability are needed to fully investigate the influence of aerosols on MPC properties.

435



436 Finally, the AS07 vertical profiles clearly showed higher values of ice crystals properties compared to the other
437 campaigns. Backward trajectories are characterized by air mass origins in clean regions. This is supported by
438 Mount Zeppelin measurements showing low aerosol concentrations of approximately 200 cm^{-3} (Fig. 8a).
439 Moreover, the temperatures recorded for this campaign are very cold, with for example a cloud top temperature
440 frequently below $-20 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. Thus, this environment is more favorable for the growth of ice crystals than AS04,
441 PO08 or SO10. Only one situation presents large aerosol concentration (400 cm^{-3}), but it seems to have no
442 influence on cloud droplet properties (whereas it was the case for SO10) since no difference was observed
443 between this situation and the rest of AS07 in terms of vertical profiles of ice and liquid properties. So, it
444 suggests that the influence of the temperature prevails.

445

446 Measurements of key parameters are obviously missing in the present study to accurately quantify the
447 mechanisms responsible for the formation and growth of droplets and ice crystals within MPC. In particular, the
448 measurements of ice nuclei (IN) properties are needed to make an accurate ice closure (and quantify for example
449 the secondary ice production process). A better characterization of cloud dynamics, with accurate high spatial
450 resolution measurements of vertical velocities into and around the MPC would also be necessary. Accurate
451 humidity measurements would also be needed to better identify condensational growth of ice crystals (WBF
452 process or direct condensation of water vapor on ice, as described by **Korolev (2007)**) and resolve the issue of
453 turbulence and mixing at cloud edges and into cloud. All these parameters are of primary importance to constrain
454 our assumptions on the microphysical processes. At last, coupling the present results (and further observations
455 with new parameters and improved instrumentation) with modeling is of course the best way to quantify the
456 impact of each process in the MPC lifetime. But such a work remains beyond the scope of the present study.

457

458 **4 Parameterizations of key microphysical parameters**

459

460 In section 3, we have shown that *in situ* data provide a detailed characterization of the microphysical and optical
461 properties of MPC. These measurements can also be used to develop cloud parameterizations and to evaluate
462 remote sensing retrieval products or modeling outputs. This section focuses on the key properties and hence
463 parameters which must be better understood and quantified, namely: (i) IWC (and LWC) – extinction coefficient
464 relationships, (ii) the variability of the ice and liquid water paths, (iii) the temperature dependent ice crystal
465 concentration and (iv) the liquid water fraction (ratio of LWC over total water content) as a function of the cloud
466 level or temperature.

467 The choice of these parameters stems from their importance for modeling and remote sensing, since these
468 parameters need to be more accurately characterized to improve the output of numerical simulations or to
469 validate them, and to enhance the reliability of retrieval algorithms (**Morrison and Pinto, 2006**).

470

471 **4.1 Ice and liquid water contents and integrated paths**

472

473 Linking cloud microphysical and optical properties is an important step in order to model the cloud radiative
474 properties or to constrain/develop remote sensing retrieval methods. In particular, accurate IWC-extinction
475 relationships and integrated properties such as ice and liquid water paths are needed to improve the remote



476 sensing retrieval products and cloud modelling (Heymsfield et al., 2005; Waliser et al., 2009). In this section,
477 we provide such relationships and parameters based on in situ measurements.

478

479 Fig. 9a displays the IWC and the LWC measurements as a function of the ice and droplet extinction coefficient
480 respectively in logarithmic scale with the temperature superimposed in color. The average values of IWC (and
481 LWC) over 0.2 log(σ) intervals are displayed by the black squares (with the associated standard deviation) in
482 order to determine the fitting curves (represented by the red lines). Ice crystals and liquid droplets extinction
483 coefficients are well correlated with their water content counterparts. The correlation coefficients are high (0.88
484 for ice and 0.90 for liquid) and the IWC- σ and LWC- σ relationships are almost linear since the exponent of each
485 fitting equation is close to the unity.

486 It should also be noted that adding the temperature parameter in the linear fitting did not improve the accuracy of
487 the parameterizations, contrary to the previous studies of Heymsfield et al. (2005), Hogan et al. (2006), or
488 Protat et al. (2007, 2016). However these previous studies concerned tropical and mid-latitude clouds and
489 cover a much broader range of temperatures (from 0 °C down to -65 °C, compared to only -24 °C in our study).

490

491 Integrated properties such as LWP and IWP are common modeling outputs which have large uncertainties and
492 variability according to model specifications (Waliser et al., 2009). Moreover a very few previous studies were
493 devoted to retrieve these properties in Arctic MPC. Since the flight legs selected in our study are limited to
494 ascending and descending sequences into single-layer MPC, in situ measurements can be used to determine IWP
495 and LWP according to the following equation:

496

$$497 \text{ IWP (or LWP)} = \int_{\text{ground}}^{\text{cloud top}} \text{IWC (or LWC)}(z) dz \quad (3)$$

498

499 We recall that ascending and descending flight sequences are obviously not fully vertical and need about 5-10
500 minutes to be performed (compared to the snapshots performed by remote sensing measurements). Thus, these
501 integrated properties are considered as quasi-instantaneous.

502

503 Figure 9b displays the ice (green) and liquid (blue) water paths as a function of the cloud top temperature (1 °C
504 intervals). For cloud top temperatures below -20 °C, IWP and LWP reach values around 30 g.m⁻² and 50 g.m⁻²
505 respectively. The IWP decreases when the cloud top temperature increases, to very small values at temperatures
506 above -10 °C. LWP has a different behavior with a maximum reaching 100 g.m⁻² at -13 °C. These values are
507 consistent with the main previous studies devoted to Arctic MPC from (Hobbs et al., 2001; Pinto, 1998; Pinto
508 and Curry, 2001; Shupe et al., 2006). They reported mean LWP values in the range of 20-70 g.m⁻², with some
509 maxima up to around 130 g.m⁻², and IWP mean values less than 40 g.m⁻². However, one can note that all these
510 previous studies concerned MPC in the western Arctic regions (Barrow, Alaska, Beaufort Sea).

511

512 4.2 Ice crystal concentration

513

514 One of the main challenges concerning the life cycle of MPC is the understanding and modeling of the initiation
515 and the maintenance of the ice phase. In particular, the assessment of IN concentration is of primary importance



516 and needs to be improve (Ovchinnikov et al., 2014). The life cycle of IN particles, in particular their recycling,
517 may also play an important role in the MPC lifetime (Solomon et al., 2015).
518 Given the temperatures observed in MPC, heterogeneous ice nucleation mechanisms are preferentially involved.
519 The concentration of large ice crystals ($> 100 \mu\text{m}$) in particular may be due to heterogeneous ice formation
520 mechanisms (Eidhammer et al., 2010; Prenni et al., 2009). However which process, among deposition,
521 condensation, immersion or contact freezing, is mainly responsible for the initiation of ice crystals is still under
522 debate as modeling studies fail to reproduce the observed ice number concentration (Avramov and Harrington,
523 2010; Fridlind et al., 2007) among others). This leads to large discrepancies in the modeling of MPC properties
524 such as ice/liquid partitioning and their radiative impact. Figure 10 shows the maximum number concentration of
525 ice crystals with size greater than $100 \mu\text{m}$ as a function of cloud top temperature for each MPC vertical profile
526 (colored circles). This figure highlights that ice concentration varies almost exponentially (figure is in
527 logarithmic scale) with the cloud top temperature, with however a large variability. Thus, a relationship may be
528 fitted in order to parameterize ice concentration as a function of temperature in MPC (equation included in Fig.
529 10), even though the correlation coefficient is not very high (0.43). The parameterization of Meyers et al.
530 (1992), established for contact freezing mode, is also displayed on the Fig. 10, for comparison purposes with the
531 present study. Our results are in agreement with Meyers et al. (1992) parameterization. However, to go further
532 on this topic of ice nucleation, CCN/IN and humidity measurements are necessary, as well as modeling studies,
533 which is beyond the scope of this paper.

534

535 4.3 Liquid water fraction

536

537 Finally, since properties of ice and liquid have been separately determined in section 3, the liquid fraction into
538 MPC can be accurately determined too. The liquid water fraction (hereafter LWF) is defined as the ratio of liquid
539 water content LWC over the total water content TWC ($\text{IWC} + \text{LWC}$).

540

541 Figure 11a displays the liquid fraction according to the normalized altitude. For purpose of comparisons, the
542 parameterization from McFarquhar et al. (2007) (hereafter MF07) determined from in situ measurements
543 during the Mixed-Phase Arctic Cloud Experiment (M-PACE) is displayed on Fig. 11a by the black dotted lines.
544 Our relationship deviates from that of MF07. They used in situ measurements from 53 profiles in single layer
545 MPC sampled over Alaska with temperatures ranging from $-3 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ to $-17 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. They observed similar number
546 concentration with smaller ice crystals with mean effective diameters around $50 \mu\text{m}$ compared to $100 \mu\text{m}$ in our
547 study.

548 Figure 11b shows the liquid fraction according to cloud top temperature. Each point represents the mean value of
549 the liquid fraction determined for each profile. The error bars corresponding to the standard deviation display
550 large values around 80 %, and indicate that liquid fraction variability is important. Nevertheless, Fig. 11b shows
551 that LWF is well correlated with the cloud top temperature. The decrease in LWF associated with a decrease of
552 temperature is consistent with Fig. 10 which shows that ice number concentration increases for colder
553 temperatures.

554 The liquid fraction is also determined at each cloud level as a function of temperature on Fig. 11c (with $1 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$
555 temperature interval). The same trend as in Fig. 11a is observed. The liquid water fraction increases with



556 decreasing temperature. The relationship between LWF and T is nearly linear with similar slopes for the 4
557 campaigns. However, large shifts (discrepancies) are observed from one campaign to another, especially for
558 AS07 compared to AS04, PO08 and SO10. This shift is clearly linked to the temperature profiles (see Fig. 2).
559 However, one can note that the results for the PO08 campaign are consistent with the parameterization from
560 MF07.

561 In order to compare our results to those of (Shupe et al., 2006), we also determined the liquid water fraction in
562 terms of water paths (LWP/TWP). Fig. 11d shows a rather good agreement between the two path ratios, showing
563 that IWP dominates in the coldest clouds (T_{top} around -20 °C in average). On the opposite, LWP fraction is more
564 important in the warmer MPC (T_{top} above -15 °C). However such liquid fraction determination must be taken
565 with care since it integrates the ice region below the clouds (de Boer et al., 2009).

566

567 To our knowledge very few previous studies have been undertaken to assess the liquid water fraction in MPC.
568 Most of them concerned MPC in western Arctic regions only (de Boer et al., 2009; McFarquhar et al., 2007;
569 Shupe et al., 2006). Our results show a rather good agreement with these previous works. The proposed
570 parameterizations are of great importance to accurately constrain the ice/liquid partitioning in the modeling of
571 MPC. Indeed, parameterizations used in numerical simulations can be very different from one model to another.
572 For example, the intercomparison work by (Klein et al., 2009) involves 26 numerical models. Among them,
573 some use a T-dependent partitioning scheme for the discrimination of liquid and water phases. But these
574 schemes lead to very scattered results: at a cloud top temperature of -15 °C for example, the amount of liquid
575 water varies from 12 % to 83 % according to the scheme used.

576

577 5 Coupling space remote sensing and airborne measurements

578

579 As shown in the two previous sections, in situ measurements can provide MPC properties at high resolution at
580 low altitudes and close to the ground level. Thus, these measurements are also suitable to evaluate satellite
581 remote sensing retrieval products. Indeed, it is well known that spaceborne measurements are subject to large
582 uncertainties at low altitude levels (Blanchard et al., 2014; Marchand et al., 2008). The representativity of the
583 MPC over the Svalbard region has been evaluated in our previous work (Mioche et al., 2015) by assessing the
584 frequency of occurrence of Arctic MPC from space remote sensing. The results provided a better knowledge of
585 the regional frame in which airborne or ground-based arctic MPC observations were performed. In particular, we
586 showed that low level MPC are frequent all along the year around the Svalbard region and over the Greenland
587 Sea. Nevertheless, we also pointed out that the large uncertainties of space remote sensing observations at low
588 levels near the surface (<2 km) may significantly hamper the cloud occurrence determination (up to 25 %
589 uncertainty). Accurate profiles of cloud properties at the very low altitude levels are thus needed to complement
590 and validate the remote sensing observations.

591

592 The objective of this section is to link large scale space remote sensing observations of MPC with collocated
593 small scale in situ measurements. We explore the potential of the aircraft measurements to evaluate satellite
594 retrieval products in terms of cloud detection and MPC thermodynamical phase. The retrieval algorithm
595 evaluated in the following is the DARDAR algorithm described in Ceccaldi et al. (2013) and Delanoë and



596 **Hogan (2008 and 2010)**. DARDAR uses the combination of lidar and radar measurements from CALIPSO-
597 CloudSat to detect clouds and retrieve their phase and properties.
598 We recall that four flights during the AS07 and PO08 experiments were successfully collocated with the A-Train
599 track. The DARDAR algorithm was operated (from CALIPSO/CloudSat satellites data) for the cloud/no cloud
600 detection and the retrieval of the MPC thermodynamical phase. Figure 12 illustrates the vertical profiles of
601 DARDAR cloud phase product with the cloud type classification. The flight track is superimposed in black lines.
602 Table 4 summarizes the conditions encountered during the collocated flights, i.e. date and location, time window
603 Δt (referring to the satellite overpass time) of the in situ measurements used for satellite comparisons and the
604 subsequent temperature range.

605

606 In order to evaluate the DARDAR cloud retrievals, the DARDAR cloud products along the flight track are
607 compared to the PN asymmetry parameter values. Two methods are used:

- 608 (i) DARDAR products are oversampled (DARDAR pixels are split) to match the PN resolution (around 80
609 m horizontal)
- 610 (ii) PN data are projected (and thus averaged) on the same resolution grid as DARDAR products (pixel size
611 of 1700 m and 60 m horizontal and vertical respectively, corresponding to approximately 17 in situ data
612 points)

613 These two methods are considered in order to assess the impact of sampling resolutions on the cloud detection
614 and cloud phase retrievals. This may also help to evaluate the sub-pixel representativity of the spaceborne
615 observations.

616

617 **5.1 Cloud/no cloud validation**

618

619 Cloud detection is first investigated by comparing the DARDAR cloud detection algorithm (i.e. all classes
620 including a cloud type) along the flight tracks to the in situ PN measurements considered as the cloud/no cloud
621 occurrence reference. The comparisons are summarized in Table 5 where the statistics of co-occurrences are
622 determined at the aircraft and satellite spatial resolutions (i.e. with oversampling DARDAR products or
623 averaging in situ measurements).

624 The results show a very good agreement between DARDAR and in situ measurements both for cloud and clear
625 sky cloud detection. At the in situ resolution 91 % of the clear sky events and 86 % of the cloudy pixels are in
626 accordance with the PN measurements. The effect of the spatial resolution seems to be negligible as 81 %
627 DARDAR clear sky pixels and 89% cloudy pixels are validated by in situ measurements when comparing at the
628 satellite resolution. This indicates that the satellite detection of cloudy pixels is consistent with higher spatial
629 resolution in situ cloud measurements.

630 The remaining false detections could be explained by the evolution of the cloud structure (cloud top height,
631 cloud dissipation) during the time delay between the satellite overpass and the aircraft measurements (delay up
632 to 85 minutes, cf. Table 4). The undefined DARDAR class corresponds to clouds in 60 % or 76 % of the cases.
633 This result suggests that most of the undefined DARDAR pixels (at least 60 %) correspond actually to cloudy
634 pixels. In particular, this occurs at low-levels, where DARDAR retrievals are strongly impacted by the
635 attenuation of the lidar laser beam by liquid layers as well as the contamination by radar ground echoes. This



636 assumption is confirmed by the results shown on Fig. 12 where the main part of the undefined DARDAR pixels
637 (brown) is located close to the surface.

638

639

640

5.2 Cloud phase validation

641

642 In this section, the cloud phase retrieved by the DARDAR algorithm is compared to the cloud phase derived
643 from the PN in situ measurements. Figure 13 displays the vertical profile with a normalized altitude reference of
644 the PN asymmetry parameter. The corresponding color coded classification retrieved from DARDAR (cloud
645 mask) along the flight track is superimposed on Fig. 13. The left and right panels represent the results obtained at
646 the in situ and DARDAR sampling resolutions respectively.

647 Near the cloud top ($0.5 < Z_n < 1$), in situ measurements indicate high values of the asymmetry parameter ($g >$
648 0.80) characteristics of liquid or mixed phase layers in accordance with DARDAR “mixing of ice and
649 supercooled water” class (orange) at both spatial resolutions. However, some points corresponding to DARDAR
650 “ice class” (light blue) are also present. Most of the low g -values representative of a dominating ice phase ($g <$
651 0.8) is located in the lower part of the cloud layer ($Z_n < 0.5$) and below the cloud ($Z_n < 0$). These values are
652 mostly linked to the DARDAR “ice class”, as well as the “undefined” class (brown) at levels close to the surface
653 ($Z_n < -0.5$). Figure 13 also shows that, to a lesser extent, some DARDAR cloud classes are not in accordance
654 with the in situ cloud phase discrimination. The “supercooled water” (red) and the “high ice concentration”
655 (pink) classes do not seem correlated the asymmetry parameter values. One can note that the distribution of
656 DARDAR cloud classes over the g -values from PN gives similar results whatever the resolution used
657 (DARDAR or in situ).

658 Figs. 12 and 13 show that DARDAR correctly retrieves the MPC typical vertical structure from a qualitative
659 point of view, i.e. mainly supercooled water (red) or a mixed ice and supercooled water particles (orange) at
660 cloud top, and ice below (light blue).

661

662 A more quantitative and statistical approach is provided on Fig. 14 where the frequencies of occurrence of g are
663 displayed for the three main phase classes derived from DARDAR cloud type classification. In this figure, only
664 DARDAR cloudy pixels are selected and the four “ice” classes are gathered in a new “ice” class (blue). The
665 histograms are determined at the in situ resolution (left panel) and at DARDAR resolution (right panel). We
666 recall that g -values of 0.80 and 0.83 can be chosen to define the boundaries of the ice, mixed and liquid phases
667 (Jourdan et al., 2010).

668 First, one can note that the shape of the frequency distribution is very similar for both spatial resolutions. The
669 histograms of g -values corresponding to the mixing of ice and supercooled water DARDAR phase (orange) are
670 centered on g -values of 0.85 . The “ice” DARDAR class (blue) distribution exhibits two modes: one (main)
671 around 0.74 , and one around 0.84 . Finally, the distribution of the supercooled water class is rather flat and
672 difficult to interpret given the few number of occurrences. Table 6 summaries the statistics of DARDAR cloud
673 phase validation, based on these histograms. It shows that 61% observations corresponding to DARDAR “ice”
674 class are validated by PN data at the in situ resolution (and 60% at DARDAR resolution). The remaining
675 DARDAR “ice” pixels are distributed among the “in situ” mixed ($15\% - 20\%$) and liquid ($24\% - 20\%$) phases.



676 Nearly 90 % of the “mixing of ice and supercooled water” DARDAR class pixels (hereafter called mixing class)
677 are associated with a liquid phase according to PN ($g > 0.83$). When considering the statistics at DARDAR
678 resolution this value drops to 78 %. The other pixels are distributed more or less equally among the “in situ” ice
679 and mixed phase (6 % and 5 % at the in situ resolution and 14 % and 8 % at the satellite resolution). Finally, 67
680 % (or 40 % at DARDAR resolution) of the DARDAR pixels identified as “supercooled water only” are validated
681 by the in situ measurements while 24 % (40 %) correspond to an “in situ” mixed phase. The remaining 9 % (20
682 %) corresponds to an ice phase. However, the “supercooled water only” statistics are not very representative
683 since the number of pixels is limited as it corresponds to less than 2 % of the DARDAR cloud pixels along the
684 flight track. (only 91 and 6 points at in situ and spatial resolutions respectively). Moreover, “supercooled water
685 only” is flagged when the radar signal is not detected (Ceccaldi et al., 2013).

686

687 In general, the misclassifications of DARDAR pixels could be attributed to differences in the temporal and
688 spatial resolution between in situ and satellite measurements. Indeed, the in situ data provide an accurate
689 description of the cloud thermodynamic phase at high spatial distribution which can take into account the small
690 scale heterogeneities of the liquid and ice occurrences. On the contrary, due to its lower spatial resolution (one
691 order of magnitude lower than aircraft measurements), satellite products provide more likely an averaged cloud
692 phase assessment. Indeed, DARDAR retrieval algorithm uses the horizontal resolution of CloudSat (1.7 km) and
693 the vertical resolution of CALIOP (60 m). Therefore, it is likely that a DARDAR pixel is dominated by ice and
694 thus identified as ice, but is in reality composed of several small sequences or pockets of ice and supercooled
695 liquid droplets. This may explain most of the misclassifications of the ice DARDAR pixels in MPC. On the other
696 side, in mixed cloud layers optically dominated by supercooled water droplets, the PN signal is representative of
697 the liquid phase whereas the LIDAR/RADAR synergy can detect the presence of a few ice crystals. This could
698 also explain the mismatch of the in situ and satellite mixed phase class.

699 The time synchronization issue may also be responsible for the misclassification of 24 % of the DARDAR pixels
700 of the “ice” class that should belong to the “liquid phase” according to the PN measurements ($g > 0.83$). Indeed,
701 the cloud top and base altitudes as well as the cloud layer thickness may vary during the satellite overpass time
702 and the aircraft sampling time. Physical assumptions used in DARDAR algorithm can also contribute to the
703 discrepancies. For instance, the algorithm assumes that the supercooled liquid layer thickness has to be less or
704 equal to 300 m (Delanoë and Hogan, 2010). However, the averaged liquid layer thickness from all MPC
705 sampled for the present study is 444 ± 211 m (see Table 2 in section 2.3.). This could contribute to the
706 disagreement between DARDAR ice phase and PN classification as most of the misclassified pixels are located
707 in the lower part of liquid layer (Fig. 13). Additionally, it is likely that CALIOP laser beam is fully attenuated by
708 a 300 m liquid layer thickness which translates into the inability of DARDAR to detect the liquid phase beyond
709 this thickness.

710

711 In order to explain the 40 % of misclassifications of DARDAR ice class, we also evaluated separately the four
712 DARDAR ice sub-classes (“ice only”, “spherical ice”, and “high IWC”, see Table 7). The “ice only” class
713 represents the main part of the ice classes (around 80 % of the total number of DARDAR ice pixels). 63 % of the
714 pixels in this class are validated by the PN data at in situ resolution (60 % at the satellite resolution). The
715 remaining 37 % (40 %) correspond to a mixed phase (16 % - 21 %) or a liquid phase (21 % - 20 %). 47 % to 63



716 % of the spherical ice class pixels correspond to an in situ ice phase. The remaining 53 % or 37 % misclassified
717 pixels seem to belong to the liquid phase (43 % - 30 %), and only 10 % (7 %) to the mixed phase. It may stem
718 from the strong attenuation of the lidar laser beam by the cloud liquid top, leading to a partial detection of the
719 liquid layer by DARDAR. This feature is well highlighted on Fig. 12, where the spherical ice DARDAR pixels
720 (dark blue) are almost always located in the vicinity of the “mixing of ice and supercooled water” pixels (orange)
721 in the cloud layer.

722 The remaining ice sub-class namely the “high ice concentration” is not in accordance with the dynamical
723 processes responsible for the formation or maintenance of boundary level mixed phase clouds. This class is more
724 likely to be involved in strongly convective clouds. These misclassifications indicate that the DARDAR
725 detection scheme could be improved in presence of low-level clouds. However, we should keep in mind that the
726 number of these DARDAR pixels is very low and hence not necessarily representative as these two classes
727 represent only 3 % of the total DARDAR ice pixels along flight tracks).

728

729 At last, it is quite remarkable that the results are very similar for the in situ and the satellite resolutions, both in
730 terms of cloud/no cloud detection and for the cloud phase product. The results highlight a very good
731 representativeness of the spatial observations concerning the cloud detection. The cloud phase is also well
732 retrieved, but some issues have been identified regarding the retrieval of the supercooled water phase, which is
733 mostly confounded with the mixing of ice and supercooled water class. The retrieval of the ice phase also
734 presents some misclassifications as some part of the retrieved ice pixels is actually liquid water. These issues
735 may be mainly attributed to the difference in resolution between spatial and in situ observations with a better
736 ability to detect the heterogeneities (sequences of liquid and ice) of mixed phase at small scale (in situ) compared
737 to large scale (spatial resolution). These results highlight the importance of a characterization at high resolution
738 of the cloud thermodynamical phase.

739

740 Finally, we recall that the uncertainty on the asymmetry parameter is 4% (Gayet et al., 2002a), and the g-values
741 thresholds used for the cloud phase discrimination remain empirical. In order to provide a confidence interval of
742 the validation scores presented in Tables 5, 6 and 7, the validation statistics have been recomputed using g-
743 values thresholds with +/- 0.01 variability (between 0.79 and 0.81 for the discrimination between ice and mixed
744 phases, and between 0.82 and 0.84 for the discrimination between mixed and liquid phases). All the validation
745 scores resulting from these new g-values thresholds have been compared to those in Table 6 and the subsequent
746 mean variation is estimated to be +/- 10 %.

747

748

749 **6 Conclusions and outlook**

750

751 In this study, a characterization of Arctic boundary-layer mixed phase clouds microphysical properties has been
752 performed. In situ data from 4 airborne campaigns over the Greenland Sea and the Svalbard region are compiled
753 and analyzed. The data set represents in total 18 flights and 71 vertical profiles in MPC. Cloud phase
754 discrimination is achieved and vertical profiles of number, size, mass and shapes of ice crystals and liquid
755 droplets within MPC are determined. Furthermore, 4 flights were collocated with CALIPSO and CloudSat



756 satellites tracks. The corresponding spaceborne and in situ collocated data are used to evaluate satellite cloud
757 phase retrieval product (DARDAR cloud type) and to fill the gap of spaceborne remote sensing measurement
758 near the surface.

759

760 The main conclusions of the present work are summarized as follow:

761

762 i) More than 350 minutes of cloud in situ observations have been merged to characterize the
763 arctic MPC microphysical and optical properties. Vertical profiles of liquid droplets and ice
764 crystals properties have been determined separately to allow for an accurate description at high
765 spatial resolution of MPC near the ground. Liquid phase is mainly present in the upper part of
766 the MPC with high concentration of small droplets (120 cm^{-3} , $15 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$), and averaged LWC
767 around $0.2 \text{ g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$. Ice crystals are present everywhere in the MPC, but mainly in the lower part,
768 and precipitate down to the surface. The morphology study of ice crystals images showed that
769 irregular and rimed particles prevail over stellars and plates habits.

770

771 ii) The vertical profiles of the microphysical properties and the shape distribution can also be
772 used to give an insight of the microphysical processes occurring in MPC. It is likely that
773 adiabatic lifting (condensation) is the main process for liquid droplets initiation and growth,
774 and that evaporation at cloud top due to entrainment of dry air seems to occur. In the cloud
775 layer, where liquid droplets and ice crystals coexist, Wegener-Bergeron-Findeisen and riming
776 processes are the main mechanisms involved in the ice crystal growth. The large occurrence of
777 irregular particles highlights the role of aggregation and turbulence in the MPC life cycle.

778

779 iii) The analysis of the scattering phase function showed a very high correlation between optical
780 properties and liquid to ice fraction within the MPC layers.

781

782 iv) The differences observed in the vertical profiles of MPC properties from one campaign to
783 another highlighted that the large number of liquid droplets observed on two situations during
784 SO10 is in part linked to the source and transport of aerosols properties. For this campaign, the
785 large values of droplet number and LWC are associated with very low values of ice crystal size
786 and IWC. On the opposite, the very cold and clean situations of AS07 exhibit large values of
787 ice properties. These results underline the importance of studying aerosols measurements
788 (sources, transport, physical and chemical properties) in connection with the MPC properties
789 to study the cloud-aerosol interactions and improve the understanding of ice and liquid
790 formation processes.

791

792 v) Several parameterizations which may be relevant for remote sensing or modeling are proposed.
793 It concerns the determination of IWC (and LWC) – extinction relationships, ice and liquid
794 integrated water paths, the ice concentration and liquid water fraction. Comparisons with the
795 few previous works available in the literature showed a good agreement. Obviously, the



796 application range of the established relationships is only for arctic MPC and temperature range
797 between 0 and -23 °C.

798
799 vi) The analysis of collocated in situ and spaceborne observations was considered in order to link
800 large scale to small scale observations. CALIOP/CloudSat observations processed with the
801 DARDAR algorithm lead to a good retrieval of the MPC structure i.e. supercooled liquid at
802 cloud top and ice below. Globally, more than 80 % of the clear sky pixels and the cloudy
803 pixels retrieved by DARDAR are validated by in situ observations. The analysis pointed out
804 that a large part of cloudy pixels (around 70 %) near the surface level cannot be detected. This
805 corroborates the well-known difficulties encountered by space remote sensing near the surface
806 (lidar laser beam attenuation or radar ground echoes) and already highlighted by previous
807 studies. These results highlight the need for satellite observations to be completed by
808 observations near the surface and at a more detailed scale. In situ measurements are thus
809 excellent candidate to fill the gap of satellite observations.

810
811 vii) The evaluation of DARDAR cloud phase product revealed that the low spatial resolution of
812 satellite product (1.7 km horizontal) leads to large misclassifications. For example, only 61 %
813 of ice DARDAR pixels are validated, and the most part of mixing of ice and supercooled water
814 DARDAR class is actually only supercooled water. Time and space synchronization may also
815 play a role in these misclassifications, but in a lesser extent. This evaluation work highlighted
816 the need of accurate MPC properties and profiles near ground. Moreover, this work allowed
817 the evaluation of the sub-pixel variability of the spatial observations.

818
819 This study provided for the first time a statistical analysis of arctic MPC in situ data from 4 airborne campaigns
820 located in the Svalbard/Greenland sea region.

821 An accurate characterization of liquid droplets and ice crystals properties separately has been made. However,
822 accurate measurement of humidity and aerosol (CCN and IN) remains an important lack in order to go deeper in
823 the analysis of microphysical processes to realize ice and liquid closure and better understand life cycle and
824 persistence of such particular clouds. Modeling will also help in this task. Finally, by comparison with collocated
825 spaceborne observations, this study allowed to establish a link between large and small scale observations. This
826 methodology could be applied to airborne remote sensing observations such the RALI system and for the future
827 space observations devoted to cloud studies, such the EarthCare mission, planned for 2019.

828
829

830 **Appendix A: Data processing of in situ measurements**

831

832 The methodology developed by **Lawson and Baker (2006)** to derive the Ice Water Content (IWC) from 2D
833 particle images recorded by the CPI instruments is applied (Eq. (A1) below).

$$834 \quad IWC = \frac{0.135 \sum_i X_i^{0.793}}{V} \quad (A1)$$



835 where V is the sample volume and X_i is the mass parameter for each crystal image defined by Lawson and Baker
836 (2006) as follow:

$$837 \quad X_i = \frac{A_i \times W_i \times 2 \times (L_i + W_i)}{P_i} \quad (\text{A2})$$

838 A_i , W_i , L_i and P_i are the area, width, length and perimeter of the crystal image i .
839

840 The extinction coefficient (σ) and the effective diameter (D_{eff}) are determined from CPI and FSSP measurements
841 as follow:

$$842 \quad \sigma_{\text{ice (or liquid)}} = 2 \times \frac{\sum_i A_i}{V} \quad (\text{A3})$$

$$843 \quad D_{\text{eff, ice (or liquid)}} = C \times \frac{IWC \text{ (or LWC)}}{\sigma_{\text{ice (or liquid)}}} \quad (\text{A4})$$

844 with constant $C = 3000 \text{ mm}^3 \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ according to **Gayet et al. (2002b)**.

845 The LWC derived from the Nevzorov probe measurements is calculated according to **Korolev et al. (1998)** :

846

$$847 \quad LWC_{\text{Nevzorov}} = \frac{P_{LWC} - \left(\frac{P_{TWC} \times \epsilon_{LWC,i} \times S_{LWC}}{\epsilon_{TWC,i} \times S_{TWC}} \right)}{L_v \times S_{LWC} \times U \times \left(\epsilon_{LWC,i} - \frac{\epsilon_{LWC,i} \times \epsilon_{TWC,i}}{\epsilon_{TWC,i}} \right)} \quad (\text{A5})$$

848

849 where P_{LWC} and P_{TWC} are the power supplied to the LWC and TWC sensors to maintain the constant temperature
850 of the wire.

851 S_{LWC} and S_{TWC} are the surface of the sensors, L_v is the latent heat of vaporization and U is the true airspeed.

852 The epsilon terms refer to the collection efficiencies of liquid droplets (l index) or ice crystals (i index) on the
853 LWC and TWC sensors. These efficiencies are set as follow:

854 $\epsilon_{LWC,i} = 0.76$: see **Schwarzenboeck et al. (2009)**;

855 $\epsilon_{LWC,l} = 0.11$: following **Korolev et al. (1998)**;

856 $\epsilon_{TWC,l} = 1$: according to **Korolev et al. (1998)** for droplets with size around $25 \mu\text{m}$;

857 $\epsilon_{TWC,i} = 1$: following **Schwarzenboeck et al. (2009)**. It should be noticed that taking $\epsilon_{TWC,i} = 3$ (as
858 assumed in **Korolev et al., 2013**) instead of 1 induces an increase of LWC by 10 % only.

859 The uncertainties associated to the microphysical and optical properties derived from FSSP-100, PN, Nevzorov
860 and CPI measurements are detailed in **Baumgardner and Spowart (1990)**, **Gayet et al. (2002b)**, **Korolev et al.**
861 **(1998)** and **Mioche (2010)** respectively, and are summarized in Table A1.

862 **Appendix B: Effects of shattering of ice crystals on measurements**



863 Techniques and methods exist now to avoid or estimate this shattering effect, such as new-designed inlets or
864 measurements of the particles inter-arrival time (Field et al., 2003), but none of these were available for this
865 study. However in order to assess the accuracy of the present dataset and highlight a possible impact of
866 shattering effect, a brief intercomparison of the extinction coefficient from the three data sets was conducted.
867 Indeed, the extinction coefficient is the only parameter which can be derived by the measurements of the three
868 probes. Moreover, it is not determined with the same method, since it is calculated from the PSD for the CPI and
869 the FSSP, and from the scattering phase function for the PN. One more important point is that CPI, FSSP and PN
870 have all different size inlets (23 mm, 40 mm and 10 mm diameter respectively). So, from these information, we
871 could assume that, if shattering effect is present on ice particles, its magnitude (i.e. the number of smaller new
872 artifact particles) would differ from one instrument to another. Thus, the comparison of the extinction coefficient
873 from CPI, FSSP and PN measurements would highlight such discrepancies.

874 Figure B1 displays the comparison of the extinction coefficient derived from the PN and from the combination
875 of the CPI and FSSP for all the in situ data available for this study. Note that the combination of CPI and FSSP
876 data covers the same size range of the PN. Figure B1 clearly shows that the extinction coefficient measurements
877 derived from the combination of the CPI and FSSP and the PN are very well correlated (with a coefficient of
878 0.87) and no significant bias is observed (regression coefficient of 0.98). Thus, since the design of the
879 instruments and data processing are different for each dataset, these results highlight that the shattering effect is
880 probably smaller than the measurements uncertainties (25 %, 35 % and 55 % for PN, FSSP and CPI respectively,
881 see Table A1).

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892

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1152 **Table 1: Summary of in situ observations concerning Arctic single layer MPC. In brackets: number of flights**
1153 **collocated with CALIPSO/CLOUDSAT tracks.**
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Field experiment	Location [latitude range]	Date	Number of flights in MPC	Number of profiles in MPC	Duration of data (minutes)
ASTAR 2004	Spitzbergen (Norway) [76-79]° N	May 2004	4	7	30
ASTAR 2007	Spitzbergen (Norway) [76-79]° N	April 2007	5 (2)	34	173
POLARCAT 2008	Kiruna (Sweden) [68-73]° N	April 2008	4 (2)	10	45
SORPIC 2010	Spitzbergen (Norway) [75-78]° N	May 2010	5	20	109
TOTAL			18 (4)	71	357

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1157 **Table 2: Base and top altitudes and layer thickness statistics from the 71 profiles sampled in MPC.**

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	Mean	Standard dev.	Median	25th percentile	75th percentile	Max.	Min.
Z_{top} (m)	1200	310	1200	1000	1370	2120	525
Z_{base} (m)	756	283	700	510	850	1700	400
Layer thickness (m)	444	211	420	270	600	950	100

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1161 **Table 3: Summary of the method for the assessment of the cloud thermodynamical phase and liquid droplet and ice**
 1162 **crystal properties from the combination of PN, CPI, FSSP and Nevzorov probes.**
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Instrument [measurement range]	PN g-values [corresponding cloud phase]		
	$g < 0,80$	$0,80 < g < 0,83$	$g > 0,83$
	[ice]	[mixed]	[liquid]
FSSP [15 to 45 μm]	NO	YES	YES
Nevzorov probe [LWC > 0.003-0.005 g.m-3]	NO	YES	YES
CPI [15 μm to 2.3 mm]	YES	YES	NO

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1167 **Table 4: Date, location, time difference between aircraft sampling and satellite overpass (Δt) and temperature range**
1168 **for the 4 flights collocated with CALIPSO/CLOUDSAT satellite tracks.**
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Date	Location	Δt	Temperature range (°C)
		(minutes referring to satellite overpass)	
7 april 2007	West of Svalbard, over ocean	- 10 to +15 minutes	-21 to -11°C
9 april 2007	West of Svalbard, over ocean	-25 to +40 minutes	-22 to -11 °C
1rst april 2008	North of Sweden, over ocean	-5 to +45 minutes	-20 to -3°C
10 april 2008	North of Sweden, over ocean	+20 to +85 minutes	-21 to -3°C

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1172 **Table 5: Statistics of DARDAR cloud detection validation.**

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Resolution	DARDAR class	PN (reference)		Total number of points
		No cloud	Cloud	
In situ	DARDAR clear sky	91 %	9 %	4840
	DARDAR cloud	14 %	86 %	5245
	DARDAR undefined	40 %	60 %	593
Satellite	DARDAR clear sky	81 %	19 %	248
	DARDAR cloud	11 %	89 %	312
	DARDAR undefined	24 %	76 %	37

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1176 **Table 6: Statistics of DARDAR cloud phase validation.**
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Resolution	DARDAR retrieval	phase	PN data (reference)			Total number of points
			Ice phase ($0.75 < g < 0.80$)	Mixed phase ($0.80 < g < 0.83$)	Liquid phase ($g > 0.83$)	
In situ	Ice		61 %	15 %	24 %	3151
	Mixing of ice and supercooled water		6 %	5 %	89 %	1289
	Supercooled water only		9 %	24 %	67 %	70
Satellite	Ice		60 %	20 %	20 %	186
	Mixing of ice and supercooled water		14 %	8 %	78 %	87
	Supercooled water only		20 %	40 %	40 %	5

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1180 **Table 7: Statistics of DARDAR ice sub-classes validation.**

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Resolution	DARDAR ice sub-classes retrieval	PN data (reference)			Number of points
		Ice phase ($0.75 < g < 0.80$)	Mixed phase ($0.80 < g < 0.83$)	Liquid phase ($g > 0.83$)	
In situ	Ice only	63 %	16 %	21 %	2753
	Spherical ice	47 %	10 %	43 %	297
	High IWC	48 %	18 %	34 %	101
Satellite	Ice only	60 %	21 %	20 %	147
	Spherical ice	63 %	7 %	30 %	27
	High IWC	58 %	17 %	25 %	12

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1184 **Table A1: Uncertainties on cloud properties derived from CPI, FSSP, PN and Nevzorov measurements.**

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Probe [Measurements range]	Number concentration (N)	Extinction coefficient (σ)	Effective diameter (D_{eff})	Water contents (IWC or LWC)	Asymmetry parameter (g)
CPI [15 μm to 2.3 mm]	50 %	55 %	80 %	60 %	-
FSSP-100 [3 to 45 μm]	10 %	35 %	4 %	20 %	-
PN [< 800 μm]	-	25 %	-	-	4 %
Nevzorov [LWC > 0.003-0.005 $\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$]	-	-	-	20%	-

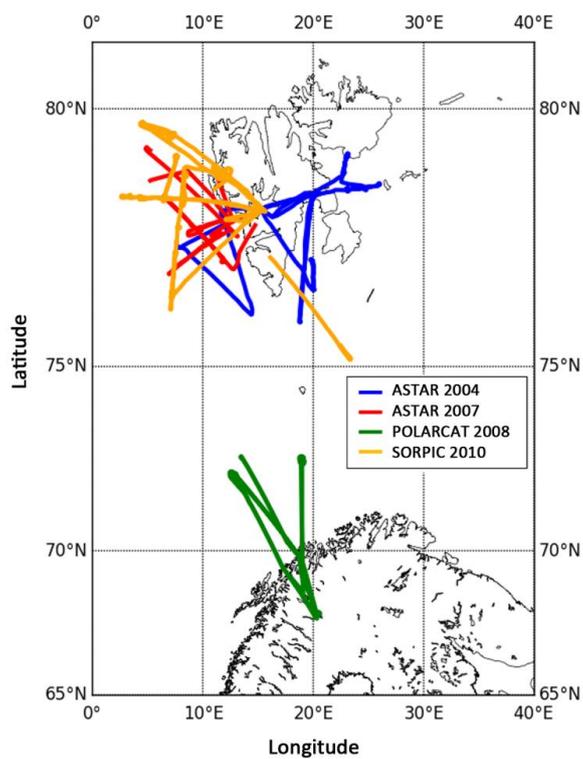
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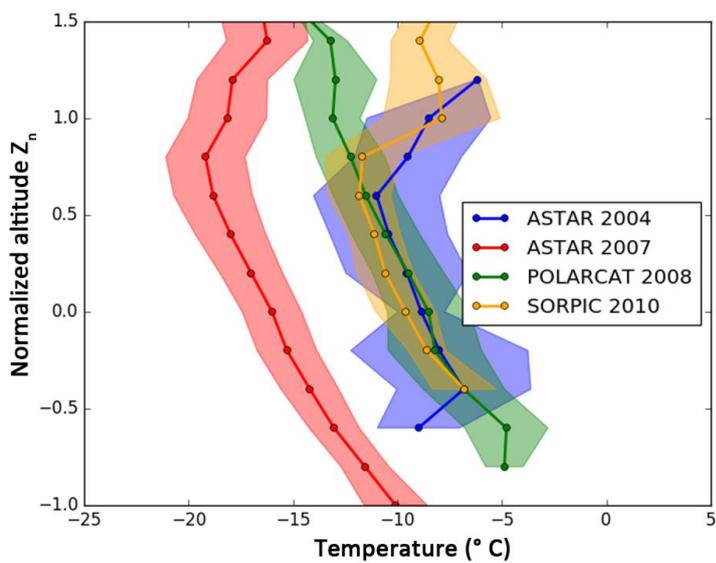


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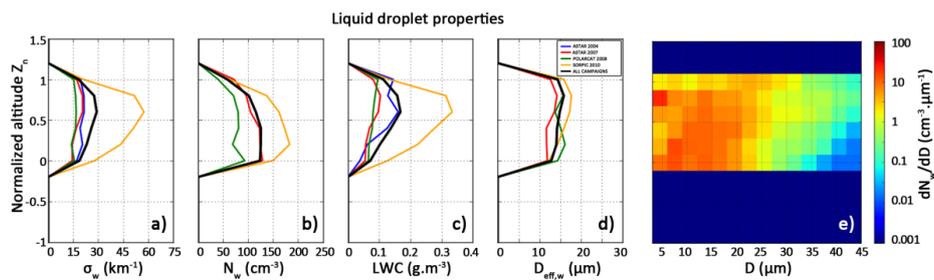
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Figure 1: Flight trajectories related to MPC measurements during the ASTAR, POLARCAT and SORPIC campaigns.



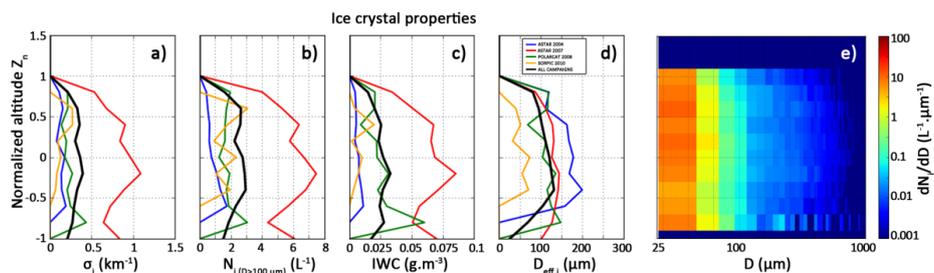
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Figure 2: Vertical profiles (normalized altitude) of the mean temperature for each experiment. Shaded spreads represent the standard deviation.



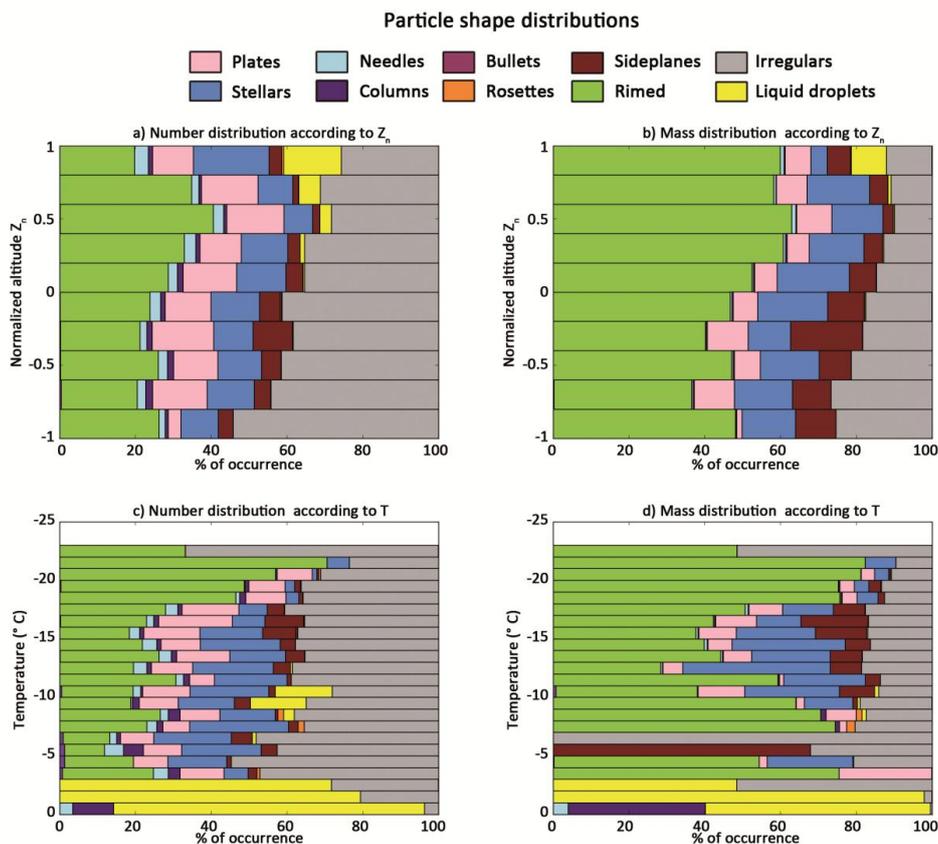
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Figure 3: Vertical profiles (expressed in normalized altitude) of liquid droplets properties from FSSP measurements (3-45 μm size range): a) extinction coefficient, b) droplet concentration, c) LWC, d) effective diameter and e) averaged droplet size distribution for all the campaigns.



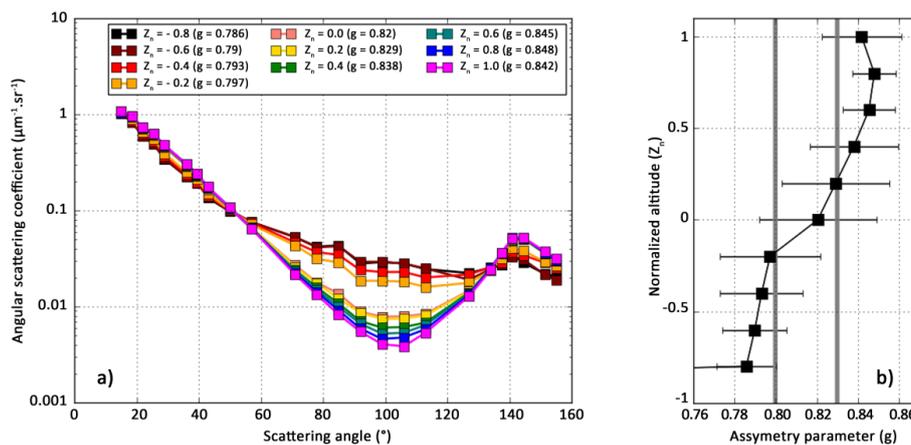
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Figure 4: Vertical profiles (expressed in normalized altitudes) of ice crystal properties from CPI measurements (15 μm - 2.3 mm size range): a) extinction coefficient, b) ice crystal concentration, c) IWC, d) effective diameter and e) averaged particle size distribution for all the campaigns.



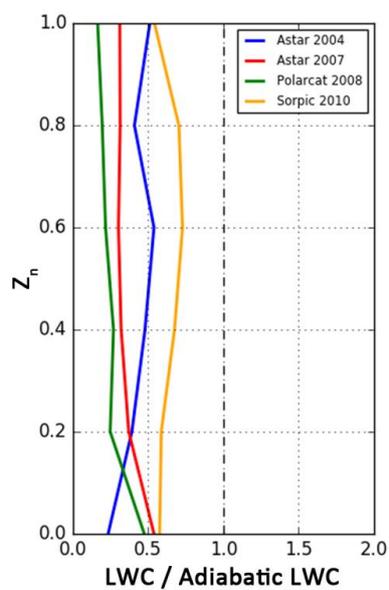
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Figure 5: Vertical profiles of particle shapes (from CPI measurements and for particles larger than 100 μm) according to normalized altitude (top panels) and temperature (bottom panels). Distributions are displayed according to particle number (left panels) and mass (right panels).



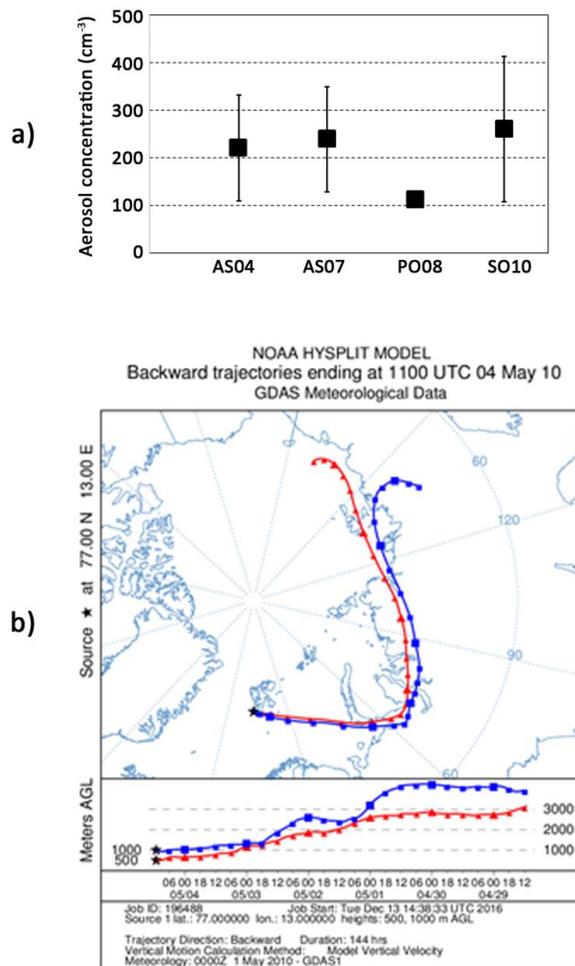
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Figure 6: a): Normalized scattering phase function according to the normalized altitude from Polar Nephelometer measurements (few μm to around $800 \mu\text{m}$ size range), averaged over all the campaigns. g -values indicate the cloud phase: $g < 0.80$: ice, $0.80 < g < 0.83$: mixed and $g > 0.83$: liquid. b): Mean vertical profile of asymmetry parameter (for all the campaigns). The grey bars indicate the threshold g -values for the assessment of ice, mixed and liquid cloud phases.



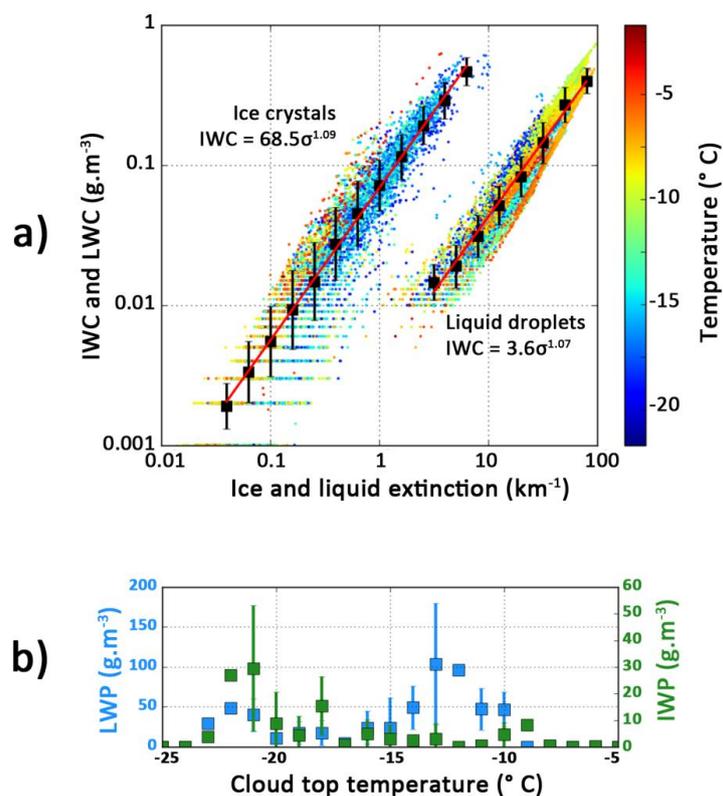
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Figure 7: Vertical profiles of the ratio of measured LWC over theoretical adiabatic LWC.



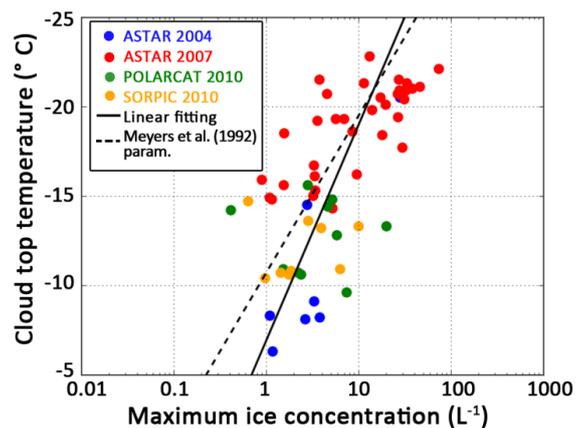
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Figure 8: a) Averaged aerosol number concentrations measured at flight time at the Zeppelin Mountain station for AS04, AS07 and SO10 flights, and onboard the ATR-42 aircraft for PO08. Errors bars displays the standard deviations; b) Backward trajectory from Hysplit model for the 4 may situation (SO10).



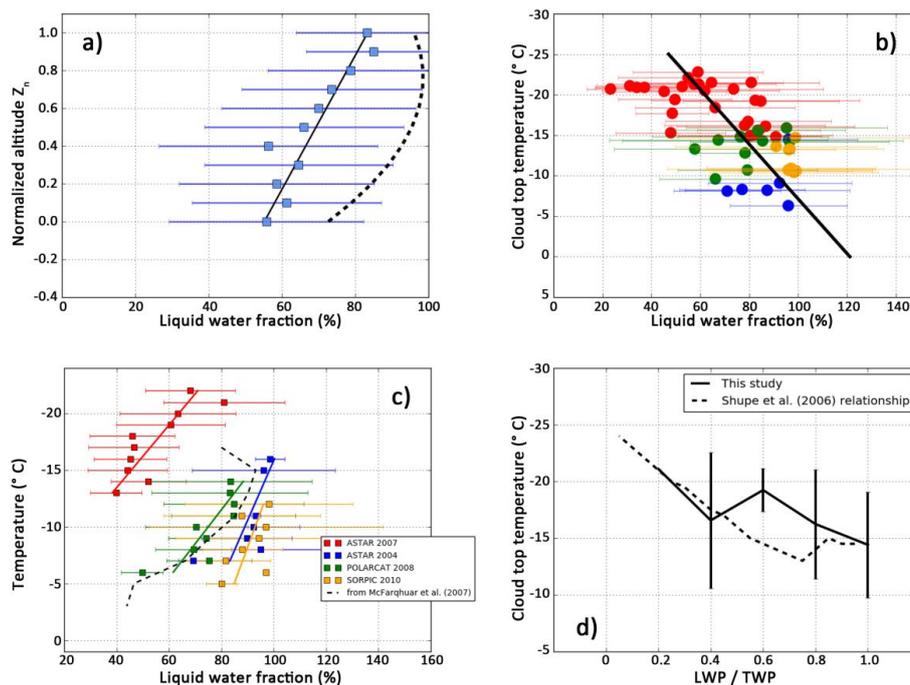
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Figure 9: a) IWC and LWC as a function of extinction coefficient. Color scale is the temperature, black squares represent the values averaged over 0.2 log(σ) intervals and the red lines represent the fittings; and b) ice (green) and liquid (blue) water paths according to the cloud top temperature.



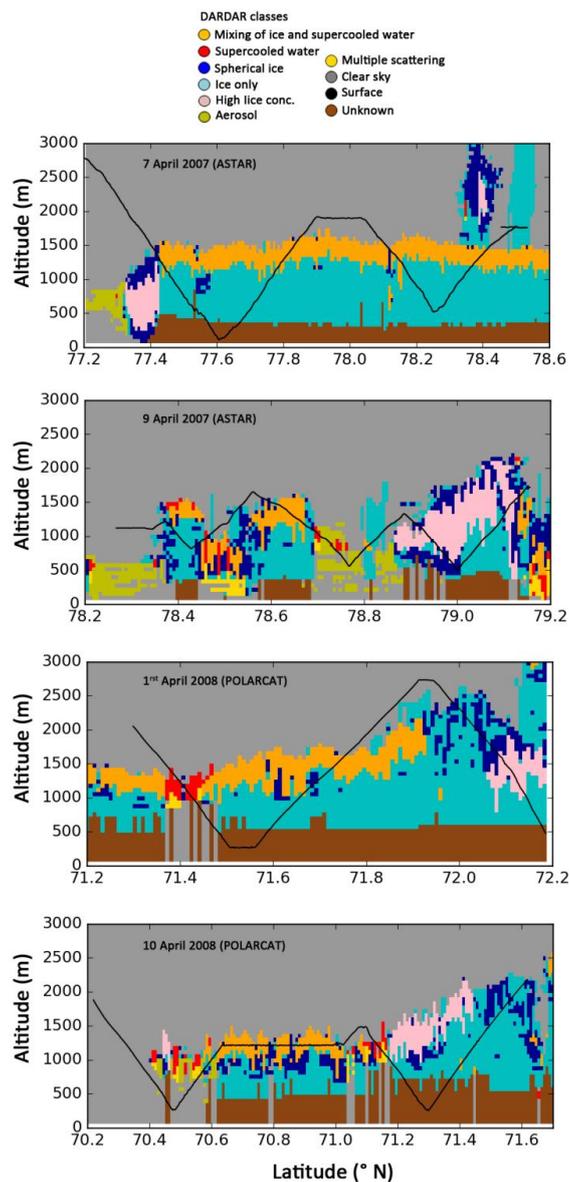
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Figure 10: Maximum ice crystal concentration as a function of cloud top temperature. The colored circles represent the values for each profile (with fitting in dashed line). The Meyers et al. (1992) parameterization is also displayed (dotted line).



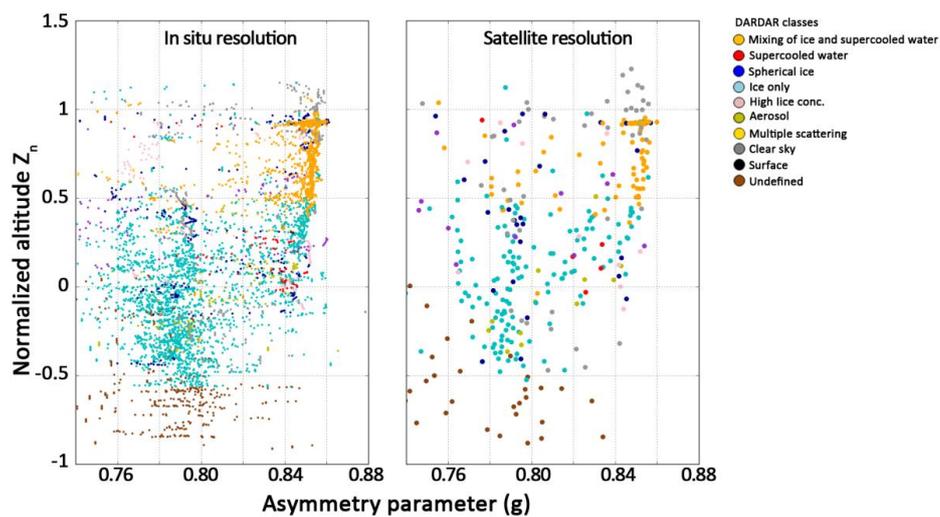
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Figure 11: Liquid water fraction according to Z_n (a), cloud top temperature (b) and temperature (c). The dotted dashed line on panels a) and c) is the parameterization from McFarquhar et al. (2007) and the solid lines on panels a), b) and c) are the fittings for the present study. d) Ratio of LWP over TWP according to cloud top temperature. The solid line refers to the present study and the dotted lines refers to Shupe et al. (2006) work.



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Figure 12: Vertical profiles of the DARDAR cloud phase for the four satellite validation situations encountered during ASTAR 2007 (7 and 9 April 2007) and POLARCAT 2008 (1st and 10 April 2008). The black lines show the aircraft flight track.



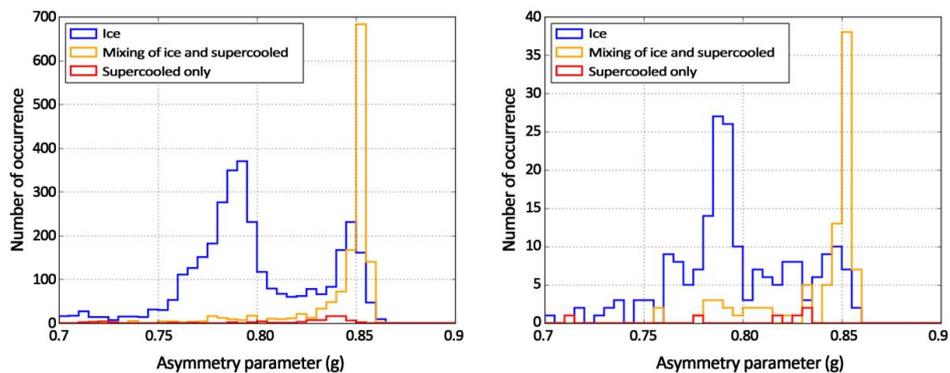
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1275 Figure 13: Vertical profiles of the asymmetry parameter from PN, with the corresponding DARDAR cloud types
1276 superimposed in color. Left panel shows the results at the in situ resolution (1Hz ~100m horizontal), right panel at the
1277 DARDAR resolution (~1.7km).

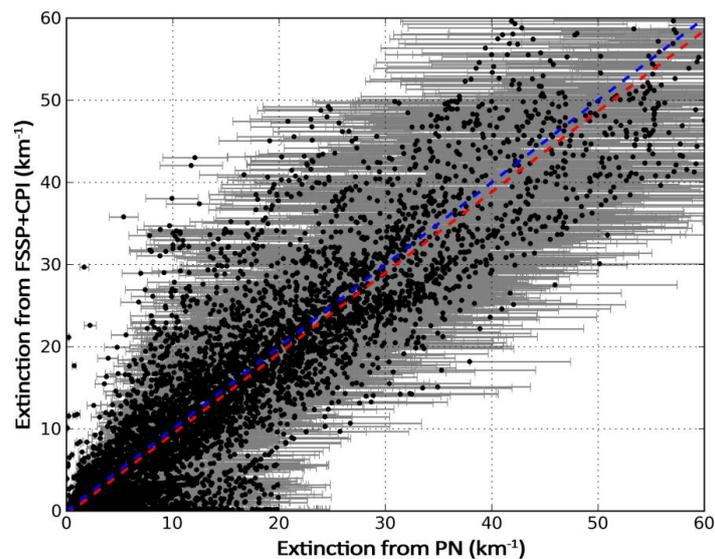
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Figure 14: Frequencies of occurrence of the asymmetry parameter from PN according to the DARDAR cloud phase retrieval in color. Left panel shows the results at the in situ resolution (1Hz ~100m horizontal), right panel at the DARDAR resolution on the right panel (~1.7km).



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1289 **Figure B1:** Comparison of extinction from PN and CPI+FSSP measurements. Grey bars represent the 25 %
1290 uncertainties on the PN extinction. The red dotted line is the linear fitting (slope of 0.98, $R^2 = 0.87$) and the blue dotted
1291 line is the 1:1 line.