

The Characteristics of Cloud Macro Parameters Caused by Seeder-Feeder Process inside Clouds Measured by Millimeter-wave Cloud Radar in Xi'an, China

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Abstract

The seeding effect of upper clouds on lower clouds affects the evolution of clouds, especially the seeding from upper ice clouds on lower stratiform clouds or convective clouds, which can stimulate the precipitation of lower clouds and even produce extreme precipitation. Because when seeders of seeding cloud enter the feeding cloud, the interaction between cloud particles results in the change of macro and micro parameters of the feeding cloud. Based on the observation data of the ground-based Ka-band millimeter-wave cloud radar (MMCR) and microwave radiometer (MWR) in spring and autumn from 2021 to 2022, the **seeder-feeder** phenomenon among double-layer clouds in Xi'an, China, was studied. The study on 11 cases of **seeder-feeder** processes shows that the processes can be divided into three categories by defining the height difference (HD) between the seeding cloud base and the feeding cloud top, and the effective seeding depth (ESD). Through the analysis on the reflectivity factor and the radial velocity of cloud particles detected by MMCR and on the retrieved cloud dynamics parameters (vertical velocity of airflow and **terminal velocity** of cloud particles), it is shown that the reflectivity factor in the cloud is significantly enhanced during the seeder-feeder period for the three types of processes. **But the magnitudes of the enhancements among the three seeder-feeder processes are different.** The results also showed the limited depth as seeders entering the top of the feeding cloud. **The lower the height and thinner the thickness of the HD, the lower the height and thicker the thickness of ESD; On the contrary, the higher the height and the thicker the thickness of the HD, the higher the height and the thinner the thickness of the ESD.**

Keywords: Macro parameters of cloud; Natural **seeder-feeder** process; Ka-band millimeter-wave cloud radar; Remote sensing and sensors

1. Introduction

Natural ice crystals in upper clouds can be a source of seeders for lower clouds (Korolev et al., 1999; Heymsfield et al., 2013; Myagkov et al., 2016; Cheng et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2023). This **seeder-feeder** process is able to

29 promote the development of the lower clouds even to stimulate extreme precipitation (Choullarton et al., 1986;
30 Locatelliet al., 1983; Robichaud al., 1988; Fernández-González et al., 2015; Ramelli et al., 2021). The seeder-feeder
31 phenomenon shows that ice crystals as seeder, from an upper cloud fall into a lower cloud or a lower-lying part of
32 the same cloud, which is either liquid phase, ice or mixed phase (Hall et al., 1976; Korolev et al., 2003; Hong et al.,
33 2005; Geerts et al., 2015; Lowenthal et al., 2018). When ice crystals meet lower cloud droplets with ice phase or in
34 supercool water state, they grow by riming or vapor deposition via the Wegener-Bergeron-Findeisen effect (Bergeron
35 1935; He et al., 2022). Therefore, it is important to understand the seeder-feeder mechanism, which can be helpful to
36 improve the representation of cloud processes in weather and climate models, and weather forecasts of precipitation,
37 and ultimately to reduce uncertainty in climate simulations (Hong et al., 2012; Proske et al., 2021). The seeder-feeder
38 phenomenon has been studied by observations and simulations in operations of the artificial precipitation
39 enhancement, and it was found that the distinct changes in both cloud and precipitation properties (French et al., 2018;
40 Ramelli et al., 2021; Dong et al., 2021).

41 Historically, Braham (1967) noted the natural phenomenon of ice crystals from the upper cirrus clouds acting as
42 seeders for ice formation in warmer clouds below. It was found that not only cirrus but also altocumulus and
43 altostratus, which contain ice crystals, may act as the seeding clouds. In the 1980s in China, Hong et al., (2012)
44 established a cloud model that simulated the formation of stratiform clouds. In the model, the seeder-feeder process
45 was emphasized. Subsequently, this cloud seeding process through sedimenting ice crystals has been observed in a
46 multitude of remote sensing and aircraft campaigns. Seifert et al., (2014) and He et al., (2022) estimated the
47 occurrence frequency of the natural cloud seeding through analyzing their lidar datasets. Furthermore, a regional
48 occurrence frequency of seeder-feeder in the Arctic was estimated by Vassel et al. (2019). They pointed out that the
49 seeder-feeder process happened usually within multi-layer clouds, which was observed by radiosonde and radar in
50 Svalbard. By using the DARDAR satellite products and sublimation calculations, Proske et al., (2021) also studied
51 the occurrence frequency of cloud seeding in Switzerland and found the high occurrence frequency of seeding
52 situations with the survival of the ice crystals. The microphysical parameters of the seeder-feeder process appeared
53 within mixed-phase clouds have been investigated by using the ground-based remote sensing instruments (Ramelli
54 et al., 2021). However, there is still a lack of the specific characteristics, such as the height difference between the
55 seeding cloud base and the feeding cloud top (HD) and the effective seeding depth (ESD), to represent the feature of
56 the seeder-feeder process. In the meantime, the characteristic of air vertical motion, particle terminal velocity inside
57 cloud during seeder-feeder process is still poorly understood.

58 Actually, the seeder-feeder process within clouds is not well documented in the literature (Hill et al., 2007; Purdy

59 et al., 2005; He et al., 2022). The main reason is that the effects of the seeder-feeder process are not easy to be
60 measured, because several cloud layers need to be able to monitor simultaneously with high vertical and temporal
61 resolution. The active instrument of the Ka-band millimeter-wave cloud radar (MMCR), a useful tool for cloud
62 observations, is capable of detecting multiple cloud layers directly, which allows measure the **seeder-feeder** process
63 (Ramelli et al., 2021; Proske et al., 2021). The Doppler **spectra** (SP) generated by MMCR can be used to **retrieve**
64 **vertical velocity of airflow** and the **terminal** velocity of cloud particles and to obtain information of particle types
65 (Luke et al., 2013; Shupe et al., 2008; Kollias et al., 2002 and 2011). However, such direct observations of ice crystal
66 formation and evolution in the **seeder-feeder** process are limited (French et al., 2018).

67 In this study, the **seeder-feeder phenomenon** happened between bilayer stratiform cloud in Xi'an were studied by
68 using observation data from the MMCR together with microwave radiometer (MWR) and radiosonde measurements
69 from January 2021 to December 2022. In this paper, following the above review of study status on the seeder-feeder
70 process, the used instruments and methods associated with datasets are introduced simply, then through a case
71 analysis of **seeder-feeder** process measured by MMCR to expose the evolution mechanism of seeding cloud and
72 feeding cloud. The main results and conclusions will be represented by statistics with two years data.

73 **2. Instruments and methods**

74 The instruments used in this study are MMCR, MWR, radiosonde and Raindrop Spectrometer (RDS). The MMCR
75 is the Doppler vertical pointing cloud profile radar with solid-state transmitter. The main parameters of the MMCR
76 are shown in Table 1. The MMCR can observe reflectivity factor (Z), radial velocity (V_r), SP and spectral width (σ).
77 These parameters can be used to retrieve cloud dynamic parameters, such as cloud particle terminal velocity and
78 vertical velocity of airflow inside the cloud (Liu et al., 2019; Yuan et al., 2022; Di et al., 2022). Because of the
79 advantages of solid-state transmitter, the MMCR is small in size, long in life and good in reliability, so it provides
80 reliable observation data for this study. Due to the MMCR has certain penetrating ability to cloud, it can detect the
81 structure variation of multi-layer cloud system, so the **seeder-feeder** phenomenon between multi-layer cloud system
82 can be measured, which is an important reason for us to choose this instrument in this study.

83 The MWR includes 21 water vapor channels (distributed in K band, that is, 22–31 GHz), 14 air temperature
84 channels (distributed in V band, that is, 51~59 GHz), and 1 infrared channel. The observation data of MWR can be
85 used to retrieve the profiles of atmospheric temperature ($/K$) and **relative** humidity ($/\%$), integrated water vapor
86 content (V_{int} /mm) and integrated liquid water content (L_{qint} /mm). Below the height of 2 km, the root mean square
87 error (RMSE) of temperature measurement is less than 1 K, the RMSE of temperature measurement is less than 1.8
88 K above 2 km height. The RMSE of relative humidity is less than 15 %, and the RMSE of **Vint** is less than 4 mm.
89 The relevant parameters of MWR are shown in Table 2.

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Table 1 Major **technical** parameters of the MMCR

Order	Items	Technical specifications
1	Radar system	Coherent, pulsed Doppler; solid-state transmitter; and pulse compression
2	Radar frequency	35 GHz \pm 200 MHz (Ka-band)
3	Antenna aperture	≥ 1.6 m
4	Horizontal and vertical beam width	0.4° and 0.4° beam width
5	Antenna gain	53 dB
6	Pulse repeat frequency	8000 Hz
7	Peak power	≥ 20 W
8	Detecting parameters Detection capability	Z , V_r , σ , and SP ≤ -35 dBz at 5 km Height: 0.15 – 15 km
9	Range of detection	Reflectivity: -45 – $+30$ dBz Radial velocity: -15 – 15 ms ⁻¹ Spectrum width: 0 – 15 ms ⁻¹
10	Spatial and temporal resolutions	Temporal resolution: 5 s Height resolution: 30 m
11	Pulse width	1 μ s; 5 μ s; and 20 μ s

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Table 2 Major technical parameters of MWR

Order	Items	Technical specifications
1	Range of detection	0 – 10 km ≤ 25 m (0~ – 500 m)
2	Height resolution	≤ 50 m (500 – 2000 m) ≤ 250 m (2 – 10 km)
3	Layering	≥ 83 layers
4	Channel frequency	K-band: 22 – 31 GHz V-band: 51 – 59 GHz
5	Number of channels	number of water vapor channel: 12 number of temperature channel: 14 number of infrared channel: 1
6	Absolute brightness temperature accuracy	≤ 1.0 K
7	RMSE of temperature profile	≤ 1.8 K, Range > 2 km ≤ 1.0 K, Range ≤ 2 km
8	RMSE of relative humidity	$\leq 15\%$
9	RMSE of V_{int}	≤ 4 mm

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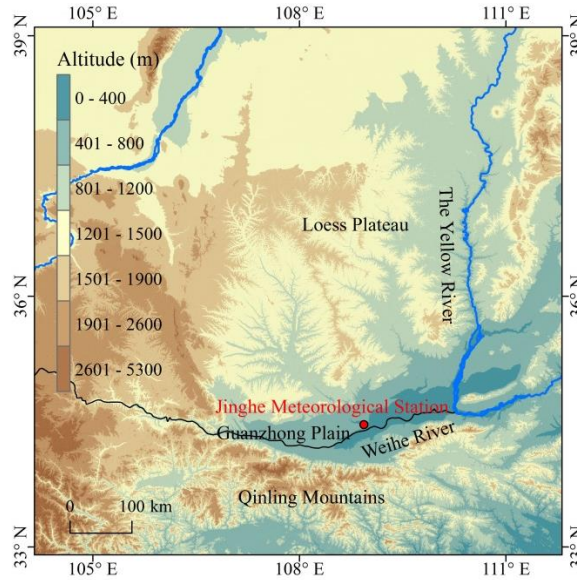
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The above instruments were placed at the Jinghe National Meteorological Station (108°58'E, 34°26'N, as shown in Fig. 1) in Xi'an, Shaanxi Province, China, which is located near the north bank of the Wei River in Guanzhong Basin (between 107°40'–109°49'E, 33°42'–34°45'N, about 400 meters above sea level) in the middle of the Yellow River Basin. The Qinling Mountains on the south side of the Wei River often block the cold air southward in winter and spring, and produce stable stratiform clouds in the Guanzhong Plain, which provides a natural experimental site to study the phenomenon and mechanism of **seeder-feeder** of bilayer stratiform clouds. The distance between MMCR and MWR is less than 5m, and the distance between other instruments is less than 50 m. The Jinghe National Meteorological Station is also the national Meteorological sounding Station. Sounding balloons are released every day at 07:15 and 19:15 BJT (Beijing Time) to detect atmospheric temperature, humidity, wind speed and direction

103 from the ground to an altitude of 30 km above the station (Görsdorf et al., 2015; Vassel et al. 2019; Yuan et al.
104 2022). The collaborative detection of the above instruments provides effective data support for capturing the **seed-**
105 **feeder** process in clouds in this study.



106
107 Figure 1 Geographical coverage around observation site ($104^{\circ}10' \sim 111^{\circ}40'E, 33^{\circ}-39^{\circ}N$). The red dot indicates the location of the
108 Jinghe National Meteorological Station in Xi'an ($107^{\circ}40' - 109^{\circ}49'E, 33^{\circ}42' - 34^{\circ}45'N$).

109 As the MMCR adopts vertical upward mode observation, its echo signal will not be affected by ground clutter,
110 **which reduces errors of the terrain clutter in observation data.** However, due to the influence of **aerosol** and insects
111 in lower atmosphere, there will be non-cloud signals in the bottom echo signal of the MMCR. **The non-cloud echo**
112 **signals in the low-level atmosphere have the characteristics of the small reflectivity factor, low velocity, and large**
113 **spectral width. To further eliminate interfering wave information, we obtained the data quality control threshold by**
114 **counting the characteristic changes in planktonic echoes in the boundary layer under cloud free conditions (Yuan et**
115 **al., 2022).** The *SP* measured by MMCR includes the information of the cloud particle **size** and **the air vertical motion.**
116 The *SP* is also affected by radar beam width, ambient wind shear and atmospheric turbulence. Therefore, radiosonde
117 data combined with the MMCR hardware parameters were used to correct the broadening of *SP*, in order to improve
118 the accuracy of the retrieved vertical velocity of airflow and the particles **terminal velocity** in clouds (Doviak and
119 Zrnica, 1993; Shupe et al., 2008; Kollias et al., 2001 and 2002; Shupe et al., 2008 and 2004).

120 To calculate the vertical velocity of the airflow in the cloud more accurately, the cloud phase state was judged.
121 **The terminal velocity of cloud particles varies due to the influence of phase state, which in turn affects the magnitude**
122 **of vertical airflow velocity.** Cloud particle phase identification adopts cluster analysis method (Shupe, 2007). The
123 specific process takes cloud reflectivity factor, particle radial velocity and spectrum width measured by the MMCR,
124 and atmospheric temperature measured by MWR as input parameters for cloud phase identification. Through

125 unsupervised learning, cloud particles of different phase states in the cloud were identified, such as warm clouds,
126 mixed phase (ice dominated phase or water dominated phase), ice, snow, supercooled water, drizzle, rain and graupel
127 particles. In the identified ice particle region and mixed phase region, the small particle tracer method was used to
128 obtain the vertical velocity of the airflow (Shupe et al., 2008).

129 In the identified supercooled water region, the peak position of the liquid cloud particle is used to obtain the vertical
130 velocity of airflow (Wei et al., 2019). When it drizzles, the SP of MMCR usually shows the bimodal distribution, and
131 the vertical velocity of the airflow in the cloud can be obtained by the bimodal position of the liquid cloud particles
132 (Wei et al., 2019; Luke et al., 2010 and 2013). The terminal velocity of cloud particles and the vertical velocity of
133 airflow are important parameters in the seeder-feeder process. Based on the observation data of MMCR from 2021
134 to 2022 (a total of 10363 hours), the seeder-feeder phenomenon of bilayer cloud system (ice phase in upper cloud
135 and mixed phase cloud in lower cloud) will be analyzed below.

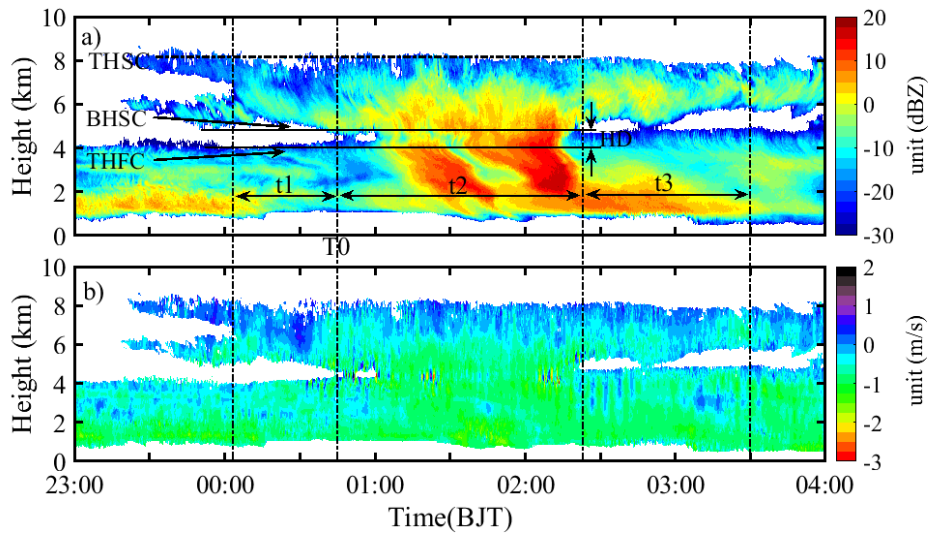
136 3. Parameter Definition and Case Analysis

137 To conveniently and clearly analyze the seeder-feeder process of bilayer clouds in Xi 'an, and find how the upper
138 seeding clouds to seed the lower feeding clouds in this study. We have chosen observation data of MMCR and MWR
139 in winter and spring, as most of the clouds in these seasons are stable stratiform clouds. The first step is to define the
140 relevant parameters to describe the characteristics of the bilayer clouds, such as the top height of seeding cloud
141 (THSC) and the base height of seeding cloud (BHSC), the top height of feeding cloud (THFC). The height difference
142 (HD) between BHSC and THFC is also defined. The HD can display directly one of the geometric features of the
143 bilayer clouds. The heights of cloud top and bottom are determined from radar echo signals. Before determining the
144 two heights, the clutter mixed in signals observed by MWCR were filtered out. The sensitivity threshold of the radar
145 used in this study is -40dBz, which is sufficient for accurately observing the positions of cloud base and cloud top
146 (Yuan, et al. 2022).

147 A period of stable time before the seeding cloud began to seed was denoted as t1, the moment when the seeding
148 cloud began to seed was marked as T0, the length of time period of the seeding was denoted as t2, and the period
149 after the end of the seeding but the lower part of the feeding cloud still showed development changes in reflectivity
150 factor was labeled as t3 (which is called the duration of the seeding effect). Usually, the cloud base or cloud top is
151 not flat enough. However, as our study focuses on stable stratiform clouds, the cloud tops and cloud bases observed
152 in these cases are relatively flat. THSC is the average height of seed cloud tops during the observation period, BHSC
153 is the average value of the seeder cloud base during the t1 period, and THFC is the average value of the feeder cloud
154 top during the t1 period.

155 Fig. 2 shows the cloud reflectivity factor and radial velocity detected by MMCR from 23:00 BJT on 05 February,

156 2022 to 04:00 BJT on 05 February, 2022. The reflectivity factor (Fig. 2a) clearly shows the **seeder-feeder** process.
 157 The period from 00:40 to 02:20 BJT, cloud particles of the upper cloud fall into the top of the lower cloud. This is
 158 confirmed by the cloud particle radial velocity (Fig. 2b), which shows that the cloud particles during the period are
 159 all sinking, and the sinking velocity is about -1ms^{-1} . The above defined parameters have been marked in Fig. 2a. **It**
 160 **also shown that the bilayer cloud is stable during this period, with THSC at 8 km, BHSC at 5.5 km, THFC at 4.2 km,**
 161 **HD at 0.85 km. The seeding process lasts for about 98.2 minutes (t2), and feeding cloud development duration reaches**
 162 **more than 2 hours and 30 minutes.** Before **seeder-feeder** process of the bilayer clouds, only 40 minutes (t1) is
 163 considered as the earlier state of beclouds, as detailed in Table 3.



164
 165 Figure 2 The variations with time for both profiles of cloud reflectivity factor (a) and cloud particle radial velocity (b) detected by MMCR
 166 from 23:00 BJT on 05 February, 2022 to 04:00 BJT on 06 February, 2022 (positive value in color bar represents ascending motion and
 167 negative value represents sinking motion). In the figure, THSC and BHSC are the cloud top height and cloud base height of the seeding
 168 cloud, THFC is the cloud top height of the feeding cloud, and HD is the height difference between the **base** height of seeding cloud
 169 and the top height of feeding cloud. T0 is the moment when the seeding cloud began to seed, t1 is the stable time period before the seeding
 170 cloud begins to seed, t2 is the length of time from the beginning to the end of the seeding, and t3 is the period after the end of the seeding
 171 but the reflectivity factor in the feeding cloud still development.

172 Table 3 Values of the defined parameters for the **seeder-feeder** phenomenon observed by MMCR from 23:00 BJT on 05 February,
 173 2022 to 04:00 BJT on 06 February, 2022.

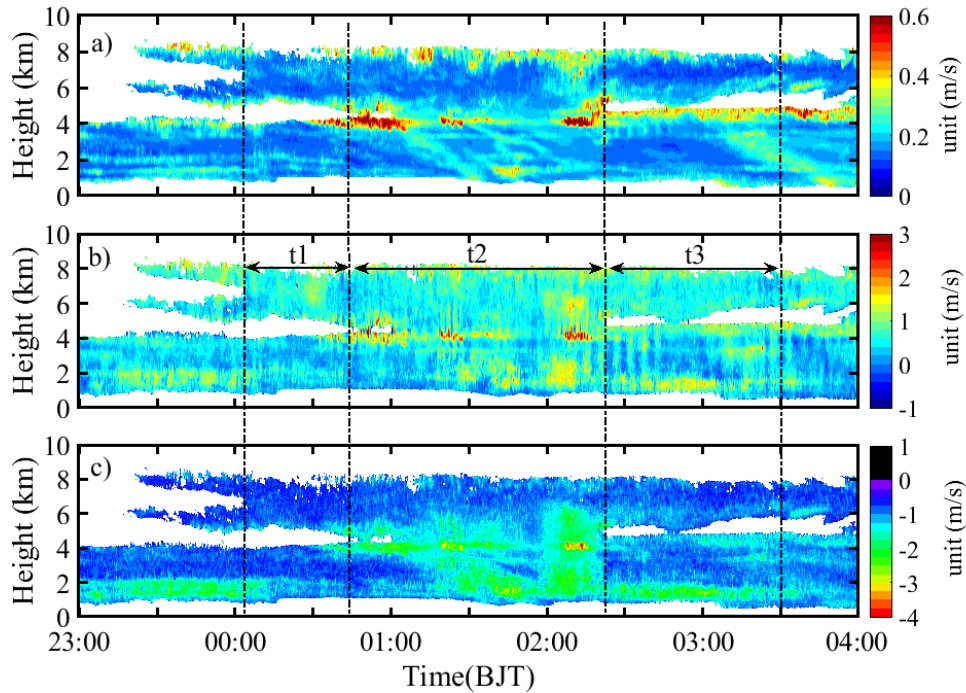
Parameters	THSC	BHSC	THFC	HD	t1	t2	t3
	/(km)	/(km)	/(km)	/(km)	/(min)	/(min)	/(min)
Values	8.2	5.1	4.3	0.85	40.2	98.2	44

174 In order to reveal the variation characteristics of the cloud system during this seeder-feeder process, the spectrum
 175 width of cloud particles, vertical velocity of the airflow, and the **terminal velocity of cloud particles** were firstly
 176 calculated from the signals of the *SP* detected by MMCR (as shown in Fig. 3, the positive value of the velocity is
 177 specified as the ascending motion and the negative value is the descending motion). Fig. 3a shows that the spectrum
 178 width is small, indicating that the cloud particle radial velocity detected by MMCR is relatively stable, which also
 179 indicates that the airflow inside bilayer clouds is stable. The maximum velocity spectrum width is about 0.6ms^{-1} ,

180 which is mainly located at the top of the seeding and feeding clouds (especially at the beginning of the feeding cloud),
181 and the lower part between the seeding and the feeding cloud during the seeding period (that is, the top of the feeding
182 cloud). In addition, the feeding cloud showed changes in the t3 period after seeding, that is, the feeding cloud top
183 height rose slightly (Fig. 2a), and the spectrum width increased at the cloud top zone, which says that the radial
184 velocity at this zone changed greatly during the t3 period. This is probably because of latent heating release by the
185 phase transition in the seeding cloud during **seeder-feeder** process, which will be feedback the dynamic process, then
186 increases the vertical velocity of the **airflow** inside the cloud. This position in Fig. 3b indeed indicates that the vertical
187 velocity of the airflow is relatively large ($0.5\text{--}2\text{ ms}^{-1}$). Fig. 3b shows that weak upward movement ($0.5\text{--}2\text{ ms}^{-1}$)
188 prevails in the seeding clouds and the feeding clouds, which is consistent with the dynamic structure characteristics
189 of stable stratiform clouds (Hou et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2022) in winter and spring in Xi'an region. The maximum
190 vertical velocity of airflow was located at the junction of upper and lower clouds, the top and **base of seeding clouds**
191 **and the top of feeding clouds** in t3 period. During the seeding period, **there are the large airflow upward movement**
192 **(up to 1.5 ms^{-1}) in the middle and lower zones of the feeding cloud. There is rarely a large-scale and prolonged air**
193 **sinking and rising movement in the seeding cloud and feeding cloud, but alternating upward and downward**
194 **movements occur.**

195 Fig. 3c clearly shows the terminal velocity of cloud particles, and it is in the range of $-1\sim -4\text{ ms}^{-1}$ during seeding
196 process, **but most of them are less than -2.5 m/s .** During this seeding process, 00:45–01:50 BJT and 02:00–02:20 BJT
197 are two significant seeding periods, and the maximum terminal velocity of cloud particles is about -4 ms^{-1} in last
198 period, **which indicates the large cloud particles size. According to the cloud phase in Fig. 4, the particles are**
199 **snowflakes in the cloud seeding and feeding area. The particle size is related to the shape of snowflakes and the**
200 **terminal velocity, so it difficult to accurately quantify particle size. The relations of snow particles and diameter are**
201 **studied in the ref. (Tao et al. 2020). According to the speculation, the size of the snow particles in the cloud is**
202 **distributed between 1mm and 6mm, and most of them are below 3mm. In the areas unaffected by seeding (except for**
203 **the bottom area of the lower cloud during the time period of 23:00-24:10), the particle terminal velocity is small, less**
204 **than -1.5ms^{-1} . These all indicates that seeding has a significant enhancing effect on particle size of feeding clouds.**

205 According to Table 2, the height difference (HD) between seeding and feeding cloud is 0.85 km. If the sinking
206 speed of cloud particles is at -1 ms^{-1} (Fig. 2b), it takes about 14 minutes for cloud particles to fall from the seeding
207 cloud **base** to the feeding cloud top. In addition, Fig. 2 and Fig.3 show that seeding end at 02:20 BJT, but Fig. 2b still
208 shows that after this time, cloud particles still sink (at 02:45 BJT, sinking velocity $<-0.5\text{ ms}^{-1}$) on the feeding cloud
209 top. It is likely that MMCR is limited in its sensitivity to detect smaller particles and cannot clearly show the
210 reflectively factor of small particles. The above results indicate that the sinking motion region (time period) of the
211 cloud particle velocity can be used to identify the seeding cloud effectively. Anyway, the above gives an important
212 conclusion, i.e. after seeding, the feeding cloud top rose slightly, which may be the result of latent heating release.
213 The sinking motion zone of particle velocity can directly characterize the seeding process.

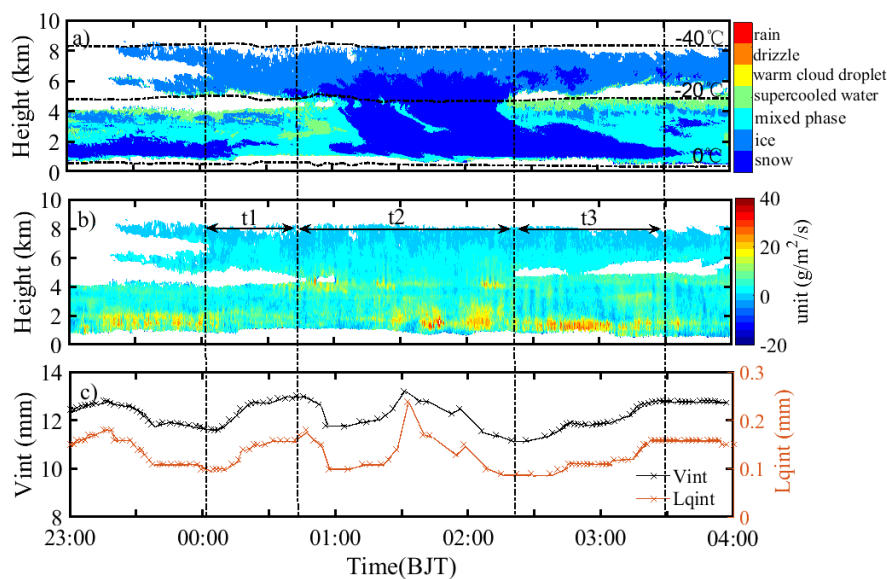


214
 215 Figure 3 The spectrum width of cloud particles (a), vertical velocity of the airflow (b), and the **terminal velocity** of cloud particles (c)
 216 based on the retrieval from MMCR (positive value in the color bar represents ascending motion and negative value represents sinking
 217 motion) .

218 By using the data of MMCR and MWR observations, the phase state and water vapor structure of the cloud, the
 219 total amount of liquid water and water vapor in the column can be retrieved. Fig. 4a shows that seeding clouds consist
 220 of ice and snow, and seeding is caused by sinking ice particles. Before seeding, the particles in the feeding cloud
 221 were basically in mixed phase, and there was a thin layer of supercooled water in the middle and upper part of the
 222 cloud, and snow particles appeared at the base of the cloud for a short time after 00:10 BJT. **Before seeding, the larger**
 223 **downward mean Doppler velocity (Figure 2b) was detected in the lower part of the seeding cloud, which indicates**
 224 **that the cloud process has transformed from ice to snow with large particle sizes. Snowflakes, as seeders, fall into the**
 225 **mixed phase cloud containing supercooled water, so that the Wegener-Bergeron-Findeisen effect occurred. That**
 226 **effect causes the supercooled water in the mixed phase cloud to rapidly transform into ice. Because it takes time for**
 227 **particles to fall, so the seeding will continue to the middle and lower parts of the feeding clouds, and snow keeps for**
 228 **a long time (maintaining the entire t3 period); In the top region of the unaffected feeding cloud, the cloud phase**
 229 **remains supercooled water, which is consistent with the observation results in Shupe (2007). The temperature of the**
 230 **supercooled water layer is close to -20°C , while that of the seeding cloud top is close to -40°C . From Figure 4, it**
 231 **can be seen that the instantaneous water vapor flux of the seeding cloud is smaller than that of the feeding cloud, and**
 232 **the bottom layer of the feeding cloud has the instantaneous water vapor flux greater than $20\text{ gm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$, indicating that**
 233 **the lower layer of the atmosphere has high humidity during the seeder-feeder process in bilayer stratiform cloud.**

234 The temporal variation of column water vapor and column liquid water given by MWR (Fig. 4c) showed that both
 235 rapidly increased from t1 before seeding to the beginning of seeding, and rapidly decreased after seeding. Before the

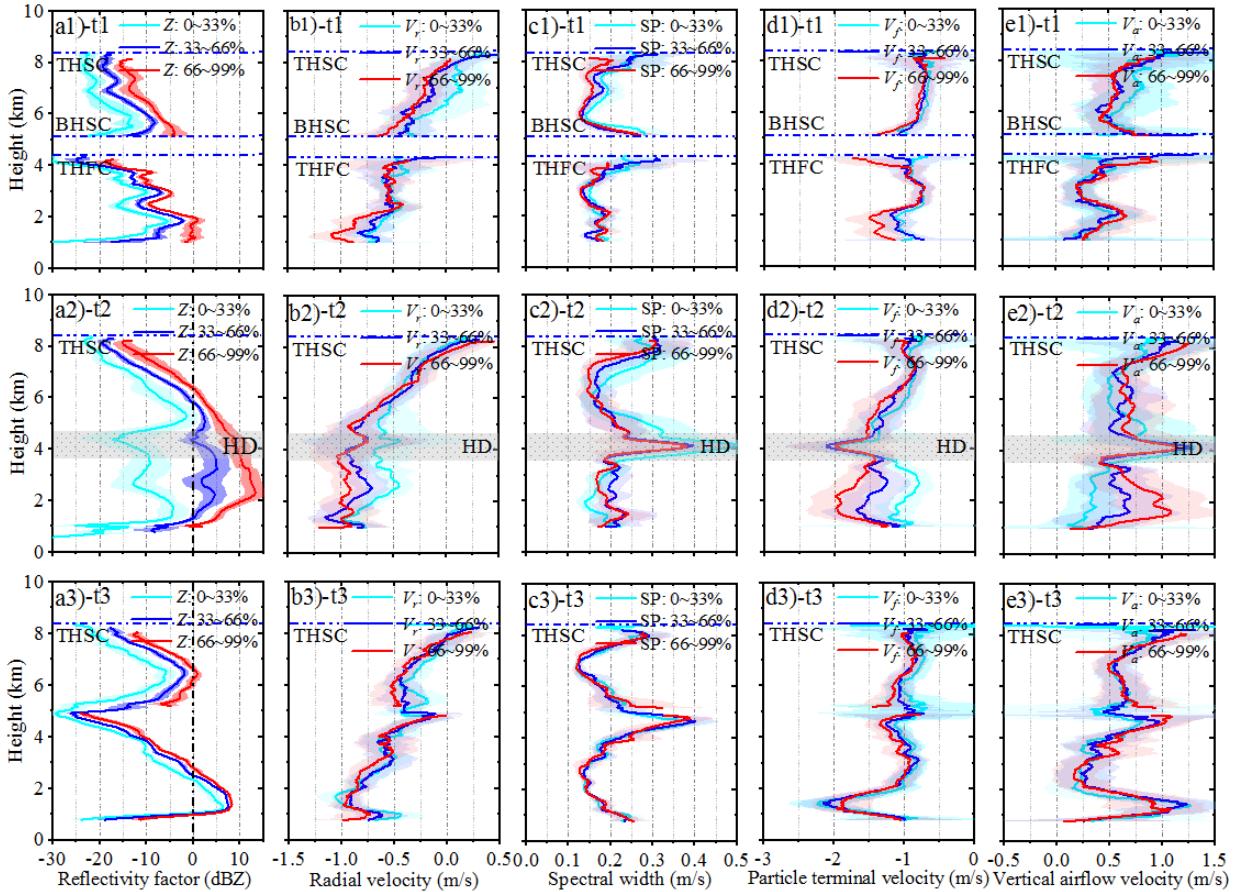
236 second intense seeding, column water vapor and column liquid water content increased rapidly, and then decreased
 237 with the end of seeding. This process can be understood as that when the ice phase particles of the seeding cloud
 238 enter the supercooled water of the feeding cloud top, the **Wegener-Bergeron-Findeisen** effect is triggered, and the
 239 liquid particles are rapidly transformed into ice phase particles, which leads to the reduction of liquid water content
 240 in the column. Therefore, the **Wegener-Bergeron-Findeisen** effect is the main reason for the reduction of liquid water
 241 content in the column. The above results illustrate that the seeders of seeding cloud cause the change of cloud phase
 242 state in the feeding cloud, thus reducing the water vapor and liquid water in the column. The rapid increase of water
 243 vapor and liquid water in the column before seeding may be related to the change of atmospheric environment at that
 244 time, which still needs to be studied in detail.



245
 246 Figure 4 The variations of cloud phase (a), water vapor flux (b), integrated water vapor content (V_{int}: black line) and integrated liquid
 247 water content (L_{qint}: Orange line) (c) with time observed and retrieved by MMCR and MWR.

248 According to the radar formula, the echo signal intensity is proportional to the sixth square of the cloud particle
 249 diameter. **The cloud particle with larger diameter has a larger falling speed under the action of gravity. In order to**
 250 **reveal the relationship between particle size and echo signal in the seeder-feeder process. The statistical classification**
 251 **method of equal samples is adopted to find the relationship. All signal values (echo reflectivity, radial velocity,**
 252 **spectral width, particle falling velocity, and vertical airflow velocity) are reordered according to their corresponding**
 253 **echo reflectivity values from small to large, and then compared in the equal sample.** For example, the first 33%,
 254 middle 33% and last 33% of the sample are arithmetically averaged to obtain the mean reflecting the weak, moderate
 255 and strong values respectively. This has the advantage of avoiding the defect of large and small arithmetic averages
 256 cancelling each other out. Following this principle, the reflectivity factors of t1, t2 and t3 are arranged in ascending
 257 order, and the corresponding parameters of cloud particles are also sorted with the order of reflectivity factors, and
 258 then the arithmetic average is performed according to the first 33%, middle 33% and last 33% of the sample. The
 259 average profile representing weak echo, moderate echo and strong echo (as shown in Figs 5a1, a2, a3) is obtained,

260 and the corresponding average profile of cloud particle parameter for the three intensity echoes is also obtained, and
 261 they are the corresponding average profiles of cloud particle radial velocity (Figs 5b1, b2, b3), average profiles of
 262 velocity spectrum width (Figs 5c1, c2, c3), average profiles of particle terminal velocity (Figs 5d1, d2, d3) and average
 263 profiles of vertical velocity of the airflow (Figs 5e1, e2, e3).



264
 265 Figure 5 The mean profiles of reflectivity factor (a1, a2, a3), radial velocity (b1, b2, b3), spectrum width (c1, c2, c3), particle terminal
 266 velocity (d1, d2, d3) and vertical velocity of the airflow (e1, e2, e3) during t1 (up), t2 (middle) and t3 (bottom) periods, respectively. In
 267 the figure, the cyan line, blue line and red line represent the average of the first 33%, the middle 33% and the last 33% of the sample
 268 respectively; the solid line represents the mean, and the shaded area of the corresponding color is the variance.

269 The up panel of Fig. 5 shows that there are obvious differences (a1) between the weak, moderate and strong
 270 reflectivity factor profiles of seeding clouds and feeding clouds before seeding (t1 period), but in general, the average
 271 profiles of the three kinds of echo intensity show that reflectivity factor increases with the decrease of height, and the
 272 values of the profiles are relatively small (all less than 0 dBZ) and the variance is also small. However, the profiles
 273 of cloud particle radial velocity (b1), spectral width (c1), particle terminal velocity (d1) and vertical velocity of the
 274 airflow (e1) corresponding to the average profiles of the three intensity reflectivity factors basically coincide, and do
 275 not show significant changes in these parameters caused by differences in reflectivity factors. This indicates that the
 276 cloud particle states (radial velocity, spectral width, particle terminal velocity and vertical velocity of airflow) of
 277 seeding and feeding clouds in t1 period are uniformly distributed at different intensity echoes, that is, the upper and

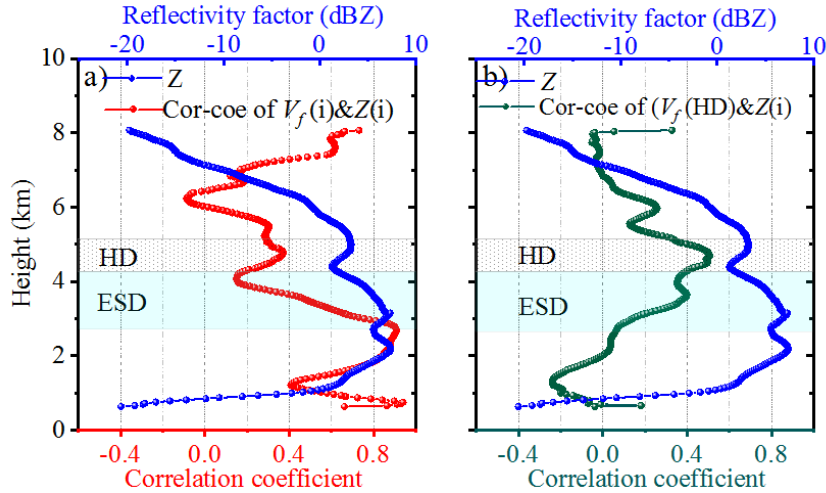
278 lower cloud systems are stable before seeding, and the size of cloud particles is mainly small.

279 The middle panel of Fig. 5 represents the average profiles of each parameter during the seeding period (t_2). Fig. 5
280 a2 shows that the difference between the average profiles of the reflectivity factors for the three kinds of echo intensity
281 is greater than that before seeding. In particular, the profiles of the moderate and strong reflectivity factors in the
282 figure increases significantly, reaching a maximum of 15 dBZ, which hints that the size distribution of cloud particles
283 in the bilayer cloud varies significantly during seeding. Compared with before seeding, the reflectivity factor of the
284 lower part of the seeding cloud (5.4 km ~ 6.2 km) increased significantly, and the radial velocity of cloud particles
285 (Fig. 5 b2), the **terminal velocity** of cloud particles (Fig. 5 d2) and the vertical velocity of airflow (Fig. 5 e2) all
286 increased correspondingly. It was these changes of cloud particles under the seeding cloud that produced the seeding
287 effect. The spectral width of **feeding** cloud particle velocity (Fig. 5 c2) **corresponding to the three intensity reflectivity**
288 **factors don't coincide, which significant changes in particle distribution or types across different scale ranges.** For
289 the strong reflectivity factor profile, from the top of the seeding cloud to the lower part of the feeding cloud at a
290 height of 2 km, reflectivity factor increases rapidly with the decrease of the height, and the corresponding radial
291 velocity and terminal velocity of the cloud particles increase (i.e. the descending velocity increases), and the vertical
292 velocity of the airflow also increases, indicating that the large particles in the seeding cloud have a great effect on the
293 feeding cloud. For the weak reflectivity factor profile of bilayer cloud, the average reflectivity factor changes little
294 compared with that before seeding, indicating that the seeding effect of small cloud droplets corresponding to such
295 weak echoes is small. Fig. 5 also shows that during the seeding period, the reflectivity factor of the middle and upper
296 part of the feeding cloud increases significantly after the seeders are injected into the feeding cloud, especially in the
297 case of strong and moderate intensity, indicating that the middle and upper part of the feeding cloud particles become
298 significantly larger, which clearly expresses the seeding effect.

299 With the end of seeding (bottom panel in Fig. 5), the reflectivity factor of the upper and middle part of the seeding
300 cloud decreased significantly. The reflectivity factor of the lower part of the feeding cloud increased, which reveals
301 that the seeding effect developed to the lower part of the feeding cloud. In general, the distribution of strong, moderate
302 and weak reflectivity factor profiles in feeding clouds was concentrated after seeding, informing that cloud particle
303 size became more uniform, which was obviously different from that before and during seeding. Therefore, the profiles
304 of cloud particle radial velocity, velocity spectral width, **particle terminal velocity** and vertical velocity of the airflow
305 corresponding to the strong, moderate and weak reflectivity factors basically coincide. **Due to the fact that echo**
306 **reflectivity factor, radial velocity, and falling terminal velocity reflect particle size, and spectral width reflects particle**
307 **size distribution and particle category. In the end of seeding, the cloud particle size distribution and particle velocity**
308 **of the bilayer cloud may reach a relatively balanced and stable state through the complex microphysical and dynamic**
309 **interactions in the t_2 period.** However, the reflectivity factor of the feeding cloud **during t_3 period** reaches the
310 maximum in the lower layer (1 km~2 km), and the corresponding radial velocity and **terminal velocity** of cloud

311 particles also reach the maximum, indicating that seeding effect continues at the **lower part** of the feeding cloud
312 although seeding has ended at the top of the feeding cloud. The key takeaway from Fig. 5 is that the reflectivity factor
313 (related to cloud particle scale) and the descending velocity of cloud particles increased within a certain depth of the
314 feeding cloud during the seeding period. After the end of seeding, there was a seeding continuation period in the
315 middle and lower part of the feeding cloud.

316 In order to understand the effect of seeding cloud on feeding cloud, the correlation coefficient between cloud
317 particle **terminal velocity** and reflectivity factor is calculated statistically. Firstly, the correlation coefficient between
318 the **terminal velocity** of cloud particles during the seeding period (t_2) and the **corresponding** reflectivity factor (called
319 the autocorrelation coefficient, because the **terminal velocity** of cloud particles has a certain relationship with the size
320 of cloud particles, while the reflectivity factor is proportional to the 6th power of the particle diameter) was calculated.
321 Therefore, the cloud particle **terminal velocity** is not independent of the reflectivity factor. The obtained
322 autocorrelation coefficient profile is shown in Figure 6a, which indicates that as the height decreases from the middle
323 of the seeding cloud (6 km) to the middle and lower part of the feeding cloud (2.5 km), the autocorrelation coefficient
324 increases from 0 to 0.8, that is, the positive correlation between the cloud particle **terminal velocity** and the reflectivity
325 factor increases continuously. The reflectivity factor also increases with the decrease of altitude (from -5 dBZ to 5
326 dBZ), illustrating the reflectivity factor and **terminal velocity** of cloud particles increase with the decrease of height,
327 which may be inferred that the size of cloud particles also increases with the decrease of height. It can be seen that
328 during the seeding period (t_2), the reflectivity factor of the middle and upper part of the feeding cloud will be large
329 and the particle **terminal velocity** will increase. Therefore, the Effective Seeding Depth (ESD) is defined as the height
330 difference between the top height of the feeding cloud and from the height down to the height of the maximum
331 correlation coefficient, which represents the influence of seeders on the **feeding cloud during t_2 period**. In this case,
332 the ESD is about 1.6 km. In the ESD region, the echo intensity increases with the decrease of the height, so the cloud
333 particle size also increases rapidly with the decrease of the height, as the result the middle and lower part of ESD is
334 the area where the **seeding** effect is most intense. In the upper part of ESD (i.e. the top of the feeding cloud), the
335 reflectivity factor is slightly smaller (less than 3 dBZ) and the correlation coefficient is also smaller (less than 0.2),
336 indicating that the upper cloud particle size of the feeding cloud is small, and the correlation between the **terminal**
337 **velocity** of the cloud particle and the reflectivity factor is poor, because the seeders has just entered the top of the
338 feeding cloud and the seeding effect has just begun.



339

340 Figure 6. The autocorrelation coefficient profile (a) between cloud particle **terminal velocity** and reflectivity factor at each layer from
 341 top to bottom in the bilayer cloud in t2 period, and the correlation coefficient profile (b) between the average descent velocity of cloud
 342 particle in the HD region and reflectivity factor at different height layers in t2 period.

343 If the region between the upper and lower clouds, i.e. HD region, is regarded as a whole layer, the correlation
 344 coefficient between the average **terminal velocity** of cloud particles in this layer and the reflectivity factors of cloud
 345 layers during the seeding period (t2 period) (called non-autocorrelation coefficient, because the **terminal velocity** of
 346 cloud particles and the reflectivity factors in the non-HD region are relatively independent at this time) is calculated,
 347 and the non-autocorrelation coefficient profile in Fig. 6b is obtained. It shows that above the height of the HD region,
 348 the positive correlation between the average **terminal velocity** of cloud particles and the reflectivity factor of each
 349 layer of the seeding cloud increases as the height decreases, indicating that the **terminal velocity** of cloud particles in
 350 the HD region is mainly affected by the reflectivity factor of the lower layer of the seeding cloud. The larger the
 351 reflectivity factor of the lower layer of the seeding cloud is, the larger the velocity of cloud particles in the HD region,
 352 which conforms to the physical principle. As the height decreases to the **base** of the feeding cloud, the non-
 353 autocorrelation coefficient decreases from 0.4 to -0.2 , indicating that the average **terminal velocity** of cloud particles
 354 in the HD region is only positively correlated with the reflectivity factor near the top of the feeding cloud, that is,
 355 cloud particles in the HD region only affect the clouds near the top of the feeding cloud, but have little effect on the
 356 lower part of the feeding cloud. This shows that the reflectivity factor in the middle and lower part of the feeding
 357 cloud has little correlation with the **terminal velocity** of cloud particles in the HD region.

358 In generally, the effect of seeding cloud on feeding cloud is mainly manifested in the middle and upper part of
 359 feeding cloud, that is, the seeding effect acting in the effective seeding depth. During the seeding period, the cloud
 360 particle size is small (low reflectivity factor) from the top of feeding cloud upward to the 1km height. From top to
 361 bottom in the ESD, the size of cloud particles increased (the reflectivity factor increased), indicating that seeding
 362 mainly occurred in this depth. After the end of seeding, the continuous influence of the seeding process in the feeding

363 cloud can be understood as the delay of seeding benefits, and also can be understood as the seeding process inside
 364 the feeding cloud, that is, the seeding of the middle part of the feeding cloud to its lower part.

365 4. Statistical characteristics

366 To reveal the characteristics of the **seeder-feeder** phenomenon of bilayer cloud over the Shanxi-Guanzhong Plain,
 367 China, the observation results by MMCR from winter to the next spring from 2021 to 2022 were analyzed, because
 368 a large range of compact and stable stratiform clouds often appear in the region during this season. During the
 369 observation period, MMCR observed 11 cases of **seeder-feeder** process in stratiform clouds. Table 4 lists the time of
 370 **seeder-feeder** process, THSC, BHSC, THFC, HD, t1, t2, t3, the phase of feeding cloud base and precipitation state
 371 on the ground. According to the precipitation records observed by the surface rain gauge, Table 4 shows that there
 372 were 6 cases with precipitation occurrences (one with snowfall) after the **seeder-feeder** process occurred. In 4 cases,
 373 the base height of feeding clouds dropped to about 560m, and the **radial** velocity at the cloud **base** was measured to
 374 be $-2 \sim -3\text{ms}^{-1}$, these cloud particles were liquid, so it can be seen that there was **virga** (drizzle that did not fall to
 375 the ground) at the bottom of the feeding clouds. In the process of 31 March, 2022, the echo intensity of the middle
 376 and lower part of the feeding cloud increased after seeding, and the cloud particles mainly moved down. However,
 377 due to the high height of the cloud base (about 3.9 km), the retrieved phase showed mixed phase, and no precipitation
 378 was observed by the ground rain gauge.

379 Table 4 Lists of the characteristic parameters of the **seeder-feeder** phenomenon for 11 cases of bilayer stratiform cloud from 2021 to
 380 2022.

Type	Time	THSC /(km)	BHSC /(km)	THFC /(km)	HD /(km)	t1 /(min)	t2 /(min)	t3 /(min)	phase of feeding cloud base	Precipitation state
I	2021-11-29	10.23	6.00	5.20	0.80	101.5	91.3	114.9	rain	Yes
	2022-02-06	8.20	5.10	4.30	0.80	40.2	98.2	44	ice	No
	2022-02-06	8.43	5.61	4.86	0.75	49.1	113.9	33.6	snow	Yes
	2022-04-30	9.21	5.80	4.84	0.96	73.6	65.1	34.1	rain (virga)	No
	2022-11-16	8.79	5.71	4.77	0.94	23.7	36.3	9.0	rain (virga)	No
II	2021-01-23	9.45	6.12	4.50	1.62	80.3	59.6	29.5	rain (virga)	No
	2021-03-10	11.04	7.21	6.06	1.15	67.9	138.0	45.3	rain	Yes
	2022-03-31	10.02	7.74	6.25	1.49	30.3	30.9	23.3	mixed phase	No
	2022-06-04	10.23	6.99	5.43	1.56	15.7	41.7	13.4	rain	Yes
III	2022-04-24	10.62	9.26	8.15	1.11	30.0	103.1	41.8	rain	Yes
	2022-11-08	10.65	8.04	5.82	2.22	35.8	47.0	17.5	rain	Yes

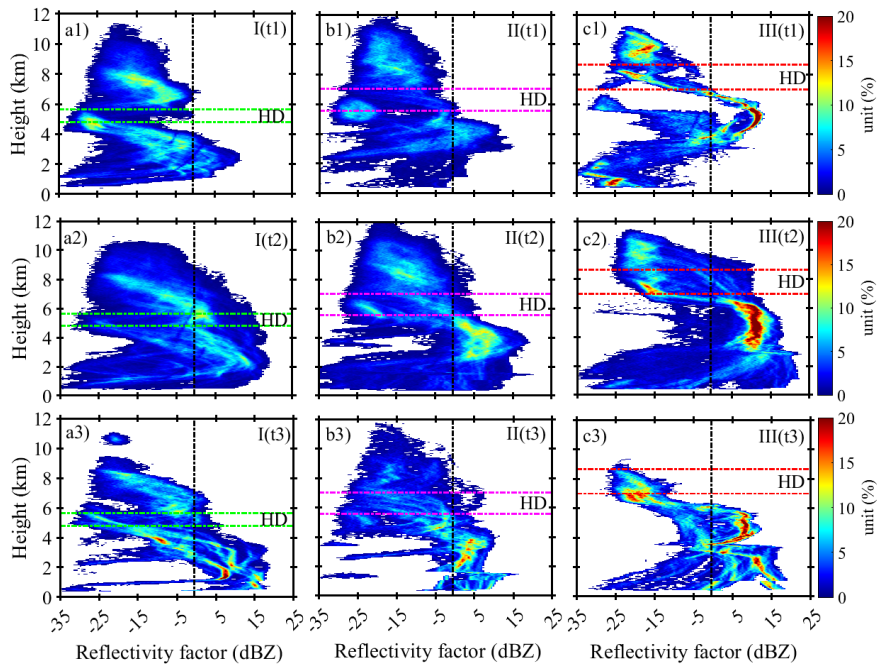
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382 Table 5 Statistical results of characteristic parameters of three types of the **seeder-feeder** phenomenon.

Type	Samples	Variable	THSC /(km)	BHSC /(km)	THFC /(km)	HD /(km)	t1 /(min)	t2 /(min)	t3 /(min)
I	5	Mean	8.97	5.64	4.79	0.85	58	81	47
		RMSE	0.51	0.09	0.08	0.01	741	747	1282
II	4	Mean	10.18	7.02	5.56	1.46	60	68	28
		RMSE	0.33	0.34	0.47	0.03	452	1756	134
III	2	Mean	10.64	8.65	6.99	1.67	33	75	30
		RMSE	0.00025	0.37	1.36	0.31	8	787	148

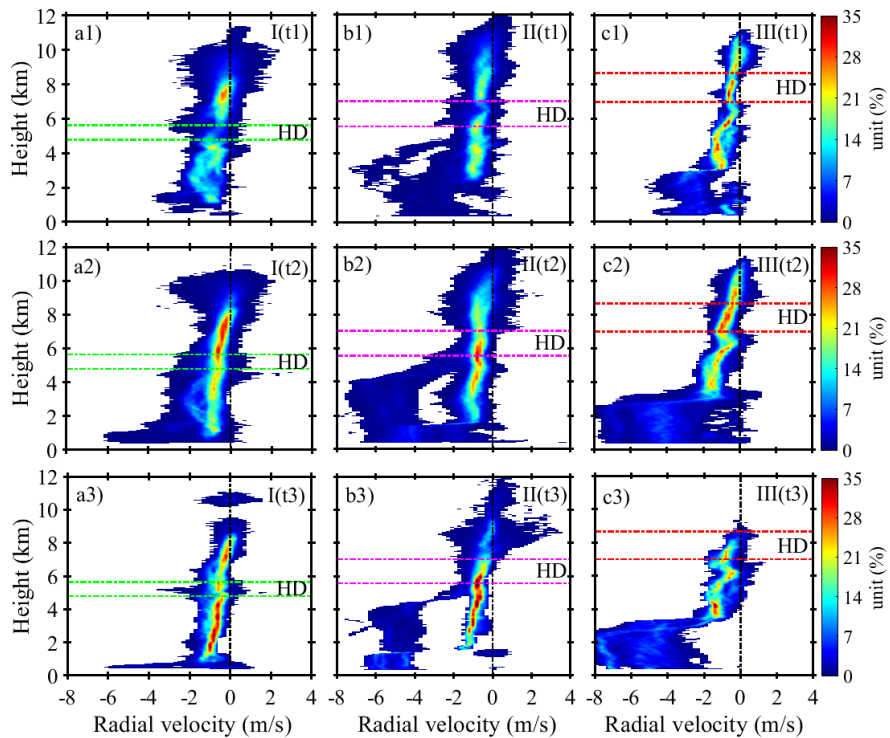
383 Based on the characteristic parameters of seeding cloud and feeding cloud listed in Table 4, the seeding process
384 can be generally divided into three categories according to THSC and HD. The seeding process of type I has low
385 seeding height ($(BHSC < 6 \text{ km})$ and small HD ($HD \leq 1 \text{ km}$), the type II has higher seeding height ($6 \text{ km} \leq BHSC <$
386 8 km) and larger HD ($HD \geq 1 \text{ km}$), and the type III also has higher seeding height ($BHSC \geq 8 \text{ km}$.) and larger HD
387 ($HD \geq 1 \text{ km}$). The Table 5 shows the characteristic parameter distributions of these three types of **seeder-feeder**
388 processes. The average thickness of HD in the type I is 0.85km, the average length of seeding time t2 is 81min, and
389 the average duration of seeding effect time t3 is 47min (the longest among the three types of **the seeder-feeder**
390 process). The average HD thickness of type III is the deepest (1.67 km), and the duration of seeding time t2 and
391 seeding effect duration t3 are longer than those of type II.

392 In order to expose the internal mechanism of the **seeder-feeder** phenomenon, the distribution of probability density
393 with height (DPDH) for the reflectivity factor, radial velocity, spectral width, **particle terminal velocity** and vertical
394 velocity of air flow in these three **seeder-feeder** types were calculated and plotted. Figs 7a1, 7b1 and 7c1 show the
395 differences in the distribution of reflectivity factor with height in the three types before seeding. The differences of
396 **HD** and its height before seeding were clearly shown, and the reflectivity factor of feeding cloud before seeding was
397 small. Figs 7a2, 7b2 and 7c2 clearly show that the reflectivity factor of both seeding and feeding clouds increase
398 during the seeding period, especially the cloud base height of the feeding clouds decreases significantly, indicating
399 that the development of **feeding** clouds caused by seeding is likely to cause precipitation. After seeding, the
400 reflectivity factor of seeding clouds weakened and their thickness thinned (even disappeared in the type III), but the
401 lower part of feeding clouds continued to develop (Figs 7a3, 7b3, 7c3), especially in the type I. The above shows that
402 when the HD is small and its height is low (type I), the seeding cloud has the greatest influence on the **feeding** cloud,
403 because in this case, the distance between the seeding cloud and the feeding cloud is short, and the seeders are easy
404 to affect the **feeding** cloud.



405

406 Figure 7 The DPDHs of reflectivity factor in three types of seeder-feeder process before (t1), during (t2) and after (t3) seeding. The type
 407 I (5 cases) on the left column, the type II (4 cases) in the middle column, and the type III (2 cases) in the right column. Note: the HD of
 408 type I is thin and low in height, the HD of type II is thick and slightly higher in height, and the HD of type III is thick and the highest in
 409 height, the same below.

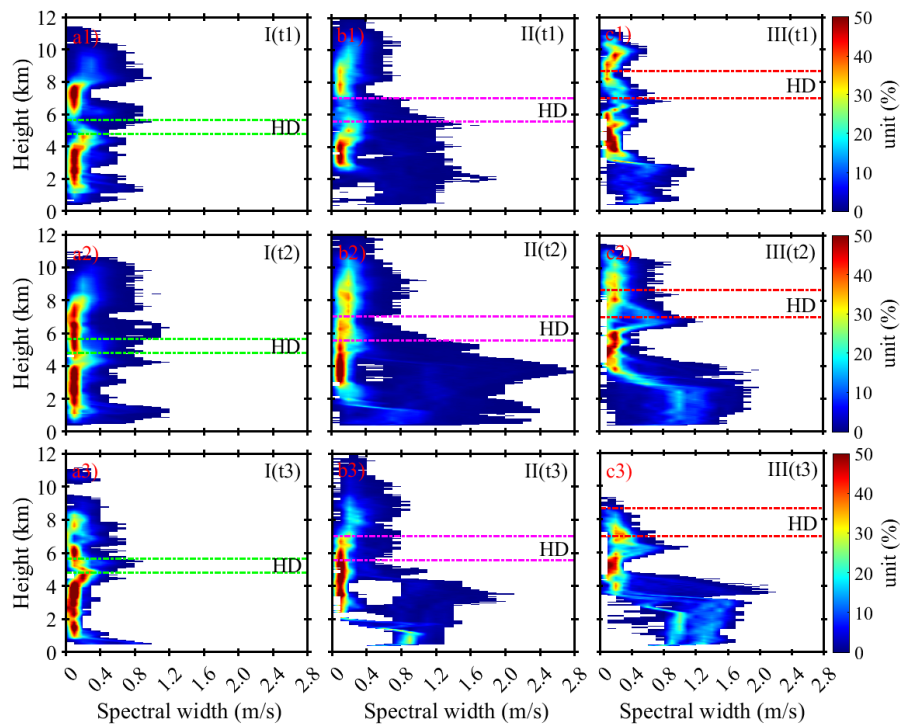


410

411 Figure 8 The DPDHs of radial velocity in three types of seeder-feeder process before (t1), during (t2) and after (t3) seeding.

412 The cloud particle radial velocity detected by MMCR is the actual motion velocity of cloud particles in the cloud,
 413 which can be understood as the synthesis velocity of the vertical air flow velocity and the terminal velocity of cloud
 414 particles. The DPDHs of radial velocity in three types are plotted in Fig. 8, which shows a weak rising movement in

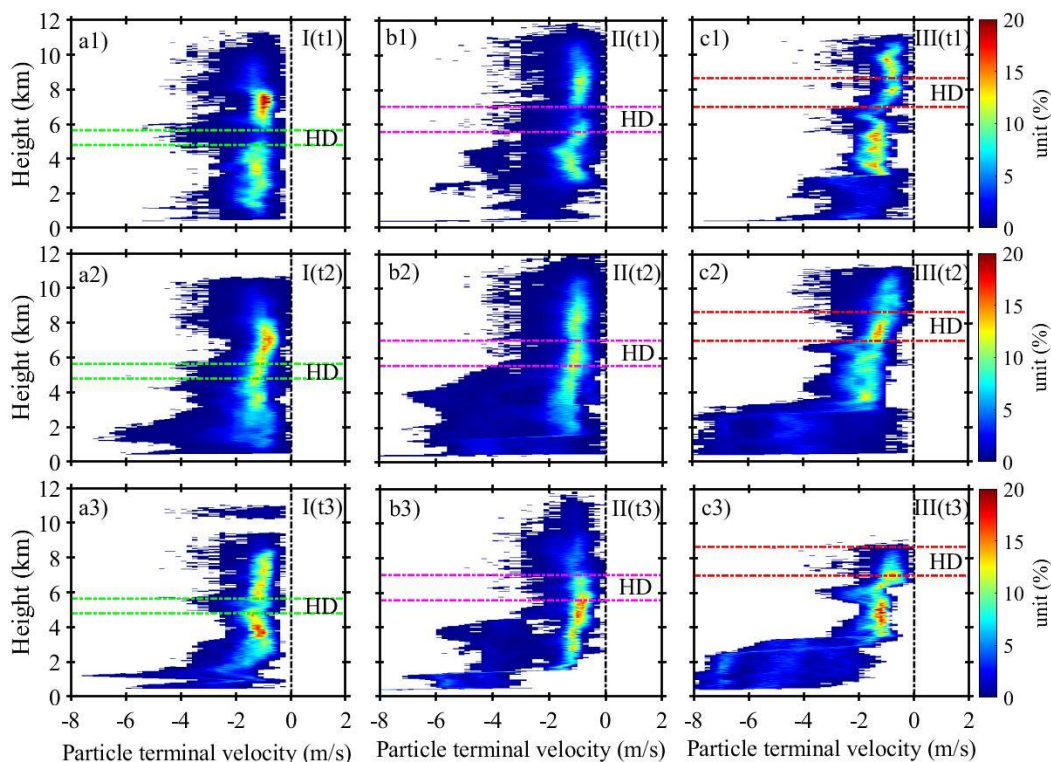
415 the upper part of the seeding cloud before seeding in three types, while a weak sinking movement appears in the
 416 lower part. In the feeding cloud, a weak subsidence exists consistently with slightly larger near the ground. In general,
 417 the radial velocity of most cloud particles in seeding cloud and feeding cloud keeps sinking motion, and the sinking
 418 motion increases with decreasing height. The radial velocity of cloud particles in seeding cloud and feeding cloud
 419 remained the same as before seeding. However, after seeding, the negative radial velocity of cloud particles decreased
 420 (subsidence motion increased) in the first type both seeding and feeding clouds, the same to the second and third
 421 types. In the meantime, seeding clouds disappeared in the third type (consistent with Fig. 7c3). The most important
 422 feature is that the radial velocity of cloud particles increases with the decrease of height from before seeding to
 423 seeding process and after seeding for the three types of seeder-feeder process. After seeding, the negative radial
 424 velocity of cloud particles in the lower part of the feeding cloud decreased significantly.



425
 426 Figure 9 The DPDHs of spectral width in three types of **seeder-feeder** process before (t1), during (t2) and after (t3) seeding.

427 The velocity spectral width of cloud particle detected by MMCR reflects the range of cloud particle velocity. A
 428 larger value indicates a larger change in cloud particle velocity, while a smaller value indicates uniform cloud particle
 429 velocity. Fig. 9 shows the DPDHs of spectral width in three types of seeding and feeding clouds. The figure shows
 430 that the most velocity spectral width of the seeding and feeding clouds is less than 0.4 ms^{-1} , and the distribution of
 431 particle velocity spectral width in the type I is the narrowest (most of them are less than 0.2 ms^{-1}). Moreover, the
 432 velocity spectral width did not change significantly before and during seeding (Figs 9a1 and a2). But it became
 433 significantly narrower after seeding (Fig. 9a3), which indicates a relatively uniform of the velocity of cloud particles.

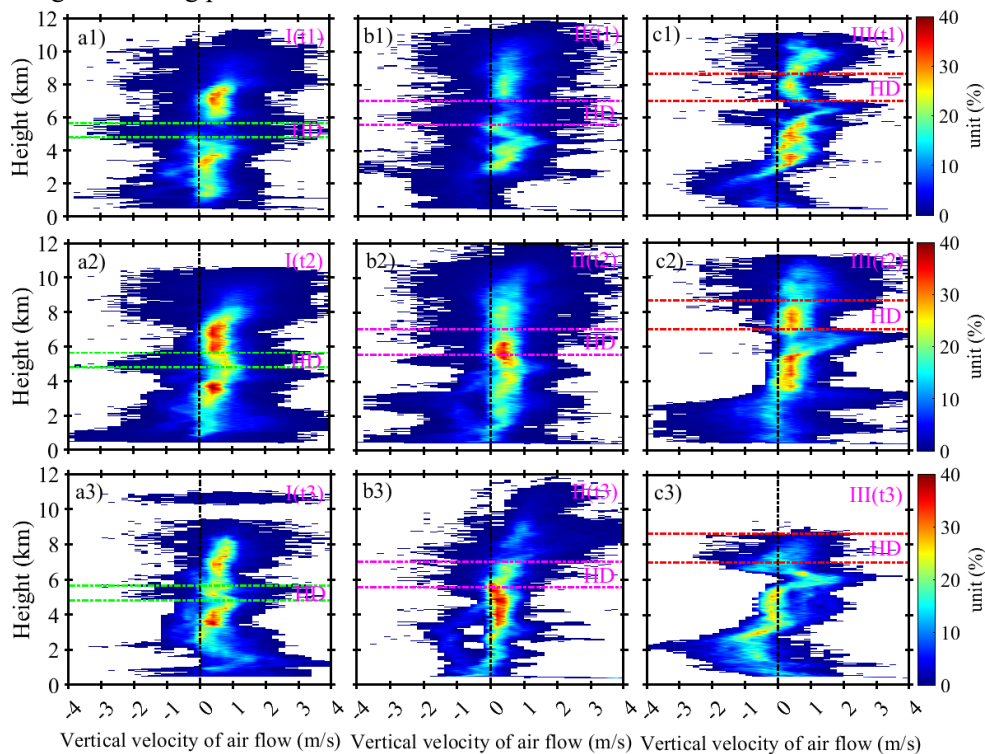
434 That was consistent with the DPDHS of the radial velocity with height as shown in Fig. 8 a3. The velocity spectral
 435 width distribution of the second and third types is wider than that of the type I. The maximum of the velocity spectral
 436 width reaches more than 1.6 ms^{-1} , and the velocity spectral width in feeding clouds is wider than that in seeding
 437 clouds, i.e. the velocity of cloud particles in feeding clouds is greatly different. In the process of seeding, the velocity
 438 spectral width of cloud particles for the type II and III became significantly wider (Figs. 9b2 and c2), which is
 439 evidence of the seeding effect resulting in a wide velocity distribution of cloud particles within the feeding cloud.
 440 After seeding, the velocity spectral width in feeding cloud of the both types still remained relatively wide (Figs. 9b3
 441 and c3). In the HD area, the velocity spectrum width is wider in the type II and III than in the type I during seeding,
 442 which may portend a wider distribution of the cloud particle size in the second and the type III. While in the top of
 443 the feeding cloud, there is a small velocity spectrum width for the three types, which hints the relatively uniform of
 444 cloud particle velocity and the narrow distribution of cloud particle sizes.



445
 446 Figure 10 The DPDHS of the **particle terminal velocity** in three types of **seeder-feeder** process before (t1), during (t2) and after (t3)
 447 seeding.

448 The **terminal velocity** of cloud particles is the net velocity of cloud particles after deducting the air flow velocity
 449 from the radial velocity of cloud particles. As shown in Fig. 10, the DPDHS of the **particle terminal velocity** in the
 450 three types of seeding and feeding clouds varies. In general, the **particle terminal velocity** of the three types mainly
 451 ranges from -0.5 ms^{-1} to -2 ms^{-1} , and the distribution of the **particle terminal velocity** during the seeding process (t2)
 452 and after the seeding process (t3) is wider than that before the seeding (t1). In the seeding process, the **terminal**

453 **velocity** distribution is the widest (the maximum reaching to -6 ms^{-1} in the type II, and to -8 ms^{-1} in the type III). The
 454 **large terminal velocity** of cloud particles is located at the lower part of the feeding cloud after the seeding for the
 455 three types, which is likely to be caused by the seeding effect to increase the size of cloud particles under feeding
 456 clouds. Then, under the action of gravity, the descending speed of cloud particles increases, and even rainfall occurs
 457 (the type III). During the seeding period of the three types (Fig. 10a2, b2, c2), the **terminal velocity** of cloud particles
 458 increased slightly with the descending height from the HD to the top of the feeding cloud, indicating that the size of
 459 seeders of the HD increased during the descending process and when they entered the upper part of the feeding cloud,
 460 which reflected the seeding effect of seeders. In the middle to lower part of the feeding cloud, the distribution of the
 461 **terminal velocity** is wide, which may be caused by the development of the feeding cloud itself. After end of the
 462 seeding in the three types (Figs. 10a3, b3, c3), the **terminal velocity** of cloud particles increases in the middle and
 463 lower part of the feeding cloud, which could be understood as the delay of seeding effect to the lower part of the
 464 feeding cloud during the seeding period.

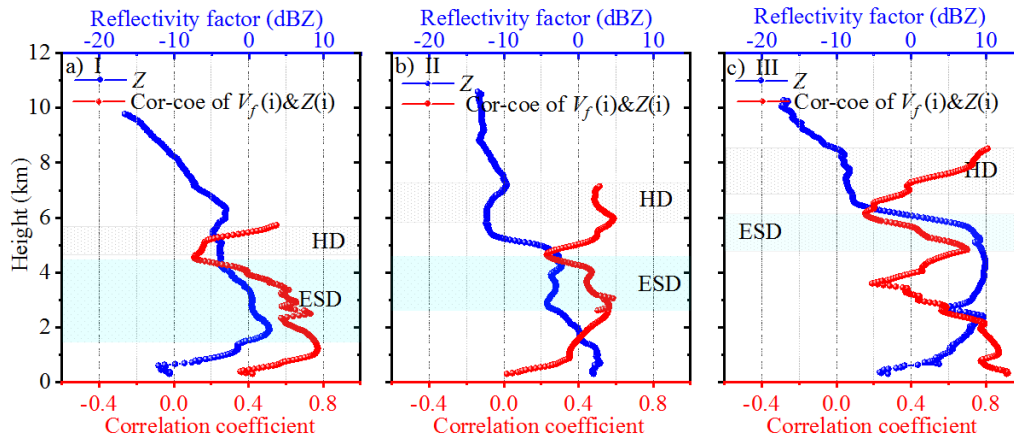


465
 466 Figure 11 The DPDHs of the vertical velocity of air flow in three types of **seeder-feeder** process before (t1), during (t2) and after (t3)
 467 seeding.

468 The vertical velocity distribution of airflow in clouds is **the** reflection of the dynamic structure of clouds. The
 469 airflow in stratiform clouds is usually slow, and the size and concentration of cloud particles change little. Fig. 11
 470 shows the DPDHs of the vertical velocity of airflow in the three types of seeding and feeding clouds. It shows that
 471 updraft and downdraft exist simultaneously in the cloud. The vertical velocity of airflow in the upper part of the
 472 seeding cloud is slightly larger than that in the lower part, which provides meteorological conditions for the growth

473 of ice crystals in the seeding cloud. The updraft transport water vapor needed for the growth of ice particles, and also
474 increases the probability of collision between particles. The updraft velocity at the top of the feeding cloud is also
475 slightly greater than that at the base. There are the slight difference between the three types, among which the type I
476 and II are dominated by weak updrafts before, during and after seeding, and HD region is also dominated by weak
477 updrafts, the updrafts are mainly distributed in the range of $0 \sim 1 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ (probability density is greater than 20%). The
478 probability density of strong or weak updraft (greater than 1 ms^{-1} or less than 0 ms^{-1}) is less than 20%. For the type
479 III, before and during seeding, the DPDHs with height for the vertical velocity of airflow was similar to that of the
480 type I and II, but after seeding, the large downdraft appeared in the HD region and in the middle and lower part of
481 the feeding cloud. Fig. 10c3 also showed that the cloud particles in the lower part of the feeding cloud mainly moved
482 down, and the echo showed that precipitation appeared at the bottom of the feeding cloud.

483 To understand the relationship between cloud particle variation and echo signal, the correlation coefficient between
484 cloud particle terminal velocity and corresponding reflectivity factor in each case of the three types during seeder-
485 feeder period (t_2) was calculated, and then averaged according to different categories. The height of average HD
486 thickness in each type is taken as the basis, and the correlation coefficient profiles and average reflectivity factor
487 profiles of the corresponding categories are obtained, as shown in Fig. 12. The cyan shaded area in the figure is the
488 ESD layer. The average reflectivity factor profiles in the figure show that the height and thickness of the HD layer in
489 the three types continuously increase from the type I to the type III, while the thickness of the ESD layer is on the
490 contrary. The ESD in the type I is the thickest and it is the thinnest in the type III, which gives the conclusion that
491 the HD height is high, and the ESD thickness is thin during seeding process. This process can be understood as that
492 when HD is high, the cloud particles are small (that is, light particles in weight), so their falling speed is also small
493 (see Fig. 10b2), so the depth of their falling into the top layer of the feeding cloud is also small. On the contrary,
494 when the cloud particles in HD are larger (i.e. heavier), the height of HD will be lower, so these particles will enter
495 deeper into the feeding cloud, such as the type I.



496

497 Figure 12 Autocorrelation coefficient profiles (red line) between cloud particle **terminal velocity** and reflectivity factor (blue line) during
 498 seeding (t_2) for the type I (a), the type II (b) and the type III (c)

499 Fig. 12a shows more details in the feeding cloud such as the reflectivity factor increases with the decrease of the
 500 height and reaches the maximum value at 2 km, and the correlation coefficient also increases simultaneously with
 501 the reflectivity factor. That says close relationship between the reflectivity factor and the **terminal velocity** of cloud
 502 particles. The essence is that when the **terminal velocity** of cloud particles is large, it means that the cloud particles
 503 have a large mass and a large scale, then the reflectivity factor must be large. Fig. 10a2 also shows that there are **the**
 504 certain proportion of cloud particles in the middle and lower part of the ESD layer with the large sinking speed.
 505 However, at the **base** of feeding cloud, the reflectivity factor and the correlation coefficient decrease, indicating that
 506 there is basically no seeding effect at the **base** of feeding cloud during t_2 period. The reflectivity factor increased
 507 rapidly but the correlation coefficient decreased rapidly at the top of feeding cloud in the second type. It is estimated
 508 that because the seeders in the HD region just fell into the top of the feeding cloud resulting in the number of cloud
 509 particles increased at the top, but these particles did not have time to grow, so although the echo reflectivity factor
 510 increased, the correlation coefficient decreased rapidly. When the seeders drop to a certain depth in the feeding cloud,
 511 the interaction between cloud particles such as collision occurs so that the correlation coefficient between cloud
 512 particle **terminal velocity** and echo reflectivity factor increases synchronously. Below the ESD region, the correlation
 513 coefficient decreases rapidly with the decrease of height, but the reflectivity factor continues to increase, which is
 514 probably caused by the high number of particles in the layer. In the third type, as the seeders enter the ESD region
 515 the reflectivity factor increases rapidly with the decrease of height together with the correlation coefficient increasing
 516 rapidly to the maximum. In the height from 5 km to 3.5 km, the correlation coefficient decreases obviously with the
 517 decrease of height, but the reflectivity factor maintains a large value (about 10 dBZ), which may indicate the high
 518 concentration of cloud particle in the height. In the lower part of the feeding cloud, the reflectivity factor decreases
 519 with the decrease of the height, while the correlation coefficient increases, indicating that the particle **terminal**

520 **velocity** in this height also decreases. It is likely that the cloud particles are so small that some of them evaporate,
521 causing both the reflectivity factor and the final particle velocity to decrease simultaneously. In general, the depth of
522 seeders injecting the feeding cloud is limited, and **the lower the height and thinner the thickness of HD, the lower the**
523 **height and thicker the thickness of ESD.**

524 **5. Conclusions**

525 In this paper, the data of bilayer cloud in winter to the next spring detected by MWCR are analyzed, and the seeder-
526 feeder phenomenon between the bilayer clouds in Xi 'an area is found. By defining the key parameters of the seeding
527 cloud and the feeding cloud, such as the HD between the bilayer cloud and the ESD of the **feeding** cloud, the
528 calculation method of the parametric probability density distribution with height and the analysis method of the
529 correlation coefficient profile between the cloud particle **terminal** velocity and the reflectivity factor are adopted. The
530 results show that: (1) During the 11 cases of bilayer cloud seeding and feeding **process**, the seeding effect had the
531 significant impact on the macro- and micro- parameters of the feeding cloud, which was mainly manifested in that
532 the seeding effect caused the significant increase of the reflectivity factor and the **terminal velocity** of cloud particles
533 in the feeding cloud. Therefore, it was speculated that the seeding effect caused **the** significant increase in the particle
534 size of the feeding cloud. (2) According to the distribution characteristics of ESD thickness and height, the **seeder-**
535 **feeder** process of bilayer cloud can be divided into three categories, the type I has thin HD layer with low height, and
536 its ESD layer is thick; The type III has thick HD layer with high height, its ESD layer **is** thin; The values of both HD
537 and ESD of the type II lie between the type I and III. It can be inferred that the lower the height and thinner the
538 thickness of HD, the lower the height and thicker the thickness of ESD; the reverse is also true. (3) According to the
539 analysis results of 11 cases, the seeder-feeder process and related parameter distribution of **the** bilayer stratiform
540 cloud are shown in Fig. 13, that is, during the evolution of bilayer cloud, the phenomenon of cloud particles from the
541 lower part of the upper-layer cloud seeding the lower-layer cloud will occur under appropriate weather background,
542 that is, the distribution of air flow is unique with the height, and there is the relatively obvious updraft at the top of
543 the seeding cloud. In the seeding layer (HD region and ESD region), the sinking motion of air flow and cloud particles
544 is obvious, and when there is rainfall, the sinking motion at the **base** of the feeding cloud is stronger, and there is a
545 small amount of down-flow region in the seeding cloud and the feeding cloud, but weak up-flow in the bilayer cloud.
546 The seeding process can last up to 2 hours, but most seeding lasts for tens of minutes. Generally, seeding takes place
547 at -25°C to -10°C within the cloud. The seeding effect plays actions on the precipitation (rain or snow) intensity in
548 the feeding cloud will be shown in the results of subsequent studies.

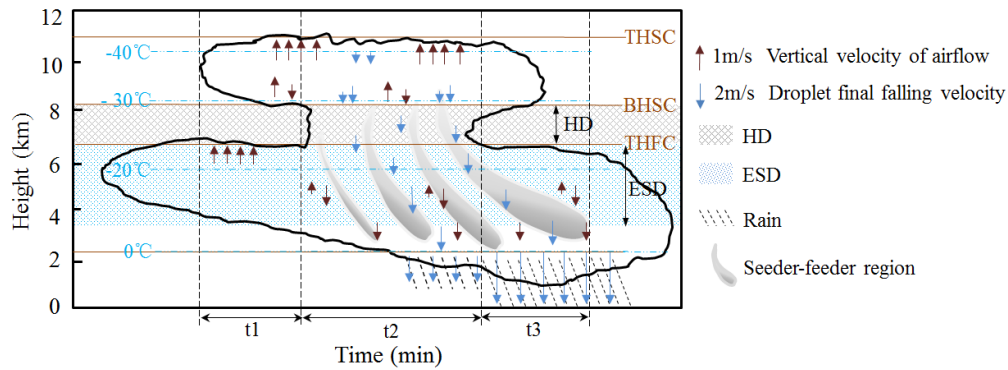


Figure 13 Schematic diagram of the natural seeder-feeder process and related parameter distribution.

549

550

551 Data availability

552 The data and codes related to this article are available upon request from the corresponding author.

553 Author contributions

554 Conceptualization: Huige Di

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562 Competing interests

563 The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest related to this work.

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