

Introducing the Video In Situ Snowfall Sensor (VISSS) Response to the reviewers

Maximilian Maahn, Dmitri Moisseev, Isabelle Steinke,
Nina Maherndl, and Matthew D. Shupe

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Original Referee comments are in italic

manuscript text is indented, with added text underlined and ~~removed-text
crossed-out.~~

We would like to thank the reviewers for their very helpful comments. We revised the manuscript and responded to all of the reviewers' comments.

Besides addressing the reviewers' comments, we also included a description of the new tracking algorithm to the manuscript.

1 Review by Thomas Kuhn

The manuscript describes a new instrument to image individual snowflakes. It represents a relevant and useful contribution to the relatively few instruments that image snowflakes and collect detailed information on snowfall in this way. VISSS, the new instrument, is in its working principle similar to the SVI/PIP as they both use video imaging of a relatively large sampling volume (5cm x 5cm x 5cm) with illumination from the back. The VISSS has an improved resolution as well as better optics to minimizing sizing errors. The VISSS is different from SVI/PIP as it uses two video cameras with orthogonal viewing directions. The 2-DVD uses already a similar approach, however, with lower-resolution line cameras and issues when reconstructing images from the recorded lines. Thus, the VISSS provides more reliable data. The two viewing directions of the VISSS allow to properly define the sampling volume independent of the imaged particle's size.

This is an important advantage of the VISSS. In addition, the two views provide of course more information on each single particle. Even more information can be derived from the multiple exposures of the same snow particle as it is falling through the sampling volume, for example the fall speed.

I am complementing the authors to their open approach publishing all design and software.

I recommend publication of this manuscript after a minor revision that should address a few questions and issues that I am describing below. I am first raising a few important points and then give feedback on other minor things or suggest corrections.

We thank Thomas Kuhn for the extensive review and very constructive comments.

Important points – specific comments

1) Resolution

When talking about "resolution" (e.g. L 74 "resolution of 43 to 59 $\mu\text{m}/\text{px}$ ") you almost exclusively refer to what I would call "pixel resolution", i.e. what size on the object does one pixel on the image correspond to. To properly characterize an instruments capability to resolve fine details one should give both the pixel resolution as well as the actual optical resolution that is realized with the imaging system. Optical resolution may be defined and measured in several ways, but I would propose to simply state (and show with examples) what the finest detail is that can be resolved. Even if the optical resolution of the optics may be better, I doubt that the finest detail that can be resolved is on the order of one pixel. Looking at example images in Fig.3, I would estimate the finest detail that can be resolved to be on the order of 100 μm .

see below.

In L 112 "quality of the lens proved to be borderline for the applications, resulting in slightly blurred particle images" you touch on optical resolution.

Thanks for pointing this out, we use the term pixel resolution consistently now. We tested the actual resolution with a microscope lens with 100 μm ticks resolution and we would say the results are generally consistent with the resolution of 58.75 μm and 43.125 μm for the VISSS1 and VISSS2, respectively (see Fig. R.1). However, we would have expected slightly clearer tick marks for the VISSS2 so the optical resolution is likely in the order of 50 μm . We modified:

However, the optical quality of the lens proved to be borderline for the applications, resulting in [an estimated optical resolution of approximately 50 \$\mu\text{m}\$](#)

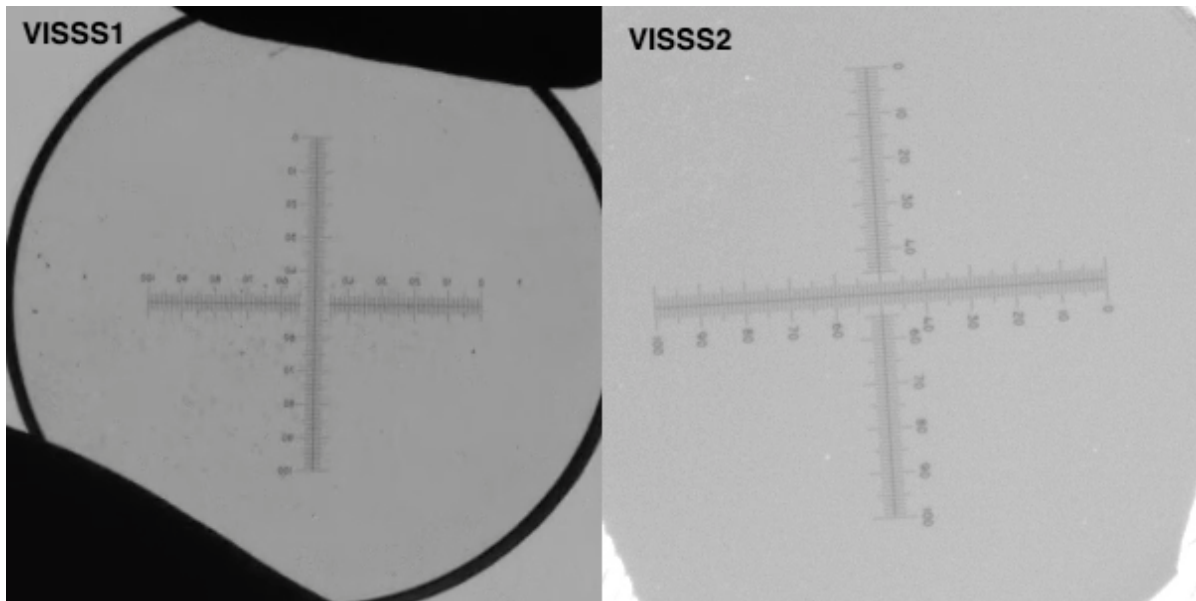


Figure R.1: Microscope scale observation with VISSS1 (left, on 21-09-07) and VISSS2 (right, on 21-10-09).

and slightly blurred particle images; ~~so~~. Consequently, the lens was changed again for the third generation VISSS3 (currently under construction), which ~~also~~ has a working distance of 1300 mm.

2) Calibration

The calibration you present in Sect 3.6 compares the diameter in pixels determined using the image processing (Sect.3.1) to the actual diameter of reference spheres. The slope of the fitted relationship shown in Eq. 5 (or 6) corresponds to the pixel resolution (which you confirmed with an imaged millimeter scale). The interesting result of the calibration (that you cannot get from the millimeter scale) is the offset in Eq. 5. Of course, you should then use the inverse of Eq.5 to convert determined size in pixels to μm . Then, whatever caused the offset will be taken care of. I am wondering why a similar calibration is not done for area and perimeter. You could determine, similar to Eq.5, relationships between determined properties in pixels and actual properties of the reference sphere. This would account for certain effects of the image processing (at least for spheres). I think this would be more accurate than simply using the slope only for converting areas and perimeters.

see below.

I don't agree with your explanation of the offset. L 283 "the D_{max} estimator used to process the images often rounds up to the next full pixel" sounds difficult to believe. If

this is true, then I highly recommend that you change the D_{max} estimator function. I expect that the offset, at least in part, is due to image processing. After all processing steps (Gaussian blur, Canny filter, dilation, finding the contour, filling and eroding the contour) the resulting size may be offset with a certain bias. I would be curious what would happen to artificial particle images during processing. Take for example a $2px$ by $2px$ square (which should have a D_{max} of about $2.8px$, cross-sectional area of $4px$, and perimeter of $8px$) and see what properties will be determined. If you would do this for a few sizes, you could find a relationship as in Eq.5.

Thanks for pointing this out, the explanation of the offset was indeed not correct. We followed the suggestion of using synthetic observations to get further insights into the calibration and rewrote the whole calibration section:

Calibration is required to convert D_{max} , D_{eq} , and p from pixels to μm . It depends not only on the optical properties of the lens but also on the used computer vision routines. Calibration is obtained using reference steel or ceramic spheres with 1 to 3 mm diameter that are dropped into the VISSS observation volume. After processing using the standard VISSS routines, the estimated sizes are compared to the expected ones. A linear least square fit is applied to the ~~276-604~~ reference sphere observations obtained at Hyttiälä and SAIL resulting in

$$D_{px_{max}}[px] = (0.0169710.01700 \pm 0.000015.00001) \cdot D_{um_{max}}[um] + (0.3493030.49301 \pm 0.027170.0210) \quad (1)$$

for the VISSS1 (Fig. 5.a) and

$$D_{px_{max}}[px] = (0.0230470.02311 \pm 0.000050.00003) \cdot D_{um_{max}}[um] + (0.9005930.81569 \pm 0.078123.0699) \quad (2)$$

for the VISSS2 based on ~~182 samples - 372 samples~~ from Ny-Ålesund (Fig. 5.b). The inverse of the slope is ~~58.92-58.832~~ $\mu m px^{-1}$ (~~43.389-43.266~~ $\mu m px^{-1}$) and is close to the manufacturer's specification of $58.75 \mu m px^{-1}$ ($43.125 \mu m px^{-1}$) for the VISSS1 (VISSS2). The random error estimated from the normalized root mean square error obtained from the difference between observed and expected size is less than 0.8% indicating that random errors are negligible. To investigate the source of the non-zero intercept is caused by the fact that the, we also tested the VISSS computer vision routines with artificially created VISSS images with drawn spheres and compared the expected to measured D_{max} estimator used to process the images often rounds up to the next full pixel. For VISSS2, this effect is exacerbated by

the slightly blurrier images. Eqs. 3 and 4 are used to calibrate by a least squares fit (Fig. 5.c). Gaussian blur with a standard deviation between 0 and 3 px was applied to account for a realistic range of blurring due to e.g., motion blur or particles that are slightly out of focus. Note that in addition to that a Gaussian blur filter with a standard deviation of 1.5 px needs to be applied during image processing for the Canny edge detection as discussed above. For the artificial spheres, the obtained slope deviates less than 2% from the expected slope of 1.0, but the offset ranges from 0.6 to 1.5 px caused by the seeming enlargement of the particle due to the applied blur. To investigate the shape dependency of the results, we repeated the experiment with squares (Fig. 5.d). Again, the slope deviates less than 2% from 1.0, but the offset is this time negative with values ranging between -1.4 px and -2.9 px depending on blur. This is because the corners of the square are rounded when applying Gaussian blur so that the true D_{max} , but only the slope is used can no longer be obtained. In summary, the VISSS routines overestimate D_{max} of spheres, but underestimate D_{max} of squares. In reality, the VISSS observes a wide range of different shapes that can be both rather spherical or rather complex with "pointy" corners. Therefore, we decided to set the intercept to 0 when calibrating D_{max} which can cause a particle shape dependent bias of ± 4 to calibrate D_{eq} , perimeter $\pm 6\%$. For particles smaller than 10 px, this bias can be slightly larger due to discretization errors as can be seen from the larger impact of blur for small squares (Fig. 5.d).

For better comparison with D_{max} , and area because potential biases from the image processing routines have not been characterized. Analyzing reference spheres would not be helpful because the shape complexity of spheres is much smaller than for real snow particles. D_{eq} is used instead of A for testing the computer vision method for estimating A (Fig 5.e-h). The results are almost identical to D_{max} so that the slopes derived from D_{max} are applied to D_{eq} (and consequently A) as well.

For the perimeter p (Fig. 5.i-l), the slopes derived from the reference spheres are about 5% steeper than for D_{max} indicating that VISSS p are biased high. This bias is also found for artificial spheres independent of the applied additional blur. Therefore, this bias is related to the image processing and most likely caused by the Gaussian blur required for the Canny edge detection. For squares, however, the slope is close to 1 likely due to compensating effects caused by "cutting corners" of the algorithm. In reality, the VISSS observes more complex particles for which the perimeter increases with decreasing scale. (compare to coast line paradox, Mandelbrot, 1967). Therefore, we conclude that it is extremely unlikely that the perimeter of real particles is biased high like for artificial spheres but rather biased low depending on complexity. As a pragmatic approach, we also apply the D_{max} slope to p but stress that p has a considerably higher uncertainty than D_{max} or D_{eq} .

3) Smallest particle

It would be interesting to know what the smallest particles are that can be measured (or are considered). I have read somewhere a condition of $\geq 2px$ for size and $\geq 2px$ for area. I am not sure that $2px$ is really a meaningful limit. This is related to my comments on calibration and resolution above. After imposing your $2px$ -conditions, do you actually observe $2px$ -particles? If yes, did you examine them by looking at the actual images compared to the contour? If you took a $2px$ artificial particle, what size and area would be determined by image processing? After such testing, could you state what the smallest particles are that can be measured?

The 2 px for D_{max} and area limit was motivated by avoiding that the particle detection picks up noise as particles and is actually quite conservative. We looked extensively at individual particles and the results of the particle detection and also small particles are correctly sized. This can be also seen from the size distributions in Fig. 8. The left most data point for D_{max} in Fig. 8.d corresponds to the size class 2 to 3 pixels. When using D_{eq} , there is even data in the size class 1 to 2 pixels because an area of 2 px corresponds to an D_{eq} of 1.6 px. We are actually more concerned whether all these small particles are actually all detected or whether some of them are skipped because the thresholds of D_{max} , area, and blur are not reached for every frame. We added:

In the absence of a reference instrument for smaller particles in Hyytiälä or reference spheres with diameters smaller than 0.5 mm, the performance of the VISSS for observing small particles with $D < 0.5$ mm is difficult to assess. Particles close to the thresholds for size, area, and blur might be rejected for parts of the observed trajectory which could explain the decrease in VISSS number concentration for small particle sizes.

See above for discussion of artificial particles.

In Fig 7 you show only particles larger than about 10px. Is this the smallest particle?

No, the 10 px threshold is only for plotting because the shape of smaller particles cannot be recognized anyhow. We moved this information to the caption to give context.

Even though particles ≥ 2 px are processed, only particles with $D_{max} \geq 0.59$ mm (10 px (0.59 mm)) are shown because the particle shape of smaller particles cannot be identified.

4) Sizing errors

Apart from Eq. 5, you don't seem to estimate an error in sizing. In addition to the uncertainties captured by the calibration (Eq. 5), I would expect image blur to cause an

error. Particles moving at typical fall speeds, may blur during the 60 μ s exposure time by about 1px. This may introduce an additional error. Was calibration done with moving or stationary reference spheres? As a result, calibration may or may not account for motion blur. All image processing related effects should be accounted for by calibration, then the error related to these effects could be less than 0.1px given the uncertainties in offset in Eq.s 5 and 6. It would be good to briefly discuss sizing errors, speculate about motion blur or potentially other error sources (e.g. can we assume that the telecentric lenses completely eliminate sizing errors), and give an estimated error (perhaps depending on size). Can this error be smaller than the finest detail that can be resolved (optical resolution of your imaging system, see my comments on Resolution above)?

Yes, calibration was done with a moving sphere so all image processing related effects should be accounted for to the extent this is possible when using spheres. We extended:

Calibration is obtained using reference steel or ceramic spheres with 1 to 3 mm diameter that are dropped into the VISSS observation volume.

Regarding blur we added

Image quality is potentially also impacted by motion blur and the exposure time of 60 μ s was selected to limit motion blur of particles falling at 1 m/s to 1.02 and 1.44 pixels for VISSS1 and VISSS2, respectively. Particle blur can also occur when particles are not exactly in focus of the lenses. The maximum circle of confusion is 1.3 pixels at the edges of the observation volume.

Regarding telecentricity, we added:

The millimeter pattern calibration did not reveal any dependence on the position in the observation volume so that errors related to imperfect telecentricity of the lenses can be likely neglected.

L 369 “ $D < 0.3$ mm indicating that discretization errors can become substantial for $D < 0.3$ mm”: this “discretization” errors could be discussed better in the context of sizing errors.

We added to the discussion of artificial squares:

For particles smaller than 10 px, this bias can be slightly larger due to discretization errors as can be seen from the larger impact of blur for small squares (Fig. 5.d).

5) Error if only one camera used

I find it misleading to call the difference in D_{max} determined from the two cameras' images a "sizing error" (L 97) or "errors in D_{max} ... if only a single camera were used" (Sect 4.3 L 380-381). The difference shows how much D_{max} can vary with viewing direction for a particle with a certain shape. I would argue that this is not an error. While D_{max} is defined for a two-dimensional images, it seems that you assume there is a true D_{max} (max of D_{max} as viewed from all different directions, equivalent to D_{max} if one were to define it three-dimensionally). I am not sure about a potential radar bias from D_{max} that is underestimated with respect to this max D_{max} . Would the radar signal vary with particle orientation in a similar way as D_{max} varies with orientation? Then the true radar signal could not be estimated assuming that all particles have max D_{max} .

We agree with the reviewer that calling it as an error was slightly misleading, we removed that language. We rewrote the whole section to simplify the analysis and also to discuss the advantage when using tracking. However, there is indeed a "true" D_{max} that is relevant for radar forward operators and when estimating mass-size relations. Particle single scattering properties in the microwave are almost always parameterized as a function of D_{max} for snow. Also, it is commonly assumed that particles fall horizontally aligned so that a cloud radar really "sees" D_{max} . The updated section reads:

~~The two-camera VISSS setup allows for quantification of the errors in Here, we quantify the advantage of observing multiple orientations of a particle with the VISSS. For this, we compare one minute values of mean D_{max} , aspect ratio AR , cross-sectional area A , and perimeter D_{eq} and p that would be made if only obtained from a single camera were used (Fig. 10). The errors are defined as the normalized difference between the maximum observation of D_{max} , A , and p from the pair of cameras and the observation of the leader camera alone, using the maximum value obtained from both cameras, and the maximum value obtained during the observed particle track (Fig. 10.a-c). For AR , the minimum of both observations the two cameras and along the track is used instead. A positive error indicates that the observation of a single camera would be too small. For this assessment of the maximum (Fig. 10.d). To evaluate the effect of particle type, three cases with mostly dendritic aggregates dendritic aggregates (6 December 2021, 07:19 - 12:30 UTC), needles (5 January 2022, 00:00 - 14:30 UTC), and graupel (6 December 2021, 00:00 - 04:50; 13:30 - 14:20; 21:15-24:00 and 5 January 2022, 15:00 - 16:40; 19:40 -20:50 UTC) are analyzed using the levelmatch product, which contains properties for each observed matched particle. As expected from the highly irregular shape, the errors are largest for needles. The errors peak around 0.7 mm for used. The change in observed values is strongest for needles, which are the most complex particles, where when using two cameras D_{max} , ARD_{eq} , A , and p with mean values of 15, -88, 18,~~

~~and~~, and AR change by 16%, 10%, 14%, and -12% , respectively, and when additionally considering tracking change by 24%, 19%, 24%, and -27% , respectively. ~~Due to aggregation forming more spherical needle aggregates, the error decreases for larger sizes. For graupel particles, the error is typically less than 10% (for~~ Changes for dendritic aggregates and graupel are less and surprisingly similar: D_{max} increases by 8% and 7% (13% and 16%), D_{eq} increases by 6% and 6% (14% and 14%), and p increases by 7% and 7% (19% and 16%), respectively, when using two cameras (two cameras with tracking). The dependency of particle properties to orientation can be also seen from the fact that mean AR ~~about -30%)~~ decreases from 0.62 to 0.54 and ~~slightly larger for dendritic aggregates~~ 0.42 for aggregates and from 0.73 to 0.67 and 0.54 for graupel highlighting that orientating matters even for graupel.

Underestimating D_{max} can lead to biases when using commonly used D_{max} based power laws for particle mass (Mitchell, 1996) or when using in situ observations to forward model radar observations. This is because scattering properties of non-spherical particles are typically parameterized as a function of D_{max} (Mishchenko et al., 1996; Hogan et al., 2012). Further, particle scattering properties are also impacted by the distribution of particle mass along the path of propagation (Hogan and Westbrook, 2014) which is impacted by AR . To analyze how the ~~error in different~~ D_{max} and AR estimates affects the simulated radar reflectivity ~~for vertically pointing cloud radar observations at 94 GHz~~, we use the ~~the~~ PAMTRA radar simulator (Passive and Active Microwave radiative TRAnsfer tool, Mech et al., 2020) with the riming-dependent parameterization of the particle scattering properties (Maherndl et al., 2023) ~~—The error in assuming horizontal particle orientation~~ (Sassen, 1977; Hogan et al., 2002). Using two cameras (i.e., ~~$\max(D_{max})$ translates into mean errors between 0.8 dB (aggregates) and 2.11 dB (needles).~~ ~~This is less than the~~, $\min(AR)$) increases mean Z_e values by 2.1, 2.5 and 1.8 dB for aggregates, needles, and graupel, respectively. When exploiting also the varying orientations during tracking, the offsets increase to 4.5, 4.6, and 3.7 dB, respectively, which is considerably larger than the commonly used measurement uncertainty of 1 dB for cloud radars. The change in Z_e is similar to the 3.2 dB found by Wood et al. (2013) using idealized particles, ~~but this is likely related to the fact that two perspectives as provided by the VISSS are not sufficient to provide the true D_{max} . Also, the use of idealized particles might lead to an overestimation of the bias.~~

L 97-99: “Leinonen et al. (2021) found that using only a single perspective for sizing snow particles can lead to a normalized root mean square error of 6% for D_{max} and Wood et al. (2013) estimated the resulting bias in simulated radar reflectivity to be 3.2 dB.” Could you explain the 6% found by Leinonen 2021 (I couldn’t find it by quickly looking at this reference)?

The 6% are taken from Table 2 of Leinonen et al. (2021) by comparing $\max(D_{max})$ of the three MASC cameras to a single camera view.

Wood 2013 refers to using disdrometer measurements of size taken instead of D_{max} . They estimated that $D_{disdro} = 0.82 D_{max}$, i.e. an effect of sizes 18% smaller than D_{max} .

Yes, but the SVI used in the Wood et al. 2013 study uses the same size definition as the VISSS. As discussed in Appendix A of Wood et al. 2013, the offset of 3.2 dB is estimated from $D_{SVI,f} = 0.82 D_{max}$ where $D_{SVI,f}$ is the "distance between the two furthest removed points on the SVI particle image", i.e. the maximum extent of the projected image like for a single VISSS image (see their Figure 2).

So, I am wondering how relevant this discussion around these "sizing errors" is. Additionally, I am wondering if D_{max} is always the best size to use to simulate radar signals.

See above.

6) Sampling volume

The sampling volume is well defined by the intersection of the viewing volumes of the two cameras. Thus, deriving particle concentrations should be possible. It is not clear if this is actually done (or part of future work). See also the comment about L 294-295 below: does the sampling volume depend on particle size due to the "buffer" that is removed?

Yes, particle concentrations are retrieved as discussed in section 3.5. They are calibrated using the observation volume estimation in section 3.6. To make this more clear, we rephrased the beginning of section 3.5

To estimate ~~particle distributions, the~~ the particle size distribution (PSD), i.e., the particle number concentration as a function of size,...

and modified section 3.6

~~Part of the calibration is to characterize the~~ Calibration of the PSD also requires to obtain the exact size of the observation volume.

7) Clarity in descriptions in Sect. 3

In a few places, things remain unclear. It can be seemingly small details that make that things can be come unclear. In particular, many parts of Sect. 3 suffer from this and should be reviewed. Here are things that can be improved:

We address the following four comments together.

L144: specify more what ROI is here?

L148 “few blurred pixels around the particle that would introduce a bias”: Unclear what this means.

L146 “commonly used background detection algorithms”: What are these, algorithms to detect background?

L151-152: “Since filling the contour also closes potential holes in the particles, the background detection and Canny filter masks are combined”: What are these two masks (only mentioned here), what is the result of this combination?

We rewrote that paragraph to improve clarity

Because snow may stick to the camera window, individual particles within a video frame cannot be identified by image brightness. Instead, the moving region of interest (ROI) is identified by openCV’s ~~BackgroundSubtractorCNT class~~ BackgroundSubtractorKNN class (Zivkovic and van der Heijden, 2006) in the image coordinate system (horizontal dimension X , vertical dimension Y pointing to the ground). ~~This routine is faster than commonly used background detection algorithms, but still works well with the relatively simple detection problem of VISSS. The ROI~~ The moving mask identified by the background subtraction methods cannot be used directly for particle ~~sizing because it contains a few blurred pixels around the particle that would introduce a bias. Therefore~~ detection because the particles in the moving foreground mask are systematically too large. For each particle, we select a 10 pixel padded box around the ~~ROI and~~ region of interest (ROI) which is the smallest non-rotated rectangular box around the particle (Fig. 3). ~~Then, we~~ use openCV’s Canny ~~filter-edge detection~~ filter-edge detection (after applying a Gaussian blur with a standard deviation of 1.5 pixels) to identify the edges of the ~~partieles~~ particle and the corresponding particle masks. To fill in small gaps in the particle contour, we ~~use dilate dilate the~~ dilate the contour by 1 pixel, fill the contour, erode by 1 pixel, and identify the new contour. ~~Since filling the contour also~~ This method closes potential holes in the ~~partieles, the background detection and Canny filter masks are combined~~ particle mask that should be retained to avoid overestimation of particle area. Therefore, the final particle mask contains only values confirmed by the Canny filter and the background detection mask.

Note that the background detection method cited in the first draft of the paper was not the actually used one. We changed it to the correct one.

Define AR and alpha (is AR betw 0 and 1 or >1?; alpha is angle between?)

Added.

L 181-182 “The minimum resolution of 1 pixel is accounted for by integrating the probability density function (PDF) for an interval of +/- 0.5 pixels.”

What does this sentence mean? What is “minimum resolution of 1 px”?

We expanded:

That is, it is assumed that the difference in vertical extent Δh (vertical position Δz) between the two cameras follows a ~~normal distribution~~ normally distributed probability density function (PDF) with mean zero and standard deviation 1.7 px (1.2 px), based on an analysis of manually matched particle pairs. ~~The minimum resolution of 1 pixel is accounted for by integrating the probability density function (PDF)~~ Since pixel measurements are discrete with 1 px steps, the PDF is integrated for an interval of ~~+/- ±~~ +/- ± 0.5 ~~pixelspx~~.

We address the following four comments together:

L 183 “This process requires matching the time stamps (“capture time”) of both cameras”: You say that matching requires “capture time”, but then you match capture id instead. Then you use “recording time” to match capture id’s. This is confusing.

L 186-190: Unclear method to find capture id offset: Why 500 frames?

Why “This takes advantage of the fact that only moving frames are recorded.”?

Why max 1ms in recording time? Not using capture time, but then use time (not more than 1ms apart)?

The time matching is indeed complicated. To address all four comments above, we expanded:

This process requires matching the ~~time stamps~~ observations of both cameras in time. ~~The internal clocks of the cameras (“capture time”) of both cameras.~~ ~~The follower camera’s clock can be off~~ can deviate by more than 1 frame per 10 minutes. The time assigned by the computers (“~~recording~~ record time”) is sometimes, but not always, distorted by computer load. Therefore, the continuous frame index (~~capture id~~ capture id) is used for matching, but this requires determining the index offset between both cameras. ~~This takes advantage of the fact that only moving frames are recorded.~~ ~~If particles are present in the joint observation volume, both cameras will record a frame.~~ ~~Therefore, for a subset of 500 leader frames, at the start of each measurement (typically 10 minutes).~~ For this, the algorithm uses pairs of frames with observed particles that are less than 1 ms ~~apart in recording~~

~~time are identified and the~~ (i.e. less than 1/4 of the measurement resolution) apart in record time assuming that the lag due to computer load is only sporadically increased. This allow to identify the most common capture id offset is used. of the frame pairs. We found that this method gives already stable results for a subset of 500 frames.

Can there be missing frames or varying frame rate?

The frame rate is stable, but missing frames are possible. Therefore capture id is used instead of counting frames.

L 194 “The joint product of the integrated PDF intervals”: Is this the product of the probabilities (according to the PDFs) to have Delta h, z, i?

Yes, we rephrased accordingly.

Can you explain why 0.1% are falsely rejected (due to larger than normal Delta i?)?

If the probabilities of all three parameters (h, z, i) are correct, the probability that a really observed particle has a match score below 0.001 is 0.001 (or 0.1%). This would result in a false rejection.

In Sect 3.3 you refer to effects of misalignment but may call it “vertical alignment” or “rotation”. Try to use a consistent terminology and clear and concise description.

We now use misalignment exclusively.

L 200-201: When is a particle observed by only one camera? Only if outside common observation volume? State that larger particles means lower ratio.

We added “outside the common observation volume”.

”impossible” (L 206) too strong, since you then show how it can be done: Bayesian L 225 is applied to matched particles to get rotation state; matching done as described in L229-236 only using Delta h)

Changed to

..., but this would ~~make it impossible to not allow to generally~~ use the vertical position to match particles from both cameras (see above).

Potentially confusing that you use Y-L and Z-L, and then y-L and z-L, which are not the same. Maybe mention somewhere that you use capitals for...

Note that small letters describe the three dimensional coordinate system and capital letters describe the two dimensional position on the images of

the individual camera images.

L 215: Why can you assume $\psi=0$? Eq. 2-4 should be simplified using $\psi=0$.

Thanks for pointing this out. We simplified the equation and added

We ~~neglect~~ cannot derive ψ because it is not expected to affect the matching significantly from the observation and we have no choice but to neglect it by assuming $\psi = 0$ to reduce the number of unknowns.

L 227: Unclear why you mention that the retrieval is overconstrained. What does it mean? What are the consequences?

We removed the sentence.

L229-236: The procedure is unclear, try to reformulate. Refer to Eq. (2-4) if they are used in the procedure. Is the Bayesian estimation retrieval mentioned in the previous paragraph applied in this procedure? What are "observed and retrieved particles"? How many manually selected cases? What are "all" particles?

We shortened the paragraph to make it clearer:

The retrieved ~~rotation-misalignment~~ parameters are required for matching, but retrieving the ~~rotation-misalignment~~ parameters requires matched particles ~~to allow comparison of observed and retrieved particles~~. To solve this dilemma, ~~the matching algorithm is applied to manually selected cases for data where only a single, relatively large ($>$)~~ we use an iterative method assuming that misalignment does not change suddenly. The method starts by using the misalignment estimates and uncertainties (inflated by a factor of 10px) particle is detected, so that the matching can be done based on Δh alone, ignoring Δz . The found matched) from the previous time period (10 minutes) to match the particles of the current time period. These particles are used to retrieve ~~the rotation parameters, assuming a priori values of zero for the rotation coefficients values for φ , θ , and O_{fz} , and a large a priori uncertainty of 5° , 5° , and 50 px, respectively. Then, all particles are considered for matching using the normal configuration based on both Δh and Δz . In an iterative process, the retrieved values for φ , θ , and O_{fz} including uncertainties are~~ which are used as a priori input for the next iteration of ~~rotation retrieval until the change~~ misalignment retrieval. The iteration is stopped when the changes in φ , θ , and O_{fz} ~~is~~ are less than the estimated uncertainties. ~~The rotation parameters must be estimated manually after the instrument frames are set up or adjusted, but fluctuations in time are automatically retrieved by the following procedure: the rotation estimates and uncertainties (inflated by a factor of 10) estimated during the previous time step (either automatically or manually obtained) are used~~

~~to match a subset of the data, estimate the current rotation parameters, and re-match the data until stable rotation parameters are obtained, as discussed above.~~ For efficiency, the iterative method is applied only to the first 300 observed particles and the resulting coefficients are stored in the metaRotation product. A drawback of the method is that this processing step requires processing the 10-minute measurement chunks in chronological order, creating a serial bottleneck in the otherwise parallel VISSS processing chain. Obviously, this method does not work when no information is available from the previous time step, e.g., after the instrument was set up or adjusted. To get the starting point for the iteration, the matching algorithm is applied for frames where only a single, relatively large (> 10 px) particle is detected, so that the matching can be done based on particle height difference (Δh) alone, ignoring vertical offset (Δz).

L 249 “pairing the particles closest in space of consecutive frames”: Can this be rephrased to make it clearer?

We rephrased

In this example, the particle velocity is simply estimated by pairing the particles closest in space of consecutive frames.

L 253 “The final tracking algorithm”: What is algorithm used here? ”pairing particles closest in space”?

The tracking algorithm has been updated and the complete section has been rewritten

Tracking a matched particle over time provides its three-dimensional trajectory, from which sedimentation velocity and interaction with turbulence can be determined. Since the natural tumbling of the particles provides new particle perspectives, the estimates of ~~D_{max} and AR can be further improved.~~ A proof of concept showing the potential of VISSS for velocity measurements is shown in Fig. X for a case with both needles and small rimed particles (Hyytiälä, 5 January 2022, 00:00-14:30 UTC). Needles and graupel can be distinguished using the particle complexity c (Eq. 1) which is higher for needles than for graupel. In this example, the particle velocity is simply estimated by pairing the particles closest in space of consecutive frames. Still, it can be clearly seen that more complex particles (i.e. needles) fall slower than less complex particles (i.e. graupel) at the same particle size. Despite the large uncertainty of the simple velocity estimate, needle particles roughly follow a parameterization of found in for unrimed aggregates, while graupel exceeds the velocity for rimed particles in the same study. The final tracking algorithm (under development) will follow a probabilistic approach similar to particle matching. It will take into account that certain properties of a particle, particle properties such as D_{max} , particle complexity c , or average

~~brightness, only change to a certain extent from one frame to the next. Also, the fact that the particle trajectory is typically a smooth curve instead of a zigzag line can be exploited~~ A , p , and AR can be further improved. This can be seen in a composite of a particle (Fig.4.a-b) observed during MOSAiC, which also shows how the multiple perspectives of the particle help to identify its true shape. The example also shows that during MOSAiC the alignment of the cameras was not perfect, resulting in some of the measurements being slightly out of focus; this has been resolved for later campaigns. The tracking algorithm uses a probabilistic approach similar to particle matching taking into account that the particles' velocities only change to a certain extent from one frame to the next. That change can be quantified as a cost derived from the particles' distances and shape differences between two time steps. This allows to use the Hungarian method (Kuhn, 1955) to assign the individual matched particles to particle tracks for each time step in a way that minimizes the costs, i.e. to solve the assignment problem. To account for the fact that the particle's position is expected to change between observations, we use a Kalman filter (Kalman, 1960) to predict a particle's position based on the past trajectory and use the distance δl between predicted and actual position for the cost estimate. Without a past trajectory, the Kalman filter uses a first guess which we derive from the velocities of previously tracked particles. We found that tracking based only on position is unstable and added the difference of particle area (δA , mean of both cameras) to the cost estimate to promote continuity of particle shape. The combined cost is estimated from the product of δl and δA weighted by their expected variance. The performance of the algorithm can be seen for an observation obtained in Hyytiälä on 23 January 2022 04:10 UTC where multiple particles are tracked at the same time (Fig.4.c-d). The results of the tracking algorithm are stored in the level1track product which contains the track id and the same per particle variables as the other level 1 products.

L 259 “measurements being slightly out of focus; this has been resolved for later campaigns”: Is this a result of camera alignment?

Yes, but the location of the cameras relative to each other has been improved for later campaigns.

L 264-265: PSDs are not binned. How is A binned with D_{max} (or D_{eq})?

We clarified:

For both level2 variants, the binned PSD and A , perimeter p , and particle complexity c are ~~binned with both~~ available binned with D_{max} and ~~the particle-area equivalent diameter (D_{eq})~~ to allow comparison with instruments using either size definition. In addition to the distributions, PSD-weighted

mean values are available for A , AR , and c in addition to the first to fourth and sixth moments of the ~~distribution~~-PSD that can be used to describe normalized size distributions (Delanoë et al., 2005; Maahn et al., 2015).

*L275 “The VISSS calibration is tested . . . ” could better be written as something like “The sizing capabilities of the VISSS are calibrated . . . ”: How is Eq 5 used to “calibrate” D_{max} ? The word “calibrate” seems to be the wrong word here. After the calibration, D_{max}/um is determined from D_{max}/px by using the equation (derived from Eq5): $D_{max}/um = (D_{max}/px - 0.35px) * 58.75um/px$.*

The sentence has been removed due to the rewritten calibration section.

L 284-285 “Eqs. 5 and 6 are used to calibrate D_{max} , but only the slope is used to calibrate”: Deq, perimeter, and area because potential biases from the image processing routines have not been characterized” (unclear; refer also to comments under 2) Calibration).

The sentence has been removed due to the rewritten calibration section.

L 288 “difference to the reference spheres is less than 2%.”: What difference? Pixel resolution (slope of Eq 5)?

Yes, this was about the slope. The calibration section has been rewritten as discussed above.

L 289 “Part of the calibration is to . . . ” doesn’t seem good English.

Changed.

L 291 “rectangular cuboid”, better use “cuboid”?

Changed as suggested.

L 291-292 “Therefore, the observation volumes are calculated separately for leader and follower, the eight vertices of the follower observation volume”: Unclear what is done here? What are the eight vertices? Would it be better to extend the depth of the follower volume before intersection

We extended:

~~Part of the calibration is to characterize the~~-Calibration of the PSD also requires to obtain the exact size of the observation volume. For perfectly aligned cameras, this would simply be the volume of a rectangular ~~box~~-cuboid with a base of 1280 px x 1280 px and a height of 1024 px. However, due to ~~the imperfect alignment~~-misalignment of the cameras, the actual joint observation volume is slightly smaller than ~~the rectangular cuboid~~-a rectangular

cuboid and can have an irregular shape. Therefore, the observation volumes are first calculated separately for leader and follower. To calculate the intersection of the two individual observation volumes, the eight vertices of the follower observation volume are rotated to the leader coordinate system, and the OpenSCAD library is used to calculate the intersection of the two ~~bodies is calculated using the OpenSCAD library~~separate observation volumes.

The eight vertices are the eight corners of the rectangular cuboid.

L 294-295 “a buffer of $D_{max}/2$ to the edges of the image is used and the observation volume is reduced accordingly. Finally, the volume is converted from pixels to m^3 using the calibration factor estimated above”: What is a “buffer”? Comment on the $D_{max}/2$ buffer, i.e. particle size dependent observing volume.

We rephrased:

To account for the removal of partially observed particles detected at the edge of the image, ~~a buffer of $D_{max}/2$ to the edges of the image is used and the~~ the effective observation volume is reduced ~~accordingly by $D_{max}/2$ px on~~ all sides.

Other minor things - technical corrections

L 111: I don't see how 600mm working distance and 250Hz results in the given pixel resolution.

Changed.

L 119 “rea- time” should be “real time”

Changed.

L 132-133 “These three processing steps comprise the level1 products”: ENGLISH: object and subject swapped? Anyway, not the processing steps: level1 comprises 5 properties for each particle.

Changed.

L 134 “level1 observations are calibrated”: What does this (“calibrated”) mean?

We added “i.e., converted from pixel in metric units”

Fig 2.: metaRotation is missing?

MetaRotation is in the bottom left corner.

L 175 “XF the vertical position in the follower” seems wrong, should be “X_F is the horizontal position in the follower image”

Changed.

L 194 “Assuming that the probabilities for δh and δy ” (Delta y) seems wrong, should be “... and δz ” (Delta z).

Thanks for catching this, we reformulated the sentence.

L204-205: The observed offsets are not constant and can change due to wind load or pressure of accumulated snow on the VISSS frame.

Have changes in offset and/or rotation been notice on a short time scale (due to wind load)?

We did not observe changes on short time scales, therefore wind load is indeed unlikely. We reformulated:

The observed offsets are not constant and can change due to ~~wind load~~ unstable surfaces or pressure of accumulated snow on the VISSS frame.

L 213 “reader” seems wrong, should be “leader” Changed.

L 251-253: It cannot be clearly seen, but the cloud of points doesn’t seem to follow well the shown parameterizations. The figure has been removed.

Inconsistently high precision: Intercepts in Eq5 and 6 (only 0.349+/-0.027) ”Resolution” of VISSS2 43.13.

Changed so that both numbers contain 5 significant digits.

L 344 “spectra”: I would be consistent in calling this PSD.

Changed as suggested.

L 363 “small sample size”: Be more specific? Few drops? How does sample size affect DSD?

Reformulated to:

For larger droplets, differences are likely related to ~~the small sample size~~ their low frequency of occurrence increasing statistical errors.

L 399 “90deg angle to a common observation volume”: Better not refer the angle to a

volume but: “90deg angle to each other and observe a common observation volume”

Changed as suggested.

L 406 “and integration of particle properties over a size distribution”: Size distributions are determined in this step, NOT properties integrated over a size distribution (could be done as further step, but is not done and meant here).

We reformulated

The VISSS ~~processing scheme consists of a series of products with per-particle (level 1) and size distribution (level 2) properties. Required processing steps~~ processing steps for obtaining per-particle properties include particle detection and sizing, particle matching between the two cameras considering the exact alignment of the cameras to each other, and ~~integration of particle properties over a size distribution. For estimating sedimentation velocity, particle tracking over time is required as well (under development)~~ tracking of individual particles to estimate sedimentation velocity and improve particle property estimates. For level 2 products, the temporally averaged particle properties and size distributions are available in calibrated metric units.

Revise also sentence with “integrated particle size distribution properties” in the Abstract.

We simplified the abstract

VISSS data products include ~~per-particle properties and integrated particle size distribution~~ various particle properties such as ~~particle~~ maximum extent, cross-sectional area, perimeter, complexity, ~~and—in the future—sedimentation and sedimentation~~ velocity.