

1     **Technical note: On the ice microphysics of isolated thunderstorms**  
2     **and non-thunderstorms in southern China: A radar polarimetric**  
3                     **perspective**

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26 **Abstract**

27 Determining whether a cloud will evolve into a thunderstorm is beneficial for understanding  
28 thunderstorm formation and is also important for ensuring the safety of society. However, a clear  
29 understanding of the microphysics of clouds in terms of the occurrence of lightning activity has  
30 not been attained. Vast field observations and laboratory experiments indicate that graupel, which  
31 is rimed ice, is a vital hydrometeor for lightning generation, and is the foundation of riming  
32 electrification. In this study, polarimetric radar and lightning observations are used to compare the  
33 ice microphysics associated with graupel between 57 isolated thunderstorms and 39 isolated  
34 non-thunderstorms, and the differences in radar parameters are quantified. Our results for the  
35 occurrence of lightning activity in clouds revealed the following results: 1) the maximum  
36 difference in graupel volume at the  $-10^{\circ}\text{C}$  isotherm height between thunderstorms and  
37 non-thunderstorms reached approximately  $7.6 \text{ km}^3$ ; 2) the graupel particles approached spherical  
38 shapes with a mean differential reflectivity ( $Z_{\text{DR}}$ ) value of 0.3 dB, which likely indicated that  
39 heavily rimed graupel was present; 3) the median values of horizontal reflectivity ( $Z_{\text{H}}$ ) or  $Z_{\text{DR}}$  at  
40 positions where the source initiation and channel of the first lightning flashes were nearly 31 dBZ  
41 or 0 dB; and 4) 98.2% of the thunderstorms were equipped with a  $Z_{\text{DR}}$  column, and the mean  
42 depth was  $\sim 2.5 \text{ km}$ . Our study deepens our understanding of lightning physics and thunderstorm  
43 formation.

44 **Short summary**

45 Understanding lightning activity is important for meteorology and atmospheric chemistry.  
46 However, the occurrence of lightning activity in clouds is uncertain. In this study, we quantified  
47 the difference between isolated thunderstorms and non-thunderstorms. We showed that lightning  
48 activity was more likely to occur with more graupel volume and/or riming. A deeper  $Z_{\text{DR}}$  column  
49 was associated with lightning occurrence. This information can aid in a deeper understanding of  
50 lightning physics.

51 **Keywords:** thunderstorm; lightning; riming; cloud microphysics

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54 **1. Introduction**

55 Thunderstorms are typically severe convection clouds. Lightning is not only a severe  
56 weather hazard produced by thunderstorms but also a clear signature of thunderstorm formation  
57 (MacGorman and Rust, 1998). Understanding lightning activity (especially for the first lightning  
58 flash, which indicates the start of lightning activity in a cloud) is important for understanding  
59 meteorological processes and the formation of thunderstorms (Uman and Krider, 1989;  
60 Rosenfeld et al., 2008; Fan et al., 2018) and for investigating related atmospheric chemistry, such  
61 as the formation of ozone and the primary oxidant in the troposphere, the hydroxyl radical  
62 (Pickering et al., 2016; Brune et al., 2021).

63 The determination of whether a cloud will evolve into a thunderstorm is very difficult. The  
64 occurrence of lightning activity in clouds is a complex process involving dynamics, microphysics  
65 and electrical processes (e.g., Krehbiel et al., 1979; MacGorman and Rust, 1998; Carey and  
66 Rutledge, 2000; Stolzenburg et al., 2001; Saunders, 2008; Zhang et al., 2009; Lang and Rutledge,  
67 2011; Zhang et al., 2016; Stough and Carey, 2020; Lyu et al., 2023). Moreover, natural lightning  
68 flashes are generally defined as intracloud lightning and cloud-to-ground lightning (Uman and  
69 Krider, 1989). Some studies have indicated that the majority of the first lightning flashes are  
70 intracloud lightning, which was concluded from the statistical results observed by polarimetric  
71 radar and lightning location systems (e.g., Mattos et al., 2017; Zhao et al., 2021a). In addition,  
72 there is a generally accepted electrification cause, especially for clarifying the first lightning flash  
73 occurrence correctly: noninductive charging (NIC) of two ice particles of different sizes during  
74 rebounding collisions in the presence of supercooled droplets, with the smaller ice particle being  
75 the ice crystal and the larger ice particle being the graupel; aerosol provides the cloud  
76 condensation nuclei and ice nuclei for hydrometeor formation, thus playing an important role in  
77 cloud electrification (Takahashi, 1978; Latham, 1981; Saunders et al., 1991; MacGorman and  
78 Rust, 1998; Carey and Rutledge, 2000; Rosenfeld et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2009; Takahashi et  
79 al., 2017, 2019; Qie et al., 2021; Lyu et al., 2023).

80 The NIC was proposed on the basis of cold-chamber laboratory experiments (Reynolds et  
81 al., 1957; Takahashi, 1978); subsequently, field observations demonstrated that lightning  
82 production is critically linked to ice processes (i.e., graupel signatures) (Dye et al., 1986;

83 Takahashi et al., 1999; Carey and Rutledge, 2000; Basarab et al., 2015; Stolzenburg et al., 2015;  
84 Mattos et al., 2016, 2017; Takahashi et al., 2017, 2019; Hayashi et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2022).  
85 Numerical simulation studies also support the NIC mechanism as the main contributor to charge  
86 separation conducive to lightning flash triggering at timescales relevant to storm duration (e.g.,  
87 Helsdon et al., 2001; Mansell et al., 2005; Barthe and Pinty, 2007). Therefore, graupel is a vital  
88 precipitation particle for riming electrification mechanism.

89 Graupel is rimed precipitation ice. However, the mechanisms for graupel formation vary  
90 with cloud type. One pathway to graupel that is very common in warm based clouds worldwide  
91 is the development of rain drops in warm rain collision-coalescence processes (e.g., Brahams,  
92 1986; Beard, 1992; Herzegh and Jameson, 1992; Bringi et al., 1997; Carey and Rutledge, 2000),  
93 followed by lofting of the rain drop in the updraft to subfreezing temperatures (which is  
94 frequently observed by polarimetric radar, called the differential reflectivity ( $Z_{DR}$ ) column), then  
95 by drop freezing and finally riming into graupel or small hail. This coalescence-freezing  
96 mechanism is often the most important pathway to the first graupel/hail, the first significant  
97 electrification and the first lightning flash in warm based clouds (e.g., Brahams, 1986; Beard,  
98 1992; Herzegh and Jameson, 1992; Bringi et al., 1997; Smith et al., 1999; Carey and Rutledge,  
99 2000; Stolzenburg et al., 2015; Mattos et al., 2017). Another pathway to graupel or small hail  
100 production is initiated via the aggregation of ice crystals into snow aggregates, followed by  
101 riming of the snow aggregate into graupel and possibly even small hail as the rime density  
102 increases (Heymsfield, 1982; Li et al., 2018).

103 It should also be emphasized that the formation of graupel is closely related to not only  
104 lightning activity but also the strength of updrafts in clouds, and the latent heat of freezing  
105 enhances updrafts, promoting severe storm formation (Rosenfeld, 1999; Zhang et al., 2004;  
106 Rosenfeld et al., 2008). More droplets freeze aloft and release more latent heat for nucleation,  
107 thereby invigorating convective updrafts and producing lightning, and deep convective clouds  
108 form (Rosenfeld, 1999; Zhang et al., 2004; Rosenfeld et al., 2008). Therefore, investigating the  
109 ice microphysics associated with graupel is essential for understanding thunderstorm formation.

110 Polarimetric radar is a better observation system for tracking the specific location and  
111 timing of a cloud and inferring the microphysical characteristics within clouds (e.g., Seliga and

112 Bringi, 1976; Zrníc and Ryzhkov, 1999; Kumjian, 2013; Hu et al., 2019; Huang et al., 2023).  
113 Many studies (e.g., Laksen and Stansbury, 1974; Marshall and Radhakant, 1978; Dye et al., 1986;  
114 Vincent et al., 2003; Latham et al., 2007; Woodard et al., 2012; Mattos et al., 2016, 2017;  
115 Hayashi et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2022) have investigated the relationship between ice  
116 microphysics and lightning activity and provided methods for predicting the first lightning flash  
117 occurrence based on the riming electrification mechanism; specifically, graupel-related  
118 reflectivity at  $-10^{\circ}\text{C}$  or colder is a commonly supported leading reflectivity parameter for  
119 forecasting the first lightning flash (e.g., Laksen and Stansbury, 1974; Marshall and Radhakant,  
120 1978; Vincent et al., 2003; Woodard et al., 2012; Hayashi et al., 2021). However, the  
121 performances of these methods vary with season, geography, or other atmospheric variables;  
122 more directly, different ice microphysics within different clouds dominate. There is no doubt that  
123 the graupel signatures inferred by polarimetric radar are universally present in convective clouds,  
124 whereas some clouds involve no lightning (e.g., Woodard et al., 2012; Hayashi et al., 2021; Cui  
125 et al., 2022; Zhao et al., 2022). Specifically, the graupel signature inferred by the polarimetric  
126 radar needs to be partitioned into more details according to the radar parameters. Therefore, we  
127 conducted this study to better understand the ice microphysics associated with graupel within  
128 thunderstorms.

129 We accomplished this goal by comparing the ice microphysics associated with graupel  
130 between isolated thunderstorms and non-thunderstorms during the warm season over southern  
131 China and quantifying differences in graupel magnitude and shape (implying the riming  
132 efficiency) in radar parameters, instead of studying the evolution variation within the same  
133 thunderstorm (the role of some polarimetric signatures would be covered in the same cloud  
134 evolution). Furthermore, we discussed the possible microphysics associated with the source  
135 initiation and channel of the first lightning flash via 3D lightning mapping. To our knowledge, no  
136 other study addressing this topic has been published. In addition, we explored the role of the  
137 coalescence-freezing mechanism in the production of lightning based on the information  
138 provided by the  $Z_{\text{DR}}$  column, a narrow vertical extension of positive  $Z_{\text{DR}}$  values above the  $0^{\circ}\text{C}$   
139 isothermal height associated with updrafts and supercooled liquid water in deep moist convective  
140 storms (e.g., Hall et al., 1980; Ryzhkov et al., 1994; Kumjian and Ryzhkov, 2008; Kumjian, 2013;

141 Kumjian et al., 2014; Snyder et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2023). Isolated  
142 thunderstorms are common in southern China during the warm season (Mai and Du, 2022). From  
143 the perspective of isolated storms in the warm season, the physical processes within clouds are  
144 easier to explain, and the characteristics of graupel microphysics can be compared with those of  
145 cold-based clouds (Li et al., 2018).

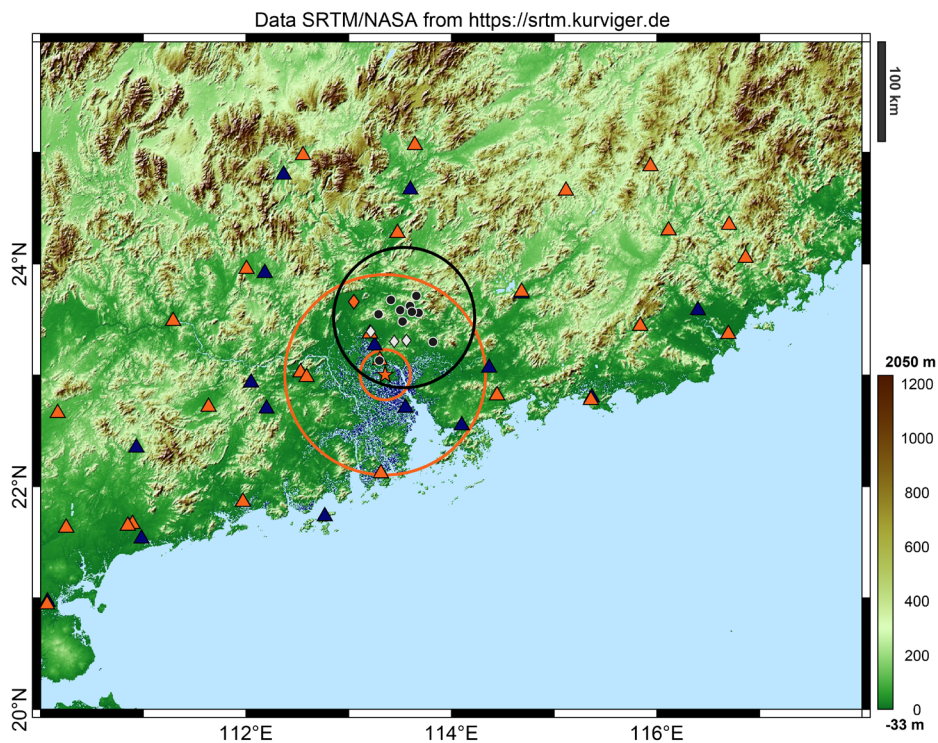
## 146 **2. Materials and methods**

147 The dataset used in this study was the same as that used in Zhao et al. (2021a, 2022). In Zhao  
148 et al. (2021a), the dataset was first shown to the public, who obtained observations of 57 (39)  
149 isolated thunderstorms (non-thunderstorms) that occurred over South China in the warm season  
150 (from late May to early September) of 2016 and 2017 from the S-band polarimetric radar and  
151 three independent lightning location systems. The role of turbulence characteristics in producing  
152 the first lightning flashes was evaluated on the basis of the dataset, and the results indicated that  
153 the eddy dissipation rate of non-thunderstorms was clearly lower than that of thunderstorms (Zhao  
154 et al., 2021a). Moreover, the polarimetric radar parameters of the first radar echoes (the first radar  
155 volume scan when clouds are detected by radar) were compared to determine the early difference  
156 between thunderstorms and non-thunderstorms on the basis of this dataset (Zhao et al., 2022). The  
157 greater echo intensity occurred in non-thunderstorms below the  $-10^{\circ}\text{C}$  isotherm height, and the  
158 cause for this feature and effect on subsequent cloud development were simply discussed by  
159 integrating comprehensive observations (e.g., the ERA-Interim reanalysis data, surface aerosol  
160 concentration, and graupel and rainwater contents derived from radar observations).

161 The error in the graupel content estimated in Zhao et al. (2022) is uncertain, and the  
162 efficiency of the microphysical process (i.e., riming) associated with graupel is unknown; this  
163 represents a gap in understanding regarding the role of graupel in the first lightning flash  
164 occurrence based on field observations. Naturally, we aimed to identify a method to quantify  
165 differences in graupel magnitude and riming efficiency in this study to minimize the error as much  
166 as possible. The radar sample volume, which corresponds to graupel identification, was used to  
167 indicate the graupel magnitude instead of the derived graupel content, as in Carey and Rutledge  
168 (2000) and Zhao et al. (2022). The variety of  $Z_{\text{DR}}$  shapes was used to determine the riming  
169 efficiency. Thus, the goal and method of this study were substantially different from those of the

170 two previous studies noted above, although they are based on the same dataset.

171 The Guangzhou S-band polarimetric radar (GZ radar) provided the radar data as marked by  
172 the orange star in Figure 1. The beam width of the GZ radar was  $\leq 1^\circ$ , and a full radar volume scan  
173 lasted 6 minutes; this consisted of nine elevation angles with a radial resolution of 250 m. A  
174 quality control procedure was carried out to remove ground clutter, anomalous propagation, and  
175 biological scatter, and the  $Z_{DR}$  offset of the raw data was corrected (Zhao et al., 2022). The  
176 quality-controlled radar data were interpolated onto a Cartesian grid at a horizontal resolution of  
177 250 m and a vertical resolution of 500 m from 0.5 to 20 km above the mean sea level via nearest  
178 neighbour and vertical linear interpolation.



179

180 **Figure 1. The locations of the detection systems and the analysed area.** The orange star indicates  
181 the Guangzhou S-band polarimetric radar (GZ radar); the orange circles represent distances from the  
182 GZ radar site of 25 and 100 km. The black dots indicate the 10 sensors of the Low-Frequency E-field  
183 Detection array (LFEDA); the black circle indicates the distance from the centre of the LFEDA  
184 network to 70 km. The blue triangles indicate the 16 sensors of the Earth Networks Lightning Location  
185 System (ENLLS), and the orange triangles indicate the 27 sensors of the Guangdong Lightning  
186 Location System (GDLLS). The white diamonds indicate the three ground sites of aerosol  
187 concentration measurements. The orange diamond indicates the Qingyuan meteorological observatory.  
188 The analysed area is restricted to the regions of overlapping coverage between the GZ radar radius of  
189 25–100 km and the LFEDA station network centre radius of 70 km.

190 A hydrometeor identification method, which is based on the fuzzy logic algorithm, was  
191 carried out to discriminate the graupel particles, as in Zhao et al. (2021b). The algorithm and  
192 approximate ranges of the S-band values of each polarimetric variable essentially followed Park et  
193 al. (2009) and Kumjian (2013), with an improvement in the parameters of the membership  
194 functions of the fuzzy logic algorithm for the performance of the GZ radar, especially for dry/wet  
195 snow particles (Wu et al., 2018). In addition, temperature information was one of the few factors  
196 added to the hydrometeor identification method because it can separate liquid precipitation from  
197 solid hydrometeors to avoid visible identification errors (e.g., Bechini and Chandrasekar, 2015;  
198 Kouketsu et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2020).

199 Three independent lightning location systems provided lightning observations. The  
200 low-frequency E-field detection array (LFEDA, as marked by black dots in Figure 1) can detect  
201 three-dimensional structures of intracloud lightning and/or cloud-to-ground lightning. The  
202 detection efficiency and mean location error of LFEDA for triggered lightning were approximately  
203 100% and 102 m, respectively (Shi et al., 2017; Fan et al., 2018). The Earth Networks Lightning  
204 Location System (ENLLS, as marked by blue triangles in Figure 1) can detect two-dimensional  
205 locations for intracloud lightning and/or cloud-to-ground lightning. The detection efficiency and  
206 mean location error of ENLLS for triggered lightning and the natural strike of tall structure  
207 lightning were approximately 77% and 685 m, respectively (Zheng et al., 2017). The Guangdong  
208 Lightning Location System (GDLLS, as marked by orange triangles in Figure 1) can locate  
209 cloud-to-ground lightning. The detection efficiency and mean location error of the GDLLS for  
210 triggered lightning and the natural strike of tall structure lightning were approximately 94% and  
211 741 m, respectively (Chen et al., 2012).

212 The lightning flash was assigned to its corresponding cell by using the boundary of the cell as  
213 a constraint every 6 minutes. The first lightning flash of a thunderstorm was defined by its first  
214 detection from one of three lightning location systems. An isolated non-thunderstorm cell was  
215 selected when no flash in the cell was detected by any of the three lightning location systems. To  
216 ensure detection-data quality, the analysis area was restricted to the regions of overlapping  
217 coverage between the GZ radar radius of 25–100 km and the LFEDA station network centre radius  
218 of 70 km (Figure 1), as in Zhao et al. (2021a, 2022). Any isolated cell storm generated within the



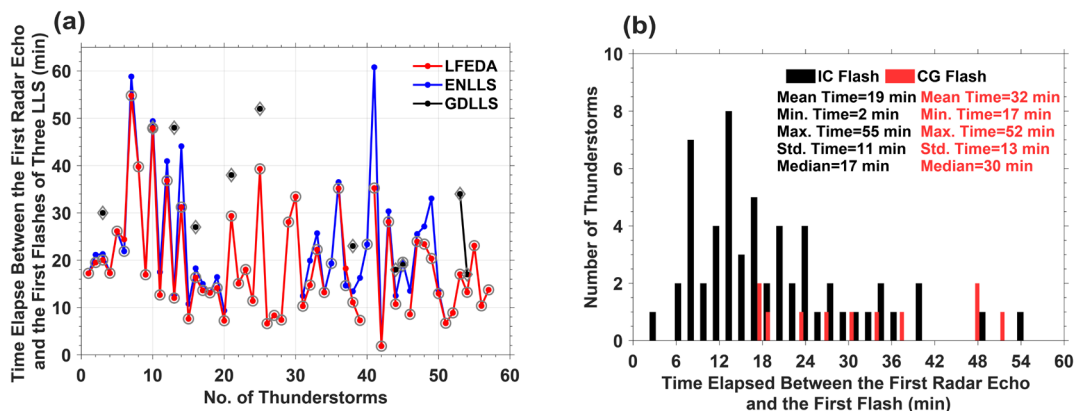
219 analysis area that moved completely outside the analysis area or merged with other precipitation  
220 cells was excluded. The intersection of the 20 dBZ contours of the two intersecting cells is  
221 referred to as merging. For thunderstorms, we ensure that the first lightning flash of the cell must  
222 occur before merging or when there is no merging. For storm cell development, if no merging  
223 process occurs and the maximum reflectivity of this cell starts to fade with a value of less than 30  
224 dBZ later, the evolutionary process of a cell will mark the cessation stage. Our objective was to  
225 focus on isolated storm cells; therefore, if the merging process occurs before the fading of the  
226 maximum reflectivity of this cell, the evolutionary process of the cell will also signal the cessation  
227 stage.

228 In the dataset, six merging events occurred in non-thunderstorms, and the values of maximum  
229 reflectivity for these non-thunderstorms did not increase after merging occurred. In addition, the  
230 maximum reflectivity within any non-thunderstorm cell from initiation to cessation must exceed  
231 45 dBZ to avoid the statistics of weak precipitation cells. Non-thunderstorms are characterized by  
232 no flash occurrence from initiation to cessation. The sounding data were obtained from the  
233 Qingyuan meteorological observatory, as marked by the orange diamond in Figure 1, which also  
234 provided the environmental temperature. Isolated thunderstorm/non-thunderstorm cells were  
235 identified and tracked manually based on the observations from the GZ radar and lightning  
236 location systems. The average distances between these storms and the radar/sounding site were  
237 approximately 70 and 56 km, respectively. More details related to these data and the selection  
238 methods for isolated thunderstorm and non-thunderstorm cells are available in Zhao et al. (2021a,  
239 2022).

240 In this study, the evolution cycle of a thunderstorm consists of three stages: (i) the first radar  
241 volume scanning in cases where the horizontal reflectivity ( $Z_H$ )  $\geq 5$  dBZ is called the first stage  
242 (hereafter referred to as the #1 stage), (ii) the intermediate radar volume scanning between the first  
243 stage and the third stage is called the second stage (hereafter referred to as the #2 stage), and (iii)  
244 the radar volume scanning in cases where the first lightning flash occurs is called the third stage  
245 (hereafter referred to as the #3 stage). Similarly, the evolution cycle of a non-thunderstorm also  
246 contains three stages, but radar volume scanning in cases where the most intense echo occurs is  
247 called the third stage; here, the most intense echo is used to indicate the strongest convection

248 development stage of non-thunderstorms for comparison with the first lightning flash stage of  
 249 thunderstorms. The average durations from the first stage to the third stage for thunderstorms and  
 250 non-thunderstorms were 19 and 24 minutes, respectively.

251 The majority of first lightning flash events (~98%) were considered intracloud flashes (IC  
 252 flashes), and only one was considered a cloud-to-ground flash (CG flash) (Figure 2a). The  
 253 majority of first lightning flashes (~91%) was determined by the LFEDA because of its superior  
 254 detection efficiency and accuracy for detecting lightning flashes in this analysis area (Figure 2a).  
 255 The elapsed time between the first radar volume scan and the first IC or CG flash (indicated by the  
 256 first IC or CG return stroke) is shown in Figure 2b. The results show that the average elapsed time  
 257 between the first radar volume scan and the first IC flash was approximately 19 minutes, and the  
 258 first CG flash was approximately 32 minutes (Figure 2b). A recent study (Mattos et al., 2017) also  
 259 revealed that in ~98% of thunderstorms, an IC flash preceded the first CG flash, and the IC flashes  
 260 occurred approximately 29 minutes after the first radar echo (any reflectivity value (any value  
 261 above the local noise floor of the radar) at any height), CG flashes were most frequently delayed  
 262 by approximately 36 minutes. The definition of the first radar echo may be the possible reason that  
 263 the first flashes occurring after the first radar echo in Mattos et al. (2017) occurred later than those  
 264 in our study.



265  
 266 **Figure 2. Lightning observations.** Elapsed time between the first radar volume scan and (a) the first  
 267 flashes of three lightning location systems, LFEDA (red line), ENLLS (blue line), and GDLLS (black  
 268 line), where the grey circles indicate the first IC flashes, the grey diamonds indicate the first CG flashes,  
 269 and (b) the elapsed time between the first radar volume scan and the first flashes of thunderstorms, the  
 270 first IC flashes (black columns), and the first CG flashes (red columns).

271 In addition, the average 1-hourly surface concentration observations of particulate matter

272 (PM<sub>2.5/10</sub>) were provided by three ground sites (Figure 1, white diamonds) within the analysed area.  
273 The PM<sub>2.5/10</sub> concentration data suggest that the environment prior to these isolated thunderstorms  
274 or non-thunderstorms was clean and that the difference in the environmental aerosol concentration  
275 between thunderstorms and non-thunderstorms may be small (the mean values of PM<sub>2.5/10</sub>  
276 concentrations prior to thunderstorms and non-thunderstorms were 22.9/42  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  and 20.5/38.8  
277  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , respectively).

### 278 **3. Results**

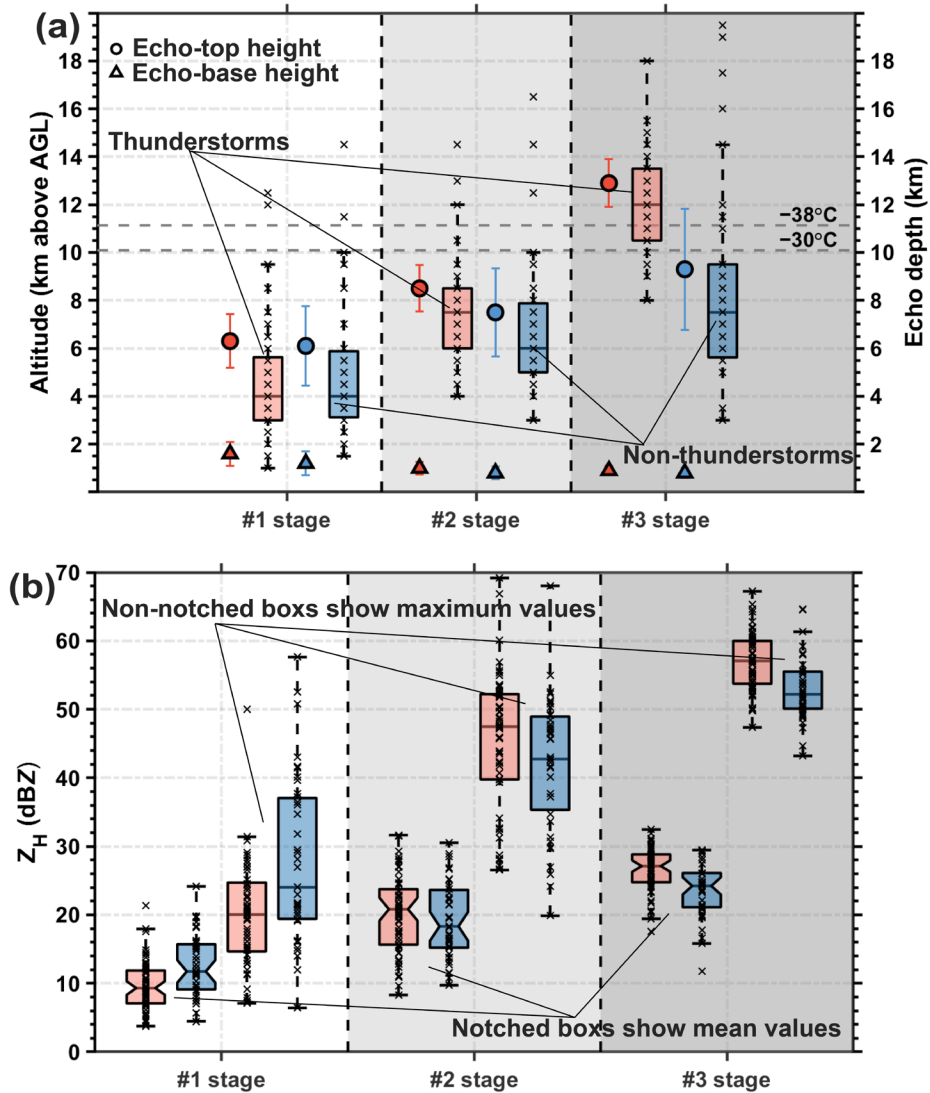
#### 279 **3.1 Morphology and intensity of the echoes in and/or before the first lightning flash** 280 **occurrence**

281 The scatters and triangles with error bars in Figure 3a depict the echo-top heights and  
282 echo-base heights of the 57 thunderstorms and 39 non-thunderstorms from the first stage to the  
283 third stage of cloud development via the reflectivity threshold (0 dBZ), and the echo depths are  
284 shown in the box plots. The echo-top heights of thunderstorms and non-thunderstorms increase as  
285 clouds develop. For the echo-top height data, approximately 95% of the thunderstorms exceeded  
286 the  $-30^{\circ}\text{C}$  isotherm height, and 85% exceeded the  $-38^{\circ}\text{C}$  isotherm height of the glaciated layer  
287 during the third stage of cloud development; however, only 26% and 23% of the  
288 non-thunderstorms exceeded the  $-30^{\circ}\text{C}$  and the  $-38^{\circ}\text{C}$  isotherm heights, respectively, during the  
289 third stage of cloud development. However, the echo-base heights mildly decreased with the  
290 development of clouds; slight differences in the echo-base heights occurred between  
291 thunderstorms and non-thunderstorms.

292 When the first lightning flashes occurred, approximately 84% of the thunderstorms and only  
293 23% of the non-thunderstorms achieved an echo depth of 10 km. Lightning is the product of the  
294 severe storms, and scientists often equate storm intensity with lightning flashes (e.g., Zipser et al.,  
295 2006; Fan et al., 2018), but defining convective intensity is not as easy as it may seem (Zipser et  
296 al., 2006); this could provide supplementary quantitative evidence for assisting scientists in  
297 equating storm intensity with lightning flashes and determining the cloud depth corresponding to  
298 the first lightning flash occurrence.

299 Figure 3b shows that the differences in the mean (maximum) values of the  $Z_{\text{H}}$  between the

300 thunderstorm and non-thunderstorm periods during each stage are slight; specifically, the median  
 301 differences in the mean values are  $-2$ ,  $2$ , and  $3$  dBZ, respectively. The median differences in the  
 302 maximum values are  $-4$ ,  $5$ , and  $5$  dBZ, respectively. Thunderstorms exhibit greater  $Z_H$  intensities  
 303 than non-thunderstorms do, except for those in the first stage of cloud development. The signature  
 304 of larger mean or maximum values of  $Z_H$  in non-thunderstorms during the first stage than in  
 305 thunderstorms has been discussed by Zhao et al. (2022), and this aspect is not the focus of this  
 306 study. The mean or maximum values of  $Z_H$  in thunderstorms increase and exceed those in  
 307 non-thunderstorms when the first lightning flashes occur; however, the box plots show that we  
 308 cannot effectively differentiate thunderstorms from non-thunderstorms with respect to the  $Z_H$   
 309 intensity.



310

311 **Figure 3. Characteristics of radar echoes with cloud development.** (a) Echo-top heights of 0 dBZ  
312 and echo-base heights of 0 dBZ for 57 thunderstorm and 39 non-thunderstorm cells from the first stage  
313 to the third stage of cloud development are indicated by scatter points and triangles, respectively, with  
314 error bars. Error bars are computed as 95% confidence intervals. Box plots for the 57 thunderstorms  
315 (orange) and 39 non-thunderstorms (blue) for echo depths; all units are in km. The dashed grey lines  
316 indicate the  $-38^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $-30^{\circ}\text{C}$  isotherm heights. (b) The mean (maximum) value of the  $Z_{\text{H}}$  in a  
317 thunderstorm or a non-thunderstorm during every stage is shown in notched box plots (non-notched  
318 box plots), with all units in the dBZ. The median values in the box plots are shown as black horizontal  
319 continuous lines. The temperature data were obtained from the sounding data of the Qingyuan  
320 meteorological observatory.

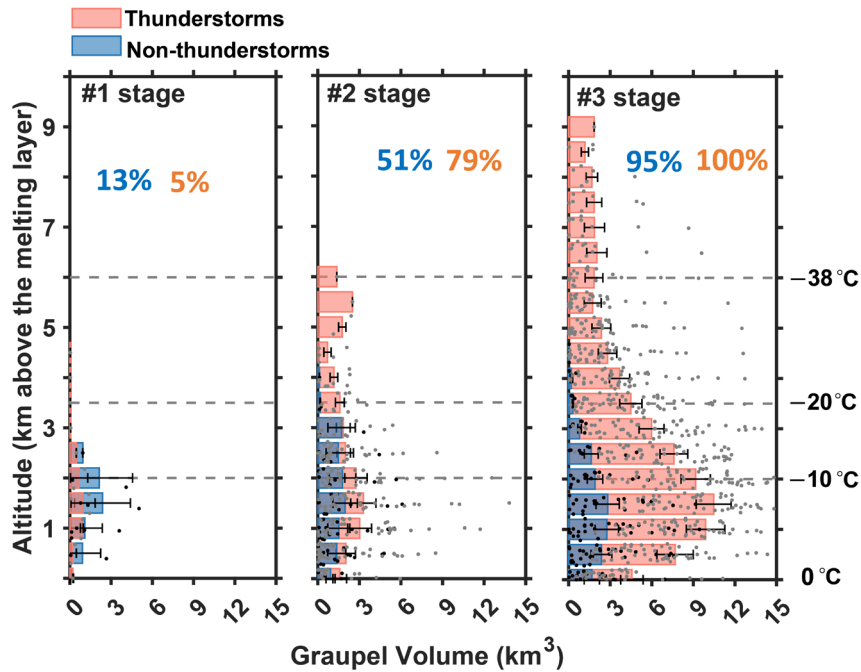
### 321 3.2 Variations in graupel magnitude with cloud development

322 Graupel is a vital precipitation particle for the riming electrification mechanism, and its radar  
323 signature is not obscured by small ice particles. Thus, to investigate the microphysical  
324 characteristics related to the first lightning flash occurrence during storms, we obtained inferred  
325 “graupel”, which was derived from the fuzzy-logic method based on the GZ radar (Park et al.,  
326 2009; Kumjian, 2013; Zhao et al., 2021b, 2022).

327 Each bar in Figure 4 indicates the mean value of the graupel volume in a height layer (the  
328 definition of the height layer is a vertical resolution of 500 m over 0.5 to 20 km above the mean  
329 sea level, 40 height layers in total) for 57 thunderstorms or 39 non-thunderstorms during each  
330 stage of cloud development. Specifically, the volume is computed by accumulating the radar  
331 sample grids; each radar sample grid is  $0.03125 \text{ km}^3$ ,  $0.25 \text{ km} \times 0.25 \text{ km} \times 0.5 \text{ km}$ .

332 Graupel is rare in thunderstorms or non-thunderstorms during the first stage of cloud  
333 development (e.g., Dye et al., 1986; Mattos et al., 2017), and only 5% (13%) of thunderstorms  
334 (non-thunderstorms) show graupel signals (Figure 4). This finding is consistent with the results of  
335 Lang and Rutledge (2011), who indicated that the existence of a 30 dBZ echo above the freezing  
336 altitude is a necessary condition (in  $\sim 90\%$  of cases) for lightning occurrence. This value is well  
337 above the 5 dBZ threshold used in this study to detect the first stage of a storm and can explain  
338 why graupel is rare in this stage. Moreover, in a modelling study of an isolated thunderstorm,  
339 Barthe and Pinty (2007) reported a delay of  $\sim 20$  minutes between the first occurrence of graupel  
340 and the first lightning flash. In this case study, this delay was attributed to the time for graupel and  
341 vapour-grown ice to locally gain charge through the NIC mechanism and to the sedimentation of  
342 the different particles leading to macroscopic charge separation.

343 We proposed a mechanism for explaining the larger graupel volume in non-thunderstorms  
 344 during the first stage of cloud development: more warm precipitation growth in non-thunderstorms  
 345 due to cyclic drop growth resulting from coalescence under weaker updrafts may promote greater  
 346 drop formation (Kumjian et al., 2014; Mather et al., 1986; Stough et al., 2021). These larger drops  
 347 are lifted above the 0°C isothermal height and freeze to graupel-sized particles via a  
 348 coalescence-freezing mechanism (e.g., Bringi et al., 1997; Carey and Rutledge, 2000). With the  
 349 development of clouds, that proportion of thunderstorms (non-thunderstorms) that produced  
 350 graupel reaches 79% (51%) and 100% (95%) during the second and third stages of cloud  
 351 development, respectively.



352

353 **Figure 4. Distribution of graupel signals and volume with cloud development.** Histogram plots  
 354 with error bars for the distribution of the graupel volume above the melting layer for thunderstorm and  
 355 non-thunderstorm cells during each stage of cloud development. Each grey dot indicates the total  
 356 graupel volume on a height layer (the definition of the height layer is a vertical resolution of 500 m  
 357 over 0.5 to 20 km above the mean sea level, 40 height layers in total) of a thunderstorm; the black dots  
 358 indicate non-thunderstorms (units in km<sup>3</sup>). The mean graupel volume in a height layer for the 57  
 359 thunderstorms is displayed as an orange histogram and a blue histogram shows the graupel volume for  
 360 non-thunderstorm (in km<sup>3</sup>). Error bars are computed as 95% confidence intervals. The numerical values  
 361 in orange and blue are the percentages of thunderstorms and non-thunderstorms that show graupel  
 362 signals, respectively. The left column represents the first stage of cloud development, and the right and  
 363 middle rows represent the third and second stages of cloud development, respectively. The -10°C,  
 364 -20°C, and -38°C isotherm heights are displayed in the histogram plots.

365 The greatest difference in graupel magnitude between thunderstorms and non-thunderstorms  
366 is found during the third stage of cloud development; the maximum difference in graupel volume  
367 in a height layer reaches approximately  $7.6 \text{ km}^3$ , and the height of the maximum difference is near  
368 the  $-10^\circ\text{C}$  isotherm height. This information is consistent with the NIC electrification mechanism;  
369 namely, more graupel leads to more cloud electrification. In addition, more graupel corresponds to  
370 more latent heat being released for convection invigoration. Interestingly, that the height  
371 corresponding to maximum difference of graupel volume is consistent with the main negative  
372 charge layer in thunderstorms over Guangzhou (Liu et al., 2020). Thus, the results suggested that  
373 the location of the negative charge layer may depend on the height of the maximum graupel  
374 magnitude. Notably, the graupel volume should be more accurately phrased as the presence of  
375 graupel in this volume. These characteristics indicate that graupel signals are universally present in  
376 thunderstorms and non-thunderstorms and that the difference in the magnitude of the graupel  
377 volume is the key for the first lightning flash occurrence.

### 378 **3.3 More microphysical information based on radar variables**

379 As the graupel volume increases from the first radar track to the occurrence of the first  
380 lightning flash, the graupel volume in thunderstorms is clearly greater than that in  
381 non-thunderstorms during the third stage of cloud development. However, the understanding of  
382 the details of the increase in graupel volume is limited (e.g., the variation in the maximum  
383 dimension or number concentration and precursor signature). In addition, although the  
384 coalescence-freezing mechanism dominating the formation of graupel within warm-season  
385 thunderstorms is generally accepted (e.g., Brahams, 1986; Beard, 1992; Herzegh and Jameson,  
386 1992; Bringi et al., 1997; Smith et al., 1999; Carey and Rutledge, 2000; Stolzenburg et al., 2015;  
387 Mattos et al., 2017), more studies are needed to support this mechanism.

388 The  $Z_{\text{DR}}$  parameter could provide more information on graupel (e.g., shape) (e.g., Mattos et  
389 al., 2017; Li et al., 2018) and supercooled liquid water (e.g.,  $Z_{\text{DR}}$  column) (e.g., Kumjian, 2013;  
390 Kumjian et al., 2014). The variance in the shape of the graupel indicates the riming efficiency;  
391 specifically, the heavily rimed ice particles approach a spherical shape (Kumjian, 2013; Li et al.,  
392 2018). Although the shape cannot directly indicate the variation in the maximum dimension, the  
393 speculated riming efficiency from the variation in the graupel shape could provide related

394 information on the maximum dimension of graupel particles; typically, a more spherical shape (a  
395 decrease in  $Z_{DR}$ ) and more riming result in a stronger  $Z_H$  corresponding to a larger maximum  
396 dimension (Li et al., 2018). The supercooled liquid water indicated by positive  $Z_{DR}$  values above  
397 the  $0^\circ\text{C}$  isothermal height is the precursor for freezing particles, followed by the embryo of  
398 graupel particles (e.g., Carey and Rutledge, 2000). Thus, the existence and/or variance of the  $Z_{DR}$   
399 column before the occurrence of the first lighting flash could support the coalescence-freezing  
400 mechanism. Moreover, we can obtain the quantitative difference in the  $Z_{DR}$  between thunderstorms  
401 and non-thunderstorms, especially for the occurrence of the first lightning flash.

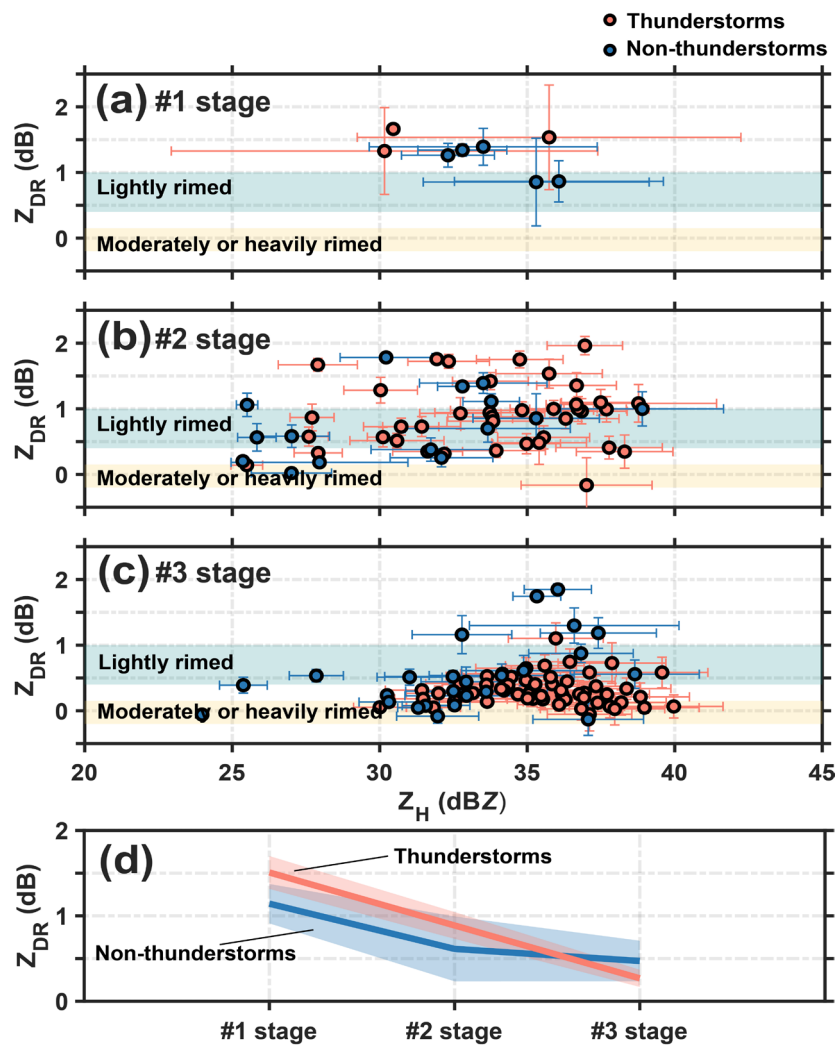
402 *a. Differences in the shapes of graupel particles between thunderstorms and non-thunderstorms*

403 The mean values of  $Z_H$  and  $Z_{DR}$  corresponding to graupel particles (the radar sample grids are  
404 identified as graupel) above the  $\sim -3^\circ\text{C}$  isotherm height (avoiding melting effects) in  
405 thunderstorms and non-thunderstorms during each stage of cloud development are displayed in  
406 Figure 5. Each orange dot indicates the mean values of  $Z_H$  and  $Z_{DR}$  corresponding to graupel  
407 above the  $\sim -3^\circ\text{C}$  isotherm height in a thunderstorm; each blue dot indicates that in a  
408 non-thunderstorm. On the basis of these results, the average intensity of the  $Z_{DR}$  corresponding to  
409 the graupel particles decreases with cloud development, which indicates that the graupel particles  
410 gradually approach a spherical shape (Figure 5d). The most remarkable indicator is that the  
411 graupel particles in the majority of the thunderstorms have lower  $Z_{DR}$  values with a mean value of  
412  $\sim 0.3$  dB when the first lightning flashes occur; however, this lower  $Z_{DR}$  value is not evident in  
413 non-thunderstorms, even during the most intense echo stage of cloud development, with a mean  
414 value of  $\sim 0.5$  dB. Moreover, the  $Z_{DR}$  values approach 0 dB, corresponding to stronger  $Z_H$  values  
415 when the average intensity of the  $Z_H$  exceeds 35 dBZ. Thus, we speculated that heavily rimed  
416 graupel was present, the size increased, and the shape tended to be spherical.

417 Li et al. (2018) presented a quantitative relationship between the riming and shape of snow  
418 aggregates in only winter snowstorms; however, we examined the relationship in deep convection  
419 or thunderstorms in the present study. In Li et al. (2018), particles with  $Z_H > 15$  dBZ,  $Z_{DR} > 0.4$  dB,  
420 and above the  $\sim -3^\circ\text{C}$  isotherm height are likely to be lightly rimed (rime mass fraction  $\sim < 0.2$ ),  
421 and particles with  $Z_H > 15$  dBZ,  $-0.2 < Z_{DR} < 0.15$  dB, and above the  $\sim -3^\circ\text{C}$  isotherm height are  
422 likely to be moderately or heavily rimed (rime mass fraction  $\sim > 0.4$ ). The rime mass fraction is



423 defined as the ratio of the accreted ice mass to the total ice particle mass; more details on the rime  
 424 mass fraction can be found in Li et al. (2018). In Figures 5a, b, and c, the shaded area in blue  
 425 indicates the high possibility that graupel particles are lightly rimed; in contrast, the shaded area in  
 426 yellow indicates that the graupel particles are moderately or heavily rimed, as in Li et al. (2018).  
 427 The results from Li et al. (2018) are limited to only winter snowstorms; the mechanism for  
 428 producing graupel in winter snowstorms is initiated via the aggregation of ice crystals into snow  
 429 aggregates, followed by riming of the snow aggregate into graupel and possibly even small hail as  
 430 the rime density increases (Heymsfield, 1982; Li et al., 2018). This process is different from the  
 431 coalescence-freezing mechanism in warm-season thunderstorms, but the final shape of the graupel  
 432 particles when first lightning flashes occurred in this study approached the shape of moderately or  
 433 heavily rimed ice particles in Li et al. (2018).



434

435 **Figure 5. Graupel shape in and/or before the first lightning flash occurrence.** Scatter plots with  
 436 error bars for the mean values of Z<sub>H</sub> and Z<sub>DR</sub> corresponding to graupel particles above the ~-3°C

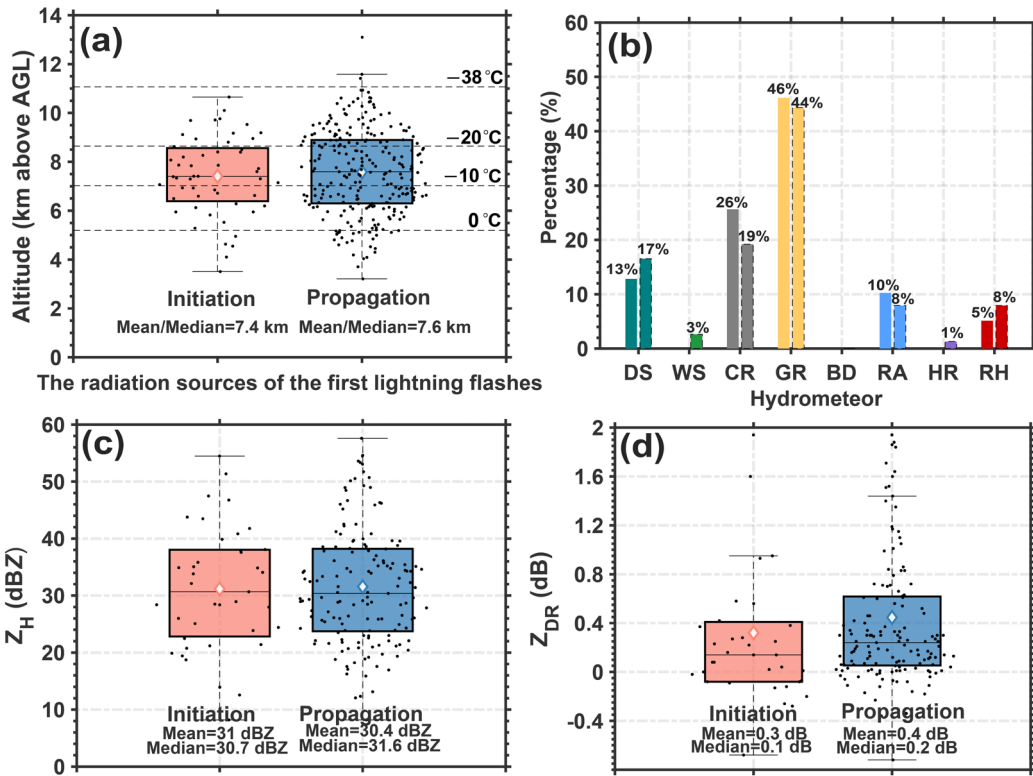
437 isotherm height in thunderstorm (orange) and non-thunderstorm (blue) cells during each stage of cloud  
438 development. Error bars are computed as 95% confidence intervals. The inferred differences in the  
439 efficiency of the riming process are shown by the threshold values of  $Z_H$  and  $Z_{DR}$ ; the shaded area in  
440 blue indicates the high possibility that graupel particles are lightly rimed, and comparatively, the  
441 shaded area in yellow indicates that graupel particles are moderately or heavily rimed. (a) First stage, (b)  
442 second stage, and (c) third stage of cloud development. In addition, the statistical mean values are  
443 given in (d), and the orange (blue) line indicates the mean value of the  $Z_{DR}$  corresponding to the above  
444 scatters in thunderstorms (non-thunderstorms) during each stage of cloud development. The shaded  
445 area indicates the 95% confidence interval.

446 *b. Observational characteristics associated with the source initiation and channel of the first*  
447 *lightning flash*

448 The characteristics at positions with source initiation and channel characteristics of the first  
449 lightning flash are shown in Figure 6, including the height distribution, associated hydrometeor  
450 type, and values of  $Z_H$  and  $Z_{DR}$ . The heights of the initiation sources and propagation sources of  
451 the first lightning flashes determined via LFEDA are concentrated at an approximate  $-10^\circ\text{C}$   
452 isotherm height (Figure 6a), which is consistent with the results (i.e., the negative charge layer is  
453 located at 6 to 8 km height in thunderstorms over Guangzhou) reported by Liu et al. (2020). The  
454 hydrometeor types associated with the initiation and propagation sources are similar, and the  
455 majority of these particles are graupel and ice crystals (Figure 6b), which is understandable on the  
456 basis of the NIC electrification mechanism.

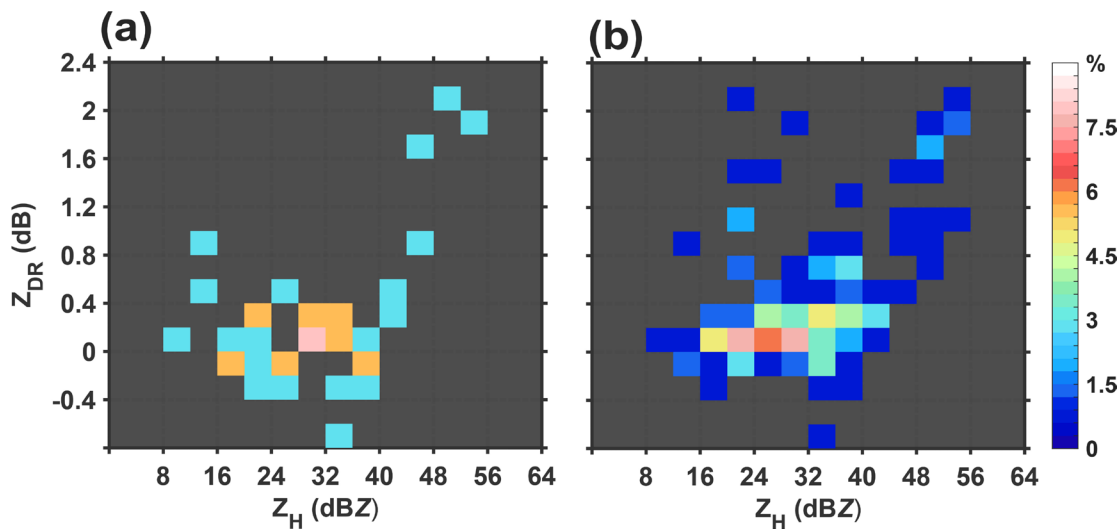
457 The median values of  $Z_H$  are near 31 dBZ, and the  $Z_{DR}$  values are near 0 dB (Figure 6c, d).  
458 Furthermore, Figure 7 displays the frequency of initiation and propagation sources corresponding  
459 to value intervals of  $Z_H$  (4 dBZ) and  $Z_{DR}$  (0.2 dB). The results indicate that the initiation sources of  
460 the first lightning flashes likely correspond to 20~40 dBZ and  $-0.2\sim 0.4$  dB (Figure 7a), and the  
461 values are likely 16~44 dBZ and  $-0.2\sim 0.8$  dB from propagation sources, respectively (Figure 7b).

462 These characteristics provide supplementary evidence that the main negative charge layer is  
463 located at  $-10^\circ\text{C}$  to  $-20^\circ\text{C}$  isotherm height on Earth, as reported by Krehbiel (1986), and suggest  
464 that are differences in particle shape and/or size between initiation sources and propagation  
465 sources, although the differences are too subtle to quantify in this study.



466

467 **Figure 6. The characteristics at positions with source initiation and the channel of the first**  
 468 **lightning flash.** (a) Height distribution of the locations at the initial sources (orange box) or  
 469 propagation sources (blue box) of the first lightning flashes. The 0°C, -10°C, -20°C, and -38°C  
 470 isotherm heights are displayed. (b) The histogram indicates the percentage of various hydrometeors of  
 471 the locations at the initial sources or propagation sources (histogram with dashed line) of the first  
 472 lightning flashes. The numerical value is the percentage of various hydrometeors, such as dry snow (DS,  
 473 dark green), wet snow (WS, green), crystals (CR, grey), graupel (GR, yellow), big drops (BD),  
 474 raindrops (RA, blue), heavy rain (HR, purple), and rain and hail mixtures (RH, red). Radar parameters  
 475 of the locations at the initial sources (orange box) or propagation sources (blue box) of the first  
 476 lightning flashes: (c) horizontal reflectivity ( $Z_H$ ) and (d) differential reflectivity ( $Z_{DR}$ ). Each black dot  
 477 indicates an individual source. The diamonds indicate the mean values.



478

479 **Figure 7. The frequency of radiation sources corresponding to the value intervals of  $Z_H$  and  $Z_{DR}$ .**

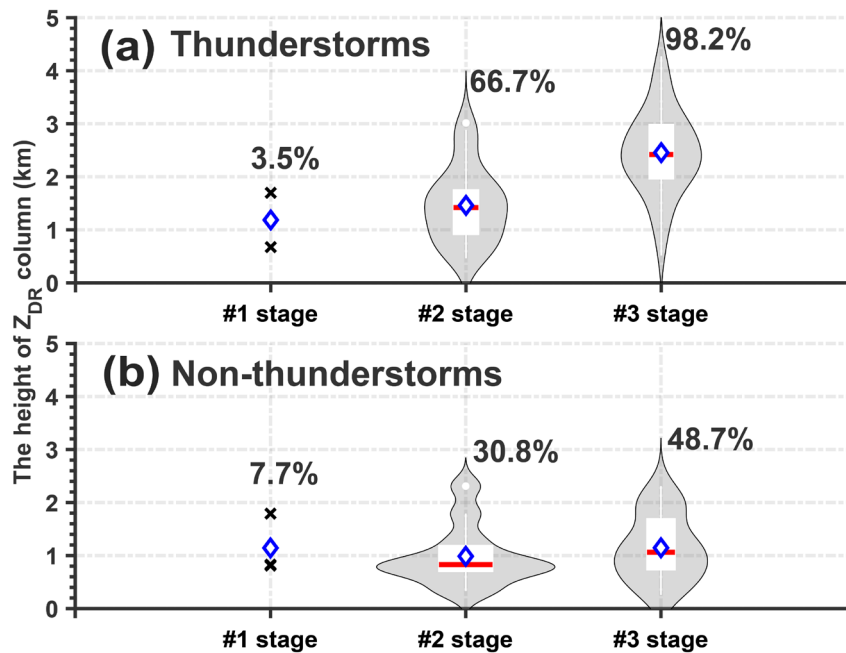
480 (a) Initial sources. (b) Propagation sources.

481 *c. Signature of the  $Z_{DR}$  column*

482 Previous studies utilized  $Z_{DR}$  values ranging from 0.5–5 dB within the strong reflectivity  
483 range (35–50 dBZ) above the melting layer to describe the area of the  $Z_{DR}$  column (e.g.,  
484 Illingworth et al., 1987; Tuttle et al., 1989; Ryzhkov et al., 1994; Scharfenberg et al., 2005;  
485 Woodard et al., 2012; Kumjian et al., 2014; Snyder et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2020). Since the  
486 development of these clouds in this study occurred during the early stage of the full evolution  
487 cycle of thunderstorms, the size of the supercooled liquid water drop would not be large. Thus, we  
488 used  $Z_{DR}$  values of 0.5 dB within a reflectivity range of 30 dBZ above the melting layer to  
489 investigate the characteristics of the  $Z_{DR}$  column.

490 Figure 8 shows the height of the  $Z_{DR}$  column within thunderstorms or non-thunderstorms  
491 during each stage of cloud development. The computation of the  $Z_{DR}$  column height is similar to  
492 that in Snyder et al. (2015), and this height is the vertically continuous maximum depth of the  $Z_{DR}$   
493 column. The signature of the  $Z_{DR}$  column clearly coincides with the development of clouds  
494 (Figure 8). Most thunderstorms (98.2%) displayed a deep  $Z_{DR}$  column with a mean depth of the  
495  $Z_{DR}$  column of  $\sim 2.5$  km when the first lightning flash occurred; however, only 48.7% of  
496 non-thunderstorms corresponded to a shallow  $Z_{DR}$  column with a mean value of  $\sim 1.1$  km (Figure  
497 8a, b). Moreover, 66.7% of the thunderstorms presented a deeper  $Z_{DR}$  column with a mean value  
498 of  $\sim 1.5$  km during the second stage of cloud development, and 30.8% of the non-thunderstorms  
499 presented a shallower  $Z_{DR}$  column with a mean value of  $\sim 0.99$  km during the second stage of  
500 cloud development (Figure 8a, b).

501 The results indicate that strong relationship between the  $Z_{DR}$  column and the occurrence of  
502 the first lightning flash is persistent. A deeper  $Z_{DR}$  column suggests a greater graupel volume.  
503 However, the occurrence frequency of the  $Z_{DR}$  column for non-thunderstorms is slightly greater  
504 than that for thunderstorms during the first stage of cloud development (Figure 8a, b). This  
505 phenomenon may be related to the results of Zhao et al. (2022); specifically, the  $Z_{DR}$  values below  
506 the  $-10^\circ\text{C}$  isotherm height of non-thunderstorms were greater than those of thunderstorms within  
507 the first radar echo.



509

510 **Figure 8.  $Z_{DR}$  column information in and/or before the first lightning flash occurrence.** Violin  
 511 plots of the  $Z_{DR}$  column depth of thunderstorm or non-thunderstorm cells during each stage of cloud  
 512 development, showing the average (blue diamond), interquartile range (rectangle), 10th and 90th  
 513 percentiles (whiskers), and kernel density estimation (gray shading). (a) Thunderstorms. (b)  
 514 Non-thunderstorms. The numerical value is the percentage of thunderstorms that show the  $Z_{DR}$  column  
 515 signature.

#### 516 4. Summary

517 In this study, a combination of a lightning location system and dual-polarization radar  
 518 measurements was employed to study the ice microphysics of isolated thunderstorms and  
 519 non-thunderstorms in southern China during the warm season. From the unique perspective of  
 520 comparing radar signatures and inferred graupel information between isolated thunderstorm and  
 521 non-thunderstorm cells during each stage of cloud development, lightning generation in clouds  
 522 was found to be a good indicator of the formation of deep convective clouds. The echo intensities,  
 523 echo-top heights and echo depths were greater in clouds when the first lightning flash occurred,  
 524 which indicated more severe updrafts in thunderstorms than in non-thunderstorms. Moreover, a  
 525 greater graupel volume was clearly observed in clouds when the first lightning flash occurred, and  
 526 the maximum difference in graupel volume in the height layer between thunderstorms and  
 527 non-thunderstorms reached approximately  $7.6 \text{ km}^3$ , corresponding to an approximate  $-10^\circ\text{C}$   
 528 isotherm height.

529 The variation in the average  $Z_{DR}$  intensity corresponding to the graupel particles above the  
 530  $\sim -3^{\circ}\text{C}$  isotherm height during the three stages of cloud development indicated that graupel  
 531 particles were more spherical (the mean  $Z_{DR}$  value was  $\sim 0.3$  dB) and were more likely to generate  
 532 lightning. The  $Z_{DR}$  values approached 0 dB, corresponding to stronger  $Z_H$  values; the average  
 533 intensity of the  $Z_H$  exceeded 35 dBZ. When the first lightning flashes occurred in clouds, a  
 534 decrease in the  $Z_{DR}$  value and an increase in the  $Z_H$  value of graupel were observed; these results  
 535 indicate that heavily rimed ice particles were present and that the shape of these particles was  
 536 similar to that of moderately or heavily rimed ice particles within winter snowstorms.

537 Furthermore, observational characteristics associated with the source initiation and channel of  
 538 the first lightning flash were investigated. The results revealed that these sources were  
 539 concentrated at an isotherm height of approximately  $-10^{\circ}\text{C}$  and mainly corresponded to graupel  
 540 and ice crystals. The median values of  $Z_H$  or  $Z_{DR}$  at the positions of source initiation and the  
 541 channel of the first lightning flashes were nearly 31 dBZ or 0 dB. In addition, we suggest that the  
 542 differences in particle shape and/or size between the initiation sources and propagation sources of  
 543 the first lightning flashes persist.

544 Moreover, the results indicated a strong relationship between the  $Z_{DR}$  column and the  
 545 occurrence of the first lightning flash; 98.2% of the clouds were equipped with a  $Z_{DR}$  column with  
 546 a mean depth of  $\sim 2.5$  km when the first lightning flash occurred. In addition, a deeper  $Z_{DR}$  column  
 547 corresponded to a greater graupel volume. Thus, the coalescence-freezing mechanism dominated  
 548 the formation of graupel within warm-season isolated thunderstorms over southern China, and the  
 549 results were consistent with those of previous studies (e.g., Brahams, 1986; Beard, 1992; Herzegh  
 550 and Jameson, 1992; Bringi et al., 1997; Smith et al., 1999; Carey and Rutledge, 2000; Stolzenburg  
 551 et al., 2015; Mattos et al., 2017) but increased the knowledge of the quantified characteristics of  
 552 the  $Z_{DR}$  column for the first lightning flash occurrence in warm-season isolated thunderstorms on  
 553 the basis of relatively large sample statistics (Table 1 shows details of cases in related  
 554 investigations for isolated thunderstorms).

References	Number of cases (thunderstorms)	Number of cases (non-thunderstorms)
Workman and Reynolds, 1949	12	×

Reynolds and Brook, 1956	5	×
Goodman et al., 1988	1	×
Ramachandran et al., 1996	2	×
Jameson et al., 1996	3	×
Woodard et al., 2012	31	19
Stolzenburg et al., 2015	3	×
Mattos et al., 2017	46	×

555 Table 1. Details of the cases in the references.

556 However, our results were obtained by comparing the characteristics of the polarimetric  
557 parameters according to the graupel particles inferred via a hydrometeor identification method.  
558 The inferred graupel volume was an indication that graupel could be present among other  
559 hydrometeors in that volume. From the perspective of radar, the dominant particle in this volume  
560 was graupel. Fortunately, we focused on comparing the graupel volume between thunderstorms  
561 and non-thunderstorms; therefore, we believe that the errors in this volume resulting from other  
562 secondary hydrometeors could be neutralized by comparisons with the same detected data and  
563 methods.

564 In addition, unlike previous similar studies (e.g., Mattos et al., 2016, 2017), we studied the  
565 microphysical differences between isolated thunderstorms and non-thunderstorms during the  
566 warm season over southern China on the basis of polarimetric radar and lightning mapping array  
567 instead of studying the evolution variation within the same thunderstorm (Mattos et al., 2017) or  
568 studying the differences between storm vertical profiles in three-dimensional Cartesian boxes with  
569 lightning and without lightning (Mattos et al., 2016).

570 Although the results from this study could provide a possible index or method based on  
571 polarimetric radar for warning of the first lightning flash occurrence within warm-season cell  
572 storms, understanding the microphysical characteristics and applying that in the numerical  
573 simulations would be the optimal method for providing lightning flash warnings in the future.

574

575

576

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588

589 **Open Research**

590 The sounding data is available at <http://weather.uwyo.edu/upperair/sounding.html>. The data in this  
591 study can be obtained from Figshare (Zhao, 2024).

592

593

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874

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889 **Competing interests**

890 The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

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