

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°C isotherm height between thunderstorms and
37 non-thunderstorms reached approximately 7.6 km^3 ; 2) the graupel particles approached spherical
38 shapes with a mean differential reflectivity (Z_{DR}) value of 0.3 dB, which likely indicated that
39 heavily rimed graupel was present; 3) the median values of horizontal reflectivity (Z_{H}) or Z_{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_{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_{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 weather
56 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; Rosenfeld
60 et al., 2008; Fan et al., 2018) and for investigating related atmospheric chemistry, such as the
61 formation of ozone and the primary oxidant in the troposphere, the hydroxyl radical (Pickering et
62 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 can be categorized as intracloud lightning and cloud-to-ground lightning (Uman and Krider,
69 1989). Some studies have indicated that the majority of the first lightning flashes are intracloud
70 lightning, which was concluded from the statistical results observed by polarimetric radar and
71 lightning location systems (e.g., Mattos et al., 2017; Zhao et al., 2021a). In addition, there is a
72 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 (Takahashi, 1978; Latham, 1981;
76 Saunders et al., 1991; MacGorman and Rust, 1998; Carey and Rutledge, 2000; Zhang et al., 2009;
77 Takahashi et al., 2017, 2019; Qie et al., 2021; Lyu et al., 2023).

78 The NIC was proposed on the basis of cold-chamber laboratory experiments (Reynolds et al.,
79 1957; Takahashi, 1978). Subsequently, field observations demonstrated that lightning production
80 is critically linked to ice processes (i.e., graupel signatures) (Dye et al., 1986; Takahashi et al.,
81 1999; Carey and Rutledge, 2000; Basarab et al., 2015; Stolzenburg et al., 2015; Mattos et al., 2016,
82 2017; Takahashi et al., 2017, 2019; Hayashi et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2022). Numerical simulation

83 studies also support the NIC mechanism as the main contributor to charge separation conducive to
84 lightning flash triggering at timescales relevant to storm duration (e.g., Helsdon et al., 2001;
85 Mansell et al., 2005; Barthe and Pinty, 2007). Therefore, graupel is a vital precipitation particle for
86 riming electrification mechanism.

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

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

108 Polarimetric radar is the best observation system for tracking the specific location and timing
109 of a cloud and inferring the microphysical characteristics within clouds (e.g., Seliga and Bringi,
110 1976; Zrníc and Ryzhkov, 1999; Kumjian, 2013; Hu et al., 2019; Huang et al., 2023). Many
111 studies (e.g., Laksen and Stansbury, 1974; Marshall and Radhakant, 1978; Dye et al., 1986;

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

126 We accomplished this goal by comparing the ice microphysics associated with graupel
127 between isolated thunderstorms and non-thunderstorms during the warm season over southern
128 China and quantifying differences in graupel magnitude and shape (implying the riming efficiency)
129 in radar parameters, instead of studying the evolution variation within the same thunderstorm (the
130 role of some polarimetric signatures would be covered in the same cloud evolution). Furthermore,
131 we discussed the possible microphysics associated with the source initiation and channel of the
132 first lightning flash via 3D lightning mapping. To our knowledge, no other study addressing this
133 topic has been published. In addition, we explored the role of the coalescence-freezing mechanism
134 in the production of lightning based on the information provided by the Z_{DR} column, a narrow
135 vertical extension of positive Z_{DR} values above the 0°C isothermal height associated with updrafts
136 and supercooled liquid water in deep moist convective storms (e.g., Hall et al., 1980; Ryzhkov et
137 al., 1994; Kumjian and Ryzhkov, 2008; Kumjian, 2013; Kumjian et al., 2014; Snyder et al., 2015;
138 Zhao et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2023). Isolated thunderstorms are common in southern China during
139 the warm season (Mai and Du, 2022). From the perspective of isolated storms in the warm season,
140 the physical processes within clouds are easier to explain, and the characteristics of graupel

141 microphysics can be compared with those of cold-based clouds (Li et al., 2018).

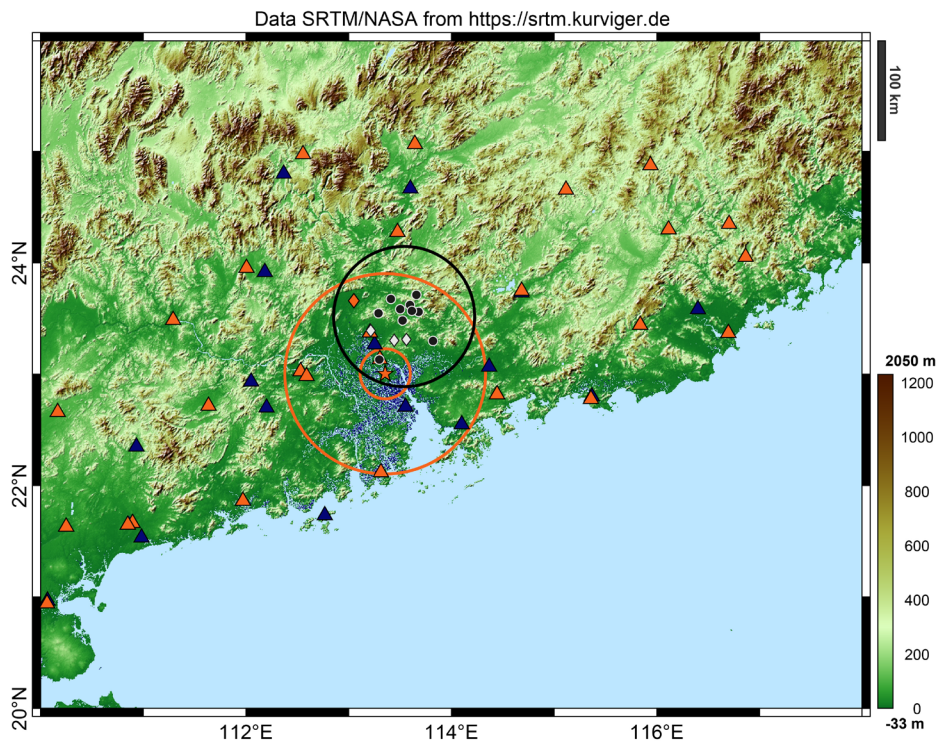
142 **2. Materials and methods**

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

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

167 The Guangzhou S-band polarimetric radar (GZ radar) provided the radar data as marked by
168 the orange star in Figure 1. The beam width of the GZ radar was $\leq 1^{\circ}$, and a full radar volume scan

169 lasted 6 minutes; this consisted of nine elevation angles with a radial resolution of 250 m. A
 170 quality control procedure was carried out to remove ground clutter, anomalous propagation, and
 171 biological scatter, and the Z_{DR} offset of the raw data was corrected (Zhao et al., 2022). The
 172 quality-controlled radar data were interpolated onto a Cartesian grid at a horizontal resolution of
 173 250 m and a vertical resolution of 500 m from 0.5 to 20 km above the mean sea level via nearest
 174 neighbour and vertical linear interpolation.



175

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

186 A hydrometeor identification method, which is based on the fuzzy logic algorithm, was
 187 carried out to discriminate the graupel particles, as in Zhao et al. (2021b). The algorithm and
 188 approximate ranges of the S-band values of each polarimetric variable essentially followed Park et

189 al. (2009) and Kumjian (2013), with an improvement in the parameters of the membership
190 functions of the fuzzy logic algorithm for the performance of the GZ radar, especially for dry/wet
191 snow particles (Wu et al., 2018). In addition, temperature information was one of the few factors
192 added to the hydrometeor identification method because it can separate liquid precipitation from
193 solid hydrometeors to avoid visible identification errors (e.g., Bechini and Chandrasekar, 2015;
194 Kouketsu et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2020).

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

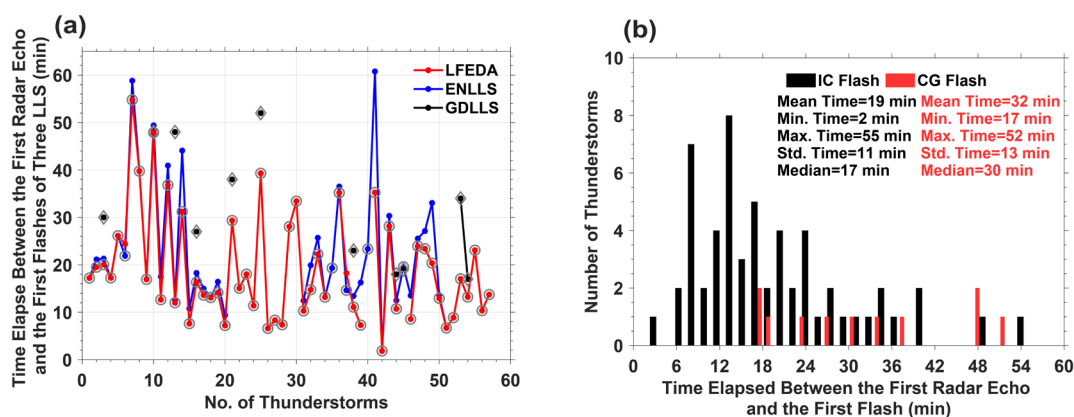
208 The lightning flash was assigned to its corresponding cell by using the boundary of the cell as
209 a constraint every 6 minutes. The first lightning flash of a thunderstorm was defined by its first
210 detection from one of three lightning location systems. An isolated non-thunderstorm cell was
211 selected when no flash in the cell was detected by any of the three lightning location systems. To
212 ensure detection-data quality, the analysis area was restricted to the regions of overlapping
213 coverage between the GZ radar radius of 25–100 km and the LFEDA station network centre radius
214 of 70 km (Figure 1), as in Zhao et al. (2021a, 2022). Any isolated cell storm generated within the
215 analysis area that moved completely outside the analysis area or merged with other precipitation
216 cells was excluded. The intersection of the 20 dBZ contours of the two intersecting cells is
217 referred to as merging. For thunderstorms, we ensure that the first lightning flash of the cell must

218 occur before merging or when there is no merging. For storm cell development, if no merging
219 process occurs and the maximum reflectivity of this cell starts to fade with a value of less than 30
220 dBZ later, the evolutionary process of a cell will mark the cessation stage. Our objective was to
221 focus on isolated storm cells; therefore, if the merging process occurs before the fading of the
222 maximum reflectivity of this cell, the evolutionary process of the cell will also signal the cessation
223 stage.

224 In the dataset, six merging events occurred in non-thunderstorms, and the values of maximum
225 reflectivity for these non-thunderstorms did not increase after merging occurred. In addition, the
226 maximum reflectivity within any non-thunderstorm cell from initiation to cessation must exceed
227 45 dBZ to avoid the statistics of weak precipitation cells. Non-thunderstorms are characterized by
228 no flash occurrence from initiation to cessation. The sounding data were obtained from the
229 Qingyuan meteorological observatory, as marked by the orange diamond in Figure 1, which also
230 provided the environmental temperature. Isolated thunderstorm/non-thunderstorm cells were
231 identified and tracked manually based on the observations from the GZ radar and lightning
232 location systems. The average distances between these storms and the radar/sounding site were
233 approximately 70 and 56 km, respectively. More details related to these data and the selection
234 methods for isolated thunderstorm and non-thunderstorm cells are available in Zhao et al. (2021a,
235 2022).

236 In this study, the evolution cycle of a thunderstorm consists of three stages: (i) the first radar
237 volume scanning in cases where the horizontal reflectivity (Z_H) ≥ 5 dBZ is called the first stage
238 (hereafter referred to as the #1 stage), (ii) the intermediate radar volume scanning between the first
239 stage and the third stage is called the second stage (hereafter referred to as the #2 stage), and (iii)
240 the radar volume scanning in cases where the first lightning flash occurs is called the third stage
241 (hereafter referred to as the #3 stage). Similarly, the evolution cycle of a non-thunderstorm also
242 contains three stages, but radar volume scanning in cases where the most intense echo occurs is
243 called the third stage; here, the most intense echo is used to indicate the strongest convection
244 development stage of non-thunderstorms for comparison with the first lightning flash stage of
245 thunderstorms. The average durations from the first stage to the third stage for thunderstorms and
246 non-thunderstorms were 19 and 24 minutes, respectively.

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



260

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

266 In addition, the average 1-hourly surface concentration observations of particulate matter
 267 (PM_{2.5/10}) were provided by three ground sites (Figure 1, white diamonds) within the analysed area.
 268 The PM_{2.5/10} concentration data suggest that the environment prior to these isolated thunderstorms
 269 or non-thunderstorms was clean and that the difference in the environmental aerosol concentration
 270 between thunderstorms and non-thunderstorms may be small (the mean values of PM_{2.5/10}
 271 concentrations prior to thunderstorms and non-thunderstorms were 22.9/42 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and 20.5/38.8

272 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively).

273 **3. Results**

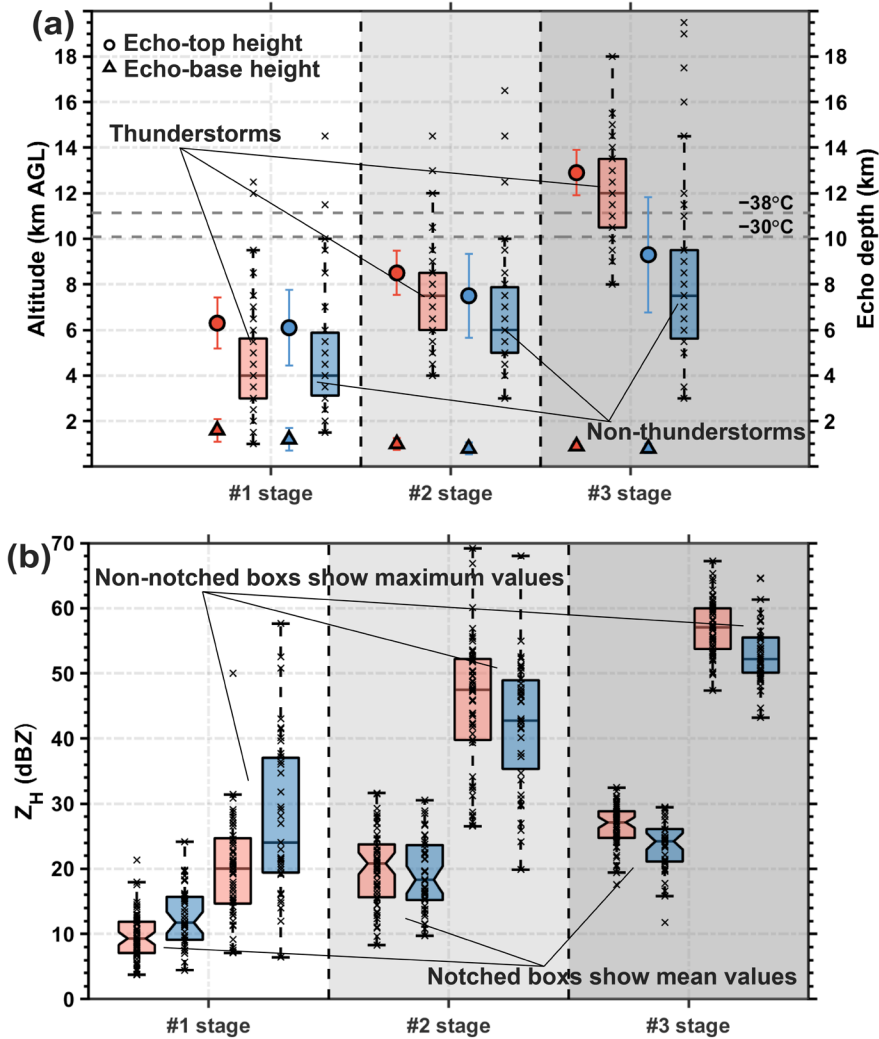
274 **3.1 Morphology and intensity of the echoes in and/or before the first lightning flash** 275 **occurrence**

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

287 When the first lightning flashes occurred, approximately 84% of the thunderstorms and only
288 23% of the non-thunderstorms achieved an echo depth of 10 km. Lightning is the product of the
289 severe storms, and scientists often equate storm intensity with lightning flashes (e.g., Zipser et al.,
290 2006; Fan et al., 2018), but defining convective intensity is not as easy as it may seem (Zipser et
291 al., 2006); this could provide supplementary quantitative evidence for assisting scientists in
292 equating storm intensity with lightning flashes and determining the cloud depth corresponding to
293 the first lightning flash occurrence.

294 Figure 3b shows that the differences in the mean (maximum) values of the Z_{H} between the
295 thunderstorm and non-thunderstorm periods during each stage are slight; specifically, the median
296 differences in the mean values are -2 , 2 , and 3 dBZ, respectively. The median differences in the
297 maximum values are -4 , 5 , and 5 dBZ, respectively. Thunderstorms exhibit greater Z_{H} intensities
298 than non-thunderstorms do, except for those in the first stage of cloud development. The signature
299 of larger mean or maximum values of Z_{H} in non-thunderstorms during the first stage than in

300 thunderstorms has been discussed by Zhao et al. (2022), and this aspect is not the focus of this
 301 study. The mean or maximum values of Z_H in thunderstorms increase and exceed those in
 302 non-thunderstorms when the first lightning flashes occur; however, the box plots show that we
 303 cannot effectively differentiate thunderstorms from non-thunderstorms with respect to the Z_H
 304 intensity.



305

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

315 meteorological observatory.

316 **3.2 Variations in graupel magnitude with cloud development**

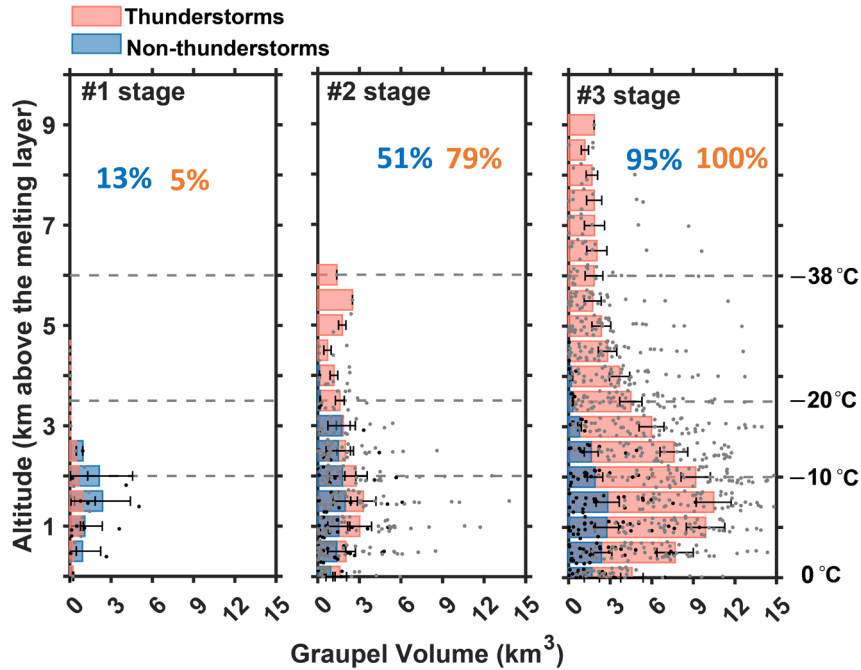
317 Graupel is a vital precipitation particle for the riming electrification mechanism, and its radar
318 signature is not obscured by small ice particles. Thus, to investigate the microphysical
319 characteristics related to the first lightning flash occurrence during storms, we obtained inferred
320 “graupel”, which was derived from the fuzzy-logic method based on the GZ radar (Park et al.,
321 2009; Kumjian, 2013; Zhao et al., 2021b, 2022).

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

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

338 We proposed a mechanism for explaining the larger graupel volume in non-thunderstorms
339 during the first stage of cloud development: more warm precipitation growth in non-thunderstorms
340 due to cyclic drop growth resulting from coalescence under weaker updrafts may promote greater
341 drop formation (Kumjian et al., 2014; Mather et al., 1986; Stough et al., 2021). These larger drops
342 are lifted above the 0°C isothermal height and freeze to graupel-sized particles via a

343 coalescence-freezing mechanism (e.g., Bringi et al., 1997; Carey and Rutledge, 2000). With the
 344 development of clouds, that proportion of thunderstorms (non-thunderstorms) that produced
 345 graupel reaches 79% (51%) and 100% (95%) during the second and third stages of cloud
 346 development, respectively.



347

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

360 The greatest difference in graupel magnitude between thunderstorms and non-thunderstorms
 361 is found during the third stage of cloud development; the maximum difference in graupel volume
 362 in a height layer reaches approximately 7.6 km^3 , and the height of the maximum difference is near
 363 the -10°C isotherm height. This information is consistent with the NIC electrification mechanism;
 364 namely, more graupel leads to more cloud electrification. In addition, more graupel corresponds to

365 more latent heat being released for convection invigoration. Interestingly, that the height
366 corresponding to maximum difference of graupel volume is consistent with the main negative
367 charge layer in thunderstorms over Guangzhou (Liu et al., 2020). Thus, the results suggested that
368 the location of the negative charge layer may depend on the height of the maximum graupel
369 magnitude. Notably, the graupel volume should be more accurately phrased as the presence of
370 graupel in this volume. These characteristics indicate that graupel signals are universally present in
371 thunderstorms and non-thunderstorms and that the difference in the magnitude of the graupel
372 volume is the key for the first lightning flash occurrence.

373 **3.3 More microphysical information based on radar variables**

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

383 The Z_{DR} parameter could provide more information on graupel (e.g., shape) (e.g., Mattos et
384 al., 2017; Li et al., 2018) and supercooled liquid water (e.g., Z_{DR} column) (e.g., Kumjian, 2013;
385 Kumjian et al., 2014). The variance in the shape of the graupel indicates the riming efficiency;
386 specifically, the heavily rimed ice particles approach a spherical shape (Kumjian, 2013; Li et al.,
387 2018). Although the shape cannot directly indicate the variation in the maximum dimension, the
388 speculated riming efficiency from the variation in the graupel shape could provide related
389 information on the maximum dimension of graupel particles; typically, a more spherical shape (a
390 decrease in Z_{DR}) and more riming result in a stronger Z_H corresponding to a larger maximum
391 dimension (Li et al., 2018). The supercooled liquid water indicated by positive Z_{DR} values above
392 the 0°C isothermal height is the precursor for freezing particles, followed by the embryo of
393 graupel particles (e.g., Carey and Rutledge, 2000). Thus, the existence and/or variance of the Z_{DR}

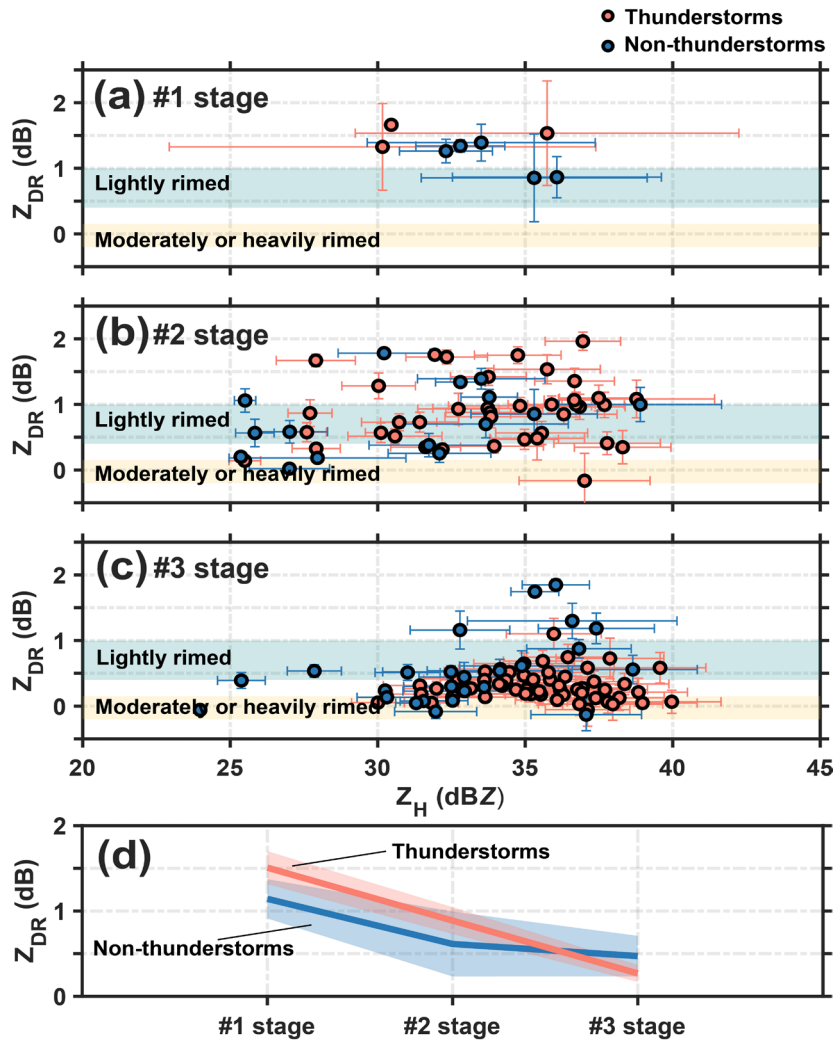
394 column before the occurrence of the first lighting flash could support the coalescence-freezing
395 mechanism. Moreover, we can obtain the quantitative difference in the Z_{DR} between thunderstorms
396 and non-thunderstorms, especially for the occurrence of the first lightning flash.

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

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

412 Li et al. (2018) presented a quantitative relationship between the riming and shape of snow
413 aggregates in only winter snowstorms; however, we examined the relationship in deep convection
414 or thunderstorms in the present study. In Li et al. (2018), particles with $Z_H > 15$ dBZ, $Z_{DR} > 0.4$ dB,
415 and above the $\sim -3^\circ\text{C}$ isotherm height are likely to be lightly rimed (rime mass fraction $\sim < 0.2$),
416 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
417 likely to be moderately or heavily rimed (rime mass fraction $\sim > 0.4$). The rime mass fraction is
418 defined as the ratio of the accreted ice mass to the total ice particle mass; more details on the rime
419 mass fraction can be found in Li et al. (2018). In Figures 5a, b, and c, the shaded area in blue
420 indicates the high possibility that graupel particles are lightly rimed; in contrast, the shaded area in
421 yellow indicates that the graupel particles are moderately or heavily rimed, as in Li et al. (2018).
422 The results from Li et al. (2018) are limited to only winter snowstorms; the mechanism for

423 producing graupel in winter snowstorms is initiated via the aggregation of ice crystals into snow
 424 aggregates, followed by riming of the snow aggregate into graupel and possibly even small hail as
 425 the rime density increases (Heymsfield, 1982; Li et al., 2018). This process is different from the
 426 coalescence-freezing mechanism in warm-season thunderstorms, but the final shape of the graupel
 427 particles when first lightning flashes occurred in this study approached the shape of moderately or
 428 heavily rimed ice particles in Li et al. (2018).



429

430 **Figure 5. Graupel shape in and/or before the first lightning flash occurrence.** Scatter plots with
 431 error bars for the mean values of Z_H and Z_{DR} corresponding to graupel particles above the $\sim 3^\circ\text{C}$
 432 isotherm height in thunderstorm (orange) and non-thunderstorm (blue) cells during each stage of cloud
 433 development. Error bars are computed as 95% confidence intervals. The inferred differences in the
 434 efficiency of the riming process are shown by the threshold values of Z_H and Z_{DR} ; the shaded area in
 435 blue indicates the high possibility that graupel particles are lightly rimed, and comparatively, the
 436 shaded area in yellow indicates that graupel particles are moderately or heavily rimed. (a) First stage, (b)
 437 second stage, and (c) third stage of cloud development. In addition, the statistical mean values are
 438 given in (d), and the orange (blue) line indicates the mean value of the Z_{DR} corresponding to the above

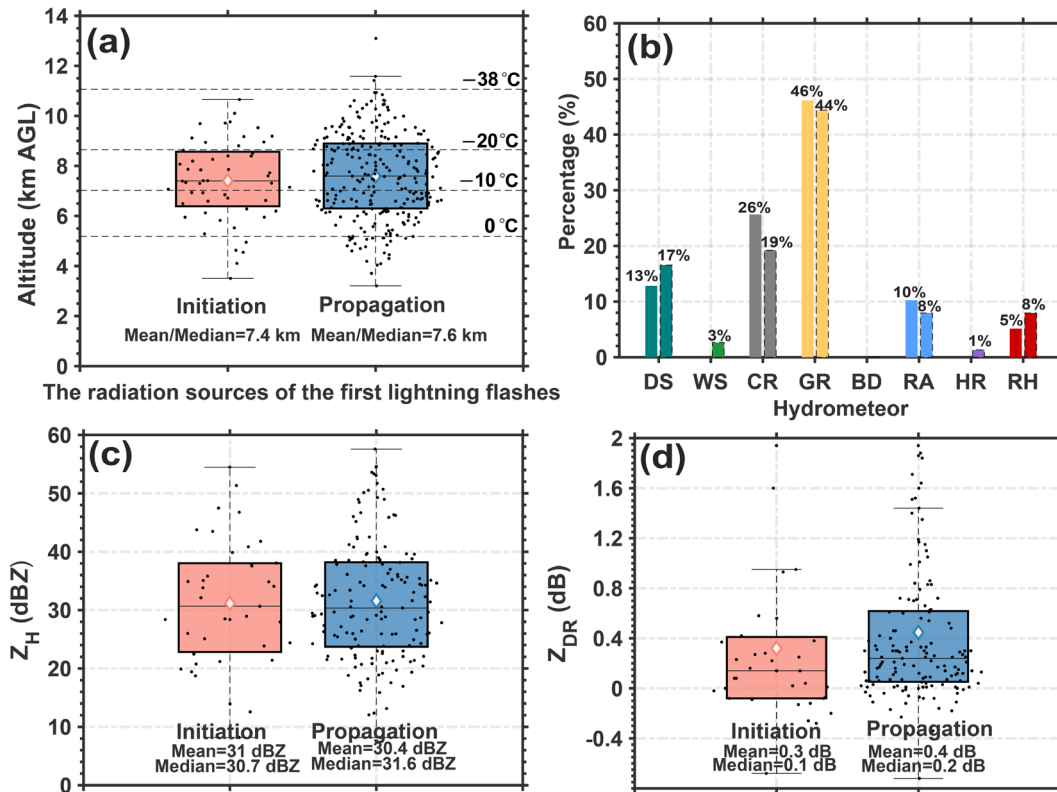
439 scatters in thunderstorms (non-thunderstorms) during each stage of cloud development. The shaded
440 area indicates the 95% confidence interval.

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

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

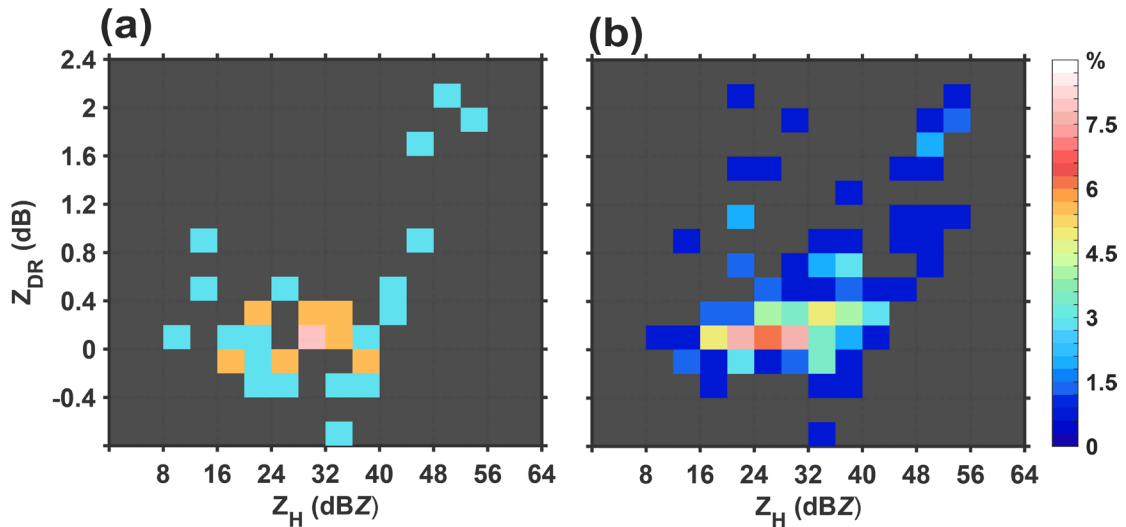
452 The median values of Z_H are near 31 dBZ, and the Z_{DR} values are near 0 dB (Figure 6c, d).
453 Furthermore, Figure 7 displays the frequency of initiation and propagation sources corresponding
454 to value intervals of Z_H (4 dBZ) and Z_{DR} (0.2 dB). The results indicate that the initiation sources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

457 The heights of the initiation sources and propagation sources of the first lightning flashes
458 within isolated thunderstorms over Guangzhou are concentrated at an approximate -10°C
459 isotherm height, which provides supplementary evidence that the main negative charge layer is
460 located at -10°C to -20°C isotherm height on Earth, as reported by Krehbiel (1986). The values of
461 Z_H (Z_{DR}) corresponding to the initiation sources and propagation sources of the first lightning
462 flashes suggest that are differences in particle shape and/or size between initiation sources and
463 propagation sources, although the differences are too subtle to quantify in this study.



464

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



476

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

478

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

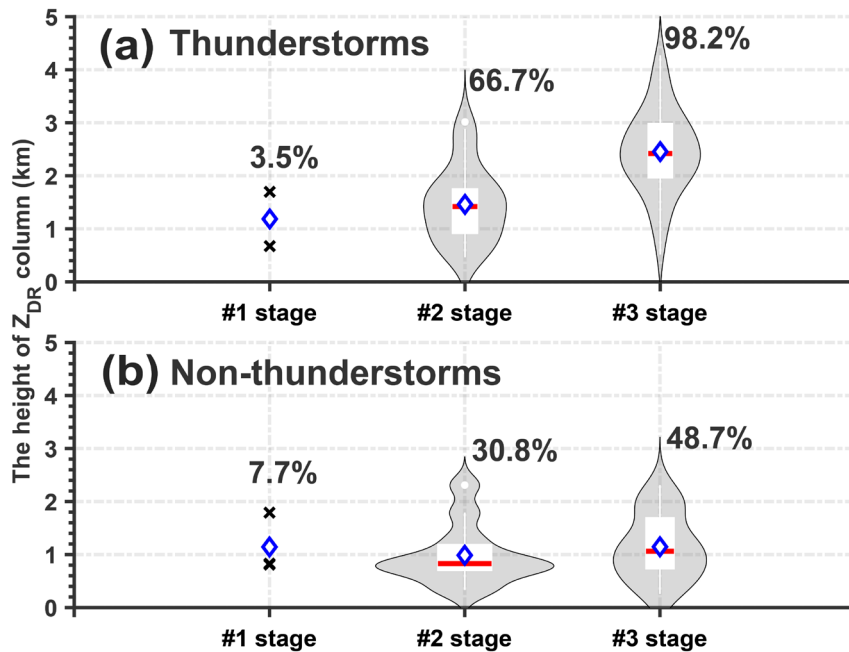
479 *c. Signature of the Z_{DR} column*

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

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

497 presented a shallower Z_{DR} column with a mean value of ~ 0.99 km during the second stage of
 498 cloud development (Figure 8a, b).

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



506

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

513 4. Summary

514 In this study, a combination of lightning location systems and dual-polarization radar
 515 measurements was employed to study the ice microphysics of isolated thunderstorms and
 516 non-thunderstorms in southern China during the warm season. From the unique perspective of

517 comparing radar signatures and inferred graupel information between isolated thunderstorm and
518 non-thunderstorm cells during each stage of cloud development, lightning generation in clouds
519 was found to be a good indicator of the formation of deep convective clouds. The echo intensities,
520 echo-top heights and echo depths were greater in clouds when the first lightning flash occurred,
521 which indicated more severe updrafts in thunderstorms than in non-thunderstorms. Moreover, a
522 greater graupel volume was clearly observed in clouds when the first lightning flash occurred, and
523 the maximum difference in graupel volume in the height layer between thunderstorms and
524 non-thunderstorms reached approximately 7.6 km^3 , corresponding to an approximate -10°C
525 isotherm height.

526 The variation in the average Z_{DR} intensity corresponding to the graupel particles above the
527 $\sim -3^\circ\text{C}$ isotherm height during the three stages of cloud development indicated that graupel
528 particles were more spherical (the mean Z_{DR} value was $\sim 0.3 \text{ dB}$) and were more likely to generate
529 lightning. The Z_{DR} values approached 0 dB , corresponding to stronger Z_{H} values; the average
530 intensity of the Z_{H} exceeded 35 dBZ . When the first lightning flashes occurred in clouds, a
531 decrease in the Z_{DR} value and an increase in the Z_{H} value of graupel were observed; these results
532 indicate that heavily rimed ice particles were present and that the shape of these particles was
533 similar to that of moderately or heavily rimed ice particles within winter snowstorms.

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

541 Moreover, the results indicated a strong relationship between the Z_{DR} column and the
542 occurrence of the first lightning flash; 98.2% of the clouds were equipped with a Z_{DR} column with
543 a mean depth of $\sim 2.5 \text{ km}$ when the first lightning flash occurred. In addition, a deeper Z_{DR} column
544 corresponded to a greater graupel volume. Thus, the coalescence-freezing mechanism dominated
545 the formation of graupel within warm-season isolated thunderstorms over southern China, and the

546 results were consistent with those of previous studies (e.g., Brahams, 1986; Beard, 1992; Herzegh
 547 and Jameson, 1992; Bringi et al., 1997; Smith et al., 1999; Carey and Rutledge, 2000; Stolzenburg
 548 et al., 2015; Mattos et al., 2017) but increased the knowledge of the quantified characteristics of
 549 the Z_{DR} column for the first lightning flash occurrence in warm-season isolated thunderstorms on
 550 the basis of relatively large sample statistics (Table 1 shows details of cases in related
 551 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	×

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

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

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

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

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572

573

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585

586 **Open Research**

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

589

590

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871

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886 **Competing interests**

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