

Unlocking potential: A case study on reducing shortwave radiation bias in the Southern Ocean through improved cloud phase retrievals based on machine learning

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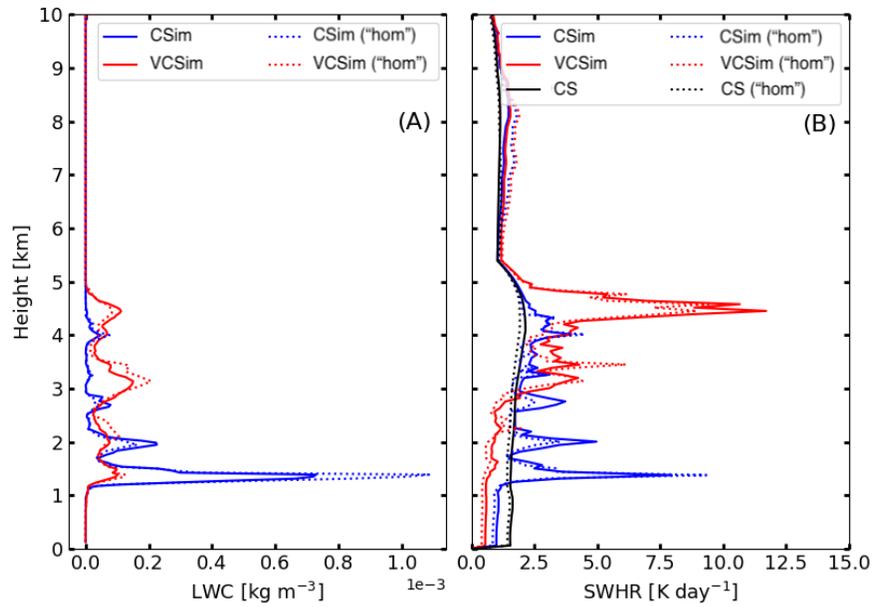
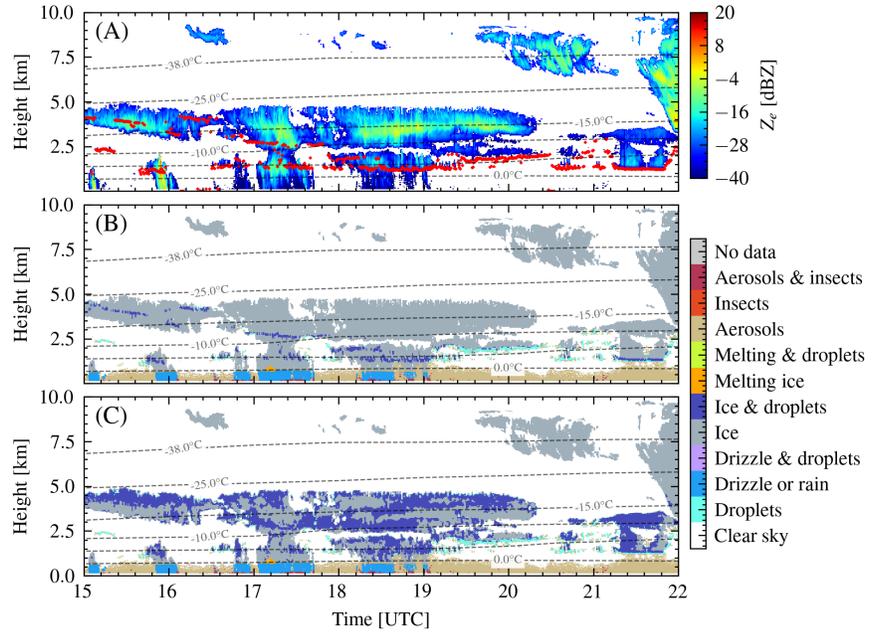
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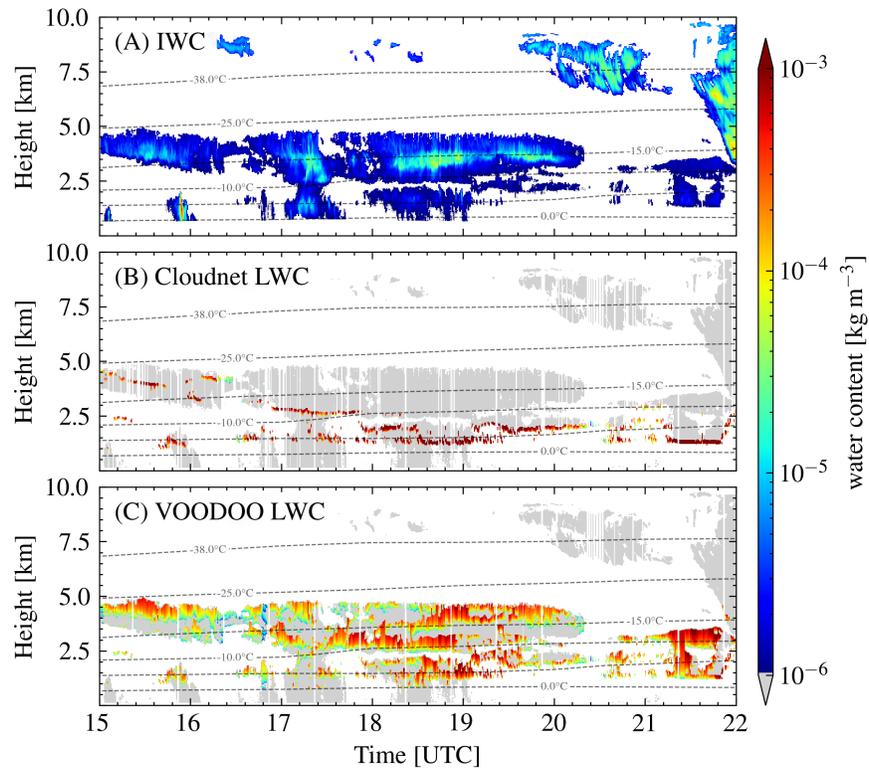
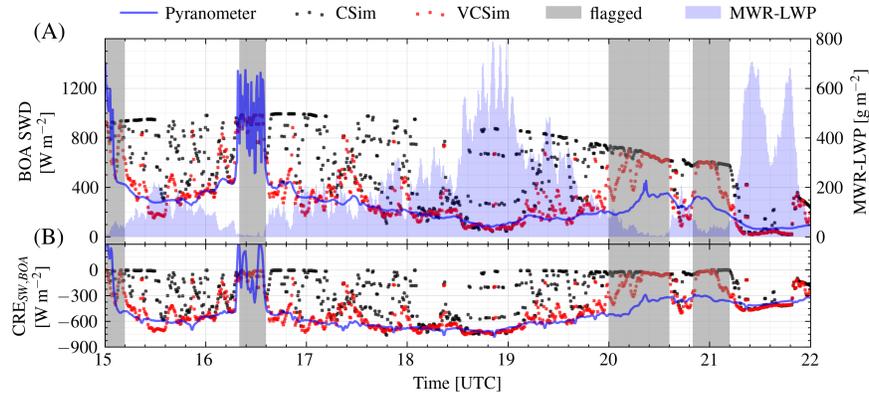
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Abstract

There are significant gaps in both experimental and theoretical understanding of mixed-phase clouds, their impacts on the hydrological cycle as well as their effects on atmospheric radiation. Accurately identifying liquid water layers in mixed-phase clouds is crucial for estimating cloud radiative effects. A proof-of-concept study utilizing a machine-learning-based liquid-layer detection method called VOODOO is presented. This method was applied alongside a single-column radiative transfer model to compare downwelling shortwave fluxes of mixed-phase clouds detected by the standard Cloudnet processing chain and VOODOO to ground-based pyranometer observations. Our findings reveal that VOODOO creates more realistic liquid water content distributions and significantly influences profiles of heating rates. Moreover, our study demonstrates a substantial enhancement in the estimation of shortwave cloud radiative effects of VOODOO compared to conventional method Cloudnet. Specifically, we observe a remarkable reduction in the mean absolute error of simulated shortwave radiation at the surface of 70%, particularly in homogeneous cloud conditions. The mean percentage error of SW cloud radiative effects between Cloudnet and pyranometer observations is 44%, while VOODOO+Cloudnet reduces this error to 8%. Overall, our results underscore the potential of VOODOO to provide new insights into deep mixed-phase clouds, which were previously inaccessible using traditional lidar-based remote sensing techniques.





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10 **Key Points:**

- 11 • A Southern Ocean radiative closure study shows the potential of reducing short-
12 wave radiation bias using a novel machine-learning cloud liquid retrieval.

Abstract

This study outlines the potential of machine-learning-augmented active remote sensing techniques for an accurate representation of the radiative effect of mixed-phase clouds. We utilize a combination of the machine-learning-based liquid-layer detection method VOODOO and a single-column radiative transfer model to evaluate downwelling short wave fluxes of a Southern-Ocean mixed-phase cloud case against ground-based pyranometer observations. A comparison against a standard radar-lidar processing chain reveals that the new approach provides insights into deep mixed-phase clouds, which were previously inaccessible using traditional lidar-based liquid-detection techniques. Specifically, VOODOO creates more realistic liquid water content distributions which significantly influence the profile of heating rates. Moreover, an improved estimation of shortwave cloud radiative effects of the VOODOO-based liquid identification in comparison to the conventional method was derived. The mean absolute error of simulated shortwave radiation at the surface was reduced by 70% from 44% for the conventional method to 8% for the VOODOO approach.

Plain Language Summary

This article discusses the challenges associated with accurately identifying liquid water layers within mixed-phase clouds, which is an important factor in understanding precipitation formation and for estimating cloud radiative effects. While remote-sensing retrievals using lidar can be useful for this purpose, they face limitations in optically thick or multilayer clouds, leading to biases in simulated radiative fluxes. To address this issue, the authors propose a machine-learning-based method called VOODOO designed to better detect supercooled-liquid in clouds. This methodology has the potential to reduce biases in radiative transfer simulations and improve model validation. A proof-of-concept study was conducted using a single-column radiative transfer calculation. This study compares the shortwave cloud radiative effects of mixed-phase clouds detected by Cloudnet algorithm and VOODOO to ground-based observations. The results demonstrate a reduction in shortwave radiation bias, suggesting that liquid-layer detection with machine-learning retrievals has the potential to improve radiative transfer simulations.

1 Introduction

In the Southern Ocean, supercooled liquid water clouds and mixed-phase clouds (MPC) are a prevalent atmospheric features (Hu et al., 2010; Kanitz et al., 2011; Morrison et al., 2011; Huang et al., 2012; Radenz et al., 2021). However, the region suffers from a scarcity of detailed long-term observations, particularly in the southern mid-latitudes. Existing observations are primarily based on limited-sensitivity instruments like lidar-only (Kanitz et al., 2011), space-borne radar-lidar (Zhang et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2016), or short-term ship-based measurements (Gettelman et al., 2020; Mace et al., 2021; Xi et al., 2022). The gap in long-term ground-based remote sensing of the atmosphere motivated the 3-year Dynamics, Aerosol, Clouds, And Precipitation Observations in the Pristine Environment of the Southern Ocean (DACAPO-PESO) field campaign in Punta Arenas (53.1°S, 70.9°W), Chile, and has already provided valuable insights, particularly into shallow mixed-phase clouds (Radenz et al., 2021).

Despite ongoing efforts, significant uncertainties in mixed-phase cloud representation persist in GCMs (McCoy et al., 2016). The correct representation of variables like cloud cover, cloud albedo, outgoing terrestrial radiation, and cloud water content is heavily influenced by the modeled temperature range of coexisting liquid water and ice, as highlighted by Li and Treut (1992) and Gregory and Morris (1996). Various GCMs predict widely differing thermodynamic cloud phase distributions at given temperatures, often failing to match observed spatial distributions and magnitudes (Bony et al., 2006;

62 Grise & Polvani, 2014a; Grise et al., 2015). Additionally, relying solely on vertically
63 integrated water contents for GCM validation can exaggerate discrepancies in cloud ra-
64 diative feedback, as suggested by Komurcu et al. (2014).

65 In the Southern Ocean, GCM estimates of cloud properties are notably uncertain.
66 Common issues include underestimating the amount of supercooled liquid water in clouds,
67 leading to biases in shortwave (SW) radiative fluxes (Kay et al., 2016; Bodas-Salcedo et
68 al., 2016; Gettelman et al., 2020). Inaccuracies in cloud phase representation in reanal-
69 ysis products (Naud et al., 2014) also contribute to the models’ inability to accurately
70 represent supercooled water frequencies in mixed-phase clouds. Even with correct to-
71 tal condensed water content estimations, the reduced albedo of ice-phase clouds due to
72 fewer but larger ice particles compared to smaller and more numerous liquid droplets re-
73 sults in a lower optical thickness for glaciated clouds. Hence, accurately identifying the
74 spatial distribution of liquid droplets in mixed-phase clouds is crucial, not only for their
75 differing radiative properties (Sun & Shine, 1994) but also for their impact on precip-
76 itation formation (Field & Heymsfield, 2015; Mülmenstädt et al., 2015), affecting cloud
77 lifetime.

78 The advancement of synergistic remote-sensing observations and the development
79 of microphysical cloud property retrievals, such as cloud thermodynamic phase, signif-
80 icantly enhance our understanding of mixed-phase cloud processes (Shupe et al., 2005;
81 Bühl et al., 2016; Mace & Protat, 2018; Griesche et al., 2020; Zaremba et al., 2020). Pre-
82 cise cloud thermodynamic phase retrievals are essential for refining GCM cloud phase
83 representations (Fiddes et al., 2022). Studies indicate that shortwave radiative transfer,
84 particularly through mixed-phase clouds, is highly dependent on the quantity and loca-
85 tion of liquid cloud droplets (McFarquhar et al., 2021; Barrientos-Velasco et al., 2022).
86 An underestimation of liquid water path (LWP) results in less opaque clouds, leading
87 to an underestimated shortwave cloud radiative effect at the surface (Cesana & Storelvmo,
88 2017; Tan & Storelvmo, 2019).

89 In this study, we explore the potential of the enhanced cloud phase retrieval method
90 named Cloudnet-VOODOO, to mitigate the SW radiation bias observed in the South-
91 ern Ocean. Our analysis is anchored on a single case study from January 2, 2019, in Punta
92 Arenas, Chile, conducted during the DACAPO-PESO field campaign. This case study
93 not only provides specific insights but also serves as a proof-of-concept for subsequent,
94 more extensive investigations. The findings and methodologies applied here lay the ground-
95 work for future research, potentially leading to broader applications and deeper under-
96 standing in the field.

97 The structure of this work is organized as follows: Section 2 introduces the dataset,
98 followed by Section 3, which describes of the enhanced cloud phase detection algorithm
99 VOODOO. This section also details the set-up of the radiative transfer simulation em-
100 ployed in our study. In Section 4, we present the outcomes of our study, focusing on the
101 evaluation of our method’s effectiveness in addressing the SW radiation bias. Conclu-
102 sions and an outlook are given in Section 5.

103 2 Datasets

104 2.1 Primary data sources

105 The core instrumentation used for this work is provided by the Leipzig Institute
106 for Meteorology (LIM) and the Leibniz Institute for Tropospheric Research (TROPOS).
107 The study utilizes five distinct data sources, enumerated as below. Additional informa-
108 tion about the instruments is provided in Table 1.

- 109 1. Profiles of cloud radar Doppler spectra and moments, sourced from the RPG-FMCW94-
 110 DP, which is a 94 GHz frequency-modulated continuous-wave (FMCW), vertically-
 111 pointing Doppler cloud radar with polarimetric capabilities.
- 112 2. Attenuated backscatter coefficient (β_{att}) profiles, obtained from the Jenoptik CHM15kx,
 113 a ceilometer operating at 1064 nm wavelength.
- 114 3. Liquid Water Path (LWP) measurements, retrieved from the RPG-HATPRO-G2.
 115 This instrument is a 14-channel microwave radiometer (MWR).
- 116 4. Atmospheric data including temperature, relative humidity, and pressure, collected
 117 from the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts Integrated Fore-
 118 casting System (ECMWF-IFS).
- 119 5. Shortwave downward irradiance data, as measured by a Class A pyranometer (ISO
 120 9060:2018 standard), specifically the MS-80 model from EKO Instruments.

Table 1. Specifications of instruments/models and measured/modeled quantities used in this study.

Data source (Reference)	Frequency ν Wavelength λ	Measured / retrieved quantity	Temporal resolution	Vertical range	Vertical resolution
Doppler cloud radar RPG-FMCW-94-DP (Küchler et al., 2017)	$\nu = 94$ GHz	Spectral power $S(\nu_D)$ Radar reflectivity factor Z_e Mean Doppler velocity \bar{v}_D Spectrum width σ_w Linear depolarization ratio LDR	5 s	120–12000 m	30–45 m
Microwave radiometer RPG-HATPRO-G2 (Rose et al., 2005)	$\nu = 22.24$ – 31.4 GHz $\nu = 51.0$ – 58.0 GHz	Brightness temperatures Liquid water path LWP	1 s	column integral	
Ceilometer Jenoptik CHM15kx (Heese et al., 2010)	$\lambda = 1064$ nm	Attenuated backscatter coefficient β_{att}	30 s	15–15000 m	15 m
Weather model forecast ECMWF-IFS ("ECMWF Forecast User Guide", 2018)		Temperature T Pressure P Relative Humidity H	3600 s	10–12000 m	20–300 m
Radiation MORDOR (<i>Mobile Radiation Observatory (MORDOR)</i> , 2022)	$\lambda = 0.3$ – 4 μm	Shortwave downward irradiance SW	1 s	column integral	

121 The dataset of atmospheric state variables used as input parameters for the radiative
 122 transfer simulations are based on the hourly pressure level profiles of temperature,
 123 pressure, ozone mass mixing ratio and specific humidity from the European Centre for
 124 Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) Re-Analysis (ERA5), and single levels of
 125 surface pressure and skin temperature (Hersbach et al., 2020). The ERA5 dataset has
 126 a spatial grid from 0.25° latitude by 0.25° longitude. We opted for this dataset due its
 127 consistency and realistic representation of the atmospheric conditions as described in pre-
 128 vious studies (Goyal et al., 2021; Hoffmann & Spang, 2022).

129 Although, the DACAPO-PESO field campaign was conducted over a period of three
 130 years (November 2018 – November 2021) we here focus on a single case study from Jan-
 131 uary 2, 2019. This can be explained by three factors: Firstly, the RPG Doppler cloud
 132 radar which is the main instrument required for the novel thermodynamic phase retrieval,
 133 was only deployed for the first 9 months of the field campaign (November 2018 – Septem-
 134 ber 2019). Secondly, high-quality surface pyranometer data crucial for validating the short-
 135 wave radiative transfer simulations was reliably obtained for only a continuous two-month
 136 period (January 2019 – February 2019). Thirdly, to conduct the presented analysis, sev-
 137 eral meteorological conditions have to be fulfilled. Those include a homogeneous cover
 138 of non-precipitating multilayer mixed-phase clouds during daylight. Given these constraints,
 139 only one case study could be identified during January 2019 – February 2019. This spe-
 140 cific case study serves as an illustrative proof-of-concept study.

141 3 Methodology

142 The following section firstly describes the methods to retrieve the cloud macro- and
 143 microphysical properties used to generate the input data for the radiative transfer sim-
 144 ulations (RTS). Secondly, it describes RTS framework used to model the shortwave ir-
 145 radiances and to derive the cloud radiative effects.

146 3.1 Description of Cloudnet and VOODOO

147 Cloud macro- and microphysical products like cloud base- and top height, liquid-
 148 and ice water content as well as effective radii of liquid droplets and ice particles are de-
 149 rived on a profile-by-profile basis from the presented ground-based data of MWR, cloud
 150 radar and ceilometer as well as temperature and pressure from the ECMWF-IFS (see
 151 Table 1). These products are essential as they form key input parameters for the radi-
 152 ative transfer simulations, were processed using the Cloudnet approach, additionally gen-
 153 erates an atmospheric target classification, which categorizes each pixel in the spatio-
 154 temporal domain to a certain hydrometeor class (i.e. ice, cloud droplets, melting ice, driz-
 155 zle, rain). We have adopted the processing chain of the classical multi-sensor method-
 156 ology Cloudnet, originally conceptualized by Illingworth et al. (2007) by improving the
 157 liquid cloud droplet detection beyond lidar attenuation using Schimmel et al. (2022).

158 However, in Cloudnet the identification of liquid droplets relies entirely on the at-
 159 tenuated backscatter coefficient β_{att} of the lidar, which is quickly attenuated by liquid
 160 layers. For this reason, the liquid droplet detection of CloudnetPy beyond full lidar at-
 161 tenuation is not reliable, limiting the application to thin, single layer stratiform clouds.
 162 The new machine learning approach by Schimmel et al. (2022) is used as add-on to Cloud-
 163 netPy, for reVealing superCOoled liquiD layers beyOnd lidar attenuatiOn (VOODOO).
 164 The VOODOO algorithm is based on a convolutional neural network. Radar Doppler
 165 spectra features are processed into a likelihood for the presence of liquid cloud droplets.
 166 Liquid cloud droplet predictions by VOODOO are used to augment the Cloudnet atmo-
 167 spheric target classification in altitudes where no valid lidar signal is received. Clearly,
 168 Cloudnet’s lidar-based approach has an advantage in detecting even thin liquid water
 169 layers, whereas VOODOO’s radar approach can be used primarily to reveal liquid wa-
 170 ter layers beyond lidar attenuation in multi-layer situations or deep mixed-phase clouds.
 171 Both approaches complement each other perfectly and are now available as Cloudnet tar-
 172 get classification product in the latest Python-based GitHub release [github.com/actris-
 173 -cloudnet/cloudnetpy](https://github.com/actris-cloudnet/cloudnetpy). The VOODOO method is also available as stand-alone version
 174 github.com/actris-cloudnet/voodooonet.

175 In addition, Cloudnet provides the derivation of microphysical products, such as
 176 Ice Water Content (IWC) and Liquid Water Content (LWC), as well as effective radii
 177 of ice crystals ($r_{\text{eff}}^{\text{ice}}$) using Hogan et al. (2006); Delanoë et al. (2007); Griesche et al. (2020);
 178 Frisch et al. (2000) and liquid droplets ($r_{\text{eff}}^{\text{liq}}$) using Frisch et al. (1995, 1998, 2000). The
 179 implementation of the Cloudnet algorithm is based on its latest iteration, CloudnetPy,
 180 which is described in detail in Tukiainen et al. (2020). Crucially, for the purposes of this
 181 study, all Cloudnet-derived products have been systematically regridded to a uniform
 182 grid using the radar range resolution and a temporal resolution of 30 seconds.

183 3.2 Description of T-CARS

184 The radiative transfer simulations were carried out using the TROPOS – Cloud
 185 and Aerosol Radiative effect Simulator (hereafter T-CARS). T-CARS is a Python-based
 186 environment created to conduct radiative transfer simulations with a particular focus on
 187 the investigation of the radiative effects of aerosols, and clouds (Barlakas et al., 2020;
 188 Witthuhn et al., 2021; Barrientos-Velasco et al., 2022). The radiative transfer solver used
 189 is a 1D single column rapid radiative transfer model (RRTM) for GCM applications (RRTMG;

190 Mlawer et al. (1997); Barker et al. (2003); Clough et al. (2005)). T-CARS output files
 191 have a standard atmospheric grid that consists of 197 levels ranging from the surface up
 192 to 20 km height at 1-minute temporal resolution, as described in Barrientos-Velasco et
 193 al. (2022) and published on Zenodo (Barrientos-Velasco, 2023). The first 10 km of the
 194 atmosphere is divided into 160 levels with a geometric layer thickness of about 62.5 m.
 195 The level thickness of each pixel for the first 10 km of the atmosphere corresponds to
 196 two vertical levels of Cloudnet pixels, which are averaged to the standard grid. This con-
 197 figuration ensures that the atmospheric grid does not exceed the model set-up limit of
 198 200 atmospheric levels. The T-CARS output files provide simulated clear-sky and all-
 199 sky atmospheric profiles of broadband longwave (LW) and SW radiative fluxes and heat-
 200 ing rates. We focus on the SW broadband flux by calculating the flux difference between
 201 simulated and observed radiative fluxes, describing heating rates and computing the SW
 202 cloud radiative effect (CRE) following Eq. 1.

$$CRE_{SW,BOA} = (F_{SW}^{\downarrow} - F_{SW}^{\uparrow})_{All-sky} - (F_{SW}^{\downarrow} - F_{SW}^{\uparrow})_{Clear-sky}. \quad (1)$$

203 4 Results

204 The results are divided into two subsections. The first subsection offers a detailed
 205 overview of the cloud conditions on January 2, 2019, in Punta Arenas, Chile. This is fol-
 206 lowed by the description of the cloud microphysical quantities retrieved using Cloudnet
 207 and the enhanced retrieval method, VOODOO. The second subsection focuses on the
 208 analysis of the radiative transfer simulations, contrasting simulations using solely Cloud-
 209 net (termed Cloudnet-Sim or CSim) with those combining VOODOO and Cloudnet in-
 210 puts (referred to as VOODOO-Cloudnet-Sim or VCSim). This section focuses on eval-
 211 uating the bottom-of-atmosphere (BOA) downwelling shortwave (SWD) radiative fluxes
 212 and includes calculations of the shortwave cloud radiative effect (CRE) and the SW heat-
 213 ing rate. The distinctions and insights derived from these simulations are presented in
 214 Table 2, Fig. 3, and Fig. 4, offering a nuanced view of the methodologies' impact.

215 4.1 Cloud microphysical retrieval results

216 In the first step of this analysis, we quantify the effects of the improved thermo-
 217 dynamic phase classification by VOODOO in comparison to the reference retrieval, Cloud-
 218 net.

219 We focus on the period between 15:00–22:00 UTC on 2 January 2019 in Punta Are-
 220 nas Chile, when multilayer mixed-phase clouds were observed. Figure 1 shows the radar
 221 reflectivity factor Z_e (A), the target classification of Cloudnet (B) and the combined tar-
 222 get classification of Cloudnet+VOODOO (C). During the first half of the case study, mul-
 223 tiple showers of low precipitation intensity were observed by the radar. However, no mea-
 224 surable precipitation reached the ground-based in-situ rain sensors. The ceilometer cloud
 225 base height shown by red dots in Fig. 1 (A) indicates the supercooled liquid layer heights,
 226 that match the liquid detection (classes: 'Droplets' and 'Ice & droplets') in the Cloud-
 227 net target classification (B). However, as described above, the lidar-based liquid detec-
 228 tion in the standard Cloudnet algorithm is only possible until full lidar attenuation, thus
 229 liquid layers at higher altitudes remain undetected. In contrast, VOODOO reveals ad-
 230 ditional supercooled liquid layers in altitudes between 2.5–5.0 km with cloud top tem-
 231 peratures down to $T = -25^\circ\text{C}$.

232 The enhanced liquid detection of VOODOO is used in the next step to improve the
 233 Cloudnet products, which are required input parameters for the radiative transfer sim-
 234 ulations, namely IWC and LWC as shown in Fig. 2 and effective radii of ice crystals and
 235 droplets (not shown). The IWC values, as shown in panel (A), are consistent between
 236 Cloudnet and VOODOO, ranging from 10^{-5} to $2 \times 10^{-4} \text{ kg m}^{-3}$. This is because both

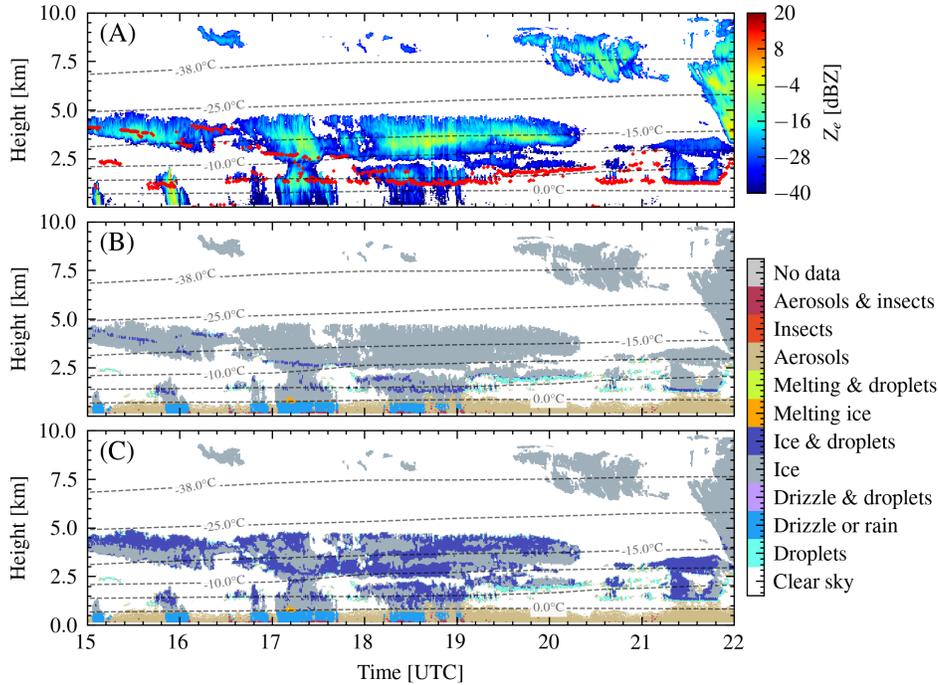


Figure 1. Cloud situation on 2 January 2019 in Punta Arenas, Chile. (A) Radar reflectivity Z_e , (B) atmospheric target classification of Cloudnet, and (C) combination of atmospheric target classification of Cloudnet enhanced by the liquid predictions of VOODOO. Dashed lines depict the isotherm lines from ECMWF temperature profiles. The red dots in (A) indicate the ceilometer cloud base height.

237 Cloudnet and VOODOO utilize all ice-containing classes (such as 'ice' and 'ice + droplets')
 238 from the target classification to compute the IWC. However, differences in the distribu-
 239 tion of the liquid layers within the observed clouds are clearly visible in Fig. 2 (B), (C).
 240 The scaling approach used in Cloudnet, distributes all liquid water detected by the MWR
 241 into the thin liquid layers (with depths < 150 m), resulting in Cloudnet mean LWC val-
 242 ues of $3 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg m}^{-3}$. In contrast, the use of VOODOO for liquid detection enables
 243 the LWC to be distributed over a broader depth of liquid layers, resulting in reduced aver-
 244 age LWC values per volume of $5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ kg m}^{-3}$.

245 4.2 Analysis of simulated SW radiative fluxes and heating rates

246 Single column radiative transfer simulations were conducted to quantify the SW
 247 radiative effect of varying cloud microphysical properties, based on Cloudnet (CSim) and
 248 VOODOO (VCSim). This analysis primarily focused on comparing irradiances and cloud
 249 radiative effects of SWD simulations using T-CARS to SWD observations at BOA, as
 250 depicted in Figure 3 A and B, and atmospheric SW heating rates shown in Figure 4. The
 251 findings are summarized in Table 2.

252 The comparison distinguishes between periods of homogeneous and inhomogeneous
 253 cloud cover, with the latter indicated by grey patches in Figure 3 starting at 20:00 UTC
 254 and 21:00 UTC. This differentiation is crucial when comparing pencil-beam radar-lidar
 255 observations against the hemispherical view of the broadband pyranometer measurements.
 256 It is important to note that conditions with broken clouds starting at 15:00 UTC and
 257 16:20 UTC were excluded from the comparison. Under these broken cloud conditions,

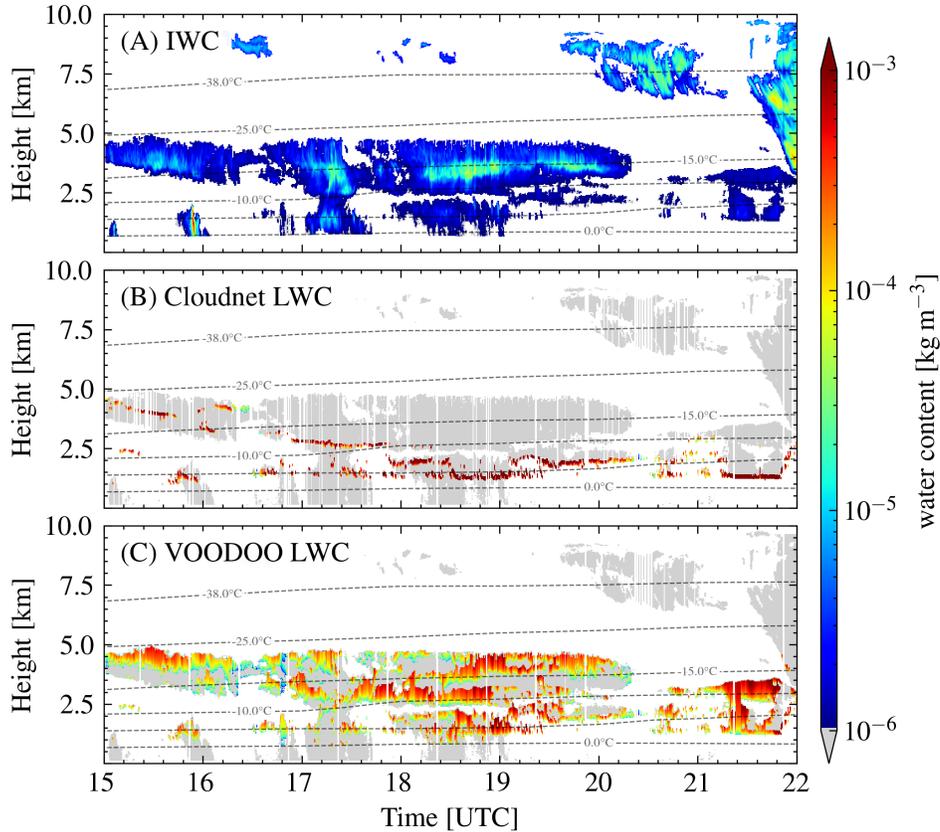


Figure 2. Panel (A) shows ice water content derived from both, Cloudnet and VOODOO, for 2 January 2019 in Punta Arenas, Chile. (B) Cloudnet liquid water content, and (C) Cloudnet liquid water content enhanced by liquid predictions of VOODOO. In (B) and (C), colored pixels reflect liquid-bearing cloud volumes and grey pixels other hydrometeor types (see Fig. 1). Dashed lines depict the isotherm lines from ECMWF temperature profiles. The corresponding liquid water path to panel B and C is shown in Fig. 3A.

258 multiple scattering of SW radiation increases the diffuse SW, leading to larger values than
 259 those observed during clear-sky conditions, which complicates the comparison with the
 260 simulations.

261 The comparative analysis between simulated and observed SWD fluxes at BOA (Fig-
 262 ure 3 A) reveals a closer agreement between the simulations and pyranometer observa-
 263 tions when incorporating VOODOO-based inputs compared to Cloudnet-only inputs.
 264 VCSim demonstrates a significant reduction in the mean absolute bias of SWD radi-
 265 ation by 70% under homogeneous cloud conditions. While reductions are also observed
 266 during broken cloud conditions in VCSim, they are comparatively less pronounced. How-
 267 ever, it is important to acknowledge that one-dimensional radiative transfer simulations
 268 are less effective in resolving broken cloud conditions. More sophisticated methodolo-
 269 gies such as three-dimensional radiative transfer models would be required to accurately
 270 capture such conditions. This type of analysis is not within the scope of this study.

271 Panel B in Figure 3 displays the time series of the calculated $CRE_{SW,BOA}$ using
 272 CSim and VCSim, alongside a computation that substitutes simulated all-sky SWD flux
 273 with downwelling pyranometer observations. The results show a strong agreement be-

Table 2. Table of BOA-SWD radiation fluxes and $CRE_{SW,BOA}$. Shown are time-series mean values (Mean) in $W m^{-2}$, correlation coefficient (r^2), root mean squared error (RMSE) in $W m^{-2}$, mean absolute error (MAE) in $W m^{-2}$, of pyranometer (Obs) as well as T-CARS simulations using Cloudnet (CSim) or VOODOO-Cloudnet (VCSim) as input for the case study on 2 January 2019 in Punta Arenas, Chile. Results cover two scenarios: 'inhom', analyzing the entire 15:00 to 22:00 UTC period, and 'hom', focusing on homogeneously distributed stratiform clouds without broken cloud effects.

		Mean	r^2	RMSE	MAE
		Obs / CSim / VCSim	CSim / VCSim	CSim / VCSim	CSim / VCSim
BOA-SWD	inhom.	274 / 564 / 349	0.53 / 0.73	381 / 180	315 / 125
	hom.	191 / 432 / 234	0.50 / 0.77	345 / 126	251 / 74
$CRE_{SW,BOA}$	inhom.	-511 / -247 / -437	0.42 / 0.70	348 / 177	290 / 124
	hom.	-499 / -281 / -457	0.32 / 0.79	313 / 126	229 / 74

274 tween VCSim (red dots) and calculations using observational data (blue line), resulting
 275 in correlation coefficients above 0.7 in both homogeneous and when including inhomo-
 276 geneous cloud conditions. Due to the underestimation of supercooled liquid occurrence
 277 higher up in the atmospheric column, CSim-based simulations lead to a strong under-
 278 estimation of SW cooling at BOA (Fig. 3B, black dots). Because of the improved supercooled-
 279 liquid detection, VCSim results of $CRE_{SW,BOA}$ qualitatively match the pyranometer-
 280 based CRE better and lead to a reduction in the mean absolute error by 68 % compared
 281 to CSim results. The mean percentage error of $CRE_{SW,BOA}$ between CSim and pyra-
 282 nometer observations is 44 %, while VCSim reduces this error to 8 % for homogeneous
 283 cloud conditions, as detailed in Table 2.

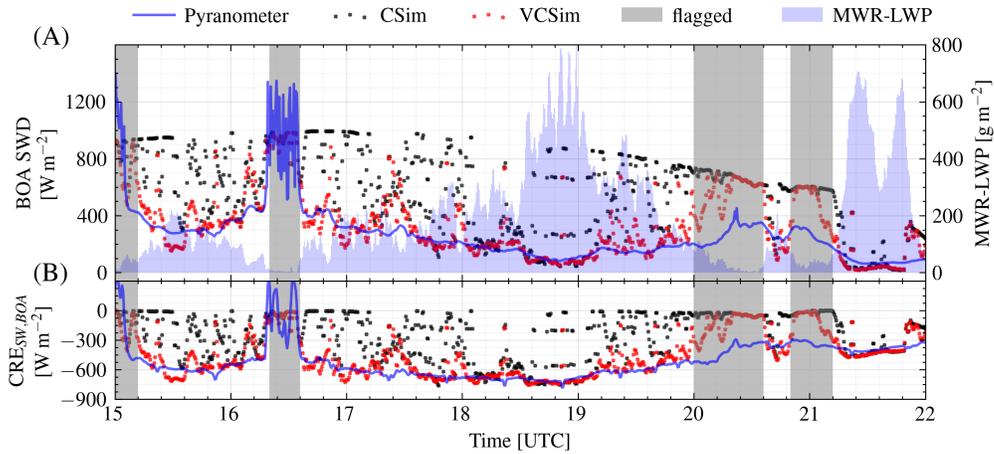


Figure 3.

(A) Time series of bottom-of-atmosphere (BOA) shortwave downwelling irradiance pyranometer observations (blue line, left y-axis), simulations (black and red dots, left y-axis) and retrieved MWR-LWP (blue bars, right y-axis). (B) Time series of BOA cloud radiative effect based on simulated SW fluxes for Cloudnet (black dots) and VOODOO+Cloudnet (red dots). Boxes flagged in grey indicate time frames with broken clouds or inhomogeneously distributed clouds.

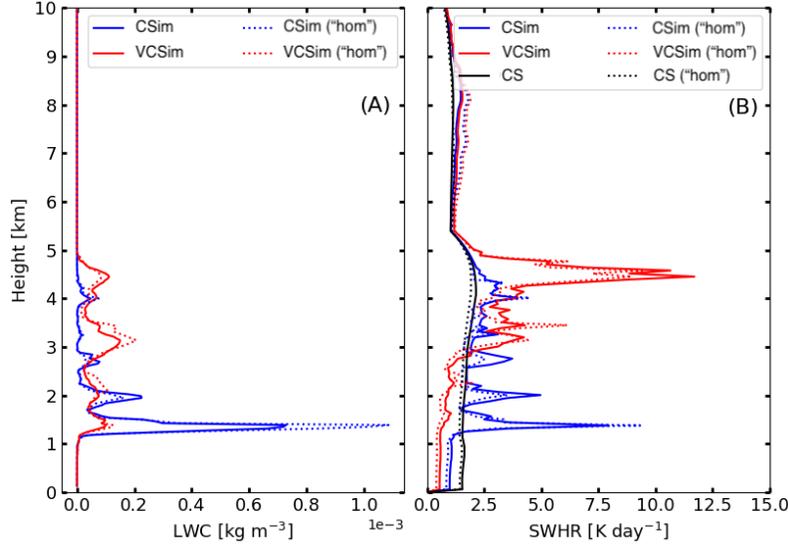


Figure 4. Mean profiles of liquid water content (LWC) in (A) and shortwave atmospheric heating rate (SWHR) for all-sky conditions for Cloudnet (blue line), VOODOO-Cloudnet (red line), and clear-sky (CS; black line) in panel (B). Solid lines show SWHR for the entire period 15:00–22:00 UTC on 2 January 2019 and dotted line for homogeneous clouds ("hom") only.

284 The calculation of the atmospheric change in the net SW flux (i.e., downwelling
 285 SW minus upwelling SW flux) in the atmosphere is expressed in terms of SW heating
 286 rates. Atmospheric heating rates quantify the cloud-induced changes in the temperature
 287 profile in the vicinity of clouds. We computed the SW heating rates (SWHR) for both
 288 VCSim and CSim results. This analysis highlights the impact of liquid layer locations
 289 on the SW heating effect, as depicted in Figure 4.

290 Notably, the VCSim simulations, which retrieve liquid layers up to approximately
 291 4.5 km height, result in significant cloud top warming of up to 12 K per day. This warm-
 292 ing effect at higher altitudes concurrently mitigates warming in the lower atmosphere
 293 due to a portion of this radiation being reflected upward. In contrast, CSim-based sim-
 294 ulations, which predominantly feature cloud opacity around 1.5 km, yield a SWHR of
 295 approximately 9 K per day at this height.

296 Overall, the mean SWHR remains relatively consistent between homogeneous and
 297 inhomogeneous cloud conditions. The minor variations observed in Figure 4B primar-
 298 ily stem from an increase in LWC under homogeneous cloud conditions, as elaborated
 299 in Figure 4A. Additionally, it's noteworthy that the clear-sky profiles, represented by a
 300 solid black line in Figure 4B, exhibit marginally positive SWHR due to increased wa-
 301 ter vapor at cloud heights.

302 5 Discussions, Conclusions and Outlook

303 This study demonstrates the integration of radiative transfer models with the in-
 304 novative machine learning method, VOODOO, for cloud liquid detection. Our findings
 305 illustrate a reduction in shortwave (SW) radiation biases and enhancements in estimates
 306 of SW heating rates. The study focuses on a multilayer mixed-phase cloud case study
 307 in the Southern Hemisphere in Punta Arenas, Chile. The approach consists in improv-
 308 ing the multi-sensor products (LWC and $r_{\text{eff}}^{\text{liq}}$) of Cloudnet by using VOODOO. Single

column 1D radiative transfer simulations were conducted to assess the applicability of VOODOO and Cloudnet and quantify the differences in radiative fluxes at BOA. Given the availability of ground-based radiation flux measurements, our analysis focused on the broadband SW fluxes. The key findings are summarized below:

- VOODOO-based simulations exhibit a significant reduction in SW flux biases at BOA of more than 70 % (MAE) and 63 % (RMSE), suggesting a great improvement to the use of the Cloudnet retrievals alone.
- Regarding CRE_{SW} at BOA, our results improved the liquid detection of VOODOO leads to a significant reduction in SW radiation bias of CRE of 67 % (MAE) and 60 % (RMSE) in multi-layer cloud situations compared to the Cloudnet-only microphysical retrievals.
- The value of observed CRE_{SW} of about -500 W m^{-2} for the presented multilayer mixed-phase cloud is consistent with the findings of Protat et al. (2017), who report values of CRE_{SW} of up to -440 W m^{-2} for March 2015 in the Southern Ocean, and with Grise and Polvani (2014b) indicating significant CRE_{SW} ranging from -120 to -150 W m^{-2} for the location of Punta Arenas during summer based on satellite observations and model evaluations. It is important to note, however, that their results are averaged for a more extended period and area of analysis, thus the magnitude of the values is lower. The large instantaneous CRE_{SW} values presented in our study are predominantly influenced by the presence of supercooled liquid layers in mixed-phase clouds characteristic of the region, as discussed in Bodas-Salcedo et al. (2016).
- The comparison of SWHR revealed a significant difference in the altitude of the SW warming effect. This underscores the importance of accurately retrieving the distribution of liquid water content within clouds, as it has a profound effect on radiation. This effect is particularly pronounced in stratiform clouds, where atmospheric radiation plays a more significant role in the diabatic heating of the atmosphere. This, in turn, can potentially perturb the local atmospheric stability (Turner et al., 2018).

The presented proof-of-concept study outlines the promising application of VOODOO to reduce shortwave radiation biases caused by the misclassification of cloud thermodynamic phase and the subsequent inaccuracies in locating LWC within the atmospheric column, which is crucial for Southern Ocean clouds. This technique holds potential for addressing similar challenges in other regions where MPC representation is challenging, as previously described (Barrientos-Velasco et al., 2022; Fiddes et al., 2022).

However, it is important to note that the current analysis has limitations. The Doppler spectrum-based liquid detection VOODOO was originally designed for cloud radars of type RPG-FMCW and has yet to be adapted for use with cloud radars from other manufacturers. This would allow for analysis of other Southern Ocean field campaign data such as ARM MARCUS campaign (Xi et al., 2022).

Future studies should also be extended to consider the effect of longwave radiative flux. Moreover, there is a plan to test the VOODOO-based method on future long-term Southern Ocean deployments of the Leipzig Aerosol and Cloud Remote Observations System (LACROS) station on the South Island of New Zealand. These efforts aim to enhance the understanding of cloud-radiation interaction field campaigns in this critical region planned for 2025-2026.

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368 6 Code and Data Availability Statement

369 The CloudnetPy framework, incorporating the VOODOO processing, is accessi-
 370 ble at the CloudnetPy GitHub Repository <https://github.com/actris-cloudnet/cloudnetpy>.
 371 Additionally, a stand-alone version of VOODOO can be found at [https://github.com/](https://github.com/actris-cloudnet/voodooonet)
 372 [actris-cloudnet/voodooonet](https://github.com/actris-cloudnet/voodooonet). For the Cloudnet products and the data files enhanced
 373 by VOODOO, please refer to the Zenodo Cloudnet and VOODOO Dataset [https://](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7760395)
 374 doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7760395. The data files generated from the radiative trans-
 375 fer simulations in this study are also available on Zenodo via [https://doi.org/10.5281/](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7674862)
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Figure 1.

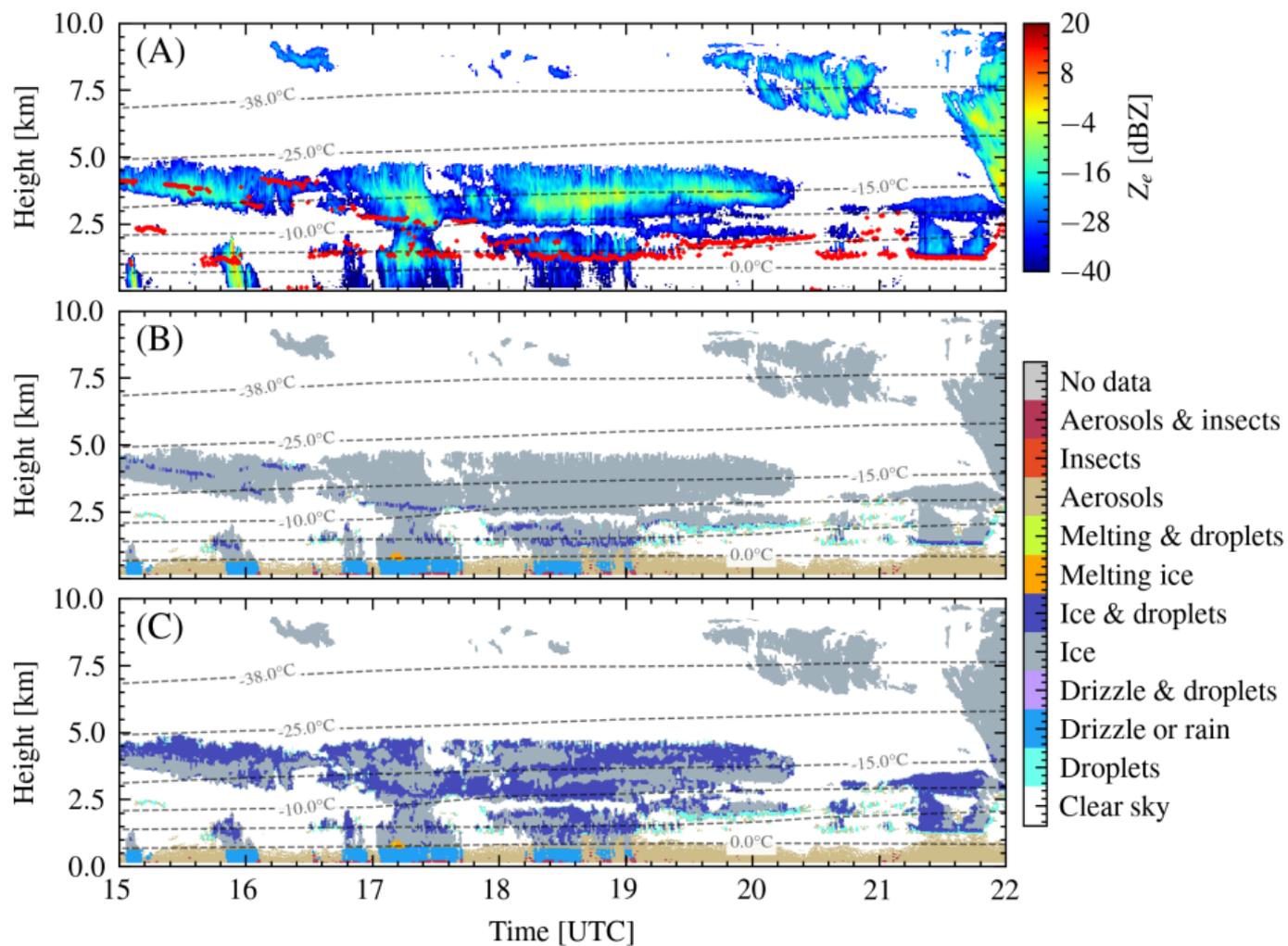


Figure 2.

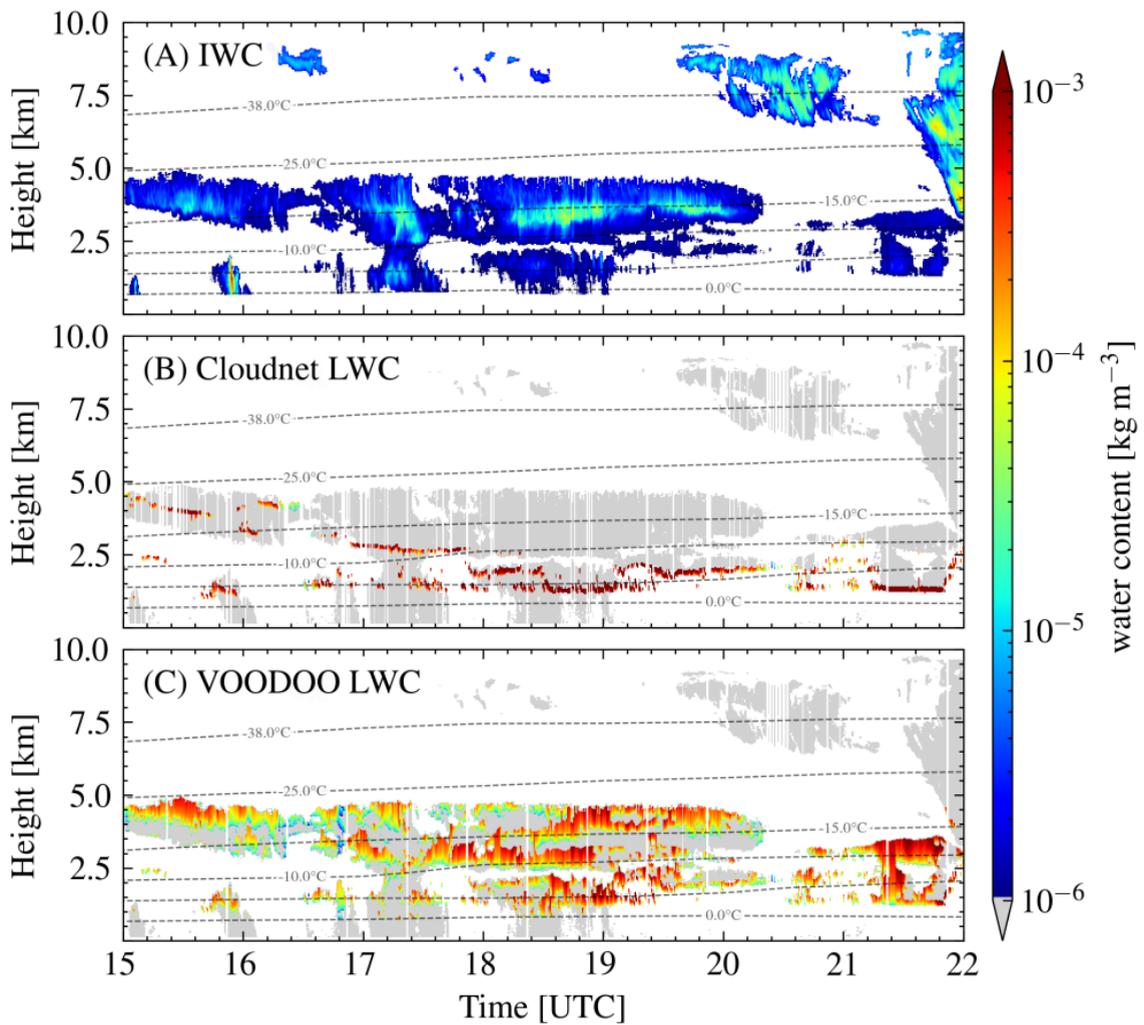


Figure 3.

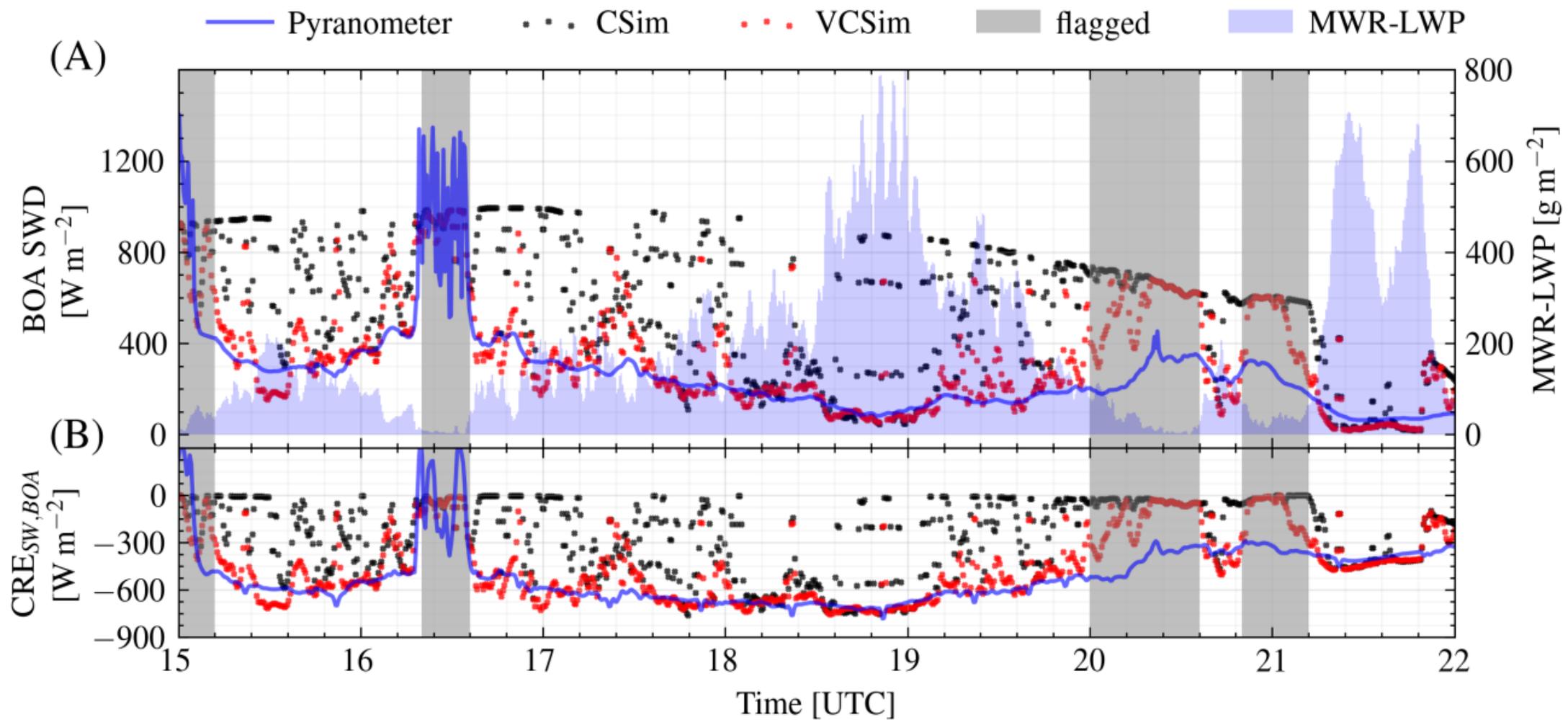


Figure 4.

