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## **Entrainment rate diurnal cycle in marine stratiform clouds estimated from geostationary satellite retrievals and a meteorological forecast model**

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## 44           **Abstract**

45           The mean diurnal cycle of cloud entrainment rate ( $w_e$ ) over the northeast Pacific  
46 region is for the first time computed by combining, in a mixed-layer model framework, the hourly-  
47 composited GOES-15 satellite-based cloud top height ( $H_T$ ) tendency, advection, and large-scale  
48 vertical velocity ( $w$ ) during May to September 2013, with horizontal winds and  $w$  taken from the  
49 ECMWF forecast model. The tendency term dominates the magnitude and phase of the  $w_e$  diurnal  
50 cycle, with a secondary role of  $w$ , and a modest advective contribution. The peak and minimum in  
51  $w_e$  occur between 20:00-22:00 LT and 9:00-11:00 LT, respectively, in close agreement with the  
52 diurnal cycle of turbulence driven by cloud-top longwave cooling. Uncertainties in  $H_T$  and  
53 ECMWF fields are assessed with in-situ observations and three meteorological reanalysis datasets.  
54 This study provides the basis for constructing nearly-global climatologies of  $w_e$  by combining a  
55 suite of well-calibrated geostationary satellites.

56

## 57   **1. Introduction**

58           Cloud entrainment, the mixing of non-turbulent cloud-free air at the edges of the cloud  
59 layer, is a central mechanism governing cloud lifecycles within the cloud-topped marine boundary  
60 layer. Cloud top entrainment across the inversion base regulates the boundary layer turbulence,  
61 growth [Lilly, 1968], as well as the cloud cover and microphysical evolution in climatically  
62 important marine boundary layer regimes [Wood, 2012]. Thus, a proper parameterization of  
63 entrainment in climate models is paramount for simulating realistic cloud fields. Although  
64 entrainment rate measurements would be helpful for testing different entrainment closures in  
65 models, such estimates are scarce and limited to a few observational studies [Wood *et al.*, 2016].

66           Entrainment rates ( $w_e$ ) from in-situ data are generally derived from aircraft measurements,  
67 by relating observed quantities to entrainment. Methods for estimating  $w_e$  include the use of the  
68 water budget equation, turbulence fluxes for conserved scalars near the inversion base, and the  
69 boundary layer (BL) mass budget equation in a mixed-layer model framework [e.g. *Bretherton et*  
70 *al.*, 1995; *Lenschow et al.*, 1999]. A shortcoming of these aircraft-based estimates is that direct  
71 comparisons with modeling results are difficult because the sparse aircraft sampling hinders a  
72 reliable estimation of climatologically representative entrainment rates. Among the different  
73 techniques for deriving  $w_e$ , the BL mass budget equation method is particularly appealing because  
74 the necessary measurements of inversion base or cloud top height are available from many ground-  
75 based sites equipped with radiosondes and cloud radars [e.g. *Caldwell et al.*, 2005; *Albrecht et al.*,  
76 2016]. Moreover, satellite retrievals of cloud top height [e.g. *Zuidema et al.*, 2009] open the  
77 possibility of computing  $w_e$  at the regional or even global scale. Satellite-based  $w_e$  estimates were  
78 first attempted by *Wood and Bretherton* [2004] over the eastern Pacific by combining cloud top  
79 height retrievals based on two months of cloud temperature measurements from the MODerate  
80 resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS), and horizontal winds and subsidence from the  
81 NCEP/NCAR Reanalysis. In their study, the  $w_e$  diurnal cycle was not estimated because the two  
82 sun-synchronous satellites that carry MODIS sensors (Terra and Aqua) are unable to sample the  
83 full diurnal cycle. As a result, their  $w_e$  was primarily modulated by the large-scale subsidence.

84           In this study, we describe a new approach to estimating entrainment rate [for climate](#)  
85 [applications, using five months of hourly satellite data and meteorological outputs from a forecast](#)  
86 [model. More specifically, the boundary layer mass budget equation is utilized to estimate the](#)  
87 [diurnal cycle in entrainment rate in the subsidence region of the northeast](#) Pacific domain during  
88 May to September of 2013, by combining cloud top height retrievals from the Fifteenth

89 Geostationary Operational Environmental Satellite (GOES-15) and meteorological fields  
90 simulated by the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) forecast  
91 model. Although the dataset enables the computation of instantaneous  $w_e$ , here we emphasize its  
92 diurnal cycle and regional pattern, with the goal of improving understanding of the large-scale  
93 processes that govern the variability in marine stratocumulus clouds. In addition, the use of  
94 composited fields help reduce random errors in the observations and in the ECMWF fields.  
95 Uncertainties in  $w_e$  are quantified by comparing GOES-15 and ECMWF meteorological fields  
96 against ship measurements from a recent campaign collected during the Marine ARM GPCI  
97 (Global Energy and Water Cycle Experiment –GEWEX- Cloud System Study –GCSS- Pacific  
98 Cross-section Intercomparison) Investigation of Clouds (MAGIC) field campaign [Lewis and  
99 Teixeira, 2015], and meteorological fields from three different reanalysis projects.

100

## 101 **2. Dataset and Methodology**

102 Even though entrainment rates can be calculated from the mass budget equation solely  
103 utilizing atmospheric model outputs, deficiencies in the model representation of the cloud-topped  
104 boundary layer, especially in the subtropics [e.g. Dolinar *et al.*, 2015] can propagate to the  
105 entrainment calculations. For the northeast Pacific region, Malkus *et al.* [2015] found that the  
106 ECMWF reanalysis underestimates the observed inversion base height during MAGIC. This is  
107 supported by Figure S1a, which shows ECMWF temperature profiles featuring weaker inversion  
108 gradients, and inversion bases 150 m lower than those from the MAGIC radiosondes.

109 Instead of relying on the ECMWF inversion height and cloud simulations, we utilize  
110 satellite cloud top height ( $H_T$ ) estimated using an empirical relationship between cloud top and sea  
111 surface temperature, a technique that yields nearly unbiased retrievals [e.g. Zuidema *et al.*, 2009;

112 [Sun-Mack et al., 2014](#)]. Hourly retrievals of cloud top temperature ( $T_T$ ) and cloud mask are derived  
113 from GOES-15 radiances at a nominal resolution of 4 km, utilizing the algorithms described in  
114 [Minnis et al. \[2008a, 2011\]](#), and further averaged to a  $0.25^\circ$  regular grid. In addition, surface  
115 contamination and the occurrence of high-level clouds are minimized by removing grids with  
116 cloud cover less than 90% and  $T_T < 0^\circ\text{C}$ . Daily sea surface temperature ( $SST$ ) was taken from the  
117 Advanced Microwave Scanning Radiometer 2 AMSR-2 version 7 [[Wentz et al., 2010](#)], at  $0.25^\circ$   
118 resolution and averaged using a 3-day moving window (3-day product).  $H_T$  was calculated using  
119 the relationship in [Painemal et al. \[2013\]](#) derived from aircraft measurements over the southeast  
120 Pacific, and expressed as:

$$121 \quad H_T = \frac{SST - T_T + 1.35}{0.0095} \quad [m] \quad (1)$$

122 Although satellite  $H_T$  estimated using Eq. (1) compares well with aircraft data in the  
123 southeast Pacific [[Painemal et al., 2013](#)] and the Cloud-Aerosol Lidar with Orthogonal  
124 Polarization (CALIOP) in the southeast Atlantic [[Painemal et al., 2015](#)], we evaluate  $H_T$  against  
125 available [shipborne](#) radar observations collected between [the port of Los Angeles California](#)  
126 [\(33.7°N, 118.2°W\)](#) and [Honolulu Hawaii \(21.3°N, 157.8°W\)](#) during the MAGIC campaign [from](#)  
127 [May to August of 2013](#). Cloud top height from the cloud radar was derived from the cloud mask  
128 in [Zhou et al. \[2015\]](#) after accounting for the radar altitude above sea level (approximately 20 m).  
129 The scatterplot between matched radar and satellite  $H_T$  for cloud tops lower than 2 km (Figure 1a)  
130 shows a good correspondence, with a linear correlation coefficient of 0.86, a positive bias of  
131 GOES-15  $H_T$  of 27 m, and a root mean square difference (RMSD) of 178 m. Given the unique  
132 ability of GOES-15 to sample the full diurnal cycle, we also compared the satellite  $H_T$  composited  
133 diurnal cycle with the radar (Figure 1b). Both datasets agree in terms of phase, with maximum and  
134 minimum near 4:30 ( $\pm 1.5$  hours) and 16:30 ( $\pm 1.5$  hours), consistent with the expected diurnal cycle

135 in marine stratocumulus clouds [e.g. *Painemal et al.*, 2013]. Even though the satellite  $H_T$  maximum  
136 is 63 m greater than that from the Ka-band cloud radar, the overall diurnal cycle amplitude for  
137 GOES-15 is only 42 m greater than its radar counterpart. The mean  $H_T$  map in Figure 1c shows  
138 the expected pattern for marine stratocumulus cloud regimes, that is, shallow cloud heights along  
139 the coast, and a progressive westward deepening [e.g. *Zuidema et al.* 2009; *Wood and Bretherton*  
140 2004]. Moreover, the westward gradient, with values around 600 m near the coast and 1600 m near  
141 Hawaii (21°N, 158°W), agrees with radar and radiosondes observations reported by *Zhou et al.*  
142 [2015].

143 We compute  $w_e$  using the mixed-layer budget equation, expressed in terms of  $H_T$  as:

$$144 \quad \frac{\partial H_T}{\partial t} + V \cdot \nabla H_T = w_e + w \quad (2)$$

145 where  $V$  denotes the horizontal wind vector,  $\nabla$  the horizontal gradient operator, and  $w$  is the large-  
146 scale vertical velocity. Horizontal winds and vertical velocity fields are taken from the ECMWF  
147 forecast model operational in 2013 (cycles CY38R1 and CY38R2), using the forecast range from  
148 12 to 36 hours (ECMWF 2017). Compared to standard reanalyses, the forecast model used here  
149 has the advantage of simulating fields at higher spatial and temporal resolutions with more realistic  
150 cloud fields free from spin-up effects, yet the forecast remains close to the initial conditions  
151 constrained by the analysis. The outputs are produced hourly, with a horizontal resolution of 0.5°  
152 degree and approximately 27 vertical levels below 2 km. Both hourly  $V$  and  $w$  are interpolated to  
153 the cloud top level (i.e.  $H_T$ ). Vertical velocity at the cloud top is estimated from the pressure  
154 tendency using the hydrostatic equation and subtracting the near-surface level vertical velocity, as  
155 in *Wood and Bretherton* [2004] (this correction has a small impact in the final cloud-top vertical  
156 velocity). While our results are based solely on the ECMWF model, we show in Section 4 that the

157 use of alternative meteorological datasets yield comparable results. To be consistent with the  
 158 ECMWF fields resolution, the satellite  $H_T$  values are spatially averaged to  $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ .

159 Since the final goal is to compute long-term averaged  $w_e$ , eq. (2) is hourly composited to  
 160 yield:

$$161 \quad \langle w_e \rangle_i = \frac{\partial \langle H_T \rangle}{\partial t}_i + \langle V \cdot \nabla H_T \rangle_i - \langle w \rangle_i \quad (3)$$

$$162 \quad i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, 23 \text{ hrs}$$

163 where “ $\langle \rangle_i$ ” represents the hourly composite for the  $i^{\text{th}}$  time of the day. To remove noise in the  
 164 tendency calculation, we first apply a 8-hour moving average to the  $H_T$  composite, and  
 165 simultaneously fit a 12-hour and 24-hour cosine harmonics to the  $H_T$  diurnal cycle for each  $0.5^\circ$   
 166 grid, and expressed as:

$$167 \quad H_T^*(t) = \overline{\langle H_T(t) \rangle} + A_{24} \cdot \cos \left[ \frac{2\pi}{24} (t - \phi_{24}) \right] + A_{12} \cdot \cos \left[ \frac{2\pi}{12} (t - \phi_{12}) \right] \quad (4)$$

$$i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, 23 \text{ hrs}$$

168  $\overline{\langle H_T(t) \rangle}$  denotes the composite daily mean, whereas  $A$  and  $\phi$  are, respectively, the amplitude  
 169 and phase for each harmonic (12 and 24-hour). A cosine fit is justified by abundant evidence that  
 170 shows that diurnal variations in cloud fraction, top height, divergence, and liquid water path in  
 171 marine low clouds are well represented by a 24-hour cosine function, which is at times improved  
 172 with the inclusion of a 12-hour harmonic [Minnis and Harrison, 1984; Painemal et al., 2013; Wood  
 173 et al., 2009; O’Dell et al. 2009]. The high linear correlation ( $r$ ) between  $H_T$  and  $H_T^*$  in Figure 2a  
 174 (blue and red crosses), with typical values  $\geq 0.85$ , provides further justification for equation (4). It  
 175 follows from Eq. (4) that the  $H_T$  tendency can be approximated as

$$176$$

$$177 \quad \frac{\partial \langle H_T \rangle}{\partial t}_i \approx \frac{\partial H_T^*}{\partial t}_i = -\frac{2\pi}{24} A_{24} \cdot \sin \left[ \frac{2\pi}{24} (t - \phi_{24}) \right] - \frac{2\pi}{12} A_{12} \cdot \sin \left[ \frac{2\pi}{12} (t - \phi_{12}) \right] \quad (5)$$

178

179 The analytical expression in equation (5) simplifies the temporal derivative calculation,  
180 which is otherwise difficult given that the noise in the observations can yield spurious tendencies.  
181 Interestingly, results using equation (5) compare well with independent central differences  
182 calculations using the temporally smoothed  $H_T$ , with  $r \geq 0.95$  over the region with the core of the  
183 stratocumulus cloud deck (Figure 2a, gray colors).

184 The advective term in Eq. (3) is calculated using the central difference formula, with the  
185 approximation:  $\langle V \cdot \nabla H_T \rangle \approx \langle V \rangle \cdot \langle \nabla H_T \rangle$ . We found that this simplification is indeed  
186 adequate as the difference between  $\langle V \cdot \nabla H_T \rangle$  and  $\langle V \rangle \cdot \nabla \langle H_T \rangle$  is small, with a mean bias  
187 of  $-0.07 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$ , which is further reduced to  $-0.04 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$  for regions with mean cloud fraction greater  
188 than 80%. These differences are negligible relative to the magnitude of entrainment rate, as we  
189 show in Section 3.

190 Finally, by combining Eqs. (3) and (5) we arrive at the following expression for  
191 entrainment rate:

$$192 \quad \langle w_e \rangle_i = \frac{\partial H_T^*}{\partial t}_i + \langle V \rangle \cdot \langle \nabla_H H_T \rangle_i - \langle w \rangle_i \quad (6)$$

193

194 Lastly, we reduced spatial noise by convoluting the advection and  $w$  in eq. (6), and  $H_T$   
195 (prior to fitting the 12 and 24-hour harmonics) with a 5x5-grid moving Gaussian filter defined as

196  $h = e^{-\frac{x^2+y^2}{2\sigma^2}}$ .  $\sigma$  denotes the standard deviation of the distribution ( $\sigma=2$ -grids or  $1^\circ$ ), and  $x$  and  $y$  are  
197 the distance (in grid boxes) from a specific latitudinal and longitudinal point ([-2 grids +2 grids]).  
198 The filter is further normalized by its total summation. Unlike the standard 5x5 spatial average,  
199 the Gaussian filter assigns a reduced weight to pixels farther from the moving 5x5 sub-matrix  
200 center.



201

### 202 3. Results

203 Figures 2b and c show two examples of diurnal cycles of the entrainment rate, tendency,  
204 advection, and vertical velocity terms of eq. (6). [Measurements with a solar zenith angle between](#)  
205 [75-88° \(around ~18:00 LT and 06:00 LT\)](#) are not shown because they correspond to periods when  
206 the cloud mask algorithm transitions from its nighttime to daytime module (or vice versa), which  
207 produces at times subtle discontinuities. While this effect is generally small, removal of these  
208 samples should help reduce uncertainties in the satellite data. Values of  $w_e$  (Figures 2b and c, black  
209 lines) exhibit a diurnal cycle primarily explained by the  $H_T$  tendency ( $\partial H_T^*/\partial t$ , gray line). The  
210 entrainment rate diurnal cycle reaches its peaks around 21:00-23:00 LT, with values near 0.75 cm  
211  $s^{-1}$  and 0.4  $cm s^{-1}$  for the coastal and offshore regions, respectively. In contrast, minima occur near  
212 8-11:00 LT, with magnitudes smaller [than  \$|-0.1 cm s^{-1}|\$](#) . As we show in section 4, the negative  
213 values are within the uncertainty range of the calculations, [although the inadequacy of the mixed-](#)  
214 [layer theory for some specific cases requires a closer consideration \(Section 4\)](#). The advective term  
215 is generally small, with absolute values near 0.1  $cm s^{-1}$ , and a subtle sign transition between coastal  
216 and offshore clouds (Figs. 2b and c, magenta). The figures also depict the excellent agreement  
217 between  $\langle V \rangle \cdot \nabla \langle H_T \rangle$  and  $\langle V \cdot \nabla H_T \rangle$  (blue), which further corroborates the advective  
218 approximation in Eq. (6). The vertical velocity component, expressed as  $-w$  (red lines) is typically  
219 positive (subsidence), as expected for a subtropical stratiform cloud regime, with values between  
220 0.15 and 0.35  $cm s^{-1}$ , and an unclear diurnal pattern.

221 Regional maps of  $w_e$ , subsidence ( $-w$ ), and advective term are presented in Figure 3. As  
222 anticipated in Figures 2b and c,  $w_e$  has a strong diurnal cycle with a minimum around 10:00 LT  
223 and a maximum near 20:00 LT. [Local maxima and minima reach magnitudes of 1.1  \$cm s^{-1}\$  and -](#)

224  $0.3 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$ , respectively, even though  $w_e$  is above  $-0.2 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$  for most of the domain. Entrainment  
225 rates are greater east of  $135^\circ\text{W}$ , where the local maximum is found over the littoral zone north of  
226  $30^\circ\text{N}$ . This coastal region is also characterized by strong subsidence and a diurnal cycle with  
227 maximum values of  $0.6\text{-}0.7 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$  in a region where the surface divergence is also a maximum  
228 [Wood *et al.*, 2009]. Over the rest of the domain, the diurnal variation in subsidence is mostly  
229 confined between  $0.2$  and  $0.5 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$ . Lastly, the advective term is small and mostly negatives, with  
230 values between  $-0.1$  and  $0.15 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$ .

231

#### 232 **4. Discussion**

233 We estimate the error associated with  $w_e$  using a Gaussian propagating error analysis. To  
234 quantify the  $H_T$  tendency error, we consider the RMSD for  $H_T$  of  $178 \text{ m}$  relative to the MAGIC  
235 cloud radar. Additionally, we take into account the spatial averaging of at least 20 samples (the  
236 combined effect of  $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$  averaging and the Gaussian filter) and the composite of 60 hourly  
237 samples (average value from a total of 153 days), which reduce the  $H_T$  uncertainty to  $\frac{178\text{m}}{\sqrt{20 \times 60}} =$   
238  $\pm 5.1 \text{ m}$ , and thus implying a tendency uncertainty of  $\pm 5.1 \text{ m hr}^{-1} = \pm 0.14 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$ . The vertical  
239 velocity uncertainty quantification is more challenging given the unavailability of  $w$  in-situ  
240 measurements. Wood *et al.* [2009] show that  $850 \text{ hPa}$  ECMWF ERA-Interim subsidence correlates  
241 well with satellite-derived surface divergence in the subtropics. In addition, the good agreement  
242 between matched ECMWF horizontal winds and MAGIC radiosondes in the lower troposphere  
243 (Figure S1b and c), suggests that the atmospheric circulation is properly represented in the model.  
244 It is interesting to note that issues with the ECMWF temperature inversion does not clearly affect  
245 the simulated circulation, a trait whose explanation is beyond the scope of this contribution. We  
246 attempt to further characterize uncertainties in ECMWF  $w$  by comparing it with independent

247 modeling products. We used three well-known meteorological reanalysis datasets: the NCEP-DOE  
248 Reanalysis 2 (NCEP-R2) [ *Kanamitsu et al.*, 2002], NASA’s Modern-Era Retrospective analysis  
249 for Research and Applications, Version 2 (MERRA 2), [ *Molod et al.*, 2015], and the Japanese 55-  
250 Year Reanalysis (JRA), [ *Harada et al.*, 2016]. We compared daily vertical velocity at 850 hPa (~  
251 1.5 km), with the data interpolated to the NCEP-R2 spatial resolution (2.5°x2.5°), and subsampled  
252 every 6-hour (for ECMWF and MERRA-2) to emulate the NCEP-R2 time resolution. Time-  
253 averaged longitudinal sections for  $w$  at 35°, 30°, and 22°N from ECMWF, NCEP-R2, MERRA-2,  
254 and JRA show a remarkably consistent pattern across the northeast Pacific (Figure 4). However,  
255 NCEP-2 departs from the other models near the coast, yielding stronger subsidence at 30°N (Figure  
256 4b). The agreement between ECMWF, MERRA-2, and JRA models is expected as they use more  
257 sophisticated data assimilation methods and higher spatial resolution than the NCEP-2 model [e.g.  
258 *Fujiwara et al.*, 2017]. Equivalent results are obtained when comparing  $w$  at 925 hPa (Figure S2).  
259 If one considers the RMSD for  $w$  between the ECMWF model and other reanalyses as a measure  
260 of model uncertainty, then the Gaussian uncertainty of the mean  $w$  ( $\varepsilon_w$ ) is simply  $\varepsilon_w =$   
261  $RMSD/\sqrt{153}$ , with 153 denoting the number of days. It is important to emphasize that  $\varepsilon_w$  is not  
262 the real uncertainty, however, the exercise of comparing  $\varepsilon_w$  using different reanalyses, provides  
263 insights into the error range expected from the meteorological models. The lower panels in Fig 4  
264 (d, e, and f) depict  $\varepsilon_w$  between ECMWF and NCEP-R2, MERRA-2, and JRA, with typical  $\varepsilon_w$   
265 encompassing values between 0.07-0.18 cm s<sup>-1</sup>. Based on this range, we choose a conservative  
266 value,  $\varepsilon_w = 0.13$  cm s<sup>-1</sup>, for the uncertainty in subsidence, which is in agreement with the 25% error  
267 assessment in *Wood and Bretherton* [2004] (equivalent to 0.12 cm s<sup>-1</sup> for  $w=|0.5$  cm s<sup>-1</sup>|). Given  
268 the small values of advection of less than |0.15| cm s<sup>-1</sup>, we deem the error in advection to be  
269 negligible. It follows from the previous analysis that the uncertainty in  $w_e$  ( $\delta w_e$ ) is the additive

270 uncertainty of  $H_T$  tendency and  $w$ , that is,  $\delta w_e = \pm(0.14 + 0.13)[cm\ s^{-1}] = \pm 0.27 [cm\ s^{-1}]$ .  
271 This uncertainty is up to four times smaller than the maximum  $w_e$  over the region, and yet similar  
272 in magnitude to the negative  $w_e$  in Figure 3. On the other hand, high negative  $w_e$  may also be  
273 reflecting the inadequacy of the mixed-layer model. For example, the location of the  $w_e$  negative  
274 minima in Figure 3 (upper panel, 19 UTC) with  $w_e < -0.2\ cm\ s^{-1}$ , occur near the stratocumulus  
275 cloud domain edges. A closer look at the absolute value of the daily standard deviation in  $w$   
276 normalized by its mean (coefficient of variation, Fig. S3), shows that regions with negative minima  
277 in  $w_e$  are concomitant with coefficient of variations greater than 2.0, that is,  $w$  variability relative  
278 to the mean is substantial. This suggests that in regions with strong synoptic variability and with  
279 frequent occurrence of positive  $w$ , the mixed-layer model inadequately represents the boundary  
280 layer dynamics.

281 Typical values of entrainment rates reported here are generally in agreement with aircraft-  
282 based  $w_e$  estimates near the coast of California during DYCOMS-II derived using four different  
283 datasets, with values between  $-0.22$  and  $0.7\ cm\ s^{-1}$  [Faloona *et al.*, 2005]. Similarly, our satellite-  
284 based magnitudes also agree with radar-based entrainment rates over the ARM's Southern Great  
285 Plains site ( $0.0$ - $1.1\ cm\ s^{-1}$ ) in Albrecht *et al.* [2016] but with an out-of-phase diurnal cycle that is  
286 likely associated with the dissimilar evolution of continental stratus, the focus of the Albrecht *et*  
287 *al.* [2015] study, relative to its maritime counterpart. Our results can be more closely compared to  
288 the ship-based analysis in Caldwell *et al.* [2005] over the southeast Pacific ( $20^\circ S$ ,  $85^\circ W$ ) because  
289 both studies use a similar methodology for estimating the  $w_e$  diurnal cycle. The magnitude and  
290 phase similarities between the  $w_e$  diurnal cycle in the southeast Pacific [Caldwell *et al.*, 2005] and  
291 the offshore results in Figure 2c, highlight the boundary layer commonalities between both cloud  
292 regimes. In this regard, the satellite-based  $w_e$  diurnal cycle is concordant with the physics of marine

293 stratocumulus clouds; with cloud thickening during the night and early morning that drives  
294 stronger cloud top longwave cooling, which in turns enhances turbulence and entrainment.

295

## 296 **5. Summary**

297 Five months of hourly-resolved GOES-15 cloud retrievals and AMSR2 SST, [as well as](#)  
298 [ECMWF forecast model outputs](#), were used to estimate the entrainment rate over a vast region of  
299 the northeast Pacific using the mixed-layer boundary layer budget equation. Cloud top height was  
300 derived using a linear equation that relates the temperature differences between sea surface and  
301 cloud top temperatures with cloud height. Satellite-based  $H_T$  compares well with radar  $H_T$  during  
302 the MAGIC deployment, with a linear correlation of 0.86 and a mean bias of 27 m.  $H_T$ , advection,  
303 and vertical velocity from hourly ECMWF forecasts were hourly composited and the  $H_T$  tendency  
304 was further calculated by fitting a cosine function to the composited  $H_T$  diurnal cycle. We estimate  
305 a rough uncertainty in  $w_e$  of  $\delta w_e = \pm 0.27 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$ , with a small impact attributed to the choice of  
306 meteorological dataset utilized in the calculations. In fact, the good agreement between ECMWF,  
307 MERRA-2, and JRA lend confidence to the ability of numerical models to simulate robust  
308 circulation patterns in the northeast Pacific. Minima and maxima  $w_e$  occur at 9:00-11:00 and 20:00-  
309 22:00 local time respectively, with a diurnal cycle primarily explained by the cloud top height  
310 tendency. The  $w_e$  amplitude displays a clear spatial pattern with a local maximum of 1.1-1.2  $\text{cm s}^{-1}$   
311 <sup>1</sup> along the California coast, where the subsidence is also strong, and a westward reduction to  
312 values of 0.3-0.4  $\text{cm s}^{-1}$  at 155°W.

313 This is, to the best of our knowledge, the first time that hourly estimates of entrainment  
314 rates are attempted with satellite retrievals. Although the pioneering work by *Wood and Bretherton*  
315 [2004] reported entrainment rates using MODIS data, the cloud top height tendency could not be

316 resolved, a term that explains most of  $w_e$  diurnal cycle in our study. Satellite-based computations  
317 of entrainment rate are likely less reliable in regions with cumulus clouds, where the boundary  
318 layer is more decoupled and surface fluxes become a more dominant source of turbulence. In  
319 addition, the method appears to yield more realistic results for the oceanic domain east of 140°W,  
320 a region characterized by relatively strong subsidence and weak synoptic variability (Figure S3).  
321 It is encouraging that over a broad region, our results appear to be consistent with the diurnal cycle  
322 of turbulence driven by cloud-top longwave cooling, which is expected to dominate the diurnal  
323 cycle of entrainment rate. The satellite-based  $w_e$  introduced in this work can be used together with  
324 other aircraft and ground-based observations to understand the limitations of different methods of  
325 entrainment rate estimation [Wood *et al.*, 2016]. Lastly, ongoing efforts to retrieve cloud properties  
326 using inter-calibrated satellite radiances from different geostationary platforms [e.g. Minnis *et al.*,  
327 2008b] offer the opportunity to estimate nearly global entrainment rates over the ocean and develop  
328 climatologies that could provide valuable information to the modeling community as well as  
329 helping further advance our knowledge of climatically relevant marine low clouds.

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336 *NCEP\_Reanalysis 2 data are provided by the NOAA/OAR/ESRL PSD, Boulder, Colorado, USA, at*  
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338 *Information Services Center at <https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov>. The Japanese 55-year Reanalysis (JRA-55)*  
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340 *Archive at the National Center for Atmospheric Research, Computational and Information Systems*  
341 *Laboratory. <https://doi.org/10.5065/D6HH6H41>.*

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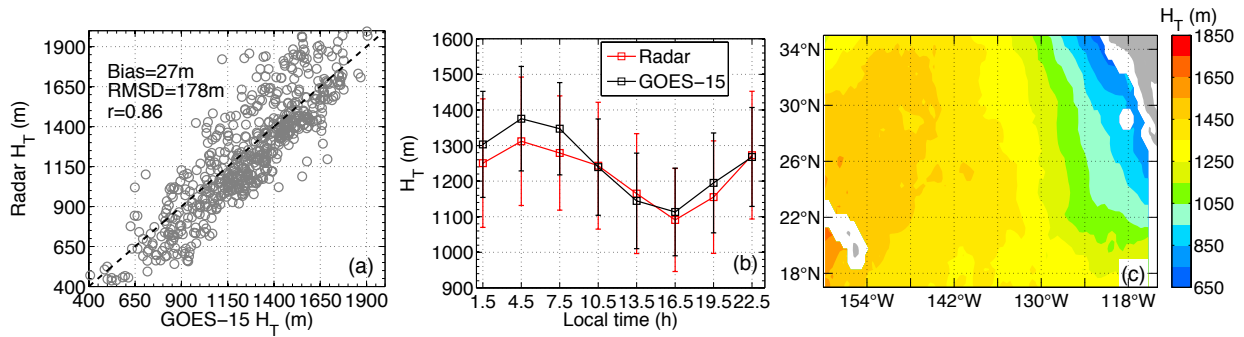
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441 **Figures**

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445 Figure 1: a) Scatterplot between satellite-based and MAGIC radar  $H_T$  values. b)  $H_T$  diurnal cycle

446 from the MAGIC radar (red line) and collocated satellite  $H_T$  (black line). Vertical error-bars

447 denote the standard deviation. Each averaged bin in Figure 1b contains at least fifty samples. c)

448 Mean  $H_T$  map during the period of study.

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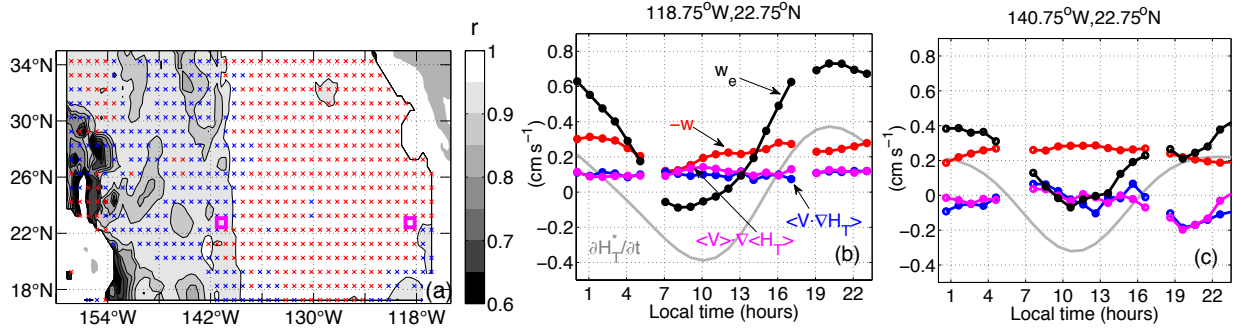


Figure 2: (a) Linear correlation ( $r$ ) between:  $H_T^*$  and  $H_T$  (red and blue crosses represent  $0.93 > r \geq 0.85$  and  $r \geq 0.93$ , respectively), and the tendency derived from  $H_T^*$  and calculated using  $H_T$  central differences after applying a 8-hour moving average (gray shading). Diurnal cycles for (b) a coastal (118.75°W, 22.75°N) and (c) an offshore region (140.75°W, 22.75°N) denoted by the magenta squares in Figure 2a.  $w_e$  (black),  $w$  (red),  $\frac{\partial H_T^*(t)}{\partial t}$  (gray),  $\langle V \cdot \nabla H_T \rangle$  (blue), and  $\langle V \rangle \cdot \nabla \langle H_T \rangle$  (magenta).

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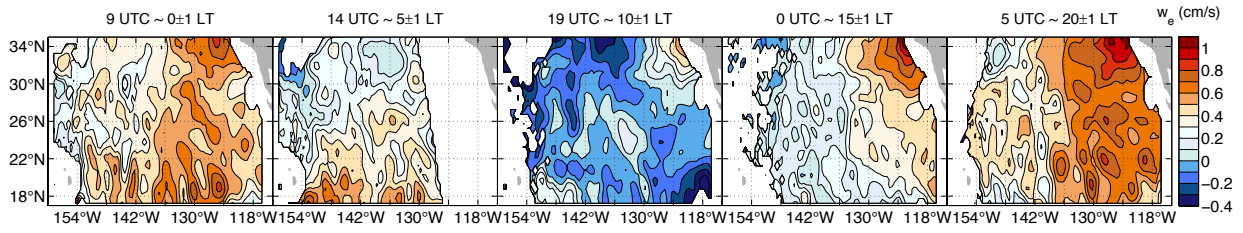
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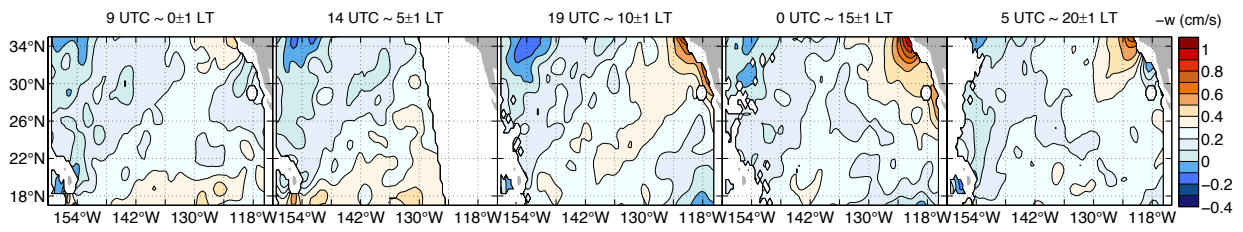
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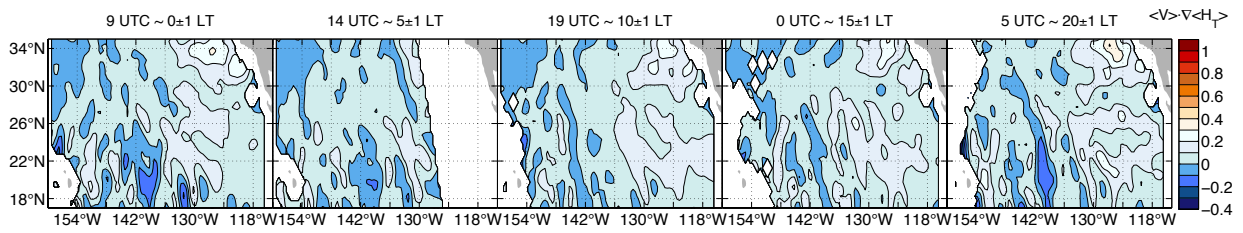
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Figure 3: Entrainment rate ( $w_e$ , upper panel), subsidence ( $-w$ , middle panel), and advective term

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(lower panel) from eq. (6).  $w_e$  is only shown for regions with mean  $-w > 0$  (subsidence).

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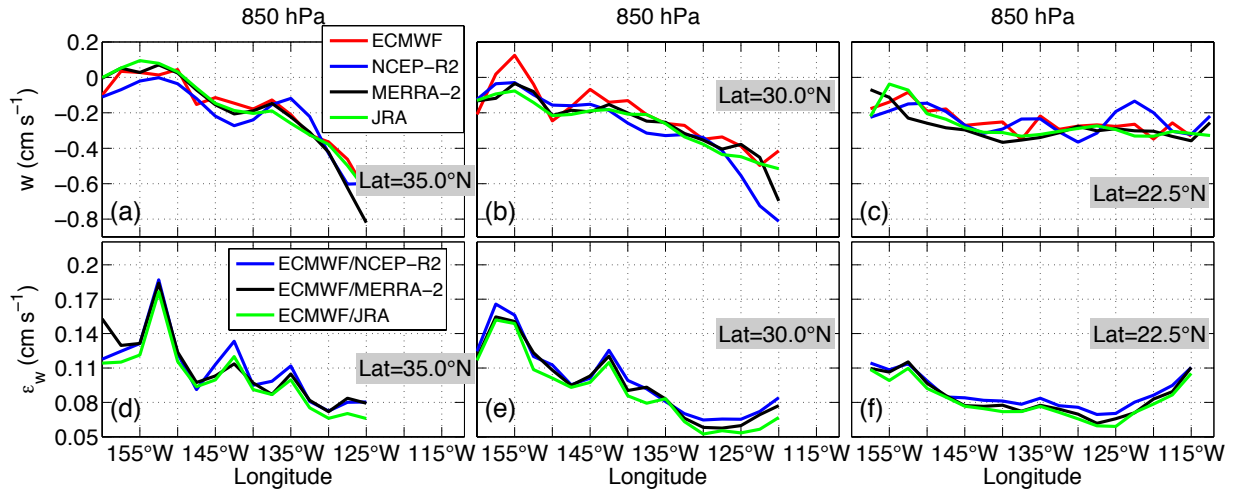
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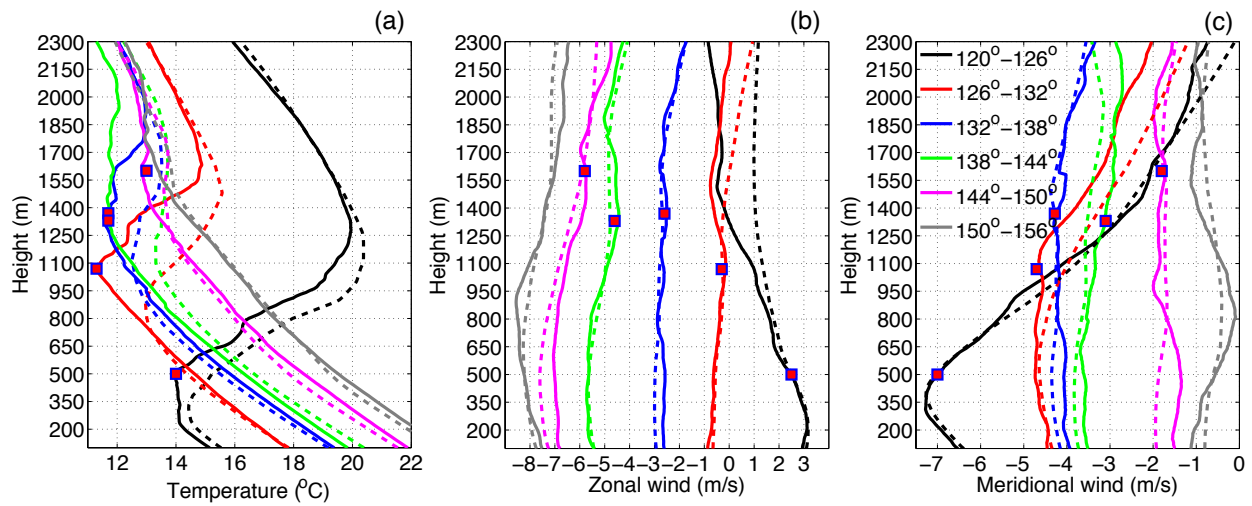
Figure 4:  $w$  at 850 hPa for three zonal transects from the ECMWF forecast model (red), NCEP-R2 (blue), MERRA-2 (black) and JMA (green) at (a) 35°N, (b) 30°N, and (c) 22.5°N. Uncertainty proxy ( $\epsilon_w$ ) derived from the RMSD between ECMWF: and NCEP-R2 (blue), MERRA-2 (black) and JRA (green) at (d) 35°N, (e) 30°N, and (f) 22.5°N

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**Auxiliary material for:**

**Entrainment rate diurnal cycle in marine stratiform clouds estimated from geostationary satellite retrievals and a meteorological forecast model**

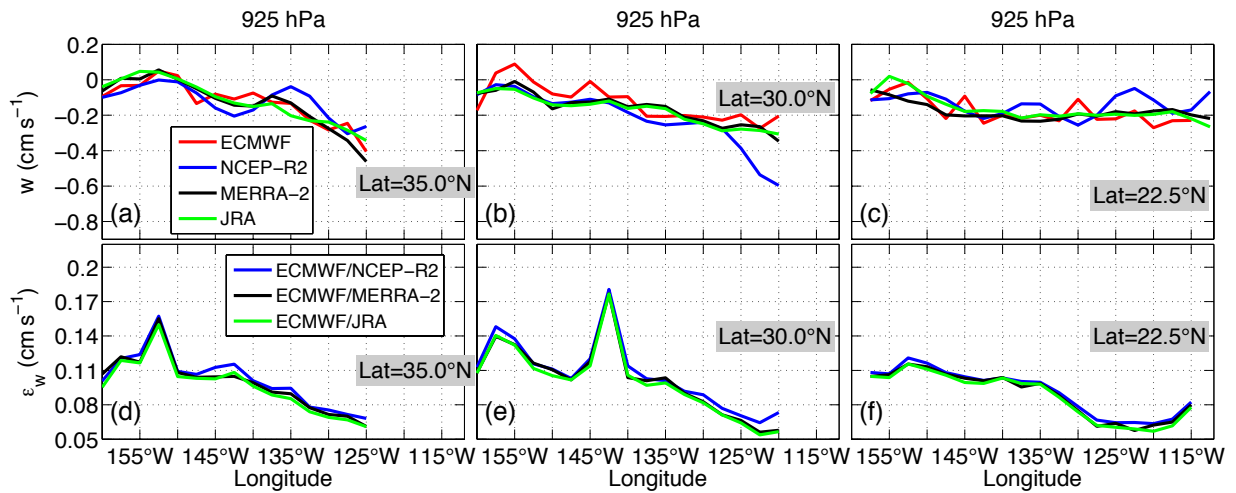
**David Painemal, Kuan-Man Xu, Rabindra Palikonda, and Patrick Minnis**



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Figure S1: ECMWF vertical profiles collocated in time and space with MAGIC radiosondes, and further averaged along the MAGIC ship transect in six 6° longitudinal portions from May to September 2013. a) air temperature, zonal (b) and meridional wind (c) profiles. Blue squares denote the radiosonde-based mean inversion base height.

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Figure S2:  $w$  at 925 hPa for three zonal transects from the ECMWF forecast model (red), NCEP-R2 (blue), MERRA-2 (black) and JMA (green) at (a) 35°N, (b) 30°N, and (c) 22.5°N. Uncertainty proxy ( $\epsilon_w$ ) derived from the RMSD between ECMWF: and NCEP-R2 (blue), MERRA-2 (black) and JRA (green) at (d) 35°N, (e) 30°N, and (f) 22.5°N

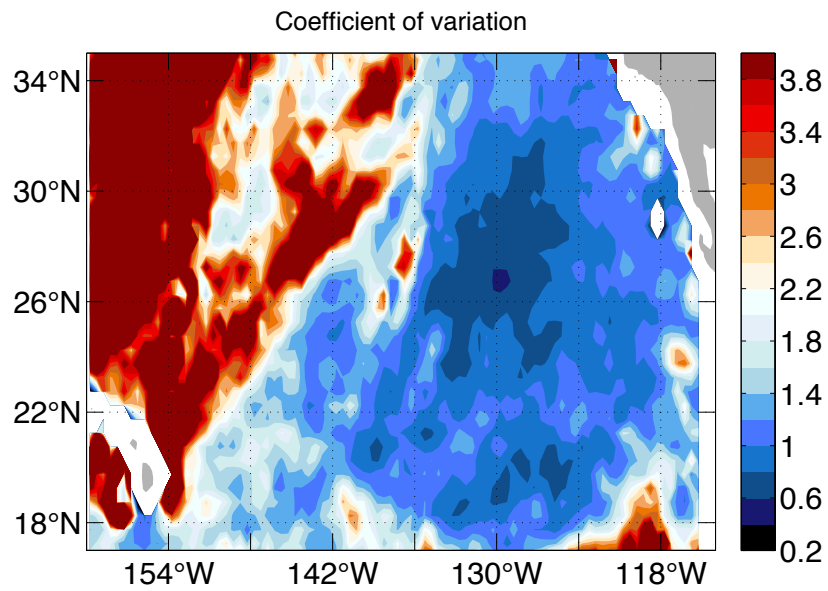


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Figure S3: Coefficient of variation estimated using daily mean cloud top ECMWF vertical velocity during the period of study. The color scale saturates for values greater than 4.0.