

JOURNAL OF GEOPHYSICAL RESEARCH, VOL. ???, XXXX, DOI:10.1029/,

# <sup>1</sup> Improved boundary layer depth retrievals from <sup>2</sup> MPLNET

Jasper R. Lewis,<sup>1,2</sup> Ellsworth J. Welton,<sup>2</sup> Andrea M. Molod,<sup>3,4</sup> EveretteJoseph<sup>5</sup>

---

Jasper R. Lewis, NASA Goddard Space Flight Center, Code 612, Greenbelt, MD 20771, USA

[jasper.r.lewis@nasa.gov](mailto:jasper.r.lewis@nasa.gov)

Andrea M. Molod, Earth System Science Interdisciplinary Center (ESSIC), University of Maryland College Park, College Park, MD, 20742, USA [andrea.m.molod@nasa.gov](mailto:andrea.m.molod@nasa.gov)

Ellsworth J. Welton, NASA Goddard Space Flight Center, Code 612, Greenbelt, MD 20771, USA [ellsworth.j.welton@nasa.gov](mailto:ellsworth.j.welton@nasa.gov)

Everette Joseph, Beltsville Center for Climate System Observation, Howard University, 2355 6th Street, NW Washington, DC 20059, USA [ejoseph@howard.edu](mailto:ejoseph@howard.edu)

<sup>1</sup>Joint Center for Earth Systems

3 **Abstract.** Continuous lidar observations of the planetary boundary layer  
4 (PBL) depth have been made at the Micropulse Lidar Network (MPLNET)  
5 site in Greenbelt, MD since April 2001. However, because of issues with the  
6 operational PBL depth algorithm, the data is not reliable for determining  
7 seasonal and diurnal trends. Therefore, an improved PBL depth algorithm  
8 has been developed which uses a combination of the wavelet technique and  
9 image processing. The new algorithm is less susceptible to contamination by  
10 clouds and residual layers, and in general, produces lower PBL depths. A 2010  
11 comparison shows the operational algorithm overestimates the daily mean  
12 PBL depth when compared to the improved algorithm (1.85 and 1.07 km,

---

Technology, University of Maryland

Baltimore County, Baltimore, MD, USA

<sup>2</sup>NASA Goddard Space Flight Center,  
Greenbelt, MD, USA

<sup>3</sup>University of Maryland College Park,  
College Park, MD, USA

<sup>4</sup>Global Modeling and Assimilation Office,  
Greenbelt, MD, USA

<sup>5</sup>Beltsville Center for Climate System  
Observation, Howard University,  
Washington, DC, USA

13 respectively). The improved MPLNET PBL depths are validated using ra-  
14 diosonde comparisons which suggests the algorithm performs well to deter-  
15 mine the depth of a fully developed PBL. A comparison with the Goddard  
16 Earth Observing System-version 5 (GEOS-5) model suggests that the model  
17 may underestimate the maximum daytime PBL depth by  $\sim 410$  m during  
18 the spring and summer. The best agreement between MPLNET and GEOS-5  
19 occurred during the fall and they differed the most in the winter.

## 1. Introduction

20 The planetary boundary layer (PBL), also referred to as the atmospheric boundary  
21 layer (ABL) or simply boundary layer (BL), is the shallow layer of the troposphere nearest  
22 to the Earth's surface. The PBL is directly influenced by the surface and responds to  
23 surface forcings on the timescale of one hour or less [*Stull*, 1988]. Detailed descriptions of  
24 the vertical structure and evolution of the PBL are provided by *Stull* [1988] and *Emeis*  
25 [2011], so only a brief description is given here. The PBL (particularly over land surfaces)  
26 exhibits a diurnal variation due to the exchange of energy and momentum between the  
27 surface and the atmosphere. During the day, convective forces can induce turbulence which  
28 results in mixing of pollutants in the atmosphere, commonly referred to as a convective  
29 boundary layer (CBL) or mixing layer. At night, as the surface cools, convection ceases  
30 and a shallow stable boundary layer (SBL) or nocturnal boundary layer (NBL) develops  
31 with a nearly neutral residual layer above. It should be noted that mechanically induced  
32 turbulence is also capable of producing a mixed layer, in addition to thermally induced  
33 turbulence by convection. The top height (or depth) of the PBL can range from less than  
34 one hundred meters to several kilometers. Accurate measurements of the PBL depth  
35 with high spatial and temporal coverage are crucial to studies of air quality, weather, and  
36 climate.

37 Several operational methods exist for measuring the PBL depth, including the use  
38 of: meteorological masts [*Kaimal and Gaynor*, 1983; *van Ulden and Wieringa*, 1996], ra-  
39 diosondes [*Holzworth*, 1964, 1967], aircraft [*Spangler and Dirks*, 1974], sodar [*Melas*, 1990;  
40 *Beyrich*, 1997], wind profilers [*Ecklund et al.*, 1988; *Angevine et al.*, 1994], lidar [*Olsen*

41 *et al.*, 1974; *Lammert and Bösenberg*, 2006], and Global Positioning System (GPS) radio  
42 occultation [*von Engel* *et al.*, 2005; *Guo et al.*, 2011; *Ao et al.*, 2012]. Each method comes  
43 with its own advantages and limitations, so the best option is to use some combination of  
44 methods [*Seibert et al.*, 2000]. However, there is no universal definition to determine the  
45 PBL depth and the definition may vary depending on the measurement method. Even for  
46 a single instrument, there are multiple ways to determine the PBL depth. For example,  
47 lidar-derived PBL depths have been obtained from gradients or variance in the backscat-  
48 ter profile, wavelet covariance, and fits to idealized profiles [*Flamant et al.*, 1997; *Hooper*  
49 *and Eloranta*, 1986; *Davis et al.*, 2000; *Steyn et al.*, 1999]. The limitations, capabilities,  
50 and biases of several existing lidar and ceilometer mixing height retrieval algorithms have  
51 been discussed in recent literature [*Haeffelin et al.*, 2011; *Träumner et al.*, 2011; *Brooks*  
52 *and Fowler*, 2012].

53 Long-term, continuous PBL measurements from lidar are rare, but necessary to as-  
54 certain seasonal and diurnal variations in the PBL depth. With multiple continuously-  
55 running lidar sites located around the globe and a multiyear record of PBL depths, the  
56 MPLNET provides a valuable dataset for improving our understanding of the PBL. How-  
57 ever, the current operational PBL algorithm has several problems which had to be ad-  
58 dressed in order to make the dataset more useful. Therefore, an improved PBL algorithm,  
59 which uses a combination of wavelet covariance and image processing, was developed for  
60 this effort. Section 2 describes the methodology used to determine the PBL depth for the  
61 operational and improved algorithms. A comparison of PBL depth retrievals at Goddard  
62 Space Flight Center (GSFC) for the two algorithms is given in section 3. In section 4,  
63 the improved PBL depths from MPLNET are validated using radiosonde-derived PBL

64 depths. The improved PBL depths are then compared to modeled GEOS-5 PBL depths  
 65 in section 5. Finally, a summary and discussion of future plans are presented in section 6.

## 2. Methods

66 The Micropulse Lidar Network (MPLNET) [Welton *et al.*, 2001] is a federated network  
 67 of micropulse lidar (MPL) systems [Spinhirne *et al.*, 1995], deployed worldwide in support  
 68 of basic science and the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) Earth  
 69 Observing System (EOS) program [Wielicki *et al.*, 1995]. Most MPLNET sites are co-  
 70 located with Aerosol Robotic Network (AERONET) sunphotometers [Holben *et al.*, 1998].  
 71 The operational MPLNET Level 1 data product contains real-time normalized relative  
 72 backscatter [Welton and Campbell, 2002; Campbell *et al.*, 2002] which is used in all higher  
 73 level products. Scene classification, including aerosol, cloud, and PBL top heights, is  
 74 available from the Level 1.5b data product (<http://mplnet.gsfc.nasa.gov>).

75 The method of retrieving the PBL depth from the operational algorithm is based on the  
 76 wavelet covariance transform (WCT) described by Davis *et al.* [2000] and Brooks [2003].  
 77 The convolution of a five-minute averaged scattering ratio profile and the Haar wavelet is  
 78 used to produce the WCT given by

$$79 \quad \text{WCT}(a, b) = a^{-1} \int_{z_b}^{z_t} f(z) h\left(\frac{z-b}{a}\right) dz, \quad (1)$$

80 where  $z_b$  and  $z_t$  are the bottom and top altitudes in the scattering ratio profile,  $f(z)$  is  
 81 the scattering ratio as a function of altitude,  $z$ , and the Haar wavelet is defined as

$$82 \quad h\left(\frac{z-b}{a}\right) = \begin{cases} -1, & \text{for } b - \frac{a}{2} \leq z \leq b \\ 1, & \text{for } b \leq z \leq b + \frac{a}{2} \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

83 where  $a$  and  $b$  describe the dilation and translation of the function, respectively. The  
84 altitude corresponding to the maximum value of the WCT is recorded as the initial esti-  
85 mate of the PBL top height,  $z_i$ . Additionally, a two-fold threshold is used to determine  
86 if a secondary  $z_i'$  at a lower-altitude peak in the WCT should replace the initial estimate  
87 of the PBL top height. In order for  $z_i'$  to replace  $z_i$ , (i) the value of the WCT at the  
88 lower-altitude peak must be within 75% of the maximum WCT value, and (ii) the gra-  
89 dient in the WCT located in-between  $z_i'$  and  $z_i$  must be large enough to distinguish the  
90 lower-altitude peak from uncorrelated noise in the lidar profile.

91 Three problems have been identified with this product: (1) the presence of low-level  
92 clouds can cause difficulty in properly retrieving the PBL depth and frequently produces  
93 incorrect, deeper PBL retrievals, (2) residual layers or aerosol layers aloft often mask the  
94 growth and collapse of the PBL, and (3) erratic and unphysical fluctuations in the PBL  
95 depth retrieved occur frequently. Furthermore, the algorithm must be robust enough to  
96 work for any site and meteorological condition within the network. All of these issues  
97 had to be addressed in the improved algorithm in order to investigate climatological  
98 trends. The improved PBL algorithm has three basic steps: feature identification, layer  
99 attribution, and continuity.

## 2.1. Feature Identification

100 As done in the operational PBL algorithm, the improved algorithm uses five-minute  
101 averages of the scattering ratio profile to calculate the WCT. However, in the improved  
102 routine, each lidar profile is screened to remove cases when clouds occur within 5 km of  
103 the site elevation and the first derivative of a Gaussian wavelet is used instead of the Haar  
104 wavelet because it more closely resembles the gradient in the lidar profile. In this study,

105 cloud screening resulted in the removal of nearly 50% of lidar profiles and showed little  
106 seasonal dependence. At locations dominated by cloud cover; however, obtaining reliable  
107 PBL depth retrievals could be problematic. The use of a Gaussian wavelet reduces noise  
108 in the WCT which improves edge-detection results in subsequent stages of the algorithm.

109 Features are identified from the WCT using an image detection process similar to the  
110 method used to identify gradients in the Structure of the Atmosphere 2D (STRAT-2D)  
111 algorithm [Morille *et al.*, 2007; Haeffelin *et al.*, 2011]. The Canny edge-detection algorithm  
112 [Canny, 1986] is used to identify the upper and lower bounds of features in the WCT  
113 image, as shown in Figure 1. The altitude of the maximum WCT value within the  
114 extracted feature corresponds to a peak in the gradient in the lidar profile and is recorded  
115 as the possible PBL depth. For each time-step, up to three feature altitudes are retained:  
116 the altitude of the lowest feature and the altitudes of the two largest peaks in the WCT.

## 2.2. Layer Attribution

117 The method used to select an appropriate PBL depth from the retained feature alti-  
118 tudes is based upon the local time of day, altitudes of the extracted features, magnitude  
119 of the WCT, variance in the lidar profiles, and the mean altitude of the most recent PBL  
120 depth retrievals. Fuzzy logic [Klir and Yuan, 1997; Bianco and Wilczak, 2002] is used to  
121 determine a quality score for each of the retained feature altitudes based on six member-  
122 ship functions (see Appendix A). The feature with the highest quality score is selected as  
123 the best estimate of the PBL depth. In most cases, the feature with the lowest altitude is  
124 chosen at night and a choice between the higher-altitude features is made between sunrise  
125 and sunset.



126 Because the choice of PBL depth depends partially on the most recent retrieval, the  
127 processing direction of the algorithm matters. For example, Figure 2 shows the PBL depth  
128 at GSFC for 6 July 2010 when processed in the forward ( $0 \rightarrow 24$  UTC) and reverse ( $0 \leftarrow 24$   
129 UTC) directions. In the present analysis, retrievals using both processing directions are  
130 combined and the lowest altitude for each profile has been selected as the final PBL  
131 depth. While this selection may not always result in the correct choice of the PBL depth,  
132 it should be noted that in the great majority of cases, both processing directions give the  
133 same result. For example, less than 5% of the PBL depth retrievals in 2010 gave different  
134 results for the forward and reverse processing directions; and of those, nearly 70% resulted  
135 in the selection of the forward-direction PBL depth.

136 While only one of the extracted feature altitudes is selected as the best estimate of  
137 the PBL depth, all feature altitudes are recorded in the final data product for possible  
138 future use. The full set of feature altitudes will be useful for studies of the residual  
139 layer, identifying smoke and dust layers, and development of a quality assured PBL depth  
140 product.

### 2.3. Continuity

141 Finally, a continuity scheme is employed to reduce sudden changes in the retrieved PBL  
142 depth. Each five-minute averaged PBL depth is compared to a baseline determined by  
143 the nearest four (two preceding and two succeeding) PBL depth retrievals. If the PBL  
144 depth for the five-minute average exceeds the average of the other 20-minutes by more  
145 than 150 meters, then the PBL depth is set equal to the baseline PBL depth. The process  
146 is repeated for the entire day until no further changes can be made.

### 3. Comparison of PBL depth retrievals

147 A visual comparison of the operational and improved PBL depth retrievals is provided  
148 in Figure 3. A cross-section of the normalized relative backscatter for 5 July 2010 at  
149 GSFC is shown with the operational PBL depth represented by black triangles and the  
150 improved PBL depth represented by red squares.

151 At night, the operational algorithm reports the residual layer ( $\sim 2$  km) while the im-  
152 proved algorithm generally gives a much lower altitude. However, the improved PBL  
153 retrieval should not be interpreted as the true depth of the NBL. Due to instrument  
154 limitations in the near-field caused by afterpulsing [*Campbell et al.*, 2002], the MPL has a  
155 minimum detectable gradient altitude of approximately 500 m, but the NBL can collapse  
156 to altitudes less than 100 m. It is worth mentioning that newer model MPLs do not  
157 exhibit the same near-field behavior which will reduce the range cutoff to  $\sim 200$  m in  
158 the future. The PBL growth can be seen from sunrise until it stabilizes at approximately  
159 15 UTC. The operational PBL retrieval detects the residual layer at 12 UTC, while the  
160 improved algorithm continues to follow the growing PBL. The growth and collapse of  
161 the PBL are the most difficult to detect because the gradient at the top of the residual  
162 layer can be much larger than at the true PBL top height. From 18 UTC until the end  
163 of the day, the improved algorithm stays at the top of the PBL while the operational  
164 PBL retrieval fluctuates erratically between 2 km and below 1 km because the two-fold  
165 threshold described in section 2 was exceeded.

166 The monthly means of the daily maximum PBL depth, annual diurnal cycles, and  
167 daily mean probability distributions for the two algorithms are compared in Figure 4  
168 for the year 2010 at GSFC. The monthly means from the improved algorithm show

169 that the daily maximum PBL depth at GSFC is highest in the spring/summer and lowest  
170 during winter. However, the operational retrieval shows only a weak trend with significant  
171 month-to-month oscillation and has higher PBL depths due to the influence of residual  
172 aerosol layers and cloud contamination. The diurnal cycles show the largest differences  
173 between the improved and operational algorithms occur at night when the the improved  
174 PBL retrieval is set to the altitude of the lowest detected feature. The growth of the  
175 PBL can be clearly seen in the improved PBL retrieval starting after sunrise, but it is  
176 largely hidden by the residual layer in the operational retrieval, resulting in a physically  
177 unrealistic reduction in PBL depth after sunrise with a minimum at 1000–1100 local time.  
178 From the probability distributions, we see that the operational PBL retrieval not only has  
179 a larger mean PBL depth (operational: 1.85 km, improved: 1.07 km) but also a broader  
180 distribution (operational:  $\sigma = 0.58$  km, improved:  $\sigma = 0.36$  km). It should be noted that  
181 the daily mean PBL depth derived from MPLNET will have a high bias due to instrument  
182 limitations that prevent measurements below 500 m.

183 Seasonal comparisons of the mean diurnal cycles and daily mean probability distribu-  
184 tions for 2010 are shown in Figures 5 and 6, respectively. With the exception of the  
185 spring diurnal cycle, the improved PBL retrieval is less than the operational retrieval in  
186 all cases. This exception is attributed to a high occurrence of cases when the two-fold  
187 threshold was exceeded during the spring, producing spurious low PBL depths in the  
188 operational retrieval similar to those seen in Figure 3.

189 The growth of the PBL is visible during all seasons in the improved algorithm; however,  
190 it is only seen in part during the spring and summer in the operational retrievals and is  
191 completely hidden by residual layers in the fall and winter. From Figure 6 we note that

192 both algorithms show the largest daily mean PBL depths occurring during the summer  
193 and the lowest occurring in the winter. The winter probability distribution is very broad  
194 for the operational PBL retrieval ( $\sigma = 0.60$  km). Because there is less energy available  
195 for convection, the distribution is expected to be narrower during winter as seen in the  
196 improved PBL retrieval ( $\sigma = 0.27$  km). From this point forward, all lidar-derived PBL  
197 depths will be calculated using the improved PBL retrieval.

#### 4. Validation of the Improved Algorithm

198 Estimates of the PBL depth can be derived from radiosondes, launched twice-daily  
199 at 0000 and 1200 UTC. However, these standard times occur in the early morning and  
200 evening in the eastern United States, which are not adequate for observing the diurnal  
201 variation of the PBL or maximum daytime PBL depth [*Liu and Liang, 2010; Seidel et al.,*  
202 *2012; McGrath-Spangler and Denning, 2012*]. Furthermore, at these times, the PBL has  
203 not fully developed (early morning) or has started to collapse (evening) which the MPL  
204 is less likely to detect due to instrument limitations. Therefore, attempts to validate the  
205 improved PBL algorithm are limited to periods when radiosonde measurements can be  
206 made at non-standard times.

207 One such opportunity occurred when radiosondes were launched from the Howard  
208 University Beltsville Center for Climate System Observation as part of the July 2011  
209 DISCOVER-AQ field campaign (<http://www.nasa.gov/discover-aq>). The Beltsville Cen-  
210 ter for Climate System Observation (39.05°N, 76.88°W, 52-m site elevation) is located 7  
211 km from the GSFC MPLNET site (38.99°N, 76.84°W, 50-m site elevation). The MPLNET  
212 PBL depths were averaged to 20-minute temporal resolution centered around the time of  
213 the radiosonde launch for this comparison. Lidar-derived retrievals of the PBL depth were

214 possible during 23 of the 25 radiosonde launches which took place between 1357 and 2134  
215 UTC. Radiosonde data are originally sampled at 2-second intervals and interpolated to  
216 1-second intervals, which results in a nominal vertical resolution of 5-m compared to the  
217 75-m vertical resolution of the lidar. The radiosonde-derived PBL depths were determined  
218 using the parcel method [*Holzworth, 1964, 1967*].

219 Figure 7 shows a cross-section of the normalized relative backscatter at GSFC, the po-  
220 tential temperature profiles from the radiosonde launches at Beltsville, and the PBL depth  
221 retrievals from both sources for 1–2 July 2011. In Figure 8, the correlation between the  
222 lidar and radiosonde measurements is shown for the entire field campaign. The MPLNET  
223 algorithm underestimated the PBL depth with a mean difference of 119-m for the 23  
224 observations. The lidar-derived PBL depths compare well with the radiosonde measure-  
225 ments, suggesting the algorithm performs well for detecting the maximum daytime PBL  
226 depth during the summer. Due to the limited availability of radiosondes at times when  
227 the PBL has fully developed, it is unknown how this performance varies throughout the  
228 year.

## 5. GEOS-5 Comparison

229 There are limited observational datasets with which to compare long-term, continuous  
230 PBL depth measurements like those obtained from MPLNET [*Liu and Liang, 2010; Sei-*  
231 *del et al., 2012*]. Furthermore, the lack of observational datasets makes the validation of  
232 modeled PBL depths difficult. Therefore, in this section we compare lidar-derived PBL  
233 depths with results from the GEOS-5 model. The GEOS-5 Atmospheric General Cir-  
234 culation Model (AGCM) was developed at NASA’s Global Modeling and Assimilation  
235 Office (GMAO) as the single AGCM for use in a wide range of applications at a wide

236 range of resolutions. The current version of the AGCM, documented in *Rienecker et al.*  
237 [2008] and *Molod et al.* [2012] was used for the GMAO coupled atmosphere/ocean and  
238 atmosphere-only simulations at  $2.0^\circ$  resolution submitted to the Coupled Model Intercom-  
239 parison Project Phase 5 (CMIP5), is part of the GMAO's operational data assimilation  
240 system run at  $0.25^\circ$  resolution, and is used regularly for atmosphere-only coupled chem-  
241 istry climate simulations.

242 A previous version of the GEOS-5 AGCM was used as part of the Modern Era Re-  
243 analysis for Research and Applications (MERRA). Direct comparisons between MERRA  
244 and Cloud Aerosol Lidar and Infrared Pathfinder Satellite Observations (CALIPSO) PBL  
245 depths performed by *Jordan et al.* [2010] resulted in correlation coefficients between 0.47  
246 and 0.73 in the Western Hemisphere. However, their comparison included PBL depths  
247 derived using aerosol as well as cloud layers and contained a majority of data over the  
248 ocean. *McGrath-Spangler and Denning* [2012] showed that over much of the United States  
249 and portions of the subtropical oceans, the MERRA PBL depths are within 25% of the  
250 estimates derived from CALIPSO. The turbulence parameterization underwent substan-  
251 tial change in behavior between the previous and current versions of the GEOS-5 AGCM  
252 (documented in *Molod et al.* [2012]), resulting, in general, in larger PBL depths in the  
253 current simulations.

254 The full suite of GEOS-5 AGCM physical parameterizations is described in the refer-  
255 ences mentioned, but a brief description of the turbulence parameterization is warranted  
256 here. The turbulence parameterization in the GEOS-5 AGCM is a combination of the  
257 non-local scheme of *Lock et al.* [2000] and the local diffusion scheme of *Louis et al.* [1982].  
258 At any model time step, the larger of the eddy diffusion coefficients computed by the two

259 schemes are used for turbulent diffusion. The AGCM's estimate of PBL depth is based  
260 on vertical profiles of  $K_h$ , the eddy exchange coefficient for the vertical diffusion of heat.  
261 The first level above the ground at which  $K_h$  descends to below  $2 \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-1}$  is designated  
262 as the PBL depth, and is used by the turbulence parameterization as an estimate of the  
263 turbulent length scale for use in the *Louis et al.* [1982] scheme. PBL depth estimates  
264 from a single atmospheric simulation at  $0.5^\circ$  horizontal resolution and 72 vertical levels  
265 (approximately 8 of them in the boundary layer) are used here for comparison against  
266 MPLNET PBL depths. The AGCM simulation is not expected to follow the synoptic  
267 evolution of the atmosphere, and so monthly mean diurnal cycles are used.

268 For this comparison, the lidar-derived PBL depths are averaged to the three-hour tem-  
269 poral resolution of the monthly mean diurnal cycle from the model. The comparison is  
270 limited to years when data was available from both GEOS-5 and MPLNET (2001–2008)  
271 and only includes months when at least 20 days of lidar measurements were made at  
272 GSFC. In total, 58 months met these requirements. Due to the aforementioned instru-  
273 ment limitations, the discussion is limited to daytime measurements when the PBL has  
274 fully developed.

275 Figure 9 shows a comparison of the annual mean diurnal cycles from the GEOS-5 model  
276 and MPLNET derived from the monthly mean diurnal cycles. The vertical bars indicate  
277 the standard deviation of the monthly means. Although the PBL appears to rise faster  
278 in the model, both the modeled and measured diurnal cycles peak at the same time. It  
279 should be noted that 34% of the monthly diurnal cycles from GEOS-5 peak one timestep  
280 before MPLNET; nearly all occurring between the months of April and August. However,

281 since this comparison is performed at a coarse 3-hour resolution, the difference may be  
282 somewhat exaggerated.

283 Figure 10 shows the mean diurnal cycles for each season. In the spring and summer,  
284 when aerosol loading is highest, the lidar-derived PBL remains elevated late into the  
285 afternoon while it collapses sooner in the model. The most significant disagreement occurs  
286 during the winter, when the maximum daytime PBL depth from the model is nearly half  
287 the lidar-derived value. One possible explanation for these disagreements is the difference  
288 in criteria used to define the PBL depth (turbulence in the case of the GEOS-5 AGCM  
289 and aerosol gradients in the case of MPLNET) which can lead to different estimations of  
290 the PBL depth [*Seibert et al.*, 2000; *Tucker et al.*, 2009].

291 Figure 11 shows a comparison of the monthly mean daytime maximum PBL depths and  
292 the correlation plot between GEOS-5 versus MPLNET. The seasonal differences between  
293 the modeled and measured PBL depths are given in Table 1. The best agreement between  
294 the GEOS-5 and MPLNET PBL depths occurs in the fall and the largest differences occur  
295 during winter. During the spring and summer, it is believed that the modeled PBL depths  
296 are underestimated due to an overestimation in soil moisture in the Mid-Atlantic region  
297 based on a comparison of GEOS-5 precipitation to the Global Precipitation Climatology  
298 Project (not shown).

## 6. Summary and Future Work

299 An improved PBL depth algorithm has been developed for use in the MPLNET which  
300 uses a combination of the wavelet technique and image processing. A fuzzy logic rou-  
301 tine is used to select the best estimate of the PBL depth from three extracted features  
302 using six membership functions. The improved algorithm reveals seasonal and diurnal



303 trends undetected by the current operational routine. The improved algorithm has the  
304 advantage of being influenced less by clouds and residual layers. Instrument limitations  
305 make nighttime retrievals unreliable; therefore, MPLNET PBL depths are best suited for  
306 daytime retrievals under convective situations.

307 A July 2011 comparison with radiosonde observations suggests that the algorithm per-  
308 forms well for determining the maximum daytime PBL depth in the summer. Additional  
309 radiosonde data at non-standard times are needed to evaluate the algorithm performance  
310 at other times during the year. Comparisons with the GEOS-5 AGCM show the model  
311 may underestimate the maximum daytime PBL depth in the spring and summer by  
312  $\sim 22\%$ . The largest differences between the model and lidar-derived PBL depths oc-  
313 cur during the winter, when the GEOS-5 PBL depths are nearly half the values obtained  
314 from MPLNET.

315 Testing is being performed to evaluate the performance of the improved PBL depth  
316 algorithm at other sites in the MPLNET. Once finalized, the improved algorithm will be  
317 incorporated into regular processing and made available for public use. Further research  
318 is planned to fully explain and resolve differences between the MPLNET and GEOS-5  
319 PBL depths and will be the topic of a future study. Comparisons with PBL retrievals  
320 from CALIPSO as demonstrated by *McGrath-Spangler and Denning* [2012] will also be  
321 investigated. While not explored in this study, the improved algorithm can be adapted to  
322 provide an estimate of the entrainment zone thickness, and will be researched at a later  
323 time.

## Appendix A: Fuzzy Logic Membership Functions

324 The fuzzy logic algorithm used to select the PBL depth from the extracted feature alti-  
 325 tudes calculates a quality score based on six membership functions. The feature altitude  
 326 with the highest quality score is selected as the best estimate of the PBL depth. Each  
 327 membership function,  $f_i$ , has a maximum value of unity and the quality score,  $Q$ , is the  
 328 product of the individual membership functions.

$$329 \quad Q = \prod_{i=1}^6 f_i \quad (\text{A1})$$

330 In this sense, the value of a membership function represents the likelihood that the ex-  
 331 tracted feature is the actual PBL depth based on that particular parameter. The mem-  
 332 bership functions have been developed through a trial-and-error process until they worked  
 333 well to identify the PBL depth. Three distinct membership function types are used:

334 Gaussian,

$$335 \quad f(x; \sigma, c) = \exp\left[-\frac{(x - c)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right] \quad (\text{A2})$$

336 Decaying exponential,

$$337 \quad f(t; t_o) = \exp[-(t - t_o)]^4 \leq 1 \quad (\text{A3})$$

338 and Absolute value

$$339 \quad f(z; \bar{z}) = 1 - \left| \frac{z - \bar{z}}{\bar{z}} \right| \geq \frac{1}{3}. \quad (\text{A4})$$

340 A summary of the six membership functions along with nominal parameter values is given  
 341 in Table 2.

## A1. Artifact Membership Function

342 The first membership function,  $f_1$ , accounts for an artifact in the WCT image that is  
 343 related to the choice of dilation. This artifact is visible in the latter part of the day in  
 344 Figure 1 as the lightly shaded area  $\sim 500$  m, just above the minimum detectable gradient.  
 345 When the PBL is low (e.g. near sunrise), real features can be detected at this altitude;  
 346 however later in the day, false PBL depths can occur similar to the spurious low PBL  
 347 depths in Figure 3 (black triangles from 18–24 UTC). To account for this artifact, a  
 348 decaying exponential membership function is applied to features occurring within three  
 349 range bins of the minimum detectable gradient. The parameter  $t_o$  is chosen as the time  
 350 for the membership function to start decaying (e.g. sunrise). Therefore, feature altitudes  
 351 occurring near the minimum detectable gradient are less likely to be chosen later in the  
 352 day.

## A2. Residual Layer Membership Function

353 The growth of the PBL in the morning is difficult to detect with lidar because stronger  
 354 gradients can exist in the overlying residual layer. The second membership function,  $f_2$ , is  
 355 used during early morning retrievals to reduce the probability of selecting the residual layer  
 356 in the PBL depth algorithm. The mean altitude of the strongest gradients at nighttime is  
 357 used to define the residual layer altitude,  $z_R$ . Then the value of the membership function  
 358 is determined using a dimensionless parameter,  $x$ , given by

$$359 \quad x = 1 - \frac{z}{z_R} \quad (\text{A5})$$

360 where  $z$  represents the altitude of the extracted feature. A lower value of  $x$  is less likely  
 361 to represent the true PBL depth.

### A3. Elevated Layer Membership Function

362 Aerosol layers aloft in the atmosphere can produce false elevated PBL depths. In order  
 363 to identify these elevated layers, the minimum altitude,  $z_{min}$ , where the scattering ratio  
 364 falls below a certain threshold (e.g. the mean scattering ratio) is calculated for each  
 365 five-minute averaged lidar profile. A dimensionless parameter,  $x$ , given by

$$366 \quad x = 1 - \frac{z_{min}}{z} > 0 \quad (\text{A6})$$

367 is used to determine the value of the third membership function,  $f_3$ . Features with a  
 368 higher value of  $x$  are more likely to represent layers aloft and less likely to represent the  
 369 actual PBL depth.

### A4. WCT Membership Function

370 The PBL depth can be identified by the maximum value in the WCT. In the fourth  
 371 membership function,  $f_4$ , the WCT is normalized by the maximum value for each five-  
 372 minute averaged lidar profile. The value of the normalized WCT at each extracted feature  
 373 altitude is then used to calculate this membership function.

### A5. Variance Membership Function

374 The altitude where the maximum variance in the lidar profile occurs can also be used  
 375 to identify the PBL depth. Therefore, variance analysis at 20-minute intervals is used to  
 376 calculate the fifth membership function. Similar to the WCT membership function, the  
 377 value of the normalized variance at each extracted feature altitude is used to determine  
 378 the value of  $f_5$ .

## A6. Recent Retrieval Membership Function

379 The final membership function,  $f_6$ , uses a 20-minute average of the most recent PBL  
380 depth retrievals,  $\bar{z}$ , in the forward or reverse processing directions. Thus a higher probab-  
381 ility of selection exists when the altitude,  $z$ , is closer to the mean. Because the membership  
382 function is used to determine the best choice between three feature altitudes, the minimum  
383 value of  $f_6$  is set to one-third.

## A7. Implementation of Membership Functions

384 Due to the empirical nature of the individual membership functions, the PBL algorithm  
385 will need to be parameterized for each site based on the meteorological conditions. For  
386 example,  $f_1$  is applied at GSFC only when a feature is detected within three range bins  
387 of the minimum detectable gradient. At other sites within the network, the altitude at  
388 which this membership function is applied may differ. Similarly,  $f_2$  is only applied during  
389 the first three hours after sunrise at GSFC, but this time interval may differ depending  
390 on the expected rate of PBL growth at a particular site. The sensitivity of each of the  
391 Gaussian membership functions depends on the parameter  $\sigma$ . Smaller values of  $\sigma$  produce  
392 more sensitivity in the PBL retrieval. Because  $f_6$  depends only upon the most recently  
393 retrieval, it can be implemented unchanged at every site in the network.

394 **Acknowledgments.** The authors would like to acknowledge the support of Larry  
395 Belcher for processing the lidar data, Lawrence Takacs who ran the model simulations,  
396 and the MPLNET staff for their efforts in establishing and maintaining the GSFC site.  
397 This research was supported by an appointment to the NASA Postdoctoral Program at  
398 the Goddard Space Flight Center, administered by Oak Ridge Associated Universities

399 through a contract with NASA. The NASA Micro-Pulse Lidar Network is funded by the  
400 NASA Earth Observing System and Radiation Sciences Program.

## References

- 401 Angevine, W.M., A.B. White, and S.K. Avery (1994). Boundary-layer depth and entrain-  
402 ment zone characterization with a boundary-layer profiler, *Bound. Layer Meteor.* 68:  
403 375–385.
- 404 Ao, C.O., D.E. Waliser, S.K. Chan, J.-L. Li, B. Tian, F. Xie, and A. J. Mannucci (2012).  
405 Planetary boundary layer heights from GPS radio occultation refractivity and humidity  
406 profiles, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 117, D16117, doi:10.1029/2012JD017598.
- 407 Beyrich, F. (1997). Mixing height estimation from sodar data - A critical discussion,  
408 *Atmos. Environ.* 31 (23), 3941–3953.
- 409 Bianco, L. and J.M. Wilczak (2002). Convective boundary layer depth: Improved mea-  
410 surements by doppler radar wind profiler using fuzzy logic methods, *J. Atmos. Ocean.*  
411 *Tech.*, 19, 1745–1758.
- 412 Brooks, I.M. (2003). Finding boundary layer top: Application of a wavelet covariance  
413 transform to lidar backscatter profiles, *J. Atmos. Ocean. Tech.*, 20, 1092–1105.
- 414 Brooks, I.M. and A.M. Fowler (2012). An evaluation of boundary-layer depth, inversion,  
415 and entrainment parameters by large-eddy simulation, *Bound.-Layer Meteor.*, 142:245-  
416 263, doi:10.1007/s10546-011-9668-3.
- 417 Campbell, J.R., D.L. Hlavka, E.J. Welton, C.J. Flynn, D.D. Turner, J.D. Spinhirne, V.S.  
418 Scott, and I.H. Hwang (2002). Full-time, eye-safe cloud and aerosol lidar observation at  
419 Atmospheric Radiation Measurement program sites: Instrument and data processing, *J.*

- 420 *Atmos. Oceanic Technol.*, 19, 431–442.
- 421 Canny, J. (1986). A computational approach to edge detection. *IEEE Trans. Pattern*  
422 *Analysis and Machine Intelligence*, 8 (6), 679-698.
- 423 Davis, K.J., N. Gamage, C.R. Hagelberg, C. Kiemle, D.H. Lenschow, and P.P. Sullivan  
424 (2000). An objective method for deriving atmospheric structure from airborne lidar  
425 observations. *J. Atmos. Oceanic Technol.*, 17, 1455-1468.
- 426 Ecklund, W.L., D.A. Carter, and B.B. Balsley (1988). A UHF wind profiler for the bound-  
427 ary layer: Brief description and initial results, *J. Atmos. Ocean. Technol.* 5: 432–441.
- 428 Emeis, S. (2011). Surface-based remote sensing of the atmospheric boundary layer, Series:  
429 Atmospheric and oceanographic sciences library, Vol.40. *Springer*.
- 430 Flamant, C., J. Pelon, P.H. Flamant, P. Durand (1997). Lidar determination of the en-  
431 trainment zone thickness at the top of the unstable marine atmospheric boundary layer,  
432 *Bound. Layer Meteor.* 83: 247-284.
- 433 Guo, P., Kuo, Y.-H., Sokolovskiy, S. V., and Lenschow, D. H. (2011). Estimating atmo-  
434 spheric boundary layer depth using COSMIC radio occultation data, *J. Atmos. Sci.*,  
435 68, 1703-1713.
- 436 Haeffelin, M., F. Angelini, Y. Morille, G. Martucci, S. Frey, G. P. Gobbi, S. Lolli, C.D.  
437 O’Dowd, L. Sauvage, I. Xueref-Rémy, B. Wastine, and D.G. Feist (2011). Evaluation  
438 of mixing-height retrievals from automatic profiling lidars and ceilometers in view of  
439 future integrated networks in Europe, *Bound. Layer Meteor.* vol, pp.
- 440 Holben, B. N., T. F. Eck, I. Slutsker, D. Tanré, J. P. Buis, A. Setzer, E. Vermote, J. A.  
441 Reagan, Y. J. Kaufman, T. Nakajima, F. Lavenu, I. Jankowiak, and A. Smirnov (1998),  
442 AERONET - A federated instrument network and data archive for aerosol characteri-

- 443 zation. *Remote Sens. Environ.*, 66: 1–16.
- 444 Holworth, G.C. (1964). Estimates of mean maximum mixing depths in the contiguous  
445 United States, *Monthly Weather Review* 92: , 235-242.
- 446 Holworth, G.C. (1967). Mixing depths, wind speeds and air pollution potential for se-  
447 lected locations in the United States, *J. Appl. Meteor.* 6: 1039-1044.
- 448 Hooper, W.P. and E.W. Eloranta (1986). Lidar measurements of wind in the planetary  
449 boundary layer: the method, accuracy and results from joint measurements with ra-  
450 diosonde and kytoon. *J. Clim. Appl. Meteor.* 25: 990-1001.
- 451 Jordan, N.S., R.M. Hoff, and J.T. Bacmeister (2010). Validation of Goddard Earth Ob-  
452 serving System version 5 MERRA planetary boundary layer heights using CALIPSO, *J.*  
453 *Geophys. Res.*, 115, D24218., doi:10.1029/2009JD013777.
- 454 Kaimal, J.C. and J.E. Gaynor (1983). The boulder atmospheric observatory, *J. Climate*  
455 *Appl. Met.* 22: 863-880.
- 456 Klir, G.J. and B. Yuan (1997). Fuzzy set theory foundations and applications. *Prentice*  
457 *Hall*, 245 pp.
- 458 Lammert, A. and J. Bösenberg (2006). Determination of the convective boundary-layer  
459 height with laser remote sensing, *Bound. Layer Meteor.* 119: 159-170.
- 460 Liu, S., and X.-Z. Liang (2010), Observed diurnal cycle climatology of planetary boundary  
461 layer height, *J. Clim.*, 23, 5790-5809, doi:10.1175/2010JCLI3552.1.
- 462 Lock, A.P., A.R. Brown, M.R. Bush, G.M. Martin, and R.N.B. Smith (2000). A new  
463 boundary layer mixing scheme. Part I: Scheme description and single-column model  
464 tests. *Mon. Wea. Rev.*, 138, 3187-3199.



- 465 Louis, J.F., M. Tiedtke, and J.F. Geleyn (1982). A short history of the operational PBL  
466 parameterization at ECMWF, in *Proceedings of ECMWF Workshop on PBL Parame-*  
467 *terization*, ECMWF, Reading, UK.
- 468 McGrath-Spangler, E.L., and A.S. Denning (2012). Estimates of North American sum-  
469 mertime planetary boundary layer depths derived from space-borne lidar, *J. Geophys.*  
470 *Res.*, 117, D15101, doi:10.1029/2012JD017615.
- 471 Melas, D. (1990). Sodar estimates of surface heat flux and mixed layer depth compared  
472 with direct measurements, *Atmos. Environ.* 24A, (11), 2847–2853.
- 473 Molod, A., L. Takacs, M. Suarez, J. Bacmeister, I.-S. Song, and A. Eichmann (2012).  
474 The GEOS-5 Atmospheric General Circulation Model: Mean Climate and Develop-  
475 ment from MERRA to Fortuna. Technical Report Series on Global Modeling and Data  
476 Assimilation, Vol. 28.
- 477 Morille, Y., M. Haeffelin, P. Drobinski, J. Pelon (2007). STRAT: an automated algorithm  
478 to retrieve the vertical structure of the atmosphere from single-channel lidar data. *J.*  
479 *Atmos. Ocean Tech.* 24, 761-775.
- 480 Olsen, L.E., M.P. McCormick, W.P. Elliott, S.H. Melfi (1974). An observational study of  
481 the mixing layer in western Oregon, *Atmos. Environ.* 8, 214–252.
- 482 Rienecker, M.M., M.J. Suarez, R. Todling, J. Bacmeister, L. Takacs, H.-C. Liu, W. Gu, M.  
483 Sienkiewicz, R.D. Koster, R. Gelaro, I. Stajner, and J.E. Nielsen (2008). The GEOS-5  
484 Data Assimilation System - Documentation of Versions 5.0.1, 5.1.0, and 5.2.0. Technical  
485 Report Series on Global Modeling and Data Assimilation, Vol. 27.
- 486 Seibert P., F. Beyrich, S. Gryning, S. Joffre, A. Rasmussen, P. Tercier (2000). Review and  
487 intercomparison of operational methods for the determination of the mixing height.

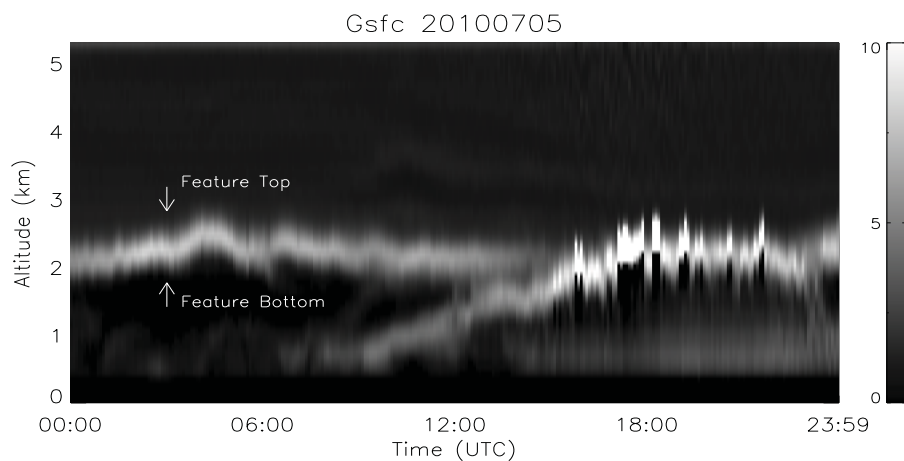
- 488 *Atmos. Environ.* 34: 1001-1027.
- 489 Seidel, D.J., Y. Zhang, A. Beljaars, J.-C. Golaz, A. R. Jacobson, and B. Medeiros (2012).  
490 Climatology of the planetary boundary layer over the continental United States and  
491 Europe. *J. Geophys. Res.*, 117, D17106, doi:10.1029/2012JD018143.
- 492 Spangler, T.C. and R.A. Dirks (1974). Meso-scale variations of the urban mixing height,  
493 *Bound.-Layer Meteor.* 6: 423–441.
- 494 Spinhirne, J.D., J.A.R. Rall, and V.S. Scott (1995), Compact eye safe lidar systems, *Rev.*  
495 *Laser Eng.*, 23, 112–118.
- 496 Stull, R.B. (1988). An introduction to boundary-layer meteorology, *Kluwer Acad. Publ.*,  
497 *Dordrecht*, 666 pp.
- 498 Steyn, D.G., M. Baldi, and R.M. Hoff (1999). The detection of mixed layer depth and  
499 entrainment zone thickness from lidar backscatter profiles, *J. Atmos. Ocean Technol.*  
500 16: 953-959.
- 501 Träumner K., Ch. Kottmeier, U. Corsmeier, A. Wieser (2011). Convective boundary-  
502 layer entrainment: short review and progress using doppler lidar. *Bound.-Layer Meteor.*  
503 141:369-391, doi:10.1007/s10546-011-9657-6.
- 504 Tucker, S.C., W.A. Brewer, R.M. Banta, C.J. Senff, S.P. Sandberg, D.C. Law, A.M.  
505 Weickmann, and R.M. Hardesty (2009). Doppler lidar estimation of mixing height using  
506 turbulence, shear, and aerosol profiles, *J. Atmos. Ocean. Tech.*, 26 (4), 673–688.
- 507 van Ulden, A.P., and J. Wieringa (1996). Atmospheric boundary layer research at Cabauw,  
508 *Bound.-Layer Meteor.* 78: 39-69.
- 509 von Engel, A., J. Teixeira, J. Wickert, and S.A. Buehler (2005). Using CHAMP radio  
510 occultation data to determine the top altitude of the planetary boundary layer, *Geophys.*

511 *Res. Lett.*, 32, L06815.

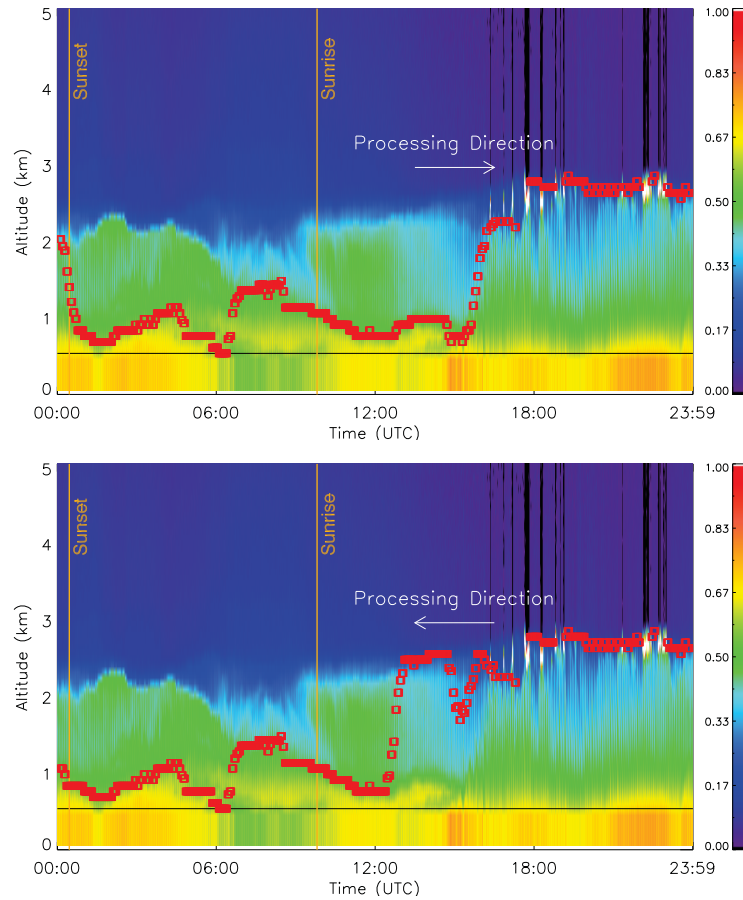
512 Welton, E. J., J. R. Campbell, J. D. Spinhirne, and V. S. Scott (2001), Global monitoring  
513 of clouds and aerosols using a network of micro-pulse lidar systems. *In: Lidar Remote  
514 Sensing for Industry and Environmental Monitoring* [U. N. Singh, T. Itabe, N. Sugimoto  
515 (eds.)]. Proc. SPIE, 4153, 151–158.

516 Welton, E.J., and J.R. Campbell (2002). Micropulse lidar signals: Uncertainty analysis.  
517 *J. Atmos. Oceanic Technol.*, 19, 2089–2094.

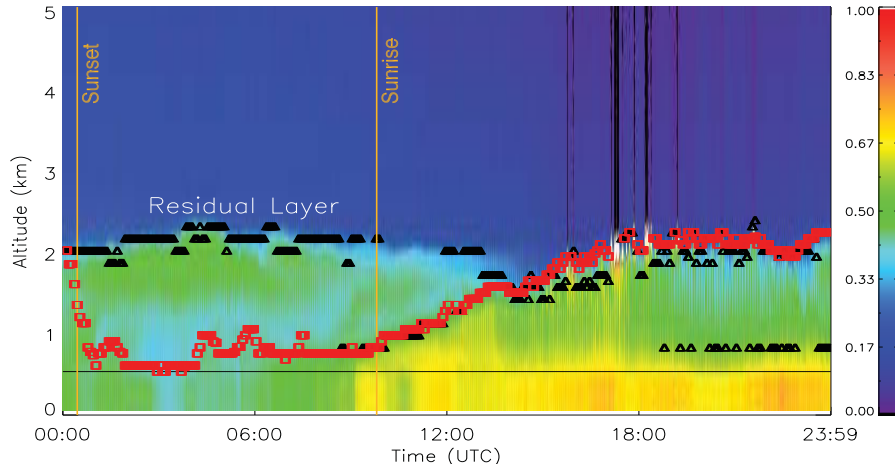
518 Wielicki, B. A., R. D. Cess, M. D. King, D. A. Randall, and E. F. Harrison (1995), Mission  
519 to Planet Earth: Role of clouds and radiation in climate. *Bull. Amer. Meteor. Soc.*, 76,  
520 2125–2153.



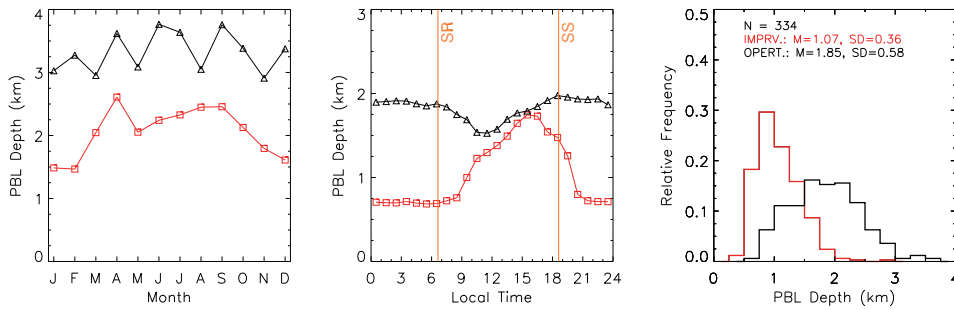
**Figure 1.** WCT image (arbitrary units) at GSFC on 5 July 2010. Gradients in the lidar profile are not detectable below  $\sim 500$  m.



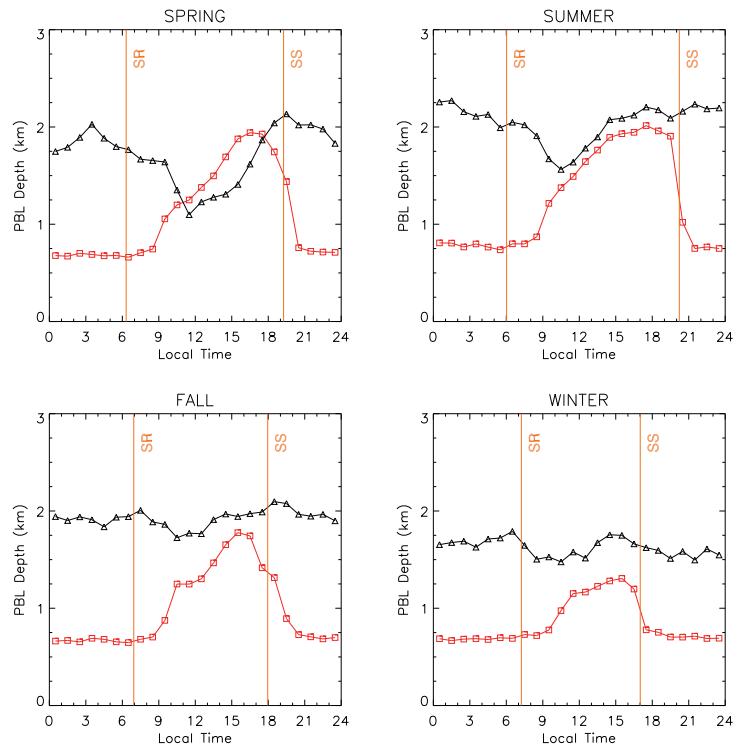
**Figure 2.** Normalized relative backscatter at GSFC on 6 July 2010 showing a comparison of the improved PBL depth algorithm in the forward (top) and reverse (bottom) processing directions. The best estimate of the PBL depth is indicated by red squares. The vertical orange lines indicate the mean times for sunrise (SR) and sunset (SS) and the horizontal black line indicates the altitude of the minimum detectable gradient.



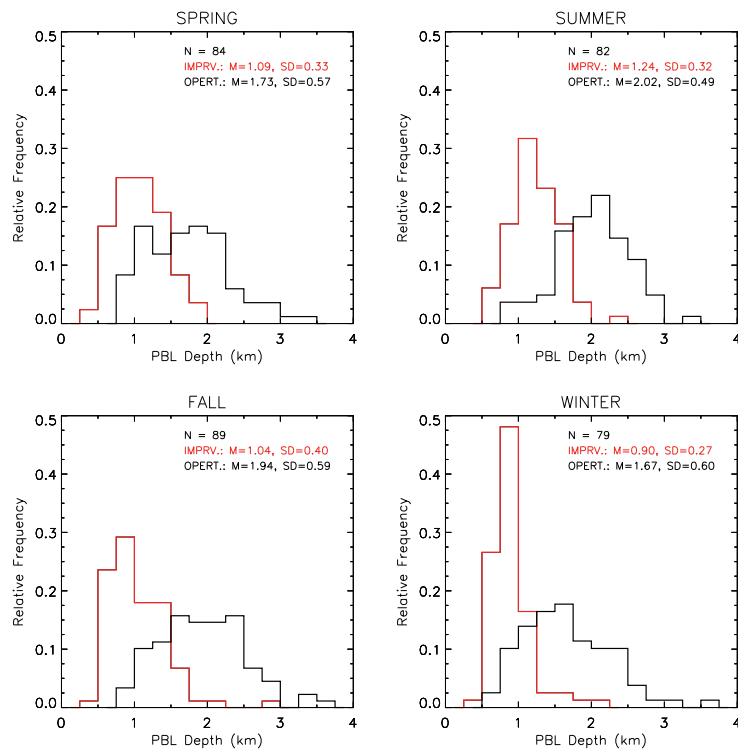
**Figure 3.** Normalized relative backscatter at GSFC on 5 July 2010. The black triangles and red squares are the operational and improved PBL depths, respectively. The horizontal black line indicates the altitude of the minimum detectable gradient.



**Figure 4.** Comparisons of (left) monthly means of the daily maximum PBL height, (center) annual diurnal cycles, and (right) daily mean probability distributions at GSFC for the 2010 operational PBL retrieval (black triangles) and improved PBL algorithm (red squares). The vertical orange lines in the diurnal cycle indicate the mean times for sunrise (SR) and sunset (SS).

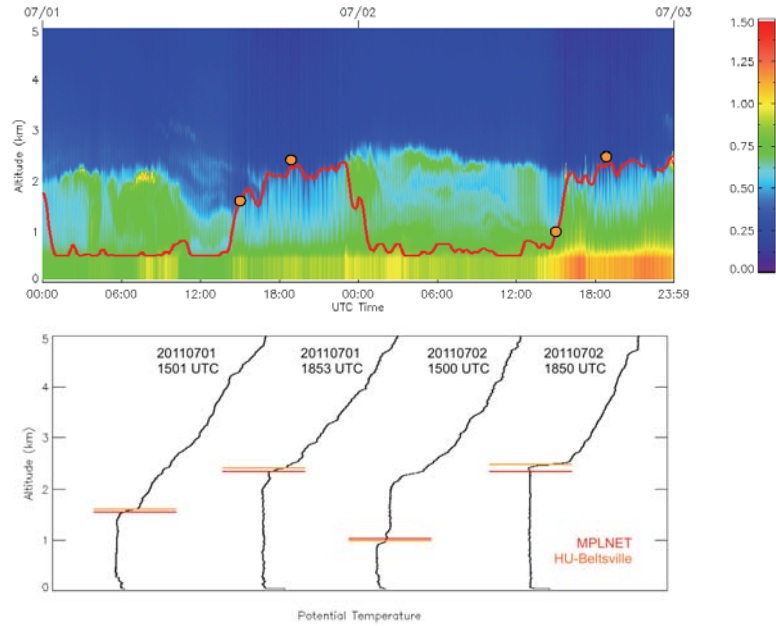


**Figure 5.** Seasonal diurnal cycle of the PBL depth at GSFC for 2010 with the operational retrieval represented by black triangles and the improved retrieval represented by red squares.

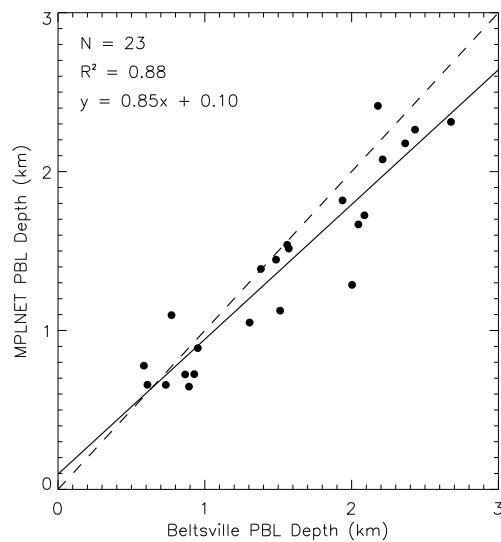


**Figure 6.** Seasonal probability distribution of the daily mean PBL depth at GSFC for 2010 with the operational retrieval in black and the improved retrieval in red.

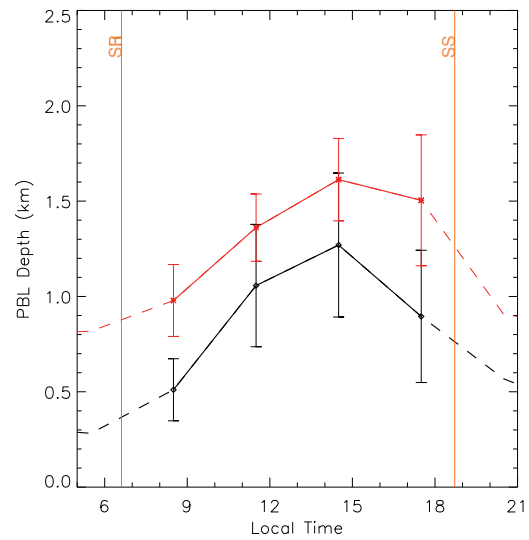




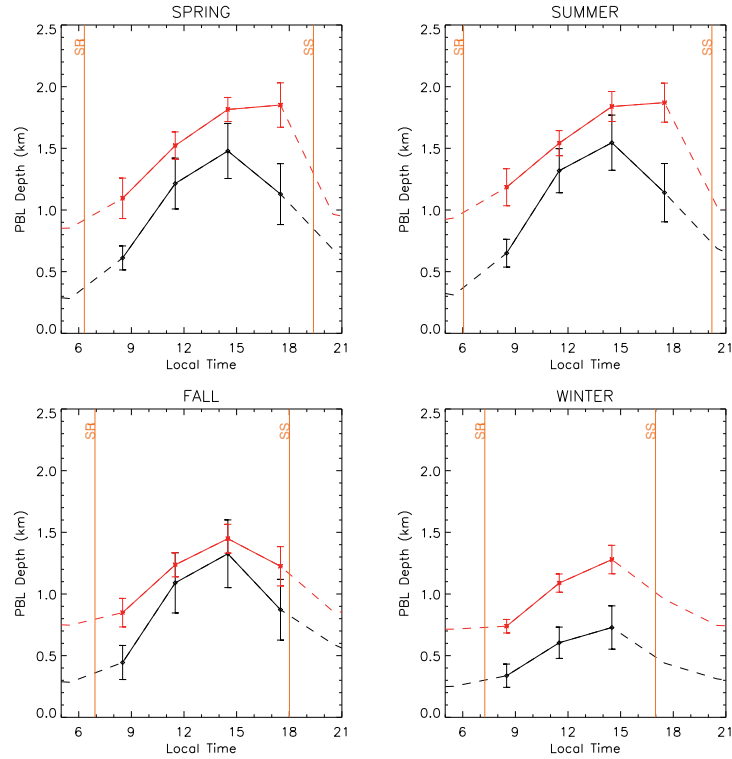
**Figure 7.** (Top) Normalized relative backscatter at GSFC on 1–2 July 2011 with the PBL depths from MPLNET (red line) and radiosondes (orange filled circles). (Bottom) The potential temperature profiles from the the radiosonde profiles with the PBL depths from MPLNET (red) and radiosondes (orange).



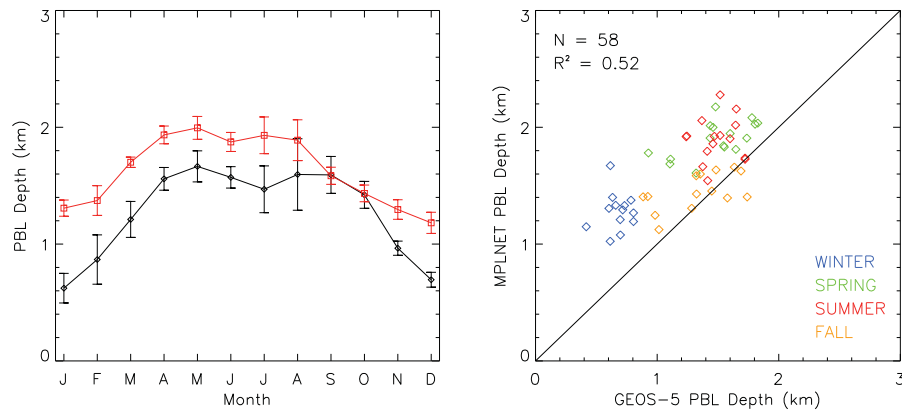
**Figure 8.** Correlation of radiosonde-derived PBL depths at Beltsville and lidar-derived PBL depths from MPLNET. The dashed line is the unity line and the solid line is the best-fit line.



**Figure 9.** Comparison of the annual mean diurnal cycles from the GEOS-5 model (black diamonds) and MPLNET (red squares) derived from the monthly mean diurnal cycles from 2001–2008. Daytime (nighttime) retrievals are symbolized using solid (dashed) lines. The vertical bars indicate the standard deviation of the monthly means.



**Figure 10.** Comparison of seasonal diurnal cycles of the PBL at GSFC for 2001–2008 from MPLNET (red squares) and GEOS-5 (black diamonds).



**Figure 11.** (Left) Comparison of monthly mean daytime maximum PBL depths for MPLNET (red squares) and GEOS-5 (black diamonds) from 2001–2008. (Right) Correlation plot between GEOS-5 and MPLNET for each month.

**Table 1.** Seasonal difference between MPLNET and GEOS-5 PBL depths

Season	$h_{\text{MPLNET}}$ (km)	$h_{\text{GEOS5}}$ (km)	$\Delta h$ (km)	$\sigma_{\Delta h}$ (km)	Months
Winter	1.28	0.68	0.60	0.19	13
Spring	1.90	1.49	0.41	0.21	16
Summer	1.90	1.49	0.41	0.24	15
Fall	1.45	1.33	0.12	0.23	14
All	1.65	1.27	0.38	0.27	58

**Table 2.** Fuzzy Logic Membership Functions

$f_i$	Type	Parameter	Parameter
$f_1$	Decaying exponential	$t_o = \text{sunrise}$	-
$f_2$	Gaussian	$c = 1$	$\sigma = 0.4$
$f_3$	Gaussian	$c = 0$	$\sigma = 0.1\bar{6}$
$f_4$	Gaussian	$c = 1$	$\sigma = 0.68$
$f_5$	Gaussian	$c = 1$	$\sigma = 0.68$
$f_6$	Absolute value	$\bar{z} = \text{mean PBL height}$	-