



# Supplement of

## Aerosol activation characteristics and prediction at the central European ACTRIS research station of Melpitz, Germany

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# Text S1. Relationship between aerosol hygroscopicity factor calculated from the

chemical composition and the individual composition groups. 23

For understanding the relationship between aerosol hygroscopicity factor 24 calculated from the chemical composition ( $\kappa_{chem}$ ) and the individual composition groups, 25 it is important to realize that these groups do not act in the same way in Eq 3. The 26 influence of organics is direct. As shown in Table 1, the hygroscopicity of organics ( $\kappa_{org}$ ) 27 is smaller than that of inorganics ( $\kappa_{inorg}$ ). Thus, higher mass fraction of organics ( $f_{org}$ ) 28 means lower  $\kappa_{chem}$ , as shown in Figure S5a. But with SO<sub>4</sub>, NH<sub>4</sub>, NO<sub>3</sub> it is more 29 complicated because they are coupled through the ion balance. As shown in Figure 5c, 30 31 the absolute amount of SO<sub>4</sub> and NH<sub>4</sub> seems stable, but the NO<sub>3</sub> amount changes a lot between the seasons. The presence of  $NO_3$  shifts the salts from mostly  $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ 32 towards  $NH_4NO_3$  and  $NH_4HSO_4$  or even  $H_2SO_4$ . Hygroscopicity factors ( $\kappa$ ) are very 33 similar between  $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ ,  $NH_4HSO_4$ , and  $NH_4NO_3$ , but  $\kappa$  of  $H_2SO_4$  is much higher. 34 35 Thus, an increase in NO<sub>3</sub> can have a dual impact on  $\kappa$  for this data set, causing the positive correlation between mass fraction of nitrate and  $\kappa_{chem}$  in Figure S5b. The 36 increase in NO<sub>3</sub> adds a higher proportion of salt and increases the  $\kappa$  of SO<sub>4</sub>. So, if mass 37 38 fraction of SO<sub>4</sub> ( $f_{sulfate}$ ) decreases because more organics is present,  $\kappa$  decreases. If  $f_{sulfate}$ decreases because more NO<sub>3</sub> is present, k increase. As these two trends are opposite, 39 the correlation of  $f_{sulfate}$  and  $\kappa_{chem}$  will be poor. 40

## 42 Text S2. Yearly variations of CCN activation characteristics.

Yearly trends of CCN activation properties are investigated. The CCN number 43 concentration  $(N_{CCN})$  and hygroscopicity factor calculated from monodisperse CCN 44 measurements ( $\kappa_{CCN}$ ) measured at supersaturation (SS) of 0.1% and 0.7% are chosen to 45 represent the CCN activation characteristics. The results are shown in Figure S7. The 46 yearly trends in  $N_{CCN}$  and  $\kappa_{CCN}$  are not significant (without significant increase or 47 decrease trends) during the measurements from August 2012 to October 2016. However, 48 49 it is interesting to see that the  $N_{CCN}$  measured in 2015 was significantly lower than it 50 measured in other four years. One of the reasons could be that the CCN measurements 51 in 2015 concentrated in summer and autumn, lacking measurements in the spring and 52 winter months (Figure S1). As shown in Figure 3b,  $N_{CCN}$  measured at summer and autumn are lower than those measured in spring and winter due to its seasonal trend, 53 54 causing the lowest median N<sub>CCN</sub> values in 2015. Thus, the CCN measurements in 2015 may not be representative of the CCN characteristics of the whole year. Similarly, the 55 56 2012 measurements may not be representative of year-round CCN characteristics because of the lacking spring and summer measurements. Additionally, it is also hard 57 to see the yearly trends of CCN activation characteristics using the only 4-year data. In 58 59 order to investigate the yearly trends of CCN activation characteristics, longer-term measurements are required. 60

## 62 Text S3. Method for evaluating the impact of $N_{CCN}$ overestimation on cloud

### 63 radiative forcing and autoconversion process

64 Cloud optical thickness ( $\tau$ ) can be expressed by (Stephens, 1984)

$$\tau \approx \frac{3}{2} W r_e^{-1},\tag{1}$$

where *W* is the liquid water path,  $r_e$  is the effective radius of cloud droplets. Meanwhile  $r_e$  is proportional to the volume weighted mean radius of cloud droplets ( $r_v$ ) (Bower and Choularton, 1992) and can be expressed by

$$r_e = \beta \left(\frac{3q}{4\pi\rho_w N_c}\right)^{1/3} = \beta r_v, \tag{2}$$

where  $\beta$  is the scaling factor, q is the cloud liquid water content,  $\rho_w$  is the density of water, and  $N_c$  is the number concentration of cloud droplet. Here, to focus on the effect of  $N_c$  on  $r_e$ ,  $\beta$  is specified as a fixed parameter, i.e., ignoring the dispersion effect, as assumed in many climate models (Quaas et al., 2004). According to Liu et al. (2004, 2005), parameterization of the autoconversion

73 process can be expressed by

$$P = TA \times P_0, \tag{3}$$

where *P* is the autoconversion rate,  $P_0$  is the rate function describing the conversion rate after the onset of the autoconversion process, and *TA* is a function describing the threshold behavior of the autoconversion process. Meanwhile, *TA* can be expressed by

$$TA = \left[\frac{\int_{r_c}^{\infty} r^6 n(r) dr}{\int_0^{\infty} r^6 n(r) dr}\right] \left[\frac{\int_{r_c}^{\infty} r^3 n(r) dr}{\int_0^{\infty} r^3 n(r) dr}\right],\tag{4}$$

where *r* is the droplet radius, n(r) is the cloud droplet size distribution, and  $r_c$  is the critical radius of autoconversion process. The *TA* ranges from zero to one, with a larger *TA* indicating a greater probability that the collision process occurs in clouds. Liu et al. (2006) derived the analytical expression of  $r_c$  as follows:

$$r_c \approx 4.09 \times 10^{-4} \beta_{con}^{1/6} \frac{N_c^{1/6}}{q^{1/3}},$$
(5)

81 where  $\beta_{con} = 1.15 \times 10^{23} \text{ s}^{-1}$  is an empirical constant.

82 Essentially, an overestimation of  $N_{CCN}$  leads to overestimate  $N_c$  in models. From the 3rd and 4th scheme to 5th scheme, the slope of the linear fitting decreases 0.1 on 83 84 average, meaning that the ~10% overestimation of  $N_{CCN}$  and  $N_c$  is reduced. According 85 to equations 1 and 2, it can reduce 3.1% underestimation of  $r_e$  when assuming the 86 constant q and  $\beta$ , thereby reducing 3.2% overestimation of  $\tau$ . When assuming the global average cloud shortwave cooling effect is 40 Wm<sup>-2</sup> (Lee et al., 1997), the corresponding 87 difference is 1.28 Wm<sup>-2</sup>, which amounts to 32% of the direct radiative forcing from a 88 doubling CO<sub>2</sub> (about 4 Wm<sup>-2</sup>). Additionally, according to the equations 4 and 5, it can 89 reduce the overestimation of  $r_c$  thus the underestimation of TA, indicating that the 90 underestimation of the strength of autoconversion process can be reduced. 91

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# Text S4. $N_{CCN}$ predictions using the seasonally mean value of $\kappa$ over $D_p$ of 100 to

94 **200 nm** 

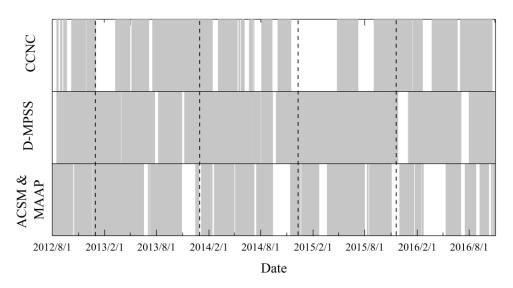
The main size dependence of  $\kappa$  occurs at  $D_p$  of ~40 to 100 nm as shown in Figure 95 6a, which would be for SS larger than 0.2%. At  $D_p$  of 100 to 200 nm corresponding to 96 SS less than 0.2%,  $\kappa$  almost stays constant. The mean value of  $\kappa$  at  $D_p$  of 100 to 200 nm 97 98 is close to 0.3 for spring and winter, and that's where deviations in Figure S7c are small. 99 However, the mean value of  $\kappa$  at  $D_p$  of 100 to 200 nm overestimates the  $\kappa$  for SS larger than 0.2% at each season. We further compare the  $N_{CCN}$  predictions between using the 100 seasonally mean value of  $\kappa$  over  $D_p$  of 100 to 200 nm and the  $\kappa$  -  $D_p$  power-law fit. As 101 102 shown in Figure S8, at SS = 0.1 and 0.2%, the seasonally mean  $\kappa$  value over  $D_p$  of 100 103 to 200 nm and  $\kappa$  -  $D_p$  power-law fit both predict the  $N_{CCN}$  well at each season, while the mean  $\kappa$  value over  $D_p$  of 100 to 200 nm leads to a significant overestimation of  $N_{CCN}$ 104 within 10% on average at SS = 0.3, 0.5, and 0.7%. Therefore, to predict the  $N_{CCN}$  at a 105 106 relatively low SS of less than 0.2% (e.g., in fog and shallow stratiform cloud), the mean 107  $\kappa$  value over  $D_p$  of 100 to 200 nm also works well.

108

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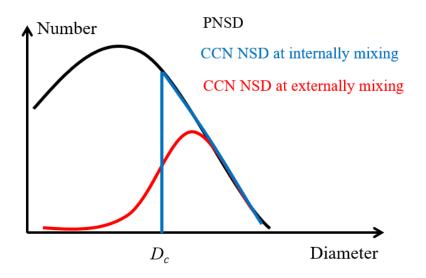
141

142 Figure S1. Coverage of the effective data represented by the gray columns during the

143 long-term experiment at Melpitz. CCNC - cloud condensation nuclei counter, D-

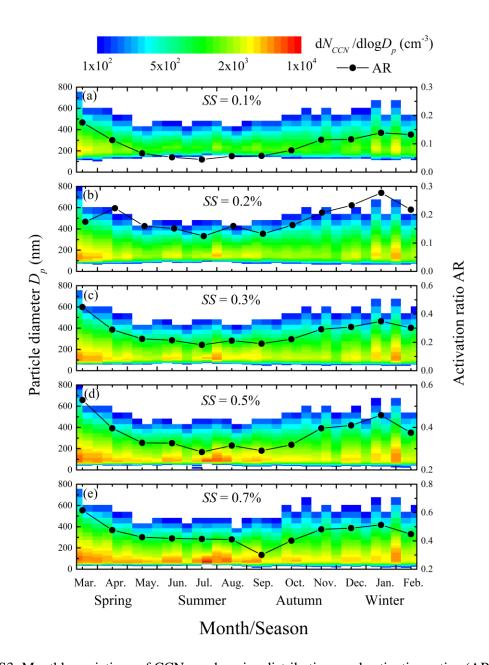
144 MPSS — Dual-mobility particle size spectrometer, ACSM — aerosol chemical species

145 monitor, MAAP — multi-angle absorption photometer.



148 Figure S2. Schematic diagram for the relationship among the particle number size

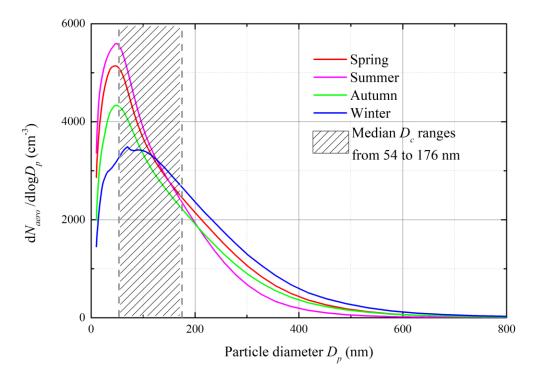
- 149 distribution (PNSD), CCN number size distribution (CCN NSD) at internally mixing,
- 150 and the CCN NSD at externally mixing.



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Figure S3. Monthly variations of CCN number size distributions and activation ratios (AR) at
 five different supersaturation (SS) conditions. The CCN number size distribution was the result

155 of using an average of every ten days. The black dot presents the median AR at each month.



157 Figure S4. Mean particle number size distribution at each season.

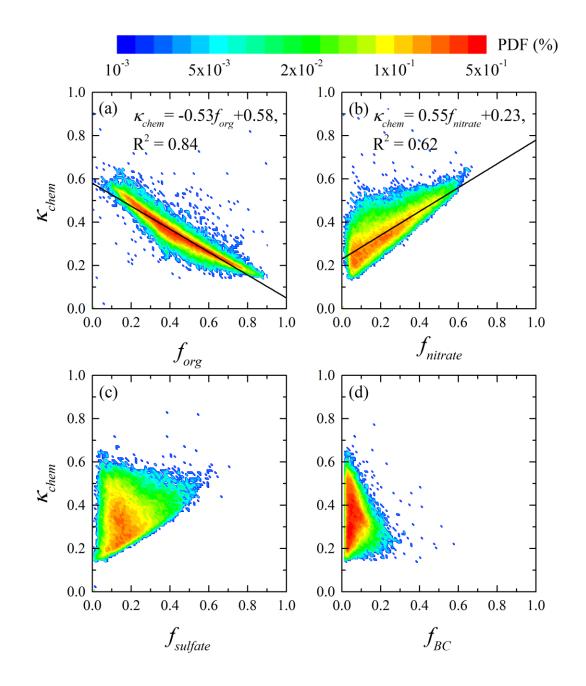




Figure S5. Relationships between (a) aerosol hygroscopicity factor calculated from the chemical composition ( $\kappa_{chem}$ ) and mass fraction of organics ( $f_{org}$ ) in submicron aerosol, (b)  $\kappa_{chem}$  vs. mass fraction of nitrate ( $f_{nitrate}$ ), (c)  $\kappa_{chem}$  vs. mass fraction of nitrate ( $f_{sulfate}$ ), and (d)  $\kappa_{chem}$  vs. mass fraction of black carbon ( $f_{BC}$ ). Color bar represents the probability density function (PDF). Black lines are linear fit lines.

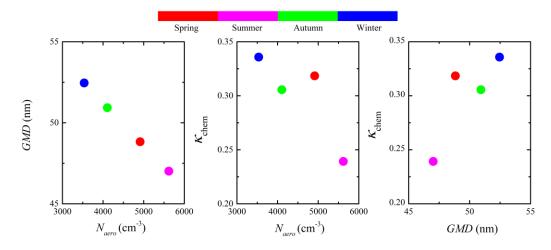
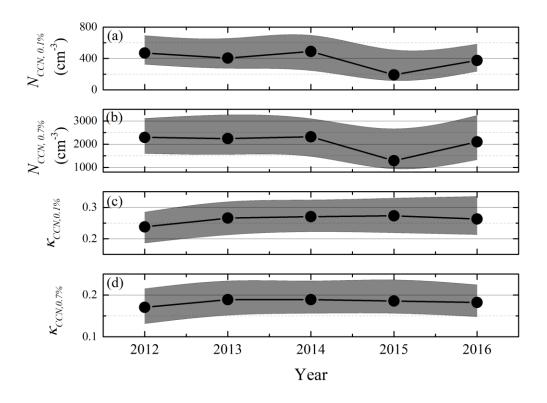


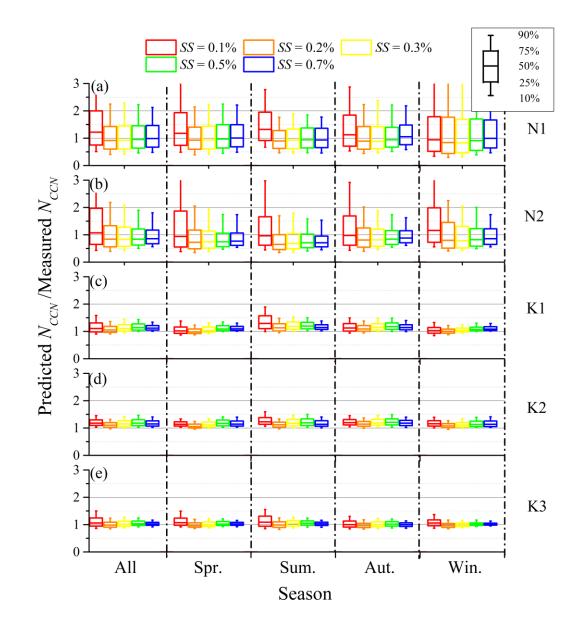


Figure S6. Relationships among seasonal median values of aerosol number concentration with diameter raging 10 to 800 nm ( $N_{aero}$ ), geometric mean diameter of aerosol particles (*GMD*), and particle hygroscopicity parameter calculated from the chemical compositions ( $\kappa_{chem}$ ). The dots represent the median values at each season.



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Figure S7. Yearly variations of (a) CCN number concentration ( $N_{CCN}$ ) at supersaturation (SS) of 0.1% ( $N_{CCN,0.1\%}$ ), (b)  $N_{CCN}$  at SS of 0.7% ( $N_{CCN,0.7\%}$ ), (c) hygroscopicity factor calculated from monodisperse CCN measurements ( $\kappa_{CCN}$ ) at SS of 0.1% ( $\kappa_{CCN,0.1\%}$ ), and (d)  $\kappa_{CCN}$  at SS of 0.7% ( $\kappa_{CCN,0.7\%}$ ). Dots represent the median values. Shaded areas represent the values in the range from 25<sup>th</sup> to 75<sup>th</sup> percent.



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Figure S8. Statistics of the ratio of predicted CCN number concentration ( $N_{CCN}$ ) to the measured one at different supersaturation (*SS*) conditions for each season and all datasets. The (a), (b), (c), (d), and (e) represent the prediction results from the N1, N2, K1, K2, and K3 scheme, respectively. Introduction for the schemes is in Table 3.

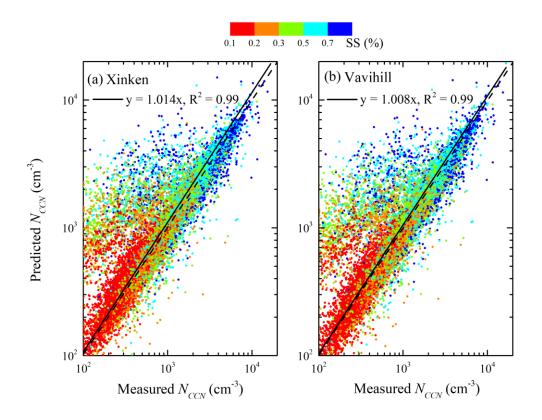
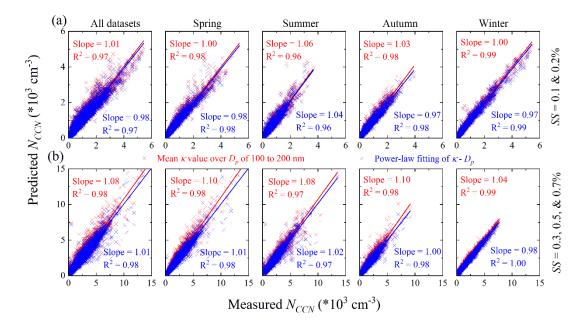


Figure S9. Predicted vs. measured CCN number concentration ( $N_{CCN}$ ) at Melpitz. (a) using the  $\kappa$  -  $D_p$  power-law fitting measured at Xinken station in China (Eichler et al., 2008) to predict the Melpitz  $N_{CCN}$ ; (b) using the  $\kappa$  -  $D_p$  power-law fitting measured at Vavihill station in Sweden (Fors et al., 2011). Dashed line is the 1:1 line and solid line is the linear fitting.



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Figure S10. Predicted vs. measured CCN number concentration ( $N_{CCN}$ ) at different supersaturation (*SS*) conditions for different seasons. (a) results at *SS* = 0.1 and 0.2%; (b) results at *SS* = 0.3, 0.5, and 0.7%. Red cross represents the predicted  $N_{CCN}$  using mean hygroscopicity factor ( $\kappa$ ) over particle diameter ( $D_p$ ) of 100 to 200 nm, while the blue cross represents the predicted  $N_{CCN}$  using power-law fit of  $\kappa$  and  $D_p$ . Red and blue lines are the linear fits.

199 Table S1. Summary of CCN number concentration ( $N_{CCN}$ ) at different supersaturation
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Location (coordinates; a.m.s.l)	Туре	Period	SS (%)	Mean $N_{CCN}$ (cm <sup>-</sup> <sup>3</sup> )	Reference
Melpitz, Germany (51.5°N, 12.9°E; 86 m)	rural, continental	Aug. 2012– Oct. 2016	0.1 0.2 0.3 0.5 0.7	513 1102 1466 2020 2477	Present study
Vavihill, Sweden (56.0°N, 13.2 °E; 172 m)	rural	May 2008–Jul 2010	0.1– 1.0	362–1795	Fors et al., 2011
Southern Great Plains, USA (36.6°N, 97.5°W; 320 m)	rural, agricultural	Sep. 2006– Apr. 2011	0.4	1248	Liu and Li, 2014
Hyytiälä, Finland (61.9°N, 24.3°E; 181 m)	rural	Feb. 2009– Dec. 2012	0.1– 1.0	274–1128	Paramonov et al., 2015
Mahabaleshwar, India (17.9°N, 73.7°E; ~490 m)	rural	Jun. 2015	0.1– 0.94	118–1826	Singla et al., 2017
Guangzhou, China (23.6°N, 113.1°E; ~21 m)	rural	Jul. 2006	0.068– 0.67	995– 10731	Rose et al., 2010
Wuqing, China (39.4°N, 117.0°E; 7.4 m)	9.4°N, 117.0°E; 7.4 suburban		0.056– 0.7	2192– 12963	Deng et al., 2011
Seoul, Korea (37.6°N, 127.0°E; ~38 m)	urban	2004– 2010	0.4– 0.8	4145– 6067	Kim et al., 2014
Mahabubnagar, India (17.7°N, 78.9°E; ~490 m)	polluted continental	Oct. 2011	1.0	~5400	Varghese et al., 2016

200 (SS) conditions measured at different locations (data for Figure 2).

202	Table S2.	Error fu	inction	fits fo	or the	relationships	between	activation	ratio	(AR) vs.
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supersaturation (SS), and CCN number concentration ( $N_{CCN}$ ) vs. SS for different seasons.

204 The equation is y=a+a\*erf(ln(x/b)/c), where a, b, and c are parameters remained to be

- determined. The  $a_{AR}$  and  $a_{NCCN}$  represent the parameter a in AR vs. SS fitting and  $N_{CCN}$
- 206 vs. *SS* fitting, respectively.

Season	$a_{AR}$	$a_{NCCN}$	b	С	$\mathbb{R}^2$
Spring	0.50	2637	0.72	2.33	0.998
Summer	0.51	3162	1.04	2.15	0.997
Autumn	0.56	2443	0.84	2.29	0.999
Winter	0.44	1624	0.29	1.83	0.999
All	0.40	2199	0.59	2.25	0.998