

# 1 **Aerosol processing and CCN formation of an intense Saharan** 2 **dust plume during the EUCAARI 2008 campaign**

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## 14 **Abstract**

15 Atmospheric processing and CCN formation of Saharan dust is illustrated through the  
16 analysis of a case of dust transport over northern Europe. This spread of dust is investigated  
17 by combining satellite, airborne and ground-based observations and the non-hydrostatic  
18 meso-scale model Meso-NH. The altitude of the dust plume during its transport to  
19 northwestern Europe was assessed using the CALIPSO observations and our model results.  
20 *The major dust plume was transported toward Mediterranean and European regions*  
21 *between 2 and 5 km above sea level (asl). This is confirmed by an average particle*  
22 *depolarization ratio equal to 30%. Due to transport, this layer split into two layers over*  
23 *northern Europe, and we analyzed in this paper possible mixing of the European pollution*  
24 *aerosol with dust particles in the lower layer.* The simulations have shown that the lower dust  
25 layer has interacted with the anthropogenic aerosol mainly over Belgium and the Netherlands.  
26 The analyses of *numerical simulation results* show that mineral dust particles accumulated  
27 soluble material through internal mixing over the Netherlands. The value of the  $CCN_{0.2}/CN$   
28 ratio obtained over the Netherlands (~70%) is much greater than those observed over the

1 Saharan region. In addition over the Netherlands, the CCN measurement reached 14 000  
2 particles.cm<sup>-3</sup> at 0.63% supersaturation level on 30 May. Our model results reveal that more  
3 than 70% of the CCN concentration observed on 30 May can be explained by the presence of  
4 Saharan aged dust. The study reveals that heterogeneous reactions with inorganic salts  
5 converted this Saharan mineral dust into compounds that were sufficiently soluble to impact  
6 hygroscopic growth and cloud droplet activation over the Netherlands.

## 7 **1 Introduction**

8 Dust aerosol is considered as one of the most plentiful aerosol species in the atmosphere  
9 (Engelstaedter et al., 2006; Washington et al., 2006; Penner et al., 2001), and is well known  
10 for the role it can play in the climate system by affecting the radiation budget (*Koehler et al.,*  
11 *2010*; Forster et al., 2007; Haywood and Boucher, 2000). It is also known that dust may affect  
12 biogeochemical cycles, acting as a fertilizer for the ocean (Mahowald et al., 2005; Sarthou et  
13 al., 2003; Archer and Johnson, 2000). Dust is involved in heterogeneous, multiphase  
14 atmospheric chemistry, affecting photo-oxidant concentrations and the composition of  
15 precipitation (Laurent et al., 2008; Bauer et al., 2004). Knowledge of the spatial and temporal  
16 distribution of dust aerosol and its properties is therefore crucial to the description of  
17 atmospheric processes and their climatic effects. The complexity of the interaction of dust  
18 with radiation and the biogeochemical cycle are among the most uncertain factors in climate  
19 studies and weather prediction. Although progress has been made in understanding the role of  
20 dust in the climate system, some uncertainties are still present (Foster et al., 2007). For  
21 instance, many uncertainties remain regarding the radiative properties and the atmospheric  
22 budget for dust (Ansmann et al., 2011; Bauer et al., 2010; Zender et al., 2004; Ginoux et al.,  
23 2004). Numerical models that simulate the processes of dust emission, its chemical and  
24 physical transformations and its deposition have improved in recent years to provide a more  
25 accurate description of the properties and processes of atmospheric aerosols (Todd et al.,  
26 2008). Furthermore, previous studies on the dust source locations and their variability have  
27 clearly demonstrated the usefulness of satellite observations in improving models and  
28 decreasing the current uncertainties (Tegen et al., 2013; Schepanski et al., 2007).

29 Dust is mainly produced by the wind erosion acting in arid and semi-arid regions. Half of the  
30 world's atmospheric dust originates from the North African deserts, with emissions ranging  
31 from 160 to 1600 Tg.yr<sup>-1</sup> (Engelstaedter et al., 2006). The Saharan desert with the Sahel  
32 region is widely regarded as earth's largest source of dust (Engelstaedter et al., 2007; Tanaka

1 and Chiba, 2006). *A large part of the North African dust emissions are known to come from*  
2 *the Bodélé depression, which can be activated during cyclonic events (Koehler et al., 2010;*  
3 *Bou Karam et al., 2009; Engelstaedter et al., 2007; Schepanski et al., 2007; Washington et*  
4 *al., 2006; Caquineau et al., 2002; Goudie and Middleton, 2001).* Because Saharan dust can  
5 be transported over long distances in the atmosphere, it can affect natural and human  
6 environments far away from its sources. The bulk of Saharan dust is transported westward  
7 into the Atlantic Ocean, where it can impact the ecosystems of the American coast (Goudie,  
8 2014; Prospero et al., 2002) and may alter the biogeochemical cycle in the Amazon Basin and  
9 Atlantic Ocean (Jickells et al., 2005; Swap et al., 1992). Europe and the Mediterranean basin  
10 can be affected by dust episodes originating in the Saharan region (Pappalardo et al., 2010;  
11 Papayannis et al., 2008; Mona et al., 2006; Collaud Coen et al., 2004). Furthermore, in  
12 extreme cases, Saharan dust can be transported to northern Europe, reaching the shores of the  
13 Baltic Sea (Bègue et al., 2012; Ansmann et al., 2003).

14 The significant role of dust in providing ice nuclei (IN) has been rather well identified (Chou  
15 et al., 2011; Stith et al., 2009; DeMott et al., 2003; Sassen et al., 2003). A few studies have  
16 recently reported the ability of dust to act as cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) (Kumar et al.,  
17 2011; Koehler et al., 2010, 2009; Sullivan et al., 2009; Kelly et al., 2007; Perry et al., 2004).  
18 When dust is emitted, it is often composed of insoluble or only slightly soluble components.  
19 During their transport, the dust particles can accumulate soluble material through internal  
20 mixing, which drastically reduces the saturation required for activation (Dusek et al., 2006).  
21 The dust particles provide reaction sites for heterogeneous chemical reactions with  
22 atmospheric trace gases and pollutants that result in modified dust properties, such as  
23 enhanced hygroscopicity (Hatch et al., 2008; Levin et al., 1996). *Through the analysis of*  
24 *measurements realized in laboratory, Gibson et al. (2007) shown that the coating of dust*  
25 *enhance significantly their ability to act as CCN. From airborne measurements over*  
26 *Amazon Basin, Roberts et al. (2002) made a detailed sensitivity analysis of CCN spectra on*  
27 *chemical and physical properties of aerosol. They have shown that a change of 20% in the*  
28 *amount of soluble material can impact significantly the hygroscopic properties of aerosols*  
29 *that initially contain less soluble material, such as dust. Through the analysis of sample*  
30 *collected during brown haze and dust episode from 24 May to 21 June 2007 in Beijing, Li*  
31 *et al., (2009) have shown that dust particles that acquire hygroscopic nitrate coating tend to*  
32 *be more spherical and larger, enhancing their light scattering and CCN activity. Soluble*  
33 *coatings on dust can be observed in the atmosphere during the event of long-range*

1 *transport of the plume.* Several studies of Asian dust have shown that its atmospheric  
2 processing may have a considerable impact on the activation of Asian dust transported over a  
3 long range (Stone et al., 2011; Sullivan et al., 2007; Roberts et al., 2006; Perry et al., 2004;  
4 Chen et al., 1997). As far as African dust is concerned, significant sulfate coating on  
5 transported Saharan dust and an enhancement of the hygroscopic properties of this dust by the  
6 coating has been shown over the Mediterranean basin (Levin et al., 2001; Wurzler et al.,  
7 2000; Falkovich et al., 2001). Twohy et al. (2009) have shown that Saharan dust commonly  
8 acts as CCN over the eastern North Atlantic. To date, only a few studies on the ability of  
9 Saharan dust to act as CCN during its transport over Northern Europe have been reported.  
10 Based on this observation, we present a study of the atmospheric processing of Saharan dust  
11 through the analysis of a case of dust transport over northern Europe.

12 Long-range transport of Saharan dust to northern parts of Europe was observed during the  
13 European Integrated Project on Aerosol-Cloud-Climate and Air Quality Interactions  
14 (EUCAARI) (Kulmala et al., 2009). From 25 to 31 May 2008, an intense Saharan dust plume  
15 was transported over Europe and reached the shores of the Baltic Sea. The synoptic analysis  
16 reported by Hamburger et al. (2011) revealed that the dust event took place in a  
17 meteorological situation characterized by strong convective activity and heavy precipitation  
18 associated with the advection of a frontal system over central Europe. This dust event  
19 provided the framework for Pappalardo et al. (2010) to show their first results in terms of  
20 comparison between lidar measurements obtained from Cloud-Aerosol Lidar and Infrared  
21 Pathfinder Satellite Observation (CALIPSO) and the European Aerosol Research Lidar  
22 NETWORK (EARLINET). Klein et al. (2010) have shown that the Saharan dust transported  
23 during this episode contributed significantly to the abundance and composition of *ice nuclei*  
24 in central Europe. More recently, Bangert et al. (2012) analyzed the impact of the Saharan  
25 dust transported on the radiation and cloud formation over western Europe during this dust  
26 event of May 2008. Through the use of the regional scale model COSMO-ART, they revealed  
27 that, on the one hand, the direct interaction of dust with radiation caused an additional  
28 reduction of 40 to 80  $\text{W}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$  in the incoming short wave radiation, whereas the incoming long  
29 wave radiation at the surface increased significantly, by about + 10  $\text{W}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$ . On the other hand,  
30 they showed that the number concentration of ice crystals was determined by Saharan dust,  
31 due to efficient heterogeneous freezing of the dust. The impacts of the interaction between the  
32 Saharan dust plume and convective activity on dust optical properties have also been reported  
33 recently by Bègue et al. (2012). Using the meso-scale model Meso-NH, they demonstrated a

1 high precipitation scavenging efficiency for the dust coarse mode, which modified the dust  
2 optical characteristics in the measurements recorded over the Netherlands.

3 The present paper extends the results of the first study of dust plume properties over the  
4 Netherlands, carried out by Bègue et al. (2012). The measurements obtained during the  
5 EUCAARI campaign reveal a large increase in the number concentration of CCN, coinciding  
6 with the transport of Saharan dust over the Netherlands on 30 May 2008. Thus, questions  
7 arise about a possible enhancement of the hygroscopicity of the Saharan dust plume by  
8 accumulation of soluble material during its transport over the Netherlands. This hypothesis is  
9 explored through a methodology combining observations and numerical tools. In this paper,  
10 first, the presence of a zone where mixing occurs between the dust plume and European  
11 anthropogenic aerosols is examined through an analysis of air mass transport from the  
12 emission of the dust aerosols to their arrival over the Netherlands. A second step examines  
13 and discusses the influence of the aging of Saharan dust by coating on its hygroscopic  
14 properties. We focus particularly on the influence of the chemical composition on the  
15 activation of Saharan dust transported over a long range.

16 The paper is organized as follows: Section 2 describes the observations and the model used to  
17 investigate the evolution of the dust hygroscopicity; Section 3 presents the interaction  
18 between the Saharan dust plume and European anthropogenic aerosols; Section 4 gives a  
19 qualitative and quantitative evaluation of the enhancement of the hygroscopic properties by  
20 coating with soluble material. A summary and some conclusions are given in Section 5.

## 21 **2 Observations and Model Description**

### 22 **2.1 Observations**

23 The observations were acquired during an intensive campaign combining airborne, in-situ and  
24 remote sensing measurements named EUCAARI-IMPACT (where IMPACT stands for  
25 Intensive Observation Period at Cabauw Tower), which took place in May 2008. During this  
26 campaign, airborne measurements were made using the French ATR-42 aircraft. The  
27 calibration of the devices onboard the ATR-42 aircraft during the EUCAARI-IMPACT  
28 campaign and the evaluation of their performance are discussed in detail by Crumeyrolle et al  
29 (2013) and are only briefly described here. The aerosol instrumentation sampled the particles  
30 via the ATR-42 community aerosol inlet (CAI) (Crumeyrolle et al., 2013). The CAI was  
31 designed for the ATR to allow isokinetic and isoaxial sampling relative to the incoming air

1 stream. This inlet has a 50% sampling efficiency for particles with diameters around 5  $\mu\text{m}$   
2 (Crumeyrole et al., 2008, 2010, 2013; McNaughton et al., 2007). The total ambient aerosol  
3 concentrations were measured by a Condensation Particle Counter (CPC, TSI model 3010)  
4 aboard the ATR-42 aircraft every 1 s. The 50% detection efficiency of the TSI 3010 CPC  
5 applies to particles of diameter larger than 10 nm and its relative uncertainty is about 5%  
6 (Mertes et al., 1995). The Cloud Condensation Nuclei Counter (CCNC, DMT model no.  
7 CCN-100) onboard the ATR-42 aircraft was a continuous-flow streamwise thermal gradient  
8 CCN counter (Crumeyrole et al., 2013). The design and operating principles of the  
9 instrument are based on the work of Roberts and Nenes (2005). The supersaturation was set at  
10 0.2-0.4% during all the research flights. The chemical composition and mass concentration of  
11 the aerosol were analyzed through the use of a Time-of-Flight Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (C-  
12 ToF-AMS, Middelbrook et al., 2012; Canagaratna et al., 2007) aboard the ATR-42 aircraft.  
13 The AMS provided information on the mass concentration of particulate organic matter  
14 (POM), nitrate, ammonium and sulfate. It should also be noted that the upper 50% cut-off-  
15 diameter of the onboard AMS is about 500 nm (Crumeyrole et al., 2013). As reported by  
16 Ansmann et al., 2011, airborne multiwavelength backscatter lidar has proved to be a powerful  
17 technique for detecting dust plumes and their properties. In order to analyze the optical  
18 properties of the dust plume, the LEANDRE New Generation (LNG) *lidar* was used in its  
19 backscatter version. The LNG airborne backscatter lidar is currently used for aerosol  
20 characterization (de Villiers et al., 2010; Pelon et al., 2002, Schepanski et al., 2013). During  
21 the EUCAARI-IMPACT campaign, *the system was operated in backscatter mode with three*  
22 *elastic channels at 1064 nm, 532 nm and 355 nm, and depolarization ratio at 355 nm.*  
23 Energies of 10 and 50 mJ were emitted at the upper two wavelengths, respectively, at 20 Hz  
24 repetition rate with a full angle divergence of the laser of 4 mrd at 532 nm and 6.5 mrd at  
25 1064 nm. The profiles of atmospheric extinction coefficient at 532 nm were retrieved using a  
26 standard lidar inversion technique (Cuesta et al., 2008; Klett et al., 1985; *Fernald et al.,*  
27 *1984*), *after normalization to molecular scattering (see Villiers et al. (2010) for more*  
28 *information).*

29 During the EUCAARI-IMPACT campaign, *the instruments of the Cabauw Experimental*  
30 *Site for Atmospheric Research (CESAR, 51.97°N, 4.93°E) were deployed.* This site was  
31 selected as a supersite to quantify the regional aerosol properties, including aerosol formation,  
32 transformation, transport and deposition (Kulmala et al., 2009). We used data recorded from  
33 the DMT-CCNC (model no CCN-100, Roberts and Nenes 2005) which operated continuously

1 during this intensive observational period with a supersaturation in the range of 0.1 to 0.7 %.  
2 We also used the observations from the C-ToF-AMS and the multi angle absorption  
3 photometer (MAAP 5012, Petzold and Schönlinner, 2004) in order to describe the chemical  
4 composition and mass concentration of the aerosol over Cabauw. In order to evaluate the  
5 temporal and spatial evolution of the pollution aerosol over Europe, the BC mass  
6 concentration recorded by other European ground sites with a MAAP 5012 were also used.  
7 The ground sites selected were the European Supersites for Atmospheric Aerosol Research  
8 (EUSAAR) sites at Monte Cimone (44.11°N, 10.42°E), Puy-de-Dôme (45.46°N, 2.57°E) and  
9 Hohenpeissenberg (47.80°N, 11.01°E).

10 The Cloud-Aerosol Lidar and Infrared Pathfinder Satellite Observation (CALIPSO) products  
11 were used to analyze the dust outbreak. The Cloud-Aerosol Lidar with Orthogonal  
12 Polarization (CALIOP) is a two-wavelength polarization-sensitive lidar on board the  
13 CALIPSO satellite mission. An overview of the CALIPSO mission is given by Winker et al.  
14 (2010). The CALIPSO products used in this work were selected at level 1 because the level 2  
15 products were unavailable for data acquired prior to 14 September 2008. The main level 1  
16 CALIPSO products are the total attenuated backscatter profiles with a vertical and horizontal  
17 resolution of 30 m and 1 m respectively below 8.2 km (Winker et al., 2009). The technical  
18 details of these data sets are described in the CALIOP Algorithm Theoretical Basis Document  
19 (<http://eosweb.larc.nasa.gov>).

## 20 **2.2 Back trajectory model : LACYTRAJ**

21 LACYTRAJ is a kinematic back trajectory code using the ECMWF wind field developed at  
22 the Laboratoire de l'Atmosphere et des Cyclones (LACy, France) (Baray et al., 2012; Clain et  
23 al., 2010; Duflot et al., 2010). This code was used to determine the sources of the air masses  
24 arriving above Cabauw. Each air parcel was advected using a bilinear interpolation for  
25 horizontal wind fields and time, and a log-linear interpolation for vertical wind field. This  
26 operation is performed with a time step defined by the user: 10 min in this work, over a six-  
27 day period. The sensitivity and comparative study carried out by Clain et al (2010) with  
28 LACYTRAJ and other models such as FLEXPART highlights the capability of LACYTRAJ  
29 for back trajectory analysis. Details on this code can be found in Clain et al (2010).

## 1 **2.3 Meso-NH Model**

2 The simulations in this study were performed with the meso-scale, non-hydrostatic  
3 atmospheric model Meso-NH. This model was developed jointly by the Centre National de la  
4 Recherche Meteorologique (CNRM, France) and the Laboratoire d'Aerologie (LA, CNRS)  
5 (Lafore et al., 1998). Meso-NH allows simulations from small scale (LES type) to synoptic  
6 scale (horizontal resolution ranging from a few meters to several tens of kilometers).  
7 Furthermore, the two-way interactive grid-nesting method allows the model to be run  
8 simultaneously on several domains with the same vertical levels but with different horizontal  
9 resolution. Meso-NH contains various sets of parameterizations such as cloud microphysics  
10 (Cohard et al., 2000; Cohard and Pinty, 2000), turbulence (Bougeault and Lacarrere, 1989),  
11 lightning processes (Barthe et al., 2005), gas-phase chemistry (Tulet et al., 2003; Suhre et al.,  
12 1998), aerosol chemistry (Tulet et al., 2005, 2006) and dust aerosol (Tulet et al. 2010; Grini et  
13 al., 2006). Natural land surfaces are described by interactions treated in the Interactions Soil-  
14 Biosphere-Atmosphere model (ISBA) (Noihlan and Mahfouf, 1996).

### 15 **2.3.1 Aerosol Parameterization**

16 In addition to solving the prognostic meteorological variables, Meso-NH computes the  
17 gaseous chemistry evolution and solves the aerosol equilibrium at each grid point and at each  
18 time step (Tulet et al., 2003). This study uses the Reduced Lumped Atmospheric Chemical  
19 Scheme 2 (RELACS2) chemical reaction scheme, which includes 82 species (Tulet et al.,  
20 2006). RELACS2 is based on the Caltech Atmospheric Chemistry Mechanism (CACM)  
21 scheme developed by Griffin et al., (2002). It is coupled with the aerosol scheme ORILAM  
22 (Organic Inorganic Log-normal Aerosol Model) (Tulet et al., 2005, 2006) online. The ability  
23 of ORILAM to simulate aerosol processes, such as nucleation, coagulation, condensation,  
24 sedimentation and dry deposition, has been highlighted in several recent studies (Schepanski  
25 et al., 2013; Bègue et al., 2012; Aouizerats et al., 2012, 2011; Chaboureau et al., 2011). A  
26 detailed description of ORILAM is given by Tulet et al. (2005), and is briefly presented here.  
27 ORILAM uses a three lognormal parameterization. Thus, ORILAM assumes that the aerosol  
28 size distribution consists of lognormal modes that can be described by the 0<sup>th</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup>  
29 moment of the distribution (Tulet et al., 2005, 2006). For diagnostic purposes, the moments  
30 can be transformed into number concentration, number median diameter and geometric  
31 standard deviation. In this study, the 6<sup>th</sup> moment was kept constant, which implies that the  
32 dispersion of each aerosol mode was kept constant during the simulation. ORILAM takes a



1 range of aerosol species considered as internally mixed, such as Black Carbon (BC), Primary  
2 Organic aerosol (OC), nitrate, sulfate, ammonium and ten classes of Secondary Organic  
3 Aerosols (SOA<sub>1</sub>,.....,SOA<sub>10</sub>) defined by Griffin et al. (2002). Moreover, ORILAM also  
4 considers the dust and sea salt aerosol as externally mixed. However, in the framework of this  
5 study, the dust was introduced into the other aerosol species as internally mixed. The dust  
6 fluxes were calculated from wind friction speed using the Dust Entrainment And Deposition  
7 (DEAD) model (Zender et al., 2003), which is implemented as a component of Meso-NH  
8 (Moktari et al., 2011; Grini et al., 2006). The physical basis of the model is taken from  
9 Marticorena and Bergametti (1995), in which dust fluxes are calculated as a function of  
10 saltation and sandblasting processes. The initial dust size distribution contains three log-  
11 normal modes with median radii of 0.039, 0.32 and 2.5  $\mu\text{m}$  and standard deviation of 1.75,  
12 1.76 and 1.70 respectively. ORILAM drives both the dynamical processes and the  
13 thermodynamical equilibrium between gases and particles along the Model to Predict the  
14 Multiphase Partitioning for Organics (MPMPO) scheme for organic species (Griffin et al.,  
15 2005) and the EQUilibrium Simplified Aerosol Module (EQSAM, Metzger et al., 2002) for  
16 inorganic species in order to solve the condensation and nucleation processes. The aerosol  
17 radiative properties (extinction coefficient, asymmetry factor and single scattering albedo) are  
18 computed within ORILAM. They are then processed as inputs by the ECMWF radiation  
19 scheme implemented and coupled online with Meso-NH and AROME (Aouizerats et al.,  
20 2010; Tulet et al., 2008).

21 Aerosol-Cloud interaction including impact-scavenging is determined according to a kinetic  
22 approach to calculate the aerosol mass transfer in cloud and rain droplets as defined by Tost et  
23 al. (2006). The scavenging by raindrops depends mainly on Brownian motion, interception  
24 and inertial impaction as described by Slinn (1979). The collection efficiency obtained from  
25 the scavenging schemes used in this study is calculated by taking these three types of  
26 collection into account. For the present study, we used an explicit and an implicit scavenging  
27 scheme (Bègue et al., 2012; Tulet et al., 2010). The implicit aerosol scavenging is  
28 parameterized following the mass flux calculated from the deep and shallow convection  
29 parameterization (Bechtold et al., 2001) based upon the Kain and Fritsch (1993) mass flux  
30 scheme. Deep and shallow convective drafts exchange mass horizontally with their  
31 environment through detrainment of cloudy air and entrainment of cloud-free air. Subgrid-  
32 scale entrainment and detrainment fluxes are diagnosed in terms of grid-scale thermodynamic  
33 and dynamic variables (Bechtold et al., 2000). The ICE3 microphysics scheme (Pinty and

1 Jabouille, 1998) is used to resolve the wet deposition parameterization for the explicit scheme  
2 (Tulet et al., 2010).

### 3 **2.3.2 CCN activation scheme**

4 The supersaturation and the number of activated CCN were estimated from the aerosol  
5 chemical composition and size distribution computed by ORILAM. The CCN activation  
6 scheme used in this study is based on the parameterization proposed by Abdul-Razzak and  
7 Ghan (2000, 2004), which has been widely included in many models as reported by Ghan et  
8 al. (2011). The ability of this scheme to diagnose the number of activated CCN has been  
9 highlighted in several recent studies (Ghan et al., 2013; Bangert et al., 2011; Song and Zhang  
10 et al., 2011). The physical basis of the CCN activation scheme is derived from Köhler's  
11 theory (1936), in which water vapor condenses on inorganic salt particles to form water  
12 droplets. The Köhler theory is used to relate the aerosol size distribution and chemical  
13 composition to the number of activated CCN as a function of supersaturation (Abdul-Razzak  
14 et al., 2000). The maximum supersaturation is calculated from the aerosol properties and the  
15 updraft velocity. The scheme thus takes the effect of aerosol composition (Raoult term) and  
16 the surface tension effect (Kelvin term) on hygroscopicity into account. The Raoult term was  
17 parameterized by assuming additive behavior of the inorganic salt and the organic surfactant  
18 when these aerosol species were internally mixed (Abdul-Razzak and Ghan, 2000; Shulman  
19 et al., 1996). Following Abdul-Razzak and Ghan (2004), the Kelvin term was parameterized  
20 from Szyskowski's empirical equation (Szyskowski, 1908).

### 21 **2.3.3 Simulation Configuration**

22 The simulation started at 00 UTC on 25 May 2008 and ended at 00 UTC on 1 June 2008. The  
23 study domain, covering the EUCAARI campaign area and a large part of the northern Africa,  
24 extended between latitudes 15.1°N and 68.7°N and longitudes 14.9°W and 23.1°E, with a grid  
25 spacing of 25 km. This domain allowed a large scale view of the dust plume towards  
26 northwestern Europe. The vertical grid spacing consisted of 60 stretched vertical levels  
27 reaching an altitude of 30 km. Initialization and boundary conditions for the large domain  
28 were provided by the global chemical transport model MOCAGE (Dufour et al., 2004) for the  
29 chemical gaseous part and the ECMWF operational analysis for atmospheric dynamics. The  
30 simulations performed included the implicit and explicit aerosol scavenging schemes. "Off-  
31 line" sensitivity analyses of CCN activation were performed for different supersaturations in

1 order to assess the contribution of the aged dust to the CCN concentration measured over  
2 Cabauw.

3 In order to obtain a correct representation of the gas-phase chemistry and the aerosol particle  
4 concentration, an emission inventory of gases and particles was used. The emission inventory  
5 was developed by the Netherlands Organization for Applied Scientific Research (TNO) from  
6 measurements made during the MEGAPOLI (Megacities: Emission, urban, regional and  
7 Global Atmospheric POLLution and climate effect and Integrated tools for assessment and  
8 mitigation) campaign (Baklanov et al., 2008). This emission inventory includes an hourly-  
9 based description for the species: BC, OC, CO, SO<sub>2</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub> and Volatile Organic  
10 Compounds (VOC), emitted during the study period. The emissions are located in a domain  
11 extending between latitudes 34.2°N and 54.9°N and longitudes 9.9°W and 19.9°E. The  
12 biogenic emissions were initialized from the MEGAN (Model of Emission of Gases and  
13 Aerosols from Nature) inventory with a resolution of 0.5°.

### 14 **3 Interaction of an intense dust plume with pollution aerosol during its** 15 **transport over northwestern Europe**

#### 16 **3.1 Transport of intense plume over northwestern Europe**

17 *The back trajectory calculated with LACYTRAJ for the period of 25-30 May highlights the*  
18 *presence of an air mass over Cabauw on 30 May which appears to come from Northern*  
19 *Sahara, on 25 and 26 May (Figure 1). Source regions at latitudes close to 22°N (1°W) and*  
20 *33N (6°E) could be respectively identified from CALIPSO observations (not shown). This is*  
21 *in agreement with Crumeyrolle et al. (2013), who used FLEXPART to show the presence of*  
22 *an air mass in the Boundary Layer (BL) and the lower free troposphere (LFT) at Cabauw,*  
23 *which originated in northern Africa. The back trajectory analysis also revealed that the*  
24 *Saharan air mass left Africa at the end of 26 May and reached Europe two days later. On 30*  
25 *May, the Saharan air mass continued its spread to Cabauw via eastern France and Switzerland*  
26 *(Figure 1). It should also be noted that the chronology obtained from the back trajectory*  
27 *analysis is consistent with that reported by Bègue et al. (2012) from satellite observations.*

28 An overview of the dust event at 0100 UTC on 28 May and 0200 UTC on 29 May 2008 is  
29 given in Figure 1a and 1b through the dust burden and wind fields simulated by Meso-NH.  
30 The transport of the dust plume over northwestern Europe took place in a meteorological  
31 situation disturbed by strong convective activity associated with the passage of a frontal

1 system over Europe (Hamburger et al., 2011). The wind flow at 700 hPa revealed a strong  
2 flow from Northern Africa moving northeast towards the Mediterranean Sea (Figure 1a and  
3 1b). Over the Mediterranean basin, the Saharan air mass was embedded in a flow moving  
4 towards the northwest and transported toward the shores of the Baltic Sea (Figure 1a and 1b).  
5 According to Bègue et al (2012), this flow was produced by a trough extending along the  
6 European and African coast and an area of high-pressure located over central Europe. The  
7 transport of the dust plume over northwestern Europe was modulated by the strength and  
8 position of the high pressure associated with the frontal system.

9 On 28 May 2008 at 0100 UTC, the model results show a belt of high dust burden extending in  
10 a large area from central Algeria to Switzerland passing through northwestern Italy (Figure  
11 1a). **According to the model**, inside this area, the values exceed  $8 \text{ g.m}^{-2}$ , especially over  
12 northwestern Libya and Sardinia where values of 10 and  $9.5 \text{ g.m}^{-2}$ , respectively, are  
13 simulated. On 29 May, the belt of high dust burden has disappeared (Figure 1b). The  
14 simulated dust burden has decreased by more than half in the Italian and Mediterranean  
15 regions (values do not exceed  $4 \text{ g.m}^{-2}$ ). This considerable decrease is the consequence of the  
16 interaction between the dust plume and the convective activity. Bègue et al. (2012) have  
17 shown that precipitations scavenged the majority of dust over the Mediterranean and  
18 European regions. In particular, this interaction led to high precipitation scavenging efficiency  
19 for the dust coarse mode. In contrast, the dust burden increased over Scandinavia, with the  
20 maximum value (around  $7 \text{ g.m}^{-2}$ ) simulated over Norway (Figure 1b). Overall, there is fairly  
21 good agreement between the simulations presented here and those reported in the literature  
22 (**Bangert et al., 2012**; Pappalardo et al., 2010).

23 From the CALIOP observations (Figure 2a), the vertical structure of aerosols can be assessed  
24 over a long range, here from Northern Africa to central Europe at 0100 UTC on 28 May (see  
25 the CALIPSO track in Figure 1a). As checked using the feature mask of CALIPSO products  
26 (not shown), observed total attenuated backscatter (ATB) signals ranging from  $1 \cdot 10^{-3}$  to  $5 \cdot 10^{-3}$   
27  $\text{km}^{-1} \text{ sr}^{-1}$  (corresponding to scattering ratio up to 3) were due to the Saharan plume. **This is**  
28 **confirmed by an average particle depolarization ratio equal to 30% (Fig. 4). On the 28 May,**  
29 over the sources in the region ( $24.6^\circ\text{N}$ ;  $7.7^\circ\text{E}$ - $36.5^\circ\text{N}$ ;  $10.9^\circ\text{E}$ ), the dust plume stretched from  
30 the surface to 6 km asl (Figure 2a). The major dust plume was transported towards the  
31 Mediterranean and European regions between 2 and 5 km asl. **This also confirm by an**  
32 **average particle depolarization ratio equal to 30% (Fig. 4). It is seen in CALIPSO lidar**

1 *observations that the particulate depolarization ratio is about 20-25 % from 46°N to 48 °N*  
2 *and altitudes between 2 and 5 km (Fig. 4). This confirms the possibility of mixing between*  
3 *the dust plume and anthropogenic aerosol over Europe. Due to the reconstructed trajectory,*  
4 *it can be assumed that the dust plume interacted with the foothills of the African during its*  
5 *transport. The elevation of the dust plume height when it came out of the African continent*  
6 *was very likely due to the interaction between the plume and the foothills of northern part*  
7 *of the Hoggar and the synoptical atmospheric forcing resulting in the north-easterly flow*  
8 (Figure 2a). The Meso-NH simulation reproduced the features of the vertical structure and the  
9 observed ATB signals fairly well (Figure 2b). *However, the simulated plume over the*  
10 *Mediterranean and European regions was thinner (between 2 and 4 km, see Fig 2b) than*  
11 *the observed plume.* As already discussed, Bègue et al. (2012) showed the interaction  
12 between the dust plume and the convective activity over Europe, particularly on 29 May,  
13 when the convective activity was the most intense. From CALIOP observations (Figure 3a),  
14 the vertical structure of clouds and aerosols can be assessed over a long range, here from the  
15 Mediterranean to northern Europe at 0200 UTC on 29 May (see the CALIPSO track in Figure  
16 1b). The observed ATB signals larger than  $10^{-2} \text{ km}^{-1} \text{ sr}^{-1}$  were due to clouds. *The high clouds*  
17 *were particularly observed over northern France (48.2°N; 4.0°E) but also over Massif*  
18 *Central (45°N, 2°E). Attenuation below the dense high clouds prevented to observe most of*  
19 *the structures below. Midlevel clouds were observed from Belgium to Scandinavia (Figure*  
20 *3a). The simultaneous presence of clouds and dust were particularly observed over the*  
21 *Netherlands and Scandinavia. The interactions between dust and clouds appears to take*  
22 *place between 2 and 5 km asl (Figure 3a). It can be noted that the presence of dust on 29*  
23 *May at latitudes higher than 50°N and altitudes below 4 km is confirmed by the particulate*  
24 *depolarization ratio equal to 30% (Fig. 4).*

25 The features of the vertical structure of the dust plume were acceptably reproduced by Meso-  
26 NH whereas the vertical structures of clouds were insufficiently reproduced (Figure 3b). The  
27 main reason for this discrepancy can be attributed to the fact that a subgrid resolution of 25  
28 km is not sufficient to reproduce the convective activity properly. Overall, Meso-NH  
29 reproduced the dust transport toward northwestern Europe acceptably well.

### 30 **3.2 Temporal and spatial evolution of the anthropogenic aerosol**

31 The BC mass concentration and the wind field at the surface simulated by Meso-NH on 28  
32 and 29 May are depicted on Figure 4a and Figure 4b respectively. On 28 May, the high BC

1 mass concentrations are mainly located in northern and central Europe (Figure. 5a). Model  
2 results show a large area of high BC mass concentration extending from the English Channel  
3 to Norway passing along the shore of the Netherlands and Denmark. Within this area, the  
4 values exceed  $1.9 \mu\text{g.m}^{-3}$ , particularly over the English Channel and the coast of the  
5 Netherlands, where values of  $2.5$  and  $2.2 \mu\text{g.m}^{-3}$  are simulated respectively. A second belt of  
6 high BC mass concentration ( $1.9$  to  $2.2 \mu\text{g.m}^{-3}$ ) simulated on 28 May extends in a large area  
7 from southeastern France to the Netherlands (Figure 5a). On 29 May, the second belt of high  
8 BC mass concentration located over Central Europe has disappeared and, in the Northern  
9 region, the simulated BC mass concentration has decreased by more than half (value not  
10 exceeding  $1.1 \mu\text{g.m}^{-3}$ ) (Figure. 5b).

11 The simulated sulfate concentrations and the wind field at the surface on 28 May and 29 May  
12 are shown in Figure 5c and Figure 5d respectively. On 28 May, areas with high sulfate  
13 concentrations are located over northern Europe and Corsica. Over northern Europe, a wide  
14 area of high sulfate concentrations (maximum value of  $6.2 \mu\text{g.m}^{-3}$ ) extending from Norway to  
15 the Netherlands is simulated (Figure. 5c). On 29 May, the high sulfate concentration areas are  
16 mainly situated over northern and central Europe (Figure 5d) with a local maximum over the  
17 English Channel where the maximum concentration of sulfate ( $6.5 \mu\text{g.m}^{-3}$ ) is simulated.  
18 Overall, the simulation results show that the concentrations of anthropogenic aerosol are  
19 particularly high over northern Europe. This analysis of the spatial distribution of the  
20 anthropogenic aerosol is in agreement with the work of Hamburger et al. (2011), who have  
21 shown that the synoptic situation during May 2008 led to an accumulation of aerosol inside  
22 the Planetary Boundary Layer (PBL), and particularly over northern Europe. Furthermore,  
23 they found that the maximum aerosol concentration was observed within the PBL above  
24 Cabauw.

25 The observed BC mass concentration is compared with the concentrations simulated by  
26 Meso-NH in Figure 6. The Mont Cimone station is located in the northwestern corner of Italy,  
27 which is the site with the lowest BC mass concentration among the stations selected. The  
28 observed BC mass concentration ranged from  $0.2$  to  $0.9 \mu\text{g.m}^{-3}$  with a maximum value  
29 occurring on 25 May. After 25 May, BC concentrations quickly decreased to under  $0.5 \mu\text{g.m}^{-3}$   
30 until 31 May (Figure 6a). This temporal evolution appears to be correctly simulated. The BC  
31 mass concentration observed over Puy-de-Dôme ranged from  $0.3$  to  $1.2 \mu\text{g.m}^{-3}$  (Figure 6b).  
32 We note that the BC mass concentration evolution over Puy-de-Dôme follows a daily cycle

1 with a maximum observed at midday and a minimum observed during the night. Over the  
2 Hohenpeissenberg station, the observed BC mass concentration ranged from 0.3 to 1.8  $\mu\text{g.m}^{-3}$   
3 with the maximum occurring on 25 May (Figure 6c). The BC mass concentration increased to  
4 1.8  $\mu\text{g.m}^{-3}$  on 25 May and slowly decreased afterwards to 0.9  $\mu\text{g.m}^{-3}$  until 31 May, which is in  
5 agreement with the simulation results. However, we note the presence of a time shift of 2 days  
6 between the maximum value observed (25 May) and simulated (27 May). It can be noted for  
7 the three stations mentioned above that the BC mass concentration tends to decrease during  
8 the study period. The Cabauw station, which is located in a rural area in the central part of the  
9 Netherlands, is the site with the highest BC mass concentration in comparison with the three  
10 others. In contrast to what happens at the other stations, the BC mass concentration observed  
11 here tends to increase during the study period with values ranging from 0.5 to 2.5  $\mu\text{g.m}^{-3}$   
12 (Figure 6d). In spite of an underestimation (0.3  $\mu\text{g.m}^{-3}$  on average), the temporal evolution of  
13 the BC mass concentration over Cabauw is fairly well reproduced by Meso-NH.

14 The discrepancies between Meso-NH and the observations may be attributable to several  
15 sources. First, a possible source of error can come from the fact that Meso-NH is an  
16 atmospheric forecasting model and drives the evolution of its meteorological fields itself. As  
17 such, it makes its own forecast and, as for all atmospheric models, a drift can appear in the  
18 forecast and increase as the simulation advances away from the initial conditions. Another  
19 possible explanation for the differences can come from the fact that the aerosol concentrations  
20 are calculated for grid cells with 25 km horizontal resolution. However, the overall temporal  
21 evolution of BC mass concentrations simulated by Meso-NH is in acceptable agreement with  
22 the observations. Moreover, both the observations and the simulations show that the highest  
23 anthropogenic aerosol concentrations are mainly located over northern Europe.

### 24 **3.3 Mixing of the dust plume with the European pollution aerosol**

25 In order to highlight a possible interaction between the dust plume and European pollution, a  
26 vertical cross section of the dust and anthropogenic aerosol mass concentrations between the  
27 surface and 6 km asl along the trajectory obtained from LACYTRAJ between 28 and 30 May  
28 (Figure 1) was drawn from the concentrations calculated by Meso-NH and is shown Figure 6.  
29 During 28 May, a dust concentration of 500  $\mu\text{g.m}^{-3}$  spread along the western coast of Italy  
30 towards Switzerland at between 1 and 3.8 km asl. Given that the plume continued its  
31 propagation along the eastern coast of France, the diminution of the vertical coverage of the  
32 dust plume (2-3 km asl) and the dust concentration (400  $\mu\text{g.m}^{-3}$ ) simulated on 29 May can be

1 explained by the interaction between the plume and the foothills of the Vosges mountains. On  
2 30 May, the dust plume moved from Belgium to the Netherlands, where it separated into two  
3 layers. These two main dust layers were separated by a region of weak concentration (not  
4 greater than  $250 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ ). The first dust layer was situated between 2 and 4.2 km asl with a  
5 dust concentration range of 370 to  $400 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ . In contrast, the second layer was located near  
6 the surface and was thinner than the first (0.8-1.5 km asl) with dust concentration ranging  
7 from 320 to  $370 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ . Bègue et al (2012) described this structure in two layers as resulting  
8 from the interaction of the dust plume with the convective activity. The present simulations  
9 show that this structure in two layers can be also due to the interaction of the plume with the  
10 foothills of the Vosges mountains during its transport toward the Netherlands.

11 An overview of the simulated carbonaceous (BC + OC) and inorganic salts mass  
12 concentration along the dust plume trajectory during the period of 28-30 May are given in  
13 Figure 6. The simulated carbonaceous mass concentration reaches  $7 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ , with the  
14 maximum located at 1.5 km asl. The vertical coverage of the carbonaceous component  
15 extends from surface up to 2.5 km asl on May 30 (see Fig.7). Thus, we note the interaction of  
16 the carbonaceous component with the lower dust plume on 28 May during its spread towards  
17 Switzerland (Figure 7). Moreover, this layer also interacted with the organic component on 30  
18 May over Belgium and the Netherlands (Figure 7). The simulated inorganic salts mass  
19 concentration reached  $40 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$  with the maximum located near the surface over Italy. The  
20 vertical coverage of the inorganic salts was lower than the carbonaceous component, in  
21 particular over central Europe where, on 28-29 May, the vertical extend of the inorganic salts  
22 extended from the surface to 1 km asl. On 30 May, the vertical extension of the inorganic  
23 salts increased and ranged up to 2 km asl over Belgium and the Netherlands (Figure 7). ***The***  
24 ***simulations thus show that the lower dust layer has most probably been able to interact with***  
25 ***the organic salts mainly over Belgium and the Netherlands.*** It can also be noted that the  
26 mixing occurred essentially with the dust from the first layer. Although the mixing between  
27 the dust and the inorganic salts occurred mainly over Belgium and the Netherlands, it can be  
28 observed that the amount of inorganic salt mixed with the dust was greater than the  
29 carbonaceous component. ***It is worth noting that the species simulated above the PBL are***  
30 ***the residual pollution produced the previous days and coming from the southeast of***  
31 ***France, as it was shown by Bègue et al (2012).*** The above results clearly show the mixing  
32 between the dust plume and the anthropogenic aerosol, particularly over the northern part of  
33 Europe. Enhancement of the hygroscopic capacity of the dust plume over the Netherlands



## 1 4 Enhancement of the hygroscopic capacity of the dust plume over the 2 Netherlands

### 3 4.1 Chemical composition of the aerosol

4 *We propose now to quantify the impact of this mixing on the hygroscopic and CCN*  
5 *properties of the dust plume. Inside this section, the consequence of this mixing over the*  
6 *Netherlands on the dust hygroscopic properties will be discussed in detail.* The extinction  
7 coefficient obtained from the LNG lidar on board the ATR-42 aircraft on 30 May from 1311  
8 UTC to 1401 UTC over the Netherlands is shown in Figure 8. *It was measured over a*  
9 *domain between latitudes 52.57°N and 51.88°N and longitudes 6.34°E and 4.99°E.* The  
10 vertical cross section obtained with LNG observations reveals that the extinction coefficient  
11 ranges from 0.01 to 5 km<sup>-1</sup> between 0.8 to 3 km asl (Figure 8a). As shown previously with the  
12 CALIPSO product (subsection 3.1), northern Europe was affected by the presence of high and  
13 midlevel clouds during this period. The observed extinction coefficients higher than 0.4 km<sup>-1</sup>  
14 were hence due to clouds. *It is seen in CALIPSO lidar observations that the particulate*  
15 *depolarization ratio is about 15 % at latitudes higher than 53° N and altitudes below 3km*  
16 *outside clouds on 28 and 29 May 2008 (Fig. 4). Over the Netherlands, the LNG*  
17 *observations show a permanent stratocumulus cloud layer at 0.7 km asl (Figure 8a).* In  
18 these lidar observations, we also note the presence of clouds between 2.2 and 2.5 km asl  
19 embedded in a *medium* scattering and depolarizing layer. *In this elevated layer, outside the*  
20 *high backscattering cloud regions (near 1330 UTC for example,-see Fig.8a-), the scattering*  
21 *ratio at 532 nm is close to 4 between 2.3 and 2.5 km but depolarization is determined to be*  
22 *smaller than 15 % following Villiers et al. (2010).* These clouds layers are more  
23 heterogeneous than those observed at 800 m above the surface. The aerosol air mass indeed  
24 appears to be structured in two main layers separated by a region of weak extinction  
25 coefficient (from 0 to 0.06 km<sup>-1</sup>). *Furthermore the analysis of the LNG data reveals that the*  
26 *particle color ratio is smaller than 0.2 in the region where the extinction exceeds 0.11 km<sup>-1</sup>.*  
27 *This corresponds to a backscatter Angström coefficient larger than 2, which is indicative*  
28 *of a strong contribution of small size particles (Catrall et al., 2005).*

29 It should be noted that this structure, obtained from LNG observations, is quite similar to the  
30 structure of the simulated dust plume over the Netherlands. The first aerosol layer is observed  
31 between 1.6 and 2.8 km asl with the extinction maximum (0.16 km<sup>-1</sup>) located between 1.8 and  
32 2.5 km high. The second layer is located between 0.6 and 0.7 km asl and is separated into two

1 parts by a region of low values (less than  $0.01 \text{ km}^{-1}$ ). We note that this aerosol layer is  
2 continuously masked by the cloud layer (Figure 8a). *To understand this vertical structure of*  
3 *atmospheric aerosol, the remote sensing measurements were reproduced by the Meso-NH*  
4 *model for comparison (Figure 8b). The simulated extinction coefficient compared relatively*  
5 *well with the observed one.* The contribution of the dust to extinction was analyzed over this  
6 region from the Meso-NH simulation. These simulation results reveal that 90% of extinction  
7 is due to dust. Bègue et al. (2012) demonstrated that optical parameters (scattering, extinction,  
8 single scattering albedo) measured during this flight from 1350 UTC to 1405 UTC was  
9 mainly due to the dust accumulation mode. *This is also confirmed by the color ratio close to*  
10 *0.5 as derived from the lidar measurements at 532 and 1064 nm, normalization the ratio at*  
11 *1 on the stratocumulus cloud.* This predominance of the dust accumulation mode is  
12 consistent with the *in-situ measurements from ATR-42 (Crumevolle et al.,2013)*. Based on  
13 the SMPS measurements recorded onboard the ATR-42, they showed an enhancement of the  
14 accumulation mode particle number concentration in both BL and LFT. They also showed an  
15 enhancement of the total mass concentration in the intermediate layer (1-3 km), suggesting  
16 efficient long-range transport of aerosol particles.

17 The mass concentration of inorganic salts (nitrate, sulfate, ammonium) and OC obtained with  
18 the AMS (type: c-TOF) onboard the ATR-42 during the same flight is shown in Figure 9.  
19 Because of the presence of clouds, data were not recorded everywhere during the flight. The  
20  $\text{NH}_4$  mass concentration increased and reached its maximum value ( $5.3 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ ) at 0.8 km asl  
21 from 1311 UTC to 1325 UTC, and decreased afterwards to  $0.2 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$  between 1 and 2.8 km  
22 asl, before oscillating between 0.1 to  $5 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$  until the end of the flight (Figure 9a). The  
23 evolution of sulfate and OC looks similar to the evolution of the ammonium mass  
24 concentration. Thus, the sulfate and OC mass concentrations reached their maximum values  
25 ( $10 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$  and  $7 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$  respectively) near the surface, and decreased together thereafter to  $0.1$   
26  $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$  between 1 and 2.8 km asl, before oscillating between 0.1 and  $5 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$  for the sulfate,  
27 and between 0.1 and  $2 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$  for the OC until the end of the flight (Figure 9b and 9d). The  
28 nitrate mass concentration increased to  $5 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$  at 0.8 km asl, and quickly decreased to  $0.1$   
29  $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$  between 1 and 2.8 km asl. Unlike other species, the amplitude of the nitrate  
30 concentration variation was very high (from 0.1 to  $14.8 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ ) between 1.1 and 2.5 km asl  
31 from 1330 UTC to 1355 UTC (Figure 9c). It can also be observed that the nitrate  
32 concentrations decreased quickly to  $0.1 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$  at 0.5 km asl from 1358 UTC to 1401 UTC.  
33 As reported by Crumevolle et al. (2013), peaks in nitrate may originate from natural (marine

1 aerosol) or anthropogenic sources (industry exhaust). We note that Meso-NH reproduced the  
2 evolution and the magnitude of the concentration recorded onboard the ATR-42 over the  
3 Netherlands fairly correctly.

4 The observed mass concentration at Cabauw is compared to the simulated ones in Figure 10.  
5 The evolution of the mass concentration recorded by the AMS (type: c-TOF) during the  
6 period from 25-30 May at Cabauw is marked by a significant increase in the concentration on  
7 30 May for the four species. We note that the evolution of the three inorganic salts  
8 (ammonium, sulfate, and nitrate) is fairly similar. First, the concentration of the inorganic  
9 salts increased from 25 to 27 May. Then it decreased on 28 May, before finally increasing  
10 rapidly again from 29 to 30 May (Figure 10). The observed ammonium mass concentrations  
11 ranged from 0.5 to 6  $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$  with the maximum appearing on 30 May (Figure 10a). It can be  
12 also observed that the mass concentration of sulfate was less than that of the other species,  
13 with a maximum value of 4.8  $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ , also observed on 30 May (Figure 10b). The evolution of  
14 the nitrate mass concentration was characterized by its wide range, extending from 0.1 to 17  
15  $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ , observed on 28 and 30 May respectively (Figure 10c). The evolution of the OC was  
16 characterized by a weak variability of the concentration compared to the inorganic salts. The  
17 OC mass concentration was confined between 1.6 and 5  $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ , except on 30 May where the  
18 concentration rose sharply to 7.8  $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$  (Figure 10d). It is also worth noting that Meso-NH  
19 reproduced the evolution of the concentrations acceptably well for the different chemical  
20 species measured by the AMS at Cabauw. *Given that the AMS measurements are limited to*  
21 *refractive aerosol with diameter lower than 500 nm, we took from Meso-NH only the*  
22 *particles with diameter lower than 500 nm in order to compare them to the AMS*  
23 *measurements.*

24 Both the observations and the simulation show that the air mass over the Netherlands on 30  
25 May included a mixture of dust with the anthropogenic aerosol. The fraction of these different  
26 species considered as internally mixed was analyzed from the Meso-NH simulation. The  
27 results reveal that, near the surface at Cabauw and at altitude (between 1 and 3 km asl) around  
28 this site, the composition of the mixture was fairly similar. More than 50% of the mixture was  
29 made up of dust. The organic component represented an average of 15% of the total mass,  
30 *with the main contribution attributed to SOA (~10% of the total mass)*. Despite of the  
31 mixing of the dust plume with BC and OC over Italy (section 3.3), the contributions of BC  
32 and OC represented only 3.5% and 5% on average respectively. *The fraction of the inorganic*

1 *salts was higher than the organic component, with 24.5% on average. As expected on the*  
2 *basis of AMS observations, the fraction of nitrate obtained from Meso-NH simulation was*  
3 *more significant than that of the other inorganic salts, with values around 13.5%. The*  
4 *fraction of sulphate and ammonium mixed with dust particles was estimated on average to*  
5 *6% and 5% respectively.* Hence the major components were dust, followed by SOA and  
6 nitrate. Note that the simulated SOA concentrations were not compared to observations  
7 because of a lack of SOA observations over the Netherlands. Nonetheless, the chemical  
8 composition of the aerosol obtained as internally mixed was found to be consistent with  
9 previous studies of atmospheric processing of mineral dust particles in urban areas (Almeida  
10 et al., 2013; Reddington et al., 2013; Kumar et al., 2011; Stone et al., 2011; Putaud et al.,  
11 2004). *The ability of these aged Saharan dust particles to act as CCN will be described in*  
12 *detail in the following subsection.*

## 13 **4.2 Hygroscopic properties of the dust plume**

14 *The chemical and physical processes and coating of inorganic salts (mainly sulfate and*  
15 *nitrate) change not only the mixing state and optical properties but also the hygroscopic*  
16 *properties of the aerosol (Leng et al., 2013; Rose et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2010; Jimenez et*  
17 *al., 2009; Reid et al., 1998). Gibson et al. (2007) have shown that the CCN activity of*  
18 *insoluble mineral dust components is enhanced dramatically when they are internally*  
19 *mixed with a small amount of an aqueous salt. Thus, the heterogeneous reactions with*  
20 *reactive gases, including nitric, hydrochloric and sulfuric acids, can convert insoluble*  
21 *mineral dust into slightly soluble compounds or compounds that are sufficiently soluble to*  
22 *play an important role in hygroscopic growth and cloud droplet activation (Ram et al.,*  
23 *2014; Sullivan et al., 2009). The dust hygroscopicity is controlled by its chemical mixing*  
24 *state, which is determined by its mineralogy and the chemical reaction pathways it*  
25 *experiences during transport (Sullivan et al., 2009). According to these previous studies we*  
26 *can assume that the atmospheric processing of this Saharan dust has likely led to an*  
27 *evolution of its hygroscopicity.*

28 The concentration of CCN in a given population of aerosol is a crucial parameter for  
29 understanding the ability of a particle to act as a nucleating agent. This ability depends on its  
30 size as well as the coating of hygroscopic species (Ram et al., 2014; Gunthe et al., 2011;  
31 Dusek et al., 2010; Sullivan et al., 2009). The CCN activity was effectively predicted using  
32 Köhler theory (Köhler, 1936) based on physicochemical properties of the solute, such as its

1 mass, molecular weight, density, size and activity coefficient. The CCN activity was  
2 calculated at the same supersaturation level that was chosen for making the measurements  
3 with the CCNC counter. The calculation was made by taking the simulated mass and number  
4 concentration of the different chemical species and their molecular weight into account, in  
5 addition to the simulated aerosol size. The evolution of the measured and simulated number  
6 concentration of CCN at 0.2% supersaturation ( $CCN_{0.2}$ ) during the flight of the ATR-42 on 30  
7 May from 1311 UTC to 1401 UTC is shown in Figure 11a. The simulated  $CCN_{0.2}$   
8 concentration plotted in Figure 11a was estimated from the aerosol accumulation and fine  
9 modes. The observed  $CCN_{0.2}$  concentration was relatively constant at around 80 particles per  
10  $cm^3$  at 0.8 km asl from 1311 UTC to 1325 UTC, and increased quickly thereafter to 700  
11 particles per  $cm^3$  between 1 and 3 km asl. Then, the observed concentration varied from 80 to  
12 650 particles per  $cm^3$  between 2.8 and 3 km asl, before reaching its maximum value (900  
13 particles per  $cm^{-3}$ ) at 2 km asl from 1350 UTC to 1355 UTC (Figure 11a). It can thus be  
14 observed that, on average, the lowest  $CCN_{0.2}$  concentration was mainly located near the  
15 surface. *The comparisons between the CCN calculated and CCN observed following the*  
16 *altitude range (Fig. 12) reveal that the model is doing a good job over the boundary layer*  
17 *(1-2.4 km and 2.5-3 km) with a correlation coefficient greater than 0.8. However, in the*  
18 *boundary layer where the concentrations are more sensitive to steep gradient of the surface*  
19 *emission, the CCN concentration is weakly reproduced by Meso-NH (coefficient*  
20 *correlation around to 0.4). In order to improve the results in the surface, the simulation*  
21 *should be run with better horizontal resolution (around 1 km) in agreement to the*  
22 *heterogeneities of the sources. Unfortunately, we haven't got a trustworthy emission*  
23 *inventory at these high resolutions.* It is noteworthy that the evolution of the  $CCN_{0.2}$   
24 concentration is predicted fairly well by taking the aged Saharan dust particles into account.

25 To characterize the relationship between  $CCN_{0.2}$  and total aerosol population in the  
26 atmospheric column, the  $CCN_{0.2}/CN$  ratio was calculated as a measure of hygroscopicity of  
27 the aerosol population (Figure 11b). When its ratio is 0 %, no activation of aerosol can occur  
28 to form cloud droplets whereas, when its ratio reaches 100%, all aerosol particles can be  
29 activated to become droplets. The measurements of the CPC 3010 were used to provide the  
30 CN concentration required to calculate the  $CCN_{0.2}/CN$  ratio. Unfortunately, CN  
31 concentrations were not recorded for the total length of the flight due to the presence of  
32 clouds. *Most of the aerosol particles are found in a dominating and extremely broad*  
33 *accumulation mode. In general most of the particles (70-90%) have sizes beyond 50 nm*

1 *(not shown). Only for two smaller periods, one shortly after 1315 UTC and the other*  
2 *around 1355 UTC, smallest aerosol sizes in high number concentration (may stem from*  
3 *nucleation event) are observed.*

4 The value of the CCN<sub>0.2</sub>/CN ratio obtained from observations ranged between 10% and 70%.  
5 The low values (less than 20%) were mainly observed near the surface (0.7-1.5 km asl)  
6 whereas the maximum values of the ratio were correlated with the maximum values of the  
7 CCN<sub>0.2</sub> concentration. This is in agreement with the simulation results. In particular, it should  
8 be noted that the CCN<sub>0.2</sub> concentration peak from 1350 UTC to 1355 UTC was associated  
9 with the maximum value of the CCN<sub>0.2</sub>/CN ratio (70%). This was further corroborated by an  
10 enhancement in nitrate mass concentration (Figure 9). The value of the CCN<sub>0.2</sub>/CN ratio  
11 obtained was much greater than those observed over the Saharan region. During the AMMA  
12 campaign, the CCN/CN ratio obtained was less than 15% in the Saharan Air Layer  
13 (Crumeyrolle et al., 2008). This reinforces our conclusion that heterogeneous reactions with  
14 inorganic salts converted this insoluble Saharan mineral dust into compounds that were  
15 sufficiently soluble to impact hygroscopic growth and cloud droplet activation over the  
16 Netherlands.

17 *Figure 13 depicts the evolution of the measured and simulated number concentration of*  
18 *CCN at 0.16, 0.30, 0.45 and 0.63 % at Cabauw. A large, rapid increase in the number*  
19 *concentration of the CCN can be observed for the four supersaturation levels between 29*  
20 *and 31 May, with a maximum value of 14000 particles.cm<sup>-3</sup> at 0.63% supersaturation.. The*  
21 *observed number concentration of CCN on 30 May was double the mean value observed*  
22 *during the EUCAARI-IMPACT campaign. Before 29 May, the CCN concentration at the*  
23 *four supersaturation levels was found to be fairly constant, except for the two weak peaks*  
24 *of CCN concentration observed on 27 and 28 May coinciding with higher BC mass*  
25 *concentration (Figure 6). The simulated CCN concentration at Cabauw compared fairly*  
26 *well with the observations, and especially the high peak of CCN concentration, which was*  
27 *acceptably reproduced at the four supersaturation levels (Figure 13). Indeed, on average*  
28 *more than 70% of the CCN concentration observed on 30 May was found by Meso-NH.*  
29 *Nevertheless, we note the two weak peaks observed on 27 and 28 May are not found in the*  
30 *simulation. A possible source of this discrepancy could be an underestimation of BC mass*  
31 *concentration by Meso-NH on 27 and 28 May (Figure 6). Using the chemical transport*

1 *model GEOS-CHEM, Riipinen et al. (2011) have shown that organic components have a*  
2 *significant influence on the growth of ultrafine particles and in CCN production.*

3 *The high peak of CCN concentration observed on 30 May coincided with a significant*  
4 *increase in the mass concentration of inorganic salts (Figure 10), in particular for nitrate.*  
5 *The simulation results reveal that more than 70% of the CCN concentration observed on 30*  
6 *May can be explained by the presence of the aged Saharan dust (Figure 12). According to*  
7 *our simulation results mentioned above, we can conclude that the peak of CCN*  
8 *concentration observed on 30 May was mainly due to the atmospheric processing of*  
9 *Saharan mineral dust particles.*

10 *The remaining 30% could be attributed to other processes that can enhance the dust*  
11 *hygroscopicity, such as cloud processing, which is not taken into account in the*  
12 *simulations. Gibson et al (2007) revealed that interaction between raindrops and the dust*  
13 *particles, both in and around clouds, may lead to the formation of new particles that are*  
14 *sufficiently hygroscopic to impact cloud droplet activation. Crumeyrolle et al. (2008)*  
15 *showed an increase in dust hygroscopicity over Niger by cloud processing in a mesoscale*  
16 *convective system. The composition of dust particles can also be significantly altered*  
17 *depending on the presence of cloud along their long-range transport (Matsuki et al., 2010).*  
18 *Thus, given the meteorological situation, we cannot ignore a possible influence of cloud*  
19 *processing on the hygroscopic properties of Saharan dust.*

## 20 **5 Summary and Conclusion**

21 The atmospheric processing of Saharan mineral dust particles during the EUCAARI intensive  
22 observational period has been presented in this study. An intense Saharan dust plume was  
23 transported toward northwestern Europe in a meteorological situation disturbed by strong  
24 convective activity over central Europe between 25 and 31 May 2008. The analysis focuses  
25 on the site of Cabauw, which was selected to quantify the regional aerosol properties,  
26 formation, transformation, transport and deposition during the EUCAARI 2008 campaign.  
27 The transport of dust to northwestern Europe was investigated by combining satellite,  
28 airborne and ground-based observations, and the non-hydrostatic meso-scale model Meso-  
29 NH. Through the use of this numerical model, it was well-identified that the dust coming  
30 from the western and central Sahara reached northern Europe. Moreover, the shape and  
31 temporal distribution of the dust plume simulated by Meso-NH was consistent with other  
32 simulations using different models (Bangert et al., 2012; Pappalardo et al., 2010). The altitude

1 of the dust plume during its transport to northwestern Europe was assessed by using the  
2 CALIPSO observations. *The depolarization ratio in the plume confirmed that the major*  
3 *dust plume was transported over Europe between 2 and 5 km asl. Due to transport, the*  
4 *plume split into two layers over northern Europe. The simulations results have shown the*  
5 *mixing of the European pollution aerosol with dust particles in the lower layer.* In  
6 agreement with Hamburger et al. (2011), it was shown that the most intense anthropogenic  
7 aerosol concentration was mainly located over northern Europe. The simulations revealed that  
8 the dust particles were mainly mixed with inorganic salts over Belgium and the Netherlands.  
9 In contrast, it was well identified from the simulation that the plume was mainly mixed with  
10 carbonaceous matter over Italy, likely leading to the adsorption of organic gases onto dust  
11 particles.

12 From the LNG observations onboard the ATR-42, the vertical structure of the aerosol layer  
13 over the Netherlands was assessed. The main aerosol layer was located between 1.8 and 2.5  
14 km asl, and the presence of aerosol was probed between 0.6 and 0.7 km asl in spite of the  
15 presence of clouds. The Meso-NH simulations were in fairly good agreement with the LNG  
16 and AMS observations. *Small depolarization and color ratios derived from LNG*  
17 *measurements shows that the extinction coefficient was mainly due to the Saharan dust.*  
18 The presence of the dust plume over the Netherlands led to an enhancement of the  
19 accumulation mode particle number concentration in both BL and LFT, which was found to  
20 be in agreement with Crumeyrolle et al. (2013). The analyses of the simulation have shown  
21 that mineral dust particles accumulated soluble material through internal mixing over the  
22 Netherlands. It results that the major components of the mixture were dust, followed by SOA  
23 and nitrate. *The value of the CCN<sub>0.2</sub>/CN ratio obtained over the Netherlands (~70%) was*  
24 *much greater than those reported in the literature over the Saharan region (Matsuki et al.,*  
25 *2010; Crumeyrolle et al., 2008).* In addition, the maximum of the CCN<sub>0.2</sub>/CN ratio was  
26 correlated with the maximum values of the CCN<sub>0.2</sub> concentration. This demonstrates that  
27 heterogeneous reactions with inorganic salts converted this Saharan mineral dust into  
28 compounds sufficiently soluble to impact the hygroscopic growth and cloud droplet activation  
29 over this region. The CCN measurement at Cabauw revealed a peak of the number  
30 concentration of CCN on 30 May, with a maximum of 14 000 particles.cm<sup>-3</sup> at 0.63%  
31 supersaturation. As a result of the simulated CCN concentration, on average, more than 70%  
32 of the CCN concentration observed on 30 May can be explained by the presence of the  
33 Saharan aged dust. Thus, the atmospheric processing of Saharan dust is shown to be the main



1 process by which this peak of CCN was produced. It is also known that, during the cloud  
2 processing, the mineral dust can enhance its hygroscopic properties through a series of  
3 additional processes including chemical reaction in the aqueous phase (Smoydzin et al., 2012;  
4 Sullivan et al., 2007; Matsuki et al., 2010). Further analysis of the dust microphysical  
5 properties, including chemical reaction in the aqueous phase, will be examined in a  
6 forthcoming study. In conclusion, our results confirm that changes in dust chemical  
7 composition due to atmospheric aging can play a significant role in determining the CCN  
8 activity.

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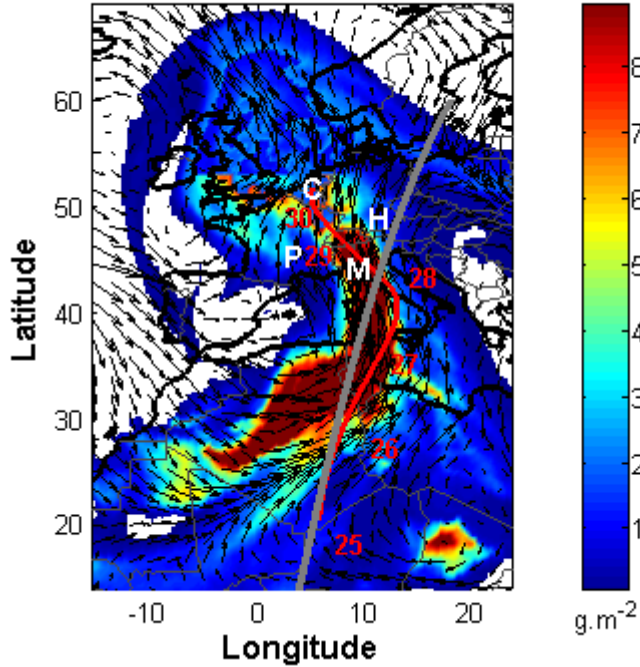
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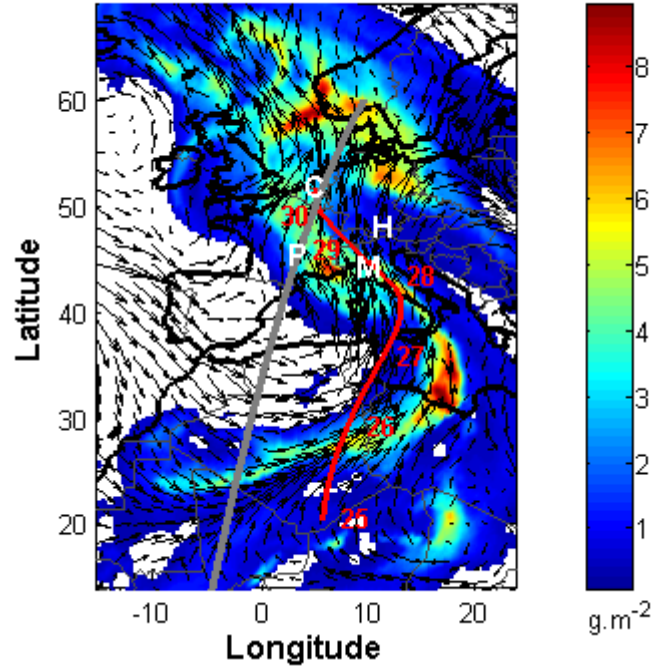
# 1 Figures

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a)



b)

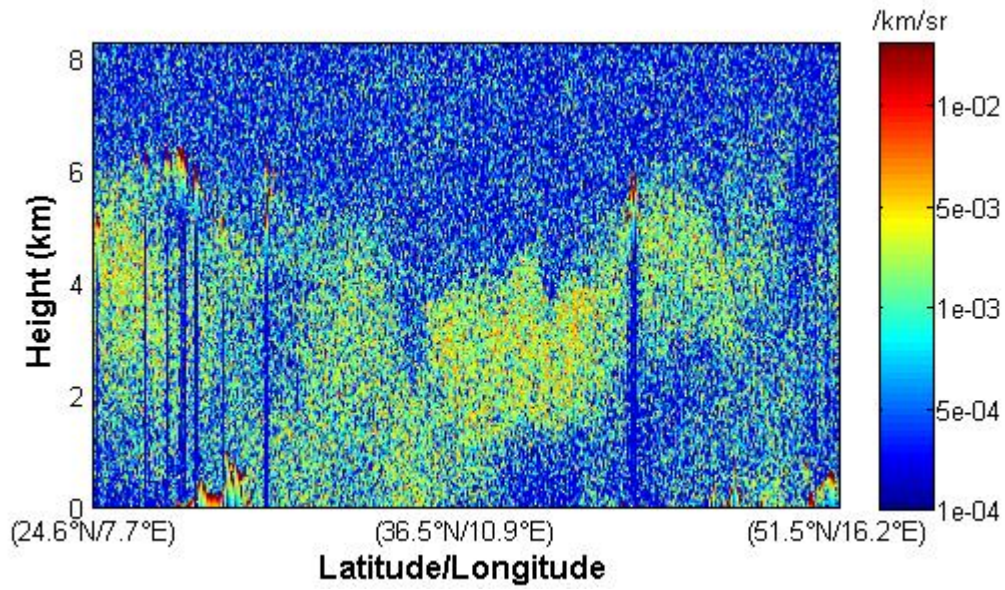


3 **Figure 1** : Dust load (shading,  $\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$ ) and 700 hPa wind (vectors) simulated by Meso-NH at  
4 1200 UTC on (a) 28 May and (b) 29 May 2008. Nighttime CALIPSO overpasses are  
5 indicated by the gray line. Six-day backward trajectories calculated during the 25-30 May  
6 2008 period are indicated by the red line. *The locations of the Cabauw, Puy de Dôme,*  
7 *Hohenpeissenberg and Mont-Cimone sites are indicated by C, P, H and M respectively.*

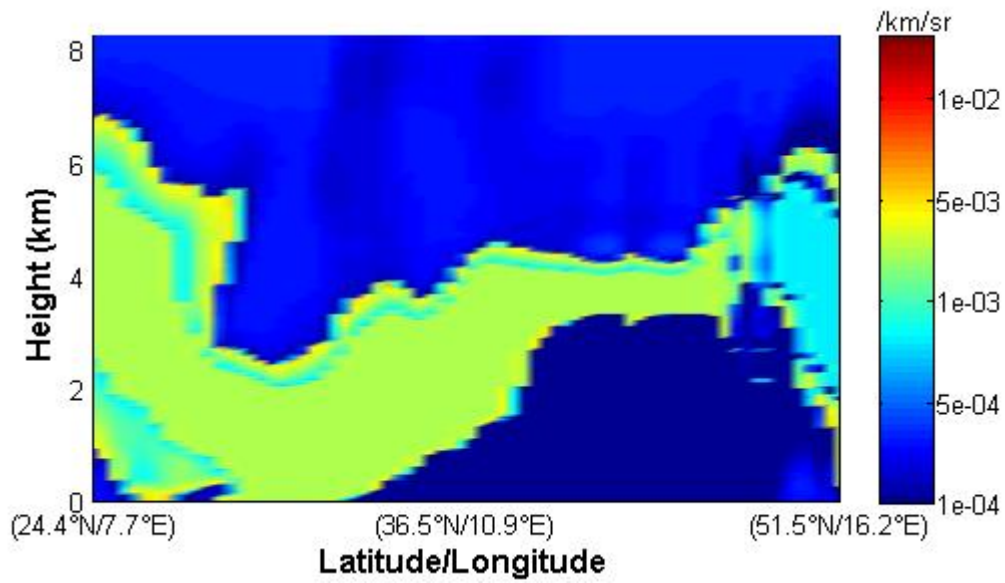
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a)



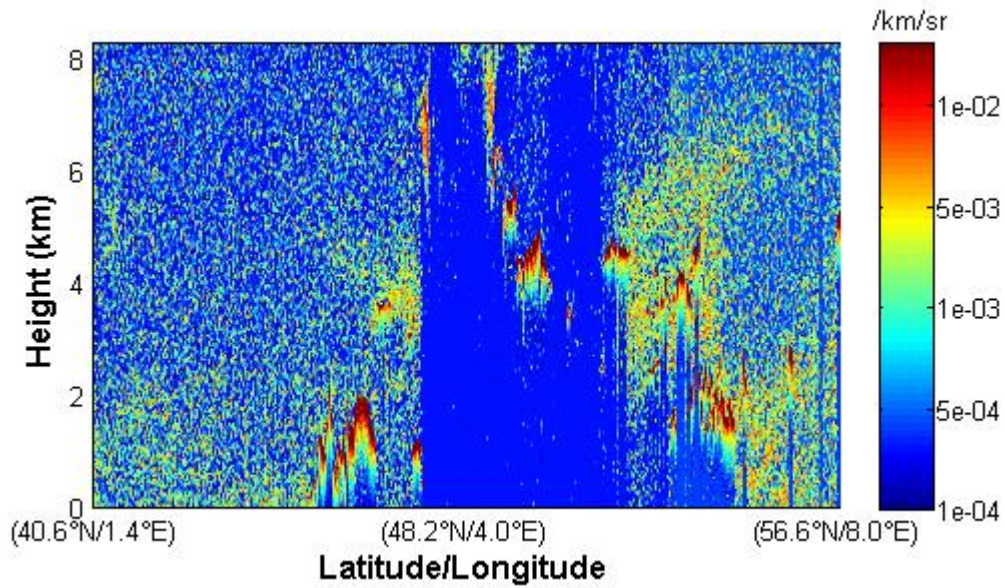
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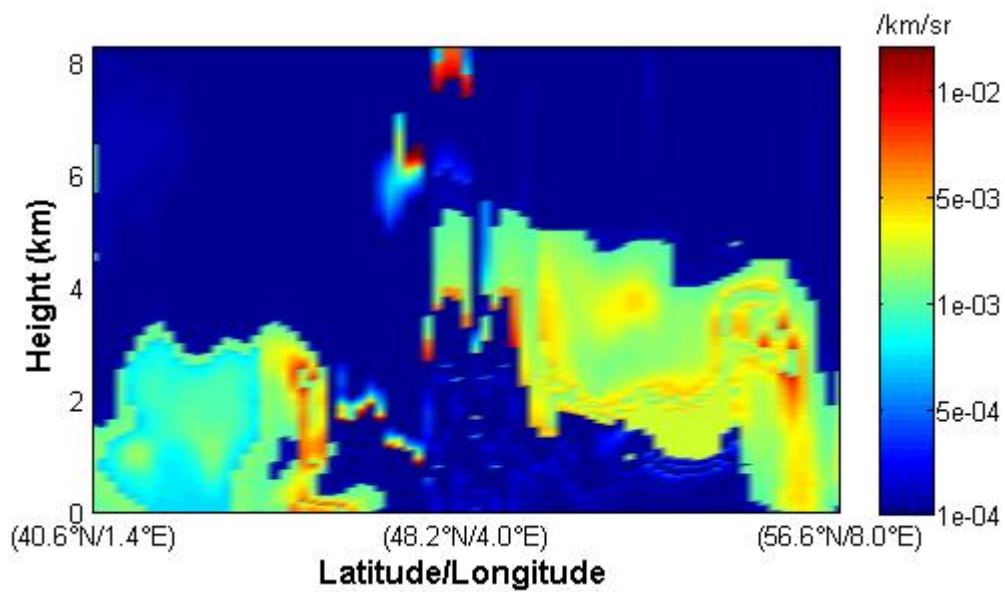
2 **Figure 2:** The total attenuated backscatter ( $\text{km}^{-1}.\text{sr}^{-1}$ ) at 532 nm from (a) the CALIPSO  
3 product and (b) the Meso-NH simulation for the overpass at 0122-0127 UTC on 28 May  
4 2008. The CALIPSO overpass on 28 May 2008 is indicated by the gray line on Fig. 1a.  
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a)



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2 **Figure 3:** The total attenuated backscatter ( $\text{km}^{-1}.\text{sr}^{-1}$ ) at 532 nm from (a) the CALIPSO  
3 product and (b) the Meso-NH simulation for the overpass at 0200-0206 UTC on 29 May  
4 2008. The CALIPSO overpass on 29 May 2008 is indicated by the gray line on Fig. 1b.

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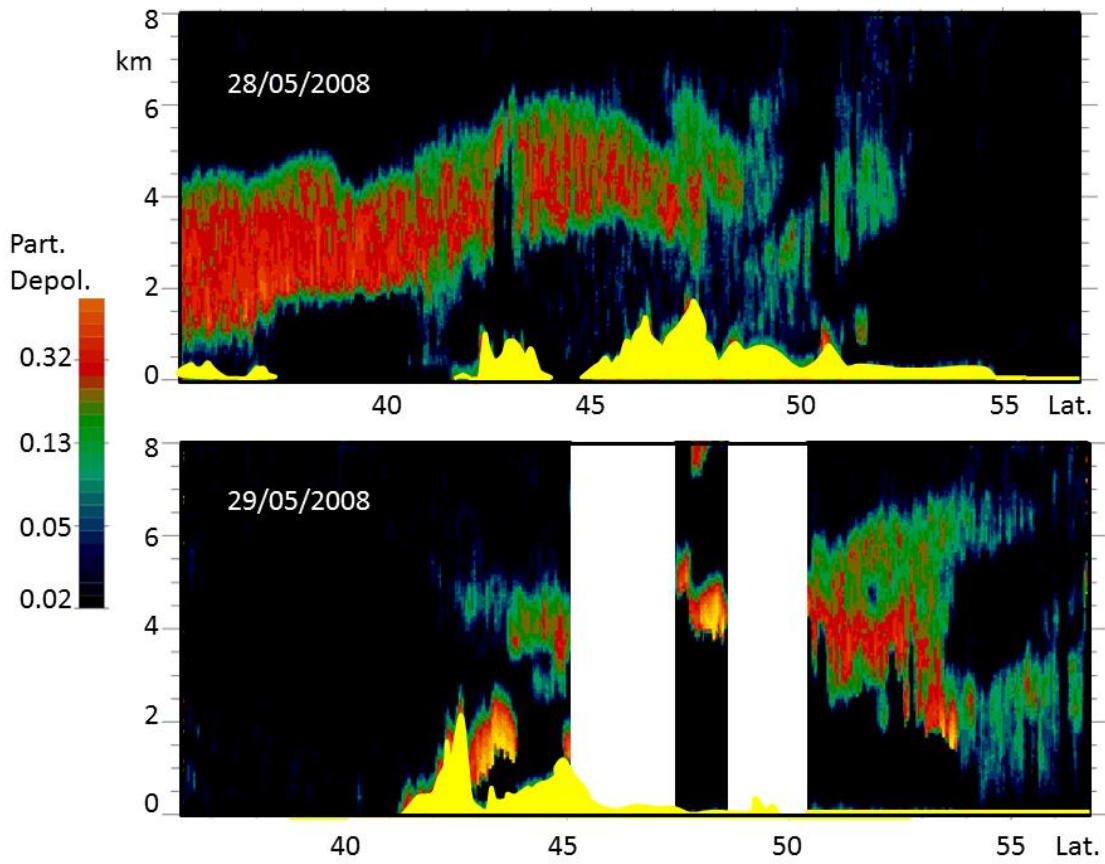
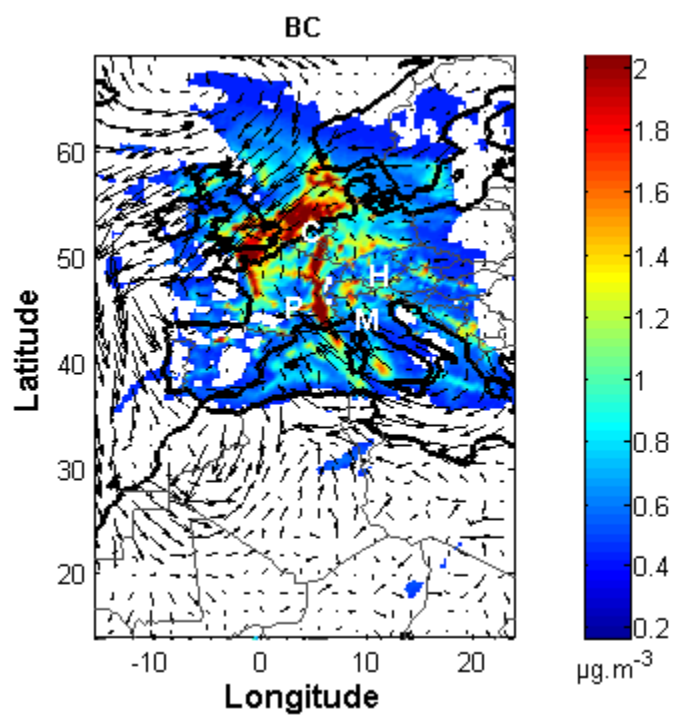
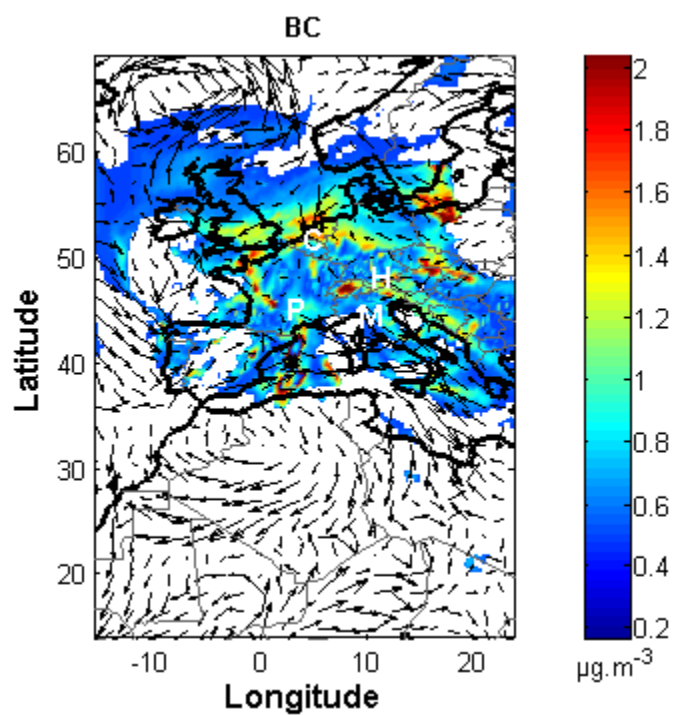


Figure 4 : CALIPSO particle depolarization at 532 nm for the overpass at 0122-0127 UTC on 28 May 2008 (top) and the overpass at 0200-0206 UTC on 29 May 2008 (bottom). The CALIPSO overpass on 28 May 2008 and 29 May 2008 are indicated by the gray line on Fig. 1a and 1b respectively. The topography is depicted in yellow. The data noised by the high clouds were removed to the picture (Blank area).

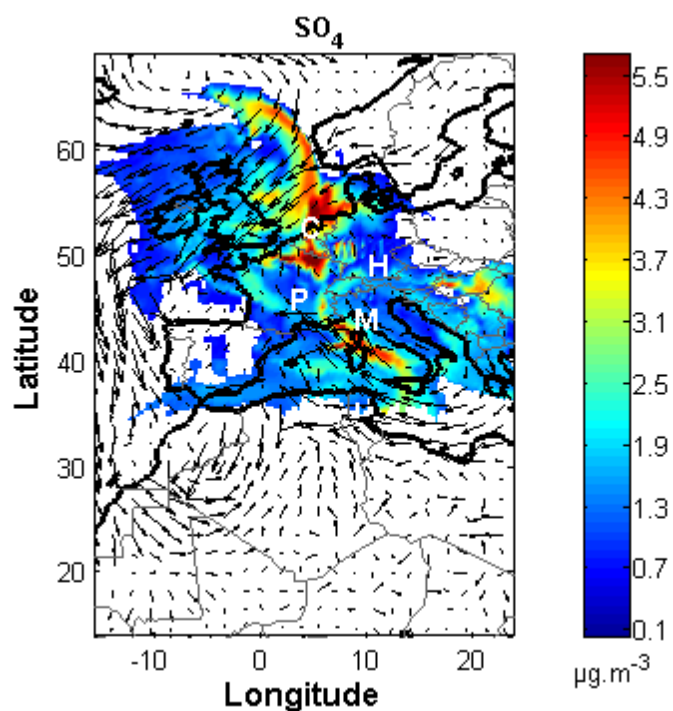
a)



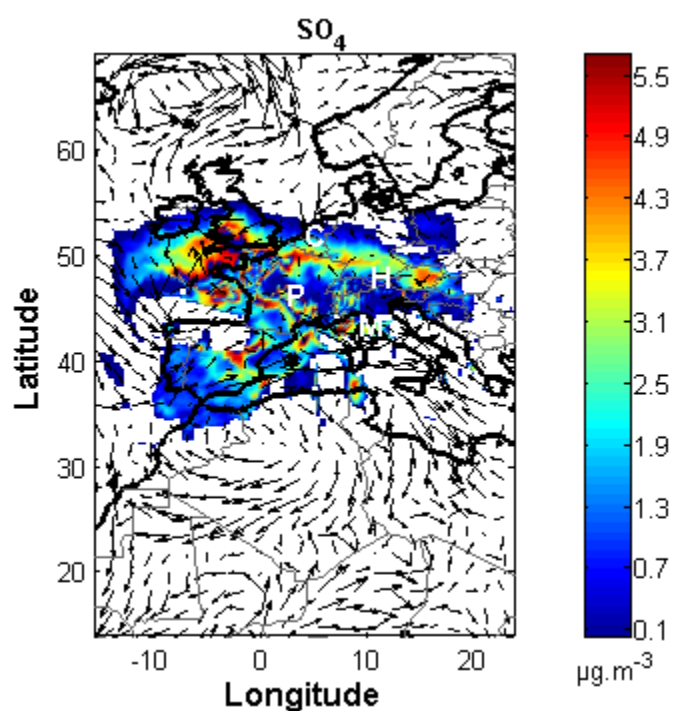
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c)



d)

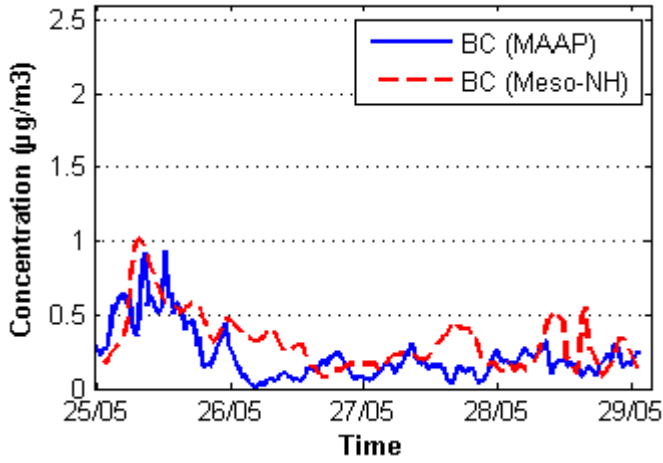


1 **Figure 5:** BC (a,b) and sulfate (c,d) mass concentration simulated by Meso-NH at 1200 UTC  
 2 on 28 May (a, c) and 29 May (b, d) 2008. The locations of the Cabauw, Puy de Dôme,  
 3 Hohenpeissenberg and Mont-Cimone sites are indicated by C, P, H and M respectively.

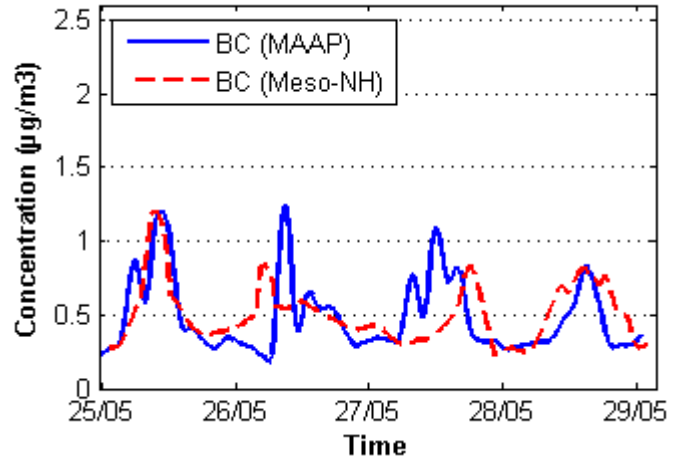
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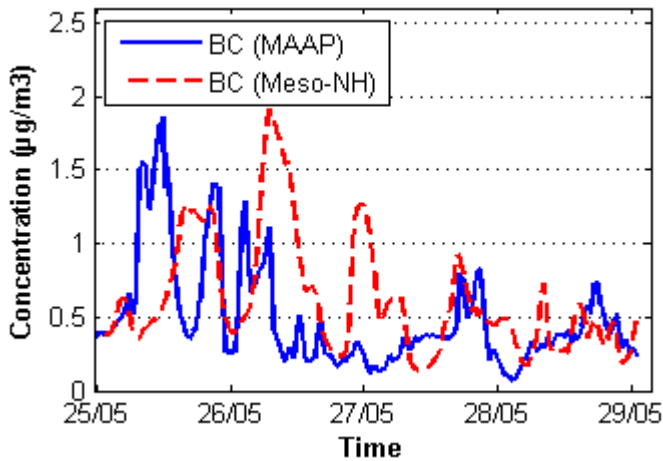
a) Mont Cimone



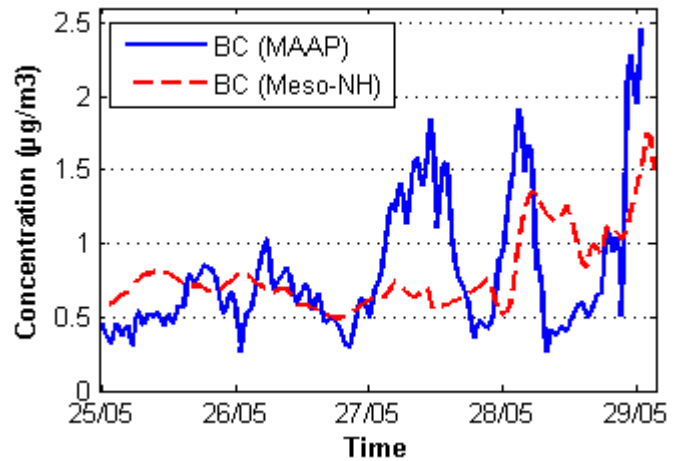
b) Puy-de-Dôme



c) Hohenpeissenberg



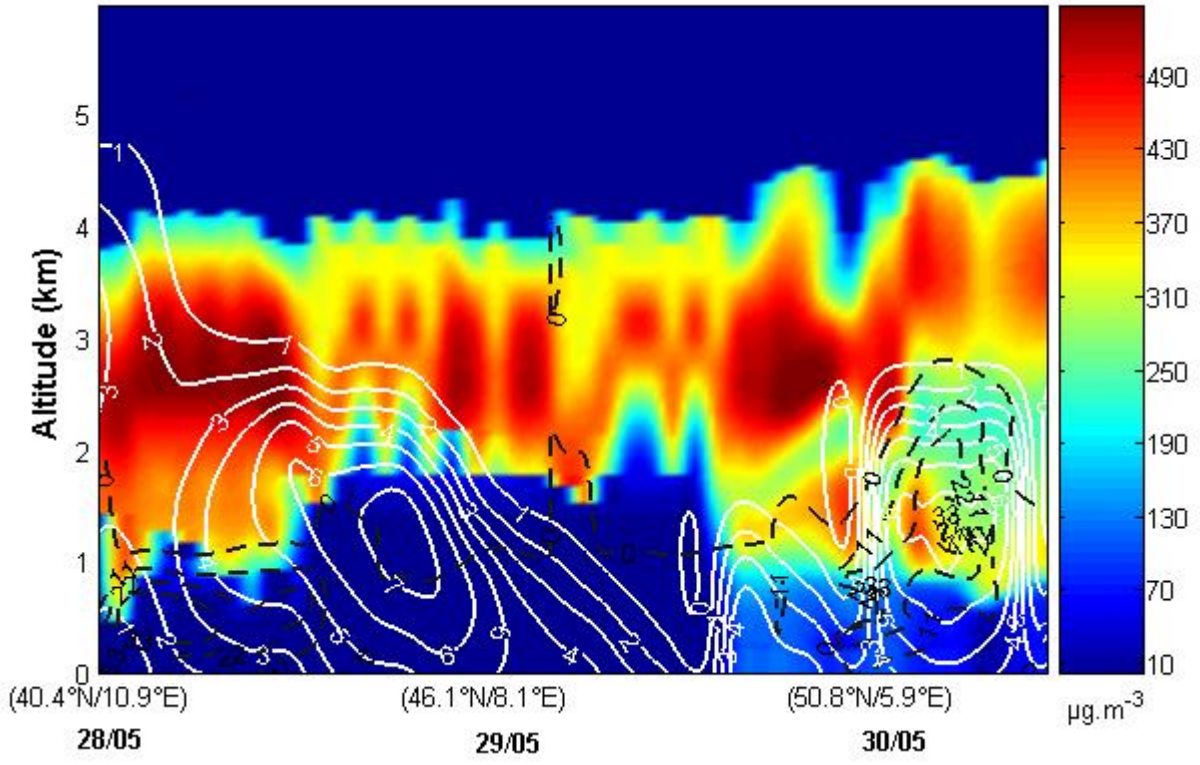
d) Cabauw



3 **Figure 6:** Evolution of the BC mass concentration ( $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ ) simulated (red dashed line) and  
4 measured (blue solid line) *between 25 and 29 May 2008.*

5

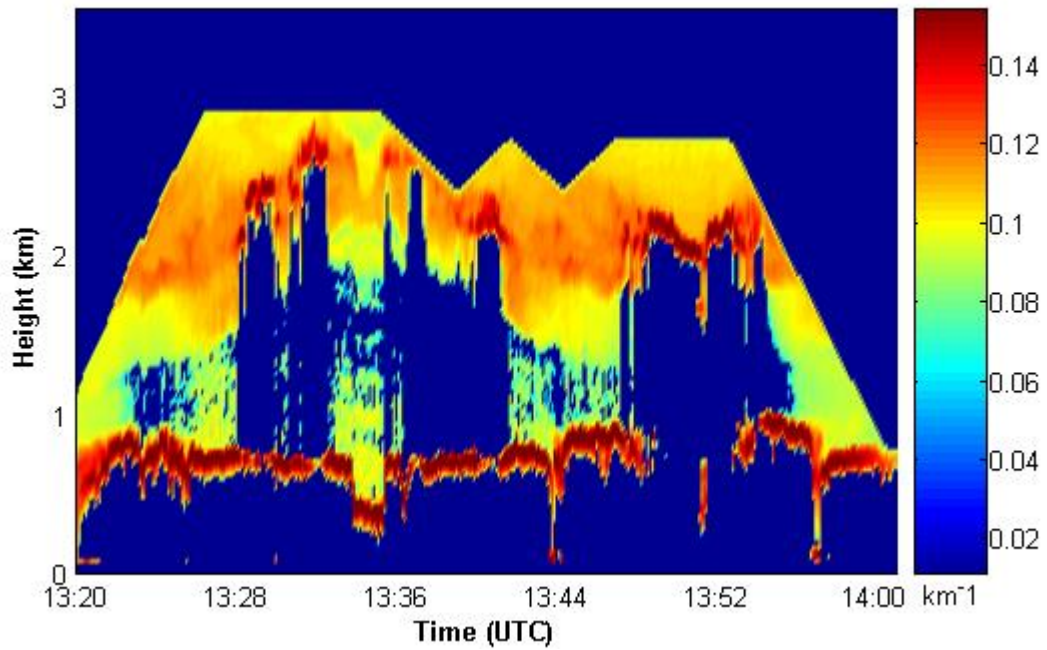
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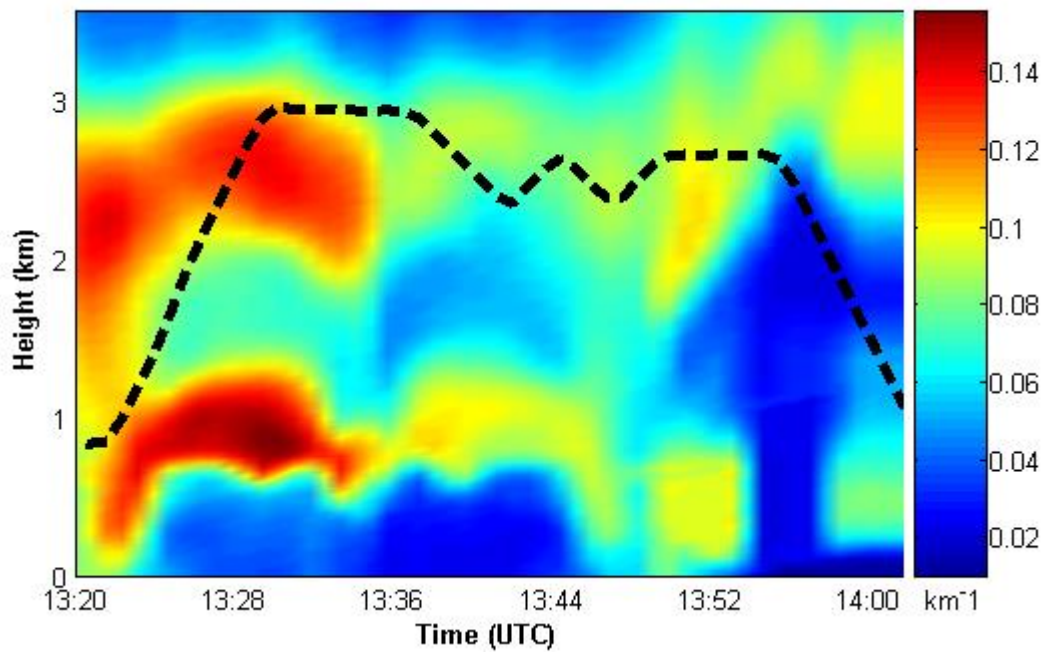
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**Figure 7:** Vertical cross section of dust mass concentration (shading) with carbonaceous component mass concentration (white line, BC and OC) and inorganic salts mass concentration (black dashed line) following the dust plume trajectory over Europe between (40.4°N, 10.9°E) and (56.6°N, 8.0°E) obtained from the simulation.

a)



b)



1 **Figure 8:** Vertical cross section of extinction coefficient (km<sup>-1</sup>) (a) measured by LEANDRE  
2 and (b) simulated by Meso-NH *over the Netherlands between (52.57°N; 6.34°E) and*  
3 *(51.88°N; 4.99°E) on 30 May 2008.* The black line indicates the height of the aircraft. *All the*  
4 *blue areas in the upper plot (LEANDRE observation) are areas without data.*

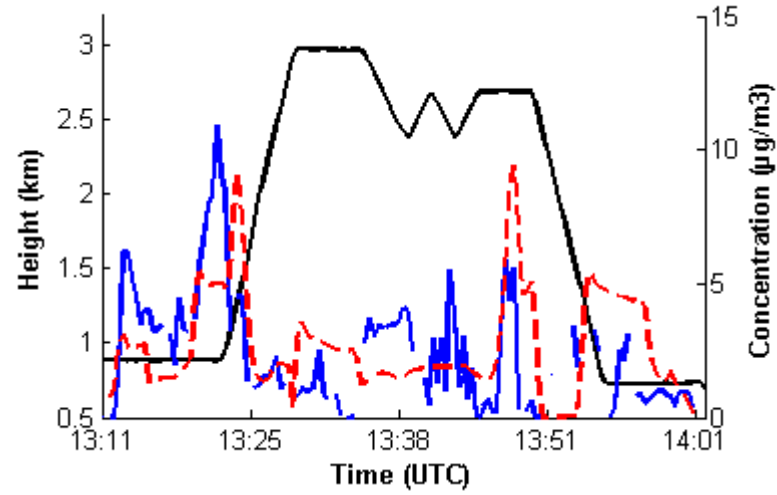
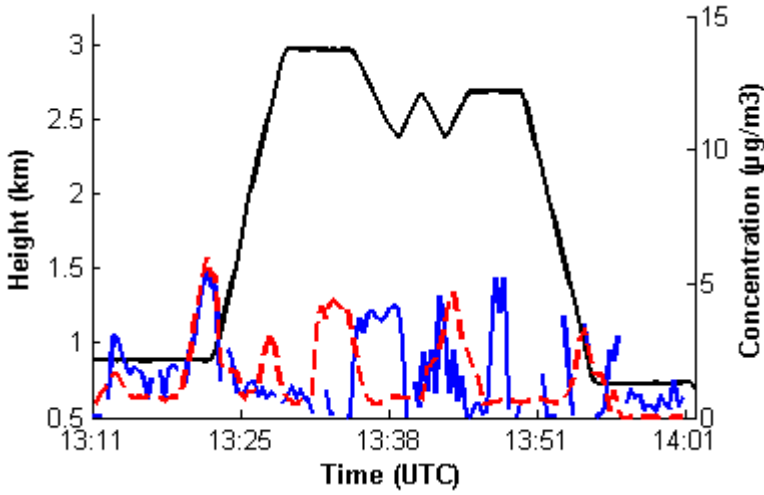


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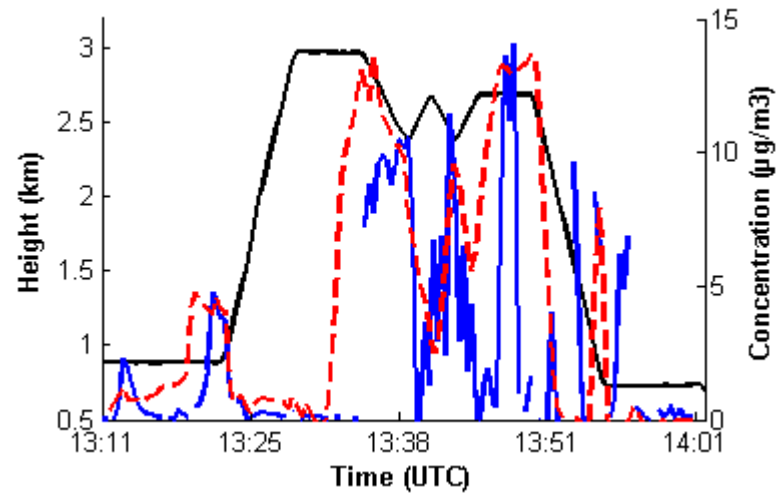
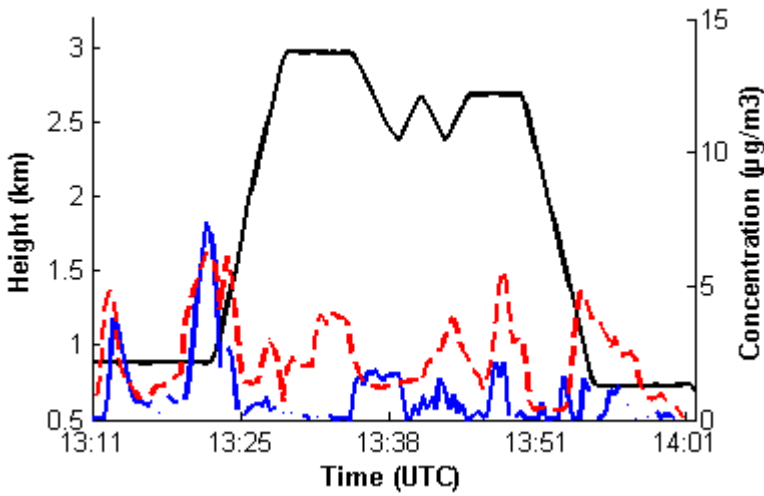
a) Ammonium

b) Sulfate



c) OC

d) Nitrate

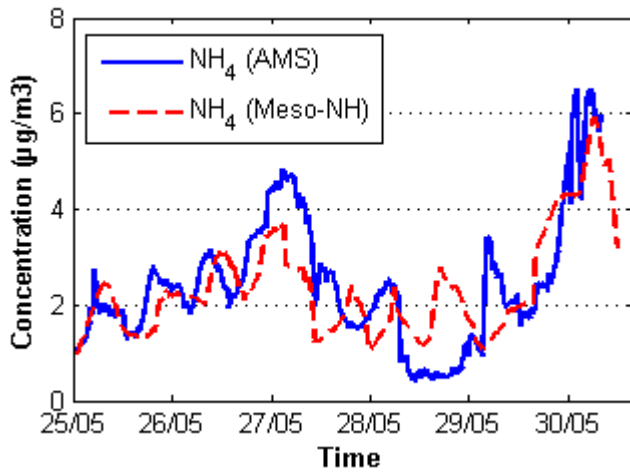


3 **Figure 9:** Evolution of (a) ammonium, (b) sulfate, (c) OC and (d) nitrate mass concentration  
4 ( $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ ) obtained from AMS measurements (blue solid line) and simulated (red dashed line)  
5 *over the Netherlands between (52.57°N; 6.34°E) and (51.88°N; 4.99°E) on 30 May 2008 on*  
6 *30 May 2008. The black line indicates the height of the aircraft.*

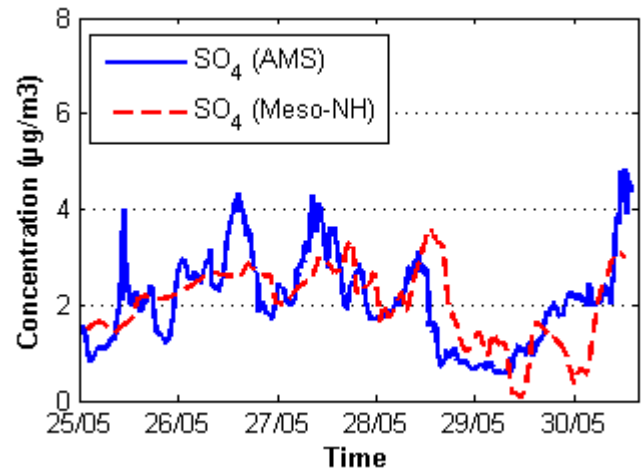
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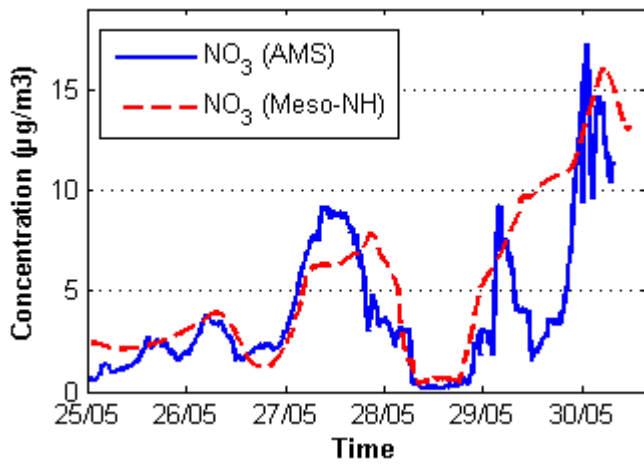
a)



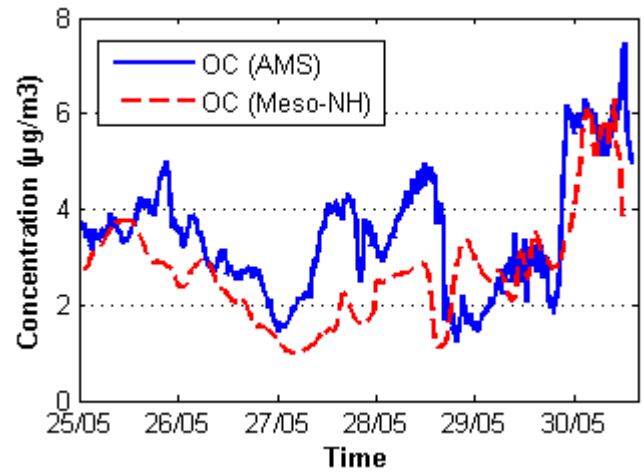
b)



c)



d)

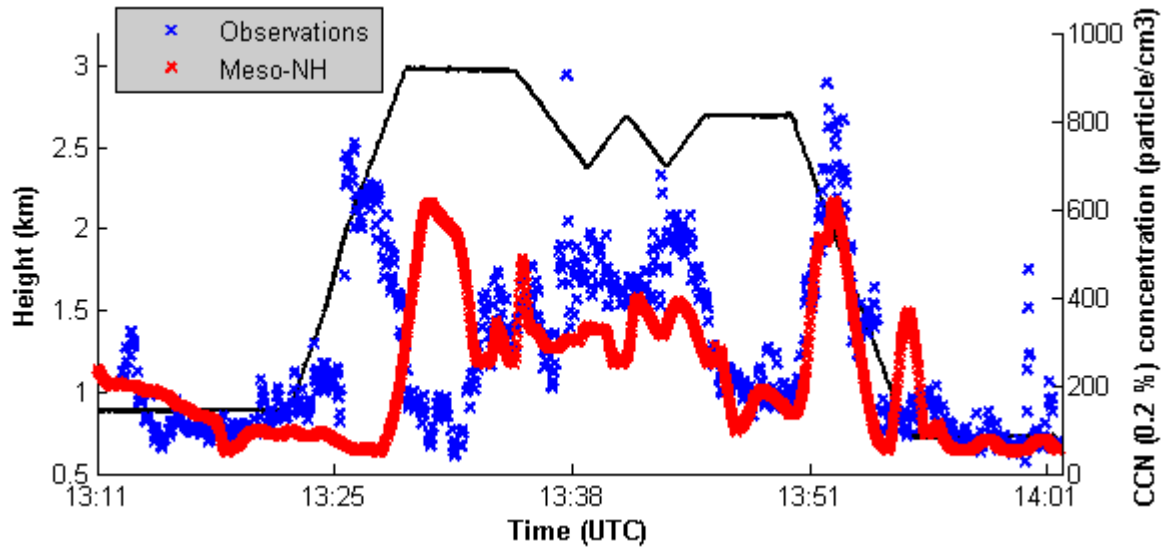


2 **Figure 10:** Evolution of (a) ammonium, (b) sulfate, (c) nitrate and (d) OC mass concentration  
3 ( $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ ) obtained from AMS measurements (blue solid line) and simulated (red dashed line)  
4 over Cabauw between 25 and 30 May 2008

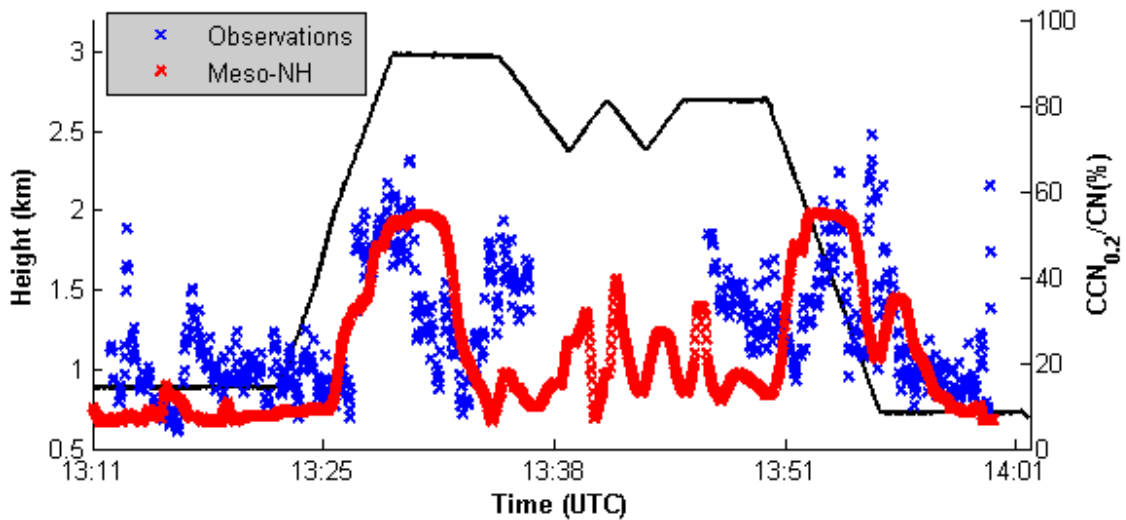
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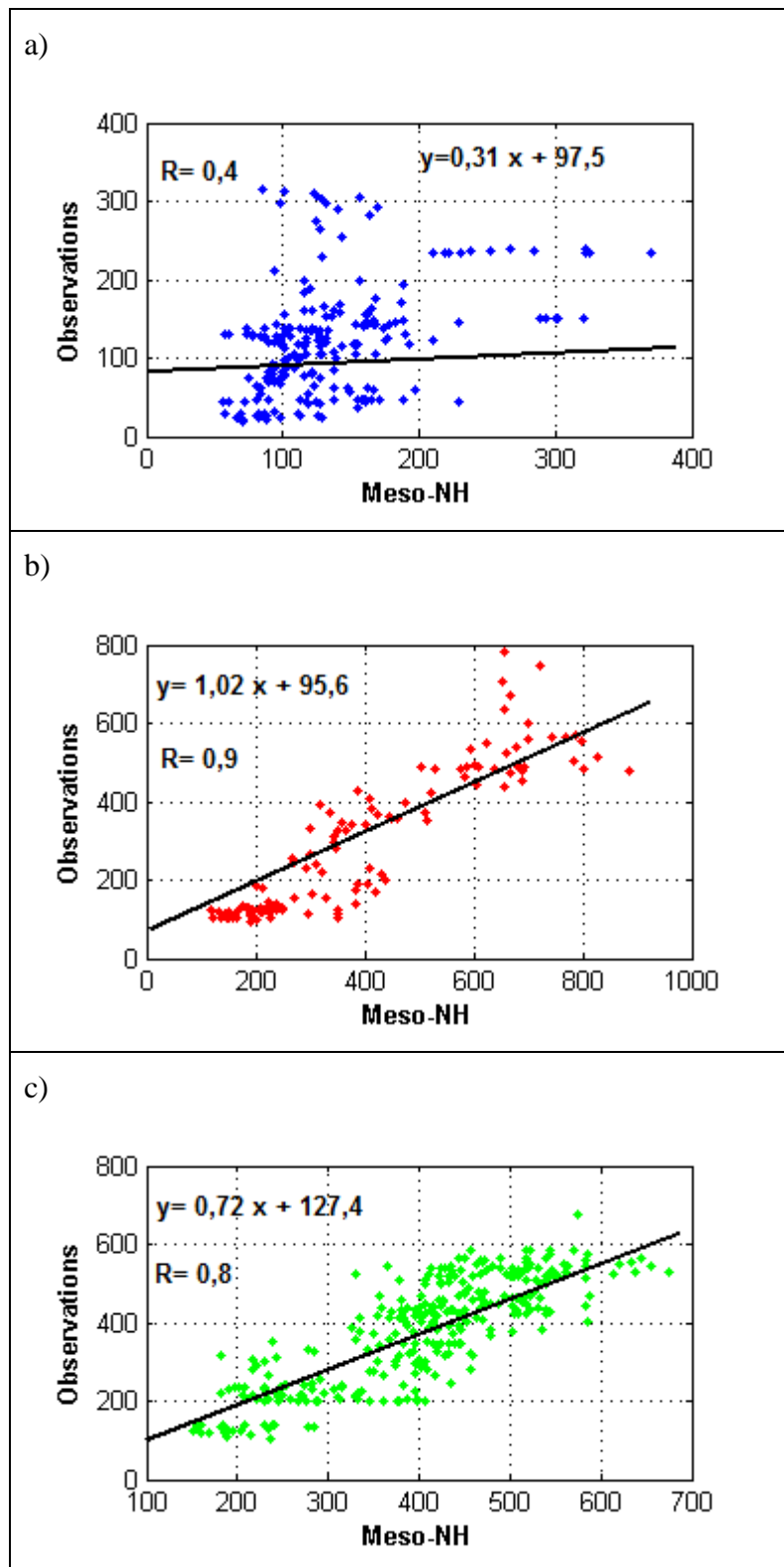
a)



b)



2 **Figure 11:** Evolution of (a) the CCN concentration and (b) the  $N_{\text{CCN}}/N_{\text{CN}}$  ratio at 0.2 %  
3 supersaturation obtained from CCNC and CN concentration (blue line) and calculated from  
4 the simulation (red line) *over the Netherlands between (52.57°N; 6.34°E) and (51.88°N;*  
5 *4.99°E) on 30 May 2008* on 30 May 2008. The black line indicates the height of the aircraft.

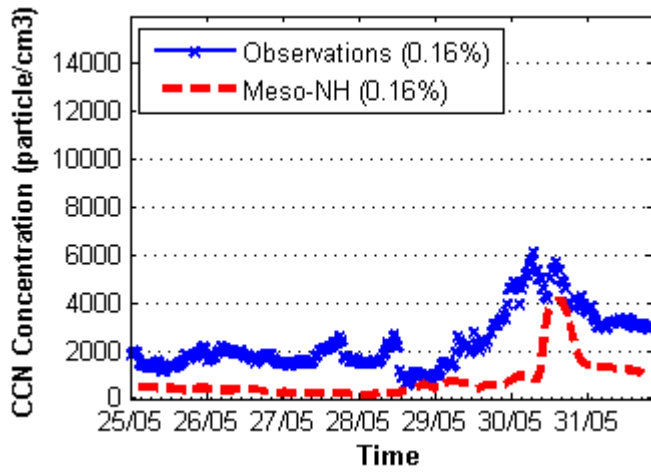


1 **Figure 12** : Scatterplot of the CCN evolution during the flight of the ATR-42 at (a) 0.5-0.9  
 2 km, (b) 1-2.4 km and (c) 2.5-3 km on 30 May 2008 over the Netherlands between (52.57°N;  
 3 6.34°E) and (51.88°N; 4.99°E).

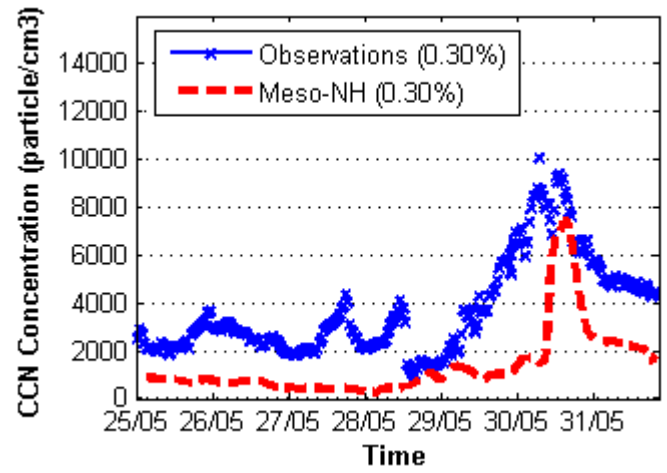
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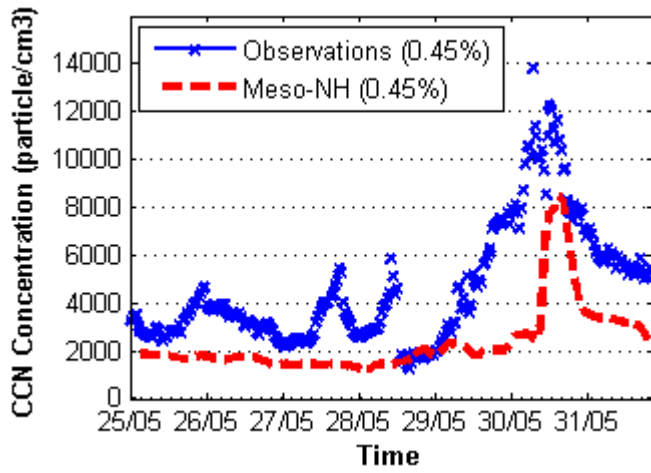
a)



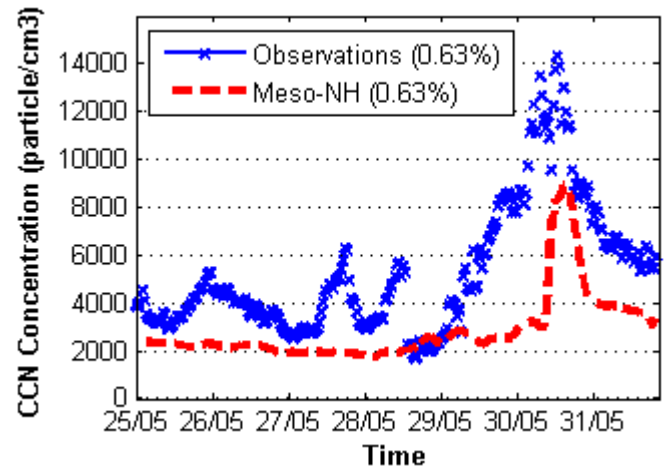
b)



c)



d)



2 **Figure 13:** Evolution of the CCN concentration at water vapor supersaturation of (a) 0.16%,  
3 (b) 0.30%, (c) 0.45% and (d) 0.63% measured (blue line) and calculated from the simulation  
4 (red line) at Cabauw between 25 and 30 May 2008.

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