

1 Response to Anonymous Referee #1 comments

2
3 Overall, the manuscript presents a thorough analysis of four biomass burning events monitored
4 in Finokalia station. Plumes are measured by their particle numbers, sizes, chemistry, CCN
5 activity and hygroscopicity, making it possible to assess the climatic impacts of these biomass
6 burning (BB) aerosols. However, the manuscript does not give any quantitative information
7 about these BB events impact for climate, rather it satisfies with reassuring the previous
8 observations on the organics aerosols impacts on aerosol hygroscopicity. As such, its originality
9 is not very high, yet in Introduction the authors promise “The originality of this study relies on
10 the fact that... very few studies focus on hygroscopicity of ambient biomass burning aerosol
11 for a range of atmospheric aging, which is addressed here”. This indeed is very interesting and
12 I find the manuscript well written and important, yet I would hope to see slightly deeper analysis
13 of the background conditions for each of the events, to give the manuscript the originality it
14 deserves. Below are my detailed suggestions which I hope the authors would address before
15 manuscript publication in ACP.

16
17 *Response: We thank the reviewer for the well-articulated and thoughtful arguments. Our*
18 *analysis was approached in view of these concerns to include more information about the fire*
19 *events, which will help with the aspects of aging and atmospheric processing of the plumes. We*
20 *have further elaborated on these points in the revision for clarity. In order to strengthen the*
21 *aspect of the direct impact of biomass burning, we have included a section on calculations of*
22 *potential droplet number in marine boundary layer clouds formed over Finokalia. The focus of*
23 *the analysis is on the relative impact of BBOA CCN on CDNC, supersaturation and the*
24 *contributions of aerosol number and hygroscopicity on the resulting CDNC. Below is our*
25 *response to the comments raised in italics.*

26
27 General comments:

28
29 1) Aging of the BB plumes is mentioned many times, and terminology such as “aged” or
30 “freshly-emitted” BB aerosol are used. Yet, it’s not very clear what are the criteria for more or
31 less aged, or fresh, plumes? Also no information on transport conditions (how many hours air
32 masses traveled, on what time of day and over which route) is given, nor any information on
33 the type of fires (grass, forest, soil type). As current, it seems the age of each plume is rather
34 deduced based on measured aerosol quantities, even if vice versa, the BB plume age should be
35 predetermined. Could the authors clearly state how the age of each plume and BB aerosol was
36 determined, and analyse the impact of this aging on each of the remaining measured quantities
37 (as promised in introduction)?

38
39 *Response: All the information concerning the fire events are given in detail in the publication*
40 *of Bougiatioti et al. (2014) (ACP). In this publication we wanted to focus on the hygroscopicity*
41 *and the CCN during these events. Nevertheless, we will try including some more information*
42 *on the issues raised by the anonymous referee in the revised version of the manuscript.*

43
44 See page 24, lines 1076-1082 of the current file

45
46 2) In many occasions the manuscript analysis the “change” of observed aerosol quantities
47 caused by BB emissions (e.g. 21551 lines 1-2 and 12-15 and 21-23; 21552 lines 1-2; 21555
48 lines 5-6; etc.). However, it’s not always very clear what is the reference point? Measured
49 values prior to BB events, in the beginning of the events, or something else? Could this be more
50 clearly stated? Also, is the reference point relevant for the current location, or representing e.g
51 typical conditions at Finokalia? Do the air masses remain unchanged over the course of each of
52 the events or may these play a role in observed changes?

54 *Response: Good point. As a reference point, the averaged data from at least 6 hours of data*
55 *prior to the arrival of the plume time are taken. This will be clarified in the revised text. Prior*
56 *to the events, conditions are regarded as characteristic for a background site as Finokalia.*

57

58 See page 26, lines 1141-1143 of the current file

59

60 Minor comments:

61

62 p. 21552 lines 1-2: Authors state that CCN concentrations increase during the majority of the
63 BB events. I find it very surprising if during a BB event, CCN concentrations are not
64 increasing? Was the site affected by some other aerosol sources on those times when
65 concentrations did not increase (compared to reference)?

66

67 *Response: The increase of the CCN concentrations during the BB events was more pronounced,*
68 *depending on the proximity of the fire and therefore, the travel time of the air masses. The only*
69 *case when concentrations did not increase considerably was the event from Croatia, when air*
70 *masses had a travel time of around 16h before reaching the station. Probably air masses were*
71 *more diluted therefore the effect the biomass burning event had on CCN concentrations was*
72 *less intense. This will be clarified in the revised text.*

73

74 See page 26, lines 1139-1157 of the current file

75

76 p. 21553 line 24-25; 21557 lines 1-2 and lines 18-19: Slightly confusing and mixed information
77 is given on observed particle internal/external mixing states. Could the authors check that all
78 this information is consistent?

79

80 *Response: We would like to thank the reviewer for pointing out this inconsistency. Indeed, for*
81 *the HTDMA the majority of the data exhibited unimodal distributions, apart from the data*
82 *during the arrival of the smoke plumes. The confusing sentence that bimodal distributions were*
83 *not taken into account for this specific study is referring to the comparison between kappa*
84 *values derived from both the CFSTGC and the HTDMA, which will be clarified in the text. Also*
85 *the statement that “all selected particle fractions were internally mixed” is modified according*
86 *to the rest of the findings in the manuscript.*

87

88 See page 31, lines 1397-1403 of the current file

89

90 p. 21555 line 25: Authors say that aging of smaller particles takes longer than aging of larger
91 particles. Maybe so, but in this case, how they rule out e.g. a possibility that these smallest
92 particles were not just born later by a secondary route, but are actually from the same source?

93

94 *Response: Good point. We do not rule out the possibility that the smallest particles were not*
95 *formed later by a secondary route, it is a suggestion that the aging of smaller particles takes*
96 *longer than aging of larger particles. Indeed, because of the difference in mass and interface*
97 *with the gas phase, larger particles would age later than smaller ones. The text has been*
98 *modified accordingly.*

99

100 See pages 30-31, lines 1353-1368 of the current file

101

102 p. 21563 lines 8-9: Importance of coagulation vs. condensation could also be calculated by a
103 dynamical model, having all this information the authors have. Would this support the
104 statement that for 60 nm particles coagulation is dominant over condensation?

105

106 *Response: We do agree that the discussion on the importance of coagulation vs. condensation*
107 *needs strengthening and this is why the variance of the chemical composition of each particle*

108 *size is now included in the revised version of the manuscript. According to Jacobson (2002)*
109 *and numerical simulations, coagulation internally mixes a greater fraction of larger particles*
110 *than smaller particles, and condensation increases the fractional coating of small particles*
111 *more than it does large particles. The route of secondary formation of the smaller particles*
112 *during the transport of the smoke is now also added in the text.*

113

114 [See pages 30-31, lines 1353-1368 of the current file](#)

115

116 p. 21561 lines 1-2: Is kappa(BBOA) factor from ACSM seen to coincide with the occurrence
117 of less-hygroscopic mode seen in HTDMA?

118

119 ***Response:** In general, the occurrence of two modes of different hygroscopicity seen by the*
120 *HTDMA was not very frequent, but all of them occurred during the arrival of the smoke and*
121 *indeed the derived κ_{BBOA} is very close to the kappa of the less hygroscopic mode seen by*
122 *the HTDMA.*

123

124 [See page 35, lines 1541-1544 of the current file](#)

125

126 Typo: 2nd sentence of summary has repetition.

127

128 ***Response:** Done, the repeated sentence is deleted.*

129

130

131 *Jacobson, M.Z.: Analysis of aerosol interactions with numerical techniques for solving*
132 *coagulation, nucleation, condensation, dissolution, and reversible chemistry among multiple*
133 *size distributions, J. Geophys. Res.: Atmospheres, 107, D19, 4366,*
134 *doi:10.1029/2001JD002044, 2002.*

135

Response to Anonymous Referee #2 comments

The paper by A. Bougiatioti is presenting a study on the hygroscopicity and CCN properties changes of aerosols when biomass burning (BB) events are transported to the Finokalia site. The study is focused on a two or three months period (which is not very clear) when four BB events occurred. Although the retrieval of the hygroscopic properties of BB aerosols would be interesting to the scientific community, there are many (major) points that have to be clarified before the manuscript is considered for publication:

(1) there is a need to better describe the statistical analyses used. A careful statistical analysis of the aerosol properties when they are not affected by BB (including their variability over the period chosen) compared to the change in these properties when the plume is sampled at the site (the choice of the boundary of the plume is important: how is this performed? Is it based on the BBOA derived from the PMF, or BC? Is there a threshold used and on which parameter?) is needed. Then, within the plume, the methodology for separating the fraction of aerosols, which are originating from the BB event and their properties from ambient aerosols that have mixed along the transport path is not very clear. Can the external mixing information from the HTDMA data and the PMF analysis be combined to compute an increase of CN and CCN number concentrations due to the contribution of BB aerosols? Can this be compared to the increase of CCN number computed with the first approach (comparison of outside vs inside the plume)? Which multivariable regression analysis is used to retrieve the different organic fraction hygroscopicity parameter? What are the uncertainties?

Response: We thank the anonymous referee for the thoughtful review. Most of the issues raised were also concerns of the other anonymous referees therefore we have further elaborated on these points in the revision manuscript. Nevertheless, all the details concerning the identification and source apportionment of the organic aerosol are provided in the separate publication of Bougiatioti et al. (2014). On the other hand, more details concerning the multivariable regression analysis to retrieve the hygroscopicity parameter of each fraction will be provided in the revised version of the manuscript.

[See page 34, lines 1521-1523 and 1536-1538 of the current file](#)

(2) There are inconsistencies in the data set. Even though average kappa's derived from HTDMA and CCN measurements agree within 30% over the whole period (Table 2), a simple reading of Fig6 and Fig7 shows that the discrepancy can be much higher over smaller periods. This needs to be better commented.

Response: Indeed overall kappas derived from the HTDMA and CCN agree within 30%. Differences larger than 30% in kappa values derived by the CCNC or the HTDMA are probably caused by the following reasons:

1) HTDMA detects all sampled particles including the hydrophobic ones (i.e. $GF=1$; $\kappa=0$). On the other hand CCNC will detect only activated particles. In cases of coexisting hygroscopic and hydrophobic, externally mixed, populations κ_{HTDMA} (i.e., the average kappa value which is representative of the hygroscopic properties of the entire sampled particle population) accounts for both (c.f. equation 6 in the manuscript), while only activated particles are accounted in the determination of κ_{CCN} .

2) The hygroscopic parameter of the organic fraction may differ in sub- and super-saturated conditions (e.g. Henning et al., 2012; Chan, M. N., & Chan, C. K, 2007; Wex et al., 2009; Dusek et al, 2011).

Another possibility is that the particles originated from biomass burning may, among others, include surfactants, which influence the discrepancies between the κ -HTDMA and κ -CFSTGC

187 values.
188 Furthermore, water adsorption on nearly hydrophobic particles will be more pronounced at
189 super-than in sub-saturated conditions. In the case of the larger sampled particles, this may
190 lead to their activation and detection by the CCNC, thus increasing the difference between
191 κ_{CCN} and $\overline{\kappa_{HTDMA}}$ derived values.

192
193 [See page 32, lines 1409-1422 and lines 1438-1442 of the current file](#)
194

195 (3) The global impact of the results is not very clear:
196 a. the impact on atmospheric chemistry of the water contained in the organic fraction of the
197 aerosol should be better evaluated: what is the increase of LWC due to organic BB aerosols
198 compared to the LWC that the whole aerosol population would contain (actually, only the
199 contribution of BB organic aerosols relative to the total organic content is evaluated)? Would
200 this increase in LWC really favour chemical reactions that would not have taken place?

201
202 *Response: The role and impact of LWC is the focus of a different publication on its own*
203 *(Nikolaou et al., 2015, ACPD) but the contribution of biomass burning aerosol to the total*
204 *organic water of the aerosol is mentioned due to the possible atmospheric implications.*
205

206 [See Section 3.8 page 35 of the current file for the droplet calculations](#)
207

208 b. The same is true for the direct impact: what is the contribution of BB aerosol liquid content
209 compared to the rest of the population?

210
211 *Response: In order to strengthen the aspect of the direct impact of biomass burning, we have*
212 *included a section on calculations of potential droplet number in marine boundary layer clouds*
213 *formed over Finokalia. The focus of the analysis is on the relative impact of BBOA CCN on*
214 *CDNC, supersaturation and the contributions of aerosol number and hygroscopicity on the*
215 *resulting CDNC. Overall, it seems that there are differences in the droplet number*
216 *concentrations, impacted by both the distance and from the intensity of the events. The higher*
217 *the proximity, the lowest the contribution of the chemistry (kappa) to the droplet formation. As*
218 *the distance grows higher, the concentrations get lower due to dilution, and the influence of the*
219 *chemical composition gets higher.*
220

221 [See Section 3.8 page 35 of the current file for the droplet calculations](#)
222

223 c. The impact on the total number of CCN is not clear neither, as the paper is showing changes
224 in CCN number at variable supersaturations. What is the increase of CCN number due to BB at a
225 given supersaturation?

226
227 *Response: For all the fire events, CCN concentrations are provided at the point of critical flow,*
228 *corresponding to a critical supersaturation, as explained in detail in the Methodology section.*
229 *Within each fire event, critical supersaturation for e.g. 120 nm particles was 0.14 ± 0.03 for the*
230 *Eufoea event, or for the 100 nm particles was 0.19 ± 0.03 for the same event. Therefore it is*
231 *expected that the differences in CCN concentration number are caused by the presence of the*
232 *BB plume, rather than the different supersaturation.*
233

234 [See page 26, lines 1156-1161 of the current file](#)
235

236 Detailed comments are given below:
237

238 Page 21542, lines 23-25 : “Laboratory and field studies suggest that the water-soluble
239 component of biomass burning aerosol is highly hygroscopic, about half of ammonium sulfate”.

240 Not clear what half of ammonium sulfate is related to. Is half of BB aerosol ammonium sulfate
241 ? to reformulate

242

243 *Response: Indeed, the “about half of ammonium sulfate” refers to the hygroscopicity*
244 *parameter kappa, the text now reads “...is highly hygroscopic, with a hygroscopicity parameter*
245 *about half of that of ammonium sulfate”.*

246

247 [See page 18, lines 812-814 of the current file](#)

248

249 Page 21549, line 23, I suppose the authors mean 18 august 2012 and not 1992

250

251 *Response: Indeed. Amended.*

252

253 figure 2c : Caliop shows that the smoke is travelling at higher latitude than the finokalia station
254 right ? does this imply that the contribution of BB aerosol to the global mass loading is
255 underestimated from the ground-based in situ measurements?

256

257 *Response: The Caliop overpass over Crete, on 19 August 2012 between 00:27–00:40 and*
258 *11:34–11:47 UTC, is NW of the Finokalia station (Fig. 2a). For the 00:27–00:40 UTC time*
259 *slot, based on the Caliop data (Fig. 2c), we can clearly see the presence of smoke aerosols*
260 *mixed with the prevailing polluted dust and marine aerosols in the first 3 km height of the lower*
261 *troposphere. This implies that for this time slot, the BB aerosols sampled by the ground-based*
262 *in situ measurements at Finokalia would contribute less (due to dilution) to the global aerosol*
263 *mass loading than, if measured, over the Western Crete. The text has been rephrased to*
264 *“According to this classification, over Western Crete the presence of polluted dust (mixed with*
265 *smoke and marine aerosols) prevails within the marine boundary layer, which for Finokalia is*
266 *extending up to 0.8–1.2 km height, close to the mean value of 1 km reported by Kalivitis et al.*
267 *(2007). This implies that for the 00:27–00:40 UTC time slot, the BB aerosols sampled by*
268 *the ground-based in situ measurements at Finokalia would contribute less (due to dilution) to*
269 *the global aerosol mass loading than, if measured, over the Western Crete.”*

270

271 [See page 25, lines 1116-1118 of the current file](#)

272

273 Page 21550, line 23 could you recall what is “the whole measurement period”? it is not clear.

274

275 *Response: Amended.*

276

277 [See page 25, lines 1121-1122 of the current file](#)

278

279 Figure 3 : need more dates on the x axis

280

281 *Response: Amended.*

282

283 [See page 51 of the current file](#)

284

285 Page 21551, lines 1-2 : “the contribution of organics and BC increased substantially (from 34.9
286 to 46.5% for organics and from 6.1 to 9.5% for BC) with a simultaneous reduction of that of
287 sulfate” To which period is the increase of BC and organics relative to ? Are those really
288 substantial increases? What is the natural variability in organic and BC concentrations outside
289 the BB events? Are percentages really relevant ? (BC contribution would increase if other
290 components decrease, even if it stays constant.. ?) maybe absolute concentrations would be
291 useful as well here?

292

293 *Response: This increase refers to the observed average concentrations during all fire events,*
294 *compared to the rest of the timeseries. The percentages express the relative contribution of*
295 *each component to the total mass during these fire events. These increases are verified to be*
296 *caused by the presence of BB plumes as described in detail in Bougiatioti et al. (2014), both as*
297 *far as organics but also as BC is concerned, via source apportionment analysis. Especially for*
298 *BC, during all BB events there is a clear increase from the contribution of wood burning,*
299 *compared to that of fossil fuel.*

300

301 [See page 25, lines 1129-1133 of the current file](#)

302

303 Page 21551, line 12 can you precise which size range is considered as “larger particles”?

304

305 *Response: Amended. It refers to particles with diameter larger than 100 nm.*

306

307 [See page 26, lines 1149-1152 of the current file](#)

308

309 Page 21551, line 13-14 “concentrations exhibited an increase that for the case of the Chios fire
310 was around 65 %, for the Croatia fire around 50 %, the Euboea fire 88% and the Andros fire
311 around 150 %.” How was this determined? An increase relative to what ? to the mean
312 concentration over the larger period of measurement (from April to September) ? average
313 concentration during all BB events compared to the average concentration shown figure 3 (20
314 august to 18 sept) ?

315

316 *Response: The text refers to CCN concentrations higher than the ones before the arrival of the*
317 *smoke plume (average of around 6 hours). This will be clarified in the text.*

318

319 [See page 25, lines 1147-1149 of the current file](#)

320

321 Figure 4 : not easy to read : small and all lines are surimposed

322

323 *Response: The complexity of this figure with all the information that is included limits*
324 *somewhat the resolution of this figure. Nevertheless the readability is improved once the four*
325 *figures are placed in one column instead of two.*

326

327 [See pages 52-53 of the current file](#)

328

329 Page 21552, line 1-3 : “The data shown in Fig. 4 indicates that during the majority of the
330 identified biomass burning events, CCN concentrations for the larger particles sizes increase,
331 tracking the BBOA trend.” this is not really the case for the Croatia fire event.

332 I am not sure that you can really compare CCN number concentration for different sizes, since
333 they are given for different sursaturations? Larger particles CCN concentrations might increase
334 but if you need higher sursaturations for activating them, they might not contribute to the
335 relevant CCN number concentration if the needed supersaturations needed to activate them are
336 not realistic. In my opinion, increases in CCN numbers should be evaluated at a given
337 supersaturation. If the goal of this discussion is to show that 100 nm particles concentrations
338 are increased in the smoke plume, than it is easier to simply evaluate the increase of this size
339 range from the SMPS size distribution?

340

341 *Response: As mentioned in p.25551, lines 18-20, CCN concentrations are given at the point of*
342 *critical activation flow Q_{50} , corresponding to the instantaneous supersaturation for each*
343 *particle size. During the separate events, the derived critical supersaturations for a given*
344 *particle size did not vary by more than 13.6%, being less for the smaller particle sizes. This*
345 *information can be included in the revised text. The goal of the discussion is to show that smoke*
346 *plumes contain larger more CCN-active particles, not just more particles.*

347

348 [See page 26, lines 1161-1163 of the current file](#)

349

350 Page 21552, line 8 : two times “that”

351

352 *Response: Done.*

353

354 Page 21552, lines 12_16 : “It appears that when the BB event is combined with a NPF event
355 within a few hours, 60nm particles are strongly influenced and their CCN concentrations
356 increase considerably. A detailed discussion on these events and their contribution to CCN
357 concentrations is provided by Kalivitis et al. (2015).” Could you shortly give the conclusions
358 from the Kalivitis paper ? Is NPF unambiguously associated to BB event (favoured by BB
359 events) ? If NPF is occurring anyway (independatly of the presence of a BB plume), it should
360 be mentioned otherwise the reader is mislead into the idea that the 60 nm CCN concentration
361 increase is due to the presence of the BB plume.

362

363 *Response: This is a good point. The goal was not to suggest that the 60 nm CCN concentration*
364 *occurs from the BB plume, rather than to explain that the increase coincides with a NPF event.*
365 *The exact mechanism for NPF is not known, therefore it is not unambiguously favored by BB*
366 *events. If that were true, all events would be followed by NPF, which is not the case. It is merely*
367 *the combination of the two we wanted to point out.*

368

369 [See page 27, lines 1184-1204 of the current file](#)

370

371 Page 21552, lines 25-28 : “First of all, it can be seen that apart from the 60nm particles, the
372 remaining sizes appear to be unaffected by the presence of smoke, as their activation fractions
373 at supersaturation levels as low as 0.4% remain, more or less, stable and very close to unity
374 throughout the events.” Are the CCN concentrations again a function of supersaturation or are
375 they given for a given supersaturation? there are no indication of the supersaturation on figure
376 5, to relate to the comments mentioning them in the text.

377

378 *Response: The activation fractions are derived from the asymptote of the fitting to a sigmoidal*
379 *function of the CCN/CN ratio during each supersaturation cycle and is therefore representative*
380 *for high supersaturations (ss>0.6%). This is the case for all data, for all particle sizes. This*
381 *will be clarified in the revised text.*

382

383 [See page 27, lines 1220-1222 of the current file](#)

384

385 Page 21554, lines 10-12 : “Most of the accumulation mode particles result from condensation
386 of secondary sulfates, nitrates and organics from the gas phase and coagulation of smaller
387 particles (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006)” Accumulation mode particles can also originate from
388 primary emission processes (combustion, but also marine aerosols have a large contribution (by
389 number) in the accumulation mode) those can contribute to the particles hygroscopicity while
390 not being measured by the ACSM.

391

392 *Response: Good point. In order to examine contribution by constituents not measured by the*
393 *ACSM to the accumulation mode particles we compared the mass derived from the ACSM+BC*
394 *and the integrated volume distribution from the SMPS converted to mass. During the examined*
395 *fire events, the ACSM-BC was on average 68.6±19.3% of the SMPS-derived mass. Therefore*
396 *this is an indication that indeed, part of the accumulation mode particles that may contribute*
397 *to the particles’ hygroscopicity during these events, are not being measured by the ACSM. The*
398 *text will be changed accordingly to include this difference in mass and the different origin of*
399 *accumulation mode particles that may contribute to the particles’ hygroscopicity.*

400

401 [See page 29, lines 1297-1303 of the current file](#)

402
403 Page 21555, lines 21-25 : “It is immediately apparent that the chemical dispersion is reduced
404 with increasing particle size. 60nm particles exhibit the highest dispersion and especially the
405 ones from the Chios fire, suggesting that the smaller particles retain their characteristics for a
406 longer period and their aging takes longer than for the larger particles.” There is no indication
407 earlier in the manuscript that 60 nm particles are actually originating from BB emissions. There
408 is no size segregated chemical analysis to show this. Would there be other indication that they
409 are?

410
411 *Response: Based on the derived kappa values for each particle size and the chemical*
412 *composition from the ACSM, the volume fractions for organics and inorganics (mainly*
413 *ammonium sulfate) were estimated for each particle size. It occurs that 60 nm particles are, on*
414 *average, 89% composed of organics (the respective values for 80, 100 and 120 nm particles*
415 *are 70, 50 and 41%). As the main constituent during those events is the biomass burning (both*
416 *BBOA and OOA_BB) then most probably the 60 nm particles are indeed originating from BB*
417 *emissions. This information will be added in the revised manuscript.*

418
419 [See page 29, lines 1289-1294 of the current file](#)

420
421 Page 21555, lines 14-27 : isn't it possible that the dispersion on kappa value also reflects the
422 mixing with other aerosol types than the BB ones and not only processing of the BB aerosol ?
423 The BB plume does not contain only processed (or fresh) BB but other pollution/natural
424 aerosol. The history of the air mass before arrival to the sampling site is mainly determining
425 how the BB is diluted into other aerosol types.

426
427 *Response: Based on the aforementioned comment, the chemical dispersion of kappa values*
428 *within the 60 and 80 nm particles, which are mostly composed of organics, is mostly due to the*
429 *processing of the BB aerosol. For the larger particles, indeed, chemical dispersion may be also*
430 *due to mixing with other types of aerosol. It all depends on which type of aerosol prevails in*
431 *the volume fractions and interacts, thus, with the other types of aerosol. This will be added*
432 *along with the estimate of the composition of each particle size.*

433
434 [See page 30, lines 1356-1372 of the current file](#)

435
436 Page 21556, lines 1-4 : “This behaviour of the small particles... coagulation mostly occurs for
437 smaller particles and increases the external mixing of those particles by bringing together
438 particles of different nature.” I don't see the link between this sentence and the previous one.
439 Which behavior of the small particles are the authors referring to? Coagulation creates internal
440 mixing, external mixing is when the different chemical components are on different particles
441 of the same size. The whole paragraph (until line 25) is confusing, and based on speculation on
442 coagulation/condensation that ignore mixing with other particle type during transport.

443
444 *Response: “This behavior” is referring to the increased chemical dispersion that the 60 nm*
445 *particles exhibit. The sentence will be changed accordingly for clarification in the revised text.*
446 *Nevertheless, all reviewers have raised the same issue on the interpretation of the results based*
447 *on coagulation/condensation. We do agree, that the most probable process that justifies the*
448 *obtained results is the formation of the smaller particles during the transit by secondary aerosol*
449 *formation from condensation of mostly organic components (which is seen by the large mass*
450 *fraction of organics in the smaller particles sizes, as already mentioned). We would like to*
451 *thank all the reviewers for the scientific quality amelioration of our study. The whole discussion*
452 *we be changed accordingly in the revised text.*

453
454 [See page 30, lines 1356-1372 of the current file](#)

455 Page 21556, lines 26-27: “During the focus period...” Do you mean outside BB events?

456

457 *Response: The sentence corresponds to the time periods of the BB events as well as few days*
458 *before and after the events.*

459

460 [See page 31, lines 1400-1402 of the current file](#)

461

462 Page 21557, lines 9-11 : “Given that the solution of the resulting droplets may be non-ideal, the
463 constituents may be partially soluble and the phases may not be completely separated, it is not
464 surprising that the HTDMA-derived kappa_HTDMA values are somewhat lower” which
465 droplets ? Non ideality would account for more than 30% discrepancy?

466

467 *Response: For ambient particles, a difference of 30% between kappa-CFSTGC and kappa-*
468 *HTDMA are common. In the study of Wu et al. (2013) κ derived from CCN measurements was*
469 *around 30% (varying with particle diameter) higher than that determined from hygroscopic*
470 *growth measurements. This is attributed to the fact that both, substance individual and mixture*
471 *κ values at 86% RH are often significantly lower than those for higher RHs and under*
472 *supersaturated conditions (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007). Apart from non ideality of the*
473 *solution, the presence of surfactants produced during biomass burning events may also*
474 *increase the discrepancies between κ -HTDMA and κ -CCN. This will also be added in the*
475 *revised text. Overall, differences between κ values obtained from CCNc and HTDMA*
476 *measurements are still under investigation in laboratory experiments. Pinpointing the exact*
477 *reason of these discrepancies, in the current study, is rather difficult as we lack the exact*
478 *chemical composition of the studied particles.*

479

480 [See page 32, lines 1412-1445 of the current file](#)

481

482 Page 21557, lines 16-18 “During the two most intense fire events where the smoke plume had
483 the least transit and atmospheric processing time (i.e. during the Chios and Euboea fire) all sizes
484 exhibited two different hygroscopic modes (Tables 3 and 4; Fig. S3 in the Supplement).” This
485 feature clearly indicates that BB particles were externally mixed with particles of other origins,
486 and that a direct link between the dispersion of kappa and ageing can not be drawn, right?

487

488 *Response: As mentioned further on in the text, these two different hygroscopic modes can be*
489 *due to the presence of freshly emitted particles and more processed ones, rather than particles*
490 *of other origin. Positive Matrix Factorization analysis does not recognize any other possible*
491 *factors e.g. traffic and air masses have not traveled over Greek mainland to be influenced by*
492 *other major sources. Therefore there is a direct link between the ageing of particles which is*
493 *reflected in the changes in kappa.*

494

495 Figure 7 (compared to figure 6) : the hygroscopicity parameters derived from the HTDMA
496 decrease with increasing particle size (fig 7), while it was the opposite for CCN-derived kappas
497 (fig 6). Can you comment on this ? For the 120 nm particles kappa derived from both techniques
498 disagree by far more than the 30 % mentioned in the text and calculated as an average Table 2
499 (could be a factor 4 between the two differently derived kappa's!)

500

501 *Response: This is a good point. The kappas derived from the CFSTGC are derived from the*
502 *particles that are activated in the instrument. On the other hand, the HTDMA measures under*
503 *sub-saturated conditions particles that are not “seen” by the CCN chamber; if some particles*
504 *do not grow they are directly assigned with a growth factor equal to one (i.e. $\kappa=0$), subsequently*
505 *reducing considerably the derived kappa value. 60 nm particles will activate (if they actually*
506 *do activate) at higher supersaturations and be detected by the CFSTGC. On the other hand*
507 *they are all counted by the HTDMA. 120 nm particles activate at lower supersaturations but*

508 *as they are, in most of the cases, internal mixtures of more and less hygroscopic matter, their*
509 *κ-HTDMA will be significantly lower.*

510

511 [See page 32, lines 1412-1445 of the current file](#)

512

513 Page 21557, line 21: “These distinct modes were not observed during the rest of the events”
514 Were not observed during the other two events?

515

516 *Response: Amended. The text now reads “These distinct modes were not observed during the*
517 *other two events, probably due to ...”.*

518

519 [See page 32, lines 1432-1433 of the current file](#)

520

521 Page 21557, line 29: “Adler et al. had also observed...” This does not necessarily mean that the
522 second larger mode that you observe is entirely due to BBOA.

523

524 *Response: We never said that the second larger mode is entirely due to BBOA, this is why we*
525 *say that it is “probably freshly emitted...in combination with larger, more processed ones”.*
526 *For clarification we will rephrase to “which can be partially due to the presence of freshly*
527 *emitted....”.*

528

529 [See page 32, lines 1446-1448 of the current file](#)

530

531 Page 21560, line 26: the multivariable regression analysis should be described

532

533 *Response: The multivariable regression analysis is performed within the excel environment.*
534 *The overall observed hygroscopicity parameter is assumed to be the linear combination of the*
535 *different components:*

$$536 \quad \kappa_{CCN} = \varepsilon_{inorg} \kappa_{inorg} + \varepsilon_{BBOA} \kappa_{BBOA} + \varepsilon_{OOA_BB} \kappa_{OOA_BB} + \varepsilon_{OOA} \kappa_{OOA}$$

537 *where κ_i are the hygroscopicity parameters of the main aerosol constituents and ε_i the*
538 *respective mass fractions. At each data point during the fire events one equation is obtained*
539 *thus a set of 228 equations is obtained for all the dataset. More details concerning the*
540 *confidence level, the standard error for each variable and p-value will be provided in the text.*

541

542 [See page 34, lines 1519-1524 of the current file](#)

543

544 Page 21561, line 13-14: Finally, it seems that the biomass burning organic aerosol becomes
545 more hygroscopic, by almost a factor 2, with atmospheric processing” Is this conclusion derived
546 from the comparison of the kappa_BBOA with the kappa_OOA-BB?

547

548 *Response: This is correct. Based on our analysis $\kappa_{BBOA}=0.057$ and $\kappa_{OOA_BB}=0.138$.*

549

550 Page 21561, line 15: “Using average diurnal profiles...” Were these average performed over the
551 4 BB events? The figure should show the standard variation.

552

553 *Response: Good point. The average diurnal profiles are derived for the whole measurement*
554 *period. Standard deviation in the form of error bars is added to Figure 8.*

555

556 [See page 57 of the current file](#)

557

558 Page 21562, lines 7-9 : two times “for the most intense event”

559

560 *Response: Amended.*

561

562 Page 21563, line 14-15: "...larger particles appear not to be affected as far as their CCN-activity
563 is concerned". This contradicts p21562 line 21: "hygroscopicity decreases for all sizes"

564

565 *Response: The first part for larger particles' CCN activity refers to the activation fractions and*
566 *not to the hygroscopicity. This will be clarified in the text.*

567

568 [See page 27, lines 1220-1229 of the current file](#)

569

570

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579

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582 *and droplet activation of soot particles: uncoated, succinic or sulfuric acid coated. Atmos.*
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584

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587 *hygroscopic growth and activation for secondary organic aerosol: Part 1 – Evidence from*
588 *measurements, Atmos Chem. Phys., 9, 3987-3997, 2009.*

589

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591 *Spindler, G., Müller, K., Stratmann, F., Herrmann, H., and Wiedensohler, A.: Relating particle*
592 *hygroscopicity and CCN activity to chemical composition during the HCCT-2010 field*
593 *campaign, Atmos. Chem. Phys., 13, 7983-7996, 2013.*

594

595

596 **Response to Anonymous Referee #3 comments**

597

598 The paper presents case studies of aerosol hygroscopicity and CCN-activity as recorded at the
599 Finokalia measurement station in the presence of biomass burning influence from Greece or
600 Croatia. While not revolutionary, the paper presents useful data on the hygroscopicity of
601 ambient aerosol particles, and the analysis and discussion presented are generally reasonable. I
602 therefore recommend publication in ACP after the following, mostly technical, comments have
603 been addressed satisfactorily.

604

605 *Response: We thank the anonymous referee for the thoughtful review. Most of the issues raised*
606 *were also concerns of the anonymous referee #2 therefore we have further elaborated on these*
607 *points in the revision manuscript. Finally, in order to strengthen the aspect of the direct impact*
608 *of biomass burning, we have included a section on calculations of potential droplet number in*
609 *marine boundary layer clouds formed over Finokalia. The focus of the analysis is on the relative*
610 *impact of BBOA CCN on CDNC, supersaturation and the contributions of aerosol number and*
611 *hygroscopicity on the resulting CDNC.*

612

613 [See Section 3.8, pages 35-37 of the current file](#)

614

615 General / major comments:

616

617 1. The authors present the plume from the Balkans as a representative case of more aged
618 biomass burning aerosol. This is certainly true, but it is also possible that the type of biomass
619 burned at the Balkans can be different from the Greek plumes. It is well known that the
620 properties of biomass burning aerosol from different types of fuels can differ significantly, so
621 I would expect it to be difficult to separate the effect of ageing vs. the type of fuel being burned.
622 The authors should comment on this. In general, the generalizability of the reported results to
623 areas outside the eastern Mediterranean should be discussed in the manuscript.

624

625 *Response: We never said that the type of biomass burning at different locations is the same;*
626 *indeed, a detailed analysis of the different kind of each fire event spectra can be found in the*
627 *study of Bougiatioti et al. (2014) and the respective supplementary material. Nevertheless, in*
628 *that study the organic aerosol derived mainly from the aging of the biomass burning aerosol*
629 *(OOA-BB) had a similar profile, regardless of the BBOA it was derived from. What we wanted*
630 *to point out was the effect that aging and atmospheric processing may have on the*
631 *hygroscopicity. Nevertheless, as pointed out by the other anonymous referees as well, more*
632 *details and information concerning the fire events will be given in the revised version of the*
633 *manuscript.*

634

635 [See page 24, lines 1075-1081 of the current file](#)

636

637 2. I am not convinced, at least based on the presented discussion, that the differences in
638 condensation and coagulation are the primary factors explaining the different mixing states of
639 the smaller and larger particles. Wouldn't it be a more plausible explanation that the smaller
640 particles that make their way to Finokalia have originated primarily from secondary sources
641 while the larger particles have a more important primary particle component? This smaller
642 variability in the sources of the smaller as compared with larger particles could also potentially
643 explain the observed smaller variability in the hygroscopicity distribution as well. In general,
644 the discussion of the coagulation and the condensation is unquantitative and thus sloppy, for
645 instance I suspect the authors in refer only to self-coagulation when they talk about
646 "coagulation" in general in the text. It is well known that coagulation is more efficient for
647 particles with different sizes, acting therefore primarily as a loss mechanism for the smaller
648 particles, while being similar to condensation from the perspective of the large particles. This

649 section of the discussion of the results on p. 21555-21556 needs to be revised, along with the
650 corresponding discussion in the conclusions section.

651

652 *Response: The issue about the differences in condensation/coagulation explaining the*
653 *differences in the mixing state of the different particle sizes is raised by all referees. We*
654 *completely agree that the path of secondary formation of the smaller particles during the*
655 *transport of the air masses is the most plausible explanation of the different mixing state. This*
656 *will be included in the discussion, along with the estimate of the composition of the different*
657 *particle sizes.*

658

659 [See pages 29-30, lines 1286-1303 of the current file](#)

660

661 Minor / technical comments:

662 3. When giving the kappa values throughout the manuscript (particularly in Tables 1- 3), please
663 pay attention to the number of significant digits given in light of experimental variability and
664 error. Is it really possible to constrain kappa within 0.001-0.01? If yes, please provide
665 justification why you think so.

666

667 *Response: Good point. The significant digits were derived from the statistical analysis of the*
668 *data. All kappa values are now provided with 2 significant digits.*

669

670 [See page 48 of the current file](#)

671

672 4. The quality of the figures is in many cases insufficient and the fonts and linewidths chosen
673 are too small. Please revise all figures keeping in mind the readability of the figures in typical
674 ACP print versions.

675

676 *Response: We would like to thank the reviewer for pointing out this issue. Depending on the*
677 *amount of information on each figure, fonts and linewidths will be the largest possible to ensure*
678 *good readability of the figures.*

679

680 5. P. 21541, line 12: Please quantify what you mean by “smaller” particles.

681

682 *Response: Good point. Done. The text now reads “particle sizes smaller than 80 nm”.*

683

684 6. P. 21541, line 23: “BBOA” not defined before used. Please revise.

685

686 *Response: Done.*

687

688 7. P. 21541, line 23: “enhancements” compared to what? Please clarify.

689

690 *Response: Done. The text now reads “..with enhanced CCN concentrations than the ones*
691 *before the arrival of the smoke plume, ranging between...”*

692

693 [See page 26, lines 1140-1142 of the current file](#)

694

695 8. P. 21542, line 20: “impact” -> impacting

696

697 *Response: Done.*

698

699 9. P. 21542, line 25: What do you mean by bb aerosol being “half of ammonium sulphate”? I
700 presume you mean the hygroscopicity parameter, but please clarify.

701

702 *Response: Done.*

703

704 [See page 18, lines 806-807 of the current file](#)

705

706 10. P. 21550, line 1: "CALPSO" -> CALIPSO

707

708 *Response: Done.*

709

710 ~~Influence of biomass burning on CCN number and~~
711 ~~hygroscopicity~~Biomass burning impact on CCN number,
712 hygroscopicity and cloud formation during summertime in the
713 ~~eastern~~Eastern Mediterranean

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729
730 **Abstract**

731 This study investigates the concentration, cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) activity and
732 hygroscopic properties of particles influenced by biomass burning in the eastern
733 Mediterranean and their impacts on cloud droplet formation. Air masses sampled were
734 subject to a range of atmospheric processing (several hours up to 3 days). Values of
735 the hygroscopicity parameter, κ , were derived from ~~cloud condensation nuclei (CCN)~~
736 measurements and a Hygroscopic Tandem Differential Mobility Analyzer (HTDMA). An
737 Aerosol Chemical Speciation Monitor (ACSM) was also used to determine the chemical
738 composition and mass concentration of non-refractory components of the submicron
739 aerosol fraction. During fire events, the increased organic content (and lower inorganic
740 fraction) of the aerosol decreases the hygroscopicity parameter, values of κ , for all
741 particle sizes. ~~The reason, however, for this decrease was not the same for all size~~
742 ~~modes; smaller particle sizes appeared to be richer in less hygroscopic, less CCN-active~~
743 ~~components due to coagulation processes while larger particles become less~~
744 ~~hygroscopic during the biomass burning events due to condensation of less~~
745 ~~hygroscopic gaseous compounds. In addition, smaller particles~~ Particle sizes smaller
746 than 80 nm exhibited considerable chemical dispersion (where hygroscopicity varied
747 up to 100% for particles of same size); larger particles, however, exhibited
748 considerably less dispersion owing to the effects of condensational growth and cloud
749 processing, aging and retained high levels of CCN activity. ~~These conclusions are~~
750 ~~further supported by the observed mixing state determined by the HTDMA~~
751 ~~measurements~~. ACSM measurements indicate that the bulk composition reflects the
752 hygroscopicity and chemical nature of the largest particles (having a diameter of ~100
753 nm at dry conditions) ~~and a large fraction of the CCN concentrations~~ sampled. Based
754 on Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF) analysis of the organic ACSM spectra, CCN
755 concentrations follow a similar trend with the BBOA-biomass burning organic aerosol

756 (BBOA) component, with enhancements of CCN the former being enhanced between
757 65 and 150% (for supersaturations ranging between 0.2 and 0.7%) with the arrival of
758 the smoke plumes in biomass burning plumes ranging between 65 and 150%, for
759 supersaturations ranging between 0.2 and 0.7%. Using multilinear regression of the
760 PMF factors (BBOA, OOA-BB and OOA) and the observed hygroscopicity parameter,
761 the inferred hygroscopicity of the oxygenated organic aerosol components is
762 determined. we determine the hygroscopicity of the prime organic aerosol components
763 (BBOA, OOA-BB and OOA); it is found that the total organic hygroscopicity is very
764 close to the inferred hygroscopicity of the oxygenated organic aerosol components.
765 Finally, We find that the transformation of freshly-emitted biomass burning (BBOA) to
766 more oxidized organic aerosol (OOA-BB) can result in a ~~two-fold~~twofold increase of
767 the inferred organic hygroscopicity.—; Almost about 10% of the total aerosol
768 hygroscopicity is related to the two biomass burning components (BBOA and OOA-
769 BB), which in turn contribute almost 35% to the fine-particle organic water of the
770 aerosol. ~~This is important as organic water can contribute to the atmospheric chemistry~~
771 ~~and the direct radiative forcing.~~ Observation-derived calculations of the cloud droplet
772 concentrations that develop for typical boundary layer clouds conditions suggest that
773 biomass burning increases droplet number, on average by 8.5%. The strongly
774 sublinear response of clouds to biomass burning (BB) influences is a result of strong
775 competition of CCN for water vapor, which results in very low maximum
776 supersaturation (0.08% on average). Attributing droplet number variations to the total
777 aerosol number and the chemical composition variations shows that the importance of
778 chemical composition increases with distance, contributing up to 25% of the total
779 droplet variability. Therefore, although BB burning may strongly elevate CCN numbers,
780 the impact on droplet number is limited by water vapor availability and depends on
781 the aerosol particle concentration levels associated with the background.

784 1. Introduction

785 Globally, biomass burning (BB) is a major source of atmospheric aerosols (Andreae et
786 al., 2004). In the eastern Mediterranean, up to one third of the dry submicron aerosol
787 mass during the summer period consists of highly oxidized organic compounds
788 (Hildebrandt et al., 2010). During July-September, biomass-burning aerosol originates
789 from long-range transport from Southern Europe and countries surrounding the Black
790 Sea (Sciare et al., 2008). Bougiatioti et al. (2014) showed that of the total organic
791 aerosol (OA), about 20% is freshly-emitted biomass burning organic aerosol (BBOA),
792 30% is oxidized, processed OA originating from BBOA (BB-OOA), and the remaining
793 50% is highly oxidized aerosol that results from extensive atmospheric aging. Hence,
794 in term of organic mass, during time periods of high biomass burning activity, ~~up to at~~
795 ~~least~~ 50% of the aerosol can be ~~influenced by these~~ attributed to BB emissions.
796 Aerosol liquid water content (LWC) is a key medium for atmospheric chemistry that
797 also drives the partitioning of soluble organic vapors to the particle phase (Carlton and
798 Turpin, 2013). LWC is a prime modulator of aerosol direct radiative forcing (e.g., Piliinis
799 et al., 1995), and by promoting secondary aerosol formation it can influence aerosol

800 mass and number, that impacts both on the aerosol direct and indirect effect
801 (Kanakidou et al., 2005).

802 Biomass burning aerosol particles have the potential to act as cloud condensation
803 nuclei (CCN), thereby impacting on cloud properties and climate. Modeling studies
804 suggest that BB is a significant global source of CCN number (Spracklen et al., 2011).
805 ~~It is therefore important to understand how biomass burning contributes to CCN and~~
806 ~~aerosol hygroscopicity and how it evolves in the atmosphere.~~ Laboratory and field
807 studies suggest have shown that the water-soluble component of biomass burning
808 aerosol is highly hygroscopic and water-soluble, exhibiting up to about half the water
809 uptake capacity of about half of ammonium sulfate (Asa-Awuku et al., ~~2010~~2008;
810 Cerully et al., 2014). Engelhart et al. (2012) found that freshly emitted BBOA displays
811 a broad range of hygroscopicity (κ parameter from 0.06 to 0.6) that considerably
812 reduces after just a few hours of photochemical processingaging, to a κ value of
813 0.2±0.1 (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007). Few studies, however, focus on the
814 hygroscopicity of ambient BB aerosol for a range as a function of atmospheric agingage
815 extending out to a few days. Relatively few studies also go beyond CCN to calculations
816 of droplet number (e.g., Roberts et al., 2003), and even fewer studies characterize the
817 relative role of aerosol number and chemical composition (hygroscopicity) variability
818 to the predicted droplet number variability in clouds formed from BB-influenced
819 masses. These issues are important, because the supersaturation that develops in
820 clouds is not known beforehand, nor constant, but rather a strong function of the CCN
821 levels and cloud dynamical forcing (updraft velocity).

822 In the current study we focus on the hygroscopicity, CCN activity and hygroscopicity
823 concentrations and resulting droplet formation characteristics (droplet number and
824 cloud supersaturation) of ambient aerosol associated with air masses influenced by
825 summertime biomass burning events in the eastern Mediterranean ~~during~~
826 summertime. The ~~events were not local and smoke-laden~~ air masses sampled were
827 subject to a range of atmospheric processing (several hours up to 3 days), identified
828 using remote sensing techniques (Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer,
829 Kaufman and Remer, 1994; Cloud-Aerosol Lidar with Orthogonal Polarization, Winker
830 et al., 2009, Mamouri et al., 2012), backtrajectory analysis and other in-situ chemical
831 metrics. ~~Smoke plumes sampled are identified by the Moderate Resolution Imaging~~
832 ~~Spectroradiometer (MODIS) (Remy and Kaiser, 2014) onboard the Terra and Aqua~~
833 ~~satellites and the laser remote sensing (lidar) system on board the space-borne Cloud-~~
834 ~~Aerosol Lidar with Orthogonal Polarization (CALIOP) platform (Winker et al., 2009;~~
835 ~~Mamouri et al., 2012).~~ Values of the hygroscopicity parameter, κ , were derived from
836 CCN and HTDMA measurements and linked to distinct chemical constituents identified
837 with Positive Matrix Factorization of the chemical constituents measured with ~~while the~~
838 ~~chemical composition and mass concentration of non-refractory components of the~~
839 ~~submicron aerosol fraction was studied using~~ an Aerosol Chemical Speciation Monitor
840 (ACSM). Finally, the observations are used to predict the cloud droplet number and
841 supersaturation formed in clouds that develop in each air mass, focusing on the
842 contribution of aerosol number and hygroscopicity to the predicted droplet number
843 variability. The originality of our study relies on the fact that, to our knowledge, This
844 is one of the very few field studies ~~were able to focus on the hygroscopicity of ambient~~

~~biomass burning aerosol for a range of atmospheric aging, which is addressed here that use in-situ observations to i) unravel the contributions of composition and aerosol size to BB CCN distributions and their impacts on cloud droplet number, ii) quantify the The study also examines the contributions of biomass burning constituents to aerosol different organic aerosol components to the overall hygroscopicity and liquid water in the region. which in turn may contribute to the aerosol liquid water content (LWC), as the potential of organic gases to partition to LWC is sometimes greater than the potential to partition to particle-phase organic matter (Carlton and Turpin, 2013). LWC is important as it has a direct effect on aerosol particles by enhancing scattering but also can contribute to the indirect effect by promoting secondary aerosol formation (Nguyen et al., 2013; Guo et al., 2015).~~

2. Experimental Methods

2.1 Sampling site and period

The measurements were performed at the Finokalia station (35°32'N, 25°67'E; <http://finokalia.chemistry.uoc.gr>) of the University of Crete, which is part of the Aerosols, Clouds, and Trace gases Research Infrastructure Network (ACTRIS; <http://www.actris.net/>). More details about the sampling site ~~have been~~ provided by Mihalopoulos et al. (1997) and Sciare et al. (2003). ~~Measurements—Although measurements~~ took place from mid-August to mid-November 2012, the focus of our analysis ~~however~~ involves the periods of intense biomass burning influence, August to September 2012. BB plumes sampled were fresh, originating from the Greek islands and mainland (transport time 6-7 h) but also from long-range transport from the Balkans (transport time > 1 day) as determined by using HYSPLIT backtrajectory analysis as shown in detail in Bougiatioti et al. 2014 combined with the hot spots/fire data from MODIS/Fire Information for Resource Management System (FIRMS; Remy and Kaiser, 2014).

2.2 Instrumentation and methodology

Chemical composition and mass concentration of non-refractory components (ammonium, sulfate, nitrate, chloride and organics) of the submicron aerosol fraction was provided by an Aerodyne Research Aerosol Chemical Speciation Monitor (ACSM; Ng et al., 2011) with a temporal resolution of 30 minutes. More details of the ACSM measurements and subsequent analysis can be found in Bougiatioti et al. (2014). Total absorption measurements provided the black carbon (BC) concentrations by a seven-wavelength aethalometer (Magee Scientific, AE31). From the BC measurements and using the approach of Sandradewi et al. (2008) the wood-burning and fossil fuel contribution to the total BC concentrations were calculated, using an absorption exponent of 1.1 for fossil fuel burning and 1.86 for pure wood burning. The aerosol particle size distributions from 9 to 850 nm were ~~monitored~~ measured with a 5-min resolution by a custom-built scanning mobility particle sizer (SMPS; TROPOS-type, Wiedensohler et al., 2012) equipped with a condensation particle counter (CPC; TSI model 3772; ; Stolzenburg and McMurry, 1991) ~~that provides measurements of the aerosol size distribution every 5 min. Sample humidity was regulated below the relative~~

888 humidity of 40% with the use of Nafion® dryers in both aerosol and sheath flow and
889 the measured number size distributions were corrected for diffusional particle losses
890 (Kalivitis et al. 2015).

891 A Continuous Flow Stream-wise Thermal Gradient CCN Chamber (CFSTGC; Roberts
892 and Nenes, 2005) was used in parallel with a Hygroscopic Tandem Differential Mobility
893 Analyzer (HTDMA; Rader and McMurry, 1986) to measure the CCN number, activity
894 and hygroscopicity of ambient aerosol for supersaturated (0.1-0.7%) and subsaturated
895 conditions (relative humidity, RH=86%), respectively. The whole system, which is
896 illustrated in Figure 1, sampled air with a total flow-rate of 1.8 L min⁻¹. After passing
897 through a ~~nafion~~-Nafion dryer (MD-110-12S-2, Perma Pure LLC, RH<30%) the dried
898 particles were selected based on their electrical mobility by a Differential Mobility
899 Analyzer (DMA-1; TSI Model 3080; Knutson and Whitby, 1975). The sheath flow and
900 classified aerosol outlet flow of DMA-1 were 10.8 and 1.8 L min⁻¹, respectively, while
901 the mobility diameter was changed every 6 minutes between 60, 80, 100 and 120 nm.
902 The classified aerosol from DMA-1 was then split into two streams. The first stream
903 was passed through a ~~nafion~~Nafion-tube humidity exchanger where its RH was
904 increased to 86%. The size distribution of the RH-conditioned particles was determined
905 by a second DMA (DMA-2; custom-made DMA using a closed-loop sheath flow with RH
906 control; Biskos et al., 2006; Bezantakos et al., 2013) coupled with a Condensation
907 Particle Counter (CPC, TSI Model 3772; ~~Stolzenburg and McMurry, 1991~~) ~~to measure~~
908 ~~the total number concentration of each classified particle size~~. The RH in both the
909 aerosol and the sheath flow in DMA-2 was controlled by PID controllers to within a
910 ±2% accuracy. Both DMAs in the HTDMA system were calibrated with Polystyrene
911 Latex (PSL) spheres. The other classified stream was introduced into the CFSTGC to
912 measure the CCN activity of particles. The CFSTGC was operated in Scanning Flow
913 CCN Analysis (SFCA) mode (Moore and Nenes, 2009), in which the flow rate in the
914 growth chamber changes over time, while a constant streamwise temperature
915 difference is applied. This causes supersaturation to change continuously, allowing the
916 rapid and continuous measurement of CCN spectra with high temporal resolution. The
917 SFCA cycle used involved first increasing the flow rate linearly between a minimum
918 flow rate ($Q_{min} \sim 300 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ min}^{-1}$) and a maximum flow rate ($Q_{max} \sim 1000 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ min}^{-1}$)
919 over a ramp time of 60 seconds. The flow was maintained at Q_{max} for 10 seconds and
920 then linearly decreased to Q_{min} over 60 s. Finally, the flow rate was held constant at
921 Q_{min} for 10 s and the scan cycle was repeated. The activated droplets in the CFSTGC
922 were counted and sized at the exit of its growth chamber with an Optical Particle
923 Counter (OPC) that detects droplets and classifies them into 20 size bins with diameter
924 ranging from 0.7 to 10 μm every 1 s.

925 The water vapor supersaturations developed in the CFSTGC during an SFCA cycle were
926 characterized overall performance of the system was investigated with ammonium
927 sulfate calibration aerosol following the procedure of Moore and Nenes (2009). In brief,
928 an ammonium sulfate solution was atomized, dried, charge-neutralized and classified
929 by DMA-1. The resulting monodisperse aerosol flow was split between DMA-2 and the
930 CFSTGC, operating in SFCA mode and with a CFSTGC streamwise temperature
931 difference of $\Delta T=5 \text{ K}$. From this setup, we obtain the instantaneous concentrations of
932 the classified aerosol and the resulting CCN during the SFCA flow cycles. resulting in

total number at each size as well as the corresponding CCN. This ~~The ratio of CCN to~~
~~total aerosol number gives provided~~ the activation ratio, R_a , which varies with the
instantaneous volumetric flow rate, Q , in the CFSTGC. Using data from multiple SFCA
~~flow cycles, R_a is then which was plotted against the instantaneous flow rate and fit to~~
a sigmoid function that depends on Q :

$$R_a \equiv \frac{CCN}{CN} = a_0 + \frac{a_1 - a_0}{1 + (Q/Q_{50})^{-a_2}} \quad (1)$$

where a_0 , a_1 , a_2 and Q_{50} , are constants which describe the minimum, maximum, slope
and inflection point of the sigmoidal, respectively. The "critical flow rate", Q_{50} ,
corresponds to the instantaneous flow rate that produces a level of supersaturation,
 s_c required to activate the measured monodisperse aerosol. s_c is determined from the
size of the classified aerosol using Köhler theory (Moore et al., 2012a).

~~The point at which half of the particles of the selected size act as CCN corresponds~~
~~to a "critical flow" and the instantaneous supersaturation inside the chamber (critical~~
~~supersaturation) of the classified ammonium sulfate. Repeating the procedure for~~
~~several sizes of classified ammonium sulfate results in the calibration curve.~~

~~Supersaturation in the CFSTGC were calibrated in terms of the CCNC streamwise~~
~~temperature difference ($\Delta T=5$ K), the instantaneous flow rate and the overall flow rate~~
~~range. Sigmoidal activation curves of CCN versus flow rate are obtained, and the~~
~~inflection point of the sigmoid is used as the critical activation flow, Q_{50} , rate which~~
~~corresponds to the critical supersaturation S_c (hence instrument supersaturation)~~
~~above which particles act as CCN. The humidification in the DMA-2 was also evaluated~~
~~by the growth factor measured for the calibration $(NH_4)_2SO_4$. CCN activation is~~
~~characterized by the CCN to CN ratio (activation ratio), R_a , which is a function of~~
~~instantaneous flow rate during a flow cycle. R_a data were fit to the sigmoidal equation:~~
~~The implementation of Köhler theory presented by Moore et al. (2012a) is used to~~
~~convert the critical activation flow in terms of critical supersaturation.~~

Repeating the procedure for many sizes of classified ammonium sulfate results in the
SFCA calibration curve, which gives the supersaturation in the CFSTGC as a function
of flow rate (i.e Q_{50} vs. s) throughout an SFCA flow cycle. Absolute uncertainty of the
calibrated CCNC supersaturation is estimated to be $\pm 0.04\%$ (Moore et al., 2012a;
2012b). ~~This process is repeated for many calibration aerosol sizes to obtain a~~
~~comprehensive calibration.~~

In our instrument setup, R_a can change either from variations in the size of the
monodisperse aerosol, d_p , or the instrument supersaturation, s (or flow rate, Q). The
independently varied parameter is indicated hereon in parentheses in front of the
activation ratio, e.g., $R_a(Q)$, $R_a(s)$, $R_a(d_p)$ for R_a as a function of Q , s and d_p ,
respectively.

Analysis of R_a obtained for our experimental setup for ambient particles samples
provide very important information on the activity and chemical mixing state of the
CCN. This is carried out as follows. For every particle size d_p , set by the DMA-1, $R_a(Q)$,
is measured at every instant in the CFSTGC according to Eq.1. Typically $a_0 \ll a_1$;
given that Q and s are related through the calibration, $R_a(Q)$ data can be transformed
to $R_a(s)$ as:

976

$$R_a(s) = \frac{E}{1 + \left(\frac{s}{s^*}\right)^C} \quad (2)$$

977

where s, s^* correspond to Q, Q_{50} of the monodisperse aerosol. E, C are parameters determined from fitting. According to Cerully et al., (2011), $R_a(s)$ represents a cumulative distribution of critical supersaturation for particles with dry diameter d_p ; Köhler theory can then be applied to express $R_a(s)$ in terms of the hygroscopicity parameter $R_a(\kappa)$:

982

$$R_a(\kappa) = \frac{E}{1 + \left(\frac{\kappa}{\kappa^*}\right)^{C/2}} \quad (3)$$

983

where $\kappa = \frac{4A^3}{27d_p^3 s^2}$ is the dependence of κ on d_p and s , $A = \frac{4M_w \sigma_w}{RT\rho_w}$ is the Kelvin

984

parameter, whereas M_w, σ_w and ρ_w are respectively the molar mass, the surface tension and the density of water, R is the universal gas constant, and T is temperature. In equations 2, 3, s^* and κ^* correspond to the characteristic critical supersaturation and hygroscopicity parameter of the monodisperse aerosol, respectively and correspond to the most probably values of the parameters (Cerully et al., 2011). From Equation 3, the probability distribution function for $\kappa, p^s(\kappa)$, can be derived for the ambient monodisperse aerosol (Cerully et al., 2011):

991

$$p^s(\kappa) = \frac{1}{E} \frac{dR_a(\kappa)}{d\kappa} = -\frac{\frac{C}{\kappa^*} \left(\frac{\kappa}{\kappa^*}\right)^{\frac{C}{2}-1}}{\left(1 + \left(\frac{\kappa}{\kappa^*}\right)^{\frac{C}{2}}\right)^2} \quad (4)$$

992

Analysis of $p^s(\kappa)$ can provide a direct measure of the chemical heterogeneity of the CCN population. For this, we adopt the metric of chemical dispersion, $\sigma(\kappa)$, introduced by Lance (2007) and further developed in Cerully et al. (2011) and Lance et al. (2013):

995

$$\sigma^2(\kappa) = \frac{\int_0^1 (\kappa - \kappa^*)^2 p^s(\kappa) d\kappa}{\int_0^1 p^s(\kappa) d\kappa} \quad (5)$$

996

$\sigma(\kappa)$ is the square root of variance about κ^* ; as the chemical heterogeneity of the CCN increases, the distribution of κ broadens, and $\sigma(\kappa)$ becomes larger so that the range in CCN hygroscopicity is given by $\kappa^* \pm \sigma(\kappa)$.

999

R_a can also be expressed as a function of supersaturation using the calibration of Q vs S as follows:

1000

1001

where E is the maximum fraction of particles that activate at a given supersaturation,

1002

S is the instrument supersaturation and S^* is the characteristic critical supersaturation

1003

at which half of the classified CCN activate. In the term of equation 2, R_a represents a

1004 ~~cumulative distribution of critical supersaturation for particles with dry diameter d_p~~
 1005 ~~(Cerully et al., 2011). Köhler theory can then be applied to transform $R_a(s)$ into~~
 1006 ~~accumulative distribution of hygroscopicity parameter $R_a(\kappa)$:~~

1007 ~~where M_w , σ_w and ρ_w are respectively the molar mass, the surface tension and the~~
 1008 ~~density of water, R is the universal gas constant, and T is temperature. For every~~
 1009 ~~critical supersaturation there is a corresponding characteristic hygroscopicity~~
 1010 ~~parameter, κ^* , and the probability distribution function for κ , $p^*(\kappa)$ can provide the~~
 1011 ~~chemical dispersion, which describes the degree of chemical heterogeneity of the CCN~~
 1012 ~~population (Cerully et al., 2011).~~

1013 Particle water uptake at sub-saturated conditions in the Nafion-tube humidity
 1014 exchanger and DMA-2 was also evaluated by the growth factor measured for the
 1015 calibration $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$. Particle hygroscopic growth at sub-saturated conditions (g_i) is
 1016 obtained by:

$$1017 \quad g(RH) = \frac{d_m(RH)}{d_p} \quad (6)$$

1018 where $d_m(RH)$ and d_p are the geometric mean mobility diameters of the sampled
 1019 particles at the hydrated state (i.e. at RH=86%) as measured by DMA-2 and the CPC,
 1020 and at the dry state selected by DMA-1 (RH< 30%), respectively. Particle size
 1021 distributions at 86% RH were inverted using the TDMAfit algorithm (Stolzenburg and
 1022 McMurry, 1988) which is also capable of distinguishing between internally and
 1023 externally mixed aerosols (e.g. Bezantakos et al., 2013).

1024 Hygroscopicities determined from the CCN measurements are differentiated by
 1025 corresponding values from the HTDMA measurements by including and index CCN,
 1026 HTDMA, respectively (e.g. κ_{HTDMA} , κ_{CCN}). ~~The corresponding κ_{HTDMA} values is calculated~~
 1027 from the HTDMA-measured at sub-saturated conditions are calculated hygroscopic
 1028 growth factors using:

$$1029 \quad \kappa_{HTDMA} = (g(RH))^3 - 1 \left(\frac{\exp\left(\frac{A}{g(RH) * d_p}\right) - 1}{\frac{RH}{100\%}} \right) \quad (7)$$

1030 with A being already the Kelvin parameter defined in Equation 3. The exponential term
 1031 of this equation (i.e. the Kelvin term) is used to account for curvature effects on vapor
 1032 pressure.

1033 An average value of the hygroscopic parameter at each dry particle size, d_p , which is
 1034 representative of the hygroscopic properties of the entire particle population is
 1035 obtained as follows:

$$1036 \quad \overline{\kappa_{HTDMA}} = \int_{g_{\min}}^{g_{\max}} \kappa(g_{(RH)}) p(g_{(RH)}) dg_{(RH)} \quad (6)$$

1037 where $\kappa(g_{(RH)})$ is obtained from the growth factor probability distribution using
 1038 equation 5 and $p(g_{(RH)})$ is the probability of each growth factor. g_{\min} , g_{\max} are the
 1039 minimum and maximum growth factors, respectively, obtained from the growth factor
 1040 probability distribution and represent the minimum and maximum g with non-zero
 1041 probability value.

1042 ~~Chemical composition and mass concentration of non-refractory components~~
1043 ~~(ammonium, sulfate, nitrate, chloride and organics) of the submicron aerosol fraction~~
1044 ~~was provided by an Aerodyne Research Aerosol Chemical Speciation Monitor (ACSM;~~
1045 ~~Ng et al., 2011) with a temporal resolution of 30 minutes. More details of the ACSM~~
1046 ~~measurements can be found in Bougiatioti et al. (2014). Total absorption~~
1047 ~~measurements provided the black carbon (BC) concentrations by a seven-wavelength~~
1048 ~~aethalometer (Magee Scientific, AE31). From the BC measurements and using the~~
1049 ~~approach of Sandradewi et al. (2008) the wood-burning and fossil fuel contribution to~~
1050 ~~the total BC concentrations were calculated, using an absorption exponent of 1.1 for~~
1051 ~~fossil fuel burning and 1.86 for pure wood burning. The aerosol particle size~~
1052 ~~distributions from 9 to 850 nm were monitored by a custom-built scanning mobility~~
1053 ~~particle sizer (SMPS; TROPOS type, Wiedensohler et al., 2012) equipped with a~~
1054 ~~condensation particle counter (GPC; TSI model 3772) that provides measurements of~~
1055 ~~the aerosol size distribution every 5 min.~~

1056 To support the *in situ* instruments, we used space-borne laser remote sensing (lidar)
1057 data from CALIOP (Mamouri et al., 2009; Winker et al., 2009) to characterize the
1058 plumes emerging from the fire hot spots. The fire plume originating from ~~the-any~~
1059 location can be tracked by HYSPLIT back-trajectory analysis (Bougiatioti et al., 2014)
1060 and lidar observations can be used to check the presence of aerosol layers and aerosol
1061 types. Optical confirmation of the smoke plumes is provided by MODIS and FIRMS as
1062 shown in the supplementary material of Bougiatioti et al. 2014. CALIOP is also able to
1063 provide the vertical profiles of different types of aerosols, as well as the optical
1064 properties of clouds over the globe with unprecedented spatial resolution since June
1065 2006 (Winker et al., 2009).

1066 3. Results and Discussion

1067 3.1 Identifying periods of biomass burning influence

1068 Bougiatioti et al. (2014) identified the BB events analyzed here by the time evolution
1069 of absorption enhancements (BC) in the aerosol, which was further verified by FIRMS
1070 and back-trajectory analysis. During these events mass spectrometric biomass burning
1071 tracers (i.e. fragments $m/z=60$ and 73) also exhibited elevated levels. Clear biomass
1072 burning contribution was identified by source apportionment using Positive Matrix
1073 Factorization (PMF) analysis for four distinct events. The BB events considered include
1074 a severe fire event that burned most of the island of Chios (19–21 August), an
1075 extensive wildfire at the Dalmatian Coast in Croatia resulting in smoke plumes that
1076 spread across the Balkans during the period 28–30 August, and, less extensive fires
1077 on the Greek islands of Euboea (3-5 September) and Andros (12-13 September). All
1078 fire events exhibited discrete BBOA profiles depending on the biomass burning fuel, as
1079 presented in detail by Bougiatioti et al. (2014). Nevertheless, the organic aerosol
1080 derived from the aging of the biomass burning aerosol (OOA-BB) identified for all
1081 events had a similar profile, regardless of the BBOA it was derived from (Bougiatioti et
1082 al. 2014). Transport time estimate and backtrajectory analysis were conducted with
1083 the Plume Arrival (h) from Base Time graphics with the help of the HYSPLIT model
1084 (www.arl.noaa.gov/hysplit.php).

1086 MODIS and CALIOP measurements confirm the validity of the Bougiatioti et al. (2014)
1087 analysis, by clearly showing the origin, transport path and characteristics of the
1088 biomass burning plume from the Chios fire on 18 and 19 August 2012, respectively.
1089 Indeed, in Figure 2a we show the MODIS true color image showing the plume
1090 emerging from the Chios fires on 18 August ~~1992-2012~~ as obtained during its 9.39
1091 UTC overpass over Greece (Kyzirakos et al., 2014). The blue and red lines delineate
1092 the ground track of the CALIPSO satellite during its overpass over Crete several hours
1093 later on 19 August 2012 (~~the first between~~ 00:27-00:40 and ~~the second~~
1094 ~~between~~ 11:34-11:47 UTC, ~~respectively~~); the red star shows the sampling site at
1095 Finokalia station. The CALIPSO vertical profiles of the aerosol backscatter coefficient
1096 (in $\text{km}^{-1}\text{sr}^{-1}$) at 532 and 1064 nm for the two overpasses (~~at 00:27-00:40 and 11:34-~~
1097 ~~11:47 UTC~~) are shown in Figure 2b (left-hand side) together with the corresponding
1098 linear particle depolarization ratio at 532 nm obtained between 00:27:30-00:40 UTC
1099 (right-hand side). Comparing the midnight and the daytime aerosol backscatter profiles
1100 in Figure 2b, we observe that the midnight values are 3-4 times lower than the daytime
1101 ones for altitudes up to 3 km height. In addition, the daytime observations show a
1102 discrete aerosol layer below 1.5 km. As for the linear particle depolarization ratio it
1103 shows a mean value of 19% (up to 1.25 km height) and less than 6-10% (1.25-2 km).
1104 Finally, we made use of the classification scheme of the CALIPSO data (Omar et al.,
1105 2009) to classify the different subtypes of aerosols in the plume captured during its
1106 first overpass over Crete on 19 August 2012 (00:27-00:40 UTC). This classification
1107 scheme, based on the optical and microphysical properties of the sampled aerosols
1108 indeed reveals the presence of a mixture of smoke, polluted dust and marine particles
1109 observed below a 3 km altitude (black color for smoke, brown for polluted dust and
1110 blue for marine) as shown in Figure 2c, within the depicted area between 39°N, 24.1°E-
1111 37°N, 23.4°E, just NW of the Finokalia station and along the CALIPSO ground track.
1112 According to this classification, over Crete the presence of polluted dust (mixed with
1113 smoke and marine aerosols) prevails within the marine boundary layer, which for
1114 Finokalia is approximately 1 km (Kalivitis et al., 2007), extending up to 0.8-1.2km
1115 height. This implies that for the 00:27-00:40 UTC time slot, the BB aerosols sampled
1116 by the ground-based in situ measurements at Finokalia would contribute less (due to
1117 dilution) to the global aerosol mass loading than, if measured, over the Western Crete.

1118
1119

3.2 PM₁ composition

1120 The average mass concentration for the whole measurement period (mid-August to
1121 mid-November 2012), based on the ACSM measurements combined with BC from the
1122 aethalometer was $9.2 \pm 4.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. The corresponding average-median concentrations
1123 for the main aerosol constituents were ~~2.87±1.85~~3.56, ~~0.91±0.71~~1.31, ~~2.33±1.05~~
1124 3.03 and ~~0.41±0.18~~0.47 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ for sulfate, ammonium, organics and BC respectively.
1125 Figure 3 represents the time series of the major submicron species where it can be
1126 seen that during the fire events the contribution of organics and BC increased
1127 substantially (from 34.9 to 46.5% for organics and from 6.1 to 9.5% for BC) with a
1128 simultaneous reduction of that of sulfate. Source apportionment clearly shows that
1129 these increases are related to BB influences (Bougiatioti et al. 2014). During all BB
1130 events there is a clear dominance of wood burning over fossil fuel contributions to BC.

1131 The wood burning component of BC is also provided as a reference, depicting the
1132 enhanced contribution of biomass burning during the highlighted events.
1133 Based ~~on Köhler theory and the calculation of the critical supersaturation, the size-~~
1134 ~~resolved CCN activity measurements~~ and the inferred hygroscopicity parameter κ of
1135 the aerosol (Equation 3), it is evident that the changes in the organics and sulfate
1136 mass fractions will also influence the CCN concentrations, activation fractions and
1137 hygroscopicity. As the ACSM provides bulk submicron chemical composition and thus,
1138 is not able to capture any sized-dependent chemical composition, the size-resolved
1139 CCN activity measurements are able to resolve distinct CCN activity and mixing state
1140 of the different particle sizes. These aspects are thoroughly investigated in the
1141 following sections.

1142

1143 ***3.3 CN and CCN number concentrations and biomass burning events***

1144 ~~During~~ For all four events of biomass burning-influenced air masses arriving at
1145 Finokalia, the observed aerosol number concentration ~~for all particle sizes that were~~
1146 ~~measured~~ increased considerably, regardless of size. The increases are quantitatively
1147 expressed using averaged data from at least 6 hours prior to the arrival time of the BB
1148 smoke. ~~For most of the events and especially for the larger particle sizes above 100~~
1149 nm, BB increased concentrations exhibited an increase that for by 65% for the case of
1150 the Chios fire was around 65%, around 50% for the Croatia fire around 50%, 88% for
1151 the Euboea fire 88% and about 150% for the Andros fire around 150%. This Less
1152 pronounced increases was also observed seen for the smaller particle sizes but was
1153 less pronounced. The corresponding impacts on CCN concentrations for the classified
1154 aerosol are shown in Figure 4 for all fire events. represents the CCN concentrations of
1155 the classified aerosol at the centroid mobility diameter measured, for the four identified
1156 fire events; (a) Chios, (b) Croatia, (c) Euboea and (d) Andros. Concentrations are given
1157 at the point of critical activation flow Q_{50} of the SFCA, corresponding to the
1158 instantaneous characteristic supersaturation, s^* , for each particle size, as described in
1159 detail in section 2.2 of the monodisperse CCN as classified by DMA-1 (Section 2.2).
1160 Within each event, s^* did not vary by more than 13.6%; therefore most of the
1161 variability in CCN number can be attributed to variations in the size distribution, rather
1162 than shifts in the chemical composition (i.e., s^*).

1163 As expected, smaller particles exhibit ~~the a~~ higher critical supersaturation (Bougiatioti
1164 et al., 2011). ~~It can also be seen that d~~ During the periods with smoke influence, critical
1165 supersaturations are higher tend to increase, indicating that particles associated with
1166 BB are less effective CCN compared to those of the background aerosol. do not activate
1167 so readily. In order to see To quantify the direct influence of biomass burning to particle
1168 and CCN number concentrations, ~~along with the CCN concentrations~~ we studied the
1169 concentration of the BBOA component, identified by PMF analysis of the ACSM mass
1170 spectra (Bougiatioti et al., 2014). The BBOA concentration time series depicts the
1171 arrival time of the smoke plume and the magnitude of the event intensity of the BB
1172 influence, based on the measured concentration. More details about the PMF analysis
1173 can be found in Bougiatioti et al. (2014).

1174 The data shown in Figure 4 indicates that during the majority of the identified biomass
1175 burning events, CCN concentrations for the larger particles sizes increase, tracking and

1176 follow the BBOA trend. This increase was more pronounced, depending on the
1177 proximity of the fire and therefore, the travel time of the air masses. Similar
1178 observations have been reported by Rose et al. (2010) also observed increases in CCN
1179 during a biomass burning event near the mega-city Guangzhou, China during the
1180 PRIDE-PRD2006 campaign, where CCN number concentrations at lower
1181 supersaturations of $s = 0.068$ and 0.27% , CCN number concentrations were higher than
1182 the study average increased by 90 and 8%, respectively, which was attributed to the
1183 larger average particle sizes. The same study attributed these changes to increases in
1184 the particle size when BB influence was present.

1185 Of all particle sizes examined, it appears that those having mobility diameter of 60 nm
1186 exhibit the least variability in terms of CCN number concentration before and during
1187 the BB influence (Figure 4, open circles). The concentrations however of the classified
1188 aerosol significantly increase during the BB event from Croatia (Figure 4b). It can also
1189 be seen that the particles that appear to be less influenced for all of the events,
1190 are those having a diameter of 60 nm. Nevertheless, for these particles it can be seen
1191 that following the influence of the Croatia fire (Figure 4b), CCN concentration for 60
1192 nm particles exhibit a substantial increase. This event, together with others of smaller
1193 extent, is associated with new particle formation (NPF) events. The observed
1194 frequency of NPF days at Finokalia is close to 30% (Kalivitis et al., 2015), regardless
1195 of the presence or not of BB-laden air masses. Based on aerosol chemical composition
1196 it appears that both gaseous sulfuric acid and organic compounds take part in the
1197 growth of nucleated particles to CCN-relevant sizes. These organic compounds that
1198 contribute to the nuclei growth may be of different origins including biogenic
1199 emissions, biomass burning and other possibly anthropogenic sources from long-range
1200 transport (Kalivitis et al. 2015). From Figure 4b it appears that when the BB event
1201 is combined with a such an NPF event within a few hours, 60-nm particles are strongly
1202 influenced and their CCN concentrations increase considerably. The influence of BB to
1203 the hygroscopicity of 60-nm particles and the other sizes is examined in a subsequent
1204 section. A detailed discussion on these events and their contribution to CCN
1205 concentrations is provided by Kalivitis et al. (2015).

1206 1207 **3.4 CCN activation fractions during fire events**

1208 As demonstrated in the preceding section, CCN number concentrations during the
1209 biomass burning events CCN number concentrations of proportionately increased for
1210 mostly the larger particle sizes, augmented, and so did the total number concentrations
1211 at the corresponding particle size, with the exception of the smaller ones. Figure 5
1212 shows the activation fractions ($CCN/CNR_d(Q)$) for three of the four particle sizes and
1213 the four considered fire events, as once more particles of (100 and 120 nm is not
1214 shown as it exhibits a similar the same behavior as 100 nm). In this case, instead of
1215 the BBOA factor, the concentration of the As an indicator of BB influence, we use the
1216 concentration of the aged BB factor identified in the ACSM spectra processed BBOA
1217 (OOA-BB), as it which represents the atmospherically-processed component of BBOA,
1218 is given for reference. This factor is chosen as it constitutes a larger part of the organic
1219 aerosol (30%) with BB influence and whose ageing is expected to be reflected in terms
1220 of CCN activity.

1221 For all particle sizes, the activation fractions are derived from the asymptote of the
1222 fitting to the sigmoidal function of the $R_a(s)$ during each supersaturation cycle and
1223 represents the CCN behavior at the highest supersaturations measured ($s > 0.6\%$).
1224 Figure 5 shows that even though CCN concentrations increase for particles larger than
1225 80 nm, First of all, it can be seen that apart from the 60 nm particles, the remaining
1226 sizes appear to be unaffected by the presence of smoke, as their activation fractions
1227 at supersaturation levels as low as 0.4% remain, more or less, stable and very close
1228 to unity throughout the events. This observation implies that, almost all aerosol
1229 particles larger than 80 nm are CCN active at supersaturations higher than 0.6%,
1230 within uncertainties. This is not the case for 60 nm particles whose activation fractions
1231 at 0.6% s (and in the case of the Chios fire activation fractions of 80 nm particles as
1232 well at 0.4% s) exhibit the highest variability, with ratios approaching values as low as
1233 40%. It can be seen that as concentrations of the OOA-BB start to increase, the
1234 $R_a(60_{\text{nm}})$ activation fractions of 60 nm particles at $\sim 0.6\%$ s starts to diminish. In
1235 addition, larger particles tend to be internally mixed, which can justify their high $R_a(d_p)$
1236 at the point of their characteristic supersaturation. It thus appears, that larger particles
1237 are mostly internally mixed, as also seen by their high activation ratios, while small
1238 particles could be externally mixed populations. An indication of the heterogeneity of
1239 the smaller particle sizes compared to the larger ones is the slope of the sigmoid fit to
1240 the $R_a(s)$; the steeper the slope the more homogeneous the population and given that
1241 the 60 nm particles exhibited the broader slopes, the more heterogeneous these
1242 particles are. This can be explained by a size-dependent chemical composition and the
1243 presence of a population with notable lower hygroscopicity that prohibits the particles
1244 from acting as CCN and This can be attributed to different sources and atmospheric
1245 processing (coagulation, cloud processing and condensation of secondary aerosol)
1246 components that are usually more hygroscopic, particles are also generally tend to
1247 internally mix the particles, rendering them more CCN active. Indeed, the lower lowest
1248 activation fractions occur for the strongest events where the time for transport and
1249 aging is most limited (hence least aged and hygroscopic). This aspect is further
1250 supported by the particle chemical dispersion retrievals discussed in the following
1251 section (Section 3.5) also supports this view. The same conclusion is also drawn from
1252 the data provided by Bougiatioti et al. (2011) for the same sampling site during
1253 summertime, and are verified by analysis of the chemical dispersion and HTDMA data
1254 shown in following sections. The evolution of the mixing state of each particle size is
1255 further investigated by the HTDMA measurements in a subsequent section (Section
1256 3.6) as well. The same conclusion is also drawn from the data provided by Bougiatioti
1257 et al. (2011) for the same sampling site during summertime, and are verified by
1258 analysis of the chemical dispersion and HTDMA data shown in following sections.
1259 In contrast to the above, $R_a(60_{\text{nm}})$ at 0.6% S (and in the case of the Chios fire $R_a(80_{\text{nm}})$
1260 at 0.4% S) exhibits the highest variability, with ratios reaching at some cases even
1261 40%. This indicates that a substantial fraction of the smaller particle sizes may well be
1262 an external mixture with low hygroscopicity particles that do not act as CCN up to
1263 $\sim 0.6\%$ supersaturation. Indeed, the lower activation fractions occur for the strongest
1264 events where the time for transport and aging is limited. This aspect is further

1265 supported by the particle chemical dispersion retrievals discussed in the following
1266 section.

1267 The mixing state of the different sampled particle sizes is also investigated by the
1268 HTDMA measurements (Section 3.6). For reference, the concentration of the OOA-BB
1269 factor is also provided in Figure 5, which represents an oxygenated organic aerosol
1270 which is derived from the atmospheric processing of biomass burning organic aerosol
1271 (Bougiatioti et al., 2014). It can be seen that as concentrations of the OOA-BB start to
1272 increase, the $R_w(60_{\text{nm}})$ at 0.6% S starts to diminish. This is also the case for the
1273 Croatia fire, even though the CCN concentrations did not fluctuate much from
1274 background levels because of the longer transport. It appears, thus that larger particles
1275 are mostly internally mixed, as also seen by their high activation ratios, while small
1276 particles could be externally mixed populations. This behavior is further discussed in
1277 the following section.

1278 1279 *3.5 Hygroscopicity and chemical heterogeneity during the biomass* 1280 *burning events*

1281 The characteristic hygroscopicity parameters, κ^* , derived from the CCN measurements
1282 for all particle sizes and for the four selected fire events are presented in Figure 6. As
1283 a reference for the arrival time and magnitude of the event, the concentration of the
1284 BBOA factor is also shown in the figure, which has the characteristics of the freshly-
1285 emitted BB aerosol and is expected to influence more the hygroscopicity of the
1286 particles. The smaller particles have the lowest κ_{CCN} values, and hygroscopicity
1287 consistently increased with size. This hygroscopicity trend has also been observed
1288 elsewhere (Dusek et al., 2010; Cerully et al., 2011; Levin et al., 2012; Paramonov et
1289 al., 2013; Liu et al., 2014), and is attributed to the enrichment in organic material of
1290 sub-100 nm particles. Based on the derived κ values for each particle size and with
1291 knowledge of the distinct species identified by the ACSM (organics, sulfate) and their
1292 respective hygroscopicities, the volume fractions for organics and inorganics (mainly
1293 ammonium sulfate) were estimated for each particle size. It occurs that indeed, 60 nm
1294 particles are, on average, 89% composed of organics while the respective values for
1295 80, 100 and 120 nm particles are 70, 50 and 41%. Most of the accumulation mode
1296 particles result from condensation of secondary sulfates, nitrates and organics from
1297 the gas phase and coagulation of smaller particles (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006). In
1298 order to examine the contribution of constituents from primary sources that are not
1299 measured by the ACSM to the accumulation mode particles, we compared the mass
1300 derived from the ACSM+BC and the integrated volume distribution from the SMPS
1301 converted to mass. During the examined fire events, the ACSM+BC was on average
1302 $68.6 \pm 19.3\%$ of the SMPS-derived mass. Therefore this is an indication that non-
1303 refractory material neglected by the ACSM in the accumulation mode particles bears a
1304 small influence on particle hygroscopicity. Accumulation mode particles can also result
1305 from cloud processing and based on cloud droplet calculations presented in a
1306 subsequent section (Section 3.8) it appears that particles subject to atmospheric
1307 processing would be present in a separate mode are around 120 nm ($S_{\text{max}} \sim 0.08\%$).
1308 On the other hand, particles larger than 100 nm are usually more aged than
1309 the smaller particles and more immediately associated with BB plumes and the

1310 atmospheric processing they undergo (Kalivitis et al., 2015). The hygroscopicity
1311 parameter for 100 and 120 nm particles are very similar and the fact that the variability
1312 in the respective chemical composition is limited may indeed be attributed to cloud
1313 processing, while 80-nm particles are in between the lowest and highest κ_{CCN} values,
1314 an indication of size-dependent chemical composition of components with different
1315 hygroscopicities.

1316 Figure 6 also shows that during the arrival of the biomass burning-laden air masses, κ
1317 values of all particle size ranges within 0.2-0.3. This observation is consistent with
1318 values observed from chamber experiments of fresh and aged biomass burning aerosol
1319 and in-situ studies from the field. Engelhart et al. (2012) performed a study where 12
1320 different biomass fuels commonly burnt in North American wildfires were used to
1321 characterize their respective hygroscopicity. They found that while κ of freshly emitted
1322 BBOA prior to photochemical aging covered a range from 0.06 to 0.6, after a few hours
1323 of photochemical processing, the variability of biomass burning κ values from the
1324 different fuels was reduced and hygroscopicity converged to a value of 0.2 ± 0.1
1325 (Cerully et al., 2011; Engelhart et al., 2012). Based on the derived hygroscopicity
1326 parameters for each particles size before and during the BB influence it occurs that
1327 smoke causes a relative decrease of κ in the order of 22% for 80 nm particles, 30.6%
1328 for 100 nm particles and 30.9% for 120 nm particles on average for the four events
1329 while κ for 60 nm particles deviate by 14%.

1330 During the fire events the contribution of organics and BC to the submicron aerosol
1331 mass fraction increased significantly while the presence of sulfate declined. This is
1332 expected to influence the CCN activity of the sampled aerosol particles as it would
1333 cause variations in the inorganic and organic mass fractions. It has already been
1334 established that as the organic mass fraction of aerosol increases, the κ value of
1335 primary aerosol decreases (Petters et al., 2009; Engelhart et al., 2012). With
1336 photochemical aging, the increased oxygenation of the freshly emitted BBOA may
1337 influence the hygroscopicity of the organic components, but the concurrent increase
1338 of the inorganic fraction of the aerosol contributes to the observed increase of κ_{CCN}
1339 (inorganic content vs aging).

1340 ~~In order to~~ To examine the ~~role-impact~~ of atmospheric processing and aging ~~to-on~~ the
1341 composition of the sampled aerosol, we studied the chemical dispersion $\sigma(\kappa)$; of the
1342 hygroscopicity parameter κ , expressed by the standard deviation of kappa around the
1343 most probable hygroscopicity κ^* , and its dependence on particle size. As normal
1344 operation uncertainties and the DMA transfer function can induce a broadening of $R_d(s)$
1345 and $R_d(\kappa)$ and therefore contribute to $\sigma(\kappa)$, the inferred $\sigma(\kappa)$ contains a fairly constant
1346 instrument offset and a time-dependent constituent that is representative of the real
1347 chemical variability. This offset value, owing to the DMA transfer function and other
1348 instrument limits has been calculated to be roughly 0.25 ~~by~~ (Cerully et al. (2011)).
1349 Table 1 shows the calculated chemical dispersion, in terms of $\sigma(\kappa)/\kappa$, for the four fire
1350 events and the measured particle sizes. It is immediately apparent that the chemical
1351 dispersion is reduced with increasing particle size. 60-nm particles exhibit the highest
1352 dispersion ~~and especially the ones from for~~ the Chios fire, suggesting that the smaller
1353 particles ~~retain their characteristics for a longer period and their aging takes longer~~
1354 ~~that for the larger particles.~~ are a mixture of freshly-emitted BB particles and particles

1355 formed from the condensation of organics during the transport from the fire location
1356 to Finokalia, as by atmospheric processing organics become less volatile, increasing
1357 the chemical dispersion. The 80 and 100-nm particles from the Chios fire have high
1358 $\sigma(\kappa)/\kappa$ values while the ones from Euboea and Andros have considerably lower values,
1359 demonstrating the magnitude of the Chios fire and the degree of atmospheric
1360 processing that has taken place. Finally, 120-nm particles always have a low chemical
1361 dispersion, with $\sigma(\kappa)/\kappa$ values close to the instrument limit. Nevertheless, the chemical
1362 dispersion of all particle sizes appears to be influenced by the presence of BB as there
1363 is an average relative increase of $\sigma(\kappa)/\kappa$ values of 21, 28, 41 and 43% for 60, 80, 100
1364 and 120 nm particles, respectively, before and during the event. The increased
1365 chemical dispersion of particles smaller than 80 nm can be, therefore, attributed to the
1366 heterogeneity of sources of these particles (which is also seen by CALIOP, Figure 3c)
1367 combined with lack of extensive cloud processing because the particles are too small
1368 to activate in boundary layer clouds in the region (Section 3.8). For larger particles,
1369 the chemical dispersion may be due to mixing with other types of aerosol that are not
1370 identified by the ACSM; microphysical processing such as condensational growth and
1371 cloud processing may be the reason why they exhibit a smaller chemical dispersion
1372 than smaller particles. Indeed, the surface area distributions (Figure S1 of the
1373 Supplement) peaks at around 200 nm which means that condensation of SOA mass is
1374 most effective in that size range. Coagulation/condensation continuously occurs
1375 together with any new source and NPF during atmospheric transport (Triantafyllou et
1376 al., 2016; Kalkavouras et al., in review), but cloud processing mixes everything and
1377 makes it completely homogeneous at the activation diameter that corresponds to each
1378 fire separately. In terms of aerosol microphysical processes, numerical simulations
1379 indicate that for half a day of aging under moderately polluted conditions, coagulation
1380 has been found to internally mix almost all particles above 0.2 μm , and smaller particles
1381 to a lesser extent (e.g. Jacobson, 2002). Condensation, for the same time scale,
1382 increases the fractional coating of small particles rather than large ones. This behavior
1383 of the small particles may be partially due to the coagulation of ultrafine particles which
1384 are present in biomass burning plumes, as the coagulation mostly occurs for smaller
1385 particles and increases the external mixing of those particles by bringing together
1386 particles of different nature. It is also possible that organic compounds that are emitted
1387 during biomass burning events and undergo atmospheric processing during their
1388 transport, could condense on the existing particles, contributing thus to their mass.
1389 This condensational growth tends to render particles more chemically uniform, and if
1390 this condensation takes place in the smaller particle range it would have a larger impact
1391 on their chemical composition, than for the larger ones. Both condensational growth
1392 and coagulation processes can take place, with the overall observed behavior
1393 depending on which process is predominant (Healy et al., 2014). Based on the surface
1394 area distributions (Figure S1 of the supplement) it occurred that the peak of the surface
1395 area is around 200 nm. With the surface area distribution being constant, one can
1396 argue that larger particle sizes would receive most of the condensational mass. For
1397 the Chios fire, where the peak in the number size distribution is in the smaller particle
1398 range, coagulation is more effective for the 60- and 80-nm particles. This is further
1399 supported by the elevated chemical dispersion of those sizes caused by the coagulation

1400 and the lower chemical dispersion of 100- and 120-nm particles caused by the
1401 condensation. On the other hand, during the Euboea fire where the peak in the number
1402 size distribution is closer to the peak of the surface area distribution, it seems that
1403 mostly the 60-nm particles are subject to coagulation. Larger particles could be
1404 affected by both condensation and coagulation but the chemical dispersion as a
1405 function of particle size indicates that mostly condensation processes dominate in the
1406 BB plumes. For this reason, the hygroscopicity parameters are calculated for all events
1407 and particle sizes in the following section.

1408 *3.6 Particle growth factors during the fire events*

1410 From the concurrent HTDMA growth factor measurements at sub-saturated conditions
1411 we calculated the corresponding κ_{HTDMA} values. During the focus period of the biomass
1412 burning events as well as a few days before and after the events, the grand majority
1413 of the HTDMA data exhibited unimodal distributions, indicating that all selected particle
1414 fractions were internally mixed. Bimodal hygroscopicity distributions were scarce only
1415 observed during the arrival of the smoke plumes from the most intense events and
1416 therefore are not taken into account for this specific the comparison study between
1417 CFSTGC and HTDMA-derived κ values. Average CFSTGC-derived κ_{CCN} values and
1418 HTDMA-derived κ_{HTDMA} values for the selected particles sizes are given in Table 2. On
1419 average, κ_{HTDMA} values are somewhat lower than the respective κ_{CCN} values for the
1420 smaller particles, while the difference between them is larger for the larger particle
1421 sizes. Nevertheless, both time series follow the same trend and values are consistent
1422 within $\pm 30\%$ ($\kappa_{HTDMA} = 0.854 \cdot \kappa_{CCN}$, $R^2 = 0.87$; Figure S2 in the supplement). Owing to
1423 non-ideality in the aqueous phase, Given that the solution of the resulting droplets
1424 may be non-ideal, the constituents may be partially partial solubility of the organics
1425 and the existence of multiple phases under subsaturated conditions soluble and the
1426 phases may not be completely separated, it is not surprising that the HTDMA-derived
1427 κ_{HTDMA} values may indeed be lower than the corresponding CCN-derived ones. are
1428 somewhat lower. In the study of Wu et al. (2013) κ derived from CCN measurements
1429 was also roughly 30% higher than that determined from hygroscopic growth
1430 measurements. Similar effects are also seen for laboratory generated aerosol
1431 composed of single and multiple compounds (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007). Apart
1432 from non-ideality solution effects, the presence of surfactants produced during
1433 biomass burning events (Asa-Awuku et al., 2008) may also increase the
1434 discrepancies between κ -HTDMA and κ -CCN (Ruehl et al., 2012). Therefore, Other
1435 studies as well note similar magnitude of difference these differences are well within
1436 the range of possible uncertainties and are common when comparing between
1437 CFSTGC and HTDMA-derived κ values (e.g. Prenni et al., 2007; Massoli et al., 2010;
1438 Cerully et al. 2011).
1439 The probability distribution of growth factors in the HTDMA give an independent
1440 measure of particle mixing state. Apart from the hygroscopicity parameter, κ_{HTDMA}
1441 from the concurrent HTDMA measurements the mixing state of the sampled particle
1442 sizes were also determined. During the two most intense fire events (i.e. during the
1443 Chios and Euboea fire) where the smoke plume had the least amount of transit and

1444 atmospheric processing time (~~i.e. during the Chios and Euboea fire~~) all sizes exhibited
1445 two different hygroscopic modes (Tables 3 and 4; Figure S3 in the supplement). These
1446 distinct modes were not observed during the ~~rest of the other two~~ events, ~~probably~~
1447 ~~due to the lower intensity of the other events and the longer transport time owing to~~
1448 ~~longer time of processing that allows for condensation growth and mixing of the~~
1449 ~~populations~~. Figure 7 portrays in the left-hand panels the $\overline{\kappa_{HTDMA}}$ (estimated using
1450 Equation 6) for the sampled particle sizes during the Chios and Euboea fires. The right-
1451 hand panels show the respective particle size distributions obtained by the concurrent
1452 SMPS measurements, revealing the presence of different particle modes. It should be
1453 noted that values differ from the respective κ_{CCN} values, under subsaturated
1454 conditions, because if some particles do not grow inside the HTDMA they are directly
1455 assigned with a growth factor equal to one (i.e. $\kappa=0$), subsequently reducing
1456 considerably the derived kappa value. These hydrophobic particles are likely not fully
1457 counted by the CFSTGC and hence do not contribute to the average κ_{CCN} . During the
1458 arrival of the smoke-influenced air masses, there is a decrease in the hygroscopicity
1459 of all measured sizes. At the same time a bimodal distribution was observed by the
1460 SMPS (far right panels), indicative of two groups of particles, which can be partially
1461 due to the presence probably freshly emitted particles (i.e. smaller mode) in
1462 combination with larger, more processed ones. Adler et al. (2011) had also observed
1463 a shift in the average mode diameter of size distributions from 86 ± 8 nm for freshly-
1464 emitted BBOA to 114 ± 7 nm for processed BBOA. This further supports the observed
1465 higher chemical dispersion ~~found~~ in the smaller particle sizes, ~~presented in the previous~~
1466 ~~section.~~ (Section 3.5).

1467 A similar behavior when the sampled particles influenced by biomass burning were
1468 exposed to sub-saturated conditions has been reported by Rissler et al. (2006). In
1469 those measurements the hygroscopic growth of the sampled particles when exposed
1470 at 90% RH showed that there was an external mixture of a nearly hydrophobic
1471 ($g_{(RH)}=1.09$ for 100 nm particles) and a moderately hygroscopic ($g_{(RH)}=1.26$)
1472 population. This reinforces our observations from the CCN measurements, where ~~in~~
1473 for super-saturated conditions, the activation fraction of mainly the 60 nm particles
1474 decreased significantly under influence of the smoke. A possible explanation why the
1475 activation fractions of the other size ranges ~~seem to be unaffected by the smoke remain~~
1476 close to unity during the smoke influence may be resulting from the cloud processing
1477 of these sizes and their mixing with background particles, contributing to their
1478 hygroscopicity and chemical dispersion. The overall characteristics are expected to be
1479 determined by the number fraction of the two modes in each size, combined with the
1480 occurrence of these two modes. If the presence of the bimodal samples is limited (less
1481 than 30%), then even though the fraction of the less hygroscopic mode may be as
1482 high as 45%, the overall activation fractions might not be influenced. For the first
1483 event (20-21/8) which was the most intense, the externally mixed samples represent
1484 almost 25% of the total sampled aerosol, with the occurrence of the bimodal samples
1485 increasing with increasing diameter (Table 3). It appears that in the bimodal samples
1486 the less hygroscopic mode initially dominates followed by a progressive dominance of
1487 the hygroscopic mode. It also appears that the increase in the less hygroscopic fraction
1488 coincides with the plume arrival time and the increase of the BBOA component, further

1489 supporting our findings of external mixing. During the second event (03-05/9) the
 1490 bimodal samples increase, once more, with increasing diameter (5% for 60 nm to 28%
 1491 for 120 nm particles). ~~with the~~The less hygroscopic fraction ~~being in this case was~~
 1492 dominant in approximately 33% of the samples, although this more hygroscopic mode
 1493 ~~has had~~ a κ_{HTDMA} value of 0.2 during the plume arrival time (Table 4). The more
 1494 hygroscopic mode is therefore dominant in number for all sampled particles, which
 1495 would explain that the activation fraction of the larger accumulation mode particles
 1496 are not significantly affected by the presence of the less hygroscopic mode. On the
 1497 other hand, the reason for the reduction of the activation fraction of 60-nm particles,
 1498 apart from their hygroscopicity, can also be their different source and size, as during
 1499 the events, the less hygroscopic mode is probably not activated, thus not detected by
 1500 the CCN. This is not the case for the larger particles, as for example, 80-nm particles
 1501 having a low $\kappa_{HTDMA}=0.06$ will still activate at ~~a critical~~the highest supersaturations
 1502 sampled of ($s=0.67\%$).

1503

1504 ***3.7 Inferring size-dependent chemical composition and organic*** 1505 ***hygroscopicity***

1506 Assuming that the total aerosol hygroscopicity can be represented as the sum of the
 1507 contribution of the different aerosol components:

$$1508 \quad \kappa = \sum_j \varepsilon_j \kappa_j \quad (7)$$

1509 where ε_j and κ_j are the volume fraction and hygroscopicity parameters of each species,
 1510 respectively (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007). With the use of this equation, and by
 1511 assuming that the aerosol is a mixture of an organic and inorganic component, with
 1512 the inorganic component being represented by ammonium sulfate, the total measured
 1513 hygroscopicity, can be expressed by the sum:

$$1514 \quad \kappa = \varepsilon_{inorg} \kappa_{inorg} + \varepsilon_{org} \kappa_{org} \quad (8)$$

1515 Prior studies at Finokalia (Bougiatioti et al. 2009; 2011) have determined $\kappa_{org}=0.158$
 1516 and $\kappa_{inorg}=0.6$. Assuming this still applies and $\varepsilon_{inorg}+\varepsilon_{org}=1$, Equation 8 can be used to
 1517 infer the volume fractions of organics and ammonium sulfate for the 4 different sizes,
 1518 excluding the days of direct biomass burning influence. From this we obtain that 60
 1519 nm particles, on average, are composed of 82% organics and 18% ammonium sulfate;
 1520 80 nm particles of 44% organics and 55% ammonium sulfate, and, the larger particles
 1521 are mainly composedcontain a much larger fraction of ammonium sulfate (67% and
 1522 78% for 100 and 120 nm particles, respectively). This reinforces our conclusion based
 1523 on the hygroscopicity measurements that the smaller particles are mostly composed
 1524 of organic material. These observations are in agreement with similar observations
 1525 reported by Bezantakos et al. (2013) in the region of the Northern Aegean Sea.

1526 The above approach can also be applied to the data from the fire events, as follows:
 1527 we use only the larger size (120 nm) as from the former CCN studies in the area it was
 1528 established that the hygroscopicity of the larger particles is close to the “bulk”
 1529 hygroscopicity of the sampled aerosol (PM₁), which is constrained from the ACSM
 1530 measurements (Bougiatioti et al., 2011). To evaluate the importance of the
 1531 assumptions made in inferring the organic hygroscopicity from chemical composition,

1532 κ_{org} was additionally determined by applying Equation 8, for the 120 nm particles,
1533 where a set of κ equations is produced (n=228). Multivariable regression analysis
1534 within the excel environment is subsequently applied in order to determine the organic
1535 and inorganic component of the total hygroscopicity during the fire events. Based on
1536 the results, $\kappa_{inorg}=0.61\pm0.03$ and $\kappa_{org}=0.137\pm0.02$, values which are very similar to
1537 values determined by Bougiatioti et al. (2009; 2011). The confidence level is 95% and
1538 the resulting fit has an $R^2=0.91$ and p-values are smaller than $8\cdot 10^{-7}$ for both
1539 components.

1540 Taking the analysis one step further, we attempt a source apportionment of the
1541 organic hygroscopicity, by its attribution to different factors. Positive Matrix
1542 Factorization (PMF) analysis was applied to the time series of data from the direct
1543 influence from biomass burning. A detailed discussion of the PMF results can be found
1544 in Bougiatioti et al. (2014). During the focus period, 3 subtypes of organic aerosol (OA)
1545 were identified, namely biomass burning OA (BBOA), an OOA associated with biomass
1546 burning (OOA-BB) and a highly oxygenated OOA, having a relative contribution of 22,
1547 32 and 46%, respectively. With the chemical composition measurements of the ACSM
1548 for the larger particle size (120 nm) combined with the respective κ_{CCN} we use the
1549 following equation to determine the hygroscopicity parameter of each factor:

$$1550 \quad \kappa = (1 - \varepsilon_{org})\kappa_{inorg} + \varepsilon_{BBOA}\kappa_{BBOA} + \varepsilon_{OOA-BB}\kappa_{OOA-BB} + \varepsilon_{OOA}\kappa_{OOA} \quad (9)$$

1551 Once again a set of 228 κ equations is produced and multivariable regression analysis
1552 is applied in order to deconvolve the organic hygroscopicity to its 3 subtypes. The
1553 confidence level once more is 95% and the resulting fit has an $R^2=0.93$, with p-values
1554 smaller than 0.001. It occurs that $\kappa_{inorg}=0.62\pm0.04$, $\kappa_{BBOA}=0.057\pm0.07$, κ_{OOA-}
1555 $_{BB}=0.138\pm0.11$ and $\kappa_{OOA}=0.169\pm0.09$. As the occurrence of two modes of different
1556 hygroscopicity seen by the HTDMA during the arrival of the smoke coincide with the
1557 identification of BBOA by the ACSM, it is interesting to see that the inferred
1558 hygroscopicity for the freshly-emitted BBOA is very close to the hygroscopicity
1559 obtained by the HTDMA for the less hygroscopic component when two particle
1560 populations were present during the events (Tables 3 and 4, Section 3.6). When
1561 comparing the obtained hygroscopicity with the level of oxidation of each factor
1562 (O:C=0.2 for BBOA, 0.9 for OOA-BB and 1.2 for OOA; Bougiatioti et al., 2014) it occurs
1563 that the less hygroscopic component is also the least oxygenated and hygroscopicity
1564 increases with increasing O:C ratio. The calculated values are also comparable to the
1565 κ obtained by Chang et al. (2010) for the oxygenated organic component (OOA-1,
1566 OOA-2 and BBOA) of rural aerosol ($\kappa_{ox}=0.22\pm0.04$). They also found increased
1567 hygroscopicity with increasing ageing and degree of oxidation. Furthermore, the total
1568 organic hygroscopicity is very similar to the hygroscopicity that of the processed organic
1569 aerosol components, which make up almost 80% of the organic aerosol. Finally, based
1570 on the derived hygroscopicities for the BBOA and the processed BBOA (OOA-BB), it
1571 seems that the biomass burning organic aerosol becomes more hygroscopic, by almost
1572 a factor of two, with atmospheric processing.

1573 Using the average diurnal profiles obtained from the PMF analysis combined with the
1574 corresponding mass fractions of each component and the inferred hygroscopicity
1575 parameter of each, we estimated the contribution of each factor to the overall κ_{org} and

1576 the total aerosol hygroscopicity. Figure 8 presents the resulting diurnal profiles ~~and~~
1577 from which it is clear that the grand majority of the organic hygroscopicity originates
1578 from the aged, very oxidized OOA. BBOA contributes around 7% to the organic
1579 hygroscopicity (2.2% to the overall aerosol hygroscopicity), which is small but not
1580 negligible, as it can be seen that when the BBOA contribution is the highest, there is
1581 an important decrease in the κ_{org} . Overall, organic aerosol associated with biomass
1582 burning can account for almost 35% of the organic hygroscopicity. By using the
1583 approach of Guo et al. (2015) where particle water is predicted using meteorological
1584 observations (relative humidity, temperature), aerosol composition and
1585 thermodynamic modeling (ISORROPIA-II; Fountoukis and Nenes, 2007), the LWC
1586 associated with the organic fraction is calculated. ~~It occurs~~We find that ~~even~~
1587 ~~though~~although the freshly-emitted BBOA contributes merely 1.2% to the total organic
1588 water of the aerosol, the ~~corresponding~~ contribution of the processed OOA-BB is
1589 almost 33%. It is therefore clear that in the presence of biomass burning aerosol, both
1590 aerosol hygroscopicity but LWC as well may be influenced, thus affecting the overall
1591 direct and indirect aerosol radiative effects.

1592 3.8 BB influence on droplet formation

1594 The direct microphysical link between aerosol and clouds is the activation process,
1595 where a fraction of the aerosol contained within an ascending cloud parcel experiences
1596 unconstrained growth and activates to form cloud droplets. State of the art cloud
1597 droplet parameterizations (Ghan et al., 2011; Morales and Nenes, 2014) can accurately
1598 and rapidly calculate the droplet number (N_d) and maximum supersaturation (S_{max}) that
1599 would form in a cloud given knowledge of the aerosol distribution, composition and
1600 updraft velocity. Using the aerosol and hygroscopicity observations from all four BB
1601 events, we calculate the droplet number and supersaturation for clouds forming in the
1602 vicinity of Finokalia, using the droplet parameterizations based on the “population
1603 splitting concept” of Nenes and Seinfeld (2003), later improved by Barahona et al.,
1604 (2010) and Morales and Nenes (2014). In the calculations of droplet number, the size
1605 distribution is represented by the sectional approach, derived directly from the SMPS
1606 distribution files. Values of updraft velocity are not known for Finokalia, but are
1607 obtained from the WRF regional model applied to late summer conditions (Tombrou
1608 et al., 2015); simulations suggest that the distribution of vertical velocities in the
1609 boundary layer around Finokalia display a spectral dispersion of $\sigma_w = 0.2-0.3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$
1610 around a mean average value of 0.3. These values are generally consistent with
1611 vertical velocities observed in marine boundary layers (e.g., Ghate et al., 2011;
1612 Meskhidze et al., 2005). Given this, we can employ the characteristic velocity approach
1613 of Morales and Nenes (2010) when applying the droplet parameterization to obtain
1614 velocity PDF-averaged values of CDNC and S_{max} . As a sensitivity test, we also consider
1615 calculations for a convective boundary layer ($\sigma_w = 0.6 \text{ ms}^{-1}$). The calculation of PDF-
1616 averaged values of CDNC and S_{max} is carried out for every distribution of aerosol
1617 number and composition measured for all four biomass burning events (5-min
1618 resolution distributions from the SMPS measurements for at least two days for each
1619 event). Results of all the calculations are shown in Figure 9. As a reference, the time
1620 series of the BBOA component is also portrayed.

1621 For all events, the arrival of the smoke plume is followed by a considerable depression
 1622 in the maximum supersaturation (relative average decrease $11.9 \pm 2.7\%$ for $\sigma_w = 0.3$
 1623 ms^{-1} and $18 \pm 5.9\%$ for $\sigma_w = 0.6 \text{ms}^{-1}$) that develops in clouds. This is a result of the
 1624 enhanced competition for water vapor during cloud droplet formation for clouds
 1625 affected by biomass burning smoke. The negative feedback of aerosol on
 1626 supersaturation partially mitigates the observed increases in CCN to the point where
 1627 clouds are highly insensitive to the large aerosol concentration increases (Moore et al.,
 1628 2013; Zamora et al., 2016). As expected, increases in the updraft velocity ($\sigma_w = 0.6$
 1629 ms^{-1}) reduces the competition of CCN for water vapor, allowing S_{max} to increase, by
 1630 almost 30%. The respective perturbation of N_d from BB influences by doubling the
 1631 updraft velocity increases to 54% on average (from 9.3% to 24.2% for Chios, from
 1632 8.5% to 15.2% for Croatia, from 11% to 18.8% for Euboea and from 4% to 13.8%
 1633 for Andros). The low supersaturations developed in BB-influenced clouds (here, as low
 1634 as 0.06%) shifts the size of particles affected by cloud processing to the largest of
 1635 particles (cutoff diameters before and during the Chios intense event were on average
 1636 133 and 109 nm, respectively while during the other events were on average 154.8
 1637 and 129.3 nm, respectively). Interestingly, the notable drop in chemical dispersion in
 1638 the 100-120 nm particle sizes are consistent with the notion that cloud processing
 1639 would considerably enhance their degree of internal mixing.

1640 The degree to which BB influences N_d does not depend only on the value of updraft
 1641 velocity and the intensity of the BB event; it also depends on the background aerosol.
 1642 This is because the background preconditions the clouds and determines the levels of
 1643 supersaturation that develops prior to the arrival of the BB aerosol. Highly polluted
 1644 background generally means larger insensitivity of N_d to BB. This is shown clearly in
 1645 Figure 10, which presents the droplet number concentration (top panel) and cloud
 1646 maximum supersaturation (bottom panel) for each fire event as a function of BB
 1647 influence, expressed by the sum of BBOA and OOA-BB ACSM factors. From the figure
 1648 one can clearly see that when the background levels aerosol decreases (indicated by
 1649 the lower N_d and higher S_{max} at the low end of BB factor concentrations, which is
 1650 characteristic of the Coatia and Chios fires), N_d responds to increases in BB, up to the
 1651 point where the clouds become "saturated" with aerosol (with a supersaturation
 1652 around 0.08% and below, indicated by the shaded areas in Figure 10) and are
 1653 insensitive to additional increases in BB. Euboea and Andros fires already have a high
 1654 background, so the cloud droplet number is relatively insensitive to BB influence.

1655 Finally, we estimated the relative contribution of chemical composition (from κ) and
 1656 aerosol number concentration to the N_d , expressed by the average of the partial
 1657 derivatives of dN_d/dN_a and dN_d/dN_κ and using the following equations:

$$1658 \quad \sigma^2 N_d = \sigma N_a \frac{\overline{\partial N_d}}{\partial N_a} + \sigma \kappa \frac{\overline{\partial N_d}}{\partial N_\kappa} \quad (10)$$

1659 where σ^2 is the variance of the droplet number (N_d), σN_a is the standard deviation of
 1660 the total aerosol number and $\sigma \kappa$ is the standard deviation of the hygroscopicity
 1661 parameter. The relative contribution of each one of the total aerosol number (εN_a) and
 1662 hygroscopicity parameter ($\varepsilon \kappa$) to the droplet number is estimated by:

$$\varepsilon \kappa_{Nd} = \sigma \kappa \frac{\overline{\frac{\partial N_d}{dN_\kappa}}}{\sigma^2 N_d} \quad (11)$$

$$\varepsilon N_{aN_d} = \sigma N_a \frac{\overline{\frac{\partial N_d}{\partial N_a}}}{\sigma^2 N_d} \quad (12)$$

The results provided in Table 5 demonstrate that there are differences between the fire events, which can be attributed to the intensity of each event and thus the resulting concentrations, and the distance from the fire, thus the mixing and dilution during transport. The highest variance in N_d was calculated for the Andros event, which exhibited the lowest variability in $N_{aerosol}$ and the lowest variance was calculated for the Chios, followed by the Croatia event, which exhibited a variability in $N_{aerosol}$ of more than 1500 particles (cm^{-3}). From the relative contribution of the total aerosol number and chemical composition to N_d it can be seen that the closest the fire event is, the largest the contribution of aerosol number to the potential CDNC. As we move further away (e.g. Chios and Croatia) and the distance increases, the influence of the chemical composition becomes increasingly important, given the decrease of concentrations and dilution during transport.

4. Summary and Conclusions

This study provides CCN concentrations, subsaturated hygroscopicity ~~and~~, mixing state of size-selected aerosol particles and their impact on cloud formation in air masses influenced by summer biomass burning (BB) events during summertime over the the eastern Mediterranean. The uniqueness of the dataset examined lies in nature of the fires, where smoke is mostly generated from isolated fires and subsequently transported and aged from a few hours to days before sampling. The presence of smoke in For the case of the most intense events the presence of smoke was clearly identified by CALIPSO laser-lidar remote sensing observations for the most intense event and the MODIS FIRMS product, while chemical markers and backtrajectory analysis confirm the influence of BB in every event. Overall, during the selected events During each event, the contribution of organics and BC increased significantly while the concentration of sulfates decreased. This is shown ~~also~~ to affect the hygroscopicity as well as the mixing state of the particles. The fire events had a direct influence ~~to on~~ the total particle (CN) and CCN concentrations across all sizes; where especially the larger particle sizes (larger than 100 nm) exhibited an increase in absolute number of more than 50% and up to 30% for particles in the 60-80 nm range. At the same time, the activation The fractions of the smaller particles (60-80 nm) acting as CCN even at the highest level of measured supersaturation (-0.6% s) however went significantly below unity appeared to be affected by the the presence of smoke, with ratios being well below unity. Based on the observations it is inferred This and the overall value of hygroscopicity indicate that less CCN-active organic compounds that are less CCN-active, are the dominant component of 60-nm

1701 ~~and smaller~~ particles (~~up to~~ 82% of mass), while particles larger than 100 nm ~~are~~
1702 ~~mainly composed~~ contain a much larger fraction of ammonium sulfate. ~~This was verified~~
1703 ~~by the~~ The subsaturated hygroscopicity ~~analysis~~ measurements confirms this, where as
1704 60-nm particles exhibited the lowest ~~hygroscopicity~~ hygroscopic growth.
1705 ~~Nevertheless,~~ ~~d~~ During the arrival of the biomass-burning-laden air masses, the
1706 average hygroscopicity parameters of all particle sizes converged to values ~~in the range~~
1707 ~~of~~ between 0.2-0.3, which can be attributed to different chemical composition of all
1708 particles during these events, compared to background conditions. ~~Based on~~ The
1709 hygroscopicity distributions and chemical dispersion analysis ~~it occurred~~ of the CCN
1710 data clearly show that smaller particles exhibit higher chemical ~~dispersion and retain~~
1711 ~~their characteristics for longer~~ diversity (variance in hygroscopicity equal to 0.15 κ
1712 units), than compared to larger ~~ones that appear more homogeneous~~ particles
1713 (variance in hygroscopicity less than 0.1 κ units). This ~~can be due to the fact size-~~
1714 dependent mixing state may reflect the presence of different aerosol sources with
1715 characteristic sizes (e.g. sea-salt, pollution in addition to BB) and size-dependent
1716 chemical composition; the fact that smaller particles are less mixed than larger
1717 particles- together with that the background aerosol is composed of a large mode with
1718 a distinct chemical composition- suggests that the smaller particles are an external
1719 mixture of freshly emitted and secondarily formed particles that retain a large degree
1720 of mixing. Larger particles are further aged and subject to coagulation, condensation
1721 of secondary species and cloud processing, all of which tend to homogenize aerosol.
1722 ~~coagulation likely promotes the chemical dispersion at smaller sizes, while the~~
1723 ~~condensation of organics tends to make larger particles more uniform. Despite~~
1724 ~~that~~ However, samples with two distinct aerosol populations with distinct hygroscopicity
1725 were seen were seen event at the largest sizes sampled, one having lower and one
1726 somewhat higher hygroscopicity, do appear during the most intense fire events.
1727 Nevertheless, their occurrence is limited and the overall activation of larger particles
1728 appears to be unaffected by the presence of these two populations. ~~Overall we can~~
1729 ~~conclude that 60-nm particles were mostly composed by less hygroscopic species, even~~
1730 ~~when they have undergone atmospheric processing and they were internally mixed,~~
1731 ~~making it more difficult for them to activate because of their size and hygroscopicity~~
1732 ~~even at the highest level of supersaturation. It appears that the dominant process in~~
1733 ~~this particle range is coagulation, rendering small particles less uniform, with increased~~
1734 ~~chemical dispersion~~ On the other hand, In terms of cloud processing effects, the larger
1735 largest particles that are predicted to form droplets in clouds in the vicinity of the
1736 sampling site indeed exhibit the lowest chemical dispersion. were composed of more
1737 hygroscopic species, which either condensational growth or atmospheric aging yielded
1738 an internal mixture with lower chemical dispersion. This supports the assumption of
1739 external mixing for smaller particles originating from biomass burning ~~with having~~
1740 decreased activation fractions and provides a plausible explanation of why larger
1741 particles appear, based on their activation fractions, not to be affected as far as their
1742 CCN-activity is concerned.
1743 ~~Finally,~~ ~~u~~ Using multivariable regression analysis and the volume fractions of organics
1744 and ammonium sulfate for the different particle sizes, we inferred the hygroscopicity
1745 of the organic fraction and found it equal to 0.115 ± 0.017 , which is ~~comparable to the~~

1746 ~~value of 0.2 ± 0.1 determined for processed biomass burning aerosol consistent with~~
1747 ~~published values from the literature.~~ Using the results obtained from the source
1748 apportionment of the organic fraction we were able to deconvolve the organic
1749 hygroscopicity to its 3 subtypes. The hygroscopicity of freshly-emitted BBOA was found
1750 to be around 0.06, while the hygroscopicity of atmospherically-processed BBOA and
1751 highly oxidized organic aerosol was found to be 0.14 and 0.17, respectively. The
1752 inferred hygroscopicity of each component ~~are in line with the corresponding level~~
1753 ~~of and its oxidation of each component, and the overall organic hygroscopicity is close~~
1754 ~~to the hygroscopicity derived for the processed organic aerosol state~~ are in line with
1755 ~~the overall organic aerosol values observed.~~ Thus, ~~From this and the trends of each~~
1756 ~~factor with atmospheric age we conclude that~~ the organic fraction of biomass burning
1757 aerosol becomes more hygroscopic with atmospheric aging. Overall, organic aerosol
1758 associated with biomass burning (freshly emitted and processed) can account for
1759 ~~almost~~ 10% of the total aerosol hygroscopicity (2.2 and 7.6% ~~for BBOA and OOA-BB,~~
1760 respectively). ~~For the observed levels of relative humidity, and amount of each organic~~
1761 ~~aerosol factor, we estimate that BBOA and OOA-BB contribute anywhere between 1.2~~
1762 ~~and 32.6% of the total organic water of the aerosol.~~

1763 ~~Towards understanding the impacts of the observed BB on clouds, we study the~~
1764 ~~behavior of cloud droplet formation for typical boundary layer conditions. For this, we~~
1765 ~~apply a state of the art cloud droplet formation parameterization to the observations,~~
1766 ~~assuming typical values of updraft velocity for marine boundary layer clouds. We find~~
1767 ~~that the very high concentrations of CCN during the influence of BB events tend to~~
1768 ~~promote the competition for cloud water vapor, and substantially depresses the cloud~~
1769 ~~supersaturation down to very low levels (even as low as 0.06%). As a result, only the~~
1770 ~~largest of particles, from 110-150nm diameter and above, can activate to form cloud~~
1771 ~~droplets. This also means that droplet number becomes highly insensitive to changes~~
1772 ~~in aerosol in the presence of BB; indeed clouds influenced by BB exhibit a relative~~
1773 ~~decrease in maximum supersaturation by 12% while at the same time, augments the~~
1774 ~~potential droplet number by 8.5%. These results also support the chemical~~
1775 ~~dispersion/mixing state analysis of the CCN data, as only the largest of aerosol sizes~~
1776 ~~sampled activates and is exposed to cloud processing. Based on the average sensitivity~~
1777 ~~of droplet number to changes in aerosol number and composition and observed~~
1778 ~~variances thereof, we attribute the relative contribution of chemical composition and~~
1779 ~~total aerosol number to the variance of droplet number. We find that the distance from~~
1780 ~~the source is a key parameter that governs the importance of each parameter, with~~
1781 ~~the influence of the chemical composition becoming increasingly important (controlling~~
1782 ~~up to 25% of the droplet number variability) with growing distance from the source.~~
1783 ~~Close to sources, the exclusive majority (98% and above) of the predicted droplet~~
1784 ~~number variability is attributed to aerosol number variations. Therefore, although BB~~
1785 ~~burning may strongly elevate CCN numbers, the relative impacts on cloud droplet~~
1786 ~~number (compared to background levels) is eventually limited by water vapor~~
1787 ~~availability and depends on the aerosol levels associated with the background. Taking~~
1788 ~~into account the fact that organic aerosol may have important contribution to the fine-~~
1789 ~~particle water (Guo et al., 2015), it is estimated that the liquid water content~~
1790 ~~contribution of BBOA and OOA-BB is of the order of 1.2 and 32.6% of the total organic~~

1791 ~~water of the aerosol. This has important implications to aerosol chemistry, as aerosol~~
1792 ~~water can provide the medium for heterogeneous reactions, but also can contribute to~~
1793 ~~the aerosol direct and indirect radiative effect.~~

1794

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2060

2061 **Table and Figure Captions**

2062 **Table 1:** Calculated chemical dispersion in terms of $\sigma(\kappa)/\kappa$ for the four studied fire
2063 events and all measured particle sizes.

2064

2065 **Table 2:** Average CFSTGC-derived κ_{CCN} values and HTDMA-derived κ_{HTDMA} values for
2066 the selected particles sizes.

2067

2068 **Table 3:** Percentage of externally mixed samples (B_f), the hygroscopic parameter of
2069 the less and more hygroscopic mode (κ_1, κ_2), respectively, and the number fraction
2070 of particles residing in the less hygroscopic mode (N_{f1}) during the Chios event (20-
2071 21/08/2012).

2072

2073 **Table 4:** Same as Table 3, during the Euboea event (03-05/09/2012).

2074

2075 **Table 5:** Variance of N_d and relative contribution of aerosol number and chemical
2076 composition for the four fire events.

2077

2078 **Figure 1:** Schematic of the setup used for the CCN and mixing state measurements.

2079

2080 **Figure 2:** (a) Satellite composite view from MODIS of the fire plume emerging from
2081 the island of Chios on 18 August 2012 (courtesy on NASA). The blue and red lines
2082 delineate the two ground tracks of the CALIPSO satellite during its overpass over Crete
2083 on 19 August 2012 between 00:27-00:40 and 11:34-11:47 UTC, (b) Vertical profiles
2084 of the aerosol backscatter coefficient (in $\text{km}^{-1}\text{sr}^{-1}$) at 532 and 1064 nm (left) and linear
2085 particle depolarization ratio at 532 nm (right) measured by CALIPSO and (c) Vertical
2086 profiles of the aerosol subtypes captured by CALIPSO during its overpass over Crete;
2087 the marked area is located just at the NW of Finokalia station (00:27-00:40 UTC).

2088

2089 **Figure 3:** Time series concentrations of major PM_{10} species that contribute in the
2090 identification of the BB events. The shaded areas represent the four considered fire
2091 events.

2092

2093 **Figure 4:** CCN concentrations for the selected particle sizes during the arrival of the
2094 smoke plumes for (a) Chios, (b) Croatia, (c) Euboea and (d) Andros. The black solid
2095 line represents the biomass burning component of the organic aerosol at the given
2096 time.

2097

2098 **Figure 5:** Activation fractions for the selected particle sizes during the arrival of the
2099 smoke plumes for (a) Chios, (b) Croatia, (c) Euboea and (d) Andros. The brown solid
2100 line represents the processed biomass burning component of the organic aerosol.

2101

2102 **Figure 6:** Characteristic hygroscopicity parameters of the selected particle sizes for
2103 (a) Chios, (b) Croatia, (c) Euboea and (d) Andros. The solid line represents the biomass
2104 burning component of the organic aerosol at the given time and circles represent the

2105 smoke plume arrival time. The shaded areas represent the smoke plume influence
2106 period.

2107

2108 **Figure 7:** Cumulative growth factorsHygroscopicity parameters derived from the
2109 HTDMA (a) & (c) and number size distributions from the SMPS (b) & (d) for the Chios
2110 and Euboea fire events, respectively. The shaded areas represent the smoke plume
2111 influence period.

2112

2113 **Figure 8:** Average diurnal contribution of each organic aerosol factor to the κ_{org}
2114 computed by multiplying the mass fraction by the corresponding inferred
2115 hygroscopicity parameter and the predicted diurnal profile of the total κ_{org} in the
2116 ambient aerosol.

2117

2118 **Figure 9:** Maximum supersaturation (S_{max}) (left panels) and potential droplet number
2119 (N_d) (right panels) for the four fire events of Chios (a,b), Croatia (c,d), Euboea (e,f)
2120 and Andros (g,h).

2121

2122 **Figure 10:** Droplet number concentration (top panel) and cloud maximum
2123 supersaturation (bottom panel) for each fire event as a function of BB influence,
2124 expressed by the sum of BBOA and OOA-BB ACSM factors.

2125

2126 **Table 1**

	60 nm	80 nm	100 nm	120 nm
<i>Chios</i>	0.85±0.14	0.73±0.14	0.60±0.20	0.41±0.16
<i>Croatia</i>	0.77±0.18	0.68±0.19	0.44±0.12	0.41±0.10
<i>Euboea</i>	0.70±0.20	0.49±0.10	0.32±0.08	0.29±0.06
<i>Andros</i>	0.71±0.10	0.52±0.13	0.34±0.10	0.30±0.06

2127

2128

2129 **Table 2**

	K_{HTDMA}	K_{CCN}
60 nm	0.23±0.07	0.22±0.05
80 nm	0.28±0.1	0.39±0.1
100 nm	0.3±0.1	0.44±0.1
120 nm	0.33±0.11	0.49±0.13

2130

2131

2132 **Table 3**

d_p (nm)	Bf (%)	κ_1	Nf_1	κ_2
60	6.9	0.05±0.02	0.17±0.06	0.18±0.01
80	20.0	0.05±0.02	0.33±0.14	0.19±0.03
100	23.0	0.06±0.03	0.43±0.24	0.21±0.04
120	30.4	0.05±0.03	0.47±0.19	0.2±0.04

2133

2134

2135 **Table 4**

d_p (nm)	Bf (%)	κ_1	Nf_1	κ_2
60	5.3	0.09±0.07	0.37±0.34	0.31±0.19
80	15.2	0.06±0.04	0.31±0.17	0.2±0.03
100	26.5	0.05±0.03	0.39±0.19	0.19±0.03
120	28.2	0.05±0.03	0.40±0.19	0.19±0.03

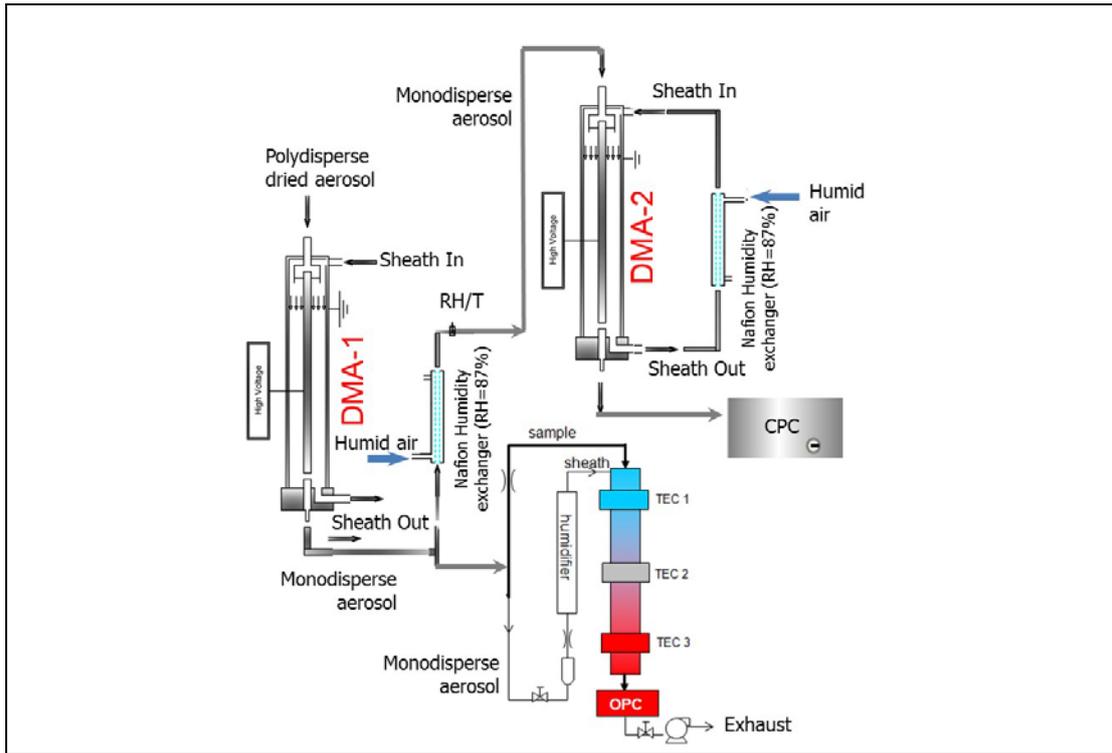
2136

2137 **Table 5**

	<u>VarianceN_d</u>		<u>Contribution κ</u>		<u>Contribution $N_{aerosol}$</u>	
	<u>$w=0.3$</u>	<u>$w=0.6$</u>	<u>$w=0.3$</u>	<u>$w=0.6$</u>	<u>$w=0.3$</u>	<u>$w=0.6$</u>
<u><i>Chios</i></u>	<u>13.8</u>	<u>18.1</u>	<u>17.7%</u>	<u>12.6%</u>	<u>82.3%</u>	<u>87.4%</u>
<u><i>Croatia</i></u>	<u>34.4</u>	<u>47.7</u>	<u>26.7%</u>	<u>25.2%</u>	<u>73.3%</u>	<u>74.8%</u>
<u><i>Euboea</i></u>	<u>60.9</u>	<u>111.3</u>	<u>1.1%</u>	<u>2.2%</u>	<u>98.9%</u>	<u>97.8%</u>
<u><i>Andros</i></u>	<u>164.2</u>	<u>307.8</u>	<u>0.1%</u>	<u>0.15%</u>	<u>99.9%</u>	<u>99.8%</u>

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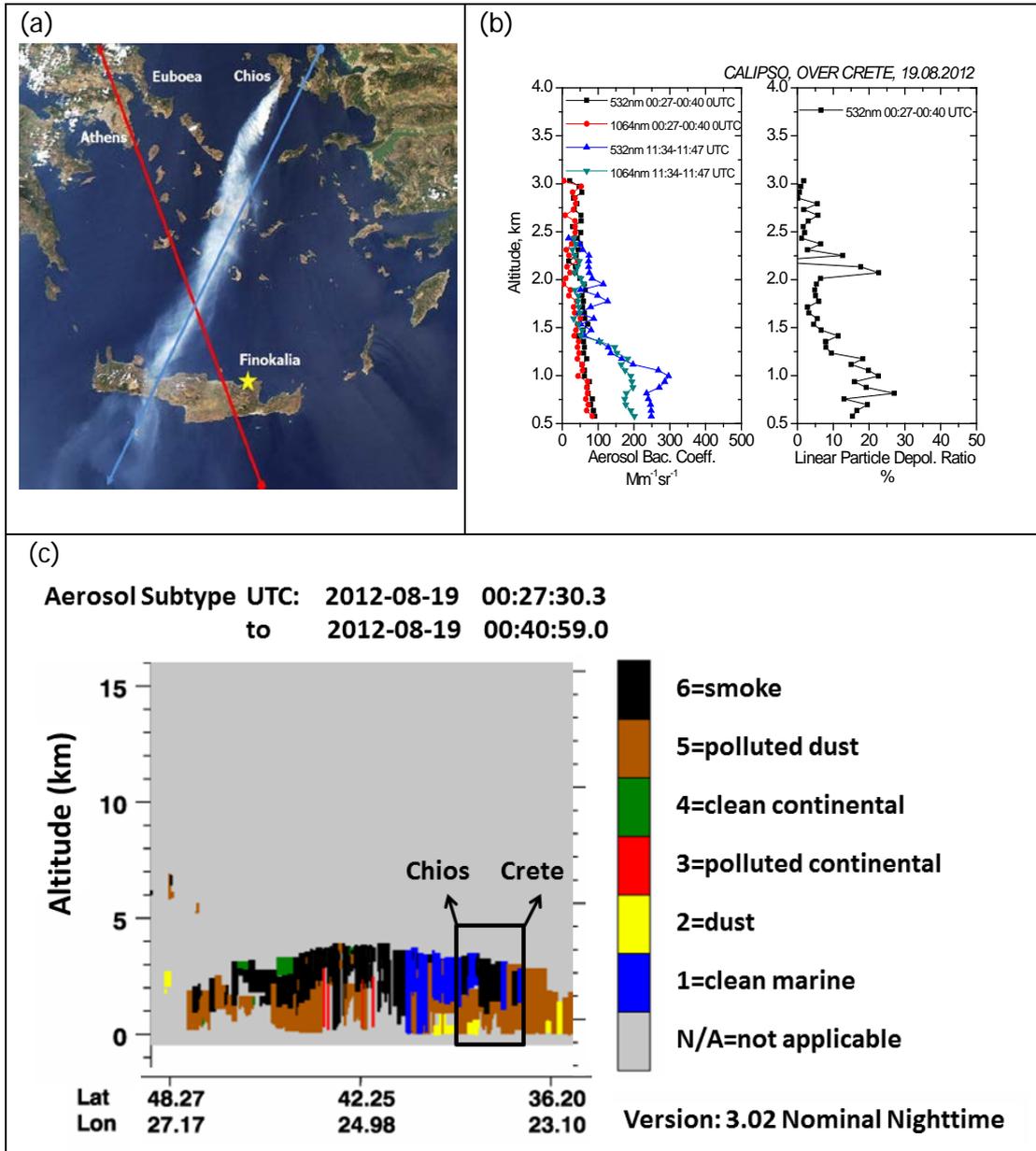
2139 **Figure 1**



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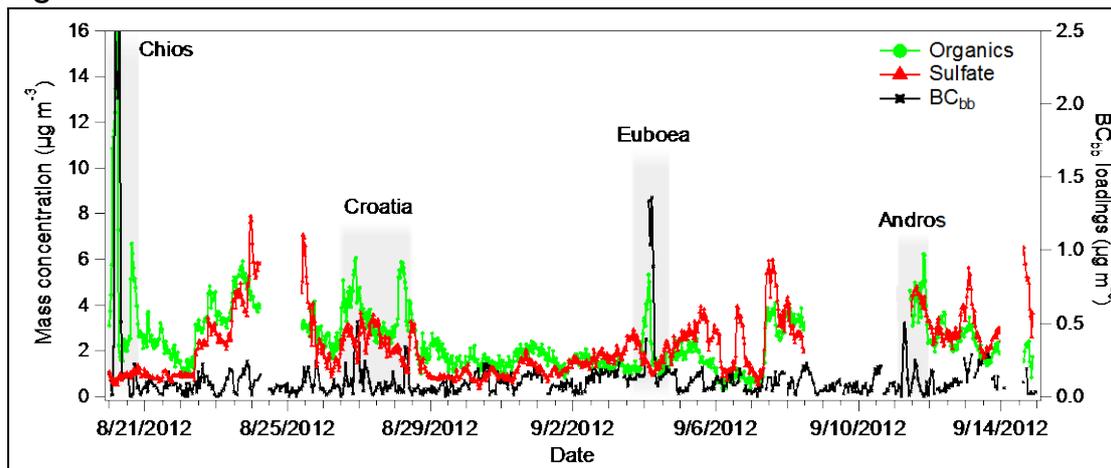
Figure 2



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2144 **Figure 3**

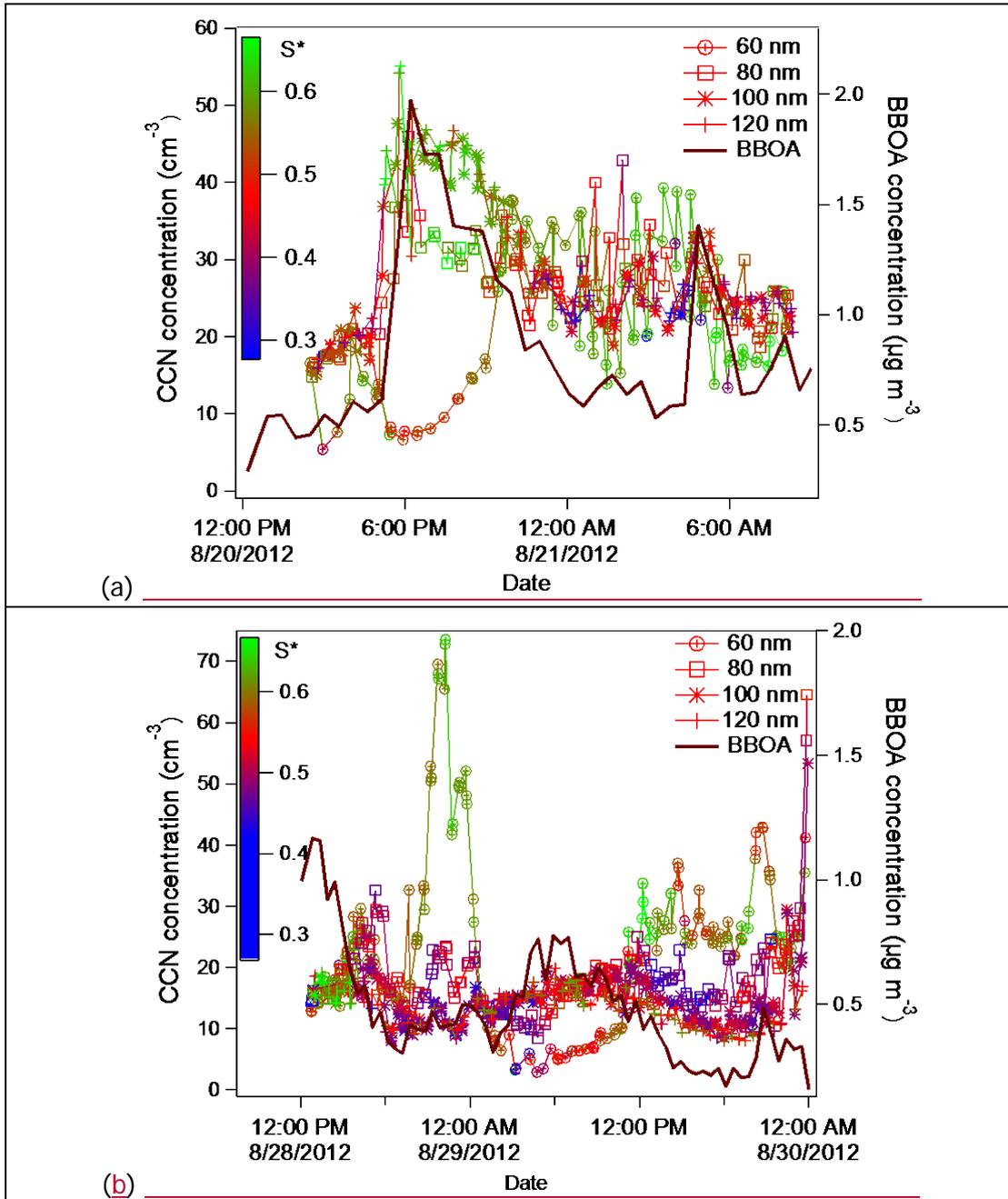


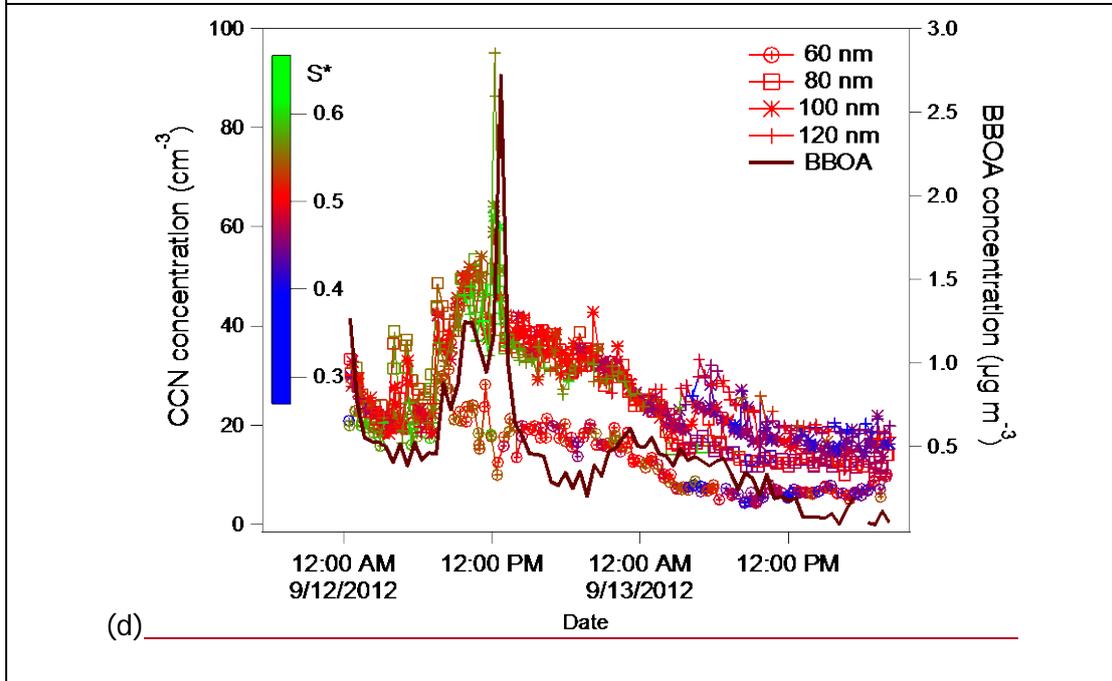
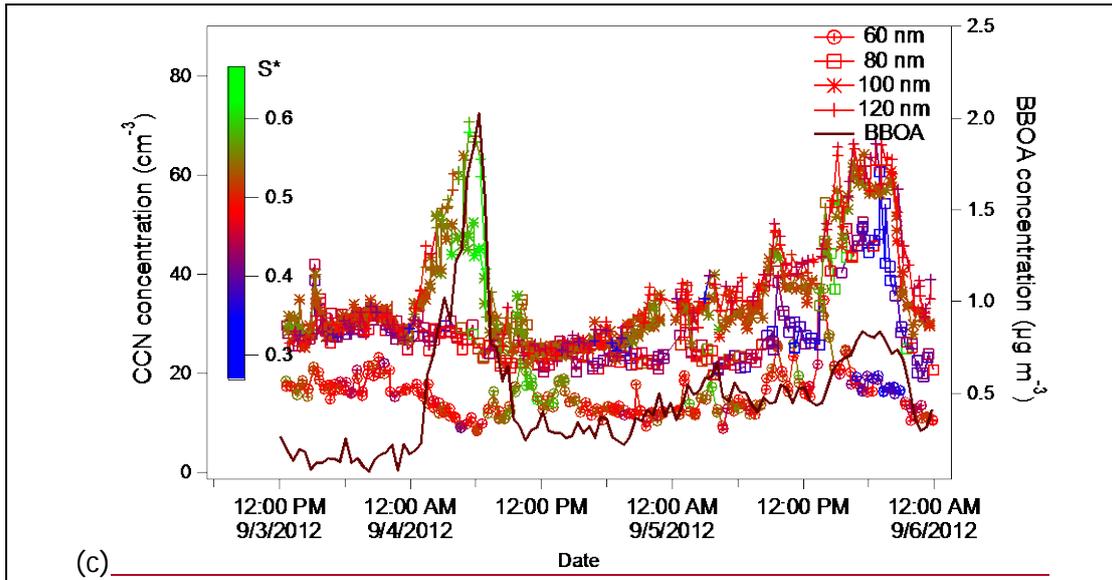
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Figure 4

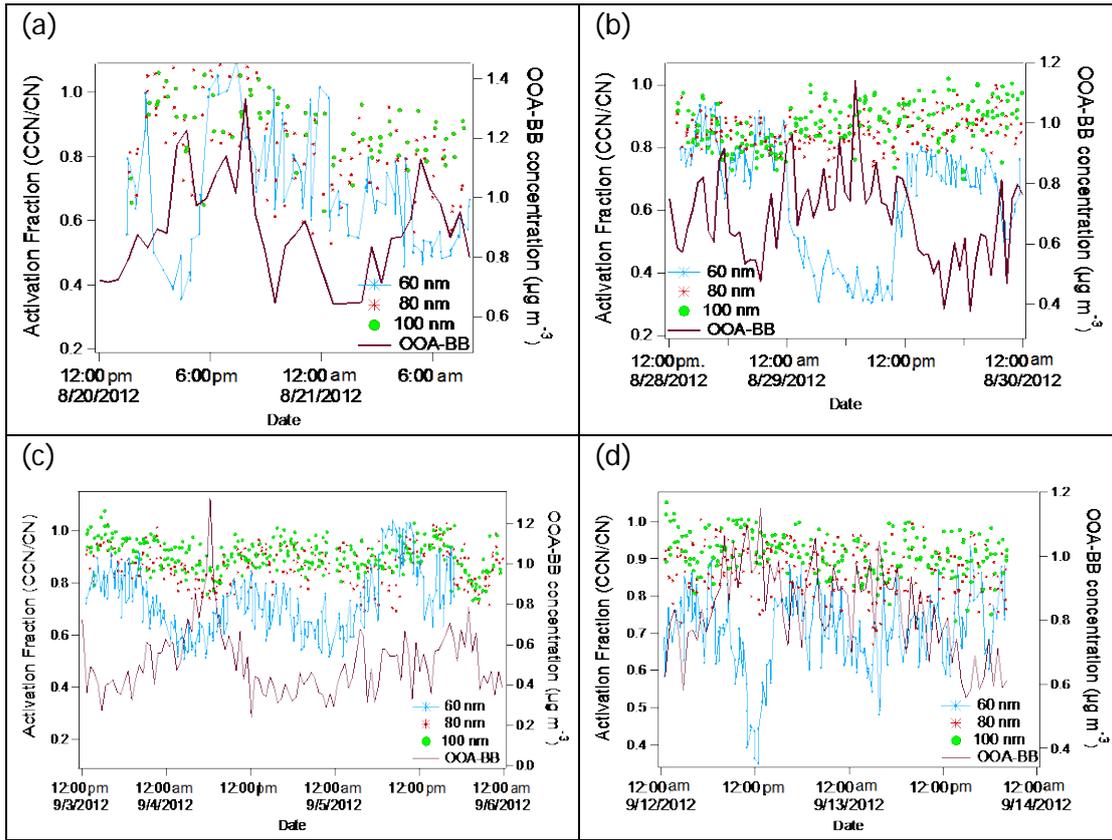




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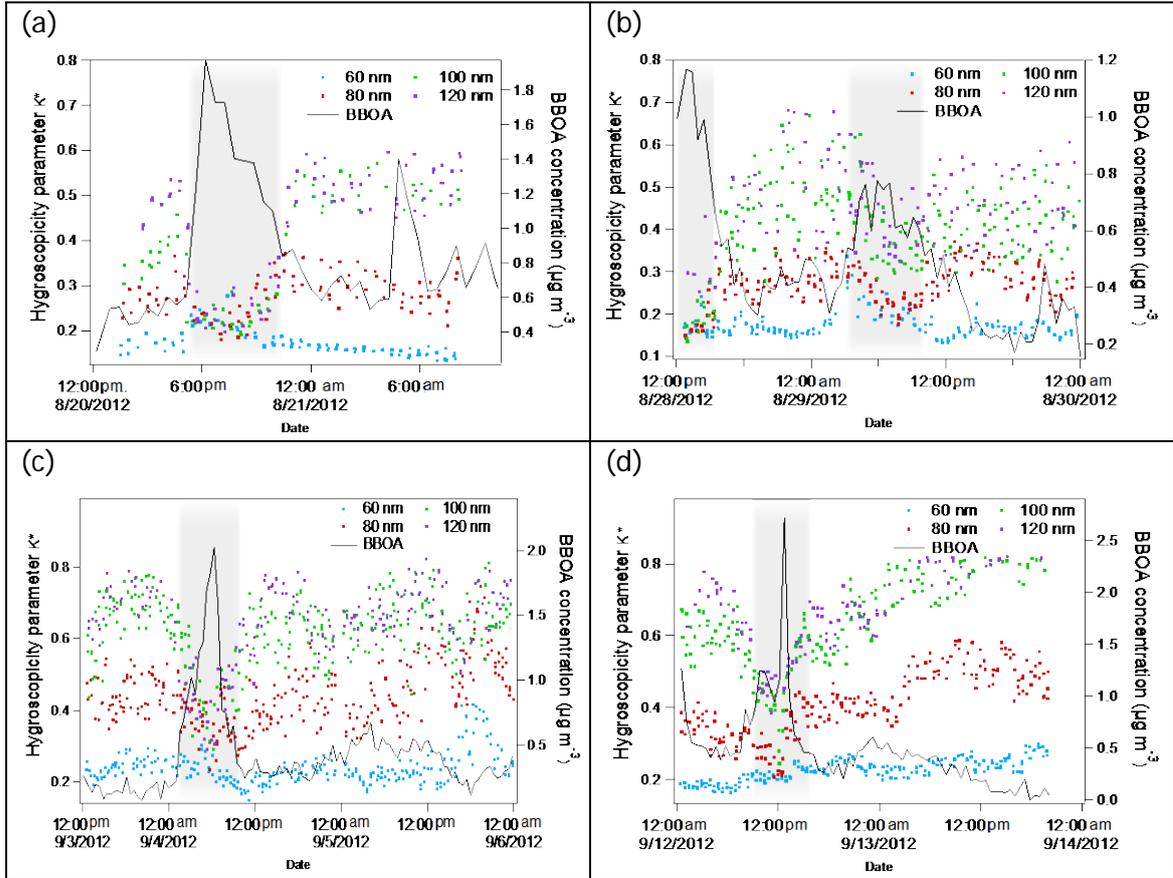
Figure 5



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2154 **Figure 6**

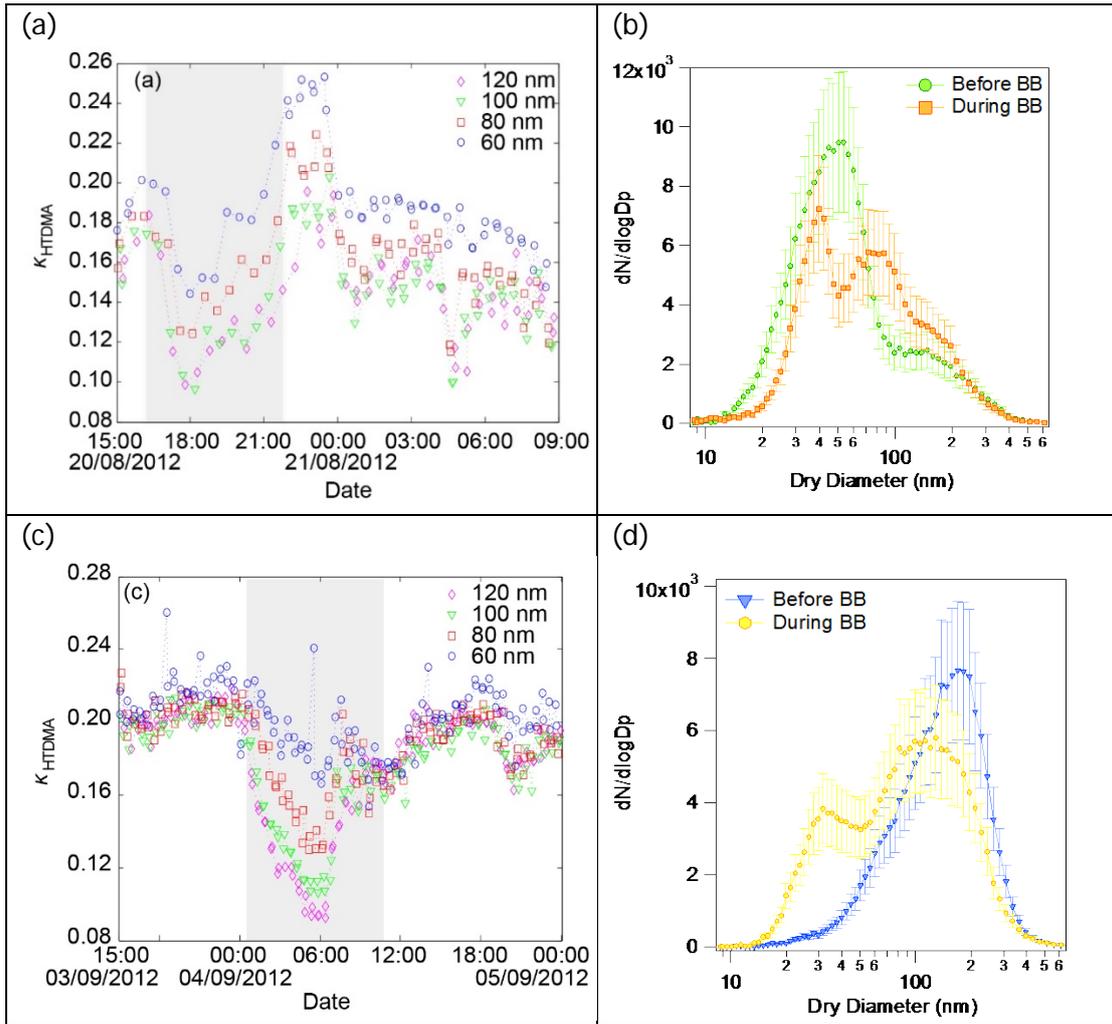


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Figure 7

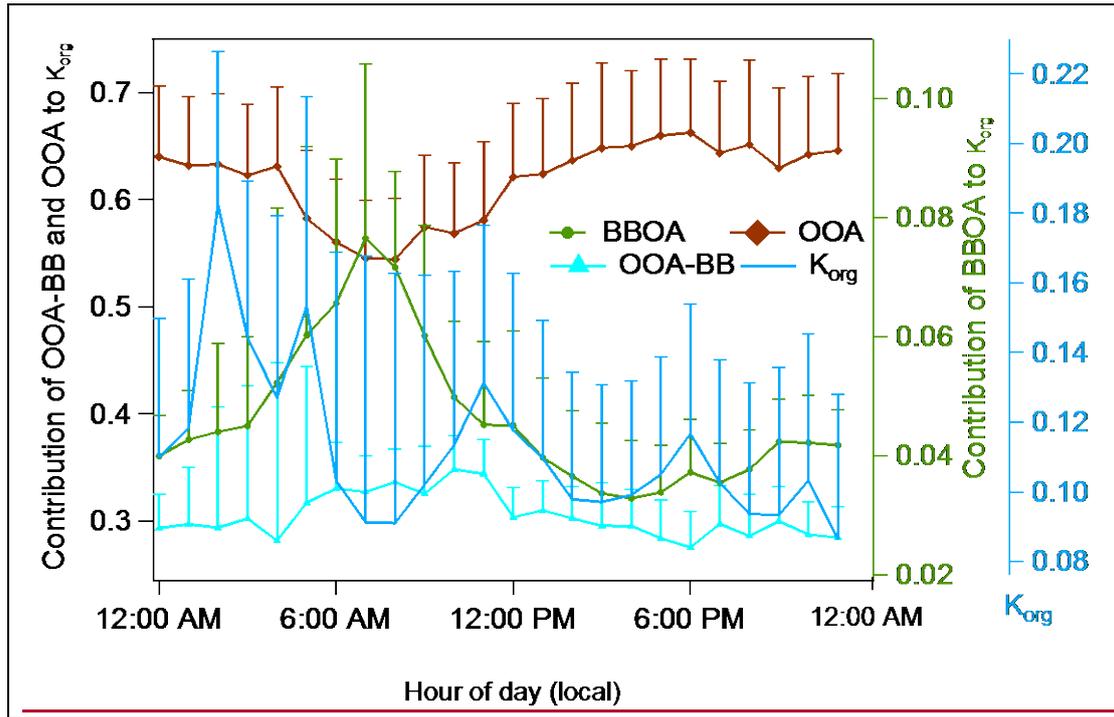


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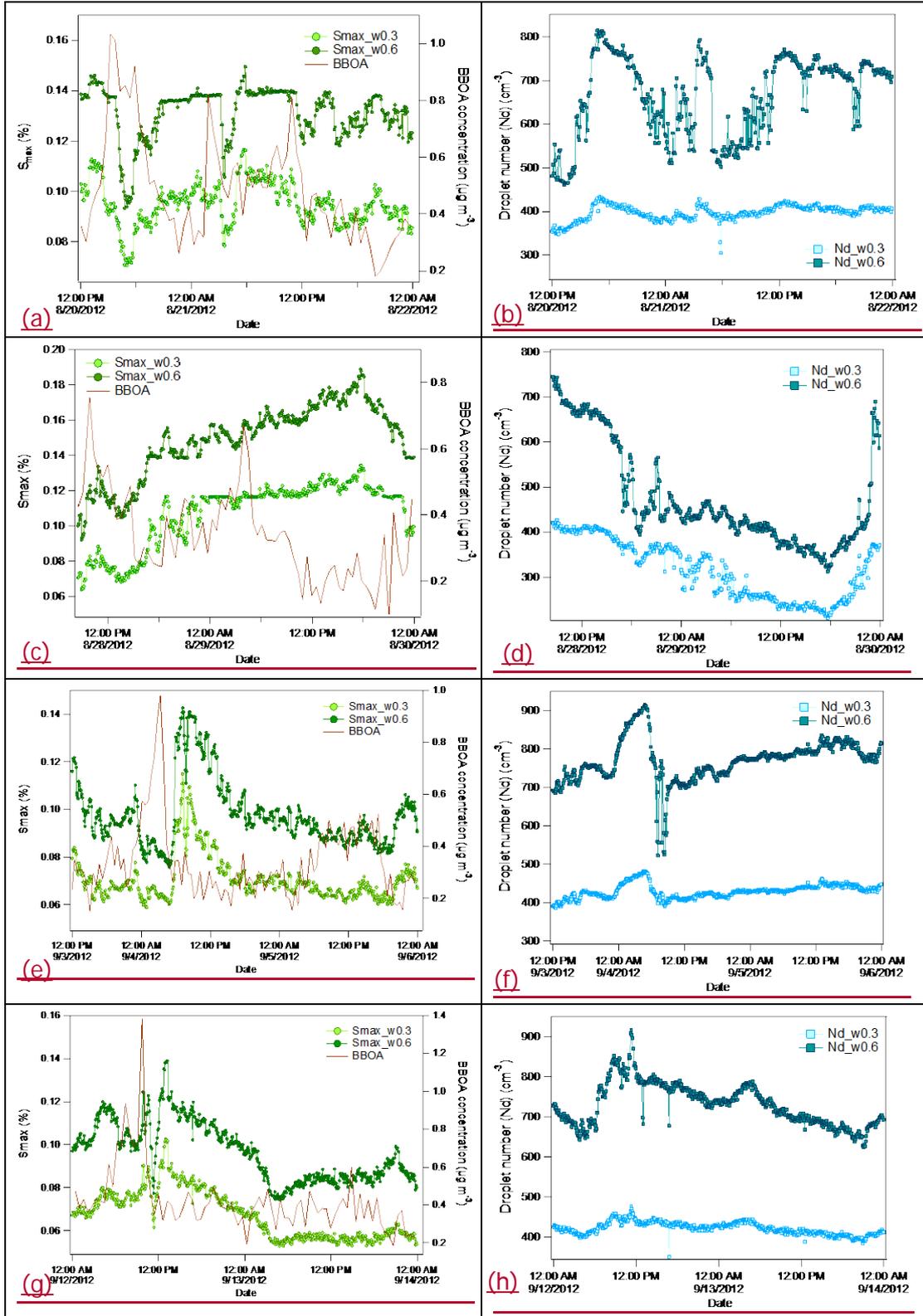
Figure 8



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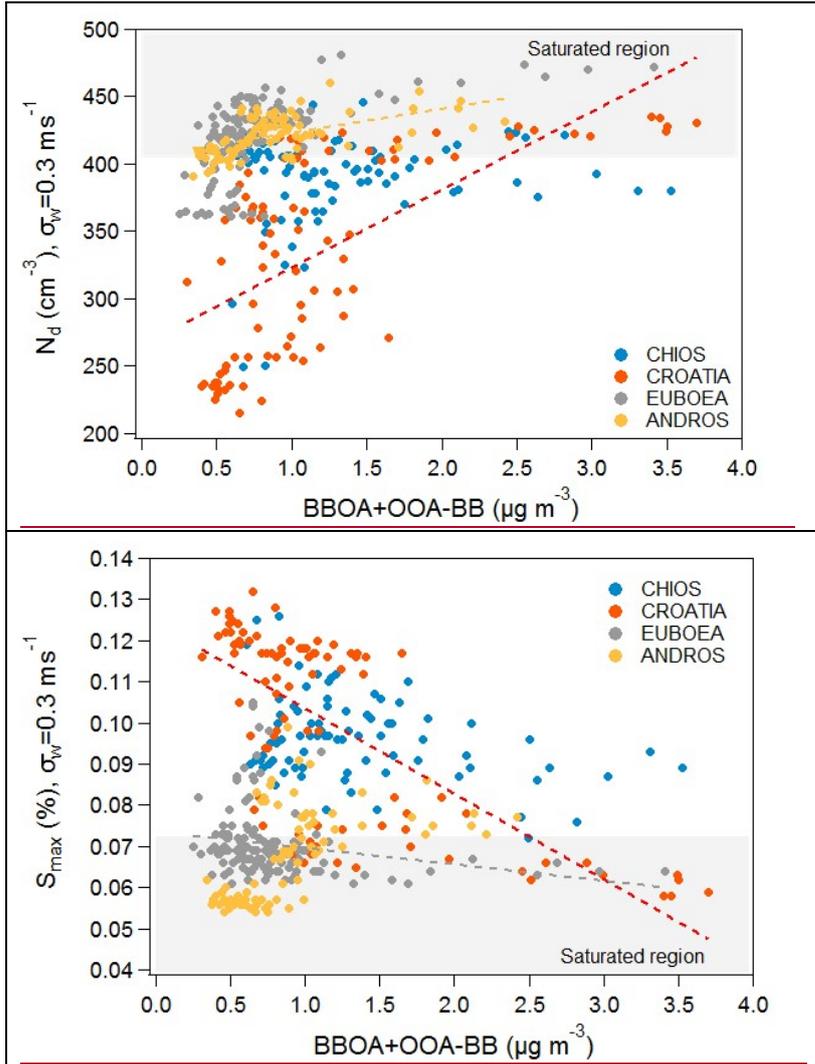
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Figure 9



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Figure 10



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