Thank you to both of the referees, and Gabor Vali, for their comments regarding the submission of our manuscript on 'Comparing model and measured ice crystal concentrations in orographic clouds during the INUPIAQ campaign'. Below is my response to these comments, please note that Figures A-I that are referred to in these comments were submitted previously in my response to the comments in the open discussion phase.

Referee 1

Major comments and questions

1. *When INP concentration are increased to match the observed ice crystal concentration and the consequences for LWC is demonstrated please add what happens to the ice water content (IWC) in the model. If it is possible please compare with observations of IWC.*

    Figure Ac indicates what happens to the IWC for the Control and Increased IN runs (IN-1 and IN-3) whilst Figure Bc indicates what happens for the Control and Surface Flux runs (with the formulation of the flux differing from the original paper following comments by the Anonymous Referee # 2). None of our probes directly measure the IWC, but for comparison we have calculated IWC based on the binned size distribution of ice from the 2D-S.

    The IWC in Figure Ac suggests that increasing the number of INP by 6 orders of magnitude fails to increase the IWC to match the IWC inferred from the 2D-S measurements. Even though the ice crystals have reduced the LWC (Figure Ab) to below the measured LWC at Jungfraujoch, the modelled crystals are smaller in size than the crystals measured by the 2D-S, as the IWC is significantly smaller with similar number of ice crystals present.

    In Figure B, the IWC (Figure Bc) suggests that the inclusion of the surface flux increases the IWC when compared with the control simulation, but does not match, exactly, the IWC inferred from the 2D-S. There are a number of explanations as to why the modelled and measured IWC do not exactly match. However, a likely explanation is that the growth of the surface hoar crystals by vapour deposition in the model is not significant enough to increase the IWC to the measured IWC at Jungfraujoch. As the number of ice crystals agrees well between the model and measurements, the difference in IWC may be due to the small assumed size of the surface hoar crystals (10 μm). Smaller ice crystals contribute less to the IWC than larger particles, which suggests an increase in the size of surface hoar crystals in the model would be required to match the 2D-S inferred IWC.

2. *The comparison with the calculated required updrafts velocities that enable MPCs is not done consistently. On one hand the measured updrafts are compared with the required updrafts calculated from observation and conclusions of the existence of MPC are made. On the other hand modelled updrafts are compared with the calculated updrafts base on modelled data for both simulations. But a comparison between the modelled and measured updrafts is missing. It should be done using the same linear axis including downdrafts.*

    The reason for the two different plots here was really clarity, to show that the Korolev and Mazin threshold for the control run was significantly lower than the simulated updraft in the model, which is not as clear in linear scale (as shown by Figure C). However, for sake of comparison of the wind speeds, we will include both in the same plot as required. The model updraft speed is quite different from the measured updraft speed, which does not seem to indicate the same downdrafts as in the model. However, the model does not

1

accurately represent the steep orography as accurately as reality, and the steep gradients in the terrain cause higher updraft speeds than represented in the model. The difference has been discussed as a limitation of the Korolev and Mazin analysis.

3. *As already mentioned by the authors the implementation of surface flux is kept very simple so far. Please discuss the consequences of these simplifications.*

Several changes have been made to the flux in response to the comments made by the second referee. These include an additional minimum wind speed, and the conditions at which the flux is activated. The consequences of the simplification are discussed more below (in response to general comment 1a, 1c and 1d), and in the associated changes.

4. *Explain why LWC is not completely depleted when increasing the ice crystal number concentration locally by surface flux processes but depleting when increasing by higher INP concentrations. Would the calculated updrafts as done for the study with increased INP allow MPC in the simulation with surface fluxes?*

Increasing the numbers of INP increases the numbers of ice crystals at all locations in the model, including the regions above the surface. These ice crystals then reduce the liquid water content by the Bergeron-Findeisen process. In the surface ice crystal source case (Figure B) the high ice crystal concentrations are confined close to the surface and thus liquid water is able to mix down from higher levels, or advect across to the summit, before the Bergeron-Findeisen process has had time to act.

The updraft threshold calculated for Surf-3 is generally below the model wind speed when an updraft is present in the model, suggesting that even with the inclusion of the surface flux mixed phase cloud can exist in the simulation at these times (see Figure D). However, with the inaccuracies in the vertical wind velocity between the model and reality, the inclusion of this calculation does not seem to add any weight to the argument in the paper.

5. *Is the WRF model respective the cloud parametrization able to distinguish different freezing mechanism? If so is deposition nucleation the dominating freezing process in MPCs?*

This is an interesting point. The Morrison scheme is able to distinguish freezing mechanism, and parameterisations for contact and immersion freezing are also included in the model. However, only the deposition and condensation freezing are increased in the increased INP runs, which needs to be outlined more clearly in the text, and the limitations that the mechanism has on this research. However, whichever parameterisation is increased to include additional INP, the LWC will still be reduced as the number of ice crystals increases. Hence to match the number of ice crystals witnessed at Jungfraujoch, the LWC will likely still be reduced in the model to below the LWC witnessed at Jungfraujoch.

Editorial comments

1. *Timeseries: axis, axis title and titles are hardly readable (too small)*

This relates to a formatting issue that I didn't spot previously. Each of the plots were landscape A4 in the manuscript, and have been shrunk to fit the ACPD format. I will ensure these are correct on submission.

2. *Do not use different axis for two comparable plots (figure 6)*

Corrected with just 1 plot.

3. *Label bar description (units) in Fig 12 can't be found easily. Placed somewhere in between the other plots.*

Label units moved into a clearer place on Figure 12.

4. *Better use INP instead of IN as suggested in http://www.atmos-chem-phys.net/15/10263/2015/acp-15-10263-2015.pdf*

This will be changed throughout.

5. *Typing error: pp 25658 line 26: Bergeron-Findeisen (i is missing)*

Correction made in text.

Referee 2

General comments

In their paper, the authors follow the assumptions of Lloyd et al (2015) and test if a flux of ice crystals emitted from the surface can explain the high ice number concentration observed at Jungfraujoch. Their results show that emitting such flux increases modelled ice number concentration and allow getting simulated number concentration closer to observed values. The source of this surface ice crystal flux is surface hoar crystals present at the snow surface.

1. *The authors mention the conditions required for surface hoar formation in the text (P25665 l. 15-25) but they do not really check if these conditions are present in the simulations. Before assuming that a flux of surface hoar crystals can be emitted from the surface, I highly recommend them to show that realistic conditions required for surface hoar formation are present around Jungfraujoch in the simulation. Surface hoar forms at the snow surface due to deposition of water vapour from the air onto the snow surface (Colbeck, 1988, Stoessel et al. 2010). Therefore, during growth conditions a water vapour flux toward the snow surface is required. This is for example the case when humid air is present above a snow surface on clear winter night when radiative cooling lowers the surface temperature of the snow (Stoessel et al. 2010). Horton et al. (2014) showed that factors affecting surface hoar growth and shrinkage were captured by modelling the latent heat flux. The authors could study the latent heat flux between the snow surface and the atmosphere in the WRF control simulation and provide an estimation of the occurrence of favourable conditions for surface hoar formation during the study period. How does the occurrence of favourable conditions compare with the conditions used by the authors for emitting the particle flux (air temperature is below 0C and supersaturated with respect to ice; P 25666 l25 to P 25667 l 2)? The conditions they use may generate the emission of ice crystals towards the atmosphere even when conditions are not favourable for the presence of surface hoar at the snow surface. In the current version of the paper, it is hard to believe that the assumption of a flux of surface hoar is realistic.*

To more realistically include a flux of surface hoar into out model, we have now used the latent heat flux between the atmosphere and the surface modelled by the NOAH land surface model to assess when surface hoar can occur during our model simulations. As described by Horton et al. (2014), when there is a positive upwards flux of latent heat the deposition of vapour occurs and contributes to the growth of surface hoar. By initiating the flux when a positive upwards latent heat flux is present, a more realistic spatial distribution of a surface hoar flux is provided. The inclusion of the latent heat flux dependence on the surface flux still provides ice concentrations that compare favourably with the observations at Jungfraujoch.

2. *The authors use an adapted version of the aerosol flux from frost flowers (Xu et al. 2013). The authors should keep in mind that the fact that frost flowers can served as a source of aerosols is not widely accepted. In laboratory experiments, Roscoe et al. (2010) showed that no aerosol could be observed from frost flowers, despite winds in gusts up to 12 m/s. They concluded that frost flowers are unlikely to be the major direct source of sea salt aerosol. This limitation should be mentioned in the paper. Note that this point does not concern surface hoar at the snow surface and the fact that surface crystals can be removed from the snow surface by wind.*

   This will be noted in the text.

3. *The flux in Eq. 5 depends only on wind speed and gives a positive flux even if the wind speed is equal to zero. This formulation is not realistic for the emission of any crystals from the snow surface (blowing snow or surface hoar). As mention by the authors (P 25666 l. 13-15), surface hoar is removed from the snow surface when wind blows the crystals in the atmosphere. The physical processes involved are similar to the ones observed when snow at the top of the snowpack is transported by the wind with a transport in saltation and turbulent suspension (e. g. Pomeroy and Gray, 1995). Therefore, similar to the initiation of snow transport by the wind (Schmidt, 1980; Guoymarc'h and Mérindol, 1998; Clifton et al, 2006), a threshold wind speed is required for the transport of surface hoar by the wind. The authors should at least introduce a threshold wind speed in their adaptation of the aerosol flux from Xu et al (2013). For example, a value of 4 ms^{-1} at 5m above the ground typical for fresh fallen snow could be used. The authors should also better justify (P 25666 l 15-20) why they use a formulation different from the typical formulations used to represent the emission of blowing snow particles in the atmosphere (Gallée et al, 2001; Lehning et al, 2008; Vionnet et al. 2014).*

   A lower wind speed threshold of $4\mathrm{ms}^{-1}$ has been included at suggestion of Anonymous Referee #2 , as clearly if the optimal wind speeds for the development of surface hoar are speeds of $1\text{-}2\mathrm{ms}^{-1}$ (Hachihubo and Akitaya 1997), a greater wind speed would be required to transport the crystals from the surface into the atmosphere. With the adjustments made, the new fluxes do not significantly change from the fluxes presented in the discussion paper, and are plotted in Figure B.

   The use of the frost flower flux indicates a simple representation dependant only on wind speed, and provides an exponential relationship with wind speed. The formulation of the blowing snow particles in, for example, Vionnet et al. (2014) suggests a much more complicated representation of the snow layer, with suspension and saltation layers.

   The reasons for the more simplistic calculation are as follows

   (a) As snow particles being blown in the saltation layer are being carried along the surface, these are unlikely to be blown into the atmosphere and affect the ice concentration at Jungfraujoch, which is measured several metres above the surface. Hence only the suspension layer needs to be considered.
   (b) The double-moment equations 2 and 3 from Vionnet et al. (2014) describe terms for the number of particles of snow and the mass mixing ratio of the blowing snow. In their equation 2 (see below), the flux of particles of blowing snow is dependent on terms for advection, turbulence, sedimentation and sublimation.

$$\frac{\partial N_s}{\partial t} + \underbrace{u_j \frac{\partial N_s}{\partial x_j}}_{Advection} = \underbrace{\frac{\partial}{\partial x_j}\left(\overline{N_s' u_j'}\right)}_{Turbulence} + \underbrace{\frac{\partial}{\partial x_j}\left(N_s V_n \delta_{js}\right)}_{Sedimentation} + \underbrace{S_N}_{Sublimation}$$

   Within the Morrison scheme, the advection of ice crystals, the sedimentation and sublimation of ice are all represented, so terms for these processes are not required

180   in our flux. Hence the modelling of our flux only needs to include the turbulence
            term of the Vionnet et al. (2014) equation for blowing snow.

    (c) Comparing Figures 8a and 8b in Vionnet et al. (2014) suggests the relationship
        between the blowing snow mass flux and the wind speed is exponential, similar to
        the flux expressed by Xu et al (2013). Whilst the magnitude is clearly different for
185   these fluxes, this is dependent on the availability of surface crystals.

    Hence whilst perhaps the derivation of the blowing snow flux in Vionnet et al. (2014)
    is more complicated than the flux used in this article, the surface ice crystal flux here
    includes sedimentation and sublimation effects and has similar exponential dependence
    on the wind speed as the more complicated Vionnet et al. (2014) blowing snow flux does.

190 4. *Two additional comments regarding the formulation of the surface crystal flux are: In Equation
        (5), at which height above the ground is considered the horizontal wind speed? Is it the same
        value as in Xu et al (2013)? It should be at least mentioned in the paper and if the values are
        different the authors should discussed the impact.*

    The horizontal wind speed used in equation 5 is taken from the surface of the model.
195   Whilst not explicitly outlined Xu et al. (2013), the implication is that the wind is also
    measured at the surface. This information will be included.

    5. *The authors assume a size of 10 microns for emitted surface hoar crystal. This value is small
        for ice crystal emitted from the surface and will have a large impact on the sedimentation
        of the particles. During blowing snow events, the diameter of blown snow particles ranges
200   typically between 40 and 200 microns in the first meter above the snowpack and follows a two-
        parameter gamma distribution (Nishimura et al, 2005, Gordon et al 2009, Naaim Bouvet et
        al, 2010). The authors should discuss this assumption and the expected impact on the number
        of ice crystals in the atmosphere.*

    The inclusion of small ice crystals is essentially to give the surface hoar that is blown in
205   the atmosphere an initial mass to assess whether a surface ice flux would affect the ice
    concentration. Increasing the size would lead to faster sedimentation of the ice crystals,
    which might complicate the analysis. The actual mass of the ice crystals emitted is un-
    known. In absence of any knowledge of the size distribution of the ice crystals, we chose
    10 microns as it was small enough to allow us to assess whether the process has the
210   potential to explain our observations. We are planning to undertake a future experiment
    to measure the flux and size of surface emitted crystals, but until then we decided on 10
    microns.

    However, after performing these calculations we realise the choice of small ice concen-
215   trations may explain why the model IWC is lower than the IWC inferred from the 2D-S
    (See Figure B). Investigating the sensitivity to initial ice particle size is a topic worthy of
    further study.

    6. *Based on the analysis of Lloyd et al (2015) the authors consider that blowing snow cannot
        explain the ice number concentration at Jungfraujoch and that a second source of ice crystals
220   from the surface must be considered. This is based on the lack of a relationship between the
        number of ice particles and the wind speed found by Lloyd et al (2015) in the observations at
        Jungfraujoch. It would be very interesting if the authors could carry out a similar study using
        the simulated values. How does simulated ice number concentration in simulations Surf-6 and
        Surf-3 compare with simulated wind speed? As done by Lloyd et al (2015), the authors could
225   pick up events identified as blowing snow event and non blowing snow event.*

    Having done this comparison, the ice number concentration is more heavily dependent
    of wind speed than Lloyd et al. (2015). In Figure Ea, a comparison of wind speed to ice

concentration is shown. At horizontal wind speeds greater than $4\ \mathrm{ms^{-1}}$, there is a strong correlation between the ice concentration and the wind speed, suggesting the strong influence of the flux above the minimum horizontal wind speed at which the flux is active. When compared with the findings of Lloyd et al. (2015) the ice crystal concentration in the model is more dependent on wind than the observed ice crystal concentrations.

This suggests that while the ice concentrations provided by the flux may be accurate in comparison to the 2D-S, the flux is more dependent on wind speed in its calculation, and hence if the flux does contribute to the high ice concentrations at Jungfraujoch it is not solely dependent on wind speed.

Hence the existence of the flux could be in occurrence, but is more complicated that the flux representation in the model, with less dependence on wind than the present flux.

In reference to comparing the specific blowing snow and non-blowing snow events, the short cloud periods that the Lloyd et al. (2015) data covers (at most 2-3 hours) makes the model and 2D-S data difficult to compare over these periods. The different temporal resolutions of the model (hourly outputs) and the 2D-S data used in Lloyd et al. (2015) (10 second data), mean that the model has approximately 3-4 outputs during each cloud period, and it is difficult to compare the ice concentrations and wind with such little data. Hence the wind and ice concentrations are compared over the entire campaign in the model, and not splitting into blowing snow cases and non-blowing snow cases.

Specific comments

1. *P 25654 l. 27 P 25655 l. 3: a map of the simulation domain showing the topography would help the reader to better figure out how looks the topography in the region. On this map, the authors could also mention the location of the Jungfraujoch station and the 3 other AWS stations used for model validation.*

   I have included a map the topography and the location of Jungfraujoch and the Meteo Swiss stations (Figure F).

2. *P 25656 l 24: the model validation is based on a comparison between simulations and observations at four stations (including Jungfraujoch). The validation is purely based on a visual comparison between observed and simulated time series over the period of interest. The authors should include a more quantitative evaluation and compute error statistics such as Bias and Root Mean Square Error for each meteorological variable, and each station. They could use a table to summarize the results.*

   The Bias and Root Mean Square Error has been calculated and summarised in a table in the text. The statistics have also been referred to in the text to support the validation of the model.

3. *P25657 l 18-21: at which level is taken the simulated ice number concentration: at first atmospheric level or at the real altitude of Jungfraujoch?*

   The simulated ice concentration is taken at the first atmospheric level.

4. *In Section 4, the authors compare observed ice number concentrations with modelled values from different simulations. Time series are shown on Fig. 5, 7, 10 and 11. Based on a visual comparison, the authors discuss if a given process can explain the high ice number concentration observed in orographic clouds at Jungfraujoch. It would be interesting for the reader to have complementary figures showing for example scatter plots of observed and simulated ice concentrations.*

6

275   These have been done for the control and IN-3 simulations from Figure 5 and the SF-3
        simulation from Figure 11, and will be added to the supplementary material (See Figures
        G-I). Figures 7 and 10 do not show a significant change from the control run, these are
        probably not as important.

Technical comments

280 **Text**

   – *P 25656: l. 19-23: The description of the stations used for model validation should be part of the Methodology section.*

      This will be changed so section 3 is now section 2.4.

   – *P 25656: l. 20-21: please mention at which height above the ground are measured wind, air*
285   *temperature and humidity.*

      Measurement is taken at the first atmospheric level, which will be mentioned in the text.

   – *P 25666: l. 23: mention the units of phi.*

      Phi is unitless. However, phi is multiplied by a magnitude of crystals per metres squared
      per second, and the exact number of crystals added at the surface of the model is scaled
290   by phi.

Figures

   – *Fig. 12 and 13: add the prevailing wind direction on the maps or in the caption*

      Added the prevailing wind to the figure 12 caption, which is referenced in the figure 13
295   caption.

Response to Short Comment

There are no specific issues here that need to be answered, apart from clarifying the speculative
nature of the inclusion of the surface flux, and the need for upwind field observations of the flux to
determine whether the flux is occurring and influencing the ice concentrations.
300   On further discussion with Gabor Vali, we have also clarified with him that the flux described in
this article is a flux of ice crystals and not a frost flower flux, even though the flux is based on a
equation derived from frost flowers. In addition, we have included further reference to the ground-
layer snow clouds mentioned in Vali et al. (2012) at relevant points in the article.

Comparing model and measured ice crystal concentrations in orographic clouds during the INUPIAQ campaign

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Abstract. This paper assesses the reasons for high ice number concentrations observed in oro-

305 graphic clouds by comparing in-situ measurements from the Ice NUcleation Process Investigation And Quantification field campaign (INUPIAQ) at Jungfraujoch, Switzerland (3570m asl) with the Weather Research and Forecasting model (WRF) simulations over real terrain surrounding Jungfraujoch. During the 2014 winter field campaign, between the 20th January and 28th February, the model simulations regularly underpredicted the observed ice number concentration by $10^3 \mathrm{l}^{-1}$. Previous lit-

310 erature has proposed several processes for the high ice number concentrations in orographic clouds, including an increased ice ~~nuclei (IN~~nucleating particle (INP) concentration, secondary ice multiplication and the advection of surface ice crystals into orographic clouds. We find that increasing ~~IN~~ INP concentrations in the model prevents the simulation of the mixed-phase clouds that were witnessed during the INUPIAQ campaign at Jungfraujoch. Additionally, the inclusion of secondary ice

315 production upwind of Jungfraujoch into the WRF simulations cannot consistently produce enough ice splinters to match the observed concentrations. A surface flux of hoar crystals was included in the WRF model, which simulated ice concentrations comparable to the measured ice number concentrations, without depleting the liquid water content (LWC) simulated in the model. Our simulations therefore suggest that high ice concentrations observed in mixed-phase clouds at Jungfraujoch are

320 caused by a flux of surface hoar crystals into the orographic clouds.

1

1 Introduction

Orographic clouds, and the precipitation they produce, play a key role in the relationship between the atmosphere and the land surface (Roe, 2005). The formation and development of each orographic cloud event varies considerably. Variations in the large-scale flow over the orography, the
325 size and shape of the orography, convection, turbulence and cloud microphysics all influence the lifetime and extent of orographic clouds, as well as the intensity of precipitation they produce (Rotunno and Houze, 2007). Understanding these variations in orographic clouds is important as the intensity and extent of a wide-range of geophysical hazards are heavily influenced by precipitation (Conway and Raymond, 1993; Galewsky and Sobel, 2005).

330 The influence of aerosols on the cloud microphysical processes is thought to be important in understanding the variability of orographic clouds and precipitation. Aerosols interact with clouds by acting as cloud condensation nuclei (CCN), which water vapour condenses on to, or ~~ice nuclei (IN~~acting as ice nucleating particles (INP). The differing efficiencies, compositions and concentrations of both CCN and ~~IN~~ INP in the atmosphere influence the lifetime and precipitation efficiency
335 of clouds (Twomey, 1974; Albrecht, 1989; Lohmann and Feichter, 2005).

In particular, the role of aerosols in the production of ice in the atmosphere is poorly understood. Ice can nucleate in the atmosphere without the presence of ~~IN~~ INP at temperatures below -38°C via homogeneous nucleation (Koop et al., 2000). However, it is thought that for temperatures greater than -38°C most ice nucleation in orographic clouds takes place heterogeneously on ~~IN~~ INP
340 via different freezing mechanisms: deposition, condensation freezing, immersion freezing and contact freezing (Vali, 1985). Above -38°C, the presence of supercooled liquid water has consistently been found to be a requirement of significant heterogeneous nucleation (Westbrook and Illingworth, 2011; de Boer et al., 2011; Westbrook and Illingworth, 2013), causing the immersion, contact and condensation freezing modes to dominate ice production at these temperatures (de Boer et al., 2011;
345 Field et al., 2012).

Despite much uncertainty existing over the concentrations and distributions of ~~IN~~ INP in the atmosphere (Boucher et al., 2013), particular aerosol particle types have been proposed to nucleate ice. Several studies suggest that mineral dust nucleates ice in the atmosphere (e.g. DeMott et al. 2003; Cziczo et al. 2013), although the temperature threshold below which dust aerosols nucleates
350 ice varies significantly between studies, with some suggesting dust could act as ~~IN~~ INP at temperatures as high as -5°C (Sassen et al., 2003), whilst others found dust ~~IN~~ INP to be inactive above -20°C (Ansmann et al., 2008). Laboratory measurements of ice nucleation on desert dust aerosols have linked the varying nucleation threshold temperatures to the mineral composition of the dust particles (Connolly et al., 2009; Murray et al., 2011; Broadley et al., 2012; Niemand et al.,
355 2012; Atkinson et al., 2013; Emersic et al., 2015). Generally the literature has suggested that mineral dust is unlikely to act as an ~~IN~~ INP at temperatures as high as -5°C, which has led to ongoing research into whether other aerosol components can nucleate ice at higher temperatures than min-

2

eral dust. Biological aerosols such as bacteria or pollen have been suggested as potentially being suitable to nucleate ice heterogeneously (Möhler et al., 2007), which has been supported by in-situ observations (Prenni et al., 2009; Pratt et al., 2009). However, despite some laboratory experiments suggesting that certain bacteria nucleate ice at temperatures greater than -10°C in the atmosphere (Hoose and Möhler 2012), there remains an uncertainty in the role of biological aerosols in ice nucleation at higher temperatures.

~~IN~~ INP concentrations alone are not enough to explain ice number concentrations witnessed in some clouds. Ice concentrations in the atmosphere can also be increased by ice multiplication processes. The Hallett-Mossop process (Hallett and Mossop, 1974; Mossop and Hallett, 1974), which produces ice splinters during the riming of ice particles, has been suggested as a dominant ice multiplication process between temperatures of -3 °C and -8°C. Mossop and Hallett (1974) indicated that one splinter is produced for every 160 droplets accreted to the ice crystal, providing the droplets are greater than 20μm in diameter, and suggested that several rime-splinter cycles could increase ice number concentrations by as much as five orders of magnitude. Several examples have been presented in the literature of the Hallet-Mossop process explaining differing ~~IN~~ INP and ice number concentrations (Harris-Hobbs and Cooper, 1987; Hogan et al., 2002; Huang et al., 2008; Crosier et al., 2011; Lloyd et al., 2014). However, the process is limited to specific regions, which are within the required temperature range, have large concentrations of supercooled liquid droplets, and in clouds with long lifetimes (> 25 minutes) and weak updrafts (Mason, 1996). More recently Lawson et al. (2015) has shown fragmentation of freezing drops can also act as a secondary ice multiplication mechanism in the absence of the Hallett-Mossop process, particularly in cumuli with active warm rain processes.

Despite considerable improvement in the understanding of ice production processes in the atmosphere, much confusion remains in understanding the sources of ice measured in orographic clouds. Several studies have found significantly high ice number concentrations at mountain sites when compared to aircraft observations. Rogers and Vali (1987) frequently found ice concentrations close to the surface of Elk Mountain of three orders of magnitude higher than concentrations measured by aircraft 1km above the mountain. The increased concentrations could not be explained by Hallet-Mossop ice multiplication, leading them to suggest the possibility of surface ice or snow crystals being blown into the cloud. Vali et al. (2012) proposed that ground-layer snow clouds, which are formed by snow blown up from the surface and growing in an ice supersaturated environment, were responsible for the increased ice number concentrations. Targino et al. (2009) found two cases of high ice concentrations at Jungfraujoch in Switzerland, and suggested that the high ice concentrations were unlikely to be caused by mineral dust ~~IN~~INP, as no significant increase in dust aerosol concentrations was observed. They suggested that polluted aerosol, such as black carbon, acted as ~~IN~~ INP and increased the ice concentration close to the surface. During the Ice NUcleation Process Investigation And Quantification field campaign (INUPIAQ) undertaken during the winter of

2013 and 2014, Lloyd et al. (2015) found ice number concentrations of over $\sim 2000 l^{-1}$ at -15°C. By using measured aerosol concentrations in the parameterisation of DeMott et al. (2010), they predicted ~~IN~~ INP concentrations which were as much as 3 orders of magnitude smaller than the ice number concentration. Whilst their findings suggested blowing snow contributed to the ice number concentrations, they found the effect could not fully explain the high ice concentration events where concentrations > were $100 l^{-1}$. However, they suggested that a flux of particles from the surface, such as surface hoar crystals, could provide enough ice crystals to match the high ice number concentrations witnessed in their field campaign.

With aerosol and cloud particle measurements limited over mountainous regions, research into orographic clouds has been driven by the modelling community. However, the complexity of the atmospheric dynamics, cloud microphysics and terrain has often led to a restricted approach in investigating orographic clouds (Kunz and Kottmeier, 2006; Barstad et al., 2007; Cannon et al., 2014). Whilst 3D atmospheric models provide a more accurate representation of the complex airflow which mountainous terrain generates, the computational expense has generally limited studies of aerosol-cloud interactions in orographic clouds to 2D simulations (Lynn et al., 2007; Zubler et al., 2011) or idealised terrain (Xiao et al., 2014). Recently, Muhlbauer and Lohmann (2009) performed 3D simulations over idealised orography to investigate the influence of aerosol perturbations of dust and black carbon on the cloud microphysical processes in mixed-phase clouds. The simulations were run using a two-moment mesoscale model with coupled aerosol and cloud microphysics and 3D idealised orography. Muhlbauer and Lohmann (2009) suggested that aerosols are critical in initiating ice in mixed-phase orographic clouds. However the strength of their conclusions are limited to the idealized terrain used in the model, and for the specific aerosol data from 2009.

By drawing on previous research into orographic clouds using modelling, this paper aims to assess the reasons for high ice number concentrations at mountain sites by comparing the in-situ measurements of Lloyd et al. (2015) from the INUPIAQ campaign with simulations over real terrain from the Weather Research and Forecasting model (WRF). In Section 2, we outline the characteristics of the field site and the instrumentation used to measure cloud microphysical properties, before providing a description of the implementation of the WRF model. In Section 2.1, we provide validation of the model using meteorological data from stations throughout the model domain. The in-situ ice number concentrations are then compared with the WRF model in Section 3, before analysing the processes proposed in previous literature for increasing ice concentrations in orographic clouds using further WRF simulations. Finally, in Section 4, we evaluate the suggested processes that cause high ice concentrations in orographic clouds, and draw conclusions from our results.

4

2 Methodology

2.1 Jungfraujoch

430 Cloud particle number concentrations and size distributions were measured at the Jungfraujoch high-alpine research station, located in Bernese Alps in Switzerland. Jungfraujoch is an ideal location to measure microphysical properties of clouds, as the altitude of the site (3570m asl) allows measurements to be within cloud 37% of the time (Baltensperger et al., 1998). The site is only accessible by electric train, which limits the influence of local anthropogenic emissions on measurements taken

435 at Jungfraujoch (Baltensperger et al., 1997). The site has regularly been used for cloud and aerosol research by groups from the Paul Scherrer Instistute, Karlsruhe Institute of Technology, University of Manchester and other institutions (e.g., Baltensperger et al., 1997, 1998; Verheggen et al., 2007; Choularton et al., 2008; Targino et al., 2009; Lloyd et al., 2015).

2.2 Instrumentation at Jungfraujoch

440 Several cloud physics probes using a variety of measurement techniques were used for measuring cloud particle number concentrations and size distributions during the campaign. The probes were mounted on the roof terrace of the Sphinx laboratory on a rotating wing attached to a ∼3m high tall mast, which was automatically rotated and tilted to face into the wind based on the measured wind direction to minimize inlet sampling issues.

445 Ice concentrations were primarily measured using an aspirated Three-View Cloud Particle Imager (3V-CPI) by Stratton Park Engineering Inc (SPEC). This probe is a combination of two previously separately packaged instruments: the Two-Dimensional Stereo Hydrometeor Spectrometer (2D-S) and a Cloud Particle Imager (CPI). The 2D-S produces shadow imagery of particles by illuminating them onto 128 photodiode arrays, with a pixel resolution of 10μm, as they pass through the cross-

450 section of two diode laser beams (Lawson et al., 2006). The arrays allow images in 2 dimensions of particles in the cross-section of both laser beams, in addition to providing number concentrations and size distributions of particles in the size range of 10-1260μm. The raw data provided was then processed using the Optical Array Shadow Imaging Software (OASIS) to segregate ice and droplets based on their shape, and to remove particles that had shattered on the 2D-S from the dataset

455 (Crosier et al., 2011). Further details of the 2D-S analysis are provided by Lloyd et al. (2015). The 2D-S particles which were determined by OASIS to be ice particles were then assigned to 10μm size bins, which were used to provide an approximation of ice water content (IWC) at Jungfraujoch using the mass-diameter parameterisation of Brown and Francis (1995) .

When particle images are recorded on both arrays of photodiodes on the 2D-S, the CPI probe is

460 activated. The CPI images the particle motion using a 20ns pulsed laser, casting an image of the particle onto a 1024 by 1024 array. The CPI has a pixel resolution of 2.3μm and thus has a size range of between 10-2000μm (Lawson et al., 2001). CPI produces clear images of crystals and processing

5

of the raw data enables the habit of the crystals to be estimated. However, corrections must be made to include out-of-focus particles and for particles below 50μm, as the sample volume has a size dependency for small particles (see Connolly et al. 2007).

Droplet concentrations and liquid water content (LWC) were measured by the Forward Scattering Spectrometer Probe (FSSP), and the Cloud Droplet Probe (CDP) which use the forward scattering of light from a laser to count and size water droplets of diameters of between 2 and 50μm (Lance et al., 2010). Meteorological conditions were recorded with a Vaisala probe, which measured temperature and relative humidity, and a Metek sonic anemometer, which measured the temperature, wind speed and direction. Additionally, meteorological data was available from the MeteoSwiss observation station at Jungfraujoch for comparison. Further details of the instrumentation can be found in Lloyd et al. (2015).

2.3 Model Setup

To compare with the measurements made by cloud microphysics probes at Jungfraujoch, version 3.6 of the WRF model was used (Skamarock et al., 2008). A single model domain was set up surrounding Jungfraujoch, with a horizontal resolution of 1km, covering 149 grid points in the north-south direction and 99 grid points in the east-west direction. The higher spatial resolution was required as the real orography is more complicated than the idealised topography used by Muhlbauer and Lohmann (2009). 99 vertical levels were used, which follow the terrain as 'sigma' levels, providing a level spacing of between 58 and 68m close to the terrain surface, and between 165 and 220m at the model top, which was situated at ∼20km. A time-step of 3 seconds was used, to satisfy the Courant-Freidrichs-Lewy (CFL) stability criterion, as the complex orography surrounding Jungfraujoch can cause CFL violations.

The orography in the model is interpolated from surface data with a resolution of 2′, with the height of Jungfraujoch in the model being 3330m asl. The resolution of 2′ was used as the steep gradients present in the 30" orographic data cause CFL stability problems, which prevent the model simulation from running over the Jungfrau region for the duration of the field campaign. The model was run using operational analysis data from the European Centre for Medium-range Weather Forecasting to initialise the model and provide boundary conditions at the edge of the domain, which were updated every 6 hours. The model simulations were found to have a spin-up time of 40 hours using the vertical wind field that was output from the simulation.

To model the cloud microphysics, the Morrison two-moment scheme was used, which is described in Morrison et al. (2005) and Morrison et al. (2009). The number of ice crystals per litre produced from ~~heterogeneous freezing, N_i~~ deposition and condensation freezing, $N_{i,dc}$, is defined in the Morrison scheme using the Cooper equation (Cooper, 1986; Rasmussen et al., 2002):

$$N_{i,dc} = 0.005 \exp\left[0.304\left(T_0 - T\right)\right] \tag{1}$$

where $T_0 = 273.15$K and T is the temperature in K. The equation is based on in-situ measurements of heterogeneous ice nucleation by deposition and condensation freezing. At $T = 258.15$K (-15°C), the parameterisation predicts ice concentrations of 0.4779l^{-1}. Chou et al. (2011) measured ~~IN~~ INP concentrations at Jungfraujoch of approximately 10 l^{-1} below water saturation using a portable ice nucleation chamber at -29°C, whilst Conen et al. (2015) measured concentrations of 0.01 l^{-1} at -10°C. As the Cooper parameterisation predicts ~~IN~~ INP concentrations between these values, the parameterisation can be used to assess the ice concentration at Jungfraujoch. The conditions which the parameterisation is used were adapted for the Morrison Scheme from Thompson et al. (2004), and hence is active either when the saturation ratio with respect to ice is greater than 1.08 or when the model is saturated with respect to water and the temperature of the model is below -8°C. The Morrison scheme also includes parameterisations for the freezing of droplets by contact nuclei (Meyers et al., 1992) and by immersion freezing (Bigg, 1953) .

The short-wave and long-wave radiation are parametrised in the model using the Goddard scheme (Chou and Suarez, 1999). No cumulus parameterisations were used, as the resolution of the model should provide sufficient detail to resolve clouds at grid-scale.

Several WRF simulations were run as part of our investigation, and these are summarised in Table 1. Each simulation was run for the time period of the INUPIAQ campaign, between the 20th January 2014 0000z and 28th February 2014 0000z, and completed in a single, continuous model simulation with no re-initialised simulations used in our research. The initial WRF simulation for INUPIAQ formed a control simulation to assess the validity of the model, as well as allowing a basis for comparison with simulations adjusted to include additional microphysical processes.

Name	Details
Control	Control simulation
IN-1	Simulation with ~~IN~~ INP concentration increased by multiplying the Cooper equation (Cooper, 1986) by 10
IN-3	Simulation with ~~IN~~ INP concentration increased by multiplying the Cooper equation (Cooper, 1986) by 10^3
Surf-6	Simulation including a flux of surface crystals adapted from Xu et al. (2013), multiplied by $10^6 \mathrm{m}^{-2}\mathrm{s}^{-1}$
Surf-3	Simulation including a flux of surface crystals adapted from Xu et al. (2013) multiplied by $10^3 \mathrm{m}^{-2}\mathrm{s}^{-1}$

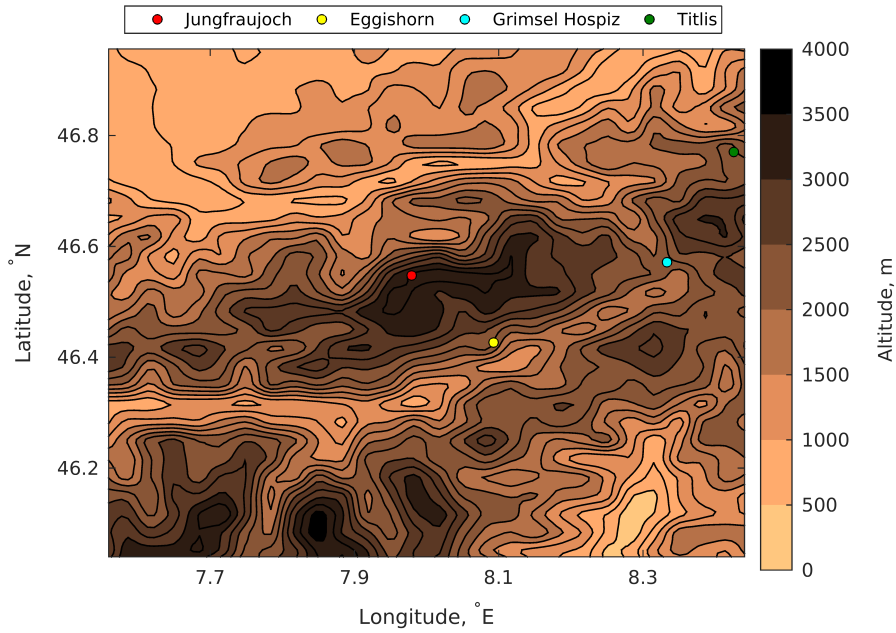**Table 1.** Summary of WRF simulations used in this paper

Figure 1. Location of MeteoSwiss Observation Stations.

3 ~~Model Validation~~

2.1 Model Validation

To assess the validity of the model, the WRF control simulation was compared with observed meteorological data from a number of MeteoSwiss observation stations throughout the domain, ~~listed~~ which are detailed in Table 2 and Figure 1. Each site provided data for wind speed, wind direction, temperature and relative humidity, which is compared with the output from the first atmospheric level of the control simulation in Figures 2-5, and the bias and root mean square error (RMSE) between the model and the observations is shown in Table 3.

Site	Latitude, °N	Longitude, °E	Altitude, m	Model Altitude, m
Jungfraujoch	46.55	7.99	3580	3330
Eggishorn	46.43	8.09	2893	2320
Grimsel Hospiz	46.57	8.33	1980	2186
Titlis	46.77	8.43	3040	2337

Table 2. Locations of ~~Meteoswiss~~ 4 MeteoSwiss stations used to obtain Meteological data throughout the INUPIAQ campaign.

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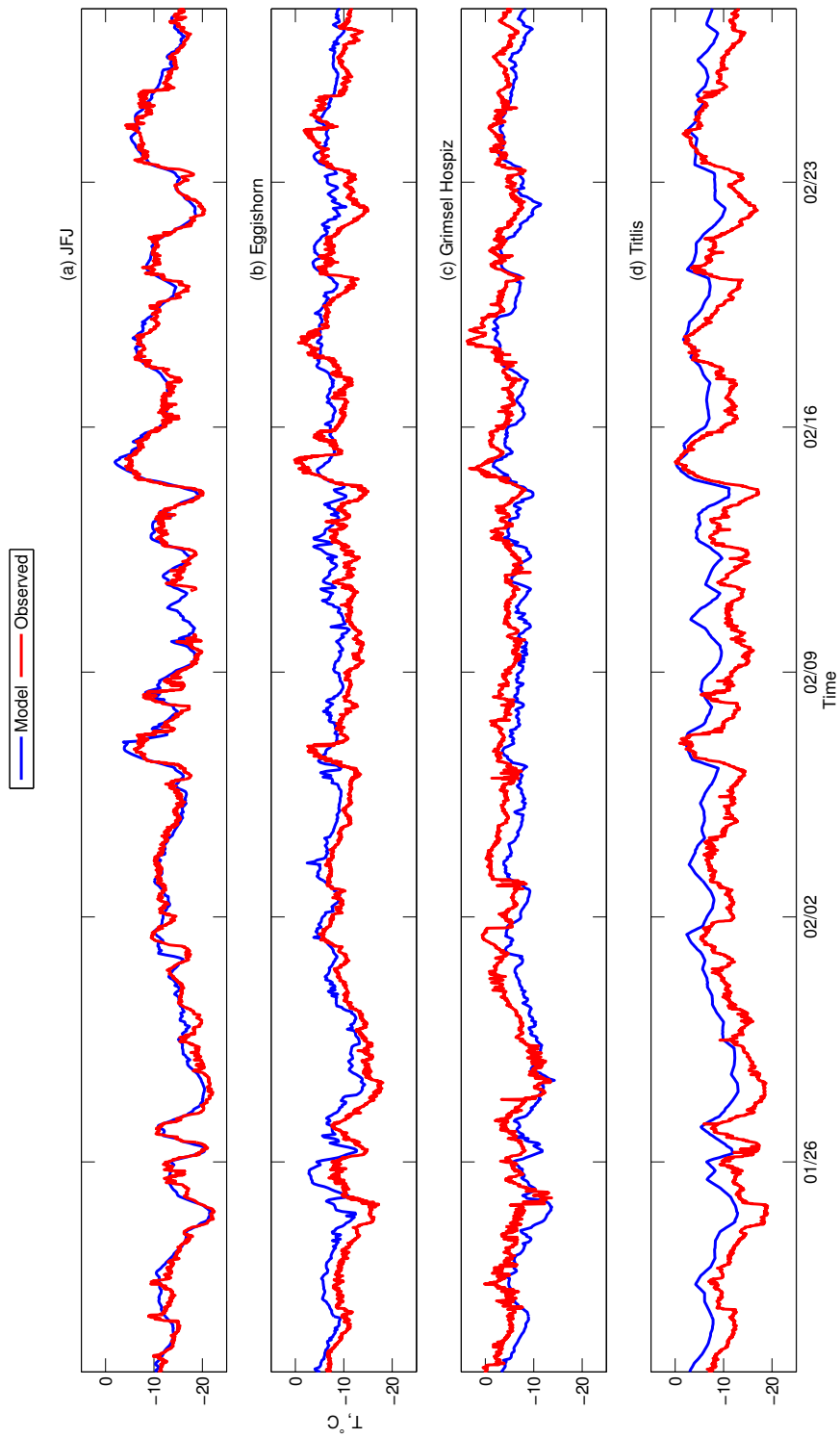
Figure 2. A comparison of the air temperature at 4 MeteoSwiss observation stations with the WRF control simulation during the INUPIAQ field campaign.
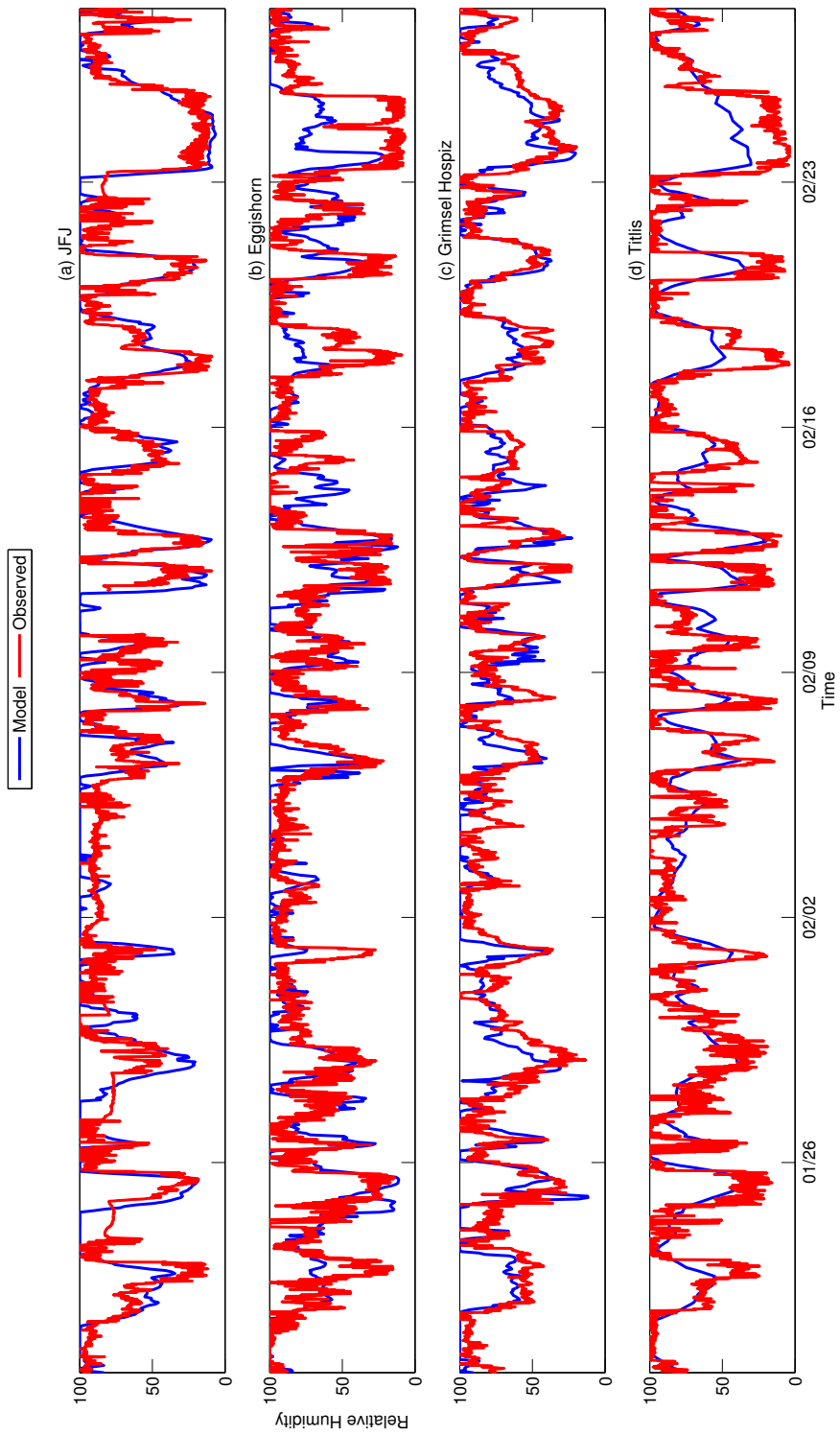
Figure 3. A comparison of the Relative Humidity at 4 MeteoSwiss observation stations with the WRF control simulation during the INUPIAQ field campaign.
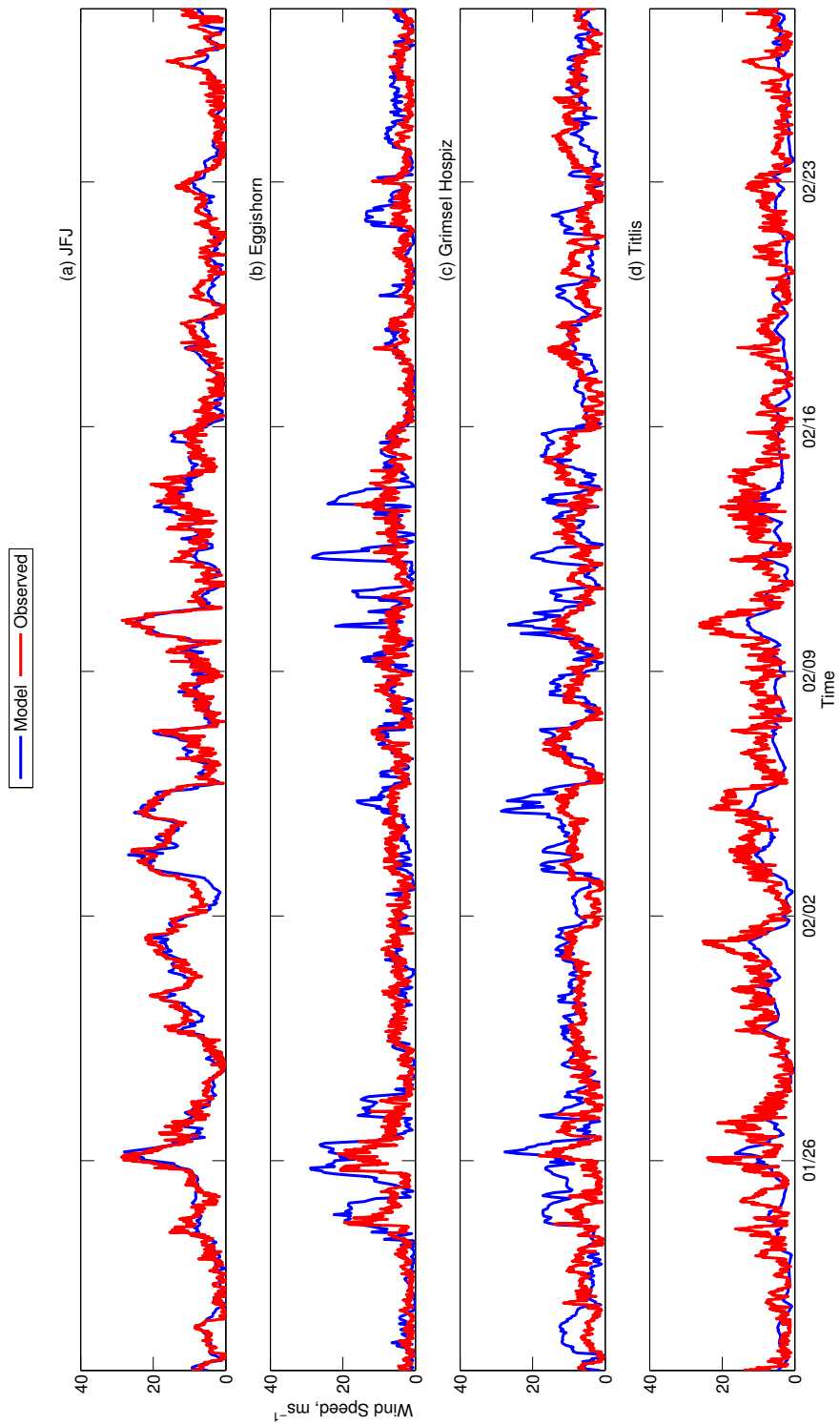
Figure 4. A comparison of the wind speed at 4 MeteoSwiss observation stations with the WRF control simulation during the INUPIAQ field campaign.
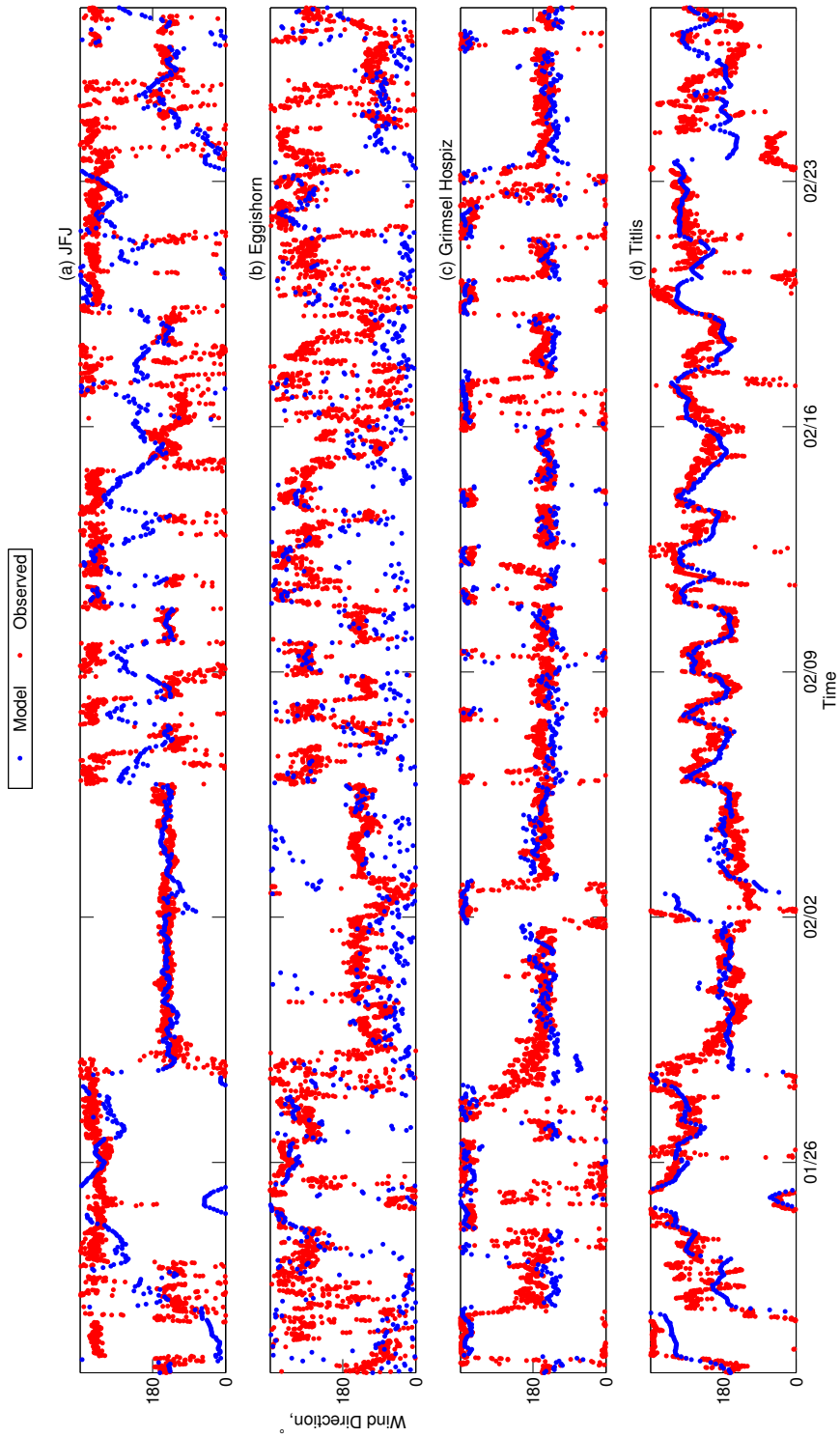
Figure 5. A comparison of the wind direction at 4 MeteoSwiss observation stations with the WRF control simulation during the INUPIAQ field campaign.

	T, °C		Relative Humidity, %		Wind Speed, ms^{-1}		Wind Direction, °	
Site	**Bias**	**RMSE**	**Bias**	**RMSE**	**Bias**	**RMSE**	**Bias**	**RMSE**
Jungfraujoch	0.83	1.65	3.01	17.61	-0.55	2.87	-32.69	113.69
Eggishorn	2.20	3.01	5.35	22.80	0.98	4.57	-50.68	128.49
Grimsel Hospiz	-2.41	2.83	5.09	14.46	1.82	5.26	9.10	99.91
Titlis	3.82	4.19	1.96	16.02	-2.81	4.62	2.98	72.55

Table 3. Bias and Root Mean Square Error of Temperature, Relative Humidity, Wind Speed and Wind Direction between the WRF Control Simulation and measurements taken at 4 MeteoSwiss stations.

Figures 2-5 show that the meteorological data compares favourably with the meteorological variables simulated in the WRF control simulation. At Jungfraujoch, the model closely follows the observed temperature throughout the campaign at all times where observed data was available, and
530 model and observations agree well, with an average bias of 0.83 °C. At other sites, the ~~temperature is~~ simulated temperatures were less accurate, with periods during the campaign where ~~observations at Titlis showed~~ significantly lower temperatures ~~and relative humidities, and higher wind speeds~~ were observed at Titlis, and lower wind speeds were observed at Grimsel Hospiz, than the values determined from the WRF simulation at these sites. The RMSE between the model and observed
535 temperature at Titlis was also higher than for the other stations. The differences between the simulation and observations at Titlis relate to the close proximity of the station to the edge of the domain, where the model is ~~more~~ sensitive to the boundary conditions, causing the discrepancy between the control simulation and the meteorological observations. However, as Jungfraujoch is at the centre of the model domain, ~~it is not sensitive~~ the sensitivity to boundary conditions is considerably lower
540 than at Titlis. Also, the resolution of the orography causes the height of the sites in the model to be reduced. The height at Titlis in the model is 2234m asl, much lower than the actual height (3040 m asl) of the site. As a result, the temperature in the model will be warmer as the location of Titlis in the model is lower in altitude. In contrast, the difference in height between the model and reality is much smaller at Jungfraujoch (~280m), so the difference in temperature is considerably less. Hence the
545 MeteoSwiss data shows that the model provides a good representation of the atmospheric conditions over Jungfraujoch for our research.

3 Comparison and Explanations for Differences between Modelled and Observed Ice Number Concentrations

For the duration of the campaign, the ice number concentrations recorded using the 2D-S were com-
550 pared with ice number concentrations simulated in the first atmospheric level of the WRF control simulation at Jungfraujoch (see red and blue lines in Figure 6a and Figure S1 in the Supplement). The control simulation regularly produced around 10^3 fewer ice crystals than measured by the 2D-S

at Jungfraujoch, similar to the discrepancies found in the literature between ice concentrations measured at mountain sites and on aircraft (Rogers and Vali, 1987), and between ice concentrations and

555 predicted ~~IN~~ INP concentrations (Lloyd et al., 2015). We will now examine the cause of the discrepancy between the ice number concentrations simulated in WRF and the concentrations measured at Jungfraujoch.

3.1 Sensitivity of Simulation to ~~IN~~ INP concentration

We first examine if the difference between modelled and measured ice concentrations is explained by

560 additional ~~IN~~ INP in the model. As touched upon in Section 2.3, measurements from previous field campaigns at Jungfraujoch have suggested varying ~~IN~~ INP concentrations of between 10 and 0.011^{-1} (Chou et al., 2011; Conen et al., 2015). Whilst the previously measured ~~IN~~ INP concentrations have varied, they are still considerably lower than the ice number concentrations measured at Jungfraujoch (Lloyd et al., 2015). Hence there is a possiblity that other aerosols are nucleating ice which are

565 not sampled by the instruments measuring ~~IN~~ INP concentrations at Jungfraujoch, as proposed by Targino et al. (2009).

To test this hypothesis, two further WRF simulations were run with increased ~~IN~~ INP concentrations. The ~~IN~~ INP concentrations were increased by multiplying the number of ~~IN~~ INP per litre from the Cooper equation (Cooper, 1986) by a constant value. Whilst the number of INP calculated

570 by the Cooper equation is increased, we do not change the magnitude of the contact or immersion parameterisations of Meyers et al. (1992) or Bigg (1953) . In the two simulations, IN-1 and IN-3, the ~~IN~~ INP concentrations were multiplied by 10 and 10^3 respectively. The ice number concentrations simulated at Jungfraujoch in the control, IN-1 and IN-3 WRF simulations are compared with the 2D-S concentrations in Figure 6a and in Figures S1 and S2 in the Supplement.

575 A better comparison between the model ice number concentrations and the 2D-S concentrations is found when the number of ~~IN~~ INP is multiplied by 10^3. Taken in isolation, the ice number concentration simulated in the IN-3 simulation suggests that the Cooper equation used in the Morrison scheme significantly underestimates the ~~IN~~ INP concentrations in orographic clouds and that additional ~~IN~~ INP are present in a mountainous environment.

580 However, increasing the ~~IN~~ INP concentration in the Morrison scheme generally causes the LWC in the simulation to decrease (see Figure 6b). When freezing occurs in mixed phase clouds, ice crystals grow at the expense of liquid droplets by the ~~Bergeron-Findesen~~ Bergeron-Findeisen process. The greater ~~IN~~ INP concentration in the model increases the number of small ice crystals produced at the onset of freezing. Figure 6b indicates that multiplying the ~~IN~~ INP concentration by 10^3 gen-

585 erally causes the LWC to decrease to zero, with liquid water absent at Jungfraujoch for most of the IN-3 simulation. However, measurements from several liquid and ice cloud probes during the field campaign, as well as measurements made in previous field campaigns at Jungfraujoch, suggest liq-
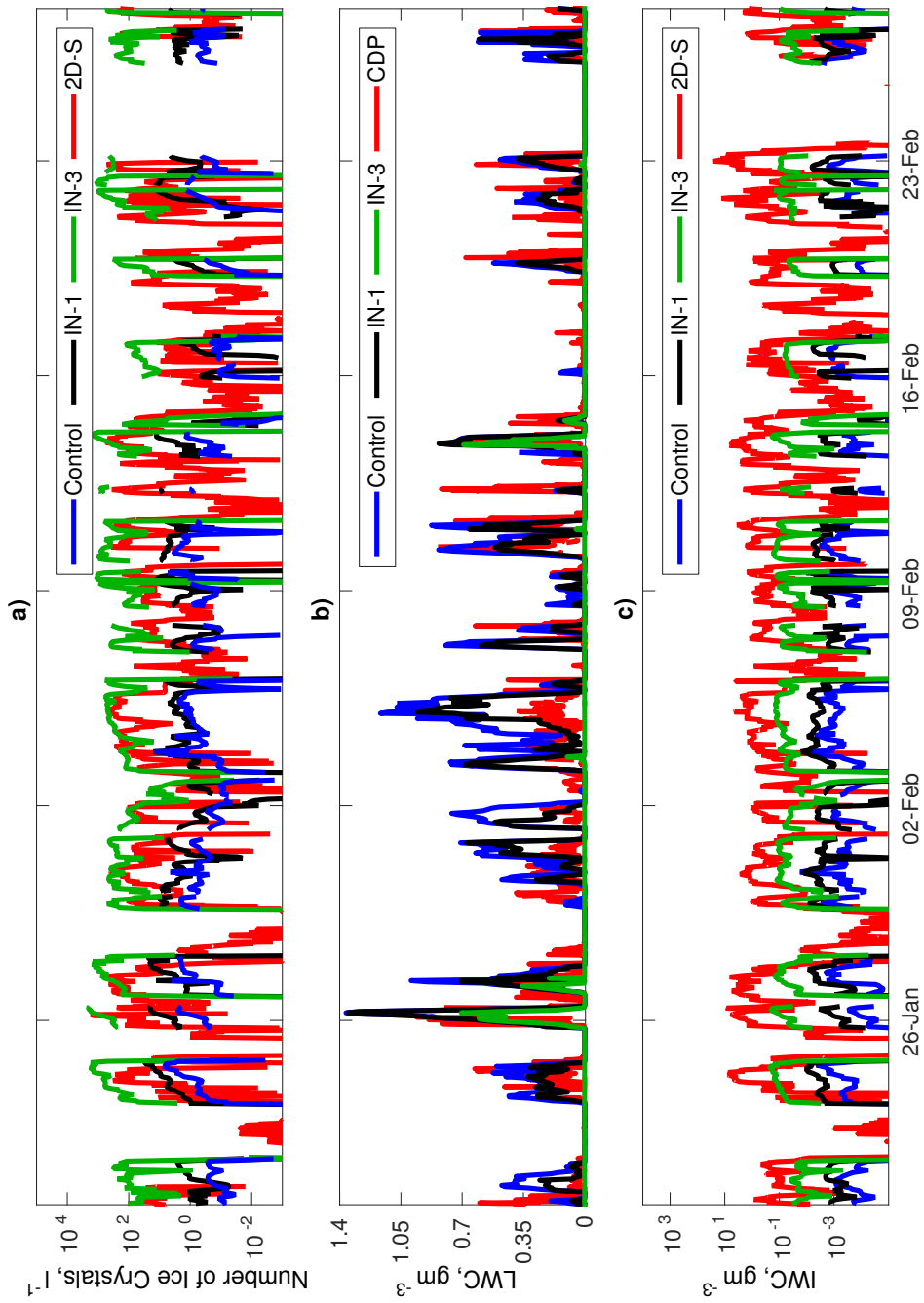
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Figure 6. a) Comparison of 2D-S ice number concentration measured at Jungfraujoch during the INUPIAQ campaign with the ice number concentration from the Control, IN-1 and IN-3 WRF model simulations. b) Comparison of the CDP LWC measured at Jungfraujoch during the INUPIAQ campaign with the LWC from the Control, IN-1 and IN-3 WRF model simulations. c) Comparison of IWC inferred from 2D-S measurements at Jungfraujoch during the INUPIAQ campaign with the IWC from the Control, IN-1 and IN-3 WRF model simulations.

15

uid water is present even when large ice number concentrations are measured (Targino et al., 2009; Lloyd et al., 2015).

590   Additionally, Figure 6c suggests that increasing the number of INP by 3 orders of magnitude in the model fails to increase the IWC by enough to match the inferred IWC from the 2D-S. While the additional INP have reduced the LWC to below the measured LWC at Jungfraujoch, the simulated crystals resulting from the additional INP provide a lower IWC and hence smaller crystals than those measured by the 2D-S. Whilst increasing the INP concentration increases the IWC, this is always at
595 expense of the LWC, suggesting that regardless of the INP concentration, the model does not contain enough water in any state to represent the LWC and IWC measured at Jungfraujoch.

    By only increasing the number of INP calculated by the Cooper parameterisation, the increase in the number of ice crystals in the IN-1 and IN-3 is only due to deposition and condensation freezing. A better representation of the impact of an increased INP concentration on the clouds would be
600 provided by also increasing the contact and immersion parameterisations of Meyers et al. (1992) and Bigg (1953) respectively. However, any increase in the ice concentrations in the model would cause a reduction in LWC due to the Bergeron-Findeisen process. Hence regardless of the freezing parameterisation chosen, any increase in INP to match the ice concentrations observed at Jungfraujoch would reduce the LWC below the values observed at Jungfraujoch.

605   The IN-3 WRF simulation implies that concentrations similar to the measured ice number concentrations are not possible in mixed-phase clouds, which is in contrast to the measurements made at Jungfraujoch. However, as multiple ice and liquid probes from different field campaigns agree on the presence of both high ice ~~concentrations~~ and liquid water contents at Jungfraujoch (Choularton et al., 2008; Targino et al., 2009; Lloyd et al., 2015), ~~it is unlikely that increasing IN in the model is~~ the
610 correct explanation for the observed ice number concentrations at Jungfraujoch is unlikely to be exclusively dependant on the INP concentration.

3.1.1 Validation of Mixed Phase Cloud at Jungfraujoch

To confirm that mixed-phase clouds are possible at Jungfraujoch with the both the measured and modelled ice number concentrations, we used the conditions for the existence of mixed-phase clouds
615 derived by Korolev and Mazin (2003). In their paper, Korolev and Mazin (2003) provide an updraft speed threshold, above which mixed-phase conditions in a cloud can be maintained by the updraft speed. The threshold is based on the assumptions of a parcel model, and that a cloud must be water saturated for droplets to exist in clouds. The threshold updraft speed is defined by

$$u_{z,t} = \frac{b_i^* N_i \bar{r}_i}{a_0} \tag{2}$$

620 where N_i is the number concentration of ice crystals, $\bar{r}_i$ is the mean radius of ice crystals, and a_0 and b_i^* are thermodynamic variables dependant on the pressure and temperature of the parcel, as defined in Korolev and Mazin (2003).
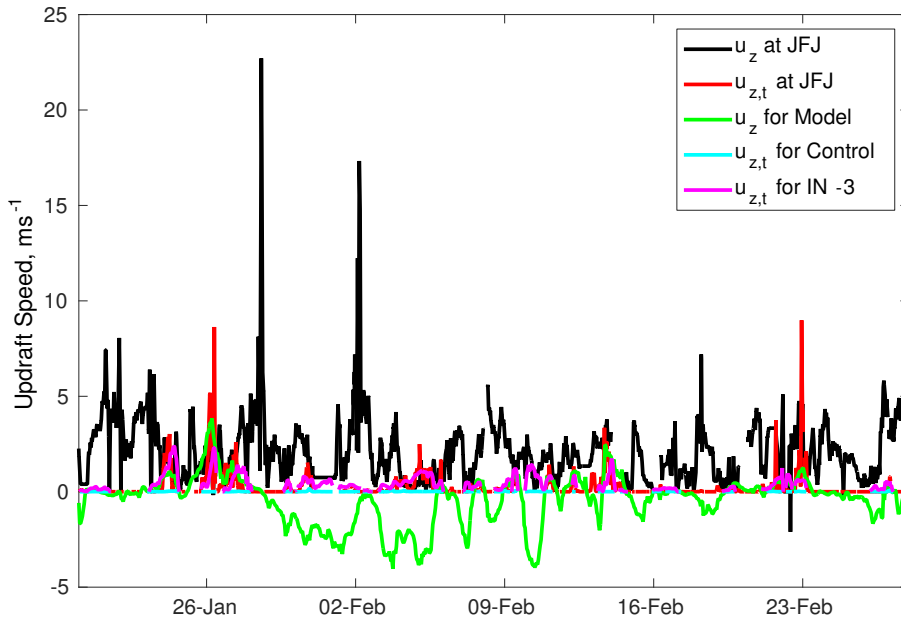
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Figure 7. Analysis of ~~updraft~~ vertical wind speed u_z with the updraft threshold required for the presence of mixed-phase cloud ~~,~~ for both measurements at Jungfraujoch and the Control and IN-3 simulations. The updraft threshold is calculated as defined by Equation (2), which is adapted ~~taken~~ from Korolev and Mazin (2003). ~~a) compares the updraft speeds measured at Jungfraujoch (u_z) with the Korolev and Mazin (2003) updraft threshold (u_z) based on the 2D-S size distribution. b) compares the simulated updraft speed at Jungfraujoch (u_z) with the updraft threshold calculated using the first moment of the ice size distributions ($u_{z,t}$) from the control and IN-3 WRF simulations.~~

The threshold updraft speed was calculated for both the measured and modelled ice concentration. For the measured ice concentrations, the term $N_i \bar{r}_i$ was calculated using the 2D-S size distribution, with measurements of temperature and pressure from Jungfraujoch also used to calculate $u_{z,t}$. The ~~updraft speeds~~ vertical wind speed measured by the sonic anemometer at Jungfraujoch ~~were~~ was then compared to $u_{z,t}$. For the modelled ice concentrations, the term $N_i \bar{r}_i$ was calculated from the first moment of the ice, snow and graupel size distributions from the control and IN-3 WRF simulations, using the gamma size distribution parameters from the Morrison scheme (see Appendix of Morrison et al. 2005). The snow and graupel size distributions are included in the calculation, as the growth of both snow and graupel also depletes the LWC by the Bergeron-Findeisen process. Additionally, the simulated temperature and pressure from each simulation were used in the calculation of $u_{z,ti}$, which was then compared with the simulated ~~updraft speeds~~ vertical wind speed from the two simulations.

For the majority of the campaign, the ~~updraft~~ vertical wind speed measured at Jungfraujoch was greater than the threshold updraft ~~velocity~~ speed for mixed-phase cloud conditions (Figure 7~~a~~), which is consistent with the coexistence of liquid water and ice crystals witnessed at Jungfraujoch.

17

Assuming that the atmosphere is saturated with respect to liquid, the updraft threshold reinforces the measurements in suggesting that droplets and ice can coexist in clouds at Jungfraujoch, as indicated

640 by the 2D-S and CDP measurements in ~~Figures 6a and 6b~~Figure 6.

For the control WRF simulation, Figure 7 ~~b~~ shows the low ice concentrations significantly reduce $u_{z,t}$, such that the ~~threshold is approximately two orders of magnitude smaller than the updrafts simulated at Jungfraujoch~~updraft threshold is close to zero, which is lower than the simulated values of u_z at Jungfraujoch when updrafts are present in the model. When the ~~IN~~INP concentrations in the

645 WRF model are increased, more ice crystals are produced, which is caused by the vapour deposition onto the additional ~~IN~~INP. The vapour deposition results in a reduction of the saturation ratio in the model. To maintain a saturation ratio which is greater than liquid saturation, a greater updraft speed is required. Hence increasing the ~~IN~~ INP concentration in WRF increases the updraft speed threshold for the existence of mixed-phase clouds.

650 Figure 7 ~~b~~ indicates that, when the ~~IN~~INP concentrations are increased, the updraft speed threshold increases ~~significantly~~ to values close to u_z ~~throughout the field campaign~~in the periods where updrafts are modelled at Jungfraujoch. During some periods, the simulated ~~updraft~~vertical wind speed is lower than the updraft speed threshold from the IN-3 simulation. During other periods, there is no updraft present, which would prevent mixed-phase conditions from being sustained. As

655 the updraft speed is either lower than the threshold during these periods, or not present at all, the Korolev and Mazin analysis predicts that mixed-phase clouds will not occur during these periods. The analysis supports the findings of the IN-3 simulation indicated in Figures 6a and 6b.

~~The~~ A limitation of using the model to assess if mixed-phase clouds can exist is the differences between the simulated and observed vertical wind speed. Figure 7 shows the observed vertical wind

660 speed generally has significantly higher updraft velocities than the model, and shows an apparent absence of the downdrafts which are simulated in the model during the campaign. However, the resolution of the model causes the vertical wind speed outputs to represent a 1km horizontal area at the surface of the model. In reality, the 1km area surrounding Jungfraujoch contains very steep orography that cannot be accurately represented in the model. The actual terrain causes strong

665 updrafts to blow up the steep slopes below Jungfraujoch, which cannot be fully represented in the model. Hence the simulated vertical velocities may not accurately represent the vertical speeds observed at Jungfraujoch and may limit the usefulness of comparing vertical speeds and updraft thresholds from the model simulation to assess whether mixed-phase clouds can occur.

Nonetheless, the absence of the observed mixed-phase clouds in the IN-3 simulation implies that

670 increasing the IN concentration alone ~~can not~~cannot explain the measured ice number concentrations at Jungfraujoch. Results from our modelling suggest additional ~~microphysical~~ processes are important in the production of ice in orographic mixed-phase clouds.

3.2 Hallett-Mossop Process Upwind of Jungfraujoch

Ice multiplication processes such as the Hallett-Mossop process (Hallett and Mossop, 1974) have been suggested as an important mechanism in the production of ice crystals in mixed-phase clouds. Rogers and Vali (1987) suggested in their study at Elk Mountain that the Hallett-Mossop is not responsible for the increased ice number concentrations as the droplet sizes are not sufficiently large enough to cause splinter production. In addition they suggested that temperatures witnessed at Elk Mountain are outside the Hallett-Mossop temperature range of -3 to -8°C. During the INUPIAQ campaign, the temperatures observed at Jungfraujoch were generally colder than -8°C, ruling out secondary ice production at the site via the Hallett-Mossop process (Lloyd et al., 2015). However, Targino et al. (2009) suggested that as Jungfraujoch is generally above cloud base, the Hallett-Mossop process could occur below Jungfraujoch at higher temperatures, and that splinters could be lifted from the cloud base to increase ice number concentrations at the summit. For secondary ice production to occur at cloud base, supercooled liquid water and ice crystals must both be present. In addition, the temperature at cloud base must be within the Hallett-Mossop temperature range, and a strong updraft must be present to advect the newly produced splinters towards Jungfraujoch.

To establish if splinters were transported to Jungfraujoch from cloud base, back trajectories were calculated using the WRF control simulation output. By assuming the wind field $-u_{ijk}$ at the initial output time was constant along the back trajectory, the back trajectories were calculated using

$$\Delta x_{ijk} = -u_{ijk}\Delta t \tag{3}$$

where $\Delta t = 30$ is the time step in seconds. At each point along the trajectories, the WRF output fields were interpolated from nearest WRF output variables to the point. Using the LWC q_l and ice number concentration n_{ice}, the production rate of splinters formed by the Hallett-Mossop process was calculated using

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}n_{i,hm}}{\mathrm{d}t} = q_l V_f A \eta n_{ice} \tag{4}$$

with V_f denoting the fall speed of the ice particle, A denoting the area swept out by the ice crystal and η the number of splinters produced per µg of rime. η is defined as 350×10^6 splinters kg^{-1} following Mossop and Hallett (1974), whilst the ice crystals were assumed to be spherical with diameters of 500µm, and falling at $2\mathrm{ms}^{-1}$. As the model resolution is finite we define the temperature thresholds within which splinters are produced, conservatively using a slightly wider temperature range than Hallett and Mossop (1974), with the production rate set to 0 if the temperature was greater than -2°C or less than -10°C. The extended range was to prevent the splinter concentration being underestimated due to any differences between the constant temperature field in the model and the real temperature. The cumulative number of splinters produced along each back trajectory was then calculated, to provide a maximum number of splinters that could be produced along the back trajectory. The calculation of the total concentration of ice splinters along the back trajectory assumes that

every ice splinter produced along the back trajectory is transported to Jungfraujoch and measured as an ice crystal, which is unlikely as the ice crystals would be reduced along the back trajectory by sedimentation or collisions with sedimenting particles.

The total number concentration of splinters produced along the back trajectory was added to the ice number concentration at Jungfraujoch and is compared with the ice number concentrations produced by the WRF control run and the 2D-S in Figure 8. When including the splinters calculated
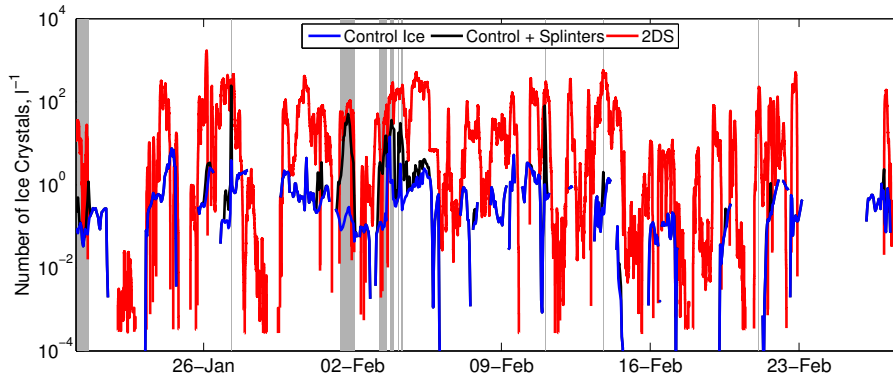
Figure 8. Comparison of ice number concentrations from the WRF control simulation, the control simulation with the addition of rime splinters produced by the Hallett-Mossop process calculated using (4), and the 2D-S probe at Jungfraujoch during the INUPIAQ Campaign. The grey shaded areas indicate periods where the ice number concentration including the splinters is at least a factor of 10 greater than the concentration from the WRF control simulation.

using (4), the ice number concentration from the WRF control simulation increases significantly during certain periods of the campaign, as indicated by the grey shaded areas in Figure 8. For example on 1st February, the addition of splinters increases the WRF ice number concentration to within a factor of 10 of the 2D-S ice number concentration at Jungfraujoch. Figure 9 shows the back trajectory from 1st February 2014 at 1900Z, plotted following the direction of the wind, which was south-easterly. The high number of splinters calculated along the back trajectory is due to the constant presence of liquid water and ice crystals, in addition to the initial presence of a suitable temperature for splinter production. The simulation of splinters stops when the temperature falls below -10°C after 20 minutes, producing a significantly larger concentration of ice splinters than simulated at Jungfraujoch in the control simulation. The conditions along the back trajectory suggest that during this case study the WRF model underpredicts the concentration of ice crystals produced by the Hallett-Mossop process quite considerably. Viewing the case in isolation, the inclusion of splinters produced at cloud base in the model would allow a better representation of the ice concentrations observed at Jungfraujoch.

However, as indicated in Figure 8 the case on the 1st February is not representative of the whole campaign, with only small concentrations of splinters simulated upwind of Jungfraujoch throughout
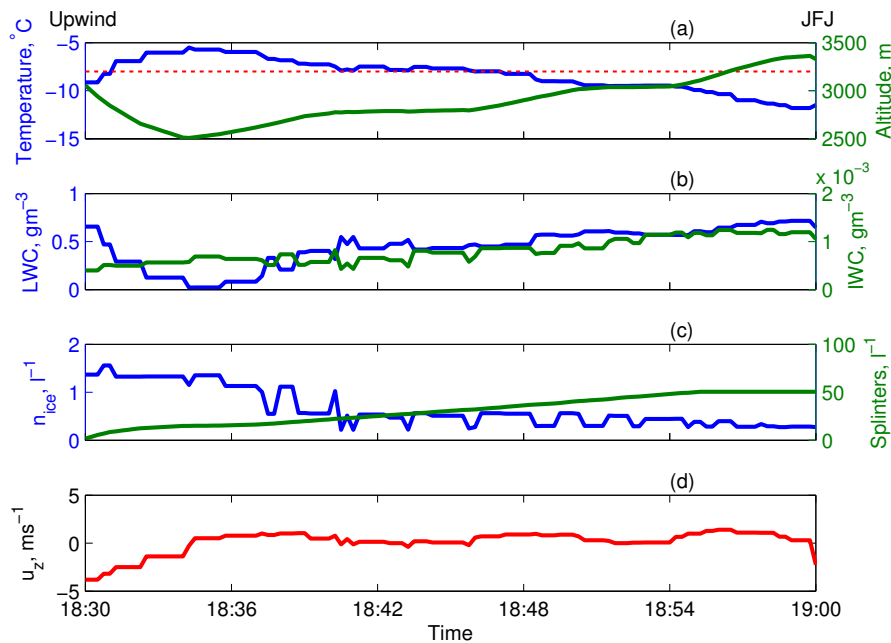
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Figure 9. Variations in dynamical and microphysical properties along a back trajectory of air between a point upwind of Jungfraujoch and Jungfraujoch on 1st February 2014, assuming a constant wind field. The constant wind field is taken from the WRF control simulation output of the 1st February 2014 at 1900Z. (a) Temperature and altitude along the back trajectory, with the red dashed line illustrating the -8°C isotherm. (b) Liquid water content and ice water content along the back trajectory. (c) Ice number concentration from the WRF control run along the back trajectory, and the cumulative number of splinters produced along the trajectory, calculated using (4). (d) Vertical wind velocity speed along the back trajectory.

730   most of the campaign. Figure 10 illustrates that on 26th January, where the observed and modelled ice number concentration differ by 3 orders of magnitude, no splinters are simulated. The absence of secondary ice along the back trajectory is a response to the temperature remaining below -10°C throughout the ascent of the air towards Jungfraujoch, causing no splinters to be produced despite the presence of both supercooled water and ice crystals. As a result, there is no increase in ice

735   crystal concentration at Jungfraujoch for the 26th January case. Hence, the Hallet-Mossop process occurring below cloud base is not the main reason for the large discrepancy between the measured and modelled ice number concentration during this period.

    However, during certain periods splinter production may contribute to the difference between the modelled and measured ice number concentrations. Also, the influence of secondary ice production

740   on the ice concentration in mountainous regions may differ due to seasonal or spatial variations. Secondary ice production may significantly enhance ice number concentrations in regions at different altitudes or at different times of the year, if the temperatures in these regions are within the Hallet-Mossop temperature regime more frequently than witnessed at Jungfraujoch.
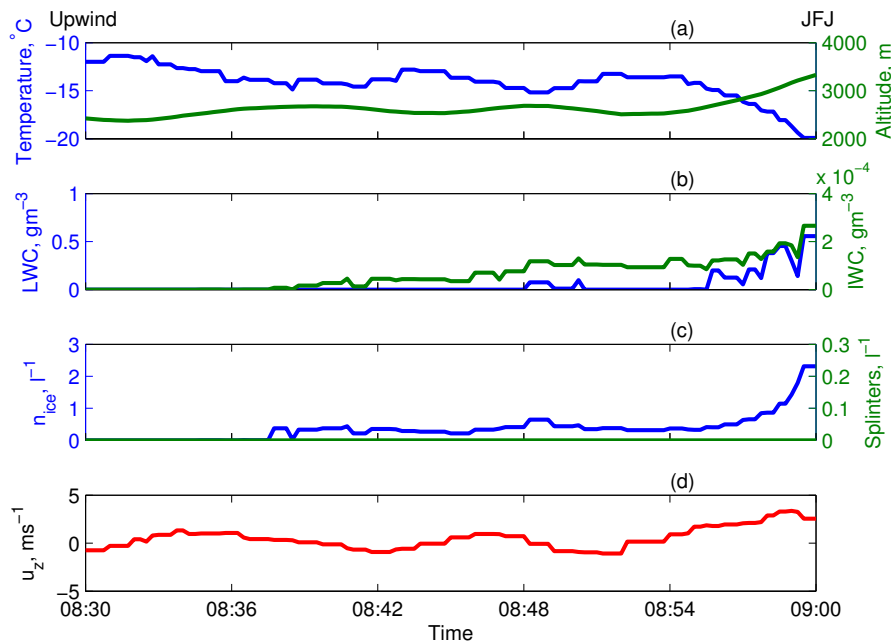
21

Figure 10. As for Figure 9 but from the WRF simulation of 26th January 2014 at 0900Z

3.3 Inclusion of Snow Concentration in Ice Concentration

745 The ice number concentration simulated in WRF may be reduced by the misrepresentation of some ice crystals as snow crystals. Ice is converted to snow in the Morrison scheme when ice size distributions grow by vapour diffusion to sizes greater than a threshold mean diameter. The Morrison scheme uses a threshold mean diameter of 125μm following Harrington et al. (1995). However, Schmitt and Heymsfield (2014) implied that the threshold diameter can vary significantly in real

750 clouds, suggesting threshold diameters of 150μm and 250μm for two separate case studies. Raising the threshold diameter for autoconversion in the microphysics scheme may provide a simulated ice number concentration which is more representative of the 2D-S measurements at Jungfraujoch.

To assess whether the discrepancy between the measured and modelled ice number concentrations is caused by ice being incorrectly converted to snow, the frozen concentration was calculated

755 by adding the modelled snow and ice number concentrations together. Whilst the snow number concentration will include falling snow in addition to large ice, this is only significant if the frozen concentration is greater than the measured ice number concentration.

The increase in ice number concentration with the addition of snow is not significant enough to match the ice number concentrations observed at Jungfraujoch. Figure 11 suggests the number of

760 snow crystals is small compared to the difference between the modelled and observed ice number concentrations. The inclusion of snow into the ice number concentrations fails to increase the concentrations by the three orders of magnitude required to match the observed concentrations.
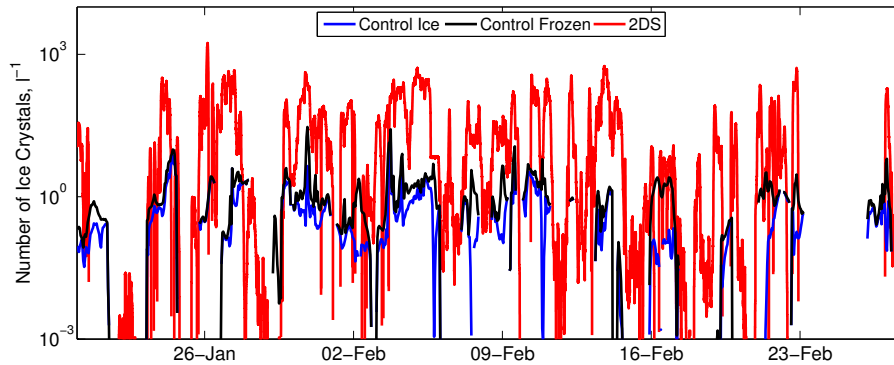
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Figure 11. Comparison of measured 2D-S ice number concentration at Jungfraujoch during the INUPIAQ campaign with the ice concentration and the total frozen concentration measured by the control WRF model simulation at Jungfraujoch

3.4 Surface Crystal Flux

After careful analysis, Lloyd et al. (2015) suggested that whilst blowing snow influenced ice num-
765 ber concentrations periodically, the effect provided only a minor contribution to the ice number concentration at Jungfraujoch. However, they also suggested that a surface ice generation mechanism was potentially the source of the high ice number concentrations witnessed at Jungfraujoch. Along with Rogers and Vali (1987), they speculated that it was possible for ~~surface hoar~~ crystals growing on the surface of the mountain to be blown by surface winds into the atmosphere and influ-
770 ence the ice number concentration. ~~Surface hoar or hoarfrost~~ Furthermore, Vali et al. (2012) found the existence of ground-layer snow clouds, which they found forms over snow covered ground. Vali et al. (2012) suggested that particles, which could be snow or ice, lofted from the surface were the source of these ground-layer snow clouds. The high ice number concentrations observed at Jungfraujoch could be caused by these ground-layer snow clouds, with a flux of surface crystals
775 not represented in the model causing the high ice number concentrations measured.

Ice which forms on snow surfaces is known as surface hoar or hoar frost. Surface hoar forms by deposition of water vapour onto the snow surface in supersaturated air at temperatures below $0°C$ (Na and Webb, 2003; Polkowska et al., 2009). Wind also has a significant effect on surface hoar development, with ideal wind speeds for formation between $1\text{-}2\text{ms}^{-1}$ (Hachikubo and Akitaya, 1997).
780 Stossel et al. (2010) discovered that surface hoar formation occurs during clear nights with humid air, and can survive throughout the day. Previous research has mostly been motivated by understanding avalanche formation, with research focused on the formation (Colbeck, 1988; Hachikubo and Akitaya, 1997; Na and Webb, 2003) and spatial variability of the phenomena (Helbig and Van Herwijnen, 2012; Shea and Jamieson, 2010; Galek et al., 2015). The research into atmospheric impacts of sur-
785 face hoar have been limited.

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However, the atmospheric influence of frost flowers, a similar phenomena to surface hoar, is the subject of much research. Frost flowers are highly saline crystals which form on freshly formed sea ice that is significantly warmer than the atmosphere above (Perovich and Richter-Menge, 1994; Style and Worster, 2009). Similarly to surface hoar, they require the presence of supersaturated air with respect to ice above the surface (Rankin et al., 2002), and grow by vapour deposition (Domine et al., 2005). Atmospheric scientists have shown particular interest in the role of frost flowers in the production of sea salt aerosol in the atmosphere (Rankin and Wolff, 2003; Alvarez-Aviles et al., 2008). Xu et al. (2013) provided an observation-based parameterisation of the atmospheric flux of aerosol from frost flowers. The parameterisation has an exponential dependency on wind speed, and was included in the WRF-Chem model. Xu et al. (2013) found the inclusion of frost flowers in the model enabled a better agreement between modelled and measured sea salt aerosol concentrations. However, it should be noted that frost flowers have been observed to exist at high wind speeds ($12\mathrm{ms}^{-1}$) without the production of aerosol into the atmosphere (Roscoe et al., 2011), leaving uncertainty as to whether aerosols can be blown from frost flowers into the atmosphere.

Similarly, several studies have formulated a flux of blowing snow into the atmosphere. These formulations are generally much more complicated surface-atmosphere models, which have divided the transport of blowing snow into two layers, saltation and turbulent suspension (Lehning et al., 2008; Vionnet et al., 2014). The saltation layer is the movement of blowing snow which is only blown slightly off the surface into the atmosphere before returning to the surface. The turbulent suspension layer includes particles which are transported by the wind without contact with the ground. In Vionnet et al. (2014), the evolution of the number of blowing snow particles in the turbulent suspension layer N_s is modelled using

$$\frac{\partial N_s}{\partial t} + \underbrace{u_j \frac{\partial N_s}{\partial x_j}}_{Advection} = \underbrace{\frac{\partial}{\partial x_j}\left(\overline{N_s' u_j'}\right)}_{Turbulence} + \underbrace{\frac{\partial}{\partial x_j}\left(N_s V_n \delta_{js}\right)}_{Sedimentation} + \underbrace{S_N}_{Sublimation} \tag{5}$$

where $\mathbf{u}$ is the 3-D wind vector, V_N represents the particle fall speed, and S_N is sublimation sink. The formulation in Vionnet et al. (2014) is quite complicated, but still indicates a similar exponential relationship between wind speed and the flux of blowing snow as Xu et al. (2013) found for frost flowers (See Figures 8a and 8b of Vionnet et al. 2014).

Whilst the flux is of sea-salt aerosol, the flux equation provided by Xu et al. (2013) does not require the definition of either the aerosol concentration or the frost flower density, and essentially provides a flux which is only dependant on wind-speed. Feick et al. (2007) suggested that the most important influence on surface hoar destruction is wind, implying that the crystals on the surface are removed by the wind blowing the crystals into the atmosphere. As the aerosol flux derived by Xu et al. (2013) and the removal of hoar crystals from the surface are both strongly dependent on wind, the flux can be used to model hoar crystals being blown from the surface. ~~Hence, an adaptation of the aerosol flux is suitable to provide an initial assessment on the~~ As the Morrison microphysics

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scheme includes terms for advection, sedimentation and sublimation, which would influence the ice crystals added by the flux, the only significant difference between this model and the blowing snow formulation in the suspension layer is the removal of turbulent diffusion effects. Whilst turbulent diffusion is an important influence of surface ~~hoar on the ice number concentrations in orographic~~

825   ~~clouds~~ particle transport, it is difficult to accurately represent turbulence over the relatively large grid spacing in the model in mountainous terrain. Nevertheless, the lack of turbulence provides a limitation of the surface ice crystal flux.

We adapted the aerosol flux from Xu et al. (2013) for inclusion in our simulations to assess if the discrepancy between modelled and measured ice number concentrations can be found. The surface

830   ice crystal flux ~~ϕ~~ was calculated using

$$\phi = e^{0.24u_h - 0.84} \tag{6}$$

where u_h is the horizontal wind speed ~~. The surface crystal flux was applied~~ at the surface of the model, and ϕ is unitless. ϕ is then multiplied by a magnitude of crystals per surface area per second to give the surface ice crystal flux. A number of restrictions were applied to the surface

835   ice crystal flux formulation to accurately represent where surface hoar develops and how surface hoar is blown into the atmosphere. To ensure the flux remained only as a surface effect, the flux was applied only to the first level of the model, ~~assuming surface hoar crystals sizes of 10. The flux acts everywhere where the air temperature in the first level of the model~~. As surface hoar only grows in the atmosphere when the temperature is below freezing and the air is water saturated

840   (Na and Webb, 2003; Polkowska et al., 2009), the flux is limited to regions where the temperature is less than 0°C and the ~~air is supersaturated with respect to ice, with~~ relative humidity is greater than 1. A minimum horizontal wind speed of 4 ms^{-1} was applied to the flux, as surface hoar forms at 1-2ms^{-1} (Hachikubo and Akitaya, 1997), and hence crystals are unlikely to be blown into the atmosphere at these wind speeds. To better represent areas where surface hoar forms on

845   the surface, the latent heat flux at the surface has been previously used to model periods of surface hoar formation (Stossel et al., 2010; Horton et al., 2014). Horton et al. (2014) suggests that surface hoar forms when the latent heat flux to the surface is positive. Using the latent heat flux modelled by the NOAH land-surface model in WRF, we assume that if the latent heat flux towards the surface is positive, then the surface hoar is present to be blown into the atmosphere. Hence the surface ice

850   crystal flux is only active if the latent heat flux is positive. Whilst the latent heat flux provides some indication of the spatial and temporal variations of surface hoar, no dependence on diurnal effects or variations in surface snow cover are included in the flux. The size of the surface hoar crystals was assumed to be 10μm. Whilst 10μm is a small size for an ice crystal, the choice of this size is to allow the crystals to remain in the atmosphere, as larger sizes may immediately fallout due to their higher

855   terminal velocities.

Two WRF simulations were run including the surface crystal flux. Firstly, Surf-6, which assumed the flux magnitude of 10^6m^{-2}s^{-1} following Geever et al. (2005) and Xu et al. (2013). The flux mag-
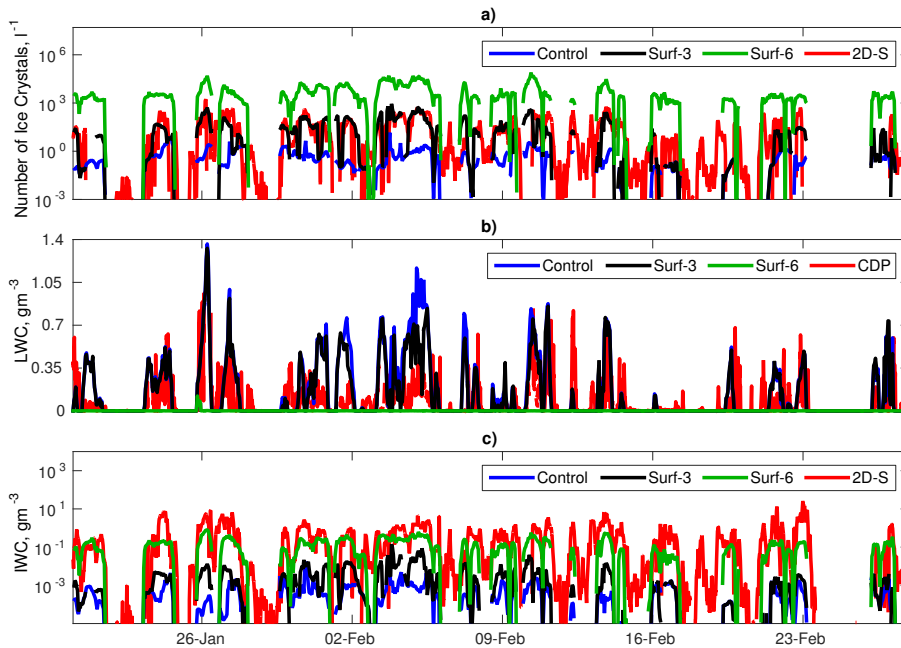
Figure 12. a) Comparison of measured 2D-S ice number concentration at Jungfraujoch during the INUPIAQ campaign with the concentration from the control WRF model simulation, and the Surf-3 and Surf-6 simulations which included the addition of crystals from a surface flux calculated using equation 6. b) Comparison of measured LWC at Jungfraujoch during the INUPIAQ Campaign with the LWC from the control WRF model simulation, and the Surf-3 and Surf-6 simulations, which included the addition of crystals from a surface flux. ~~The black-dashed lines indicates the time-period~~ c) Comparison of IWC inferred from 2D-S measurements at Jungfraujoch during the ~~cross sections plotted in Figures 13~~ INUPIAQ campaign with the IWC from the Control, Surf-3 and ~~14~~ Surf-6 WRF model simulations.

nitude assumes in the Surf-6 simulation assumes that the number of surface hoar crystals blown into the atmosphere is equal to the number of frost flowers in Xu et al. (2013). The ice number concen-

860 tration from the Surf-6 simulations are compared with the 2D-S ice number concentration in Figure 12a. The Surf-6 provides a good agreement with the 2D-S, although with concentrations higher in the model than measured at Jungfraujoch. The 2D-S and the Surf-6 WRF simulation generally differs by approximately a factor of 100 throughout the campaign. The increase in concentration is unsurprising, as the flux is adapted from an equation based on aerosol concentrations emitted from

865 frost flowers. As the surface crystal flux is an ice concentration, the magnitude of the flux is likely to be smaller than the magnitude used by Xu et al. (2013), which was for an aerosol concentration.

As the surface crystal flux is high, a large number of small ice crystals are ejected from the surface in the model. These crystals grow rapidly by vapour deposition in ice supersaturated conditions. In order to continue to grow by vapour deposition, the ice crystals scavenge vapour from any droplets

870 present, and deplete the liquid water from the model by the Bergeron-Findeisen process. As indicated

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in Figure 12b, the LWC in the Surf-6 simulation is scavenged by the ice number concentration, and does not agree with LWC measured by the CDP at Jungfraujoch. The large ice number concentration blown into the atmosphere from the surface rapidly depletes the liquid water at Jungfraujoch in the model, suggesting the magnitude of the flux is unrealistic. Hence, the magnitude of the flux would need to be reduced to better represent the ice number concentration at Jungfraujoch, and to prevent liquid water from being depleted from the atmosphere to agree with the measurements taken at Jungfraujoch.

As the Surf-6 simulation overestimated the ice number concentration and underestimated the LWC, a second simulation, Surf-3, was run with the flux magnitude reduced to $10^3 \mathrm{m}^{-2}\mathrm{s}^{-1}$ (See Figure 12 and Figure S3 in the Supplement). Figure 12a indicates that the Surf-3 provides much better agreement with the ice number concentration measured at Jungfraujoch throughout the campaign. In addition, Figure 12b shows the LWC simulated in Surf-3 also compares much better with the CDP than Surf-6, with the differences between the model and measurements no greater than a factor of 3, and for the most part of the campaign within a factor of 2.

In Figure 12c, the IWC suggests that the inclusion of the surface flux increases the IWC when compared with the control simulation, but does not match the IWC inferred from the 2D-S. Clearly the growth of the advected crystals by vapour deposition in the model is not significant enough to increase the IWC to match the measured IWC at Jungfraujoch. As the number of ice crystals agrees well between the model and measurements, the difference in IWC must be due to the assumption that the surface crystals are 10μm in size. As smaller ice crystals contribute less to the IWC than larger particles, this suggests an increase in the size of the surface crystals in the model would be required to match the 2D-S inferred IWC, suggesting that the small surface hoar crystals is a limitation of the surface crystal flux parameterisation.

Figures 13 and 14 show the ice number concentration and LWC from the Surf-3 simulation during a period where both ice and liquid are present at Jungfraujoch. Figure 13 indicate the ice concentration is heavily increased by the surface ice concentration, and that the surface ice is not carried from the surface high into the atmosphere. The high surface concentrations supports the findings of Rogers and Vali (1987) that ice concentrations aloft were much lower than at the surface. The LWC in Figure 14 is also indicated to be a strong sustained cloud by the model, which further supports the presence of mixed-phase clouds at Jungfraujoch.

Whilst the inclusion of the surface crystal flux in However, by using a surface crystal flux parameterisation dependent on wind speed, the ice concentration in the model at Jungfraujoch naturally becomes more dependent on wind speed. Figure 15a indicates that at horizontal wind speeds greater than 4 ms^{-1}, there is a strong correlation between the ice concentration simulated in Surf-3 provides a good comparison with the measured ice concentrations , and the simulated wind speed. When compared with the findings of Lloyd et al. (2015) (specifically Figures 16a-d and 17a-d in their paper) and Figure 15b, the ice crystal concentration in the flux used is still a very
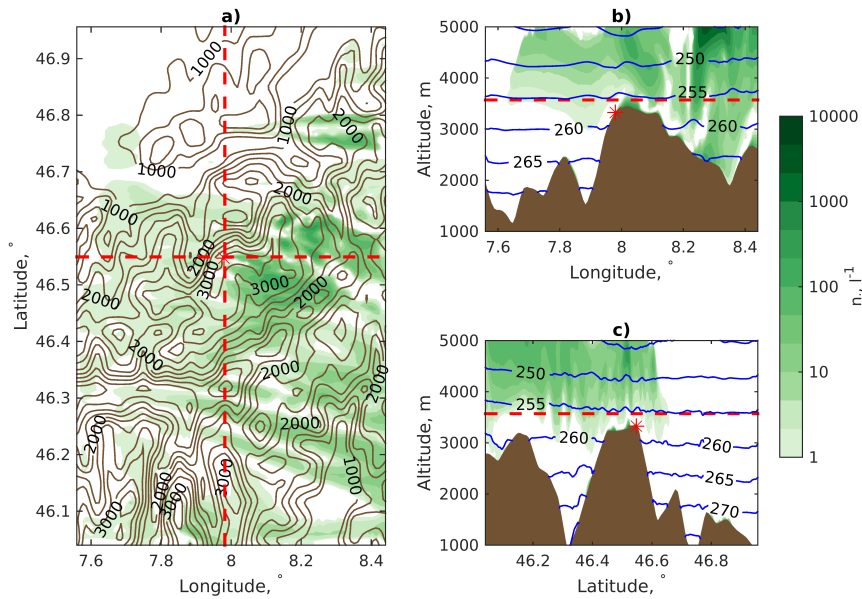
Figure 13. Ice number concentrations at 2000Z on 13th February 2014 from WRF model simulation including the addition of crystals from the surface crystal flux in 3 views. a) represents a horizontal cross-section at the height of Jungfraujoch in reality (3570m asl.), with the red dashed lines representing the vertical cross-sections in Figures 13b) and c). b) represents an east-west vertical cross-section at 46.55° Latitude, with red dashed line indicating the horizontal cross-section in Figure 13a), and blue contours indicating isotherms in kelvin. c) represents a north-south vertical cross-section at 7.98° Longitude, with red dashed line indicating the horizontal cross-section in Figure 13a), and blue contours indicating isotherms in kelvin. In all 3 figures the location of Jungfraujoch is represented by the red star. The Prevailing wind direction is north-westerly.

~~simple parameterisation. Firstly~~ Surf-3 simulation is much more dependent on wind than the 2D-S ice crystal concentrations. The dependency of the Surf-3 simulation on wind speed suggests that the

910   use of a surface flux in the model does not accurately represent the observed ice concentration and that a flux dependant on wind speed may not be the cause of the ice concentrations at Jungfraujoch. However, as the horizontal wind speeds in the Surf-3 simulation are simulated at a 1km resolution, the simulation cannot accurately represent the localised turbulent flow over the mountainous terrain. The turbulent flow close to the surface differs from the representation of wind in the WRF model, and

915   may caus the ice concentration to be less dependent on the larger-scale horizontal wind, even if the surface ice crystal flux is dependent on horizontal wind. To better assess whether a surface ice crystal flux is causing the high ice concentrations observed at Jungfraujoch, an improved representation of small-scale turbulent flow is required in the WRF model or the surface ice crystal flux.
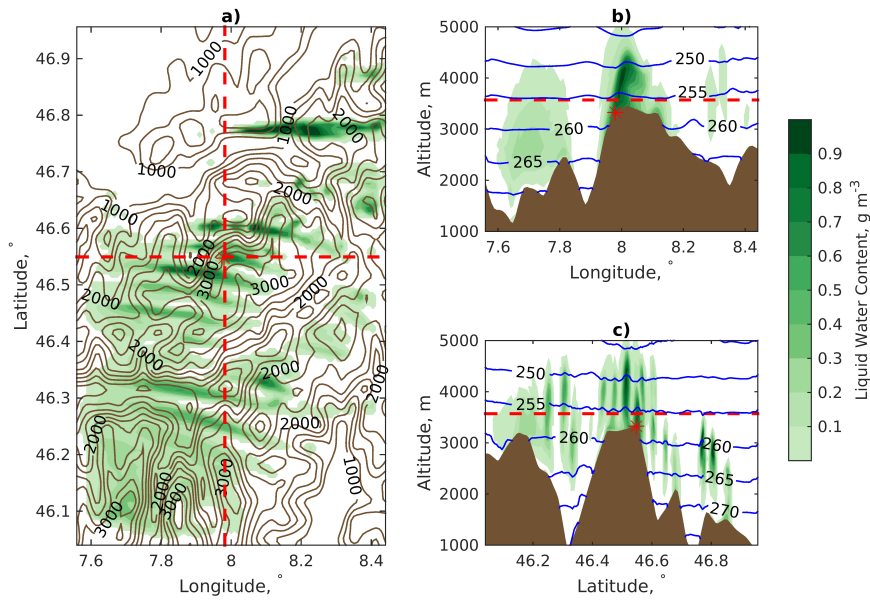
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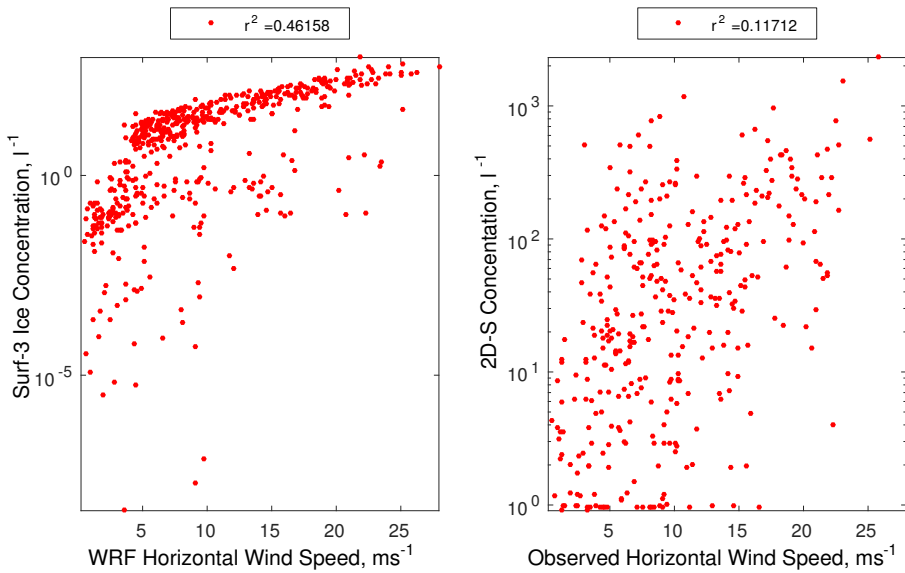**Figure 14.** As Figure 13 except for LWC at 2000Z on 13th February 2014.

Figure 15. <u>A comparison of the wind simulated in the Surf-3 simulation with a), the ice crystal concentration simulated in the Surf-3 simulation at Jungfraujoch, and b), the 2D-S ice crystal concentration at Jungfraujoch.</u>

Additionally, the surface crystal flux is independent of the surface concentration of surface hoar
920   crystals. As the surface of the mountains upwind of Jungfraujoch will vary in distribution of surface
hoar crystals present on the surface, the flux will vary dependent on the distribution of surface hoar

crystals, in addition to the wind speed. ~~The~~ Whilst some spatial and temporal variation is provided by the condition that surface hoar only exists in the model when the surface latent heat flux is positive, the spatial and temporal variations of surface hoar suggested by Stossel et al. (2010) would need to be included in the parameterisation to better represent the surface crystal flux. Also, whilst the magnitude of the flux is calibrated based on our results, the surface crystal flux is adapted from an aerosol flux. To accurately assess the magnitude of the flux, measurements of surface crystal flux would be required to improve the physical understanding of the process of the advection of hoar crystals into the cloud.

Nonetheless, the results of the Surf-3 simulation suggest that the aerosol flux of Xu et al. (2013) can be adapted into a surface crystal flux and used in WRF ~~. The inclusion of a surface crystal flux into WRF provides a good agreement between the simulated and measured ice number concentrations. In addition, the~~ simulations. The Surf-3 simulation suggests that the inclusion of a surface crystal flux ~~provides~~ can provide a good agreement with measured ice number concentrations without depleting the LWC ~~, which is~~ from the model, as was observed at Jungfraujoch~~, from the model. The presence of the LWC at Jungfraujoch in the~~ . The Surf-3 simulation ~~further suggests that the high ice concentrations in~~ suggest that the mixed-phase clouds observed at Jungfraujoch ~~can be represented by including a flux of surface hoar crystals into the model. The simulation results~~ are influenced by a surface ice flux mechanism that enhances the ice concentration, similar to the ground-layer snow clouds witnessed by Vali et al. (2012) . The results also support the suggestions of Lloyd et al. (2015), proposing that surface hoar ~~crystals advected into cloud increases the ice concentration~~ could be the source of the ice crystals at Jungfraujoch. However, an improved representation of particle size, distribution, and the turbulent effects on the the surface crystal flux is required to fully understand the cause of the high ice concentrations observed at Jungfraujoch.

4 Conclusions

In this paper, ice number concentrations from WRF model simulations were compared with ice number concentrations measured in orographic clouds of Jungfraujoch during the INUPIAQ campaign. The ice number concentrations simulated in the model were significantly lower than the concentrations measured in-situ, which showed similarly high ice number concentrations to the concentrations witnessed in orographic clouds in previous field campaigns (Rogers and Vali, 1987; Targino et al., 2009). Suggestions for the high ice number concentrations witnessed in orographic clouds were explored using the model simulations.

Whilst increasing ~~IN~~ INP concentrations in the model produced a better representation of the observed ice number concentrations, the removal of liquid water from the model caused by the ~~IN concentration suggested high IN concentrations~~ increased INP concentration suggested that greater INP concentrations in the model would prevent the existence of the mixed-phase clouds witnessed at

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Jungfraujoch. Mixed-phase clouds are regularly witnessed at Jungfraujoch (Choularton et al., 2008; Lloyd et al., 2015), hence an accurate representation of LWC is required to understand the formation and influence of these orographic clouds. Our simulations suggest that whilst additional primary

960   ice nucleation may contribute to ice concentrations in orographic clouds, increasing the ~~IN~~ INP concentration is not likely to be responsible for the high ice number concentrations observed.

Previous literature also suggested secondary ice production might contribute to an increased ice number concentration in orographic clouds. During the INUPIAQ campaign temperatures observed were outside the temperature range suggested by Hallett and Mossop (1974), implying ice multipli-

965   cation was not responsible for increasing ice number concentrations. Following Targino et al. (2009), we analysed whether splinter production could occur close to cloud base and be blown into the cloud, and found using back trajectories that splinter concentrations only infrequently matched observed ice number concentrations. Whilst secondary ice production may be important in orographic clouds at warmer temperatures, secondary ice appears to have only a limited influence on the ice number

970   concentrations observed during the INUPIAQ field campaign.

To evaluate if ~~surface hoar crystals influence~~ a flux of surface crystals influenced the ice concentrations in ~~orographic clouds~~the orographic clouds at Jungfraujoch, a flux of hoar crystals from the surface was adapted from a frost flower aerosol flux and introduced into the WRF model. The inclusion of the flux provided a good agreement with the ice number concentrations measured at

975   Jungfraujoch, suggesting the existence of such a flux may explain why surface measurements are higher than aircraft measurements of ice number concentration witnessed by Rogers and Vali (1987). However, when compared with the wind speed, the modelled concentration retained a dependence on horizontal wind speed not observed for the observed concentrations in Lloyd et al. (2015) . The surface crystal flux parameterisation included in our simulations is a simple parameterisation, and

980   small-scale turbulence is not represented in either the model or the parameterisation, which could reduce the influence of wind speed on the modelled concentrations. Also, the parameterisation is independent of the surface concentration of surface hoar crystals. The inclusion of spatial and temporal variations of surface hoar suggested by Stossel et al. (2010) ~~, such as varying hoar frost concentrations on the snow surface and the periods of hoar frost formation and removal, need to~~

985   ~~be included~~ in the parameterisation is required to improve the accuracy of the surface flux. Nevertheless, the surface crystal flux parameterisation in this paper provides a good comparison with the observed ice number concentrations~~, and we suggest the increase in~~. Following Vali et al. (2012) and Lloyd et al. (2015) , we suggest that ice concentrations in orographic clouds ~~is predominately~~ over snow surfaces are heavily influenced by a ~~surface flux of hoar crystals~~ flux of surface crystals into

990   the clouds.

Whilst aerosols acting as ~~IN~~ INP are important in initiating the production of ice in orographic clouds, they alone cannot explain the high ice number concentrations observed. There remains uncertainty on the exact causes of the high ice number concentrations in orographic clouds; however,

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we suggest the uncertainty may be accounted for by a flux of ~~hoar~~ surface crystals from the surface

995   of the mountain. To verify the influence of a flux of surface ~~hoar~~ crystals on orographic clouds, observations and measurements of the flux are required. If the measurements confirm the effect, an improved representation of the flux can be provided using the new dataset and can be verified with the current field measurements.

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