Classical nucleation theory of immersion freezing: Sensitivity of contact angle schemes to thermodynamic and kinetic parameters

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Abstract. Heterogeneous ice formation by immersion freezing in mixed-phase clouds can be parameterized in general circulation models (GCMs) by Classical Nucleation Theory (CNT). CNT parameterization schemes describe immersion freezing as a stochastic process including the properties of insoluble aerosol particles, so called ice nuclei, in the droplets. There are different ways how to describe parameterize the properties of aerosol particles (i.e. contact angle schemes), which are compiled and tested in this paper. The goal of this study is to find a parameterization scheme for GCMs to describe immersion freezing with the ability to shift and adjust the slope of the freezing curve compared to homogeneous freezing to match experimental data.

The results of using We showed in a previous publication that the resulting freezing curves from CNT are very sensitive to unconstrained kinetic and thermodynamic parameters in the case of homogeneous freezingleading to uncertainties in calculated nucleation rates J_{hom} of several orders of magnitude. Here we investigate how sensitive the outcome of a parameter estimation for contact angle schemes from experimental data is to unconstrained kinetic and thermodynamic parameters. We show that additional free parameter demonstrate that the parameters describing the contact angle schemes can mask the uncertainty of J_{imm} due to in thermodynamic and kinetic parameters.

Different CNT formulations are fitted to an extensive immersion freezing dataset consisting of size selected measurements as a function of particle diameter (d), temperature T and time t temperature and time for different mineral dust types, namely kaolinite, illite, montmorillonite, microcline (K-feldspar) and Arizona test dust. It is investigated how accurate different CNT formulations (with the estimated fit parameters for different contact angle schemes) reproduce the measured freezing eurvesdata, especially the time and particle size dependence of the freezing process. The results are compared to a simplified deterministic freezing scheme. It is evaluated in this context In this context it is evaluated which CNT based parameterization scheme able to represent particle properties is a good the best choice to describe immersion freezing in a GCM.

1 Introduction

In mixed-phase clouds freezing of cloud droplets occurs by different pathways of heterogeneous freezing/nucleation. The nucleation process is initiated on the surface of an aerosol particle, called ice nucleus (IN), which either collides with a super-

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cooled droplet (contact freezing), acts as cloud condensation nucleus (CCN) and causes freezing when the droplet is increasingly supercooled (immersion freezing), freezes immediately after CCN activation at supercooled conditions (condensation freezing), or provides a site where water vapor deposits as ice (deposition nucleation) (Vali, 1985). [Vali (1985)].

In mid latitudes, where supercooled clouds are common, IN and their effect on precipitation formation through immersion freezing influence the hydrological cycle (Lohmann, 2002; Zeng et al., 2009; DeMott et al., 2010) and thereby e.g. the biosphere and agriculture. Aerosol particles determine the formation and ice-water ratio of mixed-phase clouds, thereby the cloud radiative properties and indirectly the radiation budget, which affects earth's climate. Therefore results of climate simulations in regional and global models are sensitive to the parameterization scheme used for heterogeneous ice formation and in particular immersion freezing as it is the most abundant freezing pathway (Ansmann et al., 2009; Wiacek et al., 2010). One approach to parameterize immersion freezing in global and regional climate models is by Classical Nucleation theory (CNT). CNT is a theory based on approximations considering, which requires approximations of the thermodynamics and kinetics of nucleation. Although computationally more expensive in most cases compared to empirical parameterization schemes, it allows a physical treatment of ice nucleation as function of temperature T, ice supersaturation S_i , time t and IN type (e.g. size, surface properties). Using a theoretical scheme has the advantage that the scheme is valid over the whole T- S_i -space, which is mandatory for the use in a GCM, where all kind kinds of conditions occur (especially in certain regions like the Arctic, but also in simulations of future climate, where atmospheric conditions can be different from the present day or the pre-industrial onesepoch). Empirical schemes are in contrast often limited to narrow conditions the narrow conditions from which the scheme was estimated for derived and can lead to unphysical results when extrapolated. Therefore empirical schemes might not hold for future atmospheric be representative for the future atmosphere or untypical atmospheric conditions. One example is the empirical Meyers et al. (1992) scheme, which was developed using measurements in mid-latitude and has problems when being mid latitudes and has been found to be inaccurate when extrapolated to Arctic conditions (Prenni et al., 2007).

The Some parameters in the framework of CNT is partly unconstrained and therefore are so far unconstrained. At the same time results from the CNT are very sensitive to the choice of thermodynamic and kinetic parameters, namely in particular interfacial tension between ice and water σ_{iw} and activation energy $\Delta g^{\#}$. Sensitivity of CNT on σ_{iw} and $\Delta g^{\#}$ in the case of homogeneous freezing has been discussed in Ickes et al. (2015). Using CNT as an approach to parameterize immersion freezing in aerosol-climate models raises the question of the sensitivity of the parameterization scheme to σ_{iw} and $\Delta g^{\#}$ in the case of heterogeneous freezing. Additionally there is a need to include and represent IN properties. Here we use We test three different schemes to describe the effect of an IN population on immersion freezing conditions and investigate the impact of the chosen scheme on the parameterization of immersion freezing. We also discuss strategies how to judge/evaluate evaluate the applicability of different CNT formulations.

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The formalism of CNT for immersion freezing is explained summarized in section 2. Advantages and disadvantages of certain formulation formulations for the use in GCMs are discussed. In section 3 the sensitivity of the immersion freezing nucleation rate J_{imm} [s⁻¹m⁻²] and the fit of the geometric term f to thermodynamic and kinetic parameters is investigated by fitting and comparing the results to an ice nucleation measurement dataset of kaolinite (Welti et al., 2012). The section is followed by suggestions for criteria how to evaluate the quality of a CNT parameterization scheme (section 4). Finally in

section 5 CNT parameters are Section 5 presents CNT parameters estimated from experimental data for five different mineral dust types and afterwards in section 5.1 the criteria are tested from section 4 are applied for three CNT parameterization schemes formulations and compared to the performance of an empirical parameterization. Throughout this paper we refer to "CNT formulations" indicating a specific CNT framework for immersion freezing based on Eq. 4, including parameterization schemes for σ_{iw} , $\Delta g^{\#}$ and the geometric term f (contact angle scheme). CNT formulation #1 as an example is later on abbreviated by CNT #1. We refer to "schemes" to discuss the different parameterization schemes for the geometric term f or the contact angle α to express the ice nucleating surface properties of aerosol particles.

2 Classical Nucleation Theory for immersion freezing

In CNT freezing is described as a stochastic process by a temperature dependent nucleation rate. In the case of homogeneous freezing (pure water droplets) statistical fluctuation of water molecules can lead to the formation of small ice-like structures (ice embryos) that lead to freezing of the supercooled droplet if they reach a certain critical size (ice germ). The nucleation rate describes the formation of ice germs leading to freezing over time. It consists of a thermodynamic and a kinetic component. The thermodynamic component describes the formation of ice embryos (determined by the thermodynamic energy barrier ΔG), the kinetic component describes the number of molecules, which can be incorporated into the ice embryo (determined by the activation energy barrier $\Delta g^{\#}$).

The presence of IN immersed in supercooled droplets facilitates ice nucleation compared to homogeneous nucleation by providing a catalytic surface. The IN surfaces surface reduces the thermodynamic energy barrier ΔG determined by T, S_i and σ_{iw} . The difference in nucleation with and without an IN i.e. homogeneous or heterogeneous nucleation, is accounted for by the geometric term f, also called wettening factor, compability compatibility factor or contact parameter. This term indicates the increased probability to nucleate a stable ice germ due to the presence of the IN surface and therefore because of the reduced number of water molecules necessary to form an ice germ. It f describes by how much the IN properties (of unknown nature) reduce the energy barrier for the formation of ice embryos on its surface compared to homogeneous freezingand can be expressed as a function of the contact angle α , which is the tangential angle between the ice embryo on the IN surface and the parent phase (here supercooled water) Fletcher (1958):

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$$\Delta G = f(\alpha) \cdot \Delta G_{\text{hom}}$$

$$= f(\alpha) \cdot \frac{16\pi}{3} \cdot \frac{v_{\text{ice}}^2 \sigma_{\text{iw}}^3}{(k_{\text{B}} T \ln S_{\text{i}})^2} \frac{\text{with}}{\text{with}},$$
(1)

$$\frac{f(\alpha)}{g} \equiv \frac{1}{2} \left[1 + \left(\frac{1 - X \cdot \cos \alpha}{g} \right)^3 + X^3 \left(2 - 3 \left(\frac{X - \cos \alpha}{g} \right) \right) + \left(\frac{X - \cos \alpha}{g} \right)^3 \right) + 3 \cdot \cos \alpha \cdot X^2 \left(\frac{X - \cos \alpha}{g} - 1 \right) \right]$$

with

$$\underline{X} \equiv \frac{r_{\text{IN}}}{r_{\text{germ}}} \underline{\text{and } g = \sqrt{1 + X^2 - 2 \cdot X \cdot \cos \alpha}},$$

where v_{ice} is the volume of a water molecule in the ice embryo, k_{B} is the Boltzmann constant, S_{i} is the saturation ratio with respect to ice, r_{IN} is the radius of the catalytic IN surface and r_{germ} is the critical radius of an stable ice cluster which initiates freezing of the droplet.

f can be expressed as a function of the contact angle α , which is the tangential angle between the ice embryo on the IN surface and the parent phase (here supercooled water) [Fletcher (1958)]:

$$\underbrace{f(\alpha)}_{} \quad \equiv \quad \frac{1}{2} \left[1 + \left(\frac{1 - X \cdot \cos \alpha}{g} \right)^3 + X^3 \left(2 - 3 \left(\frac{X - \cos \alpha}{g} \right) + \left(\frac{X - \cos \alpha}{g} \right)^3 \right) + \\ 3 \cdot \cos \alpha \cdot X^2 \left(\frac{X - \cos \alpha}{g} - 1 \right) \right] (2) + \left(\frac{X - \cos \alpha}{g} \right)^3 + \left$$

with

$$\label{eq:constraints} X \quad \ = \quad \frac{r_{\mathrm{IN}}}{r_{\mathrm{germ}}} \ \, \underbrace{\mathrm{and}}_{} \ \, \underbrace{g = \sqrt{1 + X^2 - 2 \cdot X \cdot \cos \alpha}}_{} \, .$$

The contact angle α has a value between 0° and 180° , where the latter is equal to the case of homogeneous freezing (f=1 $\rightarrow \Delta G = \Delta G_{\text{hom}}$).

If the radius of the IN is significantly larger than the radius of the ice germ, radius curvature of the IN surface can be neglected leading to a simplified form of f (Volmer, 1939):

$$f(\alpha) = \frac{(2+\cos\alpha)(1-\cos\alpha)^2}{4}.$$
 (3)

Whereas the thermodynamic term in the nucleation rate $J_{\rm imm}$ (thermodynamic exponent determined by the energy barrier ΔG , see above) changes from homogeneous to heterogeneous freezing, the kinetic term is assumed to be the same for homogeneous and immersion freezing. The kinetics give the number of molecules, which can potentially be incorporated into the ice germ. They are captured in the prefactor of the nucleation rate (see Eq. 4) and the kinetic exponent (determined by the activation energy barrier $\Delta g^{\#}$). The prefactor of the nucleation rate is different in the case of immersion freezing compared to homogeneous freezing: changes as well. It is defined as:

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$$C_{\underline{\text{prefac,hom prefac}}} = n_s \cdot 4\pi r_{\text{germ}}^2 \cdot Z \cdot k_B T / h \cdot N_l, \text{ with } Z = \frac{1}{n_{k,\text{germ}}} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{\Delta G}{3\pi k_B T}}$$
.

where n_s is the number of water molecules in contact with the unit area of the ice cluster, Z is the non-equilibrium Zeldovich factor, h the Planck's constant and N_1 is the volume-based number density of water molecules in the liquid parent phase. The

difference is due to homogeneous freezing being a volume-dependent process while immersion freezing is assumed to be a surface dependent process. When calculating the non-equilibrium Zeldovich factor Z, the freezing type has to be considered:

$$Z = \frac{1}{n_{k,\text{germ}}} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{\Delta G}{3\pi k_{\text{B}} T}} \; .$$

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Z is not the same for homogeneous and heterogeneous freezing, because the number of the water molecules in the ice germ, $n_{k,\text{germ}}$, differs. As shown in Pruppacher and Klett (2000) most of the prefactors cancel out in the case of heterogeneous freezing leading to the following expression for the nucleation rate for immersion freezing:

$$J_{\text{imm}}[\text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}] = n_{\text{s}} \cdot \frac{k_{B}T}{h} \cdot \underbrace{\exp\left(-\frac{\Delta g^{\#}}{k_{B}T}\right)}_{\text{kinetic comp.}} \cdot \underbrace{\exp\left(-\frac{f(\alpha) \cdot \Delta G}{k_{B}T}\right)}_{\text{kinetic comp.}} \underbrace{\exp\left(-\frac{f(\alpha) \cdot \Delta G}{k_{B}T}\right)}_{\text{thermodyn. comp.}} \underbrace{\exp\left(-\frac{f(\alpha) \cdot \Delta G}{k_{B}T}\right$$

Since the energy barrier of immersion freezing is reduced compared to homogeneous freezing, the freezing curve is shifted to higher temperatures and is less steep. This curve shift and flattening J_{inum} is higher compared to the homogeneous nucleation rate J_{hom} and exhibits a different T dependence (less steep at a certain T). The shift of the freezing curve is described by the geometric term f and has to be captured by the different CNT formulations.

2.1 Parameterization schemes for the geometric term f

Different schemes parameterization schemes for f have been put forward to describe the influence of an IN on the nucleation process, i.e. to describe the ice nucleating surface properties of aerosol particles(Marcolli et al., 2007; Lüönd et al., 2010). Thus when fitting experimental data the fit parameter(s) describe the physical properties of the IN, e.g. Marcolli et al. (2007). Depending on the scheme these the IN properties are represented by functions with one or several fit parameters and the complexity for an implementation in a GCM differs accordingly. Note that increasing complexity normally comes with higher computational costs:

Three (Hurrell et al., 2009). Based on the computational complexity we chose three schemes including one or two fit parameters are used in for the following sensitivity analysis (section 3)and. They are briefly explained here followed by a paragraph about computational costs. A graphical representation of each scheme is shown in Fig. 1. For more details see Marcolli et al. (2007) and Lüönd et al. (2010).

From immersion freezing measurements the frozen fraction FF is obtained, which is the fraction of a droplet population factivated aerosol population that is frozen at a certain temperature T after a certain time t. To compare different CNT based parameterization schemes to measurements, FF is calculated from the nucleation rate J_{imm} . The frozen fraction FF is given by:

$$FF = 1 - \exp(-J_{\text{imm}}(T,\alpha) \cdot A_{\text{IN}} \cdot \Delta t), \tag{5}$$

with $A_{\rm IN}$ being the surface area of the IN. For simplicity particles are assumed to be spherical ($A_{\rm IN}=4\pi r_{\rm IN}^2$). Thus, the surface used for the IN of a specific mass represents a lower limit (non-spherical surface particles would be larger).

2.1.1 Single- α scheme

The single- α scheme is assigning assigns one contact angle to the entire surface of each particleall particles. It is based on the assumption that all particles have one common occurrent uniform surface property responsible for their ice nucleating ability. Consequently all particles have an equal probability to act as IN at given conditions. The scheme requires only one fit parameter $(f \text{ or } \alpha)$. One variation of the single- α scheme, the single- α + fit $\Delta g^{\#}$ scheme (see section 3), requires two fit parameters $(f \text{ or } \alpha)$ and $\Delta g^{\#}$).

It is the least complex and consequently the cheapest scheme suitable to implement for implementation in GCMs. However, it does not take into account that ice nucleating properties might be variable throughout a particle population. This scheme is used in several models, e.g. Khvorostyanov and Curry (2000, 2004, 2005); Liu et al. (2007); Eidhammer et al. (2009); Hoose et al. (2010); Storelymo et al. (2011); Ervens and Feingold (2012).

2.1.2 α -pdf scheme

The α -pdf scheme is an extension of the single- α scheme. It accounts for the assumes a heterogeneity of particles in an aerosol population by using a log-normal probability density function (pdf) for the contact angle α $p(\alpha)$. The log-normal distribution of α within a particle population is expressed by two fit parameters, the logarithmic mean contact angle μ and the variance σ of the distribution:

$$p(\alpha) = \frac{1}{\alpha \sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{(\ln(\alpha) - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) . \tag{6}$$

This approach attributes an individual surface property to each particle on the entire particle surface.

The variance σ defines accounts for the heterogeneity of the particle property within the aerosol population: the larger the variance σ , the larger the heterogeneity among the particles. The frozen fraction FF is derived by integrating the contact angle distribution over all possible contact angles:

$$FF = 1 - \int_{0}^{\pi} p(\alpha) \cdot \exp(-J_{\text{imm}}(T, \alpha) \cdot A_{\text{IN}} \cdot \Delta t) \, d\alpha \,. \tag{7}$$

The approach has been frequently used to interpret freezing data, e.g. Marcolli et al. (2007); Lüönd et al. (2010); Broadley et al. (2012);

because it better represents the nature of the IN-sample. Marcolli et al. (2007); Lüönd et al. (2010); Broadley et al. (2012); Welti et al. (2012) Due to the increased complexity compared to the single- α scheme, only a few attempts have been made to implement it in GCMs [e.g. Wang et al. (2014)]. Application of the scheme in GCMs faces the problem of the unknown time evolution of the contact angle distribution. Because the most efficient IN will form ice first, the remaining contact angle distribution (IN, which did not freeze yet) changes in case an aerosol population is not replenished within one timestep. Without an explicit treatment of the time evolution of the α -pdfcontact angle distribution, ice formation will be overestimated since the most efficient IN can initiate freezing over and over again. The time evolution of the contact angle distribution can be neglected by assuming that the aerosol particles are replenished within one model time step. Note that this issue is closely connected to the time resolution of the GCM, which will be discussed in a future publication.

The frozen fraction FF is derived by integrating the contact angle distribution over all possible contact angles:

$$FF = 1 - \int_{0}^{\pi} p(\alpha) \cdot \exp(-J_{\text{imm}}(T, \alpha) \cdot A_{\text{IN}} \cdot \Delta t) \, d\alpha.$$

Another extension Another extension of the single- α and frequently used scheme is the active sites scheme, e.g. in Marcolli et al. (2007); Lüönd et al. (2010); Niedermeier et al. (2011); Welti et al. (2012); Wheeler et al. (2014). It goes one step further and assumes several surface sites with different contact angle on a single IN. Freezing is described based on active sites (initiating the nucleation process), which are randomly distributed on each IN surface within the particle population. As this scheme is In this case the active sites have to be memorized over several timesteps, which means that at least one extra tracer is needed in the model. This makes this scheme computationally too expensive for the use in GCMs (see section 2.1.4). Thus, it is left out of in the following analysis. More information about the active sites scheme can be found in Marcolli et al. (2007); Lüönd et al. (2010); Niedermeier et al. (2011).

2.1.3 Temperature dependent single- α scheme $\{(\alpha(T) \text{ scheme})\}$

The $\alpha(T)$ scheme is a compromise between the single- α and the α -pdf scheme. It does not take into account how contact angles are distributed among a particle population but it is assumed assumes that α is different for different T, which reflects a change of the activated fraction of the α -pdf distribution and with that a change in μ with supercooling or time. This refers to the situation where good IN freeze first apparent contact angle. Efficient IN (with small contact angles) freeze at highest temperatures shifting the mean contact angle μ of the remaining IN population to less efficient IN. The lower the temperature, the higher the chance that particles with larger contact angles can be activated. This leads to a change of the apparent contact angle to larger α with further cooling (assuming the aerosol population does not substantially change while cooling and the contact angles are not replenished from one to the next timestep) due to the shift of the activated fraction of the α -pdf distribution with supercooling. The $\alpha(T)$ scheme is thus representing the shifted mean contact angle of an initial contact angle distribution, but does not take into account how contact angles are distributed among a particle population at a certain temperature. The temperature dependence of α can be approximated to be linear as discussed in Welti et al. (2012). This scheme is computationally cheaper compared to the α -pdf scheme, because no integration over a contact angle distribution is necessary. It also circumvents the issue of shifting α -pdf with time, as this is inherently captured in the scheme. Being capable to describe a variability of the freezing process due to a contact angle distribution without being computationally complex makes the $\alpha(T)$ scheme attractive for GCMs. However it demands an indirect assumption on how the aerosol population changes with time or supercooling, respectively, supercooling. It does not circumvent the issue of shifting the contact angle distribution with time.

The frozen fraction FF is estimated analogously to the single- α scheme using a linear function for $\alpha(T)$:

$$FF = 1 - \exp(-J_{\text{imm}}(T, \alpha(T)) \cdot A_{\text{IN}} \cdot \Delta t) ,$$
 with
$$\alpha(T) = \alpha_0 + m \cdot (T - 273.15 \text{ K}) .$$
 (8)

Note that in general the temperature dependence of α can be interpreted either as a result of the temperature dependence of the interfacial tensions (σ_{is} and σ_{iw}) or as the apparent contact angle of an ensemble with a diversity of contact angles from particle to particle. In contrast to Zobrist et al. (2007); Alpert et al. (2011); Knopf and Forrester (2011); Rigg et al. (2013) we follow the second interpretation (simplified temperature dependent α-pdf scheme) as explained above. Accounting for a physical dependence of α on T as a result of the temperature dependence of the interfacial tensions leads to a decrease of α, which is contradictory to the assumption we made here.

2.1.4 Computational costs

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Since computational costs are strongly linked to the complexity of parameterization schemes (Hurrell et al., 2009), the complexity of a parameterization scheme is an important factor which has to be considered before implementation into a GCM. A general quantification of the computational costs of parameterization schemes depends an many aspects (treatment of aerosol particles and cloud microphysics) of the GCM used. The number and kind of variables needed, e.g. T, size and number of a certain aerosol type, to derive J_{imm} is an indicator for the complexity of the parameterization scheme. As soon as a variable needs to be memorized over several timesteps, e.g. change in contact angle distribution, an extra-tracer is required, which might be computationally expensive.

The cheapest CNT based parameterization schemes are the single- α scheme and the $\alpha(T)$ scheme. The α -pdf scheme is computationally more expensive because the contact angle distribution changes with time if the contact angles are not replenished from one timetep to the next. An explicit treatment of time evolution of the contact angle distribution requires extratracer to memorize which contact angles from the distribution were already used in the timesteps before and thus make the scheme computationally more expensive. Using extratracer for the contact angle of mineral dust particles would approximately lead to an increase of computational costs of 21% in the GCM ECHAM6-HAM2. If the time evolution of the contact angle distribution is not taken into account, the α -pdf scheme becomes computationally similarly expensive as the single- α and the $\alpha(T)$ scheme. However, the integral in Eq. 7 can not be solved analytically. Therefore, to minimize computational costs, a look-up table could be used instead of discretized finite sums. Using look-up tables is depending on the size and format of the look-up table more expensive compared to solving an equation with simple constants as in the case of the single- α and $\alpha(T)$ scheme. The $\alpha(T)$ scheme is a simplified version of the α -pdf and computationally cheaper, because no integration over a contact angle distribution is necessary. The active sites scheme requires extratracer as well, which would lead to high computational costs (comparable to the α -pdf with explicit change of contact angle distribution with time).

3 Sensitivity analysis

3.1 Fitting immersion freezing measurements

In this section, the sensitivity of $J_{\rm imm}$ and FF to different combinations of $\sigma_{\rm iw}$ and $\Delta g^{\#}$ (see Ickes et al., 2015 for a discussion of these parameters) in combination with the contact angle schemes discussed in section 2.1 is analyzed by fitting and comparing the different CNT parameterization schemes to experimental data. This helps to understand how fit parameters influence the calculated FF freezing curves.

The experimental data taken from Welti et al. (2012) consists consist of optically detected frozen fractions FF of droplets containing single immersed, monodisperse kaolinite (Fluka) particles. The data consists of FF FF was measured as a function of T, the particle radius $r_{\rm IN}$ and the residence time in the measurement setup t. Experiments were performed using a CFDC (ZINC/IMCA) IMCA/ZINC [see Welti et al. (2012) for more details]. The error bars of the data reflect the uncertainty in the distinction of water droplets and ice crystals in the detection unit. For the sensitivity analysis the dataset measured after 10 s for kaolinite particles with a diameter of 400 nm is used. Note that the size of the particles might be underestimated due to the assumption of sphericity and therefore the calculated nucleation rates $J_{\rm imm}$ from experimental frozen fractions are always the lowest estimate. represent a lower limit.

To explore the sensitivity of J_{imm} and FF to thermodynamic and kinetic parameters of CNT-we use different CNT formulations. The with thermodynamic and kinetic parameters of CNT-from different studies. The focus is on σ_{iw} and $\Delta g^{\#}$ used here emerged from Ickes et al. (2015). In the following all approaches and different CNT formulations, which are used for the analysis, are listed. An overview is given in Table 2. Capital letters in the naming indicate the author from whose publication thermodynamic and kinetic parameters are used obtained.

#1: Single- α R&D + Zscheme

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The first approach is to use a single- α scheme in combination with the thermodynamic and kinetic parameters shown to be in good agreement with homogeneous nucleation rates [see Ickes et al. (2015)]. When using a single- α scheme it is might be important that the kinetic and thermodynamic parameters are a combination which reproduces the homogeneous freezing data well as there is only one fit parameter and uncertainties deviations cannot be compensated by additional parameters. The emerged best fitting combination of σ_{iw} and $\Delta g^{\#}$ (derived independently of J) from the analysis of homogeneous data is σ_{iw} from Reinhardt and Doye (2013) and $\Delta g^{\#}$ from Zobrist et al. (2007). It is tested if these formulations of σ_{iw} and $\Delta g^{\#}$ are also applicable to reproduce heterogeneous nucleation rates with assumptions of in combination with the single- α scheme.

#2: Single- α R&D + fit $\Delta g^{\#}$ scheme

An second approach which emerged from Chen et al. (2008) is using a constant $\Delta g^{\#}$ as an additional fit parameter to f/α instead of taking a temperature dependent formulation. This assumption might be wrong in the context of homogeneous freezing especially at very low T (Barahona, 2015). However, it should be applicable for immersion freezing conditions as the change in $\Delta g^{\#}$ is small in the corresponding temperature range. The approach is used in combination with σ_{iw}

from Reinhardt and Doye (2013) and a single- α scheme. To decide if $\sigma_{\rm iw}$ from Reinhardt and Doye (2013) is the best choice, different expressions for $\sigma_{\rm iw}$ (derived independently of J) are tested against a fit of the homogeneous nucleation rate $J_{\rm hom}$ using constant $\Delta g^{\#}$ (see Fig. 2 analog analogous to Fig. 17 in Ickes et al.,2015). We find that $\sigma_{\rm iw}$ from Reinhardt and Doye (2013) remains an appropriate choice even when $\Delta g^{\#}$ is used as a constant.

#35and #4: Single- α O + fit $\Delta g^{\#}$ scheme and single- α E + fit $\Delta g^{\#}$ scheme

For the sensitivity study of J_{imm} to the kinetic and thermodynamic parameters the focus is on σ_{iw} . To capture the whole possible range, two formulations of σ_{iw} are used. One from Eadie (1971) leading to the lowest homogeneous nucleation rate and a second formulation of σ_{iw} from Ouchi (1954) leading to the highest homogeneous nucleation rate (see Fig. 2). For a summary of the two formulations of σ_{iw} we refer to Ickes et al. (2015).

These two extremes of σ_{iw} are used together with a constant $\Delta g^{\#}$ (fit parameter) and the single- α scheme to clarify if a fit of α can compensate for a low/high σ_{iw} .

#5: α -pdf R&D + Zseheme

This scheme CNT formulation is an α -pdf scheme using the same thermodynamic and kinetic parameter as the CNT formulation for the single- α scheme (CNT #1). This The α -pdf increases the complexity and adds an additional fit parameter compared to the single- α R&D + Z scheme formulation (#1). By doing this Thus we test the influence of the choice of the contact angle scheme on the fit result. Additionally we examine if the number of free fit parameters plays a role when choosing a contact angle scheme has an impact on the result.

#6: α -pdf E + Zscheme

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One extreme formulation of σ_{iw} from Eadie (1971) is used together with $\Delta g^{\#}$ from Zobrist et al. (2007) and the α -pdf scheme (see #5.).

#7: $\alpha(T)$ **R&D** + **Z**scheme

Similar to the α -pdf R&D + Z scheme (formulation (CNT #5), thermodynamic and kinetic parameter from the formulation for the single- α scheme (CNT #1) are used with an $\alpha(T)$ scheme instead of the single- α scheme.

The dataset from Welti et al. (2012) is fitted with the previous previously listed CNT formulations. The fits are done by least-square minimization of FF as a function of T. The results are shown in Fig. 3 and Table 2. Table 2 additionally contains a summary of the CNT formulations information on $\Delta g^{\#}$ and $\sigma_{\rm iw}$. Overall most CNT formulations with two fit parameters are able to capture the freezing curve data well with similar root mean square errors (RMSE) of the estimated freezing curve and measured freezing curve independent data independently of the thermodynamic and kinetic parameters. In the following the results are discussed in more detail.

The single- α R&D + Z scheme (formulation (CNT #1) poorly captures the experimental data and results in a too steep freezing curve. With the single- α scheme it is not possible to reproduce the reduction of the energy barrier in a correct manner and to decrease the temperature dependence of the nucleation rate from the homogeneous to the heterogeneous case. Having

only one fit parameter, which in this case is a factor in the exponential term, is not sufficient to shift and flatten the freezing curve compared to homogeneous freezing. Only the T-shift of the freezing curve compared to homogeneous freezing is captured by the fitted single- α scheme. This can be seen in a more general illustration in Fig. 7 and Fig. 8 (App. A). This result indicates that the simplified assumption of a homogeneous (single) only reducing ΔG by a single contact angle for the entire population is not sufficient. However, early experiments on AgI and recent molecular dynamics simulations [e.g. Cabriolu and Li (2015)] support the applicability of single- α in certain cases. Possibly a single- α scheme can be used for highly efficient IN triggering ice formation at low supercooling. In the context of the Young equation (Young, 1805) the assumption of a single- α scheme is questionable. If α represents the balance of the three surface tensions it has to change with T since the surface tensions are temperature dependent.

Using $\Delta q^{\#}$ as an additional fit parameter (scheme CNT #2) reduces the steepness of can flatten the curve. In this case 10 both fit parameters are factors in the exponential term of the nucleation rate with a similar influence on the fitted FF. The fit parameter which is multiplied with the temperature dependent variable $\Delta G(f)$ mainly shifts the freezing curve but cannot reduce the steepness sufficiently at the same time (see single- α scheme). Using a second fit parameter $\Delta q^{\#}$ resolves this issue. A simplified view on this is that one fit parameter is responsible for the shift and the other one for the flattening of the immersion freezing curve compared to homogeneous freezing. Using a constant $\Delta q^{\#}$ might be reasonable based on the results from the homogeneous freezing analysis (Ickes et al., 2015), but fitting $\Delta g^{\#}$ to immersion freezing data leads to substantially higher $\Delta q^{\#}$ than those estimated by theoretical calculations (see Ickes et al., 2015). Moreover the fit value of $\Delta q^{\#}$ is aerosolspecific. This might be an artificial result and it is questionable if the assumption of a temperature independent and aerosol type specific (due to the fitting) $\Delta q^{\#}$ is a physical valid approach. It contradicts the assumption that the kinetic parameters such as $\Delta q^{\#}$ are the same for homogeneous and heterogeneous nucleation. The general approach to take the same thermodynamic and kinetic parameters (besides f and the prefactor) for homogeneous and heterogeneous nucleation is based on the assumption that mechanisms (e.g. the diffusion of water molecules across the water-ice boundary) in the supercooled water are not influenced by the immersed aerosol particle. This hypothesis might not be true. The aerosol particle might influence e.g. the diffusion of water molecules close to the particle which could explain-justify a change in $\Delta q^{\#}$ depending on aerosol type. A disturbance of the diffusion by an aerosol particle could e.g. be related to an impact on the hydrogen bond network by IN surface charges or polarizability of the particle surface (Edwards and Evans, 1962).

An alternative to having $\Delta g^{\#}$ as an additional fit parameter is to use a more sophisticated contact angle scheme, e.g. the $\alpha(T)$ α -pdf scheme (CNT #5 and #6) or the α -pdf $\alpha(T)$ scheme (CNT #7). Both approaches lead to good agreement with fits of the experimental freezing eurve data and can be physically justified because they resemble the natural variability of IN by assuming a contact-angle distribution (in the case of $\alpha(T)$ only indirectly) an IN population. The $\alpha(T)$ scheme has the disadvantage that it is not known how inherently known how the apparent α changes with T. A wrong assumption could lead to an unphysical contact angle scheme, where the change of α does not represent the shift in the contact angle distribution correctly.

The curves resulting from seheme CNT #3-7 (single- α + fit $\Delta g^{\#}$ schemes, α -pdf schemes and $\alpha(T)$ scheme) all support the hypothesis that increasing the number of fit parameters from one to two allows to find a reasonable fit, independent of

the kinetic and thermodynamic parameters chosen and also independently of the contact angle scheme. This hypothesis is also supported by the result of the single- α scheme, where one fit parameter alone cannot shift and flatten the freezing curve. However, using a single- α scheme with a different additional fit parameter (e.g. the slope of σ_{iw} instead of a constant $\Delta g^{\#}$) does not lead to a better fit of the freezing curve. This might be due to the formula for of the energy barrier preventing a sufficient sufficiently large influence of the additional fit parameter on the steepness of the curve. $\Delta g^{\#}$ as an additional fit parameter is able to reduce the steepness of the freezing curve as it has the opposite temperature dependence compared to the energy barrier ΔG . For a visualization of how the fit parameters influence the freezing curve for each schemesee, please see Fig. 7 and Fig. 8 (App. A).

Using one CNT formulation, e.g. the single- α R&D + fit $\Delta g^{\#}$ scheme (formulation (CNT #2) together with wrong fit parameters, e.g. α , emerging from a fit from with a different CNT formulation, e.g. the single- α E + fit $\Delta g^{\#}$ scheme (formulation (CNT #4) leads to a wrong freezing curve. This, which is illustrated in Fig. 3 [solid red line, single- α R&D + fit $\Delta g^{\#}$ (E) (#2/4)]. It is an example of the implication if fit parameters are used together with a different CNT formulation, that was not the one used to derive the fit parameters. This can unintentionally happen in GCMs if an implemented CNT formulation is later extended, e.g. by another aerosol species, and no care is taken that the fit parameters for the new species from the literature are derived from the same CNT formulation as the one implemented in the model.

Being able to reproduce experimental data does not directly depend on σ_{iw} and $\Delta g^{\#}$ and not only on the number of fit parameters used, but also on the contact angle scheme. In a reverse conclusion this means that the fit results of α , α_0 and m or μ and variance σ strongly depend on the CNT formulation used. Looking at Table 2 one can see that f differs substantially, e.g. when using the single- α + fit $\Delta g^{\#}$ scheme with different assumptions of values for σ_{iw} . Comparing σ_{iw} from Reinhardt and Doye (2013) with σ_{iw} from Ouchi (1954) leads to a difference in fitted f of more than 300%, which translates into a difference in contact angle α of approx. 75°. However, all single- α + fit $\Delta g^{\#}$ schemes result in a nearly similar freezing curve with the same RMSE. The fit parameters from the contact angle scheme compensate inaccuracies coming associated with from thermodynamic and kinetic parameters and thus mask potentially wrong assumptions, e.g. of the most important, unconstrained parameter in CNT of homogeneous freezing, σ_{iw} of Ouchi (1954). This makes it challenging to compare contact angles or fit parameters from different studies if not the same CNT formulation was used. Hence in the next subsection we investigate how fit results vary when thermodynamic and kinetic parameters differ and if there is a possibility to compare fit parameters from different Studies using different CNT formulations.

3.2 Uncertainty of fitting α and α -pdf

Table 2 shows that, dependent on the choice of $\sigma_{\rm iw}$ and $\Delta g^{\#}$, the estimated fit parameters differ. The choice of thermodynamic and kinetic parameters ($\sigma_{\rm iw}$ and $\Delta g^{\#}$) influences the fit results of different contact angle schemes, which makes comparisons of studies difficult. A As an example, a contact angle estimate can be different when using CNT with e.g. $\sigma_{\rm iw}$ from Pruppacher and Klett (2000) compared to using CNT with $\sigma_{\rm iw}$ from Zobrist et al. (2007) leads to different results. In this section the sensitivity of two contact angle contact angle schemes to $\sigma_{\rm iw}$ and $\Delta g^{\#}$ is investigated.

The two CNT formulations used in this analysis are a single- α R&D + fit $\Delta g^{\#}$ scheme (formulation (CNT #2) and the α -pdf R&D + Z scheme (formulation (CNT #5) described abovein sect. 3.1. We chose these two schemes because scheme formulations because CNT #2 is used in GCMs and scheme CNT #5 to interpret our data. Both schemes contain two fit parameters (f and $\Delta g^{\#}$ in scheme CNT #2, μ and variance σ of the contact angle distribution in scheme CNT #5).

We analyze how these the two fit parameters depend on a change in thermodynamic and kinetic parameters. For this purpose the thermodynamic and kinetic parameters are varied up to \pm 50%. For the scheme each variation (e.g. an increase of σ_{iw} by 10%) fitting is done to the same immersion freezing data from Welti et al. (2012) as in the previous section. For the CNT #2 the thermodynamic parameter σ_{iw} is varied, for the scheme CNT #5 the thermodynamic and kinetic parameters σ_{iw} and $\Delta g^{\#}$ are varied separately. The resulting fits are then compared to the reference fit results of section 3.1 (see Table 2). For each variation (e.g. an increase of σ_{iw} by 10) fitting is done to the same immersion freezing data from Welti et al. (2012) as in the previous section. Figure 4a) shows the relative change of the fit parameters as a function of percentual change in σ_{iw} for scheme

In both cases (CNT #2. The higher the variation of $\sigma_{\rm iw}$ the larger is the deviation in f from the estimated fit parameters to the reference fit value, whereas $\Delta g^{\#}$ remains unchanged. Fig. 4b) shows the relative change of the fit parameters as a function of percentual change in $\sigma_{\rm iw}$ and $\Delta g^{\#}$ for scheme 2 and #5. In both cases 5) a similar change in fit parameters can be seen. Changing the thermodynamic parameter $\sigma_{\rm iw}$ has a stronger impact on the fit parameters than changes in the kinetic parameter $\Delta g^{\#}$ see scheme 5 (Fig. 4b). This is expected from the nucleation rate formula, where $\sigma_{\rm iw}$ enters the calculation of the nucleation rate to the power of three and therefore changes the nucleation rate for frozen fraction more drastically than a change in $\Delta g^{\#}$.

In case σ_{iw} is increased/overestimated, the fit parameters are decreasing to compensate the change (see dashed arrow in Fig. 4a) and conversely (see dotted arrow in Fig. 4a). The behavior of this compensation is not symmetric but follows the structure of the nucleation rate formula, i.e. 1/x dependence for f or μ and variance σ , respectively. That implies that the change in the fit parameter gets larger the larger the variation of σ_{iw} is. The relative change approaches $\frac{100 \text{ negative } 100\%}{100\%}$ with increasing σ_{iw} . A larger deviation can be seen for the case where σ_{iw} is decreased/underestimated. Note that in scheme

Figure 4a) shows the relative change of the fit parameters as a function of percental change in σ_{iw} for CNT #2 (Fig. 4 a) only 2. The higher the variation of σ_{iw} the larger is the deviation in f from the reference fit value, whereas $\Delta g^{\#}$ remains unchanged. Only one fit parameter (f) is compensating the change in σ_{iw} , which is due to the stronger impact. Looking at Eq. 1 and 4 the product of f than $\Delta g^{\#}$ on and σ_{iw}^3 enters the exponential of the thermodynamic part of Eq. 4. As long as $f \cdot \sigma_{iw}^3 = \text{constant}$ the resulting nucleation rate J_{imm} is the same. Therefore $\Delta g^{\#}$ is not sensitive to a deviation of σ_{iw} .

Figure 4b) shows the relative change of the fit parameters as a function of percental change in σ_{iw} and $\Delta g^{\#}$ for CNT #5. In case $\Delta g^{\#}$ is changed (only in Fig. 4b) the compensation is linear for μ , following the structure of the nucleation rate formula. For σ the compensation is linear for small changes of $\Delta g^{\#}$ (until a change of approximately 30%), but is nonlinear for larger variations of $\Delta g^{\#}$.

Summarizing, an over/underestimation of σ_{iw} has a strong effect on the value of the resulting fit parameter, while anthe effect of over/underestimation of $\Delta g^{\#}$ is less severesmall. If fit parameters were estimated based on fitting different CNT formulations they can not be directly compared. Fig. 4 can be used to estimate how different fit parameters would look like

change due to different assumptions for σ_{iw} or $\Delta g^{\#}$. Some concrete examples/numbers how different fit parameter would look like if An example how fit parameters change with different CNT formulations are used for the fit are shown is given in Appendix B.

4 How-Strategy to evaluate different CNT formulations?

- The sensitivity analysis in section 3 raises the question how to evaluate different CNT formulations. Since shows that most CNT formulations with at least two fit parameters are able to reproduce the freezing curve of the measurements, it is not possible to use this reproducibility or goodness of the fit as the only measure for the physical capability of the used CNT formulation.

 In practice, mostly, contact measured freezing data. Contact angle schemes are mostly judged based on the RMSE of the estimated freezing curve and measured freezing eurvedata. Only looking at the reproducibility of freezing eurves howevermight

 be not conclusive enough data, however, is not a conclusive measure of how well immersion freezing is represented, since the fit parameters can mask uncertainties in the thermodynamic and kinetic parameters of CNT. Therefore, the evaluation of We propose to evaluate different CNT formulations has to be done by stepwise by testing different fit properties against measurements. The evaluation consists of a macroscopic and a microscopic perspective. Together, both perspectives yield three criteria. Three evaluation criteria are suggested.
- At the a macroscopic level: Is the CNT formulation capable of reproducing the measured FF at a given temperature T-dependence of FF and how well is the dependence on IN size and time dependence captured? The primary factor to test is captured? According to the sensitivity of immersion freezing on T, $r_{\rm IN}$ and t, the representation of the temperature dependence, followed by the size of the IN and the predicted time dependence of the freezing process . All three dependencies should be captured by a suitable CNT formulation if it is used as a function of T, $r_{\rm IN}$ and t in a GCM.
- When evaluating fits to measured freezing curves a dataset that contains freezing data as a function of T, $r_{\rm IN}$ and t the goodness of the fit implicitly contains includes all three aspects (dependence on T, $r_{\rm IN}$ and t). However, because T has the strongest effect on the FF, the goodness of fit mostly reflects how well the CNT scheme captures the temperature dependence. Two criteria emerge from the macroscopic level:
- Crit. 1 How accurately can the overall freezing eurves data be reproduced, i.e. how well is the temperature dependence of the *FF* captured by the CNT formulation?
 - Crit. 2 How accurately are the particle size and time dependence of the freezing process captured by the CNT formulation? Criterion 2 can only be investigated if time and for particle size dependent measurements are available.

At the a microscopic level: Do the fit parameters match the microphysical assumptions of CNT, i.e. are the fit parameters and are they in general physically reasonable? To evaluate if derived fit parameters are physically reasonable, the analysis of heterogeneous freezing can be combined with the findings from homogeneous freezing. Including homogeneous freezing into the analysis might be useful because of less fewer unconstrained parameters in this case.

The microscopic criteria to be tested is:

Crit. 3 Are the values for the fit parameters reasonable in the context of what we know about the microphysical process of nucleation?

In the following these three criteria are used to decide which CNT formulations are suitable for parameterizing immersion freezing, e.g. in a GCM.

5 Using experimental data to estimate CNT parameters for different contact angle schemes

In the following a comprehensive dataset of FF (different aerosol species, aerosol particle sizes and residence times in the eloud chamber experiment) is used. Five different mineral dust types were chosen for the analysis: Fluka kaolinite, illite-NX, montmorillonite, microcline (K-feldspar) and ATD (Arizona test dust). Montmorillonite or kaolinite are often used in global models as a surrogate for ice nucleating dust mineral dust in terms of ice nucleation, e.g. montmorillonite in ECHAM6-HAM2. They both represent clay minerals with kaolinite being a rather inefficient clay IN and montmorillonite an efficient clay IN. Fluka Kaolinite, which was used here, has been widely used to study the mechanism of immersion freezing. Illite-NX was chosen by the INUIT community as a the mineral dust reference sample, e.g. for for an instrument intercomparison (Hiranuma et al., 2015). Microcline (a A microcline sample from Namibia , variation Amazonit) and ATD were and ATD are included to enable sensitivity studies of the freezing parameterization scheme with more efficient IN. The experiments were done by A. Welti (Welti et al. (2012) and personal communication) experimental data for kaolinite is taken from Welti et al. (2012). Illite-NX data has been published in Hiranuma et al. (2015). Microcline, montmorillonite and ATD data are new datasets. All measurements were performed using size-selected aerosol particles with diameters of 50, 100, 200, 400, 800 and 920 nm and 10 s residence time. Additional kaolinite measurements were done. The kaolinite dataset contains time dependent measurements for different residence times of 1, 2, 3, 6, 9 and 21 s. Note that the residence times are rounded to full seconds [compared to Welti et al. (2012)] and not all datasets include the smallest and/or largest size (kaolinite: 100 - 920 nm, illite 100 - 800 nm, montmorillonite 100 - 800 nm, microcline 50 - 800 nm, ATD 100 - 800 nm). The error bars of the data reflect the detection uncertainty and the statistical uncertainty in the measurement by multiple measurements.

To estimate the parameters of derive fit parameters for the CNT parameterization scheme four CNT formulations are chosen: #1 [single- α scheme], #2 [single- α scheme with $\Delta g^{\#}$ as a fit parameter], #5 [α -pdf scheme] and #7 [$\alpha(T)$ scheme]. For more details see Table 2. Scheme CNT #3, #4 and #6 use a $\sigma_{\rm iw}$, which was found not to to not represent homogeneous freezing well—and are excluded based on criterion 3. The wrong assumption of $\sigma_{\rm iw}$ was chosen on purpose for the sensitivity study in section 3.1 to demonstrate how that influences the fit results and the freezing curves. In the context of this section these formulations are excluded because they do not fulfill criterion 3. Note that also the single- α R&D + Z scheme (formulation (CNT #1) is not expected to be able to reproduce the experimental freezing curves (criterion data (Crit. 1). It is still included here for comparison of the RMSE value with the other formulations ("bad" reference).

The fit parameters are determined by least square minimization of the calculated versus measured FF from the dataset. For this purpose the dataset of each dust species, including all measurements as a function of T, aerosol particle size (diameter d) and residence time $(r_{\text{IN}} \text{ and } t)$, is used. To get an impression of the variability of the fit parameters throughout a dataset, the

kaolinite dataset is additionally-fitted for each size and time separately in Appendix C.

The fit parameters for the different CNT formulations and aerosol types are shown in Table 3 together with the best fit root mean square error (RMSE). The fit curves in comparison to the measured FF are shown in Fig. 5 to Fig. 6 (in the case of kaolinite only a selection of the data is shown).

The geometric term f in Table 3 is smallest for microcline, showing that this is the most efficient IN investigated here. The second lowest value for f is found for ATD. Montmorillonite and kaolinite seem to be quite similar in terms of IN efficiency, whereas illite is the least efficient IN.

Revising the fit results with criterion 1 shows that scheme CNT #1 is too steep and not able to reproduce experimental data, resulting in a high RMSE. One fit parameter is not enough to shift and reduce the steepness of the immersion freezing curve sufficiently compared to homogeneous freezing. Thus the single- α scheme (CNT #1) does not fulfill criterion 1. Reasonable fit results (low RMSE) are obtained with scheme CNT #2 and #5 for all datasets. It is difficult to fit the data with scheme. In the case of CNT #5 the mean contact angle is very similar to the contact angle of CNT #1, i.e. the medium freezing temperature (FF = 0.5) is similar, but the steepness of the freezing curve is reduced by the variance of the contact angle distribution σ . See App. A for additional analysis on the influence of μ and σ on the fit of FF.

When fitting CNT #7 since there is more than one solution for fit parameters is found (no absolute minimum of the fitting function). However, α_0 should not become negative be positive and m has to be negative so that α increases with decreasing T. Otherwise criterion 3 is not fulfilled. Here only the fit parameters that fulfill fulfill criterion 3 are given reported (local minimum of the fitting function).

Over For all CNT formulations, the fits with largest RMSE are the ones for ATD which is probably caused by the mixed a size dependent mineralogy of ATD. The capability of the different CNT formulations to best reproduce CNT formulation that best reproduces immersion freezing varies from dust to dust. Therefore, we establish a ranking for each dataset similar to the methodology of used in Wheeler et al. (2014). The best CNT formulation gets a ranking of 1, the worst a ranking of 4. From the ranking of the different datasets an average score is estimated ranking is derived to judge the overall capability to predict *FF* for each CNT formulation. The ranking (see Table 4) shows that scheme CNT #7 and scheme CNT #2 are the best followed by scheme CNT #5 and scheme CNT #1. Calculating the average RMSE from all fits (as an alternative) leads to a similar the same result, where the scheme CNT #7 is the best and scheme CNT #1) the worst (see also Table 4).

Note that this ranking does not consider criterion 2 and 3 and is only based on fit statistics. It also does not show directly how good the CNT formulations reproduce time and particle size dependence of the freezing process (eriterion Crit. 2).

In section 5.1, the time and size dependence of the best three CNT formulations (scheme (CNT #2, scheme CNT #5 and scheme CNT #7) are compared to the kaolinite dataset. A deterministic immersion freezing parameterization scheme based on Niemand et al. (2012) is included in the evaluation for comparison (for more details on the deterministic parameterization scheme see Appendix D). This The Niemand et al. (2012) scheme is frequently used in literature for comparing laboratory measurements, e.g. Atkinson et al. (2013); Hoffmann et al. (2013); Kanji et al. (2013); O'Sullivan et al. (2014); Tobo et al. (2014); Umo et al. (2015), but also as a parameterization scheme in some casesmodel studies, e.g. Barahona et al. (2014); Paukert and Hoose (2014); Hande et al. (2015).

6 Testing the time and particle size dependence (Criteria 2)

5.1 Testing the time and particle size dependence (Criteria 2)

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To test the ability of the single- α R&D + fit $\Delta g^\#$ seheme (formulation (CNT #2), the α -pdf R&D + Z seheme (formulation (CNT #5) and the $\alpha(T)$ R&D + Z seheme (formulation (CNT #7) to reproduce experimentally observed size and time dependence, the fit parameters for kaolinite (see Table 3) are used to calculate FFs for three different residence times (1, 10 and 21 s) and three different aerosol particle diameters (100, 400, 800 nm). In the case of the size dependent calculation of FF the time is 10 s, in the case of the time dependent calculation the aerosol particle diameter is 400 nm. The calculated FF is compared to measurements of the size and time dependent FF in Fig. 5. The analysis of the RMSE for each dataset of the fit for each subset of data and CNT formulation revealed marginal differences in the second decimal place and is therefore not shown. reported. Figure 5 shows that seheme shows that CNT #5 is able to represent capture the time and particle size dependence better than seheme schemes #2 and #7. This leads to an overall smaller RMSE and explains the better ranking for seheme CNT #5 in the case of kaolinite (see Table 3). Looking at Fig. 5, the scheme CNT #2 and #7 seem to give very similar results which overpredict both the size and time dependence, while scheme CNT #5 seems to underpredict the particle size dependence but captures the time dependence well. Overpredicting the size dependence translates into an overestimation of FF for particles with an aerosol

Note, that the The outcome of the evaluation depends on the dataset used. For different aerosol species the ranking of scheme CNT #5 and scheme #2 differs, e.g. for montmorillonite, microcline and ATD. Due to this limitation, it cannot generally be concluded which contact angle scheme better best fulfills criterion 2. Since all three schemes are computationally equally expensive (if the contact angle distribution is not changed with time), they all might All three schemes might thus be chosen for CNT based immersion freezing parameterization schemes in GCMs. The computationally least expensive formulations to use in a GCM would be CNT #2 and #7.

particle diameter larger than 400 nm and an underestimation of FF for particles with an aerosol particle diameter smaller than 400 nm. Underpredicting the size dependence has the opposite influence on FF. Overpredicting the time dependence means

that FF is overestimated having a larger timestep (when using a timestep larger 10 s) as in GCMs.

In Fig. 5 the CNT curves are also compared to an empirical immersion freezing parameterization scheme ($n_{\rm s,IN}$ scheme) based on the expression given in Niemand et al. (2012). Since the scheme is dependent on the measurement data used to derive it, the use for comparison is only limited. To be able to compare an empirical scheme to the CNT schemes, a $n_{\rm s,IN}$ scheme similar to the one in Niemand et al. (2012) was fitted to kaolinite measurements. Details can be found in fitted to the kaolinite measurements (for details please see Appendix D). The $n_{\rm s,IN}$ scheme slightly overestimates the particle size dependence and the scheme does not eapture include any time dependence since it is deterministic. It is able to represent freezing curves in a similar manner as CNT Derived FF curves appear similar to CNT curves. However, due to the general characteristics of empirical relations it is not clear if it can be extrapolated to a wide T-range, which would be mandatory for the use in a GCM.

5.2 Testing the physical reasonability of fit parameters (Criteria 3)

Since our knowledge about the microphysical behavior of supercooled water is limited, and measurements on the microscopic level are very difficult, the evaluation of the reasonability of the fit parameters is challenging. Homogeneous freezing measurements or results for molecular dynamics simulations can be used to additionally evaluate certain CNT formulations and contact angle schemes. Molecular simulations recently started to simulate heterogeneous freezing, often using kaolinite surfaces (Hu and Michaelides, 2007, 2008; Croteau et al., 2010; Šolc et al., 2011). Hu and Michaelides (2007, 2008) found, that the ice nucleation ability of kaolinite results from the amphoteric nature of the surface hydroxyl (OH) groups, meaning that these OH groups can act as hydrogen bond acceptors or donators. The surface hydroxyl groups are reacting flexibly to the orientation of the water molecules above the surface. Therefore water molecules bonding more easily with the kaolinite surface compared to other water molecules form an ice-like stable system. Such information can be used to understand the effect a particle surface can have on the kinetics of ice formation. The study of Šolc et al. (2011) is an example for a molecular simulation study that could help to evaluate fit parameters. Šolc et al. used force-field molecular dynamics simulation to investigate water nanodroplets on a kaolinite surface and estimated a microscopic contact angle of approx. 105°. That is equivalent to a geometric term f of 0.69 (Eq. 3). Unfortunately none of the results for the different CNT formulations in our study is close to this value.

5.3 Comparison to other studies

Several previous studies investigated the capability of different CNT formulations to correctly reproduce measured freezing data for different IN, e.g. Zobrist et al. (2007); Marcolli et al. (2007); Lüönd et al. (2010); Niedermeier et al. (2011); Alpert et al. (2011); Asome of them investigating contact angle schemes comparable to the ones in this study.
In all studies (including the present one) the single-α scheme does not represent the measured freezing data very well (only when Δg# is used as an additional fit parameter). Even in the recent study of Alpert and Knopf (2016) the single-α scheme
is not able to reproduce the freezing curve of a uniform surface (organic monolayer coating). The single-α + fit Δg# scheme has not been evaluated against other schemes in the above mentioned studies. The ranking of the α(T) and α-pdf scheme differs from study to study. In Zobrist et al. (2007); Alpert et al. (2011); Knopf and Forrester (2011); Welti et al. (2012); Rigg et al. (2013) an α(T) scheme leads to good results. For all investigated IN (kaolinite, organic IN and marine biogenic IN) α is increasing with decreasing T in the mentioned literature. Note that in the study of Zobrist et al. (2007); Alpert et al. (2011); Knopf and Forrester (2011); Rigger et al. (2011); Rigger et al. (2012); Rigger et al. (2013) an α(T) scheme dependence of α is based on the change in interfacial tensions with T (according to Young (1974)).

The α -pdf scheme did not produce good results in the study of Rigg et al. (2013) (aqueous ammonium sulfate droplets). They suggest that in case the α -pdf scheme is used, it should be expressed as a function of water activity. In the study of Wheeler et al. (2014) it leads to good results for ATD, but less so for kaolinite. In both cases the best scheme was the active sites scheme, which was not investigated in the present study. In Welti et al. (2012) as well as in the present study the α -pdf scheme reproduces the data quite well. Note that this study, the study of Lüönd et al. (2010) and Welti et al. (2012) are the only studies where the size and time dependence has been tested separately (Crit. 2) as size and time resolved data was available. From the results presented here, we conclude that the α -pdf scheme is a suitable scheme to represent the time-dependence for kaolinite. This could explain why it achieves a better ranking here than in Wheeler et al. (2014), where no size and time

dependence could be tested against measurements. This paper includes the most complete evaluation (taking into account criterion 2 and 3 in addition to criterion 1) of contact angle schemes for immersion freezing of mineral dust types.

6 Conclusions

In this study the sensitivity of CNT based immersion freezing parameterization schemes to thermodynamic and kinetic parameters is investigated as a response to the large sensitivity of homogeneous freezing on these parameters. We discuss their effect on the fit parameters of contact angle schemes when fitting measurement data. For the use in models a validation of these an assessment of sensitivities is important to estimate uncertainties coming originating from different parameterization schemes which include represent the effect of aerosol particles on the energy barrier of ice nucleation.

Compared to homogeneous freezing, immersion freezing has one more unconstrained parameter, namely the contact angle regeometric term $f(\alpha)$. Different schemes to represent the contact angle regeometric term $f(\alpha)$. Different schemes to represent the contact angle regeometric term $f(\alpha)$. Different schemes to represent the contact angle regeometric term $f(\alpha)$. Different schemes to represent the contact angle regeometric term $f(\alpha)$. Different schemes to represent the contact angle regeometric term $f(\alpha)$. Different schemes to represent the contact angle regeometric term $f(\alpha)$. Different schemes to represent the contact angle regeometric term $f(\alpha)$. Different schemes to represent the contact angle regeometric term $f(\alpha)$. Different schemes to represent the contact angle regeometric term $f(\alpha)$. Different schemes to represent the contact angle regeometric term $f(\alpha)$. Different schemes to represent the contact angle regeometric term $f(\alpha)$. Different schemes to represent the contact angle regeometric term $f(\alpha)$. Different schemes to represent the contact angle regeometric term $f(\alpha)$. Different schemes to represent the contact angle regeometric term $f(\alpha)$. Different schemes to represent the contact angle regeometric term $f(\alpha)$. Different schemes to represent the contact angle region to represent the contact angle region to represent the contact angle region to represent the region to region the region that region the region that region the region that region the reg

Analyzing the importance of the choice of σ_{iw} and $\Delta g^{\#}$ to parameterize immersion freezing revealed that uncertainties in the thermodynamics or kinetics can be compensated by two-parameter contact angle schemes. As a result an under/overestimation of σ_{iw} for $\Delta g^{\#}$ does not lead to a bad representation of freezing curves as in case of homogeneous freezing. Because the fit parameters compensate inaccuracies or uncertainties of the thermodynamic and kinetic parameters, the absolute value of the found fit parameters is highly dependent on the choice of thermodynamic fand kinetic parameters within the formulation of CNT (especially on σ_{iw}). As a consequence, contact angles for CNT parameterization schemes from different authors ear should only be applied within the same CNT formulation. Implementing one formulation of CNT used to derive the parameters. Implementing a CNT based parameterization scheme into a GCM together with a different estimate for α might introduce an offset into modeling studies (see red curve in Fig. 3). Besides the demands that parameters derived from experiments are calculated using the same CNT formulation. Otherwise an offset of the freezing temperature in clouds might be introduced. The sensitivity of α on the thermodynamic and kinetic parameters used in CNT makes biases a direct comparison of contact angle values derived in different studies impossible. It again stresses. We emphasize the importance of highlighting which CNT formulation was used for the analysis of experimental dataas stressed in Lekes et al. (2015).

Another consequence is that the reproducibility of freezing curves should not be the only criterion to decide on a CNT formulation because it can be misleading if the formulation has at least two fit parameters. Therefore some criteria to evaluate reasonable CNT formulations are compiled here. They additionally take into account the microphysical perspective (assumptions the CNT formulation is based on) Contact angle schemes with two or more fit parameters reproduce freezing curves but can be unphysical or limited to the dataset used for fitting. Contact angle schemes intended to represent immersion freezing properties of a heterogeneous particle population under a variety of environmental conditions and time scales, should reproduce the *T*-dependence of freezing and the ability to predict the size and time dependence of the freezing process – (Crit, 1 and 2).

The schemes should be conform to the microphysical assumptions CNT is based on (Crit. 3). Particle size and nucleation time are implicitly included in the reproducibility of freezing curves of the dataset but should be evaluated separately. investigated separately. It should be noted here, that most experimental datasets are not accounting for both, the size and time dependence of freezing. Experimental data without any information on the time or size dependence limit the assessment according to the criteria defined in this study. Here only a full analysis of the CNT parameterization schemes for one mineral dust (kaolinite) was possible. Having limited datasets may lead to unrepresentative conclusions. More size and time dependent measurements of different IN are desirable to compile parameters and find a robust CNT formulation.

The fit parameters for scheme 2, scheme 5 and scheme 7 are determined. In this study we derived fit parameters for five different datasets of mineral dust (kaolinite Fluka, NX illiteillite-NX, montmorillonite, microcline and ATD) by fitting the CNT approach different CNT formulations to the FF from measurements. Good results in reproducing the freezing curves (eriterion-Crit. 1: T-dependence and partly 2: size and time dependence) are achieved when using a single- α scheme with fitted constant $\Delta q^{\#}$ (CNT #2), an α -pdf scheme (CNT #5) or an α (T) scheme (CNT #7) when ignoring unreasonable solutions for the fit parameters (criterion 3). The single- α scheme does not perform well when $\Delta q^{\#}$ is not used as an additional fit parameter. The three good working CNT formulations (2, 5 and 7) are further evaluated by looking how well they reproduce the time and particle size dependence of the kaolinite dataset (criterion 2). In this case the α -pdf scheme (CNT 5) works better, as it captures the time dependence. However, the particle size dependence is underpredicted. Using a single- α scheme with fitted constant $\Delta q^{\#}$ (CNT 2) or an $\alpha(T)$ scheme (CNT 7) overpredicts the size and time dependence. Note that the results only refer to the kaolinite dataset. Due to this restriction it remains ambiguous which CNT formulation best fulfills criterion 2 and thus is best suited for modeling purpose. It would be helpful to redo the analysis for other dust types. From the perspective of criterion 2 all three CNT formulations seem to be able to predict nucleation rates for mineral dust particles. An empirical immersion freezing parameterization scheme based on Niemand et al. (2012) can also capture the freezing curves and IN size dependence quite well. However, it is not clear if it is legitimate to extrapolate the empirical relationship, so that the full T-range is covered. Criterion 3 is difficult to evaluate coming from a macroscopic level as microphysical knowledge is missing at this point. Scheme 5 is consistent with the microphysical perspective of freezing. Evaluating scheme 2 requires knowledge about a possible influence on $\Delta q^{\#}$ by an acrosol particle immersed in the supercooled droplet and is thus not possible. Scheme 7 can return unphysical fit parameters (criterion 3 is not always fulfilled). However, this evaluation is limited by the recognition how α might change with temperature.

More size and time dependent measurements of different IN would be beneficial to evaluate different CNT formulations more robustly.

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<u>.</u>.

Table 1. List of symbols

Symbol	Unit	Description
$A_{ m IN}$	m^2	Surface area of an IN
A_{tot} ,	m^{-2}	Total surface area per unit volume of particles over all size bins
$A_{{ m tot},j}$	m^{-2}	Total surface area per unit volume of particles in size bin j
A_j	m^{-2}	Dust particle surface area in size bin j
$C_{ m prefac,hom}$ $C_{ m prefac}$	$m^{-3} s^{-1}$	Preexponential factor of the homogeneous-nucleation rate
d	m	Aerosol particle diameter
f	-	Geometric term
$f_{ m mean}$	≅	Mean geometric term of the contact angle distribution
$f_{260}, f_{250}, f_{240}$	≅	Geometric term at <i>T</i> =260, 250 or 240 K
$ \underbrace{FF} $	≅	Frozen fraction
h	J s	Planck constant
$J_{ m hom}$	${\rm m}^{-3}~{\rm s}^{-1}$	Homogeneous nucleation rate
$J_{ m imm}$	${\rm m}^{-2}~{\rm s}^{-1}$	Immersion freezing nucleation rate
$k_{ m B}$	$\mathrm{J}\mathrm{K}^{-1}$	Boltzmann constant
$n_{k, m germ}$	-	Number of water molecules in the ice germ
$n_{ m s}$	m^{-2}	Number of water molecules in contact with the unit area of the ice germ
$n_{ m s,IN}$	m^{-2}	Surface density of active sites on an IN
$N_{ m i}$	-	Ice crystal number concentration
$N_{ m i,j}$	-	Number of ice active aerosol particles in size bin j
$N_{ m l}$	m^{-3}	Volume number density of <u>a</u> water molecule in liquid water
$N_{ m tot,j}$	-	Total number of aerosol particles in the size bin j
m	${\rm rad}~{\rm K}^{-1}$	Change of contact angle with temperature
p(lpha)	-	Probability density of contact angle α
$r_{ m germ}$	m	Radius of the ice germ (=critical radius)
$r_{ m IN}$	m	Radius of the IN
$S_{ m i}$	-	Saturation ratio with respect to ice
t	S	Time
T	K	Temperature
$v_{ m ice}$	m^3	Volume of a water molecule in the ice embryo
Z	-	Zeldovich factor
α	rad	Contact angle
$lpha_0$	rad	Contact angle at melting point
$\Delta g^{\#}$	J	Activation energy barrier
$\Delta G, \Delta G_{ m hom}$	J	Gibbs free energy barrier (of homogeneous freezing)
Δt	S	Time step
μ	rad _ _	Mean Natural logarithm of the mean contact angle of the contact angle distribution
σ	-	Variance of the contact angle distribution
$\sigma_{ m iw}$	$\rm J\ m^{-2}$	Interfacial tension between ice/water
π	_	Ratio of a circle's circumference to its diameter

Table 2. Overview of CNT formulations used for the sensitivity analysis, results for the fit parameters and evaluation of the fit result. The values are rounded to two digits after the decimal point. The logarithmic mean contact angle μ and the temperature dependent contact angles are converted into the corresponding geometric term f using Eq. 3.

CNT formulation #1, #5 and #7 use the best fitting combination of σ_{iw} and $\Delta g^{\#}$ emerging from the homogeneous freezing analysis in Ickes et al. (2015).

#	Formulation Parameterization for σ_{iw} and $\Delta g^{\#}$	Contact anglescheme	Name	Fit parameters	RM
		scheme			
1	$\sigma_{\rm iw}$: Reinhardt and Doye (2013)	single- α	Single- α R&D + Z	1: f=0.55	0.12
	$\Delta g^{\#}$: Zobrist et al. (2007) \approx 5·10 ⁻²⁰ J				
2	σ_{iw} : Reinhardt and Doye (2013)	single- α	Single- α R&D + fit $\Delta g^{\#}$	2: <i>f</i> =0.24	0.0
	$\Delta g^{\#}$: constant			$\Delta g^{\#}$ =11.01·10 ⁻²⁰ J	
3	$\sigma_{\rm iw}$ from Ouchi (1954)	single- α	Single- α O + fit $\Delta g^{\#}$	2: <i>f</i> =0.69	0.0
	$\Delta g^{\#}$: constant			$\Delta g^{\#}$ =12.3·10 ⁻²⁰ J	
4	$\sigma_{\rm iw}$ from Eadie (1971)	single- α	Single- α E + fit $\Delta g^{\#}$	2: <i>f</i> =0.23	0.03
	$\Delta g^{\#}$: constant			$\Delta g^{\#}$ =10.46·10 ⁻²⁰ J	
2/4	$\sigma_{\rm iw}$: Reinhardt and Doye (2013)	single- α	Single- α R&D + fit $\Delta g^{\#}(E)$	2: <i>f</i> =0.24 (#2)	0.3
	$\Delta g^{\#}$: constant			$\Delta g^{\#}$ =10.46·10 ⁻²⁰ J (#4)	
5	same as #1	lpha-pdf	α -pdf R&D + Z	2: μ=0.5 rad	0.0
				$\Rightarrow \alpha_{\text{mean}} = 94.46^{\circ}$	
				$\hat{f}_{\text{mean}} \approx 0.56$	
				σ =0.04	
6	$\sigma_{\rm iw}$ from Eadie (1971)	lpha-pdf	α -pdf E + Z	2: μ=0.44 -rad	0.03
	$\Delta g^{\#}$: Zobrist et al. (2007)			$\Rightarrow \alpha_{\text{mean}} = 88.96^{\circ}$	
				$\hat{f}_{\mathrm{mean}} \approx 0.48$	
				σ =0.03	
7	same as #1	$\alpha(T)$	$\alpha(T)$ R&D + Z	2: α_0 =0.7 rad=40.1°	0.0
				$\hat{f}_{260} \approx 0.18$	
				$f_{250} \approx 0.37$	
				$f_{240} \approx 0.59$	
				$m = -0.03 \text{ rad K}^{-1}$	

Estimated-

Table 3. Derived fit parameters for the different CNT formulations used for and five different mineral dust types [kaolinite (kao), illite (ill), montmorillonite (mont), microcline (micro), ATD]. The values are rounded to two digits after the decimal point. The logarithmic mean contact angle μ and the temperature dependent contact angles are converted into the geometric term f using Eq. 3.

#	Fit parameter	Kao	RMSE	Ill	RMSE	Mont	RMSE	Micro	RMSE
1	f	0.56	0.2	0.61	0.17	0.56	0.18	0.3	0.22
2	f	0.29	0.14	0.36	0.14	0.28	0.09	0.11	0.1
	$\Delta g^{\#}/10^{-20} \text{ J}$	9.95		8.93		10.03		11.97	
5	μ /rad	0.5	0.09	0.54	0.13	0.5	0.15	0.25	0.13
	$\hat{=}f_{ ext{mean}}$	≈ 0.56		≈0.61		≈0.56		≈0.29	
	σ	0.06		0.05		0.04		0.11	
7	α_0 /rad	0.84	0.14	0.98	0.13	0.81	0.09	0.61	0.1
	<i>£</i> £260	≈ 0.18		≈ 0.27		≈ 0.17		≈ 0.14	
	$\hat{=} f_{250}$	≈ 0.31		≈ 0.4		≈ 0.29		≈ 0.31	
	<i>€ f</i> 240	≈ 0.45		≈ 0.55		≈ 0.43		≈ 0.53	
	$m/(\operatorname{rad} K^{-1})$	-0.02		-0.02		-0.02		-0.03	
#	Fit parameter	ATD	RMSE						
1	f	0.58	0.32						
1 2	f	0.58 0.14	0.32 0.21						
	f f $\Delta g^{\#}/10^{-20} \text{ J}$								
	f	0.14							
2	f $\Delta g^{\#}/10^{-20} \text{ J}$	0.14 12.58	0.21						
2	f $\Delta g^{\#}/10^{-20} \text{ J}$ $\mu \frac{\text{rad}}{}$	0.14 12.58 0.48	0.21						
2	f $\Delta g^{\#}/10^{-20} \mathrm{J}$ $\mu \frac{\mathrm{frad}}{\hat{z}}$	0.14 12.58 0.48 ≈0.54	0.21						
5	f $\Delta g^{\#/10^{-20}} J$ μ /rad $\hat{=} f_{mean}$ σ	0.14 12.58 0.48 ≈0.54 0.16	0.21						
5	f $\Delta g^{\#}/10^{-20} \text{ J}$ $\mu \text{ /rad}$ $\hat{=} f_{\text{mean}}$ σ α_0/rad	0.14 12.58 0.48 ≈0.54 0.16 0.39	0.21						
5	f $\Delta g^{\#}/10^{-20} \text{ J}$ $\mu \text{ /rad}$ $\hat{=} f_{\text{mean}}$ σ α_0/rad $\hat{=} f_{260}$	0.14 12.58 0.48 ≈0.54 0.16 0.39 ≈ 0.1	0.21 0.25						

Table 4. Ranking of the capability of the different CNT formulations to reproduce the freezing curves for different mineral dust particles based on the RMSE between the calculated freezing curve and the measured freezing data.

#	Kaolinite	Illite	Montmorillonite	Microcline	ATD	Average score ranking		
1	3	3	3	3	4	3.2		
2	2	2	1	1	2	1.6		
5	1	1	2	2	3	1.8		
7	2	1	1	1	1	1.2		
		Score Ranking based on						
#	Average RMSE	average RMSE						
1	0.218	4						
2	0.136	2						
5	0.15	3						
7	0.118	1						

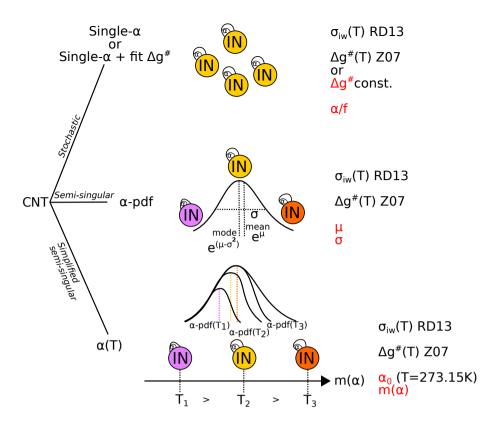


Figure 1. Schematic sketch of different contact angle schemes in which the fit parameters for each contact angle scheme are marked in red. Stochastic: all All IN contain have the same contact angle α (single- α). The ice germ including with the contact angle α is shown in the sketch.

Semi-singular: Different IN contain have different contact angle α , but each IN has a single α angles. The contact angles are distributed with an α -pdf over the IN population. The sketch shows three different contact angles α_1 (orange purple), α_2 (yellow) and α_3 (purple orange) of the contact angle distribution. The least-most efficient contact angle α_1 is the largest-smallest ($> \alpha_2 > \alpha_3 < \alpha_2 < \alpha_3$).

Simplified semi-singular: All IN contain a singular have the same contact angle with $\alpha_1 > \alpha_2 > \alpha_3$ shown as an example. The contact angle changes with T ($\alpha_1 < \alpha_2 < \alpha_3$ in the example). α is equivalent to the mean contact angle μ of the α -pdf scheme (e^{μ}) or mean activity of the α -pdf distribution, which changes with temperature in analogon to the time/temperature evolution of the α -pdf $\alpha(T)$. The fit parameters for each contact angle scheme are marked in red. Figure adapted from F. Lüönd.

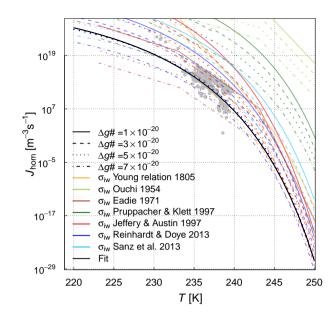


Figure 2. Comparison of the fitted $J_{\text{hom}}(T)$ (solid black line) with calculated nucleation rates using different formulations of σ_{iw} and constant values for $\Delta g^{\#}$. Grey dots show the collected experimental homogeneous freezing dataset data. σ_{iw} from Reinhardt and Doye (2013) captures the homogeneous freezing curve the best.

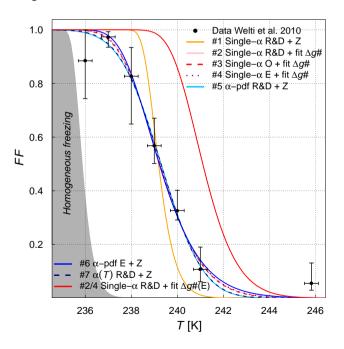


Figure 3. Calculated frozen fraction FF as a function of T for different thermodynamic and kinetic parameters in combination with different contact angle schemes for kaolinite with a particle diameter of 400 nm after a residence time of 10 s. More details can be found in Table 2.

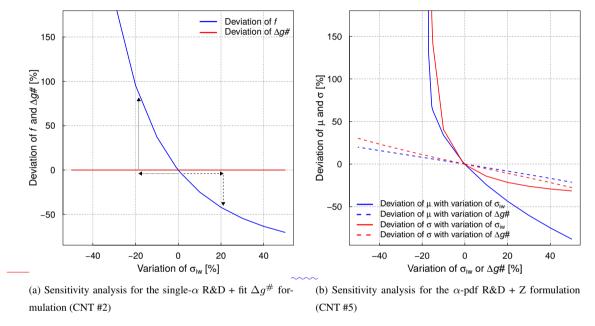


Figure 4. Magnitude of deviation from a reference fit in percent (relative uncertainty). The results are shown for due to a variation of σ_{iw} and $\Delta g^{\#}$ from 0 to \pm 50%. The applied change is indicated by the line type ([solid = change in thermodynamics (σ_{iw}) , dashed = change in kinetics $(\Delta g^{\#})$). The figure can be used to estimate the direction in which fit parameters deviate].

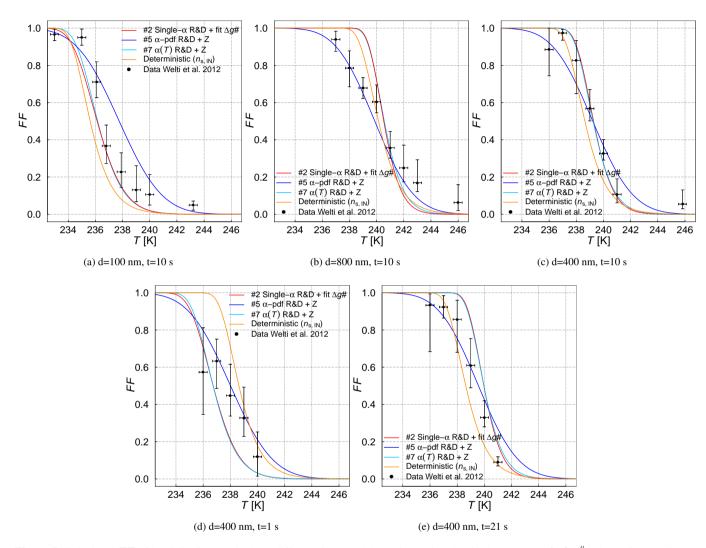


Figure 5. Calculated FF of kaolinite for certain three different times and three sizes using the single- α R&D + fit $\Delta g^{\#}$ scheme formulation (CNT #2), the α -pdf R&D + Z scheme formulation (CNT #5) and the $\alpha(T)$ R&D + Z scheme formulation (CNT #7) with corresponding fit parameters (see Table 3) and a simplified immersion freezing parameterization scheme based on Niemand et al. (2012) compared to the dataset. Figure (a)-(c) show the particle size dependence (t=10 s), Fig.-(c)-(e) show the time dependence (d=400 nm).

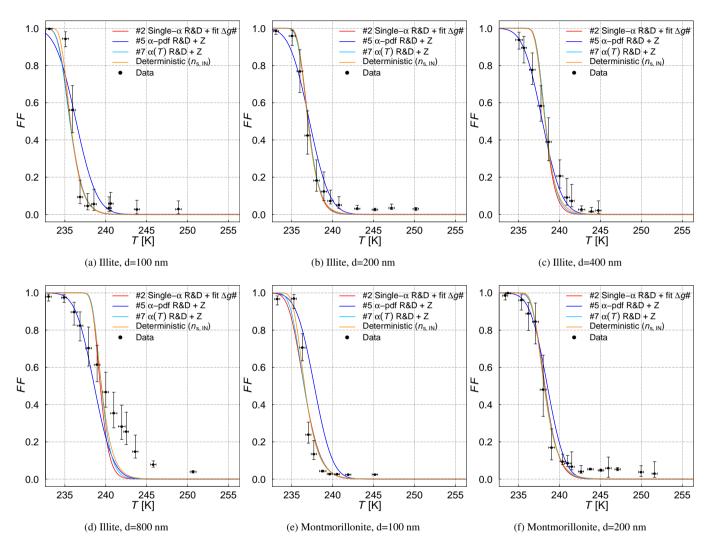


Figure 6. Calculated FF of illite [(a)-(d)], montmorillonite [(e)-(h)], microcline [(i)-(m)] and ATD [(n)-(q)] after a residence time t of 10 s for certain sizes using the single- α R&D + fit $\Delta g^{\#}$ scheme formulation (CNT #2), the α -pdf R&D + Z scheme formulation (CNT #5) and the $\alpha(T)$ R&D + Z scheme formulation (CNT #7) with corresponding fit parameters (see Table 3)and a. A simplified immersion freezing parameterization scheme based on Niemand et al. (2012) is additionally compared to the dataset.

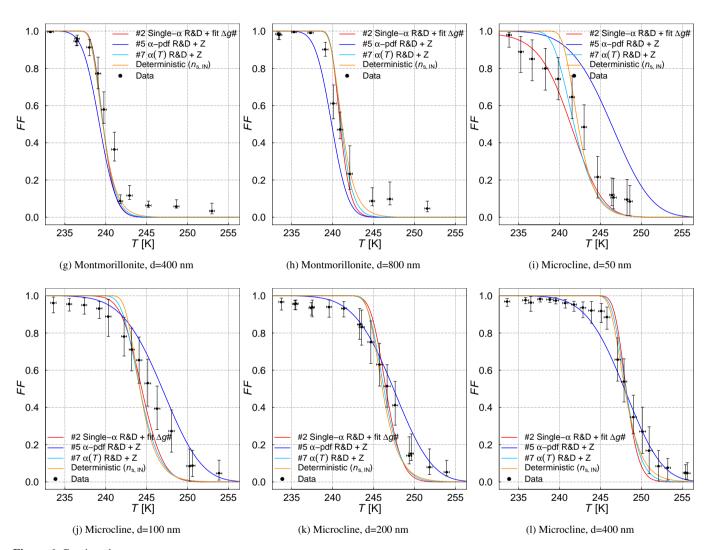


Figure 6. Continued.

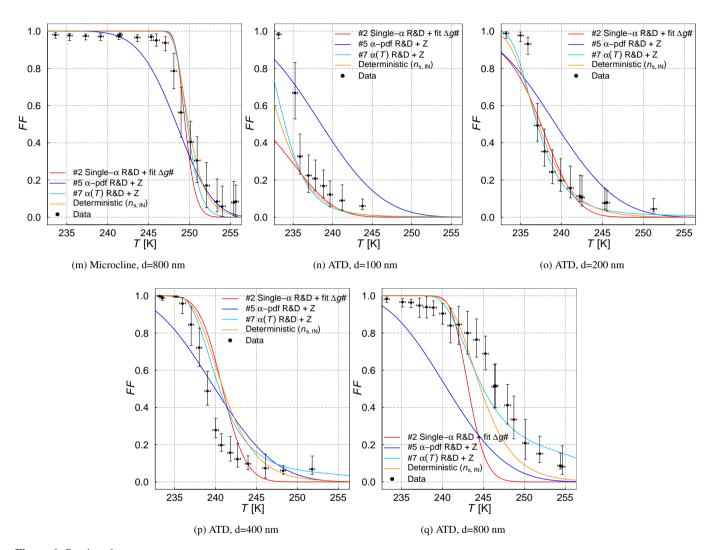


Figure 6. Continued.

Appendix A: Analysis of the different contact angle scheme formulations: How do the fit parameters influence the calculated nucleation rate/frozen fraction

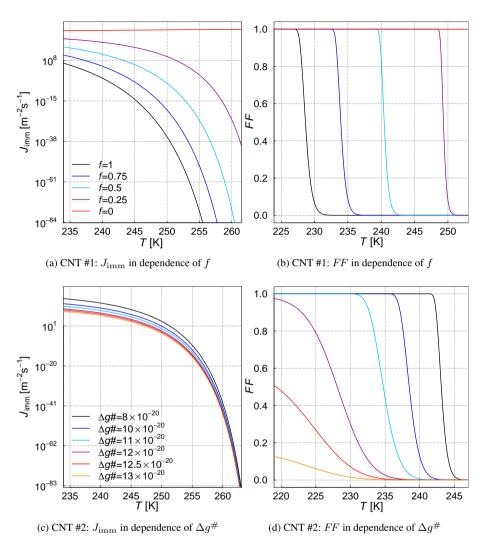
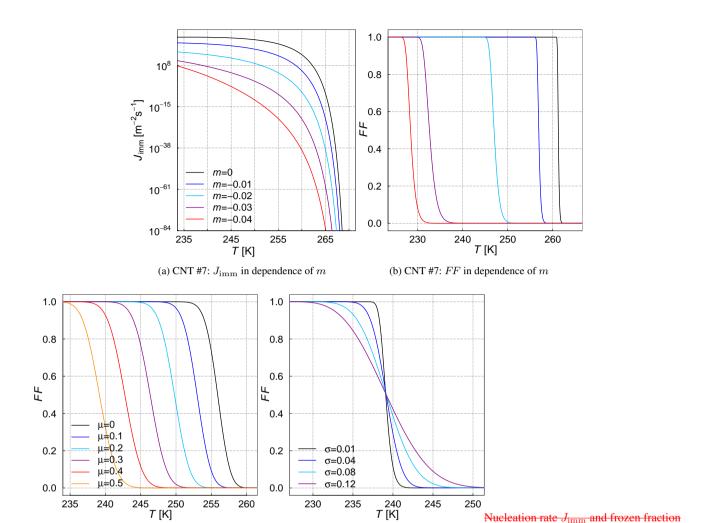


Figure 7. Nucleation rate J_{imm} and frozen fraction FF in dependence of the fit parameters for the different contact-angle contact angle schemes #1 and #2 (here f and $\Delta g^{\#}$). To estimate FF we assume an aerosol particle diameter of 400 nm and a timestep of 10 s. In case of the single- α R&D + fit $\Delta g^{\#}$ scheme (#2) the geometric term f was chosen to be 0.40.3. Note that the The dependence of the scheme formulation (in the case of a fixed $\Delta g^{\#}$) on f is the same as with the single- α R&D + Z scheme formulation (#1). Decreasing f (reducing the energy barrier) shifts the freezing curve to warmer higher temperatures. The while the slope changes only

negligibles lightly increases. Increasing $\Delta q^{\#}$ (increasing the activation energy barrier) shifts the freezing curve to lower temperatures . It also

and changes the slope of the curve—a freezing curve. A higher activation energy barrier leads to a flattening of the curve.



(c) CNT #5: FF in dependence of μ (d) CNT #5: FF in dependence of σ FF in dependence of the fit parameters for the different contact-angle schemes (here m, μ and σ). In case of scheme 7 α_0 was chosen to be 1.5 ($\approx 85^{\circ}$). Note that the dependence of the scheme (in the case of a fixed change in contact angle m) on α_0 is the same as the change with f of the single- α RD + Z scheme (1). In case of the α -pdf RD + Z scheme (5) σ was chosen to be 0.01 in the left figure, μ was chosen to be 0.3 ($\approx 18^{\circ}$) in the right figure. Decreasing m (contact angle gets larger with T because most efficient IN are used first) shifts the freezing curve to colder temperatures and changes the slope of the curve (flattening). Increasing μ (increasing the contact angle) shifts the freezing curve to lower temperatures and flattens the curve, while an increase in σ (broadening of the contact angle distribution) changes the slope of the freezing curve only (flattening). Note that already small changes in μ lead to a considerable shift of the curve compared to the other

Figure 8. Nucleation rate J_{imm} and frozen fraction FF in dependence of the fit parameters for the contact angle schemes #7 and #5 (m, μ) and σ). To estimate FF we assume a aerosol particle diameter of 400 nm and a timestep of 10 s. In case of CNT #7 α_0 was chosen to be 0.8 $(\approx 46^\circ)$. Note that the dependence of the scheme on α_0 (in the case of a fixed change in contact angle m) is the same as the change with f of the single- α R&D + Z formulation (CNT #1). In case of the α -pdf R&D + Z formulation (CNT #5) σ was chosen to be 0.05 in the left figure, μ was chosen to be 0.5 $(\approx 29^\circ)$ in the right figure.

schemes.

Decreasing m (increasing contact angle with decreasing T because 33 broader part of the IN populations contact angle distribution causes nucleation) shifts the freezing curve to lower temperatures and changes the slope of the curve (flattening).

Increasing μ (increasing the average contact angle) shifts the freezing curve to lower temperatures and slightly flattens the curve, while an

Appendix B: Estimating the relative uncertainty of fitting α : Example calculations

Figure 4 can be used to estimate the deviation of fit parameters from different CNT formulations relative to each other. To show this, we estimate the difference in fit parameter when using σ_{iw} from Eadie (1971) instead of Reinhardt and Doye (2013) in combination with an α -pdf scheme scheme (CNT #6) compared to scheme (compared to CNT #5).

Within the 10 K temperature range of the immersion freezing measurements (236-246 K) σ_{iw} is on average 4% higher when using σ_{iw} from Eadie (1971) instead of Reinhardt and Doye (2013). An From Fig. 4 b we see that an increase in σ_{iw} by 2.5% (246 K) or 5% (236 K) would lead to a decrease in μ by approximately 7 to 13%(see Fig. 4 b). Now we check if that estimated change matches with the real change when fitting the same dataset with the two different σ_{iw} . In Table 2 using σ_{iw} from Eadie (1971) leads to a mean contact angle of 0.44 rad (approx. 25.5°) instead of 0.5 rad (approx. 28°) when using σ_{iw} from Reinhardt and Doye (2013). This is a difference of 12%, conform with the estimate from Fig. 4 (approx. 7-13%). However, the variance σ of the α -pdf distribution is expected to change less (5 to 9%) but a change by 25% is found -

for the best fit.

In some cases the predicted change in fit parameters from Fig. 4 deviates from the real change in fit parameters (Table 2). The because both parameter μ and σ are changed at the same time. For Fig. 4 one was held constant. Another problem with Fig. 4 is, that the assumption of a constant variation of σ_{iw} over the whole temperature range is invalid in most cases, so that . However, Fig. 4 can not be used easily. However, it can be used to illustrate how fit results might change and estimate a rough deviation from the reference when using different thermodynamic and kinetic parameters especially for cases where σ_{iw} changes nearly constant over the fitted temperature range. This can help when comparing fit results to fit results from another study studies where a different formulation of CNT was used.

Appendix C: Variability of the fit parameters throughout one dataset

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The variability of the fit parameters throughout the dataset can be seen when fitting the single- α R&D + fit $\Delta g^{\#}$ scheme (formulation (CNT #2) and the α -pdf R&D + Z scheme (formulation (CNT #5) and the α (T) R&D + Z formulation (CNT #7) to FF of kaolinite data for different sizes and residence times separately. The resulting fit parameters are compared in Fig. 9 for different sizes in red and for different times in blue and light blue. Each point in Fig. 9 represents the value of the best fit parameter for one subset of the kaolinite dataset. The labels on the x-axis give information which subset of the dataset was fitted. The residence time is 10 s for the data subsets of different sizes and the diameter of the kaolinite particles 400 nm or 800 nm for the data subsets of different times (blue/light blue). The dashed line indicates the mean of the size or time dependent fit parameter. The standard deviation range is shown as shaded box.

The fit parameters vary depending on the measurement conditions. Omitting the measurement with the smallest acrosol particle size (d=100 nm) and the shortest residence time (1 s) the variation between the data subsets for different times is small. The variability of the fit parameters is larger for different aerosol particle sizes compared to different residence times, which might be due to the higher sensitivity of the freezing process to particle size compared to time. For scheme For CNT #2 the fit parameters seem to be correlated. High values of one fit parameter, e.g. f, correspond to low values of the other fit parameter, e.g. $\Delta g^{\#}$. Scheme CNT #5 on the other hand does not show a clear correlation —for the time dependent subsets, but for the size dependent subsets. The same yields for CNT #7.

The different fit results for scheme CNT #5 can be used to study how the shape of the contact angle distribution might change with the size of the particles or the residence time.

Whereas the fitted contact angle distribution does not change noticeable with time between 1 and 21 s (Figure not shown here), the mean contact angle (e^{μ}) and the variance σ changes with particle size (see Fig. 10). The For all mineral dust types investigated here the contact angle distribution is shifted to the left (smaller contact angles) with increasing size, which means that the mean freezing efficiency of the IN population increases with size. Additionally for all mineral dust types except microcline the contact angle distribution broadens with increasing aerosol particle size (neglecting the fit of the 400 nm dataset of kaolinite, which does not fit into the picture), which. This reflects a larger probability of different α on the aerosol particle population with increasing size. The particle population is more heterogeneous. Additionally the maximum is shifting to the left (smaller contact angle) which means that the IN is getting more efficient. In the case of microcline the contact angle distribution narrows with increasing aerosol particle size, the ice nucleating properties of the microcline aerosol population seem to get more homogeneous with size. Note that the curves (here shown for kaolinite and microcline) are not considering measurement uncertainties of the fitted data and therefore can only be used to qualitatively interpret the result. In case of idealized measurements the result could be used to derive a relationship for between mean contact angle (e^{μ}) or the width of the contact angle distribution σ and the size of the IN. Using the results of Fig. 9 and developing a size-dependent α -pdf improves the fit results.

C1 Uncertainty of fit parameters due to limited data

In many cases there are not no size- and time-dependent measurements are available. Here we investigate the quality of fit parameters if only limited amount of data is available. For that purpose we use the kaolinite dataset (as this is the most thoroughly extensive dataset available within this study) and use only subsets of the dataset assuming that not all data is available to estimate the fit parameters. The quality of the gained fit parameters is then estimated by using the complete dataset and look how good the freezing curves can be represented (RMSE). We look at four different cases:

- 1. Reference, the whole dataset is fitted (see also Table 3).
- 2. Only size dependent measurements are available, time dependence is not known (t=10 s).
- 3. Only time dependent measurements are available, size dependence is not known (d=400 nm).
- 4. Only one measurement is available (t=10 s, d=400 nm).

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The resulting fit parameters and the deviation from the entire kaolinite dataset is shown in Table 5. The fit parameters are not significantly different when the dataset is limited to only size or only time dependent data. Also the deviation from the complete dataset is not significant(RMSE). This analysis therefore does not allow any conclusion how many dependencies, e.g. size and time, have to be taken into account to successfully fit freezing eurves. Howeverdata However, if using only one single dataset, the results for the fit parameters are different and the deviation from the measurements is higher. Note that the deviation when fitting only a single dataset could be larger if a dataset is chosen which is not similar to the average values of the dataset as in this case. This means that there is no guarantee that fits can be extrapolated/used in a universal way across different conditions.

Estimated

Table 5. Derived fit parameters for the two different CNT formulations used for kaolinite using based on the complete kaolinite dataset or subsets of the datasetdata. The values are rounded to two digits after the decimal point. The RMSE value shows is the deviation of the fit to the complete dataset.

#	Fit parameter	Reference All data	RMSE	Only	RMSE	Only	RMSE	Only	RMSE
				size		time		one	
								dataset	
2	f	0.29	0.14	0.29	0.14	0.3	0.14	0.23	0.15
	$\Delta g^{\#}/10^{-20} \text{ J}$	9.95		9.93		9.7		11.01	
5	μ /rad -	0.5	0.09	0.5	0.1	0.5	0.09	0.49	0.12
	σ	0.06		0.05		0.07		0.04	

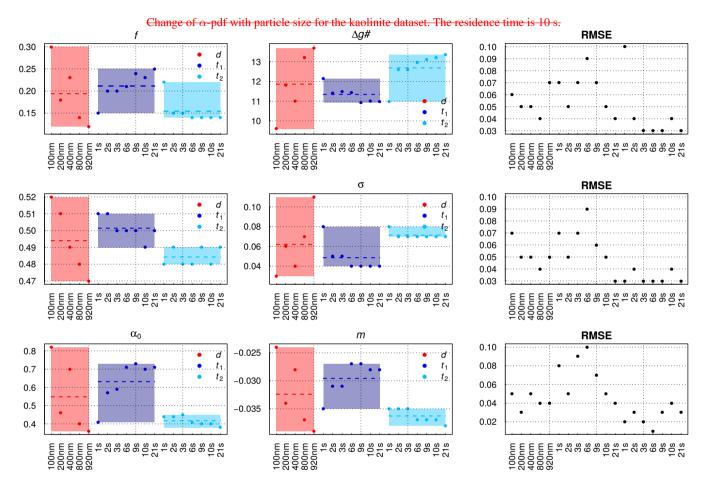


Figure 9. Variability of the fit parameters throughout for subsets of the kaolinite dataset. The variability with the aerosol particle size (d) is shown for a residence time t of 10 s (red). The variability with the time $(t_1 \text{ and } t_2)$ is shown for a aerosol particle diameter of 400 nm (t_1, t_2, t_3) blue) and 800 nm (t_2, t_3, t_3) . The first row shows the fit results for scheme CNT #2, the second row for scheme CNT #5.5, the third row for CNT #7. The RMSE value shows the deviation of the fit to the single dataset it was fitted to.

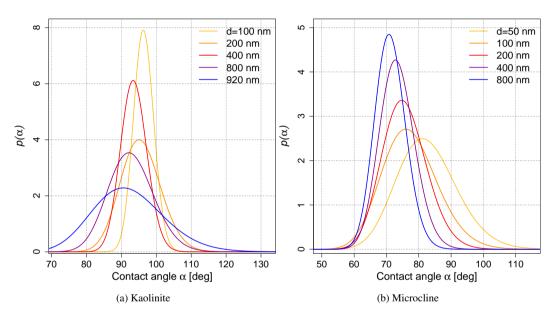


Figure 10. Change of α -pdf with particle size for the kaolinite and microcline dataset. The residence time is 10 s.

Appendix D: Estimating the surface site density $n_{s,IN}$

The Niemand et al. (2012) scheme for immersion freezing of natural dust τ is a deterministic scheme based on the approach of Connolly et al. (2009). It is derived from measurements carried out at the "Aerosol Interaction and Dynamics in the Atmosphere" (AIDA) cloud chamber at KIT, Karlsruhe \overline{A} [a detailed description of the AIDA cloud chamber and the measurements can be found in Niemand et al. (2012).]. In this approach it is assumed that ice nucleation is occurs on localized sites, called active sites. It is described as a function of T and particle surface area $A_{\rm IN}$ because the amount of active sites scales is supposed to scale with particle size.

In Connolly et al. (2009) the change of the number of ice active aerosol particles in the size bin j, $N_{1,j}$, with respect to T is:

$$\frac{dN_{i,j}}{dT} = (N_{i,j} - N_{\text{tot},j}) \cdot A_j \cdot k(T) , \qquad (D1)$$

where $N_{\text{tot},j}$ denotes the total number of aerosol particles in the size bin j and A_j for the dust particle surface area in the same size bin. The surface site density of ice active sites $n_{s,\text{IN}}$ as a function of T can be determined by integrating the factor k(T) over the whole temperature range:

$$n_{\rm s,IN}(T) = \int_{T}^{0} k(T)dT . \tag{D2}$$

Using Eq. D1 and D2 the frozen fraction FF can be expressed as a function of T:

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$$FF = \frac{N_{i,j}}{N_{\text{tot},j}} = 1 - \exp(-A_j \cdot n_{s,\text{IN}}(T)) \approx A_j \cdot n_{s,\text{IN}}(T)$$
. (D3)

The approximation is valid for $A_j \cdot n_{s,\text{IN}}(T) \ll 1$, which translates into small particles and high temperatures. For low temperatures, e.g. 243.15 K and particles larger than 3 μ m the term $A_j \cdot n_{s,\text{IN}}$ is approximately 1.

The surface site density of ice active sites, $n_{s,IN}(T)$, is calculated from the total surface area of aerosol particles in the AIDA chamber and the measured ice crystal number concentration during one freezing experiment:

$$0 \qquad \sum_{j=1}^{n} N_{i,j} \approx \sum_{j=1}^{n} N_{\text{tot},j} \cdot A_{j} \cdot n_{s,\text{IN}}(T) = n_{s,\text{IN}}(T) \cdot \sum_{j=1}^{n} N_{\text{tot},j} \cdot A_{j}$$
(D4)

$$\Leftrightarrow n_{\text{s,IN}}(T) = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} N_{\text{i},j}}{\sum_{j=1}^{n} N_{\text{tot},j} \cdot A_{j}} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} N_{\text{i},j}}{\sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{\text{tot},j}} = \frac{N_{\text{i}}}{A_{\text{tot}}}$$
(D5)

with $A_{\text{tot},j}$ the total surface area per unit volume of particles in the size bin j and A_{tot} the total surface area over all size bins. In 16 freezing experiments in the AIDA cloud chamber the ice crystal number concentration, formed by active IN, N_i , was measured as a function of T. The total particle surface area, A_{tot} , was estimated before each experiment and multiplied with a pressure dilution factor. The evaluation of the results 16 AIDA freezing experiments yields the following fit formula for the ice active surface site density of natural dust:

$$n_{s,IN}(T)[\text{m}^{-2}] = b \cdot \exp(-A \cdot a \cdot (T - 273.15 \, K) + B),$$
 (D6)

with the fit parameters A = -0.517 and B = 8.934 and the unit correction factors $a = K^{-1}$ and $b = m^{-2}$. Due to the temperature range of the freezing experiments, the parameterization is limited to the temperature range temperatures from 261.15 K to 237.15 K.

Eq. D6 was used here to fit the dataset for the different mineral dust types. The fits were done in two different ways: By using Eq. D3 and Eq. D6 to fit the measured FF (method 1) or by using Eq. D3 to convert the FF measurements to logarithmic surface site densities and fit $n_{s,IN}(T) \ln(n_{s,IN}(T))$ directly following Eq. D6 (method 2). The results are show shown in Table 6 and in Fig. 11 (method 1). The scheme is labeled " $n_{s,IN}$ " in Fig. 5.

Estimated-

Table 6. Derived fit parameters for the deterministic $n_{s,IN}$ approach for different mineral dust types. The values are rounded to two digits after the decimal point.

Approach	Fit parameter	Kao	Ill	Mont	Micro	ATD
	parameter					
$n_{ m s,IN}$ direct	A	0.39_0.44_	0.52 0.37	- 0.34	0.17-0.29	0.480.28
(complete dataset)	B	15.62 - <u>12.44</u>	11.05 - <u>15.18</u>	-16.98	25.77 - <u>20.78</u>	12.23 19.14
$n_{ m s,IN}$ direct	A	0.63_0.56	2.35 <u>0.7</u>	1.02 <u>0.7</u>	0.24_0.52	1.15 0.3
(only FF between 0.1 and 0.9)	B	6.27_ 8.38_	-56.93- 3.69	-6.4 4.61	24.41 - <u>15.16</u>	-12.4818.43
$n_{ m s,IN}$ direct	A	0.84_0.63	2.72 0.76	1.42 0.81	0.32 0.65	0.850.29
(only FF between 0.2 and 0.8)	B	-1- 5.95	-70.28 -1.29	-21.24 0.88	21.91 -11.73	-1.13 1 <u>8.63</u>
$n_{ m s,IN}$ based on FF	A	0.92	1.1	0.91	0.73	0.37
(complete dataset)	B	-3.77	-10.35	-2.71	9.63	16.04
$n_{ m s,IN}$ based on FF	A	0.77	1.04	0.9	1.41-0.73	0.27
(only FF between 0.1 and 0.9)	B	1.12 -1.13	-8.3	-2.11	8.94_ 9.49	19.2 19.19
$n_{ m s,IN}$ based on FF	A	0.62	0.93	0.88	1.41_0.74	0.25
(only FF between 0.2 and 0.8)	B	5.97	-4.55 <u>-4.54</u>	-1.5	8.94_ 9.29	19.84

Table 6 shows that the results for the fit parameters are very different depending on whether the FF is fitted directly or the active site density $n_{\rm s,IN}$ directly calculated from the FF and fitted afterwards. That is due to the characteristics of the freezing curve. The very small FF at warm high temperatures and limited FF (to 1) at low temperatures leads lead to a flattening of the $n_{\rm s,IN}$ curve. Calculating $n_{\rm s,IN}$ at low temperatures from FF close to 1 gives the number of active sites, which was needed to freeze all droplets. However it could be that more actives sites were present than needed to freeze all droplets. Therefore the tail (low and high FF) of the FF dataset is often left out of the fitting. Here we investigate how the fit results and the freezing curves change depending on the share of the dataset accounted for fitting. We use the complete dataset as a first step and then omit FF data higher than 0.9 and lower than 0.1 and 0.8 and 0.2, respectively. Figure 12 shows this exemplary using the a dataset of kaolinite particles. It can be seen in (d=400 nm, t=10 s). In Fig. 12b it can be seen that the surface site density $n_{\rm s,IN}$ is quite different depending on how it is estimated. The variation in varies depending on the share of the FF dataset. The implication of the different estimations for $n_{\rm s,IN}$ depending on is shown in Fig. 12c. The freezing curves from the indirect $n_{\rm s,IN}$ fit (method 1) are not so different from each other and capture the measurements quite well. The variation

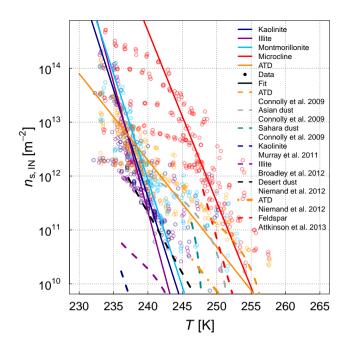


Figure 11. Surface site density $n_{s,IN}$ of different mineral dust types. The points are calculated surface site densities from FF measurements, the lines are the corresponding fits. The fits are based on FF [Eq. D3 and Eq. D6 (method 1); Table 6 (fifth row)]. Some estimates of $n_{s,IN}$ found in literature are added. Colors indicate the dust type, the line type indicates different literature studies.

of the estimated FF due to the share of the FF dataset, which was used for fitting, is larger when $n_{s,\mathrm{IN}}$ is estimated directly by fitting to-calculated $n_{s,\mathrm{IN}}$ from FF measurements (method 2). The largest deviation from all other fits originates when $n_{s,\mathrm{IN}}$ is estimated directly taking all data into account. Cutting away the tail of the FF measurements leads to a very similar result when $n_{s,\mathrm{IN}}$ is estimated directly (black solid line) compared to the indirect estimate of $n_{s,\mathrm{IN}}$ using the complete FF data (red dashed line). The implication of the different estimations for $n_{s,\mathrm{IN}}$ is shown in Fig. 12e for an example dataset of kaolinite (d=400 nm, t=10 s). The freezing curves from the indirect $n_{s,\mathrm{IN}}$ fit are not so different from each other and capture the measurements quite well[see also Table 6]. When cutting away the tail of the FF data (FF > 0.2 and FF < 0.8) also the freezing curve based on the direct estimated $n_{s,\mathrm{IN}}$ captures the data well and falls on the freezing curve of the indirect $n_{s,\mathrm{IN}}$ using the same share of FF data. It seems necessary We recommend to cut the tails away from the FF data when $n_{s,\mathrm{IN}}$ is fitted directly. When estimating $n_{s,\mathrm{IN}}$ indirectly by using FF it seems that there is no need for cutting the tail. Not cutting the tail increases the amount of data available for the fitting and might therefore be preferable. However, very low/high FF are most susceptible to experimental uncertainties, which could be a legitimation of for cutting the tail away from the dataset. Because the results are different depending on the methodology this sensitivity should be taken into account when comparing different fit parameters of $n_{s,\mathrm{IN}}$ from literature. Maybe an uniform standard on how to derive We recommend to estimate $n_{s,\mathrm{IN}}$ could helpindirectly by fitting FF as a standard procedure.

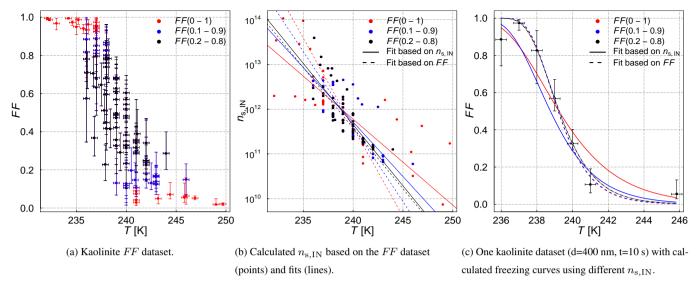


Figure 12. Sensitivity study of different methods to estimate the surface site density $n_{s,IN}$ of kaolinite and its implications the resulting freezing curve. The data subsets are color coded as indicated in the legend.

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