



1 Drivers of cloud droplet number variability in the summertime

2 Southeast United States

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24 Abstract

25 The Southeast United States has experienced a different climate warming trend compared to other places
26 worldwide. Several hypotheses have been proposed to explain this trend, one being the interaction of
27 anthropogenic and biogenic aerosol precursors that synergistically promote aerosol formation, elevate cloud
28 droplet concentration and induce regional cooling. We examine these aerosol-cloud droplet links by
29 analyzing regional scale data collected onboard the NOAA WP-3D aircraft during the 2013 Southeast
30 Nexus (SENEX) campaign to quantify the sensitivity of droplet number to aerosol number, chemical
31 composition and vertical velocity on a regional scale. The observed aerosol size distributions, chemical
32 composition and vertical velocity distribution (Gaussian with standard deviation σ_w) are introduced into a
33 state-of-the-art cloud droplet parameterization to show that cloud maximum supersaturations in the region
34 are low, ranging from 0.02 to 0.52% with an average of $0.14 \pm 0.05\%$. Based on these low values of
35 supersaturation, the majority of activated droplets correspond to particles of diameter 90 nm and above.
36 Droplet number shows little sensitivity to total aerosol owing to their strong competition for water vapor.
37 Given, however, that σ_w exhibits considerable diurnal variability (ranging from 0.16 m s^{-1} during nighttime
38 to over 1.2 m s^{-1} during day), its covariance with total aerosol number (N_a) during the same period amplifies



39 predicted response in cloud droplet number (N_d) by 3 to 5 times. Therefore, correct consideration of vertical
40 velocity and its covariance with time and aerosol amount is important for fully understanding aerosol-cloud
41 interactions and the magnitude of the aerosol indirect effect. Datasets and analysis such as the one presented
42 here can provide the required constraints for addressing this important problem.

43

44 1. Introduction

45 Atmospheric particles (aerosols) interact with the incoming solar radiation through scattering and
46 absorption processes which tend to cool the Earth, especially over dark surfaces such as oceans and forests
47 (Brock et al., 2016a). Aerosols also act as cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) and subsequently form cloud
48 droplets and indirectly affect climate through modification of cloud radiative properties - an effect which
49 constitutes one of the most uncertain aspects of anthropogenic climate change (Seinfeld et al., 2016).
50 Studies often highlight the importance of constraining the aerosol size distribution, particle composition
51 and mixing state for predicting CCN concentrations (Cubison et al., 2008; Quinn et al., 2008). Model
52 assumptions often cannot consider the full complexity required to comprehensively compute CCN – which
53 together with other emissions and process uncertainties lead to CCN prediction errors that can be significant
54 (e.g., Fanourgakis et al., 2019). Owing to the sublinear response of cloud droplet number concentration (N_d)
55 to aerosol perturbations, prediction errors in CCN generally result in errors in N_d which are less than those
56 for CCN (Fanourgakis et al., 2019). The sublinear response arises because elevated CCN concentration
57 generally increases the competition of the potential droplets for water vapor; this in turn depletes
58 supersaturation and the N_d that can eventually form (Reutter et al., 2009; Bougiatioti et al., 2016;
59 Fanourgakis et al., 2019; Kalkavouras et al., 2019). A critically important parameter is the vertical velocity;
60 so important in fact that droplet number variability may be driven primarily by vertical velocity variations
61 (Kacarab et al., 2020; Sullivan et al., 2019). Compared to aerosols, vertical velocity is much less observed,
62 constrained and evaluated in aerosol-cloud interaction studies, hence may be a source of persistent biases
63 in models (Sullivan et al., 2019).

64 The Southeast United States (SEUS) presents a particularly interesting location for studying regional
65 climate change, as it has not considerably warmed over the past 100 years – except for the last decade
66 (Carlton et al., 2018; Yu et al., 2014; Leibensperger et al., 2012b). These trends are in contrast with the
67 trends observed in most locations globally (IPCC 2013), and several hypotheses have been proposed to
68 explain this regional phenomenon, including the effect of involving short-lived climate forcers such as
69 secondary aerosols combined with the enhanced humidity in the region and their impact on clouds (Carlton
70 et al., 2018; Yu et al., 2014). Here, we analyze data collected during the Southeast Nexus of Air Quality



71 and Climate (SENEX) campaign in June-July 2013, which was the airborne component led by the National
72 Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA), of a greater measurement campaign throughout the
73 SEUS, the Southeast Atmosphere Study (SAS; Carlton et al., 2018). Here we analyze data collected onboard
74 the NOAA WP-3D and apply a state-of-the-art droplet parameterization to determine the maximum
75 supersaturation and N_d achieved in cloudy updrafts, for all science flights with available number size
76 distribution and chemical composition data. We also determine the sensitivity of droplet formation to
77 vertical velocity and aerosol, with the purpose of understanding the drivers of droplet variability in the
78 boundary layer of the SEUS by obtaining regional-scale, representative values of the relationship between
79 the driving parameters and cloud droplet number.

80

81 **2. Methods**

82 *2.1 Aircraft instrumentation*

83 The analysis utilizes airborne, in situ data collected during the June-July 2013 SENEX mission, aboard the
84 National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) WP-3D aircraft (typical airspeed $\sim 100 \text{ m s}^{-1}$)
85 based in Smyrna, Tennessee ($36^{\circ}00'32''\text{N}$, $86^{\circ}31'12''\text{W}$). In total, twenty research flights were conducted.
86 Based on the availability of the relevant data described below, thirteen flights are analyzed in this work.
87 Description of the analyzed research flights are provided in Table 1. Detailed information on the
88 instrumentation and measurement strategy during the SENEX campaign can be found in Warneke et al.
89 (2016).

90 Dry particle number distributions from 4 - 7000 nm were measured using multiple condensation and optical
91 particle counters. 4-700 nm particles were measured by a nucleation mode aerosol size spectrometer
92 (NMASS; Warneke et al., 2016) and an ultra-high sensitivity aerosol spectrometer (UHSA; Brock et al.,
93 2011), while for larger particles with dry diameters between 0.7 and 7.0 μm , a custom-built white-light
94 optical particle counter (WLOPC) was used.

95 Measurements of the composition of submicron vacuum aerodynamic diameter non-refractory aerosol (less
96 than 0.7 μm diameter) were made with a Compact Time-of-Flight Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (C-ToF-
97 AMS; Aerodyne, Billerica, Massachusetts, US) (Canagaratna et al., 2007; Kupc et al., 2018) customized
98 for aircraft use, with a 10 s time resolution (Warneke et al., 2016). Particles entering the instrument are
99 focused and impacted on a 600 °C inverted-cone vaporizer. The volatilized vapors are analyzed by electron
100 ionization mass spectrometry, providing mass loadings of sulfate, nitrate, organics, ammonium and
101 chloride. For the C-ToF-AMS, the transmission efficiency of particles between 100 and 700 nm is assumed
102 to be 100% through the specific aerodynamic focusing lens used while mass concentrations are calculated



103 using a chemical composition-dependent collection efficiency (Middlebrook et al., 2012; Wagner et al.,
104 2015). The C-ToF-AMS only measures non-refractory aerosol chemical composition, therefore this
105 analysis provides mass loadings of sulfate, nitrate, ammonium and organic constituents with a 10 s time
106 resolution and neglects the contribution of black carbon (BC). The calculation of the average volume
107 fractions from the mass loading follows that of Moore et al. (2012). An average organic density of 1.4 g
108 cm^{-3} is used, characteristic of aged aerosol (Moore et al., 2011; Lathem et al., 2013) while for the inorganic
109 species the respective densities are used, assuming the aerosol to be internally mixed.

110 The aircraft was equipped by the NOAA Aircraft Operations Center (AOC) flight facility, incorporating a
111 suite of instruments to provide information on exact aircraft position as well as numerous meteorological
112 parameters (Warneke et al., 2016). The analysis in this work makes use of vertical wind velocity, aircraft
113 radar altitude, and ambient temperature, pressure and relative humidity (RH) provided by NOAA AOC.
114 Location of the instrumentation on the aircraft can be found elsewhere (Warneke et al., 2016). For
115 measurements inside the fuselage a low turbulence inlet (Wilson et al., 2004) and sampling system (Brock
116 et al., 2011; 2016a) was used to decelerate the sample flow to the instruments. The C-ToF-AMS was
117 connected downstream of an impactor with 50% efficiency at a 1.0 μm aerodynamic diameter (PM1) cut-
118 point (Warneke et al., 2016).

119 *2.2 Aerosol hygroscopicity parameter*

120 The aerosol hygroscopicity parameter (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007), κ , is calculated assuming a mixture
121 of an organic and inorganic component with volume fraction ϵ_{org} , ϵ_{inorg} and characteristic hygroscopicity
122 κ_{org} , κ_{inorg} , respectively ($\kappa = \epsilon_{\text{inorg}}\kappa_{\text{inorg}} + \epsilon_{\text{org}}\kappa_{\text{org}}$). The organic and inorganic volume fraction are derived from
123 the C-ToF-AMS data. Since throughout the summertime SEUS, aerosol inorganic nitrate mass and volume
124 fraction are very low (Weber et al., 2016; Fry et al., 2018), $\kappa_{\text{inorg}} = 0.6$, representative for ammonium sulfate,
125 is used. For the organic fraction, a hygroscopicity value of $\kappa_{\text{org}} = 0.14$ is used, based on concurrent
126 measurements conducted at the ground site of the SAS at the rural site of Centreville, Alabama (Cerully et
127 al., 2015). This value is also in accordance with the cumulative result of studies conducted in the Southeast
128 US using measurements of droplet activation diameters in subsaturated regimes, providing κ_{org} of > 0.1
129 (Brock et al., 2016a).

130 *2.3 Cloud droplet number and maximum supersaturation*

131 Using the observed aerosol number size distribution (1 s time resolution) and the hygroscopicity derived
132 from the chemical composition measurements (10 s time resolution), we calculate the droplet number (N_d)
133 and maximum supersaturation (S_{max}) that would form in clouds in the airmasses sampled. Droplet number



134 and maximum supersaturation calculations are carried out at a regional scale using an approach similar to
135 that of Bougiatioti et al. (2016) and Kalkavouras et al. (2019) with the sectional parameterization of Nenes
136 and Seinfeld (2003), later improved by Barahona et al. (2010) and Morales Betancourt and Nenes (2014a).
137 A sectional representation of the size distribution is used and provided for each data point of each flight
138 (per second, e.g. for Flight 5, $n=23213$ data points). Given that chemical composition is provided with a 10
139 s time resolution, the same hygroscopicity values are used for 10 size distributions during each flight.
140 Temperature and pressure required for droplet number calculations are obtained from the NOAA AOC
141 flight facility dataset.

142 Droplets form from activation of aerosol in cloudy updrafts, so here we use the available measurements of
143 vertical velocity together with the aerosol measurements to derive a potential cloud droplet concentration.
144 Given that vertical velocity varies considerably inside the boundary layer we represent droplet number with
145 the average concentration that results from integrating over the distribution (probability density function,
146 PDF) of observed updraft velocities. To accomplish this, each flight is divided in segments where the
147 aircraft flew at a constant height. For each segment, the positive vertical velocities are fit to a Gaussian
148 distribution with mean of zero and width of spectral dispersion σ_w . Positive vertical velocities (“updrafts”)
149 were used, as they are the part of the vertical velocity spectrum that is responsible for cloud droplet
150 formation. The σ_w values derived from the level leg segments are then averaged into one single σ_w value
151 (and standard deviation) to represent the flight. Application of the “characteristic velocity” approach
152 (Morales and Nenes, 2010) then gives the PDF-averaged droplet number concentration by calling the
153 droplet parameterization at a single “characteristic” velocity, $w^*=0.79\sigma_w$ (Morales and Nenes, 2010). This
154 calculation approach is applied to each size distribution measured. Apart from its theoretical basis, this
155 methodology has shown to provide closure with observed droplet numbers in ambient clouds (e.g. Kacarab
156 et al., 2020).

157 In determining σ_w , we consider segments that are expected to be in the boundary layer: 91 % of the segments
158 are below 1000 m (mean altitude ~ 700 m; Table 2) typically corresponding to the height of the boundary
159 layer in the summertime US (Seidel et al., 2013). The vertical velocity distributions observed gave σ_w
160 $=0.97\pm 0.21$ m s⁻¹ for daytime flights, and $\sigma_w =0.23\pm 0.04$ m s⁻¹ for nighttime flights (Table 2). Because of
161 this strong diurnal variation in σ_w , potential droplet formation is evaluated at four vertical velocities that
162 cover the observed ranged, namely 0.1, 0.3, 0.6 and 1 m s⁻¹.

163 We also compute the sensitivity of the derived N_d , to changes in aerosol number concentration (N_a), κ and
164 σ_w , expressed by the partial derivatives $\partial N_d/\partial N_a$, $\partial N_d/\partial \kappa$ and $\partial N_d/\partial \sigma_w$ computed from the parameterization
165 using a finite difference approximation (Bougiatioti et al., 2016; Kalkavouras et al., 2019). These
166 sensitivities, together with the observed variance in N_a , κ , and σ_w are also used to attribute droplet number



167 variability to variations in the respective aerosol and vertical velocity parameters following the approach
168 of Bougiatioti et al. (2016) and Kalkavouras et al. (2019).

169

170 **3. Results and Discussion**

171 *3.1. Particle composition and size distribution*

172 For the determination of the different aerosol species present, neutral and acidic sulfate species are
173 distinguished by the molar ratio of ammonium to sulfate ions. A molar ratio higher than 2 indicates the
174 presence of only ammonium sulfate, while values between 1 and 2 indicate the presence of both ammonium
175 sulfate and bisulfate (Seinfeld and Pandis, 1998). For most of the flights, the molar ratio of ammonium
176 versus sulfate was well above 2, having a mean value of 2.41 ± 0.72 (median 2.06). For the nighttime flights
177 the values were somewhat lower (1.91 ± 0.42 and median of 1.85, respectively). Nevertheless, ammonium
178 sulfate is always the predominant sulfate salt. Organic mass fractions for the SENEX research flights are
179 provided in Table 1. Overall, organic aerosol was found to dominate during all flights, contributing 66%-
180 75% of the total aerosol volume. Most of the remaining aerosol volume consists of ammonium sulfate,
181 ranging from 12%-39% (with a mean of $23\% \pm 6\%$). The organic mass fraction during the flights was found
182 to decrease with height (see Fig. 1). This vertical variability of the chemical composition can have a strong
183 impact on droplet number within the boundary layer, as air masses from aloft may descend and interact
184 with that underneath. Figure 1 represents the organic mass fractions during Flights 5 and 12. The lowest
185 organic mass fractions overall were observed during Flight 12 ($35\% \pm 18\%$ with values $< 5\%$ for altitudes
186 > 3000 m, Fig.1b) while the highest ones were observed at flights over predominantly rural areas (Flights 5
187 (Fig. 1c), 10 and 16). During Flight 5 the organic mass fraction was high ($68\% \pm 5\%$), with the highest
188 values found in the free troposphere at altitudes > 3000 m. High organic mass fractions were also found
189 during a nighttime flight that included portions of the Atlanta metropolitan area, with values up to 78%.
190 The impact of the chemical variability on droplet number is discussed in section 3.2.

191 The predominance of the organic fraction is also reflected in the hygroscopicity parameter values, with an
192 overall $\kappa = 0.25 \pm 0.05$, which is close to the proposed global average of 0.3 (Seinfeld and Pandis, 1998).
193 The highest values are, as expected, for flights exhibiting the lowest organic mass fraction, namely Flight
194 12 with a $\kappa = 0.39$ (Table 2). The rest of the κ -values are close to the overall values, as the organic mass
195 fractions are around 0.65.

196 Median aerosol size distributions are obtained from the median and interquartile range in each size bin from
197 the aerosol size distribution measurements during segments where the aircraft flew at a constant height.
198 The impact of the variability of the total aerosol number on droplet number is discussed in detail further in



199 section 3.2. Overall, number concentrations ranged from around 500 to over 100000 cm⁻³ with number size
200 distributions varying markedly over the course of a flight. In general, free tropospheric distributions
201 exhibited characteristics of a bimodal distribution with a prominent broad accumulation mode peak (80-
202 200 nm) and an Aitken mode peak (30-60 nm) (Fig. 2a) while boundary layer size distributions exhibited a
203 more prominent accumulation mode (Fig. 2b). There was considerable variability in the contributions of
204 the nucleation, Aitken, and accumulation modes to the total aerosol number, depending on altitude and
205 proximity to aerosol sources (Fig. 2c). Nevertheless, the modal diameters did not vary much. Distributions
206 during nighttime flights exhibited similar total aerosol number and variability; nevertheless, size
207 distributions were more complex exhibiting even three different modes (20-40, 70-100 and 130-200 nm;
208 Fig. 2d). Considering that mostly particles in the accumulation mode activate into cloud droplets (particles
209 with diameters >90 nm), contrasts between day and nighttime aerosol characteristics/variability may not be
210 as large, and driven primarily by the total aerosol number in the accumulation mode.

211 3.2 Potential cloud droplet number

212 The calculation of N_d and S_{max} , was carried out for all thirteen research flights. Results are given in Tab. 3
213 for the four different values (0.1, 0.3, 0.6 and 1 m s⁻¹) of σ_w . Overall it can be seen that for all flight
214 conditions and for low σ_w , N_d shows a low variance (mean of 132±20 for 0.1 m s⁻¹ and 350±100 for 0.3 m
215 s⁻¹). For a given σ_w , the variance of N_d is predominantly attributed to relative changes in N_a rather than
216 changes in the chemical composition (expressed by changes in the hygroscopicity parameter, κ). The
217 highest relative contribution of the chemical composition (12% and 35% for 0.1 and 0.3 m s⁻¹, respectively)
218 to the variation of N_d is found for Flight 18, during which the total aerosol number was the lowest. Indicative
219 of a “cleaner” environment; the organic mass fraction was relatively lower and the hygroscopicity
220 parameter was higher. Even though the lowest organics mass fraction and highest κ were observed during
221 Flight 12, droplet formation is much more sensitive to changes in aerosol concentration than to variations
222 in composition.

223 As the vertical velocity increases, so does supersaturation and consequently the droplet number (by 62%
224 from 0.1 to 0.3 m s⁻¹, 70% from 0.3 to 0.6 m s⁻¹ and another 39% from 0.6 to 1 m s⁻¹). The relative
225 contribution of the chemical composition to the variation of cloud droplet number increases from 5±3% for
226 0.1 m s⁻¹, to 12.3±8% for 0.3 m s⁻¹, to 14.5±10% for 0.3 m s⁻¹ and 16.5±9% for 1 m s⁻¹. The highest droplet
227 numbers are estimated for Flights 6 and 10, which included urban environments during daytime (Atlanta).
228 Overall during daytime, when σ_w varies little and is large, and N_a is high, the relative contribution of N_a to
229 the variation of N_d is the highest (more than 90%) while the relative contribution of κ is limited (less than
230 10%) (see Table 3, Flights 10, 11, 12, 17 and 19). Turbulence is limited during nighttime when σ_w is the



231 lowest (0.23 ± 0.04); therefore, the $\sigma_w = 0.3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ case is most representative of nighttime conditions. During
232 daytime, when σ_w is high (0.97 ± 0.21), $\sigma_w = 1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ should be considered as most representative.

233 As σ_w varies considerably throughout the day, we estimate its contribution together with variations in N_a
234 and κ , to the total variability in N_d based on $\partial N_d / \partial \kappa$, $\partial N_d / \partial N_a$ and $\partial N_d / \partial \sigma_w$ and the variances of κ , N_a and σ_w
235 (Table 4). The σ_w variation during nighttime, although small (always less than 10%), consistently remains
236 an important contributor to N_d variability, because droplet formation tends to be in the updraft velocity-
237 limited regime. At higher values of σ_w (Table 4), the contribution of σ_w variability to N_d variability is reduced
238 and dominated by N_a variability.

239 To explore the importance of aerosol compared to updraft velocity, we focus on two pairs of flights
240 conducted in two sectors, from each sector one during day- and one during night-time (see Fig.3). In both
241 pairs of flights (Flight 5 and 15, and Flight 6 and 9), σ_w varies about the same between night and day (Table
242 4). For the first pair of flights, the daytime variability in N_d (which is 69%) is to within 75% driven by
243 aerosol (69% by N_a and 7% from κ) and 24% by σ_w . For nighttime, 58% by aerosol (51% by N_a and 7%
244 from κ) and 42% of the variability is driven by σ_w . For the second pair of night/day flights, N_a is on average
245 similar, σ_w varies by a factor of 4.0 and κ varies by 13%. Attribution calculations suggest that the diurnal
246 variability in N_d (where daytime values are 72.1% higher than nighttime) is 3, 54 and 43% for κ , N_a and σ_w ,
247 respectively during day and 7, 76, and 17% driven by κ , N_a and σ_w , respectively during night (Table 4). In
248 the second sector, 57% of the variability in N_d is driven by aerosol during the day and 83% during the night.

249 As expected, droplet number (N_d) and maximum supersaturation (S_{max}) increases as σ_w becomes larger. The
250 highest S_{max} are around 0.2-0.3% and found for flights which exhibited large and highly variable σ_w (Flights
251 4, 5, 12 and 19) while the lowest S_{max} are around 0.10% and found for the nighttime flights (Flights 9, 15
252 and 16). All other flights yield similar S_{max} , which are around 0.13%. Based on the calculated S_{max} for every
253 flight, the majority of the activated droplets correspond to particles of 90 nm diameter and above. Figure 3
254 presents the calculated N_d for the four aforementioned flights, namely Flights 5 (Fig. 3a), 15 (Fig. 3b), 6
255 (Fig. 3c) and 9 (Fig. 3d) using the observed σ_w . The size of the markers represents the number of droplets,
256 while the color scale the respective total aerosol number.

257 Figure 4 shows N_d relative to N_a for flights conducted in two sectors, during day and night (Flights 5 & 15,
258 and Flights 6 & 9, respectively). It can be seen that throughout these flights, N_d reaches a plateau, where
259 any additional aerosol does not translate to any significant increase in N_d . This plateau is caused by strong
260 water vapor limitations and is different for day and night. S_{max} is lower during night because vertical wind
261 velocity, ambient T and RH are lower. The same factors cause that for Flight 6 & 9 (Fig. 4c & d) where N_a
262 was almost the same, N_d is almost 3.5 times lower during night (Flight 9). For the whole dataset (13 flights),



263 results are summarized in Figure 5, where droplet numbers are calculated based on the observed σ_w and the
264 respective “characteristic”, mean velocities, w^* . Under low w^* conditions, N_a variability does not result in
265 an important change in N_d . On the contrary, when w^* tends to increase and N_a increases, as is characteristic
266 of polluted regions, during daytime, then the impact on droplet number is more notable. This point is evident
267 in Figure 6, comprising the different segments of the flights when the aircraft sampled at practically the
268 same altitude within the boundary layer. It can be seen that N_d is enhanced as w^* increases. The lowest w^*
269 values (shaded area) correspond to the segments of the flights during nighttime.

270 Overall, S_{max} of clouds from all the evaluated SENEX data, is $0.14 \pm 0.05\%$. Tripling σ_w from 0.1 to 0.3 m s^{-1}
271 results in 31% increase in S_{max} , while doubling from 0.3 to 0.6 m s^{-1} results in 26.2% increase in S_{max} and
272 a further σ_w increase to 1 m s^{-1} leads to an additional 20.7% increase in S_{max} . Overall effect of updraft
273 velocity on calculated N_d : tripling σ_w from 0.1 to 0.3 m s^{-1} results in a 61.9% increase in N_d , doubling from
274 0.3 to 0.6 m s^{-1} results in a 40.5% N_d increase; increasing σ_w to 1 m s^{-1} leads to an additional 26.9% increase
275 in N_d . Furthermore, for a given σ_w , despite of the presence or not of a large number of aerosol (e.g. Flight
276 10 where N_a is 2.7 times higher than N_a in Flight 15) the difference in calculated N_d for 0.6 m s^{-1} is only 1.3
277 times higher for Flight 10 than Flight 15. This highlights the relative insensitivity of N_d to variations in N_a
278 for constant σ_w .

279

280 4. Summary and Conclusions

281 Measurements of wind velocity, ambient conditions (T , RH), aerosol number size distribution and
282 composition in the SEUS obtained during the SENEX 2013 project are used to analyze the drivers of droplet
283 formation. Overall 13 research flights are studied, covering environments over sectors with different aerosol
284 sources, impacting total aerosol number, size distribution and chemical composition. Aerosol volume is
285 largely dominated by an organic fraction resulting in a calculated hygroscopicity of 0.25 ± 0.05 .

286 Based on the calculation of cloud droplet number concentration (N_d) and maximum supersaturation (S_{max}),
287 we find that on a regional scale, most of the variability of N_d is due to the fluctuations in N_a (Table 4), in
288 accordance with other recent studies (Fanourgakis et al., 2019). Nonetheless, N_d levels are also sensitive to
289 fluctuations in σ_w , as a variation by a factor of 4.0 in σ_w may lead to an N_d variation of almost a factor of
290 3.6 and at the same time the N_d response to different N_a levels may be enhanced by a factor of 5 (Figure 4).
291 S_{max} changes in response to aerosol concentration, in a way that tends to partially mitigate N_d responses to
292 aerosol. Overall, maximum supersaturation levels remain quite low ($0.14 \pm 0.05\%$) with predicted levels
293 being much lower in lower altitudes ($0.05 \pm 0.1\%$). Because of the strong competition for water vapor
294 (expressed by the low S_{max}), cloud droplet number exhibits enhanced sensitivity to aerosol number



295 variations throughout the flights, regardless of aerosol composition. On the other hand, droplet
296 concentration especially within the boundary layer approaches a “plateau” that is strongly driven by vertical
297 velocity (turbulence) and the resulting supersaturation, but also aerosol concentration. In “cleaner”
298 environments where total aerosol number is lower, the relative contribution of vertical velocity to cloud
299 droplet number is almost half during nighttime (24% vs. 42% during daytime) while the relative
300 contribution of N_a to the variance in N_d is somewhat higher (69% vs. 51% during daytime) even though N_a
301 is 2-fold lower during night. On the contrary, in environments with elevated concentrations of
302 accumulation-mode particles, the majority of cloud droplet number variations (54% during nighttime vs.
303 76% during daytime) can be attributed to changes in total aerosol number and to a lesser extent to vertical
304 velocity (43% during nighttime vs. 17% during daytime). The relative contribution of the total aerosol
305 number to the cloud droplet number dominates over variations in chemical composition (expressed by κ).
306 There are cases however where chemical composition variability contributes a non-negligible (~9%)
307 contribution to droplet number variability.

308 Overall, our results show that atmospheric dynamics is a key driver of cloud droplet formation and its
309 variability in the region. Especially in cases when the boundary layer turbulence is low (e.g. during
310 nighttime), low vertical velocity, generating only small supersaturation, can be as important a contributor
311 to droplet number variability as aerosol number. For cases with high vertical velocities and high aerosol
312 number concentration, it is the aerosol concentration that dominates the variability in cloud droplet number.
313 On average, the two variables (N_a and σ_w) contribute almost equally to the variability in cloud droplet
314 number concentration (N_d) and together account for more than 90% of variability. This finding is consistent
315 with recent modeling studies noting the importance of vertical velocity variability as a driver of the temporal
316 variability of global hydrometeor concentration (Morales Betancourt and Nenes, 2014b; Sullivan et al.,
317 2016). Furthermore, the N_d enhancement from changes in N_a is magnified up to 5 times from concurrent
318 changes in σ_w . A similar situation has also been observed in smoke-influenced marine boundary layers in
319 the S.Atlantic (Kacarab et al., 2020). Altogether, these findings carry important implications for model
320 assessments of aerosol indirect climate forcing (e.g., Leibensperger et al., 2012a) and aerosol-cloud
321 interaction studies using remote sensing, as patterns of cooling (although consistent with aerosol and cloud
322 fields) may omit the covariance of vertical velocity with aerosol number, therefore neglecting this important
323 driver of hydrometeor variability.

324 **Data Availability:** The data used in this study can be downloaded from the NOAA public data repository
325 at <https://www.esrl.noaa.gov/csd/projects/senex/>. The Gaussian fits used for determining σ_w and the droplet
326 parameterization used for the calculations in the study are available from athanasios.nenes@epfl.ch upon
327 request.



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340

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501 **Table 1:** Research flights from SENEX 2013 used in this study.

Flight	Date	Local Time (CDT, UTC-5 hrs)	κ	Organic mass fraction
4	10/6	09:55-16:30	0.23±0.02	0.62±0.11
5	11/6	11:30-17:57	0.20±0.00	0.68±0.05
6	12/6	09:48-15:31	0.21±0.01	0.68±0.07
9	19/6	17:30-23:29	0.24±0.01	0.66±0.06
10	22/6	10:01-17:09	0.21±0.02	0.68±0.08
11	23/6	10:08-17:22	0.25±0.03	0.58±0.07
12	25/6	10:18-17:25	0.39±0.02	0.35±0.18
14	29/6	10:26-17:39	0.22±0.03	0.62±0.07
15	2/7	20:08-02:51	0.28±0.05	0.55±0.09
16	3/7	19:56-02:55	0.22±0.05	0.67±0.09
17	5/7	09:52-16:24	0.23±0.05	0.59±0.14
18	6/7	09:19-16:18	0.31±0.02	0.52±0.08
19	8/7	10:11-16:44	0.23±0.04	0.62±0.08

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505 **Table 2:** Flight number, time interval, spectral dispersion of vertical wind velocity (σ_w) and characteristic
 506 vertical velocity $w^*=0.79\sigma_w$ during flight segments where the aircraft flew at a constant altitude.

Flight (pass)	Time Range	σ_w (m s ⁻¹)	w^* (m s ⁻¹)	Altitude (m)	Flight (pass)	Time Range	σ_w (m s ⁻¹)	w^* (m s ⁻¹)	Altitude (m)
5 (1)	12:31-12:58	1.02	0.81	549±58	9 (1)	18:44-18:58	0.255	0.202	797±2.01
5 (2)	13:16-13:29	0.82	0.65	982±11	9 (2)	19:20-19:29	0.249	0.197	740±1.23
5 (3)	13:34-13:50	1.01	0.80	502±13	9 (3)	19:33-19:48	0.217	0.171	740±1.23
5 (4)	13:53-14:08	1.03	0.81	614±27	9 (4)	19:51-20:25	0.218	0.173	776±1.22
5 (5)	14:20-15:00	0.91	0.72	603±40	9 (5)	20:34-20:39	0.232	0.183	597±1.19
5 (6)	15:35-15:41	0.87	0.69	533±18	9 (7)	20:56-21:10	0.201	0.158	773±1.11
5 (7)	16:17-16:30	0.77	0.61	638±23	9 (8)	21:31-21:45	0.191	0.151	725±1.18
5 (8)	16:31-16:39	0.55	0.44	559±18	9 (9)	22:24-22:31	0.257	0.203	745±1.36
5 (9)	17:10-17:22	0.53	0.42	686±40	9 (10)	22:48-22:54	0.221	0.175	804±1.37
14 (1)	12:34-12:49	0.94	0.75	558±2	15 (1)	21:09-21:52	0.236	0.186	505±6.64
14 (2)	13:57-14:17	0.97	0.77	658±3	15 (2)	22:19-22:31	0.301	0.238	633±1.21
14 (3)	14:22-14:46	0.95	0.75	737±3	15 (3)	22:42-22:54	0.255	0.202	600±1.17
14 (4)	14:58-15:33	0.55	0.43	746±23	15 (4)	23:26-23:37	0.329	0.260	908±1.56
14 (5)	15:55-16:08	0.57	0.45	714±3	15 (5)	00:02-00:19	0.297	0.235	1208±1.23
14 (6)	16:11-16:21	0.77	0.61	801±3	15 (6)	00:43-1:08	0.253	0.199	592±1.37
14 (7)	16:33-16:41	0.45	0.35	793±2	15 (7)	1:10-1:24	0.276	0.218	676±1.02
					15 (8)	1:37-2:02	0.207	0.164	713±19.5
12 (1)	11:50-12:34	0.96	0.75	484±3	19 (1)	11:20-11:41	0.622	0.492	1014±2.27
12 (2)	12:48-13:18	1.09	0.86	503±3	19 (2)	12:09-12:23	1.203	0.95	652±3.34
12 (3)	13:34-13:50	1.12	0.88	894±3	19 (3)	12:51-13:10	0.873	0.689	537±2.51
12 (4)	14:06-14:40	1.04	0.82	479±4	19 (4)	13:22-13:49	1.294	1.022	518±22.6
12 (5)	15:21-15:32	1.10	0.87	521±3	19 (5)	14:44-14:57	1.361	1.075	528±3.26
12 (6)	15:43-16:02	0.99	0.78	475±3	19 (6)	15:04-16:06	0.896	0.708	524±2.8

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509 **Table 3:** Derived cloud parameters (maximum supersaturation, droplet number) and relative contribution of chemical composition and total
 510 aerosol number for different vertical velocities. Numbers in parentheses indicate standard deviation values.

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Flight	N_a	N_a variab	$\sigma_w=0.1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$				$\sigma_w=0.3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$				$\sigma_w=0.6 \text{ m s}^{-1}$				$\sigma_w=1.0 \text{ m s}^{-1}$			
			S_{max}	N_d	Cont κ	Cont N_a	S_{max}	N_d	Cont κ	Cont N_a	S_{max}	N_d	Cont κ	Cont N_a	S_{max}	N_d	Cont κ	Cont N_a
4	6118	4520	0.11 (0.06)	122 (41)	0.08	0.92	0.16 (0.09)	315 (114)	0.20	0.80	0.21 (0.12)	520 (212)	0.23	0.77	0.26 (0.17)	737 (321)	0.2	0.8
5	4324	2598	0.08 (0.04)	139 (31)	0.09	0.91	0.1 (0.06)	388 (104)	0.15	0.85	0.14 (0.08)	712 (216)	0.17	0.83	0.17 (0.1)	1063 (360)	0.21	0.79
6	4958	3054	0.07 (0.07)	151 (24)	0.03	0.97	0.08 (0.04)	422 (70)	0.11	0.89	0.1 (0.06)	773 (171)	0.08	0.92	0.13 (0.07)	1162 (302)	0.07	0.93
9	4271	3095	0.07 (0.02)	152 (18)	0.05	0.95	0.12 (0.04)	367 (68)	0.17	0.83	0.16 (0.05)	533 (115)	0.17	0.83	0.19 (0.06)	680 (126)	0.12	0.88
10	6286	7201	0.07 (0.03)	158 (24)	0.02	0.98	0.1 (0.05)	422 (86)	0.02	0.98	0.14 (0.07)	748 (180)	0.04	0.96	0.18 (0.08)	1063 (295)	0.09	0.91
11	5969	7271	0.04 (0.01)	137 (19)	0.01	0.99	0.06 (0.01)	381 (61)	0.04	0.96	0.08 (0.02)	695 (134)	0.03	0.97	0.10 (0.02)	1025 (226)	0.03	0.97
12	3154	5150	0.06 (0.03)	110 (45)	0.03	0.97	0.1 (0.04)	274 (117)	0.05	0.95	0.14 (0.04)	404 (179)	0.08	0.92	0.17 (0.05)	486 (207)	0.07	0.93
14	5564	5891	0.07 (0.02)	118 (41)	0.05	0.95	0.10 (0.03)	328 (125)	0.17	0.83	0.13 (0.04)	590 (240)	0.25	0.75	0.16 (0.05)	842 (361)	0.27	0.73
15	2328	1428	0.05 (0.01)	135 (22)	0.03	0.97	0.09 (0.02)	339 (67)	0.12	0.88	0.12 (0.02)	557 (137)	0.21	0.79	0.16 (0.03)	717 (203)	0.3	0.7
16	3440	4507	0.08 (0.06)	158 (37)	0.03	0.97	0.12 (0.1)	403 (120)	0.06	0.94	0.17 (0.13)	670 (235)	0.07	0.93	0.23 (0.16)	917 (374)	0.1	0.9
17	3813	4645	0.05 (0.02)	129 (41)	0.06	0.94	0.07 (0.03)	342 (130)	0.1	0.9	0.1 (0.04)	593 (248)	0.06	0.94	0.13 (0.05)	841 (371)	0.06	0.94
18	1925	983	0.08 (0.04)	90 (58)	0.12	0.88	0.12 (0.05)	233 (157)	0.35	0.65	0.15 (0.06)	379 (262)	0.37	0.63	0.19 (0.07)	499 (346)	0.27	0.73
19	4323	7261	0.06 (0.02)	121 (33)	0.02	0.98	0.08 (0.02)	314 (96)	0.06	0.94	0.12 (0.03)	526 (177)	0.11	0.89	0.15 (0.03)	670 (249)	0.13	0.87

512

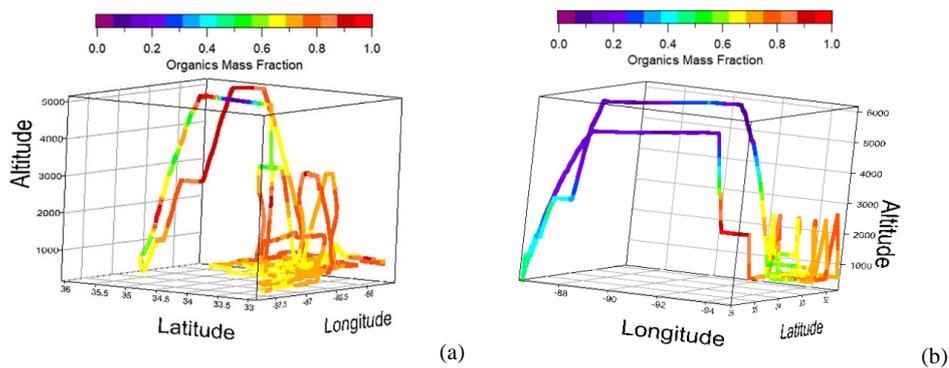
513



514 **Table 4:** Derived S_{max} , N_d , σ_w for all research flights along with the estimated contribution of each
 515 parameter to the variability of the droplet number.

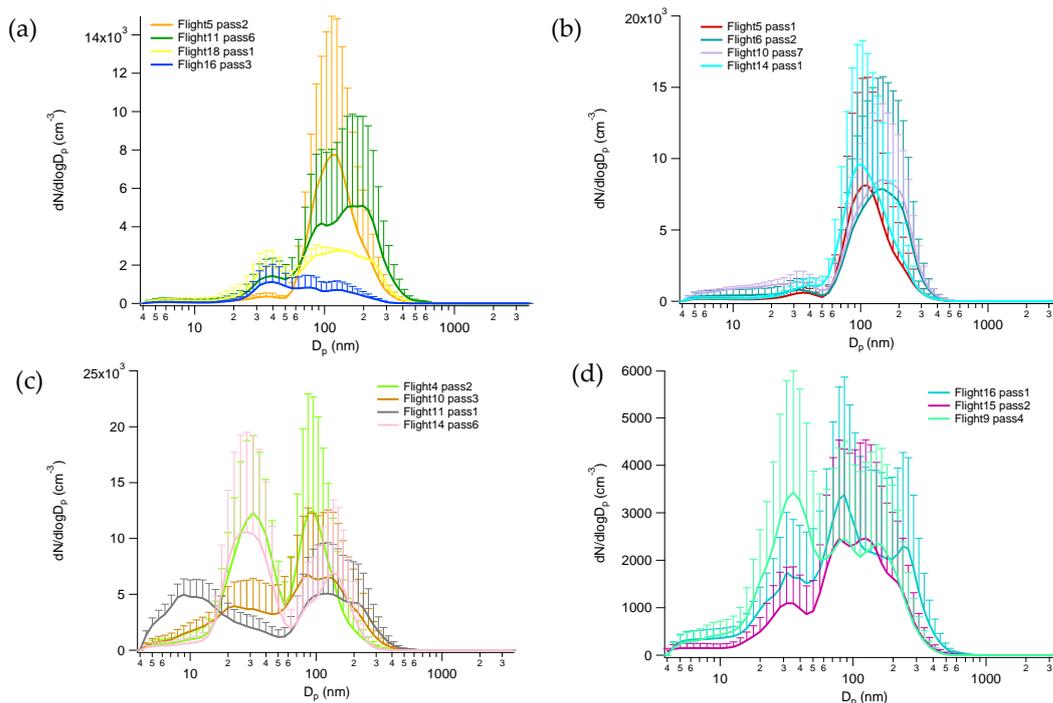
Flight	σ_w (m s^{-1})	$\frac{\Delta\sigma_w}{\sigma_w}$	S_{max} (%)	N_d (cm^{-3})	$\frac{\Delta N_d}{N_d}$	Contrib. κ	Contrib. N_a	Contrib. σ_w
4	1.03±0.25	0.243	0.29±0.19	707±343	0.485	4%	79%	17%
5	0.97±0.1	0.103	0.17±0.10	1040±350	0.337	7%	69%	24%
6	0.94±0.18	0.191	0.13±0.07	1108±283	0.255	3%	54%	43%
9	0.23±0.02	0.043	0.10±0.03	309±51	0.165	7%	76%	17%
10	1.22±0.11	0.090	0.12±0.03	1177±271	0.230	1%	90%	9%
11	1.08±0.04	0.037	0.11±0.03	1082±242	0.224	1%	83%	16%
12	1.05±0.07	0.067	0.18±0.05	495±210	0.424	2%	96%	2%
14	0.85±0.2	0.024	0.15±0.04	761±321	0.422	9%	72%	19%
15	0.28±0.04	0.143	0.08±0.02	321±63	0.196	7%	51%	42%
16	0.20±0.04	0.200	0.10±0.08	289±79	0.273	2%	65%	33%
17	0.71±0.26	0.366	0.15±0.11	742±280	0.377	1%	71%	28%
18	0.90±0.06	0.067	0.31±0.18	538±325	0.604	7%	83%	10%
19	0.99±0.31	0.313	0.15±0.03	699±248	0.355	4%	88%	8%

516



517 **Figure 1:** Spatial and vertical distribution of the organics mass fraction (a) for Flight 5 and (b) for Flight
518 12, denoting the difference in chemical composition, which in turn, may influence cloud droplet number
519 concentration. The color scale denotes the percentage of the organics mass fraction.

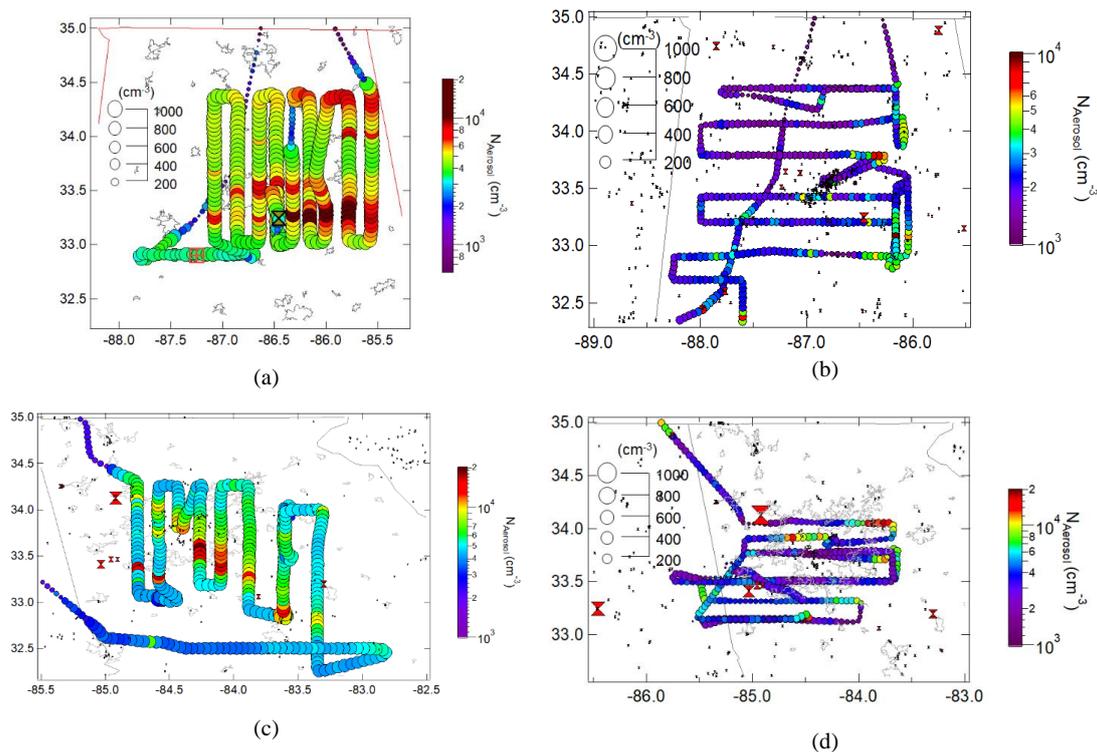
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521

522 **Figure 2:** Average particle number size distributions for: (a) free tropospheric conditions, (b) within the
523 boundary layer, (c) for flights with high variability in total aerosol number, and (d) during nighttime flights.
524 Error bars represent the 75th percentile of the distributions within each pass.

525



526

527 **Figure 3:** Flight trajectories showing cloud droplet number (indicated by marker size (cm⁻³)) and total
528 aerosol number (indicated by marker color) for the observed characteristic vertical velocity (w^*). (a) for the
529 Alabama sector during daytime (Flight 5) and (b) nighttime (Flight 15). (c) for Atlanta during daytime
530 (Flight 6) and (d) nighttime (Flight 9). Note that the data are plotted at less than 1 Hz in order to better show
531 the size and color of the markers.

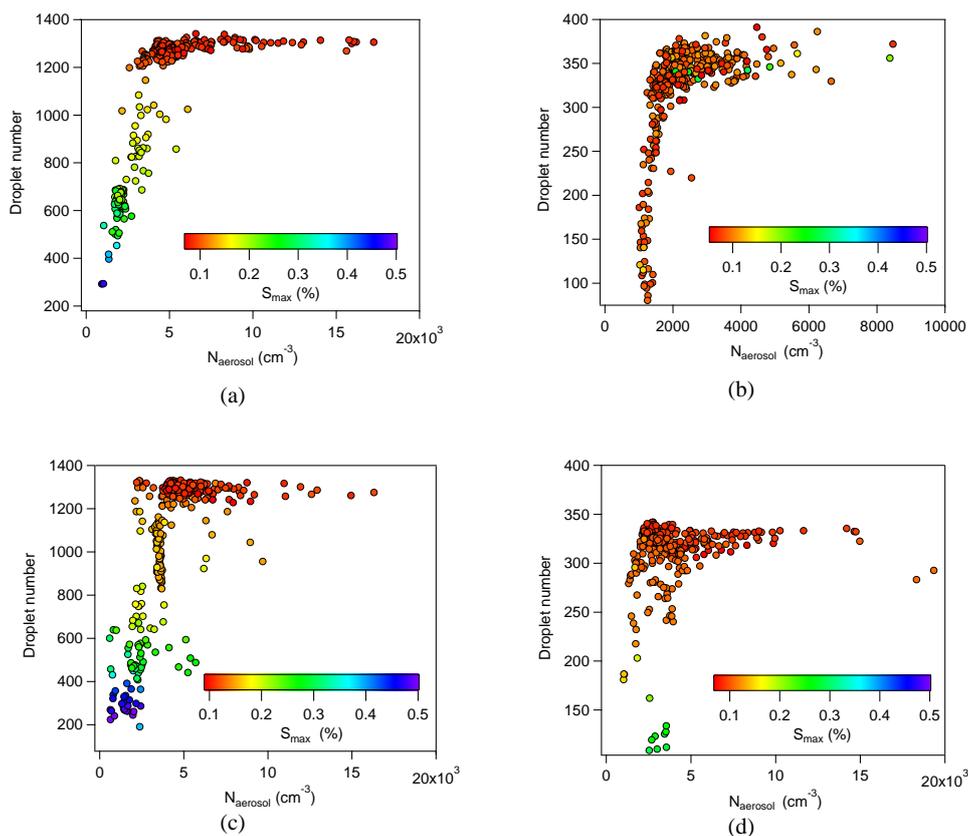
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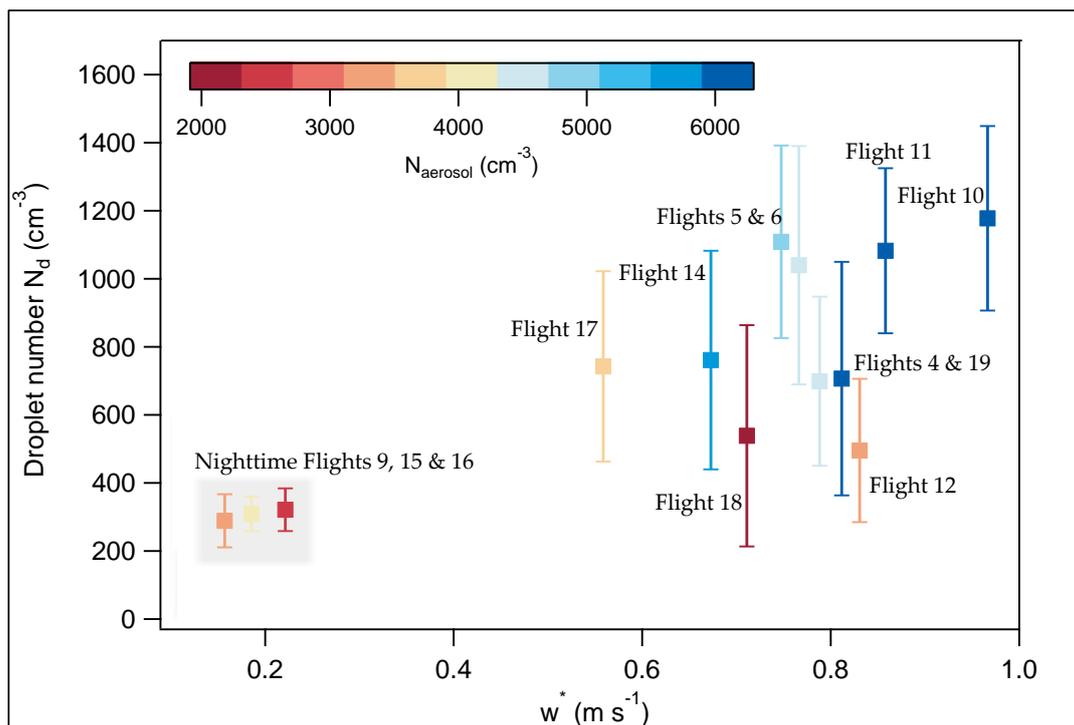
537

538 **Figure 4:** Cloud droplet number vs. total aerosol number for the derived characteristic vertical velocity
539 (w^*). (a) for the Alabama sector during daytime (Flight 5) and (b) nighttime (Flight 15). (c) for Atlanta
540 during daytime (Flight 6) and (d) nighttime (Flight 9). Data are colored by maximum supersaturation.

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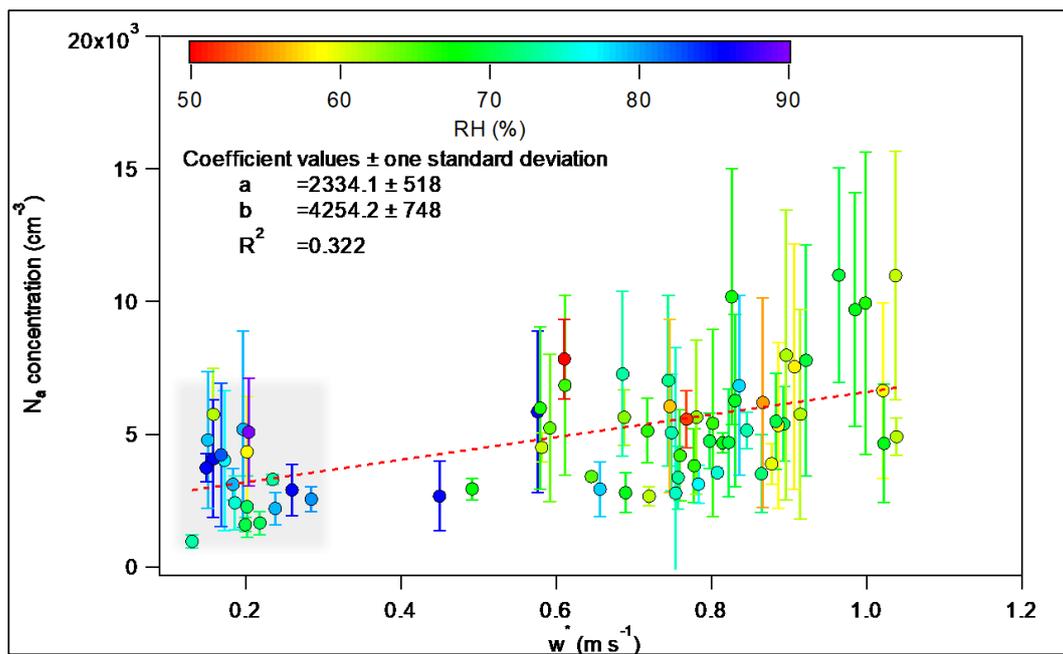


544

545 **Figure 5:** Average cloud droplet number vs. characteristic velocity during the 13 research flights, colored
546 by total aerosol number. Error bars represent the standard deviation of cloud droplet number during each
547 flight. The shaded area represents the flights conducted during nighttime.

548

549



550

551 **Figure 6:** Total aerosol number vs. characteristic velocity during the segments of the flights when the
552 aircraft remained at a constant altitude within the boundary layer, colored by relative humidity. The shaded
553 area represents the segments of the flights conducted during nighttime.

554