



1 **Organic enrichment in droplet residual particles relative to out of cloud over the northwest**  
2 **Atlantic: Analysis of airborne ACTIVATE data**

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22



23 **Abstract.**

24 Cloud processing is known to generate aerosol species such as sulfate and secondary  
25 organic aerosol, yet there is a scarcity of airborne data to examine this issue. The NASA Aerosol  
26 Cloud meTeorology Interactions oVer the western ATlantic Experiment (ACTIVATE) was  
27 designed to build an unprecedented dataset relevant to aerosol-cloud interactions with two  
28 coordinated aircraft over the northwest Atlantic, with aerosol mass spectrometer data used from  
29 four deployments between 2020-2021 to contrast aerosol composition below, in (using a  
30 counterflow virtual impactor), and above boundary layer clouds. Consistent features in all time  
31 periods of the deployments (January-March, May-June, August-September) include the mass  
32 fraction of organics and relative amount of oxygenated organics ( $m/z$  44) relative to total organics  
33 ( $f_{44}$ ) increasing in droplet residuals relative to below and above cloud. Detailed analysis comparing  
34 data below and in cloud suggests a possible role for in-cloud aqueous processing in explaining  
35 such results. These results are important as other datasets (e.g., reanalysis) suggest that sulfate is  
36 both more abundant than organics (in contrast to this work) and more closely related to drop  
37 number concentrations in the winter when aerosol-cloud interactions are strongest; here we show  
38 that organics are more abundant than sulfate in the droplet residuals and that aerosol interaction  
39 with clouds potentially decreases particle hygroscopicity due to the significant jump in  
40 organic:sulfate ratio for droplet residuals relative to surrounding cloud-free air. These results are  
41 important in light of the growing importance of organics over the northwest Atlantic in recent  
42 decades relative to sulfate owing to the success of regulatory activity over the eastern United States  
43 to cut sulfur dioxide emissions.

44



## 45 1. Introduction

46 The nature of aerosol-cloud interactions over the northwest Atlantic Ocean is uncertain  
47 even though the region has been the target of decades of atmospheric research (Sorooshian et al.,  
48 2020). These interactions include a subset of aerosol particles called cloud condensation nuclei  
49 (CCN) that activate into cloud droplets, which subsequently undergo aqueous processing to  
50 transform into a particle after evaporation varying in size and composition relative to the original  
51 CCN. An aspect of these steps that is poorly characterized is the composition of the droplet  
52 residuals in cloud relative to particles below and above clouds, which requires airborne  
53 measurements. The NASA Aerosol Cloud Meteorology Interactions over the western Atlantic  
54 Experiment (ACTIVATE) was designed to collect in situ and remote sensing data in and around  
55 clouds during different seasons in a region with a wide range of weather conditions (Painemal et  
56 al., 2021) and air mass sources (Corral et al., 2021), qualifying as a suitable dataset to examine  
57 this very issue.

58 The annual cycle of aerosol and cloud drop number concentrations ( $N_d$ ) varies in the  
59 northwest Atlantic, with aerosol parameters (e.g., aerosol optical depth, aerosol index) peaking in  
60 summer months in contrast to  $N_d$  being highest the winter (Figure S1). This discrepancy was  
61 reconciled by Dadashazar et al. (2021a) who showed that conditions linked to cold air outbreak  
62 events (e.g., enhanced turbulence, marine boundary layer height, low-level liquid cloud fraction)  
63 promote stronger aerosol-cloud interactions in the winter to help activate particles into drops with  
64 higher efficiency than other times of the year. Gradient boosted regression tree analysis revealed  
65 that the most influential aerosol parameter in predicting  $N_d$  was either surface mass concentration  
66 of sulfate (winter) or organics (summer). However, those results were based on reanalysis data  
67 without any indication of causal effects between aerosol composition and cloud microphysics.  
68 Airborne in situ data are needed to unravel the composition details in and around clouds. Of  
69 particular interest related to aerosol chemical characterization around clouds is growing evidence  
70 in the literature that in-cloud aqueous processing can generate not only sulfate (Barth et al., 2000;  
71 Ervens, 2015) but also secondary organic aerosol (SOA) (Blando and Turpin, 2000; Warneck,  
72 2003; Sorooshian et al., 2006a; Ervens et al., 2011; Heald et al., 2011), which is hypothesized to  
73 manifest itself in enhanced organic mass fractions in droplet residuals relative to below and above  
74 cloud. Past work over the northwest Atlantic has pointed to the importance of secondary formation  
75 via gas-to-particle conversion processes in influencing the organic carbon budget of aerosol  
76 particles (de Gouw et al., 2005; Schroder et al., 2018; Shah et al., 2019). Furthermore, chemical  
77 analysis of droplet residuals can lend insight into properties of the CCN activating into droplets,  
78 with past work showing an important role for organics (Russell et al., 2000; Drewnick et al., 2007;  
79 Mertes et al., 2007; Hawkins et al., 2008; Asa-Awuku et al., 2015).

80 The goal of this study is to compare aerosol mass spectrometer data over the northwest  
81 Atlantic below, in, and above clouds for different times of the year (February-March, May-June,  
82 August-September). Case studies of flights during cold air outbreaks probe deeper to better  
83 understand the nature of aerosol and droplet residual particle composition during these events with  
84 stronger aerosol-cloud interactions as compared to other times of the year (Dadashazar et al.,  
85 2021a; Painemal et al., 2021). The results have implications for aerosol-cloud interactions as  
86 droplet residual composition is shown here to deviate from that of aerosol out of cloud. This is  
87 important to lend insight into properties of the CCN activating into drops and/or pointing to a key  
88 role for cloud processing over the northwest Atlantic to alter aerosol properties.

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90



## 91 2. Methods

### 92 2.1 Field Campaign Description

93 We use airborne in situ data collected aboard the HU-25 Falcon from deployments 1 (14  
94 February – 12 March 2020), 2 (13 August – 30 September 2020), 3 (27 January – 2 April 2021),  
95 and 4 (13 May – 30 June 2021) of the ACTIVATE mission. Data necessary for this study were  
96 only available for two flights in deployment 3 (29 January and 3 February) owing to an aircraft  
97 maintenance issue reducing the size of the available payload. ACTIVATE employs a dual aircraft  
98 approach with the Falcon acquiring in situ data for trace gases, aerosol particles, and clouds in the  
99 marine boundary layer while a King Air flies overhead at ~9 km conducting remote sensing  
100 measurements and launching dropsondes (Sorooshian et al., 2019). Typical flights are ~3-4 hours  
101 based out of NASA Langley Research Center in Hampton, Virginia. The Falcon flies in what are  
102 termed “ensembles”, which comprise legs in the following nominal order: below cloud base  
103 (BCB), above cloud base (ACB), BCB, ACB, minimum altitude leg at ~150 m (Min. Alt.), above  
104 cloud top (ACT), below cloud top (BCT), and then descent back to BCB to start a new ensemble.  
105 Cloud-free ensembles include the following legs: Min. Alt., below boundary layer top (BBL),  
106 above boundary layer top (ABL), and then descent back down to Min. Alt. to start a new ensemble.  
107 The Falcon flies at ~120 m s<sup>-1</sup>, with the duration (length) of each leg and ensemble being ~3.3 min  
108 (~24 km) and 35 min (~250 km), respectively. The repeated nature of these ensembles has built a  
109 large statistical database relevant to aerosol-cloud-meteorology interactions. Locations of clear  
110 and cloudy ensembles are shown in Figure S2, with clear ensembles generally closer to the coast.

111

### 112 2.2 Airborne Instrument Details

113 The central dataset relevant to aerosol composition in this study comes from the Aerodyne  
114 High-Resolution Time-of-Flight Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (AMS) (DeCarlo et al., 2008). The  
115 instrument measures submicrometer non-refractory aerosol composition in 1 Hz Fast-MS mode  
116 with data averaged to 25-second time resolution. We make use of specific mass spectral markers  
117 including m/z 43 (mostly C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup>) and 44 (CO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup>), which represent oxygenated organic fragments,  
118 with the ratios of the markers relative to total organic mass referred to as f<sub>43</sub> and f<sub>44</sub>, respectively.  
119 AMS measurements were conducted downstream of an isokinetic double diffuser inlet (Brechtel  
120 Manufacturing Inc.) in cloud-free conditions and downstream of a counterflow virtual impactor  
121 (CVI) inlet (Brechtel Manufacturing Inc.) in clouds (Shingler et al., 2012). For classification of  
122 data as cloud and cloud-free, we use a liquid water content (LWC) threshold of 0.05 g m<sup>-3</sup> based  
123 on data from the Fast Cloud Droplet Probe (FCDP; D<sub>p</sub> ~3 – 50 μm) (SPEC Inc.; Kirschler et al.,  
124 2022). This LWC threshold has been used in recent work using ACTIVATE data (Dadashazar et  
125 al., 2021a). We also use a proxy for hygroscopicity in the form of f(RH), which is the ratio of total  
126 light scattering between relative humidities of 80% and 20% as measured by tandem  
127 nephelometers (TSI Inc, St. Paul, MN, USA; Model 3563) (Ziemba et al., 2013).

128 Note that while cloud water samples were also chemically characterized, those data are  
129 outside the scope of this work (i) to maintain consistency in AMS data for out-of-cloud and in-  
130 cloud data, and (ii) because the total organic fraction could not be quantified owing to only being  
131 able to speciate selected organic acids. Furthermore, particle-into-liquid sampler data are not used



132 owing to lengthier time resolution (~5 min) and innate chemical smearing (Sorooshian et al.,  
133 2006b) preventing a clear assignment of data to individual legs in ensembles.

## 134 **2.3 Complementary Datasets**

### 135 **2.3.1 HYSPLIT and CWT Maps**

136 We obtained 5-day back-trajectory data from NOAA's Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian  
137 Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model (Stein et al., 2015; Rolph, 2017) ending at the Falcon  
138 position during any of the 29,164 cloud-free AMS data points (Figure S3). We relied on the  
139 National Centers for Environmental Prediction/National Center for Atmospheric Research  
140 (NCEP/NCAR) reanalysis data using the "Model vertical velocity" method and obtained data  
141 points every 6 hours along trajectories. Altitude histories of the trajectories for each season are  
142 shown in Figure S4.

143 As this study is mainly focused on sulfate and organics, concentration-weighted trajectory  
144 (CWT) maps were generated using HYSPLIT back-trajectories in conjunction with speciated AMS  
145 data to show the predominant sources for each of these two aerosol components (e.g., Hsu et al.,  
146 2003). As demonstrated by past works for other regions (e.g., Dadashazar et al., 2019), the method  
147 assigns a weighted concentration to grid cells based on mean concentrations passing through each  
148 grid cell from all the considered trajectories. CWT profile maps are produced using the GIS-based  
149 software called TrajStat (Wang et al., 2009).

### 150 **2.3.2 MERRA-2**

151 We use both total and speciated (sulfate and organic) aerosol optical depth (AOD) at 550  
152 nm from the Modern-Era Retrospective analysis for Research and Applications-Version 2  
153 (MERRA-2) (Gelaro et al., 2017) between January 2013 and December 2017 near Aqua's overpass  
154 time (13:30 local time). We also show results for aerosol index (AI), which is the product of AOD  
155 and the Ångström parameter. As the latter accounts for aerosol size, AI is better related to columnar  
156 CCN as compared to AOD (Nakajima et al., 2001). Data are used for the spatial area over the  
157 northwest Atlantic where ACTIVATE data were collected (boxes 1-3 in Figure 1).

### 158 **2.3.3 CERES-MODIS**

159 Cloud droplet number concentrations ( $N_d$ ) are presented for the ACTIVATE region  
160 following the specific calculations and filtering methods of Dadashazar et al. (2021a) using Clouds  
161 and the Earth's Radiant Energy System (CERES) edition 4 products (Minnis et al., 2011; Minnis  
162 et al., 2021). CERES retrieval algorithms are applied to MODerate resolution Imaging  
163 Spectroradiometer (MODIS)-Aqua radiances as obtained during daytime overpasses around 13:30  
164 local time. Level 3 cloud data were used between January 2013 and December 2017 at  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$   
165 resolution for low-level clouds ( $> 700$  hPa) based on CERES-MODIS edition 4 Single Scanning  
166 Footprint (SSF) products (Loeb et al., 2016).  $N_d$  was calculated with an adiabatic cloud model  
167 (Grosvenor et al., 2018):

168



$$N_d = \frac{\sqrt{5}}{2 \pi k} \left( \frac{f_{ad} C_w \tau}{Q_{ext} \rho_w r_e^5} \right)^{1/2} \quad (1)$$

170

171 where  $k$  represents the droplet spectrum width (assumed to be 0.8 over the ocean),  $r_e$  is cloud drop  
172 effective radius,  $\tau$  is cloud optical depth,  $Q_{ext}$  is the unitless extinction efficiency factor (assumed  
173 to be 2 for liquid droplets), and  $\rho_w$  is the density of water ( $1 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ ).  $N_d$  data are used when low-  
174 level liquid cloud fraction exceeded 40%. Data are used for the same spatial area as MERRA-2  
175 data (i.e., boxes 1-3 in Figure 1).

176

## 177 **2.4 Classification of Cold Air Outbreak flights**

178 We determine whether flights occurred during cold air outbreaks (CAOs) leveraging  
179 methods in recent ACTIVATE studies (Seethala et al., 2021; Corral et al., 2022). Briefly, Visible  
180 Infrared Imaging Radiometer Suite (VIIRS) imagery (NASA Worldview) is used to visually  
181 identify cloud streets that are characteristic of CAOs. Flight notes and weather forecast slides were  
182 used as additional confirmation, followed by data from dropsondes released from the King Air  
183 following the method described in Papritz et al. (2015).

184

## 185 **3. Results**

### 186 **3.1 Multi-season overview of AMS composition**

187 Relative to all AMS species, sulfate and organics are the dominant aerosol components by  
188 mass with combined mass fractions being near 75% usually regardless of season or location  
189 relative to clouds (Table 1; spatial maps in Figure 1); this is consistent with their predictive  
190 capability for  $N_d$  over the northwest Atlantic (Dadashazar et al., 2021a). Nitrate and ammonium  
191 were the next most abundant components, with chloride being much lower. The highest organic  
192 concentrations were in August-September assisted in part by transported wildfire emissions from  
193 western North America (Mardi et al., 2021). Mean vertical profiles of organics in each season  
194 (Figure S5) show that in all months, but especially May-June and August-September, there is an  
195 enhancement at altitudes exceeding 200 m in the northernmost parts of the study region. Organic  
196 aerosol CWT maps reveal significant influence from continental sources based on the highest  
197 concentrations along trajectories coming from the U.S. East Coast (Figure 2). In terms of the nature  
198 of the organic aerosol fraction, vertical profiles of  $f_{44}$  were fairly similar between seasons and areas  
199 of the study region (Figure S5), ranging in mean value for the various leg types in Table 1 between  
200 0.11 and 0.27. For reference, the  $f_{44}$  of atomized oxalic acid, a tracer for cloud processing in the  
201 absence of biomass burning and coarse aerosol (Hilario et al., 2021 and references therein), is 0.36  
202 (Lambe et al., 2011).

203 In contrast to organics, sulfate exhibits more spatially homogenous concentrations over the  
204 northwest Atlantic (Figure 1) owing largely to ocean-emitted dimethylsulfide that undergoes gas  
205 and in-cloud oxidation such as what was shown for the eastern North Atlantic (Ovadnevaite et al.,  
206 2014). This is supported by how sulfate's seasonal CWT maps (Figure 3) differ from those of



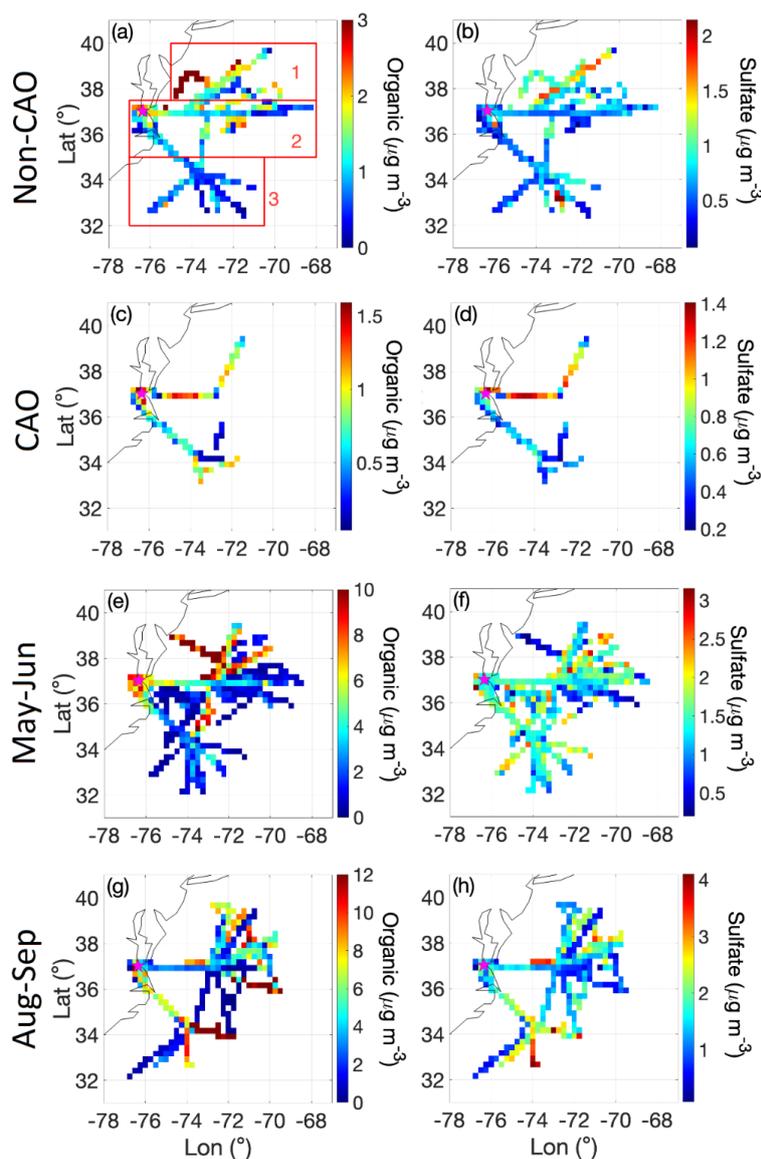
207 organics with comparable concentrations widespread over the northwest Atlantic relative to the  
 208 continent. The August-September CWT map for sulfate reveals more high concentration areas  
 209 (note the different color bar scale for Aug-Sep in Figure 3) over the continent with concentrations  
 210 exceeding those over most of the ocean; this is presumably due to more secondary formation  
 211 stemming from local sulfur dioxide emissions over the eastern U.S. (Yang et al., 2018) aided in  
 212 part by higher temperatures and humidity (Corral et al., 2021) that co-vary with other conditions  
 213 favorable for sulfate production such as stagnation and certain air flow patterns (Tai et al., 2010).  
 214 Figure S5 demonstrates that neither sulfate or organics exhibit a clear reduction with altitude  
 215 pointing towards a potential source aloft include long-range transport and/or secondary production.

216 Although based on only two consecutive days of flight data, results from Leaitch et al.  
 217 (2010) are relevant in that they sampled below, in, and above boundary clouds over the northwest  
 218 Atlantic. On the first day with more marine influence, sulfate was more abundant than organics in  
 219 fine particles below cloud. In contrast, the second day had more continental influence with organic  
 220 levels exceeding those of sulfate below cloud, which was often the case during ACTIVATE (Table  
 221 1). They concluded with a parcel model that the impact of anthropogenic carbonaceous  
 222 components on the cloud albedo effect can exceed that of anthropogenic sulfate, which motivates  
 223 attention to the droplet residual composition, which is discussed next.

224 **Table 1. Average concentrations of submicrometer aerosol species measured by an airborne**  
 225 **AMS for different seasons associated with ACTIVATE deployments 1-4. Non-CAO and**  
 226 **CAO categories include samples collected between January and March. CVI = droplet**  
 227 **residual particle measurements in cloud; BCB = below cloud base, ACT = above cloud top,**  
 228 **BBL = below boundary layer top, ABL = above boundary layer top. Corresponding standard**  
 229 **deviations and number of points are provided in Table S1.**

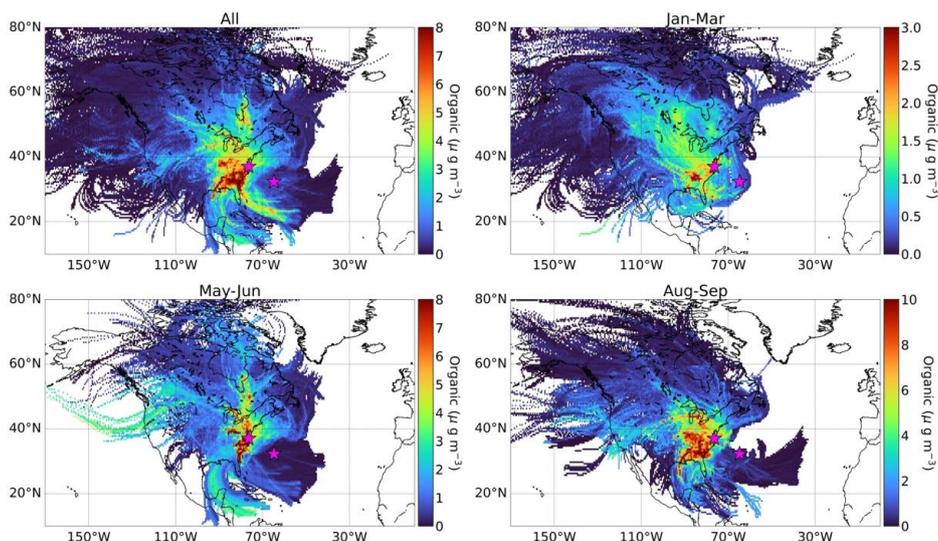
	(Non-CAO/CAO/May-Jun/Aug-Sep)				
	CVI	BCB	ACT	BBL	ABL
Organic ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	-	1.07/0.67/1.49/3.27	0.61/0.19/2.62/3.04	2.59/1.16/3.49/4.46	0.94/0.57/5.28/5.57
Sulfate ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	-	0.93/0.79/1.71/1.35	0.53/0.26/1.23/1.11	0.80/0.57/1.17/1.77	0.51/0.45/1.26/2.13
Nitrate ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	-	0.40/0.21/0.07/0.16	0.19/0.05/0.14/0.11	0.79/0.93/0.17/0.21	0.14/0.32/0.26/0.19
Ammonium ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	-	0.45/0.32/0.36/0.36	0.28/0.10/0.41/0.37	0.67/0.65/0.38/0.53	0.26/0.30/0.51/0.63
Chloride ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	-	0.03/0.02/0.03/0.03	0.02/0.01/0.02/0.02	0.05/0.01/0.02/0.02	0.01/0.01/0.02/0.02
Organic <sub>MF</sub>	0.55/0.60/0.68/0.61	0.40/0.34/0.35/0.48	0.28/0.29/0.42/0.51	0.50/0.39/0.63/0.57	0.44/0.32/0.65/0.54
Sulfate <sub>MF</sub>	0.24/0.19/0.14/0.14	0.39/0.45/0.53/0.39	0.42/0.46/0.43/0.34	0.24/0.20/0.26/0.33	0.35/0.36/0.24/0.35
Nitrate <sub>MF</sub>	0.05/0.05/0.05/0.05	0.08/0.07/0.02/0.03	0.08/0.07/0.03/0.03	0.11/0.22/0.03/0.03	0.06/0.14/0.03/0.03
Ammonium <sub>MF</sub>	0.09/0.08/0.07/0.09	0.13/0.13/0.10/0.08	0.20/0.16/0.12/0.10	0.14/0.18/0.08/0.07	0.14/0.16/0.07/0.08
Chloride <sub>MF</sub>	0.06/0.08/0.06/0.10	0.01/0.01/0.01/0.01	0.01/0.02/0.01/0.01	0.01/0.01/0.01/0.00	0.01/0.03/0.00/0.00
$f_{44}$	0.33/0.34/0.24/0.37	0.15/0.13/0.11/0.14	0.26/0.16/0.12/0.15	0.16/0.14/0.12/0.14	0.17/0.14/0.11/0.14

230



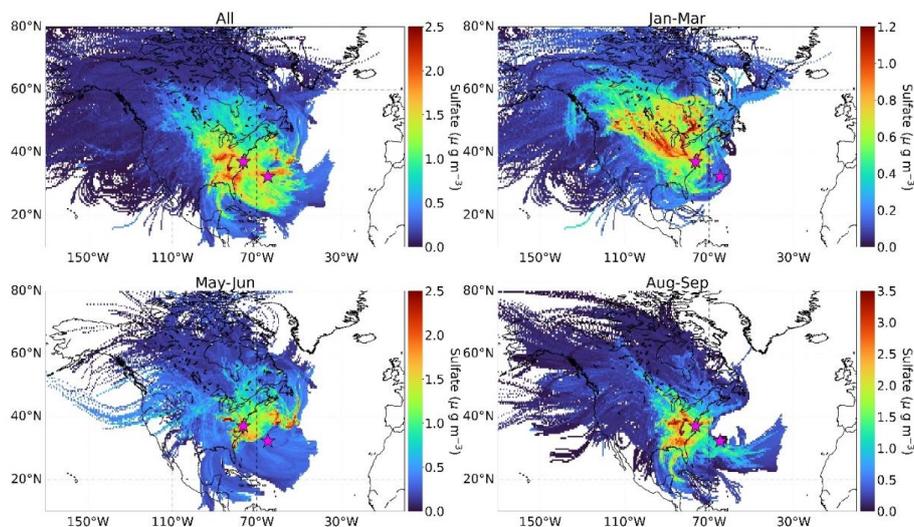
231

232 **Figure 1. Spatial map of cloud-free AMS data for organics and sulfate collected during**  
233 **deployments 1-4 of ACTIVATE spanning from February 2020 to June 2021. Non-CAO and**  
234 **CAO represent non cold air outbreak and cold air outbreak days between January and**  
235 **March. Spatial boxes labeled 1-3 in (a) correspond to domains used for calculations in other**  
236 **parts of this study. Grid cells are  $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$  and represent an average of data across all**  
237 **vertical levels flown between 0.02 and 8.1 km. Color bar scales differ by panel to highlight**  
238 **variability better within a panel.**



239

240 **Figure 2. Concentration weighted trajectory maps for organic aerosol concentrations as**  
241 **measured by an AMS on the Falcon during different ACTIVATE deployments (All data,**  
242 **Jan-Mar 2020 and 2021, May-Jun 2021, August-September 2020). These are based on 29,164**  
243 **cloud-free AMS data points. The pink stars represent NASA Langley Research Center**  
244 **(Hampton, Virginia) and Bermuda for reference. Color bar scales differ to show variability**  
245 **better within a given panel.**



246

247 **Figure 3. Concentration weighted trajectory maps for sulfate aerosol concentrations as**  
248 **measured by an AMS on the Falcon during different ACTIVATE deployments (All data,**  
249 **Jan-Mar 2020 and 2021, May-Jun 2021, August-September 2020). These are based on 29,164**  
250 **cloud-free AMS data points. The pink stars represent NASA Langley Research Center**



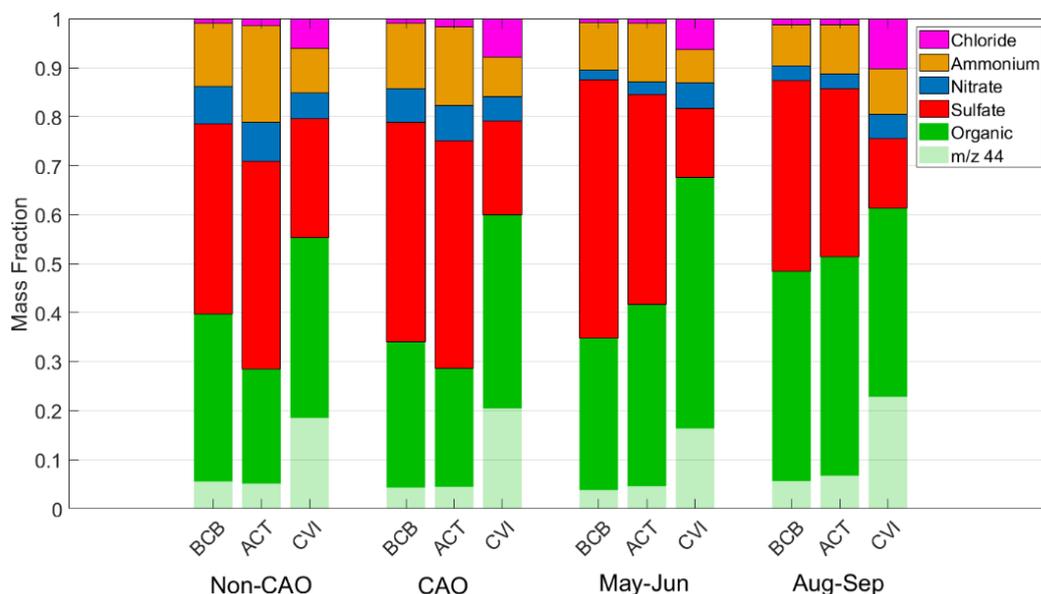
251 (Hampton, Virginia) and Bermuda for reference. Color bar scales differ to show variability  
252 better within a given panel.

253

### 254 3.2 Droplet Residual Composition

255 A striking result in all seasons is that organic mass fraction was higher downstream of the  
256 CVI in droplet residual particles in contrast to adjacent BCB and ACT legs in cloudy ensembles  
257 (Figure 4). To compensate, sulfate mass fractions decreased in droplet residuals. Furthermore,  $f_{44}$   
258 increased in droplet residuals as compared to BCB and ACT data in each season, indicative of  
259 more contribution of oxygenated organic species like carboxylic acids. There was no significant  
260 difference in the mass fraction profiles between seasons for a fixed leg type (Figure 4).

261 The organic mass fraction and  $f_{44}$  changes in droplet residuals can be explained by some  
262 combination of preferential activation of CCN with these special properties and/or aqueous  
263 processing in droplets to generate oxygenated organics. Although not the focus here, the high  
264 chloride mass fractions in droplet residuals (Figure 4) can be explained by how sea salt would  
265 preferentially activate into drops owing to its large size and that the AMS has some ability (albeit  
266 not efficient) to detect sea salt chloride (Zorn et al., 2008; Ovadnevaite et al., 2012). These results  
267 are important in that the usage of more readily available datasets such as MERRA-2 for speciated  
268 aerosol data fail to capture the chemical characteristics of droplets contributing to  $N_d$  (Section S1  
269 and Figure S1), which are shown here to be distinctly different than what was measured below and  
270 above cloud.



271

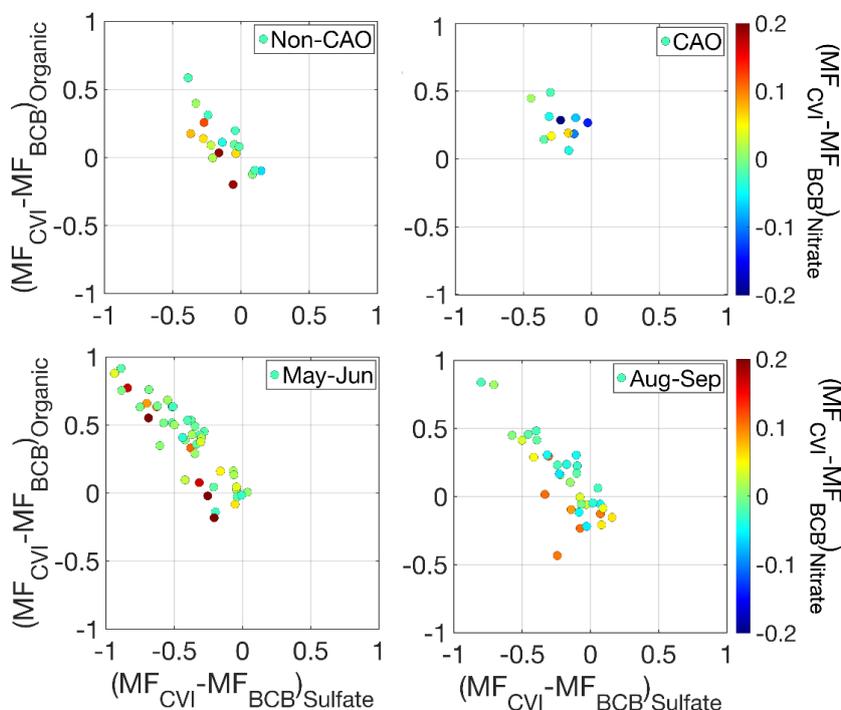
272 **Figure 4. Seasonal comparison of AMS mass fractions, including the relative contribution of**  
273  **$m/z$  44 to total organic ( $f_{44}$ ). Note that the Non-CAO and CAO categories represent all flight**



274 **data in January-March (deployments 1 and 3) that were separated using the criteria in**  
275 **Section 2.4.**

276

277 We next examine scatterplots of organic mass fraction (i.e., organic mass divided by total  
278 AMS mass) differences between each cloud leg with CVI-AMS data and its closest BCB leg in  
279 the same cloud ensemble versus analogous sulfate mass fraction differences for the same pair of  
280 legs (Figure 5). Aqueous processing to preferentially increase one of the two species relative to  
281 the other would presumably translate into a positive value on the more preferred species' axis; in  
282 other words, if there was more organic aerosol formation in clouds via aqueous processing  
283 relative to sulfate, it would register as a positive (negative) value on the y (x) axis. Regardless of  
284 season, the results reveal a consistent feature of increasing (decreasing) organic (sulfate) mass  
285 fraction downstream of the CVI relative to BCB samples, suggestive of aqueous processing  
286 shifting the composition to be more organic-rich. For the very few points laying to the bottom  
287 left of the origin, nitrate is often more enhanced in those droplet residual samples relative to  
288 BCB data.



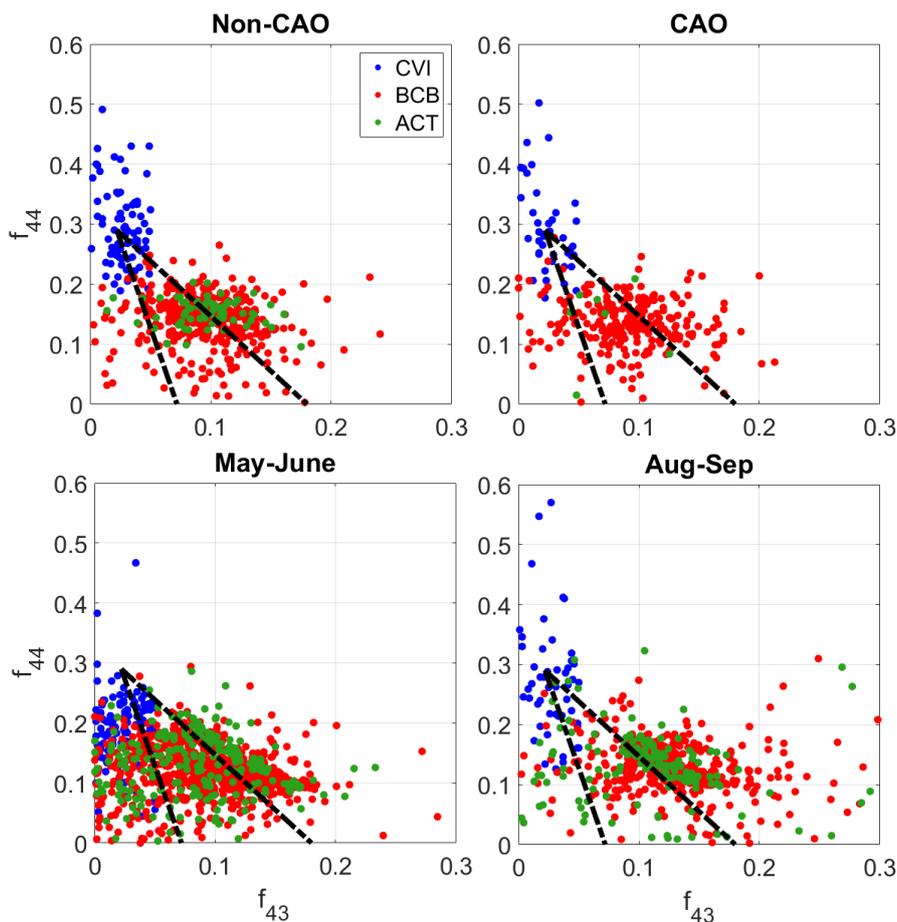
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290 **Figure 5. Scatterplot of the difference in organic mass fraction in cloud legs with CVI data**  
291 **and below cloud base (BCB) legs for an individual cloud ensemble relative to the analogous**  
292 **difference for sulfate mass fraction between the same pair of legs. Markers are colored by**  
293 **the analogous difference in nitrate mass fraction. Panels represent different seasons with**



294 **winter deployments (January-March) separated into cold air outbreak (CAO) and non-CAO**  
295 **days.**

296 A comparison of  $f_{44}$  versus  $f_{43}$  in “triangle plot” format (Ng et al., 2010) shows an important  
297 difference between CVI data and either BCB or ACT data in each season (Figure 6). Ambient  
298 organic aerosol typically converge at the top left of the triangle representative of more atmospheric  
299 aging leading to low volatility oxygenated organic aerosol species. The CVI data are  
300 systematically higher and to the left of the triangle plot in each season. In contrast, the BCB and  
301 ACT data are lower and to the right of the triangle plots without much distinction, suggestive of a  
302 similarly lower level of oxygenation relative to droplet residuals.

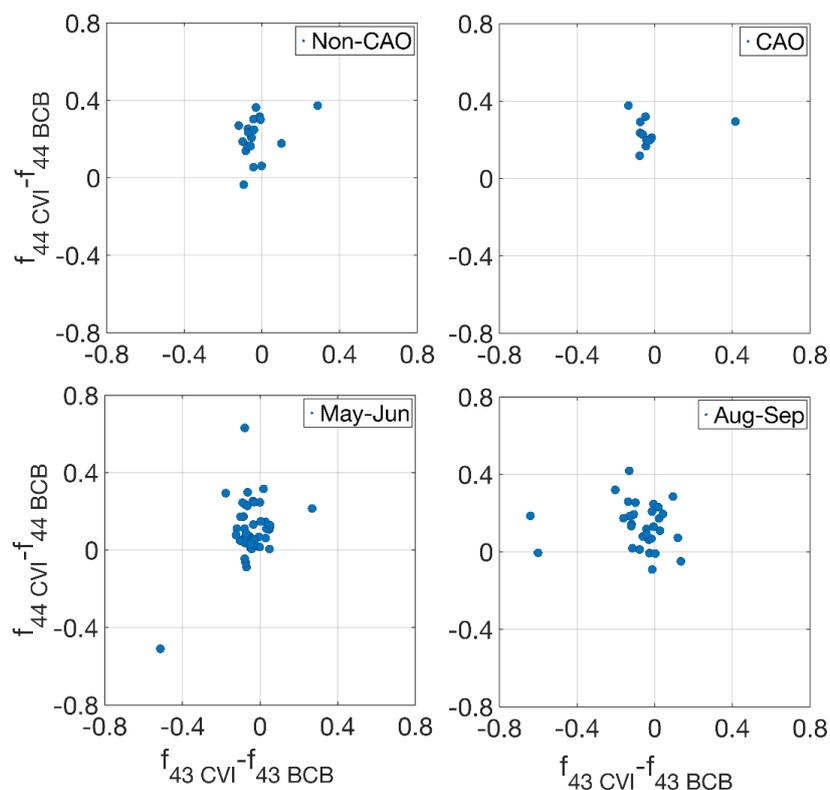


303

304 **Figure 6. Comparison of  $f_{44}$  and  $f_{43}$  for individual BCB and ACT legs out of cloud, in addition**  
305 **to CVI data in cloud legs. Data are separated between time periods coinciding with different**  
306 **ACTIVATE deployments. Superimposed on the plots are triangles corresponding to how**  
307 **former work (Ng et al., 2010) compared these ratios. Points with organic mass concentration**  
308 **less than  $0.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  were omitted from this analysis.**



309 The CVI droplet residuals are more oxidized because of some combination of aqueous  
310 processing effects to yield more oxidized organic species, or because CCN with higher  $f_{44}$   
311 into droplets. To probe more into which of the two aforementioned processes leads to the cluster  
312 of CVI points at the top left of the triangle plots, we next examine (analogous to Figure 5)  
313 scatterplots of  $f_{44, CVI} - f_{44, BCB}$  versus  $f_{43, CVI} - f_{43, BCB}$ , where data are compared between the pair of  
314 cloud and BCB legs closest to one another in individual cloud ensembles (Figure 7). If there was  
315 no difference in organic composition between a pair of legs, a marker representing that pair would  
316 be at the origin. Aqueous processing is presumed to result in a positive (negative) value on the y  
317 (x) axis. Each season consistently exhibits points positioned to the top left of the origin suggestive  
318 of aqueous processing leading to the enhanced oxygenation of the organic fraction in droplet  
319 residuals relative to BCB legs. Note that this analysis omitted consideration of ACT legs as the  
320 predominant source of droplets is from activation of sub-cloud aerosol particles.



321  
322 **Figure 7. Scatterplot of the difference in  $f_{44}$  in cloud legs with CVI data and below cloud base**  
323 **(BCB) legs for an individual cloud ensemble relative to the analogous difference for  $f_{43}$ .**  
324 **Panels represent different seasons with winter deployments (January-March) separated into**  
325 **cold air outbreak (CAO) and non-CAO days.**

326



327 A brief discussion on possible artifacts is warranted including processes occurring in the  
328 CVI inlet. First, we note that 23% of BCB/CVI pairs of data points (25 out of 110) exhibited higher  
329 organic mass fraction in the BCB leg relative to droplet residuals (Figure S6), demonstrating that  
330 the null case exists without an organic enhancement downstream of the CVI. The CVI inlet was  
331 designed with both stainless steel and aluminum yielding negligible organic contamination  
332 (Shingler et al., 2012). Also, the heated counterflow in the CVI reduces positive artifacts from  
333 volatile gaseous species partitioning into sampled droplets such as with volatile organic  
334 compounds (VOCs) to form organics or with nitric acid to form nitrate (Prabhakar et al., 2014); in  
335 contrast, the heated counterflow would presumably evaporate some fraction of the existing nitrate  
336 and organics in the CCN that activated into droplets unlike sulfate which is not volatile. Inlets  
337 including the CVI can be prone to droplet shatter such as with large drizzle drops ( $> 100 \mu\text{m}$ )  
338 (Twohy et al., 2013), although drizzle was not always frequent and the particulate artifacts  
339 generated would still be representative of droplet residuals. It seems implausible that such drop  
340 shatter would lead to an organic enrichment especially as this is observed across the entire study  
341 region.

342 It is unclear why neither the BCB or ACT legs exhibit a composition profile matching the  
343 droplet residuals since ultimately the droplet residual particles will evaporate outside of cloud and  
344 return to the aerosol phase. Although difficult to prove with this dataset, a plausible explanation is  
345 that the BCB and ACT particles have the added influence of interstitial particles in clouds that did  
346 not activate into droplets. More research is needed to determine how repeatable such results are  
347 for other regions, with simultaneous measurements of interstitial particles helpful to understand  
348 why the droplet residual chemistry deviates from both the BCB and ACT data.

349

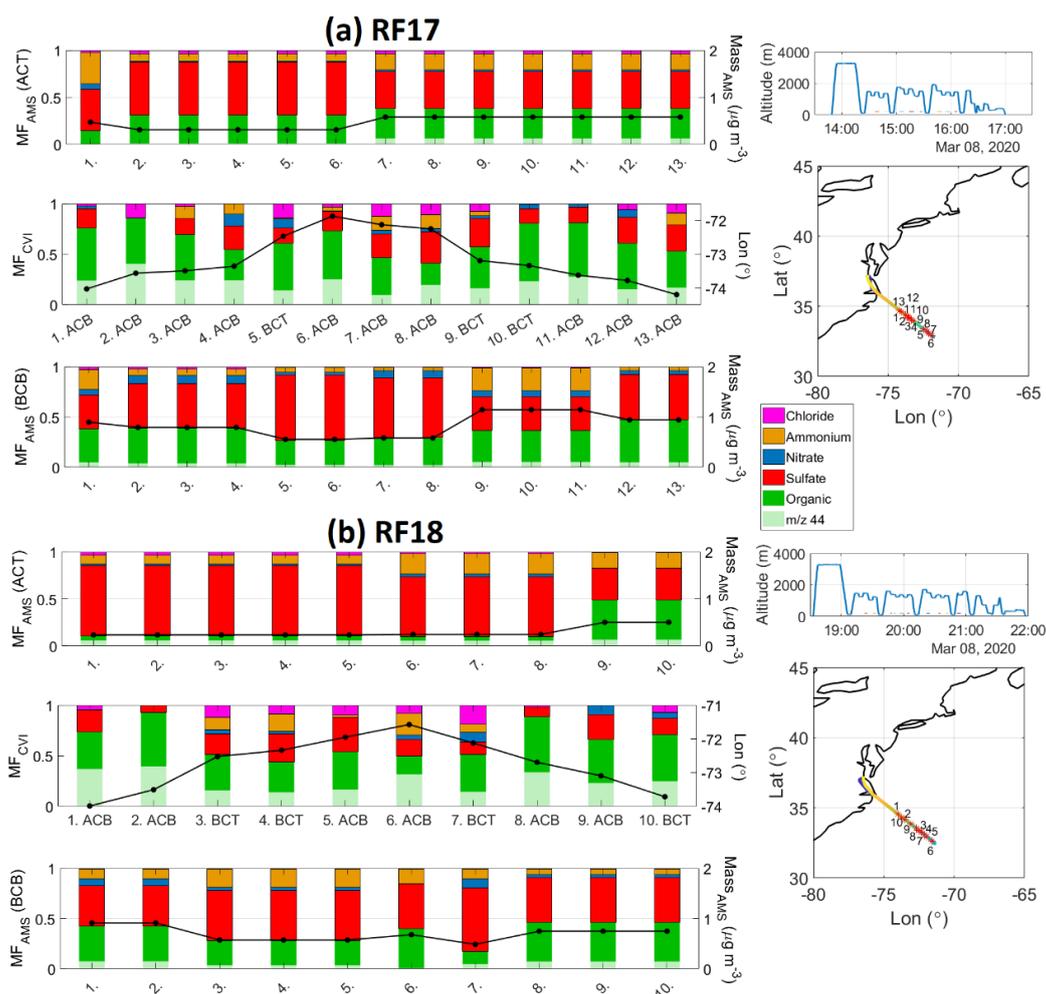
### 350 **3.3 Cold Air Outbreak Case Studies**

351 Owing to interest in the winter season having the strongest aerosol-cloud interactions  
352 (Dadashazar et al., 2021a; Painemal et al., 2021), here we examine case study research flights  
353 (RFs) during CAOs. Six CAO case study flights are used to understand the compositional  
354 characteristics below, inside, and above clouds. Two flights are profiled here and the other four  
355 are shown in Figures S7 (RFs 5-6 on 22 February 2020) and S8 (RFs 10-11 on 28 February 2020).

356 A representative day was 8 March 2020, which included two consecutive flights (RFs 17  
357 and 18) based out of Hampton, Virginia profiling aerosol and cloud properties in CAO conditions.  
358 These flights were investigated in past work showing enhanced new particle formation in ACT  
359 legs (Corral et al., 2022) and that entrainment of free tropospheric air dilutes MBL CCN  
360 concentrations (Tornow et al., 2022). Figure 8 shows the AMS composition profile on the out-  
361 and-back flights, which involved flying out to a point and repeating the same path back to the  
362 airfield. Stacked on top of each other in Figure 8 are the corresponding legs within individual cloud  
363 ensembles including (from top to bottom) ACT, either BCT or ACB legs with CVI data, and BCB.  
364 RF17 in the morning comprised 13 different cloud legs with corresponding BCB and ACT legs.  
365 The BCB and ACT mass fraction profiles were similar with sulfate being most abundant (mass  
366 fractions: 0.34-0.65) followed closely by organics (mass fractions: 0.15-0.42). The  $f_{44}$  fraction of



367 the organics in BCB and ACT legs was quite low (0.00-0.16). The cloud data show a very different  
 368 profile with organics dominating the mass profile (mass fractions: 0.41-0.86) followed usually by  
 369 sulfate (mass fractions: 0.00-0.30). Furthermore, there was a significant jump in  $f_{44}$  in the CVI data  
 370 (0.21-0.48). RF18 later in the day re-traced the same flight path and included 10 sets of matching  
 371 cloud-BCB/ACT legs showing again a similar jump in both organic mass fraction and  $f_{44}$  in droplet  
 372 residuals. In the second flight there was more variability in the BCB and ACT pairs, with higher  
 373 sulfate mass fractions (0.34-0.75) in the ACT legs throughout most of the flight excluding the last  
 374 two sets of legs. The total AMS mass concentrations were slightly higher in the BCB legs (0.49-  
 375 0.91  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) relative to ACT legs (0.24-0.50  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ). The other four flights shown in Figures S7-  
 376 S8 exhibit the same general results as those shown for 8 March with higher organic mass fractions  
 377 and  $f_{44}$  in the cloud legs.



378

379 **Figure 8. Summary of AMS composition in adjacent BCB, cloud, and ACT legs during back-**  
 380 **to-back flights (Research Flights 17 and 18) in cold air outbreak conditions on 8 March 2020.**



381 **Shown in the bar charts are the mass fractions of AMS components in addition to either total**  
382 **AMS mass (for ACT and BCB legs; such data are not robust for CVI legs due to how the**  
383 **CVI operates) or longitude on the right y-axis. Note that some BCB and ACT legs are**  
384 **repeated for different cloud legs as they represent the closest leg to an individual cloud leg.**  
385 **On the far right are flight altitude during the flight along with the spatial map with numbers**  
386 **corresponding to the leg set numbers in the bar charts.**

387

#### 388 4. Discussion

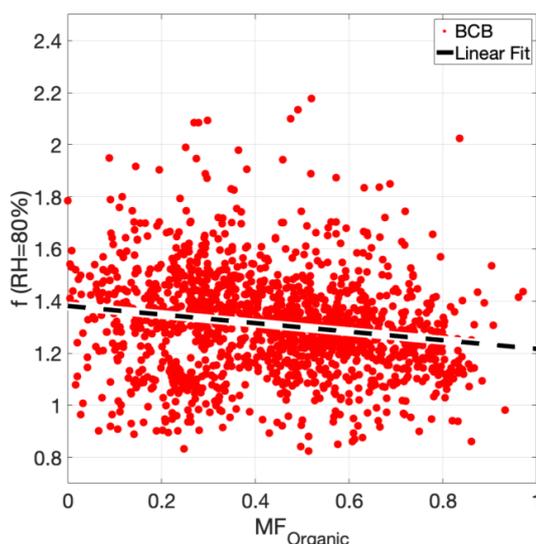
389 Our results represent unique atmospheric data that are scarce in the literature owing to the  
390 difficulty of obtaining aerosol chemical data below, in, and above cloud in close spatiotemporal  
391 proximity across many flights in different times of the year. Section S1 provides implications of  
392 the results in terms of differences with MERRA-2 speciated AOD. Although we cannot  
393 unambiguously prove it with the dataset, the results suggest processes in cloud changed the  
394 composition rather than preferential activation of CCN with enhanced values of the organic:sulfate  
395 ratio and  $f_{44}$ . That the droplet residuals shift to a more organic-rich signature with more oxygenated  
396 organics has implications for the aerosol particle properties remaining after droplet evaporation as  
397 they shift in composition and size. Having more organics relative to sulfate may reduce  
398 hygroscopicity at high RHs (e.g., Hersey et al., 2009), but a compensating factor could be that the  
399 organics are more oxygenated, which would increase the hygroscopicity of the organic fraction  
400 itself.

401 While a measurement of hygroscopicity of the droplet residuals was not available, Figure  
402 9 shows an inverse relationship between  $f(\text{RH})$  and organic mass fraction across all the BCB legs  
403 in ACTIVATE deployments 1-4, which is similar to what has been observed over the continental  
404 U.S. (Shingler et al., 2016); using the linear best fit line shows that the representative  $f(\text{RH})$  value  
405 for pure organic aerosol (i.e., organic mass fraction of 1.0) was 1.22 in contrast with 0.92 over the  
406 continental United States (Shingler et al., 2016). The  $f(\text{RH})$  value for pure inorganic aerosol (i.e.,  
407 organic mass fraction of 0.0) was 1.39. Results of Figure 9 along with previous discussion suggests  
408 that aerosol interaction with clouds decreases particle hygroscopicity at an RH of 80% although  
409 future work will look deeper into aerosol hygroscopic properties over the ACTIVATE region. This  
410 is especially relevant as regulatory activities have reduced sulfate levels over the eastern U.S. in  
411 recent decades promoting higher relative amounts of organics (Bates et al., 2005; Hand et al.,  
412 2012) with downwind impacts on the northwest Atlantic due to offshore flow (Keene et al., 2014;  
413 Aldhaif et al., 2021; Dadashazar et al., 2021b).

414 Past studies provide a consistent story backing up the findings of this work. Coggon et al.  
415 (2012) showed increased AMS organic:sulfate ratios with altitude in the marine boundary layer  
416 over the northeast Pacific Ocean coincident with increased liquid water content, which was  
417 attributed to aqueous processing effects to generate more organics relative to sulfate; this was also  
418 suggested by past work in that region with a particle-into-liquid sampler (Sorooshian et al., 2007).  
419 Coggon et al. (2012) showed that organics and sulfate were typically the most abundant AMS  
420 species both below cloud and in droplet residuals with comparable mass fractions and no consistent  
421 trend of either one dominating the droplet residual composition. Past measurements off the  
422 California coast and over Texas revealed enhanced  $f_{44}$  values in droplet residuals relative to below  
423 and above cloud data and also relative to interstitial aerosol particles in cloud (Sorooshian et al.,  
424 2010). That study showed similarly enhanced values of other ratios in droplet residuals indicative



425 of more oxygenated organics (e.g., PILS oxalate:AMS m/z 44, PILS oxalate:AMS organic). Over  
426 the Texas area, PILS measurements of oxalate relative to AMS sulfate and organic revealed  
427 significant enhancements (factors up to 4 and 13, respectively) downstream a CVI relative to  
428 cloud-free conditions at similar altitudes (Wonaschuetz et al., 2012); furthermore they showed that  
429 organic mass fractions increased together with oxalate:organic and oxalate:sulfate ratios as a  
430 function of residual cloud fraction, which was a metric representing “cloud processing history” of  
431 an air parcel in shallow cumulus cloud fields. CVI-AMS data from a surface site studying warm  
432 tropospheric clouds on Mt. Åreskutan in central Sweden in July 2003 showed that organics and  
433 nitrate activated with higher ease than sulfate (Drewnick et al., 2007); even though our results  
434 suggest the droplet residual changes in composition are largely driven by aqueous processing, it is  
435 relevant that organics have been shown in at least another region to activate more easily than  
436 sulfate.



437

438 **Figure 9. Relationship between  $f(\text{RH})$  and organic mass fraction for BCB legs during**  
439 **ACTIVATE deployments 1-4. Markers are based on  $f(\text{RH})$  data synched to the time**  
440 **resolution of the AMS data. The  $f(\text{RH})$  values from the linear fit at a  $\text{MF}_{\text{organic}}$  value of 0.0**  
441 **1.0 are 1.39 and 1.22, respectively.**

442

## 443 5. Conclusion

444 A large airborne dataset collected over the northwest Atlantic as part of the NASA  
445 ACTIVATE mission show a distinctly different chemical signature in cloud droplet residuals  
446 (lower sulfate mass fraction, higher organic mass fraction, and higher  $f_{44}$ ) relative to particles  
447 below and above cloud. Detailed analysis suggests this shift in composition is driven more by in-  
448 cloud aqueous processing rather than preferential activation of CCN with such chemical  
449 characteristics. Several case study flights during cold air outbreak conditions are profiled showing  
450 the aforementioned compositional changes in droplet residuals. More work is needed to both



451 validate whether aqueous processing is the primary reason for the composition changes and to  
452 determine if these results apply to other regions.

453           The results of this study are critical in motivating increased attention to both in-cloud  
454 formation of oxygenated organics and the composition of particles activating into droplets over  
455 the northwest Atlantic. Furthermore, this work advances knowledge of aerosol-cloud interactions  
456 in this region as datasets often relied on in the absence of airborne data such as reanalysis data  
457 suggest a different story where sulfate is more enhanced than organics year-round (in contrast to  
458 the airborne data) (e.g., Braun et al., 2021). Cloud processing is a source for organics that cannot  
459 be ignored, especially in light of the increasing relative amount of species in aerosol particles other  
460 than sulfate due to regulatory activities over the U.S. (Hand et al., 2012).



461 *Data Availability.*

462 ACTIVATE Airborne Data:  
463 [https://doi.org/10.5067/ASDC/ACTIVATE\\_Aerosol\\_AircraftInSitu\\_Falcon\\_Data\\_1](https://doi.org/10.5067/ASDC/ACTIVATE_Aerosol_AircraftInSitu_Falcon_Data_1)  
464 (NASA/LARC/SD/ASDC, 2020a),  
465 [https://doi.org/10.5067/ASDC/ACTIVATE\\_Cloud\\_AircraftInSitu\\_Falcon\\_Data\\_1](https://doi.org/10.5067/ASDC/ACTIVATE_Cloud_AircraftInSitu_Falcon_Data_1)  
466 (NASA/LARC/SD/ASDC, 2020b), and  
467 [https://doi.org/10.5067/ASDC/ACTIVATE\\_MetNav\\_AircraftInSitu\\_Falcon\\_Data\\_1](https://doi.org/10.5067/ASDC/ACTIVATE_MetNav_AircraftInSitu_Falcon_Data_1)  
468 (NASA/LARC/SD/ASDC, 2020c).

469 *Author contributions.* HD conducted the analysis. AS and HD prepared the manuscript. All authors  
470 contributed by providing input and/or participating in airborne data collection.

471 *Competing interests.* The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

472 *Acknowledgments.* The work was funded by NASA grant 80NSSC19K0442 in support of  
473 ACTIVATE, a NASA Earth Venture Suborbital-3 (EVS-3) investigation funded by NASA's Earth  
474 Science Division and managed through the Earth System Science Pathfinder Program Office. CV  
475 and SK thank funding by the DFG CRC 301 TP Change and by HGF W2W3-060. We  
476 acknowledge use of imagery from the NASA Worldview application  
477 (<https://worldview.earthdata.nasa.gov/>), part of the NASA Earth Observing System Data and  
478 Information System. We thank pilots and aircraft maintenance personnel of NASA Langley  
479 Research Services Directorate for successful execution of ACTIVATE flights.

480

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