

1 **A Remote Sensing Algorithm for the Quantifying Vertically-Resolved Cloud**
2 **Condensation Nuclei Number Concentrations from Spaceborne Lidar**
3 **Measurements**

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17

18 **Abstract.** Cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) are mediators of aerosol-cloud interactions (ACI),
19 contributing to the largest uncertainties in the understandings of global climate change. We present
20 a novel remote sensing-based algorithm that quantifies the vertically-resolved CCN number
21 concentrations (N_{CCN}) using aerosol optical properties measured by a multiwavelength lidar. The
22 algorithm considers five distinct aerosol subtypes with bimodal size distributions. The inversion
23 used the look-up tables developed in this study, based on the observations from the Aerosol
24 Robotic Network to efficiently retrieve optimal particle size distributions from lidar
25 measurements. The method derives dry aerosol optical properties by implementing hygroscopic
26 enhancement factors to lidar measurements. The retrieved optically equivalent particle size
27 distributions and aerosol type dependent particle composition are utilized to calculate critical
28 diameter using the κ -Köhler theory and N_{CCN} at six supersaturations ranging from 0.07% to 1.0%.
29 Sensitivity analyses indicate that uncertainties in extinction coefficients and relative humidity
30 greatly influence the retrieval error in N_{CCN} . The potential of this algorithm is further evaluated by
31 retrieving N_{CCN} using airborne lidar from the NASA ORACLES campaign and validated against
32 simultaneous measurements from the CCN counter. The independent validation with robust
33 correlation demonstrates promising results. Furthermore, the N_{CCN} has been retrieved for the first
34 time using a proposed algorithm from spaceborne lidar - Cloud-Aerosol Lidar with Orthogonal
35 Polarization (CALIOP) - measurements. The application of this new capability demonstrates the
36 potential for constructing a 3D CCN climatology at a global scale, which help to better quantify
37 ACI effects and thus reduce the uncertainty in aerosol climate forcing.

38 1 Introduction

39 The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) report states that radiative forcing caused
40 by aerosol-cloud interactions (ACI), dominates the largest uncertainty, and remains the least well-
41 understood anthropogenic contribution to climate change (IPCC AR5, 2013). The uncertainty
42 mainly stems from the complicated processes of how aerosols impact the global cloud system.
43 Atmospheric aerosols allow for water vapor condensation under certain supersaturation (SS)
44 conditions and subsequently evolve into cloud droplets by serving as cloud condensation nuclei
45 (CCN). Anthropogenic emissions are a major source of CCN, facilitating the formation of cloud
46 droplets, thereby altering cloud properties, precipitation patterns, and hence the climate forcing
47 (Carslaw et al., 2010; Paasonen et al., 2013). Consequently, reducing the uncertainty associated
48 with ACI is crucial for increasing our confidence in predictions of global and regional climate
49 models (IPCC, 2014). The fundamental parameter for understanding the aerosol-cloud interaction
50 is the CCN concentrations (Rosenfeld et al., 2014). Determining CCN number concentration
51 (N_{CCN}) is the basis for analyses of ACI (Seinfeld et al., 2016). Large uncertainties in their
52 magnitude and variability at a global scale are one of the main factors for the low level of scientific
53 understanding of ACI effects. Therefore, knowledge of the global abundance of aerosols capable
54 of serving as CCN is fundamental to advancing our understanding of ACI (Fan et al., 2016).

55 Tackling the challenges in climate change, as identified by the IPCC, requires that CCN properties
56 be measured globally. Missing such a fundamental quantity has greatly hindered our ability to
57 accurately quantify the effects of anthropogenic aerosols on cloud properties (Rosenfeld et al.,
58 2014). Ground-based instruments can observe N_{CCN} at various SS, but they only provide sparse
59 and localized information. Besides limited coverage, near-surface CCN properties could differ
60 significantly from CCN properties near the cloud base due to vertical aerosol inhomogeneities,
61 particularly under stable atmospheric boundary conditions. Airborne observations can provide
62 very useful CCN measurements near cloud base but are expensive to collect and are limited to a
63 few field experiments, and having limited spatial-temporal coverage (Feingold et al., 1998; Li,
64 Liu, et al., 2015; Li, Yin, et al., 2015).

65 Overall, observations of CCN are spatiotemporally sparse, lack the vertical dimension, and provide
66 insufficient constraints on their global distribution. ACI studies often use satellite retrievals to take
67 advantage of their global coverage, but satellites have been unable to measure the CCN.
68 Nevertheless, the aerosol optical parameters such as aerosol optical depth (AOD) and aerosol index
69 (AI) are commonly used as proxies for CCN in previous studies (Gryspeerd & Stier, 2012; Patel
70 et al., 2017, 2019; Patel & Kumar, 2016; Quaas et al., 2008, 2009; Rosenfeld, 2008). However, all
71 these proxies are crude tools and suffer from various issues such as aerosol swelling, lack of
72 vertical information, cloud contamination, uncertainty in size distribution and solubility, and more
73 (Rosenfeld et al., 2016). The aforementioned studies based on passive satellite remote sensing
74 measurements, such as AOD and AI have limitations in several areas for ACI studies.

75 Active remote sensing technologies such as lidar have the ability to improve the precision and
76 range of conditions under which particle concentrations and their ability to act as CCN can be
77 retrieved. A significant body of prior studies has assessed the relationship between aerosol optical

78 properties and CCN based on local in situ data offered by lidar and radar. Feingold et al., (1998)
79 developed a technique to derive CCN from the retrieved cloud droplet concentration, vertical
80 velocity, and lidar backscatter from ground-based radar, lidar, and radiometer. Ghan et al., (2006)
81 and Ghan & Collins, (2004) evaluated the relationship between aerosol extinction from airborne
82 lidar and N_{CCN} from near-surface measurements and devised a technique for estimating CCN at a
83 cloud base. However, their techniques rely on the assumption that the physiochemical
84 characteristics of aerosols at the surface represent the vertical column. Thus, their retrievals may
85 be subject to large uncertainties due to vertical inhomogeneity in particle characteristics. Previous
86 work by Clarke & Kapustin, (2010); Kapustin et al., (2006); Liu & Li, (2014); Shinozuka et al.,
87 (2015) demonstrated a strong correlation between extinction coefficients and N_{CCN} instead of
88 vertically integrated AOD or AI using airborne and in situ observations. Stier, (2016) provided a
89 global assessment of the link between aerosol radiative properties and CCN using a global aerosol-
90 climate model (ECHAM-HAM) and suggested that vertically integrated aerosol radiative
91 properties are of limited suitability as a proxy for global surface CCN.

92 Both Mamouri and Ansmann, (2016) and Choudhury and Tesche, (2022) examine the potential of
93 single wavelength lidar observations to retrieve CCN number concentrations for different aerosol
94 types. The relationships between particle extinction coefficients and number concentrations of
95 particles with a dry radius larger than 50 nm (for non-dust) and 100 nm (for dust) were
96 parameterized based on multiyear AERONET observations for different aerosol types. However,
97 the measurements from the single wavelength lidar also lack sufficient information to quantify
98 particle size distribution, particle number concentration or aerosol type, resulting in large
99 uncertainty in N_{CCN} retrieval (Burton et al., 2012; Tan et al., 2019). However, few recent studies
100 (Lv et al., 2018; Tan et al., 2019) have shown efforts to retrieve N_{CCN} based on the advanced
101 capability of multiwavelength lidar measurements, but they have been limited to ground-based
102 observations only. Rosenfeld et al., (2016) have attempted a new approach to retrieve satellite
103 based N_{CCN} using passive satellite observations. All these studies taken together provide a sound
104 foundation of CCN-relevant aerosol properties, but most of them do not refer to CCN
105 concentrations themselves, and the ones who do, do not give a global coverage nor a vertically
106 resolved picture. Consequently, no reliable global observational data set of CCN exists, and the
107 ability to routinely measure vertically resolved CCN to study ACI effectively is still lacking
108 (Burkart et al., 2011).

109 This study introduces ECLiAP (*Estimation of CCN using Lidar measured Aerosol optical*
110 *Properties*), a comprehensive remote sensing algorithm designed to estimate the concentration of
111 cloud condensation nuclei (N_{CCN}) using multiwavelength spaceborne lidar measurements.

112 This paper is structured as follows: The introductory section discusses the importance and
113 motivation behind NCCN estimation. Section 2 describes the LUT-based approach utilized for
114 NCCN estimation, focusing specifically on satellite observations. Section 3 encompasses
115 numerical simulations, sensitivity analysis, extensive validation efforts, and an observational case
116 study. Finally, Section 4 comprehensively discusses the results and their broader implications.

117

118 2 Dataset

119 2.1 NASA Observations of Aerosols above Clouds and their Interactions (ORACLES)

120 The NASA Observations of Aerosols above Clouds and their Interactions (ORACLES)
121 campaign, conducted between 2016 and 2018 over the southeast Atlantic (SEA) (Redemann et al.,
122 2021), provided valuable insights into a crucial region characterized by the interaction of biomass
123 burning emissions with marine stratocumulus clouds specifically during July to October. These
124 clouds wield significant influence over global climate; however, climate models often
125 inadequately represent them due to their abundance and brightness (Bony & Dufresne, 2005; Nam
126 et al., 2012). Furthermore, the challenges of non-polarimetric passive remote sensing of aerosols
127 in the presence of low stratocumulus clouds (Chang et al., 2021; Coddington et al., 2010)
128 underscore the criticality of accurately predicting Cloud Condensation Nuclei (CCN)
129 concentrations and refining model parameterization for the SEA region. To address the knowledge
130 gaps, the ORACLES campaign focused on comprehensive observations of aerosol and cloud
131 properties, employing a combination of remote sensing and in situ instruments aboard the NASA
132 P-3 (operational from 2016 to 2018) and ER2 (operational in 2016) aircraft. The ORACLES data
133 includes in-situ measurements of N_{CCN} from the CCN counter, as well as lidar measurements
134 obtained through NASA Langley Research Center’s high-spectral resolution lidar (HSRL-2). We
135 seized this opportunity to conduct a validation exercise based on the accessible data.

136

137 2.1.1 High-Spectral Resolution Lidar (HSRL)-2

138 The NASA Langley Research Center HSRL-2 measures aerosol backscatter and depolarization at
139 three wavelengths (355 nm, 532 nm, and 1064 nm) and aerosol extinction at 355 nm and 532 nm
140 using the HSRL technique (Burton et al., 2018; Shipley et al., 1983). At 1064 nm, extinction is
141 derived from the product of aerosol backscatter at 1064 nm and an inferred lidar ratio at 1064 nm.
142 The HSRL-2 measurement technique differentiates between aerosol and molecular returns by
143 analyzing the spectral distribution of the return signal. Consequently, this enables the independent
144 determination of aerosol backscatter and extinction coefficients, unlike traditional elastic
145 backscatter lidar retrievals that rely on a lidar ratio assumption (Hair et al., 2008). The addition of
146 the 355 nm channel in HSRL-2 enhances sensitivity to smaller particles, including CCN, which
147 are crucial in aerosol-cloud interactions (Burton et al., 2018). The instrument achieves horizontal
148 and vertical resolutions of approximately 2 km and 15 m, respectively, for aerosol backscatter and
149 depolarization. For aerosol extinction coefficients, horizontal and vertical resolutions are
150 approximately 12 km and 300 m, respectively, with interpolation to match the finer resolutions of
151 backscatter and depolarization. In terms of temporal resolution, aerosol backscatter and extinction
152 coefficients are available at approximately 10 s and 60 s intervals, respectively. The uncertainty in
153 lidar observables, influenced by factors like contrast ratio and aerosol loading, can be within 5%
154 under certain conditions (Burton et al., 2018). This manuscript delves the ability of ECLiAP by
155 leveraging the advanced capabilities of HSRL-2, in accurately deriving N_{CCN} in the real-world
156 atmospheric conditions.

157 2.1.2 CCN counter

158 We utilize the Georgia Institute of Technology (GIT) Droplet Measurement Technologies (DMT)
159 CCN counter (CCN-100) as another primary instrument and data source. The CCN-100 facilitates
160 in situ measurements of CCN concentration across a range of water vapor supersaturation levels
161 (S), specifically between 0.1% and 0.4% (Kacarab et al., 2020; Redemann et al., 2021). The CCN-
162 100 is ingeniously designed as a continuous-flow streamwise thermal-gradient chamber
163 (CFSTGC) following the framework proposed by Roberts & Nenes, (2005). In this configuration,
164 a cylindrical flow chamber generates quasi-uniform supersaturation at its centerline through
165 continuous heat and water vapor transport from the wetted walls, subject to a temperature gradient.
166 The difference in heat and water vapor diffusivity in the radial direction ensures the generation of
167 supersaturation at varying levels depending on the flow rate and temperature gradient. An
168 advantage of the continuous-flow system is its rapid sampling capabilities, achieving a frequency
169 of approximately 1 Hz (Roberts & Nenes, 2005). Such high frequency is crucial for effectively
170 capturing rapidly changing environments, typical of airborne sampling scenarios. Aerosols that
171 activate into droplets with a radius greater than $0.5 \mu\text{m}$ are counted as CCN at the end of the growth
172 chamber. The horizontal resolution of in situ observations during the ORACLES campaign is
173 contingent upon aircraft speed. For accuracy, the uncertainty associated with CCN number
174 concentration is approximately $\pm 10\%$ at high signal-to-noise ratio (S/N), while the supersaturation
175 uncertainty is around $\pm 0.04\%$ (Rose et al., 2008). These precision values assure the reliability of
176 the CCN measurements, ensuring the robustness of the dataset used to validate the ECLiAP
177 derived N_{CCN} in our investigation.

178

179 2.2 Cloud-Aerosol Lidar and Infrared Pathfinder Satellite Observations (CALIPSO)

180 The CALIOP (Cloud-Aerosol Lidar with Orthogonal Polarization) on the CALIPSO satellite, the
181 first spaceborne polarization lidar, was launched in April 2006 (Winker et al., 2007). CALIPSO is
182 in 705 km sun-synchronous polar orbit, and the orbit is controlled to repeat the same ground track
183 every 16 days with cross-track errors of less than ± 10 km. CALIOP acquires high-resolution
184 (vertical and horizontal at 30 and 333 m below 8.2 km, and 60 and 1000 m between 8.2 and 20.2
185 km) profiles of total attenuated backscatter by aerosols and clouds at 532 and 1064 nm during both
186 day and night. Spatial averaging over different scale is typically performed to improve the signal-
187 to-noise ratio for reliable retrievals. For our study, we used the CALIPSO version 4.20 level 2
188 aerosol profile product (vertical and horizontal resolution: $60 \text{ m} \times 5 \text{ km}$, temporal resolution: 5.92
189 s). The CALIOP first classified the aerosol and cloud layers using Cloud-Aerosol Discrimination
190 (CAD) score algorithm (Liu et al., 2009). Further, the aerosol layers categorize into the subsequent
191 aerosol types (Omar et al., 2009). The hybrid extinction retrieval algorithms is used to retrieve the
192 aerosol extinction, using the assumed lidar ratios appropriate for each aerosol type (Young &
193 Vaughan, 2009) reported in the CALIPSO level-2 5 km aerosol profile product (Vaughan et al.,
194 2017). The determination of lidar ratio contributes the major uncertainty in the retrieval of
195 CALIOP aerosol extinction, and the misclassification of aerosol type is another source of
196 uncertainty (Yu et al., 2010). We incorporate the profiles of aerosol extinction coefficient,

197 backscatter coefficient, and particle depolarization ratio, along with aerosol subtype information
198 from CALIOP, into the ECLiAP for the N_{CCN} retrieval. Additionally, we utilize relative humidity
199 profiles obtained from the Global Modelling and Assimilation Office Data Assimilation System
200 (Molod et al., 2015), which are included in the CALIPSO data product. We employed CALIOP
201 data to assess the N_{CCN} retrieval capability of ECLiAP and also conducted a case study.

202

203 **3 Methodology**

204 **3.1 Construction of Lookup Tables**

205 The inversion solution using the combination of simultaneous measurements of backscatters at
206 three wavelengths and extinction at two wavelengths, also called $3\beta+2\alpha$, using lidar has been
207 gaining prominence for aerosol microphysical (effective radius, total number, volume
208 concentration, refractive index) retrieval (Burton et al., 2016; Müller et al., 1999, 2005, 2016;
209 Veselovskii et al., 2002, 2004, 2012). Several fundamental aspects of the mathematical problem
210 must be solved during the retrieval from multiwavelength lidar. The most important aspect is that
211 the inversion solution is not unique. The non-uniqueness of an inversion solution in the advanced
212 $3\beta+2\alpha$ technique is the primary source of the retrieval challenges (Chemyakin et al., 2016).
213 Additionally, retrieving six size parameters (number concentrations, effective radius, and
214 geometric standard deviation for fine and coarse mode particles) for a bimodal particle size
215 distribution (PSD) from five known quantities (β_{355} , β_{532} , β_{1064} , α_{355} , α_{532}) is still an ill-posed
216 inversion problem. Besides, the existing spaceborne lidar instrument (CALIOP onboard
217 CALIPSO) provides the measurements at only two wavelengths (532 nm & 1064 nm). Considering
218 all these constraints and partially compensating for the non-uniqueness problem, we employed the
219 LUT approach with a fine step of bimodal particle size distributions (PSDs) to derive aerosol size
220 parameters. The parameterization of bimodal lognormal PSD is described in section 2.1.1. The
221 fundamental design of the LUTs framework for lidar measurements builds to test the aerosol
222 optical properties that we target for precise information.

223 In the present study, the LUTs are designed using the $3\beta+3\alpha$ (β_{355} , β_{532} , β_{1064} , α_{355} , α_{532} , α_{1064})
224 technique for the individual aerosol types. An additional input at a longer wavelength improves
225 the retrieval accuracy for coarse mode particles (Lv et al., 2018). These LUTs contain aerosol
226 optical properties such as backscatter coefficients at 355, 532, and 1064 nm (β_{355} , β_{532} , β_{1064}) and
227 extinction coefficients at 355, 532, and 1064 nm (α_{355} , α_{532} , α_{1064}), along with size parameters
228 including number concentration, effective radius and geometric standard deviation for fine and
229 coarse mode particles (N_{ff} , r_f , σ_f , N_{fc} , r_c , σ_c). Primarily, the LUTs are generated for the five distinct
230 aerosol subtypes: marine, dust, polluted continental, clean continental, and smoke aerosols (as
231 shown in Figure 1). This study considers dust particles to be spheroid, while other aerosol types to
232 be spheres. The particle optical properties are computed using the well-known Mie scattering
233 theory (Bohren & Huffman, 1998) for spherical particles, which is a numerically accurate approach
234 over a wide range of particle sizes. Meanwhile, the T-Matrix method (Mishchenko & Travis, 1998)

235 is adopted for the spheroids, which is numerically precise for the limited particle sizes.
 236 Consequently, the improved geometric optics method (IGOM; Bi et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2007)
 237 is applied to the larger spheroids not covered by the T-matrix method. The axis ratio distribution
 238 for spheroids, ranging from ~ 0.3 (flattened spheroids) to ~ 3.0 (elongated spheroids) is taken from
 239 Dubovik et al., (2006). [The transition from the TMM to IGOM is determined by specific size](#)
 240 [parameters and is dependent on the particle shape and refractive index. However, the present study](#)
 241 [considers the mean complex refractive index, the transition from TMM to IGOM depends on the](#)
 242 [particle shape.](#) PSD and mean complex refractive index were used as the input parameters for the
 243 computations of aerosol optical properties. The parameter ranges for the bimodal size distribution
 244 and mean complex refractive index of five aerosol subtypes are presented in Table 1 which are
 245 used to construct the respective look-up tables (LUTs). These parameter values were adopted from
 246 Dubovik, (2002); Torres et al., (2017) and Veselovskii et al., (2004), who used measurements from
 247 sun-sky radiometers at multiple AEROSOL ROBOTIC NETWORK (AERONET) sites. Torres et al.,
 248 (2017) validated their models against 744 AERONET observations and 165 almucantar
 249 AERONET standard inversions at eight different sites. This approach ensures the robustness and
 250 reliability of our aerosol characterization. The PSDs are given in terms of the total particle number
 251 concentration, effective radius (r), and geometric standard deviation individually for fine and
 252 coarse modes. Considering the sensitivity limitation of lidar measurements, the range of radius for
 253 the PSD is constrained to $0.01\text{-}10\ \mu\text{m}$ with a fixed bin size of 0.002 defined on a logarithmic-
 254 equidistant scale in the calculation. In the process of constructing LUTs, specific intervals for the
 255 parameters σ_f, σ_c, r_f and r_c have been carefully chosen to define the range of particle size
 256 distributions for each aerosol model. These intervals are set at $0.01, 0.01, 0.002$ and $0.01\ \mu\text{m}$,
 257 respectively. These intervals are set as a compromise between accuracy and computation time,
 258 ensuring that the LUTs encompass a comprehensive range of particle size distributions for various
 259 aerosol subtypes found in the real atmosphere. Further details on the parameterization of the
 260 bimodal particle size distribution is discussed in the subsequent section.

261 3.1.1 Lognormal Aerosol Size Distributions

262 An earlier study by Kolmogorov, (1941) mathematically proved that the random process of
 263 sequential particle crushing leads to a lognormal distribution of particle size. In our study, PSDs
 264 have been treated as a bimodal lognormal distribution, as widely used in aerosol remote sensing
 265 studies (Dubovik et al., 2011; Remer et al., 2005; Schuster et al., 2006; Torres et al., 2014).
 266 Although particle size distributions are not always bimodal in each case, their size distributions
 267 can be considered as a combination of fine and coarse modes. This bimodal lognormal size
 268 distribution can be expressed as:

$$\frac{dn(r)}{d \ln(r)} = \sum_{i=f,c} \frac{N_{ti}}{(2\pi)^{1/2} \ln \sigma_i} \exp \left[-\frac{(\ln r - \ln r_i^n)^2}{2(\ln \sigma_i)^2} \right] \quad (1)$$

269 where N_{ti} is the total particle concentration of the i^{th} mode and r_i^n is the median radius for the
 270 aerosol size distribution, with n representing the number concentration distribution. The index $i =$

271 f, c refers to the fine and coarse modes, respectively. The term $\ln \sigma_i$ is the mode width of the i^{th}
 272 mode. This general bimodal lognormal size distribution shape for aerosol is adopted in this study
 273 to improve the accuracy of the CCN retrieval. The sensitivity assessment regarding the response
 274 of CCN to the assumption of bimodal size distributions is presented in section 3.1. For individual
 275 lognormal components, the relationships between the volume and number distribution parameters
 276 representing by the following equations (Hatch & Choate, 1929):

$$r^n = r^v / \exp[3(\ln \sigma)^2] \quad (2)$$

$$V_t = N_t \frac{4\pi}{3} (r^n)^3 \exp \left[\frac{9}{2} (\ln \sigma)^2 \right] \quad (3)$$

277 where, V_t is the particle volume concentration and r^v is the median radius for the aerosol volume
 278 size distribution. As shown in Figure 1 and Table 1, the main difference between the aerosol
 279 subtype is the ratio of the volume concentration of the fine mode to the coarse mode.

280 3.2 Retrieval of CCN Number Concentrations

281 Building upon the methodology proposed by (Lv et al., 2018), we have enhanced and
 282 generalized the approach to enable its application to airborne and spaceborne lidar measurements
 283 for CCN estimation. The core of the algorithm relies on the utilization of look-up tables (LUTs)
 284 that incorporate aerosol size and composition information, facilitating reliable and vertically-
 285 resolved CCN estimation. N_{CCN} values are obtained at six critical supersaturations from 0.07% to
 286 1.0% based on retrieved particle size distributions. Significant improvements have been
 287 implemented within the methodology. Firstly, its applicability has been expanded to accommodate
 288 lidar measurements from diverse platforms. Secondly, the LUTs now include five aerosol types,
 289 ensuring a more comprehensive representation of aerosol characteristics. Thirdly, the methodology
 290 leverages the additional signal of the extinction coefficient at 1064 nm, effectively addressing the
 291 uncertainty associated with the non-uniqueness problem during the inversion process. Fourthly,
 292 including the hygroscopic growth correction in the revised method has led to significant
 293 improvements in the accuracy of CCN estimation, further enhancing the reliability and robustness
 294 of the. Finally, results the extensive analysis has been conducted by including the errors from RH.

295 This section discusses a detailed methodology adopted by ECLiAP to retrieve N_{CCN} from
 296 the given lidar measurements.

297 3.2.1 Overview

298 An optically related N_{CCN} is introduced to bridge the gap between aerosol particle and their
 299 activation capability to serve as a cloud droplet. The ability of particles to act as CCN is mainly
 300 controlled by particle size distribution followed by chemical composition (Dusek et al., 2006; Patel
 301 & Jiang, 2021). However, both factors are significant in specific regions (Mamouri & Ansmann,
 302 2016), 2016). Therefore, N_{CCN} could be quantified with size distribution and compositional

303 information. The key feature of an approach adopted in ECLiAP is to seek the parameters that can
304 provide the size and composition of particles consistent with lidar measurements under dry
305 conditions and use these parameters to estimate N_{CCN} .

306 Figure 2 illustrates a schematic diagram of the method to retrieve N_{CCN} from satellite observations.

307 In the natural environment, the particle hygroscopic properties influence the particle size
308 distribution and their optical properties, especially when it is near a cloud base or under a high
309 moist environment. Therefore, the lidar measured aerosol optical properties under ambient
310 conditions need to be corrected to the dry aerosol optical properties using the hygroscopic
311 enhancement factor. The hygroscopic enhancement factor can be fitted by the parameterization
312 scheme using enhancement of backscatter and extinction coefficients with RH. Particle dry
313 backscatter and extinction can also be inferred from the hygroscopic enhancement factor. An
314 approach to computing hygroscopic enhancement factors and performing hygroscopic correction
315 to obtain dry backscatter and extinction is described in Section 2.2.2. This step is applied to all the
316 $3\beta+3\alpha$ parameters before looking for aerosol size parameters from the LUT. Before applying
317 hygroscopic correction, lidar-measured optical properties, particularly for dust mixtures (polluted
318 dust and dusty marine), are separated into dust and non-dust components using the backscatter
319 coefficients and particle depolarization ratio (Tesche et al., 2009). The methodology to separate
320 the dust mixture is discussed in Appendix A1. The resulting dust and non-dust aerosol optical
321 properties, along with aerosol subtype and relative humidity, is then utilized in the ECLiAP
322 algorithm (as shown in Figure 2) to estimate CCN concentrations. Note that the direct inclusion of
323 internal mixtures in our analysis and LUTs poses complexity and challenges. As a result, our
324 approach primarily centers on studying and analyzing external mixtures of aerosol subtypes.

325 Once the dry aerosol optical properties are derived, an ECLiAP look for the suitable size
326 parameters from the LUTs for the given dry aerosol optical properties and respective aerosol
327 subtype (see section 2.2.3). As mentioned earlier, the ability of particles to act as CCN is mainly
328 controlled by particle size distribution followed by chemical composition. Deriving composition
329 information of particles from the lidar measurements is not yet well-defined. Therefore, in the
330 absence of chemical composition data, mean chemical composition information denoted by a
331 single value of κ , the so-called hygroscopicity parameter, is achievable for estimating N_{CCN} , which
332 describes the relationship between the particle dry diameter and CCN activity. The sensitivity of
333 the estimated N_{CCN} to κ depends strongly on the variability of the shape of the aerosol size
334 distribution (Wang et al., 2018). Therefore, the chemical information becomes less important in
335 estimating N_{CCN} , especially (Patel & Jiang, 2021) Jiang, 2021). Most studies reported that the
336 uncertainty of using the mean value of κ to estimate the N_{CCN} is less than 10% (Jurányi et al., 2010;
337 Wang et al., 2018), which varies with atmospheric conditions. In ECLiAP, the literature values of
338 κ are considered for each aerosol subtype for further retrieval. The κ is assumed to be 0.7 for
339 marine (Andreae & Rosenfeld, 2008), 0.03 for dust (Koehler et al., 2009), 0.27 for polluted
340 continental (Liu et al., 2011), 0.3 for clean continental (Andreae & Rosenfeld, 2008), and 0.1 for
341 smoke aerosols (Petters et al., 2009) for the later computations.

342 Finally, an ECLiAP uses the retrieved optically equivalent size parameters from LUTs and κ value
 343 as composition information for the further computation of critical radius using the κ -Köhler theory
 344 (Petters & Kreidenweis, 2007), and hence the N_{CCN} for the six fixed supersaturations (see section
 345 2.2.4). For the dust mixture, N_{CCN} derived separately both for dust and non-dust are added lastly.

346 3.2.2 *Separation of optical properties for dust mixture*

347 We have adopted the methodology by Tesche et al., (2009) to separate the dust and non-
 348 dust extinction coefficients in the dust mixtures (polluted dust and dusty marine) using particle
 349 backscatter coefficients and particle depolarization ratio. The optical properties

$$\beta_d = \beta_p \frac{(\delta_p - \delta_2)(1 + \delta_1)}{(\delta_1 - \delta_2)(1 + \delta_p)} \quad (A1.1)$$

350 This study incorporates wavelength-dependent depolarization ratios δ_1 and δ_2 to distinguish the
 351 dust and non-dust aerosol components. The reported particle depolarization ratio from various
 352 campaigns is listed in the Table S1. In this study, mean values of δ_1 (0.24, 0.31 and 0.06) and δ_2
 353 (0.03, 0.05, and 0.02) at 355, 532 and 1064 nm, respectively, are utilized. If the measured
 354 depolarization ratio $\delta_p > \delta_1$ ($< \delta_2$) then aerosol mixture is considered as pure dust (non-dust). For
 355 remaining δ_p values, we first estimate β_d using the above equation and then calculate β_{nd} by
 356 subtracting β_d from β_p . Subsequently, the extinction coefficients are computed by multiplying the
 357 backscatter coefficients with the respective lidar ratio. Determining a spatially varying lidar ratio
 358 for dust across different regions presents challenges due to uncertainties in identifying dust source
 359 regions during transport. Therefore, we employ a simplified approach using a single lidar ratio
 360 value. Previous studies have reported little to no wavelength dependency of lidar ratio for dust and
 361 marine aerosol based on ground-based Raman lidar and airborne HSRL lidar measurements. As a
 362 result, we consider a constant lidar ratio of 44 for dust and 23 for marine to calculate the extinction
 363 coefficients at the three wavelengths. However, for polluted continental aerosols, we utilize
 364 wavelength-dependent lidar ratios of 58, 70 and 30 at 355, 532 and 1064 nm (Giannakaki et al.,
 365 2016; Hänel et al., 2012; Kim et al., 2018; Komppula et al., 2012; Müller et al., 2007).

366 3.2.3 *Derivation of dry backscatter and dry extinction*

367 It is difficult to measure the complex chemical composition and associated water uptake capability
 368 of a particle with increasing RH. Therefore, a widely popular and simple parameterization scheme
 369 was used to describe the changes in aerosol optical properties with atmospheric RH relative to a
 370 dry (or low-RH) state, also called the hygroscopic enhancement factor. Recent aerosol hygroscopic
 371 studies (Bedoya-Velázquez et al., 2018; Fernández et al., 2018; Lv et al., 2017) have derived
 372 backscatter and extinction enhancement factors using lidar measurements and RH profiles. The
 373 hygroscopic enhancement factor that is associated with both particle size and hygroscopicity
 374 (Kuang et al., 2017), is defined as:

$$f_{\xi}(RH, \lambda) = \frac{\xi(RH, \lambda)}{\xi(RH_{dry}, \lambda)} \quad (4)$$

375 where f_{ξ} is the hygroscopic enhancement factor of the optical property ξ (backscatter and
 376 extinction) at a specific light wavelength λ and RH, and RH_{dry} is the reference RH value (RH=0).
 377 There is no generic reference RH that represents the dry conditions for lidar measurements, unlike
 378 in-situ controlled RH measurements, to derive enhancements factor. Inferring dry backscatter and
 379 extinction coefficients is also crucial in CCN retrieval. Therefore, parameterization of the
 380 hygroscopic growth of lidar-derived optical properties should combine dry aerosol optical
 381 properties and $f_{\xi}(RH, \lambda)$ together. Previous studies have proposed several parameterization
 382 schemes for hygroscopic enhancement factors (Titos et al., 2016). The most frequently used
 383 parameterization scheme is a power-law function that is known as gamma parameterization,
 384 introduced by Kasten, (1969):

$$f_{\xi}(RH, \lambda) = A \cdot (1 - RH/100)^{-\gamma} \quad (5)$$

385 Where the parameter A gives the extrapolated value at RH=0% and the exponent γ is the fitting
 386 parameter and defines the hygroscopic behavior of the particles. Recently, a new physically based
 387 single-parameter representation approach was proposed by Brock et al., (2016) to describe the
 388 hygroscopic enhancement factor. Their results claimed that this proposed parameterization scheme
 389 better describes light-scattering hygroscopic enhancement factors than the widely used gamma
 390 power-law approximation. The formula of this new scheme is written as:

$$\xi(RH, \lambda) = \xi_{dry}(RH, \lambda) \cdot f_{\xi}(RH) = \xi_{dry}(RH, \lambda) \cdot \left[1 + \kappa_{\xi}(\lambda) \frac{RH}{100 - RH} \right] \quad (6)$$

391 where, κ_{ξ} is a dimensionless fitting parameter and shows a significant correlation with bulk
 392 hygroscopic parameter κ ; but they are not equivalent (Brock et al., 2016; Kuang et al., 2017). ξ_{dry}
 393 denotes dry aerosol optical properties (backscatter and extinction coefficients).

394 For the estimation of the hygroscopic enactment factor, aerosol optical properties (backscatter and
 395 extinction coefficients) at 355, 532, and 1064 nm are calculated over a range of RH (0-99%) using
 396 Mie theory (T-matrix and IGOM for spheroid) for the range of PSDs and each aerosols subtype.
 397 Figure S1 illustrates the mean curve of the hygroscopic enhancement factor (the ratio between the
 398 aerosol optical properties at specific RH to dry RH) at three wavelengths with increasing RH for
 399 each aerosol subtype. With given aerosol optical properties at different RHs, κ_{ξ} can be fitted by
 400 curve fitting using Eq. (6). However, Tan et al., (2019), based on a comparison of κ_{ξ} and derived
 401 ξ_{dry} for various ranges of RH, showed that the fitting hygroscopic parameters are found to be
 402 sensitive to fitting RH range when the RH range is limited and relatively high (between 60% and
 403 90%). Therefore, we fixed the RH range to 60%-90% for the parameter fitting (highlighted curve
 404 in Figure S1). In addition, retrieving finite dry aerosol optical properties could not be possible for

405 the observation with $RH > 99\%$. Therefore, ECLiAP only applies the hygroscopic correction when
 406 RH is between 40% and 99%. In ECLiAP, individual κ_ξ values for each aerosol optical property
 407 at three different wavelengths, along with the RH value, are used to obtain the dry aerosol optical
 408 properties separately for each aerosol subtype using Eq. (6).

409 3.2.4 Inversion techniques for size parameters

410 ECLiAP utilizes an inverse approach, distinct from traditional methods, to estimate the particle
 411 size distribution from Look-Up Tables (LUTs) using lidar inputs. This process involves inferring
 412 particle size distribution from known aerosol optical properties, determining the best-fitting
 413 solution that corresponds to the observed lidar measurements. It differs from the traditional $3\alpha+2\beta$
 414 technique typically used for inversion.

415 Once the dry aerosol optical properties are obtained, the ECLiAP searches for suitable size
 416 parameters from the LUTs. For this, the ECLiAP look for the best combination of six values (N_{if} ,
 417 r_f , σ_f , N_{ic} , r_c , σ_c) to match inputs (β_{355} , β_{532} , β_{1064} , α_{355} , α_{532} , α_{1064}) by minimizing the following
 418 function:

$$\mu^{sum} = \sum_{i=1,\dots,6} \left| \frac{x_i - x'_i}{x_i} \right| \quad (7)$$

419 Where x_i represents input aerosol optical data (β_{355} , β_{532} , β_{1064} , α_{355} , α_{532} , α_{1064}) and x'_i is aerosol
 420 optical data (β'_{355} , β'_{532} , β'_{1064} , α'_{355} , α'_{532} , α'_{1064}) derived from LUTs, which are calculated from
 421 Mie theory (or T-matrix and IGOM for spheroid) and size distribution parameters.

422 Each LUT consists of two parts to reduce the dimensions and size of LUTs. Therefore, the particle
 423 size distribution, as shown in Eq. (1), can be rewritten as:

$$\frac{dn(r)}{d \ln(r)} = \sum_{i=f,c} \left\{ \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{1/2} \ln \sigma_i} \exp \left[-\frac{(\ln r - \ln r_i^n)^2}{2(\ln \sigma_i)^2} \right] \cdot N_{ti} \right\} = \sum_{i=f,c} x_i \cdot N_{ti} \quad (8)$$

424 Where x_f and x_c refer to the data bank precomputed with (σ_f, r_f and r) and (σ_c, r_c and r),
 425 respectively. Furthermore, we have adopted the successive approximation method (Kantorovitch,
 426 1939) to deal with the extensive range of N_{tf} and speed up the finding for the closest solution.
 427 Therefore, the inversion technique is further divided into two steps. Step-1: search for an
 428 approximate solution based on the criterion in Eq. 8 and calculate the corresponding aerosol optical
 429 data (β'_{355} , β'_{532} , β'_{1064} , α'_{355} , α'_{532} , α'_{1064}) from the data banks (x_f and x_c) and N_{tf} and N_{tc} . The step
 430 widths of N_{tf} and N_{tc} are considered to be 100 and 0.1 cm^{-3} , respectively. Step 2: based on the
 431 approximate solution obtained in step 1, determine the smallest solution space of N_{tf} by repeating
 432 the procedure in step 1 using a smaller step width of 10 cm^{-3} for N_{tf} . Search for the optimal solution
 433 of six size parameters (N_{if} , r_f , σ_f , N_{ic} , r_c , σ_c).

434 3.2.5 Estimation of N_{CCN}

435 For the given aerosol optical properties, the retrieved size parameters and the associated
436 hygroscopicity parameter (κ ; as discussed in section 2.2.1) were used to calculate the critical
437 radius. The critical radius (r_{crit}) above which all particles are activated into droplets for a certain
438 supersaturation ratio (S_c) can be computed from the κ -Köhler theory as suggested by Petters &
439 Kreidenweis, (2007):

$$D_{crit} = \left(\frac{4A^3}{27 * \kappa * \ln(S_c)^2} \right)^{1/3}; \quad A = \frac{4\sigma_{s/a}M_w}{RT\rho_w} \quad (9)$$

440 Where, D_{crit} is the critical diameter ($r_{crit} = D_{crit}/2$), and $S_c = SS + 1$, M_w and ρ_w are the
441 molecular weight and water density, while R and T are the ideal gas constant and the absolute
442 temperature, respectively and $\sigma_{s/a} = 0.072 \text{ J m}^{-2}$. The critical radius is determined at six critical
443 supersaturations for activation (0.07%, 0.1%, 0.2%, 0.4%, 0.8% and 1.0%). While lidar
444 measurements are more sensitive to particles with sizes around 50 nm and larger, this method
445 incorporates factors such as particle size distribution, chemical composition, supersaturation
446 levels, and thermodynamic properties to estimate the critical radius even for particles below the
447 typical lidar sensitivity range.

448 Finally, the ECLiAP calculates N_{CCN} by integrating size distribution from critical radius to
449 maximum radius as:

$$N_{ccn} = \int_{\ln r_c}^{\ln r_{max}} \frac{dn(r)}{d \ln(r)} d \ln(r) \quad (10)$$

450

451 4 Results

452 4.1 Sensitivity analysis

453 Evaluating the algorithm is a challenging task in the absence of standard and reliable
454 measurements. The performance of the ECLiAP is evaluated using numerically simulated
455 observations with different error characteristics.

456 4.1.1 Retrieval of N_{CCN} with error-free data

457 To assess the inversion performance and stability ECLiAP, we first performed a sensitivity
458 analysis under the assumption of error-free lidar measurements. We used 2000 different sets of
459 bimodal size distributions for each aerosol subtypes and used them to simulate the lidar
460 observations. The retrieval was repeated to each simulated lidar observations, and the retrieved

461 size parameters were used to calculate the errors in the retrieved N_{CCN} (N_{CCN}^{ret}) with respect to the
462 initial inputs (N_{CCN}^{int}). The errors were calculated as the percentage difference using Eq. 8.

$$CCN\ Error = [(N_{CCN}^{ret} - N_{CCN}^{int})/N_{CCN}^{int}] \times 100\% \quad (11)$$

463 Table 2 lists the statistical results of CCN error for each aerosol type. As the number shows, the
464 initial N_{CCN} is well reproduced from the error-free inputs for each aerosol size distribution. The
465 standard deviation of the retrieved CCN errors from the different sets of bimodal size distribution
466 data is also estimated along with the mean value to determine the range of the retrieved CCN error.
467 As mentioned above, the appropriate balance between the accuracy and processing time of the
468 LUTs leads the mean CCN error close to zero but not equal to zero. However, the small standard
469 deviation (<0.25) indicates the smaller variances of errors among the aerosol size distributions.
470 Although the high accuracy of LUTs provides the CCN error closer to zero, the calculations are
471 more time expensive. In general, the retrieval results shown in Table 2 exhibit the good accuracy
472 and stability of the inversion algorithm for each aerosol subtype.

473 Additionally, the sensitivity of the N_{CCN} retrieval to the assumption of the bimodal size distribution
474 is tested against the aerosol size distribution measurements at the U.S Department of Energy's
475 Atmospheric Radiation Measurement (ARM) climate research facility from the Southern Great
476 Plain (SGP) site. Particle size distribution was measured simultaneously by an Ultra-High
477 Sensitivity Aerosol Spectrometer (for the 0.07 to 1 μm geometric diameter range) and an
478 Aerodynamic Particle Sizer (TSI-3321; for the 0.7 to 5 μm aerodynamics diameter range). The
479 size conversion factor, defined as the ratio of aerodynamic diameter to geometric diameter, was
480 used to construct a trimodal lognormal particle size distribution. For the purpose of this study, the
481 corresponding bimodal fits are produced, which are representative of the observed size
482 distributions. Figure S2 shows an example of the observed aerosol size distribution and the
483 corresponding bimodal fits. The comparison suggests that bimodal lognormal size distributions
484 can well represent the observed aerosol size distributions qualitatively. Later, we calculate N_{CCN}
485 based on the bimodal fits and compare them with the 100 observed size distributions to quantify
486 the errors arising from the bimodal lognormal fits. The associated κ values are estimated based on
487 observed PSDs and N_{CCN} values as described in Patel & Jiang, (2021). The induced CCN errors
488 from the bimodal fitting are shown in Table 3. The absolute value of N_{CCN} retrieval errors is 3.9%,
489 with a standard deviation of 2.8% at 0.1% supersaturation. Overall, the results suggest that bimodal
490 lognormal aerosol size distributions are adequate for retrieving N_{CCN} , but errors from the bimodal
491 assumption are not negligible.

492 4.1.2 Impact of systematic and random errors on N_{CCN} retrieval

493 Both systematic and random errors exist in lidar-retrieved measurements (Mattis et al., 2016).
494 Systematic errors can be induced by experimental conditions, retrieval algorithms, data processing
495 methods, and our understanding of physical interactions. Sensitivity analysis tests the impacts of
496 systematic errors from backscatter and extinction coefficients on N_{CCN} retrieval. Although the

497 systematic errors of different parameters are correlated, the errors are considered independent for
498 individual lidar measurements in the simulations. The error range is reasonable for most current
499 lidar systems. The systematic errors ranging from -20% to 20% with an interval of 5% are applied
500 to one input parameter at a time (others are kept error-free) in each test to understand the impacts
501 on individual parameters better. The inversion algorithm is performed to obtain a new set of aerosol
502 size distributions and retrieve N_{CCN} data. The procedure is repeated for each input parameter and
503 error value with 200 sets of the randomly generated size distribution for each aerosol subtype. The
504 percentage errors in N_{CCN} associated with systematic errors can be estimated by comparing
505 retrieved and initial values of N_{CCN} using Eq. 11. Note that we have also conducted additional
506 simulations for higher range of the error and found that our results are unchanged. However, Pérez-
507 Ramírez et al., (2013) demonstrated that larger errors in the input data can cause significant and
508 unpredictable deviation in the retrieved results. The error range $\pm 20\%$ is reasonable for most lidar
509 systems.

510 Figure 3 illustrates the error in retrieved N_{CCN} as a function of the systematic errors in backscatter
511 and extinction coefficients. The slope of the curve indicates the sensitivity of CCN errors to
512 systematic errors in individual parameters. A steeper slope infers a high sensitivity in the N_{CCN}
513 retrieval to the systematic error for a given input parameter. Errors in retrieved N_{CCN} increase as
514 errors of backscatter and extinction increase, and it is even steeper at higher supersaturations. In
515 general, N_{CCN} retrievals are most sensitive to errors in extinction coefficients followed by
516 backscatter coefficients. Interestingly, the results are less sensitive to errors in backscatter
517 coefficients at lower supersaturations ($\leq 0.2\%$) but are relatively more sensitive at higher
518 supersaturations ($> 0.2\%$). This indicates that reducing uncertainties in the extinction coefficients
519 can effectively improve the accuracy of N_{CCN} retrieval while reducing uncertainty in backscatter
520 coefficients can be beneficial for retrieving N_{CCN} at higher supersaturation. Errors in α_{355}
521 influence the retrieval results the most. On average, a positive relative error of 20% in α_{355}
522 overestimates the N_{CCN} retrieval by about 20% at lower supersaturation and about 50% at higher
523 supersaturation. A negative error of 20% in α_{355} underestimates the N_{CCN} retrieval, and the degree
524 of impact is slightly higher than the positive error. Errors in α_{532} and α_{355} have the opposite effect
525 on the retrieval error. It is also clear that the influence of systematic errors on the retrieval of N_{CCN}
526 varies with activation radius, as elucidated by the different signs of the slopes. For instance, the
527 slopes of the extinction coefficient for dust aerosols reverse the sign when the activation radius
528 exceeds low to high supersaturation. These differences most likely result from the reduced retrieval
529 sensitivity to the coarse mode of the aerosol size distribution. In addition, there are substantial
530 distinctions among the types of aerosols. Dust and marine aerosols have the largest absolute errors
531 compared to others dominated by fine-mode particles (see Table 2). These collectively indicate
532 that there are better constraints for fine-mode aerosols than for coarse-mode aerosols, which
533 introduce a larger retrieval error in N_{CCN} for aerosols with more weight in the coarse mode. It is
534 noteworthy that incorporating an additional input signal of extinction coefficient at 1064 nm in the
535 ECLiAP reduces the error by $\sim 20\%$ in the coarse mode-dominated aerosol subtypes (dust and
536 marine), and $\sim 15\%$ in total compared to the previous studies (Lv et al., 2018; Tan et al., 2019).

537 Nevertheless, integrating an additional lidar signal at a wavelength longer than 1064 nm may
538 further reduce retrieval error for the coarse mode-dominated aerosol type.

539 RH is another crucial parameter in the present retrieval algorithm for N_{CCN} . Errors in RH derived
540 by remote-sensing or reanalysis influence the values of growth factors and result in the dry aerosol
541 optical properties, which in turn influence all the input parameters. Therefore, systematic errors
542 ranging from -10% to 10% in intervals of 2% are considered for RH. Figure 4 shows the result of
543 systematic errors in RH. We observed that N_{CCN} is overestimated when RH has a negative
544 systematic error, and the extent of overestimation in N_{CCN} increases as the error increase. A
545 negative error of 10% in RH overestimates N_{CCN} at lower supersaturation by about 20% and
546 doubles (~40%) at higher supersaturation. The effects of the positive errors in RH are relatively
547 smaller and more complicated than negative errors. The mean retrieval error peaked at the RH
548 error at 6%, and the standard deviation of retrieval error increased with the RH error. This suggests
549 that underestimating RH causes large errors than overestimation. Therefore, extra care should be
550 paid to RH measurements if RH-related hygroscopic enhancements of aerosol optical properties
551 are considered.

552 Systematic errors introduce mean biases in N_{CCN} retrievals, whereas random errors in observations
553 produce random N_{CCN} retrieval errors. Random errors obeying Gaussian distributions are produced
554 arbitrarily with a mean value of zero. The standard deviations are set to 10% for aerosol optical
555 properties and to 5%, 10%, and 20% for RH in each test. The simulation is repeated 5000 times
556 for each aerosol subtype, and the statistical results are presented in Figure 5. The mean values of
557 relative error are presented by color, and the number indicates the standard deviation. The error
558 does not change significantly as the random error of RH increases. The mean random errors are
559 relatively small and non-zero, mainly because the sensitivities of N_{CCN} retrievals are different for
560 different aerosol optical data. The standard deviations are within 16%-28%. The results reveal that
561 random errors in the given input parameters may also contribute to systematic errors in the N_{CCN}
562 retrievals. The largest mean relative errors are found for coarse mode-dominated aerosol subtypes
563 (dust and marine), consistent with the sensitivities to systematic errors. As discussed earlier,
564 considering additional lidar measurements at longer wavelengths that are more sensitive to larger
565 particles could improve the retrieval of N_{CCN} for the coarse mode-dominated aerosol subtypes. The
566 mean values of relative errors increase with increasing supersaturation for all aerosol types. Errors
567 in the retrieved N_{CCN} follow a Gaussian distribution for low supersaturation. However, the
568 Gaussian shape disappears, and the high frequencies shift to the edge of the distribution when
569 supersaturation shifts from low to high (not shown here). Furthermore, the influence of random
570 errors on the individual input parameters is also assessed and is shown in Figure S3. Random errors
571 underestimate the enhancement factor (κ_{ξ}) by 30%-40% for 5% RH error, 45%-60% for 10% RH
572 error, and 65%-75% for 20% RH error. The relative errors in β are likely to be overestimated,
573 whereas they are underestimated in α . The absolute relative error of input parameters becomes
574 larger as the random error of RH grows.

575 4.2 Comparison with airborne measurements

576 The evaluation of N_{CCN} retrieval depends on how well retrieved and observed values are matched,
577 as matching errors can become overwhelming. Therefore, we have carried out a validation
578 approach by comparing ECLiAP retrieved N_{CCN} from lidar measurements with the in-situ
579 measurements of N_{CCN} by CCN counter during the NASA ORACLES airborne campaign, which
580 occurred from 2016 to 2018 over the Southeast Atlantic (SEA) (Redemann et al., 2021; Zuidema
581 et al., 2016).

582 HSRL-2 measures the vertical profiles of aerosol optical properties, whereas the CCN counter
583 provides measurements for point location. Therefore, we carried out two strategically different
584 validation exercises in this study: (1) the vertical profile-based comparison and (2) the comparison
585 of collocated measurements. For the profile-based comparison, an ascending path of flight (area
586 covered within the yellow dashed line in Figure S4) on 19 October 2018 has been considered, so
587 the measurements of the CCN counter can be available at various altitudes. Prior to comparison,
588 the lidar measurements from HSRL-2 are averaged over a selected wide space and time (yellow
589 dashed line box in Figure S4). The N_{CCN} measurements from the CCN counter were available at
590 the supersaturation between 0.32% and 0.34%. Hence, the N_{CCN} were retrieved at the
591 supersaturation of 0.34% by applying ECLiAP to the mean profiles of lidar measurements. It is
592 noteworthy that the retrieval has been carried out only on those observations having valid lidar
593 measurements at least for two wavelengths. Figure 6a demonstrates the retrieval fit to HSRL-2's
594 vertical dry aerosol extinction coefficient measurements at 355, 532, and 1064 nm. A smoke
595 aerosol dominates the ~93% of profiles at the altitude above 800 meters and marine at lower
596 altitudes (< 800 m), having RH between 30%-105%. The finite dry aerosol optical properties close
597 to the surface could not be retrieved for the observations with RH>99%. The retrieved profiles of
598 dry extinction coefficients are in better agreement with the measured by HSRL-2. This illustrates
599 the ability of the kappa parametrization to account for aerosol hygroscopicity. The vertical mean
600 of absolute fitting error of extinction coefficient is found to be 3.2%, 4.8%, and 6.3% for 355, 532,
601 and 1064 nm, respectively, and the vertical mean of absolute fitting error of backscatter
602 coefficients is 5.1%, 6.7% and 8.9% for 355, 532 and 1064 nm respectively. The fit to the
603 backscatter coefficients of 1064 nm has a relatively larger error. Certainly, one needs to know that
604 the vertically resolved extinction coefficient at 1064 nm is derived using the backscatter coefficient
605 at 1064 nm and lidar ratio. Since HSRL-2 does not directly measure extinction at 1064 nm, it is
606 computed from an assumed relationship with the measured lidar ratio at 532 nm. Though provided
607 as a best guess, such an estimate may cause extra uncertainty to the 1064 nm. Furthermore, the
608 comparison of vertical profiles of ECLiAP retrieved N_{CCN} from lidar measurements and the N_{CCN}
609 measured by the CCN counter is shown in Figure 6b. The retrieved values captured the pattern of
610 altitude variations in N_{CCN} as observed by the in-situ measurements. However, the magnitude of
611 retrieved N_{CCN} is slightly overestimated by ~12% in total. The overestimation is lower (~9%) at
612 above 2 km, whereas, at below 1 km, it is slightly higher (~16%). A plausible reason behind the
613 relatively large overestimation at below 1 km might be the considerable variation of RH between
614 60%-105% or/and the highly variable aerosol properties due to the mixture of multiple aerosol

615 subtypes (smoke, marine, and dust). In addition, wind-driven advection and the age of the air parcel
616 radically modify the characteristics of smoke aerosols and their hygroscopic behavior, which also
617 leads to the slight overestimation of retrieved N_{CCN} values. The discrepancy between the retrieved
618 and observed values of N_{CCN} should be reassessed with the robust measurements from the varieties
619 of aerosol subtypes using the multi-campaign airborne data.

620 The second robust validation exercise is performed, based on collocated measurements,
621 using two years (2017-2018) of combined data from the ORACLES campaign. In 2017-2018, both
622 HSRL-2 and CCN counter were installed on the NASA P-3 flight. The end goal of this exercise is
623 to find one lidar measurement from HSRL-2 to directly compare with one N_{CCN} measured by the
624 CCN counter, both observed in approximately the same time and space. We defined collocation
625 criteria for any given HSRL-2 profile as follows. The collocation method finds CCN measurement
626 that falls within ± 1.1 km horizontal distance, ± 60 m vertical distance, and ± 10 minutes of the time
627 window. Later, the meteorological parameters within the given space and time windows are
628 extracted along with lidar measurements and measured N_{CCN} from each flight of the 2017-2018
629 ORACLES campaign. ECLiAP is applied to each lidar measurement for N_{CCN} retrieval on the
630 same supersaturation value measured by the CCN counter (lies within the range from 0.2-0.4%
631 SS). Figure 7 represents the result from the comparison of retrieved and measured N_{CCN} . The N_{CCN}
632 inferred from the CCN counter measurement is in better agreement with the retrieved N_{CCN} with a
633 correlation coefficient (R) of ~ 0.89 , a root mean square error (RMSE) value of 302.8 cm^{-3} , and a
634 bias of 138.8 cm^{-3} . The systematic positive bias in the comparison indicates that the retrieved N_{CCN}
635 are overestimating the observed values. It is noteworthy that smoke aerosols dominate in the
636 observations from ORACLES, but it also has significant observations from marine, dust, and
637 polluted dust. The discrepancy between measured and retrieved values could be due to the
638 variabilities in the aerosol properties. Overall, the strong correlation in the validation results
639 demonstrates the potential of ECLiAP in retrieving N_{CCN} from lidar measurements. It recommends
640 having a detailed validation study separate for aerosol subtypes using ground-based and aircraft
641 measurements to evaluate the reliability of the ECLiAP algorithm in estimating the N_{CCN} .

642 **4.3 Retrieving N_{CCN} from spaceborne lidar (CALIOP/CALIPSO): a case study**

643 Extending the scope of ECLiAP, the methodology was converted into a procedure that can be
644 applied to any level-2 aerosol profile dataset from Cloud-Aerosol Lidar with Orthogonal
645 Polarization (CALIOP) on the Cloud-Aerosol Lidar and Infrared Pathfinder Satellite Observations
646 (CALIPSO) (Winker et al., 2007). As an illustrative example, this procedure was applied to a
647 regular CALIPSO track for 01 January 2019 starting at 20:08 UTC, which spans from 10°N to 40°N ,
648 passing over the Tibetan plateau and Indian landmass. The CALIPSO track (solid black line)
649 can be seen on the right-hand side in Figure 8a. CALIOP onboard CALIPSO provides
650 measurements of aerosol optical properties only at two wavelengths (532 and 1064 nm). Therefore,
651 a total of six parameters (β_{532} , β_{1064} , α_{532} , α_{1064} , depolarization ratio, and aerosol subtypes) from
652 CALIOP along with meteorological parameters (RH, temperature) are provided as the inputs to
653 ECLiAP and retrieved total particle concentration (N_{CN}) and N_{CCN} at six supersaturations as

654 outputs. The N_{CN} amount represents the total number of aerosol particles that can serve as centers
655 for condensation, while the N_{CCN} is the fraction of N_{CN} that can activate as CCN.

656 The extinction coefficient at 532 nm and aerosol subtypes, along with retrieved N_{CN} and N_{CCN} at
657 supersaturation of 0.4%, are shown in Figure 8. Unfortunately, due to the retrieval limitation over
658 the elevated region along with cloudiness, there are no valid aerosol measurements over the
659 Himalayan-Tibetan plateau (as shown by a gap between 28 °N to 37 °N). On the contrary, a strong
660 mixed aerosol signal is observed over the Indian landmass (α_{532} larger than 2.5 km⁻¹), while an
661 elevated (altitude >1 km) dust aerosol layer ($\alpha_{532} = \sim 1.0$ km⁻¹) at the edge of the CALIPSO track
662 over the Taklamakan desert (above 38 °N). Over southern India (below 17 °N) polluted continental
663 aerosols prevail (α_{532} between 0.5-0.8 km⁻¹) and mostly accumulate within the boundary layer
664 (~ 1.5 km a.s.l.), while over northern India (above 19 °N), the aerosol situation includes a mixture
665 of polluted continental and polluted dust ($\alpha_{532} = \sim 1.6$ km⁻¹ below 1 km altitude). The corresponding
666 vertical cross-section of retrieved N_{CN} and N_{CCN} at a supersaturation of 0.4% using ECLiAP can
667 be seen in Figures 8c and 8d, respectively. N_{CN} and N_{CCN} larger than 25000 cm⁻³ and 3000 cm⁻³ at
668 a supersaturation of 0.4% appear over the areas where polluted continental aerosols dominate
669 (southern India), while N_{CCN} is greater than 2000 cm⁻³ appears over northern India. Dust N_{CCN} of
670 100 to 200 cm⁻³ appears over the Taklamakan desert region.

671 To verify the capability of ECLiAP retrieval to capture similar variability of particle
672 physicochemical characteristics and its influence on CCN retrievals, we have investigated two
673 distinct cases identified based on the variation in aerosol subtypes and meteorological variables.
674 These scenarios are as follows: (1) Case-I: domination of polluted continental aerosols over
675 southern India (red color box covered in figure 8) (2) Case-II: Mixture of polluted dust and polluted
676 continental aerosols over northern India (blue color box covered in figure 8). The profiles of
677 extinction coefficients at 532 nm and relative humidity, along with retrieved N_{CN} and N_{CCN} at six
678 supersaturations, are presented in Figure 9. Figure 9a shows the profiles of the extinction
679 coefficient at 532 nm and relative humidity for both cases. The extinction profile in case-I ranges
680 from 0.7-1.2 km⁻¹, is dominated by polluted continental aerosols in the high moisture condition
681 (RH between 60%-80%), accumulates within the boundary layer (~ 1.5 km), and peaks at ~ 1.2 km.
682 Conversely, case-II represents the low moisture condition (RH \leq 30%), with relatively large
683 extinction coefficient values with a maximum of 1.6 km⁻¹ at ~ 0.2 km altitude, influenced mainly
684 by the mixture of polluted continental and polluted dust aerosols. These two cases are dynamically
685 diverse and different in nature that providing a solid platform to verify the capability of ECLiAP
686 in retrieving N_{CCN} . Figure 9b illustrates the retrieved N_{CN} using ECLiAP for both cases. The
687 retrieved mean values of N_{CN} are observed to be almost similar (~ 12000 cm⁻³ and ~ 11000 cm⁻³ for
688 case-I and case-II, respectively). The profiles of N_{CN} follow a similar vertical distribution pattern
689 of extinction coefficients. Figures 9c and 9d display the retrieved N_{CCN} at six supersaturations for
690 Case-I and II, respectively. Interestingly, N_{CCN} values are found to be relatively lower in case-II,
691 though its extinction coefficient is larger than in case-I. Note that ECLiAP considers polluted dust
692 as a mixture of polluted continental and dust aerosol to retrieve N_{CCN} . The above-mentioned
693 discrepancy can be only explained by the intrusion of dust and its non-hygroscopic behavior along

694 with dry conditions, further reducing the concentration of hygroscopic aerosols that leads to a
695 decrease in N_{CCN} . This has been clearly reflected in the calculated activation ratio ($AR =$
696 N_{CCN}/N_{CN}) spectra in Figure S5. Figure S5 directly compares the AR spectra as a function of SS
697 for both cases. The observed differences in the AR spectra reflect the nature of the particles to act
698 as CCN. Relatively, larger values of AR in case-I indicate the dominance of hygroscopic aerosols
699 get activated to CCN under high moisture and increase N_{CCN} . In contrast, the dust intrusion in
700 case-II reduces the capability of particles to activate as CCN under low moisture and further
701 reduces AR by ~20%-60% for the range of supersaturation from 0.07% to 1.0%. Given the limited
702 sample space, the aim of the study is to demonstrate the potential of ECLiAP for retrieving reliable
703 N_{CCN} data from spaceborne lidar measurements. We have adapted the retrieval approach to
704 accommodate the available data, utilizing aerosol optical properties at two wavelengths and
705 meteorological datasets. These modifications introduce potential limitations and uncertainties due
706 to the availability of limited number of input parameters. While the CALIPSO case study offers
707 valuable insights, we stress the need for further validation with independent measurements. A
708 detailed comprehensive analysis comparing the CALIOP-retrieved N_{CCN} with multi-campaign
709 airborne measurements is essential to evaluate the reliability of ECLiAP to construct the 3D CCN
710 climatology at a global scale.

711 5 Discussion

712 Due to the absence of vertically resolved information in AOD, using it as a proxy for CCN in ACI
713 studies has several shortcomings. Among other issues, a column property like AOD is not
714 necessarily representative of N_{CCN} at altitudes, which affects the formation and growth of the cloud.
715 Because no reliable global estimate of N_{CCN} exists, the fundamental assumptions of ACI cannot
716 be robustly verified with the available sparse and localized in-situ measurements. In this study, we
717 present a novel approach based on the $3\beta+3\alpha$ technique for retrieving vertically-resolved cloud-
718 relevant N_{CCN} from a single spaceborne lidar sensor. With this development, we demonstrate a
719 new application of active satellite remote sensing that can provide direct measurements of CCN to
720 improve understanding of ACI processes.

721 To address the problem of the non-uniqueness of a solution in the $3\beta+2\alpha$ inverse technique, we
722 have adopted a more realistic LUT-based approach using the $3\beta+3\alpha$ multiwavelength technique,
723 reflecting the bimodal particle distribution in the atmosphere better. Previous studies (Lv et al.,
724 2018; Tan et al., 2019) demonstrated that CCN estimation is highly sensitive to the extinction
725 coefficient than the backscatter coefficient. Therefore, leveraging the availability of derived
726 extinction coefficients at 1064 nm as an additional input to ECLiAP to improve the retrieval
727 accuracy of particle size distribution, particularly for coarse mode. In order to verify the
728 performance, the CCN estimation error, using Eq. 12, has been calculated using both $3\beta+2\alpha$ and
729 $3\beta+3\alpha$ techniques for each aerosol subtype in comparison to the observed CCN values. The
730 relative difference in CCN estimation error between $3\beta+2\alpha$ and $3\beta+3\alpha$ techniques for each aerosol
731 subtype is shown in Figure 10. The analysis shows that insertion of the α_{1064} signal in the $3\beta+3\alpha$
732 technique improves the CCN estimation by ~15% in total and ~20% for the coarse mode dominated

733 aerosol subtypes (i.e., marine and dust aerosols) compared to $3\beta+2\alpha$. Based on CCN closure
734 analysis, Patel & Jiang, (2021) suggested that particle size and chemical composition are more
735 crucial in the CCN activity at lower SS. In contrast, at higher SS, most particles become activated
736 regardless of their size and composition. Therefore, the improvement in CCN estimation is
737 relatively large in low SS ($SS < 0.2\%$) than in high SS ($SS > 0.2\%$). In our N_{CCN} retrieval approach,
738 we use multiple input parameters: aerosol optical properties (α_{355} , α_{532} , α_{1064} , β_{355} , β_{532} , and β_{1064})
739 and relative humidity (RH). Each parameter plays a unique role in constraining aerosol size and
740 concentration accurately. Through sensitivity analyses, we found that using all seven parameters
741 leads to improved retrieval accuracy compared to a reduced set. The interplay between the
742 parameters enhances the performance of algorithm, resulting in reliable and consistent N_{CCN}
743 retrievals. The combination of aerosol optical properties and RH provides a comprehensive
744 understanding of aerosol behavior, ensuring a more holistic characterization of aerosol properties
745 in our study.

746 Systematic and random errors in the lidar measurements were evaluated individually and discussed
747 in the sensitivity analysis. Both systematic and random errors realistically coexist in optical
748 parameters, and therefore, we have evaluated their concurrent effect. The simulations were
749 conducted with both systematic and random errors co-occurring. The results (not shown here)
750 show that the retrieved CCN errors are much smaller than the error obtained individually by either
751 systematic or random at each wavelength independently. The mean CCN error ranges between
752 7%-15% at SS from 0.07% to 1.0%. This retrieved CCN error is slightly large (~12%-18%) for
753 the coarse-mode dominated aerosol subtypes (dust and marine). Summing up errors from multiple
754 optical parameters might compensate for each other and improve the CCN retrievals. Furthermore,
755 the retrieval from ECLiAP has few constraints. (i) it strongly depends on the accuracy of lidar-
756 measured aerosol optical properties. The retrieval is only possible if the lidar signals are available
757 at least at two wavelengths. (ii) the non-spherical shape of dust particles. While this study considers
758 the spheroidal shape of dust particles, a recent study by Haarig et al., (2022) suggested that the
759 assumption of spheroidal dust particle have limitations in obtaining an accurate particle
760 depolarization ratio. Therefore, our assumption of spheroidal shape may not fully capture the
761 complexity of dust particles and could lead to uncertainties in our dust-related retrieval. Although
762 complex non-spherical shape models (Gasteiger et al., 2011; Saito et al., 2021) provide a more
763 realistic representation of irregularly shaped dust particles, they are computationally expensive.
764 We acknowledge this limitation and plan to explore alternative models in future studies. (iii)
765 retrieval from ECLiAP is only performed for $RH \leq 99\%$. (iv) The use of mean refractive indices
766 for each aerosol subtype in the creation of the look-up tables may limit the representation of
767 refractive index variability within each subtype. This simplified approach reduces computation
768 time but may compromise the accuracy of the LUTs in accounting for the full range of aerosol
769 properties. (v) The CCN activity also depends on the mixing state, which is difficult to measure
770 from space. Subsequently, an alternative solution is required to parametrize the effect of the mixing
771 state on CCN activity. (v) It is constrained by the inherent limitations of lidar measurements, which
772 may not effectively capture particles with sizes smaller than 50 nanometers. Consequently, the

773 algorithm does not fully account for the impact of new particle formation on the estimation of
774 CCN concentrations.

775 The present study demonstrates the capability of ECLiAP to construct the three-dimensional global
776 climatology of N_{CCN} . The global coverage of N_{CCN} , in conjunction with collocated retrieved cloud
777 properties, will provide crucial input for the regional and global simulations that will provide
778 realistic assessments of aerosol-induced cloud radiative forcing. The satellite-retrieved N_{CCN} can
779 precisely separate the aerosols into natural and anthropogenic components, which can be further
780 used for constraining aerosol emissions and transport models for air-quality studies. The
781 application of detailed N_{CCN} will potentially mitigate the uncertainty of aerosol perturbed climate
782 forcing (direct + indirect) and improve confidence in assessing anthropogenic contributions and
783 climate change projections.

784 **6 Summary**

785 CCN number concentration is a critically-important parameter to constrain the relationship
786 between aerosols and clouds and is needed to improve the understanding of ACI processes. The
787 lack of direct measurements of CCN prevents robust testing of the underlying assumptions
788 associated with aerosol-cloud interactions robustly and evaluates climate model simulations. In
789 order to overcome this limitation, we presented ECLiAP, an emergent remote sensing-based
790 analytical algorithm based on the physical law to retrieve the vertically resolved N_{CCN} from aerosol
791 optical properties measured by the multiwavelength lidar system. Among the several fundamental
792 aspects of the mathematical problem that must be solved during retrievals of microphysical
793 parameters from multiwavelength lidar, the most crucial aspect is that the inverse solution is not
794 unique. Therefore, the retrieval is implemented based on look-up tables generated from Mie
795 scattering (and T-matrix/IGOM for dust particles) calculations. AERONET-based five
796 representative aerosol subtypes with bimodal size distributions were considered. The influence of
797 relative humidity on lidar-measured aerosol optical properties is corrected using the aerosol type-
798 dependent hygroscopic growth factor to obtain the dry aerosol optical properties. As a tradeoff
799 between the accuracy and computation time of the inversion, a successive approximation technique
800 is utilized in two steps to retrieve the optically equivalent particle number size distribution. Once
801 the aerosol size distribution parameters are obtained through the LUT, critical diameter and N_{CCN}
802 at six supersaturations ranging from 0.07% to 1.0% is estimated using the κ -Köhler theory.

803 Sensitivity analyses were carried out to evaluate the algorithm performance and to show the
804 influence of systematic and random errors of lidar-derived optical properties and auxiliary RH
805 profiles on CCN retrieval. The performance of ECLiAP is evaluated with error-free data, and N_{CCN}
806 at all six supersaturations is well reproduced with good accuracy and stability for the five aerosol
807 subtypes. Systematic errors in extinction coefficients and RH greatly influence CCN retrieval
808 errors. Reducing uncertainties in extinction coefficients effectively improves retrieval accuracy,
809 while uncertainties in backscatter coefficients benefit retrieval at higher SS. Differences in weights
810 of fine- to coarse-mode particles within the aerosol subtypes lead to significant differences in the

811 retrieval uncertainty. The differences can be explained via the weaker constraint of the algorithm
812 for the coarse mode particles than for the fine mode. However, the insertion of the additional signal
813 at a relatively longer wavelength reduced the differences in the retrieval uncertainty compared to
814 previous techniques. The mean random errors are relatively small and found to be relatively large
815 for the coarse mode-dominated aerosol subtypes, consistent with the sensitivities to the systematic
816 errors. In realistic cases, systematic and random errors often offset each other and improve the
817 mean CCN retrievals. Overall, the error analysis suggests that extinction coefficients at 355 and
818 532 nm must be reliably derived to ensure retrieval accuracy, including measurements at longer
819 wavelengths further improve the CCN retrievals, particularly for the coarse mode-dominated
820 aerosol subtypes.

821 The ECLiAP algorithm was applied to observational data from the NASA ORACLES airborne
822 campaign to illustrate the potential of the algorithm. N_{CCN} retrieved from lidar (HSRL-2)
823 measurements have been validated against the simultaneous measurements from the CCN counter
824 installed in the flight. Considering the inhomogeneity in the vertical distribution of aerosols
825 throughout the atmospheric column, N_{CCN} from in situ measurements and lidar retrievals agree
826 well. Furthermore, for the first time, the ECLiAP has been applied to spaceborne lidar
827 measurements – CALIOP/CALIPSO – to retrieve N_{CCN} . The results demonstrate that the N_{CCN}
828 retrieved by ECLiAP is highly influenced by the variability of aerosol particle size and
829 composition based on aerosol subtypes and also captures the meteorological influence. The
830 vertically resolved information of aerosols, along with CCN from spaceborne lidar, is essential for
831 investigating the ACI in detail.

832 Our future goals include a comprehensive evaluation of N_{CCN} derived from spaceborne lidar
833 measurements, i.e., CALIOP/CALIPSO, with multi-campaign airborne measurements, covering
834 various physicochemical regimes in the troposphere. The extensive validation will enable us to
835 test the applicability of the ECLiAP algorithm in the context of estimating the N_{CCN} from space.
836 Eventually, we plan to apply the ECLiAP algorithm over the period of CALIOP observations (~15
837 years) to generate the global three-dimensional N_{CCN} climatology. The data set coupled with the
838 cloud-related data from the other satellite or state-of-the-art numerical models will help improve
839 our understanding of the ACI. The science narrative of the NASA Aerosol and Cloud, Convection
840 and Precipitation (ACCP) project pointed out that the combination of near-simultaneous and
841 collocated lidar and polarimeter measurements can provide more detailed information regarding
842 particle size, concentration, and composition (Braun et al., 2022). Therefore, our future work may
843 also include combining the lidar measurements with passive observations in the ECLiAP algorithm
844 to further narrow down the uncertainty of aerosol microphysics with the enhanced observational
845 constraints (Xu et al., 2021), which will in turn improve the accuracy of CCN retrieval. Moreover,
846 the ability of CALIOP to detect the aerosol subtypes has facilitated the retrieval of aerosol type-
847 specific 3D N_{CCN} climatology on a global scale. These datasets from spaceborne lidar
848 measurements will be beneficial for evaluating models and other satellite products, opening a new
849 window to investigate the region and regime-wise detailed ACI studies and better constraining
850 anthropogenic contributions to the climate forcing in the climate model.

852
853 **Data availability statement.** All data that support the findings of this study are publicly available.
854 The in-situ measurements at the ARM-SGP are available at
855 <https://www.arm.gov/capabilities/observatories/sgp>.

856 All ORACLES data are accessible via the digital object identifiers (DOIs) provided under
857 ORACLES science team.

858 references: https://doi.org/10.5067/Suborbital/ORACLES/P3/2018_V2 (ORACLES Science
859 Team, 2020a), https://doi.org/10.5067/Suborbital/ORACLES/P3/2017_V2 (ORACLES Science
860 Team, 2020b).

861 The CALIPSO data are available at <https://eosweb.larc.nasa.gov/>.

862
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864 analysis and interpretation with contributions from JHJ, RG and HG. PNP wrote the manuscript.
865 JHJ, RG, HG, OVK, MJG, LG, FX and OA reviewed, commented and/or edited the manuscript.

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879

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- 1227
- 1228

1229 **Table 1:** Typical parameter ranges for the aerosol bimodal distribution used in our study to
 1230 construct the LUTs. V_f^t / V_c^t is the ratio of the volume concentration of the fine mode to the coarse
 1231 mode. m_R and m_I represent the mean values of real and imaginary parts of the complex refractive
 1232 index.

Aerosol Parameters	Marine	Dust	Polluted Continental	Clean Continental	Biomass burning
r_f^v	0.065-0.085	0.062-0.082	0.075-0.095	0.08-0.11	0.072-0.082
r_c^v	0.5-0.6	0.59-0.64	0.6-0.71	0.42-0.52	0.75-0.80
σ_f^v	0.46-0.54	0.4-0.53	0.38-0.46	0.37-0.45	0.4-0.47
σ_c^v	0.68-0.78	0.6-0.7	0.65-0.75	0.70-0.80	0.65-0.75
V_f^t / V_c^t	0.1-0.25	0.1-0.5	1.0-2.0	0.01-0.15	1.5-2.5
m_R / m_I	1.36/0.0015	1.56/0.001	1.47/0.014	1.401/0.003	1.51/0.021
κ	0.7	0.03	0.27	0.31	0.1

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 1234 **Table 2:** CCN errors at six supersaturation (SS) retrieved from error-free inputs for the five
 1235 aerosol types

Aerosol Types	CCN error (%)					
	0.07%	0.1%	0.2%	0.4%	0.8%	1.0%
Marine	-0.00 ± 0.21	-0.01 ± 0.23	0.00 ± 0.26	-0.00 ± 0.25	0.00 ± 0.23	-0.00 ± 0.24
Dust	-0.01 ± 0.22	-0.01 ± 0.23	0.00 ± 0.26	-0.01 ± 0.24	0.00 ± 0.25	-0.01 ± 0.23
Mean ± SD (%)						
Polluted continental	-0.01 ± 0.18	0.00 ± 0.18	-0.01 ± 0.16	0.00 ± 0.18	-0.01 ± 0.19	-0.00 ± 0.18
Clean continental	-0.01 ± 0.19	-0.01 ± 0.20	-0.01 ± 0.19	-0.00 ± 0.17	-0.00 ± 0.18	-0.01 ± 0.17
Smoke	-0.01 ± 0.19	-0.01 ± 0.21	-0.01 ± 0.18	-0.01 ± 0.20	-0.00 ± 0.22	-0.01 ± 0.19

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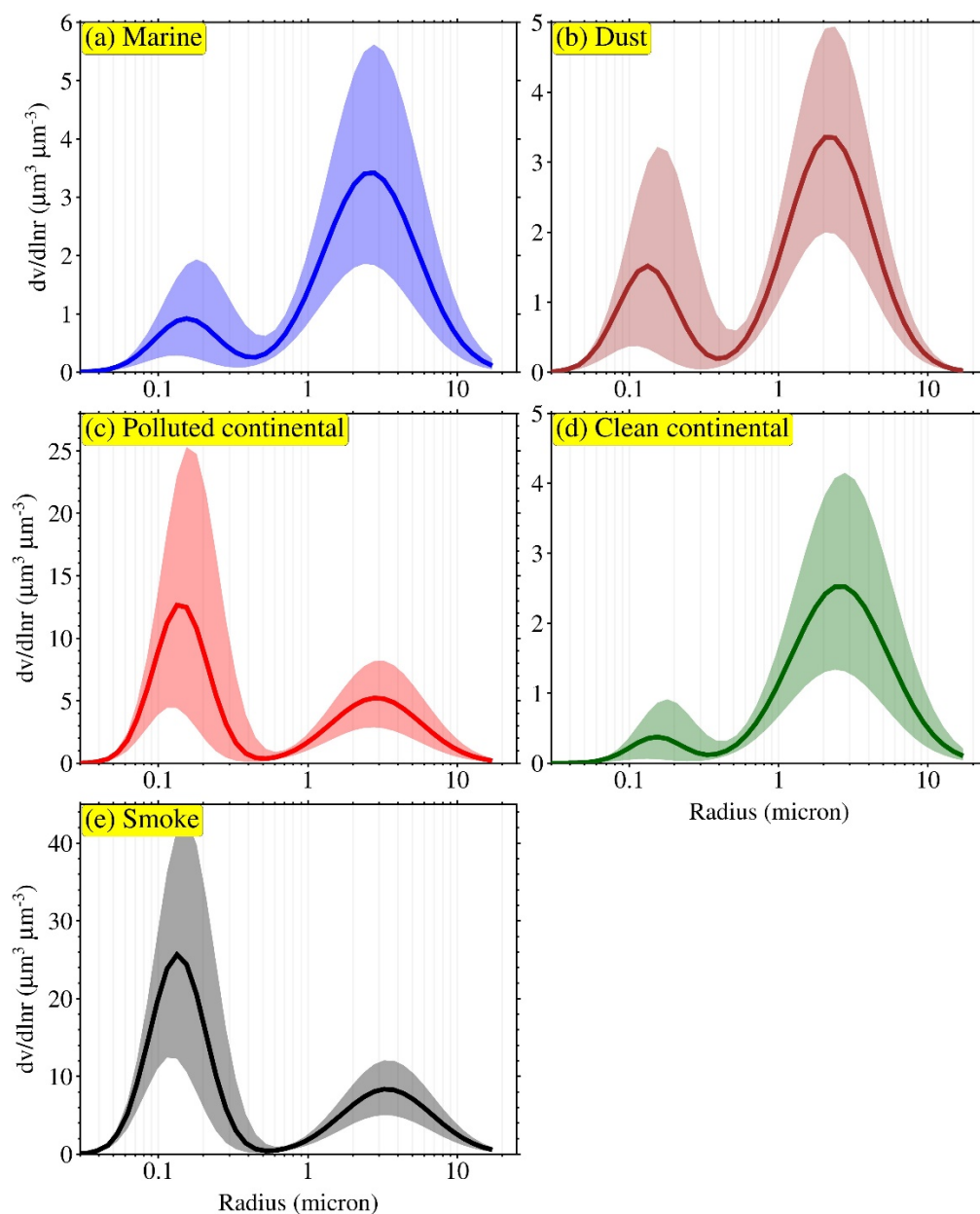
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1239 **Table 3:** Sensitivity of CCN retrieval to the bimodal fits at different supersaturation ratios from
1240 the 100 aerosol size distributions obtained from ARM-SGP. The CCN error is calculated as an
1241 absolute value.

	CCN error (%)					
	0.07%	0.1%	0.2%	0.4%	0.8%	1.0%
Mean \pm SD (%)	3.3 \pm 2.4	3.9 \pm 2.8	3.1 \pm 2.7	2.9 \pm 1.8	2.1 \pm 1.5	1.7 \pm 1.3

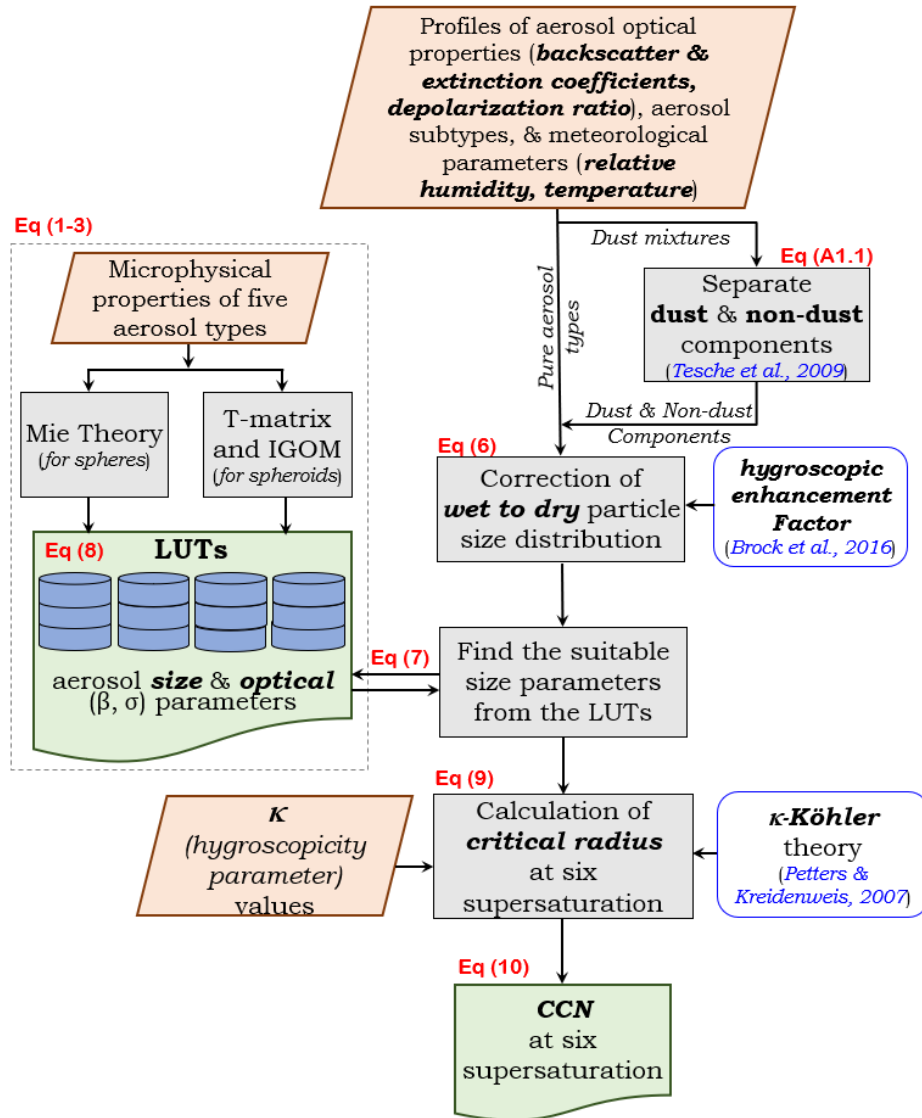
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1246 **Figure 1: Bimodal log-normal particle size distributions** for five aerosol types (marine, dust,
 1247 polluted continental, clean continental and smoke aerosols) considered in this study to build the
 1248 look-up-tables (LUTs). These particle size distributions were derived using measurements from
 1249 sun/sky radiometer at multiple selected Aerosol Robotic Network (AERONET) sites. Solid line
 1250 represents the mean of particle size distribution, whereas the shaded area shows the range of size
 1251 distribution covers in the respective LUTs.



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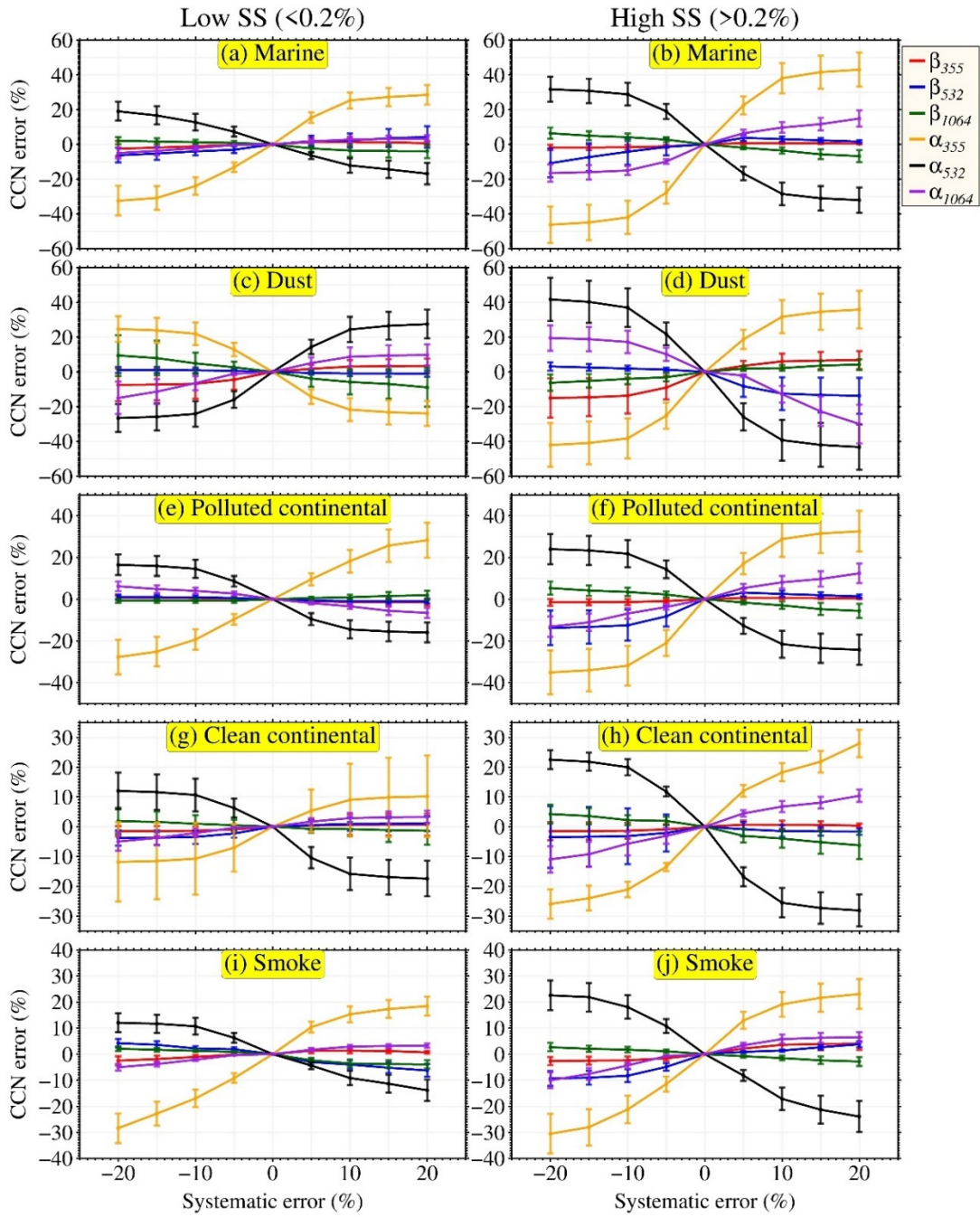
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Figure 2: Flowchart of ECLiAP algorithm for the retrieval of N_{CCN} from lidar measurements. The steps within the dotted line box describes the pre-processing which includes the calculation of aerosol optical properties using Mie scattering theory (T-matrix/IGOM for dust) to build look-up-tables for five aerosol models. The steps outside the dotted line box represent the retrieval process of N_{CCN} from the given inputs of aerosol optical properties and meteorological parameters. The chart also refers to the used equations associated to the particular retrieval process.



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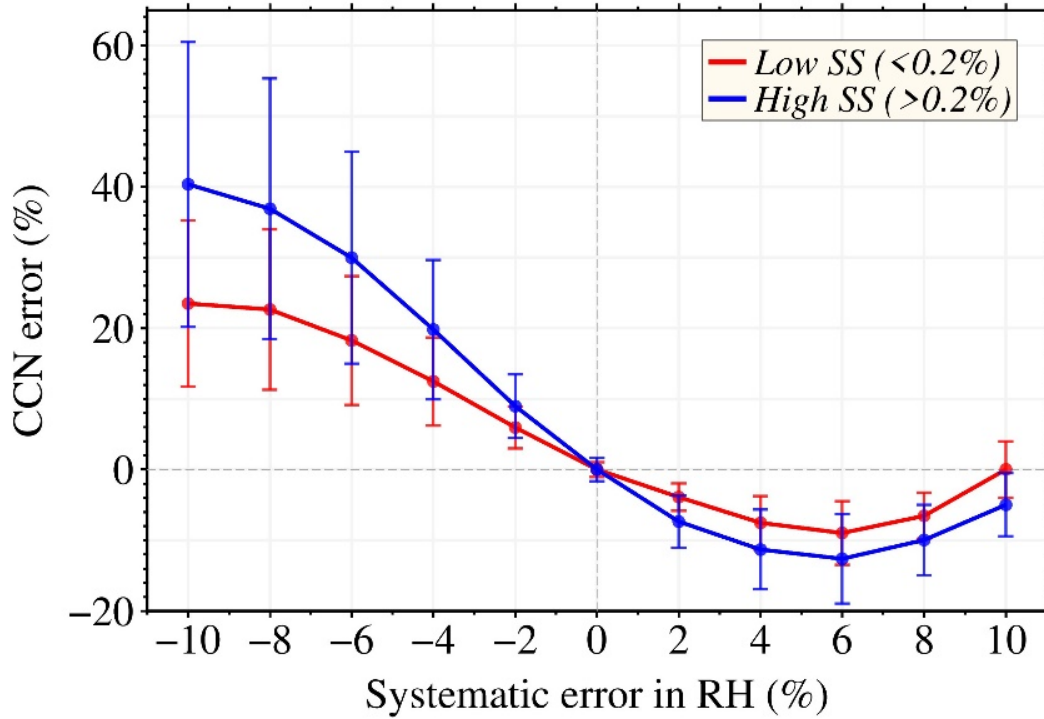
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Figure 3: Systematic errors in retrieved N_{CCN} . This represent the errors in retrieved N_{CCN} as a function of systematic errors in backscatter and extinction coefficients at all three wavelengths for low ($\leq 0.2\%$) and high ($> 0.2\%$) supersaturations and for all five aerosol subtypes as. The markers denote the mean value and the error bars represent the standard deviation.

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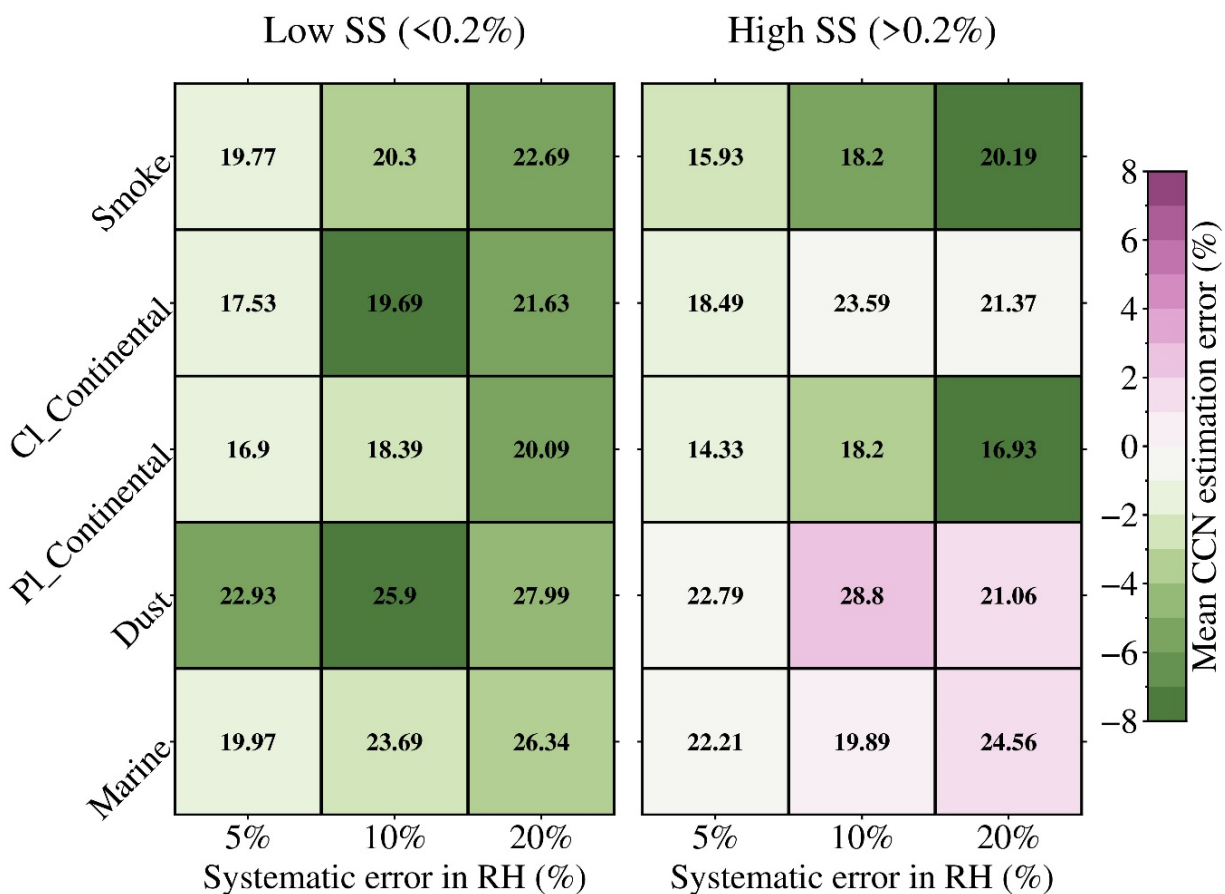
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Figure 4: Systematic errors in retrieved N_{CCN} . This represent the errors in retrieved N_{CCN} as a function of systematic error in RH, combines for all aerosol subtypes, at low ($\leq 0.2\%$) and high ($> 0.2\%$) supersaturations. The markers denote the mean value and the error bars represent the standard deviation.

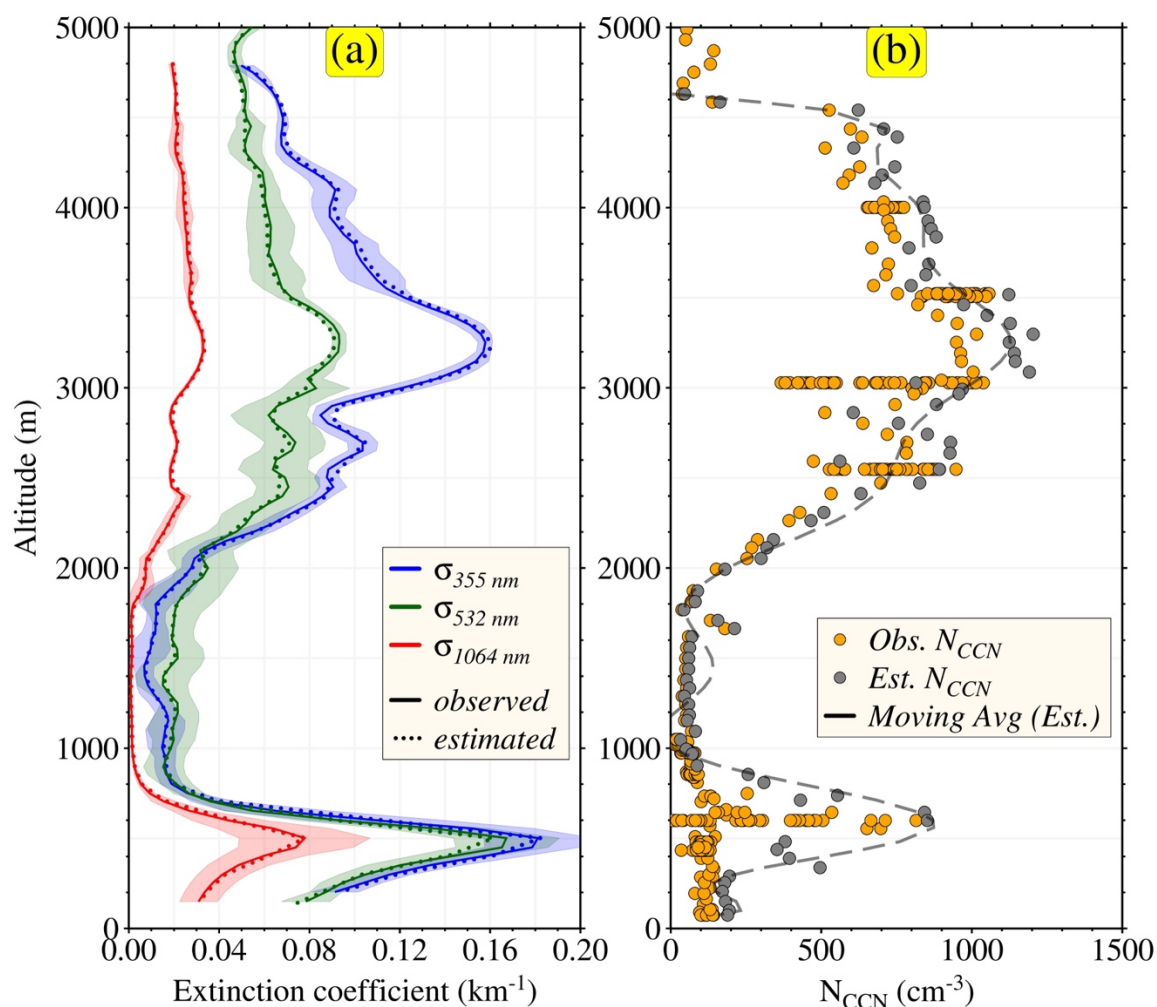
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1277 **Figure 5: Random errors in retrieved N_{CCN} .** This represents the random errors in retrieved N_{CCN}
 1278 at low ($\leq 0.2\%$) and high ($> 0.2\%$) supersaturations with different random error conditions
 1279 individually for five aerosol subtypes. The uncertainty of backscatter and extinction coefficients
 1280 off all the tests is 10% and the uncertainties of RH are 5%, 10% and 20%. The color shows the
 1281 mean values whereas number shows the ± 1 standard deviation of errors.



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1285 **Figure 6: Comparison between retrieved and observed vertical profiles of aerosol extinction**

1286 **coefficients and N_{CCN} .** The ECLiAP retrieved (a) aerosol extinction coefficients at 355, 532 and

1287 1064 nm and (b) N_{CCN} were compared against the one observed during NASA ORACLES

1288 airborne campaign. The lidar signals were mainly influenced by the mixture of smoke and

1289 dust or marine aerosols. The relationship between HSRL-2 measured aerosol extinction

1290 coefficients (solid lines) and retrieved (dotted line) by an algorithm in the left panel. The right

1291 panel illustrates the comparison of retrieved N_{CCN} using lidar measurements and measured by

1292 CCN counter. The dashed line in the right panel shows the moving average of retrieved N_{CCN}

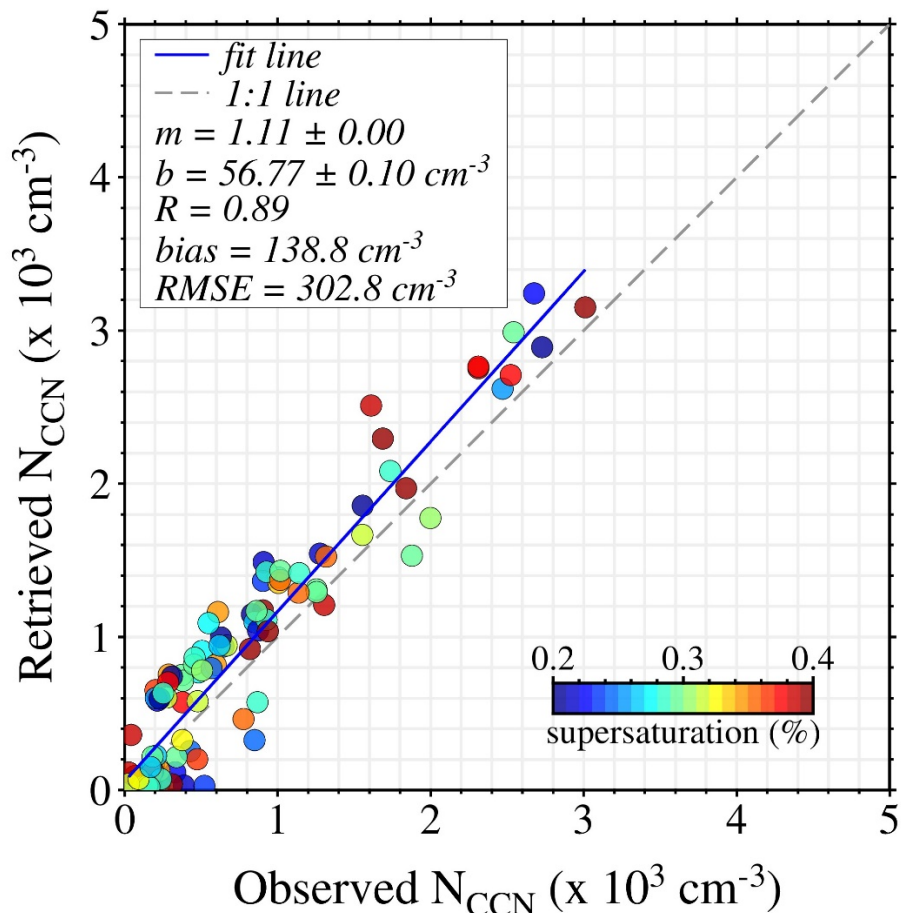
1293 values. CCN counter measured N_{CCN} at supersaturation ranging from 0.32%-0.34% for the

1294 selected region (described in Figure S4), therefore, the retrieval of N_{CCN} was carried out at

1294 supersaturation of 0.34%.

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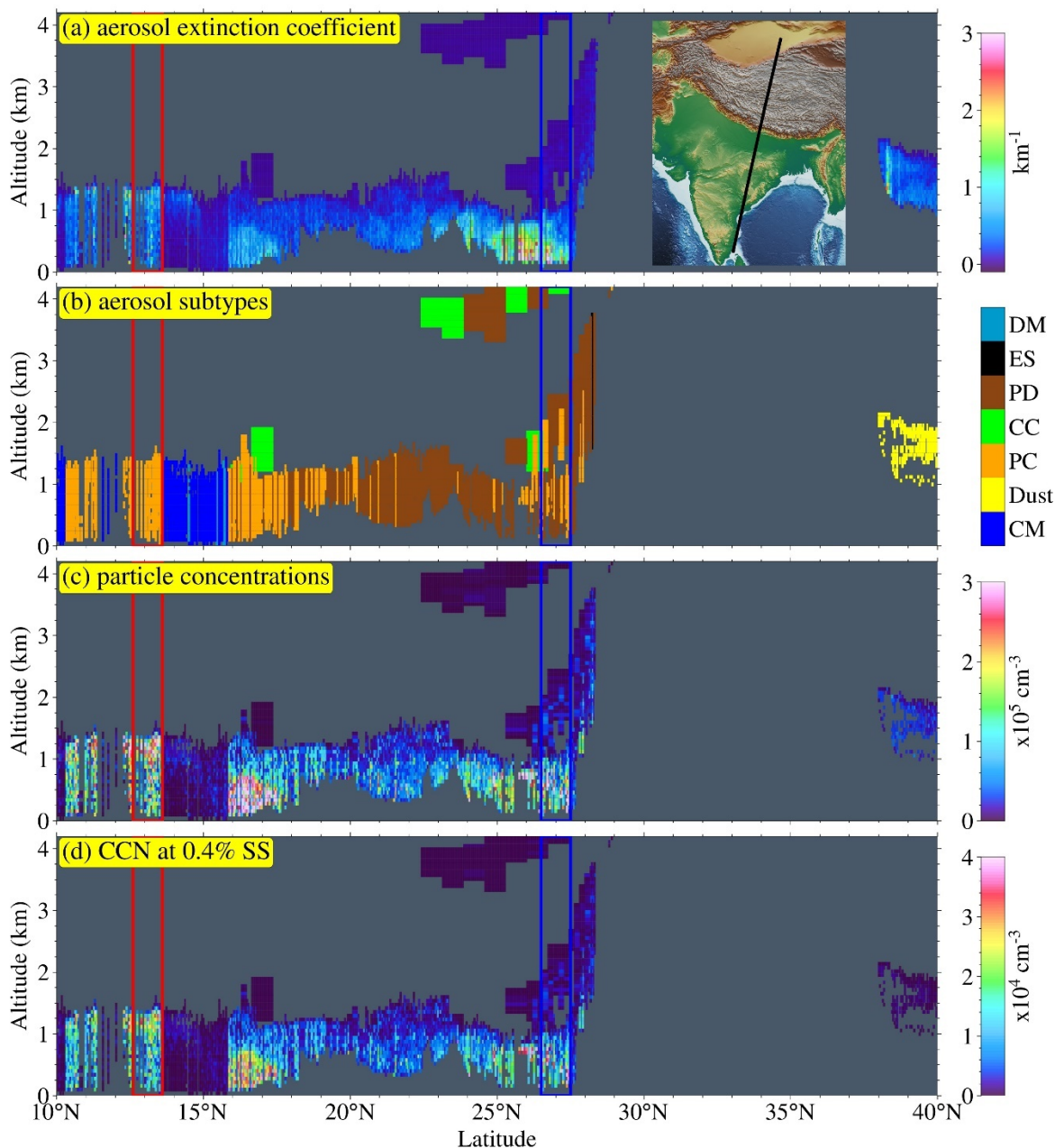
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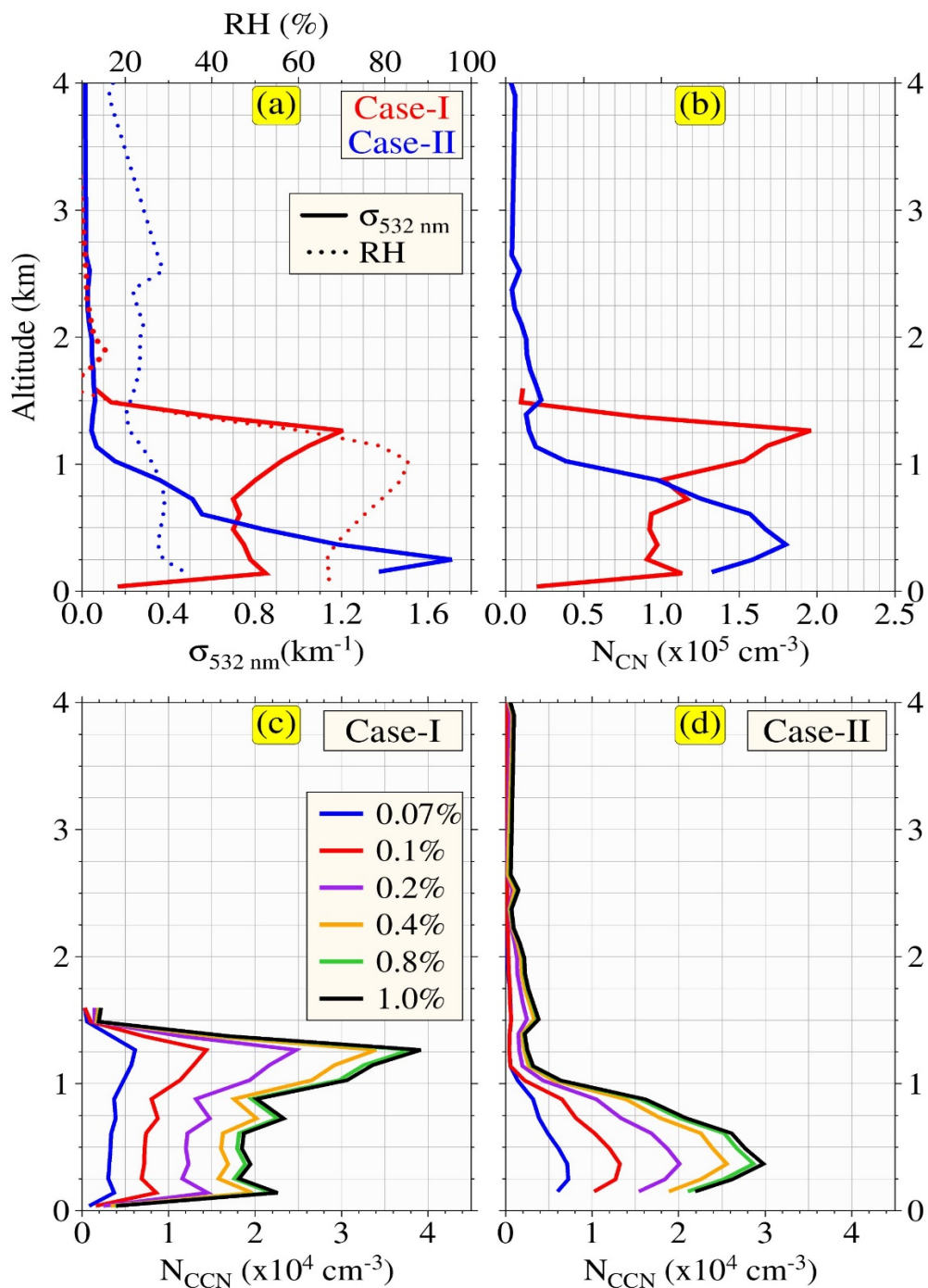
1298 **Figure 7: Comparison between retrieved and observed N_{CCN} .** The comparison between ECLiAP
1299 retrieved N_{CCN} from HSRL-2 lidar measurements and the measured N_{CCN} values from CCN
1300 counter. The HSRL-2 and CCN counter data were collected from the multiple flights during NASA-
1301 ORACLES airborne campaigns conducted in 2017-2018. The color bar displays the observed
1302 values of supersaturation for each measurement and the N_{CCN} were retrieved on the same
1303 supersaturation for the direct comparison. The slope and intercept of the best fit line are given in
1304 the key by m and b , respectively. The gray dash line indicates the unit slope line and blue solid
1305 line indicates the regression line.

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1309 **Figure 8: Retrieval from spaceborne lidar measurements.** Explore the capability of ECLiAP, the
 1310 N_{CN} , and N_{CCN} retrieved from CALIOP onboard CALIPSO observations on 01 January 2019,
 1311 passing over the Tibetan plateau and Indian landmass. CALIOP derived (a) extinction coefficient
 1312 at 532 nm, (b) aerosol subtypes were shown in the upper two panels. The lower two panels
 1313 illustrate the ECLiAP retrieved (c) total particle concentrations (N_{CN}), and (d) N_{CCN} at
 1314 supersaturation 0.4%. The two color boxes in red (case-I) and blue (case-II) are the two different
 1315 scenarios that are further studied to assess the capability of ECLiAP.

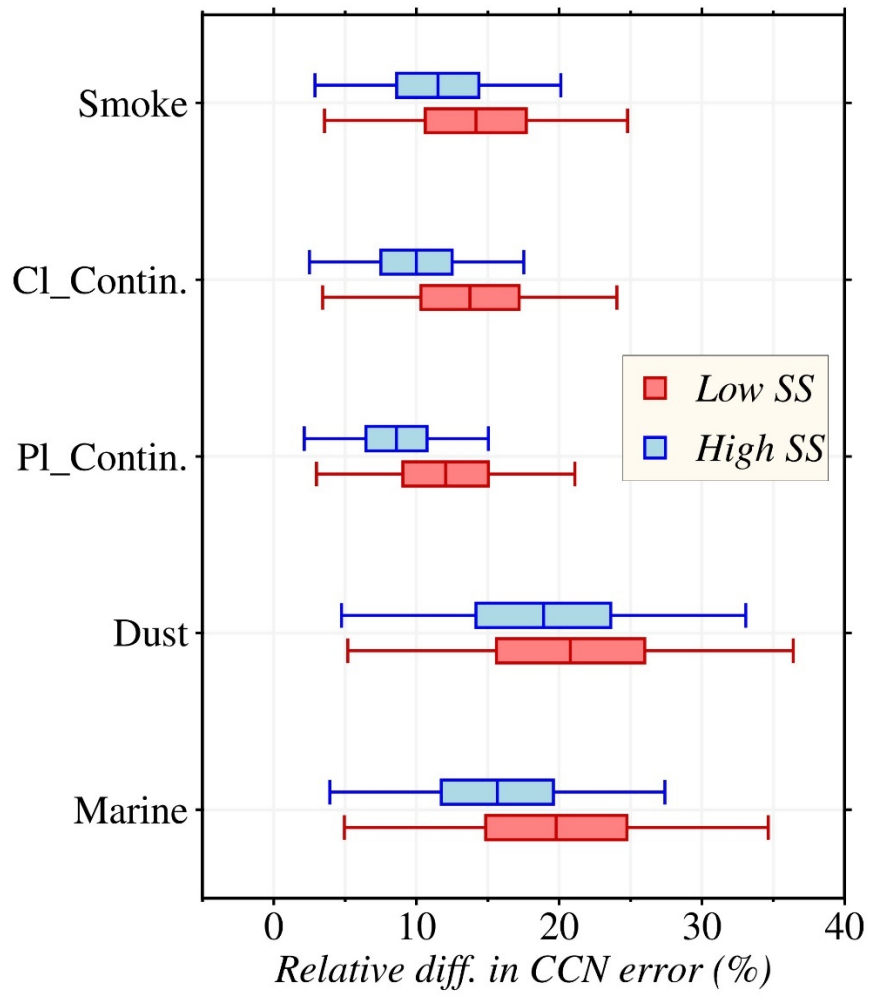


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1318 **Figure 9: Case studied from CALIOP observations.** As per mentioned above, two different
 1319 scenarios (case-I dominated by polluted continental and case-II contains a mixture of polluted
 1320 continental and polluted dust) were identified and studied in detail to assess the potential of
 1321 ECLiAP to accurately capture the particles physicochemical characteristics and their influence
 1322 on the retrieved values along with meteorological influence.

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1326 **Figure 10: Relative difference in CCN error between $3\beta+2\alpha$ and $3\beta+3\alpha$.** The CCN error were
1327 calculated against the given inputs using Eq. (11) for both the $3\beta+2\alpha$ and $3\beta+3\alpha$ techniques
1328 individually. Later the relative difference of CCN error has calculated from the individual CCN
1329 errors at low and high supersaturations for each aerosol subtypes.