



#### **Resolving Vertical Profile of Cloud Condensation Nuclei Concentrations from** 1 2 **Spaceborne Lidar Measurements**

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Abstract. Cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) are mediators of aerosol-cloud interactions (ACI), 17 18 contributing to the largest uncertainties in the understandings of global climate change. We present 19 a novel remote sensing-based algorithm that quantifies the vertically-resolved CCN number 20 concentrations (N<sub>CCN</sub>) using aerosol optical properties measured by a multiwavelength lidar. The 21 algorithm considers five distinct aerosol subtypes with bimodal size distributions. The inversion 22 used the look-up tables developed in this study, based on the observations from the Aerosol 23 Robotic Network to efficiently retrieve optimal particle size distributions from lidar 24 measurements. The method derives dry aerosol optical properties by implementing hygroscopic 25 enhancement factors to lidar measurements. The retrieved optically equivalent particle size 26 distributions and aerosol type dependent particle composition are utilized to calculate critical 27 diameter using the  $\kappa$ -Köhler theory and N<sub>CCN</sub> at six supersaturations ranging from 0.07% to 1.0%. 28 Sensitivity analyses indicate that uncertainties in extinction coefficients and relative humidity 29 greatly influence the retrieval error in N<sub>CCN</sub>. The potential of this algorithm is further evaluated by 30 retrieving N<sub>CCN</sub> using airborne lidar from the NASA ORACLES campaign and validated against 31 simultaneous measurements from the CCN counter. The independent validation with robust 32 correlation demonstrates promising results. Furthermore, the N<sub>CCN</sub> has been retrieved for the first 33 time using a proposed algorithm from spaceborne lidar - Cloud-Aerosol Lidar with Orthogonal 34 Polarization (CALIOP) - measurements. The application of this new capability demonstrates the 35 potential for constructing a 3D CCN climatology at a global scale, which help to better quantify ACI effects and thus reduce the uncertainty in aerosol climate forcing. 36





## 37 1 Introduction

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

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

63 Liu, et al., 2015; Li, Yin, et al., 2015).

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

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





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

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

108 In this study, we developed a comprehensive remote sensing algorithm with a novel retrieval 109 approach, known as ECLIAP (Estimation of CCN using Lidar measured Aerosol optical 110 **P**roperties), to estimate N<sub>CCN</sub> from multiwavelength spaceborne lidar measurements. The 111 approach is implemented with look-up table (LUT)s involving aerosol size and composition 112 information, in order to provide stable and efficient vertically-resolved CCN retrievals. The N<sub>CCN</sub> 113 at six critical supersaturations ranging from 0.07%-1.0% is determined from the retrieved particle size distributions. The retrieval accuracy is assessed using simulated lidar backscatter and 114 115 extinction coefficients with both random and systematic errors. The structure of this paper is as follows: This section provides the importance and motivation for retrieving N<sub>CCN</sub>. Section 2 116 117 discusses the inversion approach for retrieving  $N_{CCN}$  (particularly from satellite observations). The





118 numerical simulations for the sensitivity analysis, an extensive validation effort, and an 119 observational case study are presented in section 3. Section 4 covers the final discussion.

#### 120 Methodology 2

#### 121 2.1 **Construction of Lookup Tables**

122 The inversion solution using the combination of simultaneous measurements of backscatters at 123 three wavelengths and extinction at two wavelengths, also called  $3\beta + 2\alpha$ , using lidar has been 124 gaining prominence for aerosol microphysical (effective radius, total number, volume 125 concentration, refractive index) retrieval (Burton et al., 2016). Several fundamental aspects of the 126 mathematical problem must be solved during the retrieval from multiwavelength lidar. The most 127 important aspect is that the inversion solution is not unique. The non-uniqueness of an inversion 128 solution in the advanced  $3\beta + 2\alpha$  technique is the primary source of the retrieval challenges (Chemyakin et al., 2016). Additionally, retrieving six size parameters (number concentrations, 129 130 effective radius, and geometric standard deviation for fine and coarse mode particles) for a bimodal 131 particle size distribution (PSD) from five known quantities ( $\beta_{355}, \beta_{532}, \beta_{1064}, \alpha_{355}, \alpha_{532}$ ) is still an 132 ill-posed inversion problem. Besides, the existing spaceborne lidar instrument (CALIOP onboard 133 CALIPSO) provides the measurements at only two wavelengths (532 nm & 1064 nm). Considering 134 all these constraints and partially compensating the non-uniqueness problem, we employed the 135 LUT approach with a fine step of bimodal particle size distributions (PSDs) to derive aerosol size 136 parameters. The parameterization of bimodal lognormal PSD is described in section 2.1.1. The 137 fundamental design of the LUTs framework for lidar measurements builds to test the aerosol 138

- optical properties that we target for precise information.
- In the present study, the LUTs are designed using the  $3\beta+3\alpha$  ( $\beta_{355}$ ,  $\beta_{532}$ ,  $\beta_{1064}$ ,  $\alpha_{355}$ ,  $\alpha_{532}$ ,  $\alpha_{1064}$ ) 139 140 technique for the individual aerosol types. An additional input at a longer wavelength improves 141 the retrieval accuracy for coarse mode particles (Lv et al., 2018). These LUTs contain aerosol 142 optical properties such as backscatter coefficients at 355, 532, and 1064 nm ( $\beta_{355}$ ,  $\beta_{532}$ ,  $\beta_{1064}$ ) and 143 extinction coefficients at 355, 532, and 1064 nm ( $\alpha_{355}$ ,  $\alpha_{532}$ ,  $\alpha_{1064}$ ), along with size parameters 144 including number concentration, effective radius and geometric standard deviation for fine and 145 coarse mode particles ( $N_{tf_i}$   $r_{f_i}$   $\sigma_{f_i}$   $N_{tc_i}$   $r_{c_i}$   $\sigma_{c_i}$ ). Primarily, the LUTs are generated for the five distinct 146 aerosols subtypes: marine, dust, polluted continental, clean continental, and smoke aerosols (as 147 shown in Figure 1). This study considers dust particles to be spheroid, while other aerosol types to 148 be spheres. The particle optical properties are computed using the well-known Mie scattering 149 theory (Bohren & Huffman, 1998) for spherical particles, which is a numerically accurate approach 150 over a wide range of particle sizes. Meanwhile, the T-Matrix method (Mishchenko & Travis, 1998) 151 is adopted for the spheroids, which is numerically precise for the limited particle sizes. 152 Consequently, the improved geometric optics method (IGOM; Bi et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2007) is applied to the larger spheroids not covered by the T-matrix method. The axis ratio distribution 153 154 for spheroids, ranging from  $\sim 0.3$  (flattened spheroids) to  $\sim 3.0$  (elongated spheroids) is taken from 155 Dubovik et al., (2006). PSD and mean complex refractive index were used as the input parameters 156 for the computations of aerosol optical properties. The range of PSDs in the LUTs is sufficiently





157 broad to cover realistic values for atmospheric aerosols (Dubovik, 2002; Torres et al., 2017). The 158 parameters of bimodal distribution for five aerosol subtypes are derived using the measurements 159 from sun/sky radiometer at multiple selected Aerosol Robotic Network (AERONET) sites 160 (Dubovik, 2002; Torres et al., 2017). The PSDs are given in terms of the total particle number concentration, effective radius (r), and geometric standard deviation individually for fine and 161 162 coarse modes. Table S1 lists the parameters of the bimodal lognormal PSDs and complex refractive index that were used for the construction of LUTs. In the calculations, the range of radius for the 163 164 PSD is constrained to 0.01-10 µm with a fixed bin size of 0.002 defined on a logarithmic-165 equidistant scale. The intervals of  $\sigma_r$ ,  $\sigma_c$ ,  $r_f$  and  $r_c$  are fixed at 0.01, 0.01, 0.002 and 0.01  $\mu$ m, 166 respectively. These intervals are set as a compromise between accuracy and computation time. The 167 parameterization of bimodal particle size distribution is discussed in the following section.

### 168 2.1.1 Lognormal Aerosol Size Distributions

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

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

where  $N_{ti}$  is the total particle concentration of the  $i^{th}$  mode and  $r_i^n$  is the median radius for the 176 177 aerosol size distribution, with n representing the number concentration distribution. The index i =178 f, c refers to the fine and coarse modes, respectively. The term  $\ln \sigma_i$  is the mode width of the  $i^{th}$ 179 mode. This general bimodal lognormal size distribution shape for aerosol is adopted in this study 180 to improve the accuracy of the CCN retrieval. The sensitivity assessment regarding the response 181 of CCN to the assumption of bimodal size distributions is presented in section 3.1. For individual 182 lognormal components, the relationships between the volume and number distribution parameters 183 representing by the following equations (Hatch & Choate, 1929):

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

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

where,  $V_t$  is the particle volume concentration and  $r^{\nu}$  is the median radius for the aerosol volume size distribution. As shown in Figure 1 and Table S1, the main difference between the aerosol subtype is the ratio of the volume concentration of the fine mode to the coarse mode.





# 187 2.2 Retrieval of CCN Number Concentrations

This section discusses a detailed methodology adopted by ECLiAP to retrieve N<sub>CCN</sub> from
 the given lidar measurements.

## 190 2.2.1 Overview

191 An optically related N<sub>CCN</sub> is introduced to bridge the gap between aerosol particle and their 192 activation capability to serve as a cloud droplet. The ability of particles to act as CCN is mainly 193 controlled by particle size distribution followed by chemical composition (Dusek et al., 2006; Patel 194 & Jiang, 2021). However, both factors are significant in specific regions and meteorological 195 conditions (Mamouri & Ansmann, 2016). Therefore, N<sub>CCN</sub> could be quantified with size 196 distribution and compositional information. The key feature of an approach adopted in ECLiAP is 197 to seek the parameters that can provide the size and composition of particles consistent with lidar 198 measurements under dry conditions and use these parameters to estimate N<sub>CCN</sub>.

199 Figure 2 illustrates a schematic diagram of the method to retrieve N<sub>CCN</sub> from satellite observations.

200 In the natural environment, the particle hygroscopic properties influence the particle size 201 distribution and their optical properties, especially when it is near a cloud base or under a high 202 moist environment. Therefore, the lidar measured aerosol optical properties under ambient 203 conditions need to be corrected to the dry aerosol optical properties using the hygroscopic 204 enhancement factor. The hygroscopic enhancement factor can be fitted by the parameterization 205 scheme using enhancement of backscatter and extinction coefficients with RH. Particle dry 206 backscatter and extinction can also be inferred from the hygroscopic enhancement factor. An 207 approach to computing hygroscopic enhancement factors and performing hygroscopic correction 208 to obtain dry backscatter and extinction is described in Section 2.2.2. This step is applied to all the 209  $3\beta+3\alpha$  parameters before looking for aerosol size parameters from the LUT. Before applying 210 hygroscopic correction, lidar-measured optical properties, particularly for dust mixtures, are separated into dust and non-dust components using the backscatter coefficients and particle 211 212 depolarization ratio (Tesche et al., 2009). The methodology to separate the dust mixture is 213 discussed in Appendix A1.

214 Once the dry aerosol optical properties are derived, an ECLiAP look for the suitable size 215 parameters from the LUTs for the given dry aerosol optical properties and respective aerosol 216 subtype (see section 2.2.3). As mentioned earlier, the ability of particles to act as CCN is mainly 217 controlled by particle size distribution followed by chemical composition. Deriving composition 218 information of particles from the lidar measurements is not yet well-defined. Therefore, in the 219 absence of chemical composition data, mean chemical composition information denoted by a single value of  $\kappa$ , the so-called hygroscopicity parameter, is achievable for estimating N<sub>CCN</sub>, which 220 221 describes the relationship between the particle dry diameter and CCN activity. The sensitivity of 222 the estimated  $N_{CCN}$  to  $\kappa$  depends strongly on the variability of the shape of the aerosol size distribution (Wang et al., 2018). Therefore, the chemical information becomes less important in 223





estimating  $N_{CCN}$ , especially at higher supersaturation (Patel & Jiang, 2021). Most studies reported that the uncertainty of using the mean value of  $\kappa$  to estimate the  $N_{CCN}$  is less than 10% (Jurányi et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2018), which varies with atmospheric conditions. In ECLiAP, the literature values of  $\kappa$  are considered for each aerosol subtype for further retrieval. The  $\kappa$  is assumed to be 0.7 for marine (Andreae & Rosenfeld, 2008), 0.03 for dust (Koehler et al., 2009), 0.27 for polluted continental (Liu et al., 2011), 0.3 for clean continental (Andreae & Rosenfeld, 2008), and 0.1 for

- smoke aerosols (Petters et al., 2009) for the later computations.
- Finally, an ECLiAP uses the retrieved optically equivalent size parameters from LUTs and  $\kappa$  value as composition information for the further computation of critical radius using the  $\kappa$ -Köhler theory
- 232 as composition momanon for the future computation of critical radius using the k-Komer theory 233 (Petters & Kreidenweis, 2007), and hence the  $N_{CCN}$  for the six fixed supersaturations (see section
- (1 cuers & Riedenweis, 2007), and hence the  $N_{CCN}$  for the six fixed supersaturations (see section 234 2.2.4). For the dust mixture,  $N_{CCN}$  derived separately both for dust and non-dust are added lastly.
- 2.2.4). For the dust mixture, NCCN derived separately both for dust and non-dust are added fastly

# 235 2.2.2 Derivation of dry backscatter and dry extinction

236 It is difficult to measure the complex chemical composition and associated water uptake capability of a particle with increasing RH. Therefore, a widely popular and simple parameterization scheme 237 238 was used to describe the changes in aerosol optical properties with atmospheric RH relative to a 239 dry (or low-RH) state, also called the hygroscopic enhancement factor. Recent aerosol hygroscopic 240 studies (Bedoya-Velásquez et al., 2018; Fernández et al., 2018; Lv et al., 2017) have derived 241 backscatter and extinction enhancement factors using lidar measurements and RH profiles. The 242 hygroscopic enhancement factor that is associated with both particle size and hygroscopicity 243 (Kuang et al., 2017), is defined as:

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

where  $f_{\xi}$  is the hygroscopic enhancement factor of the optical property  $\xi$  (backscatter and 244 245 extinction) at a specific light wavelength  $\lambda$  and RH, and RH<sub>dry</sub> is the reference RH value (RH=0). 246 There is no generic reference RH that represents the dry conditions for lidar measurements, unlike 247 in-situ controlled RH measurements, to derive enhancements factor. Inferring dry backscatter and extinction coefficients is also crucial in CCN retrieval. Therefore, parameterization of the 248 249 hygroscopic growth of lidar-derived optical properties should combine dry aerosol optical 250 properties and  $f_{\xi}(RH,\lambda)$  together. Previous studies have proposed several parameterization schemes for hygroscopic enhancement factors (Titos et al., 2016). The most frequently used 251 252 parameterization scheme is a power-law function that is known as gamma parameterization, 253 introduced by Kasten, (1969):

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

254 Where the parameter A gives the extrapolated value at RH=0% and the exponent  $\gamma$  is the fitting 255 parameter and defines the hygroscopic behavior of the particles. Recently, a new physically based





- single-parameter representation approach was proposed by Brock et al., (2016) to describe the
- hygroscopic enhancement factor. Their results claimed that this proposed parameterization scheme
   better describes light-scattering hygroscopic enhancement factors than the widely used gamma
- better describes light-scattering hygroscopic enhancement factors than the wide power-law approximation. The formula of this new scheme is written as:

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

260 where,  $\kappa_{\xi}$  is a dimensionless fitting parameter and shows a significant correlation with bulk 261 hygroscopic parameter  $\kappa$ ; but they are not equivalent (Brock et al., 2016; Kuang et al., 2017).  $\xi_{dry}$ 

denotes dry aerosol optical properties (backscatter and extinction coefficients).

263 For the estimation of the hygroscopic enactment factor, aerosol optical properties (backscatter and extinction coefficients) at 355, 532, and 1064 nm are calculated over a range of RH (0-99%) using 264 265 Mie theory (T-matrix and IGOM for spheroid) for the range of PSDs and each aerosols subtype. Figure S1 illustrates the mean curve of the hygroscopic enhancement factor (the ratio between the 266 267 aerosol optical properties at specific RH to dry RH) at three wavelengths with increasing RH for 268 each aerosol subtype. With given aerosol optical properties at different RHs,  $\kappa_{\xi}$  can be fitted by 269 curve fitting using Eq. (6). However, Tan et al., (2019), based on a comparison of  $\kappa_{\xi}$  and derived 270  $\xi_{drv}$  for various ranges of RH, showed that the fitting hygroscopic parameters are found to be 271 sensitive to fitting RH range when the RH range is limited and relatively high (between 60% and 272 90%). Therefore, we fixed the RH range to 60%-90% for the parameter fitting (highlighted curve 273 in Figure S1). In addition, retrieving finite dry aerosol optical properties could not be possible for 274 the observation with RH > 99%. Therefore, ECLiAP only applies the hygroscopic correction when 275 RH is between 40% and 99%. In ECLiAP, individual  $\kappa_{\xi}$  values for each aerosol optical property 276 at three different wavelengths, along with the RH value, are used to obtain the dry aerosol optical 277 properties separately for each aerosol subtype using Eq. (6).

## 278 2.2.3 Inversion techniques for size parameters

279 Once the dry aerosol optical properties are obtained, the ECLiAP searches for suitable size 280 parameters from the LUTs. For this, the ECLiAP look for the best combination of six values ( $N_{tf}$ , 281  $r_{f}$ ,  $\sigma_{f}$ ,  $N_{tc}$ ,  $r_{c}$ ,  $\sigma_{c}$ ) to match inputs ( $\beta_{355}$ ,  $\beta_{532}$ ,  $\beta_{1064}$ ,  $\alpha_{355}$ ,  $\alpha_{532}$ ,  $\alpha_{1064}$ ) by minimizing the following 282 function:

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

283 Where  $x_i$  represents input aerosol optical data ( $\beta_{355}$ ,  $\beta_{532}$ ,  $\beta_{1064}$ ,  $\alpha_{355}$ ,  $\alpha_{532}$ ,  $\alpha_{1064}$ ) and  $x_i$  is aerosol 284 optical data ( $\beta'_{355}$ ,  $\beta'_{532}$ ,  $\beta'_{1064}$ ,  $\alpha'_{355}$ ,  $\alpha'_{532}$ ,  $\alpha'_{1064}$ ) derived from LUTs, which are calculated from 285 Mie theory (or T-matrix and IGOM for spheroid) and size distribution parameters.





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

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

288 Where  $x_f$  and  $x_c$  refer to the data bank precomputed with  $(\sigma_f, r_f \text{ and } r)$  and  $(\sigma_c, r_c \text{ and } r)$ , 289 respectively. Furthermore, we have adopted the successive approximation method (Kantorovitch, 290 1939) to deal with the extensive range of  $N_{tf}$  and speed up the finding for the closest solution. 291 Therefore, the inversion technique is further divided into two steps. Step-1: search for an 292 approximate solution based on the criterion in Eq. 8 and calculate the corresponding aerosol optical 293 data  $(\beta'_{355}, \beta'_{532}, \beta'_{1064}, \alpha'_{355}, \alpha'_{532}, \alpha'_{1064})$  from the data banks  $(x_f \text{ and } x_c)$  and  $N_{tf}$  and  $N_{tc}$ . The step 294 widths of  $N_{tf}$  and  $N_{tc}$  are considered to be 100 and 0.1 cm<sup>-3</sup>, respectively. Step 2: based on the approximate solution obtained in step 1, determine the smallest solution space of  $N_{tf}$  by repeating 295 296 the procedure in step 1 using a smaller step width of 10 cm<sup>-3</sup> for  $N_{tf}$ . Search for the optimal solution 297 of six size parameters ( $N_{tf}$ ,  $r_f$ ,  $\sigma_f$ ,  $N_{tc}$ ,  $r_c$ ,  $\sigma_c$ ).

### 298 2.2.4 Estimation of $N_{CCN}$

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

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

Where,  $D_{crit}$  is the critical diameter ( $r_{crit} = D_{crit}/2$ ), and  $S_c = SS + 1$ ,  $M_w$  and  $\rho_w$  are the molecular weight and water density, while R and T are the ideal gas constant and the absolute temperature, respectively and  $\sigma_{s/a} = 0.072$  J m<sup>-2</sup>. The critical radius is determined at six critical supersaturations for activation (0.07%, 0.1%, 0.2%, 0.4%, 0.8% and 1.0%).

308 Finally, the ECLiAP calculates  $N_{CCN}$  by integrating size distribution from critical radius to 309 maximum radius as:

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





## 311 3 Results

## 312 3.1 Sensitivity analysis

313 Evaluating the algorithm is a challenging task in the absence of standard and reliable 314 measurements. The performance of the ECLiAP is evaluated using numerically simulated 315 observations with different error characteristics.

316 3.1.1 Retrieval of N<sub>CCN</sub> with error-free data

Firstly, error-free lidar measurements are considered as inputs to evaluate the inversion stability of ECLiAP. The retrieval procedure is repeated for 2000 different sets of the bimodal size distribution for each aerosol type. Errors are calculated in retrieved  $N_{CCN}$  ( $N_{CCN}^{ret}$ ) with respect to

320 the initial inputs  $(N_{CCN}^{int})$  using Eq. 8.

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

321 Table 1 lists the statistical results of CCN error for each aerosol type. As the number shows, the 322 initial N<sub>CCN</sub> is well reproduced from the error-free inputs for each aerosol size distribution. The 323 standard deviation of the retrieved CCN errors from the different sets of bimodal size distribution data is also estimated along with the mean value to determine the range of the retrieved CCN error. 324 325 As mentioned above, the appropriate balance between the accuracy and processing time of the 326 LUTs leads the mean CCN error close to zero but not equal to zero. However, the small standard 327 deviation (<0.25) indicates the smaller variances of errors among the aerosol size distributions. 328 Although the high accuracy of LUTs provides the CCN error closer to zero, the calculations are 329 more time expensive. In general, the retrieval results shown in Table 1 exhibit the good accuracy 330 and stability of the inversion algorithm for each aerosol subtype.

331 Additionally, the sensitivity of the N<sub>CCN</sub> retrieval to the assumption of the bimodal size distribution 332 is tested against the aerosol size distribution measurements at the U.S Department of Energy's 333 Atmospheric Radiation Measurement (ARM) climate research facility from the Southern Great 334 Plain (SGP) site. Particle size distribution was measured simultaneously by an Ultra-High 335 Sensitivity Aerosol Spectrometer (for the 0.07 to 1 µm geometric diameter range) and an Aerodynamic Particle Sizer (TSI-3321; for the 0.7 to 5 µm aerodynamics diameter range). The 336 337 size conversion factor, defined as the ratio of aerodynamic diameter to geometric diameter, was 338 used to construct a trimodal lognormal particle size distribution. For the purpose of this study, the 339 corresponding bimodal fits are produced, which are representative of the observed size 340 distributions. Figure S2 shows an example of the observed aerosol size distribution and the 341 corresponding bimodal fits. The comparison suggests that bimodal lognormal size distributions 342 can well represent the observed aerosol size distributions qualitatively. Later, we calculate N<sub>CCN</sub> 343 based on the bimodal fits and compare them with the 100 observed size distributions to quantify 344 the errors arising from the bimodal lognormal fits. The associated k values are estimated based on





345 observed PSDs and N<sub>CCN</sub> values as described in Patel & Jiang, (2021). The induced CCN errors

from the bimodal fitting are shown in Table 2. The absolute value of  $N_{CCN}$  retrieval errors is 3.9%,

with a standard deviation of 2.8% at 0.1% supersaturation. Overall, the results suggest that bimodal
 lognormal aerosol size distributions are adequate for retrieving N<sub>CCN</sub>, but errors from the bimodal

349 assumption are not negligible.

350 3.1.2 Impact of systematic and random errors on N<sub>CCN</sub> retrieval

351 Both systematic and random errors exist in lidar-retrieved measurements (Mattis et al., 2016). Systematic errors can be induced by experimental conditions, retrieval algorithms, data processing 352 methods, and our understanding of physical interactions. Sensitivity analysis tests the impacts of 353 systematic errors from backscatter and extinction coefficients on N<sub>CCN</sub> retrieval. Although the 354 355 systematic errors of different parameters are correlated, the errors are considered independent for individual lidar measurements in the simulations. The systematic errors ranging from -20% to 20% 356 357 with an interval of 5% are applied to one input parameter at a time (others are kept error-free) in 358 each test to understand the impacts on individual parameters better. The inversion algorithm is 359 performed to obtain a new set of aerosol size distributions and retrieve N<sub>CCN</sub> data. The procedure is repeated for each input parameter and error value with 200 sets of the randomly generated size 360 361 distribution for each aerosol subtype. The percentage errors in N<sub>CCN</sub> associated with systematic 362 errors can be estimated by comparing retrieved and initial values of N<sub>CCN</sub> using Eq. 11.

363 Figure 3 illustrates the error in retrieved N<sub>CCN</sub> as a function of the systematic errors in backscatter 364 and extinction coefficients. The slope of the curve indicates the sensitivity of CCN errors to 365 systematic errors in individual parameters. A steeper slope infers a high sensitivity in the N<sub>CCN</sub> 366 retrieval to the systematic error for a given input parameter. Errors in retrieved N<sub>CCN</sub> increase as 367 errors of backscatter and extinction increase, and it is even steeper at higher supersaturations. In 368 general, N<sub>CCN</sub> retrievals are most sensitive to errors in extinction coefficients followed by 369 backscatter coefficients. Interestingly, the results are less sensitive to errors in backscatter 370 coefficients at lower supersaturations ( $\leq 0.2\%$ ) but are relatively more sensitive at higher 371 supersaturations (>0.2%). This indicates that reducing uncertainties in the extinction coefficients 372 can effectively improve the accuracy of N<sub>CCN</sub> retrieval while reducing uncertainty in backscatter 373 coefficients can be beneficial for retrieving N<sub>CCN</sub> at higher supersaturation. Errors in  $\alpha$ 355 374 influence the retrieval results the most. On average, a positive relative error of 20% in  $\alpha$ 355 375 overestimates the N<sub>CCN</sub> retrieval by about 20% at lower supersaturation and about 50% at higher supersaturation. A negative error of 20% in a355 underestimates the N<sub>CCN</sub> retrieval, and the degree 376 377 of impact is slightly higher than the positive error. Errors in  $\alpha_{532}$  and  $\alpha_{355}$  have the opposite effect 378 on the retrieval error. It is also clear that the influence of systematic errors on the retrieval of  $N_{CCN}$ 379 varies with activation radius, as elucidated by the different signs of the slopes. For instance, the 380 slopes of the extinction coefficient for dust aerosols reverse the sign when the activation radius 381 exceeds low to high supersaturation. These differences most likely result from the reduced retrieval 382 sensitivity to the coarse mode of the aerosol size distribution. In addition, there are substantial 383 distinctions among the types of aerosols. Dust and marine aerosols have the largest absolute errors





384 compared to others dominated by fine-mode particles (see Table 1). These collectively indicate 385 that there are better constraints for fine-mode aerosols than for coarse-mode aerosols, which 386 introduce a larger retrieval error in N<sub>CCN</sub> for aerosols with more weight in the coarse mode. It is noteworthy that incorporating an additional input signal of extinction coefficient at 1064 nm in the 387 388 ECLiAP reduces the error by  $\sim 20\%$  in the coarse mode-dominated aerosol subtypes (dust and 389 marine), and ~15% in total compared to the previous studies (Lv et al., 2018; Tan et al., 2019). 390 Nevertheless, integrating an additional lidar signal at a wavelength longer than 1064 nm may 391 further reduce retrieval error for the coarse mode-dominated aerosol type.

392 RH is another crucial parameter in the present retrieval algorithm for N<sub>CCN</sub>. Errors in RH derived by remote-sensing or reanalysis influence the values of growth factors and result in the dry aerosol 393 394 optical properties, which in turn influence all the input parameters. Therefore, systematic errors 395 ranging from -10% to 10% in intervals of 2% are considered for RH. Figure 4 shows the result of systematic errors in RH. We observed that N<sub>CCN</sub> is overestimated when RH has a negative 396 397 systematic error, and the extent of overestimation in N<sub>CCN</sub> increases as the error increase. A 398 negative error of 10% in RH overestimates N<sub>CCN</sub> at lower supersaturation by about 20% and 399 doubles at higher supersaturation. The effects of the positive errors in RH are relatively smaller 400 and more complicated than negative errors. The mean retrieval error peaked at the RH error at 6%, 401 and the standard deviation of retrieval error increased with the RH error. This suggests that 402 underestimating RH causes large errors than overestimation. Therefore, extra care should be paid 403 to RH measurements if RH-related hygroscopic enhancements of aerosol optical properties are 404 considered.

405 Systematic errors introduce mean biases in N<sub>CCN</sub> retrievals, whereas random errors in observations 406 produce random N<sub>CCN</sub> retrieval errors. Random errors obeying Gaussian distributions are produced 407 arbitrarily with a mean value of zero. The standard deviations are set to 10% for aerosol optical 408 properties and to 5%, 10%, and 20% for RH in each test. The simulation is repeated 5000 times 409 for each aerosol subtype, and the statistical results are presented in Figure 5. The mean values of relative error are presented by color, and the number indicates the standard deviation. The error 410 411 does not change significantly as the random error of RH increases. The mean random errors are 412 relatively small and non-zero, mainly because the sensitivities of N<sub>CCN</sub> retrievals are different for 413 different aerosol optical data. The standard deviations are within 16%-28%. The results reveal that 414 random errors in the given input parameters may also contribute to systematic errors in the N<sub>CCN</sub> 415 retrievals. The largest mean relative errors are found for coarse mode-dominated aerosol subtypes 416 (dust and marine), consistent with the sensitivities to systematic errors. As discussed earlier, 417 considering additional lidar measurements at longer wavelengths that are more sensitive to larger 418 particles could improve the retrieval of N<sub>CCN</sub> for the coarse mode-dominated aerosol subtypes. The 419 mean values of relative errors increase with increasing supersaturation for all aerosol types. Errors 420 in the retrieved N<sub>CCN</sub> follow a Gaussian distribution for low supersaturation. However, the 421 Gaussian shape disappears, and the high frequencies shift to the edge of the distribution when 422 supersaturation shifts from low to high (not shown here). Furthermore, the influence of random 423 errors on the individual input parameters is also assessed and is shown in Figure S3. Random errors





424 underestimate the enhancement factor ( $\kappa_{\xi}$ ) by 30%-40% for 5% RH error, 45%-60% for 10% RH

error, and 65%-75% for 20% RH error. The relative errors in  $\beta$  are likely to be overestimated, whereas they are underestimated in  $\alpha$ . The absolute relative error of input parameters becomes

427 larger as the random error of RH grows.

# 428 3.2 Comparison with airborne measurements

429 The evaluation of N<sub>CCN</sub> retrieval depends on how well retrieved and observed values are matched, 430 as matching errors can become overwhelming. Therefore, we have carried out a validation 431 approach by comparing ECLiAP retrieved N<sub>CCN</sub> from lidar measurements with the in-situ 432 measurements of N<sub>CCN</sub> by CCN counter during the NASA ObseRvations of Aerosols above Clouds 433 and their intEractionS (ORACLES) airborne campaign, which occurred from 2016 to 2018 over 434 the Southeast Atlantic (SEA) (Redemann et al., 2021; Zuidema et al., 2016). The ORACLES data 435 contain measured in-situ N<sub>CCN</sub> from the CCN counter and lidar measurements with NASA Langley 436 Research Center's high-spectral resolution lidar (HSRL-2). We took the opportunity to conduct 437 the validation exercise based on the accessible data.

HSRL-2 measures the vertical profiles of aerosol optical properties, whereas the CCN counter 438 439 provides measurements for point location. Therefore, we carried out two strategically different 440 validation exercises in this study: (1) the vertical profile-based comparison and (2) the comparison 441 of collocated measurements. For the profile-based comparison, an ascending path of flight (area 442 covered within the yellow dashed line in Figure S4) on 19 October 2018 has been considered, so 443 the measurements of the CCN counter can be available at various altitudes. Prior to comparison, 444 the lidar measurements from HSRL-2 are averaged over a selected wide space and time (yellow 445 dashed line box in Figure S4). The N<sub>CCN</sub> measurements from the CCN counter were available at the supersaturation between 0.32% and 0.34%. Hence, the N<sub>CCN</sub> were retrieved at the 446 447 supersaturation of 0.34% by applying ECLiAP to the mean profiles of lidar measurements. It is 448 noteworthy that the retrieval has been carried out only on those observations having valid lidar 449 measurements at least for two wavelengths. Figure 6a demonstrates the retrieval fit to HSRL-2's vertical dry aerosol extinction coefficient measurements at 355, 532, and 1064 nm. A smoke 450 451 aerosol dominates the ~93% of profiles at the altitude above 800 meters and marine at lower 452 altitudes (< 800 m), having RH between 30%-105%. The finite dry aerosol optical properties close 453 to the surface could not be retrieved for the observations with RH>99%. The retrieved profiles of 454 dry extinction coefficients are in better agreement with the measured by HSRL-2. This illustrates 455 the ability of the kappa parametrization to account for aerosol hygroscopicity. The vertical mean 456 of absolute fitting error of extinction coefficient is found to be 3.2%, 4.8%, and 6.3% for 355, 532, 457 and 1064 nm, respectively, and the vertical mean of absolute fitting error of backscatter 458 coefficients is 5.1%, 6.7% and 8.9% for 355, 532 and 1064 nm respectively. The fit to the 459 backscatter coefficients of 1064 nm has a relatively larger error. Certainly, one needs to know that 460 the vertically resolved extinction coefficient at 1064 nm is derived using the backscatter coefficient at 1064 nm and lidar ratio. Since HSRL-2 does not directly measure extinction at 1064 nm, it is 461 462 computed from an assumed relationship with the measured lidar ratio at 532 nm. Though provided





463 as a best guess, such an estimate may cause extra uncertainty to the 1064 nm. Furthermore, the 464 comparison of vertical profiles of ECLiAP retrieved N<sub>CCN</sub> from lidar measurements and the N<sub>CCN</sub> 465 measured by the CCN counter is shown in Figure 6b. The retrieved values captured the pattern of altitude variations in N<sub>CCN</sub> as observed by the in-situ measurements. However, the magnitude of 466 467 retrieved  $N_{CCN}$  is slightly overestimated by ~12% in total. The overestimation is lower (~9%) at 468 above 2 km, whereas, at below 1 km, it is slightly higher ( $\sim 16\%$ ). A plausible reason behind the 469 relatively large overestimation at below 1 km might be the considerable variation of RH between 470 60%-105% or/and the highly variable aerosol properties due to the mixture of multiple aerosol 471 subtypes (smoke, marine, and dust). In addition, wind-driven advection and the age of the air parcel 472 radically modify the characteristics of smoke aerosols and their hygroscopic behavior, which also 473 leads to the slight overestimation of retrieved N<sub>CCN</sub> values. The discrepancy between the retrieved 474 and observed values of N<sub>CCN</sub> should be reassessed with the robust measurements from the varieties 475 of aerosol subtypes using the multi-campaign airborne data.

476 The second robust validation exercise is performed, based on collocated measurements, 477 using two years (2017-2018) of combined data from the ORACLES campaign. In 2017-2018, both 478 HSRL-2 and CCN counter were installed on the NASA P-3 flight. The end goal of this exercise is 479 to find one lidar measurement from HSRL-2 to directly compare with one N<sub>CCN</sub> measured by the 480 CCN counter, both observed in approximately the same time and space. We defined colocation 481 criteria for any given HSRL-2 profile as follows. The collocation method finds CCN measurement 482 that falls within  $\pm 1.1$  km horizontal distance,  $\pm 60$  m vertical distance, and  $\pm 10$  minutes of the time 483 window. Later, the meteorological parameters within the given space and time windows are 484 extracted along with lidar measurements and measured N<sub>CCN</sub> from each flight of the 2017-2018 485 ORACLES campaign. ECLiAP is applied to each lidar measurement for N<sub>CCN</sub> retrieval on the 486 same supersaturation value measured by the CCN counter (lies within the range from 0.2-0.4% 487 SS). Figure 7 represents the result from the comparison of retrieved and measured  $N_{CCN}$ . The  $N_{CCN}$ 488 inferred from the CCN counter measurement is in better agreement with the retrieved N<sub>CCN</sub> with a 489 correlation coefficient (R) of ~0.89, a root mean square error (RMSE) value of  $302.8 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ , and a 490 bias of 138.8 cm<sup>-3</sup>. The systematic positive bias in the comparison indicates that the retrieved  $N_{CCN}$ 491 are overestimating the observed values. It is noteworthy that smoke aerosols dominate in the 492 observations from ORACLES, but it also has significant observations from marine, dust, and 493 polluted dust. The discrepancy between measured and retrieved values could be due to the 494 variabilities in the aerosol properties. Overall, the strong correlation in the validation results 495 demonstrates the potential of ECLiAP in retrieving N<sub>CCN</sub> from lidar measurements. It recommends 496 having a detailed validation study separate for aerosol subtypes using ground-based and aircraft 497 measurements to evaluate the reliability of the ECLiAP algorithm in estimating the N<sub>CCN</sub>.

## 498 3.3 Retrieving N<sub>CCN</sub> from spaceborne lidar (CALIOP/CALIPSO): a case study

Extending the scope of ECLiAP, the methodology was converted into a procedure that can be
 applied to any level-2 aerosol profile dataset from Cloud-Aerosol Lidar with Orthogonal
 Polarization (CALIOP) on the Cloud-Aerosol Lidar and Infrared Pathfinder Satellite Observations





- 502 (CALIPSO) (Winker et al., 2007). As an illustrative example, this procedure was applied to a 503 regular CALIPSO track for 01 January 2019 starting at 20:08 UTC, which spans from 10 °N to 40 504 °N, passing over the Tibetan plateau and Indian landmass. The CALIPSO track (solid black line) 505 can be seen on the right-hand side in Figure 8a. CALIOP onboard CALIPSO provides 506 measurements of aerosol optical properties only at two wavelengths (532 and 1064 nm). Therefore, 507 a total of six parameters ( $\beta_{532}$ ,  $\beta_{1064}$ ,  $\alpha_{532}$ ,  $\alpha_{1064}$ , depolarization ratio, and aerosol subtypes) from 508 CALIOP along with meteorological parameters (RH, temperature) are provided as the inputs to 509 ECLiAP and retrieved total particle concentration (N<sub>CN</sub>) and N<sub>CCN</sub> at six supersaturations as 510 outputs. The N<sub>CN</sub> amount represents the total number of aerosol particles that can serve as centers 511 for condensation, while the N<sub>CCN</sub> is the fraction of N<sub>CN</sub> that can activate as CCN.
- The extinction coefficient at 532 nm and aerosol subtypes, along with retrieved  $N_{CN}$  and  $N_{CCN}$  at 512 supersaturation of 0.4%, are shown in Figure 8. Unfortunately, due to the retrieval limitation over 513 514 the elevated region along with cloudiness, there are no valid aerosol measurements over the 515 Himalayan-Tibetan plateau (as shown by a gap between 28 °N to 37 °N). On the contrary, a strong 516 mixed aerosol signal is observed over the Indian landmass ( $\alpha_{532}$  larger than 2.5 km<sup>-1</sup>), while an 517 elevated (altitude >1 km) dust aerosol layer ( $\alpha_{332} = \sim 1.0 \text{ km}^{-1}$ ) at the edge of the CALIPSO track 518 over the Taklamakan desert (above 38 °N). Over southern India (below 17 °N), polluted 519 continental aerosols prevail ( $\alpha_{532}$  between 0.5-0.8 km<sup>-1</sup>) and mostly accumulate within the 520 boundary layer (~1.5 km a.s.l.), while over northern India (above 19 °N), the aerosol situation 521 includes a mixture of polluted continental and polluted dust ( $a_{532} = \sim 1.6$  km<sup>-1</sup> below 1 km altitude). The corresponding vertical cross-section of retrieved N<sub>CN</sub> and N<sub>CCN</sub> at a supersaturation of 0.4% 522 523 using ECLiAP can be seen in Figures 8c and 8d, respectively. N<sub>CN</sub> and N<sub>CCN</sub> larger than 25000  $cm^{-3}$  and 3000 cm<sup>-3</sup> at a supersaturation of 0.4% appear over the areas where polluted continental 524 aerosols dominate (southern India), while N<sub>CCN</sub> is greater than 2000 cm<sup>-3</sup> appears over northern 525 India. Dust N<sub>CCN</sub> of 100 to 200 cm<sup>-3</sup> appears over the Taklamakan desert region. 526

527 To verify the capability of ECLiAP retrieval to capture similar variability of particle 528 physicochemical characteristics and its influence on CCN retrievals, we have investigated two 529 distinct cases identified based on the variation in aerosol subtypes and meteorological variables. 530 These scenarios are as follows: (1) Case-I: domination of polluted continental aerosols over 531 southern India (red color box covered in figure 8) (2) Case-II: Mixture of polluted dust and polluted 532 continental aerosols over northern India (blue color box covered in figure 8). The profiles of 533 extinction coefficients at 532 nm and relative humidity, along with retrieved N<sub>CN</sub> and N<sub>CCN</sub> at six 534 supersaturations, are presented in Figure 9. Figure 9a shows the profiles of the extinction 535 coefficient at 532 nm and relative humidity for both cases. The extinction profile in case-I ranges 536 from 0.7-1.2 km<sup>-1</sup>, is dominated by polluted continental aerosols in the high moisture condition 537 (RH between 60%-80%), accumulates within the boundary layer ( $\sim 1.5$  km), and peaks at  $\sim 1.2$  km. 538 Conversely, case-II represents the low moisture condition ( $RH \leq 30\%$ ), with relatively large extinction coefficient values with a maximum of 1.6 km<sup>-1</sup> at ~0.2 km altitude, influenced mainly 539 540 by the mixture of polluted continental and polluted dust aerosols. These two cases are dynamically 541 diverse and different in nature that providing a solid platform to verify the capability of ECLiAP





542 in retrieving N<sub>CCN</sub>. Figure 9b illustrates the retrieved N<sub>CN</sub> using ECLiAP for both cases. The 543 retrieved mean values of N<sub>CN</sub> are observed to be almost similar (~12000 cm<sup>-3</sup> and ~11000 cm<sup>-3</sup> for 544 case-I and case-II, respectively). The profiles of N<sub>CN</sub> follow a similar vertical distribution pattern 545 of extinction coefficients. Figures 9c and 9d display the retrieved N<sub>CCN</sub> at six supersaturations for 546 Case-I and II, respectively. Interestingly, N<sub>CCN</sub> values are found to be relatively lower in case-II, 547 though its extinction coefficient is larger than in case-I. Note that ECLiAP considers polluted dust 548 as a mixture of polluted continental and dust aerosol to retrieve N<sub>CCN</sub>. The above-mentioned 549 discrepancy can be only explained by the intrusion of dust and its non-hygroscopic behavior along 550 with dry conditions, further reducing the concentration of hygroscopic aerosols that leads to a 551 decrease in  $N_{CCN}$ . This has been clearly reflected in the calculated activation ratio (AR = 552 N<sub>CCN</sub>/N<sub>CN</sub>) spectra in Figure S5. Figure S5 directly compares the AR spectra as a function of SS 553 for both cases. The observed differences in the AR spectra reflect the nature of the particles to act 554 as CCN. Relatively, larger values of AR in case-I indicate the dominance of hygroscopic aerosols 555 get activated to CCN under high moisture and increase N<sub>CCN</sub>. In contrast, the dust intrusion in 556 case-II reduces the capability of particles to activate as CCN under low moisture and further 557 reduces AR by  $\sim 20\%$ -60% for the range of supersaturation from 0.07% to 1.0%. Given the limited 558 sample space, the aim of the study is to demonstrate the potential of ECLiAP for retrieving reliable N<sub>CCN</sub> data from spaceborne lidar measurements. A detailed comprehensive analysis comparing the 559 560 CALIOP-retrieved  $N_{CCN}$  with multi-campaign airborne measurements is essential to evaluate the reliability of ECLiAP to construct the 3D CCN climatology at a global scale. 561

## 562 4 Discussion

563 Due to the absence of vertically resolved information in AOD, using it as a proxy for CCN in ACI 564 studies has several shortcomings. Among other issues, a column property like AOD is not 565 necessarily representative of N<sub>CCN</sub> at altitudes, which affects the formation and growth of the cloud. 566 Because no reliable global estimate of N<sub>CCN</sub> exists, the fundamental assumptions of ACI cannot 567 be robustly verified with the available sparse and localized in-situ measurements. In this study, we present a novel approach based on the  $3\beta+3\alpha$  technique for retrieving vertically-resolved cloud-568 569 relevant N<sub>CCN</sub> from a single spaceborne lidar sensor. With this development, we demonstrate a 570 new application of active satellite remote sensing that can provide direct measurements of CCN to 571 improve understanding of ACI processes.

572 To address the problem of the non-uniqueness of a solution in the  $3\beta + 2\alpha$  inverse technique, we 573 have adopted a more realistic LUT-based approach using the  $3\beta + 3\alpha$  multiwavelength technique, 574 reflecting the bimodal particle distribution in the atmosphere better. Previous studies (Lv et al., 575 2018; Tan et al., 2019) demonstrated that CCN estimation is highly sensitive to the extinction 576 coefficient than the backscatter coefficient. Therefore, we have included an additional signal of 577 extinction coefficient at 1064 nm to improve the retrieval accuracy of particle size distribution, 578 particularly for coarse mode. In order to verify the performance, the CCN estimation error, using 579 Eq. 12, has been calculated using both  $3\beta + 2\alpha$  and  $3\beta + 3\alpha$  techniques for each aerosol subtype in 580 comparison to the observed CCN values. The relative difference in CCN estimation error between





581  $3\beta + 2\alpha$  and  $3\beta + 3\alpha$  techniques for each aerosol subtype is shown in Figure 10. The analysis shows 582 that insertion of the  $\alpha_{1064}$  signal in the  $\beta\beta+3\alpha$  technique improves the CCN estimation by ~15% in 583 total and  $\sim 20\%$  for the coarse mode dominated aerosol subtypes (i.e., marine and dust aerosols) 584 compared to  $3\beta + 2\alpha$ . Based on CCN closure analysis, Patel & Jiang, (2021) suggested that particle 585 size and chemical composition are more crucial in the CCN activity at lower SS. In contrast, at 586 higher SS, most particles become activated regardless of their size and composition. Therefore, 587 the improvement in CCN estimation is relatively large in low SS (SS < 0.2%) than in high SS (SS 588 > 0.2%).

589 Systematic and random errors in the lidar measurements were evaluated individually and discussed 590 in the sensitivity analysis. Both systematic and random errors realistically coexist in optical 591 parameters, and therefore, we have evaluated their concurrent effect. The simulations were 592 conducted with both systematic and random errors co-occurring. The results (not shown here) 593 show that the retrieved CCN errors are much smaller than the error obtained individually by either 594 systematic or random at each wavelength independently. The mean CCN error ranges between 7%-15% at SS from 0.07% to 1.0%. This retrieved CCN error is slightly large (~12%-18%) for 595 596 the coarse-mode dominated aerosol subtypes (dust and marine). Summing up errors from multiple 597 optical parameters might compensate for each other and improve the CCN retrievals. Furthermore, 598 the retrieval from ECLiAP has few constraints. (i) it strongly depends on the accuracy of lidar-599 measured aerosol optical properties. The retrieval is only possible if the lidar signals are available 600 at least at two wavelengths. (ii) retrieval from ECLiAP is only performed for  $RH \le 99\%$ . (iii) the 601 CCN activity also depends on the mixing state, which is difficult to measure from space. 602 Subsequently, an alternative solution is required to parametrize the effect of the mixing state on 603 CCN activity.

604 The present study demonstrates the capability of ECLiAP to construct the three-dimensional global climatology of N<sub>CCN</sub>. The global coverage of N<sub>CCN</sub>, in conjunction with collocated retrieved cloud 605 606 properties, will provide crucial input for the regional and global simulations that will provide 607 realistic assessments of aerosol-induced cloud radiative forcing. The satellite-retrieved N<sub>CCN</sub> can 608 precisely separate the aerosols into natural and anthropogenic components, which can be further 609 used for constraining aerosol emissions and transport models for air-quality studies. The 610 application of detailed N<sub>CCN</sub> will potentially mitigate the uncertainty of aerosol perturbed climate 611 forcing (direct + indirect) and improve confidence in assessing anthropogenic contributions and 612 climate change projections.

## 613 5 Summary

614 CCN number concentration is a critically-important parameter to constrain the relationship 615 between aerosols and clouds and is needed to improve the understanding of ACI processes. The 616 lack of direct measurements of CCN prevents robust testing of the underlying assumptions 617 associated with aerosol-cloud interactions robustly and evaluates climate model simulations. In 618 order to overcome this limitation, we presented ECLiAP, an emergent remote sensing-based





619 analytical algorithm based on the physical law to retrieve the vertically resolved  $N_{CCN}$  from aerosol 620 optical properties measured by the multiwavelength lidar system. Among the several fundamental 621 aspects of the mathematical problem that must be solved during retrievals of microphysical 622 parameters from multiwavelength lidar, the most crucial aspect is that the inverse solution is not 623 unique. Therefore, the retrieval is implemented based on look-up tables generated from Mie 624 scattering (and T-matrix/IGOM for dust particles) calculations. AERONET-based five 625 representative aerosol subtypes with bimodal size distributions were considered. The influence of 626 relative humidity on lidar-measured aerosol optical properties is corrected using the aerosol type-627 dependent hygroscopic growth factor to obtain the dry aerosol optical properties. As a tradeoff 628 between the accuracy and computation time of the inversion, a successive approximation technique 629 is utilized in two steps to retrieve the optically equivalent particle number size distribution. Once 630 the aerosol size distribution parameters are obtained through the LUT, critical diameter and  $N_{CCN}$ 631 at six supersaturations ranging from 0.07% to 1.0% is estimated using the  $\kappa$ -Köhler theory.

632 Sensitivity analyses were carried out to evaluate the algorithm performance and to show the 633 influence of systematic and random errors of lidar-derived optical properties and auxiliary RH 634 profiles on CCN retrieval. The performance of ECLiAP is evaluated with error-free data, and  $N_{CCN}$ 635 at all six supersaturations is well reproduced with good accuracy and stability for the five aerosol subtypes. Systematic errors in extinction coefficients and RH greatly influence CCN retrieval 636 637 errors. Reducing uncertainties in extinction coefficients effectively improves retrieval accuracy, 638 while uncertainties in backscatter coefficients benefit retrieval at higher SS. Differences in weights 639 of fine- to coarse-mode particles within the aerosol subtypes lead to significant differences in the 640 retrieval uncertainty. The differences can be explained via the weaker constraint of the algorithm 641 for the coarse mode particles than for the fine mode. However, the insertion of the additional signal 642 at a relatively longer wavelength reduced the differences in the retrieval uncertainty compared to previous techniques. The mean random errors are relatively small and found to be relatively large 643 644 for the coarse mode-dominated aerosol subtypes, consistent with the sensitivities to the systematic 645 errors. In realistic cases, systematic and random errors often offset each other and improve the 646 mean CCN retrievals. Overall, the error analysis suggests that extinction coefficients at 355 and 647 532 nm must be reliably derived to ensure retrieval accuracy, including measurements at longer 648 wavelengths further improve the CCN retrievals, particularly for the coarse mode-dominated 649 aerosol subtypes.

650 The ECLiAP algorithm was applied to observational data from the NASA ORACLES airborne 651 campaign to illustrate the potential of the algorithm. N<sub>CCN</sub> retrieved from lidar (HSRL-2) 652 measurements have been validated against the simultaneous measurements from the CCN counter 653 installed in the flight. Considering the inhomogeneity in the vertical distribution of aerosols 654 throughout the atmospheric column, N<sub>CCN</sub> from in situ measurements and lidar retrievals agree 655 well. Furthermore, for the first time, the ECLiAP has been applied to spaceborne lidar measurements – CALIOP/CALIPSO – to retrieve  $N_{CCN}$ . The results demonstrate that the  $N_{CCN}$ 656 657 retrieved by ECLiAP is highly influenced by the variability of aerosol particle size and composition based on aerosol subtypes and also captures the meteorological influence. The 658





vertically resolved information of aerosols, along with CCN from spaceborne lidar, is essential forinvestigating the ACI in detail.

661 Our future goals include a comprehensive evaluation of N<sub>CCN</sub> derived from spaceborne lidar 662 measurements, i.e., CALIOP/CALIPSO, with multi-campaign airborne measurements, covering various physicochemical regimes in the troposphere. The extensive validation will enable us to 663 664 test the applicability of the ECLiAP algorithm in the context of estimating the N<sub>CCN</sub> from space. 665 Eventually, we plan to apply the ECLiAP algorithm over the period of CALIOP observations (~15 years) to generate the global three-dimensional N<sub>CCN</sub> climatology. The data set coupled with the 666 cloud-related data from the other satellite or state-of-the-art numerical models will help improve 667 668 our understanding of the ACI. The science narrative of the NASA Aerosol and Cloud, Convection and Precipitation (ACCP) project pointed out that the combination of near-simultaneous and 669 670 collocated lidar and polarimeter measurements can provide more detailed information regarding particle size, concentration, and composition (Braun et al., 2022). Therefore, our future work may 671 also include combining the lidar measurements with passive observations in the ECLiAP algorithm 672 673 to further narrow down the uncertainty of aerosol microphysics with the enhanced observational 674 constraints (Xu et al., 2021), which will in turn improve the accuracy of CCN retrieval. Moreover, 675 the ability of CALIOP to detect the aerosol subtypes has facilitated the retrieval of aerosol typespecific 3D N<sub>CCN</sub> climatology on a global scale. These datasets from spaceborne lidar 676 677 measurements will be beneficial for evaluating models and other satellite products, opening a new 678 window to investigate the region and regime-wise detailed ACI studies and better constraining 679 anthropogenic contributions to the climate forcing in the climate model.





## 680 Appendix A1: Separation of optical properties for dust mixture

681We have adopted the methodology by Tesche et al., (2009) to separate the dust and non-682dust extinction coefficients in the dust mixtures (polluted dust and dusty marine) using particle

backscatter coefficients and particle depolarization ratio. The optical properties

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

684 Where the values of  $\delta_1$  and  $\delta_2$  are 0.31 and 0.05, respectively. If  $\delta_p > 0.31$  (< 0.05) then aerosol 685 mixture has considered to be pure dust (non-dust). For the remaining values of  $\delta_p$ , we first estimate 686  $\beta_d$  using the above equation and then calculate  $\beta_{nd}$  by subtracting  $\beta_d$  from  $\beta_p$ . Later, the extinction 687 coefficients are computed by multiplying the backscatter coefficients with the respective lidar ratio 688 (44, 70, and 23 for dust, polluted continental, and marine aerosols).

689

690 Data availability statement. All data that support the findings of this study are publicly available.
691 The in-situ measurements at the ARM-SGP are available at https://www.arm.gov/capabilities/observatories/sgp.

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

695 references: <u>https://doi.org/10.5067/Suborbital/ORACLES/P3/2018\_V2</u> (ORACLES Science

Team, 2020a), <u>https://doi.org/10.5067/Suborbital/ORACLES/P3/2017\_V2</u> (ORACLES Science
Team, 2020b).

- 698 The CALIPSO data are available at https://eosweb.larc.nasa.gov/.
- 699

700 Author contributions. PNP conceptualized and designed the study. PNP carried out the data 701 analysis and interpretation with contributions from JHJ, RG and HG. PNP wrote the manuscript.

702 JHJ, RG, HG, OVK, MJG, LG, FX and OA reviewed, commented and/or edited the manuscript.

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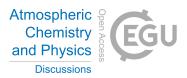


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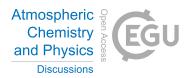
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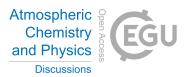
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- 973 Table 1: CCN errors at six supersaturation (SS) retrieved from error-free inputs for the five
- *aerosol types*

	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	$\begin{array}{c} 0.00 \pm \\ 0.26 \end{array}$	-0.01 ± 0.24	$\begin{array}{c} 0.00 \pm \\ 0.25 \end{array}$	-0.01 ± 0.23	
Mean ± SD (%)	Polluted continental	-0.01 ± 0.18	$\begin{array}{c} 0.00 \pm \\ 0.18 \end{array}$	-0.01 ± 0.16	$\begin{array}{c} 0.00 \pm \\ 0.18 \end{array}$	-0.01 ± 0.19	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{-0.00} \pm \\ \textbf{0.18} \end{array}$	
	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	

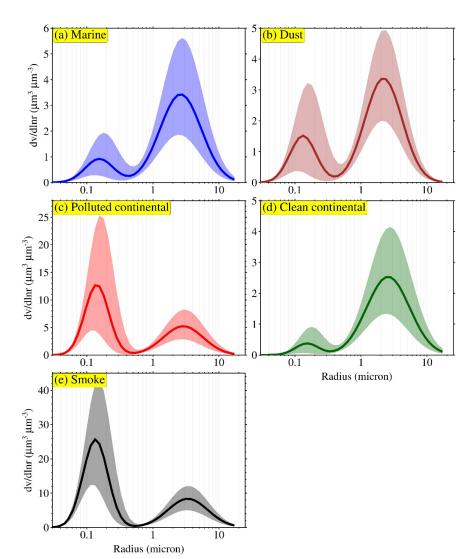
978 Table 2: Sensitivity of CCN retrieval to the bimodal fits at different supersaturation ratios from
979 the 100 aerosol size distributions obtained from ARM-SGP. The CCN error is calculated as an
980 absolute value.

	CCN error (%)					
	0.07%	0.1%	0.2%	0.4%	0.8%	1.0%
Mean ± SD (%)	3.3 ± 2.4	$3.9\pm2.8$	3.1 ± 2.7	$2.9\pm1.8$	2.1 ± 1.5	$1.7 \pm 1.3$



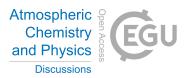


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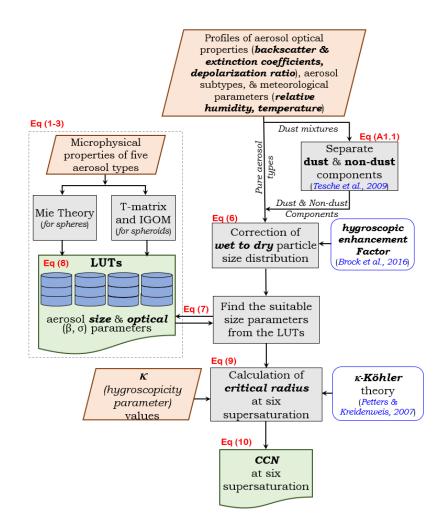


**Figure 1: Bimodal log-normal particle size distributions** for five aerosol types (marine, dust, polluted continental, clean continental and smoke aerosols) considered in this study to build the look-up-tables (LUTs). These particle size distributions were derived using measurements from sun/sky radiometer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





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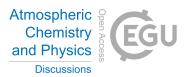
993 Figure 2: Flowchart of ECLiAP algorithm for the retrieval of  $N_{CCN}$  from lidar measurements.

994 The steps within the dotted line box describes the pre-processing which includes the calculation

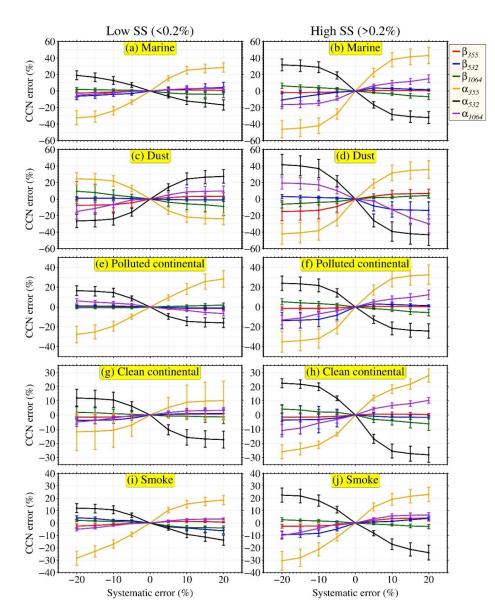
995 of aerosol optical properties using Mie scattering theory (T-matrix/IGOM for dust) to build look-

- 996 up-tables for five aerosol models. The steps outside the dotted line box represent the retrieval 997 process of  $N_{CCN}$  from the given inputs of aerosol optical properties and meteorological 998 parameters. The chart also refers to the used equations associated to the particular retrieval 999 process
- 999 process.





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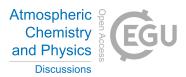


1002 Figure 3: Systematic errors in retrieved N<sub>CCN</sub>. This represent the errors in retrieved N<sub>CCN</sub> as a

1003 function of systematic errors in backscatter and extinction coefficients at all three wavelengths for 1004 low ( $\leq 0.2\%$ ) and high (>0.2%) supersaturations and for all five aerosol subtypes as. The markers

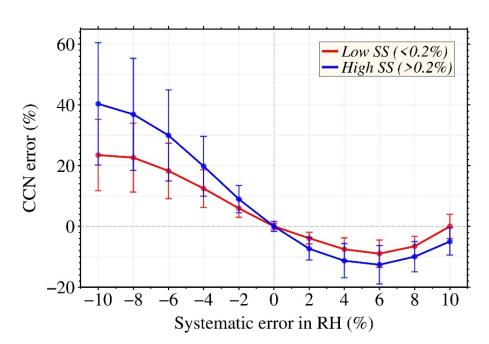
1004 *low* ( $\leq 0.2\%$ ) and high (>0.2%) supersaturations and for all five aerosol subtype 1005 *denote the mean value and the error bars represent the standard deviation.* 





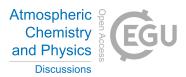
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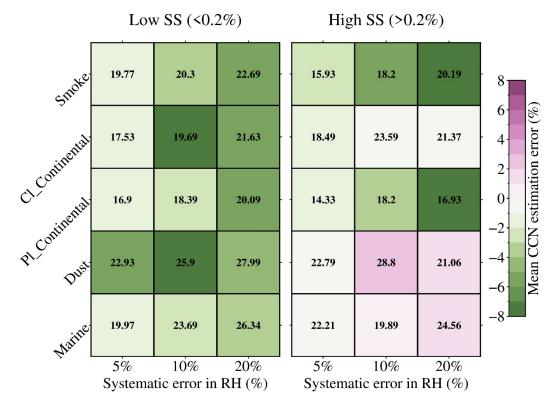
1009 **Figure 4**: **Systematic errors in retrieved**  $N_{CCN}$ . This represent the errors in retrieved  $N_{CCN}$  as a 1010 function of systematic error in RH, combines for all aerosol subtypes, at low ( $\leq 0.2\%$ ) and high 1011 (>0.2%) supersaturations. The markers denote the mean value and the error bars represent the 1012 standard deviation.





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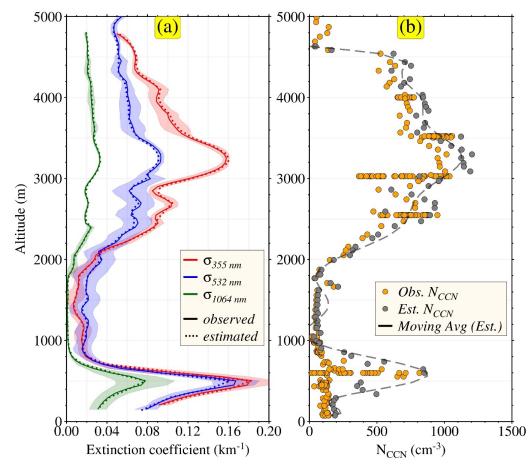
1016 Figure 5: Random errors in retrieved  $N_{CCN}$ . This represent the random errors in retrieved  $N_{CCN}$ 1017 at low ( $\leq 0.2\%$ ) and high (> 0.2%) supersaturations with different random error conditions 1018 individually for five aerosol subtypes. The uncertainty of backscatter and extinction coefficients 1019 off all the tests is 10% and the uncertainties of RH are 5%, 10% and 20%. The color shows the

1020 mean values whereas number shows the  $\pm 1$  standard deviation of errors.





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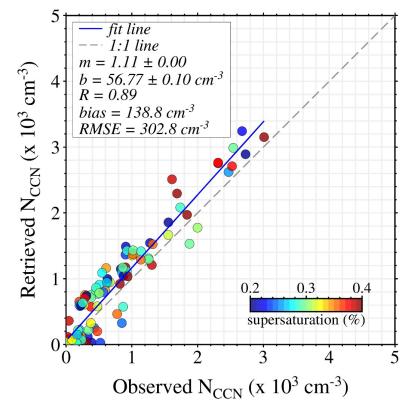
1023 Figure 6: Comparison between retrieved and observed vertical profiles of aerosol extinction 1024 coefficients and  $N_{CCN}$ . The ECLiAP retrieved (a) aerosol extinction coefficients at 355, 532 and 1064 nm and (b) N<sub>CCN</sub> were compared against the one observed during NASA ORACLES 1025 1026 airborne campaign. The lidar signals were mainly influenced by the mixture of smoke and 1027 dust or marine aerosols. The relationship between HSRL-2 measured aerosol extinction 1028 coefficients (solid lines) and retrieved (dotted line) by an algorithm in the left panel. The right 1029 panel illustrates the comparison of retrieved  $N_{CCN}$  using lidar measurements and measured by 1030 CCN counter. The dashed line in the right panel shows the moving average of retrieved  $N_{CCN}$ 1031 values. CCN counter measured  $N_{CCN}$  at supersaturation ranging from 0.32%-0.34% for the 1032 selected region (described in Figure S4), therefore, the retrieval of  $N_{CCN}$  was carried out at 1033 supersaturation of 0.34%.





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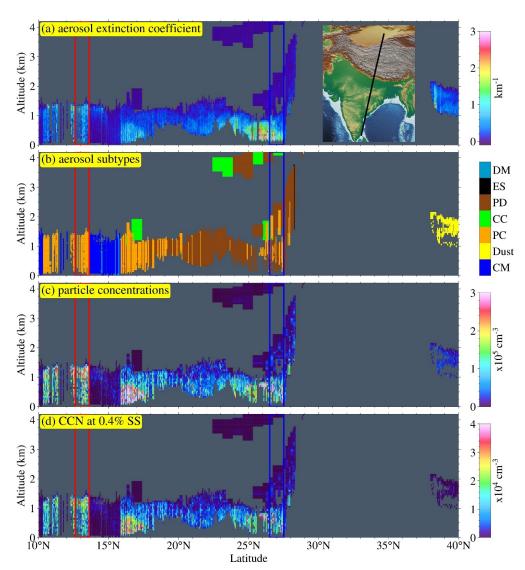
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1037 Figure 7: Comparison between retrieved and observed  $N_{CCN}$ . The comparison between ECLiAP 1038 retrieved  $N_{CCN}$  from HSRL-2 lidar measurements and the measured NCCN values from CCN 1039 counter. The HSRL-2 and CCN counter data were collected from the multiple flights during NASA-1040 ORACLES airborne campaigns conducted in 2017-2018. The color bar displays the observed 1041 values of supersaturation for each measurement and the NCCN were retrieved on the same 1042 supersaturation for the direct comparison. The slope and intercept of the best fit line are given in 1043 the key by m and b, respectively. The gray dash line indicates the unit slope line and blue solid 1044 line indicates the regression line.





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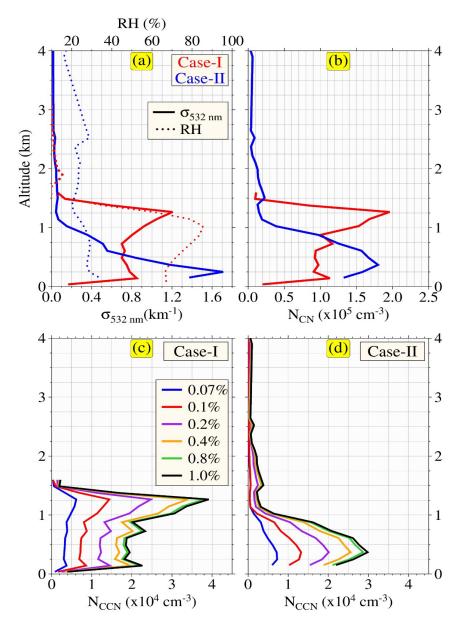


1048Figure 8: Retrieval from spaceborne lidar measurements. Explore the capability of ECLiAP, the1049 $N_{CN}$ , and  $N_{CCN}$  retrieved from CALIOP onboard CALIPSO observations on 01 January 2019,1050passing over the Tibetan plateau and Indian landmass. CALIOP derived (a) extinction coefficient1051at 532 nm, (b) aerosol subtypes were shown in the upper two panels. The lower two panels1052illustrate the ECLiAP retrieved (c) total particle concentrations ( $N_{CN}$ ), and (d)  $N_{CCN}$  at1053supersaturation 0.4%. The two color boxes in red (case-I) and blue (case-II) are the two different1054scenarios that are further studied to assess the capability of ECLiAP.





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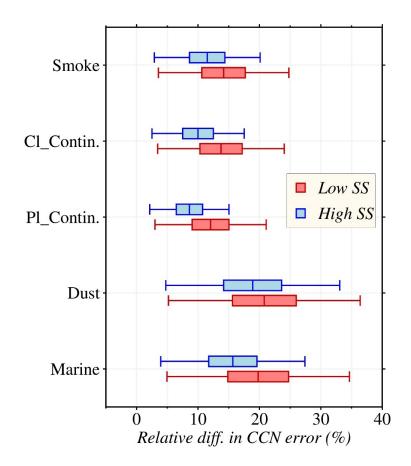
1057Figure 9: Case studied from CALIOP observations. As per mentioned above, two different1058scenarios (case-1 dominated by polluted continental and case-II contains a mixture of polluted1059continental and polluted dust) were identified and studied in detail to assess the potential of1060ECLiAP to accurately capture the particles physicochemical characteristics and their influence1061on the retrieved values along with meteorological influence.





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1065 **Figure 10: Relative difference in CCN error between 3\beta+2\alpha and 3\beta+3\alpha** The CCN error were 1066 calcualted against the given inputs using Eq. (11) for both the  $3\beta+2\alpha$  and  $3\beta+3\alpha$  techniques 1067 individually. Later the relative difference of CCN error has calculated from the individual CCN

1068 errors at low and high supersaturations for each aerosol subtypes.