



1 Natural Marine Cloud Brightening in the Southern Ocean

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23 Abstract: The number of cloud droplets per unit volume ( $N_d$ ) is a fundamentally  
24 important property of marine boundary layer (MBL) liquid clouds that, at constant liquid  
25 water path, exerts considerable controls on albedo. Past work has shown that regional  
26  $N_d$  has direct correlation to marine primary productivity (PP) because of the role of  
27 seasonally-varying biogenically-derived precursor gasses in modulating secondary  
28 aerosol properties. These linkages are thought to be observable over the high latitude  
29 oceans where strong seasonal variability in aerosol and meteorology covary in mostly  
30 pristine marine environments. Here, we examine  $N_d$  variability derived from five years of  
31 MODIS level 2 derived cloud properties in a broad region of the summertime Eastern  
32 Southern Ocean and adjacent marginal seas. We demonstrate both latitudinal,  
33 longitudinal, and temporal gradients in  $N_d$  that are strongly correlated with the passage of  
34 air masses over regions of high PP waters that are mostly concentrated along the  
35 Antarctic Shelf poleward of 60°S. In particular we find that the albedo of MBL clouds in  
36 the latitudes south of 60°S is significantly higher than similar LWP clouds north of this  
37 latitude.

## 38 39 1. Introduction

40  
41 The cloud and precipitation properties of the Southern Ocean (SO) have received  
42 considerable attention since Trenberth and Fasullo (2010) identified a high bias in  
43 surface-absorbed solar energy there (McFarquhar et al., 2020). This bias has been  
44 traced to erroneously small Marine Boundary Layer (MBL) cloud cover in simulations of  
45 the Southern Ocean climate (Bodas-Salcedo, et al., 2016; Naud et al., 2016). The  
46 actual SO cloud climatology and associated albedo are dominated by geometrically thin  
47 MBL clouds (Mace et al., 2010; Mace et al., 2020, 2021). Because the predominant  
48 shallow boundary layer clouds rarely precipitate (Huang et al., 2016), they are sensitive  
49 to cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) concentrations (Twohy and Anderson, 2008;  
50 Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007).

51  
52 In the SO, the CCN seasonal cycle (Ayers and Gras, 1991; Vallina et al. 2006; Gras and  
53 Keywood, 2017) is reflected in basin-wide cloud property variations (Krüger and Graßl,  
54 2011). McCoy et al. (2015) and Mace and Avey (2017) found that MODIS- and A-Train-  
55 derived cloud properties over the SO, respectively, demonstrate a similar seasonal  
56 cycle in cloud droplet number concentration ( $N_d$ ) as for CCN. The basin wide variability  
57 in CCN and cloud albedo have been shown to be correlated with marine primary  
58 productivity (PP; Vallina et al., 2006; Krüger and Graßl, 2011; McCoy et al., 2015).  
59 McCoy et al. (2020) argue that the SO can be viewed as an analog of the preindustrial  
60 Earth. As such, and given the large natural seasonal variability in CCN and clouds, the  
61 SO is a natural laboratory to understand the processes that contribute to simulated  
62 aerosol-related indirect forcing variance in climate models (Carslaw et al. 2013).

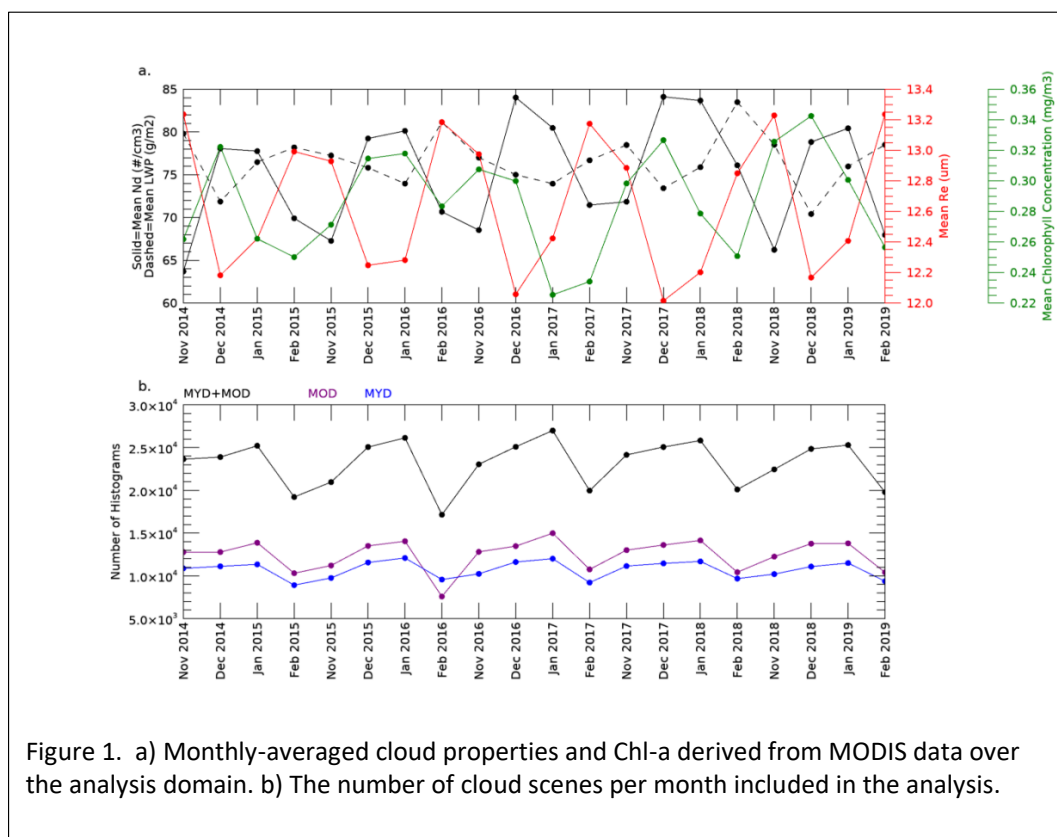
63  
64 CCN and cloud droplet  $N_d$  in the SO are higher in Summer when significant latitudinal  
65 gradients have been documented in the SO Australasian sector (Humphries et al.,  
66 2021). Using time of flight (TOF) aerosol chemical speciation monitor (ACSM) and ion  
67 concentrations from filter samples, Humphries et al., (2021) analyzed the covariance of  
68 aerosol chemistry, CCN at 0.5% supersaturation, and Condensation Nuclei larger than



69 10 nm (CN) collected aboard Australian research vessels during the 2018 Austral  
70 Summer (McFarquhar et al., 2021). While sulfates were a major compositional  
71 component of aerosol at all latitudes during summer these compounds were in higher  
72 fractional abundance poleward of 65°S where overall CCN numbers were higher by  
73 ~50%. Chloride derived from sea salt was dominant in the region equatorward of 65°S  
74 but was mostly absent south of 65°S. The ratio of CCN to CN at 0.5% supersaturation  
75 increased considerably south of 65°S suggesting unique aerosol chemistry compared to  
76 the open ocean. Humphries et al. (2021) also discusses how this compositional  
77 boundary in aerosol chemistry is often very distinct in the East Antarctic waters between  
78 60°S and 65°S. Following Humphries et al. we will refer to this belt as the Atmosphere  
79 Compositional Front of Antarctica (ACFA). Humphries et al. (2021) conclude that  
80 aerosol, newly condensed from gas phase sulfur species such as from the oxidation of  
81 dimethylsulfide (DMS), are an important component of the high latitude CCN. These  
82 products of phytoplankton physiology are released into the atmosphere from the highly  
83 productive waters from ~60°S to the Antarctic – a region well known for a vast marine  
84 food web (Deppeler and Davidson, 2017; Behrenfeld et al., 2016).

85

86 Mace et al. (2021a) derived  $N_d$  and other cloud microphysical properties from non-  
87 precipitating stratocumulus clouds using shipborne remote sensing data. They found  
88 that stratiform clouds poleward of the ACF had significantly higher  $N_d$  than equatorward.





89 One particular case took place when the Icebreaker Aurora Australis was at the Davis  
90 Antarctic station just east of Prydz Bay (~77°E) between 1 and 5 January 2018 and  
91 featured nearly unbroken high  $N_d$  clouds ( $> 150 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ) that occurred in a southerly flow  
92 passing over the ship that had trajectories from the Antarctic Continent. Similarly,  
93 Twohy et al., (2021) report that the highest sulfur-based concentrations of aerosol in the  
94 free troposphere north of 60°S observed from research aircraft in Summer 2018 had  
95 occurred in airmasses that had originated recently from over the Antarctic continent.  
96 See also Shaw et al. (1988).

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## 100 2. Results

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102 Approximately 40,000 1° latitude by 2° longitude MBL cloud scenes (See Appendix A for  
103 methods and definitions) per month meet our criteria for liquid phase non precipitating  
104 clouds in the analysis domain (Figure 1). This number varies by ~25% in a seasonal  
105 cycle that is due mostly to our solar zenith angle criteria (Figure 1b). A seasonal cycle  
106 is evident in the monthly-averaged cloud properties with LWP and  $r_e$  reaching seasonal  
107 minima in the months of December and January. Due to a  $-5/2$  dependence on  $r_e$ ,  $N_d$   
108 is out of phase with  $r_e$ . The seasonal cycle in LWP ( $r_e$ ) is on the order of 7% (4%). The  
109 relative variation in LWP and  $r_e$  is small in comparison to  $N_d$  (~25%) - a function of the  
110 nonlinear dependence of  $N_d$  on  $r_e$  (exponent of  $-5/2$ ) compared to optical depth ( $\tau$ )  
111 (exponent of  $1/2$ ) as shown in equation A1. The MODIS level 2 retrieval algorithm  
112 returns  $\tau$  and  $r_e$ . LWP is derived from a well-known relationship  $\tau = \frac{3}{2\rho_w} \frac{LWP}{r_e}$  (Stephens,  
113 1978). It is reasonable to consider whether seasonal variations in  $N_d$ , perhaps linked to

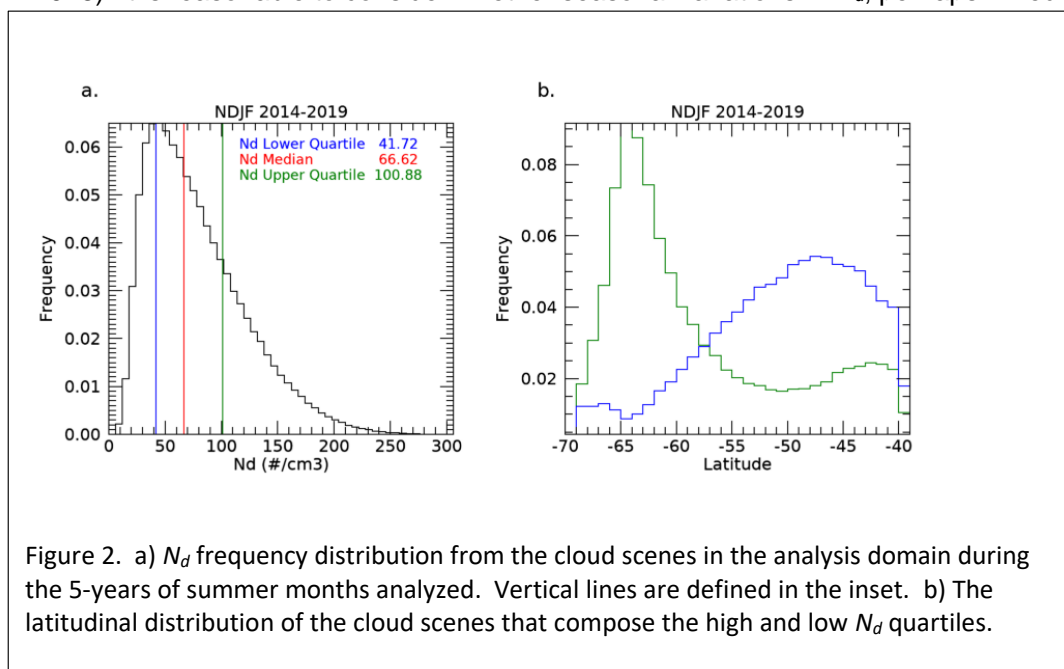


Figure 2. a)  $N_d$  frequency distribution from the cloud scenes in the analysis domain during the 5-years of summer months analyzed. Vertical lines are defined in the inset. b) The latitudinal distribution of the cloud scenes that compose the high and low  $N_d$  quartiles.



114 CCN, might be associated with changes in LWP. However, in the range of LWP that  
115 characterizes nonprecipitating stratocumulus, increases in  $N_d$  are often associated with  
116 increases in LWP due to suppression of precipitation (Gryspeerd et al., 2019) although  
117 we do not find such a relationship as discussed below. It is likely that seasonally  
118 varying meteorological factors are the dominant cause of the seasonal cycle in LWP. If  
119 we assume that LWP variations are mostly independent of  $N_d$  and, therefore, CCN, then  
120 we interpret variations in  $r_e$  as responding predominantly to CCN variations.

121

122 In four of the five years, Chl-a leads changes in  $N_d$  by approximately 1 month. These  
123 results are broadly similar to those presented by McCoy et al., (2015) and Mace and  
124 Avey (2017). McCoy et al. (2015) link  $N_d$  variations to PP using regression analysis of  
125 MODIS derived  $N_d$  against a biogeochemical parameterization of biogenic sulfate and  
126 organic mass fraction (See also Lana et al., 2012).

127

128 We find a broad distribution of scene-averaged  $N_d$  (Figure 2a) with median, upper and  
129 lower quartile values of  $66 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ,  $42 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  and  $101 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  respectively. Henceforth, we  
130 focus our analysis into the groups of scenes that are less than and greater than the  
131 upper and lower quartiles. The high and low  $N_d$  scenes have distinct latitudinal  
132 occurrence distributions (Figure 2b) with low  $N_d$  cases peaking broadly at  $48^\circ\text{S}$  while the  
133 high  $N_d$  scenes demonstrate a modal occurrence near  $64^\circ\text{S}$  near the ACFA mean  
134 latitude. Overall, the  $N_d$  gradient implied by Figure 2 is correlated with the latitudinal  
135 distribution of imager-derived Chl-a (i.e. Deppler and Davidson, 2017). Differentiating  
136 seasonally varying properties north and south of the ACFA (not shown), we find a clear  
137 differentiation in  $r_e$  and  $N_d$  with smaller  $r_e$  south of the ACFA (mean  $r_e \sim 11 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $N_d \sim 100$ )  
138 compared to north (mean  $r_e \sim 13 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $N_d \sim 67 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ). LWP is slightly larger by  $\sim 7\%$  south  
139 of the ACFA. Both regions have a distinct seasonal cycle in cloud properties shown in  
140 Figure 1 although the southern latitudes have large interannual variability likely owing to  
141 variations in annual sea ice extent and melt.

142

143 The high  $N_d$  scenes occur predominantly poleward of the ACFA (Figure 3). Interestingly  
144 we find that the latitudinal gradient weakens slightly west of  $90^\circ\text{E}$  with a broad region of  
145 higher occurrence in the vicinity of the Kerguelen Rise where PP is higher (Cavagna et  
146 al., 2015). Establishing causality between regions of high PP and cloud properties is  
147 challenging (i.e. Meskhidze and Nenes, 2006; Miller and Yuter, 2008). While we find  
148 seasonal associations over broad regions here, the chain of causality between  
149 phytoplankton and clouds is not immediate or even necessarily direct because the  
150 chemical processes take time to evolve and can move along chemical pathways that  
151 have divergent outcomes (Woodhouse et al., 2013). To increase cloud  $N_d$ , new CCN  
152 must be formed. Formation of new CCN can occur when sulfur compounds emitted  
153 from the ocean surface nucleate after oxidation in the presence of sunlight. This  
154 process of new particle formation occurs in the absence of other aerosol and often  
155 requires transport of the gaseous compounds from the boundary layer to the low-  
156 aerosol free-troposphere. Other chemical pathways are possible such as deposition of  
157 sulfate compounds onto primary sea salt particles that modify the chemical properties of  
158 existing CCN rather than nucleating new CCN (Fossum et al., 2020) or even removal of  
159 sulfur compounds via aqueous phase oxidation in clouds (Woodhouse et al., 2013).



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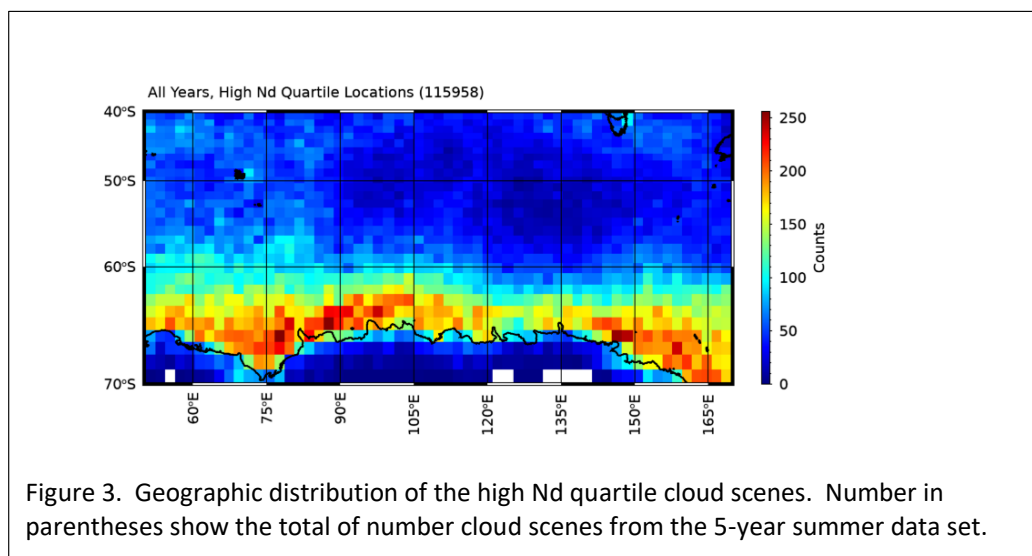


Figure 3. Geographic distribution of the high  $N_d$  quartile cloud scenes. Number in parentheses show the total of number cloud scenes from the 5-year summer data set.

161 Given the foregoing discussion, it seems reasonable that an airmass that is producing  
162 clouds with certain features could be interacting with an aerosol population that has  
163 evolved over periods of days (Brechtel et al., 1998). In addition, natural cloud  
164 processes such as collision and coalescence of drops tend to cause  $N_d$  to decrease  
165 while precipitation efficiently scavenges CCN, thereby lowering CCN concentration and  
166 even modifying their composition and size through aqueous processing (Hoppel et al.,  
167 1986). Therefore, a cloud field should be considered as the product of both local  
168 dynamics and thermodynamics primarily with modulation by a local population of CCN.  
169 To examine the role of airmass history, we calculate the 5-day back trajectories using  
170 the Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT; Stein et al.,  
171 2015) model using the Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS; Kamitsu, 1989) as  
172 input. The parcel's endpoint is the central latitude and longitude of the cloud scene and  
173 the location and model output are stored hourly.

174

175 South of the ACFA, the histories of the populations tend to be statistically quite different  
176 (Figure 4). The low  $N_d$  clouds are more likely to be observed in airmasses that have  
177 trajectories that originated in the open ocean region to the north of the ACFA. High  $N_d$   
178 scenes rarely evolve in airmasses that originate in the open ocean to the north of the  
179 ACFA. The overwhelming likelihood is that an airmass that has produced a high  $N_d$   
180 cloud scene has spent most of the previous 5 days over latitudes south of the ACFA.  
181 North of the ACFA, the latitude distributions during the months of November and  
182 February (not shown) are essentially identical for the high and low  $N_d$  quartiles.  
183 However, for December and January, we find that the high  $N_d$  clouds observed north of  
184 the ACFA have an increased likelihood of trajectories emanating from south of the  
185 ACFA during the 5-days prior to the MODIS observation.

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### 3. Discussion and Conclusions



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Using MODIS level 2 cloud property retrievals and the technique developed in G18 to estimate  $N_d$ , we examine the latitudinal and seasonal cycles of non-precipitating liquid-phase clouds in the Australasian sector of the Summertime Southern Ocean. The  $r_e$  and  $N_d$  have distinctive differences north and south of the ACFA but demonstrate similar seasonal cycles. We infer that the spatial and temporal variability in cloud  $N_d$ , and  $r_e$  are at least partially a function of the geographic and temporal variability in CCN that, in turn, is related to the seasonality of primary sources such as sea salt and the latitudinal variability in marine primary productivity. The highest  $N_d$  clouds tend to be overwhelmingly found along the East Antarctic coastal waters south of the ACFA.

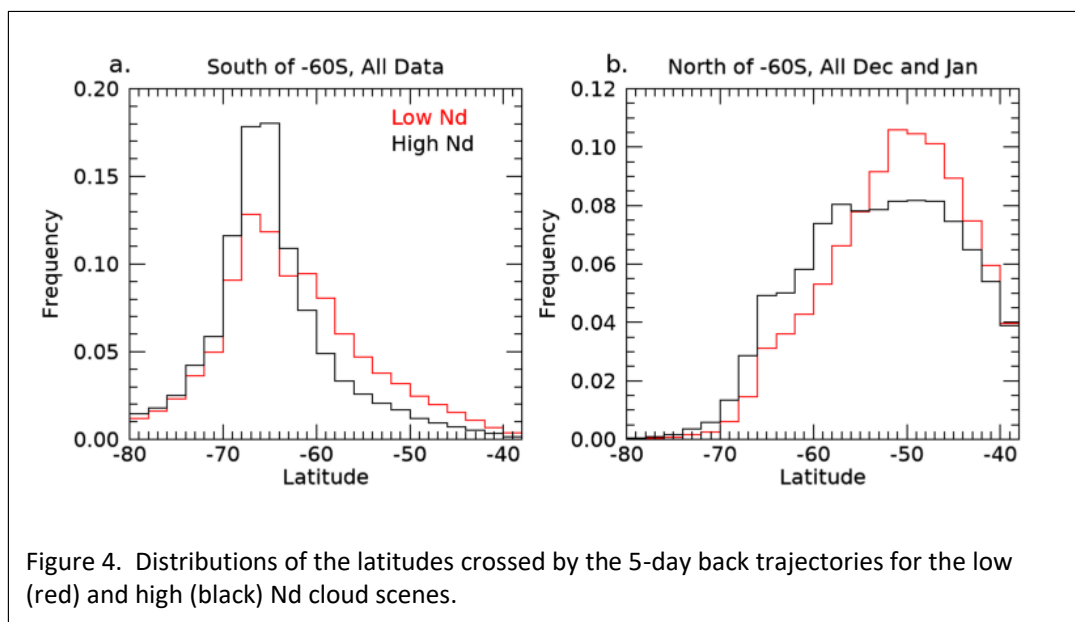


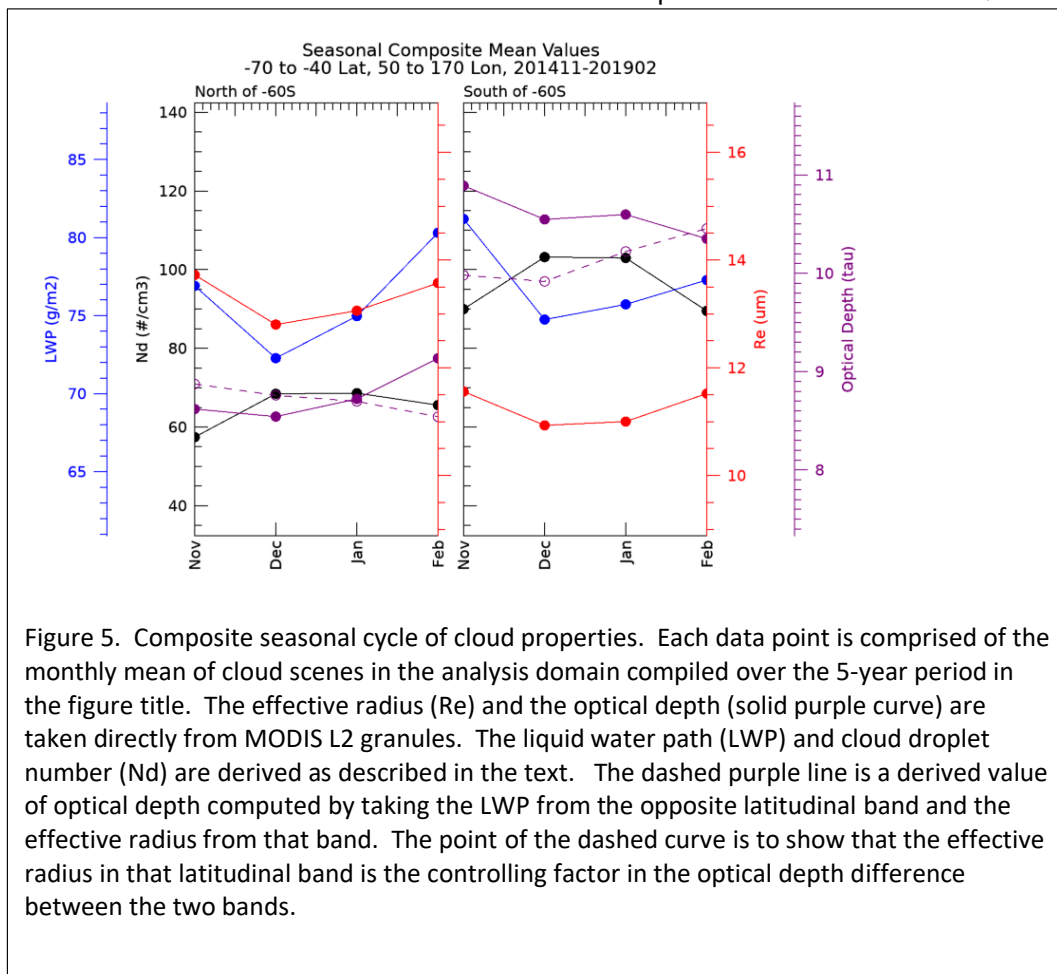
Figure 4. Distributions of the latitudes crossed by the 5-day back trajectories for the low (red) and high (black)  $N_d$  cloud scenes.

199 Because aerosol precursor gasses like DMS often require trajectories through the free  
200 troposphere to nucleate new particles that then take time to reach CCN sizes, we  
201 examine the back trajectories of the airmasses observed with high and low  $N_d$  south of  
202 the ACFA and find significant differences. Low  $N_d$  cloud scenes are more likely to have  
203 arrived south of the ACFA from northerly trajectories that would have transported low  
204 CCN air dominated by sea salt. The high  $N_d$  cloud scenes are more likely to have  
205 trajectories that have remained adjacent to or had passed over the Antarctic continent.  
206 North of the ACFA, while the trajectory statistics for the high and low  $N_d$  quartiles in  
207 November and February are nearly identical, during December and January the high  $N_d$   
208 clouds scenes tend to have an increased likelihood of arriving north of the ACFA from  
209 southerly trajectories, suggesting that high CCN airmasses are being transported  
210 northward especially during December and January.  
211  
212 Given that the main difference between the source regions north and south of the ACFA  
213 is the magnitude of the marine primary productivity, and given previous analyses of





214 CCN compositional sensitivity to marine biological factors (e.g. Humphries et al., 2021;  
215 Vallina et al., 2006; Lana et al., 2012; McCoy et al., 2015), we conclude that the  
216 biological source of sulfate precursor gasses and the slackening of surface winds with  
217 latitude during Summer plays a dominating role in controlling the latitudinal gradients in  
218 the properties of non-precipitating MBL cloud fields over the Southern Ocean. Figure 5  
219 summarizes our findings by presenting composite seasonal cycles of MBL cloud scenes  
220 north and south of 60°S. The LWP in both latitudinal bands go through a weak  
221 seasonal cycle noted earlier and the LWP in the southern region is slightly higher.  
222 However, the difference in LWP between the regions is insignificant to the optical depth.  
223 The significant contrast in optical depth between the northern and southern bands is, we  
224 infer, due to the latitudinal contrast in  $N_d$ . Based on available evidence, we conclude  
225 that the differences in  $r_e$  in MODIS retrievals are causally linked to oceanic primary  
226 productivity gradients that drive CCN, and thereby  $N_d$ , to be higher over the southern  
227 region. This sensitivity, in turn, plays a significant role in modulating the regional  
228 albedo and, thereby, influences the input of sunlight to the surface ocean. However, we  
229 should be careful not to overstate this case. Cloud processes that consume  $N_d$  and







230 modify CCN (i.e. precipitation and cloud processing) certainly also play a role in  
231 modulating cloud  $N_d$  and therefore regional albedos. The air mass history and source  
232 region, while apparently important, are among many factors involved.

233  
234 Since the magnitude of PP is significantly lower north of the ACFA throughout the  
235 summer season, a similar seasonal cycle in  $N_d$  and  $r_e$  suggests that CCN derived from  
236 DMS oxidation of precursor gasses emitted primarily from Antarctic coastal waters  
237 perhaps seeds much of the rest of the Southern Ocean with biogenic sulfate aerosol as  
238 observed in recent airborne observations (Twohy et al., 2021). The northerly transport  
239 of these high sulfate air masses out of the Antarctic coastal waters (Figure 4b) and  
240 southerly transport of low sulfate air masses into the Antarctic coastal region near the  
241 surface (Figure 4a) have been reported by Humphries et al. (2016, 2021) and Shaw  
242 (1988) and also observed in the free troposphere with recent research aircraft  
243 measurements (Twohy et al. 2021).

244  
245 Our ability to identify natural marine cloud brightening (Latham et al., 2008) due to  
246 aerosol-cloud coupling is a direct result of the absence of other anthropogenic and  
247 continental influences in the pristine SO. As argued by McCoy et al. (2020), it seems  
248 clear that in several important ways, the Southern Ocean is the last vestige of the  
249 preindustrial atmosphere allowing us to constrain processes that remain important to  
250 our understanding of the climate today (Carslaw et al., 2013).

251  
252 Appendix A. Methods

253  
254 We use MODIS imager-derived Level-2 retrievals (Platnick et al., 2015) of effective  
255 radius ( $r_e$ ) and optical depth ( $\tau$ ) collected between the latitudes of 45°S and 76°S and  
256 longitudes of 40°E and 170°E to focus roughly where the ships and aircraft sampled in  
257 Summer 2017-18 from five summer periods. We calculate  $N_d$  using the method derived  
258 and evaluated in Grosvenor et al. (2018; hereafter G18):

259  
260 
$$N_d = \frac{\sqrt{5}}{2\pi\kappa} \left( \frac{f_{ad}c_w\tau}{Q_{ext}\rho_w r_e^5} \right)^{1/2} \quad (\text{A1})$$

261  
262 where  $\rho_w$  is the density of liquid water (1 g cm<sup>-3</sup>),  $f_{ad}$  is an adiabaticity assumption,  $c_w$  is  
263 the vertical derivative of the adiabatic liquid water content,  $Q_{ext}$  is the extinction efficiency  
264 that is typically assumed to be 2 for cloud droplets, and  $\kappa$  is the cubed ratio of  $r_e$  to  $r_v$ . As

265 noted by G18,  $N_d$  depends on  $r_e^{-5/2}$  which implies that the sensitivity or the rate of change  
266 of  $N_d$  to retrieved  $r_e$  goes as the -7/2 exponent. Any biases in  $r_e$ , then would significantly  
267 bias  $N_d$ . G18 provide a thorough evaluation of the sources of uncertainty in  $N_d$  due to  
268 assumptions of adiabaticity, scene heterogeneity, etc., and conclude that  $N_d$  derived  
269 using equation 1 applied to MODIS cloud retrievals has an overall uncertainty of ~80%.

270  
271 The most uncertain quantity in the assumptions used in Equation A1 is  $f_{ad}$  since the cloud  
272 vertical structure is not constrained by MODIS measurements. Using cloud thickness from  
273 ship-based cloud radar and lidar along with retrieved LWP from collocated microwave  
274 radiometer (Mace et al., 2021a), we estimate the value of  $f_{ad}$  in nonprecipitating



275 stratocumulus observed during the summer of 2018 (Mcfarquhar et al., 2021). We find  
276 that the mean and standard deviation of  $f_{ad}$  north of the ACFA is 0.66 and 0.48,  
277 respectively. South of the ACFA, the mean and standard deviation of  $f_{ad}$  is 0.93 and 0.60,  
278 respectively. For the calculations of  $N_d$  in equation A1, we use a constant value for  $f_{ad}$  of  
279 0.8.  $N_d$  is proportional to the square root of  $f_{ad}$ , therefore,  $\frac{\partial \ln N_d}{\partial \ln f_{ad}} = \frac{1}{2}$  and a fractional  
280 variation in  $f_{ad}$  on the order of 0.5 would imply an uncertainty in  $N_d$  of 0.25. Furthermore,  
281 we would expect in regions with  $f_{ad}$  higher (lower) than 0.8 the  $N_d$  would be biased low  
282 (high). As we show below the regions with higher  $N_d$  tend to be in the south and lower  $N_d$   
283 in the north counter to these expected biases. Additionally in this study, we will be  
284 examining differences in spatially-averaged  $N_d$  that are greater than a factor of 2. These  
285 results imply that bias and random error due to uncertainty in  $f_{ad}$  is unlikely to significantly  
286 influence the qualitative findings of this study.

287  
288 Another source of systematic bias could be from the quantity  $\kappa$  that can be shown to be  
289 a function of the variance of the droplet size distribution and is assumed to be a constant  
290 at 0.7. G18 discusses this issue in some detail and concludes that there may be  
291 systematic biases on the order of 12% that could be a function of  $N_d$  in pristine conditions.  
292 While this quantity can be investigated with data collected in situ, no such data exists in  
293 stratocumulus clouds south of the ACFA. Therefore, we recognize a potential source of  
294 bias due to  $\kappa$  that is likely much smaller than the systematic latitudinal differences we find.

295  
296 Given the uncertainties in  $N_d$  at the pixel level, we implement a filtering and averaging  
297 scheme to focus on liquid phase, non-precipitating cloud scenes. We define a scene as  
298 a 1° latitude by 2° longitude domain where pixels are considered to be of liquid-phase  
299 non-precipitating clouds if the retrieved pixel-level  $r_e < 50$   $\mu\text{m}$ , the cloud liquid water path  
300 (LWP)  $< 300$   $\text{g m}^{-2}$  and the cloud phase is identified as liquid. We require that the  
301 sensor and solar zenith angles at that pixel are less than 30° and 60°, respectively. The  
302 zenith angle requirement causes us to focus on the months from November through  
303 February. We require at least 1000 1-km resolution pixels with these characteristics to  
304 exist within a scene (typical number  $\sim 10000$ ). In addition, we require that no more  
305 than 10% of the pixels have a cloud top temperature less than -20°C to ensure the  
306 absence of ice phase hydrometeors. Cloud properties within a scene are averaged.

307  
308 Author Contributions: GM led the overall conception, data analysis of the study and  
309 interpretation of the results. SB was responsible for implementing data analysis code  
310 and generation of figures. RH provided background on aerosol and provided insight  
311 regarding various aspects of the study. MPG and ES assisted GM in the study design  
312 and implementation.

313  
314 Competing Interests: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

315  
316 Acknowledgements: This work was supported by NASA Grant 80NSSC21k1969 and  
317 DOE ASR Grants DE-SC00222001 and DE-SC0018995. All data used in this study are  
318 available in public archives. Computer code for this study including all analysis code  
319 and graphic generation code is written in the IDL language. Code is available upon  
320 request to the corresponding author.



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