

1 **Supporting Information for "Dilution of boundary**
2 **layer cloud condensation nucleus concentrations by**
3 **free tropospheric entrainment during marine cold air**
4 **outbreaks"**

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1. Methodology

1.1. In-situ aerosol measurements

154 A Droplet Measurement Technologies (DMT) CCN counter (Roberts & Nenes, 2005;
155 Lance et al., 2006a) was operated in one of two modes:

- 156 (1) constant supersaturation (SS; usually set to 0.43%) or
- 157 (2) SS scanning (typically covering 0.2–0.7%; Moore & Nenes, 2009)

158 To compare data from all eight research flights (Section 2), we interpolate CCN from
159 mode (2) operations to SS = 0.43% per leg using polynomial regression (described further
160 below). We also use condensation nuclei (CN) counts of particles with diameters greater
161 equal 10 nm via the TSI Condensation Particle Counters 3772 instrument.

1.2. Processing of ACTIVATE measurements

1.2.1. Classification of in-situ legs

162 Samples acquired at 1 Hz frequency are separated into flight legs, where each leg is
163 defined as a consecutive period of CCN measurements uninterrupted by missing values
164

165 (usually spanning ~ 50 s periods). This separation triples the number of legs compared
166 to using horizontal segments (cf. Sorooshian et al., 2019) and requires a refined leg type
167 classification:

168 (1) Using liquid water contents (LWCs) measured by the Fast Cloud Droplet Probe
169 (FCDP; for particle diameters 3-50 μm) and the Two-Dimensional Stereo (2DS) probe
170 (Lawson et al., 2006, produced by summing up liquid-classified particles within diameters
171 51-1465 μm that we assume to be spherical), we define cloudy samples as those with
172 $\text{LWC}_{\text{FCDP}} + \text{LWC}_{\text{2DS}} \geq 0.005 \text{ g m}^{-3}$ (e.g., Noh et al., 2013) and classify legs with at least
173 5 (out of ~ 50) such samples as “cloudy”.

174 (2) To classify the remaining clear legs by their relative altitude to nearby clouds, we
175 collect the cloudy samples near each leg (within 15 min of mean leg time or within 45
176 min if 15 min provides fewer than 5 cloudy samples) and define the local cloud-base and
177 cloud-top heights (CBH, CTH) from maximum and minimum altitudes, respectively, of
178 the nearest cloudy samples (the closest 15% in time from mean leg time among samples
179 collected) to crudely account for the spatial heterogeneity of clouds (e.g., the swiftly
180 evolving CTH seen in Figure 1).

181 (3) Finally, we label each cloud-free leg by comparing its maximum and minimum alti-
182 tudes (H_{max} , H_{min}) to CTH and CBH +/- a 50 m buffer to better separate FT from MBL
183 legs and to avoid the entrainment interfacial layer (e.g., Dadashazar et al., 2018):

184

- “clear, below-cloud”: $H_{\max} < (\text{CBH} - 50 \text{ m})$
 “clear, above-cloud”: $H_{\min} > (\text{CTH} + 50 \text{ m})$ or if
 $H_{\min} > (\text{CBH} - 50 \text{ m})$ and $H_{\max} > (\text{CTH} + 50 \text{ m})$
 relevant for legs during ascents and descents
 “clear, cloud-level”: all remaining samples above or at 500 m
 “clear, near-surface”: all remaining samples below 500 m

185 Figure S1 shows the resulting classification for RF14, with 90 legs identified. Note that
 186 “clear, cloud-level” can appear upwind of formed clouds, intentionally marking legs that
 187 are difficult to delineate in their FT or MBL belonging.

188 We tested how sensitive the above setup is to selected parameters. Raising the LWC
 189 thresholds (to 0.01 g m^{-3}) would result in cloud-contaminated legs that are identifiable
 190 using leg-wise CCN spectra (not shown), while the above setup leads to satisfactory
 191 separation of “cloudy” and all other types. Using other numbers of cloudy samples to
 192 define a cloudy leg (i.e., 2 and 10 instead of 5) shifted the definition between “cloudy”
 193 and “cloud-level” legs that would have been both left out for further analysis. Parameters
 194 that defined the position of nearby clouds, however, importantly shifted the definition
 195 from “clear, cloud-level” towards “clear, above-cloud” or vice versa when using shorter
 196 (7.5 min) or longer time intervals (30 min), respectively; guided by HSRL-2 CTHs we
 197 find the above setup optimal. Using alternative percentiles (7.5 and 30 %) shifted the
 198 definition between “clear, cloud-level” and “clear, below-cloud” of two legs and had little
 199 impact of the budget analysis.

200 1.2.2. Projection into quasi-Lagrangian framework

201 In an ideal scenario for our analysis, all measurements would have been obtained in a
 202 moving Lagrangian column of MBL air as it moves downwind. Lacking such a scenario,
 203 we roughly emulate a Lagrangian framework by projecting all measurements onto a wind
 204 field and using horizontal distance from the upwind cloud edge, ΔL , as a transformed

205 coordinate system.

206 From geostationary imagery we approximate a field-wide MBL wind direction from the
 207 roll orientation, assuming zero angular offset, and draw a great circle to mark the initial
 208 cloud edge (white line in Figure 1). We then use each leg’s geolocation and the wind
 209 direction to determine the intercept point on the cloud edge up- or downwind of the leg
 210 coordinates and measure the geodetic distance between leg coordinates and this intercept
 211 point.

212 Figure 2 illustrates the resulting range $\Delta L \in [\pm 300\text{km}]$ for RF14 corresponding to the
 213 Figure 1 scene. We note that MBL wind direction and roll orientation can be offset by
 214 up to $\pm 20\text{-}30^\circ$ (Etling & Brown, 1993; Atkinson & Wu Zhang, 1996), corresponding to a
 215 range error of about ± 10 km per 100 km.

1.3. MBL CCN budget

216 1.3.1. Entrainment

217 To estimate the entrainment rate (w_e) of FT air at the top of the MBL we use CO trace
 218 gas measurements (Figure S2) and rely on a simple mixed-layer approach (e.g., Lilly, 1968;
 219 Fridlind et al., 2012) to characterize the evolution of the MBL-mean mixing ratio of species
 220 X (here applied to CO to estimate the entrainment rate, and later used for the budget
 221 of $\text{CCN}_{\text{SS}=0.43\%}$). Note that we apply this approach to a horizontally translating quasi-
 222 Lagrangian domain and use MBL-averaged quantities (denoted with overbar), invoking
 223 the Lagrangian derivative:

$$224 \quad \frac{d\bar{X}}{dt} = S_{\text{int}} + S_{\text{surf}} + S_{\text{entr}} \quad (1)$$

with net sources respectively from internal processes, surface fluxes, and entrainment of FT air into an MBL of depth H :

$$S_{\text{entr}} = \frac{\Delta \bar{X}}{H} w_e \quad (2)$$

given the jump at the top of the MBL $\Delta \bar{X} = X_{\text{FT}} - \bar{X}$ and entrainment rate

$$w_e = \frac{dH}{dt} - w_{\text{LS}} \quad (3)$$

where w_{LS} is large-scale vertical wind. Internal process and surface sources are assumed zero for CO.

After combining Equations 1 and 2, we solve for w_e using the horizontal gradient in distance downwind s to evaluate the Lagrangian derivative:

$$\frac{d\bar{X}}{dt} = \frac{d\bar{X}}{ds} \frac{ds}{dt} = \frac{\bar{X}(\Delta L + 50\text{km}) - \bar{X}(\Delta L - 50\text{km})}{250\text{km}} u \quad (4)$$

with horizontal wind speed u taken at 500 m from an ERA5 profile on 1 March 2020 20:00 UTC, at 36.90°N, 69.35°W.

In these equations \bar{X} , X_{FT} , and H are computed from separate 4th-order polynomial fits versus ΔL . For fitting \bar{X} , we use “clear, near-surface” and “clear, below-cloud”, whereas for X_{FT} we use “clear, above-cloud”. For CO as X_{FT} we linearly fit in-situ data (Figure S2) and for H we produce a quadratic fit of HSRL-2 (CTH, Figure S5). Once w_e is estimated, we compute S_{entr} from Equation 2 using fits to the CCN data (Figure 2).

As a check on the CO-based entrainment rates, we derive an independent estimate of w_e by first collocating GOES-16 cloud-top height (Minnis et al., 2008), available every 20 min, along ERA5-derived Lagrangian trajectories (Figure S3). Trajectories are launched hourly between 15-20 UTC from an array of starting points spanning 1x1° (Figure S3a).

246 Then for each trajectory, we determine dH/dt from GOES CTHs (typically increasing,
 247 as seen in Figure S3b), interpolate w_{LS} from ERA5 in time and space, and compute w_e
 248 using Equation 3. To match the quasi-Lagrangian aircraft sampling, we then extract this
 249 w_e estimate to intersect the aircraft position within tolerances of 15 km and 10 min, as
 250 shown in Figure S3c.

251 1.3.2. Hydrometeor collisions

252 We use in-situ FCDP and 2DS measurements to estimate collision-coalescence rates.
 253 After parsing the data into 5-s intervals (~ 500 m horizontal distances), we bin-wise average
 254 PSDs from both instruments, and compute collision-coalescence loss rates by integrating
 255 the simplified stochastic collection equation over droplets of volume x and x' (cf. Wood,
 256 2006):

$$257 \dot{N}_{\text{coll}} = -\frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty n(x)K(x', x)n(x')dx dx' \quad (5)$$

258 where $n(x)$ is the measured hydrometeor number concentration and $K(x, x')$ the gravi-
 259 tational collection kernel between droplet size bins:

$$260 K(x, x') = \pi[r(x) + r(x')]^2 E_{\text{coll}}|v(x) - v(x')| \quad (6)$$

261 in which $r(x)$ the volume-mean radius for each bin, E_{coll} denotes the collection efficiencies
 262 tabulated by Hall (1980), and droplet fall speed v is computed following Böhm (1992). We
 263 follow Hall (1980) in assuming a coalescence efficiency of unity, and expect that any uncer-
 264 tainties or errors in the collection efficiencies are overwhelmed by the uncertainties in our
 265 stochastically constructed PSD profiles described below. Figure S5 shows two examples,
 266 demonstrating the impact of larger hydrometeors, as well as the estimated contribution
 267 to \dot{N}_{coll} from riming (cf. Tornow et al., 2021) roughly estimated by summing over bins

268 with frozen hydrometeors using the same kernel.

269 To obtain MBL-mean collision-coalescence rates some assumptions must be made about
270 the vertical structure of clouds within the MBL given sparse aircraft sampling. Here, we
271 assume in-situ measurements constitute a representative collection of samples of the actual
272 MBL that is characterized by a single, vertically contiguous cloud layer that evolves with
273 fetch. We account for this evolution by using HSRL-2-based CTH and RSP-retrieved
274 liquid water path (LWP) values projected onto the semi-Lagrangian framework (Sec-
275 tion S1.2.2) to derive synthetic cloud profiles with stochastically drawn in-situ intervals
276 that satisfy some proximity criteria.

277 We begin with RSP LWP retrievals. Discretizing the atmosphere into 50-m thick layers,
278 we start at the layer closest to cloud top (from median of HSRL-2 CTH values within
279 100 s of an RSP measurement) and consider in-situ data for stochastic sampling obtained
280 vertically within 50 m of the layer, within 100 km horizontally of the RSP observation,
281 and within 15 min of RSP acquisition. If these criteria produce no samples, we double
282 proximity thresholds and, if still short on samples, drop the vertical proximity require-
283 ment. Once a layer is assigned a PSD, we proceed downward until the vertical LWC
284 integral matches the RSP LWP, but not past cloud base (the lowest layer in which clouds
285 were observed in-situ, ~ 700 m for RF14). For large LWP values (>300 g m⁻²), the cloud
286 thickness is insufficient and though the reconstructed LWPs fall short, they are retained
287 (Figure S4, right panel). Figure S4 also shows all stochastically generated profiles versus
288 ΔL and Figure S6 shows details of one example profile. The proximity criteria yield a
289 reasonable subset of in-situ observations for sampling (black dots in Fig. S6) and prevent

290 sampling from regions that are different in character (e.g., stemming from a progressively
291 deepening MBL with N_d diminishing downwind). To match other budget terms we com-
292 pute a 100-km running mean excluding cloud-free gaps.

293 Unfortunately, RSP only provides LWP values where the sun-observer geometry is fa-
294 vorable. For the case shown in Figure 1, these correspond to the northwest-most leg,
295 highlighted gray. As described further below, we use MODIS LWP retrievals (at 1730
296 UTC) to extend the analysis downwind.

297 We tested the sensitivity of the selected setup. Data collection over alternative time in-
298 tervals (2.5 and 10 s instead of 5 s) and other vertical meshes (25 and 100 m) leave the
299 budget analysis unaffected. Halving or doubling the proximity criteria affect the budget
300 mostly beyond $\Delta L = 100$ km (reducing and increasing \dot{N}_{coll} , respectively) by restricting
301 availability to downwind samples that include larger hydrometeors.

302 1.3.3. Uncertainty

303 To estimate uncertainties, we apply Gaussian error propagation. Individual uncertain-
304 ties associated with \bar{X} , X_{FT} , and z_i are taken from each fit's 95% confidence interval.
305 These errors dominate when used in differentials, such as equation 3 (e.g., for \dot{N}_{tot} shown
306 as dark blue bar in Figure 4). We assume 10-km uncertainty for ΔL , as described in Sec-
307 tion S1.2.2. Assumed errors for ERA-5 variables are 10% (Seethala et al., 2021; Li et al.,
308 2021). The error for \dot{N}_{coll} is estimated as the standard deviation across the locally avail-
309 able population, chosen because substantial sample variability (Figure S6) likely exceeds
310 conventional error propagation. Similarly, we estimate uncertainties of median satellite-
311 based entrainment rates as the range between 5th and 95th percentiles across individual

312 trajectories (which exceed conventional error propagation) to account for a high bias of
313 GOES CTH compared to HSRL-2 that should leave median entrainment rates unaffected.

Table S1. 2020 ACTIVATE CAO research flights, the prevalent MBL wind direction, coordinates defining the initial cloud edge, and instrument limitations relevant to this study (see text), such as the availability of the Research Scanning Polarimeter (RSP).

Date / Number	#	Wind Dir.	Cloud edge coordinates	Instrument Limitations
2020-02-21 / 1	RF04	20°	38.0°N 76.4°W – 39.5°N 72.0°W	Falcon only
2020-02-22 / 1	RF05	25°	34.0°N 77.4°W – 38.0°N 71.5°W	Falcon only
2020-02-22 / 2	RF06	25°	34.0°N 77.4°W – 38.0°N 71.5°W	Falcon only
2020-02-27 / 1	RF09	300°	34.0°N 76.0°W – 38.0°N 73.0°W	/
2020-03-01 / 1	RF13	315°	35.0°N 75.0°W – 40.0°N 72.0°W	/
2020-03-01 / 2	RF14	315°	35.0°N 74.0°W – 40.0°N 72.0°W	/
2020-03-08 / 1	RF17	10°	33.0°N 77.0°W – 36.5°N 72.0°W	No RSP
2020-03-08 / 2	RF18	20°	34.5°N 78.0°W – 34.5°N 70.0°W	No RSP

Table S2. Instruments, products, and estimated uncertainty used.

Instrument (in-situ)	Used Products	Uncertainty	Reference
DMT CCN Counter	CCN(s), for either SS=0.43% or SS \in [0.2, 0.7%]	Δ SS=0.04, δ CCN=10%	Lance, Nenes, Medina, and Smith (2006b)
TSI CPC-3772	CN-10nm	10%	/
TSI LAS	$dN_a/d\log D$ for $D \in$ [0.1, 3.1 μ m]	20%	Froyd et al. (2019)
SMPS	$dN_a/d\log D$ for $D \in$ [0.003, 0.089 μ m]	20%	Moore et al. (2017)
PILS	Mass conc. for $D \in$ [0.05, 4.00 μ m]	/	Sorooshian et al. (2006)
AMS	Mass conc. for $D \in$ [0.06, 0.60 μ m]	<50%	DeCarlo et al. (2008)
SPEC FCDP	$dN_d/d\log D$ for $D \in$ [3.0, 50 μ m], LWP	/	Knop, Bansmer, Hahn, and Voigt (2021)
SPEC 2DS	$dN_d/d\log D$ for $D \in$ [30, 1460 μ m], LWP, IWC	/	Lawson et al. (2006) Kleine et al. (2018) Taylor et al. (2019)
PICARRO G2401-m	CO gas concentration	2%	/
Instrument (remote)			
HSRL-2	Cloud-top height		Burton et al. (2018)
RSP	Cloud optical thickness, Droplet effective radius	15%	Cairns, Russell, and Travis (1999)
Drosonde	Temperature, Pressure	0.2 K and 0.05 hPa	Hock and Franklin (1999)

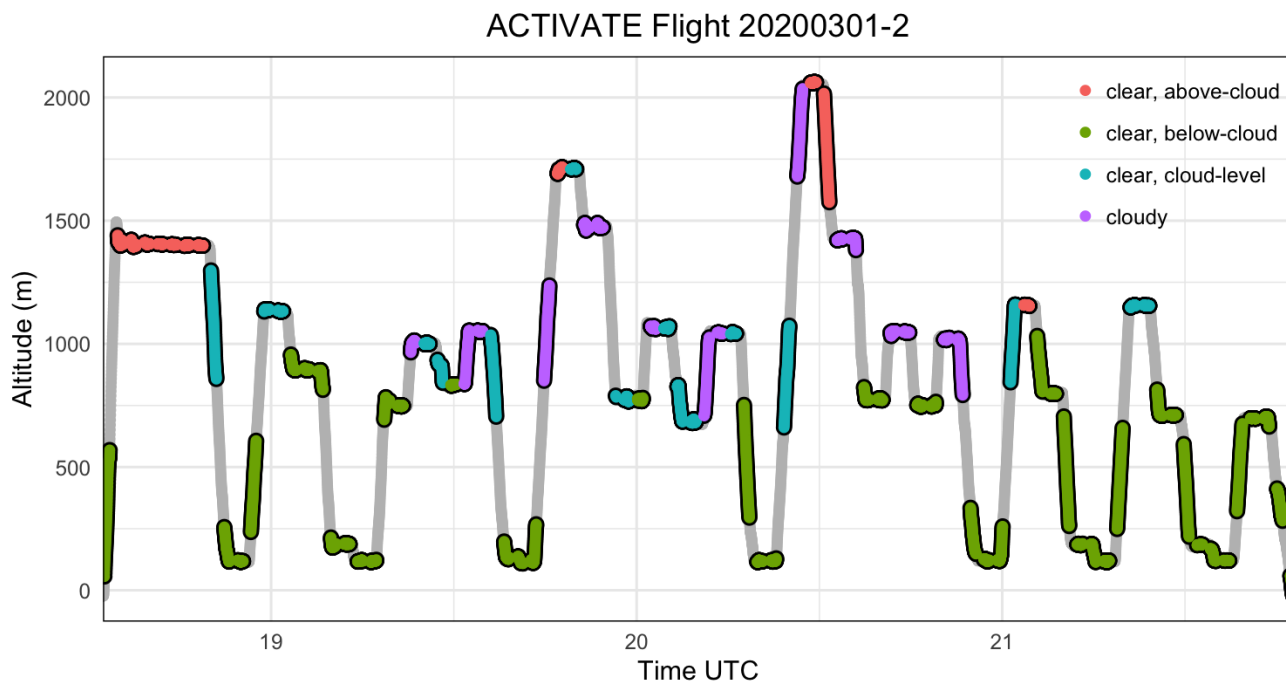


Figure S1. Categorization of CCN measurements during RF14 on 1 March 2020 as defined in Section S1.2.1

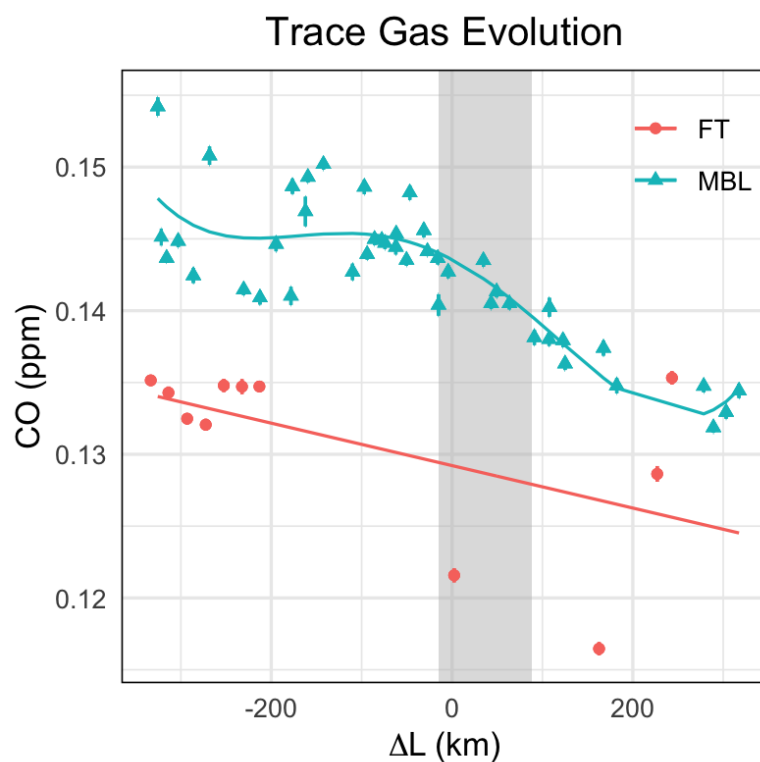


Figure S2. CO trace gas measurements during RF14 on 1 March 2020 sampled in the FT or MBL (see legend) as a function of distance from cloud edge (ΔL) used to estimate entrainment rates (Figure 4a). Gray shading indicates distance range of budget analysis using RSP. Vertical bars show the standard error.

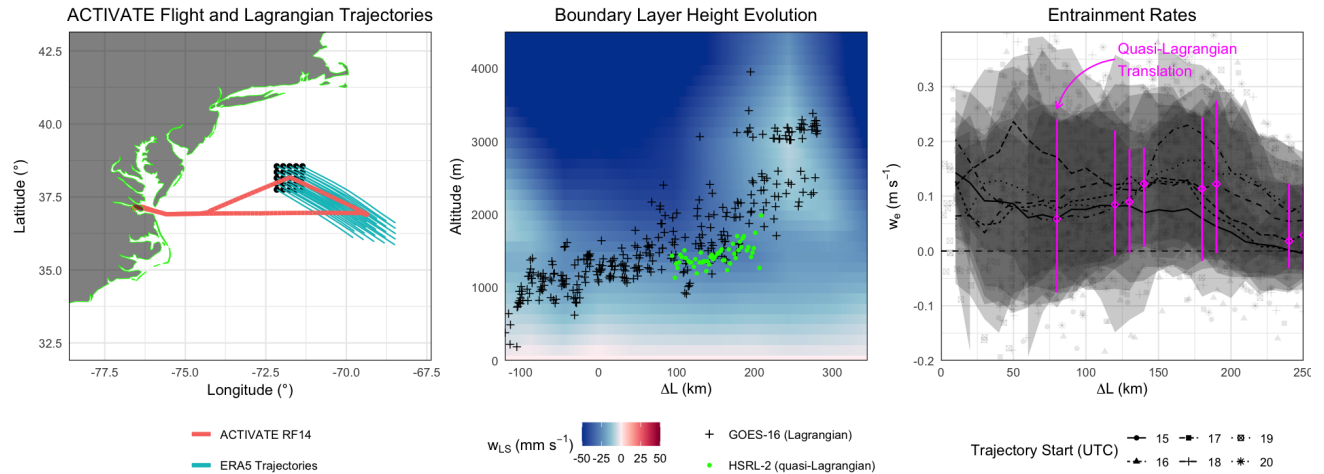


Figure S3. An array of ERA5 Lagrangian trajectories (left) launched at 1900 UTC on 1 March 2020, collocated CTH with fetch (middle) that were retrieved from GOES-16 satellite observations (black crosses) and from HSRL-2 (green filled circles) with ERA5 large-scale vertical wind fields (color shading), and derived entrainment rates versus fetch (right) for different launch times that intersected the flight track at different fetch values (magenta). Semi-translucent, gray shading and vertical bars (magenta) highlight 5th to 95th percentiles of entrainment rates obtained across the array of trajectories.

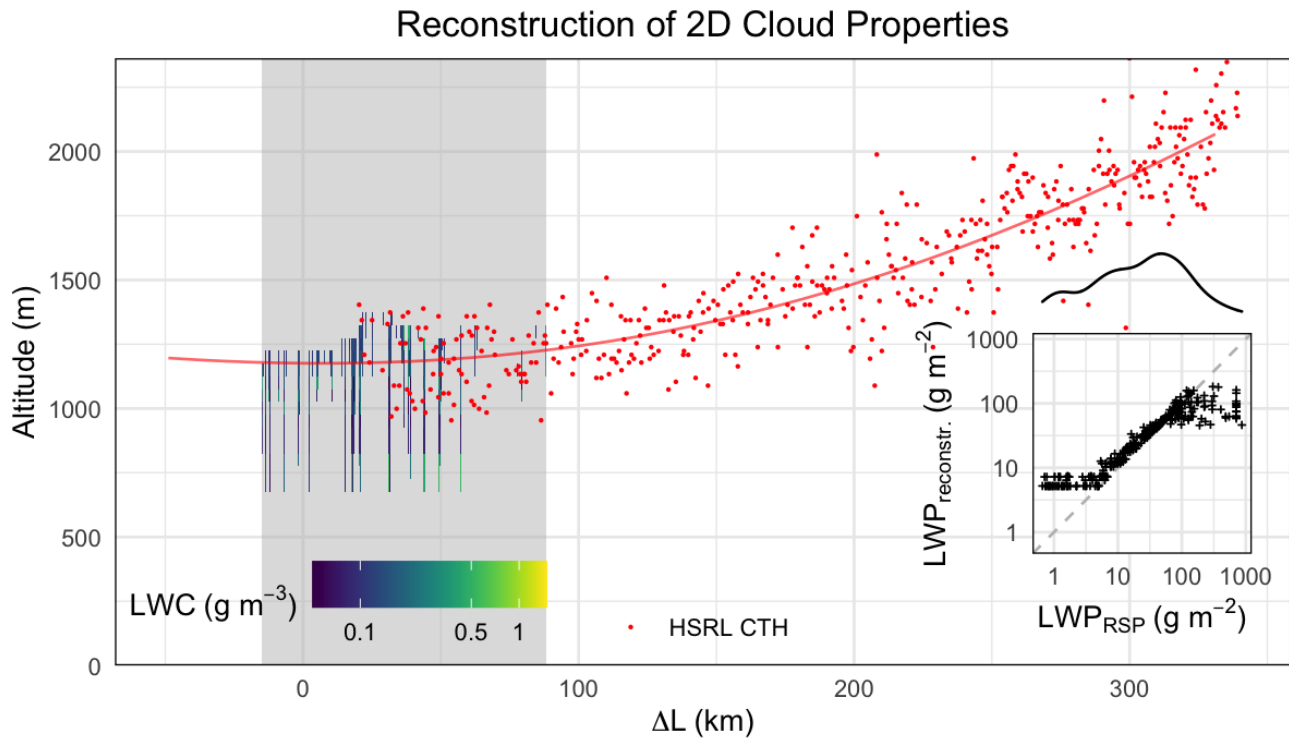


Figure S4. Overview of RF14 (1 March 2020) mock-cloud-profiles (LWC shown as colored shading) together with HSRL-2 cloud-top heights (red dots) and its quadratic fit (red line). The inset compares LWP from reconstructed profiles with the RSP-based LWP values. The curve above the inset panel indicates the probability density function for RSP-based values.

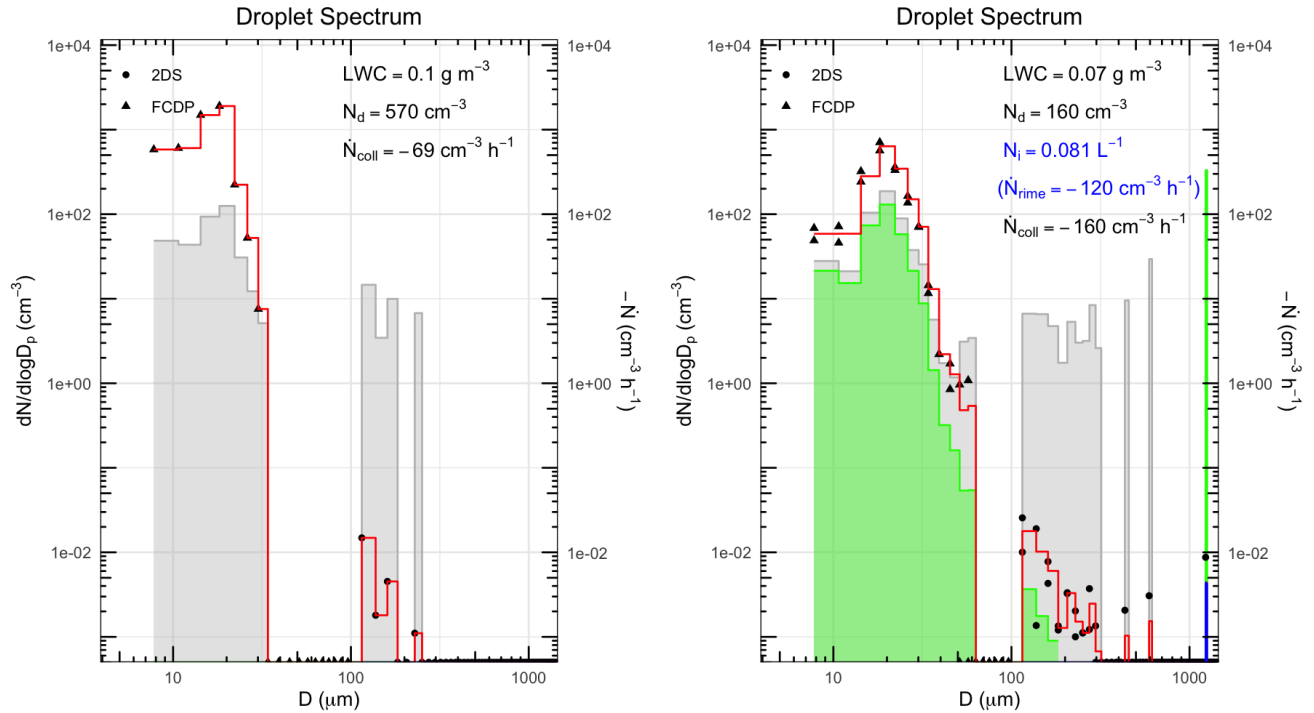


Figure S5. Example hydrometeor size distributions (red, scale on left axes) during RF14 at two flight times 70495 s (left) and at 73525 s (right) and corresponding computed collision loss rates (listed at top-right corner) with bin-wise contributions (gray shade, scale on right axes). Rates that involved hydrometeors classified as frozen (only in one bin, shown with blue bar) are labelled as “riming” (shown as integral in blue text and as bin-wise contribution through green shading) and are simply obtained by using Equation S5 and ignoring all liquid-liquid interactions.

Use of Nearby* In-Situ Samples for Reconstruction

(* within 100 km horiz. distance; within 900 s of RSP meas.; within 50 m vertically)

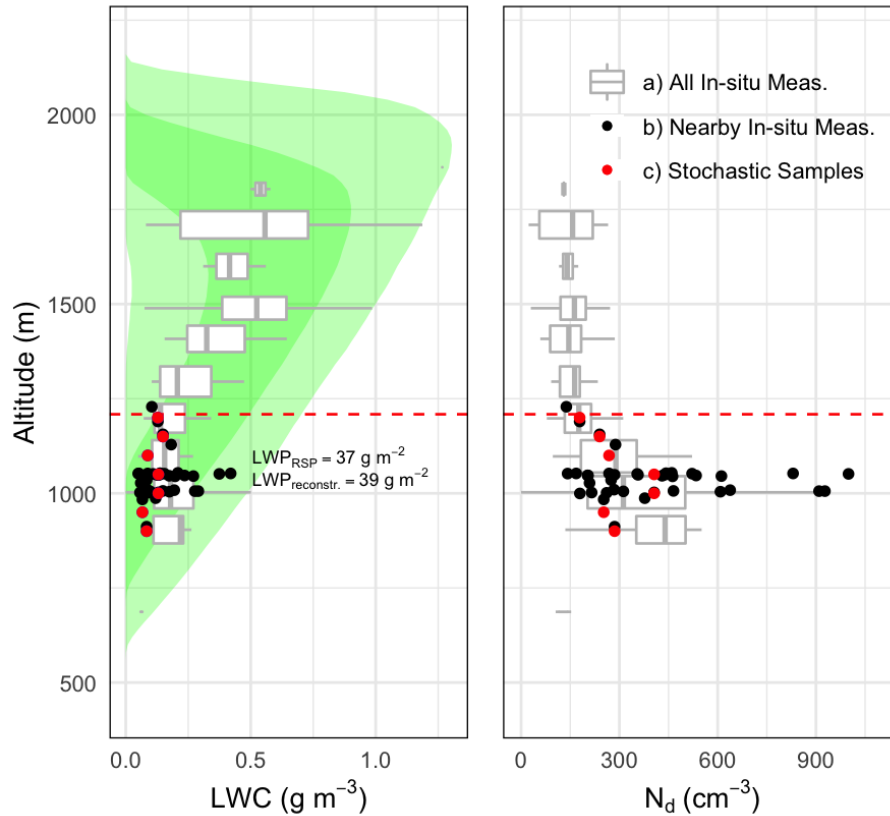


Figure S6. Example of RF14 (1 March 2020) in-situ samples (black) to stochastically build a mock-cloud-profile (red), shown for LWC (left) and N_d (right), until the LWP roughly matches the nearby RSP-sampled value. Gray bars mark the range of all in-situ observations (box ranging between 25th and 75th percentiles and whiskers extending to 5th and 95th percentiles). The green shading (lighter shade marks 5th to 95th and darker shade 25th to 75th percentiles) shows LWC profiles from large-eddy simulations of a similar case (altitudes shifted 500 m downward to match the prevalent MBL height). The decrease of N_d with height is an artifact of MBL deepening downwind where N_d progressively decreases.

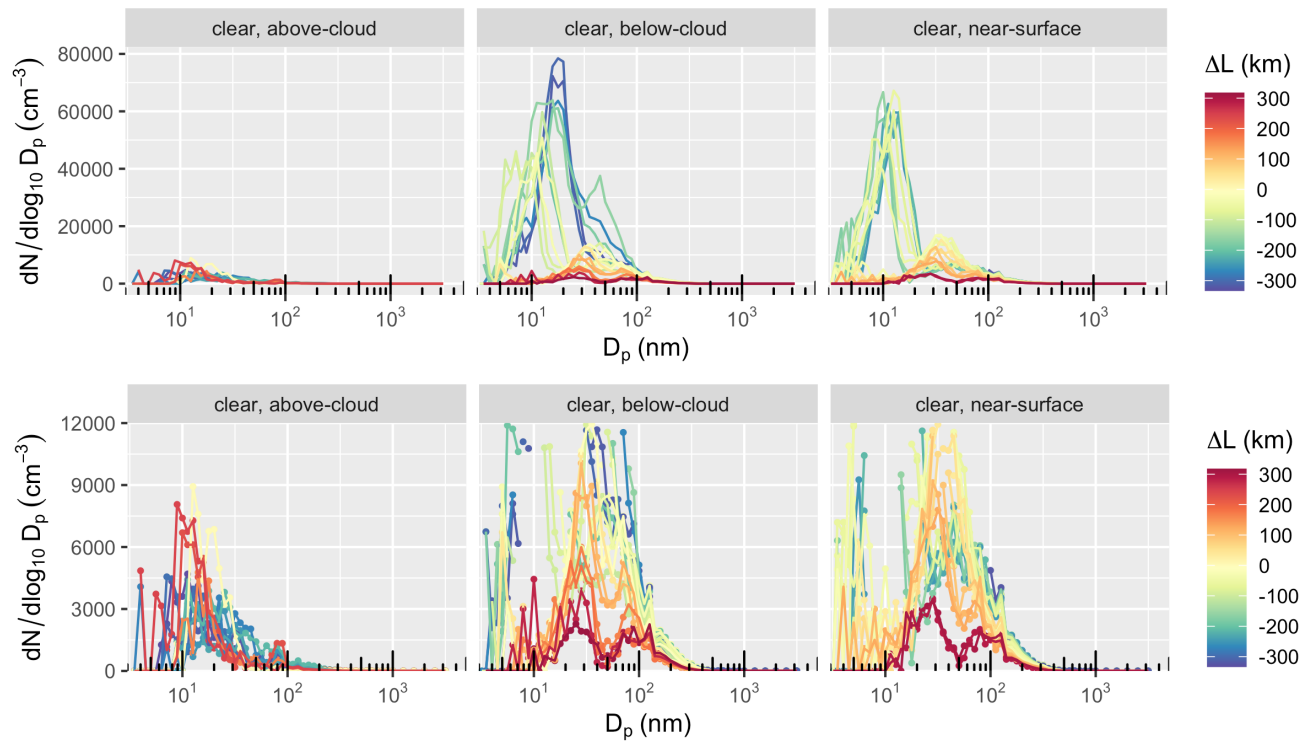


Figure S7. Aerosol particle size distributions measured during RF14 (1 March 2020) in the FT and MBL (top; and with reduced y-axis range, bottom). Colors mark the downwind distance from cloud edge, ΔL .

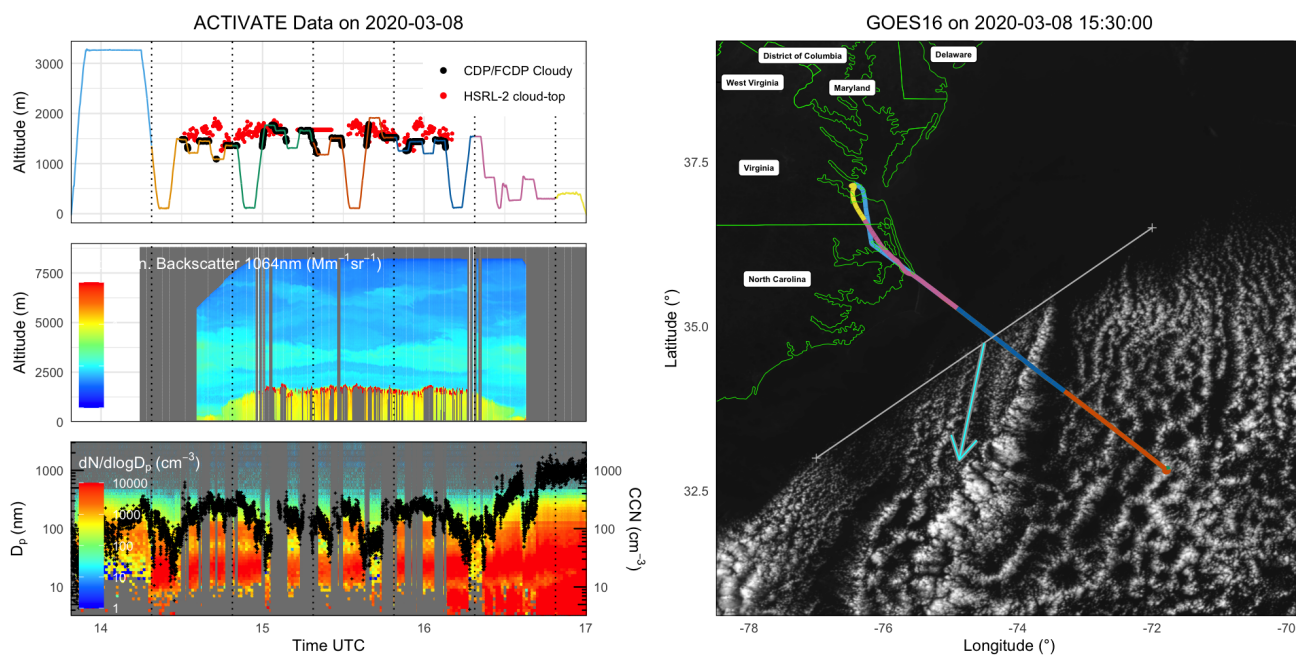


Figure S8. As in Figure 1, but for the first research flight on 8 March 2020 (RF17).

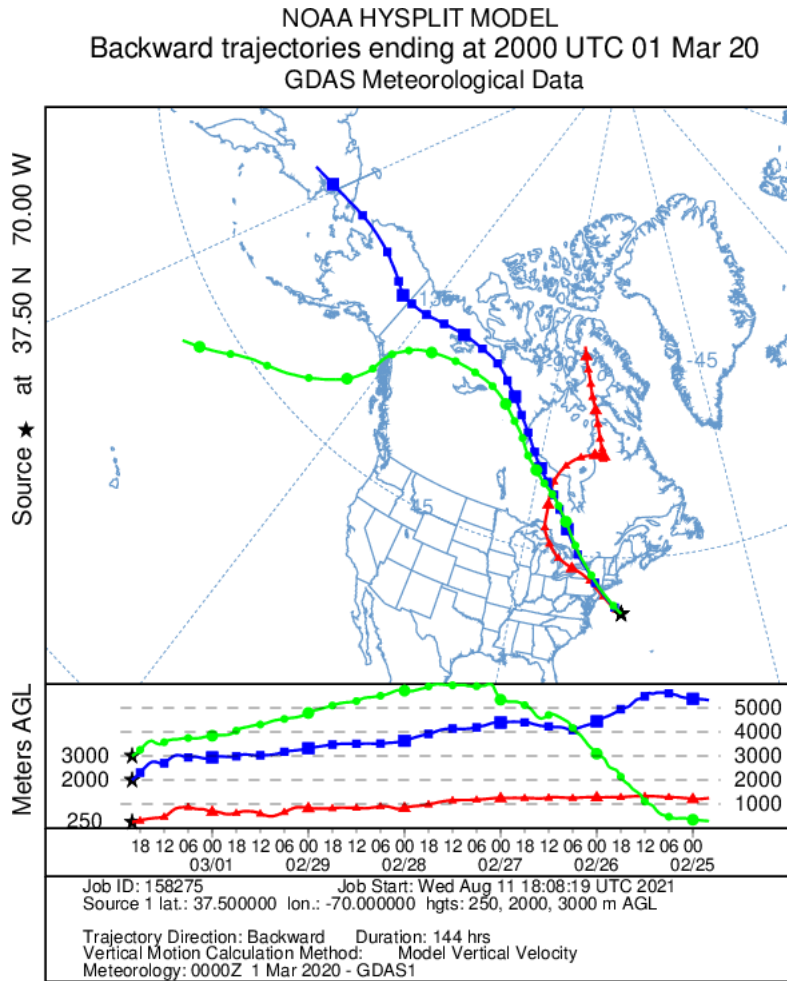


Figure S9. Back-trajectories based on HYSPLIT (Stein et al., 2015; Rolph et al., 2017) for RF14.