

1 Effects of wintertime polluted aerosol on cloud over the Yangtze  
2 River Delta: case study

3  
4  
5  
6

7 Chen Xu <sup>a</sup>, Junyan Duan <sup>a</sup>, Yanyu Wang <sup>a</sup>, Yifan Wang <sup>a</sup>, Hailin Zhu <sup>a</sup>,  
8 Xiang Li <sup>a\*</sup>, Lingdong Kong <sup>a</sup>, Qianshan He <sup>b</sup>, Tiantao Cheng <sup>a\*</sup>, Jianmin  
9 Chen <sup>a</sup>

10  
11  
12

13 a. Shanghai Key Laboratory of Atmospheric Particle Pollution and Prevention (LAP<sup>3</sup>),  
14 Department of environmental science and engineering, Fudan University, Shanghai  
15 200433, China;

16 b. Shanghai Meteorological Bureau, Shanghai 200030, China;

17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27

28 \* Corresponding authors: Tiantao Cheng, Xiang Li  
29 Tel: (86) 21-6564 3230; fax: (86) 21-6564 2080;  
30 Email: [ttcheng@fudan.edu.cn](mailto:ttcheng@fudan.edu.cn), [lixiang@fudan.edu.cn](mailto:lixiang@fudan.edu.cn)

31 Abstract

32 The effects of polluted aerosol on cloud are examined over the Yangtze  
33 River Delta (YRD) using three-month satellite data during wintertime from  
34 December 2013 to January 2014. The relationships between aerosol  
35 properties and cloud parameters are analyzed in detail to clarify the  
36 differences of cloud development under varying aerosol and meteorology  
37 conditions. Complex relationships between aerosol optical depth (AOD)  
38 and cloud droplet radius (CDR), liquid water path (LWP) and cloud optical  
39 thickness (COT) exist in four sub-regions. High aerosol loading does not  
40 obviously affect the distributions of cloud LWP and COT. In fact, an  
41 inhibiting effect of aerosol occurs in coastal area for low-and medium-low  
42 clouds, more pronounced in low clouds (<5km) than high clouds. Low  
43 aerosol loading plays a positive role in promoting COTs of high- and low-  
44 clouds in areas dominated by marine aerosol. The most significant effect  
45 presents in valley and coal industry districts for clouds except high-cloud.  
46 The smallest values and variations of cloud parameters are observed in dry-  
47 polluted area, which suggests that dust aerosol makes little difference on  
48 clouds properties. Synoptic conditions also cast strong impacts on cloud  
49 distribution, particularly the unstable synoptic condition leads to cloud  
50 development at larger horizontal and vertical scales. The ground pollution  
51 enhances the amount of low-level cloud coverage even under stable  
52 condition. Aerosol plays an important role in cloud evolution for the low

53 layers of troposphere(below 5km) in case of the stable atmosphere in

54 wintertime.

55 **Keywords:** Aerosol, Cloud, Pollution, the Yangtze River Delta

56 1. Introduction

57 Aerosol is the solid or liquid particles of 0.001-10 microns in diameter  
58 suspended in the atmosphere. Aerosol can influence regional and global  
59 climates by direct and indirect effects (Ackerman et al., 2000; Forest et al.,  
60 2002; Knutti et al., 2002; Anderson et al., 2003; Lohmann and Feichter,  
61 2005; Satheesh et al., 2006), and cause great harm to atmospheric  
62 environment and human health (Monks et al., 2009; Pöschl, 2005).  
63 Actually, aerosol can act as cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) or ice nuclei  
64 (IN) to affect cloud droplet size, number and albedo, as a result, delaying  
65 the collision and coalescence in warm clouds (Twomey, 1974). Aerosol  
66 also affects precipitation and cloud lifespan, and eventually affect cloud  
67 coverage and regional climate (Albrecht, 1989; Rosenfeld, 2000;  
68 Ramanathan et al., 2001; Quaas et al., 2004). In the process of cloud  
69 formation, aerosol probably influences cloud physical characteristics, such  
70 as cloud thickness and cloud amounts (Hansen et al., 1997).

71 The Yangtze River Delta (YRD) is a fast growing and densely populated  
72 area in East China, hence experiencing relatively high aerosol loadings for  
73 decades because of large amounts of black carbon and sulfate emissions  
74 (Wolf and Hidy, 1997; Streets et al., 2001; Xu et al., 2003; Bond et al., 2004;  
75 Lu et al., 2010). Due to human activities and special geographies, this  
76 region suffers a lot from natural and anthropogenic aerosols. In addition to  
77 industrial aerosols caused by human activities, the other major types are

78 marine aerosols from sea surface brought by winds and dust aerosols  
79 transported occasionally from deserts in northern China mostly in winter  
80 and spring (Jin and Shepherd, 2008). All these factors may result in a more  
81 complex aerosol-cloud-precipitation interaction over this region.

82 In recent years, we have paid increasing attention to aerosol and its  
83 radiative effects in the YRD district (Xia et al., 2007; Liu et al., 2012). For  
84 instance, He et al. (2012) explored that a notable increase of annual mean  
85 aerosol optical depth (AOD) takes place during 2000-2007, with a  
86 maximum in summer dominated by fine particles and a minimum in winter  
87 controlled by coarse mode particles mostly. Other studies have focused on  
88 aerosol indirect effect (AIE) (the process of aerosol microphysical effects  
89 on clouds) and attempt to assess the impact of aerosol on precipitation in  
90 Eastern China. For example, Leng et al. (2014) pointed out that aerosol is  
91 more active in hazy days in Shanghai. Tang et al. (2014) analyzed the  
92 variability of cloud properties induced by aerosol over East China from  
93 satellite data, and compared land with ocean areas to understand AIE  
94 discrepancy under different meteorological conditions. Menon et al. (2002)  
95 proposed that the increasing precipitation in southeastern China as well as  
96 the decreasing precipitation in northeastern China led by anthropogenic  
97 aerosol are likely attributable to the absorption radiation by AOD  
98 distribution. Zhao et al. (2006) examined the feedback of precipitation and  
99 aerosol over the Eastern and Central China for the last 40 years, and

100 revealed that precipitation has significantly decreased as a result of  
101 atmospheric visibility reduction. Despite of the above-mentioned studies,  
102 up to now, the influence of polluted aerosol on cloud and precipitation over  
103 different underlying surfaces along the YRD is not intensively examined.

104 In the winter of 2013, China was extensively hit by haze, which was  
105 characterized by long-term durability, wider influence and severer polluted  
106 features. In the YRD, haze occurred persistently at the wintertime from  
107 December 2013 to February 2014. In order to understand the formation of  
108 haze, Leng et al. (2015) analyzed the synoptic situation, boundary layer  
109 and pollutants of haze that happened in December 2013, and Hu et al. (2016)  
110 profiled the chemical characteristics of single particle sampled in Shanghai.  
111 Kong et al. (2015) observed the variation of polycyclic aromatic  
112 hydrocarbons in PM<sub>2.5</sub> during haze periods around the 2014 Chinese Spring  
113 Festival in Nanjing. More efforts are needed to focus on the relationship  
114 between aerosol types and macro-/micro-physical properties of clouds  
115 under different atmospheric conditions.

116 Satellite measurements of aerosols, called aerosol optical thickness, are  
117 based on the fact that the particles change the way to reflect and absorb  
118 visible and infrared light. The hygroscopic property of aerosol will change  
119 the values of AODs in case of the same aerosols density. For example, a  
120 higher relative humidity increases the AOD due to more water uptake by  
121 the particles. Many studies have worked on the relationship between AOD

122 and aerosol concentration. For instance, G. Myhre et al. (2007) point out  
123 that the increase in AOD is not mainly caused by the hygroscopic growth,  
124 for in many areas, the Angstrom exponent increases as AOD from MODIS  
125 increases. Thus, we use AOD to represent of aerosol loading.

126 This paper presents the spatio-temporal variations of aerosol and  
127 clouds over the YRD region from December 2013 to February 2014 based  
128 on satellite data retrievals and the method used by Costantino et al. (2013).  
129 The aim is to provide insights into the influence of aerosol on cloud  
130 microphysical properties under highly polluted conditions. In other words,  
131 whether the high aerosol loading can induce different effects on cloud  
132 development. The results are helpful to in-depth understanding of aerosol  
133 indirect effects in Asian fast-growing areas.

## 134 2. Data and methods

135 Clouds and Earth's Radiant Energy System (CERES), part of the NASA's  
136 Earth Observing System (EOS), is an instrument aboard Aqua satellite to  
137 measure the upwelling short- and long-wave radiations with a horizontal  
138 resolution about  $20 \times 20 \text{ km}^2$  (Wielicki et al., 1996; Loeb and Manalo-Smith,  
139 2005). In this study, the clouds and aerosol parameters of CERES-  
140 SYN1deg, retrieved from Edition 3A 3-hour data from satellites of Terra  
141 and Aqua, were used for the YRD domain ( $26.5\text{-}35.5^\circ\text{N}$ ,  $115.5\text{-}122.5^\circ\text{E}$ )  
142 between December 2013 and February 2014. Cloud properties, including  
143 cloud liquid water path (LWP), cloud effective droplet radius (CDR), cloud

144 optical thickness (COT), cloud top pressure (CTP) and cloud fraction  
145 (CLF), were retrieved from the 3.7  $\mu\text{m}$  (mid-IR) channel with the  
146 horizontal resolution of  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$  (Minnis et al., 2004). The daily average was  
147 computed based on the 3-hour data in corresponding to the date from the  
148 SYN1deg-3hour products (also for monthly average). On the basis of  
149 three-month mean AODs at  $0.55\mu\text{m}$  and underlying surface conditions, the  
150 YRD was divided into four sub-regions (Fig.1). If more than  $2/3$  space of  
151 the grid fell into a certain sub-region, this grid was considered as one part  
152 of the sub-region.

153 The CERES-SYN retrieval includes MODIS-derived cloud and aerosol  
154 properties (Minnis et al., 2004; Remer et al., 2005) and geostationary-  
155 derived cloud properties. It uses 3-hour cloud property data from  
156 geostationary (GEO) imagers for modelling more accurately the variability  
157 of CERES observations. Computations use MODIS and geostationary  
158 satellite cloud properties along with atmospheric profiles provided by the  
159 Global Modeling and Assimilation Office (GMAO). Furthermore, the  
160 CDR and COT of MOD04 are generally smaller than those of MOD06  
161 products (Minnis et al., 2004; Platnick et al., 2003) because the MODIS  
162 algorithm tends to classify very thick aerosol layers as clouds and non-  
163 aerosols (Remer et al., 2006). Thus, the total AOD is probably  
164 underestimated by MODIS. Overall, the properties of cloud and aerosol are  
165 better to be retrieved from the CERES-SYN (Jones et al., 2009).

166 MODIS products are derived from cloud-free data at 500m spatial  
167 resolution and then aggregated to a 10 km footprint (20×20 pixels) to  
168 generate the MODIS level2 aerosol product (MOD04). The fine mode  
169 fraction (FMF) of aerosol at 0.55  $\mu\text{m}$  was used to determine the effect of  
170 aerosol types on cloud properties. In this study, the simple method, which  
171 was utilized by Barnaba and Gobbi (2004) based on the combination of  
172 AOD and FMF, was implemented to separate aerosol types. This method  
173 defines aerosol as marine type with  $\text{AOD} < 0.3$  and  $\text{FMF} < 0.8$ , dust with  
174  $\text{AOD} > 0.3$  and  $\text{FMF} < 0.7$ , and continental type with  $\text{AOD} < 0.3$  and  $\text{FMF} >$   
175  $0.8$  or  $\text{AOD} > 0.3$  and  $\text{FMF} > 0.7$ . By the way, aerosol type pixels were  
176 created following the resolution of CERES products.

177 The aerosol and cloud products were retrieved by the CALIPSO lidar  
178 instrument, which provided height-resolved information globally since  
179 2006, including the layer fraction of aerosol and cloud and aerosol vertical  
180 feature mask (Winker et al., 2009, 2010). In order to examine atmospheric  
181 stability, surface lifted index (SLI) and sea level pressure (SLP) from the  
182 National Center for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) Reanalysis (Kalnay  
183 et al., 1996) were used. The frequency of precipitation was calculated by  
184 precipitation rate from reanalysis data obtained.

185 The Hybrid Single Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT)  
186 model (Draxler and Rolph 2003; Rolph 2003;  
187 [www.arl.noaa.gov/ready.html](http://www.arl.noaa.gov/ready.html)) was used to calculate 72-h air mass forward

188 and backward trajectories every six hours at 9key sites in the YRD. The  
189 meteorological data input is from the FNL data set, reprocessed from the  
190 final analysis data of NOAA's NCEP by Air Resources Laboratory.  
191 Additionally, the data of PM<sub>2.5</sub>concentration came from the on-line  
192 monitoring and analysis platform of air quality in China  
193 (<http://www.aqistudy.cn/>).

194 We collected all the information about the data sources, which we used  
195 in this study, to make table1.

### 196 3. Results and discussion

#### 197 3.1 Aerosol spatial variation

198 The terrain characteristics will easily influence the transport of pollution  
199 and affect the aerosol characteristics. Figure 1 displays the spatial  
200 distribution of 3-h mean AODs over the YRD region from December 2013  
201 to February 2014. AODs range in 0.3-0.9, lower than the annual average  
202 (0.5-1.3) (Kourtidis et al., 2015), and show significant distinction due to  
203 different surface conditions from north to south. High AODs almost scatter  
204 in plains and valleys, particularly at the densely populated and  
205 industrialized locations, while low AODs are mainly distributed in hills  
206 and mountains. AODs higher than 0.7 are concentrated in the north of the  
207 YRD, the central and northern parts of Jiangsu Province and the northern  
208 part of Anhui Province, traditional agricultural areas, here which are  
209 defined as sub-region A. Furthermore, high AODs of 0.5-0.7 are found in

210 Shanghai and the northeastern part of Zhejiang Province, typical urban  
211 industrial areas, named as sub-region B. The Yangtze River valley in Anhui  
212 Province, surrounded by Dabie and Tianmu mountains, is categorized into  
213 sub-region C. **The Tianmu and Dabie Mountain hinder the transport of**  
214 **surface contaminants away from their source regions, whilst also**  
215 **preventing long-distance transportation of dust aerosol from the north and**  
216 **marine aerosol from the east.** AODs lower than 0.5 are observed in  
217 mountainous areas throughout the south and west parts of Zhejiang  
218 province and the Mount Huang in Anhui province, referred to as sub-region  
219 D. **For hilly areas with trees (region D), the surface of land has different**  
220 **properties from others, and as a result, it may greatly effect aerosol**  
221 **radiation and the progress of hygroscopic growth (e.g. due to humidity**  
222 **levels enhanced by the trees, new particles' activation).**

223 The 3-month mean AODs are 0.76, 0.62, 0.57, and 0.44 in the sub-region  
224 A, B, C, and D, respectively. This feature of aerosol spatial distribution is  
225 in accordance with the result concluded by Tan et al. (2015), using 10-year  
226 data, that aerosol concentration is higher in north and lower in south,  
227 whereas FMF is just opposite to AOD.

228 **The effect of hygroscopic growth depends on what is the dominating**  
229 **aerosol type.** According to AOD~FMF classification method (Barnaba and  
230 Gobbi,2004), aerosols of the sub-region A are probably categorized into  
231 marine, dust and continental types, mainly generated from local

232 urban/industrial emissions and biomass burning. Also, this sub-region is  
233 vulnerable to dust blowing from the North China (Fu et al.,2014). In the  
234 sub-region B, besides fine mode particles from urban/industrial emissions,  
235 coarse mode particulate pollutants have marine aerosols brought by  
236 northeastern airflows and dust floating long distance from the north. The  
237 large aerosol loading of the Jiaozhou Bay is probably attributed to coarse  
238 mode particles due to the humidity swelling of sea salt (Xin et al., 2007).  
239 A plenty of construction and industrial activities also contribute numerous  
240 dust-like particles to the atmosphere (He et al., 2012). Similar with the  
241 aerosol types in the sub-region B, the sub-region C is home to more than  
242 one million people, numerous copper-melting industry and coalmines,  
243 which are the major sources of local emissions. The sub-region D is  
244 dominated by continental and marine aerosols, most of which can be easily  
245 detected close to their sources (He et al., 2012). Overall, dust and  
246 anthropogenic pollutants often influence the columnar optical properties of  
247 aerosol in all parts of northern the YRD. **The physical interactions between**  
248 **aerosol and cloud are distinct depending on the aerosol type, which is**  
249 **linked to the regions/terrain characteristics.**

## 250 3.2 Aerosol and cloud properties

### 251 3.2.1 Cloud optical thickness (COT)

252 Figure 2 shows the distribution of COTs varying with AODs, which are  
253 averaged over every constant bin AOD (0.02) from 0.2 to 1. Clearly, COTs

254 are notably uni-modal in the sub-region B, C and D, and almost reach to  
255 maximum at AODs of 0.6-0.74. The peaks of COTs are close to 17 in the  
256 sub-region C, D and smaller 15 in the sub-region B. A possible reason is  
257 that clouds turn thicker in mountainous areas (e.g. sub-region C and D) as  
258 a result of new particles' activation (Bangert et al., 2011). In contrast, COTs  
259 ascend slowly, and multi-modal peaks appear in the sub-region A, such as  
260 COTs 7.1, 8.4 in corresponding to AODs at 0.44 and 0.88, respectively.

261 In the sub-region A, COTs grow as aerosols increase, and particularly  
262 COTs of the clouds below 4.6km is correlated with AODs below 0.6 (Table  
263 S1). COTs and AODs are positive-correlated at low-level AODs ( $<0.6$ ) in  
264 the sub-region B, C and D and negative-correlated at high-level AODs  
265 (0.6-1.0). In the sub-region B, COTs are greatly sensitive to AODs, and  
266 COTs of all height-type clouds are affected equally by AODs at low-level.  
267 As for high-clouds, the inhibiting effect of aerosol on COTs is more  
268 outstanding ( $R^2=0.47$ ) than the promoting effect. In the sub-region C,  
269 except for high-clouds, the influence of low-level AODs on COTs of other  
270 type clouds is relatively stronger than that in the sub-region B, while high-  
271 level AODs are less influential in the sub-region B than the sub-region C  
272 and cast no evident impacts on high-clouds. In the sub-region D, COTs and  
273 AODs show a significant positive correlativity at low-level AODs, for  
274 example, a steep slope (3.58) appears in high-clouds. Generally, COT links  
275 closely with AOD, in particular of low- and medium-low clouds in the sub-

276 region A, low- and high-clouds in the sub-region B and D, and other types  
277 except high-clouds in the sub-region C.

### 278 3.2.2 Cloud liquid water path (LWP)

279 Kourtidis et al. (2015) point out that the impact of AODs on cloud cover  
280 would greatly overestimated unless water vapor is considered in the YRD,  
281 where AODs and water vapor have similar seasonal variations. In addition,  
282 recent studies have focused on the possible impacts of meteorological  
283 parameters on AOD–COT relationships, such as water vapor (Ten Hoeve  
284 et al., 2011) and relative humidity (Koren et al., 2010; Grandey et al., 2013).

285 Water vapor influence is discussed using LWPs averaged over a  
286 constantbin of AODs (Figure 3). The relationship of LWP-AOD is  
287 somewhat similar to that of COT-AOD (Figure 2), and AODs of 0.6-0.74  
288 correspond to peak LWPs in the sub-region B, C and D. In the sub-region  
289 C, LWPs rise up about 14 times as AODs increase from 0.22 to 0.66, which  
290 is the largest increase among these sub-regions. Otherwise, in the sub-  
291 region A, although LWPs grow smoothly with AODs on the whole, no  
292 distinct peaks are detected, and the amount of cloud water increases by 425%  
293 as AODs increase from 0.2 to 0.96. The growth rate of LWPs in the sub-  
294 region A is similar to that of the sub-region B, but the promoting effects of  
295 AOD zones are quite different between them (0.2-1 vs 0.2-0.6). This  
296 discrepancy is responsible for a large amount of non-hygroscopic aerosols  
297 in the sub-region A (Liu and Wang, 2010).

298 Generally, LWPs increase with AODs when AODs are at low levels in  
299 the four sub-regions. LWPs and AODs are negative-correlated at high-level  
300 AODs in the sub-region B, C and D, but weakly positive- correlated in the  
301 sub-region A. Specifically, in the sub-region A, the promotion of aerosol  
302 positive effect slows down with cloud height growing and AOD increasing.  
303 Although aerosol plays equal roles in all height-type clouds in the sub-  
304 region B, the best-fit slopes at high-level AODs are twice as large as those  
305 at low-level AODs, and correlation coefficients for the clouds below 4.6km  
306 are larger than clouds in higher layers (Table S1). In other words, for each  
307 level of clouds, LWPs increase slowly ( $AOD < 0.6$ ) but decrease sharply  
308 ( $AOD > 0.6$ ) with AODs growing. Opposite to the sub-region B, the  
309 promoting effect of AOD on LWP in the sub-region C at low AODs is  
310 marked, while the inhibiting effect is not significant at high AODs (Table  
311 S1). In addition, the promoting effect of low clouds in the sub-region C is  
312 most outstanding. In the sub-region D, the pronounced effect of AOD on  
313 LWP mainly works on low- and high-clouds at low-level AODs (Table S1).  
314 Particularly, the best-fit slope of high-clouds, such as 2.53 at low-level  
315 AODs and -3.46 at high-level AODs, is much higher than that of other  
316 height-type clouds.

317 Many studies have also displayed the correlation of LWP and AOD in  
318 other regions of the world. For instance, a report over Pakistan (Alam et  
319 al., 2010), where aerosol is dominated by coarse particles, is similar to our

320 results of the sub-region A, where positive correlations of LWP-AOD are  
321 found mainly due to their common seasonal patterns. LWP plays an  
322 important role in AIE (L'Ecuyer et al., 2009), and findings confirm that  
323 high-aerosol conditions tend to decrease LWP, and the magnitude of LWP  
324 reduction is greater in the unstable environment of non-precipitating clouds  
325 (Lebsock et al., 2008). Moreover, the fact that increasing LWP is not  
326 systematically associated with increasing AOD (Fig.3) indicates there is no  
327 definite relationship between AOD and LWP.

### 328 3.2.3 Cloud droplet radius(CDR)

329 Fig.4 presents mean CDRs averaged over a constantbin (0.02) of AODs.  
330 Basically, CDRs vary between 9.5 $\mu\text{m}$  and 11 $\mu\text{m}$  in all 4 sub-regions. For  
331 the sub-region A, two sections indicate weak positive correlation between  
332 CDR and AOD. For the sub-region B, however, it is of negative correlation  
333 for these two sections. As for the sub-region C and D, CDRs have a similar  
334 pattern that it decreases as AOD increases at low-level AODs and  
335 constantly increases at high-level AODs. Therefore, CDRs show an  
336 insignificant dependence on AODs (Table S1).

337 The non-monotonic responses of cloud properties to aerosol  
338 perturbations are shown in Figs 2-4. At low AOD (below 0.4), increases in  
339 cloud cover are indicative of physical aerosol-cloud interactions. At larger  
340 AOD (0.4~0.6), the increasing in cloud cover can be explained by larger  
341 hygroscopic growth near clouds (G. Myhre et al., 2007). In this range

342 (0~0.6), the addition of aerosol causes a decrease in drop size (CDR),  
343 precipitation is suppressed, and clouds develop further (increasing of COT)  
344 before raining out and last longer in the more developed stage, thus  
345 increasing the average LWP (Albrecht et al., 1989; Ferek et al., 2000).

346 When AOD grows larger than 0.6, the cloud development is reduced,  
347 probably due to that aerosols shade the surface. The reducing surface  
348 heating and evapotranspiration make LWP reduced (Koren et al., 2004).  
349 On the other hand, absorbing aerosols (such as smoke or dust) can heat the  
350 upper levels of the troposphere, which in combination with surface shading  
351 stabilizes the atmospheric column and reduces cloud development (Koren  
352 et al., 2004,2005; Taubman et al., 2004; Ackerman et al., 2000). As an  
353 increase in CCN leads to smaller droplets, evaporation around the sides  
354 and top of clouds due to mixing will become more effective at reducing the  
355 LWP (Koren et al., 2004; Burnet et al., 2007). Moreover, meteorology  
356 effects, such as high-pressure systems, can inhibit convective activity,  
357 simultaneously reducing cloudiness while aerosols stay in the source  
358 region (Sinclair et al., 2010).

359 Compared to Wang et al. (2014) which studied over YRD during  
360 summer time, the different results probably come from the different  
361 characters of meteorological conditions in winter and summer. In winter  
362 being relatively static, higher aerosol loading and lower humidity. Also, the  
363 wind direction of monsoon is different from summer. It will cause

364 differences in aerosol sources advected into/away from the region, thus  
365 influence the aerosols and their effects on cloud. As a whole, CDR shows  
366 little exponential dependence on AOD, consequently, simply the  
367 exponential presentation is difficult to entirely reflect their complex  
368 relationship.

369 We perform former analyses (section 3.2.1, 3.2.2) on four sub-regions  
370 (A-D) that are located close to each other. We consider the meteorological  
371 conditions are similar between them. In order to understand AOD-CDR, in  
372 this part, variables of cloud height and cloud water content are controlled  
373 to evaluate their potentials in different height-type clouds by correlation  
374 coefficients of cloud parameters (e.g. CDR, LWP, COT) (Table S1). Firstly,  
375 it is notable that a considerable portion of relatively high correlation  
376 coefficients mostly occurs in low clouds. Figure 5 shows total cloud and  
377 aerosol occurrence frequencies below 10km over the entire YRD. The  
378 cloud frequency is multi-modal, ranging from 93% around 1km to 26%  
379 around 10km, among which most exceeding 50% obviously occur at the  
380 low (< 3km) and high (6-9km) layers. As for aerosol layer fraction, it turns  
381 out high frequency occurs below 3.6km above sea level, maximum around  
382 1.2km, and the frequency decreases to zero with increasing heights.  
383 Overall, both of cloud and aerosol most frequently appear below 3km,  
384 indicating that low-cloud (altitude from the surface to 2.8km) plays an  
385 important role in AIE within every sub-region. Thereby, we use 3-h

386 average data of low-cloud from CERES in the following analyses.  
387 Water vapor (WV) has a great effect on CDR. Yuan et al. (2008) summarize  
388 that 70% of variability between AOD and CDR is due to changes of  
389 atmospheric water content. Moreover, statistics suggests that WV has an  
390 evidently stronger impact on cloud cover than AOD over the YRD  
391 (Kourtidis et al., 2015). Therefore, we introduce LWP and divide it into six  
392 grades for analysis of CDR changes with AOD. In Figure 6, CDRs present  
393 different tendencies as AOD changes at different levels of cloud water  
394 content. When cloud water content is low (i.e. thin cloud,  $LWP < 50 \text{ g/m}^2$ ),  
395 CDRs increase gradually with AODs. The CDRs in the sub-region A and  
396 B increase with AODs synchronously at LWPs of 50 -100, but decrease in  
397 the sub-region C and D. Overall, it is indicated that in a mountainous area  
398 full of water vapors, the inhibiting effect appears as the aerosol loading  
399 increases. When LWP is growing, however, the trend of CDR changes with  
400 AODs turns ambiguous.

401 Meanwhile, some of CDRs show clearly decreasing tendency with  
402 LWPs at constant AODs under  $LWP < 200 \text{ g/m}^2$ , such as higher AODs  
403 ( $AOD > 0.6$ ) in the sub-region D and medium aerosol loading  
404 ( $0.4 < AOD < 0.6$ ) in the sub-region B. Conversely, for  $LWP > 200 \text{ g/m}^2$ , there  
405 are no obvious changes with growing LWPs because of limited data. The  
406 increasing tendency has been observed in Amazon because of difference  
407 meteorological and biosphere conditions (Yu et al., 2007; Michibata et al.,

408 2014).

409 In this study, we use AOD/LWP to reflect the proportion of aerosol and  
410 water content. Figure 7 shows COTs and CDRs averaged over a constant  
411 bin (0.1) of AOD/LWP in log-log scale, in which AODs are adjusted to  
412 LWPs in same magnitude. COTs decrease with AOD/LWP, while CDRs  
413 increase with it in all sub-regions. However, the ranges of COT, CDR, and  
414 AOD/LWP values are changeable indifferent sub-regions. In the sub-  
415 region A, AOD/LWP maximum (15) is larger than that in other sub-regions,  
416 indicating a polluted-dry condition. Correspondingly, COTs decrease from  
417 22.8 toward 0.6 with AOD/LWP and shows a strong correlation.  
418 Nevertheless, the weakest tendency (-0.84) indicates that the inhibiting  
419 effect on COTs is not as strong as other sub-regions. For the clear-wet sub-  
420 region D, COTs are larger than that in the sub-region A at same AOD/LWP  
421 values. Also, CDRs vary between 9 and 11, showing a weak dependence  
422 on AOD/LWP (Figure 7). Many studies have revealed other factors on  
423 CDR variation, such as functions of different aerosol components and  
424 cloud physical dynamics (Sardina et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2016).

425 Furthermore, the relationship between aerosol and precipitation is  
426 complex as well. The increase of aerosol may reduce CDR, thus,  
427 precipitation will be inhibited under dry conditions. For humid regions or  
428 seasons, however, the more particles, the more frequently it is going to rain.  
429 Therefore, factors of seasons and locations cannot be neglected.

430 Obviously, precipitation is seasonally and regionally different under  
431 various aerosol loadings. Thus, in the research, we divide the YRD into 4  
432 sub-regions as aforementioned during wintertime, and  $a$  is defined as a  
433 slight pollution status ( $AOD < 0.5$ ) and  $b$  as a severe pollution status ( $AOD >$   
434  $0.5$ ) (Figure 8). If it is severely polluted in the sub-region A, it rains much  
435 more frequently, whereas the frequency of precipitation does not differ too  
436 much in the sub-region B and C in terms of different pollution levels.  
437 Furthermore, it rains much more heavily in a more severely polluted  
438 situation, illustrating that aerosols present the promoting effect on  
439 precipitation in the north and central YDR. In an area of severe pollution,  
440 the sub-region A enjoys a large proportion of high AODs, explaining the  
441 reason of particularly high precipitation frequency. In converse, both  
442 frequency and amounts of precipitation under the condition of low AODs  
443 are greater than those under the condition of high AODs in the sub-region  
444 D, presenting a negative effect of AODs on precipitation. The discrepancy  
445 between the sub-region A and D can possibly be owed to different  
446 dominant aerosol types, featuring different conversion rate (from cloud  
447 water to rainwater) (Sorooshian et al., 2013). The amount of precipitation  
448 increases slowly at low CDR of 10-15 $\mu\text{m}$  but rapidly at higher values of  
449 15-25 $\mu\text{m}$  (Michibata et al., 2014). Since there are few CDRs of high values  
450 in the study, the low frequency of big rain becomes explanatory. On the  
451 whole, the result is in agreement with Sorooshian et al. (2009), who believe

452 that clouds with low LWP ( $<500 \text{ g/m}^2$ ) generate little rain and are not  
453 strongly susceptible due to aerosol.

#### 454 3.2.4 Cloud fraction (CLF)

455 Cloud parameter of cloud top pressure (CTP) can roughly estimate cloud  
456 vertical development. Its role in AOD-CLF interactions has been  
457 investigated in previous studies in eastern Asia (Alam et al., 2014; Wang  
458 et al., 2014). Moreover, the hygroscopicity of aerosols and  
459 meteorological/climatic conditions matters a lot in aerosol–cloud  
460 interactions as well (Gryspeerd et al., 2014). In this study, the AODs  
461 dominantly drive the variation of CTP over all the sub-regions, irrespective  
462 of the pressure system and water amount (Fig.9 and 10).

463 Figure 9 shows scatter plot of daily averaged CLF and CTP in four sub-  
464 regions at different AODs. CERES daily product data is also sorted into  
465 five categories based on AODs at constant interval of 0.2. We draw two  
466 trend lines of different aerosol loadings, the yellow one is on subset 0-0.3  
467 and the blue one is on subset 0.8-1. Notably, in the sub-region A and C, the  
468 cloud coverage under the condition of high-level AODs are generally  
469 larger than that under the condition of low-level AODs. There often exist  
470 positive relationships between AOD and CLF even considering WV and  
471 synoptic variability (Kourtidis et.al, 2015). Compared with the sub-region  
472 A and C, the lower AODs of the sub-region B and D not only have more  
473 remarkably positive effects on cloud evolution, but also possess larger

474 cloud fraction if CTP is less than 700hPa.

475 Meanwhile, Figure 10 shows CTPs have small differences with AODs  
476 among four sub-regions. CLF-CTP under the condition of different AODs  
477 is almost cumulatively distributed in one line in the sub-region A, as well  
478 as in the sub-region D when the CLF <40%. With regard to the sub-region  
479 B, C and D (CLF >40%), high-level AODs are not always associated with  
480 small cloud top pressure, suggesting that aerosol-cloud interaction do not  
481 lead to the variations of CTP. The possible reasons is that aerosols influence  
482 horizontal extension of clouds rather than the vertical distribution  
483 (Costantino et al., 2013).

### 484 3.2.5 Aerosol types and low clouds

485 In fact, most of aerosol particles float in the low atmosphere of stagnant  
486 conditions during wintertime. To explore relationships between cloud  
487 parameters and aerosol types (table 2), we analyze low clouds due to the  
488 fact that ample amounts of clouds appear at low altitudes as previously  
489 described (Jones et al., 2009). This is a simple consequence of  
490 transportation from north by prevailing northern wind in winter over the  
491 YRD. As a result, the air mainly saturated with burning fossil fuels and the  
492 quality of air is deteriorated. At the same time, partial areas of the YRD are  
493 affected by air mass flowing from the highly polluted areas in the Sichuan  
494 Basin.

495 Although dust accounts for a large portion of AOD, marine and

496 continental aerosols make notable effects on COT and LWP in all sub-  
497 regions except sub-region A. It is mainly because that, as a kind of poorly  
498 hygroscopic aerosols, dust is less likely to be mixed with water vapor and  
499 become CCN. Marine aerosols, comprising both organic and inorganic  
500 components from primary and secondary sources, have equal impacts on  
501 COT and LWP in the sub-region C and D, and furthermore, thicken the  
502 clouds. Nevertheless, dust aerosols just have slight impacts on COT and  
503 LWP in the sub-region A. Probably, dust particles can be coated with  
504 hygroscopic material (i.e. sulfate) in polluted regions, greatly increasing  
505 their ability to act as effective CCN (Satheesh et al., 2006; Karydis et al.  
506 2011).

507 The correlation coefficients, as for CDR, between different aerosol types  
508 are close. It is worth noting that negative values of K (best-fit slope) only  
509 appear in marine aerosols of the sub-region B and continental aerosols of  
510 the sub-region A, B and D. In other words, CDRs decrease along with  
511 increasing marine/continental aerosols in the sub-region B and continental  
512 aerosol in the sub-region A and D. Additionally, small values of correlation  
513 coefficient ( $R^2$ ) demonstrate that precise analysis can hardly be done if only  
514 aerosol types are taken into consideration.

### 515 3.3 Polluted aerosol and clouds development

516 **Regarding the problem of aerosol and cloud data matching, we add a**  
517 **case study that attempts to match the observed aerosols by satellite to the**

518 same source influencing clouds over a series of days. Figure.11 shows the  
519 daily average of AODs from 26<sup>th</sup> January to 8<sup>th</sup> February, covering both the  
520 growing and mitigating process of one pollution event over the YRD  
521 region. High AODs mainly scatter in a large domain, involving Shanghai,  
522 Anhui Province, northeastern Jiangxi Province, southern and western  
523 Jiangsu Province, and northwestern Zhejiang Province on 27<sup>th</sup> January.  
524 Since then, the polluted areas gradually reduce to Shanghai and Jiangsu  
525 Province until 2<sup>nd</sup> February. Obviously, AODs increase from 27<sup>th</sup> January  
526 to 1<sup>st</sup> February in the north of Jiangsu Province, but decrease from 2<sup>nd</sup> to  
527 8<sup>th</sup> February. The traditional Chinese New Year is just within this period.

528 In order to understand aerosol and cloud vertical distributions during the  
529 above mentioned period, frequency profiles of aerosol and cloud calculated  
530 by layer fraction from CALIPSO daily data is drawn below 10 km in the  
531 region of (31-36°E, 117-122°N). As shown in Figure.12, where four days  
532 are chosen for case study and the data of aerosol and cloud layers comes  
533 from CALIPSO. It displays that aerosol reaches high frequency (>70%)  
534 between the height of 1.2 and 3km on 1<sup>st</sup> February (Brown line).  
535 Meanwhile, cloud layers develop from relatively low occurrence frequency  
536 (<60%) below height of 1km to high frequency (the maximum reaches  
537 100%) between the height of 1.2 and 3 km. With the major decline of  
538 aerosol at the same altitude on 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> February, clouds occurrence  
539 frequency clearly decreases by nearly 30% at the height of 2.5km on 3

540 February. Furthermore, it is noticed that the peaks of aerosol occurrence  
541 frequency arise at higher altitudes, around 4.8km and 6.5km on 3 February  
542 as well as 5.6 to 7km on 4 February. Correspondingly, the clouds develop  
543 in the vertical.

544 The daily averages of surface lifted index (SLI), sea level pressure (SLP)  
545 and  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations are shown in Figure.13. SLI, calculated by  
546 temperature at surface and 500hPa, is applied to indicate the stability status  
547 of atmosphere. The time series of SLI variation display a sharp increase  
548 from 2.6 to 26.5 degK on 3 and 4 February. In addition, the  $SLP > 1008hPa$   
549 represents the core of high-pressure systems and ascending motions of air.  
550 The synoptic system with the growing of lower SLP proves that the air  
551 mass ascends in these days. The concentration of  $PM_{2.5}$ , sharply declining  
552 from  $288 \mu g/m^3$  to  $30.5 \mu g/m^3$ , is coincident with air mass updrafts and  
553 horizontal transmission.

554 In addition, to identify the movement path and vertical distribution of  
555 aerosol and cloud layers, the air mass forward trajectories matrix from  
556 NOAA's HYSPLIT model are shown in Figure.14a, beginning on 2<sup>nd</sup>  
557 February and at 150m height. Most of these forward trajectories show that  
558 aerosols are transmitted to southwest at first. Then blue lines at two  
559 locations ( $33.5^{\circ}E-119.5^{\circ}N$ ,  $33.5^{\circ}E-122^{\circ}N$ ) direct to northeast, while air  
560 mass flows back and is elevated to 3500m or higher on 4<sup>th</sup> February. In  
561 contrast, backward trajectories at 6500m height on 4<sup>th</sup> February (Fig.14b),

562 will take air horizontal and vertical movements into consideration. With  
563 sharp decline of low-cloud fraction and unremarkable variation of high-  
564 cloud parameters (Fig.16), it can be inferred that the enhanced high-cloud  
565 fraction is mainly caused by transmission. In other words, the occurrence  
566 of high aerosol layer on 4<sup>th</sup> February is mainly caused by vertical elevation  
567 of air mass from polluted ground and long-distance horizontal  
568 transportation from west.

569 Air mass transportation has great influences on aerosol micro-properties  
570 (e.g. particle size, shape, composition) and then clouds development. For  
571 example, smoke and polluted dust occur on 1<sup>st</sup> February (Fig.15) below the  
572 height of 3km. There are significant influences on the size distribution and  
573 chemical composition of aerosols mixed with dust and polluted particles  
574 (Wang et al., 2007; Sun et al., 2010), particularly smoke (Ackerman et al.,  
575 2003). The polluted aerosol is likely to be produced by fireworks during the  
576 Spring Festival. Additionally, the YRD is an area with significant black  
577 carbon (Streets et al., 2001; Bond et al., 2004) and sulfate (Akimoto et al.,  
578 1994; Streets et al., 2000; Lu et al., 2010) emissions. Thus, dust particles  
579 in this aerosol mass coated with water-soluble materials can easily evolve  
580 into CCN. Moreover, an evident increase of cloud amount(Fig.12), is just  
581 the same as the results shown by Yu et al. (2007), with a decrease of CDR  
582 and an increase of COT appearing in adjacent clouds (low- and mid-low  
583 clouds) on the following day (2<sup>nd</sup> February). These factors amplify the

584 cooling effect at the surface and the top of atmosphere (TOA),  
585 consequently, the relatively stable atmosphere appears at low altitude. With  
586 the low values of SLI and SLP (Fig.13), large concentrations of PM<sub>2.5</sub> are  
587 left on the ground in these two days. Atmosphere suddenly becomes  
588 unstable from 3<sup>rd</sup> February (Fig.13) as AODs and aerosol layer fractions  
589 decrease on 2<sup>nd</sup> February. Also, as shown in Fig.16, from 4<sup>th</sup> to 7<sup>th</sup> February,  
590 LWPs of low- and mid-low clouds increase systemically from noon to  
591 midnight. Under these conditions, with more water vapor and stronger air  
592 updraft, it could reduce the critical super-saturation for droplet growth and  
593 relatively favor the activation of aerosol particles into CCN, hence, more  
594 effectively decreasing the droplet size (Feingold et al., 2003; Kourtidis et  
595 al., 2015).

596 Combined with a relatively comprehensive analysis of meteorological  
597 conditions, such as the movement of air mass, sea level pressure and so on,  
598 we attempt to use this detailed small case to inform the wider  
599 understanding of the overall analysis.

600

#### 601 4. Conclusion

602 The AIE of polluted aerosol over the YRD is analyzed using three-  
603 month data (from December 2013 to February 2014) of AODs and cloud  
604 parameters from the CERES product. Statistical analyses present that a  
605 complex relationship exists between aerosol loadings and micro-/macro-

606 physical parameters of clouds. Aerosol exhibits an important role in  
607 complication of cloud evolution in the low layers of troposphere over four  
608 typical sub-regions.

609 The correlations of CDR-AOD, LWP-AOD and COT-AOD tell that  
610 despite minor differences in four sub-regions, AIE is in good agreement  
611 with Twomey's hypothesis at low-level AODs. With increasing cloud  
612 height, the significance level between aerosol and cloud recedes, and AIE  
613 mainly stays active at low troposphere (below 5km) in case of the stable  
614 atmosphere in wintertime. The ground pollution possibly increase low  
615 cloud cover. Synoptic conditions also have significant impact on cloud  
616 cover. For instance, the unstable synoptic condition stimulate clouds to  
617 develop larger and higher.

618 In general, meteorological and geographical conditions have strong  
619 impact on cloud cover (Norris, 1998). Most studies of AIE do not  
620 deliberate that these parameters result in the deviation of cloud quantity  
621 and quality. **We see more aerosols in plains and valleys at densely**  
622 **populated and industrialized locations, while less aerosols are found in**  
623 **hilly and mountainous regions.**

624 Moreover, airflow brings uncertainty to the assessment of AIE factors  
625 based on satellite observation. Further, we need to improve the  
626 understanding of physical and thermos-dynamic properties in clouds,  
627 which play an important role in cloud development but are not considered

628 in this paper. The classifications of aerosol and clouds are still rough, which  
629 cannot accurately illustrate the relationships between aerosol types and  
630 different clouds. In addition, a profound interference of geographical  
631 factors as well as aerosol climatic impact need further investigation.

632

### 633 **Acknowledgements**

634 This research is supported by the National Key Research and  
635 Development Program (2016YFC0202003), the National Key Technology  
636 R&D Program of Ministry of Science and Technology (2014BAC16B01),  
637 and the National Natural Science Foundation of China (41475109,  
638 21577021, 21377028), and partly by the Jiangsu Collaborative Innovation  
639 Center for Climate Change.

640 **References**

- 641 Ackerman, A. S., Toon, O. B., Stevens, D. E., Heymsfield, A. J.,  
642 Ramanathan, V., & Welton, E. J. (2000). Reduction of tropical cloudiness  
643 by soot. *Science*, 288(5468), 1042-1047.
- 644 Ackerman, A. S., Toon, O. B., Stevens, D. E., & Coakley, J. A. (2003).  
645 Enhancement of cloud cover and suppression of nocturnal drizzle in  
646 stratocumulus polluted by haze. *Geophysical research letters*, 30(7).  
647 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1029/2002GL016634>.
- 648 Akimoto, H., & Narita, H. (1994). Distribution of SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub>  
649 emissions from fuel combustion and industrial activities in Asia with 1×  
650 1 resolution. *Atmospheric Environment*, 28(2), 213-225.
- 651 Alam, K., Iqbal, M. J., Blaschke, T., Qureshi, S., & Khan, G. (2010).  
652 Monitoring spatio-temporal variations in aerosols and aerosol–cloud  
653 interactions over Pakistan using MODIS data. *Advances in Space*  
654 *Research*, 46(9), 1162-1176.
- 655 Alam, K., Khan, R., Blaschke, T., & Mukhtiar, A. (2014). Variability of  
656 aerosol optical depth and their impact on cloud properties in Pakistan.  
657 *Journal of Atmospheric and Solar-Terrestrial Physics*, 107, 104-112.
- 658 Albrecht, B. A. (1989). Aerosols, cloud microphysics, and fractional  
659 cloudiness. *Science*, 245, 1227–1230.
- 660 Anderson, A. K., & Sobel, N. (2003). Dissociating intensity from valence  
661 as sensory inputs to emotion. *Neuron*, 39(4), 581-583.

662 Bangert, M., Kottmeier, C., Vogel, B., & Vogel, H. (2011). Regional scale  
663 effects of the aerosol cloud interaction simulated with an online coupled  
664 comprehensive chemistry model. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*,  
665 *11*(9), 4411-4423.

666 Barnaba, F., & Gobbi, G. P. (2004). Aerosol seasonal variability over the  
667 Mediterranean region and relative impact of maritime, continental and  
668 Saharan dust particles over the basin from MODIS data in the year  
669 2001. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, *4*(9/10), 2367-2391.

670 Bond, T. C., Streets, D. G., Yarber, K. F., Nelson, S. M., Woo, J. H.,  
671 & Klimont, Z. (2004). A technology - based global inventory of black  
672 and organic carbon emissions from combustion. *Journal of Geophysical*  
673 *Research: Atmospheres*, *109*(D14).  
674 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1029/2003JD003697>.

675 Brenguier, J. L., Pawlowska, H., & Schüller, L. (2003). Cloud  
676 microphysical and radiative properties for parameterization and satellite  
677 monitoring of the indirect effect of aerosol on climate. *Journal of*  
678 *Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, *108*(D15).  
679 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1029/2002JD002682>.

680 Bréon, F. M., Tanré, D., & Generoso, S. (2002). Aerosol effect on cloud  
681 droplet size monitored from satellite. *Science*, *295*(5556), 834-838.

682 **Burnet, F.; Brenguier, J.-L. (2007) Observational study of the entrainment-**  
683 **mixing process in warm convective clouds. *J. Atmos. Sci.*, *64*, 1995–**

684 2011.

685 Chan, C. K., & Yao, X. (2008). Air pollution in mega cities in China.  
686 *Atmospheric environment*, 42(1), 1-42.

687 Chen, S., Bartello, P., Yau, M. K., Vaillancourt, P. A., & Zwijssen, K. (2016).  
688 Cloud Droplet Collisions in Turbulent Environment: Collision Statistics  
689 and Parameterization. *Journal of the Atmospheric Sciences*, 73(2), 621-  
690 636.

691 Costantino, L., & Bréon, F. M. (2013). Aerosol indirect effect on warm  
692 clouds over South-East Atlantic, from co-located MODIS and  
693 CALIPSO observations. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 13(1), 69-  
694 88.

695 Draxler, R. R., & Rolph, G. D. (2003). HYSPLIT (HYbrid Single-Particle  
696 Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory) model access via NOAA ARL  
697 READY website (<http://www.arl.noaa.gov/ready/hysplit4.html>).  
698 NOAA Air Resources Laboratory, Silver Spring.

699 Feingold, G., Eberhard, W. L., Veron, D. E., & Previdi, M. (2003). First  
700 measurements of the Twomey indirect effect using ground - based  
701 remote sensors. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 30(6).  
702 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1029/2002GL016633>.

703 Ferek, R.; Garrett, T.; Hobbes, P.V.; Strader, S.; Johnson, D.; Taylor, J.;  
704 Nielson, K.; Ackerman, A.; Kogan, Y.; Liu, Q.; et al. (2000) Drizzle  
705 suppression in ship tracks. *J. Atmos. Sci.*, 57, 2707–2728.

706 Forest, C. E., Stone, P. H., Sokolov, A. P., Allen, M. R., & Webster, M. D.  
707 (2002). Quantifying uncertainties in climate system properties with the  
708 use of recent climate observations. *Science*, 295(5552), 113-117.

709 Fu, X., Wang, S. X., Cheng, Z., Xing, J., Zhao, B., Wang, J. D., & Hao, J.  
710 M. (2014). Source, transport and impacts of a heavy dust event in the  
711 Yangtze River Delta, China, in 2011. *Atmospheric Chemistry and*  
712 *Physics*, 14(3), 1239-1254.

713 Grandey, B. S., Stier, P., & Wagner, T. M. (2013). Investigating  
714 relationships between aerosol optical depth and cloud fraction using  
715 satellite, aerosol reanalysis and general circulation model  
716 data. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 13(6), 3177-3184.

717 Gryspeerdt, E., Stier, P., & Partridge, D. G. (2014). Satellite observations  
718 of cloud regime development: the role of aerosol processes. *Atmospheric*  
719 *Chemistry and Physics*, 14(3), 1141-1158.

720 Hansen, J., Sato, M., & Ruedy, R. (1997). Radiative forcing and climate  
721 response. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 102(D6),  
722 6831-6864.

723 He, Q., Li, C., Geng, F., Lei, Y., & Li, Y. (2012). Study on long-term  
724 aerosol distribution over the land of East China using MODIS  
725 data. *Aerosol and Air Quality Research*, 12(3), 304-319.

726 Hu, Q., Fu, H., Wang, Z., Kong, L., Chen, M., & Chen, J. (2016). The  
727 variation of characteristics of individual particles during the haze

728 evolution in the urban Shanghai atmosphere. *Atmospheric*  
729 *Research*, 181, 95-105.

730 Jin, M., & Shepherd, J. M. (2008). Aerosol relationships to warm season  
731 clouds and rainfall at monthly scales over east China: Urban land versus  
732 ocean. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 113(D24).  
733 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1029/2008JD010276>.

734 Jones, T. A., Christopher, S. A., & Quaas, J. (2009). A six year satellite-  
735 based assessment of the regional variations in aerosol indirect effects.  
736 *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 9(12), 4091-4114.

737 Kalnay, E., Kanamitsu, M., Kistler, R., Collins, W., Deaven, D., Gandin,  
738 L., et al. (1996). The NCEP/NCAR 40-year reanalysis project. *Bulletin*  
739 *of the American meteorological Society*, 77(3), 437-471.

740 Karydis, V. A., Kumar, P., Barahona, D., Sokolik, I. N., & Nenes, A. (2011).  
741 On the effect of dust particles on global cloud condensation nuclei and  
742 cloud droplet number. *Journal of Geophysical Research:*  
743 *Atmospheres*, 116(D23). <http://dx.doi.org/10.1029/2011JD016283>.

744 Knutti, R., Stocker, T. F., Joos, F., & Plattner, G. K. (2002). Constraints on  
745 radiative forcing and future climate change from observations and  
746 climate model ensembles. *Nature*, 416(6882), 719-723.

747 Kong, S., Li, X., Li, L., Yin, Y., Chen, K., Yuan, L., et al. (2015). Variation  
748 of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in atmospheric PM 2.5 during  
749 winter haze period around 2014 Chinese Spring Festival at Nanjing:

750 Insights of source changes, air mass direction and firework particle  
751 injection. *Science of the Total Environment*, 520, 59-72.

752 **Koren, I.; Kaufman, Y.J.; Remer, L.A.; Martins, V. (2004) Measurement of**  
753 **the effect of Amazon smoke on inhibition of cloud formation. *Science*,**  
754 **303, 1342–1345.**

755 **Koren, I.; Kaufman, Y.J.; Rosenfeld, D.; Remer, L.A.; Rudich, Y. (2005)**  
756 **Aerosol invigoration and restructuring of Atlantic convective clouds.**  
757 ***Geophys. Res. Lett.*, doi:10.1029/2005GL023187.**

758 Koren, I., Feingold, G., & Remer, L. A. (2010). The invigoration of deep  
759 convective clouds over the Atlantic: aerosol effect, meteorology or  
760 retrieval artifact?. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 10(18), 8855-  
761 8872.

762 Kourtidis, K., Stathopoulos, S., Georgoulas, A. K., Alexandri, G.,  
763 &Rapsomanikis, S. (2015). A study of the impact of synoptic weather  
764 conditions and water vapor on aerosol–cloud relationships over major  
765 urban clusters of China. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 15(19),  
766 10955-10964.

767 L'Ecuyer, T. S., Berg, W., Haynes, J., Lebsock, M., &Takemura, T. (2009).  
768 Global observations of aerosol impacts on precipitation occurrence in  
769 warm maritime clouds. *Journal of Geophysical Research:*  
770 *Atmospheres*, 114(D9). <http://dx.doi.org/10.1029/2008JD011273>.

771 Lebsock, M. D., Stephens, G. L., &Kummerow, C. (2008). Multisensor

772 satellite observations of aerosol effects on warm clouds. *Journal of*  
773 *Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 113(D15).  
774 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1029/2008JD009876>.

775 Leng, C., Zhang, Q., Tao, J., Zhang, H., Zhang, D., Xu, C., et al. (2014).  
776 Impacts of new particle formation on aerosol cloud condensation nuclei  
777 (CCN) activity in Shanghai: case study. *Atmospheric Chemistry and*  
778 *Physics*, 14(20), 11353-11365.

779 Leng, C., Duan, J., Xu, C., Zhang, H., Zhang, Q., Wang, Y., et al. (2015).  
780 Insights into a historic severe haze weather in Shanghai: synoptic  
781 situation, boundary layer and pollutants. *Atmospheric Chemistry &*  
782 *Physics Discussions*, 15(22).

783 Liu, J., Zheng, Y., Li, Z., Flynn, C., & Cribb, M. (2012). Seasonal variations  
784 of aerosol optical properties, vertical distribution and associated  
785 radiative effects in the Yangtze Delta region of China. *Journal of*  
786 *Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 117(D16).  
787 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1029/2011JD016490>.

788 Liu, X., & Wang, J. (2010). How important is organic aerosol  
789 hygroscopicity to aerosol indirect forcing? *Environmental Research*  
790 *Letters*, 5(4), 044010.

791 Loeb, N. G., & Manalo-Smith, N. (2005). Top-of-atmosphere direct  
792 radiative effect of aerosols over global oceans from merged CERES and  
793 MODIS observations. *Journal of Climate*, 18(17), 3506-3526.

794 Lohmann, U., &Feichter, J. (2005). Global indirect aerosol effects: a  
795 review. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 5(3), 715-737.

796 Lu, Z., Streets, D. G., Zhang, Q., Wang, S., Carmichael, G. R., Cheng, Y.  
797 F., et al. (2010). Sulfur dioxide emissions in China and sulfur trends in  
798 East Asia since 2000. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 10(13),  
799 6311-6331.

800 Menon, S., Hansen, J., Nazarenko, L., &Luo, Y. (2002). Climate effects of  
801 black carbon aerosols in China and India. *Science*, 297(5590), 2250-  
802 2253.

803 Michibata, T., Kawamoto, K., &Takemura, T. (2014). The effects of  
804 aerosols on water cloud microphysics and macrophysics based on  
805 satellite-retrieved data over East Asia and the North  
806 Pacific. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 14(21), 11935-11948.

807 Minnis, P., Young, D. F., Sun-Mack, S., Heck, P. W., Doelling, D. R.,  
808 &Trepte, Q. Z. (2004, February). CERES cloud property retrievals from  
809 imagers on TRMM, Terra, and Aqua. In *Remote Sensing* (pp. 37-48).  
810 International Society for Optics and Photonics.  
811 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1117/12.511210>.

812 Monks, P. S., Granier, C., Fuzzi, S., Stohl, A., Williams, M. L., Akimoto,  
813 H., et al. (2009). Atmospheric composition change—global and regional  
814 air quality. *Atmospheric environment*, 43(33), 5268-5350.

815 Myhre, G., Stordal, F., Johnsrud, M., Kaufman, Y. J., Rosenfeld, D.,

816 Storelvmo, T., ... & Isaksen, I. S. (2007). Aerosol-cloud interaction  
817 inferred from MODIS satellite data and global aerosol models.  
818 *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 7(12), 3081-3101.

819 Norris, J. R. (1998). Low cloud type over the ocean from surface  
820 observations. Part I: Relationship to surface meteorology and the vertical  
821 distribution of temperature and moisture. *Journal of Climate*, 11(3), 369-  
822 382.

823 Norris, J. R. (1998). Low cloud type over the ocean from surface  
824 observations. Part II: Geographical and seasonal variations. *Journal of*  
825 *Climate*, 11(3), 383-403.

826 Penner, J. E., Dong, X., & Chen, Y. (2004). Observational evidence of a  
827 change in radiative forcing due to the indirect aerosol effect. *Nature*,  
828 427(6971), 231-234.

829 Platnick, S., King, M. D., Ackerman, S. A., Menzel, W. P., Baum, B. A.,  
830 Riédi, J. C., & Frey, R. A. (2003). The MODIS cloud products:  
831 Algorithms and examples from Terra. *IEEE Transactions on Geoscience*  
832 *and Remote Sensing*, 41(2), 459-473.

833 Pöschl, U. (2005). Atmospheric aerosols: composition, transformation,  
834 climate and health effects. *Angewandte Chemie International Edition*,  
835 44(46), 7520-7540.

836 Quaas, J., Boucher, O., & Bréon, F. M. (2004). Aerosol indirect effects in  
837 POLDER satellite data and the Laboratoire de Météorologie

838 Dynamique–Zoom (LMDZ) general circulation model. *Journal of*  
839 *Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 109(D8).  
840 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1029/2003JD004317>.

841 Ramanathan, V., Crutzen, P. J., Lelieveld, J., Mitra, A. P., Althausen, D.,  
842 Anderson, J., et al. (2001). Indian Ocean Experiment: An integrated  
843 analysis of the climate forcing and effects of the great Indo - Asian  
844 haze. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 106(D22),  
845 28371-28398.

846 Remer, L. A., Kaufman, Y. J., Tanré, D., Mattoo, S., Chu, D. A., Martins,  
847 J. V., et al. (2005). The MODIS aerosol algorithm, products, and  
848 validation. *Journal of the atmospheric sciences*, 62(4), 947-973.

849 Remer, L. A., & Kaufman, Y. J. (2006). Aerosol direct radiative effect at  
850 the top of the atmosphere over cloud free ocean derived from four years  
851 of MODIS data. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 6(1), 237-253.

852 Rolph, G. D. (2003). *Real-time Environmental Applications and Display*  
853 *sYstem (READY) Website* (<http://www.arl.noaa.gov/ready/hysplit4.html>).  
854 NOAA Air Resources Laboratory, Silver Spring. Md.

855 Rosenfeld, D. (2000). Suppression of rain and snow by urban and industrial  
856 air pollution. *Science*, 287(5459), 1793-1796.

857 Sardina, G., Picano, F., Brandt, L., & Caballero, R. (2015). Continuous  
858 growth of droplet size variance due to condensation in turbulent clouds.  
859 *Physical review letters*, 115(18), 184501.

860 Satheesh, S. K., Moorthy, K. K., Kaufman, Y. J., & Takemura, T. (2006).  
861 Aerosol optical depth, physical properties and radiative forcing over the  
862 Arabian Sea. *Meteorology and Atmospheric Physics*, 91(1-4), 45-62.

863 Sinclair, V.A., Gray, S.L., Belcher, S.E. (2010) Controls on boundary layer  
864 ventilation: Boundary layer processes and large-scale dynamics. *J.*  
865 *Geophys. Res.*, doi:10.1029/2009JD012169.

866 Sorooshian, A., Feingold, G., Lebsock, M. D., Jiang, H., & Stephens, G. L.  
867 (2009). On the precipitation susceptibility of clouds to aerosol  
868 perturbations. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 36(13).  
869 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1029/2009GL038993>.

870 Sorooshian, A., Wang, Z., Feingold, G., & L'Ecuyer, T. S. (2013). A satellite  
871 perspective on cloud water to rain water conversion rates and  
872 relationships with environmental conditions. *Journal of Geophysical*  
873 *Research: Atmospheres*, 118(12), 6643-6650.

874 Streets, D. G., & Waldhoff, S. T. (2000). Present and future emissions of air  
875 pollutants in China: SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, and CO. *Atmospheric*  
876 *Environment*, 34(3), 363-374.

877 Streets, D. G., Gupta, S., Waldhoff, S. T., Wang, M. Q., Bond, T. C.,  
878 & Yiyun, B. (2001). Black carbon emissions in China. *Atmospheric*  
879 *environment*, 35(25), 4281-4296.

880 Sun, Y., Zhuang, G., Huang, K., Li, J., Wang, Q., Wang, Y., et al. (2010).  
881 Asian dust over northern China and its impact on the downstream

882 aerosol chemistry in 2004. *Journal of Geophysical Research:*  
883 *Atmospheres*,115(D7). <http://dx.doi.org/10.1029/2009JD012757>.

884 Tan, C., Zhao, T., Xu, X., Liu, J., Zhang, L., & Tang, L. (2015). Climatic  
885 analysis of satellite aerosol data on variations of submicron aerosols over  
886 East China. *Atmospheric Environment*, 123, 392-398.

887 Tang, J., Wang, P., Mickley, L. J., Xia, X., Liao, H., Yue, X., et al. (2014).  
888 Positive relationship between liquid cloud droplet effective radius and  
889 aerosol optical depth over Eastern China from satellite  
890 data. *Atmospheric Environment*, 84, 244-253.

891 Taubman, B.A.; Marufu, L.; Vant-Hull, B.; Piety, C.; Doddridge, B.;  
892 Dickerson, R.; Li, Z. (2004) Smoke over haze: Aircraft observations of  
893 chemical and optical properties and the effects on heating rates and  
894 stability. *J. Geophys. Res.*, doi:10.1029/2003JD003898.

895 Ten Hoeve, J. E., Remer, L. A., & Jacobson, M. Z. (2011). Microphysical  
896 and radiative effects of aerosols on warm clouds during the Amazon  
897 biomass burning season as observed by MODIS: impacts of water vapor  
898 and land cover. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 11(7), 3021-3036.

899 Twomey, S. (1974). Pollution and the planetary albedo. *Atmospheric*  
900 *Environment (1967)*, 8(12), 1251-1256.

901 Wang, Y., Zhuang, G., Tang, A., Zhang, W., Sun, Y., Wang, Z., & An, Z.  
902 (2007). The evolution of chemical components of aerosols at five  
903 monitoring sites of China during dust storms. *Atmospheric*

904 *Environment*, 41(5), 1091-1106.

905 Wang, F., Guo, J., Wu, Y., Zhang, X., Deng, M., Li, X., et al. (2014).  
906 Satellite observed aerosol-induced variability in warm cloud properties  
907 under different meteorological conditions over eastern  
908 China. *Atmospheric Environment*, 84, 122-132.

909 Wielicki, B. A., Barkstrom, B. R., Harrison, E. F., Lee III, R. B., Louis  
910 Smith, G., & Cooper, J. E. (1996). Clouds and the Earth's Radiant  
911 Energy System (CERES): An earth observing system  
912 experiment. *Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society*, 77(5),  
913 853-868.

914 Winker, D. M., Vaughan, M. A., Omar, A., Hu, Y., Powell, K. A., Liu, Z.,  
915 et al. (2009). Overview of the CALIPSO mission and CALIOP data  
916 processing algorithms. *Journal of Atmospheric and Oceanic  
917 Technology*, 26(11), 2310-2323.

918 Winker, D. M., Pelon, J., Coakley Jr, J. A., Ackerman, S. A., Charlson, R.  
919 J., Colarco, P. R., ... & Kubar, T. L. (2010). The CALIPSO mission: A  
920 global 3D view of aerosols and clouds. *Bulletin of the American  
921 Meteorological Society*, 91(9), 1211.

922 Wolf, M. E., & Hidy, G. M. (1997). Aerosols and climate: Anthropogenic  
923 emissions and trends for 50 years. *Journal of Geophysical Research:  
924 Atmospheres*, 102(D10), 11113-11121.

925 Xia, X., Li, Z., Holben, B., Wang, P., Eck, T., Chen, H., et al. (2007).

926 Aerosol optical properties and radiative effects in the Yangtze Delta  
927 region of China. *Journal of Geophysical Research:*  
928 *Atmospheres*, 112(D22). <http://dx.doi.org/10.1029/2007JD008859>.

929 Xin, J., Wang, Y., Li, Z., Wang, P., Hao, W. M., Nordgren, B. L., et al.  
930 (2007). Aerosol optical depth (AOD) and Ångström exponent of  
931 aerosols observed by the Chinese Sun Hazemeter Network from August  
932 2004 to September 2005. *Journal of Geophysical Research:*  
933 *Atmospheres*, 112(D5).

934 Xu, J., Bergin, M. H., Greenwald, R., & Russell, P. B. (2003). Direct  
935 aerosol radiative forcing in the Yangtze delta region of China:  
936 Observation and model estimation. *Journal of Geophysical Research:*  
937 *Atmospheres*, 108(D2). <http://dx.doi.org/10.1029/2002JD002550>.

938 Yu, H., Fu, R., Dickinson, R. E., Zhang, Y., Chen, M., & Wang, H. (2007).  
939 Interannual variability of smoke and warm cloud relationships in the  
940 Amazon as inferred from MODIS retrievals. *Remote Sensing of*  
941 *Environment*, 111(4), 435-449.

942 Yuan, T., Li, Z., Zhang, R., & Fan, J. (2008). Increase of cloud droplet size  
943 with aerosol optical depth: An observation and modeling study. *Journal*  
944 *of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 113(D4).  
945 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1029/2007JD008632>.

946 Zhao, C., Tie, X., & Lin, Y. (2006). A possible positive feedback of  
947 reduction of precipitation and increase in aerosols over eastern central

948 China. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 33(11).

949

950 **Figure captions:**

951 **Fig. 1.** Three-month mean aerosol optical depth (AOD) at  $0.55\mu\text{m}$  over the Yangtze  
952 River Delta (YRD) from CERES-SYN between December 2013 and February 2014.  
953 The major cities in this region and four focused sub-regions (A, B, C, D) are also  
954 marked here.

955 **Fig. 2.** Cloud optical thickness (COT) averaged over AOD bins for four sub-regions.  
956 The area of circle represents sample number in each bin.

957 **Fig. 3.** Same as Fig. 2, but for liquid water path (LWP).

958 **Fig. 4.** Same as Fig. 2, but for cloud droplet radius (CDR).

959 **Fig. 5.** Profiles of total cloud and aerosol frequencies below 10 km derived from  
960 cloud/aerosol layer fraction data.

961 **Fig. 6.** The cloud droplet radius (CDR) distribution of 3-h mean low-cloud according  
962 to AOD and LWP over four sub-regions. Colors present different levels of AOD from  
963 0 to 1.

964 **Fig. 7.** Cloud optical thickness (COT) and cloud droplet radius (CDR) averaged over  
965 AOD/LWP bins in log-log scale for four sub-regions.

966 **Fig. 8.** Frequency of precipitation amount under clean and polluted conditions in four  
967 sub-regions. Colors show different precipitation amount (mm). The *a* and *b* in x-  
968 coordinate indicate AOD  $<0.5$  and  $>0.5$ , respectively.

969 **Fig. 9.** CLF-CTP relationships from CERES-SYN daily products in four sub-region.  
970 The whole dataset is sorted as low to high polluted atmospheres by AOD at interval of  
971 0.2.

972 **Fig. 10.** CTP-CLF relationships from CERES-SYN daily products in four sub-regions.  
973 The whole dataset is sorted as low to high polluted atmospheres by AOD at interval of  
974 0.2.

975 **Fig. 11.** Spatial distribution of daily mean AOD ( $0.55\mu\text{m}$ ) over the Yangtze River Delta  
976 (YRD) from 26 January to 8 February 2014.

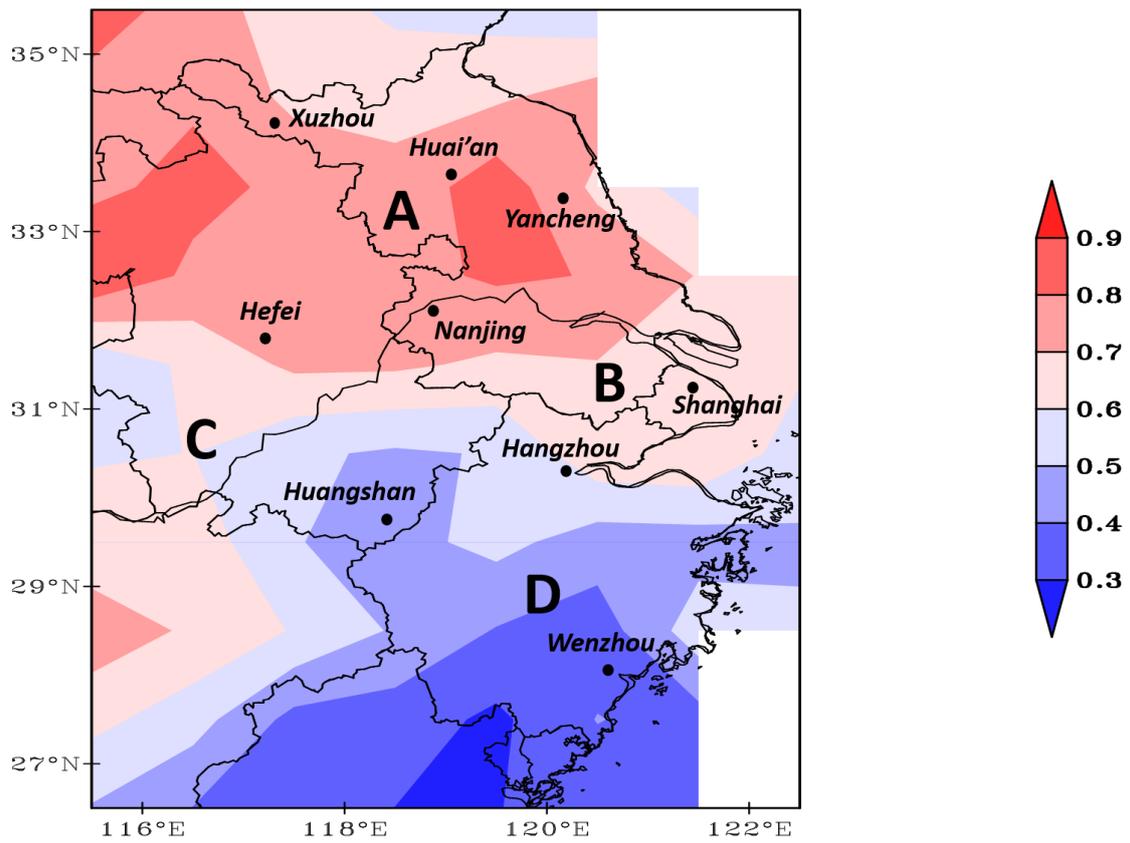
977 **Fig. 12.** Profiles of total cloud and aerosol frequencies below 10 km from CALIPSO  
978 daily data in the region of ( $31\text{-}36^\circ\text{E}$ ,  $117\text{-}122^\circ\text{N}$ ).

979 **Fig. 13.** Daily averages of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ , surface lifted index (SLI) and sea-level pressure (SLP)  
980 in region ( $31\text{-}36^\circ\text{E}$ ,  $117\text{-}122^\circ\text{N}$ ) from 27 January to 8 February 2016. The  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  data  
981 come from the on-line monitoring and analysis platform for air quality in China  
982 (<http://www.aqistudy.cn>), while the SLI and SLP are from NCEP reanalysis data.

983 **Fig. 14.** Multiple sites of 3-day air mass (a) forward trajectories starting at 150m on 2  
984 February, (b) backward trajectories ending at 6500m on 4 February. Those trajectories  
985 were calculated by the NOAA Hybrid SingleParticle Lagrangian Trajectory (HYSPLIT)  
986 model.

987 **Fig. 15.** Aerosol subtype on 28 Jan., 1 Feb., 4 Feb. and 6 Feb. retrieved from CALIPSO  
988 vertical feature data.

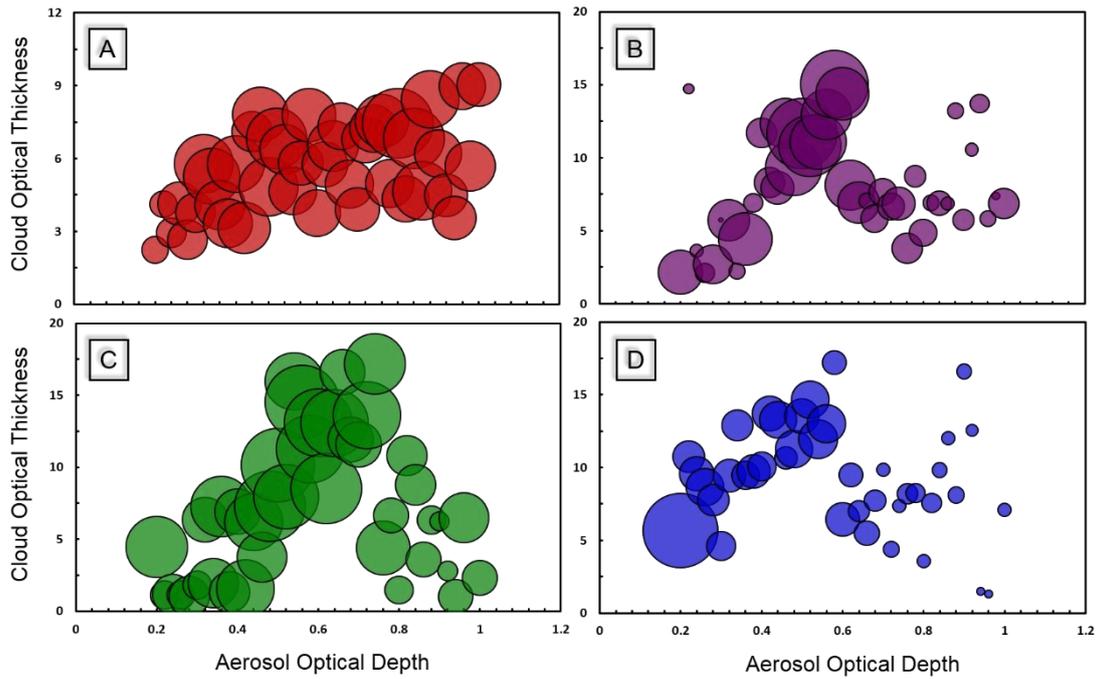
989 **Fig. 16.** Time series of cloud property parameters (CF, COT, LWP and CDR) from  
990 CERES-SYN 3-h data between 27 Jan. to 28 Feb. 2014. Colors represent clouds at  
991 different altitudes.



992

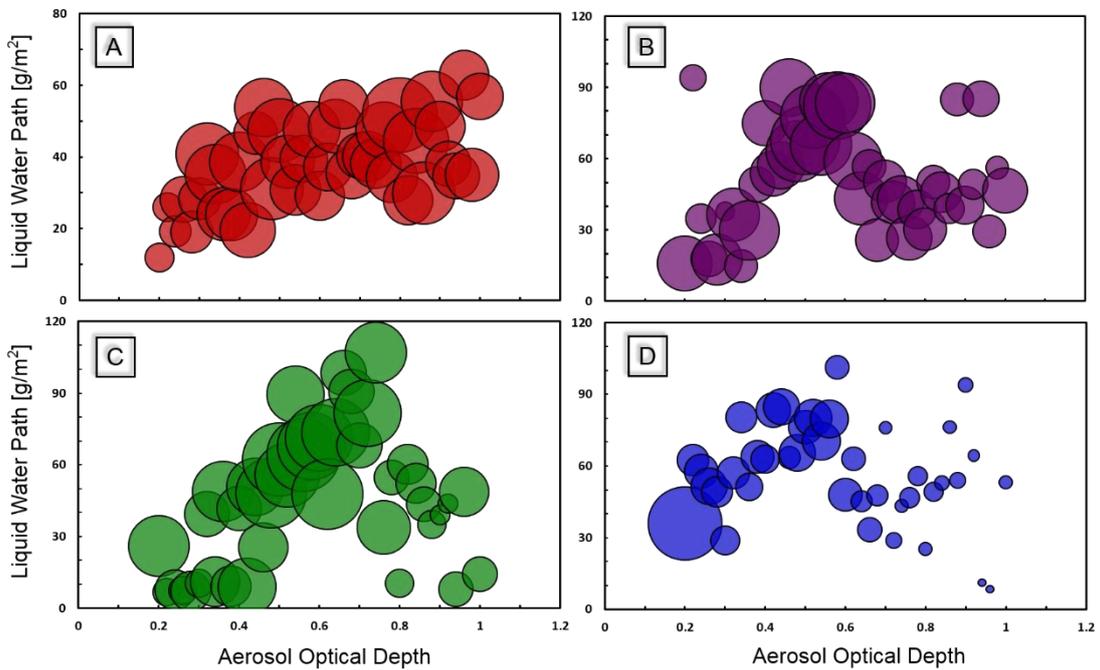
993 Fig. 1. Three-monthmean aerosol optical depth (AOD) at 0.55μm over the  
 994 Yangtze River Delta (YRD) from CERES-SYN between December 2013  
 995 and February 2014. The major cities in this region and four focused sub-  
 996 regions (A, B, C, D) are also marked here.

997



998

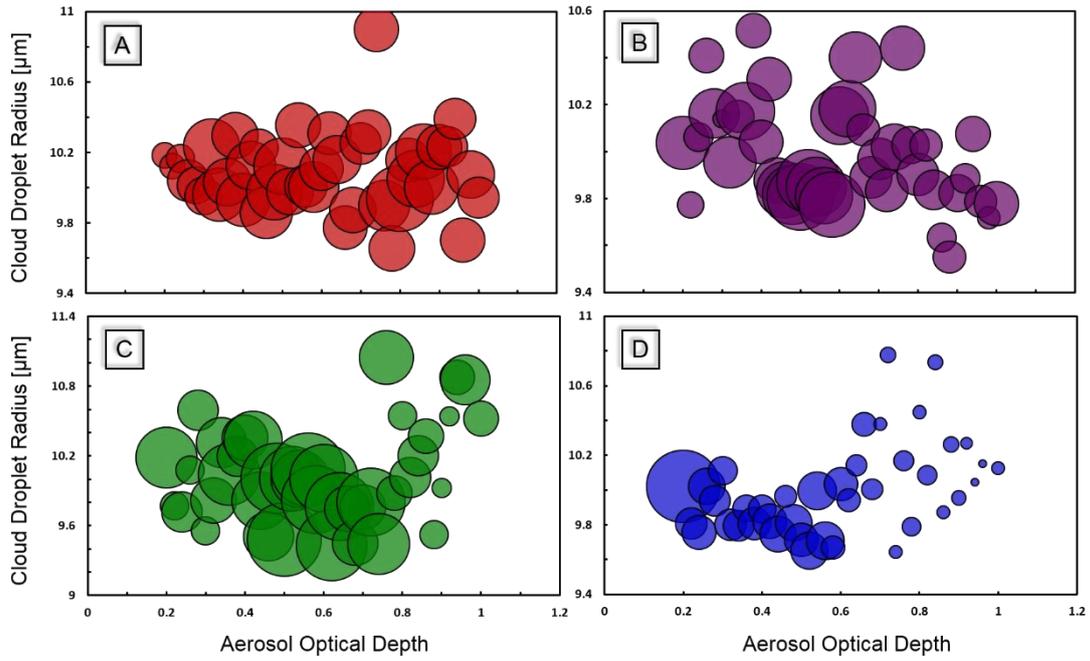
999 Fig.2. Cloud optical thickness (COT) averaged over AOD bins for four  
 1000 sub-regions. The area of circle represents sample number in each bin.



1001

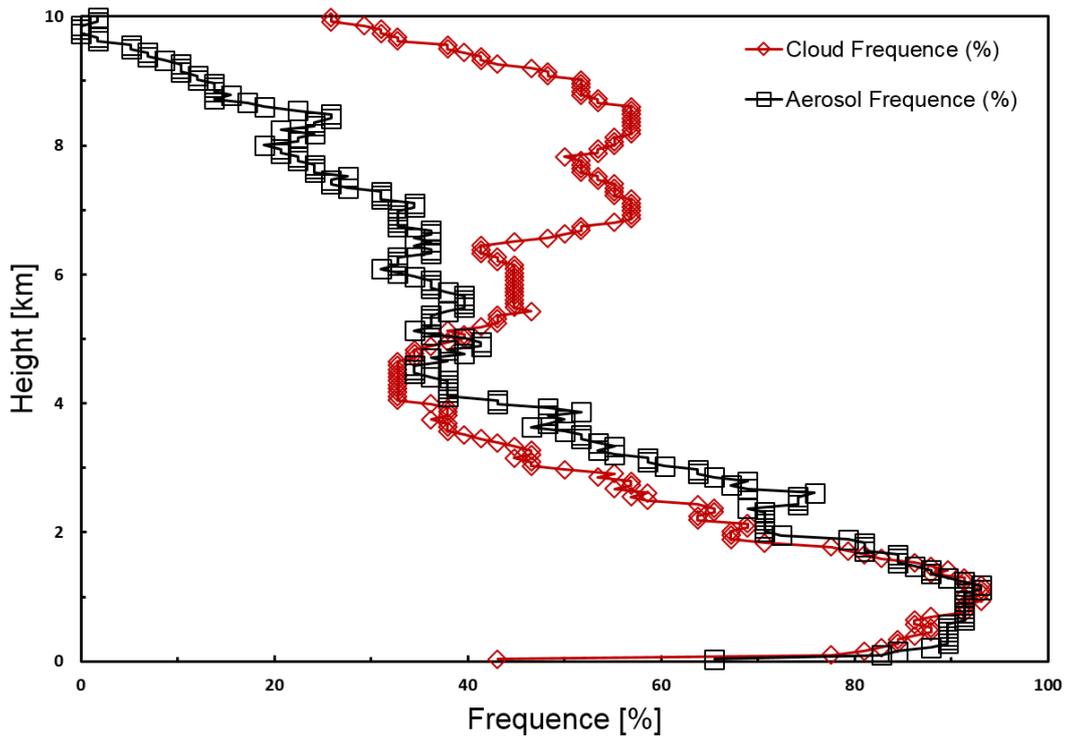
1002 Fig.3. Same as Fig. 2, but for liquid water path (LWP).

1003



1004

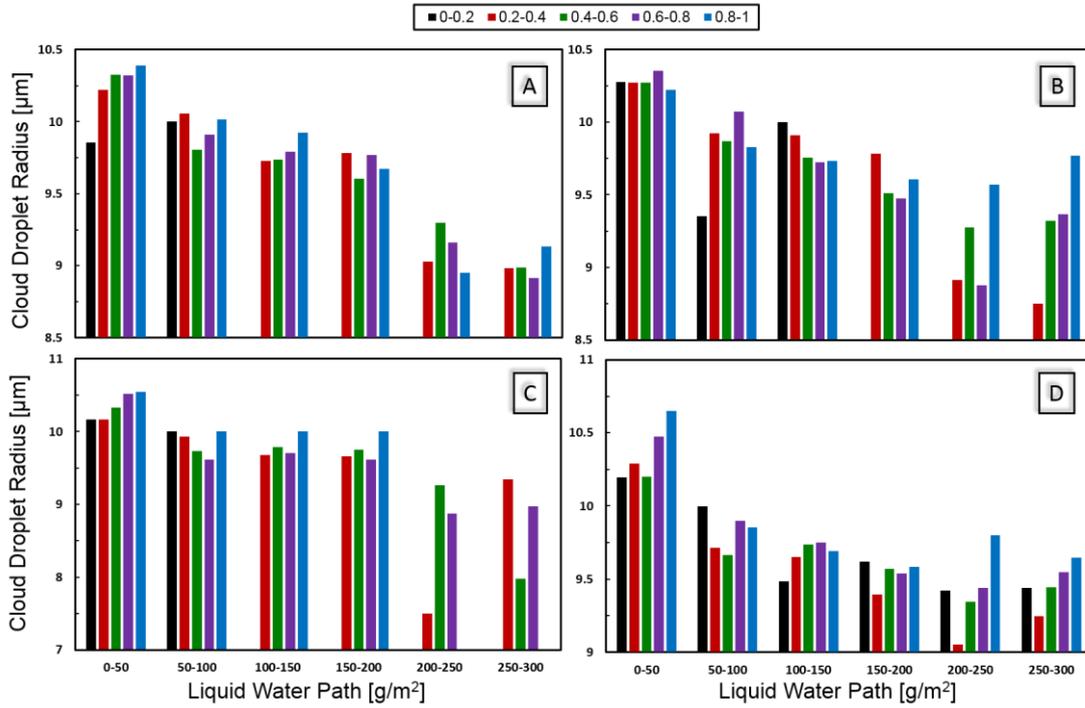
1005 Fig.4. Same as Fig. 2, but for cloud droplet radius (CDR).



1006

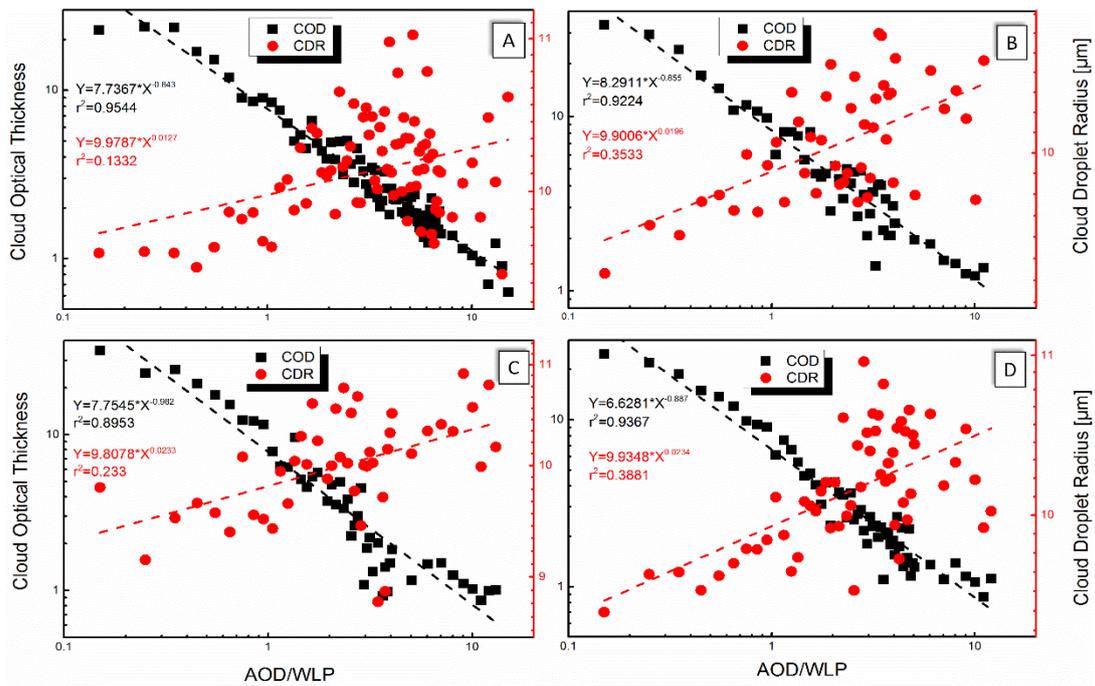
1007 Fig.5. Profiles of total cloud and aerosol frequencies below 10 km derived  
 1008 from cloud/aerosol layer fraction data.

1009



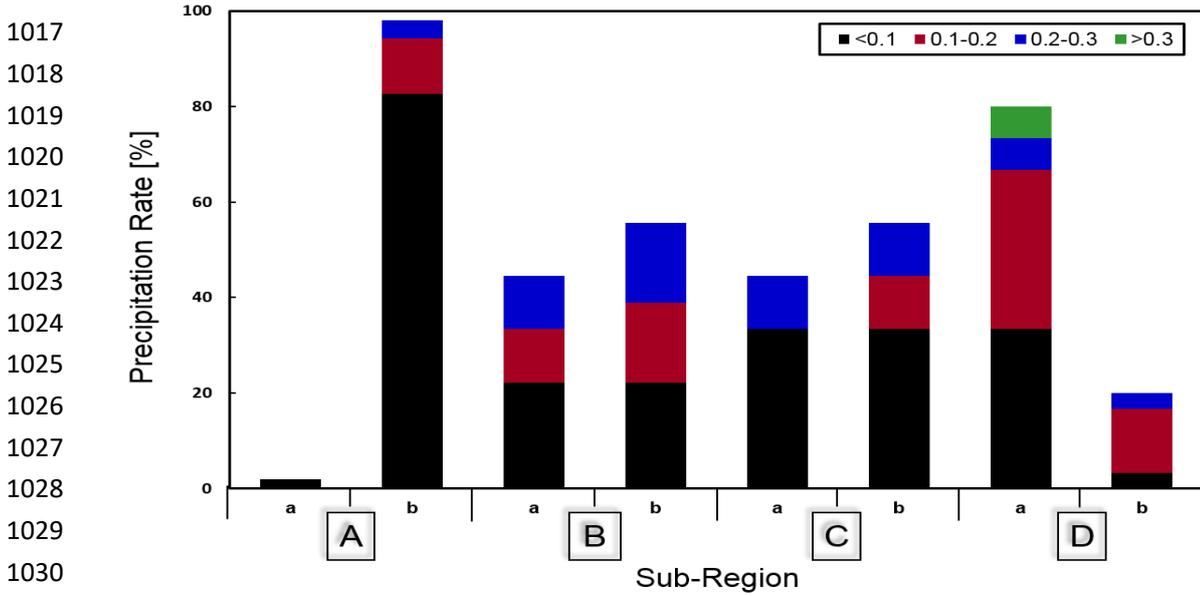
1010

1011 Fig.6. The cloud droplet radius (CDR) distribution of 3-h mean low-cloud  
 1012 according to AOD and LWP over four sub-regions. Colors present different  
 1013 levels of AOD from 0 to 1.

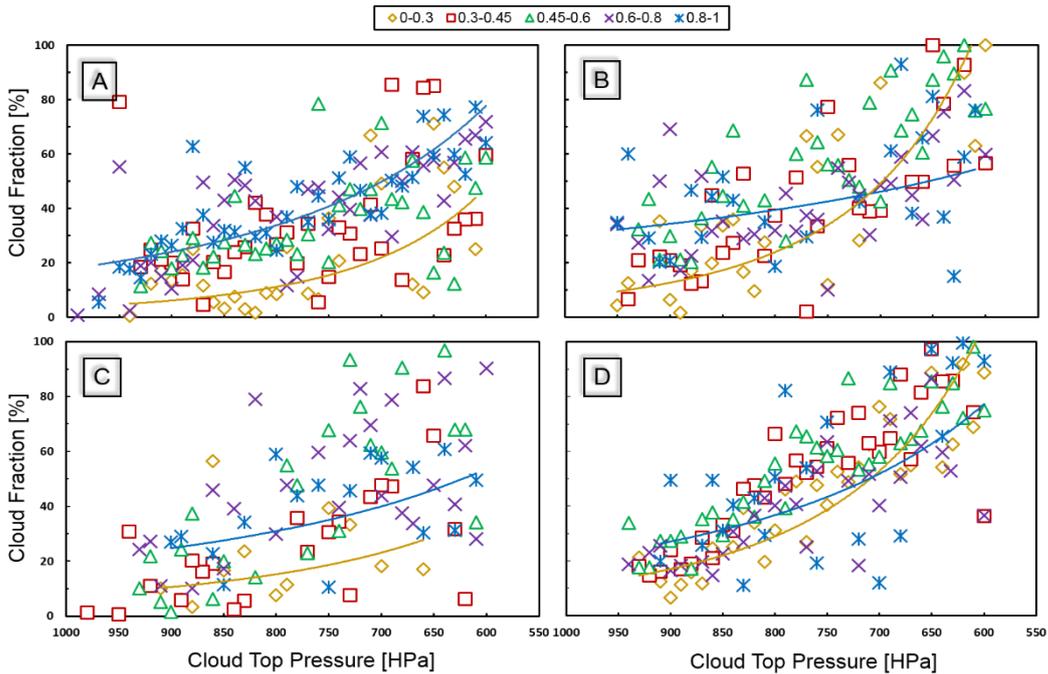


1014

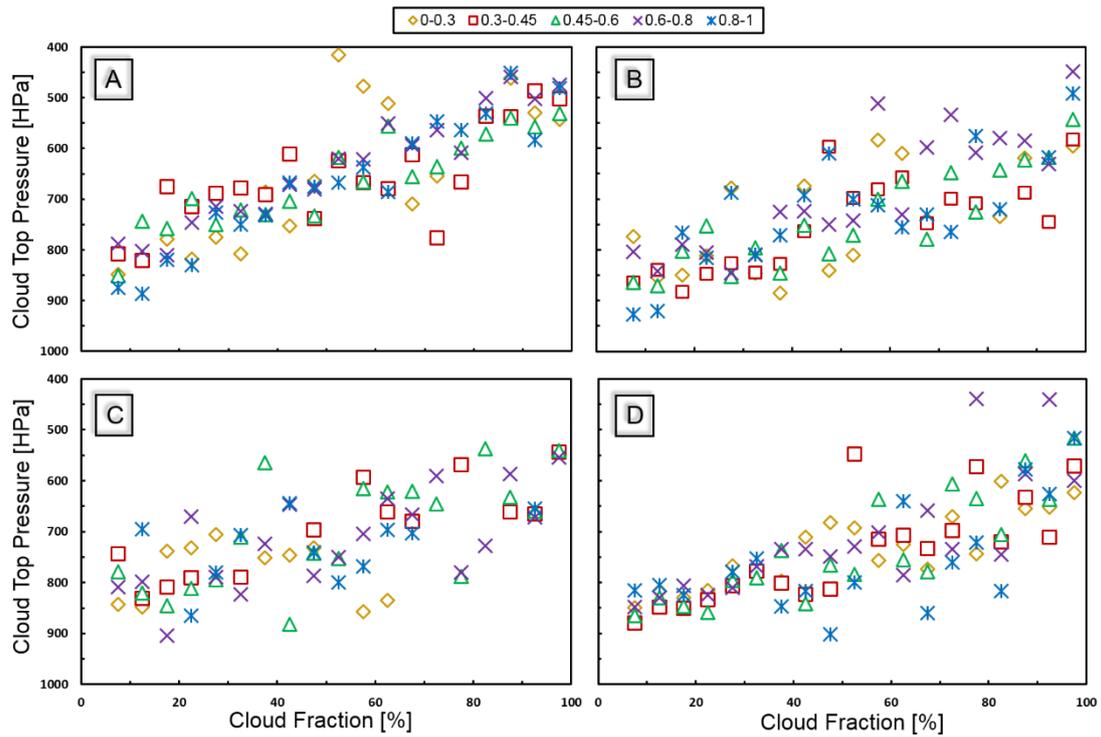
1015 Fig.7. Cloud optical thickness (COT) and cloud droplet radius (CDR)  
 1016 averaged over AOD/LWP bins in log-log scale for four sub-regions.



1031 Fig.8. Frequency of precipitation amount under clean and polluted  
 1032 conditions in four sub-regions. Colors show different precipitation amount  
 1033 (mm). The *a* and *b* in x-coordinate indicate  $AOD < 0.5$  and  $> 0.5$ , respectively.

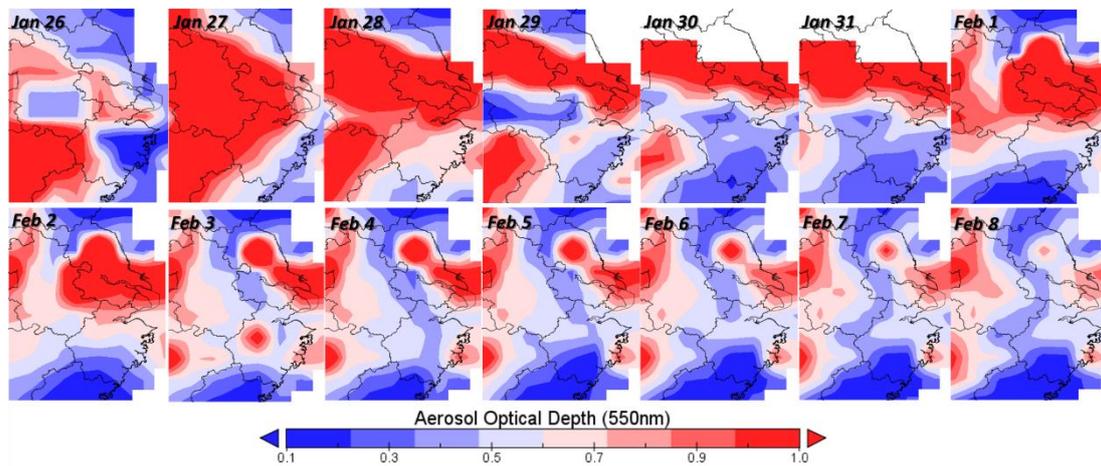


1034  
 1035 Fig.9. CLF-CTP relationships from CERES-SYN daily products in four  
 1036 sub-region. The whole dataset is sorted as low to high polluted atmospheres  
 1037 by AOD at interval of 0.2.



1038

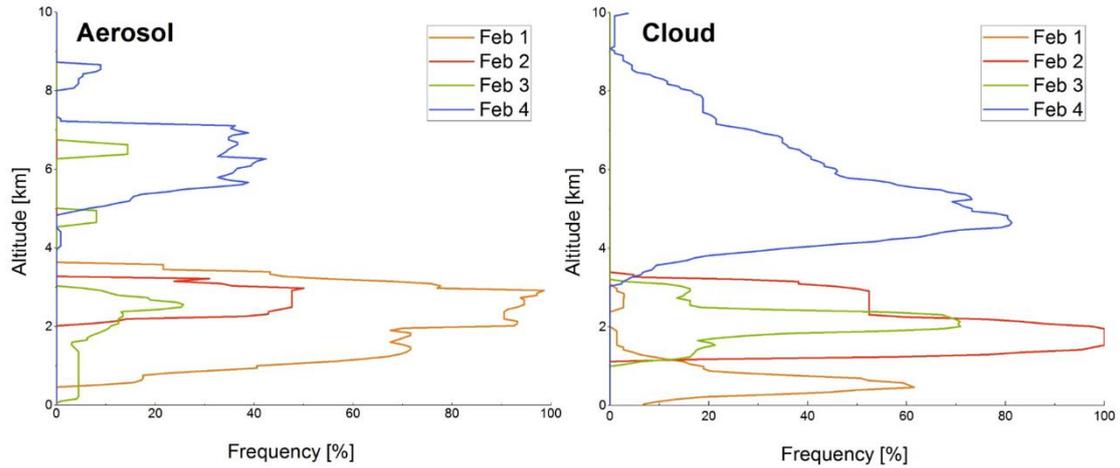
1039 Fig.10. CTP-CLF relationships from CERES-SYN daily products in four  
 1040 sub-regions. The whole dataset is sorted as low to high polluted  
 1041 atmospheres by AOD at interval of 0.2.



1042

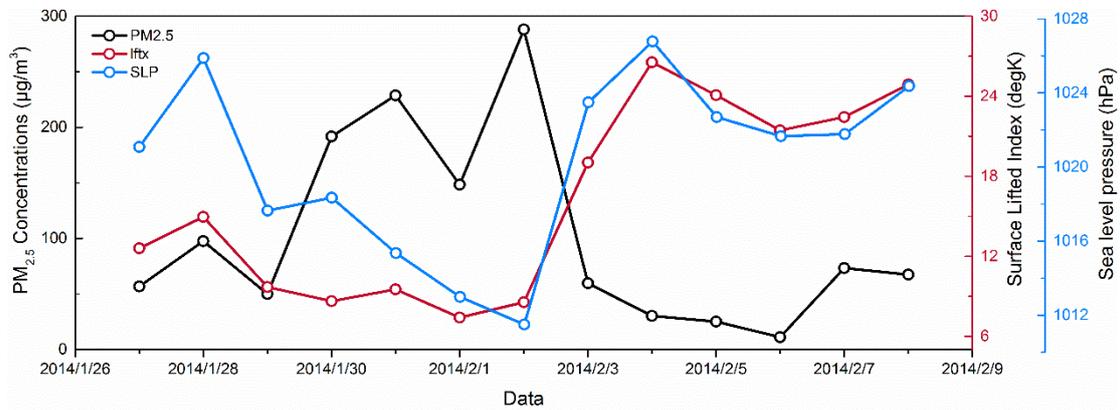
1043 Fig.11. Spatial distribution of daily mean AOD ( $0.55\mu\text{m}$ ) over the Yangtze  
 1044 River Delta (YRD) from 26 January to 8 February 2014.

1045



1046

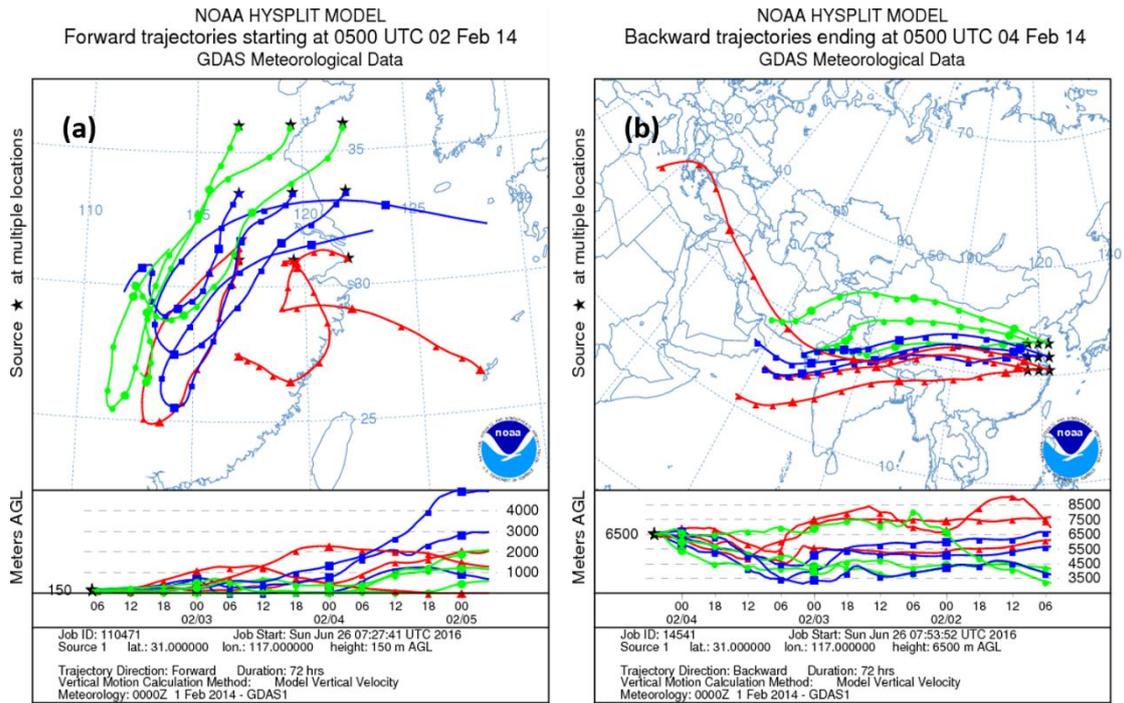
1047 Fig.12. Profiles of total cloud and aerosol frequencies below 10 km from  
 1048 CALIPSO daily data in the region of (31-36°E, 117-122°N).



1049

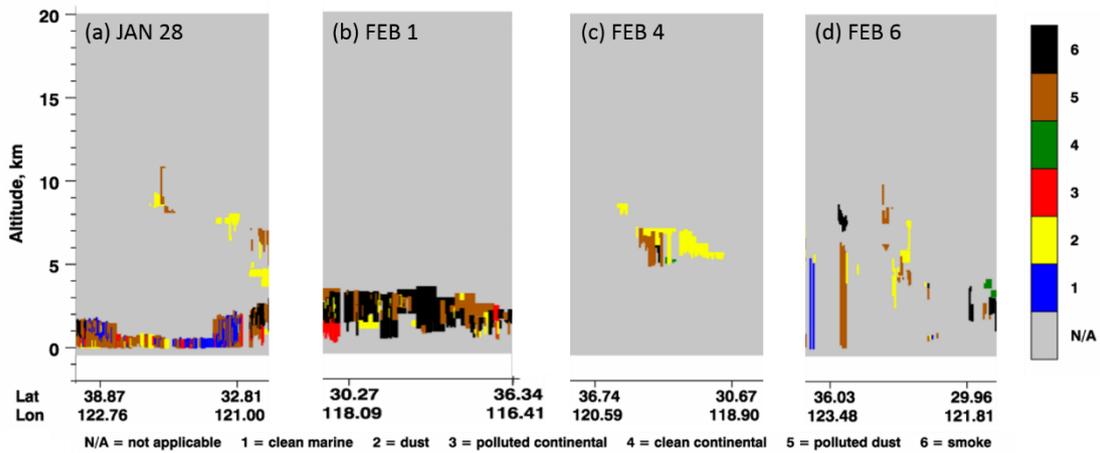
1050 Fig.13. Daily averages of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, surface lifted index (SLI) and sea-level  
 1051 pressure (SLP) in region (31-36°E, 117-122°N) from 27 January to 8  
 1052 February 2016. The PM<sub>2.5</sub> data come from the on-line monitoring and  
 1053 analysis platform for air quality in China (<http://www.aqistudy.cn>), while  
 1054 the SLI and SLP are from NCEP reanalysis data.

1055



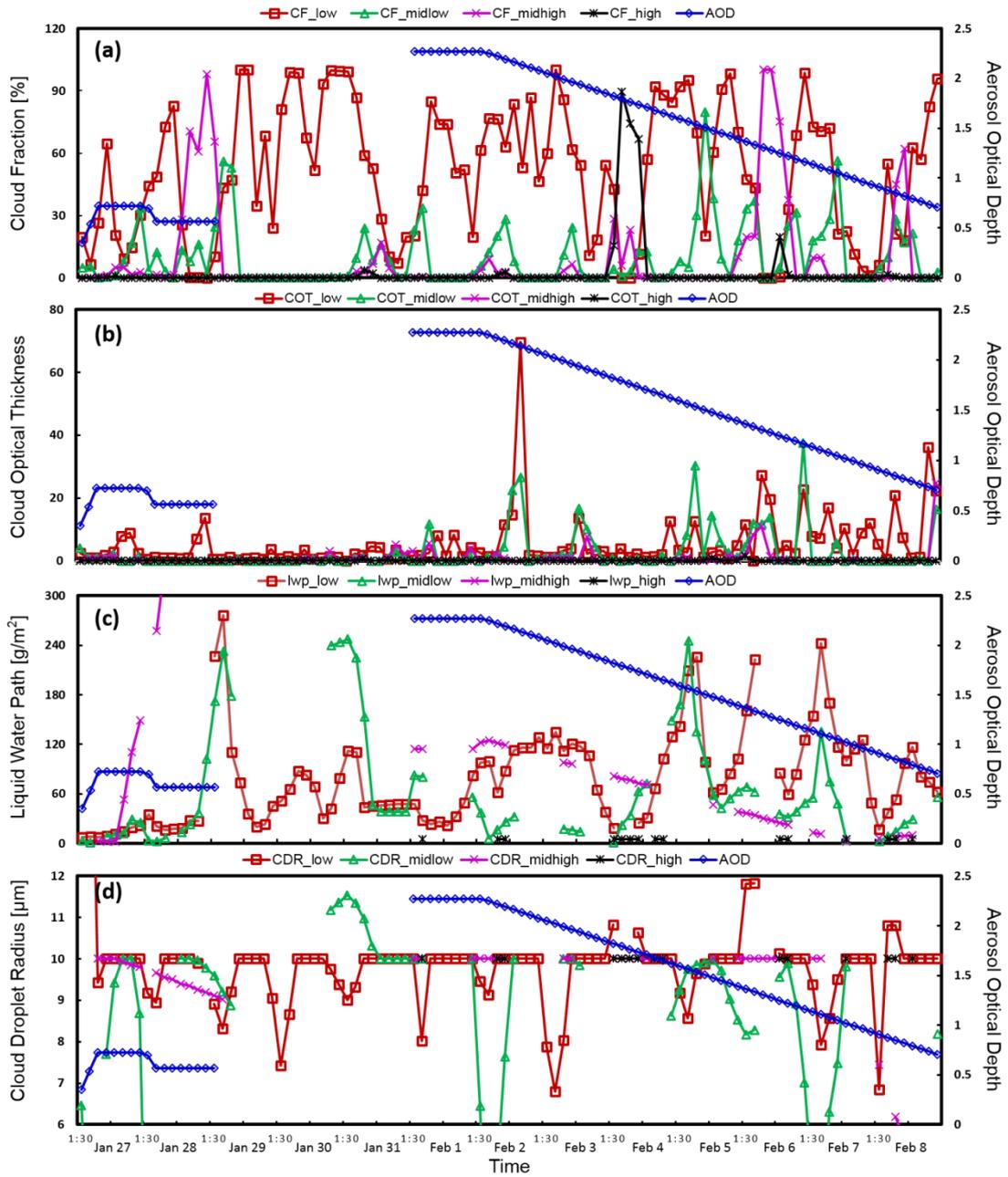
1056

1057 Fig.14. Multiple sites of 3-day air mass (a) forward trajectories starting at  
 1058 150m on 2 February, (b) backward trajectories ending at 6500m on 4  
 1059 February. Those trajectories were calculated by the NOAA Hybrid  
 1060 SingleParticle Lagrangian Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model.  
 1061



1062

1063 Fig.15. Aerosol subtypes on 28 Jan., 1 Feb., 4 Feb. and 6 Feb. retrieved  
 1064 from CALIPSO vertical feature data.



1065

1066 Fig.16. Time series of cloud property parameters (CF, COT, LWP and CDR)

1067 from CERES-SYN 3-h data between 27 Jan. to 28 Feb. 2014. Colors

1068 represent clouds at different altitudes.

1069

1070

1071

Table 1. Details of parameters, which are used in our study.

Parameters	Products	Algorithm & Source	Satellites Channel		Resolution
AOD, FMF	CERES-SYN Edition 3A 3-hour	MODIS-derived (MOD04)	Terra and Aqua	0.55 $\mu$ m	1°×1° (horizontal)
COT, LWP,CTP, CLF, CDR		MODIS-Geostationary (3-hour)-derived		3.7 $\mu$ m (mid-IR)	
Aerosol layer fraction	CAL_LID_L2_05kmAPro- Prov-V3-30	CALIOP lidar-GMAO	CALIPSO		5km (horizontal)
cloud layer fraction					60m (Vertical)
Aerosol vertical feature mask	CAL_LID_L2_VFM- ValStage1-V3-30				5km (horizontal)
					30m (Vertical)
SLI, SLP, precipitation rate	National Center for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) Reanalysis				2.5°×2.5° (horizontal)
Air mass trajectories	HYSPLIT model				Every 6 hours at 9 key sites
PM <sub>2.5</sub> concentration		Air quality network in China			Daily average

1072

1073

1074

1075

1076

1077

1078

1079

1080

1081 Table 2. AOD-COT, AOD-LWP, AOD-CDR relationships from  
 1082 MODIS daily products of low-cloud in four sub-regions (K is best-fit  
 1083 slope). The whole dataset is sorted as aerosol types based on combined  
 1084 AOD and FMF retrievals.

1085  
 1086  
 1087

		Marine aerosol		Dust aerosol		Continental aerosol	
		K	R <sup>2</sup>	K	R <sup>2</sup>	K	R <sup>2</sup>
COT	A	0.1369	0.0034	0.737	0.2978	0.159	0.0101
	B	0.6997	0.4683	0.2815	0.0395	0.444	0.143
	C	1.9429	0.6261	0.4079	0.0211	1.4507	0.4518
	D	1.4804	0.5924	0.2767	0.0478	0.9948	0.2586
LWP	A	0.1754	0.0055	0.6547	0.261	-0.028	0.0004
	B	0.622	0.4233	0.1304	0.0101	0.3177	0.0912
	C	1.9564	0.6332	0.494	0.037	1.3061	0.4106
	D	1.4118	0.5847	0.223	0.0386	0.8059	0.2114
CDR	A	0.0744	0.1846	0.0392	0.1896	-0.039	0.1348
	B	-0.011	0.0113	0.0129	0.038	-0.027	0.0587
	C	0.0109	0.0248	0.0688	0.0969	0.0108	0.0049
	D	0.0232	0.1116	0.0481	0.1599	-0.007	0.0058

1088