

# Exploring Sources of Ice Crystals in Cirrus Clouds: Comparative Analysis of Two Ice Nucleation Schemes in CAM6

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**Abstract.** Ice nucleation, a critical process in cirrus clouds, remains a challenge in global climate models. To enhance the understanding, a novel ice nucleation parameterization based on the Kärcher (2022) (K22) scheme is introduced into the NCAR Community Atmosphere Model version 6 (CAM6).

10 To investigate ice formation in cirrus clouds, sensitivity tests are conducted to analyze three ice sources from: orographic gravity wave (OGWs-induced, convectiveon detrainment, and turbulenceinduced. These tests employ both the K22 scheme and the default Liu and Penner (2005) (LP05) scheme. Model evaluation includes 6-year climatology and nudged simulations representing the Small Particles in Cirrus (SPARTICUS) and O2/N2 Ratio and CO2 Airborne Southern Ocean Study (ORCAS) campaigns.

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15 The climatology simulations reveal that both schemes Both schemes simulate that convection concentrate detrainment and turbulence-induced ice crystals are concentrated in low- to mid-latitudes, whereas OGW-induced ice crystals are concentrated in mid- to high latitudes. Compared to the LP05 scheme, the K22 scheme generates a higher number of ice crystals. The simulated cloud microphysical properties using the K22 scheme align well with observations for orographic cirrus during the SPARTICUS campaign.

20 In orographic cirrus over high terrains at mid- to high latitudes, both schemes identify OGW-induced ice crystals as the dominant ice source. However, due to distinct competition parameterizations, the K22 scheme exhibits less competition from minor ice sources (convection detrainment and turbulence-induced). This underscores the significance of competition mechanisms within nucleation schemes for accurate cirrus clouds simulation. The application of two distinct nucleation schemes provides valuable insights into the dominant ice sources in cirrus clouds.

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## 1. Introduction

Cirrus clouds play an important role in the Earth's radiation budget, thereby affecting the climate (Liou, 1986). These ice clouds can reflect solar radiation back to space, cooling the planet (Chen et al., 2024; Forster et al., 2023) (Chen et al., 2024; Chen et al., 2000; "The Earth's Energy Budget, Climate Feedbacks and Climate Sensitivity," 2023; Forster et al., 2023). They can also absorb terrestrial longwave radiation and thus warm the planet. The balance between these two opposite processes is greatly influenced by the microphysical properties of ice crystals in cirrus clouds and determines the net cloud radiative forcing. The representation of cirrus clouds in global climate models (GCMs) has been recognized as a key factor in understanding the climate change (Boucher et al., 2013).

Ice crystals in cirrus clouds originate from two main processes, detrainment from convective clouds and in-situ nucleation (Krämer et al., 2016; Muhlbauer, Ackerman, et al., 2014). Cirrus clouds are formed through convective detrainment when air containing ice crystals flows out of convective clouds, such as anvils. These clouds are usually associated with high ice number concentrations ( $> 100 \text{ L}^{-1}$ ) (Heymsfield et al., 2017).

Ice crystals in in-situ cirrus clouds, such as orographic cirrus over high terrains, are primarily nucleated by aerosols. There are two nucleation mechanisms: homogeneous freezing of solution droplets and heterogeneous nucleation on ice 40 nucleating particles (INPs). Homogeneous nucleation requires higher supersaturation ( $> \sim 40\text{--}60 \%$ ) and lower temperatures ( $< -37^\circ\text{C}$ ), typically resulting in high ice number concentrations ( $> 100 \text{ L}^{-1}$ ). In contrast, heterogeneous nucleation occurs at lower supersaturation and higher temperatures, involving INPs such as dust and black carbon (BC). This process generally produces low ice number concentrations ( $< 100 \text{ L}^{-1}$ ) (Froyd et al., 2022; Heymsfield et al., 2017).

Substantial progress has been made in understanding homogeneous nucleation (Koop et al., 2000). Homogeneous 45 nucleation is usually triggered by high vertical velocities ( $> 0.1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ). These dynamic factors can be induced by either turbulence in the unstable circumstances with small Richardson numbers or gravity waves in the stable atmosphere with large Richardson numbers (Heymsfield et al., 2017).

Recent studies on cirrus clouds in GCMs usually overlook the roles of ice crystal sources, especially for cirrus clouds with high ice number concentrations ( $> 100 \text{ L}^{-1}$ ). The absence or misrepresentation of a critical ice source may lead to the 50 failure to simulate cirrus cloud properties. For example, most GCMs treat turbulence as the sole subgrid-scale vertical

velocity mechanism driving ice nucleation. However, research has shown that due to limitations in higher-order turbulence closure theory, cirrus clouds formed by gravity waves are usually absent in GCMs (Golaz et al., 2002b; Huang et al., 2020). Notably, studies have demonstrated that incorporating the effects of orographic gravity waves (OGWs) into ice nucleation processes enables models to successfully simulate the observed characteristics of orographic cirrus clouds (Lyu et al., 2023).

55 In addition, many studies highlight that ice crystals from convective detrainment can have a significant impact on the microphysical properties of cirrus clouds, particularly in the tropical regions (Horner & Gryspeerdt, 2023; Horner & Gryspeerdt, 2024; Nugent et al., 2022). In this study, we focus on three ice sources: OGW-induced, turbulence-induced and convective detrainment.

Significant uncertainties persist regarding heterogeneous nucleation (Hoose & Möhler, 2012; Murray et al., 2012) and 60 the interplay between the two nucleation mechanisms (Kärcher et al., 2022; Shi et al., 2015). There are many uncertainties in the nucleation processes and can complicate the prediction of cirrus clouds microphysical properties (Knopf & Alpert, 2023). Aerosols such as dust, soot, metallic particles, and biological particles, can act as INPs, inducing heterogeneous nucleation and potentially suppressing homogeneous nucleation (Fan et al., 2016; Froyd et al., 2022; Heymsfield et al., 2017; Kärcher & Ström, 2003; Knopf & Alpert, 2023). The activation efficiency of INPs is determined by their chemical components, 65 which is highly dependent on their sources (Beall et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2024; Tobo et al., 2019).

Moreover, uncertainties regarding limited knowledge of the number concentration, and chemical composition, and activation efficiency of INPs in the upper troposphere complicates the model prediction of cirrus clouds microphysical properties (Kärcher et al., 2022; Knopf & Alpert, 2023) along with their nucleation mechanisms further hinder cirrus cloud simulations (DeMott et al., 2011). Moreover, currently conventional GCMs cannot resolve the subgrid-scale vertical velocity, 70 which drives the water vapor supersaturation for ice nucleation, posing additional uncertainty for model simulations (Ullrich et al., 2017)

Several parameterizations of nucleation mechanisms have been developed in GCMs. Liu and Penner (2005) (LP05) developed a parameterization that includes homogeneous nucleation, heterogeneous nucleation and their interactions. The parameterization was subsequently applied to the NCAR Community Atmospheric Model (CAM) (Liu et al., 2007) and was 75 further refined to include the effects of pre-existing ice (Shi et al., 2015).

A new parameterization (Kärcher, 2022), referred to as K22, that encompasses homogeneous nucleation, heterogeneous nucleation, their interactions, and competition with preexisting cirrus ice, has been integrated into CAM6. The purpose of this paper is to integrate the K22 nucleation parameterization into GCMs and evaluate its effects on cloud microphysical properties and dominant sources of ice crystals in cirrus clouds. Section 2 presents a description of the model, and the 80 parameterization method used in the study. The observational data employed for evaluation are described in Section 3. The model results, along with comparisons to the default LP05 parameterization, are discussed in Section 4. Finally, the summary and conclusions are presented in Section 5.

## 2. Model and Parameterization

### 2.1 Model Description

85 **2.1.1 The NCAR Community Atmosphere Model version 6 (CAM6) model is the atmosphere component of Community-  
Earth System Model version 2 (CESM2) (Danabasoglu et al., 2020).** CAM6 employs the updated Morrison-Gettelman cloud  
microphysics scheme (MG2) to predict the mass and number concentrations of cloud liquid, cloud ice, rain and snow  
(Gettelman & Morrison, 2015; Morrison & Gettelman, 2008). The deep convection processes are represented using the  
Zhang and McFarlane (1995) scheme. The planetary boundary layer turbulence, cloud macrophysics, and shallow  
90 convection are treated by the Cloud Layers Unified by Bi-normals (CLUBB) (Bogenschutz et al., 2013; Golaz et al., 2002a;  
Hinz et al., 1996). Aerosols are treated using the 4-mode version of Modal Aerosol Model (MAM4) (Liu et al., 2016). Since  
CLUBB effectively represents turbulence with a small Richardson number but struggles to produce perturbations caused by  
gravity waves (Golaz et al., 2002a, 2002b; Huang et al., 2020), subgrid-scale vertical velocities from orographic gravity  
waves (OGWs) and turbulence are incorporated into the ice nucleation schemes (Lyu et al., 2023). The turbulence-driven  
95 vertical velocity is derived from turbulence kinetic energy (TKE) calculated by CLUBB. Aerosols involved in ice nucleation  
act interactively with the MAM4. When new ice crystals form, the nucleated aerosols are transferred from the interstitial  
state to the cloud-borne state. Similarly, when cloud droplets form, the nucleated aerosols are transferred to the cloud-borne  
state and are subject to precipitation scavenging. The radiation calculations are based on the Rapid Radiative Transfer Model  
for General Circulation Models (RRTMG) (Iacono et al., 2008).

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CLUBB effectively represents turbulence with a small Richardson number but struggles to produce perturbations caused by  
gravity waves (Golaz et al., 2002a, 2002b; Huang et al., 2020), subgrid-scale orographic gravity waves (OGWs) and  
turbulence kinetic energy (TKE) from CLUBB (CLUBB-TKE) are introduced into the ice nucleation as sources of vertical  
110 velocity (Lyu et al., 2023). Aerosols involved in ice nucleation act interactively with the MAM4. When new ice crystals  
form, the nucleated aerosols are transferred from the interstitial state to the cloud-borne state. Similarly, when cloud droplets  
form, the nucleated aerosols are transferred to the cloud-borne state and are subject to precipitation scavenging. The radiation  
calculations are based on the Rapid Radiative Transfer Model for General Circulation Models (RRTMG) (Iacono et al.,  
2008). The climatology experiments and nudged simulations related to the Small Particles in Cirrus (SPARTICUS) and  
115 O2/N2 Ratio and CO2 Airborne Southern Ocean Study (ORCAS) campaigns are designed and listed in Table 1 and 2. All  
simulations are conducted at a resolution of  $0.9^\circ \times 1.25^\circ$  with 56 vertical layers.

120 The LP05 ice nucleation scheme involves two mechanisms: homogeneous and heterogeneous nucleation (Liu & Penner,  
2005). Developed base on numerical parcel model simulations, this scheme considers the competition between homogeneous  
and heterogeneous nucleation processes, as well as their interactions with pre-existing ice crystals (Shi et al., 2015). Koop et  
al. (2000) To fit to observed ice number concentrations (Gettelman et al., 2010), homogeneous nucleation utilizes sulfate  
aerosols in the Aitken mode with diameters greater than  $0.1 \mu\text{m}$ .

In our study, the OGW experiments serve as the reference experiments. These experiments consider three primary  
sources of ice crystals: convective detrainment, nucleation driven by turbulence (CLUBB-TKE), and nucleation driven by  
OGWs. To isolate the effects of each source, we designed three sensitivity tests: no\_DET, no\_TKE and no\_OGW, each

125 excluding one of these specific sources. By comparing the differences in ice number concentration ( $N_i$ ) between the reference experiments and sensitivity experiments, we can aim to understand the contribution of each ice source in CAM6.

Table 1 Description of 6 year Climatology Simulations

<i>Model experiment</i>	<i>Description</i>	
LP05_OGW_Climo	Default CAM6 configuration with turbulence (CLUBB-TKE) and orographic gravity waves (OGWs) for ice nucleation.	→ <b>Formatted:</b> Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Line spacing: Double, Don't keep with next
LP05_no_OGW_Climo	Same as LP05_OGW_Climo but without OGWs for ice nucleation	→ <b>Formatted:</b> Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Space After: 0 pt, Line spacing: Double
LP05_no_DET_Climo	Same as LP05_OGW_Climo but without detrained ice.	→ <b>Formatted:</b> Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Line spacing:
LP05_no_TKE_Climo	Same as LP05_OGW_Climo but without turbulence for ice nucleation.	→ <b>Formatted:</b> Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Line spacing:
LP05_OGW_Homo-Climo	Same as LP05_OGW_Climo but only consider homogeneous ice nucleation.	→ <b>Formatted:</b> Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Line spacing:
LP05_OGW_Hete-Climo	Same as LP05_OGW_Climo but only consider heterogenous ice nucleation.	→ <b>Formatted:</b> Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Line spacing:
K22_OGW_Climo	Same as LP05_OGW_Climo but with K22 nucleation parameterization.	→ <b>Formatted:</b> Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Line spacing:
K22_no_OGW_Climo	Same as LP05_no_OGW_Climo but with K22 nucleation parameterization.	→ <b>Formatted:</b> Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Line spacing:
K22_no_DET_Climo	Same as LP05_no_DET_Climo but with K22 nucleation parameterization.	→ <b>Formatted:</b> Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Line spacing:
K22_no_TKE_Climo	Same as LP05_no_TKE_Climo but with K22 nucleation parameterization.	→ <b>Formatted:</b> Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Line spacing:
K22_OGW_Homo-Climo	Same as K22_OGW_Climo but only consider homogeneous ice nucleation.	→ <b>Formatted:</b> Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Line spacing:
K22_OGW_Hete-Climo	Same as K22_OGW_Climo but only consider heterogenous ice nucleation.	→ <b>Formatted:</b> Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Line spacing:
K22_OGW_Shan-Climo	Same as K22_OGW_Climo but with aerosol wet removal in convection (Shan et al., 2021).	→ <b>Formatted:</b> Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Line spacing:

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Table 2 Description of Nudged Simulations

<i>Model experiment</i>	<i>Description</i>	
<b>2009 October to 2010 June</b>		
LP05_OGW_SP	Default CAM6 configuration with turbulence and orographic gravity waves (OGWs) for ice nucleation.	► Formatted: Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Line spacing: Double ► Formatted: Normal, Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Line spacing: Double, Don't keep with next
LP05_no_OGW_SP	Same as LP05_OGW_SP but without OGWs for ice nucleation.	► Formatted: Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Space After: 0 pt, Line spacing: Double
LP05_no_DET_SP	Same as LP05_OGW_SP but without detrained ice.	► Formatted: Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Space After: 0 pt, Line spacing: Double
LP05_no_TKE_SP	Same as LP05_OGW_SP but without turbulence for ice nucleation.	► Formatted: Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Line spacing: Double
K22_OGW_SP	Same as LP05_OGW_SP but with K22 nucleation parameterization.	► Formatted: Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Space After: 0 pt, Line spacing: Double
K22_no_OGW_SP	Same as LP05_no_OGW_SP but with K22 nucleation parameterization.	► Formatted: Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Line spacing: Double
K22_no_DET_SP	Same as LP05_no_DET_SP but with K22 nucleation parameterization.	► Formatted: Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Line spacing: Double
K22_no_TKE_SP	Same as LP05_no_TKE_SP but with K22 nucleation parameterization.	► Formatted: Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Line spacing: Double
K22_OGW_Homo_SP	Same as K22_OGW_SP but only consider homogeneous ice nucleation.	► Formatted: Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Line spacing: Double
K22_OGW_Hete_SP	Same as K22_OGW_SP but only consider heterogenous ice nucleation.	► Formatted: Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Line spacing: Double
<b>2015 October to 2016 February</b>		
LP05_OGW_OR	Same as LP05_OGW_SP except simulation period.	► Formatted: Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Line spacing: Double
LP05_no_OGW_OR	Same as LP05_no_OGW_SP except simulation period.	► Formatted: Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Line spacing: Double
LP05_no_DET_OR	Same as LP05_no_DET_SP except simulation period.	► Formatted: Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Line spacing: Double
LP05_no_TKE_OR	Same as LP05_no_TKE_SP except simulation period.	► Formatted: Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Line spacing: Double
K22_OGW_OR	Same as K22_OGW_SP except simulation period.	► Formatted: Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Line spacing: Double
K22_no_OGW_OR	Same as K22_no_OGW_SP except simulation period.	► Formatted: Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Line spacing: Double
K22_no_DET_OR	Same as K22_no_DET_SP except simulation period.	► Formatted: Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Line spacing: Double
K22_no_TKE_OR	Same as K22_no_TKE_SP except simulation period.	► Formatted: Indent: First line: 0.63 cm, Line spacing: Double

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## 2.2 K22-Ice Nucleation Parameterizations

### 135 2.2.1 K22 Scheme

In the K22 parameterization, homogeneous freezing is treated as a stochastic process in which the number of activated solution droplets decreases ( $n_{homo}$ ) over time based on freezing rate ( $J$ ) ( $n_{homo} = \int j dt$ ). The freezing rate is determined using the liquid water volume ( $V$ ) of the droplet population and a rate coefficient ( $J$ ) derived from a water activity-based formula (Koop et al., 2000) ( $J = VJ$ ). Vertical velocity ( $w$ ), supersaturation with respect to ice ( $S$ ), and temperature ( $T$ ) significantly influences water activity ( $J = J(w, S, T)$ ) (Baumgartner et al., 2022; Kärcher et al., 2022; Liu & Penner, 2005). The scheme assumes a monodisperse liquid solution droplet distribution at a wet radius of 0.25  $\mu\text{m}$ . The formulation of the number of ice crystals nucleated homogeneously is described by Kärcher et al. (2022).

For heterogeneous nucleation, a deterministic (time-independent) approach to predict the number ( $n$ ) of activated INPs is employed in the K22 parameterization as follows:

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$$n = n_{tot} \Phi(s), \quad (1)$$

where  $n_{tot}$  is the number concentration of INPs (e.g., coarse mode dust) the total INP number concentration and  $\Phi$  is the activated INP fraction.  $\Phi$  can be represented as either a linear ramp or a hyperbolic tangent function. Since we consider dust as the INPs, a linear ramp is applied in our study.

The function  $\Phi$  can be expressed as follows:

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$$\Phi = \begin{cases} 0 & : s < s_{min} \\ \frac{(s-s_{min})}{s_{max}-s_{min}} & : s_{min} \leq s \leq s_{max}, \\ 1 & : s > s_{max} \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

where  $s_{min}$  and  $s_{max}$  are two parameters that define the range of ice supersaturation where heterogeneous nucleation can occur. In our study, they are set to 0.22 and 0.3, respectively.

The equation governing the temporal evolution of ice supersaturation,  $s$ , in the ice-vapor system is expressed as

$$\frac{ds}{dt} = a(s+1)w - \int_0^s \frac{4\pi}{vn_{sat}} \frac{dn}{ds'} \left( \int_{r(s')} r^2 \frac{dr}{dt} dt \right) ds', \quad (3)$$

155 where  $\frac{ds}{dt}$  represents the time derivative of  $s$ . The first term on the right-hand side of the equation is the production term related to adiabatic cooling.  $\alpha$  is a [thermodynamic-thermodynamic](#) parameter (Pruppacher et al., 1998) relating to adiabatic vertical air motion, and  $w$  is restricted to the updraft speed ( $w > 0$ ). The second term signifies the loss term due to the removal of water vapor. The upper integration limit is the time  $t$  corresponding to ice supersaturation  $s$ , and the lower integration limit is a time  $\tau$  corresponds to  $0 \leq s' \leq s$ .

160 Within the integral,  $r$  is the radius of spherical ice crystals,  $\frac{dr}{dt}$  denotes the associated growth rate per ice crystal,  $v$  represents the volume of one water molecule in bulk ice, and  $n_{\text{sat}}$  is the water vapor number concentration in gas phase at ice saturation. The number concentration of ice crystals formed by INPs in a range of supersaturation  $ds'$  is given by  $\frac{dn}{ds'}$ .

The loss term in Equation (3) can be integrated numerically as described by Kärcher (2022). When  $\frac{ds}{dt} = 0$ , we can estimate the total heterogeneously nucleated ice number concentrations. Quenching velocities  $w_q$  are defined as:

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$$w_q = \frac{\frac{\text{Loss term in Equation (3)}}{v n_{\text{sat}} ds'} \left( \int_{v(s')}^{v(s)} r^2 \frac{dr}{dt} dt \right) ds'}{a(s+1)}, \quad (4)$$

where the loss term includes contributions from heterogeneous nucleation and pre-existing ice. This approach allows us to determine an effective vertical updraft  $w_{\text{eff}}$  which is used to describe conditions relevant to the homogeneous nucleation.

The effective vertical updraft speed  $w_{\text{eff}}$  is calculated as:

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$$w_{\text{eff}} = w - w_{q,\text{het}} - w_{q,\text{pre}}, \quad (5)$$

where  $w$  is the updraft speed,  $w_{q,\text{het}}$  is the quenching velocity for ice crystals due to heterogeneous nucleation, and  $w_{q,\text{pre}}$  is the quenching velocity due to pre-existing ice. If  $w_{\text{eff}} \leq 0$ , no homogeneous freezing occurs. When  $w_{\text{eff}} > 0$ , homogeneous nucleation will take place, but homogeneously nucleating ice number concentration will be smaller than that in the absence of INP-derived and pre-existing ice crystals (i.e. that calculated based on  $w$ ) ( $n_{\text{homo}} = p_{\text{homo}}(w_{\text{eff}})$ ).

175 [2.2.2 LP05 Scheme](#)

The LP05 ice nucleation scheme incorporates two primary mechanisms: homogeneous and heterogeneous nucleation (Liu & Penner, 2005). It is based on fitted simulation results from a cloud parcel model with varying vertical velocities. The

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maximum supersaturation is determined in the parcel model from the balance between the production due to adiabatic cooling by updrafts and loss due to vapor deposition on ice crystals. The number of nucleated ice crystals is derived based on 180 ice supersaturation, temperature, aerosol number concentrations and composition, and vertical velocity. Subgrid-scale vertical velocity can be derived from TKE calculated by CLUBB, from OGWs, or from the combined contribution of both components.

Homogeneous nucleation in the LP05 scheme, similar to the K22 scheme, adopts the parameterizations by Koop et al. (2000). Sulfate aerosols in the Aitken mode with diameters greater than  $0.1 \mu\text{m}$  is applied to fit to ice number concentrations 185 (Gettelman et al., 2010). On the other hand, heterogeneous nucleation considers the coarse mode dust as potential source of INPs. The number of ice crystals formed due to heterogeneous nucleation  $n$  in the LP05 scheme is calculated using  $n = n_{\text{dust}} \cdot \Phi(T, w, S_i)$ , where  $n_{\text{dust}}$  is the coarse mode dust number concentration from MAM4, and  $\Phi$  is active aerosol fraction, empirically derived as a function of temperature ( $T$ ), vertical velocity ( $w$ ), and ice supersaturation ( $S_i$ ).

The LP05 scheme considers the competition between homogeneous and heterogeneous nucleation. It (Kärreher et al., 190 2006) determines the critical dust INP concentration, above which homogeneous nucleation is completely switched off. Below that homogeneous nucleation occurs partially and is gradually transitioned to the pure homogeneous nucleation at lower INP concentrations. The LP05 scheme is modified to consider the effect of pre-existing ice crystals (Shi et al., 2015), which is parameterized by reducing the vertical velocity for ice nucleation as a result of water vapor deposition on pre-existing ice (Kärreher et al., 2006).

### 195 2.2.3 Differences Between Two Schemes

The K22 scheme incorporates a physically-based competition of various ice sources grounded in a quasi-kinetic nucleation framework. It simulates the simultaneous evolution of both homogeneous and heterogeneous nucleation rates in response to changing supersaturation and aerosol properties. The framework allows a flexible parameterization of activation efficiencies of different INPs types. This approach explicitly tracks the kinetic interplay between pre-existing ice and 200 different ice formation pathways, allowing for transient coexistence and interaction.

The LP05 scheme addresses the competition between nucleation mechanisms and pre-existing ice through an empirical framework derived from parcel model simulations. In this framework, supersaturation is implicitly partitioned, with the

205 nucleation pathway most favorable under the given conditions being prioritized. Heterogeneous nucleation is favored at lower supersaturations and higher dust concentrations, while homogeneous nucleation predominates at higher supersaturations and lower dust concentrations. Pre-existing ice crystals are typically used as a threshold to judge whether new ice can be formed.

There are some differences in the competition with pre-existing ice between the K22 and LP05 nucleation schemes. Overall, the K22 scheme provides a more continuous and interactive treatment of multiple ice nucleation pathways, with a stronger emphasis on the dynamic interplay between supersaturation, aerosol concentrations, and pre-existing ice crystals.

210 On the other hand, the LP05 scheme employs a stepwise approach that directly compares the potential for nucleation with the concentration of pre-existing ice crystals, imposing a threshold when nucleation occurs. Uncertainties exist regarding the relationship between the reduction of supersaturation and the suppression of nucleation caused by pre-existing ice crystals and the number of homogeneously nucleated ice crystals suppressed by pre-existing ice crystals. This relationship and its impact on the number of nucleated ice crystals requires further investigation.

215 The different strategies for representing ice nucleation pathways lead to stronger suppression of new ice formation in the LP05 scheme compared to the K22 scheme. In the LP05 scheme, competition between nucleation pathways is handled sequentially. Heterogeneous nucleation occurs first, followed by homogeneous nucleation only if the supersaturation exceeds a threshold (Liu & Penner, 2005). In addition, pre-existing ice crystals consume supersaturation before any new nucleation can occur (Kärcher et al., 2006; Shi et al., 2015), which further suppress new ice formation. In contrast, the K22 scheme 220 represents homogeneous nucleation, heterogeneous nucleation, and pre-existing ice growth within a unified framework, allowing all processes to occur simultaneously (Kärcher et al., 2006; Shi et al., 2015). As a result, for example, when the number concentration of pre-existing ice crystals is high, the LP05 scheme strongly suppresses new ice formation due to its sequential competition approach. Meanwhile, the K22 scheme permits new ice formation by accounting for concurrent interactions among all ice-related processes, even under conditions where the LP05 scheme would inhibit nucleation. In the 225 K22 parameterization quenching velocity, which is determined using a loss term associated with pre-existing ice crystals, is employed to calculate the number of homogeneously nucleated ice crystals.

However, the LP05 parameterization estimates the homogeneously nucleated ice number from a different perspective. The scheme first assumes the absence of pre-existing ice crystals and calculates the ice number that would be generated homogeneously. The calculated ice number is then compared the pre-existing ice number. If the pre-existing ice number is 230 smaller than the calculated number, additional ice crystals are generated homogeneously, with the resulting ice crystal count equal to the difference. Otherwise, no new ice crystals are nucleated. In the K22 parameterization quenching velocity, which is determined using a loss term associated with pre-existing ice crystals, is employed to calculate the number of homogeneously nucleated ice crystals.

Since the K22 scheme assumes spherical ice crystal shapes, it may underestimate the surface area available for vapor 235 deposition. This underestimation can exaggerate when pre-existing ice crystals are small and numerous. This bias may lead to an underestimation of supersaturation depletion by these ice crystals, potentially facilitating the occurrence of homogeneous nucleation. However, the LP05 scheme emphasizes competition between newly nucleated and pre-existing ice crystals, influenced by the large size of model grid. If a small fraction of the grid contains high concentrations of pre-existing ice crystals, the LP05 scheme can suppress new ice formation even when new clouds form elsewhere within the same grid.

## 240 2.3 Experiment Descriptions

The climatology experiments and nudged simulations related to the Small Particles in Cirrus (SPARTICUS) and O2/N2 245 Ratio and CO2 Airborne Southern Ocean Study (ORCAS) campaigns are designed and listed in Table 1 and 2. All simulations are conducted at a resolution of  $0.9^\circ \times 1.25^\circ$  with 56 vertical layers. We focus on the SPARTICUS and ORCAS campaigns in this study because they provide critical data on OGW-induced ice crystals. The SPARTICUS campaign involves flights over the mountainous regions from winter to summer, while the ORCAS campaign focuses on both ocean and continental regions during the summer.

In this study, the OGW experiments serve as the reference experiments. These experiments consider three primary sources of ice crystals: convective detrainment, nucleation driven by turbulence (CLUBB-TKE), and nucleation driven by OGWs. To isolate the effects of each source, we designed three sensitivity experiments: no\_DET (no detrainment), no\_TKE 250 (no CLUBB-TKE) and no\_OGW (no OGWs), each excluding one of these specific sources. By comparing the differences in

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ice number concentration ( $N_i$ ) between the reference experiments and sensitivity experiments, we aim to understand the contribution of each ice source in CAM6.

**Table 1 Description of 6-year Climatology Simulations**

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<i>Model experiment</i>	<i>Description</i>
<u>LP05_OGW-Climo</u>	Default CAM6 configuration with turbulence (CLUBB-TKE) and orographic gravity waves (OGWs) for ice nucleation.
<u>LP05_no_OGW-Climo</u>	Same as LP05_OGW-Climo but without OGWs for ice nucleation.
<u>LP05_no_DET-Climo</u>	Same as LP05_OGW-Climo but without detrained ice.
<u>LP05_no_TKE-Climo</u>	Same as LP05_OGW-Climo but without turbulence for ice nucleation.
<u>LP05_OGW-Homo-Climo</u>	Same as LP05_OGW-Climo but only consider homogeneous ice nucleation.
<u>LP05_OGW-Hete-Climo</u>	Same as LP05_OGW-Climo but only consider heterogenous ice nucleation.
<u>K22_OGW-Climo</u>	Same as LP05_OGW-Climo but with K22 nucleation parameterization.
<u>K22_no_OGW-Climo</u>	Same as LP05_no_OGW-Climo but with K22 nucleation parameterization.
<u>K22_no_DET-Climo</u>	Same as LP05_no_DET-Climo but with K22 nucleation parameterization.
<u>K22_no_TKE-Climo</u>	Same as LP05_no_TKE-Climo but with K22 nucleation parameterization.
<u>K22_OGW-Homo-Climo</u>	Same as K22_OGW-Climo but only consider homogeneous ice nucleation.
<u>K22_OGW-Hete-Climo</u>	Same as K22_OGW-Climo but only consider heterogenous ice nucleation.
<u>K22_OGW_Shan-Climo</u>	Same as K22_OGW-Climo but with aerosol wet removal in convection (Shan et al., 2021).

**Table 2 Description of Nudged Simulations**

<i>Model experiment</i>	<i>Description</i>
<b>2009 October to 2010 June</b>	
<u>LP05_OGW-SP</u>	Default CAM6 configuration with turbulence and orographic gravity waves (OGWs) for ice nucleation.
<u>LP05_no_OGW-SP</u>	Same as LP05_OGW-SP but without OGWs for ice nucleation.
<u>LP05_no_DET-SP</u>	Same as LP05_OGW-SP but without detrained ice.
<u>LP05_no_TKE-SP</u>	Same as LP05_OGW-SP but without turbulence for ice nucleation.
<u>K22_OGW-SP</u>	Same as LP05_OGW-SP but with K22 nucleation parameterization.
<u>K22_no_OGW-SP</u>	Same as LP05_no_OGW-SP but with K22 nucleation parameterization.
<u>K22_no_DET-SP</u>	Same as LP05_no_DET-SP but with K22 nucleation parameterization.
<u>K22_no_TKE-SP</u>	Same as LP05_no_TKE-SP but with K22 nucleation parameterization.
<u>K22_OGW-Homo-SP</u>	Same as K22_OGW-SP but only consider homogeneous ice nucleation.
<u>K22_OGW-Hete-SP</u>	Same as K22_OGW-SP but only consider heterogenous ice nucleation.
<b>2015 October to 2016 February</b>	
<u>LP05_OGW-OR</u>	Same as LP05_OGW-SP except simulation period.
<u>LP05_no_OGW-OR</u>	Same as LP05_no_OGW-SP except simulation period.
<u>LP05_no_DET-OR</u>	Same as LP05_no_DET-SP except simulation period.
<u>LP05_no_TKE-OR</u>	Same as LP05_no_TKE-SP except simulation period.
<u>K22_OGW-OR</u>	Same as K22_OGW-SP except simulation period.
<u>K22_no_OGW-OR</u>	Same as K22_no_OGW-SP except simulation period.
<u>K22_no_DET-OR</u>	Same as K22_no_DET-SP except simulation period.
<u>K22_no_TKE-OR</u>	Same as K22_no_TKE-SP except simulation period.

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### 3. Observational Data

#### 260 3.1 SPARTICUS campaign

This study utilizes observational data obtained during the SPARTICUS field campaign, conducted from January to June 2010 in the Central United States. The flight tracks of the campaign are depicted in Fig. 1a, covering approximately 150

research flight hours targeting cirrus clouds. Temperature measurements were conducted using the Rosemount probe Model 102 probe with a precision of  $\pm 0.5$  °C. Vertical velocity was measured by the Aircraft-Integrated Meteorological

265 Measurement System-20 (AIMMS-20) instrument mounted on a Learjet 25 (Muhlbauer, Kalesse, et al., 2014). Ice crystals ~~in~~  
~~thewith diameters size-ranginge offrom~~ 10–~~to~~ 3000  $\mu\text{m}$  were measured using two-dimensional stereo-imaging probes (2D-S). The 2D-S probe minimizes biases in the number concentration of small-sized ice crystals by addressing ice shattering effects (Lawson, 2011). Observational data were sampled at a frequency of 1 Hz. [A total of 6236 data samples are available in both observational and simulated datasets during the five days identified as orographic cirrus events](#) (Muhlbauer, 270 Ackerman, et al., 2014).

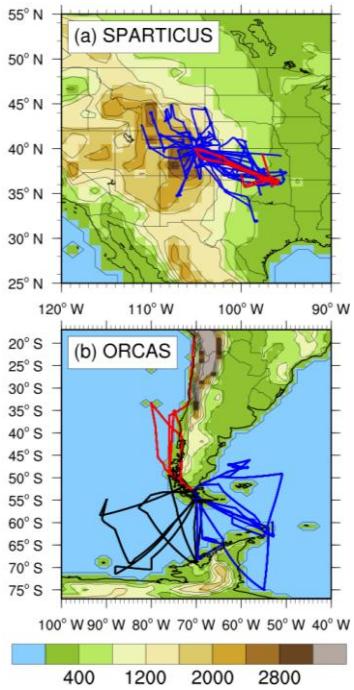


Figure 1. The top panel (a) shows aircraft trajectories (solid blue lines) during the SPARTICUS campaign. Solid red lines indicate flight tracks on days when orographic cirrus was observed (March 19, 30, April 1, 28, and 29, 2010). The bottom panel (b) shows aircraft trajectories during the ORCAS campaign. Color shading and black line contours illustrate the surface terrain (in m). Red lines denote flight tracks in Region 1, located north of Punta Arenas, Chile (SCCI), on the following days: January 23, and 25, February 8, 10, 17, 19, 22, 23 and 29, 2016. Blue lines denote flight tracks in Region 2, southeast of SCCI, on January 18, 25, and 30, February 12, 18, and 25, 2016. Black lines show flight tracks in Region 3, southwest of SCCI, on January 15, and 21, February 5 and 24, 2016.

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280 At a speed of approximately  $230 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , the aircraft covers about 100 km in 430 seconds of flight time, which corresponds to the model's horizontal resolution (1 degree). To facilitate a meaningful comparison between observational data and model outputs, a running average of 430 seconds of measurement data is applied (Patnaude et al., 2021).

Additionally, the microphysical properties (such as ice number  $N_i$ , ice water content IWC and number-weighted diameters

$D_{\text{num}}$ ) of ice crystals with diameters larger than 10-20  $\mu\text{m}$  from CAM6 results are derived using the size cut method described  
285 by Eidhammer et al. (2014), consistent with the measurements obtained by the 2D-Stereo Particle Probe (2D-S) but  
excluding the first size bin. Recent study suggests excluding the 2D-S probe's first size bin (5-15  $\mu\text{m}$ ) to avoid  
overestimating ice number concentration (Jensen et al., 2013; Mitchell et al., 2024). We adopt the midpoint of the second  
size bin (15 - 25  $\mu\text{m}$ ), i.e., 20  $\mu\text{m}$ , as the size threshold (Lyu et al., 2023) because hydrometeors smaller than 25  $\mu\text{m}$  cannot  
be fully recorded (Glienke & Mei, 2019). However, disregarding measurements for particles smaller than 20  $\mu\text{m}$  may  
290 overlook certain signatures of homogeneous freezing. To address this, we also provide supplementary results that include ice  
crystals with diameters larger than 10  $\mu\text{m}$ , offering a more comprehensive analysis.

### 3.2 ORCAS campaign

The O<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> Ratio and CO<sub>2</sub> Airborne Southern Ocean Study (ORCAS) was an NSF-sponsored airborne field campaign  
conducted from Chile during January and February 2016. The campaign utilized the NSF/NCAR HIAPER Gulfstream V  
295 (GV) aircraft for 18 flights over a period of 6 weeks. The data, sampled at 1 Hz, encompasses a total of 95 flight hours  
(Stephens et al., 2018). Ice cloud particles are measured by the Fast 2-Dimensional Optical Array Cloud probe (Fast-2DC),  
which detects particle sizes ranging from 62.5 to 1600  $\mu\text{m}$  (excluding the first two bins due to the ice shattering effects). The  
primary difference in measuring ice properties between the SPARTICUS and ORCAS campaigns is the instrumentation used  
to measure ice crystals. The SPARTICUS campaign employs the Fast 2D-S probe, while the ORCAS campaign utilizes the  
300 2D-C probe. Due to the ice shattering effect, the reliability of small ice measurements is compromised with the 2D-C probe.  
The subsequent paragraphs will delve into ice microphysical properties, specifically focusing on large-size ice crystals ( $D_{\text{num}}$   
 $\geq 62.5\mu\text{m}$ ) observed during the ORCAS campaign.

The ORCAS flight profiles encountered a lot of samples of cold upper-tropospheric clouds. To derive the properties  
(such as  $N_i$ , IWC and  $D_{\text{num}}$ ) of ice crystals with diameter  $\geq 62.5 \mu\text{m}$  from CAM6 results, the size cut method described by  
305 Eidhammer et al. (2014) is employed. This methodology ensures consistency with the measurements obtained by the 2D-C  
probe (Section 3.1).

To better evaluate the model results, this study divides the ORCAS flights into three regions, as illustrated in Fig. 1b.  
Flights in Region 1 primarily traverse high mountain ranges where cirrus clouds form primarily due to OGWs, together with

convection and frontal waves. Flights spanning Regions 2 and 3 predominantly cover oceanic areas, heavily influenced by  
310 convection and frontal waves. Notably, Region 2 is located downwind of the Andes Mountains and Antarctic high plateaus, thereby experiencing the additional influence from OGWs on observed cirrus cloud microphysical properties, while cirrus in  
Region 3 are less affected by OGWs.

This regional division allows for a more detailed analysis of cirrus cloud processes. The observed differences in cloud microphysical properties across these three regions highlight the distinct characteristics of cirrus clouds over land and ocean,  
315 particularly in mid- and high latitudes. These differences can provide insights into how various ice nucleation processes and environmental factors influence cirrus clouds formation and evolution.

#### 4. Results

##### 4.1 Climatology Experiments

Fig.2 illustrates the grid-mean ice number concentration ( $N_i$ ) for different types of cirrus in climatology experiments  
320 using the LP05 and K22 schemes. The results indicate that  $N_i$  is generally higher in the K22\_OGW-Climo experiment compared to the LP05\_OGW-Climo experiment. In both schemes, ice crystals detrained from convection are primarily concentrated in the tropical regions and mid-latitudes, and in situ nucleated ice crystals induced by turbulence are prevalent  
near the tropical tropopause layers (TTL) and in mid-latitudes. In contrast, due to the presence of mountains and high  
plateaus, Orographic cirrus due to OGWs are concentrated over mid- and high- latitudes, and in situ nucleated ice crystals  
325 induced by turbulence are prevalent at the top of tropical tropopause layers (TTL) and in mid latitudes. Across all three ice sources, experiments based on the K22 scheme produce higher ice number concentrations than those based on the LP05 scheme, mainly from the OGW-induced cirrus.

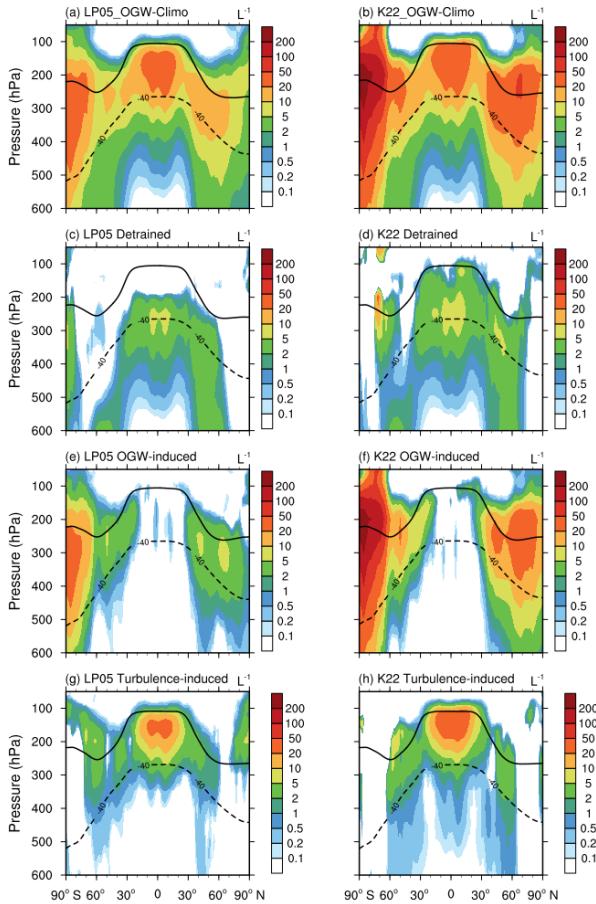


Figure 2. Annual zonal grid-mean ice number concentration ( $N_i$ ) from 6-year climatology simulations in the upper troposphere (above 600 hPa). The first row shows  $N_i$  from the LP05\_OGW-Climo and K22\_OGW-Climo experiments. The second row shows the differences in  $N_i$  between OGW and no\_DET experiments (OGW – no\_DET) for both the LP05 and K22 schemes, highlighting the contribution from cirrus clouds associated to convective detrainment. The third row presents the  $N_i$  differences between OGW and no\_OGW experiments (OGW – no\_OGW) for both schemes, indicating the presence of orographic cirrus. The fourth row presents the  $N_i$  differences between OGW and no\_TKE experiments (OGW – no\_TKE) for both schemes, reflecting cirrus clouds formed due to turbulence. Dashed lines represent the annual mean  $-40^{\circ}\text{C}$  isothermal line, while solid lines indicate the tropopause in the corresponding simulations.

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We further analyze grid-mean  $N_i$  in the sensitivity tests using homogeneous-only and heterogeneous-only experiments (shown in Fig. 3). These experiments include OGW-induced, turbulence-induced and detrained sources of ice crystals. The 340 results reveal that both nucleation processes produce more ice crystals in the K22 scheme compared to the LP05 scheme. In addition, the  $N_i$  results from the OGW-Climo experiments in both the K22 and LP05 schemes closely resembles those from their corresponding OGW-Homo-Climo experiments. This similarity indicates that homogeneous nucleation is a major contributor to the nucleated ice number globally in both the LP05\_OGW-Climo and K22\_OGW-Climo experiments.

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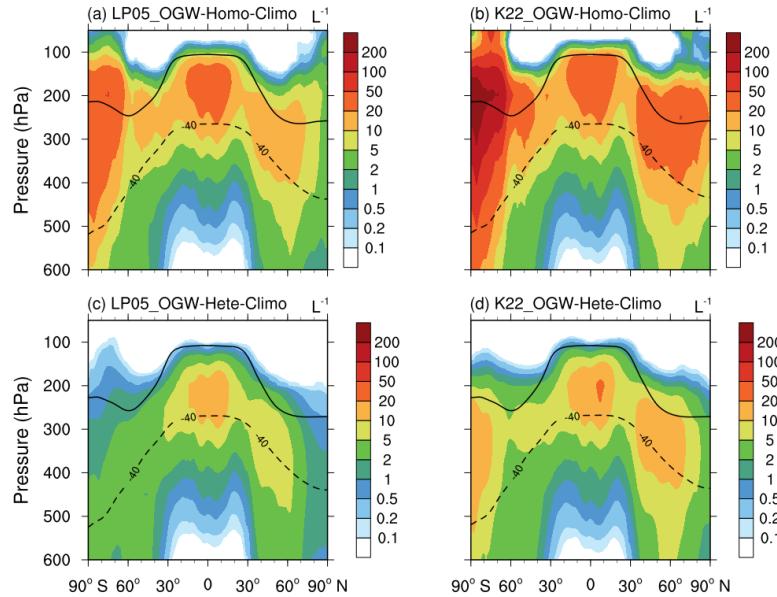


Figure 3. Annual zonal grid-mean  $N_i$  from 6-year Climatology simulations in the upper troposphere (above 600 hPa). Dashed lines indicate the annual mean  $-40$   $^{\circ}\text{C}$  isothermal line, and solid lines represent the tropopause in the corresponding simulations.

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The K22 scheme simulates the higher activated number concentrations of aqueous aerosols for homogeneous nucleation in the K22 scheme, compared to the LP05 scheme, as shown in Fig. 3a, b. This difference can be attributed to both direct and indirect influences. Although the homogeneous nucleation parameterizations in both schemes are based on Koop et al. (2000), the direct effect stems from how each scheme represents the competition of nucleated influence on 355 homogeneously nucleated ice number arises from differences in the competition with pre-existing ice crystals in the two schemes. As illustrated described in Section 2.2.3, the number of nucleated ice crystals in the LP05 scheme tends to be more suppressed encourage by the competitions between pre-existing ice crystals and newly formed ice crystals, compared to the K22 scheme. Consequently, less the presence of pre-existing ice crystals leads to fewer ice crystals that are formed in the LP05 experiments with the existence of pre-existing ice crystals, producing overall lower ice number concentrations in the 360 LP05 scheme. The indirect effects are associated with differences in temperatures and vertical velocity fields between the two schemes.

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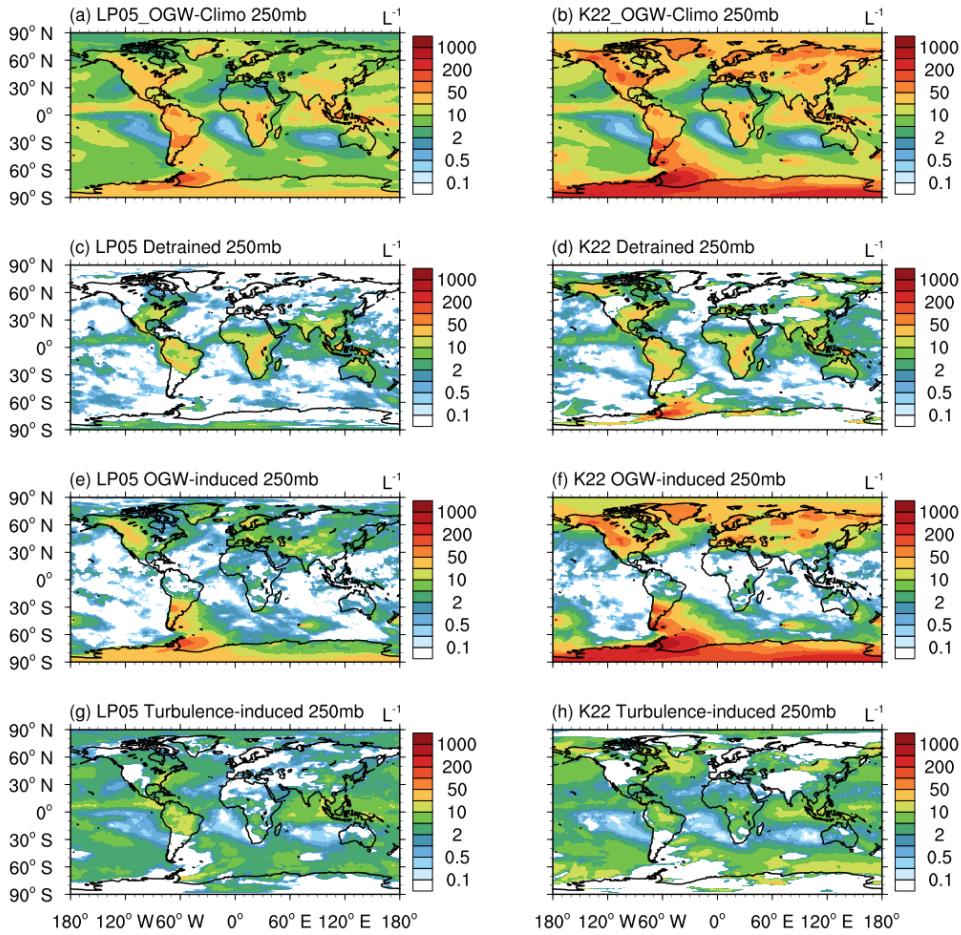


Figure 4. Annual grid-mean  $N_i$  from 6-year climatology simulations at 250 hPa. The first row shows  $N_i$  from the LP05\_OGW-Climo and K22\_OGW-Climo experiments. The second row shows the differences in  $N_i$  between OGW and no\_DET experiments (OGW – no\_DET) for both the LP05 and K22 schemes, highlighting the contribution from cirrus clouds associated to convective detrainment. The third row presents the  $N_i$  differences between OGW and no\_OGW experiments (OGW – no\_OGW) for both schemes, indicating the presence of orographic cirrus. The fourth row presents the  $N_i$  differences between OGW and no\_TKE experiments (OGW – no\_TKE) for both schemes, reflecting cirrus clouds formed due to turbulence. Dashed lines represent the annual mean –40°C isothermal line, while solid lines indicate the tropopause in the corresponding simulations.

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Fig. 4 shows the global longitude-latitude distribution of annual mean  $N_i$  at 250 hPa. Consistent with the results shown in Fig. 2, the K22\_OGW\_Climo experiment tends to produce higher ice number concentrations in all three types of simulated cirrus compared to the LP05\_OGW\_Climo experiment. In both schemes, cirrus clouds related to convective detrainment are frequently simulated frequently occur over land in low and mid-latitudes, while cirrus clouds due to OGWs primarily mostly occur over mountains and highlands in mid- and high latitudes. In addition, Turbulence-induced cirrus clouds due to turbulence exhibit widespread global coverages have wide-spread contributions globally. Consistent with the results shown in Fig. 2, the K22\_OGW\_Climo experiment tends to produce higher  $N_i$  values ice number concentrations in all three cirrus types of simulated cirrus compared to the LP05\_OGW\_Climo experiment. (Fig. 4a and 4b). While the distribution of detrainment  $N_i$  appears similar in low latitudes between the two schemes, notable differences emerge in high latitudes, with the K22 scheme generating more ice crystals, particularly over Alaska and the Antarctic Peninsula (Fig. 4c and 4d). OGW-induced ice crystals in the K22 scheme are more abundant and broadly distributed over mountainous regions compared to the LP05 scheme (Fig. 4e and 4f). Additionally, the K22 scheme simulates a higher number of turbulence-induced ice crystals, especially over mid- and high latitude regions (Fig. 4g and 4h). For OGW-induced cirrus clouds, the K22 scheme distributes high  $N_i$  values ( $>100 \text{ L}^{-1}$ ) more extensively than the LP05 scheme, particularly in mid- and high latitudes. This broader distribution results in a higher cloud frequency in the K22 scheme, as shown in Fig. S1.

Notably, the K22 scheme distributes high  $N_i$  values ( $>100 \text{ L}^{-1}$ ) more broadly than the LP05 scheme, particularly in mid- and high latitudes. The extensive regions with high  $N_i$  in the K22\_OGW\_Climo experiment closely resemble the distribution of cirrus clouds induced by OGWs. This indicates that orographic cirrus clouds are primarily responsible for this shift between the K22 and LP05 schemes. This shift result in a higher cloud frequency in the K22 scheme compared to the LP05 scheme (Fig. S1). As discussed in Section 2.2, the competition between homogeneous nucleation and pre-existing ice is less competitive in the K22 scheme than in the LP05 scheme. This reduced competition leads to increased ice crystal formation, consequently resulting in higher cloud frequency. A further detailed analysis will be presented in the upcoming discussion of the SPARTICUS campaign.

The difference in ice number between the K22\_OGW\_Climo and LP05\_OGW\_Climo experiments is indirectly influenced by changes in temperature and subgrid-scale vertical velocity variance for ice nucleation. Cirrus clouds warm the

atmosphere below and cool the atmosphere above the cloud layers. In high latitudes, the higher occurrence of cirrus clouds in the upper troposphere results in warming of the lower troposphere and cooling of the stratosphere (Fig. S2). However, the overall indirect impact from temperature changes on ice number is not significant in the troposphere, as the temperature changes are generally small (mostly less than  $\pm 0.25$  °C).

400 To analyze the factors driving differences in  $N_i$  between the LP05 and K22 schemes, several key variables should be considered. These factors include temperature, which affects ice nucleation thresholds and saturation vapor pressure; subgrid-scale vertical velocity, which determines the supersaturation necessary for ice formation; and dust aerosol number concentration, along with the fraction of activated INPs ( $\Phi$ ), which together determine the number of heterogeneously nucleated ice crystals.

405 In high latitudes, temperature increases in the upper troposphere are found in the K22\_OGW-Climo experiment compared to the LP05\_OGW-Climo experiment (Fig. S2), likely due to localized warming associated with increased cirrus cloud occurrence (Fig. S1). However, these temperature changes are generally small (typically smaller than  $\pm 0.25$  °C) and mostly positive, suggesting a suppression of ice nucleation. Therefore, the impact of temperature difference on global  $N_i$  is

410 expected to be negative and unlikely to account for a globally significant increase in  $N_i$  observed in the K22 scheme (Fig. 2).

415 Similarly, subgrid-scale vertical velocity increases in the K22\_OGW-Climo experiment compared to the LP05\_OGW-Climo experiment, particularly in the upper troposphere at mid- and high latitudes (Fig. S3). While these changes may enhance ice nucleation locally, their overall impact on  $N_i$  remains limited, as vertical velocity changes are generally small. Changes in the tropospheric temperature also impact global circulation, which in turn affects the subgrid-scale vertical velocity variance for ice nucleation, as shown in Fig. S3. In the K22\_OGW-Climo experiment, vertical velocity variances increase over mid- and high latitudes in the upper troposphere and lower stratosphere compared to the LP05\_OGW-Climo experiment. These enhanced dynamic factors can lead to a higher number of ice crystals through the occurrence of homogeneous nucleation. However, the overall indirect impact from changes in vertical velocity on ice number is small in the troposphere as the changes in vertical velocity are generally small (mostly less than  $\pm 0.002$  m s<sup>-1</sup>) in most regions.

420 Therefore, they are unlikely to explain the globally significant increase in  $N_i$  simulated in the K22 scheme (Fig. 2), except in the mid latitudes of the Northern Hemisphere.

The most substantial differences in  $N_i$  between the two schemes arise from microphysical processes, particularly those governing heterogeneous ice nucleation. Both the K22 and LP05 schemes account for the activation of coarse mode dust particles, but the K22 scheme simulates higher dust aerosol number concentrations, especially in the upper troposphere (Fig. 425 S4). This enhancement is likely driven by changes in large scale circulation patterns and surface wind fields resulting from differences in the applied ice nucleation schemes, which influence both dust emission and atmospheric transport. As a result, the K22 scheme shows an increase in ice number concentration nucleated from dust particles heterogeneously, as shown in Fig. 3c and 3d. The activated INP fraction  $\Phi$  also plays a crucial role in controlling heterogeneous nucleation. While  $\Phi$  depends on local thermodynamic conditions, such as temperature, vertical velocity, and supersaturation in the LP05 scheme, 430 the K22 scheme simplifies this dependence, with  $\Phi$  relying on supersaturation only. Differences in the treatment of  $\Phi$ , combined with elevated dust concentrations in the K22 scheme influence heterogeneous nucleation on coarse mode dust. However, since the number of coarse mode dust is limited ( $\sim 10-30 \text{ L}^{-1}$ ) in the upper troposphere (Fig. S4), even if all the dust 435 particles are nucleated heterogeneously to form ice crystals, their contribution to increased  $N_i$  will not reach the levels ( $\sim 100 \text{ L}^{-1}$ ) observed in the K22 scheme. Therefore, these factors are unlikely to explain the globally significant increase in  $N_i$  seen in the K22 scheme compared to the LP05 scheme (Fig. 2a and Fig. 2b). This also implies that competition between preexisting ice and new ice nucleation is a more dominant factor influencing the simulated  $N_i$ .

Fig. S5 and Fig. S6 show the annual mean ice number tendency due to heterogeneous nucleation ( $\Delta N_{i, \text{het}}$ ) from 6-year 440 climatology simulations, shown as zonal means (Fig. S5) and at 250 hPa (Fig. S6). Both schemes simulate  $\Delta N_{i, \text{het}}$  are concentrated at mid- and high-latitudes in the upper troposphere (Fig. S5a, b), indicating that heterogeneous nucleation is most active in these regions. High  $\Delta N_{i, \text{het}}$  values extend over land and ocean regions (Fig. S6a, b). Compared to the LP05 445 scheme, the K22 scheme simulates higher  $\Delta N_{i, \text{het}}$  values in mid and high latitude regions. This enhancement aligns with the higher coarse mode dust number in the K22\_OGW-climo experiment (Fig. S4). Both schemes show similar  $\Delta N_{i, \text{het}}$  distributions from convective detrainment between no DET and OGW experiments (Fig. S5c, d and Fig. S6 c, d), indicating that heterogeneous nucleation is not directly influenced by convective detrainment. In contrast, the no\_OGWs experiments (Fig. S5e, f and Fig. S6e, f) show pronounced reduction in  $\Delta N_{i, \text{het}}$  in the mid- and high latitudes compared to OGW 450 experiments, revealing the significant role of OGWs in enhancing heterogeneous nucleation. This effect is especially evident

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in the K22 scheme, which shows substantial  $\Delta N_{i, \text{het}}$  reductions over continental regions, especially over mountainous areas such as the Himalayas, Andes, Alps and Rockies, indicating a strong sensitivity of heterogeneous ice nucleation to OGWs. The LP05 scheme exhibits more limited changes in  $\Delta N_{i, \text{het}}$ , suggesting a weaker enhancement from OGWs. These different results between the two schemes are due to their distinct parameterizations of heterogeneous nucleation. For turbulence-induced  $\Delta N_{i, \text{het}}$  (Fig. S5 g, h and Fig. S6g, h), both the K22\_noTKE and LP05\_noTKE experiments simulate reduced  $\Delta N_{i, \text{het}}$  compared to their respective OGW-Climo experiments. This result indicates that turbulence reinforces INP activation.

Fig. S7 and Fig. S8 present the zonal mean and 250 hPa ice number tendency due to homogeneous nucleation ( $\Delta N_{i, \text{hom}}$ ).

In both schemes, homogeneous nucleation primarily occurs over high mountains in mid- and high latitudes, as well as in the tropical tropopause layers (TTL). Overall, the K22 scheme produces larger  $\Delta N_{i, hom}$  compared to LP05. The LP05 no DET-Climo experiment exhibits enhanced  $\Delta N_{i, hom}$  in the tropopause (Fig. S7c and S8c), compared to the LP05 OGW-Climo experiment, indicating that convective detrainment suppresses homogeneous nucleation in the LP05 scheme. In contrast, the K22 no DET-Climo experiment exhibits limited changes compared to the K22 OGW-Climo experiment (Fig. S7d and S8d), indicating that detrainment has a limited effect on homogeneous nucleation in the K22 scheme. Both schemes simulate significantly reduced  $\Delta N_{i, hom}$  over high mountains compared to the OGW experiments (Fig. S7e, f and S8e, f), emphasizing the role of OGWs in promoting homogeneous nucleation. Similarly, the no TKE experiments (Fig. S7g, h and S8g, h) produce reduced  $\Delta N_{i, hom}$  in the TTL for both schemes, revealing that turbulence enhances homogeneous nucleation in this region.

Further insight into the role of aerosol processes in ice nucleation is provided by the K22\_OGW\_Shan-Climo experiment, which incorporates an improved treatment of aerosol wet removal by convections based on Shan et al. (2021). In this configuration, dust aerosol concentrations are reduced due to more efficient convective scavenging (Fig. S9), particularly in convectively active low latitude regions. The resulting lower dust number concentrations lead to a reduced heterogeneous nucleation rate (Fig. S10 and S11), which can increase the homogeneous nucleation rate due to less competition from heterogeneous nucleation on dust (Fig. S10 and S11). In this case, improvements in aerosol wet removal may help optimize upper tropospheric aerosol concentrations and can leads to a general increase in  $N$  (Fig. S12).

In the K22 ice nucleation scheme, the difference in heterogeneous nucleation can be attributed to several other factors beyond changes in vertical velocity variances. These include the parameters used for the activated INP fraction,  $\Phi$ , and the dust number concentration in simulations. Both the K22 and LP05 schemes account for the activation of coarse mode dust particles for heterogeneous nucleation.

In the K22 experiments, simulated dust aerosol number concentrations tend to be higher compared to those in the LP05 experiment, as depicted in Fig. S4. This difference may stem from changes in the general circulation due to the application of different nucleation schemes. Changes in surface winds may influence dust emissions, while changes in wind fields at different altitudes can influence dust transport and deposition. The increased simulated dust aerosol number concentration in the K22 scheme results in the more ice crystals nucleated heterogeneously compared to the LP05 scheme (Fig. 3e and 3d).

In CAM6, there is an identified bias of aerosols in the upper troposphere related to the wet removal of aerosols by convections, as highlighted by Shan et al. (2021). Fig. S5 and S6 illustrate the  $N_i$  and mass-weighted number concentrations of coarse mode dust in the K22\_OGW\_Shan experiment. With improved aerosol wet removal by convections, the dust aerosol concentration in the K22\_OGW\_Shan experiment has been reduced (Fig. S6). As a result, ice crystals due to heterogeneous nucleation has decreased, leading to less suppression of homogeneous nucleation. This enhances the homogeneous nucleation, and thus leads to an increase in  $N_i$  (Fig. S5). The improved aerosol wet removal by convection based on Shan et al. (2021) appears to effectively optimize the dust number concentrations under the K22 configuration. When the ice nucleation scheme is switched from LP05 to K22, grid-averaged  $N_i$  increases in the mid- and high latitudes (Fig. S13a). Ice water content (IWC) also increases (Fig. S13b) especially over high mountains. Ice effective radius (AREI) over land tends to be smaller and AREI over ocean tends to be larger, compared to the LP05 scheme (Fig. S13c). In mid- and high latitudes, longwave cloud forcing (LWCF) is increased over high mountains, as can be seen in Fig. S13d. These changes can be explained by changes in the  $N_i$  (Fig. S13h), as the K22 scheme generally simulates more ice crystals over high mountains. Interestingly, negative LWCF can be found over oceans at mid- and high latitudes. This phenomenon is primarily associated with the dominance of optically thin cirrus clouds formed via in-situ nucleation in these regions, as previously reported (Sassen & Cho, 1992; Sassen et al., 2008; Wang et al., 1996; Winker & Wielicki, 2010). The K22 scheme tends to enhance the spatial extent and occurrence frequency of such clouds. Over oceans, where vertical

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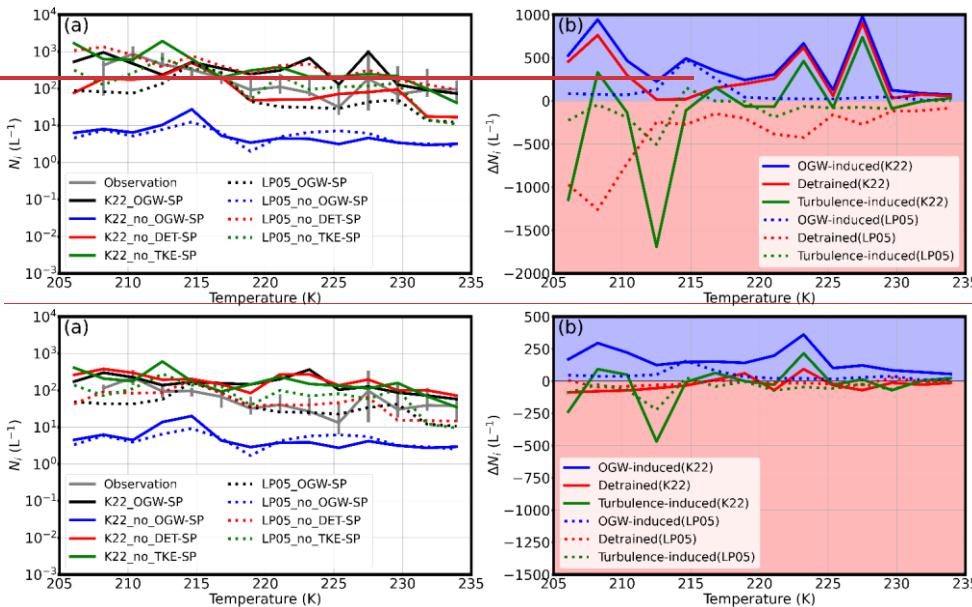
velocities are weaker than over land, these optically thin clouds become even thinner. This allows more longwave radiation to space, resulting in negative LWCF over oceans, consistent with the previous findings (Muri et al., 2014; Spang et al., 2024). Shortwave cloud forcing (SWCF) increases in mid- and high latitudes (Fig. S13e), as the shortwave albedo of extensive cirrus clouds (10-40%) is lower than that of the underlying surface (ranging from 50-80% for oceans at low solar angles and 80-90% for snow-covered land). Changes in SWCF, LWCF and net cloud forcing (net CF) caused by the switch of ice nucleation scheme is  $-0.51 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ ,  $2.95 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ , and  $2.44 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ , respectively. The change in the cloud radiative forcing may influence global temperature, which can modify large-scale circulation and sub-grid turbulence, subsequently affect ice nucleation, cloud frequency, and cloud radiative forcing, and have important implications for high cloud feedbacks (Murray & Liu, 2022).

#### 4.2 SPARTICUS Experiments

Fig. 5a presents the simulated  $N_i$  in orographic cirrus during the SPARTICUS campaign for both the LP05\_OGW-SP and K22\_OGW-SP experiments. Together with simulated microphysical properties (IWC and  $D_{\text{num}}$ ) (Fig. S7S14), both experiments-schemes produce results that roughly generally agree with observational data. However, the simulated IWC and  $N_i$  in the K22\_OGW-SP experiment tend to be larger, while  $D_{\text{num}}$  tends to be smaller, than those in compared with the LP05\_OGW-SP experiment. This suggests that the K22 scheme simulates more, but smaller ice crystals. Fig. 5b shows the differences of in simulated  $N_i$  between the reference experiments (OGW) and sensitivity experiments (no\_OGW, no\_DET and no\_TKE). Larger differences in simulated  $N_i$  between sensitivity experiments and the reference experiments indicate a more significant contribution from a respective ice crystal source (OGW-induced, detrained, or turbulence-induced). Specifically, increase or decrease of microphysical properties in the sensitivity experiments compared to the reference experiments reveals how each source contributes to enhancing or inhibits inhibiting the overall ice number concentrations.

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525 **Figure 5.** (a) Comparison of  $N_i$  between observations and experiments and (b) differences in median  $N_i$  values ( $\Delta N_i$ )  
530 between sensitivity tests (no\_OGW, no\_DET and no\_TKE) and reference experiments (OGW) in LP05 and K22  
535 schemes during the SPARTICUS campaign. In panel (a), solid lines represent median  $N_i$  values from K22  
experiments, while dotted lines represent those from LP05 experiments. The bars indicate observed  $N_i$  values,  
region indicates that the ice crystal source contributes to  $N_i$  and increases  $N_i$  in the reference experiments. The red shaded  
region indicates that the ice crystal source competes with other sources and inhibits  $N_i$  in the reference experiments.

Fig. 5b [demonstrates](#) [shows](#) that in both LP05 and K22 schemes, the changes in  $N_i$  ( $\Delta N_i$ ) due to OGWs are always  
and larger than those from the other two sources in these cirrus clouds. This indicates that OGWs [make](#) [play](#) a  
significant [role](#) [contributions](#) [in](#) [enhancing](#) the formation of ice crystals in cirrus clouds identified as orographic cirrus

540 during the observed five-days period. Particularly in regions with temperatures below 215 K, where both schemes simulate their highest  $N_i$  peaks,  $\Delta N_i$  ~~due to OGWS also~~ peaks positively at the corresponding temperatures. This suggests that OGW-induced ice crystals ~~are significant contributors to the ice crystals enhance the overall  $N_i$~~  in these cirrus clouds.

545 ~~Detrained and turbulence-induced  $\Delta N_i$  values show different signs, fluctuating between positive and negative at different temperatures, indicating that The effects of the other two sources are different are uncertain and vary between the two schemes. In the LP05 scheme, detrained and turbulence-induced  $\Delta N_i$  values are generally negative, suggesting that ice crystals from both detrainment and turbulence tend to have inhibition effects on  $N_i$ . In contrast, the K22 scheme exhibits varied signs of detrained and turbulence-induced  $\Delta N_i$  values, with stronger fluctuations between positive and negative, shows indicating that these sources can either enhance or inhibit  $N_i$ . clear contributions from detrained ice crystals and varied effects (both contribution and inhibition) from turbulence induced ice crystals. Notably, the positive  $\Delta N_i$  values in detrained and turbulence-induced ice crystals are smaller in the LP05 scheme, suggesting stronger competition (inhibition effects) between ice sources in the LP05 scheme. These differences arise from the distinct representations of competing ice sources between the two schemes.~~

550 However, in the high-temperature regions ( $T > 220$  K) shown in Fig. 5b, differences in  $\Delta N_i$  between the LP05 and K22 schemes are more pronounced. In the LP05 scheme,  $\Delta N_i$  due to turbulence and detrainment is generally negative, indicating inhibition effects on  $N_i$ . On the contrary, the K22 scheme simulates positive  $\Delta N_i$  values from these two ice sources, suggesting their contributing effects.

555 Regarding the simulated number weighted diameter of ice crystals ( $D_{num}$ ) in the LP05 and K22 experiments (Fig. ~~SS158~~ and ~~SS169~~), the no\_OGW experiments ~~generate produce~~ the largest  $D_{num}$  ~~in the among all~~ experiments. This implies that 560 ice crystals nucleated due to OGW tend to have the ~~smallest  $D_{num}$~~  in the simulations. ~~On the contrary, the smallest  $D_{num}$  in the LP05\_no\_DET\_SP experiment indicates that detrained ice crystals contributed the most to the increase in ice crystal sizes. This is consistent with the fixed diameters of 50  $\mu\text{m}$  for detrained ice crystals in the simulations. However, the K22\_no\_DET\_SP experiment does not show similar changes in  $D_{num}$  as simulated in the LP05\_no\_DET\_SP experiment. In the LP05 scheme, ice crystals from the detrainment compete for water vapor with the OGW induced small ice crystals,~~

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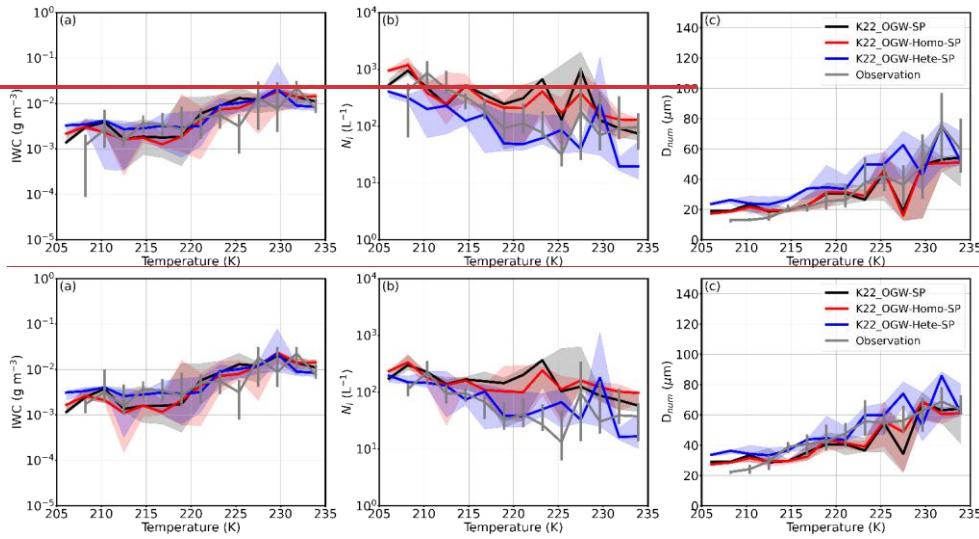
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565 which is the dominant ice source. The larger detrained ice crystals thus have more opportunity to manifest their size characteristics, increasing the overall  $D_{num}$  in the LP05\_OGW\_SP experiment. This competitive effect is evident when comparing the LP05\_OGW\_SP experiment with the sensitivity experiment without detrainment (LP05\_no\_DET\_SP), which shows a smaller  $D_{num}$ , highlighting the dominance of small, nucleated ice crystals from OGWs.

570 In contrast, in the K22 scheme, the detrained ice crystals do not face significant competition. Consequently, the “large-size” characteristics of these detrained ice crystals are less apparent between the reference experiment (K22\_OGW\_SP) and sensitivity experiment (K22\_no\_DET\_SP).

575 Fig. S7 reveals that the K22\_OGW\_SP experiment generates smaller number-weighted diameters ( $D_{num}$ ) than the LP05\_OGW\_SP experiment. The combination of smaller  $D_{num}$  and larger  $N_c$  in the K22\_OGW\_SP experiment suggests that the K22 scheme tends to produce cirrus clouds with a higher number of smaller ice crystals. This characteristic helps explain why the K22 scheme results in increased cloud frequency compared to the LP05 scheme. The above analysis of  $D_{num}$  highlights the importance of properly parameterizing detrained ice size and competition of ice for water vapor between different sources. Inappropriate settings for detrained ice size can negatively influence the microphysical properties of cirrus clouds. This is especially crucial in models where competition between detrained ice crystals and nucleated ice crystals affects the overall cloud characteristics. Ensuring that these parameters are appropriately represented is essential to 580 reproduce observed characteristics of cirrus clouds microphysics and associated climate effects.

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585 **Figure 6. Comparison of IWC (a),  $N_i$  (b) and  $D_{num}$  (c) with respect to temperature between observations and K22 sensitivity experiments (K22\_OGW, K22\_OGW-Homo-SP and K22\_OGW-Hete-SP) for orographic cirrus (5 days) during the SPARTICUS campaign.**

590 A detailed analysis of sensitivity tests with the K22 scheme for the simulations of orographic cirrus clouds has been conducted. As depicted in Fig. 6, the microphysical properties (IWC,  $N_i$  and  $D_{num}$ ) in the K22\_OGW-SP experiment closely align with those in the K22\_OGW-Homo-SP experiment. This alignment suggests that homogeneous nucleation is the dominant mechanism for simulating orographic cirrus during the SPARTICUS campaign using the K22 scheme. This finding is consistent with the results of Lyu et al. (2023) using the LP05 scheme, who also identified the homogeneous nucleation as the dominant mechanism for ice nucleation in orographic cirrus during the SPARTICUS campaign. The simulated coarse mode dust number concentrations are shown in Fig. S17, which shows higher values in the K22 scheme than those in the LP05 scheme. However, the dust concentrations are very low ( $< 1 \text{ L}^{-1}$ ) in both schemes, which supports the dominance of homogeneous nucleation for cirrus cloud formation during the SPARTICUS campaign.

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Furthermore, comparing simulation results with observations, the microphysical properties in the K22\_OGW-Hete-SP experiment show closer agreement with the observations than those in the other two experiments (Figure 6). This is largely due to the use of a 20- $\mu\text{m}$  size cut threshold, which filters out many small ice crystals typically associated with homogeneous nucleation. This interpretation is supported by the 10- $\mu\text{m}$  size cut results (Fig. S18), where the inclusion of data from the less reliable first size bin captures more small ice crystals, characteristic of homogeneous nucleation, leading to better agreement of  $D_{\text{num}}$  between observations and the K22\_OGW-Homo-SP and K22\_OGW-SP experiments. Additionally, discrepancies between the simulations and observations may stem from limitations in model representations of other microphysical processes, such as ice depositional growth, cloud ice to snow autoconversion, and accretion, and ice sedimentation.▲

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#### 605 4.3 ORCAS Experiments

In Region 1, the median values of both simulated and observed median values of IWC are typically low, ~~at around~~  $10^{-3}$  g m<sup>-3</sup>, implying that less water vapor is available for ice formation ~~in continental environments~~. The dataset used in the analysis includes 83559 data points. As shown in Fig. 7, the median values of simulated  $N_i$  generally hover around 3 L<sup>-1</sup>, which is close to the upper limit of observed  $N_i$  range. However, ~~S~~imulated  $N_i$  tends to be often overestimated, except ~~near around~~ 225 K, where they are slightly underestimated compared to observations. The simulated coarse mode dust number concentrations are presented in Fig. S19, which shows higher values with the K22 scheme compared to the LP05 scheme.▲

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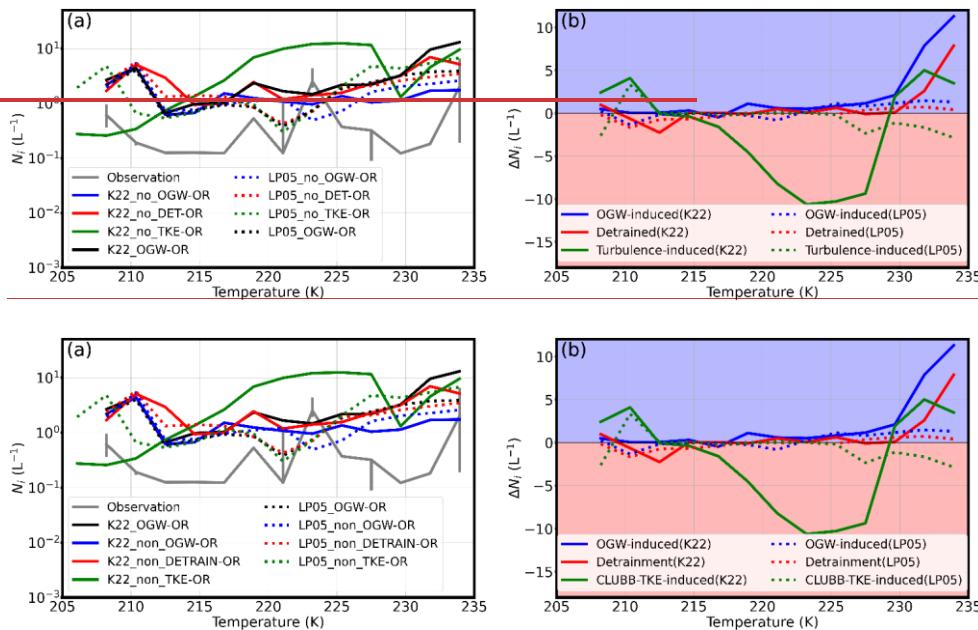


Figure 7. Same as Figure 5 but for cirrus clouds during the ORCAS campaign in Region 1.

Regarding observed  $N_i$ , as shown in Fig. 7, multiple observed  $N_i$  peaks correspond to different contributors to  $\Delta N_i$ ,

revealing that cirrus clouds exhibit multilayer structures with distinct ice sources. There are pronounced peaks in simulated  $N_i$  displays pronounced peaks above 225 K and near 210 K and high  $N_i$  values at temperatures above 225 K. At the lower altitudes, where high  $N_i$  values are observed at temperatures above 225 K, simulated both schemes simulate positive  $\Delta N_i$  values, indicating that ice crystals due to OGWs and detrainment are contribute the most the dominant contributors to simulated  $N_i$  in both the LP05 and K22 schemes. In the LP05 scheme, turbulence-induced  $\Delta N_i$  values are generally negative, implying that ice crystals from turbulence tend to suppress the overall exhibit inhibiting effects on simulated  $N_i$  in the LP05 scheme, while in contrast, in the K22 scheme, they turbulence-induced  $\Delta N_i$  values fluctuate from negative to positive show

varying effects, with suggesting inhibition between 215-230 K and contribution enhancement to simulated  $N_i$  at temperatures  $> 235$  K.

At the 210 K level, the overwhelmingly positive  $\Delta N_i$  values due to turbulence in both schemes suggest that simulated

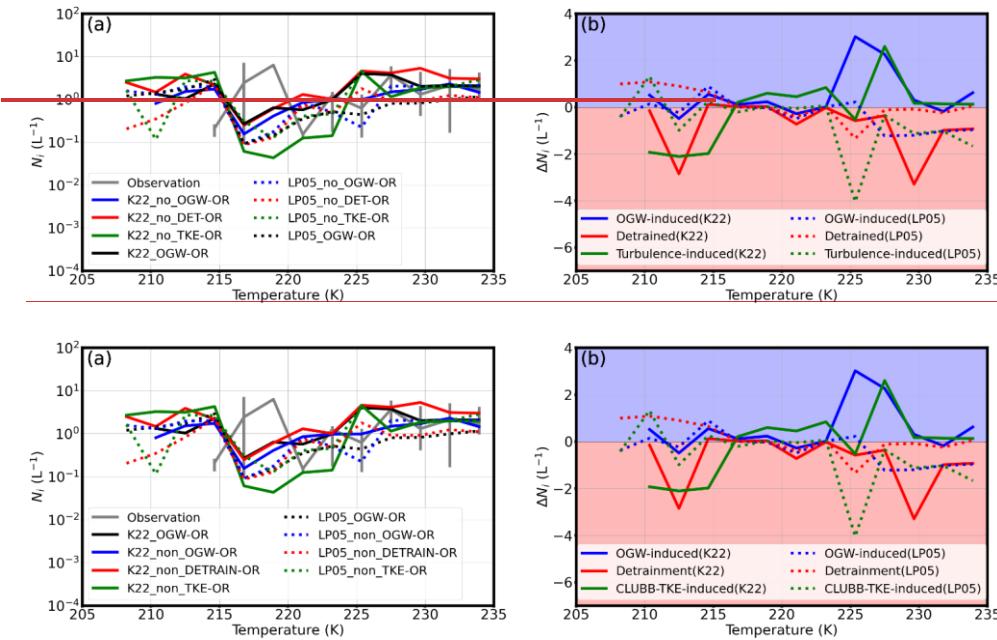
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630 turbulence-induced ice crystals due to turbulence are the primary contributors to  $N_i$  in both schemes (Fig. 7b). However, in the LP05 scheme, ice crystals  $\Delta N_i$  values due to OGWs and detrainment are negative, suggesting that OGW-induced ice crystals tend to inhibit the ice crystal formation of simulated  $N_i$ . In contrast, their impacts are minimal ( $\sim 0$ ) in the K22 scheme. In addition, both schemes simulate generally negative  $\Delta N_i$  values due to detrainment, implying that detrained ice crystals tend to suppress the following ice formation, whereas their effects are minimal in the K22 scheme.

635 At the lower levels, where high  $N_i$  values are observed at temperatures above 225 K, simulated ice crystals due to OGWs and detrainment contribute the most to simulated  $N_i$  in both the LP05 and K22 schemes. Ice crystals from turbulence exhibit inhibiting effects on simulated  $N_i$  in the LP05 scheme, while in the K22 scheme, they show varying effects, with inhibition between 215-230 K and contribution to simulated  $N_i$  at temperatures  $\geq 235$  K.

640 Region 2, located downwind of the southern end of South America and the Antarctic peninsula, features a narrow landmass extending into the sea. These high-lands create unique conditions for cirrus clouds, characterized by high vertical velocities and relatively high levels of water vapor. The dataset used in the analysis includes 146139 data points. The observed median IWC values in Region 2 remain stay close to  $10^{-2}$  g m<sup>-3</sup>, indicating a relatively moist environment over the oceans. Figure S20 shows the simulated coarse mode dust number concentrations, with the K22 scheme generally simulating higher dust concentrations compared to the LP05 scheme.

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650 **Figure 8.** Same as Figure 7 except in Region 2.

In Fig. 8a, similar to Region 1, multiple high  $N_i$  peaks again correspond to different primary  $\Delta N_i$  contributors, both observed and simulated  $N_i$  show that all experiments (OGW, no\_DET, no\_OGW and no\_TKE) successfully capture the high  $N_i$  peaks with suggesting -multilayer structures of cirrus clouds in Region 2s. For the high  $N_i$  peaks near 215 K, Near 215 K, 655 the OGW experiments in produce the both schemes simulate highest  $N_i$  peaks, that closely matching the observed magnitude observed peak near 218 K. The corresponding positive OGW-induced  $\Delta N_i$  values in both schemes (Fig. 8b) suggests that a large portion of these ice crystals contributing to these peaks are predominantly generated by from OGWs originating from by mountains and high plateaus in both the LP05 and K22 schemes. The contributions from other sources (detrainment and turbulence) differs between the two schemes. In the LP05 scheme, generally positive detrainment  $\Delta N_i$  and 660 fluctuating turbulence-induced  $\Delta N_i$  near 215K shows a preference for contributions from turbulence and detrainment suggest

an enhancement role from detrainment and a mix of enhancement and inhibition effects from turbulence, whereas in contrast, the K22 scheme exhibits negative  $\Delta N_i$  values tends to display for both sources, indicating overall the inhibition effects. These findings imply suggests that simulated the  $N_i$  peaks around 215 K are strongly related to the mountainous terrain upwind of Region 2.

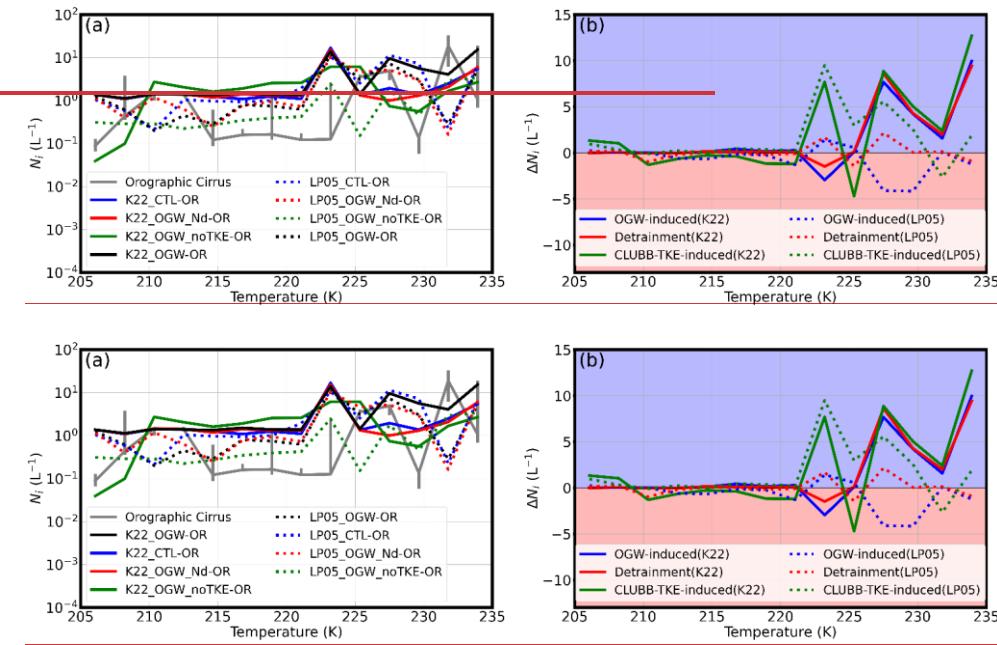
665 Notably, while the simulated  $N_i$  peaks are around 215 K, the observed  $N_i$  peak occurs around 219 K. This bias may be due to an underestimation of ice crystal fall speeds in the model, which could result from either potentially caused by the slow growth of simulated ice crystals or biases in the fall speed parameterization of ice crystal fall speed. The broader spatial distribution of ice crystals in the K22 scheme leads to stronger competition among multiple ice sources in the K22 scheme is due to the wider spread of ice crystals. In contrast, in the LP05 scheme, the OGW-induced ice crystals tend to remain 670 concentrated over mountainous areas, (as shown in Fig. 4), This resulting in a more localized effects. In the K22 scheme, however, the wider spread of the high  $N_i$  ice crystals ( $>100 \text{ L}^{-1}$ ) extends over a larger area, facilitating allows for interaction and competition among different between OGW-induced ice sources and other ice sources, even far at greater distances from the mountainous regions.

In the lower part of cirrus clouds below the 225 K level ( $T > 225\text{K}$ ), negative  $\Delta N_i$  values of all three ice crystal sources 675 in the LP05 scheme suggest show universal competition in the LP05 scheme among these sources. In contrast, in the K22 scheme shows less competition among these sources only detrained  $\Delta N_i$  values are negative, suggesting inhibition effects, while  $\Delta N_i$  values from OGWs and turbulence are positive. In the K22 scheme suggesting, ice crystals due to OGWs and turbulence enhancement effects contribute positively to simulated  $N_i$ , and only detrained ice crystals exhibit inhibition effects. The fact that no  $\Delta N_i$  values from a single source are overall positive in both schemes may suggest that Both schemes fail to 680 simulate the same the dominant ice source is missing from the model, indicating the absence of dominant ice sources in these simulations. Previous studies have shown highlighted the importance of additional ice nucleation sources, that frontal waves such as frontal gravity waves, in are important dynamic factors for the cirrus formation over oceans, and identified while crucial INPs including dust, metallic particles, soot and biological materials (Fan et al., 2016; Froyd et al., 2022; Heymsfield et al., 2017; Kärcher & Ström, 2003; Knopf & Alpert, 2023). However, in CAM6, however, frontal only 685 OGWs gravity waves are not included in the ice nucleation processes, and only coarse mode dust is considered as INPs. In

addition, other important  $N_i$  source and sink processes, such as secondary ice production, ice sublimation and sedimentation should be examined. Future studies are therefore necessary to incorporate these potential missing ice dynamic and microphysical sources into the model to improve simulations of cirrus clouds over oceanic regions.

In Region 3, the observed median IWC median-values are even higher than those in Region 2, with maximum values  
690 reaching up to  $10^{-1}$  g m<sup>-3</sup>. This suggests a water vapor-rich environment for cirrus clouds in this region. There are 111712 data points used in the analysis. In addition, the observed  $N_i$  displays multiple high  $N_i$  peaks with different primary contributors reveal multilayer structures of cirrus clouds, similar to Regions 1 and 2 (Fig. 9). Simulated coarse mode dust number concentrations from both schemes are compared in Fig. S21, showing that the K22 scheme simulates much higher dust concentrations than the LP05 scheme.

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700 **Figure 9.** Same as Figure 7 except in Region 3.

In higher-level cirrus clouds ( $T < 220$  K), both simulated and observed median  $N_i$  median values are small, typically less than  $1 \text{ L}^{-1}$ . This indicates weak vertical wind speeds in the oceanic environment. At the cloud top, ice crystals due to turbulence make the most contributions to the simulated  $N_i$  peaks when  $T < 210$  K in both schemes (Fig. 9b). 705 However, the simulated  $N_i$  in both schemes shows poor agreement with observations, suggesting This discrepancy may result from the inability of the model to capture the realistic dynamic factors necessary for realistic ice nucleation, such as gravity waves (Gasparini et al., 2023; Kärcher & Podglajen, 2019). The absence of actual observed ice sources in the simulation points to potentially missing dynamic factors, such as frontal gravity waves or convective gravity waves, which are likely key drivers of responsible for ice nucleation under these conditions. At

710 low temperature levels ( $T < 209$  K), both schemes exhibit positive turbulence-induced  $\Delta N_i$  values, suggesting that ice crystals due to turbulence make the most contribution to  $N_i$  at these cold temperatures (Fig. 9b).

In the lower levels of cirrus clouds ( $T > 227$  K), most of high simulated  $N_i$  values peaks are occur in the lower levels of cirrus ( $T > 223$  K) (Fig. 9a). At these temperatures, turbulence-induced  $\Delta N_i$  values are mostly positive and generally exceed OGW-induced and detrained  $\Delta N_i$  values in both schemes, suggesting Both schemes simulate strong contributions enhancement of  $N_i$  from turbulence-induced ice crystals. However, OGW-induced and detrained  $\Delta N_i$  values differ between the two schemes, but they differ in the effects of ice sources due to OGWs and detrainment. In the K22 scheme, positive OGW-induced and detrained  $\Delta N_i$  values The K22 schemes suggest simulates a significant greater contribution enhancements to  $N_i$  from ice crystals due to OGWs and detrainment. In contrast, while the LP05 scheme shows large variability, with OGW-induced and detrained  $\Delta N_i$  values the LP05 scheme fluctuating between positive and negative, indicating provides more varied more complex and varied effects from these ice sources in the simulations.

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4.4 Numerous studies have demonstrated that turbulence from CLUBB-TKE can hardly predict perturbations from gravity waves (Golaz et al., 2002a, 2002b; Huang et al., 2020). To accurately simulate cirrus clouds over oceans in Region 3, it is necessary to incorporate representations of other key dynamic drivers for ice nucleation, such as frontal and convective gravity waves. It is also important to incorporate key INPs (e.g., marine organic aerosols) besides mineral dust into ice nucleation schemes. Other source and sink terms beyond ice nucleation, such as secondary ice production, ice sublimation, and sedimentation, may also play a significant role in influencing the  $N_i$  evolution over oceans.

Numerous studies have demonstrated that turbulence from CLUBB-TKE can hardly predict perturbations from gravity waves (Golaz et al., 2002a, 2002b; Huang et al., 2020). Consequently, ice crystals generated by turbulence and from convective detrainment fail to account for critical ice sources over oceans, especially those associated with gravity waves such as frontal and convective gravity waves. To accurately simulate cirrus clouds over oceans, it is necessary to incorporate representations of these key dynamic factors driving ice nucleation.

To improve the model's performance in simulating cirrus microphysical properties over oceans, it is also important to 735 incorporate key INPs into ice nucleation schemes. Previous studies have shown that heterogeneous nucleation plays a significant role over oceans, with mineral dust and metallic particles acting as important INPs (Czezo et al., 2013; Froyd et al., 2022). Furthermore, soot and biological materials have also been identified (Fan et al., 2016). Including these aerosols may improve the simulation of cirrus clouds by the model.

#### 4.54.4 Implication of different behaviours in ice sources with the two nucleation schemes

740 Both K22 and LP05 schemes can effectively simulate the ice nucleation as thea dominant ice sources in orographic cirrus clouds, but though they show exhibit different influenceeffects from the minor ice sources on simulated high- $N_i$ . For instance, in orographic cirrus, bIn both schemes, simulate OGW-induced ice crystals emerge as the dominant contributors, while detrained and turbulence-induced ice crystals show varying effects as minor ice sources. This distinction is useful to identify cirrus types observed during the flight campaigns. Since both schemes can simulate orographic cirrus clouds, we use these clouds observedTo test this method, we identify orographic cirrus clouds during the SPARTICUS campaign by examining cases where OGW-induced ice source dominates in the simulations and the simulated  $N_i$  aligns closely with observations in both schemes, as a case study to test this method.

The flight dates when OGW induce ice sources dominate in the simulations and the simulated  $N_i$  aligns closely with 750 observations include This analysis yields 16 such flight days: January 26, 27, February 10, 17, 19, 20, March 14, 17, 19, 30, April 1, 11, 12, 19, 28, and 29. Among these days, 5 days (March 19, 30, April 1, 28 and 29) correspond to previously identified orographic cirrus events reported by Our method successfully identifies the orographic cirrus observed by Muhlbauer, Ackerman, et al. (2014). Oographic cirrus, referred to as ridge-crest cirrus in their study, are identified on: March 19, 30, April 1, 28 and 29. During these days, OGW-induced ice crystals are the dominant ice sources. Furthermore, we expanded our identification to include 16 days of flight, compared to the 5 days in Muhlbauer, Ackerman, et al. (2014). This By expanding the previously identified orographic cirrus days, extension increases the number of available data points increases from 6236 to 15454, thereby enhancingmaking the results more convincing robustness and credibility of our analysis.

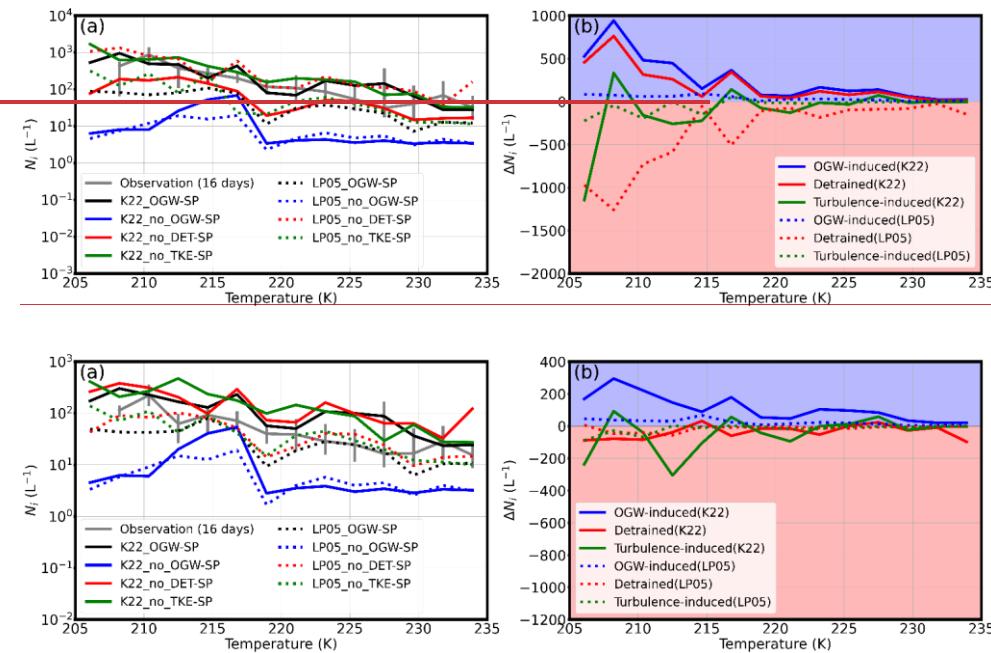


Figure 10. Same as Figure 5 except for identified orographic cirrus by our approach (16 days of flights).

Fig. 10 illustrates the microphysical properties of identified orographic cirrus over the 16-day period using our

765 approach. Both schemes simulate  $N_i$  values that are in reasonable agreement with the observations. The  $N_i$  values in K22\_OGW-SP experiment are generally larger than those in the LP05\_OGW-SP experiment, while the observed  $N_i$  values fluctuate between these two simulations (Fig. 10a). The K22\_OGW-SP experiment shows better agreement with observations at specific temperature levels ( $T \sim 210$  K,  $\sim 220$  K, and  $>230$  K), while the LP05\_OGW-SP experiment performs better at  $T \sim 215$  K and  $\sim 225$  K. The K22 scheme shows good agreement with observations for these cirrus clouds and the LP05 scheme produces reasonable results within or near the observed range. The positive OGW-induced  $\Delta N_i$  values in both schemes suggest that OGW-induced ice crystals are the dominant contributors to  $N_i$  in during these 16 days of cirrus

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clouds (Fig. 10b). ~~This indicates that our~~ These findings demonstrate that our method is effective and provides a reliable method to distinguish orographic cirrus in flight campaigns.

775 ~~However, the simulated  $N_i$  in the LP05\_OGW-SP experiment for 16-day orographic cirrus is underestimated compared to the observations. This discrepancy is largely attributed to the inappropriate size settings for detrained ice crystals, which lead to a higher number of simulated detrained ice crystals over these 16 days. As we discussed in Section 4.2, the stronger competition in the LP05 scheme causes the simulated microphysical properties of cirrus clouds to be more sensitive to biases in other ice sources. Correcting these biases in the simulation would resolve the underestimations of  $N_i$  in the LP05 scheme. A comparison between results using a 20  $\mu\text{m}$  size cut (Figs. 5, 6 and 10) and those using a 10  $\mu\text{m}$  size cut (Figs. S18, S22 and S23) reveals that the observed  $N_i$  values decrease significantly when transitioning from the 10  $\mu\text{m}$  to the 20  $\mu\text{m}$  threshold. This reduction is because the concentration of ice crystals in the first size bin (5 – 15  $\mu\text{m}$ ) is significantly higher than those in subsequent larger bins, often dominating the total ice concentration (Jensen et al., 2013; Mitchell et al., 2024).~~  
780 ~~Despite this decrease, OGW-induced ice crystals consistently remain the dominant contributor to total  $N_i$ . This consistency suggests that key signatures of homogeneous freezing are preserved across the two size thresholds, reinforcing robustness of our approach for identifying orographic cirrus clouds. Previous studies have highlighted that  $N_i$  in the first size bin (5 – 15  $\mu\text{m}$ ) measured by 2D-S probes may overestimate ice number concentrations (Jensen et al., 2013; Mitchell et al., 2024). Interestingly, the K22\_OGW-SP experiment aligns closely with the observed  $N_i$  using the 10  $\mu\text{m}$  size cut (Figs. S18, S22 and S23), potentially suggesting an overestimation of  $N_i$  in the K22 scheme. However, this interpretation remains uncertain without more reliable measurements on small ice crystals.~~

790 **5. Summary and Conclusions**

This study compares the newly introduced K22 ice nucleation scheme with the default LP05 ice nucleation scheme in the NCAR CAM6 model. The K22 scheme accounts for homogeneous nucleation, heterogeneous nucleation, their interactions, and competition with pre-existing ice. To investigate sources of ice crystals in cirrus clouds, we conduct ~~six~~-year climatology simulations, ~~considering with a focus on~~ the effects of OGWs on ice nucleation. Additionally, nudged

795 experiments are performed for the SPARTICUS and ORCAS flight campaigns to further compares the two ice nucleation schemes. In all simulations, coarse mode dust is considered as the sole INPs.

In the ~~six~~6-year climatology experiments, the K22\_OGW-Climo experiment shows an increase in grid-mean  $N_i$  compared to the LP05\_OGW-Climo experiment. Ice crystals detrained from convection are concentrated in low and mid-latitudes, while those formed due to OGWs are concentrated in mid- and high latitudes. Ice crystals due to turbulence are 800 concentrated in low and mid-latitudes. Notably, homogeneous nucleation plays an important role in the global contribution to the total number of nucleated ice crystals.

The increase in ~~homogeneously~~-nucleated ice numbers in the K22 scheme compared to the LP05 scheme can be attributed to both direct and indirect reasons. The direct reason ~~relates to differences lies in their different assumptions of treating the in the competition parameterization between pre-existing ice the K22 and LP05 schemes nucleated ice crystals. To calculate the number of homogeneously nucleated ice crystals, the K22 scheme uses quenching speeds derived from the reduction of supersaturation caused by pre-existing ice crystals. The K22 scheme emphasizes the dynamic interplay between supersaturation, aerosol concentrations and pre-existing ice, allowing homogeneous nucleation, heterogeneous nucleation and the growth of pre-existing ice crystals to occur simultaneously.~~ In contrast, the LP05 scheme ~~is based on an empirical framework that favors a specific nucleation pathway. In the LP05 scheme, heterogeneous nucleation is favored at low supersaturation and high INP concentrations, while homogeneous nucleation dominates at high supersaturations. Pre-existing ice crystals consume supersaturation before new ice nucleation can occur. compares the number of pre-existing ice crystals to the theoretical number of homogeneously nucleated ice crystals in the absence of pre-existing ice. This may results in a stronger more frequent competition in the LP05 scheme, suppressing homogeneous nucleation.~~

The indirect reason ~~arises from is related to~~ the increase in ice number concentrations within the K22 scheme, which 815 ~~appears to~~ leads to higher cloud frequency. This ~~is can be because due to the presence of~~ smaller ice crystals in the K22 scheme, ~~which have lower fall speeds have longer lifetimes~~, allowing them to travel over broader regions ~~before completely sublimated. Changes An increase~~ in cloud frequency ~~may~~ induce changes in global temperature, ~~which in turn potentially affecting turbulence and global circulation. Altered circulation dynamics influence the~~ subgrid-scale vertical velocity

820 variance associated with ice nucleation, thereby impacting ice formationnucleation. However, these factors are not the key factors that cause the significant increase in  $N_c$ .

In addition, the global increase in coarse mode dust concentrations leads to a higher number of heterogeneously nucleated ice crystals. However, improved aerosol wet removal parameterization due to convection can mitigate this effect by reducing the concentration of coarse mode dust in the upper troposphere.

825 The nudged experiments conducted during the SPARTICUS flight campaign specifically focus on orographic cirrus clouds. The K22\_OGW-SP experiment generates microphysical properties comparable to those of the LP05\_OGW-SP experiment, with both aligning wellreasonable with observational data. However, the K22\_OGW-SP experiment tends to produce a higher number of smaller ice crystals compared to the LP05\_OGW-SP experiment. Both the LP05 and K22 schemes identify OGWs as the dominant ice crystal source in orographic cirrus clouds observed during SPARTICUS, but the LP05 scheme exhibits greater competition from detrainment and turbulence sources than the K22 scheme. In addition, the 830 K22\_OGW-SP experiment simulates homogeneous nucleation as the dominant mechanism in orographic cirrus formation.

The ORCAS flight campaign is used to further evaluate the simulation results for both the K22 and LP05 schemes. Due to instrument limitations in measuring ice crystals, 2D-C probes are utilized during the ORCAS campaign, allowing forproviding reliable observations of large-size ice crystal the microphysical properties of large-size ice crystal ( $D_{\text{num}} \geq 62.5\mu\text{m}$ ). To better evaluate the results, the flight data is divided into three regions, are divided. Region 1 encompasses 835 flights over high mountains, while Regions 2 and 3 cover flights mostly over oceans, greatly influenced by moist conditions. Region 2, located downwind of the Andes Mountains and high plateaus in Antarctic, is also affected by orographic cirrus clouds, which impact the observed cloud microphysical properties.

840 The overall microphysical properties in these three regions are not well represented in the OGW experiments for both the K22 and LP05 schemes compared to observations. This discrepancy arises because the model struggles to simulate the dominant ice sources over oceanic regions. It underscores the importance of incorporating the dominant ice sources into the model to effectively reproduce the observed characteristics of cirrus clouds.

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The differences in moisture availability and dynamic environmental conditions between land and ocean result in distinct cloud microphysical behaviours and ice nucleation processes, resulting in unique characteristics of cirrus clouds in these two environments.

845 Over land, particularly in mountainous regions, the air is relatively dry, leading to low observed and simulated IWC. However, the high vertical velocities provided by mountains foster favourable conditions for homogeneous nucleation, which often becomes the dominant nucleation mechanism in orographic cirrus clouds. These clouds can exhibit high ice number concentrations and reach very high altitudes. Consequently, incorporating OGWs in ice nucleation processes allows the model to better simulate cirrus clouds over land.

850 In contrast, over oceans, the atmosphere is rich in water vapor, resulting in high observed IWC. However, the lack of vertical velocity sources in the upper troposphere over oceans results in heterogeneous nucleation being the dominant mechanism. Ice crystals due to gravity waves, such as frontal and convective gravity waves, can be important ice sources in these regions. In addition, some critical INPs are absent in current ice nucleation schemes. As a result, the model performs poorly in simulating cirrus clouds over oceans. To address the absence of crucial ice sources in these simulations, further 855 studies should incorporate additional dynamic factors, such as frontal gravity waves and convective gravity waves, as well as other types of INPs.

860 In conclusion, an accurate representation of the competition mechanism in the ice nucleation scheme is crucial, particularly for the interactions between pre-existing and newly nucleated ice crystals, as these interactions can significantly influence the simulated microphysical properties of cirrus clouds. While many studies primarily focus on the dominant ice sources, minor sources are often overlooked. However, our studies suggest that minor ice sources may also influence cloud microphysical properties through competition mechanisms between pre-existing and newly nucleated ice crystals. Understanding these dynamics is essential for accurately simulating the behaviours and characteristics of cirrus clouds under different atmospheric conditions.

865 Moreover, distinguishing ice crystal sources has long posed a significant challenge in the study of cirrus clouds. The different behaviours between dominant and minor ice sources in high  $N_c$  regions with the K22 and LP05 schemes provide a reasonable method for distinguishing identifying cirrus cloud types in observations, especially for particularly orographic

cirrus. By applying this method to categorize orographic cirrus in the SPARTICUS campaign, we identify 16 flight days of flight during which OGW-induced ice source dominates the ice formation, with no significant underestimation bias of  $N_i$  in either scheme. These selected flights exhibit reasonable agreement in microphysical properties with 870 observations, proving that this method is effective for distinguishing orographic cirrus from observations.

Furthermore, our comparison between simulated cirrus clouds with observations highlights the need for refining the model representation of key processes governing cirrus cloud evolution. They including detrainment, ice crystal growth (ice deposition and accretion), secondary ice production, sublimation, and ice crystal sedimentation. Differences in moisture availability and dynamic conditions between land and ocean also may lead to distinct cloud microphysical behaviors, 875 resulting in unique cirrus cloud characteristics across these regions. Over land, particularly in mountainous regions, strong vertical velocities induced by mountains create favourable conditions for homogeneous ice nucleation, which often becomes the dominant nucleation mechanism in orographic cirrus clouds. In contrast, over oceans, the scarcity of strong vertical velocity sources in the upper troposphere over oceans results in heterogeneous nucleation being the prevailing nucleation mechanism. We note (Yook et al., 2025) that other critical INPs (such as black carbon, metallic particles, biological materials) 880 besides mineral dust are not currently represented in ice nucleation schemes (Lin et al., 2025). Further studies should also consider incorporating additional dynamic processes, such as frontal and convective gravity waves (Yook et al., 2025). In addition to gravity waves, uncertainties in the representation of other drivers of ice sources, such as turbulence and convective detrainment, should be reduced. Recent incorporations of convective cloud microphysics in deep convection (Lin et al., 2021; Song & Zhang, 2011) should help to reduce the uncertainty in detrained ice properties. Further evaluations of 885 the K22 scheme based on model climatology will be conducted by comparing modelled cirrus with regional observational datasets (Krämer et al., 2016; Krämer et al., 2020) and global satellite data (Lyu et al., 2023).

Over land, particularly in mountainous regions, the air is relatively dry, leading to low observed and simulated IWC. However, the high vertical velocities provided by mountains foster favourable conditions for homogeneous nucleation, 890 which often becomes the dominant nucleation mechanism in orographic cirrus clouds. These clouds can exhibit high ice

number concentrations and reach very high altitudes. Consequently, incorporating OGWs in ice nucleation processes allows the model to better simulate cirrus clouds over land.

**Code and data availability.** For readers interested in replicating specific aspects of our study, we encourage them to 895 contact the corresponding authors of the cited papers for access to the underlying code and data.

**Author contributions.** KL: incorporated K22 scheme into CAM6, conducted simulations, analyzed results, wrote the article; XL: provided guidance, reviewed the manuscript; BK: provided K22 nucleation parameterization and reviewed the manuscript.

**Competing interests.** At least one of the (co-)authors is a member of the editorial board of *Atmospheric Chemistry of Physics*.

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