Supplement File

2	Machine learning significantly improves the simulation of hourly-to-
3	yearly scale cloud nuclei concentration and radiative forcing in
4	polluted atmosphere
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Data and Methods

1. Study area

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In the present study, a region over North China Plain (NCP) with latitudes ranging from 32° to 40°N and longitudes ranging from 114° to 121°E is chosen as the study area for the following reasons. Firstly, being one of the most polluted areas in China, properties of aerosol particles are more complex and diverse, which further contribute to potentiality cloud concentration nuclei (CCN) concentrations with high uncertain. Especially in recent years, emissions of gas pollutants and fine particles have shown a significant downward trend year by year due to the implementation of the vigorous emission reduction. There is a pressing need to quantitatively understand the characteristics of CCN activity in the study area from the point of view of assessment of the climate effect of aerosols. Secondarily, more observation data covering several stations in NCP before would help to validate the predictability of random forest (RF) model. The campaigns covered three summer and three winter months, and involved years from 2014 to 2018. The spatial-temporal scale is diverse, and the pollution degree (eg., PM_{2.5} mass concentration) is also different, which would be more conducive to verify the accuracy of the model.

2. WRF-Chem model

WRF-Chem version 4.1.5 is used to simulate N_{CCN} in this study (Grell et al., 2005), which nested a domain in 10 km×10 km covering the entire North China Plain (Fig. S1) and contained 181×170 grids. The simulation period is from January 1, 2014 to December 31, 2018, and the simulation was conducted month by month with the time resolution of hourly data, with the first 48 hours as spin-up. The physical parameterizations employed in this study include Morrison 2-monment scheme (Morrison et al., 2009), RRTMG short-wave and long-wave radiation scheme (Iacono et al., 2008), Grell 3-D cumulus scheme (Grell et al., 2002), Yonsei University boundary layer scheme and Noah land surface model (Hong et al., 2006). The Carbon Bond Mechanism Z photochemical mechanism and 4-bin sectional Model for Simulating Aerosol Interactions and Chemistry (MOSAIC) aerosol model with aqueous chemistry are chosen in this study (Zaveri et al., 1999, 2008). We also compared the simulation using the Regional Acid Deposition Model (Stockwell et al., 1990) and the Lin microphysics scheme (Lin et al., 1983). Considering the calculation efficiency and accuracy with the measurements, the CBMZ-MOSAIC and Morrison 2-monment scheme were applied to simulate the long-term CCN concentration. The simulated $N_{\rm CCN}$ is as one of the input parameters of the machine learning model which has been trained and validated with field observational dataset obtained at the sites in this region. The initial meteorological variables are provided from the National Center for

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The initial meteorological variables are provided from the National Center for Environmental Prediction's Final Operational Global (NCEP/FNL) datasets. The horizontal resolution of the reanalysis data was $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$, and the temporal resolution was 6 h. The initial and boundary chemical conditions are from the Community Atmosphere Model with Chemistry model (Buchholz et al., 2019). The anthropogenic emissions are from Multi resolution Emission Inventory for China with a horizontal resolution of $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$ and a temporal resolution of monthly data (Zheng

et al., 2018), corresponding to the years 2014-2018. The biological and biomass 71 emissions are taken from the Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature 72 73 and the Fire Inventory from NCAR, respectively.

3. Auxiliary data

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The auxiliary data used here includes the chemical compositions of PM_{2.5}, gaseous 76 pollutants, and meteorological elements. Detailed information was listed in Table S1. Chemical components were adopted from Tsinghua University TAP (Tracking Air 77 Pollution in China) dataset (Geng et al., 2021). Gas pollutants were collected from the 78 China National Environmental Monitoring Centre network, including NO₂, SO₂, CO, 79 O₃ and PM_{2.5} observed up to 378 monitoring sites in NCP. The fifth generation 80 European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts reanalysis (ERA-5) data is used 81 for the meteorological inputs with the temporal resolution of 1 h and spatial resolution 82 of 0.25°×0.25°, including temperature, relative humidity (RH), total precipitation (TP), 83 wind speed (WS), wind direction (WD), boundary layer height (BL), surface pressure 84 (SP) and surface net solar radiation (SNSR). 85 Cartesian coordinates are added to the characteristic parameters due to the 86 information of space-time scale involved. Time information is usually expressed as the 87 day of the year (DOY). This representation does not reflect seasonality because the first 88 and last days of the year are in winter, but DOY values vary widely. To solve this 89

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$$t_x = \cos(2\pi \frac{DOY}{T}), \ t_y = \sin(2\pi \frac{DOY}{T});$$
 (1)

problem, convert the days of the year DOY into a Cartesian coordinate system:

here t_x , t_y are Cartesian coordinates and T is the total number of days in a year. Based on the equation, DOY can be normalized to the interval $[0\ 2\pi]$ and further converted to polar coordinates. Similar methods have also been widely used to process time information in machine learning model construction (Yang et al., 2022; Wei et al., 2023). Spatial information is generally given in polar coordinates of latitude and longitude, which is not applicable to the representation of distance due to uneven changes in polar coordinates (Gates et al., 1962). The Cartesian coordinate system can realize uniform changes in values, so the longitude and latitude information of the state control station is converted to Cartesian coordinate system as the characteristic parameter input model. The specific transformation formula is as follows:

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$$g_x = Rsin\theta cos\varphi, \ g_y = Rsin\varphi, \ g_z = Rcos\theta cos\varphi;$$
 (2)

where φ is the latitude, θ is the longitude, and R is the radius of the earth.

To construct the training test, we defined spatiotemporal match criteria that match the auxiliary variables with simulated CCN values into daily resolution and resampled into monitoring sites for consistency.

4. Random forest regression model

In this study, the random forest regression model (RFRM) is trained to derive $N_{\rm CCN}$ at typical atmospheric supersaturations 0.2% and 0.4%. It has been proved to understand the dependence of the outputs on its predictors well, which is due to the randomly in the set of decision trees as well as in the subset of training data for decision trees (Liang et al., 2022). Detailed feature variables and target parameters are described below. Eighteen variables of atmospheric state and chemical composition are selected

as the input features, including mass concentrations of particle matter smaller than 2.5 µm, organic matter, sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, black carbon, 2 m temperature, relative humidity, wind speed, wind direction, boundary layer, surface pressure, total precipitation, surface net solar radiation, and concentrations of NO₂, SO₂, CO, O₃. The spatiotemporal information is provided to the training model based on the cartesian coordinates (Yang et al., 2022). The target variable is provided by the simulation from WRF-Chem (Section 2). All the aforementioned species data (feature and target variables) were processed to match the same spatiotemporal resolution, and then split into 7:3 ratio for model training and testing.

Based on the previous studies reported (Nair et al., 2020), the optimization parameters of RF model were preliminary examination by varying hyperparameters (Fig. S2). The general 10-fold cross-validation is adopted (Wei et al., 2023). Cross-validation (CV) results showed that when the number of trees (n_estimators) was less than 200, the prediction accuracy increased rapidly with the increase of the number of trees, and then gradually stabilized. According to the selection parameter of CV score and the number of data sample, the number of trees was set to 500 in this study. The impact of max depth on the CV score is shown as that with the increase of depth, the accuracy of the model moves to the right, that is, the complexity of the model increases. Thus, the value of the max depth here is set to 28. The larger the minimum sample number of the leaf and the minimum sample number of the branch node, the larger the model generalization error, indicating that the model itself is close to the optimal model complexity level. Here a higher value was set based on the default value given the large

sample size. The influence of the selection of the maximum selection feature number on CV score showed a trend of increasing first and then decreasing, so the maximum value of CV curve was set to 16.

In order to assess the predictability for $N_{\rm CCN}$ based on machine learning technique, six field campaigns of $N_{\rm CCN}$ was used to compare with the outputs from retrieval models. Further details about in situ observations are in Sect. 5. The quality metrics for model performance are based on the correlation coefficient (R^2), root mean square error (RMSE) and the slope of the predicted and the observed CCN concentrations. Based on the features and parameters selected above, CCN concentration retrieval model is constructed.

5. Ground-level CCN measurements

Six campaigns were used to validate the predictability accuracy, from November 8 to November 30, 2014, August 20 to October 6, 2015, November 16 to December 20, 2016, May 28 to May 27, 2017 at Beijing (BJ) site, from May 17 to June 14 at Xingtai (XT) site, from January 23 to February 3, 2018 at Gucheng (GC) site. The BJ site (Lon, 116.37° E; Lat, 39.97°N) is located at the meteorological tower station of Institute of Atmospheric Physics, Chinese Academy of Sciences. It can represent the general emission situation in urban areas of the northern part of the NCP. The main pollution sources are the surrounding traffic and residential emissions here. The observation at XT site (Lon, 114.37° E; Lat, 37.18°N) is located at a national weather station. It is mainly affected by the emission of surrounding towns and factories (such as coal power, coking, steel, cement, chemical industry, etc.), thus can reflect the polluted suburban

conditions of the southern part of the NCP. The GC site (Lon, 115.74° E, Lat, 39.15° N) is located at the integrated ecological-meteorological observation and experiment station of the Chinese Academy of Meteorological Sciences. This site is mainly surrounded by the nearby villages, farmland, and transportation network, which can reflect the regional background pollution of the northern part of the NCP. Details about the observations could be found in Fan et al. (2020), Ren et al. (2018), and Zhang et al. (2019). Overall, observations at these sites could represent the average polluted and background conditions in the NCP.

The CCN number concentrations were measured by using the Droplet Measurement Technologies CCN counter (model CCNC-100, DMT Inc. Lance et al., 2006) at BJ and XT site. The supersaturation (S) levels set for each CCN measurement cycle were 0.07%, 0.1%, 0.2%, 0.4%, and 0.8%, respectively. Another measurement at GC site was referred from Zhang et al. (2020). In this study, the comparisons between the measured and predicted $N_{\rm CCN}$ were mostly based on the value at S=0.2% and S=0.4%.

6. Evaluation of the aerosol indirect effects

Atmospheric particles acting as cloud condensation nuclei could alter the cloud-rain interactions and further have impact on the climate change. The methods for evaluating the cloud and radiative properties caused by the deviations of CCN concentrations output from WRF-Chem simulation and random forest technique was refereed from Wang et al. 2019 and Wang et al. 2008.

179 As for the first indirect effect, the cloud optical thickness (τ) and single scatter 180 albedo coefficient (ω_0) are the crucial estimators and can be calculated as:

$$\tau \approx \frac{3}{2}Wr_e^{-1} \tag{3}$$

$$1 - \omega_0 = 1.7 k_w r_e \tag{4}$$

183 where W means the liquid water path, $k_{\rm w}$ is the complex part of the refractive index of 184 water, $r_{\rm e}$ is the effective radius of cloud droplets and can be expressed by:

$$r_e = \beta \left(\frac{3LWC}{4\pi\rho_w N_C}\right)^{1/3} \tag{5}$$

where LWC is the liquid water content in cloud, β is the scaling factor. Here, we mainly focused on the response of cloud droplet effective radius to the change of cloud droplet number concentration N_c , so β is assumed to be constant (Quaas et al., 2004). Cloud number concentration can be calculated based on the N_{CCN} -SS parameterizations in many climate models (Fan et al., 2012). Note that the power relationship between the r_c and N_c referred from the previous observations is only an approximate relationship (Garrett et al., 2004).

For evaluating second aerosol indirect forcing, it is critical to estimate the relevant variables associated with the cloud-rain process. The parameterizations of the cloud-to-rain conversion process can be expressed by conversion threshold function (*TA*):

$$TA = \left[\frac{\int_{r_c}^{\infty} r^6 n(r) dr}{\int_0^{\infty} r^6 n(r) dr} \right] \left[\frac{\int_{r_c}^{\infty} r^3 n(r) dr}{\int_0^{\infty} r^3 n(r) dr} \right]$$
 (6)

where r is the cloud droplet radius, n(r) is the size distribution of the cloud droplet (here refereed from Wang et al. 2019 to evaluate). According to the Liu et al. (2004), the critical radius of the auto-conversion process r_c can be expressed by

$$r_c \approx 4.09 \times 10^{-4} \beta_{con}^{1/6} \frac{N_c^{1/6}}{LWC^{1/3}}$$
 (7)

where β_{con} is a fixed parameter of 1.15×10^{23} s⁻¹ (Liu et al., 2004). Here, the focus is mainly on the effect of the ΔN_{CCN} between WRF-Chem and RF model on the aerosol indirect effects in our research.

We also evaluate the perturbation of cloud radiative forcing due to the uncertainty in CCN concentration estimated from machine learning (RFRM) and numerical model (WRF-Chem). Here under the assumption of the fixed liquid water volume, an approximate analytical expression for estimating the cloud radiative of the change in N_{CCN} as follows (Charlson et al, 1992; Wang et al., 2008):

$$\Delta F_C \approx -\frac{F_T}{4} A_{mst} T_r^2 \Delta R_C \approx -2.2 \times \Delta \ln N_{CCN}$$
 (8)

$$\Delta R_C = \frac{1}{3} [R_C (1 - R_C)] \times \Delta ln N_d \approx 0.075 \times \Delta ln N_d$$
 (9)

$$\Delta lnN_d \approx 0.5 \times \Delta lnN_{CCN} \tag{10}$$

where ΔF_c is the uncertainty in cloud radiative forcing, F_T is the solar constant, A_{mst} is the cloud fractional coverage, T_r is the fractional transmission of shortwave radiation above the cloud layer, ΔR_c is the uncertainty in cloud albedo, N_d is the cloud droplet number concentration, N_{CCN} is the cloud condensation nuclei number concentration. In equation (8), A_{mst} and T_r were set as 0.3 and 0.76, respectively (Charlson et al, 1987; Schwartz et al., 1996), which represented an average fraction of nonoverlapped marine stratus and stratocumulus. Here the uncertainty in ΔR_c in equation (9) for the typical range of cloud albedo was calculated according to the Wang et al. 2008. The uncertainty N_d associated with change in N_{CCN} was referred from Sotriopoulou et al. (2006) with a value of 0.5 in equation (10).

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Table S1. Summary of the datasets used in this study from multiple sources

Data category	Content (Abbreviation)	Unit	Spatial resolution	Temporal resolution	Data source
N _{CCN}	CCN concentration (<i>N</i> _{CCN}) at <i>S</i> =0.20% and <i>S</i> =0.40%	cm ⁻³	10 km	Hourly	WRF-Chem model
Chemical compositions	Organic matter (OM) Sulfate (SO ₄ ²⁻) Nitrate (NO ₃ ⁻) Ammonium (NH4 ⁺) Black carbon (BC)	μg m ⁻³ μg m ⁻³ μg m ⁻³ μg m ⁻³ μg m ⁻³	10 km - - -	Daily	TAP (http://tapdata.org.cn/?page_id=59 &item=pm25)
Meteorological data	2m temperature (TEM) Relative humidity (RH) Wind speed (WS) Wind direction (WD) Boundary layer (BL) Surface pressure (SP) Total precipitation (TP) Surface net solar radiation (SNSR)	K % m s ⁻¹ Degree M hPa mm W m ⁻²	0.25°×0.25°	Hourly	ERA-5 (https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/c dsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5- single-levels?tab=form)
Gas pollutants	PM _{2.5} NO ₂ SO ₂ CO	μg m ⁻³	- - - -	Hourly	CEMC (https://quotsoft.net/air/)

Figures

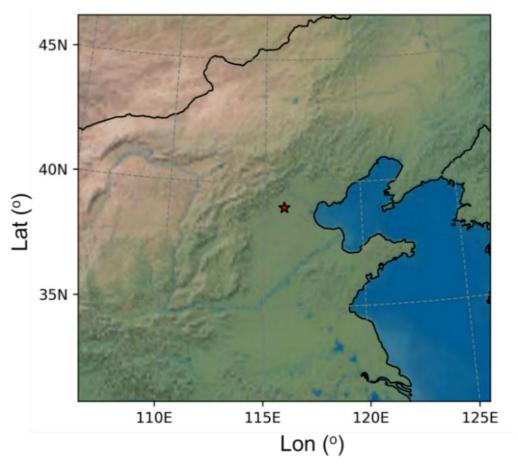


Figure S1. WRF-Chem model simulation domain diagram drawn by using the Cartopy library. The center point (red star) of the simulation domain is located at $39 \,^{\circ}$ N and $116 \,^{\circ}$ E, with a grid spacing of $10 \, \text{km}$. The number of grids in the east-west and north-south directions is $181 \, \text{and} \, 170$, respectively.

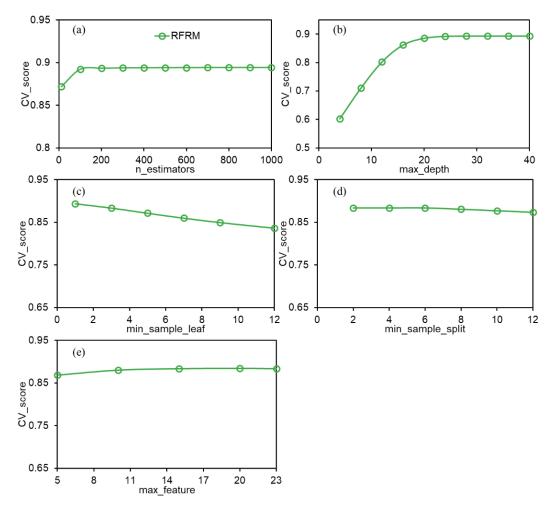


Figure S2. RFRM model evaluation through cross-validation (CV) score with varying hyperparameters.

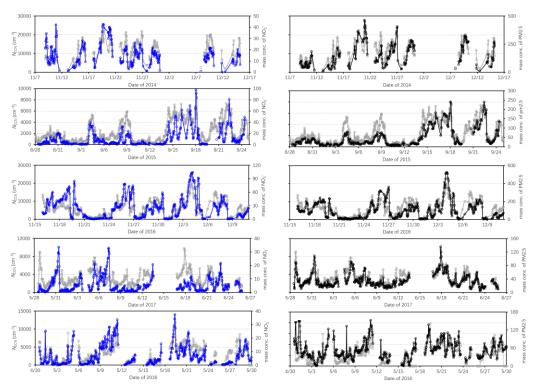


Figure S3. Time series of CCN number concentration (grey line) and mass concentration of NO₃⁻ (blue line), mass concentration of PM_{2.5} (black line) during the field campaign in North China Plain.

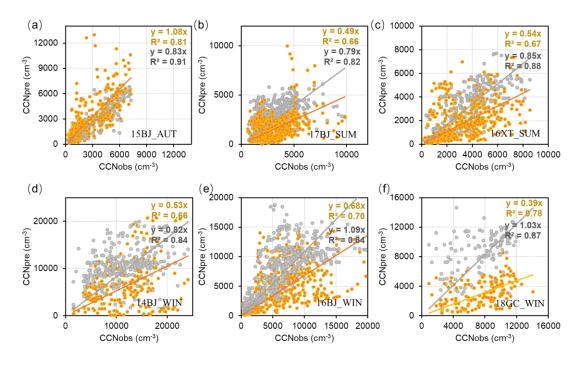


Figure S4. Scatter plots of the observed $N_{\rm CCN}$ with the RFRM-predicted and WRF-Chem-simulated for each campaign at S=0.2% (a-f).

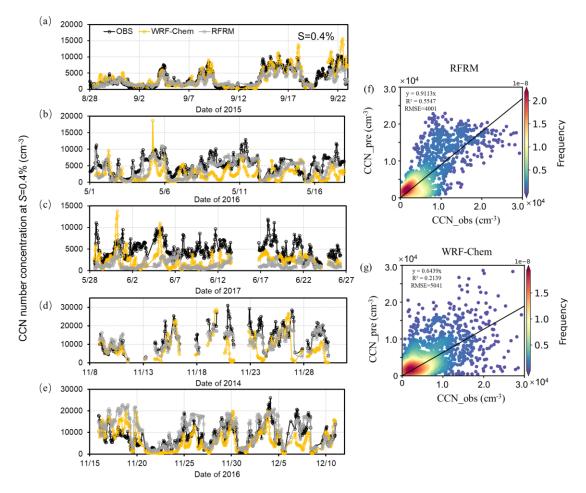


Figure S5. Time series of the comparison for each campaign in the North China Plain, (a) in 2015 summer at Beijing site (BJ2015_AUT), (b) in 2016 summer at Xingtai site (XY2016_SUM), (c) in 2017 summer at BJ site (BJ2017_SUM), (d) in 2014 winter at BJ site (BJ2014_WIN), (e) in 2016 winter at BJ site (BJ2014_WIN). Scatter plots of the observed $N_{\rm CCN}$ at S=0.4% with the RFRM-predicted (f), WRF-Chem-simulated (g) (yellow line: simulations from WRF-Chem, grey line: predictions from random forest model, and black line: the observed $N_{\rm CCN}$).

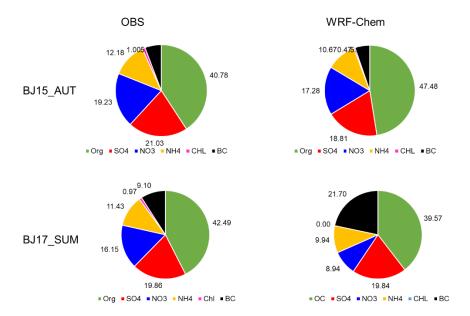


Figure S6. Pie charts of the mass fraction of the chemical composition between the observation and simulation from WRF-Chem, taken the BJ15_AUT and BJ17_SUM as the examples.

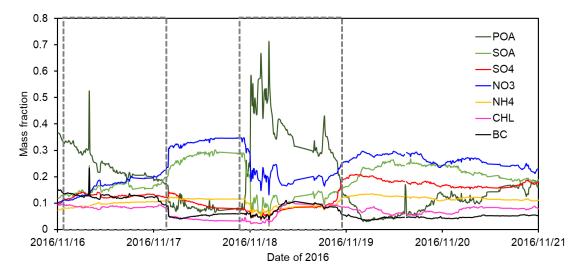


Figure S7. Timeseries of chemical composition during the case in the year of 2016 at Beijing site.



Figure S8. Map location of the sampling site (red star represents the Peking University). (© Google Earth https://maps.google.com/, last access: 8 September 2024).

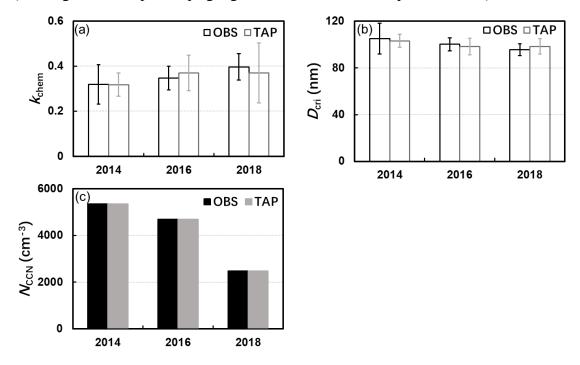


Figure S9. Average annual value of the k_{chem} calculated from chemical composition (a), the critical diameter at S=0.2% (b), N_{CCN} at S=0.2% (c) between the observed and TAP dataset in the winter of 2014, 2016, 2018.

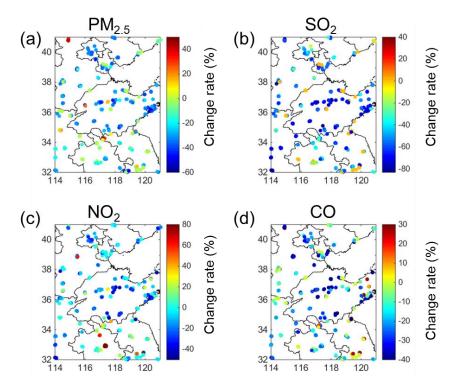


Figure S10. Spatial pattern of the change rates of the PM_{2.5}, SO₂, NO₂ and CO from 2014 to 2018 in NCP.

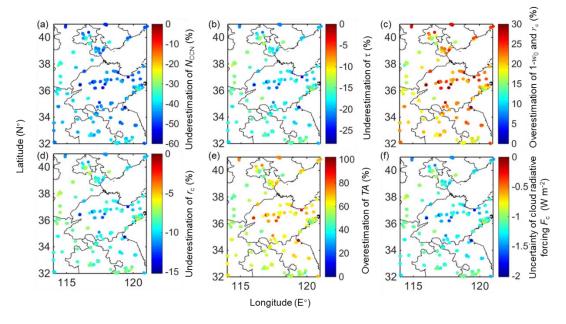


Figure S11. Spatial pattern of the differences of CCN number concentration between the new model and WRF-Chem (a), effects of the discrepancy from CCN number concentration on cloud optical thickness (τ) (b), on absorption coefficient (1- ω 0) and effective radius (r_e) (c), on critical radius (r_c) (d), the cloud-to-rain conversion threshold function (TA) (e), cloud radiative forcing (F_c) (f).

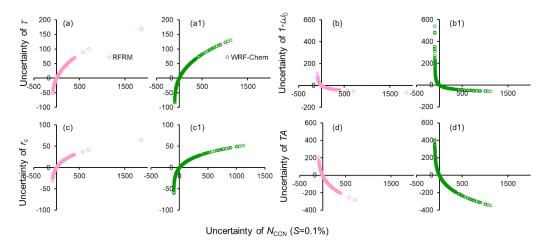


Figure S12. Sensitivity of the cloud properties on the CCN concentration at S=0.1%, uncertainty of the CCN number concentration on cloud optical thickness (τ) between the observed with the new model (a) and with the WRF-Chem model (a1), on absorption coefficient $(1-\omega_0)$ and effective radius (r_c) (b and b1), on critical radius (r_c) (c and c1), the cloud-to-rain conversion threshold function (TA) (d and d1).

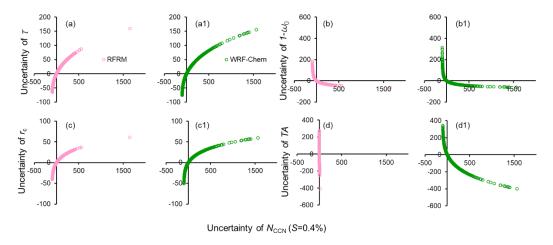


Figure S13. Same as Supplementary Figure 12 but at *S*=0.4%.