

Reply to Reviewer # 1

We truly appreciate the reviewer's report and his/her comments that rightly challenge our analysis and result interpretation. His/her specific comments are addressed below (highlighted in blue).

“Given these acknowledgments and the manuscript's title, one would expect substantive progress in addressing these limitations. However, only the issue of vertical collocation has been considered, following their previous work (Painemal et al., 2020). Other important sources of uncertainty, such as variations in aerosol type and size distribution and the influence of aerosol hygroscopic growth, are equally relevant for CALIPSO-derived extinction profiles. These factors are either neglected, deemed insignificant without sufficient justification, or, surprisingly, suggested to be not important for future ACI studies in the discussion section.”

Thanks for pointing out that the introduction did not meet the reader's expectations about the aspects that the manuscript actually addresses and those that remain unanswered due to the limitations of our observational dataset. In our search for conciseness, we did not provide enough necessary details the rationale behind a given analysis or conclusion. In the revised manuscript (Introduction), we described more clearly what is specifically addressed by our study and will be more precise about our assumptions and uncertainties of the analysis:

“Motivated by the proof-of-concept introduced in Painemal et al. (2020), we expand their study by taking advantage of more than 11 years of collocated daytime CALIPSO aerosol properties, MODerate resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) cloud retrievals, and CloudSat precipitation estimates to quantify ACI over the non-polar ocean. This study makes use of aerosol retrievals derived from a physically-based remote sensing algorithm, and thus, no attempts are made to derive aerosol concentration from the CALIPSO observations because we do not have a way to validate the multiple assumptions and approximations needed to compute concentrations from an elastic backscatter lidar. Our overarching objectives are: a) to investigate the benefits of using vertically resolved aerosol properties and identify regions where the AOD proxy yield meaningful correlations with N_d , and b) to compute metrics of ACI and cloud susceptibilities over the non-polar oceans.”

In addition, we include a lidar ratio analysis to address the role of aerosol type and particle size in the analysis. Other reviewer's concerns are more specifically addressed in the following. Regarding the title, we will be revising the title of the manuscript to: “Advancing the quantification of aerosol-cloud interactions with the use of the CALIPSO-CloudSat-Aqua/MODIS record”.

“I have several major concerns, primarily regarding the aerosol and cloud sampling criteria employed in this analysis. These include the inappropriate inclusion of precipitating clouds in the computation of Nd susceptibility, the use of aerosol properties from highly humid regions adjacent to clouds, the restriction to broken-cloud 25 km X 25 km scenes for estimating LWP susceptibility, and the fine spatial aggregation applied in the analysis. Each of these issues could significantly affect the derived sensitivities and should be carefully revisited. Addressing these points is essential for the manuscript to substantiate its claim of advancing the assessment of aerosol–cloud interactions.”

We are grateful to the reviewer for bringing these points up. All these concerns are valid and are responded in detail below.

Major Comments:

1. “The authors limit the 25 by 25 km cloud fraction (CF) to 90% to exclude cases where aerosols are fully embedded within cloudy regions, on the premise that such situations are affected by aerosol swelling due to hygroscopic growth at high relative humidity (RH). However, this filtering does not adequately ensure that hygroscopic growth is properly accounted for. Aerosol retrievals in direct contact with cloudy pixels (likely cloud-contaminated pixels) can still be significantly influenced by hygroscopic growth effects, irrespective of CF. As demonstrated in Christensen et al. (2017), this can lead to artificially enhanced correlations between Nd and AOD or AI. Since the cloud-level aerosol extinction coefficients are considered in the present manuscript, where the RH effect is likely significant, the derived susceptibilities may be biased.”

The reviewer’s points are highly pertinent to our study. There are 2 aspects of aerosol hygroscopicity that need further discussion.

- a) Variable effect of hygroscopicity attributed to the proximity of the aerosol pixel to clouds: This is our primary concern because, as the reviewer is aware, studies have shown that the dependence of AOD on cloud fraction (CF) is primarily the effects of multiple artifacts in the aerosol retrievals, rather than a physical signature of cloud adjustment (e.g. Varnai et al.). So, our data filtering was primarily intended to minimize the sensitivity of aerosol retrievals to cloud coverage. As explained in the manuscript, the effect of clouds on aerosol is not only the influence of hygroscopicity but also the substantial effect of aerosol-cloud misclassification, and 3-D radiative transfer effects. Key advantages of CALIOP include: insensitivity to 3-D radiative effects, and an improved aerosol and cloud identification relative to passive imagers like MODIS. Given the advantages of CALIOP, we conclude that the analysis of Christensen et al. (2017) is only representative of MODIS AOD and similar products derived from passive sensors. A way to visualize the effect of clouds in AOD retrievals is by analyzing the relationship between CF and AOD. Fig R1a illustrates this relationship. First, our CALIOP-based AOD shows a modest increase with CF, which only becomes severe for $CF > 0.95$, that is, when the CALIOP pixels are surrounded by clouds. Because we remove samples with MODIS $CF > 0.9$, we can effectively remove CALIOP grids more affected by aerosol swelling due to clouds. In a similar manner, filtering our cloud retrievals (N_d , FigR1a, red line) minimizes the N_d dependence on CF (Fig. R1b). All in all, the final filtering of both N_d and CALIPSO-SODA AOD (Fig R1b, red circles) yield a much weaker slope relative to data without filtering. This shows that our method removes multiple effects and artifacts that could conspire to enhance ACI. Lastly, we would like to remind the reviewer that this CALIOP aerosol retrievals are only used if the corresponding 5km along-track CALIOP grid is cloud free.

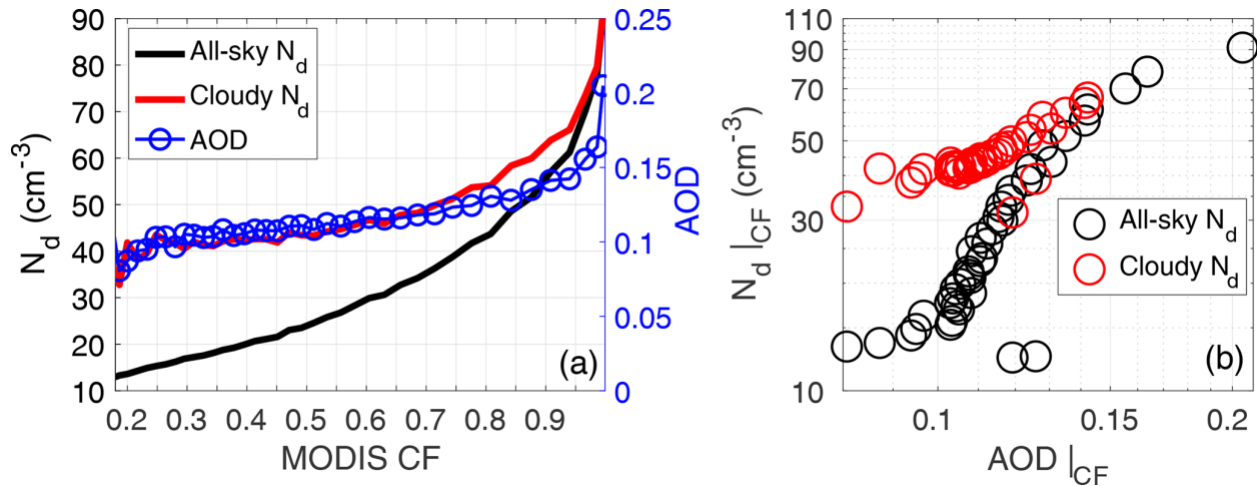


Figure R 1: Figure adapted from Painemal et al. 2020 (Fig. 2a). a) relationship between segment CF from MODIS and: all-sky N_d (without filtering), cloudy N_d (cloud fraction >90% within a 5 pixel x 5 pixel box), and AOD averaged for 5-km cloud-free CALIOP grids. b) relationship between AOD and N_d without filtering (black) and after applying CF filtering (red).

- b) Hygroscopicity as a function of the ambient relative humidity (RH). The figure below depicts the mean relative humidity at around 800 m (925 hPa) from MERRA-2. Notably, RH exceeds 80 % (0.8) for most of the oceanic regions. Smaller RH values are observed over the eastern Pacific and Atlantic, because the inversion height in those regions is below 925 hPa (in addition to the potential misrepresentation of the boundary layer height in the model). The figure also indicates that the range of RH variability is somewhat constrained to a narrow range. In other words, in the context of the reviewer’s comment, regional changes in AOD are primarily driven by the aerosol type and their specific hygroscopicity rather than variability in RH. Even if RH modulates the absolute value of AOD and extinction coefficient, this does not necessarily translate to biases in ACI. Unfortunately, we do not count on the dataset to address this science question (see our replies below). To reflect this comment, we added the following paragraph in the discussion section:

“... Regarding the potential effect of varying regional ambient relative humidity on aerosol extinction, we note that humidity in the boundary layer over the ocean remains on average bounded to values around 85%, with modest changes across regions (not shown). That is, the narrow range of spatial variability in relative humidity suggests that the ACI patterns described in our study are not explained by humidity driven swelling.”

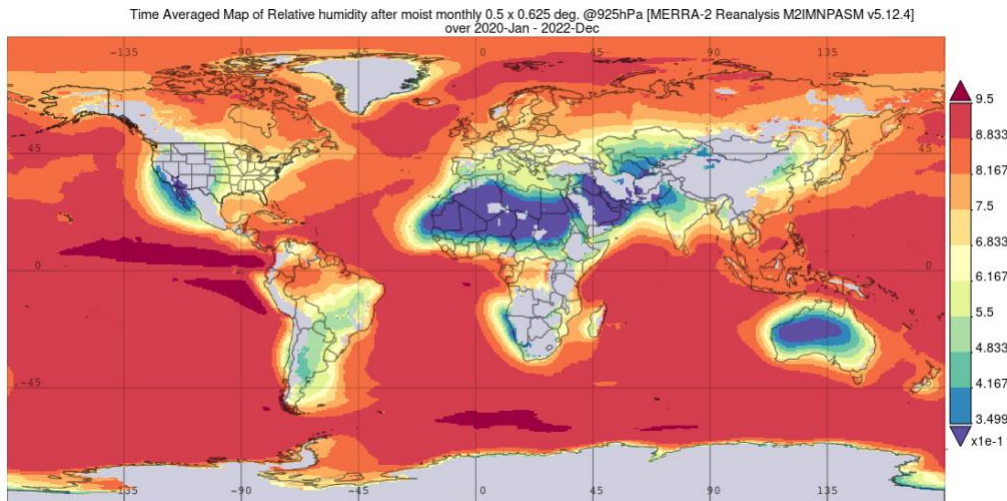


Figure R2: Annual mean relative humidity at 925 hPa (~800 m). Values range between 0.3 and 0.95 (35% and 95%).

“I recommend redoing the calculations after omitting aerosol retrievals in pixels directly adjacent to cloudy columns irrespective of total CF. This will also address another issue in computing $d\ln LWP/d\ln Nd$ (see next paragraph). This approach has been adopted in several recent ACI studies using satellite-derived AI to estimate Nd susceptibility (e.g., Jia et al., 2022).

We show in our reply above that: a) our method does remove effects of aerosol swelling near the vicinity of clouds, and b) Multiple artifacts reported in the literature regarding multiple cloud effects on AOD derived from passive sensors are substantially ameliorated when using CALIOP. Regarding the latter, Yang et al. (2014) conclude based on CALIOP data: “This result suggests that systematic changes in the near-cloud transition zone are real but somewhat weaker than previously reported and that understanding the statistics of near-cloud aerosol properties requires a consideration of changes in cloud fraction.” The conclusions in Yang et al. are consistent with our assertion about the quality of the CALIPSO retrievals and our data filtering.

Reference:

Yang, W., A. Marshak, T. Várnai, and R. Wood (2015), CALIPSO observations of near-cloud aerosol properties as a function of cloud fraction, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 41, 9150–9157, doi:[10.1002/2014GL061896](https://doi.org/10.1002/2014GL061896).

Alternatively, aerosol retrievals can be filtered using an RH threshold (e.g., only including retrievals where $RH < 70-80\%$), within which hygroscopic growth is limited for both continental and marine aerosol types. RH values can be obtained from the operational CALIPSO product (which includes interpolated meteorological parameters) or directly from reanalysis datasets such as ERA5 or MERRA-2. This is a fundamental consideration in satellite-based ACI studies and should not be overlooked, particularly in a study aiming to advance current estimates of Nd susceptibility.”

As shown in Fig. R2, the high RH in the boundary layer makes the reviewer suggestion challenging to implement. A second question to address is to account for aerosol swelling, that is, converting, aerosol extinctions from ambient RH to dry values (i.e. $RH < 50\%$). This is generally done by assuming a parameterization that is a function of RH (e.g. Gasso et al., 2000; Zieger et

al., 2013). Zieger et al. (2013) show that this scattering enhancement factor can vary significantly depending on the air mass and aerosol composition. It might be possible to characterize the aerosol types using CALIPSO aerosol classification, but we argue that this typing does not provide sufficient information nor a consistent optical characterization for our study (e.g. Li et al., 2022). Because the scattering enhancement factor parameterization is sensitive to the aerosol mass and we do not count on a reliable way to characterize the aerosol hygroscopicity, we decided not to apply any correction that could introduce more uncertainties.

Reference:

Zieger, P., Fierz-Schmidhauser, R., Weingartner, E., and Baltensperger, U.: Effects of relative humidity on aerosol light scattering: results from different European sites, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 13, 10609–10631, <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-13-10609-2013>, 2013.

S. Gassó, D. A. Hegg, D. S. Covert, D. Collins, K. J. Noone, E. Öström, B. Schmid, P. B. Russell, J. M. Livingston, P. A. Durkee & H. Jonsson (2000) Influence of humidity on the aerosol scattering coefficient and its effect on the upwelling radiance during ACE-2, *Tellus B: Chemical and Physical Meteorology*, 52:2, 546-567, DOI: 10.3402/tellusb.v52i2.16657

Li, Z., Painemal, D., Schuster, G., Clayton, M., Ferrare, R., Vaughan, M., Josset, D., Kar, J., and Trepte, C.: Assessment of tropospheric CALIPSO Version 4.2 aerosol types over the ocean using independent CALIPSO–SODA lidar ratios, *Atmos. Meas. Tech.*, 15, 2745–2766, <https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-15-2745-2022>, 2022.

“Furthermore, the decision to omit cloud retrievals with CF > 90% (within 25 × 25 km scenes) when computing $\text{dlnLWP}/\text{dlnNd}$ is not justified. Both LWP and Nd are derived from MODIS cloud retrievals, which tend to be more reliable in overcast cloud fields due to their higher spatial homogeneity. Such conditions better satisfy the plane-parallel cloud approximation, and consequently, three-dimensional radiative effects are minimized (Zhang and Platnick, 2011). I recommend removing the CF filtering from Nd-LWP susceptibility calculations.”

The reviewer is correct in that removing fully overcast scenes in the context of quantifying $\text{dlnLWP}/\text{dlnNd}$ is unjustified. The single reason why we adopted this filtering was for consistency in the methodology because ACI was calculated using the same manner. The new figure (incorporated in the revised version) is included below. These new maps are nearly identical to their counterparts in the original manuscript.

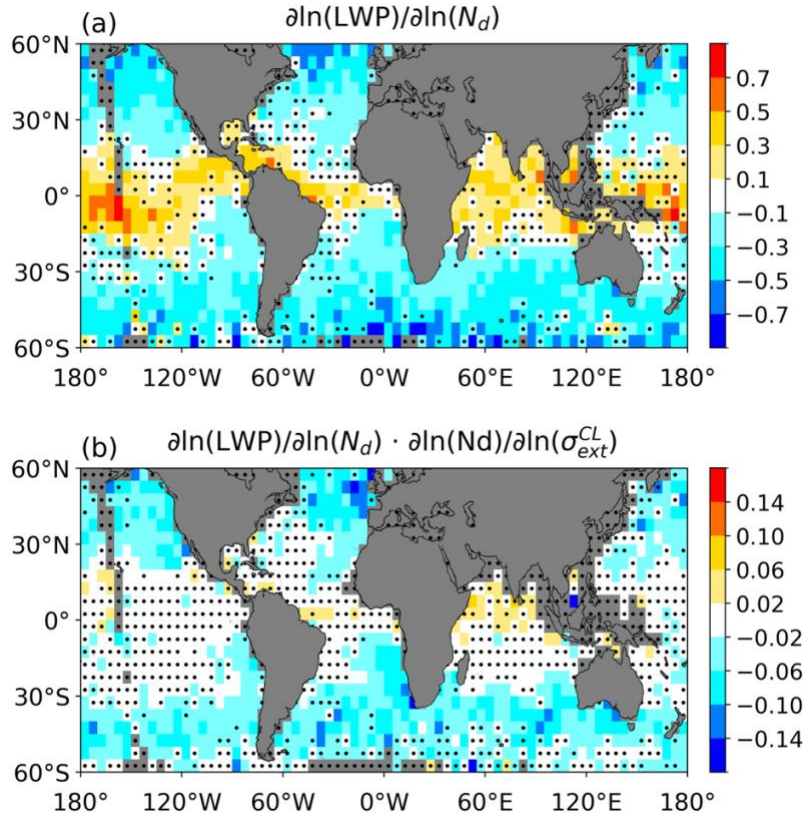


Figure R3: Gridded maps of (a) susceptibility of LWP to N_d or $S_{LWP}^{Nd} = \frac{\partial \ln(LWP)}{\partial \ln(N_d)}$; and (b) overall LWP susceptibility to aerosols estimated as $S_{LWP} = S_{LWP}^{Nd} \cdot ACI$. Black dots in (a) indicate grids that are statistically indistinguishable from zero, according to a Student's t test at 95% confidence level, whereas dots in (b) represent boxes when at least one metric (ACI or S_{LWP}^{Nd}) is statistically indistinguishable from zero. The LWP susceptibility computation includes 25-km cloud fraction > 0.9 (90%).

2. Lines 236–237: The authors state, “Indeed, global ACI for non-precipitating ($Z_{max} < -15$ dBZ) and precipitating ($Z_{max} > -15$ dBZ) segments is 0.13 and 0.08, respectively.” It is unclear how this information can be inferred from Fig. 5. I assume that the authors averaged the ACI indices over grid points with the minimum or maximum probability of precipitation (POP). If this interpretation is correct, further clarification is necessary on how this separation was implemented and statistically represented in the figure. Based on this assumption, I have an additional related comment below.

We agree, the statement is unclear. POP=0 and POP>0 define the non-precipitating and precipitating observations. Additional aspects are discussed in the following reply.

3. Another fundamental issue not addressed in this study is the inclusion of precipitating clouds in the calculation of the ACI index or N_d susceptibility, which leads to two key issues. First, precipitating clouds introduce significant uncertainty in N_d retrievals, as the assumption of adiabaticity no longer holds. Second, collision-coalescence reduces N_d independent of aerosol

loading, thereby distorting the aerosol–cloud relationship. The inclusion of precipitating scenes can lead to a non-causal positive bias in N_d susceptibility of approximately 21% (Jia et al., 2022). Since the authors already utilize CloudSat observations to identify precipitating clouds, it would be straightforward to exclude precipitating clouds from the analysis and recompute N_d susceptibility accordingly.

Correct, it is expected that precipitation will affect the magnitude of the slopes (see our previous response). During the early stage of the analysis, our goal was to provide ACI maps that could be easily compared against other datasets or model outputs. This was the primary reason why we did not separate precipitating from non-precipitating samples. However, we see the value in implementing the reviewer’s suggestion and we are now including computations estimated for precipitating and non-precipitating data. Figure R4 depicts statistics for precipitating samples, defined as those with probability of precipitation (POP) higher than 0.3, and non-precipitating clouds for samples with $POP < 0.05$. The results are not particularly sensitive to the POP thresholds; however, more stringent thresholds severely affect the number of available datapoints.

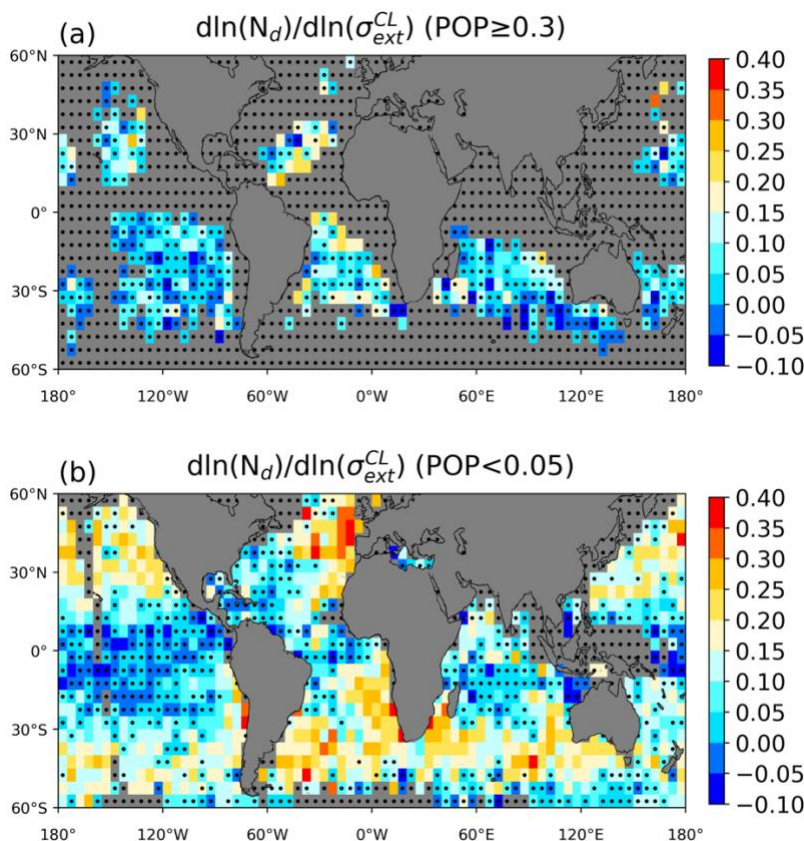


Figure R4: Gridded map of ACI index ($d \ln (N_d) / d \ln (\sigma_{ext}^{CL})$). Black dots indicate grids that are statistically indistinguishable from zero, according to a Student’s t test at 95% confidence level. a) ACI index for sampling with significant precipitation frequency ($POP > 0.3$), and b) non-precipitating clouds ($POP < 0.05$).

4. Since the authors use LWP and Nd from MODIS following a similar approach to previous studies (e.g., Gryspeerdt et al., 2019), the primary differences between their results and those in the literature appear to stem from the finer aggregation scale (25 km × 25 km instead of 100 km × 100 km) and the exclusion of pixels with CF > 90%. One concern here is the use of such a fine grid size. A 25 km × 25 km domain may not be sufficiently large to capture the structural or morphological variability within cloud systems over oceans. While cloud-top Nd tends to be relatively homogeneous in non-precipitating clouds, as it is primarily governed by the initially activated CCN population, the situation is different for LWP. Within a cloud, LWP typically peaks in the core regions and decreases toward the periphery, leading to substantial intra-cloud heterogeneity. This variability becomes even more pronounced in precipitating clouds. So, for similar Nd, we can have two different LWP, because of the cloud morphology, not directly because of aerosols. It is unclear how these in-cloud variations are accounted for in the current analysis, and clarification on this point is necessary to assess the robustness of the derived susceptibilities.

The author raises an interesting point. However, it is unclear to us how the effect of heterogeneity might affect the computation of susceptibility. For example, while a 25 km scale might seem small, it is within the range of spatial variability of closed-cell structures (Wood and Hartmann et al., 2006, <https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI3702.1>), which are dominant in subtropical and postfrontal regions. 25km is also larger than the size of shallow cumulus clouds. So, we find ourselves in the difficult situation of choosing a scale that represents the range of variability of marine low clouds, while, at the same time, a grid sufficiently small to assume that cloud-free aerosol retrievals are representative of the nearby-adjacent cloudy areas. It is also relevant to recall that regressions are computed over 5°x5° grids. Considering all these points, we do not have sufficient arguments to change the spatial collocation of Figure 1.

5. Line 319: The authors state that “future analyses should be framed in terms of the ambient aerosol extinction coefficient.” It is unclear how this recommendation is justified, given that aerosol hygroscopic growth is known to bias Nd susceptibility estimates. Numerous previous studies have recognized and explicitly accounted for this effect (e.g., Christensen et al., 2017; Hasekamp et al., 2019; Jia et al., 2022; Quaas et al., 2020). The authors should clarify the rationale behind this suggestion.

Regarding the comment about the justification for using ambient aerosol extinction coefficient: While methods for accounting for hygroscopicity have been presented in the literature, we are convinced that their applications to satellite data have not validated with the necessary details, nor the uncertainties assessed to the point that we can fully rely on these methods. That is, we argue that unless retrieval refinements are rigorously compared against independent datasets, it is recommended to directly use the satellite retrievals. This discussion is now summarized by this excerpt:

“A similar effort of matching aerosol products derived from CALIOP with satellite cloud retrievals was reported in Alexandri et al. (2024). Their study relies on cloud retrievals over Europe from the geostationary sensor The Spinning Enhanced Visible and InfraRed Imager (SEVIRI), and a CCN estimate derived using CALIOP products. Since the estimation of aerosol concentration from an elastic backscatter lidar involves several assumptions (aerosol model, typing, hygroscopic growth, and other empirical approximations), the way multiple uncertainties propagate into the derived product remains to be determined.”

Minor comments:

6. Line 26: “Observational estimates ...” instead of “Estimates”?
Corrected, thanks.

7. Lines 48-49: Do you mean the “updraft limited regime” (Reutter et al., 2009)?
Yes, we are referring to the updraft limited regime. We appreciate the reviewer for suggesting the Reutter et al. article. The article is now cited in the same section.

8. Line 64: Citing the authors: “Regrettably, the application of spaceborne lidar observations to the ACI computation is still surprisingly lacking.” This is not entirely true. Alexandri et al. (2024) combined CALIPSO-derived CCN concentrations with Nd from geostationary observations in a sophisticated cloud-by-cloud framework using an advanced cloud tracking and matching algorithm.

We agree with the reviewer in that the sentence was inaccurate or, at least, too strong. In the revised version, we rephrased the sentence to read: “Regrettably, studies that make use of spaceborne lidar observations for ACI studies are surprisingly scarce, and global-scale analyses are lacking.”. Alexandri et al. (2024) will be cited in the discussion section.

9. Line 106: Which wavelength was used for the effective radius and why? Did the authors apply the condensation rate temperature correction based on Gryspeerdt et al. (2019) when calculating Nd?

We used CERES-MODIS droplet effective radius derived using the 3.7 μm channel (information now included in the revised manuscript). This wavelength is less sensitive to 3D radiative effects, and spatial inhomogeneities (Painemal et al., 2013 and references therein). Unlike Gryspeerdt et al (2019), instead of a empirical parameterization, we directly used an analytical physical formulation for estimating the adiabatic lapse rate. In other words, no corrections are needed because the derivation is directly estimated from adiabatic considerations (see Albrecht et al. 1990). It suffices to say that the adiabatic computation follows the thermodynamic equation described in Albrecht et al.

Reference:

Painemal, D., Minnis, P., and Sun-Mack, S.: The impact of horizontal heterogeneities, cloud fraction, and liquid water path on warm cloud effective radii from CERES-like Aqua MODIS retrievals, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 13, 9997–10003, <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-13-9997-2013>, 2013.

10. Which correlation coefficient is shown in Figures 2 and 3? Please mention it in the caption. I recommend the pearson’s correlation coefficient. If the authors prefer spearman, please provide the figures with pearson’s correlation coefficient in the supplementary.

All the correlation are Spearman’s. We added the Pearson correlation maps in the supplement section and included in every discussion both correlation metrics. The key reason for selecting the Spearman’s correlation coefficient is that this correlation is minimally sensitive to outliers and better capture monotonic changes in a 2-variable relationship.

11. Figure 4: How do the authors interpret negative $d\ln Nd/d\ln EXT$

Our explanation is rather simple and guided by the statistical significance of the slopes. Because the negative slopes are statistically indistinguishable from the zero slope, we treat these negative values as being of a negligible value and no inferences are made about the sign of the slope.

12. Line 262: $d\ln LWP/d\ln Nd$ is also affected by sampling bias due to missing cloud properties in MODIS as a result of retrieval failure, particularly the positive $d\ln LWP/d\ln Nd$ response (Choudhury and Goren, 2025).

Yes, a sampling bias is certainly a possibility. However, we argue that the quantification of a sampling bias is not possible because assumptions need to be made about the cloud retrievals for those missing pixels. The major issue is validating those assumptions, which, realistically, cannot be done with satellite data only. Satellite simulators and synthetic cloud fields generated by a (cloud) model might help answer this question, but we are not aware of studies that have conducted this type of research. In the revised manuscript, we are going to briefly discuss the potential sampling bias, primarily over regions with the presence of shallow cumulus clouds.

13. I suggest the authors provide a supplementary figure showing $d\ln Nd/d\ln(\text{EXT}_{\text{surface}})$ and $d\ln Nd/d\ln(\text{AOD})$?

The new figure S2 are provided in the supplement and will be briefly discussed in the manuscript.

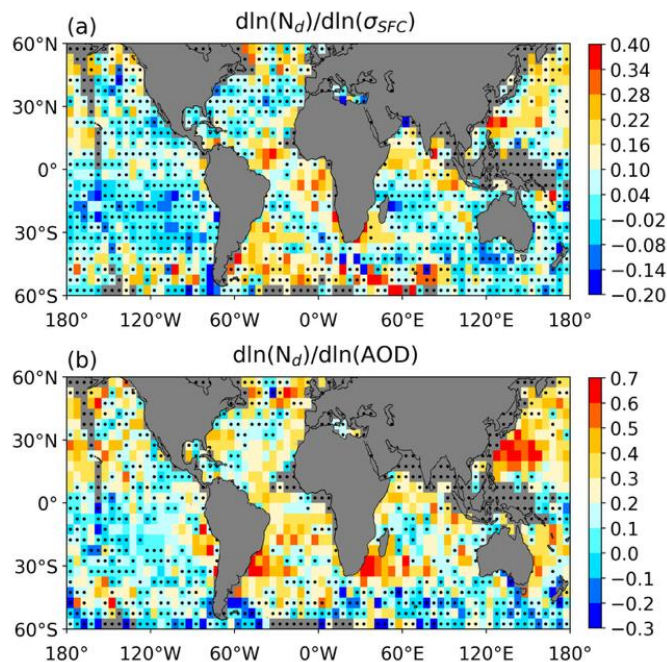


Figure R5: ACI computed using a) surface-level aerosol extinction coefficient, and b) CALIOP-SODA AOD.

14. A general observation from Figures 4 and 9 is low or negative ACI index over pristine oceans. Can the authors comment on why this could happen in both CALIPSO and MODIS retrievals?

A physical mechanism that could explain the low ACI index over pristine oceans is turbulence in the boundary layer. Because turbulence directly affects the supersaturation at the cloud base, changes in turbulence could explain varying aerosol activation into droplets even for the same aerosol loading (concentration). This explanation is plausible as regions with low ACI index coincide with areas characterized by low cloud coverage and thus, with a reduced cloud top radiative cooling, leading to weaker boundary layer turbulence.

Another factor is associated with the aerosol type over the open ocean. We used the retrieved lidar ratio from CALIPSO-SODA to determine the impact of aerosol typing. Informed by studies based on Raman lidar and high spectral resolution lidar (HSRL, e.g. Burton et al., 2011), clean marine aerosols can be identified with relatively high confidence for samples possessing lidar ratios (LR) < 25 sr. Similarly, pollution and biomass burning aerosol are characterized by LR > 55 sr. Values between 25 sr and 55 sr corresponds to mixture of multiple aerosols, including dust. The relationship for these 3 aerosol types reveals that the ACI metric increases with LR, with values for polluted aerosol exceeding those for clean marine aerosols. If these clean marine aerosols are dominated by the presence of sea salt, then just a few large particles could be contributing to enhanced aerosol extinction coefficient and thus weakening the relationship between N_d and aerosol extinction coefficient.

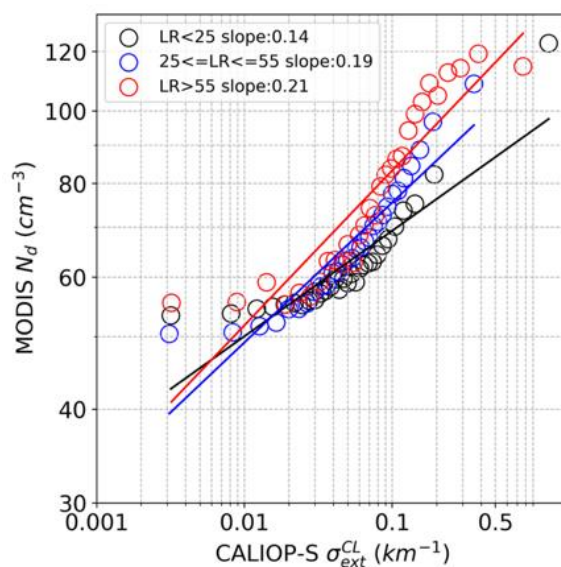


Figure R6: Relationship between N_d and aerosol extinction coefficient for 3 different ranges of aerosol lidar ratios (LR).

Reference:

Burton, S. P., Ferrare, R. A., Hostetler, C. A., Hair, J. W., Rogers, R. R., Obland, M. D., Butler, C. F., Cook, A. L., Harper, D. B., and Froyd, K. D.: Aerosol classification using airborne High Spectral Resolution Lidar measurements – methodology and examples, *Atmos. Meas. Tech.*, 5, 73–98, <https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-5-73-2012>, 2012.

Reply to Reviewer #2

We appreciate the scientific insight of the reviewer's comments and suggestions. His/her report helped clarify sections of the manuscript and put our analysis in the context of other relevant studies in the field of aerosol-cloud interactions and radiative forcing. His/her specific comments are addressed below (highlighted in blue).

I feel many important references were not mentioned in this study. Most points discussed in the Introduction have been already well-documented in previous review papers, e.g., <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-20-15079-2020> and more recent <https://doi.org/10.1029/2022RG000799> and the references therein. Would be nice to acknowledge previous work.

We thank the reviewer for suggesting these relevant studies. Both review articles, Rosenfeld et al. and Quaas et al., are now properly cited in the introduction. Quaas et al. is of particular interest, as the article nicely summarizes the challenges in the quantification of ACI and the importance of applying observational constraints to improve current estimates of radiative forcing.

For the effect of retrieval bias, I don't think (Varnai and Marshak, 2009) really touched the effect on ACI, instead more about AOD error. A detailed investigation can refer to <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-22-7353-2022>, which may be more relevant here. Regarding the aerosol retrieval issue in low aerosol conditions, a reference should be provided (see the discussion about this in above two review papers).

Correct, Varnai and Marshak did not specifically address the effect of aerosol biases on ACI. We appreciate the reference suggested by Referee 2. In the revised version, we will be adding the following sentence: "analysis of passive satellite aerosol and cloud retrievals reveal that biases in AOD can yield underestimations of the N_d -AOD regression of at least 3% due to aerosol biases in the Level 3 ($1^\circ \times 1^\circ$) product (Jia et al., 2022).".

We agree with the reviewer about limitations for regions with low aerosol loading. We will provide additional discussion in section 4.

Figure. 2: Similar plots but showing sample size would be help here. Also, it's interesting to see negative signals in some regions, particularly in (b) this seems to be more visible in regions with strong precipitation. Any explanation about this? As I can understand these plots were for all clouds; would be interesting to look at non-precipitating clouds only. Similarly, for L233-237: The easiest way to investigate the effect of precipitation on ACI is making the similar plots as Fig. 4 but distinguishing non-precipitating and precipitating clouds

Samples size figures are now included in the manuscript (Fig. R1). In addition, we follow the reviewer's suggestion of separating the analysis into precipitating and non-precipitating samples (also recommended by Reviewer1). To that end, we used the probability of precipitation (POP) defined as the fraction of precipitation CloudSat pixels (reflectivity > -15dBZ) relative to the total cloudy pixels along the 25 km segment. Because precipitation is somewhat patchy in boundary layer clouds, we select a POP > 0.3 for defining precipitating scenes. Conversely, non-precipitating segments are defined as having POP < 0.05 (Fig. R2). Generally speaking, ACI for precipitating samples decreases, primarily encompassing regions over the open ocean in the

subtropics and midlatitudes. We also note that ACI substantially decrease south of Australia, where ACI is statistically zero. In contrast the same coastal region exhibits ACI up to 0.25 for non-precipitating samples.

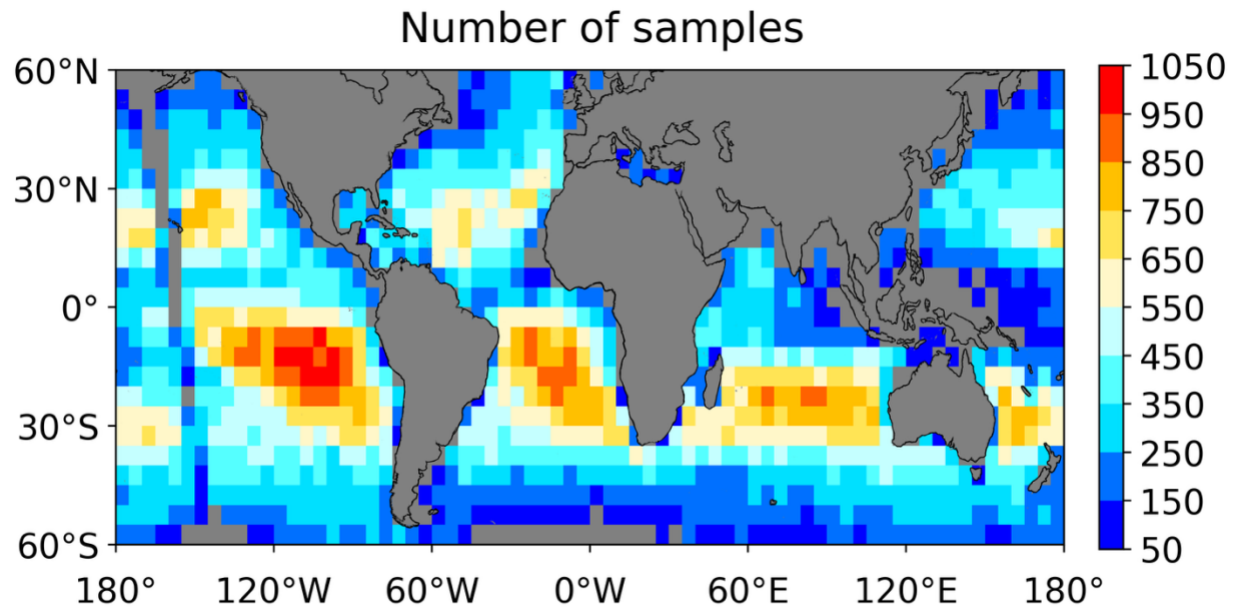


Figure R1: Number of 25-km segments used for the derivation of the ACI index.

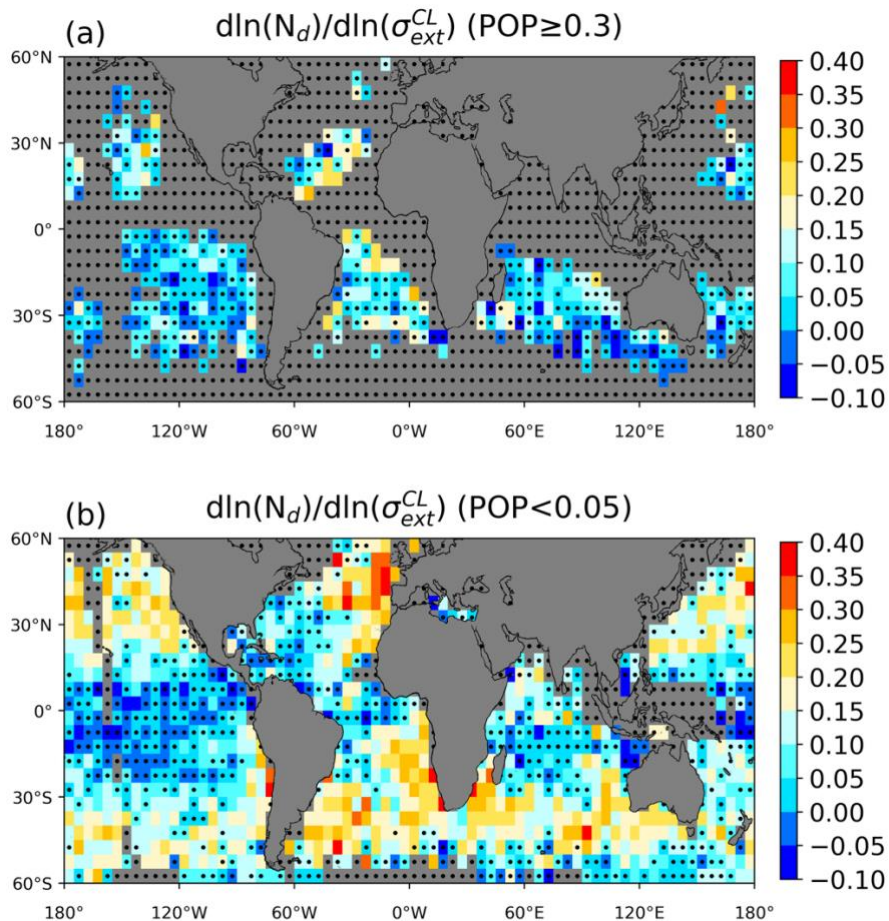


Figure R2: ACI index map. Black dots indicate grids that are undistinguishable from zero according to a student's t test at 95% confidence level. a) Grids with probability of precipitation (POP) > 0.3, b) Grids with POP < 0.05.

L213: maybe an explanation on Spearman correlation would help. It's confusing that the data in Fig. 3a apparently are not concentrated around the regression line, but r_s are mostly larger than 0.95 and even being 1. Please clarify.

The Spearman correlation is less affected by outliers and primarily captures the monotonic increase of the relationship. In the revised manuscript, we report both Spearman and Pearson correlations in Figure 3.

L216-219 (also the argument on 'S-shape' in abstract): I'm not sure how much I can be convinced by this statement.

- I feel the reason why we didn't see a clear 'flat curve' in high σ is the insufficient samples there; binning data into same sample-size bins induces a weak representativity where data are sparse. Even with sparse data, we still see the saturated N_d when σ starts going beyond 0.2-0.3. Thus, the analysis here is not sufficient to demonstrate the S-shape is non-physical.

-Even using boundary-layer SO₄ (closer to σ here), the sigmoid shape is still quite clear (Fig. 1b in <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-23-4115-2023>). A recent study further provided the observational evidence for this sigmoid curve based on long-term trends (<https://doi.org/10.1038/s41558-023-01775-5>). These should be discussed.

- I'd suggest formulating it in a way that the non-linear behavior reported in earlier studies tends to be less pronounced when using cloud-base extinction than column AOD, instead of saying it's non-physical as the results presented cannot justify this strong statement.

The way the binning is conducted could certainly change the shape of the curve. We did try multiple bin sizes and the results remained unchanged. With the available dataset, the binning in n-tiles is the appropriate approach to faithfully represent the sampling distribution and reduce the effect of outliers. As suggested by the reviewer, it is pertinent to cite Jia and Quaas (2023) in the discussion section, however, we do not have a hypothesis for why S-shape appears to be present when applied to sulfate. In general, relationships between N_d and other aerosol proxies do not necessarily capture the same physical information, processes, or biases; and, therefore, our conclusions are only valid for optical aerosol properties derived from satellites. However, the contrast between the sigmoid curve for AOD and a semi-linear relationship for aerosol extinction is quite evident, and the saturation of the curve for high AOD is not observed for aerosol extinction coefficient. However, we revised the text to convey the idea that the non-linearity is less pronounced when vertically-resolved aerosol extinction coefficient is used in the analysis: "In sum, the analysis reveals that either, N_d -AOD is not monotonic, it is governed by outliers with AOD >0.2 , and consequently is poorly represented by a linear fit." And in the abstract: "the S-shape of the AOD- N_d relationship reported in previous studies is not replicated when using σ_{ext}^{CL} instead of AOD, with a N_d - σ_{ext}^{CL} linearity more consistent with in-situ studies over the ocean."

L260-261: This is an interesting point. The authors could demonstrate this even clearer by making a panel (b) for Fig 7 but lumping all global data together.

The updated figure is included below, with red diamond representing global data, and will be discussed in the revised version.

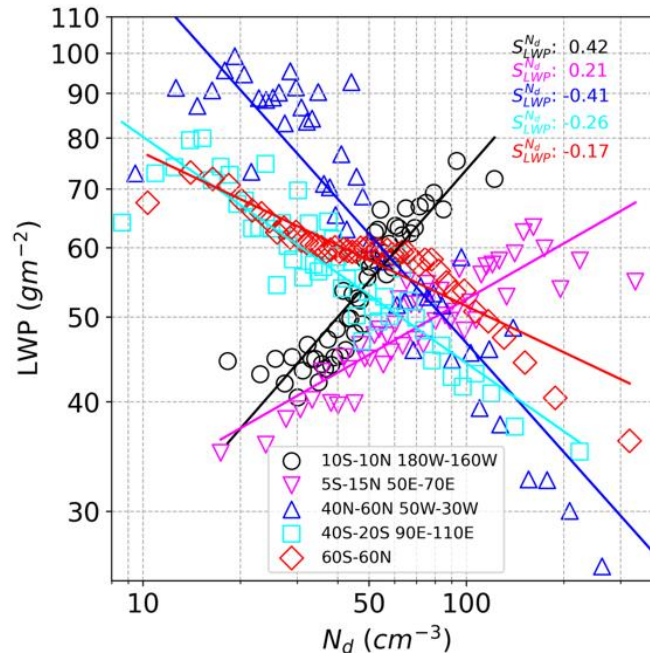


Figure R3: LWP- N_d relationship for $20^\circ \times 20^\circ$ regions with opposite sign slope, highlighted in Fig. 7a with the same color code. Central Pacific: $10^\circ\text{S}-10^\circ\text{N}$, $180^\circ\text{W}-160^\circ\text{W}$ (black circles); tropical Indian Ocean: $5^\circ\text{S}-15^\circ\text{N}$, $50^\circ\text{E}-70^\circ\text{E}$ (magenta inverted triangles); north Atlantic: $40^\circ\text{N}-60^\circ\text{N}$, $50^\circ\text{W}-30^\circ\text{W}$ (blue triangles); and Southern Ocean: $40^\circ\text{S}-20^\circ\text{S}$, $90^\circ\text{E}-110^\circ\text{E}$ (gold square).

Minor comment:

Since only the vertical co-location of cloud and aerosol layers is studied, the term ‘Progress’ in the title seems too broad and gives the impression of a review-like paper. I suggest removing it.

Following the reviewer’s suggestion, we modify the title to: “Advancing the quantification of aerosol-cloud interactions with the CALIPSO-CloudSat-Aqua/MODIS record”

L26: Estimates -> Observational estimates

Corrected, thanks

This work largely follows Painemal et al. (2020). The importance of using vertically collocated aerosol has been already well-justified. Would be good to explain what new message one could get beyond the existing literature.

Unlike Painemal et al. (2020), the global quantification of ACI and susceptibilities is a key contribution of our manuscript. Also, the integrated study of cloud susceptibilities and ACI using MODIS-CALIOP-and CloudSat is also another contribution. We highlight these points in the revised manuscript:

“Motivated by the proof-of-concept introduced in Painemal et al. (2020), we expand their study by taking advantage of more than 11 years of collocated daytime CALIPSO aerosol properties, MODerate resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) cloud retrievals, and CloudSat precipitation estimates to quantify ACI over the non-polar ocean. This study makes use of aerosol retrievals derived from a physically-based remote sensing algorithm, and thus, no attempts are made to derive aerosol concentration from the CALIPSO observations because we do not have a

way to validate the multiple assumptions and approximations needed to compute concentrations from an elastic backscatter lidar. Our overarching objectives are: a) to investigate the benefits of using vertically resolved aerosol properties and identify regions where the AOD proxy yield meaningful correlations with N_d , and b) to compute metrics of ACI and cloud susceptibilities over the non-polar oceans.”

L68: ‘shortcomings’: Since the text so far only highlights the benefits, it might be helpful to flag what shortcomings the readers can expect next.

Correct, we now discuss some outstanding issues (Discussion section), primarily associated with the fact that optical properties differ from aerosol concentration, and the limited satellite dataset.

‘ metrics of cloud susceptibilities of ACI’ and ‘cloud susceptibility’ are the same, aren’t they? Correct, we modified the sentence to read: “metrics of ACI and cloud susceptibility”

L80-82: this sentence is hard to read. Please explain what ‘This choice of CALIPSO-based dataset responds to limitations of the standard CALIPSO product’ means

In short, our research version of the CALIPSO retrievals is estimated by solving the lidar equation, using an iterative process that finds both the extinction coefficient and lidar ratio that matches an independent AOD, derived from the SODA algorithm. This eliminates the need of classifying aerosols into specific aerosol types and assuming a constant lidar ratio. Because the lidar ratio is highly variable, assuming a constant lidar ratio introduces significant uncertainties in the CALIPSO aerosol product. Painemal et al. (2019) show that that this new aerosol extinction coefficient better compares with airborne observations from a high spectral resolution lidar. In the revised version, we added the following description:

“Aerosol retrievals are taken from a research product described in Painemal et al. (2019) that combines CALIPSO attenuated backscattering coefficient with an AOD product derived from the CALIOP’s ocean surface return based on the Synergized Optical Depth of Aerosols algorithm (SODA, Josset et al., 2008), described in Painemal et al. (2019). This choice of CALIPSO-based research dataset responds to limitations of the standard CALIPSO product associated with the requirement of the algorithm to detect aerosol layers and categorize them into a limited number of aerosol types, adversely affecting the availability of CALIPSO AOD and extinction coefficient datapoints, and potentially biasing the retrievals especially when aerosol type misclassification occurs (e.g. Kim et al., 2017). The derivation of aerosol extinction coefficient (σ_{ext}) profiles at 60 m vertical resolution makes use of the attenuated backscattering coefficient and SODA AOD to invert the lidar equation by applying the Fernald-Klett iterative algorithm (Fernald, 1984). More specifically, the lidar equation is solved for the aerosol extinction coefficient and the extinction-to-backscatter ratio, with the latter commonly referred to as lidar ratio. We first start by prescribing a lidar ratio and computing the aerosol extinction coefficient and the corresponding AOD using the CALIPSO attenuated backscattering coefficient as the observational constraint. Next, the retrieved AOD is compared against the SODA AOD and, depending on the magnitude and sign of the difference, the lidar ratio is adjusted and σ_{ext} and AOD are recalculated (Li et al., 2022). The iteration ends when the retrieved AOD matches its SODA counterpart. Retrieval validations are presented in Painemal et al. (2019) and global statistics of lidar ratio are reported in Li et al. (2022). The lidar ratio (LR) is an important parameter for characterizing aerosols using lidars, and in this

study will apply it for providing a coarse characterization of aerosol typing. Alternatively, one could directly use the aerosol typing from the CALIPSO product; however, the specific meaning and interpretation of the clean marine aerosol type have been called into question in Edition 4 (e.g. Toth et al., 2025. CALIPSO Edition 5 was not available at the time this manuscript was submitted for publication).”

Reference:

Painemal, D., Clayton, M., Ferrare, R., Burton, S., Josset, D., and Vaughan, M.: Novel aerosol extinction coefficients and lidar ratios over the ocean from CALIPSO–CloudSat: evaluation and global statistics, *Atmos. Meas. Tech.*, 12, 2201–2217, <https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-12-2201-2019>, 2019.

L93: I personally think CTH is a better term than ZT for cloud top height, which has been widely used. Would be easier for readers

We generally use a simple notation instead acronymous because the variables are easier to express and understand in equations, cloud top height is now represented as H_t .

L99: ‘height’: is it cloud top height?

Correct, all the variables in the sentence are for clouds.

Eq 1: Though the authors referred to (Albertcht et., 1990), it’s good to provide the full formulation here along with all parameter values need in the calculation so that people can easily follow.

The formulation is a bit more complicated than a single formula solely depending on temperature and pressure. Because the expression has been utilized in a number of studies, we refer the reader to Albrecht et al.

112-113: How it can categorize the low-cloud precipitation rate is not clear. I guess the authors put a ‘raining’ flag if $Z_{max} > -15$, otherwise ‘non-raining’, right?

We appreciate the reviewer’s comment. Yes, we identify precipitation at the CloudSat pixel level as $Z_{max} > -15$ dBZ. We removed the following sentence because, additional precipitation categorization was not apllied in the analysis “The impact of additional precipitation categorization (drizzle: $-15 < Z_{max} \leq -7$), light rain: $-7 < Z_{max} \leq 0$, and rain: $Z_{max} > 0$) is discussed in Section 4.” For defining precipitating and non-precipitating 25-km segments

L124: Could you clarify what you mean by “the closest CloudSat CPR pixels to the 25-km line”? What exactly does the 25 km line refer to here? L134-136: it’s a bit unclear if the cloud-top height is from MODIS or CALIOP as stated earlier? To match and 1x1 modis pixels I’d assume it’s from MODIS right?

It refers to the closest pixels (and ground-track) to the CALIPSO ground-track, represented by the 25 km segment in Figure 1 (in blue). The derivation of cloud top height for computing aerosol extinction coefficient is from CALIOP. Filtering of MODIS pixels are based on MODIS cloud top height. We clarified this in the revised manuscript.

L140: the threshold is generally set to 4; could you explain why 2 is used here? Does it mean more optically thin clouds are included in this study?

The rationale is based on Painemal et al. (2025). Using airborne polarimetric retrievals, Painemal et al (2025) show that retrievals tend to be more robust for optical depth greater than 2, especially if the satellite data correspond to a cloudy scene (high cloud coverage).

Reference:

Painemal, D., Smith, W. L. Jr., Gupta, S., Moore, R., Cairns, B., McFarquhar, G. M., & O'Brien, J. (2025). Can we rely on satellite visible/infrared microphysical retrievals of boundary layer clouds in partially cloudy scenes? implications for climate research. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 52, e2024GL113825. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2024GL113825>

Eq3: Only data with CF>80% are analyzed. In this case, S_CF cannot reflect the real effect. would be nice to mention this limitation here though it appears quite later in the paper

Correct. Changes in cloud coverage due to aerosols cannot be investigated because the different filters applied in the analysis, by design, remove a substantial part of the aerosol-cloud fraction relationship. In section 2.4, we added: “For this study, we do not compute cloud fraction susceptibilities ($S_{CF}^{Nd} = \frac{\partial \ln(CF)}{\partial \ln(N_d)}$) as our CF dependent filtering could artificially affect the computations.”

L207: ‘is constrained using AOD’ what does this mean? Is σ vertically integrated into the value of AOD?

Correct, the vertically integrated extinction coefficient is AOD. We modified the sentence to read: It is noteworthy to mention that because the vertically integrated σ_{ext} in the CALIOP-S data product is AOD...”

Fig.7: It would be easier to follow if the authors marked these 4 regions in Fig 6. Good suggestions. This was implemented in the revised version (below).

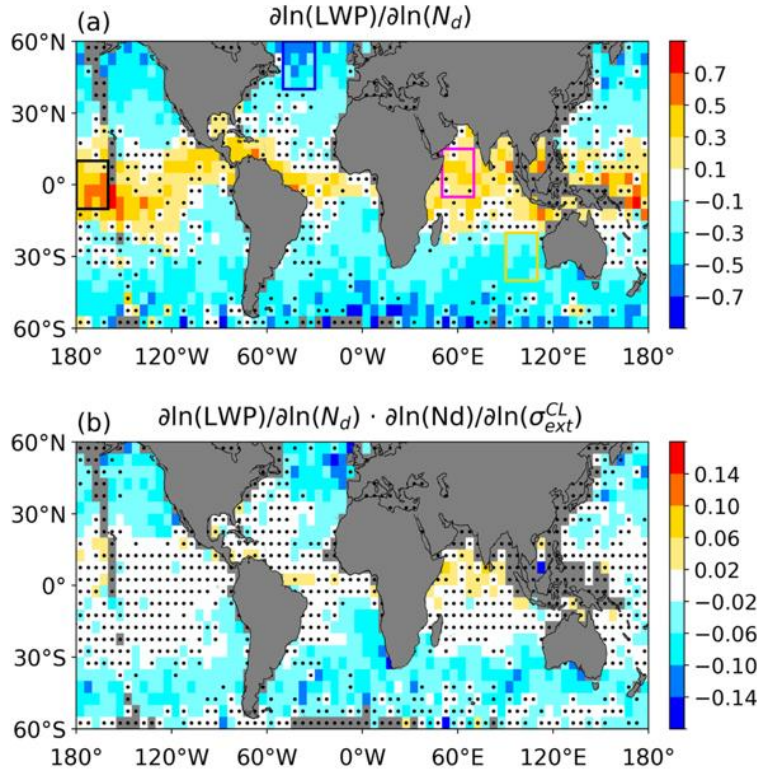


Figure R4: Gridded maps of (a) susceptibility of LWP to N_d or $S_{LWP}^{Nd} = \frac{\partial \ln(LWP)}{\partial \ln(N_d)}$; and (b) overall LWP susceptibility to aerosols estimated as $S_{LWP} = S_{LWP}^{Nd} \cdot ACI$. Black dots in (a) indicate grids that are statistically indistinguishable from zero, according to a Student's t test at 95% confidence level, whereas dots in (b) represent boxes when at least one metric (ACI or S_{LWP}^{Nd}) is statistically indistinguishable from zero. The LWP susceptibility computation includes 25-km cloud fraction > 0.9 (90%). The four regions in Figure 8 are depicted in Fig. 7a with each region highlighted with the same legend color.

1261-262: I think the story in Arola et al. (2022) is quite different to the argument here. They attributed the invert-V to retrieval errors. Citing this paper here seems a bit confusing unless the authors make this clear.

The reviewer is correct in the sense that Arola et al. (2022) address a number of potential biases, including retrieval uncertainties. However, the article also explores the effect of cloud natural heterogeneity and discusses how spatial changes can yield a relationship that are not necessarily the manifestation of the aerosol indirect effect. This concept is partially encapsulated in the article title (“Aerosol effects on clouds are concealed by natural cloud heterogeneity and satellite retrieval errors”).

L266: It's Intuitive that the product of S_{nd_lwp} (Fig. 6a) and ACI (Fig. 4a) should be negative as their signs are opposite, especially in Tropics; so it's kinda surprising that it turns to be negligible. Could the authors explain this a bit more?

From a point of view of the statistical uncertainty, this is the result of having a negligible ACI index for regions with positive susceptibility of LWP to N_d . The physical interpretation of

these results is, nevertheless, challenging. Cognizant that these estimates need to be validated with other datasets and methods, we interpret this negligible susceptibility as the modest effect of aerosols to modify the relationship between Nd and LWP for those specific regions. This will be discussed further in the article, including potential sources of uncertainties that can also challenge our interpretation.

L298: I'd avoid words like "novel" or "new," or anything implying the study is the first to show a particular conclusion. A more neutral phrasing would work better. It would be easier for readers to follow the results if Fig. 4 were placed as a separate panel within Fig. 9; so that readers would not need to scroll back and forth. And why does the ACI(based on AOD) index appear to be negative here? It's overall positive in previous studies. Would be good to discuss.

We agree on the use of "novel" or "new", so we removed the misuse of the words. Regarding the inclusion of Fig.4 as a subpanel of Fig. 9, because the information cannot be directly integrated into a single map, adding another subpanel is a bit redundant. We note that regions with seemingly negative slopes are statistically indistinguishable from zero and, therefore, the slope sign is not discussed in the article, because only positive slopes are statistically meaningful.

L301-303: The authors stressed a lot on the difference in ACI between σ and AOD; but it's very important to mention here that in the end we care about anthropogenic perturbation of Nd and forcing which also relies on PI-PD change in the utilized proxy, not the simple slope (<https://doi.org/10.1029/2022RG000799>).

This is a fair criticism. While assessing PD-PI changes is important for understanding the anthropogenic forcing, these satellite-based metrics are also useful for evaluating climate models (e.g. Zheng et al., 2025). Also, anthropogenic forcing estimates benefit from quantifying these slopes (e.g. Bellouin et al., 2021).

Reference:

Zheng, X., Feng, Y., Painemal, D., Zhang, M., Xie, S., Li, Z., Jacob, R., and Lusch, B.: Regime-based aerosol–cloud interactions from CALIPSO-MODIS and the Energy Exascale Earth System Model version 2 (E3SMv2) over the Eastern North Atlantic, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 25, 17473–17499, <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-25-17473-2025>, 2025.

L311-312: the use of AOD doesn't misguide the modelers as long as they are looking at AOD as well. I think this sentence can be dropped.

It could still misguide modelers in the sense that the relationship between AOD and Nd could point to processes and covariations that are not necessarily related to aerosol-cloud interactions. We slightly modified the sentence to makes the original statement less strong.

L311: I find the phrase "unlike previous assessments, but similar to Gryspeerdt et al. (2016)" a bit confusing. Gryspeerdt et al. (2016) is also a 'previous' study, so it might help to clarify what you

mean here. For example, do you refer to a specific group of ‘previous assessments’ using a different methodology?

We agree with the reviewer. Because we are talking about methodological differences rather than differences in conclusions, we are going to omit the “unlike previous assessments” phrase.