

1 **Aerosol Hygroscopicity Parameter Derived from the Light**  
2 **Scattering Enhancement Factor Measurements in the North**  
3 **China Plain**

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12 **Abstract**

13 The relative humidity (RH) dependence of aerosol light scattering is an essential  
14 parameter for accurate estimation of the direct radiative forcing induced by aerosol  
15 particles. Because of insufficient information on aerosol hygroscopicity in climate  
16 models, a more detailed parameterization of hygroscopic growth factors and resulting  
17 optical properties with respect to location, time, sources, aerosol chemistry and  
18 meteorology are urgently required. In this paper, a retrieval method to calculate the  
19 aerosol hygroscopicity parameter,  $\kappa$ , is proposed based on the in situ measured aerosol  
20 light scattering enhancement factor, namely  $f(\text{RH})$ , and particle number size  
21 distribution (PNSD) obtained from the HaChi (Haze in China) campaign.  
22 Measurements show that  $f(\text{RH})$  increases sharply with increasing RH, and that the  
23 time variance of  $f(\text{RH})$  is much greater at higher RH. A sensitivity analysis reveals  
24 that the  $f(\text{RH})$  is more sensitive to the aerosol hygroscopicity than PNSD.  $f(\text{RH})$  for  
25 polluted cases is distinctly higher than that for clean periods at a specific RH. The  
26 derived equivalent  $\kappa$ , combined with the PNSD measurements, is applied in the

1 prediction of the CCN number concentration. The predicted CCN number  
2 concentration with the derived equivalent  $\kappa$  agrees well with the measured ones,  
3 especially at high supersaturations. The proposed calculation algorithm of  $\kappa$  with the  
4  $f(\text{RH})$  measurements is demonstrated to be reasonable and can be widely applied.  
5

## 1 **1 Introduction**

2 Atmospheric aerosols contribute significantly to the uncertainties in the prediction of  
3 climate radiative forcing (IPCC, 2007). Aerosol optical properties are crucial input  
4 parameters for accurate estimation of the direct radiative forcing caused by aerosols in  
5 climate models. Covert *et al.* (1972) indicated that aerosol hygroscopicity can affect  
6 their optical properties via changing the particle size and refractive index, and hence  
7 influence the climatic and environmental effects of aerosols. As a result, the relative  
8 humidity (RH) dependence of aerosol optical properties, e.g., light scattering, is a key  
9 factor to the estimation of aerosol radiative forcing (Charlson *et al.*, 1992; Schwartz,  
10 1996). For better simulation and prediction of radiative transfer, along with aerosol  
11 relevant physical processes, parameterized forms of aerosol hygroscopic growth  
12 factors are usually required in General Circulation Models (GCMs). However,  
13 detailed information of aerosol hygroscopicity is always insufficient for the model  
14 input of GCMs. This therefore calls for more comprehensive description and  
15 corresponding parameterization of aerosol hygroscopicity.

16 The RH dependence of light scattering (denoted by  $f(\text{RH})$ ) is one of the physical  
17 parameters commonly applied to describe aerosol hygroscopicity. It is usually defined  
18 as the ratio of aerosol light scattering coefficients at a given RH ( $\sigma_{sc}(\text{RH})$ ) and at dry  
19 condition ( $\sigma_{sc,dry}$ ), namely,  $f(\text{RH}) = \sigma_{sc}(\text{RH})/\sigma_{sc,dry}$ . Numerous studies have  
20 demonstrated that the parameterized  $f(\text{RH})$  can be generally expressed as an  
21 exponential function of RH (Covert *et al.*, 1972; Fitzgerald *et al.*, 1982; Carrico *et al.*,  
22 1998, 2000, 2003; Kotchenruther *et al.*, 1999; Hegg *et al.*, 2002; Randriamiarisoa *et al.*,  
23 2006; Cheng *et al.*, 2008; Pan *et al.*, 2009; Fierz-Schmidhauser *et al.*, 2010a, b, c;  
24 Zieger *et al.*, 2010, 2013). It should be noted that, different from the size-resolved  
25 aerosol diameter growth factor ( $g(\text{RH})$ ),  $f(\text{RH})$  represents the overall aerosol light  
26 scattering enhancement factor of the aerosol population, and is jointly determined by  
27 the particle number size distribution (PNSD), chemical composition, density and  
28 refractive index. Additionally, the particle morphology changes can also strongly  
29 affect the aerosol optical and hygroscopic properties, leading to significant impact on

1  $f(\text{RH})$ . Pagels et al. (2009) found that the transformation of soot particles to spherical  
2 droplets can be achieved in several hours with atmospheric aging processes. With  
3 increasing RH and mass fraction of condensed soluble materials onto fresh soot, the  
4 light scattering and absorption of soot particle could be evidently enhanced (Khalizov  
5 et al., 2009; Pagels et al., 2009).

6 Pilat and Charlson (1966) attempted to measure the aerosol light scattering  
7 enhancement factor with a tandem integrating nephelometer. In the following studies,  
8 Covert et al. (1972) introduced a measuring method to determine the  $f(\text{RH})$  at a set  
9 RH value with a humidified integrating nephelometer. More recently, the principle of  
10 humidified nephelometry has been improved (Fierz-Schmidhauser et al., 2010a-c).  
11 By adding a fast temperature and RH feedback controller to the humidified  
12 nephelometer and maintaining a stable reference RH, a quick, automated response of  
13 the scanned RH, and  $f(\text{RH})$  can be achieved.

14 With the above-mentioned hygroscopicity measurement technologies, numerous  
15  $f(\text{RH})$ -related observations have been successively conducted worldwide. In the  
16 studies of Malm et al. (2001, 2003), results showed that aerosol can still take up water  
17 in a relatively low RH range of 20-30% RH. Nessler et al. (2005) found that  $f(\text{RH})$  is  
18 highly dependent on the mean particle diameter at a constant RH. By measuring and  
19 modeling  $f(\text{RH})$  for various aerosol types, comparison results reveal that the  $f(\text{RH})$  for  
20 marine aerosols (Carrico et al., 1998, 2000, 2003; McInnes et al., 1998; Gasso et al.,  
21 2000; Wang et al., 2007; Fierz-Schmidhauser et al., 2010b; Zieger et al., 2010) is  
22 generally higher than that for either urban (Fitzgerald et al., 1982; McInnes et al.,  
23 1998; Yan et al., 2009; Zieger et al., 2011) or continental aerosols (Sheridan et al.,  
24 2001; Fierz-Schmidhauser et al., 2010c; Zieger et al., 2012, 2013). The  $f(\text{RH})$  for  
25 mineral dust and freshly emitted biomass burning aerosols is significantly lower  
26 (Kotchenruther and Hobbs, 1998; Li-Jones et al., 1998; Carrico et al., 2003; Kim et al.,  
27 2006; Fierz-Schmidhauser et al., 2010a; Zieger et al., 2012). It is worth noting that the  
28  $f(\text{RH})$  for marine aerosols would show a decrease under strong anthropogenic  
29 influence (McInnes et al., 1998; Gasso et al., 2000; Wang et al., 2007;

1 [Fierz-Schmidhauser et al., 2010b](#); [Zieger et al., 2010](#)).

2 In the current research on aerosol hygroscopic and activation properties, one essential  
3 mission is to reliably predict the number concentration of cloud condensation nuclei  
4 (CCN). It is known that, at a given supersaturation, the aerosol activation ability is  
5 determined primarily by the particle size and secondarily by aerosol hygroscopicity  
6 ([Seinfeld and Pandis, 1998](#)). The online, continuous observations of PNSD can be  
7 easily achieved using commercial instruments. However, direct measurements of  
8 aerosol hygroscopicity are relatively much more difficult and demand custom  
9 instrumental systems. In this work, we attempt to derive the hygroscopicity parameter,  
10  $\kappa$ , with the measured  $f(\text{RH})$ . Analogous work had been reported by [Ervens et al.](#)  
11 ([2007](#)). In the proposed approach, they have made the assumption that the aerosol  
12 simply consisted of a soluble fraction of ammonium sulfate and an unspecified  
13 insoluble component. By varying the insoluble mass fraction, with modulating the  
14 comparison results between the measured and calculated  $f(\text{RH})$  at a specific RH to the  
15 minimum deviation, the aerosol hygroscopicity parameter can be obtained. It  
16 therefore provides a possible way for the prediction of aerosol activation property,  
17 hence building a bridge for the estimation of CCN number concentration with the  
18 measured PNSDs. We show that the retrieval algorithm for  $\kappa$  based on  $f(\text{RH})$   
19 measurements is of significant utility and applicability.

20 Recently, with the rapid economic growth, along with the sharp expansion of the  
21 industrialization and urbanization, most megacities in the North China Plain (NCP)  
22 have inevitably experienced severe aerosol pollution. [Liu et al. \(2009\)](#) found that the  
23 average surface level number concentration of aerosols within 0.12-3.0  $\mu\text{m}$  was about  
24  $6600 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ; whilst the annual mean (2005~2006) aerosol mass concentration of  
25 particles smaller than 2.5  $\mu\text{m}$  ( $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ ) was reported to be as high as  $118.5 \pm$   
26  $40.6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  ([Yang et al., 2011](#)). Resulting aerosol pollution episodes, as well as the  
27 aerosol-related environmental and health effects, have aroused great public concern.  
28 Considering the unique physical and chemical characteristics of aerosol particles in  
29 this region, research on aerosol hygroscopicity is of special necessity. Previous

1 studies indicated that aerosols in the highly polluted NCP are highly hygroscopic (Liu  
2 et al., 2011). Consequently, hygroscopic growth of the aerosol will have an immense  
3 impact on aerosol optical properties and cloud droplet activation (Deng et al., 2011;  
4 Chen et al., 2012). Nevertheless, due to the limitations of measurement technologies,  
5 it is relatively difficult to directly measure aerosol hygroscopicity, and hence the  
6 existing research results are insufficient (Massling et al., 2009; Meier et al., 2009).  
7 Because measurement of aerosol light scattering enhancement with integrating  
8 nephelometers is more feasible and practical, many measurements of  $f(\text{RH})$  have been  
9 carried out in the NCP, while relevant studies on  $f(\text{RH})$  in the northern part of the  
10 NCP are relatively scarce (Pan et al., 2009; Yan et al., 2009). For better estimation of  
11 the radiative forcing by aerosols in the NCP, a comprehensive description of aerosol  
12 hygroscopicity and parameterized hygroscopic growth factors are urgently needed in  
13 climate models.

14 In this study, a 20-day well-maintained  $f(\text{RH})$  observation, obtained from the Haze in  
15 China (HaChi) field campaign conducted in Wuqing, Tianjin, is analyzed. Statistical  
16 characteristics of  $f(\text{RH})$  in the northern part of the NCP region, along with their  
17 variations under different pollution levels, are investigated. A sensitivity analysis on  
18 dominating influence factors of  $f(\text{RH})$  is carried out, and the parameterization results  
19 of  $f(\text{RH})$  are presented. Based on the  $f(\text{RH})$  measurements, a new algorithm for  
20 deriving aerosol hygroscopicity parameter is introduced. An application of the  
21 retrieved  $\kappa$  in the prediction of the CCN number concentration ( $N_{CCN}$ ), along with the  
22 comparison study of  $N_{CCN}$  between the calculated and in situ measured values, is also  
23 performed. These results are of great reference value to the relevant model  
24 simulations of aerosol particles in the northern part of the NCP region.

25

## 26 **2 Experiment and Instrumentation**

27 The Wuqing site (39°23'N, 117°01'E, 6 m a.s.l.) is a suburban observation station in  
28 the NCP. It is situated in between the megacities Beijing and Tianjin. Wuqing can

1 highly represent the regional aerosol pollution in the northern part of NCP. More  
2 detailed site descriptions can be found in Ran et al. (2011) and Liu et al. (2011). A fog  
3 and haze experiment of the HaChi project was carried out at Wuqing from the end of  
4 October, 2009 to late January, 2010. The aim of the campaign is to obtain more  
5 insight into the physical and chemical characteristics of pollution aerosols, as well as  
6 the difference of aerosol optical properties between fog and haze, hence serving as  
7 reference criteria for distinguishing fog from haze. This work mainly focuses on the  
8 method of deriving  $\kappa$  from the measured  $f(\text{RH})$  in January in the northern part of the  
9 NCP region.

10 During the entire winter experiment, ground-level aerosol size distribution, optical  
11 and activation properties, visibility and meteorological parameters were measured.  
12 The PNSD in the submicron size range (14-736 nm) was measured by a scanning  
13 mobility particle sizer (SMPS) were only, with a time resolution of 5 minutes. A  
14 continuous-flow dual CCN counter (CCN-200, DMT, USA) (Roberts and Nenes,  
15 2005; Lance et al., 2006) was utilized to measure the aerosol activation properties at  
16 five set supersaturations (nominally 0.07, 0.10, 0.20, 0.40, and 0.80%). The  
17 observations were recorded every 30 minutes, and details can be obtained in Deng et  
18 al. (2011). The continuous  $f(\text{RH})$  measurement with a humidification system took  
19 place during January 1-20, 2010. A complete humidification cycle, with both elevated  
20 and decreased RH periods, lasted for about two and a half hours. In the data  
21 processing procedure, every 1-minute dry aerosol light scattering and absorption data,  
22 visibility, as well as meteorological parameters, was averaged into 5-minute mean  
23 values.

24 As introduced before, the two integrating nephelometers operated in parallel are often  
25 applied in the measurement of  $f(\text{RH})$ . What we used in this work is the integrating  
26 nephelometer (TSI Inc., Model 3563) at three wavelengths of 450, 550 and 700 nm,  
27 respectively. With no special statement, the wavelength of 550 nm is chosen for  
28 discussion in this study. In the humidification system, one reference nephelometer is  
29 used to measure the aerosol light scattering coefficient at dry conditions (usually

1 defined as  $RH < 40\%$ ), shortly called as “Dry-NEPH”; the other one, correspondingly  
2 named as “Humi-NEPH”, is operated in humidified conditions, hence the aerosol light  
3 scattering at a given RH is determined. The humidifier in the Humi-NEPH mainly  
4 consists of the following two parts. It is comprised of a deionized water bath  
5 connected in between the inhaled aerosol sample line and the nephelometer, and a  
6 water vapor penetrating membrane tube immersed through a heatable metal pipe. The  
7 aerosol flow is first exposed to an increasing RH in the humidifier till a maximum RH  
8 value has been reached inside the Humi-NEPH, and then dehydrated with the  
9 decrease of RH. The given RH, depending on the flow and surrounding temperature  
10 conditions, is achieved by controlling of the water temperature inside the water bath.  
11 By modulating the power of the heating equipment, the water temperature is regulated,  
12 which in turn controls the water vapor permeated to mix with aerosol sample. During  
13 our  $f(RH)$  measurements, 117 valid humidifying cycles are achieved. Generally, the  
14 humidifier is capable of increasing the RH from 30% to 90%. Nevertheless, cases of  
15 RH lower than 20% and up to 95% have been occasionally observed. More details of  
16 the Humi-NEPH can refer to Covert et al. (1972) and Fierz-Schmidhauser et al.  
17 (2010c).

18 A comparative analysis of  $\sigma_{sc}$  between measured with the Humi-NEPH at RH below  
19 40% and the reference Dry-NEPH was performed. Results show that the dry  $\sigma_{sc}$   
20 values measured with the two nephelometers generally agree well with each other,  
21 with the correlation coefficient higher than 0.99 ( $R=0.998$ ). The corresponding  
22 regression slope and intercept are 1.06 and  $-0.59$ , respectively, suggesting that the dry  
23  $\sigma_{sc}$  measured with the Humi-NEPH is relatively higher. The discrepancies between the  
24 two observations could be induced by the following accounts. One is probably due to  
25 the weak hygroscopic growth of aerosols at low RH, leading to higher  $\sigma_{sc}$  values than  
26 those measured under dry conditions. Another possible explanation may be attributed  
27 to a difference in RH or in the RH history of the aerosol sample in the nephelometer  
28 system along with hysteresis effects. Additionally, uncertainties of the  $\sigma_{sc}$   
29 measurement derived from different aerosol chemical compositions and mixing states



1 at high aerosol loading can also contribute considerably to the discrepancies.

2

### 3 **3 Results and Discussion**

4 In this section, the characteristics and variations of simultaneously measured  $f(\text{RH})$ ,  
5 dry  $\sigma_{sc}$  and wind parameters will be investigated at first. The parameterization results  
6 of  $f(\text{RH})$  under different pollution cases are discussed based on the sensitivity analysis  
7 on the factors influencing the time variance of  $f(\text{RH})$ . An algorithm for retrieving the  
8 aerosol hygroscopicity parameter with  $f(\text{RH})$  measurements is introduced.

#### 9 **3.1 Overview of the $f(\text{RH})$ measurements**

10 Previous work has demonstrated that there were two typical synoptic conditions in  
11 winter of the NCP region. Strong winds from the north are often observed with the  
12 slightest polluted conditions, while the mild southerly winds would result in severe  
13 local pollution due to the accumulation of pollutants with weak diffusion, contributing  
14 to the highly frequent haze events (Xu et al., 2011). In this sense, aerosol pollution  
15 events in winter at Wuqing are highly correlated with the wind speed and prevailing  
16 wind direction. To investigate the variation of  $f(\text{RH})$  under different pollution levels,  
17 two distinctly different aerosol pollution episodes were recognized beforehand.

18 Fig.1 presents the time series of the 5-minute mean dry  $\sigma_{sc}$  at 550 nm wavelength  
19 ( $\sigma_{sc,dry}^{550}$ ) and the simultaneously measured wind parameter throughout the January  
20 observations. Considering the wind dependency of dry  $\sigma_{sc}$ , several typical observation  
21 periods are selected to categorize the clean and polluted cases. During the periods of  
22 DOY4.2-5.6 and DOY 11-13.5 (DOY here means the date of the year, counting from  
23 number 1. e.g., DOY1.5 thus represents 12:00h of January 1, and so on.), the  
24 dominating wind is continuous strong northerly, with wind speeds generally reaching  
25 above  $5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ . Most of the accumulated air pollutants are swept away and the Wuqing  
26 site is controlled by the clean air mass from the northern regions. The dry  $\sigma_{sc}$  hardly  
27 exceeds  $100 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$ . The corresponding 5-minute mean dry  $\sigma_{sc}$  for the two periods is  
28  $44.7 \pm 21.2 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$ , being much lower than that of the overall mean level ( $484.5 \pm$

1 458.1  $\text{Mm}^{-1}$ ) in January. Consequently, the two periods are chosen as the  
2 representative of clean conditions. During DOY7-11 and DOY16-20, the wind speed  
3 almost keeps fluctuating at around  $1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ . The campaign site is mainly influenced by  
4 the local emissions and pollutants transported from surrounding areas. The dry  $\sigma_{sc}$   
5 over  $1000 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$  is frequently observed, with a significantly high 5-minute mean  $\sigma_{sc}$   
6 value of  $894.8 \pm 410.9 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$ . As a result, these two periods are used to characterize  
7 the polluted cases.

8 Overall, the measured  $f(\text{RH})$  varies in the range of 1.0-3.0. Table 1 displays the mean  
9 and corresponding standard deviation ( $\sigma$ ) values of in situ measured  $f(\text{RH})$  at specific  
10 RHs under different pollution levels, where “Average” represents the overall mean  
11 value for the whole  $f(\text{RH})$  measurement period. It can be found that  $f(\text{RH})$  increases  
12 significantly with increasing RH. At 80% RH, the mean  $f(\text{RH})$  values for clean and  
13 polluted cases are  $1.46 \pm 0.15$  and  $1.58 \pm 0.19$ , respectively, while the corresponding  
14 mean  $f(\text{RH})$  to the overall average condition is  $1.58 \pm 0.22$ , approximating to that of  
15 the value during polluted periods. The  $f(\text{RH}=80\%)$  measurements presented here are  
16 comparable to the results concluded by Pan et al. (2009) at a rural site near Beijing,  
17 with the mean  $f(\text{RH})$  values of  $1.31 \pm 0.03$  and  $1.57 \pm 0.02$  corresponding to clean and  
18 urban pollution episodes, respectively. These values are all much higher than those  
19 reported by Yan et al. (2009) for the Shangdianzi background observation station,  
20 another rural site of northern China with smaller anthropogenic influence.

21 At  $\text{RH} = 90\%$ , the mean  $f(\text{RH})$  for the entire  $f(\text{RH})$  observation period is  $1.90 \pm 0.27$ ,  
22 while the mean values for both clean and polluted conditions are  $1.71 \pm 0.26$  and  $1.93$   
23  $\pm 0.21$ , respectively. It is noted that the general mean  $f(\text{RH}=90\%)$  is roughly  
24 approaching 2.0. From the definition of  $f(\text{RH})$ , it indicates that the integral light  
25 scattering of the aerosol population has nearly doubled with respect to the  $\sigma_{sc}$  at dry  
26 conditions. As suggested in previous studies, aerosol light scattering approximately  
27 contributes 90% to the total aerosol light extinction, and this proportion would  
28 increase with growing RH (Yuan et al., 2006; Cheng et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2012).  
29 In other words, aerosol light extinction at 90% RH would be enhanced approximately

1 twice as much as the corresponding value at dry conditions. According to the  
2 Koschmieder theory (Seinfeld and Pandis, 1998), there is an empirical negative  
3 correlation between the visibility and light extinction. In this sense, the visibility  
4 would therefore be degraded to be half of the level at dry conditions. This is of great  
5 instructive significance to the low visibility monitoring and forecast for relevant  
6 environmental departments.

7 Table 1 also presents the mean  $f(\text{RH})$  results corresponding to both clean and polluted  
8 cases. The  $f(\text{RH})$  for clean periods is significantly lower than the corresponding value  
9 for polluted episodes at each specific RH. In addition, the overall mean  $f(\text{RH})$  for the  
10 whole  $f(\text{RH})$  observation period is even closer to the mean value for polluted cases, as  
11 a result of the longer duration of polluted conditions than that of the clean periods.  
12 Similar conclusions can be easily drawn from Fig.2.

13 Fig.2 illustrates the corresponding variations of mean  $f(\text{RH})$  with RH during the clean,  
14 average, and polluted periods. The right panel (Fig.2 (b)) displays the occurrence  
15 frequency distributions of measured  $f(\text{RH})$  at four selected RHs. It is apparent that  
16  $f(\text{RH})$  presents an approximating exponential variation with the increase of RH. The  
17 time variance of  $f(\text{RH})$  seems to be greater at higher RH, as indicated evidently by the  
18 PDF of  $f(\text{RH})$  in Fig.2 (b). At a specific RH, the  $f(\text{RH})$  for polluted episodes is  
19 significantly higher than that for clean cases. In particular, the deviation of  $f(\text{RH})$   
20 between those measured under clean and polluted conditions is more notable at higher  
21 RHs.

22 The error bar, or rather the standard deviation, of the overall mean  $f(\text{RH})$  at a given  
23 RH presents an increasing trend with the increase of RH. The possible reasons for the  
24 time variance of  $f(\text{RH})$  at different RHs can be attributed as below. As illustrated by  
25 the definition of  $f(\text{RH})$ , it denotes the ratio of aerosol light scattering at a specific RH  
26 to dry scattering coefficient. Hence, the time variance of  $f(\text{RH})$  is mainly contributed  
27 by the variation of  $\sigma_{sc}$  in humidified conditions. According to the theoretical  
28 calculation of aerosol optical properties at a fixed wavelength with the Mie model  
29 (Mie, 1908; Bohren and Huffman, 1983), the crucial input parameters primarily

1 include the particle size, refractive index and aerosol size distribution. At ambient RH  
2 conditions, aerosol hygroscopic growth can change the particle size and refractive  
3 index by taking up water, and this effect would be presented more significantly with  
4 the increase of RH. Nevertheless, previous investigations have demonstrated that the  
5 aerosol refractive index varies slightly with the changing RH, hence has insignificant  
6 influence on aerosol light scattering (Lesins et al., 2002; Cheng et al., 2006).  
7 Consequently, the key factors dominating the time variance of  $f(\text{RH})$  should be  
8 ascribed to the aerosol size distribution and hygroscopicity. In general, at low RH,  
9 aerosol hygroscopic growth is not so strong, the accompanied shift of PNSD also  
10 indistinct, and thus induces a relatively small time variance of  $f(\text{RH})$ . While at high  
11 RH, the influence of aerosol hygroscopic growth on both of the particle size and  
12 PNSD pattern is much more significant. As a result, it will dramatically affect the time  
13 variance of  $f(\text{RH})$ .

14 Briefly, the  $f(\text{RH})$  is determined by both of the PNSD and aerosol hygroscopicity  
15 related to the chemical composition. To understand how  $f(\text{RH})$  is dependent on the  
16 aerosol size distribution and aerosol hygroscopicity, a detailed sensitivity analysis is  
17 needed.

18

### 19 **3.2 Factors influencing $f(\text{RH})$**

20 Detailed procedures of the sensitivity analysis are as follows: (1) With a fixed PNSD,  
21 varying the aerosol hygroscopic growth factors, the  $f(\text{RH})$  values corresponding to  
22 different water uptake abilities can be theoretically estimated with the Mie model.  
23 This illustrates how  $f(\text{RH})$  depends on aerosol hygroscopicity. Specifically, a mean  
24 PNSD is used in this work. (2) Using a constant aerosol hygroscopicity parameter,  $\kappa$ ,  
25 while altering the PNSD, the  $f(\text{RH})$  corresponding to each PNSD can be derived from  
26 the Mie calculation. Here we use the temporal averaged size-resolved hygroscopic  
27 growth factors. Correspondingly, this is regarded as the sensitivity test of  $f(\text{RH})$  to the  
28 aerosol size distribution.

1 To simplify calculations, the sensitivity analysis of  $f(\text{RH})$  to the aerosol  
2 hygroscopicity is based on the assumption that a specific PNSD corresponds to an  
3 integral mean  $\kappa$ . By changing the value of the overall mean  $\kappa$ , the mean size-resolved  
4 aerosol hygroscopic growth factors corresponding to different water absorption  
5 capabilities can be derived with the  $\kappa$ -Köhler theory (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007).  
6 Combined with the fixed PNSD, the variation of  $f(\text{RH})$  under different hygroscopic  
7 capacities can be estimated with the Mie model.

8 On account of the integrity and availability of the corresponding data for the  
9 sensitivity analysis, the in situ measured PNSDs, mean size-resolved hygroscopic  
10 growth factors, along with the aerosol optical observations during the HaChi summer  
11 campaign are applied in the theoretical calculation of  $f(\text{RH})$  with the Mie model.  
12 Comprehensive information of the HaChi field campaign and relevant data can be  
13 found in previous studies (Liu et al., 2011; Ma et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2012). Results  
14 of the sensitivity analysis are given in Fig.3.

15 The left panel of Fig.3 shows the equivalent  $f(\text{RH})$  derived from the in situ measured  
16 dry  $\sigma_{sc}$  and ambient visibilities. With the visibility observations, the ambient light  
17 extinction can be obtained by using the Koschmieder theory (Seinfeld and Pandis,  
18 1998). Based on the single scattering albedo induced by the measurements of light  
19 scattering and absorption under dry conditions, the ambient  $\sigma_{sc}$  can then be roughly  
20 estimated with the light extinction. In this case, the variation of the achieved  $f(\text{RH})$  at  
21 a specific RH (namely,  $\Delta f(\text{RH})$ ) should be caused by the fluctuation of both PNSD  
22 and aerosol hygroscopicity.

23 The middle panel presents the sensitivity analysis of  $f(\text{RH})$  to the aerosol size  
24 distribution. The mean size-resolved hygroscopic growth factors are applied in the  
25 Mie calculation. As a result, it can be considered as a constant  $\kappa$  to all the measured  
26 PNSDs. The  $\Delta f(\text{RH})$  in this condition should be mainly induced by the changing  
27 PNSD patterns. However, unlike the high perturbation of measured  $f(\text{RH})$ , little  
28 variation of  $\Delta f(\text{RH})$  is found in this sensitivity study.

1 The right panel illustrates the sensitivity results of  $f(\text{RH})$  to aerosol hygroscopicity. It  
2 can be found that the  $f(\text{RH})$  curves are elevated with the increase of the mean  $\kappa$  values.  
3 That is, at a selected RH, the higher the mean  $\kappa$  is, the larger the absolute  $f(\text{RH})$  value  
4 is. It is even more apparent at high RH conditions.

5 Generally, the sensitivity analysis demonstrates that, at a specific RH, the  $f(\text{RH})$   
6 seems to be more sensitive to the variation of aerosol hygroscopicity. It might be  
7 mainly induced by the varying chemical components of aerosol particles. The PNSD  
8 pattern changes can also impact the  $f(\text{RH})$ , and the effect is more significant at high  
9 RH conditions.

10

### 11 **3.3 A parameterization scheme of $f(\text{RH})$**

12 At low RH, the variation of  $f(\text{RH})$  is inconspicuous, while under high RH conditions  
13 the  $f(\text{RH})$  varies considerably with the increasing RH. To better describe the variation  
14 of  $f(\text{RH})$ , a stepwise function is applied to fit the  $f(\text{RH})$  measurements. On the basis of  
15 previously suggested empirical functions (Carrico et al., 1998, 2000, 2003;  
16 Kotchenruther et al., 1999; Hegg et al., 2002; Randriamiarisoa et al., 2006; Pan et al.,  
17 2009), a specific polynomial segment fitting, with the critical RH of 60 %, is applied  
18 in the parameterization of  $f(\text{RH})$ , as expressed in eq.(1). The parameterization results  
19 are displayed in Table 2.

$$20 \quad f(RH) = a \cdot (1 - RH)^{-b \cdot RH} \quad (1)$$

21 The fitting parameters of  $f(\text{RH})$  are summarized in Table 2. Large difference of the  
22 fitting parameter  $b$  appears at RH below 60%, while the parameterized  $f(\text{RH})$  of  $\text{RH} \geq$   
23 60% presents slight variation under varying pollution conditions. At low RH, the  
24 influence of aerosol hygroscopicity on the  $f(\text{RH})$  is indistinct, and the  $f(\text{RH})$  could be  
25 more sensitive to the changing PNSD. In this sense, the difference of the fitting  
26 parameters among different pollution levels is evident. While at high RH, the  
27 variation of  $f(\text{RH})$  is dominated by the influence coming from the aerosol

1 hygroscopicity. Aerosol hygroscopicity is mainly determined by the mass fraction of  
2 ammonium sulfate or nitrate in the accumulation mode of the aerosol population, with  
3 the soluble mass fraction showing little variation (Liu et al., 2014). Hence, the  
4 difference of this effect among varying pollution cases is not apparent. As a result, the  
5 fitting parameters would present little variation among different pollution levels.

6

### 7 **3.4 Aerosol hygroscopicity parameter derived from the $f(\text{RH})$ measurements**

8 The RH dependence of light scattering is a widely used parameter for the description  
9 of aerosol hygroscopicity. According to the single parameterized  $\kappa$ -Köhler theory  
10 proposed by Petters and Kreidenweis (2007), with a known mean  $\kappa$ , the size-resolved  
11 aerosol diameter growth factors can be roughly estimated. Combining with the aerosol  
12 size distribution, the corresponding  $f(\text{RH})$  could be calculated with the Mie model. On  
13 the contrary, the aerosol hygroscopicity parameter,  $\kappa$ , could be theoretically obtained  
14 with the  $f(\text{RH})$  and PNSD measurements. It should be pointed out that the achieved  $\kappa$ ,  
15 derived from the measured  $f(\text{RH})$ , is slightly different from the size-dependent  $\kappa$ . The  
16  $\kappa$  here represents the overall mean hygroscopicity corresponding to the aerosol size  
17 distribution, reflecting the overall ability of the aerosol population to take up water,  
18 without the details of size-resolved hygroscopic growth.

19 Based on the method described previously (Ervens et al., 2007), a straightforward  
20 algorithm for deriving  $\kappa$  is proposed in this study. The main difference between the  
21 two methods is that, rather than varying the mass fraction of the insoluble compound  
22 to restrict the aerosol chemical composition in the algorithm introduced by Ervens et  
23 al., the new method is performed by changing the initial value of the assumed  $\kappa$ . To  
24 reduce the possible influence of observational random errors on the estimated results,  
25 all the valid  $f(\text{RH})$  measurements in the increasing RH period during a complete  
26 humidifying cycle are used to derive the overall mean hygroscopicity parameter,  $\kappa$ . In  
27 particular, the  $\kappa$  during the 2.5-hour observation period is supposed to be constant. On  
28 the assumption that all the particle size bins are of the same  $\kappa$  value, the size-resolved

1 diameter growth factors at a fixed RH can be estimated according to the  $\kappa$ -Köhler  
2 theory.

3 By using the simultaneously measured mean PNSD during the entire cycle in the Mie  
4 calculation, the  $f(\text{RH})$  corresponding to each given RH can thus be obtained with an  
5 assumed  $\kappa$ . By comparing the estimated  $f(\text{RH})$  results to the in situ measured ones, a  
6 least summation of the deviations between the two  $f(\text{RH})$  values at an individual RH  
7 should be reached at a specific  $\kappa$ . Consequently, the assumed  $\kappa$  is regarded as the  
8 mean equivalent  $\kappa$  of the whole period. The algorithm procedure is illustrated in Fig.4.

9 In this algorithm, the refractive index for dry aerosol particles ( $\tilde{m}_{dry}$ ) is assumed on  
10 the basis of the observations during the HaChi campaign (Ma et al., 2011), with the  
11 mean value of  $\tilde{m}_{dry} = 1.55-0.02i$ . Taking the effect of water uptake on the particle  
12 refractive index into consideration, the size-resolved refractive index for ambient  
13 aerosols after hygroscopic growth ( $\tilde{m}_{wet}(D_{wet})$ ) can be obtained from the  
14 volume-weighted average of the dry particle and water content:

$$15 \quad \tilde{m}_{wet}(D_{wet}) = \frac{\left(g(RH, D_{dry})^3 - 1\right) \cdot \tilde{m}_{water} + \tilde{m}_{dry}}{g(RH, D_{dry})^3} \quad (2)$$

16 Where,  $D_{dry}$  and  $D_{wet}$  are the aerosol diameters at dry and ambient RH conditions,  
17 respectively.  $g(RH, D_{dry})$  represents the size-resolved diameter growth factors.

18  $\tilde{m}_{water}$  is the refractive index for pure water, which is reported to be  $1.33-0i$ .

19 Using the relevant aforementioned parameters, the aerosol light scattering coefficients  
20 corresponding to both dry and specific RH conditions can be derived with the Mie  
21 model. As a result, the  $f(\text{RH})$  at a given RH is determined, expressed as  $f(\text{RH})_{cal}$ .  
22 Accordingly, all the  $f(\text{RH})_{cal}$  at every individually measured  $\text{RH}_i$  during the whole  
23 humidifying cycle are estimated. After that, a discriminant coefficient,  $F$ ,  
24 corresponding to each assumed  $\kappa$  is introduced as below:



$$F = \sum_i \left( f(RH_i)_{cal} - f(RH_i)_{mea} \right)^2 \quad (3)$$

Where  $f(RH_i)_{mea}$  stands for the in situ measured  $f(RH)$  at a specific  $RH_i$  during the observation period. By varying the initial value of assumed  $\kappa$ , a minimum  $F$  can be achieved. Hence, the mean equivalent  $\kappa$  of the entire cycle is obtained.

Fig.5 illustrates an example of the calculated  $\kappa$  with the described algorithm. The red circles in the left panel represent the valid  $f(RH)$  measurements during a humidifying cycle, while the gradient colored ones denote the calculated  $f(RH)$  corresponding to different assumed  $\kappa$  values. Nearly all the  $f(RH)$  measurements are distributed in the calculation ranges. Therefore, a specific  $\kappa$  should be definitely achieved to satisfy the requirement of minimizing the discriminant coefficient,  $F$ . The right panel of Fig.5 just presents the results of discriminant coefficients corresponding to the varying assumed  $\kappa$  values shown in the left panel. It can be found that  $F$  reaches a minimum level at  $\kappa = 0.31$ , indicating the mean equivalent  $\kappa$  of the selected cycle is 0.31.

With the estimation algorithm, the equivalent  $\kappa$  of all the effective  $f(RH)$  measurements are retrieved. Results show that, during the entire  $f(RH)$  observation period, the mean equivalent  $\kappa$  value varies over the range of 0.06-0.28, with a general mean value of  $0.14 \pm 0.05$ . The statistical results of the derived mean  $\kappa$  corresponding to different pollution cases are also summarized in Table 3.

The statistics of the equivalent  $\kappa$  listed in Table 3- reveal that differences among the equivalent  $\kappa$  values are commonly found under varying pollution conditions. To be specific, in clean cases as defined beforehand, the mean value of the equivalent  $\kappa$  retrieved from the measured  $f(RH)$  is  $0.11 \pm 0.03$ , while the mean value for polluted episodes is relatively higher ( $0.13 \pm 0.04$ ). One possible reason can be concluded as below. Different aerosol types can result in large variations of the aerosol hygroscopicity, leading to distinct variation of the  $f(RH)$ . During different pollution periods, the main chemical compositions of aerosol particles could be of great difference, hence the aerosol water uptake ability might differ significantly from each other.

1 It is noteworthy that, uncertainties of the derived equivalent  $\kappa$  results are possibly  
2 caused by the following two aspects. One stems from the uncertainty of the  
3 assumptions applied in the retrieval algorithm. A constant  $\kappa$  is assumed during a  
4 complete 2.5-hour humidifying cycle, which is generally appropriate for the  
5 conditions that chemical composition changes of ambient aerosols are unremarkable.  
6 Due to the lack of size-resolved aerosol hygroscopic growth factors, a constant  $\kappa$  is  
7 assumed for all the particle size bins to calculate the equivalent  $\kappa$ . This is apparently  
8 not in accordance with the actual conditions. Results show that the  $\kappa$  values  
9 corresponding to different particle sizes are of distinct variation (Chen et al., 2012). In  
10 addition, for particles of a specific size, the varying aerosol chemical composition,  
11 mixing state and particle morphology could also result in a relatively wider  
12 probability distribution of  $\kappa$  (Liu et al., 2011). The other uncertainty lies in the  
13 observation errors of the data used in the calculation of  $\kappa$ . In other words, all the  
14 observation parameters, including the in situ measured  $f(\text{RH})$ , PNSDs,  $\sigma_{sc}$  at both dry  
15 and humidified conditions, along with the RH observations, are of different  
16 uncertainties. It would inevitably lead to random error of the derived  $\kappa$ .

17

### 18 **3.5 An application: prediction of CCN number concentration**

19 Combining the derived  $\kappa$  values, the number concentration of CCN is calculated with  
20 the  $f(\text{RH})$  and PNSD measurements. A comparison of the predicted and in situ  
21 measured CCN number concentrations is performed in this section.

22 According to the  $\kappa$ -Köhler theory (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007), the critical  
23 activation dry diameter,  $D_c$ , at a specific supersaturation (SS) can be theoretically  
24 derived with a known  $\kappa$ . That is, at the given SS, particles equal or larger than  $D_c$  can  
25 be activated into CCN, while the aerosols smaller than  $D_c$  cannot be activated.  
26 Consequently, the number of activated CCN, namely  $N_{CCN}$ , at a selected SS can be  
27 calculated as follows:

1 
$$N_{CCN} = \int_{D_c}^{\infty} n(\log D) \cdot AR(D) \cdot d \log D \quad (4)$$

2 Where,  $D$  is the dry particle diameter.  $n(\log D)$  stands for the in situ measured PNSD,  
3 and  $AR(D)$  represents the activation ratio, namely the number fraction of the activated  
4 aerosols to the aerosol population.

5 During the winter fog and haze experiment, the PNSD measurements are only in the  
6 size range of 14-736 nm, lacking the size distribution information of larger aerosols in  
7 super micron ranges. Nevertheless, the mean level of the total number concentration  
8 of particles larger than 700 nm is just  $13 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  during the 2009 HaChi winter campaign  
9 (Ma et al., 2011). As a result, without considering some special pollution episodes,  
10 e.g., dust storms, the slight influence on the  $N_{CCN}$  calculation contributed by the super  
11 micron particles could be neglected in this study.

12 Throughout the  $f(\text{RH})$  observations, continuous measurements of the  $N_{CCN}$  at five  
13 specific supersaturations (0.07%, 0.10%, 0.20%, 0.40%, and 0.80%, respectively) are  
14 simultaneously conducted. With the observed PNSDs and the real-time  $\kappa$  values  
15 retrieved from the  $f(\text{RH})$  measurements, the corresponding  $N_{CCN}$  at each individual SS  
16 can be estimated with eq.(4). The predicted  $N_{CCN}$  values are then compared to the in  
17 situ measured ones at a specific SS, with the comparison results presented in Fig.6.

18 Distinctly, at the five supersaturations, the estimation values are generally comparable  
19 with the corresponding measured  $N_{CCN}$ . At 0.07% and 0.10% SS, the calculated  $N_{CCN}$   
20 are significantly lower than the in situ observations; while at SS above 0.20%, with  
21 the increase of  $N_{CCN}$ , the predictions are evidently higher than the measured  $N_{CCN}$ .  
22 This is mainly caused by the influence of high  $N_{CCN}$  on the CCNC measurement. That  
23 is, at high  $N_{CCN}$ , the overlap of particles can result in an underestimation of the actual  
24  $N_{CCN}$ . The limited water vapor supply in the cloud chamber of the CCNC instrument  
25 could also lead to an underestimation of the measured  $N_{CCN}$  at high  $N_{CCN}$  conditions.  
26 Due to the insufficient water vapor supply, a portion of the aerosols that should have  
27 been activated would not be activated into CCNs. Determined by the measurement  
28 limitations of the CCNC itself, it is much more difficult to maintain at a stable lower

1 supersaturation ( $SS < 0.1\%$ ). Consequently, the fluctuation of the supersaturation  
2 during the  $N_{CCN}$  measurement would contribute large uncertainty to the observations,  
3 leading to different comparison results at varying supersaturations.

4 To quantitatively evaluate the deviation of  $N_{CCN}$  between the predicted and measured  
5 values, a linear regression is performed to all the  $N_{CCN}$  measurements. The fitting  
6 function is as below:

$$7 \quad N_{CCN,cal} = b \cdot N_{CCN,mea} \quad (5)$$

8 Considering the underestimation of  $N_{CCN}$  induced by high  $N_{CCN}$ , the similar influence  
9 would not appear at relatively low CCN number concentrations of  $N_{CCN} < 5000 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ .  
10 Hence, the linear fitting is carried out for the following two conditions. One is aimed  
11 at all the  $N_{CCN}$  measurements. The other is just to focus on the cases of  $N_{CCN}$  below  
12  $5000 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ . The corresponding fitting results at each specific SS are summarized in  
13 Table 4. The fitting parameters displayed are the slope of the regression line,  $b$ , and  
14 the corresponding regression sum of squares,  $R^2$ , respectively.

15 Apart from the relatively lower  $R^2$  of 0.74 at 0.07% SS, the  $R^2$  values at the other four  
16 supersaturations are all higher than 0.8, suggesting a good correlation between the  
17 calculated  $N_{CCN}$  and measured ones. On account of the increase of  $N_{CCN}$  with the  
18 increasing SS, the fitting slope,  $b$ , of all the  $N_{CCN}$  samples also presents an evident  
19 increasing trend with the increase of SS. To be specific,  $b$  has increased from 0.62 at  
20 0.07% SS to 1.24 at 0.80% SS. While in the case of  $N_{CCN} < 5000 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ , the slope  $b$   
21 shows no significant variation with the increasing SS, generally fluctuating around 0.7.  
22 It reveals that, excluding the measurement error of the CCNC itself, the predicted  
23  $N_{CCN}$  with the retrieved real-time  $\kappa$  is about 30% lower than the measured values at a  
24 specific SS. The 30% deviation is even lower than the measurement error stemmed  
25 from the influence of high  $N_{CCN}$ . This partially confirms that the real-time equivalent  
26  $\kappa$  retrieved from the  $f(\text{RH})$  measurements could well characterize the overall  
27 hygroscopic and activation properties of the aerosol population. Besides the real-time  
28  $\kappa$ , whether the temporal averaged equivalent  $\kappa$  be able to reliably represent the aerosol

1 hygroscopic and activation features as well? To find a clue for it, the overall mean  $\kappa$   
2 ( $\kappa = 0.14$ ) over the whole  $f(\text{RH})$  observation period is applied in the analogous  
3 calculation of  $N_{CCN}$ , and the similar comparison and fitting of  $N_{CCN}$  between the  
4 predicted and measured results are conducted. The corresponding regression results  
5 are also displayed in Table 4.

6 In the case of  $N_{CCN}$  calculation with the overall mean  $\kappa$ , the regression slope,  $b$ , is  
7 exclusively higher than that calculated with the real-time  $\kappa$  at each individual SS. The  
8 corresponding  $R^2$  values for the overall mean  $\kappa$  cases are also significantly higher.  
9 This is more obviously presented in the fitting results for the situation of  $N_{CCN} <$   
10  $5000 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ , where the slope is closer to 1.0, suggesting less deviation between the  
11 estimated and measured values. This demonstrates that the prediction of  $N_{CCN}$  with the  
12 overall mean  $\kappa$  is more effective than that calculated with the real-time equivalent  $\kappa$ .

13 The possible reasons can be concluded as below. Previous studies have indicated that  
14 the aerosol activation property is slightly influenced by the natural variation of aerosol  
15 chemical compositions (Deng et al., 2011), while the size effect on the activation  
16 ability is dominating (Dusek et al., 2006). The influence of the PNSD on the  $N_{CCN}$   
17 prediction is superior to that of the aerosol hygroscopicity. Moreover, calculation error  
18 inevitably lies in the estimation of  $N_{CCN}$ . As illustrated in section 3.4, the proposed  $\kappa$   
19 retrieval algorithm based on the  $f(\text{RH})$  and PNSD measurements would lead to  
20 random error of the derived  $\kappa$  and hence result in uncertainty in the calculated final  
21  $N_{CCN}$ . However, with the overall mean  $\kappa$ , the random error of  $\kappa$  can be reduced by the  
22 temporal averaging method to some extent. As a result, the random deviation of the  
23 predicted  $N_{CCN}$  would be decreased, leading to a better correlation with the measured  
24 values.

25 At  $N_{CCN} < 5000 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ , the slope  $b$  for each specific SS is still lower than 0.9, with the  
26 minimum value of 0.61, even if calculated with the overall mean  $\kappa$ . The systematic  
27 deviation between the predicted and measured results could be attributed to the  
28 following accounts. As discussed beforehand, the assumption of a constant  $\kappa$  for all  
29 the particle size bins applied in the  $\kappa$  retrieval algorithm is of unavoidable uncertainty

1 and would also result in uncertainty of the derived  $\kappa$ . As a consequence, the prediction  
2 of  $N_{CCN}$  based on the assumed constant  $\kappa$  in the whole size range would certainly  
3 possess some calculation error. Another possible explanation can be ascribed to the  
4 influence introduced by particles larger than 700 nm. By only considering the PNSDs  
5 of submicron particles, the contribution of super micron aerosols to the  $N_{CCN}$   
6 calculation has been neglected. It might also cause uncertainty to the estimation  
7 results.

8 To sum up, taking into consideration of the measurement errors, along with the  
9 uncertainty of the predefined assumptions in the  $\kappa$  retrieval process with the measured  
10  $f(\text{RH})$ , the time-averaged mean  $\kappa$  over a relatively long observation period is  
11 recommended to perform the  $N_{CCN}$  calculation. Alternatively, the retrieved real-time  $\kappa$   
12 can be categorized into several types according to a certain classification criterion.  
13 Combined with the mean  $\kappa$  to different conditions, the in situ measured PNSDs can be  
14 used to predict  $N_{CCN}$ . In this sense, the retrieval algorithm for  $\kappa$  with the  $f(\text{RH})$   
15 measurements is of essential importance to the estimation of  $N_{CCN}$ . Nevertheless,  
16 more efforts need to be taken for the improvement of  $f(\text{RH})$  measurements, and thus  
17 achieve the goal of lower observation uncertainty but higher temporal resolution.

18

#### 19 **4 Summary and Conclusions**

20 The RH dependence of aerosol optical properties, e.g., light scattering, is a crucial  
21 input parameter for accurate estimation of the direct radiative forcing by aerosols.  
22 However, the information of aerosol hygroscopicity is always insufficiently  
23 implemented in climate models. As a result, more detailed description and  
24 parameterization of hygroscopic growth factors are greatly in need. On this account,  
25 measurements of the aerosol light scattering enhancement factor,  $f(\text{RH})$ , were carried  
26 out during the HaChi campaign at the Wuqing site in the northern part of the NCP  
27 region. Simultaneously, ground-level PNSD, aerosol optical properties, along with the  
28 meteorological parameters, were continuously measured.

1 Based on the in situ observations, the variation of  $f(\text{RH})$  corresponding to different  
2 pollution cases is discussed. The sensitivity of  $f(\text{RH})$  to both aerosol hygroscopicity  
3 and PNSD is investigated with the Mie model. A parameterization of  $f(\text{RH})$  for  
4 different pollution cases is also performed in this work. Additionally, an improved  
5 algorithm for retrieving the aerosol hygroscopicity parameter,  $\kappa$ , with the  $f(\text{RH})$  and  
6 PNSD measurements is developed. With the derived equivalent  $\kappa$  results, the  
7 prediction of  $N_{CCN}$  at five specific supersaturations is separately conducted by using  
8 the measured PNSDs. To quantitatively evaluate the estimation results, the predicted  
9  $N_{CCN}$  values are compared to the measured  $N_{CCN}$ .

10 Measurements show that  $f(\text{RH})$  increases dramatically with the increasing RH. At  
11 80% RH, the mean  $f(\text{RH})$  for the entire  $f(\text{RH})$  observation period is  $1.58 \pm 0.22$ , while  
12 the corresponding mean values for clean and polluted cases are  $1.46 \pm 0.15$  and  $1.58 \pm$   
13  $0.19$ , respectively. The  $f(\text{RH})$  for polluted cases is higher than that for clean episodes  
14 at each individual RH. With the increase of RH, the discrepancy of  $f(\text{RH})$  is more  
15 evident. A sensitivity analysis on the  $f(\text{RH})$  influencing factors indicates that, at a  
16 specific RH, the measured  $f(\text{RH})$  is more significantly influenced by the variation of  
17 aerosol hygroscopicity determined by its chemical compositions rather than the  
18 aerosol size distribution. A parameterization scheme of  $f(\text{RH})$  is achieved with a  
19 polynomial segment fitting based on the statistical analysis of the  $f(\text{RH})$   
20 measurements. Fitting parameters among different pollution levels would present  
21 more distinct deviation at RH lower than 60%, associated with the stronger influence  
22 of the changing PNSD on  $f(\text{RH})$ . At  $\text{RH} \geq 60\%$ , aerosol hygroscopicity is the  
23 predominant factor leading to the varying  $f(\text{RH})$ . Liu et al. (2014) have indicated that  
24 little variation is presented in the soluble mass fraction in the accumulation mode. As  
25 a consequence, it would result in unapparent varying aerosol hygroscopicity and  
26 hence insignificant difference of the fitting parameters among different pollution  
27 levels.

28 A straightforward retrieval method of  $\kappa$  by using the measured  $f(\text{RH})$  and PNSDs is  
29 proposed with the assumption that the aerosol hygroscopicity parameter is constant

1 during a complete 2.5-hour humidifying cycle. The derived mean equivalent  $\kappa$  is in  
2 the range of 0.06-0.28, with an overall mean value of  $0.14 \pm 0.05$ . The mean level of  
3 calculated equivalent  $\kappa$  for clean cases ( $0.11 \pm 0.03$ ) is much lower than that of  
4 pollution episodes ( $0.13 \pm 0.04$ ).

5 As an application, the calculated  $\kappa$  is used to predict CCN number concentration. The  
6 comparison between the calculated CCN number concentration and in situ measured  
7 results reveals a good agreement at each specific supersaturation, especially at high  
8 supersaturation conditions. This shows that the proposed  $\kappa$  retrieval algorithm with  
9 the  $f(\text{RH})$  measurements is reasonable and robust.

10

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2 **Table 1.** The measured  $f(\text{RH})$  at given RHs, along with the simultaneously measured  
3 5-minute mean dry  $\sigma_{sc}$ , under different pollution levels (mean value  $\pm$  standard  
4 deviation ( $1\sigma$ )). ‘‘Average’’ here represents the overall mean value for the whole  $f(\text{RH})$   
5 measurement period.

|                                     | $f(\text{RH})$    |                 |                   |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------|-----------------|-------------------|
|                                     | Average           | Clean           | Polluted          |
| $\sigma_{sc, dry} (\text{Mm}^{-1})$ | $484.5 \pm 458.1$ | $44.7 \pm 21.2$ | $894.8 \pm 410.9$ |
| <b>50% <math>\pm 1\%</math></b>     | $1.08 \pm 0.09$   | $1.03 \pm 0.06$ | $1.12 \pm 0.08$   |
| <b>55% <math>\pm 1\%</math></b>     | $1.12 \pm 0.09$   | $1.04 \pm 0.07$ | $1.16 \pm 0.06$   |
| <b>60% <math>\pm 1\%</math></b>     | $1.19 \pm 0.13$   | $1.09 \pm 0.06$ | $1.19 \pm 0.11$   |
| <b>65% <math>\pm 1\%</math></b>     | $1.21 \pm 0.15$   | $1.12 \pm 0.10$ | $1.29 \pm 0.13$   |
| <b>RH 70% <math>\pm 1\%</math></b>  | $1.36 \pm 0.15$   | $1.20 \pm 0.09$ | $1.34 \pm 0.11$   |
| <b>75% <math>\pm 1\%</math></b>     | $1.40 \pm 0.17$   | $1.34 \pm 0.15$ | $1.48 \pm 0.14$   |
| <b>80% <math>\pm 1\%</math></b>     | $1.58 \pm 0.22$   | $1.46 \pm 0.15$ | $1.58 \pm 0.19$   |
| <b>85% <math>\pm 1\%</math></b>     | $1.66 \pm 0.23$   | $1.57 \pm 0.16$ | $1.70 \pm 0.24$   |
| <b>90% <math>\pm 1\%</math></b>     | $1.90 \pm 0.27$   | $1.71 \pm 0.26$ | $1.93 \pm 0.21$   |

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2 **Table 2.** The polynomial segment fitting parameter results of  $f(RH)$  for different  
 3 pollution cases ( $f(RH) = a \cdot (1 - RH)^{-b \cdot RH}$ ).

| <b>RH Ranges</b>       | <b>Fitting parameters</b> | <b>Average<br/>(<math>R^2=0.81</math>)</b> | <b>Clean<br/>(<math>R^2=0.75</math>)</b> | <b>Polluted<br/>(<math>R^2=0.84</math>)</b> |
|------------------------|---------------------------|--|--|---|
| <b>RH &lt;<br/>60%</b> | <b>a</b>                  | 1.02 ±0.01                                 | 1.00 ±0.01                               | 1.03 ±0.01                                  |
|                        | <b>b</b>                  | 0.21 ±0.02                                 | 0.10 ±0.03                               | 0.26 ±0.03                                  |
| <b>RH ≥<br/>60%</b>    | <b>a</b>                  | 1.08 ±0.01                                 | 1.00 ±0.01                               | 1.14 ±0.01                                  |
|                        | <b>b</b>                  | 0.26 ±0.003                                | 0.26 ±0.01                               | 0.25 ±0.01                                  |

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2 **Table 3.** Statistical results of the mean hygroscopicity parameter,  $\kappa$ , derived from  
3  $f(\text{RH})$  observations ( $n$  denotes the sample size corresponding to each case).

| Statistics        | $\kappa$               |                  |                     |      |
|-------------------|------------------------|------------------|---------------------|------|
|                   | Average ( $n=117$ )    | Clean ( $n=24$ ) | Polluted ( $n=50$ ) |      |
| <b>Mean</b>       | 0.14                   | 0.11             | 0.13                |      |
| <b>Std</b>        | 0.05                   | 0.03             | 0.04                |      |
| <b>Min</b>        | 0.06                   | 0.06             | 0.06                |      |
| <b>Max</b>        | 0.28                   | 0.16             | 0.28                |      |
|                   | <b>5<sup>th</sup></b>  | 0.07             | 0.06                | 0.09 |
|                   | <b>10<sup>th</sup></b> | 0.09             | 0.07                | 0.09 |
|                   | <b>25<sup>th</sup></b> | 0.10             | 0.09                | 0.10 |
| <b>Percentile</b> | <b>50<sup>th</sup></b> | 0.13             | 0.11                | 0.14 |
|                   | <b>75<sup>th</sup></b> | 0.17             | 0.15                | 0.15 |
|                   | <b>90<sup>th</sup></b> | 0.21             | 0.15                | 0.17 |
|                   | <b>95<sup>th</sup></b> | 0.25             | 0.16                | 0.21 |

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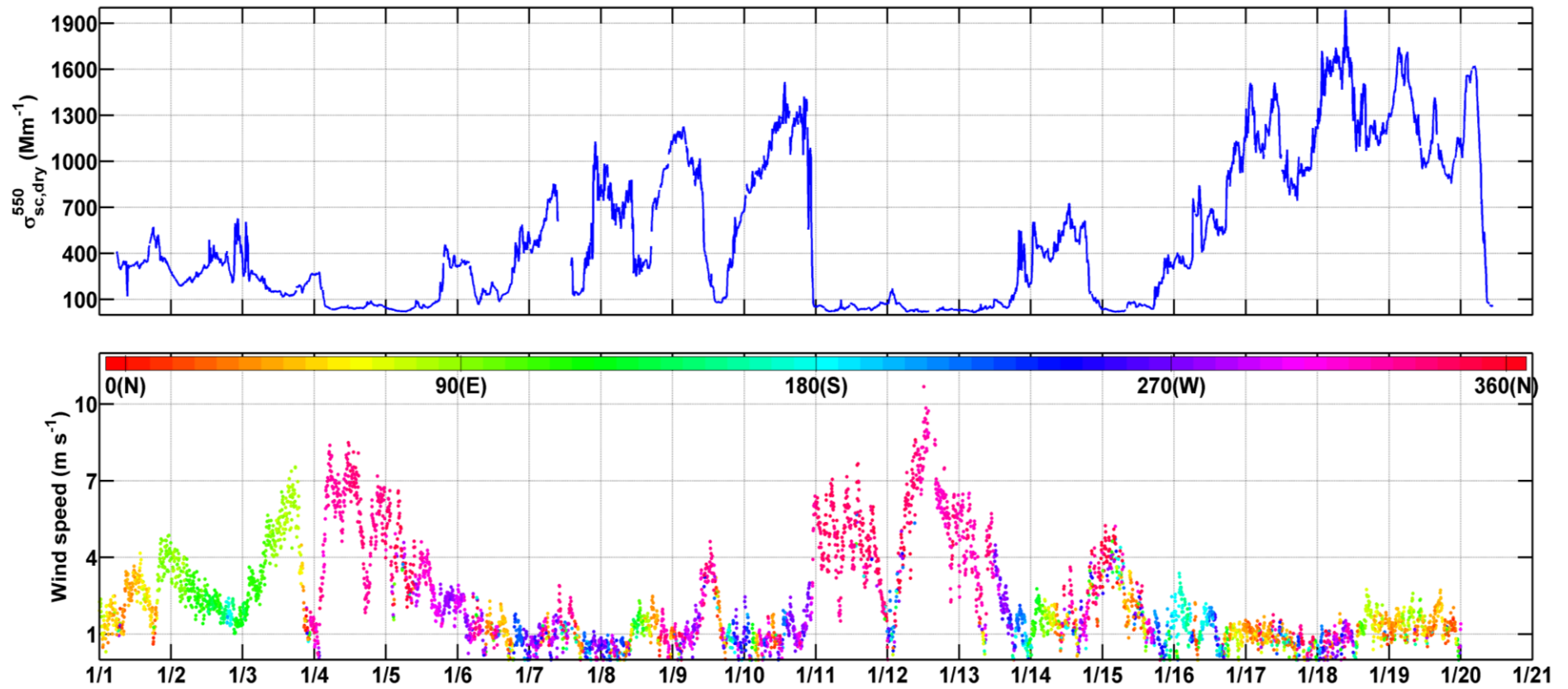
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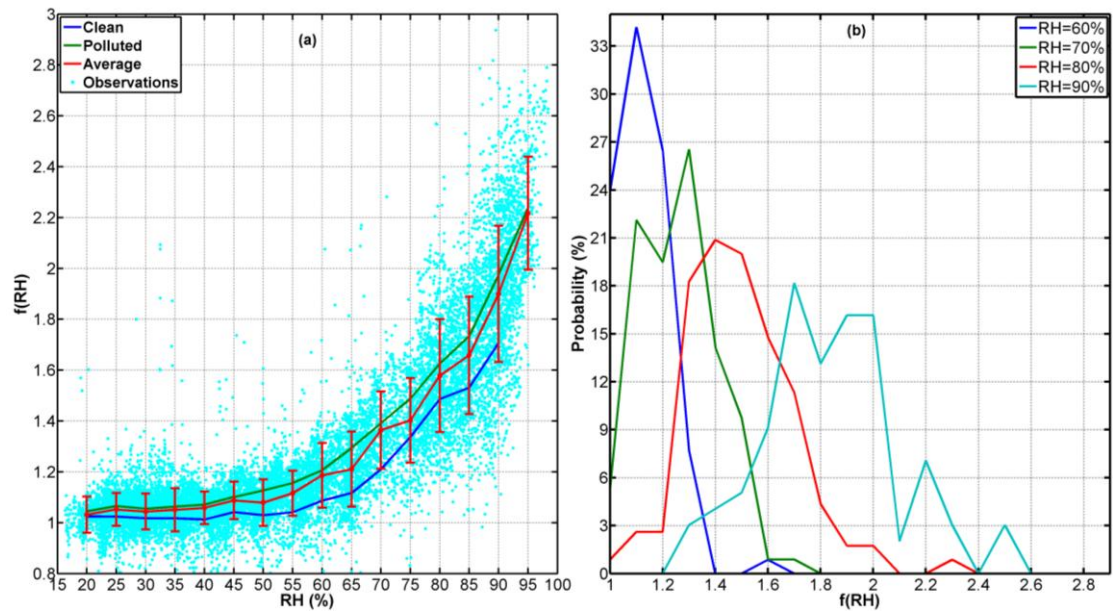
**Table 4.** Fitting parameters of the linear regression results in Fig.6.

| <b>SS</b>    | <b>Real-time <math>\kappa</math></b> |       |                                  |       | <b>Overall mean <math>\kappa</math></b> |       |                                  |       |
|--------------|--------------------------------------|-------|----------------------------------|-------|---|-------|----------------------------------|-------|
|              | All                                  |       | $N_{CCN} < 5000 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ |       | All                                     |       | $N_{CCN} < 5000 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ |       |
|              | $b$                                  | $R^2$ | $b$                              | $R^2$ | $b$                                     | $R^2$ | $b$                              | $R^2$ |
| <b>0.07%</b> | 0.62                                 | 0.74  | 0.60                             | 0.75  | 0.63                                    | 0.82  | 0.61                             | 0.84  |
| <b>0.10%</b> | 0.88                                 | 0.84  | 0.76                             | 0.88  | 0.89                                    | 0.90  | 0.84                             | 0.90  |
| <b>0.20%</b> | 1.04                                 | 0.84  | 0.66                             | 0.82  | 1.06                                    | 0.88  | 0.69                             | 0.90  |
| <b>0.40%</b> | 1.05                                 | 0.87  | 0.56                             | 0.80  | 1.08                                    | 0.90  | 0.68                             | 0.88  |
| <b>0.80%</b> | 1.24                                 | 0.90  | 0.77                             | 0.51  | 1.26                                    | 0.91  | 0.89                             | 0.50  |

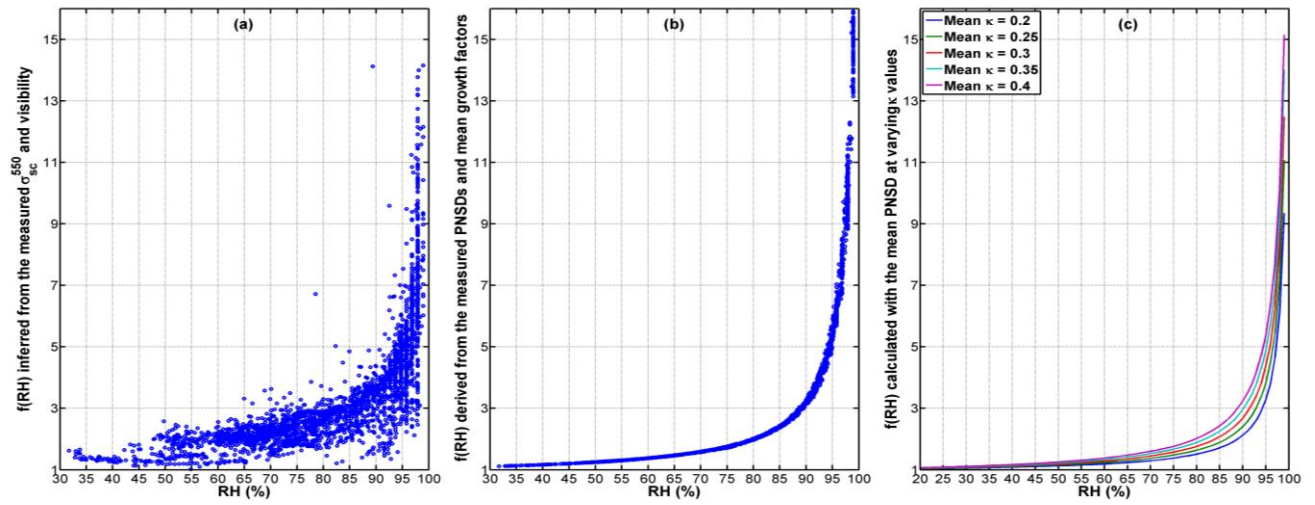
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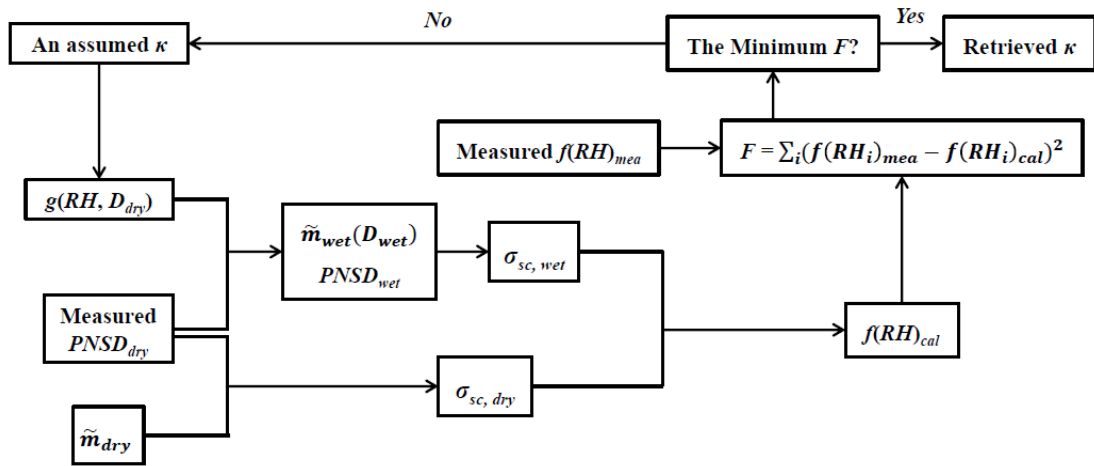
**Fig.1** Every 5-minute mean aerosol light scattering coefficients at 550 nm wavelength ( $\sigma_{sc,dry}^{550}$ ) under dry conditions, along with the wind parameter during the  $f(RH)$  observation periods (colored dots in the lower panel represent the corresponding wind directions).



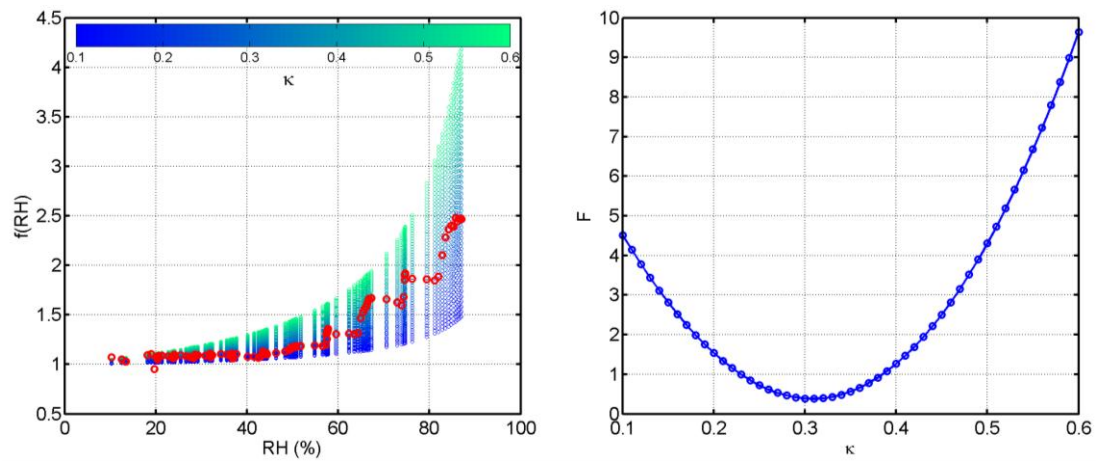
**Fig.2** (a) The mean  $f(\text{RH})$  under clean, average (mean  $\pm 1\sigma$ ), and polluted conditions. The scattered dots represent the in situ observational results, and lines denote the mean  $f(\text{RH})$  values corresponding to different pollution cases. (b) Probability distributions (PDF) of  $f(\text{RH})$  at four specific RHs (RH = 60%, 70%, 80%, and 90%, respectively).



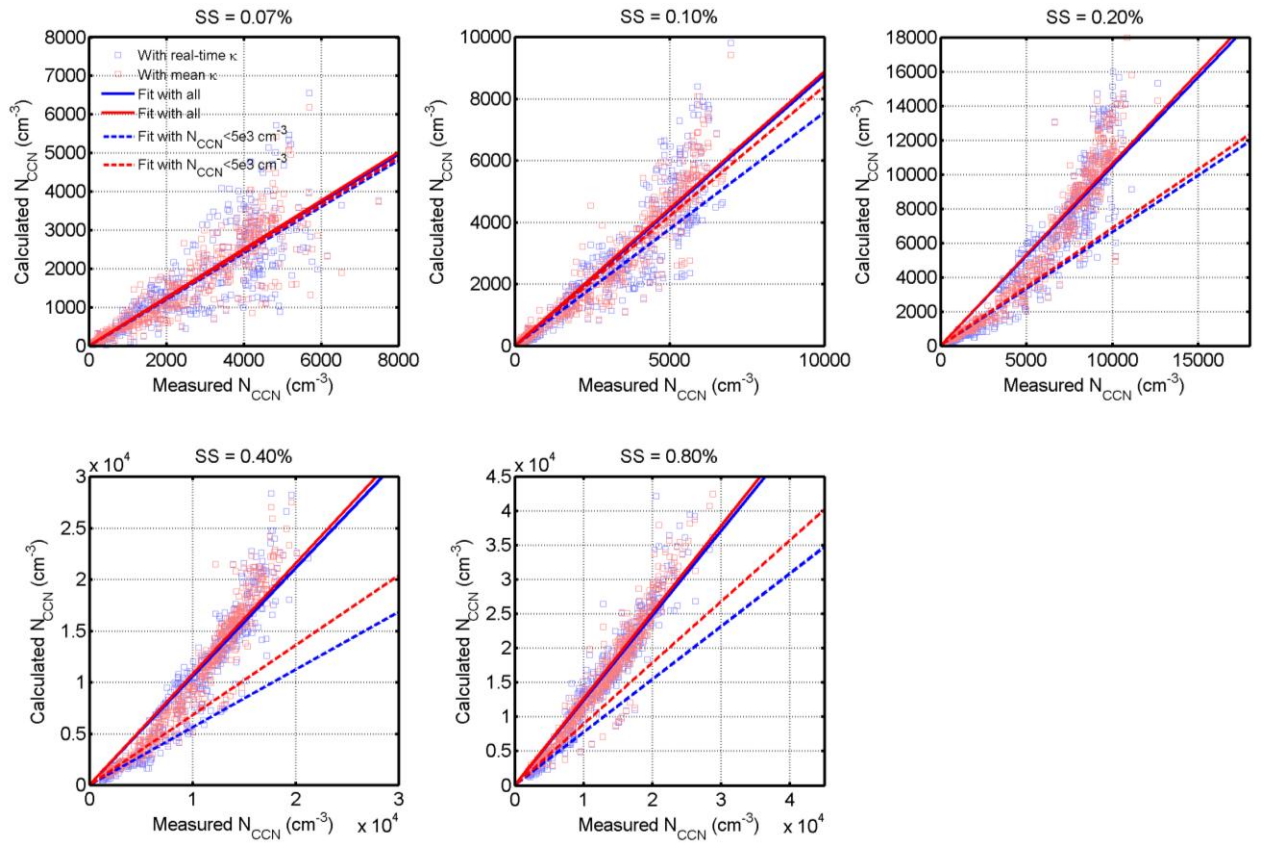
**Fig.3** Sensitivity tests of (b) the PNSD and (c) hygroscopicity parameter  $\kappa$  to  $f(RH)$  based on in situ measured PNSDs and aerosol hygroscopic growth factors during the HaChi summer campaign. The subplot (a) represented the measured  $f(RH)$  derived from the in situ observations.



**Fig.4** The flow chart of the retrieval algorithm for aerosol hygroscopicity parameter,  $\kappa$ .



**Fig.5** One case of the calculated  $\kappa$ . In the left panel, the red circles stand for the valid  $f(\text{RH})$  observations during a humidifying cycle, while the gradient colored ones represent the corresponding  $f(\text{RH})$  calculated with an assumed specific  $\kappa$ . The right panel shows the discriminant coefficient,  $F$ , corresponding to each assumed  $\kappa$ .



**Fig.6** Comparison between in situ measured  $N_{CCN}$  and calculated  $N_{CCN}$  at five specific supersaturations. Blue squares represent the estimated  $N_{CCN}$  with the real-time  $\kappa$ , while the red ones denote the estimation results with the overall mean  $\kappa$  during the entire  $f(RH)$  measurements. The blue and red solid lines stand for the fitting results of all the  $N_{CCN}$  samples corresponding to the two kinds of  $\kappa$ , respectively; while the blue and red dashed lines are the fitting results in the case of measured  $N_{CCN} < 5000 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ .