1	Variation of the radiative properties during black carbon aging: theoretical
2	and experimental intercomparison
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## 18 Abstract

A theoretical black carbon (BC) aging model is developed to account for three typical 19 evolution stages, namely, freshly emitted aggregates, coated BC by soluble material, and BC 20 particles undergoing further hygroscopic growth. The geometric-optics surface-wave (GOS) 21 approach is employed to compute the BC single-scattering properties at each aging stage, which 22 23 are subsequently compared with laboratory measurements. Theoretical calculations are consistent with measurements in extinction and absorption cross sections for fresh BC aggregates 24 with different BC sizes (i.e., mobility diameters of 155, 245, and 320 nm), with differences of  $\leq$ 25 26 25% but overestimate the scattering cross sections for BC mobility diameters of 155, 245, and 320 nm, because of uncertainties associated with theoretical calculations for small particles as 27 well as laboratory scattering measurements. The measured optical cross sections for coated BC 28 29 by sulfuric acid and for those undergoing further hygroscopic growth are generally captured (differences < 30%) by theoretical calculations using a concentric core-shell structure, with 30 differences of less than 20% overestimates in extinction and absorption for the smallest BC size 31 32 and underestimates in scattering for the largest BC size.. This suggests that the core shell shape represents the realistic BC coating morphology reasonably well in this case, which is consistent 33 with the observed strong structure compaction during aging. We find that the absorption and 34 scattering properties cross sections of fresh BC aggregates vary by 20-40% and 50-65%, 35 respectively, up to 60% due to uncertainty in the BC refractive index the use of upper (1.95 – 36 (0.79i) and lower (1.75 - 0.63i) bounds of BC refractive index, which, however, is a factor of two 37 smaller in the case of while the variations are <20% in absorption and <50% in scattering in the 38

39	case of coated BC particles. Sensitivity analyses on the BC morphology show that the optical
40	properties of fresh BC aggregates are more sensitive to fractal dimension than primary spherule
41	size. The absorption and scattering cross sections of coated BC particles vary by more than a
42	factor of two due to different coating structures. We find an increase of 20-250% in absorption
43	and a factor of 3-15 in scattering during aging, significantly depending on coating morphology
44	and aging stages. Applying the aging model to CalNex 2010 field measurements, we show that
45	the resulting BC direct radiative forcing (DRF) first increases from 1.5 to 1.7 W m <sup>-2</sup> and
46	subsequently decreases to 1.0 W m <sup>-2</sup> during the transport from the Los Angeles Basin to
47	downwind regions, as a result of the competition between absorption enhancement due to coating
48	and dilution of BC concentration. The BC DRF can vary by up to a factor of two due to
49	differences in BC coating morphology. Thus, This study suggests that an accurate estimate of BC
50	DRF radiative effects requires the incorporation of a dynamic BC aging process that accounts for
51	realistic morphology coating structures in climate models., particularly for the regional analysis
52	with high atmospheric heterogeneity.
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## 54 **1. Introduction**

Black carbon (BC) has been identified as the second most important anthropogenic global 55 warming agent in the atmosphere by virtue of its strong absorption of solar radiation and its role 56 as cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) in cloud formation (Ramanathan and Carmichael, 2008; 57 Bond et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2013; Jacobson, 2014). The BC climatic effects are significantly 58 influenced by BC aging process in the atmosphere, which transforms BC from an external to 59 internal mixing state (Schwarz et al., 2008; China et al., 2013) and increases its hygroscopicity 60 (Zhang et al., 2008; Popovicheva et al., 2011) and light absorption (Jacobson, 2001; Shiraiwa et 61 al., 2010; Qiu et al., 2012; Scarnato et al., 2013). 62

Freshly emitted BC particles are mostly hydrophobic and externally mixed with other 63 aerosol constituents (Zuberi et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2008). BC agglomerates shortly after 64 65 emission to form irregular aggregates because of multi-phase processes (Zhang et al., 2008; Pagels et al., 2009; Xue et al., 2009). Early studies have found that BC particles age in the 66 atmosphere through condensation and coagulation processes (e.g., Heintzenberg and Covert, 67 68 1984; Heintzenberg, 1989). Recent studies confirmed that BC becomes coated by water-soluble material during atmospheric aging, including condensation of sulfate, nitrate, and organics 69 (Schnaiter et al., 2003; Moteki et al., 2007; Shiraiwa et al., 2007), coagulation with preexisting 70 aerosols (Johnson et al., 2005; Kondo et al., 2011), and heterogeneous reactions with gaseous 71 oxidants (Zuberi et al., 2005; Khalizov et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2012). At the same time, BC 72 aggregates also exhibit considerable restructuring and compaction (Weingartner et al., 1997; 73 Saathoff et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2008), which significantly alters BC morphology (Adachi and 74

Buseck, 2013; China et al., 2015). Aged BC particles experience hygroscopic growth and
activate efficiently as CCN (Zuberi et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2008). The hygroscopic growth of
BC particles depends on its initial size, condensed soluble material mass, surface chemical
property, and ambient relative humidity (RH) (Zhang et al., 2008; Khalizov et al., 2009b;
Popovicheva et al., 2011).

80 A number of laboratory experiments have been conducted to investigate the effects of atmospheric aging on BC radiative properties. Gangl et al. (2008) showed that internal BC-wax 81 mixture amplifies BC absorption coefficient by a factor of 1.810–90%, depending on the amount 82 of coating. Shiraiwa et al. (2010) found that BC absorption enhancement due to organic coating 83 varies significantly for various BC sizes and coating thickness, with up to a factor of 2 84 enhancement for thick coatings. Under different experimental conditions, relatively small 85 increases (~30%) in BC absorption have also been observed for BC coated by sulfuric acid 86 (Zhang et al., 2008) and some organics (Saathoff et al. 2003). Such significant increase in BC 87 absorption has also been observed for BC coated by sulfuric acid (Zhang et al., 2008) and some 88 89 organics (Shiraiwa et al., 2010), while Saathoff et al. (2003) found that organic coating of BC particles only increases absorption by 30%. Furthermore, Xue et al. (2009) and Qiu et al. (2012) 90 showed a less than 20% increase in BC absorption for organic coating, which depends on organic 91 species and coating thickness. Thus, the resulting large variation among different experimental 92 studies indicates that the aging effects on BC radiative properties strongly depend on coating 93 material and thickness as well as BC particle size. It is clear, therefore, that experimental details 94 are critically important in making meaningful and appropriate comparisons among various 95

96 <u>experimental studies involving BC absorption enhancement associated with coating. The</u>
 97 disagreement among different laboratory experiments demonstrates large uncertainties associated
 98 with BC radiative properties during aging.

99 Field measurements have also revealed substantial variation in BC optical properties during atmospheric aging. Bond and Bergstrom (2006) showed that observed BC mass absorption cross 100 sections (MAC) vary by more than a factor of two (mostly 5-13  $m^2 g^{-1}$ ) under different 101 atmospheric conditions. Schwarz et al. (2008) applied a concentric core shell structure to 102 observed coated BC particles using the Mie calculation (Toon and Ackerman, 1981) and found 103 104 that BC coating increases column absorption by 30-50% in the tropical atmosphere. Moffett and Prather (2009) measured internally mixed BC particles in Riverside and Mexico City and 105 showed that the concentric core shell structure of coated BC results in up to a 60% increase in 106 absorption compared with freshly emitted BC. Based on direct measurements at a suburban site 107 in Japan, Naoe et al. (2009) showed that coating increases BC absorption by a factor of 1.1-1.4 108 with a larger increase for thicker coatings. Knox et al. (2009) found an absorption enhancement 109 110 of up to 45% due to BC coating based on measurements in downtown Toronto. Similar increases in absorption have also been directly observed for the internal mixing of biomass-burning BC 111 (Lack et al., 2012). However, Cappa et al. (2012) reported that the observed BC absorption 112 113 increased only by 6% due to internal mixing based on direct in situ during aircraft measurements over California. This implies suggests that BC coating structures coating effects on BC absorption 114 are more-rather complex in reality, than the idealized concentric core shell shape which depends 115 on different coating material, mass, and structure influenced by emission sources and 116

Adachi et al. (2010) found that many BC particles embedded within host material are 118 chainlike aggregates locating in off-center positions, based on transmission electron microscope 119 (TEM) observations for samples collected from Mexico City. Using the discrete dipole 120 approximation (DDA) method developed by Draine and Flatau (1994), Adachi et al. showed that 121 122 a more realistic BC coating morphology results in 20-40% less absorption at visible wavelengths than a concentric core-shell shape. Sedlacek et al. (2012) found that more than 60% of coated BC 123 particles have non-core-shell structures in a biomass burning plume. Based on ground-based 124 measurements during the California Research at the Nexus of Air Quality and Climate Change 125 (CalNex) campaignDuring the California Research at the Nexus of Air Quality and Climate 126 Change (CalNex) 2010 aircraft campaign, Adachi and Buseck (2013) further observed that many 127 BC particles are only attached to host material instead of fully embedded within them, leading to 128 only a slight increase in BC absorption. They concluded that the complex mixing structure of BC 129 particles could explain a smaller absorption amplification by BC coating determined from 130 131 observations than the results computed from an idealized core-shell model. China et al. (2013, 2015) classified the observed irregular BC coating shapes into four types: embedded (heavily 132 coated), thinly coated, partly coated, and partially encapsulated. These complex coating 133 structures substantially affect BC optical properties (e.g., Videen et al., 1994; Liu and 134 Mishchenko, 2007; Kahnert et al., 2013), which is one of the most important uncertainty sources 135 in evaluating BC direct radiative forcing (DRF) (Bond et al., 2013). Thus, a reliable estimate of 136 BC DRF requires a quantitative understanding of the evolution of BC radiative properties under 137

the influence of various morphology during atmospheric aging.

In this study, we have developed a theoretical BC aging model based on the current 139 understanding of BC aging process, which accounts for three major stages, namely, freshly 140 emitted aggregates, coated BC by soluble material, and BC particles undergoing further 141 hygroscopic growth. We apply the geometric-optics surface-wave (GOS) approach to compute 142 143 light absorption and scattering of BC particles at each aging stage. The theoretical calculations are compared with laboratory measurements, followed by a systematic evaluation of 144 uncertainties associated with BC morphology and refractive index. We further apply the aging 145 model to the CalNex 2010 field campaign to evaluate the evolution of BC DRF over southern 146 California by coupling with a radiative transfer model (RTM) for analysis. Finally, we discuss 147 the implication of model results for BC DRF-radiative effect assessment. 148

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### 150 **2. Methods**

#### 151 **2.1 A theoretical BC aging model**

Based on the current knowledge of BC atmospheric aging, we have developed a theoretical model accounting for three major BC aging stages, as depicted in Fig. 1. Stage I represents freshly emitted BC aggregates that are externally mixed with other particles. Stage II represents BC particles coated by water-soluble aerosol constituents through condensation, coagulation, and/or heterogeneous oxidations. Stage III represents BC particles coated by both soluble material and water through hygroscopic growth. In this study, According to atmospheric observations, ssix typical BC coating structures (Fig. 1) have been considered for Stages II and

159	III to approximately represent observations in the real atmosphere or laboratory in this study (Fig.
160	1), including embedded (i.e., concentric core-cell, off-center core-shell, and closed-cell), partially
161	encapsulated, and partly coated (i.e., open-cell and externally attached) structures following the
162	classification presented in China et al. (2013, 2015). The concentric and off-center core-shell
163	structures (Martin et al., 1998; Sedlacek et al., 2012) are a result of considerable collapse of BC
164	aggregates into more compact and spherical clusters when fully engulfed in coating material
165	(Zhang et al., 2008). The closed-cell structure is an example where coating material not only
166	covers the outer layers of BC aggregates but also fills the internal voids among primary
167	spherules (Strawa et al., 1999). The partially encapsulated structure is formed when only a part
168	of BC aggregate merges inside coating material (China et al., 2015). The open-cell and externally
169	attached structures are produced by coating material sticking to a part of BC aggregates' surface
170	(Stratmann et al., 2010; China et al., 2015). We wish to note that the six coating structures used
171	in this study, including closed-cell and open-cell structures, are theoretical models and as such,
172	they may not completely capture detailed BC coating structures from aircraft and ground-based
173	observations. Further hygroscopic growth of BC particles after Stage III could lead to the
174	formation of cloud droplets, a subject beyond the scope of the present study.

# 176 **2.2 Laboratory measurements**

The physical and radiative properties of BC particles during aging after exposure to sulfuric acid (H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>) under various RH conditions (5-80%) have been measured in the laboratory by Zhang et al. (2008) and Khalizov et al. (2009a). BC aggregates were generated by incomplete

180	combustion of propane in a laminar diffusion burner (Santoro et al., 1983) and sampled by a
181	pinhole diluter (Kasper et al., 1997). A tandem differential mobility analyzer (TDMA) system
182	was used to produce singly-charged mobility-classified BC particles, followed by a coating
183	chamber with controlled RH and $H_2SO_4$ vapor concentrations at room temperatures (299±1 K).
184	The BC mass and size growth due to $H_2SO_4$ and water vapor ( $H_2O$ ) condensation during aging
185	were measured by an aerosol particle mass (APM) analyzer and TDMA, respectively. The
186	effective density and fractal dimension $(D_f)$ of BC particles were derived from the measured BC
187	mobility diameter ( $D_{BC}$ ) and mass (see Eqs. 1 and 2 in Zhang et al., 2008). The compaction and
188	restructuring of BC aggregates were captured by a TEM (see Fig.1 in Zhang et al., 2008). BC
189	extinction and scattering cross sections were measured at 532-nm wavelength by a cavity
190	ring-down spectrometer (CRDS) and an integrating nephelometer, respectively. The absorption
191	cross section was determined from the resulting difference between extinction and scattering
192	cross sections. Khalizov et al. (2009a) showed that the experimental uncertainties uncertainty
193	associated with in measured optical cross sections of coated BC particles is within 10%, which
194	primarily represents uncertainty in relative humidity, particle size, number density, and
195	instrument calibration.instrument calibration, relative humidity, and particle size measurements
196	were within 10%, which This uncertainty, however, excludes does not include the contribution
197	from multiply charged particles, while the scattering measurements of freshly emitted BC
198	aggregates were associated with high uncertainty. For freshly emitted BC aggregates, measured
199	scattering cross sections involve relatively large uncertainties. More details in laboratory
200	experiments have been presented in Zhang et al. (2008) and Khalizov et al. (2009a). Three $10$

experimental cases with initial  $D_{BC}$  of 155, 245, and 320 nm were used in this study (see Table 1). In each case, BC particles exposed to  $H_2SO_4$  vapor ( $1.4 \times 10^{10}$  molecules cm<sup>-3</sup>) at 5% and 80% RH were used to represent coated BC at Stages II and III (see Sect. 2.1), respectively.

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# 205 **2.3 Geometric-optics surface-wave (GOS) approach**

206 We employed the GOS approach developed by Liou et al. (2011, 2014), which explicitly treats fractal aggregates and various coating structures, to compute absorption and scattering 207 properties of BC particles at three aging stages. In the GOS approach, a stochastic procedure 208 developed by Liou et al. (2011) is applied to simulate homogeneous aggregates and coated 209 particles with different shapes in a 3-D coordinate system. In this study, we have extended the 210 original stochastic process to generate more complex coating morphology, including the partially 211 212 encapsulated and externally attached structures (see Figs. S1-S6 in the supplementary material). Once the particle shape and composition are determined by the stochastic procedure, the 213 reflection and refraction of particles are computed with the hit-and-miss Monte Carlo photon 214 215 tracing technique. The extinction and absorption cross sections are derived following a ray-by-ray integration approach (Yang and Liou, 1997). Diffraction by randomly oriented 216 nonspherical particles is computed on the basis of Babinet's principle (Born and Wolf, 1999) and 217 photon-number weighted geometric cross sections. The GOS approach accounts for the 218 interaction of incident waves at grazing angles near the particle edge and propagating along the 219 particle surface into shadow regions, referred to as the surface wave, using the formulation 220 developed by Nussenzveig and Wiscombe (1980) for spheres as the basis for physical 221

222	adjustments and application to nonspherical particles (Liou et al., 2010, 2011). The concept of
223	the GOS approach is graphically displayed in Fig. 2 and it is designed for computations of
224	absorption and extinction cross sections and asymmetry factors in line with experimental results.
225	Liou et al. (2010, 2011) and Takano et al. (2013) demonstrated that the single-scattering
226	properties of aerosols with different sizes and shapes determined from the GOS approach
227	compare reasonably well (differences $< 20\%$ ) with those determined from the Finite Difference
228	Time Domain (FDTD) method (Yang and Liou, 1996) and DDA (Draine and Flatau, 1994) for
229	column and plate ice crystals, the superposition T-matrix method (Mackowski and Mishchenko,
230	1996) for fractal aggregates, and the Lorenz-Mie model (Toon and Ackerman, 1981) for a
231	concentric core-shell shape. Moreover, compared with other numerical methods, the GOS
232	approach can be applied to a wider range of particle sizes, shapes, and coating morphology with
233	a high computational efficiency, including very large particles (e.g., ~100-1000 µm snowflakes)
234	and complex multiple inclusions of aerosols within irregular snow grains (Liou et al., 2014; He
235	et al., 2014), in which the FDTD, DDA, and T-matrix methods have not been able to apply. As
236	stated previously, the GOS approach has been developed specifically for extinction and
237	absorption optical cross sections (i.e., extinction, absorption, and scattering) and the asymmetry
238	factor, but not for scattering phase matrix calculations. Also, due to the approximation in the use
239	of geometric photon tracing, the GOS approach has limitation and uncertainty for application to
240	size parameters much smaller than 1. To supplement GOS, we have developed the
241	Rayleigh-Gan-Debye (RGD) approximation coupled with GOS for very small particles, which
242	has been cross-validated with the superposition T-matrix method (Takano et al., 2013). Takano et 12

al. (2013) showed that the coupled GOS-RGD and superposition T-matrix results are both close
to the observed specific absorption of BC aggregates for the range of size parameter considered
in the present study.-(Takano et al., 2013). The combined-coupled\_GOS/-RGD approach can be
applied to size parameters covering 0.1 to 1000. In the present study, the coupled GOS-RGD
approach is used for fresh BC aggregates (Stage I), while the GOS approach without RGD
coupling is used for coated BC particles (Stages II and III).

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#### 250 **2.4 Theoretical calculations**

We used BC physical properties measured from laboratory experiments (see Sect. 2.2) as 251 input to theoretical calculations (see Table 1). In standard calculations, the freshly emitted BC 252 aggregates (Stage I) were assumed to be comprised of primary spherules with a diameter of 15 253 254 nm measured from the experiments and were constructed by the GOS stochastic procedure to reproduce the measured mass and fractal dimension (= 2.1) of BC aggregates. The BC mass was 255 the product of measured BC effective densities and mobility volumes. The mass of H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> 256 257 coating on BC at Stage II was derived from the observed relationship between condensed H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> mass and particle diameter at 5% RH. The mass of H<sub>2</sub>O condensed on H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>-coated BC at Stage 258 III was derived from the measured hygroscopic mass growth ratio of H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>-coated BC at 80% 259 RH. In standard calculations, we used a concentric core-shell structure for coated BC particles at 260 Stages II and III because of the strong particle compaction during aging based on laboratory 261 observations (Zhang et al., 2008). Thus, BC core size and coating thickness were computed from 262 the mass of BC and H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>O coating. The refractive index (RI) of H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>O coating at 263

Stage III was derived as the volume-weighted RI of  $H_2SO_4$  and  $H_2O$ . We used a BC RI of 1.95 -0.79*i* (upper bound) recommended by Bond and Bergstrom (2006) and a BC density of 1.77 g cm<sup>-3</sup> suggested by Zhang et al. (2008). Under the preceding conditions, computations of BC optical properties at 532-nm wavelength were carried out for comparison with laboratory measurements. The comparison between GOS and experimental results in this study provides an additional dimension of validation/cross-check of the GOS approach.

In addition, we conducted four sensitivity calculations for Stage I and six sensitivity 270 calculations for Stages II and III to quantify uncertainties associated with BC RI and morphology 271 (see Table 1). In the first sensitivity calculation for each aging stage, a lower bound of BC RI of 272 1.75 - 0.63*i* recommended by Bond and Bergstrom (2006) was used. For other three sensitivity 273 tests on morphology effects at Stage I, we increased BC fractal dimension from 2.1 to 2.5 and 274 275 primary spherules diameter from 15 to 20 nm without changing BC mass, and replaced BC aggregates with a single volume-equivalent sphere, respectively. We then applied five types of 276 BC coating structures, including off-center core-shell, closed-cell, open-cell, partially 277 278 encapsulated, and externally attached structures (see Fig. 1 and Sect. 2.1), and conducted five additional sensitivity calculations for both Stages II and III. Specifically, the off-center core-shell 279 structure assumes a spherical BC core internally tangent to the particle surface with the same size 280 as the concentric core-shell structure used in standard calculations. The closed-cell structure 281 assumes that all primary spherules have the same concentric core-shell shape with a BC core 282 diameter of 15 nm. The open-cell structure also assumes a diameter of 15 nm for all primary 283 spherules, which are either pure BC or pure coating material. Both closed- and open-cell 284

285	structures were constructed to have the same fractal dimension as measured in the experiments.
286	The partially encapsulated structure assumes that a random part of BC aggregates is inside a
287	spherical coating particle (Figs. S1-S6), while the externally attached structure assumes that a
288	single spherical coating particle is randomly sticking to a part of BC aggregate's surface (Figs.
289	S1-S6). BC primary spherules in both structures have diameters of 15 nm. We note that assuming
290	a cluster of spheres for the above-mentioned coating structures may not be sufficiently realistic
291	and that nonspherical morphology models without restrictions to composite of spheres appear to
292	be more plausible (Adachi et al., 2010), a challenging subject to be investigated in future work.
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295	2.5 Application to field measurements
296	We utilized BC measurements from the CalNex aircraft campaign conducted in May 2010
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296 297 298 299 300 301	We utilized BC measurements from the CalNex aircraft campaign conducted in May 2010 (http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/esd/calnex/) as input to the aging model with GOS approach to compute the evolution of BC optical properties and DRF during the transport from the Los Angeles (LA) Basin to downwind regions. The BC particle size, coating thickness and fraction, coating composition, and vertical profile have been measured during the CalNex campaign (Metcalf et al., 2012), which were used to drive theoretical calculations. We used an aggregate
296 297 298 299 300 301 302	We utilized BC measurements from the CalNex aircraft campaign conducted in May 2010 (http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/csd/calnex/) as input to the aging model with GOS approach to compute the evolution of BC optical properties and DRF during the transport from the Los Angeles (LA) Basin to downwind regions. The BC particle size, coating thickness and fraction, coating composition, and vertical profile have been measured during the CalNex campaign (Metcalf et al., 2012), which were used to drive theoretical calculations. We used an aggregate structure for uncoated BC and a concentric core shell structure for coated BC. To quantify
296 297 298 299 300 301 302 303	We utilized BC measurements from the CalNex aircraft campaign conducted in May 2010 (http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/csd/calnex/) as input to the aging model with GOS approach to compute the evolution of BC optical properties and DRF during the transport from the Los Angeles (LA) Basin to downwind regions. The BC particle size, coating thickness and fraction, coating composition, and vertical profile have been measured during the CalNex campaign (Metcalf et al., 2012), which were used to drive theoretical calculations. We used an aggregate structure for uncoated BC and a concentric core shell structure for coated BC. To quantify uncertainties associated with BC RI and morphology, we have conducted calculations with BC
296 297 298 299 300 301 302 303 304	We utilized BC measurements from the CalNex aircraft campaign conducted in May 2010 (http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/csd/calnex/) as input to the aging model with GOS approach to compute the evolution of BC optical properties and DRF during the transport from the Los Angeles (LA) Basin to downwind regions. The BC particle size, coating thickness and fraction, coating composition, and vertical profile have been measured during the CalNex campaign (Metcalf et al., 2012), which were used to drive theoretical calculations. We used an aggregate structure for uncoated BC and a concentric core shell structure for coated BC. To quantify uncertainties associated with BC RI and morphology, we have conducted calculations with BC RI of 1.95 – 0.79 <i>i</i> and 1.75 – 0.63 <i>i</i> and different particle structures for uncoated/coated BC as

306	2010 measurements of BC vertical distribution only covers an altitude of 0-3.5 km a.s.l., we have
307	used the BC vertical profile within 2.5-10 km a.s.l. observed during the California Air Resources
308	Board (CARB) campaign (Koch et al., 2009) as a representative BC vertical distribution in the
309	free troposphere over California. The CARB vertical profile was scaled so that the averaged BC
310	concentration within 2.5-3.5 km a.s.l. determined from CARB measurements matched CalNex
311	measurements.
312	The calculated BC optical properties and observed vertical profiles were subsequently used
313	as input to the Fu-Liou-Gu (FLG) RTM (Gu et al., 2006, 2010) to compute the instantaneous
314	clear-sky BC DRF at the top-of-atmosphere. The FLG RTM combines the delta-four-stream
315	approximation for solar flux calculations (Liou et al., 1988) and the delta two/four stream
316	approximation for infrared flux calculations (Fu et al., 1997) to balance accuracy and efficiency.
317	The solar (0-5 µm) and infrared (5-50 µm) spectra are divided into 6 and 12 bands, respectively,
318	based on the location of absorption band. The correlated k-distribution method (Fu and Liou,
319	1992) is used to sort gaseous absorption lines within each band. In this study, we employed the
320	monthly mean Goddard Earth Observing System (GEOS-5) meteorological fields for May 2010
321	to drive the FLG RTM.

- **3. Results and discussions**
- **3.1 Fresh BC aggregates (Stage I)**

Fig. 3 shows the extinction, absorption, and scattering cross sections (at 532 nm) of fresh BC
aggregates at Stage I based on laboratory measurements and theoretical calculations using

327	different BC RI and morphology. For comparison with experimental measurements, the averaged
328	value for theoretical results with upper and lower bounds of with BC RIs (i.e., of 1.95 – 0.79i and
329	1.75 0.63i) is (i.e., standard calculations) are used unless stated otherwise. The calculated
330	extinction cross sections are consistent (differences $\leq 20\%$ ) with measurements for fresh BC
331	aggregates at Stage I with different sizes (i.e., $D_{BC} = 155$ , 245, and 320 nm). However,
332	theoretical calculations tend to overestimate and underestimate extinction for the smallest and
333	largest BC aggregates, respectively. The discrepancies between theoretical and measured BC
334	absorption cross sections at Stage I increase from <u>37% (overestimate)</u> to <u>25-15% (underestimate)</u>
335	as BC size becomes larger (Fig. 3). On the contrary, t <u>Although the calculated scattering cross</u>
336	sections at Stage I are consistently overestimated for different BC sizes compared with
337	measurements, the absolute discrepancies are small., This overestimate is partly because of the
338	uncertainty associated with extinction and absorption theoretical calculations for small particles.
339	where theoretical results overestimate (underestimate) extinction cross sections more (less) than
340	absorption cross sections for $D_{BC}$ of 155 nm ( $D_{BC}$ of 245 and 320 nm). The scattering
341	measurements also contribute to the discrepancy in view of the fact that the integrating
342	nephelometer misses light scattering signals at near-forward directions (Anderson and Ogren,
343	1998). We note that the calculated SSA (~0.16) of BC aggregates at Stage I is within the range of
344	0.15-0.3 determined measured for BC from atmospheric observations different combustion
345	sources (Bond and Bergstrom, 2006), while the experimentally measured SSA is smaller than
346	0.10 due to the relatively open and loosely connected BC aggregate structures (Khalizov et al.,
347	2009a).

348	Sensitivity calculations show that using a BC RI of $1.75 - 0.63i$ narrows the gap between
349	calculated and measured scattering cross sections of fresh BC aggregates by up to a factor of two,
350	while using a BC RI of 1.95 0.79 <i>i</i> reduces underestimates in the calculated BC absorption
351	which dominates the extinction at Stage I (Fig. 3). Because of using the BC RIs of $1.95 - 0.79i$
352	(upper bound) and 1.75 - 0.63 <i>i</i> (lower bound), We found that the extinction, and absorption,
353	and scattering cross sections of fresh BC aggregates can vary by up to 60%25-40% and 20-30%,
354	respectively,, because of applying the BC RI upper or lower bound, in which while the scattering
355	cross section ranges from 50% to 65% with a higher sensitivity for larger BC sizesis most
356	sensitive. Based on the T-matrix calculations using BC RI of 2 - 1 <i>i</i> and 1.75 - 0.5 <i>i</i> , Liu et al.
357	(2008) showed variation of 50-70% in BC absorption and scattering cross sections depending on
358	aggregate structures, which is comparable to the results derived in this study. Scarnato et al.
359	(2015) also found a strong dependence of BC absorption on BC RI for uncoated aggregates using
360	the DDA method.
361	Fig. 4 shows the extinction, absorption, and scattering cross sections for different aggregate
362	morphology normalized by BC aggregate cross sections determined from standard calculations
363	(i.e., fractal aggregates with a $D_f$ of 2.1 and $D_p$ of 15 nm; see Sect. 2.4) at Stage I. We found that
364	a 20% increase in $D_{\rm f}$ (i.e., more compact structure) decreases BC absorption and scattering cross
365	sections by 20-50%, with greater reductions for larger BC sizes. Using the DDA method,
366	Scarnato et al. (2013) also found a smaller BC absorption for more compact structures. Liu et al.
367	(2008) applied a T-matrix calculation to show that as $D_f$ increases from 1.5 to 3, the absorption of
368	BC aggregates either decreases monotonically or decreases until $D_f$ reaching a certain value and

then increases, depending on BC RI, size and the number of primary spherules. This is because 369 the amount of BC directly exposed to the incident light becomes smaller as D<sub>f</sub> increases, while 370 the growing interaction among primary spherules could increase light absorption (Liu et al., 371 2008). The present calculations illustrated that BC absorption and scattering are weakly 372 dependent on the size of primary BC spherules. An increase in the spherule diameter from 15 to 373 374 20 nm results in less than 10% variation in BC extinction, absorption, and scattering cross sections (Fig. 4), which is consistent with the T-matrix results presented by Liu and Mishchenko 375 (2007) who concluded that the monomer size has a rather weak effect on BC scattering and 376 absorption, if fractal dimension is fixed. Nevertheless, the effect of monomer size on BC optical 377 properties could vary significantly depending on BC aggregate shape, size, the number of 378 primary spherules, and BC RI (Liu et al., 2008; Kahnert et al., 2014). Assuming a 379 380 volume-equivalent BC sphere instead of fractal aggregates results in 5-25% weaker absorption and extinction and up to 65% smaller scattering cross sections for different BC sizes, compared 381 with BC aggregates in standard calculations. The stronger absorption and scattering from 382 383 aggregate structures is due primarily to the interaction between neighboring primary spherules of BC aggregates (Fuller, 1995). The present calculated increase (5-20%) in absorption from sphere 384 to aggregate structures is slightly smaller than the value ( $\sim 30\%$ ) reported by Bond and Bergstrom 385 (2006), because of different numbers and sizes of primary spherules, aggregate shapes, and 386 fractal dimensions employed in calculations (Iskander et al., 1991; Liu et al., 2008; Kahnert et al., 387 2014). Using the T-matrix method, Kahnert and Devasthale (2011) showed a two times higher 388 radiative forcing of BC aggregates than the volume-equivalent sphere counterparts. 389

391 **3.2 Coated BC particles (Stages II and III)** 

The extinction, absorption, and scattering cross sections (at 532 nm) of coated BC particles 392 at aging Stages II and III determined from laboratory measurements and theoretical calculations 393 are depicted in Fig. 3. The tTheoretical results using with upper and lower bounds of the BC RI 394 of 1.95 - 0.79i are averaged used for comparison with experimental measurements unless stated 395 otherwise. The calculated optical cross sections (i.e., extinction, absorption, and scattering) of 396 coated BC at Stages II and III are in general agreements (differences < 30%) with laboratory 397 measurements, because of the observed efficient structure compaction during aging in laboratory 398 experiments (Zhang et al., 2008). However, theoretical calculations tend to overestimate 399 extinction and absorption for D<sub>BC</sub> of 155 and 245 nm at both Stages II and III, while the 400 401 extinction and absorption for the largest particle (D<sub>BC</sub> of 320 nm) is underestimated at Stage II. The calculated scattering cross sections are overestimated for the smallest BC size (D<sub>BC</sub> of 155 402 nm) at Stage II, but tend to be underestimated for larger BC sizes at Stage III, particularly for 403 404 D<sub>BC</sub> of 320 nm. The calculated cross sections of coated BC at Stages II and III are in good agreement (differences  $\leq 20\%$ ) with laboratory measurements for extinction, absorption, and 405 scattering, except for a 30% underestimate in scattering for D<sub>BC</sub> of 320 nm at Stage III. This 406 implies that the concentric core-shell model represents the realistic BC coating morphology 407 reasonably well in this case in view of the observed efficient structure compaction during aging 408 (Zhang et al., 2008). The present sensitivity calculations show that the discrepancy in scattering 409 for D<sub>BC</sub> of 320 nm at Stage III cannot be explained by uncertainties associated with BC RI or 410

411	coating morphology (Fig. 3), which, however, could be attributed to uncertainty associated with
412	the coating mass of $H_2SO_4$ and $H_2O$ . We assumed only $H_2O$ condensation during BC
413	hygroscopic growth from Stage II to III in the calculation of coating mass, which may not be
414	accurate considering that $H_2SO_4$ condenses on BC surface simultaneously along with $H_2O$ . A
415	sensitivity calculation shows that replacing $H_2O \frac{\text{with } by}{\text{With } by} H_2SO_4$ in the coating material reduces
416	the scattering discrepancy in scattering to 10% in this case for D <sub>BC</sub> of 320 nm at Stage III, since
417	H <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> is more reflective than H <sub>2</sub> O, but increases overestimate in BC absorption from 17% to
418	25%. This also explains the consistent underestimates in the calculated scattering cross sections
419	at Stage III for three D <sub>BC</sub> cases (Fig. 3).
420	Theoretical calculations show that using BC RI of $\frac{1.95 - 0.79i}{(1.75 - 0.63i)}$ increases
421	(decreases) scattering and extinction and absorption cross sections of coated BC particles by
422	<u>10-17% atat</u> Stages II–_and by 5-15% at Stage_III by up to 30%, for different BC sizes, which,
423	however, is smaller compared with the decrease for fresh BC aggregates (20-40%) where The
424	scattering cross sections of coated BC particles decrease by up to 50% due to the use of smaller
425	BC RI for different BC sizes and aging stages. is most sensitive to BC RI change. We found that
426	the effect of BC RI on extinction and absorption for coated BC particles is similar for different
427	BC sizes, but much smaller than the case of fresh BC aggregates.
428	Figs. 5 and 6 show the extinction, absorption, and scattering cross sections for different
429	coated BC structures normalized by cross sections of the concentric core-shell structure
430	determined from standard calculations. The off-center core-shell structure has little impacts on
431	BC optical properties at Stage II (Fig. 5) with differences of less than 10% compared with the 21

concentric core-shell structure, primarily because of the thin coating layer. As the coating 432 thickness increases after hygroscopic growth, the off-center core-shell structure results in a 5-30% 433 decrease in extinction, absorption, and scattering cross sections at Stage III (Fig. 6). This finding 434 is consistent with the result presented by Adachi et al. (2010) using the DDA method, where they 435 found up to 30% reductions in BC absorption depending on the position of BC core inside 436 coating material. A recent T-matrix study (Mishchenko et al., 2014) also showed that the 437 absorption of BC-water mixture tends to decrease as a BC particle moves from the droplet center 438 to the boundary. 439

Compared with the concentric core-shell structure, the closed-cell structure tends to have 440 stronger absorption and weaker scattering for D<sub>BC</sub> of 245 and 320 nm at Stages II and III, while 441 the reverse is true for the open-cell structure (Figs. 5 and 6). This is in line with the conclusion 442 443 presented in Liou et al. (2011) that closed-cell aggregates have larger absorption and smaller SSA than their open-cell counterparts. The closed-cell structure has a larger surface area for 444 interaction of the incident light with each primary spherule that acts as a coated core-shell unit, 445 446 leading to a stronger lensing effect and thus stronger absorption compared with the concentric core-shell structure. However, the open-cell structure lacks a closed coating structure to produce 447 efficient lensing effects. The coating spherules sticking to pure BC spherules in the open-cell 448 structure increase the interaction between the incident light and non-absorbing coating material, 449 resulting in a stronger scattering. 450

451 The extinction and absorption cross sections of partially encapsulated and externally 452 attached structures are consistently lower than those of the concentric core-shell structure by

30-80% for different BC sizes (Figs. 5 and 6). This is because the relatively open coating 453 structure leads to inefficient lensing effect for partially encapsulated and externally attached 454 structures, in which a part of BC aggregates is shielded from interaction with incident photons 455 that are backscattered by the attached non-absorbing coating material. Adachi et al. (2010) 456 showed that the concentric core-shell structure has a 20-30% stronger absorption than BC 457 aggregates that are fully embedded within host sulfate. Thus, the partially encapsulated structure 458 with only a part of BC aggregates embedded inside coating material in the present study could 459 further decrease the absorption and lead to much smaller absorption values than a concentric 460 core-shell structure. Kahnert et al. (2013) found that the difference in BC absorption between 461 concentric core-shell and encapsulated structures strongly depends on particle size, BC volume 462 fraction, and wavelength, based on the DDA calculation. Interestingly, we found that the 463 absorption of partially encapsulated structure is 10-40% weaker than that of externally attached 464 structure with larger differences for thicker coating, while their scattering cross sections are 465 similar (differences  $\leq$  5%). The preceding analysis demonstrates that coating structures exert a 466 467 significant impact on BC optical properties. Thus, in order to produce reliable and accurate estimates of BC radiative forcing in climate models, the development of a realistic BC coating 468 morphology parameterization appears to be essential, which, however, could be a challenging 469 task in view of limited observations available at the present time.-470

471

# 472 **3.3 Evolution of BC absorption and scattering**

473

Fig. 7 shows the enhancement in absorption and scattering during BC aging from freshly

emitted aggregates (Stage I) to BC coated by H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> (Stage II) and by H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>O (Stage III) for
different BC coating structures and sizes. The measured BC absorption increases by 10-45% due
to coating, while the concentric core-shell model results in a 20-65% absorption increase
depending on BC sizes and aging stages. This implies that assuming a concentric core-shell
shape could overestimate BC radiative forcing. Adachi et al. (2010) found that using a more
realistic BC coating morphology from field measurements leads to about 20% less BC DRF than
using a concentric core-shell shape.

Moreover, coated BC particles with closed-cell structures enhance absorption by 50-100% 481 for Stage II and more than 100% after hygroscopic growth (Fig. 7). In contrast, the open-cell 482 structures produce less than 10% increase in absorption during aging for D<sub>BC</sub> of 245 and 320 nm, 483 while the enhancement tends to be stronger for smaller BC size ( $D_{BC} = 155$  nm). Surprisingly, we 484 485 found that the partially encapsulated and externally attached BC structures have a weaker absorption than fresh BC aggregates, probably because that the two structures in the absence of 486 fully embedded shape have no efficient lensing effect and that the non-absorbing coating 487 488 material blocks the photons coming from behind BC aggregates and produces a shadowing effect (Liu and Mishchenko, 2007). This shadowing effect could also explain the decreasing BC 489 absorption for partially encapsulated, externally attached, and open-cell structures when coating 490 material increases during Stages II to III. Adachi and Buseck (2013) and Scarnato et al. (2013) 491 found that BC particles attached to or partially immersed in host material, instead of fully 492 embedded within them, do not show noticeable increases in BC absorption relative to uncoated 493 aggregates based on DDA calculations. Bond et al. (2006) recommended a 50% increase in BC 494

495 absorption to account for the averaged coating effect during atmospheric aging. However, in 496 light of the preceding analysis, the morphology, composition and amount of coating play 497 significant roles in altering the BC optical properties during aging. It appears that a fixed 498 enhancement factor may not represent the realistic increase in BC absorption due to complex 499 coating, particularly over regions with highly heterogeneous aging conditions.

500 Compared with absorption enhancement, BC coating results in a much larger increase in scattering, with a greater enhancement for a larger amount of coating material (Fig. 7). The 501 measured scattering cross sections from laboratory experiments for different BC sizes increase 502 by a factor of 5-6 from Stage I to II and a factor of 11-12-13 from Stage I to III. Theoretical 503 calculations show that tThe calculated increase in scattering from Stage I to II varies from a 504 factor of 3 to 8 for D<sub>BC</sub> of 245 and 320 nm depending on coating morphology, while both the 505 506 magnitude and variation of enhancement are much larger for D<sub>BC</sub> of 155 nm ranging from a factor of 6 to 15. After hygroscopic growth (Stage III), BC scattering further increases by 20-200% 507 for different coating structures relative to that at Stage II. Cheng et al. (2009) observed that the 508 509 increase in BC scattering, due to both the increased amount of coating and the transition of uncoated to coated BC, can reach up to a factor of 8-10 within several hours' aging at a polluted 510 site in northeastern China, which is comparable to laboratory measurements and theoretical 511 calculations presented above. 512

513

# 514 **4. Implication for regional radiative forcing analysis**<u>Atmospheric implications</u>

515 Our theoretical calculations have shown that BC absorption and scattering are highly

516	sensitive to coating morphology and the amount of coating at different aging stages. This
517	suggests that the change of BC coating states (e.g., coating thickness, morphology, and
518	composition) during aging process in the real atmosphere could substantially affect BC radiative
519	properties and thus its climatic effects. Metcalf et al. (2012) observed that the mean BC coating
520	thickness increases from ~95 nm over urban areas within boundary layers to ~150 nm in its
521	downwind regions and ~190 nm in the free troposphere, with a factor of two higher number
522	fractions of thickly coated BC in the free troposphere and downwind regions than near the source.
523	Such large variations in BC coating thickness and number fraction of thickly coated BC during
524	aging have also been observed over the tropics from the ground to high altitudes (Schwarz et al.,
525	2008), implying a strong dependence of BC coating state on aging condition and timescale that
526	BC particles have experienced. Furthermore, atmospheric observations also suggest large
527	variability in the composition of coating materials (Moteki et al. 2007; Metcalf et al., 2012) and
528	coating morphology (China et al., 2013; 2015) during BC aging under different atmospheric
529	conditions. Thus, better characterizations of BC coating mass, composition, and morphology
530	during aging are critically important to accurately estimate BC radiative effects.
531	However, many global models tend to use fixed BC optical properties or simplified
532	core-shell models for the computation of BC radiative effects (Bond et al., 2013), which may not
533	be representative and sufficiently accurate in view of various BC coating states in the real
534	atmosphere. This study suggests that a reliable estimate of BC radiative effects in climate models
535	would require the representation of a dynamic BC aging process with realistic coating structures,
536	especially for regional analysis with highly heterogeneous atmospheric conditions.

537	Fig. 8 presents the evolution of BC coating fraction and thickness, optical properties, and
538	DRF during the transport from the source region (LA Basin) to ~200 km downwind regions
539	during the CalNex 2010 campaign, including West and East LA Basin, Banning Pass, Banning
540	Outflow, and Imperial Valley. The observed BC loads decrease by a factor of three during
541	transport (Fig. 8c) as a result of the dilution by cleaner air, while the observed BC coating
542	thickness and fraction increase by a factor of two (Figs. 8a, b) revealing a strong BC aging
543	during transport (Metcalf et al., 2012). The present calculations show that the effective BC MAC
544	(i.e., the sum of coated and uncoated BC MAC weighted by their mass fractions) and SSA
545	increases from 10 to 13 m <sup>2</sup> g <sup>-1</sup> -(Fig. 8d) and 0.4 to 0.6 (Fig. 8e), respectively, due to coating
546	during aging. The BC DRF increases from 1.5 to 1.7 W m <sup>-2</sup> -from West to East LA Basin and
547	decreases rapidly to ~1.0 W m <sup>-2</sup> -from East LA Basin to Imperial Valley (Fig. 8f), which is
548	associated with the absorption enhancement produced by coating that dominates the
549	DRF-increasing period and BC concentration dilution that dominates the DRF-decreasing period.
550	The BC DRF over the LA Basin and downwind regions in this case is more than a factor of two
551	higher than the annual mean value over California (Wang et al., 2014) and a factor of 1.5-2
552	higher than the global annual mean value (Bond et al., 2013). The present analysis shows that the
553	BC DRF varies by 20% due to the use of upper and lower bounds of BC RI and by a factor of
554	two depending on different BC morphology (Fig. 8f). Thus, it is important to incorporate a
555	realistic representation of BC structure and its parameterization in climate models in order to
556	accurately capture regional BC DRF evolution.

In this conjunction, many global atmospheric models tend to use a fixed BC MAC for DRF 

558	estimates in the absence of BC aging microphysics (e.g., Schulz et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2014).
559	We found that using a fixed BC MAC of 11.3 m <sup>2</sup> g <sup>-4</sup> that represents the mean BC mixing state
560	from atmospheric observations (Bond et al., 2006), the BC DRF decreases monotonically from
561	2.1 to 0.8 W m <sup>-2</sup> from the LA Basin to downwind regions, with up to 40% differences in
562	individual subregions, as compared with the DRF determined from the evolved BC MAC
563	accounting for the change of BC optical properties during aging. Consequently, a fixed BC MAC
564	for the mean mixing state may not be representative and sufficiently accurate within the context
565	of regional radiative forcing analysis, which would require the use of a dynamic BC aging
566	process coupled with the evolution of radiative properties in climate models.

## 568 **5. Conclusions**

We developed a theoretical model that accounts for three typical BC aging stages, including 569 freshly emitted aggregates, coated BC by soluble material, and coated BC particles after further 570 hygroscopic growth. The GOS approach was used to compute BC absorption and scattering at 571 572 each aging stage, which was coupled with a stochastic procedure to construct different BC structures. The theoretical calculations were compared with laboratory measurements, followed 573 by a systematic analysis on uncertainties associated with BC RI and morphology. Finally, we 574 575 discussed atmospheric implications of our results in the assessment of BC radiative effects.applied the theoretical aging model and GOS approach to investigate the evolution of BC 576 radiative properties and DRF during the transport from the LA Basin to downwind regions, based 577 on the CalNex 2010 field measurements. 578

579	Theoretical calculations yielded consistent extinction (sum of absorption and scattering)
580	cross sections for fresh BC aggregates at Stage I, with differences of less than 20% compared
581	with measurements. Theoretical calculations underestimated BC absorption by up to 25%, while
582	overestimated BC scattering for different sizes, because of uncertainties involved associated with
583	both theoretical calculations for small particles and scattering measurements in laboratory
584	experiments. Sensitivity calculations showed that variation of optical the extinction and
585	absorption cross sections of fresh BC aggregates can be is up to 60% 20-40% due to the use of
586	different upper and lower bounds of BC RIs, in which while the variation of the scattering cross
587	section is most sensitive ranges from 50% to 65% with a higher sensitivity for larger BC sizes.
588	We also found that the optical cross sections of BC aggregates are sensitive to $D_f$ , but insensitive
589	to the size of primary spherules. Using volume-equivalent spheres instead of aggregates
590	decreased the BC absorption at Stage I.
591	The measured extinction, absorption, and scattering cross sections of coated BC were
592	<u>generally</u> captured (differences $\leq \frac{2030}{30}$ %) by theoretical calculations using a concentric
593	core-shell structure for Stages II and $III_{27}$ However, theoretical calculations tend to overestimate
594	extinction and absorption for D <sub>BC</sub> of 155 and 245 nm at Stages II and III, while the scattering
595	tends to be underestimated for larger BC sizes at Stage III, particularly for $D_{BC}$ of 320 nm due
596	partly to the uncertainty associated with $H_2SO_4-H_2O$ coating mass. although the scattering at
597	Stage III for $D_{BC}$ of 320 nm was underestimated by about 30% because of uncertainties
598	associated with H <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> -H <sub>2</sub> O coating mass. Sensitivity analyses showed that the effects of BC RI
599	on extinction and absorption for coated BC were much smaller than that for fresh BC aggregates.

The off-center core-shell structure resulted in up to 30% less absorption and scattering cross sections than the concentric core-shell structure. The open-cell structure tended to have weaker absorption and stronger scattering than the concentric core-shell structure, while the reverse is true for the closed-cell structure. Compared with the concentric core-shell structure, the partially encapsulated and externally attached structures had substantially smaller absorption and scattering cross sections due to the lack of efficient lensing effects.

Theoretical calculations showed that using a concentric core-shell structure slightly 606 overestimated the measured enhancement in BC absorption by up to 30% during aging. The 607 closed-cell structure led to a factor of two higher increases in BC absorption than measured 608 values, while the open-cell structure did not show a noticeable increase in absorption for  $D_{BC}$  of 609 245 and 320 nm during aging. The partially encapsulated and externally attached coating 610 611 structures had a weaker absorption than fresh BC aggregates, likely produced by the shadowing effect from non-absorbing coating material as well as the lack of efficient lensing effect. The 612 increase in BC scattering during aging was much stronger than absorption, ranging from a factor 613 614 of 3 to 24 depending on BC size, morphology, and aging stage. Thus, tThe present analysis suggested showed that BC optical properties are highly sensitive to BC morphology and the 615 amount and composition of coating coating mass at different aging stagesexert significant impacts 616 on the BC optical properties. Therefore, it is critically important to incorporate realistic BC 617 coating properties in climate models for an accurate estimate of BC radiative forcing. 618 Our theoretical calculations suggested that the evolution of BC coating states (e.g., coating 619 thickness, morphology, and composition) during aging in the real atmosphere could exert 620

621 significant impacts on BC radiative properties and thus its climatic effects, particularly over
622 regions with high heterogeneity. Therefore, to accurately estimate BC radiative effects requires
623 the incorporation of a dynamic BC aging process accounting for realistic coating structures in
624 climate models.

The CalNex field measurements showed a strong BC aging during its transport from the LA 625 Basin to downwind regions. The resulting BC DRF first increased from 1.5 to 1.7 W m<sup>-2</sup> and 626 subsequently decreased to 1.0 W m<sup>-2</sup>, as a result of the competition between BC absorption 627 increase due to coating and BC concentration dilution. The present results revealed that BC DRF 628 estimate is highly sensitive to BC morphology during aging. Thus, a reliable estimate of BC 629 radiative forcing in climate models would require the representation of a dynamic BC aging 630 process, including realistic coating structures, especially for regional analysis under highly 631 heterogeneous atmospheric conditions. 632

633

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Aging StagebMobility diameter (nm)Mass (10 <sup>-16</sup> g)Mass speciesMass (10 <sup>-16</sup> g)Standard calculationStandard calculation1555.13 $3.67$ (1) BC refractive index of 1.75 - 0.63 <i>i</i> ;(1) BC refractive index of 1.75 - 0.63 <i>i</i> ;124513.00.79 <i>i</i> , and 164/416/651 primary spherules with diameters of 15 nm for three experimental cases, respectively(1) BC refractive index of 1.75 - 0.63 <i>i</i> ;1555.133.67(1) BC refractive index of 1.7 0.63 <i>i</i> ;1555.133.67(1) BC refractive index of 1.7 0.63 <i>i</i> ;1555.133.67(1) BC refractive index of 1.7 0.63 <i>i</i> ;1575.133.67(1) BC refractive index of 1.7 0.63 <i>i</i> ;1555.133.67(1) BC refractive index of 1.7 0.63 <i>i</i> ;1555.137.59(1) BC refractive index of 1.7 0.63 <i>i</i> ;1555.137.59(1) BC refractive index of 1.7 0.63 <i>i</i> ;	Aging	Pure BC		<b>Coating material</b>		Standard	Sonsitivity	
$I = \begin{bmatrix} 155 & 5.13 \\ 245 & 13.0 \\ 320 & 20.3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} Cagregates with a fractal dimension of 2.1, BC refractive index of 1.95 - 0.63i; (2) Fractal dimension of 2.5; (3) Primary spherule diameter of nm; (4) Single volume-equivalent BC respectively \\ (4) Single volume-equivalent BC sphere \\ (4) Open-cell structure \\ (5) Partially encapsulated structure \\ (5) Partially encapsulated structure \\ (6) Externally attached structure \\ (7.5) Sphere \\ (1) BC refractive index of 1.7) \\ (1) BC refractive index of 1.7) \\ (2) Off-center core-shell structure \\ (3) Closed-cell structure \\ (4) Open-cell structure \\ (5) Partially encapsulated structure \\ (6) Externally attached structure \\ (6) Externally attached structure \\ (7.5) Partially encapsulated structure$	Aging Stage <sup>b</sup>	Mobility diameter (nm)	Mass (10 <sup>-16</sup> g)	Species	Mass (10 <sup>-16</sup> g)	calculation	calculation	
I24513.0Image: Construction of 2.5 indication	I	155	5.13			BC aggregates with a fractal dimension of 2.1, BC refractive index of 1.95 – 0.79 <i>i</i> , and 164/416/651 primary spherules with diameters of 15 nm for three experimental cases, respectively	<ol> <li>(1) BC refractive index of 1.75 –</li> <li>0.63<i>i</i>;</li> <li>(2) Fractal dimension of 2.5;</li> <li>(3) Primary spherule diameter of 20 nm;</li> <li>(4) Single volume-equivalent BC sphere</li> </ol>	
$320$ $20.3$ diameters of 15 nm for three experimental cases, respectively $(4)$ Single volume-equivalent BG sphere $155$ $5.13$ $3.67$ $(1)$ BC refractive index of $1.7$ $245$ $13.0$ $11.0$ $0.63i$ ;IISulfuric acid $(H_2SO_4)$ Concentric core-shell coating structures with BC refractive index of $1.95 - 0.79i$ $(2)$ Off-center core-shell structure; $(3)$ Closed-cell structure; $(5)$ Partially encapsulated structure $(6)$ Externally attached structure $155$ $5.13$ $7.59$ $(1)$ BC refractive index of $1.7$		245	13.0					
$II = \begin{bmatrix} 155 & 5.13 \\ 245 & 13.0 \\ 320 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 20.3 \\ 20.3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 20.3 \\ 20.3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 11.0 \\ 11.0 \\ (H_2SO_4) \\ 17.9 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 20.3 \\ 17.9 \\ 17.9 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 20.3 \\ 17.9 \\ 17.9 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 20.3 \\ 17.9 \\ (1) BC refractive index of 1.7 \\ (2) Off-center core-shell structure index of 1.7 \\ (3) Closed-cell structure; \\ (4) Open-cell structure index of 1.7 \\ (5) Partially encapsulated structure index of 1.7 \\ (6) Externally attached structure index of 1.7 \\ (1) BC refractive index of 1.7 \\ (1) BC$		320	20.3					
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		155	5.13		3.67		(1) BC refractive index of 1.75 -	
IISulfuric acid (H2SO4)Concentric core-shell coating structures with BC refractive index of $1.95 - 0.79i$ (2) Off-center core-shell structure (3) Closed-cell structure; (4) Open-cell structure (5) Partially encapsulated structure 		245	13.0		11.0		0.63 <i>i</i> ;	
155 5.13 7.59 (1) BC refractive index of 1.7	П	320	20.3	Sulfuric acid (H <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> )	17.9	Concentric core-shell coating structures with BC refractive index of $1.95 - 0.79i$	<ul> <li>(2) Off-center core-shell structure;</li> <li>(3) Closed-cell structure;</li> <li>(4) Open-cell structure</li> <li>(5) Partially encapsulated structure</li> <li>(6) Externally attached structure</li> </ul>	
		155	5.13		7.59		(1) BC refractive index of 1.75 -	
245 13.0 20.7 0.63 <i>i</i> ;		245	13.0		20.7		0.63 <i>i</i> ;	
IIISulfuric acidConcentric core-shell coating structures with BC refractive(2) Off-center core-shell structure (3) Closed-cell structure; (4) Open-cell structure 	Ш	320	20.3	Sulfuric acid and water (H <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> -H <sub>2</sub> O)	33.6	Concentric core-shell coating structures with BC refractive index of $1.95 - 0.79i$	<ul> <li>(2) Off-center core-shell structure;</li> <li>(3) Closed-cell structure;</li> <li>(4) Open-cell structure</li> <li>(5) Partially encapsulated structure</li> <li>(6) Externally attached structure</li> </ul>	

908 <b>Table 1.</b> BC	<sup>2</sup> physical	properties us	sed in	theoretical	calculations <sup>a</sup>
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<sup>a</sup>Particle properties are derived from measurements in laboratory experiments (Zhang et al., 2008)

910 with initial BC mobility diameters of 155, 245 and 320 nm. See text for details.

911 <sup>b</sup> See Fig. 1 and text for details.

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- 914 **Figure captions:**
- 915

Figure 1. A theoretical model that accounts for three BC aging stages and the associated BC
structures, including freshly emitted aggregates (Stage I), coated BC by soluble material (Stage
II), and those after further hygroscopic growth (Stage III). Six typical structures for coated BC at
Stages II and III are considered based on atmospheric observations, including embedded (i.e.,
concentric core-shell, off-center core-shell, and closed-cell), partially encapsulated, and partly
coated (i.e., open-cell and externally attached) structures. See text for details.

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**Figure 2.** A graphical description of the geometric-optics surface-wave (GOS) approach for light scattering and absorption by coated BC aggregates. The GOS components include the hit-and-miss Monte Carlo photon tracing associated with internal and external refractions and reflections, diffraction following Babinet's principle for randomly oriented irregular particles, and surface waves travelling along the particle edges and propagating into shadow regions. See text for details.

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Figure 3. Laboratory measurements and theoretical calculations of BC extinction (left column), 930 absorption (middle column), and scattering (right column) cross sections (at 532 nm) at three 931 aging stages for BC with initial mobility diameters (D<sub>BC</sub>) of 155 nm (top row), 245 nm (middle 932 row), and 320 nm (bottom row). Black circles represent mean values from measurements and 933 black error bars indicate experimental uncertainties reported by Zhang et al. (2008) and Khalizov 934 et al. (2009a). Green squares indicate results from the standard theoretical calculations (see Table 935 936 1 for details). Red crosses represent mean values for theoretical calculations using BC refractive index of 1.95 - 0.79i and 1.75 - 0.63i and rRed error bars indicate the range of theoretical 937 calculations using BC refractive index of 1.95 - 0.79i (upper bound) and 1.75 - 0.63i (lower 938 bound)the corresponding upper and lower bounds. Blue error bars represent the upper and lower 939 bounds of sensitivity calculations using different BC morphology with refractive index of 1.95 -940

- 941 0.79*i* (see also Fig. 1 and Table 1).
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Figure 4. Extinction (red), absorption (blue), and scattering (orange) cross sections (at 532 nm) 943 for different BC morphology normalized by BC aggregate cross sections determined from 944 standard calculations at aging Stage I for initial BC mobility diameters (D<sub>BC</sub>) of 155 nm (top), 945 245 nm (middle), and 320 nm (bottom). Results for fFour BC structures are considered shown, 946 including BC aggregates in standard calculations (circles) with a fractal dimension  $(D_f)$  of 2.1 947 and a primary spherule diameter  $(D_p)$  of 15 nm, BC aggregates with a fractal dimension  $(D_f)$  of 948 2.5 (triangles; vs.versus 2.1 in standard calculations), BC aggregates with a primary spherule 949 diameter  $(D_p)$  of 20 nm (squares; vs.versus 15 nm in standard calculations), and a single 950 mass-equivalent BC sphere (crosses; vs.versus fractal aggregate in standard calculations). 951 Dashed horizontal lines indicate a value of 1. 952

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- **Figure 5.** Extinction (red), absorption (blue), and scattering (orange) cross sections (at 532 nm)

- for different coating morphology normalized by cross sections of concentric core-shell structures determined from standard calculations at aging Stage II (BC coated by sulfuric acid ( $H_2SO_4$ )) for initial BC mobility diameters ( $D_{BC}$ ) of 155 nm (top), 245 nm (middle), and 320 nm (bottom). Six BC coating structures are considered, including concentric core-shell (circles), off-center core-shell (triangles), closed-cell (squares), open-cell (crosses), partly encapsulated (diamonds), and externally attached (asterisks) structures (see also Fig. 1). Dashed horizontal lines indicate a value of 1.
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**Figure 6.** Same as Fig. 5, but for aging stage III where BC particles are coated by both sulfuric acid and water ( $H_2SO_4$ - $H_2O$ ).

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**Figure 7.** Enhancement in BC absorption (top) and scattering (bottom) during aging from freshly 966 emitted aggregates at Stage I to BC coated by sulfuric acid (H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>) at Stage II (circles) and by 967 both sulfuric acid and water (H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>O) at Stage III (crosses) for initial BC mobility sizes (D<sub>BC</sub>) 968 of 155 nm (left), 245 nm (middle), and 320 nm (right). The enhancements for different BC 969 coating morphology are shown, including concentric core-shell, off-center core-shell, closed-cell, 970 971 open-cell, partly encapsulated, and externally attached structures (See-see also Fig. 1). The reference case for enhancement calculation is the fresh BC aggregate measured in laboratory 972 experiments, which is used for all six BC coating morphology cases. Thus, t<del>The</del> enhancement is 973 computed as the ratio of calculated absorption/scattering cross sections of coated BC particles to 974 the measured observed values of fresh BC aggregates. Also shown is the measured enhancement 975 from laboratory experiments (Obs.).Horizontal dashed lines indicate a value of 1.0. 976

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978 Figure 8. Observations of (a) BC coating thickness in diameter, (b) fraction of coated BC, and (c) column BC loads, and model simulations of (d) effective BC mass absorption cross section 979 (MAC), (e) effective BC single scattering albedo (SSA), and (f) BC direct radiative forcing 980 (DRF) at the top of atmosphere over five regions (grey rectangles) during the CalNex 2010 981 measurements, including (I) West LA Basin, (II) East LA Basin, (III) Banning Pass, (IV) 982 Banning Outflow, and (V) Imperial Valley. Also shown are 1- $\sigma$  uncertainties (error bars) of 983 observations in (a) (c) and the range (error bars) of model results using BC refractive index of 984 1.95 0.79i and 1.75 0.63i in (d)-(f). Dashed grey lines in (d)-(f) represent upper and lower 985 bounds of model results using different BC morphology (see also Fig. 1 and Table 1) with 986 refractive index of 1.95 0.79i. 987

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**Figure 1.** A theoretical model that accounts for three BC aging stages and the associated BC structures, including freshly emitted aggregates (Stage I), coated BC by soluble material (Stage II), and those after further hygroscopic growth (Stage III). Six typical structures for coated BC at Stages II and III are considered based on atmospheric observations, including embedded (i.e., concentric core-shell, off-center core-shell, and closed-cell), partially encapsulated, and partly coated (i.e., open-cell and externally attached) structures. See text for details.



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**Figure 2.** A graphical description of the geometric-optics surface-wave (GOS) approach for light scattering and absorption by coated BC aggregates. The GOS components include the hit-and-miss Monte Carlo photon tracing associated with internal and external refractions and reflections, diffraction following Babinet's principle for randomly oriented irregular particles, and surface waves travelling along the particle edges and propagating into shadow regions. See text for details.

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Figure 3. Laboratory measurements and theoretical calculations of BC extinction (left column), 1013 absorption (middle column), and scattering (right column) cross sections (at 532 nm) at three 1014 1015 aging stages for BC with initial mobility diameters (D<sub>BC</sub>) of 155 nm (top row), 245 nm (middle row), and 320 nm (bottom row). Black circles represent mean values from measurements and 1016 black error bars indicate experimental uncertainties reported by Zhang et al. (2008) and Khalizov 1017 et al. (2009a). Green squares indicate results from the standard theoretical calculations (see Table 1018 1 for details). Red crosses represent mean values for theoretical calculations using BC refractive 1019 index of 1.95 – 0.79i and 1.75 – 0.63i and rRed error bars indicate the range of theoretical 1020 1021 calculations using BC refractive index of 1.95 - 0.79i (upper bound) and 1.75 - 0.63i (lower bound)the corresponding upper and lower bounds. Blue error bars represent the upper and lower 1022 bounds of sensitivity calculations using different BC morphology with refractive index of 1.95 -1023 0.79*i* (see also Fig. 1 and Table 1). 1024

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1030 Figure 4. Extinction (red), absorption (blue), and scattering (orange) cross sections (at 532 nm) for different BC morphology normalized by BC aggregate cross sections determined from 1031 standard calculations at aging Stage I for initial BC mobility diameters (D<sub>BC</sub>) of 155 nm (top), 1032 1033 245 nm (middle), and 320 nm (bottom). Results for fFour BC structures are considered shown, 1034 including BC aggregates in standard calculations (circles) with a fractal dimension ( $D_f$ ) of 2.1 and a primary spherule diameter  $(D_p)$  of 15 nm, BC aggregates with a fractal dimension  $(D_f)$  of 1035 2.5 (triangles; vs.versus 2.1 in standard calculations), BC aggregates with a primary spherule 1036 diameter  $(D_p)$  of 20 nm (squares; vs.versus 15 nm in standard calculations), and a single 1037 mass-equivalent BC sphere (crosses; vs.versus fractal aggregate in standard calculations). 1038 Dashed horizontal lines indicate a value of 1. 1039



Figure 5. Extinction (red), absorption (blue), and scattering (orange) cross sections (at 532 nm) 1042 for different coating morphology normalized by cross sections of concentric core-shell structures 1043 determined from standard calculations at aging Stage II (BC coated by sulfuric acid (H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>)) for 1044 1045 initial BC mobility diameters (D<sub>BC</sub>) of 155 nm (top), 245 nm (middle), and 320 nm (bottom). Six BC coating structures are considered, including concentric core-shell (circles), off-center 1046 core-shell (triangles), closed-cell (squares), open-cell (crosses), partly encapsulated (diamonds), 1047 and externally attached (asterisks) structures (see also Fig. 1). Dashed horizontal lines indicate a 1048 value of 1. 1049 1050



**Figure 6.** Same as Fig. 5, but for aging stage III where BC particles are coated by both sulfuric acid and water ( $H_2SO_4$ - $H_2O$ ).





**Figure 7.** Enhancement in BC absorption (top) and scattering (bottom) during aging from freshly 1060 emitted aggregates at Stage I to BC coated by sulfuric acid (H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>) at Stage II (circles) and by 1061 1062 both sulfuric acid and water ( $H_2SO_4$ - $H_2O$ ) at Stage III (crosses) for initial BC mobility sizes ( $D_{BC}$ ) of 155 nm (left), 245 nm (middle), and 320 nm (right). The enhancements for different BC 1063 coating morphology are shown, including concentric core-shell, off-center core-shell, closed-cell, 1064 open-cell, partly encapsulated, and externally attached structures (See see also Fig. 1). The 1065 reference case for enhancement calculation is the fresh BC aggregate measured in laboratory 1066 experiments, which is used for all six BC coating morphology cases. Thus, t<del>The</del> enhancement is 1067 computed as the ratio of calculated absorption/scattering cross sections of coated BC particles to 1068 the measured observed values of fresh BC aggregates. Also shown is the measured enhancement 1069 from laboratory experiments (Obs.).Horizontal dashed lines indicate a value of 1.0. 1070

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Figure 8. Observations of (a) BC coating thickness in diameter, (b) fraction of coated BC, and (c) 1075 column BC loads, and model simulations of (d) effective BC mass absorption cross section 1076 (MAC), (e) effective BC single scattering albedo (SSA), and (f) BC direct radiative forcing 1077 (DRF) at the top-of-atmosphere over five regions (grey rectangles) during the CalNex 2010 1078 measurements, including (I) West LA Basin, (II) East LA Basin, (III) Banning Pass, (IV) 1079 1080 Banning Outflow, and (V) Imperial Valley. Also shown are 1-o uncertainties (error bars) of observations in (a) (c) and the range (error bars) of model results using BC refractive index of 1081 1.95 - 0.79i and 1.75 - 0.63i in (d) (f). Dashed grey lines in (d) (f) represent upper and lower 1082 bounds of model results using different BC morphology (see also Fig. 1 and Table 1) with 1083 refractive index of 1.95 – 0.79*i*. 1084