

1 **Characterization of aerosol hygroscopicity, mixing state, and**
2 **CCN activity at a suburban site in the central North China Plain**

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22 **Abstract.** Aerosol hygroscopicity, mixing state and CCN activity were investigated as
23 a part of the Atmosphere-Aerosol-Boundary Layer-Cloud (A²BC) Interaction Joint
24 Experiment carried out at Xingtai (XT), a suburban site in the center of the North
25 China Plain (NCP). In general, the probability density function of the hygroscopicity
26 parameter (κ -PDF) for 40–200 nm particles had a unimodal distribution and mean
27 κ -PDF patterns for different sizes were similar, suggesting that the particles were
28 highly aged and internally mixed because of strong photochemical reactions. The κ
29 calculated from hygroscopic growth factor in the daytime and at nighttime showed
30 that photochemical reactions largely enhanced the aerosol hygroscopicity, and the
31 effect became weaker as the particle size increased. In addition, the aerosol
32 hygroscopicity was much larger at XT than at sites in the northern part of the NCP,
33 illustrating that the hygroscopicity of particles varies largely due to different
34 emissions and chemical processes in the NCP.

35 Measurement results also showed that new particle formation events occurred
36 frequently at XT, one of the most polluted city in China. The evolution of the
37 planetary boundary layer played a dominant role in aerosol mass concentration
38 changes while particle formation and growth had a greater influence on the variation
39 in aerosol number concentrations. Particle size was the most important factor
40 influencing the ability of aerosols to activate, especially at higher levels of
41 supersaturation (SS). The cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) number concentration
42 (N_{CCN}) derived from chemical composition was highly correlated with the measured
43 N_{CCN} ($R^2 \geq 0.85$), but was generally overestimated due to measurement uncertainties.

44 The effect of chemical composition on N_{CCN} was weaker relative to the particle size.
45 N_{CCN} sensitivity tests showed that the impact of chemical composition on N_{CCN}
46 became weaker with increasing SS, suggesting that chemical composition played a
47 less role in N_{CCN} estimations at higher SS levels. A good proxy for the chemical
48 comical composition ($\kappa = 0.31$) was found, which can simplify the calculation of
49 N_{CCN} on models.

50 **1. Introduction**

51 Aerosols, defined as the mixture of solid and liquid particles suspended in air, are
52 ubiquitously present in the atmosphere because of direct emissions from biogenic and
53 anthropogenic sources and the secondary transformation from gas precursors. Aerosol
54 particles play an important role in climate changes through direct and indirect effects
55 (e.g. Ramanathan et al., 2001; Daniel et al., 2008; Li et al., 2016). However, the
56 impact of aerosols on climate change is difficult to simulate because of the highly
57 variable physical and chemical properties of aerosols, and complex aerosol-cloud
58 interactions (IPCC, 2013; Lebo et al., 2017).

59 The hygroscopic growth and mixing state of aerosol particles are important for
60 estimating the direct climate effect of aerosols. This is because the growth and mixing
61 can change the particle size and optical properties of aerosol particles, directly
62 influencing the terrestrial radiation budget and degrading the atmospheric visibility
63 (e.g. Covert et al., 1972; Stock et al., 2011; Peng et al., 2016; Z. Li et al., 2017). In
64 addition, aerosol particles can be activated as cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) under

65 supersaturation (SS) conditions. The variability in CCN number concentration (N_{CCN})
66 can modify cloud microphysical properties, thereby causing an indirect radiative
67 forcing (Twomey, 1974; Albrecht, 1989). Previous studies have addressed three main
68 aerosol properties influencing the CCN activation, namely, particle size, chemical
69 composition, and mixing state. However, their relative importance is different in
70 different environments (e.g. Dusek et al., 2006; Ervens et al., 2007; Cubison et al.,
71 2008; Deng et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2014; Schmale et al., 2018).

72 Ambient aerosols are composed of different species, including inorganic ions,
73 organic components, black carbon (BC), and mineral dust. Inorganics mainly contain
74 sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium, while organic aerosols (OA) consist of thousands of
75 chemicals (Jacobson et al., 2000). The hygroscopicity and CCN activity of a single
76 component can be characterized according to laboratory studies (e.g. Petters and
77 Kreidenweis, 2007), but the properties of their mixtures are hard to estimate because
78 of the different chemical species and mixing states of particles in the atmosphere.
79 Therefore, aerosol hygroscopicity and CCN activity are very different in different
80 regions due to different chemical compositions. Comprehensive field measurements
81 of aerosol properties in different areas are necessary to improve models.

82 China, especially the North China Plain (NCP), has been suffered from severe air
83 pollution since its rapid industrialization and urbanization in the last couple of
84 decades, where diverse sources and aging processes make aerosol properties
85 particularly diverse and complex. As such, the region has drawn much attention in
86 studying the aerosol mixing state, hygroscopicity, and CCN activity (Deng et al., 2011;

87 Liu et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2014; F. Zhang et al., 2016; S.L. Zhang et al., 2016; Wu
88 et al., 2016; Y. Wang et al., 2017). Liu et al. (2011) and Y. Wang et al. (2017) have
89 suggested that ambient particles are mostly an external mixture with different
90 hygroscopicities. Deng et al. (2011) has shown that the aerosol number size
91 distribution is critical in the prediction of N_{CCN} while Zhang et al. (2014, 2017) have
92 highlighted the importance of chemical composition in determining particle activation
93 properties. However, all these studies were done using data from the northern part of
94 the NCP. Few studies have focused on the central region of the NCP. Compared to the
95 northern part of the NCP, the central part of the NCP is more affected by industrial
96 emissions where a dense cluster of China's heavy industries exist (Fu et al., 2014).
97 Measurement of aerosol properties in the central part of the NCP are critically needed
98 to investigate the impact of air pollution on the environment and climate changes.

99 Xingtai (XT), a city located in the central area of the NCP, often ranks in the top
100 of polluted cities in China. Local industrial and domestic sources are the greatest
101 contributors to severe haze events (Wang et al., 2014). A field experiment called the
102 Atmosphere-Aerosol-Boundary Layer-Cloud (A^2BC) Interaction Joint Experiment
103 was carried out at a suburban site in Xingtai in the summer of 2016. Differences in
104 aerosol properties at this site and at sites in the northern part of the NCP were found in
105 this study.

106 The paper is organized as follows. Sections 2 and 3 describe the measurement
107 method and data analysis theory. Section 4 presents and discusses the measurement
108 results, which includes the data time series, aerosol mixing state, hygroscopicity, CCN

109 prediction and its sensitivity to chemical composition. A summary and conclusions are
110 given in section 5.

111 **2. Measurements**

112 **2.1. Sampling site and meteorology**

113 The A²BC was carried out at the National Meteorological Basic Station located
114 in XT (37.18° N, 114.37° E, 180 m ASL) from 1 May to 15 June of 2016. This
115 suburban site is situated ~ 17 km northwest of Xingtai urban area in southern Hebei
116 Province, located in the central part of the NCP and to the east of Taihang Mountains
117 (Fig. 1a). This region is heavily populated, urbanized, and industrialized. The major
118 industrial manufacturers include coal-based power plants, steel and iron works,
119 glassworks, and cement mills. The weak diffusion conditions and heavy industrial
120 emissions lead to exceptionally high concentrations of particulate matter (PM) with
121 diameter less than 10 μm (PM₁₀) and 2.5 μm (PM_{2.5}), as well as gas pollutants such as
122 sulfur dioxide (SO₂), volatile organic compounds (VOCs) and nitrogen oxides (NO_x)
123 during the frequent occurring haze episodes in this region (Wang et al., 2014; Fu et al.,
124 2014). Figure 1b shows the mean distribution of SO₂ concentrations from May of
125 2012 to 2016, confirming that the measurement site is located in one of the pollution
126 centers in this region. The detailed analysis of gas precursors and aerosol chemical
127 species shows this station is a good representative site in this region (Zhang et al.,
128 2018).

129 Time series of meteorological variables measured at this meteorological station

130 are shown in Fig. S1. This site is heavily affected by the mountain-valley wind,
131 showing a prevailing southeasterly wind during the day and a northwesterly wind at
132 night (Fig. S1 and Fig. S2). There was almost no precipitation during the study period.
133 The ambient temperature (T) and relative humidity (RH) time series show opposing
134 trends. Campaign-mean values of T and RH are 21.9 °C and 51.6 %, respectively.

135 **2.2. Instrumentation and operation**

136 **2.2.1. Aerosol hygroscopicity measurements**

137 The custom-built hygroscopicity tandem differential mobility analyzer (H-TDMA)
138 used in this study has been described in detail by others (Tan et al., 2013; Y. Wang et
139 al., 2017). Briefly, ambient aerosols are first dried and neutralized by a Nafion dryer
140 and a soft X-ray charger. A differential mobility analyzer (DMA₁, model 3081L, TSI
141 Inc.) is used to select monodispersed particles of a certain diameter (D_{p0}). The
142 monodispersed particles are then pass through a nafion humidifier with a controlled
143 higher RH and are humidified. A second DMA (DMA₂, same model as the DMA₁)
144 and a water-based condensation particle counter (WCPC, model 3787, TSI Inc.) are
145 used to measure the number size distribution of the humidified particles. The DMA₁
146 and WCPC can also be connected directly to measure the 10–400 nm particle number
147 size distribution (PNSD). In this study, the dry diameters selected by the DMA₁ are 40,
148 80, 110, 150, and 200 nm. The humidified RH is set to 85 %, the RH calibration with
149 ammonium sulfate for the HTDMA is shown in Fig. S3 in the supplement.

150 The hygroscopic growth factor (GF) is defined as the ratio of the humidified

151 diameter at a given RH to the dry diameter:

$$152 \quad GF = \frac{D_p(RH)}{D_{p0}}, \quad (1)$$

153 where $D_p(RH)$ is the particle diameter at the given RH and D_{p0} is the dry diameter
154 selected by the DMA₁. The measured distribution function versus GF (GF-MDF) can
155 be calculated with WCPC data downstream from the DMA₁ and DMA₂. The GF
156 probability density function (GF-PDF) is then retrieved using the TDMAFIT
157 algorithm (Stolzenburg and McMurry, 1988, 2008).

158 **2.2.2. Aerosol chemical composition measurements**

159 An Aerosol Chemical Speciation Monitor (ACSM) was deployed to measure the
160 non-refractory submicron aerosol (NR-PM₁) species (sulfate, nitrate, ammonium,
161 chloride, and organics) in real-time. A PM_{2.5} URG cyclone (model URG-2000-30ED)
162 was installed in the front of the sampling inlet to remove coarse particles (> 2.5 μm in
163 diameter). Before sampling into the ACSM, aerosol particles were dried (below 40 %
164 RH) by a silica gel diffusion dryer. In addition, the ACSM was calibrated routinely
165 with pure ammonium nitrate to determine its ionization efficiency. More detailed
166 descriptions about the ACSM are given by Ng et al., (2011) and Sun et al., (2012). A
167 positive matrix factor analysis is used to analyze the organic spectral matrices
168 according to Ulbrich et al., (2009). Three factors, i.e., hydrocarbon-like OA (HOA),
169 cooking OA (COA), and oxygenated OA (OOA), are chosen as the ACSM dataset.
170 HOA and COA are both primary organic aerosols (POA) while OOA is the secondary
171 organic aerosol (SOA).

172 The ACSM does not detect refractory material such as BC, so a seven-wavelength
173 aethalometer (AE-33, Magee Scientific Corp.) was used to measure the BC mass
174 concentration of BC particles with diameters $< 1.0 \mu\text{m}$ (BC PM_{10}). Mineral dust and
175 sea salt are the other refractory species, but they typically exist in the coarse mode and
176 make negligible contributions to PM_{10} (Juranyi et al., 2010; Meng et al., 2014).

177 **2.2.3. Aerosol size distribution and CCN measurements**

178 The aerosol particle number size distribution (15–685 nm) was measured by a
179 scanning mobility particle sizer (SMPS) that was equipped with a long DMA (model
180 3081L, TSI Inc.) and a condensation particle counter (CPC, model 3775, TSI Inc.). A
181 single-column continuous-flow thermal-gradient cloud condensation nuclei counter
182 (CCNC-100, DMT Inc.) was applied to measure the bulk CCN number concentration.
183 Five SS levels, i.e., 0.07, 0.1, 0.2, 0.4, and 0.8 %, were set in the CCNC and the
184 running time was 10 min for each SS level. The SS in the CCNC were calibrated with
185 pure ammonium sulfate (Rose et al., 2008) before and after the measurement
186 campaign. The corrected SS levels were 0.11, 0.13, 0.22, 0.40, and 0.75 %,
187 respectively.

188 The aerosol activation ratio (AR) at a certain SS is calculated as N_{CCN} divided by
189 the total particle number concentration in the 15–685 nm range ($N_{15-685 \text{ nm}}$), i.e., $\text{AR} =$
190 $N_{\text{CCN}} / N_{15-685 \text{ nm}}$. The particle number concentration below 15 nm is not measured by
191 the SMPS, but this does not affect the calculated N_{CCN} because the activation critical
192 diameter is always larger than 15 nm at these SS levels (Zhang et al., 2014). Aerosol

193 particles with diameters larger than 685 nm are also not detected by the SMPS. These
194 larger particles will always act as CCN due to their larger dry sizes. However, the
195 number concentration above 685 nm in the atmosphere is always negligible (Juranyi
196 et al., 2010).

197 **2.2.4. Other measurements**

198 In this study, a micro-pulse lidar (MPL-4B, Sigmaspace Corp.) was used to study
199 the evolution of the planetary boundary layer (PBL). The pulse repetition rate of the
200 MPL was 2.5 kHz at a visible wavelength of 532 nm. The peak value of the optical
201 energy of the laser beam was 8 μ J. The pulse duration ranged from 10 to 100 ns, and
202 the pulse interval was set to 200 ns, corresponding to a spatial resolution of 30 m. The
203 MPL-retrieved PBL height is the altitude where a sudden decrease in the scattering
204 coefficient occurs (Brooks, 2003; Quan et al., 2013). Trace gas analyzers
205 (manufactured by ECOTECH) were used to measure the gaseous species of O₃, SO₂,
206 NO_x, NO and CO. More detailed descriptions about the analyzers are given by Zhu et
207 al., (2016).

208 During this campaign, all sampling instruments were placed in two containers at
209 ground level and two air conditioners were used to maintain the temperature at 20–25
210 °C inside containers. All stainless tube inlets were ~ 1.5 m above the top of containers.

211 3. Theory

212 3.1. Hygroscopicity parameter

213 To link hygroscopicity measurements below and above water vapor saturation,
214 the Köhler theory (Köhler, 1936) is parameterized using the hygroscopicity parameter
215 κ (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007). This is known as the κ -Köhler theory. According
216 to the theory, the equilibrium equation over a solution droplet at a saturation ratio
217 $S(D)$ is

$$218 \quad S(D) = \frac{D^3 - D_d^3}{D^3 - D_d^3(1 - \kappa)} \exp\left(\frac{4\sigma_{s/a}M_w}{RT\rho_w D}\right) , \quad (2)$$

219 where D and D_d are the wet and dry droplet diameters, respectively, $\sigma_{s/a}$ is the
220 surface tension coefficient, M_w is the mole mass of water, R is the universal gas
221 constant, T is the temperature, and ρ_w is the density of water.

222 Below the water vapor saturation, $S(D)$ is RH, D is $D_p(\text{RH})$, and D_d is D_{p0}
223 in Eq. (1). The κ parameter is then calculated using H-TDMA data according to Eq. (1)
224 and Eq. (2):

$$225 \quad \kappa_{\text{gf}} = (\text{GF}^3 - 1) \cdot \left[\frac{1}{\text{RH}} \exp\left(\frac{4\sigma_{s/a}M_w}{RT\rho_w D_d \text{GF}}\right) - 1 \right] . \quad (3)$$

226 For a multicomponent particle, the Zdanovskii–Stokes–Robinson (ZSR) mixing
227 rule (Stokes and Robinson, 1966) can also estimate κ using chemical composition
228 data:

$$229 \quad \kappa_{\text{chem}} = \sum_i \varepsilon_i \kappa_i, \quad (4)$$

230 where ε_i and κ_i are the volume fraction and hygroscopicity parameter for the i th
231 chemical component. The ACSM provides the mass concentrations of inorganic ions

232 and organics. A simplified ion-pairing scheme such as that described by Gysel et al.
 233 (2007) is applied to convert ion mass concentrations to mass concentrations of their
 234 corresponding inorganic salts (see Table S1 in the supplement). Table S1 also lists κ
 235 and the gravimetric density of each individual component under supersaturated
 236 conditions. In the following discussions, κ_{gf} and κ_{chem} denote the hygroscopicity
 237 parameters derived from H-TDMA measurements and estimated using the ZSR
 238 mixing rule, respectively.

239 **3.2. CCN estimation**

240 The critical supersaturation (s_c , $s_c = S_c - 1$) for a dry diameter (D_d) of a particle
 241 with hygroscopicity κ is calculated from the maximum of the κ -Köhler curve (Eq. 2)
 242 (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007). The D_d is also the critical diameter corresponding to
 243 the s_c when κ is known, so the s_c - D_d relationship can be established. According to
 244 this relationship, the critical diameter ($D_{0,\text{crit}}$) can be calculated using the estimated
 245 κ_{chem} (Eq. 4) at a given SS. All particles larger than $D_{0,\text{crit}}$ will activate as CCN,
 246 assuming that aerosols are internally mixed. Then the CCN number concentration can
 247 be estimated from the integral of the aerosol size distribution provided by the SMPS
 248 from $D_{0,\text{crit}}$ to the maximum measured size (D_{max}) following Eq. (5):

$$249 \quad N_{\text{CCN}}(\text{SS}) = \int_{D_{0,\text{crit}}(\text{SS})}^{D_{\text{max}}} \frac{dN(D)}{d\log(D)} d\log(D) \quad (5)$$

250 $N_{\text{CCN}}(\text{SS})$ can then be compared to the number of CCN at the same SS measured by
 251 the CCNC (i.e. a closure study).

252 4. Results and discussion

253 4.1. Overview

254 Figures 2 and 3 show the time series of the main aerosol properties during the this
255 campaign. The PNSD changes dramatically (Fig. 2a) and the aerosol number
256 concentration in the 15–50 nm range ($N_{15-50 \text{ nm}}$) increases sharply in the morning
257 almost every day (Fig. 2b). The time series of the mean diameter (D_m) of particles also
258 shows that a growth process occurs after the sharp increase in $N_{15-50 \text{ nm}}$. All these
259 phenomena suggest that new particle formation (NPF) events occurred frequently at
260 XT during the field experiment (Kulmala et al., 2012; Y. Li et al., 2017). This is likely
261 related to the high concentration of gas precursors mainly from local emissions. High
262 emissions of SO_2 and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) associated with the high
263 oxidation capacity in a polluted atmosphere make NPF events occur more frequently
264 in north China (Z. Wang et al., 2017).

265 Figure 2c-d shows the time series of the probability density function of κ_{gf}
266 (κ -PDF) for 40 nm and 150 nm particles, respectively. In general, mono-modal
267 κ -PDFs were observed. This is different from κ -PDFs at other sites in China where
268 bi- and tri-modal distributions are dominant (Liu et al., 2011; Ye et al., 2013; Jiang et
269 al., 2016; S.L. Zhang et al., 2016; Y. Wang et al., 2017). This is due to differences in
270 the aerosol mixing state, which will be discussed in section 4.2.

271 The bulk mass concentrations of organics, sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, and
272 chloride measured by the ACSM are shown in Fig. 3a, along with the BC mass

273 concentration measured with the AE-33. Organics and sulfate were the dominant
274 chemical species with mass fractions in PM₁ of 39.1 % and 24.7 %, respectively.
275 Figure 3b-c shows the volume fractions of paired chemical compositions and the
276 hygroscopicity parameter (κ_{chem}) derived from chemical compositions, respectively.
277 The average volume fraction of inorganics ((NH₄)₂SO₄+NH₄HSO₄+H₂SO₄+NH₄NO₄)
278 was similar to that of organics (POA+SOA), but their volume fractions changed
279 diurnally. In general, the volume fraction of inorganics increased during daytime
280 while the volume fraction of organics decreased. In addition, SOA was the dominant
281 contributor to OA, accounting for ~69 % of the organics volume. This shows that
282 photochemical reactions were strong at XT during this campaign (Huang et al., 2014).
283 The mean κ_{chem} in Fig. 3c was 0.31 with values ranging from 0.20 to 0.40. The
284 trend in κ_{chem} was similar to that of the volume fraction of inorganics, suggesting
285 that inorganics plays a key role when it comes to κ_{chem} , this is consistent with the
286 study of Wu et al. (2016).

287 **4.2. Aerosol mixing state and hygroscopicity**

288 The average probability density functions of κ_{gf} (κ -PDF) for different particle
289 sizes derived from H-TDMA data are shown in Fig. 4. For all particle sizes considered,
290 κ_{gf} ranged from 0 to 0.8 and the κ -PDF patterns were similar, suggesting that the
291 hygroscopic compounds in different particle size mode were similar at XT. In general,
292 κ -PDF patterns show only one hydrophilic mode with the weak hydrophobic mode
293 occasionally appearing at night when photochemical reactions are weak (Fig. S4).

294 This is different from what has been reported at other sites in China (Liu et al., 2011;
295 Ye et al., 2013; Jiang et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2016; Y. Wang et al., 2017) where the
296 κ -PDF patterns always show bi- or tri-modal distributions. Based on previous studies
297 (Liu et al., 2011; Y. Wang et al., 2017), ambient aerosols can be classified into three
298 groups according to their κ_{gf} values:

- 299 — nearly hydrophobic (NH): $\kappa_{gf} < 0.1$
- 300 — less hygroscopic (LH): $0.1 \leq \kappa_{gf} < 0.2$
- 301 — more hygroscopic (MH): $0.2 \leq \kappa_{gf}$

302 Table 1 gives the number fractions of each group for different particle sizes. The MH
303 group dominated all particle sizes. The number fractions of the NH and LH groups
304 were less than 6.0 % each. However, the volume fractions of hydrophobic BC and
305 low-hygroscopic organics (where κ_{BC} is approximately zero and $\kappa_{organic}$ is
306 typically less than 0.1) were ~10.1 % and 47.4 % according to chemical composition
307 measurements (Fig. 3b). This suggests that the particles were highly aged and
308 internally mixed at XT during this campaign. Coating of sulfates and secondary
309 organics during the aging process changes the structure of BC and makes it grow,
310 which can significantly enhance the hygroscopicity of particles (e.g., Zhang et al.,
311 2008; Jimenez et al., 2009; Tritscher et al., 2011; Guo et al., 2016). In addition, the
312 observed unimodal distribution of κ -PDF also suggests the internal mixing state of the
313 particles (Swietlicki et al., 2008).

314 Figure 5 shows the average size-resolved κ_{gf} derived from H-TDMA data at XT
315 and at other sites in China. At XT, κ_{gf} for different particle sizes were larger in the

316 daytime than at night and the difference between daytime and nighttime decreased
317 with increasing particle size. This suggests that the impact of photochemical reactions
318 on aerosol hygroscopicity is strong and that the effect is weaker with increasing
319 particle size because most of the larger particles are always well aged.

320 The magnitude of κ_{gf} was larger at XT than at other sites of China. In particular,
321 the magnitude of κ_{gf} was much larger at XT than at sites in the northern part of the
322 NCP, i.e., Beijing, Wuqing, and Xianghe. The lower κ_{gf} in the urban area of Beijing
323 is likely related to the more severe traffic emissions (Ye et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2016).
324 Wuqing and Xianghe are located in the suburban area between the two megacities of
325 Beijing and Tianjin and are simultaneously affected by traffic and industrial emissions.
326 The magnitude of κ_{gf} at these two sites are higher than at Beijing but lower than at
327 XT. Although XT is located far away from these megacities, it is situated in the
328 industrial center of the NCP, so the higher concentrations of precursors and strong
329 photo chemical reactions make the particles more internally mixed and highly aged.
330 This is why κ_{gf} in XT is larger than at other sites. This suggests that the
331 hygroscopicity of particles from different emissions and chemical processes differ in
332 NCP. In addition, 40 nm particles were always more hygroscopic than 80 nm particles
333 at XT, especially in the daytime, which was also different from other sites. This is
334 likely because the coating effect of sulfates and secondary organics is more significant
335 on smaller particles (Tritscher et al., 2011; Guo et al., 2016). Furthermore, since the
336 field measurements took place in a local with heavy industrial activities, it is possible
337 that amine contributes significantly to the hygroscopicity of 40 nm particles. Several

338 studies have shown that amine compounds in aerosol phase can be hygroscopic,
339 sometimes at even low RH (e.g. Qiu and Zhang, 2012; Chu et al., 2015;
340 Gomez-Hernandez et al., 2016).

341 **4.3. Diurnal variations in aerosol properties**

342 **4.3.1. Diurnal variations in aerosol number and mass concentrations**

343 Figure 6a shows the diurnal variation in MPL-derived PBL height. PBL height
344 can be determined at the altitude where a sudden decrease in the scattering coefficient
345 occurs from the MPL data (Cohn and Angevine, 2000; Brooks, 2003). Note that the
346 retrieved PBL height is only valid from 07:00 local time (LT) to 19:00 LT (Quan et al.,
347 2013). The retrieved PBL height at night is not accurate because of the likely
348 influence of residual aerosols within the nocturnal PBL. The evolution of PBL height
349 from 07:00 LT to 19:00 LT is sufficient to analyze its link with the change in aerosol
350 number and mass concentrations during the daytime. Figure 6b shows diurnal
351 variations in aerosol number and mass concentrations in the 15–685 nm range (N_{15-685}
352 nm and $PM_{15-685\text{ nm}}$, respectively). Variations in the $N_{15-685\text{ nm}}$ and $PM_{15-685\text{ nm}}$ trended
353 oppose each other. From 08:00 LT to 14:00 LT, the PBL height lifted from ~0.5 km to
354 ~0.6 km, while $PM_{15-685\text{ nm}}$ decreased from ~24 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ to ~19 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ although there
355 was a slight increase at the beginning of the period. This suggests the important effect
356 of PBL evolution on $PM_{15-685\text{ nm}}$. However, $N_{15-685\text{ nm}}$ sharply increased from ~7600
357 cm^{-3} at 07:00 LT to ~13000 cm^{-3} at 13:00 LT. This is related to the sudden burst of
358 small Aitken mode particles (< 50 nm) when NPF events occurred. Newly formed fine

359 particles contribute little to $PM_{15-685\text{ nm}}$. In the evening, $PM_{15-685\text{ nm}}$ increased
360 gradually while $N_{15-685\text{ nm}}$ decreased. This is attributed to the declining trend in the
361 nocturnal PBL and particle coagulation and growth. In other words, the evolution of
362 the PBL played a dominant role on the aerosol mass concentration, while particle
363 formation and growth had a greater influence on the variation in aerosol number
364 concentration.

365 **4.3.2. Diurnal variation in aerosol hygroscopicity**

366 Figure 6c shows diurnal variations in κ_{gf} and κ_{chem} . All sized κ_{gf} increased
367 beginning from the NPF event, especially for the 40 nm particles. The increase of κ_{gf}
368 in the morning was synchronous with the particle number concentration ($N_{15-685\text{ nm}}$)
369 but not with the PBL height, further suggesting the impact of photochemical reactions
370 on aerosol hygroscopicity. The κ_{gf} for 40 nm particles increased from ~ 0.32 at 07:00
371 LT to ~ 0.44 at 15:00 LT, and approached the κ of pure ammonium sulfate, also
372 suggesting that a large amount of hygroscopic compounds were produced during NPF
373 events. Fig. S5 in the supplement shows the sharply increased concentrations of SO_2
374 and VOCs in the morning and the enhanced atmospheric oxidation capacity under
375 high RH and low T made plenty of sulfate and SOA produced. This is the reason in
376 the increase of aerosol hygroscopicity and the frequent occurrence of NPF events.
377 Detailed characterization of aerosol chemistry during NPF events in this campaign has
378 been studied in Zhang et al. (2018). The diurnal variation pattern in κ_{gf} for 80–200 nm
379 particles differs from that of 40 nm particles. The differences in κ_{gf} between 80–200

380 nm particles in the early morning were large but gradually decrease as the sun rises.
381 After 11:00 LT, the κ_{gf} for 80–200 nm particles were similar but lower than that of 40
382 nm particles. All these suggests the enhanced hygroscopicity in the 40–200 nm
383 particles was likely caused by the condensation of sulfates and secondary organics
384 (Fig. 6d) and the effect was more significant for 40 nm particles.

385 Figure 6c also shows that the κ_{chem} for PM_{10} was lower than the κ_{gf} for 40–200
386 nm particles and had a weaker diurnal variation. This feature was stronger at noon
387 when atmospheric oxidation and the aging process were more rapid. The difference
388 was mainly induced by the simple ZSR mixing rule. During the daytime, the
389 condensation of sulfuric acid on organics or BC greatly enhances their hygroscopicity
390 (Zhang et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2017). This phenomenon can't be described
391 accurately by the ZSR model. Cruz and Pandis (2000) have shown that the measured
392 κ_{gf} of internally mixed $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ -organic aerosols is larger than the predicted
393 κ_{chem} based on the ZSR model.

394 In summary, the ample supply of effluent SO_2 and VOCs provided sufficient
395 precursors for the strong photochemical reactions at XT during this campaign, and the
396 produce and condensation of sulfate and SOA enhanced aerosol hygroscopicity largely,
397 especially during the daytime. This also suggests that the observed frequent NPF
398 events were mainly induced by the oxidation of precursors.

399 **4.3.3. Diurnal variation in CCN number concentration and activation ratio**

400 Figure 7a shows the diurnal variations in N_{CCN} and AR at different SS. In the

401 morning, N_{CCN} first decreased then increased while AR showed the opposite trend.
402 This is related to the evolution of the PBL and NPF events. At the initial stage of an
403 NPF event, the newly formed particles were less than 15 nm in size, which was below
404 the detection limit of the SMPS. As a result, $N_{15-685\text{ nm}}$ decreased (Fig. 6b) as the PBL
405 lifts and N_{CCN} also decreased. However, the mixing of aged particles within the PBL
406 made the particle size (Fig. 7b) and AR increase slightly. With condensation and the
407 growth of new particles, the number of fine particles detected by the SMPS increased
408 rapidly but a portion of them cannot be activated because their smaller size. Therefore,
409 N_{CCN} increased but AR decreased from 08:00 LT to 14:00 LT. In the afternoon and
410 evening, N_{CCN} and AR increased slightly with the increase in particle size (Fig. 7b).
411 However, these trends became weaker as SS decreased, this is because the critical
412 diameter is larger at low SS and the influence of aerosol size distribution on N_{CCN} and
413 AR is relatively weaker. This demonstrates that the particle size was the most
414 important factor influencing the aerosol activation ability and the CCN number
415 concentration, especially at larger SS levels. The sensitivity test of particle size in
416 CCN closure study similar with that in Dusek et al. (2006) was shown in Fig. S6.

417 **4.4. CCN estimation from chemical composition data**

418 The three main factors influencing CCN activation are particle size, mixing state,
419 and chemical composition. As discussed in the above sections, particles were highly
420 internally mixed at XT and particle size had a great influence on N_{CCN} . In this section,
421 a CCN closure study is conducted and the impact of chemical composition on N_{CCN} is

422 discussed. Figure 8a shows estimated N_{CCN} as a function of measured N_{CCN} using
423 real-time κ_{chem} . The estimated N_{CCN} correlates well with measurements ($R^2 \geq 0.85$)
424 but is generally overestimated. The slope of each linearly fitted line is greater than
425 1.10 and increases with increasing SS. In addition, the relative deviation (RD)
426 increases from 16.2 % to 25.2 % as SS increases from 0.13 % to 0.75 %, suggesting
427 that estimates become worse at larger SS. The overestimation of N_{CCN} is mainly
428 caused by large measurement uncertainties of CCNC: (1) the temperature or high flow
429 rates in the CCNC may not allow enough time for particles to reach sizes large
430 enough to be counted by the OPC at the exit of the CCN chamber (Lance et al., 2006;
431 Cubison et al., 2008) and (2) in high particle number concentration environments,
432 water depletion in the CCNC may reduce the counting rate of the CCNC (Deng et al.,
433 2011). These uncertainties make measured N_{CCN} lower than the actual N_{CCN} . At larger
434 SS, those activated aerosols in the cloud chamber of CCNC are greater in number and
435 smaller in size, so the impact of these uncertainties is greater. The separated N_{CCN}
436 closure study is shown in Fig. S7. Figure S7 suggests the CCN closure is very good
437 when $N_{CCN} < 5500 \text{ cm}^{-3}$, reflecting the validation of the CCN closure method in this
438 study.

439 Figure 8b shows estimated N_{CCN} using the mean value for κ_{chem} ($\kappa_{chem} = 0.31$).
440 Compared with results using real-time values for κ_{chem} , the fit parameters and RD
441 change slightly, suggesting that the effect of chemical composition on N_{CCN} is weaker
442 relative to the particle size. The sensitivity of estimated N_{CCN} to the variability in
443 chemical composition (κ_{chem}) is further investigated (Fig. 9). In this figure, the

444 variability of the equipotential lines in RD suggests that the sensitivity of N_{CCN} is
445 strongly time dependent. This is attributed to the variability of the shape of the aerosol
446 size distribution (Juranyi et al., 2010), further verifying the importance of particle size
447 to N_{CCN} . The sensitivity of N_{CCN} to chemical composition (κ_{chem}) becomes weaker
448 with increasing SS, suggesting that chemical composition becomes less important in
449 N_{CCN} estimates at larger SS. In addition, the RD is always less than 10 % when
450 estimating N_{CCN} using the mean value of κ_{chem} , suggesting that $\kappa = 0.31$ is a good
451 proxy for chemical composition when estimating N_{CCN} at XT.

452 In summary, particle size is the most important factor influencing the aerosol
453 activation ability at XT, especially at larger SS levels. The mixing state and chemical
454 composition were not as important when estimating N_{CCN} because the particles were
455 highly aged and internally mixed at XT, and aerosol hygroscopicity was not sensitive
456 to estimates of N_{CCN} .

457 **5. Summary and conclusions**

458 The Atmosphere-Aerosol-Boundary Layer-Cloud (A²BC) Interaction Joint
459 Experiment was carried out at a suburban site located in the central North China Plain
460 (NCP) from 1 May to 15 June of 2016. The aerosol hygroscopicity, mixing state and
461 CCN activity at the site Xingtai (XT) were investigated in this study.

462 In general, the probability density function of the hygroscopicity parameter
463 (κ -PDF) for 40–200 nm particles was a unimodal distribution, which is different from
464 distributions at other sites in China. Particles of all sizes covered a large range of κ_{gf}

465 (mostly from 0 to 0.8) and showed similar κ -PDF patterns, suggesting that the
466 hygroscopic compounds in these particles from 40 nm to 200 nm were similar at XT.
467 The κ -PDF patterns also suggests that the particles were highly aged and internally
468 mixed at XT during the this campaign. This is likely related to strong photochemical
469 reactions.

470 The mean κ_{gf} for different particle sizes were larger in the daytime than at night.
471 Daytime and nighttime κ_{gf} differences decreased with increasing particle size. This
472 illustrates that the impact of photochemical reactions on aerosol hygroscopicity was
473 strong and that the effect became weaker as particle sizes increases. The enhanced
474 hygroscopicity of 40–200 nm particles was likely caused by the coating of sulfates or
475 secondary organics and the effect was more significant for 40 nm particles. Compared
476 with other sites in China, the aerosol hygroscopicity was much larger at XT because
477 of the sufficient precursors and strong atmospheric oxidation capacity. The
478 comparison also shows that the hygroscopicity of particles from different emissions
479 and chemical processes differed largely.

480 New particle formation events occurred frequently at XT during this campaign.
481 The evolution of the planetary boundary layer (PBL) played a dominant role on the
482 aerosol mass concentration, while particle formation and growth had a greater
483 influence on the variation in the aerosol number concentration. Particle size was the
484 most important factor influencing the aerosol activation ability and the CCN number
485 concentration at XT during the field experiment, especially at larger supersaturations
486 (SS). Although the estimated N_{CCN} correlates well with measurements ($R^2 \geq 0.85$),

487 N_{CCN} is overestimated because of measurement uncertainties. The effect of chemical
488 composition on N_{CCN} is weaker relative to the particle size. Sensitivity tests show that
489 the impact of chemical composition on N_{CCN} becomes weaker as SS increases,
490 suggesting that the effect of chemical composition on N_{CCN} estimates is less important
491 at larger SS. The value $\kappa = 0.31$ is a good proxy for chemical composition when
492 estimating N_{CCN} for the model at XT.

493 Our results show that aerosol properties in the middle of the NCP differ from
494 those in the northern part of the NCP and other regions in China. This is because there
495 are more industrial emissions in the central NCP. The plentitude of gas precursors and
496 strong photochemical reactions at XT make aerosol properties there different from
497 those at sites under other polluted conditions. More field measurements on
498 gas-particle transformation and aerosol properties in this region are needed, which
499 would be meaningful for studying the haze formation mechanism and climate change
500 in the NCP.

501
502 *Data availability.* The data used in the study are available from the first author upon
503 request (wang.yuying@mail.bnu.edu.cn).

504
505 *Competing interests.* The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

506
507 *Author contribution.* Z.L. and Y.W. designed the experiment, Y.W., Y.Z., and W.D.
508 carried it out and analyzed the data, other co-authors participated in science discussions
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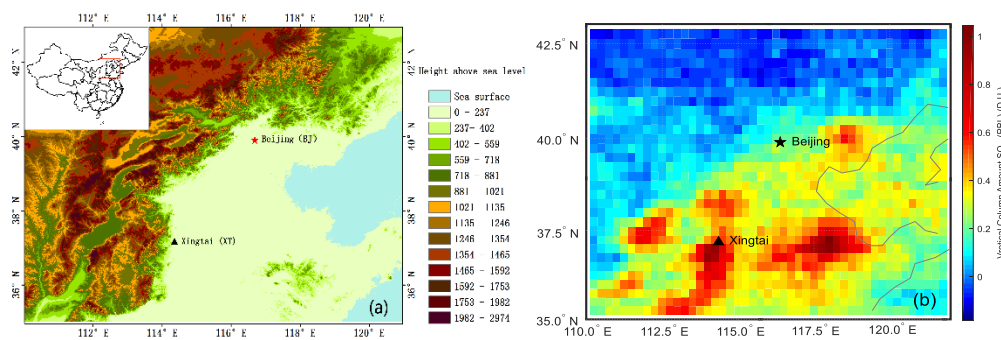
727 **Table 1.** The number fractions of different hygroscopic groups for different particle
728 sizes.

	40 nm	80 nm	110 nm	150 nm	200 nm
NH	5.1 %	5.0 %	5.1 %	5.0 %	5.7 %
LH	4.8 %	4.2 %	4.3 %	4.7 %	5.1 %
MH	90.1 %	90.8 %	90.6 %	90.3 %	89.2 %

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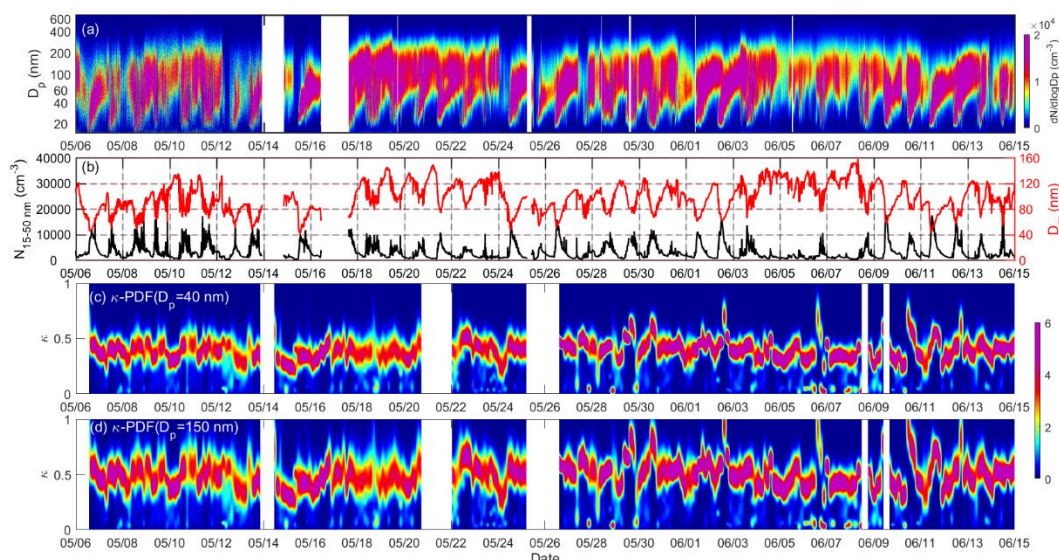
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733 **Figure 1.** (a) Map showing the location of the sampling site and (b) the distribution of
 734 mean SO₂ concentrations of May from 2012 to 2016.

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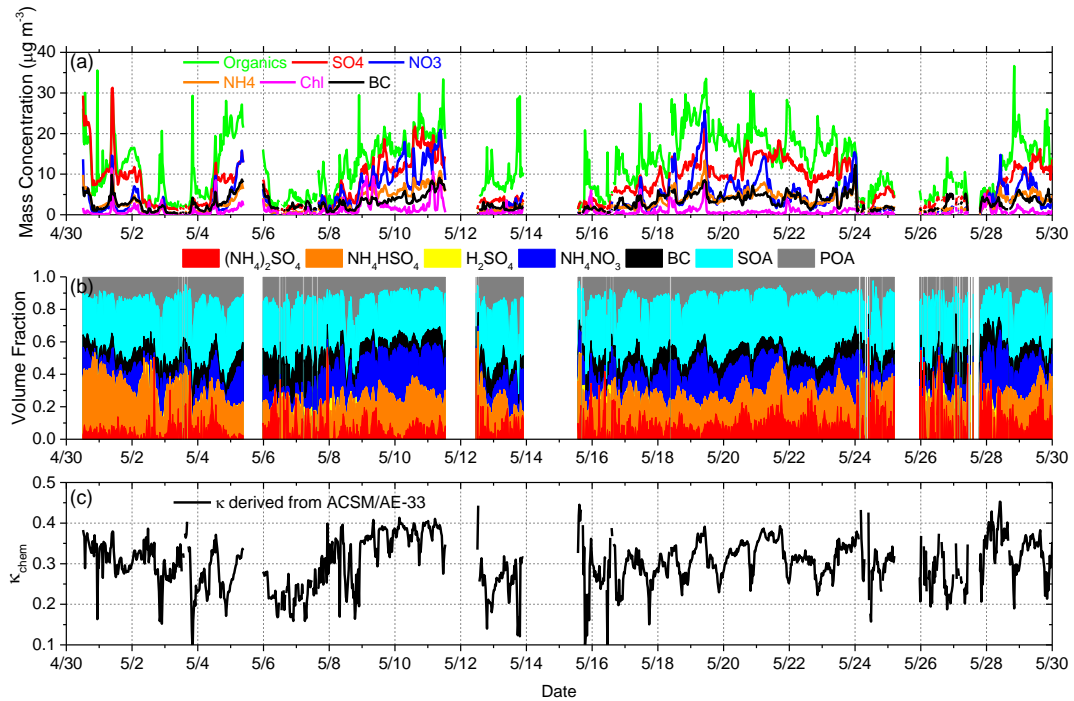


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737 **Figure 2.** The time series of (a) particle number size distribution (PNSD), (b) aerosol
 738 number concentration in the 15–50 nm range ($N_{15-50 \text{ nm}}$) and the geometric mean
 739 diameter (D_m), (c) the probability density function of κ_{gf} (κ -PDF) for 40 nm and (d)
 740 150 nm particles from 6 May to 15 June of 2016.

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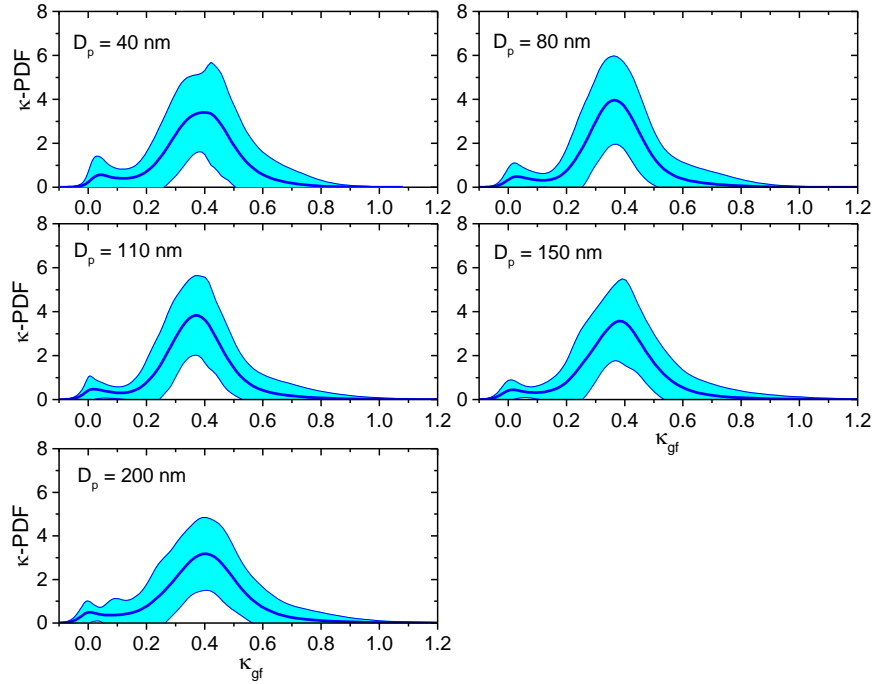
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744 **Figure 3.** Time series of (a) the bulk mass concentration of aerosol species in PM_{10} , (b)
 745 the volume fractions of POA, SOA, BC, and inorganics with the simplified ion
 746 pairing scheme, and (c) the hygroscopicity parameter derived from the chemical
 747 compositions (κ_{chem}).

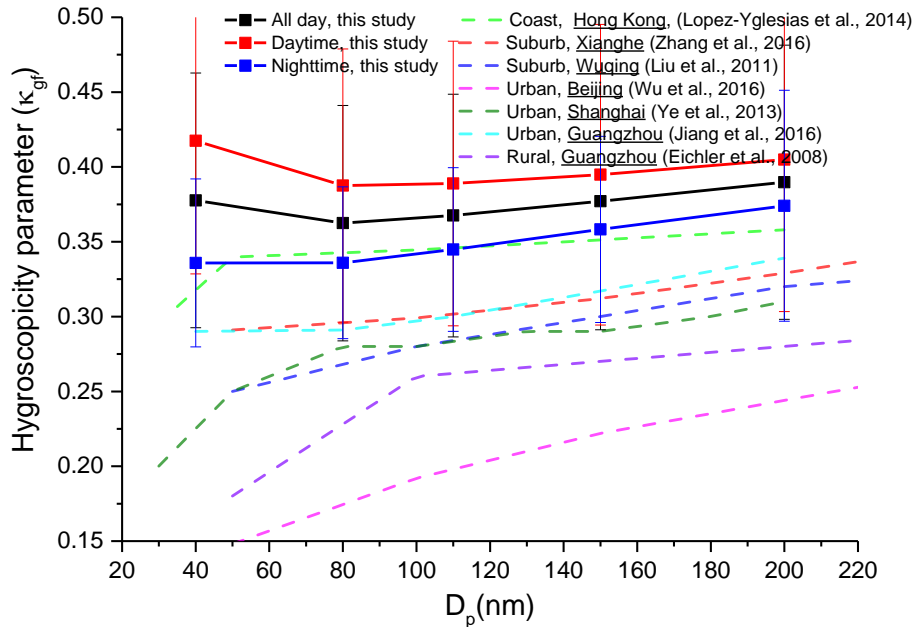
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750 **Figure 4.** Mean probability density functions of κ_{gf} (κ -PDF) for different particle
 751 sizes and their standard deviations (shaded areas) derived from H-TDMA data and
 752 measured at RH = 85 %.

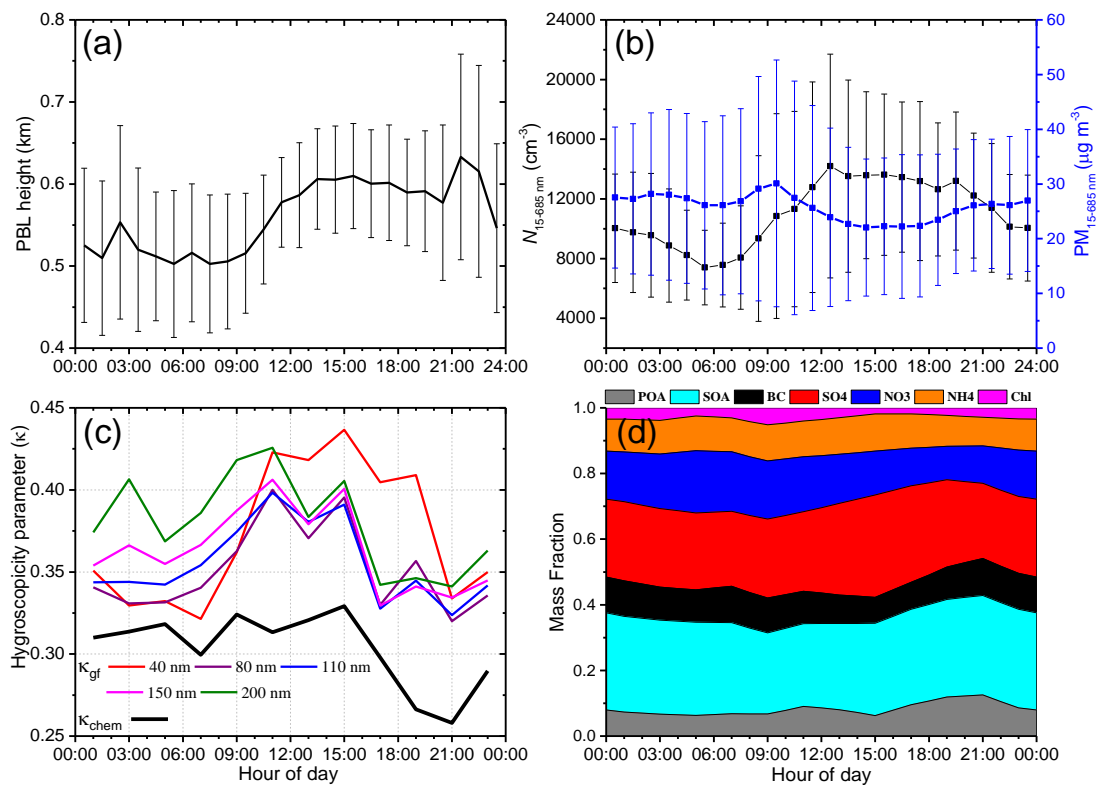
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755 **Figure 5.** Size-resolved aerosol hygroscopicity parameter (κ_{gf}) derived from
 756 H-TDMA data at XT and at other sites in China.

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759 **Figure 6.** Diurnal variations in (a) planetary boundary layer (PBL) height retrieved

760 from the MPL, (b) aerosol number and mass concentrations in the 15–685 nm range

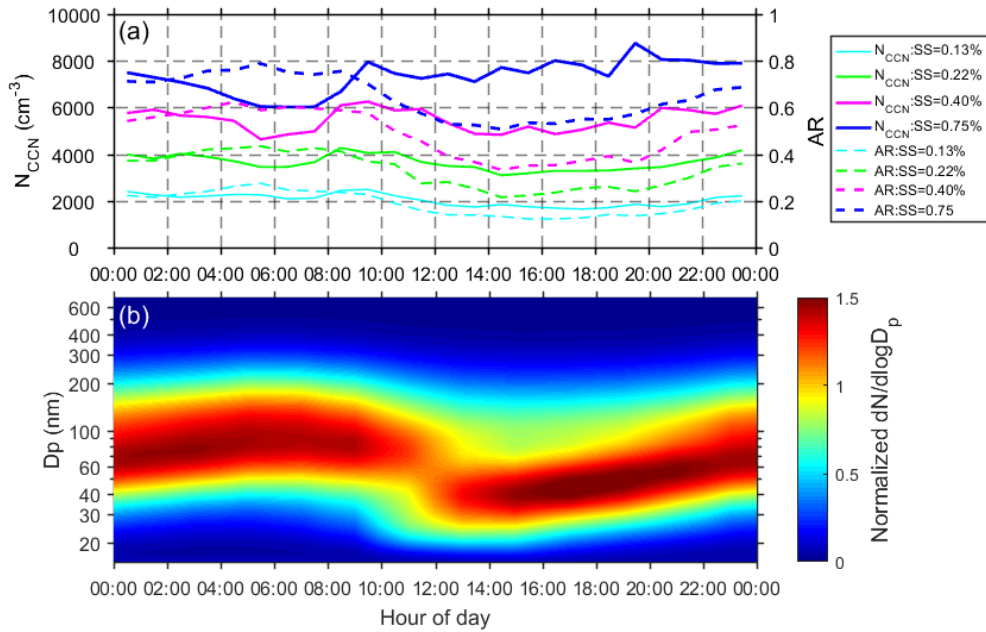
761 ($N_{15-685 \text{ nm}}$ and $\text{PM}_{15-685 \text{ nm}}$, respectively) derived from the SMPS (an aerosol density

762 of 1.6 g cm^{-3} is assumed), (c) the hygroscopicity parameter derived from the

763 hygroscopic growth factor (κ_{gf}) and predicted from the bulk chemical composition

764 (κ_{chem}), and (d) the mass fractions of different species.

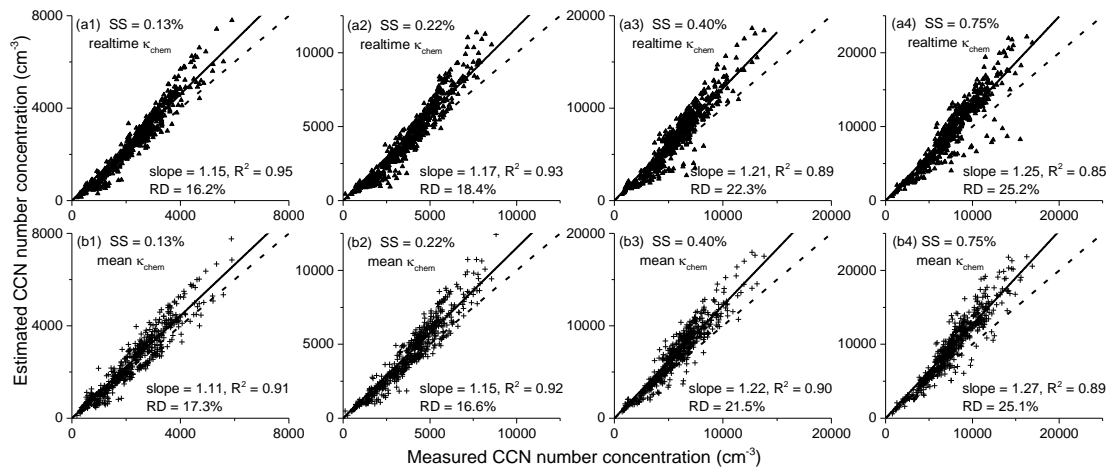
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767 **Figure 7.** Diurnal variations in (a) CCN number concentration (N_{CCN}) and activation
 768 ratio (AR), and (b) the normalized aerosol size distribution in the 15–685 nm particle
 769 size range.

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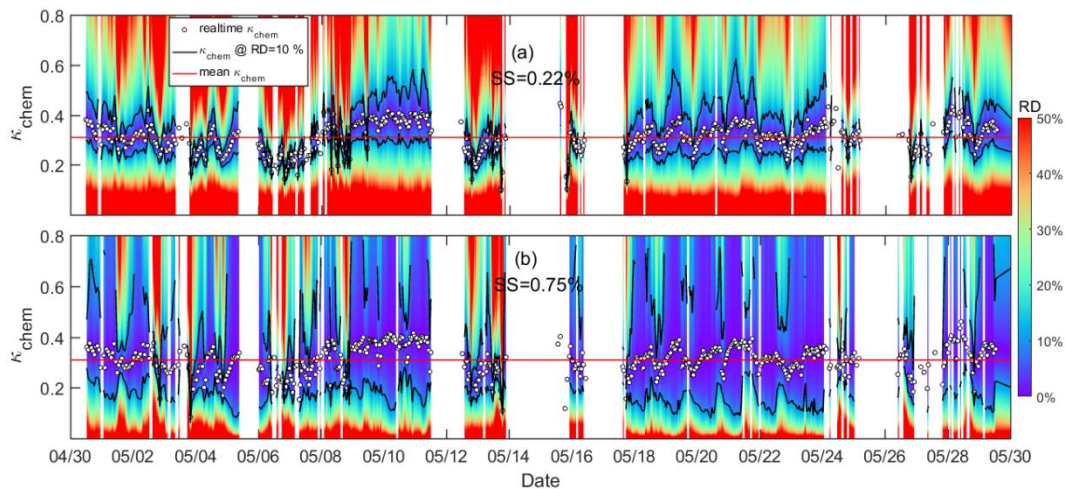


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773 **Figure 8.** Estimated versus measured CCN number concentration for ambient
 774 aerosols at four different supersaturation levels. The N_{CCN} is estimated based on
 775 κ -Köhler theory, using the real-time κ_{chem} (a1-a4) and the mean κ_{chem} (b1-b4).
 776 The slope and correlation coefficient (R^2) of the linear regression, and the relative

777 deviation of estimated N_{CCN} ($RD = |N_{CCN_estimated} - N_{CCN_measured}| / N_{CCN_measured}$) are
 778 shown in each panel. The regression line is overlaid on the measurements (solid line)
 779 and the dashed line is the 1:1 line.
 780
 781



782
 783 **Figure 9.** Sensitivity of N_{CCN} estimates to κ_{chem} as a function of time at (a) $SS =$
 784 0.22% and (b) $SS = 0.75\%$. The color scale indicates the relative deviation (RD) of
 785 the CCN estimates using the κ_{chem} value shown on the ordinate. In each panel, open
 786 circles show the real-time κ_{chem} . Note that RD is by definition zero at these points.
 787 The black line is κ at $RD = 10\%$ and the red line is the mean value for κ_{chem} (0.31).
 788 Figure S8 in the supplement shows the same plots but for $SS = 0.13\%$ and 0.40% .
 789