



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

Measurement results also showed that new particle formation events occurred 35 frequently at XT, one of the most polluted city in China. The evolution of the 36 37 planetary boundary layer played a dominant role in aerosol mass concentration changes while particle formation and growth had a greater influence on the variation 38 in aerosol number concentrations. Particle size was the most important factor 39 influencing the ability of aerosols to activate, especially at higher levels of 40 supersaturation (SS). The cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) number concentration 41 $(N_{\rm CCN})$ derived from chemical composition was highly correlated with the measured 42 $N_{\rm CCN}$ (R² \ge 0.85), but was generally overestimated due to measurement uncertainties. 43





44 The effect of chemical composition on $N_{\rm CCN}$ was weaker relative to the particle size. 45 $N_{\rm CCN}$ sensitivity tests showed that the impact of chemical composition on $N_{\rm CCN}$ 46 became weaker with increasing SS, suggesting that chemical composition played a 47 less role in $N_{\rm CCN}$ 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 $N_{\rm CCN}$ on models.

50 1. Introduction

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

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





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

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

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





Liu et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2014; F. Zhang et al., 2016; S.L. Zhang et al., 2016; Wu 87 88 et al., 2016; Y. Wang et al., 2017). Liu et al. (2011) and Y. Wang et al. (2017) have suggested that ambient particles are mostly an external mixture with different 89 hygroscopicities. Deng et al. (2011) has shown that the aerosol number size 90 91 distribution is critical in the prediction of $N_{\rm CCN}$ while Zhang et al. (2014) have highlighted the importance of chemical composition in determining particle activation 92 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 emissions where a dense cluster of China's heavy industries exist (Fu et al., 2014). 96 Measurement of aerosol properties in the central part of the NCP are critically needed 97 to investigate the impact of air pollution on the environment and climate changes. 98

99 Xingtai (XT), a city located in the middle of the NCP, often ranks in the top of 100 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 (A²BC) 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

The A²BC was carried out at the national weather station located in XT (37.18°N, 113 114.36° E) from 1 May to 15 June of 2016. This site is situated in southern Heibei 114 115 Province, located in the central part of the NCP and to the east of Taihang Mountains (Fig. 1a). This region is heavily populated, urbanized, and industrialized. The major 116 industrial manufacturers include coal-based power plants, steel and iron works, 117 glassworks, and cement mills. The weak diffusion conditions and heavy industrial 118 119 emissions lead to exceptionally high concentrations of particulate matter (PM) with diameter less than 10 µm (PM₁₀) and 2.5 µm (PM_{2.5}), as well as gas pollutants such as 120 sulfur dioxide (SO₂), and nitrogen oxides (NO_x) during the frequent occurring haze 121 episodes in this region (Wang et al., 2014; Fu et al., 2014). Figure 1b shows the mean 122 123 distribution of SO₂ concentrations from May of 2012 to 2016, confirming that the measurement site is located in the pollution center of this region. 124

Time series of meteorological variables measured at the weather station are shown in Fig. S1. This site is heavily affected by the mountain-valley wind, showing a prevailing southeasterly wind during the day and a northwesterly wind at night (Fig. S1 and Fig. S2). There was almost no precipitation during the study period. The ambient temperature (*T*) and relative humidity (RH) time series show opposing trends.





130 Campaign-mean values of T and RH are 21.9 °C and 51.6 %, respectively.

131 2.2. Instrumentation and operation

132 2.2.1. Aerosol hygroscopicity measurements

133 The hygroscopicity tandem differential mobility analyzer (H-TDMA) used in this study has been described in detail by others (Tan et al., 2013; Y. Wang et al., 2017). 134 135 Briefly, ambient aerosols are first dried and neutralized by a Nafion dryer and a soft X-ray charger. A differential mobility analyzer (DMA₁, model 3081L, TSI Inc.) is 136 used to select monodispersed particles of a certain diameter (D_{p0}) . The monodisperses 137 particles are then passed through a Nafion humidifier with a controlled higher RH and 138 are humidified. A second DMA (DMA2, same model as the DMA1) and a water-based 139 140 condensation particle counter (WCPC, model 3787, TSI Inc.) are used to measure the number size distribution of the humidified particles. The DMA₁ and WCPC can also 141 be connected directly to measure the 10-400 nm particle number size distribution 142 (PNSD). In this study, the dry diameters selected by the DMA₁ are 40, 80, 110, 150, 143 and 200 nm. The humidified RH is set to 85 %. 144

145 The hygroscopic growth factor (GF) is defined as the ratio of the humidified146 diameter at a given RH to the dry diameter:

147
$$GF = \frac{D_p(RH)}{D_{po}},$$
 (1)

where $D_p(RH)$ is the particle diameter at the given RH and D_{p0} is the dry diameter selected by the DMA₁. The measured distribution function versus GF (GF-MDF) can be calculated with WCPC data downstream from the DMA₁ and DMA₂. The GF





151 probability density function is then retrieved using the TDMAFIT algorithm

152 (Stolzenburg and McMurry, 1988, 2008).

153 2.2.2. Aerosol chemical composition measurements

The Aerosol Chemical Speciation Monitor (ACSM) was deployed to measure the 154 non-refractory submicron aerosol (NR-PM1) species (sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, 155 chloride, and organics) in real-time. A PM2.5 URG cyclone (model URG-2000-30ED) 156 was installed in the front of the sampling inlet to remove coarse particles (> 2.5 μ m in 157 diameter). Before sampling into the ACSM, aerosol particles were dried (below 40 % 158 RH) by a silica gel diffusion dryer. In addition, the ACSM was calibrated routinely 159 with pure ammonium nitrate to determine its ionization efficiency. More detailed 160 161 descriptions about the ACSM are given by Ng et al., (2011) and Sun et al., (2012). A positive matrix factor analysis is used to analyze the organic spectral matrices 162 according to Ulbrich et al., (2009). Three factors, i.e., hydrocarbon-like OA (HOA), 163 cooking OA (COA), and oxygenated OA (OOA), are chosen as the ACSM dataset. 164 165 HOA and COA are both anthropogenic primary organic aerosols (POA) while OOA is the secondary organic aerosol (SOA). 166

167 The ACSM does not detect refractory material such as BC, so a seven-wavelength 168 aethalometer (AE-33, Magee Scientific Corp.) was used to measure the BC mass 169 concentration of BC particles with diameters $< 1.0 \ \mu m$ (BC PM₁). Mineral dust and 170 sea salt are the other refractory species, but they typically exist in the coarse mode and 171 make negligible contributions to PM₁ (Juranyi et al., 2010; Meng et al., 2014).





172 2.2.3. Aerosol size distribution and CCN measurements

The aerosol particle number size distribution (15-685 nm) was measured by a 173 scanning mobility particle sizer (SMPS) that was equipped with a long DMA (model 174 3081L, TSI Inc.) and a condensation particle counter (CPC, model 3775, TSI Inc.). A 175 single-column continuous-flow stream-wise thermal-gradient cloud condensation 176 nuclei counter (CCNC-100, DMT Inc.) was applied to measure the bulk CCN number 177 concentration. Five SS levels, i.e., 0.07, 0.1, 0.2, 0.4, and 0.8 %, were set in the 178 CCNC and the running time was 10 min for each SS level. The SS in the CCNC are 179 calibrated with pure ammonium sulfate (Rose et al., 2008) before and after the 180 measurement campaign. The corrected SS levels are 0.11, 0.13, 0.22, 0.40, and 0.75 %, 181 respectively. 182

183 The aerosol activation ratio (AR) at a certain SS is calculated as N_{CCN} divided by the total particle number concentration in the 15–685 nm range ($N_{15-685 \text{ nm}}$), i.e., AR = 184 $N_{\rm CCN}/N_{15-685 nm}$. The particle number concentration below 15 nm is not measured by 185 186 the SMPS, but this does not affect the calculated $N_{\rm CCN}$ because the activation critical diameter is always larger than 15 nm at these SS levels (Zhang et al., 2014). Aerosol 187 particles with diameters larger than 685 nm are also not detected by the SMPS. These 188 larger particles will always act as CCN due to their larger dry sizes. However, the 189 190 number concentration above 685 nm in the atmosphere is always negligible (Juranyi 191 et al., 2010).





192 **2.2.4. Other measurements**

193	In this study, a micro-pulse lidar (MPL-4B, Sigmaspace Corp.) was used to study
194	the evolution of the planetary boundary layer (PBL). The pulse repetition rate of the
195	MPL was 2.5 kHz at a visible wavelength of 532 nm. The peak value of the optical
196	energy of the laser beam was 8 $\mu J.$ The pulse duration ranged from 10 to 100 ns, and
197	the pulse interval was set to 200 ns, corresponding to a spatial resolution of 30 m. The
198	MPL-retrieved PBL height is the altitude where a sudden decrease in the scattering
199	coefficient occurs (Brooks, 2003; Quan et al., 2013).
200	Trace gas analyzers were used to measure the gaseous species of ozone (O_3) and
201	SO_2 . SO_2 was measured using an SO_2 analyzer with a fluorescence cell (Ecotech

202 model 9850A) and O₃ was measured using an O₃ analyzer (Ecotech model 9810B)

with ultraviolet absorption technology. More detailed descriptions about the trace gasanalyzers are given by Zhu et al., (2016).

205 3. Theory

206 **3.1. Hygroscopicity parameter**

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





212
$$S(D) = \frac{D^3 - D_d^3}{p^3 - D_d^3(1-\kappa)} \exp\left(\frac{4\sigma_{5/a}M_w}{RT\rho_w D}\right)$$
, (2)213where D and D_d are the wet and dry droplet diameters, respectively, $\sigma_{s/a}$ is the214surface tension coefficient, M_w is the mole mass of water, R is the universal gas215constant, T is the temperature, and ρ_w is the density of water.216Below the water vapor saturation, $S(D)$ is RH, D is $D_p(RH)$, and D_d is D_{p0} 217in Eq. (1). The κ parameter is then calculated using H-TDMA data according to Eq. (1)218and Eq. (2):219 $\kappa_{gf} = (GF^3 - 1) \cdot \left[\frac{1}{RH} \exp\left(\frac{4\sigma_{s/a}M_w}{RT\rho_w D_d GF}\right) - 1\right]$. (3)220For a multicomponent particle, the Zdanovskii–Stokes–Robinson (ZSR) mixing221rule (Stokes and Robinson, 1966) can also estimate κ using chemical composition222data:223 $\kappa_{chem} = \sum_i \varepsilon_i \kappa_i$, (4)224where ε_i and κ_i are the volume fraction and hygroscopicity parameter for the *i*th225chemical component. The ACSM provides the mass concentrations of inorganic ions226and organics. A simplified ion-pairing scheme such as that described by Gysel et al.,227(2007) was applied to convert ion mass concentrations to mass concentrations of their228corresponding inorganic salts (see Table S1 in the supplement). Table S1 also lists κ 229and the gravimetric density of each individual component. In the following230discussions, κ_{gf} and κ_{chem} denote the hygroscopicity parameters derived from231H-TDMA measurements and estimated using the ZSR mixing rule, respectively.





232 **3.2.** CCN estimation

233 The critical supersaturation (s_c , $s_c = S_c$ -1) for a dry diameter (D_d) of a particle with hygroscopicity κ is calculated from the maximum of the κ -Köhler curve (Eq. 1) 234 (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007). The s_c - D_d relationship is then established. According 235 236 to this relationship, the critical diameter $(D_{0,crit})$ can be calculated using the estimated $\kappa_{\rm chem}$ (Eq. 4) at the SS set in the CCNC. All particles larger than $D_{0,\rm crit}$ will activate 237 as CCN, assuming that aerosols are internally mixed. Then the CCN number 238 concentration can be estimated from the integral of the aerosol size distribution 239 240 provided by the SMPS from $D_{0,crit}$ to the largest measured size.

241 4. Results and discussion

242 **4.1. Overview**

Figures 2 and 3 show the time series of the main aerosol properties during the 243 field experiment. The PNSD changes dramatically (Fig. 2a) and the aerosol number 244 245 concentration in the 15–50 nm range ($N_{15-50 \text{ nm}}$) increases sharply in the morning almost every day (Fig. 2b). The time series of the mean diameter (D_p) of particles also 246 shows that a growth process occurs after the sharp increase in $N_{15-50 \text{ nm}}$. All these 247 phenomena suggest that new particle formation (NPF) events occurred frequently at 248 XT during the field experiment (Kulmala et al., 2012; Y. Li et al., 2017). This is likely 249 related to the high concentration of gas precursors mainly from local emissions. High 250 emissions of SO₂ and volatile organic compounds associated with the high oxidation 251





252 capacity in a polluted atmosphere make NPF events occur more frequently in north

253 China (Z. Wang et al., 2017).

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

260 The bulk mass concentrations of organics, sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, and chloride measured by the ACSM are shown in Fig. 3a, along with the BC mass 261 concentration measured with the AE-33. Organics and sulfate are the dominant 262 chemical species with mass fractions in PM_1 of 39.1 % and 24.7 %, respectively. 263 264 Figure 3b-c shows the volume fractions of paired chemical compositions and the hygroscopicity parameter derived from κ_{chem} , respectively. The average volume 265 fraction of inorganics ((NH₄)₂SO₄+NH₄HSO₄+H₂SO₄+NH₄NO₄) is similar to that of 266 267 organics (POA+SOA), but their volume fractions change diurnally. The volume fraction of inorganics increases during daytime while the volume fraction of organics 268 decreases. In addition, SOA is the dominant contributor to OA, accounting for ~69 % 269 of the organics volume. This shows that photochemical reactions were strong at XT 270 during the field experiment (Huang et al., 2014). The mean κ_{chem} in Fig. 3c is 0.31 271 with values ranging from 0.20 to 0.40. The trend in κ_{chem} is similar to that of the 272 273 volume fraction of inorganics, suggesting that inorganics played a key role when it





274 comes to κ_{chem} (Wu et al., 2016).

275 4.2. Aerosol mixing state and hygroscopicity

The average probability density functions of κ_{gf} (κ -PDF) for different particle 276 sizes derived from H-TDMA data are shown in Fig. 4. For all particle sizes considered, 277 $\kappa_{\rm gf}$ ranges from 0 to 0.8 and the κ -PDF patterns are similar, suggesting that the 278 hygroscopic compounds in different particle size mode were similar at XT during the 279 field experiment. In general, κ -PDF patterns show only one hydrophilic mode with 280 weak hydrophobic modes occasionally appearing at night when photochemical 281 reactions are weak (Fig. S3). This is different from what has been reported at other 282 sites in China (Liu et al., 2011; Ye et al., 2013; Jiang et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2016; 283 284 Y. Wang et al., 2017) where the κ -PDF patterns always show bi- or tri-modal distributions. Based on previous studies (Liu et al., 2011; Y. Wang et al., 2017), 285 ambient aerosols can be classified into three groups according to their κ_{gf} values: 286

- 287 nearly hydrophobic (NH): $\kappa_{gf} < 0.1$
- 288 less hygroscopic (LH): $0.1 \le \kappa_{gf} < 0.2$
- 289 more hygroscopic (MH): $0.2 \le \kappa_{gf}$

Table 1 gives the number fractions of each group for different particle sizes. The MH group dominates all particle sizes. The number fractions of the NH and LH groups are less than 6.0 % each. However, the volume fractions of hydrophobic BC and low-hygroscopic organics (where κ_{BC} is approximately zero and $\kappa_{organic}$ is typically less than 0.1) are ~10.1 % and 47.4 % according to chemical composition





295 measurements (Fig. 3b). This suggests that the particles were highly aged and 296 internally mixed at XT during the field experiment. Coating of sulfates and secondary 297 organics during the aging process changes the structure of BC and makes it grow, 298 which can significantly enhance the hygroscopicity of particles (e.g., Zhang et al., 299 2008; Jimenez et al., 2009; Tritscher et al., 2011; Guo et al., 2016). In addition, the 300 observed unimodal distribution of κ -PDF also suggests the highly internally mixed 301 state of the particles (Swietlicki et al., 2008).

Figure 5 shows the average size-resolved κ_{gf} derived from H-TDMA data at XT and at other sites in China. At XT, κ_{gf} for different particle sizes are larger in the daytime than at night and the difference between daytime and nighttime decreases with increasing particle size. This suggests that the impact of photochemical reactions on aerosol hygroscopicity was strong and that the effect was weaker with increasing particle size.

308 The magnitude of κ_{gf} is larger at XT than at other sites of China. In particular, the magnitude of κ_{gf} is much larger at XT than at sites in the northern part of the 309 310 NCP, i.e., Beijing, Wuqing, and Xianghe. The lower κ_{gf} in the urban area of Beijing is likely related to the more severe traffic emissions (Ye et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2016). 311 Wuqing and Xianghe are located in the suburban area between the two megacities of 312 Beijing and Tianjin and are simultaneously affected by traffic and industrial emissions. 313 314 The magnitude of κ_{gf} at these two sites are higher than at Beijing but lower than at XT. Although XT is located far away from these megacities, it is situated in the 315 industrial center of the NCP, so the higher concentrations of precursors and strong 316





317	photo chemical reactions make the particles more internally mixed and highly aged.
318	This is why $\kappa_{\rm gf}$ in XT is larger than at other sites. This suggests that the
319	hygroscopicity of particles from different emissions and chemical processes differ in
320	NCP. In addition, 40 nm particles are always more hygroscopic than 80 nm particles
321	at XT, especially in the daytime, which is also different from other sites. This is likely
322	because the coating effect of sulfates and secondary organics is more significant on
323	smaller particles (Tritscher et al., 2011; Guo et al., 2016). Furthermore, since the field
324	measurements took place in a local with heavy industrial activities, it is possible that
325	amine contributes significantly to the hygroscopicity of 40 nm particles. Several
326	studies have shown that amine compounds in aerosol phase can be hygroscopic,
327	sometimes at even low RH (e.g. Qiu and Zhang, 2012; Chu et al., 2015;
328	Gomez-Hernandez et al., 2016).

329 4.3. Diurnal variations in aerosol properties

330 4.3.1. Diurnal variations in aerosol number and mass concentrations

Figure 6a shows the diurnal variation in MPL-derived PBL height. PBL height can be determined at the altitude where a sudden decrease in the scattering coefficient occurs from the MPL data (Cohn and Angevine, 2000; Brooks, 2003). Note that the retrieved PBL height is only valid from 07:00 local time (LT) to 19:00 LT (Quan et al., 2013). The retrieved PBL height at night is not accurate because of the likely influence of residual aerosols within the nocturnal PBL. The evolution of PBL height from 07:00 LT to 19:00 LT is sufficient to analyze its link with the change in aerosol





338	number and mass concentrations during the daytime. Figure 6b shows diurnal					
339	variations in aerosol number and mass concentrations in the 15–685 nm range (N_{15-685}					
340	$_{\rm nm}$ and PM15–685 $_{\rm nm}$, respectively). Variations in the $\mathit{N}_{\rm 15-685\ nm}$ and PM15–685 $_{\rm nm}$ trends					
341	oppose each other. From 08:00 LT to 14:00 LT, the PBL height lifts from \sim 0.5 km to					
342	~0.6 km, while $PM_{15-685nm}$ decreases from ~24 μg m $^{-3}$ to ~19 μg m $^{-3}$ although there is					
343	a slight increase at the beginning of the period. This suggests the important effect of					
344	PBL evolution on PM _{15-685 nm} . However, $N_{15-685 nm}$ sharply increases from ~7600 cm ⁻³					
345	at 07:00 LT to ~13000 \mbox{cm}^{-3} at 13:00 LT. This is related to the sudden burst of					
346	nucleation mode particles (< 100 nm) when NPF events occurred. Newly formed fine					
347	particles contribute little to $PM_{15-685\ nm}.$ In the evening, $PM_{15-685\ nm}$ increases					
348	gradually while $N_{15-685 \text{ nm}}$ decreases. This is attributed to the declining trend in the					
349	nocturnal PBL and particle coagulation and growth. In other words, the evolution of					
350	the PBL plays a dominant role on the aerosol mass concentration, while particle					
351	formation and growth has a greater influence on the variation in aerosol number					
352	concentration.					

353 4.3.2. Diurnal variation in aerosol hygroscopicity

Figure 6c shows diurnal variations in κ_{gf} and κ_{chem} . All sized κ_{gf} increases beginning from the NPF event, especially for the 40 nm particles. The increase of κ_{gf} in the morning was synchronous with the particle number concentration ($N_{15-685 nm}$) but not with the PBL height, further suggesting the impact of photochemical reactions on aerosol hygroscopicity. The κ_{gf} for 40 nm particles increases from ~0.32 at 07:00





359	LT to ~0.44 at 15:00 LT, and approaches the κ of pure ammonium sulfate
360	$[\kappa_{gf,(NH_4)_2SO_4} = 0.48$ (Wu et al., 2016)]. This suggests that a large amount of sulfates
361	were produced through the photochemical reactions of precursors. This can be verified
362	from the diurnal variation in chemical composition (Fig. 6d), which shows that the
363	mass fraction of sulfate increased during the daytime while the mass fraction of
364	organics (POA or SOA) varied more weakly. The diurnal variation in SO ₂ precursor
365	also shows this (Fig. S4). The diurnal variation in κ_{gf} for 80–200 nm particles differs
366	from that of 40 nm particles. The differences in κ_{gf} between 80–200 nm particles in
367	the early morning are large but gradually decrease as the sun rises. After 11:00 LT, the
368	κ_{gf} for 80–200 nm particles are similar but lower than that of 40 nm particles,
369	suggesting that the enhanced hygroscopicity in the 80-200 nm particles was likely
370	caused by the condensation of sulfates and secondary organics while that of the 40 nm
371	particles was caused by the growth of the new particles.

372 Figure 6c also shows that the $\kappa_{\rm chem}$ for PM₁ is lower than the $\kappa_{\rm gf}$ for 40–200 373 nm particles and has a weaker diurnal variation. Two reasons may explain this: (1) the bulk chemical compositions of PM_1 and of 40–200 nm particles differ greatly and (2) 374 the ZSR model cannot describe the impact of condensation on aerosol hygroscopicity 375 376 very well. During the daytime, the condensation of sulfuric acid on organics or BC 377 greatly enhances their hygroscopicity (Zhang et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2009). Cruz 378 and Pandis (2000) have shown that the measured κ_{gf} of internally mixed 379 $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ -organic aerosols is larger than the predicted κ_{chem} based on the ZSR model. 380





In summary, the ample supply of effluent SO₂ and VOCs provided sufficient precursors for the strong photochemical reactions at XT during the field experiment, and the produced sulfates and the condensation of sulfuric acid enhanced aerosol hygroscopicity, especially during the day. This also suggests that the observed frequent NPF events were mainly induced by the oxidation of precursors.

386 **4.3.3.** Diurnal variation in CCN number concentration and activation ratio

Figure 7a shows the diurnal variations in $N_{\rm CCN}$ and AR at different SS. In the 387 388 morning, N_{CCN} first decreases then increases while AR shows the opposite trend. This is related to the evolution of the PBL and NPF events. At the initial stage of an NPF 389 event, the newly formed particles are less than 15 nm in size, which is below the 390 391 detection limit of the SMPS. As a result, N_{15-685 nm} decreases (Fig. 6b) as the PBL lifts and N_{CCN} also decreases. However, the mixing of aged particles within the PBL makes 392 the particle size (Fig. 7b) and AR increase slightly. With condensation and the growth 393 of new particles, fine particles detected by the SMPS increase rapidly but a portion of 394 395 them cannot be activated because their smaller size. So $N_{\rm CCN}$ increases but AR decreases from 08:00 LT to 14:00 LT. In the afternoon and evening, N_{CCN} and AR 396 increase slightly with the increase in particle size (Fig. 7b). However, these trends 397 become weaker as SS decreases, likely because the critical diameter is larger at low 398 SS and the influence of aerosol size distribution on N_{CCN} and AR is relatively weaker. 399 This demonstrates that the particle size is the most important factor influencing the 400 aerosol activation ability and the CCN number concentration, especially at larger SS 401





402 levels.

403 4.4. CCN estimation from chemical composition data

The three main factors influencing CCN activation are particle size, mixing state, 404 and chemical composition. As discussed in the above sections, particles are highly 405 internally mixed at XT and particle size has a great influence on N_{CCN} . In this section, 406 a CCN closure study is conducted and the impact of chemical composition on $N_{\rm CCN}$ is 407 discussed. Figure 8a shows estimated N_{CCN} as a function of measured N_{CCN} using 408 real-time κ_{chem} . The estimated N_{CCN} correlates well with measurements ($\mathbb{R}^2 \ge 0.85$) 409 but is generally overestimated. The slope of each linearly fitted line is greater than 410 1.10 and increases with increasing SS. In addition, the relative deviation (RD) 411 412 increases from 16.2 % to 25.2 % as SS increases from 0.13 % to 0.75 %, suggesting that estimates become worse at larger SS. The overestimation of $N_{\rm CCN}$ is mainly 413 caused by large measurement uncertainties of CCNC: (1) the temperature or high flow 414 rates in the CCNC may not allow enough time for particles to reach sizes large 415 enough to be counted by the OPC at the exit of the CCN chamber (Lance et al., 2006; 416 Cubison et al., 2008) and (2) in high particle number concentration environments, 417 water depletion in the CCNC may reduce the counting rate of the CCNC (Deng et al., 418 2011). These uncertainties make measured N_{CCN} lower than the actual N_{CCN} . At larger 419 SS, those activated aerosols in the cloud chamber of CCNC are greater in number and 420 smaller in size, so the impact of these uncertainties is greater. Another discussion 421 about this problem can be found in the supplement (Fig. S5). 422





423	Figure 8b shows estimated $N_{\rm CCN}$ using the mean value for $\kappa_{\rm chem}$ ($\kappa_{\rm chem} = 0.31$).
424	Compared with results using real-time values for $\kappa_{\rm chem}$, the fit parameters and RD
425	change slightly, suggesting that the effect of chemical composition on $N_{\rm CCN}$ is weaker
426	relative to the particle size. The sensitivity of estimated N_{CCN} to the variability in
427	chemical composition (κ_{chem}) is further investigated (Fig. 9). In this figure, the
428	variability of the equipotential lines in RD suggests that the sensitivity of $N_{\rm CCN}$ is
429	strongly time dependent. This is attributed to the variability of the shape of the aerosol
430	size distribution (Juranyi et al., 2010). The sensitivity of $N_{\rm CCN}$ to chemical
431	composition (κ_{chem}) becomes weaker with increasing SS, suggesting that chemical
432	composition becomes less important in $N_{\rm CCN}$ estimates at larger SS. In addition, the
433	RD is always less than 10 % when estimating $N_{\rm CCN}$ using the mean value of $\kappa_{\rm chem}$,
434	suggesting that $\kappa = 0.31$ is a good proxy for chemical composition when estimating
435	N _{CCN} at XT.

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

441 5. Summary and conclusions

The Atmosphere-Aerosol-Boundary Layer-Cloud (A²BC) Interaction Joint
Experiment was carried out at a polluted site located in the central North China Plain





- 444 (NCP) from 1 May to 15 June of 2016. The aerosol hygroscopicity, mixing state and
- 445 CCN activity at the site Xingtai (XT) were investigated in this study.
- In general, the probability density function of the hygroscopicity parameter 446 (κ -PDF) for 40–200 nm particles is a unimodal distribution, which is different from 447 448 distributions at other sites in China. Particles of all sizes cover a large range of κ_{gf} (mostly from 0 to 0.8) and show similar κ -PDF patterns, suggesting that the 449 450 hygroscopic compounds in these particles from 40 nm to 200 nm were similar at XT. 451 The κ -PDF patterns also suggests that the particles were highly aged and internally 452 mixed at XT during the field experiment. This is likely related to strong photochemical reactions. 453

454 The mean κ_{gf} for different particle sizes are larger in the daytime than at night. 455 Daytime and nighttime κ_{gf} differences decrease with increasing particle size. This illustrates that the impact of photochemical reactions on aerosol hygroscopicity was 456 strong and that the effect became weaker as particle sizes increased. The enhanced 457 hygroscopicity of 40-200 nm particles was likely caused by the coating of sulfates or 458 459 secondary organics while the effect was more significant for 40 nm particles. Compared with other sites in China, the aerosol hygroscopicity was much larger at XT 460 because of the strong photochemical reactions and the sufficient precursors. The 461 comparison also shows that the hygroscopicity of particles from different emissions 462 463 and chemical processes differed.

464 New particle formation events occurred frequently at XT during the field 465 experiment. The evolution of the planetary boundary layer (PBL) played a dominant





466	role on the aerosol mass concentration, while particle formation and growth had a
467	greater influence on the variation in the aerosol number concentration. Particle size
468	was the most important factor influencing the aerosol activation ability and the CCN
469	number concentration at XT during the field experiment, especially at larger
470	supersaturations (SS). Although the estimated $N_{\rm CCN}$ correlated well with
471	measurements (R $^2 \ge 0.85$), $N_{\rm CCN}$ was overestimated because of measurement
472	uncertainties. The effect of chemical composition on $N_{\rm CCN}$ was weaker relative to the
473	particle size. Sensitivity tests show that the impact of chemical composition on $N_{\rm CCN}$
474	became weaker as SS increased, suggesting that the effect of chemical composition on
475	$N_{\rm CCN}$ estimates is less important at larger SS. The value $\kappa = 0.31$ is a good proxy for
476	chemical composition when estimating $N_{\rm CCN}$ for the model at XT.

477 Our results show that aerosol properties in the middle of the NCP differ from those in the northern part of the NCP and other regions in China. This is because there 478 are more industrial emissions in the central NCP. The plenitude of gas precursors and 479 strong photochemical reactions at XT make aerosol properties there different from 480 those at sites under other polluted conditions. More field measurements on 481 gas-particle transformation and aerosol properties in this region are needed, which 482 would be meaningful for studying the haze formation mechanism and climate change 483 in the NCP. 484

485

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

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





- 491 Author contribution. Z.L. and Y.W. designed the experiment, Y.W., Y.Z., and W.D.
- 492 carried it out and analyzed the data, other co-authors participated in science discussions
- and suggested analyses. Y.W. prepared the manuscript with contributions from all
- 494 co-authors.
- 495
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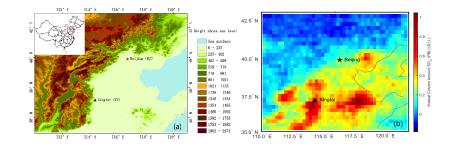
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Table 1. The number fractions of different hygroscopic groups for different particlesizes.

	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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- 697 **Figure 1. (a)** Map showing the locations of the sampling sites and **(b)** the distribution
- 698 of mean SO₂ concentrations from May of 2012 to 2016.

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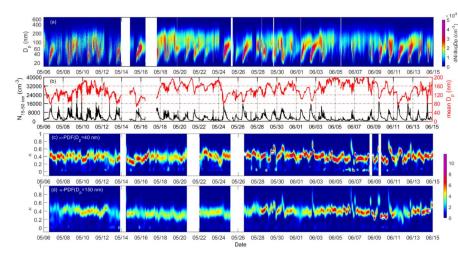


Figure 2. The time series of (a) particle number size distribution (PNSD), (b) aerosol number concentration in the 15–50 nm range ($N_{15-50 \text{ nm}}$) and the mean diameter (D_p), (c) the probability density function of κ_{gf} (κ -PDF) for 40 nm and (d) 150 nm particles from 6 May to 15 June of 2016.

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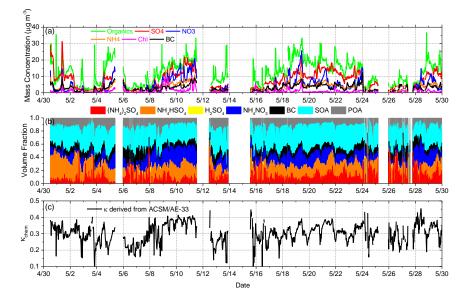
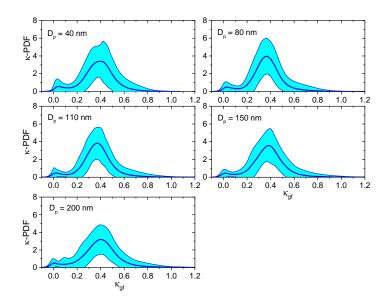


Figure 3. Time series of (a) the bulk mass concentration of aerosol species in PM₁, (b) the volume fractions of POA, SOA, BC, and inorganics with the simplified ion pairing scheme, and (c) the hygroscopicity parameter derived from the chemical compositions (κ_{chem}).







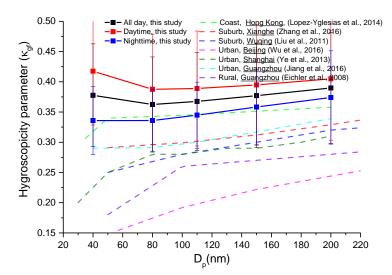
713

Figure 4. Mean probability density functions of κ_{gf} (κ -PDF) for different particle

sizes and their standard deviations (shaded areas) derived from H-TDMA data and

716 measured at RH = 85 %.

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718

719 Figure 5. Size-resolved aerosol hygroscopicity parameter (κ_{gf}) derived from

720 H-TDMA data at XT and at other sites in China.





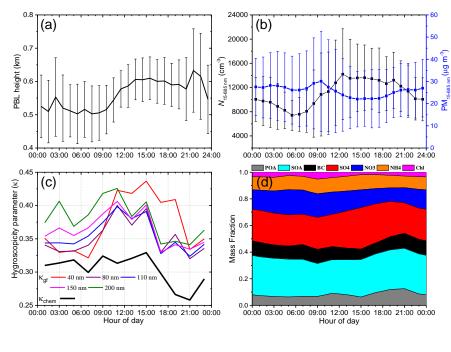
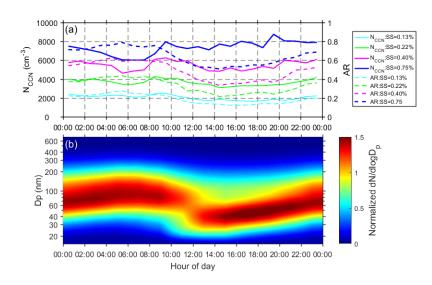


Figure 6. Diurnal variations in (a) planetary boundary layer (PBL) height retrieved from the MPL, (b) aerosol number and mass concentrations in the 15–685 nm range $(N_{15-685 \text{ nm}} \text{ and } PM_{15-685 \text{ nm}}, \text{ respectively})$ derived from the SMPS (an aerosol density of 1.6 g cm⁻³ is assumed), (c) the hygroscopicity parameter derived from the hygroscopic growth factor (κ_{gf}) and predicted from the bulk chemical composition (κ_{chem}), and (d) the mass fractions of different species.

730









732 Figure 7. Diurnal variations in (a) CCN number concentration (N_{CCN}) and activation

ratio (AR), and (b) the normalized aerosol size distribution in the 15-685 nm particle

- 734 size range.
- 735

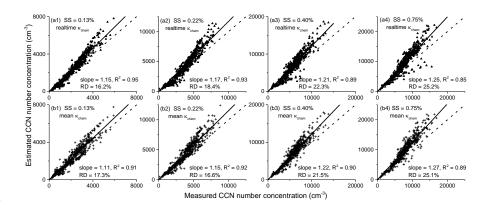


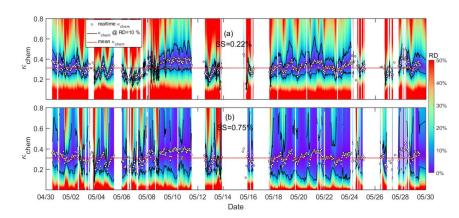


Figure 8. Estimated versus measured CCN number concentration for ambient aerosols at four different supersaturation levels. The $N_{\rm CCN}$ is estimated based on κ -Köhler theory, using the real-time $\kappa_{\rm chem}$ (a1-a4) and the mean $\kappa_{\rm chem}$ (b1-b4). The slope and correlation coefficient (R²) of the linear regression, and the relative





- 742 deviation of estimated N_{CCN} (RD = $|N_{\text{CCN}_\text{estimated}} N_{\text{CCN}_\text{measured}}| / N_{\text{CCN}_\text{measured}}$) are
- shown in each panel. The regression line is overlaid on the measurements (solid line)
- and the dashed line is the 1:1 line.
- 745
- 746



747

Figure 9. Sensitivity of N_{CCN} estimates to κ_{chem} as a function of time at (a) SS = 0.22 % and (b) SS = 0.75 %. The color scale indicates the relative deviation (RD) of the CCN estimates using the κ_{chem} value shown on the ordinate. In each panel, open circles show the real-time κ_{chem} . Note that RD is by definition zero at these points. The black line is κ at RD = 10 % and the red line is the mean value for κ_{chem} (0.31). Figure S6 in the supplement shows the same plots but for SS = 0.13 % and 0.40 %.